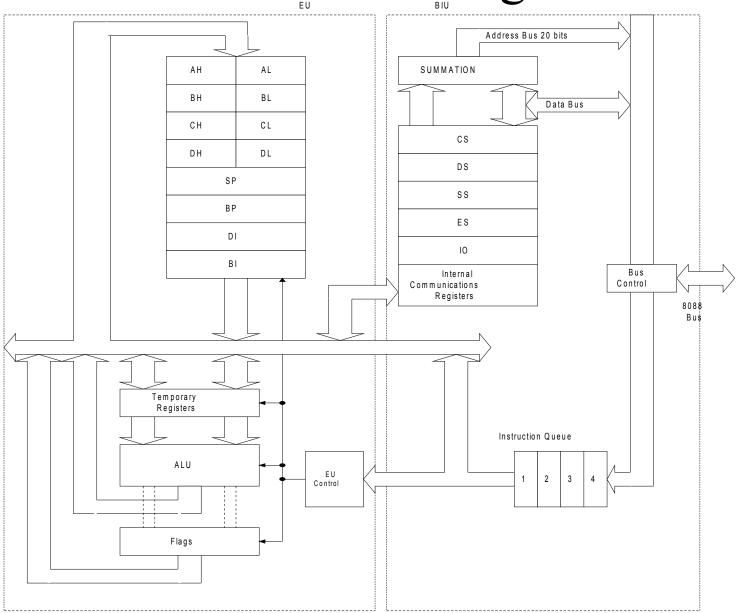
# Introduction to Assembly Language Programming

#### **Overview of Assembly Language**

- ☐ Advantages:
  - ✓ Faster as compared to programs written using high-level languages
  - ✓ Efficient memory usage
  - ✓ Control down to bit level
- ☐ Disadvantages:
  - × Need to know detail hardware implementation
  - × Not portable
  - × Slow to development and difficult to debug
- ☐ Basic components in assembly Language:

Instruction, Directive, Label, and Comment

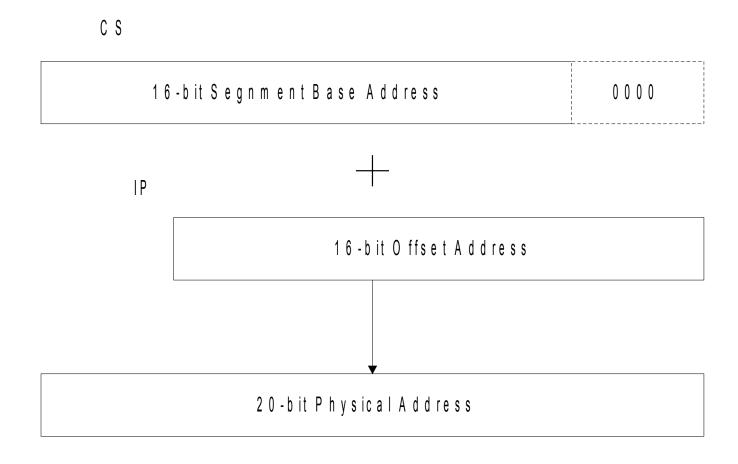
8086/8088 Internal Organisation



## BIU Elements

- Instruction Queue: the next instructions or data can be fetched from memory while the processor is executing the current instruction
  - The memory interface is slower than the processor execution time so this speeds up overall performance
- Segment Registers:
  - CS, DS, SS and ES are 16b registers
  - Used with the 16b Base registers to generate the 20b address
  - Allow the 8086/8088 to address 1MB of memory
  - Changed under program control to point to different segments as a program executes
- Instruction Pointer (IP) contains the Offset Address of the next instruction, the distance in bytes from the address given by the current CS register

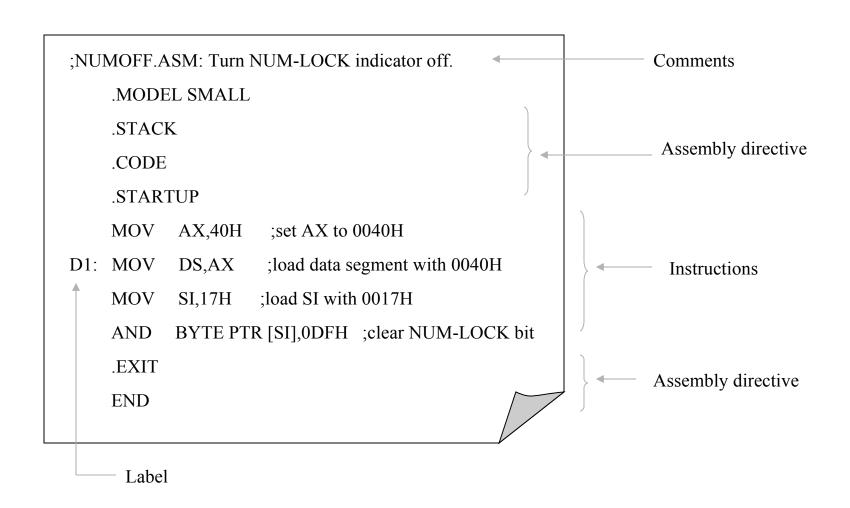
## 8086/8088 20-bit Addresses



## Exercise: 20-bit Addressing

- 1. CS contains 0A820h,IP contains 0CE24h. What is the resulting physical address?
- 2. CS contains 0B500h, IP contains 0024h. What is the resulting physical address?

### **Example of Assembly Language Program**



#### **Instruction Format**

☐ General Format of Instructions

Label: Opcode Operands ; Comment

- **Label**: It is optional. It provides a symbolic address that can be used in branch instructions
- **Opcode:** It specifies the type of instructions
- Properands: Instructions of 80x86 family can have one, two, or zero operand
- **Comments**: Only for programmers' reference
- ☐ Machine Code Format

## What is the Meaning of Addressing Modes?

When a CPU executes an instruction, it needs to know where to get data and where to store results. Such information is specified in the operand fields of the instruction.

Opcode	Mode	Operand1	Operand2

- An operand can be:
  - A datum
  - A register location
  - A memory location
- Addressing modes define how the CPU finds where to get data and where to store results

## Immediate Addressing

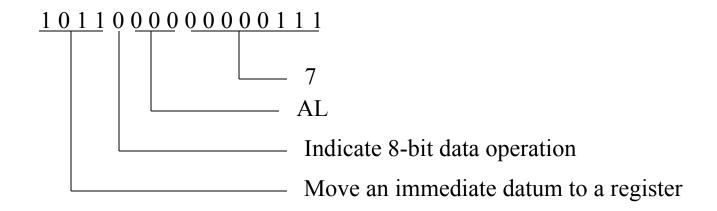
Data needed by the processor is contained in the instruction

For Example: *move 7 to register AL* 

MOV AL, 7



Machine code of MOV AL, 7



## Register Addressing

- > Operands of the instruction are the names of internal register
- The processor gets data from the register locations specified by instruction operands

For Example: move the value of register BL to register AL

MOV AL, BL

AH AL

BH BL

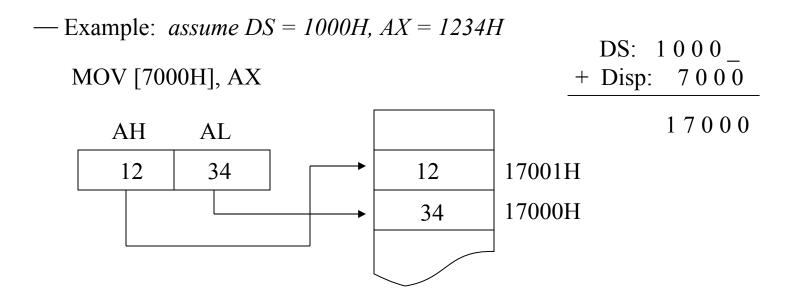
 $\Box$  If AX = 1000H and BX=A080H, after the execution of MOV AL, BL what are the new values of AX and BX?

In immediate and register addressing modes, the processor does not access memory. Thus, the execution of such instructions are fast.

## Direct Addressing

- The processor accesses a memory location
- The memory location is determined by the value of segment register DS and the displacement (offset) specified in the instruction operand field

$$DS \times 10H + Displacement = Memory location$$



## Register Indirect Addressing

One of the registers BX, BP, SI, DI appears in the instruction operand field. Its value is used as the memory displacement value.

