

IRIX[®] Device Driver Programmer's Guide

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About This Guide

This guide describes the ways in which hardware devices are integrated into and controlled from a Silicon Graphics computer system running the IRIX operating system version 6.5. These systems include the Origin2000, Onyx2, Origin200, and the OCTANE workstation.

Note: This edition applies only to IRIX 6.5, and discusses only hardware supported by that version. If your device driver will work with a different release or other hardware, you should use the version of this manual appropriate to that release (see “Internet Resources” on page xl for a way to read all versions online).

Three general classes of device-control software exist in an IRIX system: process-level drivers, kernel-level drivers, and STREAMS drivers.

- A process-level driver executes as part of a user-initiated process. An example is the use of the *dslib* library to control a SCSI device from a user program.
- A kernel-level driver is loaded as part of the IRIX kernel and executes in the kernel address space, controlling devices in response to calls to its read, write, and ioctl (control) entry points.
- A STREAMS driver is dynamically loaded into the kernel address space to monitor or modify a stream of data passing between a device and a user process.

All three classes are discussed in this guide, although the greatest amount of attention is given to kernel-level drivers.

What You Need to Know to Write Device Drivers

In order to write a process-level driver, you must be an experienced C programmer with a thorough understanding of the use of IRIX system services and, of course, detailed knowledge of the device to be managed.

In order to write a kernel-level driver or a STREAMS driver, you must be an experienced C programmer who knows UNIX system administration, and especially IRIX system administration, and who understands the concepts of UNIX device management.

Updating Device Drivers From Previous Releases to IRIX 6.5

With the release of IRIX 6.5, the same operating system release runs on all Silicon Graphics supported platforms. The following sections summarize device driver differences between IRIX releases 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, and IRIX release 6.5 to help you port existing drivers to IRIX 6.5:

- “Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.2” on page xxxvi
- “Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.3” on page xxxvii
- “Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.4” on page xxxviii

Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.2

If you are updating a device driver from IRIX 6.2:

- Familiarize yourself with the hardware graph—a new way to map devices that was introduced with IRIX 6.4. Refer to `hwgraph.intro(4)` and Chapter 2 of this guide.
- Note that the SCSI host adapter interface has changed and SCSI drivers should now be written as described in Chapter 16 of this guide.
- Note that the VME driver interface has changed with the Origin and Onyx 2 platforms. See “Porting From IRIX 6.2” on page 369. VME drivers written for Challenge and Onyx platforms under IRIX 6.2 should work without modification under IRIX 6.5 on the same platforms.
- Note that PCI bus support is now a part of IRIX (see Chapter 20, “PCI Device Attachment,” and Chapter 21, “Services for PCI Drivers.”).

- If you are using **poll(0)**, refer to “Entry Point poll()” on page 167 and the poll(D2) reference manual page for the discussion of the **genp** argument.
- Beginning with IRIX 6.4, there is no restriction on which kernel services you can call from driver lower-half code. Refer to “Upper and Lower Halves” on page 70.
- Beginning with IRIX 6.4, there is no special provision for uniprocessor drivers in multiprocessor systems. You can write a uniprocessor-only driver and use it on a uniprocessor workstation but you cannot use the same driver design on a multiprocessor system.
- Mapped driver routines (for example, **v_mapphys**) are now located in *ksys/ddmap.h* (not */sys/region.h*), which also contains some new routines (see *ksys/ddmap.h*).

Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.3

If you are updating a device driver from IRIX 6.3:

- Familiarize yourself with the hardware graph—a new way to map devices that was introduced with IRIX 6.4. Refer to *hwgraph.intro(4)* and Chapter 2 of this guide.
- Note that the SCSI host adapter interface has changed and SCSI drivers should now be written as described in Chapter 16 of this guide.
- Note that PCI drivers will have to be modified to work with the PCI interface as documented in Chapter 20, “PCI Device Attachment,” and Chapter 21, “Services for PCI Drivers” of this guide.
- If you are using **poll(0)**, refer to “Entry Point poll()” on page 167 and the poll(D2) man page for the discussion of the **genp** argument.
- Beginning with IRIX 6.4, there is no restriction on which kernel services you can call from driver lower-half code. Refer to “Upper and Lower Halves” on page 70.
- Beginning with IRIX 6.4, there is no special provision for uniprocessor drivers in multiprocessor systems. You can write a uniprocessor-only driver and use it on a uniprocessor workstation, but you cannot use the same driver design on a multiprocessor system.
- Mapped driver routines (for example, **v_mapphys**) are now located in *ksys/ddmap.h* (not */sys/region.h*) which also contains some new routines (see *ksys/ddmap.h*).

Updating a Device Driver From IRIX 6.4

If you are updating a device driver from IRIX 6.4:

- Note that IRIX 6.5 covers all supported platforms. If you want your driver to support multiple platforms, refer to “Platform Support” on page 256.
- Note that the third-party SCSI drivers are supported as documented in Chapter 16.
- Note that PCI drivers for the O2 platform should be written as described in “PCI Drivers for the O2 (IP32) Platform” on page 732, and user-level PCI drivers should be updated to support the *pciba* interface instead of *usrpci* (see “PCI Programmed I/O” on page 78 of this guide).
- Mapped driver routines (for example, **v_mapphys**) are now located in *ksys/ddmap.h* (not */sys/region.h*), which also contains some new routines (see *ksys/ddmap.h*).
- If you are using **poll()**, refer to “Entry Point poll()” on page 167 and the poll(D2) reference manual page for the discussion of the **genp** argument.
- VME drivers support either the Origin and Onyx2 platforms (refer to Chapter 12 and Chapter 13), or the Challenge and Onyx platforms (refer to Chapter 14 and Chapter 15).

What This Guide Contains

This guide is divided into the following major parts.

- | | |
|--|---|
| Part I, “IRIX Device Integration” | How devices are attached to Silicon Graphics computers, configured to IRIX, and initialized at boot time. |
| Part II, “Device Control From Process Space” | Details of user-level handling of PCI devices and SCSI control using <i>dslib</i> . |
| Part III, “Kernel-Level Drivers” | How kernel-level drivers are designed, compiled, loaded, and tested. Survey of kernel services for drivers. |
| Part IV, “VME Device Drivers” | Kernel-level drivers for the VME bus. |
| Part V, “SCSI Device Drivers” | Kernel-level drivers for the SCSI bus. |
| Part VI, “Network Drivers” | Kernel-level drivers for network interfaces. |

Part VII, "EISA Drivers"	Kernel-level drivers for the EISA bus in Indigo2 workstations.
Part VIII, "GIO Drivers"	Kernel-level drivers for the GIO bus in Indigo2 workstations.
Part IX, "PCI Drivers"	Kernel-level drivers for the PCI bus.
Part X, "STREAMS Drivers"	Design of STREAMS drivers.
Appendix A, "Silicon Graphics Driver/Kernel API"	Summary of kernel functions with compatibility notes.
Appendix B, "Challenge DMA with Multiple IO4 Boards"	VME I/O considerations for Challenge and Onyx systems.

In the printed book, you can locate these parts using the part-tabs printed in the margins. Using IRIS InSight, each part is a top-level division in the clickable table of contents, or you can jump to any part by clicking the blue cross-references in the list above.

Other Sources of Information

Developer Program

Information and support are available through the Silicon Graphics Developer Program. The Developer Toolbox CDROM contains numerous code examples. To join the program, contact the Developer Response Center at (800) 770-3033 or send e-mail to devprogram@sgi.com.

Internet Resources

A great deal of useful material can be found on the Internet. Some starting points are in the following list.

Earlier versions of this book as well as all other Silicon Graphics technical manuals to read or download.	http://techpubs.sgi.com/library/
Silicon Graphics patches, examples, and other material.	ftp://ftp.sgi.com
Network of pages of information about Silicon Graphics and MIPS® products	http://www.sgi.com
Text of all Internet RFC documents.	ftp://ds.internic.net/rfc/
Computer graphics pointers at the UCSC Perceptual Science Laboratory.	http://mambo.ucsc.edu/psl/cg.html
Pointers to binaries and sources at The National Research Council of Canada's Institute For Biodiagnostics.	http://zeno.ibd.nrc.ca:80/~sgi/
A Silicon Graphics "meta page" at the Georgia Institute of Technology College of Computing.	http://www.cc.gatech.edu/services/sgimeta.html
Complete SCSI-2 standard in HTML.	http://scitexdv.com:8080/SCSI2/
IEEE Catalog and worldwide ordering information.	http://standards.ieee.org/index.html
MIPS processor manuals in HTML form.	http://www.mips.com/
Home page of the PCI bus standardization organization	http://www.pcisig.com

Standards Documents

The following documents are the official standard descriptions of buses:

- *PCI Local Bus Specification, Version 2.1*, available from the PCI Special Interest Group, P.O. Box 14070, Portland, OR 97214 (fax: 503-234-6762).
- *ANSI/IEEE standard 1014-1987 (VME Bus)*, available from IEEE Customer Service, 445 Hoes Lane, PO Box 1331, Piscataway, NJ 08855-1331 (but see also "Internet Resources" on page xl).

Important Reference Pages

The following reference pages contain important details about software tools and practices that you need.

alenlist(d4x)	Overview of address/length list functions
getinvent(3)	The interface to the inventory database
hinv(1)	The use of the inventory display command
hwgraph.intro(d4x)	Overview of the hardware graph and kernel functions for it
intro(7)	The conventions used for special device filenames
ioconfig(1M)	The startup program that creates device special files
master(4)	Syntax of files in <i>/var/sysgen/master.d</i>
system(4)	Syntax of files in <i>/var/sysgen/system/*.sm</i>
prom(1)	Commands of the “miniroot” and other features of the boot PROM, which you use to bring up the system when testing a new device driver
udmalib(3)	Functions for performing user-level DMA from VME.
uli(3)	Functions for registering and using a user-level interrupt handler (installs with the REACT/Pro product)
usrvme(7)	Naming conventions for mappable VME device special files

Additional Reading

The following books, obtainable from Silicon Graphics, can be helpful when designing or testing a device driver:

- *MIPSpro Compiling and Performance Tuning Guide*, document number 007-2360-*nnn*, tells how to use the C compiler and related tools.
- *MIPSpro Assembly Language Programmer’s Guide*, document number 007-2418-*nnn*, tells how to compile assembly-language modules.
- *MIPSpro 64-Bit Porting and Transition Guide*, document number 007-2391-*nnn*, documents the implications of the 64-bit execution mode for user programs.
- *MIPSpro N32 ABI Handbook*, document number 007-2816-*nnn*, gives details of the code generated when the **-n32** compiler option is used.

- *Topics in IRIX Programming*, document number 008-2478-*nnn*, documents some of the sophisticated services offered by the IRIX kernel to user-level programs.
- *MIPS R4000 User's Manual* (2nd ed.) by Joe Heinrich, document number 007-2489-001, gives detailed information on the MIPS instruction set and hardware registers for the processor used in many Silicon Graphics computer systems (also available as HTML on <http://www.mips.com/>).
- *MIPS R10000 User's Manual* by Joe Heinrich gives detailed information on the MIPS instruction set and hardware registers for the processor used in certain high-end systems. Available only in HTML form from <http://www.mips.com/>.
- *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation*, document number 007-2859-*nnn*, describes the basic administrative tools for configuring, operating, and tuning IRIX.
- *IRIX Admin: Disks and File Systems*, document number 007-2825-*nnn*, describes the configuration of new disk subsystems and the management of logical volumes and file systems.
- *IRIX Admin: Peripheral Devices*, document number 007-2861-*nnn*, describes the administration of tapes, printers, and other devices.

The following books, obtainable from bookstores or libraries, can also be helpful.

- Lenoski, Daniel E. and Wolf-Dietrich Weber. *Scalable Shared-Memory Multiprocessing*. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers, San Francisco, 1995. ISBN 1-55860-315-8.
- Egan, Janet I., and Thomas J. Teixeira. *Writing a UNIX Device Driver*. John Wiley & Sons, 1992.
- Leffler, Samuel J., et alia. *The Design and Implementation of the 4.3BSD UNIX Operating System*. Palo Alto, California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1989.
- A. Silberschatz, J. Peterson, and P. Galvin. *Operating System Concepts*, Third Edition. Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1991.
- Heath, Steve. *VMEbus User's Handbook*. CRC Press, Inc, 1989. ISBN 0-8493-7130-9.
- *Device Driver Reference, UNIX SVR4.2*, UNIX Press 1992.
- *UNIX System V Release 4 Programmer's Guide*, UNIX SVR4.2. UNIX Press, 1992.
- *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2*, UNIX Press 1992. ISBN 0-13-066879.

Conventions Used in This Guide

Special terms and special kinds of words are indicated with the following typographical conventions:

Data structures, variables, function arguments, and macros.	The <i>dsiovec</i> structure has members <i>iov_base</i> and <i>iov_len</i> . Use the <i>IOVLEN</i> macro to access them.
Kernel and library functions and functions in examples.	When successful, v_mapphys() returns 0.
Driver entry point names that must be completed with a unique prefix string.	The munmap() system function calls the <i>pfxunmap()</i> entry point.
Files and directories.	Device special files are in <i>/dev</i> , and are created using the <i>/dev/MAKEDEV</i> script.
First use of terms defined in the glossary (see "Glossary").	The <i>inode</i> of a <i>device special file</i> contains the <i>major device number</i> .
Literal quotes of code examples.	The SCSI driver's prefix is <code>scsi_</code> .

PART ONE

IRIX Device Integration

Chapter 1, "Physical and Virtual Memory"

An overview of physical memory, virtual address space management, and device addressing in Silicon Graphics/MIPS systems.

Chapter 2, "Device Configuration"

How IRIX locates devices, and how devices are represented in software.

Chapter 3, "Device Control Software"

A survey of the ways in which you can control devices under IRIX, from user-level processes and from kernel-level drivers of different kinds.

Physical and Virtual Memory

This chapter gives an overview of the management of physical and virtual memory in Silicon Graphics systems based on the MIPS R5000 and R10000 processors. The purpose is to give you the background to understand terms used in device driver header files and reference pages, and to understand the limitations and special conventions used by some kernel functions.

This information is only of academic interest if you intend to control a device from a user-level process. (See Chapter 3, “Device Control Software,” for the difference between user-level and kernel-level drivers.) For a deeper level of detail on Origin2000 memory hardware, see the hardware manuals listed under “Additional Reading” on page xli.

The following main topics are covered in this chapter.

- “CPU Access to Memory and Devices” on page 4 summarizes the hardware architecture by which the CPU accesses memory.
- “The 32-Bit Address Space” on page 15 describes the parts of the physical address space when 32-bit addressing is used.
- “The 64-Bit Address Space” on page 19 describes the 64-bit physical address space.
- “Address Space Usage in Origin2000 Systems” on page 25 gives an overview of how physical memory is addressed in the complex architecture of the Origin2000.

CPU Access to Memory and Devices

Each Silicon Graphics computer system has one or more CPU modules. A CPU reads data from memory or a device by placing an address on a system bus, and receiving data back from the addressed memory or device. An address can be translated more than once as it passes through multiple layers of bus adapters. Access to memory can pass through multiple levels of cache.

CPU Modules

A CPU is a hardware module containing a MIPS processor chip such as the R8000, together with system interface chips and possibly a secondary cache. Silicon Graphics CPU modules have model designation of the form *IPnn*; for example, the IP22 module is used in the Indy workstation. The CPU modules supported by IRIX 6.4 are listed in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1 CPU Modules and System Names

Module	MIPS Processor	System Families
IP19	R4x00	Challenge (other than S model), Onyx
IP20	R4x00	Indigo
IP21	R8000	POWER Challenge, POWER Onyx
IP22	R4x00	Indigo, Indy, Challenge S
IP25	R10000	POWER Challenge R10000
IP26	R8000	POWER Indigo
IP27	R10000	Origin2000
IP28	R10000	POWER Indigo ² R10000
IP30	R10000	OCTANE
IP32	R10000	O2

Modules with the same IP designation can be built in a variety of clock speeds, and they can differ in other ways. (For example, an IP27 can have 0, 1 or 2 R10000 modules plugged into it.) Also, the choice of graphics hardware is independent of the CPU model. However, all these CPUs are basically identical as seen from software.

Interrogating the CPU Type

At the interactive command line, you can determine which CPU module a system uses with the command

```
hinv -c processor
```

Within a shell script, it is more convenient to process the terse output of

```
uname -m
```

(See the `uname(1)` and `hinv(1)` reference pages.)

Within a program, you can get the CPU model using the `getinvent()` function. For an example, see “Testing the Inventory In Software” on page 49.

CPU Access to Memory

The CPU generates the address of data that it needs—the address of an instruction to fetch, or the address of an operand of an instruction. It requests the data through a mechanism that is depicted in simplified form in Figure 1-1.

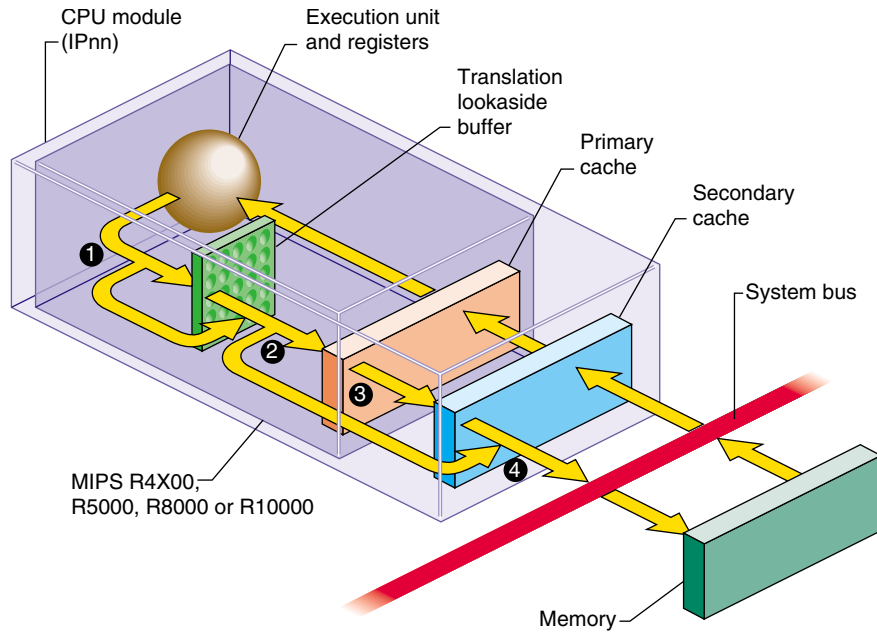


Figure 1-1 CPU Access to Memory

1. The address of the needed data is formed in the processor execution or instruction-fetch unit. Most addresses are then mapped from virtual to real through the Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB). Certain ranges of addresses are not mapped, and bypass the TLB.
2. Most addresses are presented to the *primary cache*, a cache in the processor chip. If a copy of the data with that address is found, it is returned immediately. Certain address ranges are never cached; these addresses pass directly to the bus.
3. When the primary cache does not contain the data, the address is presented to the secondary cache. If it contains a copy of the data, the data is returned immediately. The size and the architecture of the secondary cache differ from one CPU model to another.
4. The address is placed on the system bus. The memory module that recognizes the address places the data on the bus.

The process in Figure 1-1 is correct for an Origin2000 system when the addressed data is in the local node. When the address applies to memory in another node, the address passes out through the connection fabric to a memory module in another node, from which the data is returned.

Processor Operating Modes

The MIPS processor under IRIX operates in one of two modes: kernel and user. The processor enters the more privileged kernel mode when an interrupt, a system instruction, or an exception occurs. It returns to user mode only with a "Return from Exception" instruction.

Certain instructions cannot be executed in user mode. Certain segments of memory can be accessed only in kernel mode, and other segments only in user mode.

Virtual Address Mapping

The MIPS processor contains an array of Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) entries that map, or translate, virtual addresses to physical ones. Most memory accesses are first mapped by reference to the TLB. This permits the IRIX kernel to relocate parts of the kernel's memory and to implement *virtual memory* for user processes. The translation scheme is summarized in the following sections and covered in detail in the hardware manuals listed under "Additional Reading" on page xli.

TLB Misses and TLB Sizes

Each TLB entry describes a segment of memory containing two adjacent *pages*. When the input address falls in a page described by a TLB entry, the TLB supplies the physical memory address for that page. The translated address, now physical instead of virtual, is passed on to the cache, as shown in Figure 1-1 on page 6.

When the input address is not covered by any active TLB entry, the MIPS processor generates a "TLB miss" interrupt, which is handled by an IRIX kernel routine. The kernel routine inspects the address. When the address has a valid translation to some page in the address space, the kernel loads a TLB entry to describe that page, and restarts the instruction.

The size of the TLB is important for performance. The size of the TLB in different processors is shown in Table 1-2.

Table 1-2 Number of TLB Entries by Processor Type

Processor Type	Number of TBL Entries
R4x00	96
R5000	96
R8000	384
R10000	128

Address Space Creation

There are not sufficient TLB entries to describe the entire address space of even a single process. The IRIX kernel creates a page table in kernel memory for each process. The page table contains one entry for each virtual memory page in the address space of that process. Whenever an executing program refers to an address for which there is no current TLB entry, the CPU traps to the TLB miss handler. The handler loads one TLB entry from the appropriate page table entry of the current process, in order to describe the needed virtual address. Then it resumes execution with the failed instruction.

In order to extend a virtual address space, the kernel takes the following two steps.

- It allocates unused page table entries to describe the needed pages. This defines the virtual addresses the pages will have.
- It allocates page frames in memory to contain the pages themselves, and puts their physical addresses in the page table entries.

Address Exceptions

When the CPU requests an invalid address—because the processor is in the wrong mode, or an address does not translate to a valid location in the address space, or an address refers to hardware that does not exist in the system—an addressing exception occurs. The processor traps to a particular address in the kernel.

An addressing exception can also be detected in the course of handling a TLB miss. If there is no page table entry assigned for the desired address, that address is not part of the address space of the process.

When a user-mode process caused the addressing exception, the kernel sends the process a SIGSEGV (see the `signal(5)` reference page), usually causing a segmentation fault. When kernel-level code such as a device driver causes the exception, the kernel executes a “panic,” taking a crash dump and shutting down the system.

CPU Access to Device Registers

The CPU accesses a device register using *programmed I/O* (PIO), a process illustrated in Figure 1-2. Access to device registers is always uncached. It is not affected by considerations of cache coherency in any system (see “Cache Use and Cache Coherency” on page 13).

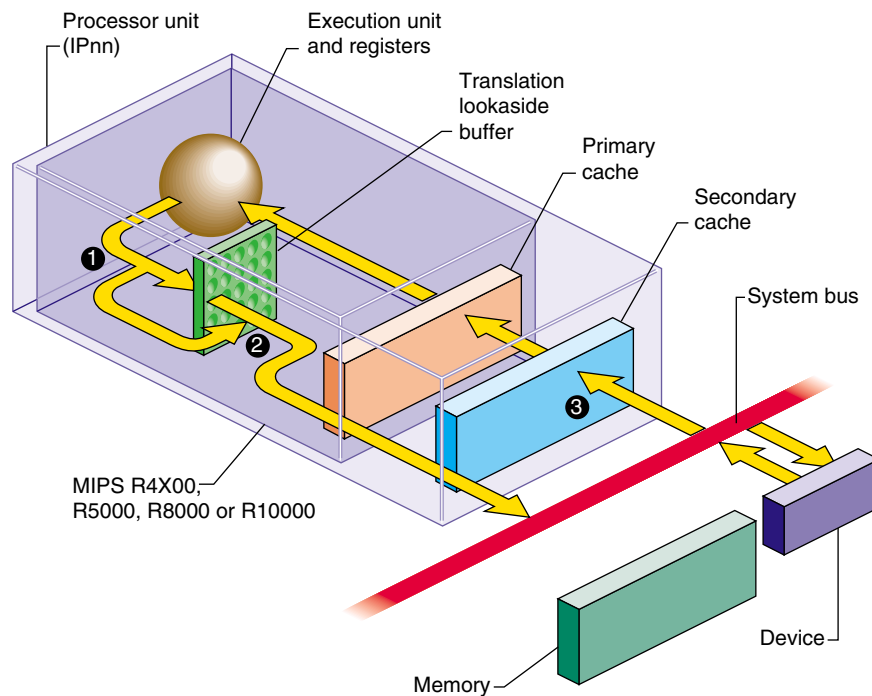


Figure 1-2 CPU Access to Device Registers (Programmed I/O)

1. The address of the device is formed in the Execution unit. It may or may not be an address that is mapped by the TLB.
2. A device address, after mapping if necessary, always falls in one of the ranges that is not cached, so it passes directly to the system bus.
3. The device or bus attachment recognizes its physical address and responds with data.

The PIO process shown in Figure 1-2 is correct for an Origin2000 system when the addressed device is attached to the same node. When the device is attached to a different node, the address passes through the connection fabric to that node, and the data returns the same way.

Direct Memory Access

Some devices can perform *direct memory access* (DMA), in which the device itself, not the CPU, reads or writes data into memory. A device that can perform DMA is called a *bus master* because it independently generates a sequence of bus accesses without help from the CPU.

In order to read or write a sequence of memory addresses, the bus master has to be told the proper physical address range to use. This is done by storing a bus address and length into the device's registers from the CPU. When the device has the DMA information, it can access memory through the system bus as shown in Figure 1-3.

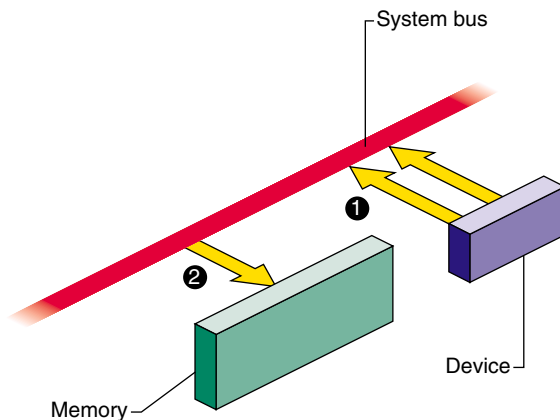


Figure 1-3 Device Access to Memory

1. The device places the next physical address, and data, on the system bus.
2. The memory module stores the data.

In a Origin2000 system, the device and the memory module can be in different nodes, with address and data passing through the connection fabric between nodes.

When a device is programmed with an invalid physical address, the result is a bus error interrupt. The interrupt is taken by some CPU that is enabled for bus error interrupts. These interrupts are not simple to process for two reasons. First, the CPU that receives the interrupt is not necessarily the CPU from which the DMA operation was programmed. Second, the bus error can occur a long time after the operation was initiated.

PIO Addresses and DMA Addresses

Figure 1-3 is too simple for some devices that are attached through a bus adapter. A bus adapter connects a bus of a different type to the system bus, as shown in Figure 1-4.

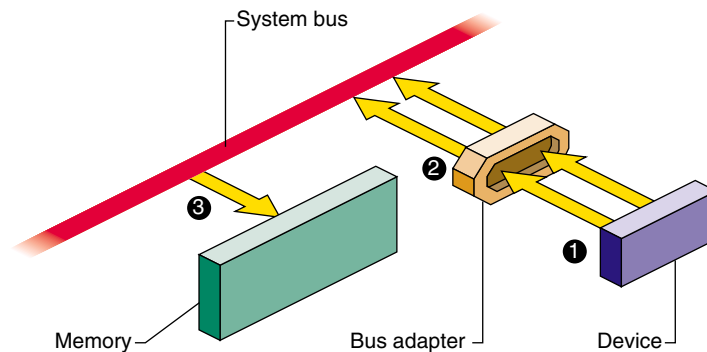


Figure 1-4 Device Access Through a Bus Adapter

For example, the PCI bus adapter connects a PCI bus to the system bus. Multiple PCI devices can be plugged into the PCI bus and use the bus to read and write. The bus adapter translates the PCI bus protocol into the system bus protocol. (For details on the PCI bus adapter, see Part IX, “PCI Drivers.”)

Each bus has address lines that carry the address values used by devices on the bus. These bus addresses are not related to the physical addresses used on the system bus. The issue of bus addressing is made complicated by three facts:

- Bus-master devices independently generate memory-read and memory-write commands that are intended to access system memory.
- The bus adapter can translate addresses between addresses on the bus it manages, and different addresses on the system bus it uses.
- The translation done by the bus adapter can be programmed dynamically, and can change from one I/O operation to another.

This subject can be simplified by dividing it into two distinct subjects: PIO addressing, used by the CPU to access a device, and DMA addressing, used by a bus master to access memory. These addressing modes need to be treated differently.

PIO Addressing

Programmed I/O (PIO) is the term for a load or store instruction executed by the CPU that names an I/O device as its operand. The CPU places a physical address on the system bus. The bus adapter repeats the read or write command on its bus, but not necessarily using the same address bits as the CPU put on the system bus.

One task of a bus adapter is to translate between the physical addresses used on the system bus and the addressing scheme used within the proprietary bus. The address placed on the target bus is not necessarily the same as the address generated by the CPU. The translation is done differently with different bus adapters and in different system models.

In some older Silicon Graphics systems, the translation was hard-wired. For a simple example, the address translation from the Indigo2 system bus to the EISA bus was hardwired, so that, for example, CPU access to a physical address of 0x0000 4010 was always translated to location 0x0010 in the I/O address space of EISA slot 4.

With the more sophisticated PCI and VME buses, the translation is dynamic. Both of these buses support bus address spaces that are as large or larger than the physical address space of the system bus. It is impossible to hard-wire a translation of the entire bus address space.

In order to use a dynamic PIO address, a device driver creates a software object called a PIO map that represents that portion of bus address space that contains the device

registers the driver uses. When the driver wants to use the PIO map, the kernel dynamically sets up a translation from an unused part of physical address space to the needed part of the bus address space. The driver extracts an address from the PIO map and uses it as the base for accessing the device registers. PIO maps are discussed in Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2,” and in Chapter 20, “PCI Device Attachment.”

DMA Addressing

A bus-master device on the PCI or VME bus can be programmed to perform transfers to or from memory independently and asynchronously. A bus master is programmed using PIO with a starting bus address and a length. The bus master generates a series of memory-read or memory-write operations to successive addresses. But what *bus* addresses should it use in order to store into the proper *memory* addresses?

The bus adapter translates the addresses used on the proprietary bus to corresponding addresses on the system bus. Considering Figure 1-4, the operation of a DMA device is as follows:

1. The device places a bus address and data on the PCI or VME bus.
2. The bus adapter translates the address to a meaningful physical address, and places that address and the data on the system bus.
3. The memory modules stores the data.

The translation of bus virtual to physical addresses is done by the bus adapter and programmed by the kernel. A device driver requests the kernel to set up a dynamic mapping from a designated memory buffer to bus addresses. The map is represented by a software object called a DMA map.

The driver calls kernel functions to establish the range of memory addresses that the bus master device will need to access—typically the address of an I/O buffer. When the driver activates the DMA map, the kernel sets up the bus adapter hardware to translate between some range of bus addresses and the desired range of memory space. The driver extracts from the DMA map the starting bus address, and (using PIO) programs that bus address into the bus master device.

Cache Use and Cache Coherency

The primary and secondary caches shown in Figure 1-1 [on page 6](#) are essential to CPU performance. There is an order of magnitude difference in the speed of access between

cache memory and main memory. Execution speed remains high only as long as a very high proportion of memory accesses are satisfied from the primary or secondary cache.

The use of caches means that there are often multiple copies of data: a copy in main memory, a copy in the secondary cache (when one is used) and a copy in the primary cache. Moreover, a multiprocessor system has multiple CPU modules like the one shown, and there can be copies of the same data in the cache of *each* CPU.

The problem of *cache coherency* is to ensure that all cache copies of data are true reflections of the data in main memory. Different Silicon Graphics systems use different hardware designs to achieve cache coherency.

In most cases, cache coherence is achieved by the hardware, without any effect on software. In a few cases, specialized software, such as a kernel-level device driver, must take specific steps to maintain cache coherency.

Cache Coherency in Multiprocessors

Multiprocessor systems have more complex cache coherency protection because it is possible to have data in multiple caches. In a multiprocessor system, the hardware ensures that cache coherency is maintained under all conditions, including DMA input and output, without action by the software. However, in some systems the cache coherency hardware works correctly only when a DMA buffer is aligned on a cache-line-sized boundary. You ensure this by using the `KM_CACHEALIGN` flag when allocating buffer space with `kmem_alloc()` (see “Kernel Memory Allocation” on page 203 and the `kmem_alloc(D3)` reference page).

Cache Coherency in Uniprocessors

In some uniprocessor systems, it is possible for the CPU cache to have newer information than appears in memory. This is a problem only when a bus master device is going to perform DMA. If the bus master reads memory, it can get old data. If it writes memory, the input data can be destroyed when the CPU writes the modified cache line back to memory.

In systems where this is possible, a device driver calls a kernel function to ensure that all cached data has been written to memory prior to DMA output (the `dki_dcache_wb(D3)` reference page). The device driver calls a kernel function to ensure that the CPU receives the latest data following a DMA input (see the `dki_dcache_inval(D3)` reference page). In a multiprocessor these functions do nothing, but it is always safe to call them.

The 32-Bit Address Space

The MIPS processors can operate in one of two address modes: 32-bit and 64-bit. The choice of address mode is independent of other features of the instruction set architecture such as the number of available registers and the precision of integer arithmetic. For example, programs compiled to the n32 binary interface use 32-bit addresses but 64-bit integers. The implications for user programs are documented in manuals listed under “Additional Reading” on page xli.

The addressing mode can be switched dynamically; for example, the IRIX kernel can operate with 64-bit addresses, but the kernel can switch to 32-bit address when it dispatches a user program that was compiled for that mode. The 32-bit address space is the range of all addresses that can be used when in 32-bit mode. This space is discussed first because it is simpler and more familiar than the 64-bit space.

Segments of the 32-bit Address Space

When operating in 32-bit mode, the MIPS architecture uses addresses that are 32-bit unsigned integers from 0x0000 0000 to 0xFFFF FFFF. However, this address space is not uniform. The MIPS hardware divides it into segments, and treats each segment differently. The ranges are shown graphically in Figure 1-5.

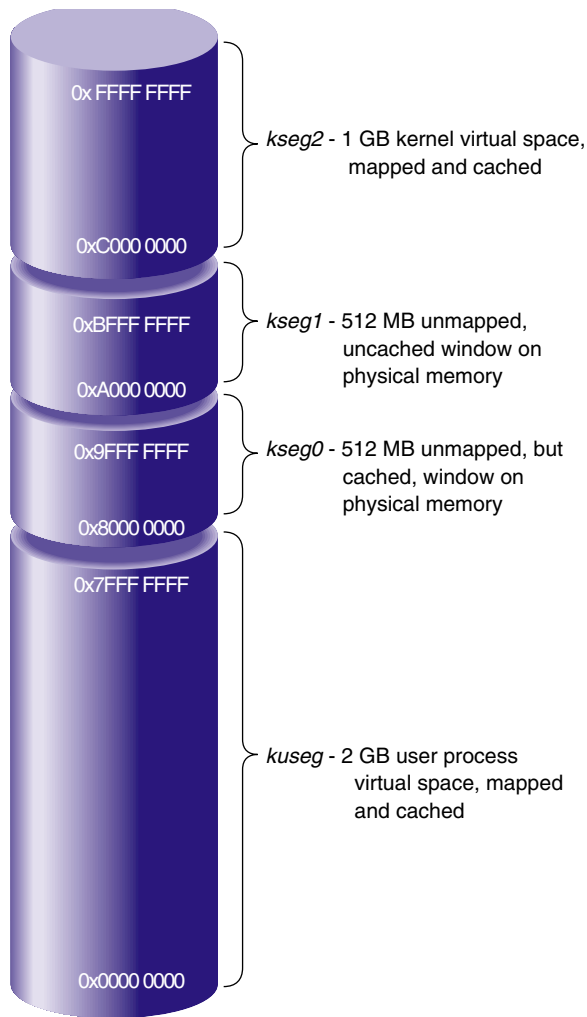


Figure 1-5 The 32-Bit Address Space

The address segments differ in three characteristics:

- whether access to an address is mapped; that is, passed through the translation lookaside buffer (TLB)
- whether an address can be accessed when the CPU is operating in user mode or in kernel mode

- whether access to an address is cached; that is, looked up in the primary and secondary caches before it is sent to main memory

Virtual Address Mapping

In the mapped segments, each 32-bit address value is treated as shown in Figure 1-6.

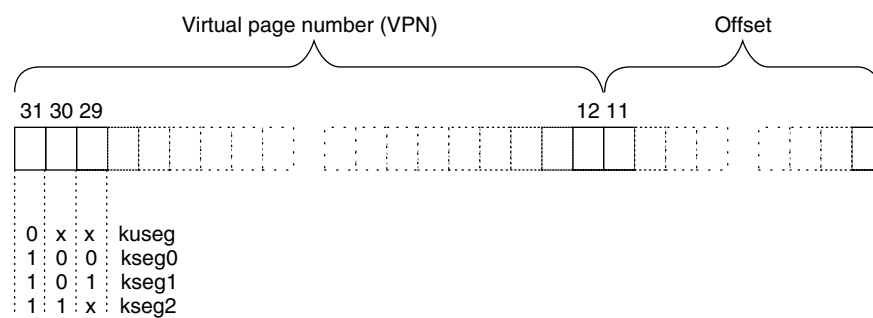


Figure 1-6 MIPS 32-Bit Virtual Address Format

The three most significant bits of the address choose the segment among those drawn in Figure 1-5. When bit 31 is 0, bits 30:12 select a *virtual page number* (VPN) from 2^{19} possible pages in the address space of the current user process. When bits 31:30 are 11, bits 29:12 select a VPN from 2^{18} possible pages in the kernel virtual address space.

User Process Space—*kuseg*

The total 32-bit address space is divided in half. Addresses with a most significant bit of 0 constitute the 2 GB user process space. When executing in user mode, only addresses in *kuseg* are valid; an attempt to use an address with bit 31=1 causes an addressing exception.

Access to *kuseg* is always mapped through the TLB. The kernel creates a unique address space for each user process. Of the 2^{19} possible pages in an address space, most are typically unassigned—few processes ever occupy more than a fraction of *kuseg*—and many are shared pages of program text from dynamic shared objects (DSOs) that are mapped into the address space of every process that needs them.

Kernel Virtual Space—*kseg2*

When bits 31:30 are 11, access is to kernel virtual memory. Only code that is part of the kernel can access this space. References to this space are translated through the TLB. The kernel uses the TLB to map kernel pages in memory as required, possibly in noncontiguous locations. Although pages in kernel space are mapped, they are always associated with real memory. Kernel memory is never paged to secondary storage.

This is the space in which the IRIX kernel allocates such objects as stacks, user page tables, and per-process data that must be accessible on context switches. This area contains automatic variables declared by loadable device drivers. It is the space in which kernel-level device drivers allocate memory. Since kernel space is mapped, addresses in *kseg2* that are apparently contiguous need not be contiguous in physical memory. However, a device driver can allocate space that is both logically and physically contiguous, when that is required (see for example the `kmem_alloc(D3)` reference page).

Cached Physical Memory—*kseg0*

When address bits 31:29 contain 100, access is directed to physical memory through the cache. If the addressed location is not in the cache, bits 28:0 are placed on the system bus as a physical memory address, and the data presented by memory or a device is returned. *kseg0* contains the exception address to which the MIPS processor branches it when it detects an exception such as an addressing exception or TLB miss.

Since only 29 bits are available for mapping physical memory, only 512 MB of physical memory space can be accessed through this segment in 32-bit mode. Some of this space must be reserved for device addressing. It is possible to gain cached access to wider physical addresses by mapping through the TLB into *kseg2*, but systems that need access to more physical memory typically run in 64-bit mode (see “Cache-Controlled Physical Memory—`xkphys`” on page 23).

Uncached Physical Memory—*kseg1*

When address bits 31:29 contain 101, access is directly to physical memory, bypassing the cache. Bits 28:0 are placed on the system bus for memory or device transfer.

The kernel refers to *kseg1* when performing PIO to devices because loads or stores from device registers should not pass through cache memory. The kernel also uses *kseg1* when operating on certain data structures that might be *volatile*. Kernel-level device drivers

sometimes need to write to uncached memory, and must take special precautions when doing so (see “Uncached Memory Access in the IP26 and IP28” on page 33).

Portions of *kseg0* or *kseg1* can be mapped into *kuseg* by the **mmap()** function. This is covered at more length under “Memory Use in User-Level Drivers” on page 31.

The 64-Bit Address Space

The 64-bit mode is an upward extension of 32-bit mode. All MIPS processors from the R4000 on support 64-bit mode. However, this mode was not used in Silicon Graphics software until IRIX 6.0 was released.

Segments of the 64-Bit Address Space

When operating in 64-bit mode, the MIPS architecture uses addresses that are 64-bit unsigned integers from 0x0000 0000 0000 0000 to 0xFFFF FFFF FFFF FFFF. This is an immense span of numbers—if it were drawn to a scale of 1 millimeter per terabyte, the drawing would be 16.8 kilometers long (just over 10 miles).

The MIPS hardware divides the address space into segments based on the most significant bits, and treats each segment differently. The ranges are shown graphically in Figure 1-7. These major segments define only a fraction of the 64-bit space. Most of the possible addresses are undefined and cause an addressing exception (segmentation fault) if used.

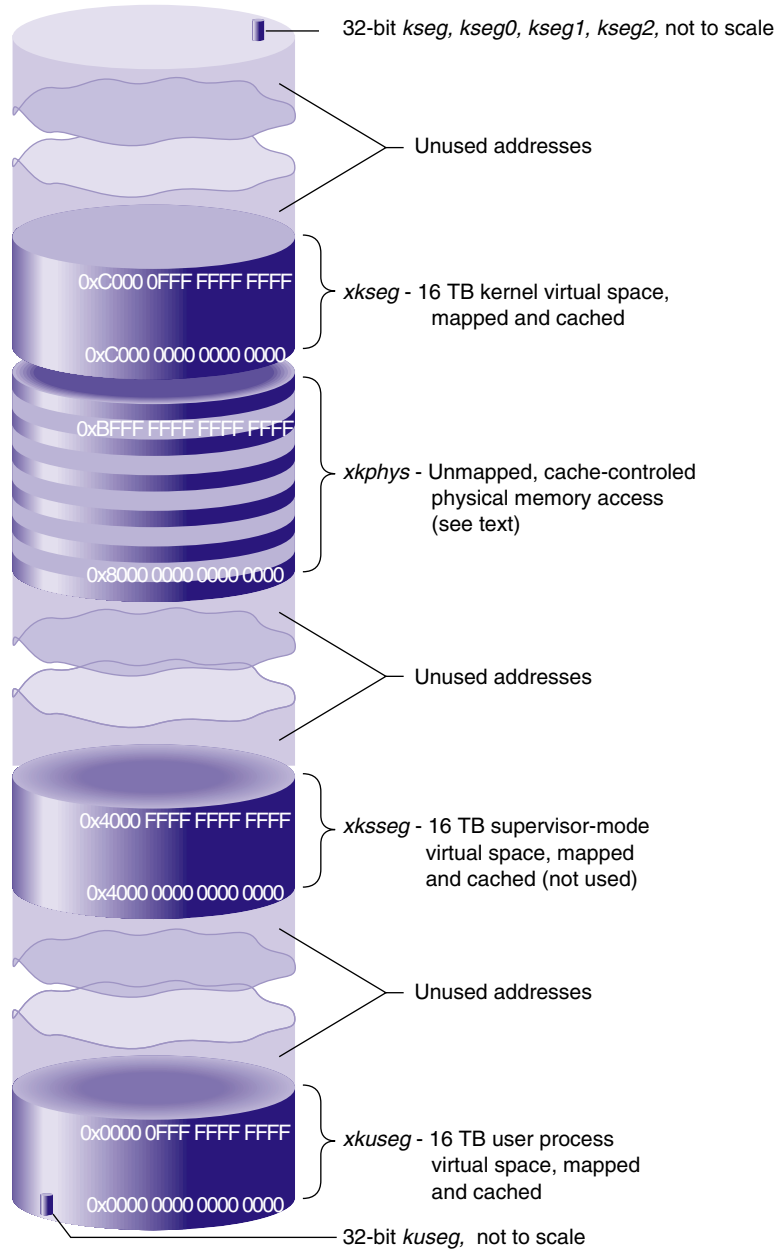


Figure 1-7 Main Parts of the 64-Bit Address Space

As in the 32-bit space, these major segments differ in three characteristics:

- whether access to an address is mapped; that is, passed through the translation lookaside buffer (TLB)
- whether an address can be accessed when the CPU is operating in user mode or in kernel mode.
- whether access to an address is cached; that is, looked up in the primary and secondary caches before it is sent to main memory

Compatibility of 32-Bit and 64-Bit Spaces

The MIPS-3 instruction set (which is in use when the processor is in 64-bit mode) is designed so that when a 32-bit instruction is used to generate or to load an address, the 32-bit operand is automatically sign-extended to fill the high-order 32 bits.

As a result, any 32-bit address that falls in the user segment *kuseg*, and which must have a sign bit of 0, is extended to a 64-bit integer with 32 high-order 0 bits. This automatically places the 32-bit *kuseg* in the bottom of the 64-bit *xkuseg*, as shown in Figure 1-7.

A 32-bit kernel address, which must have a sign bit of 1, is automatically extended to a 64-bit integer with 32 high-order 1 bits. This places all kernel segments shown in Figure 1-5 at the extreme top of the 64-bit address space. However, these 32-bit kernel spaces are not used by a kernel operating in 64-bit mode.

Virtual Address Mapping

In the mapped segments, each 64-bit address value is treated as shown in Figure 1-8.

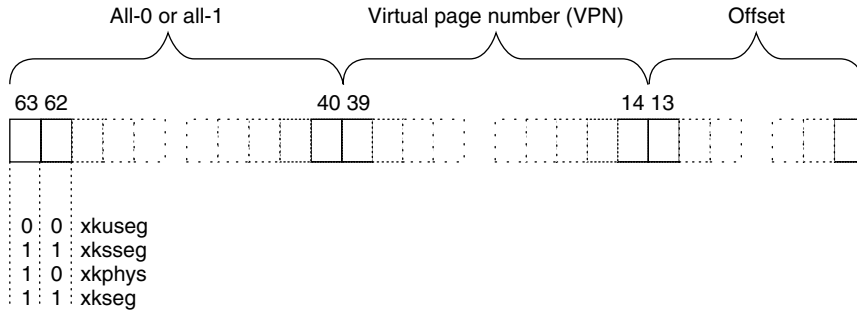


Figure 1-8 MIPS 64-Bit Virtual Address Format

The two most significant bits select the major segment (compare these to the address boundaries in Figure 1-7). Bits 61:40 must all be 0. (In principle, references to 32-bit kernel segments would have bits 61:40 all 1, but these segments are not used in 64-bit mode.)

The size of a page of virtual memory can vary from system to system and release to release, so always determine it dynamically. In a user-level program, call the **getpagesize()** function (see the `getpagesize(2)` reference page). In a kernel-level driver, use the **ptob()** kernel function (see the `ptob(D3)` reference page) or the constant `NBPP` declared in `sys/immu.h`.)

When the page size is 16 KB, bits 13:0 of the address represent the offset within the page, and bits 39:14 select a VPN from the 2^{26} , or 64 M, pages in the virtual segment..

User Process Space—*xkuseg*

The first 16 TB of the address space are devoted to user process space. Access to *xkuseg* is always mapped through the TLB. The kernel creates a unique address space for each user process. Of the 2^{26} possible pages in a process’s address space, most are typically unassigned, and many are shared pages of program text from dynamic shared objects (DSOs) that are mapped into the address space of every process that needs them.

Supervisor Mode Space—*xksseg*

The MIPS architecture permits three modes of operation: user, kernel, and supervisor. When operating in kernel or supervisor mode, the 2 TB space beginning at `0x4000 0000 0000 0000` is accessible. IRIX does not employ the supervisor mode, and does not use *xksseg*. If *xksseg* were used, it would be mapped and cached.

Kernel Virtual Space—*xkseg*

When bits 63:62 are 11, access is to kernel virtual memory. Only code that is part of the kernel can access this space, a 2 TB segment starting at 0xC000 0000 0000 0000. References to this space are translated through the TLB, and cached. The kernel uses the TLB to map kernel pages in memory as required, possibly in noncontiguous locations. Although pages in kernel space are mapped, they are always associated with real memory. Kernel pages are never paged to secondary storage.

This is the space in which the IRIX kernel allocates such objects as stacks, per-process data that must be accessible on context switches, and user page tables. This area contains automatic variables declared by loadable device drivers. It is the space in which kernel-level device drivers allocate memory. Since kernel space is mapped, addresses in *kseg2* that are apparently contiguous need not be contiguous in physical memory. However, a device driver can allocate space that is both logically and physically contiguous, when that is required (see for example the `kmem_alloc(D3)` reference page).

Cache-Controlled Physical Memory—*xkphys*

One-quarter of the 64-bit address space—all addresses with bits 63:62 containing 10—are devoted to special access to one or more 1 TB physical address spaces. Any reference to the other spaces (*xkuseg* and *xkseg*) is transformed by the TLB into a reference to *xkphys*. Addresses in this space are interpreted as shown in Figure 1-9.

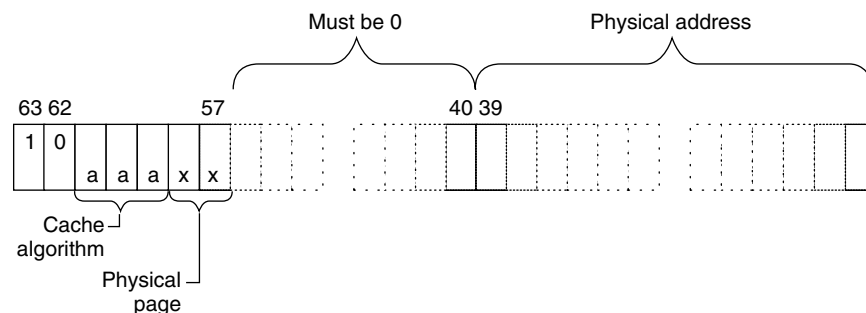


Figure 1-9 Address Decoding for Physical Memory Access

Bits 39:0 select a physical address in a 1 TB range. Bits 57:40 must always contain 0. Bits 61:59 select the hardware cache algorithm to be used. The only values defined for these bits are summarized in Table 1-3.

Table 1-3 Cache Algorithm Selection

Address 61:59	Algorithm	Meaning
010	Uncached	This is the 64-bit equivalent of <i>kseg1</i> in 32-bit mode—uncached access to physical memory.
110	Cacheable coherent exclusive on write	This is the 64-bit equivalent of <i>kseg0</i> in 32-bit mode—cached access to physical memory, coherent access in a multiprocessor.
011	Cacheable non-coherent	Data is cached; on a cache miss the processor issues a non-coherent read (one without regard to other CPUs).
100	Cacheable coherent exclusive	Data is cached; on a read miss the processor issues a coherent read exclusive.
101	Cacheable coherent update on write	Same as 110, but updates memory on a store hit in cache.
111	Uncached Accelerated	Same as 010, but the cache hardware is permitted to defer writes to memory until it has collected a larger block, improving write utilization.

Only the 010 (uncached) and 110 (cached) algorithms are implemented on all systems. The others may or may not be implemented on particular systems.

Bits 58:57 must be 00 unless the cache algorithm is 010 (uncached) or 111(uncached accelerated). Then bits 58:57 can in principle be used to select four other properties to qualify the uncached operation. These bits are first put to use in the Origin2000 system, described under “Uncached and Special Address Spaces” on page 25.

It is not possible for a user process to access either *xkphys* or *xkseg*; and not possible for a kernel-level driver to access *xkphys* directly. Portions of *xkphys* and *xkseg* can be mapped to user process space by the **mmap(0)** function. This is covered in more detail under “Memory Use in User-Level Drivers” on page 31. Portions of *xkphys* can be accessed by a driver using DMA-mapping and PIO-mapping functions (see “PIO Addresses and DMA Addresses” on page 11).

Address Space Usage in Origin2000 Systems

An Origin2000 system contains one or more nodes. Each node can contain one or two CPUs as well as up to 2 GB of memory. There is a single, flat, address space that contains all memory in all nodes. All memory can be accessed from any CPU. However, a CPU can access memory in its own node in less time than it can access memory in a different node.

The node hardware provides a variety of special-purpose access modes to make kernel programming simpler. These special modes are described here at a high level. For details refer to the hardware manuals listed in “Additional Reading” on page xli. These special addressing modes are a feature of the Origin2000 node hardware, not of the R10000 CPU chip. As such they are available only in the Origin2000 and Origin200 systems.

User Process Space and Kernel Virtual Space

Virtual addresses with bits 63:62 containing 00 are references to the user process address space. The kernel creates a virtual address space for each user process as described before (see “Virtual Address Mapping” on page 7). The Origin2000 architecture adds the complication that the location of a page, relative to the location where the process executes, has an effect on the performance of the process. The kernel uses a variety of strategies to locate pages of memory in the same node as the CPU that is running the process.

Kernel virtual addresses (in which bits 63:62 contain 11) are mapped as already described (see “Kernel Virtual Space—*xkseg*” on page 23). Certain important data structures may be replicated into each node for faster access.

The stack and data areas used by device drivers are in *xkseg*. A driver has the ability to request memory allocation in a particular node, in order to make sure that data about a device is stored in the same node where the device is attached and where device interrupts are taken (see “Kernel Memory Allocation” on page 203).

Uncached and Special Address Spaces

A physical address in *xkphys* (bits 63:62 contain 10) has different meanings depending on the settings of bits 61:57 (see Figure 1-9 and Table 1-3). In the Origin2000 architecture, these bits are interpreted by the memory control circuits of the node, external to the CPU.

The possibilities are listed in Table 1-4. Some are covered in more detail in following topics.

Table 1-4 Special Address Spaces in Origin2000

Address 61:59 (Algorithm)	Address 58:57	Meaning
110 (cached)	n.a.	Cached access to physical memory
010 (uncached)	00	Node special memory areas including directory cache, ECC, PROM, and other node hardware locations..
010 (uncached)	01	I/O space: addresses that can be mapped into the address space of any bus adapter.
010 (uncached)	10	Synchronization access to memory.
010 (uncached)	11	Uncached access to physical memory.

Cached Access to Physical Memory

When the CPU emits a translated virtual address with bits 63:62 containing 10 and bits 61:59 specifying cached access, the address is a cached reference to physical memory. When the referenced location is not contained in the secondary cache, it is fetched from memory in the node that contains it. This is the normal outcome of the translation of a user or kernel virtual address through the TLB.

The actual address is the physical address in bits 39:0, interpreted as shown in Figure 1-10.

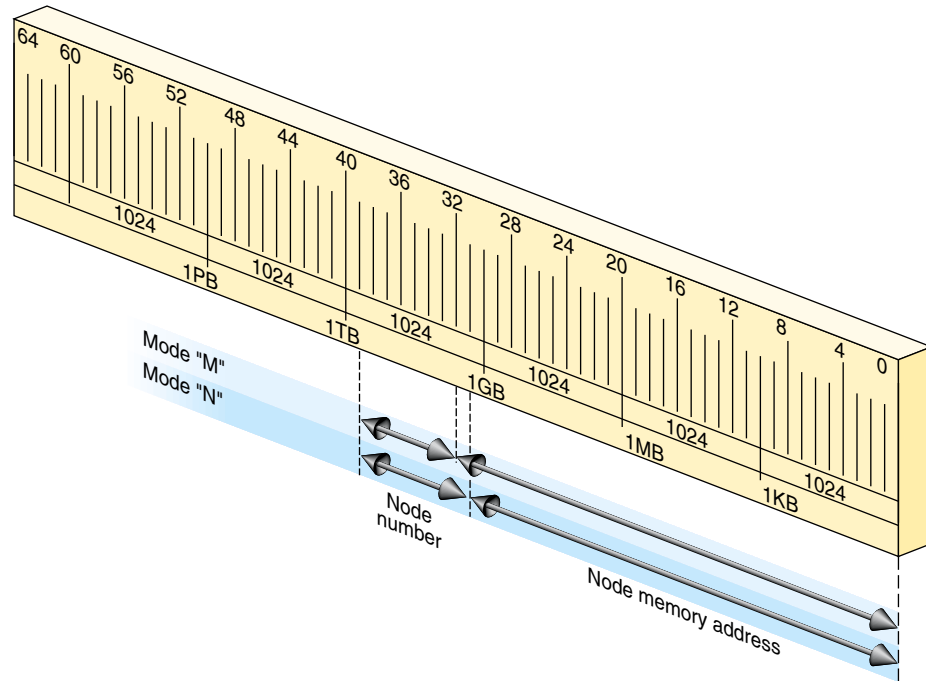


Figure 1-10 Origin2000 Physical Address Decoding

The node hardware can operate in either of two modes, called 'M' and 'N.'

Mode 'M' Bits 39:32 select one of 256 nodes. Remaining bits select an address in as much as 4 GB of memory in that node.

Mode 'N' Bits 39:31 select one of 512 nodes. Remaining bits select an address in as much as 2 GB of memory in that node.

Either mode places the memory that is part of each node in a flat address space with a potential size of 1 TB. All locations are accessed in the same way—there is a single address space for the entire system. For example, the memory that is part of node 1 begins at 0x0000 0001 0000 0000 (in mode 'M') or 0x0000 0000 8000 0000 (in mode 'N').

The node hardware implements one special case: addresses in the range 0-63 MB (0 through 0x0000 0000 03ff ffff) are always treated as a reference to the current node. In effect, the current node number is logically ORed with the address. This allows trap handlers and other special code to refer to node-specific data without having to know the number of the node in which they execute.

Uncached Access to Memory

A physical address in *xkphys* (bits 63:62 contain 10) that has the uncached algorithm (bits 61:59 contain 010) always bypasses the secondary cache. An address of this form can access physical memory in either of two ways.

When bits 58:57 contain 11, the address bits 39:0 are decoded as shown in Figure 1-10. In this mode there is no aliasing of addresses in the range 0-63 MB to the current node; the node number must be given explicitly.

However, when bits 58:57 contain 00, an address in the range 0-768 MB is interpreted as uncached access to the memory in the current node. In effect, the node number is ORed into the address. Also in this mode, access to the lowest 64 KB is swapped between the two CPUs in a node. CPU 0 access to addresses 0x0 0000 through 0x1 ffff is directed to those addresses. But CPU 1 access to 0x0 0000 goes to 0x1 0000, and access to 0x1 0000 goes to 0x0 0000—reversing the use of the first two 64 KB blocks. This helps trap handlers that need quick access to a 64 KB space that is unique to the CPU.

Synchronization Access to Memory

An uncached physical address with bits 58:57 containing 10 is an atomic fetch-and-modify access. Bits 39:6 select a memory unit of 64 bytes (half a cache line) and bits 5:3 select an operation, as shown in Figure 1-11.

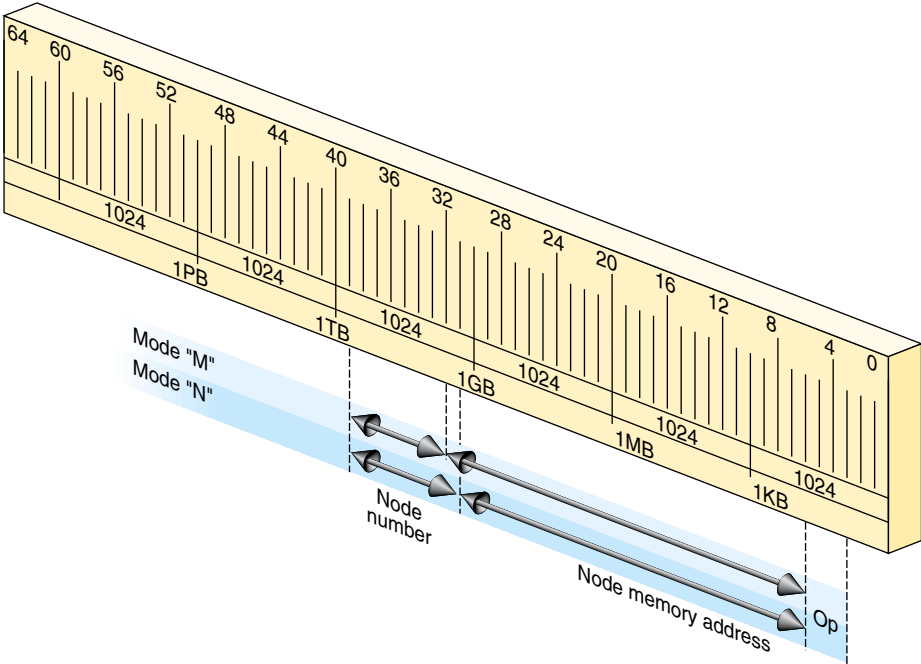


Figure 1-11 Origin2000 Fetch-and-Op Address Decoding

The first word or doubleword (depending on the instruction being executed) of the addressed unit is treated as shown in Table 1-5.

Table 1-5 Origin2000 Fetch-and-Op Operations

Instruction	Address 5:3	Operation
Load	000	An uncached read of the location.
Load	001	Fetch-and-increment: the old value is fetched and the memory value is incremented.
Load	010	Fetch-and-decrement: the old value is fetched and the memory value is decremented.
Load	011	Fetch-and-zero: the old value is returned and zero is stored.
Store	000	An uncached store of the location.

Table 1-5 (continued) Origin2000 Fetch-and-Op Operations

Instruction	Address 5:3	Operation
Store	001	Increment: the memory location is incremented.
Store	010	Decrement: the memory location is decremented.
Store	011	AND: memory data is ANDed with the store data.
Store	100	OR: memory data is ORed with the store data.

These are atomic operations; that is, no other CPU can perform an interleaved operation to the same 64-byte unit. The kernel can use this addressing mode to implement locks and other synchronization operations. A user-level library is also available so that normal programs can use these facilities when they are available; see the `fetchop(3)` reference page.

Device Driver Use of Memory

Memory use by device drivers is simpler than the details in this chapter suggest. The primary complication for the designer is the use of 64-bit addresses, which may be unfamiliar.

Allowing for 64-Bit Mode

You must take account of a number of considerations when porting an existing C program to an environment where 64-bit mode is used, or might be used. This can be an issue for all types of drivers, kernel-level and user-level alike. For detailed discussion, see the *MIPSpro 64-Bit Porting and Transition Guide* listed on page xli.

The most common problems arise because the size of a pointer and of a long int changes between a program compiled with the `-64` option and one compiled `-32`. When you use pointers, longs, or types derived from longs, in structures, the field offsets differ between the two modes.

When all programs in the system are compiled to the same mode, there is no problem. This is the case for a system in which the kernel is compiled to 32-bit mode: only 32-bit user programs are supported. However, a kernel compiled to 64-bit mode executes user programs in 32-bit or 64-bit mode. A structure prepared by a 32-bit program—a structure

passed as an argument to `ioctl()`, for example—does not have fields at the offsets expected by a 64-bit kernel device driver. For more on this specific problem, see “Handling 32-Bit and 64-Bit Execution Models” on page 182.

The basic strategy to make your code portable between 32-bit and 64-bit kernels is to be extremely specific when declaring the types of data. You should almost never declare a simple “int” or “char.” Instead, use a data type that is explicit as to the precision and the sign of the variable. The header files `sgidefs.h` and `sys/types.h` define type names that you can use to declare structures that always have the same size. The type `__psint_t`, for example, is an integer the same size as a pointer; you can use it safely as alias for a pointer. Similarly, the type `__uint32_t` is guaranteed to be an unsigned, 32-bit, integer in all cases.

Memory Use in User-Level Drivers

When you control a device from a user process, your code executes entirely in user process space, and has no direct access to any of the other spaces described in this chapter.

Depending on the device and other considerations, you may use the `mmap()` function to map device registers into the address space of your process (see the `mmap(2)` reference page). When the kernel maps a device address into process space, it does it using the TLB mechanism. From `mmap()` you receive a valid address in process space. This address is mapped through a TLB entry to an address in segment that accesses uncached physical memory. When your program refers to this address, the reference is directed to the system bus and the device.

Portions of kernel virtual memory (`kseg0` or `xkseg`) can be accessed from a user process. Access is based on the use of device special files (see the `mem(7)` reference page). Access is done using two models, a device model and a memory map model.

Access Using a Device Model

The device special file `/dev/mem` represents physical memory. A process that can open this device can use `lseek()` and `read()` to copy physical memory into process virtual memory. If the process can open the device for output, it can use `write()` to patch physical memory.

The device special file `/dev/kmem` represents kernel virtual memory (`kseg0` or `xkseg`). It can be opened, read and written similarly to `/dev/mem`. Clearly both of these devices should have file permissions that restrict their use even for input.

Access Using `mmap()`

The `mmap()` function allows a user process to map an open file into the process address space (see the `mmap(2)` reference page). When the file that is mapped is `/dev/mem`, the process can map a specified segment of physical memory. The effect of `mmap()` is to set up a page table entry and TLB entry so that access to a range of virtual addresses in user space is redirected to the mapped physical addresses in cached physical memory (`kseg0`) or the equivalent segment of `xkphys`.

The `/dev/kmem` device, representing kernel virtual memory, cannot be used with `mmap()`. However, a third device special, `/dev/mmem` (note the double “m”), represents access to only those addresses that are configured in the file `/var/sysgen/master.d/mem`. As distributed, this file is configured to allow access to the free-running timer device and, in some systems, to graphics hardware.

For an example of mapped access to physical memory, see the example code in the `syssgi(2)` reference page related to the `SGL_QUERY_CYCLECNTR` option. In this operation, the address of the timer (a device register) is mapped into the process’s address space using a TLB entry. When the user process accesses the mapped address, the TLB entry converts it to an address in `kseg1/xkphys`, which then bypasses the cache.

Mapped Access Provided by a Device Driver

A kernel-level device driver can provide mapped access to device registers or to memory allocated in kernel virtual space. An example of such a driver is shown in Part III, “Kernel-Level Drivers.”

Memory Use in Kernel-Level Drivers

When you control a device from a kernel-level driver, your code executes in kernel virtual space. The allocation of memory for program text, local (stack) variables, and static global variables is handled automatically by the kernel. Besides designing data structures so they have a consistent size, you have to consider these special cases:

- dynamic memory allocation for data and for buffers
- transferring data between kernel space and user process space
- getting addresses of device registers to use for PIO

The kernel supplies utility functions to help you deal with each of these issues, all of which are discussed in Chapter 8, “Device Driver/Kernel Interface.”

Uncached Memory Access in Origin2000 and in Challenge and Onyx Series

Access to uncached memory is not supported in these systems, in which cache coherency is maintained by the hardware, even under access from CPUs and concurrent DMA. There is never a need (and no approved way) to access uncached memory in these systems.

Uncached Memory Access in the IP26 and IP28

The IP26 CPU module is used in the Silicon Graphics Power Indigo2 workstation and the Power Challenge M workstation. Both are deskside workstations using the R8000 processor chip. These remarks also apply to the IP28 CPU used in the Power Indigo2 R10000 workstation. In these machines, extra care must be taken in cache management.

Cache Invalidation and Writeback

When an I/O device is going to perform DMA input to memory, the device driver must invalidate any cached copies of the buffer that will receive the data. If this is not done, the CPU could go on using the “stale” data in the cache, ignoring the input data placed in memory by the device. This is done by calling the **dki_dcachel_inval()** function to invalidate the range of addresses where DMA input is planned.

In the IP28 CPU, the delayed and speculative execution features of the R10000 processor make it necessary for the driver to invalidate the cache twice: once before initiating the DMA input, and once again immediately after DMA ends.

Before initiating DMA output, the driver must force all cached data to memory by calling **dki_dcachel_wb()**. This ensures that recent data in the cache is also present in memory before the device begins to access memory. The use of both these functions is discussed further under “Managing Memory for Cache Coherency” on page 219.

Cache invalidation is handled automatically when you use the **userdma()** and **undma()** functions to lock memory for DMA (see “Setting Up a DMA Transfer” on page 216).

Program Access to Uncached Memory

The Indigo2 systems use ECC memory (error-correcting code memory, which can correct for single-bit errors on the fly). ECC memory is also used in large multiprocessor systems from Silicon Graphics, where it has no effect on performance.

In the IP26 and IP28, although ECC memory has no impact on the performance of normal, cached memory access, uncached access can be permitted only when the CPU is placed in a special, “slow” access mode.

A device driver may occasionally need to write directly to uncached memory (although it is better to write to cached memory and then use **dki_dcach_wb()**). Before doing so, the driver must put the CPU in “slow” mode by calling the function **ip26_enable_ucmem()**. As soon as the uncached store is complete, return the system to “fast” mode by calling **ip26_return_ucmem()**. (See the ip26_ucmem(D3) reference page.) While the CPU is in “slow” mode, several clock cycles are added to every memory access, so do not keep it in “slow” mode any longer than necessary.

These functions can be called in any system. They do nothing unless the CPU is an IP26 or IP28.

Device Configuration

This chapter discusses how IRIX represents devices to software, and how it establishes the inventory of available hardware.

This information is essential when your work involves attaching a new device or a new class of devices to IRIX. The information is helpful background material when you intend to control a device from a user-level process.

The following primary topics are covered in this chapter.

- “Device Special Files” on page 36 describes the traditional UNIX method of representing a device as a special kind of file, and defines such important terms as major and minor device number.
- “Hardware Graph” on page 42 describes the internal database of devices and its external representation as the */hw* filesystem.
- “Hardware Inventory” on page 48 describes the interface to the hardware inventory database through the *hinvt* command and **getinvent()** function.
- “Configuration Files” on page 55 summarizes the files used for system generation and kernel configuration.

In addition to the discussion here, you can find the system administrator’s perspective on these issues in the books *IRIX Admin: Disks and Filesystems* and *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Tuning*.

Device Special Files

A device is represented in a UNIX system as a *device special file* in a certain directory (historically, the */dev* directory). Beginning with IRIX 6.4 the implementation of device special files has been changed and expanded, but the basic purpose—to treat a device as a special case of a file—is not changed.

Devices as Files

A device special file consists of a filename and access permissions, but no associated disk data. The access permissions, owner ID, and group ID of the file control whether the file can be opened. A device special file can be used like a regular file in most IRIX commands; for example, a device file can be the target of a symbolic link, the destination of redirected input or output, authorized by *chmod*, and so on. A process opens a device by passing the pathname of the device special file to the **open()** function (see the *open(2)* reference page).

Historically, a device special file contained three items of information about a device:

Block or Character	A flag showing which of two types of access, block or character, applies to this device.
Major device number	A numeric code for the device driver that controls this device.
Minor device number	A number passed to the device driver to distinguish this device from others of the same type.

The device numbers are no longer relevant, but the distinction between block and character access still exists. To display the details of all block and character devices in a system using the */hw* filesystem (described under “Hardware Graph” on page 42) use a command such as the following:

```
find /hw \( -type c -o -type b \) -exec ls -l {} \; | more
```

Block and Character Device Access

IRIX supports two classes of device. A *block device* such as a disk drive transfers data in fixed size blocks between the device and memory, and usually has some ability to reposition the medium so as to read or write the same data again. The driver for a block device typically has to manage buffering, and it is free to schedule I/O operations in a different sequence than they are requested.

A *character device* such as a printer accepts or returns data as a stream of bytes, and usually acts as a sink or source of data—the medium cannot be repositioned and read again. The driver for a character device typically transfers data as soon as it is requested and completes one operation before accepting another request. Character devices are also called *raw* devices, because their input is not buffered.

The two kinds of devices are supported by two different kinds of kernel-level device drivers, block and character drivers. The two kinds of drivers are expected to offer different kinds of service. For example, a block device driver is expected to provide a “strategy” entry point where it schedules asynchronous, buffered, transfers of data in units of 512 bytes. A character device driver is expected to provide read and write entry points that synchronously transfer any quantity of data from 1 byte upward.

Some device drivers offer both kinds of access. In particular, the disk device drivers support block-type access to data partitions of the disk, and character-type read/write access to the disk volume header.

Multiple Device Names

When a single device is accessed in different modes, the device is described by multiple device special files. Each device special file represents one way of accessing the device. Some reasons for using multiple names are as follows:

- By convention, UNIX system supply certain default device names, and this is done by creating extra symbolic links. For example, the default device */dev/tapens* is a link to the first device file in */dev/rmt/**.
- When a device supports both block and character modes of access, there is a separate device special file for each mode. For example, the following (edited) pathnames provide block and character access to one partition of a SCSI device:

```
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0/block  
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0/char
```
- When a device can be treated as independent, logical partitions, each partition is given an independent device special file name, although the device is the same in each case. The following (edited) pathnames provide block access to, respectively, an entire disk volume, partition 0 (root), partition 1 (swap), and the volume header (label) of the same disk:

```
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume/block  
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0/block  
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/1/block  
/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume_header/block
```

- When a device needs different treatment at different times, it can have one device special file for each kind of treatment. The following pathnames all provide access to the identical tape drive. The user can open a different name for each combination of byte-swapped and non-byte-swapped I/O with fixed or variable record lengths:

```
/hw/tape/tps0d3stat  
/hw/tape/tps0d3s  
/hw/tape/tps0d3sc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrs  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrsc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3ns  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nsc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3  
/hw/tape/tps0d3c  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrns  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrnsc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nr  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3sv  
/hw/tape/tps0d3svc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrsv  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrsvc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nsv  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nsvc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3v  
/hw/tape/tps0d3vc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrnsv  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrnsvc  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrsv  
/hw/tape/tps0d3nrvc
```

Major Device Number

The *major device number* was, in traditional UNIX architecture, a numeric key that related a device special file to the device driver that managed it. When special file was opened, IRIX selected the driver to handle the device based on the major device number. In the newer */hw* filesystem, a different means is used. The major number is no longer relevant.

The major number in all device special files in */hw* is always 0. The device special files in */hw* are created dynamically, by the device drivers, as the devices are attached. The identity of the device driver is stored in the device special files at this time, but not as a number. When a process opens a device special file in */hw* (or a name in */dev* that is a symbolic link to */hw*), the kernel can tell directly which driver to call.

Minor Device Number

In conventional UNIX, and in versions of IRIX previous to IRIX 6.4, a *minor device number* was encoded in the device special file and was passed to the device driver. The major and minor numbers were passed together in an integer called a *dev_t*. The driver could extract the minor device number by passing the *dev_t* value to the `getemisor()` function.

Historical Use of Minor Number

Prior to IRIX 6.4, the minor device number served as an argument to help the device driver distinguish one device from another. Many devices can have the same major number and be serviced by the same driver. Using the minor number, the driver could distinguish the particular device being serviced.

Some device drivers treated the minor device number as a logical unit number, while other drivers used it to contain multiple, encoded bit fields. For example:

- The IRIX tape device driver used the minor device number to encode the options for rewind or no-rewind, byte-swap or nonswap, and fixed or variable blocking, along with the logical unit number.
- The IRIX disk device drivers encoded the disk partition number into the minor device number along with a disk unit number.
- Both disk and tape devices encoded the SCSI adapter number in the minor number.

With STREAMS drivers, the minor device number can be chosen arbitrarily during a CLONE open—see “Support for CLONE Drivers” on page 774.

Present Use of Minor Numbers

Beginning with IRIX 6.4, the minor device number has little importance because the driver has a direct way to distinguish each device and its special needs, through the hardware graph (see “Hardware Graph” on page 42.)

The minor number in device special files in */hw* is an arbitrary integer with no relation to the device itself. The device special files in */hw* are created dynamically, by the device drivers, as the devices are attached. The device driver stores any information it needs to distinguish one device from another, directly in the device special file itself. When a process opens a device special file in */hw* (or a name in */dev* that is a symbolic link to */hw*), the driver can retrieve the information directly, without needing to decode the minor number.

Creating Conventional Device Names

Starting with IRIX 6.4, there is a complete filesystem, */hw*, that is devoted to device special files. However, the use of */hw* is both new and unique to IRIX. For the sake of compatibility, the conventional device special files in the */dev* filesystem that are used in UNIX systems generally and in previous release of IRIX are retained. This topic describes these conventional names. See also “*/hw* Filesystem” on page 46.

Many device special files are created automatically at boot time by execution of the script */dev/MAKEDEV*. Additional device special files can be created with administrator commands.

IRIX Conventional Device Names

Conventions for the format of device special filenames are spelled out in the following reference pages: *intro(7)*, *dks(7)*, *dsreq(7)*, and *tps(7)*. For example, the components of a disk device name in */dev/dsk* include

- dks***c* Constant prefix “dks” followed by bus adapter number *c*.
- d***u* Constant letter “d” followed by disk SCSI ID number *u*.
- l***n* Optionally, letter “l” (ell) and logical unit number *n* (used only when disk *u* controls multiple drives).
- sp** or **vh** or **vol** Constant letter “s” and partition number *p*, or else “vh” for volume header, or “vol” for (entire) volume.

Programs throughout the system rely on the conventions for these device names. In addition, by convention the associated major and minor numbers agree with the names. For example, the logical unit and partition numbers that appear in a disk name are also encoded into the minor number.

Beginning with IRIX 6.4, these highly-compressed conventional names are unpacked into longer pathnames in the */hw* filesystem. However, the older, encoded names in */dev* are retained for compatibility and portability.

The Script MAKEDEV

The conventions for all the IRIX device special names are written into the script */dev/MAKEDEV*. This is a make file, but unlike most make files, it is not used to compile executable programs. It contains the logic to prepare device special names and their associated major and minor numbers and file permissions.

The MAKEDEV script is executed during IRIX startup from a script in */etc/rc2.d*. It is executed after all device drivers have been initialized, so it can use the output of the *hinv* command to construct device names to suit the actual configuration.

The system administrator can invoke MAKEDEV to construct device special files. Administrator use of MAKEDEV is described in *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation*.

Making Conventional Device Files

You or a system administrator can create device special files explicitly using the commands *mknod* or *install*. Either command can be used in a make file such as you might create as part of the installation script for a product.

For details of these commands, see the *install(1)* and *mknod(1M)* reference pages, and *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation*. The following is a hypothetical example of *install*:

```
# install -m 644 -u root -g sys -root /dev -chr 62,0
```

The *-chr* option specifies a character device, and *62,0* are the major and minor device numbers, respectively.

Tip: The *mknod* command is portable, being used in most UNIX systems. The *install* command is unique to IRIX, and has a number of features and uses beyond those of *mknod*. Examples of both can be found by reading */dev/MAKEDEV*.

Hardware Graph

Conventional UNIX software is designed based on the assumption that the computer has only a small, fixed set of peripheral devices under undemanding reliability constraints. IRIX 6.5 is designed to handle a system with a large complement of devices that changes dynamically, under high demands for reliable uptime. To meet the new requirements, IRIX introduces the *hwgraph* (hardware graph) to represent devices, and the */hw* filesystem as the externally visible form of the hwgraph.

UNIX Hardware Assumptions, Old and New

Historically, UNIX was designed to support small computer systems that were administered by the same group of people that used them. When there are only a few, or a few dozen, peripheral devices, it is acceptable to:

- Represent all devices as brief names in the */dev* filesystem
- Use a limited range of major device numbers to specify all possible device drivers
- Use an 18-bit integer (the minor device number) as the sole parameter to represent a device's identify and access mode
- Leave the details of device addressing to be specified in configuration files or by hard-coding in the source of device drivers.

When devices are only rarely added to or removed from the system, it is acceptable to require that the administrator shut the system down, modify a configuration file, and reboot, in order to remove or add a device. When the system has a small number of tolerant users, it is acceptable to shut the system down and restart it to make small changes in the I/O configuration.

All of these assumptions are challenged by the kinds of large-scale systems that can be built using the Silicon Graphics Origin2000 architecture.

- It is possible to build very large Origin2000 systems with many independent nodes, each with a number of attached devices.
- Because of the rich possibilities for interconnecting Origin2000 nodes, the topology of a Origin2000 system can be complex, with devices addressed by lengthy paths, and sometimes with multiple possible paths from a CPU to a device.

- The hardware configuration of a Origin2000 system can change dynamically while the system runs, by adding and removing entire nodes, or single buses, or single cards on a PCI bus.
- Origin2000 is designed to be the basis of systems that are available a very high percentage of the time, on which frequent or casual reboots are not allowed.

In this environment it is no longer acceptable to require downtime on any change, nor to require the administrator to issue detailed commands or to edit configuration files to make simple changes. Previous release of IRIX addressed some of these points through the MAKEDEV script (see “The Script MAKEDEV” on page 41), which creates device special files automatically for many types of hardware.

IRIX 6.4 moves away from the conventional UNIX model by creating the hwgraph, and by requiring all kernel-level device drivers to maintain the hwgraph as devices are attached and detached.

Hardware Graph Features

The hwgraph is an in-memory, graph-structured database that describes all hardware units that are addressable by the system. For a very concise overview of the hwgraph, see the hwgraph(4) reference page.

Hwgraph Nomenclature

“In-memory” means that the hwgraph is contained in kernel memory. It is reconstructed dynamically in memory each time the system boots up, and is kept current in memory as the hardware configuration changes.

“Graph-structured” means that the hwgraph is topologically a directed graph, consisting of a set of “vertexes” (points) that represent devices, and “edges” (lines) that connect the vertexes. Each edge is a one-way linkage from a source vertex to a target vertex (this is the definition of a directed graph). Each edge has a label, a character string that names the edge. A small part of a typical hwgraph is depicted in Figure 2-1.

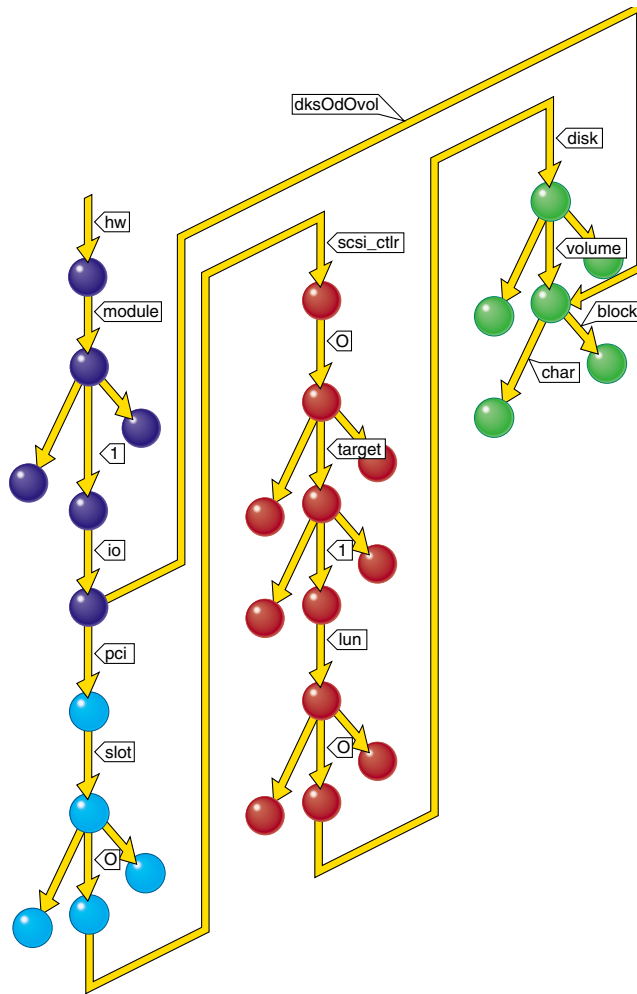


Figure 2-1 Part of a Typical Hwgraph

Figure 2-1 shows the part of the graph that represents block-mode and character-mode access to the whole-volume partition of a disk. The more familiar path notation for the same graph would be as follows:

```

/hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume/char
/hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume/block
/hw/module/1/io/dks0d0vol/block
/hw/module/1/io/dks0d0vol/char
    
```


Figure 2-1 is color-coded to show when the parts of graph are built:

- The parts of the hwgraph that are built by the kernel during bootup are shown in black.
- The parts shown in red are built by the PCI bus adapter as it probes the bus.
- The parts in magenta are built by the host adapter driver for the SCSI controller, to reflect the addressable units on the SCSI bus.
- The parts shown in green are built by the disk device driver as it attaches the disk—including a shorthand link from `/hw/module/1/io` to the volume vertex.

Properties of Edges and Vertexes

An edge in the hwgraph originates in one vertex (the source vertex) and points to another vertex (the target vertex). The only property of an edge is its label.

A vertex in the hwgraph stores information about an addressable unit of hardware in the system. A vertex can contain the following kinds of information:

- A pointer to an information structure supplied by the device driver.
- One or more *inventory_t* objects, representing information to be reported out by the *hinv* command (see the *hinv(1)* reference page).
- One or more labelled attributes, containing information that can be reported out by the *attr* command (see the *attr(1)* reference page).
- One or more labelled attributes that are not exported for availability by *attr*.
- The edges leading out of this vertex.

Not all vertexes have all this information.

Additional Edges

The basic hwgraph—as constructed by the kernel and by built-in drivers such as the PCI bus adapter—is highly detailed and explicit, and is generally tree-structured. However, kernel-level drivers are free to add edges between any two vertexes. A driver can add extra edges in order to provide short-circuit paths for convenient access to vertexes deep in the hwgraph.

Many device drivers distributed with IRIX create convenience vertexes and edges; and device drivers provided by OEMs are welcome to do so as well. One problem is that often a driver needs to label a convenience edge with a unique number—a controller number, a port number, or a line number of some kind. At the time a driver is initializing and creating vertexes, the total hardware complement is not known and it is impossible to decide which number of this kind to use. This problem is alleviated by a program like `ioconfig`; see “Using `ioconfig` for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51.

Implicit Edges

Every vertex has one implicit edge with the label “..” which leads back to a parent vertex. Every vertex has one implicit edge with the label “.” which leads to the vertex itself. This is deliberately the same convention used in a filesystem, where every directory contains “..” and “.” entries. No other edges are required.

A vertex that has only the implicit edges is a leaf vertex. A leaf vertex can stand for a device, so that a user process can name a leaf vertex in an `open()` call in order to open the device. A user process cannot open a non-leaf vertex, just as a process cannot open a directory as a file.

/hw Filesystem

The `/hw` filesystem is a visible reflection of the `hwgraph`. The `/hw` filesystem is a filesystem, on a par with an EFS or XFS filesystem, but of a different type. It is built dynamically (it has no disk contents) and changes to reflect changes in the `hwgraph`. (You can compare the `/hw` filesystem to another artificial, dynamic filesystem, `/proc`, which is an externally visible representation of the currently executing user processes.)

Any user can navigate the `/hw` filesystem using commands such as `cd`, `ls`, `find`, and `file`. Users can browse the `/hw` filesystem to discover the hardware configuration. Names in the `/hw` filesystem have access permissions that are applied in the same way as in other filesystems. Pathnames beginning `/hw` can be used wherever other filesystem pathnames are used, and in particular,

- A process can use a `/hw` pathname with the `open()` function to open a device.
- An `/hw` pathname can be used to construct a symbolic link.

The use of symbolic links to */hw* paths is important. All the device special filenames that are conventionally expected to exist in */dev* are implemented by creating symbolic links from */dev* to */hw*. Here is a typical link:

```
lrwxr-xr-x  1 root    sys          13 Aug  6 11:23 /dev/root ->
/hw/disk/root
```

However, a symbolic link is not a perfect alias. Links are given special treatment by commands such as *ls*, *tar*, and *chmod*; and by the system function **stat()** on which the commands are based (see the *stat(2)* reference page). What is needed is a way to make a functional alias for a device special file under a different name. That is supplied by *mknod*.

Driver Interface to Hwgraph

A kernel-level device driver can make use of a variety of kernel functions for examining and modifying the hwgraph. These functions are covered in detail in “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221. The kernel offers functions by which a driver can:

- Traverse the hwgraph, following edges by name from vertex to vertex.
- Create new vertexes.
- Create new edges from existing vertexes to new vertexes.
- Set, change, or retrieve the address of driver-defined data from a vertex.
- Add hardware inventory data to a vertex.
- Set, change, retrieve or remove labelled attributes, and specify whether the attributes should be accessible to the *attr* command or not.
- Remove edges and destroy vertexes.

Some device drivers do not have to perform these functions, but most kernel-level drivers do need to create at least a few edges and vertexes to provide access to devices. Vertexes are typically created when the driver is called at its **pfxattach()** entry point (driver entry points are covered in detail in Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver.”) Vertexes are typically destroyed when the driver is called at its **pfxdetach()** entry point.

Hardware Inventory

In IRIX previous to IRIX 6.4, during bootstrap, each device driver probed the hardware attachments for which it was responsible, and added information to a hardware inventory table. The kernel maintained a hardware inventory table in kernel virtual memory. The table could be queried by users and by programs.

Beginning with IRIX 6.4, what was once a simple table of devices has expanded into the hwgraph ("Hardware Graph" on page 42). Device drivers create the hardware inventory by adding vertexes to the hwgraph. However, existing programs continue to query the hardware inventory using the old programming interface, as well as new ones.

Using the Hardware Inventory

The hardware inventory is used by users, administrators, and programmers.

Contents of the Inventory

Using database terminology, the hardware inventory consists of a single table with the following columns:

Class	A code for the class of device; for example, audio, disk, processor, or network.
Type	A code for the type of device within its class; for example, FPU and CPU types within the processor class.
Controller	When applicable, the number of the controller, board, or attachment.
Unit	When applicable, the logical unit or device within a Controller number.
State	A descriptive number, such as the CPU model number.

Of these values,

- The Class and Type are arbitrary codes that are defined in */usr/include/invent.h*. Only the defined codes can be interpreted by the *hinv* command.
- The Controller and Unit are small integers. The *hinv* command formats them based the Class code. For example, when Class is INV_DISK, *hinv* might report "Disk drive: unit 4 on SCSI controller 56." When Class is INV_NETWORK and Type is INV_NET_ETHER, *hinv* might report "Integral Ethernet controller: et2, Ebus slot 11."

- The Controller number is used to distinguish between identical controllers. The device driver can assign a controller number when it attaches inventory data to a device vertex; or the controller numbers can be assigned dynamically at boot time, as discussed under “Using ioconfig for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51.

Displaying the Inventory with *hinv*

The *hinv* command formats all or selected rows of the inventory table for display (see the *hinv(1)* reference page), translating the numbers to readable form. The user or system administrator can use command options to select a class of entries or certain specific device types by name. The class or type can be qualified with a unit number and a controller number. For example,

```
hinv -c disk -b 1 -u 4
```

displays information about disk 4 on controller 1.

You can use *hinv* to check the result of installing new hardware. The new hardware should show up in the report after the system is booted following installation, provided that the associated device driver was called and was written correctly.

A full inventory report (*hinv -mv*) is almost mandatory documentation for a software problem report, either submitted by your user to you, or by you to Silicon Graphics.

Testing the Inventory In Software

Within a shell script, you can test the output of *hinv* most conveniently in the command exit status. The command sets exit status of 0 when it finds or reports any items. It sets status of 1 when it finds no items. The code in Example 2-1 could be used in a shell script to test the existence of a disk controller.

Example 2-1 Testing the Hardware Inventory in a Shell Script

```
if hinv -s -c disk -b 1;  
then ;  
else echo No second disk controller;  
fi ;
```

You can access the inventory table in a C program using the functions documented in the `getinvent(3)` reference page. The only access method supported is a sequential scan over the table, viewing all entries. Three functions permit access:

- setinvent()** initializes or reinitializes the scan to the first row
- getinvent()** returns the next table row in sequence
- endinvent()** releases storage allocated by **setinvent()**

These functions use static variables and should only be used by a single process within an address space. Reentrant forms of the same functions, which can safely be used in a multithreaded process, are also available (see `getinvent(3)`). Example 2-2 demonstrates the use of these functions.

The format of one inventory table row is declared as type `inventory_t` in the `sys/invent.h` header file. This header file also supplies symbolic names for all the class and type numbers that can appear in the table, as well as containing commentary explaining the meanings of some of the numbers.

Example 2-2 Function Returning Type Code for CPU Module

```
#include <stddef.h> /* for NULL */
#include <invent.h> /* includes sys/invent.h */
int getIPItypeCode()
{
    inv_state_t * pstate = NULL;
    inventory_t * work;
    int ret = 0;
    setinvent_r(&pstate);
    do {
        work = getinvent_r(pstate);
        if ( (INV_PROCESSOR == work->inv_class)
            && (INV_CPUBOARD == work->inv_type) )
            ret = work->inv_state;
    } while (!ret)
    endinvent_r(pstate); /* releases pstate-> */
    return ret;
}
```

Creating an Inventory Entry

Device drivers supplied by Silicon Graphics add information to the hardware inventory by adding vertexes to the hwgraph (see “Driver Interface to Hwgraph” on page 47) and then by attaching *inventory_t* structures to the vertexes using the function **hwgraph_inventory_add()** (this and other hwgraph functions are discussed under “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221).

The *inventory_t* structure is declared in the header file *sys/invent.h*, along with the inventory type and class numbers that are valid.

Drivers written for releases prior to IRIX 6.4 called the kernel function **add_to_inventory()** in order to add a row to the inventory table. This function is supported in IRIX 6.5 in a limited way. When called, it attaches the inventory information to the root of the hwgraph (to the */hw* directory itself). As a result, the *hin*v command does see and report the added inventory information, but the information is not physically associated with the hwgraph vertex to which it applies.

Note: The only valid inventory types and classes are those declared in *sys/invent.h*. Only those numbers can be decoded and displayed by the *hin*v command, which prints an error message if it finds an unknown device class, and which prints nothing at all for an unknown device type within a known class. There is no provision for adding new device-class or device-type values for third-party devices.

However, it is possible now for a driver to add any arbitrary descriptive string desired to any vertex. These labelled attributes can be retrieved by the *attr* command and in software by the **attr_get()** function (see *attr(1)* and *attr_get(2)*).

Using *ioconfig* for Global Controller Numbers

An Origin2000 system can be reconfigured dynamically, so the complement of devices can change from day to day or even minute to minute—a primary motive for creating the hwgraph. However, the dynamic nature of the hardware complement makes it difficult to define a stable, predictable numbering scheme for hardware devices. This need is met by the *ioconfig* command (see reference page *ioconfig(1M)*).

Need for Stable Numbering

As discussed under “IRIX Conventional Device Names” on page 40, a conventional name for a disk device in the */dev/dsk* directory is **dkscCdulnsp**. The number *C* is the “controller” number, which in previous systems represented a fixed, well-known numbering of SCSI bus adapters. No such fixed numbering is inherent in the Origin2000 architecture. Controller cards can be added to and removed from modules, and entire modules can be added to and removed from the system.

Users of network interface cards, serial ports, bus adapters, and other devices need a predictable, static naming scheme for devices. The name */dev/ttyf2* should represent the same serial port tomorrow that it does today. A related problem is that some device drivers want to place extra, short-circuit vertexes under */hw* to allow simpler access to their devices (see “Additional Edges” on page 45). Typically such short-circuit names ought to be distinguished by a predictable number.

However, it is impossible to assign stable, repeatable controller numbers dynamically at boot time, while the system is discovering the I/O complement. All the CPUs in the system boot at the same time. Bus controllers and device drivers are initialized in parallel on the nodes to which the hardware is connected. The sequence in which this happens is unpredictable; and in any case the hardware connections can change from boot to boot. A driver cannot know, when it is called to attach a device, what controller number it ought to specify in the hardware inventory.

Design of *ioconfig*

In order to solve these problems, the *ioconfig* command is invoked automatically, after device drivers have been initialized and the hwgraph has been initialized, but before user processes are started.

Operating in parallel for speed, *ioconfig* traverses the entire hwgraph, inspecting the hardware inventory data at each vertex. At a vertex where the hardware inventory Class value indicates a controller that should be numbered, *ioconfig* assigns a number, and updates the hardware inventory Controller value to reflect the assigned number. Then the program opens the device and optionally causes an *ioctl* function. This results in an entry to the **open()** entry point, and optionally the **ioctl()** entry point, of the device driver (for an overview of this interaction, see “Overview of Device Open” on page 63 and “Overview of Device Control” on page 65).

In these entry points, the device driver can recognize that its device now has an assigned Controller number. The driver can use this information to create extra hwgraph vertexes and edges if it wishes. (For an overview of how the distributed SCSI drivers use this facility, see “SCSI Devices in the hwgraph” on page 510.)

Configuration Control File

The *ioconfig* program uses three disk files. The first, */etc/ioconfig.conf*, in which it records the controller numbers it has assigned and the related */hw* pathnames. When it needs to assign a number, *ioconfig* first looks up the current *hwgraph* path in */etc/ioconfig.conf*. If the path appears, *ioconfig* assigns the same controller number that it used last time. If the path does not appear, *ioconfig* assigns the lowest number that has never been assigned in this device Class, and adds the path and its number to */etc/ioconfig.conf*.

This procedure ensures that a given device always receives the same controller number, even if the device is removed and later replaced. Users can inspect */etc/ioconfig.conf* at any time to discover the numbering, and so can infer the relationship of a controller number in */dev/dsk* (for example) to a vertex in the *hwgraph*. Alternatively, the system administrator can cause all numbers to be reassigned simply by removing the file */etc/ioconfig.conf*.

Permissions Control File

The *ioconfig* command also can be used to set ownership and permissions on the device special files. This enables the administrator to specify ownership and permissions for device names that are created dynamically, each time the system boots.

Assignment of permissions is driven by the file */etc/ioperms*. Its format (as described in *ioconfig(1M)*) has four fields:

<i>device_name</i>	A path in <i>/hw</i> or <i>/dev</i> . The path can include wildcards so it applies to many devices.
<i>permissions</i>	The device file permissions, as an octal number, as described in <i>chmod(1)</i> or <i>chmod(2)</i> .
<i>owner_name</i>	A valid userid to own the device, usually root.
<i>group_name</i>	A valid group name to own the device, usually sys.

There is no requirement that */etc/ioperms* describe only existing devices; it can describe devices that are not currently in the system. Also it can describe devices defined by third parties other than SGI.

Device Management File

The *ioconfig* command has built-in knowledge of SGI network and disk controllers and other devices. However, you can cause *ioconfig* to assign a controller number to an OEM device, and to call your driver when it does so. You do this by placing a file in the directory */var/sysgen/ioconfig*.

All files in that directory are processed by *ioconfig*. A noncomment line in any of these files has the following seven fields (not 8 fields, as some editions of the *ioconfig(1M)* reference page show):

<i>class</i>	The inventory Class value that is found in a vertex of this kind, as an integer number.
<i>type</i>	The inventory Type value that is found in a vertex of this kind, as an integer number. Use -1 for "any."
<i>state</i>	The inventory State value that is found in a vertex of this kind, as an integer number. Use -1 for "any."
<i>suffix</i>	A suffix to be added to the hwgraph path name when opening the device. Use the two characters -1 to mean "none."
<i>pattern</i>	A hwgraph path prefix that defines the set of controller numbers for this Class, Type, and State of device. Use the characters -1 to mean "use the hwgraph base path string."
<i>start_num</i>	The lowest (first) controller number to be assigned to devices of this Class, Type, and State; the first number assigned under <i>pattern</i> .
<i>ioctl_num</i>	The ioctl command number to pass in an ioctl call after opening the device, as decimal or hexadecimal integer. Use -1 to say "no ioctl."

By placing a file in */var/sysgen/ioconfig*, you can cause *ioconfig* to assign a controller number to devices that you support, and to open each device and optionally execute an ioctl call against each device, so the device driver can take note of the assigned number.

Configuration Files

IRIX uses a number of configuration files to supplement its knowledge of devices and device drivers. This is a summary of the files. The use of each file for device driver purposes is described in more detail in other chapters. (The uses of these files for other system administration tasks is covered in *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation*.)

Most configuration files used by the IRIX kernel are located in the directory */var/sysgen*. Files used by the X11 display system are generally in */usr/lib/X11*. With regard to device drivers, the important files are:

<i>/var/sysgen/master.d/*</i>	Descriptions of the attributes of kernel modules
<i>/var/sysgen/boot/*</i>	Kernel object modules
<i>/var/sysgen/system/*.sm</i>	Kernel configuration directions
<i>/var/sysgen/mtune/*</i>	Values and limits of tunable parameters
<i>/var/sysgen/stune</i>	New values for tunable parameters
<i>/var/sysgen/ioconfig/*</i>	Directives to <i>iconfig</i> program
<i>/usr/lib/X11/input/config/*</i>	Initialization commands for Xdm input modules

Master Configuration Database

Every configurable module of the kernel (this includes kernel-level device drivers and other optional kernel modules) is represented by a single file in the directory */var/sysgen/master.d*.

A file in *master.d* describes the attributes of a module of the kernel which is to be loaded at boot time (or loaded later). The general syntax of the file is documented in detail in the *master(4)* reference page. Only a subset of the syntax is used to describe a device driver module. In general, the *master.d* file specifies device driver attributes such as:

- the driver's *prefix*, a name that qualifies all its entry points
- whether it is a block, character, or STREAMS driver
- the major number serviced by the driver
- whether the driver can be loaded dynamically as needed
- whether the driver is multiprocessor-aware
- which of the possible driver entry points the driver supplies

For each module described in a *master.d* file there should be a corresponding object module in */var/sysgen/boot*. The creation of device driver modules and the syntax of *master.d* files is covered in detail in Chapter 9, "Building and Installing a Driver."

Kernel Configuration Files

The files */var/sysgen/system/*.sm* direct the *lboot* command in loading the modules of the kernel at boot time. Although there are normally several files with the names of subsystems, all the files in this directory are treated as one single file. The exact syntax of these files is documented in the *system(4)* reference page.

Use of Configuration Files by lboot

The contents of the files direct *lboot* in loading components that are described by files in */var/sysgen/master.d*, and in probing for devices to see if they exist. (For details of the operation of *lboot*, see the *lboot(1M)* and *autoconfig(1M)* reference pages.)

The VECTOR statement in a kernel configuration file directs *lboot* to probe for the existence of hardware at a stated address, and to include a device driver only when the hardware existed. Starting with IRIX 6.3, the kernel automatically probes the PCI bus and other attachments in which the hardware devices can identify themselves dynamically. The VECTOR statement is used only for VME and EISA devices (in systems that support them) because these cannot identify themselves automatically.

Storing Device and Driver Attributes

The system administrator can place statements in any file in */var/sysgen/system*. These statements cause labelled attributes to be placed in the hardware graph, where device drivers can retrieve them (see "Driver Interface to Hwgraph" on page 47 and the *system(4)* reference page).

The DEVICE_ADMIN statement is used to attach an attribute giving information about a particular device. The attribute is attached to a specific device special file in the hwgraph. Its syntax is as follows:

```
DEVICE_ADMIN : /hw/path label = value [, label = value]...
```

The colon (:) is required; don't overlook it. The values you supply are:

path Completion of a path to a device special file in the */hw* filesystem.
label The label for which the device driver will ask.
value The value, a character string, the driver will retrieve.

The *path* is terminated by white space. The *label* is terminated by the "=" or by white space. The *value* is terminated by a comma or by the end of the line, so the value can contain white space and special characters other than the comma. As one example of the use of `DEVICE_ADMIN`, you can find the following in `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm`:

```
DEVICE_ADMIN: /hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctlr/0
               ql_request_queue_depth=1024
```

The path specifies a particular SCSI controller. The label is "ql_request_queue_depth," and the value is 1024.

The `DRIVER_ADMIN` statement is used to pass a value directly to a device driver. Its syntax is as follows:

```
DRIVER_ADMIN : prefix label = value [, label = value]...
```

The values you supply are:

prefix The prefix string that identifies a driver (see "Driver Name Prefix" on page 143).
label The label for which the device driver will ask.
value The value, a character string, the driver will retrieve.

The *prefix* is terminated by white space. The *label* is terminated by the "=" or by white space. The *value* is terminated by a comma or by the end of the line, so the value can contain white space and special characters other than the comma.

These two statements can be placed in any file in `/var/sysgen/system`, but typically appear in the `irix.sm` file. The device driver must expect to receive labelled values, and must request them using the interface described under "Retrieving Administrator Attributes" on page 231.

Setting Interrupt Targets and Levels

The `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement is used to perform general administration of device interrupts. These uses are documented with examples in `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm`:

- `DEVICE_ADMIN: CPU-path NOINTR=1` blocks all interrupts from that CPU.
- `DEVICE_ADMIN: device-path INTR_TARGET=CPU-path` directs all interrupts from a device to a CPU.
- `DEVICE_ADMIN: device-path INTR_SWLEVEL=n` sets the dispatching priority for the thread that executes the interrupt handler for a device. The default is 230 and normally should not be changed.

System Tuning Parameters

The IRIX kernel supports a variety of tunable parameters, some of which can be interrogated by device drivers. The current values of the parameters are recorded in files in `/var/sysgen/mtune/*` (one file per major subsystem).

You or the system administrator can view the current settings using the `systune` command (see the `systune(1M)` reference page). The system administrator can use `systune` to request changes in parameters. Some changes take effect at once; others are recorded in a modified kernel that is loaded the next time the system boots.

To retrieve certain tuning parameters from within a kernel-level device driver, include the header file `sys/var.h`.

The use of `systune` and its related files is covered in *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation*.

X Display Manager Configuration

Most files related to the configuration of the X Display Manager `Xdm` are held in `/var/X11`. These files are documented in reference pages such as `xdm(1)` and in the programming manuals related to the X Windows System.

One set of files, in `/usr/lib/X11/input/config`, controls the initialization of nonstandard input devices. These devices use STREAMS modules, and their configuration is covered in Chapter 22, "STREAMS Drivers."

Device Control Software

IRIX provides for two general methods of controlling devices, at the user level and at the kernel level. This chapter describes the architecture of these two software levels and points out the different abilities of each. This is important background material for understanding all types of device control. The chapter covers the following main topics:

- “User-Level Device Control” summarizes five methods of device control for user-initiated processes.
- “Kernel-Level Device Control” on page 62 sets the concepts needed to understand kernel-level drivers.

User-Level Device Control

In IRIX terminology, a *user-level* process is one that is initiated by a user (possibly the superuser). A user-level process runs in an address space of its own. Except for explicit memory-sharing agreements, a user-level process has no access to the address space of any other process or to the kernel’s address space.

In particular, a user-level process has no access to physical memory (which includes access to device registers) unless the kernel allows the process to share part of the kernel’s address space. (For more on physical memory, see Chapter 1, “Physical and Virtual Memory.”)

There are several ways in which a user-level process can control devices, which are summarized in the following topics:

- “PCI Mapping Support” on page 60 summarizes PIO access to the PCI bus.
- “EISA Mapping Support” on page 60 summarizes PIO access to the EISA bus.
- “VME Mapping Support” on page 61 summarizes PIO access to the VME bus.

- “User-Level DMA From the VME Bus” on page 61 summarizes DMA I/O managed from a user-level process.
- “User-Level Control of SCSI Devices” on page 61 summarizes DMA and command access to the SCSI bus.
- “Managing External Interrupts” on page 62 summarizes access to the external interrupt ports on Challenge and Onyx systems.

PCI Mapping Support

In systems that support the PCI bus, IRIX contains a kernel-level device driver which supports general-purpose mapping of PCI bus addresses into the address space of a user process (see “Overview of Memory Mapping” on page 67). The kernel-level drivers for specific devices can also provide support for mapping the registers of the devices they control into user process space.

You can write a program that maps a portion of the VME bus address space into the program address space. Then you can load and store from device registers directly.

For more details of PIO to the PCI bus, see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices.”

EISA Mapping Support

In the Silicon Graphics Indigo² workstation line (including the Indigo² Maximum Impact, Power Indigo², and Indigo² R10000), IRIX contains a kernel-level device driver that allows a user-level process to map EISA bus addresses into the address space of the user process (see “Overview of Memory Mapping” on page 67).

This means that you can write a program that maps a portion of the EISA bus address space into the program address space. Then you can load and store from device registers directly.

For more details of PIO to the EISA bus, see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices.”

VME Mapping Support

In systems that support the VME bus, IRIX contains a kernel-level device driver that supports general-purpose mapping of VME bus addresses into the address space of a user process (see “Overview of Memory Mapping” on page 67). The kernel-level drivers for specific devices can also provide support for mapping the registers of the devices they control into user process space.

You can write a program that maps a portion of the VME bus address space into the program address space. Then you can load and store from device registers directly.

For more details of PIO to the VME bus, see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices.”

User-Level DMA From the VME Bus

The Challenge L, Challenge XL, and Onyx systems and their Power versions contain a DMA engine that manages DMA transfers from VME devices, including VME slave devices that normally cannot do DMA.

The DMA engine in these systems can be programmed directly from code in a user-level process. Software support for this facility is contained in the *udmalib* package.

For more details of user DMA, see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices” and the *udmalib(3)* reference page.

User-Level Control of SCSI Devices

IRIX contains a special kernel-level device driver whose purpose is to give user-level processes the ability to issue commands and read and write data on the SCSI bus. By using **ioctl()** calls to this driver, a user-level process can interrogate and program devices, and can initiate DMA transfers between buffers in user process memory and devices.

The low-level programming used with the *dsreq* device driver is eased by the use of a library of utility functions documented in the *dslib(3)* reference page. The source code of the *dslib* library is distributed with IRIX.

For more details on user-level SCSI access, see Chapter 5, “User-Level Access to SCSI Devices.”

Managing External Interrupts

The Challenge L, Challenge XL, and Onyx systems and their Power versions have four external-interrupt output jacks and four external-interrupt input jacks on their back panels. Origin2000 systems also support one or more external interrupt inputs and outputs.

In all these systems, the device special file `/dev/ei` represents a device driver that manages access to external interrupt ports.

Using `ioctl()` calls to this device (see “Overview of Device Control” on page 65), your program can

- enable and disable the detection of incoming external interrupts
- set the strobe length of outgoing signals
- strobe, or set a fixed level, on any of the four output ports

In addition, library calls are provided that allow very low-latency detection of an incoming signal.

For more information on external interrupt management, see Chapter 6, “Control of External Interrupts” and the `ei(7)` reference page.

Kernel-Level Device Control

IRIX supports the conventional UNIX architecture in which a user process uses a kernel service to request a data transfer, and the kernel calls on a device driver to perform the transfer.

Kinds of Kernel-Level Drivers

There are three distinct kinds of kernel-level drivers:

- A *character device driver* transfers data as a stream of bytes of arbitrary length. A character device driver is invoked when a user process issuing a system function call such as `read()` or `ioctl()`.

- A *block device driver* transfers data in blocks of fixed size. Often a block driver is not called directly to support a user process. User reads and writes are directed to files, and the filesystem code calls the block driver to read or write whole disk blocks. Block drivers are also called for paging operations.
- A STREAMS driver is not a device driver, but rather can be dynamically installed to operate on the flow of data to and from any character device driver.

Overviews of the operation of STREAMS drivers are found in Chapter 22, “STREAMS Drivers.” The rest of this discussion is on character and block device drivers.

Typical Driver Operations

There are five different kinds of operations that a device driver can support:

- The open interaction is supported by all drivers; it initializes the connection between a process and a device.
- The control operation is supported by character drivers; it allows the user process to modify the connection to the device or to control the device.
- A character driver transfers data directly between the device and a buffer in the user process address space.
- Memory mapping enables the user process to perform PIO data transfers for itself.
- A block driver transfers one or more fixed-size blocks of data between the device and a buffer owned by a filesystem or the memory paging system.

The following topics present a conceptual overview of the relationship between the user process, the kernel, and the kernel-level device driver. The software architecture that supports these interactions is documented in detail in Part III, “Kernel-Level Drivers,” especially Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver.”

Overview of Device Open

Before a user process can use a kernel-controlled device, the process must open the device as a file. A high-level overview of this process, as it applies to a character device driver, is shown in Figure 3-1.

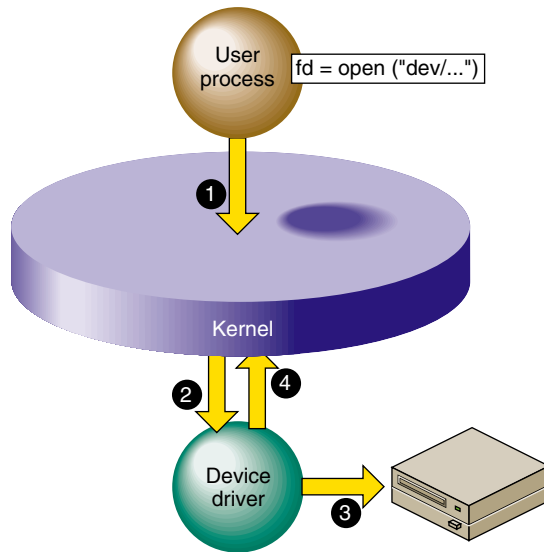


Figure 3-1 Overview of Device Open

The steps illustrated in Figure 3-1 are:

1. The user process calls the **open()** kernel function, passing the name of a device special file (see “Device Special Files” on page 36 and the `open(2)` reference page).
2. The kernel notes the device major and minor numbers from the inode of the device special file (see “Devices as Files” on page 36). The kernel uses the major device number to select the device driver, and calls the driver’s open entry point, passing the minor number and other data.
3. The device driver verifies that the device is operable, and prepares whatever is needed to operate it.
4. The device driver returns a return code to the kernel, which returns either an error code or a file descriptor to the process.

It is up to the device driver whether the device can be used by only one process at a time, or by more than one process. If the device can support only one user, and is already in use, the driver returns the `EBUSY` error code.

The **open()** interaction on a block device is similar, except that the operation is initiated from the filesystem code responding to a **mount()** request, rather than coming from a user process **open()** request (see the `mount(1)` reference page).

There is also a **close()** interaction so a process can terminate its connection to a device.

Overview of Device Control

After the user process has successfully opened a character device, it can request control operations. Figure 3-2 shows an overview of this operation.

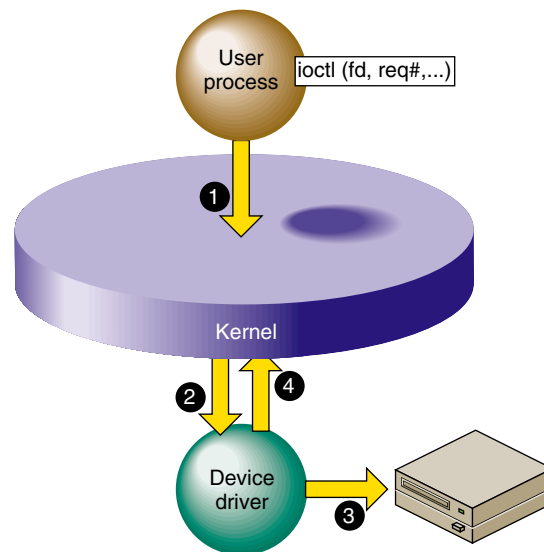


Figure 3-2 Overview of Device Control

The steps illustrated in Figure 3-2 are:

1. The user process calls the **ioctl()** kernel function, passing the file descriptor from `open` and one or more other parameters (see the `ioctl(2)` reference page).
2. The kernel uses the major device number to select the device driver, and calls the device driver, passing the minor device number, the request number, and an optional third parameter from **ioctl()**.

3. The device driver interprets the request number and other parameter, notes changes in its own data structures, and possibly issues commands to the device.
4. The device driver returns an exit code to the kernel, and the kernel (then or later) redispaches the user process.

Block device drivers are not asked to provide a control interaction. The user process is not allowed to issue `ioctl()` for a block device.

The interpretation of `ioctl` request codes and parameters is entirely up to the device driver. For examples of the range of `ioctl` functions, you might review some reference pages in volume 7, for example, `termio(7)`, `ei(7)`, and `arp(7P)`.

Overview of Character Device I/O

Figure 3-3 shows a high-level overview of data transfer for a character device driver that uses programmed I/O.

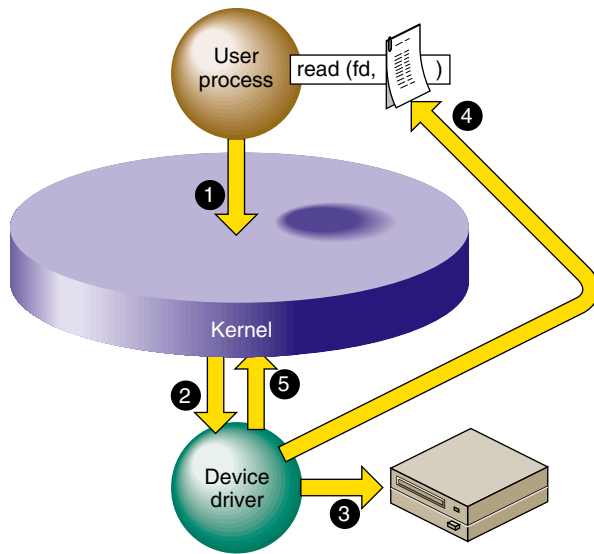


Figure 3-3 Overview of Programmed Kernel I/O

The steps illustrated in Figure 3-3 are:

1. The user process invokes the **read()** kernel function for the file descriptor returned by **open()** (see the `read(2)` and `write(2)` reference pages).
2. The kernel uses the major device number to select the device driver, and calls the device driver, passing the minor device number and other information.
3. The device driver directs the device to operate by storing into its registers in physical memory.
4. The device driver retrieves data from the device registers and uses a kernel function to store the data into the buffer in the address space of the user process.
5. The device driver returns to the kernel, which (then or later) dispatches the user process.

The operation of **write()** is similar. A kernel-level driver that uses programmed I/O is conceptually simple since it is basically a subroutine of the kernel.

Overview of Memory Mapping

It is possible to allow the user process to perform I/O directly, by mapping the physical addresses of device registers into the address space of the user process. Figure 3-4 shows a high-level overview of this interaction.

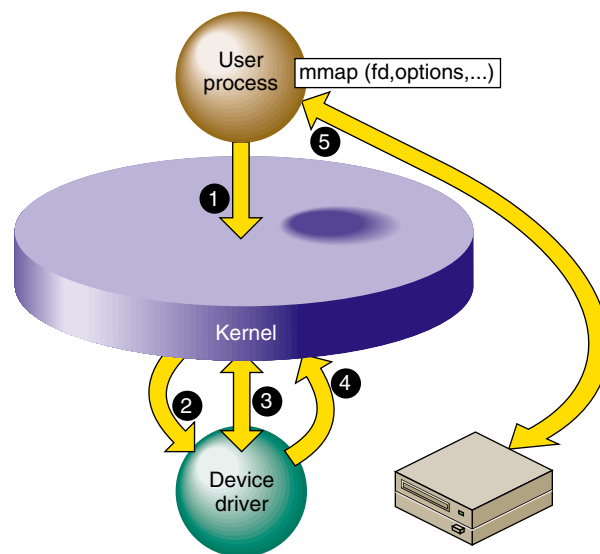


Figure 3-4 Overview of Memory Mapping

The steps illustrated in Figure 3-4 are:

1. The user process calls the **mmap()** kernel function, passing the file descriptor from **open** and various other parameters (see the **mmap(2)** reference page).
2. The kernel uses the major device number to select the device driver, and calls the device driver, passing the minor device number and certain other parameters from **mmap()**.
3. The device driver validates the request and uses a kernel function to map the necessary range of physical addresses into the address space of the user process.
4. The device driver returns an exit code to the kernel, and the kernel (then or later) redispaches the user process.
5. The user process accesses data in device registers by accessing the virtual address returned to it from the **mmap()** call.

Memory mapping can be supported only by a character device driver. (When a user process applies **mmap()** to an ordinary disk file, the filesystem maps the file into memory. The filesystem may call a block driver to transfer pages of the file in and out of memory, but to the driver this is no different from any other read or write call.)

Memory mapping by a character device driver has the purpose of making device registers directly accessible to the process as memory addresses. A memory-mapping character device driver is very simple; it needs to support only **open()**, **mmap()**, and **close()** interactions. Data throughput can be higher when PIO is performed in the user process, since the overhead of the **read()** and **write()** system calls is avoided.

Silicon Graphics device drivers for the VME and EISA buses support memory mapping. This enables user-level processes to perform PIO to devices on these buses. Character drivers for the PCI bus are allowed to support memory mapping.

It is possible to write a kernel-level driver that only maps memory, and controls no device at all. Such drivers are called *pseudo-device* drivers. For examples of psuedo-device drivers, see the **prf(7)** and **imon(7)** reference pages.

Overview of Block I/O

Block devices and block device drivers normally use DMA (see “Direct Memory Access” on page 10). With DMA, the driver can avoid the time-consuming process of transferring data between memory and device registers. Figure 3-5 shows a high-level overview of a DMA transfer.

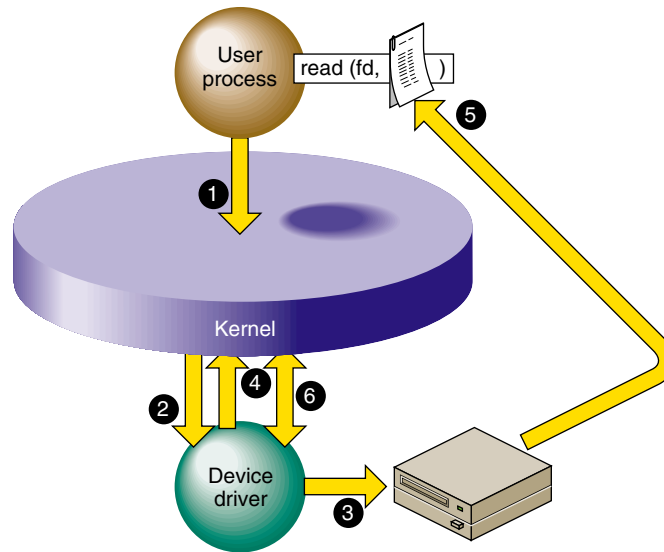


Figure 3-5 Overview of DMA I/O

The steps illustrated in Figure 3-5 are:

1. The user process invokes the `read()` kernel function for a normal file descriptor (not necessarily a device special file). The filesystem (not shown) asks for a block of data.
2. The kernel uses the major device number to select the device driver, and calls the device driver, passing the minor device number and other information.
3. The device driver uses kernel functions to create a DMA map that describes the buffer in physical memory; then programs the device with target addresses by storing into its registers.
4. The device driver returns to the kernel after telling it to put to sleep the user process that called the driver.
5. The device itself stores the data to the physical memory locations that represent the buffer in the user process address space. While this is going on, the kernel may dispatch other processes.
6. When the device presents a hardware interrupt, the kernel invokes the device driver. The driver notifies the kernel that the user process can now resume execution. It resumes in the filesystem code, which moves the requested data into the user process buffer.

DMA is fundamentally asynchronous. There is no necessary timing relation between the operation of the device performing its operation and the operation of the various user processes. A DMA device driver has a more complex structure because it must deal with such issues as

- making a DMA map and programming a device to store into a buffer in physical memory
- blocking a user process, and waking it up when the operation is complete
- handling interrupts from the device
- the possibility that requests from other processes can occur while the device is operating
- the possibility that a device interrupt can occur while the driver is handling a request

The reward for the extra complexity of DMA is the possibility of much higher performance. The device can store or read data from memory at its maximum rated speed, while other processes can execute in parallel.

A DMA driver must be able to cope with the possibility that it can receive several requests from different processes while the device is busy handling one operation. This implies that the driver must implement some method of queuing requests until they can be serviced in turn.

The mapping between physical memory and process address space can be complicated. For example, the buffer can span multiple pages, and the pages need not be in contiguous locations in physical memory. If the device does not support *scatter/gather* operations, the device driver has to program a separate DMA operation for each page or part of a page—or else has to obtain a contiguous buffer in the kernel address space, do the I/O from that buffer, and copy the data from that buffer to the process buffer. When the device supports *scatter/gather*, it can be programmed with the starting addresses and lengths of each page in the buffer, and read and write into them in turn before presenting a single interrupt.

Upper and Lower Halves

When a device can produce hardware interrupts, its kernel-level device driver has two distinct logical parts, called the “upper half” and the “lower half” (although the upper “half” is usually much more than half the code).

Driver Upper Half

The upper half of a driver comprises all the parts that are invoked as a result of user process calls: the driver entry points that execute in response to **open()**, **close()**, **ioctl()**, **mmap()**, **read()** and **write()**.

These parts of the driver are always called on behalf of a specific process. This is referred to as “having user context,” which means that the entry point is executed under the identity of a specific process. In effect, the driver code is a subroutine of the user process.

Upper half code can request kernel services that can be delayed, or “sleep.” For example, code in the upper half of a driver can call **kmem_alloc()** to request memory in kernel space, and can specify that if memory is not available, the driver can sleep until memory is available. Also, code in the upper half can wait on a semaphore until some event occurs, or can seize a lock knowing that it may have to sleep until the lock is released.

In each case, the entire kernel does not “sleep.” The kernel marks the user process as blocked, and dispatches other processes to run. When the blocking condition is removed—when memory is available, the semaphore is posted, or the lock is released—the driver is scheduled for execution and resumes.

Driver Lower Half

The lower half of a driver comprises the code that is called to respond to a hardware interrupt. An interrupt can occur at almost any time, including large parts of the time when the kernel is executing other services, including driver upper and lower halves.

The kernel is not in a known state when executing a driver lower half, and there is no process context. In conventional UNIX systems and in previous versions of IRIX, the lack of user context meant that the lower-half code could not use any kernel service that could sleep. Because of this restriction, you will find that the reference pages for driver kernel services always state whether the service can sleep or not—a service that might sleep could never be called from an interrupt handler.

Starting with IRIX 6.4, the IRIX kernel is threaded; that is, all kernel code executes under a thread identity. When it is time to handle an interrupt, a kernel thread calls the driver’s interrupt handler code. In general this makes very little difference to the design of a device driver, but it does mean that the driver lower half has an identity that can sleep. In other words, starting with IRIX 6.4, there is no restriction on what kernel services you can call from driver lower-half code.

In all systems, an interrupt handler should do as little as possible and do it as quickly as possible. An interrupt handler will typically get the device status; store it where the top-half code expects it; possibly post a semaphore to release a blocked user process; and possibly start the next I/O operation if one is waiting.

Relationship Between Halves

Each half has its proper kind of work. In general terms, the upper half performs all validation and preparation, including allocating and deallocating memory and copying data between address spaces. It initiates the first device operation of a series and queues other operations. Then it waits on a semaphore.

The lower half verifies the correct completion of an operation. If another operation is queued, it initiates that operation. Then it posts the semaphore to awaken the upper half, and exits.

Layered Drivers

IRIX allows for “layered” device drivers, in which one driver operates the actual hardware and the driver at the higher layer presents the programming interface. This approach is implemented for SCSI devices: actual management of the SCSI bus is delegated to a set of Host Adapter drivers. Drivers for particular kinds of SCSI devices call the Host Adapter driver through an indirect table to execute SCSI commands. SCSI drivers and Host Adapter drivers are discussed in detail in Chapter 16, “SCSI Device Drivers.”

Combined Block and Character Drivers

A block device driver is called indirectly, from the filesystem, and it is not allowed to support the `ioctl()` entry point. In some cases, block devices can also be thought of as character devices. For example, a block device might return a string of diagnostic information, or it might be sensitive to dynamic control settings.

It is possible to support *both* block and character access to a device: block access to support filesystem operations, and character access in order to allow a user process (typically one started by a system administrator) to read, write, or control the device directly.

For example, the Silicon Graphics disk device drivers support both block and character access to disk devices. This is why you can find every disk device represented as a block device in the */dev/dsk* directory and again as a character device in */dev/rdisk* (“r” for “raw,” meaning character devices).

Drivers for Multiprocessors

All but a few Silicon Graphics computers have multiple CPUs that execute concurrently. The CPUs share access to the single main memory, including a single copy of the kernel address space. In principle, all CPUs can execute in the kernel code simultaneously. In principle, the upper half of a device driver could be entered simultaneously by as many different processes as there are CPUs in the system (up to 36 in a Challenge or Onyx system).

A device driver written for a uniprocessor system cannot tolerate concurrent execution by multiple CPUs. For example, a uniprocessor driver has scalar variables whose values would be destroyed if two or more processes updated them concurrently.

In versions previous to IRIX 6.4, IRIX made special provision to support uniprocessor character drivers in multiprocessors. It forced a uniprocessor driver to use only CPU 0 to execute calls to upper-half code. This ensured that at most one process executed in any upper half at one time. And it forced interrupts for these drivers to execute on CPU 0. These policies had a detrimental effect on driver and system performance, but they allowed the drivers to work.

Beginning with IRIX 6.4, there is no special provision for uniprocessor drivers in multiprocessor systems. You can write a uniprocessor-only driver and use it on a uniprocessor workstation but you cannot use the same driver design on a multiprocessor.

It is not difficult to design a kernel-level driver to execute safely in any CPU of a multiprocessor. Each critical data object must be protected by a lock or semaphore, and particular techniques must be used to coordinate between the upper and lower halves. These techniques are discussed in “Designing for Multiprocessor Use” on page 184.

When you have made a driver multiprocessor-safe, you compile it with a particular flag value that IRIX recognizes. Multiprocessor-safe drivers work properly on uniprocessor systems with very little, if any, extra overhead.

Loadable Drivers

Some drivers are needed whenever the system is running, but others are needed only occasionally. IRIX allows you to create a kernel-level device driver or STREAMS driver that is not loaded at boot time, but only later when it is needed.

A loadable driver has the same purposes as a nonloadable one, and uses the same interfaces to do its work. A loadable driver can be configured for automatic loading when its device is opened. Alternatively it can be loaded on command using the *ml* program (see the *ml(1)* and *mload(4)* reference pages).

A loadable driver remains in memory until its device is no longer in use, or until the administrator uses *ml* to unload it. A loadable driver remains in memory indefinitely, and cannot be unloaded, unless it provides a *pfxunload()* entry point (see “Entry Point *unload()*” on page 180).

There are some small differences in the way a loadable driver is compiled and configured (see “Configuring a Loadable Driver” on page 264).

One operational difference is that a loadable driver is not available in the miniroot, the standalone system administration environment used for emergency maintenance. If a driver might be required in the miniroot, it can be made nonloadable, or it can be configured for “autoregistration” (see “Registration” on page 267).

PART TWO

Device Control From Process Space

Chapter 4, "User-Level Access to Devices"

How a user-level process can access and control devices on the VME and EISA buses.

Chapter 5, "User-Level Access to SCSI Devices"

How a user-level process can execute commands and transfer data to a SCSI device.

Chapter 6, "Control of External Interrupts"

How a user-level process creates or responds to external interrupt signals in the Challenge and Power Challenge systems.

User-Level Access to Devices

Programmed I/O (PIO) refers to loading and storing data between program variables and device registers. This is done by setting up a memory mapping of a device into the process address space, so that the program can treat device registers as if they were volatile memory locations. This chapter discusses the methods of setting up this mapping, and the performance that can be obtained. The main topics are as follows:

- “PCI Programmed I/O” on page 78 discusses PIO mapping of PCI devices.
- “EISA Programmed I/O” on page 83 discusses PIO mapping of EISA bus devices in the Indigo² workstation line.
- “VME Programmed I/O” on page 86 discusses PIO mapping of VME devices.
- “VME User-Level DMA” on page 91 discusses the use of the VME DMA engine.

Normally, PIO programs are designed in synchronous fashion; that is, the process issues commands to the device and then polls the device to find out when the action is complete. (However, it is possible for a user process to receive interrupts from some mapped devices if you have purchased the optional REACT software.)

A user-level process can perform DMA transfers from a VME bus master or (in the Challenge or Onyx series) a VME bus slave, directly into the process address space. The use of these features is covered under “VME User-Level DMA” on page 91.

PCI Programmed I/O

Note: For an overview of the PCI bus and its hardware implementation in Silicon Graphics systems, see Chapter 20, “PCI Device Attachment.” For syntax details of the user interface to PCI, see the reference page `usrpci(7)`. This section still discusses the use of `usrpci` instead of the `pciba` user-level PCI bus adapter interface and should be updated in the near future. We recommend that you switch over to `pciba` from `usrpci`. For more information, refer to the reference page `pciba(7M)`.

Mapping a PCI Device Into Process Address Space

As discussed in “CPU Access to Device Registers” on page 9, an I/O device is represented as an address, or range of addresses, in the address space of its bus. A kernel-level device driver has the ability to set up a mapping between an address on an I/O bus and an arbitrary location in the address space of a user-level process. When this has been done, the bus location appears to be a variable in memory. The program can assign values to it, or refer to it in expressions.

The PCI bus addresses managed by a device are not wired or jumpered into the board; they are established dynamically at the time the system attaches the device. The assigned bus addresses can vary from one day to the next, as devices are added to or removed from that PCI bus adapter. For this reason, you cannot program the bus addresses of a PCI device into software or into a configuration file.

In order to map bus addresses for a particular device, you must open the device special file that represents that device. You pass the file descriptor for the opened device to the `mmap()` function. If the device driver for the device supports memory mapping—mapping is an optional feature of a PCI device driver—the mapping is set up.

The PCI bus defines three address spaces: configuration space, I/O space, and memory space. It is up to the device driver which of the spaces it allows you to map. Some device drivers may set up a convention allowing you to map in different spaces.

PCI Device Special Files

Device special files for PCI devices are established in the `/hw` filesystem by the PCI device driver when the device is attached (see “Hardware Graph” on page 42). These pathnames are dynamic. Typically, the system administrator also creates stable,

predictable device special files in the */dev* filesystem. The paths to a specific device is determined by the device driver for that device.

The PCI bus adapter also creates a set of generic PCI device names for each PCI slot in the system. The names of these special device files can be discovered by the following command:

```
find /hw -name usrpci -print -exec ls -l {} \;
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/xwidget/pci/0/usrpci
total 0
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 78 Aug 12 15:27 config
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 79 Aug 12 15:27 default
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 77 Aug 12 15:27 io
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 75 Aug 12 15:27 mem32
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 76 Aug 12 15:27 mem64
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/xwidget/pci/1/usrpci
total 0
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 85 Aug 12 15:27 config
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 86 Aug 12 15:27 default
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 84 Aug 12 15:27 io
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 82 Aug 12 15:27 mem32
crw----- 0 root sys 0, 83 Aug 12 15:27 mem64
```

The names *usrpci* are not leaf vertexes and cannot be opened. However, the names *config*, *io*, *mem32*, *mem64*, and *default* are character special devices that can be opened from a process with the correct privilege. The names represent the following bus addresses:

Table 4-1 PCI Device Special File Names for User Access

Name	PCI Bus Address Space	Offset in mmap() Call
<i>config</i>	Configuration space or spaces on the card in this slot.	Offset in config space.
<i>default</i>	PCI bus memory space defined by the first base address register (BAR) on the card.	Added to BAR.
<i>io</i>	PCI bus I/O space defined by this card.	Offset in I/O space.
<i>mem32</i>	PCI bus 32-bit memory address space allocated to this card when it was attached.	Offset in total allocated memory space.
<i>mem64</i>	PCI bus 64-bit memory address space allocated to this card when it was attached.	Offset in total allocated memory space.

Opening a Device Special File

Either kind of pathname is passed to the **open()** system function, along with flags representing the type of access (see the `open(2)` reference page). You can use the returned file descriptor for any operation supported by the device driver. The *usrpci* device driver supports only the **mmap()** and **unmap()** functions. A driver for a specific PCI device may or may not support **mmap()**, **read()** and **write()**, or **ioctl()** operations.

Using **mmap()** With PCI Devices

When you have successfully opened a *usrpci* device special file, you use the file descriptor as the primary input parameter in a call to the **mmap()** system function.

This function is documented for all its many uses in the `mmap(2)` reference page. For purposes of mapping a PCI device into memory, the parameters should be as follows (using the names from the reference page):

<i>addr</i>	Should be NULL to permit the kernel to choose an address in user process space.
<i>len</i>	The length of the span of PCI addresses to map.
<i>prot</i>	PROT_READ for input, PROT_WRITE for output, or the logical sum of those names when the device will be used for both input and output.
<i>flags</i>	MAP_SHARED. Add MAP_PRIVATE if this mapping is not to be visible to child processes created with the sproc() function (see the <code>sproc(2)</code> reference page).
<i>fd</i>	The file descriptor returned from opening the device special file.
<i>off</i>	The offset into the device address space.

The meaning of the *off* value depends on the PCI bus address space represented by the device special file, as indicated in Table 4-1.

The value returned by **mmap()** is the virtual address that corresponds to the starting PCI bus address. When the process accesses that address, the access is implemented by PIO data transfer to or from the PCI bus.

Map Size Limits

There are limits to the amount and location of PCI bus address space that can be mapped for PIO. The system architecture can restrict the span of mappable addresses, and kernel resource constraints can impose limits. In order to create the map, the PCI device driver has to create a software object called a PIO map. In some systems, only a limited number of PIO maps can be active at one time.

PCI Bus Hardware Errors

When the PCI bus adapter reports an addressing or access error, the error is reflected back to the device driver. This can take place long after the instruction that initiated the error transaction. For example, a PIO store to a memory-mapped PCI device can (in certain hardware architectures) pass through several layers of translation. An error could be detected several microseconds after the CPU store that initiated the write. By that time, the CPU could have executed hundreds more instructions.

When the *usrpci* device driver is notified of a PCI Bus error, it looks up the identities of all user processes that had mapped the part of PCI address space where the error occurred. The driver then sends a SIGBUS signal to each such process. As a result of this policy, your process could receive a SIGBUS for an error it did not cause; and when your process did cause the error, the signal could arrive a long time after the erroneous transaction was initiated.

PCI PIO Example

The code in X demonstrates how to dump the standard configuration space registers of a device in PCI slot 1 on an Origin200 (PCI slot 1 is XIO bus slot 5 on this system).

Example 4-1 PCI Configuration Space Dump

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/mman.h>
#include <sys/prctl.h>
#include <sys/fcntl.h>
#include <sys/prctl.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#define CFGPATH "/hw/module/1/slot/MotherBoard/node/xtalk/8/pci/5/usrpci/config"
#define CFGSIZE (4*1024)
```

```
extern int errno;
main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int    fd;
    int    *addr;
    char   *path;
    int    size;
    int    newline = 0;
    path = CFGPATH;
    size = CFGSIZE;
    fd = open(path, O_RDWR);
    if (fd < 0 ) {
        perror("config");
        return errno;
    } else {
        printf("Successfully opened %s fd: %d\n", path, fd);
        printf("Trying mmap\n");
        addr = (int *)mmap(0, size, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE, MAP_SHARED,fd, 0);
        if (addr == (int *)-1) {
            perror("mmap");
        } else {
            int    i;
            volatile int    x;
            printf("Successfully mmaped Config Space at 0x%x\n",addr);
            /* add offset for first o200 slot */
            addr = (int *) (addr + 0x400);
            printf("Dumping Config Space for PCI slot 1 (64 words)\n");
            for (i = 0; i < 64; i++){
                x = *(volatile int *) (addr + i) ;
                if (newline == 0) printf("0x%2.2x:", i*4);
                printf(" 0x%8.8x", x);
                if ((++newline%4) == 0){
                    newline = 0;
                    printf("\n");
                }
            }
            fflush(stdout);
            sleep(1);
        }
        close (fd);
    }
    exit(0);
}
```

EISA Programmed I/O

The EISA bus is supported in Silicon Graphics Indigo² workstations only. For an overview of the EISA bus and its implementation in Silicon Graphics systems, see Chapter 18, “EISA Device Drivers.”

Mapping an EISA Device Into Memory

As discussed in “CPU Access to Device Registers” on page 9, an I/O device is represented as an address or range of addresses in the address space of its bus. A kernel-level device driver has the ability to set up a mapping between the bus address of a device register and an arbitrary location in the address space of a user-level process. When this has been done, the device register appears to be a variable in memory—the program can assign values to it, or refer to it in expressions.

Learning EISA Device Addresses

In order to map an EISA device for PIO, you must know the following points:

- which EISA bus adapter the device is on
In all Silicon Graphics systems that support it, there is only one EISA bus adapter, and its number is 0.
- whether you need access to the EISA bus memory or I/O address space
- the address and length of the desired registers within the address space

You can find all these values by examining files in the */var/sysgen/system* directory, especially the */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* file, in which each configured EISA device is specified by a VECTOR line. When you examine a VECTOR line, note the following parameter values:

<i>bustype</i>	Specified as <i>EISA</i> for EISA devices. The VECTOR statement can be used for other types of buses as well.
<i>adapter</i>	The number of the bus where the device is attached (0).
<i>iospace</i> , <i>iospace2</i> , <i>iospace3</i>	Each <i>iospace</i> group specifies the address space, starting bus address, and the size of a segment of bus address space used by this device.

Within each *iospace* parameter group you find keywords and numbers for the address space and addresses for a device. The following is an example of a VECTOR line (which must be a single physical line in the system file):

```
VECTOR: bustype=EISA module=if_ec3 ctrlr=1
iospace=(EISAIO,0x1000,0x1000)
exprobe_space=(r,EISAIO, 0x1c80,4,0x6010d425,0xffffffff)
```

This example specifies a device that resides in the I/O space at offset 0x1000 (the slot-1 I/O space) for the usual length of 0x1000 bytes. The *exprobe_space* parameter suggests that a key device register is at 0x1c80.

Opening a Device Special File

When you know the device addresses, you can open a device special file that represents the correct range of addresses. The device special files for EISA mapping are found in */dev/eisa*.

The naming convention for these files is as follows: Each file is named **eisaBaM**, where

B is a digit for the bus number (0)

M is the modifier, either *io* or *mem*

The device special file for the device described by the example VECTOR line in the preceding section would be */dev/vme/eisa0aio*.

In order to map a device on a particular bus and address space, you must open the corresponding file in */dev/eisa*.

Using the mmap() Function

When you have successfully opened the device special file, you use the file descriptor as the primary input parameter in a call to the **mmap()** system function.

This function is documented for all its many uses in the *mmap(2)* reference page. For purposes of mapping EISA devices, the parameters should be as follows (using the names from the reference page):

addr Should be NULL to permit the kernel to choose an address in user process space.

<i>len</i>	The length of the span of bus addresses, as documented in the <i>iospace</i> group in the VECTOR line.
<i>prot</i>	PROT_READ, or PROT_WRITE, or the logical sum of those names when the device is used for both input and output.
<i>flags</i>	MAP_SHARED, with the addition of MAP_PRIVATE if this mapping is not to be visible to child processes created with the sproc() function (see the sproc(2) reference page).
<i>fd</i>	The file descriptor from opening the device special file in <i>/dev/eisa</i> .
<i>off</i>	The starting bus address, as documented in the <i>iospace</i> group in the VECTOR line.

The value returned by **mmap()** is the virtual memory address that corresponds to the starting bus address. When the process accesses that address, the access is implemented by data transfer to the EISA bus.

Note: When programming EISA PIO, you must always be aware that EISA devices generally store 16-bit and 32-bit values in “small-endian” order, with the least-significant byte at the lowest address. This is opposite to the order used by the MIPS CPU under IRIX. If you simply assign to a C unsigned integer from a 32-bit EISA register, the value will appear to be byte-inverted.

EISA PIO Bandwidth

The EISA bus adapter is a device on the GIO bus. The GIO bus runs at either 25 MHz or 33 MHz, depending on the system model. Each EISA device access takes multiple GIO cycles, as follows:

- The base time to do a native GIO read (of up to 64 bits) is 1 microsecond.
- A 32-bit EISA slave read adds 15 GIO cycles to the base GIO read time; hence one EISA access takes 19 GIO cycles, best case.
- A 4-byte access to a 16-bit EISA device requires 10 more GIO cycles to transfer the second 2-byte group; hence a 4-byte read to a 16-bit EISA slave requires 25 GIO cycles.
- Each wait state inserted by the EISA device adds four GIO cycles.

Table 4-2 summarizes best-case (no EISA wait states) data rates for reading and writing a 32-bit EISA device, based on these considerations.

Table 4-2 EISA Bus PIO Bandwidth (32-Bit Slave, 33-MHz GIO Clock)

Data Unit Size	Read	Write
1 byte	0.68 MB/sec	1.75 MB/sec
2 byte	1.38 MB/sec	3.51 MB/sec
4 bytes	2.76 MB/sec	7.02 MB/sec

Table 4-3 summarizes the best-case (no wait state) data rates for reading and writing a 16-bit EISA device.

Table 4-3 EISA Bus PIO Bandwidth (16-Bit Slave, 33-MHz GIO Clock)

Data Unit Size	Read	Write
1 byte	0.68 MB/sec	1.75 MB/sec
2 byte	1.38 MB/sec	3.51 MB/sec
4 bytes	2.29 MB/sec	4.59 MB/sec

VME Programmed I/O

The VME bus is supported by Origin2000 systems. For an overview of the VME bus and its hardware implementation in Silicon Graphics systems, see Chapter 12, "VME Device Attachment on Origin 2000/Onyx2."

Mapping a VME Device Into Process Address Space

As discussed in "CPU Access to Device Registers" on page 9, an I/O device is represented as an address, or range of addresses, in the address space of its bus. A kernel-level device driver has the ability to set up a mapping between the bus address of a device register and a location in the address space of a user-level process. When this has

been done, the device register appears to be a variable in memory. The program can assign values to it, or refer to it in expressions.

Learning VME Device Addresses

In order to map a VME device for PIO, you must know the following points:

- The VME bus number on which the device resides. IRIX supports as many as five VME buses. On Challenge and Onyx systems the first VME bus is number 0; on Origin and Onyx2 systems the first VME bus is number 1. Use the *hinv* command to see the numbers of others (and see “About VME Bus Addresses and System Addresses” on page 334).
- The VME address space in which the device resides
This will be either A16, A24, or A32.
- The VME address space modifier the device uses—either supervisory (s) or nonprivileged (n)
- The VME bus addresses associated with the device
This must be a sequential range of VME bus addresses that spans all the device registers you need to map.

This information is normally documented in VECTOR lines found in a file in the */var/sysgen/system/* directory (see “Defining VME Devices with the VECTOR Statement” on page 344).

Opening a Device Special File

When you know the device addresses, you can open a device special file that represents the correct range of addresses. The device special files for VME mapping are found in the hardware graph at paths having the form:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/usrvme/assm/width
```

The naming convention for these hwgraph paths is documented in the `usrvme(7)` reference page. Briefly, each path contains these variable elements:

- mod* The Origin or Onyx2 module number.
- n* The XIO slot number of the VME adapter.
- ss* The address space, either 16, 24, or 32.
- m* VME address modifier, *s* for supervisory or *n* for nonprivileged.
- width* Data width to be used, for example `d32`; covered in later table.

Shorter names are also created in the form

`/hw/vme/busnumber/usrvme/asm/width`

Tip: In previous versions of IRIX, comparable device special files were defined in the `/dev` directory using names such as `/dev/vme/vme0a16n` and the like. If you have code that depends on these names—or if you prefer the shorter names in `/dev`—feel free to create compatible names in `/dev` in the form of symbolic links to the `/hw.../usrvme` names.

The data width that is designated in the pathname as *width* can be selected from the values shown in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4 Data Width Names in VME Special Device Names

Address Space in Pathname	Supported Widths in Pathname
a16n, a16s	d16, d32
a24n, a24s	d16, d32
a32n, a32s opened for PIO access	d8, d16, d32_single
a32n, a32s opened for DMA access	d8, d16, d32_single, d32_block, d64_single, d64_block

Opening a device for DMA use is described under “VME User-Level DMA” on page 91.

Tip: You can display all the `usrvme` devices in the system using the `find` command in the `/hw` directory, as in

```
# find /hw -name /hw/vme/*usrvme/*/* -type c -print
```

Using the `mmap()` Function

When you have successfully opened the device special file, you use the file descriptor as the primary input parameter in a call to the `mmap()` system function.

This function has many different uses, all of which are documented in the `mmap(2)` reference page. For purposes of mapping a VME device into memory, the parameters should be as follows (using the names from the reference page):

<i>addr</i>	Should be NULL to permit the kernel to choose the address in user process space.
<i>len</i>	The length of the span of VME addresses, as documented in the <i>iospace</i> group in the VECTOR line.
<i>prot</i>	PROT_READ for input, PROT_WRITE for output, or the logical sum of those names when the device will be used for both.
<i>flags</i>	MAP_SHARED. Add MAP_PRIVATE if this mapping is not to be visible to child processes created with the <code>sproc()</code> function.
<i>fd</i>	The file descriptor returned from opening the device special file.
<i>off</i>	The starting VME bus address, as documented in the <i>iospace</i> group in the VECTOR line.

The value returned by `mmap()` is the virtual address that corresponds to the starting VME bus address. When the process accesses that address, the access is implemented by data transfer to the VME bus.

Limits on Maps

There are limits to the amount and location of VME bus address space that can be mapped for PIO. The system architecture can restrict the span of mappable addresses. Kernel resource constraints can impose limits on the number of VME maps that are simultaneously active. You must always inspect the return code from the `mmap()` call.

VME PIO Access

Once a VME device has been mapped into memory, your program reads from the device by referencing the mapped address, and writes to the device by storing into the mapped address.

Typically you organize the mapped space using a data structure that describes the layout of registers. Two key points to note about the mapped space are:

- You should always declare register variables with the C keyword **volatile**. This forces the C compiler to generate a reference to memory whenever the register value is needed.
- The VME PIO hardware does not support 64-bit integer load or store operations. For this reason you must not:
 - Declare a VME item as long long, because the C compiler generates 64-bit loads and stores for such variables
 - Apply library functions such as **bcopy()**, **bzero()**, or **memmove()** to the VME mapped registers, because these optimized routines use 64-bit loads and stores whenever possible.

On an Origin or Onyx2 system, a PIO read can take one or more microseconds to complete—a time in which the R10000 CPU can process many instructions from memory. The R10000 continues to execute instructions following the PIO load until it reaches an instruction that requires the value from that load. Then it stalls until the PIO data arrives from the device.

A PIO write is asynchronous at the hardware level. The CPU executes a register-store instruction that is complete as soon as the physical address and data have been placed on the system bus. The actual VME write operation on the VME bus can take 1 or more microseconds to complete. During that time the CPU can execute dozens or even hundreds more instructions from cache memory.

