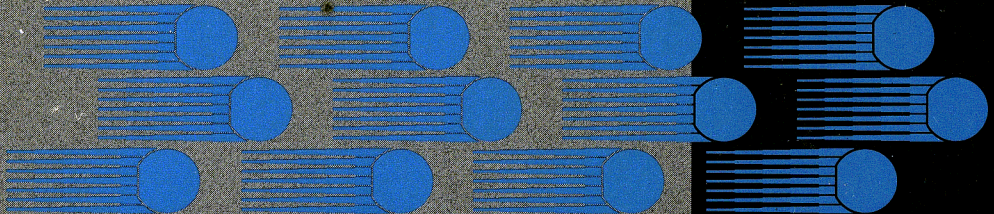




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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION .....	1-2
1.1 HOW TO USE THIS MANUAL .....	1-1

## CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF THE 80C186 FAMILY MODULAR MICROPROCESSOR CORE ARCHITECTURE .....	2-1
2.1 ARCHITECTURAL OVERVIEW .....	2-1
2.1.1 EXECUTION UNIT .....	2-2
2.1.2 BUS INTERFACE UNIT .....	2-3
2.1.3 GENERAL REGISTERS .....	2-4
2.1.4 SEGMENT REGISTERS .....	2-5
2.1.5 INSTRUCTION POINTER .....	2-6
2.1.6 FLAGS .....	2-6
2.1.7 MEMORY SEGMENTATION .....	2-8
2.1.8 LOGICAL ADDRESSES .....	2-9
2.1.9 DYNAMICALLY RELOCATABLE CODE .....	2-12
2.1.10 STACK IMPLEMENTATION .....	2-13
2.1.11 RESERVED MEMORY AND I/O SPACE .....	2-15
2.2 SOFTWARE OVERVIEW .....	2-15
2.2.1 INSTRUCTION SET .....	2-15
2.2.1.1 DATA TRANSFER .....	2-16
2.2.1.2 ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS .....	2-16
2.2.1.3 BIT MANIPULATION INSTRUCTIONS .....	2-18
2.2.1.4 STRING INSTRUCTIONS .....	2-19
2.2.1.5 PROGRAM TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS .....	2-21
2.2.1.6 PROCESSOR CONTROL INSTRUCTIONS .....	2-22
2.2.2 ADDRESSING MODES .....	2-23
2.2.2.1 REGISTER AND IMMEDIATE OPERAND ADDRESSING MODES .....	2-23
2.2.2.2 MEMORY ADDRESSING MODES .....	2-23
2.2.2.3 I/O PORT ADDRESSING .....	2-31
2.2.2.4 DATA TYPES USED IN THE 80C186 MODULAR CORE FAMILY .....	2-32
2.3 INTERRUPTS AND EXCEPTION HANDLING .....	2-34
2.3.1 INTERRUPT/EXCEPTION PROCESSING .....	2-34
2.3.1.1 NON-MASKABLE INTERRUPTS .....	2-36
2.3.1.2 MASKABLE INTERRUPTS .....	2-37
2.3.1.3 EXCEPTIONS .....	2-37
2.3.2 SOFTWARE INTERRUPTS .....	2-39
2.3.3 INTERRUPT LATENCY .....	2-39

2.3.4	INTERRUPT RESPONSE .....	2-40
2.3.5	INTERRUPT AND EXCEPTION PRIORITY .....	2-40

**CHAPTER 3**

<b>BUS INTERFACE UNIT .....</b>	<b>3-1</b>	
3.1	MULTIPLEXED ADDRESS AND DATA BUS .....	3-1
3.2	ADDRESS AND DATA BUS CONCEPTS .....	3-1
3.2.1	16-BIT DATA BUS .....	3-1
3.2.2	8-BIT DATA BUS .....	3-4
3.3	MEMORY AND I/O INTERFACES .....	3-5
3.3.1	16-BIT BUS MEMORY AND I/O REQUIREMENTS .....	3-6
3.3.2	8-BIT BUS MEMORY AND I/O REQUIREMENTS .....	3-6
3.4	BUS CYCLE OPERATION .....	3-6
3.4.1	ADDRESS/STATUS PHASE .....	3-7
3.4.2	DATA PHASE .....	3-11
3.4.3	WAIT STATES .....	3-12
3.4.4	IDLE STATES .....	3-15
3.5	BUS CYCLES .....	3-17
3.5.1	READ BUS CYCLES .....	3-17
3.5.1.1	REFRESH BUS CYCLES .....	3-19
3.5.2	WRITE BUS CYCLES .....	3-20
3.5.3	INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE BUS CYCLE .....	3-22
3.5.3.1	SYSTEM DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS .....	3-23
3.5.4	HALT BUS CYCLE .....	3-25
3.5.5	TEMPORARILY EXITING THE HALT BUS STATE .....	3-28
3.5.6	EXITING HALT .....	3-28
3.6	SYSTEM DESIGN ALTERNATIVES .....	3-28
3.6.1	BUFFERING THE DATA BUS .....	3-29
3.6.2	SOFTWARE SYNCHRONIZATION .....	3-32
3.6.3	LOCKED BUS OPERATION .....	3-33
3.7	MULTI-MASTER BUS SYSTEM DESIGNS .....	3-35
3.7.1	ENTERING BUS HOLD .....	3-35
3.7.1.1	HOLD BUS LATENCY .....	3-36
3.7.1.2	REFRESH OPERATION DURING A BUS HOLD .....	3-37
3.7.2	EXITING HOLD .....	3-38
3.8	BUS CYCLE PRIORITIES .....	3-39

**CHAPTER 4**

<b>PERIPHERAL CONTROL BLOCK .....</b>	<b>4-1</b>	
4.1	SETTING THE BASE LOCATION .....	4-1
4.2	PERIPHERAL CONTROL BLOCK REGISTERS .....	4-4
4.3	RESERVED LOCATIONS AND THE NUMERICS INTERFACE .....	4-5



---

<b>CHAPTER 5</b>		
<b>CLOCK GENERATION AND POWER MANAGEMENT</b> .....		5-1
5.1	CLOCK GENERATION .....	5-1
5.1.1	CRYSTAL OSCILLATOR .....	5-1
5.1.1.1	OSCILLATOR OPERATION .....	5-2
5.1.1.2	SELECTING CRYSTALS .....	5-4
5.1.2	USING AN EXTERNAL OSCILLATOR .....	5-5
5.1.3	OUTPUT FROM THE CLOCK GENERATOR .....	5-5
5.1.4	RESET AND CLOCK SYNCHRONIZATION .....	5-6
5.2	POWER MANAGEMENT .....	5-9
5.2.1	OPERATIONAL MODES .....	5-10
5.2.2	IDLE MODE .....	5-10
5.2.2.1	ENTERING IDLE MODE .....	5-10
5.2.2.2	BUS OPERATION DURING IDLE MODE .....	5-10
5.2.2.3	LEAVING IDLE MODE .....	5-12
5.2.2.4	EXAMPLE IDLE MODE INITIALIZATION CODE .....	5-13
5.2.3	POWERDOWN MODE .....	5-14
5.2.3.1	ENTERING POWERDOWN MODE .....	5-14
5.2.3.2	LEAVING POWERDOWN MODE .....	5-15
5.2.4	POWER-SAVE MODE .....	5-16
5.2.4.1	ENTERING POWER-SAVE MODE .....	5-18
5.2.4.2	LEAVING POWER-SAVE MODE .....	5-18
5.2.4.3	EXAMPLE POWER-SAVE INITIALIZATION CODE .....	5-18
5.2.5	IMPLEMENTING A POWER MANAGEMENT SCHEME .....	5-19
<b>CHAPTER 6</b>		
<b>CHIP SELECT UNIT</b> .....		6-1
6.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW .....	6-2
6.2	PROGRAMMING .....	6-5
6.2.1	INITIALIZATION SEQUENCE .....	6-5
6.2.2	START ADDRESS .....	6-8
6.2.3	STOP ADDRESS .....	6-8
6.2.4	ENABLING/DISABLING CHIP SELECTS .....	6-9
6.2.5	BUS WAIT STATE AND READY CONTROL .....	6-9
6.2.6	OVERLAPPING CHIP-SELECTS .....	6-10
6.2.7	MEMORY OR I/O BUS CYCLE DECODING .....	6-12
6.2.8	PROGRAMMING CONSIDERATIONS .....	6-12
6.3	CHIP-SELECTS AND BUS HOLD .....	6-12
6.4	EXAMPLES .....	6-13
6.4.1	EXAMPLE 1: TYPICAL SYSTEM CONFIGURATION .....	6-13
6.4.2	EXAMPLE 2: USING A CHIP-SELECT TO DETECT GUARDED MEMORY .....	6-18

---

<b>CHAPTER 7</b>		
<b>REFRESH CONTROL UNIT</b> .....		7-1
7.1	THE ROLE OF THE REFRESH CONTROL UNIT .....	7-1
7.2	REFRESH CONTROL UNIT CAPABILITIES .....	7-2
7.3	REFRESH CONTROL UNIT OPERATION .....	7-2
7.4	REFRESH ADDRESSES .....	7-4
7.5	REFRESH BUS CYCLES .....	7-4
7.6	GUIDELINES FOR DESIGNING DRAM CONTROLLERS .....	7-4
7.7	PROGRAMMING THE REFRESH CONTROL UNIT .....	7-5
7.7.1	CALCULATING THE REFRESH INTERVAL .....	7-5
7.7.2	REFRESH CONTROL UNIT REGISTERS .....	7-7
7.7.2.1	REFRESH BASE ADDRESS REGISTER .....	7-8
7.7.2.2	REFRESH CLOCK INTERVAL REGISTER .....	7-8
7.7.2.3	REFRESH CONTROL REGISTER .....	7-9
7.7.2.4	REFRESH ADDRESS REGISTER .....	7-9
7.7.3	PROGRAMMING EXAMPLE .....	7-10
7.8	REFRESH OPERATION AND BUS HOLD .....	7-12
<b>CHAPTER 8</b>		
<b>INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT</b> .....		8-1
8.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW: THE INTERRUPT CONTROLLER .....	8-1
8.2	INTERRUPT PRIORITY AND NESTING .....	8-3
8.3	OVERVIEW OF THE 8259A ARCHITECTURE .....	8-4
8.3.1	A TYPICAL INTERRUPT SEQUENCE USING THE 8259A MODULE .....	8-5
8.3.2	INTERRUPT REQUESTS .....	8-7
8.3.2.1	EDGE AND LEVEL TRIGGERING .....	8-7
8.3.2.2	THE INTERRUPT REQUEST REGISTER .....	8-7
8.3.2.3	SPURIOUS INTERRUPTS .....	8-8
8.3.3	THE PRIORITY RESOLVER AND PRIORITY RESOLUTION .....	8-8
8.3.3.1	DEFAULT (FIXED) PRIORITY .....	8-9
8.3.3.2	CHANGING THE DEFAULT PRIORITY: <i>SPECIFIC ROTATION</i> .....	8-9
8.3.3.3	CHANGING THE DEFAULT PRIORITY: <i>AUTOMATIC ROTATION</i> .....	8-10
8.3.4	THE IN-SERVICE REGISTER .....	8-10
8.3.4.1	CLEARING THE IN-SERVICE BITS: NON-SPECIFIC END-OF-INTERRUPT .....	8-11
8.3.4.2	CLEARING THE IN-SERVICE BITS: SPECIFIC END-OF-INTERRUPT .....	8-12
8.3.4.3	AUTOMATIC END-OF-INTERRUPT MODE .....	8-12
8.3.5	MASKING INTERRUPTS .....	8-12
8.3.6	CASCADING 8259As .....	8-12
8.3.6.1	MASTER/SLAVE CONNECTION .....	8-13
8.3.6.2	THE CASCADED INTA CYCLE: AN EXAMPLE .....	8-14

8.3.6.3	MASTER CASCADE CONFIGURATION.....	8-15
8.3.6.4	SLAVE ID.....	8-15
8.3.6.5	ISSUING EOI COMMANDS IN A CASCADED SYSTEM.....	8-15
8.3.6.6	SPURIOUS INTERRUPTS IN A CASCADED SYSTEM.....	8-16
8.3.7	ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: SPECIAL MASK MODE.....	8-17
8.3.8	ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: SPECIAL FULLY NESTED MODE.....	8-17
8.3.9	ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: THE POLL COMMAND.....	8-17
8.4	PROGRAMMING THE 8259A MODULE.....	8-18
8.4.1	INITIALIZATION AND OPERATION COMMAND WORDS.....	8-18
8.4.2	PROGRAMMING SEQUENCE AND REGISTER ADDRESSING.....	8-18
8.4.3	INITIALIZING THE 8259A MODULE.....	8-19
8.4.3.1	8258A INITIALIZATION SEQUENCE.....	8-19
8.4.3.2	ICW1: EDGE/LEVEL MODE, SINGLE/CASCADE MODE.....	8-20
8.4.3.3	ICW2: BASE INTERRUPT TYPE.....	8-22
8.4.3.4	ICW3: CASCADED PINS/SLAVE ADDRESS.....	8-22
8.4.3.5	ICW4: SPECIAL FULLY NESTED MODE, EOI MODE, FACTORY TEST MODES.....	8-23
8.4.4	THE OPERATION COMMAND WORDS.....	8-24
8.4.4.1	MASKING INTERRUPTS: OCW1.....	8-25
8.4.4.2	EOI AND INTERRUPT PRIORITY: OCW2.....	8-26
8.4.4.3	SPECIAL MASK MODE, POLL MODE AND REGISTER READING: OCW3.....	8-28
8.5	MODULE INTEGRATION: THE 80C186EC INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT.....	8-30
8.5.1	INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES.....	8-30
8.5.1.1	DIRECTLY SUPPORTED INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES.....	8-31
8.5.1.2	INDIRECTLY SUPPORTED INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES.....	8-31
8.5.1.3	USING THE INTERRUPT REQUEST LATCH REGISTERS.....	8-33
8.5.1.4	USING THE INTERRUPT REQUEST LATCH REGISTERS TO DEBUG INTERRUPT HANDLERS.....	8-34
8.6	HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS WITH THE INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT.....	8-35
8.6.1	INTERRUPT LATENCY AND RESPONSE TIME.....	8-35
8.6.2	RESETTING THE EDGE DETECTOR.....	8-35
8.6.3	READY GENERATION.....	8-35
8.6.4	CONNECTING EXTERNAL 8259A DEVICES.....	8-37
8.6.4.1	THE EXTERNAL INTA CYCLE.....	8-37
8.6.4.2	TIMING CONSTRAINTS.....	8-38
8.7	MODULE EXAMPLES.....	8-39

<b>CHAPTER 9</b>		
	<b>TIMER/COUNTER UNIT</b> .....	9-1
9.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW .....	9-1
9.2	PROGRAMMING THE TIMER/COUNTER UNIT .....	9-5
9.2.1	INITIALIZATION .....	9-7
9.2.2	CLOCK SOURCES .....	9-9
9.2.3	COUNTING SEQUENCE .....	9-9
9.2.3.1	RETRIGGERING .....	9-10
9.2.4	PULSED AND VARIABLE DUTY CYCLE OUTPUT .....	9-11
9.2.5	ENABLING/DISABLING COUNTERS .....	9-12
9.2.6	TIMER INTERRUPTS .....	9-13
9.2.7	PROGRAMMING CONSIDERATIONS .....	9-13
9.3	TIMING .....	9-13
9.3.1	INPUT SETUP AND HOLD TIMINGS .....	9-13
9.3.2	SYNCHRONIZATION AND MAXIMUM FREQUENCY .....	9-13
9.4	TIMER/COUNTER UNIT APPLICATION EXAMPLES .....	9-14
9.4.1	REAL-TIME CLOCK .....	9-14
9.4.2	SQUARE WAVE GENERATOR .....	9-17
9.4.3	DIGITAL ONE-SHOT .....	9-19
<b>CHAPTER 10</b>		
	<b>DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS UNIT</b> .....	10-1
10.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW .....	10-1
10.1.1	THE DMA TRANSFER .....	10-1
10.1.1.1	DMA TRANSFER DIRECTIONS .....	10-2
10.1.1.2	BYTE AND WORD TRANSFERS .....	10-2
10.1.2	SOURCE AND DESTINATION POINTERS .....	10-3
10.1.3	DMA REQUESTS .....	10-3
10.1.4	EXTERNAL REQUESTS .....	10-3
10.1.4.1	SOURCE SYNCHRONIZATION .....	10-4
10.1.4.2	DESTINATION SYNCHRONIZATION .....	10-5
10.1.5	INTERNAL REQUESTS .....	10-5
10.1.5.1	INTEGRATED PERIPHERAL REQUESTS .....	10-6
10.1.5.2	TIMER 2 INITIATED TRANSFERS .....	10-6
10.1.5.3	SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS UNIT TRANSFERS .....	10-7
10.1.5.4	UNSYNCHRONIZED TRANSFERS .....	10-7
10.1.6	DMA TRANSFER COUNTS .....	10-7
10.1.7	TERMINATION AND SUSPENSION OF DMA TRANSFERS .....	10-7
10.1.7.1	TERMINATION AT TERMINAL COUNT .....	10-8
10.1.7.2	SOFTWARE TERMINATION .....	10-8
10.1.7.3	SUSPENSION OF DMA DURING NMI .....	10-8
10.1.7.4	SOFTWARE SUSPENSION .....	10-8
10.1.8	DMA UNIT INTERRUPTS .....	10-8
10.1.9	DMA CYCLES AND THE BIU .....	10-8
10.1.10	THE 2 CHANNEL DMA MODULE .....	10-9

10.1.10.1	DMA CHANNEL ARBITRATION .....	10-9
10.1.10.1.1	FIXED PRIORITY .....	10-10
10.1.10.1.2	ROTATING PRIORITY .....	10-10
10.1.11	THE INTERNAL DMA REQUEST MULTIPLEXER .....	10-10
10.1.12	DMA MODULE INTEGRATION .....	10-12
10.1.12.1	DMA UNIT STRUCTURE .....	10-12
10.1.12.2	INTER-MODULE ARBITRATION .....	10-13
10.2	PROGRAMMING THE DMA UNIT .....	10-13
10.2.1	DMA CHANNEL PARAMETERS .....	10-14
10.2.1.1	PROGRAMMING THE SOURCE AND DESTINATION POINTERS .....	10-14
10.2.1.2	SELECTING BYTE OR WORD SIZE TRANSFERS .....	10-18
10.2.1.3	SELECTING THE SOURCE OF DMA REQUESTS .....	10-18
10.2.1.4	ARMING THE DMA CHANNEL .....	10-20
10.2.1.5	SELECTING CHANNEL SYNCHRONIZATION .....	10-21
10.2.1.6	PROGRAMMING THE TRANSFER COUNT OPTIONS .....	10-21
10.2.1.7	GENERATING INTERRUPTS ON TERMINAL COUNT .....	10-22
10.2.1.8	SETTING THE RELATIVE PRIORITY OF A CHANNEL .....	10-22
10.2.2	SETTING THE INTER-MODULE PRIORITY .....	10-22
10.2.3	USING THE DMA UNIT WITH THE SERIAL PORTS .....	10-22
10.2.4	SUSPENSION OF DMA TRANSFERS USING THE DMA HALT BITS .....	10-23
10.2.5	INITIALIZING THE DMA UNIT .....	10-23
10.3	HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS AND THE DMA UNIT .....	10-25
10.3.1	DRQ PIN TIMING REQUIREMENTS .....	10-25
10.3.2	DMA LATENCY .....	10-25
10.3.3	DMA TRANSFER RATES .....	10-25
10.3.4	GENERATING A DMA ACKNOWLEDGE .....	10-26
10.4	DMA UNIT EXAMPLES .....	10-26

**CHAPTER 11**

<b>SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS UNIT .....</b>	<b>11-1</b>	
11.1	INTRODUCTION .....	11-1
11.1.1	ASYNCHRONOUS COMMUNICATIONS .....	11-1
11.1.1.1	RX MACHINE .....	11-2
11.1.1.2	TX MACHINE .....	11-4
11.1.1.3	MODES 1, 3 AND 4 .....	11-6
11.1.1.4	MODE 2 .....	11-7
11.1.2	SYNCHRONOUS COMMUNICATIONS .....	11-8
11.2	PROGRAMMING .....	11-8
11.2.1	BAUD RATES .....	11-10
11.2.2	ASYNCHRONOUS MODE PROGRAMMING .....	11-12
11.2.2.1	MODES 1, 3 AND 4 FOR STAND-ALONE SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS .....	11-12
11.2.2.2	MODES 2 AND 3 FOR MULTIPROCESSOR COMMUNICATIONS .....	11-13

11.2.2.3	SENDING AND RECEIVING A BREAK CHARACTER .....	11-13
11.2.3	PROGRAMMING IN MODE 0 .....	11-17
11.3	HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE SERIAL PORT .....	11-17
11.3.1	CTS PIN TIMINGS.....	11-17
11.3.2	BCLK PIN TIMINGS .....	11-17
11.3.3	MODE 0 TIMINGS.....	11-19
11.3.3.1	CLKOUT AS BAUD TIMEBASE CLOCK .....	11-19
11.3.3.2	BCLK AS BAUD TIMEBASE CLOCK.....	11-20
11.4	SERIAL PORT EXAMPLES .....	11-20
11.4.1	ASYNCHRONOUS MODE EXAMPLE.....	11-20
11.4.2	MODE 0 EXAMPLE.....	11-24
11.4.3	MASTER SLAVE EXAMPLE .....	11-26

**CHAPTER 12**

<b>WATCHDOG TIMER UNIT.....</b>	<b>12-1</b>	
12.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW..... 12-1	
12.2	USING THE WATCHDOG TIMER AS A SYSTEM WATCHDOG ... 12-2	
12.2.1	RELOADING THE WATCHDOG TIMER DOWN COUNTER..... 12-3	
12.2.2	WATCHDOG TIMER RELOAD VALUE .....	12-4
12.2.3	INITIALIZATION .....	12-5
12.3	USING THE WATCHDOG TIMER AS A GENERAL PURPOSE TIMER .....	12-6
12.4	DISABLING THE WATCHDOG TIMER .....	12-6
12.5	WATCHDOG TIMER REGISTERS .....	12-7
12.6	INITIALIZATION EXAMPLE .....	12-7

**CHAPTER 13**

<b>INPUT/OUTPUT PORTS.....</b>	<b>13-1</b>	
13.1	FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW..... 13-1	
13.1.1	THE BIDIRECTIONAL PORT..... 13-1	
13.2.2	THE OUTPUT PORT..... 13-4	
13.1.3	OPEN DRAIN BIDIRECTIONAL PORTS .....	13-4
13.1.4	PORT PIN ORGANIZATION .....	13-4
13.1.4.1	PORT 1 ORGANIZATION .....	13-5
13.1.4.2	PORT 2 ORGANIZATION .....	13-6
13.1.4.3	PORT 3 ORGANIZATION .....	13-7
13.2	PROGRAMMING THE I/O PORT UNIT .....	13-7
13.2.1	PORT CONTROL REGISTER .....	13-7
13.2.2	PORT DIRECTION REGISTER .....	13-7
13.2.3	PORT DATA LATCH REGISTER.....	13-7
13.2.4	PORT PIN STATE REGISTER.....	13-8
13.2.5	INITIALIZATION OF THE I/O PORTS.....	13-8
13.3	PROGRAMMING EXAMPLE .....	13-8

<b>CHAPTER 14</b>		
	<b>MATH COPROCESSING</b> .....	14-1
14.1	OVERVIEW OF MATH COPROCESSING .....	14-1
14.2	AVAILABILITY OF MATH COPROCESSING .....	14-1
14.3	THE 80C187 MATH COPROCESSOR .....	14-1
14.3.1	80C187 INSTRUCTION SET .....	14-2
14.3.1.1	DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-2
14.3.1.2	ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-2
14.3.1.3	COMPARISON INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-3
14.3.1.4	TRANSCENDENTAL INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-3
14.3.1.5	CONSTANT INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-4
14.3.1.6	PROCESSOR CONTROL INSTRUCTIONS .....	14-5
14.3.2	80C187 DATA TYPES .....	14-6
14.4	MICROPROCESSOR AND COPROCESSOR OPERATION .....	14-7
14.4.1	CLOCKING THE 80C187 .....	14-9
14.4.2	PROCESSOR BUS CYCLES ACCESSING THE 80C187 .....	14-9
14.4.3	SYSTEM DESIGN TIPS .....	14-10
14.4.4	EXCEPTION TRAPPING .....	14-10
14.5	EXAMPLE MATH COPROCESSOR ROUTINES .....	14-13
 <b>CHAPTER 15:</b>		
	<b>ONCE™ MODE</b> .....	15-1
15.1	ENTERING/LEAVING ONCE MODE .....	15-1
 <b>APPENDIX A</b>		
	<b>80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ADDITIONS AND EXTENSIONS</b> .....	A-1
A.1	80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ADDITIONS .....	A-1
A.1.1	DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-1
A.1.2	STRING INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-1
A.1.3	HIGH LEVEL INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-2
A.2	80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ENHANCEMENTS .....	A-8
A.2.1	DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-8
A.2.2	ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-8
A.2.3	BIT MANIPULATION INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-9
A.2.3.1	SHIFT INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-9
A.2.3.2	ROTATE INSTRUCTIONS .....	A-9

**APPENDIX B**  
**INPUT SYNCHRONIZATION** ..... B-1

B.1 WHY SYNCHRONIZERS ARE REQUIRED ..... B-1

B.2 ASYNCHRONOUS PINS ..... B-2

**APPENDIX C**..... C-1



## Figures

1.1	Comparison of 80C186 Modular Core Family Products .....	1-2
2.1	Simplified Functional Block Diagram of the 80C186 Modular Core Family CPU .....	2-2
2.2	Physical Address Generation .....	2-3
2.3	General Registers.....	2-4
2.4	Segment Registers.....	2-6
2.5	Processor Status Word .....	2-7
2.6	Segment Locations in Physical Memory .....	2-9
2.7	Currently Addressable Segments .....	2-10
2.8	Logical and Physical Address .....	2-11
2.9	Dynamic Code Relocation.....	2-13
2.10	Stack Operation.....	2-14
2.11	Flag Storage Format.....	2-18
2.12	Memory Address Computation.....	2-25
2.13	Direct Addressing .....	2-25
2.14	Register Indirect Addressing .....	2-26
2.15	Based Addressing .....	2-26
2.16	Accessing a Structure with Based Addressing.....	2-27
2.17	Indexed Addressing.....	2-28
2.18	Accessing an Array with Indexed Addressing.....	2-28
2.19	Based Index Addressing .....	2-29
2.20	Accessing a Stacked Array with Based Index Addressing.....	2-30
2.21	String Operand .....	2-31
2.22	I/O Port Addressing .....	2-31
2.23	80C186 Modular Core Family Supported Data Types .....	2-33
2.24	Interrupt Control Unit .....	2-34
2.25	Interrupt Vector Table.....	2-35
2.26	Interrupt Sequence .....	2-36
2.27	Interrupt Response Factors.....	2-40
2.28	Simultaneous NMI and Exception .....	2-41
2.29	Simultaneous NMI and Single Step Interrupts .....	2-42
2.30	Simultaneous NMI, Single Step and Maskable Interrupt .....	2-43
3.1	Physical Data Bus Models.....	3-2
3.2	16-Bit Data Bus Byte Transfers.....	3-3
3.3	16-Bit Data Bus Even Word Transfers .....	3-3
3.4	16-Bit Data Bus Odd Word Transfers .....	3-4
3.5	8-Bit Data Bus Word Transfers .....	3-5
3.6	Typical Bus Cycle.....	3-7
3.7	T-State Relation to CLKOUT.....	3-7
3.8	BIU State Diagram.....	3-8
3.9	T-State and Bus Phases .....	3-8
3.10	Address/Status Signal Relationships .....	3-9
3.11	Demultiplexing Address Information .....	3-10
3.12	Data Transfer Signal Relationships.....	3-11
3.13	Typical Bus Cycle With Wait States .....	3-12
3.14	READY Pin Block Diagram .....	3-13

3.15	Generating a Normally Not-Ready Bus Signal.....	3-13
3.16	Generating a Normally Ready Signal.....	3-14
3.17	Normally Not-Ready System Timing.....	3-15
3.18	Normally Ready System Timings.....	3-16
3.19	Typical Read Bus Cycle.....	3-18
3.20	Read-Only Device Interface.....	3-19
3.21	Typical Write Bus Cycle.....	3-21
3.22	16-Bit Bus Read/Write Device Interface.....	3-23
3.23	Interrupt Acknowledge Bus Cycle.....	3-24
3.24	Typical 82C59A Interface.....	3-25
3.25	HALT Bus Cycle.....	3-27
3.26	Returning to HALT After a HOLD/HLDA Bus Exchange.....	3-28
3.27	Returning to HALT After a Refresh Bus Cycle.....	3-29
3.28	Returning to HALT After a DMA Bus Cycle.....	3-30
3.29	Exiting HALT (Powerdown Mode).....	3-30
3.30	Exiting HALT (Active/Idle Mode).....	3-31
3.31	$\overline{DEN}$ and DT/R Timing Relationship.....	3-32
3.32	Buffered AD Bus System.....	3-33
3.33	Qualifying $\overline{DEN}$ with Chip-Selects.....	3-34
3.34	Timing Sequence Entering HOLD.....	3-36
3.35	Refresh Request During Bus Hold.....	3-37
3.36	Latching HLDA.....	3-38
3.37	Exiting HOLD.....	3-39
4.1	PCB Relocation Register.....	4-3
5.1	Clock Generator.....	5-1
5.2	Ideal Operation of Pierce Oscillator.....	5-2
5.3	Crystal Connections to Microprocessor.....	5-3
5.4	Equations for Crystal Calculations.....	5-3
5.5	RC Circuit for $\overline{RESIN}$ Input.....	5-6
5.6	Cold Reset Waveform.....	5-7
5.7	Warm Reset Waveform.....	5-8
5.8	Clock Synchronization at Reset.....	5-9
5.9	Power Control Register.....	5-11
5.10	Entering Idle Mode.....	5-11
5.11	HOLD/HLDA During Idle Mode.....	5-12
5.12	Entering Powerdown Mode.....	5-15
5.13	Powerdown Timer Circuit.....	5-16
5.14	Power-Save Register.....	5-17
5.15	Power-Save Clock Transition.....	5-18
6.1	Common Chip-Select Generation Methods.....	6-1
6.2	Chip-Select Block Diagram.....	6-2
6.3	Chip-Select Relative Timings.....	6-3
6.4	UCS Reset Configuration.....	6-4
6.5	START Register Definition.....	6-6
6.6	STOP Register Definition.....	6-7
6.7	Wait State and Ready Control Functions.....	6-9
6.8	Overlapping Chip-Selects.....	6-11

6.9	Using Chip-Selects During HOLD .....	6-12
6.10	Typical System .....	6-13
6.11	Guarded Memory Detector .....	6-18
7.1	Refresh Control Unit Block Diagram .....	7-1
7.2	Refresh Control Unit Operation Flow Chart .....	7-3
7.3	Refresh Address Formation .....	7-3
7.4	Suggested DRAM Control Signal Timing Relationships .....	7-6
7.5	Formula for Calculating Refresh Interval for RFTIME Register .....	7-6
7.6	Refresh Base Address Register .....	7-7
7.7	Refresh Clock Interval Register .....	7-8
7.8	Refresh Control Register .....	7-9
7.9	Refresh Address Register .....	7-10
7.10	Regaining Bus Control to Run a DRAM Refresh Bus Cycle .....	7-13
8.1	Interrupt Control Unit Block Diagram .....	8-2
8.2	Interrupt Acknowledge Cycle .....	8-3
8.3	8259A Module Block Diagram .....	8-5
8.4	Priority Cell .....	8-8
8.5	Spurious Interrupts .....	8-9
8.6	Default Priority .....	8-9
8.7	Specific Rotation .....	8-10
8.8	Automatic Rotation .....	8-11
8.9	Typical Cascade Connection .....	8-13
8.10	Spurious Interrupts in a Cascaded System .....	8-16
8.11	8259A Module Initialization Sequence .....	8-20
8.12	ICW1 Register .....	8-21
8.13	ICW2 Register .....	8-22
8.14	ICS3 Master Register .....	8-23
8.15	Slave ICW3 .....	8-24
8.16	ICW4 .....	8-25
8.17	OCW1- Interrupt Mask Register .....	8-26
8.18	OCW2 .....	8-27
8.19	OCW3 .....	8-29
8.20	Poll Status Byte .....	8-30
8.21	Interrupt Request Latch Register Function .....	8-31
8.22	Default Slave 8259 Module Priority .....	8-32
8.23	Multiplexed Interrupt Requests .....	8-32
8.24	DMA Interrupt Request Latch Register .....	8-33
8.25	Serial Communications Interrupt Request Latch Register .....	8-34
8.26	DMA Interrupt Request Latch Register .....	8-36
8.27	Interrupt Resolution Time .....	8-36
8.28	Resetting the Edge Detect Circuitry .....	8-37
8.29	Typical Cascade Connection for 82C59A-2 .....	8-38
8.30	Software Wait State for External 82C59A-2 .....	8-39
9.1	Timer/Counter Unit Block Diagram .....	9-1
9.2	Counter Element Multiplexing and Timer Input Synchronization .....	9-2
9.3(a)	Timers 0 and 1 Flow Chart .....	9-3
9.3(b)	Timers 0 and 1 Flow Chart (Continued) .....	9-4

9.4	Timer/Counter Unit Output Modes .....	9-5
9.5	Timer 0 and Timer 1 Control Registers .....	9-6
9.6	Timer 2 Control Register .....	9-7
9.7	Timer Count Registers .....	9-8
9.8	Timer Maxcount Compare Registers .....	9-8
9.9	TxOUT Signal Timing .....	9-12
10.1	Typical DMA Transfer.....	10-2
10.2	DMA Request Minimum Response Time .....	10-4
10.3	Source Synchronized Transfers .....	10-5
10.4	Destination Synchronized Transfers .....	10-6
10.5	Two Channel DMA Module .....	10-9
10.6	Examples of DMA Priority .....	10-11
10.7	Internal DMA Request Multiplexer.....	10-11
10.8	80C186EC/C188EC Dma Unit .....	10-12
10.9	DMA Source Pointer (High Order Bits) .....	10-15
10.10	DMA Source Pointer (Low Order Bits) .....	10-15
10.11	DMA Destination Pointer (High Order Bits) .....	10-16
10.12	DMA Destination Pointer (Low Order Bits).....	10-17
10.13(a)	DMA Control Register Bit Positions.....	10-18
10.13(b)	DMA Channel Control Register Bit Descriptions.....	10-19
10.14	DMA Module Priority Register .....	10-20
10.15	Transfer Count Register .....	10-21
10.16	DMA Module Priority Register.....	10-24
11.1	Typical 10-Bit Asynchronous Data Frame.....	11-2
11.2	RX Machine .....	11-3
11.3	TX Machine .....	11-5
11.4	Mode 1 Waveform .....	11-6
11.5	Mode 3 Waveform .....	11-6
11.6	Mode 4 Waveform .....	11-7
11.7	Mode 0 Waveforms .....	11-8
11.8	Serial Receive Buffer Register .....	11-9
11.9	Serial Transmit Buffer Register (SxBUF) .....	11-9
11.10	BxCNT Register.....	11-10
11.11	BxCMP Register .....	11-11
11.12	SxCON Register .....	11-14
11.13	SxSTS Register .....	11-15
11.13	SxSTS Register (Continued) .....	11-16
11.14	$\overline{\text{CTS}}$ Recognition Sequence .....	11-18
11.15	BCLK Synchronization .....	11-18
11.16	Mode 0, BxCMP = 1 .....	11-19
11.17	Mode 0, BxCMP > 2 .....	11-20
11.18	Master/Slave Example .....	11-28
12.1	Block Diagram of the Watchdog Timer Unit .....	12-1
12.2	Watchdog Timer Reset Circuit .....	12-2
12.3	Generating Interrupts with the Watchdog Timer .....	12-3
12.4	Reload Sequence for Peripheral Control Block Located in I/O Space .....	12-4

12.5	Reload Sequence for Peripheral Control Block Located in Memory Space.....	12-5
12.6	WDTOUT Waveforms .....	12-6
12.7	Disabling the Watchdog Timer (Peripheral Control Block in I/O Space) .....	12-7
12.8	Disabling the Watchdog Timer (Peripheral Control Block in Memory Space) .....	12-8
12.9	WDT Reload Value (High).....	12-9
12.10	WDT Reload Value (Low).....	12-9
12.11	WDT Count Value (High).....	12-10
12.12	WDT Count Value (Low) .....	12-10
13.1	Simplified Logic Diagram of a Bidirectional Port Pin .....	13-2
13.2	Simplified Logic Diagram of an Output Port Pin .....	13-3
13.3	Simplified Logic Diagram of an Open-Drain Bidirectional Port .....	13-5
13.4	Port Control Register .....	13-9
13.5	Port Direction Register .....	13-10
13.6	Port Data Latch Register .....	13-11
13.7	Port Direction Register .....	13-12
14.1	80C187-Supported Data Types.....	14-7
14.2	80C186 Modular Core Family/80C187 System Configuration .....	14-8
14.3	80C187 Configuration with Partially Buffered Bus .....	14-11
14.4	80C187 Exception Trapping via Processor Interrupt Pin .....	14-12
15.1	Entering/Leaving ONCE Mode .....	15-1
A.1	Formal Definition of ENTER .....	A-3
A.2	Variable Access in Nested Procedures.....	A-4
A.3	Stack Frame for MAIN at Level 1 .....	A-4
A.4	Stack Frame for Procedure A at Level 2 .....	A-5
A.5	Stack Frame for Procedure B at Level 3 Called from A .....	A-6
A.6	Stack Frame for Procedure C at Level 3 Called from B .....	A-7
B.1	Input Synchronization Circuit.....	B-1

### Tables

2.1	Implicit Use of General Registers.....	2-5
2.2	Logical Address Sources.....	2-11
2.3	Data Transfer Instructions .....	2-17
2.4	Arithmetic Instructions .....	2-17
2.5	Arithmetic Interpretation of 8-Bit Numbers .....	2-17
2.6	Bit Manipulation Instructions .....	2-20
2.7	String Instructions.....	2-20
2.8	String Instruction Register and Flag Use .....	2-20
2.9	Program Transfer Instructions.....	2-20
2.10	Interpretation of Conditional Transfers.....	2-22
2.11	Processor Control Instructions .....	2-23
3.1	Bus Cycle Types.....	3-10
3.2	Read Bus Cycle Types.....	3-17
3.3	Read Cycle Critical Timing Parameters .....	3-20

3.4	Write Bus Cycle Types .....	3-20
3.5	Write Cycle Critical Timing Parameters .....	3-22
3.6	HALT Bus Cycle Pin States .....	3-26
3.7	Signal Condition Entering HOLD .....	3-35
4.1	80C186EC Peripheral Control Block .....	4-2
5.1	Suggested Values for Inductor $L_1$ in Third Overtone Oscillator Circuit .....	5-4
5.2	Summary of Power Management Modes .....	5-19
6.1	Chip-Select Unit Registers .....	6-5
6.2	Memory and I/O Compare Addresses .....	6-8
7.1	Identification of Refresh Bus Cycles .....	7-5
8.1	Operation Command Word Addressing .....	8-25
8.2	OCW2 Instruction Decoding .....	8-27
9.1	Timer 0 and 1 Clock Sources .....	9-9
9.2	Timer Retriggering .....	9-11
10.1	DMA Unit Naming Conventions and Signal Connections .....	10-13
11.1	Typical Baud Rate Values .....	11-12
13.1	Port 1 Multiplexing Options .....	13-4
13.2	Port 2 Multiplexing Options .....	13-6
13.3	Port 3 Multiplexing Options .....	13-6
14.1	80C187 Data Transfer Instructions .....	14-3
14.2	80C187 Arithmetic Instructions .....	14-4
14.3	80C187 Comparison Instructions .....	14-5
14.4	80C187 Transcendental Instructions .....	14-5
14.5	80C187 Constant Instructions .....	14-5
14.6	80C187 Processor Control Instructions .....	14-6
14.7	80C187 I/O Port Assignments .....	14-9
C.1	Instruction Set Summary .....	C-1
C.2	Machine Instruction Decoding Guide .....	C-7
C.3	Mnemonic Encoding Matrix .....	C-16

### Examples

5.1	Idle or Powerdown Mode Initialization Code .....	5-13
5.2	Power-Save Initialization Code .....	5-20
6.1	Chip-Select Unit Initialization Code .....	6-14
7.1	Refresh Control Unit Initialization Code .....	7-11
8.1	Template for System Initialization .....	8-40
8.2	Template for a Simple Interrupt Handler .....	8-43
8.3	Using the POLL Command .....	8-44
9.1	Real-Time Clock .....	9-14
9.2	Square Wave Generator .....	9-18
9.3	Digital One Shot .....	9-19
10.1	DMA Unit Initialization .....	10-27
10.2	DMA Driven Serial Transfers .....	10-32
10.3	Timed DMA Transfers .....	10-37
11.1	Asynchronous Mode Example .....	11-21

11.2	Mode 0 Example.....	11-24
11.3	Master/Slave.....	11-26
11.4	Master/Slave.....	11-28
11.5	Master/Slave.....	11-31
11.6	Master/Slave.....	11-34
12.1	Initialization Sequence for Peripheral Control Block .....	12-11
13.1	I/O Port Programming Example .....	13-13
14.1	Initialization Sequence for 80C187 Math Coprocessor.....	14-13
14.2	Floating Point Math Routine Using FSINCOS.....	14-14





---

# *Introduction*

**1**

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

The 8086 microprocessor was first introduced in 1978 and gained rapid support as the microcomputer engine of choice. There are literally millions of 8086/8088 based systems in the world today. The amount of software written for the 8086/8088 is rivaled by no other architecture.

By the early 1980's, however, it was clear that a replacement for the 8086/8088 was necessary. An 8086/8088 system required dozens of support chips to implement even a moderately complex design. Intel recognized the need to integrate commonly used system peripherals onto the same silicon die as the CPU. In 1982 Intel addressed this need by introducing the 80186/80188 family of embedded microprocessors. The original 80186/80188 integrated an enhanced 8086/8088 CPU with six commonly used system peripherals. A parallel effort within Intel also gave rise to the 80286 microprocessor in 1982. The 80286 began the trend toward very high performance "x86" compatible CPUs that today includes the i386™ and i486™ microprocessors.

As technology advanced and turned toward small geometry CMOS processes, it became clear that a new 80186 was needed. In 1987 Intel announced the second generation of the 80186 family: the 80C186/C188. The 80C186 family is pin compatible with the 80186 family while adding an enhanced feature set. The high performance CHMOS III process allowed the 80C186 to run at twice the clock rate of the NMOS 80186 while consuming less than one quarter the power.

The 80186 family took another major step in 1990 with the introduction of the 80C186EB family. The 80C186EB heralded many changes for the 80186 family. First, the enhanced 8086/8088 CPU was redesigned as a static, stand alone module known as the 80C186 Modular Core. Second, the 80186 family peripherals were also redesigned as static modules with standard interfaces. The goal behind this redesign effort was to give Intel the capability to rapidly proliferate the 80186 family in order to provide solutions for an even wider range of customer applications.

The 80C186EB/C188EB was the first product to use the new modular capability. The 80C186EB/C188EB includes a different peripheral set than the original 80186 family. Power consumption was dramatically reduced as a direct result of the static design, power management features and advanced CHMOS IV process. The 80C186EB/C188EB has found acceptance in a wide array of portable equipment ranging from cellular phones to personal organizers.

In 1991 the 80C186 Modular Core family was extended again with the introduction of three new products: the 80C186XL, the 80C186EA and the 80C186EC. The 80C186XL/C188XL is a higher performance, lower power replacement for the older 80C186/C188. The 80C186EA/C188EA combines the feature set of the 80C186 with power management features for power critical applications. For those applications that require higher integration than the 80C186EA or 80C186EB can provide, the 80C186EC/C188EC offers the highest level of

integration of any of the 80C186 Modular Core family products with a total of 14 on-chip peripherals.

The 80C186 Modular Core family is the direct result of ten years of Intel development. It offers the designer the peace of mind of a well established architecture with the benefits of state of the art technology.

FEATURE	80C186XL	80C186EA	80C186EB	80C186EC
ENHANCED 8086 INSTRUCTION SET				
LOW POWER STATIC MODULAR CPU				
POWER SAVE (CLOCK DIVIDE) MODE				
POWERDOWN AND IDLE MODES				
80C187 INTERFACE				
ONCE MODE				
INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT				8259 COMPATIBLE
TIMER/COUNTER UNIT				
CHIP-SELECT UNIT			IMPROVED	IMPROVED
DMA UNIT	2 CHANNEL	2 CHANNEL		4 CHANNEL
SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS UNIT				
REFRESH CONTROL UNIT				
WATCHDOG TIMER UNIT				
I/O PORTS			16 TOTAL	22 TOTAL

**Figure 1.1. Comparison of 80C186 Modular Core Family Products**

## 1.1 HOW TO USE THIS MANUAL

Throughout this manual you will come across phrases such as “80C186 Modular Core Family” or “80C188 Modular Core” as well as references to specific products such as “80C188EA”. Each of these terms refers to a specific set of 80C186 family products. The phrases and the products they refer to are as follows:

**80C186 Modular Core Family:** This phrase refers to any device that uses the modular 80C186/C188 CPU core architecture. At this time these include: 80C186EA/C188EA, 80C186EB/C188EB, 80C186EC/C188EC and 80C186XL/C188XL.

**80C186 Modular Core:** Without the word *family*, this refers to just the 16-bit bus members of the 80C186 Modular Core Family.

**80C188 Modular Core:** This phrase refers to the 8-bit bus products.

**Specific Product References:** For example the phrase “*On the 80C188EC...*” refers strictly to the 80C188EC and not to any other device.

Each chapter covers a specific section of the device beginning with the CPU core. Each peripheral chapter includes programming examples intended to aid in your understanding of device operation. Please read the comments carefully, as not all of the examples include all of the code necessary for a specific application.

This user's guide is a supplement to the device data sheet. Specific timing values are not discussed in this guide. When designing a system, always consult the most recent version of the device data sheet for up to date specifications.



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*Overview of the  
80C186 Family  
Modular Microprocessor  
Core Architecture*

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**2**





## CHAPTER 2

# OVERVIEW OF THE 80C186 FAMILY MODULAR MICROPROCESSOR CORE ARCHITECTURE

The 80C186 Modular Microprocessor Core shares a common base architecture with the 8086, 8088, 80186, 80188, 80286, i386™ and i486™ processors. The 80C186 Modular Core maintains full object code compatibility with the 8086/8088 family of 16-bit microprocessors, while adding hardware and software performance enhancements. Most instructions require fewer clocks to execute on the 80C186 Modular Core because of hardware enhancements in the Bus Interface Unit and the Execution Unit. There are several additional instructions which simplify programming and reduce code size (see *80C186 Instruction Set Additions and Extensions*).

### 2.1. ARCHITECTURAL OVERVIEW

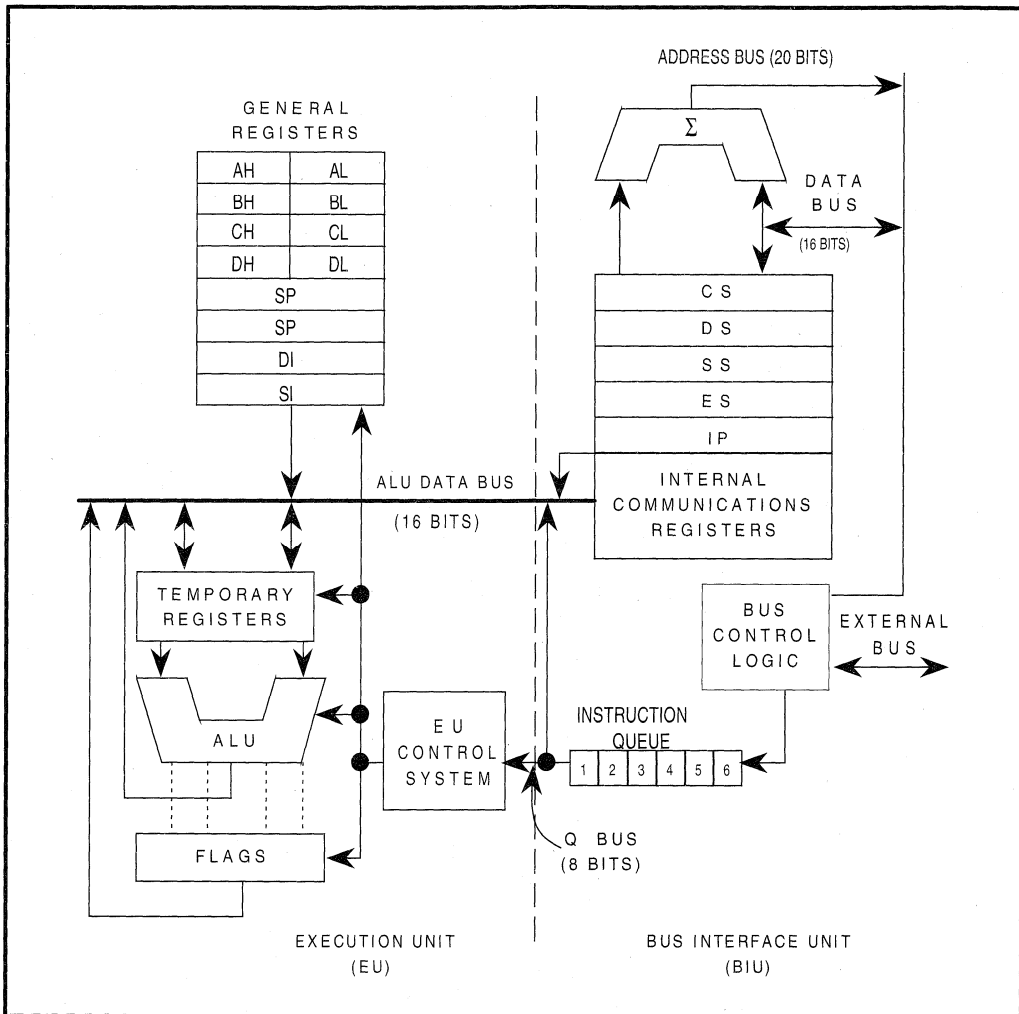
The 80C186 Modular Microprocessor Core incorporates two separate processing units: an Execution Unit (EU) and a Bus Interface Unit (BIU). The Execution Unit is functionally identical among all family members. The Bus Interface Unit is configured for a 16-bit external data bus for the 80C186 core and an 8-bit external data bus for the 80C188 core. The two units interface via an instruction prefetch queue.

The Execution Unit executes instructions and the Bus Interface Unit fetches instructions, reads operands and writes results. Whenever the Execution Unit requires another opcode byte, it takes the byte out of the prefetch queue. The two units can operate independently of one another and are able, under most circumstances, to overlap instruction fetches and execution.

The 80C186 Modular Core family has a 16-bit Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU). The Arithmetic Logic Unit performs 8-bit or 16-bit arithmetic and logical operations. It provides for data movement between registers, memory and I/O space.

The 80C186 Modular Core family CPU allows for high speed data transfer from one area of memory to another using string move instructions and between an I/O port and memory using block I/O instructions. The CPU also provides many conditional branch and control instructions.

The 80C186 Modular Core architecture features 14 basic registers grouped as general registers, segment registers, pointer registers and status and control registers. The four 16-bit general purpose registers (AX, BX, CX and DX) may be used as operands for most arithmetic operations as either 8- or 16-bit units. The four 16-bit pointer registers (SI, DI, BP and SP) may be used in arithmetic operations and in accessing memory-based variables. Four 16-bit segment registers (CS, DS, SS and ES) allow simple memory partitioning to aid modular programming. The status and control registers consist of an Instruction Pointer (IP) and the Processor Status Word register containing flag bits. Figure 2.1 is a simplified CPU block diagram.



**Figure 2.1. Simplified Functional Block Diagram of the 80C186 Modular Core Family CPU**

### 2.1.1. EXECUTION UNIT

The Execution Unit executes all instructions, provides data and addresses to the Bus Interface Unit and manipulates the general registers and the Processor Status Word. The 16-bit ALU within the Execution Unit maintains the CPU status and control flags and manipulates the general registers and instruction operands. All registers and data paths in the Execution Unit are 16 bits wide for fast internal transfers.

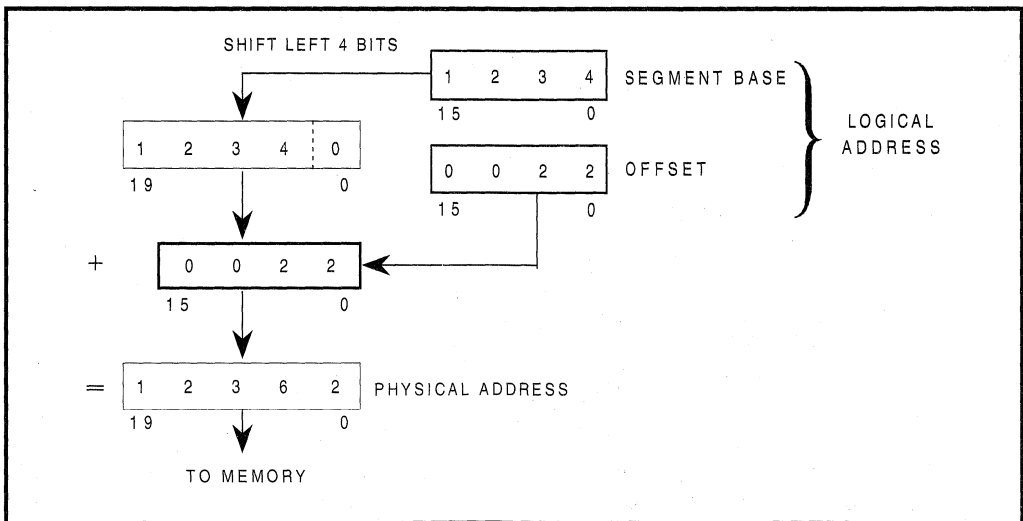
The Execution Unit does not connect directly to the system bus. It obtains instructions from a queue maintained by the Bus Interface Unit. When an instruction requires access to memory or a peripheral device, the Execution Unit requests the Bus Interface Unit to read and write data. Addresses manipulated by the Execution Unit are 16 bits wide. The Bus Interface Unit, however, performs an address calculation which allows the Execution Unit to access the full megabyte of memory space.

For the Execution Unit to execute an instruction, it must fetch the object code byte from the instruction queue and then execute the instruction. If the queue is empty when the Execution Unit is ready to fetch an instruction byte, the Execution Unit waits for the instruction byte to be fetched by the Bus Interface Unit.

**2.1.2. BUS INTERFACE UNIT**

The 80C186 Modular Core and 80C188 Modular Core Bus Interface Units are functionally identical. They are implemented differently to match the structure and performance characteristics of their respective system buses. The Bus Interface Unit executes all external bus cycles. This unit consists of the segment registers, the Instruction Pointer, the instruction code queue and several miscellaneous registers. The Bus Interface Unit transfers data to and from the Execution Unit on the ALU data bus.

The Bus Interface Unit generates a 20-bit physical address in a dedicated adder. The adder shifts a 16-bit segment value left 4 bits and then adds a 16-bit offset. This offset is derived from combinations of the pointer registers, the Instruction Pointer and immediate values (see Figure 2.2). Any carry from this addition is ignored.



**Figure 2.2. Physical Address Generation**

During periods when the Execution Unit is busy executing instructions, the Bus Interface Unit sequentially prefetches instructions from memory. As long as the prefetch queue is partially full, the Execution Unit fetches instructions.

### 2.1.3. GENERAL REGISTERS

The 80C186 Modular Core family CPU has eight 16-bit general registers (see Figure 2.3). The general registers are subdivided into two sets of four registers. These sets are the data registers (also called the H & L group for high and low) and the pointer and index registers (also called the P & I group).

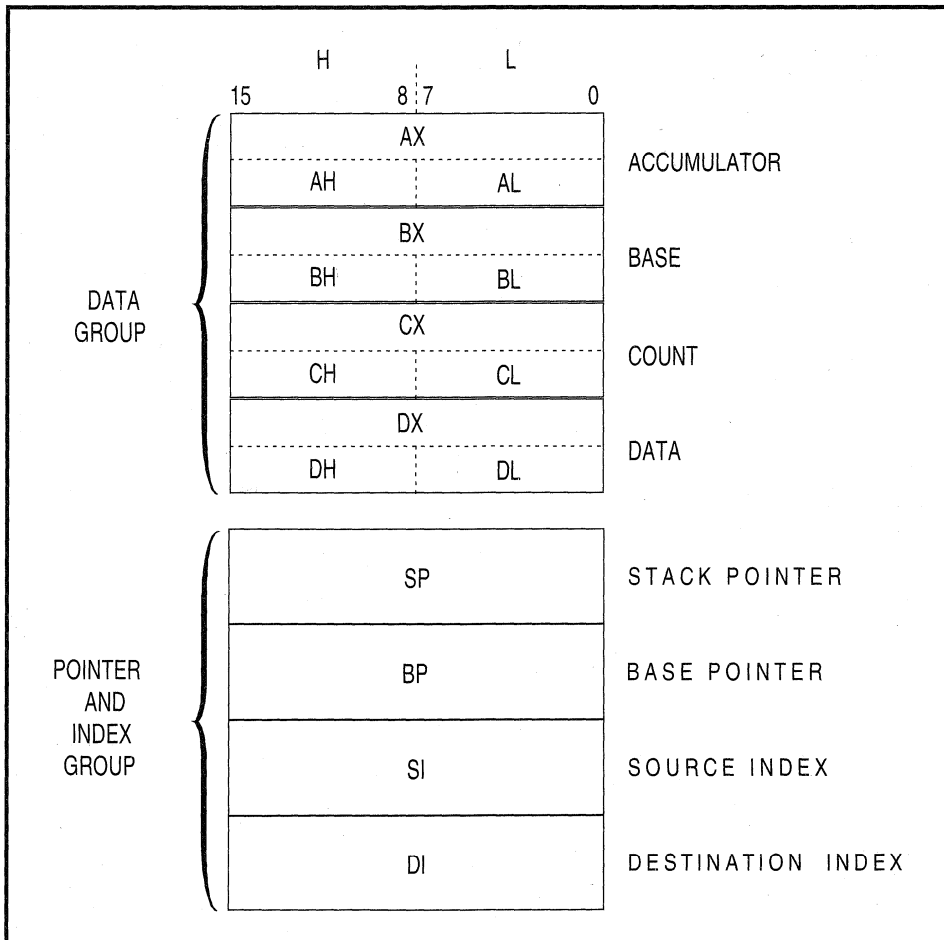


Figure 2.3. General Registers

The data registers may be addressed by their upper or lower halves. Each data register can be used interchangeably as a 16-bit register or two 8-bit registers. The pointer registers are always accessed as 16-bit values. The CPU can use data registers without constraint in most arithmetic and logic operations. Arithmetic and logic operations can also use the pointer and index registers. Some instructions use certain registers implicitly (see Table 2.1), allowing compact encoding.

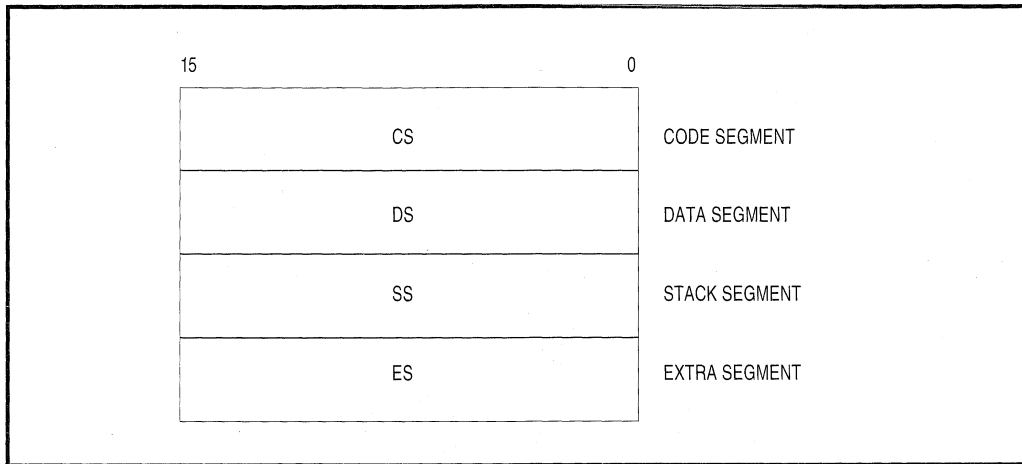
**Table 2.1. Implicit Use of General Registers**

REGISTER	OPERATIONS
AX	Word Multiply, Word Divide, Word I/O
AL	Byte Multiply, Byte Divide, Byte I/O, Translate, Decimal Arithmetic
AH	Byte Multiply, Byte Divide
BX	Translate
CX	String Operations, Loops
CL	Variable Shift and Rotate
DX	Word Multiply, Word Divide, Indirect I/O
SP	Stack Operations
SI	String Operations
DI	String Operations

The contents of the general purpose registers are undefined following a processor reset.

#### 2.1.4. SEGMENT REGISTERS

The 80C186 Modular Core family memory space is one megabyte in size and divided into logical segments of up to 64 Kbytes each. The CPU has direct access to four segments at a time. The segment registers contain the base addresses (starting locations) of these memory segments (see Figure 2.4). The CS register points to the current code segment, which contains instructions to be fetched. The SS register points to the current stack segment, which is used for all stack operations. The DS register points to the current data segment, which generally contains program variables. The ES register points to the current extra segment, typically used for data storage. Programs can access and manipulate the segment registers with several instructions.



**Figure 2.4. Segment Registers**

The CS register initializes to 0FFFFH and the DS, ES and SS registers initialize to 0000H.

### 2.1.5. INSTRUCTION POINTER

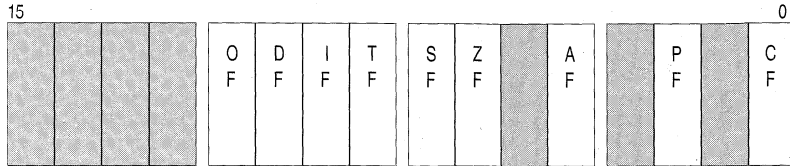
The Bus Interface Unit updates the 16-bit Instruction Pointer (IP) register so it contains the offset of the next instruction to be fetched. Programs do not have direct access to the Instruction Pointer, but it may change, be saved or be restored as a result of program execution. For example, if the Instruction Pointer is saved on the stack, it is first automatically adjusted to point to the next instruction to be executed.

Reset initializes the Instruction Pointer to 0000H. The CS and IP values comprise a starting execution address of 0FFFF0H (see Section 2.1.8 for a description of address formation).

### 2.1.6. FLAGS

The 80C186 Modular Core family has six status flags (see Figure 2.5) that the Execution Unit posts as the result of arithmetic or logical operations. Program branch instructions allow a program to alter its execution depending on conditions flagged by a prior operation. Different instructions affect the status flags differently, generally reflecting the following states:

**Register Name:** Processor Status Word  
**Register Mnemonic:** PSW (FLAGS)  
**Register Function:** Posts CPU status information.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
OF	<i>Overflow Flag</i>	0	If OF is set, an arithmetic overflow has occurred.
DF	<i>Direction Flag</i>	0	If DF is set, string instructions are processed high address to low address. If DF is clear, strings are processed low address to high address.
IF	<i>Interrupt Enable Flag</i>	0	If IF is set, the CPU will recognize maskable interrupt requests. If IF is clear, maskable interrupts are ignored.
TF	<i>Trap Flag</i>	0	If TF is set, the processor will enter single-step mode.
SF	<i>Sign Flag</i>	0	If SF is set, the high-order bit of the result of an operation is 1, indicating it is negative.
ZF	<i>Zero Flag</i>	0	If ZF is set, the result of an operation is zero.
AF	<i>Auxiliary Carry Flag</i>	0	If AF is set, there has been a carry from the low nibble to the high or a borrow from the high nibble to the low nibble of an 8-bit quantity. Used in BCD operations.
PF	<i>Parity Flag</i>	0	If PF is set, the result of an operation has even parity.
CF	<i>Carry Flag</i>	0	If CF is set, there has been a carry out of, or a borrow into, the high-order bit of the result of an instruction.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading.

**Figure 2.5. Processor Status Word**

- If the Auxiliary Flag (AF) is set, there has been a carry out from the low nibble into the high nibble or a borrow from the high nibble into the low nibble of an 8-bit quantity (low-order byte of a 16-bit quantity). This flag is used by decimal arithmetic instructions.
- If the Carry Flag (CF) is set, there has been a carry out of or a borrow into the high-order bit of the instruction result (8- or 16-bit). This flag is used by instructions that add or subtract multibyte numbers. Rotate instructions can also isolate a bit in memory or a register by placing it in the Carry Flag.
- If the Overflow Flag (OF) is set, an arithmetic overflow has occurred. A significant digit has been lost because the size of the result exceeded the capacity of its destination location. An Interrupt On Overflow instruction is available that will generate an interrupt in this situation.
- If the Sign Flag (SF) is set, the high-order bit of the result is a 1. Since negative binary numbers are represented in standard two's complement notation, SF indicates the sign of the result (0 = positive, 1 = negative).
- If the Parity Flag (PF) is set, the result has even parity, an even number of 1 bits. This flag can be used to check for data transmission errors.
- If the Zero Flag (ZF) is set, the result of the operation is zero.

Additional control flags (see Figure 2.5) can be set or cleared by programs to alter processor operations:

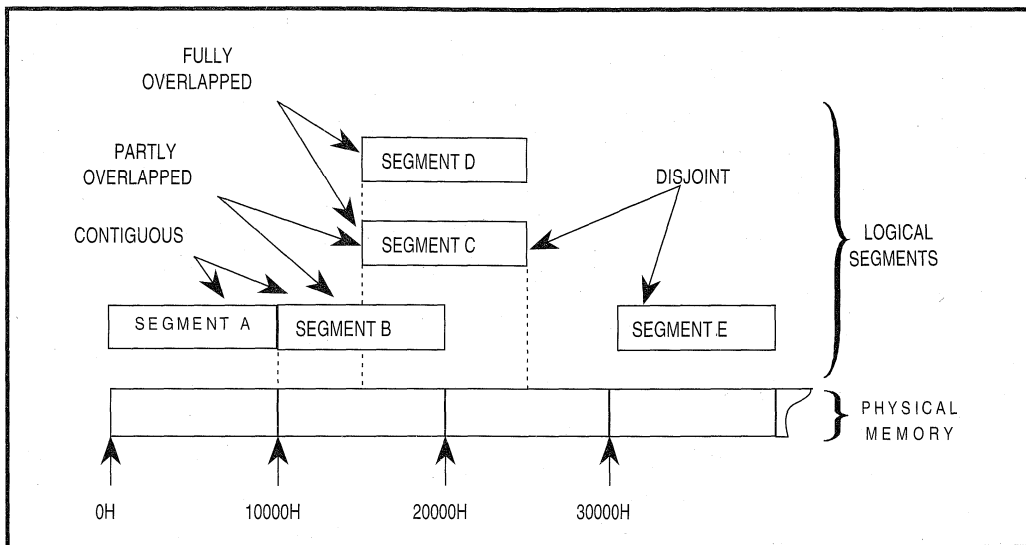
- Setting the Direction Flag (DF) causes string operations to auto-decrement. Strings are processed from the high address to the low address or “right to left”. Clearing DF causes string operations to auto-increment on process strings “left to right”.
- Setting the Interrupt Enable Flag (IF) allows the CPU to recognize maskable external or internal interrupt requests. Clearing IF disables these interrupts. The Interrupt Enable Flag has no effect on software interrupts or non-maskable, interrupts.
- Setting the Trap Flag (TF) bit puts the processor into single-step mode for debugging. In this mode, the CPU automatically generates an interrupt after each instruction. This allows a program to be inspected instruction by instruction during execution.

Both the status and control flags are contained in a 16-bit Processor Status Word (see Figure 2.5). Reset initializes the Processor Status Word to 0F000H.

### 2.1.7. MEMORY SEGMENTATION

Programs for the 80C186 Modular Core family view the one megabyte memory space as a group of user-defined segments. A segment is a logical unit of memory that may be up to 64 Kbytes long. Each segment is composed of contiguous memory locations. Segments are independent and separately-addressable. Software assigns every segment a base address





**Figure 2.6. Segment Locations in Physical Memory**

(starting location) in memory space. All segments begin on 16-byte memory boundaries. There are no other restrictions on segment locations. Segments may be adjacent, disjoint, partially overlapped or fully overlapped (see Figure 2.6). A physical memory location may be mapped into (covered by) one or more logical segments.

The four segment registers point to four “currently addressable” segments (see Figure 2.7). The currently addressable segments provide a work space consisting of 64 Kbytes for code, a 64 Kbytes for stack and 128 Kbytes for data storage. Programs access code and data in another segment by updating the segment register to point to the new segment.

### 2.1.8. LOGICAL ADDRESSES

It is useful to think of every memory location as having two kinds of addresses, physical and logical. A physical address is a 20-bit value that identifies a unique byte location in the memory space. Physical addresses range from 0H to 0FFFFFFH. All exchanges between the CPU and memory use physical addresses.

Programs deal with logical rather than physical addresses. Program code can be developed without prior knowledge of where the code will be located in memory. A logical address consists of a segment base value and an offset value. For any given memory location, the segment base value locates the first byte of the segment. The offset value represents the distance, in bytes, of the target location from the beginning of the segment. Segment base and offset values are unsigned 16-bit quantities. Many different logical addresses can map to the

same physical location. In Figure 2.8, physical memory location 2C3H is contained in two different overlapping segments, one beginning at 2B0H and the other at 2C0H.

The segment register is automatically selected according to the rules in Table 2.2. All information in one segment type generally shares the same logical attributes (e.g., code or data). This leads to programs which are shorter, faster and better structured.

The Bus Interface Unit must obtain the logical address before generating the physical address. The logical address of a memory location can come from different sources, depending on the type of reference that is being made (see Table 2.2).

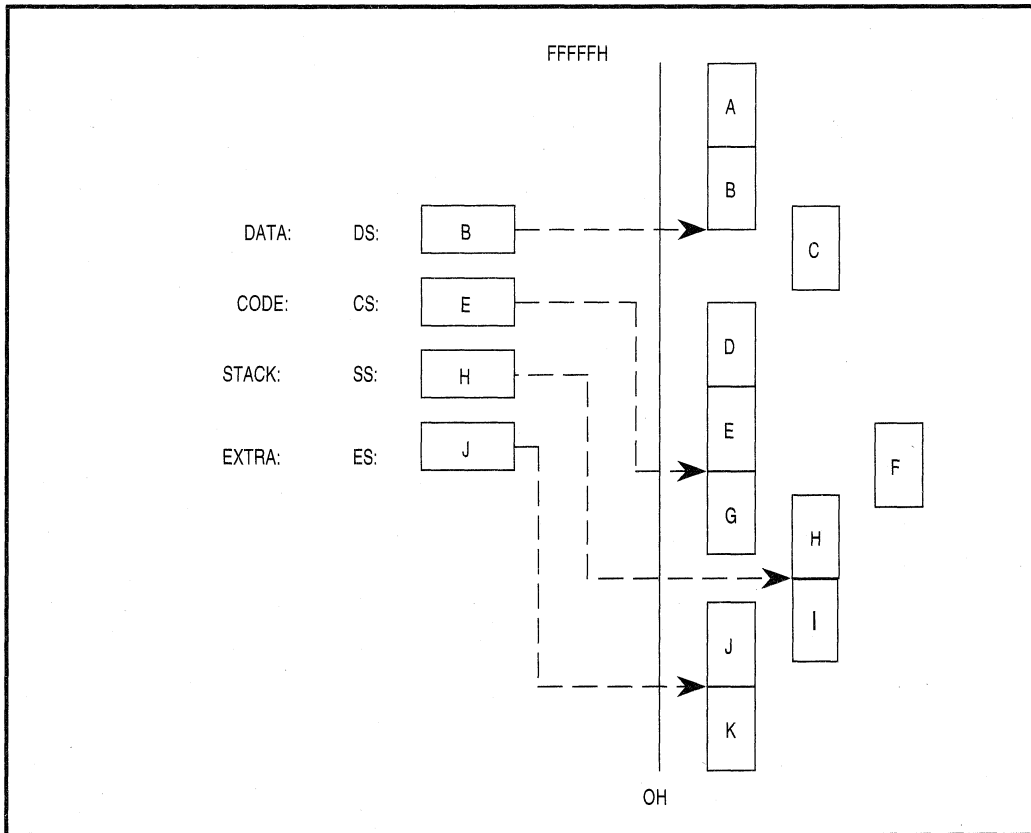


Figure 2.7. Currently Addressable Segments

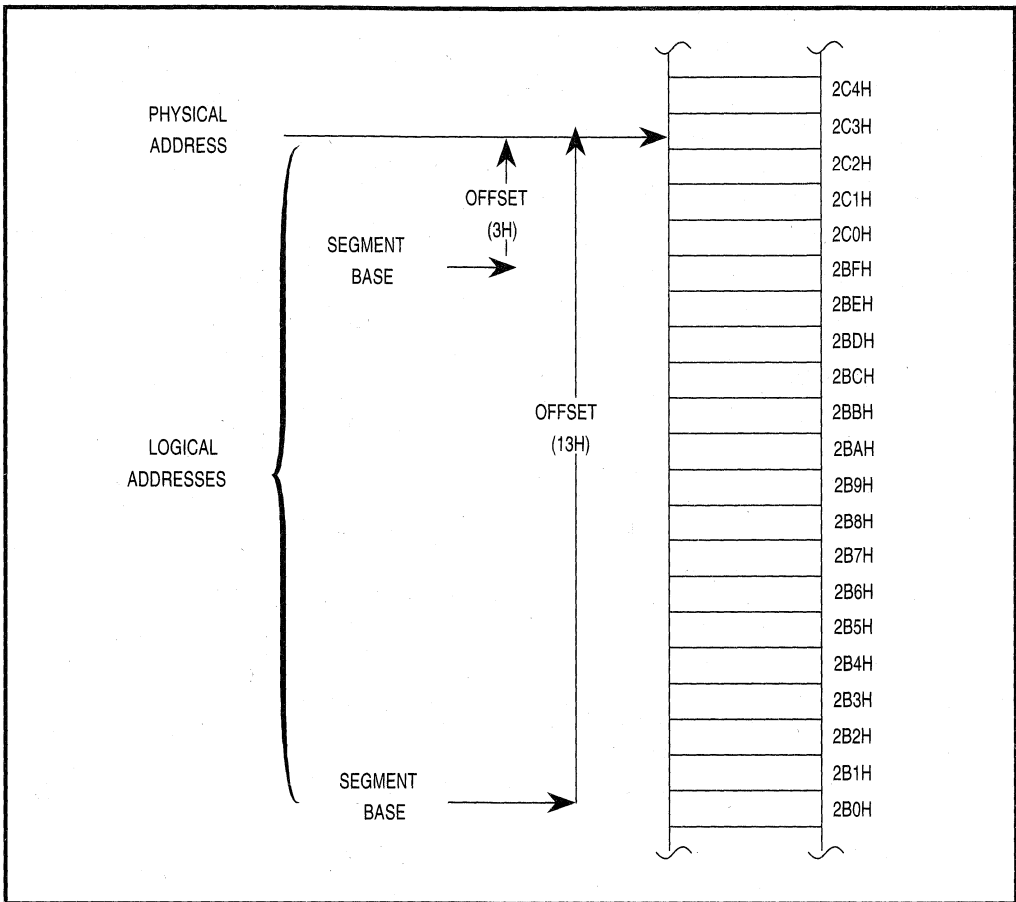


Figure 2.8. Logical and Physical Address

Table 2.2. Logical Address Sources

TYPE OF MEMORY REFERENCE	DEFAULT SEGMENT BASE	ALTERNATE SEGMENT BASE	OFFSET
Instruction Fetch	CS	NONE	IP
Stack Operation	SS	NONE	SP
Variable (except following)	DS	CS, ES, SS	Effective Address
String Source	DS	CS, ES, SS	SI
String Destination	ES	NONE	DI
BP Used As Base Register	SS	CS, DS, ES	Effective Address

Segment registers always hold the segment base addresses. The Bus Interface Unit determines which segment register contains the base address according to the type of memory reference made. However, the programmer can explicitly direct the Bus Interface Unit to use any currently addressable segment (except for the destination operand of a string instruction). In assembly language, this is done by preceding an instruction with a segment override prefix.

Instructions are always fetched from the current code segment. The IP register contains the instruction's offset from the beginning of the segment. Stack instructions always operate on the current stack segment. The Stack Pointer (SP) register contains the offset of the top of the stack from the base of the stack. Most variables (memory operands) are assumed to reside in the current data segment, but a program can instruct the Bus Interface Unit to override this assumption. Often, the offset of a memory variable is not directly available and must be calculated at execution time. The addressing mode specified in the instruction determines how this offset is calculated (see Section 2.2.2). The result is called the operand's Effective Address (EA).

Strings are addressed differently than other variables. The source operand of a string instruction is assumed to lie in the current data segment. However, the program may use another currently addressable segment. The operand's offset is taken from the Source Index (SI) register. The destination operand of a string instruction always resides in the current extra segment. The destination's offset is taken from the Destination Index (DI) register. The string instructions automatically adjust the SI and DI registers as they process the strings one byte or word at a time.

When an instruction designates the Base Pointer (BP) register as a base register, the variable is assumed to reside in the current stack segment. The BP register provides a convenient way to access data on the stack. The BP register can also be used to access data in any other currently addressable segment.

### **2.1.9. DYNAMICALLY RELOCATABLE CODE**

The segmented memory structure of the 80C186 Modular Core family allows creation of dynamically relocatable (position-independent) programs. Dynamic relocation allows a multiprogramming or multitasking system to make effective use of available memory. The processor can write inactive programs to a disk and reallocate the space they occupied to other programs. A disk-resident program can then be read back into available memory locations and restarted whenever it is needed. If a program needs a large contiguous block of storage and the total amount is only available in non-adjacent fragments, other program segments can be compacted to free up enough continuous space. This process is illustrated graphically in Figure 2.9.

To be dynamically relocatable, a program must not load or alter its segment registers and must not transfer directly to a location outside the current code segment. All program offsets must be relative to the segment registers. This allows the program to be moved anywhere in memory provided the segment registers are updated to point to the new base addresses.

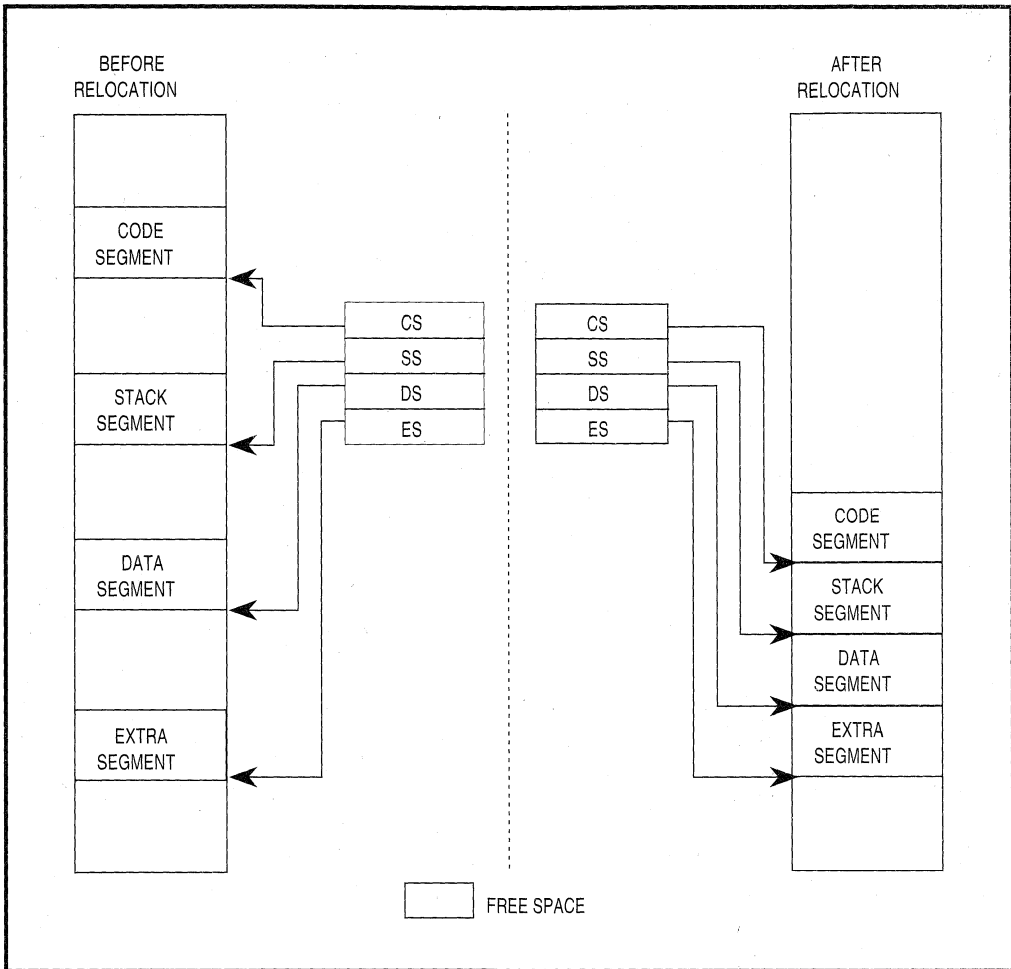
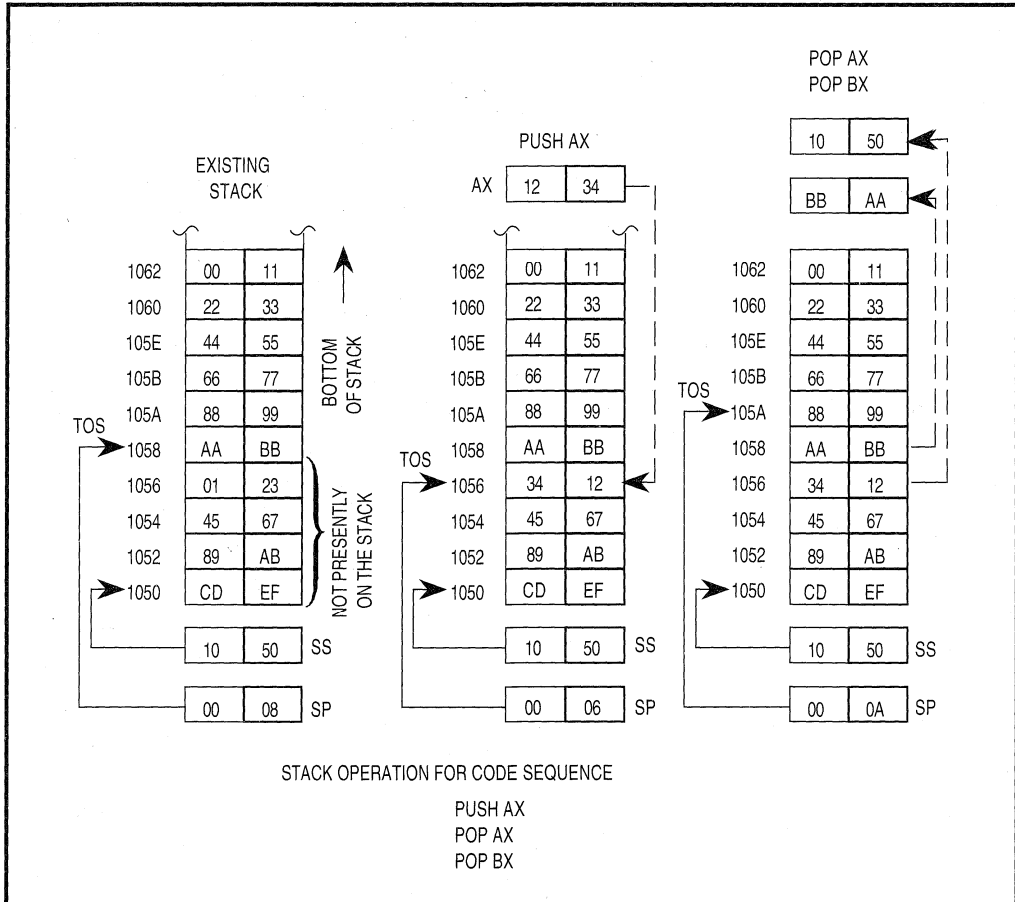


Figure 2.9. Dynamic Code Relocation

2.1.10. STACK IMPLEMENTATION

Stacks in the 80C186 Modular Core family reside in memory space. They are located by the Stack Segment register (SS) and the Stack Pointer (SP). A system may have multiple stacks. A stack may be up to 64 Kbytes long, the maximum length of a segment. Growing a stack segment beyond 64 Kbytes overwrites the beginning of the segment. Only one stack is directly addressable at a time. The SS register contains the base address of the current stack. The top of the stack, not the base address, is the origination point of the stack. The SP register contains an offset which points to the Top Of Stack (TOS).

Stacks are 16 bits wide. Instructions operating on a stack add and remove stack elements one word at a time. An element is pushed onto the stack (see Figure 2.10) by first decrementing the SP register by 2 and then writing the data word. An element is popped off the stack by copying it from the top of the stack and then incrementing the SP register by 2. The stack grows down in memory toward its base address. Stack operations never move or erase elements on the stack. The top of the stack changes only as a result of updating the stack pointer.



**Figure 2.10. Stack Operation**

### 2.1.11. RESERVED MEMORY AND I/O SPACE

Two specific areas in memory and one area in I/O space are reserved in the 80C186 Core family.

- Locations 0H through 3FFH in low memory are used for the Interrupt Vector Table. Programs should not be loaded here.
- Locations 0FFFF0H through 0FFFFFFH in high memory are used for system reset code since the processor begins execution at 0FFFF0H.
- Locations 0F8H through 0FFH in I/O space are reserved for communication with other Intel hardware products and may not be used. On the 80C186 core, these addresses are used as I/O ports for the 80C187 numerics processor extension.

## 2.2. SOFTWARE OVERVIEW

All 80C186 Modular core family members execute the same instructions. This includes all the 8086/8088 instructions plus several additions and enhancements (see *80C186 Instruction Set Additions and Extensions*). The following sections provide a description of the instructions by category and a detailed discussion of the operand addressing modes.

Software for 80C186 Core family systems does not need to be written in assembly language. The processor provides direct hardware support for programs written in the many high-level languages available. The hardware addressing modes provide straight forward implementations of based variables, arrays, arrays of structures and other high-level language data constructs. A powerful set of memory-to-memory string operations allow efficient character data manipulation. Finally, routines with critical performance requirements may be written in assembly language and linked with high-level code.

### 2.2.1. INSTRUCTION SET

The 80C186 Modular Core family instructions treat different types of operands uniformly. Nearly every instruction can operate on either byte or word data. Register, memory and immediate operands may be specified interchangeably in most instructions. The exception to this is immediate values must serve as source operands and not destination operands. Memory variables may be added to, subtracted from, shifted, compared, etc., without moving them in and out of registers. This saves instructions, registers and execution time in assembly language programs. In high-level languages, where most variables are memory-based, compilers can produce faster and shorter object programs.

The 80C186 Modular Core family instruction set can be viewed as existing on two levels. One is the assembly level and the other is the machine level. To the assembly language programmer, the 80C186 Modular Core family appears to have about 100 instructions. One MOV (data move) instruction, for example, transfers a byte or a word from a register, a memory location or an immediate value to either a register or a memory location. The 80C186

Modular Core family CPUs, however, recognize 28 different machine versions of the MOV instruction.

The two levels of instruction sets address two requirements: efficiency and simplicity. Approximately 300 forms of machine-level instructions make very efficient use of storage. For example, the machine instruction that increments a memory operand is three or four bytes long because the address of the operand must be encoded in the instruction. To increment a register, however, does not require as much information, so the instruction can be shorter. The 80C186 Core family has eight one byte machine-level instructions that increment different 16-bit registers.

The assembly level instructions simplify the programmer's view of the instruction set. The programmer writes one form of an INC (increment) instruction and the assembler examines the operand to determine which machine level instruction to generate. The following paragraphs provide a functional description of the assembly-level instructions.

### **2.2.1.1. DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS**

The instruction set contains 14 data transfer instructions. These instructions move single bytes and words between memory and registers. They also move single bytes and words between the AL or AX registers and I/O ports. Table 2.3 lists the four types of data transfer instructions and their functions.

Data transfer instructions are categorized as general purpose, input/output, address object and flag transfer. The stack manipulation instructions, used for transferring flag contents and instructions used for loading segment registers are also included in this group. Figure 2.11 shows the flag storage formats. The address object instructions manipulate the addresses of variables instead of the values of the variables.

### **2.2.1.2. ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS**

The arithmetic instructions (see Table 2.4) operate on four types of numbers:

- Unsigned binary
- Signed binary (integers)
- Unsigned packed decimal
- Unsigned unpacked decimal

Table 2.5 shows the interpretations of various bit patterns according to number type.



Binary numbers may be 8 or 16 bits long. Decimal numbers are stored in bytes, two digits per byte for packed decimal and one digit per byte for unpacked decimal. The processor assumes that the operands in arithmetic instructions contain data that represents valid numbers for that instruction. Invalid data may produce unpredictable results. The Execution Unit analyzes arithmetic instruction's results and adjusts status flags accordingly.

**Table 2.3. Data Transfer Instructions**

GENERAL PURPOSE	
MOV	Move byte or word
PUSH	Push word onto stack
POP	Pop word off stack
PUSHA	Push registers onto stack
POPA	Pop registers off stack
XCHG	Exchange byte or word
XLAT	Translate byte
INPUT/OUTPUT	
IN	Input byte or word
OUT	Output byte or word
ADDRESS OBJECT AND STACK FRAME	
LEA	Load effective address
LDS	Load pointer using DS
LES	Load pointer using ES
ENTER	Build stack frame
LEAVE	Tear down stack frame
FLAG TRANSFER	
LAHF	Load AH register from flags
SAHF	Store AH register in flags
PUSHF	Push flags onto stack
POPF	Pop flags off stack

**Table 2.4. Arithmetic Instructions**

ADDITION	
ADD	Add byte or word
ADC	Add byte or word with carry
INC	Increment byte or word by 1
AAA	ASCII adjust for addition
DAA	Decimal adjust for addition
SUBTRACTION	
SUB	Subtract byte or word
SBB	Subtract byte or word with borrow
DEC	Decrement byte or word by 1
NEG	Negate byte or word
CMP	Compare byte or word
AAS	ASCII adjust for subtraction
DAS	Decimal adjust for subtraction
MULTIPLICATION	
MUL	Multiply byte or word unsigned
IMUL	Integer multiply byte or word
AAM	ASCII adjust for multiplication
DIVISION	
DIV	Divide byte or word unsigned
IDIV	Integer divide byte or word
AAD	ASCII adjust for division
CBW	Convert byte to word
CWD	Convert word to doubleword

**Table 2.5. Arithmetic Interpretation of 8-Bit Numbers**

HEX	BIT PATTERN	UNSIGNED BINARY	SIGNED BINARY	UNPACKED DECIMAL	PACKED DECIMAL
07	0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1	7	+7	7	7
89	1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1	137	-119	invalid	89
C5	1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1	197	-59	invalid	invalid

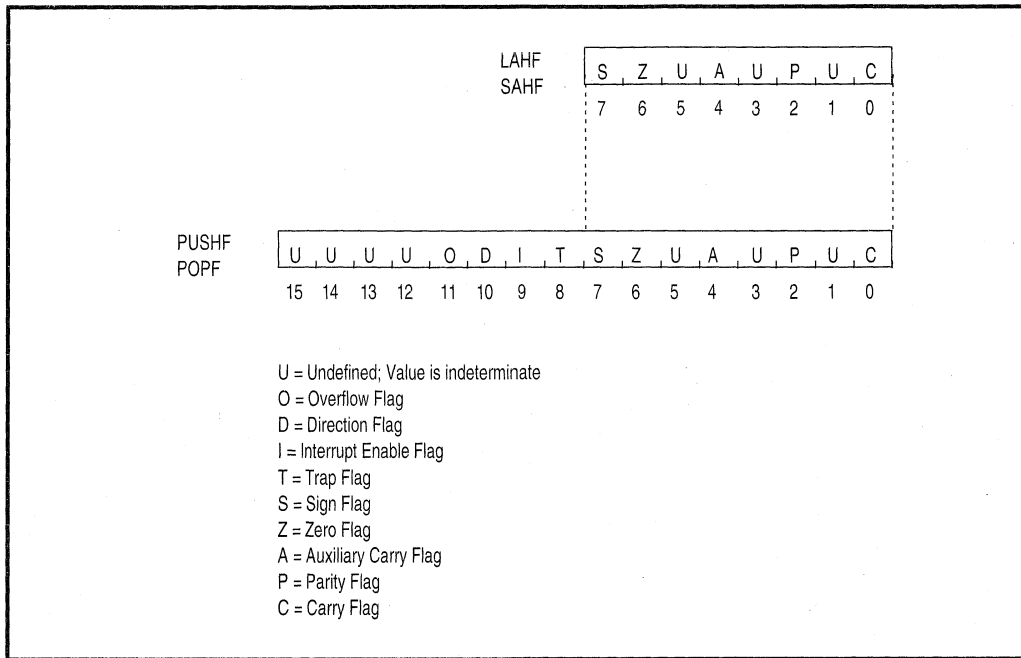


Figure 2.11. Flag Storage Format

### 2.2.1.3. BIT MANIPULATION INSTRUCTIONS

There are three groups of instructions for manipulating bits within bytes and words. These three groups are logical, shifts and rotates. Table 2.6 lists these three groups of bit manipulation instructions with their functions.

Logical instructions include the Boolean operators NOT, AND, OR and exclusive OR (XOR). Logical instructions also include a TEST instruction that sets the flags as a result of a Boolean AND operation, but does not alter either of its operands.

Individual bits in bytes and words can be shifted arithmetically or logically. Up to 32 shifts may be performed, according to the value of the count operand coded in the instruction. The count may be specified as an immediate value or as a variable in the CL register. This allows the shift count to be supplied at execution time. Arithmetic shifts can be used to multiply and divide binary numbers by powers of two. Logical shifts can be used to isolate bits in bytes or words.

Individual bits in bytes and words can also be rotated. The processor does not discard the bits rotated out of an operand. The bits circle back to the other end of the operand. The number of

bits to be rotated is taken from the count operand, which may specify either an immediate value or the CL register. The carry flag may act as an extension of the operand in two of the rotate instructions. This allows a bit to be isolated in the Carry Flag (CF) and then tested by a JC (jump if carry) or JNC (jump if not carry) instruction.

#### 2.2.1.4. STRING INSTRUCTIONS

Five basic string operations process strings of bytes or words, one element (byte or word) at a time. Strings of up to 64 Kbytes may be manipulated with these instructions. Instructions are available to move, compare or scan for a value, as well as move string elements to and from the accumulator. Table 2.7 lists the string instructions. These basic operations may be preceded by a one-byte prefix that causes the instruction to be repeated by the hardware, allowing long strings to be processed much faster than with a software loop. The repetitions can be terminated by a variety of conditions. Repeated operations may be interrupted and resumed.

String instructions operate similarly in many respects (see Table 2.8). A string instruction may have a source operand, a destination operand or both. The hardware assumes that a source string resides in the current data segment. A segment prefix may override this assumption. A destination string must be in the current extra segment. The assembler does not use the operand names to address strings. Instead, the contents of the Source Index (SI) register are used as an offset to address the current element of the source string. The contents of the Destination Index (DI) register are taken as the offset of the current destination string element. These registers must be initialized to point to the source/destination strings before executing the string instructions. The LDS, LES and LEA instructions are useful in performing this function.

String instructions automatically update the SI, DI or both registers prior to processing the next string element. The Direction Flag (DF) determines whether the index registers are auto-incremented (DF = 0) or auto-decremented (DF = 1). The processor adjusts the DI, SI or both registers by one for byte strings or two for word strings.

If a repeat prefix is used, the count register (CX) is decremented by one after each repetition of the string instruction. The CX register must be initialized to the number of repetitions before the string instruction is executed. If the CX register is 0, the string instruction is not executed and control goes to the following instruction.

**Table 2.6. Bit Manipulation Instructions**

LOGICALS	
NOT	"Not" byte or word
AND	"And" byte or word
OR	"Inclusive or" byte or word
XOR	"Exclusive or" byte or word
TEST	"Test" byte or word
SHIFTS	
SHL/SAL	Shift logical/arithmetic left byte or word
SHR	Shift logical right byte or word
SAR	Shift arithmetic right byte or word
ROTATES	
ROL	Rotate left byte or word
ROR	Rotate right byte or word
RCL	Rotate through carry left byte or word
RCR	Rotate through carry right byte or word

**Table 2.7. String Instructions**

REP	Repeat
REPE/ REPZ	Repeat while equal/zero
REPNE/ REPZ	Repeat while not equal/not zero
MOVSB/ MOVSW	Move byte or word string
MOVS	Move byte or word string
INS	Input byte or word string
OUTS	Output byte or word string
CMPS	Compare byte or word string
SCAS	Scan byte or word string
LODS	Load byte or word string
STOS	Store byte or word string

**Table 2.8. String Instruction Register and Flag Use**

SI	Index (offset) for source string
DI	Index (offset) for destination string
CX	Repetition counter
AL/AX	Scan value Destination for LODS Source for STOS
DF	0 = auto-increment SI, DI 1 = auto-decrement SI, DI
ZF	Scan/compare terminator

**Table 2.9. Program Transfer Instructions**

CONDITIONAL TRANSFERS	
JA/JNBE	Jump if above/not below nor equal
JAE/JNB	Jump if above or equal/not below
JB/JNAE	Jump if below/not above nor equal
JBE/JNA	Jump if below or equal/not above
JC	Jump if carry
JE/JZ	Jump if equal/zero
JG/JNLE	Jump if greater/not less nor equal
JGE/JNL	Jump if greater or equal/not less
JL/JNGE	Jump if less/not greater nor equal
JLE/JNG	Jump if less or equal/not greater
JNC	Jump if not carry
JNE/JNZ	Jump if not equal/not zero
JNO	Jump if not overflow
JNP/JPO	Jump if not parity/parity odd
JNS	Jump if not sign
JO	Jump if overflow
JP/JPE	Jump if parity/parity even
JS	Jump if sign
ITERATION CONTROL	
LOOP	Loop
LOOPE/LOOPZ	Loop if equal/zero
LOOPNE/LOOPNZ	Loop if not equal/not zero
JCXZ	Jump if register CX=0
INTERRUPTS	
INT	Interrupt
INTO	Interrupt if overflow
BOUND	Interrupt if out of array bounds
IRET	Interrupt return

### 2.2.1.5. PROGRAM TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS

The contents of the Code Segment (CS) and Instruction Pointer (IP) registers determine the instruction execution sequence in the 80C186 Modular Core family. The CS register contains the base address of the current code segment. The Instruction Pointer register points to the memory location of the next instruction to be fetched. In most operating conditions, the next instruction will already have been fetched and will be waiting in the CPU instruction queue. Program transfer instructions operate on the IP and CS registers. Changing the contents of these registers causes normal sequential operation to be altered. When a program transfer occurs, the queue no longer contains the correct instruction. The Bus Interface Unit obtains the next instruction from memory using the new IP and CS values. It then passes the instruction directly to the Execution Unit and begins refilling the queue from the new location.

The 80C186 Modular Core family offers four groups of program transfer instructions (see Table 2.9). These are unconditional transfers, conditional transfers, iteration control instructions and interrupt-related instructions.

Unconditional transfer instructions may transfer control to a target instruction within the current code segment (intra-segment transfer) or to a different code segment (inter-segment transfer). The assembler terms an intra-segment transfer `SHORT` or `NEAR` and an inter-segment transfer `FAR`. The transfer is made unconditionally when the instruction is executed. `CALL`, `RET` and `JMP` are all unconditional transfers. `CALL` is used to transfer the program to a procedure. A `CALL` can be `NEAR` or `FAR`. A `NEAR CALL` will stack only the Instruction Pointer, while a `FAR CALL` will stack the Instruction Pointer and the Code Segment register. The `RET` instruction uses the information pushed onto the stack to determine where to return when the procedure finishes. Note: the `RET` and `CALL` instructions must be the same type. This can be a problem when the `CALL` and `RET` instructions are in separately assembled programs. The `JMP` instruction does not push any information onto the stack. A `JMP` instruction may be `NEAR` or `FAR`.

Conditional transfer instructions are jumps that may or may not transfer control. This depends on the state of the CPU flags when the instruction is executed. These 18 instructions (see Table 2.10) each test a different combination of flags for a condition. If the condition is logically `TRUE`, control is transferred to the target specified in the instruction. If the condition is `FALSE`, control passes to the instruction following the conditional jump. All conditional jumps are `SHORT`. The target must be in the current code segment within -128 to +127 bytes of the next instruction's first byte. For example, `JMP 00H` causes a jump to the first byte of the next instruction. Jumps are made by adding the relative displacement of the target to the Instruction Pointer. All conditional jumps are self-relative and are appropriate for position-independent routines.

Table 2.10. Interpretation of Conditional Transfers

MNEMONIC	CONDITION TESTED	"JUMP IF ..."
JA/JNBE	(CF or ZF)=0	above/not below nor equal
JAE/JNB	CF=0	above or equal/not below
JB/JNAE	CF=1	below/not above nor equal
JBE/JNA	(CF or ZF)=1	below or equal/not above
JC	CF=1	carry
JE/JZ	ZF=1	equal/zero
JG/JNLE	((SF xor OF) or ZF)=0	greater/not less nor equal
JGE/JNL	(SF xor OF)=0	greater or equal/not less
JL/JNGE	(SF xor OF)=1	less/not greater nor equal
JLE/JNG	((SF xor OF) or ZF)=1	less or equal/not greater
JNC	CF=0	not carry
JNE/JNZ	ZF=0	not equal/not zero
JNO	OF=0	not overflow
JNP/JPO	PF=0	not parity/parity odd
JNS	SF=0	not sign
JO	OF=1	overflow
JP/JPE	PF=1	parity/parity equal
JS	SF=1	sign

**Note:** "above" and "below" refer to the relationship of two unsigned values; "greater" and "less" refer to the relationship of two signed values.

Iteration control instructions can be used to regulate the repetition of software loops. These instructions use the CX register as a counter. Like the conditional transfers, the iteration control instructions are self-relative and may only transfer to targets that are within -128 to +127 bytes of themselves. They are SHORT transfers.

The interrupt instructions allow interrupt service routines to be activated by programs and external hardware devices. The effect of software interrupts is similar to hardware-initiated interrupts. The processor cannot execute an interrupt acknowledge bus cycle if the interrupt originates in software or with an NMI (Non-Maskable Interrupt).

### 2.2.1.6. PROCESSOR CONTROL INSTRUCTIONS

Processor control instructions (see Table 2.11) allow programs to control various CPU functions. One group of instructions updates flags and another group is used primarily for synchronizing the microprocessor to external events. Another instruction causes the CPU to do nothing. Except for flag operations, processor control instructions do not affect the flags.

**Table 2.11. Processor Control Instructions**

FLAG OPERATIONS	
STC	Set Carry flag
CLC	Clear Carry flag
CMC	Complement Carry flag
STD	Set Direction flag
CLD	Clear Direction flag
STI	Set Interrupt Enable flag
CLI	Clear Interrupt Enable flag
EXTERNAL SYNCHRONIZATION	
HLT	Halt until interrupt or reset
WAIT	Wait for TEST# pin active
ESC	Escape to external processor
LOCK	Lock bus during next instruction
NO OPERATION	
NOP	No operation

## 2.2.2. ADDRESSING MODES

The 80C186 Modular Core family members access instruction operands in several ways. Operands may be contained in registers, the instruction itself, memory or at I/O ports. Addresses of memory and I/O port operands can be calculated in many ways. These addressing modes greatly extend the flexibility and convenience of the instruction set. The following paragraphs briefly describe register and immediate modes of operand addressing. A detailed description of the memory and I/O addressing modes is also provided.

### 2.2.2.1. REGISTER AND IMMEDIATE OPERAND ADDRESSING MODES

Usually, the fastest, most compact operand addressing forms specify only register operands. This is because the register operand addresses are encoded in instructions in just a few bits and no bus cycles are run (the operation occurs within the CPU). Registers may serve as source operands, destination operands or both.

Immediate operands are constant data contained in an instruction. Immediate data may be either 8 or 16 bits in length. Immediate operands are available directly from the instruction queue and can be accessed quickly. Like the register operand, no bus cycles need to be run to get an immediate operand. Immediate operands can only be source operands and must have a constant value.

### 2.2.2.2. MEMORY ADDRESSING MODES

Although the Execution Unit has direct access to register and immediate operands, memory operands must be transferred to and from the CPU over the bus. When the Execution Unit

needs to read or write a memory operand, it must pass an offset value to the Bus Interface Unit. The Bus Interface Unit adds the offset to the shifted contents of a segment register producing a 20-bit physical address. One or more bus cycles are then run to access the operand.

The offset that the Execution Unit calculates for memory operand is called the operand's effective address (EA). This address is an unsigned 16-bit number that expresses the operand's distance, in bytes, from the beginning of the segment where it resides. The Execution Unit can calculate the effective address in several ways. Information encoded in the second byte of the instruction tells the Execution Unit how to calculate the effective address of each memory operand. A compiler or assembler derives this information from the instruction written by the programmer. Assembly language programmers have access to all addressing modes.

The Execution Unit calculates the Effective Address by summing a displacement, the contents of a base register and the contents of an index register (see Figure 2.12). Any combination of these may be present in a given instruction. This allows a variety of memory addressing modes.

The displacement is an 8- or 16-bit number contained in the instruction. The displacement generally is derived from the position of the operand's name (a variable or label) in the program. The programmer can modify this value or explicitly specify the displacement.

The BX or BP register may be specified as the base register for an effective address calculation.