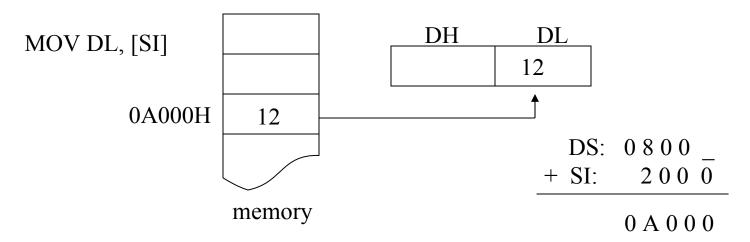
Memory address is calculated as following:

$$\begin{pmatrix}
DS \\
SS
\end{pmatrix} \times 10H + \begin{pmatrix}
SI \\
DI \\
BP
\end{pmatrix} = Memory address$$

- ☐ If BX, SI, or DI appears in the instruction operand field, segment register DS is used in address calculation
- ☐ If BP appears in the instruction operand field, segment register SS is used in address calculation

## Register Indirect Addressing

Example 1: assume DS = 0800H, SI = 2000H



Example 2: assume SS = 0800H, BP = 2000H, DL = 7

MOV [BP], DL



## Based Addressing

The operand field of the instruction contains a base register (BX or BP) and an 8-bit (or 16-bit) constant (displacement)

Calculate memory address

$$\begin{bmatrix} DS \\ SS \end{bmatrix} \times 10H + \begin{bmatrix} BX \\ BP \end{bmatrix} + Displacement = Memory address$$

- ☐ If BX appears in the instruction operand field, segment register DS is used in address calculation
- ☐ If BP appears in the instruction operand field, segment register SS is used in address calculation

What's difference between register indirect addressing and based addressing?

## Based Addressing

 $\triangleright$  Example 1: assume DS = 0100H, BX = 0600H

MOV AX, [BX+4]

DS: 0100
+ BX: 0600
+ Disp.: 0004

01604H

memory

Example 2: assume SS = 0A00H, BP = 0012H, CH = ABH

MOV [BP-7], CH



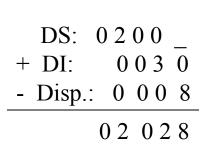
## Indexed Addressing

The operand field of the instruction contains an index register (SI or DI) and an 8-bit (or 16-bit) constant (displacement)

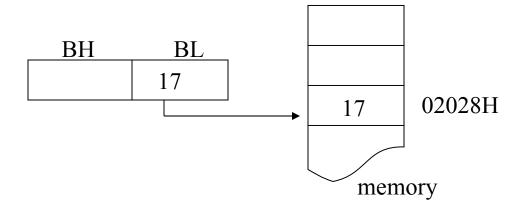
Calculate memory address

$$DS \times 10H +$$
  $OII + Displacement = Memory address$ 

 $\triangleright$  Example: assume DS = 0200H, DI = 0030H BL = 17H



MOV [DI-8], BL



## Based Indexed Addressing

The operand field of the instruction contains a base register (BX or BP) and an index register

Calculate memory address

$$\begin{bmatrix} DS \\ SS \end{bmatrix} \times 10H + \begin{bmatrix} BX \\ BP \end{bmatrix} + \{SI \text{ or DI}\} = Memory \text{ address}$$

- ☐ If BX appears in the instruction operand field, segment register DS is used in address calculation
- ☐ If BP appears in the instruction operand field, segment register SS is used in address calculation

## Based Indexed Addressing

Example 1: assume SS = 2000H, BP = 4000H, SI = 0800H, AH = 07H

Example 2: assume DS = 0B00H, BX=0112H, DI = 0003H, CH=ABH

MOV [BX+DI], CH



## Based Indexed with Displacement Addressing

The operand field of the instruction contains a base register (BX or BP), an index register, and a displacement

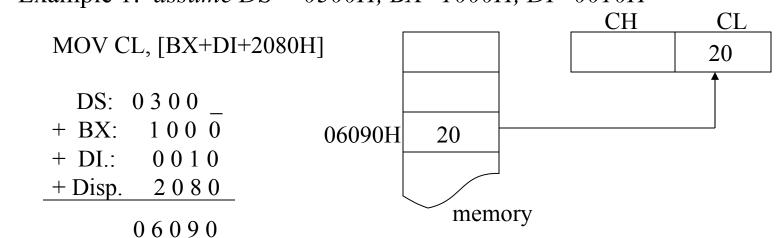
Calculate memory address

$$\begin{bmatrix} DS \\ SS \end{bmatrix} \times 10H + \begin{bmatrix} BX \\ BP \end{bmatrix} + \{SI \text{ or DI}\} + Disp. = Memory address}$$

- ☐ If BX appears in the instruction operand field, segment register DS is used in address calculation
- ☐ If BP appears in the instruction operand field, segment register SS is used in address calculation

## Based Indexed with Displacement Addressing

Example 1: assume DS = 0300H, BX=1000H, DI=0010H



Example 2: assume SS = 1100H, BP = 0110H, SI = 000AH, CH = ABH

MOV [BP+SI+0010H], CH



## Instruction Types

- ☐ Data transfer instructions
- String instructions
- ☐ Arithmetic instructions
- ☐ Bit manipulation instructions
- ☐ Loop and jump instructions
- ☐ Subroutine and interrupt instructions
- ☐ Processor control instructions

An excellent website about 80x86 instruction set: <a href="http://www.penguin.cz/~literakl/intel/intel.html">http://www.penguin.cz/~literakl/intel/intel.html</a> Another good reference is in the tutorial of 8086 emulator

## Addressing Modes

Addressing Modes	Examples
☐ Immediate addressing	MOV AL, 12H
☐ Register addressing	MOV AL, BL
☐ Direct addressing	MOV [500H], AL
☐ Register Indirect addressing	MOV DL, [SI]
☐ Based addressing	MOV AX, [BX+4]
☐ Indexed addressing	MOV [DI-8], BL
☐ Based indexed addressing	MOV [BP+SI], AH
☐ Based indexed with displacement addressing	MOV CL, [BX+DI+2]

#### **Exceptions**

- ☐ String addressing
- ☐ Port addressing (e.g. IN AL, 79H)

## Flag Register

☐ Flag register contains information reflecting the current status of a microprocessor. It also contains information which controls the operation of the microprocessor.

15										0	
		OF	DF	IF	TF	SF	ZF	 AF	 PF	 CF	

#### Control Flags

IF: Interrupt enable flag

DF: Direction flag

TF: Trap flag

#### > Status Flags

CF: Carry flag

PF: Parity flag

AF: Auxiliary carry flag

ZF: Zero flag

SF: Sign flag

OF: Overflow flag

# Flags Commonly Tested During the Execution of Instructions

- ☐ There are five flag bits that are commonly tested during the execution of instructions
  - Sign Flag (Bit 7), SF: 0 for positive number and 1 for negative number
  - Zero Flag (Bit 6), ZF: If the ALU output is 0, this bit is set (1); otherwise, it is 0
  - Carry Flag (Bit 0), CF: It contains the carry generated during the execution
  - Auxiliary Carry, AF: Depending on the width of ALU inputs, this flag bit contains the carry generated at bit 3 (or, 7, 15) of the 8088 ALU
  - Parity Flag (bit2), PF: It is set (1) if the output of the ALU has even number of ones; otherwise it is zero

#### **Data Transfer Instructions**

- MOV Destination, Source
  - Move data from source to destination; e.g. MOV [DI+100H], AH
  - It does not modify flags
  - For 80x86 family, directly moving data from one memory location to another memory location is not allowed

### MOV [SI], [5000H]



When the size of data is not clear, assembler directives are used

#### MOV [SI], 0



- BYTE PTR
- WORD PTR
- DWORD PTR

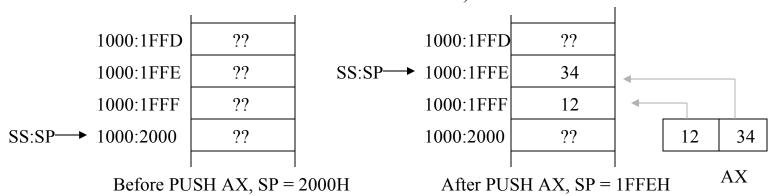
- MOV BYTE PTR [SI], 12H
- MOV WORD PTR [SI], 12H
- MOV DWORD PTR [SI], 12H
- You can not move an immediate data to segment register by MOV

MOV DS, 1234H



## Instructions for Stack Operations

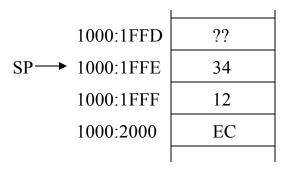
- □ What is a Stack?
  - A stack is a collection of memory locations. It always follows the rule of last-in-firs-out
  - Generally, SS and SP are used to trace where is the latest date written into stack
- □ PUSH Source
  - Push data (word) onto stack
  - It does not modify flags
  - For Example: PUSH AX (assume ax=1234H, SS=1000H, SP=2000H before PUSH AX)



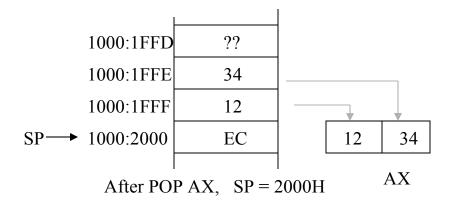
Decrementing the stack pointer during a push is a standard way of implementing stacks in hardware

## Instructions for Stack Operations

- □ PUSHF
  - Push the values of the flag register onto stack
  - It does not modify flags
- **□** POP *Destination* 
  - Pop word off stack
  - It does not modify flags
  - For example: **POP AX**



Before POP, SP = 1FFEH



- ☐ POPF
  - Pop word from the stack to the flag register
  - It modifies all flags