VME User-Level DMA

A DMA engine is included as part of each VME bus adapter in an Silicon Graphics Origin2000 system. The DMA engine can perform efficient, block-mode, DMA transfers between system memory and VME bus slave cards—cards that would normally be capable of only PIO transfers.

You can use the *udma* functions to access a VME Bus Master device, if the device can respond in slave mode. However, this would normally be less efficient than using the Master device's own DMA circuitry.

The DMA engine greatly increases the rate of data transfer compared to PIO, provided that you transfer at least 32 contiguous bytes at a time. The DMA engine can perform D8, D16, D32, D32 Block, and D64 Block data transfers in the A16, A24, and A32 bus address spaces.

Using the DMA Library Functions

All DMA engine transfers are initiated by a special device driver. However, you do not access this driver through open/read/write system calls. Instead, you program it through a library of functions. The functions are documented in the `vme_dma_engine(3)` reference page. They are used in the following sequence:

1. Call `vme_dma_engine_alloc()` to initialize DMA access to a particular VME bus adapter, specified by device special file name (see "Opening a Device Special File" on page 87). You can create an engine for each available bus.
2. Call `vme_dma_engine_buffer_alloc()` to allocate storage to use for DMA buffers. This function pins the memory pages of the buffers to prevent swapping.
3. You can call `vme_dma_engine_buffer_addr_get()` to return the address of a buffer allocated by the preceding function.
4. Call `vme_dma_engine_transfer_alloc()` to create a descriptor for an operation, including the buffer, the length, and the direction of transfer as well as several other attributes. The handle can be used repeatedly.
5. Call `vme_dma_engine_schedule()` to schedule one transfer (as described to `vme_dma_engine_transfer_alloc()`) for future execution. The transfer does not actually start at this time. This function can be called from multiple, parallel threads.

6. Call **vme_dma_engine_commit()** to commence execution of all scheduled transfers. If you specify a synchronous transfer, the function does not return until the transfer is complete.
7. If you specify an asynchronous transfer, call **vme_dma_engine_rendezvous()** after starting all transfers. This function does not return until all transfers are complete.

In prior releases, user-level DMA was provided through a comparable library of functions with different names and calling sequences. That library of functions is supported in the current release (see a prior edition of this manual, and the `udmalib(3)` reference page if installed). The new library described here is recommended.

User-Level Access to SCSI Devices

IRIX contains a programming library, called *dslib*, that allows you to control SCSI devices from a user-level process. This chapter documents the functions in *dslib*, including the following topics:

- “Overview of the dsreq Driver” on page 94 gives a summary of the features and use of the generic SCSI device driver.
- “Generic SCSI Device Special Files” on page 94 documents the format of the names and major and minor numbers of generic SCSI files.
- “The dsreq Structure” on page 97 gives details of the request structure that is the primary input to the generic SCSI driver.
- “Testing the Driver Configuration” on page 104 documents the use of the `DS_CONF ioctl()` operation.
- “Using the Special DS_RESET and DS_ABORT Calls” on page 105 describes two special functions of the generic SCSI driver.
- “Using *dslib* Functions” on page 105 describes the functions that make it simpler to use the generic SCSI driver.
- “Example *dslib* Program” on page 118 shows a simple example of use.

You must understand the SCSI interface in order to command a SCSI device. For several SCSI information resources, see “Other Sources of Information” on page xxxix.

If you are specifically interested in using audio data from a CDROM or DAT drive, you should use the special-purpose libraries for CDROM and DAT that are included in the IRIS Digital Media Development Environment. These libraries are built upon the generic SCSI driver, but provide convenient, audio-oriented functions. For more information on these libraries, see the *IRIS Digital Media Programming Guide*, document number 008-1799-040.

If your interest is in controlling SCSI devices at the kernel level, see Part V, “SCSI Device Drivers.”

Overview of the *dsreq* Driver

IRIX includes a generic SCSI device driver, the *dsreq* driver, through which a user-level program can issue SCSI commands to SCSI devices. This is a character device driver that supports only **open()**, **close()** and **ioctl()** operations (see “Kinds of Kernel-Level Drivers” on page 62, and also the *open(2)*, *close(2)* and *ioctl(2)* reference pages).

The formal documentation of the *dsreq* driver is found in the *ds(7)* reference page. In order to invoke its services, you prepare a *dsreq* data structure describing the operation and pass it to the device driver using an **ioctl()** call. The device driver issues the SCSI command you specify, and sleeps until it has completed. Then it returns the status in the *dsreq* structure.

You can request operations for input and output as well as issuing control and diagnostic commands. The *dsreq* structure for input and output operations specifies a buffer in memory for data transfer. The *dsreq* driver handles the task of locking the buffer into memory (if necessary) and managing a DMA transfer of data.

The programming interface supported by the generic SCSI driver is quite primitive. A library of higher-level functions makes it easier to use. This library is formally documented in the *dslib(3)* reference page, and is described under “Using *dslib* Functions” on page 105.

Generic SCSI Device Special Files

The creation and use of device special files is discussed under “Device Special Files” on page 36. A device special file represents a device, and is the mechanism for associating a device with a kernel-level device driver.

The device special files in the */dev/scsi* directory are all associated with the *dsreq* driver. A basic set of these names is created automatically by the */dev/MAKEDEV* script (see “The Script *MAKEDEV*” on page 41). You have to create additional device special files if you need to control logical units other than logical unit 0.

Major and Minor Device Numbers in /dev/scsi

Device special files in */dev/scsi* have one of the following major device numbers:

- 195 for devices on a SCSI bus (files */dev/scsi/sc**).
- 196 for devices on a *jag* (VME) SCSI bridge (files */dev/scsi/jag**).

The minor number of these files encodes the adapter number, the SCSI ID, and the LUN, using the bit assignments shown in Figure 5-1.

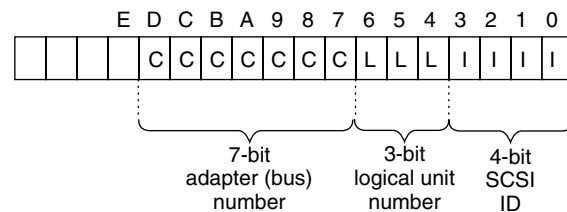


Figure 5-1 Bit Assignments in SCSI Device Minor Numbers

Form of Filenames in /dev/scsi

Each device special filename in the */dev/scsi* directory reflects the values of the device's adapter (bus) number, SCSI ID, and logical unit number (LUN).

Tip: The character between the SCSI ID and the LUN in these names is the letter "l." When reading or copying these device names, take care not to write a digit 1 instead. This is a frequent error.

Names of SCSI Devices on a SCSI Bus

Devices attached directly to a SCSI bus have names in this form:

sc	Prefix "sc" for SCSI attachment.
0 to 137	Number of the SCSI adapter, typically 0 or 1.
d	Constant letter "d" for device.
0 to 7 (to 15 for wide SCSI)	SCSI ID of the target device or control unit, as set by switches on the device itself.
l (letter ell)	Constant letter "l" for logical unit.
0 to 7	Logical unit number (LUN) of this device, typically 0.

A typical device name would be `/dev/scsi/sc1d3l0` meaning a SCSI device configured as ID 3 on SCSI bus 1. Either this device has no logical units, or this is the first logical unit on device 3.

Names of SCSI Devices on the Jag (VME Bus) Controller

Machines in the Challenge and Onyx systems can optionally have SCSI devices attached to the VME bus through a bridge using the *jag* device driver. These devices are also represented in `/dev/scsi` with names of the following form:

jag	Prefix "jag" for VME/SCSI attachment.
0 to 4	Number of the VME adapter, typically 0 or 1.
d	Constant letter "d" for device.
0 to 7 (to 15 for wide SCSI)	SCSI ID of the target device or control unit, as set by switches on the device itself.
l (letter ell)	Constant letter "l" for logical unit.
0 to 7	Logical unit number (LUN) of this device, typically 0.

A typical device name would be `/dev/scsi/jag1d3l0` meaning a SCSI device configured as ID 3 on VME bus 1. Either the device has no logical units, or this is the first logical unit on device 3.

Creating Additional Names in `/dev/scsi`

The script `/dev/MAKEDEV`, which runs each time the system boots, creates 16 files for each existing SCSI or jag bus. These files represent the possible SCSI ID numbers 0-15 on each bus, with a logical number of 0. If you want to control a device with LUN 0, the device special file exists.

In order to control a device with a LUN of 1-7, you must create an additional device special file, using the *mknod* or *install* command (see the `install(1)` reference page). For example, before you can operate logical unit 2 of device 5 on SCSI bus 1, you must create `/dev/scsi/sc1d5l2` using a command such as

```
install -F /dev/scsi -m 600 -u root -g sys \  
-chr 195,165 sc1d5l2
```

Relationship to Other Device Special Files

The files in */dev/scsi* describe many of the same devices that are described by files in */dev/dsk*, */dev/tape*, and other directories. There is a security exposure in that a user-level program could use a */dev/scsi* file to do almost anything to a disk or tape, including total erasure.

The *dsreq* device driver forces exclusivity with itself; that is, a given */dev/scsi* file can be opened only by one process at a time. However, a device could be open through the *dsreq* driver at the same time it is open by another process, or by a filesystem, through a different device special file and device driver. For example, a disk volume could be simultaneously open through the name */dev/scsi/sc0d0l0* and through */dev/rdisk/dks0d1s0*.

The process that opens a generic SCSI device can request exclusivity using the `O_EXCL` option to `open()`. In that case, the open is rejected when the device is already open through another driver; and no other driver can open the device until the generic device file is closed.

The dsreq Structure

The primary input to most *dsreq* `ioctl()` calls, as well as the primary input to most `dslib` functions, is the *dsreq* structure. This structure is declared in */usr/include/sys/dsreq.h*, a header file that rewards careful study.

The important fields of the *dsreq* structure are shown in Table 5-1. Some of the field values are expanded in the following topics. The *sys/dsreq.h* file declares macros for access to many of the fields. Use these macros (listed in Table 5-1) in both expressions and assignments in order to insulate your code against future changes.

Table 5-1 Fields of the dsreq Structure

Field Name	Macro	Purpose
<i>ds_flags</i>	FLAGS(dp)	Bits used to determine device driver actions. See “Values for <i>ds_flags</i> ” on page 99.
<i>ds_time</i>	TIME(dp)	Timeout value in milliseconds. If the command does not complete, it is ended with an error code. The driver sets a default of 5000 (5 seconds) when this is set to zero. <code>dsopen()</code> initializes it to 10000.

Table 5-1 (continued) Fields of the *dsreq* Structure

Field Name	Macro	Purpose
<i>ds_private</i>	PRIVATE(dp)	Field for use by the calling program. dsopen() uses this field to point to its “context” data (see “Using dsopen() and dsclse() ” on page 107).
<i>ds_cmdbuf</i>	CMDBUF(dp)	Address of SCSI command string to be sent.
<i>ds_cmdlen</i>	CMDLEN(dp)	Length of the SCSI command string.
<i>ds_databuf</i>	DATABUF(dp)	Address of a single data buffer. See “Data Transfer Options” on page 100.
<i>ds_dataalen</i>	DATALEN(dp)	Length of data buffer.
<i>ds_sensebuf</i>	SENSEBUF(dp)	Address to receive sense data after an error.
<i>ds_senselen</i>	SENSELEN(dp)	Length of sense buffer in bytes.
<i>ds_iovbuf</i>	IOVBUF(dp)	Address of an <i>iov_t</i> structure. See “Data Transfer Options” on page 100.
<i>ds_iovlen</i>	IOVLEN(dp)	Length of data described by <i>ds_iovbuf</i> .
<i>ds_link</i>		This field is not supported, and should be zero-filled.
<i>ds_synch</i>		This field is not supported, and should be zero-filled.
<i>ds_revcode</i>		Intended for the version code of the <i>dsreq</i> driver, not currently set to a useful value.
<i>ds_ret</i>	RET(dp)	Return code for the requested operation. See Table 5-3 on page 101.
<i>ds_status</i>	STATUS(dp)	SCSI status byte from the operation. See Table 5-4 on page 102.
<i>ds_msg</i>	MSG(dp)	The first byte of a message returned by the target. See Table 5-5 on page 103.
<i>ds_cmdsent</i>	CMDSSENT(dp)	Length of command string actually sent (same as <i>ds_cmdlen</i> , unless an error occurs).
<i>ds_datasent</i>	DATASENT(dp)	Length of data transferred.
<i>ds_sensesent</i>	SENSESENT(dp)	Length of sense data received.

The dslib library contains functions to simplify the preparation and execution of a *dsreq* request; see “Using dslib Functions” on page 105.

Values for *ds_flags*

The possible flag values in the *ds_flags* field are listed in Table 5-2. The flag values are designed for the most flexible, capable type of bus, device, and device driver. Not all values are supported, and different host adapters can support different combinations.

Table 5-2 Flag Values for *ds_flags*

Constant Name	Supported by Any Driver?	Meaning When Set to 1
DSRQ_ASYNC	Yes	Return at once, do not sleep until the operation is complete.
DSRQ_SENSE	Yes	Get sense data following an error on the requested command.
DSRQ_TARGET	No	Act as the SCSI target, not the SCSI initiator.
DSRQ_SELATN	Yes	Select with ATN.
DSRQ_DISC	Yes	Allow identify disconnect.
DSRQ_SYNXFR	Yes	Negotiate a synchronous transfer if possible. Needed only to switch into synchronous mode. Repeated negotiation is wasteful.
DSRQ_ASYNCXFR	Yes	Negotiate an asynchronous transfer. Needed only to return to asynch after a synchronous transfer. Repeated negotiation is wasteful.
DSRQ_SELMSG	No	A specific select is coded in the message. This feature is not supported.
DSRQ_IOV	Yes	Use the <i>iov_t</i> from <i>ds_iovbuf</i> , not the single buffer from <i>ds_databuf</i> (see “Data Transfer Options” on page 100).
DSRQ_READ	Yes	This is a data input command (as opposed to an immediate command or an output).
DSRQ_WRITE	Yes	This is a data output command (as opposed to an immediate command or an input).

Table 5-2 (continued) Flag Values for `ds_flags`

Constant Name	Supported by Any Driver?	Meaning When Set to 1
<code>DSRQ_MIXRDWR</code>	No	This command can both read and write.
<code>DSRQ_BUF</code>	No	Buffer the input and copy to the supplied buffer, instead of direct input to the buffer.
<code>DSRQ_CALL</code>	No	Notify completion (with <code>DSRQ_ASYNC</code>).
<code>DSRQ_ACKH</code>	No	Hold ACK asserted.
<code>DSRQ_ATNH</code>	No	Hold ATN asserted.
<code>DSRQ_ABORT</code>	No	Send ABORT messages until the bus is clear. Useful only with SCSI commands that have the immediate bit set.
<code>DSRQ_TRACE</code>	Yes	Trace this request (accepted but has no effect).
<code>DSRQ_PRINT</code>	Yes	Print this request (accepted but has no effect).
<code>DSRQ_CTRL1</code>	Yes	Request with host control bit 1.
<code>DSRQ_CTRL2</code>	Yes	Request with host control bit 2.

In order to find out which flags are supported by a particular driver, use the `DS_CONF` operation (see “Testing the Driver Configuration” on page 104).

Data Transfer Options

When reading or writing data, you have two design options:

- You can transfer a single segment of data directly between the device and a buffer you supply (set neither `DSRQ_BUF` nor `DSRQ_IOV`).
- You can transfer segments of data between the device and a series of one or more memory locations based on an `iov_t` object (set `DSRQ_IOV`).

All read/write requests are done using DMA. The “scatter/gather” support of `DSRQ_IOV` is presently restricted to only one memory segment, so it is not greatly different from single-buffer I/O. If you elect to use it, the `iov_t` structure is declared in `sys/iov.h` (see also the part of the `read(2)` reference page that deals with the `readv()` function).

During a direct transfer using either a single buffer or scatter/gather, the data buffer spaces are locked in memory.

The maximum amount of data you can transfer in one operation is set by the host adapter driver for the bus, and can be retrieved with an `ioctl()` (see “Testing the Driver Configuration” on page 104). The maximum length for a buffered transfer is returned by the same `ioctl()`. It can be less than the direct-transfer size because there may be a limit on the size of kernel memory that can be allocated.

Return Codes and Status Values

A zero return code in the `ds_ret` field signifies success. The possible nonzero return codes are summarized in Table 5-3 and are declared in `sys/dsreq.h`. Not all return codes are possible with every driver.

Table 5-3 Return Codes From SCSI Operations

Constant Name	Meaning
DSRT_DEVSCSI	General failure from SCSI driver.
DSRT_MULT	General software failure, typically a SCSI-bus request.
DSRT_CANCEL	Operation cancelled in host adapter driver.
DSRT_REVCODE	Software level mismatch, recompile application.
DSRT_AGAIN	Try again, recoverable SCSI-bus error.
DSRT_HOST	Failure reported by host adapter driver for the bus in use.
DSRT_NOSEL	No unit responded to select.
DSRT_SHORT	Incomplete transfer (not an error). See <code>ds_datasent</code> .
DSRT_OK	Not returned at this time.
DSRT_SENSE	Command returned with status; sense data successfully retrieved from SCSI host (see <code>ds_sensesent</code>).
DSRT_NOSENSE	Command with status, error occurred while trying to get sense data from SCSI host.
DSRT_TIMEOUT	Command did not complete in the time allowed by <code>ds_timeout</code> .

Table 5-3 (continued) Return Codes From SCSI Operations

Constant Name	Meaning
DSRT_LONG	Data transfer overran bounds (<i>ds_dataalen</i>).
DSRT_PROTO	Miscellaneous protocol failure.
DSRT_EBSY	Busy dropped unexpectedly; protocol error.
DSRT_REJECT	Message rejected; protocol error.
DSRT_PARITY	Parity error on SCSI bus; protocol error.
DSRT_MEMORY	Memory error in system memory.
DSRT_CMDO	Protocol error during command phase.
DSRT_STAI	Protocol error during status phase.
DSRT_UNIMPL	Command not implemented; protocol error.

The possible SCSI status value in the *ds_status* field are summarized in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4 SCSI Status Codes

Constant Name	Meaning
STA_GOOD	The target has successfully completed the SCSI command.
STA_CHECK	An error or exception was detected. Sense was attempted if <i>DSRQ_SENSE</i> was specified.
STA_BUSY	Command not attempted; addressed unit is busy.
STA_IGOOD	Linked SCSI command completed.
STA_RESERV	Command aborted because it tried to access a logical unit or an extent within a logical unit that reserves that type of access to another SCSI device.

The possible SCSI message byte values in the *ds_msg* field are summarized in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5 SCSI Message Byte Values

Constant Name	Meaning
MSG_COMPL	Command complete.
MSG_XMSG	Extended message (only byte returned).
MSG_SAVEP	Initiator should save data pointers.
MSG_RESTP	Initiator restore data pointers.
MSG_DISC	Disconnect.
MSG_IERR	Initiator detected error.
MSG_ABORT	Abort.
MSG_REJECT	Optional message rejected, not supported.
MSG_NOOP	Empty message.
MSG_MPARITY	Parity error during Message In phase.
MSG_LINK	Linked command complete.
MSG_LINKF	Linked command complete with flag.
MSG_BRESET	Bus device reset.
MSG_IDENT	Value 0x80, first of the 0x80-0xFF identifier messages.

Testing the Driver Configuration

Different buses have different host adapter drivers that can have different features. The *dsreq* device driver supports an **ioctl()** call that retrieves the configuration of the driver for the bus where the device resides. This call fills in the fields of a structure of type *dsconf* (declared in *sys/dsreq.h*) listed in Table 5-6.

Table 5-6 Fields of the *dsconf* Structure

Field Name	Contents
<i>dsc_flags</i>	DSRQ flags honored by this driver (see Table 5-2 on page 99)
<i>dsc_preset</i>	DSRQ preset values (defaults) that are merged with the input <i>ds_flags</i> using logical OR in any request.
<i>dsc_bus</i>	Number of this SCSI bus, as encoded in the device minor number.
<i>dsc_imax</i>	Maximum target ID for this bus (7 for SCSI, 15 for wide SCSI).
<i>dsc_lmax</i>	Maximum number LUN values per ID on this bus.
<i>dsc_iomax</i>	Maximum length of a single I/O transfer.
<i>dsc_biomax</i>	Maximum length of a buffered I/O transfer.

The code in Example 5-1 shows a function that tests if a particular flag is supported by a particular bus. The input arguments are a file descriptor for an open device special file, and a flag value (or values) from *sys/dsreq.h*.

Example 5-1 Testing the Generic SCSI Configuration

```
uint
test_dsreq_flags(int dev_fd, uint flag)
{
    dsconf_t config;
    int ret;
    ret = ioctl(dev_fd, DS_CONF, &config);
    if (!ret) { /* no problem in ioctl */
        return (flag & config.dsc_flags);
    } else { /* ioctl failure */
        return 0; /* not supported, it seems */
    }
}
```

A program could use the function in Example 5-1 to find out if a particular feature is supported. For example, a test of support for the DSRQ_SYNXFER feature could be coded as follows:

```
if (test_dsreq_flags(the_dev, DSRQ_SYNXFER)) {  
    /* synchronous negotiation is supported */...
```

Using the Special DS_RESET and DS_ABORT Calls

Two special functions of the generic SCSI driver are available only as **ioctl()** calls, not through **dslib** functions.

Using DS_ABORT

The **DS_ABORT ioctl()** sends a SCSI ABORT message to the bus, target, and LUN defined by the file descriptor. The resulting status is returned in the *dsreq* that is also specified. The host adapter driver waits until no commands are pending on that bus, so there is no point in using this function to cancel anything but an immediate command such as a rewind. An example of this call is as follows:

```
ioctl(dev_fd, DS_ABORT, &some_dsreq);
```

Using DS_RESET

The **DS_RESET ioctl()** function causes a reset of the SCSI bus specified by the file descriptor. The resulting status is returned in the *dsreq* that is also specified. This powerful operation should be used with great care, because it terminates all pending activity on the bus.

Using dslib Functions

The functions in the **dslib** library are built upon calls to the **dsreq** device driver, and simplify the process of allocating a **dsreq** structure, setting values in it, and executing commands. The formal documentation of the library is found in **dslib(3)**. The source code is distributed with the system in the */usr/share/src/irix/examples/scsi* directory so that you can read and extend it. (This directory installs as part of the **irix_dev** software component, and the **examples** directory does not install by default.)

dslib Functions

In order to use the functions in the library, you include `/usr/include/dslib.h` in your code, and link with the `-lds` option so as to link `/usr/lib/libds.so`. Then the functions summarized in Table 5-7 are available.

Table 5-7 dslib Function Summary

Function Name	Purpose	Page
<code>ds_ctostr</code>	Look up a string in a table using an integer key.	page 110
<code>ds_vtostr</code>	Look up a string in a table using an integer key.	page 110
<code>dsopen</code>	Open a device special file and allocate a <i>dsreq</i> for use with it.	page 107
<code>dsfclose</code>	Free the <i>dsreq</i> structure and close the device.	page 107
<code>doscsireq</code>	Perform an operation on a device as specified in a <i>dsreq</i> .	page 108
<code>filldsreq</code>	Set values in fields of a <i>dsreq</i> structure.	page 108
<code>fillg0cmd</code>	Set up the <i>dsreq</i> structure for a group 0 SCSI command.	page 109
<code>fillg1cmd</code>	Set up the <i>dsreq</i> structure for a group 1 SCSI command.	page 109
<code>inquiry12</code>	Issue an Inquiry command and retrieve information from the device concerning such things as its type.	page 111
<code>modeselect15</code>	Issue a group 0 Mode Select command to a SCSI device.	page 111
<code>modesense1a</code>	Send a group 0 Mode Sense command to a device to retrieve a parameter page from the device.	page 112
<code>read08</code>	Issue a group 0 Read command in disk-drive form.	page 113
<code>readextended28</code>	Issue a group 1 Read command in disk-drive form.	page 113
<code>readcapacity25</code>	Issue a Read Capacity command.	page 114
<code>requestsense03</code>	Issue a Request Sense command and test or probe for the device.	page 114
<code>reserveunit16</code>	Issue a Reserve Unit command.	page 115
<code>releaseunit17</code>	Issue a Release Unit command.	page 115
<code>senddiagnostic1d</code>	Issue a Send Diagnostic command to test if the device or the SCSI bus is online, or run a self-test on the device.	page 116

Table 5-7 (continued) dslib Function Summary

Function Name	Purpose	Page
testunitready00	Issue a Test Unit Ready command to the SCSI device.	page 116
write0a	Issue a group 0 Write command to the SCSI device.	page 117
writeextended2a	Issue an extended Write command to the SCSI device.	page 117

Using **dsopen()** and **dsfclose()**

The **dsopen()** function opens a device special file for a generic SCSI device, and allocates a *dsreq* structure initialized for use with that device. The function prototype is

```
struct dsreq* dsopen(char *opath, int oflags);
```

The arguments are

<i>opath</i>	The name of the device special file as a character string, for example “/dev/scsi/jag0d710” (see “Form of Filenames in /dev/scsi” on page 95).
<i>oflags</i>	The <i>oflag</i> value expected by open() when opening this device special file. O_EXCL has special meaning; see “Relationship to Other Device Special Files” on page 97.

If the **open()** call fails or memory cannot be allocated, the function returns NULL. Otherwise it allocates a *dsreq* structure as well as generous buffers for command and sense strings. The following fields of the *dsreq* are initialized:

<i>ds_time</i>	Set to 10000 (10 second timeout).
<i>ds_private</i>	Set to the address of the context that contains the <i>dsreq</i> as well as the command and sense buffers.
<i>ds_cmdbuf</i>	Set to the address of the command buffer.
<i>ds_cmdlen</i>	Set to the length of the allocated command buffer.
<i>ds_sensebuf</i>	Set to the address of the allocated sense buffer.
<i>ds_senselen</i>	Set to the length of the sense buffer.

Other fields of the *dsreq* are cleared to zero.

Note: Other functions in `dslib` assume that a `dsreq` has been initialized by `dsopen()`. In particular they assume the `ds_private` value points to a context block. You should not attempt to use any `dsreq` structure with a `dslib` function except one returned by `dsopen()`; and you should not use a `dsreq` opened for one file with another file.

The `dsfclose()` function releases the `dsreq` structure and close the device. Its prototype is

```
void dsfclose(struct dsreq *dsp);
```

The only argument is the `dsreq` created by `dsopen()`.

Issuing a Request With `doscsireq()`

The `doscsireq()` function issues a SCSI request by passing a `dsreq` to the SCSI device driver using an `ioctl()` call. The `dsreq` must have been prepared completely beforehand. The function prototype is

```
int doscsireq(int fd, struct dsreq *dsp);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>fd</i>	The file descriptor for the open device file.
<i>dsp</i>	The address of the <code>dsreq</code> prepared by <code>dsopen()</code> .

Normally the returned value is the SCSI status byte. When the requested operation ends with Busy or Reserve Conflict status, the function sleeps 2 seconds and tries the operation up to four times. The returned value is -1 when the device driver rejects the `ioctl()` or the third retry ends in failure.

SCSI Utility Functions

The functions `filldsreq()`, `fillg0cmd()`, `fillg1cmd()`, `ds_vtostr()`, and `ds_ctostr()` are not oriented toward particular SCSI operations, but are used to construct your own task-oriented SCSI functions.

Using `filldsreq()`

The `filldsreq()` function is used to set the `ds_flags`, `ds_databuf`, and `ds_dataalen` members of a `dsreq` structure. Its prototype is

```
void filldsreq(struct dsreq *dsp, uchar_t *data, long dataalen, long flags)
```


The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> prepared by <code>dsopen()</code> .
<i>data</i>	The address of a buffer area.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the buffer area.
<i>flags</i>	Flag values for <i>ds_flags</i> (see “Values for <i>ds_flags</i> ” on page 99).

The bits in *flags* are added to *ds_flags* with an OR; they do not replace the contents of the field.

Note: Besides the specified values, the function also sets 10000 in *ds_timeout* and clears *ds_link*, *ds_synch*, and *ds_ret* to zero.

Using `fillg0cmd()` and `fillg1cmd()`

The `fillg0cmd()` function stores a group 0 (6-byte) SCSI command in a command buffer. The `fillg1cmd()` stores a group 1 (10-byte) SCSI command in the buffer. Both functions set the *ds_cmdbuf* and *ds_cmdlen* fields of a *dsreq*. The function prototypes are:

```
void fillg0cmd(struct dsreq *dsp, uchar_t *cmdbuf, b0, ..., b5)
void fillg1cmd(struct dsreq *dsp, uchar_t *cmdbuf, b0, ..., b9)
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of any <i>dsreq</i> .
<i>cmdbuf</i>	The address of a buffer to receive the command string.
<i>b0, b1,...</i>	Expressions for the successive bytes of a SCSI command.

In typical use, the arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> initialized by <code>dsopen()</code> .
<i>cmdbuf</i>	The command buffer allocated by <code>dsopen()</code> , whose address is stored in the <i>ds_cmdbuf</i> field of the <i>dsreq</i> .
<i>b0</i>	A SCSI command verb expressed as one of the constants declared in <code>dslib.h</code> , for example <code>G0_INQU</code> .

A typical call resembles the following:

```
fillg0cmd(dsp, (uchar_t *)CMDBUF(dsp), G0_INQU, 1, inq_page, 0,
B1(datalen), 0);
```

The macros B1(), B2(), and B4() defined in *sys/dsreq.h* are useful for expressing halfword and word values as byte sequences.

Using ds_vtostr() and ds_ctostr()

The dslib library module contains six static tables that can be used to convert between numeric values and character strings for message display. The tables are summarized in Table 5-8. The table definitions are in the source file *dstab.c*.

Table 5-8 Lookup Tables in dslib

External Name	Type	Table Contents
cmdnametab	vtab	Names for SCSI command bytes, for example "Test Unit."
cmdstatustab	vtab	Names for SCSI status byte codes, for example "BUSY."
dsrqnametab	vtab	Descriptions of flag values from <i>ds_flags</i> , for example "select with (without) atn" for DSRQ_SELATN.
dsrtnametab	vtab	Descriptions of return values in <i>ds_ret</i> , for example "parity error on SCSI bus" for DSRT_PARITY.
msgnametab	vtab	Descriptions of SCSI message bytes, for example "Save Pointers."
sensekeytab	ctab	Descriptions of SCSI sense byte values, for example "Illegal Request."

The **ds_vtostr()** function searches any of the five vtab tables for the string matching an integer key. The **ds_ctostr()** function searches a ctab (currently, only sensekeytab is a ctab) for the string matching a key. The function prototypes are

```
char * ds_vtostr(unsigned long v, struct vtab *table);
char * ds_ctostr(unsigned long v, struct ctab *table);
```

Each function searches the specified table for a row containing the numeric value *v*, and returns address of the corresponding string. If there is no such row, the functions return the address of a zero-length string.

Using Command-Building Functions

The remaining functions in dslib each construct and execute a specific type of common SCSI command. Each function follows this general pattern:

1. Use `fillg0cmd()` or `fillg1cmd()` to set up the command string, based on the function's arguments.
2. Use `filldsreq()` to set up the remaining fields of the `dsreq` structure.
3. Execute the command using `doscsireq()`.
4. Return the value returned by `doscsireq()`.

You can construct similar, additional functions using the utility functions in this same way. In particular you are likely to need to construct your own function to issue Read commands.

inquiry12()—Issue an Inquiry Command

The `inquiry12()` function prepares and issues an Inquiry command to retrieve device-specific information. The function prototype is

```
int inquiry12(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <code>dsreq</code> structure prepared by <code>dsopen()</code> .
<i>data</i>	The address of a buffer to receive the inquiry response.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the buffer, at least 36 and typically 64.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

modeselect15()—Issue a Group 0 Mode Select Command

The `modeselect15()` function prepares and issues a group 0 Mode Select command. This command is used to control a variety of standard and vendor-specific device parameters. Typically, `modesense1A0` is first used to retrieve the current parameters. The function prototype is

```
int modeselect15(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
                int save, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of a mode data page to send.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the data.
<i>save</i>	The least significant bit sets the SP bit in the command.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

modesense1a()—Send a Group 0 Mode Sense Command

The **modesense1a()** function prepares and issues a group 0 Mode Sense command to a SCSI device to retrieve a page of device-dependent information. The function prototype:

```
int modesense1a(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
               int pagectrl, int pagecode, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of a buffer to receive the page of data.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the buffer.
<i>pagectrl</i>	The least significant 2 bits are set as the PCF bits in the command.
<i>pagecode</i>	The least significant 6 bits are set as the page number.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

For reference, the PCF codes are as follows:

0	Current values.
1	Changeable values.
2	Default values.
3	Saved values.

For reference, some page numbers are as follows:

0	Vendor unique.
---	----------------

- 1 Read/write error recovery.
- 2 Disconnect/reconnect.
- 3 Direct access device format; parallel interface; measurement units.
- 4 Rigid disk geometry; serial interface.
- 5 Flexible disk; printer options.
- 6 Optical memory.
- 7 Verification error.
- 8 Caching.
- 9 Peripheral device.
- 63 (0x3f) Return all pages supported.

read08() and readextended28()—Issue a Read Command

The **read08()** and **readextended28()** functions prepare and issue particular forms of SCSI Read commands. The Read and extended Read commands have so many variations that it is unlikely that either of these functions will work with your device. However, you can use them as models to build additional variations on Read. Do not preempt the function names.

The function prototypes are

```
int
read08(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
        long lba, int vu);
int
readextended28(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
               long lba, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

- dsp* The address of a *dsreq* structure prepared by **dsopen()**.
- data* The address of a buffer to receive the data.
- datalen* The length of the buffer (not exceeding 255 for **read08**)
- lba* The logical block address for the start of the read (not exceeding 16 bits for **read08**)
- vu* The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

The functions set the transfer length in the command to the number of bytes given by *datalen*. This is often incorrect; many devices want a number of blocks of some size. Function **read08()** sets only 16 bits from *lba* as the logical block number, although the SCSI command format permits another 5 bits to be encoded in the command. For these and other reasons you are likely to need to create customized Read functions of your own.

readcapacity25()—Issue a Read Capacity Command

The **readcapacity25()** function prepares and issues a Read Capacity command to a SCSI device. The function prototype is

```
int
readcapacity25(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
              long lba, int pmi, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of a buffer to receive the capacity data.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the buffer, typically 8.
<i>lba</i>	Last block address, 0 unless <i>pmi</i> is nonzero.
<i>pmi</i>	The least-significant bit is used to set the partial medium indicator (PMI) bit of the command.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

When *pmi* is 0, *lba* should be given as 0 and the command returns the device capacity. When *pmi* is 1, the command returns the last block following block *lba* before which a delay (seek) will occur.

requestsense03()—Issue a Request Sense Command

The **requestsense03()** function prepares and issues a Request Sense command. If you include `DSRQ_SENSE` in the *flag* argument to **doscsireq()**, a Request Sense is sent automatically after an error in a command. The function prototype is

```
int
requestsense03(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data,
              long datalen, int vu);
```

The arguments are:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of a buffer to receive the sense data.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the buffer.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

reserveunit16() and **releaseunit17()**—Control Logical Units

The **reserveunit16()** function prepares and issues a Reserve Unit command to reserve a logical unit, causing it to return Reservation Conflict status to requests from other initiators. The **releaseunit17()** function prepares and issues a Release Unit command to release a reserved unit. The function prototypes are

```
int
reservunit16(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
             int tpr, int tpdid, int extent, int res_id, int vu);
int
releaseunit17(struct dsreq *dsp,
              int tpr, int tpdid, int extent, int res_id, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of data to send with the Reserve Unit. (This may be NULL for reservunit16() which does not normally transfer data.)
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the data (typically 0).
<i>tpr</i>	The least-significant bit is used to set the Third-Party Reservation bit in the command: 1 means the reservation is on behalf of another initiator.
<i>tpdid</i>	The device ID for the device to hold the reservation: 0 unless <i>tpr</i> is 1.
<i>extent</i>	The least-significant bit sets the least-significant bit of byte 1 of the command string.
<i>res_id</i>	Passed as byte 2 of the command string.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

senddiagnostic1d()—Issue a Send Diagnostic Command

The **senddiagnostic1d()** function prepares and issues a Send Diagnostic command. The function prototype is

```
int
senddiagnostic1d(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
                 int self, int dofl, int uofl, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of a page or pages of diagnostic parameter data to be sent.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the data (0 if none).
<i>self</i>	The least-significant bit sets the Self Test (ST) bit in the command: 1 means return status from the self-test; 0 means hold the results.
<i>dofl</i>	The least-significant bit sets the Device Offline bit of the command: 1 authorizes tests that can change the status of other logical units.
<i>uofl</i>	The least-significant bit sets the Unit Offline bit of the command: 1 authorizes tests that can change the status of the logical unit.
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

When *self* is 1, the status reflects the success of the self-test. You should either set the DSRQ_SENSE flag in the *dsreq* so that if the self-test fails, a Sense command will be issued, or be prepared to call **requestsense03()**. When *self* is 0, you can use a Read Diagnostic command to return detailed results of the test (however, *dslib* does not contain a predefined function for Read Diagnostic).

testunitready00—Issue a Test Unit Ready Command

The **testunitready00()** function prepares and issues a Test Unit Ready command to a SCSI device. The function prototype is

```
int
testunitready00(struct dsreq *dsp);
```

This function is reproduced here in Example 5-2 as an example of how other command-oriented functions can be created.

Example 5-2 Code of the `testunitread00()` Function

```
int
testunitready00(struct dsreq *dsp)
{
    fillg0cmd(dsp, CMDBUF(dsp), G0_TEST, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0);
    filldsreq(dsp, 0, 0, DSRQ_READ|DSRQ_SENSE);
    return(doscsireq(getfd(dsp), dsp));
}
```

write0a() and writeextended2a()—Issue a Write Command

The **write0a()** function prepares and issues a group 0 Write command. The **writeextended2a()** function prepares and issues an extended (10-byte) Write command. As with Read commands (see “`read08()` and `readextended28()`—Issue a Read Command” on page 113), Write commands have many device-specific features, and you will very likely have to create your own customized version of these functions.

The function prototypes are

```
int
write0a(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
        long lba, int vu);

int
writeextended2a(struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen,
               long lba, int vu);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>dsp</i>	The address of a <i>dsreq</i> structure prepared by dsopen() .
<i>data</i>	The address of the data to be sent.
<i>datalen</i>	The length of the data (at most 255 for write0a)
<i>lba</i>	The logical block address (at most 16 bits for write0a)
<i>vu</i>	The least-significant two bits are used to set the vendor-specific bits in the Control byte in the command.

Example dslib Program

The program in Example 5-3 illustrates the use of the dslib functions. This is an edited version of a program that can be obtained in full from Dave Olson's home page, <http://reality.sgi.com/employees/olson/Olson/index.html>.

Example 5-3 Program That Uses dslib Functions

```
#ident "scsicontrol.c: $Revision $"

#include <sys/types.h>
#include <stddef.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <ctype.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <dslib.h>

typedef struct
{
    unchar  pqt:3; /* peripheral qual type */
    unchar  pdt:5; /* peripheral device type */
    unchar  rmb:1, /* removable media bit */
           dtq:7; /* device type qualifier */
    unchar  iso:2, /* ISO version */
           ecma:3, /* ECMA version */
           ansi:3; /* ANSI version */
    unchar  aenc:1, /* async event notification supported */
           trmiop:1, /* device supports 'terminate io process' msg */
           res0:2, /* reserved */
           respfmt:3; /* SCSI 1, CCS, SCSI 2 inq data format */
    unchar  ailen; /* additional inquiry length */
    unchar  res1; /* reserved */
    unchar  res2; /* reserved */
    unchar  reladr:1, /* supports relative addressing (linked cmds) */
           wide32:1, /* supports 32 bit wide SCSI bus */
           wide16:1, /* supports 16 bit wide SCSI bus */
           synch:1, /* supports synch mode */
           link:1, /* supports linked commands */
           res3:1, /* reserved */
           cmdq:1, /* supports cmd queuing */
};
```

```

        softre:1; /* supports soft reset */
    unchar vid[8]; /* vendor ID */
    unchar pid[16]; /* product ID */
    unchar prl[4]; /* product revision level*/
    unchar vendsp[20]; /* vendor specific; typically firmware info */
    unchar res4[40]; /* reserved for scsi 3, etc. */
    /* more vendor specific information may follow */
} inqdata;

struct msel {
    unsigned char rsv, mtype, vendspec, blkdesclen; /* header */
    unsigned char dens, nblks[3], rsv1, bsize[3]; /* block desc */
    unsigned char pgnum, pglen; /* modesel page num and length */
    unsigned char data[240]; /* some drives get upset if no data requested
        on sense*/
};

#define hex(x) "0123456789ABCDEF" [ (x) & 0xF ]

/* only looks OK if nperline a multiple of 4, but that's OK.
 * value of space must be 0 <= space <= 3;
 */
void
hprint(unsigned char *s, int n, int nperline, int space)
{
    int i, x, startl;

    for(startl=i=0;i<n;i++) {
        x = s[i];
        printf("%c%c", hex(x>>4), hex(x));
        if(space)
            printf("%.*s", ((i%4)==3)+space, " ");
        if ( i%nperline == (nperline - 1) ) {
            putchar('\t');
            while(startl < i) {
                if(isprint(s[startl]))
                    putchar(s[startl]);
                else
                    putchar('.');
                startl++;
            }
            putchar('\n');
        }
    }
    if(space && (i%nperline))

```

```
        putchar('\n');
    }

/* aenc, trmiop, reladr, wbus*, synch, linkq, softre are only valid if
 * if respfmt has the value 2 (or possibly larger values for future
 * versions of the SCSI standard). */

static char pdt_types[][16] = {
    "Disk", "Tape", "Printer", "Processor", "WORM", "CD-ROM",
    "Scanner", "Optical", "Jukebox", "Comm", "Unknown"
};
#define NPDT (sizeof pdt_types / sizeof pdt_types[0])

void
printing(struct dsreq *dsp, inqdata *inq, int allinq)
{
    if(DATASENT(dsp) < 1) {
        printf("No inquiry data returned\n");
        return;
    }
    printf("%-10s", pdt_types[(inq->pdt < NPDT) ? inq->pdt : NPDT-1]);
    if (DATASENT(dsp) > 8)
        printf("%12.8s", inq->vid);
    if (DATASENT(dsp) > 16)
        printf("%.16s", inq->pid);
    if (DATASENT(dsp) > 32)
        printf("%.4s", inq->prl);
    printf("\n");
    if(DATASENT(dsp) > 1)
        printf("ANSI vers %d, ISO ver: %d, ECMA ver: %d; ",
            inq->ansi, inq->iso, inq->ecma);
    if(DATASENT(dsp) > 2) {
        unchar special = *(inq->vid-1);
        if(inq->respfmt >= 2 || special) {
            if(inq->respfmt < 2)
                printf("\nResponse format type %d, but has "
                    "SCSI-2 capability bits set\n", inq->respfmt);

            printf("supports: ");
            if(inq->aenc)
                printf(" AENC");
            if(inq->trmiop)
                printf(" termiop");
            if(inq->reladr)
```

```

        printf(" reladdr");
    if(inq->wide32)
        printf(" 32bit");
    if(inq->wide16)
        printf(" 16bit");
    if(inq->synch)
        printf(" synch");
    if(inq->synch)
        printf(" linkedcmds");
    if(inq->cmdq)
        printf(" cmdqueing");
    if(inq->softre)
        printf(" softreset");
    }
    if(inq->respfmt < 2) {
        if(special)
            printf(". ");
        printf("inquiry format is %s",
            inq->respfmt ? "SCSI 1" : "CCS");
    }
}
putchar('\n');
printf("Device is ");
/* do test unit ready only if inquiry successful, since many
   devices, such as tapes, return inquiry info, even if
   not ready (i.e., no tape in a tape drive). */
if(testunitready00(dsp) != 0)
    printf("%s\n",
        (RET(dsp)==DSRT_NOSEL) ? "not responding" : "not ready");
else
    printf("ready");
printf("\n");
}

/* inquiry cmd that does vital product data as spec'ed in SCSI2 */
int
vpinquiry12( struct dsreq *dsp, caddr_t data, long datalen, char vu,
            int page)
{
    fillg0cmd(dsp, (uchar_t *)CMDBUF(dsp), GO_INQU, 1, page, 0, B1(datalen),
        B1(vu<<6));
    filldsreq(dsp, (uchar_t *)data, datalen, DSRQ_READ|DSRQ_SENSE);
    return(doscsireq(getfd(dsp), dsp));
}

```

```
int
startunit1b(struct dsreq *dsp, int startstop, int vu)
{
    fillg0cmd(dsp, (uchar_t *)CMDBUF(dsp), 0x1b, 0, 0, 0, (uchar_t)startstop, B1(vu<<6));
    filldsreq(dsp, NULL, 0, DSRQ_READ|DSRQ_SENSE);
    dsp->ds_time = 1000 * 90; /* 90 seconds */
    return(doscsireq(getfd(dsp), dsp));
}

int
myinquiry12(struct dsreq *dsp, uchar_t *data, long datalen, int vu, int neg)
{
    fillg0cmd(dsp, (uchar_t *)CMDBUF(dsp), G0_INQU, 0, 0, 0, B1(datalen), B1(vu<<6));
    filldsreq(dsp, data, datalen, DSRQ_READ|DSRQ_SENSE|neg);
    dsp->ds_time = 1000 * 30; /* 90 seconds */
    return(doscsireq(getfd(dsp), dsp));
}

int
dsreset(struct dsreq *dsp)
{
    return ioctl(getfd(dsp), DS_RESET, dsp);
}

void
usage(char *prog)
{
    fprintf(stderr,
        "Usage: %s [-i (inquiry)] [-e (exclusive)] [-s (sync) | -a (async)]\n"
        "\t[-l (long inq)] [-v (vital proddata)] [-r (reset)] [-D (diagseltest)]\n"
        "\t[-H (halt/stop)] [-b blksize]\n"
        "\t[-g (get host flags)] [-d (debug)] [-q (quiet)] scsidevice [...]\n",
        prog);
    exit(1);
}

main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    struct dsreq *dsp;
    char *fn;
    /* int because they must be word aligned. */
    int errs = 0, c;
    int vital=0, doreset=0, exclusive=0, dosync=0;
    int dostart = 0, dostop = 0, dosenddiag = 0;
```

```
int doing = 0, printname = 1;
unsigned bsize = 0;
extern char *optarg;
extern int optind, opterr;

opterr = 0; /* handle errors ourselves. */
while ((c = getopt(argc, argv, "b:HDSaserdvlGciq")) != -1)
switch(c) {
case 'i':
    doing = 1; /* do inquiry */
    break;
case 'D':
    dosenddiag = 1;
    break;
case 'r':
    doreset = 1; /* do a scsi bus reset */
    break;
case 'e':
    exclusive = O_EXCL;
    break;
case 'd':
    dsdebug++; /* enable debug info */
    break;
case 'q':
    printname = 0; /* print devicename only if error */
    break;
case 'v':
    vital = 1; /* set evpd bit for scsi 2 vital product data */
    break;
case 'H':
    dostop = 1; /* send a stop (Halt) command */
    break;
case 'S':
    dostart = 1; /* send a startunit/spinup command */
    break;
case 's':
    dosync = DSRQ_SYNXFR; /* attempt to negotiate sync scsi */
    break;
case 'a':
    dosync = DSRQ_ASYNCXFR; /* attempt to negotiate async scsi */
    break;
default:
    usage(argv[0]);
}
```

```
if(optind >= argc || optind == 1) /* need at 1 arg and one option */
    usage(argv[0]);

while (optind < argc) { /* loop over each filename */
    fn = argv[optind++];
    if(printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
    if((dsp = dsopen(fn, O_RDONLY|exclusive)) == NULL) {
        /* if open fails, try pre-pending /dev/scsi */
        char buf[256];
        strcpy(buf, "/dev/scsi/");
        if((strlen(buf) + strlen(fn)) < sizeof(buf)) {
            strcat(buf, fn);
            dsp = dsopen(buf, O_RDONLY|exclusive);
        }
        if(!dsp) {
            if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
            fflush(stdout);
            perror("cannot open");
            errs++;
            continue;
        }
    }

    /* try to order for reasonableness; reset first in case
     * hung, then inquiry, etc. */

    if(doreset) {
        if(dsreset(dsp) != 0) {
            if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
            printf("reset failed: %s\n", strerror(errno));
            errs++;
        }
    }

    if(doinq) {
        int inqbuf[sizeof(inqdata)/sizeof(int)];
        if(myinquiry12(dsp, (uchar_t *)inqbuf, sizeof inqbuf, 0, dosync)) {
            if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
            printf("inquiry failure\n");
            errs++;
        }
        else
            printing(dsp, (inqdata *)inqbuf, 0);
    }
}
```



```
if(vital) {
    unsigned char *vpinq;
    int vpinqbuf[sizeof(inqdata)/sizeof(int)];
    int vpinqbuf0[sizeof(inqdata)/sizeof(int)];
    int i, serial = 0, asciidef = 0;
    if(vpinquiry12(dsp, (char *)vpinqbuf0,
        sizeof(vpinqbuf)-1, 0, 0)) {
        if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
        printf("inquiry (vital data) failure\n");
        errs++;
        continue;
    }
    if(DATASENT(dsp) <4) {
        printf("vital data inquiry OK, but says no"
            "pages supported (page 0)\n");
        continue;
    }
    vpinq = (unsigned char *)vpinqbuf0;
    printf("Supported vital product pages: ");
    for(i = vpinq[3]+3; i>3; i--) {
        if(vpinq[i] == 0x80)
            serial = 1;
        if(vpinq[i] == 0x82)
            asciidef = 1;
        printf("%2x ", vpinq[i]);
    }
    printf("\n");
    vpinq = (unsigned char *)vpinqbuf;
    if(serial) {
        if(vpinquiry12(dsp, (char *)vpinqbuf,
            sizeof(vpinqbuf)-1, 0, 0x80) != 0) {
            if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
            printf("inquiry (serial #) failure\n");
            errs++;
        }
        else if(DATASENT(dsp)>3) {
            printf("Serial #: ");
            fflush(stdout);
            /* use write, because there may well be
             *nulls; don't bother to strip them out */
            write(1, vpinq+4, vpinq[3]);
            printf("\n");
        }
    }
}
if(asciidef) {
```

```
        if(vpinquiry12(dsp, (char *)vpingbuf,
        sizeof(vpingbuf)-1, 0, 0x82) != 0) {
        if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
        printf("inquiry (ascii definition) failure\n");
        errs++;
        }
        else if(DATASENT(dsp)>3) {
        printf("Ascii definition: ");
        fflush(stdout);
        /* use write, because there may well be
        *nulls; don't bother to strip them out */
        write(1, vping+4, vping[3]);
        printf("\n");
        }
    }
}

if(dostop && startunit1b(dsp, 0, 0)) {
    if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
    printf("stopunit fails\n");
    errs++;
}

if(dostart && startunit1b(dsp, 1, 0)) {
    if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
    printf("startunit fails\n");
    errs++;
}

if(dosenddiag && senddiagnostic1d(dsp, NULL, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0)) {
    if(!printname) printf("%s: ", fn);
    printf("self test fails\n");
    errs++;
}
}
dsclose(dsp);
}
return(errs);
}
```

Control of External Interrupts

Some Silicon Graphics computer systems can generate and receive *external interrupt* signals. These are simple, two-state signal lines that cause an interrupt in the receiving system.

The external interrupt hardware is managed by a kernel-level device driver that is distributed with IRIX and automatically configured when the system supports external interrupts. The driver provides two abilities to user-level processes:

- The ability to change the state of an outgoing interrupt line, so as to interrupt the system to which the line is connected.
- The ability to capture an incoming interrupt signal with low latency.

External interrupt support is closely tied to the hardware of the system. The features described in this chapter are hardware-dependent and in many cases cannot be ported from one system type to another without making software changes. System architectures are covered in separate sections:

- “External Interrupts in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 128 describes external interrupt support in that architectural family.
- “External Interrupts In Origin2000 and Origin200” on page 133 describes external interrupt support in systems that use the IOC3 board.

External Interrupts in Challenge and Onyx Systems

The hardware architecture of the Challenge/Onyx series supports external interrupt signals as follows:

- Four jacks for outgoing signals are available on the master IO4 board. A user-level program can change the level of these lines individually.
- Two jacks for incoming interrupt signals are also provided. The input lines are combined with logical OR and presented as a single interrupt; a program cannot distinguish one input line from another.

The electrical interface to the external interrupt lines is documented at the end of the ei(7) reference page.

A program controls the outgoing signals by interacting with the external interrupt device driver. This driver is associated with the device special file */dev/ei*, and is documented in the ei(7) reference page.

Generating Outgoing Signals

A program can generate an outgoing signal on any one of the four external interrupt lines. To do so, first open */dev/ei*. Then apply **ioctl()** on the file descriptor to switch the outgoing lines. The principal ioctl command codes are summarized in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1 Functions for Outgoing External Signals in Challenge

Operation	Typical ioctl() Call
Set pulse width to <i>N</i> microseconds.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETOPW, N)</code>
Return current output pulse width.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETOPW, &var)</code>
Send a pulse on some lines <i>M</i> . ^a	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSTROBE, M)</code>
Set a high (active, asserted) level on lines <i>M</i> .	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETHI, M)</code>
Set a low (inactive, deasserted) level on lines <i>M</i> .	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETLO, M)</code>

a. *M* is an unsigned integer whose bits 0, 1, 2, and 3 correspond to the external interrupt lines 0, 1, 2, and 3. At least one bit must be set.

In the Challenge and Onyx series, the level on an outgoing external interrupt line is set directly from a CPU. The device driver generates a pulse (function EIIOCSTROBE) by asserting the line, then spinning in a disabled loop until the specified pulse time has elapsed, and finally deasserting the line. Clearly, if the pulse width is set to much more than the default of 5 microseconds, pulse generation could interfere with the handling of other interrupts in that CPU.

The calls to assert and deassert the outgoing lines (functions EIIOCSETHI and EIIOCSETLO) do not tie up the kernel. Direct assertion of the outgoing signal should be used only when the desired signal frequency and pulse duration are measured in milliseconds or seconds. No user-level program, running in a CPU that is not isolated and reserved, can hope to generate repeatable pulse durations measured in microseconds using these functions. (A single interrupt occurring between the call to assert the signal and the call to deassert it can stretch the intended pulse width by as much as 200 microseconds.) A real-time program, running in a CPU that is reserved and isolated from interrupts—perhaps a program that uses the Frame Scheduler—could generate repeatable millisecond-duration pulses using these functions.

Responding to Incoming External Interrupts

An important feature of the Challenge and Onyx external input line is that interrupts are triggered by the level of the signal, not by the transition from deasserted to asserted. This means that, whenever external interrupts are enabled and any of the input lines are in the asserted state, an external interrupt occurs. The interface between your program and the external interrupt device driver is affected by this hardware design. The functions for incoming signals are summarized in Table 6-2.

Table 6-2 Functions for Incoming External Interrupts

Operation	Typical ioctl() Call
Enable receipt of external interrupts.	ioctl(<i>eifd</i> , EIIOCENABLE) eicinit();
Disable receipt of external interrupts.	ioctl(<i>eifd</i> , EIIOCDISABLE)
Specify which CPU will handle external interrupts.	ioctl(<i>eifd</i> , EIIOCINTRCPU, <i>cpu</i>)
Specify which CPU will execute driver ioctl calls, or -1 for the CPU where the call is made.	ioctl(<i>eifd</i> , EIIOCSETSUSCPU, <i>cpu</i>)

Table 6-2 (continued) Functions for Incoming External Interrupts

Operation	Typical ioctl() Call
Block in the driver until an interrupt occurs.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCRCV, &eiargs)</code>
Request a signal when an interrupt occurs.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSTSIG, signumber)</code>
Wait in an enabled loop for an interrupt.	<code>eicbusywait(1)</code>
Set expected pulse width of incoming signal.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETIPW, microsec)</code>
Set expected time between incoming signals.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETSPW, microsec)</code>
Return current expected time values.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETIPW, &var)</code> <code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETSPW, &var)</code>

Directing Interrupts to a CPU

In real-time applications, certain CPUs can be reserved for critical processing. In this case you may want to use `EIIOCINTRCPU`, either to direct interrupt handling away from a critical CPU, or to direct onto a CPU that you know has available capacity. Use of this `ioctl` requires installation of patch 1257 or a successor patch.

Detecting Invalid External Interrupts

The external interrupt handler maintains two important numbers:

- the expected input pulse duration in microseconds
- the minimum pulse-to-pulse interval, called the “stuck” pulse width because it is used to detect when an input line is “stuck” in the asserted state

When the external interrupt device driver is entered to handle an interrupt, it waits with interrupts disabled until time equal to the expected input pulse duration has passed since the interrupt occurred. The default pulse duration is 5 microseconds, and it typically takes longer than this to recognize and process the interrupt, so no time is wasted in the usual case. However, if a long expected pulse duration is set, the interrupt handler might have to waste some cycles waiting for the end of the pulse.

At the end of the expected pulse duration, the interrupt handler counts one external interrupt and returns to the kernel, which enables interrupts and returns to the interrupted process.

Normally the input line is deasserted within the expected duration. However, if the input line is still asserted when the time expires, another external interrupt occurs immediately. The external interrupt handler notes that it has been reentered within the “stuck” pulse time since the last interrupt. It assumes that this is still the same input pulse as before. In order to prevent the stuck pulse from saturating the CPU with interrupts, the interrupt handler disables interrupts from the external interrupt signal.

External interrupts remain disabled for one timer tick (10 milliseconds). Then the device driver reenables external interrupts. If an interrupt occurs immediately, the input line is still asserted. The handler disables external interrupts for another, longer delay. It continues to delay and to test the input signal in this manner until it finds the signal deasserted.

Setting the Expected Pulse Width

You can set the expected input pulse width and the minimum pulse-to-pulse time using `ioctl()`. For example, you could set the expected pulse width using a function like the one shown in Example 6-1.

Example 6-1 Challenge Function to Test and Set External Interrupt Pulse Width

```
int setEIPulseWidth(int eifd, int newWidth)
{
    int oldWidth;
    if ( (0==ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETIPW, &oldWidth))
        && (0==ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETIPW, newWidth)) )
        return oldWidth;
    perror("setEIPulseWidth");
    return 0;
}
```

The function retrieves the original pulse width and returns it. If either `ioctl()` call fails, it returns 0.

The default pulse width is 5 microseconds. Pulse widths shorter than 4 microseconds are not recommended.

Since the interrupt handler keeps interrupts disabled for the duration of the expected width, you want to specify as short an expected width as possible. However, it is also important that all legitimate input pulses terminate within the expected time. When a pulse persists past the expected time, the interrupt handler is likely to detect a “stuck” pulse, and disable external interrupts for several milliseconds.

Set the expected pulse width to the duration of the longest valid pulse. It is not necessary to set the expected width longer than the longest valid pulse. A few microseconds are spent just reaching the external interrupt handler, which provides a small margin for error.

Setting the Stuck Pulse Width

You can set the minimum pulse-to-pulse width using code like that in Example 6-1, using constants `EIIOCGETSPW` and `EIIOCSETSPW`.

The default stuck-pulse time is 500 microseconds. Set this time to the nominal pulse-to-pulse interval, minus the largest amount of “jitter” that you anticipate in the signal. In the event that external signals are not produced by a regular oscillator, set this value to the expected pulse width plus the duration of the shortest expected “off” time, with a minimum of twice the expected pulse width.

For example, suppose you expect the input signal to be a 10 microsecond pulse at 1000 Hz, both numbers plus or minus 10%. Set the expected pulse width to 10 microseconds to ensure that all pulses are seen to complete. Set the stuck pulse width to 900 microseconds, so as to permit a legitimate pulse to arrive 10% early.

Receiving Interrupts

The external interrupt device driver offers you four different methods of receiving notification of an interrupt. You can

- have a signal of your choice delivered to your process
- test for interrupt-received using either an `ioctl()` call or a library function
- sleep until an interrupt arrives or a specified time expires
- spin-loop until an interrupt arrives

You would use a signal (`EIIOCSETSIG`) when interrupts are infrequent and irregular, and when it is not important to know the precise arrival time. Use a signal when, for example, the external interrupt represents a human-operated switch or some kind of out-of-range alarm condition.

The `EIIOCRCV` call can be used to poll for an interrupt. This is a relatively expensive method of polling because it entails entry to and exit from the kernel. The overhead is not significant if the polling is infrequent—for example, if one poll call is made every 60th of a second.

The `EIIOCRCV` call can be used to suspend the caller until an interrupt arrives or a timeout expires (see the `ei(7)` reference page for details). Use this method when interrupts arrive frequently enough that it is worthwhile devoting a process to handling them. An unknown amount of time can pass between the moment when the interrupt handler unblocks the process and the moment when the kernel dispatches the process. This makes it impossible to timestamp the interrupt at the microsecond level.

In order to poll for, or detect, an incoming interrupt with minimum overhead, use the library function `eicbusywait()` (see the `ei(7)` reference page). You use the `eicinit()` function to open `/dev/ei` and prepare to use `eicbusywait()`.

The `eicbusywait()` function does not switch into kernel mode, so it can perform a low-overhead poll for a received interrupt. If you ask it to wait until an interrupt occurs, it waits by spinning on a repeated test for an interrupt. This monopolizes the CPU, so this form of waiting is normally used by a process running in an isolated CPU. The benefit is that control returns to the calling process in negligible time after the interrupt handler detects the interrupt, so the interrupt can be handled quickly and timed precisely.

External Interrupts In Origin2000 and Origin200

The miscellaneous I/O attachment logic in the Origin2000 and Origin200™ architecture is provided by the IOC3 ASIC. Among many other I/O functions, this chip dedicates one input line and one output line for external interrupts.

There is one IOC3 chip on the motherboard in a Origin200 deskside unit. There is one IOC3 chip on the IO6 board which provides the base I/O functions in each Origin2000 module; hence in a Origin2000 system there can be as many unique external interrupt signal pairs as there are physical modules.

The electrical interface to the external interrupt line is documented at the end of the `ei(7)` reference page.

A program controls the outgoing signals by interacting with the external interrupt device driver. This driver is associated with device special files `/hw/external_interrupt/n`, where `n` is an integer. The name `/hw/external_interrupt/1` designates the only external interrupt device in a Origin200, or the external interrupt device on the system console module of a Origin2000 system.

There is also a symbolic link `/dev/ei` that refers to `/hw/external_interrupt/1`.

Generating Outgoing Signals

A program can generate an outgoing signal—as a level, a pulse, a pulse train, or a square wave—on any external interrupt line. To do so, first open the device special file. Then apply `ioctl()` on the file descriptor to command the output.

A command to initiate one kind of output (level, pulse, pulse train or square wave) automatically terminates any other kind of output that might be going on. When all processes have closed the external interrupt device, the output line is forced to a low level.

In the Origin2000 and Origin200 systems, the level on an outgoing external interrupt line is set by the IOC3 chip. The device driver issues a command by PIO to the chip, and the pulse or level is generated asynchronously while control returns to the calling process. Owing to the speed of the R10000 CPU and its ability to do out-of-order execution, it is entirely possible for your program to enter the device driver, command a level, and receive control back to program code before the output line has had time to change state.

Generating Fixed Output Levels

The `ioctl` command codes for fixed output levels are summarized in Table 6-3.

Table 6-3 Functions for Fixed External Levels in Origin2000

Operation	Typical <code>ioctl()</code> Call
Set a high (active, asserted) level.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETHI)</code>
Set a low (inactive, deasserted) level.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETLO)</code>

Direct assertion of the outgoing signal (using `EIIOCSETHI` and `EIIOCSETLO`) should be used only when the desired signal frequency and pulse duration are measured in milliseconds or seconds. A typical user-level program, running in a CPU that is not isolated and reserved, cannot hope to generate repeatable pulse durations measured in microseconds using these functions. A real-time program, running in a CPU that is reserved and isolated from interrupts may be able to generate repeatable millisecond-duration pulses using these functions.

Generating Pulses and Pulse Trains

You can command single pulse of this width, or a train of pulses with a specified repetition period. The ioctl functions are summarized in Table 6-4.

Table 6-4 Functions for Pulses and Pulse Trains in Origin2000

Operation	Typical ioctl() Call
Set pulse width to N microseconds (ignored).	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETOPW, N)</code>
Return current output pulse width (23).	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETOPW, &var)</code>
Send a 23.4 usec pulse.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSTROBE)</code>
Set the repetition interval to N microseconds.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETPERIOD, N)</code>
Return the current repetition interval.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETPERIOD, &var)</code>
Initiate regular pulses at the current period.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCPULSE)</code>

The IOC3 supports only one pulse width: 23.4 microseconds. The EIIOCSETOPW command is accepted for compatibility with the Challenge driver, but is ignored. The EIIOCGETOPW function always returns 23 microseconds.

The repetition period can be as short as 23.4 microseconds (pass $N=24$) or as long as slightly more than 500000 microseconds (0.5 second). Any period is truncated to a multiple of 7,800 nanoseconds.

Generating a Square Wave

You can command a square wave at a specified frequency. The ioctl functions are summarized in Table 6-5.

Table 6-5 Functions for Outgoing External Signals in Origin2000

Operation	Typical ioctl() Call
Set the toggle interval to N microseconds.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETPERIOD, N)</code>
Return the current toggle interval.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCGETPERIOD, &var)</code>
Initiate a square wave.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSQUARE)</code>

The period set by `EIIOCSETPERIOD` determines the interval between changes of state on the output—in other words, the period of the square wave is twice the interval. The repetition period can be as short as 23.4 microseconds (pass $N=24$) or as long as slightly more than 500000 microseconds (0.5 second). Any period is truncated to a multiple of 23.4 microseconds.

Responding to Incoming External Interrupts

The IOC3 external input line (unlike the input to the Challenge and Onyx external input line) is edge-triggered by a transition to the asserted state, and has no dependence on the level of the signal. There is no concept of an “expected” pulse width or a “stuck” pulse width as in the Challenge (see “Detecting Invalid External Interrupts” on page 130).

The external interrupt device driver offers you four different methods of receiving notification of an interrupt. You can

- have a signal of your choice delivered to your process
- test for interrupt-received using either an `ioctl()` call or a library function
- sleep until an interrupt arrives or a specified time expires
- spin-loop until an interrupt arrives

The functions for incoming signals are summarized in Table 6-6. The details of the function calls are found in the `ei(7)` reference page.

Table 6-6 Functions for Incoming External Interrupts in Challenge

Operation	Typical Function Call
Enable receipt of external interrupts.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCENABLE)</code> <code>eicinit();</code> <code>eihandle = eicinit_f(eifd);</code>
Disable receipt of external interrupts.	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCDISABLE)</code>
Request a signal when an interrupt occurs, or clear that request by passing <code>signumber=0</code> .	<code>ioctl(eifd, EIIOCSETSIG, signumber)</code>
Poll for an interrupt received.	<code>eicbusywait(0);</code> <code>eicbusywait_f(eifd,0);</code> <code>ioctl(eifd,EIIOCRECV,&eiargs)</code>

Table 6-6 (continued) Functions for Incoming External Interrupts in Challenge

Operation	Typical Function Call
Block in the driver until an interrupt occurs, or until a specified time has elapsed.	<code>ioctl(eifd,EIIOCRCV,&eiargs)</code>
Wait in an enabled loop for an interrupt.	<code>eicbusywait(1);</code> <code>eicbusywait_f(eihandle,1);</code>

You would use a signal (EIIOCSETSIG) when interrupts are infrequent and irregular, and when it is not important to know the precise arrival time. Use a signal when, for example, the external interrupt represents a human-operated switch or some kind of out-of-range alarm condition.

The EIIOCRCV call can be used to poll for an interrupt. This is a relatively expensive method of polling because it entails entry to and exit from the kernel. This is not significant if the polling is infrequent—for example, if one poll call is made every 60th of a second.

The EIIOCRCV call can be used to suspend the caller until an interrupt arrives or a timeout expires (see the ei(7) reference page for details). Use this method when interrupts arrive frequently enough that it is worthwhile devoting a process to handling them. An unknown amount of time can pass between the moment when the interrupt handler unblocks the process and the moment when the kernel dispatches the process. This makes it impossible to timestamp the interrupt at the microsecond level.

In order to poll for, or detect, an incoming interrupt with minimum overhead, use the library function **eicbusywait()** (see the ei(7) reference page). You use the **eiinit()** function to open `/dev/ei` and prepare to use **eicbusywait()**; or you can open one of the other special device files and pass the file descriptor to **eiinit_f()**.

The **eicbusywait()** function does not switch into kernel mode, so it can perform a low-overhead poll for a received interrupt. If you ask it to wait until an interrupt occurs, it waits by spinning on a repeated test for an interrupt. This monopolizes the CPU, so this form of waiting is normally used by a process running in an isolated CPU. The benefit is that control returns to the calling process in negligible time after the interrupt handler detects the interrupt, so the interrupt can be handled quickly and timed precisely.

PART THREE

Kernel-Level Drivers

Chapter 7, "Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver"

The software structure of a block or character device driver: the entry points it provides for kernel use, and how it communicates with user-level processes

Chapter 8, "Device Driver/Kernel Interface"

A topical survey of the facilities the IRIX kernel provides to device drivers.

Chapter 9, "Building and Installing a Driver"

How a kernel-level driver is compiled, loaded, and linked with the IRIX kernel.

Chapter 10, "Testing and Debugging a Driver"

How a kernel-level driver is tested and debugged using *symmon* and other facilities.

Chapter 11, "Driver Example"

Annotated code of a simple device driver with no hardware dependencies.

Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver

A kernel-level device driver consists of a module of subroutines that supply services to the kernel. The subroutines are public entry points in the driver. When an event occurs, the kernel calls one of these entry points. The driver takes action and returns a result code.

This chapter discusses when the driver entry points are called, what parameters they receive, and what actions they are expected to take. For a conceptual overview of the kernel and drivers, see “Kernel-Level Device Control” on page 62. For details on how a driver is compiled, linked, and added to IRIX, see Chapter 9, “Building and Installing a Driver.”

Note: This chapter concentrates on device drivers. Entry points unique to STREAMS drivers are covered in Chapter 22, “STREAMS Drivers.”

The primary topics covered in this chapter are:

- “Summary of Driver Structure” on page 143 summarizes the entry points and how they are made known to the kernel.
- “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148 describes the public constant that documents the driver type for *lboot* and *mload*.
- “Initialization Entry Points” on page 150 discusses the entry points at which a driver initializes its own data and its devices.
- “Attach and Detach Entry Points” on page 153 discusses the entry points that handle dynamic attachment of PCI devices.
- “Open and Close Entry Points” on page 157 discusses the entry points called by the **open()** and **close()** kernel functions.
- “Control Entry Point” on page 161 documents the entry point called by the **ioctl()** kernel function.
- “Data Transfer Entry Points” on page 163 documents the entry points called by the **read()** and **write()** kernel functions.
- “Poll Entry Point” on page 166 documents the entry point called by the **poll()** kernel function.
- “Memory Map Entry Points” on page 169 tells how a driver supports memory mapping of devices and buffers.
- “Interrupt Entry Point and Handler” on page 175 discusses the design and operation of interrupt handlers.
- “Support Entry Points” on page 180 describes several entry points that support kernel operations.
- “Handling 32-Bit and 64-Bit Execution Models” on page 182 covers the techniques of supporting user processes that have different execution models.
- “Designing for Multiprocessor Use” on page 184 covers the techniques of making a driver work in a multiprocessor, multithreading environment.

Summary of Driver Structure

A driver consists of a binary object module in ELF format stored in the */var/sysgen/boot* directory. As a program, the driver consists of a set of functional entry points that supply services to the IRIX kernel. There is a large set of entry points to cover different situations. Some entry points are historical relics, while others were first defined in IRIX 6.4. No single driver supports all possible entry points.

The entry points that a driver supports must be named according to a specified convention. The *lboot* command uses entry point names to build tables used by the kernel.

Entry Point Naming and lboot

The device driver makes known which entry points it supports by giving them public names in its object module. The *lboot* command links together the object modules of drivers and other kernel modules to make a bootable kernel. *lboot* recognizes the entry points by the form of their names. (See the *lboot(1M)* and *autoconfig(1M)* reference pages.)

Driver Name Prefix

A device driver must be described by a file in the */var/sysgen/master.d* directory (see “Master Configuration Database” on page 55). In that configuration file you specify the driver *prefix*, a string of 1 to 14 characters that is unique to that driver. For example, the prefix of the SCSI driver is *scsi_*.

The prefix string is defined in the */var/sysgen/master.d* file only. The string does not have to appear as a constant in the driver, and the name of the driver object file does not have to correspond to the prefix (although the object module typically has a related name).

The *lboot* command recognizes driver entry points by searching the driver object module for public names that begin with the prefix string. For example, the entry point for the **open()** operation must have a name that consists of the prefix string followed by the letters “open.”

In this book, entry point names are written as follows: *pxopen()*, where *px* stands for the driver’s prefix string.

Driver Name Prefix as a Compiler Constant

The driver prefix string appears as part of the name of each public entry point. In addition, you sometimes need the driver prefix string as a character string literal, for example in a PCI driver as an argument to `pci_driver_register()`. You would like to define the prefix string in one place and then generate it automatically where needed in the code. The C macro code in Example 7-1 accomplishes this goal.

Example 7-1 Compiling Driver Prefix as a Macro

```
#define PREFIX_NAME(name) sample_ ## name
/* ----- driver prefix: ^^^^^^^ defined there only */
#define PREFIX_ONLY PREFIX_NAME( )
#define STRINGIZER(x) # x
#define PREFIX_STRING STRINGIZER(PREFIX_ONLY)
```

A macro call to `PREFIX_STRING` generates a character literal ("sample_" in this case). You can use this macro wherever a character literal is allowed, for example, as a function argument.

A call to `PREFIX_NAME(name)` generates an identifier composed of the prefix concatenated to *name*. You can define the *init* entry point as follows:

```
PREFIX_NAME(init) ()
{ ... }
```

However, this can be confusing to read. You can also define one macro for each entry point, as shown in Example 7-2.

Example 7-2 Entry Point Name Macros

```
#define PFX_INIT PREFIX_NAME(init)
#define PFX_START PREFIX_NAME(start)
```

Using macros such as these you can define an entry point as follows:

```
PFX_INIT()
{ ... }
```

Kernel Switch Tables

The IRIX kernel maintains tables that allow it to dispatch calls to device drivers quickly. These tables are built by *lboot* based on the names of the driver entry points. The tables are named as follows:

<i>bdevsw</i>	Table of block device drivers
<i>cdevsw</i>	Table of character device drivers
<i>fmodsw</i>	Table of STREAMS drivers
<i>vfssw</i>	Table of filesystem modules (not related to device drivers)

Conceptually, the tables for block and character drivers have one row for each driver, and one column for each possible driver entry point. (Historically, the major device number was the driver's row number in the switch table. This simple data structure is no longer used.)

As *lboot* loads a driver, it fills in that driver's row of a switch table with the addresses of the driver's entry points. Where an entry point is not defined in the driver object file, *lboot* leaves the address of a null routine that returns the ENODEV error code. Thus no driver needs to define all entry points—only the ones it can support in a useful way.

The sizes of the switch tables are fixed at boot time in order to minimize kernel data space. The table sizes are tunable parameters that can be set with *sysctl* (see the *sysctl(1)* reference page).

When a driver is loaded dynamically (see “Configuring a Loadable Driver” on page 264), the associated row of the switch table is not filled at link time but rather is filled when the driver is loaded. When you add new, loadable drivers, you might need to specify a larger switch table. The book *IRIX Admin: System Configuration and Operation* documents these tunable parameters.

Entry Point Summary

The names of all possible driver entry points and their purposes are summarized in Table 7-1. The entry point names are in alphabetic order, not logical order. Device driver entry points are discussed in this chapter. Entry points to STREAMS drivers are discussed in Chapter 22, “STREAMS Drivers.”

Table 7-1 Entry Points in Alphabetic Order

Entry Point	Purpose	Discussion	Reference Page
<i>pxattach</i>	Attach a new device to the system.	page 153	
<i>pxclose</i>	Note the device is not in use.	page 160	close(D3)
<i>pxdevflag</i>	Constant flag bits for driver features.	page 148	devflag(D1)
<i>pxdetach</i>	Detach a device from the system.	page 156	
<i>pxedtinit</i>	Initialize EISA or VME driver from VECTOR statement.	page 151	edtinit(D2)
<i>pxhalt</i>	Prepare for system shutdown.	page 181	halt(D2)
<i>pxinit</i>	Initialize driver globals at load or boot time.	page 151	init(D2)
<i>pxintr</i>	Handle device interrupt (not used).	page 175	intr(D2)
<i>pxioctl</i>	Implement control operations.	page 161	ioctl(D2)
<i>pxmap</i>	Implement memory-mapping (IRIX).	page 170	map(D2)
<i>pxmmap</i>	Implement memory-mapping (SVR4).	page 173	mmap(D2)
<i>pxopen</i>	Connect a process to a device. Connect a stream module.	page 157 page 765	open(D2)
<i>pxpoll</i>	Implement device event test.	page 167	poll(D2)
<i>pxprint</i>	Display diagnostic about block device.	page 182	print(D2)
<i>pxread</i>	Character-mode input.	page 163	read(D2)
<i>pxreg</i>	Register a driver at load or boot time.	page 153	
<i>pxrput</i>	STREAMS message on read queue.	page 766	put(D2)
<i>pxsize</i>	Return logical size of block device.	page 181	size(D2)
<i>pxsrv</i>	STREAMS service queued messages.	page 767	srv(D2)
<i>pxstart</i>	Initialize driver at load or boot time.	page 152	start(D2)
<i>pxstrategy</i>	Block-mode input and output.	page 165	strategy(D2)

Table 7-1 (continued) Entry Points in Alphabetic Order

Entry Point	Purpose	Discussion	Reference Page
<i>pxunload</i>	Prepare loadable module for unloading.	page 180	unload(D2)
<i>pxunmap</i>	Note the end of a memory mapping.	page 174	unmap(D2)
<i>pxunreg</i>	Undo driver registration prior to unloading.	page 180	
<i>pxwput</i>	STREAMS message on write queue.	page 766	put(D2)
<i>pxwrite</i>	Character-mode output.	page 163	write(D2)

Entry Point Usage

No driver supports all entry points. Typical entry point usage is as follows:

- A minimal driver for a character device supports *pxinit()*, *pxopen()*, *pxread()*, *pxwrite()*, and *pxclose()*. The *pxioctl()* and *pxpoll()* entry points are optional.
- A minimal block device driver supports *pxopen()*, *pxsize()*, *pxstrategy()*, and *pxclose()*.
- A minimal pseudo-device driver supports *pxstart()*, *pxopen()*, *pxmap()*, *pxunmap()*, and *pxclose()* (the latter two possibly as mere stubs).

In addition:

- All drivers need a *pxdevflag* constant.
- Loadable drivers may support *pxunreg()* and *pxunload()*.
- A block or character driver for a PCI device should support *pxattach()*, *pxdetach()*, and *pxreg()*. The *pxenable()*, *pxdisable()*, and *pxerror()* entry points are optional.
- A block or character driver for a VME, EISA or GIO device should support *pxedtinit()*.

Entry Point Calling Sequence

Entry points of a nonloadable driver are called as follows.

- The first call is to *pxinit()* if it exists.
- A driver for a VME, EISA, or GIO bus device is then called at its *pxedtinit()* entry points once for each VECTOR line that specifies that driver.

- The *pxstart()* entry point is called, if it exists.
- The *pxregister()* entry point is called, if it exists.
- A driver for a PCI device is called at its *pxattach()* entry point once for each device that it supports, as the kernel discovers the devices.
- The *pxopen()* entry point is called whenever any process opens a device controlled by this driver.
- The *pxread()*, *pxwrite()*, *pxstrategy()*, *pxmap()*, *pxpoll()* and *pxioctl()* calls are exercised as long as any device is open.
- The *pxunmap()* entry point is called when all processes have unmapped a given segment of memory.
- The *pxclose()* entry point is called when the last process closes a device, so the device is known to be no longer in use.
- The *pxdetach()* entry point can be called only when a device has been closed.

The sequence of entry points called for a loadable driver is similar, with additional calls that are discussed under “Entry Point unreg()” on page 180 and “Entry Point unload()” on page 180.

Driver Flag Constant

Any device driver or STREAMS module must define a public name *pxdevflag* as a static integer. This integer contains a bitmask with one or more of the following flags, which are declared in *sys/conf.h*:

D_MP	The driver is prepared for multiprocessor systems.
D_MT	The driver is prepared for a multithreaded kernel.
D_WBACK	The driver handles its own cache-writeback operations.

A typical definition would resemble the following:

```
int testdrive_devflag = D_MP+D_MT;
```

A STREAMS module should also provide this flag, but the only relevant bit value for a STREAMS driver is D_MP (see “Driver Flag Constant” on page 764).

The flag value is saved in the kernel switch table with the driver's entry points (see "Kernel Switch Tables" on page 145).

When a driver does not define a *pxdevflag*, or defines one containing 0, *lboot* refuses to load it as part of the kernel.

Flag D_MP

You specify D_MP in *pxdevflag* to tell *lboot* that your driver is designed to operate in a multiprocessor system. The top half of the driver is designed to cope with multiple concurrent entries in multiple CPUs. The top and bottom halves synchronize through the use of semaphores or locks and do not rely on interrupt masking for critical sections. These issues are discussed further under "Designing for Multiprocessor Use" on page 184.

All drivers must be designed in this fashion and confirm it with D_MP, even drivers written for uniprocessor workstations.

Flag D_MT

Driver interrupt routines execute as independent, preemptable threads of control within the kernel address space (see "Interrupts as Threads" on page 177). D_MT indicates that this driver understands that it can be run as one or more cooperating threads, and uses kernel synchronization primitives to serialize access to driver common data structures.

In IRIX 6.4, D_MT does not commit a driver to anything beyond the meaning of D_MP.

Flag D_WBACK

You specify D_WBACK in *pxdevflag* to tell *lboot* that a block driver performs any necessary cache write-back operations through explicit calls to **dki_dcache_wb()** and related functions (see the *dki_dcache_wb(D3)* reference page).

When D_WBACK is not present in *pxdevflag*, the **physiock()** function ensures that all cached data related to *buf_t* structures is written back to main memory before it enters the driver's strategy routine. (See the *physiock(D3)* reference page and "Entry Point strategy()" on page 165.)

Flag D_OLD Not Supported

In versions prior to IRIX 6.4, a driver was allowed to have no *pxdevflag*, or to have one containing only a flag named D_OLD. This flag, or the absence of a flag, requested compatibility handling for an obsolete driver interface. Support for this interface has been withdrawn effective with IRIX 6.4.

Initialization Entry Points

The kernel calls a driver to initialize itself at four different entry points, as follows:

<i>pxinit</i>	Initialize self-defining hardware or a pseudo-device.
<i>pxedtinit</i>	Initialize a hardware device based on VECTOR data.
<i>pxstart</i>	General initialization.
<i>pxreg</i>	For a driver that supports the <i>pxattach()</i> entry point, register the driver as ready to attach devices.

Historically, these calls were made at different times in the boot process and the driver had different abilities at each time. Now they are all called at nearly the same time. A driver may define any combination of these entry points. Typically a PCI driver will define *pxinit()* and *pxreg()*, while a VME or EISA device will define *pxinit()* and *pxedtinit()*.

When Initialization Is Performed

The initialization entry points of ordinary (nonloadable) drivers are called during system startup, after interrupts have been enabled and before the message “The system is coming up” is displayed on the console. In all cases, interrupts are enabled and basic kernel services are available at this time. However, other loadable or optional kernel modules might not have been initialized, depending on the sequence of statements in the files in */var/sysgen/system*.

Whenever a driver is initialized, the entry points are called in the following sequence:

1. *pxinit()* is called.
2. *pxedtinit()* is called once for each VECTOR statement in reverse order of the VECTOR statements found in */var/sysgen/system* files.

3. `pxstart()` is called.
4. `pxreg()` is called.

Initialization of Loadable Drivers

A loadable driver (see “Loadable Drivers” on page 74) is initialized any time it is loaded. This can occur more than once, if the driver is loaded, unloaded, and reloaded. When a loadable driver is configured for autoregister, it is loaded with other drivers during system startup. (For more information on autoregister, see “Configuring a Loadable Driver” on page 264.) Such a driver is initialized at system startup time along with the nonloadable drivers.

Entry Point `pxinit()`

The `pxinit()` entry point is called once during system startup or when a loadable driver is loaded. It receives no input arguments; its prototype is simply:

```
void pxinit(void);
```

You can use this entry point for any of the following purposes:

- To initialize global data used by more than one entry point or with more than one device.
- To initialize a hardware device that is self-defining; that is, all the information the driver needs is either coded into the driver, or can be gotten by probing the device itself.
- To initialize a pseudo-device driver; that is, a driver that does not have real hardware attached.

A driver that is brought into the system by a `USE` or `INCLUDE` line in a system configuration file (see “Configuring a Kernel” on page 263) typically initializes in the `pxinit()` entry point.

Entry Point `pxedtinit()`

The `pxedtinit()` entry is designed to initialize devices that are configured using the `VECTOR` statement in the system configuration file (see “Kernel Configuration Files” on page 56). This includes GIO, EISA, and VME devices. The entry point name is a contraction of “early device table initialization.”

The VECTOR statement specifies hardware details about a device on the VME, GIO, or EISA bus, including such items as iospace addresses, interrupt level, bus number, and a driver-defined integer value referred to as the controller number. The VECTOR statement also specifies the driver that is to manage the device; and it can specify probe operations that let the kernel test for the existence of the device.

When the kernel processes a VECTOR statement during bootstrap, it executes the probe, if one is specified. When the probe is successful (or no probe is given), the kernel makes sure that the specified driver is loaded. Then it stores the hardware parameters from the VECTOR statement in a structure of type *edt_t*. (This structure is declared in *sys/edt.h*.)

The kernel calls the specified driver's *pfxedtinit()* entry one time for each VECTOR statement that named that driver and had a successful probe (or had no probe). VECTOR statements are processed in reverse sequence to the order in which they are coded in */var/sysgen/system* files.

The prototype of the *pfxedtinit()* entry is

```
void pfxedtinit(edt_t *e);
```

The *edt_t* contains at least the following fields (see the *system(4)* reference page for the corresponding VECTOR parameters):

<i>e_bus_type</i>	Integer specifying the bus type; constant values are declared in <i>sys/edt.h</i> , for example ADAP_VME, ADAP_GIO, or ADAP_EISA.
<i>e_adap</i>	For EISA or VME, an integer specifying the adapter (bus) number.
<i>e_ctlr</i>	Value from the VECTOR <i>ctlr=</i> parameter; typically a device number used to distinguish one device from another.
<i>e_space</i>	Array of up to three I/O space structures of type <i>iospace_t</i> .

The VME form of the VECTOR statement for IRIX 6.4 is discussed at length under "Defining VME Devices with the VECTOR Statement" on page 344. The operation of the *pfxedtinit()* entry for VME is discussed under "Initializing a VME Device" on page 352.

Entry Point *start()*

The *pfxstart()* entry point is called at system startup, and whenever a loadable driver is loaded. It is called after *pfxedtinit()* and *pfxininit()*, but before any other entry point such as *pfxopen()*. The *pfxstart()* entry point receives no arguments; its prototype is simply

```
void pfxstart(void);
```

The *pxstart()* entry point is a suitable place to allocate a poll-head structure using *phalloc()*, as discussed in “Use and Operation of poll(2)” on page 166.

Entry Point *reg()*

The *pxreg()* entry point is specifically intended to allow a driver that supports the *pxattach()* entry point (see “Entry Point *attach()*” on page 153) to register with the kernel. At present, the only buses that support device attachment and registration (accessible to OEMs) are the PCI and SCSI buses. The functions used to register as a PCI driver are discussed in “Configuration Register Initialization” on page 711.

Attach and Detach Entry Points

First defined in IRIX 6.3, the *pxattach()* entry point informs the driver that the kernel has found a device that matches the driver. This is the time at which the driver initializes data that is unique to one instance of a device. The *pxdetach()* entry point informs the driver that the device has been removed from the system. The driver undoes whatever *pxattach()* did for that device instance.

Entry Point *attach()*

The *pxattach()* entry point is called to notify the driver that the PCI bus adapter has located a device that has a vendor and device ID for which the driver has registered (see “Entry Point *reg()*” on page 153).

This entry point is typically called during bootstrap, while the kernel is probing the PCI bus. However, it can occur at a later time, if the device is physically plugged in or activated after the system has initialized. In an Origin2000 system, the entry point is executed in the hardware node closest to the device being attached. (See “Allocating Memory in Specific Nodes of a Origin2000 System” on page 204.)

The purpose of the entry point is to make the device usable, including making it visible in the hwgraph by creating vertexes and edges to represent it.

Matching A Device to A Driver

When the system boots up, the kernel probes the PCI bus configuration space and takes a census of active devices. For each device it notes

- Vendor and device ID numbers
- Requested size of memory space
- Requested size of I/O space

The kernel assigns starting bus addresses for memory and I/O space and sets these addresses in the Base Address Registers (BARs) in the device. Then the kernel looks for a driver that has registered a matching set of vendor and device IDs using `pciio_driver_register()` (for discussion, see “Configuration Register Initialization” on page 711).

If no matching driver has registered, the device remains inactive. For example, the driver might be a loadable driver that has not been loaded as yet. When the driver is loaded and registers, the kernel will match it to any unattached devices.

When the kernel matches a device to its registered driver, the kernel calls the driver’s `pfxattach()` entry point. It passes one argument, a handle to the hwgraph vertex representing the hardware connection point for the device. This handle is used to:

- Request PIO and DMA maps on the device
- Register an interrupt handler for the device

Completing the hwgraph

The handle passed to `pfxattach()` addresses the hwgraph vertex that represents a slot on a bus. This is not informative to users, because a card can be plugged into any slot. Nor is this a reliable target for a symbolic link from `/dev`. In any case, the driver cannot store information in this vertex. At attach time the driver needs to create at least one additional hwgraph vertex in order to:

- Create a device vertex for use by user programs.
- Provide a vertex to hold the device information.
- Establish a well-known, convenient names high up in the `/hw` filesystem.
- Provide extra device names that represent different aspects of the same device (for example, different partitions), or different access modes to the device (a character device and a block device), or different treatments of the device (for example, byte-swapped and nonswapped).

- Establish predictable names that satisfy symbolic links that exist in */dev*.

Each leaf vertex you create in the hwgraph is a device special file the user can open. You create a leaf vertex by calling **hwgraph_block_device_add()** or **hwgraph_char_device_add()**. You can make each leaf vertex distinct by attaching distinct information to it using **device_info_set()**.

You create additional vertexes and edges using the functions discussed under “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221.

Allocating Storage for Device Information

A driver needs to save information about each device, usually in a structure. Fields in a typical structure might include:

- Locks or semaphores used for mutual exclusion among upper-half entry points and between them and the interrupt handler.
- Addresses of allocated PIO and DMA maps for this device (see “PIO Address Mapping” on page 716 and “DMA Address Mapping” on page 712).
- Address of an interrupt connection object for the device (see “Interrupt Signal Distribution” on page 713).
- In a block driver, anchors for a queue of *buf_t* objects being filled or emptied.
- Device status flags.

A problem is that at initialization time a driver does not know how many devices it will be asked to manage. In the past this problem has been handled by allocating an array of a fixed number of information structures, indexed by the device minor number.

In a PCI driver, you dynamically allocate memory for an information structure to hold information about the one device being attached. (See “General-Purpose Allocation” on page 203.) You save the address of the structure in the leaf vertex you create, using the **device_info_set()** function, which associates an arbitrary pointer with a *vertex_hdl_t* (see *hwgraph(d3x)* and “Extending the hwgraph” on page 222).

The information structure can easily be recovered in any top-half routine; see “Interrogating the hwgraph” on page 221.

Inserting Hardware Inventory Data

You attach the hardware inventory data for the attached device to the hwgraph vertex passed to the *pfxattach()* entry point—see “Creating an Inventory Entry” on page 51.

Return Value from Attach

The return code from *pfxattach()* is tested by the kernel. The driver can reject an attachment. When your driver cannot allocate memory, or fails due to another problem, it should:

- Use *cmn_err()* to document the problem (see “Using *cmn_err*” on page 274)
- Release any objects such as PIO and DMA maps that were created.
- Release any space allocated to the device such as a device information structure.
- Return an informative return code which might be meaningful in future releases.

More than one driver can register to support the same vendor ID and device ID. When the first driver fails to complete the attachment, the kernel continues on to test the next, until all have refused or one accepts. The *pfxdetach()* entry point can only be called if the *pfxattach()* entry point returns success (0).

Entry Point detach()

The *pfxdetach()* entry point is called when the kernel decides to detach a device. As of IRIX 6.4 this is only done for PCI devices. The need to detach can be created by a hardware failure or by administrator action. If the entry point is not defined, the device cannot be detached.

In general, the detach entry point must undo as much as possible of the work done by the *pfxattach()* entry point (see “Entry Point attach()” on page 153). This includes such actions as:

- Disconnect a registered interrupt handler.
- If any I/O operations are pending on the device, cancel them. If any top-half entry points are waiting on the completion of these operations, wake them up.
- Release all software objects allocated, such as PIO maps, DMA maps, and interrupt objects.

- Release any allocated kernel memory used for buffers or for a device information structure.
- Detach and release any edges and vertexes in the hwgraph created at attach time.

The state of the device itself is not known. If the detach code attempts to reset the device or put it in a quiescent state, the code should be prepared for errors to occur.

Open and Close Entry Points

The *pxopen()* and *pxclose()* entries for block and character devices are called when a device comes into use and when use of it is finished. For a conceptual overview of the *open()* process, see “Overview of Device Open” on page 63.

Entry Point *open()*

The kernel calls a device driver’s *pxopen()* entry when a process executes the *open()* system call on any device special file (see the *open(2)* reference page). It is also called when a process executes the *mount()* system call on a block device (see the *mount(2)* reference page). (For the *pxopen()* entry point of a STREAMS driver, see “Entry Point *open()*” on page 765.)

The prototype of *pxopen()* is as follows:

```
int pxopen(dev_t *devp, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp);
```

The argument values are

<i>*devp</i>	Pointer to a <i>dev_t</i> value, actually a handle to a leaf vertex in the hwgraph.
<i>otyp</i>	An integer flag specifying the source of the call: a user process opening a character device or block device, or another driver.
<i>oflag</i>	Flag bits specifying user mode options on the <i>open()</i> call.
<i>crp</i>	A <i>cred_t</i> object—an opaque structure for use in authentication. Standard access privileges to the special device file have already been verified.

Note: In releases prior to IRIX 6.4, a driver's `pxdevflag` constant could contain `D_OLD`. In that case, the first argument to `pxopen()` was a `dev_t` value, not a pointer to a `dev_t` value. However, this compatibility mode is no longer supported. The first argument to `pxopen()` is always a pointer to a `dev_t`.

The `open(D2)` reference page discusses the kind of work the `pxopen()` entry point can do. In general, the driver is expected to verify that this user process is permitted access in the way specified in `otyp` (reading, writing, or both) for the device specified in `*devp`. If access is not allowable, the driver returns a nonzero error code from `sys/errno.h`, for example `ENOMEM` or `EBUSY`.

Use of the Device Handle

The `dev_t` value input to `pxopen()` and all other top-half entry points is the key parameter that specifies the device. You use the `dev_t` to locate the hwgraph vertex that is being opened. From that vertex you extract the address of the device information structure that was stored when the device was attached (see "Allocating Storage for Device Information" on page 155). In `pxopen()` or any other top-half entry point, the driver retrieves the device information by applying `device_info_get()` to the `dev_t` value (see "Interrogating the hwgraph" on page 221).

Use of the Open Type

The `otyp` flag distinguishes between the following possible sources of this call to `pxopen()` (the constants are defined in `sys/open.h`).

- a call to open a character device (`OTYP_CHR`)
- a call to open a block device (`OTYP_BLK`)
- a call to a mount a block device as a filesystem (`OTYP_MNT`)
- a call to open a block device as swapping device (`OTYP_SWP`)
- a call direct from a device driver at a higher level (`OTYP_LYR`)

Typically a driver is written only to be a character driver or a block driver, and can be called only through the switch table for that type of device. When this is the case, the `otyp` value has little use.

It is possible to have the same driver treated as both block and character, in which case the driver needs to know whether the **open()** call addressed a block or character special device. It is possible for a block device to support different partitions with different uses, in which case the driver might need to record the fact that a device has been mounted, or opened as a swap device.

With all open types except OTYP_LYR, **pxopen()** is called for every open or mount operation, but **pxclose()** is called only when the last close or unmount occurs. The OTYP_LYR feature is used almost exclusively by drivers distributed with IRIX, like the host adapter SCSI driver (see “Host Adapter Concepts” on page 515). For each open of this type, there is one call to **pxclose()**.

Use of the Open Flag

The interpretation of the open mode flags is up to the designer of the driver. Four modes can be requested (declared in *sys/file.h*):

FREAD	Input access wanted.
FWRITE	Output access wanted (both FREAD and FWRITE may be set, corresponding to O_RDWR mode).
FNDELAY or FNONBLOCK	Return at once, do not sleep if the open cannot be done immediately.
FEXCL	Request exclusive use of the device.

You decide which of the flags have meaning with respect to the abilities of this device. You can return an EINVAL error when an unsupported mode is requested.

A key decision is whether the device can be opened only by one process at a time, or by multiple processes. If multiple opens are supported, a process can still request exclusive access with the FEXCL mode.

When the device can be used by only one process, or when FEXCL access is supported, the driver must keep track of the fact that the device is open. When the device is busy, the driver can test the FNDELAY and FNONBLOCK flags; if either is set, it can return EBUSY. Otherwise, the driver should sleep until the device is free; this requires coordination with the **pxclose()** entry point.

Use of the `cred_t` Object

The `cred_t` object passed to `pfxopen()`, `pfxclose()`, and `pfxiocctl()` can be used with the `drv_priv()` function to find out if the effective calling user ID is privileged or not (see the `drv_priv(D3)` reference page). Do not examine the object in detail, since its contents are subject to change from release to release.

Saving the Size of a Block Device

In a block device driver, the `pfxsize()` entry point will be called soon after `pfxopen()` (see “Entry Point `size()`” on page 181). It is typically best to calculate or read the device capacity at open time, and save it to be reported from `pfxsize()`.

Completing the `hwgraph`

Some device drivers distributed with IRIX test, at open time, to see if this is the first open since the attachment of the specified device. For these devices, the first `open()` call is guaranteed to come from the `ioconfig` program after it has assigned a stable controller number (see “Using `ioconfig` for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51). When these drivers detect the first open for a device, they retrieve the assigned controller number from the device vertex using `device_controller_num_get()` (see `hwgraph.inv(d3x)`), and possibly add convenience vertexes to the `hwgraph`.

Entry Point `close()`

The kernel calls the `pfxclose()` entry when the last process calls `close()` or `umount()` for the device special file. It is important to know that when the device can be opened by multiple processes, `pfxclose()` is not called for every `close()` function, but only when the last remaining process closes the device and no other processes have it open.

The function prototype and arguments of `pfxclose()` are

```
int pfxclose(dev_t dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *crp);
```

The arguments are the same as were passed to `pfxopen()`. However, the `flag` argument is not necessarily the same as at any particular call to `open()`.

It is up to you to design the meaning of “close” for this type of device. The `close(D2)` reference page discusses some of the actions the driver can do. Some considerations are:

- If the device is opened and closed frequently, you may decide to retain dynamic data structures.
- If the device can perform an action such as “rewind” or “eject,” you decide whether that action should be done upon close. Possibly the choice of acting or not acting can be set by an `ioctl()` call; or possibly the choice can be encoded into the device minor number—for example, the no-rewind-on-close option is encoded in certain tape minor device numbers.
- If the `pxopen()` entry point supports exclusive access, and it can be waiting for the device to be free, `pxclose()` must release the wait.

When a device can do DMA, the `pxclose()` entry point is the appropriate place to make sure that all I/O has terminated. Since all processes have closed the device, there is no reason for it to continue transmitting data into memory; and if it does continue, it might corrupt memory.

The `pxclose()` entry can detect an error and report it with a return code. However, the file is closed or unmounted regardless.

Control Entry Point

The `pxioctl()` entry point is called by the kernel when a user process executes the `ioctl()` system call (see the `ioctl(2)` reference page). This entry point is allowed in character drivers only. Block device drivers do not support it. STREAMS drivers pass control information as messages.

For an overview of the relationship between the user process, kernel, and the control entry point, see “Overview of Device Control” on page 65.

The prototype of the entry point is

```
int pxioctl(dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg,
            int mode, cred_t *crp, int *rvalp);
```

The argument values are

dev A `dev_t` value from which you can extract the major and minor device numbers, or the device information from the hwgraph vertex.

cmd The request value specified in the `ioctl()` call.

- arg* The optional argument value specified in the **ioctl()** call, or NULL if none was specified.
- mode* Flag bits specifying the **open()** mode, as associated with the file descriptor passed to the **ioctl()** system function.
- crp* A *cred_t* object—an opaque structure for use in authentication, describing the process that is in-context. Standard access privileges to the special device file have already been verified.
- *rvalp* The integer result to be returned to the user process.

It is up to the device driver to interpret the *cmd* and *arg* values in the light of the *mode* and other arguments. When the *arg* value is a pointer to data in the process address space, the driver uses the **copyin()** kernel function to copy the data into kernel space, and the **copyout()** function to return updated values. (See the **copyin(D3)** and **copyout(D3)** reference pages, and also “Transferring Data” on page 207.)

Choosing the Command Numbers

The command numbers supported by **pxioctl()** are arbitrary; but the recommended practice is to make sure that they are different from those of any other driver. One method to achieve this is suggested in the **ioctl(D2)** reference page.

Supporting 32-Bit and 64-Bit Callers

The **ioctl()** entry point may need to interpret a structure prepared in the user process. In a 64-bit system, the user process can be either a 32-bit or a 64-bit program. For discussion of this issue, see “Handling 32-Bit and 64-Bit Execution Models” on page 182

User Return Value

The kernel returns 0 to the **ioctl()** system function unless the **pxioctl()** function returns an error code. In the event of an error, the kernel may also return the code the driver places in **rvalp*, if any, or -1. To ensure that the user process sees a specific error code, it is a good idea to set the code in **rvalp*, and return that value. If your device driver does not define a **pxdevflag** or sets it to **D_OLD**, see “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148.

Data Transfer Entry Points

The `pfxread()` and `pfxwrite()` entry points are supported by character device drivers and pseudo-device drivers that allow reading and writing. They are called by the kernel when the user process calls the `read()`, `readv()`, `write()`, or `writv()` system function.

The `pfxstrategy()` entry point is required of block device drivers. It is called by the kernel when either a filesystem or the paging subsystem needs to transfer a block of data.

Entry Points `read()` and `write()`

The `pfxread()` and `pfxwrite()` entry points are similar to each other—only the direction of data transfer differs. The prototypes of the functions are

```
int pfxread (dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp);
int pfxwrite(dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp);
```

The arguments are

<i>dev</i>	A <i>dev_t</i> value from which you can extract the major and minor device numbers, or the device information from the hwgraph vertex.
<i>*uiop</i>	A <i>uio_t</i> object—a structure that defines the user’s buffer memory areas.
<i>crp</i>	A <i>cred_t</i> object—an opaque structure for use in authentication. Standard access privileges to the special device file have already been verified.

Data Transfer for a PIO Device

A character device driver using PIO transfers data in the following steps:

1. If there is a possibility of a timeout, start a timeout delay (see “Waiting for Time to Pass” on page 242).
2. Initiate the device operation as required.
3. Transfer data between the device and the buffer represented by the *uio_t* (see “Transferring Data Through a *uio_t* Object” on page 209).
4. If it is necessary to wait for an interrupt, put the process to sleep (see “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233).
5. When data transfer is complete, or when an error occurs, clear any pending timeout and return the final status of the operation. If the return code is 0, the final state of the *uio_t* determines the byte count returned by the `read()` or `write()` call.

Calling Entry Point `strategy()` From Entry Point `read()` or `write()`

A device driver that supports both character and block interfaces must have a `pxstrategy()` routine in which it performs the actual I/O. For example, the Silicon Graphics disk drivers support both character and block driver interfaces, and perform all I/O operations in the `pxstrategy()` function. However, the `pxread()`, `pxwrite()` and `pxioctl()` entries supported for character-type access also need to perform I/O operations. They do this by calling the `pxstrategy()` routine indirectly, using the kernel function `physiock()` or `uiophysio()` (see the `physiock(D3)` and `uiophysio(D3)` reference pages, and see “Waiting for Block I/O to Complete” on page 245).

Both the `physiock()` and `uiophysio()` functions takes care of the housekeeping needed to interface to the `pxstrategy()` entry, including the work of allocating a buffer and a `buf_t` structure, locking buffer pages in memory and waiting for I/O completion. Both routines require the `uio_t` to describe only a single segment of data (`uio_iovcnt` of 1). Although they are very similar, the two functions differ in the following ways:

- `physiock()` returns `EINVAL` if the initial offset is not a multiple of 512 bytes. If this is a requirement of your `pxstrategy()` routine, use `physiock()`; if not, use `uiophysio()`.
- `physiock()` is compatible with SVR4, while `uiophysio()` is unique to IRIX.

Example 7-3 shows the skeleton of a hypothetical driver in which the `pxread()` entry does its work through the `pxstrategy()` entry.

Example 7-3 Hypothetical `pxread()` entry in a Character/Block Driver

```
hypo_read (dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp)
{
    // ...validate the operation... //
    return physiock(hypo_strategy, /* our strategy entry */
                  0, /* allocate temp buffer & buf_t */
                  dev, /* dev_t arg for strategy */
                  B_READ, /* direction flag for buf_t */
                  uiop);
}
```

The `pxwrite()` entry would be identical except for passing `B_WRITE` instead of `B_READ`.

This dual-entry strategy is required only in a driver that supports both character and block access.

Entry Point `strategy()`

A block device driver does not directly support system calls by user processes. Instead, it provides services to a filesystem such as XFS, or to the memory paging subsystem of IRIX. These subsystems call the `pfstrategy()` entry point to read data in whole blocks.

Calls to `pfstrategy()` are not directly related in time to system functions called by a user process. For example, a filesystem may buffer many blocks of data in memory, so that the user process may execute dozens or hundreds of `write()` calls without causing an entry to the device driver. When the user function closes the file or calls `fsync()`—or when for unrelated reasons the filesystem needs to free some buffers—the filesystem calls `pfstrategy()` to write numerous blocks of data.

In a driver that supports the character interface as well, the `pfstrategy()` entry can be called indirectly from the `pfread()`, `pfwrite()` and `pfioctl()` entries, as described under “Calling Entry Point `strategy()` From Entry Point `read()` or `write()`” on page 164.

The prototype of the `pfstrategy()` entry point is

```
int pfstrategy(struct buf *bp);
```

The argument is the address of a `buf_t` structure, which gives the strategy routine the information it needs to perform the I/O:

- The `dev_t`, from which the driver can get major and minor device numbers or the device information from the `hwgraph` vertex
- The direction of the transfer (read or write)
- The location of the buffer in kernel memory
- The amount of data to transfer
- The starting block number on the device

For more on the contents of the `buf_t` structure, see “Structure `buf_t`” on page 196 and the `buf(D4)` reference page.

The driver uses the information in the `buf_t` to validate the data transfer and programs the device to start the transfer. Then it stores the address of the `buf_t` where the interrupt handler can find it (see “Interrupt Entry Point and Handler” on page 175) and calls `biowait()` to wait for the operation to complete. For the next step, see “Completing Block I/O” on page 176 (see also the `biowait(D3)` reference page).

Poll Entry Point

The *pxpoll()* entry point is called by the kernel when a user process calls the **poll()** or **select()** system function asking for status on a character special device. To implement it, you need to understand the IRIX implementation of **poll()**.

Use and Operation of poll(2)

The IRIX version of **poll()** allows a process to wait for events of different types to occur on any combination of devices, files, and STREAMS (see the **poll(2)** and **select(2)** reference pages). It is possible for multiple processes to be waiting for events on the same device.

It is up to you as the designer of a driver to decide which of the events that are documented in **poll(2)** are meaningful for your device. Other requested events simply never happen to the device.

Much of the complexity of **poll()** is handled by the IRIX kernel, but the kernel requires the assistance of any device driver that supports **poll()**. The driver is expected to allocate and hold a *pollhead* structure (declared in *sys/poll.h*) for each minor device that it supports. Allocation is simple; the driver merely calls the **phalloc()** kernel function. (The *pxstart()* entry point is a suitable place for this call; see “Entry Point start()” on page 152.)

There are two phases to the operation of **poll()**. When the system function is called, the kernel calls the *pxpoll()* entry point to find out if any requested events are pending at this time. If the kernel finds any events pending (on this or any other polled object), the **poll()** function returns to the user process. Nothing further is required.

However, when no requested event has happened, the user process expects the **poll()** function to block until an event has occurred. The kernel must implement this delay. It would be too inefficient for the kernel to repeatedly test for events. The kernel must rely on device drivers to notify it when an event has occurred.

Use of pollwakeup()

A device driver that supports *pxpoll()* is required to notify the kernel whenever an event that the driver supports has occurred. The driver does this by calling a kernel function, **pollwakeup()**, passing the *pollhead* structure for the affected device, and bit flags for the events that have taken place. In the event that one or more user processes are blocked in a **poll()**, waiting for an event from this device, the call to **pollwakeup()** will release the sleeping processes. For an example, see “Calling pollwakeup()” on page 177.

Use of pollwakeup() Without Interrupts

If the device in question does not support interrupts, the driver cannot support **poll()** unless it can somehow get control to discover an event and report it to **pollwakeup()**. One possibility is that the driver could simulate interrupts by setting a succession of **itimerout()** delays. On each timeout the driver would test its device for a change of status, call **pollwakeup()** when an event has occurred; and schedule a new delay. (See “Waiting for Time to Pass” on page 242.)

Entry Point poll()

The prototype for *pfxpoll()* is as follows:

```
int pfxpoll(dev_t dev, short events, int anyyet,
           short *reventsp, struct pollhead **phpp,
           unsigned int *genp);
```

The argument values are

<i>dev</i>	A <i>dev_t</i> value from which you can extract the major and minor device numbers, or the device information from the hwgraph vertex.
<i>events</i>	Bit-flags for the events the user process is testing, as passed to poll() and declared in <i>sys/poll.h</i> .
<i>*reventsp</i>	A field to receive the bit-flags of events that have occurred, or to receive 0x0000 if no requested events have occurred..
<i>anyyet</i> and <i>*phpp</i>	When <i>anyyet</i> is zero and no events have occurred, the kernel requires the address of the pollhead structure for this minor device to be returned in <i>*phpp</i> .
<i>*genp</i>	A pointer to an unsigned integer that is used by the driver to store the current value of the pollhead’s generation number at the time of the poll. (New in IRIX 6.5.)

Example 7-4 shows the *pfxpoll()* code of a hypothetical device driver. Only three event tests are supported: POLLIN and POLLRDNORM (treated as equivalent) and POLLOUT. The device driver maintains an array of *pollhead* structures, one for each supported minor device. These are presumably allocated during initialization.

Example 7-4 *pfxpoll()* Code for Hypothetical Driver

```
struct pollhead phds[MAXMINORS];
#define OUR_EVENTS (POLLIN|POLLOUT|POLLRDNORM)
hypo_poll(dev_t dev, short events, int anyyet,
          short *reventsp, struct pollhead **phpp, unsigned int *genp)
{
    minor_t dminor = getemisor(dev);
    short happened = 0;
    short wanted = events & OUR_EVENTS;
    *genp = POLLGEN(&phds[dminor])
    if (wanted & (POLLIN|POLLRDNORM))
    {
        if (device_has_data_ready(dminor))
            happened |= (POLLIN|POLLRDNORM);
    }
    if (wanted & POLLOUT)
    {
        if (device_ready_for_output(dminor))
            happened |= POLLOUT;
    }
    if (device_pending_error(dminor))
        happened |= POLLERR;
    if (0 == (*reventsp = happened))
    {
        if (!anyyet) *phpp = &phds[dminor]
    }
    return 0;
}
```

The code in Example 7-4 begins by discarding any unsupported event flags that might have been requested, and passes back the driver's pollhead generation number before probing the device. Then it tests the remaining flags against the device status. If the device has an uncleared error, the code inserts the POLLERR event. If no events were detected, and if the kernel requested it, the address of the *pollhead* structure for this minor device is returned.

If no requested event has occurred, the process will queue awaiting the requested events, provided that no event has occurred in the interim—before it is able to queue. This is determined by comparing the pollhead generation number at the time of queueing with the pollhead generation number passed back at the initial request. Since a call to *pollwakeup()* increments the pollhead generation number, any difference in the current pollhead generation number to the one at the time of the initial request indicates a device

event has occurred, and the device must be queried again to determine if it was a requested event. If the values of the previous and current pollhead generation numbers are equal, the process queues.

Memory Map Entry Points

A user process requests memory mapping by calling the system function **mmap()**. When the mapped object is a character device special file, the kernel calls the *pfxmmap()* or *pfxmap()* entry to validate and complete the mapping. To understand these entry points, you must understand the **mmap()** system function.

Concepts and Use of mmap()

The purpose of the **mmap()** system function (see the `mmap(2)` reference page) is to make the contents of a file directly accessible as part of the virtual address space of the user process. The results depend on the kind of file that is mapped:

- When the mapped object is a normal file, the process can load and store data from the file as if it were an array in memory.
- When the mapped object is a character device special file, the process can load and store data from device registers as if they were memory variables.
- When the mapped object is a block of memory owned and prepared by a pseudo-device driver, the process gains access to some special piece of memory data that it would not normally be able to access.

In all cases, access is gained through normal load and store instructions, without the overhead of calling system functions such as **read()**. Furthermore, the same mapping can be executed by other processes, in which case the same memory, or file, or device is shared by multiple, concurrent processes. This is how shared memory segments are achieved.

Use of `mmap()`

The `mmap()` system function takes four key parameters:

- the file descriptor for an open file, which can be either a normal disk file or a device special file
- an offset within that file at which the mapped data is to start. For a normal file, this is a file offset; for a device file, it represents an address in the address space of the device or the bus
- the length of data to be mapped
- protection flags, showing whether the mapped data is read-only or read-write

When the mapped object is a normal file, the filesystem implements the mapping. The filesystem does not call the block device driver for assistance in mapping a file. It does call the block device driver `pfstrategy()` entry to read and write blocks of file data as necessary, but the mapping of pages of data into pages of memory is controlled in the filesystem code.

When the mapped object is a device special file, the `mmap()` parameters are passed to the device driver at either its `pfmmap()` or `pfmap()` entry point. The device driver interprets the parameters in the context of the device, and uses a kernel function to create the mapping.

Persistent Mappings

Once a device or kernel memory has been mapped into some user address space, the mapping persists until the user process terminates or calls `unmap()` (see the `unmap(2)` reference page). In particular, the mapping does not end simply because the device special file is closed. You cannot assume, in the `pfclose()` or `pfunload()` entry points, that all mappings to devices have ended.

Entry Point `map()`

The `pfmap()` entry point can be defined in either a character or a block driver (it is the only mapping entry point that a block driver can supply). The function prototype is

```
int pfmap(dev_t dev, vhandl_t *vt,  
          off_t off, int len, int prot);
```

The argument values are

<i>dev</i>	A <i>dev_t</i> value from which you can extract both the major and minor device numbers.
<i>vt</i>	The address of an opaque structure that describes the assigned address in the user process address space. The structure contents are subject to change.
<i>off, len</i>	The offset and length arguments passed to mmap() by the user process.
<i>prot</i>	Flags showing the access intentions of the user process.

The first task of the driver is to verify that the access specified in *prot* is allowed. The next task is to validate the *off* and *len* values: do they fall in the valid address space of the device?

When the device driver approves of a mapping, it uses a kernel function, **v_mapphys()**, to establish the mapping. This function (documented in the **v_mapphys(D3)** reference page) takes the *vhandle_t*, an address in kernel cached or uncached memory, and a length. It makes the specified region of kernel space a part of the address space of the user process.

For example, a pseudo-device driver that intends to share kernel virtual memory with user processes would first allocate the memory:

```
caddr_t *kaddr = kmem_alloc (len , KM_CACHEALIGN);
```

It would then use the address of the allocated memory with the *vhandle_t* value it had received to map the allocated memory into the user space:

```
v_mapphys (vt, kaddr, len)
```

Note: There are no special precautions to take when mapping cached memory into user space, or when mapping device registers or bus addresses. However, you should almost never map *uncached memory* into user space. The effects of uncached memory access are hardware dependent and differ between multiprocessors and uniprocessors. Among uniprocessors, the IP26 and IP28 CPU modules have highly restrictive rules for the use of uncached memory (see “Uncached Memory Access in the IP26 and IP28” on page 33). In general, mapping uncached memory makes a driver nonportable and is likely to lead to subtle failures that are hard to resolve.

Example 7-5 contains an edited fragment of code from a Silicon Graphics device driver. This pseudo-device driver, whose prefix is *flash_*, provides access to “flash” PROM in certain computer models. It allows a user process to map the PROM into user space.

Example 7-5 Edited Fragment of `flash_map()`

```
int flash_map(dev_t dev, vhandle_t *vt, off_t off, long len)
{
    long offset = (long) off; /*Actual offset in flash prom*/
    /* Don't allow requests which exceed the flash prom size */
    if ((offset + len) > FLASHPROM_SIZE)
        return ENOSPC;
    /* Don't allow non page-aligned offsets */
    if ((offset % NBPC) != 0)
        return EIO;
    /* Only allow mapping of entire pages */
    if ((len % NBPC) != 0)
        return EIO;
    return v_mapphys(vt, FLASHMAP_ADDR + offset, len);
}
```

Note: Because there is no way for a driver to retract a successful call to `v_mapphys()`, your driver must return success to a `pfxmap()` call if `v_mapphys()` succeeds. In other words, you should make the call to `v_mapphys()` the last part of your `pfxmap()` routine, and only call it if you have determined that there have been no errors in any previous part of this routine. If there have been errors, the routine should return an error and not call `v_mapphys()`. If there have been no errors, then `pfxmap()` can return error or success based on the call to `v_mapphys()`.

When the driver allocates some memory resource associated with the mapping, and when more than one mapping can be active at a time, the driver needs to tag each memory resource so it can be located when the `pfxunmap()` entry point is called. One answer is to use the `v_gethandle()` macro defined in `ksys/ddmap.h`. This macro takes a pointer to a `vhandle_t` and returns a unique pointer-sized integer that can be used to tag allocations. No other information in `ksys/ddmap.h` is supported for driver use.

Entry Point `mmap()`

The `pxmmmap()` (note: *two* letters “m”) entry can be used only in a character device driver. The prototype is

```
int pxmmmap(dev_t dev, off_t off, int prot);
```

The argument values are

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| <i>dev</i> | A <i>dev_t</i> value from which you can extract both the major and minor device numbers. |
| <i>off</i> | The offset argument passed to <code>mmap()</code> by the user process. |
| <i>prot</i> | Flags showing the access intentions of the user process. |

The function is expected to return the page frame number (PFN) that corresponds to the offset *off* in the device address space. A PFN is an address divided by the page size. (See “Working With Page and Sector Units” on page 211 for page unit conversion functions.)

This entry point is supported only for compatibility with SVR4. When the kernel needs to map a character device, it looks first for `pxmap()`. It calls `pxmmmap()` only when `pxmap()` is not available. The differences between the two entry points are as follows:

- This entry point receives no *vhandl_t* argument, so it cannot use `v_mapphys()`. It has to calculate a page frame number, which means that it has to be aware of the current page size (obtainable from the `ptob()` kernel function, see the `ptob(D3)` reference page).
- This entry point does not receive a length argument, so it has to assume a default length for every map (typically the page size).
- When a mapping is created using this entry point, the `pxunmap()` entry is not called.

Entry Point `unmap()`

The kernel calls the `pfxunmap()` entry point after a mapping is created using the `pfxmap()` entry point. This entry should be supplied, even if it is an empty function, when the `pfxmap()` entry point is supplied. If it is not supplied, the `munmap()` system function returns the `ENODEV` error to the user process.

The `pfxunmap()` entry point is only called when the mapped region has been completely unmapped by all processes. For example, suppose a parent process calls `mmap()` to map a device. Then the parent creates one or more child processes using `sproc()`. Each child shares the address space, including the mapped segment. A process in the share group can terminate, or can explicitly `unmap()` the segment or part of the segment, but these actions do not result in a call to `pfxunmap()`. Only when the last process with access to the segment has fully unmapped the segment is `pfxunmap()` called.

On entry, the kernel has completed unmapping the object from the user process address space. This entry point does not need to do anything to affect the user address space; it only needs to release any resources that were allocated to support the mapping.

The prototype is

```
int pfxunmap(dev_t dev, vhandle_t *vt);
```

The argument values are

dev A `dev_t` value from which you can extract both the major and minor device numbers.

vt The address of an opaque structure that describes the assigned address in the user process address space.

If the driver allocated no resources to support a mapping, no action is needed here; the entry point can consist of a “return 0” statement.

When the driver does allocate memory or a PIO map to support a mapping, and supports multiple mappings, the driver needs to identify the resource associated with this particular mapping in order to release it. The `vt_gethandle()` function returns a unique number based on the `vt` argument; this can be used to identify resources.

Interrupt Entry Point and Handler

In traditional UNIX, when a hardware device presents an interrupt, the kernel locates the device driver for the device and calls the `pfxintr()` entry point (see the `intr(D2)` reference page). In current practice, an entry point named `pfxintr()` is not given any special treatment—although driver writers often give this name to the interrupt-handling function even so.

A device driver must register a specific interrupt handler for each device. The kernel functions for doing this are bus-specific, and are discussed in the bus-specific chapters. For example, the means of registering a VME interrupt handler is discussed in Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2.” However, the discussion of interrupts that follows is still relevant to any interrupt handler.

In principle an interrupt can happen at any time. Normally an interrupt occurs because at some previous time, the driver initiated a device operation. Some devices can interrupt without a preceding command.

Associating Interrupt to Driver

The association between an interrupt and the driver is established in different ways depending on the hardware.

- The VECTOR statement establishes the interrupt level and the associated driver for devices on the EISA and VME busses.
- For some VME devices, the interrupt level is established dynamically using `vme_ivec_set()` (see Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2”).
- For devices on the SCSI bus, all interrupts are handled by a single, low-level driver which notifies a callback function (see Chapter 16, “SCSI Device Drivers”).
- For devices on the PCI bus, the driver registers an interrupt handler using `pci_intr_connect()` at the time the device is attached (“Interrupt Signal Distribution” on page 713).

In all cases, the driver specifies the interrupt handler as the address of a function to be called, with an argument to be passed to the function when it is called. This argument value is typically the address of a data structure in which the driver has stored information about the device. Alternatively, it could be the `dev_t` that names the device—from which the interrupt handler can get device information, see “Allocating Storage for Device Information” on page 155.

Interrupt Handler Operation

In general, the interrupt handler implements the following tasks.

- When the driver supports multiple logical units, use its argument value to locate the data structure for the interrupting unit.
- Determine the reason for the interrupt by interrogating the device. This is typically done with PIO loads and stores of device registers.
- When the interrupt is a response to an I/O operation, note the success or failure of the operation.
- When the driver top half is waiting for the interrupt, waken it.
- If the driver supports polling, and the interrupt represents a pollable event, call **pollwakeup()**.
- If the device is not in an error state and another operation is waiting to be started, start it.

The details of each of these tasks depends on the hardware and on the design of the data structures used by the driver top half. In general, you should design an interrupt handler so that it does the least possible and exits as quickly as possible.

Completing Block I/O

In a block device driver, an I/O operation is represented by the *buf_t* structure. The **pxstrategy()** routine starts operations and waits for them to complete (see “Entry Point strategy()” on page 165).

The interrupt entry point sets the residual count in *b_resid*. It can post an error using **bioerror()**. It posts the operation complete and wakens the **pxstrategy()** routine by calling **biodone()**. If the **pxstrategy()** entry has set the address of a completion callback function in the *b_iodone* field of the *buf_t*, **biodone()** invokes it. (For more discussion, see “Waiting for Block I/O to Complete” on page 245.)

Completing Character I/O

In a character device driver, the driver top half typically awaits an interrupt by sleeping on a semaphore or synchronizing variable, and the interrupt routine posts the semaphore (see “Waiting for a General Event” on page 247). Error information must be passed in driver variables according to some local convention.

Calling pollwakeup()

When the interrupt represents an event that can be reported by the driver's *poll()* entry point (see "Entry Point poll()" on page 167), the interrupt handler must report the event to the kernel, in case some user process is waiting in a **poll()** call. Hypothetical code to do this is shown in Example 7-6.

Example 7-6 Hypothetical Call to pollwakeup()

```
hypo_intr(int ivec)
{
    struct hypo_dev_info *pinfo;
    if (! pinfo = find_dev_info(ivec))
        return; /* not our device */
    ...
    if (pinfo->have_data_flag)
        pollwakeup (pinfo->phead, POLLIN, POLLRDNORM);
    if (pinfo->output_ok_flag)
        pollwakeup (pinfo->phead, POLLOUT);
    ...
}
```

Note: It's important that the call to **pollwakeup()** occurs *after* any state has been updated by the event interrupt routine.

Interrupts as Threads

In traditional UNIX design, and in versions of IRIX preceding IRIX 6.4, an interrupt is handled as an asynchronous trap. The hardware trap handler calls the driver's interrupt function as a subroutine. In these systems, when the interrupt handler code is entered the system is in an unknown state. As a result, the interrupt handler can use only a restricted set of kernel services, and no services that can sleep.

Starting with IRIX 6.4, the IRIX kernel does all its work under control of lightweight executable entities called "kernel threads." When a device driver registers an interrupt handler, the kernel allocates a thread to execute that handler. The thread begins execution by waiting on an internal semaphore.

When a hardware interrupt occurs, the trap code merely posts the semaphore on which the handler's thread is waiting. Soon thereafter, the interrupt thread is scheduled to execute, and it calls the function registered by the driver.

The differences from previous releases are small. It is still true that the interrupt handler code is entered unpredictably, at a high priority; does little; and exits quickly. However, there are the following differences compared to earlier systems:

- The interrupt handler can be preempted by kernel threads running at higher priorities.

Previously, an interrupt handler in a uniprocessor system could only be preempted by an interrupt from a device with higher hardware priority. In IRIX 6.4, the handler can be preempted by kernel threads running daemons and high-priority real-time tasks, in addition to other interrupt threads.

- There are no restrictions on the kernel services an interrupt handler may call.

In particular, the interrupt handler is permitted to call services that could sleep. However, this is still typically not a good idea. For example, an interrupt handler should almost never allocate memory.

- Mutual exclusion between the interrupt handler the driver top half can be done with mutex locks, instead of requiring the use of spinlocks.
- The handler can do more work, and more elaborate work, if that leads to a better design for the driver.

In IRIX 6.4, the driver writer has no control over the selection of interrupt thread priority. The kernel assigns a high relative priority to threads that execute interrupt handlers. However, higher priorities exist, and an interrupt thread can be preempted.

Mutual Exclusion

In historical UNIX systems, which were uniprocessor systems, when the only CPU is executing the interrupt handler, nothing else is executing. The hardware architecture ensured that top-half code could not preempt the interrupt handler; and the top half could use functions such as `splhi()` to block interrupts during critical sections (see “Priority Level Functions” on page 242). An interrupt handler could only be preempted by an interrupt of higher priority—which would be an interrupt for a different driver, and so would have no conflicts with this driver over the use of data.

None of these comfortable assumptions are tenable any longer.

Hardware Exclusion Is Ineffective

In a multiprocessor, an interrupt can be taken on any CPU, while other CPUs continue to execute kernel or user code. This means that the top half code cannot block out interrupts using a function such as `splhi(0)`, because the interrupt could be taken on another CPU. Nor can the interrupt handler assume that it is safe; another CPU could be executing a top-half entry point to the same driver, for the same device, as an interrupt handler.

With the threaded kernel of IRIX 6.4, it is even possible for a process with an extremely high priority, in the same CPU (or in the only CPU of a uniprocessor), to enter the driver top half, preempting the thread that is executing the interrupt handler.

It is theoretically possible in a threaded kernel for a device to interrupt; for the kernel thread to be scheduled and enter the interrupt handler; and for the device to interrupt again, resulting in multiple concurrent entries to the same interrupt handler. However, IRIX prevents this. The interrupt handler for a device is entered serially. If you register the same handler function for multiple devices, it can be entered concurrently when *different* devices present interrupts at the same time.

Using Locking Between Top and Bottom Half

The only solution possible is that you must use a software lock of some kind to protect the data objects that can be accessed concurrently by top-half code and the interrupt handler. Before using that shared data, a function must acquire the lock. Options for the type of lock are discussed under “Designing for Multiprocessor Use” on page 184.

Interrupt Performance and Latency

Another interrupt cannot be handled from the same device until the interrupt handler function returns. The interrupt thread runs at very nearly the highest priority, so all but the most essential work is suspended in the interrupted CPU until the handler returns.

Support Entry Points

Certain driver entry points are used to support the operations of the kernel or the administration of the system.

Entry Point `unreg()`

The `pfxunreg()` entry point is called in a loadable driver, prior to the call to the `pfxunload()` entry point. This entry point is used by drivers that support the `pfxattach()` entry point (see “Attach and Detach Entry Points” on page 153). Such drivers have to register with the kernel as supporting devices of certain types. Before unloading, a driver needs to retract this registration, so the kernel will not call the driver to attach another device.

If `pfxunreg()` returns a nonzero error code, the driver is not unloaded.

Entry Point `unload()`

The `pfxunload()` entry point is called when the kernel is about to dynamically remove a loadable driver from the running system. A driver can be unloaded either because all its devices are closed and a timeout has elapsed, or because the operator has used the `ml` command (see the `ml(1)` reference page). The kernel calls `pfxunload()` only when no device special files managed by the driver are open. If any device had been opened, the `pfxclose()` entry has been called.

It is not easy to retain state information about the device over the time when the driver is not in memory. The entire text and data of a loadable driver, including static variables, are removed and reloaded. Global variables defined in the descriptive file (see “Describing the Driver in `/var/sysgen/master.d`” on page 260) remain in memory after the driver is unloaded, as do any allocated memory addressed from a hwgraph vertex (see “Attaching Information to Vertexes” on page 229). Be sure not to store any addresses of driver code or driver static variables in global variables or vertex structures, since the driver addresses will be different when the driver is reloaded.

Other than data addressed from the hwgraph, allocated dynamic memory should be released. The driver should also release any process handles (see “Sending a Process Signal” on page 232).

The driver is not required to unload. If the driver should not be unloaded at this time, it returns a nonzero return code to the call, and the kernel does not unload it. There are several reasons why a driver should not be unloaded.

A driver should never permit unloading when there is any kind of pointer to the driver held in any kernel data structure. It is a frequent design error to unload when there is a live pointer to the driver. Unpredictable kernel panics often result.

One example of a live pointer to a driver is a pending callback function. Any pending **itimerout()** or **bufcall()** timers should be cancelled before returning 0 from **pxunload()**. Another example is a registered interrupt handler. The driver must disconnect any interrupt handler before unloading; or else refuse to unload.

Entry Point **halt()**

The kernel calls the **pxhalt()** entry point, if one exists, while performing an orderly system shutdown (see the **halt(1)** reference page). No other driver entry points are called after this one. The prototype is simply

```
void pxhalt(void);
```

Since the system is shutting down, there is no point in returning allocated memory. The only purpose this entry point can serve is to leave the device in a safe and stable condition. For example, this is the place at which a disk driver could command the heads of the drive to move to a safe zone for power off.

The driver cannot assume that interrupts are disabled or enabled. The driver cannot block waiting for device actions, so whatever commands it issues to the device must take effect immediately.

Entry Point **size()**

The **pxsize()** entry point is required of block device drivers. It reports the size of the device in "sector" units, where a "sector" size is declared as **NBPSCTR** in *sys/param.h* (currently 512). The prototype is

```
int pxsize(dev_t dev);
```

The device major and minor numbers can be extracted from the `dev` argument. The entry point is not called until `pxopen()` has been called. Typically the driver will calculate the size of the medium during `pxopen()`.

Since the `int` return value is 32 bits in all systems, the largest possible block device is 1,024 gigabytes ($(2^{31} * 512) / 1,024^3$).

Entry Point `print()`

The `pxprint()` entry point is called from the kernel to display a diagnostic message when an error is detected on a block device. The prototype and the complete logic of the entry point is shown in Example 7-7.

Example 7-7 Entry Point `pxprint()`

```
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#include <sys/ddi.h>
int pxprint(dev_t dev, char *str)
{
    cmn_err(CE_NOTE, "Error on dev %d: %s\n", getemajor(dev), str);
    return 0;
}
```

Handling 32-Bit and 64-Bit Execution Models

The `pxioctl()` entry point can be passed a data structure from the user process address space; that is, the `arg` value can be a pointer to a structure or an array of data. In order to interpret such a structure, the driver has to know the execution model for which the user process was compiled.

The execution model is specified when code is compiled. The 32-bit model (compiler option `-32` or `-n32`) uses 32-bit address values and a `long int` contains 32 bits. The 64-bit model (compiler option `-64`) uses 64-bit address values and a `long int` contains 64 bits. (The size of an unqualified `int` is 32 bits in both models.) The execution model is sometimes casually called the “ABI” (Authorized Binary Interface), but this is an improper use of that term—an ABI comprises calling conventions, public names, and structure definitions, as well as the execution model.

An IRIX kernel compiled to the 32-bit model contains 32-bit drivers and supports only 32-bit user processes. A kernel compiled to the 64-bit model contains 64-bit drivers, but it supports user processes compiled to *either* 32-bit or 64-bit models. Therefore, in a 64-bit kernel, a driver can be asked to interpret data produced by a 32-bit program.

This is true only of the *pfxiocctl()* entry point. Other driver entry points move data to and from user space as streams or blocks of bytes—not as a structure with fields to be interpreted.

Since in other respects it is easy to make your driver portable between 64-bit and 32-bit systems, you should design your driver so that it can handle the case of operating in a 64-bit kernel, receiving *iocctl()* requests alternately from 32-bit and 64-bit programs.

The simplest way to do this is to define the arguments passed to the entry points in such a way that they have the same precision in either system. However, this is not always possible. To handle the general case, the driver must know to which model the user process was compiled.

In any top-half entry point (where there is a user process context), you find this out by calling the *userabi()* function (for which there is no reference page available). The prototype of *userabi()* (declared in *sys/ddi.h*) is

```
int userabi(__userabi_t *);
```

If there is no user process context, *userabi()* returns ESRCH. Otherwise it fills out a *__userabi_t* structure and returns 0. The structure of type *__userabi_t* (declared in *sys/types.h*) contains the fields listed below:

<i>uabi_szint</i>	Size of a user int (4).
<i>uabi_szlong</i>	Size of a user long (4 or 8).
<i>uabi_szptr</i>	Size of a user address (4 or 8).
<i>uabi_szlonglong</i>	Size of a user long long (8).

Store the value of *uabi_szptr* when opening a device. Then you can use it to choose between 32-bit and 64-bit declarations of a structure passed to *pfxiocctl()* or an address passed to *pfxpoll()*.

In any part of the driver, including interrupt threads, you can get the current ABI by calling the kernel function *get_current_abi()*. It takes no argument. It returns an unsigned character value that can be decoded using macros and constants that are declared in the header file *sys/kabi.h*.

Designing for Multiprocessor Use

Multiprocessor computers are a central part of the Silicon Graphics product line and will become increasingly common in the future. A device driver that is not multiprocessor-ready can be used in a multiprocessor, but it is likely to cause a performance bottleneck. A multiprocessor-ready driver, on the other hand, works well in a uniprocessor with no cost in performance.

The Multiprocessor Environment

A multiprocessor has two or more CPU modules, all of the same type. The CPUs execute independently, but all share the same main memory. Any CPU can execute the code of the IRIX kernel, and it is common for two or more CPUs to be executing kernel code, including driver code, simultaneously.

Uniprocessor Assumptions

Traditional UNIX architecture assumes a uniprocessor hardware environment with a hierarchy of interrupt levels. Ordinary code could be preempted by an interrupt, but an interrupt handler could only be preempted by an interrupt at a higher level.

This assumed hardware environment was reflected in the design of device drivers and kernel support functions.

- In a uniprocessor, an upper-half driver entry point such as `pfxopen()` cannot be preempted except by an interrupt. It has exclusive access to driver variables except for those changed by the interrupt handler.
- Once in an interrupt handler, no other code can possibly execute except an interrupt of a higher hardware level. The interrupt handler has exclusive access to driver variables.
- The interrupt handler can use kernel functions such as `splhi()` to set the hardware interrupt mask, blocking interrupts of all kinds, and thus getting exclusive access to all memory including kernel data structures.

All of these assumptions fail in a multiprocessor.

- Upper-half entry points can be entered concurrently on multiple CPUs. For example, one CPU can be executing `pfxopen()` while another CPU is in `pfxstrategy()`. Exclusive use of driver variables cannot be assumed.
- An interrupt can be taken on one CPU while upper-half routines or a timeout function execute concurrently on other CPUs. The interrupt routine cannot assume exclusive use of driver variables.
- Interrupt-level functions such as `splhi()` are meaningless, since at best they set the interrupt mask on the current CPU only. Other CPUs can accept interrupts at all levels. The interrupt handler can never gain exclusive access to kernel data.

The process of making a driver multiprocessor-ready consists of changing all code whose correctness depends on uniprocessor assumptions.

Protecting Common Data

Whenever a common resource can be updated by two processes concurrently, the resource must be protected by a *lock* that represents the exclusive right to update the resource. Before changing the resource, the software acquires the lock, claiming exclusive access. After changing the resource, the software releases the lock.

The IRIX kernel provides a set of functions for creating and using locks. It provides another set of functions for creating and using *semaphore* objects, which are like locks but sometimes more flexible. Both sets of functions are discussed under “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233.

Sleeping and Waking

Sometimes the lock is not available—some other process executing in another CPU has acquired the lock. When this happens, the requesting process is delayed in the lock function until the lock is free. To delay, or *sleep*, is allowed for upper-half entry points, because they execute (in effect) as subroutines of user processes.

Interrupt handlers and timeout functions are not permitted to sleep. They have no process identity and so there is no mechanism for saving and restoring their state. An interrupt handler can test a lock, and can claim the lock conditionally, but if a lock is already held, the handler must have some alternate way of storing data.

Synchronizing Within Upper-Half Functions

When designing an upper-half entry point, keep in mind that it could be executed concurrently with any other upper-half entry point, and that the one entry point could even be executed concurrently by multiple CPUs. Only a few entry points are immune:

- The *pxinit()*, *pxedtinit()*, and *pxstart()* entry points cannot be entered concurrently with each other or any other entry point (*pxstart()* could be entered concurrently with the interrupt handler).
- The *pxunload()* and *pxhalt()* entry points cannot be entered concurrently with any other entry point except for stray interrupts.
- Certain entry points have no cause to use shared data; for example, *pxsize()* and *pxprint()* normally do not need to take any precautions.

Other upper-half entry points, and all STREAMS entry points, can be entered concurrently by multiple CPUs, when the driver is multiprocessor-aware. In earlier versions of IRIX, you could place a flag in the *pxdevflag* of a character driver that made the kernel run the driver only on CPU 0. This effectively serialized all use of that driver. That feature is no longer supported. You must deal with concurrency.

Serializing on a Single Lock

You can create a single lock for upper-half serialization. Each upper-half function begins with read-only operations such as extracting the device minor number, getting device information from the hwgraph vertex, and testing and validating arguments. You allow these to execute concurrently on any CPU.

In each entry point, when the preliminaries are complete, you acquire the single lock, and release it just before returning. The result is that processes are serialized for I/O through the driver. If the driver supports only a single device, processes would be serialized in any case, waiting for the device to operate. Since the upper half can execute on any CPU, latency is more predictable.

Serializing on a Lock Per Device

When the driver supports multiple minor devices, you will normally have a data structure per device. An upper-half routine is concerned only with one device. You can define a lock in the data structure for each device instance, and acquire that lock as soon as the device information structure is known.

This method permits concurrent execution of upper-half requests for different minor devices, but it serializes access to any one device.

Coordinating Upper-Half and Interrupt Entry Points

Upper-half entry points prepare work for the device to do, and the interrupt handler reports the completion of the device action (see “Interrupt Handler Operation” on page 176). In a block device driver, this communication is relatively simple. In a character driver, you have more design options. The kernel functions mentioned in the following topics are covered under “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233.

Coordinating Through the *buf_t*

In a block device driver, the *pxstrategy()* routine initiates a read or a write based on a *buf_t* structure (see “Entry Point *strategy()*” on page 165), and leaves the address of the *buf_t* where the interrupt routine can find it. Then *pxstrategy()* calls the *biowait()* kernel function to wait for completion.

The *pxintr()* entry point updates the *buf_t* (using *pxbioerror()* if necessary) and then uses *biodone()* to mark the *buf_t* as complete. This ends the wait for *pxstrategy()*.

Coordination in a Character Driver

In a character driver that supports interrupts, you design your own coordination mechanism. The simplest (and not recommended) would be based on using the kernel function *sleep()* in the upper half, and *wakeup()* in the interrupt routine. It is better to use a semaphore and use *psema()* in the upper half and *vsema()* in the interrupt handler.

If you need to allow for timeouts in addition to interrupts, you have to deal with the complication that the timeout function can be called concurrently with an interrupt. In this case it is better to use synchronization variables (see “Using Synchronization Variables” on page 248).

Choice of Lock Type

In versions before IRIX 6.4, interrupt handlers must not use kernel services that can sleep. This prevented you from using normal locks to provide mutual exclusion between the upper half and the interrupt handler. The lock had to be a basic lock (see “Basic Locks” on page 235), a type that is implemented as a spinning lock in a multiprocessor.

Now that interrupt handlers execute as kernel threads, they have the ability to sleep if necessary. This means that you can now use mutex locks (see “Using Mutex Locks” on page 237) between the upper half and interrupt handler. Although you do not want an

interrupt handler to be delayed, it is much better for a kernel thread to sleep briefly while waiting for a lock, than for it to spin in a tight loop. In general, mutex locks are more efficient than spinning locks.

In the event you must maintain a multiprocessor driver that operates in both IRIX 6.4 and an earlier, nonthreaded version, you can make the choice of lock type dynamically using conditional compilation. Example 7-8 shows one technique.

Example 7-8 Conditional Choice of Mutual Exclusion Lock Type

```
#ifdef INTR_KTHREADS
#define INT_LOCK_TYPE mutex_t
#define INT_LOCK_INIT(p) MUTEX_INIT(p, MUTEX_DEFAULT, "DRIVER_NAME")
#define INT_LOCK_LOCK(p) MUTEX_LOCK(p, -1)
#define INT_LOCK_FREE(p) MUTEX_UNLOCK(p)
#else /* not a threaded kernel */
#define INT_LOCK_TYPE struct{lock_t lk, int cookie}
#define INT_LOCK_INIT(p)
LOCK_INIT(&p->lk, (uchar_t)-1, plhi, (lkinfo_t)-1)
#define INT_LOCK_LOCK(p) (p->cookie=LOCK(&p->lk, plhi))
#define INT_LOCK_FREE(p) UNLOCK(&p->lk, p->cookie)
#endif
```

Converting a Uniprocessor Driver

As a general approach, you can convert a uniprocessor driver to make it multiprocessor-safe in the following steps:

1. If it currently uses the `D_OLD` flag, or has no `pfxddevflag` constant, convert it to use the current interface, with a `pfxddevflag` of `D_MP`.
2. Make sure it works in the original uniprocessor at the current release of IRIX.
3. Begin adding semaphores, locks, and other exclusion and synchronization tools. Continue to test the driver on the uniprocessor. It will never wait for a lock, but the coordination between upper half and interrupt handler should work.
4. Test on a multiprocessor.

In performing the conversion, you can look for calls to `spl..()` functions as marking points at which work is needed. These functions are used for mutual exclusion in a uniprocessor, but they are all ineffective or unnecessary in a multiprocessor-safe driver.

Example Conversion Problem

The code in Example 7-9 shows typical logic in a uniprocessor character driver.

Example 7-9 Uniprocessor Upper-Half Wait Logic

```
s = splvme();
flag |= WAITING;
while (flag & WAITING) {
    sleep(&flag, PZERO);
}
splx(s);
```

The upper half calls the `splvme()` function with the intention of blocking interrupts, and thus preventing execution of this driver's interrupt handler while the `flag` variable is updated. In a multiprocessor this is ineffective because at best it sets the interrupt level on the current CPU. The interrupt handler can execute on another CPU and change the variable.

The corresponding interrupt handler is sketched in Example 7-10.

Example 7-10 Uniprocessor Interrupt Logic

```
if (flag & WAITING) {
    wakeup(&flag);
    flag &= ~WAITING;
}
```

The interrupt handler could execute on another CPU, and test the flag after the upper half has called `splvme()` and before it has set `WAITING` in `flag`. The interrupt is effectively lost. This would happen rarely and would be hard to repeat, but it would happen and would be hard to trace.

A more reliable, and simpler, technique is to use a semaphore. The driver defines a global semaphore:

```
static sema_t sleeper;
```

A driver with multiple devices would have a semaphore per device, perhaps as an array of `sema_t` items indexed by device minor number.

The semaphore (or array) would be initialized to a starting value of 1 in the *pfxinit()* or *pfxstart()* entry:

```
void hypo_start ()
{
...
    initnsema (&sleeper, 1, "sleeper");
}
```

After the upper half started a device operation, it would await the interrupt using **psema()**:

```
psema (sleeper, PZERO);
```

The PZERO argument makes the wait immune to signals. If the driver should wake up when a signal is sent to the calling process (such as SIGINT or SIGTERM), the second argument can be PCATCH. A return value of -1 indicates the semaphore was posted by a signal, not by a **vsema()** call. The interrupt handler would use **vsema()** to post the semaphore.

Device Driver/Kernel Interface

The programming interface between a device driver and the IRIX kernel is founded on the AT&T System V Release 4 DDI/DKI, and it remains true that a working device driver for an SVR4 system can be ported to IRIX with relatively little difficulty. However, as both Silicon Graphics hardware and the IRIX kernel have evolved into far greater complexity and sophistication, the driver interface has been extended. A driver can now call upon nearly as many IRIX extended kernel functions as it can SVR4-compatible ones.

The function prototypes and detailed operation of all kernel functions are documented in the reference pages in volume “D.” The aim of this chapter is to provide background, context, and an overview of the interface under the following headings:

- “Important Data Types” on page 192 describes the data types that are exchanged between the kernel and a driver.
- “Important Header Files” on page 201 summarizes the C header files that are frequently included in a driver source file.
- “Kernel Memory Allocation” on page 203 discusses allocating kernel memory in general and for objects of specific types.
- “Transferring Data” on page 207 discusses the problems of copying data between user and kernel address spaces, and block-copy operations within the kernel.
- “Managing Virtual and Physical Addresses” on page 210 discusses functions for testing and translating addresses in different spaces, for using address/length lists, and for setting up DMA transfers.
- “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221 discusses the kernel function used to create and modify hwgraph vertexes.
- “User Process Administration” on page 232 tells how to test the attributes of a calling process and how to send a signal.
- “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233 details the kinds of locks and semaphores available, and the methods of waiting for events to occur.

Important Data Types

In order to understand the driver/kernel interface, you need first of all to understand the data types with which it deals.

Hardware Graph Types

As discussed under “Hardware Graph Features” on page 43, the hwgraph is composed of vertexes connected by labelled edges. The functions for working with the hwgraph are discussed under “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221.

Vertex Handle Type

There is no data type associated with the edge as such. The data type of a graph vertex is the *vertex_hdl_t*, an opaque, 32-bit number. When you create a vertex, a *vertex_hdl_t* is returned. When you store data in a vertex, or get data from one, you pass a *vertex_hdl_t* as the argument.

Vertex Handle and dev_t

The device number type, *dev_t*, is an important type in classical driver design (see “Device Number Types” on page 199). In IRIX 6.4, the *dev_t* and the *vertex_hdl_t* are identical. That is, when a driver is called to open or operate a device that is represented as a vertex in the hardware graph, the value passed to identify the device is simply the handle to the hwgraph vertex for that device.

When a driver is called to open a device that is only represented as a special file in */dev* (as in IRIX 6.3 and earlier—there are no such devices supported by IRIX 6.4, but such support is provided for third-party drivers in IRIX 6.5), the identifying value is an *o_dev_t*, containing major and minor numbers and identical to the traditional *dev_t*.

Graph Error Numbers

Most hwgraph functions have graph error codes as their explicit result type. The *graph_error_t* is an enumeration declared in *sys/graph.h* (included by *sys/hwgraph.h*) having these values:

GRAPH_SUCCESS Operation successful. This success value is 0, as is conventional in C programming.

GRAPH_DUP	Data to be added already exists.
GRAPH_NOT_FOUND	Data requested does not exist.
GRAPH_BAD_PARAM	Typically a null value where an address is required, or other unusable function parameter.
GRAPH_HIT_LIMIT	Arbitrary limit on, for example, number of edges.
GRAPH_CANNOT_ALLOC	Unable to allocate memory to expand vertex or other data structure, possibly because “no sleep” specified.
GRAPH_ILLEGAL_REQUEST	Improper or impossible request.
GRAPH_IN_USE	Cannot deallocate vertex because there are references to it.

Address Types

Device drivers deal with addresses in different address spaces. When you store individual addresses, it is a good idea to use a data type specific to the address space. The following types are declared in *sys/types.h* to use for pointer variables:

<i>caddr_t</i>	Any memory (“core”) address in user or kernel space.
<i>daddr_t</i>	A disk offset or address (64 bits).
<i>paddr_t</i>	A physical memory address.
<i>iopaddr_t</i>	An address in some I/O bus address space.