Similarly, either the SI or DI register may be specified as the index register. The displacement value is a constant. The contents of the base and index registers may change during execution. This allows one instruction to access different memory locations depending upon the current values in the base or base and index registers. The default base register for effective address calculations with the BP register is SS, although DS or ES may be specified.

Direct addressing is the simplest memory addressing mode (see Figure 2.13). No registers are involved and the effective address is taken directly from the displacement of the instruction. The programmer typically uses direct addressing to access scalar variables.

With register indirect addressing, the effective address of a memory operand may be taken directly from one of the base or index registers (see Figure 2.14). One instruction can operate on various memory locations if the base or index register is updated accordingly. Any 16-bit general register may be used for register indirect addressing with the JMP or CALL instructions.

In based addressing (see Figure 2.15), the effective address is the sum of a displacement value and the contents of the BX or BP register. Specifying the BP register as a base register directs the Bus Interface Unit to obtain the operand from the current stack segment (unless a segment override prefix is present). This makes based addressing with the BP register a convenient way to access stack data.



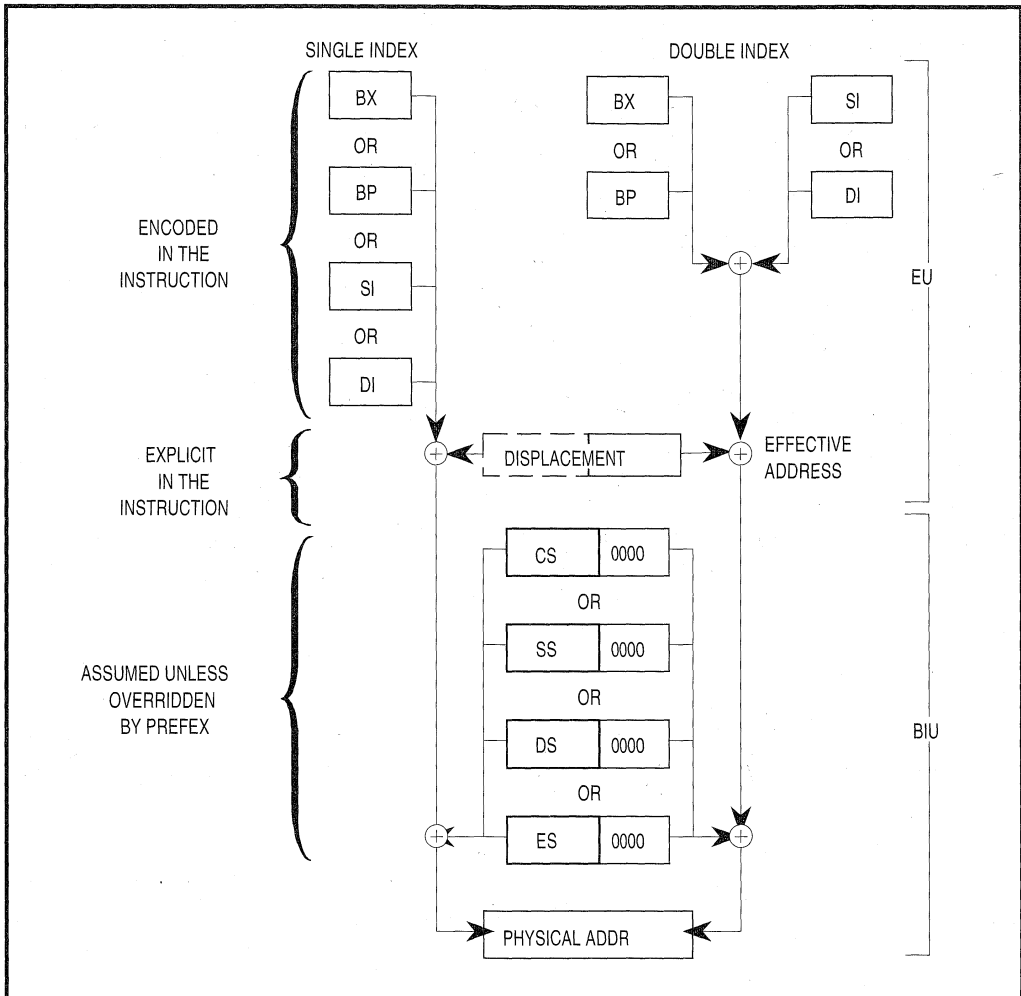


Figure 2.12. Memory Address Computation

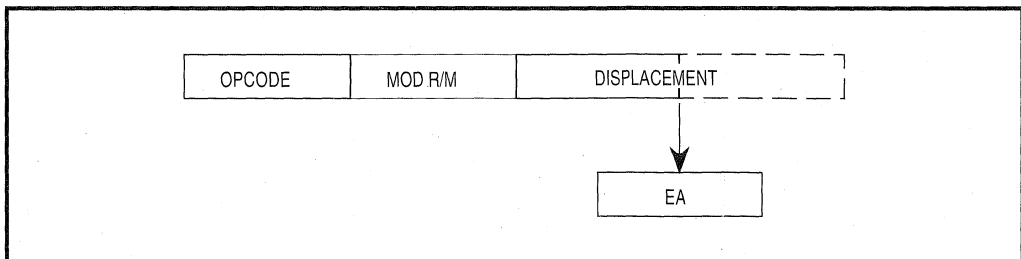


Figure 2.13. Direct Addressing

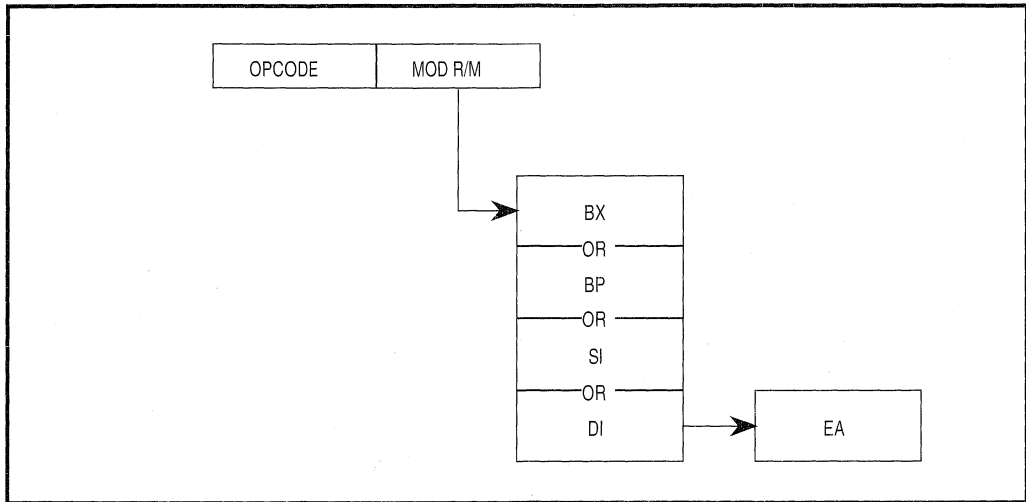


Figure 2.14. Register Indirect Addressing

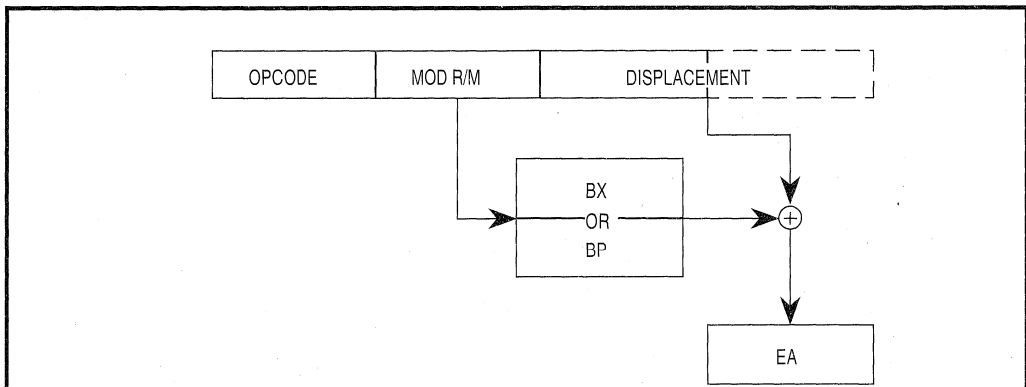
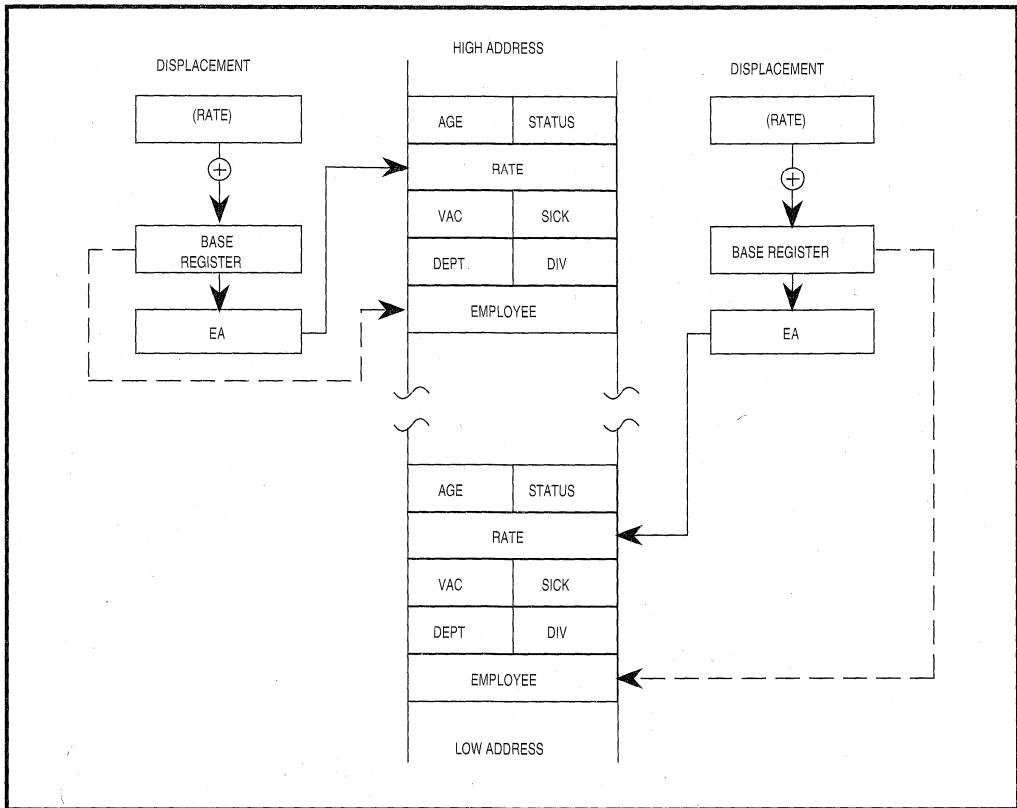


Figure 2.15. Based Addressing

Based addressing provides a simple way to address data structures which may be located in different places in memory (see Figure 2.16). A base register can be pointed at the structure. Elements of the structure can then be addressed by their displacement. Different copies of the same structure can be accessed by simply changing the base register.



**Figure 2.16. Accessing a Structure with Based Addressing**

With indexed addressing, the effective address is calculated by summing a displacement and the contents of an index register (SI or DI, see Figure 2.17). Indexed addressing is often used to access elements in an array (see Figure 2.18). The displacement locates the beginning of the array and the value of the index register selects one element. If the index register contains 0000H, the processor selects the first element. Since all array elements are the same length, simple arithmetic on the register may select any element.

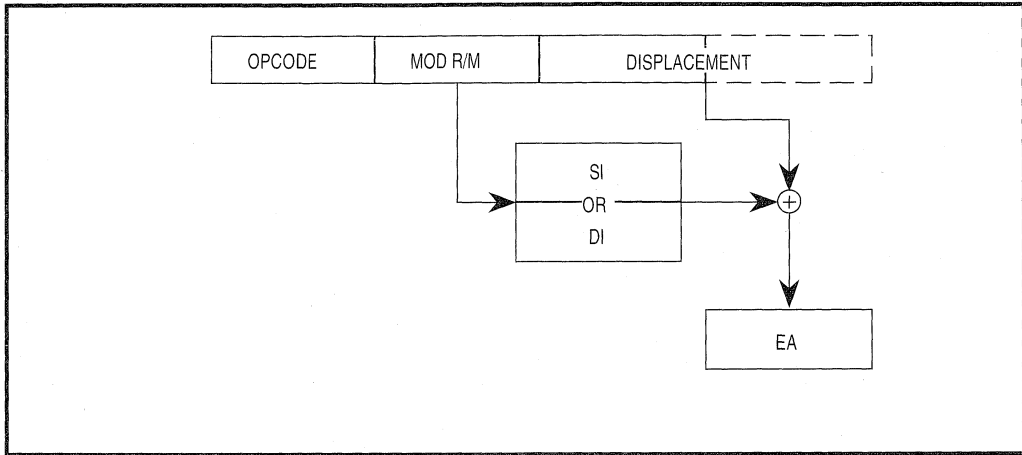


Figure 2.17. Indexed Addressing

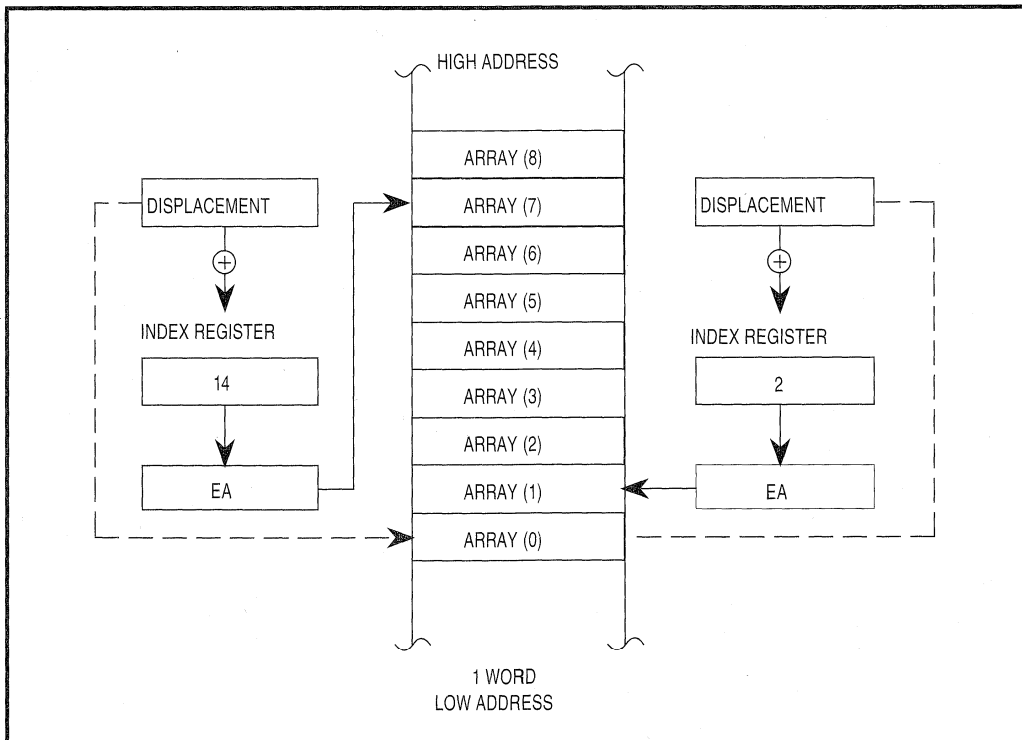
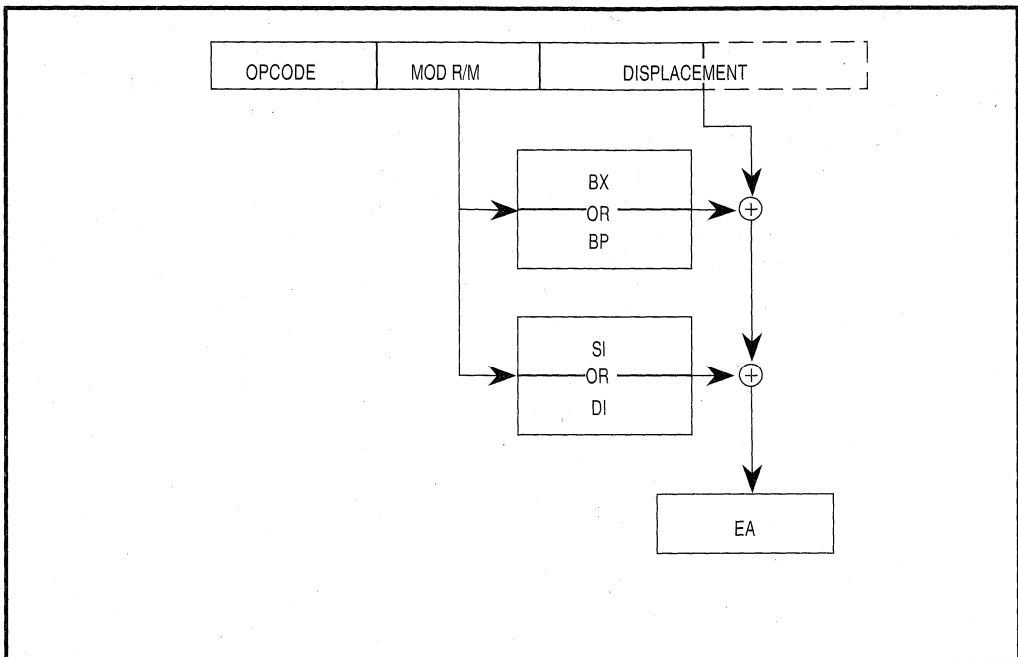


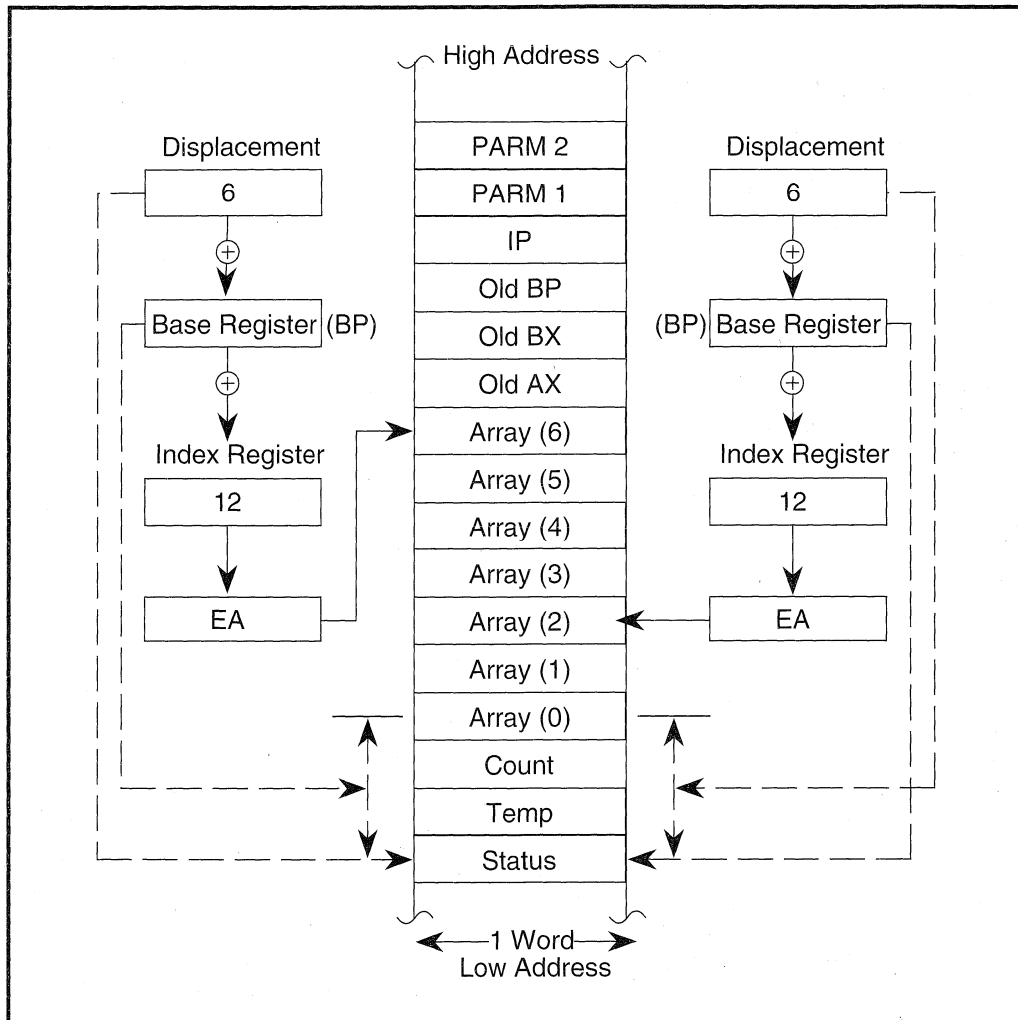
Figure 2.18. Accessing an Array with Indexed Addressing

Based index addressing generates an effective address which is the sum of a base register, an index register and a displacement (see Figure 2.19). The two address components can be determined at execution time, making this a very flexible addressing mode.



**Figure 2.19. Based Index Addressing**

Based index addressing provides a convenient way for a procedure to address an array located on a stack (see Figure 2.20). The BP register can contain the offset of a reference point on the stack. This is typically the top of the stack after the procedure has saved registers and allocated local storage. The offset of the beginning of the array from the reference point can be expressed by a displacement value. The index register can be used to access individual array elements. Arrays contained in structures and matrices (two-dimensional arrays) can also be accessed with based indexed addressing.



**Figure 2.20. Accessing a Stacked Array with Based Index Addressing**

String instructions do not use normal memory addressing modes to access operands. Instead, the index registers are used implicitly (see Figure 2.21). When a string instruction executes, the SI register must point to the first byte or word of the source string. The DI register must point to the first byte or word of the destination string. In a repeated string operation, the CPU will automatically adjust the SI and DI registers to obtain subsequent bytes or words. For string instructions, the DS register is the default segment register for the SI register and the ES register is the default segment register for the DI register. This allows string instructions to operate on data located anywhere within the one megabyte address space.

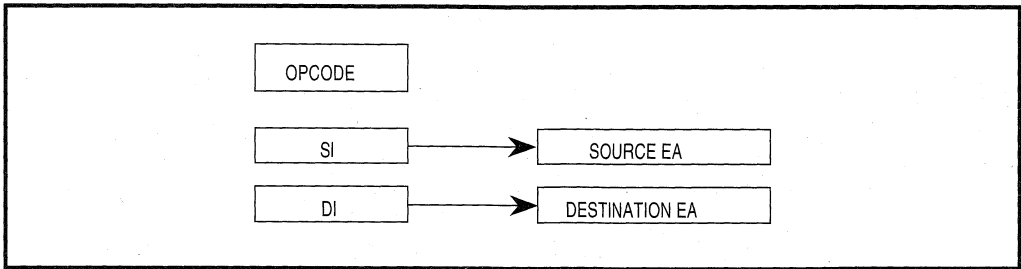


Figure 2.21. String Operand

2.2.2.3. I/O PORT ADDRESSING

Any memory operand addressing modes may be used to access an I/O port if the port is memory-mapped. String instructions can also be used to transfer data to memory-mapped ports with an appropriate hardware interface.

Two addressing modes can be used to access ports located in the I/O space (see Figure 2.22). The port number is an 8-bit immediate operand for direct addressing. This allows fixed access to ports numbered 0 to 255. Indirect I/O port addressing is similar to register indirect addressing of memory operands. The DX register contains the port number which can range from 0 to 65,535. By adjusting the contents of the DX register, one instruction can access any port in the I/O space. A group of adjacent ports can be accessed using a simple software loop that adjusts the value of the DX register.

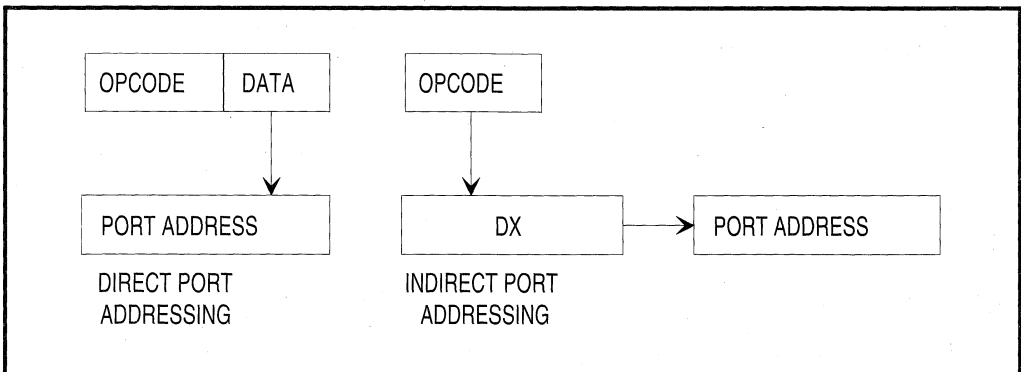


Figure 2.22. I/O Port Addressing

#### 2.2.2.4. DATA TYPES USED IN THE 80C186 MODULAR CORE FAMILY

The 80C186 Modular Core family supports the following data types:

- Integer - A signed 8- or 16-bit binary numeric value. All operations assume a 2's complement representation. Signed 32- and 64-bit integers are directly supported with the addition of an 80C187 Numerics Processor Extension to an 80C186 Modular Core system. The 80C188 Modular Core does not support the 80C187.
- Ordinal - An unsigned 8- or 16-bit binary numeric value.
- Pointer - A 16- or 32-bit quantity, composed of a 16-bit offset component or a 16-bit segment base component in addition to a 16-bit offset component.
- String - A contiguous sequence of bytes or words. A string may contain from one to 64 Kbytes.
- ASCII - A byte representation of alphanumeric and control characters using the ASCII standard.
- BCD - A byte (unpacked) representation of the decimal digits 0-9.
- Packed BCD - A byte (packed) representation of two decimal digits (0-9). One digit is stored in each nibble (4 bits) of the byte.
- Floating Point - A signed 32-, 64- or 80-bit real number representation. The 80C187 Numerics Processor Extension, when added to an 80C186 Modular Core system, directly supports floating point operands. The 80C188 Modular Core does not support the 80C187.

In general, individual data elements must fit within defined segment limits. Figure 2.23 graphically represents the data types supported by the 80C186 Modular Core family.



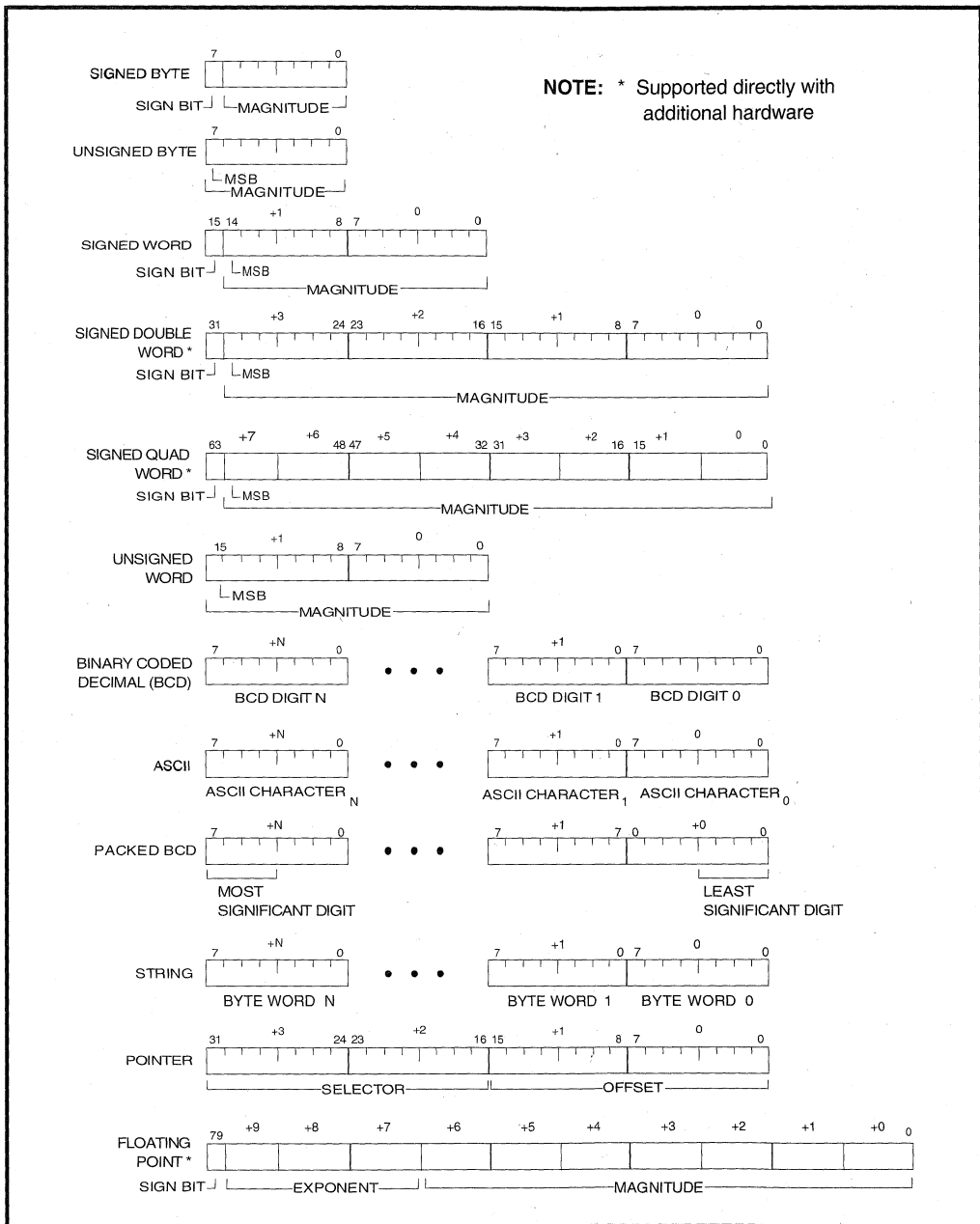


Figure 2.23. 80C186 Modular Core Family Supported Data Types

### 2.3. INTERRUPTS AND EXCEPTION HANDLING

Interrupts and exceptions alter the program execution in response to an external event or an error condition. An interrupt handles asynchronous external events, for example an NMI. Exceptions result directly from the execution of an instruction, usually an instruction fault. The user can cause a software interrupt by executing an “INT n” instruction. The CPU processes software interrupts the same as exceptions.

The 80C186 Modular Core responds to interrupts and exceptions in the same way for all devices within the 80C186 Modular Core family. However, devices within the family may have different Interrupt Control Units. The Interrupt Control Unit handles all external interrupt sources and presents them to the 80C186 Modular Core via one maskable interrupt request. See Figure 2.24. This section covers only areas of interrupts and exceptions common to the 80C186 Modular Core Architecture. The Interrupt Control Unit is proliferation dependent and is covered in another section.

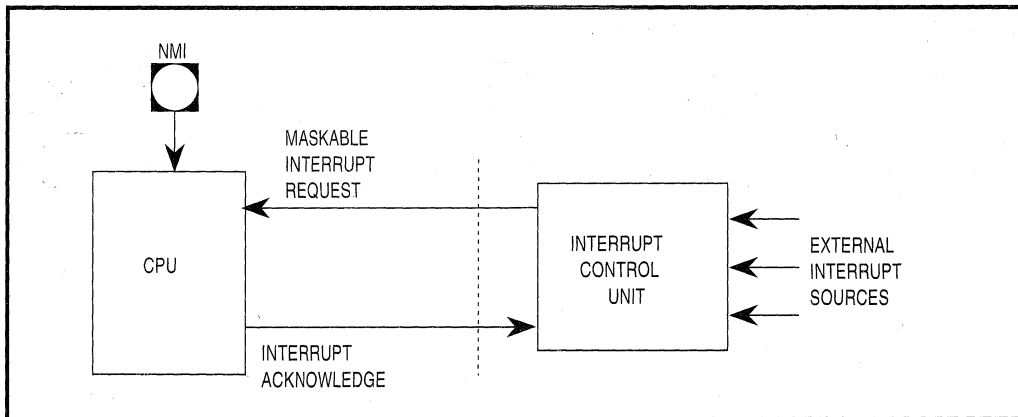
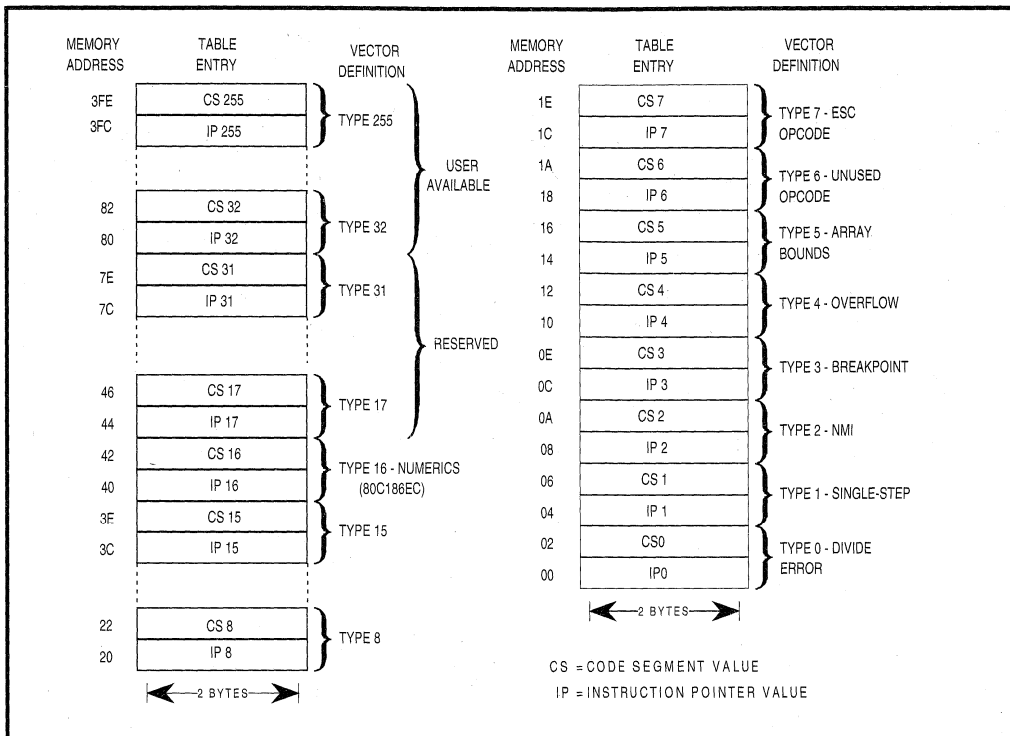


Figure 2.24. Interrupt Control Unit

#### 2.3.1. INTERRUPT/EXCEPTION PROCESSING

The 80C186 Modular Core can service up to 256 different interrupts/exceptions. A 256 entry Interrupt Vector Table contains the pointers to interrupt service routines. Each interrupt/exception is given a type number, 0 through 255 corresponding to its position in the Interrupt Vector Table. See Figure 2.25. Each entry is 4 bytes long. An entry contains the Code Segment (CS) and Instruction Pointer (IP) of the first instruction in the interrupt service routine.

Interrupt types 0-31 are reserved for Intel and should not be used by an application program.



**Figure 2.25. Interrupt Vector Table**

When an interrupt is acknowledged, a common sequence of events occur allowing the processor to execute the interrupt service routine (See Figure 2.26).

1. The processor saves a partial machine status by pushing the Program Status Word onto the stack.
2. The Trap Flag bit and Interrupt Enable bit are then cleared in the Program Status Word. This prevents maskable interrupts or single step exceptions from interrupting the processor during the interrupt service routine.
3. The current CS and IP are pushed onto the stack.
4. The CPU fetches the new CS and IP for the interrupt vector routine from the Interrupt Vector Table and begins executing from that point.

The CPU is now executing the interrupt service routine. The programmer must save (usually by pushing onto the stack) all registers used in the interrupt service routine or their contents will be lost. To allow nesting of maskable interrupts, the programmer must set the Interrupt Enable bit in the Program Status Word.

When exiting an interrupt service routine, the programmer must restore (usually by popping off the stack) the saved registers and execute an IRET instruction. An IRET instruction:

1. Loads the return CS and IP by popping them off the stack.
2. Pops and restores the old Program Status Word from the stack.

The CPU now executes from where it was before the interrupt/exception occurred.

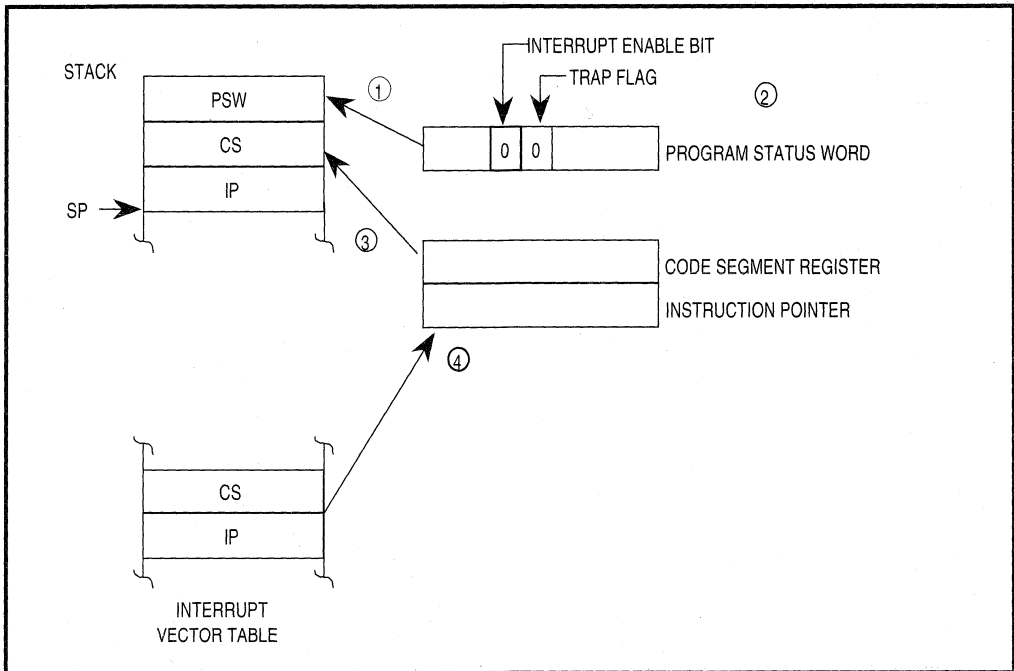


Figure 2.26. Interrupt Sequence

### 2.3.1.1. NON-MASKABLE INTERRUPTS

The Non-Maskable Interrupt (NMI) is the highest priority interrupt. It is usually reserved for a catastrophic event such as impending power failure. An NMI cannot be prevented (or masked) by software. When the NMI input is asserted, the interrupt processing sequence begins after execution of the current instruction completes (see Section 2.3.4 on interrupt latency). The CPU automatically generates a type 2 interrupt vector.

The NMI input is asynchronous. Setup and hold times are given only to guarantee recognition on a specific clock edge. To be recognized, NMI must be asserted for at least one CLKOUT period and meet the correct setup and hold times. NMI is edge-triggered and level-latched.

Multiple NMI requests cause multiple NMI service routines to be executed. NMI can be nested in this manner an infinite number of times.

### **2.3.1.2. MASKABLE INTERRUPTS**

Maskable interrupts are the most common way to service external hardware interrupts. Software can globally enable or disable maskable interrupts. This is done by setting or clearing the Interrupt Enable bit in the Program Status Word.

The Interrupt Control Unit processes the multiple sources of maskable interrupts and presents them to the core via a single maskable interrupt input. The Interrupt Control Unit provides the interrupt vector type to the 80C186 Modular Core. The Interrupt Control Unit differs among members of the 80C186 Modular Core family and is described in a different section.

### **2.3.1.3. EXCEPTIONS**

Exceptions occur when an unusual condition prevents further instruction processing until the exception is corrected. The CPU handles software interrupts and exceptions in the same way. The interrupt type for an exception is either predefined or supplied by the instruction.

Exceptions are classified as either faults or traps. This depends on when they are detected and if the instruction which caused the exception can be restarted. Faults are detected and serviced before the faulting instruction can be executed. The return address pushed onto the stack in the interrupt processing instruction points to the beginning of the faulting instruction. This way, the instruction can be restarted. A trap is detected and serviced immediately after the instruction which caused the trap. The return address pushed onto the stack during the interrupt processing points to the instruction following the trapping instruction.

#### **Divide Error - Type 0:**

A divide error trap is invoked when the quotient of an attempted division exceeds the maximum value of the destination. A divide-by-zero is a common example.

#### **Single Step - Type 1:**

The single step trap occurs after the CPU executes one instruction with the Trap Flag (TF) bit set in the Program Status Word. This allows programs to execute one instruction at a time. Interrupts will not be generated after prefix instructions (e.g. REP), instructions which modify segment registers (e.g. POP DS) or the WAIT instruction. Vectoring to the single-step interrupt service routine clears the Trap Flag bit. An IRET instruction in the interrupt service routine restores the Trap Flag bit to logic "1" and transfers control to the next instruction to be single-stepped.

**Breakpoint Interrupt - Type 3:**

This is a single byte version of the INT instruction. The breakpoint interrupt is commonly used by software debuggers to set breakpoints in RAM. Because the instruction is only one byte long, it can substitute for any instruction.

**Interrupt on Overflow - Type 4:**

The Interrupt on Overflow trap occurs if the Overflow Flag (OF) bit is set in the Program Status Word and the INTO instruction is executed. Interrupt on Overflow is a common way to conditionally handle arithmetic overflows.

**Array Bounds Check - Type 5:**

If the array index is outside the array bounds during execution of the BOUND instruction (see *80C186 Instruction Set Additions and Extensions*), an array bounds trap occurs.

**Invalid Opcode - Type 6:**

Execution of an undefined opcode causes an Invalid Opcode trap.

**Escape Opcode - Type 7:**

The Escape Opcode fault is used for floating point emulation. With 80C186 Modular Core family members, the escape opcode fault is enabled by setting the Escape Trap (ET) bit in the Relocation Register (see *Peripheral Control Block*). When a floating point instruction is executed with the Escape Trap bit set, the Escape Opcode Fault exception occurs. The Escape Opcode service routine then emulates the floating point instruction. If the Escape Trap bit is cleared, the CPU sends the floating point instruction to an external 80C187.

80C188 Modular Core Family members do not support the 80C187 interface and always generate the Escape Opcode Fault.

**Numerics Coprocessor Fault - Type 16:**

The Numerics Coprocessor Fault is caused by an external 80C187 numerics coprocessor. The 80C187 reports the exception by asserting the  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  pin. The 80C186 Modular Core only checks the  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  pin when executing a numerics instruction. A Numerics Coprocessor Fault indicates that the **previous** numerics instruction caused the exception. The 80C187 saves the address of the floating point instruction that caused the exception. The return address pushed onto the stack during the interrupt processing points to the numerics instruction which detected the exception. This way, the last numerics instruction can be restarted.

### 2.3.2. SOFTWARE INTERRUPTS

A Software Interrupt is caused by executing an “INT n” instruction. The parameter n corresponds to the specific interrupt type to be executed. The interrupt type can be any number between 0 and 255. If the parameter n corresponds to an interrupt type associated with a hardware interrupt (NMI, Timers), the vectors will be fetched and the routine executed, but the corresponding bits in the Interrupt Status register **will not be altered**.

The CPU processes software interrupts and exceptions in the same way. Software interrupts, exceptions and traps cannot be masked.

### 2.3.3. INTERRUPT LATENCY

Interrupt latency is the amount of time it takes for the CPU to recognize the existence of an interrupt. The CPU generally only recognizes interrupts between instructions or on instruction boundaries. Therefore, the current instruction must finish executing before an interrupt can be recognized.

The worst case 80C186 instruction execution time is an integer divide instruction with segment override prefix. The instruction takes 69 clocks, assuming an 80C186 Modular Core family member and a zero wait state external bus. The execution time for an 80C188 Modular Core family member may be longer depending on the queue.

Execution time is one factor in determining interrupt latency. In addition, the following are also factors in determining maximum latency:

1. The Interrupt Enable bit must be set for the CPU to recognize the Maskable Interrupt.
2. The CPU will not recognize interrupts during HOLD.
3. Once communication is completely established with an 80C187, the CPU will not recognize interrupts until the numerics instruction is finished.

The CPU can only recognize interrupts on valid instruction boundaries. A valid instruction boundary usually occurs when the current instruction finishes. The following is a list of exceptions:

1. MOVs and POPs referencing a segment register will delay servicing of interrupts until after the following instruction. The delay allows a 32-bit load to the SS and SP without an interrupt occurring between the two loads.
2. The CPU allows interrupts between repeated string instructions. If multiple prefixes precede a string instruction and the instruction is interrupted, only the one prefix preceding the string primitive is restored.
3. The CPU can be interrupted during a WAIT instruction. The CPU will return to the WAIT instruction.

### 2.3.4. INTERRUPT RESPONSE

Interrupt response time is the time from the CPU recognizing an interrupt until the first instruction in the service routine is executed.

Interrupt response time is less for interrupts or exceptions which supply their own vector type. The maskable interrupt has a longer response time because the vector type must be supplied by the Interrupt Control Unit. The response time for the maskable interrupt is covered in the Interrupt Control Unit section.

Figure 2.27 shows the sequence of events which dictate interrupt response time for the interrupts which supply their type. Note that an on-chip bus master, such as the DRAM Refresh Unit, can make use of idle bus cycles. This can increase interrupt response time.

	Clocks
	IDLE
	5
	READ IP
	4
	IDLE
	5
	READ CS
	4
	IDLE
	4
	PUSH FLAGS
	4
	IDLE
	3
	PUSH CS
	4
	PUSH IP
	4
	IDLE
	5
FIRST INSTRUCTION	
FETCH FROM INTERRUPT	----->
ROUTINE	-----
	<b>Total 42</b>

**Figure 2.27. Interrupt Response Factors**

### 2.3.5. INTERRUPT AND EXCEPTION PRIORITY

Interrupts can only be recognized on valid instruction boundaries. If an NMI and a maskable interrupt are both recognized on the same instruction boundary, NMI has precedence. The maskable interrupt will not be recognized until the Interrupt Enable bit is set and it is the highest priority.



Only the single step exception can occur concurrently with another exception. At most, two exceptions can occur at the same instruction boundary and one of the exceptions must be the single step. Single step is a special case which will be discussed later. By ignoring single step (for now), only one exception can occur at any given instruction boundary.

An exception has priority over both NMI and the maskable interrupt. However, a pending NMI can interrupt the CPU at any valid instruction boundary. Therefore, NMI can interrupt an exception service routine. If an exception and NMI occur simultaneously, the exception vector will be taken, followed immediately by the NMI vector. See Figure 2.28. While the exception has higher priority at the instruction boundary, the NMI interrupt service routine is executed first.

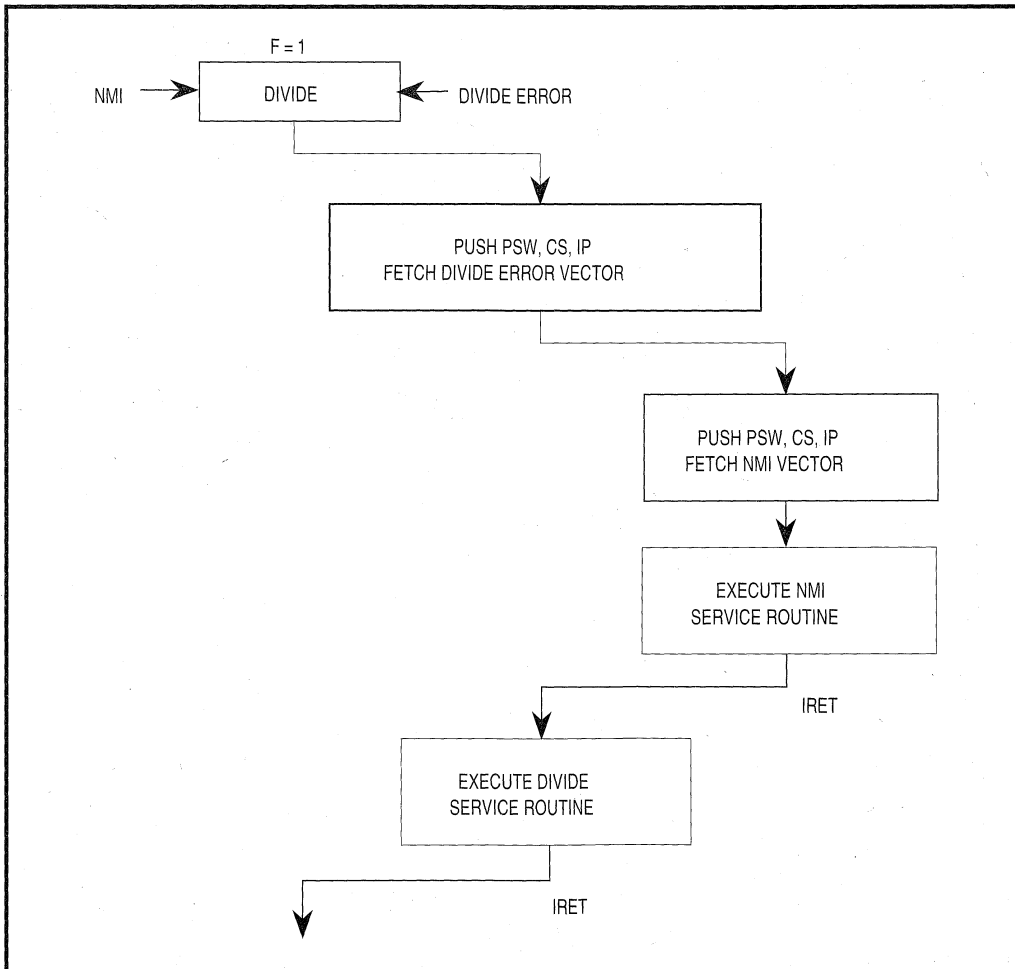


Figure 2.28. Simultaneous NMI and Exception

Single step priority is a special case. If an interrupt (NMI or maskable) occurs at the same instruction boundary as a single step, the interrupt vector is taken first, followed immediately by the single step vector. The single step service routine is executed before the interrupt service routine. See Figure 2.29. If the single step service routine re-enables Single Step by setting the Trap Flag bit before executing the IRET, the interrupt service routine will also be single stepped. This can severely limit the real-time response of the CPU to an interrupt.

To prevent the single step routine from executing before a maskable interrupt, disable interrupts while single stepping an instruction. Then enable interrupts in the single step service routine. The maskable interrupt is serviced from within the single step service routine and that interrupt service routine is not single-stepped. To prevent single stepping before an NMI, the single step service routine must compare the return address on the stack to the NMI vector. If they are the same, return to the NMI service routine immediately without executing the single step service routine.

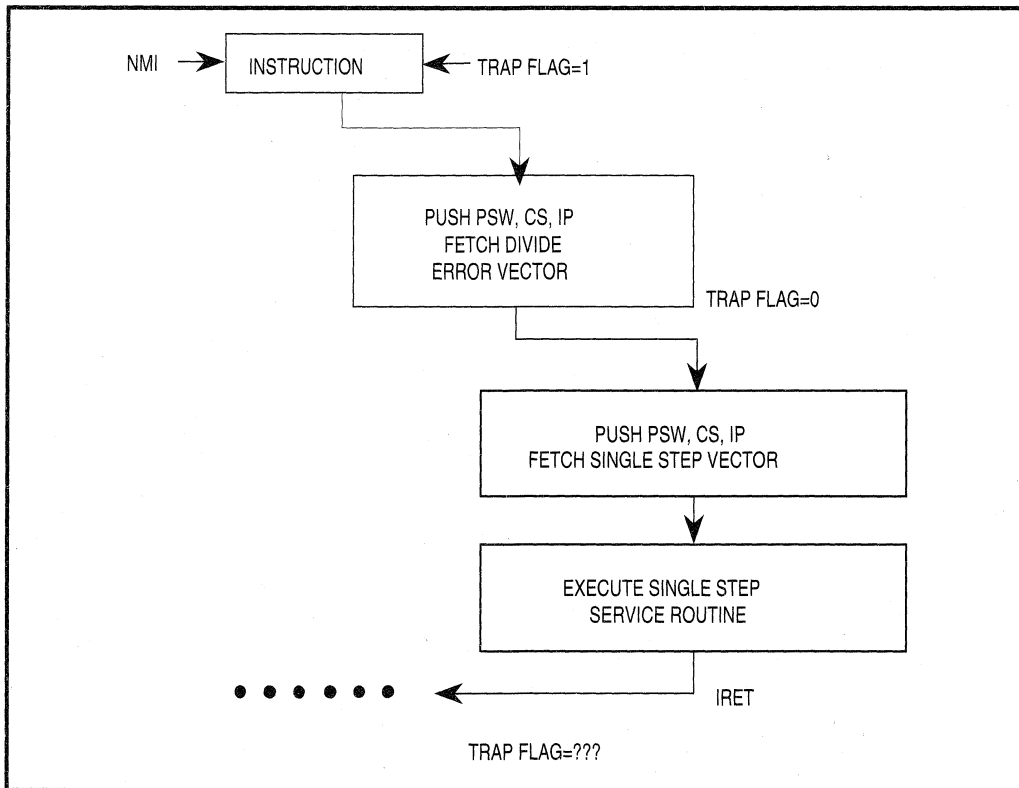


Figure 2.29. Simultaneous NMI and Single Step Interrupts

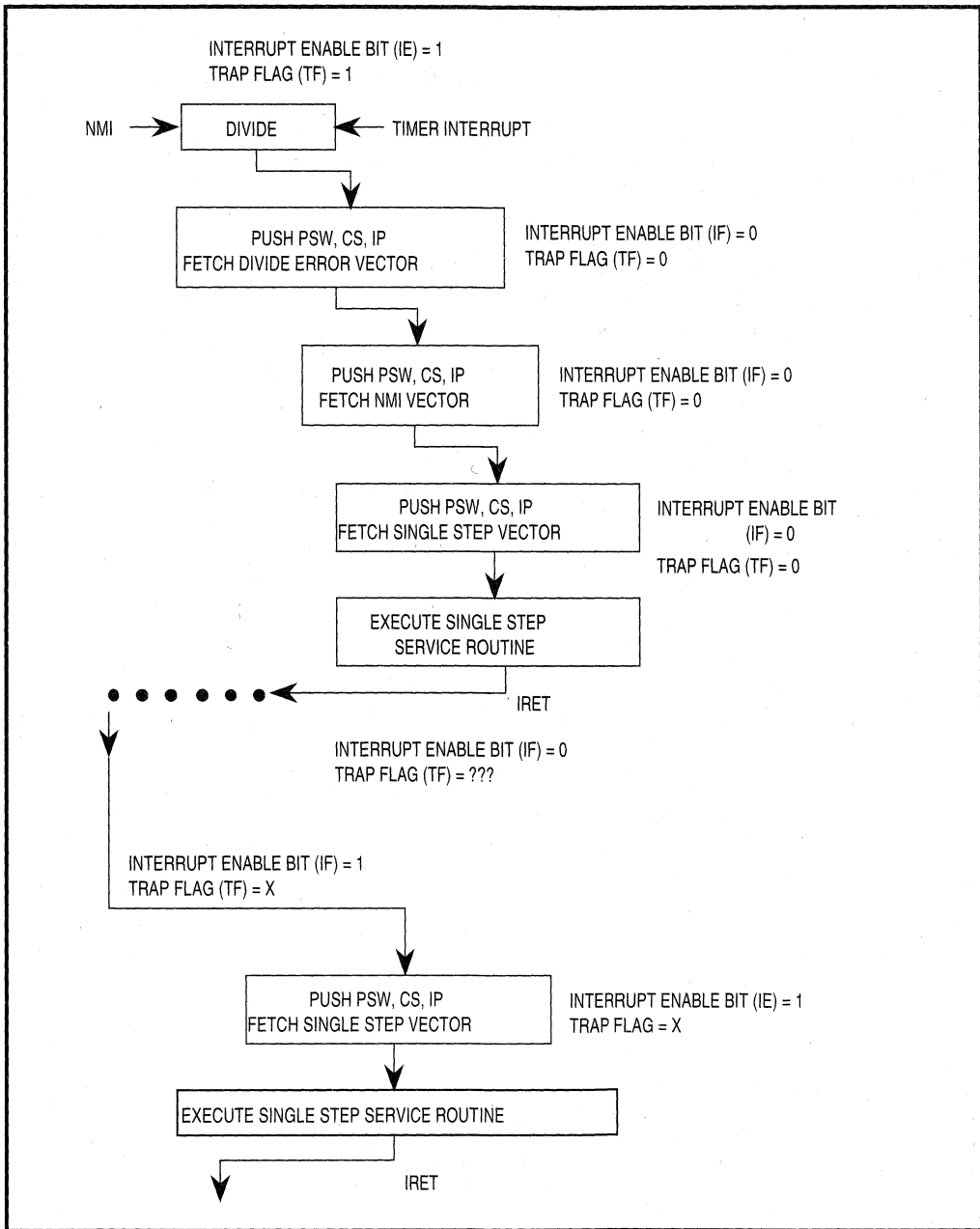


Figure 2.30. Simultaneous NMI, Single Step and Maskable Interrupt

The most complicated case is when an NMI, maskable interrupt, single step and another exception are pending on the same instruction boundary. Figure 2.30 shows how this case is prioritized by the CPU. Note: if the single step routine sets the Trap Flag bit before executing the IRET instruction, the NMI routine will also be single stepped.

---

*Bus Interface Unit*

**3**

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## **CHAPTER 3 BUS INTERFACE UNIT**

The Bus Interface Unit, abbreviated BIU, generates bus cycles that prefetch instructions from memory, pass data to and from the execution unit, and pass data to and from the integrated peripheral units.

The BIU drives address, data, status and control information to define a bus cycle. The start of a bus cycle presents the address of a memory or I/O location and status information defining the type of bus cycle. Read or write control signals follow address and define the direction of data flow. A read cycle requires data to flow from the selected memory or I/O device to the BIU. In a write cycle, the data flows from the BIU to the selected memory or I/O device. Upon termination of the bus cycle, the BIU latches read data or removes write data.

### **3.1. MULTIPLEXED ADDRESS AND DATA BUS**

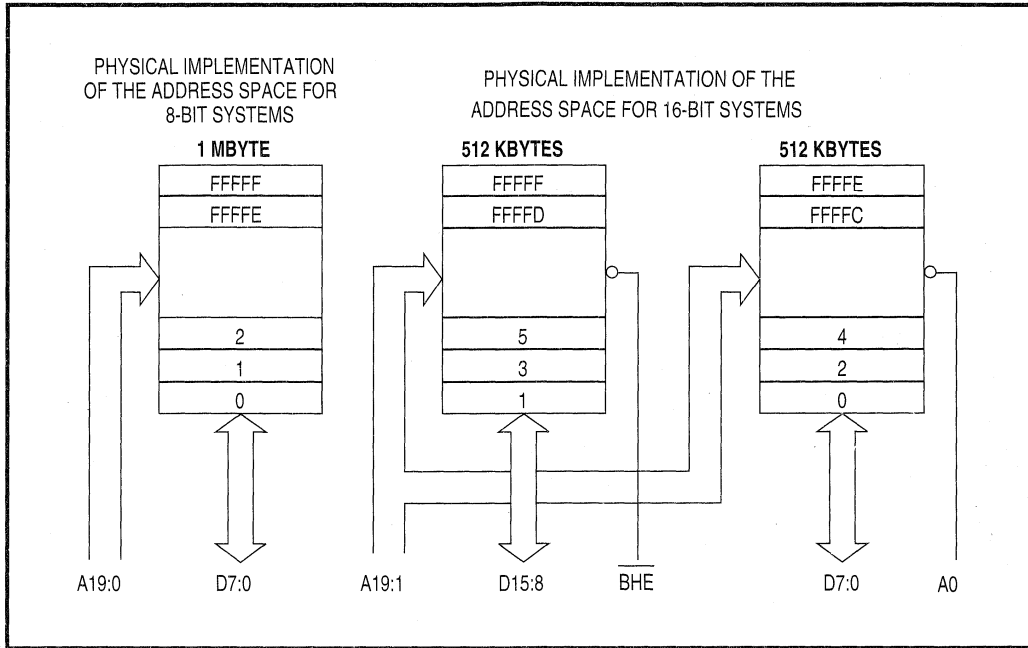
The BIU has a combined address and data bus, commonly referred to as a time multiplexed bus. Time multiplexing address and data information makes the most efficient use of device package pins. A system with address latching provided within the memory and I/O devices can directly connect to the address/data bus (or local bus). The local bus can be demultiplexed with a single set of address latches to provide non-multiplexed address and data information to the system.

### **3.2. ADDRESS AND DATA BUS CONCEPTS**

The programmer views the memory or I/O address space as a sequence of bytes. Memory space consists of 1 Mbytes, while I/O space consists of 64 Kbytes. Any byte may contain an eight bit data element, and any two consecutive bytes may contain a sixteen bit data element (identified as a word). The discussions in this section apply to both memory and I/O bus cycles. For brevity, memory bus cycles are used for examples and illustration.

#### **3.2.1. 16-BIT DATA BUS**

The memory address space on a 16-bit data bus is physically implemented by dividing the address space into two banks of up to 512 Kbytes (see Figure 3.1). One bank connects to the lower half of the data bus and contains even addressed bytes ( $A0=0$ ). The other bank connects to the upper half of the data bus and contains odd addressed bytes ( $A0=1$ ). Address lines A19-A1 select a specific byte within each bank. A0 and Byte High Enable (BHE) determine whether one bank or both banks participate in the data transfer.



**Figure 3.1. Physical Data Bus Models**

Byte transfers to even addresses transfer information over the lower half of the data bus (see Figure 3.2). A0 low enables the lower bank while  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  high disables the upper bank. The data value from the upper bank is ignored during a bus read cycle.  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  high prevents a write operation from destroying data in the upper bank.

Byte transfers to odd addresses transfer information over the upper half of the data bus (see Figure 3.2).  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  low enables the upper bank while A0 high disables the lower bank. The data value from the lower bank is ignored during a bus read cycle. A0 high prevents a write operation from destroying data in the lower bank.

To access even addressed 16-bit words (two consecutive bytes with the least significant byte at an even address), information is transferred over both halves of the data bus (see Figure 3.3). A19-A1 select the appropriate byte within each bank. A0 and  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  drive low to enable both banks simultaneously.

Odd addressed word accesses require the BIU to split the transfer into two byte operations (see Figure 3.4). The first operation transfers data over the upper half of the bus, while the second operation transfers data over the lower half of the bus. The BIU automatically executes the two byte sequence whenever an odd addressed word access is performed.



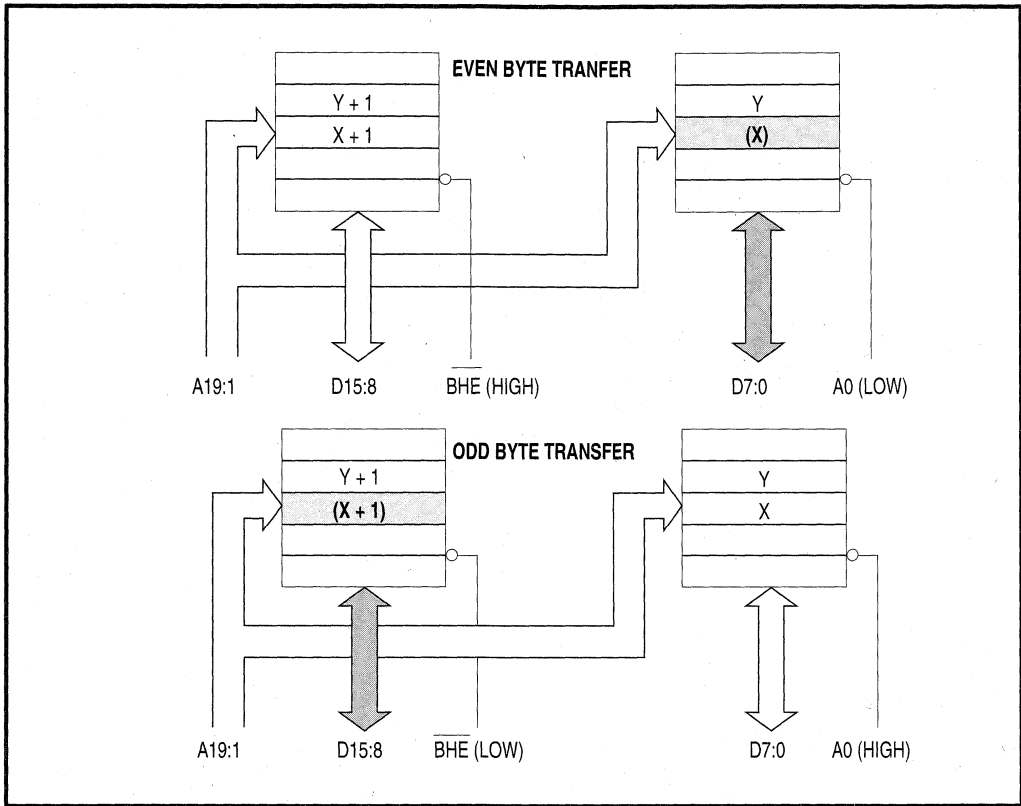


Figure 3.2. 16-Bit Data Bus Byte Transfers

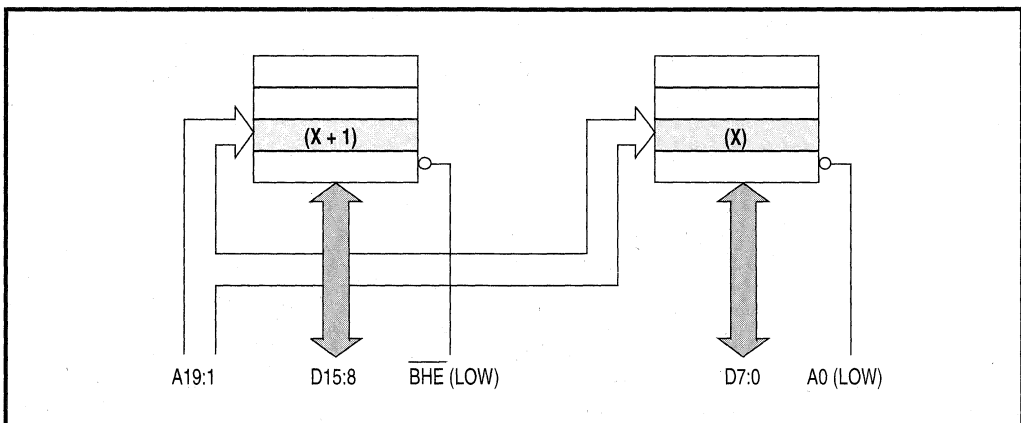


Figure 3.3. 16-Bit Data Bus Even Word Transfers

During a byte read operation the BIU floats the entire 16-bit data bus even though the transfer occurs on only one half of the bus. This action simplifies the decoding requirements for read only devices (e.g., ROM, EPROM, FLASH). During the byte read, **both halves** of the bus can be driven and the BIU automatically accesses the correct half. The BIU drives both halves of the bus during a byte write operation. Information of the half of the bus not involved in the transfer is indeterminate. This action requires that the appropriate bank (defined by  $\overline{BHE}$  or A0 high) be disabled to prevent destroying data.

### 3.2.2. 8-BIT DATA BUS

The memory address space on an 8-bit data bus is physically implemented as one bank of 1 Mbytes (see Figure 3.1). Address lines A19-A0 select a specific byte within the bank. Unlike a 16-bit bus, byte and word transfers (to even or odd addresses) all transfer data over the same 8-bit bus.

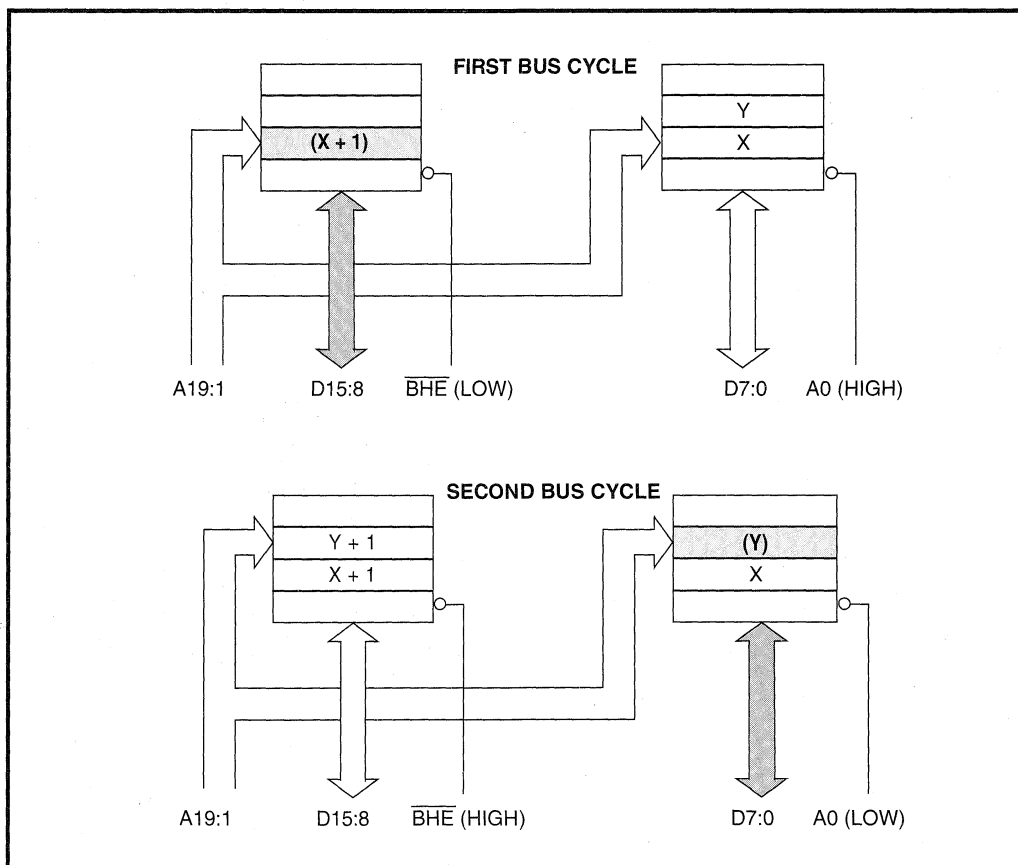


Figure 3.4. 16-Bit Data Bus Odd Word Transfers

Byte transfers to even or odd addresses transfer information in one bus cycle. Word transfers to even or odd addresses transfer information in two bus cycles. The BIU automatically converts the word access into two consecutive byte accesses, making the operation transparent to the programmer.

For word transfers, the word address defines the first byte transferred. The second byte transfer occurs from the word address plus one. Figure 3.5 illustrates a word transfer on an 8-bit bus interface.

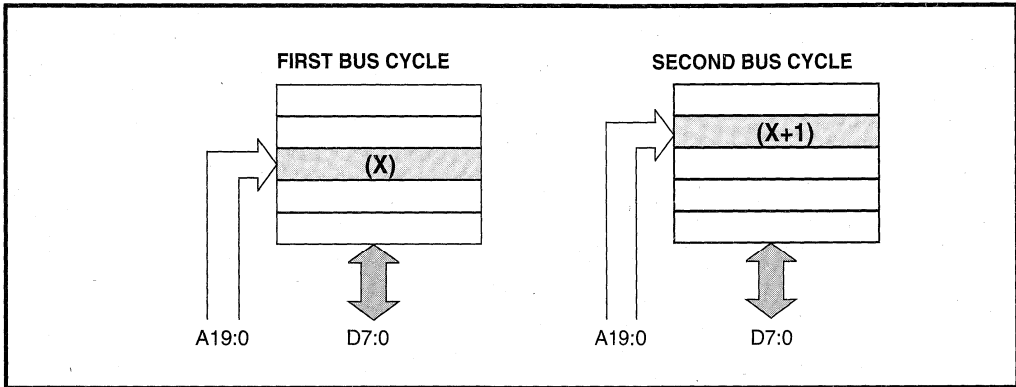


Figure 3.5. 8-Bit Data Bus Word Transfers

### 3.3. MEMORY AND I/O INTERFACES

The CPU can interface with 8- and 16-bit memory and I/O devices. Memory devices exchange information with the CPU during memory read, memory write and instruction fetch bus cycles. I/O (peripheral) devices exchange information with the CPU during memory read, memory write, I/O read, I/O write and interrupt acknowledge bus cycles. Memory mapped I/O refers to peripheral devices that exchanged information during memory cycles. Memory mapped I/O allows the full power of the instruction set to be use when communicating with peripheral devices.

I/O read and I/O write bus cycles use a separate I/O address space. Only IN and OUT instructions can access I/O address space, and information must be transferred between the peripheral device and the AX register. The first 256 bytes (0-255) of I/O space can be accessed directly by the I/O instructions. The entire 64 Kbyte I/O address space can only be accessed indirectly through the DX register. I/O instructions always force address bits A19-A16 to zero.

Interrupt acknowledge, or INTA bus cycles access an I/O device intended to increase interrupt input capability. Valid address information is not generated as part of the INTA bus cycle, and data are transferred only over the lower bank (16-bit device).

### 3.3.1. 16-BIT BUS MEMORY AND I/O REQUIREMENTS

A 16-bit bus has certain assumptions that must be met to operate properly. Memory used to store instruction operands (i.e., the program) and immediate data must be 16-bits wide. Instruction prefetch bus cycles require that **both banks** be used. The lower bank contains the even bytes of code and the upper bank contains the odd bytes of code.

Memory used to store interrupt vectors and stack data must be 16-bits wide. Memory address space between 0H and 1FFH (1 Kbyte) hold the starting location of an interrupt routine. In response to an interrupt, the BIU fetches two consecutive, even addressed words from this 1 Kbyte address space. Stack pushes and pops always write or read even addressed word data.

### 3.3.2. 8-BIT BUS MEMORY AND I/O REQUIREMENTS

An 8-bit bus interface has no restrictions on implementing the memory or I/O interfaces. All transfers, bytes and words, occur over the single 8-bit bus. Operations requiring word transfers automatically execute two consecutive byte transfers.

## 3.4. BUS CYCLE OPERATION

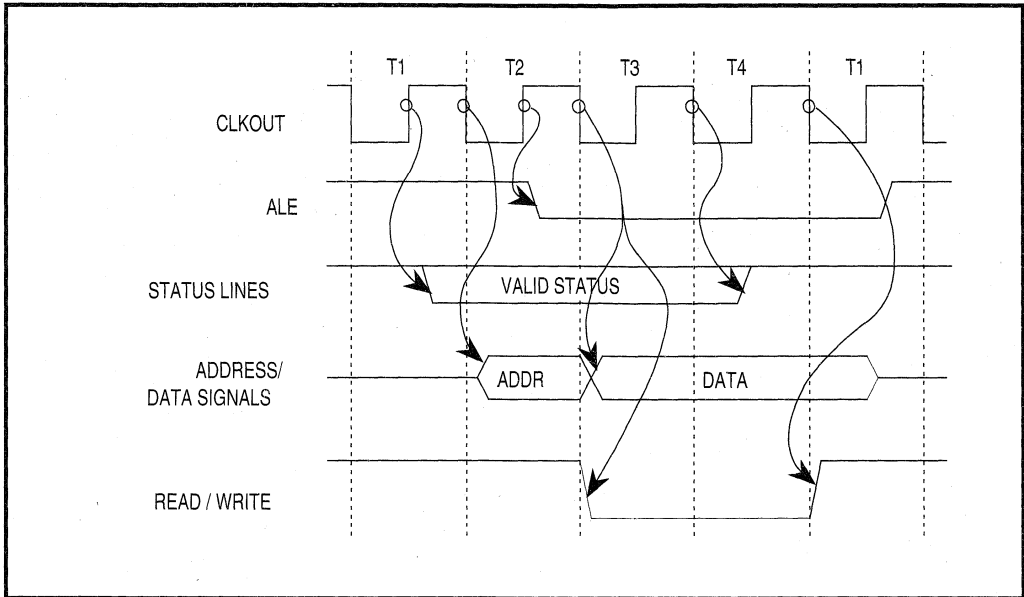
The BIU executes a bus cycle to transfer data to or from any of the integrated units and external memory or I/O devices (see Figure 3.6). A bus cycle consists of a minimum of four CPU clocks known as “T-States.” A T-state is bounded by one falling edge of CLKOUT to the next falling edge of CLKOUT (see Figure 3.7). Phase 1 represents the low time of the T-state and starts at the high-to-low transition of CLKOUT. Phase 2 represent the high time of the T-state and starts at the low-to-high transition of CLKOUT. Address, data and control signals generated by the BIU go active and inactive at different phases within a T-state.

Figure 3.8 shows the BIU state diagram. Typically a bus cycle consists of four consecutive T-states labeled T1, T2, T3 and T4. A TI (idle) state occurs when no bus cycle is pending. Multiple T3 states occur to generate wait states. The symbol TW represents a wait state.

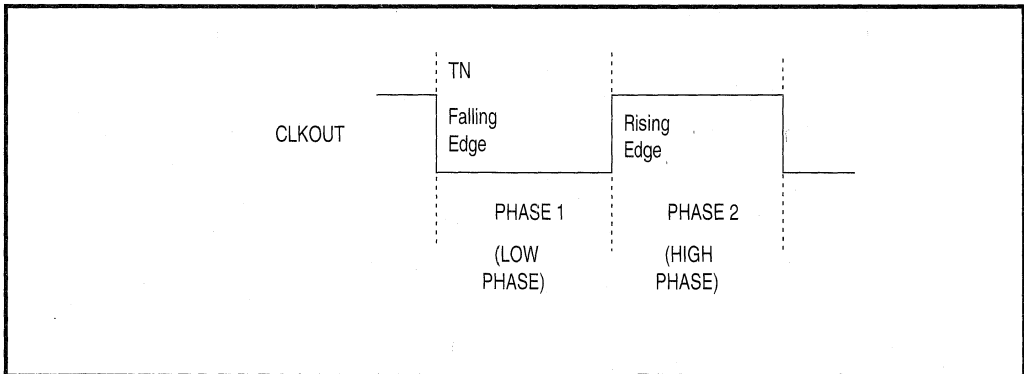
The operation of a bus cycle can be broken up into two phases:

- Address/Status Phase
- Data Transfer Phase

The address/status phase starts just prior to T1 and continues through T1. The data transfer phase starts at T2 and continues through T4. Figure 3.9 illustrates the T-state relationship of the two phases.



**Figure 3.6. Typical Bus Cycle**



**Figure 3.7. T-State Relation to CLKOUT**

### 3.4.1. ADDRESS/STATUS PHASE

Figure 3.10 shows signal timing relationships for the address/status phase of a bus cycle. A bus cycle begins with the transition of the ALE and S2:0. These signals transition during phase 2 of the T-state just prior to T1. Referring back to Figure 3.8, T4 or T1 precede T1 depending on the operation of the previous bus cycle.

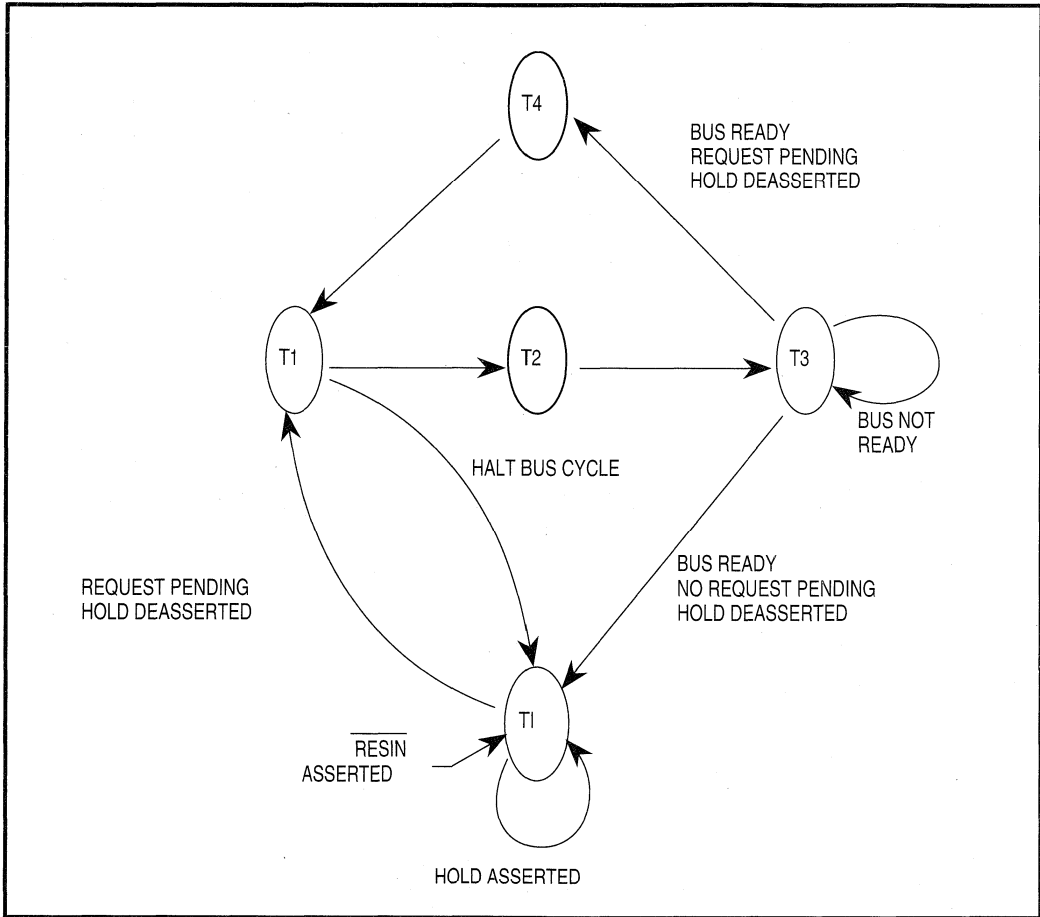


Figure 3.8. BIU State Diagram

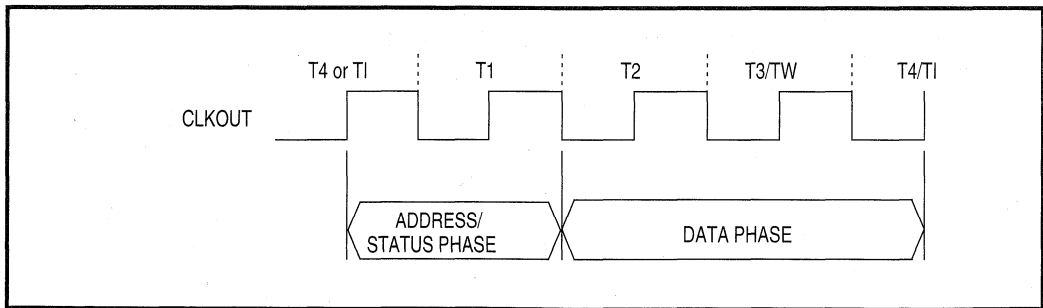
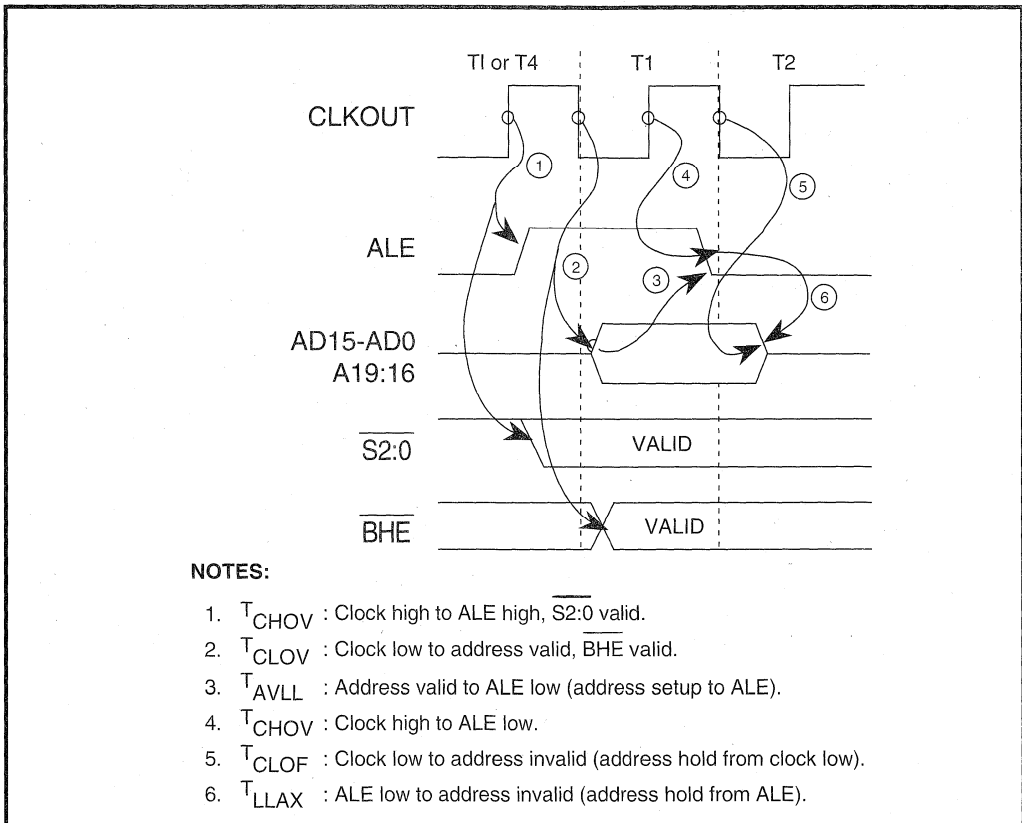


Figure 3.9. T-State and Bus Phases



**Figure 3.10. Address/Status Signal Relationships**

ALE provides a strobe to latch physical address information. Address is presented on the multiplexed address/data bus during T1 (see Figure 3.10). The falling edge of ALE occurs during the middle of T1 and provides a strobe to latch address. Figure 3.11 presents a typical circuit for latching addresses.

The status signals  $\overline{S2:0}$  define the type of bus cycle. Table 3.1 lists the possible bus cycle types.  $\overline{S2:0}$  remain valid until phase 1 of T3 (or the last TW when wait states occur). The circuit shown in Figure 3.11 can also be used to extend  $\overline{S2:0}$  beyond the T3 (or TW) state.

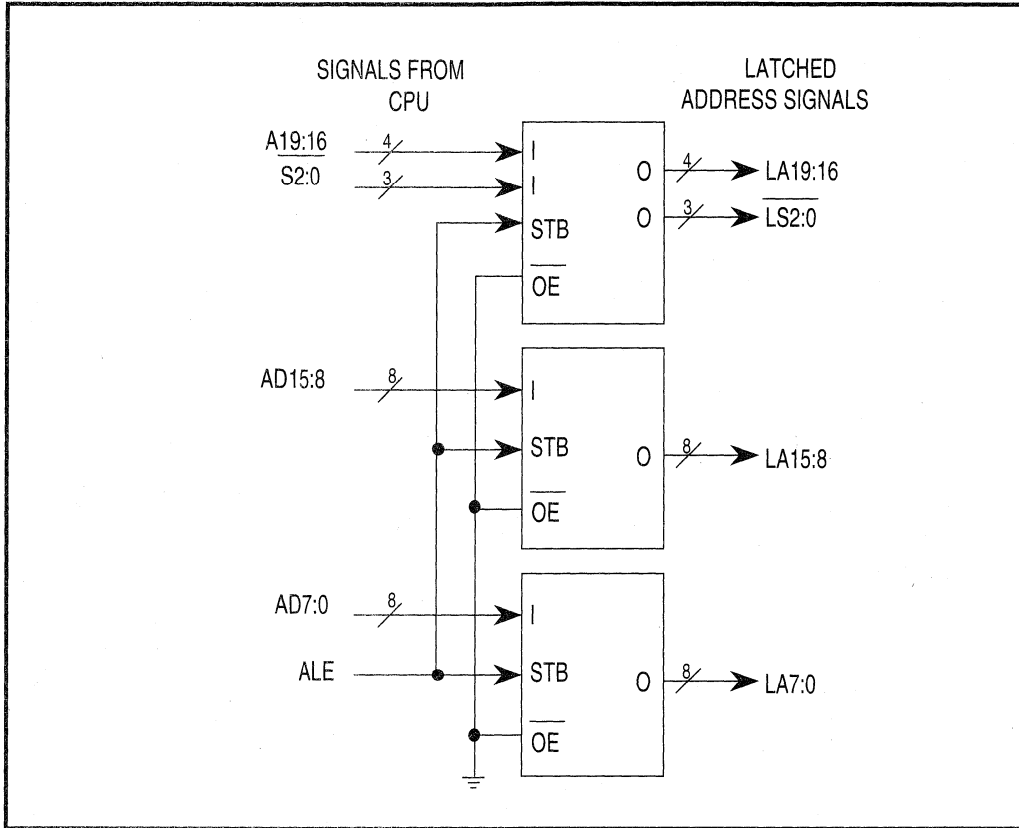
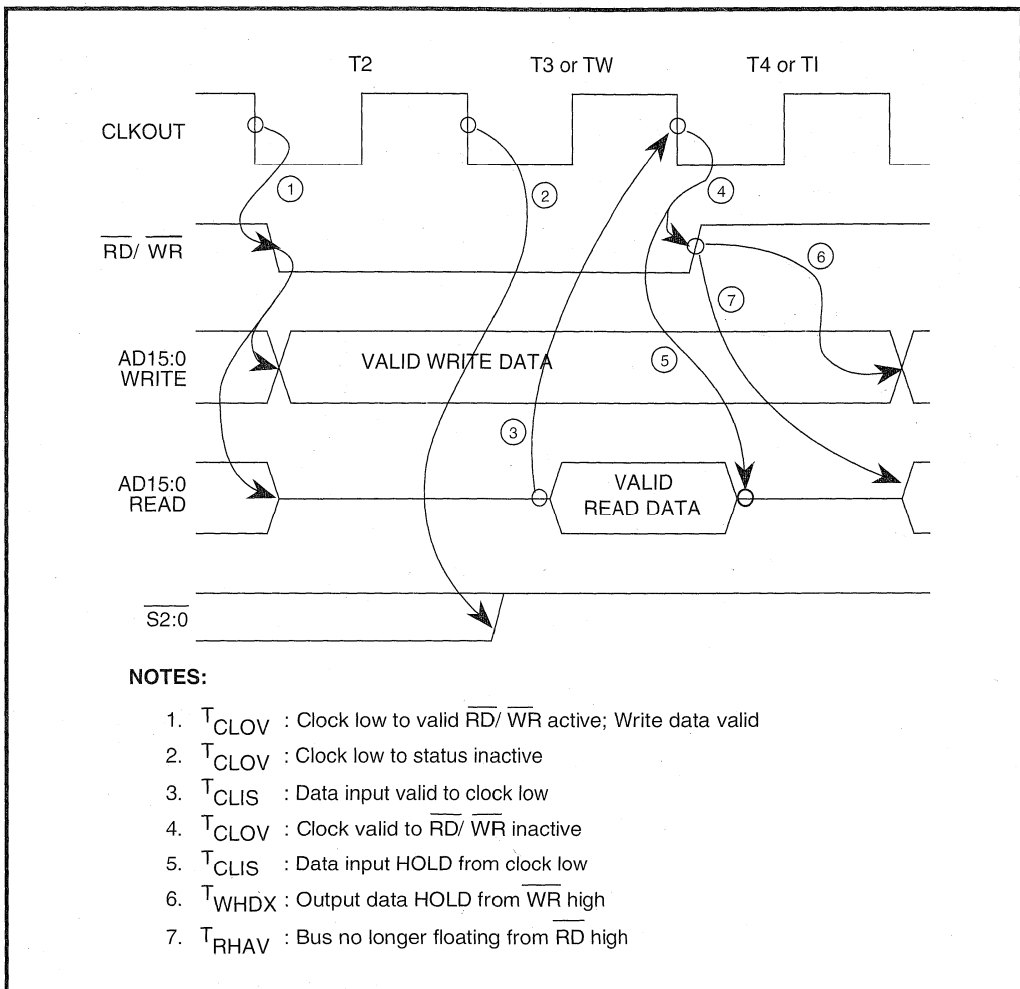


Figure 3.11. Demultiplexing Address Information

Table 3.1. Bus Cycle Types

STATUS BIT			OPERATION
S2	S1	S0	
0	0	0	Interrupt Acknowledge
0	0	1	I/O Read
0	1	0	I/O Write
0	1	1	Halt
1	0	0	Instruction Prefetch
1	0	1	Memory Read
1	1	0	Memory Write
1	1	1	Idle (passive)





**Figure 3.12. Data Transfer Signal Relationships**

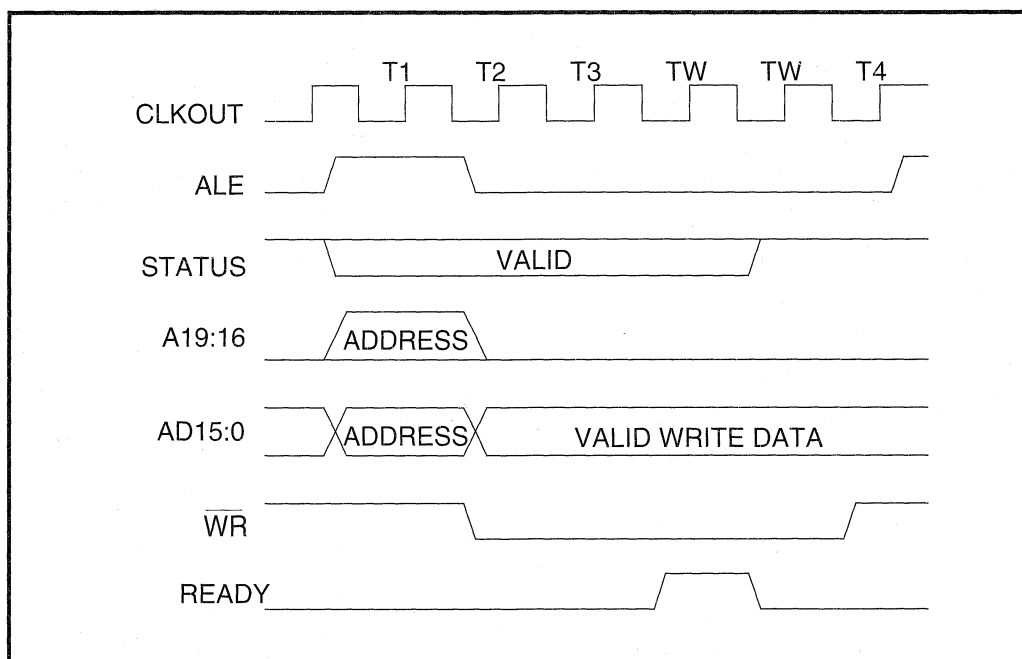
### 3.4.2. DATA PHASE

Figure 3.12 shows the timing relationships for the data phase of a bus cycle. The only bus cycle type that does not have a data phase is a bus halt. During the data phase the bus transfers information between the internal units and the memory or peripheral device selected during the address/status phase. Appropriate control signals become active to coordinate the transfer of data.

The data phase begins at phase 1 of T2 and continues until phase 2 of T4 or T1. The length of the data phase varies depending on the number of wait states. Wait states occur after T3 and before T4 or T1.

### 3.4.3. WAIT STATES

Wait states extend the data phase of the bus cycle. Memory and I/O devices that can not provide or accept data in the minimum four CPU clocks require wait states. Figure 3.13 shows a typical bus cycle with wait states inserted.



**Figure 3.13. Typical Bus Cycle With Wait States**

The READY input and the Chip-Select Unit control bus cycle wait states. Only the READY input is described in this section. Refer to Chapter 7 for a discussion of the Chip-Select Unit.

Figure 3.14 shows a simplified block diagram of the READY input. To avoid wait states, READY must be active (high) within a specified setup time prior to phase 2 of T2. To insert wait states, READY must be inactive (low) within a specified setup time to phase 2 of T2 or phase 1 of T3. Depending on the size and characteristics of the system, ready implementation may take one of two approaches: normally not-ready or normally ready.

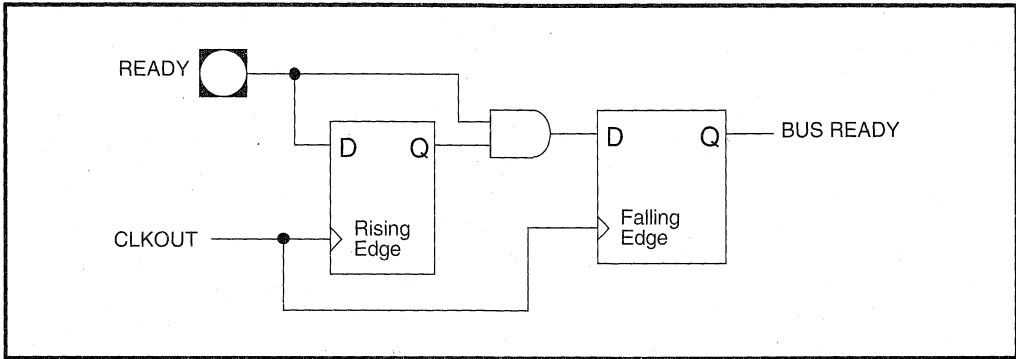


Figure 3.14. READY Pin Block Diagram

The condition where READY remains low at all times except to signal a ready condition defines a normally not-ready system. For any bus cycle, only the selected device drives the READY input high to complete the bus cycle. The circuit shown in Figure 3.15 illustrates a simple circuit to generate a normally not-ready signal. **Note that if no device is selected the bus remains not-ready indefinitely.** Systems with many slow devices that can not operate at the maximum bus bandwidth usually implement a normally not-ready signal.

The start of a bus cycle clears the wait state module and forces READY low. After every rising edge of CLKOUT, INPUT1 and INPUT2 are shifted through the module and eventually drive READY high. Assuming INPUT1 and INPUT2 are valid prior to phase 2 of T2, no delay through the module causes one wait state. Each additional clock delay through the module generates one additional wait state. Two inputs are used to establish different wait state conditions.

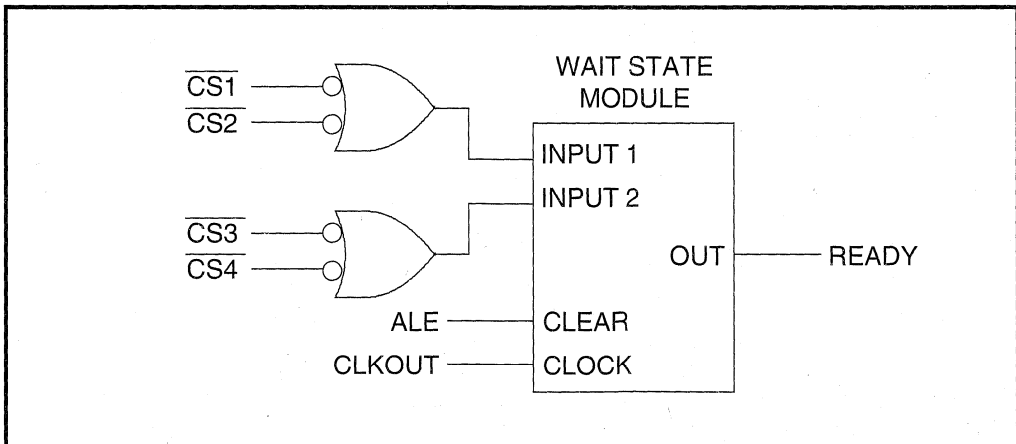
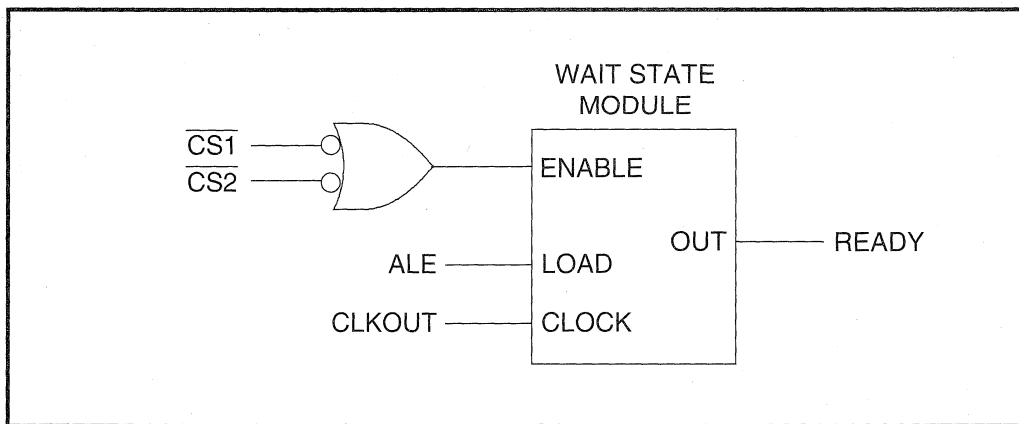


Figure 3.15. Generating a Normally Not-Ready Bus Signal

A normally ready signal remains high at all times except when the selected device needs to signal a not-ready condition. For any bus cycle, only the selected device drives the READY input low to delay the completion of the bus cycle. The circuit shown in Figure 3.16 illustrates a simple circuit to generate a normally ready signal. **Note that if no device is selected the bus remains ready.** Systems that have few or no devices requiring wait states usually implement a normally ready signal.

The start of a bus cycle preloads a “zero” shifter and forces READY active (high). READY remains active if neither  $\overline{CS1}$  or  $\overline{CS2}$  go low. Should  $\overline{CS1}$  or  $\overline{CS2}$  go low, a series of zeros are shifted out every rising edge of CLKOUT causing READY to go inactive. At the end of the shift pattern READY is forced active again. Assuming  $\overline{CS1}$  and  $\overline{CS2}$  are active just prior to phase 2 of T2, shifting one “zero” through the module causes two wait states. Each additional zero shifted through the module generates one wait state.



**Figure 3.16. Generating a Normally Ready Bus Signal**

The READY input has two major timing concerns that can affect whether a normally ready or normally not-ready signal may be required. Referring to Figure 3.14, two latches capture the state of the READY input. The first latch captures READY on the phase 2 clock edge. The second latch captures READY **and** the result of first latch on the phase 1 clock edge. The following equations define the requirements of the READY input to meet ready or not-ready bus conditions.

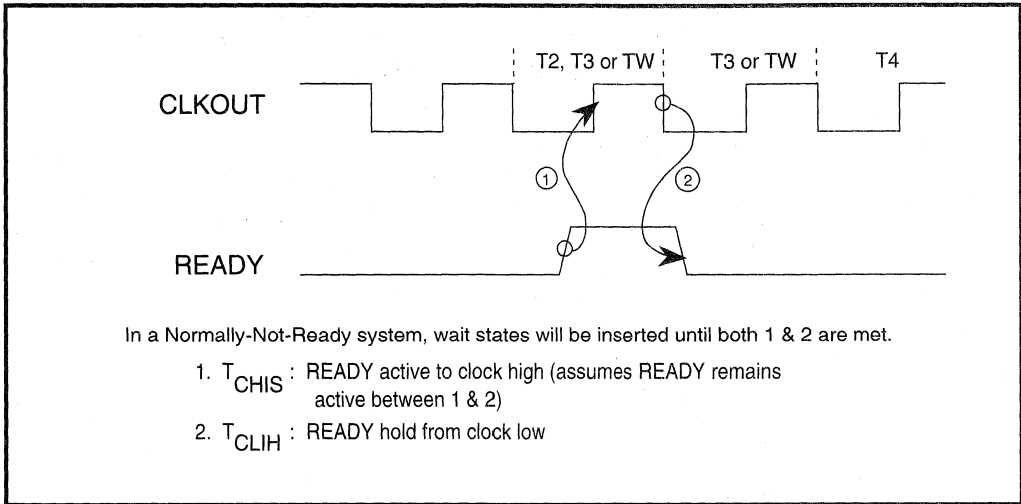
The bus is **ready** if:

1. READY is active prior to the phase 2 clock edge.
- AND
2. READY remains active after the phase 1 clock edge.

The bus is **not-ready** if:

1. READY is inactive prior to the phase 2 clock edge.
- OR
2. READY is inactive prior to the phase 1 clock edge.

A normally not-ready system must generate a valid ready input at phase 2 of T2 to prevent wait states. If it can not, then a normally ready system is required to run no wait states. Figure 3.17 illustrates the timing necessary to prevent wait states in a normally not-ready system. Figure 3.17 also illustrates how to terminate a bus cycle with wait states in a normally not-ready system.