#### **Data Transfer Instructions**

- □ SAHF
  - Store data in AH to the low 8 bits of the flag register
  - It modifies flags: AF, CF, PF, SF, ZF
- LAHF
  - Copies bits 0-7 of the flags register into AH
  - It does not modify flags
- ☐ LDS Destination Source
  - Load 4-byte data (pointer) in memory to two 16-bit registers
  - Source operand gives the memory location
  - The first two bytes are copied to the register specified in the destination operand;
     the second two bytes are copied to register DS
  - It does not modify flags
- ☐ LES Destination Source
  - It is identical to LDS except that the second two bytes are copied to ES
  - It does not modify flags

#### Data Transfer Instructions

- □ LEA Destination Source
  - Transfers the offset address of source (must be a memory location) to the destination register
  - It does not modify flags
- ☐ XCHG Destination Source
  - It exchanges the content of destination and source
  - One operand must be a microprocessor register, the other one can be a register or a memory location
  - It does not modify flags
- $\Box$  XLAT
  - Replace the data in AL with a data in a user defined look-up table
  - BX stores the beginning address of the table
  - At the beginning of the execution, the number in AL is used as the index of the look-up table
  - It does not modify flags

## String Instructions

- ☐ String is a collection of bytes, words, or long-words that can be up to 64KB in length
- String instructions can have at most two operands. One is referred to as source string and the other one is called destination string
  - Source string must locate in Data Segment and SI register points to the current element of the source string
  - Destination string must locate in Extra Segment and DI register points to the current element of the destination string

DO OI					
DS: SI			ES : DI		
0510:0000	53	S	02A8:2000	53	S
0510:0001	48	Н	02A8:2001	48	Н
0510:0002	4F	O	02A8:2002	4F	О
0510:0003	50	P	02A8:2003	50	P
0510:0004	50	P	02A8:2004	50	P
0510:0005	45	E	02A8:2005	49	I
0510:0006	52	R	02A8:2006	4E	N
Sc	ource String	g	Desi	tination St	l ring

## Repeat Prefix Instructions

- ☐ REP String Instruction
  - The prefix instruction makes the microprocessor repeatedly execute the string instruction until CX decrements to 0 (During the execution, CX is decreased by one when the string instruction is executed one time).
  - For Example:

#### MOV CX, 5 REP MOVSB

By the above two instructions, the microprocessor will execute MOVSB 5 times.

— Execution flow of REP MOVSB::

```
While (CX!=0) Check\_CX: If CX!=0 Then CX = CX-1; CX = CX-1; MOVSB; goto\ Check\_CX; end\ if
```

## Repeat Prefix Instructions

- □ REPZ String Instruction
  - Repeat the execution of the string instruction until CX=0 or zero flag is clear
- ☐ REPNZ String Instruction
  - Repeat the execution of the string instruction until CX=0 or zero flag is set
- ☐ REPE String Instruction
  - Repeat the execution of the string instruction until CX=0 or zero flag is clear
- □ REPNE String Instruction
  - Repeat the execution of the string instruction until CX=0 or zero flag is set

## Direction Flag

- Direction Flag (DF) is used to control the way SI and DI are adjusted during the execution of a string instruction
  - DF=0, SI and DI will auto-increment during the execution; otherwise, SI and DI auto-decrement
  - Instruction to set DF: **STD**; Instruction to clear DF: **CLD**
  - Example:

CLD	DS : SI			
MOV CX, 5	0510:0000	53	S <b>←</b>	SI CKS
REP MOVSB	0510:0001	48	Н ←	SI C×4
	0510:0002	4F	0 ←	- SI 🚙
	0510:0003	50	P ←	SI CK2
At the beginning of execution,	0510:0004	50	P ←	SI CH
DS=0510H and SI=0000H	0510:0005	45	E <b>←</b>	SI CKO
	0510:0006	52	R	Cto
	So	ource Strin	 g	

## **String Instructions**

- ☐ MOVSB (MOVSW)
  - Move byte (word) at memory location DS:SI to memory location ES:DI and update SI and DI according to DF and the width of the data being transferred
  - It does not modify flags
  - —Example:

	DS: SI			ES: DI		
MOV AX, 0510H	0510:0000	53	S	0300:0100		
MOV DS, AX	0510:0001	48	Н			
MOV AV 0200H	0510:0002	4F	O			
MOV AX, 0300H MOV ES, AX	0510:0003	50	P			
MOV DI, 100H	0510:0005	50	P			
CLD	0510:0005	45	Е			
MOV CX, 5	0510:0006	52	R			
REP MOVSB				7		
	Sc	ource Strin	g	Des	tination Strii	ng

## **String Instructions**

- ☐ CMPSB (CMPSW)
  - Compare bytes (words) at memory locations DS:SI and ES:DI; update SI and DI according to DF and the width of the data being compared
  - It modifies flags
  - —Example:

Assume:	ES = 02A8H	DS : SI		1			1
	DI = 2000H DS = 0510H	0510:0000	53	S	ES : DI 02A8:2000	53	S
	SI = 0000H	0510:0001	48	Н	02A8:2001	48	Н
CLD		0510:0002	4F	О	02A8:2002	4F	О
		0510:0003	50	P	02A8:2003	50	P
MOV	,	0510:0004	50	P	02A8:2004	50	P
	CMPSB	0510:0005	45	Е	02A8:2005	49	I
		0510:0006	52	R	02A8:2006	4E	N
What's the values of CX after The execution?		Sc	ource Strin	l g		tination St	ring

# String Instructions

- □ SCASB (SCASW)
  - Move byte (word) in AL (AX) and at memory location ES:DI; update DI according to DF and the width of the data being compared
  - It modifies flags
- □ LODSB (LODSW)
  - Load byte (word) at memory location DS:SI to AL (AX); update SI according to DF and the width of the data being transferred
  - It does not modify flags
- ☐ STOSB (STOSW)
  - Store byte (word) at in AL (AX) to memory location ES:DI; update DI according to DF and the width of the data being transferred
  - It does not modify flags

- □ ADD Destination, Source
  - Destination + Source → Destination
  - Destination and Source operands can not be memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF
- ADC Destination, Source
  - Destination + Source + Carry Flag → Destination
  - Destination and Source operands can not be memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF
- ☐ INC Destination
  - Destination  $+1 \rightarrow$  Destination
  - It modifies flags AF OF PF SF ZF (Note CF will not be changed)
- DEC Destination
  - Destination  $1 \rightarrow$  Destination
  - It modifies flags AF OF PF SF ZF (Note CF will not be changed)

- □ SUB *Destination*, *Source* 
  - Destination Source → Destination
  - Destination and Source operands can not be memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF
- □ SBB *Destination, Source* 
  - Destination Source Carry Flag → Destination
  - Destination and Source operands can not be memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF
- □ CMP Destination, Source
  - Destination Source (the result is not stored anywhere)
  - Destination and Source operands can not be memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF (if **ZF** is set, destination = source)

- □ MUL Source
  - Perform unsigned multiply operation
  - If source operand is a byte, AX = AL \* Source
  - If source operand is a word, (DX AX) = AX \* Source
  - Source operands can not be an immediate data
  - It modifies CF and OF (AF,PF,SF,ZF undefined)
- ☐ IMUL Source
  - Perform signed binary multiply operation
  - If source operand is a byte, AX = AL \* Source
  - If source operand is a word, (DX AX) = AX \* Source
  - Source operands can not be an immediate data
  - It modifies CF and OF (AF,PF,SF,ZF undefined)
  - Examples:

MOV AL, 20H	MOV AL, 20H
MOV CL, 80H	MOV CL, 80H
MUL CL	IMUL CL

- □ DIV Source
  - Perform unsigned division operation
  - If source operand is a byte, AL = AX / Source; AH = Remainder of AX / Source
  - If source operand is a word, AX=(DX AX)/Source; DX=Remainder of (DX AX)/Source
  - Source operands can not be an immediate data
- □ IDIV Source
  - Perform signed division operation
  - If source operand is a byte, AL = AX / Source; AH = Remainder of AX / Source
  - If source operand is a word, AX=(DX AX)/Source; DX=Remainder of (DX AX)/Source
  - Source operands can not be an immediate data
- Examples:

MOV AX, 5	MOV AL, -5
MOV BL, 2	MOV BL, 2
DIV BL	IDIV BL

- □ NEG Destination
  - 0 Destination  $\rightarrow$  Destination (the result is represented in 2's complement)
  - Destination can be a register or a memory location
  - It modifies flags AF CF OF PF SF ZF
- ☐ CBW
  - Extends a signed 8-bit number in AL to a signed 16-bit data and stores it into AX
  - It does not modify flags
- $\Box$  CWD
  - Extends a signed 16-bit number in AX to a signed 32-bit data and stores it into DX and AX. DX contains the most significant word
  - It does not modify flags
- Other arithmetic instructions:

DAA, DAS, AAA, AAS, AAM, AAD

# Logical Instructions

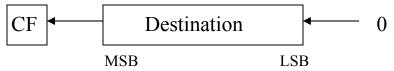
- □ NOT Destination
  - Inverts each bit of the destination operand
  - Destination can be a register or a memory location
  - It does not modify flags
- □ AND Destination, Source
  - Performs logic AND operation for each bit of the destination and source; stores the result into destination
  - Destination and source can not be both memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF
- □ OR Destination, Source
  - Performs logic OR operation for each bit of the destination and source; stores the result into destination
  - Destination and source can not be both memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF

# Logical Instructions

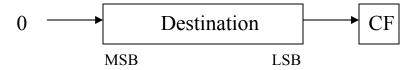
- □ XOR Destination, Source
  - Performs logic XOR operation for each bit of the destination and source; stores the result into destination
  - Destination and source can not be both memory locations at the same time
  - It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF

- ☐ TEST Destination, Source
  - Performs logic AND operation for each bit of the destination and source
  - Updates Flags depending on the result of AND operation
  - Do not store the result of AND operation anywhere

- ☐ SHL(SAL) *Destination, Count* 
  - Left shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
  - During the shift operation, the MSB of the destination is shifted into CF and zero is shifted into the LSB of the destination
  - Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
  - Destination can be a register or a memory location
  - It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF

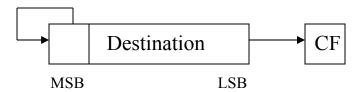


- ☐ SHR *Destination, Count* 
  - Right shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
  - During the shift operation, the LSB of the destination is shifted into CF and zero is shifted into the MSB of the destination
  - Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
  - Destination can be a register or a memory location
  - It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF



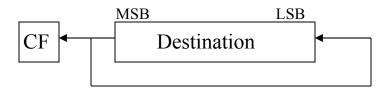
#### □ SAR Destination, Count

- Right shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
- The LSB of the destination is shifted into CF and the MSB of the destination remians the same
- Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
- Destination can be a register or a memory location
- It modifies flags: CF PF SF ZF



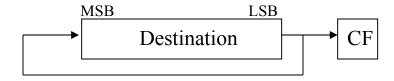
## □ ROL *Destination*, Count

- Left shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
- The MSB of the destination is shifted into CF, it also goes to the LSB of the destination
- Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
- Destination can be a register or a memory location
- It modifies flags: CF OF



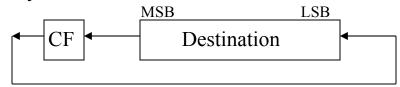
#### □ ROR *Destination*, Count

- Right shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
- The LSB of the destination is shifted into CF, it also goes to the MSB of the destination
- Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
- Destination can be a register or a memory location
- It modifies flags: CF OF



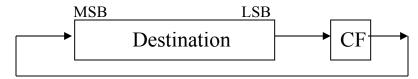
### □ RCL *Destination*, Count

- Left shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
- The MSB of the destination is shifted into CF; the old CF value goes to the LSB of the destination
- Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
- Destination can be a register or a memory location
- It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF



#### ☐ RCR Destination, Count

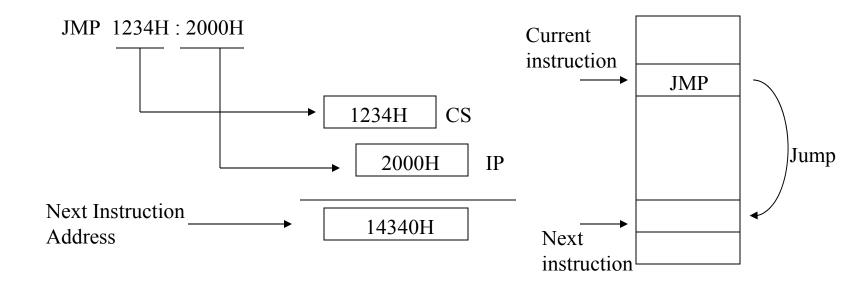
- Right shift destination bits; the number of bits shifted is given by operand Count
- The LSB of the destination is shifted into CF, the old CF value goes to the MSB of the destination
- Operand Count can be either an immediate data or register CL
- Destination can be a register or a memory location
- It modifies flags: CF OF PF SF ZF



## ☐ JMP Target

- Unconditional jump
- It moves microprocessor to execute another part of the program
- Target can be represented by a label, immediate data, registers, or memory locations
- It does not affect flags

#### The execution of JMP instruction



## ➤ Intrasegment transfer *v.s.* Intersegment transfer

- Intrasegment transfer: the microprocessor jumps to an address within the same segment
- Intersegment transfer: the microprocessor jumps to an address in a difference segment
- Use assembler directive **near** and **far** to indicate the types of JMP instructions
- For intrasegment transfer, we can provide only new IP value in JMP instructions. For Example: JMP 1000H
- For intersegment transfer, we need provide both new CS and IP values in JMP instructions For Example: JMP 2000H: 1000H

## Direct Jump v.s. Indirect Jump

- Direct Jump: the target address is directly given in the instruction
- Indirect Jump: the target address is contained in a register or memory location

## ➤ Short Jump

- If the target address is within +127 or −128 bytes of the current instruction address, the jump is called a short jump
- For short jumps, instead of specifying the target address, we can specify the relative offset (the distance between the current address and the target address) in JMP instructions.

## Conditional Jumps

- JZ: *Label\_1* 
  - If ZF =1, jump to the target address labeled by *Label 1*; otherwise, do not jump
- JNZ: Label 1
  - If ZF =0, jump to the target address labeled by *Label 1*; otherwise, do not jump

## ➤ Other Conditional Jumps

JNC	JAE	JNB	JC	JB	JNAE	JNG
JNE	JE	JNS	JS	JNO	JO	JNP
JPO	JP	JPE	JA	<b>JBNE</b>	JBE	JNA
JGE	JNL	$\operatorname{JL}$	JNGE	JG	JNLE	JLE

- JCXZ: Label 1
  - If CX =0, jump to the target address labeled by *Label\_1*; otherwise, do not jump

- □ LOOP Short\_Label
  - It is limited for short jump
  - Execution Flow:

$$CX = CX - I$$
If  $CX != 0$  Then
$$JMP Short\_Label$$
End  $IF$ 

□ LOOPE/LOOPZ Short\_Label

$$CX = CX - 1$$
If  $CX != 0 & ZF = 1$  Then
$$JMP \ Short\_Label$$
End  $IF$ 

□ LOOPNE/LOOPNZ *Short\_Label* 

$$CX = CX - 1$$
If  $CX != 0 & ZF = 0$  Then
$$JMP Short\_Label$$
End IF

## **Processor Control Instructions**

☐ CLC Clear carry flag

□ STC Set carry flag

☐ CMC Complement carry flag

☐ CLD Clear direction flag

□ STD Set direction flag

☐ CLI Clear interrupt-enable flag

□ STI Set interrupt-enable flag

☐ HLT Halt microprocessor operation

□ NOP *No operation* 

□ LOCK Lock Bus During Next Instruction

## Subroutine Instructions

A subroutine is a collection of instructions that can be called from one or more other locations within a program

```
□ CALL Procedure-Name
```

```
Example
MOV AL, 1
CALL M1
MOV BL, 3
MOV AL, 1
MOV CL, 2
MOV CL, 2
MOV BL, 3
```

- Intersegment CALL: the subroutine is located in a different code segment
- Intrasegment CALL: the subroutine is located in the same code segment
- Use assembler directives far and near to distinguish intersegment and intrasegment CALL

## Subroutine Instructions

- ➤ What does the microprocessor do when it encounters a CALL instruction?
  - 1. Push the values of CS and IP (which specify the address of the instruction immediately following the CALL instruction) into stack. If it is a intrasegment CALL, just push the value of IP into stack.
  - 2. Load the new values to CS and IP such that the next instruction that the microprocessor will fetch is the first instruction of the subroutine

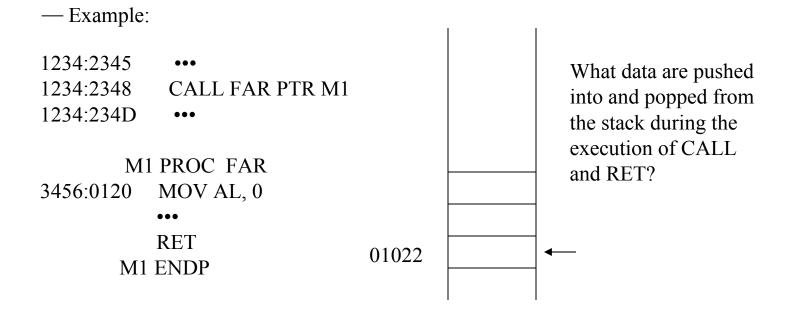
#### — Example:

0000 0000 B0 02 0002 E8 0002	.model small .code MOV AL, 2 CALL m1	Stack before CALL	What are in the stack after the execution of CALL?  How about if the
0005 B3 03 0007	MOV BL, 3 m1 Proc		CALL is an intersegment CALL?
0007 B7 05 0009 C3 000A	MOV BH, 5 RET m1 ENDP end	12345H 11 ←	

## Subroutine Instructions

#### □ RET

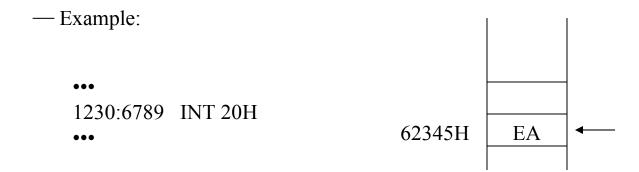
- It lets the microprocessor exit from a subroutine
- If it is used in a FAR procedure, RET pops two words from the stack. The first one goes to IP register. The second one goes to CS register
- If it is used in a NEAR procedure, RET pops one word from stack to IP register



# **Interrupt Instructions**

## lue INT Interrupt-Type

- This instruction causes the microprocessor to execute an interrupt service routine. The *Interrupt-Type* is an immediate data (0-255) which specifies the type of interrupt
- It results in the following operations:
  - 1. Push flag register into stack
  - 2. Clear trace flag and interrupt-enable flag
  - 3. Push CS and IP into stack
  - 4. Load new CS and IP values from the interrupt vector table

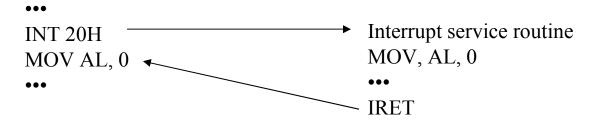


After the execution of INT 20H, what are the data pushed into the stack?