It is a very good idea to always store a pointer in a variable with the correct type. It makes the intentions of the program more understandable, and helps you think about the complexities of address translation.

Address/Length Lists

An *address/length list*, or *alenlist*, is a software object you use to store the address and size of each segment of a buffer. An *alenlist* is a list in which each list item is a pair composed of an address and a related length. All the addresses in the list refer to the same address space, whether that is a user virtual space, the kernel virtual space, physical memory

space, or the address space of some I/O bus. An alenlist cursor is a pointer that ranges over the list, selecting one pair after another.

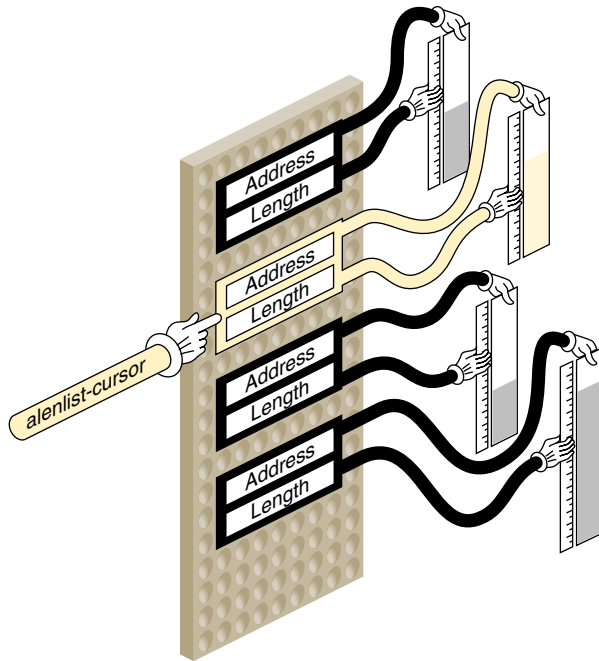


Figure 8-1 Address/Length List Concepts

The conceptual relationship between an alenlist and a buffer is illustrated in Figure 8-1. A buffer area that is a single contiguous segment in virtual memory may consist of scattered page frames in physical memory. The *alenlist_t* data type is a pointer to an alenlist.

The kernel provides a variety of functions for creating alenlists, for loading them with addresses and lengths, and for translating the addresses (see “Using Address/Length Lists” on page 213). These functions and the *alenlist_t* data type are declared in *sys/alenlist.h*.

Structure `uio_t`

The `uio_t` structure describes data transfer for a character device:

- The `pfxread()` and `pfxwrite()` entry points receive a `uio_t` that describes the buffer of data.
- Within an `pfxiocctl()` entry point, you might construct a `uio_t` to represent data transfer for control purposes.
- In a hybrid character/block driver, the `physiock()` function translates a `uio_t` into a `buf_t` for use by the `pfstrategy()` entry point.

The fields and values in a `uio_t` are declared in `sys/uio.h`, which is included by `sys/ddi.h`. For a detailed discussion, see the `uio(D4)` reference page. Typically the contents of the `uio_t` reflect the buffer areas that were passed to a `read()`, `readv()`, `write()`, or `writew()` call (see the `read(2)` and `write(2)` reference pages).

Data Location and the `iovec_t`

One `uio_t` describes data transfer to or from a single address space, either the address space of a user process or the kernel address space. The address space is indicated by a flag value, either `UIO_USERSPACE` or `UIO_SYSSPACE`, in the `uio_segflg` field.

The total number of bytes remaining to be transferred is given in field `uio_resid`. Initially this is the total requested transfer size.

Although the transfer is to a single address space, it can be directed to multiple segments of data within the address space. Each segment of data is described by a structure of type `iovec_t`. An `iovec_t` contains the virtual address and length of one segment of memory.

The number of segments is given in field `uio_iovcnt`. The field `uio_iov` points to the first `iovec_t` in an array of `iovec_t` structures, each describing one segment of data. The total size in `uio_resid` is the sum of the segment sizes.

For a simple data transfer, `uio_iovcnt` contains 1, and `uio_iov` points to a single `iovec_t` describing a buffer of 1 or more bytes. For a complicated transfer, the `uio_t` might describe a number of scattered segments of data. Such transfers can arise in a network driver where multiple layers of message header data are added to a message at different levels of the software.

Use of the `uio_t`

In the `pfxread()` and `pfxwrite()` entry points, you can test `uio_segflag` to see if the data is destined for user space or kernel space, and you can save the initial value of `uio_resid` as the requested length of the transfer.

In a character driver, you fetch or store data using functions that both use and modify the `uio_t`. These functions are listed under “Transferring Data Through a `uio_t` Object” on page 209. When data is not immediately available, you should test for the `FNDELAY` or `FNONBLOCK` flags in `uio_fmode`, and return when either is set rather than sleeping.

Structure `buf_t`

The `buf_t` structure describes a block data transfer. It is designed to represent the transfer (in or out) of a sequence of adjacent, fixed-size blocks from a random-access device to a block of contiguous memory. The size of one device block is `NBPSCTR`, declared in `sys/param.h`. For a detailed discussion of the `buf_t`, see the `buf(D4)` reference page.

The `buf_t` is used internally in IRIX by the paging I/O system to manage queues of physical pages, and by filesystems to manage queues of pages of file data. The paging system and filesystems are the primary clients of the `pfxstrategy()` entry point to a block device driver, so it is only natural that a `buf_t` pointer is the input argument to `pfxstrategy()`.

Tip: The `idbg` kernel debugging tool has several functions related to displaying the contents of `buf_t` objects. See “Commands to Display `buf_t` Objects” on page 293.

Fields of `buf_t`

The fields of the `buf_t` are declared in `sys/buf.h`, which is included by `sys/ddi.h`. This header file also declares the names of many kernel functions that operate on `buf_t` objects. (Many of those functions are not supported as part of the DDI/DKI. You should only use kernel functions that have reference pages.)

Because *buf_t* is used by so many software components, it has many fields that are not relevant to device driver needs, as well as some fields that have multiple uses. The relevant fields are summarized in Table 8-1.

Table 8-1 Accessible Fields of *buf_t* Objects

Field Name	Access	Purpose and Contents
<i>b_edev</i>	read-only	<i>dev_t</i> giving device major and minor numbers.
<i>b_flags</i>	read-only	Operational flags; for a detailed list see <i>buf(D4)</i> .
<i>b_forw, b_back,</i> <i>av_forw, av_back</i>	read-write	Queuing pointers, available for driver use within the <i>pxstrategy()</i> routine.
<i>b_un.b_addr</i>	read-only	Sometimes the kernel virtual address of the buffer, depending on the <i>b_flags</i> setting <i>BP_ISMAPPED</i> .
<i>b_bcount</i>	read-only	Number of bytes to transfer.
<i>b_blkno</i>	read-only	Starting logical block number on device (for a disk, relative to the partition that the device represents).
<i>b_iodone</i>	read-write	Address of a driver internal function to be called on I/O completion.
<i>b_resid</i>	read-write	Number of bytes not transferred, set at completion to 0 unless an error occurs.
<i>b_error</i>	read-write	Error code, set at completion of I/O.

No other fields of the *buf_t* are designed for use by a driver. In Table 8-1, “read-only” access means that the driver should never change this field in a *buf_t* that is owned by the kernel. When the driver is working with a *buf_t* that the driver has allocated (see “Allocating *buf_t* Objects and Buffers” on page 206) the driver can do what it likes.

Using the Logical Block Number

The logical block number is the number of the 512-byte block in the device. The “device” is encoded by the minor device number that you can extract from *b_edev*. It might be a complete device surface, or it might be a partition within a larger device (for example, the IRIX disk device drivers support different minor device numbers for different disk partitions).

The `pxstrategy()` routine may have to translate the logical block number based on the driver's information about device partitioning and device geometry (sector size, sectors per track, tracks per cylinder).

Buffer Location and `b_flags`

The data buffer represented by a `buf_t` can be in one of two places, depending on bits in `b_flags`.

When the macro `BP_ISMAPPED(buf_t-address)` returns true, the buffer is in kernel virtual memory and its virtual address is in `b_un.b_addr`.

When `BP_ISMAPPED(buf_t-address)` returns false, the buffer is described by a chain of `pfdat` structures (declared in `sys/pfdat.h`, but containing no fields of any use to a device driver). In this case, `b_un.b_addr` contains only an offset into the first page frame of the chain. See "Managing Buffer Virtual Addresses" on page 218 for a method of mapping an unmapped buffer.

Lock and Semaphore Types

The header files `sys/sem.h` and `sys/types.h` declare the data types of locks of different types, including the following:

<code>lock_t</code>	Basic lock, or spin-lock, used with <code>LOCK()</code> and related functions
<code>mutex_t</code>	Sleeping lock, used for mutual exclusion between upper-half instances.
<code>sema_t</code>	Semaphore object, used for general locking.
<code>mrlock_t</code>	Reader-writer locks, used with <code>RW_RDLOCK()</code> and related functions.
<code>sv_t</code>	Synchronization variable, used with <code>SV_WAIT</code> and related functions

These lock types should be treated as opaque objects because their contents can change from release to release (and in fact their contents are different in IRIX 6.2 from previous releases).

The families of locking and synchronization functions contain functions for allocating, initializing, and freeing each type of lock. See "Waiting and Mutual Exclusion" on page 233.

Device Number Types

In the */dev* filesystem (but not in the */hw* filesystem), two numbers are carried in the inode of a device special file: a *major device number* of up to 9 bits, and a *minor device number* of up to 18 bits. The numbers are assigned when the device special file is created, either by the */dev/MAKEDEV* script or by the system administrator. The contents and meaning of device numbers is discussed under “Devices as Files” on page 36.

In traditional UNIX practice, the *dev_t* has been an unsigned integer containing the values of the major and minor numbers for the device that is to be used. When a device is represented in IRIX only as a device special file in */dev*, this is still the case.

When a device is represented by a vertex of the hwgraph, visible as a name in the */hw* filesystem, the major number is always 0 and the minor number is arbitrary. When a device is opened as a special file in */hw*, the *dev_t* received by the driver is composed of major 0 and an arbitrary minor number. In fact, the *dev_t* is a *vertex_hdl_t*, a handle to the hwgraph vertex that represents the device.

Historical Use of the Device Numbers

Historically, a driver used the major device number to learn which device driver has been called. This was important only when the driver supported multiple interfaces, for example both character and block access to the same hardware.

Also historically, the driver used the minor device number to distinguish one hardware unit from another. A typical scheme was to have an array of device-information structures indexed by the minor number. In addition, mode of use options were encoded in the minor number, as described under “Minor Device Number” on page 39.

You can still use major and minor numbers the same way, but only when the device is represented by a device special file that is created with the *mknod* command, so that it contains meaningful major and minor numbers. The kernel functions related to *dev_t* use are summarized in Table 8-2.

Table 8-2 Functions to Manipulate Device Numbers

Function	Header Files	Purpose
etoimajor(D3)	ddi.h	Convert external to internal major device number.
getemajor(D3)	ddi.h	Get external major device number.
geteminor(D3)	ddi.h	Get external minor device number.
getmajor(D3)	ddi.h	Get internal major device number.
getminor(D3)	ddi.h	Get internal minor device number.
itoemajor(D3)	ddi.h	Convert internal to external major device number.
makedevice(D3)	ddi.h	Make device number from major and minor numbers.

The most important of the functions in in Table 8-2 are

- **getemajor()**, which extracts the major number from a *dev_t* and returns it as a *major_t*
- **geteminor()**, which extracts the minor number from a *dev_t* and returns it as a *minor_t*

The **makedevice()** function, which combines a *major_t* and a *minor_t* to form a traditional *dev_t*, is useful only when creating a “clone” driver (see “Support for CLONE Drivers” on page 774).

Contemporary Device Number Use

When the device is represented as a hwgraph vertex, the driver does not receive useful major and minor numbers. Instead, the driver uses the device-unique information that the driver itself has stored in the hwgraph vertex.

An historical driver makes only historical use of the *dev_t*, using the functions listed in the preceding topic. Such a driver makes no use of the hwgraph, and can only manage devices that are opened as device special files in */dev*.

A contemporary driver creates hwgraph vertexes to represent its devices (see “Extending the hwgraph” on page 222); makes no use of the major and minor device numbers; and

uses the *dev_t* as a handle to a hwgraph vertex. Such a driver can only manage devices that are opened as device special files in */hw*, or devices that are opened through symbolic links in */dev* that refer to */hw*.

It might possibly be necessary to merge the two approaches. This can be done as follows. In each upper-half entry point, apply **getemajor()** to the *dev_t*. When the result is nonzero, the *dev_t* is conventional and **getemminor()** will return a useful minor number. Use it to locate the device-specific information.

When **getemajor()** returns 0, the *dev_t* is a vertex handle. Use **device_info_get()** to retrieve the address of device-specific information.

Important Header Files

The header files that are frequently needed in device driver source modules are summarized in Table 8-3.

Table 8-3 Header Files Often Used in Device Drivers

Header File	Reason for Including
<i>sys/alenlist.h</i>	The address/length list type and related functions.
<i>sys/buf.h</i>	The <i>buf_t</i> structure and related constants and functions (included by <i>sys/ddi.h</i>).
<i>sys/cmn_err.h</i>	The cmn_err() function.
<i>sys/conf.h</i>	The constants used in the <i>pxdevflags</i> global.
<i>sys/ddi.h</i>	Many kernel functions declared. Also includes <i>sys/types.h</i> , <i>sys/uio.h</i> , and <i>sys/buf.h</i> .
<i>sys/debug.h</i>	Defines the ASSERT macro and others.
<i>sys/dmamax.h</i>	Data types and kernel functions related to DMA mapping.
<i>sys/edt.h</i>	Declares the <i>edt_t</i> type passed to <i>pxedtinit()</i> .
<i>sys/eisa.h</i>	EISA-bus hardware constants and EISA kernel functions.
<i>sys/errno.h</i>	Names for all system error codes.
<i>sys/file.h</i>	Names for file mode flags passed to driver entry points.
<i>sys/hwgraph.h</i>	Hardware graph objects and related functions.

Table 8-3 (continued) Header Files Often Used in Device Drivers

Header File	Reason for Including
<i>sys/immu.h</i>	Types and macros used to manage virtual memory and some kernel functions.
<i>sys/kmem.h</i>	Constants like <code>KM_SLEEP</code> used with some kernel functions.
<i>sys/ksynch.h</i>	Functions used for sleep-locks.
<i>sys/log.h</i>	Types and functions for using the system log.
<i>sys/major.h</i>	Names for assigned major device numbers.
<i>sys/mman.h</i>	Constants and flags used with <code>mmap()</code> and the <code>pfxmmap()</code> entry point.
<i>sys/param.h</i>	Constants like <code>PZERO</code> used with some kernel functions.
<i>sys/PCI/pciio.h</i>	PCI bus interface functions and constants.
<i>sys/pio.h</i>	VME PIO functions.
<i>sys/poll.h</i>	Types and functions for pollhead allocation and poll callback.
<i>sys/scsi.h</i>	Types and functions used to call the inner SCSI driver.
<i>sys/sem.h</i>	Types and functions related to semaphores, mutex locks, and basic locks.
<i>sys/stream.h</i>	STREAMS standard functions and data types.
<i>sys/strmp.h</i>	STREAMS multiprocessor functions.
<i>sys/sysmacros.h</i>	Macros for conversion between bytes and pages, and similar values.
<i>sys/system.h</i>	Kernel functions related to system operations.
<i>sys/types.h</i>	Common data types and types of system objects (included by <i>sys/ddi.h</i>).
<i>sys/uio.h</i>	The <code>uio_t</code> structure and related functions (included by <i>sys/ddi.h</i>).
<i>sys/vmereg.h</i>	VME bus hardware constants and VME-related functions.

Kernel Memory Allocation

A device or STREAMS driver can allocate memory statically, as global variables in the driver module, and this is a good way to allocate any object that is always needed and has a fixed size.

When the number or size of an object can vary, but can be determined at initialization time, the driver can allocate memory in the *pfxinit()*, *pfxedtinit()*, *pfxattach()*, or *pfxstart()* entry point.

You can allocate memory dynamically in any upper-half entry point. When this is necessary, it should be done in an entry point that is called infrequently, such as *pfxopen()*. The reason is that memory allocation is subject to unpredictable delays. As a general rule, you should avoid the need to allocate memory in an interrupt handler.

General-Purpose Allocation

General-purpose allocation uses the **kmem_alloc()** function and associated functions summarized in Table 8-4.

Table 8-4 Functions for Kernel Virtual Memory

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
kmem_alloc(D3)	kmem.h & types.h	Allocate space from kernel free memory.
kmem_free(D3)	kmem.h & types.h	Free previously allocated kernel memory.
kmem_zalloc(D3)	kmem.h & types.h	Allocate and clear space from kernel free memory.

The most important of these functions is **kmem_alloc()**. You use it to allocate blocks of virtual memory at any time. It offers these important options, controlled by a flag argument:

- Sleeping or not sleeping when space is not available. You specify not-sleeping when holding a basic lock, but you must be prepared to deal with a return value of NULL.

- Physically-contiguous memory. The memory allocated is virtual, and when it spans multiple pages, the pages are not necessarily adjacent in physical memory. You need physically contiguous pages when doing DMA with a device that cannot do scatter/gather. However, contiguous memory is harder to get as the system runs, so it is best to obtain it in an initialization routine.
- Cache-aligned memory. By requesting memory that is a multiple of a cache line in size, and aligned on a cache-line boundary, you ensure that DMA operations will affect the fewest cache lines (see “Setting Up a DMA Transfer” on page 216).

The `kmem_zalloc()` function takes the same options, but offers the additional service of zero-filling the allocated memory.

In porting an old driver you may find use of allocation calls beginning with “kern.” Calls to the “kern” group of functions should be upgraded as follows:

<code>kern_malloc(n)</code>	Change to <code>kmem_alloc(n,KM_SLEEP)</code> .
<code>kern_calloc(n,s)</code>	Change to <code>kmem_zalloc(n*s,KM_SLEEP)</code>
<code>kern_free(p)</code>	Change to <code>kmem_free(p)</code>

Allocating Memory in Specific Nodes of a Origin2000 System

In the nonuniform memory of a Origin2000 system, there is a time penalty for access to memory that is physically located in a node different from the node where the code is executing. However, `kmem_alloc()` attempts to allocate memory in the same node where the caller is executing. The `pfxedtinit()` and `pfxattach()` entry points execute in the node that is closest to the hardware device. If you allocate per-device structures in these entry points using `kmem_alloc()`, the structures will normally be in memory on the same node as the device. This provides the best performance for the interrupt handler, which also executes in the closest node to the device.

Other upper-half entry points execute in the node used by the process that called the entry point. If you allocate memory in the `open()` entry point, for example, that memory will be close to the user process.

When it is essential to allocate memory in a specific node and to fail if memory in that node is not available, you can use one of the functions summarized in Table 8-5.

Table 8-5 Functions for Kernel Memory In Specific Nodes

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>kmem_alloc_node()</code>	<code>kmem.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	Allocate space from kernel free memory in specific node.
<code>kmem_zalloc_node()</code>	<code>kmem.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	Allocate and clear space from kernel free memory in specific node.

These functions are available in all systems. In systems with a uniform memory, they behave the same as the normal kernel allocation functions.

Allocating Objects of Specific Kinds

The kernel provides a number of functions with the purpose of allocating and freeing objects of specific kinds. Many of these are variants of `kmem_alloc()` and `kmem_free()`, but others use special techniques suited to the type of object.

Allocating pollhead Objects

Table 8-6 summarizes the functions you use to allocate and free the *pollhead* structure that is used within the `pfxpoll()` entry point (see “Entry Point `poll()`” on page 167). Typically you would call `phalloc()` while initializing each minor device, and call `phfree()` in the `pfxunload()` entry point.

Table 8-6 Functions for Allocating pollhead Structures

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>phalloc(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>kmem.h</code> & <code>poll.h</code>	Allocate and initialize a pollhead structure.
<code>phfree(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>poll.h</code>	Free a pollhead structure.

Allocating Semaphores and Locks

There are symmetrical pairs of functions to allocate and free all types of lock and synchronization objects. These functions are summarized together with the other locking functions under “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233.

Allocating *buf_t* Objects and Buffers

The argument to the *pfstrategy()* entry point is a *buf_t* structure that describes a buffer (see “Entry Point *strategy()*” on page 165 and “Structure *buf_t*” on page 196).

Ordinarily, both the *buf_t* and the buffer are allocated and initialized by the kernel or the filesystem that calls *pfstrategy()*. However, some drivers need to create a *buf_t* and associated buffer for special uses. The functions summarized in Table 8-7 are used for this.

Table 8-7 Functions for Allocating *buf_t* Objects and Buffers

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<i>geteblk(D3)</i>	<i>ddi.h</i>	Allocate a <i>buf_t</i> and a buffer of 1024 bytes.
<i>ngeteblk(D3)</i>	<i>ddi.h</i>	Allocate a <i>buf_t</i> and a buffer of specified size.
<i>brelse(D3)</i>	<i>ddi.h</i>	Return a buffer header and buffer to the system.
<i>getrbuf(D3)</i>	<i>ddi.h</i>	Allocate a <i>buf_t</i> with no buffer.
<i>freerbuf(D3)</i>	<i>ddi.h</i>	Free a <i>buf_t</i> with no buffer.

To allocate a *buf_t* and its associated buffer in kernel virtual memory, use either *geteblk()* or *ngeteblk()*. Free this pair of objects using *brelse()*, or by calling *biodone()*.

You can allocate a *buf_t* to describe an existing buffer—one in user space, statically allocated in the driver, or allocated with *kmem_alloc()*—using *getrbuf()*. Free such a *buf_t* using *freerbuf()*.

Transferring Data

The device driver executes in the kernel virtual address space, but it must transfer data to and from the address space of a user process. The kernel supplies two kinds of functions for this purpose:

- functions that transfer data between driver variables and the address space of the current process
- functions that transfer data between driver variables and the buffer described by a *uio_t* object

Warning: The use of an invalid address in kernel space with any of these functions causes a kernel panic.

All functions that reference an address in user process space can sleep, because the page of process space might not be resident in memory. As a result, such functions cannot be used while holding a basic lock, and should be avoided in an interrupt handler.

General Data Transfer

The kernel supplies functions for clearing and copying memory within the kernel virtual address space, and between the kernel address space and the address space of the user process that is the current context. These general-purpose functions are summarized in Table 8-8.

Table 8-8 Functions for General Data Transfer

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
bcopy(D3)	ddi.h	Copy data between address locations in the kernel.
bzero(D3)	ddi.h	Clear memory for a given number of bytes.
copyin(D3)	ddi.h	Copy data from a user buffer to a driver buffer.
copyout(D3)	ddi.h	Copy data from a driver buffer to a user buffer.
fubyte(D3)	system.h & types.h	Load a byte from user space.

Table 8-8 (continued) Functions for General Data Transfer

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
fuword(D3)	system.h & types.h	Load a word from user space.
hwcpin(D3)	system.h & types.h	Copy data from device registers to kernel memory.
hwcpout(D3)	system.h & types.h	Copy data from kernel memory to device registers.
subyte(D3)	system.h & types.h	Store a byte to user space.
suword(D3)	system.h & types.h	Store a word to user space.

Block Copy Functions

The **bcopy()** and **bzero()** functions are used to copy and clear data areas within the kernel address space, for example driver buffers or work areas. These are optimized routines that take advantage of available hardware features.

The **bcopy()** function is not appropriate for copying data between a buffer and a device; that is, for copying between virtual memory and the physical memory addresses that represent a range of device registers (or indeed any uncached memory). The reason is that **bcopy()** uses doubleword moves and any other special hardware features available, and devices may not be able to accept data in these units. The **hwcpin()** and **hwcpout()** functions copy data in 16-bit units; use them to transfer bulk data between device space and memory. (Use simple assignment to move single words or bytes.)

The **copyin()** and **copyout()** functions take a kernel virtual address, a process virtual address, and a length. They copy the specified number of bytes between the kernel space and the user space. They select the best algorithm for copying, and take advantage of memory alignment and other hardware features.

If there is no current context, or if the address in user space is invalid, or if the address plus length is not contained in the user space, the functions return -1. This indicates an error in the request passed to the driver entry point, and the driver normally returns an EFAULT error.

Byte and Word Functions

The functions **fubyte()**, **subyte()**, **fuword()**, and **suword()** are used to move single items to or from user space. When only a single byte or word is needed, these functions have less overhead than the corresponding **copyin()** or **copyout()** call. For example you could use **fuword()** to pick up a parameter using an address passed to the **pfxiocctl()** entry point. When transferring more than a few bytes, a block move is more efficient.

Transferring Data Through a `uio_t` Object

A `uio_t` object defines a list of one or more segments in the address space of the kernel or a user process (see “Structure `uio_t`” on page 195). The kernel supplies three functions for transferring data based on a `uio_t`, and these are summarized in Table 8-9.

Table 8-9 Functions Moving Data Using `uio_t`

Function	Header Files	Purpose
<code>uimove(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Copy data using <code>uio_t</code> .
<code>ureadc(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Copy a character to space described by <code>uio_t</code> .
<code>uwritec(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Return a character from space described by <code>uio_t</code> .

The **uimove()** function moves multiple bytes between a buffer in kernel virtual space—typically, a buffer owned by the driver—and the space or spaces described by a `uio_t`. The function takes a byte count and a direction flag as arguments, and uses the most efficient mechanism for copying.

The **ureadc()** and **uwritec()** functions transfer only a single byte. You would use them when transferring data a byte at a time by PIO. When moving more than a few bytes, **uimove()** is faster.

All of these functions modify the `uio_t` to reflect the transfer of data:

- `uio_resid` is decremented by the amount moved
- In the `iovec_t` for the current segment, `iov_base` is incremented and `iov_len` is decremented
- As segments are used up, `uio_iov` is incremented and `uio_iovcnt` is decremented

The result is that the state of the *uio_t* always reflects the number of bytes remaining to transfer. When the *pxread()* or *pxwrite()* entry point returns, the kernel uses the final value of *ui_resid* to compute the count returned to the *read()* or *write()* function call.

Managing Virtual and Physical Addresses

The kernel supplies functions for querying the address of hardware registers and for performing memory mapping. The most helpful of these functions involve the use of address/length lists.

Managing Mapped Memory

The *pxmap()* and *pxunmap()* entry points receive a *vhandl_t* object that describes the region of user process space to be mapped. The functions summarized in Table 8-10 are used to manipulate that object.

Table 8-10 Functions to Manipulate a *vhandl_t* Object

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<i>v_getaddr(D3)</i>	<i>ddmap.h</i> & <i>types.h</i>	Get the user virtual address associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .
<i>v_gethandle(D3)</i>	<i>ddmap.h</i> & <i>types.h</i>	Get a unique identifier associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .
<i>v_getlen(D3)</i>	<i>ddmap.h</i> & <i>types.h</i>	Get the length of user address space associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .
<i>v_mapphys(D3)</i>	<i>ddmap.h</i> & <i>types.h</i>	Map kernel address space into user address space.

The *v_mapphys()* function actually performs a mapping between a kernel address and a segment described by a *vhandl_t* (see “Entry Point *map()*” on page 170).

The *v_getaddr()* function has hardly any use except for logging and debugging. The address in user space is normally undefined and unusable when the *pxmap()* entry point is called, and mapped to kernel space when *pxunmap()* is called. The driver has no practical use for this value.

The `v_getlen()` function is useful only in the `pfxunmap()` entry point—the `pfxmap()` entry point receives a length argument specifying the desired region size.

The `v_gethandle()` function returns a number that is unique to this mapping (actually, the address of a page table entry). You use this as a key to identify multiple mappings, so that the `pfxunmap()` entry point can properly clean up.

Caution: Be careful when mapping device registers to a user process. Memory protection is available only on page boundaries, so configure the addresses of I/O cards so that each device is on a separate page or pages. When multiple devices are on the same page, a user process that maps one device can access all on that page. This can cause system security problems or other problems that are hard to diagnose.

Note: In previous releases of IRIX, the header file `sys/region.h` contained these functions. As of IRIX 6.5, the header file `sys/region.h` is removed and these same functions are declared in `ksys/ddmap.h`.

Working With Page and Sector Units

In a 32-bit kernel, the page size for memory and I/O is 4 KB. In a 64-bit kernel, the memory page size is typically 16 KB, but can vary. Also, the size of “page” used for I/O operations can be different from the size of page used for virtual memory. Because of hardware constraints in Challenge and Onyx systems, a 4 KB page is used for I/O operations in these machines.

The header files `sys/immu.h` and `sys/sysmacros.h` contain constants and macros for working with page units. Some of the most useful are listed in Table 8-11.

Table 8-11 Constants and Macros for Page and Sector values

Function Name	Header File	Purpose
BBSIZE	<code>param.h</code>	Size of a “basic block,” the assumed disk sector size (512).
BTOBB(<i>bytes</i>)	<code>param.h</code>	Converts byte count to basic block count, rounding up.
BTOBBT(<i>bytes</i>)	<code>param.h</code>	Converts byte count to basic block count, truncating.
OFFTOBB(<i>bytes</i>)	<code>param.h</code>	Converts <code>off_t</code> count to basic blocks, rounding.
OFFTOBBT(<i>bytes</i>)	<code>param.h</code>	Converts <code>off_t</code> count to basic blocks, truncating.

Table 8-11 (continued) Constants and Macros for Page and Sector values

Function Name	Header File	Purpose
BBTOOFF(<i>bbs</i>)	<i>param.h</i>	Converts count of basic blocks to an <i>off_t</i> byte count.
NBPP	<i>immu.h</i>	Number of bytes in a virtual memory page (defined from <i>_PAGESZ</i> ; see “Compiler Variables” on page 257).
IO_NBPP	<i>immu.h</i>	Number of bytes in an I/O page, can differ from NBPP.
io_numpages(<i>addr, len</i>)	<i>sysmacros.h</i>	Number of I/O pages that span a given address for a length.
io_ctob(<i>x</i>)	<i>sysmacros.h</i>	Return number of bytes in <i>x</i> I/O pages (rounded up).
io_ctobt(<i>x</i>)	<i>sysmacros.h</i>	Return number of bytes in <i>x</i> I/O pages (truncated).

The names listed in Table 8-11 are defined at compile-time. If you use them, the binary object file is dependent on the compile-time variables for the chosen platform, and may not run on a different platform.

The operations summarized in Table 8-12 are provided as functions. Use of them does not commit your driver to a particular platform.

Table 8-12 Functions to Convert Bytes to Sectors or Pages

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
btop(D3)	<i>ddi.h</i>	Return number of virtual pages in a byte count (truncate).
btopr(D3)	<i>ddi.h</i>	Return number of virtual pages in a byte count (round up).
ptob(D3)	<i>ddi.h</i>	Convert size in virtual pages to size in bytes.

When examining an existing driver, be alert for any assumption that a virtual memory page has a particular size, or that an I/O page is the same size as a memory page.

Using Address/Length Lists

The concepts behind alenlists are described under “Address/Length Lists” on page 193 and in more detail in the reference page `alenlist(d4x)`.

You can use alenlists to unify the handling of buffer addresses of all kinds. In general you use an alenlist as follows:

- Create the alenlist object, either with an explicit function call or implicitly as part of filling the list.
- Fill the list with addresses and lengths to describe a buffer in some address space.
- Apply a translation function to translate all the addresses into the address space of an I/O bus.
- Use an alenlist cursor to read out the translated address/length pairs, and program them into a device so it can do DMA.

Creating Alenlists

The functions summarized in Table 8-13 are used to explicitly create and manage alenlists. For details see reference page `alenlist_ops(d3x)`.

Table 8-13 Functions to Explicitly Manage Alenlists

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>alenlist_create()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Create an empty alenlist.
<code>alenlist_destroy()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Release memory of an alenlist.
<code>alenlist_clear()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Empty an alenlist.

Typically you create an alenlist implicitly, as a side-effect of loading it (see next topic). However you can use **`alenlist_create()`** to create an alenlist. Then you can be sure that there will never be an unplanned delay for memory allocation while using the list.

Whenever the driver is finished with an alenlist, release it using **`alenlist_destroy()`**.

Loading Alenlists

The functions summarized in Table 8-14 are used to populate an alenlist with one or more address/length pairs to describe memory.

Table 8-14 Functions to Populate Alenlists

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>buf_to_alenlist()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Fill an alenlist with entries that describe the buffer controlled by a <code>buf_t</code> object.
<code>kvaddr_to_alenlist()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Fill an alenlist with entries that describe a buffer in kernel virtual address space.
<code>uvaddr_to_alenlist()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Fill an alenlists with entries that describe a buffer in a user virtual address space.
<code>alenlist_append()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Add a specified address and length as an item to an existing alenlist.

Each of the functions `buf_to_alenlist()`, `kvaddr_to_alenlist()`, and `uvaddr_to_alenlist()` take an alenlist address as their first argument. If this address is NULL, they create a new list and use it. If the input list is too small, any of the functions in Table 8-14 can allocate a new list with more entries. Either of these allocations may sleep. In order to avoid an unplanned delay, you can create an alenlist in advance, fill it to a planned size with null items, and clear it.

The functions `buf_to_alenlist()`, `kvaddr_to_alenlist()`, and `uvaddr_to_alenlist()` add entries to an alenlist to describe the physical address of a buffer. Before using `uvaddr_to_alenlist()` you must be sure that the pages of the user buffer are locked into memory (see “Converting Virtual Addresses to Physical” on page 217).

Translating Alenlists

The kernel support for the PCI bus includes functions that translate an entire alenlist from physical memory addresses to corresponding addresses in the address space of the target bus. For PCI functions see “Mapping an Address/Length List” on page 739.

Using Alenlist Cursors

You use a cursor to read out the address/length pairs from an alenlist. The cursor management functions are summarized in Table 8-15 and detailed in reference page `alenlist_ops(d3x)`.

Table 8-15 Functions to Manage Alenlist Cursors

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>alenlist_cursor_create()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Create an alenlist cursor and associate it with a specified list.
<code>alenlist_cursor_init()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Set a cursor to point at a specified list item.
<code>alenlist_cursor_destroy()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Release memory of a cursor.

Each alenlist includes a built-in cursor. If you know that only one process or thread is using the alenlist, you can use this built-in cursor. When more than one process or thread might use the alenlist, each must create an explicit cursor. A cursor is associated with one alenlist and must always be used with that alenlist.

The functions that retrieve data based on a cursor are summarized in Table 8-16.

Table 8-16 Functions to Use an Alenlist Based on a Cursor

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>alenlist_get()</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Retrieve the next sequential address and length from a list.
<code>alenlist_cursor_offset(D3)</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Query the effective byte offset of a cursor in the buffer described by its list.

The `alenlist_get()` function is the key function for extracting data from an alenlist. Each call returns one address and its associated length. However, these address/length pairs are not required to match exactly to the items in the list. You can extract address/length pairs in smaller units. For example, suppose the list contains address/length pairs that describe 4 KB pages. You can read out sequential address/length pairs with maximum lengths of 512 bytes, or any other smaller length. The cursor remembers the position in the list to the byte level.

You pass to **alenlist_get()** a maximum length to return. When that is 0 or large, the function returns exactly the address/length pairs in the list. When the maximum length is smaller than the current address/length pair, the function returns the address and length of the next sequential segment not exceeding the maximum. In addition, when the maximum length is an integral power of two, the function restricts the returned length so that the returned segment does not cross an address boundary of the maximum length.

These features allow you to read out units of 512 bytes (for example), never crossing a 512-byte boundary, from a list that contains address/length pairs in other lengths. The **alenlist_cursor_offset()** function returns the byte-level offset between the first address in the list and the next address the cursor will return.

Setting Up a DMA Transfer

A DMA transfer is performed by a programmable I/O device, usually called *bus master* (see “Direct Memory Access” on page 10). The driver programs the device with the length of data to transfer, and with a starting address. Some devices can be programmed with a list of addresses and lengths; these devices are said to have *scatter/gather* capability.

There are two issues in preparing a DMA transfer:

- Calculating the addresses to be programmed into the device registers. These addresses are the *bus* addresses that will properly target the *memory* buffers.
- In a uniprocessor, ensuring cache coherency. A multiprocessor handles cache coherency automatically.

The most effective tool for creation of target addresses is the address/length list (see “Using Address/Length Lists,” the preceding topic):

1. You collect the addresses and lengths of the parts of the target buffer in an alenlist.
2. You apply a single translation function to replace that alenlist with one whose contents are based on bus virtual addresses.
3. You use an alenlist cursor to read out addresses and lengths in unit sizes appropriate to the device, and program these into the device using PIO.

The functions you use to translate the addresses in an alenlist are different for different bus adapters, and are discussed in the following chapters:

- The functions to set up DMA from a VME device are covered in Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2.”
- The functions to set up DMA from a SCSI device are covered in Chapter 16, “SCSI Device Drivers.”
- The functions to set up DMA from a PCI device are covered in Chapter 20, “PCI Device Attachment.”

DMA Buffer Alignment

In some systems, the buffers used for DMA must be aligned on a boundary the size of a *cache line* in the current CPU. Although not all system architectures require cache alignment, it does no harm to use cache-aligned buffers in all cases. The size of a cache line varies among CPU models, but if you obtain a DMA buffer using the `KMEM_CACHEALIGN` flag of `kmem_alloc()`, the buffer is properly aligned. The buffer returned by `getblk()` (see “Allocating `buf_t` Objects and Buffers” on page 206) is cache-aligned.

Why is cache alignment necessary? Suppose you have a variable, *X*, adjacent to a buffer you are going to use for DMA write. If you invalidate the buffer prior to the DMA write, but then reference the variable *X*, the resulting cache miss brings part of the buffer back into the cache. When the DMA write completes, the cache is stale with respect to memory. If, however, you invalidate the cache after the DMA write completes, you destroy the value of the variable *X*.

Maximum DMA Transfer Size

The maximum size for a single DMA transfer is set by the system tuning variable `maxdmasz`, settable with the `sysctl` command (see the `sysctl(1)` reference page). A single I/O operation larger than this produces the error `ENOMEM`.

The unit of measure for `maxdmasz` is the page, which varies with the kernel. Under IRIX 6.2, a 32-bit kernel uses 4 KB pages while a 64-bit kernel uses 16 KB pages. In both systems, `maxdmasz` is shipped with the value 1024 decimal, equivalent to 4 MB in a 32-bit kernel and 16 MB in a 64-bit kernel.

Converting Virtual Addresses to Physical

There are no legitimate reasons for a device driver to convert a kernel virtual memory address to a physical address in IRIX 6.5. This translation is fraught with complexity and

strongly dependent on the hardware of the system. For these and other reasons, the kernel provides a wide variety of address-translation functions that perform the kinds of translations that a driver requires.

In the simpler hardware architectures of past systems, there was a straightforward mapping between the addresses used by software and the addresses used by a bus master for DMA. This is no longer the case. Some of the complexities are sketched under the topic “PIO Addresses and DMA Addresses” on page 11. In the Origin2000 architecture, the address used by a bus master can undergo two or three different translations on its way from the device to memory. There is no way in which a device driver can get the information to prepare the translated address for the device to use.

Instead, the driver uses translations based on opaque software objects such as PIO maps, DMA maps, and alenlists. Translations are bus-specific, and the functions for them are presented in the chapters on those buses.

You can load an alenlist with physical address/length pairs based on a kernel virtual address using `buftoalenlist()` (see “Loading Alenlists” on page 214). Some older drivers might still contain use of the `kvtophys()` function, which takes a kernel virtual address and returns the corresponding system bus physical address. This function is still supported (see the `kvtophys(D3)` reference page). However, you should be aware that the physical address returned is useless for programming an I/O device.

Managing Buffer Virtual Addresses

Block device drivers operate upon data buffers described by `buf_t` objects (see “Structure `buf_t`” on page 196). Kernel functions to manipulate buffer page mappings are summarized in Table 8-17.

Table 8-17 Functions to Map Buffer Pages

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>bp_mapin(D3)</code>	<code>buf.h</code>	Map buffer pages into kernel virtual address space, ensuring the pages are in memory and pinned.
<code>bp_mapout(D3)</code>	<code>buf.h</code>	Release mapping of buffer pages.
<code>clrbuf(D3)</code>	<code>buf.h</code>	Clear the memory described by a mapped-in <code>buf_t</code> .
<code>buf_to_alenlist(D3)</code>	<code>alenlist.h</code>	Fill an alenlist with entries that describe the buffer controlled by a <code>buf_t</code> object.

Table 8-17 (continued) Functions to Map Buffer Pages

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
undma(D3)	ddi.h	Unlock physical memory after I/O complete
userdma(D3)	ddi.h	Lock physical memory in user space.

When a *pfstrategy()* routine receives a *buf_t* that is not mapped into memory (see “Buffer Location and *b_flags*” on page 198), it must make sure that the pages of the buffer space are in memory, and it must obtain valid kernel virtual addresses to describe the pages. The simplest way is to apply the **bp_mapin()** function to the *buf_t*. This function allocates a contiguous range of page table entries in the kernel address space to describe the buffer, creating a mapping of the buffer pages to a contiguous range of kernel virtual addresses. It sets the virtual address of the first data byte in *b_un.b_addr*, and sets the flags so that **BP_ISMAPPED()** returns true—thus converting an unmapped buffer to a mapped case.

Note: The reference page for the **userdma()** function is out of date as shipped in IRIX 6.4. The correct prototype for this function, as coded in *sys/buf.h*, is

```
int userdma(void *usr_v_addr, size_t num_bytes, int rw, void *MBZ);
```

The fourth argument must be a zero. The return value is not the same as stated. The function returns 0 for success and a standard error code for failure.

Managing Memory for Cache Coherency

Some kernel functions used for ensuring cache coherency are summarized in Table 8-18.

Table 8-18 Functions Related to Cache Coherency

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
dki_dcache_inval(D3)	system.h & types.h	Invalidate the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.
dki_dcache_wb(D3)	system.h & types.h	Write back the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.
dki_dcache_wbinval(D3)	system.h & types.h	Write back and invalidate the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.
flushbus(D3)	system.h & types.h	Make sure contents of the write buffer are flushed to the system bus

The functions for cache invalidation are essential when doing DMA on a uniprocessor. They cost very little to use in a multiprocessor, so it does no harm to call them in every system. You call them as follows:

- Call **dki_dcache_inval()** prior to doing DMA input. This ensures that when you refer to the received data, it will be loaded from real memory.
- Call **dki_dcache_wb()** prior to doing DMA output. This ensures that the latest contents of cache memory are in system memory for the device to load.
- Call **dki_dcache_wbinval()** prior to a device operation that samples memory and then stores new data.

In the IP28 CPU you must invalidate the cache both before and after a DMA input; see “Uncached Memory Access in the IP26 and IP28” on page 33.

The **flushbus()** function is needed because in some systems the hardware collects output data and writes it to the bus in blocks. When you write a small amount of data to a device through PIO, delay, then write again, the writes could be batched and sent to the device in quick succession. Use **flushbus()** after PIO output when it is followed by PIO input from the same device. Use it also between any two PIO outputs when the device is supposed to see a delay between outputs.

Testing Device Physical Addresses

A family of functions, summarized in Table 8-19, is used to test a physical address to find out if it represents a usable device register.

Table 8-19 Functions to Test Physical Addresses

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
badaddr(D3)	system.h	Test physical address for input.
badaddr_val(D3)	system.h	Test physical address for input and return the input value received.
wbadaddr(D3)	system.h	Test physical address for output.
wbadaddr_val(D3)	system.h	Test physical address for output of specific value.

The functions return a nonzero value when the address is bad, that is, unusable.

These functions are normally used in the **pfxedtinit()** entry point to verify the bus address values passed in from a VECTOR statement. They are only usable with VME devices.

Hardware Graph Management

A driver is concerned about the hardware graph in two different contexts:

- When called at an operational entry point such as *pfxopen()*, *pfxwrite()*, or *pfxmap()*, the driver gets information about the device from the hwgraph.
- When called to initialize a device at *pfxedtinit()* or *pfxattach()*, the driver extends the hwgraph with vertexes to represent the device, and stores device and inventory information in the hwgraph.

The concepts and terms of the hwgraph are covered under “Hardware Graph Features” on page 43. You should also read the *hwgraph(4)* and *hwgraph_intro(d4x)* reference pages.

Interrogating the hwgraph

When a driver is called at an operational entry point, the first argument is always a *dev_t*. This value stands for the specific device on which the driver should work. In older versions of IRIX, the *dev_t* was an integer encoding the major and minor device numbers. In current IRIX, the device is opened through a path in */hw* (or a symbolic link to */hw*), and the *dev_t* is a handle to a vertex of the hwgraph—usually a vertex created by the device driver. The *dev_t* is used as input to the functions summarized in Table 8-20.

Table 8-20 Functions to Query the Hardware Graph

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<i>device_info_get()</i> (<i>hwgraph.dev(d3x)</i>)	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Return device info pointer stored in vertex.
<i>device_inventory_get_next()</i> (<i>hwgraph.inv(d3x)</i>)	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Retrieve <i>inventory_t</i> structures that have been attached to a vertex.
<i>device_controller_num_get()</i> (<i>hwgraph.inv(d3x)</i>)	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Retrieve the Controller field of the first or only <i>inventory_t</i> structure in a vertex.
<i>hwgraph_edge_get()</i> (<i>hwgraph.edge(d3x)</i>)	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Follow an edge by name to a destination vertex.
<i>hwgraph_traverse()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Follow a path from a starting vertex to its destination.

When initializing the device, the driver stores the address of a device information structure in the vertex using **device_info_set()** (see “Allocating Storage for Device Information” on page 155). This address can be retrieved using **device_info_get()**. Typical code at the beginning of any entry point resembles Example 8-1.

Example 8-1 Typical Code to Get Device Info

```
typedef struct devInfo_s {
... fields of data unique to one device ...
} devInfo_t;
pfx_entry(dev_t dev,...)
    devInfo_t *pdi = device_info_get(dev);
    if (!pdi) return ENODEV;
    MUTEX_LOCK(pdi->devLock); /* get exclusive use */
...

```

When the driver creates the vertexes for a device, the driver can attach inventory information. This can be read out later using **device_inventory_get_next()**.

Extending the hwgraph

When a driver is called at the **pfxattach()** entry point, it receives a vertex handle for the point at which its device is connected to the system—for example, a vertex that represents a bus slot. When a driver is called at the **pfxedtinit()** entry point, it receives an **edt_t** from which it can extract a vertex handle that again represents the point at which this device is attached to the system (refer to “VME Device Naming” on page 344, “Entry Point attach()” on page 153 and “Entry Point edtinit()” on page 151.)

At these times, the driver has the responsibility of extending the hwgraph with at least one edge and vertex to provide access to this device. The label of the edge supplies a visible name that a user process can open. The vertex contains the inventory data and the driver’s own device information. Often the driver needs to add multiple vertexes and edges. (For an example of how a Silicon Graphics driver extends the hwgraph, see “SCSI Devices in the hwgraph” on page 510.)

Construction Functions

The basic functions for constructing edges and vertexes are summarized in Table 8-21. The most commonly-used are **hwgraph_char_device_add()** and **hwgraph_block_device_add()**, functions that create leaf vertexes that users can open.

Table 8-21 Functions to Construct Edges and Vertexes

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
device_info_set() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Store the address of device information in a vertex.
device_inventory_add() (hwgraph.inv(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Add hardware inventory data to a vertex.
hwgraph_char_device_add() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Create a character device special file under a specified vertex.
hwgraph_block_device_add() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Create block device special file under a specified vertex.
hwgraph_vertex_create() (hwgraph.vertex(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Create a new, empty vertex, and return its handle.
hwgraph_edge_add() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Add a labelled edge between two vertexes.
hwgraph_edge_remove() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	hwgraph.h	Remove an edge by name from a vertex.

Extending the Graph With a Single Vertex

Suppose the kernel is probing a PCI bus and finds a *veeble* device plugged into slot 2. The kernel knows that a driver with the prefix **veeble_** has registered to handle this type of device. The kernel calls **veeble_attach()**, passing the handle of the vertex that represents the point of attachment, which might be */hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/2*.

Suppose that a *veeble* device permits only character-mode access and there are no optional modes of use. In this simple case, the driver needs to add only one vertex, a device special file connected by one edge having a label such as “veeble.” The result will be that the device can be opened under the pathname */hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/2/veeble*. Parts of the code in **veeble_attach()** would resemble Example 8-2.

Example 8-2 Hypothetical Code for a Single Vertex

```
int veeble_attach(vertex_hdl_t vh)
{
    VeebleDevInfoStruct_t * vdis;
    vertex_hdl_t vv;
    graph_error_t ret;
    /* allocate memory for per-device structure */
    vdis = kmem_zalloc(sizeof(*vdis), KM_SLEEP);
    if (!vdis) return ENOMEM;
    /* create device vertex below connect-point */
    ret = hwgraph_char_device_add(vh, "veeble", "veeble_", &vv);
    if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS)
        { kmem_free(vdis); return ret; }
    /* here initialize contents of vdis->information struct */
    /* here initialize the device itself */
    /* set info struct in the device vertex */
    device_info_set(vv, vdis);
    return 0;
}
```

In Example 8-2, the important variables are:

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| <i>vh</i> | Handle of the connection-point vertex passed to the function as a parameter. |
| <i>vdis</i> | Pointer to a structure of type “VeebleDevInfoStruct”—defined by the writer of this device driver to suit the application. |
| <i>vv</i> | Handle of the device vertex created by the function. |

The steps performed are:

- Allocate memory for a device information structure, and terminate with the standard ENOMEM return code if allocation is not possible.
- Create a character device vertex, connected to vertex *vh* by an edge labelled “veeble,” storing the handle of the new vertex in *vv*. If this fails, free the info structure memory and return the same error.
- Initialize the contents of the information structure: for example, initialize locks and flag values, and create PIO and/or DMA maps.
- Initialize the device itself. Possibly set up an interrupt handler and an error handler (these operations are specific to the bus and the device).
- Set the address of the initialized device information structure into the device vertex.

An additional step not shown is the storing of hardware inventory information that can be reported by *hinov* using **device_inventory_add()**.

A point to note is that in a multiprocessor system, a user process could try to open the new “veeble” vertex as soon as (or even before) **hwgraph_char_device_add()** returns. This would result in an entry to the **veeble_open()** entry point of the driver, concurrent with the continued execution of the **veeble_attach()** entry point. However, note the two statements in Example 8-1:

```
devInfo_t *pdi = device_info_get(dev);  
if (!pdi) return ENODEV;
```

At any time before **veeble_attach()** executes its call to **device_info_set()**, a call to **veeble_open()** for this vertex returns ENODEV. Needless to say, all the hwgraph functions are multiprocessor-aware and use locking as necessary to avoid race conditions.

Extending the Graph With Multiple Vertexes

In a more complicated case, a *vooble* device permits access as a block device or as a character device. The device should be accessible under names *vooble/char* and *vooble/block*. In this case the driver proceeds as follows:

1. Create a vertex to be the primary representation of the device using **hwgraph_vertex_create()**.
2. Connect this primary vertex to the point of attachment with an edge named “vooble” using **hwgraph_edge_add()**.
3. Add new vertexes, connected by edges “block” and “char” to the primary vertex using **hwgraph_block_device_add()** and **hwgraph_char_device_add()**.

The subordinate block and character vertexes are device special files that can be opened by user code. Handles to these vertexes will be passed in to other driver entry points. There are a variety of ways to store device information in the three vertexes:

- Store a pointer to a single information structure in both leaf vertexes.
- Create separate “block” and “char” information structures and store one in each leaf vertex. Perhaps create a separate structure of information that is common to both block and character access, and point to it from both block and char structures.

As you plan this arrangement of data structures, bear in mind that the *pfxopen()* entry point receives a flag telling it whether the open is for block or character access (see “Entry Point *open()*” on page 157); and that other entry points are called only for block, or only for character, devices.

Vertexes for Modes of Use

Possibly the device has multiple modes of use, as for example a tape device has byte-swapped and non-swapped access, fixed-block and variable-block access, and so on. Traditionally these modes of access were encoded in the device minor number as well as in the device name (see “Creating Conventional Device Names” on page 40). Current practice is to create a separate vertex for each mode of use (see “Multiple Device Names” on page 37).

When using the hwgraph, you represent each mode of access as a separate name in the */hw* filesystem. Suppose that a PCI device of type *flipper* supports two modes of use, “flipped” and “flopped.” It is the job of the ***flipper_attach()*** entry point to set up hwgraph vertexes so that one device can be opened under different pathnames such as */hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/2/flipper/flipped* and */hw/module/1/io/pci/slot/2/flipper/flopped*. The problem is very similar to creating separate block and character vertexes for one device, with the additional problem that the device information stored in each vertex should reflect the desired mode of use, flipped or flopped. The code might resemble in part that shown in Example 8-3.

Example 8-3 Hypothetical Code for Multiple Vertexes

```

typedef struct flipperDope_s {
    vertex_hdl_t floppedMode; /* vertex for flopped */
    ...many other fields for management of one flipper dev...
} flipperDope_t;
int flipper_attach(vertex_hdl_t connv)
{
    flipperDope_t *pfd = NULL;
    vertex_hdl_t masterv = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
    vertex_hdl_t flippedv = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
    vertex_hdl_t floppedv = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
    graph_error_t ret = 0;
    if (!pfd = kmem_zalloc(sizeof(*pfd), KM_SLEEP))
        { ret = ENOMEM; goto done; }
    ret = hwgraph_vertex_create(&masterv);
    if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS) goto done;
    ret = hwgraph_edge_add(connv, masterv, "flipper");
    if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS) goto done;
    ret = hwgraph_char_device_add(masterv, "flipped", "flipper_", &flippedv);
    if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS) goto done;
    ret = hwgraph_char_device_add(masterv, "flopped", "flipper_", &floppedv);
    if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS) goto done;
    pfd->floppedMode = floppedv; /* note which vertex is "flopped" */
    ...here initialize other fields of pfd->flipperDope...
    device_info_set(flippedv, pfd);
    device_info_set(floppedv, pfd);
done: /* If any error, undo all partial work */
    if (ret)
        {
            if (floppedv != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) hwgraph_vertex_destroy(floppedv);
            if (flippedv != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) hwgraph_vertex_destroy(flippedv);
            if (masterv != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE)
                {
                    hwgraph_edge_remove(rootv, "flipper", NULL);
                    hwgraph_vertex_destroy(masterv);
                }
            if (pfd) kmem_free(pfd);
        }
    return ret;
}

```

After successful completion of **flipper_attach()** there are two character special devices with paths */hw/.../flipper/flipped* and */hw/.../flipper/flopped*. A pointer to a single device information structure (a *flipperDope_t* object) is stored in both vertexes. However, the vertex handle of the *flopped* vertex is saved in the *floppedMode* field of the structure. Whenever the device driver is entered, it can retrieve the device information with a statement such as the following:

```
flipperDope_t *pfd = device_info_get(dev);
```

Whenever the driver needs to distinguish between “flipped” and “flopped” modes of access, it can do so with code such as the following:

```
if (dev == pfd->floppedMode)
{ ...this is flopped-mode...}
else
{ ...this is flipped-mode...}
```

Vertexes for User Convenience

The driver is allowed to create vertexes and attach them anywhere in the hwgraph. The connection point of a device is often at the end of a long path that is hard for a human to read or type. The driver can use **hwgraph_vertex_create()** and **hwgraph_edge_add()** to create a shorter, more readable path to any of the leaf vertexes it creates. For example, the hypothetical *veeble_* driver of Example 8-2 might like to make the devices it attaches available via paths like */hw/veebles/1* and */hw/veebles/2*.

At the time a driver is called to attach a device, the driver has no way to tell how many of these devices exist in the system. Also, recall that the *pxattach()* entry point can be called concurrently on multiple CPUs to attach devices in different slots on different buses. The attach code has no basis on which to assign ordinal numbers to devices; that is, no way to know that a particular device is device 1, and another is device 2. These questions cannot be answered until the entire hardware complement has been found and attached.

The purpose of the *iconfig* command is to call drivers one more time, before user processes start but after the hwgraph is complete, so they can create convenience vertexes. This use of *iconfig* is described under “Device Management File” on page 54. You direct *iconfig* to assign controller numbers to your devices. After it does so, it opens each device (resulting in the first entry to **pxopen()** for that device vertex), and optionally issues an ioctl against the open device passing a command number you specify. Upon either the first open of a device or in **pxioctl()**, you can create convenience vertexes that include the assigned controller number of the device to make the names unique.

The assigned controller numbers are stable from one boot time to the next, so you can also create symbolic links in */dev* naming them.

Attaching Information to Vertices

The driver can attach several kinds of information to any vertex it creates:

- Device information defined by the driver itself.
- Hardware inventory information to be used by *hinvt*.
- Labelled attribute values.

The driver can also retrieve information that was set in the hwgraph by the administrator.

Attaching Device Information

The use of **device_info_set()** is discussed under two other topics: “Allocating Storage for Device Information” on page 155 and “Extending the Graph With a Single Vertex” on page 223. Every device needs such an information structure—if for no other reason than to contain a lock used to ensure that each upper-half entry point has exclusive use of the device.

When the driver creates multiple vertices for a particular device, the driver can store the same address in every vertex (as shown in Example 8-2 [on page 224](#) and Example 8-3 [on page 227](#)). Yet another design option is to have each vertex contain the address of a small structure containing optional information unique to that view of the device, and a pointer to a single common structure for the device.

Attaching Inventory Information

The **device_inventory_add()** function stores the fields of one *inventory_t* record in a vertex. The driver can store multiple *inventory_t* records in a single vertex, but it is customary to store only one. There is no facility to delete an inventory record from a vertex.

The **device_inventory_get_next()** function is used to read out each of the *inventory_t* structures in turn. Normally the driver does not have any reason to inspect these. However, the function does not return a copy of the structure; it returns the address of the actual structure in the vertex. The fields of the structure can be modified by the driver.

One field of the *inventory_t* is particularly important: the controller number is conventionally used to provide ordinal numbering of similar devices. The **device_controller_number_get()** function returns the controller number from the first (and usually the only) *inventory_t* structure in a vertex. It fails if there is no inventory data in the vertex.

When the driver can assign an ordinal numbering to multiple devices, it should record that numbering by setting unique controller numbers in each master vertex for the similar devices. This can be done most easily by calling **device_controller_number_set()**. Typically this would be done in an *ioctl* call from the application that has determined a stable, global numbering of devices (see “Device Management File” on page 54).

Attaching Attributes

A file attribute is an arbitrary block of information associated with a file inode. Attributes were introduced with the XFS filesystem (see the *attr(1)* and *attr_get(2)* reference pages), but the */hw* filesystem also supports them. You can store file attributes in *hwgraph* vertexes, and they can be retrieved by user processes.

The functions that a driver uses to manage attributes are summarized in Table 8-22 (all are detailed in the reference page *hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x)*).

Table 8-22 Functions to Manage Attributes

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<i>hwgraph_info_add_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Attach a labelled attribute to a vertex.
<i>hwgraph_info_get_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Retrieve an attribute by name.
<i>hwgraph_info_replace_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Replace the value of an attribute by name.
<i>hwgraph_info_remove_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Remove an attribute from a vertex.
<i>hwgraph_info_export_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Make an attribute visible to user code.
<i>hwgraph_info_unexport_LBL()</i>	<i>hwgraph.h</i>	Make an attribute invisible.

An attribute consists of a name (a character string), a pointer-sized integer, and a length. When the length is zero, the attribute is “unexported,” that is, not visible to the *attr* command nor to the **attr_get()** function. All attributes are initially unexported. An unexported attribute can be retrieved by a driver, but not by a user process.

The value of an attribute is just a pointer; it can be an integer, a vertex handle, or an address of any kind of information. You can use attributes to hold any kind of information you want to associate with a vertex. (For one example, you could use an attribute to contain mode-bits that determine how a device should be treated.)

Attribute storage is not sophisticated. Attribute names are stored sequentially in a string table that is part of the vertex, and looked up in a sequential search. The attribute scheme is meant for convenient storage of a few attributes per vertex, each having a short name.

When you export an attribute, you assert that the value of the attribute is a valid address in kernel virtual memory, and the export length is its correct length. The **attr_get()** function relies on these points. A user process can retrieve a copy of an attribute by calling **attr_get()**. The attribute value is copied from the kernel address space to the user address space. This is a convenient route by which you can export driver internal data to user processes, without the complexity of memory mapping or ioctl calls.

Retrieving Administrator Attributes

The system administrator can use the `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement to attach a labelled attribute to any device special file in the hwgraph, and can use `DRIVER_ADMIN` to store a labelled attribute for the driver (see “Storing Device and Driver Attributes” on page 56).

These statements are processed at boot time. At this time, the driver might not be loaded, and the device special file might not have been created in the hwgraph. However, the attributes are saved. When a driver creates a hwgraph vertex that is the target of a `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement, the labelled attributes are attached to the vertex automatically.

Your driver can request an administrator attribute for a specific device using **hwgraph_info_get_LBL()** directly, as described above under “Attaching Attributes” on page 230. Or you can call **device_admin_info_get()** (see the reference page `hwgraph.admin(d3x)`). The returned value is the address of a read-only copy of the value string.

Your driver can request an attribute that was addressed to the driver with `DRIVER_ADMIN` using **device_driver_admin_info_get()**. The returned value is the address of a read-only copy of the value string from the `DRIVER_ADMIN` statement.

User Process Administration

The kernel supplies a small group of functions, summarized in Table 8-23, that help a driver upper-half routine learn about the current user process.

Table 8-23 Functions for User Process Management

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>drv_getparm(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Retrieve kernel state information.
<code>drv_priv(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Test for privileged user.
<code>drv_setparm(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Set kernel state information.
<code>proc_ref(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Obtain a reference to a process for signaling.
<code>proc_signal(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>signal.h</code>	Send a signal to a process.
<code>proc_unref(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Release a reference to a process.

Note: When porting an older driver, you may find direct reference to a user structure. That is no longer available. Any reference to a user structure should be eliminated or replaced by one of the functions in Table 8-23.

Use `drv_getparm()` to retrieve certain miscellaneous bits of information including the process ID of the current process. In a character device driver, the current process is the user process that caused entry to the driver, for example by calling the `open()`, `ioctl()`, or `read()` system functions. In a block device driver, the current process has no direct relationship to any particular user; it is usually a daemon process of some kind.

The `drv_setparm()` function is primarily of use to terminal drivers.

The `drv_priv()` function tests a `cred_t` object to see if it represents a privileged user. A `cred_t` object is passed in to several driver entry points, and the address of the current one can be retrieved `drv_getparm()`.

Sending a Process Signal

In traditional UNIX kernels, a device driver identified the current user process by the address of the `proc_t` structure that the kernel uses to represent a process. Direct use of the `proc_t` is no longer supported by IRIX. The reason is that the contents of the `proc_t` change from release to release, and also differ between 64-bit and 32-bit kernels.

The most common use of the *proc_t* by a driver was to send a signal to the process. This capability is still supported. To do it, take three steps:

1. Call **proc_ref()** to get a process handle, a number unique to the current process. The returned value must be treated as an arbitrary number (in some releases of IRIX it was the *proc_t* address, but this is not the defined behavior of the function.)
2. Use the process handle as an argument to **proc_signal()**, sending the signal to the process.
3. Release the process handle by calling **proc_unref()**.

The third step is important. In order to keep the process handle valid, IRIX retains information about the process to which it is related. However, that process could terminate (possibly as a result of the signal the driver sends) but until the driver announces that it is done with the handle, the kernel must try to retain process information.

It is especially important to release a process handles before unloading a loadable driver (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180).

Waiting and Mutual Exclusion

The kernel supplies a rich variety of functions for waiting and for mutual exclusion. In order to use these features well, you must understand the different purposes for which they are designed. In particular, you must clearly understand the distinction between *waiting* and *mutual exclusion* (or locking).

Mutual Exclusion Compared to Waiting

Mutual exclusion allows one entity to have exclusive use of a global resource, temporarily denying use of the resource to other entities. Mutual exclusion normally does not require waiting when software is carefully designed—the resource is normally free when it is requested. A driver that calls a mutual exclusion function *expects to proceed* without delay—although there is a chance that the resource is in use, and the driver will have to wait.

The kernel offers an array of functions for mutual exclusion, and the choice among them can be critical to performance. The functions are reviewed in the following topics:

- “Basic Locks” on page 235 covers basic locks, once required by device drivers, and useful in multiprocessors.
- “Long-Term Locks” on page 237 covers sleep locks, which can be held for longer periods.
- “Reader/Writer Locks” on page 240 covers a class of locks that allow multiple, concurrent, read-only access to resources that are infrequently changed.
- “Priority Level Functions” on page 242 discusses the traditional UNIX method of mutual exclusion, now obsolete and dangerous.

Waiting allows a driver to coordinate its actions with a specific event or action that occurs asynchronously. A driver can wait for a specified amount of time to pass, wait for an I/O action to complete, and so on. When a driver calls a waiting function, *it expects to wait* for something to happen—although there is a chance that the expected event has already happened, and the driver will be able to continue at once.

The kernel offers several functions that allow you to wait for specific events; and also offers functions for general synchronization. These are covered in the following topics:

- “Waiting for Time to Pass” on page 242 covers timer-related functions.
- “Waiting for Memory to Become Available” on page 245 covers memory allocation waits.
- “Waiting for Block I/O to Complete” on page 245 covers waits used in the `pxstrategy()` entry point.
- “Waiting for a General Event” on page 247 covers the general-purpose functions that you can adapt to any synchronization problem.

The most general facility, the semaphore, can be used for synchronization and for locking. This topic is covered under “Semaphores” on page 251.

Basic Locks

IRIX supports basic locks using functions compatible with SVR4. These functions are summarized in Table 8-24.

Table 8-24 Functions for Basic Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
LOCK(D3)	ksynch.h & types.h	Acquire a basic lock, waiting if necessary.
LOCK_ALLOC(D3)	ksynch.h, kmem.h & types.h	Allocate and initialize a basic lock.
LOCK_DEALLOC(D3)	ksynch.h & types.h	Deallocate an instance of a basic lock.
LOCK_INIT(D3)	ksynch.h & types.h	Initialize a basic lock that was allocated statically, or reinitialize an allocated lock.
LOCK_DESTROY(D3)	ksynch.h & types.h	Uninitialize a basic lock that was allocated statically.
TRYLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Try to acquire a basic lock, returning a code if the lock is not currently free.
UNLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Release a basic lock.

Basic locks are objects of type *lock_t*. Although functions are provided for allocating and freeing them, a basic lock is a very small object. Locks are typically allocated as fields of structures or as global variables.

Call **LOCK()** to seize a lock and gain possession of the resource for which it stands. Release the lock with **UNLOCK()**. These functions are optimized for mutual exclusion in the available hardware, and may be implemented differently in uniprocessors and multiprocessors. However, the programming and binary interface is the same in all systems.

Basic locks are implemented as spinning locks in multiprocessors. In releases before IRIX 6.4, the basic lock was the only kind of lock that you could use for mutual exclusion between the upper half of a driver and its interrupt handler (because the interrupt handler could not sleep). Now, interrupt handlers run as threads and can sleep, so you have a choice between basic locks and mutex locks for this purpose.

The code in Example 8-4 illustrates the use of LOCK and UNLOCK in implementing a simple last-in-first-out (LIFO) queueing package. In these functions, the time between locking a queue head and releasing it is only a few microseconds.

Example 8-4 LIFO Queue Using Basic Locks

```
typedef struct qitem {
    qitem *next; ...other fields...
} qitem_t;
typedef struct lifo {
    qitem *latest;
    lock_t grab;
} lifo_t;
void putlifo(lifo_t *q, qitem_t *i)
{
    int lockpl = LOCK(&q->grab,plhi);
    i->next = q->latest;
    q->latest = i;
    UNLOCK(&q->grab,lockpl);
}
qitem_t *poplifo(lifo_t *q)
{
    int lockpl = LOCK(&q->grab,plhi);
    qitem_t *ret = q->latest;
    q->latest = ret->next;
    UNLOCK(&q->grab,lockpl);
    return ret;
}
```

This is a typical use of basic locks: to ensure that for a brief period, only one thread in the system can update a queue. Basic locks are optimized for such uses. If they are used in situations where they can be held for significant lengths of time (100 microseconds or longer), system performance can suffer, because one or more CPUs can be “spinning” on the locks and this can delay useful processing.

Long-Term Locks

IRIX provides three types of locks that can suspend the caller when the lock is claimed: mutex locks, sleep locks, and reader-writer locks. Of these, mutex locks are preferred.

Using Mutex Locks

As their name suggests, mutex locks are designed for mutual exclusion. The IRIX implementation of mutex locks is compatible with the *kmutex_t* lock type of SunOS™, but optimized for use in Silicon Graphics hardware systems. The mutex functions are summarized in Table 8-25.

Table 8-25 Functions for Mutex Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
MUTEX_ALLOC(D3)	types.h & kmem.h & ksynch.h	Allocate and initialize a mutex lock.
MUTEX_INIT(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Initialize an existing mutex lock.
MUTEX_DESTROY(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deinitialize a mutex lock.
MUTEX_DEALLOC(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deinitialize and free a dynamically allocated mutex lock.
MUTEX_LOCK(D3)	types.h & kmem.h & ksynch.h	Claim a mutex lock.
MUTEX_TRYLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Conditionally claim a mutex lock.
MUTEX_UNLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Release a mutex lock.
MUTEX_WAITQ(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Get the number of processes blocked by mutex lock.

Table 8-25 (continued) Functions for Mutex Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
MUTEX_ISLOCKED(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Test if a mutex lock is owned.
MUTEX_MINE(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Test if a mutex lock is owned by this process.

Although allocation and deallocation functions are supplied, a *mutex_t* type is a small object that is normally allocated as a static variable or as a field of a structure. The `MUTEX_INIT()` operation prepares a statically-allocated *mutex_t* for use.

Once initialized, a mutex lock is used to gain exclusive use of the resource with which you have associated it. The mutex lock has the following important advantages over a basic lock:

- The mutex lock can safely be held over a call to a function that sleeps.
- The mutex lock supports the inquiry functions `MUTEX_WAITQ`, `MUTEX_ISLOCKED`, and `MUTEX_MINE`.
- When a debugging kernel is used (see “Including Lock Metering in the Kernel Image” on page 272) a mutex lock can be instrumented to keep statistics of its use.

The mutex lock implementation provides *priority inheritance*. When a low-priority process (or kernel thread) owns a mutex lock and a high-priority process or thread attempts to seize the lock and is blocked, the process holding the lock is temporarily given the higher priority of the blocked process. This hastens the time when the lock can be released, so that a low-priority process does not needlessly impede a higher-priority process.

In order to implement priority inheritance and retain high performance, the mutex lock is subject to the restriction that it must be unlocked by the same process or thread that locked it. It cannot be locked in one process or thread identity and unlocked in another.

You can use mutex locks to coordinate the use of global variables between upper-half entry points of a driver, and between the upper-half code and the interrupt handler. You should prefer a mutex lock to a basic lock in any case where the worst-case program path could hold the lock for a time of 100 microseconds or more.

Mutex locks become inefficient when there is high contention for the lock (that is, when the probability of having to wait is high), because when a process has to wait for a lock, a thread switch takes place. When there is high contention for a lock, it is usually better to use a basic lock, because waiting threads simply spin; they do not execute a context switch.

Using Sleep Locks

IRIX supports sleep lock functions that are compatible with SVR4. These functions are summarized in Table 8-26.

Table 8-26 Functions for Sleep Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
SLEEP_ALLOC(D3)	types.h & kmem.h & ksynch.h	Allocate and initialize a sleep lock.
SLEEP_DEALLOC(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deinitialize and deallocate a dynamically allocated sleep lock.
SLEEP_INIT(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Initialize an existing sleep lock.
SLEEP_DESTROY(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deinitialize a sleep lock.
SLEEP_LOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h & param.h	Acquire a sleep lock, waiting if necessary until the lock is free.
SLEEP_LOCKAVAIL(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Query whether a sleep lock is available.
SLEEP_LOCK_SIG(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h & param.h	Acquire a sleep lock, waiting if necessary until the lock is free or a signal is received.
SLEEP_TRYLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Try to acquire a sleep lock, returning a code if it is not free.
SLEEP_UNLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Release a sleep lock.

Although allocation and deallocation functions are supplied, a *sleep_t* type is a small object that is normally allocated as a static variable or as a field of a structure. The SLEEP_INIT() operation prepares a statically-allocated *sleep_t* for use. (In IRIX 6.2, a *sleep_t* is identical to a *sema_t*, but this situation could change in a future release.)

A sleep lock is similar to a mutex lock in that it is used for mutual exclusion between processes, and can be held across a function call that sleeps. A sleep lock does not have either the advantages or the restrictions of a mutex lock:

- A sleep lock can be seized by one process and released by another.
- A sleep lock can be set in an upper-half entry point and released in an interrupt routine.
- A sleep lock does not provide priority inheritance. When a low-priority process holds a sleep lock, a higher-priority process can be blocked, causing a *priority inversion*.
- A sleep lock does not support the instrumentation or the query functions supported for mutex locks.

Reader/Writer Locks

Reader/writer locks are similar to sleep locks in that they are designed for mutually exclusive control of resources for relatively long periods of time. However, Reader/Writer locks are optimized for the case in which the resource is often used by processes that only interrogate it (readers), but only rarely used by processes that modify it (writers).

Reader/writer locks compatible with SVR4 are introduced in IRIX 6.2. The functions are summarized in Table 8-27.

Table 8-27 Functions for Reader/Writer Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
RW_ALLOC(D3)	types.h & kmem.h & ksynch.h	Allocate and initialize a reader/writer lock.
RW_DEALLOC(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deallocate a reader/writer lock.

Table 8-27 (continued) Functions for Reader/Writer Locks

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
RW_INIT(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Initialize an existing reader/writer lock.
RW_DESTROY(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Deinitialize an existing reader/writer lock.
RW_RDLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h & param.h	Acquire a reader/writer lock as reader, waiting if necessary.
RW_TRYRDLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Try to acquire a reader/writer lock as reader, returning a code if it is not free.
RW_TRYWRLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Try to acquire a reader/writer lock as writer, returning a code if it is not free.
RW_UNLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h	Release a reader/writer lock as reader or writer.
RW_WRLOCK(D3)	types.h & ksynch.h & param.h	Acquire a reader/writer lock as writer, waiting if necessary.

Although allocation and deallocation functions are supplied, a *mrlock_t* type is a small object that is normally allocated as a static variable or as a field of a structure. The `RW_INIT()` operation prepares a statically-allocated *mrlock_t* for use.

A process that intends to modify a resource uses `RW_WRLOCK` to claim it. This process waits until the resource is not in use by any process, then it gains exclusive access. Only one process is allowed to hold a reader/writer lock as a writer. All other processes, readers or writers, wait until the writer releases the lock.

A process that intends only to interrogate a resource uses `RW_RDLOCK` to gain access. If a writer holds the lock, the process waits. When the lock is free, or is held only by other readers, the process continues. More than one reader can hold a reader/writer lock at one time. It is also valid for a reader to “double-trip” a reader/writer lock; that is, claim it two or more times. The reader must release the lock as many times as it claimed the lock.

A reader/writer lock serves the same basic purpose as a sleep lock, but it is more efficient in a multiprocessor when there are frequent, read-only uses of a resource.

Priority Level Functions

In traditional UNIX systems, one set of functions served all purposes of synchronization and locking: the set-priority-level, or **spl**, functions. These functions are still available in IRIX, and are summarized in Table 8-28.

Table 8-28 Functions to Set Interrupt Levels

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
splbase(D3)	ddi.h	Block no interrupts.
splhi(D3)	ddi.h	Block all I/O interrupts.
splx(D3)	ddi.h	Restore previous interrupt level.

Calls to these functions are commonly found in device drivers being ported from uniprocessors. Such drivers rely on the use of **splhi(0)** to guarantee exclusive use of global resources.

The **spl** functions listed in Table 8-28 are supported by IRIX, but you are strongly advised not to use them. In a multiprocessor, the functions affect only the interrupt handling of the current CPU. Other CPUs in the system continue to handle interrupts, including interrupts initiated by the driver that called **splhi(0)**.

A driver should use locks, synchronization variables, and other tools to control access to resources. Such a driver never needs an **spl** function. This improves performance in a multiprocessor, does not harm performance in a uniprocessor, and reduces the latency of all interrupts.

Waiting for Time to Pass

The kernel offers functions for timed delays, as summarized in Table 8-29.

Table 8-29 Functions for Timed Delays

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
delay(D3)	ddi.h	Delay for a specified number of clock ticks.
drv_hztousec(D3)	ddi.h	Convert clock ticks to microseconds

Table 8-29 (continued) Functions for Timed Delays

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>drv_usecstohz(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Convert microseconds to clock ticks.
<code>drv_usecwait(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Busy-wait for a specified interval.
<code>dtimeout(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>ksynch.h</code>	Schedule a function execute on a specified processor after a specified length of time.
<code>itimeout(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>ksynch.h</code>	Schedule a function to be executed after a specified number of clock ticks.
<code>fast_itimeout()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>ksynch.h</code>	Same as itimeout() but takes an interval in “fast ticks.”
<code>fasthzto()</code>	<code>types.h</code> & <code>time.h</code>	Returns the value of a <i>struct timeval</i> as a count of “fast ticks.”
<code>timeout(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> & <code>ksynch.h</code>	Schedule a function to be executed after a specified number of clock ticks.
<code>untimeout(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Cancel a previous <code>itimeout</code> or <code>fast_itimeout</code> request.
<code>untimeout_func(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Cancel a previous <code>itimeout</code> or <code>fast_itimeout</code> request by function name.

Time Units

The basic time unit is the “tick.” Its value can differ between hardware platforms and between versions of IRIX. The **drvhztosec()** and **drvsectohz()** functions convert between ticks and microseconds in the current system. Use them in order to schedule a delay in a portable manner. (However, the timer function precision is the tick, not the microsecond.)

The “fast tick” is a fraction of a tick. Like the tick, the fast tick’s value can differ between systems. Use **fasthzto()** to convert from microseconds to fast ticks.

Timer Support

Timer support is based on the idea of a “callback” function. You specify the following to **dtimeout()**, **itimeout()**, **timeout()** or **fast_itimeout()**:

- an interval in clock ticks or fast ticks
- a function to be called at the expiration of the interval
- one or more arguments to be passed to the function
- a priority (interrupt) level at which the function should run

After a delay of at least the length requested, the function is called. The function is entered asynchronously. On a uniprocessor, it can interrupt execution of an upper-half routine. On a multiprocessor, it can execute concurrently with an upper-half routine or with an interrupt handler or a different timeout function. (Use locks or mutexes for mutual exclusion.)

The difference between **itimeout()** and **timeout()** is that the latter takes no argument values to be passed to the function when it is called. In order to get a repeated series of timer events, start a new timeout from the callback function.

The **untimeout()** and **untimeout_func()** functions cancel a pending timeout. In a loadable driver that has an *pfxunload()* entry point, cancel any pending timeouts before unloading.

The **STREAMS_TIMEOUT** macro supplies similar timeout capability for a **STREAMS** driver (see “Special Considerations for Multiprocessing” on page 769).

Short-Term Delay Support

In rare circumstances, a driver needs to pause briefly between two hardware operations. For example, the Silicon Graphics support for external interrupts in the Challenge and Onyx computers sometimes needs to set a high output level, wait for a brief, precise interval, then set a low output level.

The **drv_usecwait()** function supports this type of very short, precisely-timed delay. It “spins” for a specified number of microseconds, then returns to the caller. The CPU does nothing else during this period, so clearly a delay of more than a few microseconds can interfere with other work. Furthermore, if interrupts are disabled during the wait, the response to another interrupt is delayed also—the delay contributes directly to the “latency” of interrupt handling.

Waiting for Memory to Become Available

Whenever you request memory of any kind, you must allow for the possibility that the memory will not be available. When you allocate memory in bulk (see “General-Purpose Allocation” on page 203) using `kmem_alloc()` you have the option of receiving a null response, or of waiting for the memory to be available.

When you request memory for specific object types (see “Allocating Objects of Specific Kinds” on page 205) there is usually no choice; the functions sleep until they can acquire an object of the requested type.

Within a STREAMS driver you have the ability to schedule a callback function to be entered when memory for a message buffer becomes available (see the `bufcall(D3)` reference page).

Waiting for Block I/O to Complete

The `pxstrategy()` routine initiates the I/O operation to fill a buffer based on a `buf_t` structure. Then it has to wait for the I/O to complete. The functions for managing this synchronization are summarized in Table 8-30.

Table 8-30 Functions for Synchronizing Block I/O

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
<code>biodone(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Release buffer after I/O and wake up waiting process.
<code>bioerror(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Manipulate error fields in a <code>buf_t</code> .
<code>biowait(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Suspend process pending completion of I/O.
<code>geterror(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Retrieve error number from a <code>buf_t</code> .
<code>physiock(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Validate a raw I/O request and pass to a strategy function.
<code>uiophysio(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Validate a raw I/O request and pass to a strategy function.
<code>undma(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Unlock physical memory after I/O complete
<code>userdma(D3)</code>	<code>ddi.h</code>	Lock physical memory in user space.

How the `strategy()` Entry Point Is Called

The `pxstrategy()` entry point is called directly from the filesystem or virtual memory management, or it can be called indirectly from a `pxread()` or `pxwrite()` entry point (see “Calling Entry Point `strategy()` From Entry Point `read()` or `write()`” on page 164).

Strategies of the `strategy()` Entry Point

Typically the `pxstrategy()` routine must interact with its interrupt handler. The `pxstrategy()` routine can be designed in either of two ways, synchronous or asynchronous.

The synchronous `pxstrategy()` routine initiates every I/O operation. Its interrupt handler is responsible only for detecting and signalling the completion of one I/O. The `pxstrategy()` routine proceeds as follows:

1. Lock the data buffer in memory using `userdma()`.
2. Place the address of the `buf_t` where the `pxintr()` entry point can find it.
3. Program the device (see “Setting Up a DMA Transfer” on page 216) and initiate the I/O activity.
4. Call `biowait()`.

When the interrupt handler is entered, the handler uses `bioerror()` if necessary, and `biodone()` to signal the completion of the I/O. Then it exits. The strategy code, which is waiting in the call to `biowait()`, regains control following the call to `biodone()`, and can use `geterror()` to check the results.

The asynchronous `pxstrategy()` routine only initiates the first I/O operation of a series, and never waits. It proceeds as follows:

1. Lock the data buffer in memory using `userdma()`.
2. Append the address of the `buf_t` to a queue shared with the interrupt handler.
3. If the queue was empty, no I/O is in progress. Call a subroutine that programs the device and initiates the I/O.
4. Return to the caller. The caller (a filesystem or paging system or `uiophysio()`) waits using `biowait()`.

When the interrupt occurs, the handler proceeds as follows:

1. The first queued *buf_t* has completed. Remove it from the queue.
2. Apply **bioerror()** if necessary, and **biodone()** to the *buf_t*. This releases the caller of the strategy routine from **biowait()**.
3. If any operations remain in the queue, call a subroutine to program and initiate the next one.

Waiting for a General Event

There are causes for synchronization other than time, block I/O, and memory allocation. For example, there is no defined interface comparable to **biowait()/biodone()** to mediate between an interrupt handler and the **pxread()** or **pxwrite()** entry points. You must design a mechanism of your own, using either a synchronization variable or the **sleep()/wakeup()** function pair.

Using **sleep()** and **wakeup()**

The **sleep()** and **wakeup()** function pair are the simplest, oldest, and least efficient of the general synchronization mechanisms. They are summarized in Table 8-31.

Table 8-31 Functions for Synchronization: sleep/wakeup

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
sleep(D3)	ddi.h & param.h	Suspend execution pending an event.
wakeup(D3)	ddi.h	Waken a process waiting for an event.

Used carefully, these functions are suitable for simple character device drivers. However, when you are writing new code or converting a driver to multiprocessing you should avoid them and use synchronization variables instead (see “Using Synchronization Variables” on page 248).

The basic concept is that the upper-layer routine calls **sleep(*n*)** in order to wait for an event that is keyed to an arbitrary address *n*. Typically *n* is a pointer to a data structure related to an I/O operation. The interrupt handler executes **wakeup(*n*)** to cause the sleeping process to resume execution.

The main reason to avoid **sleep(0)** is that, in a multiprocessor system, it is hard to ensure that sleeping always begins before **wakeup(0)** is called. The usual intended sequence of events is as follows:

1. Upper-half routine initiates a device operation that will lead to an interrupt.
2. Upper-half routine executes **sleep(*n*)**.
3. Interrupt occurs, and handler executes **wakeup(*n*)**.

In a multiprocessor-aware driver (one with `D_MP` in its `pxdevflag` constant; see “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148), there is a small chance that the interrupt can occur, calling **wakeup(*n*)**, before the **sleep(*n*)** call has been completed. Because **sleep(0)** has not been called, the **wakeup(0)** is lost. When the **sleep(0)** call completes, the process sleeps forever. Synchronization variables are designed to handle this case.

Using Synchronization Variables

Synchronization variables, a feature of UNIX SVR4, are supported by IRIX beginning with release 6.2. These functions are summarized in Table 8-32.

Table 8-32 Functions for Synchronization: Synchronization Variables

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
SV_ALLOC(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Allocate and initialize a synchronization variable.
SV_DEALLOC(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Deinitialize and deallocate a synchronization variable.
SV_INIT(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Initialize an existing synchronization variable.
SV_DESTROY(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Deinitialize a synchronization variable.
SV_BROADCAST(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Wake all processes sleeping on a synchronization variable.
SV_SIGNAL(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Wake one process sleeping on a synchronization variable.

Table 8-32 (continued) Functions for Synchronization: Synchronization Variables

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
SV_WAIT(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Sleep until a synchronization variable is signalled.
SV_WAIT_SIG(D3)	types.h & sema.h	Sleep until a synchronization variable is signalled or a signal is received.

A synchronization variable is a memory object of type *sv_t*, representing the occurrence of an event. You can allocate objects of this type dynamically, or declare them as static variables or as fields of structures.

One or more processes may wait for an event using SV_WAIT(). An interrupt handler or timer callback function can signal the occurrence of an event using SV_SIGNAL (to wake up only one waiting process) or SV_BROADCAST (to wake up all of them).

SV_WAIT is specifically designed to handle the difficult case that arises when the driver needs to initiate an I/O operation and then sleep, and do these things in such a way that it always begins to sleep before the SV_SIGNAL can possibly be issued. The procedure is done as follows:

1. The driver seizes a basic lock (see “Basic Locks” on page 235) or a mutex lock (see “Using Mutex Locks” on page 237) that is also used by the interrupt handler.
A LOCK() call returns an integer that is needed later.
2. The driver initiates an I/O operation that can lead to an interrupt.
3. The driver calls SV_WAIT, passing the lock it holds and an integer, either the value returned by LOCK() or a zero if the lock is a mutex lock.
4. In one indivisible operation, SV_WAIT releases the lock and begins waiting on the synchronization variable.
5. The interrupt handler or other process is entered, and seizes the lock.
This step ensures that, if the interrupt handler or other process is entered preceding the SV_WAIT call, it will not proceed until SV_WAIT has completed.
6. The interrupt handler or other process does its work and calls SV_SIGNAL to release the waiting driver.

This process is sketched in Example 8-5.

Example 8-5 Skeleton Code for Use of SV_WAIT

```
lock_t seize_it;
sv_t wait_on_it;
initiator(...)
{
    int lock_cookie;
    for( as often as necessary )
    {
        lock_cookie = LOCK(&seize_it, PL_ZERO);
        [do something that causes a later interrupt]
        SV_WAIT(&wait_on_it, 0, &seize_it, lock_cookie);
        [interrupt has been handled]
    }
}

void handler(...)
{
    int lock_cookie = LOCK(&seize_it, PL_ZERO);
    [handle the interrupt]
    SV_SIGNAL(&wait_on_it);
    UNLOCK(&seize_it);
}
```

If it is necessary to use a semaphore as the lock, the header file `sys/semaphore.h` declares versions of SV_WAIT that accept a semaphore and a synchronization variable. The combination of a mutual exclusion object and a synchronization variable ensures that even in a multiprocessor, the interrupt handler cannot exit before the driver has entered a predictable wait state.

Tip: When a debugging kernel is used, you can display statistics about the use of a given synchronization variable. See “Including Lock Metering in the Kernel Image” on page 272.

Semaphores

The *semaphore* is a generalized tool that can be used for both mutual exclusion and for waiting. The IRIX kernel support for semaphores is summarized in Table 8-33.

Table 8-33 Functions for Semaphores

Function Name	Header Files	Purpose
cpsema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Conditionally perform a “P” or wait semaphore operation.
cvsema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Conditionally perform a “V” or release semaphore operation.
freesema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Free the resources associated with a semaphore.
initnsema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Initialize a semaphore to a given value.
initnsema_mutex(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Initialize a semaphore to a value of 1.
psema(D3)	sema.h & types.h & param.h	Perform a “P” or wait semaphore operation.
valusema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Return the value associated with a semaphore.
vsema(D3)	sema.h & types.h	Perform a “V” or signal semaphore operation.

Conceptually, a semaphore contains an integer. The “P” operation claims the semaphore, decrementing its count by 1 (mnemonic: dePlete). If the count is 0 or less, the process waits until the count is greater than 0 before it decrements the semaphore and returns.

The “V” operation increments the semaphore count (mnemonic: reViVe) and wakens any process that is waiting.

Tip: When a debugging kernel is used, you can display statistics about the use of a given semaphore. See “Including Lock Metering in the Kernel Image” on page 272.

Note: In releases before IRIX 6.2, **initnsema_mutex()** was used to initialize a semaphore in a special way that got the performance of a basic lock in a multiprocessor. Since IRIX 6.2, this function is simply a macro that initializes the semaphore to a count of 1.

Using a Semaphore for Mutual Exclusion

To use a semaphore for locking, initialize it to 1. (This reflects the idea that a process calling a locking function expects to continue.) When you require exclusive use of the associated resource, call **psema()**. Typically this finds a semaphore count of 1, reduces it to 0, and returns.

When you are finished with the resource, call **vsema()** to increment the semaphore count, and release any process that is blocked in a **psema()** call for the same semaphore.

For locking, a semaphore is comparable to a sleep lock. In some systems, the performance of semaphore operations may not be as good as the performance of a mutex lock. In other systems, mutex locks may be implemented using semaphores.

Using a Semaphore for Waiting

To use a semaphore for waiting, initialize it to 0. Then call **psema()**. Because the semaphore count is 0, the process waits. When the desired event occurs, typically in the interrupt handler, call **vsema()** to release the waiting process.

This synchronization method is as reliable as a synchronization variable, but it has slightly different behavior. When a synchronization variable is used correctly (see “Using Synchronization Variables” on page 248), if the interrupt handler is entered before the SV_WAIT call completes, the interrupt handler waits on a LOCK call.

When a semaphore is used, if the interrupt handler is entered before the **psema()** call completes, the **vsema()** operation is done immediately and the interrupt handler continues without waiting. The fact that **vsema()** was called is stored as a count within the semaphore, where **psema()** will find it. Because the semaphore can contain this state information, the interrupt handler does not have to be synchronized in time using a lock.

Note: In releases before IRIX 6.2, the **vpsema()** function was used in a way similar to synchronization variables are used: to release one semaphore and wait on another in an atomic operation. This function is no longer supported; replace it with synchronization variable.

Building and Installing a Driver

After a kernel-level driver has been designed and coded, it must be compiled, linked, and installed. The topics in this chapter describe the major steps of this process, as follows:

- “Defining Device Numbers” on page 253 covers the choice of major and minor device numbers.
- “Defining Device Special Files” on page 255 describes options for creating the file or files controlled by the driver.
- “Compiling and Linking” on page 256 covers the compiler and linker options used for driver modules.
- “Configuring a Nonloadable Driver” on page 259 describes the configuration files used to set up a driver loaded at boot time.
- “Configuring a Loadable Driver” on page 264 describes the additional configuration needed for a loadable driver.

Defining Device Numbers

The topics “Major Device Number” on page 38 and “Minor Device Number” on page 39 cover the purpose and use of the device numbers. Major and minor numbers were once very important in the device driver design because they were the primary input that distinguished a device to a device driver upper-half entry point. In current IRIX, this is only the case for legacy drivers in older machines. Contemporary drivers take their input from a vertex of the hwgraph (see “Hardware Graph” on page 42).

The historical use of device numbers can be summarized as follows:

- Both numbers are encoded in the inode of a device special file in */dev*.
- The major number selects the device driver.
- The minor number specifies the logical unit, and can encode device features.
- Both numbers are passed as a parameter to driver entry points.

Part of creating and installing a device driver is the selection of device numbers and the definition of device special files.

Selecting a Major Number

If your driver does not use the *hwgraph*, you must select a major number to stand for your driver. The numbers that already exist are listed in *sys/major.h*. However, the major number should not be coded into the driver. Typically the driver code does not need to know its major number, and if it does, the driver should discover its major number dynamically. A method of doing this is discussed under “Variables Section” on page 262.

A driver is associated with its major number in the *master.d* configuration file. When the driver discovers this number dynamically, the system administrator is free to change major numbers in */var/sysgen/master.d* files to correct conflicts between one product and another.

Selecting Minor Numbers

When a driver is called to service a device special file defined only in */dev*, it receives a device minor number comprising 18 bits of information. You design the content of these numbers to give your driver the information it needs about each device special file. Typically you encode a unique device unit number so the driver can index device information from an array. (When the *hwgraph* is used, a pointer to the device information is stored in the *hwgraph* vertex instead.)

Examine the */dev/MAKEDEV* script to see some techniques for assembling minor numbers dynamically based on the hardware inventory and other commands.

Defining Device Special Files

As described under “Device Special Files” on page 36, the association between a device and a driver is established when a process opens a device special file in the */hw* or */dev* directory. Without at least one device special file, a device can never be opened.

Static Definition of Device Special Files

The system administrator can create device special files using *mknod* or *install* (see “Making Conventional Device Files” on page 41). This can be done manually, or through an installation script, or as an exit operation of the software manager program. The device special files can be created at any time—whether or not the device driver is installed, and whether or not the hardware exists. The special device files continue to exist until the administrator removes them.

Dynamic Definition of Device Special Files

A more sophisticated approach is to have the device special files created, or recreated, dynamically each time the system boots. This was the purpose for which */dev/MAKEDEV* (see “The Script MAKEDEV” on page 41) was introduced—it removes and redefines device special files based on information in the hardware inventory. In current IRIX, all entries in the */hw* filesystem are created dynamically by device drivers as devices are attached.

Definition and Use of */hw* Entries

The kernel creates the upper levels of the hardware graph to represent addressable units of hardware in the basic system—modules, buses, and slots. While probing buses, it finds devices, and calls upon device drivers to attach them (see “Entry Point *attach()*” on page 153 and “Entry Point *edtinit()*” on page 151). At these times, the driver has the responsibility of extending the hwgraph with vertexes that provide access to the device (see “Extending the hwgraph” on page 222).

Because hwgraph entries are always created dynamically, and can be created and destroyed while the system is running, the initial set of pathnames in */hw* are not stable and should not be written into user scripts and source code. Your driver can create additional vertexes in the hwgraph (see “Extending the hwgraph” on page 222), both when attaching a device and later, when *ioconfig* runs (see “Using *ioconfig* for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51).

Compiling and Linking

You compile a kernel device driver to an ELF binary using shared libraries. The compile options differ between 32-bit and 64-bit modules.

Platform Support

If you are building a device driver that you wish to use on multiple platforms, you should build a different driver for each CPU board type (for example, IP22) that you want to run it on. You can use the *hinv* command to determine the host architecture (see *hinv(1M)*) and then specify the board type in the *Makefile* as described in the next section.

Using */var/sysgen/Makefile.kernio*

The file */var/sysgen/Makefile.kernio* is a sample Makefile for compiling kernel modules. You can include it from a Makefile of your own to set the definitions of compiler variables and compiler options appropriately for different CPUs and module types.

The *Makefile.kernio* file tests the following environment variables, which you set:

CPUBOARD	Set to the type of CPU used in the target system, for example IP19, IP22, IP27 (see the <i>sys/cpu.h</i> header file).
COMPILATION_MODEL	Set to 64 for a 64-bit kernel module, or to 32 for a 32-bit kernel module.

The purpose of the rules in *Makefile.kernio* is to set numerous compiler variables appropriately for the CPU type and execution model. It also sets compiler options into a Make variable CFLAGS. Owing to the number of compiler variables and the importance of getting them right for each CPU type, Silicon Graphics strongly recommends that you invoke *Makefile.kernio* from your own makefile.

Note: *Makefile.kernio* is designed for nonloadable drivers. In particular it sets the compiler option *-G8*, which is valid for nonloadable drivers. A loadable driver must use *-G0*, but this can be set after invoking *Makefile.kernio*.

Compiler Variables

The compiler variables listed in Table 9-1 are tested in system header files. They are usually defined on the compiler command line. The rules in *Makefile.kernio* set definitions of these variables appropriately for different CPU types.

Table 9-1 Compiler Variables Tested by System Header Files

Variable	Meaning
_KERNEL	Compile for a kernel module, not a user program.
MP	Compile for a multiprocessor.
_MP_NETLOCKS	Compile network driver (only) for multiprocessor TCP/IP.
STATIC=static	Use of pseudo-declarator STATIC is converted to real static.
_PAGESZ=16384	Compile for a kernel using 16K memory pages .
_PAGESZ=4096	Compile for a kernel using 4K memory pages.
_MIPS3_ADDRSPACE	Kernel for a MIPS3 machine.
R10000	Target machine is the R10000.
TFP	Target machine is the R8000.
R4000	Target machine is the R4000.
IP nn	Target machine uses the IP nn CPU module, one of IP19, IP20, IP21, IP22, IP25, IP26, IP27, IP28, and IP30 are currently supported.
EVEREST	Compile for a Challenge or Onyx system.
BADVA_WAR, JUMP_WAR, PROBE_WAR	Compile workaround code for bugs in certain R4x00 revisions.
_IP26_SYNC_WAR, _NO_UNCCHED_MEM_WAR	Compile workaround code for IP26 bugs.
R10000_SPECULATION_WAR	Compile workaround code for bug in certain R10000 revisions.
USE_PCI_PIO	Compile workaround for IP32 PIO bug (see <i>sys/PCI/pciio.h</i>).

Compiler Options

Some of the *cc* and *ld* options needed to compile and link a kernel-level driver are shown in Table 9-2. The complete and most current set is defined in *Makefile.kernio*.

Table 9-2 Compiler Options Kernel Modules

Option	Purpose
<i>-non_shared</i>	Do not compile for shared libraries (no dynamic linking).
<i>-elf</i>	Compile and link an ELF binary.
<i>-64</i>	Set for any kernel using the 64-bit execution model. 32-bit kernel does not set any specific flag.
<i>-mips4 , -mips2</i>	Select the MIPS4 instruction set only for the R10000 CPU. Use MIPS2 for others.
<i>-G 8</i>	In a nonloadable driver, use the global table for objects up to 8 bytes.
<i>-G 0</i>	In a loadable driver, do not use the global table. Refer to the <i>gp_overflow(5)</i> reference page for a discussion of the global table.
<i>-r</i>	Linker to retain symbols (needed by loadable drivers only).
<i>-d</i>	Force definition of common storage even though <i>-r</i> used.
<i>-Wc,-pic0</i>	Do not allocate stack space used by shared objects.
<i>-jalr</i>	In loadable drivers only, use jalr (jump-and-link register) instead of jal , whose 26-bit operand may not be enough for subroutine calls from a loaded module to the kernel.
<i>-TARG:t5_no_spec_stores</i>	Crucial setting for Indigo2 R10000 only; without it, kernel memory corruption can occur.

Table 9-2 (continued) Compiler Options Kernel Modules

Option	Purpose
-TENV:kernel -TENV:misalignment=1	Execution environment options for 64-bit compiler.
-OPT:space -OPT:quad_align_branch_targets=FALSE -OPT:quad_align_with_memops=FALSE -OPT:unroll_times=0	Specific optimization constraints for 64-bit compiler.

Configuring a Nonloadable Driver

When the driver is not loadable, it is linked as part of the IRIX kernel. The following steps are needed to make the driver usable:

1. Place the driver executable file in */var/sysgen/boot*.
2. Place a descriptive file in */var/sysgen/master.d*.
3. Place a directive file in */var/sysgen/system* (or simply add a line to */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm*).
4. Run *autoconfig* to generate a new kernel.
5. Reboot the system.

Some of these steps are elaborated in the following topics.

How Names Are Used in Configuration

The process of naming a kernel-level driver begins in a file in */var/sysgen/system*, such as */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm*. Names are used as follows:

- A *USE*, *INCLUDE*, or *VECTOR* statement in */var/sysgen/system* specifies a name, for example

```
USE hypothetical
```

- This statement directs *lboot* to read a file of the same name in */var/sysgen/master.d*. In this example, the file would be */var/sysgen/master.d/hypothetical*.
- The file in */var/sysgen/master.d* specifies the prefix for driver entry points, for example *hypo_*.
- The same name with the suffix *.o*, is searched for in */var/sysgen/boot*—in this example, */var/sysgen/boot/hypothetical.o*. This object file is linked with the kernel.
- The public symbols in the object file are searched for names that start with the prefix, for example **hypo_attach()**. These are noted in the kernel switch table so the driver can be called as needed.

Placing the Object File in */var/sysgen/boot*

The */var/sysgen/boot* directory, where the kernel object modules reside, is actually a symbolic link to one of the directories */usr/cpu/sysgen/IPnnboot*, where *nn* is the number of one of the CPU modules supported by the current release of IRIX (see “CPU Modules” on page 4). When you place the object file of a driver in */var/sysgen/boot*, you actually place it in the CPU directory for the system in use.

Describing the Driver in */var/sysgen/master.d*

You describe your driver in a file with the name of the driver in */var/sysgen/master.d*. The format of these files is described in two places: the master(4) reference page, and in */var/sysgen/master.d/README*. In addition, you can examine the many examples in the distributed system.

Descriptive Line

The first noncomment line of the master file contains a series of fields, delimited by white space, to describe the driver. These fields are listed in Table 9-3.

Table 9-3 Fields of Descriptive Line in Master File

Field Number	Usage	Details
1	Flags	See Table 9-4.
2	Prefix	The string of 1-14 characters that identify the public symbols of driver entry points.
3	Major number	The major device number found in device special files managed by this driver. When the driver uses the hwgraph, this field contains only a hyphen (-).
4	Number of sub-devices	Size of the driver's static arrays of device information, or given as a hyphen "-" when the driver stores device information in the hwgraph.
5	Dependencies	A list of other modules that must be in the kernel for this driver to work—usually omitted except for SCSI drivers.

The important flag values for nonloadable drivers are listed in Table 9-4.

Table 9-4 Flag Values for Nonloadable Drivers

Letter	Meaning
<i>b</i> or <i>c</i>	Block (b) or character (c) device. One or the other is essential for any device driver.
<i>f</i> or <i>m</i>	STREAMS driver (f) or STREAMS module (m). Omit for device driver.
<i>s</i>	Software driver, either a pseudo-device or a SCSI driver.

The *s* (software-only) flag tells *lboot* not to attempt to probe for hardware. This is the case with software-only (pseudo-device) drivers, and with SCSI drivers. If *lboot* tries to probe for a SCSI device, it fails, and assumes that the device is not present, and does not include your SCSI device driver.

Additional flags (d, R, N, D) for loadable drivers are discussed later under "Configuring a Loadable Driver" on page 264.

Listing Dependencies

The descriptive line ends with a comma-separated list of other loadable kernel modules on which this driver depends. The *lboot* command makes sure that it will not load this module if it fails to load a dependency.

In most cases, an OEM driver does not have any dependencies. However, a SCSI driver (see Chapter 16, “SCSI Device Drivers”) should list the name *scsi*, since it depends on the inner SCSI driver. A STREAMS driver might list the name of a STREAMS support module such as *clone* (see “Support for CLONE Drivers” on page 774).

It is possible for you to design a driver in the form of multiple, loadable modules. In that case, you would name your support modules in this field.

Stubs Section

Noncomment lines that follow the descriptive line and precede a line beginning “\$” are used by library modules—not by device drivers or STREAMS drivers. Each such line specifies an entry point that this module provides, and which is used by the kernel or some other loadable module. These lines instruct *lboot* in how to create a harmless “stub” function in the event that this driver is not included in the kernel—for example, because it is specified by an EXCLUDE line in the system file. The format is discussed in the master(4) reference page.

Since a device or STREAMS driver provides only standard entry points that are accessed via the switch tables rather than by linking, drivers do not need to define any stubs.

Variables Section

Following the descriptive line (and the stubs section, if any), you can place a line that begins with “\$” and, following this, you can write definitions of global variables using C syntax. This text is compiled into a module linked with the kernel. You refer to these variables as *extern* in the driver source code.

The advantage of defining global variables in the master file is that the initializing expressions for these variables can include values taken from the descriptive line. The following special symbols can be used:

- ##E** The integer coded as the major number in the descriptive line. The first integer, if a list of major numbers is given.
- ##C** The number of controllers (bus adapters) of this type.
- ##D** The number of sub-devices as coded in the fourth field of the descriptive line.

You can use these symbols to compile run-time values for the major device number and the number of supported sub-devices, as specified in the descriptive line of the file, without coding them as constants in the driver. In the source code you can write

```
extern major_t myMajNum;
extern int myDevLimit;
```

In the master file you can implement the variables using the code in Example 9-1

Example 9-1 Defining Variables in Master Descriptive File

```
$$$
major_t myMajNum = ##E;
int myDevLimit = ##C;
```

(In a loadable driver this technique requires one additional step; see “Master File for Loadable Drivers” on page 265.)

Configuring a Kernel

Once you have placed the binary in */var/sysgen/boot* and the master file in */var/sysgen/master.d*, you can configure and generate a new kernel. This is done using the *autoconfig* command, which in turn calls *lboot* to actually create a new bootable file.

The *lboot* program only loads modules that are specified in a file in */var/sysgen/system*. One command is required to specify the new driver; the command is one of the following:

- VECTOR** To specify hardware details, to request a hardware probe at boot time, to load the driver and invoke *pfxedtinit()*.
- INCLUDE** To load the driver and invoke *pfxinit()*.
- USE** To load the driver and invoke *pfxinit()* only if the master file exists in *master.d*.

The form of these commands is detailed in the `system(4)` reference page. In addition, you should examine the distributed files in `/var/sysgen/system`, especial `irix.sm`, which contains many comments on the meaning and use of different entries. Specific uses of the VECTOR statement are discussed in the following topics: The form of VECTOR lines for VME devices is discussed under “Configuring VME Devices” on page 342.

You could place the VECTOR, USE, or INCLUDE line for your driver in `irix.sm`. However, since `lboot` treats all files in `/var/sysgen/system` as a single file, you can create a small file unique to your driver. The name of this file is not significant, but a good name is the driver name with the suffix `.sm`.

Generating a Kernel

The `autoconfig` script invokes `lboot` to read the system files, read the master files, and link all the kernel executables. Provided there are no errors, the output is a new file `/unix.install`. At boot time this file is moved to the name `/unix` and used as the kernel.

During the testing period you may want to keep the original kernel file available as `/unix.original`. A simple way to retain this file is to create a link to it using the `ln` command.

Configuring a Loadable Driver

You compile and configure a loadable driver very much as you would a nonloadable driver (so you should read “Configuring a Nonloadable Driver” on page 259 before reading this section). The differences are as follows:

- You provide an additional global variable with the public name `pfxmversion`.
- You use a few different compile options.
- You decide when the driver should be loaded, and use appropriate flags in the descriptive line in the master file.

For more background on loadable modules, see the `mload(4)` and `ml(1)` reference pages.

Public Global Variables

To be loadable, a driver must specify a *pxdevflag* entry point containing the `D_MP` or `D_MT` flag (see “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148).

Any loadable module must define a public name *pxmversion*, declared as follows:

```
#include <sys/mload.h>
char *pxmversion = M_VERSION;
```

Note the exact spelling of the variable; it is easy to overlook the letter “m” after the prefix. If the variable does not exist or is incorrectly spelled, an attempt to load the driver will fail.

Compile Options for Loadable Drivers

Use the `-G 0` option when compiling and linking a loadable driver, since the global option table is not available to a loadable driver. You must also use the `-jalr` option in a loadable driver (see “Compiler Options” on page 258 and “Compiler Options” on page 258).

In a loadable driver, link using the `-r` and `-d` options to retain the symbol table yet generate a bss segment.

Master File for Loadable Drivers

The file in `/var/sysgen/master.d` for a loadable driver has different flags.

In the `flags` field of the descriptive line of the master file (see “Descriptive Line” on page 261), you specify that the driver is loadable, and when it should be loaded. The possible flags are listed in Table 9-5.

Table 9-5 Flag Values for Loadable Drivers

Letter	Meaning
<i>b</i> or <i>c</i>	Block (b) or character (c) device. One or the other is essential for any device driver.
<i>f</i> or <i>m</i>	STREAMS driver (f) or STREAMS module (m). Omit for device driver.
<i>s</i>	Software driver, either a pseudo-device or a SCSI driver.

Table 9-5 Flag Values for Loadable Drivers

Letter	Meaning
<i>d</i>	Specifies that this is a loadable driver.
<i>R</i>	Auto-register the module (discussed in text).
<i>D</i>	Load, then unload, at boot time, in order to let the driver initialize the hardware inventory.
<i>N</i>	Prevent this module from being automatically unloaded even when it has a <i>pfxunload()</i> entry point.

When the *d* flag is given for an included module, *lboot* parses the master file for the driver. Global variables defined in the variables section of the master file (see “Variables Section” on page 262) are defined and included in the kernel. However, object code of the driver is not included in the kernel, and the names of its entry points are not entered into the kernel switch table.

Such a driver has to be manually loaded with the *ml* or *lboot* command before it can be used; and it cannot be used from the miniroot.

Loading

A loadable driver can be loaded by the *lboot* command at boot time, and by the *ml* command while the system is running. The following steps occur when a driver is loaded:

1. The object file header is read.
2. Memory is allocated for the driver’s text, data, and bss segments.
3. The driver’s text and data are read.
4. The text and data are relocated. References to kernel names and to global variables named in the master file are resolved.
5. Entry points are noted in the appropriate kernel switch table.
6. The *pfxinit()* entry point is called if one is defined.
7. If the driver is named in a VECTOR statement and has a *pfxedtinit()* entry point, that entry point is called for each VECTOR statement that names the driver.
8. The *pfxstart()* entry point, if any, is called.
9. The *pfxreg()* entry point, if any, is called.

Space allocated for the module's text, data, and bss is located in node 0 of an Origin2000 system. Static buffers in loadable modules are not necessarily physically contiguous in memory.

A variety of errors can occur when a module is loaded. See the `mload(4)` reference page for a list of possible causes.

Effect of 'D' Flag

Normally a loadable driver is not loaded at boot time. It must be loaded sometime after boot using the `ml` command. When the `D` flag is included in the descriptive line in the descriptive file, `lboot` loads the driver at boot time, and immediately after calling `pxstart()`, unloads the driver. This permits the driver to test the hardware and set up the hwgraph and hardware inventory.

Registration

A loadable module is "registered" by loading it, then placing a stub entry in the `pxopen()` and `pxattach()` column of its row of the switch table, and unloading it again. The stub entry points are invoked when the driver is needed, and the code of the entry points initiates a load of the driver.

Registration of this kind can be done automatically during bootstrap, or later using the `ml` command. Once it has been registered, a driver is loaded automatically the first time the kernel needs to attach a device supported by this driver, or the first time a process attempts to open a device special file managed by this driver. You can also load a registered driver in advance of any use with the `ml` command—loading implies registration.

Note: Try not to confuse this "registration" with a driver's registration with the kernel to handle a particular type of device.

Registration is done automatically for each master descriptive file that contains the `d` (loadable) and `R` (register) flags. Autoregistration is done at bootstrap phase 2. It is initiated by the script `/etc/rc2/S23autoconfig`. Registration can be initiated manually at any time after bootstrap by using the `ml` or `lboot` command with the `reg` option (see the `ml(1M)` and `lboot(1M)` reference pages).

Reloading

When a registered driver is reloaded, the sequence of events listed under “Loading” on page 266 occurs again. There is one exception: the *pxreg()* entry point is not called when a registered driver is reloaded from a stub. (The complete sequence occurs when an unregistered driver is explicitly loaded by the *ml* command.)

Unloading

A module can be unloaded only when it provides an *pxunload()* entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180). The *N* flag can be specified in the master file to prevent automatic unloading in any case.

A loaded module is automatically unloaded following a delay after the last close of a device it supports. The delay is configurable using *sysune*, as the *module_unld_delay* variable (see the *sysune(1)* reference page). You can use *ml* to specify an unloading delay for a particular module.

The *lboot* or *ml* command can be used to unload a module before the delay expires, or to manually override the *N* flag.

The unload sequence is as follows:

1. The kernel verifies that all opens of the driver’s devices have been closed. The driver cannot be unloaded if it has open devices or active mmaps.
2. The *pxunreg()* entry point is called, if one exists. This gives the driver a chance to unregister as a provider of service for a particular device type. If *pxunreg()* returns nonzero, the process stops.
3. The *pxunload()* entry point is called. If it returns nonzero, the process stops.
4. The module is removed from memory. If it had been registered (*R* flag), stubs are again placed in the *pxopen()* and *pxattach()* column of its row of the switch table.

Experience has shown that most of the problems with loadable drivers arise from unloading and reloading. The precautions to take are described under “Entry Point unload()” on page 180.

Testing and Debugging a Driver

As a critical system component, a driver deserves careful testing, but because it is part of the kernel, the normal testing tools are not available. This chapter describes the available testing tools and methods, in the following major topics:

- “Preparing the System for Debugging” on page 269 describes how to set up the kernel for use of the debugging tools.
- “Producing Diagnostic Displays” on page 274 covers the kernel functions your driver can use to generate diagnostic output as it executes.
- “Using *symmon*” on page 277 describes the use of the standalone debugger.
- “Using *idbg*” on page 287 describes some uses of the kernel-display command.

Preparing the System for Debugging

The standalone debugger *symmon* is a key tool for driver programming. It must be installed in the volume header of the boot disk. In order for it to be useful you must boot a “debugging” kernel, that is, one that retains symbols, and contains the display modules, that are used by debugging tools. Normally these modules and symbols are eliminated to save space. You modify the *irix.sm* file to enable debugging, and then generate a new kernel.

All these steps should be performed before you attempt to install your device driver.

Placing *symmon* in the Volume Header

The *symmon* standalone debugger resides in the volume header of a disk—not in a normal IRIX filesystem. The volume header is disk partition 8. It always contains a label record (*sgilabel*). On a bootable disk, the volume header contains the standalone shell *sash* that manages the bootstrap operation. Some bootable disks may also contain the *ide* program, a PROM-level diagnostic program. If *symmon* is to be available, it, too, must be placed in the volume header.

Normally you acquire *symmon* by installing the debugging kernel feature (eoe.sw.kdebug) in the IRIX Developer Option software distribution. You can verify that this feature has been installed by executing the command

```
versions eoe.sw.kdebug
```

The response should confirm the presence of this component (it does not show *symmon* by name). When you install the kernel debug feature, the *symmon* program file is copied to the volume header of the current boot disk automatically.

You can verify the presence of *symmon* in the volume header through the use of *dvhtool* (described in the *dvhtool(1)* reference page). The results should be similar to the display in Example 10-1. The response to the "l" (list) command shows that the volume header of this disk contains *sgilabel*, *ide*, *sash*, and *symmon*.

Example 10-1 Verifying Presence of *symmon*

```
# dvhtool -v list /dev/rvh
Current contents:
File name      Length      Block #
sgilabel       512         2
ide            281600     278
sash           281600     828
symmon        248320     1378
```

In the event you need to install *symmon* in the volume header of a disk without using the software manager, you can copy the standalone program to the volume header using *dvhtool*. However, you first need to get a copy of the program in the form of a UNIX file.

Starting from a volume that currently has a copy of *symmon* (verified as in Example 10-1), use *dvhtool* to extract a copy of *symmon* into a convenient spot.

```
dvhtool -v g symmon /var/tmp/symmon.IPxx
```

There is a unique version of *symmon* for each CPU module, so it is a good idea to qualify the filename with the CPU module type. Once the program is available as a normal file, you can use *dvhtool* to install it in the volume header of some other disk.

In the event there is not enough room in partition 0 (the volume header) of the target disk, it is safe to use *dvhtool* to delete the *ide* program from the volume header. The *ide* application can be booted manually from a CDROM if it is ever required.

Enabling Debugging in *irix.sm*

In order to make debugging symbols available in the kernel, you must make two changes, one required and one optional, in the file */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm*. As superuser, make a hard link to the file */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* as *irix.sm.nondebug*. This enables you to return easily to a nondebugging kernel.

Including Symbols in the Kernel Image

Edit */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm*. Near the end, note the lines that resemble the following:

```
* Compilation and load flags
*   To load a kernel that can be co-resident with symmon
*   (for breakpoint debugging) replace LDOPTS
*   with the following. You must also INCLUDE prf and idbg.
*
*LDOPTS: -non_shared -N -e start -G 8 -elf -woff 84 -woff 47 -woff 17
-mips2 -o32 -nostdlib -T 88069000
```

The active LDOPTS statement (the one without an initial asterisk) appears a few lines later. Remove the asterisk from the front of the debugging LDOPTS to make it active. Insert an asterisk to convert the original LDOPTS into a comment.

Tip: Despite the residual comment in the *irix.sm* file, you need not include module *prf* in a debugging kernel. It is only used for kernel profiling.

Including *idbg* in the Kernel Image

The symbol-display routines used by the command-line kernel display tool, *idbg*, are contained in optional kernel modules. (See “Using *idbg*” on page 287.) You can change */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* so that support for *idbg* is always present in the kernel. Alternatively, you can load these modules manually with *ml* before you use them (see the *ml(1)* reference page).

If you are entering an extended debugging period, make the modules permanent. Look for the lines in */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* that resemble the following:

```
*
* Kernel debugging tools (see profiler(1M) and idbg(1M))
*
EXCLUDE: idbg
EXCLUDE: dmiidbg, grioidbg, xfsidbg, xlvidbg, cachefsidbg, mloadidbg
```

Change these lines, if necessary, so that all modules ending in *idbg* is marked `INCLUDE`, not `EXCLUDE`. (`INCLUDE` is preferred to `USE` in order to get an error message if they are not found.) Verify that the corresponding object files `/var/sysgen/boot/*idbg.o` exist. They are normally installed with the debugging kernel feature, although some of them may be installed with specific products.

Parts of the *idbg* support that are unique to particular filesystems are in the other modules listed in this area of *irix.sm*. Modules such as *xlvidbg* are useful to Silicon Graphics developers but are not likely to be helpful to developers of third-party drivers. However, it does no harm to change those modules from `EXCLUDE` to `USE` also.

Including Lock Metering in the Kernel Image

In addition to the display support included by the *idbg* modules, you can include modules that support lock metering. This causes the kernel to keep statistics on the use of each semaphore, basic lock, and reader/writer lock, so you can display the statistics through *idbg* commands. To enable lock metering, find lines in `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm` that resemble the following:

```
* Required kernel modules
...
* ksync - kernel synchronization routines (mutex_lock, sv_wait,
psema...)
*   or
*   ksync_metered - metered kernel synchronization routines
...
*
KERNEL: kernel
INCLUDE: os, disp, mem, zero
INCLUDE: ksync
EXCLUDE: ksync_metered
```

Reverse the state of the two “ksync” lines so that `ksync` is excluded and `ksync_metered` is included.

Then find a line that resembles

```
INCLUDE hardlocks
```

Change this line to a comment, and add a line that says

```
INCLUDE dhardlocks
```

(Inserting the initial letter “d” in the module name.) This is the module that implements basic locks as spinlocks, and `dhardlocks` is the metered version.

Generating a Debugging Kernel

Run the *autoconfig* command to generate a new kernel that will reflect the changes made in *irix.sm*. The result is a new kernel file, */unix.install*, that will be renamed to */unix* and used when the system is booted. This kernel can support *idbg* but is not yet ready for standalone debugging with *symmon*.

The *setsym* command copies the symbol table from a kernel file and stores it as data within the kernel, so that *symmon* can find it. After *autoconfig* has created */unix.install*, apply the *setsym* command to it, as follows:

```
#setsym /unix.install
```

If this command returns an error message about “symbol table overflow,” it means you have neglected to activate the debugging LDOPTS statement in */var/sysgen/irix.sm*.

Tip: You can use *setsym* with the *-d* option to generate a list of all symbols in the kernel being modified. The list is very long; direct it to a file for later reference.

At this time, you may wish to create a link to the current, nondebugging kernel so you can retrieve it easily. You can also return to a nondebugging kernel by restoring the original *irix.sm* file and running *autoconfig* again.

Specifying a Separate System Console

In order to use the standalone debugger, you must have an ASCII terminal as a separate system console device. Install a terminal next to the system or workstation and connect it to the first serial port (of a workstation) or the system console serial port (of a server).

You may have to modify the file */etc/inittab* so that the line for the alternate console is active (see the *inittab(4)* reference page). Alternatively, you can use the System Manager application from the 4D desktop. Select the icon for Port Setup. Select the port and click Connect. You can then configure the port for baud rate and terminal type interactively.

Verify the terminal’s operation by logging in to the system. When you know the terminal works, use the *nvrnm* command to change the nonvolatile RAM variable console from a letter “g” to a letter “d,” as follows:

```
# nvrnm console
g
# nvrnm console d
# nvrnm console
d
```

The *nvr* command is used to report and change the contents of the nonvolatile RAM variables used by the boot PROM and standalone shell (see the *nvr*(1) reference page).

Verifying the Debugging Tools

After performing the preceding steps, restart the system. Messages from *sash* appear on the attached terminal, rather than on the graphics screen. If *symmon* is present, it announces itself on the console terminal also.

To verify operation of *idbg*, issue the *idbg* command and display the process list:

```
# idbg
idbg> plist
active process list:
34:672:"xdm" pri(60) SLEEP flags: load uload siglck recalc sv
0:0:"sched" ndpri(39) SLEEP flags: sys nwake load uload sv
31:193:"inetd" pri(60) SLEEP flags: load uload siglck recalc sv
...
```

To verify operation of *symmon*, press control-A at the console terminal. The prompt string *DBG:* should appear. At this time the system is frozen and no longer responds to mouse or keyboard input. Type the letter *c* (for continue) and press return (in a multiprocessor, use *c all*). The system returns to life.

Producing Diagnostic Displays

Normally a device or STREAMS driver produces display output in only two cases:

- To advise the operator or administrator of a serious problem.
- To display debugging information during software development.

Both of these purposes are served by the **cmn_err()** function. It brings to a kernel-level module the abilities that a user-level process gets from **printf()** and **syslog()**.

Using **cmn_err**

The details of **cmn_err()** usage are in the *cmn_err(D3)* reference page. The function prototype and the constant values it uses are declared in *sys/cmnerr.h*.

In summary, **cmn_err()** takes two or more arguments:

- A severity code that specifies how the message should be treated when it is written to the system log.
- A message string, which can have substitution points in the style of **printf()**.
- As many numeric values as are needed to substitute into the message string.

The first character of the message string specifies the destination of the message, either an in-memory buffer or the system log, or both.

Displaying to the System Log

The message is sent to the the system log daemon whenever the first message character (after substitution) is not an exclamation mark ("!"). The message is written only to the system log when the first message character is a circumflex ("^").

This is basically the same service that a user-level process receives from the **syslog()** function. (Compare the `syslog(3)` and `cmn_err(D3)` reference pages, and examine the `sys/cmnerr.h` header file; the relationship is clear.) The first argument to **cmn_err()** is a severity code which corresponds to one of the severity codes supported by **syslog()**: `CE_WARN` equals `LOG_WARN`, and so on.

Use **cmn_err()** to write log messages to record serious errors (with `CE_ALERT` severity) or to advise the administrator of conditions that should be changed (using `CE_NOTE`).

Displaying to the Circular Message Buffer

The message is stored in the next available position in a circular buffer in kernel memory whenever the first message character (after substitution) is not a circumflex ("^"). The message is stored only in the memory buffer when the first message character is an exclamation mark ("!").

The name of the circular buffer (as a symbol to `idbg` or `symmon`) is `putbuf`. The contents of `putbuf` can be displayed with the `pb` command of either `idbg` or `symmon` (see "Using `symmon`" on page 277 and "Using `idbg`" on page 287), or in a post-mortem dump using `icrash` (see "Using `icrash`" on page 294). Use **cmn_err()** to store debugging trace data in the circular buffer, and extract it after a stop or breakpoint with `symmon`, or use `idbg` to look at it while the system is running.

The size of the buffer can be configured by changing the kernel variable *putbufsz*, as shown in the dialog in Example 10-2.

Example 10-2 Setting Kernel putbuf Size

```
# systune -i
Updates will be made to running system and /unix.install
systune-> putbufsz
    putbufsz = 1024 (0x400)
systune-> putbufsz 4096
    putbufsz = 1024 (0x400)
    Do you really want to change putbufsz to 4096 (0x1000)? (y/n)
Y
In order for the change in parameter putbufsz to become effective,
reboot the system
systune-> quit
```

Using cmn_err() Through Macros

The inventive C programmer can think of many ways to invoke **cmn_err()** using macros. One method is illustrated in the example driver displayed in Chapter 11, “Driver Example.” It contains the code shown in Example 10-3.

Example 10-3 Debugging Macros Using cmn_err()

```
#ifndef DEBUG
#define DBGMSG0(s) cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,s)
#define DBGMSG1(s,x) cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,s,x)
#define DBGMSG2(s,x,y) cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,s,x,y)
#define DBGMSG3(s,x,y,z) cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,s,x,y,z)
#else
#define DBGMSG0(s)
#define DBGMSG1(s,x)
#define DBGMSG2(s,x,y)
#define DBGMSG3(s,x,y,z)
#endif
```

Using printf()

You can call the **printf()** function from a kernel module. The kernel version of **printf()** is basically a call to **cmn_err()** with severity **CE_CONT**. In general it is better to use **cmn_err()** explicitly.

Using ASSERT

The `assert()` macro is familiar to many C programmers; it terminates a program with a message if its argument evaluates to false (see the `assert(3X)` reference page). This normal `assert()` macro does not work in a kernel module because the normal C library is not available. However, a similar function is available as the `ASSERT()` macro in the header file `sys/debug.h`.

The `ASSERT()` macro compiles to null code unless the compiler variable `DEBUG` is not only defined, but defined as `YES`. When it compiles to executable code, `ASSERT()` tests its argument. If the argument evaluates to false, a kernel panic is forced.

Clearly `ASSERT()` must be used with care, testing conditions that are truly essential to the integrity of the system. When reporting conditions that are merely operational errors, use a call to `cmn_err()` with the `CE_WARN` option.

Using symmon

The `symmon` program is a standalone debug monitor that can display and modify memory, and stop, start, and trace execution, without using any kernel facilities. Using `symmon` you can set breakpoints in your driver, single-step its execution, and display the contents of driver and kernel variables.

The facilities of `symmon` are unsophisticated compared to the high-level debuggers you might use to debug a user-level application. For example, `symmon` does not understand C syntax, so it cannot display data structures as structures. Execution tracing is done at the level of machine instructions, not at the level of C statements.

However, you can use `symmon` to examine the operations of a kernel module in a running system, and resume execution of the system. This is an invaluable facility when debugging a new driver.

How symmon Is Entered

When the system boots a debugging kernel with *symmon* installed, control can pass into the debug monitor under several different circumstances:

- Early in the bootstrap process, if certain environment variables are set in the stand-alone shell (see “Entering symmon at Boot Time” on page 279).
- Whenever a control-A character is typed at the system console terminal.
- Whenever a breakpoint is reached or a watchpoint is tripped (see “Commands to Control Execution Flow” on page 282).
- Whenever a kernel module calls the kernel function `debug(uchar_t *msg)`.
- When a non-maskable interrupt (NMI) is detected.
- When a kernel panic is detected or forced with `cmn_err()`.

When *symmon* gains control, it displays its “DBG:” prompt at the console terminal and waits for a command.

To resume execution at the point of interruption, enter the *c* (continue) command.

Using symmon in a Uniprocessor Workstation

In a single-processor workstation, no IRIX execution takes place while *symmon* is running. The mouse and keyboard are unresponsive. (One keystroke may be stored in the keyboard hardware to be processed when the system resumes execution.) As a result, time-dependent processes can fail; for example, the system clock is not updated. Network interrupts are not taken, so if the workstation is acting as an NFS server, it will appear to be dead to other systems.

Using symmon in a Multiprocessor Workstation

In a multiprocessor, the CPU that was interrupted runs *symmon* and nothing else. For example, the CPU that executes the breakpoint, or the CPU that handles the interrupt that returns the control-A character, or the CPU in which `debug()` was called, comes under the control of *symmon*. Other CPUs continue to execute normally. However, if the *symmon* CPU holds a lock, other CPUs may come to a halt waiting for the lock to be released.

The *symmon* breakpoint table is shared by all CPUs. A breakpoint set from one CPU can be taken by another CPU, or by multiple other CPUs. It is possible to run multiple instances of *symmon* concurrently. The output from all instances of *symmon* is multiplexed onto the system console terminal. However, only one CPU at a time issues the DBG: prompt. Use the *cpu* command with no argument to find out which CPU is prompting. Use the *cpu* command with a *cpu* number to switch to a different CPU. (See “Commands to Control Execution Flow” on page 282.)

Entering symmon at Boot Time

You can cause the kernel to stop during initialization and enter *symmon* during the bootstrap process. In order to do this, you must use the miniroot to set environment variables.

1. Restart the system, for example by giving the commands *sync* and *halt*. Eventually, the 5-item PROM menu is displayed at the console terminal.
2. Select item 5, “Enter the Command Monitor.”
3. Set one or both of the environment variables *dbgstop* and *symstop* to 1, using commands such as the following:

```
>> setenv symstop 1
```
4. Return to the PROM menu by entering the command *exit*.
5. Select menu item 1, “Start System.”

In either case, *symmon* seizes the system and displays its DBG: prompt at the system console during bootstrap. When the *dbgstop* variable is set, *symmon* takes control of the system very early in the bootstrap process. Symbolic names are not initialized at this point. However, breakpoints can be set and memory can be displayed using explicit addresses.

When the *symstop* variable is set, *symmon* takes control after symbols are defined, but before driver initialization is begun. At this stop, you can display memory and set breakpoints based on entry point names of your driver.

Commands of symmon

The exact set of commands supported by *symmon* changes from release to release and from CPU model to CPU model. Many *symmon* commands are useful only to Silicon Graphics engineers who are debugging hardware and kernel problems. For a complete

list of commands, see the `symmon(1M)` reference page, or enter `symmon` and give the `help` command. You can use control-S and control-Q on the console terminal to pause the scrolling display.

The commands described in this section are generally useful and are available on all CPU models under IRIX 6.2. These commands can be grouped into the following categories:

- Conversion between symbols and memory addresses.
- Execution control, including commands for stopping, starting, and setting breakpoints.
- Display and modification of memory, including the display of machine registers and of system data structures such as the `buf_t` and `proc_t` objects.
- Management of the virtual memory system and the TLB.

Syntax of Command Elements

The `symmon` commands all have the same form: a keyword, usually followed by one or more arguments separated by spaces.

Many commands take an address value. An address argument value can have one of the following forms:

Decimal number	A number starting with 1-9 is decimal, for example <code>4095</code> .
Octal number	A number starting with 0 and a digit is octal, for example <code>033</code> .
Hex number	A number starting 0x is hexadecimal, for example <code>0xffff8000</code> .
Binary number	A number starting 0b is binary, for example <code>0b0100</code> .
Symbol	A word starting with a non-digit is looked up in the kernel symbol table, and its address is the value; for example <code>dk_open</code> .
Register	A word starting with "\$" is taken as a register name, Its value is the contents of the register at the last interrupt; for example <code>\$a2</code> .
Value and offset	A value plus or minus a number is a value, for example <code>\$a2-0x100</code> or <code>dk_open+128</code> .

Some commands accept a range of addresses. A range can be written in one of two ways:

- As *value1:value2*, meaning an inclusive range of addresses from *value1* through *value2*, for example *prtbu:prtbu+4095*.
- As *value1#count2*, meaning a range of *count2* bytes beginning at *value1*, for example *prtbu#4095*.

The register names that *symmon* accepts and shows in various displays are the conventional names used in MIPS assembly language programming. Refer to the *MIPSpro Assembly Language Programmer's Guide* and the processor manuals listed under "Additional Reading" on page xli.

Commands for Symbol Conversion and Lookup

The commands summarized in Table 10-1 are used to convert between symbolic names and their corresponding addresses.

Table 10-1 Commands for Symbol Conversion and Lookup

Command	Example	Operation
hx <i>name</i>	hx dk_read dk_read 0xffffffff882b0510	The name is looked up on the symbol table and if it is found, its address is displayed.
lkaddr <i>addr</i>	lkaddr 0x882b0510 0x882af910 lockdisptab 0x882b0510 dk_read 0x882b051c dk_write	Symbols near to the specified <i>addr</i> are listed. Use this command to find out the symbolic location of an unexpected stop.
lkup <i>letters</i>	hx dk_rea 0x880d5f10 dk_readcap 0x882b0510 dk_read 0x332b0528 dk_readcapacity	Every symbol that contains the specified <i>letters</i> at any point is listed. There is no way to anchor the search to the beginning or end of the name.
msyms <i>ident</i>	msyms 13 Symbols for module 13 (prefix tcl) tclinit 0xc0403d9c tclmversion 0xc0405fe0	The symbols for the loadable module <i>ident</i> are listed. Use the <i>ml</i> command with no arguments to list all modules and their ident numbers.
nm <i>addr</i>	nm 0xc0403da0 0xc0403da0 tclinit+0x4	The symbol nearest to the specified <i>addr</i> is listed.

Note: When `symmon` displays an address it normally shows a full 64 bits. In a 32-bit kernel, the most-significant 32 bits of a kernel virtual address are all-binary-1, from extension of the sign bit of the 32-bit address—as shown in the example of `hx` in Table 10-1. When you enter an address to a command in a 32-bit system, you only need to type the significant 32-bit value.

Commands to Control Execution Flow

The commands summarized in Table 10-2 are used to stop, start, and single-step execution in the kernel.

Table 10-2 Commands to Control Execution

Command	Example	Operation
<code>brk</code>	<code>brk</code>	List all breakpoints currently set.
<code>brk addr</code>	<code>brk dk_read</code>	Set a breakpoint at the specified <code>addr</code> .
<code>c</code>	<code>c</code>	Restart execution at the point of interruption in the current CPU.
<code>c cpuid [cpuid]...</code> <code>c all</code>	<code>c 0</code>	Restart execution in the specified CPU, or in all stopped CPUs. Available in multiprocessors only.
<code>call addr [args]</code>	<code>call geteminor 0</code>	Call a kernel function and report the contents of the result register on return.
<code>cpu</code>	<code>cpu</code>	Displays the cpu ID of the currently-executing CPU. Available in multiprocessors only.
<code>cpu cpuid</code>	<code>cpu 0</code>	Force <code>symmon</code> execution to the specified CPU. That CPU must be executing <code>symmon</code> . Other CPUs executing <code>symmon</code> wait. Available in multiprocessors only.
<code>goto addr</code>	<code>goto geteminor</code>	Set a temporary breakpoint at <code>addr</code> and then continue execution as for the <code>c</code> command (in effect “go until <code>addr</code> is reached”).
<code>quit</code>	<code>quit</code>	Return to the boot PROM, forcing an instant reboot.

Table 10-2 (continued) Commands to Control Execution

Command	Example	Operation
<code>s [count]</code>	<code>s 8</code>	Single-step through 1 or <i>count</i> instructions, displaying each instruction and the register contents it uses. A branch and the instruction in “delay slot” following it count as 1. Steps into subroutines.
<code>S [count]</code>	<code>S 8</code>	Single-step through 1 or <i>count</i> instructions as for the <i>s</i> command, but do not step into subroutines.
<code>unbrk n</code>	<code>unbrk 2</code>	Remove break point number <i>n</i> . Use <i>brk</i> with no argument to list break points by number.
<code>wpt {r w rw} physaddr</code>	<code>wpt r 0x0841f608</code>	Set a hardware watchpoint on a physical address.

Tip: One way to force a memory dump from *symmon* is the command `call dumpsys`.

Following a break or a watchpoint, use the *bt* command to display the stack history and use *printreg* to display the registers (see “Commands to Display Memory” on page 284).

The hardware watchpoint used by the *wpt* command uses hardware registers in the MIPS R4000 and R10000 processors (the R8000 does not support the watchpoint registers). When a read or write access is addressed to any byte in the doubleword specified by the physical address, *symmon* gains control and displays the instruction that is attempting the access on the console terminal.

The argument of *wpt* must be a physical memory address and a multiple of 8. Use *tlbvtop* to get the physical equivalent of an address in a user address space (see “Commands to Manage Virtual Memory” on page 284). In a 32-bit kernel, the physical equivalent of an address in kernel space is obtained by changing the most significant hex digit to 0.

Commands to Manage Virtual Memory

The commands summarized in Table 10-3 are used to display and manage the virtual memory translation system.

Table 10-3 Commands to Manage Virtual Memory

Command	Example	Operation
cacheflush <i>range</i>	cacheflush \$6:\$6+4096	Flush both the instruction and data caches when they contain data that falls in <i>range</i> .
tlbdump [<i>lo:hi</i>]	tlbdump 1:3	Display the contents of the TLB registers. When a range of numbers is given, the registers from <i>lo</i> through <i>hi</i> -1 are displayed.
tlbflush [<i>lo:hi</i>]	tlbflush	Flush (nullify) the TLB registers specified. The registers are reloaded as required during subsequent execution.
tlbpid	tlbpid Current dbgmon pid = 79	Display the process slot number of the process whose context is in the TLB.
tlbvtov <i>addr</i>	tlbptov 0xffffc000	Display the TLB register that maps <i>addr</i> .

Commands to Display Memory

The commands summarized in Table 10-4 are used to display memory or variables.

Table 10-4 Commands to Display Memory

Command	Example	Operation
bt [<i>frames</i>]	bt 4	Display the calling function, the arguments, and the name of the called function for up to <i>frames</i> stack frames. Most useful after a break or interrupt.
dis <i>range</i>	dis geteminor	Disassemble and display the instructions over the specified range.

Table 10-4 (continued) Commands to Display Memory

Command	Example	Operation
dump [-b -h -w] [-o -d -x -c] <i>range</i>	dump 0xc0000000	Display memory over a specified range. The options -b, -h, and -w specify how memory is grouped, as units of 1, 2, or 4 bytes. The options -o, -d, -x, and -c specify translation into octal, decimal, hex and character.
kp [<i>routine</i>]	kp plist	Invoke a kernel print routine loaded with the idbg kernel module. If no routine is given, all available names are displayed.
printregs	printregs	Display all the registers as they were when the debugger was entered.
string <i>range</i> [<i>max</i>]	string \$v1 0x80	Display memory as an ASCII string in quotes. Display stops at the first null byte, or, when <i>max</i> is specified, after at most <i>max</i> bytes.

The display routines available to the *kp* command are discussed under “Using idbg” on page 287. The names that *idbg* accepts as commands are all available under *symmon* through the *kp* command.

Use the *dump* command under *symmon*. Under *idbg*, use the *hd* command for the same purpose.

Commands to Display the hwgraph

The commands in Table 10-5 are used to display the contents of the hwgraph (see “Hardware Graph” on page 42).

Table 10-5 Utility Commands

Command	Example	Operation
graph	graph	List summary of graph debugging commands.
gsumm	gsumm	Summarize a graph (default graph is /hw).
ghdls	ghdls	List all handles to a graph (/hw by default).

Table 10-5 (continued) Utility Commands

Command	Example	Operation
<code>gvertex</code>	<code>gvertex 0x004</code>	List edges and attributes of a vertex given its handle.
<code>gname</code>	<code>gname 0x004</code>	Display name of a vertex given its handle.

Utility Commands

The commands summarized in Table 10-6 are general-purpose utilities.

Table 10-6 Utility Commands

Command	Example	Operation
<code>calc</code>	<code>calc</code>	Starts a simple stack-oriented calculator (see text).
<code>clear</code>	<code>clear</code>	Clear the screen of the system console terminal.
<code>help</code>	<code>help</code>	List one-line summaries of all available commands. Use control-S and control-Q to control the scrolling of the display.
<code>g [-b -h -w -d] [addr \$regname]</code>	<code>g \$a1 0x882fadf8: 4294967295 0xffffffff</code>	Display one byte, halfword, word or doubleword (default word) of memory, or the contents of one register at the time symmon was entered, in decimal and hex.
<code>p [-b -h -w -d] [addr \$regname] value</code>	<code>p -w 0xc0000000 4095</code>	Write a byte, halfword, word, or doubleword (default word) into a saved register or into memory at the specified address.

Using idbg

The *idbg* command is a utility that provides much of the display capability of *symmon* but from the command line of a user process, without stopping the system. Many details of *idbg* use are covered in the *idbg(1M)* reference page. Keep in mind that all *idbg* commands are available under the standalone debugger through the *kp* command (see “Commands to Display Memory” on page 284).

Loading and Invoking idbg

Superuser privilege is required to invoke *idbg*, because it maps kernel memory. The command is ineffective unless its support modules have been made part of the kernel. This can be done permanently by changing the *irix.sm* file (see “Including *idbg* in the Kernel Image” on page 271). Alternatively, you can load the needed modules dynamically using the *ml* command, as follows:

```
# ml ld -i /var/sysgen/boot/idbg.o
```

Dynamic loading is discussed at more length in the *idbg(1M)* and *ml(1M)* reference pages.

When the support modules are loaded, *idbg* can be invoked in three styles.

Invoking idbg for Interactive Use

Invoking the command with no arguments causes it to enter interactive mode, prompting for one command after another from standard input, as shown in Example 10-4.

Example 10-4 Invoking *idbg* Interactively

```
# idbg
idbg> plist 187
pid 187 is in proc slot 31
idbg> quit
#
```

The command terminates when *quit* is entered or when control-D (input end of file) is typed.

Invoking *idbg* with a Log File

Invoking the command with the *-r* option and a filename causes it to write all its output to the specified file, as shown in Example 10-5.

Example 10-5 Invoking *idbg* with a Log File

```
# idbg -r /var/tmp/idbg.save
idbg> plist 187
pid 187 is in proc slot 31
idbg> proc 31
proc: slot 31 addr 0x8832db30 pid 187 ppid 1 uid 0 abi IRIX5
      SLEEP flags: load uload siglck recalc sv
...
idbg> ^D
# cat /var/tmp/idbg.save
pid 187 is in proc slot 31
proc: slot 31 addr 0x8832db30 pid 187 ppid 1 uid 0 abi IRIX5
      SLEEP flags: load uload siglck recalc sv
...
#
```

You can use this method to collect a series of displays in a single file as you test a driver.

Invoking *idbg* for a Single Command

You can invoke *idbg* with a command on the command line. The output of the single command is written to standard output, where it can be captured or piped to another program. Example 10-6 shows one simple use of this feature.

Example 10-6 Invoking *idbg* for a Single Command

```
# idbg plist | fgrep -c tcsh
3
#
```

Since the displays of *idbg* are very rich, there are endless opportunities to use this mode to generate data within shell scripts, and to process it using tools such as *awk* and *perl*. Using *perl* you could write an intelligent display routine that showed the status of your driver's private data structures using your own terminology and display format.

Commands of idbg

Almost all *idbg* commands are concerned with displaying kernel memory data in different ways. There are commands to display almost every type of kernel data.

The vocabulary of commands changes from release to release, and can change within releases by software patches. Also, the commands available depend on which support modules are loaded; for example lock and semaphore meters cannot be displayed unless the *ksynch_meter* module is loaded (see “Including Lock Metering in the Kernel Image” on page 272). Only a few commands are listed in the *idbg(1M)* reference page.

The commands summarized in this book are generally useful and available on all platforms in the current release of IRIX. For a complete (but cursory) list, use the command itself.

```
# idbg help | lp
```

In general, commands take zero or one argument. Typically the argument is a number, which can be any of the following:

- A kernel symbol, optionally +offset
- A number in hexadecimal (starting with 0x)
- A number in octal (starting with 0)
- A number in decimal.

The number is interpreted in the context of the command: sometimes it represents a process ID (pid), sometimes a process “slot” number or a buffer number. Often commands treat positive numbers as slot numbers or table indexes, while negative numbers are treated as addresses in kernel space.

Commands to Display Memory and Symbols

The commands summarized in Table 10-7 are used to display memory based on specific addresses or symbols, and to display the addresses for kernel symbols.

Table 10-7 Commands to Display Memory and Symbols

Command	Operation
<code>dsym addr [length]</code>	Dump memory by words, starting at <i>addr</i> . When a word of memory data is reasonably close to the value of a kernel symbol, the symbol plus offset is displayed instead of the hex value.
<code>hd addr [length]</code>	Dump memory in bytes, with ASCII translation, starting at <i>addr</i> . When <i>length</i> is given, it is a count of words (not bytes) to be displayed.
<code>pb</code>	Display the strings in the circular putbuf (see “Displaying to the Circular Message Buffer” on page 275).
<code>string addr [max]</code>	Display memory as an ASCII string. Display stops at the first null byte, or, when <i>max</i> is specified, after at most <i>max</i> bytes.

When you display the circular buffer, there is no special indication to show which line is the newest. You have to deduce the boundary between the newest and oldest lines from the content.

Commands to Display Process Information

The commands summarized in Table 10-8 are concerned with displaying the status of processes. Processes are recorded in an array of “slots.” The *plist* command gives the process slot number for a given process ID. The other commands take slot numbers.

Table 10-8 Commands to Display Process Information

Command	Operation
<code>eframe [addr slot]</code>	Display the contents of an exception frame. With no argument, displays the last exception taken for the current process. Else displays the exception associated with the process specified either by address (negative number) or process table slot number (positive number)
<code>pchain slot</code>	Display the slot numbers of sibling processes to the process in <i>slot</i> .

Table 10-8 (continued) Commands to Display Process Information

Command	Operation
<code>plist [0 <i>pid</i>]</code>	With no argument, displays a one-line summary of every active process slot, including slot number and process ID. When the argument is 0, displays all inactive process slots. With a nonzero PID, displays the slot containing that process.
<code>ptree [<i>addr</i> <i>pid</i>]</code>	With a <i>pid</i> (number greater than zero), finds the process structure for that process. Else uses the process structure at <i>addr</i> . Displays the command name and command arguments for that process and for all processes that descend from it.
<code>proc [<i>addr</i> <i>slot</i>]</code>	Display all the fields of a process structure specified either by address (negative number) or process table slot number (positive number).
<code>signal [<i>addr</i> <i>slot</i>]</code>	Display information about pending signals for the process specified either by address (negative number) or process table slot number (positive number)
<code>slpproc [-2 -4 -8]</code>	Displays a summary of all processes with <code>p_stat</code> of <code>SSLEEP</code> or <code>SXBRK</code> . When an argument is given, its absolute value is used as a mask: 2 ignores processes in <code>wait()</code> ; 4 ignores processes without upages; 8 ignores processes on a sleep semaphore.
<code>ubt <i>slot</i></code>	Display a backtrace of the call stack of the sleeping process in the specified slot.
<code>user [<i>addr</i> <i>slot</i>]</code>	Display the user area associated with the process specified either by address (negative number) or process table slot number (positive number)

Commands to Display Locks and Semaphores

The commands summarized in Table 10-9 display the state of semaphores and locks of different kinds, including metering information when the metered-lock module is included in the kernel.

Table 10-9 Commands to Display Locks and Semaphores

Command	Operation
<code>lock addr</code>	Display the state of the spinlock at <i>addr</i> . This command is available only in multiprocessor systems.
<code>mrlock addr</code>	Display the state of the reader/writer lock at <i>addr</i> .
<code>mutex addr</code>	Display the state of the mutual exclusion lock at <i>addr</i> .
<code>sema addr</code>	Display the state of the semaphore at <i>addr</i> .
<code>smeter addr</code>	Display metering information about the semaphore at <i>addr</i> . When <i>addr</i> is positive, it is taken as an index to the semaphore metering array.
<code>sv addr</code>	Display the state of the synchronizing variable at <i>addr</i> , including waiting processes and metering information.

Commands to Display I/O Status

The commands summarized in Table 10-10 can be used to display the status of an I/O device or driver.

Table 10-10 Commands to Display I/O Status

Command	Operation
<code>file [addr]</code>	When <i>addr</i> is omitted, displays a summary of all entries of the kernel table of open files. When <i>addr</i> is the address of a file structure, displays only that entry.
<code>scsi addr</code>	Display the contents of the <code>scsi_request</code> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<code>uio addr</code>	Display the contents of the <code>uio_t</code> object at <i>addr</i> .

Commands to Display buf_t Objects

The commands summarized in Table 10-11 are used to display the state of *buf_t* objects and the queue of *buf_t* objects maintained by the kernel.

Table 10-11 Commands to Display buf_t Objects

Command	Operation
<i>buf [addr]</i>	If <i>addr</i> is omitted, print the entire buffer chain. When <i>addr</i> is supplied as the address of a <i>buf_t</i> , dump that structure.
<i>findbuf blkno</i>	Display any <i>buf_t</i> in the buffer chain with <i>b_blkno</i> containing <i>blkno</i> .
<i>qbuf eminor</i>	Find and display all <i>buf_t</i> objects that are queued to the device with external minor number <i>eminor</i> .

Commands to Display STREAMS Structures

The commands summarized in Table 10-12 are concerned with displaying STREAMS data structures such as message buffers.