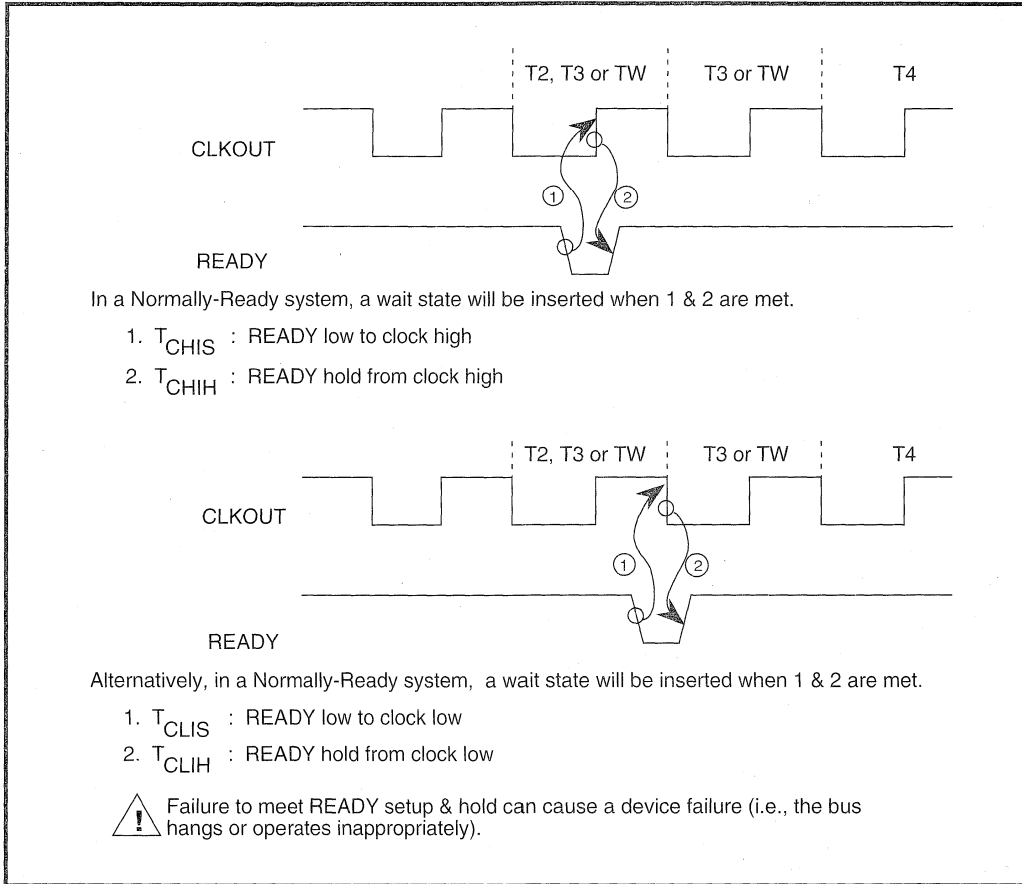
**Figure 3.17. Normally Not-Ready System Timing**

A valid not-ready input can be generated as late as phase 1 of T3 to insert wait states in a normally ready system. A normally not-ready system is required to run wait states if the not-ready condition can not be met in time. Figure 3.18 illustrates the minimum and maximum timing necessary to insert wait states in a normally ready system. Figure 3.18 also illustrates how to terminate a bus cycle with wait states in a normally ready system.

The BIU can execute an indefinite number of wait states. However, bus cycles with large numbers of wait states limit the performance of the CPU and the integrated peripherals. CPU performance suffers because the instruction prefetch queue can not be kept full. Integrated peripheral performance suffers because the maximum bus bandwidth decreases.

#### **3.4.4. IDLE STATES**

Under most operating conditions the BIU executes consecutive (back-to-back) bus cycles. However, several conditions cause the BIU to become idle. An idle condition occurs between bus cycles (see Figure 3.8), and may last an indefinite amount of time (depending on the instruction sequence).



**Figure 3.18. Normally Ready System Timings**

Conditions causing the BIU to become idle include:

- The instruction prefetch queue is full
- An effective address calculation is in progress
- The bus cycle inherently requires idle states (e.g., interrupt acknowledge, locked operations)
- Instruction execution forces idle states (e.g., HLT, WAIT)

An idle bus state may or may not drive the bus. An idle bus state following a bus read cycle continues to float the bus. An idle bus state following a bus write cycle continues to drive the bus. The BIU does not drive any of the control strobes active in an idle state unless to indicate the start of another bus cycle.

### 3.5. BUS CYCLES

There are four basic types of bus cycles: read, write, interrupt acknowledge and halt. Interrupt acknowledge and halt bus cycles define special bus operations and require separate discussions. Read bus cycles include memory, I/O and instruction prefetch bus operations. Write bus cycles include memory and I/O bus operations. All read and write bus cycles have the same basic format.

The following sections present timing equations containing symbols found in the data sheet. The timing equations provide information necessary to start a worst case design analysis.

#### 3.5.1. READ BUS CYCLES

Figure 3.19 illustrates a typical read cycle. Table 3.2 lists the three types of read bus cycles.

**Table 3.2. Read Bus Cycle Types**

STATUS BIT			BUS CYCLE TYPE
$\overline{S2}$	$\overline{S1}$	$\overline{S0}$	
0	0	1	Read I/O - Initiated by the Execution Unit for IN, OUT, INS, OUTF instructions or by the DMA Unit. A15:0 selects the desired I/O port. A19:16 are driven to zero (see also DMA Unit).
1	0	0	Instruction Prefetch - Initiated by the BIU. Data read from the bus fills the prefetch queue.
1	0	1	Read Memory - Initiated by the Execution Unit, the DMA Unit or the Refresh Control Unit. A19:0 select the desired byte or word memory location.

Figure 3.20 illustrates a typical 16-bit interface connection to a read-only device interface. The same example applies to an 8-bit bus system, except no devices connect to an upper bus. Four parameters must be evaluated when determining the compatibility of a memory (or I/O) device. TADLTCH defines the delay through the address latch. Table 3.3 lists the four parameters.

TOE, TACC and TCE define the maximum data access requirements for the memory device. These device parameters must be **less** than the value calculated in the equation column. A equal to or greater than result indicates that wait states must be inserted into the bus cycle.

TDF determines the maximum time the memory device can float its outputs before the next bus cycle begins. A TDF value greater than the equation result indicates a buffer fight. A buffer fight means two (or more) devices are driving the bus **at the same time**. This can lead to short circuit conditions, resulting in large current spikes and possible device damage.

TRHAX cannot be lengthened (other than slowing the clock rate). To resolve a buffer fight condition, chose a faster device or buffer the AD bus (see Section 3.6.1).

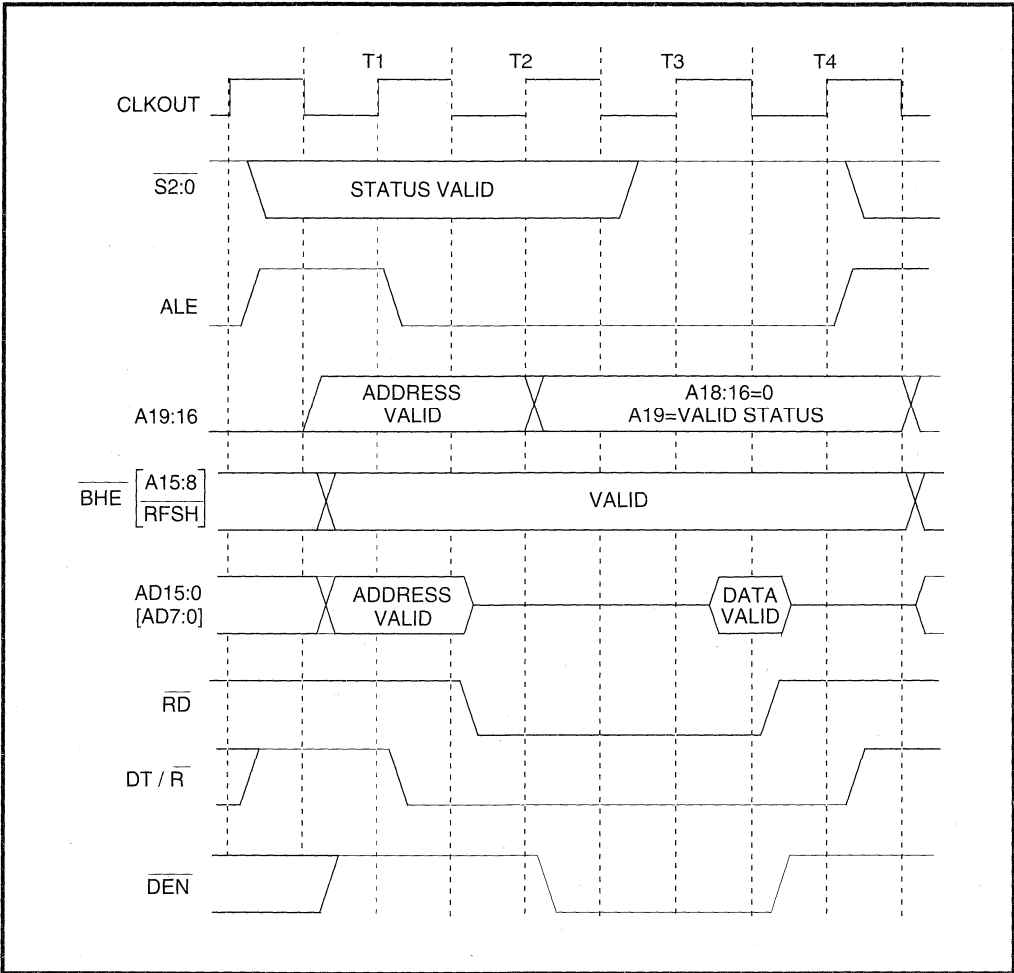


Figure 3.19. Typical Read Bus Cycle



3.5.1.1. REFRESH BUS CYCLES

A refresh bus cycle operates similarly to a normal read bus cycle except for the following:

- For a 16-bit data bus, address bit  $A_0$  and  $\overline{BHE}$  drive to a 1 (high) and the data value on the bus is ignored.
- For an 8-bit data bus, address bit  $A_0$  drives to a 1 (high) and  $\overline{RFSH}$  is driven active. The data value on the bus is ignored.  $\overline{RFSH}$  has the same bus timing as  $\overline{BHE}$ .

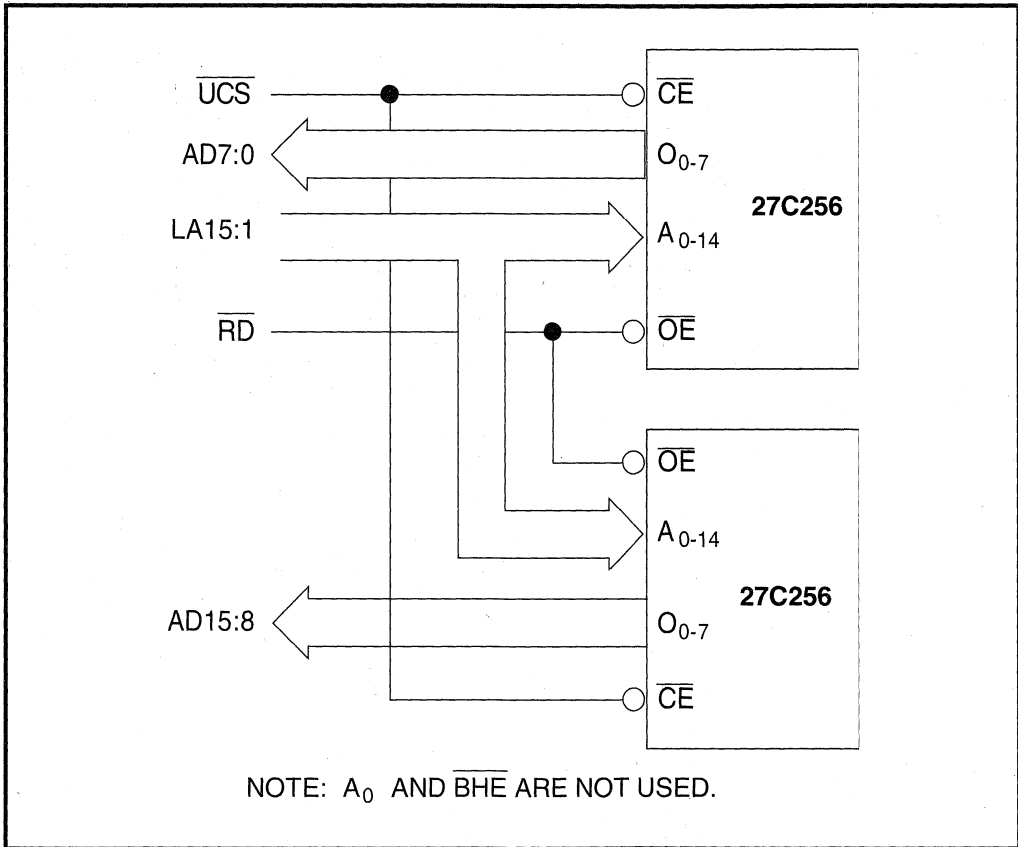


Figure 3.20. Read-Only Device Interface

**3.5.2. WRITE BUS CYCLES**

Figure 3.21 illustrates a typical write bus cycle. The bus cycle starts with the transition of ALE high and the generation of valid status bits  $\overline{S2:0}$ . The bus cycle ends when  $\overline{WR}$  transitions high (inactive), although data remains valid for one additional clock. Table 3.4 lists the two types of write bus cycles.

Figure 3.22 illustrates a typical 16-bit interface connection to a Read/Write device. Write bus cycles have many parameters that must be evaluated in determining the compatibility of a memory (or I/O) device. Table 3.5 lists some critical write bus cycle parameters.

Most memory and peripheral devices latch data on the rising edge of the write strobe. Address, chip-select and data must be valid (setup) prior to rising edge of  $\overline{WR}$ . TAW, TCW and TDW define the minimum data setup requirements. The value calculated by their respective equations must be greater than the device requirements. To increase the calculated value insert wait states.

**Table 3.3. Read Cycle Critical Timing Parameters**

MEMORY DEVICE PARAMETER	DESCRIPTION	EQUATION
TOE	Output enable ( $\overline{RD}$ low) to data valid	$2T - T_{CLOV2} - T_{CLIS}$
TACC	Address valid to data valid	$3T - T_{CLOV2} - T_{ADLTCH} - T_{CLIS}$
TCE	Chip enable ( $\overline{UCS}$ ) to data valid	$3T - T_{CLOV2} - T_{CLIS}$
TDF	Output disable ( $\overline{RD}$ high) to output float	$T_{RHAX}$

**Table 3.4. Write Bus Cycle Types**

STATUS BITS			BUS CYCLE TYPE
$\overline{S2}$	$\overline{S1}$	$\overline{S0}$	
0	1	0	Write I/O - Initiated by executing IN, OUT, INS, OUTS instructions or by the DMA Unit. A15:0 selects the desired I/O port. A19:16 are driven to zero (see also DMA Unit).
1	1	0	Write Memory - Initiated by any of the Byte/ Word memory instructions or the DMA Unit. A19:0 selects the desired byte or word memory location.

The minimum device data hold time (from  $\overline{WR}$  high) is defined by TDH. The calculated value must be greater than the minimum device requirements; however, the value can only be changed by decreasing the clock rate.

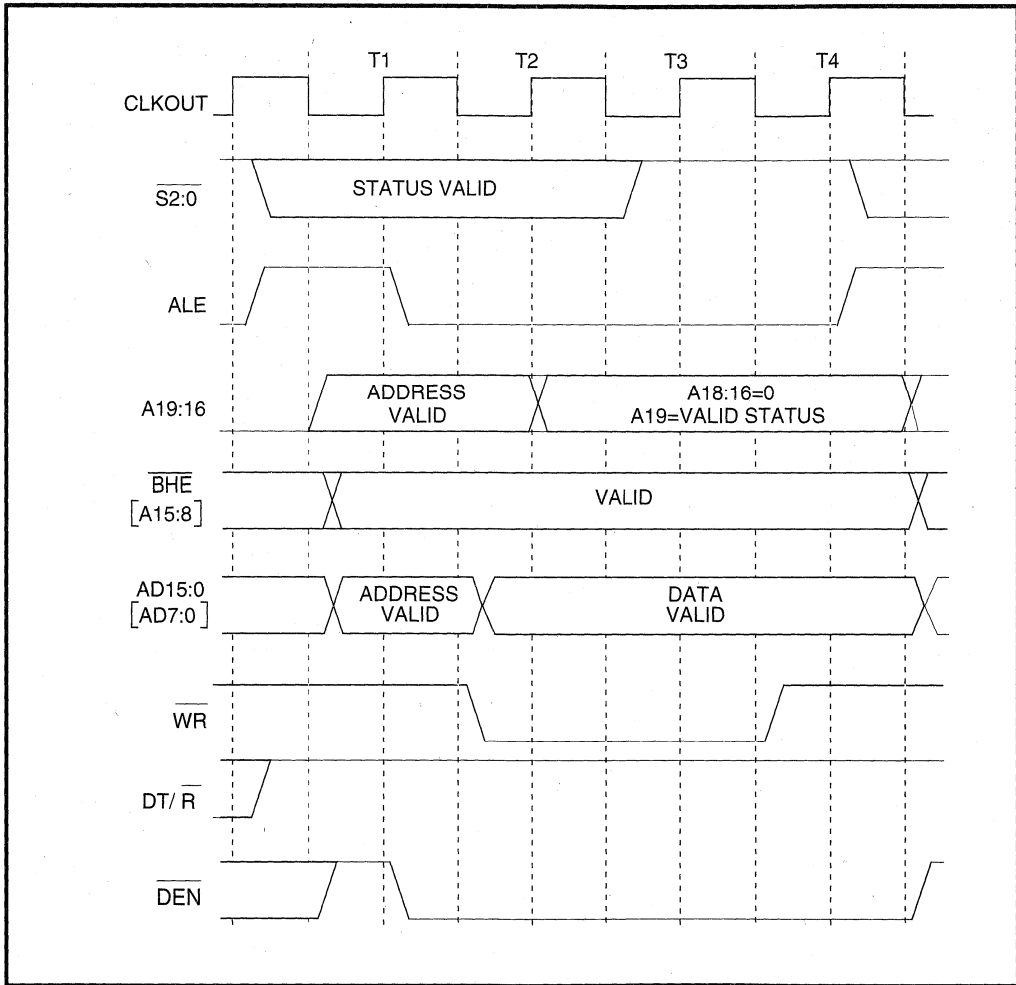


Figure 3.21. Typical Write Bus Cycle

Table 3.5. Write Cycle Critical Timing Parameters

MEMORY DEVICE PARAMETER	DESCRIPTION	EQUATION
TWC	Write cycle time	4T
TAW	Address valid to end of write strobe ( $\overline{WR}$ high)	3T - TADLTCH
Tcw	Chip enable ( $\overline{LCS}$ ) to end of write strobe ( $\overline{WR}$ high)	3T
TWR	Write recover time	TWHLH
TDW	Data valid to write strobe ( $\overline{WR}$ high)	2T
TDH	Data hold from write strobe ( $\overline{WR}$ high)	TWHDX
TWP	Write pulse width	TWLWH

TWC and TWP define the minimum time (maximum frequency) a device can process write bus cycles. TWR determines the minimum time from the end of the current write cycle to the start of the next write cycle. All three parameters require calculated values be greater than device requirements. The calculated TWC and TWP values increase by inserting wait states. The calculated TWR value, however, can not be changed except by decreasing the clock rate.

### 3.5.3. INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE BUS CYCLE

Interrupt expansion is accomplished by interfacing the Interrupt Control Unit with a peripheral device such as the 82C59A Programmable Interrupt Controller. The BIU controls the bus cycles required to fetch vector information from the peripheral device, and then passes the information to the CPU. These bus cycles, collectively known as an INTA bus cycle, operate similarly to read bus cycles. However, instead of generating  $\overline{RD}$  to enable the peripheral, the signal  $\overline{INTA}$  is used. Figure 3.23 illustrates a typical Interrupt Acknowledge bus cycle.

An Interrupt Acknowledge bus cycle consists of two consecutive bus cycles.  $\overline{LOCK}$  is generated to indicate the sequential bus operation. The second bus cycle strobes vector information only from the lower half of the bus (D7:0). In a 16-bit bus system, the upper half of the bus floats except for D15:13, which contains cascade address information.

Figure 3.24 shows a typical 82C59A interface example. Bus ready must be provided to terminate both bus cycles in the interrupt acknowledge sequence.

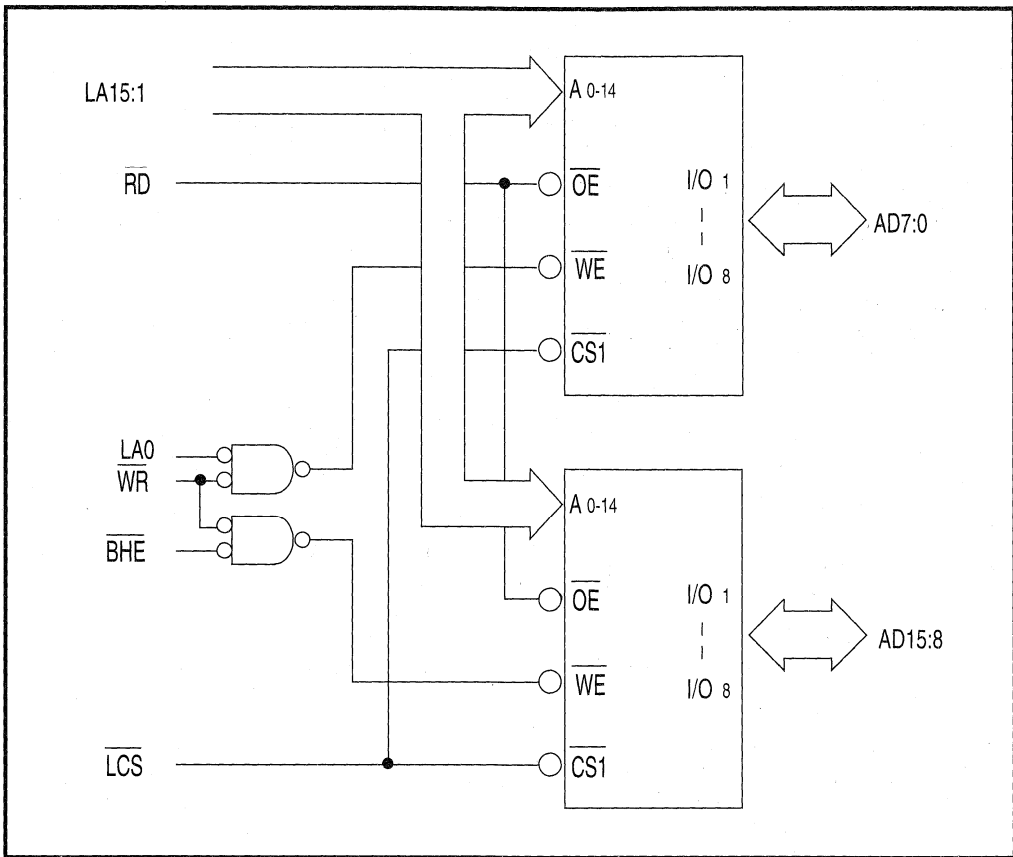


Figure 3.22. 16-Bit Bus Read/Write Device Interface

### 3.5.3.1. SYSTEM DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

Although ALE is generated for both bus cycles, the BIU does not drive valid address information. Actually, all address bits except A<sub>19:16</sub> float during the time ALE becomes active (on both 8- and 16-bit bus devices). Address decode circuitry must be disabled for Interrupt Acknowledge bus cycles to prevent erroneous operation.

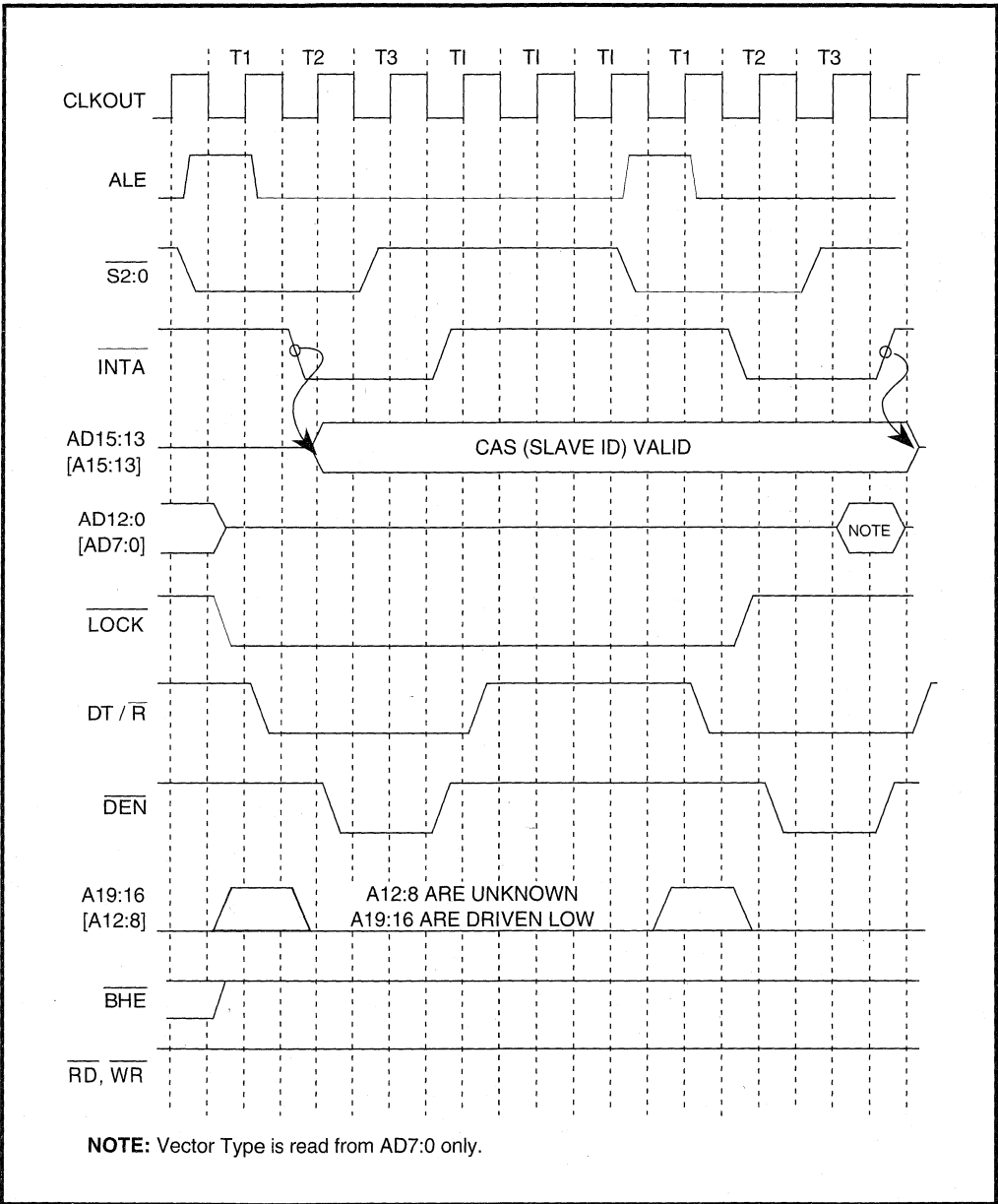


Figure 3.23. Interrupt Acknowledge Bus Cycle

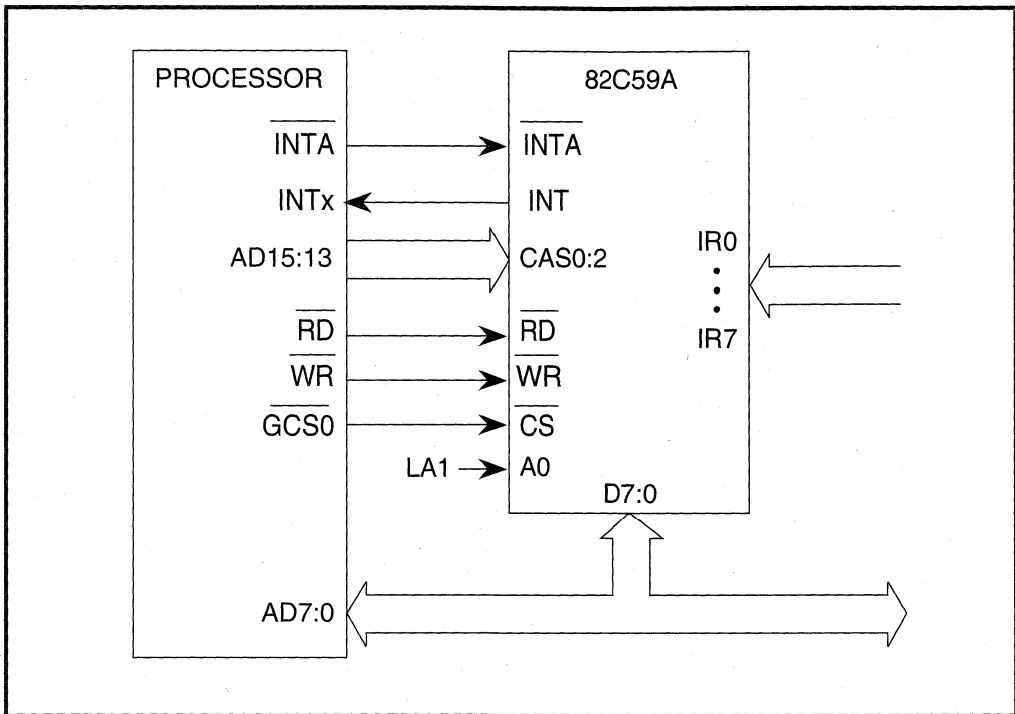


Figure 3.24. Typical 82C59A Interface

### 3.5.4. HALT BUS CYCLE

Suspending the CPU reduces device power consumption and potentially reduces interrupt latency time. The HLT instruction initiates two sequences:

1. Suspends the Execution Unit
2. Instructs the BIU to execute a HALT bus cycle

Chapter 5 discusses the concepts of Idle and Powerdown power management modes. Either of those two modes (or the absence of both of them, known as Active Mode) affects the operation of the bus HALT cycle. The effects relating to BIU operation and the HALT bus cycle are described in this section. However, refer to Chapter 5 for a discussion of Active, Idle and Powerdown Modes.

After executing a HALT bus cycle, the BIU suspends operation until any of the following events occur:

- An interrupt is generated
- A bus HOLD is generated (except when Powerdown Mode is enabled)
- A DMA request is generated (except when Powerdown Mode is enabled)
- A refresh request is generated (except when Powerdown Mode is enabled)

Figure 3.25 shows the operation of a HALT bus cycle. During T1, the AD bus either floats or drives depending on the next bus cycle to be executed by the BIU. Under most instruction sequences, the BIU floats the AD bus because the next operation would most likely be an instruction prefetch. However, the AD bus drives either data or address information during T1 if the HALT occurs just after a bus write operation. A19:16 continues to drive the previous bus cycle information under most instruction sequences (it drives the next prefetch address otherwise). The BIU always operates the same way for any given instruction sequence.

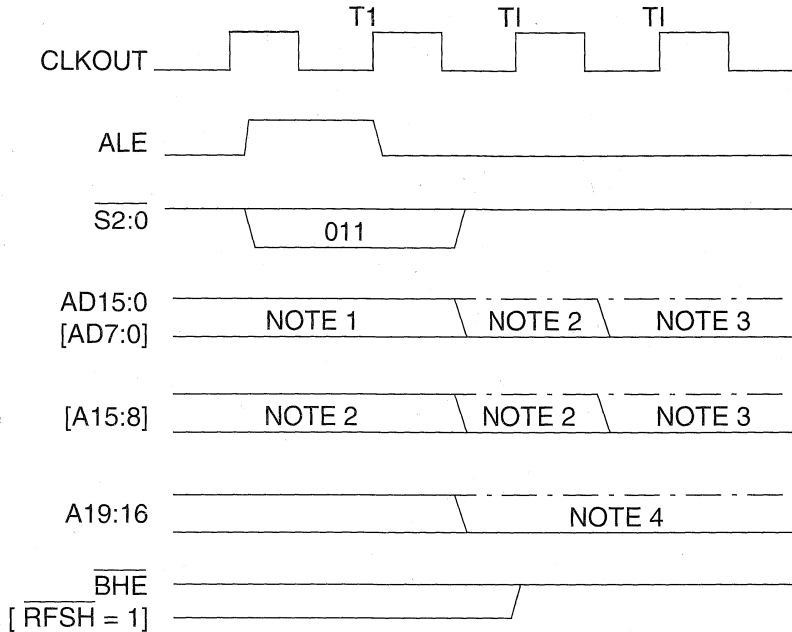
The Chip-Select Unit prevents a programmed chip-select from going active during a HALT bus cycle. However, chip-selects generated by external decoder circuits must be disabled for HALT bus cycles.

After several TI bus states, all address/data, address/status and bus control pins drive to a known state when Powerdown or Idle Mode is enabled. The address/data and address/status bus pins force a low (0) state. Bus control pins force their inactive state. Table 3.6 lists the state of each pin after entering the HALT bus state.

**Table 3.6. HALT Bus Cycle Pin States**

PIN(S)	PIN STATE NO Powerdown or Idle Mode	PIN STATE Powerdown or Idle Mode
AD15:0 (AD7:0 for 8-bit)	Float	Drive Zero
A15:8 (8-bit)	Drive Address	Drive Zero
A19:16	Drive 8H or Zero	Drive Zero
$\overline{\text{BHE}}$ (16-bit)	Drive Last Value	Drive One
$\overline{\text{RD}}$ , $\overline{\text{WR}}$ , $\overline{\text{DEN}}$ , $\overline{\text{DT/R}}$ , $\overline{\text{RFSH}}$ (8-bit), S2:0	Drive One	Drive One





**NOTES:**

1. The AD15:0 [AD7:0] bus can be floating, driving a previous write data value, or driving the next instruction prefetch address value. For an 8-bit device, A15:8 either drives the previous bus address value or the next instruction prefetch address value.
2. The AD15:0 bus, or AD7:0 and A15:8 buses for an 8-bit device, drive to a zero (all low) at this time if Powerdown Mode is enabled. When Powerdown Mode is not enabled, the AD15:0 [AD7:0] bus either floats or drives previous write data, and A15:8 (8-bit device) continues to drive its previous value.
3. The AD15:0 bus, or AD7:0 and A15:8 buses for an 8-bit device, drive to a zero (all low) at this time if Idle Mode is enabled. When Idle Mode is not enabled, the AD15:0 [AD7:0] bus either floats or drives previous write data, and A15:8 (8-bit device) continues to drive its previous value.
4. The A19:16 bus either drives zero (all low) or 8H (all low except A19/S6, which can be high if the previous bus cycle was a DMA or refresh operation). If either Idle or Powerdown Mode is enabled, the A19:16 bus drives zeros (all low) at phase 1 of T1. Otherwise, the previous value remains active.

**Figure 3.25. HALT Bus Cycle**

### 3.5.5. TEMPORARILY EXITING THE HALT BUS STATE

A DMA request, refresh request or bus hold request cause the BIU to temporarily exit the HALT bus state. This can only occur when in the Active or Idle power management mode. The BIU returns to the HALT bus **state** after it completes the desired bus operation. However, the BIU **does not** execute another bus HALT cycle (i.e., ALE and bus cycle status are not regenerated). Figures 3.26, 3.27, and 3.28 illustrate how the BIU temporarily exits and then returns to the HALT bus state.

### 3.5.6. EXITING HALT

The occurrence of a non-maskable or maskable interrupt forces the BIU to exit the HALT bus state (in any power management mode). The first bus operations to occur after exiting HALT are read cycles to reload the CS:IP registers. Figures 3.29 and 3.30 show how the HALT bus state is exited when an NMI or INTx occurs.

## 3.6. SYSTEM DESIGN ALTERNATIVES

Most system designs do not require any additional signaling requirements than those already provided by the BIU. However, heavily loaded bus conditions, slow memory or peripheral device performance, and off-board device interfaces may not be supported directly without modifying the BIU interface. The following sections deal with topics to enhance or modify the operation of the BIU.

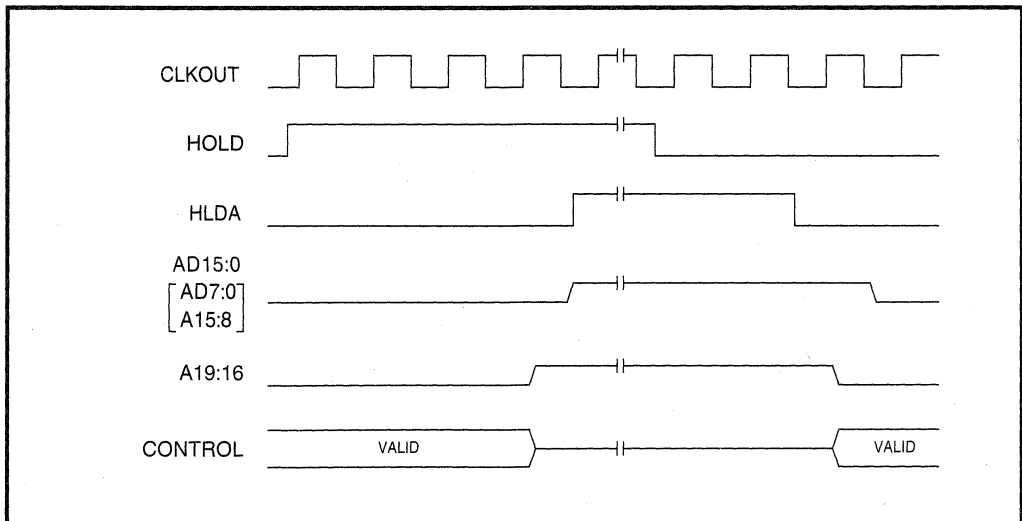


Figure 3.26. Returning to HALT After a HOLD/HLDA Bus Exchange

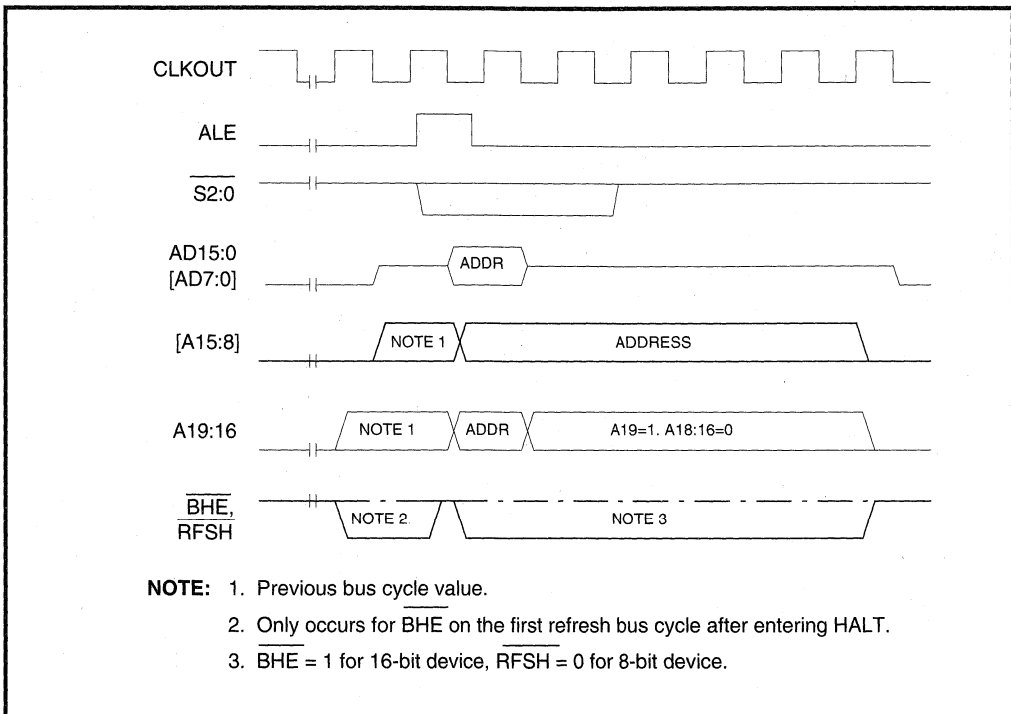


Figure 3.27. Returning to HALT After a Refresh Bus Cycle

### 3.6.1. BUFFERING THE DATA BUS

The BIU generates two control signals,  $\overline{DEN}$  and  $DT/\overline{R}$ , to control bidirectional buffers or transceivers. The timing relationship of  $\overline{DEN}$  and  $DT/\overline{R}$  is shown in Figure 3.31. Conditions requiring transceivers include:

- The capacitive load on the AD bus gets too large
- The current load on the AD bus exceeds device specifications
- Additional VOL and VOH drive is required
- A memory or I/O device can not float its outputs in time to prevent a buffer fight

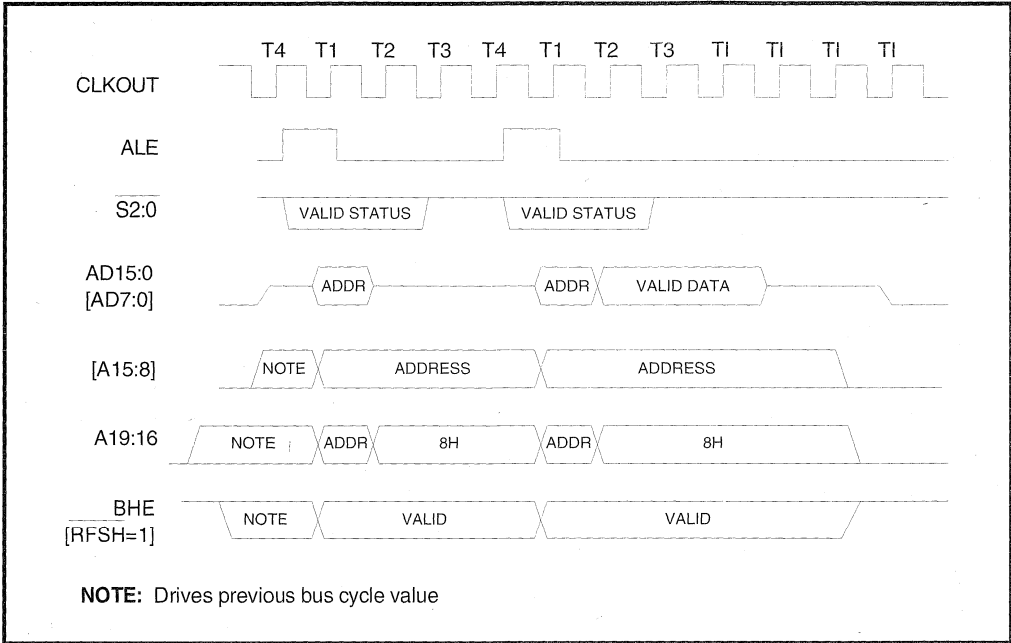


Figure 3.28. Returning to HALT After a DMA Bus Cycle

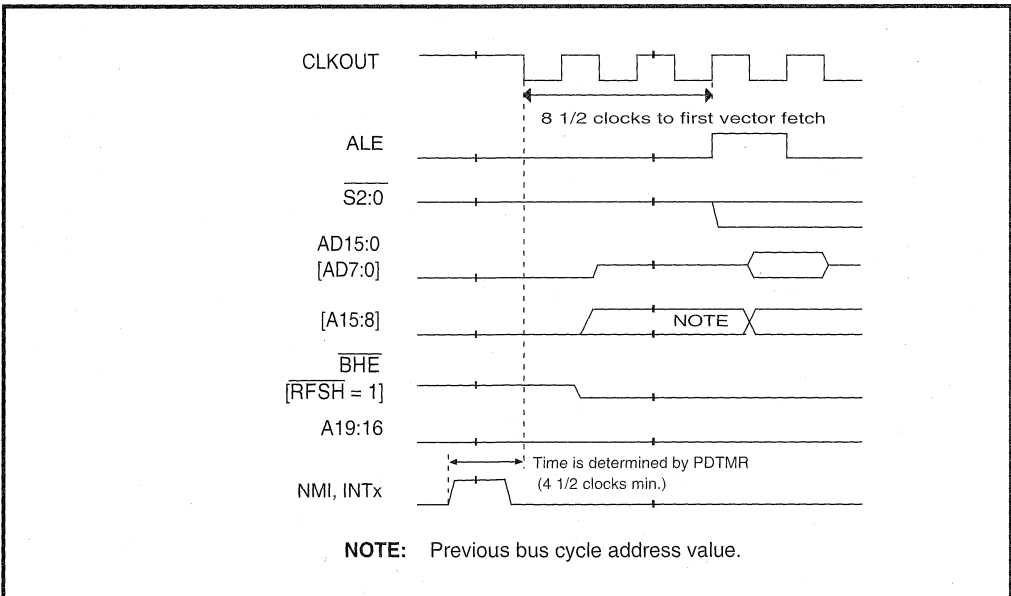


Figure 3.29. Exiting HALT (Powerdown Mode)

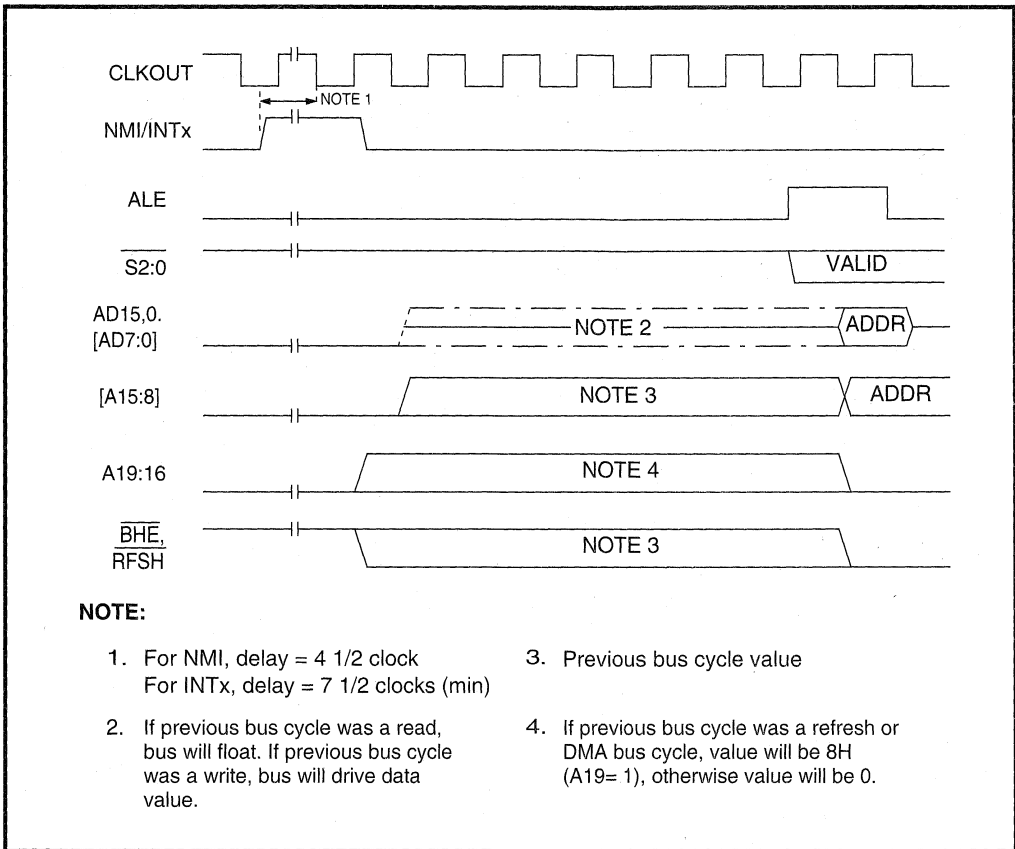


Figure 3.30. Exiting HALT (Active/Idle Mode)

The circuit shown in Figure 3.32 illustrates how to use transceivers to buffer the AD bus. The connection between the processor and the transceiver is known as the “local bus.” Connections between the transceiver and other memory or I/O devices is known as the “buffered bus.” A fully buffered system does not have any devices attached to the local bus. A partially buffered system has devices on both the local and buffered buses.

$\overline{DEN}$  drives the transceiver output enable directly in a fully buffered system. A partially buffered system requires  $\overline{DEN}$  to be qualified with another signal to prevent the transceiver from going active for local bus accesses. Figure 3.33 illustrates how to use chip-selects to qualify  $\overline{DEN}$ .

$DT/\overline{R}$  always connects directly to the transceiver. However, an inverter may be required if the polarity of  $DT/\overline{R}$  does not match the transceiver.  $DT/\overline{R}$  only goes low (0) for memory and I/O read, instruction prefetch and interrupt acknowledge bus cycles.

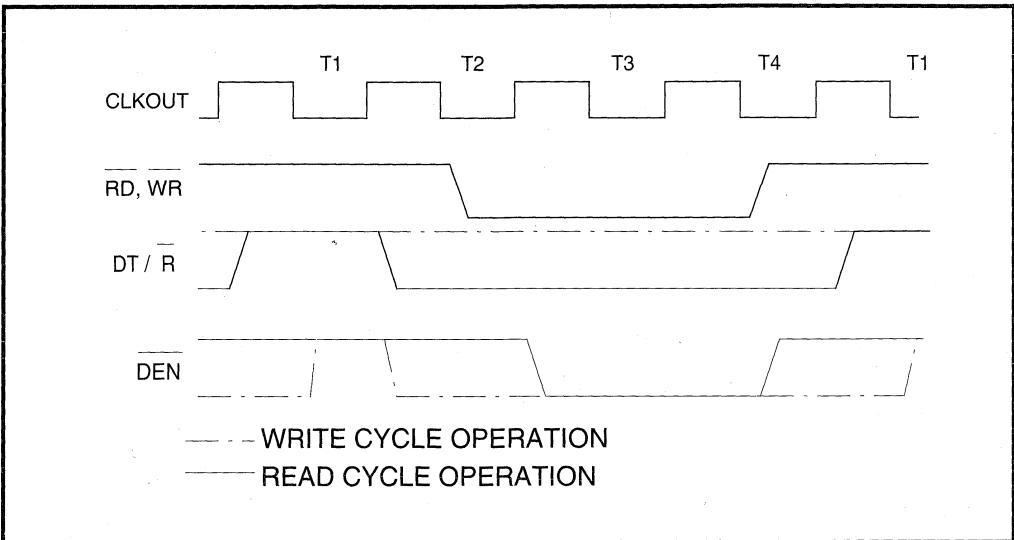


Figure 3.31.  $\overline{DEN}$  and  $\overline{DT/R}$  Timing Relationship

### 3.6.2. SOFTWARE SYNCHRONIZATION

The execution sequence of a program and hardware events occurring within a system are often asynchronous to each other. In some systems there may be a requirement to suspend program execution until an event (or events) occurs, and the program execution continues.

One way to synchronize software execution with hardware events requires the use of interrupts. Executing a HALT instruction suspends program execution until an unmasked interrupt occurs. However, there is a delay associated with servicing the interrupt before program execution can once again proceed. Using the WAIT instruction removes the delay associated with servicing interrupts.

The WAIT instruction suspends program execution until one of two events occurs: an interrupt is generated, or the  $\overline{TEST}$  input pin is sampled low. Unlike interrupts, the  $\overline{TEST}$  input pin does not require program execution to be transferred to a new location (i.e., an interrupt routine is not executed). In processing the WAIT instruction, as long as  $\overline{TEST}$  remains high program execution remains suspended (at least until an interrupt occurs). When  $\overline{TEST}$  is sampled low, program execution resumes.

The  $\overline{TEST}$  input and WAIT instruction provide a mechanism to delay program execution until a hardware event occurs, without having to absorb the delay associated with servicing an interrupt.

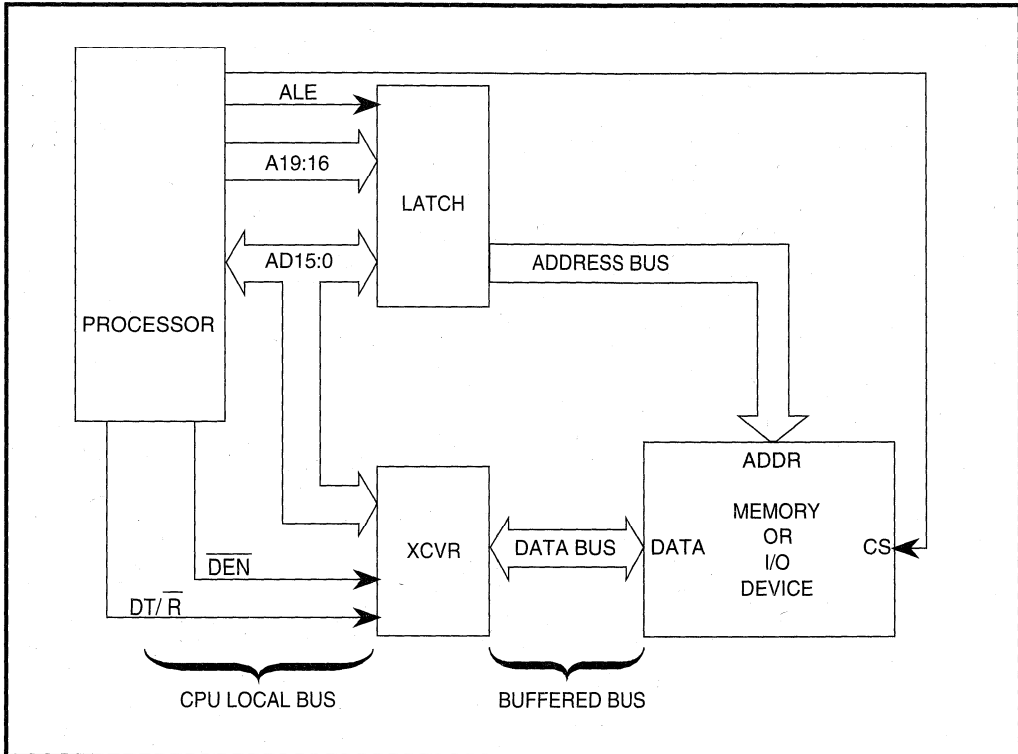


Figure 3.32. Buffered AD Bus System

### 3.6.3. LOCKED BUS OPERATION

To address the problems of controlling accesses to shared resources, the BIU provides a hardware  $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$  output. The execution of a LOCK prefix instruction activates the  $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$  output.

$\overline{\text{LOCK}}$  goes active in phase 1 of T1 of the first bus cycle following execution of the LOCK prefix instruction. It remains active until phase 1 of T1 of the first bus cycle following the execution of the instruction following the LOCK prefix. To provide bus access control in multiprocessor systems, the  $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$  signal should be incorporated into the system bus arbitration logic resident to the CPU.

During normal multiprocessor system operation, priority of the shared system bus is determined by the arbitration circuits on a cycle by cycle basis. As each CPU requires a transfer over the system bus, it requests access to the bus via its resident bus arbitration logic. When the CPU gains priority (determined by the system bus arbitration scheme and any associated logic), it takes control of the bus, performs its bus cycle and either maintains bus control, voluntarily releases the bus or is forced off the bus by the loss of priority.

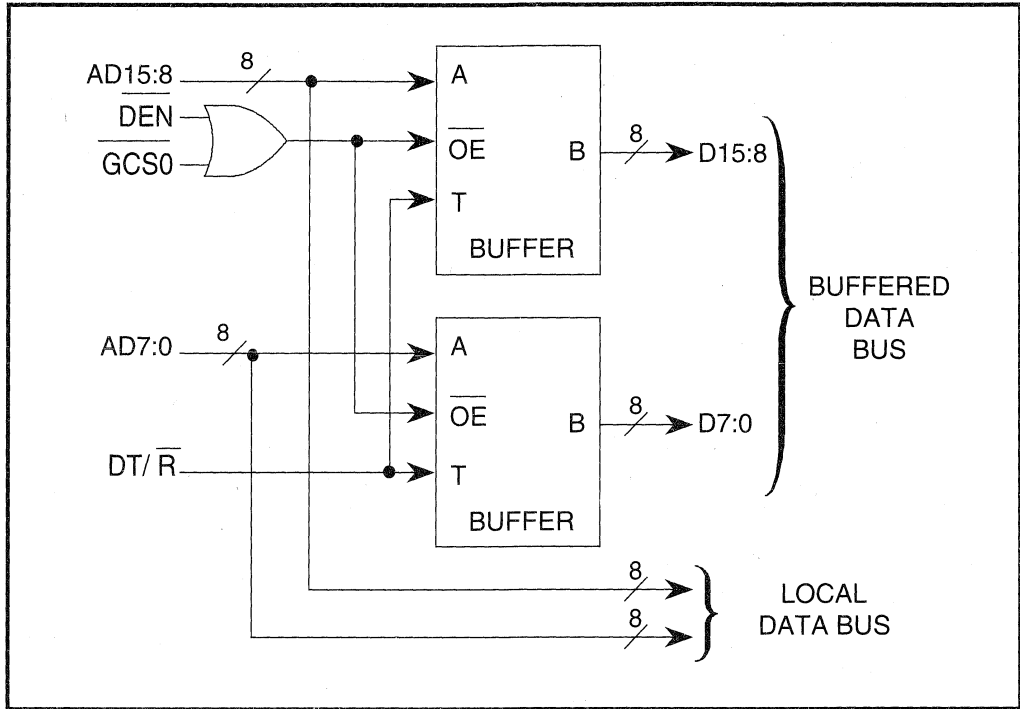


Figure 3.33. Qualifying  $\overline{DEN}$  with Chip-Selects

The lock mechanism prevents the CPU from losing bus control (either voluntarily or by force) and guarantees that the CPU can execute multiple bus cycles without intervention and possible corruption of the data by another CPU. A classic use of the mechanism is the “TEST and SET semaphore” during which a CPU must read from a shared memory location and return data to the location without allowing another CPU to reference the same location during the test and set operations.

Another application of  $\overline{LOCK}$  for multiprocessor systems consists of a locked block move which allows high speed message transfer from one CPU’s message buffer to another.

During the locked instruction (i.e., while  $\overline{LOCK}$  is active), a bus hold, DMA or refresh request are recorded but not acknowledged until completion of the locked instruction. However,  $\overline{LOCK}$  has no affect on interrupts. As an example, a locked HALT instruction causes bus hold, DMA or refresh bus requests to be ignored, but still allows the CPU to exit the HALT state on an interrupt.

In general, prefix bytes (like LOCK) are considered extensions of the instructions they preceded. Interrupts, DMA requests and refresh requests that occur during execution of prefix are not acknowledged until completion of the instruction following the prefix (except for



instructions which are servicing interrupts during their execution, (i.e., HALT, WAIT and repeated string primitive). Note that multiple prefix bytes may precede an instruction.

Another example is a “string primitive” preceded by the repetition prefix (REP) which is interruptible after each execution of the string primitive, even if the REP prefix is combined with the LOCK prefix. This prevents interrupts from being locked out during a block move or other repeated string operations. However, bus hold, DMA and refresh requests remain locked out until LOCK is removed (either by completing the block operation or after an interrupt occurs).

### 3.7. MULTI-MASTER BUS SYSTEM DESIGNS

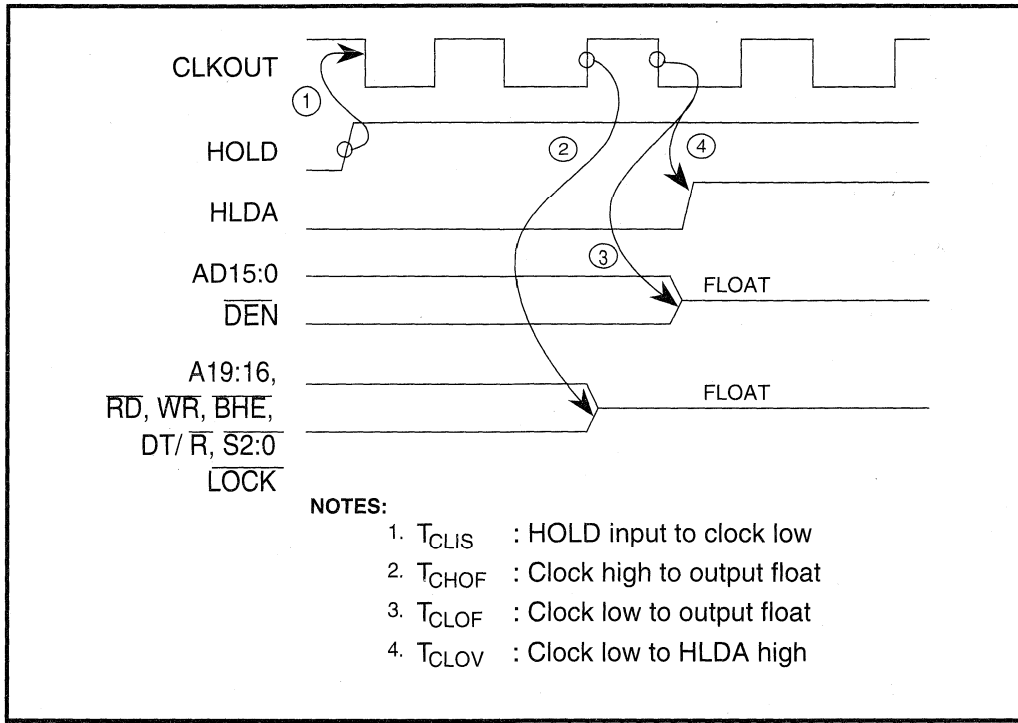
The BIU supports protocols for transferring control of the local bus between itself and other devices capable of acting as bus masters. To support such a protocol, the BIU uses a hold request input (HOLD) and a hold acknowledge output (HLDA) as bus transfer handshake signals. To gain control of the bus, a device asserts the HOLD input, and then waits until the HLDA output goes active before driving the bus. After HLDA has gone active, the requesting device can take control of the local bus and remains in control of the bus until HOLD is removed.

#### 3.7.1. ENTERING BUS HOLD

In responding to the hold request input, the BIU floats the entire address and data bus, and many of the control signals. Table 3.7 lists the state of the BIU pins when HLDA is asserted. Figure 3.34 illustrates the timing sequence when acknowledging the hold request. Of those device pins not mentioned in Table 3.7 or shown in Figure 3.34, all other pins either remain active (e.g., CLKOUT and T1OUT) or remain in their inactive state (e.g., UCS and INTA). Refer to the data sheet for specific details of pin functioning during a bus hold.

**Table 3.7. Signal Condition Entering HOLD**

SIGNAL	HOLD CONDITION
A19:16, $\overline{S2:0}$ , $\overline{RD}$ , $\overline{WR}$ , $DT/\overline{R}$ , BHE (RFSH), $DT/\overline{R}$ , LOCK	These signals float one half clock before HLDA is generated (i.e., phase 2).
AD15:0 (16-bit), AD7:0 (8-bit), A15:8 (8-bit), $\overline{DEN}$	These signals float the same clock HLDA is generated (i.e., phase 1).



**Figure 3.34. Timing Sequence Entering HOLD**

### 3.7.1.1. HOLD BUS LATENCY

The duration of time between the assertion of HOLD by the external device and the assertion of HLDA by the BIU is known as bus latency. In Figure 3.34, the two clock delay between HOLD and HLDA represents the shortest bus latency. Normally this only occurs if the bus is idle, halted or the bus hold request occurs just prior to the BIU beginning another bus cycle.

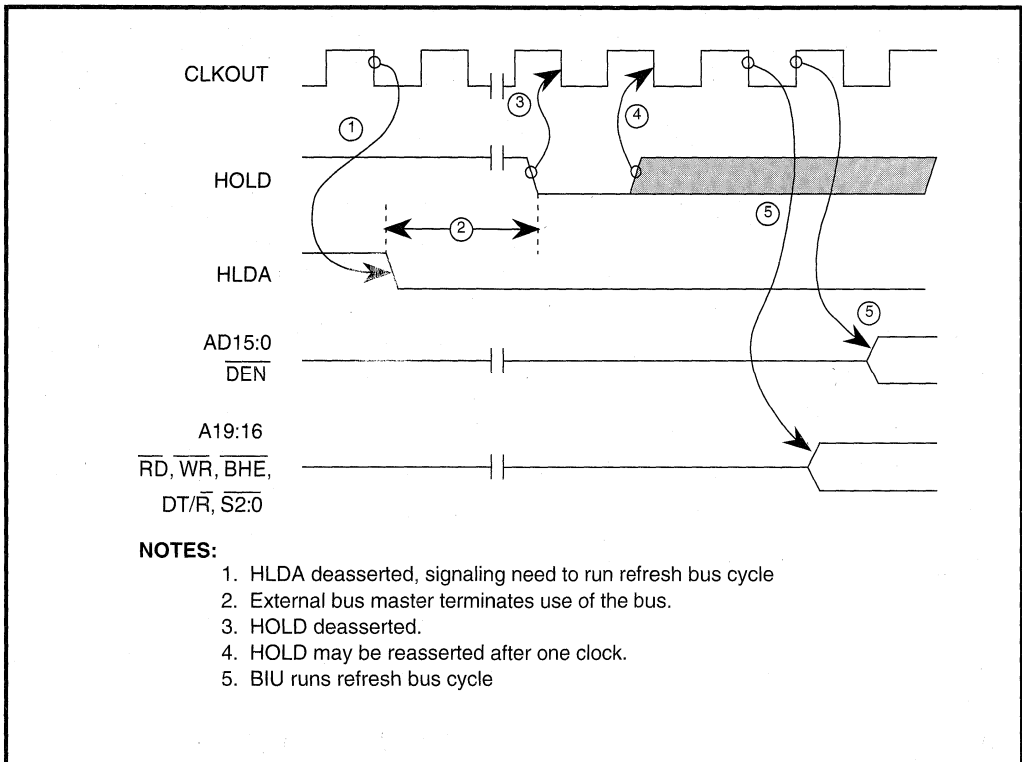
The major factors that influence bus latency are listed below (in order of longest delay to shortest delay).

1. Bus Not Ready — As long as the bus remains not ready a bus hold request can not be serviced.
2. Locked Bus Cycle — As long as  $\overline{LOCK}$  remains asserted a bus hold request can not be serviced. Performing a locked move string operation can take several thousands of clocks.
3. Completion of Current Bus Cycle — A bus hold request is not serviced until the current bus cycle completes. A bus hold request will not separate bus cycles required to move odd aligned word data. Also, bus cycles with long wait states will delay the servicing of a bus hold request.

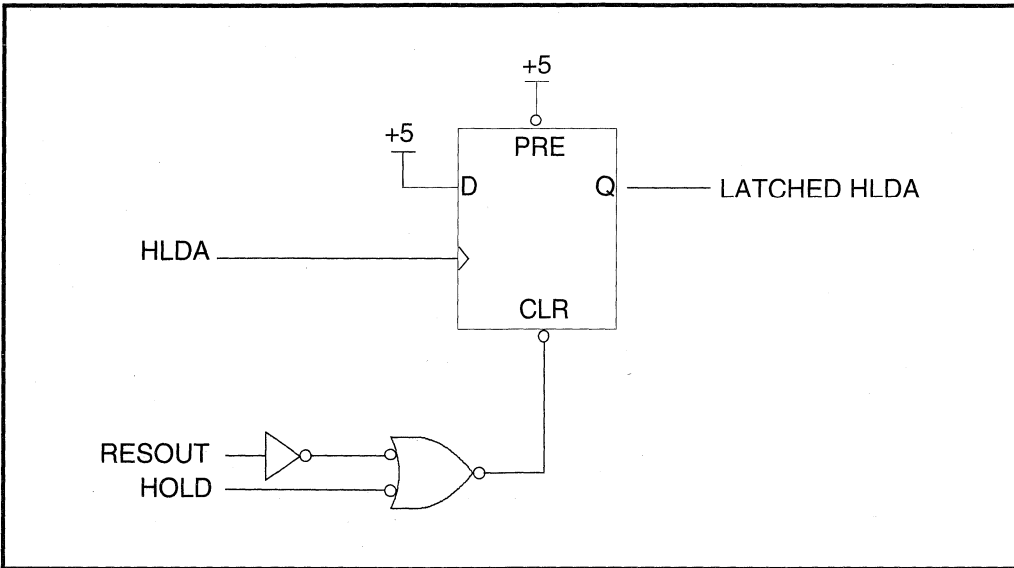
3. Interrupt Acknowledge Bus Cycle — A bus hold request is not serviced until after an INTA bus cycle has completed. An INTA bus cycle drives  $\overline{LOCK}$  active.
4. DMA and Refresh Bus Cycles — A bus hold request is not serviced until after the DMA request or refresh bus cycle has completed. Refresh bus cycles have a higher priority than hold bus requests. A bus hold request can not separate the bus cycles associated with a DMA transfer (worst case is an odd aligned transfer, which takes four bus cycles to complete).

### 3.7.1.2. REFRESH OPERATION DURING A BUS HOLD

Under normal operating conditions, once HLDA has been asserted it remains asserted until HOLD is removed. However, when a refresh bus request is generated, the HLDA output is removed (driven low) to signal the need for the BIU to regain control of the local bus. The BIU does not gain control of the bus until HOLD is removed. This procedure prevents the BIU from just arbitrarily regaining control of the bus.



**Figure 3.35. Refresh Request During Bus Hold**



**Figure 3.36. Latching HLDA**

Figure 3.35 shows the timing associated with the occurrence of refresh request while HLDA is active. Note that HLDA can be as short as one clock wide. This happens when a refresh request occurs just after HLDA is granted. A refresh request has higher priority than a bus hold request, so when both occur simultaneously the refresh request occurs before HLDA becomes active.

The device requesting a bus hold must be able to detect a one clock wide HLDA pulse. A bus lockup (hang) condition may result because the requesting device did not detect the short HLDA pulse and continues to wait for HLDA to be asserted, while the BIU waits for HOLD to be deasserted. The circuit shown in Figure 3.36 can be used to latch HLDA.

The removal of HOLD must be detected for at least one clock cycle to allow the BIU to regain the bus and execute a refresh bus cycle. The BIU will release the bus and generate HLDA should HOLD go active prior to completing the refresh bus cycle.

### 3.7.2. EXITING HOLD

Figure 3.37 shows the timing associated with exiting the bus hold state. Normally a bus operation (e.g., instruction prefetch) occurs just after HOLD is released. However, if no bus cycle is pending when leaving a bus hold state, the bus and associated control signals remain floating (except if Idle or Powerdown Modes are active, see Section 3.5.5).

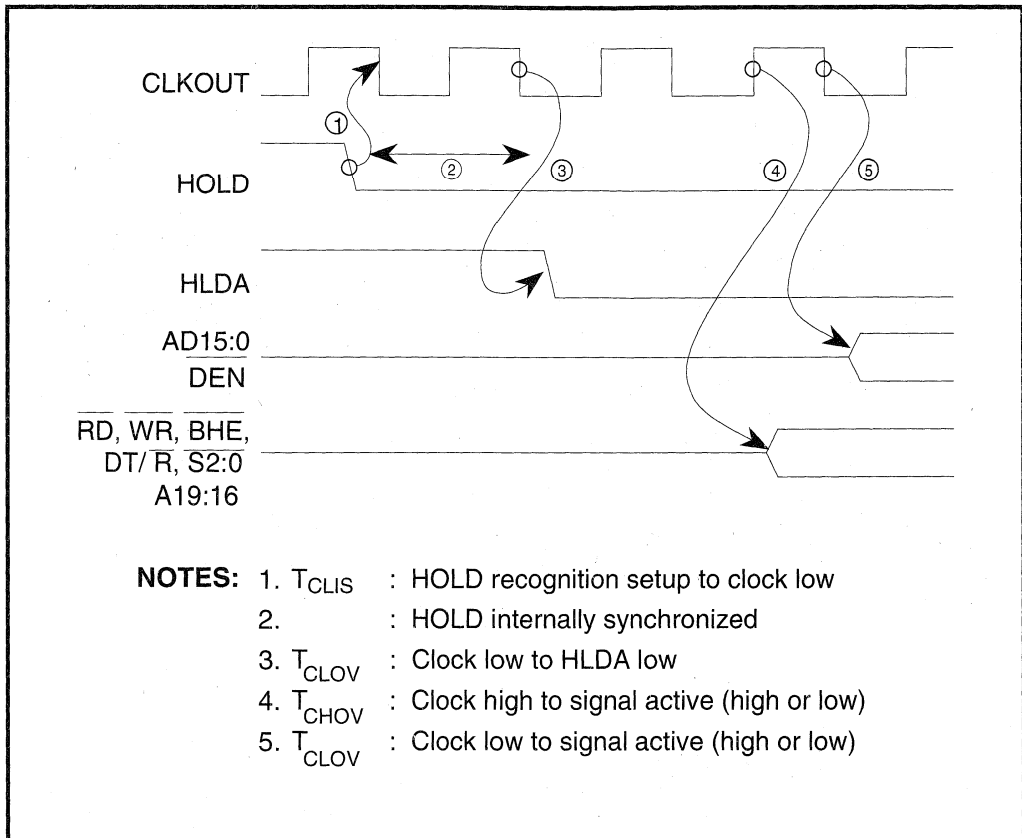


Figure 3.37. Exiting HOLD

### 3.8. BUS CYCLE PRIORITIES

The BIU arbitrates requests for bus cycles from the Execution Unit, the integrated peripherals (e.g., DMA Unit) and external bus masters (i.e., bus hold requests). The list below summarizes the priority for all bus cycle requests (from highest to lowest).

1. Instruction execution read/write following a non-pipelined effective address calculation.
2. Refresh bus cycles.
3. Bus hold request.
4. Single step interrupt vectoring sequence.
5. Non-Maskable interrupt vectoring sequence.
6. Internal error (e.g., divide error, overflow) interrupt vectoring sequence.

7. Hardware (e.g., INT0, DMA) interrupt vectoring sequence.
8. 80C187 Math Coprocessor error interrupt vectoring sequence.
9. DMA bus cycles.
10. General instruction execution. This category includes read/write operations following a pipelined effective address calculation, vectoring sequences for software interrupts and numerics code execution. The following points apply to sequences of related execution cycles:
  - The second read/write cycle of an odd addressed word operation is inseparable from the first bus cycle.
  - The second read/write cycle of an instruction with both load and store accesses (e.g., EXCHG) may be separated from the first cycle by other bus cycles.
  - Successive bus cycles of string instructions (e.g., MOVS) may be separated by other bus cycles.
  - When a locked instruction begins, its associated bus cycles become the highest priority and can not be separated (or preempted) until completed.
11. Bus cycles necessary to fill the prefetch queue.

---

# *Peripheral Control Block*

**4**

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## CHAPTER 4

# PERIPHERAL CONTROL BLOCK

All integrated peripherals in the 80C186 Modular Core family are controlled by sets of registers within an integrated Peripheral Control Block (PCB). These registers are physically located in the peripheral devices they control, but they are addressed as a single block of registers. The Peripheral Control Block encompasses 256 contiguous bytes. The control block can be located on any 256 byte boundary of memory or I/O space. Table 4.1 shows a map of these registers. Unused locations are reserved.

### 4.1. SETTING THE BASE LOCATION

The Peripheral Control Block contains the Peripheral Control Block Relocation Register, in addition to control registers for each integrated peripheral device. The Relocation Register allows the Peripheral Control Block to be relocated to any 256 byte boundary within memory or I/O space, depending on the state of the Memory I/O (MEM) bit and R19:8. Figure 4.1 shows the layout of the Relocation Register.

The Relocation Register is located at a fixed offset within the Peripheral Control Block. If the Peripheral Control Block is moved, the Relocation Register will also move.

The Peripheral Control Block Relocation Register contains the Escape Trap (ET) bit. When set, this bit forces the processor to trap whenever an ESC (coprocessor) instruction is encountered.

The Relocation Register contains the value 00FFH upon RESET. This means the Peripheral Control Block will be located at the top of I/O space (0FF00H to 0FFFFH).

As an example, to relocate the Peripheral Control Block to the memory range 10000-100FFH, the user would program the Relocation Register with the value 1100H. Since the Relocation Register is part of the Peripheral Control Block, it relocates to word 10000H plus its fixed offset.

All communication between integrated peripherals and the Modular CPU Core occurs over a special bus called the *F-Bus*. The F-Bus always carries 16 bit data.

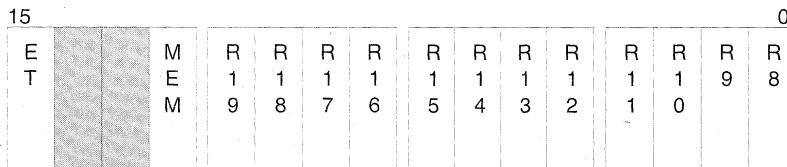
Table 4.1. 80C186EC Peripheral Control Block

PCB Offset	Function	PCB Offset	Function	PCB Offset	Function	PCB Offset	Function
00H	MPICP0	40H	T2CNT	80H	GCS0ST	C0H	D0SRCL
02H	MPICP1	42H	T2CMPA	82H	GCS0SP	C2H	D0SRCH
04H	SPICP0	44H	Reserved	84H	GCS1ST	C4H	D0DSTL
06H	SPICP1	46H	T2CON	86H	GCS1SP	C6H	D0DSTH
08H	Reserved	48H	P3DIR	88H	GCS2ST	C8H	D1TC
0AH	SCUIRL	4AH	P3PIN	8AH	GCS2SP	CAH	D0CON
0CH	DMAIRL	4CH	P3CON	8CH	GCS3ST	CCH	DMAPRI
0EH	TIMIRL	4EH	P3LTCH	8EH	GCS3SP	CEH	DMAHALT
10H	Reserved	50H	P1DIR	90H	GCS4ST	D0H	D1SRCL
12H	Reserved	52H	P1PIN	92H	GCS4SP	D2H	D1SRCH
14H	Reserved	54H	P1CON	94H	GCS5ST	D4H	D1DSTL
16H	Reserved	56H	P1LTCH	96H	GCS5SP	D6H	D1DSTH
18H	Reserved	58H	P2DIR	98H	GCS6ST	D8H	D1TC
1AH	Reserved	5AH	P2PIN	9AH	GCS6SP	DAH	D1CON
1CH	Reserved	5CH	P2CON	9CH	GCS7ST	DCH	Reserved
1EH	Reserved	5EH	P2LTCH	9EH	GCS7SP	DEH	Reserved
20H	WDTRLDH	60H	B0CMP	A0H	LCSST	E0H	D2SRCL
22H	WDTRLDL	62H	B0CNT	A2H	LCSSP	E2H	D2SRCH
24H	WDCNTH	64H	S0CON	A4H	GCSST	E4H	D2DSTL
26H	WDCNTL	66H	S0STS	A6H	GCSSP	E6H	D2DSTH
28H	WDTCLR	68H	S0RBUF	A8H	RELREG	E8H	D2TC
2AH	WDTDIS	6AH	S0TBUF	AAH	Reserved	EAH	D2CON
2CH	Reserved	6CH	Reserved	ACH	Reserved	ECH	Reserved
2EH	Reserved	6EH	Reserved	AEH	Reserved	EEH	Reserved
30H	T0CNT	70H	B1CMP	B0H	RFBASE	F0H	D3SRCL
32H	T0CMPA	72H	B1CNT	B2H	RFTIM	F2H	D3SRCH
34H	T0CMPB	74H	S1CON	B4H	RFCON	F4H	D3DSTL
36H	T0CON	76H	S1STS	B6H	RFADDR	F6H	D3DSTH
38H	T1CNT	78H	S1RBUF	B8H	PWRCON	F8H	D3TC
3AH	T1CMPA	7AH	S1TBUF	BAH	Reserved	FAH	D3CON
3CH	T1CMPB	7CH	Reserved	BCH	STEPID	FCH	Reserved
3EH	T1CON	7EH	Reserved	BEH	PWRSAB	FEH	Reserved

D0TC

Whenever mapping the Peripheral Control Block to another location, the user should program the Relocation Register with a byte write (i.e., OUT DX, AL). Accesses to the Peripheral Control Block, like all integrated peripherals, are always done 16 bits at a time. Internally, the Relocation Register is written with 16 bits of the AX register while externally the Bus Interface Unit runs a single 8-bit bus cycle. If a word instruction is used with an 80C188 Modular Core family member (i.e., OUT DX, AX), the Relocation Register is written on the first bus cycle. The Bus Interface Unit then runs an unnecessary second bus cycle. The address of the second bus cycle will no longer be within the control block (the Peripheral Control Block was moved on the first cycle). Generation of external READY is now needed to complete the cycle. For this reason, we recommend byte operations for the Relocation Register. Byte instructions should also be used for the other registers in the Peripheral Control Block of an 80C188 Modular Core family member. This requires half of the bus cycles of word operations. Byte operations are only valid for even addressed writes to the Peripheral Control Block. A word read (i.e., IN AX, DX) must be performed to read a 16-bit Peripheral Control Block register.

**Register Name:** PCB Relocation Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RELREG  
**Register Function:** Relocates the PCB within memory or I/O space.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
ET	<i>Escape Trap</i>	0	If set, the CPU will trap when an ESC instruction is executed.
MEM	<i>Memory I/O</i>	0	If set, the PCB is located in memory space. If clear, the PCB is located in I/O space.
R19:8	<i>PCB Base Address Upper Bits</i>	0FFH	R19:8 define the upper address bits of the PCB base address. All lower bits are zero. R19:16 are ignored when the PCB is mapped to I/O space.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading. Reserved register bits must be written with a logic zero value to maintain compatibility with future Intel products.

Figure 4.1. PCB Relocation Register

## 4.2. PERIPHERAL CONTROL BLOCK REGISTERS

Each of the integrated peripherals' control and status registers is located at a fixed offset above the programmed base location of the Peripheral Control Block. Many locations within the Peripheral Control lock are not assigned to any peripheral. If a write is made to these locations, a bus cycle will occur, but data will not be stored. If a subsequent read is made to the same location, the value written will not be read back. Unused Peripheral Control Block locations are reserved.

The processor will run an external bus cycle for any memory or I/O cycle accessing a location within the Peripheral Control Block. Address, data and control information will be driven on the external pins as with an ordinary bus cycle. Information returned by an external device will be ignored, even if the access does not correspond to the location of an integrated peripheral control register. This is also true for the 80C188 Modular Core family, except word accesses made to integrated registers will be performed in two bus cycles.

The processor generates an internal READY signal whenever an integrated peripheral is accessed. External READY is ignored. READY will also be generated if an access is made to the Peripheral Control Block not corresponding to an integrated peripheral control register. The processor will not insert wait states for any access to the integrated Peripheral Control Block. The exceptions to this are accesses to timer registers. Accesses to timer control and counting registers insert one wait state. This is required to properly multiplex processor and counter element accesses to the timer control registers.

The F-Bus does not function identically to the external data bus for byte and word accesses. All write transfers on the F-Bus occur as words, regardless of how they are encoded. For example, the instruction OUT DX, AL (DX is even) will write the entire AX register to the Peripheral Control Block register at location [DX]. If DX were an odd location, AL would be placed in [DX] and AH would be placed at [DX-1]. A word operation to an odd address would write [DX] and [DX-1] with AL and AH, respectively. This differs from normal external bus operation where unaligned word writes cause the modification of [DX] and [DX+1]. In summary, **do not use odd aligned byte or word writes to the PCB.**

Aligned word reads work normally. Unaligned word reads do not work normally. For example, IN AX, DX (DX is odd) will transfer [DX] into AL and [DX-1] into AH. Byte reads from even or odd addresses work normally, but only a byte will be read. For example, IN AL, DX will not transfer [DX] into AX (only AL is modified).

No problems will arise if the following recommendations are adhered to. For the 80C186 Modular Core:

**Word reads:** Access only even aligned words with IN AX, DX or MOV <word register>, <even PCB address>.

**Byte reads:** Work normally. Beware of reading word-wide PCB registers that may change value between successive reads (i.e., timer count value).

**Word writes:** Always write even aligned words. Writing an odd aligned word will give unexpected results. Use either OUT DX, AX or OUT DX, AL (or MOV <even PCB address>, <word register>).

**Byte writes:** Do not perform unaligned byte writes. Even aligned byte writes will modify the entire word PCB location.

For the 80C188 Modular Core:

**Word reads:** Access only even aligned words with IN AX, DX or MOV <word register>, <even PCB address>.

**Byte reads:** Work normally. Beware of reading word-wide PCB registers that may change value between successive reads (i.e., timer count value).

**Word writes:** Always write even aligned words. Writing an odd aligned word will give unexpected results. Use OUT DX, AL or MOV <even aligned byte PCB address>, <byte register low byte>. Using OUT DX, AX will perform an unnecessary bus cycle.

**Byte writes:** Do not perform unaligned byte writes. Even aligned byte writes will modify the entire word PCB location.

### 4.3. RESERVED LOCATIONS AND THE NUMERICS INTERFACE

Locations within the Peripheral Control Block not explicitly used are reserved. Reading from these locations yields an undefined result. If reserved registers are written, for example during a block MOV instruction, they must be set to 0H. **Failure to follow this guideline could result in incompatibilities with future 80C186 Modular Core family products.**

Systems using the 80C187 Numeric Processor Extension must not relocate the Peripheral Control Block to location 0H in I/O space. The 80C187 interface uses I/O locations 0F8H through 0FFH. If the Peripheral Control Block were relocated to these locations, the processor would be communicating with the Peripheral Control Block, not the 80C187 interface circuitry. This will cause indeterminate system operation if a numerics instruction is encountered when the Escape Trap bit is clear.



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*Clock Generation and  
Power Management*

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**5**





# CHAPTER 5

## CLOCK GENERATION AND POWER MANAGEMENT

The clock generation and distribution circuits provide uniform clock signals for the Execution Unit, the Bus Interface Unit and all integrated peripherals. 80C186 Modular Core Family processors have additional logic which controls the clock signals to provide power management functions.

### 5.1. CLOCK GENERATION

The clock generation circuit includes a crystal oscillator, a divide-by-two counter and power-save and reset circuitry (see Figure 5.1). Section 5.2.4 describes Power-Save Mode as a power management option.

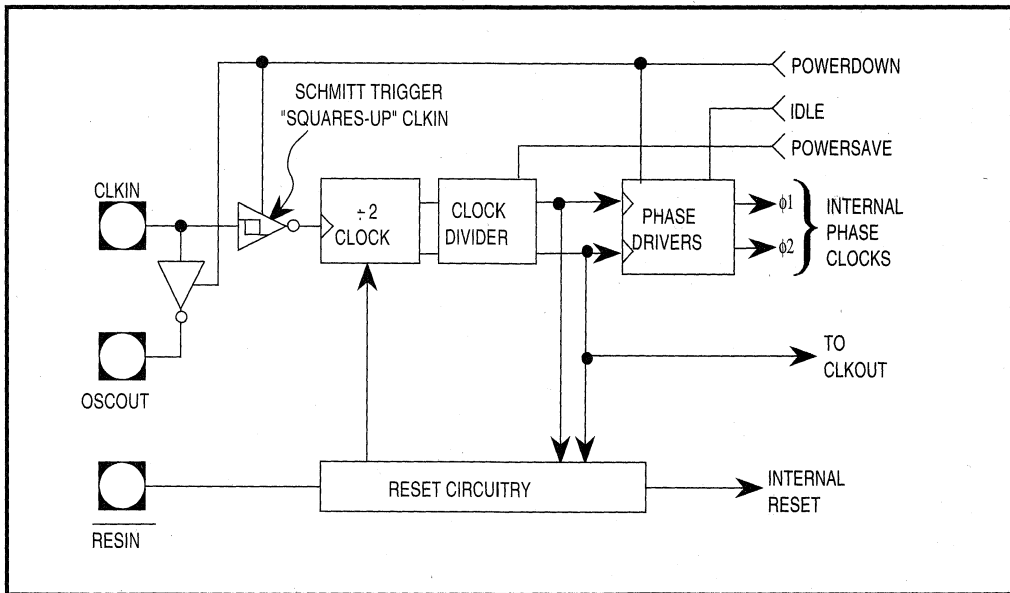


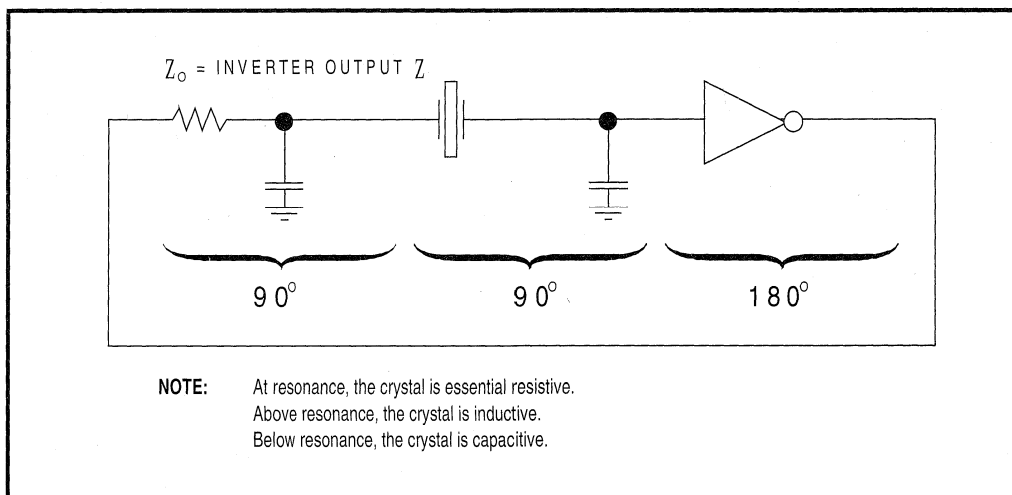
Figure 5.1. Clock Generator

#### 5.1.1. CRYSTAL OSCILLATOR

The internal oscillator is a parallel resonant Pierce oscillator, a specific form of the common phase shift oscillator.

### 5.1.1.1. OSCILLATOR OPERATION

A phase shift oscillator operates through positive feedback, where a non-inverted, amplified version of the input connects back to the input. A 360 degree phase shift around the loop will sustain the feedback in the oscillator. The on-chip inverter provides a 180 degree phase shift. The combination of the inverter's output impedance and the first load capacitor (see Figure 5.2) provides another 90 degree phase shift. At resonance, the crystal becomes primarily resistive. The combination of the crystal and the second load capacitor provides the final 90 degree phase shift. Above and below resonance the crystal is reactive and forces the oscillator back toward the crystal's nominal frequency.



**Figure 5.2. Ideal Operation of Pierce Oscillator**

Figure 5.3 shows the actual microprocessor crystal connections. For low frequencies, crystal vendors offer fundamental mode crystals. At higher frequencies, a third overtone crystal is the only choice. The external capacitors,  $C_{X1}$  at CLKIN and  $C_{X2}$  at OSCOUT, together with stray capacitance, form the load. A third overtone crystal requires an additional inductor  $L_1$  and capacitor  $C_1$  to select the third overtone frequency and reject the fundamental frequency. Section 5.1.1.2 discusses crystal vibration modes in more detail.

Choose  $C_1$  and  $L_1$  component values in the third overtone crystal circuit to satisfy the following conditions:

- The LC components form an equivalent series resonant circuit at a frequency below the fundamental frequency. This criteria makes the circuit inductive at the fundamental frequency. The inductive circuit cannot make the 90 degree phase shift and oscillations do not take place.
- The LC components form an equivalent parallel resonant circuit at a frequency about halfway between the fundamental frequency and the third overtone frequency. This

criteria makes the circuit capacitive at the third overtone frequency, necessary for oscillation.

- The LC components form an equivalent parallel resonant circuit at a frequency about halfway between the fundamental frequency and the third overtone frequency. This criteria makes the circuit capacitive at the third overtone frequency, necessary for oscillation.
- The two capacitors and inductor at OSCOUT, plus some stray capacitance, approximately equal the 20 pF load capacitor,  $C_{X2}$ , used alone in the fundamental mode circuit.

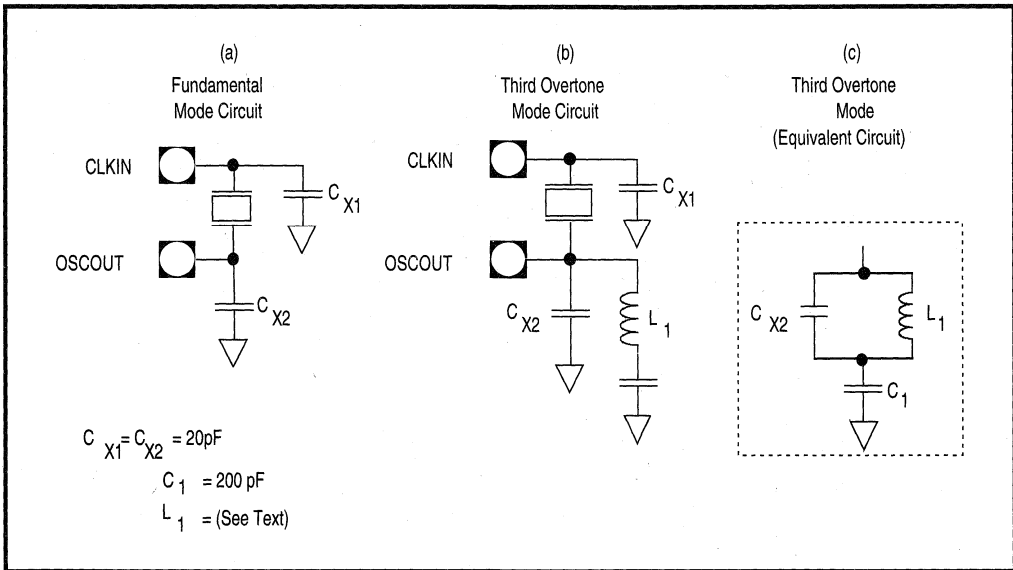


Figure 5.3. Crystal Connections to Microprocessor

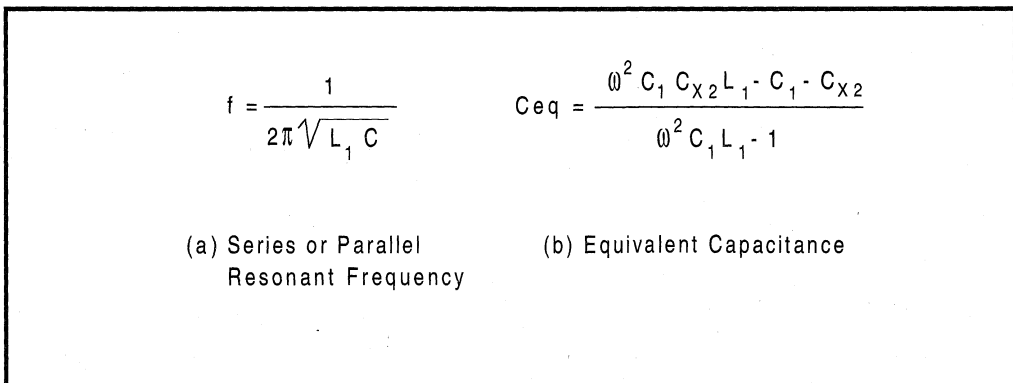


Figure 5.4. Equations for Crystal Calculations

equivalent capacitance is still about 200 pF (within 10 percent) and the equation in Figure 5.4(a) now yields the parallel resonant frequency.

The equation in Figure 5.4(b) yields the equivalent capacitance  $C_{eq}$  at the operation frequency. The desired operation frequency is the third overtone frequency marked on the crystal. Optimizing equations for the above three criteria yields Table 5.1. This table shows suggested standard inductor values for various processor frequencies. The equivalent capacitance is about 15 pF.

**Table 5.1. Suggested Values for Inductor  $L_1$  in Third Overtone Oscillator Circuit**

$f_{CLKOUT}$ (MHz)	$f_3$ O.T. (MHz)	$L_1$ ( $\mu$ H)
13.04	26.08	6.8, 8.2, 10.0
16	32	3.9, 4.7, 5.6

#### 5.1.1.2. SELECTING CRYSTALS

When specifying crystals, consider these parameters:

- Resonance and Load Capacitance — Crystals carry a parallel or series resonance specification. The two types do not differ in construction, just in test conditions and expected circuit application. Parallel resonant crystals carry a test load specification, with typical load capacitance values of 15, 18 or 22 pF. Series resonant crystals do not carry a load capacitance specification. You may use a series resonant crystal with the microprocessor even though the circuit is parallel resonant. However, it will vibrate at a frequency slightly (on the order of 0.1%) higher than its calibration frequency.
- Vibration Mode — The vibration mode is either fundamental or third overtone. Crystal thickness varies inversely with frequency. Vendors furnish third or higher overtone crystals to avoid manufacturing very thin, fragile quartz crystal elements. At a given frequency, an overtone crystal is thicker and more rugged than its fundamental mode counterpart. Below 20 MHz, most crystals are fundamental mode. In the 20 to 32 MHz range, you can purchase both modes. You must know the vibrational mode to know whether to add the LC circuit at OSCOUT.
- Equivalent Series Resistance (ESR) — ESR is proportional to crystal thickness, inversely proportional to frequency. A lower value gives a faster startup time, but the specification is usually not important in microprocessor applications.
- Shunt Capacitance — A lower value reduces ESR, but typical values such as 7 pF will work fine.
- Drive Level — Specifies the maximum power dissipation for which the manufacturer calibrated the crystal. It is proportional to ESR, frequency, load and  $V_{cc}$ . Disregard this

specification unless you use a third overtone crystal, whose ESR and frequency will be relatively high. Several crystal manufacturers stock a standard microprocessor crystal line. Specifying a “microprocessor grade” crystal should ensure the rated drive level is a couple of milliwatts with 5-Volt operation.

- **Temperature Range** — Specifies an operating range over which the frequency will not vary beyond a stated limit. Specify the temperature range to match the microprocessor temperature range.
- **Tolerance** — The allowable frequency deviation at a particular calibration temperature, usually 25 degrees C. Quartz crystals are more accurate than microprocessor applications call for; do not pay for a tighter specification than you need. Vendors quote frequency tolerance in percent or parts per million (ppm). Standard microprocessor crystals typically have a frequency tolerance of 0.01% (100 ppm). If you use these crystals, you can usually disregard all the other specifications; these crystals are ideal for the 80C186 Modular Core family.

An important consideration when using crystals is that the oscillator **start** correctly over the voltage and temperature ranges expected in operation. Observe oscillator startup in the laboratory. Varying the load capacitors (within about  $\pm 50$  percent) can optimize startup characteristics versus stability. In your experiments, consider stray capacitance and scope loading effects.

For help in selecting external oscillator components for unusual circumstances, count on the crystal manufacturer as your best resource. Using low cost ceramic resonators in place of crystals is possible if your application will tolerate less precise frequencies.

### 5.1.2. USING AN EXTERNAL OSCILLATOR

The microprocessor’s on-board clock oscillator allows the use of a relatively low cost crystal. However, the designer may also use a “canned oscillator” or other external frequency source. Connect the external frequency input (EFI) signal directly to the oscillator CLKIN input. Leave OSCOUT unconnected. This oscillator input drives the internal divide-by-two counter directly, generating the CPU clock signals. The external frequency input can have practically any duty cycle, provided it meets the minimum high and low times as stated in the data sheet. Selecting an external clock oscillator is more straightforward than selecting a crystal.

### 5.1.3. OUTPUT FROM THE CLOCK GENERATOR

The crystal oscillator output drives a divide-by-two circuit, generating a 50 percent duty cycle clock for the processor’s integrated components. All processor timings refer to this clock, available externally at the CLKOUT pin. CLKOUT changes state on the high-to-low transition of the CLKIN signal, even during reset and bus hold. CLKOUT is also available during Idle Mode but not during Powerdown Mode (see Sections 5.2.2 and 5.2.3).

In a CMOS circuit, significant current only flows during logic level transitions. Since the microprocessor consists mostly of clocked circuitry, the clock distribution is the basis of power management.

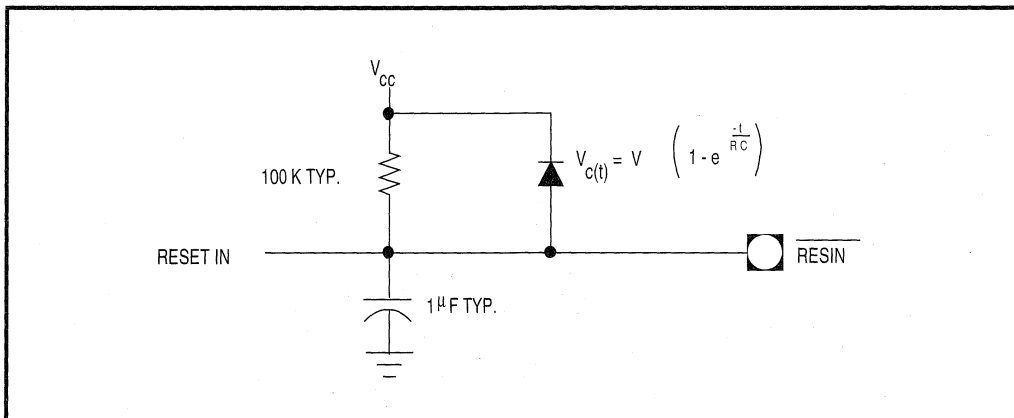
### 5.1.4. RESET AND CLOCK SYNCHRONIZATION

The clock generator provides a system reset signal (RESOUT). The  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  input generates RESOUT and the clock generator synchronizes it to the CLKOUT signal.

A Schmitt trigger in the  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  input ensures that the switch point for a low-to-high transition is greater than the switch point for a high-to-low transition. The processor must remain in reset a minimum of four CLKOUT cycles after  $V_{CC}$  and CLKOUT stabilize. The hysteresis allows a simple RC circuit to drive the  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  input (see Figure 5.5). Typical applications can use about 100 ms. as an RC time constant.

Reset may be either cold (power-up) or warm. Figure 5.6 illustrates a cold reset. Assert the  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  input during power supply and oscillator startup. The processor's pins assume their reset pin states a maximum of 28 CLKIN periods after CLKIN and  $V_{CC}$  stabilize. Assert  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  four additional CLKIN periods after the device pins assume their reset states.

Applying  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  when the device is running constitutes a warm reset (see Figure 5.7). In this case, assert  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  at least 4 CLKOUT periods. The device pins will assume their reset states on the second falling CLKIN edge following the assertion of  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$ .



**Figure 5.5. RC Circuit for  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  Input**

The processor exits reset identically in both cases. The rising  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  edge generates an internal RESYNC pulse (see Figure 5.8), resynchronizing the divide-by-two internal phase clock. The clock generator samples  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  on the falling CLKIN edge. If  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  is sampled high while CLKOUT is high, the processor forces CLKOUT low for the next two CLKIN cycles. The clock essentially “skips a beat” to synchronize the internal phases. If  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  is sampled high while CLKOUT is low, CLKOUT is already in phase.

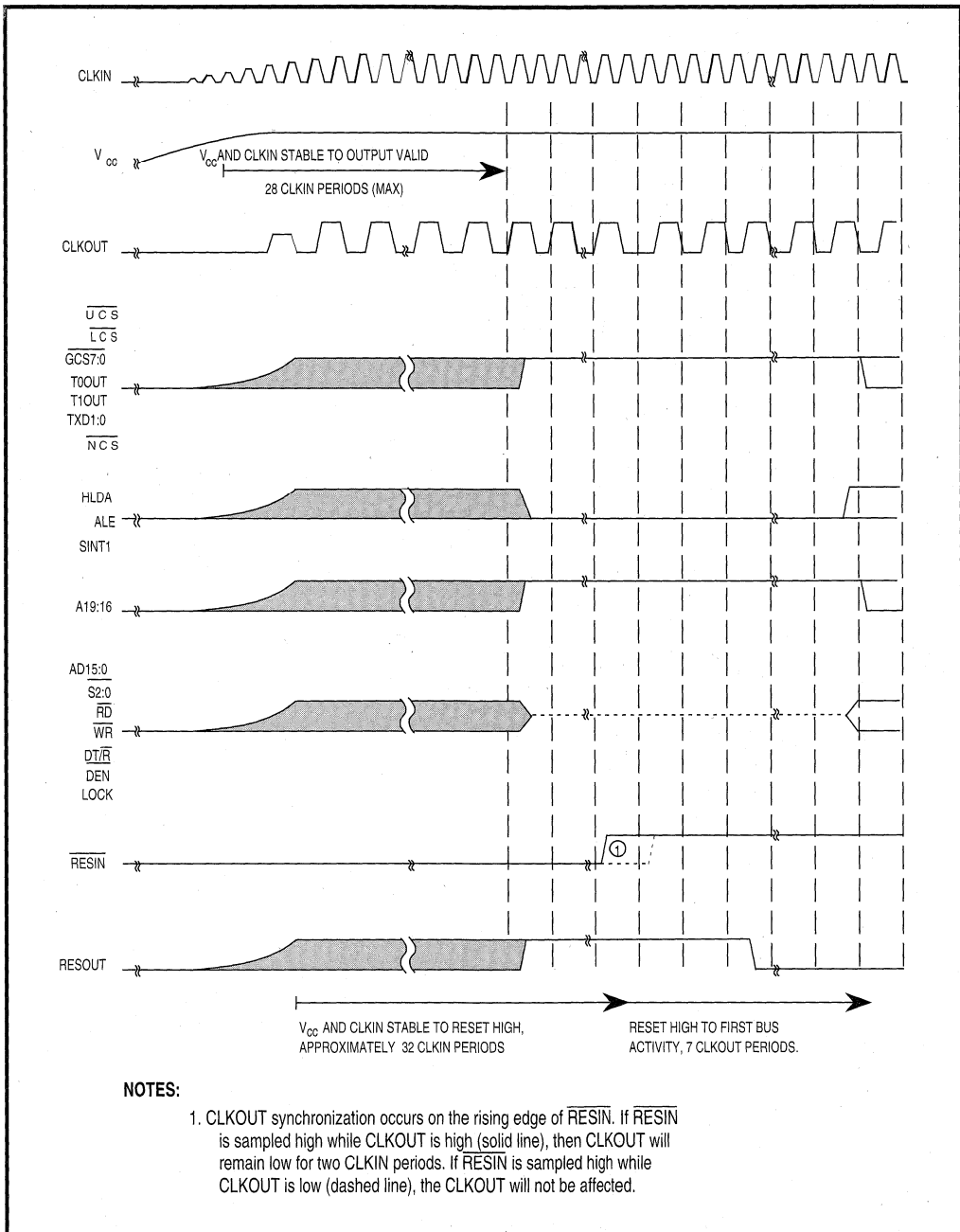


Figure 5.6. Cold Reset Waveform

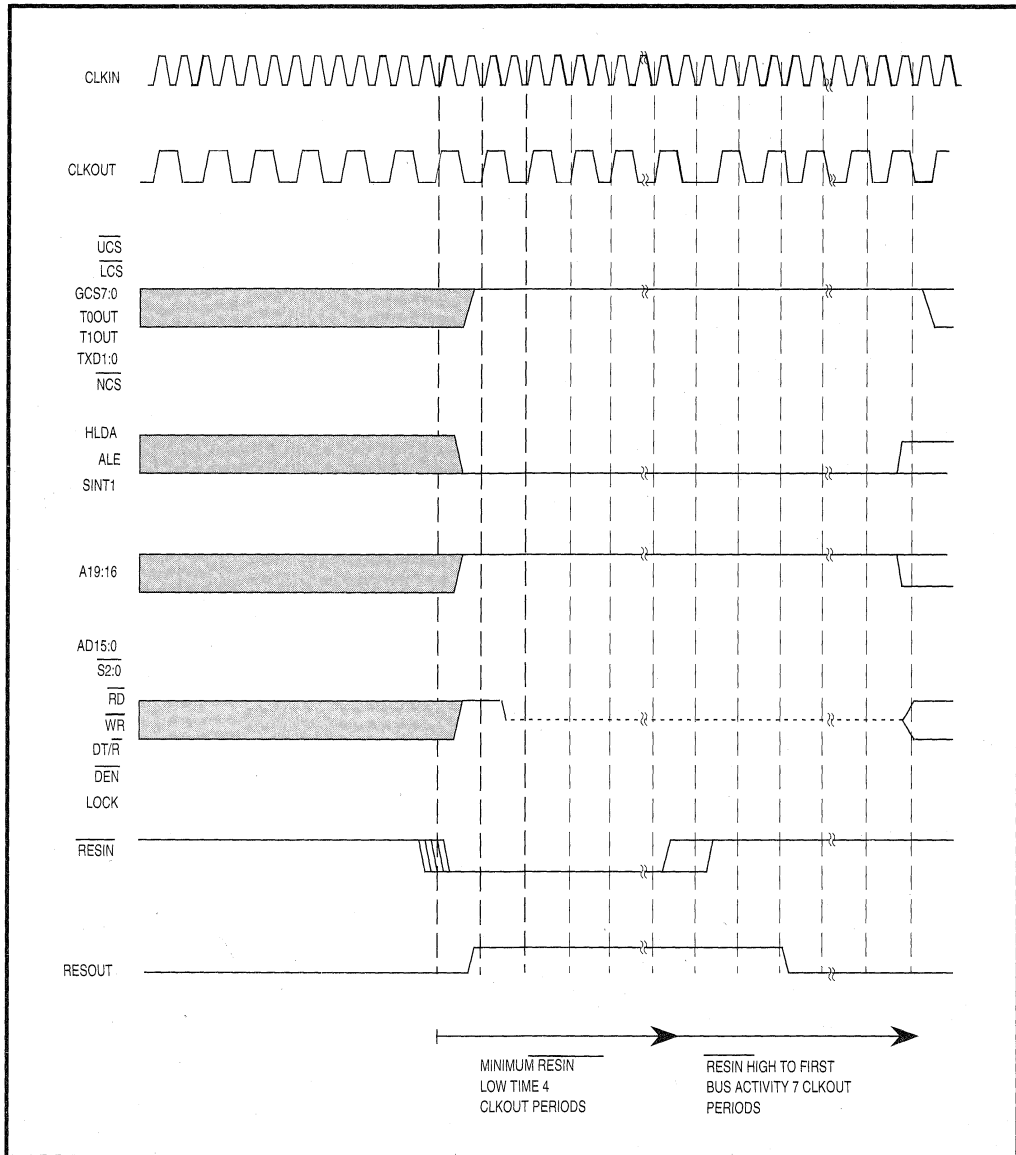


Figure 5.7. Warm Reset Waveform

At the second falling CLKOUT edge after the internal clocks resynchronize, the processor asserts RESOUT. Bus activity starts seven CLKOUT periods after recognition of RESIN in the logic high state. If an alternate bus master asserts HOLD during RESET, the processor immediately asserts HLDA and will not prefetch instructions.