## Interrupt Instructions

#### □ IRET

— It is used at the end of an interrupt service routine to make the microprocessor jump back to the instruction that immediately follows the INT instruction



- It results in the following operations
  - 1. Restore the original CS and IP values by popping them from stack
  - 2. Restore the original flag register value by popping it from stack

# Hardware and Software Interrupts

- An interrupt is an event that causes the processor to stop its current program execution and switch to performing an interrupt service routine.
- ☐ Hardware and Software Interrupts
  - Hardware Interrupts are caused by proper inputs at NMI or INTR input pin
  - Software Interrupts are caused by executing programs
- ☐ Interrupt Priority
  - When multiple interrupts occur at the same time, the interrupt with the highest priority will be served
- ☐ Interrupt Type
  - Interrupt type is used as the table index to search the address of interrupt service routine from the interrupt vector table

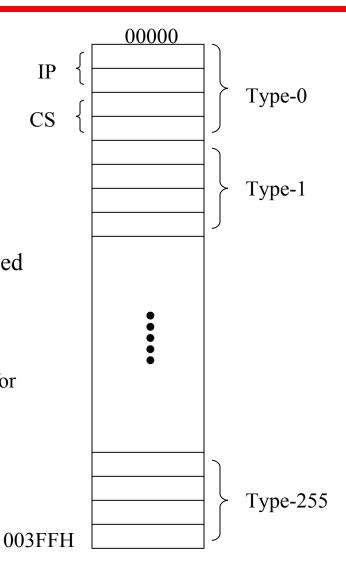
# Interrupt Vector Table

IP

CS

- ☐ Interrupt vector table is used to store the addresses of interrupt service routine
- ☐ Interrupt vector table contains 256 table entries. Each table entry takes 4 bytes; two bytes are for IP values and two bytes are for CS values
- Interrupt vector table locates at the reserved memory space from 00000H to 003FFH
  - Example:

Assume that the interrupt service routine for the type-40 interrupt is located at address 28000H. How do you write this address to the vector table?



# Interrupt Processing Sequence

- 1. Get Vector Number (get the interrupt type)
  - Caused by NMI, it is type 2
  - Caused by INTR, the type number will be fed to the processor through data bus
  - Caused by executing INT instructions, the type number is given by the operand
  - -- •••
- 2. Save Processor Information
  - 1. Push flag register into stack
  - 2. Clear trace flag and interrupt-enable flag
  - 3. Push CS and IP into stack
- 3. Fetch New Instruction Pointer
  - Load new CS and IP values from the instruction vector table
- 4. Execute interrupt service routine
- 5. Return from interrupt service routine
  - 1. Pop flag register from stack
  - 2. Pop CS and IP from stack

# Interrupt Service Routine

- ☐ An Interrupt Service Routine (ISR) is a section code that take care of processing a specific interrupt
- ☐ Some ISRs also contain instructions that save and restore restore general purpose registers

#### — Example:

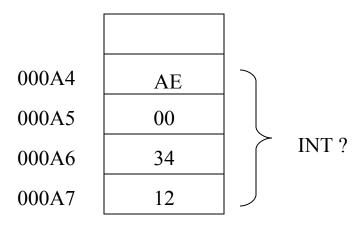
1234:00AE PUSH AX PUSH DX

MOV AX, 5 MUL BL MOV [DI], AX MOV [DI+2], DX

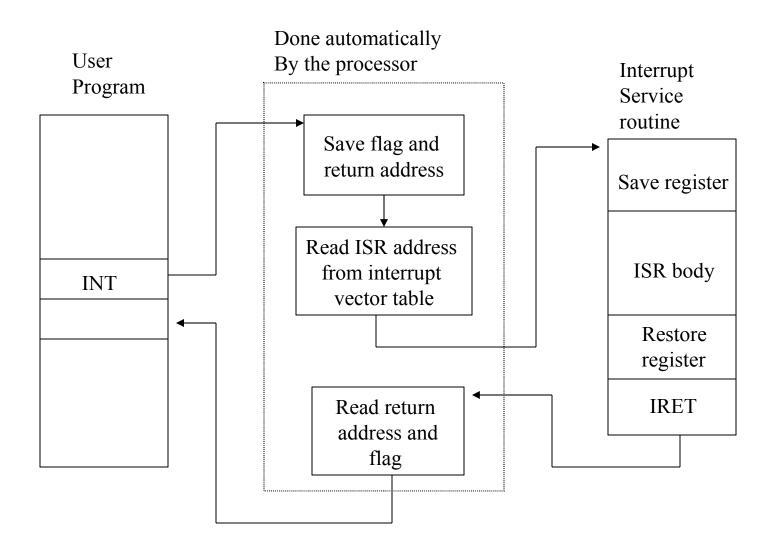
POP DX POP AX

**IRET** 

Interrupt Vector Table



# Storing Environment During Interrupt Processing

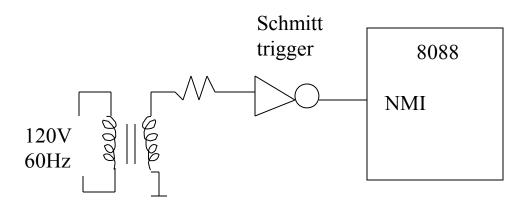


# Special Interrupts

☐ Divide-Error — Type-0 interrupt. It has the highest interrupt priority ☐ Single-Step — Type-1 interrupt. It is generated after each instruction if the trace flag is set □ NMI — Type-2 interrupt ☐ Breakpoint — Type-3 interrupt. It is used for debug purposes □ Overflow — Type-4 interrupt. It is generated by INTO when the overflow flag is set

# Interrupt Example

#### ☐ An NMI Time Clock



Instructions for updateInterrupt Vector Table

— ISR

NMITIME: DEC COUNT

JNZ EXIT

MOV COUNT, 60

CALL FAR PTR ONESEC

EXIT: IRET

MOV COUNT, 60

**PUSH DS** 

SUB AX, AX

MOV DS, AX

LEA AX, NMITIME

MOV [8], AX

MOV AX, CS

MOV [0AH], AX

POP DS

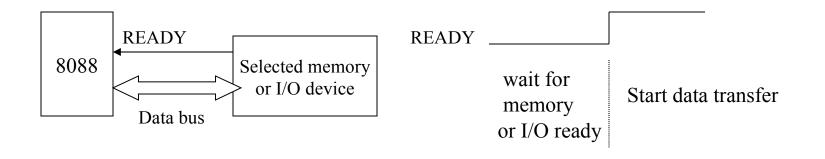
# Hardware Interface

# 8088 Pin Configuration

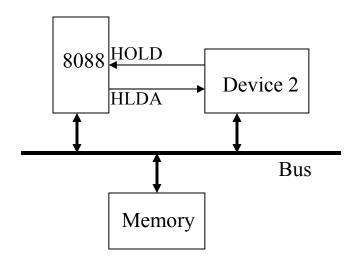
			7		
GND	 1	40		VCC	
A14	 2	39		A15	
A13	 3	38		A16 / S3	
A12	 4	37		A17 / S4	
A11	 5	36		A18 / S5	
A10	 6	35		A19 / S6	
A9	 7	34		$SS_0$	(High)
A8	 8	33		$MN / \overline{MX}$	<u></u>
AD7	 9	32		$\overline{\text{RD}}$	
AD6	 10	31		HOLD	$(\overline{RQ} / \overline{GT_0})$
AD5	 11	30		HLDA	$(\overline{RQ} / \overline{GT}_1)$
AD4	 12	29		$\overline{WR}$	$(\overline{LOCK})$
AD3	 13	28		$IO / \overline{M}$	$(\overline{S}_2)$
AD2	 14	27		$DT / \overline{R}$	$(\overline{\mathbf{S}}_1)$
AD1	 15	26		DEN	$(\overline{S_0})$
AD0	 16	25		ALE	$(QS_0)$
NMI	 17	24		<b>INTA</b>	$(QS_1)$
INTR	 18	23		TEST	
CLK	 19	22		READY	
GND	 20	21		RESET	

Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
GND:	1 & 20		Both need to be connected to ground
VCC:	21		VCC = 5V
CLK:	19	Input	33% duty cycle
MN/MX:	33	Input	High → Minimum mode Low → Maximum mode
RESET:	21	Input	Reset 8088
			<ul> <li>Duration of logic high must be greater than 4*T</li> <li>After reset, 8088 fetches instructions starting from memory address FFFF0H</li> </ul>

Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
READY	22	Input	Informs the processor that the selected memory or I/O device is ready for a data transfer



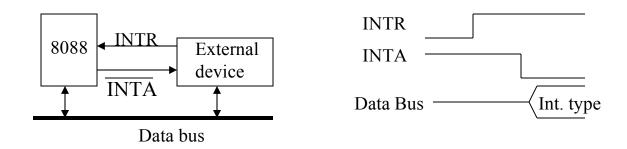
Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
HOLD	31	Input	The execution of the processor is suspended as long as HOLD is high
HLDA	30	Output	Acknowledges that the processor is suspended



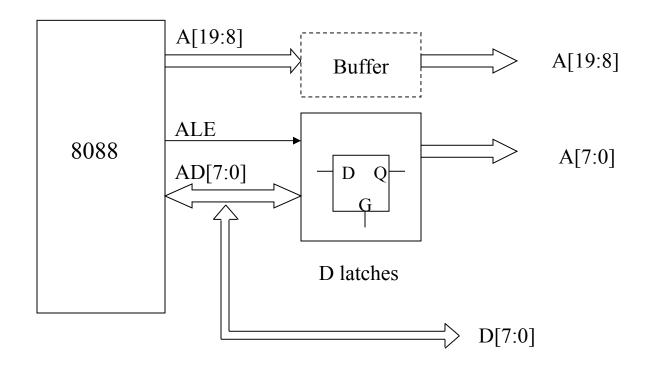
- ➤ Procedure for Device 2 to use bus
  - Drive the HOLD signal of 8088 high
  - Wait for the HLDA signal of 8088 becoming high
  - Now, Device2 can send data to bus

Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
NMI	17	Input	Causes a non-maskable type-2 interrupt
INTR	18	Input	Indicates a maskable interrupt request
INTA	24	Output	Indicates that the processor has received an INTR request and is beginning interrupt processing

- > NMI (non-maskable interrupt): a rising edge on NMI causes a type-2 interrupt
- ➤ INTR: logic high on INTR poses an interrupt request. However, this request can be masked by IF (Interrupt enable Flag). The type of interrupt caused by INTR is read from data bus
- ightharpoonup TNTA: control when the interrupt type should be loaded onto the data bus

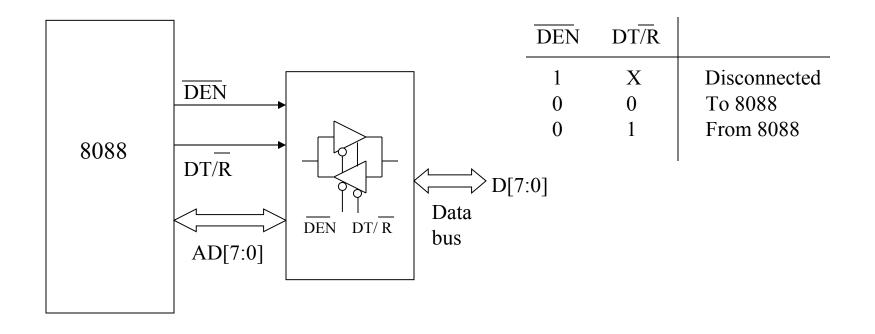


Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
ALE	25	Output	Indicates the current data on 8088 address/data bus are address



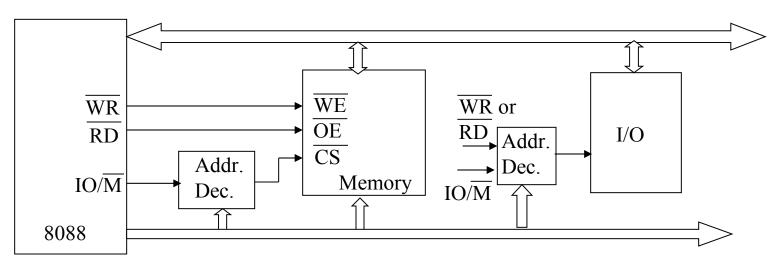
## 8088 Pin Description

Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
DEN	26	Output	Disconnects data bus connection
$DT / \overline{R}$	27	Output	Indicates the direction of data transfer



## 8088 Pin Description

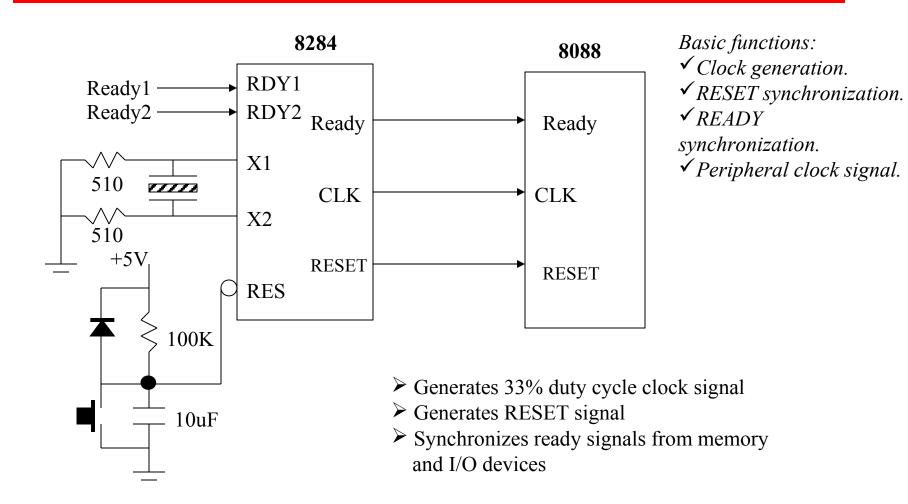
Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
WR	29	Output	Indicates that the processor is writing to memory or I/O devices
RD	32	Output	Indicates that the processor is reading from memory or I/O devices
IO/ M	28	Output	Indicates that the processor is accessing whether memory (IO/ $\overline{M}$ =0) or I/O devices (IO/ $\overline{M}$ =1)



# 8088 Pin Description

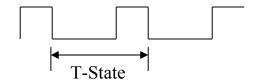
Pin Name	Pin Number	Direction	Description
AD[7:0] A[19:8]	9-16 2-8, 35-39	I/O Input	Address / Data bus Address bus
LOCK	29	Input	Lock output is used to lock peripherals off the system. Activated by using the LOCK: prefix on any instruction.

#### 8284 Clock Generator

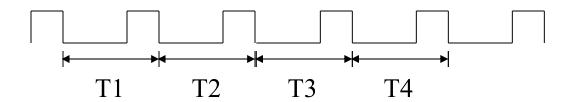


## System Timing Diagrams

- ☐ T-State:
  - One clock period is referred to as a T-State

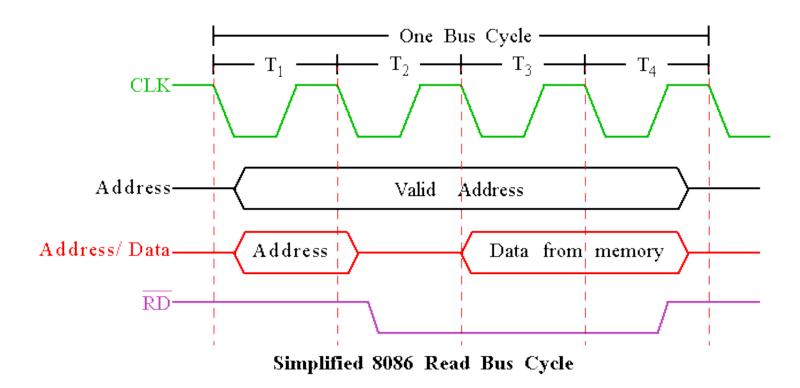


- An operation takes an integer number of T-States
- ☐ CPU Bus Cycle:
  - A bus cycle consists of 4 or more T-States

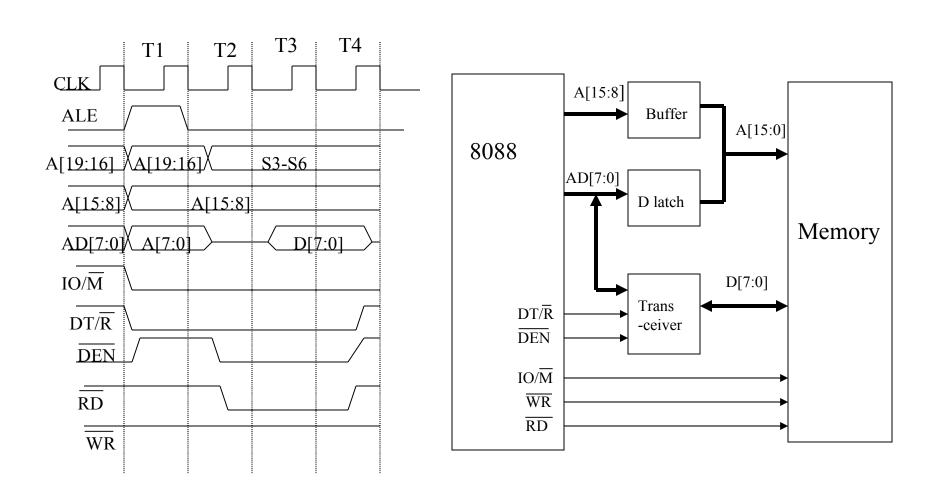


# Memory Read Timing Diagrams

- Dump address on address bus.
- Issue a read (RD) and set M/IO to 1.
- Wait for memory access cycle.