Table 10-12 Commands to Display STREAMS Structures

Command	Operation
<i>datab addr</i>	Display the contents of the STREAMS data block at <i>addr</i> .
<i>mbuf addr</i>	Display the contents of the STREAMS <i>mbuf</i> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>modinfo addr</i>	Display the contents of the module info structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>msgb addr</i>	Display the contents of the STREAMS message block at <i>addr</i> .
<i>qband addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>qband_t</i> object at <i>addr</i> .
<i>qinfo addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>qinit</i> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>strh addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>stdata</i> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>strfq addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>queue_t</i> object at <i>addr</i> .

Commands to Display Network-Related Structures

The commands summarized in Table 10-13 display data structures that are related in one way or another to networking and network device drivers.

Table 10-13 Commands to Display Network-Related Structures

Command	Operation
<i>ifnet addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>ifnet</i> object at <i>addr</i> .
<i>rawcb addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>rawcb</i> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>rawif addr</i>	Display the contents of the <i>rawif</i> structure at <i>addr</i> .
<i>sock addr</i>	Display the <i>sockbuf</i> structure at <i>addr</i> . When <i>addr</i> is positive, it is taken as a physical address; otherwise it is a kernel address.

Using *icrash*

The *icrash* program is a post-mortem analysis tool for system crashes. You can use *icrash* to generate a wide variety of reports and displays based on a kernel panic dump from a crashed system. Study the *icrash(1M)* reference page for the current release. For example, you can display the *putbuf* message buffer using the *stat* command of *icrash*.

Driver Example

This chapter displays the code of a complete device driver. The driver has no hardware dependencies, so it can be used for experimentation in any IRIX 6.5 system.

Note: This driver is not intended to have a practical use, and it should not be installed in a production system.

The example driver has the following purposes:

- You can use it as an experimental animal with the *symmon* and *idbg* debugging tools.
- You can use it to experiment with loading and unloading a driver.
- You can modify the source code and use it to try out different kernel function calls, especially to the *hwgraph* package.

Installing the Example Driver

Use the following steps to install and test the example driver. Each step is expanded in the following topics.

1. Obtain the source code files.
2. Compile the source to obtain an object file.
3. Set up the appropriate configuration files.
4. Reboot the system and verify driver operation using the supplied unit-test program.

Obtaining the Source Files

The example driver consists of the following five source files:

<i>snoop.h</i>	Header file that declares ioctl command codes, data structures, and macros used in the driver.
<i>snoop.c</i>	Driver source module.
<i>snoop.master</i>	Descriptive file for <i>/var/sysgen/master.d</i> .
<i>snoop.sm</i>	A USE statement for <i>/var/sysgen/system</i> .
<i>usnoop.c</i>	User-level program to exercise the driver.

These files (and other example code from this book) are available from the Silicon Graphics FTP server, <ftp://ftp.sgi.com/sgi/>

Alternatively, a patient person could recreate the files by copying and pasting from the online manual.

Compiling the Example Driver

Compile using the techniques described under “Compiling and Linking” on page 256.

When the driver is compiled with the `-DDEBUG` option, all its informational displays are enabled. Without that option, it only displays messages related to unexpected error returns from kernel functions.

Configuring the Example Driver

Before you configure the example driver into the kernel, you should set the system with a debugging kernel, as described under “Preparing the System for Debugging” on page 269.

Configure the example driver to IRIX by copying files as follows:

- Copy the object file, *snoop.o*, to */var/sysgen/boot*.
- Edit the descriptive file, *snoop.master*, and make any desired changes—for example, making the driver nonloadable/

- Copy the edited descriptive file to */var/sysgen/master.d/snoop* (do not use the *.master* suffix on the filename).
- Review the *snoop.sm* file. It must contain the statement `USE snoop`. You can also insert a `DRIVER_ADMIN` statement, as described under “Creating Device Special Files” on page 297.
- Copy the *snoop.sm* file to */var/sysgen/system*.
- Run the *autoconfig* program to build a new kernel. Run *setsym* to install symbols in the kernel. Reboot the system.

If you compiled the example driver with `-DDEBUG`, it displays several informational lines to the system console from its *pfxinit()*, *pfxstart()*, and *pfxreg()* entry points, as shown in Example 11-1.

Example 11-1 Startup Messages from snoop Driver

```
snoop_: created /snoop
snoop_: added device edge, base 0xa80000002044d800
snoop_: added device attr, base 0xa80000002044d980
snoop_: added device hinv, base 0xa80000002044db00
snoop_: start() entry point called
snoop_: reg() entry point called
```

To disable the driver later, change `USE` to `EXCLUDE`, run *autoconfig*, and reboot.

Creating Device Special Files

The driver creates three vertexes in the hwgraph. By default they are named */hw/snoop/edge*, */hw/snoop/attr*, and */hw/snoop/hinv*. The three device names “edge,” “attr,” and “hinv” are fixed, but the path leading to them is under your control. To use a path other than */hw/snoop*, for example */hw/dtest/snoop*, you place a `DRIVER_ADMIN` statement in the *snoop.sm* file, as shown in Example 11-2.

Example 11-2 Driver Administration Statement in snoop.sm

```
TO BE SUPPLIED - API UNDER DESIGN
```

Verifying Driver Operation

You can verify operation of the driver by operating the *usnoop* program. Compile the *usnoop.c* source file. Run it with root privileges. If you have changed the path for the snoop devices as described in the preceding topic, specify the changed path as the command argument. At the prompt "path:" enter an absolute or relative path in */hw*.

Example 11-3 Typical Output of snoop Driver Unit Test

```
# ./usnoop
enter path: /hw/rdisk

Path read:
/hw/rdisk

Edges:
dks0d1s0
dks0d1s1
swap
root
volume_header
dks0d1vol
dks0d1vh

Attrs:

Hinv:
enter path: volume_header

Path read:
/hw/scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume_header/char

Edges:

Attrs:

Hinv:
enter path: ../../..

Path read:
/hw/scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0

Edges:
scsi
```

```
disk

Attrs:

Hinv:
enter path:
```

When the *snoop* driver is compiled with `-DDEBUG`, numerous debugging messages appear on the console terminal at the same time. If you run *usnoop* from the console terminal, the debugging messages are interspersed with *usnoop* output.

Example Driver Source Files

The four source files of the example driver are displayed in the following topics:

- “Descriptive File” on page 299 displays the `/var/sysgen/master.d` file that describes the driver to *lboot*.
- “System File” on page 300 displays the `/var/sysgen/system` file that contains the VECTOR statements to initialize the driver.
- “Header File” on page 300 displays the driver’s header file.
- “Driver Source” on page 304 displays the source of the kernel driver.
- “User Program Source” on page 321 displays the unit-test program *usnoop*.

Descriptive File

```
*
* IRIX 6.4 Example driver "snoop" descriptive file
* Store in /var/sysgen/master.d/snoop
*
* Flags used:
* c: character type device (only)
* d: dynamically loadable kernel module
* R: autoregister loadable driver
* n: driver is semaphored
* s: software device driver
* w: driver is prepared to perform any cache write back operation (none
)
*
* External major number (SOFT) is an arbitrary choice from
```

```

* the range of numbers reserved for customer drivers.
*
* #DEV is passed in to the driver and used to configure its info array.
*
*FLAG   PREFIX   SOFT   #DEV   DEPENDENCIES
cdnswR  snoop_   77     -b

$$$

```

System File

```

*
* Lboot config file for IRIX 6.4 example driver "snoop"
* Store as /var/sysgen/system/snoop.sm
*
USE: snoop

```

Header File

```

/*****
*
*          Copyright (C) 1993, Silicon Graphics, Inc.
*
* These coded instructions, statements, and computer programs contain
* unpublished proprietary information of Silicon Graphics, Inc., and
* are protected by Federal copyright law. They may not be disclosed
* to third parties or copied or duplicated in any form, in whole or
* in part, without the prior written consent of Silicon Graphics, Inc.
*
*****/
#ifndef __SNOOP_H__
#define __SNOOP_H__
#ifdef __cplusplus
extern "C" {
#endif
/*****
| The driver creates character special device nodes in the hwgraph, by
| default at /hw/snoop/{edge,attr,hinv} However you can place a statement
| in the /var/sysgen/system/irix.sm file to establish a different path,
| for example:
|     DRIVER_ADMIN snoop_ hwpath = /hw/admin/snoopy/nodes
| The driver prefix must be given exactly, as must the name "hwpath".
| The argument must be a valid /hw path that does not exist when the

```



```

| driver initializes. The following constant gives the attr-name used:
*****/
#define ADMIN_LABEL "hwpath"
/*****
| The following definitions establish the ioctl() command numbers that
| are recognized by this driver. See ioctl(D2) for comments. Ascii
| uppercase letters, minus 64, fit in 5 bits, so the command #s are:
| 0b0000 0000 0sss ssnn nnno oooo ##### #####
| These definitions are useful in client code as well as the driver.
*****/
#define IOCTL_BASE ((( 'S' - 64) << 18) | (('N' - 64) << 13) | (('O' - 64) << 8))
#define IOCTL_MASTER_TEST (IOCTL_BASE + 1)
#define IOCTL_MASTER_GO (IOCTL_BASE + 2)
#define IOCTL_CLOSING (IOCTL_BASE + 6)
#define IOCTL_PATH_READ (IOCTL_BASE + 9)
#define IOCTL_VERTEX_GET (IOCTL_BASE + 15)
#define IOCTL_VERTEX_SET (IOCTL_BASE + 16)

#ifdef _KERNEL /* remainder is only useful to the driver */
#include <sys/types.h> /* all kinds of types inc. vertex_hdl_t */
#include <sys/kmem.h> /* kmem_zalloc, kmem_free */
#include <sys/ksynch.h> /* locks */
#include <sys/ddi.h> /* many utility functions */
#include <sys/invent.h> /* inventory_t */
#include <sys/hwgraph.h> /* hwgraph functions */
#include <sys/driver.h> /* driver_admin functions */
#include <sys/cred.h> /* for cred_t used in open/read/write */
#include <sys/cmn_err.h> /* for cmn_err and its constants */
#include <sys/errno.h> /* error constants */
#include <sys/mload.h> /* mload version string */
/*****
| The purpose of the following macros are to make it possible to define
| the driver prefix in exactly one place (the PREFIX_NAME macro) and then
| to invoke that prefix anywhere else -
| - as part of function names, e.g. <prefix>open(), <prefix>init().
| - as a character literal, as in pciio_driver_register(..."prefix")
| - automatically as part of other macros for example debug displays
*****/
#define PREFIX_NAME(name) snoop_ ## name
/* ----- driver prefix: ^^^^^^ defined here only */
/* utility macros, not to be used directly */
#define PREFIX_ONLY PREFIX_NAME( )
#define STRINGIZER(x) # x
#define EVALUEIZER(x) STRINGIZER(x)
#define PREFIX_STRING EVALUEIZER(PREFIX_ONLY)

```

```

/*
| Define driver entry point macros in alpha order.  This is your basic
| character driver: open-read-write-iocctl-close.
*/
#define PFX_CLOSE      PREFIX_NAME(close)
#define PFX_DEVFLAG    PREFIX_NAME(devflag)
#define PFX_INIT       PREFIX_NAME(init)
#define PFX_IOCTL      PREFIX_NAME(iocctl)
#define PFX_MVERSION   PREFIX_NAME(mversion)
#define PFX_OPEN       PREFIX_NAME(open)
#define PFX_READ       PREFIX_NAME(read)
#define PFX_REG        PREFIX_NAME(reg)
#define PFX_START      PREFIX_NAME(start)
#define PFX_UNLOAD     PREFIX_NAME(unload)
#define PFX_WRITE      PREFIX_NAME(write)
/*****
| Debug display macros: one each for cmn_err calls with 0, 1, 2, 3 or 4
| arguments.  The macros generate the PREFIX_STRING, colon, space at the
| front of the message and \n on the end.  For example,
|     DBGMSG2("one %d two %x",a,b) is the same as
|     cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,"snoop_: one %d two %x\n",a,b)
| *****/
#ifndef DEBUG
#define DBGMSG0(s)
#define DBGMSG1(s,x)
#define DBGMSG2(s,x,y)
#define DBGMSG3(s,x,y,z)
#define DBGMSG4(s,x,y,z,w)
#else
#define DBGMSGX(s) cmn_err(CE_DEBUG,PREFIX_STRING ": " s "\n"
#define DBGMSG0(s)      DBGMSGX(s) )
#define DBGMSG1(s,x)    DBGMSGX(s) ,x)
#define DBGMSG2(s,x,y)  DBGMSGX(s) ,x,y)
#define DBGMSG3(s,x,y,z) DBGMSGX(s) ,x,y,z)
#define DBGMSG4(s,x,y,z,w) DBGMSGX(s) ,x,y,z,w)
#endif
/*****
| The ERRMSGn macros are the same as the DGBMSGn macros, except they are
| always defined (not conditional on DEBUG) and use CE_WARN status.
| *****/
#define ERRMSGX(s) cmn_err(CE_WARN,PREFIX_STRING ": " s "\n"
#define ERRMSG0(s)      ERRMSGX(s) )
#define ERRMSG1(s,x)    ERRMSGX(s) ,x)
#define ERRMSG2(s,x,y)  ERRMSGX(s) ,x,y)
#define ERRMSG3(s,x,y,z) ERRMSGX(s) ,x,y,z)

```

```

#define ERRMSG4(s,x,y,z,w) ERRMSGX(s) ,x,y,z,w)
/*****
| One instance of the following structure is created when any of our
| devices is opened. The structure is by default allocated in
| the node where the open() is executed. The structure is protected by a
| lock because it is possible for multiple threads in a pgroup to attempt
| concurrent read/write/ioctl calls to the same FD.
|   use_lock      : ensure only one thread modifies structure at a time
|   read_ptr      : address of data to return to read()
|   read_len      : length of data remaining to read()
|   v_current     : hwgraph vertex being snooped (initially /hw)
|   v_last_edge   : vertex at end of last-scanned edge
|   edge_place    : position in edge list, for /hw/snoop/edge
|   info_place    : position in the info list, for /hw/snoop/attr
|   hinv_place    : position in the hinv list, for /hw/snoop/hinv
|   scratch       : buffer to hold maximal /hw path on write() call
| Only one of the _place fields is used in any one structure, but the
| memory saved by making a union of them is not worth the coding bother.
| *****/
typedef struct snoop_user_s {
    mutex_t          use_lock;
    char *           read_ptr;
    unsigned int     read_len;
    vertex_hdl_t     v_current;
    vertex_hdl_t     v_last_edge;
    graph_edge_place_t edge_place;
    graph_info_place_t info_place;
    invplace_t       hinv_place;
    char scratch[HWGRAPH_VPATH_LEN_MAX*LABEL_LENGTH_MAX];
} snoop_user_t;
/*****
| One instance of the following structure is created for each char device
| we create (3 in all), and its address is saved with device_info_set().
|   dev_lock      : for controlled access to the device data
|   val_func      : function to set up data for a read
|   nopen         : number of opened/allocated users
|   user_list     : vector of pointers to snoop_user structs
| Use of this structure is controlled by a reader/writer lock. Only the
| open & close entries modify the user list, and so claim the writer lock.
| Other entries claim it as readers.
|
| The reason for making user_list a fixed array (as opposed to linking
| the snoop_user structs in a chain) is because each snoop_user_t can be
| in a different module, and we want to touch only the one for the caller.
| *****/

```

```
#define MAX_PGID 20
typedef void (*val_func)(snoop_user_t *puser);
typedef struct snoop_base_s {
    rwlock_t      dev_lock;
    val_func      vector;
    unsigned      nopen;
    struct {
        pid_t user;          /* pgid at open() time */
        int generation;     /* number of occupants of this slot */
        snoop_user_t *work; /* -> corresponding work area */
    } user_list[MAX_PGID];
} snoop_base_t;

#ifdef __cplusplus
}
#endif
#endif /* _KERNEL */
#endif /* __SNOOP_H__ */
```

Driver Source

```
/******
|
| This is snoop.c, a pseudo-device driver for IRIX 6.4 and later.
|
| At snoop_init(), create three char device vertexes in the hwgraph,
| /hw/snoop/{edge,attr,hinv}. Each device supports open, read, write,
| close, and ioctl.
|
| At most one open() from any process group is accepted for any device.
| Second attempts are rejected with EBUSY. However, multiple processes
| and POSIX threads in a process group may use the open FD concurrently.
|
| The driver maintains a current status for each process group open of
| each device. The two key status variables are:
|     a position on a current vertex in the hwgraph
|     a scan position for reading out edges, attributes, or inventory_t's
|
| Each read() of /hw/snoop/edge returns the next (first) edge from the
| current vertex as a character string. If the read length is less than
| the string length, the byte position is remembered and the rest of the
| string is returned on the next read.
|
|*****
```

Each read() of /hw/snoop/attr returns the first/next attribute label from the current vertex under the same rule as edges.

Each read() of /hw/snoop/hinv returns the first/next invent_t ditto. Note that an invent_t is binary data, not ascii.

For any device, a call to write() must present an absolute or relative path in the /hw filesystem. The device moves to the selected vertex and initializes the input scan of edges, attrs, or hinv. For example,
 write(FD, "/hw/snoop") moves to that vertex.
 write(FD, "..") moves back to /hw
 write(FD, "snoop/edge") moves down to /hw/snoop/edge.

The following IOCTL calls are supported (declared in snoop.h):

IOCTL_MASTER_TEST	returns 0 if a "master" vertex exists, or ENOENT
IOCTL_MASTER_GO	moves the current vertex to its master, if any
IOCTL_PATH_READ	sets to return the complete "/hw..." path of the current vertex on the next read() call, in place of the next edge/attr/hinv.
IOCTL_CLOSING	notifies the driver that this process group is about to close the device. Subsequent attempts to use that open file are rejected. Interesting mutual-exclusion problems arise here.
IOCTL_VERTEX_GET	retrieve the current vertex handle. Argument is an address in user memory to place the handle.
IOCTL_VERTEX_SET	set a new current vertex. Argument is an address in user memory where a handle sits, presumably one retrieved with IOCTL_VERTEX_GET.

```

*****/
#include "snoop.h" /* all #includes are inside this header */
int PFX_DEVFLAG = D_MP;
char * PFX_MVERSION = M_VERSION;
/* Function Directory */
static int
    alloc_user(snoop_base_t *pbase);          /* make & init snoop_user_t on open */
static pid_t
    get_pgroup(void);                        /* get PGID of client */
static int
    get_user_index(snoop_base_t *pbase, pid_t pgroup); /* get index of client */

```

```
static snoop_user_t *
    get_user(snoop_base_t *pbase);      /* locate snoop_user_t for client */
static int
    init_dev(char *name, vertex_hdl_t v_snoop, val_func func);
static void
    reset_scans(snoop_user_t *puser);  /* reset input scans for client */
static void
    val_attr(snoop_user_t *puser);     /* scan next attr for read() */
static void
    val_edge(snoop_user_t *puser);     /* scan next edge for read() */
static void
    val_hinv(snoop_user_t *puser);     /* scan next inventory_t for read() */
int
    PFX_INIT();                        /* init() entry point */
int
    PFX_OPEN(dev_t *devp, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp);
int
    PFX_REG();                          /* reg() entry point */
int
    PFX_START();                        /* start() entry point */
int
    PFX_WRITE(dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp);
int
    PFX_IOCTL(dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg, int mode, cred_t *crp, int *rvalp);
/*****
| Get the process group ID for the client process. The pgid is used as
| a key to search the user_list.
| *****/
static pid_t
get_pgroup(void)
{
    ulong_t val = 0;
    (void)drv_getparm(PPGRP,&val);
    return (pid_t) val;
}
/*****
| Get the index of the snoop_user_t for the client process in the
| user_list. Return -1 if the specified pgid is not found. "Not Found"
| is the expected result when this function is called from the
| pfx_open() entry. It is a possible result in other entry points, but
| only when the client calls ioctl(IOCTL_CLOSING) and then continues
| to use the file descriptor.
| *****/
```

```

static int
get_user_index(snoop_base_t *pbase, pid_t pgid)
{
    int j;

    for (j=0 ;j<MAX_PGID;++j) {
        if (pbase->user_list[j].user == pgid)
            return j;
    }
    return -1;
}
/*****
| Locate the snoop_user_t for the client process. The caller is assumed
| to hold pbase->dev_lock as reader at least.
| *****/
static snoop_user_t *
get_user(snoop_base_t *pbase)
{
    snoop_user_t *puser = NULL;
    int j;
    if (-1 != (j = get_user_index(pbase, get_pgroup()))) )
        puser = pbase->user_list[j].work;
    return puser;
}
/*****
| Reset all three data scans for this user. Only one scan is actually in
| use on a given device, but it's less trouble to have a single function.
| *****/
static void
reset_scans(snoop_user_t *puser)
{
    puser->read_len = 0;
    puser->v_last_edge = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
    puser->edge_place = EDGE_PLACE_WANT_REAL_EDGES;
    puser->info_place = GRAPH_INFO_PLACE_NONE;
    puser->hinv_place = INVPLACE_NONE;
}
/*****
| Allocate a snoop_user_t for the calling process and install it in the
| user_list. The caller must hold dev_lock as a writer. Errors:
|   if the calling pgroup already has this device open, EBUSY
|   if there is no open slot in the user_list, EMFILE
|   if kmem_alloc fails, ENOMEM
| Initialize the lock and all 3 data scans before setting the pointer.
| Increment the generation count of the slot.
| *****/

```

```

static int
alloc_user(snoop_base_t *pbase)
{
    snoop_user_t *puser;
    pid_t pgroup = get_pgroup();
    int j = get_user_index(pbase, pgroup);

    if (j != -1) {
        DBGMSG0("rejecting open, pgid in list");
        return EBUSY;
    }
    for(j=0 ;j<MAX_PGID;++j) { /* find empty user_list slot */
        if (!(pbase->user_list[j].user)) break;
    }
    if (j>=MAX_PGID) {
        DBGMSG0("user list full at open");
        return EMFILE;
    }
    puser = kmem_alloc(sizeof(*puser), KM_SLEEP+KM_CACHEALIGN);
    if (!puser) {
        ERRMSG0("unable to allocate user struct at open");
        return ENOMEM;
    }
    MUTEX_INIT(&puser->use_lock, MUTEX_DEFAULT, PREFIX_STRING);
    puser->v_current = hwgraph_root; /* "/hw" vertex, see hwgraph.h */
    reset_scans(puser);
    pbase->user_list[j].user = pgroup;
    pbase->user_list[j].generation += 1;
    pbase->user_list[j].work = puser;
    DBGMSG3("user for pgid %d at 0x%x in slot %d", pgroup, puser, j);
    ++ pbase->nopen;
    DBGMSG1("  now %d open", pbase->nopen);
    return 0;
}
/*****
| Set up the next edge label from the current vertex as the read data.
| If there is no next edge label, set up to return 0 bytes.
| This function is used for read() to the device /hw/snoop/edge.
| The caller, snoop_read(), has checked that puser->read == 0.
| *****/

```



```

static void
val_edge(snoop_user_t *puser)
{
    graph_error_t err;
    if (puser->v_current != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) {
        err = hwgraph_edge_get_next(
            puser->v_current,          /* in source vertex */
            puser->scratch,            /* out big buffer for string */
            &puser->v_last_edge,        /* out save destination vertex */
            &puser->edge_place);       /* inout scan position */
        if (!err) {                   /* we got a string... */
            puser->read_ptr = puser->scratch; /* ..set up as read data */
            puser->read_len = 1+strlen(puser->scratch); /* incl. null */
        }
        else {                         /* no edge string, leave len=0 */
            if (err != GRAPH_NOT_FOUND) /* ..unexpected cause? */
                ERRMSG1("hwgraph_edge_get_next err %d", err);
        }
    }
}

/*****
| Set up the next attr label from the current vertex as the read data.
| If there is no next attr label, set up to return 0 bytes.
| This function is used for read() to the device /hw/snoop/attr.
|*****/
static void
val_attr(snoop_user_t *puser)
{
    graph_error_t err;
    arbitrary_info_t junk;

    if (puser->v_current != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) {
        err = hwgraph_info_get_next_LBL(
            puser->v_current,          /* in source vertex */
            puser->scratch,            /* out big buffer for string */
            &junk,                     /* don't want the info ptr */
            &puser->info_place);       /* inout scan position */
        if (!err) {                   /* we got a string... */
            puser->read_ptr = puser->scratch; /* ..set up as read data */
            puser->read_len = 1+strlen(puser->scratch); /* incl. null */
        }
        else {                         /* no edge string, leave len=0 */
            if (err != GRAPH_NOT_FOUND) /* ..unexpected cause? */
                ERRMSG1("hwgraph_info_get_next err %d\n", err);
        }
    }
}

```

```
/******  
| Set up the next inventory_t from the current vertex as the read data.  
| If there is no next data, set up to return 0 bytes.  
| This function is used for read() to the device /hw/snoop/hinv.  
|*****/  
static void  
val_hinv(snoop_user_t *puser)  
{  
    graph_error_t err;  
    inventory_t *invp;  
  
    if (puser->v_current != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) {  
        err = hwgraph_inventory_get_next(  
            puser->v_current,      /* in source vertex */  
            &puser->hinv_place,     /* inout scan position */  
            &invp );              /* out ->inventory_t */  
        if (!err) {  
            puser->read_ptr = (char*)invp;  
            puser->read_len = sizeof(inventory_t);  
        }  
        else {  
            /* no inv data, leave len=0 */  
            if (err != GRAPH_NOT_FOUND) /* ..unexpected cause? */  
                ERRMSG1("hwgraph_info_get_next err %d\n", err);  
        }  
    }  
}  
/******  
| At initialization time, create a char special device "/hw/snoop/<name>"  
| The <name> is "edge," "attr," or "hinv." v_snoop is the handle of the  
| master node, expected to be "/hw/snoop."  
|*****/>
```

```

static int
init_dev(char *name, vertex_hdl_t v_snoop, val_func func)
{
    graph_error_t err;
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = NULL;
    /*
    || See if the device already exists.
    */
    err = hwgraph_edge_get(v_snoop,name,&v_dev);
    if (err != GRAPH_SUCCESS) { /* it does not. create it. */
        err = hwgraph_char_device_add(
            v_snoop,          /* starting vertex */
            name,             /* path, in this case just a name */
            PREFIX_STRING,   /* our driver prefix */
            &v_dev);         /* out: new vertex */
        if (err) {
            ERRMSG2("char_device_add(%s) error %d",name,err);
            return err;
        }
        DBGMSG2("created device %s, vhdl 0x%x",name,v_dev);
    }
    else
        DBGMSG2("found device %s, vhdl 0x%x",name,v_dev);
    /*
    || The device vertex exists. See if it already contains a snoop_base_t
    || from a previous load. If the vertex was only just created,
    || this returns NULL and we need to allocate a base struct.
    */
    pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);
    if (!pbase) { /* no device info yet */
        pbase = kmem_zalloc(sizeof(*pbase),KM_SLEEP);
        if (!pbase) {
            ERRMSG0("failed to allocate base struct");
            return ENOMEM;
        }
        RW_INIT(&pbase->dev_lock, PREFIX_STRING);
    }
    DBGMSG1("    base struct at 0x%x",pbase);
    /*
    || This is a key step: on a reload, we must refresh the address
    || of the value function, which is different from when we last loaded.
    */
    pbase->vector = func;
    device_info_set(v_dev,pbase);
    return 0;
}

```

```

/*****
| At the pfx_init() entry point we establish our hwgraph presence
| consisting of three character special devices. The base path string
| is "/hw/snoop" by default, however we accept input from the
| driver-administration interface.
| Unload/reload issues: hwgraph_path_add and hwgraph_char_device_add do
| not return error codes when called to add an existing path! The only
| way to tell if our device paths exist already -- meaning we have been
| unloaded and reloaded -- is to test for them explicitly.
| *****/
int
PFX_INIT()
{
    int err;
    char * path;
    vertex_hdl_t v_snoop;
    char testpath[256];
    char * admin;
    admin = device_driver_admin_info_get(PREFIX_STRING,ADMIN_LABEL);
    if (admin)
        path = admin;
    else
        path = "/snoop";
    /*
    || The following call returns success when the requested path
    || exists already, or when the path can be created at this time.
    */
    err = hwgraph_path_add(
        GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE, /* start at /hw */
        path, /* this is the path */
        &v_snoop); /* put vertex there */
    DBGMSG2("adding path %s returns %d",path,err);
    if (!err) err = init_dev("edge",v_snoop,val_edge);
    if (!err) err = init_dev("attr",v_snoop,val_attr);
    if (!err) err = init_dev("hinv",v_snoop,val_hinv);
    return err;
}
/*****
| The pfx_start() entry point is only included to prove it is called.
| *****/
int
PFX_START()
{
    DBGMSG0("start() entry point called");
    return 0;
}

```

```

/*****
| The pfx_reg() entry point is only included to prove it is called.
| *****/
int
PFX_REG()
{
    DBGMSG0("reg() entry point called");
    return 0;
}
/*****
| The pfx_unload() entry point is not supposed to be called unless all
| uses of our devices have been closed and pfx_close called. That had
| better be right, because there is no convenient way for us at this time
| to double-check. If this was not a loadable driver, we could keep
| static pointers to our snoop_base_t structures, and a static count of
| open files, for that matter. However, static variables are zero'd
| following a reload. So those would only be good until the first
| unload/reload sequence.
| *****/
int
PFX_UNLOAD()
{
    DBGMSG0("unload() entry point called");
    return 0;
}
/*****
| At the pfx_open() entry point we allocate a work structure for the
| client process group, if possible. This requires getting a writer lock
| on the dev_lock. It is possible, in principle, for this entry point
| to be called while the init() entry point is still running, after the
| vertex has been created and before the device info has been stored.
| So in this entry point only, we check to make sure device info exists.
| *****/
int
PFX_OPEN(dev_t *devp, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp) {
    int ret;
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = (vertex_hdl_t)*devp;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);

    if (!pbase) return ENODEV;

    DBGMSG3("open(dev=0x%x, oflag=0x%x, otyp=0x%x...)",v_dev,oflag,otyp);
    RW_WRLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    ret = alloc_user(pbase);
    RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    return ret;
}

```

```

/*****
| The pfx_close() entry point is called only when >>all<< processes have
| closed a device. The entire user_list array can be cleared out and
| any remaining snoop_user structs freed.
| *****/
int
PFX_CLOSE(dev_t dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = (vertex_hdl_t)dev;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);
    unsigned j;

    DBGMSG2("close(dev=0x%x, %d opens)",v_dev,pbase->nopen);

    RW_WRLock(&pbase->dev_lock);
    for (j=0;j<MAX_PGID;++j) {
        if (pbase->user_list[j].user) {
            kmem_free(pbase->user_list[j].work,sizeof(snoop_user_t));
            pbase->user_list[j].user = 0;
            pbase->user_list[j].work = 0;
        }
    }
    pbase->nopen = 0;
    RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    return 0;
}
/*****
| The pfx_read() entry point finds some data by calling the one (of 3)
| scan functions appropriate to this device. If data is found, it is
| copied to the user buffer, up to min(data length, user buffer size).
| This function does not modify the snoop_base, so it needs only the
| reader lock. It does modify the snoop_user, so has to lock that because
| multiple user threads can read the same FD concurrently.
| *****/

```

```
int
PFX_READ(dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = (vertex_hdl_t)dev;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);
    snoop_user_t *puser;

    RW_RDLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock); /* block out open, close on device */
    puser = get_user(pbase);
    if (!puser) { /* very unlikely */
        DBGMSG0("reject read - no user");
        RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
        return EINVAL;
    }
    MUTEX_LOCK(&puser->use_lock,-1); /* block other threads from work area */
    DBGMSG2("read request %d bytes to 0x%x",
            uiop->uio_resid,uiop->uio_iov->iov_base);
    if (0 == puser->read_len) { /* need to rustle up some data */
        pbase->vector(puser);
    }
    if (puser->read_len) { /* we have some data (now) */
        int j, ret;
        j = (uiop->uio_resid>puser->read_len)?puser->read_len:uiop->uio_resid;
        ret = uiomove(puser->read_ptr,j,UIO_READ,uiop);
        if (0==ret) {
            puser->read_len -= j;
            puser->read_ptr += j;
            DBGMSG1("    moved %d bytes",j);
        }
        else {
            ERRMSG1("error %d from uiomove",ret);
        }
    }
    else {
        DBGMSG0("    no data available");
    }
    MUTEX_UNLOCK(&puser->use_lock);
    RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    return 0;
}
```

```

/*****
| The pfx_write() entry point accepts data into the scratch area. No matter
| what happens, the input scan on this user is going to be reset, so if
| there is residual data in the scratch area, it can be overwritten.
| All the write data is moved to scratch and treated as a hwgraph path.
| It can be absolute or relative to the current vertex. We traverse
| to that vertex and if it is found, make it the current vertex.
| *****/
int
PFX_WRITE(dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop, cred_t *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = (vertex_hdl_t)dev;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);
    snoop_user_t *puser;
    int ret = 0;
    int user_lock = 0;
    int len;

    RW_RDLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock); /* block out open, close on device */
    puser = get_user(pbase);
    if (!puser) { /* very unlikely */
        DBGMSG0("reject write - no user");
        ret = EINVAL;
    }
    if (!ret) { /* user (pgroup) is valid */
        len = uiop->uio_resid;
        DBGMSG2("write request %d bytes from 0x%x",
                len, uiop->uio_iov->iiov_base);
        if (len >= sizeof(puser->scratch)) {
            ret = ENOSPC;
            DBGMSG0(" rejected, path too long");
        }
        else if (!len) { /* write for 0 bytes? */
            ret = EINVAL;
            DBGMSG0(" rejected, 0 length");
        }
    }
    if (!ret) { /* data length is acceptable */
        MUTEX_LOCK(&puser->use_lock,-1); /* block others from work area */
        user_lock = 1; /* remember to unlock it */
        reset_scans(puser); /* now we lose scan positioning */
        ret = uiomove(puser->scratch,len,UIO_WRITE,uiop);
        if (0 == ret) {
            puser->scratch[len] = '\0'; /* terminate string */
        }
    }
}

```



```

        else { /* couldn't move it? */
            ERRMSG1("error %d from uiomove",ret);
        }
    }
    if (!ret) { /* path data has been copied */
        vertex_hdl_t v_end;
        char * path = puser->scratch;
        if (*path == '/') { /* absolute path */
            v_end = hwgraph_path_to_vertex(path);
            if (v_end == GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE)
                ret = GRAPH_NOT_FOUND;
        }
        else { /* relative path to current vertex */
            ret = hwgraph_traverse(puser->v_current,path,&v_end);
        }
        if (!ret) { /* v_end is a valid endpoint */
            (void)hwgraph_vertex_unref(puser->v_current);
            puser->v_current = v_end;
        }
        else {
            DBGMSG2("lookup (%s) = %d",puser->scratch,ret);
            ret = ESPIPE; /* "illegal seek" */
        }
    }
    if (user_lock)
        MUTEX_UNLOCK(&puser->use_lock);
    RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    return ret;
}
/*****
| the pfx_ioctl() entry point receives ioctl() calls. Cleverly, all the
| supported ioctl calls are designed to use no "arg" parameters, thus
| avoiding all questions of user ABI.
*****/
int
PFX_IOCTL(dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg, int mode, cred_t *crp, int *rvalp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t v_dev = (vertex_hdl_t)dev;
    snoop_base_t *pbase = device_info_get(v_dev);
    snoop_user_t *puser;
    vertex_hdl_t v_mast;
    int ret = 0;

    RW_RDLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock); /* block out open, close on device */
    puser = get_user(pbase);
    if (!puser) { /* very unlikely */

```

```
    DBGMSG0("reject ioctl - no user");
    RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
    return (*rvalp = EINVAL);
}
MUTEX_LOCK(&puser->use_lock,-1); /* block out other threads on file */
switch(cmd) {
    case IOCTL_MASTER_TEST: {
        /*
        || Request the master vertex and return either 0 or ENOENT.
        */
        v_mast = device_master_get(puser->v_current);
        if (v_mast == GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE)
            ret = ENOENT;
        DBGMSG1("IOCTL_MASTER_TEST: %d",ret);
        break;
    }
    case IOCTL_MASTER_GO: {
        /*
        || Request the master vertex and if we get it, make it current.
        */
        v_mast = device_master_get(puser->v_current);
        if (v_mast != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE) {
            hwgraph_vertex_unref(puser->v_current);
            reset_scans(puser);
            puser->v_current = v_mast;
        }
        else
            ret = ENOENT;
        DBGMSG1("IOCTL_MASTER_GO: %d",ret);
        break;
    }
    case IOCTL_VERTEX_GET: {
        /*
        || <arg> is a pointer to user space where we store a vertex handle.
        */
        if (copyout(&puser->v_current,arg,sizeof(puser->v_current)))
            ret = EINVAL;
        DBGMSG2("IOCTL_VERTEX_GET(0x%x): %d",arg,ret);
        break;
    }
    case IOCTL_VERTEX_SET: {
        /*
        || <arg> is a pointer to a vertex handle in user memory,
        || hopefully one retrieved with IOCTL_VERTEX_GET.
        || Use hwgraph_vertex_ref() for a quick validity check,
        || and make it the current vertex.
        */

```

```

vertex_hdl_t temp;
if (copyin(arg,&temp,sizeof(temp)))
    ret = EINVAL;
if (!ret) { /* copy was ok */
    ret = hwgraph_vertex_ref(temp);
    if (ret==GRAPH_SUCCESS) { /* it's a real vertex */
        (void) hwgraph_vertex_unref(puser->v_current);
        puser->v_current = temp;
        ret = 0;
    }
    else { /* bogus */
        DBGMSG2("vertex_ref(%d) -> %d",temp,ret);
        ret = EINVAL;
    }
}
DBGMSG2("IOCTL_VERTEX_SET(0x%x): %d",arg,ret);
break;
}
case IOCTL_PATH_READ: {
/*
|| Request the "canonical name" of the current vertex. There are
|| cases in which that name cannot be formed, in which event we
|| return EBADF (seems logical). Otherwise, we reset the input
|| scan and set the new path as the input. The pfx_read() entry
|| will return this data until it is consumed.
|| This function has to reset the scans because it has to use
|| the generous puser->scratch buffer. The alternative is to
|| allocate an equally generous work area on the stack, and to
|| copy the result to scratch only when hwgraph_vertex_name_get
|| succeeds. However, one, it almost always succeeds, and two,
|| that would use too much driver stack space.
*/
    reset_scans(puser); /* ensure no pending data in scratch */
    ret = hwgraph_vertex_name_get(
        puser->v_current,puser->scratch,sizeof(puser->scratch));
    if (!ret) {
        puser->read_ptr = puser->scratch;
        puser->read_len = 1+strlen(puser->scratch);
    }
    else { /* cannot work out path for current */
        DBGMSG1("hwgraph_vertex_name_get ret %d",ret);
        ret = EBADF;
    }
    DBGMSG1("IOCTL_PATH_READ: %d",ret);
    break;
}
case IOCTL_CLOSING: {

```

```

/*
|| The client process (on behalf of its pgroup) promises to close
|| this device, permitting us to dispose of its work area in
|| advance of a call to pfx_close(), which only comes when all
|| clients close their files.
|| In order to free the work area we must be sure not only that
|| no other process is using it, but that no other process is
|| waiting on its lock! Do that by releasing both locks and
|| getting the base lock as Writer. However, in the interval
|| after releasing the lock, strange things could happen!
*/
pid_t pgroup = get_pgroup();
int index_now = get_user_index(pbase, pgroup);
int gen_now = pbase->user_list[index_now].generation;
int index_then;

MUTEX_UNLOCK(&puser->use_lock);
RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
/*
|| Right here, another thread of the pgroup could call this
|| operation and complete it, leaving us holding a stale puser.
|| Even stranger, it could then CLOSE the device and
|| reOPEN it, ending up in a different, or even in the SAME,
|| slot of user_list.
*/
RW_WRLock(&pbase->dev_lock); /* block all other use of dev */
index_then = get_user_index(pbase, pgroup);
if ((gen_now == pbase->user_list[index_now].generation)
&& (index_now == index_then)) { /* no races going on */
    kmem_free(puser, sizeof(snoop_user_t));
    pbase->user_list[index_now].user = 0;
    pbase->user_list[index_now].work = NULL;
    puser = NULL; /* don't try to unlock, it's gone... */
}
else
    ret=EBUSY;
DBGMSG1("IOCTL_CLOSING: %d", ret);
break;
}
default: {
    ret = EINVAL;
}
}
if (puser) /* not IOCTL_CLOSING */
    MUTEX_UNLOCK(&puser->use_lock);

```

```

RW_UNLOCK(&pbase->dev_lock);
return (*rvalp = ret);
}

```

User Program Source

```

/*
|   usnoop [snoop_path]
|
| Elementary unit-test of the snoop_ device driver.
|
| 1. Open all three /hw/snoop devices. Use snoop_path, if given,
|    as the base path to the edge, attr, and hinv devices.
| 2. In a loop:
|    a. Prompt the user for a path. Quit on null input.
|    b. Use write() to position the edge device to the given path.
|    c. Use ioctl to position the other two devices to that vertex.
|    d. Use read() on all 3 and dump the results.
*/
#include <stdio.h>
#include <errno.h> /* for errno */
#include <sys/types.h> /* for vertex_hdl_t */
#include <sys/stat.h> /* wanted by open */
#include <fcntl.h> /* open */
#include <unistd.h> /* for read, write */
#include <invent.h> /* for inventory_t */
#include "snoop.h" /* KERNEL is not defined */
#define SNOOPATH "/hw/snoop/"
#define BIG 65536
#define FAIL(x) {perror(x);fflush(stderr);return errno;}
static int edgeFD, attrFD, hinvFD; /* FD's of three devices */
int open3(char *snoop)
{ /* open all three special devices, store FD's */
    int ret;
    char snoopath[256];

    sprintf(snoopath,"%s/%s",snoop,"edge");
    edgeFD = open(snoopath, O_RDWR);
    if (-1 == edgeFD) FAIL("open edge");
    sprintf(snoopath,"%s/%s",snoop,"attr");
    attrFD = open(snoopath, O_RDWR);
    if (-1 == attrFD) FAIL("open attr");
    sprintf(snoopath,"%s/%s",snoop,"hinv");
    hinvFD = open(snoopath, O_RDWR);

```

```
    if (-1 == hinvFD) FAIL("open hinv");
    return 0;
}
int point3(char *hwpath)
{ /* position all 3 device FD's at the given path */
    int ret;
    unsigned long long v_targ;
    int len = strlen(hwpath); /* assumes nonzero length */
    ret = write(edgeFD,hwpath,len);
    if (-1 == ret) FAIL("write edge");
    /* read back the vhandle of each device - to see if we can */
    ret = ioctl(edgeFD,IOCTL_VERTEX_GET,&v_targ);
    if (ret) FAIL("ioctl(edge,IOCTL_VERTEX_GET)");
    ret = ioctl(attrFD,IOCTL_VERTEX_SET,&v_targ);
    if (ret) FAIL("ioctl(attr,IOCTL_VERTEX_SET)");
    ret = ioctl(hinvFD,IOCTL_VERTEX_SET,&v_targ);
    if (ret) FAIL("ioctl(hinv,IOCTL_VERTEX_SET)");
    return 0;
}
int dump3()
{ /* read all data from all 3 device FD's and display */
    int ret;
    int len;
    inventory_t *i;
    char buf[BIG];
    /* Read & display canonical path of current vertex */
    ret = ioctl(edgeFD,IOCTL_PATH_READ);
    if (ret) FAIL("ioctl(edge,IOCTL_PATH_READ)");
    puts("\nPath read:");
    len = read(edgeFD,buf,BIG);
    if (-1 == len) FAIL("read edge path");
    puts(buf);
    puts("\nEdges:");
    do { /* display all edges from current vertex */
        len = read(edgeFD,buf,BIG);
        if (-1 == len) FAIL("read edge");
        if (len) puts(buf);
    } while (len);
    puts("\nAttrs:");
    do { /* display all labelled attributes at this vertex */
        len = read(attrFD,buf,BIG);
        if (-1 == len) FAIL("read attr");
        if (len) puts(buf);
    } while (len);
    puts("\nHinv:");
```

```
do { /* dump all inventory records at this vertex */
    len = read(hinvFD,buf,BIG);
    if (-1 == len) FAIL("read hinv");
    if (len)
    {
        i = (inventory_t *)&buf[0];
        printf("class:%d type%d controller:%d unit:%d state:%d\n",
            i->inv_class,i->inv_type,i->inv_controller,i->inv_unit,i->inv_state);
    }
} while(len);
return 0;
}
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int ret = 0;
    char ans[256];
    ret = open3((argc>1)?argv[1]:SNOOPATH);
    while (0==ret)
    {
        printf("enter path: ");
        gets(ans);
        if (0==strlen(ans)) break;
        ret = point3(ans);
        if (!ret) ret = dump3();
    }
    return ret;
}
```


PART FOUR

VME Device Drivers

Chapter 12, "VME Device Attachment on Origin 2000/Onyx2"

How the VME bus is configured in different Silicon Graphics systems.

Chapter 13, "Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2"

Kernel functions available specifically to VME device drivers.

Chapter 14, "VME Device Attachment on Challenge/Onyx."

How the VME bus is configured in different Silicon Graphics systems.

Chapter 15, "Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx"

Kernel functions available specifically to VME device drivers.

VME Device Attachment on Origin 2000/Onyx2

This chapter describes IRIX 6.5 VME support for Origin2000 and Onyx2 systems. For information on VME drivers on Challenge and ONYX systems, refer to This chapter gives a high-level overview of the VME bus, and describes how the VME bus is attached to an Origin2000 or Onyx2 system and how it is configured.

Note: This chapter has no information about VME in Challenge and Onyx systems. For those systems, refer to Chapter 14, “VME Device Attachment on Challenge/Onyx,” and Chapter 15, “Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx.”

This chapter contains important details on VME operation if you are writing a kernel-level VME device driver. It contains useful background information if you plan to control a VME device from a user-level program.

- “Overview of the VME Bus” on page 328 summarizes the history and features of the VME bus architecture.
- “About VME Bus Attachment” on page 330 gives a conceptual overview of how VME support is provided in all Silicon Graphics systems that have it.
- “About VME Bus Addresses and System Addresses” on page 334 describes the important relationship between addresses on the VME bus and addresses in the physical address space of the system.
- “About VME in the Origin2000” on page 337 documents the hardware details of the VME implementation on Origin2000 and Origin200 systems.
- “Configuring VME Devices” on page 342 tells how to configure a device so that IRIX 6.4 can recognize it and initialize its device driver.

More information about VME device control appears in these chapters:

- Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices,” covers PIO and DMA access from the user process.
- Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2,” discusses the kernel services used by a kernel-level VME device driver, and contains an example.

Overview of the VME Bus

The VME bus was standardized in the early 1980s. It was designed as a flexible interconnection between multiple master and slave devices using a variety of address and data precisions. While VME is not the fastest bus design available, its well-defined protocols, comparatively low signaling speeds, and ample board dimensions make it an easy bus to design for, whether to create intelligent I/O devices or special-purpose and one-off interfaces. As a result, VME has become a popular standard bus used in a variety of general-purpose and embedded products.

In its original applications, the VME bus was used as the primary system bus, with a CPU card as the principal (or only) bus master. In Silicon Graphics systems, however, the VME bus is treated as an I/O device—it is never the main system bus.

VME History

The VME bus descends from the VERSAbus, a bus design published by Motorola, Inc., in 1980 to support the needs of the MC68000 line of microprocessors. The bus timing relationships and some signal names still reflect this heritage, although the VME bus is used by devices from many manufacturers today.

The original VERSAbus design specified a large form factor for pluggable cards. Because of this, it was not popular with European designers. A bus with a smaller form factor but similar functions and electrical specifications was designed for European use, and promoted by Motorola, Phillips, Thompson, and other companies. This was the VersaModule European, or VME, bus. Beginning with rev B of 1982, the bus quickly became an accepted standard. (For ordering information on the standards documents, see “Standards Documents” on page xl.)

VME Features

A VME bus is a set of parallel conductors that interconnect multiple processing devices. The devices can exchange data in units of 8, 16, 32 or 64 bits during a bus cycle.

VME Address Spaces

Each VME device associates itself with a range of bus addresses. A bus address has either 16, 24, 32, or 64 bits of precision. Each width of address forms a separate address space.

That is, the same numeric value can refer to one device in the 24-bit address space, and to a different device in the 32-bit address space. Typically, a device operates in only one address space, but some devices can be configured to respond to addresses in multiple spaces.

Each VME bus cycle contains the bits of an address. The address is qualified by sets of address-modifier bits that specify the following:

- the address space (A16, A24, A32, or A64)
- whether the operation is single or a block transfer
- whether the access is to what, in the MC68000 architecture, would be data or code, in a supervisor or user area. Silicon Graphics systems support only data area transactions, supervisor-data or user-data.

Master and Slave Devices

Each VME device acts as either a bus master or a bus slave. Typically a bus master is a programmable device with a microprocessor—for example, a disk controller. A slave device is typically a nonprogrammable device like a memory board or set of A/D inputs.

Each data transfer is initiated by a master device. The master

- asserts ownership of the bus
- specifies the address modifier bits for the transfer, including the address space, single/block mode, and supervisor/normal mode
- specifies the address for the transfer
- specifies the data unit size for the transfer (8, 16, 32 or 64 bits)
- specifies the direction of the transfer with respect to the master

The VME bus design permits multiple master devices to exist on the bus, and provides a hardware-based arbitration system so that they can share the bus in alternation.

A slave device responds to a master when the master specifies one of the slave's addresses. The addressed slave accepts data, or provides data, as directed.

VME Transactions

The VME design allows for four types of data transfer bus cycles:

- A read cycle returns data from the slave to the master.
- A write cycle sends data from the master to the slave.
- A read-modify-write cycle takes data from the slave, and on the following bus cycle sends it back to the same address, possibly altered.
- A block-transfer transaction sends multiple data units to adjacent addresses in a burst of consecutive bus cycles.

The VME design also allows for interrupts. A device can raise an interrupt on any of seven *interrupt levels*. The interrupt is acknowledged by a bus master. The bus master interrogates the interrupting device in an interrupt-acknowledge bus cycle, and the device returns an interrupt vector number.

In Silicon Graphics systems, VME interrupts are received by the VME controller. If the controller has been configured by a VECTOR statement (see “Entry Point edtinit()” in Chapter 7) to handle a given interrupt level, it acknowledges the interrupt and sends an interrupt to one of the CPUs in the system.

If the controller has not been configured to acknowledge an interrupt level, the interrupt level is ignored and can be handled by another device on the VME bus.

About VME Bus Attachment

The VME bus was designed as the system backplane for a workstation, supporting one or more CPU modules along with the memory and I/O modules they used. However, no Silicon Graphics computer uses the VME bus as the system backplane. In all Silicon Graphics computers, the main system bus that connects CPUs to memory is a proprietary bus design. The VME bus is attached to the system as an I/O device.

This section provides a conceptual overview of the design of the VME bus in any Silicon Graphics system. It is sufficient background for most users of VME devices. A more detailed look at the hardware follows in later topics

The VME Bus Controller

A VME bus controller is attached to the system bus to act as a bridge between the system bus and the VME bus. This arrangement is shown in Figure 12-1.

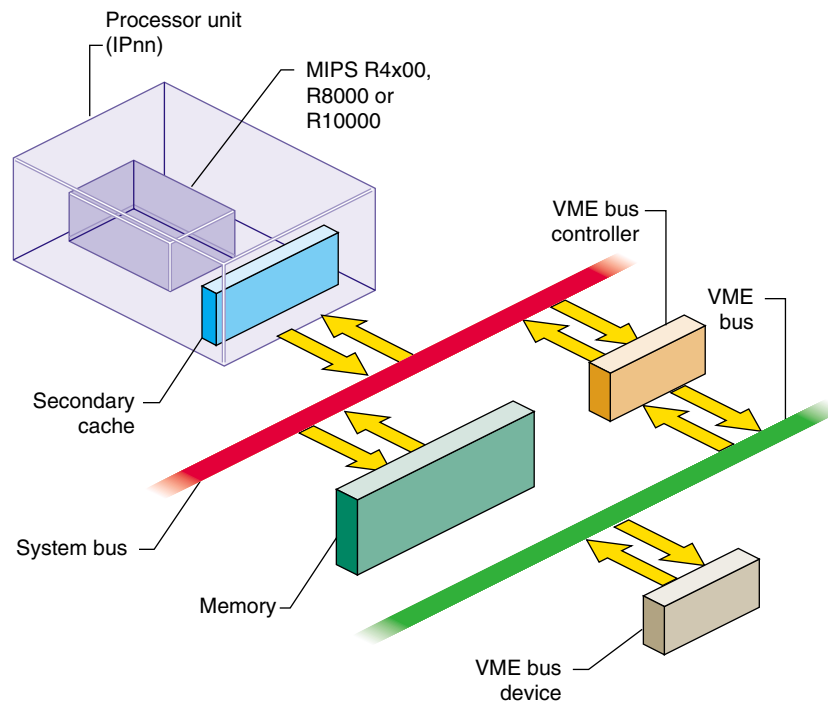


Figure 12-1 Relationship of VME Bus to System Bus

On the Silicon Graphics system bus, the VME bus controller acts as an I/O device. On the VME bus, the bus controller acts as a VME bus master.

The VME controller has several tasks. Its most important task is mapping—that is, translating—some range of physical addresses in the Silicon Graphics system address space to a range of VME bus addresses. The VME controller performs a variety of other duties for different kinds of VME access.

VME PIO Operations

During programmed I/O (PIO) to the VME bus, software in the CPU loads or stores the contents of CPU registers to a device on the VME bus. The operation of a CPU load from a VME device register is as follows:

1. The CPU executes a load from a system physical address.
2. The physical address is placed on a system bus.
3. The VME controller recognizes the address as one of those it has been programmed to map.
4. The VME controller translates the system address to an address in one of the VME bus address spaces.
5. Acting as a VME bus master, the VME bus controller starts a read cycle on the VME bus, using the translated address.
6. A device on the VME bus responds to the VME address and returns data.
7. The VME controller initiates a system bus cycle to return the data packet to the CPU, thus completing the load operation.

A store to a VME device is similar except that it performs a VME bus write, and no data is returned.

PIO Latency and R10000 Execution

PIO input and output are fundamentally different in the following way: PIO input requires two system bus cycles—one to request the data and one to return it—separated by the cycle time of the VME bus. PIO output takes only one system bus cycle, and the VME bus write cycle run concurrently with the next system bus cycle. As a result, PIO input always takes at least twice as much time as PIO output.

The MIPS R10000 CPU has the ability to execute instructions out of sequence, leaving a memory-load operation pending while executing the instructions that logically follow it, provided that those instructions do not depend on the loaded data. PIO input requires a microsecond or more, a time during which an R10000 can execute 200 or more instructions. An R10000 can execute many instructions following a PIO load before the CPU has to stall and wait for the PIO data to arrive.

In a similar way, the R10000 CPU can execute hundreds of instructions after the beginning of a PIO write, concurrently with the output operation.

VME DMA Operations

A VME device that can act as a bus master can perform DMA into system memory. The general sequence of operations in this case is as follows:

1. The device driver allocates a DMA map object to represent the operation. When the kernel creates the DMA map, it programs the VME controller to map a certain range of VME bus addresses to a range of system memory locations.
2. The device driver uses PIO to program the device registers of the VME device, instructing it to perform DMA to the assigned range of VME bus address for a specified length of data.
3. The VME bus master device initiates the first read, write, block-read, or block-write cycle on the VME bus.
4. The VME controller, recognizing a mapped address, responds as a slave device on the VME bus.
5. If the bus master is writing, the VME controller accepts the data and initiates a system bus cycle to write the data to system memory at the mapped address.
If the bus master is reading, the VME controller uses a system bus cycle to read data from system memory, and returns the data to the bus master.
6. The bus master device continues to use the VME controller as a slave device until it has completed the DMA transfer.

During a DMA transaction, the VME bus controller operates independently of any CPU. CPUs in the system execute software concurrently with the data transfer. Since the system bus is faster than the VME bus, the data transfer typically takes place at the maximum data rate that the VME bus master can sustain.

Operation of the DMA Engine

In the Origin2000 and Onyx2 systems (and in the Challenge and Onyx lines), the VME controller contains an additional “DMA Engine” that can be programmed to perform DMA-type transfers between memory and a VME device that is a slave, not a bus master. The general course of operations in a DMA engine transfer is as follows:

1. The VME bus controller is programmed to perform a DMA transfer to a certain physical memory address for a specified amount of data from a specified device address in VME address space.
2. The VME bus controller, acting as the VME bus master, initiates a block read or block write to the specified device.
3. As the slave device responds to successive VME bus cycles, the VME bus controller transfers data to or from memory using the system bus.

The DMA engine transfers data independently of any CPU, and at the maximum rate the VME bus slave can sustain. In addition, the VME controller collects smaller data units into blocks of the full system bus width, minimizing the number of system bus cycles needed to transfer data. For both these reasons, DMA engine transfers are faster than PIO transfers for all but very short transfer lengths. (For details, see “DMA Engine Bandwidth” on page 72.)

About VME Bus Addresses and System Addresses

Devices on the VME bus exist in one of the following address spaces:

- The 16-bit space (A16) permits addresses from 0x0000 to 0xffff.
- The 24-bit space (A24) permits addresses from 0x00 0000 to 0xff ffff.
- The 32-bit space (A32) permits addresses 0x0000 0000 to 0xffff ffff.
- The 64-bit space (A64), defined in the revision D specification, uses 64-bit addresses.

The Silicon Graphics system bus uses 64-bit numbers to address memory and other I/O devices on the system bus (discussed in Chapter 1). Much of the physical address space is used to address system memory. Portions of physical address space are set aside dynamically to represent VME addresses. Parts of the VME address spaces are mapped, that is, translated, into these ranges of physical addresses.

The translation is performed by the VME bus controller: It is programmed to recognize certain ranges of addresses on the system bus and translate them into VME bus addresses; and it recognizes certain VME bus addresses and translates them into physical addresses on the system bus.

The entire A32 or A64 address space cannot be mapped into the physical address space. No Silicon Graphics system can provide access to all VME address spaces at one time. Only parts of the VME address spaces are available at any time. The limits on how many addresses can be mapped at any time are different in different architectures.

User-Level and Kernel-Level Addressing

In a user-level program you can perform PIO and certain types of DMA operations (see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices”). You call on the services of a kernel-level device driver to map a portion of VME address space into the address space of your process. The requested segment of VME space is mapped dynamically to a segment of your user-level address space—a segment that can differ from one run of the program to the next.

In a kernel-level device driver, you request mappings for both PIO and DMA operations using *maps*—software objects that represent a mapping between kernel virtual memory and a range of VME bus addresses.

Note: The remainder of this chapter has direct meaning only for kernel-level drivers.

PIO Addressing and DMA Addressing

The addressing needs of PIO access and DMA access are different.

PIO deals in small amounts of data, typically single words. PIO is directed to device registers that are identified with specific VME bus addresses. The association between a device register and its VME address is fixed, typically by setting jumpers or switches on the VME card.

DMA deals with extended segments of kilobytes or megabytes. The addresses used in DMA are not fixed in the device, but are programmed into it just before the data transfer begins. For example, a disk controller can be programmed to read a certain disk sector and write the sector data to a range of 512 consecutive bytes in the VME bus address space. The programming of the disk controller is done by storing numbers into its registers using PIO. While the registers respond only to fixed addresses that are configured into the board, the address for sector data is just a number that is programmed into the controller before a transfer is to start.

These are the key differences between PIO addresses and addresses used for DMA:

- PIO addresses are relatively few in number and cover small spans of data, while DMA addresses can span large ranges of data.
- PIO addresses are closely related to the hardware architecture of the device and are configured by hardware or firmware, while DMA addresses are simply parameters programmed into the device before each operation.

In systems supported by IRIX 6.4, all mappings from VME address spaces to system physical memory are dynamic, assigned as needed. Kernel functions are provided to create and use map objects that represent the translation between designated VME addresses and kernel addresses (described in detail in Chapter 13, "Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2").

An Origin2000 system can support a maximum of five VME bus adapters per module. Although a system can comprise numerous modules, there is also a limit of five VME bus adapters, total, per system.

Available PIO Addresses

Normally a VME card can be programmed to use different VME addresses for PIO, based on jumper or switch settings on the card. Each device plugged into a single VME bus must be configured to use unique addresses. Errors that are hard to diagnose can arise when multiple cards respond to the same bus address. Devices on different VME buses can of course use the same addresses.

Not all parts of each address space are accessible. The accessible parts are summarized in Table 12-1.

Table 12-1 Accessible VME PIO Addresses on Any Bus

Address Space	Origin2000 Systems	Challenge and Onyx Systems
A16	All	All
A24	0x80 0000–0xFE 0000	0x80 0000–0xFF FFFF
A32	0x0000 0000–0x7FFF FFFF	0x0000 0000–0x7FFF FFFF

There are additional limits on the maximum size of any single PIO map and limits on the aggregate size of all maps per bus. These limits differ between the Origin2000 and the Challenge architectures; the details are given in the discussion of allocating maps.

In general, however, when configuring the devices on a bus, it is best if you can locate all device registers in a single, relatively compact, range of addresses. This economizes on kernel resources used for mapping.

Available DMA Addresses

When you program a bus master to perform DMA, you load it with a starting target address in one of the VME address spaces, and a length. This address and length is dynamically mapped to a corresponding range of memory addresses. You can obtain a map to memory for a range of addresses in any of the A16, A24, or A32 data address spaces.

The A64 address space is not available for either PIO or DMA on Origin2000 or Onyx2 systems.

About VME in the Origin2000

In the Origin2000 (including Origin Deskside) and Onyx2 systems, external I/O is provided through the XIO interface. The VME bus and adapter is an external I/O device interfaced through one XIO slot. A typical installation is shown in Figure 12-2.

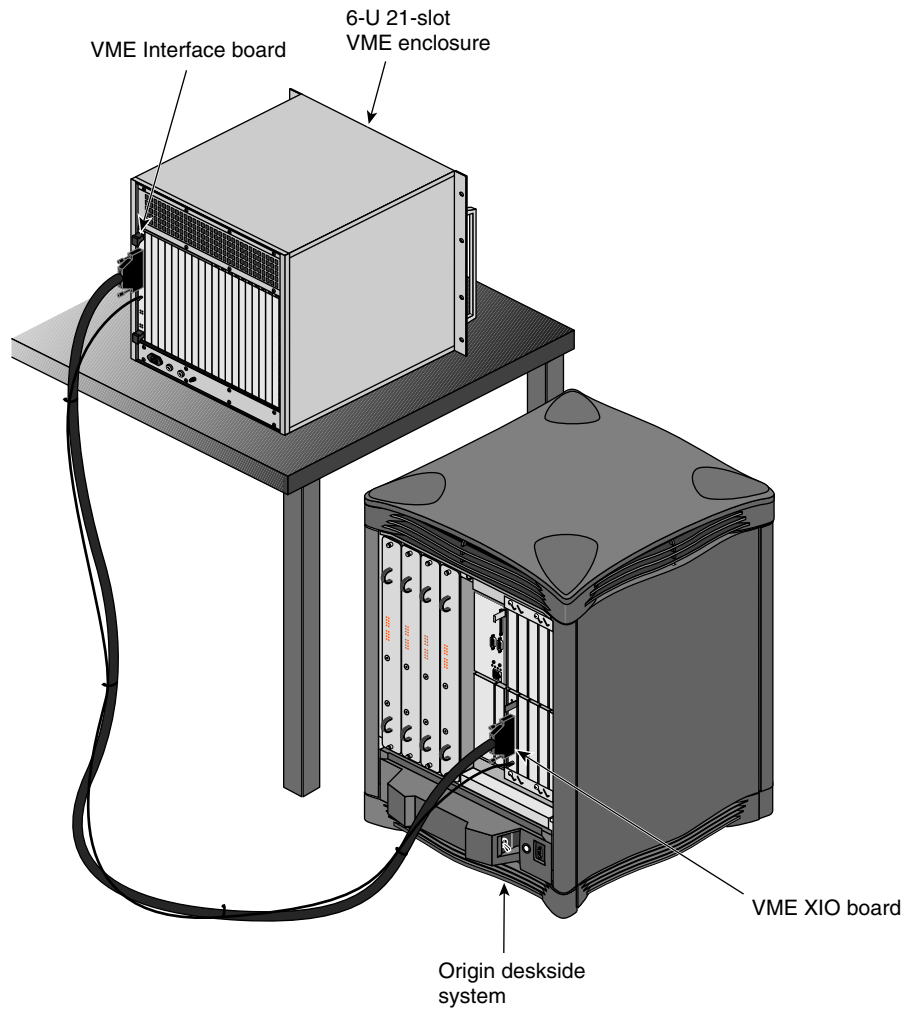


Figure 12-2 VME Bus Enclosure and Cable to an Origin2000 Deskside

For more information about the external features, options, and availability of the VME Expansion unit, you can consult one of these sources:

Marketing Information <http://www.sgi.com/Products/software/REACT/vme.html>

Owner's Guide *VME Option Owner's Guide*, document number 007-3618-*mm*

About the VME Controller

The VME controller for Origin2000 is physically located on a VME board plugged into the VME bus enclosure. It is logically connected to the system as shown in Figure 12-3.

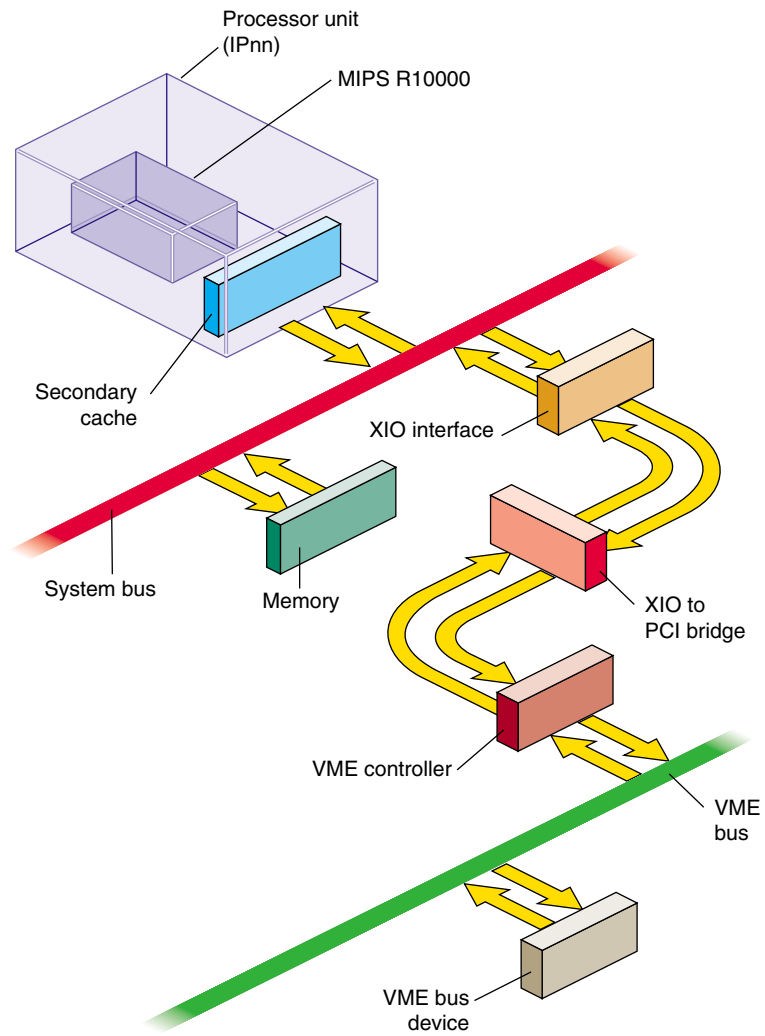


Figure 12-3 VME Bus Connection to System Bus

As suggested by Figure 12-3, data to and from the VME bus passes through multiple layers of bus protocols. For example, on a PIO write from the CPU to a VME device, the following functional units are involved:

1. The CPU sends a word to a physical memory address. In the Origin2000 architecture, physical addressing is managed by the Hub chip on the node board (not shown). The Hub chip directs the word to the XIO interface.
2. The XIO interface passes the word down the Craylink cable (see Figure 12-2) to the VME controller board, which is a VME 6U or 9U card mounted in the card cage.
3. On the VME controller board, an XIO-to-PCI converter called a Bridge chip. The transaction is converted to a PCI bus write.
4. The sole device on the PCI bus is the VME controller chip, a PCI-to-VME bridge chip.
5. The VME controller operates the signal and data lines of the VME enclosure to execute a write the desired VME address

Universe II Controller Chip

The VME controller chip is a PCI-to-VME bridge named the Universe II, produced by Tundra Semiconductor Corporation (<http://www.tundra.com>).

Universe II Features

The Universe II contains:

- FIFO buffers for asynchronous staging of data between the two buses.
- Mapping registers for translating VME bus addresses.
- A DMA engine comparable to the DMA engine in the Challenge systems, with the added ability to handle linked lists of data (scatter/gather). This engine is accessible only to user-level processes through the *udmalib* interface.
- The ability to pack and unpack multiple D8, D16 and D32 data units from 64-bit PCI data words.

It is important to note that although the data path spans three different bus protocols and multiple bus controller chips, *none* of these controllers are directly accessible to a VME device driver. The device driver calls on the kernel to create software objects called maps, either PIO maps or DMA maps. When the kernel creates a map, it sets up all the multiple

layers of hardware needed to implement that map. The driver uses the map to obtain physical addresses that can be used as if they were wired directly to the VME bus. All the layers of protocol translation between memory and the VME device are transparent to the device driver.

Kernel Settings of Universe II Registers

In the event you possess the Tundra Corp Data book describing the Universe II, the settings of important Universe II control registers is listed in Table 12-2. This table is provided for information only. The Universe II registers are loaded by the kernel VME support, and none of these settings is accessible to the device driver. Also, this information is subject to change from release to release.

Table 12-2 Universe II Register Settings

Register	Field	Purpose	Setting
MAST_CTL	PWON	Max posted write length	4096
MAST_CTL	VRL	VMEbus Request Level	3
MAST_CTL	VRM	VMEbus Request Mode	demand
MAST_CTL	VREL	VMEbus Release Mode	On-request
MAST_CTL	VOWN	VME ownership	n.a.
MAST_CTL	PABS	PCI Burst Size	128 bytes
MISC_CTL	VBTO	Vmebus timeout	64us
MISC_CTL	VARB	VMEbus arbitration type	priority
MISC_CTL	VARBTO	VMEbus arbitration timeout	16us
MISC_CTL	RESCIND	VMEbus DTACK* release	rescind
MISC_CTL	SYSCON	Universe is system controller at power-up	on
MISC_CTL	V64AUTO	Auto slot ID	n.a.

Configuring VME Devices

You (or the system administrator) must configure a VME bus and device to the IRIX system in order to direct interrupts and to associate each VME device with its device driver. In order to configure the bus you need to know how VME devices are represented in the hardware graph (see “Hardware Graph” on page 42).

VME Bus and Interrupt Naming

Each VME bus is entered into the IRIX hardware graph during bootstrap, as a connection point for devices and as a source of interrupts.

VME Bus Paths in the Hardware Graph

The actual hardware graph path to a VME bus has this form:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/
```

The integer *mod* is the number of the Origin module to which the VME option is attached. Vertex *ion* designates the XIO slot to which the VME option is cabled.

The hwgraph vertex named *vmebus* represents the VME controller. Vertexes for devices on the bus are found under that vertex.

A convenience path is also created for each bus in the form:

```
/hw/vme/b/
```

VME Bus Numbers Assigned by *ioconfig*

The bus number *b* is assigned by the *ioconfig* command (see “Using *ioconfig* for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51). The number *b* is arbitrarily assigned the first time *ioconfig* runs after a VME option is added to the system. The first VME bus must be number 1 (not 0).

The bus numbers as assigned are recorded in the *ioconfig* database file */etc/ioconfig.config* (see “Configuration Control File” on page 53). The administrator can edit that file to change the numbering, for example to force a certain bus to be number 1.

VME Bus Interrupt Level Names

In order to direct VME bus interrupt levels to specified CPUs, you need to be able to name the interrupt levels of a bus. For this purpose, the kernel creates names of the following form in the hwgraph:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/ipl/i
```

Seven of these names appear under each *vmebus* vertex, with *i* ranging from 1 to 7. Each vertex represents one VME bus interrupt priority level. The same vertexes are accessible under the convenience names

```
/hw/vme/b/ipl/i
```

You can use either of these pathnames in a `DEVICE_ADMIN` command to direct VME interrupts.

Directing VME Interrupts

VME interrupts are handled in two phases. The first phase, which executes at a high priority and is extremely quick, involves acknowledging the interrupt and locating the device driver interrupt handler that should be notified. In the second phase, the device driver's specified handler executes as an independent thread (see "Handling VME Interrupts" on page 365).

The first phase of processing executes on the CPU to which the interrupt is directed by hardware. When nothing is done, all interrupts from a VME bus controller are directed to CPU 0 in the Origin module to which the VME bus is attached.

The system administrator can use the `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement to direct VME interrupts to a specific CPU. The `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement is placed in a file in the `/var/sysgen/system` directory, possibly (but not necessarily) `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm`. The form of the statement to direct interrupts is:

```
DEVICE_ADMIN: device_path INTR_TARGET=cpu_path
```

The *device_path* is the hwgraph path specifying one of the VME interrupt levels for a bus (see "VME Bus and Interrupt Naming" on page 342). The *cpu_path* is the hwgraph path that specifies a CPU. For example, to send VME level-7 interrupts from the first VME bus to CPU 12, you could write

```
DEVICE_ADMIN: /hw/vme/1/ipl/7 INTR_TARGET=/hw/cpunum/12
```

Although there are seven VME interrupt levels, only six unique redirections of this type can be supported for any VME bus. In other words, you can direct the seven levels to at most six different CPUs. You must send at least two levels to the same CPU. (Typically you direct all the levels to a single CPU.)

The `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement directs interrupt detection. The device driver itself specifies the CPU in which the interrupt handler code executes. By default this is the same CPU where detection takes place.

VME Device Naming

VME devices are entered as vertexes in the hwgraph while the `VECTOR` statements are processed during system startup. The kernel creates a vertex for each device with the following form:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/assm/addr/
```

The vertex shown here as *assm* is the name of the VME address space, one of *a16s*, *a16n*, *a24s*, *a24n*, *a32s*, or *a32n*. The vertex *addr* is the primary address of the device, from its `VECTOR` statement. The address is in hexadecimal digits with leading zeros suppressed. For example, a device located at 0x00108000 in the A32 non-supervisory space would appear in the hwgraph as

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/a32n/108000
```

The same vertex appears also under the convenience vertex for that bus:

```
/hw/vme/b/a32n/108000
```

This kernel-created vertex is the “connection point” that is passed to the device driver when the driver is called to initialize the device. The device driver is allowed (encouraged) to create additional vertexes with more meaningful names (the initialization process is described under “Initializing a VME Device” on page 352).

Defining VME Devices with the VECTOR Statement

Devices on the VME bus do not identify themselves to the system automatically (as devices on the PCI bus do). You must tell IRIX that a device exists, or should exist. You do this using the `VECTOR` statement. The `VECTOR` statement is placed in a file in the directory `/var/sysgen/system` (see “Kernel Configuration Files” on page 56). For VME, the syntax of the `VECTOR` statement is as follows:

```
VECTOR: bustype=VME module=modname [ adapter=b [ ctrl=c ] ]
      [ ipl=i ] [ vector=v ]
      iospace= (AnnM,addr,size)
      [ iospace2= (AnnM,addr,size) ]
      [ iospace3= (AnnM,addr,size) ]
      [ exprobe= ( (cmd,paddr,width,value,mask) [, ...] ]
```

The variable elements of this statement, in order of appearance, are as follows:

<i>modname</i>	Name of the configuration file for the device driver for this type of device (see “Master Configuration Database” on page 55).
<i>b</i>	Number of the VME bus as assigned by ioconfig (see “VME Bus and Interrupt Naming” on page 342)
<i>c</i>	Arbitrary number to distinguish this device to the driver.
<i>i</i>	Interrupt priority level used by this device, if it produces interrupts.
<i>v</i>	Interrupt vector value returned by this device, when that is known (some devices are dynamically configured with vector numbers by the driver).
<i>AnnM</i>	Name of the address space used by this device, one of A16S, A16NP, A24S, A24NP, A32S, A32NP
<i>addr</i>	Lowest address in a range of addresses used by the device.
<i>size</i>	Number of bytes in the range of addresses.
<i>cmd</i>	Probe command, either w meaning write, r meaning read and test equal, or rn meaning read and test not-equal.
<i>paddr</i>	Address to probe (in the address space given by <i>iospace</i>).
<i>width</i>	The width of data to read or write in the probe: 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes.
<i>value</i>	A value to be written, or to be compared to the data returned by read.
<i>mask</i>	A mask to be ANDed with the value before writing, or to be ANDed with the data returned by a read before comparison.

Numeric values (variables *b*, *c*, *i*, *v*, *nn*, *addr*, *size*, *paddr*, *width*, *value* and *mask*) can be written in decimal, or in hexadecimal with a prefix of “0x.”

Note: The VECTOR statement is written as a single physical line in a text file. In this book, VECTOR statements are broken across multiple lines for readability. Do not break a VECTOR statement across multiple text lines in a configuration file.

Example VME Configuration

As an example, imagine you have two VME boards on the bus numbered 1, with these features:

- Reside in the A32NP address space at a start address of 0x001008000 and 0x00108020 respectively.
- Support 8, 4-byte registers.
- Writing a zero word into the first register resets a board; after which the least significant bit of the eighth register should be zero.
- The driver for this type of board is configured in a file named */var/sysgen/master.d/vme_examp*.
- Jumpered to generate interrupts on IPL 5 with vectors of 0x0e and 0x0f respectively.

To configure these boards you could prepare a file named */var/sysgen/system/twoboards.sm* with these contents:

Example 12-1 Hypothetical VME Configuration File

```
* First board, "controller" 0, base 10 8000, vector 0e
VECTOR: bustype=VME module=vme_examp adapter=1 ctrlr=0
       ipl=5 vector=0x0e iospace=(A32NP,0x00108000,32)
       exprobe=((w,0x00108000,4,0,0),(r,0x0010801c,4,0,1))
* Second board, "controller" 1, base 10 8020, vector 0f
VECTOR: bustype=VME module=vme_examp adapter=1 ctrlr=1
       ipl=5 vector=0x0f iospace=(A32NP,0x00108020,32)
       exprobe=((w,0x001080020,4,0,0),(r,0x0010803c,4,0,1))
```

Using the exprobe Parameter

You use the `exprobe=` parameter to specify one or more PIO writes and reads to the bus. You can use the parameter to initialize multiple registers, and to test the values in multiple registers before or after writing.

The primary purpose of the `exprobe` parameter is to make the call to a device driver conditional on the presence of the device. When the probe fails because a read did not return the expected value, the kernel assumes the device is not present (or is not operating correctly, or is the wrong type of device), and the kernel does not call the device driver to initialize the device.

When you do not specify a probe sequence, the kernel assumes the device exists, and calls the driver to initialize the device. In this case, the driver can be called when no device is present. You must write code into the driver to verify that a device of the expected type is actually present on the bus. (See “Verifying Device Addresses” on page 354).

Using the `adapter=b` Parameter

VECTOR statements are processed in two sets, depending on whether or not the `adapter=b` parameter is present. The presence or absence of this parameter has an important effect on the scope and timing of device initialization.

When you *omit* `adapter=b`, the kernel applies the VECTOR statement to *every* VME bus in the system. The `exprobe`, if one is given, is executed against every VME bus found, as soon as the bus is found. The device driver is called when a probe succeeds on a bus. The driver is called for every bus when no probe is given.

When you specify `adapter=b`, the kernel does not execute the VECTOR statement until after all buses have been found, and `ioconfig` has run to apply numbering to the buses. Then the kernel executes these VECTOR statements, applying each one only to the bus you specify.

The differences are that, with `adapter=b`, the probe is executed and the driver called only for the specified bus, and this occurs quite a bit later in the startup sequence. It is almost always a better idea to code `adapter=b` than to omit it.

Initialization Process

Assuming that `adapter=b` is supplied, the following steps take place:

- The kernel discovers each VME bus and builds a hwgraph vertexes for it.
- The `ioconfig` program runs and numbers the buses.
- The kernel processes the VECTOR statements.

- The kernel executes the specified probes; for example, assuming the first statement in Example 12-1, the kernel
 - Writes a word of zero to A32NP address 0x0010080000.
 - Reads a word from address 0x001008001c, ANDs the returned data with 1, and compares the result to 0. If the comparison is equal, the device exists.
- When the probe succeeds, the kernel creates hwgraph vertices for the device; given Example 12-1 it might build:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/a32n/1008000  
/hw/vme/1/a32n/1008000
```
- The kernel loads the specified device driver (if necessary) and calls it to initialize the device, passing it much of the information from the VECTOR statement.

Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2

This chapter provides an overview of the kernel services needed by a kernel-level VME device driver on Origin 2000 and Onyx 2 systems. The following topics are covered:

- “About VME Drivers” on page 350 relates the structure of VME drivers to other chapters in this book.
- “Initializing the Driver” on page 352 describes the process of initializing a driver.
- “Initializing a VME Device” on page 352 describes the steps of attaching a VME device when the kernel finds one.
- “Creating and Using PIO Maps” on page 357 describes the use of PIO map objects to access VME device registers.
- “Creating and Using DMA Maps” on page 362 describes how to set up and initiate DMA access to VME.
- “Handling VME Interrupts” on page 365 describes two ways to establish an interrupt handler function.
- “Porting From IRIX 6.2” on page 369 documents the changes in VME support between IRIX 6.5 and previous releases.
- “Sample VME Device Driver” on page 370 displays the source code of a VME device driver for Origin2000.

Chapter 12, “VME Device Attachment on Origin 2000/Onyx2,” describes the hardware implementation for VME devices. Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices,” covers operation of VME devices from user-level processes.

Note: For information about VME in Challenge and Onyx systems, refer to Chapter 14, “VME Device Attachment on Challenge/Onyx,” and Chapter 15, “Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx.”

About VME Drivers

A kernel-level VME device driver is an executable module with the structure described in Chapter 7, "Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver." It uses the driver/kernel interface described in Chapter 8, "Device Driver/Kernel Interface." In general it is configured into IRIX as described in Chapter 9, "Building and Installing a Driver."

The general sequence of operations of a VME driver is as follows:

1. In the *pfxinit()* entry point, the driver prepares any global variables.
2. When the kernel processes a VECTOR statement naming this driver (see "Defining VME Devices with the VECTOR Statement" on page 344), it calls the *pfxedtinit()* entry point of the driver. Here the driver initializes its own per-device data structures, sets up the hardware graph to represent the device, and initializes the device itself, if necessary.
3. The driver operates the device and transfers data in the normal upper-half entry points such as *pfxopen()*, *pfxread()*, *pfxwrite()*, and *pfxstrategy()*.

These steps are covered in the following topics.

If you are porting a driver from an earlier version of IRIX, the driver will use other functions than the ones described here. See "Porting From IRIX 6.2" on page 369 for function equivalents. Also, an older driver will not make use of the concept of the hwgraph (see "Hardware Graph" on page 42). It is almost essential to integrate a VME driver for Origin2000 systems with the hwgraph. This is done during device initialization.

About VME Support Functions

Table 13-1 summarizes in alphabetic order the functions that are unique to the I/O infrastructure for VME. Their uses are mentioned in the following topics. Formal documentation of the functions can be found in the vmeio(D3) reference page.

Table 13-1 Functions of the VME I/O Infrastructure

Function	Purpose
<code>vmeio_dmamap_addr()</code>	Activate a DMA map and set the target buffer address.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_alloc()</code>	Allocate a DMA map object.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_done()</code>	Deactivate a DMA map.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_free()</code>	Release a DMA map object.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_list()</code>	Activate a DMA map and set a list of target buffers.
<code>vmeio_intr_alloc()</code>	Allocate an interrupt object and optionally a VME interrupt vector number.
<code>vmeio_intr_connect()</code>	Establish an interrupt handler function for a given vector.
<code>vmeio_intr_disconnect()</code>	Block interrupts to a handler.
<code>vmeio_intr_free()</code>	Release an interrupt object.
<code>vmeio_intr_vector_get()</code>	Retrieve the allocated vector number from an interrupt object.
<code>vmeio_piomap_addr()</code>	Activate a PIO map and get a mapped memory address from it.
<code>vmeio_piomap_alloc()</code>	Create a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyin()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to memory using a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyout()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to the bus, using a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_piomap_done()</code>	Deactivate a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_piomap_free()</code>	Release a PIO map.

Initializing the Driver

When the driver has a *pfxinit()* entry point, that entry point is called during the boot process before any other driver entry point. The driver can initialize global variables at this time. The driver cannot depend on the state of the hardware graph, however. The VME bus attachments may or may not be defined in the hardware graph.

If the driver has a *pfxstart()* entry point, that entry point is called late in the initialization process, after all device initialization is complete.

For more discussion of these entry points, see “When Initialization Is Performed” on page 150, “Entry Point *init()*” on page 151, and “Entry Point *start()*” on page 152.

Initializing a VME Device

The device driver does not know in advance how many devices it will be asked to manage. There might be none configured, or only one, or many. The devices might all be on one VME bus, or they can be on different buses.

The kernel calls the driver’s *pfxedtinit()* entry point once for each VME VECTOR statement it finds (see “Defining VME Devices with the VECTOR Statement” on page 344 for a discussion of the VECTOR statement).

For an overview of the duties and actions of the *pfxedtinit()* entry point, see “Entry Point *edtinit()*” on page 151. An important part of initializing the device is setting up the hwgraph. For an overview of hwgraph facilities, see “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221.

In summary, at device initialization time the driver

- Creates hwgraph vertexes to represent the device
- Allocates and initializes a data structure to hold per-device information
- Allocates PIO maps and (optionally) DMA maps to use in addressing the device
- If necessary, registers an interrupt handler
- Initializes the device itself

The allocation and use of PIO and DMA maps, and the registration of an interrupt handler, are covered separately in following topics.

Information in the `edt_t` Structure

The argument to `pfxedtinit()` is an `edt_t` structure containing the information listed in Table 13-2. The `edt_t` structure is declared in the `sys/edt.h` header file; and the constant values passed in the structure are declared in `sys/vme/vmeio.h` and `sys/vmereg.h`.

The driver is allowed to retain a pointer to the `edt_t` in memory. A unique copy of the structure is built for each call to `pfxedtinit()`. The structure is writeable and continues to exist after the `pfxedtinit()` entry point returns.

Table 13-2 VME Driver Contents of `edt_t` Structure

Field	Contents
<code>e_bus_type</code>	The constant <code>ADAP_VME</code> .
<code>e_adap</code>	The VME bus number from <code>VECTOR adapter=b</code> . If the <code>adapter=</code> parameter was omitted, this field contains 0.
<code>e_ctrl</code>	The value from <code>VECTOR ctrl=c</code> , or 0 if none was given.
<code>e_bus_info</code>	Pointer to a structure of type <code>vme_intrs_t</code> (declared in <code>sys/vmereg.h</code>). This structure contains the values from <code>VECTOR ipl=i vector=v</code> .
<code>e_space[]</code>	Array of three structures of type <code>iospace_t</code> , discussed in a following topic.
<code>e_connectpt</code>	Handle for the hwgraph vertex representing this device (see “VME Device Naming” on page 344).
<code>e_master</code>	Handle for the hwgraph vertex representing the VME bus.
<code>e_device_desc</code>	Pointer to a device descriptor structure containing information about interrupt handling for this device.

Identifying the Bus

If the `adapter=b` parameter was coded in the `VECTOR` statement, `e_adap` contains the number. When `e_adap` is zero, the bus number is unspecified at this time. The driver is being called early in the startup process, before `ioconfig` has assigned sequential bus numbers (see “Using the `adapter=b` Parameter” on page 347).

In any event, the handle in `e_master` is unique to the bus. If you need to compare two devices to see if they are on the same bus, you can compare their `e_master` values.

Using the Controller Number

The number in *e_ctrlr* comes from the *ctrl=c* parameter of the VECTOR statement, when used. This number has no hardware significance; it is a numeric parameter to the driver that you can use for any purpose. Typically it is used as a way of giving each device a unique number that can be displayed, for example, in error messages.

If you want to pass more than a few bits of information to the driver, consider using the DEVICE_ADMIN and DRIVER_ADMIN statements (see “Retrieving Administrator Attributes” on page 231).

Using the iospace List

Each *iospace_t* value in the *e_space* array describes one iospace parameter given in the VECTOR statement. Normally at least one such value is given. If none are given, the address space, base, and size values must be hard-coded into the driver—not usually a good plan.

The values in each *iospace_t* structure are listed in Table 13-3.

Table 13-3 VME Driver Contents of *iospace_t* Structures

Field	Contents
<i>ios_type</i>	Address space constant declared in <i>vmeio.h</i> such as VMEIO_SPACE_A16N. VMEIO_SPACE_NONE appears for an unused structure.
<i>ios_iopaddr</i>	Base address from VECTOR statement.
<i>ios_size</i>	Size of address range from VECTOR statement.
<i>ios_vaddr</i>	Not initialized, but available for driver use.

Verifying Device Addresses

When no probe is coded in the VECTOR statement, you have no assurance that the device exists (see “Using the *exprobe* Parameter” on page 346). When a driver attempts to access a nonexistent VME address, a bus error results, causing a kernel panic. Accordingly it is an excellent idea to test at least the lowest and highest PIO addresses in each iospace using the functions summarized under “Testing Device Physical Addresses” on page 220.

Setting Up the Hardware Graph

The handle in *e_connectpt* represents the hwgraph vertex built by the kernel for this VECTOR statement. The driver needs to create another vertex attached to this one with a meaningful product-related name. That is the vertex that programs will open; it is also the vertex in which the driver can store its per-device information.

Note: Under IRIX 6.4 only, depending on the system patch level, it may be possible for the *pfxedtinit()* entry point to be called when no device exists. The sign that this has happened is that *e_connectpt* contains 0. For IRIX 6.4 only you may need to place test such as the following near the beginning of device initialization:

```
if (!(edt->e_connectpt)) return; /* invalid call */
```

For an overview of hardware graph modification see “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221, and in particular “Extending the Graph With a Single Vertex” on page 223. Using the example devices under “Example VME Configuration” on page 346, the kernel creates the connection point

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/a32n/1008000
```

This same vertex is also visible to the user with the convenience path

```
/hw/vme/1/a32n/1008000
```

However, this vertex is not a device vertex and the user cannot open it. Your driver needs to create a device vertex for this purpose.

You know that the device is in fact a character device, a Frummage Corp model AD6. You want to add a single character device vertex named *ad6*. In that vertex you can store a pointer to a device information structure you call *ad6_stuff_t*. This is the vertex that is passed to entry points such as *pfxread()*, and the device information will be available at those times.

The code in Example 13-1 is a hypothetical (i.e. untested) fragment that might appear in your *pfxedtinit()* entry point, somewhere after the point at which you know the device exists.

Example 13-1 Adding a Vertex to the Hardware Graph

```
ad6_stuff_t * ad6;
vertex_hdl_t vert;
...
/* allocate memory for per-device structure */
```

```
ad6 = kmem_zalloc(sizeof(*ad6), KM_SLEEP);
if (!ad6) goto SayDie;
/* create device vertex below connect-point */
ret = hwgraph_char_device_add(edt->e_connectpt,
                             "ad6", "ad6_", &vert);
if (ret != GRAPH_SUCCESS) goto SayDie;
...
/* set info struct in the device vertex */
device_info_set(vert, ad6); ...
SayDie:
/* release all allocated objects and exit */
```

Following this step, the new vertex is visible in the hwgraph under the two paths:

```
/hw/module/mod/slot/ion/baseio/vme_xtown/pci/7/vmebus/a32n/1008000/ad6
/hw/vme/1/a32n/1008000/ad6
```

Note that you did not have to worry about uniqueness, since there can be only one path to this particular bus, address space, and base address. However, even the shorter of these paths is cumbersome. You would like to create an alias that is even shorter, for example, */hw/Frummage/ad6*. However, you cannot be sure that there is only this one AD6 board in the system. There might be several, and if there are, you cannot predict the order in which they are initialized. Initialization calls might even occur in parallel on different CPUs.

What you need to create is a path */hw/Frummage/n/ad6*, where *n* is certain to be unique among all Frummage devices. The simplest way to create a unique numbering is through the `ctrl=c` parameter of the VECTOR statement.

The steps to create this convenience path would include:

- Use **hwgraph_traverse()** to test if */hw/Frummage* has been created yet.
- If it has not, create a new vertex using **hwgraph_vertex_create()**, and connect it to the root of the hwgraph by an edge "Frummage" using **hwgraph_edge_add()**.
- Convert the controller number (or a unique integer from some other source) into a character string "*n*" for use as a unique edge.
- Connect an edge, named with the unique numeric string, between the */hw/Frummage* vertex and the newly-created *ad6* vertex, using **hwgraph_edge_add()**. (If this fails, it is probably because the number is not unique after all and the edge already exists.)

Dealing with Initialization Errors

The initialization process can encounter many possible errors, for example:

- No iospace information in the *edt_t*.
- Unable to allocate a PIO map, a DMA map, or some other data structure.
- Unable to verify a device address (device does not exist).
- Unable to create a hwgraph vertex or edge.

You do not expect these errors to occur and usually they will not, but when one inevitably does occur you want the driver to behave sensibly and to be informative. Plan in advance for this; there are a variety of coding techniques you can use.

Creating and Using PIO Maps

A PIO map is a system object that represents a range of addresses in one VME address space. After creating a PIO map, a device driver can use it in the following ways:

- Obtain mapped addresses in kernel virtual address space that represent the device. These can be used to load or store data words between the CPU and the device, or they can be mapped into user process space for loading or storing.
- Copy data between the device and memory, or perform compare-and-swap to the device, without learning the specific kernel addresses involved.

The kernel virtual address returned by PIO mapping is not a physical memory address, and it bears no relationship to the VME bus address. The kernel virtual address and the VME bus address need not have any bits in common.

The functions used with PIO maps are summarized in Table 13-4. The syntax of these functions is given in the *vmeio(D3)* reference page.

Table 13-4 Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Purpose
<code>vmeio_piomap_addr()</code>	Get a mapped memory address for a device address.
<code>vmeio_piomap_alloc()</code>	Create a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_piomap_done()</code>	Deactivate a PIO map.

Table 13-4 (continued) Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Purpose
<code>vmeio_piomap_free()</code>	Release a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyin()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to memory using a PIO map.
<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyout()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to the bus, using a PIO map.

The expected sequence of use is:

- During device initialization, allocate a PIO map for the device.
- To use a map (during initialization or at any other entry point), get the base address of the device using `vmeio_piomap_addr()`. Use the returned address for PIO, or request block copy operations.
- When finished accessing device addresses at any one entry point, ensure completion of all PIO operations by calling `vmeio_piomap_done()`.
- When shutting down the device or system, release the map with `vmeio_piomap_free()`.

Allocating and Freeing PIO Maps

A driver creates a PIO map by calling `vmeio_piomap_alloc()`. This function performs memory allocation and it associates the PIO map with a “VME slave image” in the VME controller. Either of these operations can encounter a delay. You specify whether the function should return an error when a resource is not available, or should wait.

Typically your driver creates its PIO map in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point, where the driver first learns about the device addresses from the contents of the `edt_t` structure. At this time a delay is usually acceptable. Unless the device registers are scattered widely in its address space, one PIO map is usually sufficient.

The parameters to `vmeio_piomap_alloc()` are as follows:

<i>vme_conn</i>	Hwgraph connection point of the device, as passed in the <i>e_connpt</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> (see “Information in the <i>edt_t</i> Structure” on page 353).
<i>dev_desc</i>	Current device descriptor for the device. This can be obtained from the <i>e_device_desc</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> , or by calling <code>device_desc_default_get()</code> with the connection point.

<i>am</i>	Constants specifying the VME address space modifier, discussed below.
<i>vmeaddr</i>	Base address of a range of VME bus addresses, typically the <i>ios_iopaddr</i> field of an <i>iospace_t</i> structure (see “Using the iospace List” on page 354).
<i>byte_count</i>	Size of the address range to be mapped, typically the <i>ios_size</i> field of an <i>iospace_t</i> structure.
<i>byte_count_max</i>	Maximum size to be presented to vmeio_piomap_addr() at any time.
<i>flags</i>	VMEIO_SLEEP or VMEIO_NOSLEEP depending on whether a delay is acceptable.

When the VMEIO_NOSLEEP flag is used, it is possible for the function to fail and return a NULL pointer. In this case, the PIO map could not be allocated.

Typically a driver creates a PIO map and stores its address in a structure with other information about one VME device. A pointer to that structure is stored in the device vertex in the hwgraph (see “Setting Up the Hardware Graph” on page 355). In any entry point, the address of the device structure, and the PIO map address, are easily retrieved.

Specifying the Address Space and Modifiers

Any PIO map operates in one VME address space using one address modifier. You specify these with a combination of constant names as the *am* parameter to **vmeio_piomap_alloc()**. The allowed combinations are listed Table 13-5. Other combinations of space and modifier are not supported.

Table 13-5 Address Space and Modifiers Available for PIO

Address Modifier	Value of <i>am</i> Parameter	Description
0x29	VMEIO_AM_A16 + VMEIO_AM_N + (either VMEIO_AM_D8 or VMEIO_AM_D16)	A16 nonprivileged
0x2D	VMEIO_AM_A16 + VMEIO_AM_S + (either VMEIO_AM_D8 or VMEIO_AM_D16)	A16 supervisory
0x39	VMEIO_AM_A24 + VMEIO_AM_N + (one of VMEIO_AM_D8, VMEIO_AM_D16, VMEIO_AM_D32)	A24 nonprivileged

Table 13-5 (continued) Address Space and Modifiers Available for PIO

Address Modifier	Value of <i>am</i> Parameter	Description
0x3D	VMEIO_AM_A24 + VMEIO_AM_S+ (one of VMEIO_AM_D8, VMEIO_AM_D16, VMEIO_AM_D32)	A24 supervisory
0x09	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_N + VMEIO_AM_SINGLE + VMEIO_AM_D32	A32 nonprivileged 32-bit data
0x0B	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_N + VMEIO_AM_BLOCK + VMEIO_AM_D32	A32 nonprivileged 32-bit block data
0x08	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_N + VMEIO_AM_BLOCK + VMEIO_AM_D64	A32 nonprivileged 64-bit block
0x0D	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_S + VMEIO_AM_SINGLE + VMEIO_AM_D32	A32 supervisory 32-bit data
0x0F	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_S + VMEIO_AM_BLOCK + VMEIO_AM_D32	A32 supervisory 32-bit block data
0x0C	VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_S + VMEIO_AM_BLOCK + VMEIO_AM_D64	A32 supervisory 64-bit block data

Testing the Target Addresses

Merely creating a map does not guarantee that any device exists at that bus address. Device addresses passed in the VECTOR statement can only be trusted if the VECTOR statement also contains a thorough set of `exprobe=` commands to probe the bus.

In order to test the validity of a VME bus address, you must create a PIO map and test the mapped addresses using one of the functions listed under “Testing Device Physical Addresses” on page 220. The following is the recommended sequence of operations when initializing a device:

- Allocate a PIO map.
- Activate the PIO map, retrieving the base address for the device.
- Test the valid low and high extremes of the device address range using a function such as `badaddr()`.

- If an address is not valid the device does not exist or is not the type of device you expected. In this case:
 - Document the error with a message (“Producing Diagnostic Displays” on page 274).
 - Release the PIO map and any other objects that have been allocated.
 - Terminate the initialization (see “Dealing with Initialization Errors” on page 357).
- When the extreme addresses test valid, continue to initialize the device and complete initialization with a call to **vmeio_piomap_done()**.

Freeing a PIO Map

As long as the PIO map object is safely anchored from the device vertex, there is no need to release the object. A loadable driver can unload and reload, the map is still available. If a PIO map is created on the fly, it can be released with a call to **vmeio_piomap_free()**.

Using a PIO Map for PIO

You get a kernel virtual address from a map for use with PIO by applying **vmeio_piomap_addr()**. In this function call you specify the lowest VME address of interest at this time, and the total range of VME addresses that you want to access at this time. Typically these two numbers are the same as the *vmeaddr* and *byte_count* parameters to **vmeio_piomap_alloc()**.

The value returned by **vmeio_piomap_addr()** is an address in kernel virtual space that is associated with the requested base address on the VME bus. Stores and fetches to the mapped address range are executed on the VME bus.

When the driver does not need further PIO for a period of time that might be long, the driver should call **vmeio_piomap_done()**. This call does not return until all PIO output has reached the device. In some systems it may release temporary resources.

Mapping a PIO Map into a User Process

In the **pfxmap()** entry point (see “Concepts and Use of **mmap()**” on page 169), you can also use a mapped PIO address with the **v_mapphys()** function to map the range of device addresses into the address space of a user process. When you do this, the PIO map remains in use for an indefinite time. You can release the PIO map in the **pfxunmap()** entry point (see “Entry Point **unmap()**” on page 174).

Using a PIO Map for Block Copy

The `vmeio_pio_bcopyin()` and `vmeio_pio_bcopyout()` functions copy a range of data between memory and a device using a PIO map. These functions are optimized to the hardware that exists, and they do all transfers in the largest size possible (32 or 64 bits per transfer). If you need to transfer data in specific sizes of 1 or 2 bytes, create a PIO map for that width and use direct loads and stores to the mapped addresses.

Creating and Using DMA Maps

A DMA map is a system object that can represent a mapping between a buffer in kernel virtual space and a range of VME bus addresses. After creating a DMA map, a driver uses the map to specify the target address and length to be programmed into a VME bus master before a DMA transfer.

The functions that operate on DMA maps are summarized in Table 13-6.

Table 13-6 Functions That Operate on DMA Maps

Function	Purpose
<code>vmeio_dmamap_addr()</code>	Activate a DMA map and set the target buffer address.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_alloc()</code>	Allocate a DMA map object.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_done()</code>	Deactivate a DMA map.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_free()</code>	Release a DMA map object.
<code>vmeio_dmamap_list()</code>	Activate a DMA map and set a list of target buffers.

Allocating a DMA Map

A device driver allocates a DMA map using `vmeio_dmamap_alloc()`. This is typically done in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point, provided that the maximum I/O size is known at that time. The arguments to this function are as follows:

<i>vme_conn</i>	Hwgraph connection point of the device, as passed in the <i>e_connpt</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> (see “Information in the <i>edt_t</i> Structure” on page 353).
<i>dev_desc</i>	Current device descriptor for the device. This can be obtained from the <i>e_device_desc</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> , or by calling <code>device_desc_default_get()</code> with the connection point.
<i>space</i>	Constant specifying the address space, discussed below.
<i>byte_count_max</i>	Largest range of addresses to be mapped at any time.
<i>flags</i>	VMEIO_SLEEP or VMEIO_NOSLEEP, depending on whether a delay is acceptable. VMEIO_DMA_CMD or VMEIO_DMA_DATA to describe the use of the map.

Specifying the Type of Access

The VME support code assumes that a DMA map is used for one of two kinds of access:

- Command-type access in which relatively small quantities of command or status information are exchanged between the device and word-aligned buffers.

Command-type access is characterized by short, infrequent transfers that are not necessarily aligned on a cache line boundary. For example, if the device can load its own scatter/gather register set using DMA, or if the device uses DMA to store a block of status information, this is command-type DMA access.

- Data-type access in which relatively large amounts of data are exchanged between the device and buffers that are at least a cache-line in length and typically aligned to cache boundaries.

Data-type access is characterized by long, multiple-cache-line bursts of data.

You state the type of DMA access by specifying either VMEIO_DMA_CMD or VMEIO_DMA_DATA in the flags parameter when allocating the map. When the kernel schedules I/O through a data-type DMA map, it sets up the XIO and PCI interfaces for best bandwidth under the assumption that multiple cache lines will be transferred. When the kernel schedules I.O through a command-type DMA map, it sets up the interfaces for quickest coherent access to data.

Specifying the Address Space

Any DMA map operates in one VME address space. You specify the space with a value in the *space* parameter to **vmeio_dmamap_alloc()**. The available spaces are shown in Table 13-7.

Table 13-7 Address Space and Modifiers Available for DMA

Constant in vmeio.h	Description
VMEIO_AM_A24 + VMEIO_AM_N	A24 nonprivileged
VMEIO_AM_A24 + VMEIO_AM_S	A24 supervisory
VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_N	A32 nonprivileged data
VMEIO_AM_A32 + VMEIO_AM_S	A32 supervisory data

The data width is determined by the VME bus master device when it initiates the bus transactions.

Using a DMA Map for One Buffer

A DMA map is used prior to a DMA transfer into or out of a buffer in kernel virtual space. The function **vmeio_dmamap_addr()** takes a DMA map, a buffer address, and a length. It assigns a span of contiguous VME addresses of the specified length. It programs the VME bus controller to map that range of VME addresses into the physical addresses that represent the specified buffer. The buffer may span two or more physical pages.

The value returned by **vmeio_dmamap_addr()** is the VME bus virtual address that represents the first byte of the buffer. This is the address you program into the bus master device (using a PIO store), in order to set its starting transfer address. Then you can initiate the DMA transfer (again by storing a command into a device register using PIO).

It is possible for **vmeio_dmamap_addr()** to fail. The kernel needs to allocate resources in the VME controller in order to set up and maintain the mapping. If the resources are not available, the function returns 0. You must always test the returned value for zero and not attempt the DMA operation when that value appears.

Using a DMA Map with Address/Length Lists

IRIX now supports the very convenient and useful address/length list (alenlist) functions described under “Using Address/Length Lists” on page 213. You can use an alenlist to represent a series of one or more buffer areas separated in kernel virtual memory. In particular, the `buf_to_alenlist()` function returns an alenlist to describe a kernel memory buffer.

When your buffer is defined by an alenlist, you can map all components in the list in a single operation by calling `vmeio_dmamap_list()`. This function creates an alenlist in which the same segments of memory are represented as a list of VME bus addresses. (Note that the new list can have more or fewer address/length pairs than the original list.) The function returns the list containing translated addresses. This is a newly allocated alenlist object unless you specify `VMEIO_INPLACE` in the *flags* argument.

You can read out VME bus address segments from the list one at a time and program them into the device for DMA. If the device has multiple target registers (“scatter/gather” registers) you can program it with all the segments from the translated list. If the device can handle only one transfer at a time, you have to program each list element as a separate operation.

Handling VME Interrupts

When a VME interrupt occurs, the VME bus controller directs the interrupt signal to one of the CPUs in the Origin2000 system (see “Directing VME Interrupts” on page 343).

The kernel VME support in that CPU fetches the interrupt vector presented during the interrupt acknowledge (IACK) cycle on the VME bus. Then the kernel looks to see if any VME driver has asked to receive interrupts with that vector on that priority level. If a driver has registered a handler for this interrupt, the kernel schedules the driver’s handler to execute asynchronously as a kernel thread. This phase of acknowledgement and scheduling runs as a trap handler in the CPU that receives the hardware signal. The driver’s handler function can execute in that same CPU (by default) or in another one.

In order to receive control on an interrupt, you must consider these issues:

- Establish the VME interrupt priority level the device uses.
- Establish the VME interrupt vector the device presents during an interrupt acknowledge cycle.
- Create an interrupt handler function to be called when the device interrupts.
- Notify the kernel to call the handler when the interrupt occurs.

Connecting the Interrupt Handler

You establish an interrupt handler by creating and using an interrupt object. This dynamic method of connecting a handler has the following advantages:

- You decide when interrupts will be accepted.
- You can disconnect the handler when interrupts are not wanted (for example, when the driver needs to unload).
- You can allocate an interrupt vector dynamically, for programming into a device that has a programmable vector number.

The functions used for interrupt control are summarized in Table 13-8.

Table 13-8 Functions for Interrupt Control

Function	Purpose
<code>vmeio_intr_alloc()</code>	Allocate an interrupt object, and optionally allocated a vector number.
<code>vmeio_intr_vector_get()</code>	Retrieve the vector number specified to, or allocated by <code>vmeio_intr_alloc()</code> ,
<code>vmeio_intr_connect()</code>	Establish an interrupt handler and enable interrupts.
<code>vmeio_intr_disconnect()</code>	Block interrupts so that the handler is no longer called.
<code>vmeio_intr_free()</code>	Release an interrupt object.

Allocating an Interrupt Object

During initialization of the device in the `edtinit()` entry point, allocate an object to represent the expected interrupt. This is the purpose of `vmeio_intr_alloc()`. The parameters to this function are as follows:

<i>vme_conn</i>	Hwgraph connection point of the device, as passed in the <i>e_connpt</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> (see “Information in the <i>edt_t</i> Structure” on page 353).
<i>dev_desc</i>	Current device descriptor for the device. This can be obtained from the <i>e_device_desc</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> , or by calling <code>device_desc_default_get()</code> with the connection point.
<i>vec</i>	Interrupt vector value, or <code>VMEIO_INTR_VECTOR_NONE</code> to request allocation of an unused vector.
<i>level</i>	Interrupt priority level used by the device, typically passed indirectly through the <i>e_bus_info</i> field of the <i>edt_t</i> structure.
<i>owner_dev</i>	Any hwgraph vertex that the system should display when reporting an error in interrupt handling. Typically the device vertex created by the driver.
<i>flags</i>	<code>VMEIO_SLEEP</code> or <code>VMEIO_NOSLEEP</code> , depending on whether a memory allocation delay is acceptable.

The priority level and vector number can be passed in the `VECTOR` statement (see “Information in the *edt_t* Structure” on page 353), or they can be coded into the driver. When the device can be programmed with a vector number, you can request the assignment of an unused vector number by passing `VMEIO_INTR_VECTOR_NONE`. You can retrieve the assigned (or specified) vector number by calling `vmeio_intr_vector_get()`, then program it into the device by PIO.

Note: According to the VME standard, the interrupt vector can be a data item of 8, 16, or 32 bits. However, Silicon Graphics systems accept only an 8-bit vector, and its value must fall in the range 1-254 inclusive. (0x00 and 0xFF are excluded because they could be generated by a hardware fault.)

Typically you should store the address of the interrupt object in the device information structure for future use.

Using the Device Descriptor

The use of the *device_desc* data type is described in two reference pages, *device_desc(d4x)* and *device_desc_ops(d3x)*. Where a device descriptor is required, you can obtain a default descriptor handle by calling **device_desc_default_get()**. However, you can also obtain a writable copy of the device descriptor and modify it with a function such as **device_desc_intr_target_set()**.

The device descriptor that you pass to **vmeio_intr_alloc()** determines the CPU on which your interrupt handler will execute. Normally the default interrupt CPU is appropriate. If you have a good reason to know that the handler should execute on a particular CPU, you can modify the device descriptor before calling **vmeio_intr_alloc()**.

Connecting the Handler

Once you have created an interrupt object, you can enable calls to your handler function by calling **vmeio_intr_connect()**. The important parameters to this function are:

- The interrupt object, which indirectly specifies the device, level, and vector.
- The address of the handler function, which can have any name you choose.
- An argument to be passed to the function, typically the handle of the device information structure you have prepared.

Although the function also takes a “thread” parameter, there is no current support for operating the interrupt handler on a specific kernel thread. It is called at a high priority, but not necessarily the highest priority (see “Interrupts as Threads” on page 177).

Disconnecting the Handler

When you want to ensure that the interrupt handler will not be called, apply **vmeio_intr_disconnect()**. Following interrupts from the device are discarded until you once again call **vmeio_intr_connect()**.

You must disconnect interrupts in a loadable driver before unloading the driver

Porting From IRIX 6.2

The kernel services for VME programming changed substantially for Origin and Onyx2 systems. This section lists the Challenge and Onyx kernel functions and relates them to the Origin and Onyx2 interface as it is described in the preceding topics. Refer to Chapter 14, "VME Device Attachment on Challenge/Onyx," and Chapter 15, "Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx" for information on writing VME device drivers for Challenge and Onyx systems.

Table 13-9 lists the kernel functions used under IRIX 5.3, IRIX 6.0, IRIX 6.1, and IRIX 6.2 to program the VME interface on the Challenge and Onyx systems, in alphabetical order. After the name of the function is a brief summary of its purpose; in the third column is a summary of the comparable facility introduced in IRIX 6.5.

When you begin porting a VME driver from IRIX 6.2 or earlier, look each function up in Table 13-9. Rewrite the driver to use the function or functions listed in the rightmost column.

Table 13-9 VME Kernel Function Compatibility Summary

Old Function	Purpose	Replacement Facility
<code>dma_map()</code>	Map a buffer for DMA.	<code>vmeio_dmamap_addr()</code> and <code>vmeio_dmamap_list()</code>
<code>dma_mapaddr()</code>	Get the VME bus address for a mapped buffer.	<code>vmeio_dmamap_addr()</code> and <code>vmeio_dmamap_list()</code>
<code>dma_mapalloc()</code>	Allocate a DMA map.	<code>vmeio_dmamap_alloc()</code>
<code>dma_mapbp()</code>	Map a system buffer for DMA.	<code>buf_to_alenlist()</code> , then <code>vmeio_dmamap_list()</code>
<code>dma_mapfree()</code>	Release a DMA map.	<code>vmeio_dmamap_free()</code>
<code>pio_and[bhw]_rmw()</code>	Perform read-AND-writeback.	No replacement
<code>pio_bcopyin()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to memory.	<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyin()</code>
<code>pio_bcopyout()</code>	Block-copy PIO data to device.	<code>vmeio_pio_bcopyout()</code>
<code>pio_mapaddr()</code>	Position PIO map in VME address space.	<code>vmeio_piomap_addr()</code>
<code>pio_mapalloc()</code>	Allocate a PIO map.	<code>vmeio_piomap_alloc()</code>

Table 13-9 (continued) VME Kernel Function Compatibility Summary

Old Function	Purpose	Replacement Facility
pio_mapfree()	Release a PIO map.	vmeio_piomap_free()
pio_or[bhw]_rmw()	Perform read-OR-writeback.	No replacement
vme_adapter()	Get number of VME bus for device.	No replacement
vme_ivec_alloc()	Reserve unused VME vector number.	vmeio_intr_alloc()
vme_ivec_free()	Release VME vector number.	vmeio_intr_free()
vme_ivec_set()	Register interrupt handler for VME vector.	vmeio_intr_connect()

Sample VME Device Driver

In Example 13-2 you can read the code of a complete VME driver provided courtesy of the VME Microsystems International Corporation (VMIC). The code of this driver may also be installed as part of VME support in the directory */usr/src/vme*. Sample driver code may also be made available from Silicon Graphics Developer Support.

The sample driver has been set up for conditional compilation on either IRIX 6.2 or IRIX 6.4. The statements

```
#if SNO || IP30
#define VMEIO 1
#endif
```

set up the value of the VMEIO compiler variable. This variable is used to select code for either the older IRIX 6.2 or the newer IRIX 6.4.

Example 13-2 Sample VME Driver

```
/*
 * SGI would like to thank VME Microsystems International Corporation
 * (VMIC) for providing source code to the device driver for their
 * VMIVME-5588DMA Reflective Memory Card. Reflective memory is a
 * real-time network that supports low latency data transfers among
 * heterogenous systems via either PCI or VME. Data written to a
 * reflective memory board location is automatically sent to all
 * reflective memory boards in the network. This is all done by the
```

* Reflective Memory hardware. No software messaging or CPU cycles are
 * required. For more information, contact VMIC at:

*
 * VME Microsystems Int'l Corp
 * 12090 South Memorial Parkway
 * Huntsville AL 35803 USA
 * (800) 322-3616
 * http://www.vmic.com

 * COPYRIGHT NOTICE

* Copyright (C) 1996 VME Microsystems International Corporation
 * International copyright secured. All rights reserved.

 * VMIVME/SW-5550-ABC-205 Device Driver for IRIX-6.4

* FYI: All non-static symbols must, must, *MUST*, begin with "rfm".

*/

```
#ifndef lint
static char rfm_c_sccs_id[] = "@(#)rfm.c 1.60 96/07/23 VMIC";
#endif /* lint */
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/debug.h>
#include <sys/param.h>
#include <sys/immu.h>
#include <ksys/ddmap.h>
#include <sys/conf.h>
#include <sys/edt.h>
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#include <sys/errno.h>
#include <sys/open.h>
#include <sys/cred.h>
#include <sys/ksynch.h>          /* For SV_ALLLOC(D3DK), et. al.      */
#include <sys/sem.h>
#include <sys/file.h>
#include <sys/uio.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <sys/mload.h>
#include <sys/buf.h>
#include <sys/dir.h>
#include <sys/signal.h>
#include <sys/mman.h>
#include <sys/sg.h>
#include <sys/kmem.h>
```

```
#include <sys/ddi.h>
#include <sys/vmereg.h>
#include <stdarg.h>
#if SNO || IP30
#define VMEIO 1
#endif
#if VMEIO
#include <sys/ioerror.h>
#include <sys/alenlist.h>
#include <sys/vme/vmeio.h>
#else /* Challenge */
#include <sys/pio.h>
#include <sys/dmmap.h>
#include <sys/user.h> /* The header file is gone from 6.4 on */
#endif
#include <rfm_reg.h>
#include <rfm_io.h>
#include "spaces.h"
#include "bflags.h"
#if VMEIO
#define RFM_PREFIX "rfm_"
#define EDGE_LBL_RFM "rfm"
#define NEW(ptr) (ptr = kmem_alloc(sizeof (*ptr), KM_SLEEP))
#define DEL(ptr) (kmem_free(ptr, sizeof (*ptr)))
#endif
#if VMEIO
typedef vmeio_piomap_t rfm_piomap_t;
#else
typedef piomap_t *rfm_piomap_t;
#endif
#if VMEIO
typedef vmeio_dmamap_t rfm_dmamap_t;
#else
typedef dmamap_t *rfm_dmamap_t;
#endif
#if VMEIO
/* vmeio_dmamap_alloc returns "0" for errors */
#define DMAMAP_FAILED ((rfm_dmamap_t) 0L)
#else
/* dmamap_alloc returns "-1" for errors */
#define DMAMAP_FAILED ((rfm_dmamap_t) -1L)
#endif
/*
 *=====
 * Configuraion constants (you may change these, if needed)
```



```

*=====
*/
/*
*-----
* NRFM is the number of devices which we will support.  Making this
* too big uses only a little extra memory.
#if VMEIO
* When usint VMEIO, NRFM is ignored.
#endif
*-----
*/
#ifndef NRFM
#define NRFM 2 /* Support 2 boards */
#endif /* NRFM */
/*
*-----
* EVENTPATIENCE is the default number of seconds to which an event
* timeout is limited.
*-----
*/
#ifndef EVENTPATIENCE
#define EVENTPATIENCE 20 /* Timeout limit (seconds) */
#endif /* EVENTPATIENCE */
/*
*-----
* RFMSLEEP is the priority level at which the driver will sleep during
* timeouts.  If you don't want a signal (such as happen when you type a ^C
* on the keyboard) from interrupting the wait, then uncomment the
* definition below *without* "PCATCH".  However, if you don't allow
* signals to interrupt the wait and the event never happens, you'll have
* to reboot the system in order to kill your applications program.
*-----
*/
#if 1
#define RFMSLEEP (PCATCH|(PZERO+1)) /* ^C interrupts wait */
#else /* NOPE */
#define RFMSLEEP (PZERO-1) /* Nothing interrupts */
#endif /* NOPE */
/*
*-----
* The SMALLEST_DMA symbol gives the size (in bytes) of the smallest DMA
* transfer we will perform.  Any attempted read(2)'s or write(2)'s shorter
* than this will be handled by programmed I/O (copying the data via the
* CPU).  The rationale is this: the DMA setup, interrupt processing, and
* DMA teardown takes a certain amount of time.  For shorter transfers this

```

```

* overhead is greater than the time it would take to just move the data
* using the CPU. You may want to experiment with this value to determine
* the optimal limit for your system.
*
* The SMALLEST_DMA_IREQ symbol gives the size (in bytes) of the smallest
* DMA which will use a DMA complete interrupt; transfers smaller than
* this will simply poll the DMA engine's complete flag. You may want to
* experiment with this value to determine the optimal limit for your
* system. In view of the relatively large overhead incurred in processing
* any interrupt, you may want this value to be fairly high so that you
* reduce the transfer latency (although this might saturate the CPU).
* Your mileage may vary :-)
*-----
*/
#define SMALLEST_DMA          (1024) /* Smallest DMA we will do      */
#define SMALLEST_DMA_IREQ    (2048) /* Smallest DMA using interrupt */
/*
*-----
* The following data structure defines the default DMA configuration
* options used unless the application program uses an RFM_DMAINFO
* ioctl(2) command to change them.
*-----
*/
static rfmdmainfo_t    defaultDmaInfo = {
    1,                /* U-seconds between DMA polls */
    64,              /* DMA burst cycle length (0=64) */
    RDI_RELMODE_ROR, /* DMA release mode */
    0,               /* Burst interleave (x250 nsec) */
    3,              /* VMEbus request level */
    SMALLEST_DMA,   /* Minimum size to use DMA */
    SMALLEST_DMA_IREQ /* Minimum DMA w/interrupt size */
};
/*
*=====
* PLEASE DO NOT ALTER ANYTHING PAST THIS POINT
*=====
*/
/* IRIX 6.2 has some missing prototypes */
void MUTEX_LOCK(mutex_t *lockp, int priority);
void SV_WAIT( sv_t *svp, void *lkp, int rv );
int badaddr(volatile void *addr, int size); /* In "system.h", can't use it */
/* Use our own min/max macros, not whatever happens to be lying around */
#undef min
#undef max
#undef bounds

```

```

#define max(a,b)      ( (a) > (b) ? (a) : (b) )
#define min(a,b)      ( (a) < (b) ? (a) : (b) )
/*
*-----
* Number of bytes transferred with each DMA cycle
*-----
*/
#define DMAWIDTH      8          /* Must be power of two!      */
/*
*-----
* We encode the size of the reflective memory device in the low-order
* bytes of the minor device number.
*-----
*/
#define RFMUNIT(dev)  getminor(dev)
/*
*-----
* Macros to win friends and influence people
*-----
*/
#define USECONDS      ((clock_t) 1000000UL) /* Usec per second      */
#define WHENDEBUG(x)  if( (x) & rfmDebug )
static uint_t rfmDebug = RFM_DBERROR; /* Debug output level  */
#if 0
static uint_t rfmDebug = RFM_DBINIT | RFM_DBOPEN | RFM_DBCLOSE | RFM_DBREAD |
RFM_DBWRITE | RFM_DBSTRAT | RFM_DBIOCTL | RFM_DBMMAP |
RFM_DBCALLBACK | RFM_DBTIMER | RFM_DBINTR |
RFM_DBERROR | RFM_DBSLOW | RFM_DBMUTEX;
#endif
/*
*-----
* Interrupt enable flags for all four interrupts. We setup the BIM to
* enable all interrupts and to automatically clear the interrupt when the
* interrupt occurs. We also the the BIM's "FLAG" as an indication that
* the associated interrupt occurred. We need this because we will have
* to poll the device, since IRIX 5.X may share interrupts among VME
* devices.
*-----
*/
#define A_ENABLE      (RFM_BIM_IRE | RFM_BIM_AUTO | RFM_BIM_F | RFM_BIM_FAC)
#define B_ENABLE      (RFM_BIM_IRE | RFM_BIM_AUTO | RFM_BIM_F | RFM_BIM_FAC)
#define C_ENABLE      (RFM_BIM_IRE | RFM_BIM_AUTO | RFM_BIM_F | RFM_BIM_FAC)
#define F_ENABLE      (RFM_BIM_IRE | RFM_BIM_AUTO | RFM_BIM_F | RFM_BIM_FAC)
#define D_ENABLE      (RFM_BIM_IRE | RFM_BIM_AUTO | RFM_BIM_F | RFM_BIM_FAC)
/*

```

```
*-----
* Multiprocessor access to the top half of the driver routines (like
* rfmopen(), rfmread(), and the like) are coordinated by a mutual
* exclusion (mutex) lock. The lock is initialized while booting, so
* everyone can use it. Because all of the top-level (i. e. system call
* routines) are mutually exclusive, we can allow multiple user-level open
* calls without worrying about access collisions.
*-----
*/
#define TOPHALF_LOCK(ucb)      MUTEX_LOCK( &(ucb)->ucb_mutex, (-1) )
#define TOPHALF_UNLOCK(ucb)   MUTEX_UNLOCK( &(ucb)->ucb_mutex )
/*
*-----
* Coordination between the bottom (interrupt level) half of the driver
* and the upper (base level) half is coordinated by a lock and a
* synchronization variable. Since all of the upper halves use a mutex,
* there is only one active upper level context active. By gating the
* interrupt handler with the synchronization variable, we achieve
* interrupt lockout of the upper half.
*-----
*/
#define RFM_LOCK_INIT(ucb)     LOCK_INIT( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmLock, 0, 0, 0)
#define RFM_LOCK(ucb,level)   LOCK( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmLock, (level) )
#define RFM_UNLOCK(ucb,cookie) UNLOCK( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmLock, (cookie) )
#define RFM_WAIT(ucb,cookie)  SV_WAIT( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmSv, \
                                     &(ucb)->ucb_rfmLock, (cookie) )

#define RFM_TELLONE(ucb)      SV_SIGNAL( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmSv )
#define RFM_TELLALL(ucb)     SV_BROADCAST( &(ucb)->ucb_rfmSv )
#define RFM_EVENTGRAB(ucb,pri) p sema( &(ucb)->ucb_eventSema, (pri) )
#define RFM_EVENTFREE(ucb)   cvsema( &(ucb)->ucb_eventSema )
/*
*-----
* The 'rfm_devflag' is used by the kernel to determine some facts about
* the driver. This driver is now MP safe.
*-----
*/
int      rfm_devflag = (D_MP);
/*
*-----
* The 'rfm_mversion' variable is required to signal that this is a
* loadable device driver.
*-----
*/
char     *rfm_mversion = M_VERSION;
/*
```

```

*-----
* Shape of per-instance unit control block (UCB)
*-----
*/
typedef struct ucb_s    {
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t    ucb_conn;        /* Connection point */
    vertex_hdl_t    ucb_vertex;      /* My vertex */
    vmeio_intr_t    ucb_intr;       /* VMEIO interrupt handle */
#endif
    struct edt      *ucb_e;          /* 'e' address */
    int             ucb_adapter;     /* VMEbus adapter number */
    int             ucb_unit;        /* Minor device number */
    struct buf      *ucb_bp;        /* Backlink to I/O buf */
    uint_t          ucb_flags;      /* Activity flags */
    vmeio_am_t      ucb_am;

#define UCB_FLAGS_OPEN    (1U << 0)    /* Device is opened */
#define UCB_FLAGS_ETIMEO (1U << 1)    /* Device timeout occurred */
#define UCB_FLAGS_AWAIT  (1U << 2)    /* Event A wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_BWAIT  (1U << 3)    /* Event B wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_CWAIT  (1U << 4)    /* Event C wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_FWAIT  (1U << 5)    /* FIFO event wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_AINFO  (1U << 6)    /* Event A notification wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_BINFO  (1U << 7)    /* Event B notification wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_CINFO  (1U << 8)    /* Event C notification wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_FINFO  (1U << 9)    /* Event D notification wanted */
#define UCB_FLAGS_DONE   (1U << 10)   /* DMA complete */
#define UCB_FLAGS_BERR   (1U << 11)   /* DMA had bus error */
#define UCB_FLAGS_FOUND  (1U << 12)   /* Hardware probed OK */
    uint_t          ucb_pending;     /* What went on */
#define UCB_PENDING_A    (1U << 0)    /* Event A pending */
#define UCB_PENDING_B    (1U << 1)    /* Event B pending */
#define UCB_PENDING_C    (1U << 2)    /* Event C pending */
#define UCB_PENDING_F    (1U << 3)    /* Event F pending */
    dev_t           ucb_dev;         /* Device major and minor id's */
    RFM             ucb_rfm;        /* Address of board's registers */
    off_t           ucb_rfmSize;    /* Total size of reflective mem */
    int             ucb_mynodeid;   /* RFM node number of my device */
    int             ucb_bid;        /* Local copy of board ID */
    int             ucb_sender;     /* Node ID sending last ireq */
    int             ucb_ilev;      /* Interrupt priority level */
    int             ucb_ivec;      /* Common interrupt vector */
    toid_t          ucb_eventTimeoutId; /* Id of event timeout */
    clock_t         ucb_eventWait;  /* Event timeout (usec) */
    int             ucb_errno;      /* Status from last syscall */
}

```

```

char          ucb_name[ 32 ]; /* Name of this device          */
char          ucb_msg[ 256 ]; /* Local message buffer  */
rfm_perfstat_t ucb_perfstat; /* Statistics; don't clear */
void          *ucb_userProc[RFM_NEVENT]; /* Process to alert      */
int           ucb_signal[RFM_NEVENT]; /* Per-event signals     */
rfm_dmamap_t  ucb_dmaMap; /* DMA map                */
int           ucb_xferCount; /* Size of current DMA transfer */
caddr_t       ucb_dmaAddr; /* Current DMA address    */
off_t         ucb_dmaOffset; /* Relative window DMA offset */
rfmdmainfo_t  ucb_dmaInfo; /* DMA information        */
int           ucb_lockedSize; /* Bytes locked for user DMA */
__userabi_t   ucb_userabi; /* Description of user process */
mutex_t       ucb_mutex; /* Upper-half exclusion lock */
sema_t        ucb_eventSema; /* Event coordination     */
sema_t        ucb_stratSema; /* Strategy routine serializer */
lock_t        ucb_rfmLock; /* Locks access to board regs */
sv_t          ucb_rfmSv; /* Synchronizes access to board */
rfm_piomap_t  ucb_piomap; /* How to get to board registers */
} ucb_t, *UCB;
#define UNULL ( (UCB) NULL ) /* A UCB-typed null address */
/*
 *-----
 * Per-device storage for each instance of the reflective memory driver
 *-----
 */
static ucb_t ucbs[ NRFM ]; /* One per device          */
/*
 *-----
 * debugMsg: format and display error messages (similar to cmn_err & printf)
 *-----
 * The first character of the format string is special: '!' messages go
 * only to the "putbuf"; '^' messages go only to the console; and '?'
 * always goes to the "putbuf" and to the console iff we were booted in
 * verbose mode.
 *
 * N.B.: ideally, this could have been written as either a <stdarg.h> or
 * a <varargs.h> routine. This would not compile under 5.3, so I have
 * hand-crafted a work-alike. To restore the original intent, include the
 * <stdarg.h> file and change: 1) the declaration of 'ap' to be
 * 'va_list ap'; and 2) the vsprintf() call to be 'vsprintf( bp, fmt, ap )'
 *-----
 */
static char *me = "rfm"; /* Generic driver name    */
static void debugMsg(

```

```

register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-device info          */
char           *fmt,        /* Printf-style format     */
...           /* Args as required       */
)
{
    char        *text;      /* Which buffer we actually use */
    register char *bp;     /* Walks down output buffer   */
    static char  buf[ 256 ]; /* Private messaging area     */
    va_list ap;           /* Address of arg on stack    */
    va_start( ap, fmt );
    /* Use message buffer in the UCB if we have one */
    if( ucb ) {
        /* Use message area specific to this device */
        text = bp = ucb->ucb_msg;
    } else {
        /* Don't have a UCB, so use our own private area */
        text = bp = buf;
    }
    /* The first character of message is special to cmn_err(9F) */
    switch( fmt[0] & 0xFF ) {
    case '!': /* syslog only */
        /*FALLTHROUGH*/
    case '^': /* console only */
        /*FALLTHROUGH*/
    case '?': /* syslog and verbose console */
        *bp++ = *fmt++;
        break;
    default:
        break;
    }
    /* Prepend "rfm" and optional device numbers to message */
    if( ucb ) {
        /* I know the numbers! */
        sprintf( bp, "%s%d: ", me, ucb->ucb_unit );
    } else {
        /* This is an anonymous message */
        sprintf( bp, "%s: ", me );
    }
    while( *bp ) ++bp; /* Advance to NULL at end */
    vsprintf( bp, fmt, ap ); /* Output user's text */
    cmn_err( CE_CONT, "%s.\n", text ); /* Write to console */
    /*
     * Allow message to reach the syslogd() if we must. We do this by
     * blindly waiting about 0.25 seconds after each message. This
     * should work OK, even if we happen to be in an interrupt

```

```

    * routine; some random process will be delayed, but who cares?
    * Our interrupt handlers take care to clear this flag while they
    * are running.
    *
    * On IRIX 6.4 and beyond our interrupt runs as a thread, so
    * that random process can continue running on some other
    * CPU while we sit and spin here.
    */
#if 0
    if( rfmDebug & RFM_DBSLOW )    {
        drv_usecwait( USECONDS / 4 );
    }
#endif /* SLOW */
}
/*
-----
* eventTimedOut: signal that the operation has timed out
-----
*/
static void
eventTimedOut(
    caddr_t      arg          /* Really UCB          */
)
{
    register UCB  ucb = (UCB) arg;
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBTIMER ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "event timedout" );
    }
    ucb->ucb_flags |= UCB_FLAGS_ETIMEO;
    if( !ucb->ucb_errno ) {
        ucb->ucb_errno = ETIMEDOUT;
    }
    RFM_EVENTFREE( ucb );          /* Wake up event waiter    */
}
/*
-----
* startEventTimer: schedule an event timeout
-----
*/
static void
startEventTimer(
    register UCB  ucb,          /* Per-board info          */
    clock_t      usec          /* Length of timeout       */
)
{

```



```

        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBTIMER )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "scheduling %d-usecond event timeout", usec );
        }
        ucb->ucb_flags &= ~UCB_FLAGS_ETIMEO;
        ucb->ucb_eventTimeoutId = itimeout( eventTimedOut, (void *) ucb,
            (long) drv_usectohz( usec ), plhi, 0, 0 );
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * stopEventTimer: cancel a pending event timeout call
    *-----
    */
    static void
    stopEventTimer(
        register UCB    ucb                /* Per-board info          */
    )
    {
        toid_t        tid;
        tid = ucb->ucb_eventTimeoutId;
        ucb->ucb_eventTimeoutId = NULL;
        untimeout( tid );
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBTIMER )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "event timeout cancelled" );
        }
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * record_sender: record node id that sent this interrupt
    *-----
    */
    static void
    record_sender(
        register UCB    ucb                /* Per-device info          */
    )
    {
        register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
        /* Record the originating node (if possible)          */
        switch( rfm->rfm_bid ) {
            case RFM_5550_MAGIC: ucb->ucb_sender = ~0; break;
            case RFM_5576_MAGIC: ucb->ucb_sender = rfm->rfm_sid1; break;
            case RFM_5578_MAGIC: ucb->ucb_sender = rfm->rfm_sid1; break;
            case RFM_5588_MAGIC: ucb->ucb_sender = rfm->rfm_sid1; break;
            case RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC: ucb->ucb_sender = rfm->rfm_sid1; break;
        }
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {

```

```

        debugMsg( ucb, "interrupt sent by node %d", ucb->ucb_sender );
    }
}
/*
*-----
* ireqFhandler: FIFO interrupt handler
*-----
* NB: return values from interrupt handlers are ignored.
*-----
*/
static void
ireqFhandler(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-device info          */
)
{
    register RFM rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;    /* Find the board          */
    int    orfmDebug = rfmDebug;    /* Incoming debug flags    */
    rfm->rfm_cr0 |= F_ENABLE;    /* Set the flag again      */
    stopEventTimer( ucb );    /* Cancel any timeout      */
    rfmDebug &= ~RFM_DBSLOW;    /* Prevent waiting        */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "transmit FIFO's half full" );
    }
    ++(ucb->ucb_perfstat.rps_nfireq);    /* Count the interrupt    */
    if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_FINFO ) {
        /* Send target process the desired signal    */
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "sending event F notification" );
        }
        if( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_F] &&
            proc_signal( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_F],
                ucb->ucb_signal[RFM_EVENT_F] ) == -1 ) {
            WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "error sending event F notification" );
            }
        }
    }
} else if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_FWAIT ) {
    /* Wake up the process holding on the FIFO event    */
    RFM_EVENTFREE( ucb );
    /* Clear pending flags    */
    ucb->ucb_pending &= ~UCB_PENDING_F;
} else {
    /* Slow down access to let the FIFO drain    */
    register int    retries;

```

```

        ucb->ucb_pending |= UCB_PENDING_F;
        for( retries = 4; retries-- > 0; ) {
            if( (rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_CSR_TXHALF) != 0 ) break;
            drv_usecwait( USECONDS / 4 );
        }
    }
    rfmDebug = orfmDebug;          /* Restore original debug flags */
}
/*
-----
* interfaceSignal: release 1 process holding synchronization variable
-----
*/
static void
interfaceSignal(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-device info          */
)
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "waking up process holding sv" );
    }
    (void) RFM_TELLONE( ucb );
}
/*
-----
* dmaIreqHandler: dma complete handler
-----
*/
static void
dmaIreqHandler(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board local storage  */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    int             orfmDebug = rfmDebug; /* Incoming debug flags    */
    unsigned char   int04;             /* Local copy of register  */
    ++(ucb->ucb_perfstat.rps_ndireq); /* Count the interrupt     */
    rfmDebug &= ~RFM_DBSLOW;          /* Prevent waiting        */
    int04 = rfm->rfm_int04;            /* Get a local copy       */
    if( int04 & (RFM_INT04_BERR | RFM_INT04_LBERR) ) {
        /* VMEbus error on the transfer          */
        ucb->ucb_flags |= UCB_FLAGS_BERR;
        rfm->rfm_int04 = (int04 & ~(RFM_INT04_BERR | RFM_INT04_LBERR));
    } else if( int04 & RFM_INT04_DONE ) {
        /* DMA complete with no errors          */
    }
}

```

```

        ucb->ucb_flags |= UCB_FLAGS_DONE;
        ucb->ucb_flags |= (int04 & ~RFM_INT04_DONE);
    }
    /* Wake up process waiting on DMA interrupt */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "waking up process" );
    }
    interfaceSignal( ucb );
    /* Clean up the DMA-related flags */
    rfm->rfm_int04 = (int04 & ~(RFM_INT04_BERR | RFM_INT04_LBERR |
        RFM_INT04_DONE));
    /* Set the flag again, but don't enable the interrupt */
    rfm->rfm_cr4 = ((D_ENABLE & ~RFM_BIM_IRE) | ucb->ucb_ilev);
    /* Restore debug flags */
    rfmDebug = orfmDebug;
}
/*
-----
* ireqAhandler: error interrupt handler
-----
* NB: return values from interrupt handlers are ignored.
-----
*/
static void
ireqAhandler(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board local storage */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm; /* Find the board */
    int             orfmDebug = rfmDebug; /* Incoming debug flags */
    record_sender( ucb ); /* Record originating node */
    /* Clean up the rest */
    rfm->rfm_cr1 |= F_ENABLE; /* Set the flag again */
    stopEventTimer( ucb ); /* Cancel any timeout */
    rfmDebug &= ~RFM_DBSLOW; /* Prevent waiting */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "event A" );
    }
    ++(ucb->ucb_perfstat.rps_naireq); /* Count the interrupt */
    if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_AINFO ) {
        /* Send target process the desired signal */
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "sending event A notification" );
        }
        if( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_A] &&

```

```

        proc_signal( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_A],
        ucb->ucb_signal[RFM_EVENT_A] ) == -1 ) {
            WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "error sending event A notification" );
            }
        }
    } else if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_AWAIT ) {
        /* Wake up the process holding on the A event */
        RFM_EVENTFREE( ucb );
        /* Clear pending flags */
        ucb->ucb_pending &= ~UCB_PENDING_A;
    } else {
        ucb->ucb_pending |= UCB_PENDING_A;
    }
    rfmDebug = orfmDebug;          /* Restore original debug flags */
}
/*
-----
* ireqBhandler: transfer complete interrupt
-----
*/
static void
ireqBhandler(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board local storage */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm; /* Find the board */
    int             orfmDebug = rfmDebug; /* Incoming debug flags */
    record_sender( ucb );          /* Record originating node */
    /* Clean up the rest */
    rfm->rfm_cr2 |= F_ENABLE;      /* Set the flag again */
    stopEventTimer( ucb );        /* Cancel any timeout */
    rfmDebug &= ~RFM_DBSLOW;      /* Prevent waiting */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "event B" );
    }
    ++(ucb->ucb_perfstat.rps_nbireq); /* Count the interrupt */
    if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_BINFO ) {
        /* Send target process the desired signal */
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "sending event B notification" );
        }
        if( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_B] &&
            proc_signal( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_B],

```

```

        ucb->ucb_signal[RFM_EVENT_B] ) == -1 ) {
            WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "error sending event B notification" );
        }
    }
} else if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_BWAIT ) {
    /* Wake up the process holding on the B event */
    RFM_EVENTFREE( ucb );
    /* Clear pending flags */
    ucb->ucb_pending &= ~UCB_PENDING_B;
} else {
    ucb->ucb_pending |= UCB_PENDING_B;
}
rfmDebug = orfmDebug;          /* Restore original debug flags */
}
/*
-----
* ireqChandler: restart interrupt handler
-----
*/
static void
ireqChandler(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board local storage */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm; /* Find the board */
    int             orfmDebug = rfmDebug; /* Incoming debug flags */
    record_sender( ucb );          /* Record originating node */
    /* Clean up the rest */
    rfm->rfm_cr3 |= F_ENABLE;      /* Set the flag again */
    stopEventTimer( ucb );        /* Cancel any timeout */
    rfmDebug &= ~RFM_DBSLOW;      /* Prevent waiting */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "event C" );
    }
    ++(ucb->ucb_perfstat.rps_ncireq); /* Count the interrupt */
    if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_CINFO ) {
        /* Send target process the desired signal */
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "sending event C notification" );
        }
        if( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_C] &&
            proc_signal( ucb->ucb_userProc[RFM_EVENT_C],
                ucb->ucb_signal[RFM_EVENT_C] ) == -1 ) {

```

```

                WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )      {
                    debugMsg( ucb,
                        "error sending event C notification" );
                }
            }
        } else if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_CWAIT ) {
            /* Wake up the process holding on the C event          */
            RFM_EVENTFREE( ucb );
            /* Clear pending flags                                  */
            ucb->ucb_pending &= ~UCB_PENDING_C;
        } else {
            ucb->ucb_pending |= UCB_PENDING_C;
        }
        rfmDebug = orfmDebug;          /* Restore original debug flags */
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * interfaceLock: lock a basic lock, return the cookie
    *-----
    */
    static int
    interfaceLock(
        register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-device info          */
        pl_t            pl            /* Priority level           */
    )
    {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX )    {
            debugMsg( ucb, "locking interface" );
        }
        return( RFM_LOCK( ucb, pl ) );
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * interfaceUnlock: release lock on the interface
    *-----
    * x-----
    */
    static void
    interfaceUnlock(
        register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-device info          */
        int             cookie        /* Cookie from "interfaceLock()" */
    )
    {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX )    {
            debugMsg( ucb, "unlocking interface" );
        }
    }

```

```
        RFM_UNLOCK( ucb, cookie );
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * interfaceWait: wait on synchronization variable
    *-----
    */
    static int
    interfaceWait(
        register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-device info          */
        pl_t            pl,          /* Level to grab lock      */
        int             cookie       /* Cookie from "interfaceLock()" */
    )
    {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX )    {
            debugMsg( ucb, "about to wait on synch variable" );
        }
        RFM_WAIT( ucb, cookie );
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX )    {
            debugMsg( ucb, "got the sync variable" );
        }
        return( RFM_LOCK( ucb, pl ) );
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * rfm_intr: common code to all interrupts
    *-----
    */
    int
    rfm_intr(
#ifdef VMEIO
        intr_arg_t      arg          /* arbitrary pattern */
#else
        int             unit         /* Unit number          */
#endif
    )
    {
#ifdef VMEIO
        UCB            ucb = (UCB) arg;
#else
        register UCB    ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif
        register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
        int             x;          /* Incoming SPL level    */
        x = interfaceLock( ucb, plhi );
    }
}
```



```

        if(          (rfm->rfm_cr4 & RFM_BIM_F) == 0 ) dmaIreqHandler( ucb );
        else if( (rfm->rfm_cr0 & RFM_BIM_F) == 0 ) ireqFHandler( ucb );
        else if( (rfm->rfm_cr1 & RFM_BIM_F) == 0 ) ireqAHandler( ucb );
        else if( (rfm->rfm_cr2 & RFM_BIM_F) == 0 ) ireqBHandler( ucb );
        else if( (rfm->rfm_cr3 & RFM_BIM_F) == 0 ) ireqChandler( ucb );
        else WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "suprious interrupt" );
        }
        interfaceUnlock( ucb, x );
        return( 0 );          /* Value is ignored, but lint complains */
    }
}
/*
-----
* probeDevice: verify that the RFM device is present
-----
* We verify that the device exists by reading the board ID register
* located at the same relative offset on every type of reflective memory
* device.
-----
*/
static int
probeDevice(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board storage          */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm; /* Address of this device */
    unsigned char   bid = rfm->rfm_bid; /* Suspected board ID     */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "board ID register = 0x%X", bid );
    }
    switch( (ucb->ucb_bid = bid) ) {
    default:          /* Unknown board ID          */
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "board at 0x%X on VME %d is not an RFM board (bid=0x%X)",
                ucb->ucb_e->e_space[0].ios_iopaddr,
                ucb->ucb_e->e_adap,
                bid );
        }
        return( -1 );
    case RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC:      /* Fiber-optic interconnect */
        ucb->ucb_mynodeid = rfm->rfm_nid; /* Get my node ID          */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;          /* Turn off the LED        */
        break;
    case RFM_5588_MAGIC:        /* Fiber-optic interconnect */

```

```

        ucb->ucb_mynodeid = rfm->rfm_nid; /* Get my node ID      */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;      /* Turn off the LED      */
        break;
    case RFM_5578_MAGIC:      /* Fiber-optic interconnect */
        ucb->ucb_mynodeid = rfm->rfm_nid; /* Get my node ID      */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;      /* Turn off the LED      */
        break;
    case RFM_5576_MAGIC:      /* Fiber-optic interconnect */
        ucb->ucb_mynodeid = rfm->rfm_nid; /* Get my node ID      */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;      /* Turn off the LED      */
        break;
    case RFM_5550_MAGIC:      /* Metallic interconnect    */
        ucb->ucb_mynodeid = rfm->rfm_csr & 0xF; /* Get my node ID      */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;      /* Turn off the LED      */
        break;
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "probe of 0x%X succeeded", rfm );
    }
    return( 0 );
}
/*
*-----
* setupHardware: clear the board, dump interrupts
*-----
*/
static int
setupHardware(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board info      */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm; /* Make easy to find  */
    unsigned char   bid;           /* Observed board ID  */
    /* Turn on the failure LED while we poke around      */
    rfm->rfm_csr = RFM_CSR_LED;     /* Works whatever board type */
    /* Disable all interrupts                            */
    rfm->rfm_cr0 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr1 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr2 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr3 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr4 = 0;
    ucb->ucb_pending = 0;           /* Nothing is now pending */
    /* Reset the interface                               */
    switch( (bid = rfm->rfm_bid) ) {
    default:

```

```

    {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "unknown board id (0x%X)",
                    bid );
        }
        return( (ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL) );
    }
    /*NOTREACHED*/
case RFM_5550_MAGIC:                  /* Metallic 5550          */
    {
        strcpy( ucb->ucb_name, "VMIVME-5550" );
    }
    break;
case RFM_5576_MAGIC:                  /* Fiber-optic 5576     */
    {
        strcpy( ucb->ucb_name, "VMIVME-5576" );
        /*
         * Drop anything that may be in the board's
         * receive FIFO's. Do this by first clearing the
         * CSR's flags and then doing a benign write to
         * the board (we'll use the board ID register, but
         * any location in the first RFM_REGSIZ bytes
         * would work, but writing the board ID register
         * won't really change anything on the board). Any
         * write to the board (even to the registers) is
         * propagated around the fiber optic ring. We poke
         * the board and then check that we saw our write
         * come back around.
         */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;              /* Clear all flags      */
        rfm->rfm_bid = RFM_5576_MAGIC;
        rfm->rfm_bid = RFM_5576_MAGIC;
        rfm->rfm_bid = RFM_5576_MAGIC;
        drv_usecwait( 1 + (USECONDS / 100) );
        if( rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_OCSR_OWNDAT ) {
            /* Flush the interrupt FIFO's          */
            rfm->rfm_sid1 = 0;
            rfm->rfm_sid2 = 0;
            rfm->rfm_sid3 = 0;
        } else WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "fiber-optic ring not intact" );
        }
    }
    break;
case RFM_5578_MAGIC:                  /* Fiber-optic 5578     */

```

```

    {
        strcpy( ucb->ucb_name, "VMIVME-5578" );
        /* Clear the violation bit if needed */
        if( rfm->rfm_irs & RFM_IRS_VIOLAT ) {
            /* Strobe RFM_IRS_RPL to resync PLL */
            rfm->rfm_irs = (RFM_IRS_RPL|RFM_IRS_LVIOLAT);
            rfm->rfm_irs;
            rfm->rfm_irs = (RFM_IRS_LVIOLAT);
            rfm->rfm_irs;
        }
        /*
         * Drop anything that may be in the board's
         * receive FIFO's. Do this by first clearing the
         * CSR's flags and then doing a benign write to
         * the board (we'll use the node ID register, but
         * any location in the first RFM_REGSIZ bytes
         * would work, but writing the node ID register
         * won't really change anything on the board). Any
         * write to the board (even to the registers) is
         * propagated around the fiber optic ring. We poke
         * the board and then check that we saw our write
         * come back around.
         */
        rfm->rfm_csr = 0;          /* Clear all flags */
        rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
        rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
        rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
        drv_usecwait( 1 + (USECONDS / 100) );
        if( rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_OCSR_OWNDAT ) {
            /* Flush the interrupt FIFO's */
            rfm->rfm_sid1 = 0;
            rfm->rfm_sid2 = 0;
            rfm->rfm_sid3 = 0;
        } else WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "fiber-optic ring not intact" );
        }
    }
    break;
case RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC:          /* Fiber-optic 5588 w/DMA */
    /*FALLTHROUGH*/
case RFM_5588_MAGIC:           /* Fiber-optic 5588 */
    {
        strcpy( ucb->ucb_name,
            ((bid == RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC) ?
             "VMIVME-5588DMA" : "VMIVME-5588" ) );
    }