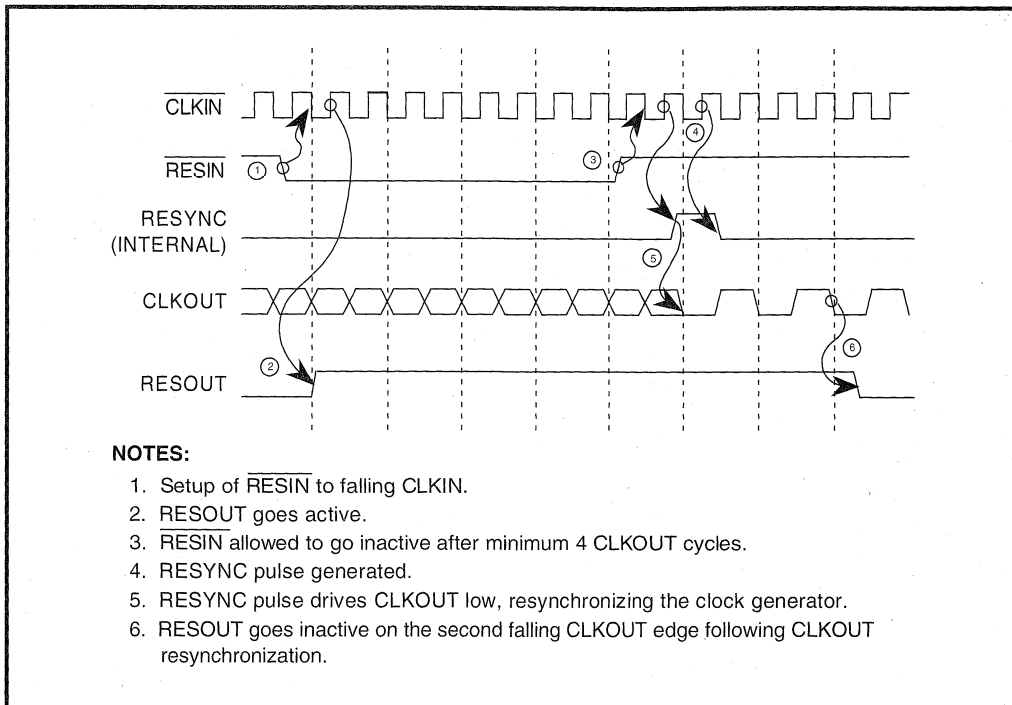


Figure 5.8. Clock Synchronization at Reset

## 5.2. POWER MANAGEMENT

Many VLSI devices available today use dynamic circuitry. A dynamic circuit uses a capacitor (usually parasitic gate or diffusion capacitance) to store information. The stored charge decays over time due to leakage currents in the silicon. If the device does not use the stored information before it decays, the state of the entire device may be lost. Circuits must periodically refresh dynamic RAMs, for example, to ensure data retention. Any microprocessor which has a minimum clock frequency has dynamic logic. On a dynamic microprocessor, if you stop or slow the clock, the dynamic nodes within it begin discharging. With a long enough delay, the processor is likely to lose its present state, needing reset to resume normal operation.

An 80C186 Modular Core microprocessor is fully **static**. The CPU stores its current state in flip-flops, not capacitive nodes. The clock signal to both the CPU core and the peripherals can stop without losing any internal information, provided the design maintains power. When the clock restarts, the device will execute from its previous state. When the processor is inactive for significant periods, special power management hardware takes advantage of static operation to achieve major power savings.

### 5.2.1. OPERATIONAL MODES

There are three power management modes: Idle, Powerdown and Power-Save. Power-Save Mode is a clock generation function, while Idle and Powerdown Modes are clock distribution functions. For this discussion, Active Mode is the condition of no programmed power management. Active Mode operation feeds the clock signal to the CPU core and all the integrated peripherals and power consumption reaches its maximum for the application. The processor defaults to Active Mode at reset.

### 5.2.2. IDLE MODE

During Idle Mode operation the clock signal is routed only to the integrated peripheral devices. CLKOUT continues toggling. The clocks to the CPU core (Execution and Bus Interface Units) freeze in a logic low state. Idle Mode reduces current consumption about a third, depending on the activity in the peripheral units.

#### 5.2.2.1. ENTERING IDLE MODE

Setting the appropriate bit in the Power Control Register prepares for Idle Mode (see Figure 5.9). The processor enters Idle Mode when it executes the HLT (halt) instruction. If the program arms both Idle Mode and Powerdown Mode by mistake, the device halts but remains in Active Mode. See *Bus Interface Unit* for detailed information on HLT bus cycles. Figure 5.10 shows some internal and external waveforms during entry into Idle Mode.

#### 5.2.2.2. BUS OPERATION DURING IDLE MODE

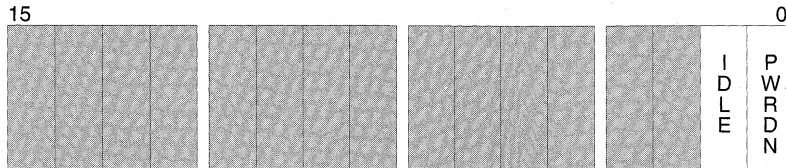
DMA requests, refresh requests and HOLD requests temporarily turn on the core clocks.

If the processor needs to run a DMA cycle during Idle Mode, the internal core clock begins to toggle on the falling CLKOUT edge three clocks after the processor samples the DMA request pin. After one idle T-state, the processor runs the DMA cycle. The BIU uses the ready, wait state generation and chip-select circuitry as necessary for DMA cycles during Idle Mode. There is one idle T-state after  $T_4$  before the internal core clock shuts off again.

If the processor needs to run a refresh cycle during Idle Mode, the internal core clock begins to toggle on the falling CLKOUT edge immediately after the down-counter reaches zero. After one idle T-state, the processor runs the refresh cycle. As with all other bus cycles, the BIU uses the ready, wait state generation and chip-select circuitry as necessary for refresh cycles during Idle Mode. There is one idle T-state after  $T_4$  before the internal core clock shuts off again.

A HOLD request from an external bus master turns on the core clock as long as HOLD is active (see Figure 5.11). The core clock restarts one CLKOUT cycle after the bus processor samples HOLD high. The microprocessor asserts HLDA one cycle after the core clock starts.

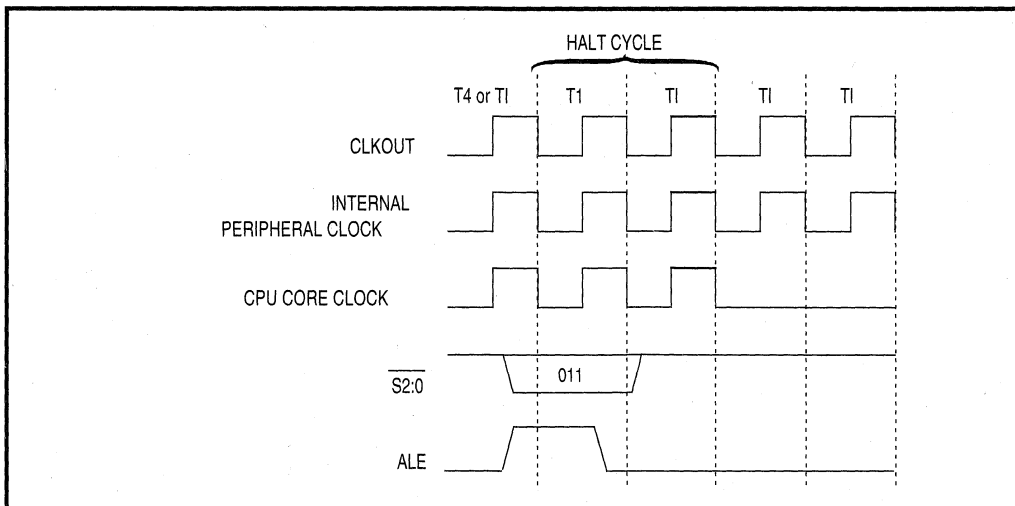
**Register Name:** Power Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PWRCON  
**Register Function:** Arms power management functions.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
IDLE	<i>Idle Mode</i>	0	Setting the IDLE bit forces the CPU to enter the Idle mode when the HLT instruction is executed. The PWRDN bit must be cleared when setting the IDLE bit, otherwise Idle mode is not armed.
PWRDN	<i>Powerdown Mode</i>	0	Setting the PWRDN bit forces the CPU to enter the Powerdown mode when the next HLT instruction is executed. The IDLE bit must be cleared when setting the PWRDN bit, otherwise Powerdown mode is not armed.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 5.9. Power Control Register**



**Figure 5.10. Entering Idle Mode**

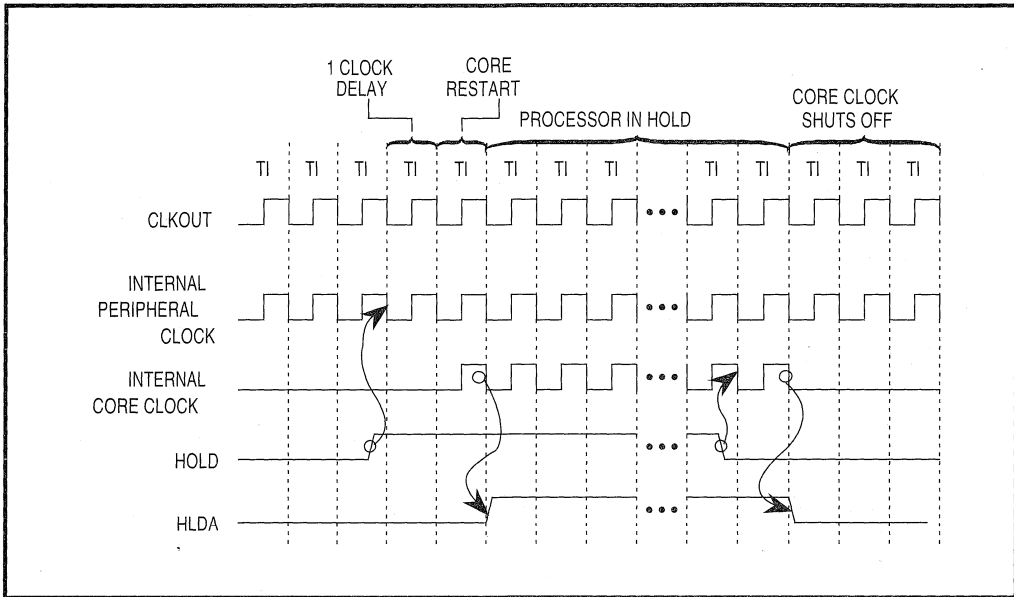


Figure 5.11. HOLD/HLDA During Idle Mode

The core clock turns off and the processor deasserts HLDA one cycle after the external bus master deasserts HOLD.

As in Active Mode, refresh requests will force the BIU to drop HLDA during bus hold. Section 7.8 contains more information on refresh cycles during hold. Refresh requests will also correctly break into sequences of back-to-back DMA cycles.

### 5.2.2.3. LEAVING IDLE MODE

Any unmasked interrupt or non-maskable interrupt (NMI) will return the processor to Active Mode. Reset also returns the processor to Active Mode, but the device loses its prior state.

Any **unmasked** interrupt received by the core will return the processor to Active Mode. Interrupt requests pass through the Interrupt Control Unit with an interrupt resolution time for mask and priority level checking. Then, after 1-1/2 clocks, the core clock begins toggling. It takes another six CLKOUT cycles for the core to begin the interrupt vectoring sequence.

After execution of the IRET (interrupt return) instruction in the interrupt service routine, the CS:IP will point to the instruction following the HALT. Interrupt execution does not modify the Power Control Register. Unless the programmer intentionally reprograms the register after exiting Idle Mode the processor will re-enter Idle Mode at the next HLT instruction.

Like an unmasked interrupt, an NMI will return the core to Active Mode from Idle Mode. It takes two CLKOUT cycles to restart the core clock after an NMI occurs. The NMI signal does not need the mask and priority checks that a maskable interrupt does. This results in a considerable difference in clock restart time between an NMI and an unmasked interrupt. The core begins the interrupt response six cycles after the core clock re-starts when it fetches the NMI vector from location 00008H. NMI does not clear the IDLE bit in the Power Control Register.

Resetting the microprocessor will return the device to Active Mode. Reset clears the Power Control Register, unlike the interrupt case. Execution begins as it would following a warm reset (see Section 5.1.4).

#### 5.2.2.4. EXAMPLE IDLE MODE INITIALIZATION CODE

Example 5.1 illustrates programming the Power Control Register and entering Idle Mode upon HLT. The interrupts from the serial port and timers are not masked. Assume that the serial port connects to a keyboard controller. At every keystroke, the keyboard sends a data byte and the processor wakes up to service the interrupt. After acting on the keystroke, the core will go back into Idle Mode. The example excludes the actual keystroke processing.

```

$mod186
name                example_80C186_power_management_code

;FUNCTION:  This function reduces CPU power consumption.
; SYNTAX:   extern void far power_mgt(int mode);
; INPUTS:  mode - 00 -> Active Mode
;           01 -> Powerdown Mode
;           02 -> Idle Mode
;           03 -> Active Mode
; OUTPUTS:  None
; NOTE:    Parameters are passed on the stack as required
;           by high-level languages

PWRCON            equ    xxxxH                ;substitute PWRCON register
                                                ;offset

lib_80C186        segment public 'code'
                  assume cs:lib_80C186

                  public      _power_mgt
_power_mgt        proc far

                  push  bp                    ;save caller's bp
                  mov   bp, sp                ;get current top of stack

```

**Example 5.1. Idle or Powerdown Mode Initialization Code**

```

        push  ax                ;save registers that will
        push  dx                ;be modified

_mode   equ    word ptr[bp+6]   ;get parameter off the
                                   ;stack
        mov   dx, PWRCON        ;select Power Control Reg
        mov   ax, _mode         ;get mode
        and  ax, 3              ;mask off unwanted bits
        out  dx, ax
        hlt                    ;enter mode
        pop  dx                 ;restore saved registers
        pop  ax
        pop  bp                 ;restore caller's bp

        ret
_power_mgt  endp

lib_80C186  ends
            end

```

### Example 5.1. Idle or Powerdown Mode Initialization Code (Continued)

#### 5.2.3. POWERDOWN MODE

Powerdown Mode freezes the clock to the entire device (core and peripherals) and disables the crystal oscillator. All internal devices (registers, state machines, etc.) maintain their state as long as  $V_{cc}$  is applied. The BIU will not honor DMA, DRAM refresh and HOLD requests in Powerdown Mode because the clocks for those functions are off. CLKOUT freezes in a logic high state. Current consumption in Powerdown Mode consists of just transistor leakage (typically less than 100 microamps).

##### 5.2.3.1. ENTERING POWERDOWN MODE

Powerdown Mode is entered by executing the HLT instruction after setting the PWRDN bit in the Power Control Register. The HLT cycle turns off both the core and peripheral clocks and disables the crystal oscillator. See Chapter 3 for detailed information on HLT bus cycles. Figure 5.12 shows the internal and external waveforms during entry into Powerdown Mode.

During the  $T_2$  phase of the HLT instruction, the core generates a signal called ENTER\_POWERDOWN. ENTER\_POWERDOWN immediately disables the internal CPU core and peripheral clocks. The processor disables the oscillator inverter during the next CLKOUT cycle. If the design uses a crystal oscillator, the oscillator stops immediately. When CLKIN originates from an external frequency input (EFI), Powerdown isolates the signal on the CLKIN pin from the internal circuitry. Therefore, the circuit may drive CLKIN during Powerdown Mode although it will not clock the device.

5.2.3.2. LEAVING POWERDOWN MODE

An NMI, unmasked interrupt, or reset returns the processor to Active Mode. Unlike other 80C186 Modular Core family members, the processor does not have clocked logic in the Interrupt Control Unit.

If the device leaves Powerdown Mode via NMI or unmasked interrupt, a delay must follow the interrupt request to allow the crystal oscillator to stabilize before gating it to the internal phase clocks. An external timing pin sets this delay as described below. Leaving Powerdown via an unmasked interrupt or NMI does not clear the PWRDN bit in the Power Control Register. A reset also takes the processor out of Powerdown Mode. Since the oscillator is off, the user should follow the oscillator cold start guidelines (see Section 5.1.4).

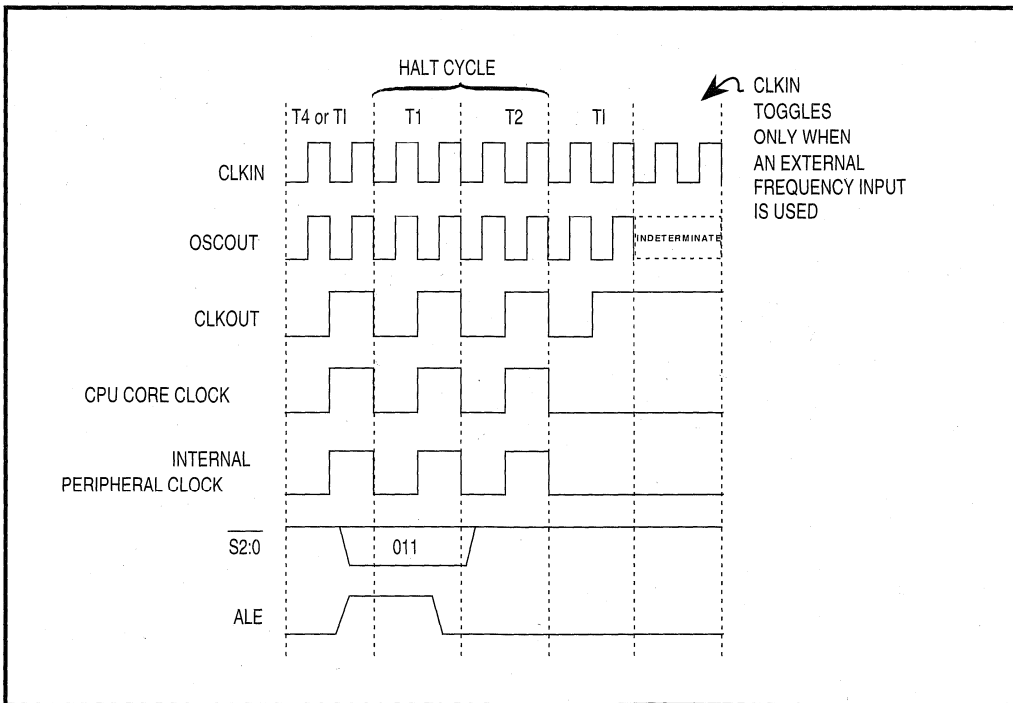
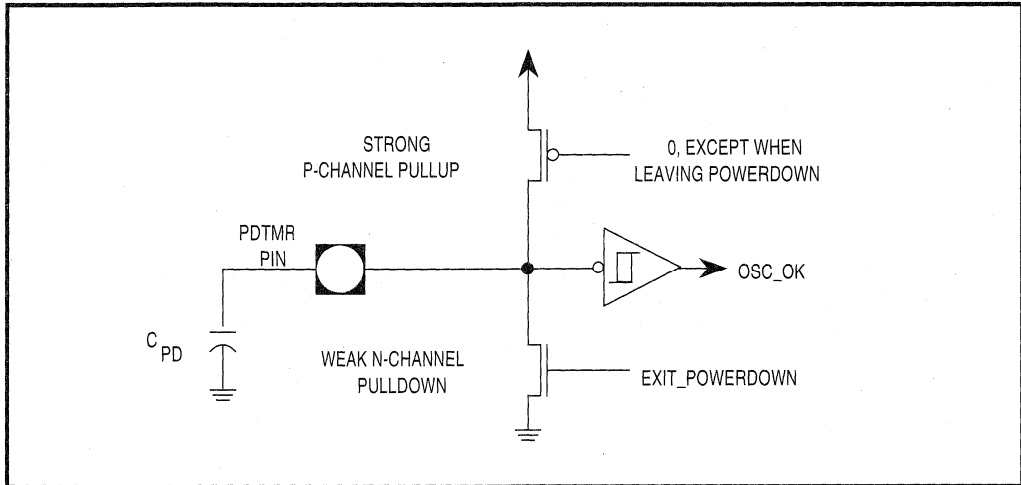


Figure 5.12. Entering Powerdown Mode

The Powerdown timer circuit has a PDTMR pin (see Figure 5.13). Connecting this pin to an external capacitor gives the user control over the gating of the crystal oscillator to the internal clocks. The strong P-channel device is always on except during exit from Powerdown Mode. This pullup keeps the powerdown capacitor  $C_{PD}$  charged up to  $V_{CC}$ . When the processor detects an interrupt or NMI, the weak N-channel device turns on and the P-channel turns off.  $C_{PD}$  discharges slowly. At the same time, the circuit turns on the feedback inverter on the crystal oscillator and oscillation starts.

The Schmitt trigger connected to the PDTMR pin asserts the internal OSC\_OK signal when the voltage at the pin drops below its switching threshold. The OSC\_OK signal gates the crystal oscillator output to the internal clock circuitry. One CLKOUT cycle runs before the internal clocks turn back on. It takes two additional CLKOUT cycles before an NMI request reaches the CPU, with the vector fetched another six clocks later. An unmasked interrupt request reaches the CPU two clocks after the Interrupt Control Unit resolution time, and the first  $\overline{INTA}$  cycle starts six clocks later.



**Figure 5.13. Powerdown Timer Circuit**

The first step in determining the proper  $C_{PD}$  value is startup time characterization for crystal oscillator circuit. This step can be done with a storage oscilloscope if you compensate for scope probe loading effects. Characterize startup over the full range of operating voltages and temperatures. The oscillator starts up on the order of a couple of milliseconds. After determining the oscillator startup time, refer to “PDTMR Pin Delay Calculation” in the data sheet. Multiply the startup time (in seconds) by the given constant to get the  $C_{PD}$  value. Typical values are less than 1 $\mu$ F.

If the design uses an external oscillator instead of a crystal, the external oscillator continues running during Powerdown Mode. Leave the PDTMR pin unconnected and the processor can exit Powerdown Mode immediately.

#### 5.2.4. POWER-SAVE MODE

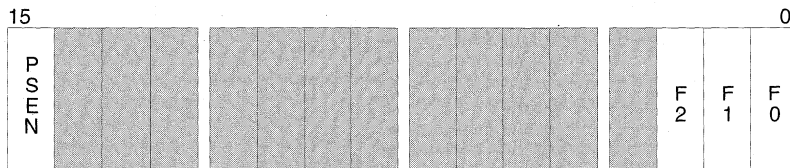
In addition to Idle and Powerdown Modes, Power-Save Mode is another means to reduce operating current. Power-Save Mode enables a programmable clock divider in the clock generation circuit. This divider operates in addition to the divide-by-two counter mentioned in Section 5.1.



Possible clock divisor settings are 1, 4, 8, 16, 32 and 64 (1 has no effect). The divided frequency feeds the core, the integrated peripherals and CLKOUT. The processor operates at the divided clock rate exactly as if the crystal or external oscillator frequency were lower by the same amount. Since the processor is static, a lower limit clock frequency does not apply.

The advantage of Power-Save Mode over Idle and Powerdown Modes is that operation of both the core and the integrated peripherals can continue. However, it may be necessary to reprogram units such as the Timer Counter Unit and the Refresh Control Unit to compensate for the overall reduced clock rate.

**Register Name:** Power Save Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PWRSV  
**Register Function:** Enables and sets clock division factor.



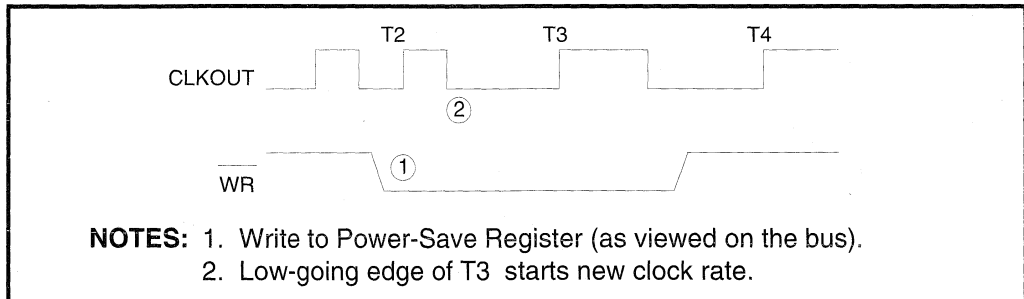
BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION																																				
PSEN	<i>Power Save Enable</i>	0	Setting this bit enables Power Save Mode and divides the internal operating clock by the value defined by F2:0. This bit is cleared to disable Power-Save mode and force the CPU to operate at full speed. PSEN is automatically cleared whenever an interrupt occurs.																																				
F2:0	<i>Clock Division Factor</i>	0H	<p>These bits control the clock division factor used when Power Save mode is enabled. The allowable values are listed below:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>F2</th> <th>F1</th> <th>F0</th> <th>Divisor</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>By 1</td> </tr> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>1</td> <td>By 4</td> </tr> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>1</td> <td>0</td> <td>By 8</td> </tr> <tr> <td>0</td> <td>1</td> <td>1</td> <td>By 16</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>0</td> <td>0</td> <td>By 32</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>0</td> <td>1</td> <td>By 64</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>1</td> <td>0</td> <td>Reserved</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>1</td> <td>1</td> <td>Reserved</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	F2	F1	F0	Divisor	0	0	0	By 1	0	0	1	By 4	0	1	0	By 8	0	1	1	By 16	1	0	0	By 32	1	0	1	By 64	1	1	0	Reserved	1	1	1	Reserved
F2	F1	F0	Divisor																																				
0	0	0	By 1																																				
0	0	1	By 4																																				
0	1	0	By 8																																				
0	1	1	By 16																																				
1	0	0	By 32																																				
1	0	1	By 64																																				
1	1	0	Reserved																																				
1	1	1	Reserved																																				

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 5.14. Power-Save Register**

### 5.2.4.1. ENTERING POWER-SAVE MODE

The Power-Save Register (see Figure 5.14) controls Power-Save Mode operation. The lower two bits select the divisor. When program execution sets the PSEN bit, the processor enters Power-Save Mode. The internal clock frequency changes at the falling edge of  $T_3$  of the write to the Power-Save Register. CLKOUT changes simultaneously and does not glitch. Figure 5.15 illustrates the change at CLKOUT.



**Figure 5.15. Power-Save Clock Transition**

### 5.2.4.2. LEAVING POWER-SAVE MODE

Power-Save Mode continues until one of three events: execution clears the PSEN bit in the Power-Save Register, an unmasked interrupt occurs or an NMI occurs.

When the PSEN bit clears, the clock returns to its undivided frequency (standard divide-by-two) at the falling  $T_3$  edge of the write to the Power-Save Register. The same result happens from reprogramming the clock divisor to a new value. The Power-Save Register can be read or written at any time.

Unmasked interrupts include those from the Interrupt Control Unit but not software interrupts. If an NMI occurs, or an unmasked interrupt request has sufficient priority to pass to the core, Power-Save Mode will end. The PSEN bit clears and the clock resumes full speed operation at the falling edge of a bus cycle  $T_3$  state. However, the exact bus cycle of the transition is undefined. The Return from Interrupt instruction (IRET) does not automatically set the PSEN bit again. If you still want Power-Save Mode operation, you can set the PSEN bit as part of the interrupt service routine.

### 5.2.4.3. EXAMPLE POWER-SAVE INITIALIZATION CODE

Example 5.2 illustrates programming the Power-Save Unit for a typical system. The program also includes code to change the DRAM refresh rate to compensate for the reduced clock rate.

### 5.2.5. IMPLEMENTING A POWER MANAGEMENT SCHEME

Table 5.2 summarizes the power management options available to the user. With three ways available to reduce power, here are some guidelines:

- Powerdown Mode reduces power consumption by several orders of magnitude. If the application goes in and out of Powerdown frequently, the power reduction can probably offset the relatively long intervals spent leaving Powerdown Mode.
- If background CPU tasks are usually necessary and the overhead of reprogramming peripherals is not severe, Power-Save Mode can “tune” the clock rate to the best value. Remember that current varies linearly with respect to frequency.
- Idle Mode fits DMA-intensive and interrupt-intensive (as opposed to CPU-intensive) applications perfectly.

The processor can operate in Power-Save Mode and Idle Mode concurrently. With Idle Mode alone, rated power consumption typically drops a third or more. Power-Save Mode multiplies that reduction further according to the selected clock divisor.

Overall power consumption has two parts: switching power dissipated by driving loads such as the address/data bus and device power dissipated internally by the microprocessor whether or not connected to external devices. A power management scheme should consider loading as well as the raw specifications in the processor's data sheet.

**Table 5.2. Summary of Power Management Modes**

MODE	RELATIVE POWER	TYPICAL POWER	USER OVERHEAD	CHIEF ADVANTAGE
Active	Full	250 mW @ 16 MHz	-----	Full Speed Operation
Idle	Low	175 mW @ 16 MHz	Low	Peripherals Unaffected
Power-Save	Adjustable	125 mW @ 16/2 MHz	Moderate to High	Code Execution Continues
Powerdown	Lowest	250 $\mu$ W	Low to Moderate	Long Battery Life

```

$mod186
name                example_PSU_code

;FUNCTION:  This function reduces CPU power consumption
;           by dividing the CPU operating frequency by a
;           divisor.
; SYNTAX:   extern void far power_save(int divisor);
; INPUTS:   divisor - This variable represents F0, F1 and F2
;           of PWRSAV.
; OUTPUTS:  None
; NOTE:     Parameters are passed on the stack as required
;           by high-level languages

PWRSAV      equ    xxxxH           ;substitute register offset
RFTIME      equ    xxxxH           ;Power-Save Register
RFCON       equ    xxxxH           ;Refresh Interval Count
PSEN        equ    8000H          ;Register
                                           ;Refresh Control Register
                                           ;Power-Save enable bit

data        segment public 'data'
FreqTable  dw    1, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 0, 0
data        ends

lib_80C186  segment public 'code'
            assume cs:lib_80C186, ds:data

            public _power_save
_power_save proc far

            push  bp                ;save caller's bp
            mov   bp, sp            ;get current top of stack
            push  ax                ;save registers that will
            push  dx                ;be modified

_divisor    equ    word ptr[bp+6]   ;get parameter off the
                                           ;stack

            mov   dx, RFCON          ;get current DRAM refresh
            in   ax, dx              ;rate
            and   ax, 01ffh         ;mask off unwanted bits

            div   FreqTable[_divisor] ;divide refresh rate
                                           ;by _divisor

```

**Example 5.2. Power-Save Initialization Code**

```
mov    dx, RFTIME           ;set new refresh rate
out    dx, ax
mov    dx, PWRSV           ;select Power-Save Register
mov    ax, _divisor        ;get divisor
and    ax, 7               ;mask off unwanted bits
or     ax, PSEN            ;set enable bit
out    dx, ax              ;divide frequency
pop    dx                  ;restore saved registers
pop    ax
pop    bp                  ;restore caller's bp
ret
_power_save endp

lib_80C186 ends
end
```

**Example 5.2. Power-Save Initialization Code (Continued)**



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## *Chip Select Unit*

**6**

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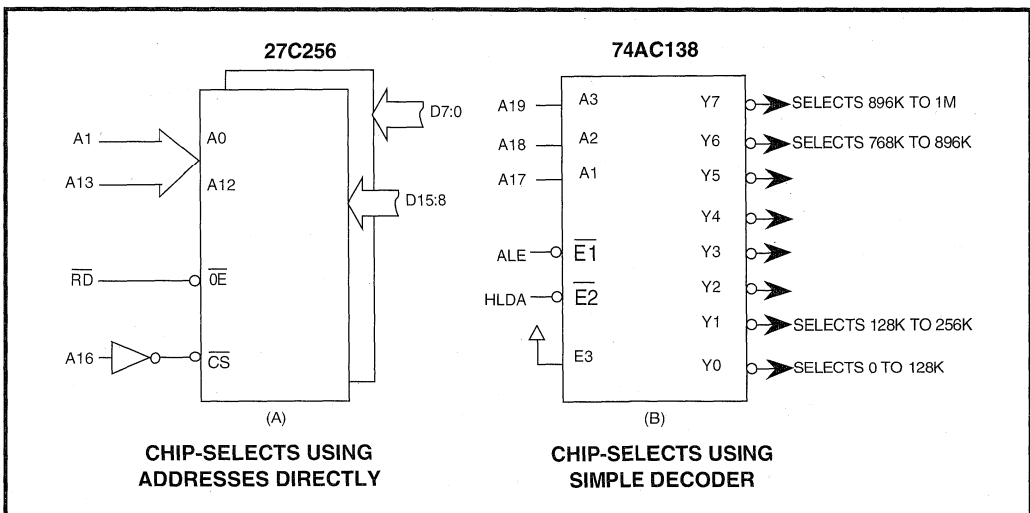


## CHAPTER 6 CHIP SELECT UNIT

Every system requires some form of component select mechanism so the CPU can access a specific memory or peripheral device. The signal selecting the memory or peripheral device is referred to as a chip-select. Besides selecting a specific device, each chip-select can be used to control the number of wait states inserted into the bus cycle. Devices too slow to keep up with the maximum bus bandwidth can use wait states to slow the bus down.

One method of generating chip-selects uses latched address signals directly. An example interface is shown in Figure 6.1 (A). In the example, an inverted A16 is connected to an SRAM device with an active low chip-select. Any bus cycle with an address between 10000H and 1FFFFH ( $A_{16} = 1$ ) enables the SRAM device. Also note that any bus cycle with an address starting at 3FFFFH, 5FFFFH, 7FFFFH and so on also selects the SRAM device.

Decoding more address bits solves the problem of a chip-select being active over multiple address ranges. In Figure 6.1 (B), a one-of-eight decoder is connected to the upper most address bits. Each of the eight decoded outputs are active for one-eighth of the 1 Mbyte address space. However, each chip-select has a fixed starting address and range. Future system memory changes may require circuit changes to accommodate the additional memory.

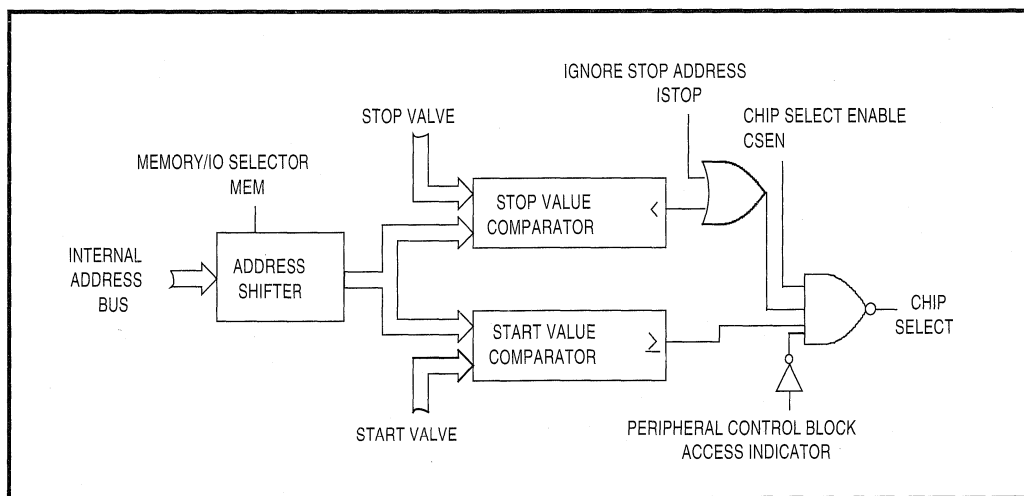


**Figure 6.1. Common Chip-Select Generation Methods**

The Chip-Select Unit overcomes limitations found in the above designs and has the following features:

- Ten chip-select outputs
- Programmable start and stop addresses
- Memory or I/O bus cycle decoder
- Programmable wait state generator
- Provision to disable a chip-select
- Provision to override bus ready

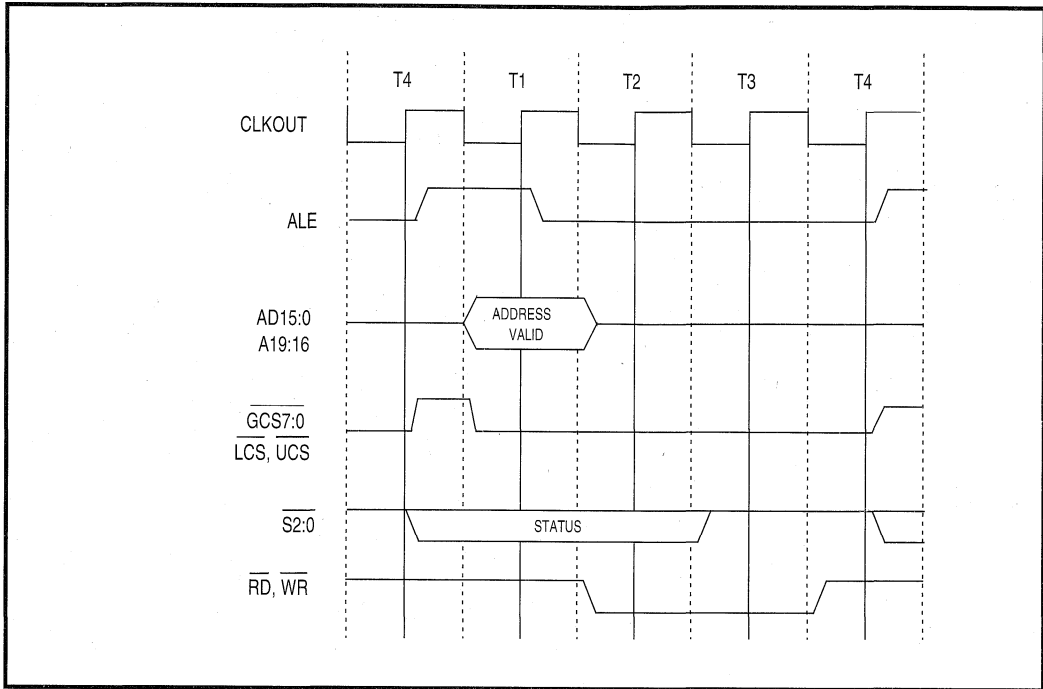
Figure 6.2 illustrates the logic blocks that generate a chip-select. Each chip-select has a duplicate set of logic as shown in Figure 6.2.



**Figure 6.2. Chip-Select Block Diagram**

## 6.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW

The Chip-Select Unit, abbreviated CSU, decodes bus cycle address and status information and enables the appropriate chip-select. Figure 6.3 illustrates the timing of a chip-select during a bus cycle. Note the chip-select goes active in the same bus state as address goes active, eliminating any delay through address latches and decoder circuits. The Chip Select Unit activates a chip-select for CPU, DMA Control Unit or Refresh Control Unit initiated bus cycles.



**Figure 6.3. Chip-Select Relative Timings**

Any of the ten chip-selects can map into memory or I/O address space. A memory-mapped chip-select can start and end on any 1 Kbyte address location. An I/O-mapped chip-select can start and end on any 64 byte address location. The chip-selects typically associate with memory and peripheral devices as follows:

- UCS** Mapped to the upper memory address space and selects the BOOT memory device (EPROM or FLASH memory types).
- LCS** Mapped to the lower memory address space and selects a static memory (SRAM) device that stores the interrupt vector table, local stack and data and scratch pad data.
- GCS7:0** Mapped to memory or I/O address space and selects additional SRAM memory, DRAM memory, local peripherals, system bus, etc.

A chip-select goes active when it meets **all** of the following criteria:

1. The chip-select is enabled.
2. The bus cycle status matches the programmed type (memory or I/O).
3. The bus cycle address is equal-to or greater than the start address value.
4. The bus cycle address is less than the stop address value or the the stop address is ignored.
5. The bus cycle is NOT accessing the Peripheral Control Block.

A memory address applies to memory read, memory write and instruction prefetch bus cycles. An I/O address applies to I/O read and I/O write bus cycles. Interrupt acknowledge and HALT bus cycles never activate a chip-select regardless of the address generated.

After power-on or system reset only the  $\overline{UCS}$  chip-select is initialized and active (see Figure 6.4).

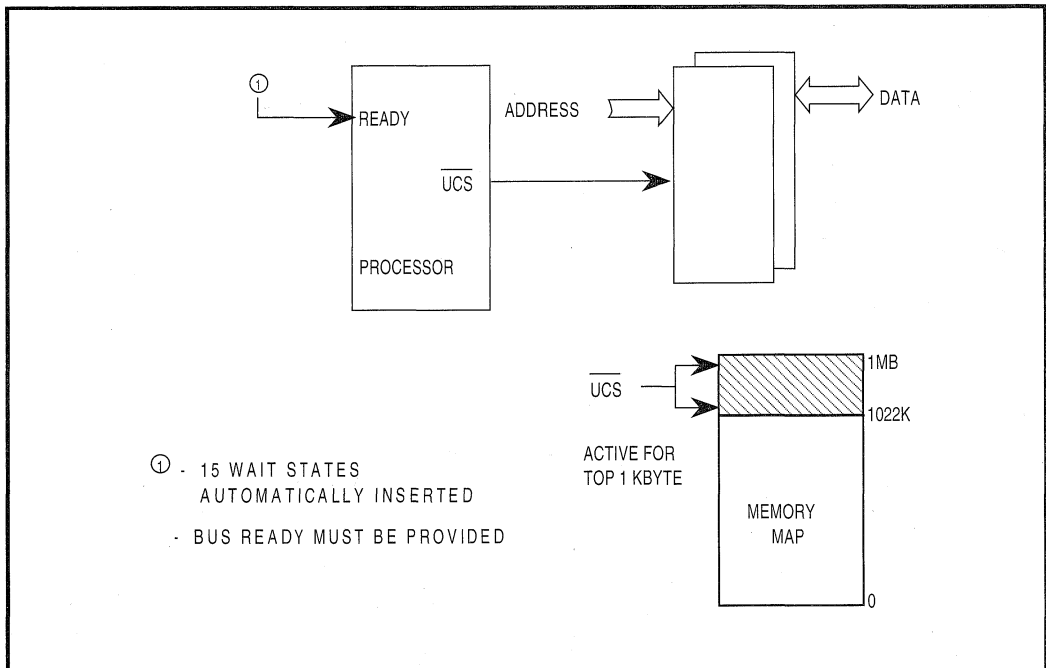


Figure 6.4.  $\overline{UCS}$  Reset Configuration

## 6.2. PROGRAMMING

Two registers, START and STOP, determine the operating characteristics of each chip-select. The Peripheral Control Block defines the location of the Chip-Select Unit registers. Table 6.1 lists each of the registers and their associated programming names.

**Table 6.1. Chip-Select Unit Registers**

<b>START Register Mnemonic</b>	<b>STOP Register Mnemonic</b>	<b>Chip-Select Affected</b>
GCS0ST	GCS0SP	$\overline{\text{GCS0}}$
GCS1ST	GCS1SP	$\overline{\text{GCS1}}$
GCS2ST	GCS2SP	$\overline{\text{GCS2}}$
GCS3ST	GCS3SP	$\overline{\text{GCS3}}$
GCS4ST	GCS4SP	$\overline{\text{GCS4}}$
GCS5ST	GCS5SP	$\overline{\text{GCS5}}$
GCS6ST	GCS6SP	$\overline{\text{GCS6}}$
GCS7ST	GCS7SP	$\overline{\text{GCS7}}$
UCSST	UCSSP	$\overline{\text{UCS}}$
LCSST	LCSSP	$\overline{\text{LCS}}$

The START register (see Figure 6.5) defines the starting address and the wait state requirements. The STOP register (see Figure 6.6) defines the ending address and the bus ready, bus cycle and enable requirements.

### 6.2.1. INITIALIZATION SEQUENCE

Chip-selects do not have to be initialized in any specific order. However, the following guidelines help prevent a system failure.

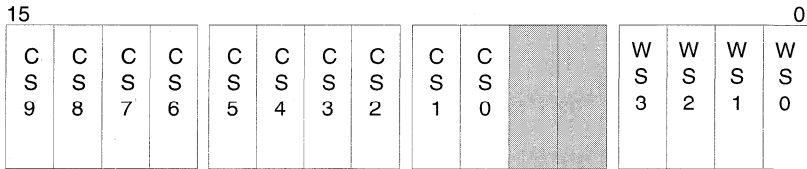
1. Initialize local memory chip-selects
2. Initialize local peripheral chip-selects
3. Perform local diagnostics
4. Initialize off-board memory and peripheral chip-selects
5. Complete system diagnostics

An unmasked interrupt or NMI must not occur until the interrupt vector addresses have been written to memory. Failure to prevent an interrupt from occurring during initialization will cause a system failure. Use external logic to generate the chip-select if interrupts cannot be masked prior to initialization.

The correct sequence to program a non-enabled chip-select would be as follows (reverse the sequence if the chip-select is already enabled or disable the chip-select before reprogramming it):

1. Program START Register
2. Program STOP Register

**Register Name:** Chip-Select Start Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** UCSST, LCSST, GCSxST (x=0-7)  
**Register Function:** Defines chip-select start address and number of bus wait states.

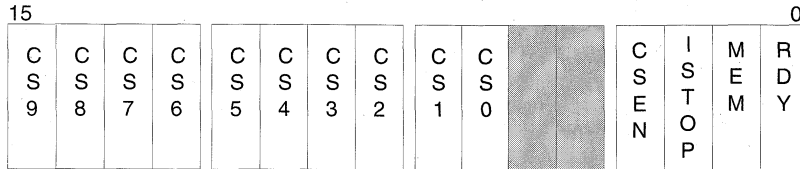


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
CS9:0	<i>Start Address</i>	3FFH	Defines the starting (base) address for the chip-select. CS9:0 are compared against the A19:10 (memory bus cycles) or A15:6 (I/O bus cycles) address bits. An equal to or greater than result enables the chip-select.
WS3:0	<i>Wait State Value</i>	0FH	WS3:0 defines the minimum number of wait states inserted into the bus cycle. A zero value means no wait states. Additional wait states can be inserted into the bus cycle using bus ready.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading and must contain a value of zero when writing this register (to ensure compatibility with future products).

**Figure 6.5. START Register Definition**

**Register Name:** Chip-Select Stop Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** UCSSP, LCSSP, GCSxSP (x=0-7)  
**Register Function:** Defines chip-select stop address and other control functions.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
CS9:0	<i>Stop Address</i>	3FFH	Defines the ending address for the chip-select. CS9:0 are compared against the A19:10 (memory bus cycles) or A15:6 (I/O bus cycles) address bits. An less than result enables the chip-select. CS9:0 are ignored if ISTOP is set.
CSEN	<i>Chip-Select Enable</i>	0 (note)	Disables the chip-select when cleared. Setting CSEN enables the chip-select.
ISTOP	<i>Ignore Stop Address</i>	0 (note)	Setting this bit disables stop address checking, which automatically sets the ending address at 0FFFFFFH (memory) or 0FFFFFFH (I/O). When ISTOP is cleared the stop address requirements must be met to enable the chip-select.
MEM	<i>Bus Cycle Selector</i>	1	When MEM is set, the chip-select goes active for memory bus cycles. Clearing MEM activates the chip-select for I/O bus cycles.  MEM defines which address bits are used by the start and stop address comparators. When MEM is cleared, address bits A15:6 are routed to the comparators. When MEM is set, address bits A19:10 are routed to the comparators.
RDY	<i>Bus Ready Enable</i>	1	Setting RDY requires that bus ready be active to complete a bus cycle. Bus ready is ignored when RDY is cleared. RDY must be set to extend wait states beyond the number determined by WS3:0.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading and must contain a value of zero when writing this register (to ensure compatibility with future products). CSEN and ISTOP have a reset state of 1 for the UCSSP register.

**Figure 6.6. STOP Register Definition**

### 6.2.2. START ADDRESS

The START register of each chip-select defines its starting (base) address. The start address value is compared to the ten most significant address bits of the bus cycle. A bus cycle whose ten most significant address bits are equal to or greater than the start address value causes the chip-select to go active. Table 6.2 defines the address bits compared against the start address value for memory and I/O bus cycles.

It is not possible to have a chip-select start on any arbitrary byte boundary. A chip-select configured for memory accesses can only start on multiples of 1 Kbyte. A chip-select configured for I/O accesses can only start on multiples of 64 bytes. The equations below calculate the physical start address for a given start address value.

For memory accesses:

$$\text{Start Value (Decimal)} * 1024 = \text{Physical Start Address (Decimal)}$$

For I/O accesses:

$$\text{Start Value (Decimal)} * 64 = \text{Physical Start Address (Decimal)}$$

**Table 6.2. Memory and I/O Compare Addresses**

Address Space	Address Range	Number Bits	Comparator Input	Resolution
Memory	1 Mbyte	20	A19-A10	1 Kbyte
I/O	64 Kbyte	16	A15-A6	64 Bytes

### 6.2.3. STOP ADDRESS

The STOP register of each chip-select defines its ending address. The stop address value is compared to the ten most significant address bits of the bus cycle. A bus cycle whose ten most significant bits of address are **less** than the stop address value causes the chip-select to go active. Table 6.2 defines the address bits compared against the stop address value for memory and I/O bus cycles.

It is not possible to have a chip-select end on any arbitrary byte boundary. A chip-select configured for memory accesses can only end on multiples of one Kbyte. A chip-select configured for I/O accesses can only end on multiples of 64 bytes. The equations below define the ending address for the chip-select.

For memory accesses:

$$(\text{Stop Value (Decimal)} * 1024) - 1 = \text{Physical Ending Address (Decimal)}$$

For I/O accesses:

$$(\text{Stop Value (Decimal)} * 64) - 1 = \text{Physical Ending Address (Decimal)}$$



In the previous equations, a stop value of 1023 (03FFH) results in a physical ending address of 0FFBFFH (memory) or 0FFBFH (I/O). These addresses do not represent the top of the memory or I/O address space. To have a chip-select enabled to the end of the physical address space the ISTOP control bit must be set. The ISTOP control bit overrides the stop address comparator output (see Figure 6.2).

#### 6.2.4. ENABLING/DISABLING CHIP SELECTS

The ability to enable or disable a chip-select is important when multiple memory devices share (or can share) the same physical address space. Examples of where two or more devices would occupy the same address space include shadowed memory, bank switching and paging.

The STOP register holds the CSEN control bit that determines if the chip select should go active. A chip-select never goes active if its CSEN control bit is cleared.

Chip-Selects can be disabled by programming the stop address value less than the start address value or by programming the start address value greater than the stop address value. However, the ISTOP control bit can not be set when disabling chip-selects in this manner.

#### 6.2.5. BUS WAIT STATE AND READY CONTROL

Normally the bus ready input must be inactive at the appropriate time to insert wait states into the bus cycle. The Chip-Select Unit can ignore the state of the bus ready input to extend and complete the bus cycle automatically. Most memory and peripheral devices operate properly using fifteen or less wait states. However, accessing such devices as a dual-port memory, an expansion bus interface, a system bus interface or remote peripheral devices can require more than fifteen wait states.

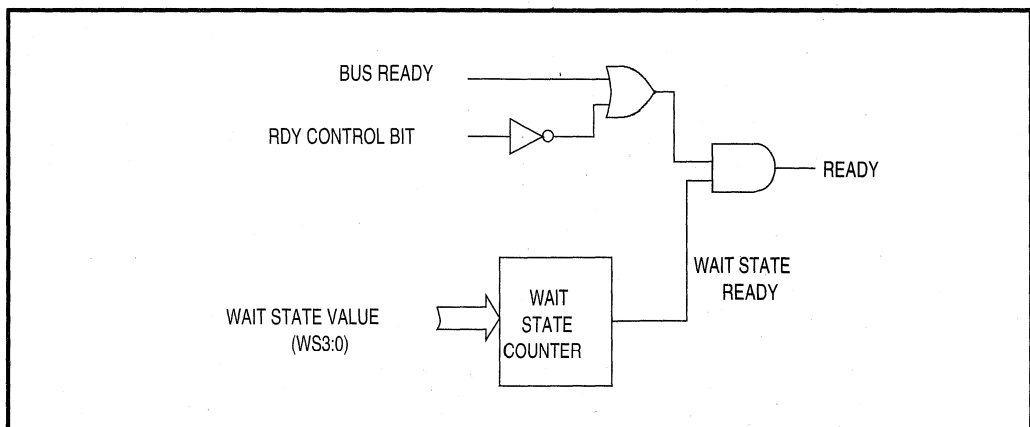


Figure 6.7. Wait State and Ready Control Functions

The START register holds a four bit value that defines the number of wait states to insert into the bus cycle. Figure 6.7 shows a simplified logic diagram of the wait state and ready control functions.

The STOP register defines the RDY control bit to extend bus cycles beyond fifteen wait states. The RDY control bit determines whether the bus cycle should complete normally (i.e., require bus ready) or unconditionally (i.e., ignore bus ready). Chip-selects connected to devices requiring fifteen wait states or less can program RDY inactive to automatically complete the bus cycle. Devices that may require more than fifteen wait states must program RDY active.

A bus cycle with wait states automatically inserted cannot be shortened. A bus cycle ignoring bus ready cannot be lengthened.

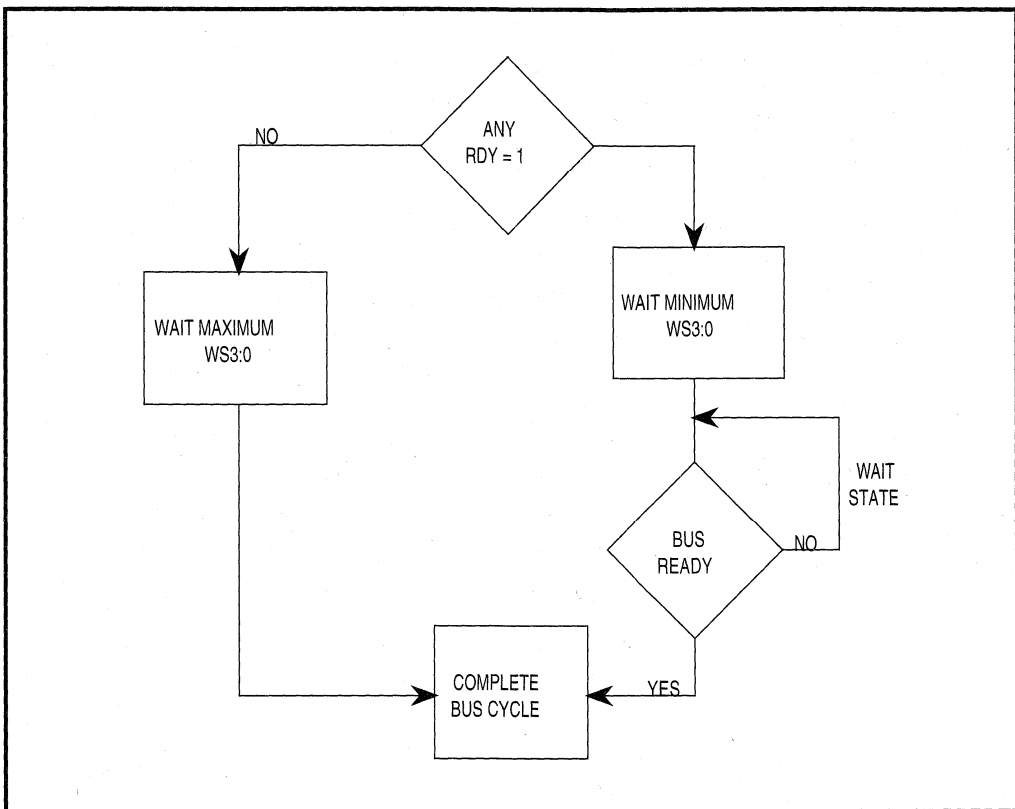
### 6.2.6. OVERLAPPING CHIP-SELECTS

The Chip-Select Unit activates all enabled chip-selects programmed to cover the same physical address space. This is true if any portion of the chip-selects address range overlap (i.e., chip-selects ranges do not need to completely overlap to all go active). There are various reasons for overlapping chip-selects. For example, overlapping a portion of read-only memory with read/write memory or copying data to two devices simultaneously.

If overlapping chip-selects do not have identical wait state and bus ready programming, the Chip-Select Unit will adjust itself based on the criteria shown in Figure 6.8.

As an example, consider that two chip-selects overlap and have the following programming scenarios:

- Case A – One chip select has three wait states and ignores bus ready, the other chip-select has nine wait states and ignores bus ready. An access to the overlapped region will have nine wait states and ignore bus ready.
- Case B – One chip select has five wait states and requires bus ready, the other chip select has no wait states and ignores bus ready. An access to the overlapped region will have no wait states and require external ready.
- Case C – Both chip selects have two wait states and require bus ready. An access to the overlapped region will have two wait states and require bus ready.



**Figure 6.8. Overlapping Chip-Selects**

Be cautious when overlapping chip selects with different wait state or bus ready programming. The following two conditions require special attention to ensure proper system operation:

1. When all overlapping chip-selects ignore bus ready but have different wait states, verify each chip-select still works properly using the highest wait state value. A system failure may result when the **required** number of wait states does not occur in the bus cycle.
2. If one or more of the overlapping chip-selects requires bus ready, verify the following:
  - A. All chip-selects that ignore bus ready work properly using the smallest wait state value.
  - B. All chip-selects that ignore bus ready work properly for the longest bus cycle possible.

A system failure may result when not enough or too many wait states occur in the bus cycle.

### 6.2.7. MEMORY OR I/O BUS CYCLE DECODING

The Chip-Select Unit decodes bus cycle status and address information to determine whether a chip-select goes active. The MEM control bit in the STOP register defines whether memory or I/O address space is decoded. Memory address space accesses consist of memory read, memory write and instruction prefetch bus cycles. I/O address space accesses consist of I/O read and I/O write bus cycles.

Chip-selects go active for CPU, DMA Control Unit and Refresh Control Unit initiated bus cycles.

### 6.2.8. PROGRAMMING CONSIDERATIONS

When programming chip-selects active for I/O bus cycles, remember that eight bytes of I/O are reserved by Intel. These eight bytes, located between 00F8H and 00FFH, control the interface to an 80C187 Numerics Coprocessor. A chip-select can overlap this reserved space provided there is no intention of using the 80C187. However, Intel recommends no chip-select start at I/O address location 00C0H to avoid possible future compatibility issues.

The  $\overline{\text{GCS}}$  chip-select outputs are multiplexed with output port functions. The register controlling the multiplexed outputs exist in the I/O Port Unit.

## 6.3. CHIP-SELECTS AND BUS HOLD

The Chip-Select Unit only decodes address and bus state information generated internally. An external bus master cannot make use of the Chip-Select Unit. During HLDA, all chip-selects remain inactive.

The circuit shown in Figure 6.9 allows an external bus master to access a device during bus HOLD.

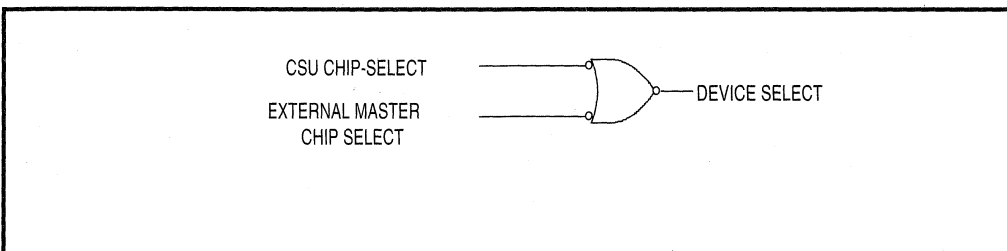


Figure 6.9. Using Chip-Selects During HOLD

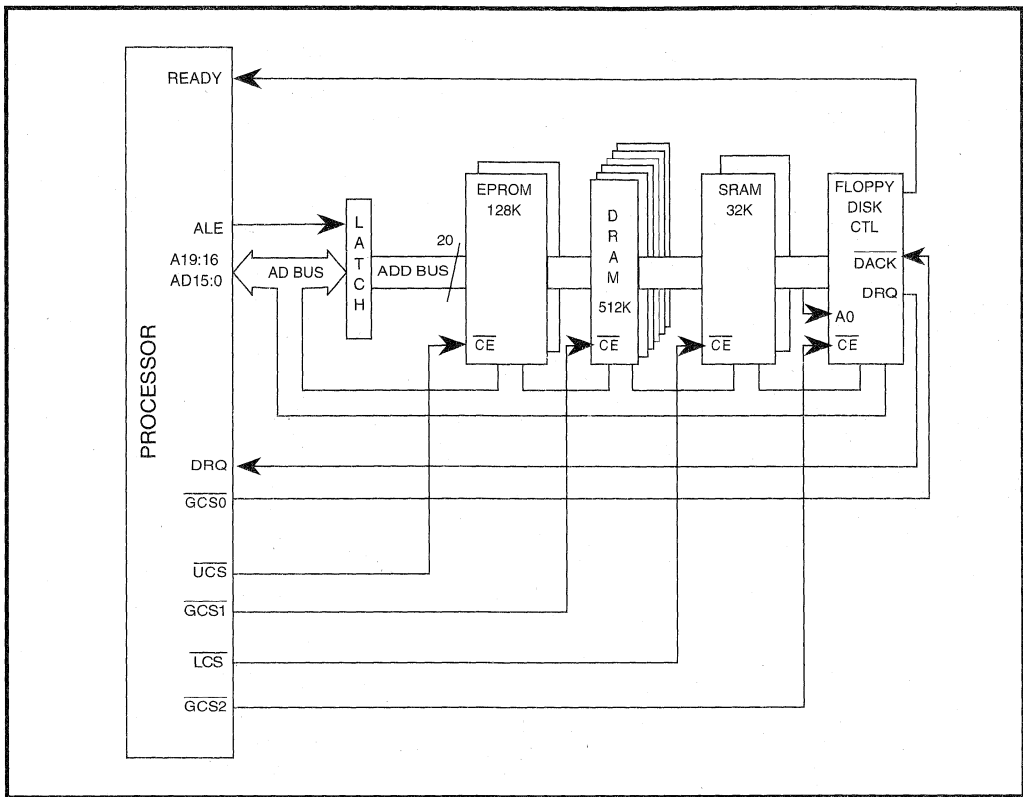


Figure 6.10. Typical System

## 6.4. EXAMPLES

The following sections provide examples of programming the Chip-Select Unit to meet the needs of particular a application. The examples do not go into hardware analysis or design issues.

### 6.4.1. EXAMPLE 1: TYPICAL SYSTEM CONFIGURATION

Figure 6.10 illustrates a block diagram of a typical system design. The EPROM memory has a total size of 128 Kbytes and the SRAM memory has a total size of 32 Kbytes also. The peripherals are mapped to I/O address space.

```

$      TITLE      (Chip-Select Unit Initialization)
$      MOD186     XREF
$      NAME       CSU_EXAMPLE_1

;*****
;      EXTERNAL REFERENCE FROM THIS MODULE      *
;      *                                          *
;*****

$      include(PCBMAP.INC) ; File declares Register Locations
;      and names.

;*****
;      *                                          *
;      MODULE EQUATES                          *
;      *                                          *
;*****

;      CONFIGURATION EQUATES

TRUE      EQU 0FFH
FALSE     EQU NOT TRUE
READY     EQU 0001H ; Bus ready control modifier
CSEN      EQU 0008H ; Chip-Select enable modifier
ISTOP     EQU 0004H ; Stop address modifier
MEM       EQU 0002H ; Memory select modifier
IO        EQU 0000H ; I/O select modifier

; Below is a list of the default system memory and I/O
; environment. These defaults configure the Chip-Select Unit
; for proper system operation.

; EPROM memory is located from 0E0000 to 0FFFFFF (128 Kbytes).
; Wait states are calculated assuming 16MHz operation.
; UCS# controls the accesses to EPROM memory space.

EPROM_SIZE EQU 128 ; Size in Kbytes
EPROM_BASE EQU 1024 - EPROM_SIZE ; Start address in Kbytes
EPROM_WAIT EQU 1 ; Wait states

; The UCS# START and STOP register values are calculated using
; the above system constraints and the equations below.

UCSST_VAL EQU (EPROM_BASE SHL 6) OR (EPROM_WAIT)
UCSSP_VAL EQU (CSEN) OR (ISTOP) OR (MEM)

```

Example 6.1.

```
; SRAM memory starts at 0H and continues to 7FFFH (32 Kbytes).
; Wait states are calculated assuming 16MHz operation.
; LCS# controls the accesses to SRAM memory space.
```

```
SRAM_SIZE EQU 32 ; Size in Kbytes
SRAM_BASE EQU 0 ; Start address in Kbytes
SRAM_WAIT EQU 0 ; Wait states
```

```
; The LCS# START and STOP register values are calculated using
; the above system constraints and the equations below
```

```
LCSST_VAL EQU (SRAM_BASE SHL 6) OR (SRAM_WAIT)
LCSSP_VAL EQU (((SRAM_BASE) OR (SRAM_SIZE)) SHL 6) OR
& (CSEN) OR (MEM)
```

```
; A DRAM interface is selected by the GCS1# chip-select. The
; BASE value defines the starting address of the DRAM window.
; The SIZE value (along with the BASE value) define the ending
; address. Zero wait state performance is assumed. The Refresh
; Control Unit uses DRAM-BASE to properly configure refresh
; operation.
```

```
DRAM_BASE EQU 128 ; Window start address in Kbytes
DRAM_SIZE EQU 512 ; Window size in Kbytes
DRAM_WAIT EQU 0 ; Wait states (change to match system)
```

```
; The GCS1# START and STOP register values are calculated using
; the above system constraints and the equations below
```

```
GCS1ST_VAL EQU (DRAM_BASE SHL 6) OR (DRAM_WAIT)
GCS1SP_VAL EQU (((DRAM_BASE) OR (DRAM_SIZE)) SHL 6) OR
& (CSEN) OR (MEM)
```

```
; I/O is selected using the GCS2# chip-select. Wait states
; assume operation at 16MHz. The SIZE and BASE values must be
; modulo 64 bytes. For this example, the Floppy Disk
; Controller is connected to GCS2# and GCS0# provides the
; DACK# signal.
```

```
IO_SIZE EQU 64 ; Size in Bytes
IO_BASE EQU 256 ; Start address in Bytes
IO_WAIT EQU 4 ; Wait states

DACK_BASE EQU 512 ; DACK Address (used by DMA also)
DACK_WAIT EQU 0 ; No need for DACK wait-states
; Dack Size assumed to be 64 Bytes
```

### Example 6.1. (Continued)

```

; The GCS0# and GCS2# START and STOP register values are
; calculated using the above system constraints and the
; equations below.

GCS2ST_VAL EQU ((IO_BASE/64) SHL 6) OR (IO_WAIT)
GCS2SP_VAL EQU (((IO_BASE/64) OR (IO_SIZE/64)) SHL 6) OR
& (CSEN) OR (IO)

GCS0ST_VAL EQU ((DACK_BASE/64) SHL 6) OR (DACK_WAIT)
GCS0SP_VAL EQU (((DACK_BASE/64) + 1) SHL 6) OR (CSEN) OR (IO)

; The following statements define the default assumptions for
; SEGMENT locations.

        ASSUME  CS:CODE
        ASSUME  DS:DATA
        ASSUME  SS:DATA
        ASSUME  ES:DATA

CODE    SEGMENT PUBLIC 'CODE'

;*****
;
; ENTRY POINT ON POWER UP
; THE POWER-ON OR RESET CODE DOES A JUMP HERE AFTER THE UCS
; REGISTER IS PROGRAMMED.
;*****

FW_START LABEL FAR ; FORCES FAR JUMP

        CLI ; Make sure interrupts are globally
            ; disabled

; Place register initialization code here

; SET UP CHIP SELECTS
;
; UCS# - EPROM Select
; LCS# - SRAM Select
; GCS1# - DRAM Select
; GCS2# - FLOPPY Select
; GCS0# - DACK Generator (programmed during DMA init)

```

Example 6.1. (Continued)



```

MOV    DX, UCSSP           ; Finish setting up UCS#
MOV    AX, UCSST_VAL
OUT    DX, AL              ; Remember, byte writes work ok

MOV    DX, LCSST          ; Set up LCS#
MOV    AX, LCSST_VAL
OUT    DX, AL

MOV    DX, LCSSP
MOV    AX, LCSSP_VAL
OUT    DX, AL              ; Remember, byte writes work ok

MOV    DX, GCS1ST         ; SET UP GCS1#
MOV    AX, GCS1ST_VAL
OUT    DX, AL
MOV    AX, GCS1SP_VAL
MOV    DX, GCS1SP
OUT    DX, AL              ; Remember, byte writes work ok

MOV    DX, GCS2ST         ; SET UP GCS2#
MOV    AX, GCS2ST_VAL
OUT    DX, AL
MOV    DX, GCS2SP
MOV    AX, GCS2SP_VAL
OUT    DX, AL              ; Remember, byte writes work ok

; Remaining User Code here.

CODE   ENDS

; POWER ON RESET CODE TO GET STARTED

ASSUME CS:POWER_ON

POWER_ON SEGMENT AT 0FFFFH

MOV    DX, UCSST          ; Point to UMCS register
MOV    AX, UCSST_VAL      ; Reprogram UCS# for EPROM size
OUT    DX, AL
JMP    FW_START           ; Jump to start of init code

POWER_ON ENDS

```

**Example 6.1. (Continued)**

```

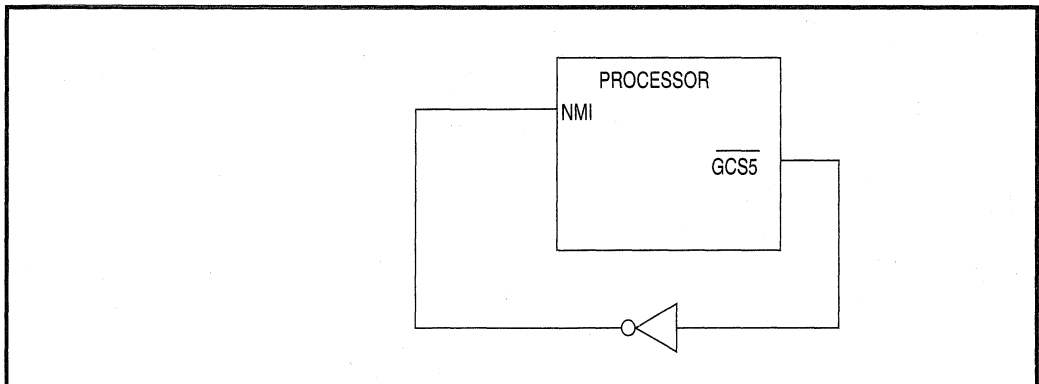
; *****
;
;   DATA SEGMENT
;
; *****
DATA   SEGMENT PUBLIC 'DATA'
      DD   256 DUP (?)      ; Reserved for Interrupt Vectors
; Place additional memory variable here
      DW   500 DUP (?)      ; Stack allocation
STACK_TOP LABEL WORD
DATA   ENDS
; Program Ends
      END

```

**Example 6.1. (Continued)**

**6.4.2. EXAMPLE 2: USING A CHIP-SELECT TO DETECT GUARDED MEMORY**

A chip-select is configured to set an interrupt when the bus accesses a physical address region that does not contain a valid memory or peripheral device. Figure 6.11 illustrates how a simple circuit detects the errant bus cycle and generates an NMI. System software then deals with the error. The purpose of using the chip-select is to generate a bus ready and prevent a bus “hang” condition.



**Figure 6.11. Guarded Memory Detector**

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## *Refresh Control Unit*

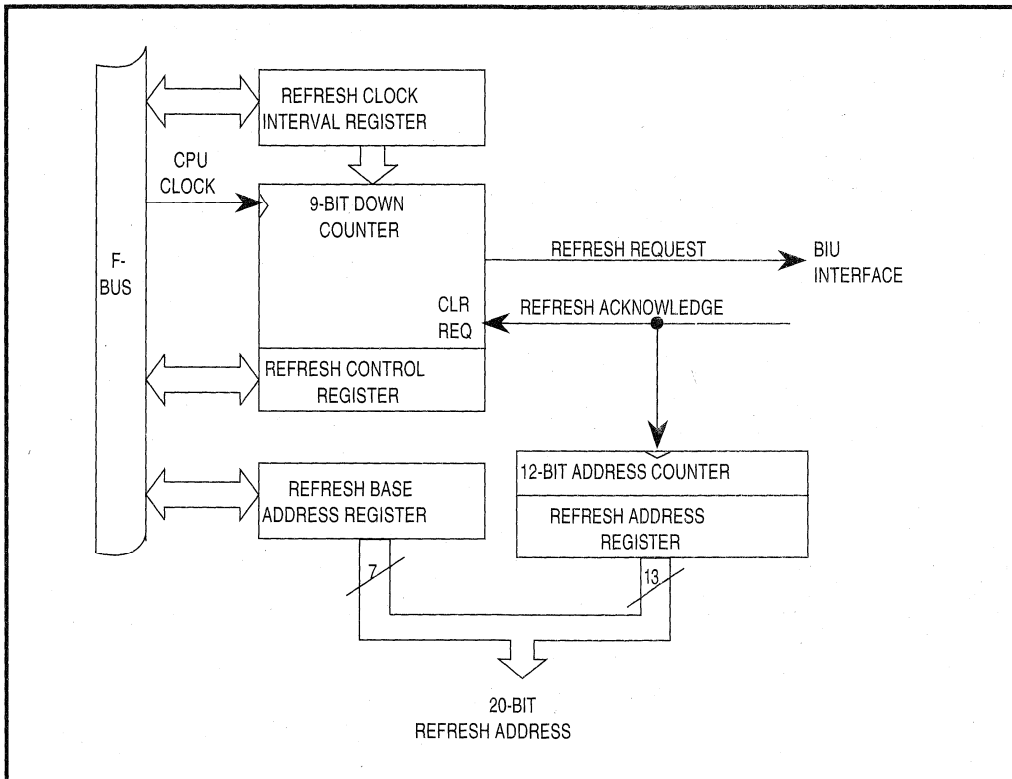
**7**

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## CHAPTER 7 REFRESH CONTROL UNIT

The Refresh Control Unit (RCU) simplifies dynamic memory controller design with its integrated address and clock counters. Figure 7.1 shows the relationship between the Bus Interface Unit and the Refresh Control Unit. Integrating the Refresh Control Unit into the processor allows an external DRAM controller to use chip-selects, wait state logic and status lines.



**Figure 7.1. Refresh Control Unit Block Diagram**

### 7.1. THE ROLE OF THE REFRESH CONTROL UNIT

Like a DMA controller, the Refresh Control Unit runs bus cycles independent of CPU execution. Unlike a DMA controller, however, the Refresh Control Unit does not run bus cycle bursts nor does it transfer data. The DRAM refresh process refreshes individual DRAM rows in “dummy read” cycles, while cycling through all necessary addresses.

The microprocessor interface to DRAMs is more complicated than other memory interfaces. A complete **DRAM controller** requires circuitry beyond that provided by the processor even in the simplest configurations. This circuitry must respond correctly to reads, writes and DRAM refresh cycles. The external DRAM controller generates the Row Address Strobe ( $\overline{RAS}$ ), Column Address Strobe ( $\overline{CAS}$ ) and other DRAM control signals.

Pseudo-static RAMs use dynamic memory cells but generate address strobes and refresh addresses internally. The address counters still need external timing pulses. These pulses are easy to derive from the processor's bus control signals. Pseudo-static RAMs do not need a full DRAM controller.

## 7.2. REFRESH CONTROL UNIT CAPABILITIES

A 12-bit address counter forms the refresh addresses, supporting any dynamic memory devices with up to 12 rows of memory cells (12 refresh address bits). This includes all practical DRAM sizes for the processor's one Mbyte address space.

## 7.3. REFRESH CONTROL UNIT OPERATION

Figure 7.2 illustrates Refresh Control Unit counting, address generation and BIU bus cycle generation in flow chart form.

The 9-bit down-counter loads from the Refresh Interval Register on the falling edge of CLKOUT. Once loaded, it decrements every falling CLKOUT edge until it reaches one. Then the down-counter reloads and starts counting again, simultaneously triggering a refresh request. Once enabled, the DRAM refresh process continues indefinitely until the user reprograms the Refresh Control Unit, a reset occurs, or the processor enters Powerdown Mode. Power-Save Mode divides the Refresh Control Unit clocks, so reprogramming the Refresh Interval Register becomes necessary.

The refresh request remains active until the bus becomes available. When the bus is free, the BIU will run its "dummy read" cycle. Refresh bus requests have higher priority than most CPU bus cycles, all DMA bus cycles and all interrupt vectoring sequences. Refresh bus cycles also have a higher priority than the HOLD/HLDA bus arbitration protocol (see Section 7.8).

The 9-bit refresh clock counter does not wait until the BIU services the refresh request to continue counting. This operation ensures refresh requests occur at the correct interval. Otherwise, the time between refresh requests would be a function of varying bus activity. When the BIU services the refresh request, it clears the request and increments the refresh address.

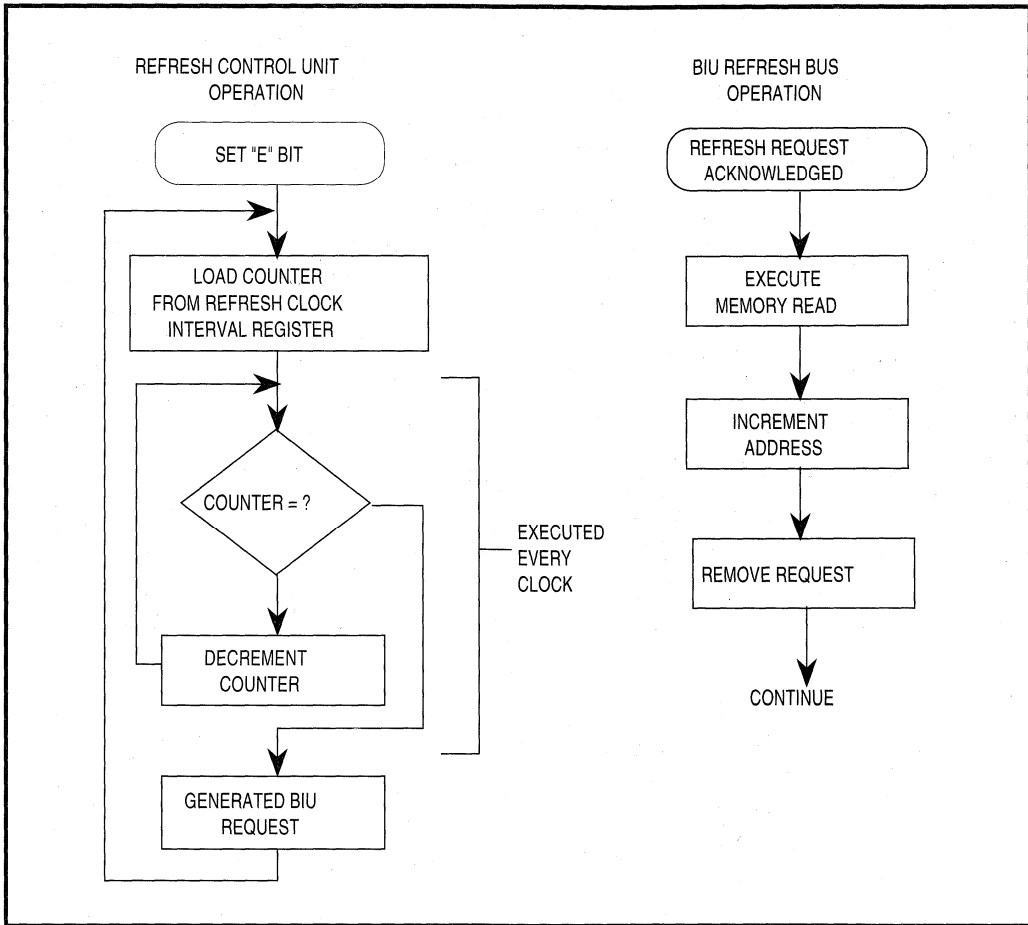


Figure 7.2. Refresh Control Unit Operation Flow Chart

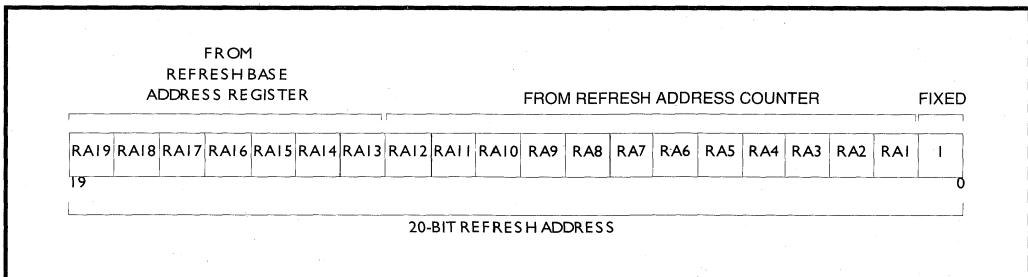


Figure 7.3. Refresh Address Formation

The BIU does not queue DRAM refresh requests. If the Refresh Control Unit generates another request before the BIU handles the present request, the BIU loses the present request. However, the address associated with the request is not lost. The refresh address changes only after the BIU runs a refresh bus cycle. If a DRAM refresh cycle is excessively delayed, there is still a chance that the processor will successfully refresh the corresponding row of cells in the DRAM, retaining the data.

#### 7.4. REFRESH ADDRESSES

Figure 7.3 shows the physical address generated during a refresh bus cycle. This figure applies to both the 8-bit and 16-bit data bus microprocessor versions. Refresh address bits RA19:13 come from the Refresh Base Address Register described in Section 7.7.2.1.

A linear-feedback shift counter generates address bits RA12:1. The counter does not count linearly from 0 through FFFH. However, the counting algorithm cycles uniquely through all possible 12-bit values. It only matters that each row of DRAM memory cells gets refreshed at a specific interval. The order of the rows is unimportant.

Address bit A0 is fixed at zero during all refresh operations. In applications based on a 16-bit data bus processor, A0 typically selects memory devices placed on the low (even) half of the bus. Applications based on an 8-bit data bus processor typically use A0 as a true address bit. The DRAM controller must not route A0 to row address pins on the DRAMs.

#### 7.5. REFRESH BUS CYCLES

Refresh bus cycles look exactly like ordinary memory read bus cycles except for the control signals indicated in Table 7.1. The 16-bit bus processor drives both the  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  and A0 pins high during refresh cycles. These signals may be AND'ed in a DRAM controller to detect a refresh bus cycle. The 8-bit bus version replaces the  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  pin with  $\overline{\text{RFSH}}$ , which is low during refresh cycles.  $\overline{\text{RFSH}}$  and  $\overline{\text{BHE}}$  timings are the same. A0 is also high during refresh cycles on the 8-bit bus processor.

#### 7.6. GUIDELINES FOR DESIGNING DRAM CONTROLLERS

The basic DRAM access method consists of four phases:

1. The DRAM controller supplies a row address to the DRAMs.
2. The controller asserts a Row Address Strobe ( $\overline{\text{RAS}}$ ), which latches the row address inside the DRAMs.
3. The controller supplies a column address to the DRAMs.
4. The controller asserts a Column Address Strobe ( $\overline{\text{CAS}}$ ), which latches the column address inside the DRAMs.

Most 80C186 Modular Core family DRAM interfaces use only this method. Others will not be discussed here.



**Table 7.1. Identification of Refresh Bus Cycles**

DATA BUS WIDTH	$\overline{\text{BHE}}/\text{RFSH}$	A0
16-Bit Device	1	1
8-Bit Device	0	1

The DRAM controller's purpose is to use the processor's address, status and control lines to generate the multiplexed addresses and strobes. These signals must be appropriate for three bus cycle types: read, write and refresh. They must also meet specific pulse width, setup and hold timing requirements. DRAM interface designs need special attention to transmission line effects, since DRAMs represent significant loads on the bus.

DRAM controllers may be either clocked or unclocked. An unclocked DRAM controller requires a tapped digital delay line to derive the proper timings.

Clocked DRAM controllers may use either discrete or programmable logic devices. A state machine design is appropriate, especially if the circuit must provide wait state control (beyond that possible with the processor's Chip-Select Unit). Because of the microprocessor's four-clock bus, clocking some logic elements on each CLKOUT phase is advantageous (see Figure 7.4). The cycle begins with presentation of the row address.  $\overline{\text{RAS}}$  should go active on the falling edge of  $T_2$ . At the rising edge of  $T_2$ , the address lines should switch to a column address.  $\overline{\text{CAS}}$  goes active on the falling edge of  $T_3$ . Refresh cycles do not require  $\overline{\text{CAS}}$ . When  $\overline{\text{CAS}}$  is present, the "dummy read" cycle becomes a true read cycle (the DRAM drives the bus), and the DRAM row still gets refreshed.

Both  $\overline{\text{RAS}}$  and  $\overline{\text{CAS}}$  stay active during any wait states. They go inactive on the falling edge of  $T_4$ . At the rising edge of  $T_4$ , the address multiplexer shifts to its original selection (row addressing), preparing for the next DRAM access.

## 7.7. PROGRAMMING THE REFRESH CONTROL UNIT

Given a specific processor operating frequency and information about the DRAMs in the system, the user can program the Refresh Control Unit registers.

### 7.7.1. CALCULATING THE REFRESH INTERVAL

DRAM data sheets show DRAM refresh requirements as a number of refresh cycles necessary and the maximum period to run the cycles. The indicated number of cycles is the same as the number of rows. Multiply the specified refresh period (convert to microseconds) by the microprocessor's CLKOUT frequency (MHz). Then divide the result by the number of rows in the DRAM. Figure 7.5 shows the formula.

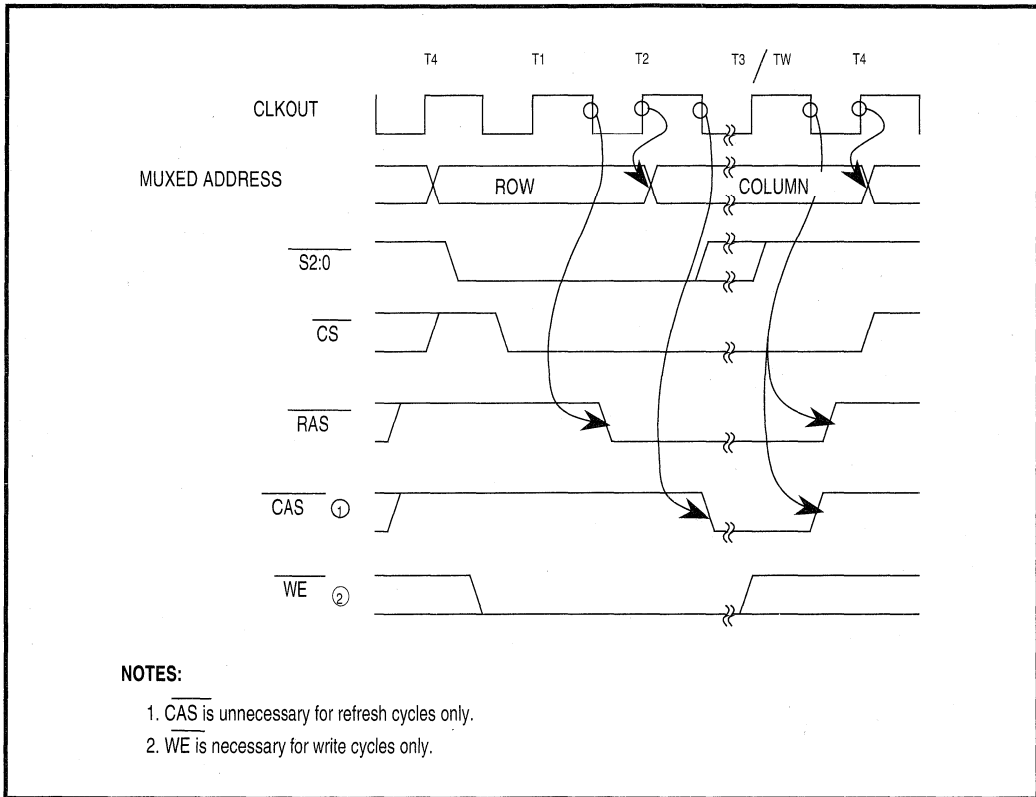


Figure 7.4. Suggested DRAM Control Signal Timing Relationships

$$\frac{R_{\text{Period}} (\mu\text{s}) \times f(\text{MHz})}{\# \text{ Refresh Rows} + \# (\text{Refresh Rows} \times \% \text{ Overhead})} = \text{RFTIME Register Value}$$

$R_{\text{Period}}$  = Maximum refresh period specified by DRAM manufacturer (microseconds).  
 $f$  = Operating frequency in MHz.  
 $\# \text{ Refresh Rows}$  = Total number of rows to be refreshed.  
 $\% \text{ Overhead}$  = Derating factor to compensate for missed refresh requests (typically 1-5%).

Figure 7.5. Formula for Calculating Refresh Interval for RFTIME Register

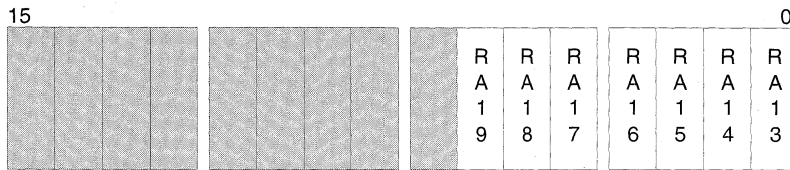
Bus latency is the time the Refresh Control Unit needs to gain control of the bus. Reduce the calculated refresh interval by one to five per cent to compensate. If an external bus master will be extremely slow to release the bus, reduce the interval even more. At standard operating frequencies, DRAM refresh bus overhead totals two or three per cent of the total bus bandwidth.

If the processor enters Power-Save Mode, the refresh rate must increase to offset the reduced CPU clock rate to preserve memory. At lower frequencies, the refresh bus overhead increases. At frequencies less than about 1.5 MHz, the Bus Interface Unit will spend almost all its time running refresh cycles. There may not be enough bandwidth left for the processor to perform other activities, especially if the processor must share the bus with an external master.

**7.7.2. REFRESH CONTROL UNIT REGISTERS**

Three contiguous Peripheral Control Block registers operate the Refresh Control Unit: the Refresh Base Address Register, Refresh Clock Interval Register and the Refresh Control Register. A fourth register, the Refresh Address Register, permits examination of the refresh address bits generated by the Refresh Control Unit.

**Register Name:** Refresh Base Address Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RFBASE  
**Register Function:** Determines upper 7 bits of refresh address.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
RA19:13	<i>Refresh Base</i>	00H	Uppermost address bits for DRAM refresh cycles.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Always program reserved register bits with a "0" to insure proper device functionality and compatibility with future Intel products.

---

**Figure 7.6. Refresh Base Address Register**

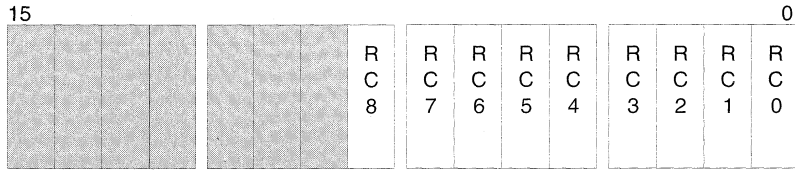
### 7.7.2.1. REFRESH BASE ADDRESS REGISTER

The Refresh Base Address Register (see Figure 7.6) programs the base (upper 7 bits) of the refresh address. Seven-bit mapping places the refresh address at any 4 Kbyte boundary within the one Mbyte address space. When the partial refresh address from the 12-bit address counter (see Section 7.3) passes FFFH, the Refresh Control Unit does not increment the refresh base address.

### 7.7.2.2. REFRESH CLOCK INTERVAL REGISTER

The Refresh Clock Interval Register (see Figure 7.7) defines the time between refresh requests. The higher the value, the longer the time between requests. The down-counter decrements every falling CLKOUT edge, regardless of core activity. When the counter reaches 1, the Refresh Control Unit generates a refresh request and the counter again loads the value from the register.

**Register Name:** Refresh Clock Interval Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RFTIME  
**Register Function:** Sets refresh rate.

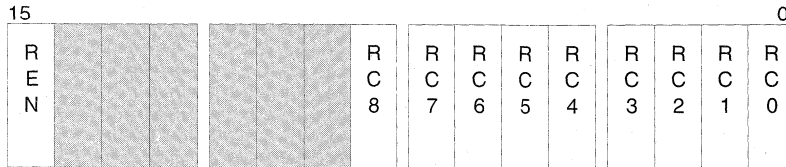


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
RC8:0	<i>Refresh Counter Reload Value</i>	000H	Sets the desired clock count between refresh cycles.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Always program reserved register bits with a "0" to insure proper device functionality and compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 7.7. Refresh Clock Interval Register**

**Register Name:** Refresh Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RFCON  
**Register Function:** Controls Refresh Unit operation.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
REN	<i>Refresh Control Unit Enable</i>	0	Setting REN enables the Refresh Unit. Clearing REN disables the Refresh Unit.
RC7:0	<i>Refresh Counter</i>	000H	These bits contain the present value of the down counter which triggers refresh requests.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Always program reserved register bits with a "0" to insure proper device functionality and compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 7.8. Refresh Control Register**

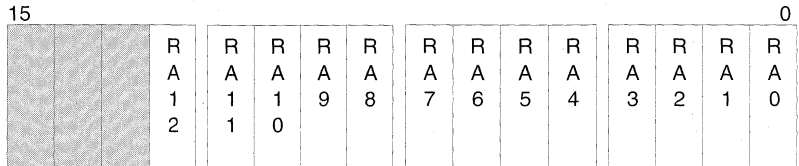
### 7.7.2.3. REFRESH CONTROL REGISTER

Figure 7.8 shows the Refresh Control Register. The user may read or write the REN bit at any time to turn the Refresh Control Unit on or off. The lower nine bits contain the current 9-bit down-counter value. The user cannot program these bits. Disabling the Refresh Control Unit clears both the counter and the corresponding counter bits in the control register.

### 7.7.2.4. REFRESH ADDRESS REGISTER

The Refresh Address Register (see Figure 7.9) contains address bits RA12:1 which will appear on the bus as A12:1 on the next refresh bus cycle. Bit 0 is fixed as a one in the register and in all refresh addresses.

**Register Name:** Refresh Address Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RFADDR  
**Register Function:** Controls Refresh Unit operation.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
RA12:1	<i>Refresh Address Bits</i>	000H	These bits comprise A12:1 of the refresh address.
RA0	<i>Refresh Bit 0</i>	1	A0 of the refresh address. This bit is always 1 and is read-only.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Always program reserved register bits with a "0" to insure proper device functionality and compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 7.9. Refresh Address Register**

### 7.7.3. PROGRAMMING EXAMPLE

Example 7.1 contains sample code to initialize the Refresh Control Unit. Example 5.2 shows the additional code to reprogram the Refresh Control Unit upon entering Power-Save Mode.

```

$mod186
name          example_80C186_RCU_code

;
;FUNCTION: This function initializes the DRAM Refresh
;Control Unit to refresh the DRAM starting at dram_addr
;at clock_time intervals.
;
; SYNTAX:
; extern void far config_rcu(int dram_addr, int clock_time);
;
; INPUTS: dram_addr - Base address of DRAM to refresh
;         clock_time - DRAM refresh rate
;
; OUTPUTS: None
;
; NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as
;       required by high-level languages.
;

RFBASE      equ    xxxxh ;substitute register offset
RFTIME      equ    xxxxh
RFCON       equ    xxxxh
RFADDR      equ    xxxxh ;not used

Enable      equ    8000h ;enable bit

lib_80186   segment public 'code'
            assume cs:lib_80186

            public      _config_rcu
_config_rcu proc far

            push  bp                ;save caller's bp
            mov   bp, sp            ;get current top of stack

_clock_time equ    word ptr[bp+6]   ;get parameters off
_dram_addr  equ    word ptr[bp+8]   ;the stack

            push  ax                ;save registers that
            ;will be modified

            push  cx
            push  dx
            push  di

```

**Example 7.1. Refresh Control Unit Initialization Code**

```

mov dx, RFBASE      ;set upper 7 address bits
mov ax, _dram_addr
out dx, ax

mov dx, RFTIME      ;set clock pre_scaler
mov ax, _clock_time
out dx, ax

mov dx, RFCON       ;Enable RCU
mov ax, Enable
out dx, ax

mov cx, 8           ;8 dummy cycles are
                    ;required by DRAMS
xor di, di          ;before actual use

_exercise_ram:
mov word ptr [di], 0
loop _exercise_ram

pop di              ;restore saved registers
pop dx
pop cx
pop ax

pop bp              ;restore caller's bp

ret
_config_rcu endp

lib_80186 ends
end

```

### Example 7.1. Refresh Control Unit Initialization Code (Continued)

## 7.8. REFRESH OPERATION AND BUS HOLD

When another bus master controls the bus, the processor keeps HLDA active as long as the HOLD input remains active. If the Refresh Control Unit generates a refresh request during bus hold, the processor drives the HLDA signal inactive, indicating to the current bus master that it wishes to regain bus control (see Figure 7.10). The BIU begins a refresh bus cycle only after the alternate master removes HOLD. The user must design the system so the processor can regain bus control. If the alternate master asserts HOLD after the processor starts the refresh cycle, the CPU will give up the bus afterwards.



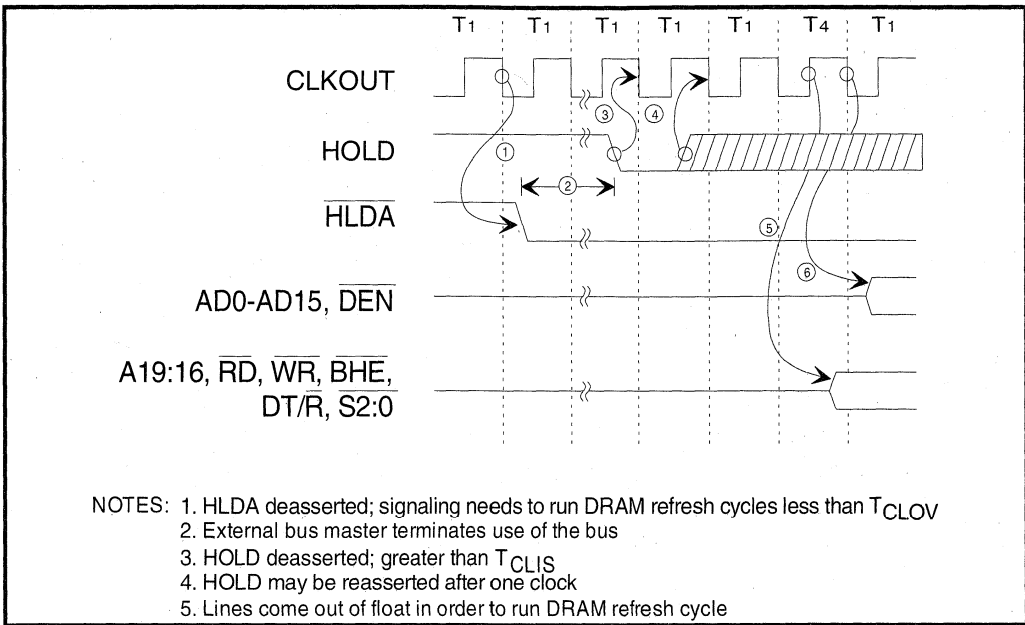


Figure 7.10. Regaining Bus Control to Run a DRAM Refresh Bus Cycle



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# *Interrupt Control Unit*

**8**

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## CHAPTER 8

# INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT

The 80C186EC/C188EC Interrupt Control Unit is comprised of two 8259A modules connected in cascade and the three Interrupt Request Latch Registers (Figure 8.1). The slave 8259A module controls seven internal interrupt sources and one external interrupt source (INT7). The master 8259A module controls external interrupt sources INT6 through INT0 and the slave module cascade request. The 8259A modules are hardwired for master and slave operation. The master 8259A module offers the ability to cascade to up to seven other 8259A modules. This arrangement is used to expand the interrupt handling capability of an 80C186EC/C188EC system to 57 external sources.

The 8259A modules make up the heart of the Interrupt Control Unit. These modules are full implementations of the industry standard 8259A architecture. Those readers already familiar with the 8259A may be tempted to skip the following sections: **DO NOT**. There are subtle, yet extremely important, differences between the discrete implementation of the 8259A and the integrated module.

In order to understand the function of the Interrupt Control Unit, you must first understand the architecture and programming of a single 8259A module. This chapter is organized as follows:

- Architecture and programming of a single 8259A module
- Integration of the 8259A modules into the Interrupt Control Unit
- Programming of the Interrupt Control Unit
- Hardware interfacing and examples

### 8.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW: THE INTERRUPT CONTROLLER

All microcomputer systems must communicate in some way with the external world. A typical system might have a keyboard, a disk drive and a communications port, all requiring CPU attention at different times. There are two distinct ways to handle the processing of peripheral I/O requests; polling and interrupts.

Polling requires that the CPU check each peripheral device in the system periodically to see if it requires servicing. It would not be unusual to poll a low speed peripheral, a serial port for instance, thousands of times before it required servicing. In most cases, the use of polling has a detrimental effect on system throughput. Any time used to check the peripherals is time spent away from the main processing tasks.