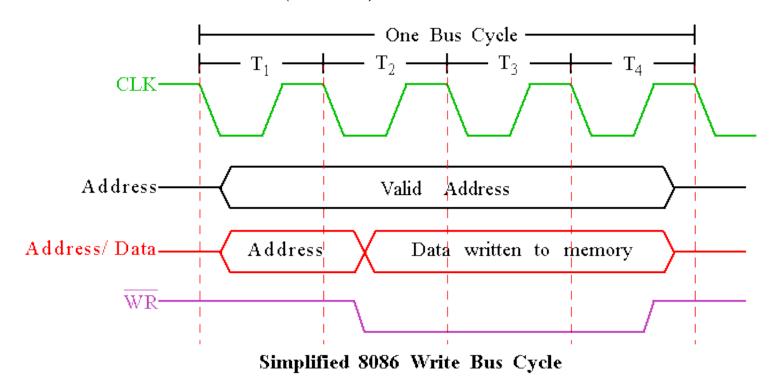


## Memory Read Timing Diagrams

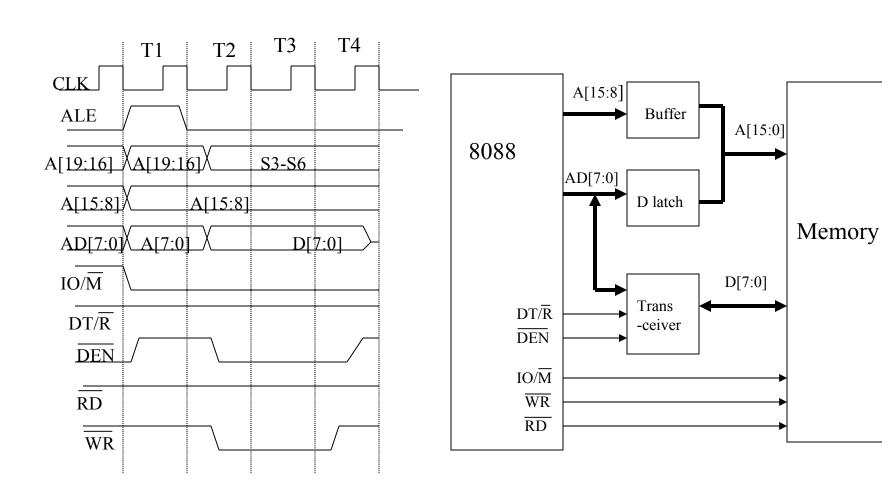


#### Memory Write Timing Diagrams

- Dump address on address bus.
- Dump data on data bus.
- *Issue a write (WR) and set M/IO to 1.*



## Memory Write Timing Diagrams



# Bus Timing

#### **During T1:**

- The address is placed on the Address/Data bus.
- Control signals M/IO, ALE and DT/R specify memory or I/O, latch the address onto the address bus and set the direction of data transfer on data bus.

#### **During T 2:**

- 8086 issues the RD or WR signal, DEN, and, for a write, the data.
  - DEN enables the memory or I/O device to receive the data for writes and the 8086 to receive the data for reads.

#### **During T 3:**

- This cycle is provided to allow memory to access data.
- READY is sampled at the end of T 2.
  - If low, T3 becomes a wait state.
  - Otherwise, the data bus is sampled at the end of T3.

#### **During T 4:**

- All bus signals are deactivated, in preparation for next bus cycle.
- Data is sampled for reads, writes occur for writes.

# **Bus Timing**

#### **Timing:**

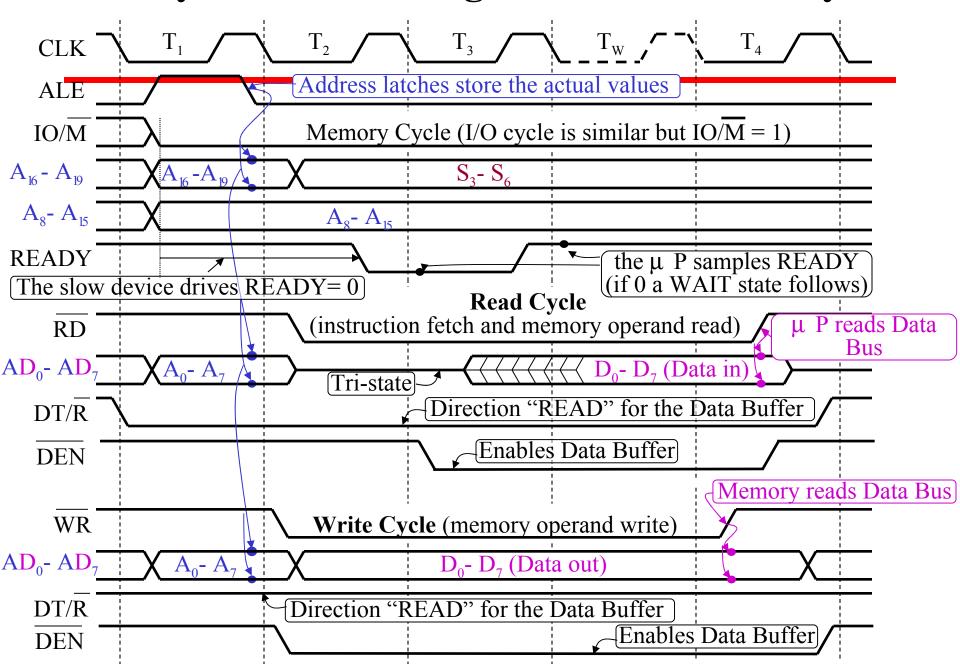
- Each BUS CYCLE on the 8086 equals **four** system clocking periods (T states).
- The clock rate is **5MHz**, therefore one Bus Cycle is 800ns.
- The transfer rate is **1.25MHz**.

Memory specs (memory access time) must match constraints of system timing.

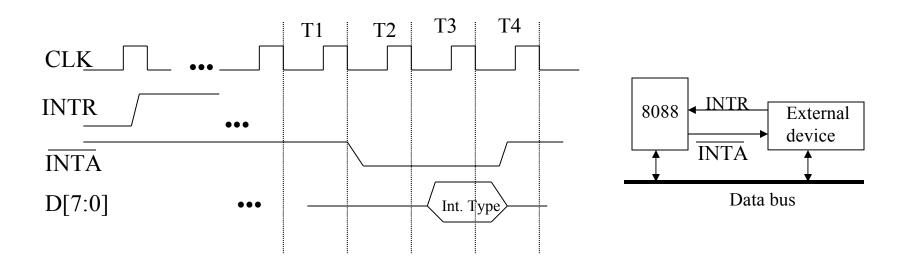
For example, bus timing for a read operation shows almost 600ns are needed to read data.

- However, memory must access faster due to setup times, e.g. Address setup and data setup.
- This subtracts off about 150ns.
- Therefore, memory must access in at least 450ns minus another 30-40ns guard band for buffers and decoders.
- 420ns DRAM required for the 8086.