```

```

/* Clear the violation bit if needed */
if( rfm->rfm_irs & RFM_IRS_VIOLAT ) {
    /* Strobe RFM_IRS_RPL to resync PLL */
    rfm->rfm_irs = (RFM_IRS_RPL|RFM_IRS_LVIOLAT);
    rfm->rfm_irs;
    rfm->rfm_irs = (RFM_IRS_LVIOLAT);
    rfm->rfm_irs;
}
/*
 * Drop anything that may be in the board's
 * receive FIFO's. Do this by first clearing the
 * CSR's flags and then doing a benign write to
 * the board (we'll use the node ID register, but
 * any location in the first RFM_REGSIZ bytes
 * would work, but writing the node ID register
 * won't really change anything on the board). Any
 * write to the board (even to the registers) is
 * propagated around the fiber optic ring. We poke
 * the board and then check that we saw our write
 * come back around.
 */
rfm->rfm_csr = 0;          /* Clear all flags */
rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
rfm->rfm_nid = 0;
drv_usecwait( 1 + (USECONDS / 100) );
if( rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_OCSR_OWNDAT ) {
    /* Flush the interrupt FIFO's */
    rfm->rfm_sid1 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_sid2 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_sid3 = 0;
} else WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "fiber-optic ring not intact" );
}
}
break;
}
/* Get the interrupt vector and set as common vector */
rfm->rfm_vr0 = ucb->ucb_ivec;
rfm->rfm_vr1 = ucb->ucb_ivec;
rfm->rfm_vr2 = ucb->ucb_ivec;
rfm->rfm_vr3 = ucb->ucb_ivec;
rfm->rfm_vr4 = ucb->ucb_ivec;
/* Get the interrupt csr values and set them on board */
rfm->rfm_cr0 = F_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev;

```

```

rfm->rfm_cr1 = A_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev;
rfm->rfm_cr2 = B_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev;
rfm->rfm_cr3 = C_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev;
rfm->rfm_cr4 = C_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev;
rfm->rfm_csr = 0;          /* Turn off the failure LED          */
return( 0 );
}
/*
-----
* loadDmaInfo: setup DMA control registers
-----
*/
static void
loadDmaInfo(
    register UCB          ucb          /* Per-board info          */
)
{
    register RFM          rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    int                   bid;        /* Observed board ID      */
    switch( (bid = rfm->rfm_bid) ) {
    default:
        {
            WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "loadDmaInfo() didn't recognize board ID of 0x%X",
                    bid );
            }
        }
        break;
    case RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC:
        {
            unsigned char  dmac0; /* Local copy          */
            unsigned char  dmac1; /* Local copy          */
            /* Construct DMAC0          */
            dmac0 = ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_burst & RFM_DMAC0_BMASK;
            /* Construct DMAC1          */
            dmac1 = 0;
            switch( ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_relmode ) {
            default:
                {
                    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
                        debugMsg( ucb,
                            "unknown rdi_relmode of %d",
                            ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_relmode );
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}

```

```

        }
        break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_ROR:
        dmac1 |= RFM_DMACH1_RELMD_ROR;
        break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_RWD:
        dmac1 |= RFM_DMACH1_RELMD_RWD;
        break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_ROC:
        dmac1 |= RFM_DMACH1_RELMD_ROC;
        break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_BCAP:
        dmac1 |= RFM_DMACH1_RELMD_BCAP;
        break;
    }
    dmac1 |= (ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_busreq <<
        RFM_DMACH1_LEVEL_SHIFT) & RFM_DMACH1_LEVEL_MASK;
    dmac1 |= (ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_intrLeave <<
        RFM_DMACH1_ILEAV_SHIFT) & RFM_DMACH1_ILEAV_MASK;
    /* Update the hardware */
    rfm->rfm_dmac0 = dmac0;
    rfm->rfm_dmac1 = dmac1;
}
break;
case RFM_5588_MAGIC:
    break;
case RFM_5578_MAGIC:
    break;
case RFM_5576_MAGIC:
    break;
case RFM_5550_MAGIC:
    break;
}
}
/*
-----
* rfm_init: preliminary initialization
-----
* This routine cannot be called concurrently, so no mutex is needed.
-----
*/
void
rfm_init(
    void
)

```

```
{
    /* everything that was in here,
     * has moved to rfm_edtinit().
     */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "driver initializing" );
    }
}
/*
 *-----
 * rfm_edtinit: early device table (init board & interrupts at boot time)
 *-----
#if VMEIO
 * This routine may be called concurrently for devices on different
 * VME busses; a mutex may be required if global data is modified.
#else
 * This routine cannot be called concurrently, so no mutex is needed.
#endif
 *-----
 */
int
rfm_edtinit(edt_t *e)
{
    vme_intrs_t    *intrs = e->e_bus_info;
    vmeio_am_t    am;
    iopaddr_t     vmeaddr = e->e_space[0].ios_iopaddr;
    size_t        size = e->e_space[0].ios_size;
#if VMEIO
    int           unit = e->e_ctlr;
    vertex_hdl_t conn = e->e_connectpt;
    vmeio_intr_t intr;
    int           rv;
    graph_error_t rc;
    vertex_hdl_t  rfm;
    char          mutexName[512];
    char          semaName[512];
    char          svName[512];
    char          stratName[512];
#else
    int           unit = intrs->v_unit;
#endif
    int           ivec = intrs ? intrs->v_vec : 0;
    int           ilev = intrs ? intrs->v_brl : 0;
    register UCB ucb;
#if VMEIO
```



```

if (conn == 0) {
    /* no connection point in edt ...
     * probably called from edt_init().
     */
    return -1;
}
WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg(NULL, "%v: rfm_attach()", conn);
}
NEW(ucb);
ASSERT(ucb != 0);
ucb->ucb_conn = conn;
am = iospace_to_vmeioam(e->e_space[0].ios_type);
#else
    /* Fill in enough of the UCB to allow us to print          */
    ucb = &ucbs[unit];
    ucb->ucb_dev = makedevice( 0, unit );
#endif
ucb->ucb_unit = unit;
ucb->ucb_flags = 0;
/*
 * Using information from the VECTOR: line, we establish a
 * fixed I/O map to allow us to access the device's registers.
 * Notice that we don't specifically define the size of the register
 * space; this gets picked up from the 'rfm.sm' master file entry.
 * Therefore, the 'rfm.sm' IOSPACE entry must include the size of
 * the *entire* reflective memory, not just the RFM_REGSIZ bytes
 * in the front of it.
 */
WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb,
        "busType=%d, adapter=%d, unit=%d, am=0x%x, iopbaddr=0x%lX, size=0x%X",
        e->e_bus_type, e->e_adap, unit,
        am, vmeaddr, size);
}
#if VMEIO
    ASSERT(am == VMEIO_AM_A32 | VMEIO_AM_S);
    ucb->ucb_am = am;
    ucb->ucb_piomap = vmeio_piomap_alloc
        (conn, 0, am, vmeaddr, size, size, 0);
#else
    ucb->ucb_piomap = pio_mapalloc( e->e_bus_type, e->e_adap,
        &e->e_space[0], PIOMAP_FIXED, "rfm" );
#endif
if ( ucb->ucb_piomap == 0 )    {

```

```
        /*
         * This could fail because the adapter isn't valid
         * or invalid addresses or there are no more fixed
         * mappings available in the case of A32.
         */
        debugMsg(ucb, "cannot map device registers" );
        return(0);
    }
    ucb->ucb_e = e;
#if VMEIO
    e->e_base = vmeio_piomap_addr
        (ucb->ucb_piomap, vmeaddr, size);
#else
    e->e_base = pio_mapaddr( ucb->ucb_piomap, vmeaddr );
#endif
    if (e->e_base == 0) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "can alloc PIO map");
    }
    ucb->ucb_rfm = (RFM) e->e_base;
    ucb->ucb_rfmSize = (off_t) size;
    WHENDEBUG(RFM_DBINIT) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "VMEaddr=0x%lX, kernel=0x%lX",
            (unsigned long) vmeaddr,
            (unsigned long) ucb->ucb_rfm);
    }
    /*
     * Now that we think that we know where the board is, check
     * to see if it's one of ours.
     */
    if( badaddr(&(ucb->ucb_rfm->rfm_bid), 1) || probeDevice( ucb ) ) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "board not found at 0x%X on VME bus %d",
                ucb->ucb_e->e_space[0].ios_iopaddr,
                ucb->ucb_e->e_adap);
        }
        goto BailOut;
    }
#if VMEIO
    /* Now that we know the device is here, add it
     * to the hardware graph.
     */
    rc = hwgraph_char_device_add(conn, EDGE_LBL_RFM, "rfm_", &rfm);
    if (rc != GRAPH_SUCCESS) {
        ASSERT(0);
        return(-1);
    }
#endif
```

```

    }
    ucb->ucb_vertex = rfm;
    device_info_set(rfm, ucb);
    /* [try to] create the convenience link.
    */
    {
        vertex_hdl_t      cvhdl;
        char              name[32];
        cvhdl = GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE;
        hwgraph_path_add(hwgraph_root, EDGE_LBL_RFM, &cvhdl);
        sprintf(name, "%d", unit);
        if (cvhdl != GRAPH_VERTEX_NONE)
            hwgraph_edge_add(cvhdl, rfm, name);
    }
#endif
    ucb->ucb_adapter = e->e_adap;
#if VMEIO
    /* VMEIO can use levels and vectors that we
    * assign, or it can assign them if we tell
    * it to do so.
    */
    intr = vmeio_intr_alloc
        (conn, 0, ivec, ilev, rfm, 0);
    if (intr == 0) {
        WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBERROR )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "cannot allocate interrupt resource" );
        }
        goto BailOut;
    }
    ucb->ucb_intr = intr;
    /* Find out the vector vmeio has assigned us;
    * complain if the result is not appropriate.
    */
    if (ivec == VMEIO_INTR_VECTOR_ANY)
        ivec = vmeio_intr_vector_get(intr);
    else if (ivec != vmeio_intr_vector_get(intr))
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "rfm%d intr alloc error:\n"
            "\twanted interrupt vector %d\n"
            "\tgot interrupt vector %d\n",
            unit, ivec, vmeio_intr_vector_get(intr));
#endif
#if 0
    /* vmeio_intr_level_get doesn't exist. (yet?) */
    if (ilev == VMEIO_INTR_LEVEL_NONE)
        ilev = vmeio_intr_level_get(intr);
    else if (ilev != vmeio_intr_level_get(intr))

```

```
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "rfm%d intr alloc error:\n"
                "\twanted interrupt level %d\n"
                "\tgot interrupt level %d\n",
                unit, ilev, vmeio_intr_level_get(intr));
#endif
#else
    ivec = vme_ivec_alloc( ucb->ucb_adapter );
    if ( ucb->ucb_ivec == -1 ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "cannot allocate interrupt vector" );
        }
        goto BailOut;
    }
#endif
    ucb->ucb_ilev = ilev;
    ucb->ucb_ivec = ivec;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "vector=0x%X, level=%d", ivec, ilev);
    }
#if VMEIO
    rv = vmeio_intr_connect
        (intr, (intr_func_t) rfm_intr, (intr_arg_t)ucb, 0);
    if (rv == -1) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "cannot connection interrupt handler");
        goto BailOut;
    }
#else
    vme_ivec_set( ucb->ucb_adapter, ucb->ucb_ivec,
                 (int (*)(int)) rfm_intr, unit );
#endif
    /* Initialize the software state and the board */
    ucb->ucb_flags = UCB_FLAGS_FOUND;
    /* Setup for the DMA */
    ucb->ucb_dmaMap = DMAMAP_FAILED;

    if( setupHardware(ucb) ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "unknown board type; not installed" );
        }
        goto BailOut;
    }
    /* Load the random board registers */
    ucb->ucb_rfm->rfm_dmac2 = RFM_DMAC2_DWID_D64
#if VMEIO
    | VMEbus_AMR_A32SMBLT
```

```

#else
    | addrSpaces[unit].vs_vmeAmr
#endif

    ;
/* Ok */
WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "device is a %ld-Kbyte %s",
              ucb->ucb_rfmSize / 1024L,
              ucb->ucb_name );
}
WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "creating mutex's and sema's" );
}
sprintf( mutexName, "rfm%d", ucb->ucb_unit);
MUTEX_INIT( &ucb->ucb_mutex, MUTEX_DEFAULT, mutexName );
/* more per-UCB date initialization */
/* The "EVENT" semaphore is initially not available */
sprintf( semaName, "rfm%d", ucb->ucb_unit);
initnsema( &ucb->ucb_eventSema, 0, semaName );
/* The "STRAT" semaphore is initially available */
sprintf( stratName, "rfm%d", ucb->ucb_unit);
initnsema( &ucb->ucb_stratSema, 1, stratName );
/* The "SV" is used for DMA locking */
sprintf( svName, "rfm%d", ucb->ucb_unit);
SV_INIT( &ucb->ucb_rfmSv, SV_DEFAULT, svName );
RFM_LOCK_INIT(ucb);
WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg(ucb, "rfm_edtinit() finished");
}
return (RFM_REGSIZ);
/*
 *=====
 * Some error is preventing us from installing ourselves so we
 * need to clean up as well as we can.
 *=====
 */
BailOut:
WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "edtinit failed" );
}
if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_FOUND ) {
    WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "freeing adapter %d vector %d",
                  ucb->ucb_adapter, ucb->ucb_ivec );
    }
}

```

```

#if VMEIO
        if (ucb->ucb_intr)
            vmeio_intr_free(ucb->ucb_intr);
#else
        vme_ivec_free (ucb->ucb_adapter, ucb->ucb_ivec );
#endif
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "unmapping device registers" );
    }
#if VMEIO
    if (ucb->ucb_piomap)
        vmeio_piomap_free(ucb->ucb_piomap); /* Unmap the device registers */
#else
    pio_mapfree( ucb->ucb_piomap );
#endif
    ucb->ucb_rfm = 0;          /* Forget where device is      */
    ucb->ucb_piomap = 0;      /* Forget the map, also    */
#if VMEIO
    DEL(ucb);
#endif
    return( 0 );
}
/*
 *-----
 * rfm_start: called after rfminit() and rfmedtinit()
#if VMEIO
 * In the VMEIO world, rfm_start() is rather useless
 * since it gets called before we find any dynamically
 * located VME busses (like the XIO-VME adapter).
#endif
 *-----
 * This routine cannot be called concurrently, although interrupts are
 * alive at this point.
 *-----
 */
void
rfm_start(void)
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "started" );
    }
}
/*
 *-----

```

```

* topHalfLock: set mutual exclusion of top-half of system call handlers
*-----
*/
static void
topHalfLock(register UCB ucb) /* Per-device info */
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "locking top half" );
    }
    TOPHALF_LOCK( ucb );
}
/*
*-----
* topHalfUnlock: unlock top half of system call handlers
*-----
*/
static void
topHalfUnlock(
    register UCB ucb /* Per-device info */
)
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMUTEX ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "unlocking top half" );
    }
    TOPHALF_UNLOCK( ucb );
}
/*
*-----
* rfm_open: called in response to the open(2) system call
*-----
* Only the 'dev' argument is really used. The others are all ignored,
* except for 'otyp' -- we look at that to catch layered opens. Multiple
* user-level open's are OK.
*-----
*/
int
rfm_open(
    dev_t      *devp,          /* Complex device number addr */
    int        oflag,         /* Open(2) flags (not used) */
    int        otyp,          /* Open(2) type */
    cred_t     *crp           /* Credentials (not used) */
)
{
    dev_t      dev = *devp;
#endif VMEIO

```

```
vertex_hdl_t    vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
UCB             ucb = device_info_get(vhdl);
int             unit = ucb->ucb_unit;    /* for printing */
vertex_hdl_t    conn = ucb->ucb_conn;   /* for vmeio */
#else
int             unit = RFMUNIT(dev);    /* Extract unit number */
UCB             ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif
#if !VMEIO
    if( unit > NRFM )
    {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
            debugMsg( NULL, "no such unit (%d)", unit );
        }
        return( ENODEV );
    }
#endif
topHalfLock(ucb);
if( ucb->ucb_rfm == (RFM) NULL )
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )
    {
        debugMsg(ucb, "attempt to open missing unit %d", unit);
    }
    topHalfUnlock(ucb);
    return( ENODEV );
}
if( otyp == OTYP_BLK )
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "illegal open type (%d)", otyp );
    }
    topHalfUnlock(ucb);
    return( EINVAL );
}
if( (ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_OPEN) == 0 )
{
    /* Not opened before */
    int    eventId;    /* Loops across notifications */
    /* Make sure that there are no notifications left over */
    ucb->ucb_pending = 0;
    for( eventId = 0; eventId < RFM_NEVENT; ++eventId )
    {
        ucb->ucb_userProc[eventId] = 0;
    }
    /* Set the default event wait time */
    ucb->ucb_eventWait = EVENTPATIENCE * USECONDS;
    /* Set the default DMA wait time */
    ucb->ucb_dmaInfo = defaultDmaInfo;
    ucb->ucb_dev = dev;
    if( userabi(&ucb->ucb_userabi)) {
```



```

        /* Somehow we got called without a user context! */
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "no userabi context" );
        }
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( ESRCH );
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "userabi(int=%d,long=%d,ptr=%d,longlong=%d)",
            ucb->ucb_userabi.uabi_szint,
            ucb->ucb_userabi.uabi_szlong,
            ucb->ucb_userabi.uabi_szptr,
            ucb->ucb_userabi.uabi_szlonglong );
    }
    loadDmaInfo( ucb );
    if( setupHardware( ucb ) != 0 ) {
        int          errno = ucb->ucb_errno;
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( errno );
    }
    /* Create the DMA mapping window if board supports DMA */
    if( ucb->ucb_rfm->rfm_bid == RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC ) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBOPEN ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "allocating DMA map" );
        }
#ifdef VMEIO
        ucb->ucb_dmaMap = vmeio_dmamap_alloc
            (conn, 0, ucb->ucb_am, ucb->ucb_rfmSize, 0);
#else
        ucb->ucb_dmaMap = dma_mapalloc(
            addrSpaces[ unit ].vs_type,
            ucb->ucb_adapter,
            (int) btopr( ucb->ucb_rfmSize ), 0 );
#endif
        if (ucb->ucb_dmaMap == DMAMAP_FAILED) {
            WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "cannot create %d-page dma map",
                    btopr( ucb->ucb_rfmSize ) );
            }
            topHalfUnlock(ucb);
            return( ENOMEM );
        }
    } else {

```

```
                /* Does not support DMA, so don't need a DMA map */
                ucb->ucb_dmaMap = DMAMAP_FAILED;
            }
            ucb->ucb_flags |= UCB_FLAGS_OPEN;
        }
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( 0 );
    }
}
/*
*-----
* disableRfmInterrupts: disable all interrupts on the reflective memory
*-----
*/
static void
disableRfmInterrupts(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-board info address */
)
{
    register RFM    rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    /*
    * It is not too difficult to disable interrupts, just zero
    * the interrupt enables in each BIM control register. Just
    * to be thorough, we will also clean up the UCB, but this
    * really isn't necessary since interrupts are being disabled
    * only because the device is being closed.
    */
    rfm->rfm_cr0 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr1 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr2 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr3 = 0;
    rfm->rfm_cr4 = 0;
    ucb->ucb_pending = 0;
}
/*
*-----
* notificationControl: turn notification on or off
*-----
*/
static int
notificationControl(
    register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-device local storage */
    RFM_EVENT      evp          /* Event control pointer */
)
{
    int            flag;          /* Event flag bit */
}
```

```
char          *eventName;    /* Name of the event          */
int           *sigp;         /* Addr of signal action      */
int           eventId;       /* Event code (subscript)     */
switch( (eventId = evp->event) ) {
default:
    {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "unknown event code %d",
                eventId );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    }
    return( -1 );
case RFM_EVENT_A:
    {
        eventName = "A";
        flag = UCB_FLAGS_AINFO;
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVENT_B:
    {
        eventName = "B";
        flag = UCB_FLAGS_BINFO;
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVENT_C:
    {
        eventName = "C";
        flag = UCB_FLAGS_CINFO;
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVENT_F:
    {
        eventName = "F";
        flag = UCB_FLAGS_FINFO;
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVENT_DMA:
    {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "no DMA interrupt notification" );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    }
}
```

```

        return( -1 );
    }
    /* Disconnect from user process (even if this isn't our event) */
    if( ucb->ucb_userProc[eventId] ) {
        proc_unref( ucb->ucb_userProc[eventId] );
        ucb->ucb_userProc[eventId] = 0;
    }
    /* Manipulate the notification event */
    sigp = &ucb->ucb_signal[evp->event];
    if( evp->sig == 0 ) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "event %s notification disabled",
                    eventName );
        }
        ucb->ucb_flags &= ~flag;
        *sigp = 0;
    } else {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                    "send signal %d for event %s notification",
                    evp->sig, eventName );
        }
        ucb->ucb_userProc[eventId] = proc_ref();
        *sigp = evp->sig;
        ucb->ucb_flags |= flag;
    }
    return( 0 );
}
/*
-----
* removeNotifications: cancel all notifications for a process
-----
*/
static void
removeNotifications(
    register UCB    ucb          /* Per-device info */
)
{
    int            eventId;      /* Event loop controller */
    for( eventId = 0; eventId < RFM_NEVENT; ++eventId ) {
        rfm_event_t    eventInfo;
        /* Build packet to turn off notification */
        if( eventId != RFM_EVENT_DMA ) {
            eventInfo.event = eventId;
            eventInfo.sig = 0;
        }
    }
}

```

```

                (void) notificationControl( ucb, &eventInfo );
            }
        }
    }
}
/*
-----
* rfm_close: called after last process having device open close(2)'s it.
-----
*/
int
rfm_close(
    dev_t      dev,          /* Complex device number      */
    int        openflags,   /* Open(2) flags (not used)  */
    int        otyp,        /* Open(2) type (not used)   */
    cred_t     *credp       /* Credentials (ignored)     */
)
{
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t  rfm = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    UCB           ucb = device_info_get(rfm);
    int           unit = ucb->ucb_unit; /* for printing */
    vertex_hdl_t  conn = ucb->ucb_conn; /* for vmeio */
#else
    int           unit = RFMUNIT(dev); /* Extract unit number */
    UCB           ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif
    topHalfLock(ucb);
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBCLOSE ) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "rfm%d closing device", unit);
    }
    /* Clean up the UCB (keep only UCB_FLAGS_FOUND flag) */
    ucb->ucb_flags &= UCB_FLAGS_FOUND;
    ucb->ucb_pending = 0;
    removeNotifications( ucb );
    /* Clean up the hardware */
    disableRfmInterrupts( ucb );
    /* If a DMA map was allocated, we can free it now */
    if (ucb->ucb_dmaMap != DMAMAP_FAILED) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBCLOSE ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "freeing DMA map" );
        }
    }
#ifdef !VMEIO
    dma_mapfree( ucb->ucb_dmaMap );
#else
    vmeio_dmamap_free(ucb->ucb_dmaMap);
#endif
}

```

```
#endif /* VMEIO */
}
WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBCLOSE )      {
    debugMsg( ucb, "so long until tomorrow" );
}
topHalfUnlock(ucb);
return (0);
}
/*
-----
* uioDump: decode UIO structure and write to syslog
-----
*/
static void
uioDump(
    register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-board info          */
    struct uio     *uio,        /* User-I/O structure     */
    char           *why          /* Kind of I/O being done */
)
{
    int            i;           /* Generic loop counter    */
    char           *space;     /* Address space name      */
    switch( uio->uio_segflg )  {
    default:         space = "UNKNOWN";          break;
    case UIO_SYSSPACE:  space = "UIO_SYSSPACE";  break;
    case UIO_USERSPACE: space = "UIO_USERSPACE"; break;
    }
    debugMsg( ucb, "%s UIO dump", why );
    debugMsg( ucb, "uio_segflg = %s", space );
    debugMsg( ucb, "uio_fmode = 0%o", uio->uio_fmode );
    debugMsg( ucb, "uio_offset = 0x%lX", (long) uio->uio_offset );
    debugMsg( ucb, "uio_resid = 0x%lX", (long) uio->uio_resid );
    debugMsg( ucb, "uio_iovcnt = 0x%X", uio->uio_iovcnt );
    for( i = 0; i < uio->uio_iovcnt; ++i ) {
        iovec_t      *iovec = &uio->uio_iov[i];
        debugMsg( ucb, "uio_iov[%d] = (base 0x%lX, len 0x%lX)",
            i, (long) iovec->iov_base, (long) iovec->iov_len );
    }
}
/*
-----
* copyRfmData: copy buffer using optimal transfers
-----
*/
static int
```

```

copyRfmData(
    UCB                ucb,    /* Per-board info          */
    register caddr_t   src,    /* Source buffer KVA      */
    register caddr_t   dst,    /* Destination buffer KVA */
    register long      len     /* Number of bytes        */
)
{
    register RFM       rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    register int       retries;
    /* Make sure transmit FIFO's are not too full */
DrainFIFO:
    retries = 0;
    while( (rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_CSR_TXHALF) == 0 ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "txhalf" );
        }
        if( retries-- <= 0 ) {
            WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
                debugMsg( ucb, "rfm clogged" );
            }
            return( EIO );
        }
        drv_usecwait( 25 );
    }
    /* Try to advance to next '32-bit' boundary */
    while( (len > 0) && (((long)src) % sizeof(int32_t)) != 0 ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "a-copy (src=0x%X, dst=0x%X, len=0x%X)",
                src, dst, len );
        }
        *dst++ = *src++;
        --len;
    }
    /* Try 32-bit transfers if possible */
    if( (rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_CSR_TXHALF) == 0 ) {
        goto DrainFIFO;
    }
    if( (len >= sizeof(int32_t)) &&
        (((long)src)|((long)dst)) % sizeof(int32_t) == 0 ) {
        register int32_t   *isrc;
        register int32_t   *idst;
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "32-copy (src=0x%X, dst=0x%X, len=0x%X)",
                src, dst, len );
        }
    }
}

```

```
    }
    /* Aligned to an 'int' boundary */
    isrc = (int32_t *) src;
    idst = (int32_t *) dst;
    while( len >= sizeof(int32_t) ) {
        *idst++ = *isrc++;
        len -= sizeof(int32_t);
    }
    src = (caddr_t) isrc;
    dst = (caddr_t) idst;
}
/* Try 16-bit transfers if possible */
if( (rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_CSR_TXHALF) == 0 ) {
    goto DrainFIFO;
}
if( (len >= sizeof(int16_t)) &&
    (((long)src)|((long)dst)) % sizeof(int16_t) == 0 ) {
    register int16_t *isrc;
    register int16_t *idst;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "16-copy (src=0x%X, dst=0x%X, len=0x%X)",
            src, dst, len );
    }
    /* Aligned to a 'int16_t' boundary */
    isrc = (int16_t *) src;
    idst = (int16_t *) dst;
    while( len >= sizeof(int16_t) ) {
        *idst++ = *isrc++;
        len -= sizeof(int16_t);
    }
    src = (caddr_t) isrc;
    dst = (caddr_t) idst;
}
/* Copy any remaining bytes */
if( len > 0 ) {
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "8-copy (src=0x%X, dst=0x%X, len=0x%X)",
            src, dst, len );
    }
}
if( (rfm->rfm_csr & RFM_CSR_TXHALF) == 0 ) {
    goto DrainFIFO;
}
while( len-- > 0 ) {
    *dst++ = *src++;
}
```



```

    }
    }
    return( 0 );
}
/*
-----
* generalStrategy: perform physical I/O based on buffer descriptor
-----
*/
static int
generalStrategy(
    register struct buf      *bp      /* Buffer descriptor address */
)
{
    dev_t      dev = bp->b_edev;
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t  vhdl = dev_to_vhdl( dev );
    UCB          ucb = device_info_get( vhdl );
    int          unit = ucb->ucb_unit; /* for printing */
#else
    int          unit = RFMUNIT( dev ); /* Extract unit number */
    UCB          ucb = &ucbs[ unit ];
#endif
    register RFM  rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    int          err; /* I/O results */
    int          x; /* Previous CPU interrupt level */
    int          hasDma; /* True if RFM has DMA engine */
    int          Pass;
    caddr_t      userBuffer; /* Walks down the user area */
    /* Since there is only one DMA resource, serialize this routine */
    psema( &ucb->ucb_stratSema, PZERO+1 );
    /* Decode the buffer structure if we are asked */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        char      msg[ 512 ];
        char      *mp = msg;
        int       flags;
        BFLAGS    bfp;
        BFLAGS    lbf;
        int       leadin;
        flags = bp->b_flags;
        leadin = '\0';
        for( bfp = bflags, lbf = bflags + Nbflags;
            bfp < lbf; ++bfp ) {
            if( flags & bfp->bf_value ) {
                char *tp = bfp->bf_name;

```

```

        if( leadin )    {
            *mp++ = leadin;
        }
        while( (*mp++ = *tp++) ) continue;
        --mp;
        flags &= ~(bfp->bf_value);
        leadin = ',';
    }
}
if( flags )    {
    sprintf( mp, "[leftover=0x%X]", flags );
    while( *mp ) ++mp;
}
*mp = '\\0';
debugMsg( ucb, "bp->b_flags = 0x%X (%s)", bp->b_flags, msg );
}
/* Decide if we can DMA at all */
hasDma = (rfm->rfm_bid == RFM_5588DMA_MAGIC);
WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT )    {
    debugMsg( ucb, "rfm board %s do DMA",
        (hasDma ? "can" : "cannot") );
}
/* Whole buffer remains to be transferred */
bp->b_resid = bp->b_bcount;
/* NB. The SGI "how to write a driver" documents say that the
driver can change the "bp->b_dmaaddr" field. Well, you can't if
you're using the "uiophysio" interface like we are! */
userBuffer = bp->b_dmaaddr;
/* Disable interrupts */
x = interfaceLock( ucb, plhi );
if( hasDma )    {
    if( bp->b_flags & B_READ )    {
        /* Map region as DMA readable */
        rfm->rfm_dmac0 &= ~RFM_DMACH0_H2RFM;
    } else    {
        /* Map region as DMA writable */
        rfm->rfm_dmac0 |= RFM_DMACH0_H2RFM;
    }
}
/* Do until all tranfers are done or until an error */
Pass = 1;
for( err = 0; (err == 0) && (bp->b_resid > 0); )    {
    long    quadAlignment;    /* Byte alignment within 64-bits */
    long    nbytes;          /* Byte count of data to move */
    int     useDma;          /* True if use DMA engine */

```

```

int      useIrq;          /* True if use DMA interrupt      */
off_t    rfmLeft;        /* Bytes to end of RFM space      */
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb,
              "Pass=%d, bp_resid=%lu, ucb_dmaOffset=0x%lX",
              Pass++, (long) bp->b_resid,
              (long) ucb->ucb_dmaOffset );
}
/* Limit the transfer to amount of RFM that is left      */
rfmLeft = ucb->ucb_rfmSize - ucb->ucb_dmaOffset;
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb,
              "ucb_rfmSize=0x%lX, ucb_dmaOffset=0x%lX, rfmLeft=0x%lX",
              (long) ucb->ucb_rfmSize,
              (long) ucb->ucb_dmaOffset,
              (long) rfmLeft );
}
if( rfmLeft <= 0 ) break;
/* Decide if signs and portents are conducive to DMA    */
quadAlignment = ((long) userBuffer) & (long) (DMAWIDTH-1);
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "quadAlignment=0x%lX", quadAlignment );
}
if( hasDma == 0 ) {
    /*
     * No DMA, don't bother trying.
     */
    useDma = 0;
    nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, rfmLeft );
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%ld-byte hobson's choice PIO",
                  nbytes );
    }
} else if( quadAlignment !=
(ucb->ucb_dmaOffset & (long) (DMAWIDTH-1)) ) {
    /*
     * Not aligned to same offset within a quadword.
     */
    useDma = 0;
    nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, rfmLeft );
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%ld-byte unaligned PIO",
                  nbytes );
    }
} else if( quadAlignment ) {

```

```
/*
 * Although both ends of the DMA are aligned to
 * the same byte of a quadword, we are not yet
 * aligned to the beginning of a quadword. Compute
 * the number of bytes to get us to the next
 * quadword boundary (via PIO) and then try again
 * to DMA.
 */
useDma = 0;
nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, (DMAWIDTH-quadAlignment) );
nbytes = min( nbytes, rfmLeft );
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "making %ld-byte quad alignment",
              nbytes );
}
} else {
/*
 * Well, well, both ends of the DMA transfer are
 * now aligned to a quadword boundary. Depending
 * on the actual number of bytes to be
 * transferred, we may actually get to do the DMA.
 * Since this driver does DMA in D64 mode, we can
 * only transfer multiples of 64-bits.
 */
nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, rfmLeft ) & RFM_DMAL_MASK;
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "considering dma of 0x%lX bytes",
              nbytes );
}
if( nbytes < DMAWIDTH ) {
    /* Too short for DMA, use PIO */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
                  "shorter than a quad (0x%lX)",
                  nbytes );
    }
    useDma = 0;
    nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, rfmLeft );
} else if( nbytes <
ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_minDma ) {
    /* Would not be worth the trouble */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
                  "avoiding runt dma (%lu bytes), using PIO instead",
                  nbytes );
    }
}
```

```

    }
    useDma = 0;
    nbytes = min( bp->b_resid, (long) rfmLeft );
} else if( nbytes <
ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_minDmaIreq ) {
    /* DMA is OK, but don't use interrupt */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "%lu-byte dma doesn't qualify for interrupt",
                nbytes );
    }
    useDma = hasDma;
    useIrq = 0;
} else {
    /* Must be quite a long, aligned block */
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "interrupts OK for %lu-byte dma",
                nbytes );
    }
    useDma = hasDma;
    useIrq = 1;
}
}
/* Perform either a DMA transfer or a PIO copy */
if( useDma ) {
ViaDMA:
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "beginning DMA operations" );
    }
#if VMEIO
#if 0
    /* here's the simple way to do it:
    */
    rfm->rfm_vdma = (unsigned int)
        vmeio_dmamap_addr(ucb->ucb_dmaMap,
            kvtophys(userBuffer),
            nbytes);
#else
{
    /* Here's the more complex way to do it,
    * using alenlists and such:
    */
    alenlist_t al;
    alenlist_t vme_al;

```

```
    iopaddr_t vmeaddr;
    size_t    byte_count;

    al = kvaddr_to_alenlist(0,
                            userBuffer,
                            nbytes,
                            0);

    ASSERT(al != 0);
    vme_al = vmeio_dmamap_list(ucb->ucb_dmaMap,
                              al,
                              VMEIO_INPLACE);
    /* Note that if the userBuffer crosses a
     * page boundary, the initial list will
     * be broken up into one block per
     * physical page involved; and INPLACE
     * will prevent combining of consecutive
     * blocks. In other words, alenlist_size
     * will not be "1" and byte_count will
     * be less than, not equal to, nbytes.
     */

    ASSERT(vme_al == al);
    ASSERT(alenlist_size(vme_al) == 1);
    alenlist_cursor_init(vme_al, 0, 0);
    alenlist_get(vme_al, 0, 0,
                 (alenaddr_t *) &vmeaddr,
                 &byte_count,
                 0);
    ASSERT(byte_count == nbytes);
    alenlist_done(vme_al);
    rfm->rfm_vdma = (unsigned) vmeaddr;
}

#endif

#else

nbytes = dma_map( ucb->ucb_dmaMap, userBuffer,
                 (int) nbytes );

#endif

WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "dma map length = 0x%lX",
             nbytes );
}

#if VMEIO
    if (rfm->rfm_vdma == 0) {
```

```

#else
        if( nbytes <= 0 )        {
#endif
                WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBERROR )        {
                        debugMsg( ucb, "dma_map failed" );
                }
#if VMEIO
                vmeio_dmamap_done(ucb->ucb_dmaMap);
#endif
                err = EIO;
                break;
        }
        /* Clear DMA status flags */
        rfm->rfm_int04 &= ~( RFM_INT04_BERR | RFM_INT04_LBERR |
                RFM_INT04_DONE);
        /* RFM has DMA engine and I/O is long enough */
#if VMEIO
        rfm->rfm_dmac2 = RFM_DMAC2_DWID_D64 |
                VMEbus_AMR_A32SMBLT;
#else
        rfm->rfm_dmac2 = RFM_DMAC2_DWID_D64 |
                addrSpaces[ucb->ucb_unit].vs_vmeAmr;
#endif
        /* Setup each end of the DMA pipe */
        rfm->rfm_ldma = (uint32_t) ucb->ucb_dmaOffset;
#if !VMEIO
        rfm->rfm_vdma = (uint32_t) dma_mapaddr( ucb->ucb_dmaMap,
                userBuffer );
#endif
        rfm->rfm_dmal = (uint32_t) nbytes;
        if( useIrq )        {
                WHENDEBBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT )        {
                        debugMsg( ucb, "interrupt dma go" );
                }
                /* Pend for DMA complete interrupt */
                ucb->ucb_flags &= ~( UCB_FLAGS_DONE |
                        UCB_FLAGS_BERR );
                rfm->rfm_cr4 = (D_ENABLE | ucb->ucb_ilev);
                rfm->rfm_dmac3 = RFM_DMAC3_GO;
                /*
                *=====
                * There is no DMA timeout because there
                * is no way to abort a DMA operation; it
                * just darn well better happen. For this
                * reason, we don't bother to catch

```

```

    * signals either; there's nothing we
    * could to with it anyway.
    *=====
    */
x = interfaceWait( ucb, plhi, x );
if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_BERR ) {
    /* Bus error on one end or other */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
        debugMsg(ucb, "dma bus error");
    }
    err = EFAULT;
    nbytes = 0;
} else WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "interrupt dma done" );
}
} else {
    unsigned char    int04;
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "polled dma go" );
    }
    rfm->rfm_cr4 = ((D_ENABLE & ~RFM_BIM_IRE) |
        ucb->ucb_ilev);
    rfm->rfm_dmac3 = RFM_DMAC3_GO;
    for( ; ; ) {
        int04 = rfm->rfm_int04;
        if( int04 & RFM_INT04_DONE ) {
            break;
        }
        /*
        * Don't stare at the board, the
        * CPU will hog the bus and fight
        * the DMA engine for cycles.
        */
        if( ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_polling > 0 ) {
            drv_usecwait(
                ucb->ucb_dmaInfo.rdi_polling );
        }
    }
    if( int04 &
        (RFM_INT04_BERR | RFM_INT04_LBERR) ) {
        err = EFAULT;
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "polled dma bus error");
        }
    }
}

```



```

        } else WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "polled dma complete" );
        }
        /* Clear the DMA status flags */
        rfm->rfm_int04 &= ~(RFM_INT04_BERR |
            RFM_INT04_LBERR | RFM_INT04_DONE);
    }
} else {
    /* No DMA or not long enough, use PIO */
ViaPIO:
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBSTRAT ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "%lu-byte PIO transfer to offset 0x%lX",
            nbytes,
            (long) ucb->ucb_dmaOffset );
    }
    /* Move the data manually */
    if( bp->b_flags & B_READ ) {
        /* User wants some data */
        err = copyRfmData( ucb,
            ((caddr_t) rfm) + ucb->ucb_dmaOffset,
            userBuffer, nbytes );
    } else {
        /* Use has data we want */
        err = copyRfmData( ucb,
            userBuffer,
            ((caddr_t) rfm) + ucb->ucb_dmaOffset,
            nbytes );
    }
    if( err ) break;
    userBuffer += nbytes;
    bp->b_resid -= nbytes;
    ucb->ucb_dmaOffset += nbytes;
}
Fini:
    interfaceUnlock( ucb, x ); /* Allow interrupt-level access */
    if( err ) {
        bioerror( bp, err );
    }
    biodone( bp ); /* Release uiophysio() */
    vsem( &ucb->ucb_stratSema ); /* Release this routine */
    return( err );
}
/*

```

```
*-----
* rfm_read: called by kernel to service a read(2) system call
*-----
*/
int
rfm_read(
    dev_t      dev,          /* Complex device numbers      */
    struct uio *uio,        /* User-I/O structure          */
    cred_t     *credp       /* Credentials (IGNORED)       */
)
{
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    UCB          ucb = device_info_get(vhdl);
    int          unit = ucb->ucb_unit; /* for printing */
#else
    int          unit = RFMUNIT(dev); /* Extract unit number */
    UCB          ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif
    int          results;
    topHalfLock(ucb);
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBREAD ) {
        uioDump( ucb, uio, "rfmread" );
    }
    ucb->ucb_dmaOffset = uio->uio_offset;
    results = uiophysio( generalStrategy, (struct buf *) NULL, dev,
        B_READ, uio );
    topHalfUnlock(ucb);
    return( results );
}
/*
*-----
* rfm_write: called by kernel to service a write(2) system call
*-----
*/
int
rfm_write(
    dev_t      dev,          /* Complex device number      */
    struct uio *uio,        /* User-I/O structure          */
    cred_t     *credp       /* Credentials (IGNORED)       */
)
{
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    UCB          ucb = device_info_get(vhdl);

```

```

        int                unit = ucb->ucb_unit;    /* for printing */
#else
        int                unit = RFMUNIT(dev);    /* Extract unit number */
        UCB                ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif
        int                results;
        topHalfLock(ucb);
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBWRITE )                {
            uioDump( ucb, uio, "rfmwrite" );
        }
        ucb->ucb_dmaOffset = uio->uio_offset;
        results = uiophysio( generalStrategy, (struct buf *) NULL, dev,
            B_WRITE, uio );
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( results );
    }
    /*
    *-----
    * awaitSpecificEvent: pend waiting for specific event to happen
    *-----
    */
    static void
    awaitSpecificEvent(
        register UCB        ucb,                /* Per-board local storage */
        register uint_t     pending,           /* Event indication pending */
        register uint_t     wants,            /* Event indication wanted */
        char                *spelling         /* Name of event (for debug) */
    )
    {
        if( ucb->ucb_pending & pending )      {
            /* At least one event of this type is outstanding */
            ucb->ucb_pending &= ~pending;
            WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )        {
                debugMsg( ucb, "using stored event %s indication",
                    spelling );
            }
        }
        } else {
            /*
            * No event of that type just yet, so flag that we want
            * it, schedule a timeout (if a period is defined), and
            * then wait for the event to happen
            */
            ucb->ucb_flags |= wants;
            startEventTimer( ucb, ucb->ucb_eventWait );
            if( psema( (sema_t *) &ucb->ucb_eventSema, RFMSLEEP ) ) {

```

```
        /* Got a signal before we saw the event          */
        stopEventTimer( ucb );
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBTIMER )      {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "event %s wait interrupted by signal",
                spelling );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINTR;
        ucb->ucb_flags |= UCB_FLAGS_ETIMEO;
    }
    /*
     * If we have a timeout flag, then we didn't get the event
     * because of a timeout or a signal.
     */
    if( (ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_ETIMEO) &&
        (ucb->ucb_errno == 0) ) {
        ucb->ucb_errno = ETIMEDOUT;
    }
}
ucb->ucb_flags &= ~wants;      /* Don't want it anymore    */
}
/*
 *-----
 * dumpdmaInfo: print a decoded version of DMA info for debug purposes
 *-----
 */
static void
dumpDmaInfo(
    register UCB    ucb,          /* Per-board info          */
    volatile rfmdmainfo_t *rdi   /* RFM dma information     */
)
{
    char    *spelling;          /* Generic name pointer    */
    debugMsg( ucb, "dma polling interval is %d usec", rdi->rdi_polling );
    debugMsg( ucb, "dma burst length is %d cycles", rdi->rdi_polling );
    switch( rdi->rdi_relmode ) {
    default:          spelling = "UNKNOWN";    break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_ROR:    spelling = "ROR";    break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_RWD:    spelling = "RWD";    break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_ROC:    spelling = "ROC";    break;
    case RDI_RELMODE_BCAP:   spelling = "BCAP";   break;
    }
    debugMsg( ucb, "%s bus release mode (%d)", spelling, rdi->rdi_relmode );
    debugMsg( ucb, "burst interleave is %d (%d nsec)", rdi->rdi_intrLeave,
        rdi->rdi_intrLeave * 250);
}
```

```

    debugMsg( ucb, "bus request level is %d", rdi->rdi_busreq );
    debugMsg( ucb, "minimum DMA transfer is %d bytes", rdi->rdi_minDma );
    debugMsg( ucb, "minimum DMA transfer w/interrupt is %d bytes",
              rdi->rdi_minDmaIreq );
}
/*
-----
* rfm_ioctl: called by kernel to service an ioctl(2) system call
-----
*/
int
rfm_ioctl(
    dev_t      dev,          /* Complex device number      */
    int        cmd,         /* Command code                */
    void       *arg,        /* Argument to command        */
    int        mode,        /* Open(2) flags (IGNORED)    */
    cred_t     *crp,        /* Credentials (IGNORED)     */
    int        *rvalp       /* Return value pointer (UNUSED) */
)
{
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t vhdl = dev_to_vhdl( dev );
    UCB          ucb = device_info_get( vhdl );
    int          unit = ucb->ucb_unit; /* for printing */
#else
    int          unit = RFMUNIT( dev ); /* Extract unit number */
    UCB          ucb = &ucbs[ unit ];
#endif

    register RFM rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    char         *spelling = "UNKNOWN"; /* Name of ioctl command */
    int          retval; /* Results of system call */
    topHalfLock( ucb );
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "ioctl arg = 0x%X", (caddr_t) arg );
    }
    ucb->ucb_errno = 0;
    /* Dispatch based on the command code */
    switch( cmd ) {
    default:
        {
            WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "unknown ioctl(2) command = 0x%X",
                    cmd );
            }
        }
    }
}

```

```
        if( !ucb->ucb_errno ) ucb->ucb_errno = ENOTTY;
    }
    break;
case RFM_RESET:          /* Reset the interrupt stuff      */
{
    spelling = "RFM_RESET";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s: board reset", spelling );
    }
    setupHardware( ucb );
}
break;
case RFM_ENABL_DIAG_MSG: /* Turn on all debug messages    */
{
    spelling = "RFM_ENABL_DIAG_MSG";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s: enable messages",
            spelling );
    }
    rfmDebug = ~0;
}
break;
case RFM_DISABL_DIAG_MSG: /* Turn off all debug messages */
{
    spelling = "RFM_DISABL_DIAG_MSG";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s: disable messages",
            spelling );
    }
    rfmDebug = 0;
}
break;
case RFM_DEBUG:         /* Set new debug flags        */
{
    uint_t debug;
    spelling = "RFM_DEBUG";
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &debug,
        sizeof(debug) ) )
        goto BadCopy;
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s: new debug level = 0x%X",
            spelling, debug );
    }
    rfmDebug = debug;
}
}
```

```
        break;
case RFM_GDEDEBUG:                /* Return current debug flags */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_GDEDEBUG";
        if( copyout( (caddr_t) &rfmDebug, (caddr_t) arg,
            sizeof(rfmDebug)) ) goto BadCopy;
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "%s debug level = 0x%X",
                spelling, rfmDebug );
        }
    }
    break;
case RFM_PERFSTAT:                /* Retrieve performance stats */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_PERFSTAT";
        if( copyout( (caddr_t) &ucb->ucb_perfstat,
            (caddr_t) arg, sizeof(rfm_perfstat_t)) goto BadCopy;
    }
    break;
case RFM_ZEROSTAT:                /* Clear the performance stats */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_ZEROSTAT";
        bzero( (caddr_t) &ucb->ucb_perfstat,
            sizeof( rfm_perfstat_t ) );
    }
    break;
case RFM_DUMP_REGS:                /* Copy device regs to console */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_DUMP_REGS";
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) debugMsg(ucb, "%s", spelling);
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVTB_WAIT:                /* Wait on event B */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_EVTB_WAIT";
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
        }
        awaitSpecificEvent( ucb, UCB_PENDING_B,
            UCB_FLAGS_AWAIT, "B" );
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVTB_WAIT:                /* Wait on event B */
    {
```

```
        spelling = "RFM_EVTB_WAIT";
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) debugMsg( ucb, "%s",
            spelling );
        awaitSpecificEvent( ucb, UCB_PENDING_B,
            UCB_FLAGS_BWAIT, "B" );
    }
    break;
case RFM_EVTC_WAIT:          /* Wait on event C          */
{
    spelling = "RFM_EVTC_WAIT";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) debugMsg( ucb, "%s",
        spelling );
    awaitSpecificEvent( ucb, UCB_PENDING_C,
        UCB_FLAGS_CWAIT, "C" );
}
    break;
case RFM_FIFO_WAIT:        /* Wait on event F          */
{
    spelling = "RFM_FIFO_WAIT";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) debugMsg( ucb, "%s",
        spelling );
    awaitSpecificEvent( ucb, UCB_PENDING_F,
        UCB_FLAGS_FWAIT, "F" );
}
    break;
#if 0
case RFM_RTN_MEM_SIZE:     /* THIS IS A DUPLICATED ALIAS */
/* Get size of reflective memory */
#endif
case RFM_GMEMSIZE:        /* THIS IS A DUPLICATED ALIAS */
/* Get size of reflective memory */
{
    int memory = (int) ucb->ucb_rfmSize;
    spelling = "RFM_GMEMSIZE";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    if( copyout( (caddr_t) &memory, (caddr_t) arg,
        sizeof(memory)) goto BadCopy;
}
    break;
case RFM_PEEK:
{
    rfm_atom_t ra; /* Atomic operation descriptor */
    spelling = "RFM_PEEK";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
}
```



```

}
if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &ra,
sizeof(ra) ) ) goto BadCopy;
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL ) {
    debugMsg( ucb, "peek offset = 0x%X, size=%d",
        ra.ra_offset, ra.ra_size );
}
/* Validate parameters */
if( ra.ra_offset > ucb->ucb_rfmSize ) {
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
"attempted peek offset (0x%lX) > rfm size (0x%lX)",
            (long) ra.ra_offset,
            (long) ucb->ucb_rfmSize );
    }
    ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    goto Fini;
}
/* Get the RFM contents */
switch( ra.ra_size ) {
default:
    {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
"bad peek size (%d) at offset 0x%X",
                ra.ra_size,
                ra.ra_offset );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    }
    goto Fini;
case 1:
    {
        ra.ra_contents =
            rfm->U.b[ra.ra_offset];
    }
    break;
case 2:
    {
        ra.ra_contents =
            rfm->U.w[ra.ra_offset/2];
    }
    break;
case 4:
    {

```

```

        ra.ra_contents =
            rfm->U.l[ra.ra_offset/4];
    }
    break;
}
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL )      {
    debugMsg( ucb,
        "%d bytes at offset 0x%X are 0x%X",
        ra.ra_size, ra.ra_offset,
        ra.ra_contents );
}
if( copyout( (caddr_t) &ra, (caddr_t) arg,
    sizeof(ra))) goto BadCopy;
}
break;
case RFM_POKE:
{
    rfm_atom_t ra; /* Atomic operation descriptor */
    spelling = "RFM_POKE";
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL )      {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &ra,
        sizeof(ra) ) ) goto BadCopy;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL )      {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "poke offset=0x%X, size=%d, data=0x%X",
            ra.ra_offset, ra.ra_size,
            ra.ra_contents );
    }
    /* Validate parameters */
    if( ra.ra_offset > ucb->ucb_rfmSize ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )      {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "attempted poke offset (0x%lX) > rfm size (0x%lX)",
                (long) ra.ra_offset,
                (long) ucb->ucb_rfmSize );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
        goto Fini;
    }
    /* Set the RFM contents */
    switch( ra.ra_size ) {
    default:
        {

```

```

                                WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )      {
                                    debugMsg( ucb,
                                        "bad poke size (%d) at offset 0x%X",
                                            ra.ra_size,
                                            ra.ra_offset );
                                }
                                ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
                            }
                            goto Fini;
                        case 1:
                            {
                                rfm->U.b[ra.ra_offset] =
                                    ra.ra_contents;
                            }
                            break;
                        case 2:
                            {
                                rfm->U.w[ra.ra_offset/2] =
                                    ra.ra_contents;
                            }
                            break;
                        case 4:
                            {
                                rfm->U.l[ra.ra_offset/4] =
                                    ra.ra_contents;
                            }
                            break;
                    }
                }
                break;
            case RFM_SET_TIMEOUT:          /* Set timeout period (seconds) */
                {
                    uint_t  secs;        /* Timeout value in seconds      */
                    clock_t usec;        /* Timeout value in microseconds */
                    spelling = "RFM_SET_TIMEOUT";
                    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )      {
                        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
                    }
                    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &secs,
                                sizeof(secs) ) ) goto BadCopy;
                    usec = secs * USECONDS;
                    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )      {
                        debugMsg( ucb,
                            "event timeout is now %d seconds (%lu usec)",
                                secs, usec );
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}

```

```
    }
    ucb->ucb_eventWait = usec;
}
break;
case RFM_GET_TIMEOUT:          /* Get timeout period (seconds) */
{
    uint_t  secs;
    uint_t  usec;
    spelling = "RFM_GET_TIMEOUT";
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    secs = ucb->ucb_eventWait / USECONDS;
    usec = ucb->ucb_eventWait % USECONDS;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "event timeout is now %d.06d seconds",
            secs, usec );
    }
    if( copyout( (caddr_t) &secs, (caddr_t) arg,
        sizeof(secs)) ) {
        goto BadCopy;
    }
}
break;
case RFM_TIMEOUT:            /* Set timeout period (usec) */
{
    clock_t usec; /* Timeout value in microseconds */
    spelling = "RFM_TIMEOUT";
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &usec,
        sizeof(usec) ) ) goto BadCopy;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "event timeout is now %d usec", usec );
    }
    ucb->ucb_eventWait = usec;
}
break;
case RFM_GTIMEOUT:          /* Get timeout period (usec) */
{
    spelling = "RFM_GTIMEOUT";
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
```

```

        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )      {
        debugMsg( ucb, "event timeout is now %lu usec",
            ucb->ucb_eventWait );
    }
    if( copyout( (caddr_t) &ucb->ucb_eventWait,
        (caddr_t) arg, sizeof(ucb->ucb_eventWait)) ) {
        goto BadCopy;
    }
}
break;
case RFM_DMAININFO:
{
    rfmdmainfo_t    rdi;
    int              bad;
    spelling = "RFM_DMAININFO";
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )      {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &rdi,
        sizeof(rdi) ) ) goto BadCopy;
    /* Validate the user's information */
    bad = 0;
    if( rdi.rdi_burst > 64 ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "dma burst length limited to 64, not %d",
                    rdi.rdi_burst );
        }
        ++bad;
    }
    switch( rdi.rdi_relmode ) {
    default:
    {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "unknown bus release mode %d",
                    rdi.rdi_relmode );
        }
        ++bad;
    }
    }
    break;
case RDI_RELMODE_ROR:
case RDI_RELMODE_RWD:

```

```
case RDI_RELMODE_ROC:
case RDI_RELMODE_BCAP:
    break;
}
if( rdi.rdi_intrLeave > 15 ) {
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "dma interleave range is (0..15), not %d",
                rdi.rdi_intrLeave );
    }
    ++bad;
}
if( rdi.rdi_busreq > 3 ) {
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "VMEbus request level (%d) not 0..3",
                rdi.rdi_busreq );
    }
    ++bad;
}
if( !bad ) {
    ucb->ucb_dmaInfo = rdi;
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        dumpDmaInfo( ucb, &ucb->ucb_dmaInfo );
    }
    loadDmaInfo( ucb );
}
}
break;
case RFM_GDMAINFO:
{
    spelling = "RFM_GDMAINFO";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        dumpDmaInfo( ucb, &ucb->ucb_dmaInfo );
    }
    if( copyout( (caddr_t) &ucb->ucb_dmaInfo,
        (caddr_t) arg, sizeof(ucb->ucb_dmaInfo)) ) {
        goto BadCopy;
    }
}
break;
case RFM_CMD_INT: /* Send interrupt to chassis */
```

```

{
    char    cmd_data[2];
    spelling = "RFM_CMD_INT";
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
    }
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &cmd_data,
        sizeof(cmd_data) ) ) goto BadCopy;
    switch( rfm->rfm_bid ) {
    default:
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "unknown board ID=0x%X",
                rfm->rfm_bid );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
        break;
    case RFM_5588_MAGIC:
        /*FALLTHRU*/
    case RFM_5578_MAGIC:
        /*FALLTHRU*/
    case RFM_5576_MAGIC:
        rfm->rfm_cmn = cmd_data[1];
        /*FALLTHRU*/
    case RFM_5550_MAGIC:
        rfm->rfm_cmd = cmd_data[0];
        break;
    }
}
break;
case RFM_INTERRUPT:    /* Send interrupt to node(s)          */
{
    rfm_dnode_t rdn;          /* Holds node info          */
    if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &rdn,
        sizeof(rdn) ) ) {
        goto BadCopy;
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "sending event %d to node %d",
            rdn.rdn_channel, rdn.rdn_node );
    }
    /* Cannot send an interrupt to ourselves          */
    if( rdn.rdn_node == ucb->ucb_mynodeid ) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "node %d cannot interrupt node %d",

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        ucb->ucb_mynodeid,
        rdn.rdn_node );
    }
    ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    goto Fini;
}
/* Validate the channel */
switch( rdn.rdn_channel ) {
default:
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "invalid channel %d",
            rdn.rdn_channel );
    }
    ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
    goto Fini;
case RFM_CHANNEL_A: break;
case RFM_CHANNEL_B: break;
case RFM_CHANNEL_C: break;
}
if( rdn.rdn_node == RFM_BROADCAST ) {
    rdn.rdn_channel |= (1 << 6);
    rdn.rdn_node = 0;
}
switch( ucb->ucb_bid ) {
default:
    if( rdn.rdn_node < 0 || rdn.rdn_node > 15) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "invalid channel %d",
                rdn.rdn_channel );
        }
        ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
        goto Fini;
    }
    rfm->rfm_cmd = ((rdn.rdn_node << 2) |
        rdn.rdn_channel);
    break;
case RFM_5576_MAGIC: /* VMIVME-5576 */
    /* FALLTHRU */
case RFM_5578_MAGIC: /* VMIVME-5578 */
    /* FALLTHRU */
case RFM_5588_MAGIC: /* VMIVME-5588 */
    if( rdn.rdn_node < 0 || rdn.rdn_node > 255) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
```



```

                                "invalid channel %d",
                                rdn.rdn_channel );
                                }
                                ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
                                goto Fini;
                                }
                                rfm->rfm_cmn = rdn.rdn_node;
                                rfm->rfm_cmd = rdn.rdn_channel;
                                break;
                                }
                                }
                                break;
case RFM_INTR_INIT:                /* Purge interrupts                */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_INTR_INIT";
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
        }
        setupHardware( ucb );
    }
    break;
case RFM_INT_SENDER:              /* Return last interrupt sender */
    {
        spelling = "RFM_INT_SENDER";
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBICTL )      {
            debugMsg( ucb, "%s", spelling );
        }
        if( copyout( (caddr_t) &ucb->ucb_sender, (caddr_t) arg,
            sizeof(ucb->ucb_sender)) ) {
            goto BadCopy;
        }
    }
    break;
case RFM_NOTIFY:                  /* Reset the interrupt stuff    */
    {
        rfm_event_t    eventInfo; /* Info to use                */
        spelling = "RFM_NOTIFY";
        if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &eventInfo,
            sizeof(eventInfo) ) ) {
            goto BadCopy;
        }
        if( notificationControl( ucb, &eventInfo ) ) {
            goto Fini;
        }
    }
}

```

```
        break;
case RFM_GNOTIFY:          /* Return notification status */
    {
        int          flag;
        char         *eventName;
        char         *state;
        rfm_event_t  eventInfo; /* Info to use */
        spelling = "RFM_GNOTIFY";
        if( copyin( (caddr_t) arg, (caddr_t) &eventInfo,
                    sizeof(eventInfo) ) ) {
            goto BadCopy;
        }
        switch( eventInfo.event ) {
        default:
            {
                WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL ) {
                    debugMsg( ucb,
                              "unknown event code %d",
                              eventInfo.event );
                }
                ucb->ucb_errno = EINVAL;
            }
            goto Fini;
        case RFM_EVENT_A:
            {
                eventName = "A";
                flag = UCB_FLAGS_AINFO;
            }
            break;
        case RFM_EVENT_B:
            {
                eventName = "B";
                flag = UCB_FLAGS_BINFO;
            }
            break;
        case RFM_EVENT_C:
            {
                eventName = "C";
                flag = UCB_FLAGS_CINFO;
            }
            break;
        case RFM_EVENT_F:
            {
                eventName = "F";
                flag = UCB_FLAGS_FINFO;
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

        }
        break;
    }
    if( ucb->ucb_flags & flag )    {
        state = "enabled";
        eventInfo.sig =
            ucb->ucb_signal[eventInfo.event];
    } else {
        state = "disabled";
        eventInfo.sig = 0;
    }
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINTR ) {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "event=%s(%d) signal=%d state=%s",
            eventName, eventInfo.event,
            eventInfo.sig, state );
    }
    if( copyout( (caddr_t) &eventInfo, (caddr_t) arg,
        sizeof(eventInfo)) )    {
        goto BadCopy;
    }
}
break;
}
Fini:
    retval = ucb->ucb_errno;
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb, "%s complete (retval=%d)", spelling, retval );
    }
    topHalfUnlock( ucb );
    return( retval );
BadCopy:
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBIOCTL )    {
        debugMsg( ucb,
            "bad ioctl(2) arg address for %s", spelling );
    }
    retval = ucb->ucb_errno = EFAULT;
    topHalfUnlock( ucb );
    return( retval );
}
/*
-----
* rfm_map: called by kernel to service a mmap(2) system call
-----
*/

```

```
int
rfm_map(
    dev_t          dev,          /* Device to be mmap'ed      */
    vhandl_t       *vt,         /* Handle to caller's space  */
    off_t          off,         /* Beginning offset info region */
    int            len          /* Length to map             */
)
{
#ifdef VMEIO
    vertex_hdl_t   vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    UCB            ucb = device_info_get(vhdl);
    int            unit = ucb->ucb_unit; /* for printing */
#else
    int            unit = RFMUNIT(dev); /* Extract unit number */
    UCB            ucb = &ucbs[unit];
#endif

    register RFM   rfm = ucb->ucb_rfm;
    caddr_t        addr; /* Virtual address to map */
    int            pva; /* Process virtual address */
    topHalfLock(ucb);
    /* Validate that the region is within the device */
    if( (off+len) > ucb->ucb_rfmSize ) {
        WHENDEBDEBUG( RFM_DBMMAP ) {
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "rfmmap( ..., %d, %d, ... ) failed; rfm=%ld bytes",
                    len, off, (long) ucb->ucb_rfmSize );
        }
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( ENOMEM );
    }
    /* Compute origin address to map */
    addr = ((caddr_t) ucb->ucb_rfm) + off;
    /* Attempt to map the region into the user's application */
    if( (pva = v_mapphys( vt, addr, len )) ) {
        /* Failed for some region */
        WHENDEBDEBUG( RFM_DBMMAP ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "v_mapphys( vt, 0x%X, 0x%X ) failed",
                addr, len );
        }
        topHalfUnlock(ucb);
        return( ENOMEM );
    }
    /* Ok, the region is yours... */
    WHENDEBDEBUG( RFM_DBMMAP ) {
        debugMsg( ucb, "mapped %d bytes at offset %d to 0x%X", len,

```

```

        off, pva );
    }
    ucb->ucb_errno = 0;
    topHalfUnlock(ucb);
    return( pva );
}
/*
-----
* rfm_unmap: do any local cleanup for the munmap(2) system call
-----
* Although this routine can be called concurrently, it doesn't touch any
* shared data, so there is no need to lock it.
-----
*/
int
rfm_unmap(
    dev_t      dev,          /* Device number          */
    vhandl_t   *vt          /* Mapped address (ignored) */
)
{
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBMMAP ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "unmapped" );
    }
    return( 0 );           /* Nothing to it, really! */
}
/*
-----
* rfm_unload: release resources and prepare to be removed from memory
-----
* This routine cannot be called concurrently.
-----
*/
int
rfm_unload(
    void
)
{
    register UCB   ucb;      /* Per-device info          */
    register UCB   lucb;    /* Last info + 1            */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "checking for open devices" );
    }
    for( ucb = ucbs, lucb = ucb+NRFM; ucb < lucb; ++ucb ) {
        if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_OPEN ) {
            /* Someone is still open, so bail out          */

```

```
                WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBERROR )          {
                    debugMsg( ucb, "still busy; cannot unload" );
                }
                return( 1 );
            }
        }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "checking pending timeouts" );
    }
    for( ucb = ucbs, lucb = ucb+NRFM; ucb < lucb; ++ucb ) {
        toid_t      tid;      /* ID of existing timeout          */
        disableRfmInterrupts( ucb );
        if( (tid = ucb->ucb_eventTimeoutId) ) {
            ucb->ucb_eventTimeoutId = NULL;
            untimeout( tid );
            WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
                debugMsg( ucb, "discarded timeout" );
            }
        }
    }
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "destroying mutex's" );
    }
    for( ucb = ucbs, lucb = ucb+NRFM; ucb < lucb; ++ucb ) {
        WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
            debugMsg( UNULL, "destroying mutex" );
        }
        MUTEX_DESTROY( (mutex_t *) &ucb->ucb_mutex );
    }
    /* Release VME interrupt vector          */
    WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNULL, "freeing VMEbus interrupt vectors" );
    }
    for( ucb = ucbs, lucb = ucb+NRFM; ucb < lucb; ++ucb ) {
        if( ucb->ucb_flags & UCB_FLAGS_FOUND ) {
            WHENDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
                debugMsg( ucb,
                    "freeing adapter=%v, vector=0x%X",
                    ucb->ucb_vertex, ucb->ucb_ivec );
            }
        }
        else
            debugMsg( ucb,
                "freeing adapter=%d, vector=0x%X",
                ucb->ucb_adapter, ucb->ucb_ivec );
    }
#endif p
```

```

    }
#if VMEIO
    vmeio_intr_free(ucb->ucb_intr);
#else
    vme_ivec_free (ucb->ucb_adapter, ucb->ucb_ivec );
#endif
    ucb->ucb_flags &= ~UCB_FLAGS_FOUND;
}
}
/* Unmap device registers */
WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
    debugMsg( UNNULL, "unmapping registers" );
}
for( ucb = ucbs, lucb = ucb+NRFM; ucb < lucb; ++ucb ) {
    if( ucb->ucb_piomap ) {
        WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
            debugMsg( ucb, "freeing register map" );
        }
    }
#if VMEIO
    vmeio_piomap_free(ucb->ucb_piomap);
#else
    pio_mapfree( ucb->ucb_piomap );
#endif
    ucb->ucb_rfm = 0;
    ucb->ucb_piomap = 0;
}
}
return( 0 );
}
/*
-----
* rfm_halt: system is about to halt
-----
* This routine cannot be called concurrently.
-----
*/
void
rfm_halt(
    void
)
{
    WHENDEDEBUG( RFM_DBINIT ) {
        debugMsg( UNNULL, "halted" );
    }
}

```

VME Device Attachment on Challenge/Onyx

This chapter gives a high-level overview of the VME bus, and describes how the VME bus is attached to, and operated by Challenge and Onyx systems.

Note: For information on hardware device issues on the Origin2000 and Onyx2 platforms, refer to Chapter 12, “VME Device Attachment on Origin 2000/Onyx2,” and Chapter 13, “Services for VME Drivers on Origin 2000/Onyx 2.”.

This chapter contains useful background information if you plan to control a VME device from a user-level program. It contains important details on VME addressing if you are writing a kernel-level VME device driver.

- “Overview of the VME Bus” on page 446 summarizes the history and features of the VME bus architecture.
- “VME Bus in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 448 gives an overview of how the VME bus is integrated into Challenge and Onyx computer systems.
- “VME Bus Addresses and System Addresses” on page 454 discusses the relationship between addresses on the VME bus and addresses in the physical address space of the system.
- “Configuring VME Devices” on page 463 tells how to configure a device so that IRIX can recognize it and initialize its device driver.
- “VME Hardware in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 468 documents the hardware details of the VME implementation on those systems.

More information about VME device control appears in these chapters:

- Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices,” covers PIO and DMA access from the user process.
- Chapter 15, “Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx,” discusses the kernel services used by a kernel-level VME device driver, and contains an example.

Overview of the VME Bus

The VME bus dates to the early 1980s. It was designed as a flexible interconnection between multiple master and slave devices using a variety of address and data precisions, and has become a popular standard bus used in a variety of products. (For ordering information on the standards documents, see “Standards Documents” on page xl.)

In Silicon Graphics systems, the VME bus is treated as an I/O device, not as the main system bus.

VME History

The VME bus descends from the VERSAbus, a bus design published by Motorola, Inc., in 1980 to support the needs of the MC68000 line of microprocessors. The bus timing relationships and some signal names still reflect this heritage, although the VME bus is used by devices from many manufacturers today.

The original VERSAbus design specified a large form factor for pluggable cards. Because of this, it was not popular with European designers. A bus with a smaller form factor but similar functions and electrical specifications was designed for European use, and promoted by Motorola, Phillips, Thompson, and other companies. This was the VersaModule European, or VME, bus. Beginning with rev B of 1982, the bus quickly became an accepted standard.

VME Features

A VME bus is a set of parallel conductors that interconnect multiple processing devices. The devices can exchange data in units of 8, 16, 32 or 64 bits during a bus cycle.

VME Address Spaces

Each VME device identifies itself with a range of bus addresses. A bus address has either 16, 24, or 32 bits of precision. Each address width forms a separate address space. That is, the same numeric value can refer to one device in the 24-bit address space but a different device in the 32-bit address space. Typically, a device operates in only one address space, but some devices can be configured to respond to addresses in multiple spaces.

Each VME bus cycle contains the bits of an address. The address is qualified by sets of address-modifier bits that specify the following:

- the address space (A16, A24, or A32)
- whether the operation is single or a block transfer
- whether the access is to what, in the MC68000 architecture, would be data or code, in a supervisor or user area (Silicon Graphics systems support only supervisor-data and user-data requests)

Master and Slave Devices

Each VME device acts as either a bus master or a bus slave. Typically a bus master is a device with some level of programmability, usually a microprocessor. A disk controller is an example of a master device. A slave device is typically a nonprogrammable device like a memory board.

Each data transfer is initiated by a master device. The master

- asserts ownership of the bus
- specifies the address modifier bits for the transfer, including the address space, single/block mode, and supervisor/normal mode
- specifies the address for the transfer
- specifies the data unit size for the transfer (8, 16, 32 or 64 bits)
- specifies the direction of the transfer with respect to the master

The VME bus design permits multiple master devices to use the bus, and provides a hardware-based arbitration system so that they can use the bus in alternation.

A slave device responds to a master when the master specifies the slave's address. The addressed slave accepts data, or provides data, as directed.

VME Transactions

The VME design allows for four types of data transfer bus cycles:

- A read cycle returns data from the slave to the master.
- A write cycle sends data from the master to the slave.
- A read-modify-write cycle takes data from the slave, and on the following bus cycle sends it back to the same address, possibly altered.
- A block-transfer transaction sends multiple data units to adjacent addresses in a burst of consecutive bus cycles.

The VME design also allows for interrupts. A device can raise an interrupt on any of seven *interrupt levels*. The interrupt is acknowledged by a bus master. The bus master interrogates the interrupting device in an interrupt-acknowledge bus cycle, and the device returns an interrupt vector number.

In Silicon Graphics systems, it is always the Silicon Graphics VME controller that acknowledges interrupts. It passes the interrupt to one of the CPUs in the system.

VME Bus in Challenge and Onyx Systems

The VME bus was designed as the system backplane for a workstation, supporting one or more CPU modules along with the memory and I/O modules they used. However, no Silicon Graphics computer uses the VME bus as the system backplane. In all Challenge and Onyx computers, the main system bus that connects CPUs to memory is a proprietary bus design, with higher speed and sometimes wider data units than the VME bus provides. The VME bus is attached to the system as an I/O device.

This section provides an overview of the design of the VME bus in any Challenge and Onyx system. It is sufficient background for most users of VME devices. For a more detailed look at the Challenge and Onyx implementation of VME, see “VME Hardware in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 468.

The VME Bus Controller

A VME bus controller is attached to the system bus to act as a bridge between the system bus and the VME bus. This arrangement is shown in Figure 14-1.

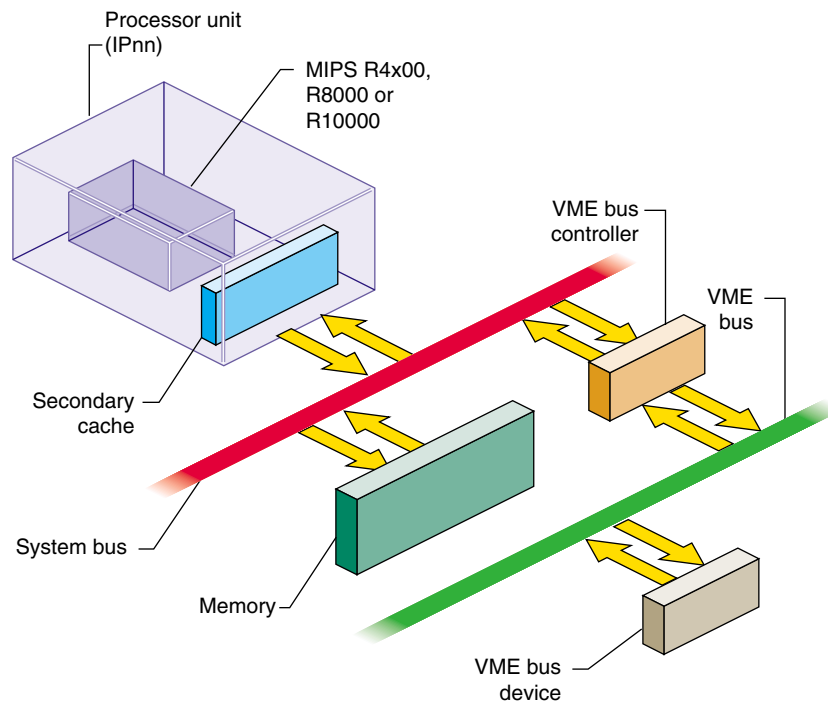


Figure 14-1 Relationship of VME Bus to System Bus

On the system bus, the VME bus controller acts as an I/O device. On the VME bus, the bus controller acts as a VME bus master.

The VME controller has several tasks. Its most important task is mapping; that is, translating some range of physical addresses in the system address space to a range of VME bus addresses. The VME controller performs a variety of other duties for different kinds of VME access.

VME PIO Operations

During programmed I/O (PIO) to the VME bus, software in the CPU loads or stores the contents of CPU registers to a device on the VME bus. The operation of a CPU load from a VME device register is as follows:

1. The CPU executes a load from a system physical address.
2. The system recognizes the physical address as one of its own.
3. The system translates the physical address into a VME bus address.
4. Acting as a VME bus master, the system starts a read cycle on the VME bus.
5. A slave device on the VME bus responds to the VME address and returns data.
6. The VME controller initiates a system bus cycle to return the data packet to the CPU, thus completing the load operation.

A store to a VME device is similar except that it performs a VME bus write, and no data is returned.

PIO input requires two system bus cycles—one to request the data and one to return it—separated by the cycle time of the VME bus. PIO output takes only one system bus cycle, and the VME bus write cycle run concurrently with the next system bus cycle. As a result, PIO input always takes at least twice as much time as PIO output.

VME PIO Bandwidth

VME bus:PIO to:bandwidthOn a Challenge L or Onyx system, the maximum rate of PIO output is approximately 750K writes per second. The maximum rate of PIO input is approximately 250K reads per second. The corresponding data rate depends on the number of bytes transferred on each operation, as summarized in Table 14-1.

Table 14-1 VME Bus PIO Bandwidth

Data Unit Size	Read	Write
D8	0.25 MB/second	0.75 MB/second
D16	0.5 MB/second	1.5 MB/second
D32	1 MB/second	3 MB/second

Note: The numbers in Table 14-1 were obtained by doing continuous reads, or continuous writes, to a device in the Challenge chassis. When reads and writes alternate, add approximately 1 microsecond for each change of direction. The use of a repeater to extend to an external card cage would add 200 nanoseconds or more to each transfer.

VME DMA Operations

A VME device that can act as a bus master can perform DMA into memory. The general sequence of operations in this case is as follows:

1. Kernel software uses PIO to program the device registers of the VME device, instructing it to perform DMA to a certain VME bus address for a specified length of data.
2. The VME bus master initiates the first read, write, block-read, or block-write cycle on the VME bus.
3. The VME controller, responding as a slave device on the VME bus, recognizes the VME bus address as one that corresponds to a physical memory address in the system.
4. If the bus master is writing, the VME controller accepts the data and initiates a system bus cycle to write the data to system memory.
If the bus master is reading, the VME controller uses a system bus cycle to read data from system memory, and returns the data to the bus master.
5. The bus master device continues to use the VME controller as a slave device until it has completed the DMA transfer.

During a DMA transaction, the VME bus controller operates independently of any CPU. CPUs in the system execute software concurrently with the data transfer. Since the system bus is faster than the VME bus, the data transfer takes place at the maximum data rate that the VME bus master can sustain.

Operation of the DMA Engine

In the Challenge and Onyx lines, the VME controller contains a “DMA Engine” that can be programmed to perform DMA-type transfers between memory and a VME device that is a slave, not a bus master. The general course of operations in a DMA engine transfer is as follows:

1. The VME bus controller is programmed to perform a DMA transfer to a certain physical address for a specified amount of data from a specified device address in VME address space.
2. The VME bus controller, acting as the VME bus master, initiates a block read or block write to the specified device.
3. As the slave device responds to successive VME bus cycles, the VME bus controller transfers data to or from memory using the system bus.

The DMA engine transfers data independently of any CPU, and at the maximum rate the VME bus slave can sustain. In addition, the VME controller collects smaller data units into blocks of the full system bus width, minimizing the number of system bus cycles needed to transfer data. For both these reasons, DMA engine transfers are faster than PIO transfers for all but very short transfer lengths.

DMA Engine Bandwidth

The maximum performance of the DMA engine for D32 transfers is summarized in Table 14-2. Performance with D64 Block transfers is somewhat less than twice the rate shown in Table 14-2. Transfers for larger sizes are faster because the setup time is amortized over a greater number of bytes.

Table 14-2 VME Bus Bandwidth, DMA Engine, D32 Transfer

Transfer Size	Read	Write	Block Read	Block Write
32	2.8 MB/sec	2.6 MB/sec	2.7 MB/sec	2.7 MB/sec
64	3.8 MB/sec	3.8 MB/sec	4.0 MB/sec	3.9 MB/sec
128	5.0 MB/sec	5.3 MB/sec	5.6 MB/sec	5.8 MB/sec
256	6.0 MB/sec	6.7 MB/sec	6.4 MB/sec	7.3 MB/sec
512	6.4 MB/sec	7.7 MB/sec	7.0 MB/sec	8.0 MB/sec

Table 14-2 (continued) VME Bus Bandwidth, DMA Engine, D32 Transfer

Transfer Size	Read	Write	Block Read	Block Write
1024	6.8 MB/sec	8.0 MB/sec	7.5 MB/sec	8.8 MB/sec
2048	7.0 MB/sec	8.4 MB/sec	7.8 MB/sec	9.2 MB/sec
4096	7.1 MB/sec	8.7 MB/sec	7.9 MB/sec	9.4 MB/sec

Note: The throughput that can be achieved in VME DMA is very sensitive to several factors:

- The other activity on the VME bus.
- The blocksize (larger is better).
- Other overhead in the loop requesting DMA operations.

The loop used to generate the figures in Table 14-2 contained no activity except calls to `dma_start()`.

- the response time of the target VME board to a read or write request, in particular the time from when the VME adapter raises Data Strobe (DS) and the time the slave device raises Data Acknowledge (DTACK).

For example, if the slave device takes 500 ns to raise DTACK, there will always be fewer than 2 M data transfers per second.

VME Bus Addresses and System Addresses

Devices on the VME bus exist in one of the following address spaces:

- The 16-bit space (A16) contains numbers from 0x0000 to 0xffff.
- The 24-bit space (A24) contains numbers from 0x00 0000 to 0xff ffff.
- The 32-bit space (A32) uses numbers from 0x0000 0000 to 0xffff ffff.
- The 64-bit space (A64), defined in the revision D specification, uses 64-bit addresses.

The system bus also uses 32-bit or 64-bit numbers to address memory and other I/O devices on the system bus. In order to avoid conflicts between the meanings of address numbers, certain portions of the physical address space are reserved for VME use. The VME address spaces are mapped, that is, translated, into these ranges of physical addresses.

The translation is performed by the VME bus controller: It recognizes certain physical addresses on the system bus and translates them into VME bus addresses; and it recognizes certain VME bus addresses and translates them into physical addresses on the system bus.

Even with mapping, the entire A32 or A64 address space cannot be mapped into the physical address space. As a result, the system does not provide access to all of the VME address spaces. Only parts of the VME address spaces are available at any time.

User-Level and Kernel-Level Addressing

In a user-level program you can perform PIO and certain types of DMA operations (see Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices”), but you do not program these in terms of the physical addresses mapped to the VME bus. Instead, you call on the services of a kernel-level device driver to map a portion of VME address space into the address space of your process. The requested segment of VME space is mapped dynamically to a segment of your user-level address space—a segment that can differ from one run of the program to the next.

In a kernel-level device driver, you program PIO and DMA operations in terms of specific addresses in kernel space—memory addresses that are mapped to specified addresses in the VME bus address space. The mapping is either permanent, established by the system hardware, or dynamic, set up temporarily by a kernel function.

Note: The remainder of this chapter has direct meaning only for kernel-level drivers, which must deal with physical mappings of VME space.

PIO Addressing and DMA Addressing

The addressing needs of PIO access and DMA access are different.

PIO deals in small amounts of data, typically single bytes or words. PIO is directed to device registers that are identified with specific VME bus addresses. The association between a device register and its bus address is fixed, typically by setting jumpers or switches on the VME card.

DMA deals with extended segments of kilobytes or megabytes. The addresses used in DMA are not fixed in the device, but are programmed into it just before the data transfer begins. For example, a disk controller device can be programmed to read a certain sector and to write the sector data to a range of 512 consecutive bytes in the VME bus address space. The programming of the disk controller is done by storing numbers into its registers using PIO. While the registers respond only to fixed addresses that are configured into the board, the address to which the disk controller writes its sector data is just a number that is programmed into it each time a transfer is to start.

The key differences between addresses used by PIO and addresses used for DMA are these:

- PIO addresses are relatively few in number and cover small spans of data, while DMA addresses can span large ranges of data.
- PIO addresses are closely related to the hardware architecture of the device and are configured by hardware or firmware, while DMA addresses are simply parameters programmed into the device before each operation.

In Challenge and Onyx systems, all VME mappings are dynamic, assigned as needed. Kernel functions are provided to create and release mappings between designated VME addresses and kernel addresses.

PIO Addressing in Challenge and Onyx Systems

The Challenge and Onyx systems and their Power versions support from one to five VME buses. It is impossible to fit adequate segments of five separate A16, A24, and A32 address spaces into fixed mappings in the 40-bit physical address space available in these systems.

The VME controller in Challenge and Onyx systems uses programmable mappings. The IRIX kernel can program the mapping of twelve separate 8 MB “windows” on VME address space on each bus (a total of 96 MB of mapped space per bus). The kernel sets up VME mappings by setting the base addresses of these windows as required. A kernel-level VME device driver asks for and uses PIO mappings through the functions documented in “Mapping PIO Addresses” on page 325. Mapping PIO Addresses

VME bus:PIO to:address maps<\$startrange>A PIO map is a system object that represents the mapping from a location in the kernel’s virtual address space to some small range of addresses on a VME or EISA bus. After creating a PIO map, a device driver can use it in the following ways:

- Use the specific kernel virtual address that represents the device, either to load or store data, or to map that address into user process space.
- Copy data between the device and memory without learning the specific kernel addresses involved.
- Perform bus read-modify-write cycles to apply Boolean operators efficiently to device data.

The kernel virtual address returned by PIO mapping is not a physical memory address and is not a bus address. The kernel virtual address and the VME or EISA bus address need not have any bits in in common.

The functions used with PIO maps are summarized in Table 14-3.

Table 14-3 Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
pio_mapalloc(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Allocate a PIO map.
pio_mapfree(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Free a PIO map.

Table 14-3 (continued) Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
pio_badaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when reading an address.
pio_badaddr_val(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when reading an address and return the value read.
pio_wbadaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when writing to an address.
pio_wbadaddr_val(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when writing a specified value to an address.
pio_mapaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Convert a bus address to a virtual address.
pio_bcopyin(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from a bus address to kernel's virtual space.
pio_bcopyout(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from kernel's virtual space to a bus address.
pio_andb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-and-write.
pio_andh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-and-write.
pio_andw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-and-write.
pio_orb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-or-write.
pio_orh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-or-write.
pio_orw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-or-write.

A kernel-level device driver creates a PIO map by calling **pio_mapalloc()**. This function performs memory allocation and so can sleep. PIO maps are typically created in the **pfxedtinit()** entry point, where the driver first learns about the device addresses from the contents of the *edt_t* structure (see "Entry Point *edtinit()*" on page 151).

The parameters to **pio_mapalloc()** describe the range of addresses that can be mapped in terms of

- the bus type, ADAP_VME or ADAP_EISA from *sys/edt.h*
- the bus number, when more than one bus is supported

- the address space, using constants such as `PIOMAP_A24N` or `PIOMAP_EISA_IO` from `sys/pio.h`
- the starting bus address and a length

This call also specifies a “fixed” or “unfixed” map. The usual type is “fixed.” For the differences, see “Fixed PIO Maps” on page 459 and “Unfixed PIO Maps” on page 460.

A call to `pio_mapfree()` releases a PIO map. PIO maps created by a loadable driver must be released in the `pfxunload()` entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Testing the PIO Map

The PIO map is created from the parameters that are passed. These are not validated by `pio_mapalloc()`. If there is any possibility that the mapped device is not installed, not active, or improperly configured, you should test the mapped address.

The `pio_badaddr()` and `pio_badaddr_val()` functions test the mapped address to see if it is usable for input. Both functions perform the same operation: operating through a PIO map, they test a specified bus address for validity by reading 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes from it. The `pio_badaddr_val()` function returns the value that it reads while making the test. This can simplify coding, as shown in Example 14-1.

Example 14-1 Comparing `pio_badaddr()` to `pio_badaddr_val()`

```
unsigned int gotvalue;
piomap_t *themap;
/* Using only pio_badaddr() */
if (!pio_badaddr(themap, CTLREG, 4)
    {
    (void) pio_bcopyin(themap, CTLREG, &gotvalue, 4, 4, 0);
    ...use "gotvalue"
/* Using pio_badaddr_val() */
if (!pio_badaddr_val(themap, CTLREG, 4, &gotvalue))
{
    ...use "gotvalue"
```

The `pio_wbadaddr()` function tests a mapped device address for writeability. The `pio_wbadaddr_val()` not only tests the address but takes a specific value to write to that address in the course of testing it.

Using the Mapped Address

From a fixed PIO map you can recover a kernel virtual address that corresponds to the first bus address in the map. The **pio_mapaddr()** function is used for this.

You can use this address to load or store data into device registers. In the **pfxmap()** entry point (see “Concepts and Use of mmap()” on page 169), you can use this address with the **v_mapphys()** function to map the range of device addresses into the address space of a user process.

You cannot extract a kernel address from an unfixed PIO map, as explained under “Unfixed PIO Maps” on page 460.

Using the PIO Map in Functions

You can apply a variety of kernel functions to any PIO map, fixed or unfixed. The **pio_bcopyin()** and **pio_bcopyout()** functions copy a range of data between memory and a fixed or unfixed PIO map. These functions are optimized to the hardware that exists, and they do all transfers in the largest size possible (32 or 64 bits per transfer). If you need to transfer data in specific sizes of 1 or 2 bytes, use direct loads and stores to the mapped addresses.

The series of functions **pio_andb_rmw()** and **pio_orb_rmw()** perform a read-modify-write cycle on the VME bus. You can use them to set or clear bits in device registers. A read-modify-write cycle is faster than a load followed by a store since it uses fewer system bus cycles.

Fixed PIO Maps

On a Challenge or Onyx system, a PIO map can be either “fixed” or “unfixed.” This attribute is specified when the map is created.

The Challenge and Onyx architecture provides for a total of 15 separate, 8 MB windows on VME address space for each VME bus. Two of these are permanently reserved to the kernel, and one window is reserved for use with unfixed mappings. The remaining 12 windows are available to implement fixed PIO maps.

When the kernel creates a fixed PIO map, the map is associated with one of the 12 available VME mapping windows. The kernel tries to be clever, so that whenever a PIO map falls within an 8 MB window that already exists, the PIO map uses that window. If

the desired VME address is not covered by an open window, one of the twelve windows for that bus is opened to expose a mapping for that address.

It is possible in principle to configure thirteen devices that are scattered so widely in the A32 address space that twelve, 8 MB windows cannot cover all of them. In that unlikely case, the attempt to create the thirteenth fixed PIO map will fail for lack of a mapping window.

In order to prevent this, simply configure your PIO addresses into a span of at most 96 MB per bus (see “Configuring Device Addresses” on page 463).

Unfixed PIO Maps

When you create an unfixed PIO map, the map is not associated with any of the twelve mapping windows. As a result, the map cannot be queried for a kernel address that might be saved, or mapped into user space.

You can use an unfixed map with kernel functions that copy data or perform read-modify-write cycles. These functions use the one mapping window that is reserved for unfixed maps, repositioning it in VME space if necessary.

The *lboot* command uses an unfixed map to perform the *probe* and *exprobe* sequences from VECTOR statements (see “Configuring the System Files” on page 464). As a result, these probes do not tie up mapping windows.

DMA Addressing

DMA is supported only for the A24 and A32 address spaces. DMA addresses are always assigned dynamically in the Challenge and Onyx systems.

Mapping DMA Addresses

A DMA map is a system object that represents a mapping between a buffer in kernel virtual space and a range of VME bus addresses. After creating a DMA map, a driver uses the map to specify the target address and length to be programmed into a VME bus master before a DMA transfer.

The functions that operate on DMA maps are summarized in Table 14-4.

Table 14-4 Functions That Operate on DMA Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
<code>dma_map(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Load DMA mapping registers for an imminent transfer.
<code>dma_mapbp(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Load DMA mapping registers for an imminent transfer.
<code>dma_mapaddr(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Return the “bus virtual” address for a given map and address.
<code>dma_mapalloc(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	Y	Allocate a DMA map.
<code>dma_mapfree(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Free a DMA map.
<code>vme_adapter(D3)</code>	<code>vmereg.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Determine VME adapter that corresponds to a given memory address.

A device driver allocates a DMA map using `dma_mapalloc()`. This is typically done in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point, provided that the maximum I/O size is known at that time (see “Entry Point `edtinit()`” on page 151). The important argument to `dma_mapalloc()` is the maximum number of pages (I/O pages, the unit is `IO_NBPP` declared in `sys/immu.h`) to be mapped at one time.

Note: Challenge/Onyx:limit on VME DMA spaceIn the Challenge and Onyx systems, a limit of 64 MB of mapped DMA space per VME adapter is imposed by the hardware. Some few megabytes of this are taken early by system drivers. Owing to a bug in IRIX 5.3 and 6.1, a request for 64 MB or more is not rejected, but waits forever. However, in any release, a call to `dma_mapalloc()` that requests a single map close to the 64 MB limit is likely to wait indefinitely for enough map space to become available.

DMA maps created by a loadable driver should be released in the *pfxunload()* entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Using a DMA Map

A DMA map is used prior to a DMA transfer into or out of a buffer in kernel virtual space. The function **dma_map()** takes a DMA map, a buffer address, and a length. It assigns a span of contiguous VME addresses of the specified length, and sets up a mapping between that range of VME addresses and the physical addresses that represent the specified buffer.

When the buffer spans two or more physical pages (IO_NBPP units), **dma_map()** sets up a scatter/gather operation, so that the VME bus controller will place the data in the appropriate page frames.

It is possible that **dma_map()** cannot map the entire size of the buffer. This can occur only when the buffer spans two or more pages, and is caused by a shortage of mapping registers in the bus adapter. The function maps as much of the buffer as it can, and returns the length of the mapped data.

You must always anticipate that **dma_map()** might map less than the requested number of bytes, so that the DMA transfer has to be done in two or more operations.

Following the call to **dma_map()**, you call **dma_mapaddr()** to get the bus virtual address that represents the first byte of the buffer. This is the address you program into the bus master device (using a PIO store), in order to set its starting transfer address. Then you initiate the DMA transfer (again by storing a command into a device register using PIO).

Configuring VME Devices

To install a VME device in a Challenge or Onyx system, you need to configure the device itself to respond to PIO addresses in a supported range of VME bus addresses, and you need to inform IRIX of the device addresses.

Configuring Device Addresses

Normally a VME card can be programmed to use different VME addresses for PIO, based on jumper or switch settings on the card. The devices on a single VME bus must be configured to use unique addresses. Errors that are hard to diagnose can arise when multiple cards respond to the same bus address. Devices on different VME buses can use the same addresses.

Not all parts of each address space are accessible. The accessible parts are summarized in Table 14-5.

Table 14-5 Accessible VME Addresses in Challenge and Onyx Systems

Address Space	Challenge and Onyx Systems
A16	All
A24	0x80 0000–0xFF FFFF
A32	0x0000 0000–0x7FFF FFFF (maximum of 96 MB in 8 MB units)

Within the accessible ranges, certain VME bus addresses are used by VME devices. You can find these addresses documented in the `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm` file. You must configure OEM devices to avoid the addresses used by Silicon Graphics devices that are installed on the same system.

Finally, on the Challenge and Onyx systems, take care to cluster PIO addresses in the A32 space so that they occupy at most a 96 MB span of addresses. The reasons are explained under “Fixed PIO Maps” on page 459.

Configuring the System Files

Inform IRIX and the device driver of the existence of a VME device by adding a VECTOR statement to a file in the directory */var/sysgen/system* (see “Kernel Configuration Files” on page 56). The syntax of a VECTOR statement is documented in two places:

- The */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* file itself contains descriptive comments on the syntax and meaning of the statement, as well as numerous examples.
- The *system(4)* reference page gives a more formal definition of the syntax.

In addition to the VECTOR statement, you may need to code an IPL statement.

Coding the VECTOR Statement

The important elements in a VECTOR line are as follows:

<i>bustype</i>	Specified as <i>VME</i> for VME devices. The VECTOR statement can be used for other types of buses as well.
<i>module</i>	The base name of the device driver for this device, as used in the <i>/var/sysgen/master.d</i> database (see “Master Configuration Database” on page 55 and “How Names Are Used in Configuration” on page 259).
<i>adapter</i>	The number of the VME bus where the device is attached—the bus number in a Challenge or Onyx machine.
<i>ipl</i>	The interrupt level at which the device causes interrupts, from 0 to 7.
<i>vector</i>	An 8-bit value between 1 and 254 that the device returns during an interrupt acknowledge cycle.
<i>ctlr</i>	The “controller” number is simply an integer parameter that is passed to the device driver at boot time. It can be used for example to specify a logical unit number.
<i>iospace, iospace2, iospace3</i>	Each <i>iospace</i> group specifies the VME address space, the starting bus address, and the size of a segment of VME address space used by this device.
<i>probe</i> or <i>exprobe</i>	Specify a hardware test that can be applied at boot time to find out if the device exists.

Use the *probe* or *exprobe* parameter to program a test for the existence of the device at boot time. If the device does not respond (because it is offline or because it has been removed from the system), the *lboot* command will not invoke the device driver for this device.

The device driver specified by the *module* parameter is invoked at its *pfxedtinit()* entry point, where it receives most of the other information specified in the VECTOR statement (see “Entry Point *edtinit()*” on page 151).

Omit the *vector* parameter in either of two cases: when the device does not cause interrupts, or when it supports a programmable interrupt vector (see “Allocating an Interrupt Vector Dynamically” on page 466).

Use the *iospace* parameters to pass in the exact VME bus addresses that correspond to this device, as configured in the device. Up to three address space ranges can be passed to the driver. This does not restrict the device—it can use other ranges of addresses, but the device driver has to deduce their addresses from other information. The device driver typically uses this data to set up PIO maps (see “PIO Addressing in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 456)

Using the IPL Statement

In a Challenge or Onyx system, you can direct VME interrupts to specific CPUs. This is done with the IPL statement, also written into a file in */var/sysgen/system*. The IPL statement, which like the VECTOR statement is documented in both the *system(4)* reference page and the */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* file itself, has only two parameters:

<i>level</i>	The VME interrupt level to be directed, 0 to 7 (the same value that is coded as <i>ipl=</i> in the VECTOR statement).
<i>cpu</i>	The number of the CPU that should handle all VME interrupts at this level.

The purpose of the IPL statement is to send interrupts from specific devices to a specific CPU. There are two contradictory reasons for doing this:

- That CPU is dedicated to handling those interrupts with minimum latency
- Those interrupts would disrupt high-priority work being done on other CPUs if they were allowed to reach the other CPUs.

The IPL statement cannot direct interrupts from a specific device; it directs all interrupts that occur at the specified level.

Allocating an Interrupt Vector Dynamically

When a VME device generates an interrupt, the Silicon Graphics VME controller initiates an interrupt acknowledge (IACK) cycle on the VME bus. During this cycle, the interrupting device presents a data value that characterizes the interrupt. This is the *interrupt vector*, in VME terminology.

According to the VME standard, the interrupt vector can be a data item of 8, 16, or 32 bits. However, Challenge and Onyx systems accept only an 8-bit vector, and its value must fall in the range 1-254 inclusive. (0x00 and 0xFF are excluded because they could be generated by a hardware fault.)

The interrupt vector returned by some VME devices is hard-wired or configured into the board with switches or jumpers. When this is the case, the vector number should be written as the *vector* parameter in the VECTOR statement that describes the device (see “Configuring the System Files” on page 464).

Some VME devices are programmed with a vector number at runtime. For these devices, you omit the *vector* parameter, or give its value as an asterisk. In the device driver, you use the functions in Table 14-6 to choose a vector number.

Table 14-6 Functions to Manage Interrupt Vector Values

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
vme_ivec_alloc(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Allocate a VME bus interrupt vector.
vme_ivec_free(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Free a VME bus interrupt vector.
vme_ivec_set(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Register a VME bus interrupt vector.

Allocating a Vector

In the *pfxedtinit()* entry point, the device driver selects a vector number for the device to use. The best way to select a number is to call **vme_ivec_alloc()**, which returns a number that has not been registered for that bus, either dynamically or in a VECTOR line.

The driver then uses **vme_ivec_set()** to register the chosen vector number. This function takes parameters that specify

- The vector number
- The bus number to which it applies
- The address of the interrupt handler for this vector—typically but not necessarily the name of the *pfxintr()* entry point of the same driver
- An integer value to be passed to the interrupt entry point—typically but not necessarily the vector number

The **vme_ivec_set()** function simply registers the number in the kernel, with the following two effects:

- The **vme_ivec_alloc()** function does not return the same number to another call until the number is released.
- The specified handler is called when any device presents this vector number on an interrupt.

Multiple devices can present the identical vector, provided that the interrupt handler has some way of distinguishing one device from another.

Note: If you are working with both the VME and EISA interfaces, it is worth noting that the number and types of arguments of **vme_ivec_set()** differ from the similar EISA support function **eisa_ivec_set()**.

Releasing a Vector

There is a limit of 254 vector numbers per bus, so it is a good idea for a loadable driver, in its `pfxunload()` entry point, to release a vector by calling `vme_ivec_free()` (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Vector Errors

A common problem with programmable vectors in the Challenge or Onyx systems is the appearance of the following warning in the SYSLOG file:

```
Warning: Stray VME interrupt: vector =0xff
```

One possible cause of this error is that the board is emitting the wrong interrupt vector; another is that the board is emitting the correct vector but with the wrong timing, so that the VME bus adapter samples all-binary-1 instead. Both these conditions can be verified with a VME bus analyzer. In the Challenge or Onyx hardware design, the most likely cause is the presence of empty slots in the VME card cage. All empty slots must be properly jumpered in order to pass interrupts correctly.

VME Hardware in Challenge and Onyx Systems

The overview topic, “VME Bus in Challenge and Onyx Systems” on page 448, provides sufficient orientation for most users of VME devices. However, if you are designing hardware or a high-performance device driver specifically for the Challenge and Onyx systems, the details in this topic are important.

Note: For information on physical cabinets, panels, slot numbering, cables and jumpers, and data about dimensions and airflow, refer to the Owner’s Guide manual for your machine. For example, see the *POWER CHALLENGE AND CHALLENGE XL Rackmount Owner’s Guide* (007-1735) for the physical layout and cabling of VME busses in the large Challenge systems.

VME Hardware Architecture

The VME bus interface circuitry for Challenge and Onyx systems resides on a mezzanine board called the VMEbus Channel Adapter Module (VCAM) board. One VCAM board is standard in every system and mounts directly on top of the IO4 board in the system card cage.

The IO4 board is the heart of the I/O subsystem. The IO4 board supplies the system with a basic set of I/O controllers and system boot and configuration devices such as serial and parallel ports, and Ethernet.

In addition, the IO4 board provides these interfaces:

- two Flat Cable Interconnects (FCIs) for connection to Card Cage 3 (CC3)
- two SCSI-2 cable connections
- two Ibus connections

A Challenge or Onyx system can contain multiple IO4 boards, which can operate in parallel. (Early versions of the IO4 have a possible hardware problem that is described in Appendix B, "Challenge DMA with Multiple IO4 Boards".)

Main System Bus

The main set of buses in the Challenge and Onyx system architecture is the Everest address and data buses, Ebus for short. The Ebus provides a 256-bit data bus and a 40-bit address bus that can sustain a bandwidth of 1.2 GB per second.

The 256-bit data bus provides the data transfer capability to support a large number of high-performance RISC CPUs. The 40-bit address bus is also wide enough to support 16 GB of contiguous memory in addition to an 8 GB I/O address space.

Ibus

The 64-bit Ibus (also known as the HIO bus) is the main internal bus of the I/O subsystem and interfaces to the high-power Ebus through a group of bus adapters. The Ibus has a bandwidth of 320 MB per second that can sufficiently support a graphics subsystem, a VME64 bus, and as many as eight SCSI channels operating simultaneously.

Bus Interfacing

Communication with the VME and SCSI buses, the installed set or sets of graphics boards, and Ethernet takes place through the 64-bit Ibus. The Ibus interfaces to the main system bus, the 256-bit Ebus, through a set of interface control devices, an I address (IA) and four I data (ID). The ID ASICs latch the data, and the IA ASIC clocks the data from each ID to the Flat Cable Interface (FCI) through the F controller (or F chip).

Two FCI controllers (or F controllers) help handle the data transfers to and from an internal graphics board set (if present) and any VMEbus boards in optional CC3 applications. The SCSI-2 (S1) controller serves as an interface to the various SCSI-2 buses. The Everest peripheral controller (EPC) device manages the data movement to and from the Ethernet, a parallel port, and various types of on-board PROMs and RAM.

Maximum Latency

The worst-case delay for the start of a VME access, if all of the devices on the IO4 simultaneously request the IO channel for a 128 byte write and the VME adapter receives the grant last, the VME access start could be delayed for a total of about 2 microseconds. Only a VME read would suffer this delay; a VME write would not.

There is a another potential delay from an independent cause, which depends on the number of bus master (IO4 and CPU) boards on the system bus. If all the E-bus masters in a fairly large configuration hit the bus at once, a VME read or write could be held up by as much as 1 microsecond in a large system.

VME Bus Numbering

The Challenge and Onyx systems support up to five independent VME buses in a single system. The numbering of these buses is not sequential.

There is always a VME bus number 0. This is the bus connected to the system midplane. It is always connected by the primary IO4 board (the IO4 board attached to the highest slot on the system bus).

Bus numbers for other VME buses depend on the Ebus slot number where their IO4 is attached, and on the I/O adapter number of the VCAM card on the IO4. Each IO4 board supports adapter numbers from 1 to 7, but a VME bus can only be attached to adapter number 2, 3, 5, or 6. These four adapters are given VME index numbers of 0, 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

The bus number of a VME bus is given by $E*4+A$, where E is the Ebus slot of the IO4 card, and A is the index of the adapter on the IO4. A VME bus attached through adapter 3 on the IO4 in Ebus slot 13 is bus number 53, from the sum of adapter index 1 and 4 times the slot number.

VMEbus Channel Adapter Module (VCAM) Board

The VCAM board provides the interface between the Ebus and the VMEbus and manages the signal level conversion between the two buses. The VCAM also provides a pass-through connection that ties the graphics subsystem to the Ebus.

The VCAM can operate as either a master or a slave. It supports DMA-to-memory transactions on the Ebus and programmed I/O (PIO) operations from the system bus to addresses on the VMEbus. In addition, the VCAM provides virtual address translation capability and a DMA engine that increases the performance of non-DMA VME boards.

VMECC

The VMECC (VME Cache Controller) gate array is the major active device on the VCAM. The VMECC interfaces and translates host CPU operations to VMEbus operations (see Figure 14-2). The VMECC also decodes VMEbus operations to translate them to the host side.

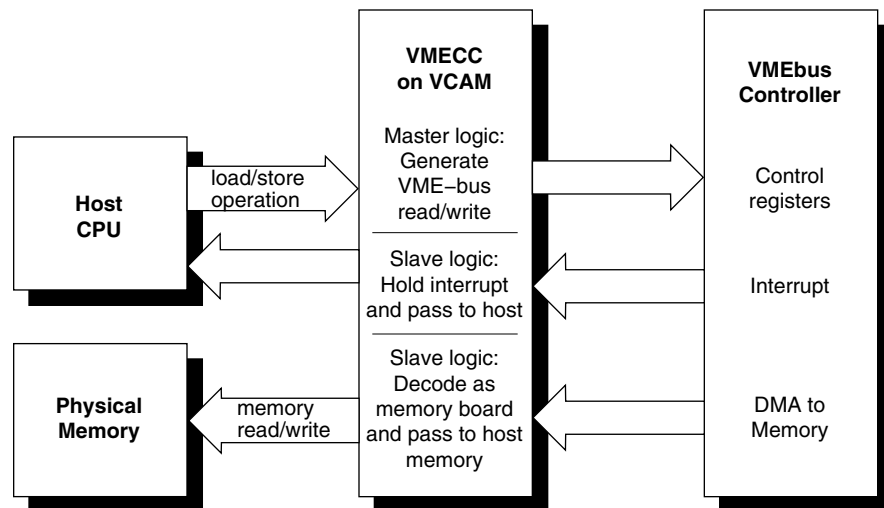


Figure 14-2 VMECC, the VMEbus Adapter

The VMECC provides the following features:

- an internal DMA engine to speed copies between physical memory and VME space (see “Operation of the DMA Engine” on page 452)
- a 16-entry deep PIO FIFO to smooth writing to the VME bus from the host CPUs
- a built-in VME interrupt handler and built-in VME bus arbiter
- an explicit internal delay register to aid in spacing PIOs for VME controller boards that cannot accept back-to-back operations
- support for issuing A16, A24, A32, and A64 addressing modes as a bus master during PIO
- support for single-item transfers (D8, D16, D32, and D64) as a bus master during PIO
- support for response as a slave to A24, A32, and A64 addressing modes to provide DMA access to the Ebus
- support for single-item transfers (D8, D16, and D32) as a slave during DMA access to the Ebus
- support for block item transfers (D8, D16, D32, and D64) as a slave during DMA access to the Ebus

The VMECC also provides four levels of VMEbus request grants, 0-3 (3 has the highest priority), for DMA arbitration. Do not confuse these bus request levels with the interrupt priority levels 1-7. Bus requests prioritize the use of the physical lines representing the bus and are normally set by means of jumpers on the interface board.

F Controller ASIC

Data transfers between VME controller boards and the host CPU(s) takes place through the VMECC on the VCAM board, then through a flat cable interface (FCI), and onto the F controller ASIC.

The F controller acts as an interface between the Ibus and the Flat Cable Interfaces (FCIs). This device is primarily composed of FIFO registers and synchronizers that provide protocol conversion and buffer transactions in both directions and translate 34-bit I/O addresses into 40-bit system addresses.

Two configurations of the F controller are used on the IO4 board; the difference between them is the instruction set they contain. One version is programmed with a set of instructions designed to communicate with the GFXCC (for graphics); the other version has instructions designed for the VMECC. All communication with the GFXCC or VMECC ICs is done over the FCI, where the F controller is always the slave.

Both versions of the F controller ASICs have I/O error-detection and handling capabilities. Data errors that occur on either the Ibus or the FCI are recorded by the F controller and sent to the VMECC or GFXCC.

ICs must report the error to the appropriate CPU and log any specific information about the operation in progress. FCI errors are recorded in the error status register. This register provides the status of the first error that occurred, as well as the cause of the most recent FCI reset.

VMEbus Interrupt Generation

The VME bus supports seven levels of prioritized interrupts, 1 through 7 (where 7 has the highest priority). The VMECC has a register associated with each level. When the system responds to the VMEbus interrupt, it services all devices identified in the interrupt vector register in order of their VMEbus priority (highest number first). The following list outlines how a VMEbus interrupt is generated:

1. A VME controller board asserts a VME interrupt on one of the IRQ levels.
2. The built-in interrupt handler in the VMECC chip checks if the interrupt level is presently enabled by an internal interrupt mask.
3. The interrupt handler in the VMECC issues a bussed IACK (interrupt acknowledge) response and acquires the vector from the device. The 3-bit response identifies one of the seven VME levels.
4. If multiple VME boards are present, the bussed IACK signal is sent to the first VME controller as an IACKIN. When the first controller is not the requesting master, it passes the IACKIN signal to the next board (in the daisy-chain) as IACKOUT.
5. The requesting board responds to IACKIN by issuing a DTACK* (data acknowledge signal), blocking the IACKOUT signal to the next board, and placing an 8-bit interrupt vector number on the data bus.
6. The VMECC latches the interrupt vector, and an interrupt signal is sent over the FCI interface to the F-chip and is queued awaiting completion of other F-chip tasks.
7. The F controller ASIC requests the I-bus and sends the interrupt to the IA chip.

8. The IA chip requests the Ebus and sends the interrupt over the Ebus to the CC chip on the IP19/IP21 board.
9. The CC chip interrupts the R4400/R8000, provided that the interrupt level is not masked.

The time for this to complete is normally less than 3 microseconds, but will be queued to await completion of other VME activities.

VME Interface Features and Restrictions

The Challenge and Onyx VME interface supports all protocols defined in Revision C of the VME specification plus the A64 and D64 modes defined in Revision D. The D64 mode allows DMA bandwidths of up to 60 MB. This bus also supports the following features:

- seven levels of prioritized processor interrupts
- 16-bit, 24-bit, and 32-bit data addresses and 64-bit memory addresses
- 16-bit and 32-bit accesses (and 64-bit accesses in MIPS III mode)
- 8-bit, 16-bit, 32-bit, and 64-bit data transfer
- DMA to and from main memory

DMA Multiple Address Mapping

In the Challenge and Onyx series, a DMA address from a VME controller goes through a two-level translation to generate an acceptable physical address. This requires two levels of mapping. The first level of mapping is done through the map RAM on the IO4 board. The second level is done through the map tables in system memory. This mapping is shown in Figure 14-3.

Note: The second level mapping requires system memory to be reserved for the mapping tables. The current limit on the number of pages that is allocated for map tables is 16 pages and the maximum memory allotted for the map tables is 64 KB. The R4400 provides a 4 KB page size for 16 pages (4 KB * 16 pages = 64 KB). The R8000 provides a 16 KB page size for 4 pages (16 KB * 4 pages = 64 KB).

Each second-level map table entry corresponds to 4 KB of physical memory. In addition, each second-level map table entry is 4 bytes. With 64 KB of mapping table, there are a total of 16 K entries translating a maximum of 64 MB of DMA mapping, setting a limit of 64 MB that can be mapped at any time for each VME bus. This does not set any limit on the amount of DMA that can be done by a board during its operation.

Referring to the top of Figure 14-3, bits 32 and 33 from the IBus address come from the VMECC. These two bits determine a unique VMEbus number for systems with multiple VME buses. Of the remaining 32 bits (31 to 0), 12 are reserved for an offset in physical memory, and the other 20 bits are used to select up to 2^{20} or 1 million pages into the main memory table. However, as stated earlier only 64 KB is allocated for map tables.

As shown in Figure 14-3, thirteen bits go to the static RAM table. Recall that two of the thirteen bits are from the VMECC to identify the VMEbus number. The static RAM table then generates a 29-bit identifier into the main memory table. These 29 bits select a table in the main memory table. An additional nine bits select an entry or element within the table. A 00 (two zeros) are appended to form a 40-bit address into the main memory table.

The main memory table then generates 28-bit address which is then appended to the 12-bit offset of the IBus to form the final 40-bit physical address.

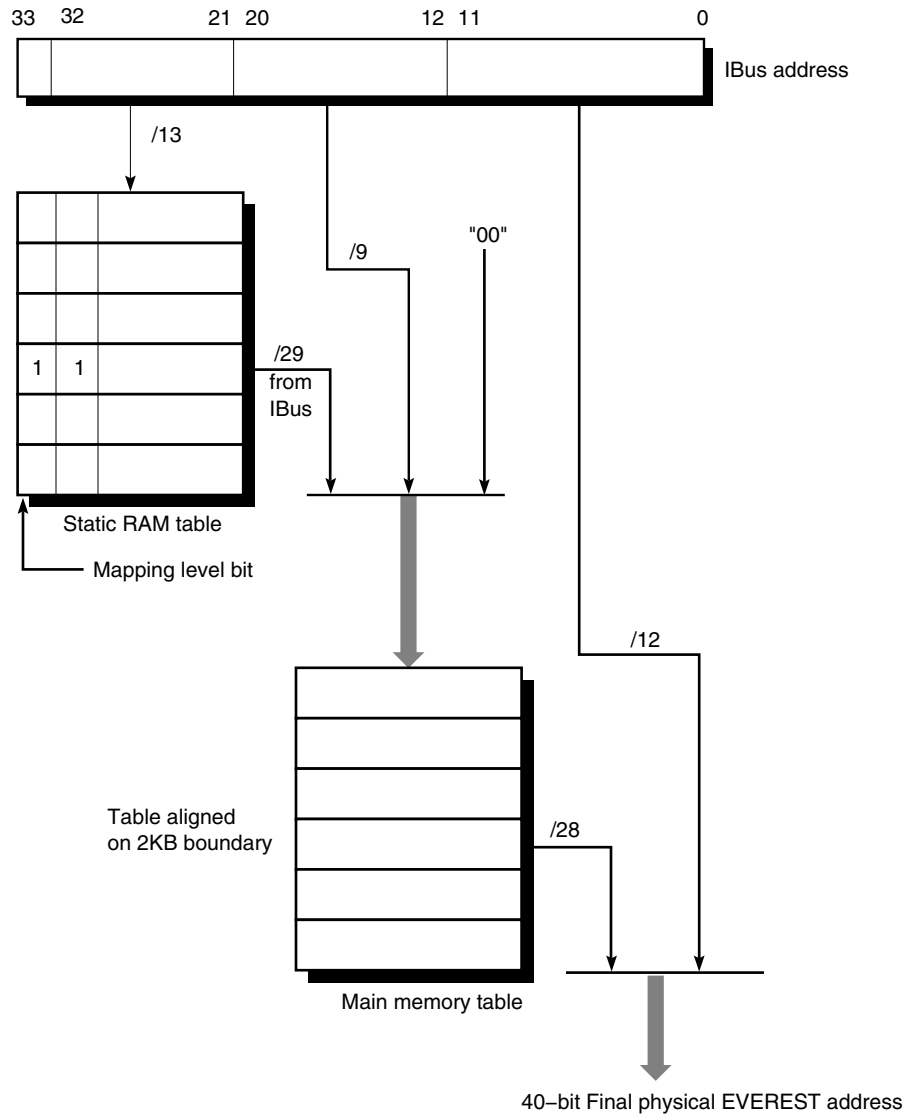


Figure 14-3 I/O Address to System Address Mapping

VME Interrupt Priority

Interrupts within the Challenge/Onyx architecture are managed by a set of interrupt vectors. An interrupt generated by an I/O device like a VME controller in turn generates an interrupt to the CPU on one of the previously assigned levels.

Each IRQ on each VME bus is assigned an internal interrupt level, and by default all these levels are at the same priority. If multiple interrupts arrive simultaneously within a single bus, for example IRQ 3 and IRQ 4 at once, priority is given to the higher-numbered IRQ.

All VME interrupts are made to go to CPU 0 (unless configured differently with IPL statements). This prevents one interrupt level from preempting the driver handling a different VME interrupt level.

VME Hardware Features and Restrictions

When designing an OEM hardware board to interface to the Challenge or Onyx VME bus, observe the following restrictions:

- Devices should require 8-bit interrupt vectors only. This is the only interrupt vector size that is supported by the VMECC or recognized by the IRIX kernel.
- Devices must not require UAT (unaligned transfer or tri-byte) access.
- Devices in slave mode must not require address modifiers other than Supervisory/Nonprivileged data access.
- While in master mode, a device must use only nonprivileged data access or nonprivileged block transfers.
- The Challenge or Onyx VME bus does not support VSBbus boards. In addition, there are no pins on the back of the VME backplane. This area is inaccessible for cables or boards.
- Metal face plates or front panels on VME boards may prevent the I/O door from properly closing and can possibly damage I/O bulkhead. (In some VME enclosures, a face plate supplies required EMI shielding. However, the Challenge chassis already provides sufficient shielding, so these plates are not necessary.)

Designing a VME Bus Master for Challenge and Onyx Systems

The following notes are related to the design of a VME bus master device to work with a machine in the Challenge/Onyx series. A VME bus master, when programmed using the functions described in “Mapping DMA Addresses” on page 460, can transfer data between itself and system memory.

The setup time at the start of a DMA transfer is as follows:

- First word of a read is delivered to the master in 3 to 8 microseconds.
- First word of a write is retrieved from the master in 1 to 3 microseconds.

The F controller does the mapping from A32 mode into system memory and automatically handles the crossing of page boundaries. The VME Bus Master is not required to make AS go high and then low on 4 KB boundaries. However, when using A64 addressing, the device may have to change the address on the 4 KB boundaries and cause a transition on AS low to high, and then back to low. This incurs new setup delays.

The important parts of the VME handshake cycle are diagrammed in Figure 14-4.

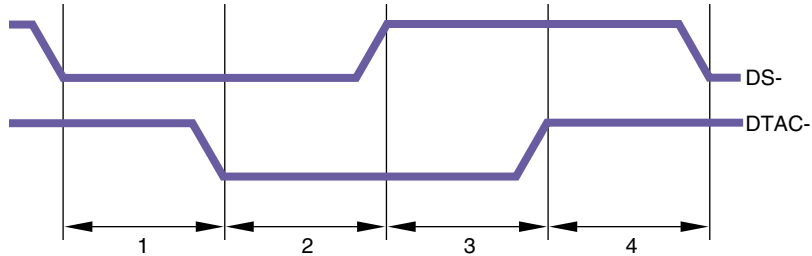


Figure 14-4 VMECC Contribution to VME Handshake Cycle Time

Intervals 1 and 3 represent the response latency in the bus slave (the VMECC). Intervals 2 and 4 represent the latency in the VME Bus Master. In the Challenge and Onyx systems,

- part 1 is approximately 40 nanoseconds
- part 3 is approximately 25 nanoseconds

The total contribution by the VMECC is approximately 65 nanoseconds. If the total of the four intervals can be held to 125 nanoseconds, the absolute peak transfer rate (in D64 mode) is 64 MB per second.

Note: Startup and latency numbers are averages and may occasionally be longer. The system design does not have any guaranteed latency.

The VME specification provides for a burst length of 265 bytes in D8, D16, and D32 modes, or 2 KB in D64. The burst length is counted in bytes, not transfer cycles.

Operating at this burst length, the duration of a single burst of 2 KB would be 256 transfers at 125 nanoseconds each, plus a startup of roughly 5 microseconds, giving a total of 37 microseconds per burst. Continuous, back-to-back bursts could achieve at most 55 MB per second.

However, the Challenge and Onyx VMECC uses a 20-bit burst counter allowing up to 2 MB in a burst of any data size. Suppose the bus master transfers 64 KB per burst, transferring 4-byte data words. The duration of a single burst would be 8,192 times 125 nanoseconds, plus 5 microseconds startup, or 1,029 microseconds per burst. Continuous bursts of this size achieve a data rate of 63.7 MB per second.

The use of long bursts violates the VME standard, and a bus master that depends on long bursts is likely not to work in other computers. If you decide to exceed the VME bus specifications, you should condition this feature with a field in a control register on the VME board, so that it can be disabled for use on other VME systems.

Services for VME Drivers on Challenge/Onyx

This chapter provides an overview of the kernel services needed by a kernel-level VME device driver on Challenge and Onyx systems. It contains a complete example driver.

Note: For information on writing VME device drivers for Origina and Onyx2 systems, refer to Chapter 13. For information on porting IRIX 6.2 drivers to IRIX 6.5, refer to “Porting From IRIX 6.2” on page 369.

Kernel Services for VME

The kernel provides services for mapping the VME bus into the kernel virtual address space for PIO or DMA, and for transferring data using maps. It also provides services for allocating interrupt vector numbers.

Mapping PIO Addresses

A PIO map is a system object that represents the mapping from a location in the kernel’s virtual address space to some small range of addresses on a VME or EISA bus. After creating a PIO map, a device driver can use it in the following ways:

- Use the specific kernel virtual address that represents the device, either to load or store data, or to map that address into user process space.
- Copy data between the device and memory without learning the specific kernel addresses involved.
- Perform bus read-modify-write cycles to apply Boolean operators efficiently to device data.

The kernel virtual address returned by PIO mapping is not a physical memory address and is not a bus address. The kernel virtual address and the VME or EISA bus address need not have any bits in in common.

The functions used with PIO maps are summarized in Table 15-1.

Table 15-1 Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
pio_mapalloc(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Allocate a PIO map.
pio_mapfree(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Free a PIO map.
pio_badaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when reading an address.
pio_badaddr_val(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when reading an address and return the value read.
pio_wbadaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when writing to an address.
pio_wbadaddr_val(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when writing a specified value to an address.
pio_mapaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Convert a bus address to a virtual address.
pio_bcopyin(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from a bus address to kernel's virtual space.
pio_bcopyout(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from kernel's virtual space to a bus address.
pio_andb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-and-write.
pio_andh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-and-write.
pio_andw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-and-write.
pio_orb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-or-write.
pio_orh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-or-write.
pio_orw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-or-write.

A kernel-level device driver creates a PIO map by calling **pio_mapalloc()**. This function performs memory allocation and so can sleep. PIO maps are typically created in the **pfxedtinit()** entry point, where the driver first learns about the device addresses from the contents of the *edt_t* structure (see "Entry Point edtinit()" on page 151).

The parameters to **pio_mapalloc()** describe the range of addresses that can be mapped in terms of

- the bus type, ADAP_VME or ADAP_EISA from *sys/edt.h*
- the bus number, when more than one bus is supported
- the address space, using constants such as PIOMAP_A24N or PIOMAP_EISA_IO from *sys/pio.h*
- the starting bus address and a length

This call also specifies a “fixed” or “unfixed” map. The usual type is “fixed.” For the differences, see “Fixed PIO Maps” on page 484 and “Unfixed PIO Maps” on page 485.

A call to **pio_mapfree()** releases a PIO map. PIO maps created by a loadable driver must be released in the *pfxunload()* entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Testing the PIO Map

The PIO map is created from the parameters that are passed. These are not validated by **pio_mapalloc()**. If there is any possibility that the mapped device is not installed, not active, or improperly configured, you should test the mapped address.

The **pio_badaddr()** and **pio_badaddr_val()** functions test the mapped address to see if it is usable for input. Both functions perform the same operation: operating through a PIO map, they test a specified bus address for validity by reading 1, 2, 4, or 8 bytes from it. The **pio_badaddr_val()** function returns the value that it reads while making the test. This can simplify coding, as shown in Example 15-1.

Example 15-1 Comparing `pio_badaddr()` to `pio_badaddr_val()`

```
unsigned int gotvalue;
piomap_t *themap;
/* Using only pio_badaddr() */
if (!pio_badaddr(themap, CTLREG, 4)
    {
        (void) pio_bcopyin(themap, CTLREG, &gotvalue, 4, 4, 0);
        ...use "gotvalue"
/* Using pio_badaddr_val() */
if (!pio_badaddr_val(themap, CTLREG, 4, &gotvalue))
    {
        ...use "gotvalue"
```

The **pio_wbadaddr()** function tests a mapped device address for writeability. The **pio_wbadaddr_val()** not only tests the address but takes a specific value to write to that address in the course of testing it.

Using the Mapped Address

From a fixed PIO map you can recover a kernel virtual address that corresponds to the first bus address in the map. The **pio_mapaddr()** function is used for this.

You can use this address to load or store data into device registers. In the **pfxmap()** entry point (see “Concepts and Use of mmap()” on page 169), you can use this address with the **v_mapphys()** function to map the range of device addresses into the address space of a user process.

You cannot extract a kernel address from an unfixed PIO map, as explained under “Unfixed PIO Maps” on page 485.

Using the PIO Map in Functions

You can apply a variety of kernel functions to any PIO map, fixed or unfixed. The **pio_bcopyin()** and **pio_bcopyout()** functions copy a range of data between memory and a fixed or unfixed PIO map. These functions are optimized to the hardware that exists, and they do all transfers in the largest size possible (32 or 64 bits per transfer). If you need to transfer data in specific sizes of 1 or 2 bytes, use direct loads and stores to the mapped addresses.

The series of functions **pio_andb_rmw()** and **pio_orb_rmw()** perform a read-modify-write cycle on the VME bus. You can use them to set or clear bits in device registers. A read-modify-write cycle is faster than a load followed by a store since it uses fewer system bus cycles.

Fixed PIO Maps

On a Challenge or Onyx system, a PIO map can be either “fixed” or “unfixed.” This attribute is specified when the map is created.

The Challenge and Onyx architecture provides for a total of 15 separate, 8 MB windows on VME address space for each VME bus. Two of these are permanently reserved to the kernel, and one window is reserved for use with unfixed mappings. The remaining 12 windows are available to implement fixed PIO maps.

When the kernel creates a fixed PIO map, the map is associated with one of the 12 available VME mapping windows. The kernel tries to be clever, so that whenever a PIO map falls within an 8 MB window that already exists, the PIO map uses that window. If the desired VME address is not covered by an open window, one of the twelve windows for that bus is opened to expose a mapping for that address.

It is possible in principle to configure thirteen devices that are scattered so widely in the A32 address space that twelve, 8 MB windows cannot cover all of them. In that unlikely case, the attempt to create the thirteenth fixed PIO map will fail for lack of a mapping window.

In order to prevent this, simply configure your PIO addresses into a span of at most 96 MB per bus (see “Available PIO Addresses” on page 336).

Unfixed PIO Maps

When you create an unfixed PIO map, the map is not associated with any of the twelve mapping windows. As a result, the map cannot be queried for a kernel address that might be saved, or mapped into user space.

You can use an unfixed map with kernel functions that copy data or perform read-modify-write cycles. These functions use the one mapping window that is reserved for unfixed maps, repositioning it in VME space if necessary.

The *lboot* command uses an unfixed map to perform the *probe* and *exprobe* sequences from VECTOR statements (see “Configuring VME Devices” on page 342). As a result, these probes do not tie up mapping windows.

Mapping DMA Addresses

A DMA map is a system object that represents a mapping between a buffer in kernel virtual space and a range of VME bus addresses. After creating a DMA map, a driver uses the map to specify the target address and length to be programmed into a VME bus master before a DMA transfer.

The functions that operate on DMA maps are summarized in Table 15-2.

Table 15-2 Functions That Operate on DMA Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
<code>dma_map(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Load DMA mapping registers for an imminent transfer.
<code>dma_mapbp(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Load DMA mapping registers for an imminent transfer.
<code>dma_mapaddr(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Return the “bus virtual” address for a given map and address.
<code>dma_mapalloc(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	Y	Allocate a DMA map.
<code>dma_mapfree(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Free a DMA map.
<code>vme_adapter(D3)</code>	<code>vmereg.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Determine VME adapter that corresponds to a given memory address.

A device driver allocates a DMA map using `dma_mapalloc()`. This is typically done in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point, provided that the maximum I/O size is known at that time (see “Entry Point `edtinit()`” on page 151). The important argument to `dma_mapalloc()` is the maximum number of pages (I/O pages, the unit is `IO_NBPP` declared in `sys/immu.h`) to be mapped at one time.

Note: In the Challenge and Onyx systems, a limit of 64 MB of mapped DMA space per VME adapter is imposed by the hardware. Some few megabytes of this are taken early by system drivers. Owing to a bug in IRIX 5.3 and 6.1, a request for 64 MB or more is not rejected, but waits forever. However, in any release, a call to **dma_mapalloc()** that requests a single map close to the 64 MB limit is likely to wait indefinitely for enough map space to become available.

DMA maps created by a loadable driver should be released in the **pfxunload()** entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Using a DMA Map

A DMA map is used prior to a DMA transfer into or out of a buffer in kernel virtual space. The function **dma_map()** takes a DMA map, a buffer address, and a length. It assigns a span of contiguous VME addresses of the specified length, and sets up a mapping between that range of VME addresses and the physical addresses that represent the specified buffer.

When the buffer spans two or more physical pages (IO_NBPP units), **dma_map()** sets up a scatter/gather operation, so that the VME bus controller will place the data in the appropriate page frames.

It is possible that **dma_map()** cannot map the entire size of the buffer. This can occur only when the buffer spans two or more pages, and is caused by a shortage of mapping registers in the bus adapter. The function maps as much of the buffer as it can, and returns the length of the mapped data.

You must always anticipate that **dma_map()** might map less than the requested number of bytes, so that the DMA transfer has to be done in two or more operations.

Following the call to **dma_map()**, you call **dma_mapaddr()** to get the bus virtual address that represents the first byte of the buffer. This is the address you program into the bus master device (using a PIO store), in order to set its starting transfer address. Then you initiate the DMA transfer (again by storing a command into a device register using PIO).

Allocating an Interrupt Vector Dynamically

When a VME device generates an interrupt, the Silicon Graphics VME controller initiates an interrupt acknowledge (IACK) cycle on the VME bus. During this cycle, the interrupting device presents a data value that characterizes the interrupt. This is the *interrupt vector*, in VME terminology.

According to the VME standard, the interrupt vector can be a data item of 8, 16, or 32 bits. However, Silicon Graphics systems accept only an 8-bit vector, and its value must fall in the range 1-254 inclusive. (0x00 and 0xFF are excluded because they could be generated by a hardware fault.)

The interrupt vector returned by some VME devices is hard-wired or configured into the board with switches or jumpers. When this is the case, the vector number should be written as the *vector* parameter in the VECTOR statement that describes the device (see “Configuring VME Devices” on page 342).

Some VME devices are programmed with a vector number at runtime. For these devices, you omit the *vector* parameter, or give its value as an asterisk. In the device driver, you use the functions in Table 15-3 to choose a vector number.

Table 15-3 Functions to Manage Interrupt Vector Values

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
vme_ivec_alloc(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Allocate a VME bus interrupt vector.
vme_ivec_free(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Free a VME bus interrupt vector.
vme_ivec_set(D3)	vmereg.h & types.h	N	Register a VME bus interrupt vector.

Allocating a Vector

In the *pxedtinit()* entry point, the device driver selects a vector number for the device to use. The best way to select a number is to call **vme_ivec_alloc()**, which returns a number that has not been registered for that bus, either dynamically or in a VECTOR line.

The driver then uses **vme_ivec_set()** to register the chosen vector number. This function takes parameters that specify

- The vector number
- The bus number to which it applies
- The address of the interrupt handler for this vector—typically but not necessarily the name of the *pxintr()* entry point of the same driver
- An integer value to be passed to the interrupt entry point—typically but not necessarily the vector number

The **vme_ivec_set()** function simply registers the number in the kernel, with the following two effects:

- The **vme_ivec_alloc()** function does not return the same number to another call until the number is released.
- The specified handler is called when any device presents this vector number on an interrupt.

Multiple devices can present the identical vector, provided that the interrupt handler has some way of distinguishing one device from another.

Note: If you are working with both the VME and EISA interfaces, it is worth noting that the number and types of arguments of **vme_ivec_set()** differ from the similar EISA support function **eisa_ivec_set()**.

Releasing a Vector

There is a limit of 254 vector numbers per bus, so it is a good idea for a loadable driver, in its *pfxunload()* entry point, to release a vector by calling *vme_ivec_free()* (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Vector Errors

A common problem with programmable vectors in the Challenge or Onyx systems is the appearance of the following warning in the SYSLOG file:

```
Warning: Stray VME interrupt: vector =0xff
```

One possible cause of this error is that the board is emitting the wrong interrupt vector; another is that the board is emitting the correct vector but with the wrong timing, so that the VME bus adapter samples all-binary-1 instead. Both these conditions can be verified with a VME bus analyzer. In the Challenge or Onyx hardware design, the most likely cause is the presence of empty slots in the VME card cage. All empty slots must be properly jumpered in order to pass interrupts correctly.

Supporting Early IO4 Cache Problems

VME drivers that support DMA to buffers that are not cache-aligned multiples of a cache-line need to take special precautions in a Challenge system; see Appendix B, “Challenge DMA with Multiple IO4 Boards”.

Sample VME Device Driver

The source module displayed in Table 15-2 contains a complete character device driver for a hypothetical VME device. Although it is a character driver, it contains a strategy routine (the *cdev_strategy()* function). Both the *pfxread()* and *pfxwrite()* entry points call the strategy routine to perform the actual I/O. As a result, this driver could be installed as either a block device driver or a character driver, or as both.

The driver is multiprocessor-aware, so its *pfxdevflag* global contains *D_MP*. It uses two locks. A basic lock (*board.cd_lock*) is used for short-term mutual exclusion, to block a potential race between the strategy routine and the interrupt routine. A semaphore (*board.cd_rwsema*) is used for long-term mutual exclusion to make sure that only one process uses the device for reading or writing at any time.

Example 15-2 Example VME Character Driver

```

/*****\
*      File:          cdev.c                                *
*                                                           *
*      The following is an example of how a device driver for a VME *
*      character device might be written.  The sample driver      *
*      illustrates how to write code which performs DMA into both *
*      kernel and user address space, as well as how a sample    *
*      driver's registers would be mapped into user address space. *
*                                                           *
\*****/
#include <sys/types.h>          /* Contains basic kernel typedefs */
#include <sys/param.h>
#include <sys/immu.h>          /* Contains VM-specific definitions (map) */
#include <sys/region.h>       /* Contains VM data structure defs (map) */
#include <sys/conf.h>         /* Contains cdevsw and driver flag defs */
#include <sys/vmreg.h>        /* Contains VME bus-specific definitions */
#include <sys/edt.h>          /* Contains definition of edt structs */
#include <sys/dmmap.h>        /* Definitions for dma structs and routines */
#include <sys/pio.h>          /* Definitions for pio structs and routines */
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>      /* Definitions for cmn_err constants */
#include <sys/errno.h>        /* Define classic error numbers */
#include <sys/open.h>         /* Define open types used in otyp open parm */
#include <sys/cred.h>         /* Contains credential structure declaration */
#include <sys/ksynch.h>       /* Define ddi-compliant synch primitives */
#include <sys/sema.h>         /* Include semaphore prototypes */
#include <sys/ddi.h>          /* Include the ddi-compliant stuff */
/* Some constants used throughout the driver */
#define CDEV_MAX_XFERSIZE 65536
#define VALID_DEVICE 0x0acedeed
/* The following structure is provided so that we can memory map the
 * device's control registers.  For purposes of illustration, we
 * provide a couple of generic registers; a real device would have
 * completely different mappings.
 */
#define CMD_READ          0x1
#define CMD_WRITE         0x2
#define CMD_CLEAR_INTR    0x4
#define CMD_RESET         0x8
typedef struct deviceregs_s {
    volatile unsigned short cr_status; /* The device's status register */
    volatile unsigned short cr_cmd;    /* The device's command register */
    volatile unsigned int   cr_dmaaddr; /* The DMA address */
    volatile unsigned int   cr_count;  /* The number of bytes to xfer */
}

```

```
        volatile unsigned int    cr_devid; /* The device ID register */
        volatile unsigned int    cr_parm;  /* A device parameter */
} deviceregs_t;
/* The cdevboard structure contains about a device which the
 * driver needs to maintain. In general, each instance of a
 * device in the system has an associated cdevboard structure
 * which contains driver-specific information about that board.
 */
#define STATUS_PRESENT          0x1
#define STATUS_OPEN             0x2
#define STATUS_INTRPENDING     0x4
#define STATUS_TIMEOUT         0x8
#define FLAG_SET(_x, _y)       (((_x)->cd_status) |= (_y))
#define FLAG_CLEAR(_x, _y)     (((_x)->cd_status) &= (~(_y)))
#define FLAG_TEST(_x, _y)      (((_x)->cd_status) & (_y))
typedef struct cdevboard_s {
    lock_t          cd_lock;          /* Used for mutual exclusion */
    sema_t          cd_rwsema;       /* Prevents simult. read & write */
    volatile deviceregs_t *cd_regs;  /* Memory-mapped control regs */
    dmap_t          *cd_map;         /* DMA Map for this device */
    unsigned int    cd_ctlr;         /* The controller # of this device */
    unsigned int    cd_status;       /* The board's status. */
    unsigned int    cd_strayintr;    /* Counts stray interrupts */
    struct buf      *cd_buf;         /* Pointer to buffer */
    unsigned int    cd_count;        /* Count of bytes being transferred */
    toid_t          cd_tout;         /* Timeout handle */
} cdevboard_t;
/* We need to tell the kernel what kind of interface this driver
 * expects. For a simple, non-MP driver, the devflag can be set to
 * 0. Since we're going to be a little more ambitious, we'll tell
 * the kernel that we are capable of running MP.
 */
int cdev_devflag = D_MP;
/* Forward declarations of general driver functions */
int  cdev_intr(int board);
int  cdev_strategy(struct buf *bp);
void cdev_timeout(cdevboard_t *board);
/* Driver global data structures; to minimize memory use, we create
 * an array of pointers to audioboard structures and only allocate the
 * actual structure if the corresponding board is configured.
 */
#define CDEV_MAX_BOARDS 4
static cdevboard_t *CDevBoards[CDEV_MAX_BOARDS + 1];
#ifdef DEBUG
#define DPRINTF(_x)    debug_printf _x
#endif
```



```

void debug_printf(char *fmt, ...)
{
    va_list ap;
    extern void icmn_err();
    va_start(ap, fmt);
    icmn_err(CE_NOTE, fmt, ap);
    va_end(ap);
}
#else
#define DPRINTF(_x)
#endif

/*****
 * edtinit is the first routine all VME drivers need to provide.
 * This function is called early during kernel initialization, and
 * drivers generally use it to set up driver-global data structures
 * and device mappings for any devices which exist. The kernel calls
 * it once for each VECTOR line in the appropriate .sm file.
 */
void
cdev_edtinit(struct edt *e)
{
    piomap_t *piomap;          /* Control register mapping descriptor */
    dmap_t *dmap;             /* DMA mapping for read/write buffers */
    volatile deviceregs_t *base; /* Base address of device's control regs */
    vme_intrs_t *intrs;        /* Pointer to VME interrupt information */
    int intr_vec;              /* Actual vector to use */
    int ctlr;                  /* Board number to be configured */
    cdevboard_t *board;        /* New board data structure */
    /* Make sure that the the controller number is within range */
    ctlr = e->e_ctlr;
    if (ctlr < 0 || ctlr > CDEV_MAX_BOARDS) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: controller number is invalid", ctlr);
        return;
    }
    /* Allocate a programmed I/O mapping structure for the particular
     * device. The kernel uses the data in the e_space field to figure
     * out both the VME base address and the total size of the register area.
     */
    piomap = pio_mapalloc(e->e_bus_type, e->e_adap, e->e_space,
                          PIOMAP_FIXED, "cdev");
    /* XXX Check for the success of piomap allocation */
    if (piomap == (piomap_t *)NULL){
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: Could not allocate piomap", ctlr);
        return;
    }
}

```

```
    }
    /* Now that the map is allocated, we position it so that it overlays
     * the device's hardware registers. Since this is a fixed map, we
     * just pass in the base address of the control register range.
     * iobase comes from the VECTOR line in the .sm file.
     */
    base = (volatile deviceregs_t*) pio_mapaddr(piomap, e->e_iobase);
    /* We're going to need to DMA map the user's buffer during read and
     * write requests, so we preallocate a fixed number of dma mapping
     * entries based on the constant CDEV_MAX_XFERSIZE. If we allowed
     * multiple users to perform reads and writes simultaneously we'd
     * probably want to allocate one map for reads and one for writes.
     * Since we only allow one operation to occur at any given time,
     * though, we can get away with only one.
     *
     * IMPORTANT NOTE: There are only a limited number of dma mapping
     * registers available in a system; you should be somewhat conservative
     * in your use of them. It is reasonable to consume up to 100 per
     * device (you can use more if you expect that only a couple devices
     * will be attached for each driver. If, for example, this driver
     * will never control more than two devices, you could probably use
     * up to 512 mapping registers for each device. If however, you'd expect
     * to see hundreds of devices, you'd need to be more conservative.
     */
    dmamap = dma_mapalloc(DMA_A24VME, e->e_adap,
                          io_btoc(CDEV_MAX_XFERSIZE) + 1, 0);
    if (dmamap == (dmamap_t*) NULL) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: Could not allocate dmamaps", ctlr);
        pio_mapfree(piomap);
        return;
    }
    /* The next step would be to probe the device to determine whether
     * it is actually present. To do this, we attempt to read some
     * registers which behave in a manner unique to this particular
     * hardware. We need to protect ourselves in the event that the
     * device isn't actually present, however, so we use the badaddr
     * and wbadaddr routines. For our example, we assume that the
     * device is present if it's device
     */
    if ((badaddr(&(base->cr_devid), 4) == 0) &&
        (base->cr_devid == VALID_DEVICE)) {
        DPRINTF(("cdev%d: found valid device", ctlr));
    } else {
        /* It doesn't look like the device is there. */
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: cannot find actual device", ctlr);
    }
}
```

```

        pio_mapfree(piomap);
        dma_mapfree(dmamap);
        return;
    }
    /* Now we set up the interrupt for this device.
     * It is possible to specify a vector and priority level on the
     * VECTOR line in the .sm file, so we check to see if such was the case.
     */
    intrs = (vme_intrs_t*) e->e_bus_info;
    intr_vec = intrs->v_vec;
    /* If intr_vec is non-zero, user specified specific vec in .sm file.
     * If the interrupt was specified on the VECTOR line, the kernel has
     * already established a vector for us, so we don't need to do it
     * ourselves.
     */
    if (intr_vec == 0) {
        intr_vec = vme_ivec_alloc(e->e_adap);
        /* Make sure that we got a good interrupt vector */
        if (intr_vec == -1) {
            cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: could not allocate intr vector\n", ctlr);
            pio_mapfree(piomap);
            dma_mapfree(dmamap);
            return;
        }
        /* Associate this driver's interrupt routine with the acquired vec */
        vme_ivec_set(e->e_adap, intr_vec, cdev_intr, 0);
    }
    /* Initialize the board structure for this board */
    board = (cdevboard_t*) kmem_alloc(sizeof(cdevboard_t));
    if (board == (void*) 0) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: kmem_alloc failed", ctlr);
        pio_mapfree(piomap);
        dma_mapfree(dmamap);
        /* XXX Need to check whether it is allocated?? */
        vme_ivec_free(e->e_adap, intr_vec);
        return;
    }
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    board->cd_regs = base;
    board->cd_ctlr = ctlr;
    board->cd_status = STATUS_PRESENT;
    board->cd_strayintr = 0;
    board->cd_map = dmamap;
    initnsema(&board->cd_rwsema, 1, "CDevRWM");
    /* Finally, call any one-time-only device initialization routines;

```

```
    * this particular device doesn't have any.
    */
    return;
}
/*****
 * cdev_open -- When opening a device, we need to check for mutual
 * exclusion (if desired) and then set up an additional data structures
 * if this is the first time the device has been opened. Remember that
 * the OS usually doesn't call close until all users close the device,
 * so you can't count on being able to set up unique data for each user
 * of the device unless you either disallow multiple opens at the same time
 * or mark the device as being a layered (otype = O_LYR) device.
 */
int
cdev_open(dev_t *dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *cred)
{
    minor_t          ctrlr;          /* Controller # of cdev being opened */
    cdevboard_t      *board;        /* per-board data for opened cdev*/
    int              s;             /* Opaque lock value */
    /* We assume that the minor number encodes the ctrlr number, so
     * we just go ahead and use it to index the CDevBoards array once
     * we've validated it.
     */
    ctrlr = getemisor(*dev);
    if (ctrlr > CDEV_MAX_BOARDS) {
        DPRINTF(("cdev%d: open: minor number out of range", ctrlr));
        return ENXIO;
    }
    board = CDevBoards[ctrlr];
    if (FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_PRESENT) || (board->cd_ctrlr != ctrlr)) {
        DPRINTF(("cdev%d: open: device not found", ctrlr));
        return ENXIO;
    }
    /* If exclusiveness is desired, we now need to atomically insure that
     * we are the owners of the device.
     */
    s = LOCK(&board->cd_lock, splhi);
    if (FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN)) {
        UNLOCK(&board->cd_lock, s);
        return EBUSY;
    } else {
        ASSERT(board->cd_status == STATUS_PRESENT);
        FLAG_SET(board, STATUS_OPEN);
    }
    UNLOCK(&board->cd_lock, s);
}
```

```

    return 0;
}

/*****
 * cdev_close -- Called when the open reference count drops to zero.
 *     Cleans up any leftover data structure and marks the device as
 *     available.
 */
int
cdev_close(dev_t dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *cred)
{
    int          ctlr;          /* Controller # of dev being closed */
    cdevboard_t *board;        /* per-board data structure */
    ctlr = getemisor(dev);
    ASSERT(ctlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    /* Do any cleanup required here */
    /* Reset the board's status flags (to clear the OPEN flag) */
    FLAG_CLEAR(board, STATUS_OPEN);
    return 0;
}

/*****
 * cdev_intr -- Called when an interrupt occurs. We check to see if
 *     a process was waiting for an I/O operation to complete and
 *     re-activate that process if such is the case.
 */
#ifdef EVEREST /* IO4 fix for Challenge */
extern int io4_flush_cache(caddr_t piomap);
#endif
int
cdev_intr(int ctlr)
{
    cdevboard_t *board;        /* per-board data structure pointer */
    int s; /* lock return value */
    /* Make sure that the controller value is legitimate */
    ASSERT(ctlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_PRESENT));
#ifdef EVEREST /* flush IO4 cache */
    (void)io4_flush_cache((caddr_t)board->cd_regs);
#endif
    /*
     * Get exclusive use of the board. This ensures that the strategy
     * routine is completely finished setting STATUS_INTRPENDING before

```

```
        * we examine it.
        */
        s = LOCK(&board->cd_lock, splhi);
/* It's possible that we could get a stray interrupt if the hardware
 * is flaky, so we keep a count of bogus interrupts and ignore them.
 */
if (FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_INTRPENDING)) {
    board->cd_strayintr++;
    return 0;
}
/* Acknowledge the interrupt from the device */
board->cd_regs->cr_cmd = CMD_CLEAR_INTR;
FLAG_CLEAR(board, STATUS_INTRPENDING);
/* Remove the timeout request */
untimeout(board->cd_tout);
/* Update the buffer's parameters */
ASSERT(board->cd_buf->b_bcount > 0);
board->cd_buf->b_bcount    -= board->cd_count;
board->cd_buf->b_dmaaddr   += board->cd_count;
/* Release the mutual exclusion on the board. */
UNLOCK(&board->cd_lock,s);
/* If the transfer count is 0, then we've transferred all of the
 * bytes in the request, so we call iodone to awaken the user process.
 * Otherwise, we call cdev_strat to initiate another transfer.
 */
if (board->cd_buf->b_bcount == 0)
    iodone(board->cd_buf);
else
    cdev_strategy(board->cd_buf);
return 0;
}
/*****
 * cdev_read -- reads data from the device. We employ the uiophysio
 * routine to perform all the requisite mapping of the buffer
 * for us and then call the cdev_strat routine. The big advantage
 * of uiophysio() is that it sets up memory such that the device can
 * DMA directly into the user address space. The strategy routine
 * is responsible for actually setting up and initiating the transfer.
 * The process will block in uiophysio until the interrupt handler
 * calls iodone() on buffer pointer.
 */
int
cdev_read(dev_t dev, uio_t *uio, cred_t *cred)
{
    int          ctlr;
```

```

    cdevboard_t *board;
    int          error = 0;
    ASSERT(ctrlr >= 0 && ctrlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    ctrlr = getemisor(ctrlr);
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    board = CDevBoards[ctrlr];
    /* Since we allocated only a single DMA buffer, we need to block
     * if a previous transfer hasn't completed.
     */
    psem(&board->cd_rwsema, PZERO+1);
    error = uiophysio(cdev_strat, NULL, dev, B_READ, uio);
    /* Check to see if the transfer timed out */
    if (FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_TIMEOUT)) {
        FLAG_CLEAR(board, STATUS_TIMEOUT);
        error = EIO;
    }
    vsem(&board->cd_rwsema);
    return error;
}
/*****
 * cdev_write -- writes data from a user buffer to the device.
 * We employ the uiophysio routine to set up the mappings for us.
 * Once the mappings are established, uiophysio will call the
 * given strategy routine (cdev_strat) with a buffer pointer.
 * The strategy routine is then responsible for kicking off the
 * transfer. The process will block in uiophysio until the
 * interrupt handler calls iodone() on the buffer pointer.
 */
int
cdev_write(dev_t dev, uio_t *uio, cred_t *cred)
{
    int          ctrlr;
    cdevboard_t *board;
    int          error = 0;
    ASSERT(ctrlr >= 0 && ctrlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    ctrlr = getemisor(ctrlr);
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    board = CDevBoards[ctrlr];
    psem(&board->cd_rwsema, PZERO+1);
    error = uiophysio(cdev_strat, NULL, dev, B_WRITE, uio);
    /* Check to see if the transfer timed out */
    if (FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_TIMEOUT)) {
        FLAG_CLEAR(board, STATUS_TIMEOUT);
        error = EIO;
    }
}

```

```
        vsema(&board->cd_rwsema);
        return error;
    }
}
/*****
 * cdev_strat -- Called by uiophysio, cdev_strat actually performs all
 * the device-specific actions needed to initiate the transfer,
 * such as establishing the DMA mapping of the transfer buffer and
 * actually programming the device. There is an implicit assumption
 * that the device will interrupt at some later point when the I/O
 * operation is complete.
 */
int
cdev_strategy(struct buf *bp)
{
    int ctlr;                /* Controller # being accessed */
    cdevboard_t *board;     /* Board data structure */
    int mapcount;          /* Count */
    int s;                 /* opaque lock value */

    /* Get a reference to the actual board structure */
    ctlr = getemisor(bp->b_edev);
    ASSERT(ctlr >= 0 && ctlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    /* We start by mapping the appropriate region into VME address space.
     * Because of the mapping registers we don't have to worry about the
     * fact that the physical pages backing the data regions may be
     * physically discontinuous; in effect, the DMA mapping is taking the
     * place of scatter/gather hardware. Nonetheless, in order to avoid
     * consuming an excessive number of translation entries we limit the
     * size of the transfer to CDEV_MAX_XFERSIZE.
     */
    mapcount = MIN(bp->b_bcount, CDEV_MAX_XFERSIZE);
    mapcount = dma_map(board->cd_map, bp->b_dmaaddr, mapcount);
    ASSERT(mapcount > 0);
    /* Before starting the I/O, get exclusive use of the board struct.
     * This ensures that, if this CPU is interrupted and we are slow to
     * set STATUS_INTRPENDING, cdev_intr() will be locked out until we do.
     */
    s = LOCK(&board->cd_lock, splhi);
    /* Now we start the transfer by writing into memory-mapped registers */
    board->cd_regs->cr_dmaaddr = dma_mapaddr(board->cd_map, bp->b_dmaaddr);
    board->cd_regs->cr_count = mapcount;
    board->cd_regs->cr_cmd = ((bp->b_flags & B_WRITE) ? CMD_WRITE : CMD_READ);
    /* Schedule a timeout, just in case the device decides to hang forever */
```



```

        itimeout(cdev_timeout, board, 2000, splhi);
        /* Finally, we update some of the board data structures */
        board->cd_buf = bp;
        board->cd_count = mapcount;
        FLAG_SET(board, STATUS_INTRPENDING);
        /* Release the board struct, so the interrupt handler can use it. */
        UNLOCK(&board->cd_lock, s);
        /* Upon returning, uiophysio will block until cdev_intr calls iodone() */
        return 0;
    }
    /*****
    * cdev_ioctl -- Not too exciting. We'll assume that the device has
    * one controllable parameter which can be both written and received.
    * To help users avoid errors, we use unusual constants for the ioctl
    * values. In a real driver, the CDIOC definitions would go into a
    * header file.
    */
#define CDIOC_SETPARM 0xcd01
#define CDIOC_GETPARAM 0xcd02
int
cdev_ioctl(dev_t dev, int cmd, int arg, int mode, cred_t *cred)
{
    int          ctlr;          /* Controller number */
    cdevboard_t *board;        /* Per-controller data */
    int          error = 0;     /* Error return value */
    ctlr = getemisor(dev);
    ASSERT(ctlr >= 0 && ctlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    ASSERT(board && FLAG_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    switch (cmd) {
        case CDIOC_SETPARM:
            board->cd_regs->cr_parm = arg;
            break;
        case CDIOC_GETPARAM:
            {
                int value;
                value = board->cd_regs->cr_parm;
                if (copyout(&value, (void*) arg, sizeof(int)))
                    error = EFAULT;
            }
            break;
        default:
            error = EINVAL;
            break;
    }
}

```

```
        return error;
    }
}
/*****
 * cdev_timeout -- If an I/O request takes a really long time to complete
 *               for some reason (if, for example, someone takes the device offline),
 *               it is better to warn the user than to simply hang. This timeout
 *               routine will cancel any pending I/O requests and display a message.
 *               A more sophisticated routine might try resetting the device and
 *               re-executing the operation.
 */
void
cdev_timeout(cdevboard_t *board)
{
    /* Clear the pending request from the device. This operation
     * is extremely dependent on the actual device. This driver
     * pretends that we simply can use the reset command.
     */
    board->cd_regs->cr_cmd = CMD_RESET;
    /* Make a note that the operation timed out */
    FLAG_SET(board, STATUS_TIMEOUT);
    /* Display a warning */
    cmn_err(CE_WARN, "cdev%d: device timed out", board->cd_ctlr);
    /* Notify the user process that the operation has "finished". */
    iodone(board->cd_buf);
}
/*****
 * cdev_map -- For illustrative purposes, we show how one would go about
 *            mapping the device's control registers.
 */
int
cdev_map(dev_t dev, vhandl_t *vt, off_t off, int len, int prot)
{
    int          ctlr;          /* Controller number */
    cdevboard_t *board;       /* Per-controller data */
    ctlr = getemisor(dev);
    ASSERT(ctlr >= 0 && ctlr <= CDEV_MAX_BOARDS);
    board = CDevBoards[ctlr];
    ASSERT(board && FLAGS_TEST(board, STATUS_OPEN|STATUS_PRESENT));
    if (v_mapphys(vt, (void*) board->cd_regs, len))
        return ENOMEM;
    else
        return 0;
}
```

```
/*
 * cdev_unmap -- Called when a region is unmapped. We don't actually
 * need to do anything.
 */
int
cdev_unmap(dev_t dev, vhandl_t *vt)
{
    /* No need to do anything here; unmapping is handled by upper levels
     * of the kernel.
     */
    return 0;
}
```


PART FIVE

SCSI Device Drivers

Chapter 16, "SCSI Device Drivers"

Actual control of the SCSI bus is managed by one or more Host Adapter drivers. This chapter tells how SCSI device drivers use these facilities.