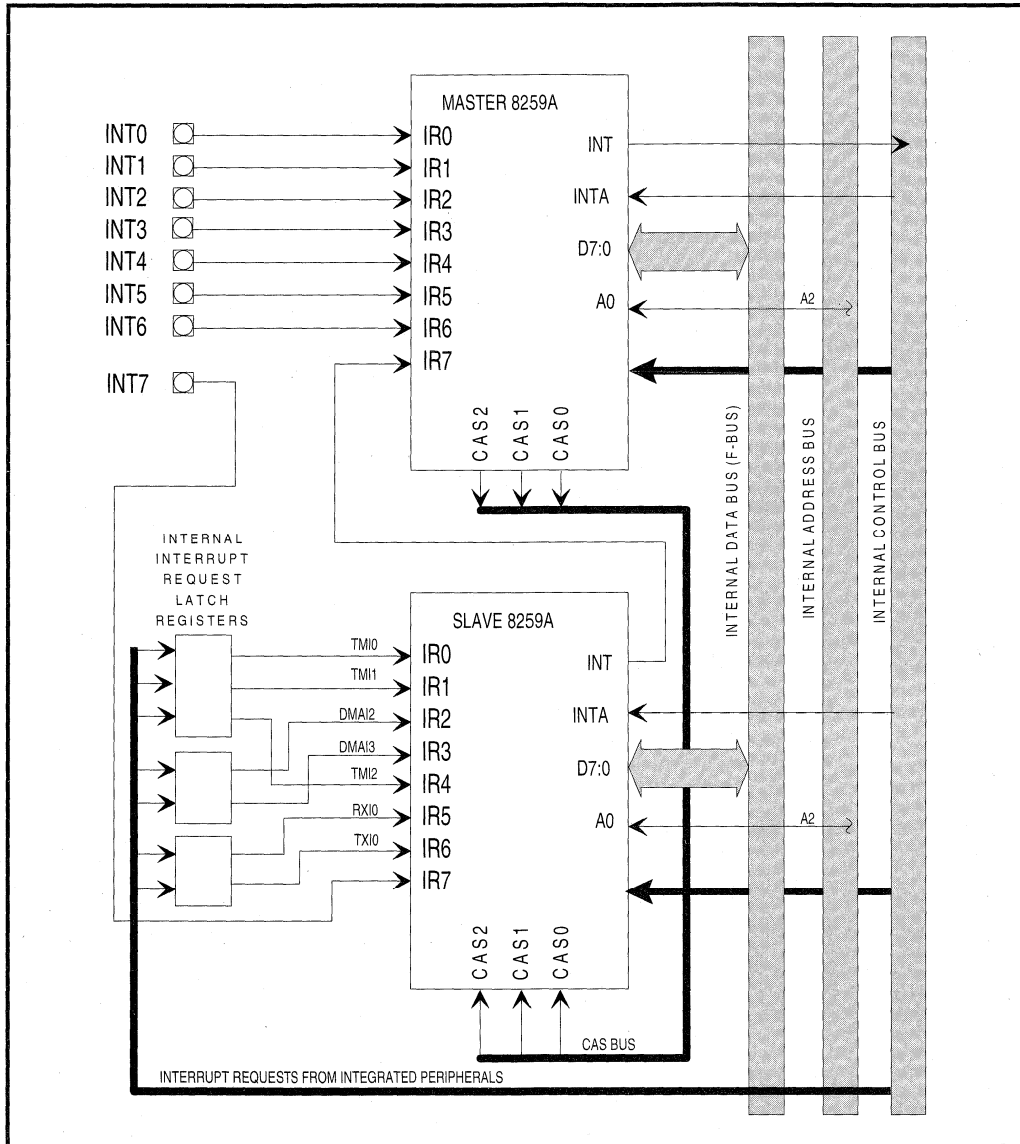


Figure 8.1. Interrupt Control Unit Block Diagram

Interrupts eliminate the need for polling by signalling the CPU that a peripheral device requires servicing. The CPU then stops execution of the main task, saves its state and transfers execution to the peripheral servicing code (the *interrupt handler*). At the end of the interrupt handler, the CPU's original state is restored and execution continues at the point of interruption in the main task.

The 186 Modular Core has a single maskable interrupt input (see Section 2.3) Expanding the interrupt capabilities of the CPU beyond that of a single source requires an interrupt controller. The controller acts like a filter between the multiple interrupt request inputs and the single interrupt request to the CPU. The interrupt controller decides which of the interrupt requests is the most important (has the highest priority) and presents that interrupt to the CPU. Upon receipt of an interrupt, the CPU begins execution of a handshaking sequence called the *interrupt acknowledge cycle*.

The interrupt acknowledge cycle (or  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  cycle) consists of two locked back-to-back bus cycles that are initiated by the CPU upon receipt of an unmasked external interrupt (see Figure 8.2). Interrupt acknowledge cycle timings and waveforms are covered in detail in Chapter 3. The  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  cycle is a specialized read cycle during which the CPU fetches the interrupt vector type from the interrupt controller. Once the CPU has the vector type, it executes the interrupt processing sequence described in Section 2.3.1.

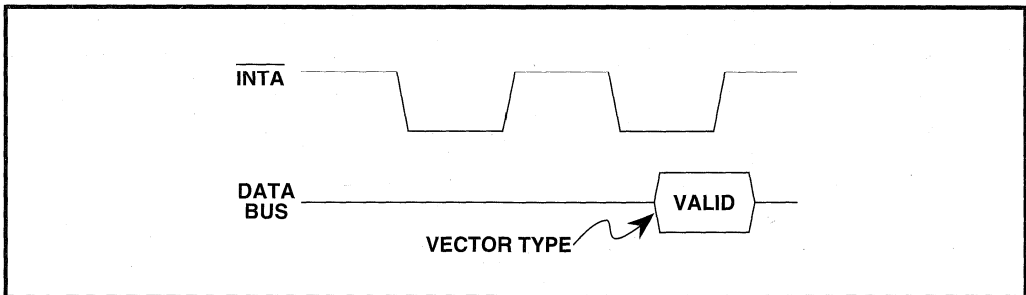


Figure 8.2. Interrupt Acknowledge Cycle

## 8.2. INTERRUPT PRIORITY AND NESTING

During program execution the priority of certain interrupts may change, or the program may wish to ignore some interrupt sources entirely. The interrupt controller must offer the capability of modifying interrupt priorities on the fly and must allow for the masking of individual interrupt sources. The prioritization scheme used by a particular application is known as the *interrupt structure*.

In many systems, it is possible that an interrupt handler may itself be interrupted by another device. This situation is known as *interrupt nesting*. Typically the system would want only higher priority interrupt sources to interrupt a handler in process. For example, you would want your hard disk drive handler to be interrupted by an impending shut-down interrupt but not by a keyboard keystroke. Systems that allow only higher priority interrupts to preempt handlers currently in service are called *fully nested*. Fully nested is the default interrupt structure used by the 8259A module.

There are times when it is appropriate to use an interrupt structure other than fully nested. For example, during execution of an interrupt handler it may be necessary to temporarily enable

interrupts from a lower priority source. The 8259A has several alternate modes that allow modifications to the fully nested structure.

It is important to define the interrupt structure early in the system design process. Interrupt priority is controlled by both the hardware and software design. It may not be possible to change the interrupt structure “in software” if the hardware was incorrectly designed. When developing an interrupt structure for your system, do not forget to take into account the effects of software interrupts, traps, exceptions and non-maskable hardware interrupts.

### 8.3. OVERVIEW OF THE 8259A ARCHITECTURE

The 8259A Programmable Interrupt Controller was first introduced as a peripheral chip for 8085 and 8086/8088 microcomputer systems. The 8259A architecture has since been reimplemented as a CMOS module for inclusion in more highly integrated devices.

The 8259A module is divided into several functional blocks (see Figure 8.3).

The *data bus buffer* and *read/write control logic* comprise the interface between the 8259A module and the CPU. The 8259A module's internal control registers are accessed through this interface. This block drives the interrupt vector type on the bus during an  $\overline{INTA}$  cycle.

Pending interrupt requests are posted in the *Interrupt Request Register*. The Interrupt Request Register contains one bit for each of the 8 Interrupt Request (IR) signals. When an interrupt request is asserted, the corresponding Interrupt Request Register bit is set. The 8259A module can be programmed to recognize either an active high level or a positive transition on the interrupt request lines.

The Interrupt Request Register bits feed into the *Priority Resolver*. The Priority Resolver decides which of the pending interrupt requests is the highest priority based on the programmed operating mode. It is the Priority Resolver that controls the interrupt request line to the CPU. The Priority Resolver has a default priority scheme that places IR0 as the highest priority and IR7 as the lowest priority. The priority can be modified through software.

When an interrupt is acknowledged, an *In-Service Register* bit is set for that specific interrupt source. In some operating modes the Priority Resolver will look at the In-Service Register in order to make its decision. In Fully Nested Mode, for example, the Priority Resolver needs to know if there is a higher priority interrupt already in service before interrupting the CPU. An interrupt handler must explicitly clear the In-Service bit for its interrupt before returning control to the main task.

The *Interrupt Mask Register* contains one bit for each IR line. The Mask Register allows the selective disabling of individual interrupt request sources.



An interrupt request line is also referred to as an *interrupt level*. For example, an interrupt on IR line 7 is also called a “level 7 interrupt”. A simplified logic diagram for the circuitry for one IR line (or *priority cell*) is shown in Figure 8.4.

Multiple 8259A modules can be connected together to expand the interrupt processing capability beyond 8 levels. The *Cascade Buffer/Comparator* is used only when the 8259A module is programmed for cascade mode. During an  $\overline{INTA}$  cycle the Cascade Buffer of the master 8259A drives the address of the slave 8259A module that is being acknowledged. All slave 8259A modules use the Cascade Comparator to determine if they are the addressed slave.

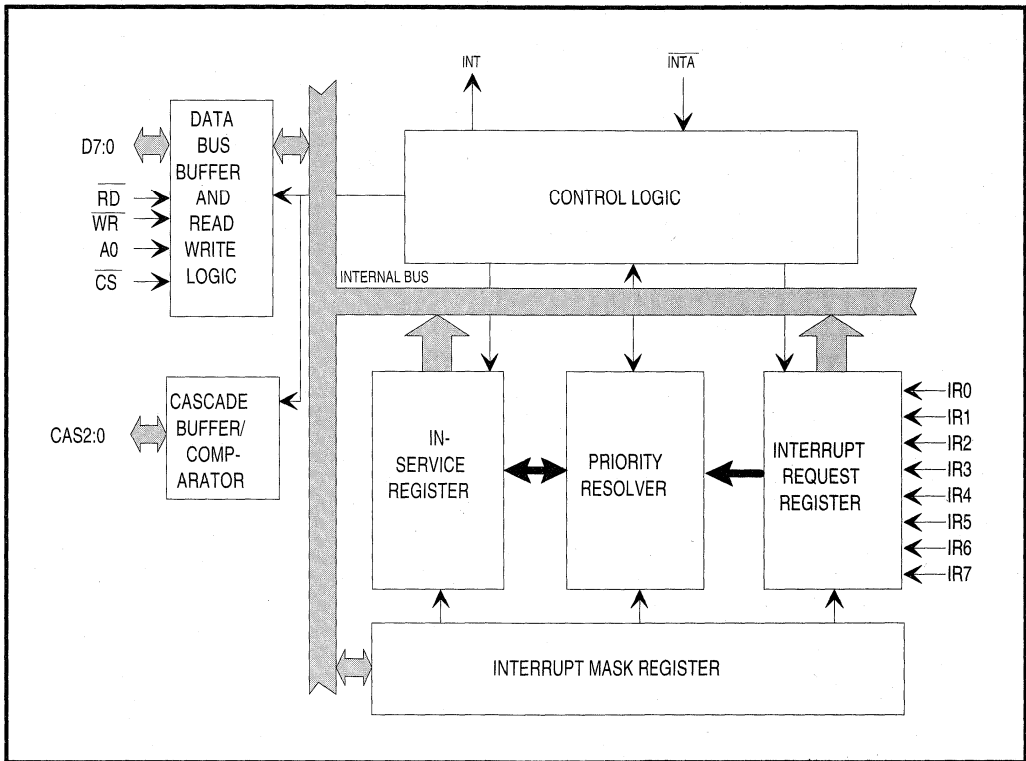


Figure 8.3. 8259A Module Block Diagram

### 8.3.1. A TYPICAL INTERRUPT SEQUENCE USING THE 8259A MODULE

The function of the 8259A module is best illustrated through the use of an example. For this example we will assume the simplest of 8259A module configurations: a single master with the default fixed priority and programmed for Fully Nested Mode. The initial conditions are:

- the 8259A has just been initialized
- there are no pending interrupts
- all interrupts are unmasked
- the IR inputs are programmed as edge sensitive

A typical sequence takes place as follows:

1. A low to high transition on IR4 sets bit 4 in the Interrupt Request Register.
2. The Priority Resolver checks to see if there are any bits set in the Interrupt Request Register that are of a higher priority than IR4. There are not.
3. Because the 8259A module is in Fully Nested Mode, the Priority Resolver checks to see if there are any bits set in the In-Service Register that are greater than or equal to the priority of IR4. There are not. This step prevents the interruption of higher priority interrupt handlers by lower priority sources.
4. At this point it has been decided that IR4 has sufficient priority to interrupt the CPU. The interrupt request line to the CPU is asserted to signal an external interrupt request.
5. The CPU signals acknowledgement of the interrupt by initiating an interrupt acknowledge cycle.
6. On the first falling edge of  $\overline{INTA}$ , the 8259A module sets the In-Service Bit for IR4. Simultaneously the Interrupt Request Bit is reset. The 8259A module is not driving the data bus during this phase of the cycle.
7. On the second falling edge of  $\overline{INTA}$ , the 8259A module drives the interrupt type corresponding to IR4 on the data bus. The 8259A module floats its data bus when  $\overline{INTA}$  goes high. The interrupt request signal to the CPU is deasserted.
8. The CPU executes the interrupt processing sequence and begins to execute the interrupt handler for IR4.
9. During execution of the IR4 handler, IR6 goes high setting bit 6 in the Interrupt Request Register.
10. The Priority Resolver sees that IR6 is of lower priority than IR4 which is currently being serviced (IR4's In-Service bit is set). No interrupt request is sent to the CPU. *If IR6 had been set to a higher priority than IR4, the IR4 handler would have been interrupted.*
11. The IR4 handler completes execution. The final instructions of the handler issue an End-Of-Interrupt (EOI) command to the 8259A module. The EOI command clears the In-Service bit IR4. This completes the servicing of IR4.
12. The Priority Resolver now sees that IR6 is still pending and there are no other higher priority interrupts pending or in-service. The 8259A module raises the interrupt request line again, starting another INTA cycle.

### 8.3.2. INTERRUPT REQUESTS

The processing of an external interrupt begins with the assertion of an interrupt request signal on one of the IR lines. The signal first passes through the edge/level detection circuitry, then moves on to the Interrupt Request Register.

#### 8.3.2.1. EDGE AND LEVEL TRIGGERING

The IR lines are programmable for either edge or level triggering. Both types of triggering are active high.

Edge triggering is defined as a zero to one transition on an IR line. The high state on the IR line must be maintained until after the falling edge of the first  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse during an interrupt acknowledge cycle. The IR line must be returned to low state for a specified amount of time in order to reset the edge detect circuit (refer to the 80C186EC/C188EC data sheet for the value). No further interrupts will be generated by an edge sensitive IR line if it is not returned to a low state after being acknowledged.

Level triggering is defined as a valid logic one on an IR line. The high value on the IR line must be maintained until after the falling edge of the first  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse during an interrupt acknowledge cycle. Unlike the edge triggered IR line, a level sensitive IR line will continue to generate interrupts as long as it is asserted. A level sensitive IR signal must be deasserted before the EOI command is issued if continuous interrupts from the same source are not desired.

#### 8.3.2.2. THE INTERRUPT REQUEST REGISTER

The Interrupt Request Register maintains one bit for each of the eight interrupt request lines. When a valid interrupt request is present on an IR line, the corresponding Interrupt Request Register bit is set (an interrupt is *pending*). The Interrupt Request Register bits are transparent; the state of the IR line flows directly through the latch to the Priority Resolver until they are latched. The output of the Interrupt Request register is used by the Priority Resolver to decide if a CPU interrupt is warranted. Since the Interrupt Request Register is transparent, a toggling IR line of sufficient priority will cause the interrupt request output of the 8259A module to toggle as well.

The state of Interrupt Request bits is latched by the falling edge of an internal signal called  $\overline{\text{FREEZE}}$ .  $\overline{\text{FREEZE}}$  is valid between the falling edge of the first  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse and the rising edge of the last  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse during an interrupt acknowledge cycle (see Figure 8.4). The highest priority pending Interrupt Request Register bit is cleared on the first falling edge of  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$ ; the other bits are left undisturbed.

## 8.3.2.3. SPURIOUS INTERRUPTS

For both level and edge sensitive interrupts, a high value must be maintained on the IR line until after the falling edge of the second INTA pulse (see Figure 8.5). A *spurious interrupt request* will be generated if this stipulation is not met. A spurious interrupt on any IR line will generate the same vector as an IR7 request. A spurious interrupt, however, will not set the In-Service bit for IR7 when it is acknowledged by the CPU. The interrupt handler for IR7 must check the In-Service Register to determine if the interrupt source was a valid IR7 (the In-Service bit is set) or a spurious interrupt (the In-Service bit is cleared).

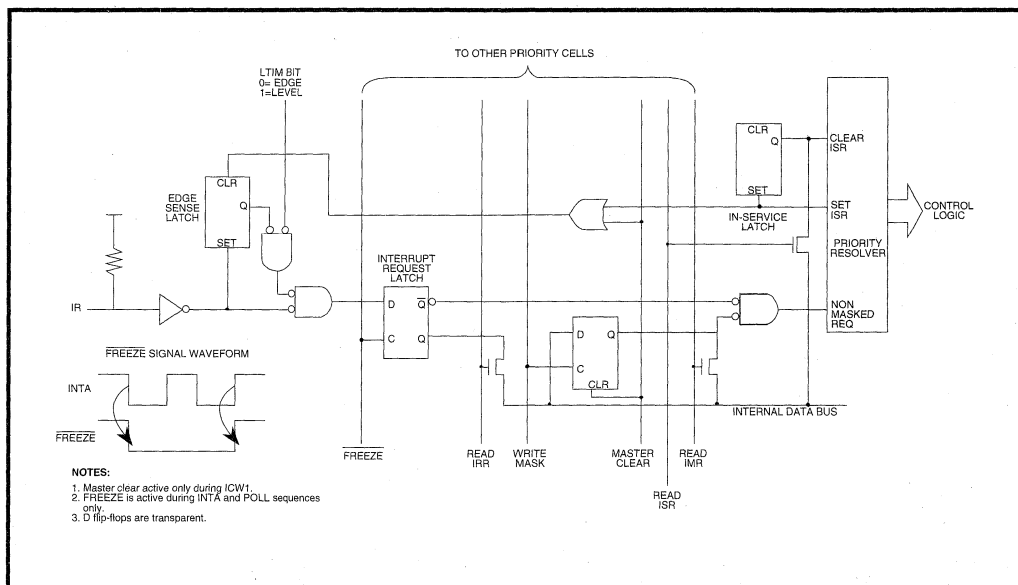


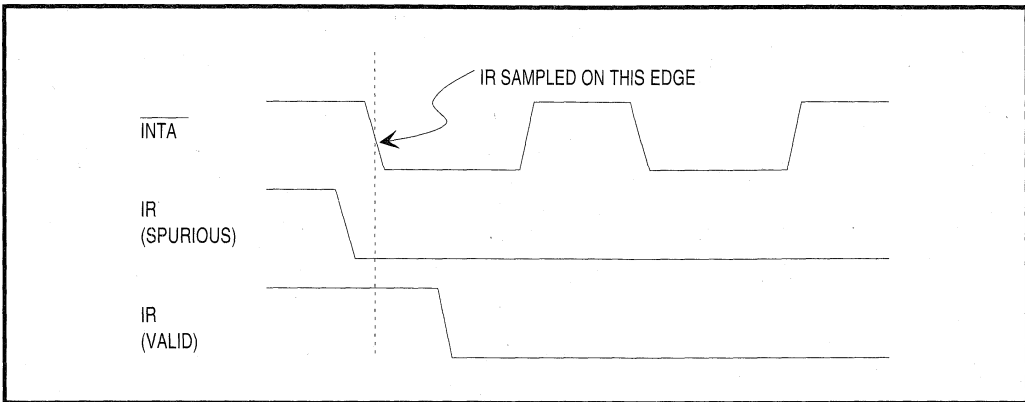
Figure 8.4 Priority Cell

## 8.3.3. THE PRIORITY RESOLVER AND PRIORITY RESOLUTION

The Priority Resolver uses the following four pieces of information when deciding whether or not to generate a CPU interrupt:

- The programmed operating mode and priority structure
- The state of the bits in the Interrupt Request Register
- The state of the bits in the In-Service Register
- The state of the bits in the Interrupt Mask Register

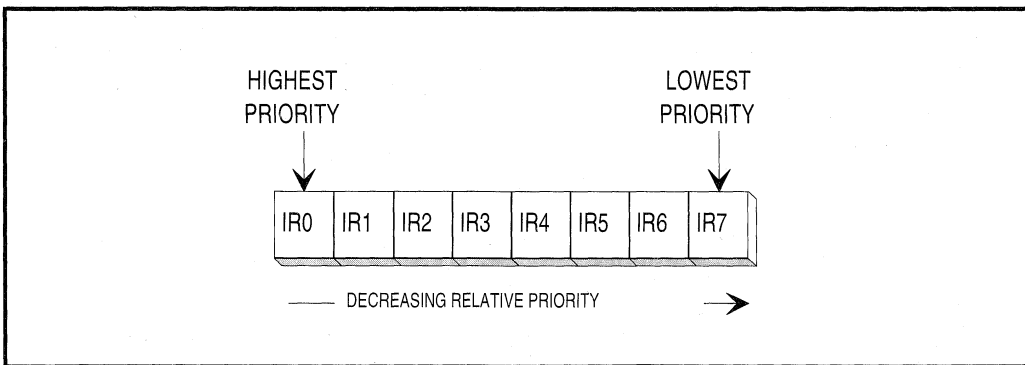
The priority scheme used by the Priority Resolver is programmable. The following sections describe each of the priority structure options.



**Figure 8.5. Spurious Interrupts**

### 8.3.3.1. DEFAULT (FIXED) PRIORITY

After initialization, the 8259A module sets the priority of the interrupt levels at the default condition of IR7 as the lowest priority and IR0 as the highest priority (see Figure 8.6). For systems using fixed priority, the highest priority interrupt source is connected to IR0, the second highest priority source is connected to IR1, etc. The lowest priority device is connected to IR7.



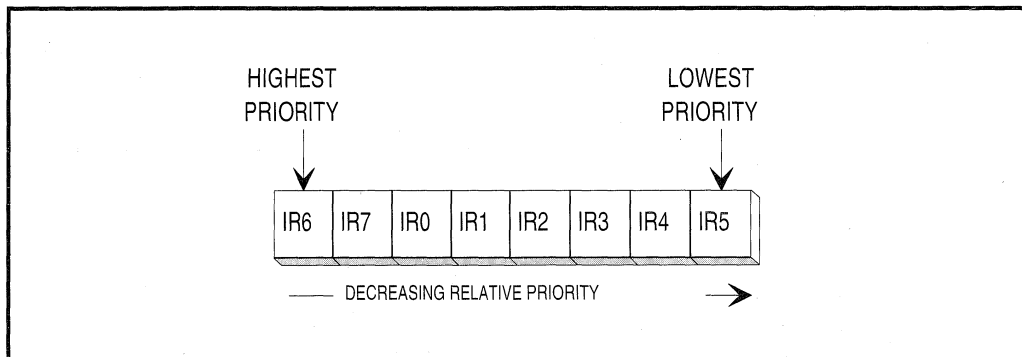
**Figure 8.6 Default Priority**

### 8.3.3.2. CHANGING THE DEFAULT PRIORITY: *SPECIFIC ROTATION*

In some systems, it may be necessary to alter the default priority during program execution. Any one of the IR lines can be reprogrammed to be the lowest priority interrupt source. The priority of the remaining IR lines are then redefined in a circular fashion. For example, if IR5 is programmed to be the lowest priority interrupt source, then IR6 becomes the highest priority

(see Figure 8.7). One could think of the priority pointer rotating through the IR sources. This method of redefining the priority is called *specific rotation*.

The priority of the IR lines cannot be set independently.



**Figure 8.7. Specific Rotation**

### 8.3.3.3. CHANGING THE DEFAULT PRIORITY: *AUTOMATIC ROTATION*

In some applications there are a number of interrupting devices of equal priority. *Automatic rotation* insures that devices of equal priority will get equal share of CPU resources.

When programmed for automatic rotation, the 8259A module automatically assigns an IR line the lowest priority after the service routine for that interrupt has completed (and the EOI command has been sent). The other interrupts that were pending during the service routine will have their respective priorities changed in the same circular fashion as described in the specific rotation section, above.

For example, assume that IR0 is programmed as highest priority and that the IR4 handler is currently being executed. At the completion of the IR4 handler, the “Rotate on Non-Specific EOI” command is sent to the 8259A module. The 8259A module then assigns IR4 as the lowest priority. IR5 becomes the highest priority device (see Figure 8.8).

### 8.3.4. THE IN-SERVICE REGISTER

The In-Service Register contains one bit for each of the eight IR lines. On the falling edge of the first  $\overline{INTA}$  pulse from the CPU, the In-Service bit corresponding to the highest priority pending interrupt is set. The In-Service bits are flags that indicate which interrupt requests have begun (but not completed) execution of their interrupt handlers.

More than one In-Service bit can be set concurrently. Consider the case where a low priority interrupt handler is interrupted by a higher priority interrupt request (the interrupts are nested).

The In-Service bits for both interrupt sources will be set when the higher priority interrupt is acknowledged.

Setting the In-Service bit for an IR line inhibits (masks) further interrupts from that IR line and all IR lines of a lower priority when the 8259A module is programmed for fully nested operation. For example, if the 8259A module is programmed for default priority (IR0 highest) and the IR4 In-Service bit is set, then no interrupts are possible from IR4 through IR7 until the In-Service bit is reset.

The default masking of interrupts by the In-Service Register can be circumvented by using either *Special Fully Nested Mode* or *Special Mask Mode* (described below).

The In-Service bits are cleared by an *End-Of-Interrupt Command* (EOI). The EOI command can either be sent to the 8259A module by the CPU, or generated automatically by the 8259A module itself.

#### 8.3.4.1. CLEARING THE IN-SERVICE BITS: NON-SPECIFIC END-OF-INTERRUPT

The Non-Specific End-Of-Interrupt Command instructs the 8259A module to reset the highest priority In-Service bit. When the 8259A module is operating in Fully Nested Mode, the highest priority In-Service bit always corresponds to the interrupt handler in progress; the 8259A module does not need to be told explicitly which handler is ending. The Non-Specific EOI is a shortcut for systems that use the Fully Nested interrupt structure.

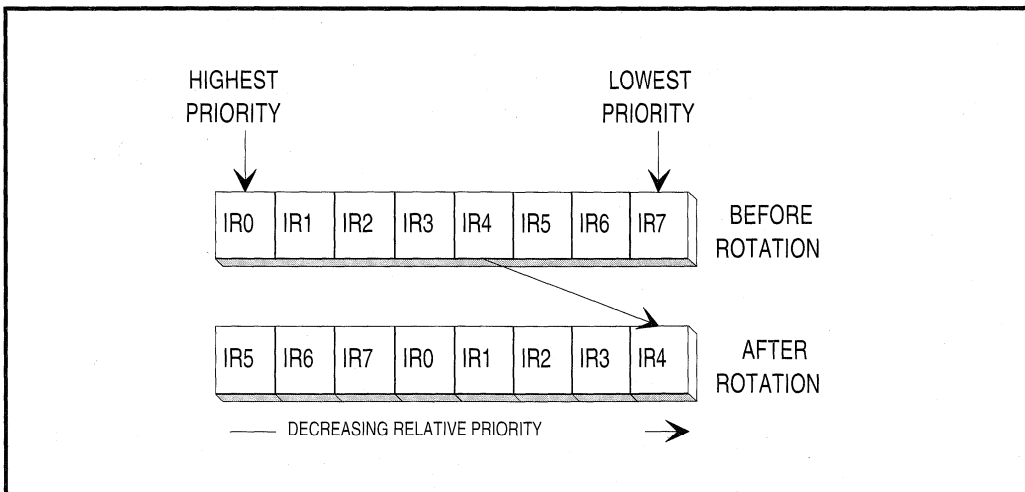


Figure 8.8. Automatic Rotation

#### 8.3.4.2. CLEARING THE IN-SERVICE BITS: SPECIFIC END-OF-INTERRUPT

Some operating modes of the 8259A module do not use the fully nested interrupt structure. In these alternate modes it is possible for a lower priority interrupt request to interrupt a higher priority handler. If a Non-Specific EOI were issued in this case, the highest priority In-Service bit would be reset *even though the handler for that interrupt had not completed execution*. The *Specific End-Of-Interrupt* command instructs the 8259A module to reset a specific bit in the In-Service Register. Systems that are not using Fully Nested Mode, must issue a Specific EOI to insure that the proper In-Service bit is cleared.

#### 8.3.4.3. AUTOMATIC END-OF-INTERRUPT MODE

The 8259A module can be programmed to clear the In-Service Bit for an IR line on the rising edge of the second  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse of the interrupt acknowledge cycle. When programmed for *Automatic End-Of-Interrupt Mode*, the In-Service bit for any given IR line is only set between the falling edge of the first  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse and the rising edge of the second  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  pulse.

Use of Automatic EOI Mode precludes a Fully Nested interrupt structure. The In-Service bit is cleared before the handler begins execution when Automatic EOI is selected; as soon as the In-Service bit is cleared any unmasked source (of any priority) can interrupt the handler.

Automatic EOI Mode can only be used in a master 8259A in a cascaded system. Using Automatic EOI Mode for a slave in a cascaded system will lead to system malfunction.

#### 8.3.5. MASKING INTERRUPTS

During the course of program execution there may be occasions when the CPU may wish to ignore certain interrupts while enabling others. The Interrupt Mask Register is used to selectively enable and disable each IR line. The masking operation physically takes place after the Interrupt Request Register. A masked interrupt will still set its corresponding Interrupt Request Register bit.

External maskable interrupts can be globally enabled and disabled within the CPU itself. The *Interrupt Enable Flag* (in the Program Status Word) controls the global masking of external interrupts. Please refer to Chapter 2 for more information.

#### 8.3.6. CASCADING 8259As

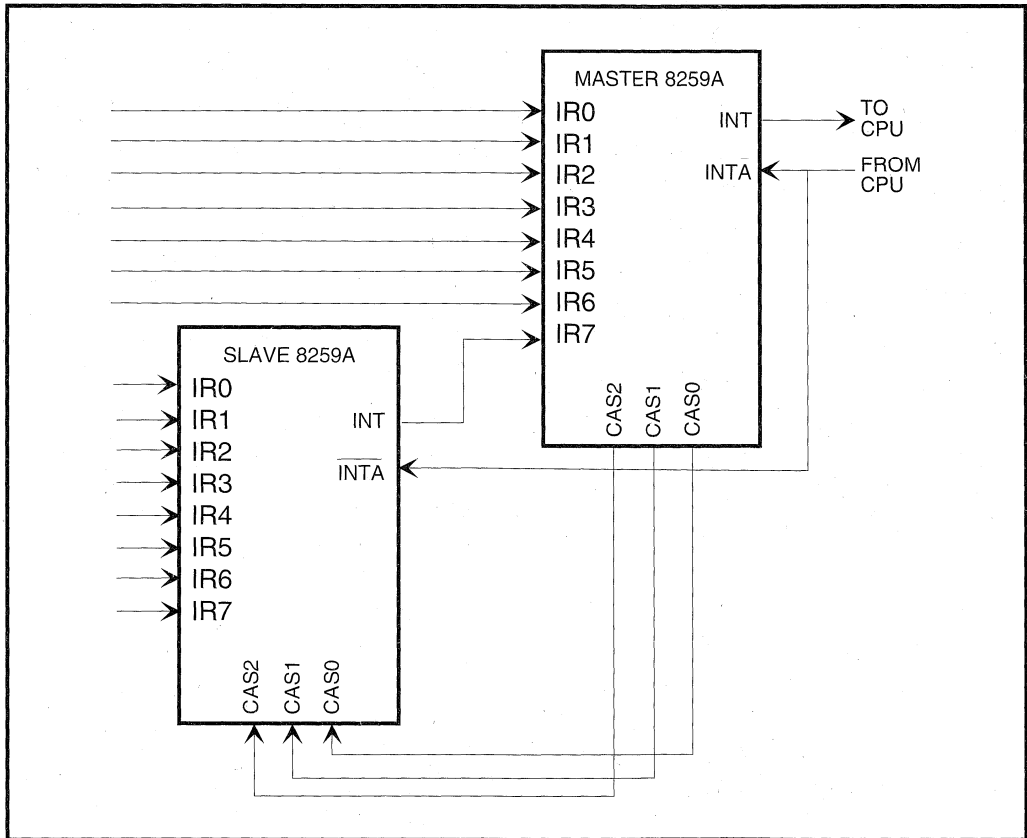
The 8259A module includes the capability to cascade up to 8 slave interrupt controllers to a single master module. In a fully cascaded system the interrupt request capability is extended to 64 levels. (The 80C186EC/C188EC uses a cascaded configuration in the Interrupt Control Unit.)



## 8.3.6.1. MASTER/SLAVE CONNECTION

In a cascade configuration, each slave 8259A module connects its interrupt output to one of the master 8259A module's interrupt request inputs. The master controls the actions of the slaves through the *Cascade Bus* (CAS2:0). Each slave device in a system has a unique *Slave ID* which must be programmed to the same numerical value as the master IR line to which it is connected. During an interrupt acknowledge cycle, the master 8259A drives CAS2:0 lines with the Slave ID of the slave that is being acknowledged. The Cascade Bus lines are inactive low and are only active during interrupt acknowledge cycles.

A typical master/slave connection is shown in Figure 8.9.



**Figure 8.9. Typical Cascade Connection**

### 8.3.6.2. THE CASCADED INTA CYCLE: AN EXAMPLE

The following example illustrates the interaction between master and slave 8259A modules in a cascaded configuration. We assume the following conditions:

- The master 8259A module is programmed for cascade operation, a slave on IR7, default priority and edge triggered mode.
- The slave 8259A module is programmed for cascade operation, a slave address of 7, default priority and edge triggered mode.
- Both modules have just been initialized and no interrupts are pending.
- All interrupts in both modules are unmasked.

A typical cascade interrupt sequence takes place as follows:

1. An low to high transition on IR2 of the slave 8259A module sets bit 2 in the Interrupt Request Register.
2. The slave's Priority Resolver checks to see if there are any bits set in the Interrupt Request Register that are of a higher priority than IR2. There are not.
3. The slave's Priority Resolver checks to see if there are any any bits set in the In-Service Register that are greater than or equal to the priority of IR2. There are not.
4. At this point it has been decided that IR2 has sufficient priority to request an interrupt. The slave interrupt request line (connected to the IR7 line on the master 8259A module) is raised to signal an interrupt request.
5. The low to high transition on the IR7 line signals to the master that the slave module is requesting an interrupt.
6. The Priority Resolver within the master 8259A module checks to see if the slave request is of sufficient priority to interrupt the CPU (it is). Note that for the purposes of priority resolution, *a cascaded input looks just like any other IR line.*
7. The master 8259A module raises the interrupt request output line to the CPU.
8. The CPU signals acknowledgement of the interrupt by initiating an interrupt acknowledge cycle.
9. On the first falling edge of  $\overline{INTA}$  the following actions occur:
  - The master 8259A module resets the Interrupt Request Bit for IR7 and sets the In-Service Bit for IR7.
  - The master 8259A module sees that IR7 has a slave connected to it and drives the address of the slave (seven, in this case) on the CAS2:0 lines.
  - The slave 8259A module recognizes its address on the CAS2:0 bus. The slave 8259A module resets the Interrupt Request Bit for IR2 and sets the In-Service bit for IR2.

10. On the second falling edge of  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$ , the slave 8259A module drives the interrupt type corresponding to IR2 on the data bus. The CAS2:0 lines return to their inactive low state and the slave 8259A module floats its data bus when  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  goes high. The interrupt request signal from the master 8259A module to the CPU goes inactive (low). The master 8259A module does not drive the data bus during a slave acknowledge.
11. The CPU executes the interrupt processing sequence and begins to execute the interrupt handler for a slave IR2.
12. The slave IR2 handler completes execution. The final instructions of the handler issue an End-Of-Interrupt (EOI) command to the master 8259A module and a second EOI command to the slave 8259A module. This completes the servicing of slave IR2.

### 8.3.6.3. MASTER CASCADE CONFIGURATION

The *Master Cascade Configuration Register* includes one bit for each of the eight interrupt request lines on the master 8259A module. Setting a bit for one of the IR lines informs the master 8259A module that that IR line has a slave 8259A module connected to it. The master uses the Master Cascade Configuration bits during an interrupt acknowledge cycle to determine if the CAS lines should be active. The CAS lines are active only when a cascaded input is being acknowledged; the value on the CAS bus is equal to cascaded interrupt request line number. For example, if the master is acknowledging an interrupt from a slave cascaded on line IR4 then the CAS2:0 bus will be driving 100 binary (4 decimal).

### 8.3.6.4. SLAVE ID

The slave ID must always be programmed equal to the master IR line to which the slave is connected. For example, if a slave's interrupt request output is connected to the master's IR6 line, then that slave must be programmed for a slave ID of six. A slave 8259A module will only respond to an  $\overline{\text{INTA}}$  signal (and deposit a vector on the bus) if its slave ID and the CAS2:0 address match.

Special precautions must be taken when connecting a slave to IR0 of a master 8259A module. A slave programmed for an ID of zero will be active for both interrupts that it has requested, as well as for uncascaded master interrupts (uncascaded interrupts leave the CAS lines inactive low). If this situation occurs there will be contention on the data bus as both the master and the slave attempt to drive the interrupt type on the data bus. Never cascade a slave 8259A module to IR0 of a master module unless IR0 is the last available uncascaded input (i.e. the system is fully cascaded with eight slave 8259A modules).

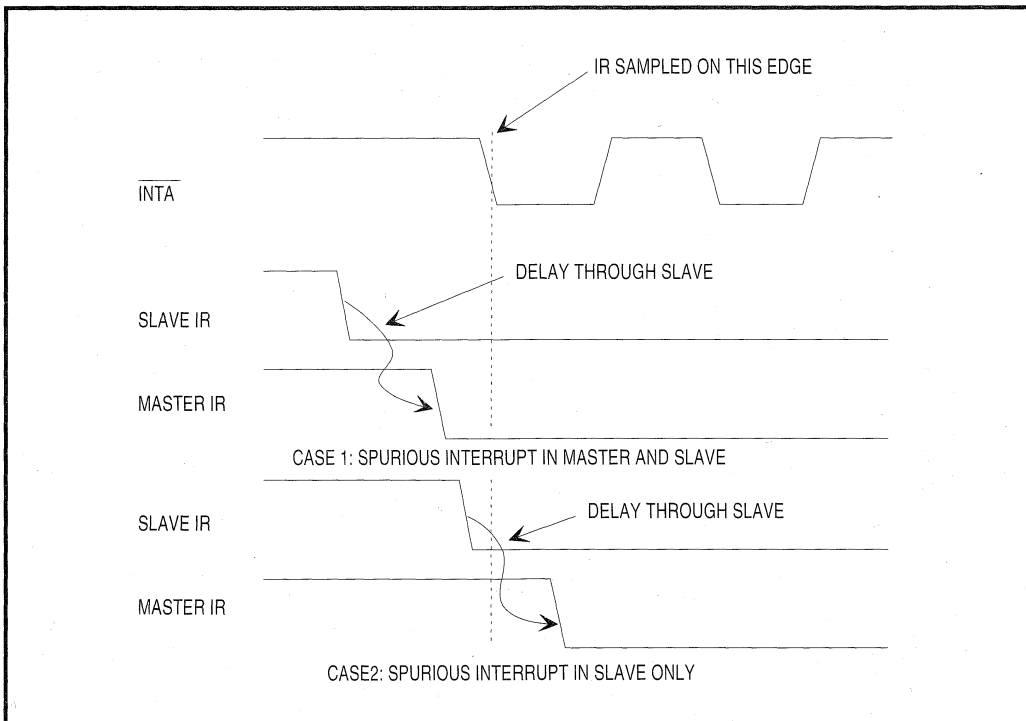
### 8.3.6.5. ISSUING EOI COMMANDS IN A CASCADED SYSTEM

Interrupt handlers for slave interrupts must issue two EOI commands: one for the master and one for the slave. The master EOI must be sent first, followed by the slave EOI.

**8.3.6.6. SPURIOUS INTERRUPTS IN A CASCADED SYSTEM**

A spurious interrupt on a master IR line that is uncascaded will result in a spurious IR type 7 being generated. The CAS lines remain inactive when a spurious interrupt is acknowledged (a slave connected to IR7 will not be addressed). The type that is placed on the bus is that of an IR7 interrupt for the master module.

A spurious interrupt on a slave IR pin can cause one of two scenarios (Figure 8.10). If the slave IR line goes inactive well before the falling edge of the first  $\overline{INTA}$ , then the master will generate a spurious IR type 7 interrupt; the slave is not involved. If the slave IR line goes inactive *near* the falling edge of the first  $\overline{INTA}$ , it is possible that the delay through the slave module may be long enough that the interrupt will look like a valid slave interrupt to the master and a *spurious* interrupt to the slave. In this case, the slave will deposit the vector for IR7 on the bus; the handler for slave IR7 must check the In-Service bit to see if the interrupt was valid or spurious.



**Figure 8.10. Spurious Interrupts in a Cascaded System**

### 8.3.7. ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: SPECIAL MASK MODE

Some applications require an interrupt handler to dynamically alter the system priority structure. For example, the handler may need to inhibit lower priority interrupts during a portion of its execution but enable some of them during another portion of the code. In Fully Nested Mode this is impossible, the interrupt handler cannot enable lower priority interrupts.

Special Mask Mode circumvents the default masking of lower priority interrupts in Fully Nested Mode. When Special Mask Mode is selected, only interrupts from the interrupt source currently in service are masked, all other interrupt requests (of both lower and higher priority) are enabled. Interrupts can still be masked individually using the Interrupt Mask Register.

### 8.3.8. ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: SPECIAL FULLY NESTED MODE

Special Fully Nested Mode allows the nesting of interrupts to be preserved in a cascaded system. An example best illustrates the need for Special Fully Nested Mode.

Let's assume that a slave 8259A module receives an interrupt and passes that interrupt request on to the master 8259A module that is in Fully Nested Mode. When the slave interrupt is acknowledged, the In-Service bit in the slave is set as is the In-Service bit for the slave input in the master. If a higher priority interrupt is received by the slave, the master will ignore it since the In-Service bit for the slave module is set. The fully nested structure has been disturbed since a higher priority interrupt cannot interrupt a lower priority handler.

Special Fully Nested Mode restores the fully nested structure in a cascaded system. When programmed for Special Fully Nested Mode, a master 8259A module will enable interrupt requests from all sources of higher or **equal** priority to the request currently in-service. This allows a slave 8259A module to issue higher priority interrupts to the master while there are lower priority slave interrupts in-service.

Special precautions need to be taken when using Special Fully Nested Mode. The software must determine if any other slave interrupts are still in service before issuing an EOI to the master. This is done by issuing a specific EOI to the slave and then reading the slave's In-Service Register. If the slave's In-Service Register is all zeros then there are no other interrupts in-service for the slave and an EOI can be sent to the master. If there are other slave interrupts still in service, then an EOI should not be sent to the master 8259A module.

Special Fully Nested Mode should only be used in the master 8259A module in a cascaded system.

### 8.3.9. ALTERNATE MODES OF OPERATION: THE POLL COMMAND

Conventional polling, as described earlier, requires that the CPU check each peripheral device to determine if it needs servicing. Polling can also be accomplished with an 8259A module by

using the Poll Command. Polling efficiency is improved by using the 8259A module since the CPU need only check the 8259A module, not each of the devices connected to it.

The Poll Command is useful in various situations. For example, if more than 64 interrupt sources are required in a system (64 is the limit for cascaded 8259A modules) the interrupt capability can be expanded using polling. The number of interrupt request sources in a polled 8259A module system is limited only by the number of 8259A modules that can be addressed.

The Poll Command takes the place of a standard interrupt acknowledge sequence. The external maskable interrupt request of the CPU must be disabled either by disconnecting it from the 8259A module (when possible) or by clearing the Interrupt Enable Flag in the CPU (with a CLI instruction). Polling is covered in greater detail in the 8259A module programming section.

## **8.4. PROGRAMMING THE 8259A MODULE**

The following sections describe the programming of a single 8259A module. Programming requirements that are specific to the 80C186EC/C188EC are covered in Section 8.5.

### **8.4.1. INITIALIZATION AND OPERATION COMMAND WORDS**

The command register set of the 8259A module is divided into two types of words: *Initialization Command Words* (ICWs) and *Operation Command Words* (OCWs). The Initialization Command Words are usually written only once during program execution (during system initialization). The Operation Command Words can be written at any time during program execution (after initialization is complete).

The Initialization Command Words specify information that does not change during execution. For example, the base interrupt type for the module does not change and is specified by an Initialization Command Word. The Operation Command Words specify conditions that may change during execution. The Interrupt Mask Register, for example, is accessed through an Operation Command Word.

### **8.4.2. PROGRAMMING SEQUENCE AND REGISTER ADDRESSING**

All of the 8259A module registers reside within an address window of 2 bytes. Write access to individual registers is controlled by a combination of the following:

- the address of the register (state of the A0 address line on the 8259A module)
- the data written to the register
- the sequence in which the data is written

Registers are read from the 8259A module by first sending a “read command” and then immediately reading from the module. The Interrupt Mask Register is an exception to this rule; it can be read directly.

Each 8259A module occupies two locations in the memory map. For the 80C186EC/C188EC, each module occupies two consecutive words in the Peripheral Control Block. These “access ports” are named MPICP0, MPICP1, SPICP0 and SPICP1 (the “M” and “S” refer to master and slave). It is through these access ports that the Initialization and Operation Command Words are sent.

The A0 line for both of the 8259A modules is connected to the internal A1 address line. For accesses to registers MPICP0 and SPICP0 the A0 line on the corresponding 8259A modules is a logic zero. For accesses to registers MPICP1 and SPICP1 the A0 line on the corresponding 8259A modules is a logic one.

### **8.4.3. INITIALIZING THE 8259A MODULE**

The 8259A module must be initialized before it can be used. After reset, the state of all of the 8259A registers is undefined. The 8259A modules must be initialized before the Interrupt Enable flag in the Processor Status Word is set (enabling interrupts).

#### **8.4.3.1. 8258A INITIALIZATION SEQUENCE**

The 8259A module initialization sequence is usually performed as a part of the boot code for the system. The Initialization Command Words are written to the 8259A module following the sequence shown in Figure 8.11. The exact sequence must be followed. The 8259A module has a state machine that controls access to the individual registers, if the sequence is not followed correctly the state machine will get “lost” causing improper initialization. Should the initialization sequence be interrupted, the state machine can be reinitialized by re-starting the initialization process.

Initialization begins with the writing of ICW1. ICW1 is accessed whenever a write to the 8259A module occurs with A0=0 (MPICP0 or SPICP0) and data bit D4=1. The following actions occur within the 8259A module when ICW1 is written:

- The edge sense circuit is reset
- The Interrupt Mask Register is cleared
- The IR7 line is assigned lowest priority (default)
- The slave mode address is set to 7
- Special Mask Mode is cleared
- The Status Read bits are set to select the Interrupt Request Register

Initialization continues with the successive writing of ICW2, ICW3 and ICW4. The following sections describe each of the Initialization Command Words in detail.

#### 8.4.3.2. ICW1: EDGE/LEVEL MODE, SINGLE/CASCADE MODE

The bit positions and definitions for ICW1 are summarized in Figure 8.12.

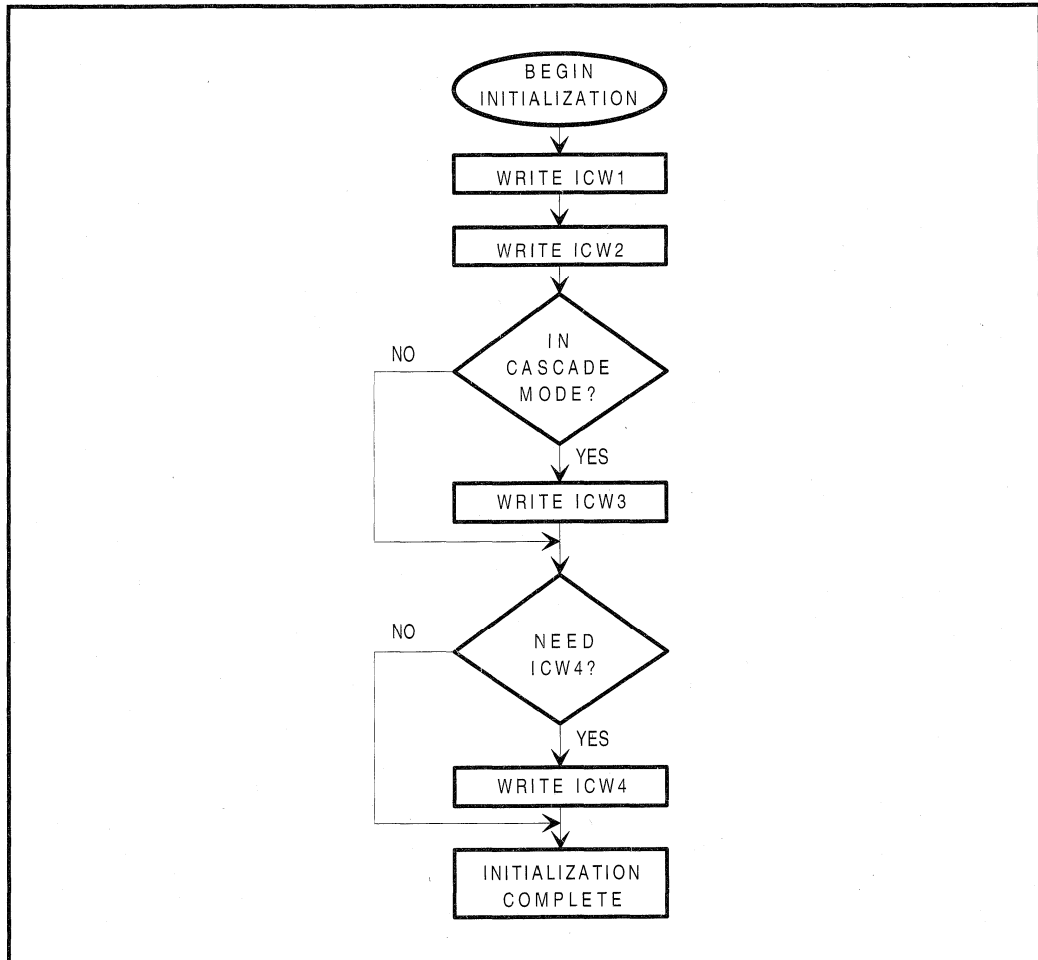
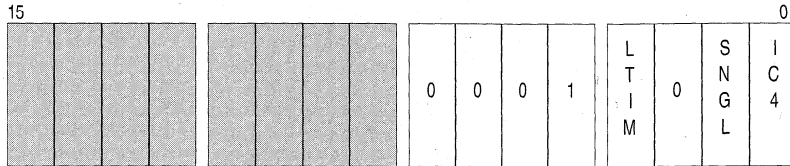


Figure 8.11. 8259A Module Initialization Sequence



**Register Name:** Initialization Command Word 1  
**Register Mnemonic:** ICW1 (accessed through MPICP0 and SPICP0)  
**Register Function:** Begins 8259A module initialization sequence.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
LTIM	<i>Level Trigger Mode</i>	X	Set to select level triggering on IR inputs. Clear to select edge triggering.
SNGL	<i>Single 8259A in System</i>	X	Set when 8259A module is the only one in system. Clear to select cascade mode. SNGL must be cleared for 80C186EC/C188EC systems.
IC4	<i>ICW4 Needed?</i>	X	Set to indicate that an ICW4 is needed. ICW4 is always needed for 80C186EC/C188EC systems.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.12. ICW1 Register**

The LTIM bit controls the edge sense circuitry on the interrupt request input lines. There is no provision for setting the mode of the individual IR lines.

The SNGL bit selects either single master or cascade (master/slave) mode. The SNGL bit must be programmed to select cascade mode for both 8259A modules in the 80C186EC/C188EC Interrupt Control Unit.

The IC4 bit, when set, informs the 8259A module that an ICW4 command will be issued. ICW4 is always needed for the 80C186EC/C188EC.

**The remainder of the bits in the ICW1 register must be programmed with the bit values specified in Figure 8.12.**

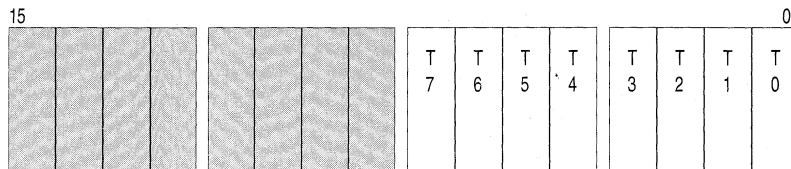
**8.4.3.3. ICW2: BASE INTERRUPT TYPE**

ICW2 (Figure 8.13) specifies the most significant 5 bits of the interrupt type for the 8259A module. The lower 3 bits are automatically set equal to the interrupt request line that is being acknowledged. For example, if ICW2 is programmed for 20H and IR4 is being acknowledged, then the interrupt type driven on the bus during an interrupt acknowledge cycle would be 24H.

Pay strict attention to reserved interrupt types when assigning a base interrupt type to an 8259A module. Use of the reserved interrupt types could cause incompatibilities with future Intel products.

**The remainder of the bits in the ICW2 register must be programmed with the bit values specified in Figure 8.13.**

**Register Name:** Initialization Command Word 2  
**Register Mnemonic:** ICW2 (accessed through MPICP1 and SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Sets the base interrupt type for the module.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
T7:3	<i>Interrupt Type</i>	X	T7:3 make up the high order 5 bits of the interrupt type for each of the IR lines. The 3 least significant bits are set equal to the IR line requesting the interrupt.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.13 ICW2 Register**

**8.4.3.4. ICW3: CASCADED PINS/SLAVE ADDRESS**

The function of ICW3 differs between 8259A modules configured as masters and those configured as slaves. ICW3 is only accepted by the 8259A module if it has been programmed for cascade mode.

In a master 8259A module, ICW3 is the *Master Cascade Configuration Register* (Figure 8.14). Each bit in the Master Cascade Configuration Register corresponds to an interrupt

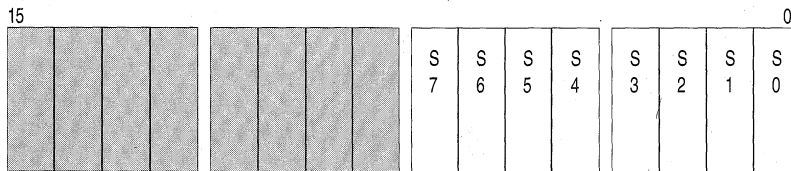
request line. Setting a bit in this register informs the master 8259A module that a slave 8259A module is connected to the corresponding input. For example, if a slave is connected to IR3 of the master, the S3 bit in the master must be set.

In a slave 8259A module, ICW3 is the Slave ID Register (Figure 8.15). The programmed ID of a slave must match the IR on the master to which the slave is connected. For example, if a slave is connected to IR7 of the master 8259A module, then the slave's ID must be programmed to seven.

**8.4.3.5. ICW4: SPECIAL FULLY NESTED MODE, EOI MODE, FACTORY TEST MODES**

The bit positions and definitions for ICW4 are shown in Figure 8.16.

**Register Name:** Initialization Command Word 3 (Master)  
**Register Mnemonic:** ICW3 (accessed through MPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Selects cascaded input pins on master 8259A.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
S7:0	Slave IRs	XXH	Each of the S7:0 bits corresponds to the IR line of the same number. Setting an S7:0 bit indicates that a slave 8259A is attached to the corresponding IR line. The S7 bit must be set in the master 8259A module for the 80C186EC/C188EC.

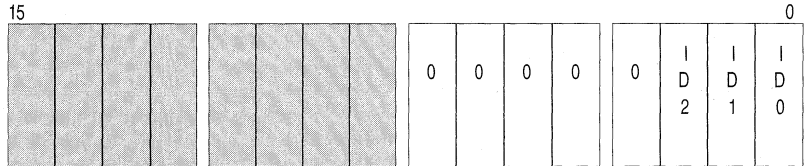
**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.14. ICW3 Master Register**

The FT2:0 bits are used to select test modes during factory test. The 8259A test modes redefine the 80C186EC/C188EC pinout to facilitate device testing. **The FT2:0 bits must be programmed with the values shown in Figure 8.16.** Failure to follow this guideline will result in system failure and possible damage to the 80C186EC/C188EC system.

The remainder of the bits in the ICW4 register must be programmed with the bit values specified in Figure 8.16.

**Register Name:** Initialization Command Word 3 (Slave)  
**Register Mnemonic:** ICW3 (accessed through SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Sets Slave ID for slave 8259A module.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
ID2:0	<i>Slave ID</i>	XXH	Sets the ID for a slave 8259A module. The slave module in the 80C186EC/C188EC must be set to an ID of 7 (00000111 binary).

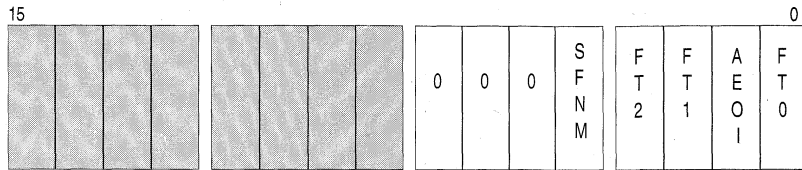
**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.15. Slave ICW3**

#### 8.4.4. THE OPERATION COMMAND WORDS

The 8259A is reprogrammed during program execution by using the Operation Command Words. The Operation Command Words can be sent at any time after initialization of the 8259A module is complete. There are three Operation Command Words (OCW1, OCW2 and OCW3) and they are addressed through a combination of the A0 (register address) line and the state of data bits D3 and D4 (see Table 8.1).

**Register Name:** Initialization Command Word 4  
**Register Mnemonic:** ICW4 (accessed through MPICP1 and SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Selects SFN Mode and AEOI Mode.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
SFNM	<i>Special Fully Nested Mode</i>	X	Set to select Special Fully Nested Mode. Special Fully Nested Mode must only be used in the master of a cascaded system.
AEOI	<i>Automatic EOI Mode</i>	X	Set to select Automatic EOI Mode. Automatic EOI Mode can only be used in the master of a cascaded system.
FT2:0	<i>Factory Test Mode Select</i>	XXX	These bits select factory test modes. <b>The FT2:0 bits must be written to as follows:</b>  FT2=0 FT1=0 FT0=1

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

Figure 8.16. ICW4

#### 8.4.4.1. MASKING INTERRUPTS: OCW1

OCW1 is the Interrupt Mask Register (See Figure 8.17). Setting a bit in the Interrupt Mask Register inhibits further interrupts from the corresponding IR line. For example, if the M3 bit is set then no interrupts will be generated by the IR3 line. Clearing a bit in the Interrupt Mask Register enables interrupts from the corresponding IR line.

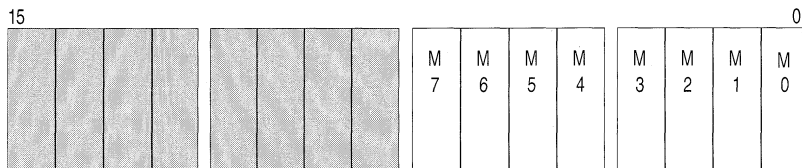
Table 8.1. Operation Command Word Addressing

REGISTER	A0	D4	D3
OCW1	1	X	X
OCW2	0	0	0
OCW3	0	0	1

Note that the Interrupt Mask Register operates on the output of the Interrupt Request Register. The IR lines can still set the bits in the Interrupt Request Register even though they are masked. An interrupt will be requested if a masked IR line sets its Interrupt Request bit and then is un-masked.

The Interrupt Mask Register is read directly by read cycles with A0=1 (the MPICP1 and SPICP1 Peripheral Control Block registers).

**Register Name:** Operation Command Word 1  
**Register Mnemonic:** OCW1 (accessed through MPPIC1, SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Interrupt Mask Register.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
M7:0	<i>Mask IR</i>	XXH	Setting a bit in the Interrupt Mask Register inhibits the corresponding interrupt request line from generating an interrupt. Clearing an M7:0 enables interrupts from the corresponding source.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.17. OCW1- Interrupt Mask Register**

### 8.4.4.2. EOI AND INTERRUPT PRIORITY: OCW2

OCW2 (Figure 8.18) is used to set priority and execute EOI commands.

The R (rotate), SL (specific level) and EOI (end-of-interrupt) bits comprise a three bit instruction field. The instruction field is decoded as shown in Table 8.2.

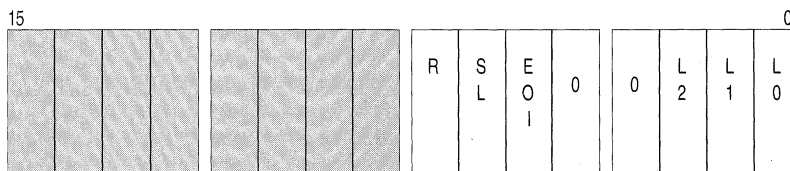
The *Rotate in Automatic EOI Mode* commands control priority rotation when the 8259A module is programmed for Automatic EOI Mode (in ICW4). When Rotate in Automatic EOI Mode is set, priority will rotate automatically at the end of the interrupt acknowledge cycle. Automatic priority rotation in Automatic EOI Mode is cancelled by issuing the clear command (R=0, SL=0, EOI=0).

Table 8.2. OCW2 Instruction Decoding

R	SL	EOI	COMMAND
0	0	0	Rotate in Automatic EOI Mode (Clear)
0	0	1	Non-Specific EOI Command
0	1	0	No Operation
0	1	1	Specific EOI *
1	0	0	Rotate in Automatic EOI Mode (Set)
1	0	1	Rotate on Non-Specific EOI Command
1	1	0	Set Priority (Specific Rotation)*
1	1	1	Rotate on Specific EOI Command*

\* These commands use the L2:0 field

**Register Name:** Operation Command Word 2  
**Register Mnemonic:** OCW2 (accessed through MPPIC1, SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Priority and EOI commands.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
R	<i>Rotate</i>	X	See Table 8.2.
SL	<i>Specific Level</i>	X	See Table 8.2.
EOI	<i>End-Of-Interrupt</i>	X	See Table 8.2.
L2:0	<i>IR Level</i>	XXX	Interrupt level to be acted upon. See Table 8.2 and text.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

Figure 8.18. OCW2

The *Non-Specific EOI Command* resets the highest priority In-Service bit. The *Rotate on Non-Specific EOI Command* resets the highest priority In-Service bit and assigns the corresponding IR line the lowest priority.

The *Specific EOI Command* resets the In-Service bit for the IR line specified in the L2:0 field of OCW2. The *Rotate on Specific EOI Command* resets the In-Service bit for the IR line specified in the L2:0 field of OCW2 and assigns that line the lowest priority.

The *Set Priority Command (Specific Rotation)* assigns the lowest priority to the IR line specified in L2:0 of OCW2.

Bits D4 and D3 are part of the address for the OCW2 register. D4 and D3 must always be programmed to zero. The L2:0 bits are “don’t care” when they are not used by an OCW2 instruction.

#### **8.4.4.3. SPECIAL MASK MODE, POLL MODE AND REGISTER READING: OCW3**

The bit definitions for OCW3 are shown in Figure 8.19.

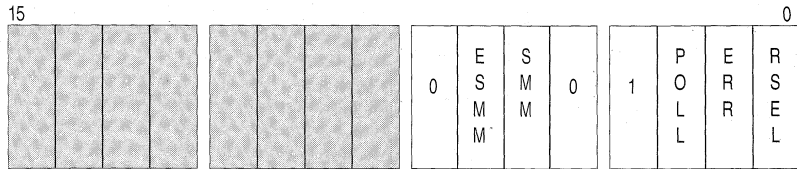
The ESMM (Enable Special Mask Mode) and SMM (Special Mask Mode) bits are used to place the 8259A module into Special Mask Mode. Special Mask Mode is selected by setting the SMM bit. The SMM bit can only be modified (set or cleared) when the ESMM bit is a one.

The ERR (Enable Read Register) and RSEL (Register Select) bits select which register will be read from the 8259A module during read cycles that have A0=0 (A0=1 reads the Interrupt Mask Register). If the RSEL bit is set, read cycles with A0=0 will read the In-Service Register. When RSEL is clear, read cycles with A0=0 will read the Interrupt Request Register. The RSEL bit can only be modified when ERR is set. RSEL does not have to be re-written for each read cycle; the 8259A module “remembers” which register has been selected in OCW3. After initialization the RSEL bit is cleared, selecting the Interrupt Request Register.

The POLL bit is used to issue a poll command to the 8259A module. Once the Poll Command is issued, the 8259A module will treat the next  $\overline{RD}$  pulse (qualified with  $\overline{CS}$ , the address is ignored) as an interrupt acknowledge. If an interrupt of sufficient priority is present then the In-Service bit for that source is set. The 8259A module then releases the Poll Status Byte onto the data bus (see Figure 8.16). The Poll Status Byte will have bit 7 set if a device attached to the 8259A module has requested servicing; the lower three bits indicate the highest priority IR line that is requesting service. If bit 7 is clear (no device is requesting service) then the lower three bits of the Poll Status Byte are indeterminate and should be ignored. The Poll Command is always a two step process: first the Poll Command is sent to the 8259A module, then the Poll Status Byte is read. An EOI must be issued at the end of the code for each service request, just as with normal interrupt handlers.



**Register Name:** Operation Command Word 3  
**Register Mnemonic:** OCW3 (accessed through MPPIC1, SPICP1)  
**Register Function:** Controls Special Mask Mode and register reading.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
ESMM	<i>Enable Special Mask Mode</i>	X	ESMM must be set to modify SMM.
SMM	<i>Special Mask Mode</i>	X	Set SMM to select Special Mask Mode (allows lower priority interrupts to interrupt higher priority handlers).
POLL	<i>Poll Command</i>	X	Setting this bit starts the polling sequence. Polling always takes precedence over reading othe 8259A registers.
ERR	<i>Enable Register Read</i>	X	ERR must be set to modify RSEL.
RSEL	<i>Read Register Select</i>	X	RSEL chooses which register is read during the next read cycle. When RSEL is set the In-Service Register is read; when RSEL is cleared the Interrupt Request Register is read.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.19. OCW3**

The Poll Command can be used with all modes of operation for the 8259A module. Polling and standard interrupt processing can be used within the same program. Systems that use polling as the only method of device servicing must still fully initialize the 8259A module. The base interrupt type must be programmed in the 8259A module even though this value will not be used (i.e., it is a “dummy” value).

The poll command always takes precedence over a register read command.

The *Non-Specific EOI Command* resets the highest priority In-Service bit. The *Rotate on Non-Specific EOI Command* resets the highest priority In-Service bit and assigns the corresponding IR line the lowest priority.

The *Specific EOI Command* resets the In-Service bit for the IR line specified in the L2:0 field of OCW2. The *Rotate on Specific EOI Command* resets the In-Service bit for the IR line specified in the L2:0 field of OCW2 and assigns that line the lowest priority.

The *Set Priority Command (Specific Rotation)* assigns the lowest priority to the IR line specified in L2:0 of OCW2.

Bits D4 and D3 are part of the address for the OCW2 register. D4 and D3 must always be programmed to zero. The L2:0 bits are “don’t care” when they are not used by an OCW2 instruction.

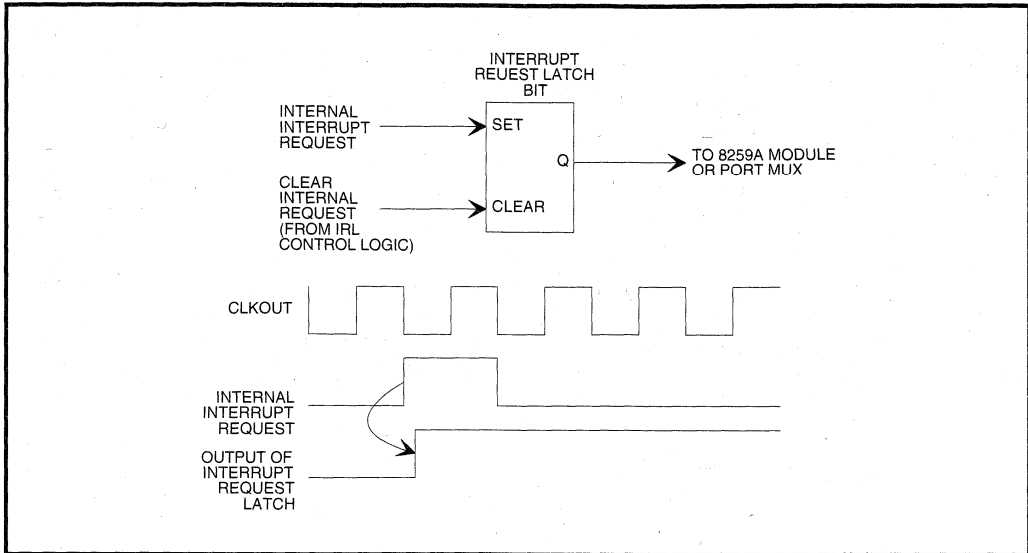
#### **8.4.4.3. SPECIAL MASK MODE, POLL MODE AND REGISTER READING: OCW3**

The bit definitions for OCW3 are shown in Figure 8.19.

The ESMM (Enable Special Mask Mode) and SMM (Special Mask Mode) bits are used to place the 8259A module into Special Mask Mode. Special Mask Mode is selected by setting the SMM bit. The SMM bit can only be modified (set or cleared) when the ESMM bit is a one.

The ERR (Enable Read Register) and RSEL (Register Select) bits select which register will be read from the 8259A module during read cycles that have A0=0 (A0=1 reads the Interrupt Mask Register). If the RSEL bit is set, read cycles with A0=0 will read the In-Service Register. When RSEL is clear, read cycles with A0=0 will read the Interrupt Request Register. The RSEL bit can only be modified when ERR is set. RSEL does not have to be re-written for each read cycle; the 8259A module “remembers” which register has been selected in OCW3. After initialization the RSEL bit is cleared, selecting the Interrupt Request Register.

The POLL bit is used to issue a poll command to the 8259A module. Once the Poll Command is issued, the 8259A module will treat the next  $\overline{RD}$  pulse (qualified with  $\overline{CS}$ , the address is ignored) as an interrupt acknowledge. If an interrupt of sufficient priority is present then the In-Service bit for that source is set. The 8259A module then releases the Poll Status Byte onto the data bus (see Figure 8.16). The Poll Status Byte will have bit 7 set if a device attached to the 8259A module has requested servicing; the lower three bits indicate the highest priority IR line that is requesting service. If bit 7 is clear (no device is requesting service) then the lower three bits of the Poll Status Byte are indeterminate and should be ignored. The Poll Command is always a two step process: first the Poll Command is sent to the 8259A module, then the Poll Status Byte is read. An EOI must be issued at the end of the code for each service request, just as with normal interrupt handlers.



**Figure 8.21. Interrupt Request Latch Register Function**

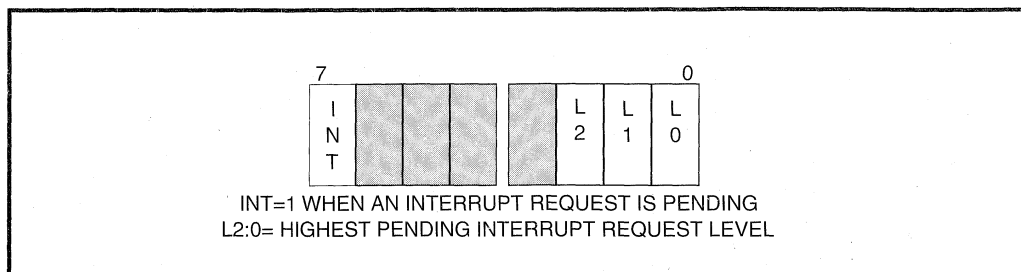
There are a total of three Interrupt Request Registers: one for the Timer/Counter Unit, one for the DMA Unit and one for the Serial Communication Unit.

#### 8.5.1.1. DIRECTLY SUPPORTED INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES

Seven of the eleven internal interrupt sources are directly supported by the Interrupt Control Unit. The connections between the Interrupt Request Latch Registers and the slave 8259A module are “hardwired” and are not programmable. The default priority within the slave 8259A module is fixed due to the internal connections (Figure 8.22). The default priority can be changed by using Specific or Automatic Rotation.

#### 8.5.1.2. INDIRECTLY SUPPORTED INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES

The interrupt request lines for DMA channel 0, DMA channel 1 and the receive and transmit interrupts for serial channel 1 are not tied internally to the Interrupt Control Unit. These interrupt requests are routed to external device pins through the Port 3 Multiplexer (Figure 8.23). If internal interrupt support for these devices is desired, an external connection must be made from the multiplexed interrupt request outputs to the INT input pins of the Interrupt Control Unit.



**Figure 8.20. Poll Status Byte**

## 8.5. MODULE INTEGRATION: THE 80C186EC INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT

The 80C186EC/C188EC Interrupt Control Unit uses two 8259A modules with additional support circuitry. This section describes the integration of the two 8259A modules and the programming of the Interrupt Control Unit.

### 8.5.1. INTERNAL INTERRUPT SOURCES

The 80C186/C188EC has a total of eleven internal interrupt requests from the on-chip peripherals:

- Timer 0 Maximum Count (TMI0)
- Timer 1 Maximum Count (TMI1)
- Timer 2 Maximum Count (TMI2)
- DMA Channel 0 Terminal Count (DMAI0)
- DMA Channel 1 Terminal Count (DMAI1)
- DMA Channel 2 Terminal Count (DMAI2)
- DMA Channel 3 Terminal Count (DMAI3)
- Serial Channel 0 Receive Complete (RXI0)
- Serial Channel 0 Transmit Complete (TXI0)
- Serial Channel 1 Receive Complete (RXI1)
- Serial Channel 1 Transmit Complete (TXI1)

Internally, the request from each of these sources is an active high pulse that is valid for one-half of a clock cycle. The *Interrupt Request Latch Registers* convert the pulsed request into a valid level for the 8259A modules (see Figure 8.21). The Interrupt Request Latch Registers also add interrupt handler testing capability to the 80C186EC/C188EC.

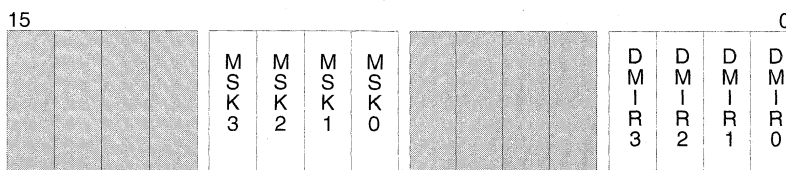
### 8.5.1.3. USING THE INTERRUPT REQUEST LATCH REGISTERS

An interrupt handler for an on-board peripheral must clear that peripheral's Interrupt Request Latch bit before issuing an EOI to the slave 8259A. If the Interrupt Request Latch bit is not cleared, the IR line to the slave 8259A module will remain high, requesting another interrupt.

The three Interrupt Request Registers (TIMIRL, SCUIRL and DMAIRL) are shown in Figures 8.24 through 8.26. All three registers function identically.

The state of the IR (interrupt request latch) bits can only be changed when the corresponding mask bit is set. For example, to clear an interrupt request from Timer 0 you must write a word to the TIMRL register with the TOIR bit cleared and the MSK0 bit set. The IRL bits can be read as well as written; the MSK bits always read back as zero.

**Register Name:** DMA Interrupt Request Latch  
**Register Mnemonic:** DMAIRL  
**Register Function:** Latches DMA interrupt requests.

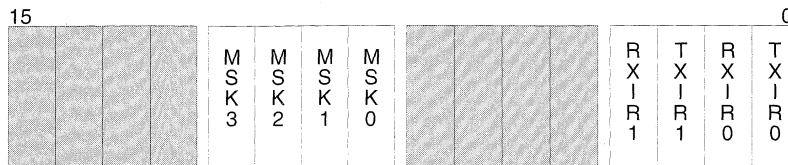


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DMIR3:0	<i>DMA Interrupt Request</i>	0H	The corresponding DMA channel sets a bit in this register to post an interrupt request. These bits must be cleared to deassert the IR signal to the 8259A module or to the Port 3 Multiplexer.
MSK3:0	<i>IR Latch Clear Mask</i>	XH	This bit must be set to modify the state of the associated DMIR3:0 bit. The MSK3:0 bits are safeguards against accidentally clearing a pending interrupt request. These bits are write only.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.24. DMA Interrupt Request Latch Register**

**Register Name:** Serial Communications Interrupt Request Latch  
**Register Mnemonic:** SCUIRL  
**Register Function:** Latches serial communications interrupt requests.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TXIR1:0	<i>Serial Transmitter Interrupt Request</i>	0H	These bits are set by the corresponding transmitter in the Serial Communications Unit. These bits must be cleared to deassert the IR signal to the 8259A module or to the Port 3 Multiplexer.
RXIR1:0	<i>Serial Receiver Interrupt Request</i>	0H	These bits are set by the corresponding receiver in the Serial Communications Unit. These bits must be cleared to deassert the IR signal to the 8259A module or to the Port 3 Multiplexer.
MSK3:0	<i>IR Latch Clear Mask</i>	XH	This bit must be set to modify the state of the corresponding IR bit. The MSK3:0 bits are safeguards against accidentally clearing a pending interrupt request. These bits are write only.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.25. Serial Communications Interrupt Request Latch Register**

#### 8.5.1.4. USING THE INTERRUPT REQUEST LATCH REGISTERS TO DEBUG INTERRUPT HANDLERS

The individual Interrupt Request Latch bits can be set by software as well as cleared. Setting an Interrupt Request Latch bit will post an interrupt request *just as if the on-chip peripheral had requested an interrupt*. This property allows the debugging of interrupt handlers independent of peripheral function. A serial port interrupt handler, for example, could be debugged by initiating simulated interrupts rather than connecting the necessary hardware to the serial port.

## 8.6. HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS WITH THE INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT

The following sections cover hardware interface information for the Interrupt Control Unit. Specific timing values are not presented as these are subject to change. Consult the most recent version of the 80C186EC (or 80C188EC) data sheet for timing information.

### 8.6.1. INTERRUPT LATENCY AND RESPONSE TIME

*Interrupt latency* is the time required for the CPU to begin the interrupt acknowledge sequence once an unmasked external interrupt is presented. *Interrupt response time* is the amount of time necessary to complete the interrupt acknowledge cycle and transfer program control to the interrupt handler.

The 8259A modules add a finite delay to the interrupt latency. The 8259A modules are asynchronous; the path through the module is modeled as a purely combinatorial delay known as the Interrupt Resolution Time ( $T_{IRES}$ ). The Interrupt Resolution Time is defined as the delay from an IR line being asserted to the interrupt request output going active (Figure 8.27). An interrupt request on the slave 8259A module must travel through two 8259A units (the slave and the master) and therefore will have twice the interrupt resolution delay ( $2 \times T_{IRES}$ ).

### 8.6.2. RESETTING THE EDGE DETECTOR

When programmed for edge triggered mode, the 8259A module activates an edge detect circuit that sits between the IR lines and the Interrupt Request Register (see Figure 8.4). The edge detect circuit is reset one of two ways: during initialization of the module or by deasserting the IR line.

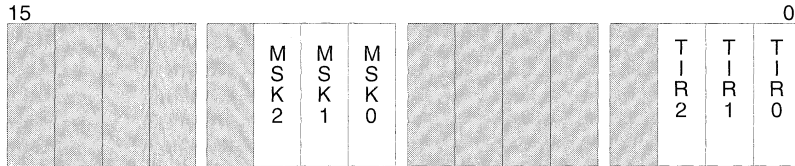
The edge detect circuit requires that the IR line be held low for a minimum amount of time ( $T_{IRLH}$ ) in order to reset properly (see Figure 8.28). Failure to meet the specification for minimum low time will result in no further interrupts being generated from an interrupt source.

### 8.6.3. READY GENERATION

The on-chip 8259A modules do not supply a READY signal to the CPU during interrupt acknowledge cycles. The hardware designer must insure that a READY signal is applied to properly terminate interrupt acknowledge cycles. Wait states are not required for interrupt acknowledge cycles that access the on-chip 8259A modules. External cascaded 8259A devices may require wait states.

READY is automatically asserted for **read and write** accesses to the on-board 8259A modules (through the Peripheral Control Block).

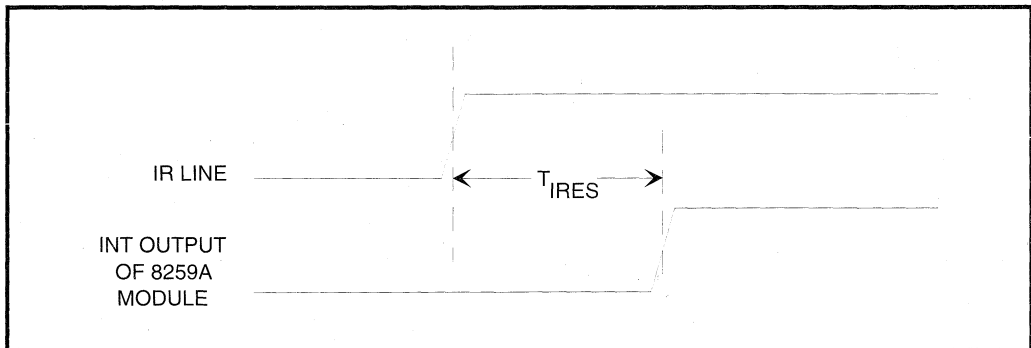
**Register Name:** Timer Interrupt Request Latch  
**Register Mnemonic:** TIMIRL  
**Register Function:** Latches Timer/Counter Unit interrupt requests.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
T12:0	<i>Timer Interrupt Request</i>	0H	The corresponding timer sets a bit in this register to post an interrupt request. These bits must be cleared to deassert the IR signal to the 8259A module.
MSK3:0	<i>IR Latch Clear Mask</i>	XH	This bit must be set to modify the state of the associated DMIR3:0 bit. The MSK3:0 bits are safeguards against accidentally clearing a pending interrupt request. These bits are write only.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.26. DMA Interrupt Request Latch Register**



**Figure 8.27. Interrupt Resolution Time**



## 8.6. HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS WITH THE INTERRUPT CONTROL UNIT

The following sections cover hardware interface information for the Interrupt Control Unit. Specific timing values are not presented as these are subject to change. Consult the most recent version of the 80C186EC (or 80C188EC) data sheet for timing information.

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### 8.6.2. RESETTING THE EDGE DETECTOR

When programmed for edge triggered mode, the 8259A module activates an edge detect circuit that sits between the IR lines and the Interrupt Request Register (see Figure 8.4). The edge detect circuit is reset one of two ways: during initialization of the module or by deasserting the IR line.

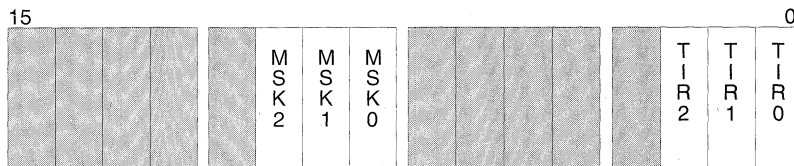
The edge detect circuit requires that the IR line be held low for a minimum amount of time ( $T_{IRLH}$ ) in order to reset properly (see Figure 8.28). Failure to meet the specification for minimum low time will result in no further interrupts being generated from an interrupt source.

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The on-chip 8259A modules do not supply a READY signal to the CPU during interrupt acknowledge cycles. The hardware designer must insure that a READY signal is applied to properly terminate interrupt acknowledge cycles. Wait states are not required for interrupt acknowledge cycles that access the on-chip 8259A modules. External cascaded 8259A devices may require wait states.

READY is automatically asserted for **read and write** accesses to the on-board 8259A modules (through the Peripheral Control Block).

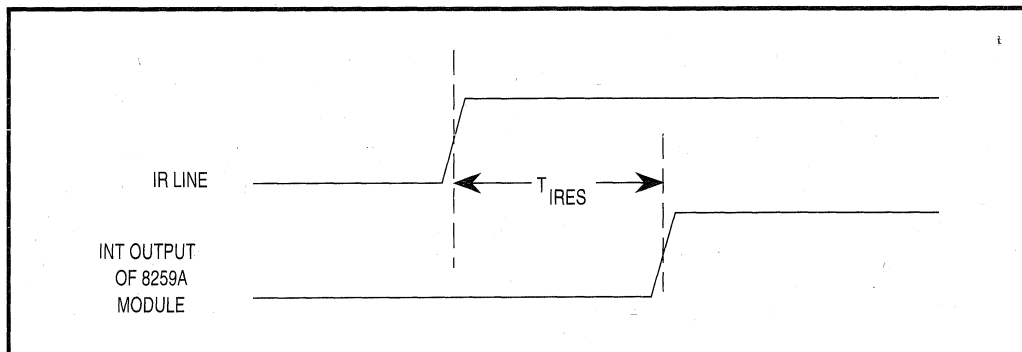
**Register Name:** Timer Interrupt Request Latch  
**Register Mnemonic:** TIMIRL  
**Register Function:** Latches Timer/Counter Unit interrupt requests.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TI2:0	<i>Timer Interrupt Request</i>	0H	The corresponding timer sets a bit in this register to post an interrupt request. These bits must be cleared to deassert the IR signal to the 8259A module.
MSK3:0	<i>IR Latch Clear Mask</i>	XH	This bit must be set to modify the state of the associated DMIR3:0 bit. The MSK3:0 bits are safeguards against accidentally clearing a pending interrupt request. These bits are write only.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Bits indicating a zero or a one must be written with that value to guarantee device operation.

**Figure 8.26. DMA Interrupt Request Latch Register**



**Figure 8.27. Interrupt Resolution Time**

*Back-to-Back Reads* ( $T_{RHRL}$ ) and *Back-to-Back Writes* ( $T_{WHWL}$ ) both refer to the recovery time required by the 82C59A-2 between two accesses of the same type. This spec is violated above a processor frequency of 12.5 MHz. The simplest way to solve this problem is through the insertion of a “software wait state” in the programming code. The most common software wait state is the “JMP \$+2” instruction. “JMP \$+2” insures an uninterruptable delay of 14 clock cycles. Figure 8.27 shows the use of the “JMP \$+2” in a typical programming sequence.

```

MOV    DX, EXT59_ODD          ; ACCESS IMR (A0=1)
MOV    AL, 07FH              ; UNMASK IR7 ONLY
OUT    DX, AL
JMP   $+2                   ; SOFTWARE WAIT STATE
MOV    DX, EXT59_EVN        ; READ ISR (A0=1, ISR
                           ; WILL BE SELECTED)
MOV    AL, 0BH              ; READ ISR COMMAND
OUT    DX, AL                ;

```

**Figure 8.30. Software Wait State for External 82C59A-2**

*Non-Alike Access Recovery Time* ( $T_{CHCL}$ ) refers to the recovery time required by the 82C59A-2 between accesses of different types (i.e., a  $\overline{RD}$  then a  $\overline{WR}$  or a  $\overline{WR}$  then an  $\overline{INTA}$ ). This problem is more complicated than the two previous specs because the programmer does not typically have control over the  $\overline{INTA}$  signal. The only way to avoid violating this spec for  $\overline{INTA}$  is disabling interrupts during reads or writes to the 82C59A-2 and not re-enabling interrupts until the recovery time has elapsed. The “JMP \$+2” method may be used for wait states between reads and writes.

## 8.7. MODULE EXAMPLES

Example 8.1 is a template for system initialization. Follow this template closely when designing your system software. Failure to initialize the 8259A modules correctly will result in system failure and potentially system damage.

The code necessary to issue an End-Of-Interrupt command is shown in Example 8.2. Note the clearing of the Interrupt Request Register bit to prevent unrequested interrupts from occurring.

Example 8.3 illustrates the use of the POLL Command in lieu of normal interrupt servicing.

```
$MOD186

NAME 80C186EC_ICU_INITIALIZATION_TEMPLATE

; THE FOLLOWING CODE WOULD TYPICALLY BE FOUND IN THE BOOT
; SECTION OF THE SYSTEM SOFTWARE.

; IT IS ASSUMED THAT THE EQUATES FOR THE PCB REGISTER MNEMONICS
; ARE IN THE INCLUDE FILE "PCB_EQUATES.INC"

$INCLUDE (PCB_EQUATES.INC)

BOOT_ROM      SEGMENT                ; THIS IS THE BOOT ROM CODE

                ASSUME CS:BOOT_ROM, DS:NOTHING

; FIRST, INSURE THAT ALL EXTERNAL INTERRUPTS ARE DISABLED.

                CLI                    ; CLEAR CPU INTERRUPT ENABLE

; SET UP INTERRUPT VECTOR TABLE. WE ONLY
; SHOW THE INITIALIZATION OF THE TIMER 0
; VECTOR. THE TIMER 0 VECTOR TYPE IS SET
; TO 28H IN THE SLAVE 8259A INITIALIZATION.

; YOUR SYSTEM CODE NEEDS TO INITIALIZE ALL VECTORS FOR
; THE 8259A MODULES AND ALL EXCEPTIONS AND TRAPS.
;
; WE BEGIN WITH A TYPE 28H INTERRUPT

                XOR     AX, AX          ; CLEAR AX
                MOV     DS, AX         ; DATA SEG POINTS
                                        ; TO VECTOR TABLE

                MOV     AX, OFFSET TIM0_HANDLER
                MOV     BX, 28H*4
                MOV     DS:[BX], AX    ; STORE THE OFFSET
                                        ; OF THE HANDLER
```

### Example 8.1. Template for System Initialization

```

MOV     AX, SEG TIM0_HANDLER
MOV     BX, 28H*4+2
MOV     DS:[BX], AX           ; STORE SEGMENT OF THE
                               ; HANDLER

; THE REMAINDER OF THE VECTORS WOULD BE INITIALIZED SIMILARLY.
; THE ABOVE CODE WAS CHOSEN FOR CLARITY, NOT EFFICIENCY!

; NOW WE BEGIN INITIALIZATION OF THE 8259A MODULES... ICW1 IS ;
; FIRST

MOV     DX, SPICP0           ; ICW1 FOR THE SLAVE IS
                               ; ACCESSED THRU SPICP0
XOR     AH, AH               ; CLEAR RESERVED BITS
MOV     AL, 10001B           ; EDGE TRIGGER, CASCADE
                               ; MODE, IC4 REQUIRED
OUT     DX, AL

; NOW SET BASE INTERRUPT TYPE AT 28H FOR SLAVE MODULE IN ICW2

MOV     DX, SPICP1           ; ICW2 IS ACCESSED THRU
                               ; SPICP1
MOV     AL, 28H              ; BASE TYPE IS 28H
OUT     DX, AL

; SLAVE ID IS NEXT IN ICW3. THE SLAVE ID MUST BE 7.

MOV     DX, SPICP1           ; ICW3 IS ALSO THRU SPICP1
MOV     AL, 7                ; ID-7 ALWAYS FOR SLAVE
                               ; MODULE
OUT     DX, AL

; ICW4 COMPLETES THE INITIALIZATION

MOV     DX, SPICP1           ; ICW4 IS ALSO THRU SPICP1
MOV     AL, 1                ; NO SPECIAL FULLY NESTED
                               ; MODE, NO AEOI MODE
                               ; FACTORY TEST CODES SET
                               ; CORRECTLY
OUT     DX, AL

; THE INITIALIZATION OF THE SLAVE 8259A MODULE IS DONE,
; NOW START THE MASTER INITIALIZATION

```

**Example 8.1. Template for System Initialization (Continued)**

```

MOV    DX, MPICP0      ; ICW1 FOR THE SLAVE IS
                       ; ACCESSED THRU MPICP0
XOR    AH, AH          ; CLEAR RESERVED BITS
MOV    AL, 10001B      ; EDGE TRIGGER, CASCADE
                       ; MODE, IC4 REQUIRED

OUT    DX, AL

; NOW SET BASE INTERRUPT TYPE AT 20H FOR MASTER MODULE IN ICW2
; THIS CREATES A CONTIGUOUS BLOCK FOR THE INTERRUPT CONTROL
; UNIT FROM TYPE 20H TO TYPE 2FH

MOV    DX, MPICP1      ; ICW2 IS ACCESSED THRU
                       ; MPICP1
MOV    AL, 20H         ; BASE TYPE IS 28H
OUT    DX, AL

; NOW PROGRAM THE MASTER CASCADE CONFIGURATION REGISTER IN
; ICW3

MOV    DX, MPICP1      ; ICW3 IS ALSO THRU
                       ; MPICP1
MOV    AL, 8           ; SLAVE MODULE IS
OUT    DX, AL         ; ALWAYS ON IR7

; ICW4 COMPLETES THE INITIALIZATION

MOV    DX, MPICP1      ; ICW4 IS ALSO THRU
                       ; MPICP1
MOV    AL, 1B         ; NO SPECIAL FULLY
                       ; NESTED MODE
                       ; NO AEOI MODE
                       ; FACTORY TEST CODES
                       ; SET CORRECTLY

OUT    DX, AL

; INITIALIZATION IS NOW COMPLETE. WE CAN UNMASK GLOBAL
; INTERRUPTS

STI

;*****
BOOT_ROM    ENDS

```

**Example 8.1. Template for System Initialization (Continued)**

```
; THE FOLLOWING IS A TEMPLATE FOR AN INTERRUPT HANDLER
; FOR THE 80C186EC/C188EC...

INT_HNDLRS SEGMENT
    ASSUME CS:INT_HNDLRS

TIM0_HANDLER    PROC    FAR

                STI                ; NECESSARY TO NEST
                                ; INTERRUPTS

; HANDLER CODE WOULD BE INSERTED HERE.

                MOV    DX, TIMIRL    ; NEED TO CLEAR IR FOR
                MOV    AX, 0100H    ; TIMER 0 (MSK0=1, TIR0=0)
                OUT    DX, AL        ; REQUEST IS NOW DEASSERTED

                MOV    DX, MPICP0    ; EOI COMMAND TO OCW2
                MOV    AX, 20H        ; NON-SPECIFIC EOI
                OUT    DX, AL        ; SEND MASTER EOI

                MOV    DX, SPICP0    ; EOI COMMAND TO OCW2
                MOV    AX, 20H        ; NON-SPECIFIC EOI
                OUT    DX, AL        ; SEND SLAVE EOI

                IRET                ; RETURN TO MAIN TASK

TIM0_HANDLER    ENDP

INT_HNDLRS     ENDS
```

**Example 8.2. Template for a Simple Interrupt Handler**

```
; The following section of code shows the polling process
; for the 8259A modules...
;
; The Register EQUates are not shown for brevity.
;
POLL_EXAMPLE      SEGMENT
                   ASSUME CS:POLL_EXAMPLE

                   MOV    DX, SPICP1   ; POLL Command issued thru OCW3
                   MOV    AX, 0CH      ; POLL=1 and D5:4=01
                   OUT    DX, AL       ; Issue POLL Command

; The slave 8259A will deposit the poll status byte on the
; next RD# pulse...

                   IN     DX, AL       ; Read the slave 8259A
                   TEST   AL, 80H      ; Has there been an interrupt?
                   JNE    INTERPT      ; If D7=1 --> yes!

; If the code gets to here then there has been no interrupt.

                   JMP    NO_INTERRUPTS

INTERPT:          AND    AL, 111B     ; Get just the interrupt type.

; At this point the interrupt type is in AL. Your code
; would branch to the appropriate routines...

POLL_EXMPL      ENDS
```

**Example 8.3. Using the POLL Command**



---

# *Timer/Counter Unit*

**9**

---



# CHAPTER 9 TIMER / COUNTER UNIT

The Timer/Counter Unit can be used in many applications. Some of these applications include: a real-time clock, a square-wave generator and a digital one-shot. All of these can be implemented in a system design. A real-time clock can be used to update time-dependent memory variables. A square-wave generator can be used to provide a system clock tick for peripheral devices. Code examples configuring the Timer/Counter Unit to function as a real-time clock, a square-wave generator, and a digital one-shot are provided in Section 9.4.

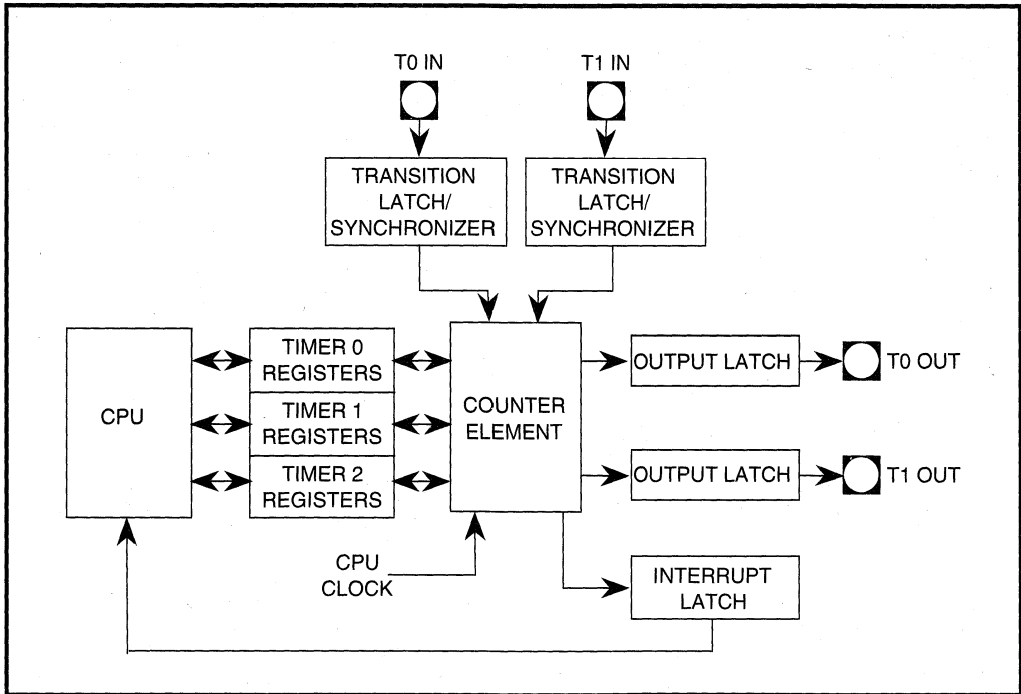


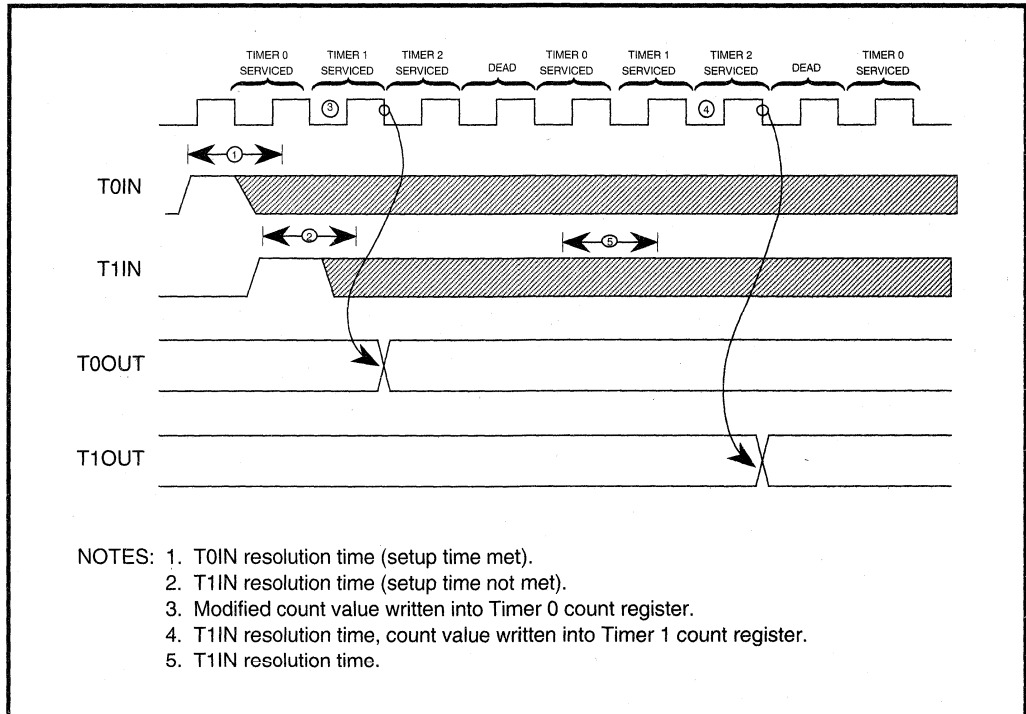
Figure 9.1. Timer/Counter Unit Block Diagram

## 9.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW

The Timer/Counter Unit is composed of three independent 16-bit timers (see Figure 9.1). These timers operate independently of the CPU. The internal Timer/Counter Unit can be modeled as a single counter element, time multiplexed to three register banks. The unit is serviced over 4 clock periods, one timer during each clock with an idle clock at the end (see Figure 9.2). No connection exists between the counter element's sequencing through timer register banks and the Bus Interface Unit's sequencing through T-states. Timer operation and

bus interface operation are asynchronous. This time multiplexed scheme results in a  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $6\frac{1}{2}$  CLKOUT period delay from timer input to timer output.

The register banks are dual-ported between the counter element and the CPU. During a given bus cycle, the counter element and CPU may both access the register banks. Counter element and CPU accesses to the register banks are synchronized.



**Figure 9.2. Counter Element Multiplexing and Timer Input Synchronization**

Each timer keeps its own running count and has a user-defined maximum count value. Timers 0 and 1 can use one maximum count value (single maximum count mode) or two alternating maximum count values (dual maximum count mode). Timer 2 can only use one maximum count value. The control register for each timer determines the counting mode to be used. When a timer is serviced, its present count value is incremented and compared to the maximum count for that timer. If these two values match, the count value resets to zero. The timers can be configured to either stop after a single cycle or run continuously.

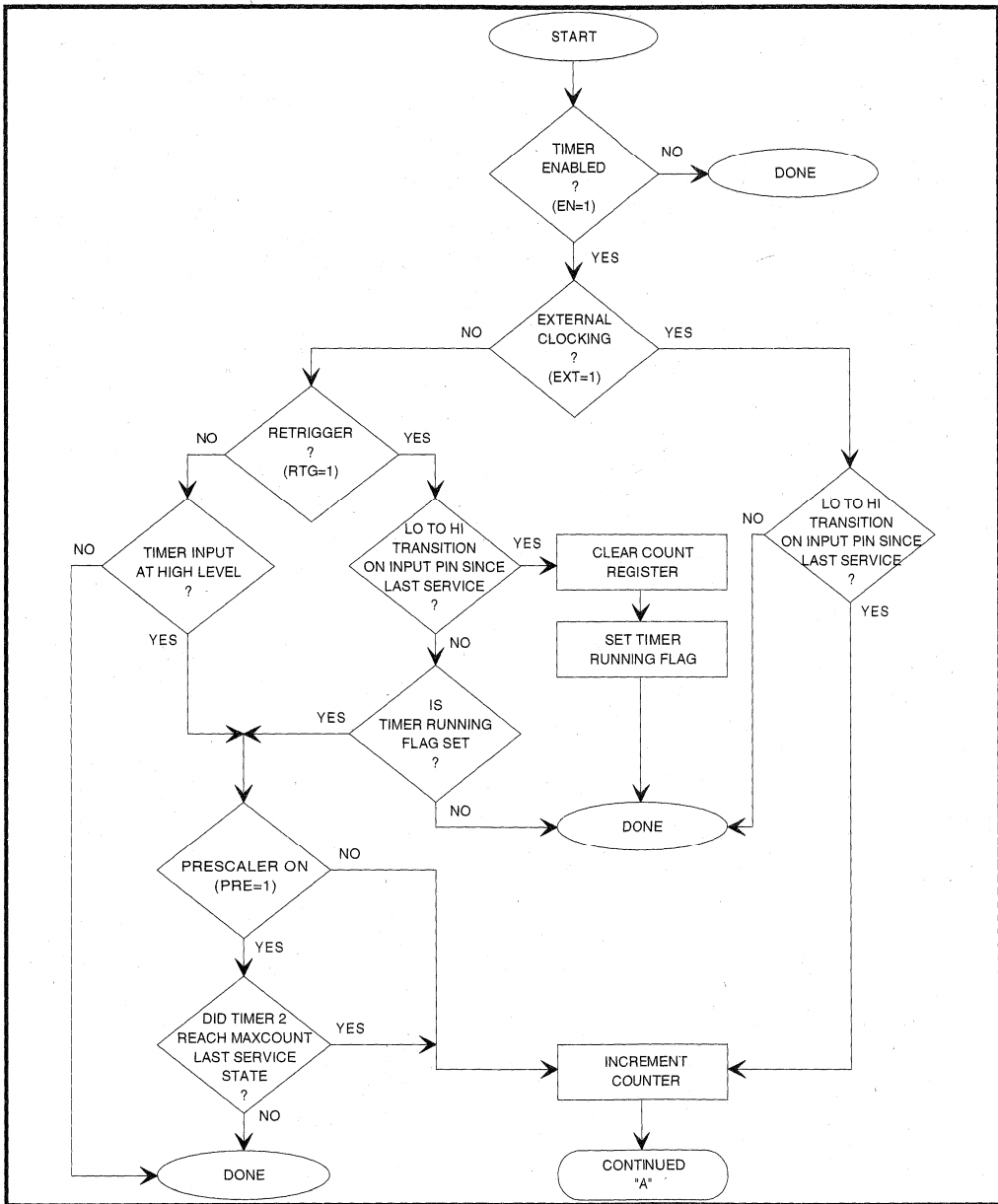


Figure 9.3(a). Timers 0 and 1 Flow Chart

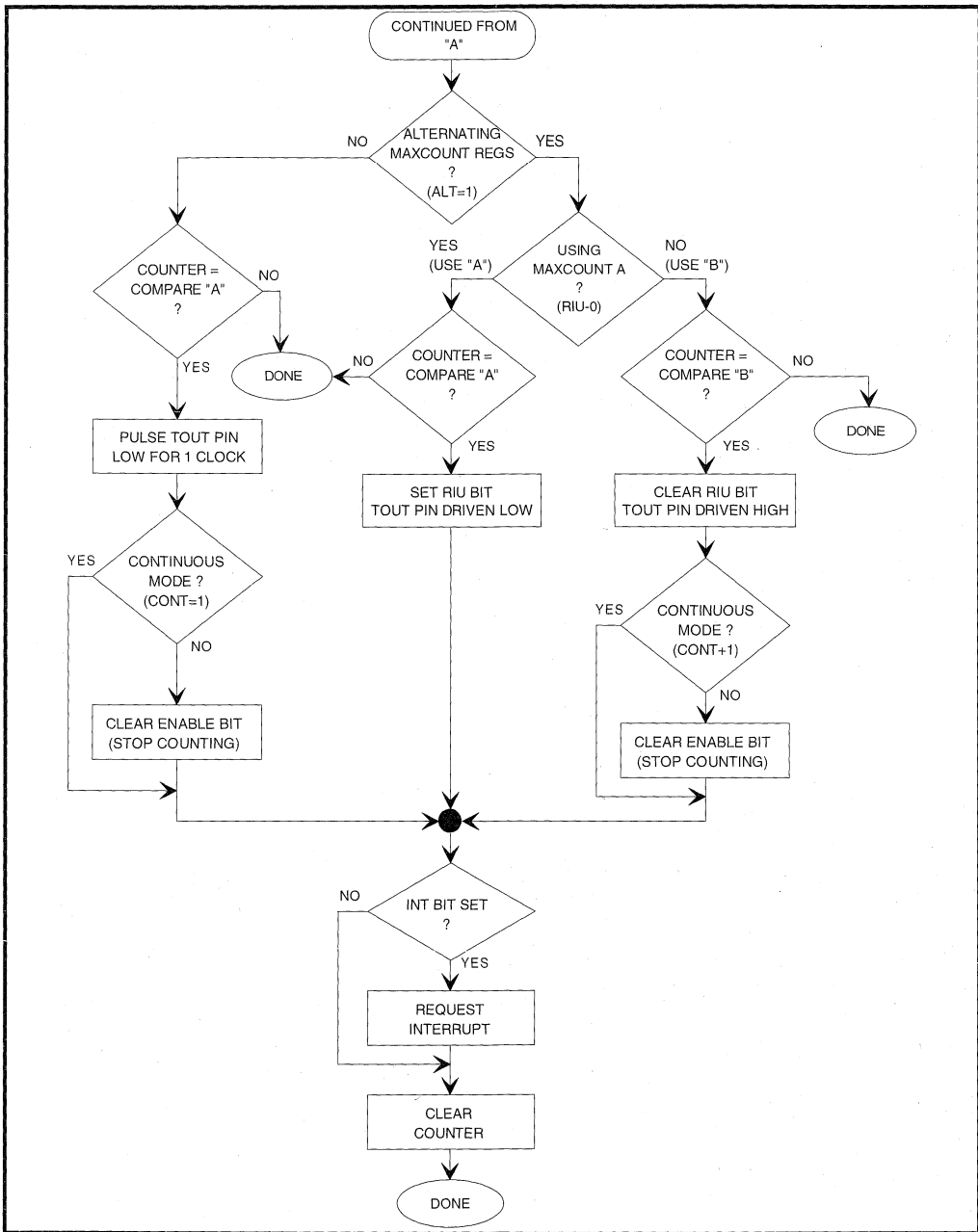
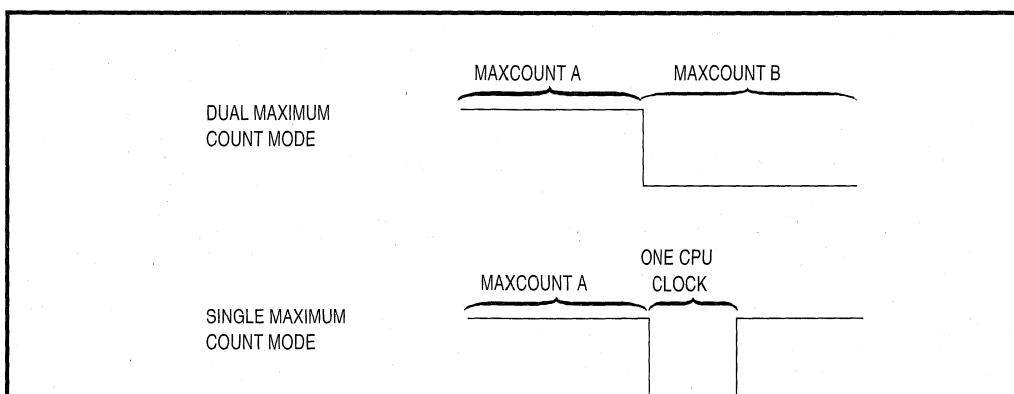


Figure 9.3(b). Timers 0 and 1 Flow Chart (Continued)

Timers 0 and 1 are functionally identical. Each has a latched, synchronized input pin and a single output pin. Each timer may be clocked internally or externally. Internally, the timer may increment at either 1/4 CLKOUT frequency or be prescaled by Timer 2. If a timer is prescaled by Timer 2, when Timer 2 reaches its maximum count value, the timer increments. When configured for internal clocking, the Timer/Counter Unit uses the input pins to either enable timer counting or retrigger the associated timer. Externally, a timer will increment on LOW-TO-HIGH transitions on its input pin (up to 1/4 CLKOUT frequency). A flow chart for Timer 0 and 1 operation is given in Figures 9.3(a) and 9.3(b).

Timers 0 and 1 each have a single output pin. Timer output can be either a single pulse, indicating the end of a timing cycle, or a variable duty cycle wave. These two output options correspond to single maximum count mode and dual maximum count mode, respectively (see Figure 9.4). Interrupts can be generated at the end of every timing cycle.

Timer 2 has no input or output pins and may only be operated in single maximum count mode. It may be used as a free-running clock and a prescaler to Timers 0 and 1. Timer 2 can only be clocked internally, at 1/4 CLKOUT frequency. Timer 2 can also generate interrupts at the end of every timing cycle.

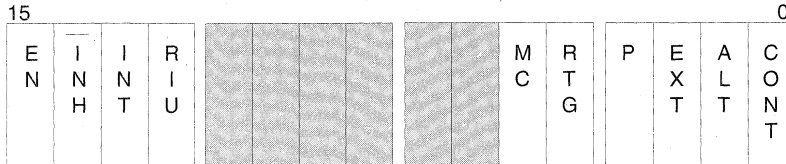


**Figure 9.4. Timer/Counter Unit Output Modes**

## 9.2. PROGRAMMING THE TIMER/COUNTER UNIT

Each timer has three registers: a Timer Control register (see Figures 9.5 and 9.6), a Timer Count register (see Figure 9.7) and a Timer Maxcount Compare register (see Figure 9.8). Timers 0 and 1 also have access to an additional Maxcount Compare register. The Timer Control register controls timer operation. The Timer Count register holds the current timer count value. The Maxcount Compare register holds the maximum timer count value.

**Register Name:** Timer 0 and 1 Control Registers  
**Register Mnemonic:** T0CON, T1CON  
**Register Function:** Defines Timer 0 and 1 operation.



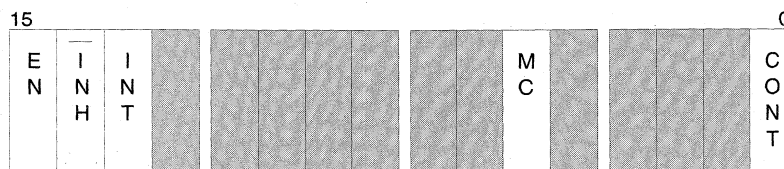
BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
EN	<i>Enable</i>	0	If set, the timer is enabled. This bit cannot be written to unless the INH bit is set.
$\overline{\text{INH}}$	<i>Inhibit</i>	X	If set, writes to the Enable bit are allowed. If clear, writes to the Enable bit are ignored. This bit is not stored and is always read as zero.
INT	<i>Interrupt</i>	X	If set, an interrupt request is generated when the Count register equals a maximum count. If clear, the timer will not issue interrupt requests.
RIU	<i>Register In Use</i>	X	If set, Maxcount Compare register B is being used. If clear, Maxcount Compare register A is being used.
MC	<i>Maximum Count</i>	X	If set, counter has reached a maximum count. If clear, counter has not reached a maximum count.
RTG	<i>Retrigger</i>	X	If set, 0 to 1 edge on TxIN resets count. If clear, high input enables counting. This bit is ignored with external clocking (EXT=1).
P	<i>Prescaler</i>	X	If set, timer is prescaled by Timer 2. If clear, timer counts 1/4 CLKOUT. This bit is ignored with external clocking (EXT=1).
EXT	<i>External Clock</i>	X	If set, use external clock. If clear, use internal clock.
ALT	<i>Alternate Compare Register</i>	X	If set, count to Maxcount Compare A, reset Count register to zero, count to Maxcount Compare B, reset Count register to zero again. If clear, count to Maxcount Compare A and reset Count register to zero.
CONT	<i>Continuous Mode</i>	X	If set, timer runs continuously. If clear, EN is cleared after each timer counting sequence.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 9.5. Timer 0 and Timer 1 Control Registers**



**Register Name:** Timer 2 Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** T2CON  
**Register Function:** Defines Timer 2 operation.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
EN	<i>Enable</i>	0	If set, the timer is enabled. If clear, the timer is disabled. This bit cannot be written to unless the INH bit is set.
$\overline{\text{INH}}$	<i>Inhibit</i>	X	If set, writes to the Enable bit are allowed. If clear, writes to the Enable bit are ignored. This bit is not stored and is always read as zero.
INT	<i>Interrupt</i>	X	If set, an interrupt request is generated when the Count register equals a maximum count. If clear, the timer will not issue interrupt requests.
MC	<i>Maximum Count</i>	X	If set, counter has reached a maximum count. If clear, counter has not reached a maximum count. This bit must be cleared by the user after maximum count is reached.
CONT	<i>Continuous Mode</i>	X	If set, timer runs continuously. If clear, EN is cleared after each timer counting sequence.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

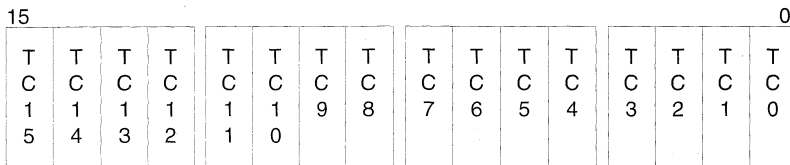
**Figure 9.6. Timer 2 Control Register**

## 9.2.1. INITIALIZATION

When initializing the Timer/Counter Unit, the following sequence is suggested:

1. If timer interrupts will be used, program interrupt vectors into the Interrupt Vector Table.
2. Clear the Timer Count register.
3. Set Timer Maxcount Compare register to maximum count value. Make sure to program Maxcount Compare A and B if dual maximum count mode is used.
4. Program Timer Control register to enable timer.

**Register Name:** Timer Count Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** T0CNT, T1CNT, T2CNT  
**Register Function:** Contains the current timer count.

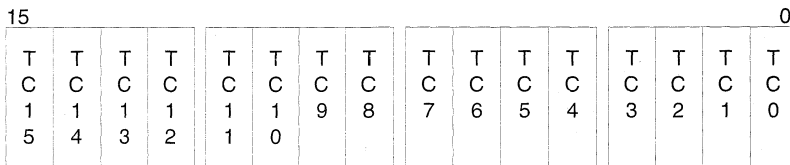


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TC15:0	<i>Timer Count Value</i>	XXXXH	Register contains the current count of the associated timer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 9.7. Timer Count Registers**

**Register Name:** Timer Maxcount Compare Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** T0CMPA, T0CMPB, T1CMPA, T1CMPB, T2CMPA  
**Register Function:** Contains timer maximum count value.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TC15:0	<i>Timer Compare Value</i>	XXXXH	Register contains the maximum value a timer will count to before resetting its Count register to zero.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 9.8. Timer Maxcount Compare Registers**

The programmer must clear the Timer Count register before enabling the timer because the count register is undefined at reset. This ensures counting begins at zero.

When using Timer 2 to prescale another timer, Timer 2 should be enabled last. If Timer 2 is enabled first, it will be at an unknown point in its timing cycle when the timer to be prescaled is enabled. This results in an unpredictable duration of the first timing cycle for the prescaled timer.

### 9.2.2. CLOCK SOURCES

The 16-bit Timer Count register increments once for each timer event. A timer event can be a LOW-to-HIGH transition on a timer input pin (Timers 0 and 1), a pulse generated every fourth CPU Clock (all timers) or a time-out of Timer 2 (Timers 0 and 1). Up to 65536 ( $2^{16}$ ) events may be counted.

Timers 0 and 1 can be programmed to count LOW-TO-HIGH transitions on their input pins as timer events by setting the External (EXT) bit in their control registers. Transitions on the external pin are synchronized to the CPU clock before being presented to the timer circuitry. The timer counts **transitions** on this pin. The input signal must go LOW, then HIGH, to cause the timer to increment. The maximum count-rate for the timers is 1/4 the CPU clock rate (measured at CLKOUT) because the timers are only serviced once every four clocks.

All timers can use transitions of the CPU clock as timer events. For internal clocking, the timer increments every fourth CPU clock due to the counter element's time-multiplexed servicing scheme. Timer 2 may only use the internal clock as a timer event.

Timers 0 and 1 can also use Timer 2 reaching its maximum count as a timer event. In this configuration, Timer 0 or Timer 1 increments each time Timer 2 reaches its maximum count. See Table 9.1 for a summary of clock sources for Timers 0 and 1.

**Timer 2 must be initialized and running in order to increment values in other timer/counters.**

**Table 9.1. Timer 0 and 1 Clock Sources**

EXT	P	CLOCK SOURCE
0	0	Timer clocked internally at 1/4 CLKOUT frequency.
0	1	Timer clocked internally, prescaled by Timer 2.
1	X	Timer clocked externally at up to 1/4 CLKOUT frequency.

### 9.2.3. COUNTING SEQUENCE

All timers have a Timer Count register and a Maxcount Compare A register. Timers 0 and 1 also have access to a second Maxcount Compare B register. Whenever the contents of the

Timer Count register equal the contents of the Maxcount Compare register, the count register resets to zero. The maximum count value will never be stored in the count register. This is because the counter element increments, compares and resets a timer in one clock cycle. Therefore, the maximum value is never written back to the count register. The Maxcount Compare register may be written to any time during timer operation.

The timer counting from its initial count (usually zero) to its maximum count (either Maxcount Compare A or B) and resetting to zero defines one timing cycle. A Maxcount Compare value of 0 implies a maximum count of 65536, a Maxcount Compare value of 1 implies a maximum count of 1, etc.

Only equivalence between the Timer Count and Maxcount Compare registers is checked. The count does not reset to zero if its value is greater than the maximum count. If the count value exceeds the Maxcount Compare value, the timer counts to 0FFFFH, increments to zero, then counts to the value in the Maxcount Compare register. Upon reaching a maximum count value, the Maximum Count (MC) bit in the Timer Control register sets. **The MC bit must be cleared by writing to the Timer Control register, this is not done automatically.**

The Timer/Counter Unit may be configured to execute different counting sequences. The timers may operate in single maximum count mode (all timers) or dual maximum count mode (Timers 0 and 1 only). They may also be programmed to run continuously in either of these modes. The Alternate (ALT) bit in the Timer Control register determines the counting modes used by Timers 0 and 1.

All timers may use single maximum count mode, where only Maxcount Compare A is used. The timer will count to the value contained in Maxcount Compare A and reset to zero. Timer 2 can only operate in this mode.

Timers 0 and 1 can also use dual maximum count mode. In this mode, Maxcount Compare A and Maxcount Compare B are both used. The timer counts to the value contained in Maxcount Compare A, resets to zero, counts to the value contained in Maxcount Compare B, and resets to zero again. The Register In Use (RIU) bit in the Timer Control register indicates which Maxcount Compare register is currently in use.

The timers can be programmed to run continuously in single maximum count and dual maximum count modes. The Continuous (CONT) bit in the Timer Control register determines if a timer is disabled after a single counting sequence.

### 9.2.3.1. RETRIGGERING

The timer input pins affect timer counting in three ways (see Table 9.2). The programming of the External (EXT) and Retrigger (RTG) bits in the Timer Control register determines how the input signals are used. When the timers are clocked internally, the RTG bit determines if the input pin enables timer counting or retriggers the current timing cycle.

Table 9.2. Timer Retriggering

EXT	RTG	TIMER OPERATION
0	0	Timer counts internal events, if input pin remains high.
0	1	Timer counts internal events, count will reset to zero on every LOW-to-HIGH transition on the input pin.
1	X	Timer input acts as clock source.

When the EXT and RTG bits are LOW, the timer counts internal timer events. In this mode, the input is level-sensitive, not edge-sensitive. A LOW-to-HIGH transition on the timer input is not required for operation. The input pin acts as an external enable. If the input is HIGH, the timer will count through its sequence, provided the timer remains enabled.

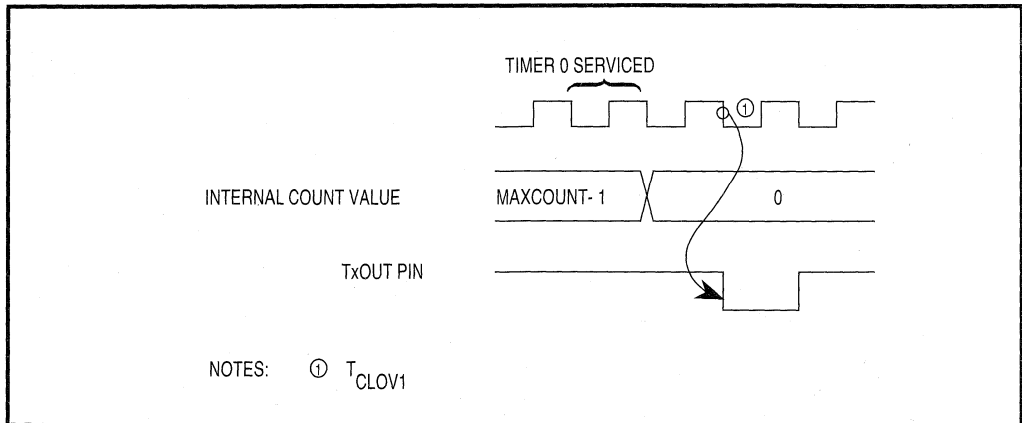
When the EXT bit is LOW and the RTG bit is HIGH, every LOW-to-HIGH transition on the timer input pin causes the Count register to reset to zero. After the timer is enabled, counting begins only after the first LOW-to-HIGH transition on the input pin. If another LOW-to-HIGH transition occurs before the end of the timer cycle, the timer count resets to zero and the timer cycle begins again. In dual maximum count mode, the Register In Use (RIU) bit does not clear when a LOW-to-HIGH transition occurs. For example, if the timer retriggers while Maxcount Compare B is in use, the timer resets to zero and counts to maximum count B before the RIU bit clears. **In dual maximum count mode, the timer retriggering extends the use of the current Maxcount Compare register.**

#### 9.2.4. PULSED AND VARIABLE DUTY CYCLE OUTPUT

Timers 0 and 1 each have an output pin which can perform two functions. First, the output may be a single pulse, indicating the end of a timing cycle (single maximum count mode). Second, the output may be a level indicating the Maxcount Compare register currently in use (dual maximum count mode). The output occurs one clock after the counter element services the timer when the maximum count is reached (see Figure 9.9).

With external clocking, the time between a transition on a timer input and the corresponding transition of the timer output varies from  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to  $6\frac{1}{2}$  clocks. This delay occurs due to the time multiplexed servicing scheme of the Timer/Counter Unit. The exact timing depends on when the input occurs relative to the counter element's servicing of the timer. Figure 9.2 shows the two extremes in timer output delay. Timer 0 demonstrates the best possible case, where the input occurs immediately before the timer is serviced. Timer 1 demonstrates the worst possible case, where input is latched, but the setup time is not met and the input is not recognized until the counter element services the timer again.

In single maximum count mode, the timer output pin goes LOW for one CPU clock period (see Figure 9.4). This occurs when the count value equals the Maxcount Compare A value. If programmed to run continuously, the timer generates periodic pulses.



**Figure 9.9. TxOUT Signal Timing**

In dual maximum count mode, the timer output pin indicates which Maxcount Compare register is currently in use. A LOW output indicates Maxcount Compare B, and a HIGH output indicates Maxcount Compare A (see Figure 9.4). If programmed to run continuously, a repetitive waveform can be generated. For example, if Maxcount Compare A contains 10, Maxcount Compare B contains 20, and CLKOUT is 12.5 MHz, the timer generates a 33 percent duty cycle waveform at 104 KHz. The output pin always goes HIGH at the end of the counting sequence (even if the timer is not programmed to run continuously).

### 9.2.5. ENABLING/DISABLING COUNTERS

Each timer has an Enable (EN) bit in its Control register to allow or prevent timer counting. The Inhibit (INH) bit controls write accesses to the EN bit. Timers 0 and 1 can be programmed to use their input pins as enable functions also. If a timer is disabled, the count register will not increment when the counter element services the timer.

The Enable bit can be altered by programming or the timers can be programmed to disable themselves at the end of a counting sequence with the Continuous (CONT) bit. If the timer is not programmed for continuous operation, the Enable bit automatically clears at the end of a counting sequence. In single maximum count mode, this occurs after Maxcount Compare A is reached. In dual maximum count mode, this occurs after Maxcount Compare B is reached (Timers 0 and 1 only).

The input pins for Timers 0 and 1 provide an alternate method for enabling and disabling timer counting. When using internal clocking, the input pin can be programmed to either enable the timer or reset the timer count depending on the state of the Retrigger (RTG) bit in the control register. When used as an enable function, the input pin either allows (input HIGH) or prevents (input LOW) timer counting. To ensure recognition of an input level, it must be valid for four CPU clocks. This is due to the counter element's time-multiplexed servicing scheme for the timers.

### 9.2.6. TIMER INTERRUPTS

All timers can generate internal interrupt requests. Although all three timers share a single interrupt request to the CPU, each has its own vector location and internal priority. Timer 0 has the highest interrupt priority and Timer 2 has the lowest interrupt priority.

Timer Interrupts are enabled or disabled via the Interrupt (INT) bit in the Timer Control register. If enabled, an interrupt is generated every time a maximum count value is reached. In dual maximum count mode, an interrupt will be generated each time the value in Maxcount Compare A or Maxcount Compare B is reached. If the interrupt is disabled after a request has been generated, but before a pending interrupt is serviced, the interrupt request will still be active (the Interrupt Controller latches the request). If a timer generates a second interrupt request before the CPU services the first interrupt request, the first request will be lost.

### 9.2.7. PROGRAMMING CONSIDERATIONS

Timer registers can be read or written whether the timer is operating or not. Since processor accesses to timer registers are synchronized with counter element accesses, a half-modified count register will never be read.

When the Timer 0 and Timer 1 use an internal clock source, the input pin must be HIGH to enable counting.

## 9.3. TIMING

Certain timing considerations need to be made with the Timer/Counter Unit. These include: input setup and hold times, synchronization and operating frequency.

### 9.3.1. INPUT SETUP AND HOLD TIMINGS

To ensure recognition, setup and hold times must be met with respect to CPU clock edges. The timer input signal must be valid  $T_{CHIS}$  before the rising edge of CLKOUT. The timer input signal must remain valid  $T_{CHIH}$  after the same rising edge. If these timing requirements are not met, the input will not be recognized until the next clock edge.

### 9.3.2. SYNCHRONIZATION AND MAXIMUM FREQUENCY

All timer inputs are latched and synchronized with the CPU clock. Because of the internal logic required to synchronize the external signals, and the multiplexing of the counter element, the Timer/Counter Unit may only operate up to 1/4 of the CLKOUT frequency. Clocking at greater frequencies will result in missed clocks.

## 9.4. TIMER/COUNTER UNIT APPLICATION EXAMPLES

The following examples are possible applications of the Timer/Counter Unit. They include: a real-time clock, a square wave generator and a digital one-shot.

### 9.4.1. REAL-TIME CLOCK

Example 9.1 contains sample code to configure Timer 2 to generate an interrupt request every 10 milliseconds. The CPU then increments memory-based clock variables.

```

$mod186
name          example_80186_family_timer_code

;-----
;FUNCTION:    This function sets up the timer and interrupt
;            controller to cause the timer to generate an
;            interrupt every 10 milliseconds, and to
;            service interrupts to implement a real time clock.
;
;            Timer 2 is used in this example because no input or
;            output signals are required.
;
; SYNTAX:    extern void far set_time(hour, minute, second,
;            T2Compare);
;
; INPUTS:    hour - hour to set time to.
;            minute - minute to set time to.
;            second - second to set time to.
;            T2Compare - T2CMPA value (see note below)
;
; OUTPUTS:    None
;
; NOTE:      Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
;            high-level languages
;
;            For a CLKOUT of 16Mhz,
;
;            f(timer2) = 16Mhz/4
;                       = 4Mhz
;                       = 0.25us for T2CMPA = 1
;
;            T2CMPA(10ms) = 10ms/0.25us
;                       = 10e-3/0.25e-6
;                       = 40000
;
;

```

**Example 9.1.**



```

;-----
; substitute register offsets
T2CON      equ    xxxxxh      ;Timer 2 Control register
T2CMPA     equ    xxxxxh      ;Timer 2 Compare register
T2CNT      equ    xxxxxh      ;Timer 2 Counter register
TCUCON     equ    xxxxxh      ;Int. Control register
EOI        equ    xxxxxh      ;End Of Interrupt register
INTSTS     equ    xxxxxh      ;Interrupt Status register
timer_2_int equ 19           ;timer 2:vector type 19
data       segment public 'data'
           public _hour, _minute, _second, _msec

_hour      db    ?
_minute    db    ?
_second    db    ?
_msec      db    ?

data       ends

lib_80186  segment public 'code'
           assume cs:lib_80186, ds:data

public    _set_time
_set_time  proc far

           push bp           ;save caller's bp
           mov bp, sp        ;get current top of stack

hour       equ    word ptr [bp+6] ;get parameters off stack
minute     equ    word ptr [bp+8]
second     equ    word ptr [bp+10]
T2Compare  equ    word ptr [bp+12]

           push ax           ;save registers used
           push DX
           push si

           push ds
           xor ax, ax        ;set interrupt vector
           mov ds, ax
           mov si, 4*timer_2_int
           mov word ptr ds:[si], offset

```

**Example 9.1. (Continued)**

```
timer_2_interrupt_routine
    inc si
    inc si
    mov ds:[si], cs
    pop ds

    mov ax, hour           ;set time
    mov _hour, al
    mov ax, minute
    mov _minute, al
    mov ax, second
    mov _second, al
    mov _msec, 0

    mov DX, T2CNT         ;clear Count register
    xor ax, ax
    out DX, ax

    mov DX, T2CMPA        ;set maximum count value
    mov ax, T2Compare     ;see note in header above
    out DX, ax
    mov DX, T2CON         ;set up the control word:
    mov ax, 0E001H        ;enable counting, generate
    out DX, ax            ;interrupt on MC,
                        ;continuous counting

    mov DX, TCUCON        ;set up interrupt controller
    xor ax, ax            ;unmask highest
    out DX, ax           ;priority interrupt

    sti                   ;enable interrupts

    pop si                ;restore saved registers
    pop DX
    pop ax

    pop bp                ;restore caller's bp
    ret

_set_time                endp

timer_2_interrupt_routine proc far
    push ax               ;save registers used
    push DX
```

Example 9.1. (Continued)

```
        cmp _msec, 99                ;has 1 sec passed?
        jae bump_second             ;if above or equal...
        inc _msec
        jmp short reset_int_ctl

bump_second:mov _msec, 0              ;reset millisecond
            cmp _minute, 59          ;has 1 minute passed?
            jae bump_minute
            inc _second
            jmp short reset_int_ctl

bump_minute:mov _second, 0           ;reset second
            cmp _minute, 59          ;has 1 hour passed?
            jae bump_hour
            inc _minute
            jmp short reset_int_ctl

bump_hour:   mov _minute, 0          ;reset minute
            cmp _hour, 12            ;have 12 hours passed?
            jae reset_hour
            inc _hour
            jmp reset_int_ctl

reset_hour:  mov _hour, 1            ;reset hour

reset_int_ctl:mov DX, EOI
            mov ax, 8000h             ;non-specific end of interrupt
            out DX, ax
            pop DX
            pop ax
            iret

timer_2_interrupt_routine endp

lib_80186   ends
            end
```

### Example 9.1. (Continued)

## 9.4.2. SQUARE WAVE GENERATOR

A square-wave generator can be useful to act as a system clock tick. Example 9.2 illustrates how to configure the Timer 1 to operate this way.

```

$mod186
name          example_timer1_square_wave_code
;
;-----
;
;FUNCTION:    This function generates a square wave of given
;            frequency and duty cycle on Timer 1 output pin.
;
; SYNTAX:    extern void far clock(int mark, int space)
;
; INPUTS:    mark - This is the mark (1) time.
;            space - This is the space (0) time.
;
;            The register compare value for a given time can be
;            easily calculated from the formula below.
;
;            CompareValue = (req_pulse_width*f)/4
;
; OUTPUTS:    None
;
; NOTE:      Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
;            high-level Languages
;-----

T1CMPA equ     xxxxH           ;substitute register offsets
T1CMPB equ     xxxxH
T1CNT  equ     xxxxH
T1CON  equ     xxxxH

lib_80186     segment public 'code'
              assume cs:lib_80186

public       _clock
_clock      proc far

              push bp           ;save caller's bp
              mov bp, sp        ;get current top of stack

_space      equ word ptr[bp+6]  ;get parameters off the stack
_mark      equ word ptr[bp+8]

              push ax           ;save registers that will be
                                ;modified

              push bx
              push DX

```

**Example 9.2.**

```

        mov DX, TICMPA           ;set mark time
        mov ax, _mark
        out DX, ax

        mov DX, TICMPB         ;set space time
        mov ax, _space
        out DX, ax

        mov DX, TICNT          ;Clear Timer 1 Counter
        xor ax, ax
        out DX, ax

        mov DX, TICON          ;start Timer 1
        mov ax, C003H
        out DX, ax

        pop DX                  ;restore saved registers
        pop bx
        pop ax

        pop bp                  ;restore caller's bp
        ret
_clock   endp
;-----
lib_80186   ends
end

```

**Example 9.2. (Continued)****9.4.3. DIGITAL ONE-SHOT**

Example 9.3 configures Timer 1 to act as a digital one-shot.

```

$mod186
name          example_timer1_1_shot_code

;-----
;
;FUNCTION:    This function generates an active-low one shot
;            pulse on Timer 1 output pin.
;
;SYNTAX:     extern void far one_shot(int CMPB);
;

```

**Example 9.3.**

```

; INPUTS:      CMPB - This is the T1CMPB value required to
;              generate a pulse of given pulse width. This value
;              is calculated from the formula below.
;
;               $CMPB = (req\_pulse\_width * f) / 4$ 
;
; OUTPUTS:      None
;
; NOTE:        Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
;              high-level languages
;
; -----
T1CNT          equ    xxxxH                ;substitute register offsets
T1CMPA        equ    xxxxH
T1CMPB        equ    xxxxH
T1CON         equ    xxxxH

MaxCount      equ    0020H

lib_80186     segment public 'code'
              assume cs:lib_80186

public       _one_shot
_one_shot    proc far

              push bp                ;save caller's bp
              mov bp, sp            ;get current top of stack

_one_shot    _CMPB          equ    word ptr[bp+6]    ;get parameter off the stack

              push ax                ;save registers that will be
                                      ;modified
              push DX

              mov DX, T1CNT          ;Clear Timer 1 Counter
              xor ax, ax
              out DX, ax

              mov DX, T1CMPA         ;set time before t_shot to 0
              mov ax, 1
              out DX, ax

```

**Example 9.3. (Continued)**

```
mov DX, TICMPB           ;set pulse time
mov ax, _CMPB
out DX, ax

mov DX, T1CON
mov ax, C002H           ;start Timer 1
out DX, ax

CountDown: in ax, DX           ;read in T1CON
            test ax, MaxCount   ;max count occurred?
            jz CountDown       ;no: then wait

            and ax, not MaxCount ;clear max count bit
            out DX, ax         ;update T1CON

            pop DX             ;restore saved registers
            pop ax

            pop bp             ;restore caller's bp
            ret

_one_shot   endp
;-----
lib_80186   ends
end
```

**Example 9.3. (Continued)**





---

*Direct Memory  
Access Unit*

**10**

---



## **CHAPTER 10**

# **DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS UNIT**

In many applications, large blocks of data must be transferred between memory and I/O space. A disk drive, for example, usually reads and writes data in blocks that may be thousands of bytes long. If the CPU were required to handle each byte of the transfer, the main tasks would suffer a severe performance penalty. Even if the data transfers were interrupt driven, the overhead for transferring control to the interrupt handler would still have a detrimental effect on system throughput.

Direct Memory Access, or DMA, allows data to be transferred between memory and peripherals **without the intervention of the CPU**. Systems that use DMA have a special device, known as the DMA controller, that takes control of the system bus and performs the transfer between memory and the peripheral device. When the DMA controller receives a request for a transfer from a peripheral, it signals the CPU that it needs control of the system bus. The CPU then releases control of the bus and the DMA controller performs the transfer. In many cases, the CPU will release the bus and continue to execute instructions from the prefetch queue. If the DMA transfers are relatively infrequent there will be no degradation of software performance; the DMA transfer is transparent to the CPU.

The DMA Unit of the 80C186EC/C188EC has four channels. Each channel can accept DMA requests from one of 4 sources: an external request pin, the Serial Communications Unit, the Timer/Counter Unit or by direct programming. Data can be transferred between any combination of memory and I/O space. The DMA Unit can access the entire memory and I/O space in either byte or word increments.

### **10.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW**

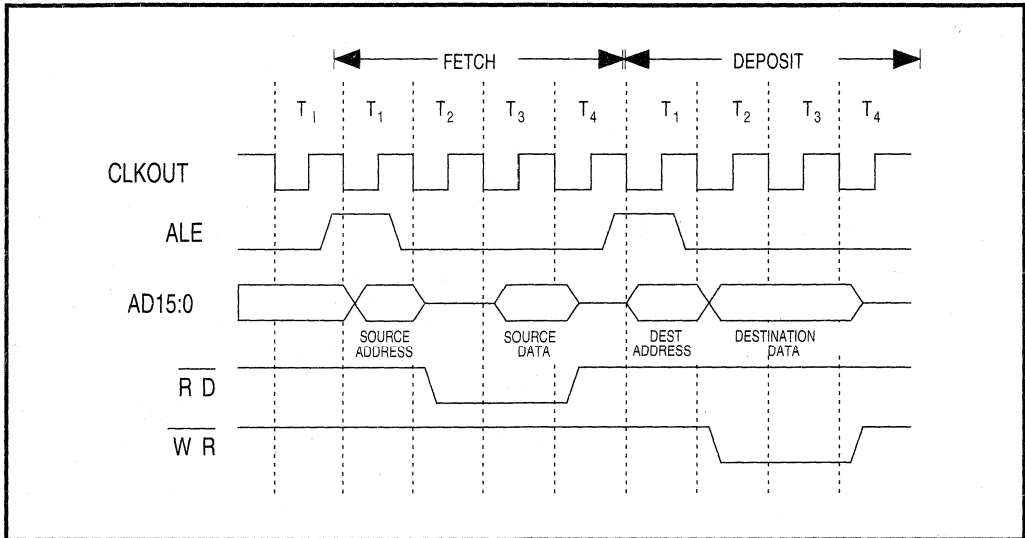
The DMA Unit is logically divided into two modules with 2 channels each. All four of the channels are functionally identical. The following discussion is hierarchical beginning with an overview of a single channel and ending with a description of the full four channel unit.

#### **10.1.1. THE DMA TRANSFER**

A DMA transfer begins with a request. The requesting device may either have data to transmit (a source request) or it may require data (a destination request). Alternatively, transfers may be initiated by the system software without an external request.

When the DMA request is granted, the Bus Interface Unit provides the bus signals for the DMA transfer while the DMA channel provides the address information for the source and destination devices. The DMA Unit does not provide a discrete DMA acknowledge signal, unlike other DMA controller chips (an acknowledge can be synthesized, however). The DMA channel will continue transferring data as long as the request is active and it has not exceeded its programmed transfer limit.

Every DMA transfer consists of two distinct bus cycles: a fetch and a deposit (see Figure 10.1). During the fetch cycle, the byte or word is read from the data source and placed in an internal temporary storage register. The data in the temporary storage register is written to the destination during the deposit cycle. The two bus cycles are indivisible; they cannot be separated by a bus hold request, a refresh request or another DMA request.



**Figure 10.1. Typical DMA Transfer**

#### 10.1.1.1. DMA TRANSFER DIRECTIONS

The source and destination addresses for a DMA transfer are programmable and can be in either memory or I/O space. DMA transfers can be programmed for any of the following four directions:

- From memory space to I/O space
- From I/O space to memory space
- From memory space to memory space
- From I/O space to I/O space

DMA transfers can access the Peripheral Control Block.

#### 10.1.1.2. BYTE AND WORD TRANSFERS

DMA transfers can be programmed to handle either byte or word sized transfers. The handling of byte and word data is the same as that for normal bus cycles and is processor bus width

dependent. For example, odd aligned word DMA transfers on a 16-bit bus processor requires two fetches and two deposits (all back-to-back). BIU bus cycles are covered in greater detail in Chapter 3. Word transfers are illegal on the 8-bit bus device.

### 10.1.2. SOURCE AND DESTINATION POINTERS

Each DMA channel maintains a twenty bit pointer for the source of data and a twenty bit pointer for the destination of data. The twenty bit pointers allow access to the full 1 Mbyte of memory space. The DMA Unit views memory as a linear (unsegmented) array.

With a twenty bit pointer it is possible to create an I/O address that is above the CPU limit of 64 Kbytes. The DMA Unit will run I/O DMA cycles above 64K even though these addresses are not accessible through CPU instructions (e.g., IN and OUT). Some applications may wish to make use of this by swapping pages of data from I/O space above 64K to standard CPU memory.

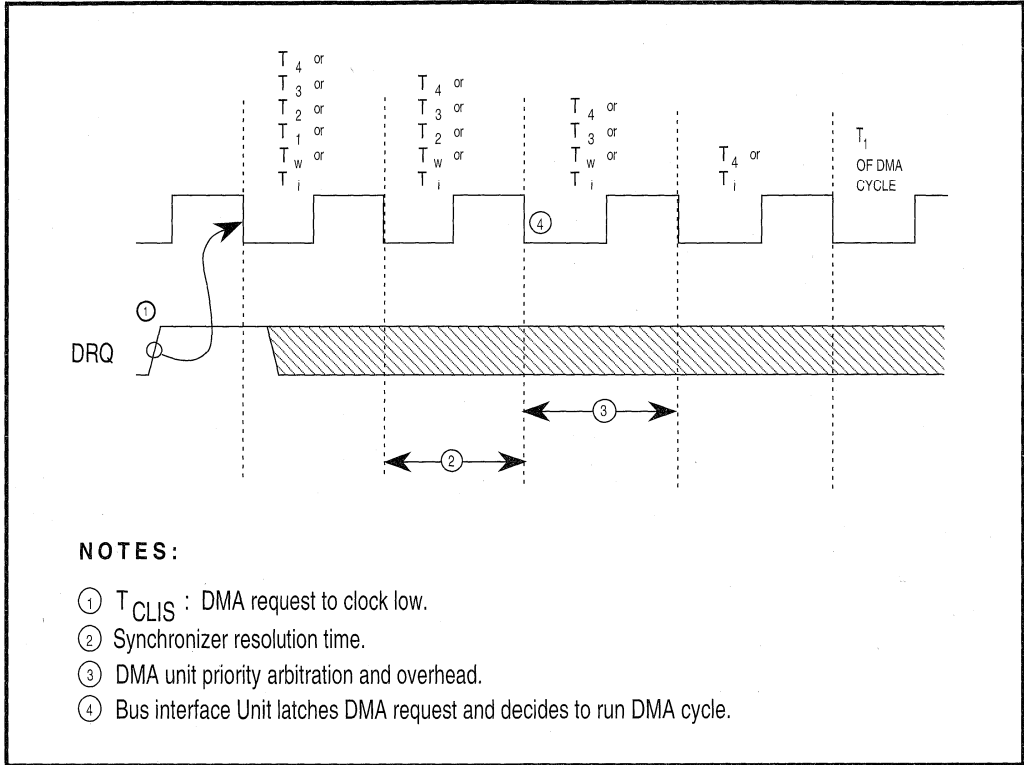
The source and destination pointers can be individually programmed to increment, decrement or remain constant after each transfer. The amount that a pointer is incremented or decremented is dependent on the programmed data width, byte or word, for the channel. Word transfers will change the pointer by two, byte transfers change the pointer by one.

### 10.1.3. DMA REQUESTS

There are three distinct sources of DMA requests: the external DRQ pin, the internal DMA request line and the system software. In all three cases, the system software must *arm* a DMA channel before it recognizes DMA requests. Arming a DMA channel is discussed in the programming section of this chapter.

### 10.1.4. EXTERNAL REQUESTS

External DMA requests are asserted on the DRQ pins. The DRQ pins are sampled on the falling edge of CLKOUT. It takes a minimum of four clocks before the DMA cycle is initiated by the BIU (see Figure 10.2). The DMA request is cleared four clocks before the end of the DMA cycle (effectively re-arming the DRQ input).



**Figure 10.2. DMA Request Minimum Response Time**

External requests (and the resulting DMA transfer) are classified as either source synchronized or destination synchronized. A source synchronized request originates from the peripheral **from** which data is transferred. For example, a disk controller in the process of reading data from a disk would use a source synchronized request. A destination synchronized request originates from the peripheral **to** which data is transferred. If the previously mentioned disk controller were writing data to the disk, it would use destination synchronization since the data would be moving from memory to the disk. The type of synchronization a channel uses is programmable.

#### 10.1.4.1. SOURCE SYNCHRONIZATION

A typical source synchronized transfer is shown in Figure 10.3. Most DMA driven peripherals do not deassert their DRQ line until after the DMA transfer has begun. The DRQ signal must be deasserted in at least 4 clocks before the end of the DMA transfer (at the T1 state of the deposit phase) in order to prevent another DMA cycle from occurring. A source synchronized transfer provides the source device at least three clock cycles from when it is accessed (acknowledged) to deassert its request line if further transfers are not required.

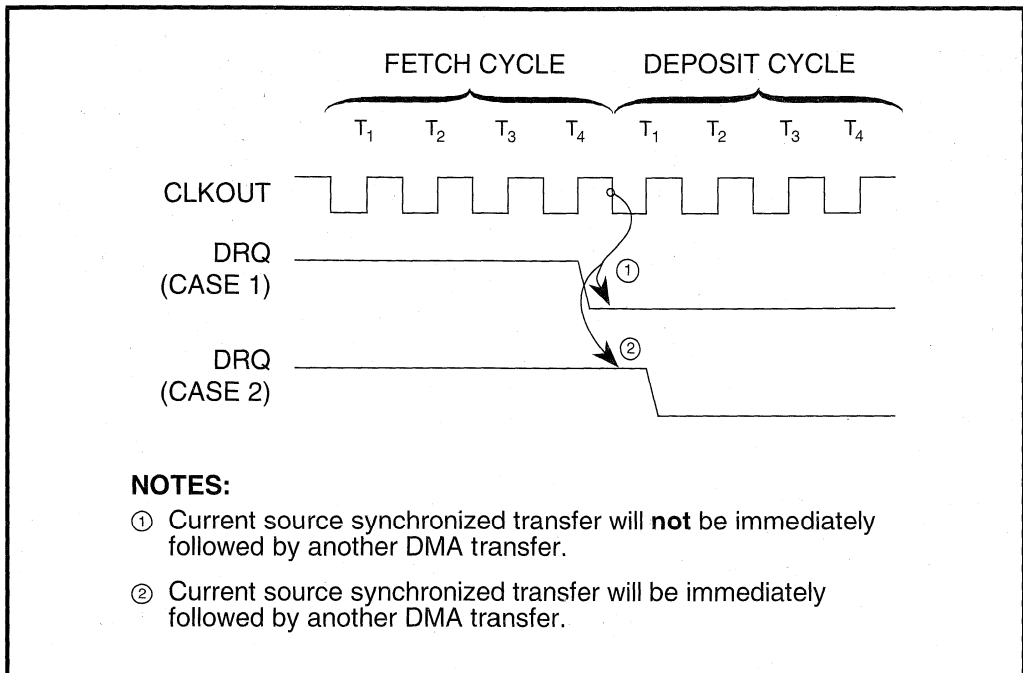


Figure 10.3 Source Synchronized Transfers

#### 10.1.4.2. DESTINATION SYNCHRONIZATION

A destination synchronized transfer differs from a source synchronized transfer by the addition of two idle states at the end of the deposit cycle (Figure 10.4). The two idle states extend the DMA cycle to allow the destination device to deassert its DRQ pin four clocks before the end of the cycle. If the two idle states **were not** inserted, the destination device would not be able to deassert its request in time to prevent another DMA cycle from occurring.

The insertion of two idle states at the end of a destination synchronization transfer has an important side effect. **A destination synchronized DMA channel gives up the bus during the idle states allowing any other bus master to gain ownership.** This includes the CPU, the Refresh Control Unit, an external bus master or another DMA channel.

#### 10.1.5. INTERNAL REQUESTS

Internal DMA requests can come from either an integrated peripheral or from the system software.

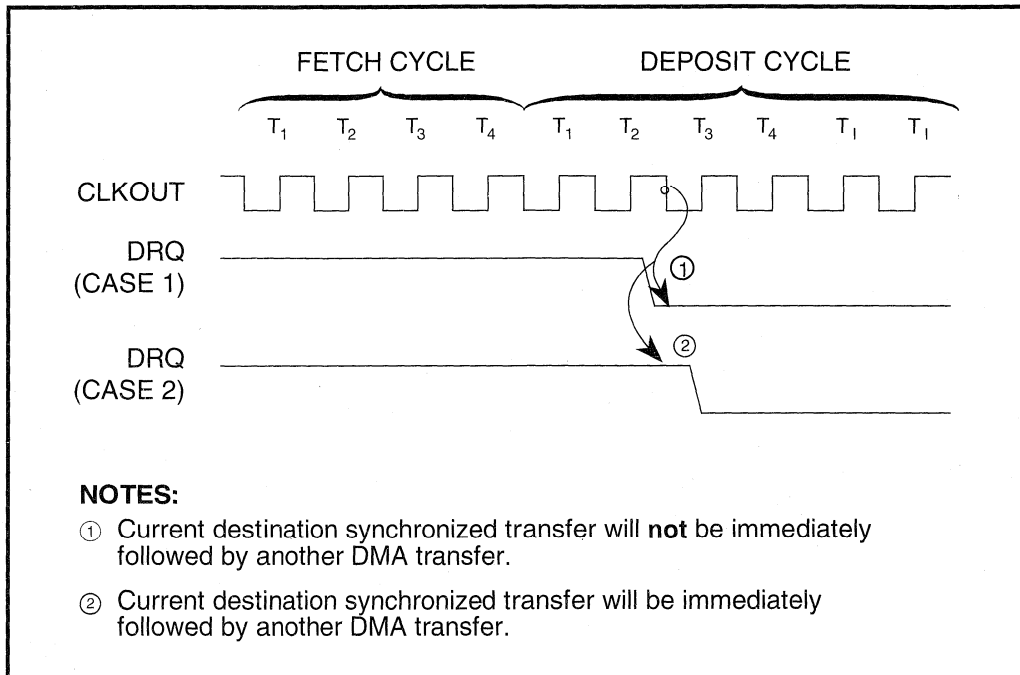


Figure 10.4. Destination Synchronized Transfers

#### 10.1.5.1. INTEGRATED PERIPHERAL REQUESTS

All four channels can be programmed to accept internal DMA requests from either Timer 2 or the Serial Communications Unit. The request signals from the Serial Communications Unit and Timer 2 connect to the DMA unit through the *Internal DMA Request Multiplexer*. The function and programming of the Internal DMA Request Multiplexer are described in section 10.1.11.

#### 10.1.5.2. TIMER 2 INITIATED TRANSFERS

When programmed for Timer 2 initiated transfers, the DMA channel performs one DMA transfer every time that Timer 2 reaches its maximum count. Timer initiated transfers are useful for servicing time based peripherals. For example, an A/D converter would require data every 22 microseconds in order to produce an audio range waveform. In this case the DMA source would point at the waveform data, the destination would point to the A/D converter and Timer 2 would request a transfer every 22 microseconds.



### 10.1.5.3. SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS UNIT TRANSFERS

The Serial Communications Unit has two channels, each with its own receiver and transmitter. Each of the DMA channels is assigned a Serial Communications Unit channel as follows:

- DMA channel 0 supports the receiver for serial port 0
- DMA channel 1 supports the transmitter for serial port 0
- DMA channel 2 supports the receiver for serial port 1
- DMA channel 3 supports the transmitter for serial port 1

The DMA request and interrupt request signals from the serial channels are identical. For example, when serial channel 1 completes a reception, it pulses both the interrupt request signal and the DMA request signal high for one clock cycle.

Servicing the serial ports with DMA transfers (instead of interrupt requests) provides a tremendous gain in system throughput when blocks of serial data are transmitted and received.

When using DMA driven serial port transfers, it is important to note that as the baud rate of the transfer is increased, so will bus utilization by the DMA Unit. High baud rates (and/or using multiple channels) can degrade CPU performance.

An example of DMA driven serial transfers can be found in the examples section of this chapter.

### 10.1.5.4. UNSYNCHRONIZED TRANSFERS

DMA transfers can be initiated directly by the system software by selecting unsynchronized transfers. Unsynchronized transfers continue, back-to-back, at the full bus bandwidth, until the channel's transfer count reaches zero or DMA transfers are suspended by an NMI.

### 10.1.6. DMA TRANSFER COUNTS

Each DMA Unit maintains a programmable 16-bit transfer count value that controls the total number of transfers the channel runs. The transfer count is decremented by one after each transfer (regardless of data size). The DMA channel can be programmed to terminate transfers when the transfer count reaches zero (also referred to as *terminal count*).

### 10.1.7. TERMINATION AND SUSPENSION OF DMA TRANSFERS

When DMA transfers for a channel are *terminated*, no further DMA requests for that channel will be granted until the channel is re-started by direct programming. A *suspended* DMA transfer temporarily disables transfers in order to perform a specific task. A suspended DMA channel does not need to be re-started by direct programming.

### 10.1.7.1. TERMINATION AT TERMINAL COUNT

When programmed to terminate on terminal count, the DMA channel disarms itself when the transfer count value reaches zero. No further DMA transfers take place on the channel until it is re-armed by direct programming.

**Unsynchronized transfers always terminate when the transfer count reaches zero regardless of programming.**

### 10.1.7.2. SOFTWARE TERMINATION

A DMA channel can be disarmed by direct programming. Any DMA transfer that is in progress will complete but no further transfers are run until the channel is re-armed.

### 10.1.7.3. SUSPENSION OF DMA DURING NMI

DMA transfers are inhibited during the service of Non-Maskable Interrupts (NMI). DMA activity is halted in order to give the CPU full command of the system bus during the NMI service. Exit from the NMI via an IRET instruction re-enables the DMA Unit. DMA transfers can be enabled during an NMI service routine by the system software.

### 10.1.7.4. SOFTWARE SUSPENSION

DMA transfers can be temporarily suspended by direct programming. In time critical sections of code, interrupt handlers for example, it may be necessary to temporarily shut off DMA activity in order to give the CPU total control of the bus.

### 10.1.8. DMA UNIT INTERRUPTS

Each DMA channel can be programmed to generate an interrupt request when its transfer count reaches zero.

### 10.1.9. DMA CYCLES AND THE BIU

The DMA Unit uses the Bus Interface Unit to perform its transfers. When the DMA Unit has a pending request, it signals the BIU. If the BIU has no other higher priority request pending it runs the DMA cycle (BIU priority is described in Chapter 3). The BIU signals that it is running a bus cycle initiated by a master other than the CPU by driving the S6 status bit high.

The Chip-Select Unit monitors the BIU addresses to determine which chip-select, if any, to activate. Because the DMA Unit uses the BIU, chip-selects are active for DMA cycles. If a DMA channel accesses a region of memory or I/O space within a chip-select's programmed range, then that chip-select is asserted during the cycle. The Chip-Select Unit will not recognize DMA cycles that access I/O space above 64K.

### 10.1.10. THE 2 CHANNEL DMA MODULE

Two DMA channels are combined with arbitration logic to form a DMA module (see Figure 10.5).

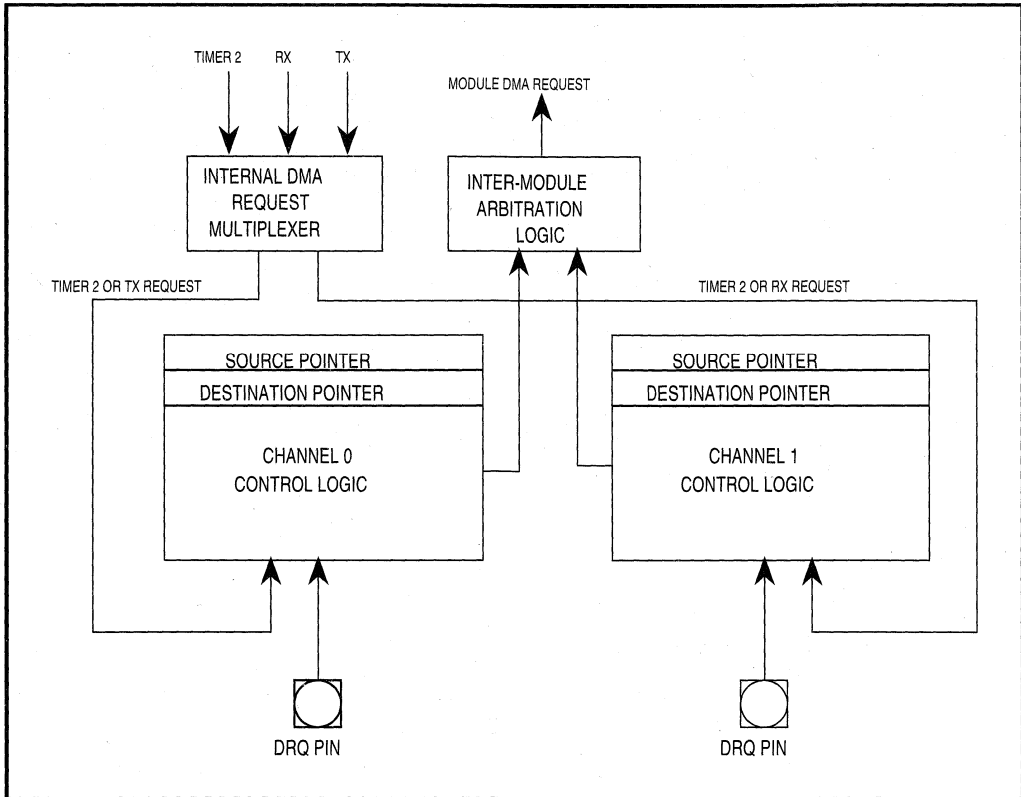


Figure 10.5. Two Channel DMA Module

#### 10.1.10.1. DMA CHANNEL ARBITRATION

Within a two channel DMA module, the arbitration logic decides which channel takes precedence when both channels simultaneously request transfers. Each channel can be set to either low priority or high priority. If the two channels are set to the same priority (either both high or both low) then the channels rotate priority.

#### 10.1.10.1.1. FIXED PRIORITY

Fixed priority results when one channel in a module is programmed to high priority and the other is set to low priority. If both DMA requests occur simultaneously, the high priority channel will perform its transfer (or transfers) first. The high priority channel continues to perform transfers as long as the following conditions are met:

- the channel's DMA request is still active
- the channel has not terminated or suspended transfers (through programming or interrupts)
- the channel has not released the bus (through the insertion of idle states for destination synchronized transfers)

The last point is extremely important when the two channels use different synchronization. For example, consider the case where channel 1 is programmed for high priority and destination synchronization and channel 0 is programmed for low priority and source synchronization. If a DMA request occurred for both channels simultaneously channel 1 would perform the first transfer. At the end of channel 1's deposit cycle two idle states are inserted (thus releasing the bus). With the bus released, channel 0 is free to perform its transfer **even though the higher priority channel 0 has not completed all of its transfers**. Channel 1 would regain the bus at the end of channel 0's transfer. The transfers would alternate as long as both requests remained active.

A higher priority DMA channel will interrupt the transfers of a lower priority channel. Figure 10. shows several transfers with different combinations of channel priority and synchronization.

#### 10.1.10.1.2. ROTATING PRIORITY

Channel priority rotates when both channels are programmed as both high or both low priority. The highest priority is initially assigned to channel 1 of the module. After a channel performs a transfer it is assigned the lower priority. When requests are active for both channels, the transfers alternate between the two.

#### 10.1.11. THE INTERNAL DMA REQUEST MULTIPLEXER

The source of internal DMA requests for a module is selected by the Internal DMA Request Multiplexer. The multiplexer controls the routing of internal DMA requests to each channel of the module. When the multiplexer is programmed to select Timer 2 DMA requests, the internal request line of both channels is connected to Timer 2. When the multiplexer is programmed to select serial port DMA requests, channel 0 is connected to the transmitter DMA request and channel 1 is connected to the receiver DMA request. A simplified diagram of the Internal DMA Request Multiplexer is shown in Figure 10.7.

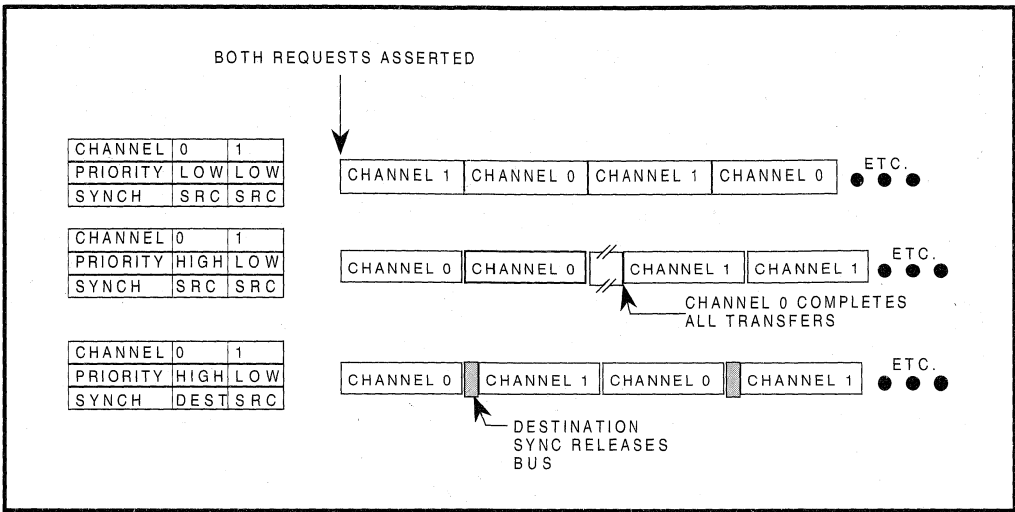


Figure 10.6. Examples of DMA Priority

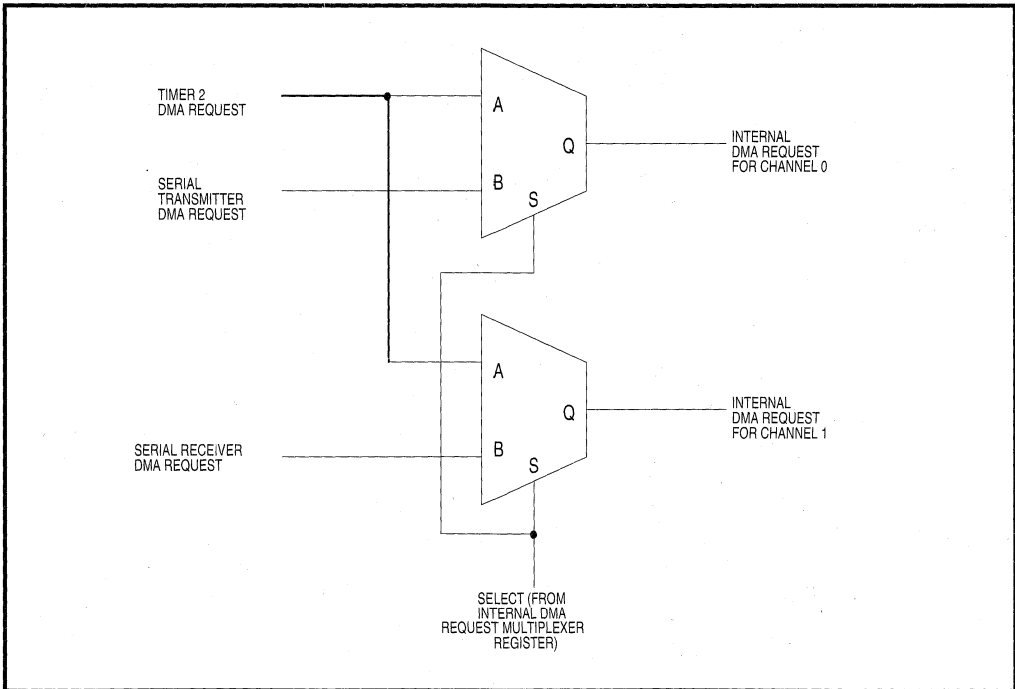


Figure 10.7. Internal DMA Request Multiplexer

It is important to note that the Internal DMA Request Multiplexer only selects the source of internal DMA requests **not** whether the channel responds to internal or external DMA requests.

### 10.1.12. DMA MODULE INTEGRATION

The DMA Unit of the 80C186EC/C188EC consists of two DMA modules (a total of four channels) and the *inter-module arbitration circuitry* (see Figure 10.8).

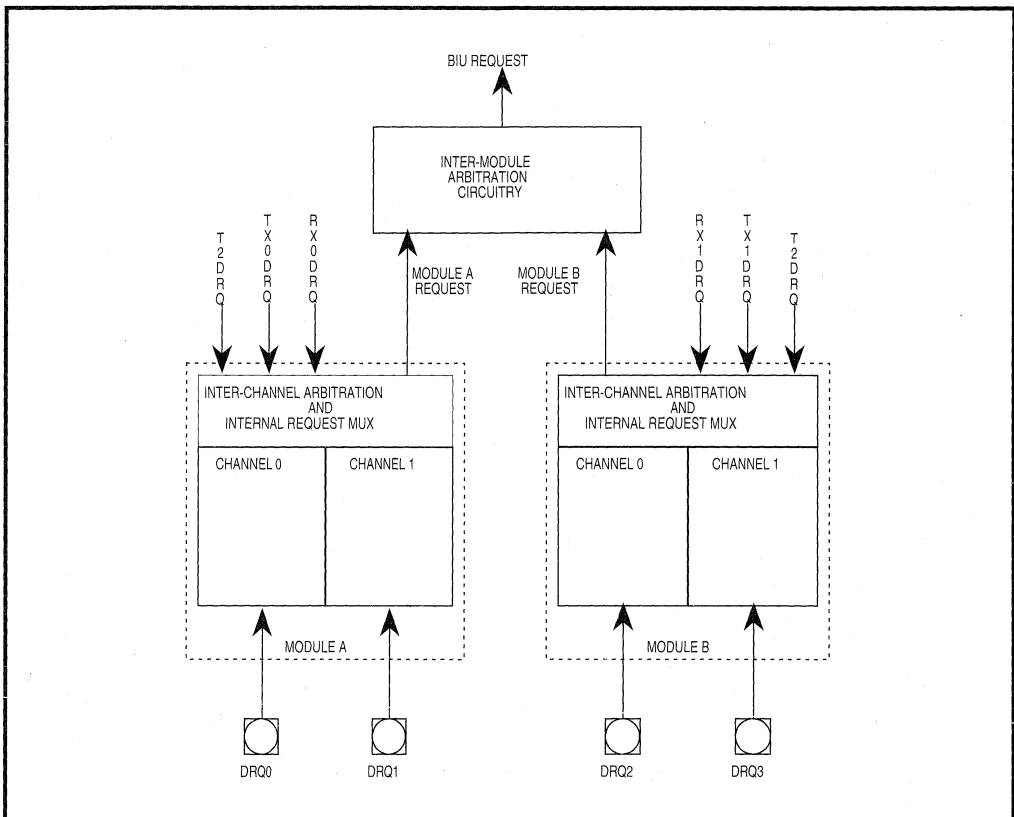


Figure 10.8. 80C186EC/C188EC DMA Unit

#### 10.1.12.1. DMA UNIT STRUCTURE

The two DMA modules within the DMA Unit are referred to as module A and module B. Both modules function identically. Table 10.1 includes naming and signal connection information for each channel.

Table 1010.1. DMA Unit Naming Conventions and Signal Connections

MODULE	CHANNEL #	CHANNEL NAME	INTERNAL REQUEST OPTIONS	EXTERNAL REQUEST PIN
A	0	DMA0	TIMER 2	DRQ0
			TX0	
	1	DMA1	TIMER 2	DRQ1
			RX0	
B	0	DMA2	TIMER 2	DRQ3
			TX1	
	1	DMA3	TIMER 2	DRQ4
			RX1	

### 10.1.12.2. INTER-MODULE ARBITRATION

The Inter-Module Arbitration Circuitry determines which module is granted the bus when there are simultaneous DMA requests from module A and module B. Like inter-channel priority, DMA module priority is set on a relative basis: one module may be set higher than or equal to the other module.

Priority arbitration between modules is subject to the same rules as arbitration between channels. When priority is fixed between modules (i.e., one module is set to a higher priority than the other) the high priority module will continue to perform transfers as long as its DMA request is active, the transfers have not been suspended or terminated or it has not released the bus.

The DMA modules rotate priority when both modules are set to the same priority. DMA module B is initially set to high priority and module A is set to low priority. After a channel within a module performs a transfer, the module is set to low priority.

Channel arbitration within the DMA Unit first begins on the module level. Each of the two modules prioritizes its two DMA requests (if active) and then presents a module request to the Inter-Module Arbitration Logic. If both modules are requesting transfers, the Inter-Module Arbitration Logic will decide which of the two modules has highest priority and will grant that module control of the bus.

## 10.2. PROGRAMMING THE DMA UNIT

A total of six Peripheral Control Block registers configure each DMA channel. There are two additional registers used to specify parameters for inter-module priority, internal DMA request multiplexing and DMA suspension.

## 10.2.1. DMA CHANNEL PARAMETERS

The first step in programming the DMA Unit is to set up the parameters for each of the four channels.

### 10.2.1.1. PROGRAMMING THE SOURCE AND DESTINATION POINTERS

The following parameters are programmable for the source and destination pointers:

- pointer address
- address space (memory or I/O)
- automatic pointer indexing (increment/decrement) after transfer

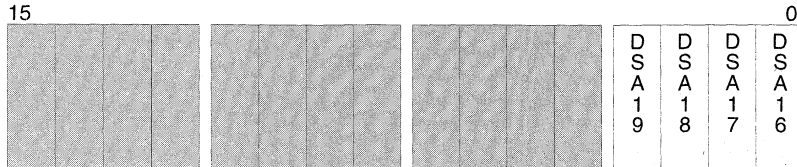
Two 16-bit Peripheral Control Block registers define each of the 20-bit pointers. Figures 10.9 through 10.12 show the layout of the DMA Source and DMA Destination pointer address registers. The DS19:16 and DD19:16 (high order address bits) are driven on the bus even if I/O transfers have been programmed. When performing I/O transfers within the normal 64K I/O space **only**, the high order bits in the pointer registers must be cleared.

The address space referenced by the source and destination pointers is programmed in the DMA Control Register for the channel (see Figure 10.13). The SMEM and DMEM bits control the address space (memory or I/O) for source pointer and destination pointer, respectively.

Automatic pointer indexing is also controlled by the DMA Control Register. Each pointer has a two bit field, increment and decrement, that controls the indexing. If the increment and decrement bits for a pointer are programmed to the same value then the pointer will remain constant. The amount that a pointer is incremented or decremented is automatically controlled by the programmed data width, byte or word, for the channel.



**Register Name:** DMA Source Address Pointer (High)  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxSRCH  
**Register Function:** Contains the upper 4 bits of the DMA Source pointer.

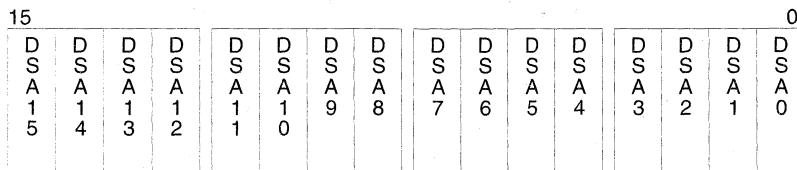


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DSA19:16	<i>DMA Source Address</i>	XXXXH	DSA19:16 are driven on A19:16 during the fetch phase of a DMA transfer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.9. DMA Source Pointer (High Order Bits)**

**Register Name:** DMA Source Address Pointer (Low)  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxSRCL  
**Register Function:** Contains the lower 16 bits of the DMA Source pointer.

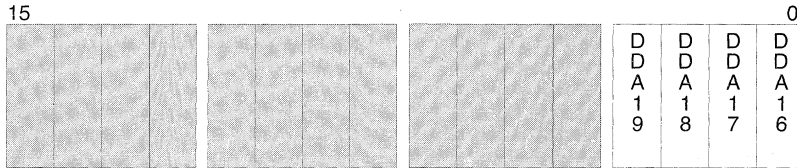


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DSA15:0	<i>DMA Source Address</i>	XXXXH	DSA15:0 are driven on the lower 16 bits of the address bus during the fetch phase of a DMA transfer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.10. DMA Source Pointer (Low Order Bits)**

**Register Name:** DMA Destination Address Pointer (High)  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxDSTH  
**Register Function:** Contains the upper 4 bits of the DMA Source pointer.

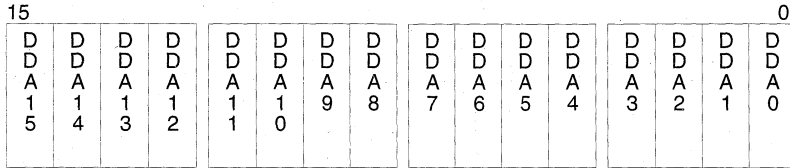


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DDA19:16	<i>DMA Destination Address</i>	XXXXH	DDA19:16 are driven on A19:16 during the deposit phase of a DMA transfer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.11. DMA Destination Pointer (High Order Bits)**

**Register Name:** DMA Destination Address Pointer (Low)  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxDSTL  
**Register Function:** Contains the lower 16 bits of the DMA Source pointer.

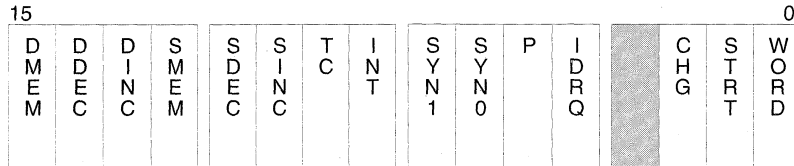


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DDA15:0	<i>DMA Destination Address</i>	XXXXH	DDA15:0 are driven on the lower 16 bits of the address bus during the deposit phase of a DMA transfer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.12. DMA Destination Pointer (Low Order Bits)**

**Register Name:** DMA Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxCON  
**Register Function:** Controls DMA channel parameters.



**Figure 10.13(a). DMA Control Register Bit Positions**

### 10.2.1.2. SELECTING BYTE OR WORD SIZE TRANSFERS

The WORD bit in the DMA Control Register is used to control the data size for a channel. When WORD is set, the channel transfers data in 16-bit words. Byte transfers are selected by clearing the WORD bit. The data size for a channel also affects pointer indexing. Word sized transfers modify (increment or decrement) the pointer registers by two for each transfer whereas byte transfers modify the pointer registers by one.

### 10.2.1.3. SELECTING THE SOURCE OF DMA REQUESTS

DMA requests can come from either an internal source or an external source. The internal requests are further divided into Timer 2 requests and serial port requests.

Internal DMA requests are selected by setting the IDRQ bit in the DMA Control Register for the channel. The DMA channel ignores its DRQ pin when internal requests are programmed. Similarly, the DMA channel only responds to the DRQ pin (and ignores internal requests) when external requests are selected.

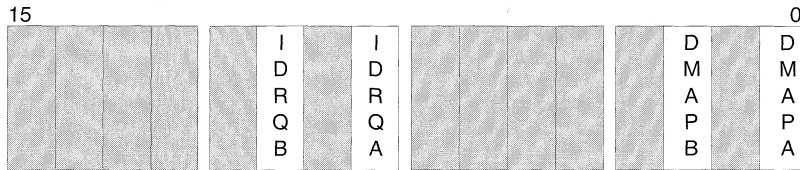
When internal DMA requests are selected, the source of the internal request must be programmed. The Internal DMA Request Multiplexer is programmable on a module basis **only**. The two channels in a module can be programmed to both respond to Timer 2, or both respond to the serial port. A module cannot be programmed to have one channel respond to Timer 2 and one channel respond to the serial port. The source of internal DMA requests for each module is controlled by the IDRQA and IDRQB bits in the DMA Priority Register (see Figure 10.14).

BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
SMEM/DMEM	<i>Source/ Destination Address Space Select</i>	X	Selects memory or I/O space for the corresponding pointer. Set SMEM/DMEM to select memory space; Clear SMEM/DMEM to select I/O space. SMEM corresponds to the source pointer. DMEM corresponds to the destination pointer.
SINC/DINC	<i>Source/ Destination Increment</i>	X	Set to automatically increment the source/destination pointer after each transfer. A pointer will remain constant if its increment and decrement bits are equal.
SDEC/DDEC	<i>Source/ Destination Decrement</i>	X	Set to automatically decrement the source/destination pointer after each transfer. A pointer will remain constant if its increment and decrement bits are equal.
TC	<i>Terminal Count</i>	X	Set to terminate transfers on Terminal Count.
INT	<i>Interrupt</i>	X	Set to generate an interrupt request on Terminal Count. The TC bit must be set to generate an interrupt.
SYN1:0	<i>Synchronization Type</i>	XX	Selects channel synchronization: <b>SYN1:0 Synchronization Type</b> 00 Unsynchronized 01 Source Synchronized 10 Destination Synchronized 11 Reserved (Do Not Use)
P	<i>Relative Priority</i>	X	Setting P selects high priority for the channel.
IDRQ	<i>Internal DMA Request Select</i>	X	Setting IDRQ selects internal DMA requests. When IDRQ is set the external DRQ pin is ignored. Clearing IDRQ selects the DRQ pin as the source of DMA requests.
CHG	<i>Change Start Bit</i>	X	CHG must be set to modify the STRT bit.
STRT	<i>Start DMA Channel</i>	0	The DMA channel is armed by setting the STRT bit. The STRT bit can only be modified when the CHG bit is set.
WORD	<i>Word Transfer Select</i>	X	The WORD bit selects between byte and word transfers. Setting WORD selects word transfers; clearing WORD selects byte transfers. The WORD bit is ignored for the 80C188EC.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.13(b). DMA Channel Control Register Bit Descriptions**

**Register Name:** DMA Module Priority Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** DMAPRI  
**Register Function:** Controls inter-module priority and the Internal DMA Request Multiplexer.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DMAPA	<i>DMA Module A Priority</i>	0	Set to place DMA Module A at a high relative priority.
DMAPB	<i>DMA Module B Priority</i>	0	Set to place DMA Module B at a high relative priority.
IDRQA	<i>Internal DMA Request for Module A</i>	0	Clear to select Timer 2 as the source of internal DMA requests. Set to select serial channel 0 as the source of internal DMA request for Module A.
IDRQB	<i>Internal DMA Request for Module B</i>	0	Clear to select Timer 2 as the source of internal DMA requests. Set to select serial channel 1 as the source of internal DMA request for Module B.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.14. DMA Module Priority Register**

#### 10.2.1.4. ARMING THE DMA CHANNEL

Each DMA channel must be armed before it will recognize DMA requests. A channel is armed by setting its STRT (Start) bit in the DMA Control Register. The STRT bit can only be modified if the CHG (Change Start) bit is set at the same time. The CHG bit is a safeguard to prevent unwanted arming of a DMA channel while modifying other channel parameters.

A DMA channel is disarmed by clearing its STRT bit. The STRT bit is cleared either directly by software or by the channel itself when programmed to terminate on terminal count.

### 10.2.1.5. SELECTING CHANNEL SYNCHRONIZATION

The synchronization method for a channel is controlled by the SYN1:0 bits in the DMA Control Register. The combination SYN1:0=11 is reserved and will result in unpredictable operation, if used.

When programmed for unsynchronized transfers (SYN1:0=00) the DMA channel will begin to transfer data as soon as the STRT bit is set.

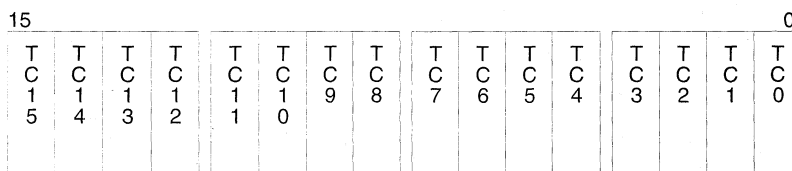
**Transfers requested by on-chip peripherals must always be programmed for source synchronization.**

### 10.2.1.6. PROGRAMMING THE TRANSFER COUNT OPTIONS

The Transfer Count Register and the TC bit in the DMA Control Register are used to stop DMA transfers for a channel after a specified number of transfers have occurred.

The number of transfers desired are written to the DMA Transfer Count Register (see Figure 10.15). The Transfer Count Register is 16-bits wide limiting the total number of transfers for a channel to 65,536 (without reprogramming). The Transfer Count Register is decremented by one after each transfer (for both byte and word transfers).

**Register Name:** DMA Transfer Count  
**Register Mnemonic:** DxTC  
**Register Function:** Contains the DMA channel's transfer count.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TC15:0	<i>Transfer Count</i>	XXXXH	Contains the transfer count for a DMA channel. This value is decremented by one after each transfer.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.15. Transfer Count Register**

The TC bit, when set, instructs the DMA channel to disarm itself (by clearing the STRT bit) when the transfer count reaches zero. If the TC bit is cleared, the channel continues to perform transfers regardless of the state of the Transfer Count Register. Unsynchronized (software initiated) transfers always terminate when the transfer count reaches zero; the TC bit is ignored.

#### **10.2.1.7. GENERATING INTERRUPTS ON TERMINAL COUNT**

A channel can be programmed to generate an interrupt request whenever the transfer count reaches zero. Both the TC bit and the INT bit (in the DMA Control Register) must be set to generate an interrupt request.

#### **10.2.1.8. SETTING THE RELATIVE PRIORITY OF A CHANNEL**

The priority of a channel within a module is controlled by the Priority bit in the DMA Control Register. A channel may be assigned either high or low priority. If the priority for both channels is programmed to the same priority (i.e., both high or both low) then the channels will rotate priority.

#### **10.2.2. SETTING THE INTER-MODULE PRIORITY**

The inter-module priority for the DMA Unit is controlled by the DMAPA and DMAPB bits in the DMA Priority Register. A module may be assigned either high or low priority. When both modules are assigned the same priority then the modules rotate priority.

#### **10.2.3. USING THE DMA UNIT WITH THE SERIAL PORTS**

The following setup is used for DMA serviced serial port reception:

- The source pointer points at the receive buffer (RBUF) in the serial port
- The destination pointer points to the area in memory where the message will be saved
- The DMA channel is programmed for serial channel requests
- The transfer count register holds the length of the memory buffer

The serial port DMA request will pulse high after each byte is received. The DMA unit then fetches the received byte from the receive buffer (RBUF) register and deposits it in memory. Typically, the channel would be programmed to interrupt the CPU when the memory buffer was full (i.e., the transfer count reached zero).



The following setup is used for DMA serviced serial port transmission:

- The source pointer points to the area of memory where the message resides
- The destination pointer points to the transmit buffer for the serial channel
- The DMA channel is programmed for serial channel requests
- The transfer count register holds the length of the memory buffer

The serial port DMA request will pulse high after each byte is transmitted. The DMA unit then fetches the next byte of the message from memory and deposits it in the transmit buffer (initiating another transfer). Typically, the channel would be programmed to interrupt the CPU when the memory buffer was empty (i.e., the transfer count reached zero).

DMA driven transmissions must be “primed” by sending the first byte manually, thus generating the first transmit interrupt.

#### **10.2.4. SUSPENSION OF DMA TRANSFERS USING THE DMA HALT BITS**

The DMA Halt Register (Figure 10.16) contains three bits that allow the system software to temporarily suspend DMA transfers. The HNMI bit is set automatically whenever an NMI is received by the CPU. When the HNMI bit is set no DMA transfers can occur from either module. The HNMI bit is automatically cleared when an IRET instruction is executed. The HNMI bit can be cleared by the system software if DMA transfers are desired during the NMI service routine.

The HDMA and HDMB bits are used to suspend transfers for module A and module B, respectively. The HDMA and HDMB bits should be used instead of HNMI when suspending transfers under normal circumstances. This insures that the system software will not interfere inadvertently with an NMI service routine.

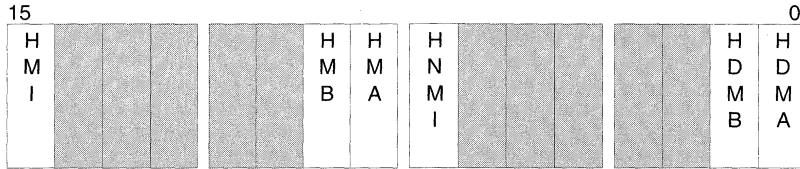
The mask bits (HMI, HMA, HMB) allow the modification of individual halt bits without performing a read-modify-write operation on the DMA Halt Register.

#### **10.2.5. INITIALIZING THE DMA UNIT**

Use the following sequence when programming the DMA Unit:

1. Program the source and destination pointers for all used channels.
2. Program the inter-module priority.
3. Program the DMA Control Registers in order of highest priority channel to lowest priority channel.

**Register Name:** DMA Halt Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** DMAHALT  
**Register Function:** Allows software suspension of DMA transfers.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
HDMA	<i>Halt DMA Module A</i>	0	Suspends transfers for module A when set.
HDMB	<i>Halt DMA Module B</i>	0	Suspends transfers for module B when set.
HNMI	<i>Halt DMA Unit for NMI Service</i>	0	HNMI is set automatically when an NMI request is processed by the CPU. HNMI suspends DMA transfers for both modules. HNMI is cleared automatically when an IRET instruction is executed by the CPU.
HMA	<i>Halt Mask for Module A</i>	0	HMA must be set to modify HDMA.
HMB	<i>Halt Mask for Module B</i>	0	HMB must be set to modify HDMB.
HMI	<i>Halt Mask for HNMI</i>	0	HMI must be set to modify HNMI.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 10.16. DMA Module Priority Register**

### 10.3. HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS AND THE DMA UNIT

The following sections cover hardware interfacing and performance factors for the DMA Unit.

#### 10.3.1. DRQ PIN TIMING REQUIREMENTS

The DRQ pins are sampled on the falling edge of CLKOUT. The DRQ pins must be setup a minimum of  $T_{CLIS}$  before CLKOUT falling and must be held a minimum of  $T_{CLIH}$  after CLKOUT falls. Refer to the data sheet for specific values.

The DRQ pins have an internal synchronizer. Violating the setup and hold times may only result in a missed DMA request, not a processor malfunction.

#### 10.3.2. DMA LATENCY

*DMA Latency* is the delay between a DMA request being asserted and the DMA cycle being run. The DMA latency for a channel is controlled by many factors, including:

- **Bus HOLD:** Bus HOLD takes precedence over internal DMA requests. Using bus HOLD will degrade DMA latency.
- **LOCKed Instructions:** Long LOCKed instructions (e.g., LOCK REP MOVS) will monopolize the bus preventing access by the DMA Unit.
- **Inter-channel Priority Scheme:** Setting a channel at low priority will affect its latency.

The minimum latency in all cases is four CLKOUT cycles. This is the amount of time it takes to synchronize and prioritize a request.

#### 10.3.3. DMA TRANSFER RATES

The maximum DMA transfer rate is a function of processor operating frequency and synchronization mode. For unsynchronized and source synchronized transfers, 2 bytes can be transferred every eight CLKOUT cycles. Maximum transfer rate for the 80C186EC is calculated by:

$$\text{Maximum DMA Transfer Rate in Mbytes/sec} = .25 * F_{\text{CPU}} \\ \text{(Source and Unsynchronized)}$$

Where  $F_{\text{CPU}}$  is the CPU operating frequency in megahertz.

For destination synchronized transfers, the addition of two idle T-states reduces the bandwidth by two clocks per word:

Maximum DMA Transfer Rate in Mbytes/sec =  $.20 * F_{CPU}$   
(Source and Unsynchronized)

Where  $F_{CPU}$  is the CPU operating frequency in megahertz.

Maximum transfer rates for the 80C188EC are half that calculated by the equations above as the 80C188EC can only transfer 1 byte per DMA cycle due its 8-bit data bus.

#### **10.3.4. GENERATING A DMA ACKNOWLEDGE**

The DMA channels do not provide a distinct DMA acknowledge signal. A chip select line can be programmed to active for the memory or I/O range that requires the acknowledge. The chip select must be programmed to active only when a DMA is in progress. Latched status line  $S_6$  can be used as a qualifier to the chip select in situations where the chip select line will be active for both DMA and normal data accesses.

#### **10.4. DMA UNIT EXAMPLES**

In Example 10.1., channel 0 is set up to perform an unsynchronized burst transfer from memory to memory while channel 1 is used to service an external DMA request from a hard disk controller.

Example 10.2. shows the steps necessary to use the DMA Unit with the Serial Communications Unit. Two DMA channels are used: one for transmit and one for receive functions.

Timed DMA transfers are shown in Example 10.3. A sawtooth waveform is created using DMA transfers to an A/D converter.

```
$MOD186
NAME    DMA_EXAMPLE_1

; This example shows code necessary
; to setup of two DMA channels. One
; channel performs an unsynchronized
; transfer from memory to memory.
; The second channel is used by a
; hard disk controller located in
; I/O space.

; It is assumed that the constants for PCB register
; addresses are defined elsewhere with EQUates.

CODE_SEG      SEGMENT
               ASSUME CS:CODE_SEG

START:        MOV     AX, DATA_SEG    ; DATA SEGMENT POINTER
               MOV     DS, AX
               ASSUME DS:DATA_SEG

; First we must initialize DMA channel 0. DMA0 will
; an unsynchronized transfer from SOURCE_DATA_1 to
; DEST_DATA_1. The first step is to calculate the
; proper values for the source and destination
; pointers.

               MOV     AX, SEG SOURCE_DATA_1

               ROL     AX, 4           ; GET HIGH 4 BITS
               MOV     BX, AX         ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
               AND     AX, 0FFF0H     ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                                       ; NIBBLES

               ADD     AX, OFFSET SOURCE_DATA_1
```

### Example 10.1. DMA Unit Initialization

```
; NOW LOW BYTES OF
; POINTER ARE IN AX

ADC    BX, 0            ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                        ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
AND    BX, 000FH       ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                        ; NIBBLE

MOV    DX, D0SRCL
OUT    DX, AX          ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

MOV    DX, D0SRCH
MOV    AX, BX          ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
OUT    DX, AX

; SOURCE POINTER DONE. REPEAT FOR DEST.

MOV    AX, SEG DEST_DATA_1

ROL    AX, 4           ; GET HIGH 4 BITS
MOV    BX, AX          ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
AND    AX, 0FFF0H     ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                        ; NIBBLES

ADD    AX, OFFSET DEST_DATA_1

; NOW LOW BYTES OF
; POINTER ARE IN AX

ADC    BX, 0            ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                        ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
AND    BX, 000FH       ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                        ; NIBBLE

MOV    DX, D0DSTL
OUT    DX, AX          ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

MOV    DX, D0DSTH
MOV    AX, BX          ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
OUT    DX, AX
```

**Example 10.1. DMA Unit Initialization (Continued)**

```
; THE POINTER ADDRESSES HAVE BEEN SET UP. NOW
; WE SET UP THE TRANSFER COUNT.

MOV     AX, 29           ; THE MESSAGE IS
                        ; 29 BYTES LONG.
MOV     DX, D0TC        ; XFER COUNT REG
OUT     DX, AX

; NOW WE NEED TO SET THE PARAMETERS FOR
; THE CHANNEL AS FOLLOWS:
;
;     DESTINATION      SOURCE
;     -----
;     MEMORY SPACE    MEMORY SPACE
;     INCREMENT PTR   INCREMENT PTR
;
; TERMINATE ON TC, NO INTERRUPT, UNSYNCHRONIZED,
; LOW PRIORITY RELATIVE TO CHANNEL 1, BYTE XFERS.
; WE START THE CHANNEL

MOV     AX, 1011011000000110B
MOV     DX, D0CON
OUT     DX, AX

; THE UNSYNCHRONIZED BURST IS NOW RUNNING ON
; THE BUS...

; NOW SET UP CHANNEL 1 TO SERVICE THE DISK
; CONTROLLER. FOR THIS EXAMPLE WE WILL ONLY
; BE READING FROM THE DISK.

; THE SOURCE IS THE I/O PORT FOR THE
; DISK CONTROLLER.

MOV     AX, DISK_IO_ADDR
MOV     DX, D1SRCL
OUT     DX, AL          ; PROGRAM LOW ADDR

XOR     AX, AX
MOV     DX, D1SRCH     ; HI ADDR FOR IO=0
OUT     DX, AL
```

**Example 10.1. DMA Unit Initialization (Continued)**

```
        ; THE DESTINATION IS THE DISK BUFFER IN MEMORY

MOV     AX, SEG DISK_BUFF

ROL     AX, 4                ; GET HIGH 4 BITS ;
MOV     BX, AX              ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
AND     AX, 0FFF0H         ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                                ; NIBBLES

ADD     AX, OFFSET DISK_BUFF

        ; NOW LOW BYTES OF
        ; POINTER ARE IN AX

ADC     BX, 0               ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                                ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
AND     BX, 000FH         ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                                ; NIBBLE
MOV     DX, D1DSTL
OUT     DX, AX             ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

MOV     DX, D1DSTH
MOV     AX, BX             ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
OUT     DX, AX

        ; THE POINTER ADDRESSES HAVE BEEN SET UP. NOW
        ; WE SET UP THE TRANSFER COUNT.

MOV     AX, 512            ; THE DISK READS IN
                                ; 512 BYTE SECTORS.
MOV     DX, D1TC          ; XFER COUNT REG
OUT     DX, AX
```

**Example 10.1. DMA Unit Initialization (Continued)**



```

; NOW WE NEED TO SET THE PARAMETERS FOR
; THE CHANNEL AS FOLLOWS:
;
;     DESTINATION      SOURCE
;     -----
;     MEMORY SPACE    I/O SPACE
;     INCREMENT PTR   CONSTANT PTR
;
; TERMINATE ON TC, INTERRUPT, SOURCE SYNC,
; HIGH PRIORITY RELATIVE TO CHANNEL 0, BYTE XFRS,
; USE DRQ PIN FOR REQUEST SOURCE.

; THE CHANNEL IS ARMED.

MOV     AX, 1010001101100110B
MOV     DX, D0CON
OUT     DX, AX

; REQUESTS ON DRQ1 WILL NOW RESULT IN TRANSFERS

CODE_SEG      ENDS

DATA_SEG      SEGMENT

SOURCE_DATA_1 DB      '80C186EC INTEGRATED PROCESSOR'
DEST_DATA_1   DB      30 DUP('MITCH')           ; JUNK DATA FOR TEST

DISK_BUFF     DB      512 DUP(?)

DATA_SEG      ENDS

END START

```

**Example 10.1. DMA Unit Initialization (Continued)**

```
$mod186

name DMA_WITH_SCU

; THE FOLLOWING EXAMPLE INITIALIZES THE DMA UNIT
; TO PERFORM DMA DRIVEN SERIAL TRANSFERS.
;
; IT IS ASSUMED THAT THE SERIAL PORT HAS BEEN
; INITIALIZED FOR MODE 1 ASYNCHRONOUS TRANSFERS.
;
; REGISTER MNEMONICS ARE ASSUMED TO BE DEFINED ELSEWHERE
; IN EQUate INSTRUCTIONS.

DATA                SEGMENT

XMIT_BUFF           DB      'This is a serial message.'
RECV_BUFF           DB      128 DUP('ReCv')      ; junk data

DATA                ENDS

CODE                SEGMENT
                    ASSUME CS:CODE

                    MOV     AX, DATA          ; DATA SEGMENT POINTER
                    MOV     DS, AX
                    ASSUME DS:DATA

; First we set up DMA channel 2 (Module B, channel 0)
; to handle transmit requests from serial port 1.
;
```

### Example 10.2. DMA Driven Serial Transfers

```

; The source of data is the transmit buffer
; in memory. The destination for data is the
; TBUF register for serial port 1...

        MOV     AX, SEG XMIT_BUFF

        ROL     AX, 4           ; GET HIGH 4 BITS
        MOV     BX, AX         ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
        AND     AX, 0FFF0H     ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                                ; NIBBLES

        ADD     AX, OFFSET XMIT_BUFF+1

; USE XMIT_BUFF+1 BECAUSE FIRST BYTE IS SENT
; MANUALLY.

; NOW LOW BYTES OF
; POINTER ARE IN AX

        ADC     BX, 0           ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                                ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
        AND     BX, 000FH     ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                                ; NIBBLE
        MOV     DX, D2SRCL
        OUT     DX, AX         ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

        MOV     DX, D2SRCH
        MOV     AX, BX         ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
        OUT     DX, AX

; SOURCE POINTER DONE. DESTINATION
; IS IN PCB.

        MOV     DX, D2DSTL
        MOV     AX, S1TBUF     ; TRANSMIT BUFFER FOR
        OUT     DX, AX         ; CHANNEL 1 IS DEST

        XOR     AX, AX         ; HIGH ADDRESS=0
        MOV     DX, D2DSTH
        OUT     DX, AX

```

**Example 10.2. DMA Driven Serial Transfers (Continued)**

```

; THE POINTER ADDRESSES HAVE BEEN SET UP. NOW
; WE SET UP THE TRANSFER COUNT.

        MOV     AX, 25             ; THE MESSAGE IS
                                   ; 25 BYTES LONG.
        MOV     DX, D2TC          ; XFER COUNT REG
        OUT     DX, AX

; SELECT THE SERIAL PORTS AS THE SOURCE OF
; INTERNAL DMA REQUESTS AND SELECT MODULE B
; AS HIGHEST PRIORITY MODULE.

        MOV     DX, DMAPRI
        MOV     AX, 0404H         ; IDRQB=1, DMAPB=1
        OUT     DX, AX

        ; NOW WE NEED TO SET THE PARAMETERS FOR
        ; THE CHANNEL AS FOLLOWS:
        ;
        ;   DESTINATION          SOURCE
        ;   -----
        ;   I/O SPACE           MEMORY SPACE
        ;   CONSTANT PTR        INCREMENT PTR
        ;
        ; TERMINATE ON TC, INTERRUPT, SOURCE SYNCHRONIZED,
        ; LOW PRIORITY RELATIVE TO CHANNEL 1, BYTE XFERS.
        ; INTERNAL DRQ. ARM CHANNEL.

        MOV     AX, 0001011101010110B
        MOV     DX, D0CON
        OUT     DX, AX

        ; THE TRANSMIT CHANNEL IS NOW ARMED. IT WILL NOT
        ; BEGIN TRANSFERS UNTIL IT IS "PRIMED" BY SENDING
        ; THE FIRST BYTE MANUALLY.

```

### Example 10.2. DMA Driven Serial Transfers (Continued)

```
        ; NOW SET UP CHANNEL 4 TO HANDLE RECEIVE REQUESTS
        ; FROM SERIAL CHANNEL 1.

MOV     AX, SEG RECV_BUFF

ROL     AX, 4           ; GET HIGH 4 BITS
MOV     BX, AX         ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
AND     AX, 0FFF0H     ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                        ; NIBBLES

        ADD     AX, OFFSET RECV_BUFF

        ; NOW LOW BYTES OF
        ; POINTER ARE IN AX

ADC     BX, 0          ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                        ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
AND     BX, 000FH     ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                        ; NIBBLE
MOV     DX, D3DSTL
OUT     DX, AX        ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

MOV     DX, D3DSTH
MOV     AX, BX        ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
OUT     DX, AX

        ; DESTINATION POINTER DONE. SOURCE
        ; IS IN PCB.

MOV     DX, D3SRCL
MOV     AX, S1RBUF    ; RECEIVE BUFFER FOR
OUT     DX, AX        ; CHANNEL 1 IS DEST

XOR     AX, AX        ; HIGH ADDRESS=0
MOV     DX, D3SRCH
OUT     DX, AX
```

**Example 10.2. DMA Driven Serial Transfers (Continued)**

```

; THE POINTER ADDRESSES HAVE BEEN SET UP. NOW
; WE SET UP THE TRANSFER COUNT.

MOV     AX, 128           ; INTERRUPT AFTER
                        ; 128 BYTES ARE
MOV     DX, D3TC         ; RECEIVED.
OUT     DX, AX

; NOW WE NEED TO SET THE PARAMETERS FOR
; THE CHANNEL AS FOLLOWS:
;
;   DESTINATION          SOURCE
;   -----
;   MEMORY SPACE        I/O SPACE
;   INCREMENT PTR      CONSTANT PTR
;
; TERMINATE ON TC, INTERRUPT, SOURCE SYNCHRONIZED,
; HIGH PRIORITY RELATIVE TO CHANNEL 1, BYTE XFERS.
; INTERNAL DRQ. ARM CHANNEL.

MOV     AX, 1010001101110110B
MOV     DX, D3CON
OUT     DX, AX

; AT THIS POINT THE DMA UNIT WILL HANDLE
; SERIAL RECEPTIONS AS LONG AS THE SERIAL
; PORT HAS BEEN INITIALIZED.

; NOW START THE BURST TRANSMIT ("PRIME THE PUMP")

MOV     AL, XMIT_BUFF    ; GET FIRST BYTE
XOR     AH, AH           ; CLEAR RESERVED BITS
MOV     DX, S1TBUF      ; TRANSMIT IT
OUT     DX, AX

; BURST TRANSMIT HAS BEGUN.

CODE     ENDS
        END
```

**Example 10.2. DMA Driven Serial Transfers (Continued)**

```
$MOD186
NAME    DMA_EXAMPLE_1

; This example sets up the DMA Unit
; to perform a memory to I/O space
; transfer every 22uS. The data is
; sent to an A/D converter.

; It is assumed that the constants for PCB register
; addresses are defined elsewhere with EQUates.

CODE_SEG    SEGMENT
             ASSUME CS:CODE_SEG

START:      MOV     AX, DATA_SEG    ; DATA SEGMENT POINTER
             MOV     DS, AX
             ASSUME DS:DATA_SEG

; First, setup the pointers. The source is in memory.

             MOV     AX, SEG WAVEFORM_DATA

             ROL     AX, 4           ; GET HIGH 4 BITS
             MOV     BX, AX         ; SAVE ROTATED VALUE
             AND     AX, 0FFF0H     ; GET SHIFTED LOW 4
                                     ; NIBBLES

             ADD     AX, OFFSET WAVEFORM_DATA
```

### Example 10.3. Timed DMA Transfers

```
; NOW LOW BYTES OF
; POINTER ARE IN AX

ADC    BX, 0          ; ADD IN THE CARRY
                        ; TO THE HIGH NIBBLE
AND    BX, 000FH     ; GET JUST THE HIGH
                        ; NIBBLE
MOV    DX, DOSRCL
OUT    DX, AX        ; AX=LOW 4 BYTES

MOV    DX, DOSRCH
MOV    AX, BX        ; GET HIGH NIBBLE
OUT    DX, AX

MOV    AX, DA_CNVTR  ; I/O ADDRESS OF D/A
MOV    DX, D0DSTL
OUT    DX, AX        ;

MOV    DX, D0DSTH
XOR    AX, AX        ; CLEAR HIGH NIBBLE
OUT    DX, AX

; THE POINTER ADDRESSES HAVE BEEN SET UP. NOW
; WE SET UP THE TRANSFER COUNT.

MOV    AX, 255       ; 8-BIT D/A SO
                        ; WE SEND 256 BYTES
MOV    DX, D0TC      ; TO GET A FULL SCALE
OUT    DX, AX

; PROGRAM IDRQ MUX

MOV    DX, DMAPRI
MOV    AX, 00H       ; TIMER2 IS IDRQ SOURCE
                        ; MODULES HAVE = PRIORITY
OUT    DX, AX
```

**Example 10.3. Timed DMA Transfers (Continued)**



```

; NOW WE NEED TO SET THE PARAMETERS FOR
; THE CHANNEL AS FOLLOWS:
;
;   DESTINATION      SOURCE
;   -----
;   I/O SPACE        MEMORY SPACE
;   CONSTANT PTR     INCREMENT PTR
;
; TERMINATE ON TC, INTERRUPT, SOURCE SYNCHRONIZE,
; INTERNAL REQUESTS,
; LOW PRIORITY RELATIVE TO CHANNEL 1, BYTE XFERS.

MOV     AX, 0001011101010110B
MOV     DX, D0CON
OUT     DX, AX

; NOW WE ASSUME THAT TIMER 2 HAS BEEN PROPERLY
; PROGRAMMED FOR A 22US DELAY.

; WHEN THE TIMER IS STARTED, A DMA
; TRANSFER WILL OCCUR EVERY 22US.

CODE_SEG      ENDS

DATA_SEG      SEGMENT

WAVEFORM_DATA DB     0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13
                DB     14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23,24

                ; ETC. UP TO 255

DATA_SEG      ENDS

END START

```

**Example 10.3. Timed DMA Transfers (Continued)**



---

*Serial Communications Unit*

**11**

---



# CHAPTER 11

## SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS UNIT

### 11.1. INTRODUCTION

The Serial Communications Unit is composed of two identical serial ports, or channels. Each serial port operates independent of the other. For this chapter, the operation of a single serial port is described.

The serial port implements several industry standard asynchronous communications protocols. The serial port readily interfaces to many different processors over a standard serial interface. Several processors and systems can be connected to a common serial bus using a multiprocessor protocol.

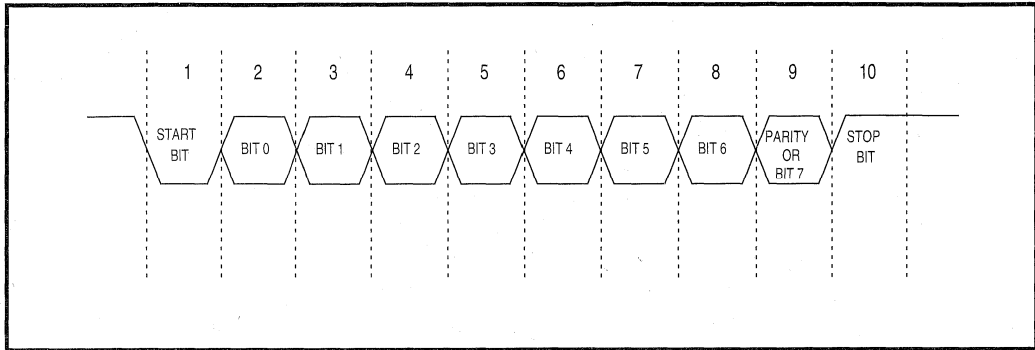
The serial port also implements a simple synchronous protocol. The synchronous protocol is most commonly used to expand the number of I/O pins with shift registers.

Features:

- Full duplex operation
- Programmable seven, eight or nine data bits in asynchronous mode
- Independent baud rate generator
- Maximum baud rate of 1/16 the processor clock
- Double-buffered transmit and receive
- Clear-To-Send feature for transmission
- Break character transmission and detection
- Programmable even, odd or no parity
- Detects both framing and overrun errors
- Supports interrupt on transmit and receive

#### 11.1.1. ASYNCHRONOUS COMMUNICATIONS

Asynchronous communications protocols allow different devices to communicate without a common reference clock. The devices communicate at a common baud rate, or bits per second. Data is transmitted and received in frames. A frame is a sequence of bits shifted serially onto or off the communications line.



**Figure 11.1. Typical 10-Bit Asynchronous Data Frame**

Each asynchronous frame consists of a start bit (always a logic zero), followed by the data bits and a terminating stop bit. The serial port can transmit/receive seven, eight, or nine data bits. The last data bit can optionally be replaced by an even or odd parity bit. Figure 11.1 shows a typical 10-bit frame.

When discussing asynchronous communications, it makes good sense to talk about the receive machine (RX machine) and the transmit machine (TX machine) separately. Each is completely independent. Transmission and reception can occur simultaneously, making the asynchronous modes full-duplex.

#### 11.1.1.1. RX MACHINE

The RX machine shifts the received serial data into the receive shift register (see Figure 11.2). When the reception has completed, the data is then moved into the Receive Buffer (RBUF) register. From there, the user can then read the received data byte.

The RX machine samples the RXD pin, looking for a logical low (start bit) signifying the beginning of a reception. Once the logical low has been detected, the RX machine begins the receive process. Each expected bit-time is divided into eight samples by the 8X baud clock. The RX machine takes the three middle samples and based on a two-out-of-three majority, determines the data bit value. This *oversampling* is common for asynchronous serial ports and improves noise immunity. This majority value is then shifted into the receive shift register.

Using this method, the RX machine can tolerate incoming baud rates that differ from its own internal baud rates by 2.5% overspeed and 5.5% underspeed. These limits exceed the CCITT extended signalling rate specifications.

A stop bit is expected by the RX machine after the proper number of data bits. When the stop bit has been validated, the data from the shift register is copied into RxBUF and the Receive Interrupt (RI) bit is set. Note that the stop bit is actually validated right after its middle three samples are taken. Therefore, the data is moved into RxBUF and the RI bit is set approximately in the middle of the stop bit time.