SCSI Device Drivers

All Silicon Graphics systems support the small computer systems interface (SCSI) bus for the attachment of disks, tapes, and other devices. This chapter details the kernel-level support for SCSI device drivers.

If your aim is to control a SCSI device from a user-level process, this chapter contains some useful background information to supplement Chapter 5, "User-Level Access to SCSI Devices." If you are designing a kernel-level SCSI driver, this chapter contains essential information on kernel support. The major topics in this chapter are as follows:

- "SCSI Support in Silicon Graphics Systems" on page 508 gives an overview of the hardware and software support for SCSI.
- "Host Adapter Facilities" on page 515 documents the use of the host adapter driver to access a SCSI device.
- "Designing a SCSI Driver" on page 530 provides information on how to design a third party SCSI device drivers.
- "SCSI Reference Data" on page 537 tabulates SCSI codes and messages for reference.
- "A Note on FibreChannel Drivers" on page 544 correlates writing SCSI device Drivers with writing FibreChannel device drivers.

In addition, you may want to review the following additional sources:

intro(7) reference page	Documents the naming conventions for disk and tape device special files.
dksc(7) reference page	Documents the Silicon Graphics disk volume partition layout and the ioctl support in the base-level SCSI drivers.
ANSI X3.131-1986 and X3T9.2/85-52 Rev 4B.	SCSI standards documents.
http://scitexdv.com:8080/SCSI2/	Web page containing the complete SCSI-2 standard in HTML form.
master.d/scsi	Driver registration tables used for registering third party drivers.

SCSI Support in Silicon Graphics Systems

All current Silicon Graphics systems rely on the SCSI bus as the primary attachment for disks and tapes. The IRIX kernel also provides support for OEM drivers for SCSI devices.

As used here, the term “adapter” means a SCSI controller such as the Western Digital W93 chip, which attaches a unique chain of SCSI devices. In this sense, a SCSI adapter and a SCSI bus are the same. “Adapter number” is used instead of “bus number.”

SCSI Hardware Support

The Silicon Graphics computer systems supported by IRIX 6.5 can attach multiple SCSI adapters, as follows:

- The Origin2000 and Onyx2 systems have two SCSI controllers on each Base I/O module. Several additional SCSI controllers can be added to each module.
- The Origin200 system has two SCSI controllers per chassis and the possibility of optional SCSI controllers using PCI and MSCSI interfaces.
- The OCTANE workstation has two SCSI controllers, one for the internal disks and one for the external chain. In addition, PCI and MSCSI controllers can be added.
- The Indy workstation has at least one SCSI adapter on its motherboard, and can have up to two additional adapters on a GIO option board.

- The Indigo² series supports two SCSI adapters on the motherboard.
- The Challenge S system has two SCSI adapters on the motherboard, and can have one or two additional on each of one or two additional GIO option boards, for a maximum of six adapters.
- The Challenge M system supports one SCSI adapter on the CPU board and can have up to two additional adapters on a GIO option board.
- The Power Channel-2 (IO4) boards used in the Challenge and Onyx series support two SCSI adapters, plus many as six additional SCSI adapters on mezzanine cards, for a maximum of eight adapters per IO4.

In all systems, DMA mapping hardware allows a SCSI adapter to treat discontinuous memory locations as if they were a contiguous buffer, providing scatter and gather support.

IRIX Kernel SCSI Support

The IRIX kernel contains two levels of SCSI support. An inner SCSI driver, the *host adapter driver*, manages all communication with a SCSI hardware adapter. The kernel-level SCSI device driver for a particular device prepares SCSI commands and calls on the host adapter driver to execute them. This design centralizes the management of SCSI adapters. Centralization is necessary because the use of the SCSI bus is shared by many devices, while recovery and error-handling are handled at the adapter level. In addition, use of the host adapter driver makes it simpler to write a SCSI device driver.

Host Adapter Drivers

Different host adapter drivers are loaded, depending on the hardware in the system. Some examples of host adapter drivers are *wd93* and *ql*.

The host adapter drivers support all levels of the SCSI standard: SCSI-1, the Common Command Set (CCS, superseded by SCSI-2), and SCSI-2. Not all optional features of the standard are supported. Different systems support different feature combinations (such as synchronous, fast, and wide SCSI), depending on the available hardware.

The host adapter drivers handle the low-level communication over the SCSI interface, such as programming the SCSI interface chip or board, negotiating synchronous or wide mode, and handling disconnect and reconnect.

A host adapter driver is not, strictly speaking, a proper device driver because it does not support all the entry points documented in Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver.” You can think of it as a specialized library module for SCSI-bus management or as a device driver, whichever you prefer. The software interface to the host adapter driver is documented under “Host Adapter Facilities” on page 515.

SCSI Devices in the hwgraph

When planning a SCSI device driver, it is informative to spend some time exploring the rather complex network of hwgraph vertexes that is set up by the existing SCSI drivers. Your tools for this are the *find* and *grep* commands. For example:

```
find /hw -print | grep scsi | grep -v disk
```

The result is voluminous even on a relatively small system and reveals that there are many vertexes created for each logical unit (LUN) on each controller. Here is a sample with repetitions edited out:

```
houston 30% find /hw -print | grep scsi | grep -v disk
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/bus
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun/0
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun/0/scsi
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/1/lun/1
...
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctrlr/0/target/2
...
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/1/scsi_ctrlr
...
/hw/scsi_ctrlr
/hw/scsi_ctrlr/0
/hw/scsi_ctrlr/1
/hw/scsi
/hw/scsi/sc0d110
/hw/scsi/sc0d210
```

Controller Vertexes

Paths of the form `/hw/.../scsi_ctlr/...` are hwgraph vertexes that represent SCSI host adapters (controllers) discovered during boot time. Each of these is presented to a host adapter at its `pfattach(0)` entry point (see “Entry Point attach()” on page 153). All the other hwgraph paths that contain the word `scsi` were created by the host adapter driver or by SCSI device drivers (see “Extending the hwgraph” on page 222).

Target Vertexes and LUN Vertexes

Paths that contain `scsi_ctlr/N/target/N` were created by the host adapter driver to represent each target that it discovered while probing its bus at attach time. Attached to these are paths containing `lun/N`, for example:

```
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/scsi
```

Whenever a target is found to have logical units, a vertex is created for each, and when the LUN responds, a character device vertex is created for it.

```
ls -l /hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0
total 0
drwxr-xr-x  2 root  sys           0 Mar 12 14:30 disk
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,116 Mar 12 14:30 scsi
```

The character device `scsi` represents the addressable LUN. The vertex `disk` was installed by the disk device driver. It is the attachment vertex for a number of device vertexes that represent the parts of a disk volume, such as `disk/partition/1/block` and `disk/partition/1/char`, character and block access to a disk (see “Block and Character Device Access” on page 36).

Convenience Vertexes

In addition to the lengthy pathnames, there are shortcut names:

```
% ls -l /hw/scsi
total 0
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,116 Mar 12 14:41 sc0d110
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,133 Mar 12 14:41 sc0d210
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,150 Mar 12 14:41 sc0d310
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,167 Mar 12 14:41 sc0d410
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,184 Mar 12 14:41 sc0d510
```

These were created by the SCSI driver as shortcut links to the *lun/N/scsi* vertexes, as you can verify with the *-S* option of *ls*:

```
% ls -S /hw/scsi/sc0d110
/hw/scsi/sc0d110 ->
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctlr/0/target/1/lun/0/scsi
```

In the system used to create this example, a second SCSI controller exists but has no LUNs. If it had LUNs, there would be shortcut names *sc1d110* and so forth in */hw/scsi*, as well.

At boot time, the host adapter driver creates a vertex and adds an edge labelled “*scsi*” from the root vertex to the new vertex. The *ioconfig* command (see “Using *ioconfig* for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51) then adds edges from it labelled “*sc0d110*,” “*sc0d210*,” and so forth, each ending at one of the *lun/N/scsi* vertexes.

Although it is created dynamically, the shortcut name */hw/scsi* is the target of a symbolic link in */dev*. Thus all convenience links such as */hw/scsi/sc0d110* can also be addressed as */dev/scsi/sc0d110* and so on.

```
ls -l /dev/scsi
lrwxr-xr-x  1 root  sys           8 Jan 10 15:33 /dev/scsi->/hw/scsi
% ls -l /dev/scsi/sc0d110
crw-----  1 root  sys          0,116 Mar 12 15:21 /dev/scsi/sc0d110
```

Additional convenience vertexes are created to point to the controllers themselves. These can be used by *scsiha* to pass requests to the scsi host adapter drivers to perform activities that aren’t related to the SCSI commands (see *scsiha(7M)* and *scsiha(1M)*).

```
% ls -l /hw/scsi_ctlr
total 0
lrw-----  1 root  sys           47 Mar 12 14:42 0 ->
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/0/scsi_ctlr/0
lrw-----  1 root  sys           47 Mar 12 14:42 1 ->
/hw/module/1/slot/io1/baseio/pci/1/scsi_ctlr/0
```

These were also created by *ioconfig* for each of the controller vertexes (controller 0 in PCI slot 0, later controller 0 in PCI slot 1). When they were created, the driver:

1. Created a vertex.
2. Added an edge from the root vertex with the label “*scsi_ctlr*,” ending at the new vertex.
3. Added an edge labelled “0” from that vertex ending at the controller vertex.

The next time the driver found the `/hw/scsi_ctlr` edge already existed, and only added the new edge “1” pointing to its controller vertex.

Disk Driver Vertexes

Bring more command-line utilities to bear on the task of displaying the vertexes built by the disk device driver:

```
% find /hw -print | grep scsi | grep disk | \
sed 's/hw.*_ctlr/.../' | more
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume/char
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume_header
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume_header/block
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/volume_header/char
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0/block
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/0/char
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/1
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/1/block
/.../0/target/1/lun/0/disk/partition/1/char
/.../0/target/2/lun/0/disk
...
```

These names are created dynamically, but at a slightly different time. The names reflect the actual layout of the disk volume. For example, a disk could be reformatted to have more or fewer partitions. The disk device driver removes and rebuilds all the names that depend on the volume format (such as `.../lun/0/disk/partition/0/block`) each time the disk volume header is read into memory. That normally occurs only the first time the disk is opened—which is usually done by `ioconfig`.

Note that similar to the creation and removal of hwgraph entries by the host adapter driver, a third-party SCSI device driver must also create and remove hwgraph entries as described in “Designing a SCSI Driver” on page 530.

Hardware Administration

Some bus protocol features such as connect and disconnect are controlled by configuration files that are used by the host adapter drivers. For example, the *wd93* driver has a number of configurable options coded in the descriptive file */var/sysgen/master.d* (for the format of descriptive files, see “Describing the Driver in */var/sysgen/master.d*” on page 260).

The QLogic driver *ql* takes its options by the more modern route of the `DEVICE_ADMIN` statement (see “Storing Device and Driver Attributes” on page 56 and “Retrieving Administrator Attributes” on page 231). You can peruse */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* to see `DEVICE_ADMIN` statements addressed to “ql_” and associated comments.

Note: The connect/disconnect strategy is enabled on any SCSI bus by default (the option is controlled by a constant defined in the host adapter driver descriptive file in */var/sysgen/master.d*). When disconnect is enabled on a bus, and a device on that bus refuses to disconnect, it can cause timeouts on other devices.

Host Adapter Facilities

The principal difference between a SCSI driver and other kernel-level drivers is that, while other kinds of drivers are expected to control devices directly using PIO and DMA, a SCSI driver operates its devices indirectly, by making function calls to the host adapter driver. This section documents the functional interface to the host adapter driver.

Purpose of the Host Adapter Driver

IRIX uses host adapter drivers because the SCSI bus is shared among multiple devices of different types, each type controlled by a different driver. A disk, a tape, a CDROM, and a scanner could all be cabled from the same SCSI adapter. Each device has a different driver, but each driver needs to use the adapter, a single chip-set, to communicate with its device.

If IRIX allowed multiple drivers to operate the host adapter, there would be confusion and errors from the conflicting uses. IRIX puts the management of each host adapter under the control of a host adapter driver, whose job is to issue commands on its bus and report the results. The host adapter driver is tailored to the hardware of the particular host adapter and to the architecture of the host system.

The interface to the host adapter driver is the same no matter what type of hardware the adapter uses. This insulates the individual device drivers from details of the adapter hardware.

The driver for each type of device is responsible for preparing the SCSI command bytes for its device, for passing the command requests to the correct host adapter driver, and for interpreting sense and status data as it comes back.

Host Adapter Concepts

The host adapter driver is the driver that is called by the kernel to attach the SCSI controller at boot time while the kernel is exploring the hardware and building the hwgraph (see “Entry Point attach()” on page 153).

The host adapter driver places information in the hwgraph vertex that represents the controller, and extends the hwgraph with subordinate vertexes that represent targets and LUNs (see “SCSI Devices in the hwgraph” on page 510).

A SCSI driver is called to manage one or more SCSI target devices. Each target is physically connected to a SCSI adapter. The hwgraph echoes this connectivity: the SCSI target vertex is connected to the SCSI adapter vertex. Thus when the SCSI driver knows its target device vertex, it can access the corresponding host adapter vertex, and through this vertex, can invoke the host adapter driver.

Target Numbers

The purpose of a host adapter driver is to carry communications between a SCSI driver and a *target*. A target is a device on the SCSI chain that responds to SCSI commands. A target can be a single device, or it can be a controller that in turn manages other devices.

A target is identified by a number between 0 and 15. Normally this number is configured into the device with switches or jumpers. The SCSI controller itself has a target number (usually number 0), but it cannot be used as a target.

The SCSI device driver needs to know the number of its target in order to format a request structure. The target number is accessible from the target vertex, as shown under “Using the Function Vector Macros” on page 520.

Logical Unit Numbers (LUNs)

When the target is a controller, it manages one or more subdevices, each one a *logical unit* of that target. The logical unit being addressed is identified by a logical unit number (LUN). When the target is a single device, its LUN is 0.

A SCSI device driver needs the unit number of a device when it formats a request structure. The unit number is accessible from the vertex for the LUN, as shown under “Using the Function Vector Macros” on page 520.

Overview of Host Adapter Functions

Each host adapter driver provides the same functional interface and supports the four functions listed in Table 16-1.

Table 16-1 Host Adapter Function Summary

Function	Header Files	Purpose
<code>scsi_info(D3)</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Issue the SCSI Inquiry command and return the results.
<code>scsi_alloc(D3)</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Open a connection between a driver and a target device.
<code>scsi_free(D3)</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Release connection to a target device.
<code>scsi_command(D3)</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Transmit a SCSI command on the bus and return results.
<code>scsi_abort()</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Transmit a SCSI ABORT command (no reference page).
<code>scsi_ioctl()</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Implement arbitrary control operations.
<code>scsi_dump()</code>	<code>scsi.h</code>	Called by the kernel to notify the host adapter driver that the kernel is shutting down for a panic dump, and that subsequent operations will be for writing the dump and other diagnostic files, and should be performed synchronously.

Note: The `scsi_reset()` function that formerly existed has been removed.

How the Host Adapter Functions Are Found

A SCSI device driver can be asked to manage devices on different adapters. Different adapters may use the same or different hardware, and be managed by the same or different host adapter drivers. How does the driver locate the correct host adapter function for a given device?

The answer is that each host adapter driver places a set of vectors to its functions in the hwgraph vertex for the controller. Using macros defined in *sys/scsi.h*, the driver invokes the function it needs indirectly, by way of pointers stored in the controller vertex.

Vertex Information Structures

The host adapter driver constructs the arrangement of hwgraph vertexes and data structures illustrated in Figure 16-1.

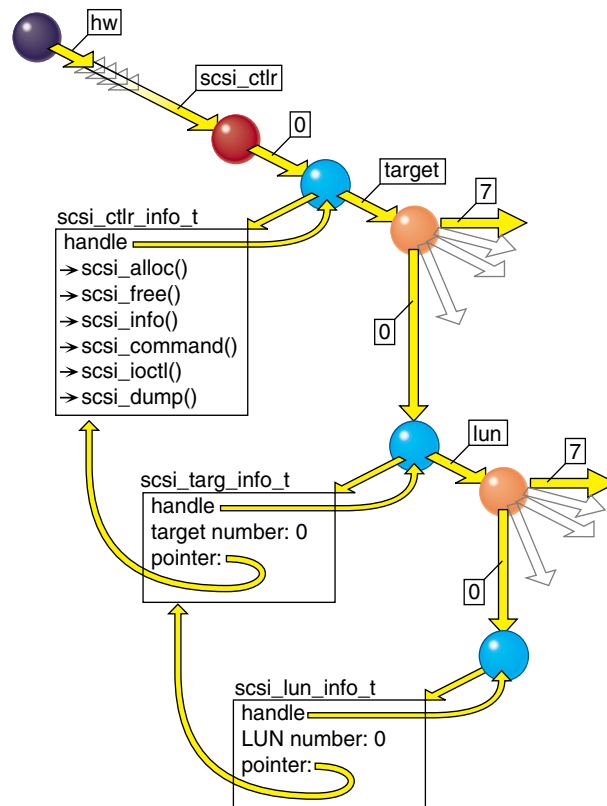


Figure 16-1 SCSI Vertexes and Data Structures

The main features of this arrangement are as follows:

- The vertex for the controller anchors a *scsi_ctrl_info_t*, which contains the vectors to the host adapter functions.
- The vertex for any target anchors a *scsi_targ_info_t*, which contains the target number and a pointer to the *scsi_ctrl_info_t* for that target's controller.
- The vertex for any LUN anchors a *scsi_lun_info_t*, which contains the unit number and a pointer to the *scsi_targ_info_t* for that LUN's target.

Using the Function Vector Macros

A device driver, given a handle to a vertex for a LUN, a target, or a controller, can always access the vectors to the host adapter functions. These connections are used by macros defined in *sys/scsi.h*, as listed in Table 16-2.

Table 16-2 Macro Access to SCSI Information

Desired Datum	<code>scsi_ctrl_info_t *pci</code>	<code>scsi_targ_info_t *pti</code>	<code>scsi_lun_info_t *pli</code>
adapter number	<code>SCI_ADAP(pci)</code>	<code>SCI_ADAP(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SLI_ADAP(pli)</code>
adapter vertex	<code>SCI_CTLR_VHDL(pci)</code>	<code>SCI_CTLR_VHDL(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SLI_CTLR_VHDL(pli)</code>
target number		<code>STI_TARG(pti)</code>	<code>SLI_TARG(pli)</code>
target vertex		<code>STI_TARG_VHDL(pti)</code>	<code>STI_TARG_VHDL(SLI_TARG_INFO(pli))</code>
unit number			<code>SLI_LUN(pli)</code>
LUN vertex			<code>SLI_LUN_VHDL(pli)</code>
<code>scsi_abort()</code>	<code>SCI_ABORT(pci)</code>	<code>SCI_ABORT(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_ABORT(SLI_CTLR_INFO(pli))</code>
<code>scsi_alloc()</code>	<code>SCI_ALLOC(pci)()</code>	<code>SCI_ALLOC(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_ALLOC(SLI_CTLR_INFO(pli))</code>
<code>scsi_command()</code>	<code>SCI_COMMAND(pci)()</code>	<code>SCI_COMMAND(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_COMMAND(SLI_CTLR_INFO(pli))</code>
<code>scsi_free()</code>	<code>SCI_FREE(pci)()</code>	<code>SCI_FREE(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_FREE(SLI_CTLR_INFO(pli))</code>
<code>scsi_ioctl</code>	<code>SCI_IOCTL(pci)</code>	<code>SCI_IOCTL(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_IOCTL(SLI_CTLR_INFO(pli))</code>
<code>scsi_info()</code>	<code>SCI_INQ(pci)()</code>	<code>SCI_INQ(STI_CTLR_INFO(pti))</code>	<code>SCI_INQ(SLI_CTRL_INFO(pli))</code>

Study the macro definitions in *sys/scsi.h*—for example, the definition of `SLI_ALLOC`, with reference to the arrangement shown in Figure 16-1—to see the pattern. Additional macros can be defined using the same pattern.

Using `scsi_info()`

Before a SCSI driver tries to access a device, it must call the host adapter `scsi_info()` function, passing the vertex handle for the LUN. This function issues an Inquiry command to the adapter, target, and logical unit. If the Inquiry is not successful—or if the adapter, target, or LUN are not valid—the return value is NULL. Otherwise, the return value is a pointer to a `scsi_target_info` structure.

The SCSI driver can learn the following things from a call to `scsi_info()`:

- If the return is NULL, there is a serious problem with the device or the information about it. Write a descriptive log message with `cmn_err()` and return ENODEV.
- The `si_inq` field points to the Inquiry bytes returned by the device. Examine them for device-dependent information.
- The value in `si_maxq` is the default limit on pending SCSI commands that can be queued to this host adapter driver. (You can specify a higher limit to `scsi_alloc()`.)
- Test the bits in `si_ha_status` for information about the capabilities and error status of the host adapter itself. The possible bits are declared in `sys/scsi.h`. For example, SRH_NOADAPSYNC indicates that the specified target, or possibly the host adapter itself, does not support synchronous transfer. Not all bits are supported by all host adapter drivers.

You can also call `scsi_info()` at other times; some of the returned information can be useful in error recovery. However, be aware that `scsi_info()` for some host adapters is slow, and can use serialized access to hardware. (See also reference page `scsi_info(d3x)`.)

Using `scsi_alloc()`

Depending on its particular design, the host adapter driver may need to allocate memory for data structures, DMA maps, or buffers for sense and inquiry data, before it is ready to execute commands to a particular target. The call to `scsi_alloc()` gives the host adapter driver the opportunity to prepare in these ways. (See also reference page `scsi_alloc(d3x)`.)

Because the host adapter driver may allocate virtual memory, it may sleep. Some host adapter drivers allocate all the resources they need on the first call to `scsi_alloc()` and do little or nothing on subsequent calls.

A call to **scsi_alloc()** specifies these parameters:

<i>lun_vhdl</i>	Vertex handle of the LUN, from which the target and controller can be identified.
<i>option</i>	An integer comprising two parameters, a flag, and a count.
<i>callback</i>	Address of a function to be called whenever sense data is gotten from the device.

The option parameter may include the `SCSIALLOC_EXCLUSIVE` flag to request exclusive use of the target. If another driver has allocated a path to the same device, **scsi_alloc()** returns `EBUSY`. For example, a tape device driver might require exclusive access, while a disk device driver would not.

The option parameter may include `SCSIALLOC_NOSYNC` to specify that this device should not, or cannot, use synchronous transfer mode. That setting can be overridden for single commands by a flag to **scsi_command()** (see Table 16-4).

The option parameter can also include a small integer value indicating the maximum queue depth (the number of SCSI commands the driver would like to start before any have completed). The call to **scsi_info()** returns the default queue depth that will be used if you do not pass a nonzero value here (typically the default is 1).

The callback function address can be specified as `NULL`. The specified callback function is called only when sense data is gotten from the allocated device (regardless of which driver initiated the command that resulted in sense data). Only one driver that allocates a path to a device can specify a callback function. If the path is not held exclusively, any other drivers must specify a null address for their callback functions.

Using **scsi_free()**

A SCSI driver typically calls **scsi_free()** from the **pfxclose()** entry point. That is the time when the driver knows that no processes have the device open, so the host adapter should be allowed to release any resources it is holding just for this device.

In addition, **scsi_free()** releases the device for use by other drivers, if the driver had allocated it for exclusive use.

Using `scsi_command()`

A SCSI device driver sends SCSI commands to its device by storing information in a `scsi_request` structure and passing the structure to the `scsi_command()` function for the adapter. The host adapter driver schedules the command on the SCSI bus that it manages, and returns to the caller. When the command completes, a notify function is invoked. (See also reference page `scsi_command(d3x)`.)

Tip: When debugging a driver using a debugging kernel (see “Preparing the System for Debugging” on page 269), you can display the contents of a `scsi_request` structure using `symmon` or `idbg` (see “Commands to Display I/O Status” on page 292).

Input to `scsi_command()`

The device driver prepares the `scsi_request` fields shown in Table 16-3.

Table 16-3 Input Fields of the `scsi_request` Structure

Field Name	Contents
<code>sr_dev_vhdl</code>	The vertex handle of the LUN vertex. This field is required.
<code>sr_ctrlr</code>	The adapter number.
<code>sr_target</code>	The target number.
<code>sr_lun</code>	The logical unit number.
<code>sr_tag</code>	If this target supports the SCSI-2 tagged-queue feature, and this command is directed to a queue, this field contains the queue tag message. Constant names for queue messages are in <code>sys/scsi.h</code> : <code>SC_TAG_SIMPLE</code> and two others.
<code>sr_command</code>	Address of the bytes of the SCSI command to issue.
<code>sr_cmdlen</code>	The length of the string at <code>*sr_command</code> . Constants for the common lengths are in <code>sys/scsi.h</code> : <code>SC_CLASS0_SZ</code> (6), <code>SC_CLASS1_SZ</code> (10), and <code>SC_CLASS2_SZ</code> (12).
<code>sr_flags</code>	Flags for data direction and DMA mapping; see Table 16-4.
<code>sr_timeout</code>	Number of ticks (HZ units) to wait for a response before timing out. The host adapter driver supplies a minimum value if this field is zero or too small.
<code>sr_buffer</code>	Address of first byte of data. Must be zero when <code>sr_bp</code> is supplied and <code>SRF_MAPBP</code> is specified in <code>sr_flags</code> .
<code>sr_bufflen</code>	Length of data or buffer space.

Table 16-3 (continued) Input Fields of the `scsi_request` Structure

Field Name	Contents
<code>sr_sense</code>	Address of space for sense data, in case the command ends in a check condition.
<code>sr_senselen</code>	Length of the sense area.
<code>sr_notify</code>	Address of the callback function, called when the command is complete. A callback address is required on all commands (this is a change in IRIX 6.4).
<code>sr_bp</code>	Address of a <code>buf_t</code> object, when the command is called from a block driver's <code>pxstrategy()</code> entry point and buffer mapping is requested in <code>sr_flags</code> .
<code>sr_dev</code>	Address of additional information that could be useful in the callback routine <code>*sr_notify</code> .

Although the unit, target, and controller numbers can be discovered from the handle in `sr_dev_vhdl`, this would be time-consuming. Therefore the driver is still required to provide all three numbers in addition to the handle.

The callback function address in `sr_notify` must be specified. (Device drivers for versions of IRIX previous to 6.4 may set a NULL in this field; that is no longer permitted.)

The possible flag bits that can be set in `sr_flags` are listed in Table 16-4.

Table 16-4 Values for the `sr_flags` Field of a `scsi_request`

Flag Constant	Purpose
<code>SRF_DIR_IN</code>	Data will be received in memory. If this flag is absent, the command sends data from memory to the device.
<code>SRF_FLUSH</code>	The data cache for the buffer area should be flushed (for output) or marked invalid (for input) prior to the command. This flag should be used whenever the buffer is local to the driver, not mapped by a <code>buf_t</code> object. It causes no extra overhead in systems that do not require cache flushing.
<code>SRF_MAPUSER</code>	Set this flag when doing I/O based on a <code>buf_t</code> and <code>B_MAPUSER</code> is set in <code>b_flags</code> .
<code>SRF_MAP</code>	Set this flag when doing I/O based on a <code>buf_t</code> and the <code>BP_ISMAPPED</code> macro returns nonzero.

Table 16-4 (continued) Values for the `sr_flags` Field of a `scsi_request`

Flag Constant	Purpose
SRF_MAPBP	The <code>sr_bp</code> field points to a <code>buf_t</code> in which <code>BP_ISMAPPED</code> returns false. The host adapter driver maps in the buffer.
SRF_CONTINGENT_ALLEGIANCE_CLEAR	Indicates that the driver wishes to clear a contingent allegiance condition with the host adapter driver. After a host adapter driver has returned sense data to the device driver, all future requests are immediately returned with <code>SC_ATTEN</code> until this flag is set. <code>SRF_AEN_ACK</code> is a synonym that may appear in older code.
SRF_NEG_SYNC	Attempt to negotiate synchronous transfer mode for this command. Ignored by some host adapter drivers. Overrides <code>SCSIALLOC_NOSYNC</code> (see “Using <code>scsi_alloc()</code> ” on page 521).
SRF_NEG_ASYNC	Attempt to negotiate asynchronous mode for this command. Ignored unless the device is currently using synchronous mode.
SRF_ALENLIST	Set this flag and then set <code>b_private</code> to use the <code>alenlist</code> created—use <code>wvaddr_to_alenlist</code> to create the <code>alenlist</code> (see <code>alenlist_ops(D3)</code>).
SRF_PRIORITY_REQUEST	Set this flag for a “priority” SCSI request (see <code>scsi.h</code>).

When none of the three flag values beginning `SRF_MAP` is supplied, the `sr_buffer` address must be a physical memory address. The `SRF_MAPUSER` and `SRF_MAPBP` flags are normally used when the command is issued from a `pxstrategy()` entry point in order to read or write a buffer controlled from a `buf_t` object.

Command Execution

The host adapter driver validates the contents of the `scsi_request` structure. If the contents are valid, it queues the command for transmission on the adapter and returns. If the contents are invalid, it sets a status flag (see Table 16-6), calls the `sr_notify` function, and returns.

In any event, the `sr_notify` function is called when the command is complete. This function can be called from the host adapter interrupt handler, so it can be entered asynchronously and concurrent with any part of the device driver.

The device driver should wait for the notify function to be called. The usual way is to share a semaphore (see “Semaphores” on page 251), as follows:

- Before calling `scsi_command()`, initialize the semaphore to 0 (the semaphore is being used to wait for an event).
- Immediately after the call to `scsi_command()`, call `psema()` for the semaphore.
- In the notify function, call `vsema()` for the semaphore.

If the request is valid, the device driver will sleep in the `psema()` call until the command completes. If the request is invalid, the semaphore may already have been posted when the call to `psema()` is reached.

In the event that the device driver holds an exclusive lock before issuing the command and wants to release the lock while it waits and then regain the lock, a synchronization variable provides the appropriate mechanism (see “Using Synchronization Variables” on page 248).

Values Returned in a `scsi_request` Structure

The host adapter driver sets the results of the request in the `scsi_request` structure. The `sr_notify` function is the first to inspect the values summarized in Table 16-5.

Table 16-5 Values Returned From a SCSI Command

Field Name	Purpose
<code>sr_status</code>	Software status flags, see Table 16-6.
<code>sr_scsi_status</code>	SCSI status byte, see Table 16-7.
<code>sr_ha_flags</code>	Host adapter status flags, see Table 16-8.
<code>sr_sensegotten</code>	When no sense command was issued, 0. When a sense command was issued following an error, the number of bytes of sense data received. When an error occurred during a sense command, -1.
<code>sr_resid</code>	The difference between <code>sr_buflen</code> and the number of bytes actually transferred.

The *sr_status* field should be tested first. It contains an integer value; the possible values are summarized in Table 16-6.

Table 16-6 Software Status Values From a SCSI Request

Constant Name	Meaning
SC_GOOD	The request was valid and the command was executed. The command might still have failed; see <i>sr_scsi_status</i> .
SC_REQUEST	An error was detected in the input values; the command was not attempted. The error could be that <i>scsi_alloc()</i> has not been called, or it could be due to missing or incorrect values.
SC_TIMEOUT	The device did not respond to selection within 250 milliseconds.
SC_HARDERR	A hardware error occurred. (You can try inspecting <i>sr_senselen</i> to see if sense data was received, but typically it will not have sense data associated with it.)
SC_PARITY	SCSI bus parity error detected.
SC_MEMERR	System memory parity or ECC error detected.
SC_CMDTIME	The device responded to selection but the command did not complete before <i>sr_timeout</i> expired.
SC_ALIGN	The buffer address was not aligned as required by the adapter hardware. Most Silicon Graphics adapters require word (4-byte) alignment.
SC_ATTN	The command could not be completed due to circumstances not related to the command, and not due to an error in the command.

SC_ATTN status is returned when a command is aborted by some event not directly related to the command, such as:

- SCSI bus reset, which aborts all outstanding commands.
- A contingent allegiance condition when QERR is 1, in which all outstanding commands to a LUN are aborted
- The command follows the return of sense data but SRF_CONTINGENT_ALLEGIANCE_CLEAR is not set in the request (see Table 16-4).

One or more bits are set in the *sc_scsi_status* field. This field represents the status following the requested command, when the requested command executes correctly.

When the requested command ends with Check Condition status, a sense command is issued and the SCSI status following the sense is placed in *sc_scsi_status*. In other words, the true indication of successful execution of the requested command is a zero in *sr_sensegotten*, because this indicates that no sense command was attempted.

Possible values of *sc_scsi_status* are summarized in Table 16-7.

Table 16-7 SCSI Status Bytes

Constant Name	Meaning
ST_GOOD	The target has successfully completed the SCSI command. If a check condition was returned, a sense command was issued. The <i>sr_sensegotten</i> field is nonzero when this was the case.
ST_CHECK	This bit is set only for the special case when a check condition occurred on a sense command following a check condition on the requested command. The <i>sr_sensegotten</i> field contains -1.
ST_COND_MET	Search condition was met.
ST_BUSY	The target is busy. The driver will normally delay and then request the command again.
ST_INT_GOOD	This status is reported for every command in a series of linked commands. Linked commands are not supported by Silicon Graphics host adapters.
ST_INT_COND_MET	The sum of ST_COND_MET and ST_INT_COND_MET.
ST_RES_CONF	A conflict with a reserved logical unit or reserved extent.

One or more bits may be set in *sr_ha_flags* to document a host adapter state or problem (but not all host adapter drivers do this). These flags are summarized in Table 16-8.

Table 16-8 Host Adapter Status After a SCSI Request

Constant Name	Meaning
SRH_SYNCXFR	Synchronous mode was used. If not set, asynchronous mode was used.
SRH_TRIEDSYNC	Synchronous mode negotiation was attempted; see the SHR_CANTSYNC bit for the result.
SRH_CANTSYNC	Unable to negotiate synchronous mode. See also SRH_BADSYNC.

Table 16-8 (continued) Host Adapter Status After a SCSI Request

Constant Name	Meaning
SRH_BADSYNC	When SRH_CANTSYNC is set, indicates that the negotiation failed because the device cannot negotiate.
SRH_NOADAPSYNC	When SRH_CANTSYNC is set, this bit indicates that the host adapter does not support synchronous negotiation, or that the system has been configured not to use synchronous mode for this device.
SRH_WIDE	This adapter supports Wide mode.
SRH_DISC	This adapter supports Disconnect mode and is configured to use it.
SRH_TAGQ	This adapter supports tagged queueing and is configured to use it.
SRH_MAPUSER	This host adapter driver can map user addresses.
SRH_QERR0, SRH_QERR1	This host adapter supports one or the other of the queuing error recovery policies. The device reports its QERR bit on the Control mode page. If the device policy differs from the host adapter policy, the device driver should avoid the use of queued commands.

Using `scsi_abort()`

The purpose of the `scsi_abort()` function is to abort all pending or executing commands on a device. The prototype of the function is:

```
SCI_ABORT(SLI_CTLR_INFO(scsi_lun_info_get(lun_vhdl))
          (struct scsi_request *req);
```

The only fields of the `scsi_request` that are input to this function are those that identify the device: `sr_dev_vhdl` (always!), `sr_ctlr`, `sr_target`, and `sr_lun`. The ABORT command is issued on the bus as soon as possible but there could be a delay if the bus is busy. Status is returned in `sr_status`. The function returns a nonzero value when the ABORT command is issued successfully, and a zero when the ABORT command fails (which probably indicates a serious bus problem).

Note: Not all devices and not all host adapters support this operation. Error recovery of queued commands is up to the driver.

Designing a SCSI Driver

As of IRIX 6.5, support is provided for you to write your own kernel-level SCSI device driver using the software interfaces and hardware devices supported by Silicon Graphics. A SCSI driver can be loadable or it can be linked with the kernel. In general it is configured into IRIX as described in Chapter 9, "Building and Installing a Driver." However, a SCSI driver uses additional services, including those of the host adapter driver, and its configuration is slightly different from other drivers.

IRIX support for the SCSI bus is designed to allow support for dynamic reconfiguration. A SCSI driver can be designed to allow devices to be attached and detached at any time. The general sequence of operations related to a functioning SCSI driver is as follows:

1. The driver is placed for kernel inclusion (or to be loaded later) and all appropriate system support files are properly configured (see Chapter 9, "Building and Installing a Driver").
2. The (optional) `pxinit()` entry point is called early in the boot sequence so the driver can perform initialization procedures.
3. In the (required) `pxreg()` entry point, the driver registers itself as a SCSI driver, specifying the SCSI device type it supports and the driver prefix. See "About Registration" on page 531.
4. The host adapter driver discovers attached SCSI devices that return a device type and vendor and product identification strings. The kernel searches a table list for each discovered device for matching vendor ID and product ID strings for that device type. If it discovers a matching entry, it calls the (required) `pxattach()` entry point of the registered driver, supplying the hwgraph vertex handle. See "About Attaching a Device" on page 533.
5. The driver uses the supplied vertex handle to construct the proper hwgraph space for its device(s). See "Building hwgraph Entries" on page 534. The driver may also create convenient aliases for hwgraph entries (see "Creating Device Aliases" on page 536).
6. The driver interacts with the device(s) using the SCSI host adapter interface as described under "Host Adapter Facilities" on page 515.
7. If the kernel learns that the device is being detached, the kernel calls the driver's `pxdetach()` entry point. The driver then undoes the work done in `pxattach()`.

These steps are described in more detail in the following sections:

- “Configuring a SCSI Driver” on page 531
- “About Registration” on page 531
- “About Attaching a Device” on page 533
- “Opening a SCSI Device” on page 534
- “About Detaching a Device” on page 535
- “About Unloading a SCSI Driver” on page 535
- “Creating Device Aliases” on page 536

Configuring a SCSI Driver

A SCSI driver can be either a block or a character driver, or it can support both interfaces. When preparing the descriptive file for `/var/sysgen/master.d`, you must use the `s` flag, specifying a software-only driver, and list `scsi` as a dependency in the description line. See “Describing the Driver in `/var/sysgen/master.d`” on page 260.

About Registration

Registration is a step that tells the kernel how to associate a device with a driver. The driver must register with the kernel or it will not be able to access a device.

At boot time, the host adapter driver discovers the complement of devices by probing the bus. A SCSI device is identified by its device type, a number defined as shown in Table 16-9.

Table 16-9 SCSI Device Type Numbers

Number	Type
0	Direct-access device (for example, magnetic disk)
1	Sequential-access device (for example, magnetic tape)
2	Printer device
3	Processor device
4	Write-once device (for example, some optical disks)
5	CD-ROM device

Table 16-9 SCSI Device Type Numbers

Number	Type
6	Scanner device
7	Optical memory device (for example, some optical disks)
8	Medium changer device (for example, jukeboxes)

In addition to the device type, SCSI devices supply vendor ID and product ID strings. When the kernel finds a device, it needs to associate it with a driver. For SCSI devices, the kernel looks through a list of drivers that have registered as supporting SCSI devices of the particular type. If a driver of that type has registered, and the kernel finds an entry for a driver of that type with vendor ID and product ID strings that match the ones found at device discovery, it calls `pxattach()` (see “About Attaching a Device” on page 533).

Registration tables for driver types are defined in `master.d/scsi.h`. The entries in `scsi_drivers[]` list the device types supported (by default, only the type 1 table is defined, but you may define other types):

```
scsi_type_reg_s scsi_drivers[] = {
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 0 driver reg table */
{ 0, scsi_drivers_type1 }, /* Type 1 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 2 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 3 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 4 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 5 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 6 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 7 driver reg table */
{ 0, NULL }, /* Type 8 driver reg table */
{ 1, NULL }, /* Terminator - don't remove */
};
```

A driver is associated with a device type in the `master.d/scsi` file with a four part entry for the specific table type. The four fields are strings that contain the SCSI vendor ID, the SCSI product ID, the driver prefix, and a hwgraph pathname component.

For example, consider the following entry for a type 1 (tape) driver:

```
scsi_driver_reg_s scsi_drivers_type1[] = {
// Type 1 - sequential access devices, tapes //
{ "Fujitsu", "Diana-1", "fuj", "fujitsu-tape" },
{ NULL, NULL, NULL, NULL }
};
```


The vendor ID is `Fujitsu`, the product ID is `Diana-1`, the prefix is `fuj`, and the hwgraph pathname component is `fujitsu-tape`. So, if a SCSI Inquiry on the device at device discovery time returns a type 1, and the vendor and product ID returned are `Fujitsu` and `Diana-1`, the kernel will address the driver entry points with the prefix `fuj`, passing the hwgraph pathname suffix `fujitsu-tape`.

Your driver registers by calling the `scsi_driver_register()` function (see *master.d/scsi*):

```
int scsi_driver_register(int unit_type, char *driver_prefix)
```

This call specifies the SCSI device type *int* (see Table 16-9) and the driver's prefix character string that you define. The prefix string is configured in the driver's descriptive file (see "Describing the Driver in `/var/sysgen/master.d`" on page 260). The kernel uses this string to find the addresses of driver entry points. Note that you may call this function multiple times if your driver supports more than one SCSI device type.

You should call `scsi_driver_register()` from the `pxreg()` entry point. Be aware that, if there is an available device of the specified type, `pxattach()` can be called immediately, before the `scsi_driver_register()` function returns.

The order in which drivers are called to attach a device is not defined.

About Attaching a Device

At device discovery during the boot sequence, the kernel identifies SCSI devices by device type and by the vendor ID and product ID strings. It then searches the device type table for matching strings (see "About Registration" on page 531). When it finds a match, it uses the associated prefix string in the table entry to call `pxattach()` and passes the hwgraph vertex handle, which represents the "connection point" of the device—typically the LUN vertex handle (for example `.../scsi_ctlr/0/target/0/lun/0`). The driver adds more vertexes connected to this one to represent the logical devices. The handle of the connection point is needed in several kernel functions, so you should save it as part of the device information.

Device and Inventory Information

You should allocate and initialize a device information structure for each device. You should also put inventory information on one created vertex, for example, `/hw/.../xyz/disk/volume/char`. Refer to "Attaching Information to Vertexes" on page 229. Note that you should create the devices representing your actual hardware

configuration, and not all possible devices as used to be the case with the old */dev* file scheme populated by MKNOD. In this way, the */hw* structure represents the actual system configuration. (Consequently, when detaching, you should remove any created nodes as described in “About Detaching a Device” on page 535.)

Building hwgraph Entries

Use `hwgraph_char_device_add` or `hwgraph_block_device_add` (possibly both, depending on your device), to add vertexes to the hardware graph. You pass the vertex handle received at `pxattach` along with the additional edges or path to describe each logical device. For example, if the vertex handle received was */hw/.../xyz*, an entry you create with `hwgraph_block_device_add` might be */hw/.../xyz/partition/0/block*. Refer to “SCSI Devices in the hwgraph” on page 510 for information on how the SCSI host adapter performs these same functions.

Returning from pxattach

The return code from `pxattach()` is tested by the kernel. The driver can reject an attachment. When your driver fails due to some problem, it should:

- Use `cmn_err()` to document the problem (see “Using `cmn_err`” on page 274)
- Release any space allocated to the device such as a device information structure
- Return an informative return code

The `pxdetach()` entry point can be called only if the `pxattach()` entry point returns success (0).

Whenever the new vertex is opened, `pxopen` is called.

Opening a SCSI Device

When the `pxopen()` entry point is called, the SCSI driver uses the appropriate `scsi_info()` function to verify the device and get hardware dependent Inquiry data from it. If the device is not operational, the driver can return ENODEV. If the device is operational, the driver calls `scsi_alloc()` to open a communications path to it.

The *pxopen* entry point is passed the edge vertex, which you can use with **device_info_get** to access the device info pointer (see “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221).

Refer to “Host Adapter Facilities” on page 515 for information on how your driver can interact with the device.

Accessing a SCSI Device

In general, it is simplest to put all access to a device within a *pxstrategy()* entry point, even in a character device driver. When the *pxread()*, *pxwrite()*, or *pxioctl()* entry point needs to read or write data, it can prepare a *uio_t* to describe the data, and call **uiophysio()** to direct the operation through the single *pxstrategy()* entry point (see “Calling Entry Point *strategy()* From Entry Point *read()* or *write()*” on page 164).

The notify routine passed in the *sr_notify* field plays the same role as the *pxintr()* entry point in other device drivers. It is called asynchronously, when the SCSI command completes. It may not call a kernel function that can sleep. However, it does not have to be named *pxintr()*, and a SCSI driver does not have to provide a *pxintr()* entry point.

About Detaching a Device

Your *pxdetach* entry point is where you remove hwgraph vertexes added with *pxattach*. Note that if you create aliases with an *ioctl* (see “Creating Device Aliases” on page 536), you should remove them in your *pxdetach* routine as well. As a result of this practice, the hwgraph will represent the actual available devices.

About Unloading a SCSI Driver

When a loadable SCSI driver is called at its *pxunload()* entry point, indicating that the kernel would like to unload it, the driver must take pains not to leave any dangling pointers (as discussed under “Entry Point *unload()*” on page 180). A driver should not unload when it has any registered interrupt or error handlers.

A driver does not have to unregister itself as a SCSI driver before unloading. Nor does it have to detach any devices it has attached. However, if any devices are open or memory mapped, the driver should not unload.

If the driver has been autoregistered (see “Registration” on page 267), stub functions are placed in the switch tables for the attach and open functions. When the kernel discovers a new device and wants this driver to attach it, or when a process attempts to open a device for which this driver created the vertex, the kernel reloads the driver.

Creating Device Aliases

A device alias is a convenient shorthand path which refers to the same device as the full hwgraph entry. If you want your driver to create aliases for hwgraph entries, create a file in */var/sysgen/ioconfig*, for example, */var/sysgen/ioconfig/xyz*. This file allows you to choose a stable controller number for your device alias, and to specify an ioctl number used by *ioconfig* and your driver to create the alias. (See */var/sysgen/ioconfig/README* and *ioconfig(1M)* for details of the file syntax.)

Create a *pxioctl* entry point that is responsible for creating device aliases, for example, a path under */hw/disk* and */hw/rdisk* corresponding to the actual hwgraph entry. The *pxioctl* entry point might be called with *XYZ_ALIAS*, for example, which is a numerical value specified in the last entry in */var/sysgen/ioconfig/xyz*.

Use **device_controller_num_get(*dev*)** (see *sys/invent.h*), where *dev* is the hwgraph vertex on which your driver added inventory information, to get the controller number that has been assigned by *ioconfig*. The controller number supplied will be the starting one claimed in */var/sysgen/ioconfig*, so your aliases will remain associated with the actual hwgraph entries.

For example, if you have specified that controller numbers should start at 10, you can be assured that you will always use 10 as your first controller number and, by picking a relatively high number, your driver should have no effect on *ioconfig*'s default controller number assignments for other controllers of the class.

Refer to “Convenience Vertices” on page 511 for information on how the SCSI host adapter driver creates the hwgraph aliases.

SCSI Reference Data

This section contains reference material in the following categories:

- “SCSI Error Messages” on page 537 describes the general form of messages written by host adapter drivers into the system log.
- “Adapter Error Codes (Table *scsi_adaperrs_tab*)” on page 538 lists the possible adapter error codes and their message strings.
- “SCSI Sense Codes (Table *scsi_key_msgtab*)” on page 539 lists the primary sense codes and the corresponding message strings.
- “Additional Sense Codes (Table *scsi_addit_msgtab*)” on page 540 lists the possible additional sense codes (ASCs) and their message strings.

SCSI Error Messages

The host adapter drivers send error messages to the system log using the **cmn_err()** function (see “Producing Diagnostic Displays” on page 274).

These messages almost always contain the adapter number (sometimes called the bus number or controller number). They sometimes contain the number of the target device, and sometimes add the number of the logical unit that was addressed.

Messages from the *wd93* driver specify the adapter number as *BUS=n*. The target device is shown as *ID=n* and the logical unit as *LUN=n*.

Messages from the *wd95* and *jag* drivers contain one, two, or three or more decimal numbers. In all cases, the first number is the adapter number, the second is the target ID, and the third (when present) is the logical unit number.

When error messages list a sense code, refer to “SCSI Sense Codes (Table *scsi_key_msgtab*)” on page 539 and to “Additional Sense Codes (Table *scsi_addit_msgtab*)” on page 540.

When the error message reports an error from the adapter itself, refer to “Adapter Error Codes (Table *scsi_adaperrs_tab*)” on page 538.

SCSI Error Message Tables

The *scsi* module contains a set of error message tables that you can use to generate error messages based on SCSI sense codes and other data. The contents of these tables is documented here for reference, and to assist in decoding messages from SCSI drivers.

Each table is an array of pointers to strings; for example, the definition of the *scsi_key_msgtab* table begins as follows:

```
char *scsi_key_msgtab[SC_NUMSENSE] = {
    "No sense",          /* 0x0 */
    "Recovered Error",  /* 0x1 */
    ...};
```

Each of the tables is declared as extern in *sys/scsi.h*.

Adapter Error Codes (Table *scsi_adaperrs_tab*)

The table with the external name *scsi_adaperrs_tab* contains message strings to document the adapter error codes that can be returned in the *scsirequest.sr_status* field (see Table 16-6). The *scsi_adaperrs_tab* table contains NUM_ADAP_ERRS entries (9, defined in *sys/scsi.h*). The first entry (index 0x0) contains a pointer to a null string. The other entries are documented in Table 16-10.

Table 16-10 Adapter Error Codes

Adapter Error Code	Constant Name	Message Text
0x1	SC_TIMEOUT	Device does not respond to selection .
0x2	SC_HARDERR	Controller protocol error or SCSI bus reset.
0x3	SC_PARITY	SCSI bus parity error.
0x4	SC_MEMERR	Parity/ECC error in system memory during DMA.
0x5	SC_CMDTIME	Command timed out.
0x6	SC_ALIGN	Buffer not correctly aligned in memory.
0x7	SC_ATTEN	Unit attention received on another command causes retry.
0x8	SC_REQUEST	Driver protocol error.

SCSI Sense Codes (Table *scsi_key_msgtab*)

The table with the external name *scsi_key_msgtab* is indexed by the primary sense code. Its contents are listed in Table 16-11. The table contains SC_NUMADDSSENSE entries (16, defined in *sys/scsi.h*), of which the last two should not occur.

Table 16-11 Primary Sense Key Error Table

Sense Key	Message	Most Common Cause
0x0	No sense	No error information available.
0x1	Recovered error	The device recovered by itself.
0x2	Device not ready	No media, or drive not spun up.
0x3	Media error	An actual media problem.
0x4	Device hardware error	Usually a device hardware error.
0x5	Illegal request	Invalid command or data issued.
0x6	Unit attention	Device was reset or power-cycled.
0x7	Data protect error	Usually device is write protected.
0x8	Unexpected blank media	Tried to read at end of a tape.
0x9	Vendor unique error	Varies.
0xA	Copy aborted	Copy command aborted by host (not used).
0xB	Aborted command	Target device aborted command.
0xC	Search data successful	Search data command OK (not used).
0xD	Volume overflow	Tried to write past EOT on tape.
0xE	Reserved (0xE)	0xE should not be seen.
0xF	Reserved (0xF)	0xF should not be seen.

Additional Sense Codes (Table `scsi_addit_msgtab`)

The table with the external name `scsi_addit_msgtab` is indexed by the Additional Sense Code (ASC) value, when one is present. The table contains `SC_NUMADDSSENSE` entries (0x71, defined in `sys/scsi.h`). Some values have no standard definition; for these, the table contains a NULL value. Therefore you should always test the table value for a valid pointer before using it to format a message.

Table 16-12 lists the contents of this message table. Undefined (NULL) table entries are omitted.

Table 16-12 Additional Sense Code Table

ASC Value	Corresponding Message String
0x01	No index/sector signal
0x02	No seek complete
0x03	Write fault
0x04	Not ready to perform command
0x05	Unit does not respond to selection
0x06	No reference position
0x07	Multiple drives selected
0x08	LUN communication error
0x09	Track error
0x0a	Error log overflow
0x0c	Write error
0x10	ID CRC or ECC error
0x11	Unrecovered data block read error
0x12	No address mark found in ID field
0x13	No address mark found in Data field
0x14	No record found
0x15	Seek position error

Table 16-12 (continued) Additional Sense Code Table

ASC Value	Corresponding Message String
0x16	Data sync mark error
0x17	Read data recovered with retries
0x18	Read data recovered with ECC
0x19	Defect list error
0x1a	Parameter overrun
0x1b	Synchronous transfer error
0x1c	Defect list not found
0x1d	Compare error
0x1e	Recovered ID with ECC
0x20	Invalid command code
0x21	Illegal logical block address
0x22	Illegal function
0x24	Illegal field in CDB
0x25	Invalid LUN
0x26	Invalid field in parameter list
0x27	Media write protected
0x28	Media change
0x29	Device reset
0x2a	Log parameters changed
0x2b	Copy requires disconnect
0x2c	Command sequence error
0x2d	Update in place error
0x2f	Tagged commands cleared
0x30	Incompatible media

Table 16-12 (continued) Additional Sense Code Table

ASC Value	Corresponding Message String
0x31	Media format corrupted
0x32	No defect spare location available
0x33 ^a	Media length error
0x36	Toner/ink error
0x37	Parameter rounded
0x39	Saved parameters not supported
0x3a	Medium not present
0x3b	Forms error
0x3d	Invalid ID msg
0x3e	Self config in progress
0x3f	Device config has changed
0x40	RAM failure
0x41	Data path diagnostic failure
0x42	Power on diagnostic failure
0x43	Message reject error
0x44	Internal controller error
0x45	Select/reselect failed
0x46	Soft reset failure
0x47	SCSI interface parity error
0x48	Initiator detected error
0x49	Inappropriate/illegal message
0x4a	Command phase error
0x4b	Data phase error
0x4c	Failed self configuration

Table 16-12 (continued) Additional Sense Code Table

ASC Value	Corresponding Message String
0x4e	Overlapped commands attempted
0x53	Media load/unload failure
0x57	Unable to read table of contents
0x58	Generation (optical device) bad
0x59	Updated block read (optical device)
0x5a	Operator request or state change
0x5b	Logging exception
0x5c	RPL status change
0x5d	Self diagnostics predict unit will fail soon
0x60	Lamp failure
0x61	Video acquisition error/focus problem
0x62	Scan head positioning error
0x63	End of user area on track
0x64	Illegal mode for this track
0x70 ^b	Decompression error

a. Specified as tape only.

b. DAT only; may be in SCSI3.

A Note on FibreChannel Drivers

The FibreChannel adapter is accessed just like a SCSI adapter. It is a peer to drivers such as ql, adp78, and wd95.

Note that there is one difference in that all commands are tagged, whether or not the *sr_tag* member of the *scsi_request* structure is set.

PART SIX

Network Drivers

Chapter 17, "Network Device Drivers"

Network device drivers are special in that they interface a device to the *ifnet* interface of the TCP/IP protocol stack.

Network Device Drivers

A network device driver is a kernel-level driver that connects a communications device to the IRIX TCP/IP protocol stack using the *ifnet* interface established by BSD UNIX. This chapter contains these major topics:

- “Overview of Network Drivers” on page 548 gives an overview of the IRIX networking subsystem and the role of an *ifnet* driver in it.
- “Network Driver Interfaces” on page 550 summarizes the unique interfaces used by an *ifnet* driver.
- “Multiprocessor Considerations” on page 554 discusses writing device drivers in a symmetric multiprocessing environment.
- “Example *ifnet* Driver” on page 558 displays the code of a network driver, omitting all device-specific features.

Note: If your interest is in creating a network application based on sockets, TLI, or streams, this chapter offers little but background information. Refer to the *IRIX Network Programming Guide*, document Number 007-0810-050, for a complete review of all application-level services.

Even if your interest is in creating a kernel-level network driver, you should be familiar with the facilities documented in the *IRIX Network Programming Guide*. This chapter assumes that you are familiar with them.

Overview of Network Drivers

A network driver is a kernel-level driver module that connects a communications device such as an Ethernet board to the IRIX implementation of TCP/IP. An overview of the IRIX networking subsystem is shown in Figure 17-1.

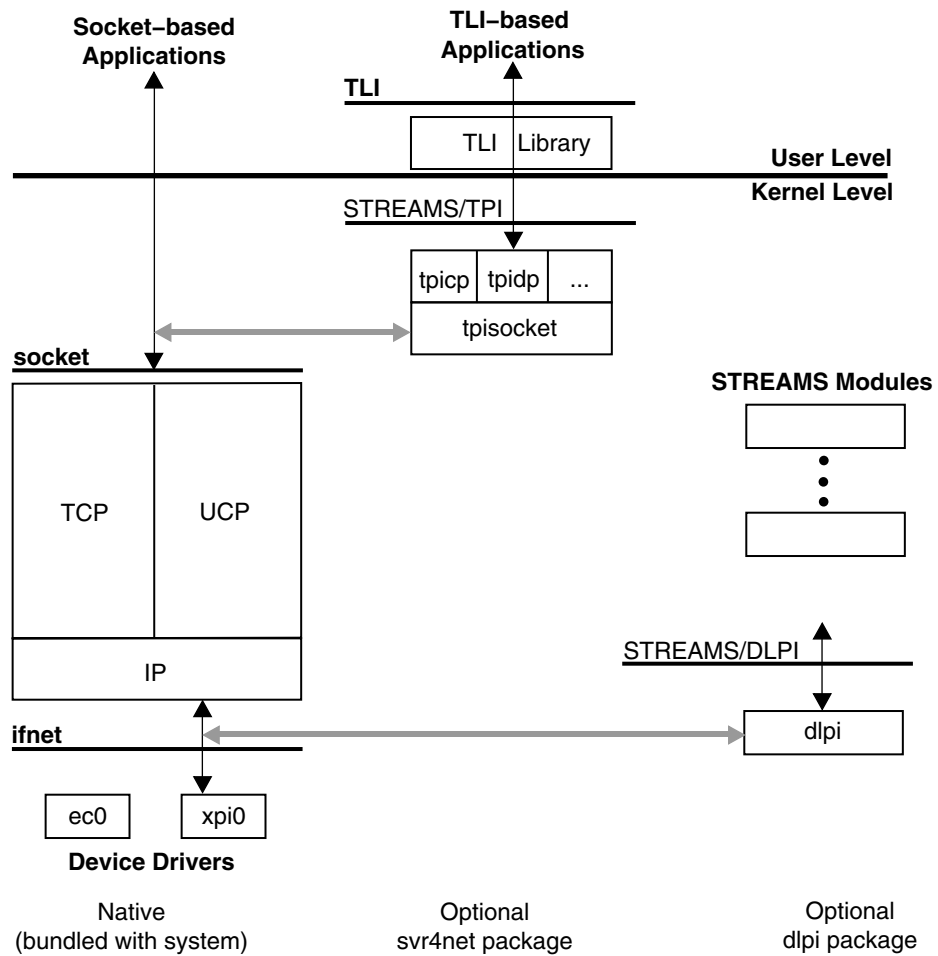


Figure 17-1 Overview of Network Architecture

Application Interfaces

User-level processes access the network in one of three ways:

- using the BSD socket interface (top left of Figure 17-1)
- using the SVR4 TLI interface through compatibility libraries that convert TLI operations into socket operations (top center of Figure 17-1)
- using a STREAMS interface to a STREAMS-based protocol stack (top right of Figure 17-1)

These three interfaces are documented in the *IRIX Network Programming Guide*

The native socket-based TCP/IP protocol code, the socket layer, and a number of *ifnet*-based device drivers are bundled in the basic IRIX system. Socket-based applications such as *rlogin*, *rcp*, NFS client and server, and the socket-based RPC library operate directly over this native networking framework.

Compatibility support is included for applications written to the STREAMS Transport Layer Interface (TLI). *tpisocket* is a kernel library module used by protocol-specific STREAMS pseudo-drivers, such as *tpitcp*, *tpiudp*, and so on, providing a TPI interface above the native kernel sockets-based network protocol stack.

A STREAMS pseudo-driver that supports the Data Link Provider Interface (DLPI) for STREAMS-based kernel protocol stacks is delivered in the optional *dlpi* package.

Protocol Stack Interfaces

A *protocol stack* is the software subsystem that manages data traffic according to the rules of a particular communications protocol. There are two ways in which a protocol stack can be integrated into the IRIX kernel. The TCP/IP stack creates and uses the *ifnet* interface to drivers (bottom left of Figure 17-1) and the socket interface to applications (top left of Figure 17-1).

Alternatively, a stack written to the DLPI architecture can communicate with STREAMS drivers (bottom right of Figure 17-1).

Device Driver Interfaces

A network driver uses the methods and facilities of other kernel-level device drivers, as described in Part III, “Kernel-Level Drivers” of this book. A network driver is compiled and linked like other drivers, configured using the same configuration files, and loaded into the kernel by *lboot* like other drivers.

However, other device drivers support the UNIX filesystem, transferring data in response to calls to their *pfxread()*, *pfxwrite()*, or *pfxstrategy()* entry points. This is not the case with a network driver; it supports protocol stacks, and it transfers data in response to calls from the *ifnet* interface.

Network Driver Interfaces

The IRIX kernel networking design is based on the kernel networking framework in 4.3BSD. If you are familiar with the 4.3BSD kernel networking design, then you are already familiar with the IRIX kernel networking design because they are basically the same.

The IRIX networking design is based on the socket interface: *mbuf* objects are used to exchange messages within the kernel, and device drivers support the TCP/IP internet protocol suite by supporting the *ifnet* interface.

Since the BSD-based networking framework and the implementation of the TCP/IP protocol suite have changed little from previous releases of IRIX, porting your *ifnet* device driver to this release of IRIX should be straightforward.

Note: Although the general kernel facilities documented in Chapter 8, “Device Driver/Kernel Interface,” are standardized and stable, this is not the case with network interfaces. *The ifnet and other interfaces summarized in this topic are subject to change without notice.*

Kernel Facilities

A network driver is structured like any kernel-level device driver, much as described in Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver,” but with the following similarities and differences:

- A network driver is loaded by *lboot* in response to either a USE or VECTOR line in a file in */var/sysgen/system* (see “Configuring a Nonloadable Driver” on page 259).
- A network driver is initialized by a call to either its *pfxinit()* or *pfxedtinit()* entry point when it is loaded.
- A network driver does not need to provide any other entry points (see “Entry Point Summary” on page 145).
- A network driver does not need to provide a driver flag constant *pfxdevflag* because a network driver is always assumed to be multiprocessor-aware (see “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148).
- Although a network driver can use the kernel functions for synchronization and locking (see “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233), it normally does not because the *ifnet* interface includes special-purpose locking facilities that are more convenient (see “Multiprocessor Considerations” on page 554).

Principal ifnet Header Files

The software interface to network facilities is declared in the following important header files:

<i>net/if.h</i>	Basic ifnet facilities and data structures, including the <i>ifnet</i> structure, the basic driver interface object.
<i>net/if_types.h</i>	Constants for interface types, used in decoding address headers.
<i>sys/mbuf.h</i>	The <i>mbuf</i> structure with related constants and macros, and declarations of functions to allocate, manipulate, and free <i>mbuf</i> objects.
<i>net/netisr.h</i>	Declarations related to software interrupts, including schednetisr() to schedule an interrupt, and the IP input queue <i>ipintrq</i> .
<i>net/multi.h</i>	Routines defining a generic filter for use by drivers whose devices cannot perfectly filter multicast packets.

<i>net/soioctl.h</i>	Socket ioctl() function numbers, some of which reach a driver for action.
<i>net/raw.h</i>	The interface to the raw protocol family members <i>snoop</i> and <i>drain</i> .
<i>net/if_arp.h</i>	Generic ARP declarations.
<i>netinet/if_ether.h</i>	Essential declarations for Ethernet drivers, including ARP protocol for Ethernet.
<i>sys/dlsap_register.h</i>	DLPI interface declarations.

Debugging Facilities

When your driver is operating under a debugging kernel, you can use the facilities of *symmon* and *idbg* to display a variety of network-related data structures. See “Preparing the System for Debugging” on page 269 , and see “Commands to Display Network-Related Structures” on page 294.

Information Sources

Aside from comments in header files, the complete *ifnet* interface and related interfaces have never been documented. In prior years, most people working on *ifnet* drivers have had access to the Berkeley UNIX source distribution and have been able to answer questions by referring to the code.

Referring to the code is an even more common option today, thanks to the release of 4.4BSD-Lite, a software distribution of BSD UNIX that does not require a source license, now widely available at a reasonable price. To obtain a copy, order the following:

- *4.4BSD-Lite Berkely Software Distribution CD-ROM Companion*, published by USENIX and O’Reilly & Associates; ISBN 1-56592-081-3 (US domestic) or ISBN 1-56592-092-9 (non-US).

The *ifnet* source code in this software is functionally compatible with IRIX *ifnet*, although some protocols (for example, *snoop* and *drain*) are not implemented in BSD-Lite.

Finally, the IRIX reference pages contain a wealth of detail regarding network interfaces. Some reference pages that are related to the interests of driver designers are listed in Table 17-1.

Table 17-1 Important Reference Pages Related to Network Drivers

Reference Page	Contents
arp(7)	Operation of the ARP protocol, with details of ioctl() functions.
drain(7)	Operation of the drain driver, which receives unwanted packets, with details of its ioctl() functions.
ethernet(7)	Overview of the IRIX Ethernet drivers, including error messages and the use of VECTOR lines to configure them.
fddi(7)	Cursory overview of IRIX FDDI drivers, with naming conventions.
ifconfig(1)	Management program used to enable and disable network interfaces (drivers) and change their runtime parameters.
netintro(7)	Overview of network facilities; mentions the role of the network interface (driver); has extensive detail on routing ioctl() calls.
network(1)	Documents the network initialization script that runs when the system is booted up.
raw(7)	Overview of the Raw protocol family whose members are snoop and drain.
routed(1)	Documents operation of the routing daemon, including ioctl() use.
snoop(7)	Operation of the snoop driver, which allows inspection of packets, with details of its ioctl() features.
ticlts(7)	Operation and use of the ticlts, ticots, and ticotsord loopback drivers.
tokenring(7)	Overview of the IRIX token-ring drivers, including packet formats.

Network Inventory Entries

The driver must call `device_inventory_add()` from its `attach()` entry point to label the device hardware vertex with the appropriate inventory information. The device configuration program `ioconfig` requires this information in order to assign a unique controller number and communicate this to the device driver by opening the device (see “Using `ioconfig` for Global Controller Numbers” on page 51). The driver can use the following parameters when calling `device_inventory_add()` (see `sys/invent.h` and “Attaching Device Information” on page 229):

<i>vhdl</i>	The vertex handle of the attached device.
<i>class</i>	INV_NETWORK
<i>type</i>	The packet type, for example INV_NET_ETHER. See <i>sys/invent.h</i> for the possible “types for class network” list.
<i>controller</i>	The kind of network controller from the “controllers for network types” list in <i>sys/invent.h</i> .
<i>unit</i>	Any distinguishing number for this device. The <i>hinov</i> command does not decode this field.
<i>state</i>	Any characteristic number for this device. The <i>hinov</i> command does not decode this field.

Multiprocessor Considerations

Prior to IRIX 5.3, the kernel BSD framework code and TCP/IP protocol stack executed under a single kernel lock, creating a single-threaded implementation. Beginning with IRIX 5.3, the BSD framework and TCP/IP protocol suite have been multi-threaded to support symmetric multiprocessing. The code uses different kernel locks to protect different critical sections.

IRIX now supports multiple, concurrent threads of execution within the TCP/UDP/IP protocol suite, and the kernel socket layer. In addition, network device drivers run on any available CPU, concurrently with the network software, applications, and other drivers.

This means that any `ifnet`-based network driver must be prepared to run asynchronously and concurrently with other drivers and with the protocol stack.

Ineffective spl() Functions

The **spl*()** functions were the traditional UNIX method of gaining exclusive use of data. In single-threaded ifnet drivers, the **splimp()** or **splnet()** functions were used to get exclusive use of the ifnet structure.

In a multiprocessor, **spl*()** functions like **splimp()** or **splnet()** do block interrupts on the local CPU, but they do not prevent interrupts from occurring on other processors in the system, nor do they prevent other processes on other CPUs from executing code that refers to the same data.

If you are porting a driver from a uniprocessor environment, search for any use of an **spl*()** function and plan to replace it with effective mutual exclusion locking macros.

Multiprocessor Locking Macros

Under BSD networking, drivers interface with the protocol stacks by queueing incoming packets on a per-protocol input queue. In a multiprocessor, each protocol input queue must be protected by the locking macros defined in the file *net/if.h*.

All the locking macros that protect the input queue are assumed to be called at the proper processor interrupt masking level, **splimp**. All input queue locking macros also take an input parameter *ifq*, which is a pointer to the protocol input queue that must be defined as a *struct ifqueue*.

Compiler Flags for MP TCP/IP

The `_MP_NETLOCKS` and `MP` compiler variables must be defined in order to enable the macros necessary to run under multi-threaded TCP/IP (see “Compiler Variables” on page 257).

Mutual Exclusion Macros

The macros for mutual exclusion defined in *net/if.h* are listed in Table 17-2.

Table 17-2 Mutual Exclusion Macros for ifnet Drivers

Macro Prototype	Purpose
IFNET_LOCK(<i>ifp</i> , <i>s</i>)	Get exclusive use of the structure <i>*ifp</i> . splimp() is called to raise the interrupt level if necessary, and the returned value is saved in <i>s</i> .
IFNET_UNLOCK(<i>ifp</i> , <i>s</i>)	Release use of <i>*ifp</i> , and return to interrupt level <i>s</i> .
IFNET_LOCKNOSPL(<i>ifp</i>)	Get exclusive use of the structure <i>*ifp</i> , but do not call splimp() (the driver knows it is already at the appropriate level.)
IFNET_UNLOCKNOSPL(<i>ifp</i>)	Release use of <i>*ifp</i> after use of IFNET_LOCKNOSPL.
IFNET_ISLOCKED(<i>ifp</i>)	Test whether <i>*ifp</i> is locked.
IFQ_LOCK(<i>ifq</i>)	Get exclusive use of an input queue <i>*ifq</i> .
IFQ_UNLOCK(<i>ifq</i>)	Release use of <i>*ifq</i> .
IF_ENQUEUE(<i>ifq</i> , <i>mp</i>)	Lock the queue <i>*ifq</i> ; post the mbuf <i>*mp</i> ; release the queue.
IF_ENQUEUE_NOLOCK(<i>ifq</i> , <i>mp</i>)	Post the mbuf <i>*mp</i> without locking.

The variables used in Table 17-2 are as follows:

- ifp* Address of a *struct ifnet* to be used exclusively.
- s* Integer variable to store the current interrupt mask level.
- ifq* Address of a *struct ifqueue* to be posted.
- mp* Address of a *struct mbuf* to be posted.

Macro Use

The TCP/IP protocol stack automatically acquires the ifnet structure before calling a network driver routine through that structure. Thus the driver's **init()**, **stop()**, **start()**, **output()**, and **ioctl()** functions do not need to use IFNET_LOCK or IFNET_UNLOCK. Look for expressions

```
ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));
```

in the example driver ("Example ifnet Driver" on page 558) to see places where this is the case. Explicit use of IFNET_LOCK is needed in the interrupt handler.

Example ifnet Driver

The code in Example 17-1 represents the skeleton of an ifnet driver, showing its entry points, data structures, required `ioctl()` functions, address format conventions, and its use of kernel utility routines and locking primitives.

A comment beginning "MISSING:" represents a point at which a complete driver would contain code related to the device or bus it manages.

Example 17-1 Skeleton ifnet Driver

```
/*
 * if_sk - skeleton IRIX 6.4 ifnet device driver
 *
 * This is a skeleton ifnet driver for IRIX 6.4
 * meant to demonstrate ifnet driver entry points,
 * data structures, required ioctls, address format
 * conventions, kernel utility routines, and locking
 * primitives. These kernel data structures and
 * routines are SUBJECT TO CHANGE w/o notice.
 *
 * Refer to the IRIX 6.4 Device Driver Programming Guide
 * and Device Driver Reference Pages for complete
 * information on writing PCI, GIO, VME, and EISA bus
 * device drivers for SGI systems.
 *
 * "MISSING" is used to designate places where device/bus/driver-
 * specific code sections are required.
 *
 * Locking strategy:
 * IFNET_LOCK() and IFNET_UNLOCK() acquire/release the
 * lock on a given ifnet structure. IFQ_LOCK() and
 * IFQ_UNLOCK() acquire/release the lock on a given ifqueue
 * structure. The ifnet or ifqueue lock must be held while
 * modifying any fields within the associated data
 * structure. The ifnet lock is also held to singlethread
 * portions of the device driver. The driver xxinit,
 * xxreset, xxoutput, xxwatchdog, and xxioctl entry points
 * are called with IFNET_LOCK() already acquired thus only
 * a single thread of execution is allowed in these
 * portions of the driver for each interface. It is the
 * driver's responsibility to call IFNET_LOCK() within its
 * xxintr() and other private routines to singlethread any
 * other critical sections. It is also the driver's
 * responsibility to acquire the ifq lock by calling
```

```
* IFQ_LOCK() before attempting to enqueue onto the IP
* input queue "ipintrq".
*
* Notes:
* - don't forget appropriate machine-specific cache flushing operations
*   (refer to IRIX Device Driver Programming guide)
* - declare pointers to device registers as "volatile"
*
* Caveat Emptor:
* No guarantees are made wrt correctness nor completeness
* of this source.
*
* Copyright 1996 Silicon Graphics, Inc. All rights reserved.
*/
#ident "$Revision: 2.0$"

#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/param.h>
#include <sys/system.h>
#include <sys/sysmacros.h>
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#include <sys/debug.h>
#include <sys/hwgraph.h>
#include <sys/iograph.h>
#include <sys/errno.h>
#include <sys/PCI/pciio.h>
#include <sys/idbgentry.h>
#include <sys/tcp-param.h>
#include <sys/mbuf.h>
#include <sys/immu.h>
#include <sys/sbd.h>
#include <sys/ddi.h>
#include <sys/kmem.h>
#include <sys/cpu.h>
#include <sys/invent.h>
#include <net/if.h>
#include <net/if_types.h>
#include <net/netisr.h>
#include <netinet/if_ether.h>
#include <net/raw.h>
#include <net/multi.h>
#include <netinet/in_var.h>
#include <net/soioctl.h>
#include <sys/dlsap_register.h>
```

```
/* MISSING: driver-specific header includes go here */

/*
 * driver-specific and device-specific data structure
 * declarations and definitions might go here.
 */

#define SK_MAX_UNITS      8
#define SK_MTU            4096
#define SK_DOG            (2*IFNET_SLOWHZ) /* watchdog duration in seconds */
#define SK_IFT            (IFT_FDDI)      /* refer to <net/if_types.h> */
#define SK_INV            (INV_NET_FDDI)   /* refer to <sys/invent.h> */

#define INV_FDDI_SK       (23)             /* refer to <sys/invent.h> */

#define IFF_ALIVE         (IFF_UP|IFF_RUNNING)
#define iff_alive(flags) (((flags) & IFF_ALIVE) == IFF_ALIVE)
#define iff_dead(flags)  (((flags) & IFF_ALIVE) != IFF_ALIVE)

#define SK_ISBROAD(addr) (!bcmp((addr), &skbroadcastaddr, SKADDRLEN))
#define SK_ISGROUP(addr) ((addr)[0] & 01)

/*
 * MISSING media-specific definitions of address size and header format.
 */

#define SKADDRLEN         (6)
#define SKHEADERLEN      (sizeof (struct skheader))

/*
 * Our fictional media has an IEEE 802-looking header..
 */
struct skaddr {
    u_int8_t sk_vec[SKADDRLEN];
};
struct skheader {
    struct skaddr sh_dhost;
    struct skaddr sh_shost;
    u_int16_t sh_type;
};
struct skaddr skbroadcastaddr = {
    0xff, 0xff, 0xff, 0xff, 0xff, 0xff
};

/*
```

```

* Each interface is represented by a private
* network interface data structure that maintains
* the device hardware resource addresses, pointers
* to device registers, allocated dma_alloc maps,
* lists of mbufs pending transmit or reception, etc, etc.
* We use ARP and have an 802 address.
*/
struct sk_info {
    struct arpcom si_ac;           /* common ifnet and arp */
    struct skaddr si_ouraddr;     /* our individual media address */
    struct mfilter si_filter;    /* AF_RAW sw snoop filter */
    struct rawif si_rawif;       /* raw snoop interface */
    int si_flags;
    caddr_t si_regs;             /* pointer to device registers */
    vertex_hdl_t si_our_vhdl;     /* our vertex */
    vertex_hdl_t si_conn_vhdl;   /* our parent vertex */
    pciio_intr_t si_intr;        /* interrupt handle */
    /* MISSING additional driver-specific data structures */
};

#define si_if    si_ac.ac_if

#define sktoifp(si) (&(si)->si_ac.ac_if)
#define ifptosk(ifp) ((struct sk_info *)ifp)

#define ALIGNED(addr, alignment)    (((u_long)(addr) & (alignment-1)) == 0)

#define sk_info_set(v,i)            hwgraph_fastinfo_set((v), (arbitrary_info_t)(i))
#define sk_info_get(v)              ((struct sk_info *)hwgraph_fastinfo_get((v)))

/*
 * The start of an mbuf containing an input frame
 */
struct sk_ibuf {
    struct ifheader sib_ifh;
    struct snoopheader sib_snoop;
    struct skheader sib_skh;
};
#define SK_IBUFSZ    (sizeof (struct sk_ibuf))

/*
 * Multicast filter request for SIOCADDMULTI/SIOCDELMULTI .
 */
struct mfreq {
    union mkey *mfr_key;         /* pointer to socket ioctl arg */

```

```
        mval_t  mfr_value;        /* associated value */
};

void sk_init(void);
static int sk_ifinit(struct ifnet *ifp);
int sk_attach(vertex_hdl_t conn_vhdl);
static void sk_reset(struct sk_info *si);
static void sk_intr(struct sk_info *si);
static int sk_output(struct ifnet *ifp, struct mbuf *m, struct sockaddr *dst);
static void sk_input(struct sk_info *si, struct mbuf *m, int totlen);
static int sk_ioctl(struct ifnet *ifp, int cmd, void *data);
static void sk_watchdog(struct ifnet *ifp);
static void sk_stop(struct sk_info *si);
static int sk_start(struct sk_info *si, int flags);
static int sk_add_da(struct sk_info *si, union mkey *key, int ismulti);
static int sk_del_da(struct sk_info *si, union mkey *key, int ismulti);
static int sk_dahash(char *addr);
static int sk_dlp(struct sk_info *si, int port, int encap, struct mbuf *m, int len);
static void sk_dump(int unit);
/* MISSING additional driver-specific routine prototypes */

extern struct ifqueue ipintrq; /* ip input queue */
extern struct ifnet loif;     /* loopback driver if */

extern void bitswapcopy(void *, void *, int);

int    sk_devflag = D_MP;

/*
 * xxinit() routine called early during boot.
 */
void
sk_init(void)
{
    /* register ourselves with the pci i/o infrastructure */
    pciio_driver_register(0x10A9, 0x0003, "sk_", 0);

    /*
     * register a handy debugging routine so we can call it
     * from idbg(1) and the kernel debugger.
     */
    idbg_addfunc("sk_dump", (void (*)())sk_dump);
}
```

```
/*
 * xxattach() routine is called by the i/o infrastructure
 * when a hardware device matches our pci vendor and device ids.
 */
int
sk_attach(vertex_hdl_t conn_vhdl)
{
    graph_error_t rc;
    vertex_hdl_t our_vhdl;
    struct sk_info *si;
    struct ifnet *ifp;
    device_desc_t sk_dev_desc;

    /* add a char device vertex to the hardware graph tree ("/hw") */
    if ((rc = hwgraph_char_device_add(conn_vhdl, "sk", "sk_",
        &our_vhdl)) != GRAPH_SUCCESS) {
        cmn_err(CE_ALERT, "skattach: hwgraph_char_device_add error %d", rc);
        return (EIO);
    }

    /* fix up device descriptor */
    sk_dev_desc = device_desc_dup(our_vhdl);
    device_desc_intr_name_set(sk_dev_desc, "sk device");
    device_desc_default_set(our_vhdl, sk_dev_desc);

    if ((si = (struct sk_info*) kmem_zalloc(sizeof (struct sk_info), KM_SLEEP)) == NULL)
    {
        cmn_err(CE_ALERT, "skattach: kmem_alloc failed\n");
        return (ENOMEM);
    }

    /* save our vertex and our parent's vertex for later */
    si->si_our_vhdl = our_vhdl;
    si->si_conn_vhdl = conn_vhdl;

    /* save a pointer to our sk_info structure in our vertex */
    sk_info_set(our_vhdl, si);

    /*
     * MISSING
     * Driver-specific actions that might go here:
     *
     * - call sk_reset to disable the device
     * - pciio_pio map in the device registers
     * - allocate a new sk_info structure
     */
}
```

```
* - allocate device host memory buffers and descriptors
*     and create any static dma mappings (pciio_dmamap_xx )
* ...
*/

/* register our interrupt handler */
si->si_intr = pciio_intr_alloc(conn_vhdl, sk_dev_desc,
    PCIIO_INTR_LINE_A, our_vhdl);
pciio_intr_connect(si->si_intr, (intr_func_t) sk_intr, (intr_arg_t) si, (void *)0);

/*
 * MISSING your address translation protocol goes here.
 * Save a copy of our MAC address in the arpcom structure.
 */
bcopy((caddr_t)&si->si_ouraddr, (caddr_t)si->si_ac.ac_enaddr,
    SKADDRLEN);

/*
 * Initialize ifnet structure with our name, type, mtu size,
 * supported flags, pointers to our entry points,
 * and attach to the available ifnet drivers list.
 */
ifp = sktoifp(si);
ifp->if_name = "sk";
ifp->if_unit = -1;
ifp->if_type = SK_IFT;
ifp->if_mtu = SK_MTU;
ifp->if_flags = IFF_BROADCAST | IFF_MULTICAST | IFF_NOTRAILERS;
ifp->if_output = sk_output;
ifp->if_ioctl = (int (*)(struct ifnet*, int, void*))sk_ioctl;
ifp->if_watchdog = sk_watchdog;

/*
 * A note about unit numbering and when to call if_attach:
 *
 * IRIX 6.4 includes a new boot-time command ioconfig(1M)
 * which walks the hardware device tree ("/hw") and allocates
 * and assigns a controller number (unit number) to each
 * device vertex it finds which has an inventory record.
 *
 * So we do everything but the if_attach() call now,
 * since we don't yet have our unit number, and call
 * if_attach() from our xxopen() routine when it is
 * called by the ioconfig(1M) command during booting.
 */
```



```
/*
 * Allocate a multicast filter table with an initial
 * size of 10. See <net/multi.h> for a description
 * of the support for generic sw multicast filtering.
 * Use of these mf routines is purely optional -
 * if you're not supporting multicast addresses or
 * your device does perfect filtering or you think
 * you can roll your own better, feel free.
 */
if (!mfnew(&si->si_filter, 10))
    cmn_err(CE_PANIC, "sk_edtinit: no memory for frame filter\n");

/*
 * You must create an inventory record for this vertex now
 * or ioconfig(1M) will not call our xxopen() routine to
 * pass in an allocated unit number later.
 */
device_inventory_add(our_vhdl, INV_NETWORK, INV_NET_FDDI, 100, -1, 0);

return (0);
}

/*
 * Driver xxopen() routine exists only to take unit# which
 * has now been assigned to the vertex by ioconfig(1M)
 * and if_attach() the device.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
sk_open(dev_t *devp, int flag, int otyp, struct cred *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t our_vhdl;
    struct sk_info *si;
    int unit;

    our_vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(*devp);

    if ((si = sk_info_get(our_vhdl)) == NULL)
        return (EIO);

    /* if already if_attached, just return */
    if (si->si_if.if_unit != -1)
        return (0);
}
```

```
/* get our unit number from the vertex label */
if ((unit = device_controller_num_get(our_vhdl)) < 0) {
    cmn_err(CE_ALERT, "sk_open: vertex missing ctrlr number");
    return (EIO);
}

si->si_if.if_unit = unit;

/*
 * Install this device in the list of IRIX ifnet structures.
 */
if_attach(&si->si_if);

/*
 * Initialize the raw socket interface. See <net/raw.h>
 * and the man pages for descriptions of the SNOOP
 * and DRAIN raw protocols.
 */
rawif_attach(&si->si_rawif, &si->si_if,
             (caddr_t) &si->si_ouraddr,
             (caddr_t) &skbroadcastaddr,
             SKADDRLEN,
             SKHEADERLEN,
             structoff(skheader, sh_shost),
             structoff(skheader, sh_dhost));

return (0);
}

static int
sk_ifinit(struct ifnet *ifp)
{
    struct sk_info *si;

    si = ifptosk(ifp);

    ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

    /*
     * Reset the device first, ask questions later..
     */
    sk_reset(si);

    /*
     * - free or reuse any pending xmit/recv mbufs
     */
}
```

```
* - initialize device configuration registers, etc.
* - allocate and post receive buffers
*
* Refer to Device Driver Programming guide for
* descriptions on use of kvtophys() (GIO) or
* dma_map/dma_mapaddr() (VME) routines for
* obtaining DMA addresses and system-specific
* issues like flushing caches or write buffers.
*/

/*
 * MISSING
 * enable if_flags device behavior (IFF_DEBUG on/off, etc.)
 */

ifp->if_timer = SK_DOG; /* turn on watchdog */

/* MISSING: turn device "on" now */

return 0;
}

/*
 * Reset the interface.
 */
static void
sk_reset(struct sk_info *si)
{
    struct ifnet *ifp = sktoifp(si);

    ifp->if_timer = 0;      /* turn off watchdog */

    /*
     * MISSING
     * - reset device
     * - reset device receive descriptor ring
     * - free any enqueued transmit mbufs
     * - create device xmit descriptor ring
     */
}

static void
sk_intr(struct sk_info *si)
{
    struct ifnet *ifp;
```

```
    struct mbuf *m;
    int totlen;
#ifdef INTR_KTHREADS
    int s;
#endif

    ifp = &si->si_if;

    /*
     * Ignore early interrupts.
     */
    if (iff_dead(ifp->if_flags)) {
        sk_stop(si);
        return;
    }

    IFNET_LOCK(ifp, s);    /* acquire interface lock */

    /*
     * MISSING: read and clear the device interrupt status register.
     */

    /*
     * process any received packets.
     */
    while (0/* MISSING: received packets available */) {

        /*
         * MISSING
         * Do device-specific receive processing here.
         * Allocate and post a replacement receive buffer.
         */

        sk_input(si, m, totlen);
    }

    while (0/* MISSING mbufs completed transmission */) {

        /*
         * MISSING
         * Reclaim any completed device transmit resources
         * freeing completed mbufs, checking for errors,
         * and maintaining if_opackets, if_oerrors,
         * if_collisions, etc.
         */
    }
}
```

```
    }

    /* MISSING: process any other interrupt conditions */

    IFNET_UNLOCK(ifp, s);
}

/*
 * Transmit packet.  If the destination is this system or
 * broadcast, send the packet to the loop-back device if
 * we cannot hear ourself transmit.  Return 0 or errno.
 */
static int
sk_output(
    struct ifnet    *ifp,
    struct mbuf     *m0,
    struct sockaddr *dst)
{
    struct sk_info *si = ifptosk(ifp);
    struct skheader *sh;
    struct mbuf *m, *m1;
    struct mbuf *mloop;
    struct sockaddr_sdl *sdl;
    int error;

    ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

    mloop = NULL;

    if (iff_dead(ifp->if_flags)) {
        error = EHOSTDOWN;
        goto bad;
    }

    /*
     * If snd queue full, try reclaiming some completed
     * mbufs.  If it's still full, then just drop the
     * packet and return ENOBUFS.
     */
    if (IF_QFULL(&si->si_if.if_snd)) {
        while (0/* MISSING xmits done */) {
            /*
             * MISSING: Reclaim completed xmit descriptors.
             */

```

```
        IF_DEQUEUE_NOLOCK(&si->si_if.if_snd, m);
        m_freem(m);
    }
    if (IF_QFULL(&si->si_if.if_snd)) {
        m_freem(m0);
        si->si_if.if_odrops++;
        IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
        return (ENOBUFS);
    }
}

switch (dst->sa_family) {
case AF_INET: {
    /*
     * Get room for media header,
     * use this mbuf if possible.
     */
    if (!M_HASCL(m0)
        && m0->m_off >= MMINOFF+sizeof(*sh)
        && (sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*))
        && ALIGNED(sh, sizeof (int))) {
        ASSERT(m0->m_off <= MSIZE);
        m1 = 0;
        --sh;
    } else {
        m1 = m_get(M_DONTWAIT, MT_DATA);
        if (m1 == NULL) {
            m_freem(m0);
            si->si_if.if_odrops++;
            IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
            return (ENOBUFS);
        }
        sh = mtod(m1, struct skheader*);
        m1->m_len = sizeof (*sh);
    }

    bcopy(&si->si_ouraddr, &sh->sh_shost, SKADDRLEN);

    /*
     * translate dst IP address to media address.
     */
    if (!ip_arpresolve(&si->si_ac, m0,
        &((struct sockaddr_in *)dst)->sin_addr,
        (u_char*)&sh->sh_dhost)) {
        m_freem(m1);
    }
}
```

```

        return (0);    /* just wait if not yet resolved */
    }

    if (m1 == 0) {
        m0->m_off -= sizeof (*sh);
        m0->m_len += sizeof (*sh);
    } else {
        m1->m_next = m0;
        m0 = m1;
    }

    /*
     * Listen to ourself, if we are supposed to.
     */
    if (SK_ISBROAD(&sh->sh_shost)) {
        mloop = m_copy(m0, sizeof (*sh), M_COPYALL);
        if (mloop == NULL) {
            m_freem(m0);
            si->si_if.if_odrops++;
            IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
            return (ENOBUFS);
        }
    }
    break;
}

case AF_UNSPEC:
#define EP ((struct ether_header *)&dst->sa_data[0])
    /*
     * Translate an ARP packet using RFC-1042.
     * Require the entire ARP packet be in the first mbuf.
     */
    sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*);
    if (M_HASCL(m0)
        || !ALIGNED(sh, sizeof (int))
        || m0->m_len < sizeof(struct ether_arp)
        || m0->m_off < MMINOFF+sizeof(*sh)
        || EP->ether_type != ETHERTYPE_ARP) {
        printf("sk_output: bad ARP output\n");
        m_freem(m0);
        si->si_if.if_oerrors++;
        IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
        return (EAFNOSUPPORT);
    }
    ASSERT(m0->m_off <= MSIZE);

```

```
    m0->m_len += sizeof(*sh);
    m0->m_off -= sizeof(*sh);
    --sh;

    bcopy(&si->si_ouraddr, &sh->sh_shost, SKADDRLEN);
    bcopy(&EP->ether_dhost[0], &sh->sh_dhost, SKADDRLEN);

    sh->sh_type = EP->ether_type;
# undef EP
    break;

case AF_RAW:
    /* The mbuf chain contains the raw frame incl header.
     */
    sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*);
    if (M_HASCL(m0)
        || m0->m_len < sizeof(*sh)
        || !ALIGNED(sh, sizeof(int))) {
        m0 = m_pullup(m0, SKHEADERLEN);
        if (m0 == NULL) {
            si->si_if.if_odrops++;
            IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
            return (ENOBUFS);
        }
        sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*);
    }
    break;

case AF_SDL:
    /*
     * Send an 802 packet for DLPI.
     * mbuf chain should already have everything
     * but MAC header.
     */
    sdl = (struct sockaddr_sdl*) dst;

    /* sanity check the MAC address */
    if (sdl->ssdl_addr_len != SKADDRLEN) {
        m_freem(m0);
        return (EAFNOSUPPORT);
    }

    sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*);
    if (!M_HASCL(m0)
        && m1->m_off >= MMINOFF+SKHEADERLEN
```



```

        && ALIGNED(sh, sizeof(int)) {
        ASSERT(m0->m_off <= MSIZE);
        m0->m_len += SKHEADERLEN;
        m0->m_off -= SKHEADERLEN;
    } else {
        m1 = m_get(M_DONTWAIT, MT_DATA);
        if (!m1) {
            m_freem(m0);
            si->si_if.if_odrops++;
            IF_DROP(&si->si_if.if_snd);
            return (ENOBUFS);
        }
        m1->m_len = SKHEADERLEN;
        m1->m_next = m0;
        m0 = m1;
        sh = mtod(m0, struct skheader*);
    }
    sh->sh_type = htons(ETHERTYPE_IP);
    bcopy(&si->si_ouraddr, &sh->sh_shost, SKADDRLEN);
    bcopy(sdl->ssdl_addr, &sh->sh_dhost, SKADDRLEN);
    break;

default:
    printf("sk_output: bad af %u\n", dst->sa_family);
    m_freem(m0);
    return (EAFNOSUPPORT);
}

/*
 * Check whether snoopers want to copy this packet.
 */
if (RAWIF_SNOOPING(&si->si_rawif)
    && snoop_match(&si->si_rawif, (caddr_t)sh, m0->m_len)) {
    struct mbuf *ms, *mt;
    int len;           /* m0 bytes to copy */
    int lenoff;
    int curlen;

    len = m_length(m0);
    lenoff = 0;
    curlen = len + SK_IBUFSZ;
    if (curlen > MCLBYTES)
        curlen = MCLBYTES;
    ms = m_vget(M_DONTWAIT, MAX(curlen, SK_IBUFSZ), MT_DATA);
    if (ms) {

```

```
IF_INITHEADER(mtod(ms,caddr_t), &si->si_if, SK_IBUFSZ);
curlen = m_datacopy(m0, lenoff, curlen - SK_IBUFSZ,
    mtod(ms,caddr_t) + SK_IBUFSZ);
mt = ms;
for (;;) {
    lenoff += curlen;
    len -= curlen;
    if (len <= 0)
        break;
    curlen = MIN(len, MCLBYTES);
    m1 = m_vget(M_DONTWAIT, curlen, MT_DATA);
    if (0 == m1) {
        m_freem(ms);
        ms = 0;
        break;
    }
    mt->m_next = m1;
    mt = m1;
    curlen = m_datacopy(m0, lenoff, curlen,
        mtod(m1, caddr_t));
}
}
if (ms == NULL) {
    snoop_drop(&si->si_rawif, SN_PROMISC,
        mtod(m0,caddr_t), m0->m_len);
} else {
    (void)snoop_input(&si->si_rawif, SN_PROMISC,
        mtod(m0, caddr_t),
        ms,
        (lenoff > SKHEADERLEN)?
        (lenoff - SKHEADERLEN) : 0);
}
}

/*
 * Save a copy of the mbuf chain to free later.
 */
IF_ENQUEUE_NOLOCK(&si->si_if.if_snd, m0);

/*
 * MISSING
 * Alloc and initialize transmit descriptor resources
 * and kick the chip to start DMA reads for transmitting.
 */
```

```
    if (error)
        goto bad;

    ifp->if_opackets++;

    if (mloop) {
        si->si_if.if_omcasts++;
        (void) looutput(&loif, mloop, dst);
    } else if (SK_ISGROUP(sh->sh_dhost.sk_vec))
        si->si_if.if_omcasts++;

    return (0);

bad:
    ifp->if_oerrors++;
    m_freem(m);
    m_freem(mloop);
    return (error);
}

/*
 * deal with a complete input frame in a string of mbufs.
 * mbuf points at a (struct sk_ibuf), totlen is #bytes
 * in user data portion of the mbuf.
 */
static void
sk_input(struct sk_info *si,
         struct mbuf *m,
         int totlen)
{
    struct sk_ibuf *sib;
    struct ifqueue *ifq;
    int snoopflags = 0;
    uint port;

    /*
     * MISSING: set local variables 'snoopflags' and 'if_ierrors' as appropriate
     */

    ifq = NULL;
    sib = mtod(m, struct sk_ibuf*);
    IF_INITHEADER(sib, &si->si_if, SK_IBUFSZ);

    si->si_if.if_abytes += totlen;
    si->si_if.if_ipackets++;
}
```

```
/*
 * If it is a broadcast or multicast frame,
 * get rid of imperfectly filtered multicasts.
 */
if (SK_ISGROUP(sib->sib_skh.sh_dhost.sk_vec)) {
    if (SK_ISBROAD(sib->sib_skh.sh_dhost.sk_vec))
        m->m_flags |= M_BCAST;
    else {
        if (((si->si_ac.ac_if.if_flags & IFF_ALLMULTI) == 0)
            && !mfethermatch(&si->si_filter,
                sib->sib_skh.sh_dhost.sk_vec, 0)) {
            if (RAWIF_SNOOPING(&si->si_rawif)
                && snoop_match(&si->si_rawif,
                    (caddr_t) &sib->sib_skh, totlen))
                snoopflags = SN_PROMISC;
            else {
                m_freem(m);
                return;
            }
            m->m_flags |= M_MCAST;
        }
        si->si_if.if_imcasts++;
    }
} else {
    if (RAWIF_SNOOPING(&si->si_rawif)
        && snoop_match(&si->si_rawif,
            (caddr_t) &sib->sib_skh,
            totlen))
        snoopflags = SN_PROMISC;
    else {
        m_freem(m);
        return;
    }
}

/*
 * Set 'port' . For us, just sh_type.
 */
port = ntohs(sib->sib_skh.sh_type);

/*
 * do raw snooping.
 */
if (RAWIF_SNOOPING(&si->si_rawif)) {
```

```
        if (!snoop_input(&si->si_rawif, snoopflags,
                        (caddr_t)&sib->sib_skh,
                        m,
                        (totlen>sizeof(struct skheader)
                         ? totlen-sizeof(struct skheader) : 0))) {
        }
        if (snoopflags)
            return;
    } else if (snoopflags) {
        goto drop;      /* if bad, count and skip it */
    }

    /*
     * If it is a frame we understand, then give it to the
     * correct protocol code.
     */
    switch (port) {
    case ETHERTYPE_IP:
        ifq = &ipintrq;
        break;

    case ETHERTYPE_ARP:
        arpinput(&si->si_ac, m);
        return;

    default:
        if (sk_dlp(si, port, DL_ETHER_ENCAP, m, totlen))
            return;
        break;
    }

    /*
     * if we cannot find a protocol queue, then flush it down the
     * drain, if it is open.
     */
    if (ifq == NULL) {
        if (RAWIF_DRAINING(&si->si_rawif)) {
            drain_input(&si->si_rawif,
                       port,
                       (caddr_t)&sib->sib_skh.sh_dhost.sk_vec,
                       m);
        } else
            m_freem(m);
        return;
    }
```

```
    }

    /*
     * Put it on the IP protocol queue.
     */
    if (IF_QFULL(ifq)) {
        si->si_if.if_iqdrops++;
        si->si_if.if_ierrors++;
        IF_DROP(ifq);
        goto drop;
    }
    IF_ENQUEUE(ifq, m);
    schednetisr(NETISR_IP);
    return;

drop:
    m_freem(m);
    if (RAWIF_SNOOPING(&si->si_rawif))
        snoop_drop(&si->si_rawif, snoopflags,
                  (caddr_t)&sib->sib_skh, totlen);
    if (RAWIF_DRAINING(&si->si_rawif))
        drain_drop(&si->si_rawif, port);

}

/*
 * See if a DLPI function wants a frame.
 */
static int
sk_dlp(struct sk_info *si,
        int port,
        int encap,
        struct mbuf *m,
        int len)
{
    dlsap_family_t *dlp;
    struct mbuf *m2;
    struct sk_ibuf *sib;

    if ((dlp = dlsap_find(port, encap)) == NULL)
        return (0);

    /*
     * The DLPI code wants the entire MAC and LLC headers.
     * It needs the total length of the mbuf chain to reflect

```

```

    * the actual data length, not to be extended to contain
    * a fake, zeroed LLC header which keeps the snoop code from
    * crashing.
    */
    if ((m2 = m_copy(m, 0, len+sizeof(struct skheader))) == NULL)
        return (0);

    if (M_HASCL(m2)) {
        m2 = m_pullup(m2, SK_IBUFSZ);
        if (m2 == NULL)
            return (0);
    }
    sib = mtod(m2, struct sk_ibuf*);

    /*
     * MISSING: The DLPI code wants the MAC address in canonical bit order.
     * Convert here if necessary.
     */

    /*
     * MISSING:
     * The DLPI code wants the LLC header, if present,
     * not to be hidden with the MAC header.  Decrement
     * LLC header size from ifh_hdrlen if necessary.
     */

    if ((*dlp->dl_infunc)(dlp, &si->si_if, m2, &sib->sib_skh)) {
        m_freem(m);
        return (1);
    }
    m_freem(m2);
    return (0);
}

/*
 * Process an ioctl request.
 * Return 0 or errno.
 */
static int
sk_ioctl(
    struct ifnet *ifp,
    int cmd,
    void *data)
{
    struct sk_info *si;

```

```
int error = 0;
int flags;

ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

si = ifptosk(ifp);

switch (cmd) {
case SIOCSIFADDR:
{
    struct ifaddr *ifa = (struct ifaddr *)data;

    switch (ifa->ifa_addr->sa_family) {
case AF_INET:
    sk_stop(si);
    si->si_ac.ac_ipaddr = IA_SIN(ifa)->sin_addr;
    sk_start(si, ifp->if_flags);
    break;

case AF_RAW:
    /*
     * Not safe to change addr while the
     * board is alive.
     */
    if (!iff_dead(ifp->if_flags))
        error = EINVAL;
    else {
        bcopy(ifa->ifa_addr->sa_data,
              si->si_ac.ac_enaddr, SKADDRLEN);
        error = sk_start(si, ifp->if_flags);
    }
    break;

default:
    error = EINVAL;
    break;
    }
}

case SIOCSIFFLAGS:
{
    flags = ((struct ifreq *)data)->ifr_flags;

    if (((struct ifreq*)data)->ifr_flags & IFF_UP)
```



```

        error = sk_start(si, flags);
    else
        sk_stop(si);
    break;
}

case SIOCADMULTI:
case SIOCDELMULTI:
{
#define MKEY ((union mkey*)data)
    int allmulti;

    /*
     * Convert an internet multicast socket address
     * into an 802-type address.
     */
    error = ether_cvtmulti((struct sockaddr *)data, &allmulti);
    if (0 == error) {
        if (allmulti) {
            if (SIOCADMULTI == cmd)
                si->si_if.if_flags |= IFF_ALLMULTI;
            else
                si->si_if.if_flags &= ~IFF_ALLMULTI;
            /* MISSING enable hw all multicast adrs */
        } else {
            bitswapcopy(MKEY->mk_dhost, MKEY->mk_dhost,
                sizeof (MKEY->mk_dhost));
            if (SIOCADMULTI == cmd)
                error = sk_add_da(si, MKEY, 1);
            else
                error = sk_del_da(si, MKEY, 1);
        }
    }
    break;
#undef MKEY
}

case SIOCADSNOOP:
case SIOCDELSNOOP:
{
#define SF(nm) ((struct skheader*)&(((struct snoopfilter *)data)->nm))
    /*
     * raw protocol snoop filter. See <net/raw.h>
     * and <net/multi.h> and the snoop(7P) man page.
     */

```

```
u_char *a;
union mkey key;

a = &SF(sf_mask[0])->sh_dhost.sk_vec[0];
if (!SK_ISBROAD(a)) {
    /*
     * cannot filter on device unless mask is trivial.
     */
    error = EINVAL;
} else {
    /*
     * Filter individual destination addresses.
     * Use a different address family to avoid
     * damaging an ordinary multi-cast filter.
     * MISSING You'll have to invent your own
     * mulicast filter routines if this doesn't
     * fit your address size or needs.
     */
    a = &SF(sf_match[0])->sh_dhost.sk_vec[0];
    key.mk_family = AF_RAW;
    bcopy(a, key.mk_dhost, sizeof (key.mk_dhost));

    if (cmd == SIOCADDSSNOOP)
        error = sk_add_da(si, &key, SK_ISGROUP(a));
    else
        error = sk_del_da(si, &key, SK_ISGROUP(a));
}
break;
}

/*
 * MISSING: add any driver-specific ioctls here.
 */

default:
    error = EINVAL;
}

return (error);
}

/*
 * Add a destination address.
 * Add address to the sw multicast filter table and to
 * our hw device address (if applicable).
```

```
*/
/* ARGSUSED */
static int
sk_add_da(
    struct sk_info *si,
    union mkey *key,
    int ismulti)
{
    struct mfreq mfr;

    /*
     * mfmacthcnt() looks up key in our multicast filter
     * and, if found, just increments its refcnt and
     * returns true.
     */
    if (mfmacthcnt(&si->si_filter, 1, key, 0))
        return (0);

    mfr.mfr_key = key;
    mfr.mfr_value = (mval_t) sk_dahash((char*)key->mk_dhost);
    if (!mfadd(&si->si_filter, key, mfr.mfr_value))
        return (ENOMEM);

    /* MISSING: poke this hash into device's hw address filter */

    return (0);
}

/*
 * Delete an address filter. If key is unassociated, do nothing.
 * Otherwise delete software filter first, then hardware filter.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
static int
sk_del_da(
    struct sk_info *si,
    union mkey *key,
    int ismulti)
{
    struct mfreq mfr;

    /*
     * Decrement refcnt of this address in our multicast filter
     * and reclaim the entry if refcnt == 0.
     */

```

```
    if (mfmatchcnt(&si->si_filter, -1, key, &mfr.mfr_value))
        return (0);
    mfdel(&si->si_filter, key);

    /* MISSING: disable this hash value from the device if necessary */

    return (0);
}

/*
 * compute a hash value for destination addr
 */
static int
sk_dahash(char *addr)
{
    int    hv;

    hv = addr[0] ^ addr[1] ^ addr[2] ^ addr[3] ^ addr[4] ^ addr[5];
    return (hv & 0xff);
}

/*
 * Periodically poll the device for input packets
 * in case an interrupt gets lost or the device
 * somehow gets wedged.  Reset if necessary.
 */
static void
sk_watchdog(struct ifnet *ifp)
{
    struct sk_info *si;
#ifdef INTR_KTHREADS
    int s;
#endif

    si = ifptosk(ifp);

    ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

    /* check for a missed interrupt */
    IFNET_UNLOCKNOSPL(ifp);
    sk_intr(si);
    IFNET_LOCKNOSPL(ifp);

    si->si_if.if_timer = SK_DOG;
}
}
```

```
/*
 * Disable the interface.
 */
static void
sk_stop(struct sk_info *si)
{
    struct ifnet *ifp = sktoifp(si);

    ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

    ifp->if_flags &= ~IFF_ALIVE;

    /*
     * Mark an interface down and notify protocols
     * of the transition.
     */
    if_down(ifp);

    sk_reset(si);
}

/*
 * Enable the interface.
 */
static int
sk_start(
    struct sk_info *si,
    int flags)
{
    struct ifnet *ifp = sktoifp(si);
    int error;

    ASSERT(IFNET_ISLOCKED(ifp));

    error = sk_ifinit(ifp);
    if (error)
        return (error);
    ifp->if_flags = flags | IFF_ALIVE;

    /*
     * Broadcast an ARP packet, asking who has addr
     * on interface ac.
     */
    arpwhoas(&si->si_ac, &si->si_ac.ac_ipaddr);
}
```

```
        return (0);
    }

    /*
     * private debugging routine.
     */
    static void
    sk_dump(int unit)
    {
        struct sk_info *si;
        struct ifnet *ifp;
        char name[128];

        if (unit == -1)
            unit = 0;
        sprintf(name, "sk%d", unit);

        if ((ifp = ifunit(name)) == NULL) {
            qprintf("sk_dump: %s not found in ifnet list\n", name);
            return;
        }

        si = ifptosk(ifp);
        qprintf("si 0x%x\n", si);
        /* MISSING: qprintf() whatever you want here */
    }
}
```

PART SEVEN

EISA Drivers

Chapter 18, "EISA Device Drivers"

Overview of the architecture of the EISA bus attachment and the services offered by the kernel to EISA device drivers.

EISA Device Drivers

The EISA (Extended Industry Standard Architecture) bus is supported by the Silicon Graphics Indigo², POWER Indigo², and Indigo² Maximum IMPACT systems. This chapter contains the following topics related to support for the EISA bus:

- “The EISA Bus in Silicon Graphics Systems” on page 590 gives an overview of the EISA bus features and implementation.
- “Kernel Functions for EISA Support” on page 600 discusses the kernel functions that are specifically used by EISA device drivers.
- “Sample EISA Driver Code” on page 608 displays a complete character driver for an EISA device.

Note: Often it is most practical to control an EISA device through programmed I/O from a user-level process. For information on PIO, turn to “EISA Programmed I/O” on page 83 after reading “The EISA Bus in Silicon Graphics Systems” on page 590.

For information on the general architecture of a kernel-level device driver, see Part III, “Kernel-Level Drivers.”

The EISA Bus in Silicon Graphics Systems

The EISA (Extended Industry Standard Architecture) bus is an enhancement of the ISA (Industry Standard Architecture) bus standard originally developed by IBM.

EISA Bus Overview

EISA is backward compatible with ISA, but expands the ISA data bus from 16 bits to 32 bits, and provides 23 more address lines and 16 more indicator and control lines.

The EISA bus supports the following features:

- all ISA transfers
- bus master devices
- burst-mode DMA transfers
- 32-bit data and address paths
- peer-to-peer card communication

For detailed information on EISA-bus protocols, electrical specifications, and operation, see the standards documents (“Standards Documents” on page xl). Figure 18-1 shows the high-level design of the EISA attachment in the Indigo² architecture.

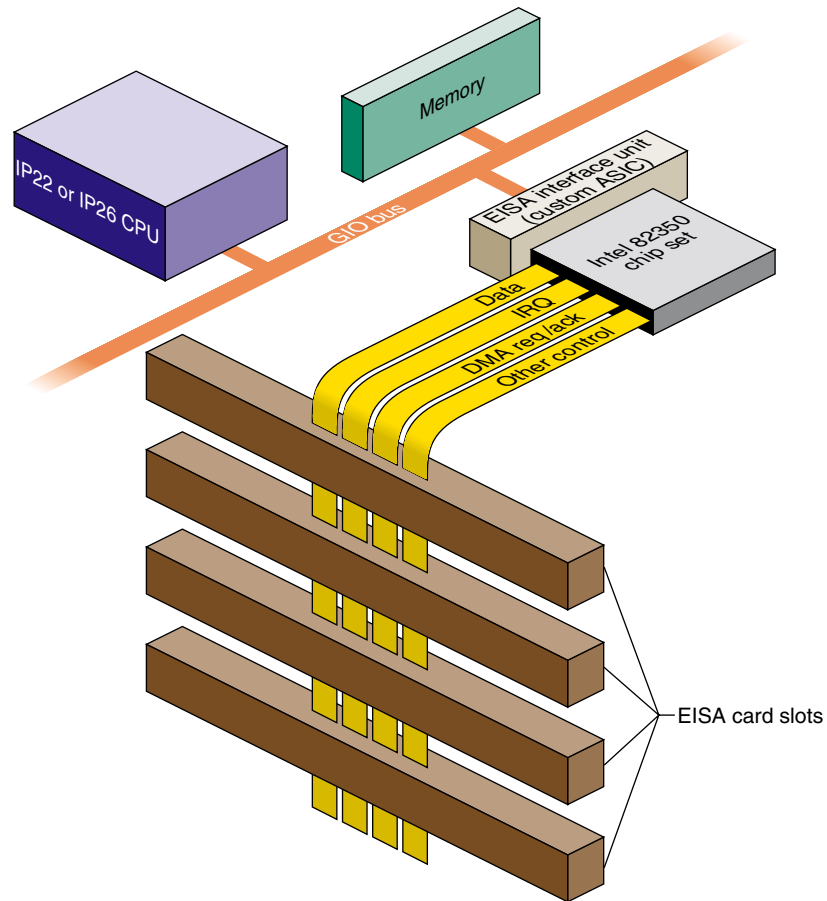


Figure 18-1 High-Level Overview of EISA Bus in Indigo²

EISA Request Arbitration

EISA provides server DMA channels arranged into two channel groups (channels 0-3 and channels 5-7) for priority resolution. Silicon Graphics uses the rotating scheme described in the EISA specification. Although the channels rotate in this scheme, channels 5-7 receive more cycles, in general, than channels 0-3.

EISA Interrupts

The EISA bus supports 11 edge-triggerable or level-triggerable interrupts. IRQ0–IRQ2, IRQ8, and IRQ13 are reserved for internal functions and are not available to EISA cards. The remaining 11 interrupt lines (IRQ3–IRQ7, IRQ9–IRQ12, IRQ14, IRQ15) can be generated by EISA cards. Multiple cards can use one IRQ level, so long as they use the same triggering method.

All EISA-generated interrupts are transmitted to a single interrupt level on the Silicon Graphics CPU (see “Interrupt Priority Scheduling” on page 596.)

EISA Data Transfers

The EISA bus supports 8-bit, 16-bit, and 32-bit data transfers through direct CPU access (PIO) as well as DMA initiated by a bus-master card or the on-board DMA hardware.

EISA Address Spaces

The EISA-bus address space is divided into I/O address space and memory address space. On the EISA bus, accesses to memory and to I/O are distinguished by having different bus cycle protocols. The MIPS architecture has only one type of memory access, so in the Silicon Graphics systems, EISA I/O space and memory space are assigned separate ranges of physical addresses. The EISA Interface Unit (see Figure 18-1) decodes the address ranges and causes the Intel 82350 bus control to issue the appropriate bus cycle type, I/O or memory.

The I/O address space comprises a sequence of 4 KB page, one for each bus slot. The first page, slot 0, corresponds to the registers of the Intel 82350 chip set. The pages for slots 1-4 correspond to the four accessible slots in the Indigo² and Challenge M chassis (see “Available Card Slots” on page 596).

EISA Locked Cycles

The EISA bus architecture provides a signal, LOCK*, which allows a card (or the processor, in an Intel architecture system) to lock bus access so as to perform one or more atomic updates.

The Silicon Graphics hardware implementation of the EISA bus is bridged onto the GIO bus, which does not support a locked cycle. The general form of locked bus cycles is not supported in the Silicon Graphics implementation of EISA. An EISA card cannot lock the bus nor can software in the IRIX kernel lock the EISA bus.

A device driver in the IRIX kernel can perform a software-controlled read-modify-write cycle, as on a VME bus, using the `pio_*_rmw()` kernel functions. See (“Using the PIO Map in Functions” on page 603). This function ensures that no other software accesses the EISA bus during the read-modify-write operation.

EISA Byte Ordering

An important implementation detail of the EISA bus is that it uses the Intel convention of “little-endian” byte ordering, in which the least significant byte of a halfword or word is in the lowest address. The Silicon Graphics CPU uses “big-endian” ordering, with the most significant byte first. Hence data exchanged with the EISA bus often needs to be reordered before use.

EISA Product Identifier

EISA expansion boards, embedded devices, and system boards have a four-byte product identifier (ID) that can be read from I/O port addresses 0xsC80 through 0xsC83 in the card’s I/O address space, where *s* is the offset of the card slot. For example, the slot 1 product ID can be read as a 4-byte value from I/O port addresses 0x1C80. This value can be tested in an `exprobe` parameter of the VECTOR line during system boot (see “Configuring IRIX” on page 597).

The first two bytes (0xC80 and 0xC81) contain a compressed representation of the manufacturer code. The manufacturer code is a three-character code (uppercase ASCII characters in the range of A to Z) chosen by the manufacturer and registered with the standard (see "Standards Documents" on page xl). The manufacturer code "ISA" is used to indicate a generic ISA adapter.

The three-character manufacturer code is compressed into three 5-bit values so that it can be incorporated into the two I/O bytes at 0xC80 and 0xC81. The compression procedure is as follows:

1. Find the hexadecimal ASCII value for each letter:
ASCII for "A"-"Z" : "A" = 0x41, "Z" = 0x5a
2. Subtract 0x40 from each ASCII value:
Compressed "A" = 0x41-0x40 = 0x01 = 0000 0001
Compressed "Z" = 0x5a-0x40 = 0x1A = 0001 1010
3. Discard leading 0-bits, retaining the five least significant bits of each letter:
Compressed "A" = 00001. Compressed "Z" = 11010
4. Compressed code = concatenate "0" and the three 5-bit values:
"AZA" = 0 00001 11010 00001

Figure 18-2 summarizes the contents of the EISA manufacturer ID value.

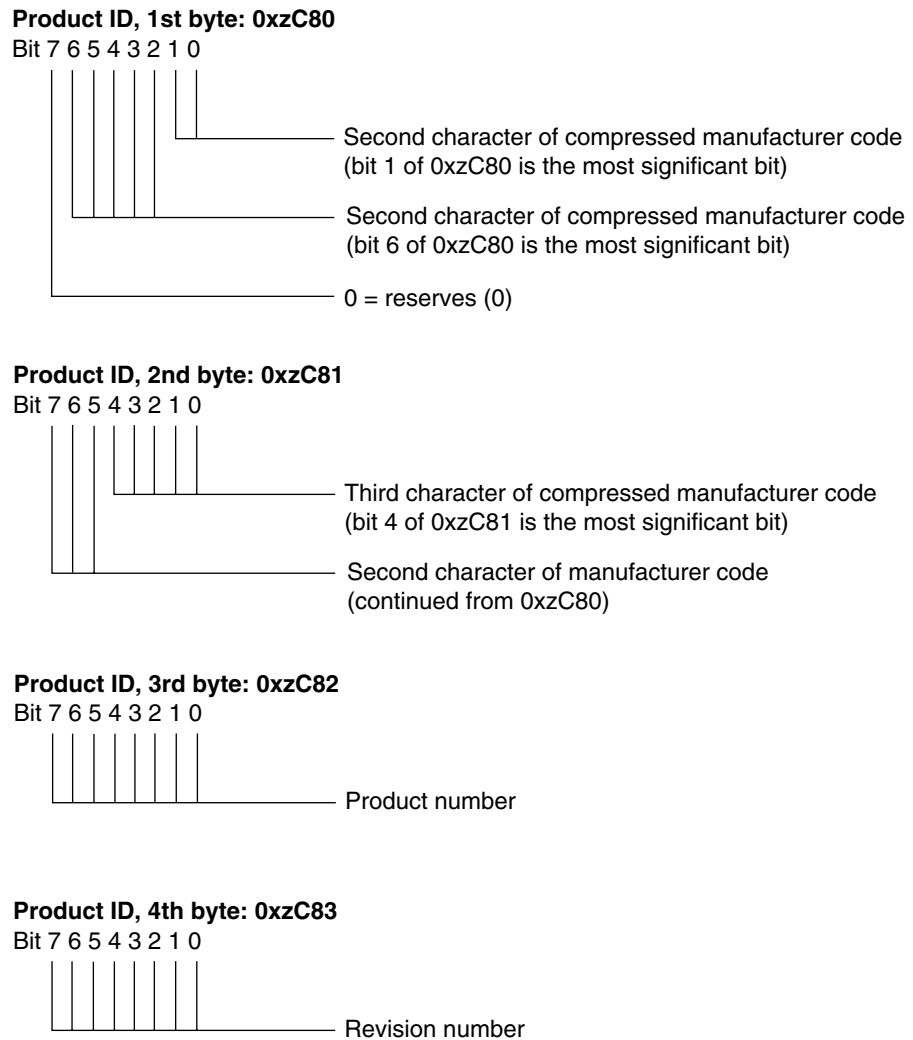


Figure 18-2 Encoding of the EISA Manufacturer ID

EISA Support in Indigo² and Challenge M Series

One or more EISA cards can be plugged into an Indigo² series workstation, or into a Challenge M system (which uses the identical chassis). Any EISA-conforming card can be plugged into an available slot. EISA devices can be used as block devices or character devices, but they cannot be used as boot devices.

Available Card Slots

The Indigo² series has four peripheral card slots that accept graphics adapters, EISA cards, or GIO cards in any combination. Graphics cards are available that use one, two, or three slots, resulting in the following combinations:

- With Extreme graphics installed, one slot is available for use by an EISA card.
- With XZ graphics installed, two slots are used by the graphics, and two are available for EISA cards.
- The XL graphics uses only one slot, so up to three EISA cards can be accommodated.

The Challenge M system, having no graphics adapter, has four available slots.

EISA Address Mapping

The pages of EISA I/O address space are mapped to physical addresses 0x0001 0000 (slot 1) through 0x0004 0000 (slot 4). The 112 MB of EISA memory address space is mapped to physical addresses between 0x000A 0000 and 0x06FF FFFF.

Addresses in these ranges can be mapped into the kernel address space for PIO or for DMA (see “Kernel Functions for EISA Support” on page 600).

Interrupt Priority Scheduling

The EISA architecture associates interrupt priority with the IRQ level, from IRQ0 to IRQ15. In Silicon Graphics systems, all EISA interrupts are channeled into one CPU interrupt level. The priority of this CPU interrupt is below that of the clock and at the same level as on-board devices. When multiple EISA interrupts arrive, they are serviced in their EISA-bus priority order.

When the CPU receives an EISA-bus interrupt, it responds to each interrupt level in IRQ priority order (lower number first). For each interrupt level, the IRIX kernel calls one or more interrupt service functions that have been established by device drivers (see “Allocating IRQs and Channels” on page 603).

EISA Configuration

In order to integrate an EISA device into a Silicon Graphics system you must configure the EISA card itself, and then configure the system to recognize the card.

Configuring the Hardware

The I/O address space on an EISA card plugged into a card slot responds to the range of bus addresses for that slot. All EISA cards are identified by a manufacturer-specific device ID that the operating system uses to register the existence of each card. ISA cards, in contrast, are jumpered to respond to a specific address range that corresponds to the device’s I/O registers.

Normally a kernel-level driver accesses registers in the I/O space using a PIO map (see “Mapping PIO Addresses” on page 600). For a card’s memory space to be accessible, the card must be configured or jumpered to respond to the appropriate address range. The specified address range must be selected to avoid conflicts with other EISA/ISA devices.

Configuring IRIX

In the PC/DOS hardware and software environment, where the EISA bus is commonly found, device configuration is handled in part by use of a standalone ROM BIOS initialization program that stores device information in the nonvolatile RAM of the PC; and in part by saving device initialization information in configuration files that are read at boot time.

Neither of these facilities is available in the same way under IRIX. Each EISA device is configured to IRIX using a VECTOR line in a file stored in the directory */var/sysgen/system* (see “Kernel Configuration Files” on page 56).

The syntax of a VECTOR line is documented in two places:

- The */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* file itself contains descriptive comments on the syntax and meaning of the statement, as well as numerous examples.
- The `system(4)` reference page gives a more formal definition of the syntax.

In a Silicon Graphics system equipped with an EISA bus, the file */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* contains a number of VECTOR lines describing the EISA devices supported by distributed code.

The important elements in a VECTOR line for EISA are as follows:

<i>bustype</i>	Specified as <i>EISA</i> for EISA devices. The VECTOR statement can be used for other types of buses as well.
<i>module</i>	The base name of a kernel-level device driver for this device, as used in the <i>/var/sysgen/master.d</i> database (see “Master Configuration Database” on page 55 and “How Names Are Used in Configuration” on page 259).
<i>adapter</i>	The number of the EISA bus where the device is attached—always 0, or omitted, in current systems.
<i>ctrl</i>	The “controller” number is simply an integer parameter that is passed to the device driver at boot time. It can be used for example to specify a slot number.
<i>iospace</i> , <i>iospace2</i> , <i>iospace3</i>	Each <i>iospace</i> group specifies the address space, the starting address, and the size of a segment of address space used by this device.
<i>probe</i> or <i>exprobe</i>	Specifies a hardware test that can be applied at boot time to find out if the device exists.

The following is a typical VECTOR line for an EISA device (it must be a single physical line in the file):

```
VECTOR: bustype=EISA module=if_ec3 ctrl=1
iospace=(EISAIO,0x1000,0x1000)
exprobe_space=(r,EISAIO, 0x1c80,4,0x6010d425,0xffffffff)
```

Using the *iospace* Parameters

The *iospace*, *iospace2*, and *iospace3* parameters are used to pass ranges of device addresses to the device driver. Each parameter contains the following three items:

- A keyword for the address space, either *EISAIO* or *EISAMEM*.
- The starting address, which depends on the address space and the card itself, as follows:
 - For the I/O space of an EISA card, the starting address of I/O registers is 0x1000 multiplied by the slot number of the card (from 1 to 4), and extends for a length of 0x1000 (4096). For example, the manufacturer ID of the card in slot 2 is at address 0x1C80.
 - The I/O space of an ISA card is hard-wired or jumpered on the card, and falls in the range 0x0100 to 0x0400.
 - The EISAMEM space is card-dependent and falls in the range 0x000A 0000 through 0x06FF FFFF.
- The length of this bus address range.

The values in these parameters are passed to the device driver at its *pfxedtinit()* entry point, provided that the probe shows the device is active.

Using the probe and exprobe Parameters

You use the *probe* or *exprobe* parameter to program a test for the existence of the device at boot time. When no test is specified, *lboot* assumes the device exists. Then it is up to the device driver to determine if the device is active and usable. When the device does not respond to a probe (because it is off-line or because it has been removed from the system), the *lboot* command will not invoke the device driver for this device.

An example *exprobe* parameter is as follows:

```
exprobe_space=(r,EISAIO, 0x1c80,4,0x6010d425,0xffffffff)
```

The *exprobe* parameter lists groups of six subparameters, as follows:

Sequence	One or more of <i>w</i> for write, <i>r</i> for read, or <i>rn</i> for read-negate.
Space	<i>EISAIO</i> or <i>EISAMEM</i> .
Address	The address of the byte, halfword, or word to test.
Length	The number of bytes to test: 1, 2, or 4.
Value	The value to write, or the test value for a read.
Mask	A number to be ANDed with the Value operand before a write or after a read. Specify 0xffffffff to nullify the AND operation.

You can use the *w* operation to prime a device. You can use the *r* operation to test for a specific value, and the *rn* operation to test that a specific value (or a specific bit, after masking) is *not* returned.

Typically, a simple *r* operation is used on an EISA card to test for the manufacturer's product identifier.

To test the existence of an ISA card, use a *wr* sequence to write a value to a register and read it back unchanged. Or read a value and verify that it does not come back all-binary-1, the value returned by a nonexistent device.

Using the module Parameter

The device driver specified by the *module* parameter is invoked at its *pfxedtinit()* entry point, where it receives *ctrl* and *iospace* information specified in the VECTOR line (see "Entry Point *edtinit()*" on page 151). The device driver initializes the device at this time.

You use the *iospace* parameters to pass in the exact bus addresses that correspond to this device. Up to three address space ranges can be passed to the driver. This does not restrict the device—it can use other ranges of addresses, but the device driver has to deduce their addresses from other information. The device driver typically uses this data to set up PIO maps (see "Mapping PIO Addresses" on page 600).

Kernel Functions for EISA Support

The kernel provides services for mapping the EISA bus into the kernel virtual address space for PIO or DMA, and for transferring data using these maps. Two types of DMA are supported, Bus-master DMA and Slave DMA.

Mapping PIO Addresses

A PIO map is a system object that represents the mapping of a location in kernel virtual memory to some range of addresses on a VME or EISA bus. After creating a PIO map, a device driver can use it in the following ways:

- Extract a specific kernel virtual address that represents the device. This address can be used to load or store data, or it can be mapped that into user process space.

- Copy data between the device and memory without learning the specific kernel addresses involved.
- Perform bus read-modify-write cycles to apply Boolean operators to device data.

The functions used with PIO maps are summarized in Table 18-1.

Table 18-1 Functions to Create and Use PIO Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
pio_mapalloc(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Allocate a PIO map.
pio_mapfree(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Free a PIO map.
pio_badaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when reading an address.
pio_wbadaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Check for bus error when writing to an address.
pio_mapaddr(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Convert a bus address to a virtual address.
pio_bcopyin(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from a bus address to kernel's virtual space.
pio_bcopyout(D3)	pio.h & types.h	Y	Copy data from kernel's virtual space to a bus address.
pio_andb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-AND-write cycle.
pio_andh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-AND-write cycle.
pio_andw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-AND-write cycle.
pio_orb_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	Byte read-OR-write cycle.
pio_orh_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	16-bit read-OR-write cycle.
pio_orw_rmw(D3)	pio.h & types.h	N	32-bit read-OR-write cycle.

A kernel-level device driver creates a PIO map by calling **pio_mapalloc()**. This function performs memory allocation and so can sleep. PIO maps are typically created in the **pfxedtinit()** entry point, where the driver first learns about the device addresses from the contents of the *edt_t* structure (see "Entry Point *edtinit()*" on page 151).

The parameters to **pio_mapalloc()** describe the range of addresses that can be mapped in terms of

- the bus type, in this case `ADAP_EISA` from *sys/edt.h*
- the bus number, when more than one bus is supported
- the address space, using constants such as `PIOMAP_EISA_IO` from *sys/pio.h*
- the starting bus address and a length

This call also specifies a “fixed” or “unfixed” map. This distinction applies only to VME maps. An EISA map is always a fixed map.

A call to **pio_mapfree()** releases a PIO map. PIO maps created by a loadable driver must be released in the **pfxunload()** entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180 and “Unloading” on page 268).

Testing the PIO Map

The PIO map is created from the parameters that are passed. These are not validated by **pio_mapalloc()**. If there is any possibility that the mapped device is not installed, not active, or improperly configured, you should test the mapped address.

The **pio_baddr()** and **pio_wbaddr()** functions test the mapped address to see if it is usable.

Using the Mapped Address

From a fixed PIO map you can recover a kernel virtual address that corresponds to the first bus address in the map. The **pio_mapaddr()** function is used for this.

You can use this address to load or store data into device registers. In the **pfxmap()** entry point (see “Concepts and Use of mmap()” on page 169), you can use this address with the **v_mapphys()** function to map the range of device addresses into the address space of a user process.

Using the PIO Map in Functions

You can apply a variety of kernel functions to any PIO map, fixed or unfixed. The **pio_bcopyin()** and **pio_bcopyout()** functions copy a range of data between memory and a PIO map. There is no performance advantage to using these functions, as compared to loading or storing to the mapped addresses, but their use makes the device driver code simpler and more readable.

The series of functions **pio_andb_rmw()** and **pio_orb_rmw()** perform a read-modify-write cycle. You can use them to set or clear bits in device registers. Read-modify-write cycles on the EISA bus are atomic operations to software only (see “EISA Locked Cycles” on page 593).

Allocating IRQs and Channels

Before a kernel-level driver can field EISA interrupts, it must associate a handler with one of the IRQ levels. In order to perform DMA, the driver must allocate one of the DMA channels. The functions used for these purposes are summarized in Table 18-2

Table 18-2 Functions for IRQ and Channel Allocation

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
<code>eisa_dmachan_alloc()</code>	<code>eisa.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Allocate DMA channel.
<code>eisa_ivec_alloc()</code>	<code>eisa.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Allocate IRQ and set triggering.
<code>eisa_ivec_set()</code>	<code>eisa.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Associate handler to IRQ.

Note: There are no reference pages for the functions in Table 18-2.