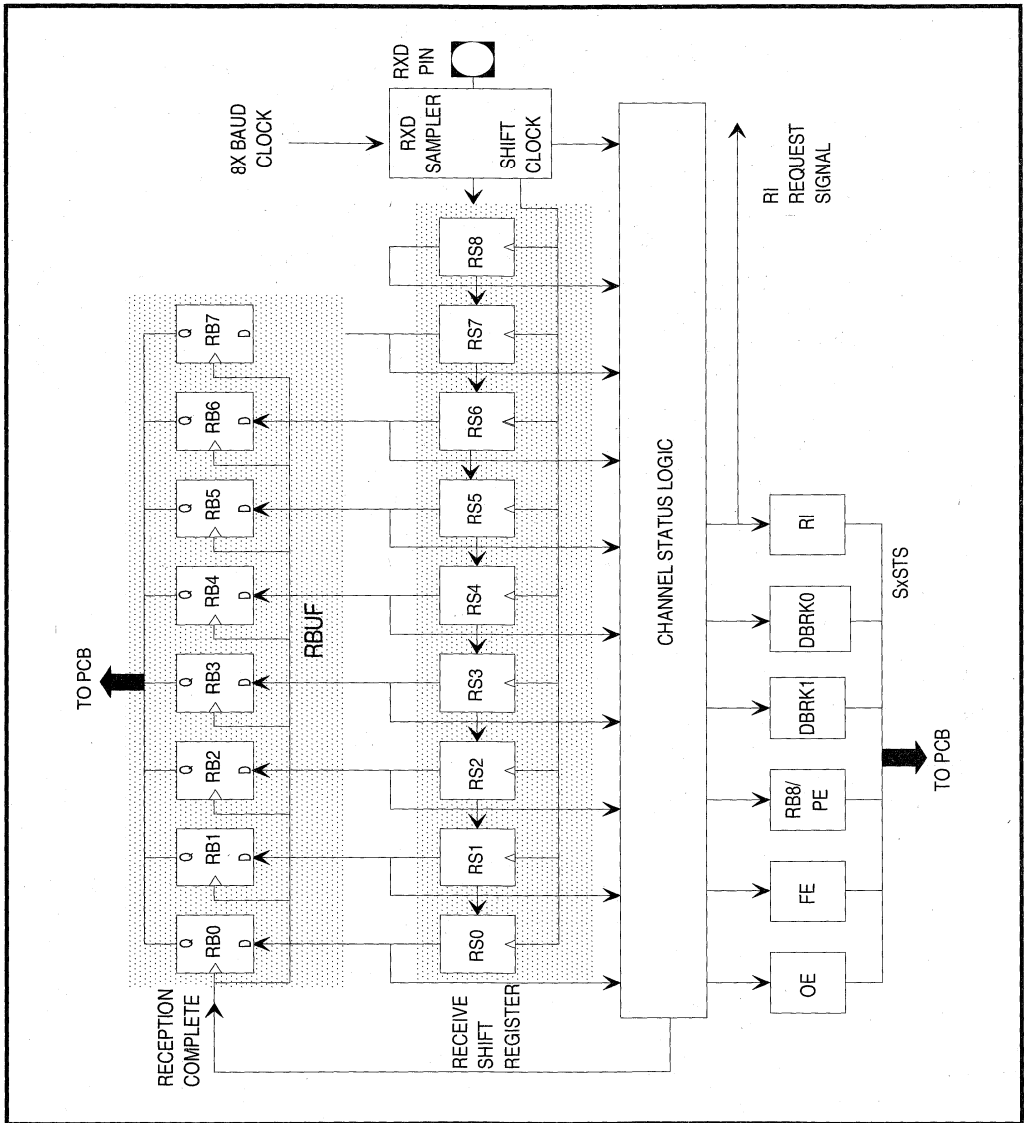


Figure 11.2. RX Machine

The RX machine can detect several error conditions that may occur during reception. These include:

1. Parity errors: A parity error flag is set when the parity of the received data is incorrect.
2. Framing errors: If a valid stop bit is not received when expected by the RX machine, a framing error flag is set.
3. Overrun errors: If RxBUF is not read before another reception completes, the old data in RxBUF is overwritten and an overrun error flag is set. This indicates that data from an earlier reception has been lost.

The RX machine also recognizes two different break characters. The shorter break character is M bit times, where M is equal to the total number of bits (start+data+stop) in a frame. The longer break character detected is  $2*M + 3$  bit times. A break character results in at least one null (all zero) character with a framing error being received. Other error flags could be set depending on the length of the break character and the mode of the serial port.

#### 11.1.1.2. TX MACHINE

A block diagram of the TX machine is shown in Figure 11.3. The TX machine logic supports:

- Even or odd parity generation
- Clear-To-Send
- Break character transmission
- Double-buffered operation

A transmission begins by writing a byte to the TBUF (transmit buffer) register. TxBUF is a holding register for the transmit shift register. The contents of TxBUF are transferred to the transmit shift register as soon as it is empty. If no transmission is in progress (i.e., the transmit shift register is empty), TxBUF is copied immediately to the transmit shift register. If parity is enabled, the parity bits are calculated and appended to the transmit shift register during the transfer. The start and stop bits are added when the data is transmitted. The Transmit Interrupt bit (TI) is set at the beginning of the stop bit time.

Double buffering is a useful feature of the TX machine. When the transmit shift register is empty, the user can write two sequential bytes to TxBUF. The first byte is transmitted immediately and the second byte is held in TxBUF until the first byte has been transmitted.

The Transmit machine can be disabled by an external source by using the “Clear-To-Send” feature. When the Clear-To-Send feature is enabled, the TX machine will not transmit until the CTS pin is asserted. The CTS pin is level sensitive. Asserting the CTS pin before a pending transmission for at least  $1 \frac{1}{2}$  clock cycles assures the entire frame will be transmitted. Section 11.4.1 discusses the CTS pin timings in greater detail.



The TX machine can also transmit a break character. Setting the SBRK bit immediately forces the TXD pin low. The TXD pin will remain low until the user clears SBRK. The TX machine will continue the transmission sequence even if SBRK is set. Use caution when setting SBRK or characters will be lost.

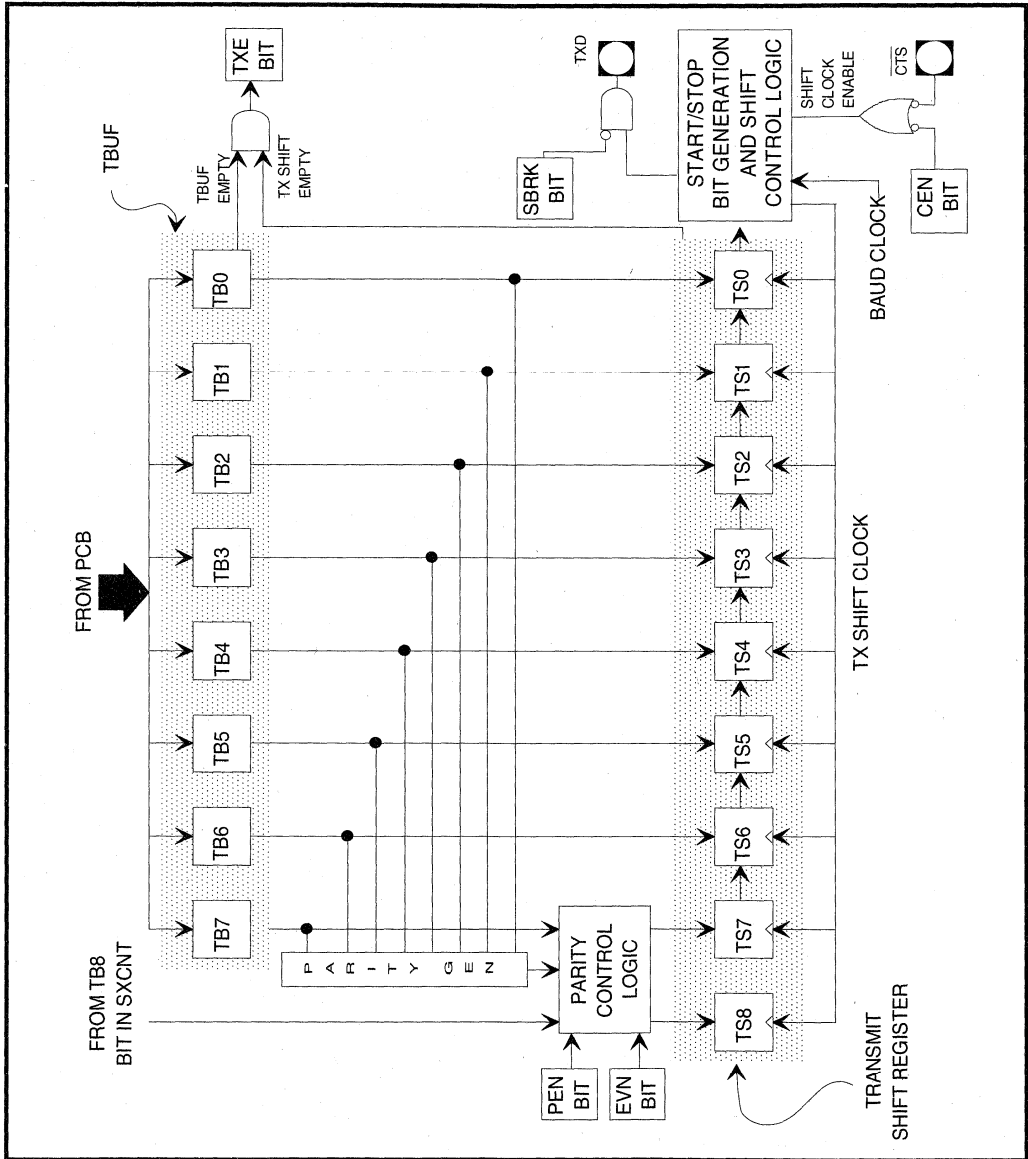
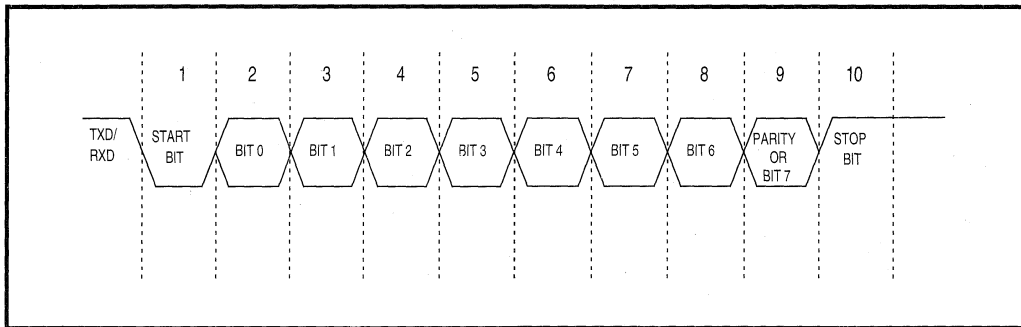


Figure 11.3. TX Machine

### 11.1.1.3. MODES 1, 3 AND 4

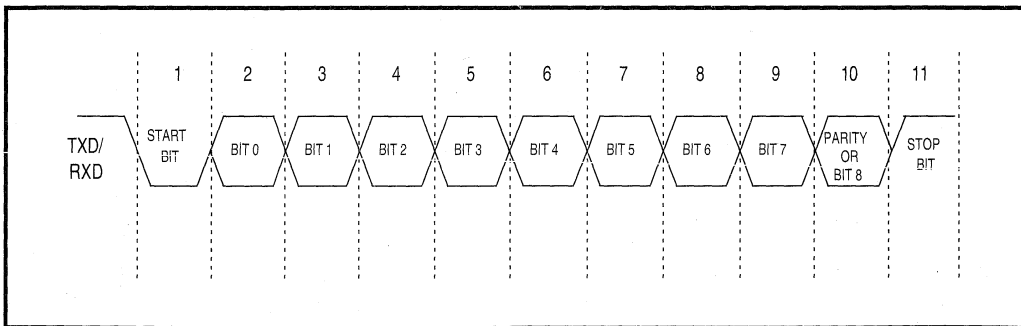
These three asynchronous modes of the serial ports operate in approximately the same manner.

Mode 1 is the 8-bit asynchronous communications mode. Each frame consists of a start bit, eight data bits and a stop bit as shown in Figure 11.4. When using parity, the eighth data bit becomes the parity bit. Both the RX and TX machines use this frame in Mode 1 with no exceptions.



**Figure 11.4. Mode 1 Waveform**

Mode 3 is the 9-bit asynchronous communications mode (see Figure 11.5). Mode 3 is the same as mode 1 except that a frame contains nine data bits. The ninth data bit becomes the parity bit when using the parity feature. When parity is not enabled, the ninth data bit is controlled by the user (see Section 11.3.2.2). Mode 3 can be used with Mode 2 for multiprocessor communications or stand-alone for “8 data bits + parity” frames.

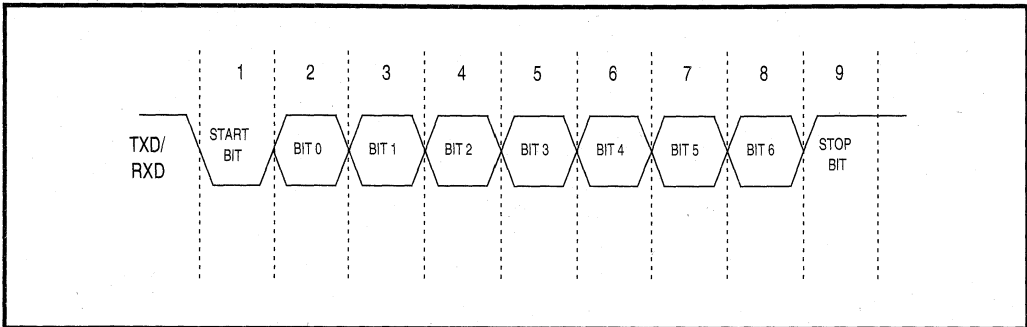


**Figure 11.5. Mode 3 Waveform**

Mode 4 is the 7-bit asynchronous communications mode. Each frame consists of a start bit, seven data bits and a stop bit as shown in Figure 11.6. Parity is not available in Mode 4. Both the RX and TX machines use this frame in mode 4 with no exceptions.

#### 11.1.1.4. MODE 2

Asynchronous Mode 2 is referred to as the “address recognition mode.” Mode 2 is used together with Mode 3 for multiprocessor communications over a common serial link.



**Figure 11.6. Mode 4 Waveform**

In Mode 2, the RX machine will not complete a reception unless the ninth data bit is a one. Any character received with the ninth bit equal to zero will be ignored. No flags will be set, no interrupts will occur and no data will be transferred to RxBUF. In mode 3, characters will be received regardless of the state of the ninth data bit. The following is brief example of using modes 2 and 3. See the example in Section 11.5 for more information.

Assume one master serial port connects to multiple slave serial ports over a serial link. The slaves are initially in Mode 2 and the master is always in Mode 3. The master communicates with one slave at a time. The CPU overhead of the serial communications only burdens the master and the target slave device.

1. The master transmits the “address” of the target slave over the serial link with the ninth bit set.
2. All slaves receive that character and check to see if the address is theirs.
3. The target slave switches to Mode 3 and all other slaves remain in Mode 2.
4. The master and target slave continue the communication with all ninth data bits equal to 0. The other slave devices ignore the activity on the serial link.
5. At the end of the communication, the target slave switches back to mode 2 and waits for another address.

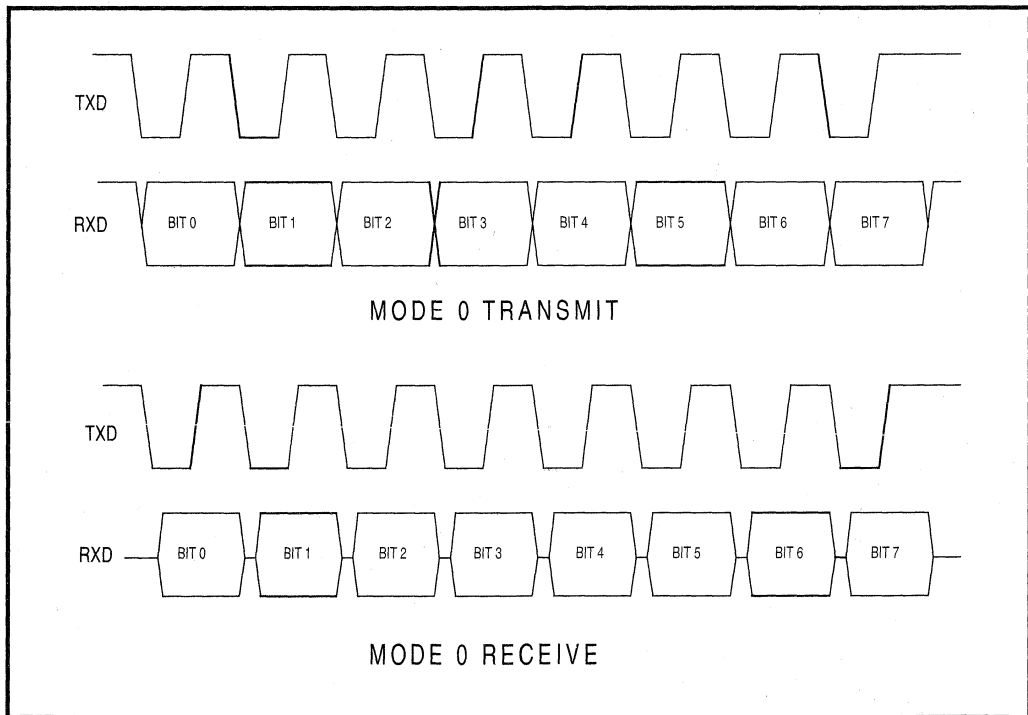
The parity feature cannot be used when implementing multiprocessor communications with Modes 2 and 3 as the ninth data bit a control bit and cannot be used as the parity bit.

**11.1.2. SYNCHRONOUS COMMUNICATIONS**

The synchronous mode (Mode 0) is primarily useful with shift register based peripheral devices. The device outputs a synchronizing clock on TXD and transmits/receives data on RXD in 8-bit frames (see Figure 11.7). The serial port always provides the synchronizing clock; it can never receive a synchronous clock on TXD. Communication in the synchronous mode is half-duplex. The RXD pin cannot transmit and receive data at the same time. Because the serial port always acts as the master in Mode 0, all transmissions and receptions are controlled by the serial port. In Mode 0, the parity functions and detect break character functions are not available.

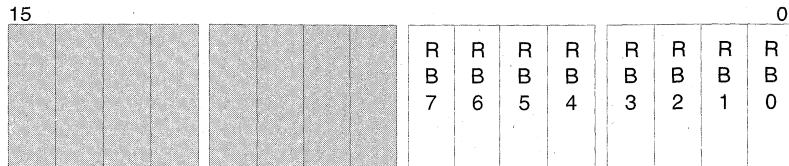
**11.2. PROGRAMMING**

The following section describes how to program the serial port using the appropriate registers. The Serial Receive Buffer Register (RxBUF) and the Serial Transmit Buffer Register (TxBUF) have the same function in any serial port mode and are shown in Figures 11.8 and 11.9.



**Figure 11.7. Mode 0 Waveforms**

**Register Name:** Serial Receive Buffer Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** RxBUF  
**Register Function:** Received data bytes are stored in RxBUF.

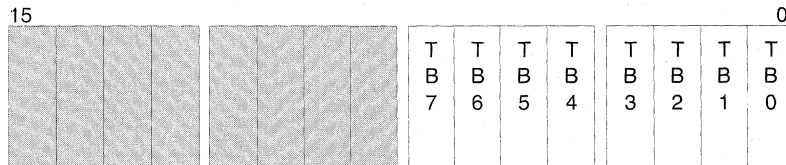


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
RB7:0	<i>Received Data</i>	0	Received data byte.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.8. Serial Receive Buffer Register**

**Register Name:** Serial Transmit Buffer Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** TxBUF  
**Register Function:** Bytes are written to TxBUF to be transmitted.

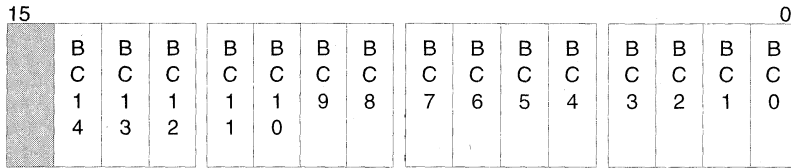


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
TB7:0	<i>Transmit Data Field</i>	0	Data byte to be transmitted.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.9. Serial Transmit Buffer Register (SxBUF)**

**Register Name:** Baud Rate Counter Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** BxCNT  
**Register Function:** 15-bit baud rate counter value.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
BC14:0	<i>Baud rate counter field</i>	0	Reflects current value of the baud rate counter.  NOTE: Writing to this register while the serial port is transmitting will cause indeterminate operation.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.10. BxCNT Register**

### 11.2.1. BAUD RATES

The baud rate generator is composed of a 15-bit counter (BxCNT) and a 15-bit compare register (BxCMP). See Figures 11.10 and 11.11. BxCNT is a free-running counter which is incremented by the baud timebase clock. The baud timebase clock can either be the internal CPU clock or an external clock applied to the BCLK pin. BxCMP is programmed by the user to determine the baud rate. The most significant bit of BxCMP (ICLK) selects which source is used as the baud timebase clock.

BxCNT is incremented by the baud timebase clock and compared to BxCMP. When BxCNT and BxCMP are equal, the baud rate generator outputs a pulse and resets BxCNT. This pulse train is the actual baud clock used by the RX and TX machines. The baud clock is 8X the baud rate in the asynchronous modes due to the sampling requirements. The baud clock equals the baud rate in the synchronous mode.

The following equations show how to calculate the proper BxCMP value for a specific baud rate (FCPU = CPU operating frequency = 1/2 CLKIN frequency):

Mode 0:  $BxCMP = [FCPU/baud\ rate] - 1$

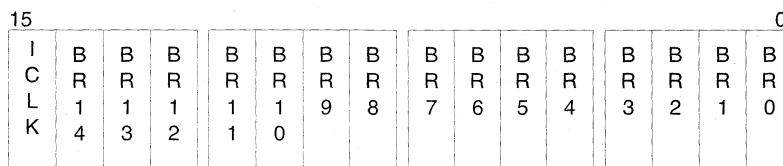
Mode 1-4:  $BxCMP = [FCPU/(8 * baud\ rate)] - 1$

When using BCLK:

Mode 0:  $BxCMP = BCLK/Baud\ rate$

Mode 1-4:  $BxCMP = BCLK/(8 * baud\ rate)$

**Register Name:** Baud Rate Compare Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** BxCMP  
**Register Function:** Determines baud rate for the serial port.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
ICLK	<i>Internal Clocking</i>	0	0 = Select BCLK as input to baud clock. 1 = Select CPU clock as input to baud clock.
BR14:0	<i>Baud Rate Compare Field</i>	0	Sets the compare value for the baud rate clock.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.11. BxCMP Register**

Due to internal synchronization requirements, the maximum input frequency to BCLK is 1/2 the CPU operating frequency. See Section 11.4.2.

Note that a BxCMP value of zero is illegal and results in unpredictable operation. Table 11.1 shows the correct BxCMP value for common baud rates. Programming BxCMP in the middle of a transmission or reception causes indeterminate operation.

## 11.2.2. ASYNCHRONOUS MODE PROGRAMMING

The Serial Port Operation Is Controlled By Two Registers. SCON (serial port control register) controls the mode of operation of the serial port (see Figure 11.12). SSTS (serial port status register) acts as the flags register, reporting on errors and the state of the RX and TX machine (see Figure 11.13). Depending on the serial port mode, these registers can have different functionality. This section outlines how to use SCON and SSTS to obtain the desired operation from the serial port.

**Table 11.1. Typical Baud Rate Values**

CPU Frequency	Baud Rate	BxCMP value	% Error
16 MHz	19,200	8067H	0.16
16 MHz	9,600	80CFH	0.16
16 MHz	4,800	81A0H	-0.08
16 MHz	2,400	8340H	0.04
16 MHz	1,200	8682H	-0.02
13 MHz	19,200	8054H	-0.43
13 MHz	9,600	80A8H	0.16
13 MHz	4,800	8152H	-0.14
13 MHz	2,400	82A4H	0.01
13 MHz	1,200	8549H	0.01
8 MHz	19,200	8033H	0.16
8 MHz	9,600	8067H	0.16
8 MHz	4,800	80CFH	0.16
8 MHz	2,400	81A0H	-0.08
8 MHz	1,200	8340H	0.04

### 11.2.2.1. MODES 1, 3 AND 4 FOR STAND-ALONE SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS

When using these modes for their respective seven, eight or nine bit data modes, operation is fairly straightforward. The serial port needs to be initialized correctly (through SxCON) and then SxSTS needs to be interpreted.



To configure the serial port, first program the baud rate through the BxCMP register. Then, program SxCON as follows:

1. Determine the values for M2:0 for the correct serial port mode.
2. If parity is used, enable it with the PEN bit. Set the sense of parity (even or odd) with the EVN bit. Note parity is not available in Mode 4 (seven bit data).
3. If the Clear-To-Send feature is used, set the CEN bit to enable it.
4. If receptions are desired, set the REN bit to enable the RX machine. Note the TX machine does not have to be explicitly enabled.

At this point, you will be able to transmit and receive in the mode specified.

Now that the serial port is operating, you must correctly interpret its status. This is done by reading the SxSTS register and interpreting its contents. Note the contents of SxSTS is cleared every time it is either read or written. The exceptions are the CTS bit and the TXE bit. SxSTS must first be saved in memory and then each bit can be interpreted individually.

The RI, TI and TXE bits indicate the condition of the transmit and receive buffers. RI and TI are also used with the Interrupt Control Unit for interrupt-based communications. The OE, FE and PE bits indicate any errors when a character is received. Once an error occurs, the appropriate bit remains set until SxSTS is read. For example, assume a character is received with a parity error (PE set) and a subsequent error-free character is received. If the SxSTS register was not read between the two receptions, the PE bit remains set.

#### **11.2.2.2. MODES 2 AND 3 FOR MULTIPROCESSOR COMMUNICATIONS**

Programming for multiprocessor communications is much the same as the stand-alone operation. The only added complexity is that the ninth data bit must be controlled and interpreted correctly.

The ninth data bit is set for transmissions by setting the TB8 bit in SxCON. TB8 is cleared after *every* transmission. TB8 is not double-buffered. This is usually not a problem as very few bytes are actually transmitted with TB8 equal to one. When writing TB8, make sure that the other bits in SxCON are written with their appropriate value.

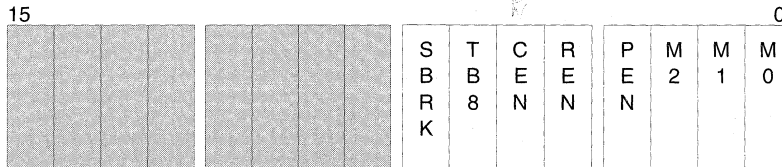
In modes 2 and 3, the state of the ninth data bit can be determined by the RB8 bit in SxSTS. RB8 reflects the ninth bit for the character currently in RxBUF. Note that the RB8 bit shares functionality with the PE bit in SxSTS. When parity is enabled, the PE bit has precedence over RB8.

#### **11.2.2.3. SENDING AND RECEIVING A BREAK CHARACTER**

The serial port can send as well as receive BREAK characters. A BREAK character is a long string of zeros. To send a BREAK character, set the SBRK bit in SxCON. SBRK drives the

TXD pin immediately low regardless of the current serial port mode. The user controls the length of the BREAK character in software by the time SBRK remains set. When writing SBRK, make sure the other bits in SxCON retain their current state.

**Register Name:** Serial Port Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** SxCON  
**Register Function:** Controls serial port operating modes.



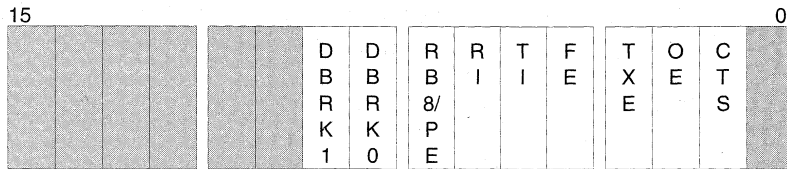
BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION																																				
SBRK	<i>Send Break</i>	0	Setting SBRK drives TXD low. TXD remains low until SBRK is cleared.																																				
TB8	<i>Transmitted Bit 8</i>	0	TB8 is the eight data transmitted in modes 2 and 3.																																				
CEN	<i>Clear-To-Send Enable</i>	0	When CEN is set, no transmissions will occur until the CTS pin is asserted.																																				
REN	<i>Receive Enable</i>	0	Set to enable the receive machine.																																				
EVN	<i>Even Parity Select</i>	0	When parity is enabled, EVN selects between even and odd parity. Set for even, clear for odd parity.																																				
PEN	<i>Parity Enable</i>	0	Setting PEN enables the parity generation/checking for all transmissions/receptions.																																				
M2:0	<i>Serial Port Mode Field</i>	0	Operating mode for the serial port channel. <table border="1" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <thead> <tr> <th>M2</th> <th>M1</th> <th>M0</th> <th>Mode</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>Synchronous Mode0</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>10-Bit Asynch Mode1</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>11-Bit Asynch Mode2</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>11-Bit Asynch Mode3</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>9-Bit Asynch Mode4</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>Reserved</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>Reserved</td></tr> <tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>Reserved</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	M2	M1	M0	Mode	0	0	0	Synchronous Mode0	0	0	1	10-Bit Asynch Mode1	0	1	0	11-Bit Asynch Mode2	0	1	1	11-Bit Asynch Mode3	1	0	0	9-Bit Asynch Mode4	1	0	1	Reserved	1	1	0	Reserved	1	1	1	Reserved
M2	M1	M0	Mode																																				
0	0	0	Synchronous Mode0																																				
0	0	1	10-Bit Asynch Mode1																																				
0	1	0	11-Bit Asynch Mode2																																				
0	1	1	11-Bit Asynch Mode3																																				
1	0	0	9-Bit Asynch Mode4																																				
1	0	1	Reserved																																				
1	1	0	Reserved																																				
1	1	1	Reserved																																				

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.12. SxCON Register**

The serial port receives BREAK characters of two different lengths. If a BREAK character longer than M bit-times is detected, the DBRK0 bit in SxSTS is set. If the BREAK character is longer than 2M+3 bit-times is detected, DBRK1 in SxSTS is set. M is equal to the total number of bits in a frame. For example, M is equal to eleven in Mode 3.

**Register Name:** Serial Status Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** SxSTS  
**Register Function:** Indicates the status of the serial port.



**Figure 11.13. SxSTS Register**

BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
DBRK1	<i>Detect Break 1</i>	0	Set when a break longer than 2m+3 bits occurs.
DBRK0	<i>Detect Break 0</i>	0	Set when a break longer than m bits is occurs.
RB8/PE	<i>Received Bit&amp;Parity Error</i>	0	Contains the 9th received data bit in mode's 2 and 3. PE is set when a parity error occurs. PE is only valid when parity is enabled in modes 1, 2 or 3.
TI	<i>Transmit Interrupt</i>	0	TI is set when a character has finished transmitting. TI determines when one more character can be transmitted. Writing a one to this bit will not cause an interrupt.
RI	<i>Receive Interrupt</i>	0	RI is set when a character has been received and placed in RxBUF. Note that RI need not be explicitly cleared to receive more characters. Writing a one to this bit will not cause an interrupt.
FE	<i>Framing Error</i>	0	FE is set when a framing error occurs. A framing error occurs when a valid stop bit is <i>NOT</i> detected.
TXE	<i>Transmitter Empty</i>	1	TXE is set when both TxBUF and the transmit shift register are empty. TXE determines when two consecutive bytes can be written to TxBUF for transmission. TXE is not cleared when SxSTS is accessed.
OE	<i>Overrun Error</i>	0	OE is set when an overrun error occurs. An overrun error occurs when the character in RxBUF is not read before another complete character is received. RxBUF always contains the most recent reception.
CTS	<i>Clear To Send</i>	0	CTS is the complement of the value on the $\overline{\text{CTS}}$ pin. The CTS bit is not cleared when SxSTS is accessed.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with gray shading. Reserved bits must be written to a logic zero to insure compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 11.13. SxSTS Register (Continued)**

When either BREAK character is detected, an overrun error occurs (OE is set). RxBUF will contain at least one null character.

### 11.2.3. PROGRAMMING IN MODE 0

Programming in Mode 0 is much easier than the asynchronous modes. To configure SxCON for Mode 0:

1. Program M2:0 with the correct combination for Mode 0.
2. If the Clear-To-Send feature is desired, set the CEN bit.

The serial port is now configured for Mode 0. To transmit, write a character to TxBUF. The TI and TXE bits reflect the status of TxBUF and the transmit shift register. Note the SBRK bit is independent of serial port mode functions in Mode 0.

Receptions in Mode 0 are controlled by software. To begin a reception, set the REN bit in SxCON. The RI bit must be zero or the reception will not begin. Data begins shifting in on RXD as soon as REN is set. The asynchronous error flags (OE, FE and PE), DBRK0 and DBRK1 are invalid in Mode 0.

### 11.3. HARDWARE CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE SERIAL PORT

There are several interface considerations when using the serial port.

#### 11.3.1. CTS PIN TIMINGS

When the Clear-To-Send feature is enabled, transmissions will not begin until the  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  pin is asserted *while a transmission is pending*. Figure 11.14 shows the recognition of a valid  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$ .

The  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  pin is sampled by the rising edge of CLKOUT. The CLKOUT high time synchronizes the  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  signal. On the falling edge of CLKOUT the synchronized  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  signal is presented to the serial port.  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  is an asynchronous signal. The setup and hold times are only given to assure recognition at a specific clock edge. When asserting  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  asynchronously, it should be asserted for at least 1 1/2 clock cycles. This will guarantee the signal will be recognized.

$\overline{\text{CTS}}$  is not latched internally. If  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  is asserted before a transmission starts, the subsequent transmission will not begin. A write to TxBUF "arms" the  $\overline{\text{CTS}}$  sense circuitry.

#### 11.3.2. BCLK PIN TIMINGS

The BCLK pin can be configured as the input to the baud timebase clock. The baud timebase clock increments the BxCNT register. However, the BCLK signal does not run directly into the baud timebase clock. BCLK is first synchronized to the CPU clock. The internal synchronization logic uses a low-to-high level transition on the BCLK to generate the baud timebase clock which increments the BxCNT register. The CPU recognizes a low-to-high transition by sampling the BCLK pin low, then high.

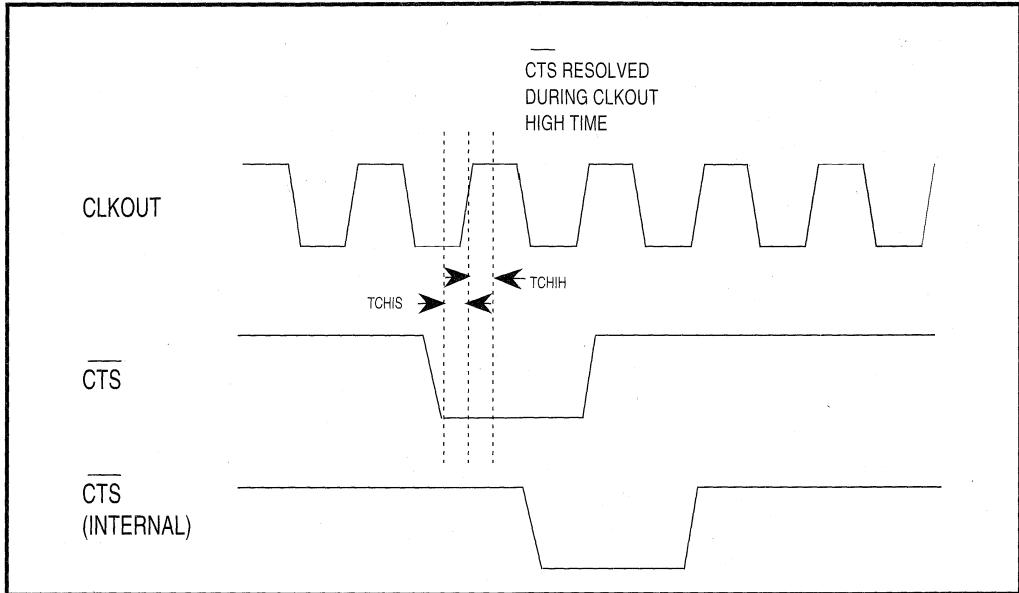


Figure 11.14. CTS Recognition Sequence

The CPU samples the BCLK pin on the rising edge of CLKOUT. The CLKOUT high time synchronizes the BCLK signal. On the falling edge of CLKOUT the synchronized BCLK signal is presented to the baud timebase clock. See Figure 11.15.

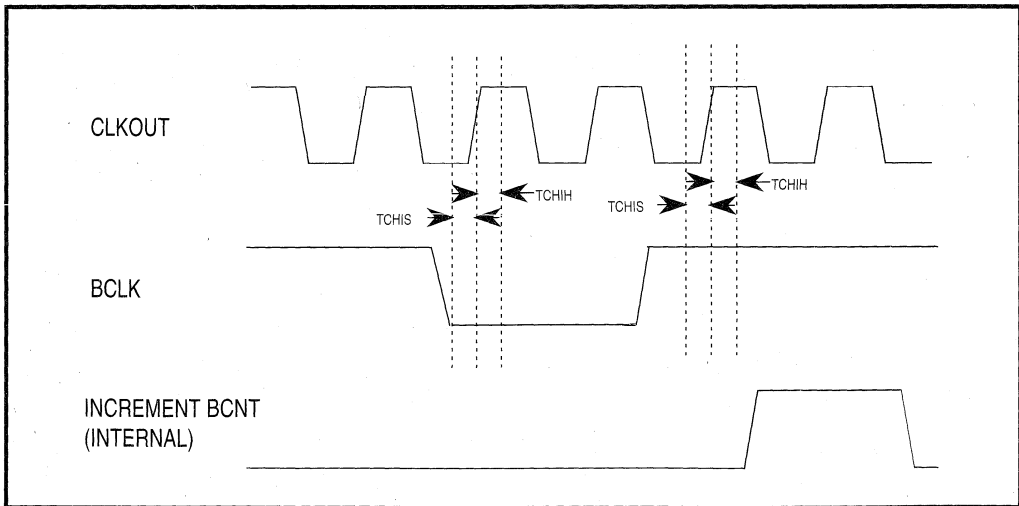


Figure 11.15 BCLK Synchronization

BCLK is an asynchronous input. However, the pin does have setup and hold times, which guarantee recognition at a specific CLKOUT. If the BCLK input signal has a high and a low time both of at least  $1 \frac{1}{2}$  CLKOUT periods, then synchronization to CLKOUT is not necessary. However, when the BCLK signal has a high or a low time of less than  $1 \frac{1}{2}$  CLKOUT periods, meeting the setup and hold times to CLKOUT is necessary or BCLK transitions could be missed.

The maximum input frequency to BCLK is  $\frac{1}{2}$  the frequency of CLKOUT (CPU operating frequency).

### 11.3.3. MODE 0 TIMINGS

This section shows the timings of the TXD and RXD pin in Mode 0. In Mode 0, TXD never floats. When not transmitting or receiving, TXD is high. RXD floats except when transmitting a character.

#### 11.3.3.1. CLKOUT AS BAUD TIMEBASE CLOCK

There are two cases which govern the behavior of the transmit/receive clock (on TXD).

The first case is when the BxCMP value is equal to one (see Figure 11.16). The TXD pin toggles every CLKOUT resulting in a 50% duty cycle waveform at  $\frac{1}{2}$  the processor frequency. TXD transitions occur at the falling edge of CLKOUT. The second case is when the BxCMP value is greater than one. The TXD pin is low for two CLKOUT periods and is high for  $(BxCMP - 1)$  CLKOUT periods (see Figure 11.17).

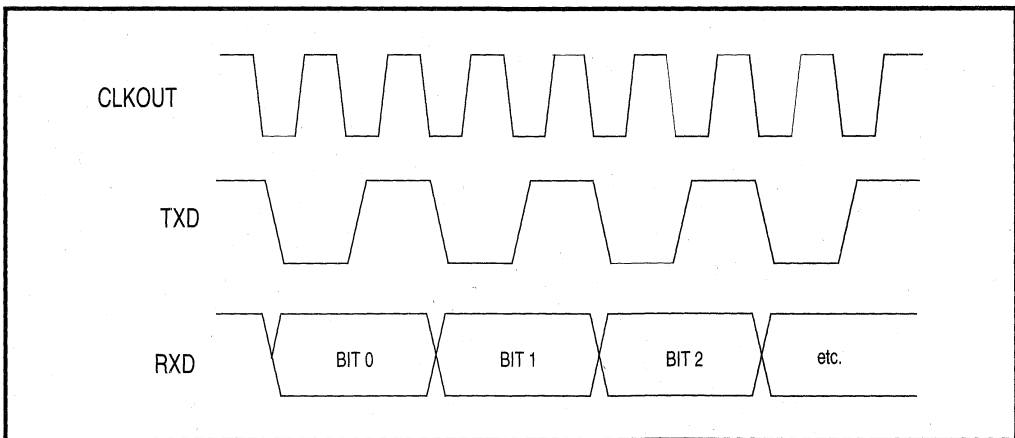
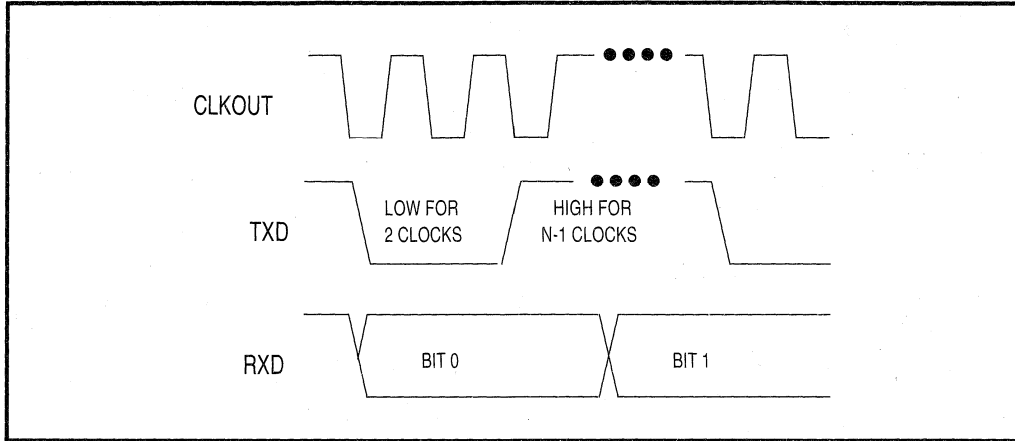


Figure 11.16. Mode 0, BxCMP = 1



**Figure 11.17. Mode 0, BxCMP > 2**

For transmissions, the RXD pin changes on the next CLKOUT falling edge following a low-to-high transition on TXD. Therefore, the data is guaranteed to be valid on the RXD pin on the rising edges of TXD. Use the rising edge of TXD to latch the value on RXD. For receptions, the incoming serial data must meet the setup and hold timings with respect to the rising edge of TXD. These timings can be found in the AC timings section of the data sheet.

### 11.3.3.2. BCLK AS BAUD TIMEBASE CLOCK

BCLK does not run directly into the baud timebase clock, but is first synchronized to the CPU clock. BCLK causes the baud timebase clock to increment, but transitions on TXD and RXD (for transmissions) still occur relative to CLKOUT.

A low-to-high transition on BCLK increments BxCNT. If BxCNT is equal to BxCMP, TXD goes low approximately 4 1/2 CLKOUTs later. TXD will remain always remain low for two CLKOUT periods and then go high. TXD will go low again 4 1/2 CLKOUTs after BxCNT equals BxCMP. Therefore, the output frequency on TXD is roughly equal to the input frequency on BCLK multiplied by BxCMP. There will be some clock jitter as the output on TXD will always be some multiple of CLKOUTs. This is do to the internal synchronization.

## 11.4. SERIAL PORT EXAMPLES

The following are some examples on how to use the serial port.

### 11.4.1. ASYNCHRONOUS MODE EXAMPLE

The first example shown in Example 11.1. is example code to initialize the Serial Port 0 for a asynchronous mode 4, 9600 baud system.



```

$mod186
name          scu_async_example

;
;This file contains an example of initialization code for the
Serial Communications Unit.
;
;This example has 3 procedures:
;
;ASYNC_CHANNEL_SETUP:  Sets up channel 0 as 9600 baud,
;   full duplex, 7 data bits-plus-parity,
;   with CTS# control.
;ASYNC_REC_INT_PROC:   Interrupt handler for a reception.
;   This procedure is nearly empty since
;   the code to perform error checking and
;   receive buffer handling is application
;   dependent.
;ASYNC_XMIT_INT_PROC:  Interrupt handler for a transmission.
;   as with the above procedure this is
;   nearly devoid of code. A typical appli-
;   cation would test the TXE bit and then
;   copy data from the transmit buffer in
;   memory to the TBUF.
; We assume serial port registers have been correctly defined

BOCMP      EQU    0xxxx      ; Channel 0 Baud Rate Compare
SOCON      EQU    0xxxx      ; Channel 0 Control
SOSTS      EQU    0xxxx      ; Channel 0 Status
SORBUF     EQU    0xxxx      ; Channel 0 Receive Buffer
SOTBUF     EQU    0xxxx      ; Channel 0 Transmit Buffer
RI_TYPE    EQU    xx        ; Receive is type 20 interrupt
TI_TYPE    EQU    21        ; Xmit is type 21 interrupt
EOI        EQU    0FF02H    ; End-Of-Interrupt Register
SCUCON     EQU    0FF14H    ; SCU interrupt control reg

code_seg   segment public
assume     cs:code_seg

ASYNC_CHANNEL_SETUP proc near

; First, set up the Interrupt handler vectors.....
xor ax, ax
mov ds, ax      ; Need DS to point to
                ; int vector table at 0H

```

### Example 11.1. Asynchronous Mode Example

```
mov bx, RI_TYPE*4
mov ax, offset ASYNC_REC_INT_PROC
mov [bx], ax
mov ax, seg ASYNC_REC_INT_PROC
mov [bx+2], ax

mov bx, TI_TYPE*4
mov ax, offset ASYNC_XMIT_INT_PROC
mov [bx], ax
mov ax, seg ASYNC_XMIT_INT_PROC
mov [bx+2], ax

; Now set up channel 0 options.....

mov ax, 8067H ; for 9600 baud from 16MHz
mov dx, B0CMP ; CPU clock.
out dx, ax ;Set baud rate.
mov ax, 0059H ; CEN=1 (CTS enabled)
; REN=0 (receiver not enabled yet)
; EVN=1 (even parity)
; PEN=1 (parity turned ON)
; MODE=1 (10 bit frame)

mov dx, S0CON
out dx, ax ; write to Serial Control Reg.

; Clear any old pending RI or TI, just for safety's sake.
mov dx, S0STS
in ax, dx ; clear any old RI or TI

; Clear interrupt mask bit in interrupt unit to allow SCU
; interrupts.
mov dx, SCUCON ;SCU interrupt control
in ax, dx
and ax, 0007H ; Clear mask bit to enable

; Turn on the receiver
mov dx, S0CON
in ax, dx ; Read S0CON
or ax, 0020 ; Set REN bit
out dx, ax ; Write S0CON

; Now receiver is enabled and sampling of the RXD line begins.
; Any write to the TBUF will initiate a transmission.
ret
```

**Example 11.1. Asynchronous Mode Example (Continued)**

```
ASYNC_CHANNEL_SETUP endp
; The next procedure is executed every time a reception
; is completed.
ASYNC_REC_INT_PROC   proc near

    mov dx, SOSTS
    in  ax, dx          ; Get status info
    test al, 10000000B ; Test for parity error
    jnz parity_error
    test al, 00010000B ; Test for framing error
    jnz framing_error
    test al, 00000100B ; Test for overrun error
    jnz overrun_error

; At this point we know the received data is OK.
    mov dx, SORBUF
    in  ax, dx          ; Read received data

    and ax, 07FH       ; Strip off parity bit

; Code to store the data in a receive buffer would go here.
; It has been omitted since this is heavily
; application dependent.

    jmpeoi_rcv_int

parity_error:
; Code for parity error handling goes here.
    jmpeoi_rcv_int

framing_error:
; Code for framing error handling goes here.
    jmpeoi_rcv_int

overrun_error:
; Code for overrun error handling goes here.
    jmpeoi_rcv_int

; Must now issue END-OF-INTERRUPT command to interrupt unit....
eoi_rcv_int:
    mov dx, EOI
    mov ax, 8000H      ; issue non-specific EOI
    out dx, ax

    iret
```

**Example 11.1. Asynchronous Mode Example (Continued)**

```

ASYNC_REC_INT_PROC   endp
ASYNC_XMIT_INT_PROC proc near

; This procedure is entered whenever a transmission completes.
; Typical code would be inserted here to transmit the next byte
; from a transmit buffer set up in memory. Since the
; configuration of such a buffer is application dependent this
; section will be left blank.

; Must now issue END-OF-INTERRUPT command to interrupt unit....
eoi_xmit_int:
    mov dx, EOI
    mov ax, 8000H      ; issue non-specific EOI
    out dx, ax
    iret

ASYNC_XMIT_INT_PROC endp
code_seg             ends
end

```

### Example 11.1. Asynchronous Mode Example (Continued)

#### 11.4.2. MODE 0 EXAMPLE

The example shown in Example 11.2. is a sample Mode 0 application.

```

$mod186
name          example_SCU_mode_0

;*****
;
;FUNCTION: This function transmits the user's data, user_data,
; serially over RXD1. TXD1 provides the transmit clock.
; The transmission frequency is calculated as follows:
;
;          tran_freq = (0.5*CLKIN/BAUDRATE)-1
;
; A 0-1-0 pulse on P1.0 indicates the end of transmission.
;
; SYNTAX:
;extern void far parallel_serial(char user_data,int tran_freq);
;
; INPUTS: user_data - byte to send out serially
;          tran_freq - baud rate compare value
; OUTPUTS: None

```

### Example 11.2. Mode 0 Example

```

; NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as
; required by high-level languages.
;*****
B1CMP      equ    xxxxH      ;Channel 1 Baud Rate Compare
S1CON      equ    xxxxH      ;Channel 1 Control
S1STS      equ    xxxxH      ;Channel 1 Status
S1TBUF     equ    xxxxH      ;Channel 1 Receive Buffer

;xxxx - substitute register offset

;Example assumes that all the port pins are configured
;correctlylib_80186      segment public 'code'.
        assume cs:lib_80186

public    _parallel_serial
_parallel_serial proc far

        push bp          ;save caller's bp
        mov bp, sp      ;get current top of stack

user_data equ word ptr [bp+6];get parameters of the stack
tran_freq equ word ptr [bp+8]

        push ax          ;save registers that
        push dx          ;will be modified

        mov dx, S1STS    ;clear any pending exceptions
        in ax, dx

        mov dx, P1CON    ;Get state of port 1 controls
        in ax, dx
        and ax, 0feh     ;make sure P1.0 is port
        out dx, ax
        mov dx, B1CMP
        mov ax, tran_freq
        or ax, 8000h     ;set internal clocking bit
        out dx, ax      ;Mode 0 1 million bps

        mov dx, P2CON    ;set Port 2.1 for TXD
        mov ax, 0ffh
        out dx, ax

        mov dx, S1TBUF   ;send user's data
        mov ax, user_data
        out dx, ax

```

**Example 11.2. Mode 0 Example (Continued)**

```

        mov dx, S1CON      ;Mode 0, No CTS, Transmit
        xor ax, ax
        out dx, ax

        mov dx, S1STS
Check_4_TI: in ax, dx
        test ax, 0020h    ;check for TI bit
        jz Check_4_TI

        mov dx, P1LTCH   ;pulse P1.0
        xor ax, ax
        out dx, ax

        not ax            ;set P1.0 high
        out dx, ax

        not ax            ;set P1.0 low
        out dx, ax

        pop dx            ;restore saved registers
        pop ax
        pop bp            ;restore user's bp
        ret

_parallel_serial endp
lib_80186 ends
end

```

### Example 11.2. Mode 0 Example (Continued)

#### 11.4.3. MASTER/SLAVE EXAMPLE

The last example shown, presented in the following four examples, is a Mode 2 and 3 master/slave network. Figure 11.18 shows the proper connections of the masters to the slaves. The buffer is necessary to avoid contention on the receive line. Alternatively, an open collector buffer could be used and the port pin function deleted.

```

$mod186
name      example_master_slave

;*****
;
;FUNCTION: This function demonstrates how to implement the
; three master-slave routines (_slave_1, _select_slave,
; send slave command) in a typical setup.

```

### Example 11.3. Master/Slave

```

; NOTE: It is assumed that the network is set up as shown in
; Figure 11.18 and the slave unit is running the _slave_1 code.
;
;*****
Slave1      equ    01h          ;address assigned to slave unit 1
Flash      equ    01h          ;command to flash EVAL board LEDs
Disc       equ    0fh          ;command to disconnect from
                                ;network
False      equ    00h

lib_80186   segment public 'code' ;declare external routines
extrn      _select_slave:far
extrn      _send_slave_cmd:far
lib_80186   ends

code       segment public 'code'
           assume cs:code

public    _main
_main     proc near

           push Slave1          ;get slave unit 1 address

;send the address over the network
           call far ptr _select_slave
           add sp, 2            ;adjust sp
           cmp ax, false       ;was slave 1 properly selected ?
           je SlaveExit        ;no: then exit

           push Flash          ;yes: then send Flash command

;send it
           call far ptr _send_slave_cmd
           add sp, 2            ;adjust sp

;insert a delay routine to allow completion of last command

           push Disc           ;prepare to disconnect slave

;send it
           call far ptr _send_slave_cmd
           add sp, 2            ;adjust sp

SlaveExit: ret
_main     endp
code     ends
end _main

```

Example 11.3. Master/Slave (Continued)

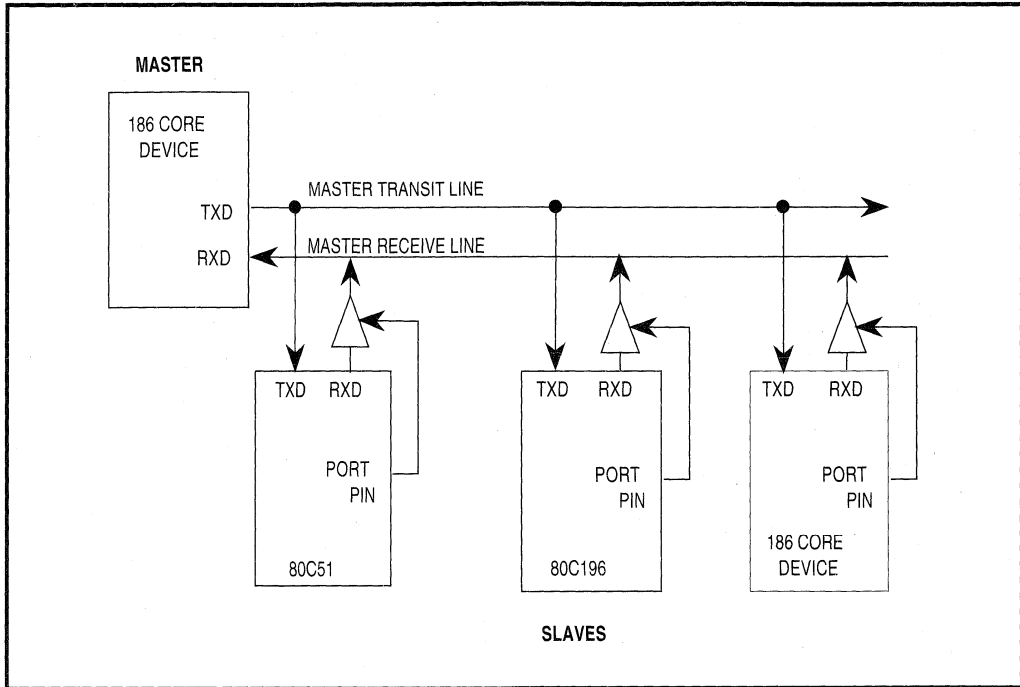


Figure 11.18. Master/Slave Example

```

$mod186
name          example_master_select_slave
;*****
;
;          select_slave
;
;FUNCTION: This function transmits a slave address,
; _slave_addr, over the serial network with data bit9 set to
; one. It then waits for the addressed slave to respond with
; its(slave) address. If this address does not match the
; originally transmitted slave address or if there is no
; response within a set time, the function will return false
; (ax=0), else the function will return true (ax<>0).
;
; SYNTAX: extern int far select_slave(int slave_addr);
;
; INPUTS: _slave_addr - address of the slave on the network
;
; OUTPUTS: True/False

```

Example 11.4. Master/Slave



```

; NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as required
; by high-level languages.

; This is one of three routines that demonstrate the
; master-slave capabilities of the 80186EB. The other two
; routines are _SLAVE_1 and _SEND_SLAVE_COMMAND.
;
; *****
; substitute register offset in place of xxxhx

P1CON    equ    xxxhx    ;Port 1 Control register
P2CON    equ    xxxhx    ;Port 2 Control register
S1CON    equ    xxxhx    ;Serial Port 1 Control register
S1STS    equ    xxxhx    ;Serial Port 1 Status register
S1TBUF   equ    xxxhx    ;Serial Port 1 Transmit Buffer
S1RBUF   equ    xxxhx    ;Serial Port 1 Receive Buffer

lib_80186 segment public 'code'
          assume cs:lib_80186

public   _select_slave
_select_slave proc far

          push bp          ;save caller's bp
          mov bp, sp      ;get current top of stack

;get slave address off the stack
_slave_addr equ word ptr [bp+6]
          push cx          ;save registers that will be
          push dx          ;modified

          mov dx, P1CON    ;Get state of port 1 controls
          in ax, dx
          and ax, 0f0h     ;make sure P1.0:3 is port
          out dx, ax
          mov dx, P2CON    ;set Port 2.1 for TXD1, P2.0 RXD1
          mov ax, 0ffh
          out dx, ax

          mov dx, S1STS    ;clear any pending exceptions
          in ax, dx
          mov dx, S1CON    ;prepare to send address
          mov ax, 0083h    ;d9=1, mode 3
          out dx, ax

```

**Example 11.4. Master/Slave (Continued)**

```

mov dx, S1TBUF      ;select slave
mov ax, _slave_addr
                   ;get slave address
out dx, ax         ;send it

mov dx, S1CON
mov ax, 0023h      ;set REN
out dx, ax         ;enable receiver

xor cx, cx         ;reset time-out counter

mov dx, S1STS      ;check to see if data is waiting
Check_4_RI: dec cx  ;decrement time-out counter
             jnz NoTimeOut ;time-out=false:then continue

xor ax, ax         ;time-out=true:set return
                   ;value false (0)
jmp short SlaveExit

NoTimeOut: in ax, dx
           test ax, 0040h ;test for RI bit

           jz Check_4_RI ;keep checking till data received

mov dx, S1RBUF     ;get slave response
in ax, dx
and ax, 0ffh      ;mask off unwanted bits

xor ax, _slave_addr;did addressed slave respond?
                   ;ax=0:true else false
not ax            ;invert state of ax to be
                   ;consistent
                   ;with false(0) and true(non zero)

SlaveExit: pop dx   ;restore saved registers
           pop cx

           pop bp   ;restore caller's bp
           ret

_select_slave     endp

lib_80186        ends
end

```

Example 11.4. Master/Slave (Continued)

```

$mod186
name          example_slave_1_routine

;*****
;
;          slave_1
;
;FUNCTION: This function represents a slave unit connected to a
; multi-processor master slave network. This slave responds to
; two commands, Flash the LEDs on the EVAL board and Disconnect
; from the network. Other commands are easily added.
;
; SYNTAX: extern void far slave_1(void);
;
; INPUTS: None
;
; OUTPUTS: None
;
;   NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
; high-level languages. The slave should be running this code ;.
; prior to the master calling the slave.
;
; This is one of three routines that demonstrate the
; master-slave capabilities of the 80186EB. The other two
; routines are SELECT_SLAVE and _SEND_SLAVE_COMMAND.
;
;*****
;          ;substitute register offset in place of xxxhx

P1CON      equ    xxxhx      ;Port 1 Control register
P1LTCH     equ    xxxhx      ;Port 1 Latch register
P2CON      equ    xxxhx      ;Port 2 Control register
S1CON      equ    xxxhx      ;Serial Port 1 Control register
S1STS      equ    xxxhx      ;Serial Port 1 Status register
S1TBUF     equ    xxxhx      ;Serial Port 1 Transmit Buffer
S1RBUF     equ    xxxhx      ;Serial Port 1 Receive Buffer

lib_80186  segment public 'code'
          assume cs:lib_80186

My_Address equ 01h          ;slave 1 network address
TriStateEna equ 08h        ;Tri-state buffer enable
TriStateDis equ 00h        ;Tri-state buffer disable
FlashLEDs  equ 01h         ;list of commands unit 1
          ;responds to

Disconnect equ 0fh

```

**Example 11.5. Master/Slave**

```

public      _slave_1
_slave_1   proc far

            push ax          ;save registers that will
            push bx          ;be modified
            push cx
            push dx

DisconnectMode:
            mov dx, S1STS    ;clear any pending exceptions
            in ax, dx

            mov dx, P1CON    ;Get state of port 1 controls
            in ax, dx
            and ax, 0f0h     ;make sure P1.0:3 is port
            out dx, ax
            mov dx, P2CON    ;set Port 2.1 for TXD1, P2.0 RXD1
            mov ax, 0ffh
            out dx, ax

            mov dx, P1LTCH   ;make sure TXD latch is tristated
            mov ax, TriStateDis
            out dx, ax       ;set P1.7 to '0'

            mov dx, S1CON    ;select control register
            mov ax, 0022h    ;receive, mode 2
            out dx, ax

SelStatus:  mov dx, S1STS    ;select status register
Check_4_RI: in ax, dx       ;get status
            test ax, 0040h   ;data waiting?
            jz Check_4_RI    ;no: then keep checking

            mov dx, S1RBUF   ;yes: then get data
            in ax, dx
            cmp al, My_Address ;is slave_1 being addressed?
            jne SelStatus    ;no: then ignore

            mov dx, S1CON    ;yes: then switch to mode 3,
                                ;transmitt
            mov ax, 0003h    ;mode 3
            out dx, ax

            mov dx, P1LTCH   ;enable tristate buffer
            mov ax, TriStateEna
            out dx, ax       ;gate TXD unto master's RXD

```

**Example 11.5. Master/Slave (Continued)**

```

mov dx, S1TBUF      ;echo My_Address to the master
mov ax, My_Address
out dx, ax

mov dx, S1CON      ;switch to receive mode
mov ax, 0023h      ;mode 3, receive
out dx, ax

Wait_4_Cmd: mov dx, S1STS      ;select status register
            in ax, dx          ;get status
            test ax, 0040h     ;cmd waiting?
            jz Wait_4_Cmd      ;no: then keep checking
            mov dx, S1RBUF     ;yes: then get command
            in ax, dx

            cmp al, Disconnect ;Disconnect command?
            je DisconnectMode  ;yes: then disconnect
                                ;RXD from network

            cmp al, FlashLEDS ;Flash LEDs command?
            jne Wait_4_Cmd     ;no: then ignore

            mov dx, P1LTCH     ;yes: then flash LEDs 10 times
            mov cx, 20
            xor ax, ax
send:       not ax
            out dx, ax
            mov bx, 0ffffh
dly1:      dec bx
            jnz dly1

            dec cx
            jnz send

            jmp short Wait_4_Cmd

            pop dx
            pop cx
            pop bx
            pop ax
            ret
_slave_1   endp

lib_80186  ends
end

```

Example 11.5. Master/Slave (Continued)

```

$mod186
name          example_master_send_slave_command

;*****
;
;          send_slave_cmd
;
;FUNCTION: This function transmits a slave command, _slave_cmd,
;over the serial network to a previously addressed slave.
;
; SYNTAX: extern void far send_slave_cmd(int slave_cmd);
;
; INPUTS: _slave_cmd - command to send to addressed slave
;
; OUTPUTS: None
;
;          NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
; high-level languages.
;
;          This is one of three routines that demonstrate the
; master-slave capabilities of the 80186EB. The other two
; routines are _SLAVE_1 and _SELECT_SLAVE.
;
;*****
;substitute register offset in place of xxxhx

S1STS        equ    xxxhx        ;Serial Port 1 Status register
S1CON        equ    xxxhx        ;Serial Port 1 Control
S1TBUF       equ    xxxhx        ;Serial Port 1 Transmit Buffer

lib_80186    segment public 'code'
              assume cs:lib_80186

public       _send_slave_cmd
              _send_slave_cmd    proc far

              push bp             ;save caller's bp
              mov bp, sp         ;get current top of stack

;get slave command off the stack
_slave_cmd   equ word ptr [bp+6]
              push ax             ;save registers that are modified
              push dx

              mov dx, S1STS       ;clear any pending exceptions
              in ax, dx

```

Example 11.6. Master/Slave

```
mov dx, S1CON      ;prepare to send command
mov ax, 0003h     ;mode 3
out dx, ax

mov dx, S1TBUF    ;select slave
mov ax, _slave_cmd ;get command to send to slave
out dx, ax        ;send it

pop dx            ;restore saved registers
pop ax

pop bp            ;restore caller's bp
ret
_send_slave_cmd  endp

lib_80186  ends
end
```

**Example 11.6. Master/Slave (Continued)**





---

## *Watchdog Timer Unit*

**12**

---



## CHAPTER 12 WATCHDOG TIMER UNIT

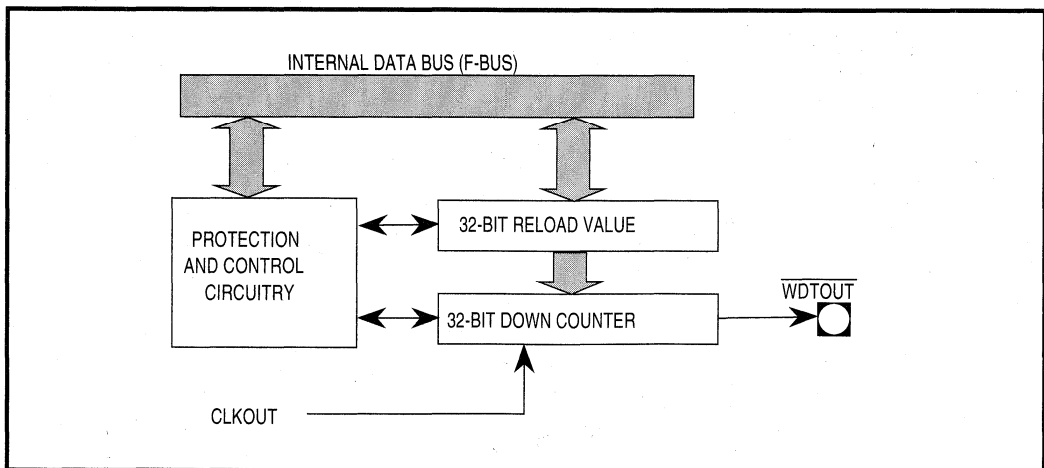
System upsets can come from a variety of sources. Errant software can work its way into an endless loop, waiting for an event that never occurs. An unanticipated radiation source can couple into improperly shielded circuitry. Not all sources of system upsets can be anticipated and guarded against. The Watchdog Timer Unit provides a graceful method for recovery from unexpected hardware and software upsets.

Watchdog timers are designed to reset the system if the timer is not periodically reloaded with a new value (this is also known as “kicking the watchdog”). The system software is responsible for reloading the watchdog timer. It is assumed that errant code or a system lockup will prevent the watchdog timer from being reloaded resulting in a system reset. A special sequence of instructions is typically used to reload the timer; a sequence that errant code would be very unlikely to produce.

The Watchdog Timer Unit (WDT) can function both as a system watchdog and as a general purpose timer. The Watchdog Timer can be disabled for systems that do not wish to use it.

### 12.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW

A block diagram of the Watchdog Timer Unit is shown in Figure 12.1.



**Figure 12.1. Block Diagram of the Watchdog Timer Unit**

The 32-bit down counter decrements every CLKOUT cycle. The  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  pin is driven low for four CLKOUT cycles when the down counter reaches zero (a *WDT timeout*). The  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  signal may be used to reset the device or as an interrupt request.

The down counter is reloaded with the 32-bit reload value under two conditions:

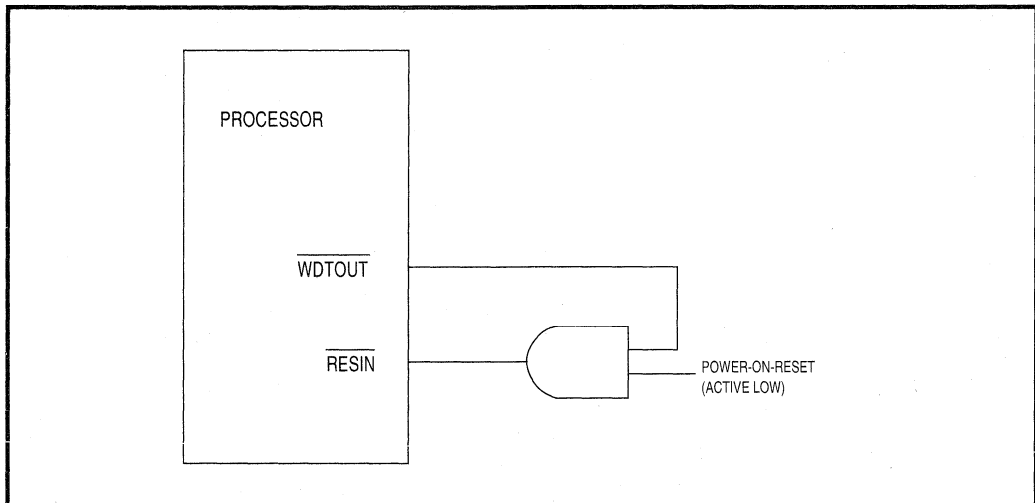
- When a special LOCKed instruction sequence is issued to the Protection and Control Circuitry
- When the down counter reaches zero

The Protection and Control Circuitry is responsible for enabling and disabling the Watchdog Timer as well as preventing unauthorized modification of count values.

## 12.2. USING THE WATCHDOG TIMER AS A SYSTEM WATCHDOG

There are two methods for recovery following a software upset: a full system reset or an interrupt request. Both methods can be implemented with the Watchdog Timer Unit.

Figure 12.2 shows the circuit necessary to reset the processor when a WDT timeout occurs. The power-on reset signal and the  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  signals are ANDed together to produce the  $\overline{\text{RESIN}}$  signal for the processor.

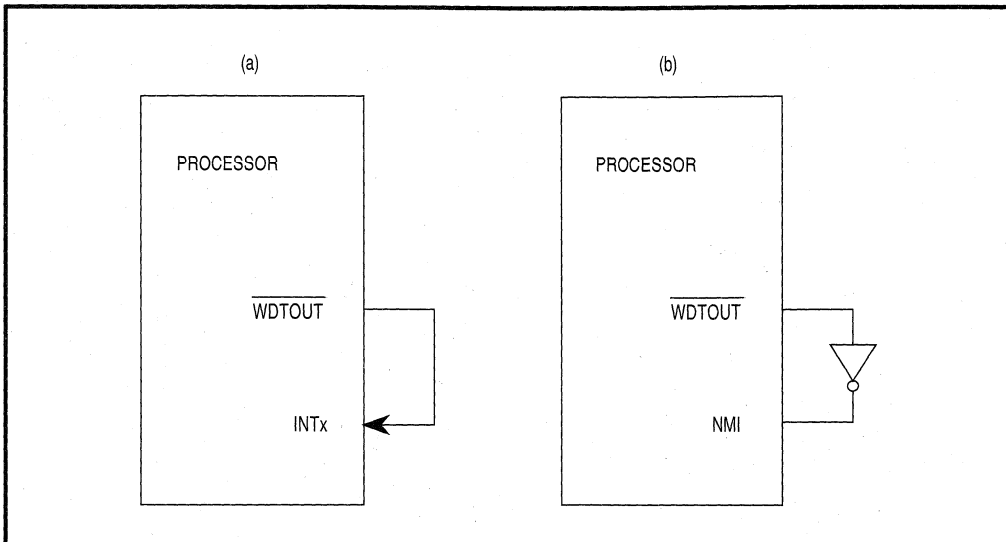


**Figure 12.2. Watchdog Timer Reset Circuit**

The circuit in Figure 12.3a is used to interrupt the processor when a WDT timeout occurs. Since  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  is normally high, the Interrupt Control Unit must be programmed for **edge sensitivity** to prevent continuous interrupts from occurring.

Figure 12.3b shows the circuit necessary to generate an NMI from  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$ . NMI is edge sensitive and level latched. The inverter is needed to prevent an NMI immediately upon reset.

Pay close attention to Section 12.3 when using interrupts to recover from a system upset.



**Figure 12.3. Generating Interrupts with the Watchdog Timer**

When the Watchdog Timer Unit is used as a system watchdog, the goal of the system software is to prevent the 32-bit down counter from ever reaching zero. This is accomplished by periodically reloading the down counter with the Watchdog Timer Reload Value.

### 12.2.1. RELOADING THE WATCHDOG TIMER DOWN COUNTER

A special LOCKed byte write instruction sequence to the Watchdog Timer Clear Register reloads the down counter. A LOCKed sequence reduces the possibility of errant code duplicating the instructions and illegally reloading the timer. The WDT Clear Register expects a sequence of two bytes: the first byte must be 0AAH and the second must be 55H. Any other data values will not reload the down counter. Figures 12.4 and 12.5 show the code necessary to reload the down counter when the Peripheral Control Block is located in I/O and memory space, respectively.

In embedded control systems, the Watchdog Timer is typically reloaded at the end of the control loop. For systems that do not execute a single looped program, the Watchdog Timer is usually reloaded during the system timer “tick” service.

### 12.2.2. WATCHDOG TIMER RELOAD VALUE

The Watchdog Timer Reload Value is controlled by the WDTRLDL and WDTRLDH registers in the Peripheral Control Block. These two registers make up the 32-bit reload value.

The Watchdog Timer Reload Value cannot be modified after the Watchdog Timer is reloaded using the reload instruction sequence. Locking the WDT Reload Value prevents errant code from affecting Watchdog Timer operation.

The WDT Reload Value should be calculated based on the design of the system software. If the system is executing a simple control loop, then the Reload Value should be slightly longer than the longest path through the loop. If the Watchdog Timer is reloaded during the timer tick service, then the Reload Value should be slightly longer than the timer tick interval. In general, determining the Reload Value will involve analysis of the system software and/or some amount of experimentation.

```

wdt_data    segment
wdt_key     DB    0AAH, 055H
wdt_data    ends
wdt_code    segment
            assume cs:wdt_code

            lds    si, wdt_key        ;DS:SI points to wdt_key
            mov    dx, WDTCLR        ;I/O address of WDTCLR
                                           ;register
            cld                        ;clear direction flag
                                           ;(autoincrement)
            mov    cx, 2              ;2 bytes will be written

lock rep    outsb dx, wdt_key        ;LOCKed reload
                                           ;sequence.
                                           ;The WDT down counter
                                           ;has been reloaded.

wdt_code    ends

```

**Figure 12.4. Reload Sequence for Peripheral Control Block Located in I/O Space**

### 12.2.3. INITIALIZATION

The Watchdog Timer Unit is **enabled** following a reset. The initial value in the down counter is 0FFFFH. The system software must program or reload the Watchdog Timer within 65,535 clock cycles of a reset to prevent the  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  signal from being asserted.

```

wdt_data    segment

wdt_key     DB    0AAH, 055H

wdt_data    ends

pcb_image   segment          ;image of PCB

WDTCLR     EQU    XXXXH ; replace "XXXX" with appropriate
           ; offset from PCB+0.

WDTCLR     DW    ?

pcb_image   ends

wdt_code    segment
           assume cs:wdt_code

           lds    si, wdt_key          ;source is key data
           les    di, WDTCLR          ;destination is clear reg
           cld                          ;clear direction flag
           ;(autoincrement)
           mov    cx, 2                ;2 bytes in key

lock rep    movsb WDTCLR, wdt_key     ;LOCKed reload
           ;sequence.
           ;The WDT down counter
           ;has been reloaded.

wdt_code    ends

```

**Figure 12.5. Reload Sequence for Peripheral Control Block Located in Memory Space**

Use the following sequence to initialize the Watchdog Timer:

1. Program the upper 16 bits of the WDT Reload Value (in the WDTRLDH register).
2. Program the lower 16 bits of the WDT Reload Value (in the WDTRLDL register).
3. Execute the appropriate LOCKed instruction sequence to reload the down counter and lock accesses to the WDT Reload Value.

### 12.3. USING THE WATCHDOG TIMER AS A GENERAL PURPOSE TIMER

Systems that do not require a watchdog timer can program the Watchdog Timer Unit to function as a general purpose timer. In reality, it is a **lack** of programming that allows the Watchdog Timer Unit to perform general purpose timer tasks.

Recall that write access to the WDT Reload Value is only prohibited after the LOCKed reload sequence is executed. If this sequence is not performed, then access to the WDT Reload Value is unrestrained. Systems that require a general purpose timer simply never execute the LOCKed reload sequence, thus allowing reprogramming of the WDT Reload Register.

Arbitrary duty cycle pulse trains can be generated by the Watchdog Timer when it is configured as a general purpose timer. The  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  signal is driven low for four CLKOUT cycles when the down counter reaches zero. The down counter is reloaded with the WDT Reload Value during the CLKOUT cycle immediately after the counter reaches zero. Figure 12.6 shows the WDTOUT signal waveforms when the Watchdog Timer is configured as a general purpose timer.

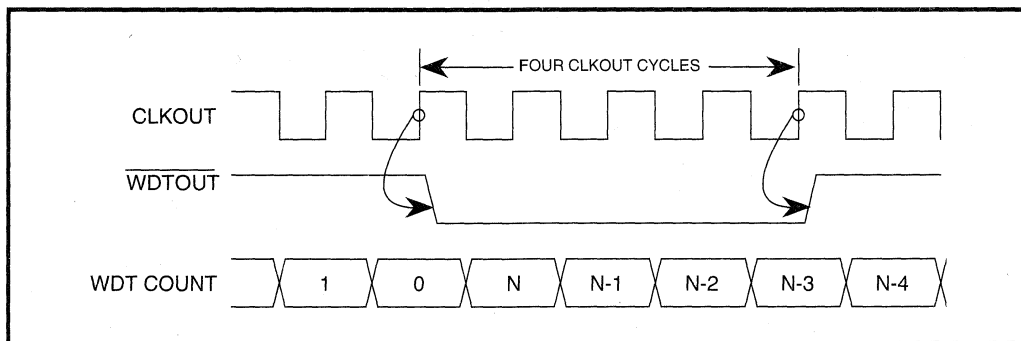


Figure 12.6.  $\overline{\text{WDTOUT}}$  Waveforms

### 12.4. DISABLING THE WATCHDOG TIMER

Systems that do not use the Watchdog Timer can disable the entire circuit during system initialization. When the Watchdog Timer is disabled, all clocks to the unit are shut off and the circuit consumes no power.

The Watchdog Timer is disabled by a LOCKed instruction sequence similar to the reload sequence. The disable command consists to two LOCKed byte writes to the Watchdog Timer Disable Register (WDTDIS). The byte values are 55H first and 0AAH second (the reverse of the reload sequence). The Watchdog Timer cannot be disabled once it has been reloaded by the system software.

Figures 12.7 and 12.8 show the code necessary to disable the Watchdog Timer Unit.



## 12.5. WATCHDOG TIMER REGISTERS

Six Peripheral Control Block Registers control the Watchdog Timer Unit. The Watchdog Timer Reload Value is held in two 16-bit registers: WDTLDH and WDTLDL. The value in the 32-bit down counter can be read from the WDTCNTH and WDTCNL registers. The count registers are read only. The reload value and count registers are shown in Figures 12.9 through 12.12.

The WDT Disable (WDTDIS) and WDT Clear (WDTCLR) registers are not shown as their function is described in the text and is not tied to specific bit positions.

## 12.6. INITIALIZATION EXAMPLE

An example of Watchdog Timer initialization is shown in Example 12.1. Note that this code must be executed within the first 65,535 clock cycles of a reset.

```

wdt_data    segment
wdt_off     DB    055H, 0AAH
wdt_data    ends
wdt_code    segment
            assume cs:wdt_code

            lds    si, wdt_off           ;DS:SI points to wdt_off
            mov    dx, WDTDIS           ;I/O address of WDTDIS
                                           ;register
            cld                          ;clear direction flag
                                           ; (autoincrement)
            mov    cx, 2                 ;2 bytes will be written

lock rep    outsb dx, wdt_off           ;LOCKed disable
                                           ;sequence.
                                           ;The WDT is disabled
wdt_code    ends

```

**Figure 12.7. Disabling the Watchdog Timer  
(Peripheral Control Block in I/O Space)**

```

wdt_data    segment
wdt_off     DB    055H, 0AAH
wdt_data    ends

pcb_image   segment          ;image of PCB
WDTDIS     EQU    XXXXH ; replace "XXXX" with appropriate
                    ; offset from PCB+0.
WDTDIS     DW    ?
pcb_image   ends

wdt_code    segment
            assume cs:wdt_code

            lds    si, wdt_off          ;source is
                    ;wdt_data:wdt_off
            les    di, WDTDIS          ;destination is disable
                    ;register
            cld                          ;clear direction flag
                    ;(autoincrement)
            mov    cx, 2                ;2 bytes in sequence

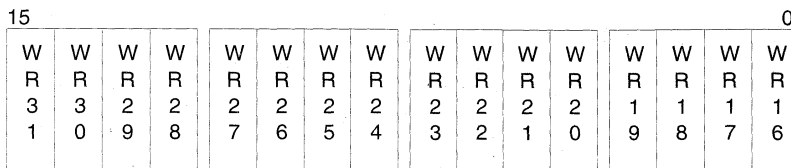
lock rep    movsb WDTDIS, wdt_dis      ;LOCKed disable
                    ;sequence.
                    ;The WDT down counter
                    ;has been disabled.

wdt_code    ends

```

**Figure 12.8. Disabling the Watchdog Timer  
(Peripheral Control Block in Memory Space)**

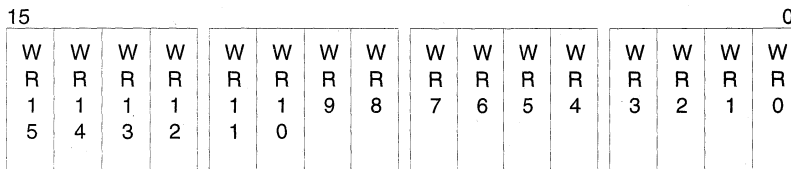
**Register Name:** Watchdog Timer Reload Value (High)  
**Register Mnemonic:** WDTRLDH  
**Register Function:** Contains the upper 16 bits of the Watchdog Timer Reload Value.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
WR31:16	Watchdog Timer Reload Value	0000H	WR31:16 are the high order bits of the Watchdog Timer Reload Value.

Figure 12.9. WDT Reload Value (High)

**Register Name:** Watchdog Timer Reload Value (Low)  
**Register Mnemonic:** WDTRLDL  
**Register Function:** Contains the lower 16 bits of the Watchdog Timer Reload Value.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
WR15:0	Watchdog Timer Reload Value	FFFFH	WR15:0 are the low order bits of the Watchdog Timer Reload Value.

Figure 12.10. WDT Reload Value (Low)

**Register Name:** Watchdog Timer Count Value (High)  
**Register Mnemonic:** WDCNTH  
**Register Function:** Contains the upper 16 bits of the Watchdog Timer Count Value.

15																0			
W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W				
C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C				
3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1				
1	0	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	9	8	7	6				

BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
WC31:16	<i>Watchdog Timer Reload Value</i>	0000H	WC31:16 are the high order bits of the Watchdog Timer Counter Value.

**Figure 12.11. WDT Count Value (High)**

**Register Name:** Watchdog Timer Count Value (Low)  
**Register Mnemonic:** WDCNTL  
**Register Function:** Contains the lower 16 bits of the Watchdog Timer Count Value.

15																0			
W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W				
C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C				
1	1	1	1	1	1	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0				
5	4	3	2	1	0														

BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
WC15:0	<i>Watchdog Timer Reload Value</i>	FFFFH	WC15:0 are the low order bits of the Watchdog Timer Counter Value.

**Figure 12.12. WDT Count Value (Low)**

```

wdt_data    segment

wdt_key     DB    0AAH, 055H

wdt_data    ends

; The following code must be executed within the
; first 64K clock cycles.

boot_code   segment
            assume cs:boot_code

; For this example we want a delay of 2 seconds for
; the Watchdog Timer. The following calculation is for
; a 16Mhz processor.

;
; (2 seconds) / (62.5E-9 seconds per clock) = 32,000,000 cycles
;           32,000,000 decimal = 1E847FF Hex
;
            mov     ax, 47FFH           ;Low order bits
            mov     dx, WDTRLDL
            out     dx, ax

            mov     ax, 01E8H         ;High order bits
            mov     dx, WDTRLDH
            out     dx, ax

; Now we have to reload the WDT

            lds     si, wdt_key        ;DS:SI points to wdt_key
            mov     dx, WDTCLR        ;I/O address of WDTCLR
                                      ;register
            cld                       ;clear direction flag
                                      ;(autoincrement)
            mov     cx, 2              ;2 bytes will be written

lock rep    outsb  dx, wdt_key        ;LOCKed reload
                                      ;sequence.
                                      ;The WDT down counter
                                      ;has been reloaded.

boot_code   ends

```

**Example 12.1. Initialization Sequence for Peripheral Control Block  
Located in I/O Space**









# CHAPTER 13

## INPUT/OUTPUT PORTS

Many applications do not require full use of all of the on-chip peripheral functions. For example, the Chip-Select Unit provides a total of ten chip-select lines; only a large design would require all ten. For smaller designs, requiring fewer than 10 chip-selects, these pins would be wasted.

The Input/Output Ports give the system designer the flexibility to replace the function of unused peripheral pins with general purpose I/O ports. Many of the on-chip peripheral pin functions are multiplexed with an I/O port. There are three types of ports available on the 80C186EC/C188EC: bidirectional, output only and open-drain bidirectional.

### 13.1. FUNCTIONAL OVERVIEW

All port pin types are derived from a common bidirectional port logic module. Unidirectional and open-drain ports are a subset of the bidirectional module.

The following sections describe each port type. The bidirectional port is described in full detail as it is the basis for all of the other port types. The descriptions for the unidirectional and open-drain ports only highlight their specific differences from the common bidirectional module.

#### 13.1.1. THE BIDIRECTIONAL PORT

A simplified schematic of a bidirectional port pin is shown in Figure 13.1. The overall function of a bidirectional port pin is controlled by the state of the Port Control Latch.

The output of the Port Control Latch selects the source of output data and selects the source of the control signal for the three-state output driver. When the port is programmed to act as a peripheral pin, both the data for the pin and the directional control signal for the pin come from the associated integrated peripheral. When a bidirectional port pin is programmed as an I/O port, all port parameters are under software control.

The output of the Port Direction latch enables (or disables) the 3-state output driver when the pin is programmed as an I/O port. The 3-state output driver is enabled by clearing the Port Direction latch. The data driven on an output port pin is held in the Port Data latch. Setting the Port Direction latch disables the 3-state output driver making the pin an input.

The signal present on the device pin is routed through a synchronizer to a 3-state latch that connects to the internal data bus. The state of the pin can be read at any time regardless of whether the pin is used as an I/O port or for a peripheral function.

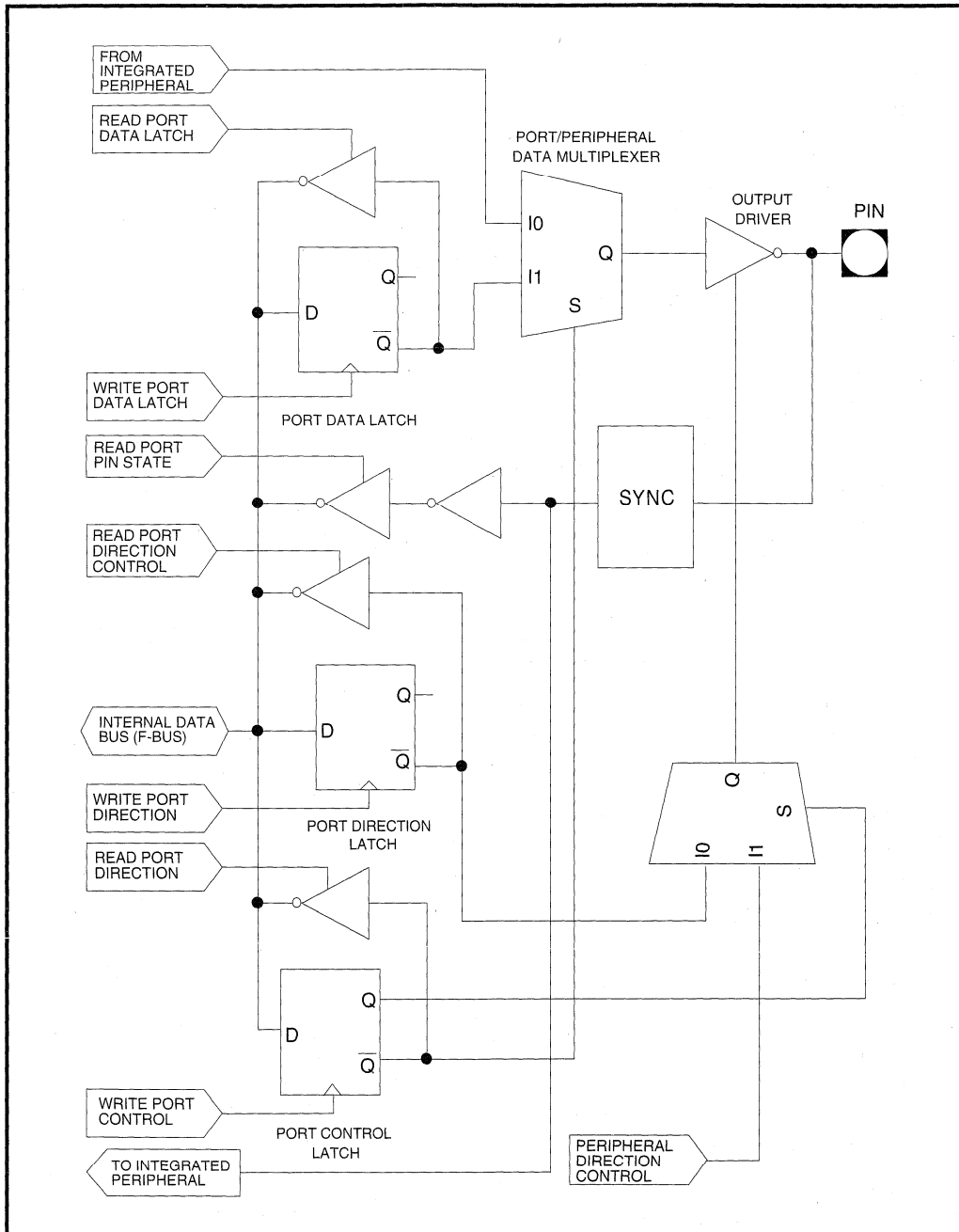


Figure 13.1. Simplified Logic Diagram of a Bidirectional Port Pin

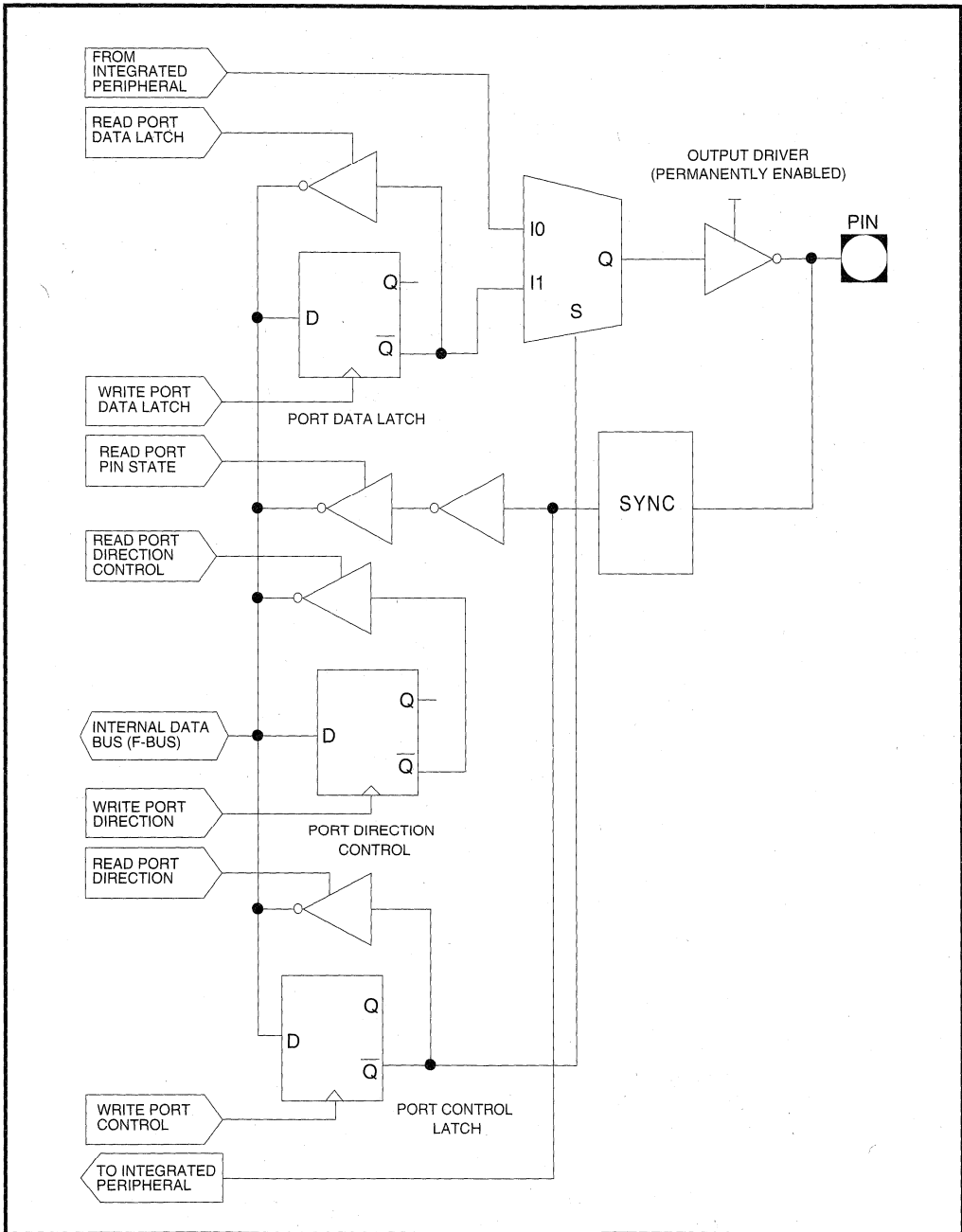


Figure 13.2. Simplified Logic Diagram of an Output Port Pin

### 13.1.2. THE OUTPUT PORT

The internal construction of an output port pin is shown in Figure 13.2. An internal connection permanently enables the 3-state output driver. The Port Control latch selects the source of data for the pin: the on-chip peripheral or the Port Data latch. The Port Direction bit has no effect on output only pins and may be used for storage.

### 13.1.3. OPEN DRAIN BIDIRECTIONAL PORTS

The internal control logic for the open-drain bidirectional port pin is shown in Figure 13.3. The logic is slightly different than that for the other port types.

When the open-drain port pin is configured as an output, clearing the Port Data latch turns on the N-channel driver resulting in a “hard zero” being present at the pin. A one value in the Port Data Latch shuts off the driver resulting in a high impedance (input) state at the pin.

The open-drain pin can be floated directly by setting its Port Direction bit.

The open-drain ports are not multiplexed with on-board peripherals. The port/peripheral data multiplexer exists for open-drain ports even though the pins are not shared with peripheral functions. The open-drain port pin will float if the Port Control latch is programmed to select the non-existent peripheral function.

### 13.1.4. PORT PIN ORGANIZATION

The port pins are divided into three functional groups: Port 1, Port 2 and Port 3.

**Table 13.1. Port 1 Multiplexing Options**

PIN NAME	PERIPHERAL FUNCTION	PORT FUNCTION
P1.6/ $\overline{\text{GCS7}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS7}}$	P1.7
P1.6/ $\overline{\text{GCS6}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS6}}$	P1.6
P1.5/ $\overline{\text{GCS5}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS5}}$	P1.5
P1.4/ $\overline{\text{GCS4}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS4}}$	P1.4
P1.3/ $\overline{\text{GCS3}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS3}}$	P1.3
P1.2/ $\overline{\text{GCS2}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS2}}$	P1.2
P1.1/ $\overline{\text{GCS1}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS1}}$	P1.1
P1.0/ $\overline{\text{GCS0}}$	$\overline{\text{GCS0}}$	P1.0

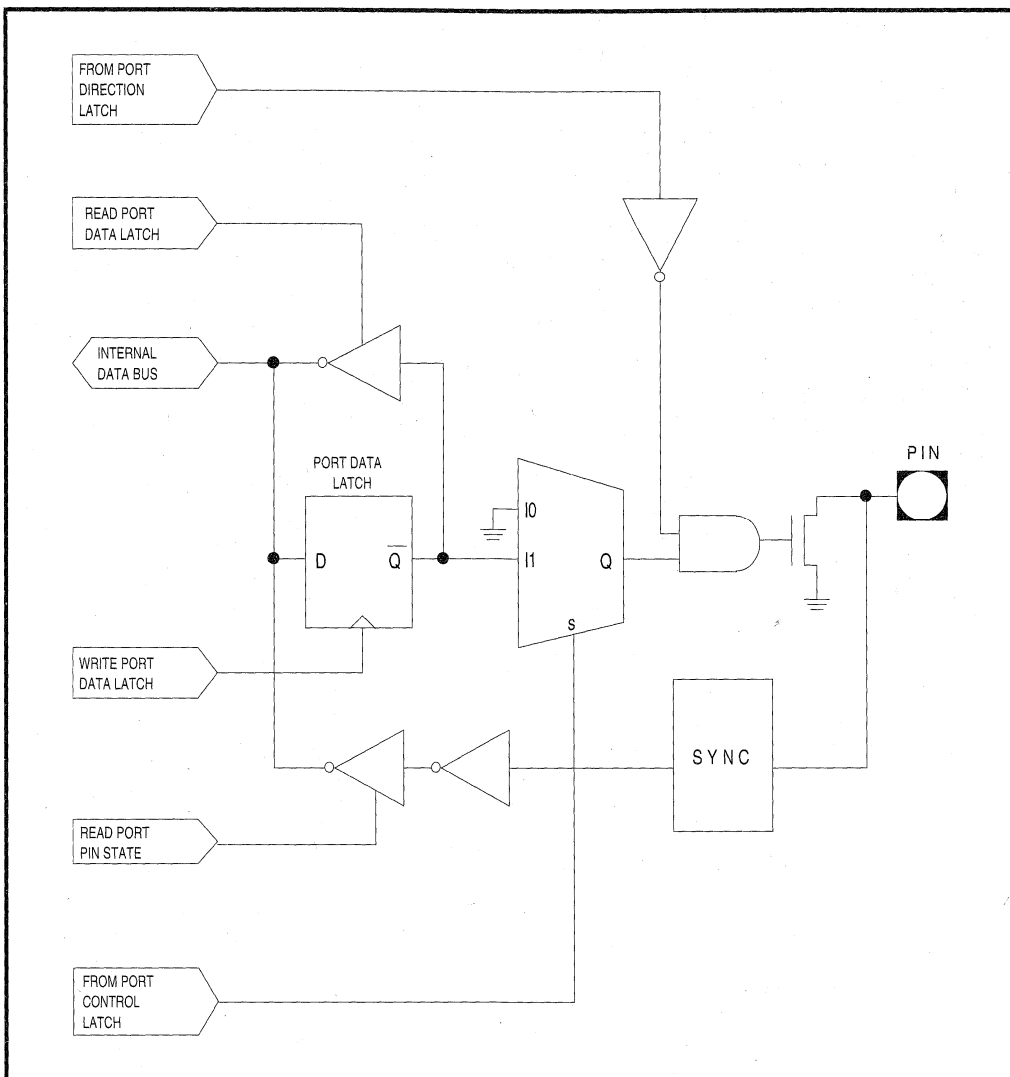


Figure 13.3. Simplified Logic Diagram of an Open-Drive Bidirectional Port

### 13.1.4.1. PORT 1 ORGANIZATION

Port 1 consists of eight **output only** port pins. The Port 1 pins are multiplexed with the general purpose chip-selects (GCS7:0). The multiplexing options for Port 1 are shown in Table 13.1.

**13.1.4.2. PORT 2 ORGANIZATION**

Port 2 consists of eight **bidirectional** port pins. Port 2 is multiplexed with the two serial channels. The multiplexing options for Port 2 are shown in Table 13.2.

**Table 13.2. Port 2 Multiplexing Options**

PIN NAME	PERIPHERAL FUNCTION	PORT FUNCTION
P2.7/CTS1	CTS1 (INPUT)	P2.7
P2.6/BCLK1	BCLK1 (INPUT)	P2.6
P2.5/TXD1	TXD1 (OUTPUT)	P2.5
P2.4/RXD1	RXD1 (I/O)	P2.4
P2.7/CTS0	CTS0 (INPUT)	P2.3
P2.2/BCLK0	BCLK0 (INPUT)	P2.2
P2.1/TXD0	TXD0 (OUTPUT)	P2.1
P2.0/RXD0	RXD0 (I/O)	P2.0

**Table 13.3. Port 3 Multiplexing Options**

PIN NAME	PERIPHERAL FUNCTION	PORT FUNCTION
P3.5	NONE (Note 1)	P3.5 (OPEN DRAIN)
P3.4	NONE (Note 1)	P3.4 (OPEN DRAIN)
P3.3/DMAI1	DMAI1	P3.3
P3.2/DMAI0	DMAI0	P3.2
P3.1/TXI1	TXI1	P3.1
P3.0/RXI1	RXI1	P3.0

**Note 1:** P3.5 and P3.4 float when configured as peripheral pins.

### 13.1.4.3. PORT 3 ORGANIZATION

Port 3 consists of 6 pins: four are output only and two are open-drain bidirectional. The four output only port pins are multiplexed with DMA and serial communications interrupt requests. The two open-drain bidirectional pins are not multiplexed with a peripheral function. The multiplexing options for Port 3 are shown in Table 13.3.

## 13.2. PROGRAMMING THE I/O PORT UNIT

Each of the ports is controlled by a set of four Peripheral Control Block registers.

### 13.2.1. PORT CONTROL REGISTER

The *Port Control Register* (see Figure 13.4) selects the overall function for each port pin: peripheral or port. For I/O ports, the Port Control Register is used to assign the pin to either the associated on-chip peripheral or to a general purpose I/O port. For output only ports, the Port Control Register selects the source of data for the pin: either an on-chip peripheral or the Port Data latch.

### 13.2.2. PORT DIRECTION REGISTER

The *Port Direction Register* (see Figure 13.5) controls the direction (input or output) for each pin programmed as a general purpose I/O port. The Port Direction bit has no effect on output only port pins. These unused direction control bits may be used for bit storage.

The Port Direction Register is read/write. When read, each register will return the value written to it previously. Pins with their direction fixed will return the value in this register, **not** a value indicating their true direction.

The direction of a port pin assigned to a peripheral function is under control of the peripheral; the Port Direction value is ignored.

### 13.2.3. PORT DATA LATCH REGISTER

The *Port Data Latch Register* (see Figure 13.6) holds the value to be driven on an output or bidirectional pin. This value will only appear at the pin if it is programmed as a port.

The Port Latch Register is read/write. Reading a Port Latch Register returns the value of the latch itself and **not** the associated port pin.

### 13.2.4. PORT PIN STATE REGISTER

The *Port Pin State Register* (see Figure 13.7) is a read only register that is used to determine the state of a port pin. When the Port Pin State Register is read, the current state of the port pins will be gated to the internal data bus.

### 13.2.5. INITIALIZATION OF THE I/O PORTS

The state of the I/O Ports following a reset is as follows:

- Port 1 is configured for peripheral function (general purpose chip-selects)
- Port 2 is configured for peripheral function. The direction of each pin is the default direction for the peripheral function (e.g., P2.5/TXD1 is an output, P2.4/BCLK0 is an input).
- Ports P3.0 through P3.3 are configured for peripheral function (interrupt requests). Ports P3.4 and P3.5 are configured as inputs (they are floating).

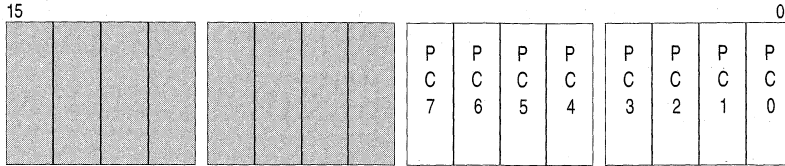
There are no set rules for initializing the I/O Ports. The Port Data Latch should be programmed before selecting a pin as an output port (to prevent unknown Port Data Latch values from reaching the pins).

## 13.3. PROGRAMMING EXAMPLE

The example in Example 13.1 shows a typical ASM186 routine to configure the I/O Ports.  $\overline{\text{GCS7}}$  through  $\overline{\text{GCS4}}$  are routed to the pins while P1.0 through P1.4 are used as output ports. The binary value 0101 is written to P1.0 through P1.3. The state of pins P3.5 and P3.4 is read and stored in the AL register.



**Register Name:** Port Control Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PxCON (P1CON, P2CON, P3CON)  
**Register Function:** Selects port or peripheral function for a port pin.

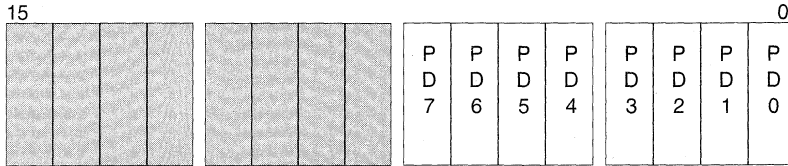


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
PC7:0	Port Control 7:0	FFH	<p>When the PC bit for a specific pin is set, the associated integrated peripheral controls both pin direction and pin data. Clearing the PC bit makes the pin a general purpose I/O port.</p> <p><b>NOTE:</b> PC7 and PC6 do not exist for Port 3.</p>

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading. Reserved register bits must be written to zero to guarantee compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 13.4. Port Control Register**

**Register Name:** Port Direction Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PxDIR (P1DIR, P2DIR, P3DIR)  
**Register Function:** Controls the direction of pins programmed as I/O ports.

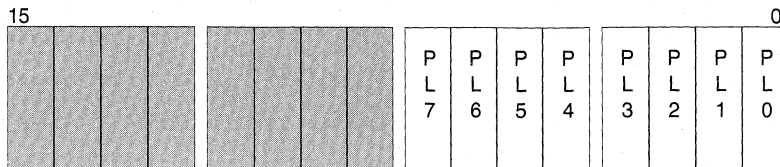


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
PD7:0	<i>Port Direction 7:0</i>	FFH	<p>Setting the PD bit for a pin programmed as a general purpose I/O port will select the pin as an input. Clearing the PD bit selects the pin as an output.</p> <p><b>NOTES:</b></p> <p>1) PD7 and PD6 do not exist for Port 3.</p> <p>2) The PD bits for Port 1 and P3.0 through P3.3 are ignored and may be used as storage.</p>

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading. Reserved register bits must be written to zero to guarantee compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 13.5. Port Direction Register**

**Register Name:** Port Data Latch Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PxLTCH (P1LTCH, P2LTCH, P3LTCH)  
**Register Function:** Contains the data driven on pins programmed as output ports.

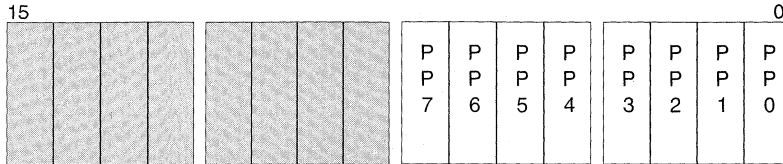


BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
PL7:0	<i>Port Data Latch 7:0</i>	FFH	The data written to a PL bit will appear on pins programmed as general purpose output ports.  <b>NOTES:</b> 1) PL7 and PL6 do not exist for Port 3.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading. Reserved register bits must be written to zero to guarantee compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 13.6. Port Data Latch Register**

**Register Name:** Port Pin State Register  
**Register Mnemonic:** PxPIN(P1PIN, P2PIN, P3PIN)  
**Register Function:** Reads the logic state at a port pin.



BIT MNEMONIC	BIT NAME	RESET STATE	FUNCTION
PP7:0	Port Pin State 7:0	XXXXH	Reading the Port Pin State register returns the logic state present on the associated pin.  <b>NOTES:</b> 1) PP7 and PP6 do not exist for Port 3.

**NOTE:** Reserved register bits are shown with grey shading. Reserved register bits must be written to zero to guarantee compatibility with future Intel products.

**Figure 13.7. Port Direction Register**

```
$mod186
name          io_port_unit_example

;
;This file contains an example of programming code for
;the I/O Port Unit on the 80C186EC.
;
;PCB EQUates in an include file.
#include PCBMAP.inc

code_seg      segment public
               assume cs:code_seg

IO_UNIT_EXMPL proc near

; write 0101B to data latch for pins P1.3 through P1.0

               mov         dx, P1LTCH
               mov         al, 0101B
               out         dx, al

; Gate latch data to output pins.
; P1.3 to P1.0 are port pins

               mov         dx, P1CON
               mov         al, 0F0H
               out         dx, al

; Route DMA interrupts to package pin...

               mov         dx, P3CON
               mov         ax, 001100B
               out         dx, al

; Read P3.4, P3.5. We assume they have not been changed to output
; pins since reset.

               mov         dx, P3PIN
               in          ax, dx
               and         ax, 3H      ; strip unused bits

; AL now holds the state of the P3.5 and P3.4 pins
IO_UNIT_EXMPL endp

code_seg      ends
end
```

**Example 13.1. I/O Port Programming Example**









## **CHAPTER 14 MATH COPROCESSING**

The 80C186 Modular Core Family meets the need for a general-purpose embedded microprocessor. In most data control applications, efficient data movement and control instructions are foremost and arithmetic performed on the data is simple. However, some applications do require more powerful arithmetic instructions and more complex data types than provided by the 80C186 Modular Core.

### **14.1. OVERVIEW OF MATH COPROCESSING**

Applications needing advanced mathematics capabilities have the following characteristics:

- Numeric data values are non-integral or vary over a wide range
- Algorithms produce very large or very small intermediate results
- Computations must be precise, i.e., calculations must retain several significant digits
- Computations must be reliable without dependence on programmed algorithms
- Overall math performance exceeds that afforded by a general-purpose processor and software alone

For the 80C186 Modular Core family, the 80C187 satisfies the need for powerful mathematics. The 80C187 can increase the math performance of the microprocessor system by 50 to 100 times.

### **14.2. AVAILABILITY OF MATH COPROCESSING**

The processor supports the 80C187 with a hardware interface under microcode control.

The core has a TRAP bit in the Relocation Register to control the availability of math coprocessing. If the bit is a one, attempted numerics execution results in a Type 7 interrupt. The 80C187 will not work with the 8-bit bus version of the processor because all 80C187 accesses must be 16-bit. The 8-bit bus version will automatically trap ESC (numerics) opcodes to the Type 7 interrupt regardless of Relocation Register programming.

### **14.3. THE 80C187 MATH COPROCESSOR**

The 80C187's high performance is due to its 80-bit internal architecture. It contains three units: a Floating Point Unit, a Data Interface and Control Unit and a Bus Control Logic Unit. The foundation of the Floating Point Unit is an 8-element register file, usable as individually addressable registers or as a register stack. The register file allows storage of intermediate results in the 80-bit format. The Floating Point Unit operates under supervision of the Data

Interface and Control Unit. The Bus Control Logic Unit maintains handshaking and communications with the host microprocessor. The 80C187 has built-in exception handling.

The 80C187 executes code written for the 387™ DX and 387™ SX math coprocessors. The 80C187 conforms to ANSI/IEEE Standard 754-1985.

### **14.3.1. 80C187 INSTRUCTION SET**

80C187 instructions fall into six functional groups: data transfer, arithmetic, comparison, transcendental, constant and processor control. Typical 80C187 instructions accept one or two operands and produce a single result. Operands are usually located in memory or the 80C187 stack. Some operands are predefined; FSQRT always takes the square root of the number in the top stack element, for example. Other instructions allow or require the programmer to specify explicitly the operand(s) along with the instruction mnemonic. Still other instructions accept one explicit operand and one implicit operand (usually the top stack element).

As with the basic (non-numeric) instruction set, there are two types of operands for coprocessor instructions, source and destination. Instruction execution does not alter a source operand. Even when an instruction converts the source operand from one format to another (for example, real to integer), the coprocessor performs the conversion in a work area to preserve the source operand. A destination operand differs from a source operand because the 80C187 may alter the register when it receives the result of the operation. For most destination operands, the coprocessor usually replaces the destinations with results.

#### **14.3.1.1. DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS**

Data transfer instructions move operands between elements of the 80C187 register stack or between stack top and memory. Instructions can convert any of the data types to temporary real and load it onto the stack in a single operation. Conversely, instructions can convert a temporary real operand on the stack to any data type and store it to memory in a single operation. Table 14.1 summarizes the data transfer instructions.

#### **14.3.1.2. ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS**

The 80C187's arithmetic instruction set includes many variations of add, subtract, multiply, and divide operations and several other useful functions. Examples include a simple absolute value and a square root instruction that executes faster than ordinary division. Other arithmetic instructions perform exact modulo division, round real numbers to integers and scale values by powers of two.

**Table 14.1. 80C187 Data Transfer Instructions**

REAL TRANSFERS	
FLD	Load real
FST	Store real
FSTP	Store real and pop
FXCH	Exchange registers
INTEGER TRANSFERS	
FILD	Integer load
FIST	Integer store
FISTP	Integer store and pop
PACKED DECIMAL TRANSFERS	
FBLD	Packed decimal (BCD) load
FBSTP	Packed decimal (BCD) store and pop

Table 14.2 summarizes the available operation and operand forms for basic arithmetic. In addition to the four normal operations, two “reversed” instructions make subtraction and division “symmetrical” like addition and multiplication. In summary, the arithmetic instructions are highly flexible because:

- The 80C187 uses register or memory operands
- The 80C187 may save results in a choice of registers

Available data types include temporary real, long real, short real, short integer and word integer. The 80C187 performs automatic type conversion to temporary real.

### 14.3.1.3. COMPARISON INSTRUCTIONS

Each comparison instruction (see Table 14.3) analyzes the stack top element, often in relationship to another operand. Then it reports the result in the Status Word condition code. The basic operations are compare, test (compare with zero) and examine (report tag, sign and normalization).

### 14.3.1.4. TRANSCENDENTAL INSTRUCTIONS

Transcendental instructions perform the core calculations for common trigonometric, hyperbolic, inverse hyperbolic, logarithmic and exponential functions. Use prologue code to reduce arguments to a range accepted by the instruction. Use epilogue code to adjust the result to the range of the original arguments. The transcendentals operate on the top one or two stack elements and return their results to the stack. Table 14.4 lists the transcendental instructions.

Table 14.2. 80C187 Arithmetic Instructions

ADDITION	
FADD	Add real
FADDP	Add real and pop
FIADD	Integer add
SUBTRACTION	
FSUB	Subtract real
FSUBP	Subtract real and pop
FISUB	Integer subtract
FSUBR	Subtract real reversed
FSUBRP	Subtract real reversed and pop
FISUBR	Integer subtract reversed
MULTIPLICATION	
FMUL	Multiply real
FMULP	Multiply real and pop
FIMUL	Integer multiply
DIVISION	
FDIV	Divide real
FDIVP	Divide real and pop
FIDIV	Integer divide
FDIVR	Divide real reversed
FDIVRP	Divide real reversed and pop
FIDIVR	Integer divide reversed
OTHER OPERATIONS	
FSQRT	Square root
FSCALE	Scale
FPREM	Partial remainder
FRNDINT	Round to integer
FXTRACT	Extract exponent and significand
FABS	Absolute value
FCHS	Change sign
FPREMI	Partial remainder (IEEE)

#### 14.3.1.5. CONSTANT INSTRUCTIONS

Each constant instruction (see Table 14.5) loads a commonly used constant onto the stack. The values have full 80-bit precision and are accurate to about 19 decimal digits. Since a temporary real constant occupies 10 memory bytes, the constant instructions, only two bytes long, save memory space.

**Table 14.3. 80C187 Comparison Instructions**

FCOM	Compare real
FCOMP	Compare real and pop
FCOMPP	Compare real and pop twice
FICOM	Integer compare
FICOMP	Integer compare and pop
FTST	Test
FXAM	Examine
FUCOM	Unordered compare
FUCOMP	Unordered compare and pop
FUCOMPP	Unordered compare and pop twice

**Table 14.4. 80C187 Transcendental Instructions**

FPTAN	Partial tangent
FPATAN	Partial arctangent
F2XM1	$2^X - 1$
FYL2X	$Y \log_2 X$
FYL2XP1	$Y \log_2 (X+1)$
FCOS	Cosine
FSIN	Sine
FSINCOS	Sine and Cosine

**Table 14.5. 80C187 Constant Instructions**

FLDZ	Load +0.1
FLD1	Load +1.0
FLDPI	Load $\pi$
FLDL2T	Load $\log_2 10$
FLDL2E	Load $\log_2 e$
FLDLG2	Load $\log_{10} 2$
FLDLG2	Load $\log_e 2$

**14.3.1.6. PROCESSOR CONTROL INSTRUCTIONS**

Computations do not use the processor control instructions; they are available for activities at the operating system level. This group (see Table 14.6) includes initialization, exception handling and task switching instructions.

**Table 14.6. 80C187 Processor Control Instructions**

FINIT/FNINIT	Initialize processor
FDISI/FNDISI	Disable interrupts
FENI/FNENI	Enable interrupts
FLDCW	Load control word
FSTCW/FNSTCW	Store control word
FSTSW/FNSTSW	Store status word
FCLEX/FNCLEX	Clear exceptions
FSTENV/FNSTENV	Store environment
FLDENV	Load environment
FSAVE/FNSAVE	Save state
FRSTOR	Restore state
FINCSTP	Increment stack pointer
FDECSTP	Decrement stack pointer
FFREE	Free register
FNOP	No operation
FWAIT	CPU wait

### 14.3.2. 80C187 DATA TYPES

The microprocessor/math coprocessor combination supports the following seven data types :

- **Word Integer** — A signed 16-bit numeric value. All operations assume a 2's complement representation.
- **Short Integer** — A signed 32-bit numeric value (double word). All operations assume a 2's complement representation.
- **Long Integer** — A signed 64-bit numeric value (quad word). All operations assume a 2's complement representation.
- **Packed Decimal** — A signed numeric value contained in an 80-bit BCD format.
- **Short Real** — A signed 32-bit floating point numeric value.
- **Long Real** — A signed 64-bit floating point numeric value.
- **Temporary Real** — A signed 80-bit floating point numeric value. Temporary real is the native 80C187 format.

Figure 14.1 graphically represents these data types.

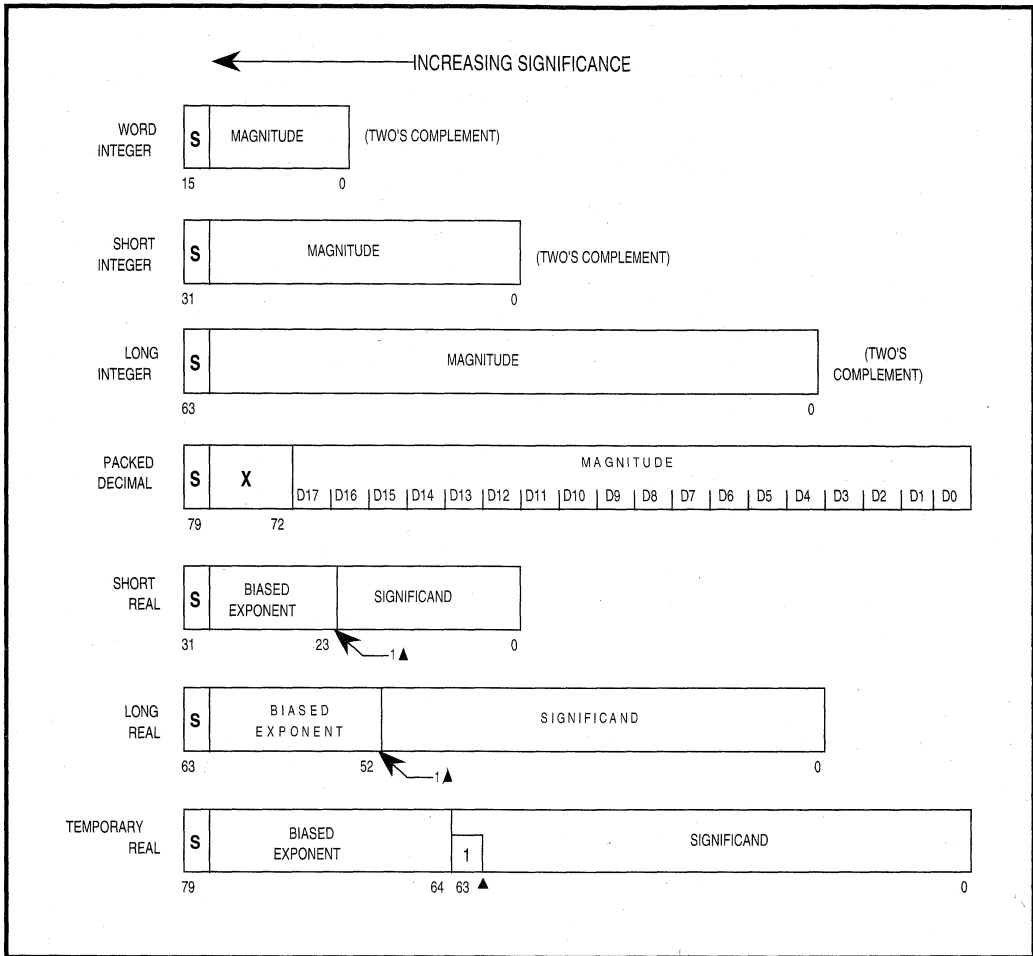


Figure 14.1. 80C187-Supported Data Types

**14.4. MICROPROCESSOR AND COPROCESSOR OPERATION**

The 80C187 interfaces directly to the microprocessor (see Figure 14.2) and operates as an I/O-mapped slave peripheral device. Hardware handshaking requires connections between the 80C187 and four special pins on the processor:  $\overline{NCS}$ ,  $BUSY$ ,  $\overline{PEREQ}$  and  $\overline{ERROR}$ .

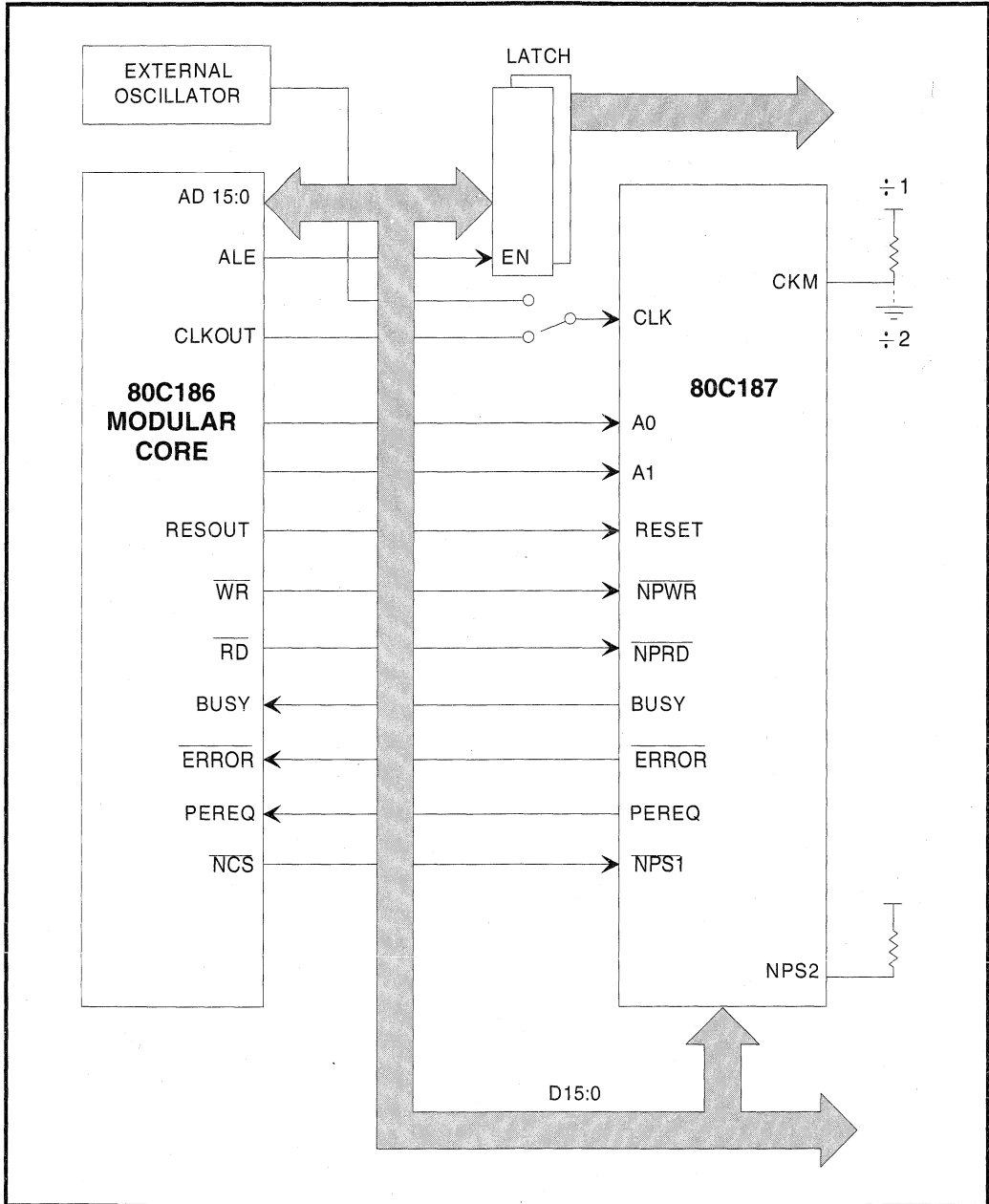


Figure 14.2. 80C186 Modular Core Family/80C187 System Configuration



#### 14.4.1. CLOCKING THE 80C187

The microprocessor and math coprocessor operate asynchronously and their clock rates may differ. The 80C187 has a CKM pin which determines whether it uses the input clock directly or divided by two. Direct clocking works up to 12.5 MHz, which makes it convenient to feed the clock input from the microprocessor's CLKOUT pin. Beyond 12.5 MHz, the 80C187 must use a 2X frequency clock input up to a maximum of 32 MHz. The microprocessor and the math coprocessor have correct timing relationships even with operation at different frequencies.

#### 14.4.2. PROCESSOR BUS CYCLES ACCESSING THE 80C187

Data transfers between the microprocessor and the 80C187 occur through the dedicated, 16-bit I/O ports shown in Table 14.7. When the processor encounters a numerics opcode, it first writes the opcode to the 80C187. The 80C187 decodes the instruction and passes elementary instruction information (Opcode Status Word) back to the processor. Since the 80C187 is a slave processor, the Modular Core processor performs all loads and stores to memory. Including the overhead in the microprocessor's microcode, each data transfer between memory and the 80C187 (via the microprocessor) takes at least 17 processor clocks.

**Table 14.7. 80C187 I/O Port Assignments**

I/O ADDRESS	READ DEFINITION	WRITE DEFINITION
00F8H	Status/ Control	Opcode
00FAH	Data	Data
00FCH	Reserved	CS:IP, DS:EA
00FEH	Opcode Status	Reserved

The microprocessor cannot process any numerics (ESC) opcodes alone. If the CPU encounters a numerics opcode with the TRAP bit in the Relocation Register a zero and the 80C187 is not present, its operation is indeterminate. Even the FINIT/FNINIT initialization instruction (used in the past to test the presence of a coprocessor) will fail without the 80C187. If an application offers the 80C187 as an option, problems can be prevented in three ways:

- Remove all numerics (ESC) instructions, including code which checks for the presence of the 80C187.
- Use a jumper or switch setting to indicate the presence of the 80C187. The program can interrogate the jumper or switch setting and branch away from numerics instructions when the 80C187 socket is empty.
- Trick the microprocessor into predictable operation when the 80C187 socket is empty. The fix is placing pull-up or pull-down resistors on certain data and handshaking lines so the CPU reads a recognizable Opcode Status Word. This solution requires a detailed knowledge of the interface.

Bus cycles involving the 80C187 Math Coprocessor behave exactly like other I/O bus cycles with respect to the processor's control pins. The next section covers integration of the 80C187 into the overall system.

#### 14.4.3. SYSTEM DESIGN TIPS

All 80C187 operations require that bus ready be asserted. The simplest way to return the ready indication is via hardware connected to the processor's external ready pin. If you program a chip select to cover the math coprocessor port addresses, its ready programming will be in force and can provide bus ready for coprocessor accesses. The user must verify there are no conflicts from other hardware connected to that chip select pin.

A chip select pin will go active on 80C187 accesses if you program it for a range including the math coprocessor I/O ports. The converse is not true — a non-80C187 access cannot activate  $\overline{\text{NCS}}$  (numerics chip select) regardless of programming.

In a buffered system, it is customary to place the 80C187 on the local bus. Since  $\text{DT}/\overline{\text{R}}$  and  $\overline{\text{DEN}}$  function normally during 80C187 transfers, you must qualify  $\overline{\text{DEN}}$  with  $\text{NCS}$  (see Figure 14.3). Otherwise, contention between the 80C187 and the transceivers occurs on read cycles to the 80C187.

The microprocessor's local bus is available to the integrated peripherals during numerics execution whenever the CPU is not communicating with the 80C187. The idle bus allows the processor to intersperse DRAM refresh cycles and DMA cycles with accesses to the 80C187.

The microprocessor's local bus is available to alternate bus masters during execution of numerics instructions when the CPU does not need it. Bus cycles driven by alternate masters (via the HOLD/HLDA protocol) can suspend coprocessor bus cycles for an indefinite period.

The programmer may lock 80C187 instructions. The CPU asserts the  $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$  pin for the entire duration of a numerics instruction, monopolizing the bus for a very long time.

#### 14.4.4. EXCEPTION TRAPPING

The 80C187 detects six error conditions that can occur during instruction execution. The 80C187 can apply default fix-ups or signal exceptions to the microprocessor's  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  pin. The processor tests  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  at the beginning of numerics instructions, so it traps an exception on the **next** attempted numerics instruction after it occurs. When  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  tests active, the processor executes a Type 16 interrupt.

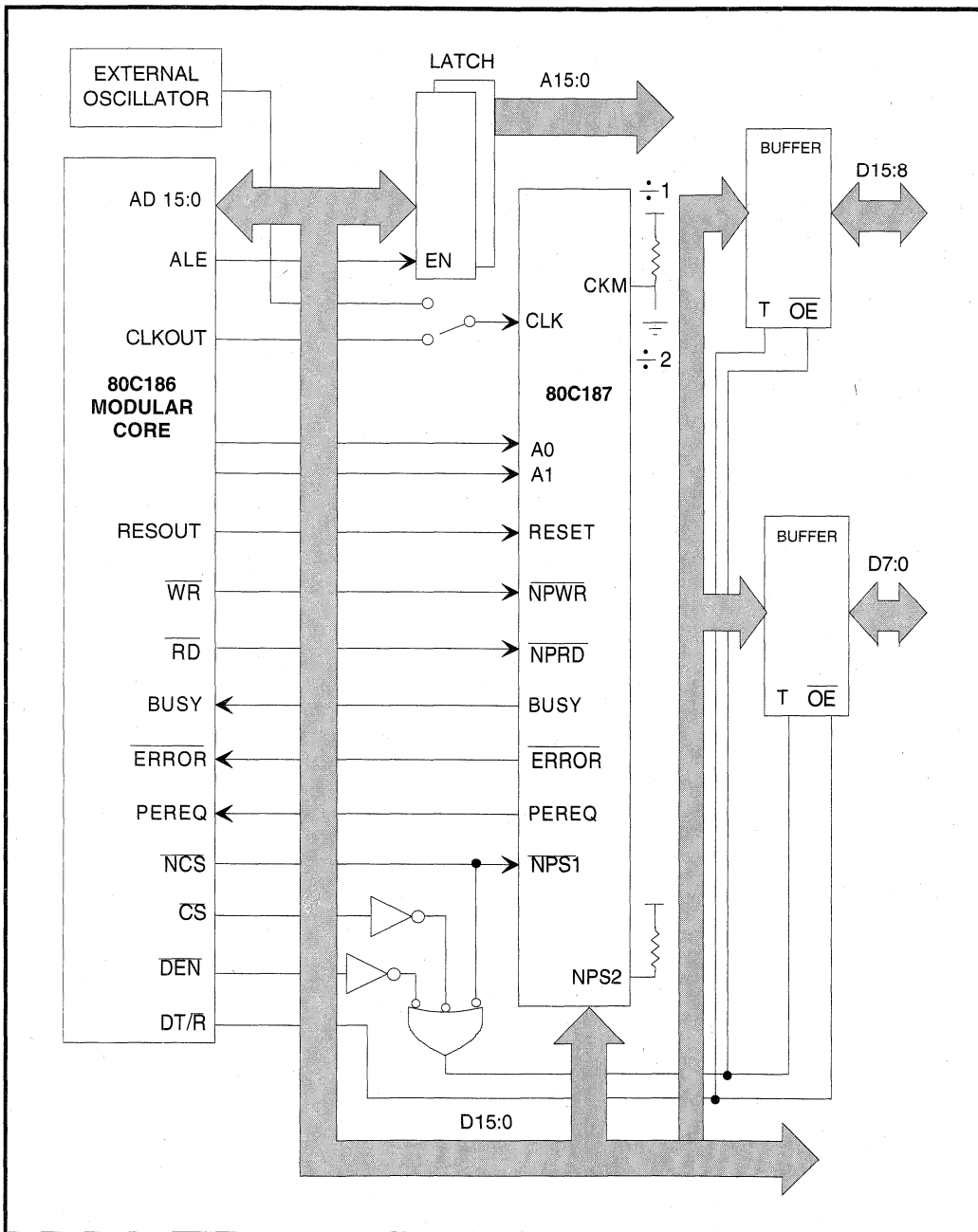
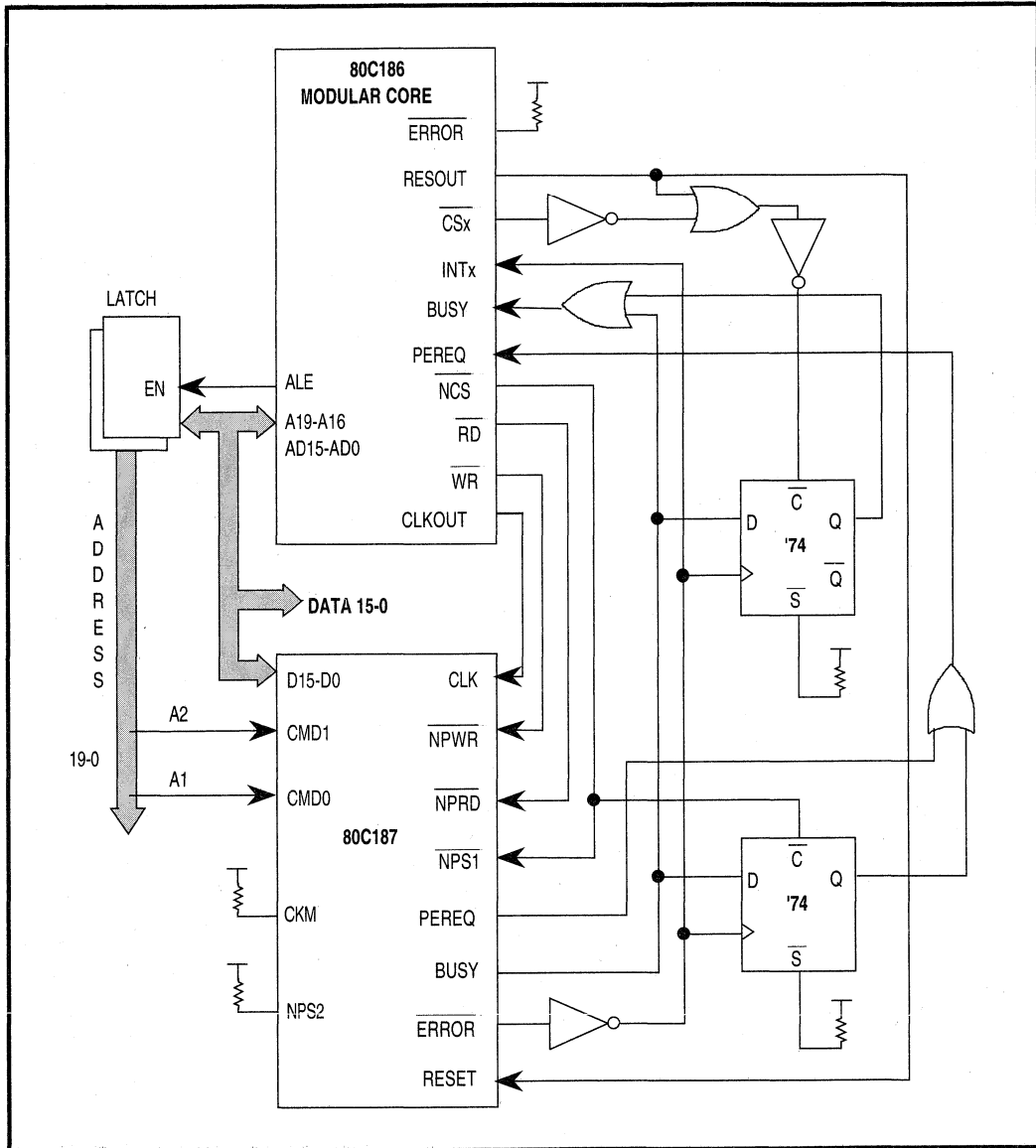


Figure 14.3. 80C187 Configuration with Partially Buffered Bus



**Figure 14.4. 80C187 Exception Trapping via Processor Interrupt Pin**

There is no automatic exception-trapping on the last numeric instruction of a series. If the last numeric instruction writes an invalid result to memory, subsequent non-numeric instructions can use that result as if it is valid, further compounding the original error. Insert the FNOP instruction at the end of the 80C187 routine to force an  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$  check. If the program is written in a high-level language, it is impossible to insert FNOP. In this case, route the error

signal through an inverter to an interrupt pin on the microprocessor (see Figure 14.4). With this arrangement, use a flip-flop to latch BUSY upon assertion of ERROR. The latch gets cleared during the exception-handler routine. Use an additional flip-flop to latch PEREQ to maintain the correct handshaking sequence with the microprocessor.

#### 14.5. EXAMPLE MATH COPROCESSOR ROUTINES

Example 14.1 shows the initialization sequence for the 80C187. Example 14.2 is an example of a floating point routine using the 80C187. The FSINCOS instruction yields both sine and cosine in one operation.

```

$mod186
name      example_80C187_init

;
; FUNCTION: This function initializes the 80C187 numerics
;           co-processor.
;
; SYNTAX:  extern unsigned char far 187_init(void);
;
; INPUTS:  None
;
; OUTPUTS: unsigned char - 0000h -> False -> coprocessor not
;           initialized
;           ffffh -> True -> coprocessor
;           initialized
;
; NOTE: Parameters are passed on the stack as required by
;       high-level languages.
;

lib_80186 segment public 'code'
          assume cs:lib_80186

          public      _187_init
_187_init proc far

          push  bp          ;save caller's bp
          mov   bp, sp      ;get current top of stack

          cli              ;disable maskable
                          ;interrupts

          fninit           ;init 80C187 processor
          fnstcw [bp-2]    ;get current control word

```

**Example 14.1. Initialization Sequence for 80C187 Math Coprocessor**

```

        sti                ;enable interrupts

        mov     ax, [bp-2]
        and     ax, 0300h   ;mask off unwanted control
                           ;bits
        cmp     ax, 0300h   ;PC bits = 11
        je     Ok          ;yes: processor ok
        xor     ax, ax      ;return false (80C187 not
                           ;ok)
        pop     bp         ;restore caller's bp
        ret

Ok:     and     [bp-2], 0ffffh ;unmask possible exceptions
        fldcw  [bp-2]

        mov     ax,0ffffh   ;return true (80C187 ok)
        pop     bp         ;restore caller's bp
        ret

_lib87_init  endp

lib_80186   ends
            end

```

**Example 14.1. Initialization Sequence for 80C187 Math Coprocessor (Continued)**

```

$mod186
$modc187

name      example_80C187_proc

;
; DESCRIPTION:   This code section uses the 80C187 FSINCOS
;               transcendental instruction to convert the
;               locus of a point from polar to Cartesian
;               coordinates.
;
; VARIABLES:    The variables consist of the radius, r, and
;               the angle, theta. Both are expressed as
;               32-bit reals and 0 <= theta <= pi/4.
;
;

```

**Example 14.2. Floating Point Math Routine Using FSINCOS**

```

; RESULTS: The results of the computation are the
;          coordinates x and y expressed as 32-bit
;          reals.
;
; NOTES:   This routine is coded for Intel ASM86. It is
;          not set up as a HLL-callable routine.
;
;          This code assumes that the 80C187 has already
;          been initialized.
;
;          assume cs:code, ds:data

data segment at 0100h
r          dd x.xxxx ;substitute real operand
theta     dd x.xxxx ;substitute real operand
x         dd ?
y         dd ?
data ends

code segment at 0080h

convert   proc far
          mov     ax, data
          mov     ds, ax

          fld     r           ;load radius
          fld     theta       ;load angle
          fsincos           ;st=cos, st(1)=sin
          fmul    st, st(2)   ;compute x
          fstp   x           ;store to memory and pop
          fmul    st, st(2)   ;compute y
          fstp   y           ;store to memory and pop
convert   endp

code     ends
end

```

**Example 14.2. Floating Point Math Routine Using FSINCOS (Continued)**





---

*ONCE™ Mode*

**15**

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# CHAPTER 15

## ONCE™ MODE

ONCE (pronounced: ahnce) Mode provides the ability to three-state all output, bidirectional, or weakly held high/low pins except OSCOUT. OSCOUT does not three-state to allow device operation with a crystal network.

ONCE Mode electrically isolates the 80C186EC or 80C188EC from the rest of the board logic. This isolation allows a bed-of-nails tester to drive the device pins directly for more accurate and thorough testing. An in-circuit emulation probe uses ONCE Mode to isolate a surface mounted device from board logic and essentially “take over” operation of the board (without removing the soldered device from the board).

### 15.1. ENTERING/LEAVING ONCE MODE

Forcing  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  low while  $\overline{RESIN}$  is asserted (low) enables ONCE Mode (see Figure 15.1). Maintaining  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  and  $\overline{RESIN}$  low continues to keep ONCE Mode active. Returning  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  high exits the ONCE Mode.

However, it is possible to always keep ONCE Mode active by deasserting  $\overline{RESIN}$  while keeping  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  low. Removing  $\overline{RESIN}$  “latches” ONCE Mode and allows  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  to be driven to any level.  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  must remain low for at least one clock beyond the time  $\overline{RESIN}$  is driven high. Asserting  $\overline{RESIN}$  exits ONCE Mode, assuming  $\overline{A19}/\overline{ONCE}$  does not remain low also (see Figure 15.1).

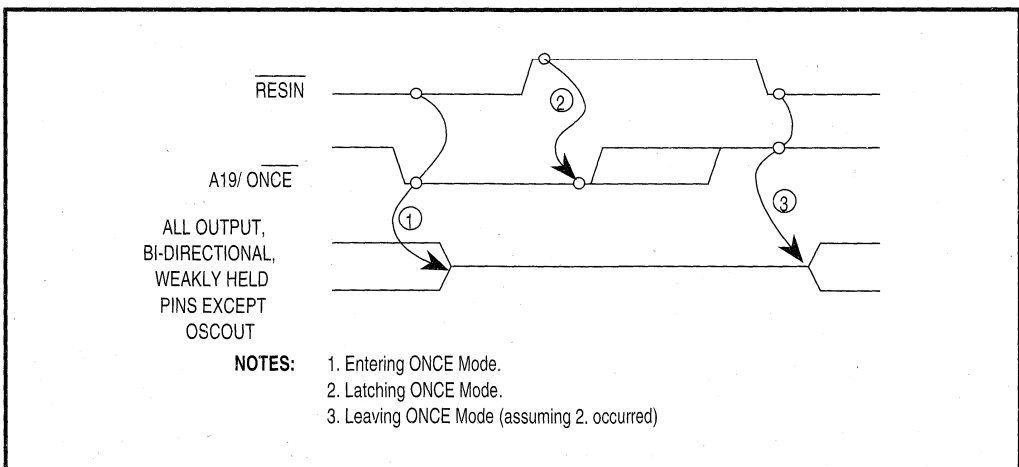


Figure 15.1. Entering/Leaving ONCE Mode



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*Appendix A*  
*80C186 Instruction Set*  
*Additions and Extensions*

---



# APPENDIX A

## 80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ADDITIONS AND EXTENSIONS

The 80C186 Modular Core family instruction set differs from the original 8086/8088 instruction set in two ways. First, there are several additional instructions that were not available in the 8086/8088 instruction set. Second, there are several 8086/8088 instructions that have been enhanced for the 80C186 Modular Core family instruction set.

### A.1. 80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ADDITIONS

The following sections describe instructions added to the base 8086/8088 instruction set to make the instruction set for the 80C186 Modular Core family. These instructions did not exist in the 8086/8088 instruction set.

#### A.1.1. DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS

##### PUSHA/POPA

PUSHA (push all) and POPA (pop all) allow all general purpose registers to be stacked and unstacked. The PUSHA instruction pushes all CPU registers (except as noted below) onto the stack. The POPA instruction pops all registers pushed by PUSHA off of the stack. The registers are pushed onto the stack in the following order: AX, CX, DX, BX, SP, BP, SI, DI. The Stack Pointer (SP) value pushed is the Stack Pointer value before the AX register was pushed. When POPA is executed, the Stack Pointer value is popped, but ignored.

Note: This instruction does not save segment registers (CS, DS, SS, ES), the Instruction Pointer (IP), the Program Status Word or any integrated peripheral registers.

#### A.1.2. STRING INSTRUCTIONS

##### INS *source\_string, port*

INS (in string) performs block input from an I/O port to memory. The port address is placed in the DX register. The memory address is placed in the DI register. This instruction uses the ES segment register (which cannot be overridden). After the data transfer takes place, the pointer register (DI) increments or decrements, depending on the value of the Direction Flag (DF). The pointer register changes by 1 for byte transfers or 2 for word transfers.

**OUTS** *port, destination\_string*

OUTS (out string) performs block output from memory to an I/O port. The port address is placed in the DX register. The memory address is placed in the SI register. This instruction uses the DS segment register, but this may be changed with a segment override instruction. After the data transfer takes place, the pointer register (SI) increments or decrements, depending on the value of the Direction Flag (DF). The pointer register changes by 1 for byte transfers or 2 for word transfers.

**A.1.3. HIGH LEVEL INSTRUCTIONS****ENTER** *size, level*

ENTER creates the stack frame required by most block-structured high-level languages. The first parameter, *size*, specifies the number of bytes of dynamic storage to be allocated for the procedure being entered (16-bit value). The second parameter, *level*, is the lexical nesting level of the procedure (8-bit value). Note: the higher the lexical nesting level, the lower the procedure is in the nesting hierarchy.

The lexical nesting level determines the number pointers to higher level stack frames copied into the current stack frame. This list of pointers is called the *display*. The first word of the display points to the previous stack frame. The display allows access to variables of higher-level (lower lexical nesting level) procedures.

After ENTER creates a display for the current procedure, it allocates dynamic storage space. The Stack Pointer decrements by the number of bytes specified by *size*. All PUSH and POP operations in the procedure use this value of the Stack Pointer as a base.

Two forms of ENTER exist: non-nested and nested. A lexical nesting level of 0 specifies the non-nested form. In this situation, BP is pushed, the Stack Pointer is copied to BP and decremented by the size of the frame. If the lexical nesting level is greater than 0, the nested form is used. Figure A.1 gives the formal definition of ENTER.



The formal definition of the ENTER instruction for all cases is given by the following listing: (LEVEL denotes the value of the second operand.)

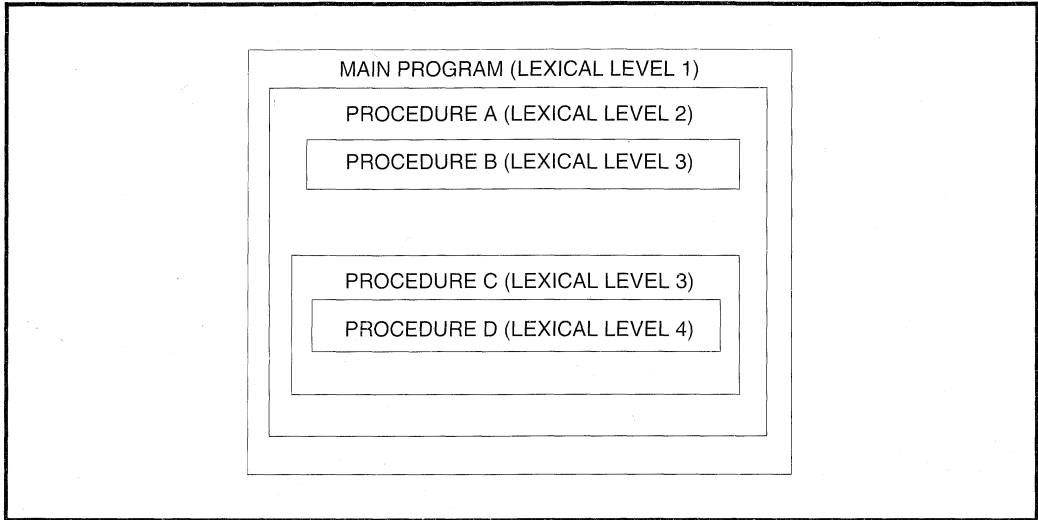
```
Push BP
Set a temporary value FRAME_PTR: = SP
If LEVEL > 0 then
  Repeat (LEVEL - 1) times:
    BP: = BP - 2
    Push the word pointed to by BP
  End repeat
  Push FRAME_PTR
End if
BP: = FRAME_PTR
SP: = SP - first operand
```

**Figure A.1. Formal Definition of ENTER**

ENTER treats a reentrant procedure as a procedure calling another procedure at the same lexical level. A reentrant procedure can only address its own variables and variables of higher-level calling procedures. ENTER ensures this by copying only stack frame pointers from higher-level procedures.

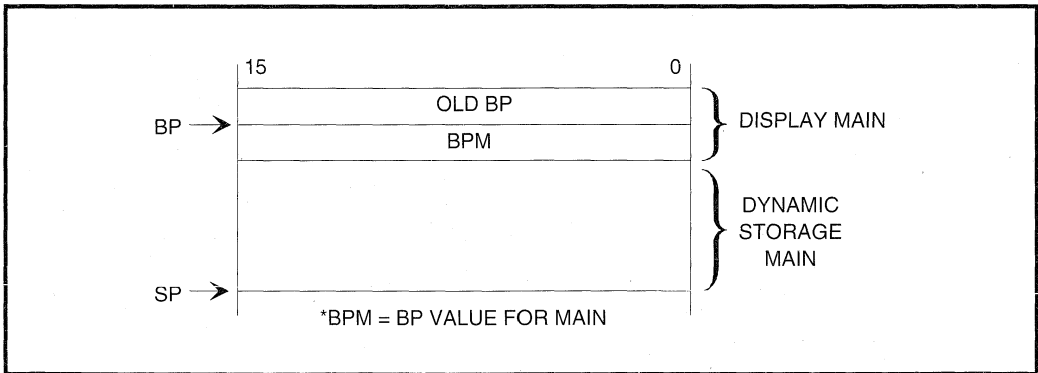
Block-structured high-level languages use lexical nesting levels to control access to variables of previously nested procedures. For example, assume, as shown in Figure A.2, PROCEDURE A calls PROCEDURE B which calls PROCEDURE C which calls PROCEDURE D. PROCEDURE C will have access to the variables of MAIN and PROCEDURE A, but not PROCEDURE B because they operate at the same lexical nesting level. The following is a summary of the variable access for Figure A.2.

1. MAIN PROGRAM has variables at fixed locations.
2. PROCEDURE A can access only the fixed variables of MAIN.
3. PROCEDURE B can access only the variables of PROCEDURE A and MAIN. PROCEDURE B cannot access the variables of PROCEDURE C or PROCEDURE D.
4. PROCEDURE C can access only the variables of PROCEDURE A and MAIN. PROCEDURE C cannot access the variables of PROCEDURE B or PROCEDURE D.
5. PROCEDURE D can access the variables of PROCEDURE C, PROCEDURE A and MAIN. PROCEDURE D cannot access the variables of PROCEDURE B.



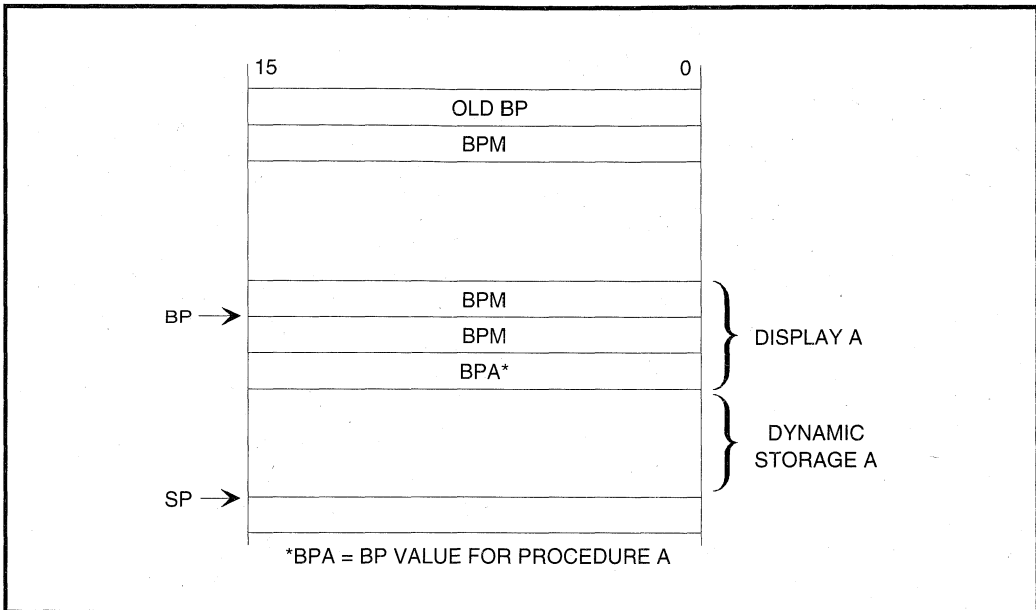
**Figure A.2. Variable Access in Nested Procedures**

The first ENTER, executed in the MAIN PROGRAM, allocates dynamic storage space for MAIN, but no pointers are copied. The only word in the display points to itself because no previous value exists to return to after LEAVE is executed (see Figure A.3).



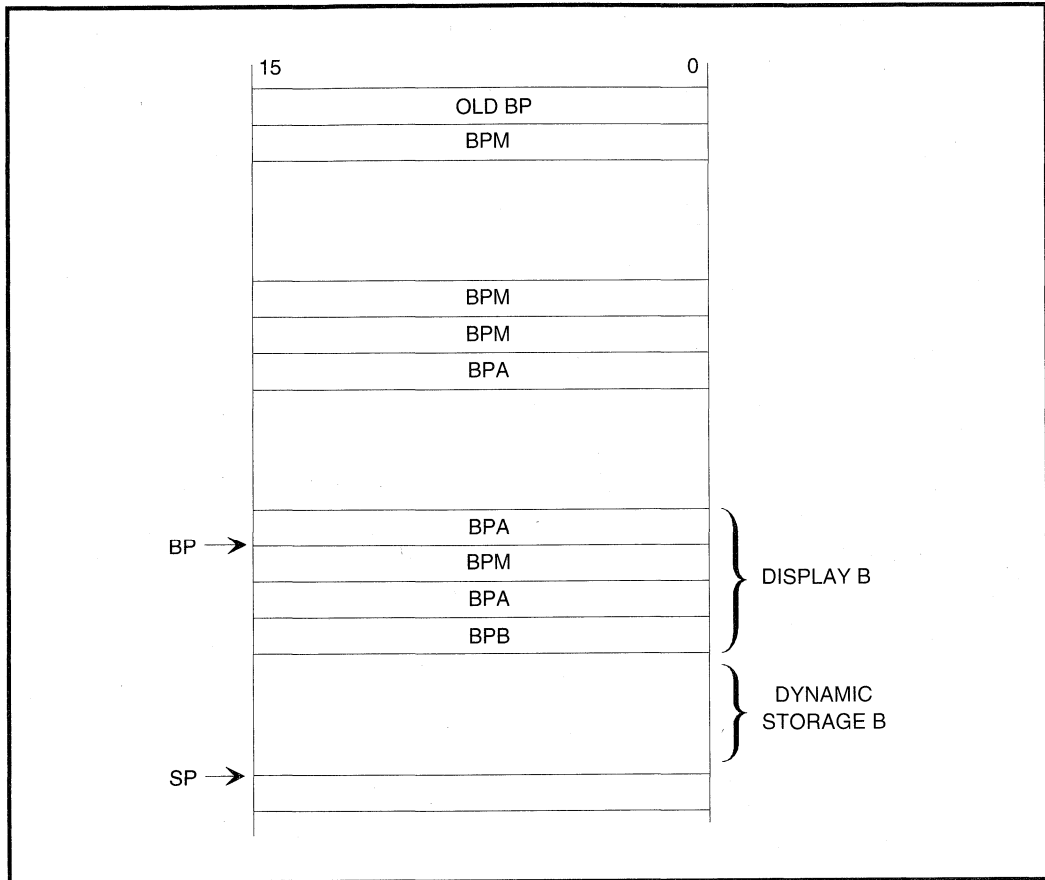
**Figure A.3. Stack Frame for MAIN at Level 1**

After MAIN calls PROCEDURE A, ENTER creates a new display for PROCEDURE A. The first word points to the previous value of BP (BPM). The second word points to the current value of BP (BPA). BPM contains the base for dynamic storage in MAIN. All dynamic variables for MAIN will be at a fixed offset from this value (see Figure A.4).



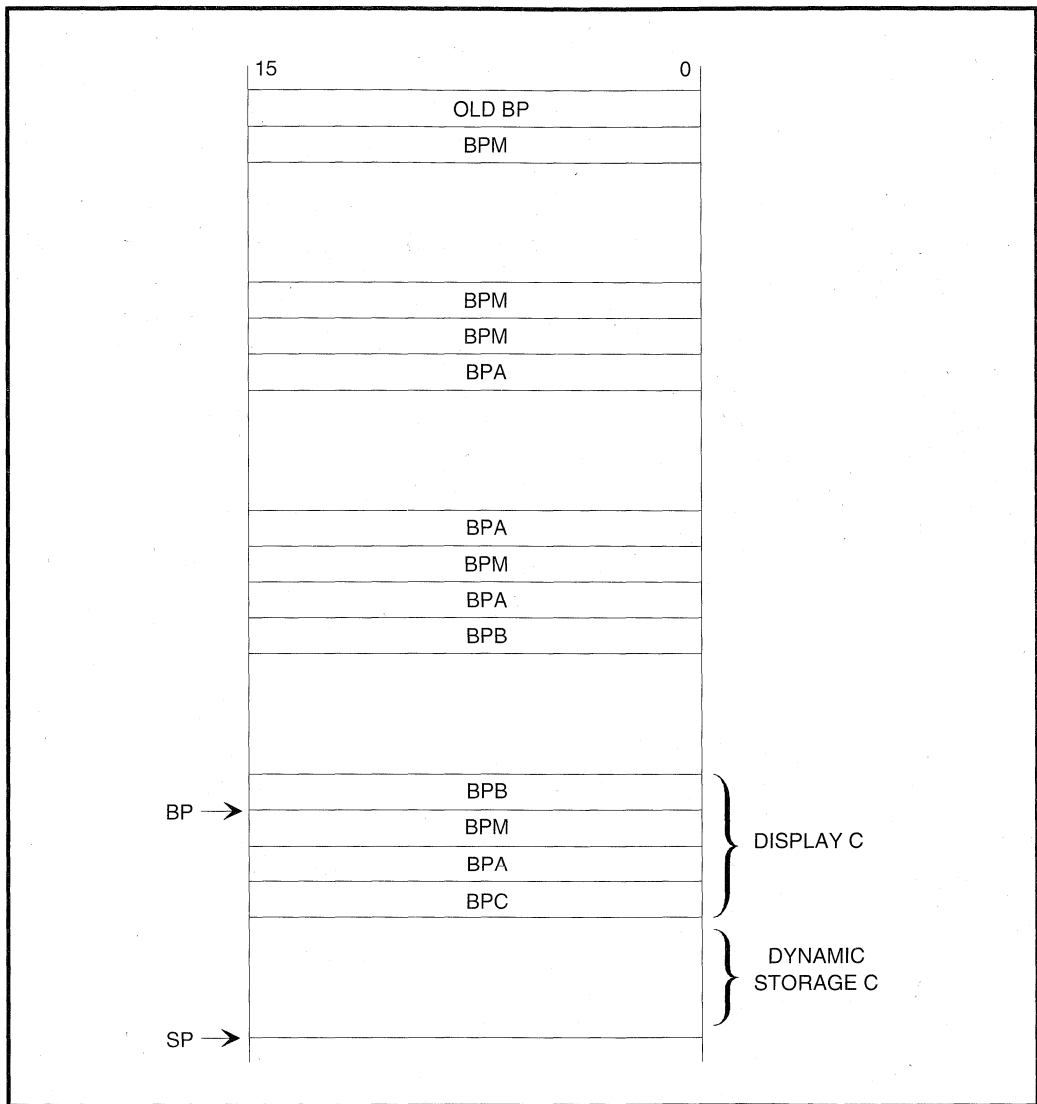
**Figure A.4. Stack Frame for Procedure A at Level 2**

After PROCEDURE A calls PROCEDURE B, ENTER creates the display for PROCEDURE B. The first word of the display points to the previous value of BP (BPA). The second word points to the value of BP for MAIN (BPM). The third word points to the BP for PROCEDURE A (BPA). The last word points to the current BP (BPB). PROCEDURE B can access variables in PROCEDURE A or MAIN via the appropriate BP in the display (see Figure A.5).



**Figure A.5. Stack Frame for Procedure B at Level 3 Called from A**

After PROCEDURE B calls PROCEDURE C, ENTER creates the display for PROCEDURE C. The first word of the display points to the previous value of BP (BPB). The second word points to the value of BP for MAIN (BPM). The third word points to the value of BP for PROCEDURE A (BPA). The fourth word points to the current BP (BPC). Because PROCEDURE B and PROCEDURE C have the same lexical nesting level, PROCEDURE C cannot access variables in PROCEDURE B. The only pointer to PROCEDURE B in the display of PROCEDURE C exists to allow the LEAVE instruction to collapse the PROCEDURE C stack frame (see Figure A.6).



**Figure A.6. Stack Frame for Procedure C at Level 3 Called from B**

**LEAVE**

LEAVE reverses the action of the most recent ENTER instruction. It collapses the last stack frame created. First, LEAVE copies the current BP to the Stack Pointer releasing the stack space allocated to the current procedure. Second, LEAVE pops the old value of BP from the stack, to return to the calling procedure's stack frame. An RET instruction will remove arguments stacked by the calling procedure for use by the called procedure.

**BOUND** *register, address*

BOUND verifies that the signed value in the specified register lies within specified limits. If the value does not lie within the bounds, an array bounds exception (type 5) occurs.

BOUND has two operands. The first, *register*, specifies the register being tested. The second, *address*, contains the effective relative address of the two signed boundary values. The lower limit word is at this address and the upper limit word immediately follows. The limit values cannot be register operands (if they are, an invalid opcode exception occurs).

BOUND is useful for checking array bounds before attempting to access an array element. This avoids the program overwriting information outside the limits of the array.

**A.2. 80C186 INSTRUCTION SET ENHANCEMENTS**

The following sections describe enhancements to the 8086/8088 instruction set available with the 80C186 Modular Core family. These instructions were available with the 8086/8088 instruction set, but have been expanded to be more useful.

**A.2.1. DATA TRANSFER INSTRUCTIONS****PUSH** *data*

PUSH (push immediate) allows an immediate argument, *data*, to be pushed onto the stack. The value can be either a byte or a word. Byte values will be sign extended to word size before being pushed.

**A.2.2. ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTIONS****IMUL** *destination, source, data*

IMUL (integer immediate multiply, signed) allows a value to be multiplied by an immediate operand. IMUL requires three operands. The first, *destination*, is the register where the result will be placed. The second, *source*, is the effective address of the multiplier. The source may be the same register as the destination, another register or a memory location. The third, *data*, is an immediate value used as the multiplicand. The *data* operand may be a byte or word. If *data* is a byte, it is sign extended to 16-bits. Only the lower 16-bits of the result are saved. The result must be placed in a general purpose register.

### A.2.3. BIT MANIPULATION INSTRUCTIONS

The 80C186 Modular Core instruction set includes enhancements to the bit manipulation instructions. The following sections describe these enhancements.

#### A.2.3.1. SHIFT INSTRUCTIONS

##### *SAL destination, count*

SAL (immediate shift arithmetic left) shifts the destination operand left by an immediate value. SAL has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be shifted. The second, *count*, is an immediate byte value representing the number of shifts to be made. The CPU will AND *count* with 1FH before shifting to allow no more than 32 shifts. Zeros shift in on the right.

##### *SHL destination, count*

SHL (immediate shift logical left) is physically the same instruction as SAL (immediate shift arithmetic left).

##### *SAR destination, count*

SAR (immediate shift arithmetic right) shifts the destination operand right by an immediate value. SAR has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be shifted. The second, *count*, is an immediate byte value representing the number of shifts to be made. The CPU will AND *count* with 1FH before shifting to allow no more than 32 shifts. The value of the original sign bit shifts into the most-significant bit to preserve the initial sign.

##### *SHR destination, count*

SHR (immediate shift logical right) is physically the same instruction as SAR (immediate shift arithmetic right).

#### A.2.3.2. ROTATE INSTRUCTIONS

##### *ROL destination, count*

ROL (immediate rotate left) rotates the destination byte or word left by an immediate value. ROL has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be rotated. The second, *count* is an immediate byte value representing the number of rotations to be made. The most-significant bit of *destination* rotates into the least-significant bit.

**ROR *destination, count***

ROR (immediate rotate right) rotates the destination byte or word right by an immediate value. ROR has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be rotated. The second, *count* is an immediate byte value representing the number of rotations to be made. The least-significant bit of *destination* rotates into the most-significant bit.

**RCL *destination, count***

RCL (immediate rotate through carry left) rotates the destination byte or word left by an immediate value. RCL has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be rotated. The second, *count*, is an immediate byte value representing the number of rotations to be made. The Carry Flag (CF) rotates into the least-significant bit of *destination*. The most-significant bit of *destination* rotates into the Carry Flag.

**RCR *destination, count***

RCR (immediate rotate through carry right) rotates the destination byte or word right by an immediate value. RCR has two operands. The first, *destination*, is the effective address to be rotated. The second, *count*, is an immediate byte value representing the number of rotations to be made. The Carry Flag (CF) rotates into the most-significant bit of *destination*. The least-significant bit of *destination* rotates into the Carry Flag.



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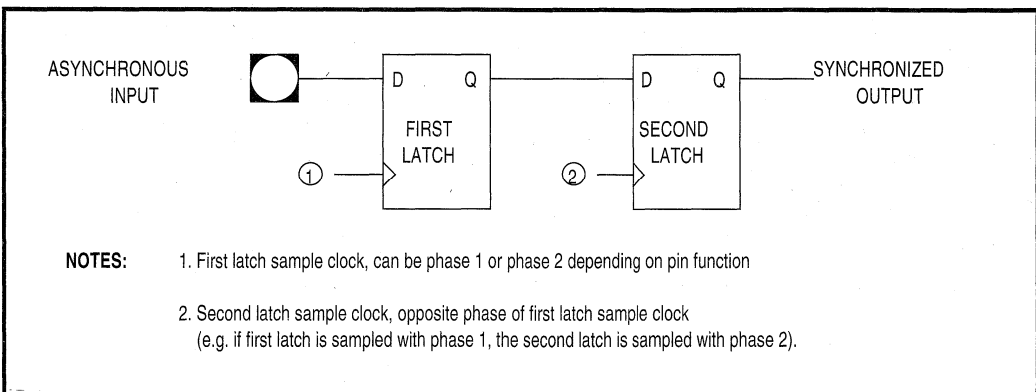
*Appendix B*  
*Input Synchronization*

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## APPENDIX B INPUT SYNCHRONIZATION

Many input signals to an 80C186EC or 80C188EC embedded processor are asynchronous. Asynchronous signals do not **require** a specified set up or hold time to ensure the device does not incur a failure. However, asynchronous setup and hold times are specified in the data sheet to ensure **recognition**. Associated with each of these inputs is a synchronizing circuit (see Figure B-1) which samples the asynchronous signal and synchronizes it to the internal operating clock. The output of the synchronizing circuit is then safely routed to the logic units.



**Figure B-1. Input Synchronization Circuit**

### B.1. WHY SYNCHRONIZERS ARE REQUIRED

Every data latch requires a specific set up and hold time to operate properly. The duration of the setup and hold time defines a **window** where the device attempts to latch the data. If the input makes a transition within this window, the output may not attain a stable state. The data sheet specifies a setup and hold window larger than is actually required. However, variations in device operation (e.g., temperature, voltage) require a larger window be specified to cover all conditions.

Should the input to the data latch transition during the sample and hold window, the output of the latch eventually attains a stable state. Reaching this stable state must occur before the second stage of synchronization requires a valid input. To synchronize an asynchronous signal, the circuit in Figure B-1 samples the input into the first latch, allows the output to stabilize, then samples the stabilized value into a second latch. With the asynchronous signal resolved in this way, the input signal can not cause an internal device failure.

A synchronization failure can occur when the output of the first latch does not meet the setup and hold requirements of the input of the second latch. The rate of failure is determined by the actual size of the sampling window of the data latch, and by the amount of time between the strobe signals of the two latches. As the sampling window gets smaller, the number of times an asynchronous transition occurs during the sampling window drops.

## **B.2. ASYNCHRONOUS PINS**

The 80C186EC and 80C188EC embedded processors use the two stage synchronization circuit on the following pins: T1IN, T2IN, NMI, TEST/ $\overline{\text{BUSY}}$ , PEREQ,  $\overline{\text{ERROR}}$ , HOLD, all port pins used as inputs, and DRQ3:0.

---

## *Appendix C*

---



# APPENDIX C

## Table C.1. Instruction Set Summary

Function	Format	Clock Cycles	Comments
<b>DATA TRANSFER</b>			
<b>MOV = MOVE:</b>			
Register to Register/Memory	1 0 0 0 1 0 0 w mod reg r/m	2/12	
Register/memory to register	1 0 0 0 1 0 1 w mod reg r/m	2/9	
Immediate to register memory	1 1 0 0 0 1 1 w mod 0 0 0 r/m data data if w=1	12-13	8/16-bit
Immediate to register	1 0 1 1 w reg data data if w=1	3-4	8/16-bit
Memory to accumulator	1 0 1 0 0 0 0 w addr-low addr-high	9	
Accumulator to memory	1 0 1 0 0 0 1 w addr-low addr-high	8	
Register/memory to segment register	1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0 mod 0 reg r/m	2/9	
Segment register to register/memory	1 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 mod 0 reg r/m	2/11	
<b>PUSH = Push:</b>			
Memory	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 mod 1 1 0 r/m	16	
Register	0 1 0 1 0 reg	10	
Segment register	0 0 0 reg 1 1 0	9	
Immediate	0 1 1 0 1 0 s 0 data data if s=0	10	
<b>PUSHA = Push All</b>			
	0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0	36	
<b>POP = Pop:</b>			
Memory	1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 mod 0 0 0 r/m	20	
Register	0 1 0 1 1 reg	10	
Segment register	0 0 0 reg 1 1 1 (reg≠01)	8	
<b>POPA = Pop All</b>			
	0 1 1 0 0 0 0 1	51	
<b>XCHG = Exchange:</b>			
Register/memory with register	1 0 0 0 0 1 1 w mod reg r/m	4/17	
Register with accumulator	1 0 0 1 0 reg	3	
<b>IN = Input from:</b>			
Fixed port	1 1 1 0 0 1 0 w port	10	
Variable port	1 1 1 0 1 1 0 w	8	
<b>OUT = Output to:</b>			
Fixed port	1 1 1 0 0 1 1 w port	9	
Variable port	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 w	7	
<b>XLAT = Translate byte to AL</b>	1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1	11	
<b>LEA = Load EA to register</b>	1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 mod reg r/m	6	
<b>LDS = Load pointer to DS</b>	1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 mod reg r/m	18 (mod≠11)	
<b>LES = Load pointer to ES</b>	1 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 mod reg r/m	18 (mod≠11)	
<b>LAHF = Load AH with flags</b>	1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1	2	
<b>SAHF = Store AH into flags</b>	1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0	3	
<b>PUSHF = Push flags</b>	1 0 0 1 1 1 0 0	9	
<b>POPF = Pop Flags</b>	1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1	8	

Shaded areas indicate instructions not available in iAPX 86, 88 microsystems.

Table C.1. Instruction Set Summary (Continued)

Function	Format	Clock Cycles	Comments
<b>DATA TRANSFER (Continued)</b>			
<b>SEGMENT = Segment Override:</b>			
CS	0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0	2	
SS	0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0	2	
DS	0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0	2	
ES	0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0	2	
<b>ARITHMETIC</b>			
<b>ADD = Add:</b>			
Reg/memory with register to either	0 0 0 0 0 0 d w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate to register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 s w mod 0 0 0 r/m data data if s w=01	4/16	
Immediate to accumulator	0 0 0 0 0 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>ADC = Add with carry:</b>			
Reg/memory with register to either	0 0 0 1 0 0 d w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate to register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 s w mod 0 1 0 r/m data data if s w=01	4/16	
Immediate to accumulator	0 0 0 1 0 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>INC = Increment</b>			
Register/memory	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 w mod 0 0 0 r/m	3/15	
Register	0 1 0 0 0 reg	3	
<b>SUB = Subtract</b>			
Reg/memory and register to either	0 0 1 0 1 0 d w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate from register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 s w mod 1 0 1 r/m data data if s w=01	4/16	
Immediate from accumulator	0 0 1 0 1 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>SBB = Subtract with borrow</b>			
Reg/memory and register to either	0 0 0 1 1 0 d w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate from register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 s w mod 0 1 1 r/m data data if s w=01	4/16	
Immediate from accumulator	0 0 0 1 1 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>DEC = Decrement:</b>			
Register/memory	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 w mod 0 0 1 r/m	3/15	
Register	0 1 0 0 1 reg	3	
<b>CMP = Compare:</b>			
Register/memory with register	0 0 1 1 1 0 1 w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Register with register/memory	0 0 1 1 1 0 0 w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate with register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 s w mod 1 1 1 r/m data data if s w=01	3/10	
Immediate with accumulator	0 0 1 1 1 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>NEG = Change sign</b>			
	1 1 1 1 0 1 1 w mod 0 1 1 r/m	3	
<b>AAA = ASCII adjust for Add</b>			
	0 0 1 1 0 1 1 1	8	
<b>DAA = Decimal adjust for add</b>			
	0 0 1 0 0 1 1 1	4	
<b>AAS = ASCII adjust for subtract</b>			
	0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1	7	
<b>DAS = Decimal adjust for subtract</b>			
	0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1	4	
<b>MUL = Multiply (unsigned):</b>			
Register-Byte	1 1 1 1 0 1 1 w mod 1 0 0 r/m	26-28	
Register-Word		35-37	
Memory-Byte		32-34	
Memory-Word		41-43	

Shaded areas indicate instructions not available in iAPX 86, 88 microsystems.



Table C.1. Instruction Set Summary (Continued)

Function	Format	Clock Cycles	Comments																
<b>ARITHMETIC (Continued)</b>																			
<b>IMUL</b> = Integer multiply (signed):	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>w</td><td>mod 10 1</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 10 1	r/m								
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 10 1	r/m										
Register-Byte		25-28																	
Register-Word		34-37																	
Memory-Byte		31-34																	
Memory-Word		40-43																	
<b>IMUL</b> = Integer immediate multiply (signed):	<table border="1"><tr><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>s</td><td>1</td><td>mod reg</td><td>r/m</td><td>data</td><td>data if s=0</td></tr></table>	0	1	1	0	1	0	s	1	mod reg	r/m	data	data if s=0	22-25/29-32					
0	1	1	0	1	0	s	1	mod reg	r/m	data	data if s=0								
<b>DIV</b> = Divide (unsigned):																			
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>w</td><td>mod 1 1 0</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 1 1 0	r/m								
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 1 1 0	r/m										
Register-Byte		29																	
Register-Word		38																	
Memory-Byte		35																	
Memory-Word		44																	
<b>IDIV</b> = Integer divide (signed):																			
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>w</td><td>mod 1 1 1</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 1 1 1	r/m								
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 1 1 1	r/m										
Register-Byte		44-52																	
Register-Word		53-61																	
Memory-Byte		50-58																	
Memory-Word		59-67																	
<b>AAM</b> = ASCII adjust for multiply	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	19		
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0					
<b>AAD</b> = ASCII adjust for divide	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	15	
1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0				
<b>CBW</b> = Convert byte to word	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td></tr></table>	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2									
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0												
<b>CWD</b> = Convert word to double word	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td></tr></table>	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	4									
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1												
<b>LOGIC</b>																			
<b>Shift/Rotate Instructions:</b>																			
Register/Memory by 1	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>mod TTT</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	w	mod TTT	r/m	2/15							
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	w	mod TTT	r/m										
Register/Memory by CL	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>w</td><td>mod TTT</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	w	mod TTT	r/m	5+n/17+n							
1	1	0	1	0	0	1	w	mod TTT	r/m										
Register/Memory by Count	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>mod TTT</td><td>r/m</td><td>count</td></tr></table>	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod TTT	r/m	count	5+n/17+n						
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod TTT	r/m	count									
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>TTT</th> <th>Instruction</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>0 0 0</td><td>ROL</td></tr> <tr><td>0 0 1</td><td>ROR</td></tr> <tr><td>0 1 0</td><td>RCL</td></tr> <tr><td>0 1 1</td><td>RCR</td></tr> <tr><td>1 0 0</td><td>SHL/SAL</td></tr> <tr><td>1 0 1</td><td>SHR</td></tr> <tr><td>1 1 1</td><td>SAR</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	TTT	Instruction	0 0 0	ROL	0 0 1	ROR	0 1 0	RCL	0 1 1	RCR	1 0 0	SHL/SAL	1 0 1	SHR	1 1 1	SAR		
TTT	Instruction																		
0 0 0	ROL																		
0 0 1	ROR																		
0 1 0	RCL																		
0 1 1	RCR																		
1 0 0	SHL/SAL																		
1 0 1	SHR																		
1 1 1	SAR																		
<b>AND = And:</b>																			
Reg/memory and register to either	<table border="1"><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>d</td><td>w</td><td>mod reg</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	0	0	1	0	0	0	d	w	mod reg	r/m	3/10							
0	0	1	0	0	0	d	w	mod reg	r/m										
Immediate to register/memory	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>mod 1 0 0</td><td>r/m</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod 1 0 0	r/m	data	data if w=1	4/16					
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod 1 0 0	r/m	data	data if w=1								
Immediate to accumulator	<table border="1"><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	w	data	data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit						
0	0	1	0	0	1	0	w	data	data if w=1										
<b>TEST = And function to flags, no result:</b>																			
Register/memory and register	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>mod reg</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	1	0	0	0	1	0	w	mod reg	r/m	3/10								
1	0	0	0	1	0	w	mod reg	r/m											
Immediate data and register/memory	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>w</td><td>mod 0 0 0</td><td>r/m</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 0 0 0	r/m	data	data if w=1	4/10					
1	1	1	1	0	1	1	w	mod 0 0 0	r/m	data	data if w=1								
Immediate data and accumulator	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	w	data	data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit						
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	w	data	data if w=1										
<b>OR = Or:</b>																			
Reg/memory and register to either	<table border="1"><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>d</td><td>w</td><td>mod reg</td><td>r/m</td></tr></table>	0	0	0	1	0	d	w	mod reg	r/m	3/10								
0	0	0	1	0	d	w	mod reg	r/m											
Immediate to register/memory	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>mod 0 0 1</td><td>r/m</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod 0 0 1	r/m	data	data if w=1	4/16					
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	w	mod 0 0 1	r/m	data	data if w=1								
Immediate to accumulator	<table border="1"><tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>w</td><td>data</td><td>data if w=1</td></tr></table>	0	0	0	1	1	0	w	data	data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit							
0	0	0	1	1	0	w	data	data if w=1											

Shaded areas indicate instructions not available in iAPX 86, 88 microsystems.

Table C.1. Instruction Set Summary (Continued)

Function	Format	Clock Cycles	Comments
<b>LOGIC (Continued)</b>			
<b>XOR = Exclusive or:</b>			
Reg/memory and register to either	0 0 1 1 0 0 d w mod reg r/m	3/10	
Immediate to register/memory	1 0 0 0 0 0 0 w mod 1 1 0 r/m data data if w=1	4/16	
Immediate to accumulator	0 0 1 1 0 1 0 w data data if w=1	3/4	8/16-bit
<b>Not</b> = Invert register/memory	1 1 1 1 0 1 1 w mod 0 1 0 r/m	3	
<b>STRING MANIPULATION:</b>			
<b>MOVS</b> = Move byte/word	1 0 1 0 0 1 0 w	14	
<b>CMPS</b> = Compare byte/word	1 0 1 0 0 1 1 w	22	
<b>SCAS</b> = Scan byte/word	1 0 1 0 1 1 1 w	15	
<b>LODS</b> = Load byte/wd to AL/AX	1 0 1 0 1 1 0 w	12	
<b>STOS</b> = Stor byte/wd from AL/A	1 0 1 0 1 0 1 w	10	
<b>INS</b> = Input byte/wd from DX port	0 1 1 0 1 1 0 w	14	
<b>OUTS</b> = Output byte/wd to DX port	0 1 1 0 1 1 1 w	14	
Repeated by count in CX			
<b>MOVS</b> - Move string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 w	8+8n	
<b>CMPS</b> - Compare string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 2 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 w	5+22n	
<b>SCAS</b> - Scan string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 2 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 w	5+15n	
<b>LODS</b> - Load string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 w	6+11n	
<b>STOS</b> - Store string	1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 w	6+9n	
<b>INS</b> - Input string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 w	8+8n	
<b>OUTS</b> - Output string	1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 w	8+8n	
<b>CONTROL TRANSFER</b>			
<b>CALL = Call:</b>			
Direct within segment	1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 disp-low disp-hour	15	
Register memory indirect within segment	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 mod 0 1 0 r/m	13/19	
Direct intersegment	1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 segment offset selector	23	
Indirect intersegment	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 mod 0 1 1 r/m (mod ≠ 11)	38	
<b>JMP = Unconditional jump:</b>			
Short/long	1 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 disp-low	14	
Direct within segment	1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 disp-low disp-high	14	
Register/memory indirect with segment	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 mod 1 0 0 r/m	26	
Direct intersegment	1 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 segment offset selector	14	
Indirect intersegment	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 mod 1 0 1 r/m (mod ≠ 11)	11/17	
<b>RET = Return from CHPS:</b>			
Within segment	1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1	16	
With seg adding immed to SP	1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 data-low data-high	18	
Intersegment	1 1 0 0 1 0 1 1	22	
Intersegment adding immediate to SP	1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 data-low data-high	25	
<b>JE/JZ</b> = Jump on equal zero	0 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 disp	4/13	13 if JMP taken
<b>JL/JNGE</b> = Jump on less/not greater or equal	0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 disp	4/13	4 if jmp not taken
<b>JLE/JNG</b> = Jump on less or equal/not greater	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 disp	4/13	

Shaded areas indicate instructions not available in iAPX 86, 88 microsystems.

Table C.1. Instruction Set Summary (Continued)

Function	Format	Clock Cycles	Comments
<b>Control Transfer (Continued)</b>			
<b>JB/JNAE</b> = Jump on below/not above or equal	0 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 disp	4/13	
<b>JBE/JNA</b> = Jump on below or equal/not above	0 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 disp	4/13	
<b>JP/JPE</b> = Jump on parity/parity even	0 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 disp	4/13	
<b>JO</b> = Jump on overflow	0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 disp	4/13	
<b>JS</b> = Jump on sign	0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 disp	4/13	
<b>JNE/JNZ</b> = Jump on not equal/not zero	0 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNL/JGE</b> = Jump on not less/greater or equal	0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNLE/JG</b> = Jump on not less or equal/greater	0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNB/JAE</b> = Jump on not below/above or equal	0 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNBE/JA</b> = Jump on not below or equal/above	0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNP/JPO</b> = Jump on not par/par odd	0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNO</b> = Jump on not overflow	0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1 disp	4/13	
<b>JNS</b> = Jump on not sign	0 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 disp	5/15	
<b>JCXZ</b> = Jump on CX zero	1 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 disp	6/16	
<b>LOOP</b> = Loop CX times	1 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 disp	6/16	
<b>LOOPZ/LOOPE</b> = Loop while zero/equal	1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 disp	16	JMP taken/
<b>LOOPNZ/LOPNE</b> = Loop while not zero/equal	1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 disp	5	JMP not taken
<b>ENTER</b> = Enter Procedure	1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 data-low data-high L		
L = 0		15	
L = 1		25	
L > 1		22+16(n-1)	
<b>LEAVE</b> = Leave Procedure	1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1	8	
<b>INT</b> = Interrupt:			
Type specified	1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 type	47	if INT taken/
Type 3	1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0	45	if INT not
<b>INTO</b> = Interrupt on overflow	1 1 0 0 1 1 1 0	48/4	taken
<b>IRET</b> = Interrupt return	1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1	28	
<b>BOUND</b> = Detect value out of range	0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 mod reg r/m	33-35	
<b>PROCESSOR CONTROL</b>			
<b>CLC</b> = Clear carry	1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0	2	
<b>CMC</b> = Complement carry	1 1 1 1 0 1 0 1	2	
<b>STC</b> = Set carry	1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1	2	
<b>CLD</b> = Clear direction	1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0	2	
<b>STD</b> = Set direction	1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1	2	
<b>CLI</b> = Clear interrupt	1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0	2	
<b>STI</b> = Set interrupt	1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1	2	
<b>HLT</b> = Halt	1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0	2	
<b>WAIT</b> = Wait	1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1	6	if test = 0
<b>LOCK</b> = Bus lock prefix	1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0	2	
<b>ESC</b> = Processor extension escape	1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 mod LLL r/m	6	
	(TTT LLL are opcode to processor extension)		

Shaded areas indicate instructions not available in iAPX 86, 88 microsystems.

**FOOT NOTES**

The Effective Address (EA) of the memory operand is computed according to the mod and r/m fields: reg is assigned according to the following:

if mod = 11 then r/m is treated as a REG field  
 if mod = 00 then DISP = 0\*, disp-low and disp-high are absent  
 if mod = 01 then DISP = disp-low sign-extended to 16-bits, disp-high is absent  
 if mod = 10 then DISP = disp-high:disp-low

reg	Segment Register
00	ES
01	CS
10	SS
11	DS

if r/m = 000 then EA = (BX) + (SI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 001 then EA = (BX) + (DI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 010 then EA = (BP) + (SI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 011 then EA = (BP) + (DI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 100 then EA = (SI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 101 then EA = (DI) + DISP  
 if r/m = 110 then EA = (BP) + DISP\*  
 if r/m = 111 then EA = (BX) + DISP

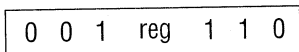
REG is assigned according to the following table:

16-Bit (w=1)	8-Bit (w=0)
000 AX	000 AL
001 CX	001 CL
010 DX	010 DL
011 BX	011 BL
100 SP	100 AH
101 BP	101 CH
110 SI	110 DH
111 DI	111 BH

DISP follows 2nd byte of instruction (before data if required)

\*except if mod = 00 and r/m = 110 then EA = disp-high:disp-low.

**SEGMENT OVERRIDE PREFIX**



The physical address of all operands addressed by the BP register are computed using the SS segment register. The physical addresses of the destination operands of the string primitive operation (those addressed by the DI register) are computed using the ES segment, which may not be overridden.

Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
00	0000 0000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADD REG8/MEM8,REG8
01	0000 0001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADD REG16/MEM16,REG16
02	0000 0010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADD REG8,REG8/MEM8
03	0000 0011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADD REG16,REG16/MEM16
04	0000 0100	DATA-8		ADD AL,IMMED8
05	0000 0101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	ADD AX,IMMED16
06	0000 0110			PUSH ES
07	0000 0111			POP ES
08	0000 0100	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	OR REG8/MEM8,REG8
09	0000 1001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	OR REG16/MEM16,REG16
0A	0000 1010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	OR REG8,REG8/MEM8
0B	0000 1011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	OR REG16,REG16/MEM16
0C	0000 1100	DATA-8		OR AL,IMMED8
0D	0000 1101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	OR AX,IMMED16
0E	0000 1110			PUSH CS
0F	0000 1111			(not used)
10	0001 0000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADC REG8/MEM8,REG8
11	0001 0001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADC REG16/MEM16,REG16
12	0001 0010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADC REG8,REG8/MEM8
13	0001 0011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ADC REG16,REG16/MEM16
14	0001 0100	DATA-8		ADC AL,IMMED8
15	0001 0101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	ADC AX,IMMED16
16	0001 0110			PUSH SS
17	0001 0111			POP SS
18	0001 1000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SBB REG8/MEM8,REG8
19	0001 1001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SBB REG16/MEM16,REG16
1A	0001 1010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SBB REG8,REG8/MEM8
1B	0001 1011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SBB REG16,REG16/MEM16
1C	0001 1100	DATA-8		SBB AL,IMMED8
1D	0001 1101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	SBB AX,IMMED16
1E	0001 1110			PUSH DS
1F	0001 1111			POP DS
20	0010 0000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	AND REG8/MEM8,REG8
21	0010 0001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	AND REG16/MEM16,REG16
22	0010 0010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	AND REG8,REG8/MEM8
23	0010 0011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	AND REG16,REG16/MEM16
24	0010 0100	DATA-8		AND AL,IMMED8
25	0010 0101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	AND AX,IMMED16
26	0010 0110			ES: (segment override prefix)
27	0010 0111			DAA
28	0010 1000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SUB REG8/MEM8,REG8
29	0010 1001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SUB REG16/MEM16,REG16
2A	0010 1010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SUB REG8,REG8/MEM8
2B	0010 1011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SUB REG16,REG16/MEM16
2C	0010 1100	DATA-8		SUB AL,IMMED8
2D	0010 1100	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	SUB AX,IMMED16

Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
2E	0010 1110			CS: (segment override prefix)
2F	0010 1111			DAS
30	0011 0000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XOR REG8/MEM8,REG8
31	0011 0001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XOR REG16/MEM16,REG16
32	0011 0010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XOR REG8,REG8/MEM8
33	0011 0011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XOR REG16,REG16/MEM16
34	0011 0100	DATA-8		XOR AL,IMMED8
35	0011 0100	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	XOR AX,IMMED16
36	0011 0110			SS: (segment override prefix)
37	0011 0111			AAA
38	0011 1000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CMP REG8/MEM8,REG8
39	0011 1001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CMP REG16/MEM16,REG16
3A	0011 1010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CMP REG8,REG8/MEM8
3B	0011 1011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CMP REG16,REG16/MEM16
3C	0011 1100	DATA-8		CMP AL,IMMED8
3D	0011 1101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	CMP AX,IMMED16
3E	0011 1110			DS: (segment override prefix)
3F	0011 1111			AAS
40	0100 0000			INC AX
41	0100 0001			INC CX
42	0100 0010			INC DX
43	0100 0011			INC BX
44	0100 0100			INC SP
45	0100 0101			INC BP
46	0100 0110			INC SI
47	0100 0111			INC DI
48	0100 1000			DEC AX
49	0100 1001			DEC CX
4A	0100 1010			DEC DX
4B	0100 1011			DEC BX
4C	0100 1100			DEC SP
4D	0100 1101			DEC BP
4E	0100 1110			DEC SI
4F	0100 1111			DEC DI
50	0101 0000			PUSH AX
51	0101 0001			PUSH CX
52	0101 0010			PUSH DX
53	0101 0011			PUSH BX
54	0101 0100			PUSH SP
55	0101 0101			PUSH BP
56	0101 0110			PUSH SI
57	0101 0111			PUSH DI
58	0101 1000			POP AX
59	0101 1001			POP CX
5A	0101 1010			POP DX
5B	0101 1011			POP BX

**Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)**

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
5C	0101 1100			POP SP
5D	0101 1101			POP BP
5E	0101 1110			POP SI
5F	0101 1111			POP DI
60	0110 0000			PUSHA (186/8 ONLY)
61	0110 0001			POPA (186/8 ONLY)
62	0110 0010	MOD REG R/M		BOUND REG16, MEM16(186/8 ONLY)
63	0110 0011			(not used)
64	0110 0100			(not used)
65	0110 0101			(not used)
66	0110 0110			(not used)
67	0110 0111			(not used)
68	0110 1000	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	PUSH IMMED16(186/8 ONLY)
69	0110 1001	MOD REG R/M	DATA-LO, DATA-HI	IMUL IMMED16(186/8 ONLY)
6A	0110 1010	DATA-8		PUSH IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
6B	0110 1011	MOD REG R/M	DATA-8	IMUL IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
6C	0110 1100			INS MEM8, DX(186/8 ONLY)
6D	0110 1101			INS MEM16, DX(186/8 ONLY)
6E	0110 1110			OUTS MEM8, CX(186/8 ONLY)
6F	0110 1111			OUTS MEM16, DX(186/8 ONLY)
70	0111 0000	IP-INC8		JO SHORT-LABEL
71	0111 0001	IP-INC8		JNO SHORT-LABEL
72	0111 0010	IP-INC8		JB/ JNAE/ JC JNB/ SHORT-LABEL
73	0111 0011	IP-INC8		JAE/ JNC JNE/JZ SHORT-LABEL
74	0111 0100	IP-INC8		JNE/JNZ SHORT-LABEL
75	0111 0101	IP-INC8		JBE/JNA SHORT-LABEL
76	0111 0110	IP-INC8		JNBE/ SHORT-LABEL
77	0111 0111	IP-INC8		JA JS SHORT-LABEL
78	0111 1000	IP-INC8		JNS SHORT-LABEL
79	0111 1001	IP-INC8		JP/JPE SHORT-LABEL
7A	0111 1010	IP-INC8		JNP/JPO SHORT-LABEL
7B	0111 1011	IP-INC8		JL/ SHORT-LABEL
7C	0111 1100	IP-INC8		JNGE JNLJGE SHORT-LABEL
7D	0111 1101	IP-INC8		JLE/ SHORT-LABEL
7E	0111 1110	IP-INC8		JNG JNLE/ SHORT-LABEL
7F	0111 1111	IP-INC8		JG ADD REG8/MEM8, IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP LO), (DISP HI) DATA-8	

Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT	
HEX	BINARY				
80	1000 0000	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	OR	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 000	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	ADC	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	SBB	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	AND	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	SUB	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 110 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	XOR	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
80	1000 0000	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	CMP	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
81	1000 0001	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	ADD	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	OR	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	ADC	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	SBB	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	AND	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	SUB	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 110 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	XOR	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
81	1000 0001	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	CMP	REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
82	1000 0010	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	ADD	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
82	1000 0010	MOD 001 R/M		(not used)	
82	1000 0010	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	ADC	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
82	1000 0010	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	SBB	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
82	1000 0010	MOD 100 R/M		(not used)	
82	1000 0010	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	SUB	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
82	1000 0010	MOD 110 R/M		(not used)	
82	1000 0010	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	CMP	REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
83	1000 0011	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-SX	ADD	REG16/MEM16,IMMED8
83	1000 0011	MOD 001 R/M		(not used)	



**Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)**

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
83	1000 0011	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-SX	ADC REG16/MEM16,IMMED8
83	1000 0011	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-SX	SBB REG16/MEM16,IMMED8
83	1000 0011	MOD 100 R/M		(not used)
83	1000 0011	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-SX	SUB REG16/MEM16,IMMED8
83	1000 011	MOD 110 R/M		(not used)
83	1000 0011	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-SX	CMP REG16/MEM16,IMMED8
84	1000 0100	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	TEST REG8,REG8
85	1000 0101	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	TEST REG16/MEM16,REG16
86	1000 0110	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XCHG REG8,REG8/MEM8
87	1000 0111	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	XCHG REG16,REG16/MEM16
88	1000 1000	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MOV REG8/MEM8,REG8
89	1000 1001	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MOV REG16/MEM16/REG16
8A	1000 1010	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MOV REG8,REG8/MEM8
8B	1000 1011	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MOV REG16,REG16/MEM16
8C	1000 1100	MOD OSR R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	REG16/MEM16,SEGREG
8C	1000 1100	MOD 1 - RM		(not used)
8D	1000 1101	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	LEA REG16,MEM16
8E	1000 1110	MOD OSR R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MOV SEGREG,REG16/MEM16
8E	1000 1110	MOD 1 - R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	
8F	1000 1111	MOD 001 R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 010 R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 011 R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 100 R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 101 R/M		(not used)
8F	1000 1111	MOD 110 R/M		(not used)
90	1001 0000			NOP (exchange AX,AX)
91	1001 0001			XCHG AX,CX
92	1001 0010			XCHG AX,DX
93	1001 0011			XCHG AX,BX
94	1001 0100			XCHG AX,SP
95	1001 0101			XCHG AX,BP
96	1001 0110			XCHG AX,SI
97	1001 0111			XCHG AX,DI
98	1001 1000			CBW
99	1001 1001			CWD
9A	1001 1010	DISP-LO	DISP-HI,SEG-LO, SEG-HI	CALL FAR_PROC
9B	1001 1011			WAIT
9C	1001 1100			PUSHF
9D	1001 1101			POPF
9E	1001 1110			SAHF

Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
9F	1001 1111			LAHF
A0	1010 0000	ADDR-LO	ADDR-HI	MOV AL, MEM8
A1	1010 0001	ADDR-LO	ADDR-HI	MOV AX, MEM16
A2	1010 0010	ADDR-LO	ADDR-HI	MOV MEM8, AL
A3	1010 0011	ADDR-LO	ADDR-HI	MOV MEM16, AL
A4	1010 0100			MOVS DEST-STR8, SRC-STR8
A5	1010 0101			MOVS DEST-STR16, SRC-STR16
A6	1010 0110			CMPS DEST-STR8, SR-STR8
A7	1010 0111			CMPS DEST-STR16, SRC-STR16
A8	1010 1000	DATA-8		TEST AL, IMMED8
A9	1010 1001	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	TEST AX, IMMED16
AA	1010 1010			STOS DEST-STR8
AB	1010 1011			STOS DEST-STR16
AC	1010 1100			LODS SRC-STR8
AD	1010 1101			LODS SRC-STR16
AE	1010 1110			SCAS DEST-STR8
AF	1010 1111			SCAS DEST-STR16
B0	1011 0000	DATA-8		MOV AL, IMMED8
B1	1011 0001	DATA-8		MOV CL, IMMED8
B2	1011 0010	DATA-8		MOV DL, IMMED8
B3	1011 0011	DATA-8		MOV BL, IMMED8
B4	1011 0100	DATA-8		MOV AH, IMMED8
B5	1011 0101	DATA-8		MOV CH, IMMED8
B6	1011 0110	DATA-8		MOV DH, IMMED8
B7	1011 0111	DATA-8		MOV BH, IMMED8
B8	1011 1000	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV AX, IMMED16
B9	1011 1001	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV CX, IMMED16
BA	1011 1010	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV DX, IMMED16
BB	1011 1011	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV BX, IMMED16
BC	1011 1100	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV SP, IMMED16
BD	1011 1101	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV BP, IMMED16
BE	1011 1110	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV SI, IMMED16
BF	1011 1111	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	MOV DI, IMMED16
C0	1100 0000	MOD 000 R/M	DATA-8	ROL REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 001 R/M	DATA-8	ROR REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 010 R/M	DATA-8	RCL REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 011 R/M	DATA-8	RCR REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 100 R/M	DATA-8	SHL/SAL REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 101 R/M	DATA-8	SHR REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C0	1100 0000	MOD 111 R/M	DATA-8	SAR REG8/MEM8, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 000 R/M	DATA-8	ROL REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 001 R/M	DATA-8	ROR REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 010 R/M	DATA-8	RCL REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 011 R/M	DATA-8	RCR REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 100 R/M	DATA-8	SHL/SAL REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C1	1100 0001	MOD 101 R/M	DATA-8	SHR REG16/MDM16, IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)

**Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)**

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT	
HEX	BINARY				
C1	1100 0001	MOD 111 R/M	DATA-8	SAR	REG16/MDM16,IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C2	1100 0010	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	RET	IMMED16(intraseg)
C3	1100 0011			RET	(intrasegment)
C4	1100 0100	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	LES	REG16,MEM16
C5	1100 0101	MOD REG R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	LDS	REG16,MEM16
C6	1100 0110	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	MOV	MEM8,IMMED8
C6	1100 0110	MOD 001 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 010 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 011 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 100 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 101 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)
C6	1100 0110	MOD 111 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	MOV	MEM16,IMMED16
C7	1100 0111	MOD 001 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 010 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 011 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 100 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 101 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)
C7	1100 0111	MOD 111 R/M			(not used)
C8	1100 1000	DATA-LO	DATA-HI,LEVEL	ENTER	IMMED16,IMMED8(186/8 ONLY)
C9	1100 1001			LEAVE	(186/8 ONLY)
CA	1100 1010	DATA-LO	DATA-HI	RET	IMMED16 (intersegment)
CB	1100 1011			RET	(intersegment)
CC	1100 1100			INT	3
CD	1100 1101	DATA-8		INT	IMMED8
CE	1100 1110			INTO	
CF	1100 1111			IRET	
D0	1101 0000	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROL	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROR	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCL	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCR	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAL/SHL	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SHR	REG8/MEM8,1
D0	1101 0000	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)
D0	1101 0000	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAR	REG8/MEM8,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAR	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROR	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCL	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCR	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAL/SHL	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SHR	REG16/MEM16,1
D1	1101 0001	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)

**Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)**

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT	
HEX	BINARY				
D1	1101 0001	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAR	REG16/MEM16,1
D2	1101 0010	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROL	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROR	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCL	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCR	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAL/SHL	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SHR	REG8/MEM8,CL
D2	1101 0010	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)
D2	1101 0010	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAR	REG8/MEM8,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROL	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ROR	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCL	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	RCR	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAL/SHL	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SHR	REG16,MEM16,CL
D3	1101 0011	MOD 110 R/M			(not used)
D3	1101 0011	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	SAR	REG16,MEM16,CL
D4	1101 0100	00001010		AAM	
D5	1101 0101	00001010		AAD	
D6	1101 0110				(not used)
D7	1101 0111			XLAT	SOURCE-TABLE
D8	1101 1000	MOD 000 R/M			
		1XXX MOD YYY R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	ESC	OPCODE,SOURCE
DF	1101 1111	MOD 111 R/M			
E0	1110 0000	IP-INC-8		LOOPNE//	SHORT-LABEL
				LOOPNZ	
E1	1110 0001	IP-INC-8		LOOPE//	SHORT-LABEL
				LOOPZ	
E2	1110 0010	IP-INC-8		LOOP	SHORT-LABEL
E3	1110 0011	IP-INC-8		JCXZ	SHORT-LABEL
E4	1110 0100	DATA-8		IN	AL,IMMED8
E5	1110 0101	DATA-8		IN	AX,IMMED8
E6	1110 0110	DATA-8		OUT	AL,IMMED8
E7	1110 0111	DATA-8		OUT	AX,IMMED8
E8	1110 1000	IP-INC-LO	IP-PINC-HI	CALL	NEAR-PROC
E9	1110 1001	IP-INC-LO	IP-INC-HI	JMP	NEAR-LABEL
EA	1110 1010	IP-LO	IP-HI,CS-LO,CS-HI	JMP	FAR-LABEL
EB	1110 1011	IP-INC8		JMP	SHORT-LABEL
EC	1110 1100			IN	AL,DX
ED	1110 1101			IN	AX,DX
EE	1110 1110			OUT	AL,DX
EF	1110 1111			OUT	AX,DX
F0	1111 0000			LOCK	(prefix)
F1	1111 0001				(not used)
F2	1111 0010			REPNE/REPNZ	
F3	1111 0011			REP/REPE/REPZ	

**Table C.2. Machine Instruction Decoding Guide (Continued)**

1ST BYTE		2ND BYTE	BYTES 3,4,5,6	ASM-86 INSTRUCTION FORMAT
HEX	BINARY			
F4	1111 0100			HLT
F5	1111 0101			CMC
F6	1111 0110	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-8	TEST REG8/MEM8,IMMED8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 001 R/M		(not used)
F6	1111 0110	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	NOT REG8/MEM8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	NEG REG8/MEM8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MUL REG8/MEM8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	IMUL REG8/MEM8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 110 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	DIV REG8/MEM8
F6	1111 0110	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	IDIV REG8/MEM8
F7	1111 0111	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI), DATA-LO,DATA-HI	TEST REG16/MEM16,IMMED16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 001 R/M		(not used)
F7	1111 0111	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	NOT REG16/MEM16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	NEG REG16/MEM16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	MUL REG16/MEM16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	IMUL REG16/MEM16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 110 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	DIV REG16/MEM16
F7	1111 0111	MOD 111 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	IDIV REG16/MEM16
F8	1111 0100			CLC
F9	1111 1001			STC
FA	1111 1010			CLI
FB	1111 1011			STI
FC	1111 1100			CLD
FD	1111 1101			STD
FE	1111 1110	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	INC REG8/MEM8
FE	1111 1110	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	DEC REG8/MEM8
FE	1111 1110	MOD 010 R/M		(not used)
FE	1111 1110	MOD 011 R/M		(not used)
FE	1111 1110	MOD 100 R/M		(not used)
FE	1111 1110	MOD 101 R/M		(not used)
FE	1111 1110	MOD 110 R/M		(not used)
FE	1111 1110	MOD 111 R/M		(not used)
FF	1111 1111	MOD 000 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	INC MEM16
FF	1111 1111	MOD 001 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	DEC MEM16
FF	1111 1111	MOD 010 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CALL REG16/MEM16(intra)
FF	1111 1111	MOD 011 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	CALL MEM16(intersegment)
FF	1111 1111	MOD 100 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	JMP REG16/MEM16(intra)
FF	1111 1111	MOD 101 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	JMP MEM16(intersegment)
FF	1111 1111	MOD 110 R/M	(DISP-LO),(DISP-HI)	PUSH MEM16
FF	1111 1111	MOD 111 R/M		(not used)

Table C.3. Mnemonic Encoding Matrix

HI	LO		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
	0	ADD b,f,r/m	ADD w,f,r/m	ADD b,t,r/m	ADD w,t,r/m	ADD b,ia	ADD w,i,a	PUSH ES	POP ES	OR b,f,r/m	OR w,f,r/m	OR b,t,r/m	OR w,t,r/m	OR b,i	OR w,i	PUSH CS		
1	ADC b,f,r/m	ADC w,f,r/m	ADC b,t,r/m	ADC w,t,r/m	ADC b,i	ADC w,i	PUSH SS	POP SS	SBB b,f,r/m	SBB w,f,r/m	SBB b,t,r/m	SBB w,t,r/m	SBB b,i	SBB w,i	PUSH DS	POP DS		
2	AND b,f,r/m	AND w,f,r/m	AND b,t,r/m	AND w,t,r/m	AND b,i	AND w,i	SEG =ES	DAA	SUB b,f,r/m	SUB w,f,r/m	SUB b,t,r/m	SUB w,t,r/m	SUB b,	SUB w,i	SEG =CS	DAS		
3	XOR b,f,r/m	XOR w,f,r/m	XOR b,t,r/m	XOR w,t,r/m	XOR b,i	XOR w,i	SEG =SS	AAA	CMP b,f,r/m	CMP w,f,r/m	CMP b,t,r/m	CMP w,t,r/m	CMP b,i	CMP w,i	SEG =DS	AAS		
4	INC AX	INC CX	INC DX	INC BX	INC SP	INC BP	INC SI	INC DI	DEC AX	DEC CX	DEC DX	DEC BX	DEC SP	DEC BP	DEC SI	DEC DI		
5	PUSH AX	PUSH CX	PUSH DX	PUSH BX	PUSH SP	PUSH BP	PUSH SI	PUSH DI	POP AX	POP CX	POP DX	POP BX	POP SP	POP BP	POP SI	POP DI		
6	PUSHA	POPA	BOUND w,f,r/m						PUSH w,i	IMUL w,i	PUSH b,i	IMUL b,i	INS b	INS w	OUTS b	OUTS w		
7	JO	JNO	JB/ JNAE	JNB/ JAE	JE/ JZ	JNE/ JNZ	JBE/ JNA	JNBE/ JA	JS	JNS	JP/ JPE	JNP/ JPO	JL/ JNGE	JNL/ JGE	JLE/ JNG	JNLE/ JG		
8	Immed b,r/m	Immed w,r/m	Immed b,r/m	Immed is,r/m	TEST b,r/m	TEST w,r/m	XCHG b,r/m	XCHG w,r/m	MOV b,f,r/m	MOV w,f,r/m	MOV b,t,r/m	MOV w,t,r/m	MOV sr,f,r/m	LEA	MOV sr,t,r/m	POP r/m		
9	XCHG AX	XCHG CX	XCHG DX	XCHG BX	XCHG SP	XCHG BP	XCHG SI	XCHG DI	CBW	CWD	CALL l,d	WAIT	PUSHF	POPF	SAHF	LAHF		
A	MOV m→AL	MOV m→AX	MOV AL→m	MOV AX→m	MOVS	MOVS	CMPS	CMPS	TEST b,i,a	TEST w,i,a	STOS	STOS	LODS	LODS	SCAS	SCAS		
B	MOV i→AL	MOV i→CL	MOV i→DL	MOV i→BL	MOV i→AH	MOV i→CH	MOV i→DH	MOV i→BH	MOV i→AX	MOV i→CX	MOV i→DX	MOV i→BX	MOV i→SP	MOV i→BP	MOV i→SI	MOV i→DI		
C	Shift b,i	Shift w,i	RET. (i+SP)	RET	LES	LDS	MOV b,i,r/m	MOV w,i,r/m	ENTER	LEAVE	RET. l,(i+SP)	RET I	INT Type 3	INT (Any)	INTO	IRET		
D	Shift b	Shift w	Shift b,v	Shift w,v	AAM	AAD		XLAT	ESC 0	ESC 1	ESC 2	ESC 3	ESC 4	ESC 5	ESC 6	ESC 7		
E	LOOPNZ/ LOOPNE	LOOPZ/ LOOPE	LOOP	JCZX	IN b	IN w	OUT b	OUT w	CALL d	JMP d	JMP l,d	JMP si,d	IN v,b	IN v,w	OUT v,b	OUT v,w		
F	LOCK		REP	REP Z	HLT	CMC	Grp 1 b,r/m	Grp 1 w,r/m	CLC	STC	CLI	STI	CLD	STD	Grp 2 b,r/m	Grp 2 w,r/m		

where:

mod □ r/m	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
Immed	ADD	OR	ADC	SBB	AND	SUB	XOR	CMP
Shift	ROL	ROR	RCL	RCR	SHL/SAL	SHR	—	SAR
Grp 1	TEST	—	NOT	NEG	MUL	IMUL	DIV	IDIV
Grp 2	INC	DEC	CALL id	CALL l,id	JMP id	JMP l,id	PUSH	—

b = byte operation  
d = direct  
f = from CPU reg  
i = immediate  
ia = immed. to accum.  
id = indirect  
is = immed. byte, sign ext.  
l = long ie. intersegment  
m = memory  
r/m = EA is second byte  
si = short intrasegment  
sr = segment register  
t = to CPU reg  
v = variable  
w = word operation  
z = zero



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FAX: (407) 333-9320

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FAX: (813) 572-4324

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FAX: (404) 623-8802

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FAX: (404) 446-1011

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