Allocating and Programming an IRQ

The function **eisa_ivec_alloc()** allocates an available IRQ number from a set of acceptable numbers. Its prototype is

```
int eisa_ivec_alloc(uint_t adap, ushort_t mask, uchar_t trig);
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>adap</i>	The adapter number, always 0 in current systems.
<i>mask</i>	A 16-bit mask containing a 1-bit for each IRQ level that is acceptable for this device. (For available IRQ levels, see “EISA Interrupts” on page 592.)
<i>trig</i>	The triggering method used by the card, either <code>EISA_EDGE_IRQ</code> or <code>EISA_LEVEL_IRQ</code> from <i>sys/eisa.h</i> .

ISA cards are usually hard-wired or jumpered to a particular IRQ, so that the *mask* argument contains a single bit. Some EISA cards can be programmed dynamically to use a selected IRQ; in that case *mask* contains a 1-bit for each IRQ the card can be programmed to use.

The function attempts to allocate an IRQ from the *mask* set that is not in use by any card. If all acceptable levels are in use, it allocates an IRQ that is already in use with the requested kind of triggering. In either case, it returns the number of the IRQ to be used.

In the event that all the IRQs requested are already in use with a conflicting type of triggering, the function returns -1.

After allocating an IRQ, the device driver programs the card (using PIO) to interrupt on that line.

The function `eisa_ivec_set()` associates a function in the device driver with an IRQ number. Its prototype is

```
int eisa_ivec_set(uint_t adap, int irq,
                 void (*e_intr)(long), long e_arg)
```

The parameters are as follows:

<i>adap</i>	The adapter number, always 0 in current systems.
<i>irq</i>	The IRQ level to be monitored.
<i>e_intr</i>	The address of the interrupt handling function to call.
<i>e_arg</i>	An argument to pass to the function when called.

When more than one device is allocated the same IRQ, the kernel calls all the interrupt functions associated with that IRQ. This means that an interrupt function must always verify, by testing device registers, that the interrupt was caused by its device.

The first call to **eisa_ivec_set()** for a given IRQ enables interrupts from that IRQ. Prior to the call, interrupts from that IRQ are ignored.

Note: If you are working with both the VME and EISA interfaces, it is worth noting that the number and type of arguments of **eisa_ivec_set()** differ from those of **vme_ivec_set()**.

Note: There is no way to retract the association of an interrupt function with an IRQ. This means that if an EISA driver handles interrupts and is loadable, it must not support the **pfxunload()** entry point. An interrupt arriving after the driver had been unloaded would panic the system.

Allocating a DMA Channel

The function **eisa_dmachan_alloc()** allocates one of the seven available DMA channels (channel 4 is reserved by the hardware) from a set of acceptable channels. The function's prototype is

```
int eisa_dmachan_alloc(uint_t adap, uchar_t dma_mask)
```

The arguments are as follows:

<i>adap</i>	The adapter number, always 0 in current systems.
<i>dma_mask</i>	An 8-bit mask containing 1-bits for the DMA channels that can be used by this device.

The function allocates the channel in the requested set that is in use by the fewest devices. It is possible for a single channel to be requested by multiple devices. However, if the device can use any of several channels, it is likely that the device will be the only one using the channel whose number is returned. After allocating a channel number, the device driver programs the device to use that channel, if necessary.

Programming Bus-Master DMA

Bus-master DMA is performed by an EISA card that has bus-master logic. The card generates the DMA bus cycles, and provides the target memory address to store or retrieve data.

The device driver sets up Bus-master DMA by programming the card with a target physical address and length of data. Some cards support scatter/gather operations, in which the card is programmed with a list of memory pages and their lengths, and the

card transfers a stream of data across all of the pages. However, programming an EISA bus master card is a highly hardware-dependent operation. The cards vary widely in their capabilities and programming methods.

The key programming issue for a device driver is locating the target memory buffers in system memory, so as to be able to program the EISA card with correct physical memory addresses.

The kernel provides functions for mapping memory for DMA. The functions that operate on EISA DMA maps are summarized in Table 18-3.

Table 18-3 Functions That Operate on DMA Maps

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
<code>dma_map(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Prepare DMA mapping.
<code>dma_mapaddr(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Return the target physical address for a given map and address.
<code>dma_mapalloc(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	Y	Allocate a DMA map.
<code>dma_mapfree(D3)</code>	<code>dmamap.h</code> & <code>types.h</code> & <code>sema.h</code>	N	Free a DMA map.

A device driver allocates a DMA map using `dma_mapalloc()`. This is typically done in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point, provided that the maximum I/O size is known at that time (see “Entry Point `edtinit()`” on page 151).

A DMA map is used prior to a DMA transfer into or out of a buffer in kernel virtual space. The function `dma_map()` takes a DMA map, a buffer address, and a length. It relates the buffer address to physical addresses for use in DMA, and returns the length mapped. The returned length is typically less than the length of the buffer. This is because, for EISA, the function does not support scatter/gather, so the mapping must stop at the first page boundary.

After calling **dma_map()**, the device driver calls **dma_mapaddr()** to get the physical address corresponding to the current map. This is the address that is programmed into the EISA bus master card as a target address for a segment of the transfer up to one page in size.

Repeated calls to **dma_map()** and **dma_mapaddr()** can be used to map successive pages, until the EISA card is loaded with as many transfer segment addresses as it supports.

Programming Slave DMA

In Slave DMA, an EISA card that does not have DMA logic is commanded by the EISA Interface Unit and 82350 chip set (see Figure 18-1) to perform a series of transfers into memory.

The kernel supplies a unique set of functions for managing Slave DMA, unrelated to the DMA functions for Bus-master DMA. The functions that operate on EISA DMA maps are summarized in Table 18-4.

Table 18-4 Functions for EISA DMA

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
eisa_dma_disable(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	N	Disable recognition of hardware requests on a DMA channel.
eisa_dma_enable(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	N	Enable recognition of hardware requests on a DMA channel.
eisa_dma_free_buf(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	N	Free a previously allocated DMA buffer descriptor.
eisa_dma_free_cb(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	N	Free a previously allocated DMA command block.
eisa_dma_get_buf(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	Y	Allocate a DMA buffer descriptor.
eisa_dma_get_cb(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	Y	Allocate a DMA command block.
eisa_dma_prog(D3)	eisa.h & types.h	Y	Program a DMA operation for a subsequent software request.

Table 18-4 (continued) Functions for EISA DMA

Function	Header Files	Can Sleep	Purpose
<code>eisa_dma_stop(D3)</code>	<code>eisa.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	N	Stop software-initiated DMA operation and release channel.
<code>eisa_dma_swstart(D3)</code>	<code>eisa.h</code> & <code>types.h</code>	Y	Initiate a DMA operation via software request.

The EISA attachment hardware has many options for performing Slave DMA, and most of these options are reflected in the contents of the `eisa_dma_cb` and `eisa_dma_buf` data structures (see the `eisa_dma_buf(D4)` and `eisa_dma_cb(D4)` reference pages, in addition to the reference pages listed in Table 18-4). By setting appropriate values declared in `sys/eisa.h` into these structures, you can program most varieties of Slave DMA.

Sample EISA Driver Code

Initialization Sketch

The code in Table 18-1 represents an outline of the `pfxedtinit()` entry point for a hypothetical EISA device, showing the allocation of a PIO map, an IRQ, and a DMA channel. The driver supports as many as four identical devices. It keeps information about them in an array of structures, `info`. Each entry to `pfxedtinit()` initializes one element of this array, as indexed by the `ctlr` value from the VECTOR statement.

An important point to note in this example is that most of the arguments to `pio_map_alloc()` can simply be passed as the values from the `edt_t` received by the entry point.

Example 18-1 Sketch of EISA Initialization

```
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/edt.h>
#include <sys/pio.h>
#include <sys/eisa.h>
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#define MAX_DEVICE 4
/* Array of info structures about each device. A device
** that does not initialize OK ought to be marked, but
** no such logic is shown.
```

```

*/
struct edrv_info {
    caddr_t e_addr[NBASE];    /* pio mapped addr per space */
    int     e_dmachan;        /* dma chan in use */
} einfo[MAX_DEVICE];

#define CARD_ID          0x0163b30a    /* mfr. ID */
#define IRQ_MASK         0x0018       /* acceptable IRQs */
#define DMACHAN_MASK    0x7a         /* acceptable chans */

edrv_edtinit(edt_t *e)
{
    int iospace;              /* index over iospace array */
    int eirq;                 /* allocated IRQ # */
    int edma_chan;           /* allocated chan # */
    struct edrv_info *einf; /* -> einfo[n] */
    piomap_t *pmap;

    if (e->e_ctlr < MAX_DEVICE)
        einf = &einfo[e->e_ctlr];
    else
    { /* unknown device, nowhere to put info */
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "devno too large:%d", e->e_ctlr);
        return;
    }

    /* for each nonempty iospace parameter,
    ** set up a PIO map and save the kv address.
    */
    for (iospace = 0; iospace < NBASE; iospace++) {
        if (!e->e_space[iospace].ios_iopaddr)
            einf->e_addr[iospace] = 0; /* note no addr */
        pmap = pio_mapalloc( /* make a PIO map */
            e->e_bus_type, /* pass bus type given */
            e->e_adap, /* pass adapter # given */
            &e->e_space[iospace], /* given iospace too */
            PIOMAP_FIXED, /* always fixed for EISA */
            "edrv");
        einf->e_addr[iospace] = pio_mapaddr(pmap,
            e->e_space[iospace].ios_iopaddr);
    }

    /* Set up an edge-triggered IRQ for this device.
    ** Associate it with our interrupt entry point.
    ** There is no need to remember the assigned IRQ.
    */
}

```

```
eirq = eisa_ivec_alloc(e->e_adap, IRQ_MASK, EISA_EDGE_IRQ);
if (eirq < 0) {
    cmn_err(CE_WARN,
           "edrv: ctlr %d could not allocate IRQ\n",
           e->e_ctlr);
    /* should mark einfo unusable */
    return;
}
eisa_ivec_set(e->e_adap, eirq, edrv_intr, e->e_ctlr);
/* Allocate a DMA Channel for this device and note
** the number in the device info array.
*/
edma_chan = eisa_dmachan_alloc(e->e_adap, DMACHAN_MASK);
if (edma_chan < 0) {
    cmn_err(CE_WARN,
           "edrv: ctlr %d could not allocate DMA Chan\n",
           e->e_ctlr);
    /* should mark einfo unusable */
    return;
}
einf->e_dmachan = edma_chan;
}
```

Complete EISA Character Driver

The code in this section displays a complete character device driver for an EISA card, the Roland RAP-10 synthesizer. This inexpensive synthesizer card can be installed in an Indigo² and driven by a program through this device driver.

- Example 18-6 displays the code of the driver itself.
- Example 18-2 displays the descriptive file to be placed in */var/sysgen/master.d* to describe the driver.
- Example 18-3 displays the configuration file to be placed in */var/sysgen/system* to enable loading the driver.
- Example 18-4 displays a shell script to install the driver.
- Example 18-5 contains a test program to operate the synthesizer.

Example 18-2 Master File /var/sysgen/rap for RAP-10 Driver

```
*
* rap - Roland RAP-10 Musical Board
*
* $Revision: 1.0 $
*
*FLAG   PREFIX   SOFT   #DEV   DEPENDENCIES
c   rap       61       -

```

\$\$\$

Example 18-3 Configuration File /var/sysgen/rap.sm for RAP-10 Driver

```
VECTOR: bustype=EISA module=rap ctlr=0 adapter=0
iospace=(EISAIO,0x330,16) probe_space=(EISAIO,0x330,1)
```

Example 18-4 Installation Script for RAP-10 Driver

```
#!/bin/csh

if [ `whoami` != "root" ]
then
    echo "You must be root to run this script.\n"
    exit 1
fi

echo "cp rap.o /var/sysgen/boot/rap.o\n"
cp rap.o /var/sysgen/boot/rap.o

echo "cp rap.master /var/sysgen/master.d/rap\n"
cp rap.master /var/sysgen/master.d/rap

echo "cp rap.sm /var/sysgen/system/rap.sm"
cp rap.sm /var/sysgen/system/rap.sm

echo "mknod /dev/rap c 62 0\n"
mknod /dev/rap c 62 0

echo "Make a new kernel anytime by typing: autoconfig -f -v\n"
```

Example 18-5 Program to Test RAP-10 Driver

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <errno.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <signal.h>
#include "rap.h"
/*
 * record.c
 *
 * This program plays song from a previously recorded file
 * using RAP-10 board.
 *
 */

#define BUF_SIZE 4096
#define FILE_HDR "RAP-10 WAVE FILE"
#define RAP_FILE "/dev/rap"
#define MAX_BUF 10
#define FOREVER for(;;)

uchar_t buf[BUF_SIZE];
uchar_t *fname;
void endProg( int );

main (int argc, char **argv)
{
    register int fd, rapfd, bytes;
    if ( argc <= 1 ) {
        printf ("play: Usage: play <file_name>\n");
        exit(0);
    }
    fname = argv[1];
    printf ("play: opening file %s\n", fname);
    fd = open (fname, O_RDONLY);
    if ( fd == -1 ) {
        printf ("play: Cannot create file, errno = %d\n", errno);
        close(rapfd);
        exit(0);
    }
    printf ("play: Checking RAP-10 File ID\n");
    if ( read(fd, buf, strlen(FILE_HDR)) <= 0 ) {
        printf ("play: Could not read the file ID, errno = %d\n",
            errno);
    }
}
```



```
        close(fd);
        exit(0);
    }
    if ( strcmp(buf, FILE_HDR) ) {
        printf ("play: File is not a RAP file\n");
        close(fd);
        exit(0);
    }
    printf ("play: opening RAP card\n");
    rapfd = open (RAP_FILE, O_WRONLY);
    if ( rapfd <= 0 ) {
        printf ("play: Cannot open RAP card, errno = %d\n",
            errno);
        exit(0);
    }
    printf ("play: Playing ..please wait\n");
    /* ignore Interrupt */
    sigset (SIGINT, SIG_IGN );
    FOREVER {
        bytes = read(fd, buf, BUF_SIZE);
        if ( bytes < 0 ) {
            printf ("play: error reading data, errno = %d",
                errno);
            close(fd);
            close(rapfd);
            exit(0);
        }
        if ( bytes == 0 )
            break;
        bytes = write(rapfd, buf, BUF_SIZE);
        if ( bytes <= 0 ) {
            printf ("play: Cannot read from RAP, errno = %d\n",
                errno);
            close (rapfd);
            close (fd);
            exit(0);
        }
    }
    printf ("play: waiting for Play to End\n");
    if ( ioctl (rapfd, RAPIOCTL_END_PLAY) ) {
        printf ("play: Ioctl error %d", errno );
    }
    else printf ("play: Song succesfully played\n");
    close(rapfd);
    close (fd);
}
```

Example 18-6 Complete EISA Character Driver for RAP-10

```

/*****
 *
 *      Roland RAP-10 Music Card Device Driver for Eisa Bus
 *      -----
 *
 * INTRODUCTION:
 * -----
 * This file contains the device driver for Roland RAP-10
 * Music Card. Currently it contains necessary routines to Record and
 * Playback a Wave file. The MIDI Implementation is to be defined and
 * implemented at later time.
 *
 * DESIGN OVERVIEW:
 * -----
 * We will use DMA for wave data movements. At any given time, the card
 * can be either playing or recording and both operations are not allowed.
 * Also no more than one process at a time can access the card.
 *
 * Circular Buffers:
 * -----
 * Since DMA operation is performed independently of the processor,
 * we will buffer the user's data and release the user's process to
 * do other things (i.e. preparing more data). Internally we use a
 * circular queue (rwQue) to store the data to be played or recorded.
 * Each entry in this queue is of the type rwBuf_t where the data will
 * be stored. Each entry can store up to RW_BUF_SIZE bytes of data.
 * At the init time, we try to allocate two DMA channels for the card:
 * Channel 5 and 6. If we can only allocate Channel 5, we will use the
 * card in Mono mode, otherwise, we will use it as Stereo. DMA has two
 * buffers of its own: dmaRigh[] and dmaLeft[] for each Channel. For
 * Stereo play, the data user provides us is of the format:
 *
 *      <Left Byte><Right Byte><Left Byte><Right Byte>.....
 *
 * So for playing, we have to move all Left_Bytes to dmaLeft buffer
 * and all Right_Bytes to the dmaRight buffer (in Stereo mode only).
 * In mono mode, we will use dmaLeft[] buffer and all the user's data
 * are moved to dmaLeft[].
 *
 * The basic operation of the Card are as follow:
 *
 * Playing:
 * -----
 * For playing wave data, the user must first open the card through

```

```
* open() system call.The call comes to us as rapopen(). This
* routine resets all global values, states and counters, prepares
* necessary DMA structures for each channel, disables RAP-10
* interrupts and establishes this process as the owner of the card.
*
* The user provides us with the wave data by issuing write()
* system calls. This call comes to us as rapwrite(). We will
* move the data from user's address space into an empty rwQue[]
* entry and will retrun so that the user can issue another call.
* If there is no DMA going, we will start one and the data will
* start to be moved to the Card to be played.
* The user can issue as many write() as necessary. The playing
* operation will be done by either closing the card or issuing
* an Ioctl call. Issuing Ioctl, will leave this process as owner
* still while closing the card will release the card.
*
* Recording:
* -----
* Assuming that the user has opened the card and is the current
* owner, user will issue read() system call. The call comes to
* us as rapread(). If no DMA Record is going on, we will start
* one. We will move data from rwQue[] entries (as they are filled)
* to user's address space. The recording is done either by a
* close() or ioctl() call.
*
* DMA Starting:
* -----
* For Playing, we will start DMA when we have a full circular buffer.
* This is done so that we have enough data available for a fast DMA
* operation to be busy with. For recording, we will start DMA
* immediatly.
*
* Interrupts:
* -----
* For each DMA transfer, we will receive two interrupts: One when 1st
* half the buffer is transfered, one when 2nd half of the buffer is
* transfered. We must fill the half that has just been transfered with
* fresh data. Note that in Stereo mode, there are two DMA operation
* going. So when we receive Interrupt for one DMA, we must wait for the
* exact interrupt from the other DMA and service both DMA's half buffers.
*
* Card Address and IRQ
* -----
* We will use the default bus address of 0x330 and IRQ 5. Change in
* bus address should also be reflected in /var/sysgen/system/rap.sm
```

```

* file. Changes in IRQ should be reflected in the source code and
* the program must be recompiled.
*
* ISSUES:
* -----
* 1. The DMA processing and transfer of data from/to user's buffer
* are independent of each other. When we are servicing the
* one half of the dma buffer that just been transfered, there is
* no guarantee that we can fill that half of the buffer BEFORE
* dma is done with the other half. In this case, dma plays the
* fist half of buffer WHILE we are writing into it.
*
* 2. Currently eisa_dma_disable() routine does not actually
* releases the Dma channels. This is the reason why we access
* the Dma channel table (e_ch[]) ourselves and release the
* channel.
*
* 3. Somehow because of number 2, the Play program cannot be
* stopped with a Ctrl-C. In Play program this signal is
* explicitly ignored. Trapping a Ctrl-C causes a kernel panic.
* Once we have a workable eisa_dma_disable(), this problem will
* be resolved.
*
* TECHNICAL REFERENCES:
* -----
* Roland RAP-10 Technical Reference and Programmer's Guide, Ver. 1.1
* IRIX Device Driver Programming Guide
* IRIX Device Driver Reference Pages.
* Intel 82357 Preliminary Reference, Section: 3.7.8 Mode Register (pp: 223)
*
*****
***                                     ***
*** Copyright 1994, Silicon Graphics Inc., Mountain View, CA.           ***
***                                     ***
*****
*/
#include "sys/types.h"
#include "sys/file.h"
#include "sys/errno.h"
#include "sys/open.h"
#include "sys/conf.h"
#include "sys/cmn_err.h"
#include "sys/debug.h"
#include "sys/param.h"
#include "sys/edt.h"

```

```

#include "sys/pio.h"
#include "sys/uio.h"
#include "sys/proc.h"
#include "sys/user.h"
#include "sys/eisa.h"
#include "sys/sem.h"
#include "sys/buf.h"
#include "sys/cred.h"
#include "sys/kmem.h"
#include "sys/ddi.h"
#include "./rap.h"
/*
 * Macros to Read/Write 8 and 16-bit values from an address
 */
#define OUTB(addr, b) ( *(volatile uchar_t *) (addr) = (b) )
#define INPB(addr) ( *(volatile uchar_t *) (addr) )
#define OUTW(addr, w) ( *(volatile ushort_t *) (addr) = (w) )
#define INPW(addr) ( *(volatile ushort_t *) (addr) )
/*
 * Raising and lowering CPU interrupt
 */
#define LOCK() spl5()
#define UNLOCK(s) splx(s)
#define FROM_INTR 1
#define FROM_USR 0
#define User_pid u.u_procp->p_pid
/*
 * IRQ and DMA channels we need.
 */
#define IRQ_MASK 0x0020
#define DMAC_CH5 0x20 /* DMA Channel 5 */
#define DMAC_CH6 0x40 /* DMA Channel 6 */
/*=====
 * MIDI and RAP Registers *
 *=====
 *
 * The following is a description of RAP-10 registers. The same
 * names used throughout this program. Some of these registers are
 * 8-bit and some are 16-bit long.
 *
 * mdrd: MIDI Receive Data
 * mdtd: MIDI Transmit Data
 * mdst: MIDI Status
 * mdcn: MIDI Command

```

```

*      pwm:      Pulse Width Modulation Data
*      timm:     Timer MSB data
*      gpcm:     GPCC Command
*      dtci:     DMA Transfer Count Buffer Interrupt Status
*      adcm:     GPCC Analog to Digital Command
*      dacm:     D/A Command and DMA Transfer Configuration
*      gpis:     GPCC Interrupt Status
*      gpdi:     GPCC DMA/Interrupt Enable
*      gpst:     GPCC Status
*      dad0:     Digital to Analog Data Channel 0
*      addt:     A/D Data Transfer
*      dad1:     Digital to Analog Data Channel 1
*      timd:     Timer Data
*      cmp0:     Compare Register Channel 0
*      dtcd:     DMA Transfer Count Data
*      cmp1:     Compare Register Channel 1
*
*      These defines indicate the offsets of the above registers
*      from the Drive's base address:
*/
#define MDRD      0x0
#define MDTD      0x0
#define MDST      0x1
#define MDCM      0x1
#define PWM      0x2
#define TIMM      0x3
#define GPCM      0x3
#define DTCI      0x4
#define ADCM      0x4
#define DACM      0x5
#define GPIS      0x6
#define GPDI      0x6
#define GPST      0x8
#define DAD0      0x8
#define ADDT      0xa
#define DAD1      0xa
#define TIMD      0xc
#define CMP0      0xc
#define DTCD      0xe
#define CMP1      0xe

typedef struct rapReg {
    uchar_t  mdrd;
    uchar_t  mtdt;
    uchar_t  mdst;

```

```

uchar_t  mdcM;
uchar_t  pWmD;
uchar_t  timM;
uchar_t  gpcM;
uchar_t  dtci;
uchar_t  adcm;
uchar_t  dacm;
ushort_t gpis;
ushort_t gpdi;
ushort_t gpst;
ushort_t dad0;
ushort_t addt;
ushort_t dad1;
ushort_t timd;
ushort_t cmp0;
ushort_t dtcd;
ushort_t cmp1;
} rapReg_t;
/*=====
 *      dtct  (DMA Transfer Count)
 *=====*/
#define DTCD_DRQ0  0x00FF  /* DRQ 0 bits (0-7) */
#define DTCD_DRQ1  0xFF00  /* DRQ 1 bits (8-15) */
/*=====
 *      gpst  (GPCC Status)
 *=====*/
#define GPST_PWM2 0x0800 /* PWM2 Busy (0=Write Enable, 1=Busy) */
#define GPST_PWM1 0x0400 /* PWM1 Busy (0=Write Enable, 1=Busy) */
#define GPST_PWM0 0x0200 /* PWM0 Busy (0=Write Enable, 1=Busy) */
#define GPST_EPB  0x0100 /* EP Convertor Busy (0=Write Enable, 1=Busy) */
#define GPST_GP1  0x0080 /* GP-chip, Ch 1 Acss (1 = Access) */
#define GPST_GP0  0x0040 /* GP-chip, Ch 0 Acss (1 = Access) */
#define GPST_MTE  0x0020 /* MIDI Tx Enable (0=Tx_Fifo buff full) */
#define GPST_ORE  0x0010 /* MIDI Overrun Error (1 = error) */
#define GPST_FE   0x0008 /* MIDI Framing Error (1 = error) */
#define GPST_ADE  0x0004 /* A/D Error (1 = error) */
#define GPST_DE1  0x0002 /* D/A Ch 1 Write Error (1 = error) */
#define GPST_DE0  0x0001 /* D/A Ch 0 Write Error (1 = error) */
/*=====
 *      gpdi  (GPCC DMA/Interrupt Enable (pp: 4-18))
 *=====*/
#define GPMI_ITC  0x8000 /* DMA Transfer Cnt Match (0=Disable) */
#define GPMI_DC2  0x4000 /* DMA Chann. Assignment, bit2 (pp:4-18) */
#define GPMI_DC1  0x2000 /* DMA Chann. Assignment, bit1 (pp:4-18) */
#define GPMI_DC0  0x1000 /* DMA Chann. Assignment, bit0 (pp:4-18) */

```

```

#define GPDI_DT1 0x0800 /* DMA Trans. Mode, bit:1 (pp: 4-18) */
#define GPDI_DT0 0x0400 /* DMA Trans. Mode, bit:0 (pp: 4-18) */
#define GPDI_OVF 0x0200 /* Free Run.Cntr (FCR) Ov.Flow (0=Disable)*/
#define GPDI_TC1 0x0100 /* Timer 1 Compare Match (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_TC0 0x0080 /* Timer 0 Compare Match (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_RXD 0x0040 /* MIDI Data Read Request (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_TXD 0x0020 /* MIDI Tx_fifo Buf Empty (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_ADD 0x0010 /* A/D Data Ready (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_DN1 0x0008 /* D/A Ch1 Note ON Ready (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_DN0 0x0004 /* D/A Ch0 Note ON Ready (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_DQ1 0x0002 /* D/A Ch1 Data Request (0=Disable) */
#define GPDI_DQ0 0x0001 /* D/A Ch0 Data Request (0=Disable) */
/*=====
 *          gpis (GPCC Interrupt Status .. pp: 4-16)          *
 *=====*/
#define GPIS_ITC 0x8000 /* DMA Transfer Count Match */
#define GPIS_JSD 0x0400 /* Joystick Data Ready */
#define GPIS_OVF 0x0200 /* Free Running Countr Overflow */
#define GPIS_TC1 0x0100 /* Timer1 Compare Match */
#define GPIS_TC0 0x0080 /* Timer0 Compare Match */
#define GPIS_RXD 0x0040 /* MIDI Data Read Request */
#define GPIS_TXD 0x0020 /* MIDI Tx_fifo Buf. Empty */
#define GPIS_ADD 0x0010 /* A/D Data Ready */
#define GPIS_DN1 0x0008 /* D/A Ch1 Note ON Ready */
#define GPIS_DN0 0x0004 /* D/A Ch0 Note ON Ready */
#define GPIS_DQ1 0x0002 /* D/A Ch1 Data Request */
#define GPIS_DQ0 0x0001 /* D/A Ch0 Data Request */
/*=====
 *          dacm (Digital To Analogue Cmd and DMA Transfer Config)          *
 *=====*/
#define DACM_SCC 0x80 /* DMA Size Cmp. Cnt (0=in Sample, 1=in Bytes)*/
#define DACM_TS2 0x40 /* DMA Trnsfr Size, bit 2 (pp: 4-14) */
#define DACM_TS1 0x20 /* DMA Trnsfr Size, bit 1 (pp: 4-14) */
#define DACM_TS0 0x10 /* DMA Trnsfr Size, bit 0 (pp: 4-14) */
#define DACM_DL1 0x08 /* Ch1 DA Data Len (0=8 bit, 1=17 bit) */
#define DACM_DL0 0x04 /* Ch0 DA Data Len (0=8 bit, 1=17 bit) */
#define DACM_DS1 0x02 /* Ch1 DA Convrson (0=Stop, 1=Start) */
#define DACM_DS0 0x01 /* Ch0 DA Convrson (0=Stop, 1=Start) */
/*=====
 *          adcm ( GPCC AD Command )          *
 *=====*/
#define ADCM_MON 0x40 /* Monitor MIC (0=Monitor Off) */
#define ADCM_GIN 0x20 /* Gain Input (0=Line, 1=Mic) */
#define ADCM_AF1 0x10 /* Analog Freq Selection bit 1 (pp: 4-13) */
#define ADCM_AF0 0x08 /* Analog Freq Selection bit 0 (pp: 4-13) */

```



```

#define ADCM_ADL    0x04 /* Analog Data Length (0=8, 1=16) */
#define ADCM_ADM    0x02 /* Analog Data Conv. Mode (0=Mono,1=Stereo) */
#define ADCM_ADS    0x01 /* Analog Data Conv. Start(0=Stop,1=Start) */
/*=====
*          dtci ( DMA Trans.Count Buf Intr. Stat      *
*=====*/
#define DTCI_BF1    0x08 /* DMA DRQ1 buff full (1 = full) */
#define DTCI_BH1    0x04 /* DMA DRQ1 buff half (1 = full) */
#define DTCI_BF0    0x02 /* DMA DRQ0 buff full (1 = full) */
#define DTCI_BH0    0x01 /* DMA DRQ0 buff half (1 = full) */
/*=====
*          gpcm ( GPCC Command )      *
*=====*/
#define GPCM_RST    0x80 /* Reset bit */
#define GPCM_PWM2   0x10 /* Select PWM channel 2 */
#define GPCM_PWM1   0x08 /* Select PWM channel 1 */
#define GPCM_PWM0   0x04 /* Select PWM channel 0 */
#define GPCM_FRCM   0x02 /* Free Run. Counter (1=Start) */
#define GPCM_MTT    0x01 /* MIDI Timed Trans */
/*          ( 1 = Timer INT enabled ) */
/*=====
*          timm (Timer MSB data)      *
*=====*/
#define TIMM_FRC    0x04 /* Free Running Counter Bit 16 */
#define TIMM_CR1    0x02 /* Compare Reg 1 Bit 16 */
#define TIMM_CR0    0x01 /* Compare Reg 0 Bit 16 */
/*=====
*          mdcM (MIDI Command)        *
*=====*/
#define MDCM_UART   0x3f /* UART mode */
#define MDCM_MPU    0xff /* MPU Reset */
#define MDCM_VERSION 0xac /* Version */
#define MDCM_REVISION 0xad /* Revision */
/*=====
*          mdst (MIDI Status)         *
*=====*/
#define MDST_DSR    0x80 /* DSR = 0 if ready */
#define MDST_DDR    0x40 /* DDR = 0 if ready */
/*=====
*          RAP Card Info              *
*=====
*
* These are the information regarding the RAP Card.
* The info being tracked are:
*

```

```
* ci_state:    Our state (Installed, Opened, Playing, Recording)
* ci_pid:     PID of process opened us.
* ci_addr[]:  EISA Addresses
* ci_irq:     EISA Interrupt number we use
* ci_ctl:     Controller number we save from edt struct
* ci_adap:    Adaptor number we save from edt struct.
* ci_dmaCh6:  DMA Channel 6
* ci_dmaCh5:  DMA Channel 5
* ci_dmaBuf6: EISA DMA Buffer struct for Channel 6
* ci_dmaBuf5: EISA DMA Buffer struct for Channel 5
* ci_dmaCb6:  EISA DMA Control Block for Channel 6
* ci_dmaCb5:  EISA DMA Control Block for Channel 5
* di_state:   DMA buffers state (Idle, Progress)
* di_idx:     Current rwQue[] entry being used.
* di_ptr:     Address in rwQue buffer
* di_which:   Which half of DMA buffer (0=1st half, 1=2nd Half)
* di_bh:     Total DMA Buffer Half (BH) Interrupt received.
* di_bf:     Total DMA Buffer Full (BF) Interrupt received.
* ri_state:   State of Circular buffer (Wanted_Empty, etc.)
* ri_free:   Total Free entries in rwQue[]
* ri_full:   Total Full entries in rwQue[]
* ri_idx:    Current rwBuf for Read/Write
* ri_tout;   =1 if Timed out on read/write
* ri_note;   number of Note_On received
* ri_ptr:    Pointer in current rwBuf
*/
typedef struct eisa_dma_buf  dmaBuf_t;
typedef struct eisa_dma_cb   dmaCb_t;
typedef struct cardInfo_s {
    /* Card Installation Info */
    ushort_t  ci_state;
    pid_t     ci_pid;
    caddr_t   ci_addr[NBASE];
    int       ci_irq;
    int       ci_ctl;
    int       ci_adap;
    int       ci_dmaCh6;
    int       ci_dmaCh5;
    dmaBuf_t  *ci_dmaBuf6;
    dmaBuf_t  *ci_dmaBuf5;
    dmaCb_t   *ci_dmaCb6;
    dmaCb_t   *ci_dmaCb5;
    /* DMA Buffer Information data */
    uchar_t   di_state;
    short     di_idx;
};
```

```
    uchar_t    di_which;
    caddr_t    di_ptr;
    uchar_t    di_bh;
    uchar_t    di_bf;
    /*    Circular buffer Information data */
    uchar_t    ri_state;
    short      ri_free;
    short      ri_full;
    short      ri_idx;
    uchar_t    ri_tout;
    uchar_t    ri_note;
    caddr_t    ri_ptr;
} cardInfo_t;
/*    ci_state values    */
#define CARD_INSTALLED    0x0001
#define CARD_STEREO      0x0002
#define CARD_OPENED      0x0004
#define CARD_PLAYING     0x0010
#define CARD_RECORDING   0x0020
/*    di_state values    */
#define DI_DMA_IDLE      0x00
#define DI_DMA_PLAYING   0x01
#define DI_DMA_RECORDING 0x02
#define DI_DMA_END_PLAY  0x04
#define DI_DMA_END_RECORD 0x08
/*    ri_state values    */
#define RI_WANTED_EMPTY  0x01
/*=====
 *      Read/Write Circular Buffers      *
 *=====
 * This is the description of our circular buffers used
 * to store D/A and A/D values. D/A values are stored from
 * user's buffer and then moved to DMA buffers. A/D data is
 * moved from DMA buffers to these buffers and then moved
 * to user's buffer. The fields are as follow:
 *   rw_state:    buffer state (Empty, Busy, Full)
 *   rw_idx:      Index of this buffer in rwQue[];
 *   rw_count:    Total bytes in the buffer
 *   rw_buf[]:    The buffer itself.
 *   RW_MIN_FULL: We will start a D/A DMA when we have this many
 *                 full buffer on hand. This is done so that we can
 *                 provide enough full buffers for DMA to process.
 */
#define RW_BUF_SIZE      8192
#define RW_BUF_COUNT     20
```

```
#define RW_MIN_FULL 1
#define RW_TIMEOUT 1600
typedef struct rwBuf_s {
    uchar_t    rw_state;
    short      rw_idx;
    int        rw_count;
    uchar_t    rw_buf[RW_BUF_SIZE];
} rwBuf_t;
/* rw_state values */
#define RW_EMPTY    0x00 /* used as parameter only */
#define RW_FULL     0x01
#define RW_WANTED_FULL 0x02
#define RW_WANTED_EMPTY 0x04
/*=====*
 *          Global values          *
 *=====*/
#define DMA_BUF_SIZE      8192
#define DMA_HALF_SIZE    4096
int rapdevflag = 0;
static cardInfo_t    cardInfo;
static caddr_t      dmaRight;
static caddr_t      dmaLeft;
static paddr_t      dmaRightPhys;
static paddr_t      dmaLeftPhys;
static rwBuf_t      rwQue[RW_BUF_COUNT];
static caddr_t      eisa_addr;
/*
 * Eisa Dma Channel semaphores..shoule be removed when
 * proper way of releasing channels found
 */
extern struct eisa_ch_state {
    sema_t chan_sem;          /* inuse semaphore for each channel */
    sema_t dma_sem;          /* dma completion semaphore */
    struct eisa_dma_buf *cur_buf; /* current eisa_dma_buf being dma'ed */
    struct eisa_dma_cb *cur_cb; /* ptr to current command block */
    int count;
} e_ch[];
/*=====*
 *          Driver Entry routines Data          *
 *=====*/
int rapopen ( dev_t *, int, int, cred_t * );
int rapread ( dev_t, uio_t *, cred_t * );
int rapwrite ( dev_t, uio_t *, cred_t * );
int rapclose ( dev_t, int, int, cred_t * );
void rapedtinit ( struct edt * );
```

```

void rapintr ( int );
int rapiocctl (dev_t, int, void *, int, cred_t *, int *);
/*=====*
 * Misc and Internal routines *
 *=====*/
static void rapDisInt (cardInfo_t *);
static int rapGetDma( dmaBuf_t **, dmaCb_t **, int );
static int rapClose(uchar_t);
static short rapGetNextEmpty (short, uchar_t);
static short rapGetNextFull (short, uchar_t);
static void rapPrepEisa( dmaBuf_t *, dmaCb_t *, uchar_t, paddr_t);
static int rapStart(uchar_t);
static void rapStop(uchar_t);
static void rapStartDA();
static void rapStartAD();
static void rapBufToDma( int );
static void rapDmaToBuf( int );
static void rapMarkBuf(rwBuf_t *, cardInfo_t *, uchar_t);
static int rapKernMem(uchar_t);
static void rapSetAutoInit(cardInfo_t *, uchar_t);
static void rapTimeOut( void *);
static void rapNoteOn(cardInfo_t *, ushort_t );
static void rapNoteOff(cardInfo_t *);
static void rapZeroDma(cardInfo_t *, int);
static void rapReleaseDma (cardInfo_t *);
/*****
 * r a p e d t i n i t
 *****/
 * Name: rapedtint
 * Purpose: Initializes the driver. Called once for each controller.
 * Called only once.
 * Returns: None.
 *****/
void
rapedtinit ( struct edt *e )
{
    int ctl, iospace, dmac, eirq;
    cardInfo_t *ci;
    piomap_t *pmap;
    iospace_t eisa_io;

    ci = &cardInfo;
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: Installing RAP board.");
    bzero ((void *)ci, sizeof(cardInfo_t) );
    dmaRight = dmaLeft = (caddr_t)NULL;

```

```
ci->ci_ctl = e->e_ctlr;
ci->ci_adap = e->e_adap;
/*
 *   Get the base address of Eisa bus (for rapSetAutoInit)
 */
bzero (&eisa_io, sizeof(iospace_t));
eisa_io.ios_iopaddr = 0;
eisa_io.ios_size    = 1000;
pmap = pio_mapalloc (e->e_bus_type, 0, &eisa_io, PIOMAP_FIXED, "eisa");
if ( pmap == (piomap_t *)NULL ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN, "rapedtinit: Cannot get Eisa bus address");
    return;
}
eisa_addr = pio_mapaddr (pmap, eisa_io.ios_iopaddr);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: Eisa base address = %x", eisa_addr);
#endif
/*=====
 *   map EISA IO/Memory addresses for RAP-10 card   *
 *=====*/
for ( iospace = 0; iospace < NBASE; iospace++ ) {
    /* any address to map ? */
    if ( !e->e_space[iospace].ios_iopaddr )
        continue;
    pmap = pio_mapalloc ( e->e_bus_type, e->e_adap,
        &e->e_space[iospace],
        PIOMAP_FIXED, "rap10" );
    ci->ci_addr[iospace] = pio_mapaddr ( pmap,
        e->e_space[iospace].ios_iopaddr );
}
/* is Card still there ? */
if ( badaddr(ci->ci_addr[0], 1) ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN, "rapedtinit: RAP board not installed.");
    return;
}
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: First Load..allocating IRQ");
#endif
eirq = eisa_ivec_alloc( e->e_adap, IRQ_MASK, EISA_EDGE_IRQ );
if ( eirq < 0 ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN,
        "rapedtinit: Could not allocate IRQ for RAP card.");
    return;
}
/*   set Interrupt handler   */
```

```

#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: Setting Interrupt Handler for IRQ %d",
        eirq);
#endif
if ( eisa_ivec_set(e->e_adap, eirq, rapintr, e->e_ctlr) == -1 ) {
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapedtinit: Could not set Interrupt handler for Irq %d", eirq);
    ci->ci_state = 0;
    return;
}
ci->ci_irq = eirq;
/*=====
 *   DMA Channels Allocation           *
 *=====*/
/*   DMA channel 5 */
dmac = eisa_dmachan_alloc ( e->e_adap, DMAC_CH5 );
if ( dmac < 0 ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN,
        "rapedtinit: Could not allocate DMA Channel 5.");
    return;
}
ci->ci_dmaCh5 = dmac;
/*   DMA channel 6 */
dmac = eisa_dmachan_alloc ( e->e_adap, DMAC_CH6 );
if ( dmac < 0 ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN,
        "rapedtinit: Could not allocate DMA Chann 6.");
    cmn_err (CE_WARN,
        "rapedtinit: RAP is initialized as Mono.");
}
else {
    ci->ci_dmaCh6 = dmac;
    ci->ci_state |= CARD_STEREO;
}
/*=====
 *   DMA Buffer allocation           *
 *=====*/
if ( rapKernMem (1) ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN, "rapedtinit: Did not install RAP-10.");
    return;
}
ci->ci_state |= CARD_INSTALLED;
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: RAP installed, Addr: %x, Irq: %d.",
        ci->ci_addr[0], ci->ci_irq );

```

```
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapedtinit: Init as %s, Dma 1 = %d, Dma 0 = %d",
            (ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO ? "Stereo":"Mono"),
            ci->ci_dmaCh5, ci->ci_dmaCh6);
#endif
    return;
} /** End rapedtinit */
/*****
 *   r a p o p e n
 *****/
*   Name:      rapopen
*   Purpose:   Opens the RAP board and initializes necessary data
*   Returns:   0 = Success, or appropriate error number.
 *****/
int
rapopen ( dev_t  *dev, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t  *cred)
{
    register int    i;
    cardInfo_t     *ci;
    rwBuf_t        *rw;
    dmaBuf_t       *dmaB;
    dmaCb_t        *dmaC;
    ci = &cardInfo;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapopen: Opening, Addr = %x, ci_state = %x",
            ci->ci_addr[0], ci->ci_state );
#endif
    /*
     * No card is installed or card is already opened
     */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_INSTALLED) )
        return (ENODEV);
    if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_OPENED )
        return (EBUSY);
    /* Allocate DMA Buf and Cb for Channel 5 */
    if ( ci->ci_dmaBuf5 == (dmaBuf_t *)NULL ) {
        if ( rapGetDma(&dmaB, &dmaC, ci->ci_dmaCh5) ) {
            cmn_err (CE_WARN, "rapopen: Could not allocate DMA Buf 5.");
            return (ENOMEM);
        }
        ci->ci_dmaBuf5 = dmaB;
        ci->ci_dmaCb5  = dmaC;
    }
    /* if in stereo, do the same for Channel 6 */
    if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO ) {
        if ( rapGetDma(&dmaB, &dmaC, ci->ci_dmaCh6) ) {
```



```

        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                "rapopen: Could not allocate DMA Buf 6.");
        return (ENOMEM);
    }
    ci->ci_dmaBuf6 = dmaB;
    ci->ci_dmaCb6  = dmaC;
}
/* Initialize Card Info structure */
ci->ri_idx   = 0;
ci->di_idx   = 0;
ci->ri_state = 0;
ci->di_state = 0;
ci->di_ptr   = 0;
ci->ri_ptr   = 0;
ci->ri_free  = RW_BUF_COUNT;
ci->ri_full  = 0;
ci->ci_state &= ~(CARD_PLAYING | CARD_RECORDING );
ci->ci_state |= CARD_OPENED;
ci->ci_pid   = User_pid;
/* Initialize Circular Buffers */
for ( i = 0; i < RW_BUF_COUNT; i++ ) {
    rw = &rwQue[i];
    rw->rw_count = 0;
    rw->rw_state = 0;
    rw->rw_idx   = i;
    bzero (rw->rw_buf, RW_BUF_SIZE);
}
rapDisInt(ci);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapopen: Opened succesfully");
#endif
return(0);
} /**** End rapopen ****/
/*****
 *       r a p w r i t e
 *****/
* Name:      rapwrite
* Purpose:   Write entry routine. This routine will transfer user's
*           data to current or an empty entry in rwQue[] and starts
*           DMA if none is going.
* Returns:   0 = Success, or errno
 *****/
int
rapwrite (dev_t dev, uio_t *uio, cred_t *cred)
{

```

```
cardInfo_t    *ci;
rwBuf_t      *rw;
toid_t       to_id;
int          avail, size, totBytes, err, s;
ci = &cardInfo;
/*=====
 * Error Checking      *
 *=====*/
/* no card is installed */
if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_INSTALLED) )
    return (ENODEV);
/* card is not opened */
if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_OPENED) )
    return (EACCES);
/* we are not the owner */
if ( ci->ci_pid != User_pid )
    return (EACCES);
/* is busy recording */
if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_RECORDING )
    return (EACCES);
ci->ci_state |= CARD_PLAYING;
rw = &rwQue[ci->ri_idx];
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
         "rapwrite: %d bytes, buf = %d, rw_count = %d, free = %d, full = %d",
         uio->uio_resid, ci->ri_idx, rw->rw_count, ci->ri_free, ci->ri_full);
#endif
/* if it is full, wait till it is Empty */
s = LOCK();
if ( rw->rw_state & RW_FULL ) {
    ci->ri_ptr = NULL;
    ci->ri_tout = 0;
    to_id = itimeout (rapTimeout, rw, RW_TIMEOUT, plbase, 0, 0, 0);
    while ( (rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && !ci->ri_tout ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapwrite: waiting for buf %d to be Empty",
                 rw->rw_idx );
        #endif
        rw->rw_state |= RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
        if ( sleep (rw, PUSER | PCATCH) ) {
            untimedout(to_id);
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapwrite: Interrupted");
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
```

```

        UNLOCK(s);
        return (EINTR);
    }
} /* while */
untimeout(to_id);
/* we timed out ..couldn't get the buffer */
if ( ci->ri_tout ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapwrite: Timed out");
    #endif
    rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
    UNLOCK(s);
    return (EIO);
}
} /* if (rw->rw_state & RW_FULL */
UNLOCK(s);
/* adjust the read/write address if necessary */
if ( ci->ri_ptr == NULL )
    ci->ri_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
totBytes = uio->uio_resid;
while ( totBytes > 0 ) {
    avail = RW_BUF_SIZE - rw->rw_count;
    /* if this buffer is full, get next buffer */
    if ( avail <= 0 ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapwrite: Buffer %d is Full now, rw_count = %d",
                rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_count);
        #endif
        s = LOCK();
        rapMarkBuf(rw, ci, RW_FULL);
        /* wake anyone wanted this buffer full */
        if ( rw->rw_state & RW_WANTED_FULL ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapwrite: Buffer %d is Wanted_Full",
                    rw->rw_idx );
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
            wakeup(rw);
        }
    }
    /*
     * start DMA if none is going and we filled the
     * entire buffers.
     */
    if ( (ci->di_state == DI_DMA_IDLE) &&

```

```

        (rw->rw_idx >= RW_MIN_FULL ) ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,"rapwrite: Starting Play Dma");
#endif
    err = rapStart (DI_DMA_PLAYING);
    if ( err ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
            "rapwrite: Could not start playing error %d",err );
        UNLOCK(s);
        return(err);
    }
}
/*    get next empty buffer    */
ci->ri_idx = rapGetNextEmpty(ci->ri_idx, FROM_USR);
rw = &rwQue[ci->ri_idx];
ci->ri_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
UNLOCK(s);
continue;
}
/* start filling this buffer    */
size = (totBytes > avail ? avail: totBytes);
err = uiomove (ci->ri_ptr, size, UIO_WRITE, uio);
if ( err ) {
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapwrite: uiomov error %d", err);
    return(err);
}
rw->rw_count += size;
ci->ri_ptr    += size;
totBytes = uio->uio_resid;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapwrite: Wrote %d to Buffer %d, Left = %d, rw_count = %d",
        size, rw->rw_idx, totBytes, rw->rw_count );
#endif
}
return (0);
} /*** end rapwrite ***/
/*****
*      r a p r e a d
*****
*
* Name:      rapread
*
* Purpose:   Reads data from rwQue[] into user's buffer.
*           This routine waits for current DMA operation to end

```

```

*         and then starts a A/D Dma (recording). If A/D is already
*         going then it simply moves data from current Full buffer
*         into user's buffer. If buffer is not full, it waits for
*         it to get full.
*
* Returns:   0 = Success, or errno.
*
*****/
int
rapread (dev_t dev, uio_t *uio, cred_t *cred)
{
    cardInfo_t    *ci;
    rwBuf_t       *rw;
    toid_t        to_id;
    int           avail, size, totBytes, err, s;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    /*=====
    *         Error Checking           *
    *=====*/
    /* card is not installed */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_INSTALLED) )
        return (ENODEV);
    /* card is not opened */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_OPENED) )
        return (EACCES);
    /* we do not own the card */
    if ( ci->ci_pid != User_pid )
        return (EACCES);
    /* card is in middle of a Play operation */
    if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_PLAYING )
        return (EIO);
    ci->ci_state |= CARD_RECORDING;
    /* start a A/D Dma if none is going on */
    if ( ci->di_state == DI_DMA_IDLE ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapread: Idle DMA. Starting one");
        #endif
        if ( rapStart(DI_DMA_RECORDING) ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapread: Could not start A/D");
            #endif
            ci->ci_state &= ~CARD_RECORDING;
            UNLOCK(s);
            return (EIO);
        }
    }
}

```

```
    }
    /*
    * get the buffer we should be using and
    * wait for it to become Full
    */
    rw = &rwQue[ci->ri_idx];
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapread: %d bytes, buf = %d, rw_count = %d, free = %d, full = %d",
        uio->uio_resid, ci->ri_idx, rw->rw_count, ci->ri_free, ci->ri_full);
#endif
    s = LOCK();
    if ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) ) {
        ci->ri_ptr = NULL;
        ci->ri_tout = 0;
        to_id = itimeout (rapTimeOut, rw, RW_TIMEOUT, plbase, 0, 0, 0);
        while ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && !ci->ri_tout ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapread: wating for buf %d to become Full",
                rw->rw_idx );
            #endif
            rw->rw_state |= RW_WANTED_FULL;
            if ( sleep (rw, PUSER | PCATCH) ) {
                untimeout (to_id);
                #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapread: Interrupted");
                #endif
                rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
                UNLOCK(s);
                return(EINTR);
            }
        } /* while */
        untimeout (to_id);
        if ( ci->ri_tout ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapread: Timed out");
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
            UNLOCK(s);
            return (EIO);
        }
    } /* if !rw->rw_state & RW_FULL */
    UNLOCK(s);
    /* adjust read/write pointer if necessary */
    if ( ci->ri_ptr == NULL )
```

```

    ci->ri_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
/*=====*/
*   Actual Read (Data movement)   *
*=====*/
totBytes = uio->uio_resid;
while ( totBytes > 0 ) {
    avail = rw->rw_count;
    /* if this buffer is Empty, get next Full buffer */
    if ( avail <= 0 ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapread: Buffer %d is Empty now, rw_count = %d",
                    rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_count );
        #endif
        s = LOCK();
        rapMarkBuf(rw, ci, RW_EMPTY);
        /* wake anyone wanted this buffer Empty */
        if ( rw->rw_state & RW_WANTED_EMPTY ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE,"rapread: Buffer %d is Wanted_Empty",
                    rw->rw_idx );
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
            wakeup(rw);
        }
        /* get next Full buffer */
        ci->ri_idx = rapGetNextFull(ci->ri_idx, FROM_USR);
        rw = &rwQue[ci->ri_idx];
        ci->ri_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
        UNLOCK(s);
        continue;
    }
    /* start filling this buffer */
    size = (totBytes > avail ? avail : totBytes);
    err = uiomove (ci->ri_ptr, size, UIO_READ, uio);
    if ( err ) {
        cmn_err (CE_PANIC, "rapread: uiomov error %d", err);
        return(err);
    }
    rw->rw_count -= size;
    ci->ri_ptr += size;
    totBytes = uio->uio_resid;
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapread: Read %d, Buffer %d, Left = %d, rw_count = %d",

```

```

        size, rw->rw_idx, totBytes, rw->rw_count );
    #endif
}
return (0);
} /** End rapread */
/*****
 *      r a p c l o s e
 *****/
* Name:      rapclose
* Purpose:   closes connection to the card and makes it available
*           for next process to open it.
* Returns:   0 = Success, or errno
 *****/
int
rapclose (dev_t dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *cred)
{
    cardInfo_t      *ci;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
    "rapclose: ci_state = %x, di_state = %x, full = %d, empty = %d",
    ci->ci_state, ci->di_state, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
    #endif
    /*=====
     * Error Checking      *
     *=====*/
    /* card is not installed */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_INSTALLED) )
        return (ENODEV);
    /* card is not opened */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_OPENED) )
        return (EACCES);
    /* we do not own the card */
    if ( ci->ci_pid != User_pid )
        return (EACCES);
    return ( rapClose(1) );
}
/*****
 *      r a p i n t r
 *****/
* Name:      rapintr
* Purpose:   Interrupt handling routine
* Returns:   None.
 *****/
void
```



```

rapintr ( int ctl )
{
    ushort_t      gpis;
    uchar_t      dtci;
    uchar_t      stereo;
    uchar_t      totreq;
    uchar_t      playing;
    uchar_t      moveData;
    cardInfo_t   *ci;
    caddr_t      addr;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    /*
     * moveData:  0 = we should move data between Buf/DMA to DMA/Buf.
     * totreq:    In stereo, we have to wait for 2 BF or BH interrupt
     *           but in Mono we have to wait for only one.
     * playing:   1 = Playing, 0= Recording.
     */
    moveData = 0;
    totreq = (ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO? 2:1); /* No. of Ints. we need */
    playing = ci->ci_state & CARD_PLAYING;
    gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
    /*
     * First, check for stray interrupts and ignore them
     */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & (CARD_PLAYING | CARD_RECORDING)) ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapintr: Stray interupt, gpis = %x, ci_state = %x",
                ci->ci_state );
        #endif
        return;
    }
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapintr: New ..Gpis = %x", gpis );
    #endif
    /*****
     *      DMA Buffers Half/Full      *
     *****/
    while ( gpis & GPIS_ITC ) {
        /* see which buffer is half/full */
        dtci = INPB(addr+DTCI);
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapintr: Dma buffer status..Gpis = %x, Dtci = %x", gpis, dtci);
        #endif
    }
}

```

```
#endif
if ( dtci & DTCI_BF0 )
    ci->di_bf++;
if ( dtci & DTCI_BF1 )
    ci->di_bf++;
if ( dtci & DTCI_BH0 )
    ci->di_bh++;
if ( dtci & DTCI_BH1 )
    ci->di_bh++;
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapintr: di_bf = %d, di_bh = %d",
    ci->di_bf, ci->di_bh );
#endif
/* 1st half of dma needs service */
if ( ci->di_bh == totdreq ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapintr: DMA First_Half needs service");
    #endif
    ci->di_bh = 0;
    ci->di_which = 0; /* 1st half of DMA buffer */
    moveData = 1;
}
/* 2nd half of dma needs service */
else if ( ci->di_bf == totdreq ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapintr: DMA Second_Half needs service");
    #endif
    ci->di_bf = 0;
    ci->di_which = 1; /* 2nd half of DMA buffer */
    moveData = 1;
}
/*
 * Move data if needed
 */
if ( moveData ) {
    /* move data for Play if only data available */
    if ( playing ) {
        /* No more data..end of play */
        if ( ci->ri_full <= 0 ) {
            if ( ci->di_state & DI_DMA_END_PLAY ) {
                #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapintr: End of Play Reached");
                #endif
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```

        if ( ci->ri_state & RI_WANTED_EMPTY ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapintr: Cir.Buff is Wanted Empty");
            #endif
            ci->ri_state &= ~RI_WANTED_EMPTY;
            wakeup (ci);
        }
        else rapStop(DI_DMA_PLAYING);
            return;
    } else {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapintr: Playing but no Full buffers");
        #endif
        return;
    }
}
/* Data is available to play */
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
    "rapintr: Playing..which = %d, idx = %d, full = %d, Empty = %d",
    ci->di_which, ci->di_idx, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free);
#endif
rapBufToDma(DMA_HALF_SIZE);
} /* if playing */
else { /* recording */
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapintr: Recording..which = %d, full = %d, Empty = %d",
        ci->di_which, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free);
    #endif
    rapDmaToBuf(DMA_HALF_SIZE);
}
} /* if move data */
else { /* no need to move data */
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapintr: Waiting for next interrupt, bf = %d, bh = %d",
        ci->di_bf, ci->di_bh);
    #endif
}
}
gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapintr: next Gpis = %x", gpis);

```

```
        #endif
    } /* while ( gpis & .. */
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapintr: finished ...");
    #endif
} /** End rapintr   */
/*****
 *      r a p i o c t l
 *****/
* Name:      rapiocctl
* Purpose:   handles IOCTL calls for RAP-10.
* Returns:   0 = Success, or errno
*****/
int
rapiocctl (dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg, int mode, cred_t *cred, int *ret)
{
    cardInfo_t      *ci;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapiocctl: Cmd = %d, full = %d, Empty = %d",
        cmd, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
    #endif
    /*
     * No card is installed or card is already opened
     */
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_INSTALLED) )
        return (ENODEV);
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_OPENED) )
        return (EACCES);
    if ( ci->ci_pid != User_pid )
        return (EACCES);
    *ret = 0;
    switch ( cmd ) {
        case RAPIOCTL_END_PLAY:
            /*=====
             * End PLAY
             *=====*/
            if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_PLAYING) ) {
                #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                    "rapiocctl: End_Play command in wrong state");
                #endif
                return (EACCES);
            }
        }
    return (rapClose (0) );
}
```

```

case RAPIOCTL_END_RECORD:
/*=====*/
*   End RECORD           *
*=====*/
    if ( !(ci->ci_state & CARD_RECORDING) ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapiocctl: End_Reocrd command in wrong state");
        #endif
        return (EACCES);
    }
    return (rapClose (0) );
} /* switch */
return (0);
} /** End rapiocctl **/
/*****
Internal Routines
*****/
/*****
r a p C l o s e
*****/
* Name:          rapClose
* Purpose:       Routine to actually ends current operation and releases
*               the card. It is written as a separate routine here so
*               it can be shared by rapclose() and rapiocctl() routines.
*               One frees up the card, one does not. Also if we are called
*               from iocctl, we will wait till all buffers are played (if
*               in Playback mode).
* Returns:       0 = Success, or errno
*****/
int
rapClose( uchar_t relCard )
{
    cardInfo_t  *ci;
    rwBuf_t     *rw;
    int         s, totLeft;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    s = LOCK();
    rw = &rwQue[ci->ri_idx];
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapClose: relCard = %d, ci_state = %x, di_state = %x",
            relCard, ci->ci_state, ci->di_state );
    #endif
    /*

```

```
* if we are not recording and are not playing
* then simply mark the card as not opened and return
*/
if ( !(ci->ci_state & (CARD_RECORDING | CARD_PLAYING)) ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapClose: Idle card ..closing");
    #endif
    if ( relCard ) {
        ci->ci_state &= ~CARD_OPENED;
        ci->ci_pid    = 0;
    }
    UNLOCK(s);
    return(0);
}
/*
* Recording ? end it.
*/
if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_RECORDING ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,"rapClose: Ending Record (A/D)");
    #endif
    rapStop(DI_DMA_RECORDING);
    if ( relCard ) {
        ci->ci_state &= ~CARD_OPENED;
        ci->ci_pid    = 0;
    }
    UNLOCK(s);
    return(0);
}
/*
* playback and called from close() routine ?
* End the playback
*/
if ( relCard ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
    "rapClose: Ending Playback (D/A)");
    #endif
    rapStop(DI_DMA_PLAYING);
    ci->ci_state &= ~CARD_OPENED;
    ci->ci_pid    = 0;
    UNLOCK(s);
    return(0);
}
/*
```

```

* Called from Ioctl.
* Closing in middle of play is different based on we
* have been called from close() routine or not.
* If called from Ioctl (relCard = 0), we will wait till
* all buffers are played back.
*/
if ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && (rw->rw_count > 0) ) {
    totLeft = RW_BUF_SIZE - rw->rw_count;
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapClose: Current Buf %d has %d data. Filled with %d zeros",
        rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_count, totLeft );
    #endif
    if ( totLeft > 0 ) {
        bzero (ci->ri_ptr, totLeft);
        ci->ri_ptr += totLeft;
    }
    rapMarkBuf(rw, ci, RW_FULL);
}
/* some buffers to play */
if ( ci->ri_full > 0 ) {
    /* Playback has not started yet */
    if ( ci->di_state == DI_DMA_IDLE ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapClose: Starting playback, full = %d, empty = %d",
            ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free);
        #endif
        rapStart (DI_DMA_PLAYING);
    }
    ci->di_state = DI_DMA_IDLE;
    ci->di_state |= DI_DMA_END_PLAY;
    /* wait till buffers are all played back */
    while ( ci->ri_full > 0 ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapClose: waiting for Play to end..full = %d, empty = %d, ri_idx = %d, di_id
x = %d",
            ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free, ci->ri_idx, ci->di_idx);
        #endif
        ci->ri_state |= RI_WANTED_EMPTY;
        if ( sleep (ci, PUSER | PCATCH) ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapClose: Interrupted");
            #endif

```

```

        rapStop(DI_DMA_PLAYING);
        ci->ci_state &= ~CARD_OPENED;
        ci->ci_pid = 0;
        UNLOCK(s);
        return (EINTR);
    }
}
rapStop(DI_DMA_PLAYING);
}
else {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapClose: Circular buffer empty..closing");
    #endif
    rapStop(DI_DMA_PLAYING);
}
UNLOCK(s);
return(0);
} /** End rapClose */
/*****
*
*           r a p S t o p
*****
* Name:      rapStop
* Purpose:   Stops D/A and A/D conversion.
* Returns:   None.
*****/
static void
rapStop( uchar_t what )
{
    cardInfo_t  *ci;
    rwBuf_t     *rw;
    caddr_t     addr;
    uchar_t     dacm, adcm;
    ushort_t    gpdi;
    int         s, i;
    s = LOCK();
    ci = &cardInfo;
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    gpdi = adcm = dacm = 0;
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapStop: Stopping %s, full = %d, Empty = %d",
        (what == DI_DMA_PLAYING ? "Playback(D/A)":"Record(A/D)"),
        ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free);
    #endif
    switch ( what ) {

```



```

/* stop D/A Conversion (Playing) */
case DI_DMA_PLAYING:
    ci->di_which = 0;
    rapZeroDma(ci, DMA_BUF_SIZE);
    OUTB(addr+DACM, dacm);
    rapNoteOff (ci);
    break;
/* stop A/D Conversion (recording) */
case DI_DMA_RECORDING:
    OUTB(addr+ADCM, adcm);
    OUTB(addr+DACM, dacm);
    break;
}
OUTW(addr+GPDI, gpdi);
rapReleaseDma(ci);
/* Initialize Card Info structure */
ci->ci_state &= ~(CARD_PLAYING | CARD_RECORDING);
ci->ri_idx = 0;
ci->di_idx = 0;
ci->ri_state = 0;
ci->di_state = 0;
ci->di_ptr = rwQue[0].rw_buf;
ci->ri_ptr = rwQue[0].rw_buf;
ci->ri_free = RW_BUF_COUNT;
ci->ri_full = 0;
/* Initialize Circular Buffers */
for ( i = 0; i < RW_BUF_COUNT; i++ ) {
    rw = &rwQue[i];
    rw->rw_count = 0;
    rw->rw_state = 0;
    rw->rw_idx = i;
    bzero (rw->rw_buf, RW_BUF_SIZE);
}

/* clear out any hanging GPIS and DACM */
gpdi = INPW(addr+GPIS);
UNLOCK(s);
} /** End rapStop **/
/*****
*
*           r a p S t a r t
*****
* Name:           rapStart
* Purpose:        Prepares Eisa DMA buffers/Control block for Playing/Recording
*                 This function is called when DMA is Idle.
* Returns:        0 = Success or Error number.

```

```

*****/
static int
rapStart (uchar_t what)
{
    cardInfo_t  *ci;
    dmaBuf_t    *dmaB;
    dmaCb_t     *dmaC;
    uchar_t     stereo;
    int         err;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    stereo = (ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO);
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
             "rapStart: Starting %s, full = %d, empty = %d",
             (what == DI_DMA_PLAYING ? "Playback(D/A)":"Record(A/D)"),
             ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
#endif
    /* clear Dma buffers */
    ci->di_which = 0;
    rapZeroDma(ci, DMA_BUF_SIZE);
    /* check for Dma buffer addresses */
    if ( (ci->ci_dmaBuf5 == (dmaBuf_t *)0) ||
         (ci->ci_dmaCb5 == (dmaCb_t *)0) ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                 "rapStart: Chan 5 dmaBuf/dmaCb is NULL, what = %d", what);
        return(EIO);
    }
    if ( (ci->ci_dmaBuf6 == (dmaBuf_t *)0) ||
         (ci->ci_dmaCb6 == (dmaCb_t *)0) ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                 "rapStart: Chan 6 dmaBuf/dmaCb is NULL, what = %d", what);
        return(EIO);
    }
    /*
     * Prepare Eisa Buf and Cb for Channel 5. If in
     * stereo mode, do the same for Channel 6.
     */
    dmaB = ci->ci_dmaBuf5;
    dmaC = ci->ci_dmaCb5;
    rapPrepEisa (dmaB, dmaC, what, dmaLeftPhys );
    if ( stereo ) {
        dmaB = ci->ci_dmaBuf6;
        dmaC = ci->ci_dmaCb6;
        rapPrepEisa (dmaB, dmaC, what, dmaRightPhys );
    }
}

```

```
/*
 *   Program Eisa DMA Channels
 */
err = eisa_dma_prog (ci->ci_adap, ci->ci_dmaCb5, ci->ci_dmaCh5,
                    EISA_DMA_NOSLEEP);
if ( err == 0 ) {
    cmn_err (CE_WARN, "rapStart: DMA Channel %d is busy",
            ci->ci_dmaCh5 );
    return (EBUSY);
}
if ( stereo ) {
    err = eisa_dma_prog (ci->ci_adap, ci->ci_dmaCb6, ci->ci_dmaCh6,
                        EISA_DMA_NOSLEEP);
    if ( err == 0 ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                "rapStart: DMA Channel %d is busy",
                ci->ci_dmaCh6 );
        return (EBUSY);
    }
}
/* enable hardware recognition on Eisa Dma Channels */
eisa_dma_enable (ci->ci_adap, ci->ci_dmaCb5, ci->ci_dmaCh5,
                EISA_DMA_NOSLEEP);
if ( stereo ) {
    eisa_dma_enable (ci->ci_adap, ci->ci_dmaCb6, ci->ci_dmaCh6,
                    EISA_DMA_NOSLEEP);
}
/* set Eisa DMA register for Autoinit mode */
rapSetAutoInit(ci, what);
ci->di_state |= what;
/* let's do it ! */
if ( what == DI_DMA_PLAYING ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapStart: Starting DMA for D/A Play");
    #endif
    rapStartDA();
}
else {
    #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapStart: Starting DMA for A/D Record");
    #endif
    rapStartAD();
}
return(0);
} /** End rapStart **/
```

```

/*****
 *           r a p P r e p E i s a
 *****/
 * Name:           rapPrepEisa
 * Purpose:        prepares EISA Buf and Cb structures.
 * Returns:        None.
 *****/
static void
rapPrepEisa( dmaBuf_t *dmaB, dmaCb_t *dmaC, uchar_t what, paddr_t addr)
{
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
             "rapPrepEisa: Preparing Eisa DMA buffers for %s",
             (what == DI_DMA_PLAYING ? "Playback(D/A)" : "Record(A/D)" ) );
    #endif
    /* prepare Eisa DMA Buf struct */
    bzero (dmaB, sizeof(dmaBuf_t) );
    dmaB->count = DMA_BUF_SIZE;
    dmaB->address = addr;
    /* prepare Eisa DMA Control Block */
    bzero (dmaC, sizeof(dmaCb_t) );
    dmaC->regrbufs = dmaB;
    dmaC->regr_path = EISA_DMA_PATH_16;
    dmaC->trans_type = EISA_DMA_TRANS_DMND;
    dmaC->targ_step = EISA_DMA_STEP_INC;
    dmaC->bufprocess = EISA_DMA_BUF_SNGL;
    if ( what == DI_DMA_PLAYING )
        dmaC->cb_cmd = EISA_DMA_CMD_READ; /* mem -> rap10 */
    else
        dmaC->cb_cmd = EISA_DMA_CMD_WRITE; /* rap10 -> mem */
} /*** End rapPrepEisa ***/
/*****
 *           r a p S t a r t D A
 *****/
 * Name:           rapStartDA
 * Purpose:        Enables appropriate RAP interrupts and starts D/A Dma.
 * Returns:        None
 *****/
static void
rapStartDA()
{
    cardInfo_t *ci;
    caddr_t addr;
    ushort_t gpdi, gpis, gpst, dtcd, mask;
    uchar_t gpcm, pwmd, adcm, dacm;

```

```
uchar_t    stereo;
int        s;
ci = &cardInfo;
addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapStartDA: Starting D/A Dma, full = %d, empty = %d",
        ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
#endif
/*
 * Prepare the board for Record (A/D)
 * Here is what we will do (in exact order):
 *
 * GPGDI: Stereo = 0xA800, Mono = 0x9800
 * itc = 1, dma transfer match count
 * Stereo: Drq1->Dma5, Drq0->Dma6
 * Mono:   Drq1->Dma5
 * Dt1, Dt0 = 10, Chan 1 ->Drq1, Chan 0 ->Drq0
 * Left Chan->Drq1, Right Chan->Drq0
 *
 * DACM: Stereo: BF, Mono: BE
 * scc = 1, Dma size in byte
 * ts1 = ts2 = 1, transfer size of 4096 bytes
 * dl1 = dl0 = 1; Data length of 16 bits for both Channels.
 * Stereo ? ds1 = ds0 = 1 Start D/A on both Channels.
 * Mono   ? ds1 = 1      Start D/A on Channel 1
 *
 * GPCM: Select Mike level = 0x04
 * Aux level = 0x08
 * PWMD: 0xFF (Max level)
 */
gpdi = (stereo ? 0xA800: 0x9800);
dacm = (stereo ? 0xBF:0xBE);
gpcm = 0x04;
pwmd = 0xFF;
mask = (stereo ? (GPIS_DN1|GPIS_DN0): GPIS_DN1);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapStartDA: gpdi = %x, dacm = %x", gpdi, dacm);
#endif
/* Set Rap-10 card */
OUTB(addr+GPCM, gpcm);
OUTB(addr+PWMD, pwmd);
OUTW(addr+GPDI, gpdi);
```

```

OUTB(addr+DACM, dacm);
/*
 * Busy-wait for both Note_On interrupts
 * The interrupt version is commenetd out for now.
 */
gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapStartDA: Waiting for Note_On, gpis = %x, mask = %x",
        gpis, mask);
#endif
while ( !(gpis & mask) ) {
    gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapStartDA: Waiting ..new gpis = %x", gpis);
#endif
}
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapStartDA: Note_On Interrupt Received, gpis = %x",
gpis );
#endif
rapNoteOn(ci, gpis);
} /**** End rapStartDA ****/
/*****
 *
 *           r a p S t a r t A D
 *****/
* Name:          rapStartAD
* Purpose:       Enables appropriate RAP interrupts and starts A/D Dma.
* Returns:       None
*****/
static void
rapStartAD()
{
    cardInfo_t  *ci;
    caddr_t     addr;
    ushort_t    gpdi;
    uchar_t     gpcm, pwmd, adcm, dacm;
    uchar_t     stereo, mic;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapStartAD: Starting A/D Dma in %s, full = %d, empty = %d",
        (stereo ? "Stereo":"Mono"), ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );

```

```

#endif
/*
 * Prepare the board for Record (A/D)
 * Here is what we will do (in exact order):
 *
 * GPCI: Stereo = 0xA400, Mono = 0x9400
 * itc = 1, dma transfer match count
 * Stereo: Drq1->Dma5, Drq0->Dma6
 * Mono: Drq1->Dma5
 * Dt1, Dt0 = 01, Left Chan->Drq1, Right Chan->Drq0
 *
 * DACM: 0xB0
 * scc = 1, Dma size in byte
 * ts1 = ts2 = 1, transfer size of 4096 bytes
 *
 * GPCM: Select Mic level = 0x04
 * Aux level = 0x08
 * PWMD: 0xFF (Max level)
 *
 * ADCM: Stereo: Mic 0x6F, line 0x4F,
 * Mono: Mic 0x6D, line 0x4D
 * Mon = 1, Monitor ON
 * Gin = 1, Head Amp Gain to Mic.
 * Af1, Af0 = 01, 22.05 KHz
 * Adl = 1, 16 bit data length
 * Stereo, Adm = 1, else = 0
 * Ads = 1, Start A/D
 */
gpdi = (stereo ? 0xA400: 0x9400);
gpcm = 0x08;
adcm = (stereo ? 0x6F:0x6D);
dacm = 0xB0;
gpcm = 0x04;
pwmd = 0xFF;
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapStartAD: Rap init as: gpdi = %x, dacm = %x, gpcm = %x, adcm = %x",
gpdi, dacm, gpcm, adcm);
#endif
OUTW(addr+GPDI, gpdi);
OUTB(addr+DACM, dacm);
OUTB(addr+GPCM, gpcm);
OUTB(addr+PWMD, pwmd);
OUTB(addr+ADCM, adcm);
} /*** End rapStartAD ***/

```

```

/*****
 *      r a p B u f T o D m a
 *****/
 * Name:      rapBufToDma
 * Purpose:   moves data from current rwQue[] entry to DMA buffers.
 *           This routine is called by INterrupt handler only except
 *           once before we startd D/A (when no DMA is programmed yet)
 * Returns:   None
 *****/
static void
rapBufToDma( int bytes)
{
    cardInfo_t    *ci;
    rwBuf_t       *rw;
    uchar_t       *dmaR;
    uchar_t       *dmaL;
    uchar_t       stereo;
    int           i, j, s;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    rw = &rwQue[ci->di_idx];
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
    /*
     *      filling 1st half or 2nd half of the buffers ?
     */
    if ( ci->di_which ) {
        dmaR = &dmaRight [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
        dmaL = &dmaLeft  [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
        if ( bytes == DMA_BUF_SIZE ) {
            bytes = DMA_HALF_SIZE;
        }
    }
    /* filling 1st half of dma buffers */
    else {
        dmaR = &dmaRight[0];
        dmaL = &dmaLeft[0];
    }
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapBufToDma: Bytes = %d, which = %d, Idx = %d, rw_count = %d, Full = %d, Empty = %d",
bytes, ci->di_which, ci->di_idx, rw->rw_count, ci->ri_full,
ci->ri_free);
#endif
    /*
     *   if buffer is not Full, we zero out dma buffers and
     *   return. We cannot wait till it gets Full.
    */
}

```



```
*/
if ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) ) {
    rapZeroDma(ci, bytes);
    ci->di_ptr = NULL;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapBufToDma: Buf %d is not Full, rw_state = %x",
        rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_state );
#endif
    return;
}
/* buffer is full of data ..readjust the buffer pointer */
if ( ci->di_ptr == NULL )
    ci->di_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
/*
 * Fill buffers ...
 */
for ( i = 0; i < bytes; i++ ) {
    /*
     * First check if buffer is empty. If it is, mark it
     * as empty, wake anyone up who wants it and get the
     * next full buffer.
     */
    if ( rw->rw_count <= 0 ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapBufToDma: Buf %d is Empty now, rw_count = %d",
            rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_count );
#endif
        rapMarkBuf(rw, ci, RW_EMPTY);
        ci->di_ptr = NULL;
        if ( rw->rw_state & RW_WANTED_EMPTY ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapBufToDma: Buf %d is Wanted_Empty",
                rw->rw_idx );
#endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
            wakeup(rw);
        }
    }
    j = rapGetNextFull (ci->di_idx, FROM_INTR);
    if ( j == -1 ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapBufToDma: Could not get next Full buffer");
#endif
    }
}
```

```

        #endif
        break;
    }
    ci->di_idx = j;
    rw = &rwQue[ci->di_idx];
    ci->di_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
    continue;
}
/* buffer still has some data ..move them */
if ( stereo ) {
    dmaL[i] = *(ci->di_ptr++);
    dmaR[i] = *(ci->di_ptr++);
    rw->rw_count -= 2;
}
else {
    dmaL[i] = *(ci->di_ptr++);
    rw->rw_count--;
}
} /* for .. */
/* Flush the cache line so that Dma buffers contain all data */
dki_dcache_wbinval (dmaL, (unsigned)bytes);
if ( stereo )
    dki_dcache_wbinval (dmaR, (unsigned)bytes);
} /*** end rapBufToDma ***/
/*****
*
*           r a p D m a T o B u f
*
*****
* Name:         rapDmaToBuf
* Purpose:      Moves data from DMA buffers (Right and Left in stereo)
*               into a rwQue entry.  This routine is called only by
*               Interrupt Handler.
* Returns:      None
*****/
static void
rapDmaToBuf( int bytes)
{
    cardInfo_t    *ci;
    rwBuf_t       *rw;
    uchar_t       *dmaR;
    uchar_t       *dmaL;
    uchar_t       stereo;
    int i, j, s, inc;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    rw = &rwQue[ci->di_idx];
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;

```

```
/*
 *      filling 1st half or 2nd half of the buffers ?
 */
if ( ci->di_which ) {
    dmaR = &dmaRight [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
    dmaL = &dmaLeft [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
    if ( bytes == DMA_BUF_SIZE ) {
        bytes = DMA_HALF_SIZE;
    }
}
/* filling 1st half of dma buffers */
else {
    dmaR = &dmaRight [0];
    dmaL = &dmaLeft [0];
}
/* Invalidate the Cache */
dki_dcache_inval (dmaL, (unsigned)bytes);
if ( stereo )
    dki_dcache_inval (dmaR, (unsigned)bytes);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapDmaToBuf: Bytes= %d, Idx = %d, rw_count = %d, Full = %d, Empty= %d",
bytes, ci->di_idx, rw->rw_count, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free);
#endif
/*
 * if buffer is Full ..we cannot wait ! Ignore new data
 * by simply returning.
 */
if ( rw->rw_state & RW_FULL ) {
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapDmaToBuf: Buf %d is not Empty ..Ignoring data",
    rw->rw_idx );
    #endif
    return;
}
/* buffer is Empty ..calculate the end address */
if ( ci->di_ptr == NULL )
    ci->di_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapDmaToBuf: Moving %s of DMA buffers in %s, rw_count = %x",
(ci->di_which ? "Second Half" : "First Half"),
(stereo ? "Stereo":"Monoe"), rw->rw_count);
#endif
```

```
/*
 *      Fill buffers ...in stereo bytes are Left:Right:Left:Right...
 */
for ( i = 0; i < bytes; i++ ) {
    /*
     *      First check if this buffer is Full or not.
     *      If it is, mark it as Full and wake anyone up who is
     *      waiting for it. Then get the next Empty buffer.
     */
    if ( rw->rw_count >= RW_BUF_SIZE ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapDmaToBuf: Buf %d is Full now, rw_count = %d",
                rw->rw_idx, rw->rw_count );
        #endif
        rapMarkBuf(rw, ci, RW_FULL);
        if ( rw->rw_state & RW_WANTED_FULL ) {
            #ifdef DEBUG
                cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                    "rapDmaToBuf: Buf %d is Wanted_Full",
                    rw->rw_idx );
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
            wakeup(rw);
        }
        j = rapGetNextEmpty(ci->di_idx, FROM_INTR);
        if ( j == -1 ) {
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapDmaToBuf: Could not get next empty");
            return;
        }
        ci->di_idx = j;
        rw = &rwQue[ci->di_idx];
        ci->di_ptr = rw->rw_buf;
        continue;
    }
    /* buffer still has room ...move data */
    if ( stereo ) {
        *(ci->di_ptr++) = dmaL[i];
        *(ci->di_ptr++) = dmaR[i];
        rw->rw_count    += 2;
    }
    else {
        *(ci->di_ptr++) = dmaL[i];
        rw->rw_count++;
    }
}
```

```

    }
  } /* while bytes ... */
} /*** end rapDmaToBuf ***/
/*****
*
*           r a p G e t N e x t F u l l
*
* Name:      rapGetNextFull
* Purpose:   returns the index of next Full  entry in rwQue[],
*           starting from a given index. Sleeps if the entry
*           is not Full.
* Returns:   the index of the empty entry.
*****/
static short
rapGetNextFull (short idx, uchar_t fromIntr)
{
    cardInfo_t   *ci;
    int          s;
    toid_t       to_id;
    rwBuf_t      *rw;
    ci = &cardInfo;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapGetNextFull: Getting Next Full Buffer..idx = %d, fromIntr: %d",
idx, fromIntr );
#endif
    /* go to beginning if at the end of the queue */
    idx++;
    if ( idx >= RW_BUF_COUNT )
        idx = 0;
    rw = &rwQue[idx];
    /*
     *   if buffer is not available and we were called from Inerrupt
     *   handler, simply ignore the request and return error
     */
    s = LOCK();
    if ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && (fromIntr) ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapGetNextFull: Buffer %d is not Full. ..Cannot Wait",
rw->rw_idx);
#endif
        UNLOCK(s);
        return(-1);
    }
    /* wait for the buffer to become Full */

```

```

if ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) ) {
    ci->ri_tout = 0;
    to_id = itimeout (rapTimeOut, rw, RW_TIMEOUT, plbase, 0, 0, 0);
    while ( !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && !ci->ri_tout ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapGetNextFull: Waiting for Buf %d to become Full",
            rw->rw_idx );
        #endif
        rw->rw_state |= RW_WANTED_FULL;
        if ( sleep(rw, PUSER | PCATCH) ) {
            untimeout(to_id);
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapGetNextFull: Interrupted");
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
            UNLOCK(s);
            return(-1);
        }
    }
    untimeout (to_id);
    if ( ci->ri_tout ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "raGetNextFull: Timed out");
        #endif
        rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_FULL;
        UNLOCK(s);
        return (-1);
    }
} /* if !(rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) */
UNLOCK(s);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapGetNextFull: next Full Buffer is %d", idx);
#endif
return(idx);
} /** End rapGetNextFull */
/*****
*
*   r a p G e t N e x t E m p t y
*****
* Name:          rapGetNextEmpty
*
* Purpose:       returns the index of next empty entry in rwQue[],
*                starting from a given index. Sleeps if the entry
*                is not empty.
* Returns:       the index of the empty entry.

```

```

*****/
static short
rapGetNextEmpty (short idx, uchar_t fromIntr)
{
    cardInfo_t *ci;
    int s;
    toid_t to_id;
    rwBuf_t *rw;
    ci = &cardInfo;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapGetNextEmpty: Getting Next Empty Buffer..idx = %d, fromIntr: %d",
        idx, fromIntr );
#endif

    /* go to beginning if at the end of the queue */
    idx++;
    if ( idx >= RW_BUF_COUNT )
        idx = 0;
    rw = &rwQue[idx];
    s = LOCK();
    /*
     * if buffer is not available and we were called from Interrupt
     * handler, simply ignore the request and return error
     */
    if ( (rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && (fromIntr) ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "rapGetNextEmpty: Buffer %d is not Empty ..Cannot Wait",
            rw->rw_idx);
#endif
        UNLOCK(s);
        return(-1);
    }
    /* wait for the buffer to become Empty */
    if ( rw->rw_state & RW_FULL ) {
        ci->ri_tout = 0;
        to_id = itimeout (rapTimeOut, rw, RW_TIMEOUT, plbase, 0, 0, 0);
        while ( (rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) && !ci->ri_tout ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "rapGetNextEmpty: Waiting for Buf %d to become Empty",
                rw->rw_idx );
#endif
            rw->rw_state |= RW_WANTED_EMPTY;

```

```

        if ( sleep(rw, PUSER | PCATCH) ) {
            untimeout(to_id);
            #ifdef DEBUG
            cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapGetNextEmpty: Interrupted");
            #endif
            rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
            UNLOCK(s);
            return(-1);
        }
    } /* while .. */
    untimeout (to_id);
    if ( ci->ri_tout ) {
        #ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "raGetNextEmpty: Timed out");
        #endif
        rw->rw_state &= ~RW_WANTED_EMPTY;
        UNLOCK(s);
        return (-1);
    }
} /* if (rw->rw_state & RW_FULL) */
UNLOCK(s);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapGetNextEmpty: next Empty Buffer is %d", idx);
#endif
return(idx);
} /*** End rapGetNextEmpty ***/
/*****
*
*       r a p D i s I n t
*****
* Name:         rapDisInt
* Purpose:      Disables RAP-10 interrupts.
* Returns:      None.
*****/
static void
rapDisInt( cardInfo_t *ci)
{
    caddr_t    addr;
    ushort_t  s;
    uchar_t    c;
    #ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapDisInt: full = %d, empty = %d, di_state = %d",
    ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free, ci->di_state );
    #endif
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    /*  disable all Interrupts  */

```



```

    s = 0;
    OUTW(addr+GPDI, s);
    OUTB(addr+DACM, 0x00);
    OUTB(addr+ADCM, 0x00);
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapDisInt: Rap is set");
#endif
} /** End rapDisInt ***/
/*****
 *
 *          r a p G e t D m a
 *
 * Name:      rapGetDma
 * Purpose:   allocates dma Buf and Cb structures
 * Returns:   0 = Success, 1 = Error
 *****/
static int
rapGetDma ( dmaBuf_t  **dmaB, dmaCb_t  **dmaC, int ch )
{
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
"rapGetDma: Getting Eisa Dma Buf and Cb for Channel %d", ch);
#endif
    *dmaB = eisa_dma_get_buf (EISA_DMA_SLEEP);
    if ( *dmaB == NULL )
        return (1);
    *dmaC = eisa_dma_get_cb ( EISA_DMA_SLEEP );
    if ( *dmaC == NULL )
        return (1);
    return (0);
} /** End rapGetDma ***/
/*****
 *
 *          r a p M a r k B u f
 *
 * Name:      rapMarkBuf
 * Purpose:   Marks a buffer (Empty, Busy, Full) and increments/decrements
 *            appropriate counters. Buffers status changed as:
 *            Empty -> Busy -> Full -> Empty -> Busy ..
 * Returns:   None.
 *****/
static void
rapMarkBuf (rwBuf_t  *rw, cardInfo_t  *ci, uchar_t  m)
{
    int s;
    s = LOCK();
    switch ( m ) {

```

```

case RW_EMPTY:
    rw->rw_state &= ~RW_FULL;
    if ( ci->ri_full )
        ci->ri_full--;
    ci->ri_free++;
    rw->rw_count = 0;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapMarkBuf: Buf %d set EMPTY. Full = %d, Emp = %d",
        rw->rw_idx, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
#endif
    break;
case RW_FULL:
    rw->rw_state |= RW_FULL;
    ci->ri_full++;
    if ( ci->ri_free )
        ci->ri_free--;
    rw->rw_count = RW_BUF_SIZE;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapMarkBuf: Buf %d set FULL. Full = %d, Emp = %d",
        rw->rw_idx, ci->ri_full, ci->ri_free );
#endif
    break;
}
UNLOCK(s);
} /** End rapMarkBuf */
/*****
 *      r a p K e r n M e m
 *****/
* Name:      rapKernMem
* Purpose:   Allocates/Deallocates Kernel memory for Right and
*            Left DMA channels.
* Returns:   0 = Success, 1 = Failure.
*****/
static int
rapKernMem ( uchar_t what)
{
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapKernMem: %s Kernel Contigious Memory",
        (what == 1 ? "Allocating" : "Deallocating" ) );
#endif
    switch ( what ) {
        /*=====
         *      Allocate Right/Left DMA Channels
         *

```

```

*=====*/
case 1:
    dmaRight = kmem_alloc (DMA_BUF_SIZE,
                          KM_NOSLEEP | KM_PHYSCONTIG | KM_CACHEALIGN );
    if ( dmaRight == (caddr_t)NULL ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                "rapKernMem: Cannot allocate DMA memory for R_chann");
        return(1);
    }
    dmaLeft = kmem_alloc (DMA_BUF_SIZE,
                         KM_NOSLEEP | KM_PHYSCONTIG | KM_CACHEALIGN );
    if ( dmaLeft == (caddr_t)NULL ) {
        cmn_err (CE_WARN,
                "rapKernMem: Cannot allocate DMA memory for L_chann");
        kmem_free (dmaRight, DMA_BUF_SIZE);
        return(1);
    }
    /* get the physical address */
    dmaRightPhys = kvtophys(dmaRight);
    dmaLeftPhys = kvtophys(dmaLeft);
    return(0);
/*=====*
 * Deallocate Right/Left DMA Channels *
 *=====*/
case 2:
    if ( dmaRight != NULL ) {
        kmem_free (dmaRight, DMA_BUF_SIZE);
        dmaRight = (caddr_t)NULL;
    }
    if ( dmaLeft != NULL ) {
        kmem_free (dmaLeft, DMA_BUF_SIZE);
        dmaLeft = (caddr_t)NULL;
    }
    return(0);
} /* switch */
} /**** End rapKernMem ****/
/*****
 *
 * r a p T i m e O u t
 *****/
* Name: rapTimeOut
* Purpose: is called when Read/Write waiting for buffers time out.
* Returns:
*****/
static void
rapTimeOut( void *addr )

```

```

{
    cardInfo_t    *ci;
    ci = &cardInfo;
    /* indicate a timeout */
    ci->ri_tout = 1;
    wakeup (addr);
}
/*****
 *
 *           r a p N o t e O n
 *****/
* Name:         rapNoteOn
* Purpose:      Sends a MIDI Note_On message.
*               This code is taken from RAP-10 manual.
* Returns:      None.
*****/
static void
rapNoteOn ( cardInfo_t  *ci, ushort_t orig_gpis)
{
    int          s, stereo;
    uchar_t      c, pan, rank, chksum, sum;
    caddr_t      addr;
    ushort_t     gpis;
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
    pan = 0x40;
    rank = 0x01; /* for 22050 Hz */
    gpis = orig_gpis;
    /*
     *       Busy wait till Txd Fifo is empty
     *       The interrupt version is commeneted out below
     */
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOn: Waiting for Txd Fifo Empty, gpis = %x",
             gpis);
#endif
    while ( !(gpis & GPIS_TXD) ) {
        gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOn: Waiting ..new gpis = %x", gpis);
#endif
    }
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOn: Issuing a Note_On SysEx Cmd");
#endif
    /* send Note_On */

```

```

c = 0xf0; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x41; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x10; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x56; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x12; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
if ( stereo ) {
    c = 0x03; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    c = 0x00; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    c = 0x01; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    sum = 0x03 + 0x01;
}
else {
    c = 0x02; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    c = 0x00; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    c = 0x0A+0x01; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    sum = 0x02+0x0A+0x01;
}
c = 0x01; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x7F; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x7F; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, rank);
sum += (0x01+0x7F+0x7F+rank);
c = 0x40; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x00; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
c = 0x40; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, pan);
sum += (0x40+0x40+pan);
/* calculate the checksum */
chksum = (0x80 - (sum % 0x80)) & 0x7F;
OUTB(addr+MDTD, chksum);
c = 0xF7; OUTB(addr+MDTD, c);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOn: Note_On Issued, chksum = %x", chksum);
#endif
} /* end rapNoteOn */

/*****
*
*           r a p N o t e O f f
*
*****/
* Name:      rapNoteOff
* Purpose:   Sends a MIDI Note_Off message.
*           This code is taken from RAP-10 manual.
* Returns:   None.
*****/
static void

```

```
rapNoteOff ( cardInfo_t *ci)
{
    int          s, stereo;
    uchar_t     pan, b, rank, sum, checksum;
    caddr_t     addr;
    ushort_t    gpis;
    addr = ci->ci_addr[0];
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
    pan = 0x40;
    rank = 0x01;    /* for 22050 Hz */
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOff: Waiting for Txd Empty");
#endif
    /* wait till Txd is Empty */
    gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
    while ( !(gpis & GPIS_TXD) ) {
        us_delay(10);
        gpis = INPW(addr+GPIS);
#ifdef DEBUG
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOff: Waiting ..new gpis = %x", gpis);
#endif
    }
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOff: Issuing Note_Off");
#endif
    /* send Note_On */
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0xF0);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x41);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x10);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x56);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x12);
    if ( stereo ) {
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x03);
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x00);
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x01);
        sum = 0x03 + 0x01;
    }
    else {
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x02);
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x00);
        OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x0A+0x01);
        sum = 0x02 + 0x0A + 0x01;
    }
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x00);
    OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x7F);
}
```

```

OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x7F);
OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x00);
sum += 0x7F + 0x7F;
OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x40);
OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x00);
OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x40);
OUTB(addr+MDTD, pan);
sum += 0x40 + 0x40 + pan;
/* calculate checksum */
chksum = (0x80 - (sum % 0x80)) & 0x7F;
OUTB(addr+MDTD, chksum);
OUTB(addr+MDTD, 0x7F);
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapNoteOff: Note_On Issued, chksum = %x", chksum);
#endif
} /* end rapNoteOff */
/*****
 *                               r a p Z e r o D m a
 *****/
* Name:      rapZeroDma
* Purpose:   Zero outs DMA buffers.
* Returns:   None.
 *****/
static void
rapZeroDma (cardInfo_t *ci, int bytes)
{
    caddr_t dmaL, dmaR;
    int      stereo, s;
    s = LOCK();
    stereo = ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO;
    /*
     * Zero out which half ?
     */
    if ( ci->di_which ) {
        dmaR = &dmaRight [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
        dmaL = &dmaLeft  [DMA_HALF_SIZE];
        if ( bytes == DMA_BUF_SIZE ) {
            bytes = DMA_HALF_SIZE;
        }
    }
    /* Zer out 1st half of dma buffers */
    else {
        dmaR = &dmaRight [0];
        dmaL = &dmaLeft  [0];
    }
}

```

```

#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
        "rapZeroDma: Zeroing out %s of Dma buffers in %s for %d bytes",
        (ci->di_which ? "2nd half":"1st half"),
        (stereo ? "Stereo":"Mono"),
        bytes);
#endif
bzero (dmaL, bytes);
dki_dcache_wbinval (dmaL, (unsigned)bytes);
if ( stereo ) {
    bzero (dmaR, bytes);
    dki_dcache_wbinval (dmaR, (unsigned)bytes);
}
UNLOCK(s);
} /** end rapZeroDma */
/*****
*
*           r a p R e l e a s e D m a
*
*****
* Name:      rapReleaseDma
* Purpose:   Releases Dma channel(s).
*           Note that we access kernel's Dma structure and later on
*           a routine will be provided for us to avoid this.
* Returns:   None.
*****/
static void
rapReleaseDma (cardInfo_t *ci)
{
    /*  disable Eisa Dma */
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapReleaseDma: Releasing Eisa Dma Chann %d",
        ci->ci_dmaCh5);
#endif
eisa_dma_disable(0, ci->ci_dmaCh5);
if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO ) {
#ifdef DEBUG
cmn_err (CE_NOTE, "rapReleaseDma: Releasing Eisa Dma Chann %d",
        ci->ci_dmaCh6);
#endif
eisa_dma_disable(0, ci->ci_dmaCh6);
}
} /** end rapReleaseDma */
/*****
*
*           r a p S e t A u t o I n i t
*
*****
* Name:      rapSetAutoInit

```



```

* Purpose:   sets Eisa DMA register for Autoinit. In Autoinit, DMA
*           starts over from the beginning of the buffer again once it
*           has transferred all bytes in the buffer.
* Returns:   None.
*****/
#define EISA_MODE_REG  0xd6
#define EISA_CH5       0x01
#define EISA_CH6       0x02
#define EISA_WRITE     0x04
#define EISA_READ      0x08
#define EISA_AUTO      0x10
static void
rapSetAutoInit( cardInfo_t *ci, uchar_t what)
{
    uchar_t    b;
#ifdef DEBUG
    cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
             "rapSetAutoInit: setting Autoinit DMA for %s, Eisa Addr = %x",
             ( what == DI_DMA_PLAYING ? "Playback(D/A)" : "Record(A/D)" ),
             eisa_addr );
#endif
    b = 0;
    if ( what == DI_DMA_PLAYING )
        b |= EISA_READ;          /* Memory -> Device */
    else
        b |= EISA_WRITE;        /* Device -> Memory */
    /* Autoinit for Channel 5 - Demand Mode select is default */
    b |= (EISA_AUTO | EISA_CH5);
    OUTB(eisa_addr+EISA_MODE_REG, b);
    /* Autoinit for Channel 6 (if in stereo mode) */
    if ( ci->ci_state & CARD_STEREO ) {
        b &= ~EISA_CH5;
        b |= EISA_CH6;
        OUTB(eisa_addr+EISA_MODE_REG, b);
    }
}
} /*** End rapSetAutoInit ***/

```


PART EIGHT

GIO Drivers

Chapter 19, "GIO Device Drivers"

Overview of the architecture of the GIO bus and the special services offered by the kernel to GIO drivers.

GIO Device Drivers

The GIO bus is a synchronous, multiplexed address-data bus connecting high-speed devices to main memory and CPU for Silicon Graphics workstations. This chapter gives an overview of the GIO architecture, and describes the special kernel functions used to manage a device on the GIO bus. The main topics are as follows:

- “GIO Bus Overview” on page 674 describes the hardware implementation of the GIO bus.
- “Configuring a GIO Device” on page 675 discusses the use of the VECTOR line to describe a GIO device to IRIX.
- “Writing a GIO Driver” on page 676 discusses the work done in each entry point of a GIO device driver.
- “Memory Parity Workarounds” on page 686 covers an important hardware problem.
- “Example GIO Driver” on page 689 displays major parts of a driver for a hypothetical GIO device.

GIO Bus Overview

The GIO bus is a family of buses with different electrical requirements and form factors. However, the only systems that use GIO and are supported by IRIX 6.5 are the Indigo², POWER Indigo²TM, and Indigo² Maximum IMPACTTM workstations. These systems support the GIO64 bus, a 64-bit, synchronous, multiplexed address-data bus that can run at speeds up to 33 MHz. It supports both 32- and 64-bit devices. GIO64 has two slightly different varieties: non-pipelined for internal system memory, and pipelined for graphics and pipelined GIO64 slot devices.

Older systems (Indigo, Indy) used a 32-bit version of the GIO bus.

The Indigo² has three physical sockets, but the lower two are paired as a single logical slot—the double socket provides extra electrical and mechanical support for heavy cards. The Indigo² Maximum Impact has four physical sockets, with each pair ganged as one logical slot. Thus all systems have two GIO slots, electrically speaking.

The form factor depends on the specific platform in which the device is installed. GIO64 boards are the size of an EISA board. Slots in Indigo² systems can accept either an EISA board or a GIO64 board. These two types of boards share common board dimensions but have different connectors for attaching to their respective buses. GIO devices can be either single or double-wide (that is, taking one or two sockets).

GIO Bus Address Spaces

Each GIO device has a range of bus addresses to which it responds. These addresses correspond to device registers or on-board memory, depending on the GIO device.

The address range for a GIO bus device is determined in part by the slot number of the device. The hardware must be designed to determine which slot the device is in and make the appropriate adjustments to respond to that slot's address range.

Indigo² systems support three GIO address spaces, referred to as *gfx*, *exp0*, and *exp1*. The *gfx* address space is used by the graphics card.

Table 19-1 shows the slot names and address spaces available on the Indigo² systems.

Table 19-1 GIO Slot Names and Addresses

Slot Name	32-bit Address	64-bit Address
<i>gfx</i>	0x1f00 0000–0x1f3f ffff	0x9000 0000 1f00 0000–0x9000 0000 1f3f ffff
<i>exp0</i>	0x1f40 0000–0x1f5f ffff	0x9000 0000 1f40 0000–0x9000 0000 1f5f ffff
<i>exp1</i>	0x1f60 0000–0x1f9f ffff	0x9000 0000 1f60 0000–0x9000 0000 1f9f ffff

In 64-bit systems (Indigo² Maximum Impact), two additional high-order bits are needed to select the physical address of the GIO space, so each of the above addresses is prefixed by 0x9000 0000.

GIO-bus devices use only one interrupt level — interrupt 1. Interrupts 0 and 2 are used by the graphics system and may not be used by GIO-bus devices.

Configuring a GIO Device

A GIO device is described to the system, and related to its device driver, using a VECTOR line in a file in the */var/sysgen/system* directory (see “Configuring a Kernel” on page 263).

GIO VECTOR Line

The VECTOR line for a GIO device uses the “old style” syntax documented in */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm*. The important elements in a VECTOR line for GIO are as follows:

<i>bustype</i>	Specified as <i>GIO</i> for GIO devices. The VECTOR statement can be used for other types of buses as well.
<i>module</i>	The base name of the device driver for this device, as used in the <i>/var/sysgen/master.d</i> database (see “Master Configuration Database” on page 55 and “How Names Are Used in Configuration” on page 259).
<i>adapter</i>	Always 0, or omitted, for GIO, since there is never more than one GIO bus adapter in current systems.

<i>ctlr</i>	The “controller” number is simply an integer parameter that is passed to the device driver at boot time. It can be used, for example, to specify a logical unit number.
<i>base</i>	Device base address, as shown in Table 19-1.
<i>probe</i> or <i>exprobe</i>	Specify a hardware test that can be applied at boot time to find out if the device exists.

You use the *probe* or *exprobe* parameter to program a test for the existence of the device at boot time. If the device does not respond (because it is offline or because it has been removed from the system), the *lboot* command will not invoke the device driver for this device. This facility is used in distributed */var/sysgen/system/irix.sm* files in order to choose between the graphics board in slot *gfx* or in slot *exp0*.

Writing a GIO Driver

GIO bus devices are controlled only from kernel-level drivers; there is no provision for memory-mapping GIO devices into user-level address spaces.

A GIO device driver is a kernel-level driver compiled, linked, and loaded into the kernel as described in Chapter 9, “Building and Installing a Driver.” A GIO driver can call on the kernel functions described in Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver.” However, a GIO driver has to use some special features in its *pfxedtinit()* and *pfxintr()* entry points.

GIO-Specific Kernel Functions

Three GIO-specific functions are used in setting up a GIO device. They are only documented here; there are no reference pages for them. The functions are declared as external in the CPU-specific include files *sys/IP20.h* and *sys/IP22.h*. (When compiling for a POWER Indigo², which uses an IP26 CPU, you include *sys/IP22.h* as well as *sys/IP26.h*.)

Registering an Interrupt Handler

The *setgiovector()* function registers an interrupt service function for a GIO device interrupt with the kernel’s interrupt dispatcher, or unregisters one. The function prototype is


```
void
setgiovector(int level, int slot,
             void (*func)(__psint_t, struct eframe_s *),
             __psint_t arg);
```

The arguments are as follows:

- level* The interrupt level; must be GIO_INTERRUPT_1 for all devices except the graphics board.
- slot* The slot number, 0 or 1.
- func* The address of the interrupt handling function (typically the *pfxintr()* entry point of the device driver), or else NULL to unregister.
- arg* A “pointer-sized integer” value to be passed as the first argument of the interrupt handler when it is invoked.

Note: If either the *level* or *slot* number is out of range, **setgiovector()** issues an error message with the CE_PANIC level, causing a kernel panic.

When *func* is not NULL, the specified function is registered to receive interrupts at the given *level* from the given *slot*. When an interrupt occurs, the function is called with two arguments. The first is the value specified as *arg*, a “pointer-sized integer,” typically the address of device-specific information. The second is the interrupt registers. The structure *eframe_s* is declared in *sys/reg.h*. However, this structure is of no interest.

This function can be used with a NULL for the *func* argument to unregister an interrupt routine that was previously registered. You must unregister an interrupt handler in a loadable device driver prior to unloading, when called at the *pfxunload()* entry point (see “Entry Point unload()” on page 180).

Configuring a Slot

The function **setgioconfig()** configures the GIO slot for a particular use. The function prototype is

```
void
setgioconfig(int slot, int flags);
```

The arguments are as follows:

- slot* The slot number, 0 or 1.
- flags* A set of bit-flags from the constants GIO_ARB_* declared in *sys/mc.h*.

Note: If the *slot* number is out of range, **setgioconfig()** either issues an error message with the CE_PANIC level or suffers an assertion failure, causing a kernel panic.

The flags that can be combined to make the *flags* argument are

GIO64_ARB_EXP0_SIZE_64	Configure for 64-bit transfers; otherwise transfers will be 32-bit.
GIO64_ARB_EXP0_RT	Configure as a real-time device; otherwise it will be a long burst device.
GIO64_ARB_EXP0_MST	Configure as a bus master; otherwise it will be a slave.
GIO64_ARB_EXP0_PIPED	Configure slot as a pipelined device, otherwise it will be a non-pipelined device. For Indigo ² systems, this must be set.

splgio0, splgio1, splgio2

Three functions can be used to set the processor interrupt mask to block GIO-bus interrupts. As of IRIX 6.2, the only systems that support the GIO bus are uniprocessor systems, in which **spl()**-type functions are effective. When writing a device driver that might be ported to a multiprocessor, you should avoid functions of this type, and use other means of getting mutual exclusion (see “Priority Level Functions” on page 242).

The prototypes of the GIO **spl()** functions are

```
long splgio0();  
long splgio1();  
long splgio2();
```

Devices other than graphics drivers would typically only have a reason to use **splgio1()**, because 1 is the interrupt level of non-graphics GIO devices.

GIO Driver edtinit() Entry Point

The device driver specified by the *module* parameter is invoked at its **pfxedtinit()** entry point, where it receives most of the other information specified in the VECTOR statement (see “Entry Point edtinit()” on page 151).

The **pfxedtinit()** entry point is called only in response to a VECTOR line. However, a VECTOR line need not contain a *probe* or *exprobe* test of the hardware.

The driver should not assume that its hardware exists; instead it should use the **badaddr()** kernel function to test the addresses passed in the `edt_t` object to make sure they are usable (see “Testing Device Physical Addresses” on page 220).

Example 19-1 displays a skeleton version of the `pfxedtinit()` entry point of a hypothetical GIO device driver. This example uses GIO-specific functions that are described in a following section, “GIO-Specific Kernel Functions” on page 676.

Example 19-1 GIO Driver `edtinit()` Entry Point

```
#include <sys/edt.h>
void
hypoth_edtinit(register struct edt *e)
{
    int slot, val;
    /* Check to see if the device is present */
    if(badaddr_val(e->e_base, sizeof(int), &val) ||
        (val && GBD_MASK) != GBD_BOARD_ID) {
        if (showconfig)
            cmn_err (CE_CONT,
                "gbdedtinit: board not installed.");
        return;
    }
    /* figure out slot from base on VECTOR line in
    /* system file*/
    if(e->e_base == (caddr_t)0xBf400000)
        slot = GIO_SLOT_0;
    else if(e->e_base == (caddr_t)0xBF600000)
        slot = GIO_SLOT_1;
    else {
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
            "ERROR from edtinit: Bad base address %x\n",e->e_base);
        return;
    }
#ifdef IP20 /* For Indigo R4000, set up board as a
            realtime bus master */
    setgioconfig(slot,GIO64_ARB_EXPO_RT|GIO64_ARB_EXPO_MST);
#endif
#ifdef (IP22|IP26) /* For Indy, Indigo2, set up board as a
                pipelined realtime bus master */
    setgioconfig(slot,GIO64_ARB_EXPO_RT|GIO64_ARB_EXPO_PIPED);
#endif
    /* Save the device addresses, because
    * they won't be available later.
    */
}
```

```
gbd_device[slot == GIO_SLOT_0 ? 0 : 1] =
    (struct gbd_device *)e->e_base;
gbd_memory[slot == GIO_SLOT_0 ? 0 : 1] =
    (char *)e->e_base2;
    /* Where "unit_#" is any parameter passed to
    /* the interrupt handler (gbdintr) */
    setgiowector(GIO_INTERRUPT_1,slot,gbdintr,unit_#);
}
```

GIO Driver Interrupt Handler

A GIO driver must contain an interrupt entry point. It does not have to be named *pxintr()* because it is registered using the **giosetvector()** function.

When the device generates an interrupt, the general GIO interrupt handler calls your driver's registered interrupt routine and passes it the argument that was specified to **setgiowector()** as the argument. This is typically a unit number, or the address of a device-specific information structure.

Within the interrupt routine, the driver must wake up the sleeping upper-half process, if one is waiting on the transfer to complete. In a block device driver, the interrupt routine calls **iodone()** to indicate that a block type I/O transfer for the buffer is complete (see "Waiting for Block I/O to Complete" on page 245).

Using PIO

Programmed I/O (PIO) is used to transfer small amounts of data between memory and device registers. PIO is typically used for control functions and to set up device registers prior to DMA (see "Using DMA" on page 682).

PIO can be as simple as storing a variable into a bus address (as passed to the *pxedtinit()* entry point). Example 19-2 displays fragmentary code of a hypothetical character device driver for a GIO device that controls a printer. This *pxwrite()* entry point copies data from the user address space to device memory using the **uiomove()** function (see "Transferring Data Through a uio_t Object" on page 209). Then it stores an explicit command in the device to start it, and sleeps until the device interrupts.

Example 19-2 Hypothetical PIO Routine for GIO

```

/* device write routine entry point (for character devices)*/
int
hypoth_write(dev_t dev, uio_t *uio)
{
    int unit = getemisor(dev)&1;
    int size, err=0, s;
    /* while there is data to transfer */
    while((size=uio->uio_resid) > 0) {
        /* Transfer no more than GBD_MEMSIZE bytes */
        size = size < GBD_MEMSIZE ? size : GBD_MEMSIZE;
        /* decrements size, updates uio fields, copies data */
        if(err=uiomove(gbd_memory[unit], size, UIO_WRITE, uio))
            break;
        /* prevent interrupts until we sleep */
        s = splgio1();
        /* Transfer is complete; start output */
        gbd_device[unit]->count = size;
        gbd_device[unit]->command = GBD_GO;
        gbd_state[unit] = GBD_SLEEPING;
        while (gbd_state[unit] != GBD_DONE) {
            sleep(&gbd_state[unit], PRIBIO);
        }
        /* restore the interrupt level after waking up */
        splx(s);
    }
    return err;
}

```

An expression like `gdb_device[unit]->command=GBD_GO` represents storing a command value in a device register. Presumably the `gdb_device` array is set up with a device address for each slot in the `pfxedtinit()` entry point.

The code in Example 19-2 uses `splgio1()` to block an interrupt from occurring after it has started the device in operation and before it has entered the blocked state using `sleep()`. If this was not done, there is a small window of time during which an interrupt could occur and be handled before the upper-half routine had begun sleeping. Then it would sleep forever.

An alternate way to handle this same situation in a multiprocessor system is to use a mutual-exclusion lock to get exclusive use of the device registers, and a synchronization variable to wait for the interrupt (see “Using Synchronization Variables” on page 248).

Using DMA

DMA access achieves higher throughput than PIO when the device transfers more than a few words of data at a time. DMA is typically set up by programming device registers with the target address and length, and leaving the device to generate a series of stores or loads from memory. The details of device control are hardware-dependent.

The direction of a DMA transfer is measured with respect to the device, which operates independently. A DMA operation is either a DMA *read* (of memory data out to the device) or a DMA *write* (by the device, of data into memory).

DMA buffers should be cache-aligned in memory (see “Setting Up a DMA Transfer” on page 216). Prior to a DMA read, the driver should make sure that cached data has been written to memory using `dk_i_cache_wb()`. Prior to a DMA write, the driver should make sure the CPU knows that cached data is invalid (or is about to become invalid) using `dk_i_cache_inval()` (see “Managing Memory for Cache Coherency” on page 219).

DMA To Multiple Pages

Some devices can perform DMA only in a single transfer of data to a range of contiguous addresses. Such a device must be programmed separately for each individual page of data. Other devices are capable of transferring a series of page units to different addresses; that is, they support “scatter/gather” capability. These devices can be programmed once to transfer an entire buffer of data, regardless of whether the buffer spans multiple pages.

In either case, the `pf_xstrategy()` entry point of a block device driver must calculate the physical addresses of a series of one or more pages, and program them into the device. When the device does not support scatter/gather, it is set up and started on each page of data individually, with an interrupt after each page. When the device supports scatter/gather, it is programmed with a list of page addresses all at once.

DMA With Scatter/Gather Capability

Example 19-3 shows the skeleton of a `pf_xstrategy()` entry point for a block device driver for a hypothetical GIO device that supports scatter/gather capability.

Example 19-3 Strategy Code for Hypothetical Scatter/Gather GIO Device

```
/* Actual device setup for DMA, etc., if your board has
 * hardware scatter/gather DMA support.
```

```

    * Called from the hypo_write() routine via physio().
    */
void
hypo_strategy(struct buf *bp)
{
    int unit = getemisor(bp->b_dev)&1;
    int npages;
    volatile unsigned *sgregisters; /* ->device regs */
    int i, v_addr;
    /* MISSING: any checking for initial state. */
    /* Get address of the scatter/gather registers */
    sgregisters = gbd_device[unit]->sgregisters;
    /* Get the kernel virtual address of the data; note
     * b_dmaaddr may be NULL if the BP_ISMAPPED(bp) macro
     * indicates false; in that case, the field bp->b_pages
     * is a pointer to a linked list of pfdat structure
     * pointers; that saves creating a virtual mapping and
     * then decoding that mapping back to physical addresses.
     * BP_ISMAPPED will never be false for character devices,
     * only block devices.
     */
    if(!BP_ISMAPPED(bp)) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN,
            "gbd driver can't handle unmapped buffers");
        bioerror(bp, EIO);
        biodone(bp);
        return;
    }
    v_addr = bp->b_dmaaddr;
    /* Compute number of pages affected by this request.
     * The numpages() macro (sysmacros.h) returns the number of pages
     * that span a given length starting at a given address, allowing
     * for partial pages. Unrealistically, we limit this to the
     * number of scatter/gather registers on board.
     * Note that this sample driver doesn't handle the
     * case of requests > than # of registers!
     */
    npages = numpages (v_addr, bp->b_bcount);
    if(npages > GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS) {
        bp->b_resid = IO_NBPP * (npages - GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS);
        npages = GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS;
        cmn_err(CE_WARN,
            "request too large, only %d pages max", npages);
    }
    /* Translate the virtual address of each page to a

```

```
    * physical page number and load it into the next
    * scatter/gather register.
    * btop() converts the byte value to a page value after
    * rounding down the byte value to a full page.
    */
for (i = 0; i < npages; i++) {
    *sgregisters++ = btop(kvtophys(v_addr));
    v_addr += IO_NBPP;
}
/* Program the device for input or output */
if ((bp->b_flags & B_READ) == 0)
    gbd_device[unit]->direction = GBD_WRITE;
else
    gbd_device[unit]->direction = GBD_READ;
/* Start the device going and return. The caller, either a
 * file system or uiophysio(), waits for the iodone() call
 * from the interrupt routine.
 */
gbd_device[unit]->command = GBD_GO;
}
```

DMA Without Scatter/Gather Support

When the GIO device does not provide scatter/gather capability, the driver must program the transfer of each memory page individually, ensuring that the device does not attempt to store or load across a page boundary. The usual method is as follows:

- In the *pfstrategy()* routine, save the address of the *buf_t* for use by the *pfxintr()* entry point.
- In the *pfstrategy()* routine, program the device to transfer the data for the first page, and start the device going.
- In the *pfxintr()* entry point, calculate the number of bytes remaining to transfer. If the count is zero, signal *biodone()*. If the count is nonzero, program the device to transfer the next page of data.

Under this design, there is no explicit loop over the successive pages of the transfer visible in the code. The loop is implicit in the fact that the *pfxintr()* entry point starts a new transfer, and so will be called again, until the transfer is complete.

Example 19-4 shows the code of the *pfstrategy()* routine for a hypothetical GIO device without scatter/gather.

Example 19-4 Strategy() Code for GIO Device Without Scatter/Gather

```

/* Actual device setup for DMA, etc., when the board
 * does NOT have hardware scatter/gather DMA support.
 * Called from the hypo_write() routine via physio().
 */
void
hypo_strategy(struct buf *bp)
{
    int unit = geteminor(bp->b_dev)&1;
    /* MISSING: any checking for initial state. */
    /* Get the kernel virtual address of the data; note
     * b_dmaaddr may be NULL if the BP_ISMAPPED(bp) macro
     * indicates false; in that case, the field bp->b_pages
     * is a pointer to a linked list of pfdat structure
     * pointers; that saves creating a virtual mapping and
     * then decoding that mapping back to physical addresses.
     * BP_ISMAPPED will never be false for character devices,
     * only block devices.
     */
    if(!BP_ISMAPPED(bp)) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN,
            "gbd driver can't handle unmapped buffers");
        bioerror(bp, EIO);
        biodone(bp);
        return;
    }
    /* Save ->buf_t where interrupt handler can find it */
    gbd_curbp[unit] = bp;
    /*
     * Initialize the current transfer address and count.
     * The first transfer should finish the rest of the
     * page, but do no more than the total byte count.
     */
    gbd_curaddr[unit] = bp->b_dmaaddr;
    gbd_totcount[unit] = bp->b_count;
    gbd_curcount[unit] = IO_NBPP-
        ((unsigned int)gbd_curaddr[unit] & (IO_NBPP-1));
    if (bp->b_count < gbd_curcount[unit])
        gbd_curcount[unit] = bp->b_count;
    /* Tell the device starting physical address, count,
     * and direction */
    gbd_device[unit]->startaddr = kvtophys(gbd_curaddr[unit]);
    gbd_device[unit]->count = gbd_curcount[unit];
    if (bp->b_flags & B_READ) == 0)

```

```
        gbd_device[unit]->direction = GBD_WRITE;
    else
        gbd_device[unit]->direction = GBD_READ;
    gbd_device[unit]->command = GBD_GO;    /* start DMA */
    /* and return; upper layers of kernel wait for iodone(bp) */
}
```

An alternate design might seem conceptually simpler: to put an explicit loop in the *pfstrategy()* routine, starting each page transfer and waiting on a semaphore until the *pfintr()* routine is called. Such a design keeps the complexity in the *pfstrategy()* routine, making the *pfintr()* routine as simple as possible. However, it has a high cost in performance because the *pfstrategy* routine must wake up and be dispatched for every page.

Scatter/gather programming can be simplified by the use of the **sgset()** function, which calculates the physical addresses and lengths for each page in the transfer (see the *sgset(D3)* reference page). The **sgset()** function is limited to use with hardware that uses a fixed mapping of bus addresses to memory addresses, which is the case in the workstations supporting GIO. For example, **sgset()** cannot be used in the Challenge or Onyx line; it always returns -1 in those systems.

Memory Parity Workarounds

Beginning with IRIX 5.3, parity checking is enabled on the SysAD bus, which connects the CPU to memory in workstations that use the GIO bus (see Figure 19-1). Unfortunately, with certain GIO cards, errors can occur if memory reads complete before the Memory Controller (MC) finishes calculating parity.

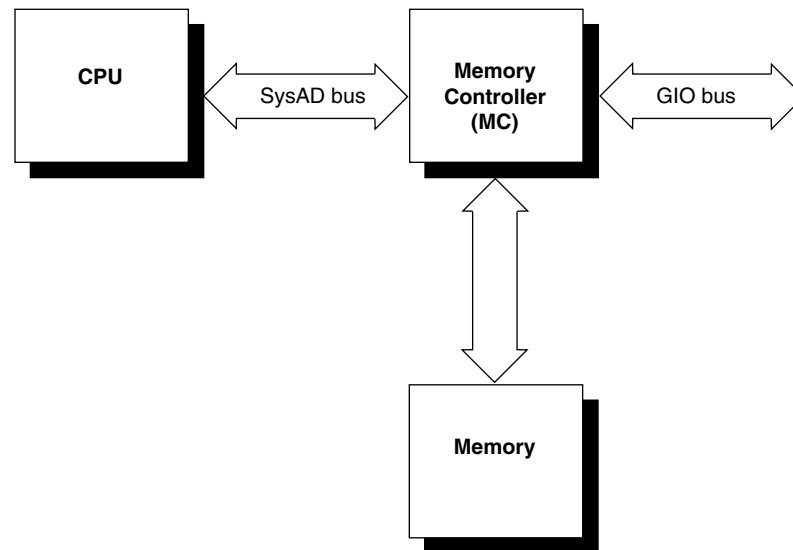


Figure 19-1 The SysAD Bus in Relation to GIO

Some GIO cards do not drive all 32 GIO data lines during CPU PIO reads. These reads from the GIO card are either 8-bit or 16-bit transfers, so the lines are left floating. The problem is that to generate parity bits for the SysAD bus, the Memory Controller (MC) must calculate parity for all 32 bits. Since the calculation must occur before the CPU read completes, it is possible that one (or more) of the floating bits may change while parity is being calculated. Thus, when the CPU read completes, it may be received as a parity error on the SysAD bus.

Note: Diagnosis is complicated by the fact that this problem may not show up on every transaction. It occurs only when one of the data lines that is left floating happens to change state between the start of the MC parity calculation and the completion of the CPU read. A device and its driver can appear to function correctly for some time before the problem occurs.

When writing a driver for a GIO card that does not drive all 32 data lines, you must either disable SysAD parity checking completely, or disable it during the time your driver is performing PIO transfers. Three kernel functions are supplied for these purposes; none of them take arguments.

- **is_sysad_parity_enabled()** returns a nonzero value if SysAD parity checking is enabled.
- **disable_sysad_parity()** turns off parity checking on the SysAD bus.
- **enable_sysad_parity()** returns SysAD parity checking to normal.

To completely disable SysAD parity checking removes the system's ability to recover from a parity error in main memory. As a short-term fix, a driver could simply call **disable_sysad_parity()** in the *pxinit()* or *pxedtinit()* entry point.

It is much better to disable parity checking only during the time the device is being used. The advantage here is that the software recovery procedures for memory parity errors are almost always in effect.

To selectively disable parity checking, put wrappers around your driver's PIO transactions to disable SysAD parity checking before a transfer, and to re-enable it after the PIO completes. Example 19-5 shows a skeleton of such a wrapper.

Example 19-5 Disabling SysAD Parity Checking During PIO

```
void
do_PIO_without_parity()
{
    int was_enabled = is_sysad_parity_enabled();
    if (was_enabled) disable_sysad_parity();
    /* do driver PIO transfers */
    if (was_enabled) enable_sysad_parity();
}
```

The reason that the function in Example 19-5 saves the current state of parity, and only re-enables parity when it was enabled on entry, is that parity checking could have been turned off in some higher-level routine. For example, an interrupt handler could be entered during execution of a device driver function that disables parity checking. If the interrupt handler turned parity checking back on regardless of its former state, errors would occur.

Example GIO Driver

The code in Example 19-6 displays a complete device driver for a hypothetical device. The driver prefix is *gbd* (for “GIO board”).

Example 19-6 Complete Driver for Hypothetical GIO Device

```

/* Source for a hypothetical GIO board device; it can be compiled for
 * devices that support DMA (with or without scatter gather support),
 * or for PIO mode only. This version is designed for IRIX 6.2 or later.
 * Dave Olson, 5/93. 6.2 port by Dave Cortesi 9/95.
 */

/* Compilation: Define the environment variable CPUBOARD as IP20, IP22,
 * or IP26 (the only GIO platforms). Then include the build rules from
 * /var/sysgen/Makefile.kernio to set $CFLAGS including:
#   _K32U32      kernel in 32 bit mode running only 32 bit binaries
#   _K64U64      kernel in 64 bit mode running 32/64 bit binaries (IP26)
#   -DR4000      R4000 machine (IP20, IP22)
#   -DTFP        R8000 machine (IP26)
#   -G 8         global pointer set to 8 (GIO drivers cannot be loadable)
#   -elf         produce an elf executable
 */

/* the following definitions choose between PIO vs DMA supporting
 * boards, and if DMA is supported, whether hardware scatter/gather
 * is supported. */
#define GBD_NODMA      0    /* non-zero for PIO version of driver */
#define GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS 8    /* 0 for no hardware scatter/gather
 * support, else number of pages of
 * scatter/gather per request */

#include <sys/param.h>
#include <sys/system.h>
#include <sys/cpu.h>
#include <sys/buf.h>
#include <sys/cred.h>
#include <sys/uio.h>
#include <sys/ddi.h>
#include <sys/errno.h>
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#include <sys/edt.h>
#include <sys/conf.h> /* for flags D_MP */

/* gbd (for Gio Board) is the driver prefix, specified in the
 * file /var/sysgen/master.d/gbd and in VECTOR module=gbd lines.

```

```
* This driver is multiprocessor-safe (even though no GIO platform
* is a multiprocessor).
*/
int gbddevflags = D_MP;

/* these defines and structures defining the (hypothetical) hardware
* interface would normally be in a separate header file
*/
#define GBD_BOARD_ID    0x75
#define GBD_MASK        0xff    /* use 0xff if using only first byte
* of ID word, use 0xffff if using
* whole ID word
*/

#define GBD_MEMSIZE 0x8000
/* command definitions */
#define GBD_GO 1
/* state definitions */
#define GBD_SLEEPING 1
#define GBD_DONE 2
/* direction of DMA definitions */
#define GBD_READ 0
#define GBD_WRITE 1
/* status defines */
#define GBD_INTR_PEND 0x80

/* device register interface to the board */
typedef struct gbd_device {
    __uint32_t  command;
    __uint32_t  count;
    __uint32_t  direction;
    __uint32_t  offset;
    __uint32_t  status; /* errors, interrupt pending, etc. */
#if (!GBD_NODMA)    /* if hardware DMA */
#if (GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS) /* if hardware scatter/gather */
    /* board register points to array of GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS target
    * addresses in board memory. Board can relocate the array
    * by changing the content of sregisters.
    */
    volatile paddr_t    *sregisters;
#else
    paddr_t    startaddr;
#endif
#endif
} gbd_regs;
```

```

static struct gbd_info {
    gbd_regs    *gbd_device;    /* ->board regs */
    char        *gbd_memory;    /* ->on-board memory */
    sema_t      use_lock;       /* upper-half exclusion from board */
    lock_t      reg_lock;       /* spinlock for interrupt exclusion */
#ifdef GBD_NODMA
    int         gbd_state;      /* transfer state of PIO driver */
    sv_t        intr_wait;      /* sync var for waiting on intr */
#else /* DMA supported somehow */
    buf_t       *curbp;         /* current buf struct */
#endif
#ifdef (0 == GBD_NUM_DMA PGS) /* software scatter/gather */
    caddr_t     curaddr;        /* current address to transfer */
    int         curcount;       /* count being transferred */
    int         totcount;       /* total size this transfer */
#endif
} gbd_globals[2];

void gbdintr(int, struct eframe_s *);

/* early device table initialization routine. Validate the values
 * from a VECTOR line and save in the per-device info structure.
 */
void
gbdedtinit(register edt_t *e)
{
    int slot;                  /* which slot this device is in */
    __uint32_t val = 0; /* board ID value */
    register struct gbd_info *inf;

    /* Check to see if the device is present */
    if(!badaddr(e->e_base, sizeof(__uint32_t)))
        val = *(__uint32_t *) (e->e_base);
    if ((val && GBD_MASK) != GBD_BOARD_ID) {
        if (showconfig) {
            cmn_err (CE_CONT, "gbdedtinit: board not installed.");
        }
        return;
    }

    /* figure out slot from VECTOR base= value */
    if(e->e_base == (caddr_t)0xBF400000)
        slot = GIO_SLOT_0;
    else if(e->e_base == (caddr_t)0xBF600000)
        slot = GIO_SLOT_1;
    else {

```

```
        cmn_err (CE_NOTE,
                "ERROR from edtinit: Bad base address %x\n", e->e_base);
        return;
    }
#if IP20 /* for Indigo R4000, set up board as a realtime bus master */
    setgioconfig(slot,GIO64_ARB_EXP0_RT | GIO64_ARB_EXP0_MST);
#endif
#if (IP22|IP26) /* for Indigo2, set up as a pipelined, realtime bus master */
    setgioconfig(slot,GIO64_ARB_EXP0_RT | GIO64_ARB_EXP0_MST);
#endif
/* Initialize the per-device (per-slot) info, including the
 * device addresses from the edt_t.
 */
inf = &gbd_globals[GIO_SLOT_0 ? 0 : 1];
inf->gbd_device = (struct gbd_device *)e->e_base;
inf->gbd_memory = (char *)e->e_base2;
initsema(&inf->use_lock,1);
spinlock_init(&inf->reg_lock,NULL);
setgiovector(GIO_INTERRUPT_1,slot,gbdintr,0);
if (showconfig) {
    cmn_err (CE_CONT, "gbdedtinit: board %x installed\n", e->e_base);
}
}
/* OPEN: minor number used to select slot. Merely test that
 * the device was initialized.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
gbdopen(dev_t *devp, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *crp)
{
    if(! (gbd_globals[getemisor(*devp)&1].gbd_device) )
        return ENXIO; /* board not present */
    return 0; /* OK */
}
/* CLOSE: Nothing to do. */
/* ARGSUSED */
gbdclose(dev_t dev, int flag, int otyp, cred_t *crp)
{
    return 0;
}
#if (GBD_NODMA) /***** Non-DMA, therefore character, device *****/
/* WRITE: for character device using PIO */
/* READ entry point same except for direction of transfer */
int
gbdwrite(dev_t dev, uio_t *uio)
{
```



```

int unit = getemisor(dev)&1;
struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
int size, err=0, lk;
/* Exclude any other top-half (read/write) user */
psema(&inf->use_lock,PZERO)
/* while there is data to transfer */
while((size=uioc->uioc_resid) > 0) {

    /* Transfer no more than GBD_MEMSIZE bytes per operation */
    size = (size < GBD_MEMSIZE) ? size : GBD_MEMSIZE;

    /* Copy data from user-process memory to board memory.
     * uiomove() updates uioc fields and copies data
     */
    if(! (err=uiomove(inf->gbd_memory, size, UIO_WRITE, uioc)) )
        break;

    /* Block out the interrupt handler with a spinlock, then
     * program the device to start the transfer.
     */
    lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);
    inf->gbd_device->count = size;
    inf->gbd_device->command = GBD_GO;
    inf->gbd_state = GBD_INTR_PEND; /* validate an interrupt */
    /* Give up the spinlock and sleep until gbdintr() signals */
    sv_wait(&inf->intr_wait,PZERO,&inf->reg_lock,lk);
} /* while(size) */
vsema(&inf->use_lock); /* let another process use board */
return err;
}
/* INTERRUPT: for PIO only board */
/* ARGSUSED1 */
void
gbdintr(int unit, struct eframe_s *ef)
{
    register struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
    int lk;
    /* get exclusive use of device regs from upper-half */
    lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);

    /* if the interrupt is not from our device, ignore it */
    if(inf->gbd_device->status & GBD_INTR_PEND) {
        /* MISSING: test device status, clean up after interrupt,
         * post errors into inf->state for upper-half to see.
         */
    }
}

```

```
        /* Provided the upper-half expected this, wake it up */
        if (inf->gbd_state & GBD_INTR_PEND)
            sv_signal(&inf->intr_wait);
    }
    mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock, lk);
}

#else /***** DMA version of driver *****/

void gbd_strategy(struct buf *);

/* WRITE entry point (for character driver of DMA board).
 * Call uiophysio() to set up and call gbd_strategy routine,
 * where the transfer is actually done.
 */
int
gbdwrite(dev_t dev, uio_t *uiop)
{
    return uiophysio((int (*)())gbd_strategy, 0, dev, B_WRITE, uiop);
}
/* READ entry point same except for direction of transfer */
#if GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS > 0

/* STRATEGY for hardware scatter/gather DMA support.
 * Called from gbdwrite()/gbdread() via physio().
 * Called from file-system/paging code directly.
 */
void
gbd_strategy(register struct buf *bp)
{
    int unit = getemisor(bp->b_edev)&1;
    register struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
    register gbd_regs *regs = inf->gbd_device;
    volatile paddr_t *sgregisters;
    int npages;
    int i, lk;
    caddr_t v_addr;

    /* Get the kernel virtual address of the data. Note that
     * b_dmaaddr is NULL when the BP_ISMAPPED(bp) macro
     * indicates false; in that case, the field bp->b_pages
     * is a pointer to a linked list of pfdat structure
     * pointers; that saves creating a virtual mapping and
     * then decoding that mapping back to physical addresses.
     * BP_ISMAPPED will never be false for character devices,
    */

```

```

* only block devices.
*/
if(!BP_ISMAPPED(bp)) {
    cmn_err(CE_WARN, "gbd driver can't handle unmapped buffers");
    bp->b_flags |= B_ERROR;
    iodone(bp);
    return;
}
v_addr = bp->b_dmaaddr;

/* Compute number of pages affected by this request.
* The numpages() macro (sysmacros.h) returns the number of pages
* that span a given length starting at a given address, allowing
* for partial pages. Unrealistically, we limit this to the
* number of scatter/gather registers on board.
* Note that this sample driver doesn't handle the
* case of requests > than # of registers!
*/
npages = numpages (v_addr, bp->b_bcount);
if(npages > GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS) {
    bp->b_resid = IO_NBPP * (npages - GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS);
    npages = GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS;
    cmn_err(CE_WARN,
        "request too large, only %d pages max", npages);
}

/* Get exclusive upper-half use of device. The sema is released
* wherever iodone() is called, here or in the int handler.
*/
psema(&inf->use_lock, PZERO)
inf->curbp = bp;

/* Get exclusive use of the device regs, blocking the int handler */
lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);

/* MISSING: set up board to transfer npages discreet segments. */
/* Get address of the scatter-gather registers */
sgregisters = regs->sgregisters;

/* Provide the beginning byte offset and count to the device. */
regs->offset = io_poff(bp->b_dmaaddr); /* in immu.h */
regs->count = (IO_NBPP - inf->gbd_device->offset)
    + (npages-1)*IO_NBPP;

/* Translate the virtual address of each page to a

```

```
    * physical page number and load it into the next
    * scatter-gather register. The btoc(K) macro
    * converts the byte value to a page value after
    * rounding down the byte value to a full page.
    */
    for (i = 0; i < npages; i++) {
        *sgregisters++ = btoc(kvtophys(v_addr));
        v_addr += IO_NBPP;
    }

    if ((bp->b_flags & B_READ) == 0)
        regs->direction = GBD_WRITE;
    else
        regs->direction = GBD_READ;
    regs->command = GBD_GO; /* start DMA */

    /* release use of the device regs to the interrupt handler */
    mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock, lk);

    /* and return; upper layers of kernel wait for iodone(bp) */
}

/* INTERRUPT: for hardware DMA support. This is over-simplified
 * because the above strategy routine never accepts a transfer
 * larger than the device can handle in a single operation.
 */
/* ARGSUSED1 */
void
gbdintr(int unit, struct eframe_s *ef)
{
    register struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
    register gbd_regs *regs = inf->gbd_device;
    int error = 0;
    int lk;

    /* get exclusive use if device regs from upper-half */
    lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);

    /* If interrupt was not from this device, exit quick */
    if (! (regs->status & GBD_INTR_PEND) ) {
        mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock, lk);
        return;
    }

    /* MISSING: read board registers, clear interrupt,
```

```

    * and note any errors in the "error" variable. */
if(error)
    inf->curbp->b_flags |= B_ERROR;

/* release lock on exclusive use of device regs */
mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock,lk);

/* wake up any kernel/file-system waiting for this I/O */
iodone(inf->curbp);

/* unlock use of device to other upper-half driver code */
vsema(&inf->use_lock);
}

#else /*****  GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS == 0; no hardware scatter/gather *****/

/* STRATEGY: for software-controlled scatter/gather.
 * Called from the gbdwrite() routine via uiophysio().
 */
void
gbd_strategy(struct buf *bp)
{
    int unit = geteminor(bp->b_edev)&1;
    register struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
    register gbd_regs *regs = inf->gbd_device;
    int lk;

    /* Get the kernel virtual address of the data; note
     * b_dmaaddr may be NULL if the BP_ISMAPPED(bp) macro
     * indicates false; in that case, the field bp->b_pages
     * is a pointer to a linked list of pfdat structure
     * pointers; that saves creating a virtual mapping and
     * then decoding that mapping back to physical addresses.
     * BP_ISMAPPED will never be false for character devices,
     * only block devices.
     */
    if(!BP_ISMAPPED(bp)) {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "gbd driver can't handle unmapped buffers");
        bp->b_flags |= B_ERROR;
        iodone(bp);
        return;
    }

    /* Get exclusive upper-half use of device. The sema is released
     * wherever iodone() is called, here or in the int handler.

```

```
    */
    psema(&inf->use_lock, PZERO)
    inf->curbp = bp;

    /* Initialize the current transfer address and count.
     * The first transfer should finish the rest of the
     * page, but do no more than the total byte count.
     */
    inf->curaddr = bp->b_dmaaddr;
    inf->totcount = bp->b_bcount;
    inf->curcount = IO_NBPP - io_poff(inf->curaddr);
    if (bp->b_bcount < inf->curcount)
        inf->curcount = bp->b_bcount;

    /* Get exclusive use of the device regs and start the transfer
     * of the first/only segment of data. */
    lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);
    regs->startaddr = kvtophys(inf->curaddr);
    regs->count = inf->curcount;
    regs->direction = (bp->b_flags & B_READ) ? GBD_READ : GBD_WRITE;
    regs->command = GBD_GO; /* start DMA */

    /* release use of the device regs to the interrupt handler */
    mutex_spinunlock(inf->reg_lock, lk);
    /* and return; upper layers of kernel wait for iodone(bp) */
}

/* INTERRUPT: for software scatter/gather. This version is more typical
 * of boards that do have DMA, and more typical of devices that support
 * block i/o, as opposed to character i/o.
 */
/* ARGSUSED1 */
void
gbdintr(int unit, struct eframe_s *ef)
{
    register struct gbd_info *inf = &gbd_globals[unit];
    register gbd_regs *regs = inf->gbd_device;
    register buf_t *bp = inf->curbp;
    int error = 0;
    int lk;

    /* get exclusive use if device regs from upper-half */
    lk = mutex_spinlock(&inf->reg_lock);
```

```
/* If interrupt was not from this device, exit quick */
if (! (regs->status & GBD_INTR_PEND) ) {
    mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock,lk);
    return;
}

/* MISSING: read board registers, clear interrupt,
 * and note any errors in the "error" variable. */
if(error) {
    bp->b_resid = inf->totcount; /* show bytes undone */
    bp->b_flags |= B_ERROR; /* flag error in transfer */
    iodone(bp); /* we are done, tell upper layers */
    vsema(&inf->use_lock); /* make device available */
}
else {
    /* Note the successful transfer of one segment. */
    inf->curaddr += inf->curcount;
    inf->totcount -= inf->curcount;
    if(inf->totcount <= 0) {
        iodone(bp); /* we are done, tell upper layers */
        vsema(&inf->use_lock); /* make device available */
    }
    else {
        /* More data to transfer. Reprogram the board for
         * the next segment and start the next DMA.
         */
        inf->curcount = (inf->totcount < IO_NBPP) ? inf->totcount : IO_NBPP;
        regs->startaddr = kvtophys(inf->curaddr);
        regs->count = inf->curcount;
        regs->direction = (bp->b_flags & B_READ) ? GBD_READ : GBD_WRITE;
        regs->command = GBD_GO; /* start next DMA */
    }
}
/* release lock on exclusive use of device regs */
mutex_spinunlock(&inf->reg_lock,lk);
}
#endif /* GBD_NUM_DMA_PGS */
#endif /* GBD_NODMA */
```


PART NINE

PCI Drivers

Chapter 20, "PCI Device Attachment"

Overview of the architecture of the PCI bus attachment in different Silicon Graphics systems.

Chapter 21, "Services for PCI Drivers"

Discusses the services offered by the kernel to PCI device drivers.

PCI Device Attachment

The Peripheral Component Interconnect (PCI) bus, initially designed at Intel Corp, is standardized by the PCI Bus Interest Group, a nonprofit consortium of vendors (see “Standards Documents” on page xl and “Internet Resources” on page xl).

The PCI bus is designed as a high-performance local bus to connect peripherals to memory and a microprocessor. In many personal computers based on Intel and Motorola processors, the PCI bus is the primary system bus. A wide range of vendors make devices that plug into the PCI bus.

The PCI bus is supported by the O2 and OCTANE workstations, by the Origin2000 architecture, and by the Origin200 deskside systems. This chapter contains the following topics related to support for the PCI bus:

- “PCI Bus in Silicon Graphics Workstations” on page 704 gives an overview of PCI bus features and implementation.
- “PCI Implementation in O2 Workstations” on page 710 describes the hardware features and restrictions of the PCI bus in low-end workstations.
- “PCI Implementation in Origin Servers” on page 714 describes the features of the PCI implementation in larger architectures.

More information about PCI device control appears in these chapters:

- Chapter 4, “User-Level Access to Devices,” covers PIO and DMA access from the user process.
- Chapter 21, “Services for PCI Drivers,” discusses the kernel services used by a kernel-level VME device driver, and contains an example.

PCI Bus in Silicon Graphics Workstations

This section contains an overview of the main features of PCI hardware attachment, for use as background material for software designers. Hardware designers can obtain a detailed technical paper on PCI hardware through the Silicon Graphics Developer Program (it appears in the Developer Toolbox 6.1 CDROM, and is also available separately). Important design issues such as device latencies, power supply capacities, card dimensions, interrupt line wiring, and bus arbitration are covered in great detail in that paper.

PCI Bus and System Bus

In no Silicon Graphics system is the PCI bus the primary system bus. The primary system bus is always a proprietary bus that connects one or more CPUs with high-performance graphics adapters and main memory:

The PCI bus adapter is connected (or “bridged,” in PCI terminology) to the system bus, as shown in Figure 20-1.

- In the O2 workstation, the primary system bus is a high-bandwidth connection between the CPU, memory, and the display hardware (whose bandwidth requirements are almost as high as the CPU’s).
- In the OCTANE workstation, the PCI bus adapter is bridged to the XIO bus adapter, which is in turn a client of the system crossbar for access to the CPU or memory.
- In the Origin series, the PCI bus adapter is bridged to the XIO bus adapter, which in turn connects to a Hub chip for access to memory in the local module and to the Cray interconnection fabric for access to memory in other modules.

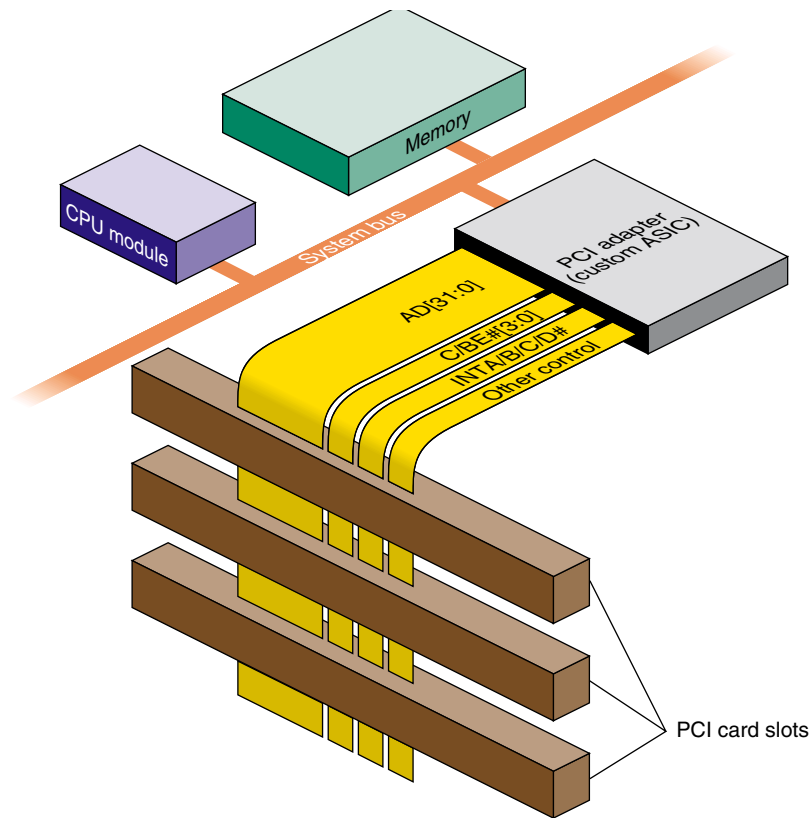


Figure 20-1 PCI Bus In Relation to System Bus

The PCI adapter is a custom circuit with these main functions:

- To act as a PCI bus target when a PCI bus master requests a read or write to memory
- To act as a PCI bus master when a CPU requests a PIO operation
- To manage PCI bus arbitration, allocating bus use to devices as they request it
- To interface PCI interrupt signals to the system bus and the CPU

Different SGI systems have different PCI adapter ASICs. Although all adapters conform to the PCI standard level 2.1, there are significant differences between them in capacities, in optional features such as support for the 64-bit extension, and in performance details such as memory-access latencies.

Buses, Slots, Cards, and Devices

A system may contain one or more PCI bus adapters. Each bus connects one or more physical *packages*. The PCI standard allows up to 32 physical packages on a bus. A “package” may consist of a card plugged into a slot on the bus. However, a “package” can also consist of an internal chipset mounted directly on the system board, using the PCI bus and occupying one or more virtual slots on the bus. For example, the SCSI adapter in the O2 workstation occupies the first two virtual slots of the PCI bus in that system.

Each physical package can implement from one to eight *functions*. A PCI function is an independent device with its own configuration registers in PCI configuration space, and its own address decoders.

In Silicon Graphics systems, each PCI *function* is integrated into IRIX as a *device*. A PCI device driver manages one or more devices in this sense. A driver does not manage a particular package, or card, or bus slot; it manages one or more logical devices.

Note: IRIX 6.3 for the O2 workstation supports multifunction cards. However, IRIX 6.4 for Origin, Onyx2, and OCTANE does not support multifunction cards. Support for multifunction cards returns for all hardware platforms with IRIX 6.5.

Architectural Implications

All Silicon Graphics PCI implementations permit peer-to-peer transactions, in which two PCI devices exchange data without the involvement of the bus adapter except as arbitrator. However, most PCI transactions take place between a PCI device and system memory, by way of the bus adapter.

Two important facts about PCI-to-memory transaction are, first, that memory is not located on the PCI bus and in fact, the PCI bus competes for the use of memory with the CPU and other devices on the system bus; and second, that memory in SGI systems is organized around cache lines of 128 bytes. When a PCI device initiates a read to memory, the bus adapter requests a cache line from memory, and returns the addressed word from that line. When a PCI device initiates a write to memory, the bus adapter fetches the addressed line; stores successive words into it until the operation ends or another line is addressed; and writes the line back to memory.

Some important implications follow:

- The latency of access to the first byte or word in a cache line can be long—in the range of multiple microseconds, if the system bus is heavily used.
- Access to subsequent words in the same cache line can go at maximum bus speed.

A PCI bus master that attempts to read small fields scattered in memory will be constrained to run at the rate at which the PCI adapter can fetch entire cache lines from memory. A PCI bus master that attempts to write small fields scattered in memory will be constrained even further, to the rate at which the PCI adapter can perform read-modify-write cycles of entire cache lines.

A device that performs streaming access to consecutive locations can operate at good speed, once the initial latency period is past. However, a streaming device must have enough on-card buffer capacity to hold data during the maximum latency.

These issues of latency are discussed in much greater detail in a document available from the Silicon Graphics developer support organization.

Byte Order Considerations

The order of bytes in a word, also called “endianness,” is in conflict between PCI devices and MIPS-based software. MIPS-based software is “big-endian,” placing the most significant byte (MSB) of a 32-bit word at the lowest (“leftmost”) address. Devices made for the PCI bus typically use “little-endian,” or Intel, byte ordering, in which the MSB is at the highest address. Whether the bus hardware should perform byte-swapping to compensate is a difficult question with no universal answer. The question is complicated by the facts that in some systems, PCI data passes through more than one bus adapter between the device and memory, and the default settings of the byte-swapping hardware is different between different SGI platforms.

When considering byte order, you must consider the intended use of the data (user data or driver command/status), and the method (PIO or DMA, which use different hardware).

Byte Order in Data Transfers

When considering only a stream of bytes being transferred between memory and some kind of storage medium—for example, a block of data being read or written from a tape—the byte order of the device is not significant. The system writes the stream; later

the system reads the stream back. As long as the bus treats the data the same way on input as on output, the data returns to memory in the same order it had when it left.

What you want to ensure is that, if the storage medium is transferred to a PCI device on another machine, the same sequence of bytes will arrive in the other machine's memory. This is the best you can do toward compatibility between big-ending and little-endian programs—preserving memory byte order. Interpretation of binary items embedded within the byte stream is a problem for the software.

Byte Order in Command and Status Transfers

When considering data that is interpreted by the device driver and by the PCI device—for example, the contents of a device status register, or words giving the address and length of a DMA transfer—byte order does matter. You have to know if your device uses little-endian binary integers, and you have to ensure that an integer (count or address) is byte-swapped, if necessary, on the way to the device so that the device will interpret it correctly.

Byte Order for PIO

The PCI adapters are set up so that when a driver does 32-bit PIO to 32-bit boundaries, a 32-bit count or address is translated correctly between big-endian and little-endian forms. This is shown in Table 20-1.

Table 20-1 PIO Byte Order in 32-bit Transfer

Byte On System Bus	IRIX Use	Byte on PCI Bus
0	MSB	3
1		2
2		1
3	LSB	0

PCI configuration space is accessed using PIO. You can declare a memory copy of configuration space as shown in Example 20-1.

Example 20-1 Declaration of Memory Copy of Configuration Space

```

typedef struct configData_s { /* based on PCI standard */
    unsigned short vendorID, deviceID; /* order reversed */
    unsigned short command, status; /* order reversed */
    unsigned char revID, prog_if, subclass, class; /* reversed */
    unsigned char cacheSize, latency, hdrType, BIST; /* reversed */
    __uint32_t BAR[6];
    __uint32_t cardbus;
    unsigned short subvendorID, subsystemID; /* reversed */
    __uint32_t eromBAR;
    __uint32_t reserved[2];
    unsigned char intLine, intPin, maxGrant, maxLat; /* reversed */
} configData_t;
typedef union configCopy_u { /* union with word array */
    __uint32_t word[16];
    configData_t cfg;
} configCopy_t;

```

The device driver loads the memory copy by getting 32-bit words using PIO and storing them into the union fields *word*. In the course of each word-copy, byte order is reversed, which preserves the significance value of 32-bit and 16-bit words, but reverses the order of 16-bit and 8-bit subfields within words. The copied data can be accessed from the *configData_t* structure in the union.

The same approach applies to PIO to the PCI bus memory and I/O address spaces—use 32-bit transfers on 32-bit boundaries for correct logical results on data of 32 bits and less. Alternatively, to perform PIO to a 16-bit or 8-bit unit, take the address from the PIO map and exclusive-OR it with 0x03 to produce the byte-swapped address of the unit.

PIO can be done in 64-bit units as well as 32-bit units. In this case, each 32-bit unit is treated separately. The most-significant 32-bit half of the value is sent first, and is stored in the lower PCI address. Unfortunately this is not what a PCI device expects in, for example, a 64-bit Base Address Register (BAR). In order to store 64-bit addresses in a PCI register, do one of the following:

- Reverse the order of 32-bit halves in the CPU before storing the 64-bit value.
- Store the 32-bit halves separately, the less-significant half first.

The same problem occurs on input of a 64-bit quantity to a *long long* value: the less-significant word appears in the more-significant half of the received variable.

Byte Order for DMA

A driver prepares for DMA access by creating a DMA map (see “Using DMA Maps” on page 735). When a map is allocated, you specify one of two flags: `PCI_BYTE_STREAM` or `PCI_WORD_VALUES`. All transfers through the map are appropriate for either a data stream or a command stream, as requested.

PCI Implementation in O2 Workstations

In the O2 workstation, a proprietary system bus connects the CPU, multimedia devices (audio, video, and graphics) and main memory. Multimedia use is a central focus of this workstation’s design, and audio and video devices have highest priority, after the CPU, for bandwidth on the system bus.

The PCI bus adapter interfaces one PCI bus to this system bus. The PCI bus adapter is a unit on the system bus, on a par with other devices. The PCI bus adapter competes with the CPU and with multimedia I/O for the use of main memory.

The built-in SCSI adapter, which is located on the main system board, is logically connected to the PCI bus and takes the place of the first two “slots” on the PCI bus, so that the first actual slot is number 2.

Unsupported PCI Signals

In the O2, the PCI adapter implements a standard, 32-bit PCI bus operating at 33 MHz. The following optional signal lines are not supported.

- The `LOCK#` signal is ignored; atomic access to memory is not supported.
- The cache-snoop signals `SBO#` and `SDONE` are ignored. Cache coherency must be ensured by the driver.
- The JTAG signals are not supported.

Configuration Register Initialization

When the IRIX kernel probes the PCI bus and finds an active device, it initializes the device configuration registers as follows:

Command Register	The enabling bits for I/O Access, Memory Access, and Master are set to 1. Other bits, such as Memory Write and Invalidate and Fast Back-to-Back are left at 0.
Cache Line Size	0x20 (32, 32-bit words, or 128 bytes).
Latency Timer	0x30 (48 clocks, 1.45 microseconds).
Base Address registers	Each register that requests memory or I/O address space is programmed with a starting address. In the O2 system, memory addresses are always greater than 0x8000 0000.

The device driver is free to set any other configuration parameters when attaching the device.

Caution: If the driver changes the contents of a Base Address Register, the results are unpredictable. Don't do this.

Address Spaces Supported

The relationship between the PCI bus address space and the system memory physical address space differs from one system type to another.

64-bit Address and Data Support

The O2 PCI adapter supports 64-bit data transfers, but not 64-bit addressing. All bus addresses are 32 bits, that is, all PCI bus virtual addresses are in the 4 GB range. The Dual Address Cycle (DAC) command is not supported (or needed).

The 64-bit extension signals AD[63:32], C/BE#[7:4], REQ64# and ACK64# are pulled up as required by the PCI standard.

When the PCI bus adapter operates as a bus master (as it does when implementing a PIO load or store for the CPU), the PCI adapter generates 32-bit data cycles.

When the PCI bus adapter operates as a bus target (as it does when a PCI bus master transfers data using DMA), the PCI adapter does not respond to REQ64#, and hence 64-bit data transfers are accomplished in two, 32-bit, data phases as described in the PCI specification.

PIO Address Mapping

For PIO purposes (CPU load and store access to a device), memory space defined by each PCI device in its configuration registers is allocated in the upper two gigabytes of the PCI address space, above 0x8000 0000. These addresses are allocated dynamically, based on the contents of the configuration registers of active devices. The I/O address space requested by each PCI device in its configuration registers is also allocated dynamically as the system comes up. Device drivers get a virtual address to use for PIO to any address space by creating a PIO map (see “Using PIO Maps” on page 723).

It is possible for a PCI device to request (in the initial state of its Base Address Registers) that its address space be allocated in the first 1 MB of the PCI bus. This request cannot be honored in the O2 workstation. Devices that cannot decode bus addresses above 0x8000 0000 are not supported.

PIO access to configuration space is supported. However, drivers must not only create a PIO map, but must use kernel functions instead of simply loading and storing to a translated address.

DMA Address Mapping

The O2 workstation supports a 1 GB physical memory address space (30 bits of physical address used). Any part of physical address space can be mapped into PCI bus address space for purposes of DMA access from a PCI bus master device. The device driver ensures correct mapping through the use of a DMA map object (see “Using DMA Maps” on page 735).

Slot Priority and Bus Arbitration

Two devices that are built into the workstation take the positions of PCI bus slots 0 and 1. Actual bus slots begin with slot 2 and go up to a maximum of slot 4 (the built-in devices and a design maximum of three physical slots).

The PCI adapter maintains two priority groups. The lower-priority group is arbitrated in round-robin style. The higher-priority group uses fixed priorities based on slot number, with the higher-numbered slot having the higher fixed priority.

The IRIX kernel assigns slots to priority groups dynamically by storing values in an adapter register. There is no kernel interface for changing this priority assignment. The audio and the available PCI slots are in the higher priority group.

Interrupt Signal Distribution

The PCI adapter can present eight unique interrupt signals to the system CPU. The IRIX kernel uses these interrupt signals to distinguish between the sources of PCI bus interrupts. The system interrupt numbers 0 through 7 are distributed across the PCI bus slots as shown in Table 20-2.

Table 20-2 PCI Interrupt Distribution to System Interrupt Numbers

PCI Interrupt	Slot 0 (built-in device)	Slot 1 (built-in device)	Slot 2	Slot 3 (When Present)	Slot 4 (When Present)
INTA#	system 0	n.c.	system 2	system 3	system 4
INTB#	n.c.	system 1	system 5	system 7	system 6
INTC#	n.c.	n.c.	system 6	system 5	system 7
INTD#	n.c.	n.c.	system 7	system 6	system 5

Each physical PCI slot has a unique system interrupt number for its INTA# signal. The INTB#, INTC#, and INTD# signals are connected in a spiral pattern to three system interrupt numbers.

PCI Implementation in Origin Servers

In the Origin2000, Onyx2, and Origin200 systems, the PCI adapter bridges to the XIO bus, a high-speed I/O bus. This joins the PCI bus into the connection fabric, so any PCI bus can be addressed from any module, and any PCI bus can access memory that is physically located in any module. In the OCTANE workstation, the same PCI adapter ASIC is used to bridge the PCI bus to a proprietary system bus.

Latency and Operation Order

In these systems the multimedia features have substantial local resources, so that contention with multimedia for the use of main memory is lower than in the O2 workstation. However, these systems also have multiple CPUs and multiple layers of address translation, and these factors can introduce latencies in PCI transactions.

It is important to understand that there is no guaranteed order of execution between separate PCI transactions in these systems. There can be multiple hardware layers between the CPU, memory, and the device. One or more data transactions can be “in flight” for durations that are significant. For example, suppose that a PCI bus master device completes the last transfer of a DMA write of data to memory, and then executes a DMA write to update a status flag elsewhere in memory. Under circumstances that are unusual but not impossible, the status in memory can be updated, and acted upon by software, while the data transaction is still “in flight” and has not completely arrived in memory. The same can be true of a PIO read that polls the device—it can return “complete” status from the device while data sent by DMA has yet to reach memory.

Ordering is guaranteed when interrupts are used. An interrupt handler is not executed until all writes initiated by the interrupting device have completed.

Unsupported PCI Signals

In these larger systems, the PCI adapter implements a standard, 64-bit PCI bus operating at 33 MHz. The following optional signal lines are not supported.

- The LOCK# signal is ignored; atomic access to memory is not supported.
- The cache-snoop signals SBO# and SDONE are ignored. Cache coherency is ensured by the PCI adapter and the memory architecture, with assistance by the driver.

Configuration Register Initialization

When the IRIX 6.5 kernel probes the PCI bus and finds an active device, it initializes the device configuration registers as follows:

Command Register	The enabling bits for I/O Access, Memory Access, and Master are set to 1. Other bits, such as Memory Write and Invalidate and Fast Back-to-Back are left at 0.
Cache Line Size	0x20 (32, 32-bit words, or 128 bytes).
Latency Timer	0x30 (48 clocks, or 1.45 us).
Base Address registers	Each register that requests memory or I/O address space is programmed with a starting address. Under IRIX 6.5, memory space addresses are below 0x4000 0000.

The device driver is free to set any other configuration parameters when attaching the device.

Caution: If the driver changes the contents of a Base Address Register, the results are unpredictable. Don't do this.

Address Spaces Supported

In these systems, addresses are translated not once but at least twice and sometimes more often between the CPU and the device, or between the device and memory. Also, some of the logic for features such as prefetching and byte-swapping is controlled by the use of high-order address bits. There is no simple function on a physical memory address that yields a PCI bus address (nor vice-versa). It is essential that device driver use PIO and DMA maps (see Chapter 21, "Services for PCI Drivers").

64-bit Address and Data Support

These systems support 64-bit data transactions. Use of 64-bit data transactions results in best performance.

The PCI adapter accepts 64-bit addresses produced by a bus master device. The PCI adapter does not generate 64-bit addresses itself (because the PCI adapter generates addresses only to implement PIO transactions, and PIO targets are always located in 32-bit addresses).

PIO Address Mapping

For PIO purposes, memory space defined by each PCI device in its configuration registers is allocated in the lowest gigabyte of PCI address space, below 0x400 0000. These addresses are allocated dynamically, based on the contents of the configuration registers of active devices. The I/O address space requested by each PCI device in its configuration registers is also allocated dynamically as the system comes up. A driver can request additional PCI I/O or Memory space when the device uses space beyond that described by its configuration registers.

Device drivers get a virtual address to use for PIO in any address space by creating a PIO map (see “Using PIO Maps” on page 723).

It is possible for a PCI device to request (in the initial state of its Base Address Registers) that its address space be allocated in the first 1 MB of the PCI bus. This request is honored in larger systems (it cannot be honored in the O2 workstation, as noted under “PCI Implementation in O2 Workstations” on page 710).

PIO access to configuration space is supported. However, drivers use kernel functions instead of simply loading and storing to a translated address.

DMA Address Mapping

Any part of physical address space can be mapped into PCI bus address space for purposes of DMA access from a PCI bus master device. As described under “Address Space Usage in Origin2000 Systems” on page 25, the Origin2000 architecture uses a 40-bit physical address, of which some bits designate a node board. The PCI adapter sets up a translation between an address in PCI memory space and a physical address, which can refer to a different node from the one to which the PCI bus is attached.

The device driver ensures correct mapping through the use of a DMA map object (see “Using DMA Maps” on page 735).

If the PCI device supports only 32-bit addresses, DMA addresses can be established in 32-bit PCI space. When this requested, extra mapping hardware is used to map a window of 32-bit space into the 40-bit memory space. These mapping registers are limited in number, so it is possible that a request for DMA translation could fail. For this reason it is preferable to use 64-bit DMA mapping when the device supports it.

When the device supports 64-bit PCI bus addresses for DMA, the PCI adapter can use a simpler mapping method from a 64-bit address into the target 40-bit address, and there is less chance of contention for mapping hardware. The device driver must request a 64-bit DMA map, and must program the device with 64-bit values.

Bus Arbitration

The PCI adapter maintains two priority groups, the real-time group and the low-priority group. Both groups are arbitrated in round-robin style. Devices in the real-time group always have priority for use of the bus. There is no kernel interface for changing the priority of a device.

Interrupt Signal Distribution

There are two unique interrupt signals on each PCI bus. The INTA# and INTC# signals are wired together, and the INTB# and INTD# signals are wired together. A PCI device that uses two distinct signals must use INTA and INTB, or INTC and INTD. A device that needs more than two signals can use the additional signal lines, but such a device must also provide a register from which the device driver can learn the cause of the interrupt.

Services for PCI Drivers

The IRIX 6.5 kernel provides a uniform interface for managing a PCI device. The functions in this interface are covered in this chapter under the following headings:

- “IRIX 6.5 PCI Drivers” on page 720 summarizes important information comparing previous versions IRIX device drivers with those for IRIX 6.5.
- “About PCI Drivers” on page 720 summarizes the entry points and main activities of a PCI driver.
- “Using PIO Maps” on page 723 discusses the kernel functions to allocate and use PIO maps.
- “Using DMA Maps” on page 735 discusses the kernel functions to allocate and use PIO maps.
- “Registering an Interrupt Handler” on page 740 discusses the kernel functions used to register and unregister an interrupt handler for a PCI device.
- “Registering an Error Handler” on page 744 summarizes the method of associating an error handler function with a device.
- “Interrogating a PCI Device” on page 746 lists the functions you can use to query device status.
- “Example PCI Driver” on page 747 displays a simple, skeletal PCI driver.

IRIX 6.5 PCI Drivers

This section discusses changes made to PCI driver support for IRIX 6.5 and refers to the appropriate sections of the manual for more information.

- If your driver is to be compiled for the IP32 (O2) platform, refer to “PCI Drivers for the O2 (IP32) Platform” on page 732
- Values of flags `PCIIO_DMA_CMD` and `PCIIO_DMA_DATA` have changed. See “Setting Flag Values” on page 737 for details.
- `PCIIO_PIO_MAP_*` defines are being replaced by `PCIIO_SPACE_*` defines. Refer to “Selecting the Address Space” on page 726 for details.
- `pciio_config_{get,set}` interfaces are defined as described in “Changes In Configuration Interface” on page 730.
- `pciio_pio_mapsz` now returns a *ulong*. See “Interrogating PIO Maps” on page 732

About PCI Drivers

A PCI device driver is a kernel-level device driver that has the general structure described in Chapter 7, “Structure of a Kernel-Level Driver.” It uses the driver/kernel interface described in Chapter 8, “Device Driver/Kernel Interface.” A PCI driver can be loadable or it can be linked with the kernel. In general it is configured into IRIX as described in Chapter 9, “Building and Installing a Driver.”

PCI hardware configuration is more dynamic than the configuration of the VME or EISA buses. With other types of bus, the administrator describes the device configuration using VECTOR statements and the configuration is static. IRIX support for the PCI bus is designed to allow support for dynamic reconfiguration. A PCI driver can be designed to allow devices to be attached and detached at any time.

The general sequence of operations of a PCI driver is as follows:

1. In the `pxinit()` entry point, the driver prepares any global variables.
2. In the `pxreg()` entry point, the driver calls a kernel function to register itself as a PCI driver, specifying the kind of device it supports.
3. When the kernel discovers a device of this type, it calls the `pxattach()` entry point of the driver.
4. In the normal upper-half entry points such as `pxopen()`, `pxread()`, and `pxstrategy()`, the driver operates the device and transfers data.

5. If the kernel learns that the device is being detached, the kernel calls the driver's `pxdetach()` entry point. The driver undoes the work done in by `pxattach()`.

A PCI driver uses a number of PCI-related kernel functions that are all declared in the header file `sys/PCI/pciio.h`.

About Registration

Registration is a step that lets the kernel know how to associate a device to a driver.

A PCI device identifies itself on the bus by its vendor ID and device ID numbers. The kernel discovers the complement of devices by probing the bus. When it finds a device, the kernel needs to associate it with a driver. With other types of bus, the association between a device and a driver is entered by the system administrator in a static configuration file. For PCI devices, the kernel looks through a list of drivers that have registered as supporting PCI devices of particular types.

Your driver registers by calling the `pciio_driver_register()` function (see reference page `pciio(d3)`). This call specifies the PCI vendor ID and device ID numbers as they appear in the PCI configuration space of any device that this driver can support. The third argument is the driver's prefix string as configured in its descriptive file (see "Describing the Driver in `/var/sysgen/master.d`" on page 260). The kernel uses this string to find the addresses of the driver's `pxattach()` and `pxdetach()` entry points.

Example 21-1 shows a hypothetical example of driver registration. This fragmentary example also shows how a driver can register multiple times to handle multiple combinations of vendor ID and device ID.

Example 21-1 Driver Registration

```
int hypo_reg()
{
    ret = pciio_driver_register(HYPO_VENID, HYPO_DEVID1, "hypo_", 0);
    if (!ret)
    {
        cmn_err(CE_WARN, "error %d registering devid %d", ret, HYPO_DEVID1);
        return ret;
    }
    ret = pciio_driver_register(HYPO_VENID, HYPO_DEVID2, "hypo_", 0);
    if (!ret)...
```

In a loadable driver, you must call `pciio_driver_register()` from the `pxreg()` entry point. In a nonloadable driver, you can make the call from `pxinit()` if you prefer, but the driver might not then work if someone later tries to make it loadable.

Wherever you call the function, be aware that, if there is an available device of the specified type, `pxattach()` can be called immediately, before the `pci_driver_register()` function returns. In a multiprocessor, `pxattach()` can be called concurrently with the return of `pci_driver_register()` and following code.

About Attaching a Device

The duties and actions of the `pxattach()` entry point are discussed in detail in “Entry Point attach()” on page 153 and under “Hardware Graph Management” on page 221. In summary, at this time the driver

- Creates hwgraph vertexes to represent the device
- Allocates and initializes a data structure to hold per-device information
- Allocates PIO maps and (optionally) DMA maps to use in addressing the device
- If necessary, registers an interrupt handler
- If necessary, registers an error handler
- Initializes the device itself

The allocation and use of PIO and DMA maps, and the registration of an interrupt handler, are covered in detail in following topics.

The argument to `pxattach()` is a hwgraph vertex handle that represents the “connection point” of the device—usually the bus slot. The driver builds more vertexes connected to this one to represent the logical device. However, the handle of the connection point is needed in several kernel functions, and it should be saved as part of the device information.

The return code from `pxattach()` is tested by the kernel. The driver can reject an attachment. When your driver cannot allocate memory, or fails due to another problem, it should:

- Use `cmn_err()` to document the problem (see “Using `cmn_err`” on page 274)
- Release any objects such as PIO and DMA maps that were created

- Release any space allocated to the device such as a device information structure
- Return an informative return code

The *pfxdetach()* entry point can only be called if the *pfxattach()* entry point returns success (0).

More than one driver can register to support the same vendor ID and device ID. The order in which drivers are called to attach a device is not defined. When the first-called driver fails to complete the attachment, the kernel continues on to test the next, until all have refused or one accepts.

About Unloading

When a loadable PCI driver is called at its *pfxunload()* entry point, indicating that the kernel would like to unload it, the driver must take pains not to leave any dangling pointers (as discussed under “Entry Point unload()” on page 180). A driver should not unload when it has any registered interrupt or error handlers.

A driver does not have to unregister itself as a PCI driver before unloading. Nor does it have to detach any devices it has attached. However, if any devices are open or memory mapped, the driver should not unload.

If the driver has been autoregistered (see “Registration” on page 267), stub functions are placed in the switch tables for the attach and open functions. When the kernel discovers a new device and wants this driver to attach it, or when a process attempts to open a device for which this driver created the vertex, the kernel reloads the driver.

Using PIO Maps

You use a PIO map to establish a mapping between a kernel virtual address and some portion of PCI bus memory space, configuration space, or I/O space so that the CPU can load and store into the PCI bus. Depending on the machine architecture, the mapping may be a simple, linear translation, or it may require the kernel to program hardware registers in one or more bus adapters. The software interface is the same in all cases.

You cannot program a PCI device without at least one PIO map and you might allocate several. Typically you store the handles of the allocated maps in the device information structure; and you store the address of the device information structure in turn in the hwgraph vertex for the device.

In summary, a PIO map is used as follows:

1. Allocate it with **pciio_piomap_alloc()**.
2. Activate the map and extract a translated address using **pciio_piomap_addr()**. Use the translated address to fetch or store.
3. Deactivate the map using **pciio_piomap_done()**, when the map will be kept but will not be used for some time.
4. Release the map with **pciio_piomap_free()**.

PIO Mapping Functions

The functions that are used to create and apply PIO maps are summarized in Table 21-1. For syntax details see the reference page `pciio_pio(d3)`.

Table 21-1 Functions for PIO Maps for the PCI Bus

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_piomap_alloc()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Create a PIO map object, specifying the bus address space, base offset, and length it needs to cover.
<code>pciio_piomap_addr()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Get a kernel virtual address from a PIO map for a specific offset and length.
<code>pciio_piomap_done()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Make a PIO map inactive until it is next needed (may release hardware resources associated to the map).
<code>pciio_piomap_free()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Release a PIO map object.
<code>pciio_piotrans_addr()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Request immediate translation of a bus address to a kernel virtual address without use of a PIO map. Returns NULL unless this system supports fixed PIO addressing.
<code>pciio_pio_addr()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Attempt immediate translation, but allocate a PIO map if necessary.

Table 21-1 Functions for PIO Maps for the PCI Bus

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_piospace_alloc()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Reserve a segment of PCI bus memory or I/O space.
<code>pciio_piospace_free()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Release a segment of PCI bus memory or I/O space.

Allocating PIO Maps

You create a PIO map using `pciio_piomap_alloc()`. Its arguments are as follows (see also reference page `pciio_pio(d3)`):

<i>vhdl</i>	The connection-point <i>vertex_hdl_t</i> received by the <code>pfattach()</code> routine. This handle identifies the device to the kernel by its bus and slot positions.
<i>dev_desc</i>	Device descriptor structure (see text following).
<i>space</i>	Constant specifying the space to map (see Table 21-2 and text).
<i>addr</i>	Offset within the selected <i>space</i> (typically 0).
<i>size</i>	Span of the total area in <i>space</i> over which this map might be applied.
<i>max</i>	Maximum size of the area that will be mapped at any one time.
<i>flags</i>	Optional no-sleep flag.

Example 21-2 shows a function that allocates a PIO map. The address space is passed as an argument, as is the size of the space to map. The function assumes the map should start at offset 0 in the selected space.

Example 21-2 Allocation of PCI PIO Map

```
#include <sys/PCI/pciio.h>
pciio_piomap_t makeMap(vertex_hdl_t connpt, int space, size_t size)
{
    return pciio_piomap_alloc(
        connpt,          /* connection point vertex handle */
        device_desc_default_get(connpt), /* dev_desc_t */
        space,          /* space, typically _WIN(n) */
        0,              /* starting offset */
        size, size,     /* size to map */
        0);             /* sleeping is OK */
}
```

Preparing a `dev_desc_t`

The device descriptor structure type `dev_desc_t` is declared in `iobus.h`, which is included by `pciio.h` (see also reference page `device_desc(d4x)`). In this release there is little that the device driver needs to know about this structure and its contents. The simplest way to get a device descriptor that can be handed to `pciio_piomap_alloc()` is to call `device_desc_default_get()` passing the same connection-point vertex handle, as follows:

```
ret = pciio_piomap_alloc(convh, device_desc_default_get(convh), ...)
```

Selecting the Address Space

The space argument of `pciio_piomap_alloc()` specifies the address space to which this PIO map can apply. The possible choices are summarized in Table 21-2.

Table 21-2 PIO Map Address Space Constants

Constant Name	Meaning
<code>PCIIO_PIOMAP_WIN(n)</code>	The memory space defined by the BAR word <i>n</i> in configuration space. This is the most common type of PIO map base. (See note below.)
<code>PCIIO_PIOSPACE_WIN(n)</code>	The memory space defined by the BAR word <i>n</i> in configuration space. This is the most common type of PIO map base.
<code>PCIIO_SPACE_CFG</code>	The Configuration address space. Direct PIO access to configuration space is supported only in IRIX 6.4—see “Changes In Configuration Interface” on page 730.
<code>PCIIO_SPACE_IO</code>	Map to an absolute <i>addr</i> in the PCI bus I/O address space.
<code>PCIIO_SPACE_MEM</code>	Map to an absolute <i>addr</i> in the PCI bus memory address space. PCI memory space is usually preallocated by the IRIX kernel; use this only when space has been allocated with <code>pciio_piospace_alloc()</code> ; see “Allocating PIO Bus Space” on page 727.

Note: `PCIIO_MAP_*` flags are being replaced by `PCIIO_SPACE_*` flags. Both are still supported but we recommend you change to using `PCIIO_SPACE_*` flags if you have not already done so.

The space selection `PCIIO_PIOMAP_WIN(n)` means that this map is to be based on Base Address Register (BAR) *n*, from 0 through 5, in the PCI configuration space. If this selects a BAR that decodes I/O space, the map is for I/O space. Typically this selects a BAR that

decodes memory space. When the space is defined by a 64-bit base address register, use the lower number that indexes the word that contains the configuration bits.

Note: The PCI infrastructure verifies that a segment of size *max*, starting at *addr*, can be mapped in the specified *space*, based on the device configuration. If this is not possible, the map is not allocated and NULL is returned.

Sizing the Space

The *max* argument sets a limit on the total span of addresses, from lowest to highest, for which this map can ever be used. When the map is always used for the same area, *size* and *max* are the same. When the map can be used for smaller segments within a larger area, *size* is the limit of any single segment and *max* the size of the total extent. The size to be mapped at any one time is specified when you apply `pciio_piomap_addr()` to the allocated map.

Specifying the No-Sleep Flag

The `pciio_piomap_alloc()` function may need to allocate memory. Normally it does so with a function that can sleep if memory is temporarily unavailable. If it is important that the function never sleep, pass `PCIIO_NOSLEEP` in the *flags* argument. When you do this, you must check for a NULL return, indicating that memory was not available.

Allocating PIO Bus Space

When the kernel locates a PCI device on the bus, it allocates the amount of PCI bus Memory and I/O address space that the device requests in its standard configuration registers. You get a PIO map into this preallocated space by allocating a map for space `PCIIO_SPACE_WIN(n)`, specifying the configuration register for that space.

In some cases, a PCI device needs additional memory or I/O space based on device-specific configuration data that is not known to the kernel. You use `pciio_piospace_alloc()` to allocate additional ranges of memory or I/O space to be used by a device. It is up to your driver to program the device to use the allocated space.

When you need to perform PIO to allocated space that is not decoded by the standard BARs, you create a PIO map for space `PCIIO_SPACE_MEM` or `PCIIO_SPACE_IO`, and specify the exact base address that was allocated.

Performing PIO With a PIO Map

After a map has been allocated, it is inactive. The function `pciio_piomap_addr()` activates a map if it is not active, and uses the map to translate an offset within the mapped space to a kernel virtual address.

In some systems, “activating a map” can be a null operation. In other systems, an active PIO map may represent a commitment of limited hardware resources—for example, a mapping register in a bus adapter. The function arguments are as follows (see also reference page `pciio_pio(d3)`):

<i>map</i>	The allocated map to use. The map specifies the address space.
<i>addr</i>	The offset in the mapped space.
<i>size</i>	The number of bytes to be mapped.

If any argument is invalid, or if the map cannot be activated, the returned address is 0. The returned address, when it is not 0, can be used to fetch and store from the PCI bus as if it were memory. An attempt to access beyond the specified *size* might cause a kernel panic or might simply return bad data.

Accessing Memory and I/O Space

PIO access to memory or I/O space follows the same pattern: extract a translated address using `pciio_piomap_addr()`, then use the address as a memory pointer. The function in Example 21-3 encapsulates the process of reading a word based on a map.

Example 21-3 Function to Read Using a Map

```
__uint_32_t mapRefer(pciio_piomap_t map, iopaddr_t offset)
{
    volatile __uint32_t *xaddr; /* word in PCI space */
    xaddr = pciio_piomap_addr(map, offset, sizeof(*xaddr));
    if (xaddr)
        return *xaddr;
    cmn_err(CE_WARN, "Unable to map PCI PIO address");
    return 0xffffffff; /* imitate hardware fault */
}
```

Access to quantities smaller than 32 bits needs special handling. When you access a 16-bit or 8-bit value, the least-significant address bits must reflect the PCI byte-lane enable bits. What this means in practice is that the target address of a 16-bit value must be

exclusive-ored with 0x02, and the target address of an 8-bit value must be exclusive-ored with 0x03. You can do this explicitly, by modifying the word address returned from **pciio_piomap_addr()**. Alternatively you can use the PIO address to base a structure, and in the structure you can invert the positions of bytes and halfwords within words, so that the sum of base and offset has the correct PIO address.

Deactivating an Address and Map

After you extract an address using **pciio_piomap_addr()**, the map is active, supporting the translated address over the span of bytes you specified. The address remains valid only as long as the map supports it.

The address becomes inactive when you call **pciio_piomap_addr()** for a different address or size based on the same map. If you attempt to use an address after the map has changed, a kernel panic can occur.

The map itself remains active until you call either **pciio_piomap_done()** or **pciio_piomap_free()**. In some systems, it costs nothing to keep a PIO map active. In other systems, an active PIO map may tie up global hardware resources. It is a good idea to call **pciio_piomap_done()** when the current address will not be used for some time.

Using One-Step PIO Translation

Some systems also support a one-step translation function, **pciio_piotrans_addr()**. This function takes a combination of the arguments of **pciio_piomap_alloc()** and **pciio_piomap_addr()**, and returns a translated address. In effect, it combines creating a map, using the map, and freeing the map, into a single step (see reference page **pciio_pio(d3)**).

This function can fail in systems that do not use hard-wired bus maps. If you use it, you must test the returned address. If it is 0, the one-step translation failed. The address is invalid, and you must create a PIO map instead.

The two-step process of allocating a map and then interrogating it is more general and works in all systems.

Accessing the Device Configuration

Typically a PCI driver needs to read the device configuration registers and possibly write to them. These are PIO operations, but the interface for performing them has varied between releases.

Changes In Configuration Interface

The hardware to generate PCI configuration cycles differs from one system to another. In all systems, access to configuration space is limited to 32-bit words on 32-bit boundaries. For these and other reasons, configuration access methods have varied from release to release.

- In IRIX 6.3, configuration access was done by obtaining a PIO map address for configuration space and passing it to kernel functions **pciio_config_get()** and **pciio_config_set()**. This is because, in the O2 workstation, configuration cycles are not generated by normal PIO operations. The functions operate the special hardware.
- In IRIX 6.4, you performed configuration access using PIO through a PIO map. This is because, in the hardware supported by IRIX 6.4 (Origin, Onyx2, and Octane), normal PIO access through a map can generate PCI configuration cycles, although only for 32-bit transfers.
- As of this release, IRIX 6.5, you are required to use functions **pciio_config_get()** and **pciio_config_set()** for configuration access. This is because that release supports the O2 as well as other platforms. However, the interface to these functions is extended to support 8-byte registers, transfers of 1, 2, and 3 bytes, and access to nonstandard (device-defined) configuration registers.

In order to bring a degree of uniformity to this picture, the macros in Example 21-4 are presented.

Example 21-4 Configuration Access Macros

```
/* PCI Config Space Access Macros for source compatibility in drivers
** that use the same source for IRIX 6.3, IRIX 6.4, and IRIX 6.5
** Usage:
**   PCI_CFG_BASE(conn)
**   PCI_CFG_GET(conn,base,offset,type)
**   PCI_CFG_SET(conn,base,offset,type,value)
**
** Use caddr_t cfg_base = PCI_CFG_BASE(c) once during attach to get the
** PIO base address for the specific device needed by 6.3 and 6.4.
```

```

** Later, use PCI_CFG_GET() to read and PCI_CFG_SET() to write config registers.
**
** NOTE: IRIX 6.4 supports only 32-bit access. IRIX 6.3 determines the size of
** register (1-4 bytes) based on the offset and the standard layout of a Type 00
** PCI Configuration Space Header. If you specify a nonstandard size or offset,
** you get different results in different releases.
*/
#if IRIX6_3
#define PCI_CFG_BASE(c)      pciio_piotrans_addr(c,0,PCIIO_SPACE_CFG,0,256,0)
#define PCI_CFG_GET(c,b,o,t) pciio_config_get(b,o)
#define PCI_CFG_SET(c,b,o,t,v) pciio_config_set(b,o,v)
#elif IRIX6_4
#define PCI_CFG_BASE(c)      pciio_piotrans_addr(c,0,PCIIO_SPACE_CFG,0,256,0)
#define PCI_CFG_GET(c,b,o,t) ((*t *)((char *) (b)+(o)))
#define PCI_CFG_SET(c,b,o,t,v) ((*t *)((char *) (b)+(o))) = v)
#else /* IRIX 6.5 and onward */
#define PCI_CFG_BASE(c)      NULL
#define PCI_CFG_GET(c,b,o,t) pciio_config_get(c,o,sizeof(t))
#define PCI_CFG_SET(c,b,o,t,v) pciio_config_set(c,o,sizeof(t),v)
#endif

```

The skeletal code in Example 21-5 illustrates access to 32-bit words in configuration space using the macros.

Example 21-5 Reading PCI Configuration Space

```

int hypo_attach(vertex_hdl_t connpt)
{
    ...
    pDevInfo->conn_vh = connpt;
    ...
    pDevInfo->cfg_base = PCI_CFG_BASE(connpt);
    ...
}

__uint32_t get_config_word(DevInfo *pDefInfo, int offset)
{
    return PCI_CFG_GET(pDevInfo->conn_vh,
                      pDevInfo->cfg_base,
                      offset, sizeof(__uint32_t));
}

void set_config_word(DevInfo *pDefInfo, int offset, __uint32_t val)
{
    PCI_CFG_SET(pDevInfo->conn_vh,
                pDevInfo->cfg_base,
                offset, sizeof(val), val);
}

```

Interrogating PIO Maps

The following functions can be used to interrogate a PIO map object (see `pciio_get(d3)`):

Table 21-3 Functions for Interrogating PIO Maps

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_pio_dev_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the connection point handle from a map.
<code>pciio_pio_mapsz_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the maximum size of a map. (Note that this returns a <i>ulong</i> as of IRIX 6.5.)
<code>pciio_pio_pciaddr_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the bus base address for a map.
<code>pciio_pio_space_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the specified bus address space of a map.
<code>pciio_pio_slot_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the bus slot number of the mapped device.

Most of these functions return values that were supplied to `pciio_piomap_alloc()`. However, `pciio_pio_slot_get()` provides a way to learn the bus slot number of a device. You can also obtain the slot number from a general query function; see “Interrogating a PCI Device” on page 746.

PCI Drivers for the O2 (IP32) Platform

For IRIX 6.5 drivers on the O2 (IP32) platform, new function prototypes are provided for PIO access. These are defined in `sys/PCI/pciio.h` as follows:

```
extern uint8_t    pciio_pio_read8(volatile uint8_t *addr);
extern uint16_t   pciio_pio_read16(volatile uint16_t *addr);
extern uint32_t   pciio_pio_read32(volatile uint32_t *addr);
extern uint64_t   pciio_pio_read64(volatile uint64_t *addr);
extern void       pciio_pio_write8(uint8_t val, volatile uint8_t *addr);
extern void       pciio_pio_write16(uint16_t val, volatile uint16_t *addr);
extern void       pciio_pio_write32(uint32_t val, volatile uint32_t *addr);
extern void       pciio_pio_write64(uint64_t val, volatile uint64_t *addr);
```


You must use the `pciio_pio_*` routines for all PIO access to the device, including accesses to the PCI configuration space. PIO access includes accesses to the device registers (*explicit* PIO) as well as any memory space that is mapped (*implicit* PIO). For example, if a device allows access to local memory on the card and the driver maps this memory to the system address space, every access to this address space *must* be done through the `pciio_pio_*` routines.

Use the compiler switch `-DUSE_PCI_PIO` to enable the IP32 PIO read and write routines in the compilation of the IP32 device driver module. Turning this flag on or off lets you use the same source to compile the driver for different target platforms. While the `USE_PCI_PIO` flag is required for the IP32 architecture, it should not be used when compiling for other architectures. Refer to “Compiling and Linking” on page 256 for details on compiling for different targets.

PCI PIO Code Examples

In the following examples, a function receives kernel virtual addresses (mapped with the `pciio_piotrans_addr()` call) for a control register and on board memory in the PIO address space of a hypothetical PCI device. The 32-bit control register is set to enable reads of data from on-board memory (accessible as 8-bits).

The function could look like that shown in Example 21-6 for a device driver *not* written for the O2 platform.

Example 21-6 Non-O2 PCI PIO Code Example

```
#define ENABLE_SOMETHING 0x1
void
example(volatile unsigned int *control_reg,
        volatile unsigned char *device_data,
        int len,
        unsigned char *buffer)
{
    int i;

    /*
     * set the enable bit
     */
    *control_reg |= ENABLE_SOMETHING;

    /*
     * copy the data to the caller's buffer
     */
}
```

```
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
        *buffer++ = *device_data++;

    /*
     * reset enable bit
     */
    *control_reg &= ~ENABLE_SOMETHING;
}
```

To work correctly on the O2 platform, the driver code in Example 21-6 would have to change as shown in Example 21-7.

Example 21-7 O2 PCI PIO Code Example

```
#define ENABLE_SOMETHING 0x1
void
example(volatile unsigned int *control_reg,
        volatile unsigned char *device_data,
        unsigned char *buffer,
        int len)
{
    int i;
    unsigned int reg_val;

    /*
     * NOTE: use of &= and |= for PIO is strongly
     *       discouraged due to the unpredictability
     *       of the actual instructions generated by
     *       the compiler. We recommend breaking
     *       these up into simpler expressions.
     *
     * set the enable bit
     */
    reg_val = pciio_pio_read32(control_reg);
    reg_val = reg_val | ENABLE_SOMETHING;
    pciio_pio_write32(reg_val, control_reg);

    /*
     * copy the data to the caller's buffer
     */
    for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
        *buffer++ = pciio_pio_read8(device_data++);

    /*
     * reset enable bit
     */
}
```

```

    reg_val = pciio_pio_read32(control_reg);
    reg_val = reg_val & ~ENABLE_SOMETHING;
    pciio_pio_write32(reg_val, control_reg);

    return(data);
}

```

If you are writing new code from scratch for multiple platforms, you can use the “O2-style” described here for all supported platforms and just compile for each target platform as described in “Compiling and Linking” on page 256.

Using DMA Maps

You use a DMA map to establish a mapping between a buffer in kernel virtual space and some portion of the PCI bus memory space so that a PCI device can read and write to memory. Depending on the machine architecture, the mapping may be a simple translation function, or it may require the kernel to program hardware registers in one or more bus adapters. The software interface is the same in all cases.

You cannot program a PCI bus master for DMA without at least one DMA map. Often you will allocate two or more. Typically you save the addresses of the allocated maps in the device information structure; and you store the address of the device information structure in turn in the hwgraph vertex for the device.

The functions that are used to manage simple DMA maps are summarized in Table 21-4. Details are found in reference page `pciio_dma(d3)`.

Table 21-4 Functions for Simple DMA Maps for PCI

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_dmamap_alloc()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Create a DMA map object, specifying the maximum extent of memory the map will have to cover.
<code>pciio_dmamap_addr()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Set up mapping from a kernel memory address for a specified length, to the PCI bus, returning the bus address.
<code>pciio_dmamap_drain()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Complete any active DMA on a specified map. May flush prefetch and gather buffers in the PCI adapter.

Table 21-4 Functions for Simple DMA Maps for PCI

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_dmamap_list()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Set up a mapping that relates all addresses in an alenlist to the PCI bus, returning a new alenlist containing PCI bus addresses.
<code>pciio_dmalist_drain()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Complete any active DMA on a map set up using <code>pciio_dmamap_list()</code> .
<code>pciio_dmamap_done()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Make a DMA map inactive. Release any hardware resources associated to the active mapping.
<code>pciio_dmamap_free()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Release a DMA map object.
<code>pciio_dmatrans_list()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Request immediate translation of the addresses in an alenlist. Returns NULL unless this system supports fixed DMA addressing.
<code>pciio_dmatrans_addr()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Request immediate translation of the address of a contiguous memory buffer to a bus address. Returns NULL unless this system supports fixed DMA addressing.
<code>pciio_dmaadr_drain()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Complete any active DMA on a mapping established using <code>pciio_dmatrans_addr()</code> .

In summary, a DMA map is used as follows:

1. Allocate it with **`pciio_dmamap_alloc()`**.
2. Activate the map and extract a PCI bus memory base address using **`pciio_dmamap_addr()`** or **`pciio_dmamap_list()`**.
3. Program the base addresses into the PCI bus master device and start the transfer. To start additional transfers that fall in the same mapped segment, repeat this step.
4. When DMA to the mapped segment is complete, deactivate the map using **`pciio_dmamap_done()`**.
5. When further DMA is planned, return to step 2.
6. When the map is no longer needed, release it with **`pciio_dmamap_free()`**.

Allocating DMA Maps

A DMA map is created by `pciio_dmamap_alloc()`, which takes arguments are as follows:

<i>vhdl</i>	Connection-point <i>vertex_hdl_t</i> received by <code>pfattach()</code> . This handle identifies the device to the kernel by its bus and slot positions.
<i>dev_desc</i>	Device descriptor structure (see text following).
<i>byte_count_max</i>	Maximum size of the area that will be mapped at any one time.
<i>flags</i>	Usage flags and optional no-sleep flag.

Preparing a `dev_desc_t`

The device descriptor structure type `dev_desc_t` is declared in `iobus.h`, which is included by `pciio.h` (see also reference page `device_desc(d4x)`). In this release there is little that the device driver needs to know about this structure and its contents. The simplest way to get a device descriptor that can be handed to `pciio_dmamap_alloc()` is to call `device_desc_default_get()` passing the same connection-point vertex handle, as follows:

```
ret = pciio_dmamap_alloc(convh, device_desc_default_get(convh), ...)
```

Setting Flag Values

The following flag values control data transfer:

<code>PCIIO_DMA_CMD</code>	Configure as a generic “command” stream. Generally this means turn off prefetchers and write gatherers, and whatever else might be necessary to make command ring DMAs work as expected.
<code>PCIIO_DMA_DATA</code>	Configure as a generic “data” stream. Generally, this means turning on prefetchers and write gatherers, and anything else that might increase DMA throughput (short of using “high priority” or “real time” resources that may lower overall system performance).
<code>PCIIO_PREFETCH</code> <code>PCIIO_NOPREFETCH</code>	Control the use of prefetch hardware, overriding the CMD or DATA selection.
<code>PCIIO_WRITE_GATHER</code> <code>PCIIO_NOWRITE_GATHER</code>	Control the use of write-gather hardware, overriding the CMD or DATA selection.

(Note that the values for the PCIIO_DMA* flags has changed for IRIX 6.5.) All systems have the ability to gather as much as one cache line of device data before starting a write to memory, but some systems have better write-gather support. All systems have a certain amount of “prefetch” ability in that they load a full cache line from memory when the device issues a read. However, some systems can prefetch the next cache line while the device is still accepting the first one. The PCI infrastructure notes in the DMA map whether you want these features maximized for the given hardware, or minimized, depending on the flag settings.

The following flag values control the use of the PCI bus adapter:

PCIIO_DMA_A64	Device and driver are prepared to use 64-bit addressing.
PCIIO_BYTE_STREAM	Retain the order of a stream of bytes between device and memory.
PCIIO_WORD_VALUES	Byte-swap 32-bit words during transfer as required to produce big-endian data order in memory.

You should specify either PCIIO_BYTE_STREAM or PCIIO_WORD_VALUES; there is no default. (More correctly, the default is “whatever the hardware of this system does,” and different systems do different things.) When you specify PCIIO_BYTE_STREAM, a block of bytes transferred from the device to memory has the same sequence of bytes in both locations. When you specify PCIIO_WORD_VALUES, the numerical significance of the bytes in each 32-bit word are preserved between the big-endian memory and little-endian device.

The following flag values control kernel operations:

PCIIO_NOSLEEP	Do not sleep on memory allocation.
PCIIO_INPLACE	Translate alenlists in place instead of copying them.

Using a DMA Map

After a map has been allocated, it is inactive. When you apply a function to a map to get a translated address, the function activates the map if it is not active, and uses the map to set up a correspondence between PCI bus memory addresses and one or more segments of kernel virtual address space.

In some systems, “activating a map” can be a null operation. In other systems, an active DMA map may represent a commitment of limited hardware resources—for example, mapping registers in a bus adapter.

You can use a DMA map to map a specified memory segment, or you can use it to translate all entries in an address/length list (see “Address/Length Lists” on page 193) in a single operation.

Mapping an Address/Length List

You map an alenlist using `pciio_dmamap_list()`. This function takes an alenlist that represents a memory buffer, and in one operation produces a new list containing PCI bus addresses and lengths. You read out the translated addresses from the list and program them into the bus master device (see “Using Address/Length Lists” on page 213).

Mapping a Specific Buffer

You obtain a DMA map for a single, contiguous span of kernel virtual memory by calling `pciio_dmamap_addr()`. If the mapping cannot be set up, 0 is returned. (You must check for this possibility, because if you start a DMA transfer to location 0, a bus error results.) Otherwise the value returned is a PCI bus address that you can program into a bus master device. When the device accesses that address, it accesses the specified memory location.

Completing DMA Transfers

If it is necessary to establish that a DMA transfer is fully complete—all input data stored in physical memory, all output data copied from memory—use the “drain” function that corresponds to the way the map was activated. For example, if the map was activated using `pciio_dmamap_list()`, you call `pciio_dmalist_drain()` to ensure that current DMA is complete. When the bus adapter uses prefetch buffers or write-gather buffers, they are flushed.

Deactivating Addresses and Maps

Once you have created a mapping, the map is active. It remains active until you use the same DMA map object to map a different buffer, or until you call either `pciio_dmamap_done()` or `pciio_dmamap_free()`.

In some systems, it costs nothing to keep a DMA map active. In other systems, an active map may tie up global hardware resources. It is a good idea to call `pciio_dmamap_done()` when the I/O operation is complete.

Caution: Never call `pciio_dmamap_done()` *before* the device has stopped sending data. Memory corruption could result.

Using One-Step DMA Translation

Some systems also support one-step mapping functions `pciio_dmatrans_addr()` and `pciio_dmatrans_list()`. In effect, these functions combine creating a map, using the map, and freeing the map into a single step. They can fail (returning 0) in systems that do not use simple bus maps. If you use them, you must test the returned address. If it is 0, the one-step translation failed and the address is invalid.

The two-step process of allocating a map and then interrogating it is more general and works in all systems.

Interrogating DMA Maps

The following functions can be used to interrogate a DMA map object (see `pciio_get(d3)`):

Table 21-5 Functions for Interrogating DMA Maps

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_dma_dev_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the connection point handle from a map.
<code>pciio_dma_slot_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the bus slot number of the mapped device.

Registering an Interrupt Handler

When a device can interrupt, you must register an interrupt handler for it. This is done in a two-step process. First you create an interrupt connection object; then you use that object to specify the interrupt handling function. Prior to unloading the driver or detaching the device, you must unregister the handler (but you can retain the interrupt connection object).

The functions for managing interrupt handlers are summarized in Table 21-6. For syntax details see reference page `pciio_intr(d3)`.

Table 21-6 Functions for Managing PCI Interrupt Handlers

Function	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_intr_alloc()</code>	Create an interrupt object that enables interrupts to flow from a specified device.
<code>pciio_intr_connect()</code>	Associate an interrupt object with an interrupt handler function.
<code>pciio_intr_disconnect()</code>	Remove the association between an interrupt object and a handler function.
<code>pciio_intr_free()</code>	Release an interrupt object.

Creating an Interrupt Object

A software object that represents an interrupt connection is created with `pciio_intr_alloc()`, which takes the following arguments:

<i>vhdl</i>	The hwgraph vertex for the device attachment point—the same vertex originally passed to the <code>pfattach()</code> entry point.
<i>desc</i>	Device descriptor structure (see text following).
<i>lines</i>	The selection of one or more PCI interrupt lines used by this device, a sum of <code>PCIIO_INTR_LINE_A</code> , <code>PCIIO_INTR_LINE_B</code> , ... <code>_C</code> , and ... <code>_D</code> .
<i>owner</i>	The hwgraph vertex to use when reporting errors—same as <i>vhdl</i> , or else a vertex created by the driver.

The interrupt object is used in establishing a handler, and it is needed later to stop taking interrupts. You should save its address in the device information structure you store in the hwgraph vertex.

Preparing a `dev_desc_t`

The device descriptor structure type `dev_desc_t` is declared in `iobus.h`, which is included by `pciio.h` (see also reference page `device_desc(d4x)`). In this release there is little that the device driver needs to know about this structure and its contents. The simplest way to

get a device descriptor that can be handed to `pciio_intr_alloc()` is to call `device_desc_default_get()` passing the same connection-point vertex handle, as follows:

```
ret = pciio_intr_alloc(convh, device_desc_default_get(convh), ...)
```

Connecting the Handler

After creating the interrupt object, you establish a handler using `pciio_intr_connect()`. Its principal arguments are the interrupt object, a handler address, and a value to be passed to the handler when it is called:

<i>intr</i>	The value returned by <code>pciio_intr_alloc()</code> .
<i>func</i>	Address of the function to be called when an interrupt occurs; see following text for the prototype.
<i>arg</i>	A pointer-sized value to be passed as the argument to <i>func</i> each time it is called. Typically the address of the device information structure, or the handle of the device vertex.
<i>thread</i>	Passed as NULL.

Connecting the Handler

The function prototype for the interrupt handler is named `intr_func_t` and is declared in `sys/iobus.h` (which is included by `sys/PCI/pciio.h`). The function prototype is

```
typedef void      *intr_arg_t;
typedef void      intr_func_f(intr_arg_t);
typedef intr_func_f *intr_func_t;
```

Caution: This function prototype differs from the same prototype as it was declared in IRIX 6.3. The interrupt handler in 6.3 is declared to receive one additional argument that is not supported in the later releases.

If a device will interrupt on line C, interrupt setup could resemble Example 21-8.

Example 21-8 Setting Up a PCI Interrupt Handler

```

pciio_intr_t intobj;
extern void int_handler(devinfo*);
int retcode;
intobj = pciio_intr_alloc(
    vhdl, /* as received in attach() */
    0, /* device descriptor is n.a. for pci */
    PCIIO_INTR_LINE_C, /* the line it uses */
    vhdl);
retcode = pciio_intr_connect(
    intobj, /* the interrupt object */
    (intr_func_t) int_handler, /* the handler */
    (intr_arg_t) pDevInfo, /* dev info as input */
    (void*)0 ); /* let kernel pick the thread */
if (!retcode) cmn_err(CE_WARN, "oh fiddlesticks");

```

Handler Operation

Interrupts from a device are disabled (if possible) and discarded until a handler is connected. However, interrupts in general are enabled when the *pfxattach()* entry point is called. If the PCI device is in a state that can produce an interrupt, the interrupt handling function can be called before *pciio_intr_connect()* returns. Make sure that all global data used by the interrupt handler has been initialized before you connect it.

When called, the interrupt handler runs as an independent thread in the kernel. It can run concurrently with any other part of the driver, and concurrently with other interrupt handlers. Although interrupt threads run at a high priority, there are kernel threads with still higher priority that can preempt the interrupt handler. See “Interrupt Entry Point and Handler” on page 175.

PCI devices can share the four PCI interrupt lines. As a result, in some cases the kernel cannot tell which device caused an interrupt. When there is any doubt, the kernel calls all the interrupt handlers that are registered to that interrupt line. For this reason, your interrupt handler must not assume that its device did cause the interrupt. It should always test to see if an interrupt is really pending, and exit immediately when one is not.

The handler gets information about the device only from the argument that was passed to it. This is presumably the device information structure, containing driver-specific information about the device and its status, PIO maps, and the vertex handle of the connection point as passed to *pfxattach()*. This handle can be used to get more information about the device; see “Interrogating a PCI Device” on page 746.

Disconnecting the Handler

The only way to stop receiving interrupts is to disconnect the handler. This is done with a call to `pciio_intr_disconnect()`. Its only argument is the interrupt object returned by `pciio_intr_alloc()`.

Interrogating an Interrupt Handler

The following functions can be used to interrogate an interrupt object (see `pciio_get(d3)`):

Table 21-7 Functions for Interrogating an Interrupt Object

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_intr_dev_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the connection point handle from the object.
<code>pciio_intr_cpu_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the CPU that receives the hardware interrupt.

Registering an Error Handler

You can register a function to be called in case of a bus error related to a specific PCI device. When the kernel detects a bus error, and can isolate the error to the bus address space related to one of your PIO or DMA maps, it calls the error handling function. If the function can correct the error, it returns 0. If it cannot, or if it does not understand the error, it returns 1, and the kernel continues with default error actions.

The declarations used to set up an error handler are summarized in Table 21-8 (see also reference page `pciio_error(d3)`).

Table 21-8 Declaration Used In Setting Up PCI Error Handlers

Identifier	Header File	Purpose or Use
<code>ioerror_mode_t</code>	<code>sys/ioerror.h</code>	Enumeration for the kernel mode during which the error was found: probing the bus, normal operations, user-mode access, or error retry.
<code>ioerror_t</code>	<code>sys/ioerror.h</code>	Structure giving details of an error.
<code>error_handler_arg_t</code>	<code>sys/ioerror.h</code>	Name for <code>void*</code> , the opaque value provided by the driver to be passed to the error handler to describe the device.
<code>error_handler_f</code>	<code>sys/ioerror.h</code>	Name for the prototype of an error handler function, convenient for forward or extern declaration of the handler.
<code>pciio_error_register()</code>	<code>sys/PCI/pciio.h</code>	Function to register or unregister an error handler.

You code your error handler using the prototype established by `error_handler_f`:

```
typedef int
error_handler_f(
    error_handler_arg_t arg, /* device info, registered */
    int error_code,         /* IOEC_* values in sys/ioerror.h */
    ioerror_mode_t mode,   /* mode value in sys/ioerror.h */
    ioerror_t *info);
```

You register the handler by calling `pciio_error_register()`, passing three values:

- The vertex handle of the connection point, as passed to the `pfattach()` entry point).
- The address of the error handler function.
- An address to be passed as the first argument of the error handler function, when it is called.

To unregister the error handler (when the driver is unloading, or when detaching the device), call `pciio_error_unregister()` with the same vertex handle, but with NULL for the address of the handler.

Interrogating a PCI Device

The following functions can be used to get an information structure that describes a PCI device, and to extract data from it (see `pciio_get(d3)`):

Table 21-9 Functions for Interrogating a PCI Device

Function	Header Files	Purpose and Operation
<code>pciio_info_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Given the connection point as passed to <code>pxattach()</code> , return a read-only object with information about the device.
<code>pciio_info_dev_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the connection point handle.
<code>pciio_info_bus_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the PCI bus number.
<code>pciio_info_slot_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the slot number on the bus.
<code>pciio_info_func_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the function number of the device (a PCI card can have up to 8 separate functions).
<code>pciio_info_vendor_id_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the vendor ID value.
<code>pciio_info_device_id_get()</code>	<code>ddi.h</code> , <code>pciio.h</code>	Return the device ID value.

Example PCI Driver

```

/*****
 *
 *      Copyright (C) 1990-1993, Silicon Graphics, Inc
 *
 *  These coded instructions, statements, and computer programs contain
 *  unpublished proprietary information of Silicon Graphics, Inc., and
 *  are protected by Federal copyright law. They may not be disclosed
 *  to third parties or copied or duplicated in any form, in whole or
 *  in part, without the prior written consent of Silicon Graphics, Inc.
 *
 *****/
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/cpu.h>
#include <sys/system.h>
#include <sys/cmn_err.h>
#include <sys/errno.h>
#include <sys/buf.h>
#include <sys/ioctl.h>
#include <sys/cred.h>
#include <sys/poll.h>
#include <sys/immu.h>
#include <ksys/ddmap.h>
#include <sys/invent.h>
#include <sys/debug.h>
#include <sys/sbd.h>
#include <sys/kmem.h>
#include <sys/edt.h>
#include <sys/dmmap.h>
#include <sys/hwgraph.h>
#include <sys/iobus.h>
#include <sys/iograph.h>
#include <sys/param.h>
#include <sys/pio.h>
#include <sys/sem.h>
#include <sys/ddi.h>
#include <sys/atomic_ops.h>
#include <sys/PCI/PCI_defs.h>
#include <sys/PCI/pciio.h>
#define NEW(ptr)      (ptr = kmem_alloc(sizeof (*(ptr)), KM_SLEEP))
#define DEL(ptr)      (kmem_free(ptr, sizeof (*(ptr))))
/*
 *   psamp: a generic device driver for a generic PCI device.
 */
int          psamp_devflag = D_MP;

```

```
/* number of "psamp" devices open */
int      psamp_inuse = 0;
/* =====
 *      Device-Related Constants and Structures
 */
#define PSAMP_VENDOR_ID_NUM 0x5555
#define PSAMP_DEVICE_ID_NUM 0x555
/*
 *      All registers on the Sample PCIIO Client
 *      device are 32 bits wide.
 */
typedef __uint32_t  psamp_reg_t;
typedef volatile struct psamp_regs_s *psamp_regs_t; /* device registers */
typedef struct psamp_soft_s *psamp_soft_t; /* software state */
/*
 *      psamp_regs: layout of device registers
 *
 *      Our device config registers are, of course, at
 *      the base of our assigned CFG space.
 *
 *      Our sample device registers are in the PCI area
 *      decoded by the device's first BASE_ADDR window.
 */
struct psamp_regs_s {
    psamp_reg_t      pr_control;
    psamp_reg_t      pr_status;
};
struct psamp_soft_s {
    vertex_hdl_t     ps_conn; /* connection for pci services */
    vertex_hdl_t     ps_vhdl; /* backpointer to device vertex */
    vertex_hdl_t     ps_blockv; /* backpointer to block vertex */
    vertex_hdl_t     ps_charv; /* backpointer to char vertex */
    volatile uchar_t *ps_cfg; /* cached ptr to my config regs */
    psamp_regs_t     ps_regs; /* cached ptr to my regs */
    pciio_piomap_t   ps_cmap; /* piomap (if any) for ps_cfg */
    pciio_piomap_t   ps_rmap; /* piomap (if any) for ps_regs */
    unsigned         ps_sst; /* driver "software state" */
#define PSAMP_SST_RX_READY (0x0001)
#define PSAMP_SST_TX_READY (0x0002)
#define PSAMP_SST_ERROR (0x0004)
#define PSAMP_SST_INUSE (0x8000)
    pciio_intr_t     ps_intr; /* pciio intr for INTA and INTB */
    pciio_dmamap_t   ps_ctl_dmamap; /* control channel dma mapping resoures */
    pciio_dmamap_t   ps_str_dmamap; /* stream channel dma mapping resoures */
    struct pollhead *ps_pollhead; /* for poll() */
};
```



```

    int                ps_blocks; /* block device size in NBPSCTR blocks */
};
#define psamp_soft_set(v,i) device_info_set((v),(void *) (i))
#define psamp_soft_get(v)  ((psamp_soft_t)device_info_get((v)))
/* =====
 *      FUNCTION TABLE OF CONTENTS
 */
void                psamp_init(void);
int                 psamp_unload(void);
int                 psamp_reg(void);
int                 psamp_unreg(void);
int                 psamp_attach(vertex_hdl_t conn);
int                 psamp_detach(vertex_hdl_t conn);
static pciio_iter_f psamp_reloadme;
static pciio_iter_f psamp_unloadme;
int                 psamp_open(dev_t *devp, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp);
int                 psamp_close(dev_t dev, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp);
int                 psamp_ioctl(dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg,
                                int mode, cred_t *crp, int *rvalp);
int                 psamp_read(dev_t dev, uio_t * uiop, cred_t *crp);
int                 psamp_write(dev_t dev, uio_t * uiop, cred_t *crp);
int                 psamp_strategy(struct buf *bp);
int                 psamp_poll(dev_t dev, short events, int anyyet,
                                short *reventsp, struct pollhead **php);
int                 psamp_map(dev_t dev, vhandl_t *vt,
                                off_t off, size_t len, uint_t prot);
int                 psamp_unmap(dev_t dev, vhandl_t *vt);
void                 psamp_dma_intr(intr_arg_t arg);
static error_handler_f psamp_error_handler;
void                 psamp_halt(void);
int                 psamp_size(dev_t dev);
int                 psamp_print(dev_t dev, char *str);
/* =====
 *      Driver Initialization
 */
/*
 *      psamp_init: called once during system startup or
 *      when a loadable driver is loaded.
 */
void
psamp_init(void)
{
    printf("psamp_init()\n");
    /*
     * if we are already registered, note
     * that this is a "reload" and reconnect
     * all the places we attached.

```

```
    */
    pciio_iterate("psamp_", psamp_reloadme);
}
/*
 *   psamp_unload: if no "psamp" is open, put us to bed
 *   and let the driver text get unloaded.
 */
int
psamp_unload(void)
{
    if (psamp_inuse)
        return EBUSY;
    pciio_iterate("psamp_", psamp_unloadme);
    return 0;
}
/*
 *   psamp_reg: called once during system startup or
 *   when a loadable driver is loaded.
 *
 *   NOTE: a bus provider register routine should always be
 *   called from _reg, rather than from _init. In the case
 *   of a loadable module, the devsw is not hooked up
 *   when the _init routines are called.
 *
 */
int
psamp_reg(void)
{
    printf("psamp_reg()\n");
    pciio_driver_register(P_SAMP_VENDOR_ID_NUM,
        P_SAMP_DEVICE_ID_NUM,
        "psamp_",
        0);
    return 0;
}
/*
 *   psamp_unreg: called when a loadable driver is unloaded.
 */
int
psamp_unreg(void)
{
    pciio_driver_unregister("psamp_");
    return 0;
}
/*
```

```
*   psamp_attach: called by the pciio infrastructure
*   once for each vertex representing a crosstalk
*   widget.
*
*   In large configurations, it is possible for a
*   huge number of CPUs to enter this routine all at
*   nearly the same time, for different specific
*   instances of the device. Attempting to give your
*   devices sequence numbers based on the order they
*   are found in the system is not only futile but
*   may be dangerous as the order may differ from
*   run to run.
*/
int
psamp_attach(vertex_hdl_t conn)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl, blockv, charv;
    volatile uchar_t  *cfg;
    psamp_regs_t      regs;
    psamp_soft_t      soft;
    pciio_piomap_t    cmap;
    pciio_piomap_t    rmap;
    printf("psamp_attach()\n");
    hwgraph_device_add(conn, "psamp", "psamp_", &vhdl, &blockv, &charv);
    /*
     * Allocate a place to put per-device
     * information for this vertex. Then
     * associate it with the vertex in the
     * most efficient manner.
     */
    NEW(soft);
    ASSERT(soft != NULL);
    psamp_soft_set(vhdl, soft);
    psamp_soft_set(blockv, soft);
    psamp_soft_set(charv, soft);
    soft->ps_conn = conn;
    soft->ps_vhdl = vhdl;
    soft->ps_blockv = blockv;
    soft->ps_charv = charv;
    /*
     * Find our PCI CONFIG registers.
     */
    cfg = (volatile uchar_t *) pciio_pio_addr
    (conn, 0, /* device and (override) dev_info */
     PCIIO_SPACE_CFG, /* select configuration address space */
     0, /* from the start of space, */
```

```
    PCI_CFG_VEND_SPECIFIC, /* ... up to the vendor specific stuff. */
    &cmap,                /* in case we needed a piomap */
    0);                 /* flag word */
soft->ps_cfg = cfg;     /* save for later */
soft->ps_cmap = cmap;
printf("psamp_attach: I can see my CFG regs at 0x%x\n", cfg);
/*
 * Get a pointer to our DEVICE registers
 */
regs = (psamp_regs_t) pciio_pio_addr
(conn, 0,                /* device and (override) dev_info */
 PCIIO_SPACE_WIN(0),    /* in my primary decode window, */
 0, sizeof(*regs),     /* base and size */
 &rmap,                 /* in case we needed a piomap */
 0);                   /* flag word */
soft->ps_regs = regs;   /* save for later */
soft->ps_rmap = cmap;
printf("psamp_attach: I can see my device regs at 0x%x\n", regs);
/*
 * Set up our interrupt.
 * We might interrupt on INTA or INTB,
 * but route 'em both to the same function.
 */
soft->ps_intr = pciio_intr_alloc
(conn, 0,
 PCIIO_INTR_LINE_A |
 PCIIO_INTR_LINE_B,
 vhdl);
pciio_intr_connect(soft->ps_intr,
                  psamp_dma_intr, soft,
                  (void *) 0);
/*
 * set up our error handler.
 */
pciio_error_register(conn, psamp_error_handler, soft);
/*
 * For pciio clients, *now* is the time to
 * allocate pollhead structures.
 */
soft->ps_pollhead = phalloc(0);
return 0;              /* attach successssful */
}
/*
 * psamp_detach: called by the pciio infrastructure
 * once for each vertex representing a crosstalk
```

```
* widget when unregistering the driver.
*
* In large configurations, it is possible for a
* huge number of CPUs to enter this routine all at
* nearly the same time, for different specific
* instances of the device. Attempting to give your
* devices sequence numbers based on the order they
* are found in the system is not only futile but
* may be dangerous as the order may differ from
* run to run.
*/
int
psamp_detach(vertex_hdl_t conn)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl, blockv, charv;
    psamp_soft_t      soft;
    printf("psamp_detach()\n");
    if (GRAPH_SUCCESS !=
        hwgraph_traverse(conn, "psamp", &vhdl))
        return -1;
    soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    pciio_error_register(conn, 0, 0);
    pciio_intr_disconnect(soft->ps_intr);
    pciio_intr_free(soft->ps_intr);
    phfree(soft->ps_pollhead);
    if (soft->ps_ctl_dmamap)
        pciio_dmamap_free(soft->ps_ctl_dmamap);
    if (soft->ps_str_dmamap)
        pciio_dmamap_free(soft->ps_str_dmamap);
    if (soft->ps_cmap)
        pciio_piomap_free(soft->ps_cmap);
    if (soft->ps_rmap)
        pciio_piomap_free(soft->ps_rmap);
    hwgraph_edge_remove(conn, "psamp", &vhdl);
    /* we really need "hwgraph_dev_remove" ... */
    if (GRAPH_SUCCESS ==
        hwgraph_edge_remove(vhdl, EDGE_LBL_BLOCK, &blockv)) {
        psamp_soft_set(blockv, 0);
        hwgraph_vertex_destroy(blockv);
    }
    if (GRAPH_SUCCESS ==
        hwgraph_edge_remove(vhdl, EDGE_LBL_CHAR, &charv)) {
        psamp_soft_set(charv, 0);
        hwgraph_vertex_destroy(charv);
    }
    psamp_soft_set(vhdl, 0);
}
```

```
hwgraph_vertex_destroy(vhdl);
DEL(soft);
return 0;
}
/*
 * psamp_reloadme: utility function used indirectly
 * by psamp_init, via pciio_iterate, to "reconnect"
 * each connection point when the driver has been
 * reloaded.
 */
static void
psamp_reloadme(vertex_hdl_t conn)
{
    vertex_hdl_t    vhdl;
    psamp_soft_t    soft;
    if (GRAPH_SUCCESS !=
        hwgraph_traverse(conn, "psamp", &vhdl))
        return;
    soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    /*
     * Reconnect our error and interrupt handlers
     */
    pciio_error_register(conn, psamp_error_handler, soft);
    pciio_intr_connect(soft->ps_intr, psamp_dma_intr, soft, 0);
}
/*
 * psamp_reloadme: utility function used indirectly
 * by psamp_unload, via pciio_iterate, to "disconnect"
 * each connection point before the driver becomes
 * unloaded.
 */
static void
psamp_unloadme(vertex_hdl_t pconn)
{
    vertex_hdl_t    vhdl;
    psamp_soft_t    soft;
    if (GRAPH_SUCCESS !=
        hwgraph_traverse(pconn, "psamp", &vhdl))
        return;
    soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    /*
     * Disconnect our error and interrupt handlers
     */
    pciio_error_register(pconn, 0, 0);
    pciio_intr_disconnect(soft->ps_intr);
}
```

```
}
/* =====
 *      DRIVER OPEN/CLOSE
 */
/*
 *   psamp_open: called when a device special file is
 *   opened or when a block device is mounted.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_open(dev_t *devp, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(*devp);
    psamp_soft_t      soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    printf("psamp_open() regs=%x\n", regs);
    /*
     * BLOCK DEVICES: now would be a good time to
     * calculate the size of the device and stash it
     * away for use by psamp_size.
     */
    /*
     * USER ABI (64-bit): chances are, you are being
     * compiled for use in a 64-bit IRIX kernel; if
     * you use the _ioctl or _poll entry points, now
     * would be a good time to test and save the
     * user process' model so you know how to
     * interpret the user ioctl and poll requests.
     */
    if (!(PSAMP_SST_INUSE & atomicSetUint(&soft->ps_sst, PSAMP_SST_INUSE)))
        atomicAddInt(&psamp_inuse, 1);
    return 0;
}
/*
 *   psamp_close: called when a device special file
 *   is closed by a process and no other processes
 *   still have it open ("last close").
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_close(dev_t dev, int oflag, int otyp, cred_t *crp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    psamp_soft_t      soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    printf("psamp_close() regs=%x\n", regs);
}
```

```
    atomicClearUint(&soft->ps_sst, PSAMP_SST_INUSE);
    atomicAddInt(&psamp_inuse, -1);
    return 0;
}
/* =====
 *      CONTROL ENTRY POINT
 */
/*
 *   psamp_ioctl: a user has made an ioctl request
 *   for an open character device.
 *
 *   cmd and arg are as specified by the user; arg is
 *   probably a pointer to something in the user's
 *   address space, so you need to use copyin() to
 *   read through it and copyout() to write through it.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_ioctl(dev_t dev, int cmd, void *arg,
            int mode, cred_t *crp, int *rvalp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    psamp_soft_t      soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    printf("psamp_ioctl() regs=%x\n", regs);
    *rvalp = -1;
    return ENOTTY;      /* TeleType® is a registered trademark. */
}
/* =====
 *      DATA TRANSFER ENTRY POINTS
 *
 *   Since I'm trying to provide an example for both
 *   character and block devices, I'm routing read
 *   and write back through strategy as described in
 *   the IRIX Device Driver Programming Guide.
 *
 *   This limits our character driver to reading and
 *   writing in multiples of the standard sector
 *   length.
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_read(dev_t dev, uio_t * uiop, cred_t *crp)
{
    return physiock(psamp_strategy,
```



```

        0,      /* allocate temp buffer & buf_t */
        dev,   /* dev_t arg for strategy */
        B_READ, /* direction flag for buf_t */
        psamp_size(dev),
        uiop);
}
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_write(dev_t dev, uio_t * uiop, cred_t *crp)
{
    return physiock(psamp_strategy,
        0,      /* allocate temp buffer & buf_t */
        dev,   /* dev_t arg for strategy */
        B_WRITE, /* direction flag for buf_t */
        psamp_size(dev),
        uiop);
}
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_strategy(struct buf *bp)
{
    /*
     * I think Len has some code that I can
     * modify and drop into here.
     */
    return 0;
}
/* =====
 *      POLL ENTRY POINT
 */
int
psamp_poll(dev_t dev, short events, int anyyet,
    short *reventsp, struct pollhead **phpp)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    psamp_soft_t      soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    short             happened = 0;
    printf("psamp_poll() regs=%x\n", regs);
    if (events & (POLLIN | POLLRDNORM))
    if (soft->ps_sst & PSAMP_SST_RX_READY)
        happened |= POLLIN | POLLRDNORM;
    if (events & POLLOUT)
    if (soft->ps_sst & PSAMP_SST_TX_READY)
        happened |= POLLOUT;
}

```

```

    if (soft->ps_sst & PSAMP_SST_ERROR)
        happened |= POLLERR;
    *reventsp = happened;
    if (!happened && anyyet)
        *phpp = soft->ps_pollhead;
    return 0;
}
/* =====
 *      MEMORY MAP ENTRY POINTS
 */
/* ARGSUSED */
int
psamp_map(dev_t dev, vhandle_t *vt,
          off_t off, size_t len, uint_t prot)
{
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    psamp_soft_t      soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    vertex_hdl_t      conn = soft->ps_conn;
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    pciio_piomap_t    amap;
    caddr_t           kaddr;
    printf("psamp_map() regs=%x\n", regs);
    /*
     * The stuff we want users to mmap
     * is in our second BASE_ADDR window,
     * just for fun.
     */
    kaddr = (caddr_t) pciio_pio_addr
        (conn, 0,
         PCIIO_SPACE_WIN(1),
         off, len, &amap, 0);
    if (kaddr == NULL)
        return EINVAL;
    /* XXX- must stash amap somewhere
     * so we can pciio_piomap_free it
     * when the mapping goes away.
     */
    v_mapphys(vt, kaddr, len);
    return 0;
}
/* ARGSUSED2 */
int
psamp_unmap(dev_t dev, vhandle_t *vt)
{
    /* XXX- need to find "amap" that we

```

```

    * used in psamp_map() above, and
    * if (amap) pciio_piomap_free(amap);
    */
    return (0);
}
/* =====
 *      INTERRUPT ENTRY POINTS
 *
 * We avoid using the standard name, since our
 * prototype has changed.
 */
void
psamp_dma_intr(intr_arg_t arg)
{
    psamp_soft_t      soft = (psamp_soft_t) arg;
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = soft->ps_vhdl;
    psamp_regs_t      regs = soft->ps_regs;
    cmn_err(CE_CONT, "psamp %v: dma done, regs at 0x%X\n", vhdl, regs);
    /*
     * for each buf our hardware has processed,
     *   set buf->b_resid,
     *   call pciio_dmamap_done,
     *   call bioerror() or biodone().
     *
     * XXX- would it be better for buf->b_iodone
     * to be used to get to pciio_dmamap_done?
     */
    /*
     * may want to call pollwakeup.
     */
}
/* =====
 *      ERROR HANDLING ENTRY POINTS
 */
static int
psamp_error_handler(void *einfo,
                    int error_code,
                    ioerror_mode_t mode,
                    ioerror_t *ioerror)
{
    psamp_soft_t      soft = (psamp_soft_t) einfo;
    vertex_hdl_t      vhdl = soft->ps_vhdl;
#ifdef DEBUG && ERROR_DEBUG
    cmn_err(CE_CONT, "%v: psamp_error_handler\n", vhdl);
#else

```

```
    vhdl = vhdl;
#endif
    /*
     * XXX- there is probably a lot more to do
     * to recover from an error on a real device;
     * experts on this are encouraged to add common
     * things that need to be done into this function.
     */
    ioerror_dump("sample_pciio", error_code, mode, ioerror);
    return IOERROR_HANDLED;
}
/* =====
 *      SUPPORT ENTRY POINTS
 */
/*
 *   psamp_halt: called during orderly system
 *   shutdown; no other device driver call will be
 *   made after this one.
 */
void
psamp_halt(void)
{
    printf("psamp_halt()\n");
}
/*
 *   psamp_size: return the size of the device in
 *   "sector" units (multiples of NBPSCTR).
 */
int
psamp_size(dev_t dev)
{
    vertex_hdl_t    vhdl = dev_to_vhdl(dev);
    psamp_soft_t    soft = psamp_soft_get(vhdl);
    return soft->ps_blocks;
}
/*
 *   psamp_print: used by the kernel to report an
 *   error detected on a block device.
 */
int
psamp_print(dev_t dev, char *str)
{
    cmn_err(CE_NOTE, "%V: %s\n", dev, str);
    return 0;
}
```

PART TEN

STREAMS Drivers

Chapter 22, "STREAMS Drivers"

How STREAMS drivers are integrated into the IRIX system.

STREAMS Drivers

The IRIX implementation of STREAMS drivers is intended to be compatible with the multiprocessor implementation of STREAMS in UNIX version SVR4.2.

STREAMS programming in SVR4.2 is documented in *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2*. That book contains detailed discussion and many examples of STREAMS programming.

References in this chapter to *STREAMS Modules and Drivers* are to the edition copyright 1992 by UNIX System Laboratories, published by UNIX Press/Prentice-Hall, and bearing ISBN 0-13-066879. If you are using an earlier edition, you should upgrade it. If you have a later edition, you may have to interpret references carefully.

This chapter contains the following major sections:

- “Driver Exported Names” on page 764 summarizes the public names and functions that a STREAMS driver must export.
- “Building and Debugging” on page 768 describes the ways that building a STREAMS driver are like and unlike other kernel-level drivers.
- “Special Considerations for Multiprocessing” on page 769 describes the methods you must use to work with the multi-threaded STREAMS monitor.
- “Special Considerations for IRIX” on page 771 details the points at which IRIX differs from the SVR4 STREAMS environment.
- “Summary of Standard STREAMS Functions” on page 776 lists the available kernel functions used by STREAMS drivers.
- “STREAMS Modules for X Input Devices” on page 779 describes the use of configuration files for special input devices used by the X display manager.

Driver Exported Names

A STREAMS driver or module must define certain public names for use by *lboot*, as described in “Summary of Driver Structure” on page 143. Only one of these names, the *info* structure, is unique to a STREAMS driver or module; all the others are also defined by kernel-level device drivers.

The public names all begin with a prefix (see “Driver Name Prefix” on page 143); the same prefix is specified in the configuration file (see “Describing the Driver in */var/sysgen/master.d*” on page 260).

Streamtab Structure

A STREAMS driver or module must provide a global *streamtab* structure containing pointers to the *qinit* structures for its read and write queues. These structures in turn point to required *module_info* structures. The name of the streamtab is *pxinfo*.

Driver Flag Constant

A STREAMS driver or module should provide a driver flag constant containing either 0 or the flag *D_MP*. (See “Driver Flag Constant” on page 148 and “Flag *D_MP*” on page 149). The name of the constant is *pxdevflag*.

Note: A driver or module that does not export *pxdevflag* is assumed to use SVR3 calling conventions at its *pxopen()* and *pxclose()* entry points. However, this support will be withdrawn in a release of IRIX in the very near term. If you are porting a STREAMS driver or module to IRIX you are urged to make sure it uses SVR4 conventions and exports a *pxdevflag* containing at least 0.

Initialization Entry Points

A STREAMS driver or module can define an entry point *pfxinit()*, or an entry point *pfxstart()*, or both. These entry points will be called during boot if the driver or module is included in the kernel, or when the driver or module is loaded if it is loadable. The operation of these entry points is the same as for device drivers (see “Initialization Entry Points” on page 150).

Many STREAMS drivers perform all initialization at open time, and have no *pfxinit()* or *pfxstart()* entry points. Many STREAMS modules perform initialization when they receive the `I_PUSH` ioctl message.

Entry Point *open()*

A STREAMS driver (but not module) must export a *pfxopen()* entry point. The argument list for a STREAMS driver’s open differs from that of a device driver. The prototype for a STREAMS *pfxopen()* entry point is:

```
int  
pfxopen(queue_t *q, dev_t *devp, int oflag, int sflag, cred_t *crp);
```

The argument values are

- *q* Pointer to the *queue* structure being opened.
- *devp* Pointer to a *dev_t* value from which you can extract both the major and minor device numbers.
- oflag* Flag bits specifying user mode options on the **open()** call.
- sflag* Flag bits specifying the type of STREAM open: driver, module or clone.
- *crp* Pointer to a *cred_t* object—an opaque structure for use in authentication.

The *pfxopen()* entry point is a public name. In addition a pointer to it must be defined in the *qinit* structure for the read queue.

Entry Point `close()`

A STREAMS driver (but not module) must export a `pfxclose()` entry point. The argument list for a STREAMS driver's `close` differs from that of a device driver. The prototype for a STREAMS `pfxclose()` entry point is:

```
int
pfxclose(queue_t *q, int oflag, cred_t *crp);
```

The argument values are the same as passed to `pfxopen()`. The `pfxclose()` entry point is a public name. In addition a pointer to it must be defined in the `qinit` structure for the read queue.

Put Functions `wput()` and `rput()`

Every STREAMS driver and module must define a `put()` function to handle messages as they are delivered to a queue.

The prototype of a `put()` function is as follows:

```
int
name(queue_t *q, mblk_t *mp);
```

Because the `put()` function for a given queue is addressed from the associated `qinit` structure, there is no requirement that the `put()` function be a public name, and no requirement that it begin with the prefix string. The `put()` function for the write queue, which handles messages moving “downstream” from the user process toward the driver, is conventionally called the `wput()` function. All write queues need a `wput()` function.

The `put()` function for the read queue, which handles messages moving “upstream” from the driver toward the user process, is conventionally called the `rput()` function. In some cases the `rput()` function is not required, for example in a driver where all upstream messages are generated by an interrupt handler.

Typically, a **put()** function decides what to do by switching on the message type value from `mp->b_datap->db_type`. A **put** routine must do at least one of the following:

- Process the message, if immediate processing is required, consuming the message or transforming it.
- Pass the original or processed message to the next component in the stream by calling the **putnext()** function (see the `putnext(D3)` reference page).
- Queue the message for deferred processing by the service routine with the **putq()** function (see the `putq(D3)` reference page).

When all processing is deferred to the service function, the address of the kernel function **putq()** can be given as a queue's **put()** function.

In a multiprocessor, a **put()** function can be called concurrently with user-level code, and concurrently with another **put()** function for the same or a different queue. A service function for the same or different queue can also be executing concurrently.

Service Functions **rsrv()** and **wsrv()**

When a STREAMS driver defers message processing by setting the kernel function **putq()** address as the driver's **put()** function, the queue must also define a service function **srv()**.

Because the **srv()** function for a given queue is addressed from the associated *qinit* structure, there is no requirement that the **srv()** function be a public name, and no requirement that it begin with the prefix string.

The prototype of a **svr()** function is as follows:

```
int
name(queue_t *q);
```

The **srv()** function for the write queue, which handles messages moving “downstream” from the user process toward the driver, is conventionally called the **wsrv()** function. The **srv()** function for the read queue, which handles messages moving “upstream” from the driver toward the user process, is conventionally called the **rsrv()** function.

An **srv()** function is called by the STREAMS monitor to deal with queued messages. It is called at a time chosen by the monitor, not necessarily related to any call to the **put()** function for the same queue. In a multiprocessor, only one instance of **srv()** is called per

queue at any time. However, one or more instances of the **put()** function could execute concurrently with the **srv()** function—so any data that is used in common by **put()** and **srv()** must be protected with a lock (see “Waiting and Mutual Exclusion” on page 233). User-level code can also execute concurrently with a service function.

The service function is expected to dispose of all queued messages through one of the following actions:

- Consuming and freeing the message.
- Passing the message on to the following queue using **putnext()** (see the **putnext(D3)** reference page).
- Replacing the message on the same queue using **putbq()** for processing later (see the **putbq(D3)** reference page).

The service function implements flow control (which the **put()** function cannot do). Before applying **putnext()**, the service function calls a flow control function such as **canputnext()** to find out if the following queue can accept a message. If the following queue cannot accept a message, the service function replaces the message with **putbq()** and exits.

A STREAMS module or driver that is not multiprocessor-aware (lacks **D_MP** in its **pfxddevflags**) uses one set of functions for flow control (see the **canput(D3)** and **bcanputnext(D3)** reference pages), while one that is multiprocessor-aware uses a different set (see **canputnext(D3)** and **bcanputnext(D3)**).

Building and Debugging

A STREAMS driver or module is a kernel module and is compiled using the same compiler options as any driver (see “Compiling and Linking” on page 256).

You configure each STREAMS driver or module as part of the IRIX kernel by:

- Placing the executable module in */var/sysgen/boot*
- Writing a descriptive file and placing it in */var/sysgen/master.d* (see “Describing the Driver in */var/sysgen/master.d*” on page 260)
- Placing a **USE** or **INCLUDE** line in */var/sysgen/system* (see “Configuring a Kernel” on page 263)

When a STREAMS driver or module is loadable, you specify the appropriate options in the descriptive file (see “Master File for Loadable Drivers” on page 265). You can configure a STREAMS driver or module to be autoregistered and loaded automatically (see “Registration” on page 267). Alternatively, you can require a STREAMS driver or module to be loaded manually using the *ml* command (see “Loading” on page 266).

When you have configured a debugging kernel (see “Preparing the System for Debugging” on page 269), the symbols of a STREAMS driver or module are available for display. You can set breakpoints using *symmon* (see “Using *symmon*” on page 277). You can display symbols using *symmon* or *idbg* (see “Using *idbg*” on page 287). In particular, *idbg* has built-in support for displaying the contents of structures used by a STREAMS module or driver (see “Commands to Display STREAMS Structures” on page 293).

Special Considerations for Multiprocessing

In IRIX releases prior to 6.2, the STREAMS monitor was single-threaded, so that only one **put()** or **srv()** function in the entire system could execute at any time. That one **put()** or **srv()** function might execute concurrently with user-level code, but no two STREAMS functions could execute concurrently.

Beginning with IRIX 6.2, the STREAMS monitor is multi-threaded. Depending on the version of IRIX and on the number of CPUs in the system, the following functions can run concurrently in any combination: one **srv()** function for each queue; any number of **put()** functions for each queue; and one or more user processes. For general discussion of the consequences, see “Designing for Multiprocessor Use” on page 184.

In the multithreaded monitor, when a module or driver calls **putq()** or **qenable()**, the service function for the enabled queue can begin to execute at any time. It can begin execution before the **putq()** or **qenable()** call has returned, and can run concurrently with the module or driver that enabled the queue.

The STREAMS monitor runs concurrently with interrupt handling. For this reason, the interrupt handler of a STREAMS driver must take an extra step before it performs any STREAMS-related processing such as **allocb()**, **putq()**, or **qenable()**. The IRIX-unique functions provided for this purpose are summarized in Table 22-1.

Table 22-1 Multiprocessing STREAMS Functions

Name	Can Sleep?	Summary
streams_interrupt(D3)	N	Synchronize interrupt-level function with STREAMS mechanism.
STREAMS_TIMEOUT(D3)	N	Synchronize timeout with STREAMS mechanism.

Suppose that the interrupt handler of a STREAMS driver needs to add a message to the read queue with **putq()**. It cannot simply call that function, since the STREAMS monitor might be using the queue at the same time in another CPU. The driver must define a function in which the **putq()** call is written. The name of this function and the pointer to the queue are passed to **streams_interrupt()**. As soon as possible, **streams_interrupt()** gets control of the queue and executes the passed function.

A callback function scheduled using **itimeout()** and similar functions (see “Waiting for Time to Pass” on page 242) must also be synchronized with the STREAMS monitor.

Suppose that a STREAMS driver or module needs to schedule a function to execute at a later time. (In a nonSTREAMS driver the function would be scheduled with **itimeout()**.) In the time-delayed function is a call to **qenable()**. That call cannot be executed freely whenever the interval expires, because the state of the STREAMS monitor is not known at that time.

The **STREAMS_TIMEOUT** macros provide a solution. Like **itimeout()**, it schedules a function to be executed at a later time. However, it defers calling the function until the function is synchronized with the STREAMS monitor, so that it can execute calls such as **qenable()**.

Expanded Termio Interface

Beginning in IRIX 6.3, the *termio* and *termios* structures (defined in the header files *termio.h* and *termios.h*) are expanded with two additional fields. These data structures are documented in the *termio(7)* reference page.

In order to ensure forward compatibility for user programs, the original structures are still supported at the level of the user process. The *termio(7)* reference page contains a discussion of how to ensure continued compilation of the old structure, under the heading "Mixing old and new interfaces."

Some STREAMS drivers may use the *termios* structure as an argument of an *ioctl* message. The STREAMS head, when processing an *ioctl* message that is known to take a *termio* structure, always converts the old (pre-6.3) structure to the new format. As a result, STREAMS drivers that process standard *ioctl* messages must be prepared to use the new structure. This is largely a matter of recompiling, because the names and types of the fields in the old structure are unchanged in the new structure.

STREAMS drivers that define and implement their own unique *ioctl* messages, and which take a *termios* structure as an argument of the *ioctl*, must be prepared to receive either the old *termios* format or the new one, depending on whether or not the user program has been recompiled on the current system.

The principal difference between the old and new structures, and the reason for the change, is that input and output baud rates are no longer encoded in a few bits, but are represented as integer fields. This permits specification of a much wider range of rates.

Special Considerations for IRIX

While IRIX is largely compatible with UNIX SVR4.2, there are points of difference in the implementation of IRIX that have to be reflected in the design of a STREAMS driver or module. This topic lists points at which the contents of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers*, *UNIX SVR4.2* is not a correct description of IRIX and STREAMS use within IRIX.

Extension of Poll and Select

Under IRIX, the `poll()` system function is not limited to testing STREAMS, but can be applied to file descriptors of all types (see the `poll(2)` and `select(2)` reference pages). In addition the `select()` function can be applied to STREAMS file descriptors. You may want to note this under the heading “STREAMS System Calls” in Chapter 2 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2*.

Support for Pipes

IRIX supports two kinds of pipes with different semantics, as described in the `pipe(2)` reference page. The default type of pipe is compatible with UNIX SVR3, and does not conform to the description in Chapter 2 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* under the heading “Creating a STREAMS-based Pipe.”

The SVR4 pipe semantics are enabled on a system-wide basis by using the `systune` command to set the tuning parameter `svr3pipe` to 0. First test the configuration as shown in Example 22-1.

Example 22-1 Testing Pipe Configuration

```
# systune | grep svr3pipe
svr3pipe = 1 (0x1)
```

Service Scheduling

At two points in *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* (Under “Service Procedure” in Chapter 4 and under “Message Processing” in Chapter 5), the book explicitly says that in a uniprocessor, enabled service functions are always executed before returning to user-level processing. This promise is not supported by IRIX. In both uniprocessors and multiprocessors, user-level processes can potentially execute after a service function is enabled and before it executes.

Supplied STREAMS Modules

STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2, Chapter 4, refers to some example STREAMS drivers named CHARPROC, CANONPROC, and ASCEBC. These examples are not supplied with IRIX.

The following STREAMS-based modules are supplied with IRIX. You can read their reference pages in volume 7:

alp(7)	Algorithm pool management module.
clone(7)	Clone-open driver; see “Support for CLONE Drivers” on page 774.
connld(7)	Line discipline for unique stream connections.
kbd(7)	Generalized string translation module.
log(7)	Interface to STREAMS error logging and event tracing.
sad(7)	STREAMS Administrative Driver.
streamio(7)	STREAMS ioctl commands.
timod(7)	Transport Interface cooperating STREAMS module.
tirdwr(7)	Transport Interface read/write interface STREAMS module.
tsd(7)	TELNET server protocol STREAMS device.

No #ifdefs

Chapter 4 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* refers in a note to the use of the #ifdef and a transition period for SVR3-compatible drivers. None of this material is relevant to IRIX. IRIX is SVR4-compatible, with no special provision for SVR3 drivers.

Different I/O Hardware Model

Chapter 5 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* discusses the use of memory-mapped hardware and of Dual-Access RAM (DARAM). None of these considerations are relevant in a MIPS processor. The MIPS I/O model is discussed in Chapter 1, “Physical and Virtual Memory.”

Different Network Model

Chapter 10 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* describes the TPI interface model. This model is supported in IRIX. When an application uses the TLI library functions such as `t_open()`, the library uses IRIX-provided TPI STREAMS modules which implement the protocol described in chapter 10.

Chapter 11 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* describes the Data Link Provider Interface (DLPI) as implemented using STREAMS facilities.

The IRIX networking support is not STREAMS-based, but rather is based on BSD *ifnet* architecture. This is discussed in Chapter 17, “Network Device Drivers.” The IRIX network support includes DLPI support as an add-on feature to the *ifnet* driver interface. If you are porting a network device driver to IRIX, it is better to convert it to the *ifnet* interface. You can install a DLPI-based network device driver, but only other STREAMS modules could use it—there would be no connection to the rest of the IRIX networking system.

Support for CLONE Drivers

STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2 discusses CLONE drivers; that is, STREAMS drivers that generate a new minor device number for each open. Refer to Chapter 3, “The CLONE Driver,” and to Chapter 8, “Cloning.” Clone opens and the clone driver are implemented under IRIX. This section clarifies the discussion in the SVR4 manual.

The essence of cloned access to a STREAMS driver is that the user process is indifferent to the minor device number, and simply wants to open a stream from this driver. A cloned stream is created using the following steps:

1. Recognize that the process calling **open()** is indifferent to the minor device number and simply wants cloned access.
2. Choose an unused minor device number from the set of minor numbers the driver supports.
3. Construct a new device number *dev_t* value based on the chosen minor number, and assign it to the argument passed to *pfxopen()*.

Using the CLONE Driver

The IRIX-supplied clone driver automates some of these steps for your driver. In order to use it, prepare a device special file with these characteristics:

- A device name that is related to the actual device name
- The major device number (10 decimal) that specifies the clone driver
- A minor device number equal to the major number of the actual driver

You can view the descriptive file for the clone driver in `/var/sysgen/master.d/clone`. This file sets its major number (10) and states that it is not loadable. Although the clone driver is not specifically configured in the `/var/sysgen/system/irix.sm` file, it is included in any kernel because it is listed as a dependency in the descriptive file of several other drivers (use `fgrep clone /var/sysgen/master.d/*` to see which drivers depend on it; and see “Listing Dependencies” on page 262). You can specify it as a dependency in the same way, if your driver depends on it.

When a user process opens a device special file with the major number of the clone driver, the kernel naturally calls the clone driver’s open entry point. The clone driver verifies that the minor number passed is the major number of an existing, STREAMS driver. (If it is not, the clone driver returns ENXIO).

The clone driver sets up the *qinit* structure appropriately for the target driver’s queue and calls that driver’s `pfxopen()` entry point, passing the CLONEOPEN flag in the *sflag* argument (see “Entry Point open()” on page 765).

Recognizing a Clone Request Independently

It is not essential to use the clone driver. You can instead designate a particular minor device number to stand for “clone open.” You prepare a device special file with these characteristics:

- A device name related to the actual device name
- The major number of your driver
- Some minor number you define to mean “clone open”

When a user process opens this device special file, the kernel calls the `pfxopen()` entry point of your driver. It does not pass the CLONEOPEN flag in *sflag*, but your driver can recognize a request for a clone open based on the minor device number.

Responding to a Clone Request

In response to a clone request coming from either of the two methods described, your `pfxopen()` entry point must select an unused minor device number. (If no minor number is available, return EBUSY.)

Text in Chapter 3 of *STREAMS Modules and Drivers, UNIX SVR4.2* seems to suggest that your driver should scan through the kernel’s *cdevsw* table to find an unused minor number (see “Kernel Switch Tables” on page 145). Under IRIX, the *cdevsw* table is not

accessible to drivers. The reason is that the table layout differs between 32-bit and 64-bit kernels, and can change between releases. Instead, your driver must know the minor numbers that it supports, and must know which ones are currently in use.

Tip: You can design your driver so that the number of supported devices is specified in the descriptive file in */var/sysgen/master.d*, and passed in to the driver through that descriptive file (see “Variables Section” on page 262). Your driver can allocate and initialize an array of device information structures in its *pfxinit()* entry point.

Your driver constructs a new *dev_t* value, specifying its major number and the selected minor number. The *makedevice()* function is used for this (see the *makedevice(D3)* reference page, which has some sample code for use in a clone open). The new *dev_t* value is stored into the **devp* argument passed to *pfxopen()*.

Summary of Standard STREAMS Functions

The supported kernel functions for STREAMS operations are summarized for reference in Table 22-2. To declare the necessary prototypes and data types, include *sys/types.h* and *sys/stream.h*.

Table 22-2 Kernel Entry Points

Name	Can Sleep?	Summary
<i>adjmsg(D3)</i>	N	Trim bytes from a message.
<i>allocb(D3)</i>	N	Allocate a message block.
<i>bcanput(D3)</i>	N	Test for flow control in a specified priority band.
<i>bcanputnext(D3)</i>	N	Test for flow control in a specified priority band.
<i>bufcall(D3)</i>	N	Call a function when a buffer becomes available.
<i>canput(D3)</i>	N	Test for room in a message queue.
<i>canputnext(D3)</i>	N	Test for room in a message queue.
<i>copyb(D3)</i>	N	Copy a message block.
<i>copymsg(D3)</i>	N	Copy a message.
<i>datamsg(D3)</i>	N	Test whether a message is a data message.

Table 22-2 (continued) Kernel Entry Points

Name	Can Sleep?	Summary
dupb(D3)	N	Duplicate a message block.
dupmsg(D3)	N	Duplicate a message.
enableok(D3)	N	Allow a queue to be serviced.
esballoc(D3)	N	Allocate a message block using an externally-supplied buffer.
esbcall(D3)	N	Call a function when an externally-supplied buffer can be allocated.
flushband(D3)	N	Flush messages in a specified priority band.
flushq(D3)	N	Flush messages on a queue.
freeb(D3)	N	Free a message block.
freemsg(D3)	N	Free a message.
freeze(D3)	N	Freeze the state of a stream.
getq(D3)	N	Get the next message from a queue.
insq(D3)	N	Insert a message into a queue.
linkb(D3)	N	Concatenate two message blocks.
msgdsz(D3)	N	Return number of bytes of data in a message.
msgpullup(D3)	N	Concatenate bytes in a message.
noenable(D3)	N	Prevent a queue from being scheduled.
OTHERQ(D3)	N	Get a pointer to queue's partner queue.
pcmsg(D3)	N	Test whether a message is a priority control message.
pullupmsg(D3)	N	Concatenate bytes in a message.
putbq(D3)	N	Place a message at the head of a queue.
putctl(D3)	N	Send a control message to a queue.
putctl1(D3)	N	Send a control message with a one-byte parameter to a queue.

Table 22-2 (continued) Kernel Entry Points

Name	Can Sleep?	Summary
putnext(D3)	N	Send a message to the next queue.
putnextctl(D3)	N	Send a control message to a queue.
putnextctl1(D3)	N	Send a control message with a one-byte parameter to a queue.
putq(D3)	N	Put a message on a queue.
qenable(D3)	N	Schedule a queue's service routine to be run.
qprocsoff(D3)	Y	Enable put and service routines.
qprocon(D3)	Y	Disable put and service routines.
qreply(D3)	N	Send a message in the opposite direction in a stream.
qsize(D3)	N	Find the number of messages on a queue.
RD(D3)	N	Get a pointer to the read queue.
rmvb(D3)	N	Remove a message block from a message.
rmvq(D3)	N	Remove a message from a queue.
SAMESTR(D3)	N	Test if next queue is of the same type.
strqget(D3)	N	Get information about a queue or band of the queue.
strqset(D3)	N	Change information about a queue or band of the queue.
unbufcall(D3)	N	Cancel a pending bufcall request.
unfreezestr(D3)	N	Unfreeze the state of a stream.
unlinkb(D3)	N	Remove a message block from the head of a message.
WR(D3)	N	Get a pointer to the write queue.

STREAMS Modules for X Input Devices

The Silicon Graphics, Inc. implementation of the X display manager, *Xsgi*, is a customized version of the MIT X11 Sample Server. Besides other enhancements such as integration with Silicon Graphics proprietary graphics subsystems, *Xsgi* implements a generalized input subsystem so that unusual input devices can easily be integrated into the X window system. The input system is based on STREAMS modules.

The X Input Subsystem

While X mandates that every X server support a keyboard and mouse, there is no standard system interface for accessing such devices on UNIX systems. This means each vendor has its own input subsystem for its X server. SGI's input subsystem not only meets the basic requirement to support a keyboard and mouse but also has the following features:

- A shared memory input queue is supported for high performance
- A wide variety of input devices is supported, including 3D devices such as the Spaceball
- Input devices are supported abstractly; knowledge of specific input devices is isolated to modular kernel-level device drivers
- Hardware cursor tracking is supported in the kernel

These features provide a more functional, responsive input subsystem than that available in the MIT Sample Server.

The programming interface to the input subsystem from the X client API is covered in the *X11 Input Extension Library Specification*, an online book that is distributed with the IRIX Developer's Option.

Note: Numerous code examples demonstrating the X input system are available in the X developer component (`x_dev` component) of the IRIX Developer Option. Source for STREAMS modules to integrate a Spaceball, a dial-and-button box, and other devices can be found in subdirectories of `/usr/share/src/X`.

Shared Memory Input Queue

A shared memory input queue (called a *shmiq* in Silicon Graphics code comments, and pronounced “shmick”) is a fast way of receiving input device events by eliminating the filesystem overhead to receive data from input devices. Instead of the X server reading the input devices through file descriptors, a kernel-level driver deposits input events directly into a region of the X server’s address space, organized as a ring buffer.

The IRIX *shmiq* device driver is implemented as a STREAMS multiplexor. This allows an arbitrary number of input sources (in the form of STREAMS modules) to be linked to it so all input sources are funneled through the *shmiq*.

In addition to processing input events from input device modules, the *shmiq* driver also processes events from the graphics subsystem, and updates the screen cursor position. This allows smooth cursor movement since cursor positioning is done in kernel code, without *Xsgi* involvement.

IDEV Interface

X input devices are integrated into the *shmiq* driver by implementing STREAMS modules that translate raw device input into abstract events which are sent to the *shmiq* driver (and on to the server). For example, an input device that connects to a serial port can be integrated in the form of a STREAMS module that is pushed onto the stream from that serial device, and translates incoming bytes into event messages.

The *shmiq* driver expects messages from all input devices to be in the form of IDEV events, as documented in the `/usr/include/sys/idev.h` header file; hence this is called the IDEV interface. IDEV device events appear as valuator, button, and pointer state changes.

The IDEV interface defines two-way communications between the input device and *Xsgi*. Besides the uniform set of IDEV input events, the interface defines a standard set of abstract commands that *Xsgi* can send down (using IOCTL messages) to initialize and control input devices. This allows the server to see input devices as abstract input sources and does not require special server code to be written every time a new input device is supported. Instead, device specific knowledge of each devices is encapsulated in an IDEV-based STREAMS module linked into the kernel.

Input Device Naming

Xsgi recognizes as input devices, any device special files named in the */dev/input* directory. On a machine with graphics, this includes */dev/input/keyboard* and */dev/input/mouse*. (A server-type machine without graphics typically has no names in */dev/input*.) Other input devices that are to be integrated into the IDEV interface must also appear as symbolic links in */dev/input*.

Typically an X input device is defined as a link from */dev/input* to some other device special file, typically a serial port in the */hw/ttys/tty** group. The filename in */dev/input* determines the name of the STREAMS module that is used to interface that device to the IDEV input system. For example, if the file is */dev/input/calcomp*, the *calcomp* STREAMS module is loaded and pushed onto the stream from the device.

When a single STREAMS module is used to support two or more devices, you can use a hyphen-digit suffix on the filename. For example, the *calcomp* STREAMS module would be used for both */dev/input/calcomp-1* and */dev/input/calcomp-2*.

When a device is initialized (as described in the next section), the STREAMS module is asked to return the X name of the input device. This name can be the same as the name of the device and the module, or it can be different. Typically the device and module names will reflect the hardware type (for example *calcomp*), while the X name reflects the kind of device (for example *tablet*).

Opening Input Devices

An input device is opened at one of two times: when the X server starts up, and when an X client requests an open.

Starting Up the Server

When *Xsgi* starts up, it opens each device name in */dev/input* and for each one it:

- Loads a STREAMS module that has the same name as the name of the device special file, and pushes it onto the stream from the device, below the *shmiq* multiplexor.

The STREAMS module may be loadable, and most IDEV modules are loadable.

- Looks for a file in */usr/lib/X11/input/config* having the same name as the module. The device controls in that file are sent down the stream as IOCTL messages.

The format of device controls is discussed under “Device Controls” on page 783.

- Asks the device to describe itself. This is done by sending down an IOCTL message of the type `IDEVDESC`. The module must return the IOCTL message with descriptive data.

The IDEV IOCTL structures are declared in `/usr/include/sys/idev.h`. A key element of the device description is the X name of the input device.

- Looks for a file in `/usr/lib/X11/input/config` having the X name of the device as returned in the device description. The X init controls in this file are processed by the X server.

The format of X init controls is discussed under “Device Controls” on page 783.

- Unless `autostart` was specified for this device, the device is closed.

Opening from a Client

An X application can use the `XListInputDevices()` function to get a list of available input devices. Then it can call `XOpenDevice()` to open a selected device, so that input events from that device will be processed by the X server (see the `XListInputDevices(3X)` and `XOpenDevice(3X)` reference pages).

When `XOpenDevice()` is called for an input device that is not already open, it repeats the process done at startup time:

- Loads the STREAMS module and pushes it on the device stream, feeding the `shmiq` multiplexor.
- Sends device controls from a file in `/usr/lib/X11/input/config` having the same name as the module.
- Asks the device (module) to describe itself, including the X name of the device.
- Processes X init controls from a file in `/usr/lib/X11/input/config` having the X name of the device.

Device Controls

Device controls are string values that are passed via an IOCTL message to the STREAMS module for an input device at the time the device is opened. You can use device controls as a way of configuring the device module at runtime. Device controls are interpreted only by the module.

X init controls have the same syntax as device controls, but are processed by the X server after the device has been initialized.

Where Controls Are Stored

You can issue X server device controls on the fly by calling **XSGIDeviceControl** from within a program, or by storing them in configuration files in the `/usr/lib/X11/input/config` directory. Specific documentation on controls can be found in `/usr/lib/X11/input/config/README`.

There are (potentially) two configuration files per device. As noted under “Opening Input Devices” on page 781, the X server looks for device controls in a file with the same name as the STREAMS module that implements the device. After the module returns the X name of the device, the X server looks for X init controls in a file with the X name of the device.

Some devices use the same name for the STREAMS module and for the X device (*tablet*, *mouse*), but some use different names for the two. For example, the STREAMS module for the Spaceball device is *sball*, while the X name is *spaceball*.

The X server intercepts about a dozen **x_init** controls. For a list of the **x_init** controls and some of the more common **device_init** controls, see the file

Control Syntax

When the X server opens a file to look for device controls, it searches the file for a single set of controls with the following format:

```
device_init {  
    name    "value"  
    ...  
}
```

Each *name* may have at most 15 characters. Each *value* may have at most 23 characters. Each pair of name and value are put in an IOCTL message of *idevOtherControl* type and sent down to the device module for interpretation.

When the X server opens a file to look for X init controls, it searches the file for a single set of controls with the following format:

```
x_init {  
    name    "value"  
    . . .  
}
```

The syntax is the same, except for the use of *x_init* instead of *device_init*.

The specific *name* and *value* strings that the X server supports are documented in the file */usr/lib/X11/input/config/README*. Any *name* strings that are not recognized by the X server are sent down to the device module, just as if they were device controls.

Silicon Graphics Driver/Kernel API

This appendix summarizes the Silicon Graphics Driver/Kernel Authorized Programming Interface in tabular form. The data structures, entry points, and kernel functions are listed alphabetically with cross-references to the pages where they are discussed. The tables also show which functions and structures are compatible with SVR4 and which are unique to IRIX.

The tables in this appendix are based on the reference pages in volume D. The reference pages in volume D constitute the formal, engineering definition of the Driver/Kernel API. When discussion in this book disagrees with the contents of a reference page, the reference page takes precedence (however, any such disagreement should be reported by email to techpubs@sgi.com).

- “Driver Exported Names” on page 786 tabulates the names of data and functions that a driver must export.
- “Kernel Data Structures and Declarations” on page 787 tabulates the objects used in the interface.
- “Kernel Functions” on page 789 tabulates the IRIX kernel services used by drivers.

Each table in this appendix has a column headed “Versions.” The codes in this column have the following meanings:

SV	Syntactically and semantically portable from SVR4 UNIX, as documented in the <i>UNIX SVR4.2 Device Driver Reference</i> .
SV*	Syntactically portable from UNIX SVR4, but semantics may differ. Read the discussion and reference page carefully when porting.
5.3	Portable from IRIX version 5.3.
5.3*	Portable from IRIX 5.3, but interface has changed in some detail or new ability has been added.
6.2	Portable from IRIX version 6.2.
6.4	Introduced in IRIX 6.4.

Driver Exported Names

The kernel loader, *lboot*, recognizes certain exported names of static data and functional entry points. These exported names are summarized in Table A-1.

Table A-1 Driver Exported Names

Name	Summary	Discussed	Versions
attach()	Notify driver of device attachment.	page 153	6.4
close(D2)	Notify driver of final close of minor device.	page 160	SV, 5.3
detach()	Notify driver of removed device.	page 156	6.4
devflag(D1)	Show driver attributes to <i>lboot</i> .	page 148	SV*, 5.3*
edtinit(D2)	Initialize driver from VECTOR information (obsolete in 6.2).	page 151	5.3
halt(D2)	Notify driver of system shutdown.	page 181	SV, 5.3
info(D1)	Show driver entries to STREAMS interface.	page 765	SV, 5.3
init(D2)	Initialize driver early in system startup.	page 151	SV*, 5.3
intr(D2)	Notify driver of device interrupt (obsolete).	page 175	SV, 5.3
ioctl(D2)	Call driver to implement ioctl() call.	page 161	SV*, 5.3
map(D2)	Call driver to implement mmap() .	page 170	5.3
mmap(D2)	Call driver to implement mmap() (SVR4).	page 173	SV*, 5.3
open(D2)	Call driver to open a device.	page 157	SV, 5.3
print(D2)	Call block driver to display filesystem error.	page 182	SV, 5.3
put(D2)	Call STREAMS driver to receive message.	page 766	SV, 5.3
read(D2)	Call character driver to read data.	page 163	SV, 5.3
reg()	Call driver to register for device handling.	page 153	6.4
size(D2)	Call block driver to get device capacity.	page 181	SV, 5.3
srv(D2)	Call driver to service queued messages.	page 767	SV, 5.3
start(D2)	Initialize driver late in system startup.	page 152	SV, 5.3

Table A-1 (continued) Driver Exported Names

Name	Summary	Discussed	Versions
strategy(D2)	Call block driver to read or write data.	page 165	SV*, 5.3
unload(D2)	Call loadable driver prior to unloading it.	page 180	5.3
unreg()	Call driver to unregister as a device handler.	page 153	6.4
unmap(D2)	Call driver to notify it of unmap() call.	page 174	5.3
write(D2)	Call character driver to write data.	page 163	SV, 5.3

The following reference pages have overview information on exported names: intro(D1), intro(D2), and prefix(D1).

Note: The following SVR4 exported names are not used in IRIX drivers: `chpoll`, `_load`, and `_unload`. The latter is replaced by `pxload()` without the leading underscore.

Kernel Data Structures and Declarations

The driver/kernel interface is based on shared use of certain data types and defined constant values. For general information on these interface objects, see the intro(D4) and intro(D5) reference pages.

The interface objects used by device drivers are summarized in Table A-2. .

Table A-2 Device Driver Interface Objects

Name	Summary	Discussed	Versions
alenlist(d4x)	Address/length list.	page 193	6.4
buf(D4)	Block read/write request structure.	page 196	SV*, 5.3*
eisa_dma_cb(D4)	DMA command block for EISA slave DMA.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_buf(D4)	DMA command buffer for EISA slave DMA.	page 607	5.3
errnos(D5)	Error numbers valid for driver use.		SV*, 5.3
iovec(D4)	Describes an I/O buffer segment to the read or write entry points.	page 195	SV, 5.3

Table A-2 (continued) Device Driver Interface Objects

Name	Summary	Discussed	Versions
signals(D5)	Lists signal numbers valid for driver use.		SV*, 5.3
uio(D4)	Describes an I/O request to the read or write entry points.	page 195	SV*, 5.3
hwgraph.intro(d4x)	Hardware graph (hwgraph) vertexes and edges.	page 192	6.4

Note: The following data structures used in SVR4 drivers are not used in IRIX: *dma_buf* and *dma_cb*. The *eisa_dma_buf* and *eisa_dma_cb* structures are similar but are used only in EISA drivers.

The interface objects used by STREAMS drivers are summarized in Table A-3

Table A-3 STREAMS Driver Interface Objects

Name	Summary	Discussed	Versions
copyreq(D4)	Copy request structure.		SV, 5.3
copyresp(D4)	Copy response structure.		SV, 5.3
datab(D4)	Message data block.		SV, 5.3
free_rtn(D4)	Describes a message-free routine.		SV, 5.3
iocblk(D4)	Describes ioctl() data or response.		SV, 5.3
linkblk(D4)	Describes multiplexed link.		SV, 5.3
module_info(D4)	Describes module attributes.		SV, 5.3
msgb(D4)	Describes all or part of a message.		SV, 5.3
qinit(D4)	Points to handlers and parameters for a queue.		SV, 5.3
queue(D4)	Describes a queue of messages.		SV, 5.3
streamtab(D4)	Points to the queues handled by a driver.		SV, 5.3
stroptions(D4)	Lists stream-head options.		SV, 5.3

Kernel Functions

The IRIX kernel makes available the functions summarized in Table A-4.

Table A-4 Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
adjmsg(D3)	Trim bytes from a message.	page 213	SV, 5.3
alenlist_append() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Add a specified address and length as an item to an existing alenlist.	page 214	6.4
alenlist_clear() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Empty an alenlist.	page 214	6.4
alenlist_create() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Create an empty alenlist.	page 213	6.4
alenlist_cursor_create() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Create an alenlist cursor and associate it with a specified list.	page 215	6.4
alenlist_cursor_destroy() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Release memory of a cursor.	page 215	6.4
alenlist_cursor_init() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Set a cursor to point at a specified list item.	page 215	6.4
alenlist_cursor_offset() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Query the effective byte offset of a cursor in the buffer described by a list.	page 215	6.4
alenlist_destroy() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Release memory of an alenlist.	page 213	6.4
alenlist_get() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Retrieve the next sequential address and length from a list.	page 213	6.4
alloca(D3)	Allocate a message block.		SV, 5.3
ASSERT(D3)	Debugging macro designed for use in the kernel (compare to assert(3X)).	page 277	5.3
badaddr(D3)	Test physical address for input.	page 220	5.3
badaddr_val(D3)	Test physical address for input and return the input value received.	page 220	6.2
bcanput(D3)	Test for flow control in a specified priority band.		SV, 5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
bcanputnext(D3)	Test for flow control in a specified priority band.		SV, 5.3
bcmp(D3)	Compare data between kernel locations.	page 208	SV, 5.3
bcopy(D3)	Copy data between locations in the kernel.	page 208	SV, 5.3
biodone(D3)	Mark a <i>buf_t</i> as complete and wake any process waiting for it.	page 245	SV, 5.3
bioerror(D3)	Manipulate error fields within a <i>buf_t</i> .	page 245	SV, 5.3
biowait(D3)	Suspend process pending completion of block I/O.	page 245	SV, 5.3
bp_mapin(D3)	Map buffer pages into kernel virtual address space.	page 218	SV, 5.3
bp_mapout(D3)	Release mapping of buffer pages.	page 218	SV, 5.3
brelse(D3)	Return a buffer to the system's free list.	page 206	SV, 5.3
btod(D3)	Return number of 512-byte "sectors" in a byte count (round up).	page 211	5.3
btop(D3)	Return number of I/O pages in a byte count (truncate).	page 211	SV, 5.3
btopr(D3)	Return number of I/O pages in a byte count (round up).	page 211	SV, 5.3
bufcall(D3)	Call a function when a buffer becomes available.		SV, 5.3
buf_to_alenlist() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Fill an alenlist with entries that describe the buffer controlled by a <i>buf_t</i> object.	page 214	6.4
bzero(D3)	Clear kernel memory for a specified size.	page 207	SV, 5.3
canput(D3)	Test for room in a message queue.		SV, 5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
canputnext(D3)	Test for room in a message queue.		SV, 5.3
clrbuf(D3)	Erase the contents of a buffer described page 218 by a buf_t.		SV, 5.3
cmn_err(D3)	Display an error message or panic the page 274 system.		SV*, 5.3
copyb(D3)	Copy a message block.		SV, 5.3
copyin(D3)	Copy data from user address space.	page 207	SV, 5.3
copymsg(D3)	Copy a message.		SV, 5.3
copyout(D3)	Copy data to user address space.	page 207	SV, 5.3
cpsema(D3)	Conditionally decrement a semaphore's state.	page 251	5.3
cvsema(D3)	Conditionally increment a semaphore's state	page 251	5.3
datamsg(D3)	Test whether a message is a data message.		SV, 5.3
delay(D3)	Delay for a specified number of clock ticks.	page 242	SV, 5.3
device_admin_info_get() (hwgraph.admin(d3x))	Retrieve value set with DEVICE_ADMIN statement.	page 231	6.4
device_controller_num_get() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Get controller number from first inventory record in a vertex.	page 229	6.4
device_controller_num_get() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Set controller number field only in first inventory record in a vertex.	page 229	6.4
device_driver_admin_info_get() (hwgraph.admin(d3x))	Retrieve value set with DRIVER_ADMIN statement.	page 231	6.4
device_info_get() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Return device info pointer stored in vertex.	page 221	6.4
device_info_set() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Store the address of device information in a vertex.	page 223	6.4

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
device_inventory_add() (hwgraph.inv(d3x))	Add hardware inventory data to a vertex.	page 229	6.4
device_inventory_get_next() (hwgraph.inv(d3x))	Read out inventory data from a vertex.	page 229	
disable_sysad_parity()	Disable memory parity checking on SysAD bus.	page 686	5.3
dki_dcache_inval(D3)	Invalidate the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.	page 219	5.3
dki_dcache_wb(D3)	Write back the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.	page 219	5.3
dki_dcache_wbinval(D3)	Write back and invalidate the data cache for a given range of virtual addresses.	page 219	5.3
drv_getparm(D3)	Retrieve kernel state information.	page 232	SV*, 5.3
drv_hztousec(D3)	Convert clock ticks to microseconds	page 242	SV, 5.3
drv_priv(D3)	Test for privileged user.	page 232	SV, 5.3
drv_setparm(D3)	Set kernel state information.	page 232	SV, 5.3
drv_usectohz(D3)	Convert microseconds to clock ticks.	page 242	SV, 5.3
drv_usecwait(D3)	Busy-wait for a specified interval.	page 242	SV, 5.3
dtimeout(D3)	Schedule a function execute on a specified processor after a specified length of time.	page 242	5.3
dupb(D3)	Duplicate a message block.		SV, 5.3
dupmsg(D3)	Duplicate a message.		SV, 5.3
eisa_dma_disable(D3)	Disable recognition of hardware requests on EISA DMA channel.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_enable(D3)	Enable recognition of hardware requests on EISA DMA channel.	page 607	5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
eisa_dma_free_buf(D3)	Free a previously allocated EISA DMA buffer descriptor.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_free_cb(D3)	Free a previously allocated EISA DMA command block.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_get_buf(D3)	Allocate EISA DMA buffer descriptor.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_get_cb(D3)	Allocate EISA DMA command block.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_prog(D3)	Program EISA DMA operation for a subsequent software request.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_stop(D3)	Stop software-initiated EISA DMA operation and release channel.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dma_swstart(D3)	Initiate EISA DMA operation via software request.	page 607	5.3
eisa_dmachan_alloc()	Allocate a DMA channel for EISA slave DMA.	page 605	5.3
eisa_ivec_alloc()	Allocate an IRQ level for EISA.	page 603	5.3
eisa_ivec_set()	Associate a handler with an EISA IRQ.	page 603	5.3
enableok(D3)	Allow a queue to be serviced.		SV, 5.3
enable_sysad_parity()	Reenable parity checking on SysAD bus.	page 686	5.3
esballoc(D3)	Allocate a message block using an externally-supplied buffer.		SV, 5.3
esbcall(D3)	Call a function when an externally-supplied buffer can be allocated.		SV, 5.3
etoimajor(D3)	Convert external to internal major device number.	page 199	SV, 5.3
fast_itimeout(D3)	Same as itimeout() but takes an interval in "fast ticks."	page 242	6.2

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
fasthzto(D3)	Returns the value of a <i>struct timeval</i> as a count of "fast ticks."	page 242	6.2
flushband(D3)	Flush messages in a specified priority band.		SV, 5.3
flushbus(D3)	Make sure contents of the write buffer are flushed to the system bus	page 219	5.3
flushq(D3)	Flush messages on a queue.		SV, 5.3
freeb(D3)	Free a message block.		SV, 5.3
freemsg(D3)	Free a message.		SV, 5.3
freerbuf(D3)	Free a <i>buf_t</i> with no buffer.	page 206	SV, 5.3
freesema(D3)	Free the resources associated with a semaphore.	page 251	5.3*
freezestr(D3)	Freeze the state of a stream.		SV, 5.3
fubyte(D3)	Load a byte from user space.	page 207	5.3
fuword(D3)	Load a word from user space.	page 207	5.3
geteblk(D3)	Get a <i>buf_t</i> with no buffer.	page 206	SV, 5.3
getemajor(D3)	Get external major device number.	page 199	SV, 5.3
geteminor(D3)	Get external minor device number.	page 199	SV, 5.3
geterror(D3)	retrieve error number from a buffer header	page 245	SV, 5.3
getmajor(D3)	Get internal major device number (obsolete).	page 199	SV, 5.3
getminor(D3)	Get internal minor device number (obsolete).	page 199	SV, 5.3
getq(D3)	Get the next message from a queue.		SV, 5.3
getrbuf(D3)	Allocate a <i>buf_t</i> with no buffer.	page 206	SV, 5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
hwcpin(D3)	Copy data from device registers to kernel memory.	page 207	5.3
hwcpout(D3)	Copy data from kernel memory to device registers.	page 207	5.3
hwgraph_block_device_add() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Create block device special file under a specified vertex.	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_char_device_add() (hwgraph.dev(d3x))	Create a character device special file under a specified vertex.	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_edge_add() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	Add a labelled edge between two vertexes.	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_edge_get() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	Retrieve the vertex destination of a labelled edge (follow edge).	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_edge_remove() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	Delete a labelled edge between two vertexes.	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_info_add_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Attach a labelled attribute to a vertex.	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_info_export_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Make an attribute visible to attr_get(2).	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_info_get_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Retrieve an attribute by name.	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_info_remove_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Remove an attribute from a vertex.	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_info_replace_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Replace the value of an attribute by name.	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_info_unexport_LBL() (hwgraph.lblinfo(d3x))	Make an attribute invisible.	page 229	6.4
hwgraph_traverse() (hwgraph.edge(d3x))	Follow a path of edges starting from a given vertex.	page 223	6.4
hwgraph_vertex_create() (hwgraph.vertex(d3x))	Create a new, empty vertex, and return its handle.	page 223	6.4

Table A-4 (continued)		Kernel Functions	
Name	Summary	Text	Versions
hwgraph_vertex_destroy() (hwgraph.vertex(d3x))	Deallocate a vertex.		6.4
hwgraph_vertex_ref() (hwgraph.vertex(d3x))	Increase the reference count of a vertex.		6.4
hwgraph_vertex_unref() (hwgraph.vertex(d3x))	Decrease the reference count of a vertex.		6.4
initnsema(D3)	Initialize a semaphore to a specified count.	page 251	5.3
initnsema_mutex(D3)	Initialize a semaphore to a count of 1.	page 251	5.3
insq(D3)	Insert a message into a queue.		SV, 5.3
ip26_enable_ucmem(D3)	Change memory mode on IP26 processor.	page 33	6.2
ip26_return_ucmem(D3)	Change memory mode on IP26 processor.	page 33	SV, 5.3
is_sysad_parity_enabled()	Test for parity checking on SysAD bus.	page 686	5.3
itimeout(D3)	Schedule a function to be executed after a specified number of clock ticks.	page 242	SV, 5.3
itoemajor(D3)	Convert internal to external major device number.	page 199	SV, 5.3
kern_calloc(D3)	Allocate and clear space from kernel memory.	page 203	5.3
kern_free(D3)	Free kernel memory space.	page 203	5.3
kern_malloc(D3)	Allocate kernel virtual memory.	page 203	5.3
kmem_alloc(D3)	Allocate space from kernel free memory.	page 203	SV, 5.3
kmem_free(D3)	Free previously allocated kernel memory.	page 203	SV, 5.3
kmem_zalloc(D3)	Allocate and clear space from kernel free memory.	page 203	SV, 5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
kvaddr_to_alenlist() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Fill an alenlist with entries that describe a buffer in kernel virtual address space.	page 214	6.2
kvtophys(D3)	Get physical address of kernel data.	page 217	5.3
linkb(D3)	Concatenate two message blocks.		SV*, 5.3*
LOCK(D3)	Acquire a basic lock, waiting if necessary.	page 235	SV*, 5.3*
LOCK_ALLOC(D3)	Allocate and initialize a basic lock.	page 235	SV*, 5.3*
LOCK_DEALLOC(D3)	Deallocate an instance of a basic lock.	page 235	SV*, 5.3*
LOCK_INIT(D3)	Initialize a basic lock that was allocated statically, or reinitialize an allocated lock.	page 235	6.2
LOCK_DESTROY(D3)	Uninitialize a basic lock that was allocated statically.	page 235	6.2
makedevice(D3)	Make device number from major and minor numbers.	page 199	SV, 5.3
max(D3)	Return the larger of two integers.		SV, 5.3
min(D3)	Return the lesser of two integers.		SV, 5.3
msgdsiz(D3)	Return number of bytes of data in a message.		SV, 5.3
msgpullup(D3)	Concatenate bytes in a message.		SV, 5.3
MUTEX_ALLOC(D3)	Allocate and initialize a mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_DEALLOC(D3)	Deinitialize and free a dynamically allocated mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_DESTROY(D3)	Deinitialize a mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_INIT(D3)	Initialize an existing mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_ISLOCKED(D3)	Test if a mutex lock is owned.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_LOCK(D3)	Claim a mutex lock.	page 237	6.2

Table A-4 (continued)		Kernel Functions	
Name	Summary	Text	Versions
MUTEX_MINE(D3)	Test if a mutex lock is owned by this process.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_TRYLOCK(D3)	Conditionally claim a mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_UNLOCK(D3)	Release a mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
MUTEX_WAITQ(D3)	Get the number of processes blocked by mutex lock.	page 237	6.2
ngeteblk(D3)	Allocate a <i>buf_t</i> and a buffer of specified size.	page 206	SV, 5.3
noenable(D3)	Prevent a queue from being scheduled.		SV, 5.3
OTHERQ(D3)	Get a pointer to queue's partner queue.		SV, 5.3
pciio_dma_dev_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get device vertex from DMA map.		6.4
pciio_dma_slot_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get slot number from DMA map.		6.4
pciio_dmamap_addr() (pciio_dma(d3))	Set up DMA mapping for an address.		6.3
pciio_dmamap_alloc() (pciio_dma(d3))	Allocate DMA map object.		6.3
pciio_dmamap_done() (pciio_dma(d3))	Release mapping hardware associated with a map object.		6.3
pciio_dmamap_free() (pciio_dma(d3))	Release DMA map object.		6.3
pciio_dmamap_list() (pciio_dma(d3))	Set up DMA mapping for a list of addresses.		6.3
pciio_dmatrans_addr() (pciio_dma(d3))	Set up DMA mapping using fixed resources if available.		6.3
pciio_dmatrans_list() (pciio_dma(d3))	Set up DMA mapping using fixed resources if available.		6.3
pciio_driver_register() (pciio(d3))	Register driver to handle specific devices.		6.3
pciio_driver_unregister() (pciio(d3))	Unregister driver as device handler.		6.4

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
pciio_error_register() (pciio_error(d3))	Register error handler for device.		6.4
pciio_info_bus_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query PCI bus number for device.		6.4
pciio_info_dev_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query connection vertex for device.		6.4
pciio_info_device_id_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query PCI device ID for device.		6.4
pciio_info_func_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query interrupt function for device.		6.4
pciio_info_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get PCI info object for use in queries.		6.4
pciio_info_slot_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query bus slot number for device.		6.4
pciio_info_vendor_id_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query PCI vendor ID for device.		6.4
pciio_intr_alloc() (pciio_intr(d3))	Allocate interrupt object.		6.3
pciio_intr_connect() (pciio_intr(d3))	Enable interrupt and set handler.		6.3
pciio_intr_cpu_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query CPU handling interrupt from device		6.4
pciio_intr_dev_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get device vertex from interrupt object.		6.4
pciio_intr_disconnect() (pciio_intr(d3))	Disable interrupt and unregister handler.		6.3
pciio_intr_free() (pciio_intr(d3))	Release interrupt object.		6.4
pciio_iterate() (pciio(d3))	Call function for every attached device.		6.4
pciio_pio_addr() (pciio_pio(d3))	Set up PIO mapping using map object.		6.3
pciio_pio_dev_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get device vertex from PIO map.		6.4
pciio_pio_mapsz_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get map size from PIO map object.		6.4
pciio_pio_pciaddr_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Get target bus address from PIO map object.		6.4
pciio_pio_slot_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query bus slot number from PIO map.		6.4

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
pciio_pio_space_get() (pciio_get(d3))	Query target bus address space from PIO map.		6.4
pciio_piomap_addr() (pciio_pio(d3))	Set up PIO mapping using map object.		6.3
pciio_piomap_alloc() (pciio_pio(d3))	Allocate PIO map object.		6.3
pciio_piomap_done() (pciio_pio(d3))	Release mapping hardware associated with a PIO map.		6.4
pciio_piomap_free() (pciio_pio(d3))	Release a PIO map object.		6.3
pciio_piospace_alloc() (pciio_pio(d3))	Reserve PCI bus address space for a device.		6.4
pciio_piospace_free() (pciio_pio(d3))	Release PCI bus address space.		6.4
pciio_piotrans_addr() (pciio_pio(d3))	Set up PIO mapping using fixed resources if available.		6.3
pciio_reset() (pciio(d3))	Activate reset line of PCI card.		6.4
pcmsg(D3)	Test whether a message is a priority control message.		SV, 5.3
phalloc(D3)	Allocate and initialize a pollhead structure.	page 205	SV, 5.3
phfree(D3)	Free a pollhead structure.	page 205	SV, 5.3
physiock(D3)	Validate and issue a raw I/O request	page 245	SV, 5.3
pollwakeup(D3)	Inform polling processes that an event has occurred.	page 166	SV, 5.3
proc_ref(D3)	Obtain a reference to a process for signaling.	page 232	SV, 5.3
proc_signal(D3)	Send a signal to a process.	page 232	SV, 5.3
proc_unref(D3)	Release a reference to a process.	page 232	SV, 5.3
psema(D3)	Perform a "P" or wait semaphore operation.	page 251	SV, 5.3
ptob(D3)	Convert size in pages to size in bytes.	page 211	SV, 5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
pullupmsg(D3)	Concatenate bytes in a message.		SV, 5.3
putbq(D3)	Place a message at the head of a queue.		SV, 5.3
putctl(D3)	Send a control message to a queue.		SV, 5.3
putctl1(D3)	Send a control message with a one-byte parameter to a queue.		SV, 5.3
putnext(D3)	Send a message to the next queue.		SV, 5.3
putnextctl(D3)	Send a control message to a queue.		SV, 5.3
putnextctl1(D3)	Send a control message with a one-byte parameter to a queue.		SV, 5.3
putq(D3)	Put a message on a queue.		SV, 5.3
qenable(D3)	Schedule a queue's service routine to be run.		SV, 5.3
qprocsoff(D3)	Enable put and service routines.		SV, 5.3
qprocson(D3)	Disable put and service routines		SV, 5.3
qreply(D3)	Send a message in the opposite direction in a stream.		SV, 5.3
qsize(D3)	Find the number of messages on a queue.		SV, 5.3
RD(D3)	Get a pointer to the read queue.		SV, 5.3
rmvb(D3)	Remove a message block from a message.		SV, 5.3
rmvq(D3)	Remove a message from a queue.		SV, 5.3
RW_ALLOC(D3)	Allocate and initialize a reader/writer lock.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_DEALLOC(D3)	Deallocate a reader/writer lock.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_DESTROY(D3)	Deinitialize an existing reader/writer lock.	page 240	6.2

Table A-4 (continued)		Kernel Functions	
Name	Summary	Text	Versions
RW_INIT(D3)	Initialize an existing reader/writer lock.	page 240	6.2
RW_RDLOCK(D3)	Acquire a reader/writer lock as reader, waiting if necessary.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_TRYRDLOCK(D3)	Try to acquire a reader/writer lock as reader, returning a code if it is not free.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_TRYWRLOCK(D3)	Try to acquire a reader/writer lock as writer, returning a code if it is not free.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_UNLOCK(D3)	Release a reader/writer lock as reader or writer.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
RW_WRLOCK(D3)	Acquire a reader/writer lock as writer, waiting if necessary.	page 240	SV*, 5.3*
SAMESTR(D3)	Test if next queue is of the same type.		SV, 5.3
scsi_abort()	Transmits a SCSI ABORT command.	page 517	5.3*
scsi_alloc(D3)	Open a connection between a driver and a target device.	page 517	5.3*
scsi_command(D3)	Transmit a SCSI command on the bus and return results.	page 517	5.3*
scsi_free(D3)	Release connection to target device.	page 517	5.3*
scsi_info(D3)	Issue the SCSI Inquiry command and return the results.	page 517	5.3*
scsi_reset()	Resets the SCSI adapter or bus.	page 517	5.3*
setgiovector()	Register a GIO interrupt handler.	page 676	5.3
setgioconfig()	Prepare a GIO slot for use.	page 677	5.3
sleep(D3)	Suspend process execution pending occurrence of an event.	page 247	SV, 5.3
SLEEP_ALLOC(D3)	Allocate and initialize a sleep lock.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
SLEEP_DEALLOC(D3)	Deinitialize and deallocate a dynamically allocated sleep lock.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
SLEEP_DESTROY(D3)	Deinitialize a sleep lock.	page 239	6.2
SLEEP_INIT(D3)	Initialize an existing sleep lock.	page 239	6.2
SLEEP_LOCK(D3)	Acquire a sleep lock, waiting if necessary until the lock is free.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
SLEEP_LOCKAVAIL(D3)	Query whether a sleep lock is available.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
SLEEP_LOCK_SIG(D3)	Acquire a sleep lock, waiting if necessary until the lock is free or a signal is received.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
SLEEP_TRYLOCK(D3)	Try to acquire a sleep lock, returning a code if it is not free.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
SLEEP_UNLOCK(D3)	Release a sleep lock.	page 239	SV*, 5.3*
splbase(D3)	Block no interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
spltimeout(D3)	Block only timeout interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
spldisk(D3)	Block disk interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
splstr(D3)	Block STREAMS interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
spltty(D3)	Block disk, VME, serial interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
splhi(D3)	Block all I/O interrupts.	page 242	SV, 5.3
spl0(D3)	Same as splbase() .	page 242	SV, 5.3
splx(D3)	Restore previous interrupt level.	page 242	SV, 5.3
strcat(D3)	Append one string to another.		SV, 5.3
strcpy(D3)	Copy a string.		SV, 5.3
streams_interrupt(D3)	Synchronize interrupt-level function with STREAMS mechanism.		5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
STREAMS_TIMEOUT(D3)	Synchronize timeout with STREAMS mechanism.		5.3
strlen(D3)	Return length of a string.		SV, 5.3
strlog(D3)	Submit messages to the log driver.		SV, 5.3
strncmp(D3)	Compare two strings for a specified length.		SV, 5.3
strncpy(D3)	Copy a string for a specified length.		SV, 5.3
strqget(D3)	Get information about a queue or band of the queue.		SV, 5.3
strqset(D3)	Change information about a queue or band of the queue.		SV, 5.3
subyte(D3)	Store a byte to user space.	page 207	5.3
suword(D3)	Store a word to user space.	page 207	5.3
SV_ALLOC(D3)	Allocate and initialize a synchronization variable.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*
SV_BROADCAST(D3)	Wake all processes sleeping on a synchronization variable.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*
SV_DEALLOC(D3)	Deinitialize and deallocate a synchronization variable.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*
SV_DESTROY(D3)	Deinitialize a synchronization variable.	page 248	6.2
SV_INIT(D3)	Initialize an existing synchronization variable.	page 248	6.2
SV_SIGNAL(D3)	Wake one process sleeping on a synchronization variable.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*
SV_WAIT(D3)	Sleep until a synchronization variable is signalled.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*
SV_WAIT_SIG(D3)	Sleep until a synchronization variable is signalled or a signal is received.	page 248	SV*, 5.3*

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
timeout(D3)	Schedule a function to be executed after a specified number of clock ticks.	page 242	SV, 5.3
TRYLOCK(D3)	Try to acquire a basic lock, returning a code if the lock is not currently free.	page 235	SV*, 5.3*
uiomove(D3)	Copy data using <i>uio_t</i> .	page 209	SV, 5.3
uiophysio(D3)	Validate a raw I/O request and pass to a strategy function.	page 245	5.3
unbufcall(D3)	Cancel a pending bufcall request.		SV, 5.3
undma(D3)	Unlock physical memory in user space.	page 245	5.3
unfreezestr(D3)	Unfreeze the state of a stream.		SV, 5.3
unlinkb(D3)	Remove a message block from the head of a message.		SV, 5.3
UNLOCK(D3)	Release a basic lock.	page 235	SV*, 5.3*
untimeout(D3)	Cancel a previous itimeout or fast_itimeout request.	page 242	SV*, 5.3*
ureadc(D3)	Copy a character to space described by <i>uio_t</i> .	page 209	SV, 5.3
userdma(D3)	Lock physical memory in user space. small number of	page 245	5.3
userabi()	Get data sizes for the ABI of the user process (32- or 64-bit).	page 182	6.2
uvaddr_to_alenlist() (alenlist_ops(d3x))	Fill an alenlists with entries that describe a buffer in a user virtual address space.	page 214	6.4
uwritec(D3)	Return a character from space described by <i>uio_t</i> .	page 209	SV, 5.3
v_getaddr(D3)	Get the user virtual address associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .	page 210	5.3

Table A-4 (continued) Kernel Functions

Name	Summary	Text	Versions
v_gethandle(D3)	Get a unique identifier associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .	page 210	5.3
v_getlen(D3)	Get the length of user address space associated with a <i>vhandl_t</i> .	page 210	5.3
v_mapphys(D3)	Map kernel address space into user address space.	page 210	5.3
valusema(D3)	Return the value associated with a semaphore.	page 251	5.3
vsema(D3)	Perform a "V" or signal semaphore operation.	page 251	5.3
wakeup(D3)	Waken a process waiting for an event.	page 247	SV, 5.3
wbadaddr(D3)	Test physical address for output.	page 220	SV, 5.3
wbadaddr_val(D3)	Test physical address for output of specific value.	page 220	SV, 5.3
WR(D3)	Get a pointer to the write queue.		SV, 5.3

The following SVR4 kernel functions are not implemented in IRIX: *bioreset*, *dma_disable*, *dma_enable*, *dma_free_buf*, *dma_free_cb*, *dma_get_best_mode*, *dma_get_buf*, *dma_get_cb*, *dma_pageio*, *dma_prog*, *dma_swstart*, *dma_swsetup*, *drv_gethardware*, *hat_getkpfnum*, *hat_getppfnum*, *inb*, *inl*, *inw*, *kvtoppid*, *mod_drvattach*, *mod_drvdetach*, *outb*, *outl*, *outw*, *physmap*, *physmap_free*, *phystoppid*, *psignal*, *rdma_filter*, *repinsb*, *repinsd*, *repinsw*, *repoutsb*, *repoutsd*, *repoutsw*, *rminit*, *rmsetwant*, *SLEEP_LOCKOWNED*, *strncat*, *vtop*.

Challenge DMA with Multiple IO4 Boards

In late 1995 a subtle hardware problem was identified in the IO4 board that is the primary I/O interface subsystem to systems using the Challenge/Onyx architecture. The problem can be prevented with a software fix. The software fix is included in all device drivers distributed with IRIX 6.2 and a software patch is available for IRIX 5.3. However, some third-party device drivers also need to incorporate the software fix. This appendix explains the IO4 problem as it affects device drivers produced outside Silicon Graphics.

The issue in a nutshell: if you are responsible for a kernel-level device driver for a DMA device for the Challenge/Onyx architecture, you probably need to insert a function call in the driver interrupt handler.

The IO4 Problem

The IO4 hardware problem involves a subtle interaction between two IO4 boards when they perform DMA to the identical cache line of memory. If one IO4 performs a partial update of a 128-byte cache line, and another IO4 accesses the same cache line for DMA between partial updates, the second IO4 can suffer a change to a different, unrelated cache line in its on-board cache. That modified cache line may not be used again, but if it is used, invalid data can be transferred.

It is important to note that the IO4 problem is specific to interactions between multiple IO4 boards. It does not affect memory interactions between CPUs, or between CPUs and IO4s. Cache coherency is properly maintained in these cases.

An unusual coincidence is required to trigger the modification of the IO4 cache memory; then the modified cache line must be used for output before the error has any effect. The right combinations are sufficiently rare that many systems with multiple IO4 boards have never encountered it. For example, the problem has occurred on a system that acted as a network gateway between ATM and FDDI network, with ATM and FDDI adapters on different IO4 boards; and it has been seen when "raw" (not filesystem) disk input was copied to a tape on a different IO4.

Software Fix

The software solution involves a number of behind-the-scenes changes to kernel functions that manage I/O mapping. However, for third-party device drivers, the fix to the IO4 problem consists of ensuring that any IO4 doing DMA input (when a device uses DMA to write to memory) flushes its cache on any interrupt. This change has been made in IRIX 6.2 to all device drivers supplied by Silicon Graphics.

A patch containing all necessary fixes is available for IRIX 5.3. Contact the Silicon Graphics technical support line for the current patch number for a particular system.

Software Not Affected

As a result of hardware design and software fixes, none of the following kinds of software are affected by the problem:

- Code using PIO to manage a device.
The IO4 problem cannot be triggered by PIO, either at the user or kernel level.
- User-level code using the `udmalib` library or the `dslib` SCSI library.
These libraries for user-level DMA contain the fix, or use kernel functions that are fixed.
- User-level code based on user-level interrupts (ULI) or external interrupts.
These facilities are not relevant to the IO4 problem.

Among kernel-level drivers, only drivers that directly program DMA can be affected. STREAMS drivers are not affected; nor are pseudo-device drivers; nor are drivers that use only PIO and memory mapping. Drivers that are not used on Challenge-architecture machines are not affected; for example an EISA-bus driver cannot be affected.

SCSI drivers that use the host adapter interface (see “Host Adapter Facilities” on page 515) are also not affected. Silicon Graphics host adapter drivers contain the fix. Host adapter drivers from third parties may need to be fixed, but this does not affect drivers that rely on the host adapter interface.

Drivers that do only block-mode I/O for the filesystem, and do not implement a character I/O interface (or do not support the character I/O interface using DMA) are not affected. This is because the filesystem always requests I/O in cache-line-sized multiples to buffers that are cache-aligned.

Fixing the IO4 Problem

A kernel-level device driver for a device that uses DMA in a Challenge-architecture system probably needs to make one change to guard against the IO4 problem.

In order to preclude any chance of data corruption, drivers that are affected must ensure that the IO4 flushes its cache following any DMA write to memory (input from a device). This is done by calling a new kernel function, **io4_flush_cache()**, in the interrupt routine immediately following completion of any DMA.

The prototype of **io4_flush_cache()** is

```
int io4_flush_cache(caddr_t any_PIO_mapaddr);
```

The argument to the function is any value returned by **pio_mapaddr()** that is related to the device doing the DMA. The kernel uses this address to locate the IO4 involved. The returned value is 0 when the operation is successful (or was not needed). It is 1 when the argument is not a valid address returned by **pio_mapaddr()**.

The function should be called immediately after the completion of a DMA input to memory. Typically the device produces an interrupt at the end of a DMA, and the function can be called from the interrupt handler. However, some devices can complete more than one DMA transaction per interrupt, and **io4_flush_cache()** should be called when each DMA completes. Put another way, if it is possible that a data transfer completed after an interrupt, then the driver should call **io4_flush_cache()** before marking the transaction as complete.

The **io4_flush_cache()** function does nothing and returns immediately in a machine that has only one IO4 board, and in a machine in which all IO4 boards have the hardware fix.

The kernel's VME interrupt handler calls **io4_flush_cache()** once on each VME interrupt. Thus a VME device driver only needs to call **io4_flush_cache()** in the event that it handles the completion of more than DMA transaction per interrupt. For example, a VME-based network driver that handles multiple packets per interrupt should call **io4_flush_cache()** once for each packet that completes.

Since this problem only affects Challenge/Onyx systems (including POWER Challenge, POWER Onyx, and POWER Challenge R10000), the software fix can and should be conditionally compiled on the compiler variable **EVEREST**, which is set by */var/sysgen/Makefile.kernio* for the affected machines (see "Using */var/sysgen/Makefile.kernio*" on page 256).

The following is a skeletal example of fix code for a hypothetical driver:

```
#ifdef EVEREST
extern void io4_flush_cache(void* anyPIOMapAddr);
#endif
caddr_t some_PIO_map_addr;
hypothetical_edtinit(...)
{
    ...
    some_PIO_map_addr = pio_mapaddr(my_piomap, some_dev_addr)
    ...
}
hypothetical_intr(...)
{
    ...
#ifdef EVEREST
    io4_flush_cache(some_PIO_map_addr);
#endif
    ...
}
```

For another example, see the code of the example VME device driver under “Sample VME Device Driver” on page 370.

Glossary

ABI

Application Binary Interface, a defined interface that includes an *API*, but adds the further promise that a compiled object file will be portable; no recompilation will be required to move to any supported platform.

address/length list

A software object used to store and translate buffer addresses. Also called an alenlist, an address/length list is a list in which each item is a pair consisting of an address and a length. The kernel provides numerous functions to create and fill alenlists and to translate them from one address space to another.

API

Application Programming Interface, a defined interface through which services can be obtained. A typical API is implemented as a set of callable functions and header files that define the data structures and specific values that the functions accept or return. The promise behind an API is that a program that compiles and works correctly will continue to compile and work correctly in any supported environment (however, recompilation may be required when porting or changing versions). See *ABI*.

big-endian

The hardware design in which the most significant bits of a multi-byte integer are stored in the byte with the lowest address. Big-endian is the default storage order in MIPS processors. Opposed to *little-endian*.

block

As a verb, to suspend execution of a process. See *sleep*.

block device

A device such as magnetic tape or a disk drive, that naturally transfers data in blocks of fixed size. Opposed to *character device*.

block device driver

Driver for a block device. A block device's driver is not allowed to support the `ioctl()`, `read()` or `write()` entry points, but does have a `strategy()` entry point. See character device driver.

bus master

An I/O device that is capable of generating a sequence of bus operations—usually a series of memory reads or writes—independently, once programmed by software. See *direct memory access*.

bus-watching cache

A *cache memory* that is aware of bus activity and, when the I/O system performs a DMA write into physical memory or another CPU in a multiprocessor system modifies *virtual memory*, automatically invalidates any copy of the same data then in the cache. This hardware function eliminates the need for explicit data cache write back or invalidation by software.

cache coherency

The problem of ensuring that all cached copies of data are true reflections of the data in memory. The usual solution is to ensure that, when one copy is changed, all other copies are automatically marked as invalid so that they will not be used.

cache line

The unit of data when data is loaded into a *cache memory*. Typically 128 bytes in current CPU models.

cache memory

High-speed memory closely attached to a CPU, containing a copy of the most recently used memory data. When the CPU's request for instructions or data can be satisfied from the cache, the CPU can run at full rated speed. In a multiprocessor or when DMA is allowed, a *bus-watching cache* is needed.

character device

A device such as a terminal or printer that transfers data as a stream of bytes, or a device that can be treated in this way under some circumstances. For example, a disk (normally a *block device*) can be treated as a character device for purposes of reading diagnostic information.

character device driver

The kernel-level device driver for a *character device* transfers data in bytes between the device and the user program. A *STREAMS driver* works with a character driver. Note that a *block device* such as magnetic tape or disk drives can also support character access through a character driver. Each disk device, for example, is represented as two different *device special files*, one managed by a *block device driver* and one by a character device driver.

close

Relinquish access to a resource. The user process invokes the **close()** system call when it is finished with a device, but the system does not necessarily execute your *drvclose()* entry point for that device.

data structure

Contiguous memory used to hold an ordered collection of fields of different types. Any *API* usually defines several data structures. The most common data structure in the *DDI/DKI* is the *buf_t*.

DDI/DKI

Device Driver Interface/Device Kernel Interface; the formal API that defines the services provided to a device driver by the kernel, and the rules for using those services. *DDI/DKI* is the term used in the UNIX System V documentation. The IRIX version of the *DDI/DKI* is close to, but not perfectly compatible with, the System V interface.

deadlock

The condition in which two or more processes are blocked, each waiting for a lock held by the other. Deadlock is prevented by the rule that a driver upper-half entry point is not allowed to hold a lock while sleeping.

devflag

A public global flag word that characterizes the abilities of a device driver, including the flags *D_MP*, *D_WBACK* and *D_OLD*.

device driver

A software module that manages access to a hardware device, taking the device in and out of service, setting hardware parameters, transmitting data between memory and the device, sometimes scheduling multiple uses of the device on behalf of multiple processes, and handling I/O errors.

device number

Each *device special file* is identified by a pair of numbers: the *major device number* identifies the device driver that manages the device, and the *minor device number* identifies the device to the driver.

device special file

A filename in the */hw* filesystem that represents a hardware device. A device special file does not specify data on disk, but rather identifies a particular hardware unit and the device driver that handles it. The *inode* of the file contains the *device number* as well as permissions and ownership data.

direct memory access

When a device reads or writes in memory, asynchronously and without specific intervention by a CPU. In order to perform DMA, the device or its attachment must have some means of storing a memory address and incrementing it, usually through *mapping registers*. The device writes to physical memory and in so doing can invalidate *cache memory*; a *bus-watching cache* compensates.

downstream

The direction of STREAMS messages flowing through a write queue from the user process to the driver.

EISA bus

Enhanced Industry Standard Architecture, a bus interface supported by certain Silicon Graphics systems.

EISA Product Identifier (ID)

The four-byte product identifier returned by an EISA expansion board.

external interrupt

A hardware signal on a specified input or output line that causes an interrupt in the receiving computer. The Silicon Graphics Challenge, OCTANE, and Origin2000 architectures support external interrupt signals.

file handle

An integer returned by the **open()** kernel function to represent the state of an open file. When the file handle is passed in subsequent kernel services, the kernel can retrieve information about the file, for example, when the file is a *device special file*, the file handle can be associated with the major and minor *device number*.

gigabyte

See kilobyte.

GIO bus

Graphics I/O bus, a bus interface used on Indigo, Indigo², and Indy workstations.

hwgraph

The hardware graph is a graph-structured database of device connections, maintained in kernel memory by the kernel and by kernel-level device drivers. You can display the structure of the hwgraph by listing the contents of the */hw* filesystem.

I/O operations

Services that provide access to shared input/output devices and to the global data structures that describe their status. I/O operations open and close files and devices, read data from and write data to devices, set the state of devices, and read and write system data structures.

inode

The UNIX and IRIX disk object that represents the existence of a file. The inode records the owner and group IDs and permissions. For regular disk files, the inode distinguishes files from directories and has other data that can be set with *chmod*. For *device special files*, the inode contains the major and minor device numbers and distinguishes block from character files.

inter-process communication

System calls that allow a process to send information to another process. There are several ways of sending information to another process: signals, pipes, shared memory, message queues, semaphores, streams, or sockets.

interrupt

A hardware signal that causes a CPU to set aside normal processing and begin execution of an interrupt handler. An interrupt is parameterized by the type of bus and the *interrupt level*, and possibly with an *interrupt vector* number. The kernel uses this information to select the interrupt handler for that device.

interrupt level

A number that characterizes the source of an *interrupt*. The VME bus provides for seven interrupt levels. Other buses have different schemes.

interrupt priority level

The relative priority at which a bus or device requests that the CPU call an interrupt process. Interrupts at a higher level are taken first. The interrupt handler for an interrupt can only be preempted on its CPU by an interrupt handler for an interrupt of higher level.

interrupt vector

A number that characterizes the specific device that caused an *interrupt*. Most VME bus devices have a specific vector number set by hardware, but some can have their vector set by software.

ioctl

Control a character device. Character device drivers may include a "special function" entry point, *pxioctl()*.

IRQ

Interrupt Request Input, a hardware signal that initiates an interrupt.

k0

Virtual address range within the kernel address space that is cached but not mapped by translation look-aside buffers. Also referred to as kseg0.

k1

Virtual address range within the kernel address space that is neither cached nor mapped. Also called kseg1.

k2

Virtual address range within the kernel address space that can be both cached and mapped by translation look-aside buffers. Also called kseg2.

kernel level

The level of privilege at which code in the IRIX kernel runs. The kernel has a private address space, not acceptable to processes at *user-level*, and has sole access to physical memory.

kilobyte (KB)

1,024 bytes, a unit chosen because it is both an integer power of 2 (2^{10}) and close to 1,000, the basic scale multiple of engineering quantities. Thus 1,024 KB, 2^{20} , is 1 megabyte (MB) and close to $1e6$; 1,024 MB, 2^{30} , is 1 gigabyte (GB) and close to $1e9$; 1,024 GB, 2^{40} , is

1 terabyte (TB) and close to 1e12. In the MIPS architecture using 32-bit addressing, the user segment spans 2 GB. Using 64-bit addressing, both the user segment and the range of physical addresses span 1 TB.

kseg_n

See k0, k1, k2.

little-endian

The hardware design in which the least significant bits of a multi-byte integer are stored in the byte with the lowest address. Little-endian order is the normal order in Intel processors, and optional in MIPS processors. Opposed to *big-endian*. (These terms are from Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*, in which the citizens of Lilliput and Blefescu are divided by the burning question of whether one's breakfast egg should be opened at the little or the big end.)

lock

A data object that represents the exclusive right to use a resource. A lock can be implemented as a *semaphore* (q.v.) with a count of 1, but because of the frequency of use of locks, they have been given distinct software support (see LOCK(D3)).

major device number

A number that specifies which device driver manages the device represented by a *device special file*. In IRIX 6.2, a major number has at most 9 bits of precision (0-511). Numbers 60-79 are used for OEM drivers. See also *minor device number*.

map

In general, to translate from one set of symbols to another. Particularly, translate one range of memory addresses to the addresses for the corresponding space in another system. The *virtual memory* hardware maps the process address space onto pages of physical memory. The *mapping registers* in a DMA device map bus addresses to physical memory corresponding to a buffer. The mmap(2) system call maps part of process address space onto the contents of a file.

mapping registers

Registers in a DMA device or its bus attachment that store the address translation data so that the device can access a buffer in physical memory.

megabyte

See kilobyte.

minor device number

A number that, encoded in a *device special file*, identifies a single hardware unit among the units managed by one device driver. Sometimes used to encode device management options as well. In IRIX 6.2, a minor number may have up to 18 bits of precision. *See also* major device number.

mmapped device driver

A driver that supports mapping hardware registers into process address space, permitting a user process to access device data as if it were in memory.

module

A STREAMS module consists of two related queue structures, one for upstream messages and one for downstream messages. One or more modules may be pushed onto a stream between the stream head and the driver, usually to implement and isolate a communication protocol or a line discipline.

open

Gain access to a device. The kernel calls the *pfxopen()* entry when the user process issues an **open()** system call.

page

A block of virtual or physical memory, of a size set by the operating system and residing on a page-size address boundary. The page size is 4,096 (2^{12}) bytes when in 32-bit mode; the page size in 64-bit mode can range from 2^{12} to 2^{20} at the operating system's choice (see the *getpagesize(2)* reference page).

programmed I/O

Programmed I/O (PIO), meaning access to a device by mapping device registers into process address space, and transferring data by storing and loading single bytes or words.

poll

Poll entry point for a non-stream character driver. A character device driver may include a *drvpoll()* entry point so that users can use **select(2)** or **poll(2)** to poll the file descriptors opened on such devices.

prefix

Driver prefix. The name of the driver must be the first characters of its standard entry point names; the combined names are used to dynamically link the driver into the kernel. Specified in the *master.d* file for the driver. Throughout this manual, the prefix *pfx* represents the name of the device driver, as in *pfxopen()*, *pfxiocctl()*.

primary cache

The *cache memory* most closely attached to the CPU execution unit, usually in the processor chip.

primitives

Fundamental operations from which more complex operations can be constructed.

priority inheritance

An implementation technique that prevents *priority inversion* when a process of lower priority holds a mutual exclusion *lock* and a process of higher priority is blocked waiting for the lock. The process holding the lock “inherits” or acquires the priority of the highest-priority waiting process in order to expedite its release of the lock. IRIX supports priority inheritance for mutual exclusion locks only.

priority inversion

The effect that occurs when a low-priority process holds a *lock* that a process of higher priority needs. The lower priority process runs and the higher priority process waits, inverting the intended priorities. *See* priority inheritance.

process control

System calls that allow a process to control its own execution. A process can allocate memory, lock itself in memory, set its scheduling priorities, wait for events, execute a new program, or create a new process.

protocol stack

A software subsystem that manages the flow of data on a communications channel according to the rules of a particular protocol, for example the TCP/IP protocol. Called a “stack” because it is typically designed as a hierarchy of layers, each supporting the one above and using the one below.

pseudo-device

Software that uses the facilities of the *DDI/DKI* to provide specialized access to data, without using any actual hardware device. Pseudo-devices can provide access to system data structures that are unavailable at the user-level. For example, the *fsctl* driver gives superuser access to filesystem data (see *fsctl(7)*) and the inode monitor pseudo-device allows access to file activity (see *imon(7)*).

read

Read data from a device. The kernel executes the *pxread()* entry point whenever a user process calls the **read()** system call.

scatter/gather

An I/O operation in which what to the device is a contiguous range of data is distributed across multiple pages that may not be contiguous in physical memory. On input to memory, the device scatters the data into the different pages; on output, the device gathers data from the pages.

SCSI

Small Computer System Interface, the bus architecture commonly used to attach disk drives and other block devices.

SCSI driver interface

A collection of machine-independent input/output controls, functions, and data structures, that provides a standard interface for writing a SCSI driver.

semaphore

A data object that represents the right to use a limited resource, used for synchronization and communication between asynchronous processes. A semaphore contains a count that represents the quantity of available resource (typically 1). The **P** operation (mnemonic: dePlete) decrements the count and, if the count goes negative, causes the caller to wait (see `psema(D3X)`, `cpsema(D3X)`). The **V** operation (mnemonic: reVive) increments the count and releases any waiting process (see `vsema(D3X)`, `cvsema(D3X)`). *See also* lock.

signals

Software interrupts used to communicate between processes. Specific signal numbers can be handled or blocked. Device drivers sometimes use signals to report events to user processes. Device drivers that can wait have to be sensitive to the possibility that a signal could arrive.

sleep

Suspend process execution pending occurrence of an event. The term “block” is also used.

socket

A software structure that represents one endpoint in a two-way communications link. Created by `socket(2)`.

spl

Set priority level, a function that was formerly part of the *DDI/DKI*, and used to lock or allow interrupts on a processor. It is not possible to use *spl* effectively in a multiprocessor system, so it has been superceded by more sophisticated means of synchronization such as the *lock* and *semaphore*.

strategy

In general, the plan or policy for arbitrating between multiple, concurrent requests for the use of a device. Specifically in disk device drivers, the policy for scheduling multiple, concurrent disk block-read and block-write requests.

STREAM

A linked list of kernel data structures that provide a full-duplex data path between a user process and a device. Streams are supported by the STREAMS facilities in UNIX System V Release 3 and later.

STREAM head

The stream head, which is inserted by the STREAMS subsystem, processes STREAMS-related system calls and performs data transfers between user space and kernel space. It is the component of a stream closest to the user process. Every stream has a stream head.

STREAMS

A kernel subsystem used to build a stream, which is a modular, full-duplex data path between a device and a user process. In IRIX 5.x and later, the TCP/IP stack sits on top of the STREAMS stack. The Transport Layer Interface (TLI) is fully supported.

STREAMS driver

A software module that implements one stage of a STREAM. A STREAMS driver can be “pushed on” or “popped off” any *STREAM*.

TCP/IP

Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol.

terabyte

See *kilobyte (KB)*.

TFP

The internal code name for the MIPS R8000 processor, used in some Silicon Graphics publications.

TLI

Transport Interface Layer.

user-level

The privilege level of the system at which user-initiated programs run. A user-level process can access the contents of one address space, and can access files and devices only by calling kernel functions. Contrast to *kernel level*.

unmap

Disconnect a memory-mapped device from user process space, breaking the association set by mapping it.

VME bus

VERSA Module Eurocard bus, a bus architecture supported by the Silicon Graphics Challenge and Onyx systems.

VME-bus adapter

A hardware conduit that translates host CPU operations to VME-bus operations and decodes some VME-bus operations to translate them to the host side.

virtual memory

Memory contents that appear to be in contiguous addresses, but are actually mapped to different physical memory locations by hardware action of the translation lookaside buffer (TLB) and page tables managed by the IRIX kernel. The kernel can exploit virtual memory to give each process its own address space, and to load many more processes than physical memory can support.

virtual page number

The most significant bits of a virtual address, which select a *page* of memory. The processor hardware looks for the VPN in the TLB; if the VPN is found, it is translated to a physical page address. If it is not found, the processor traps to an exception routine.

volatile

Subject to change. The `volatile` keyword informs the compiler that a variable could change value at any time (because it is mapped to a hardware register, or because it is shared with other, concurrent processes) and so should always be loaded before use.

wakeup

Resume suspended process execution.

write

Write data to a device. The kernel executes the `pfxread()` or `pfxwrite()` entry points whenever a user process calls the `read()` or `write()` system calls.

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