## 10.6 System Time Diagrams - CPU Bus Cycle

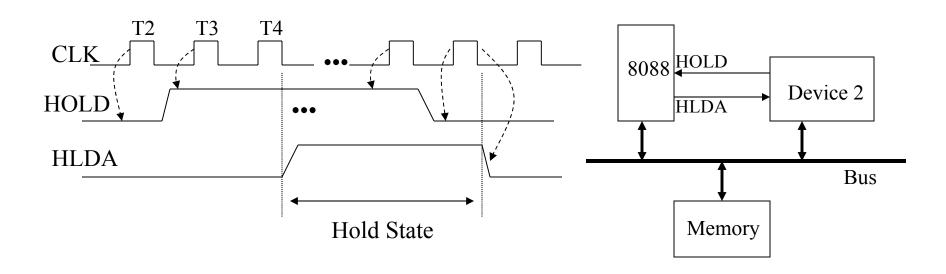


#### Interrupt Acknowledge Timing Diagrams



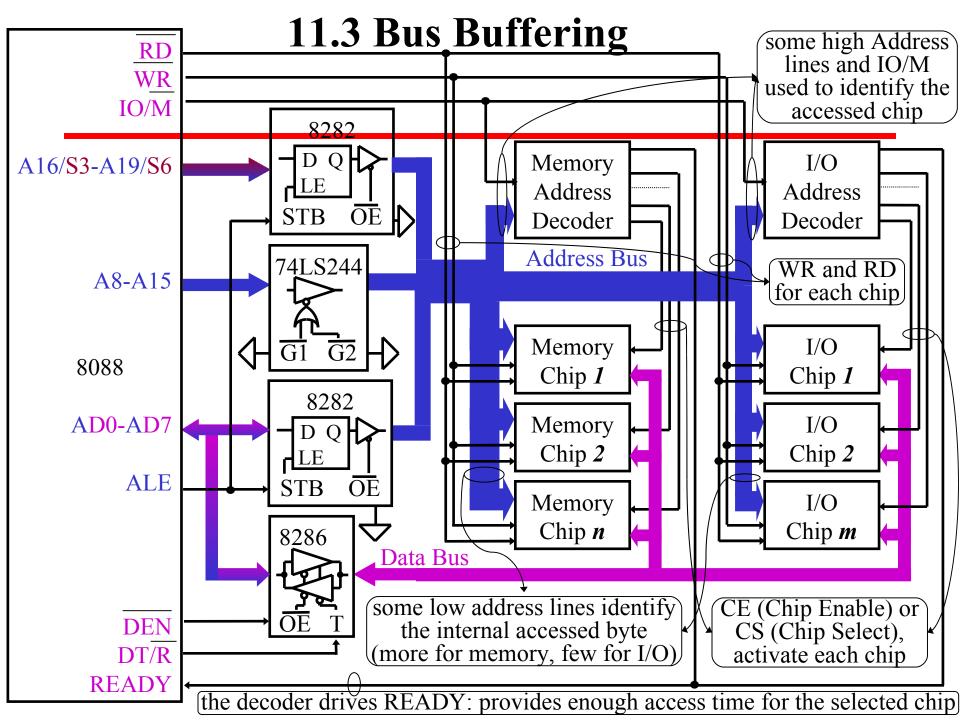
- ☐ It takes one bus cycle to perform an interrupt acknowledge
- ☐ During T1, the process tri-states the address bus
- ☐ During T2, INTA is pulled low and remains low until it becomes inactive in T4
- ☐ The interrupting devices places an 8-bit interrupt type during INTA is active

#### **HOLD/HLDA** Timing Diagrams



- ☐ The processor will examine HOLD signal at every rising clock edge
- ☐ If HOLD=1, the processor will pull HLDA high at the end of T4 state (end of the execution of the current instruction) and suspend its normal operation
- ☐ If HOLD=0, the processor will pull down HLDA at the falling clock edge and resume its normal operation

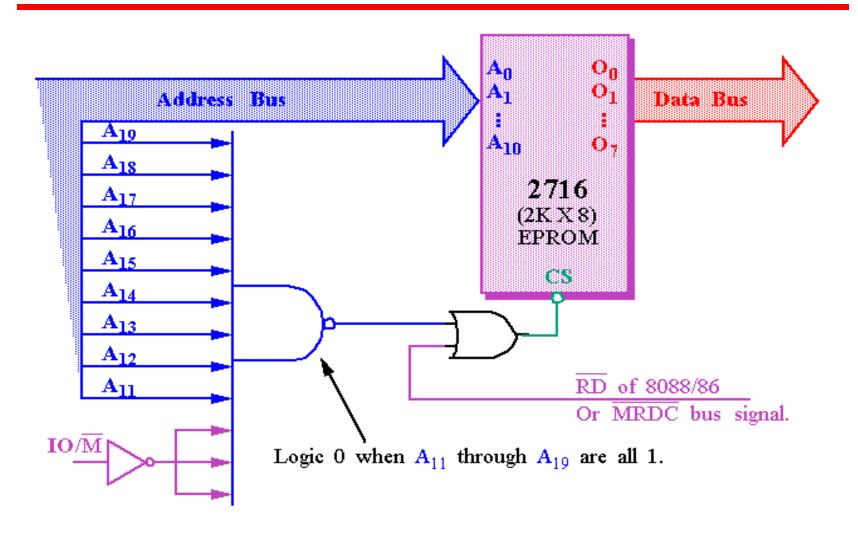
# Memory Interface

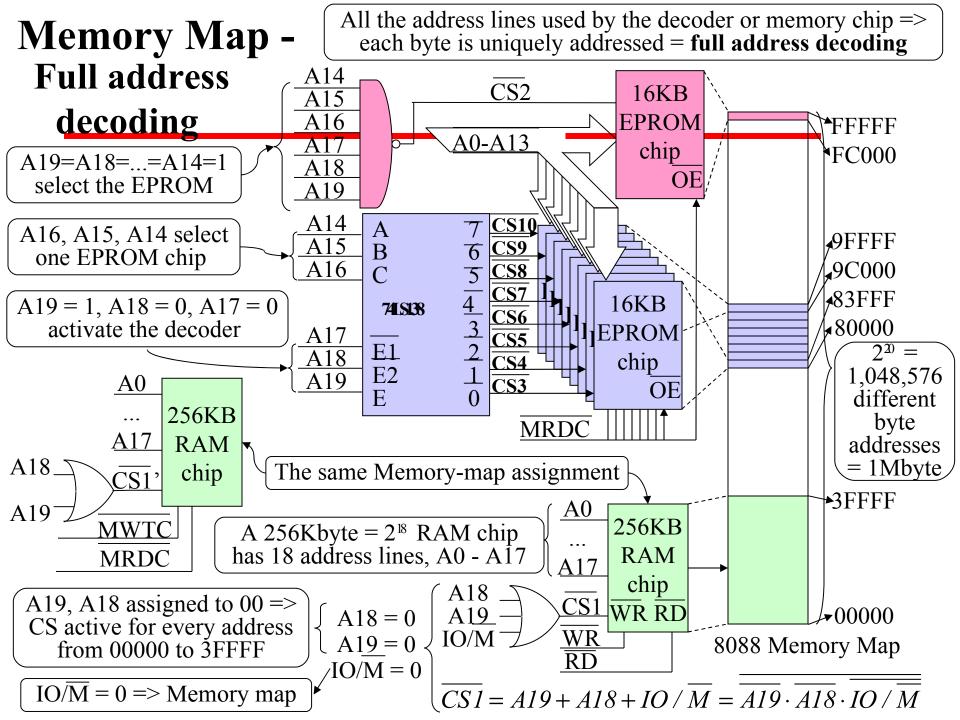


# **Memory Chips**

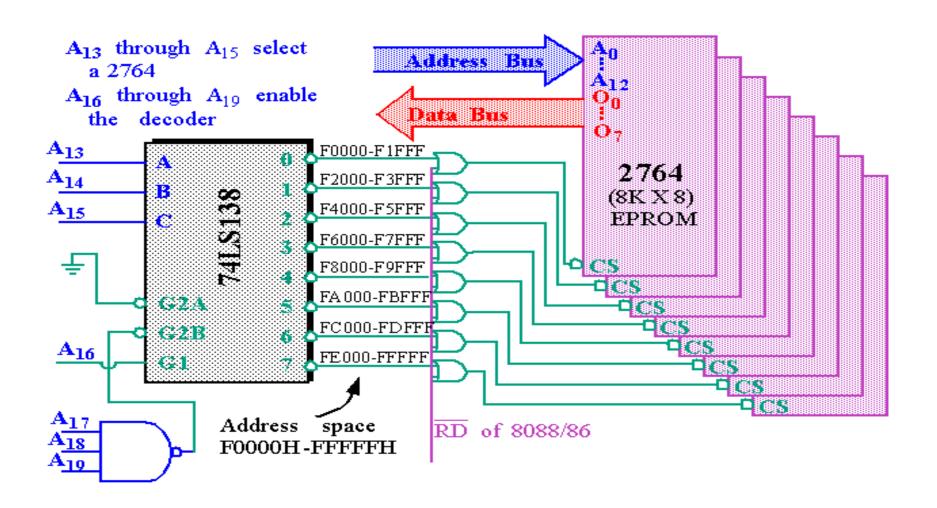
- The number of address pins is related to the number of memory locations.
  - Common sizes today are **1K** to **256M** locations. (10 and 28 address pins are present.)
- The data pins are typically bi-directional in read-write memories.
  - The number of data pins is related to the size of the memory location.
  - For example, an 8-bit wide (byte-wide) memory device has **8** data pins.
  - Catalog listing of 1K X 8 indicate a byte addressable 8K memory.
- Each memory device has at least one chip select (CS) or chip enable (CE) or select (S) pin that enables the memory device.
- Each memory device has at least one control pin.
  - For ROMs, an output enable (OE) or gate (G) is present.
    - The OE pin enables and disables a set of tristate buffers.
  - For RAMs, a read-write (R/W) or write enable (WE) and read enable (OE) are present.
    - For dual control pin devices, it must be hold true that both are not 0 at the same time.

- The processor can usually address a memory space that is much larger than the memory space covered by an individual memory chip.
- In order to splice a memory device into the address space of the processor, decoding is necessary.
- For example, the 8088 issues 20-bit addresses for a total of 1MB of memory address space.
- However, the BIOS on a 2716 EPROM has only 2KB of memory and 11 address pins.
- A decoder can be used to decode the additional 9 address pins and allow the EPROM to be placed in any 2KB section of the 1MB address space.

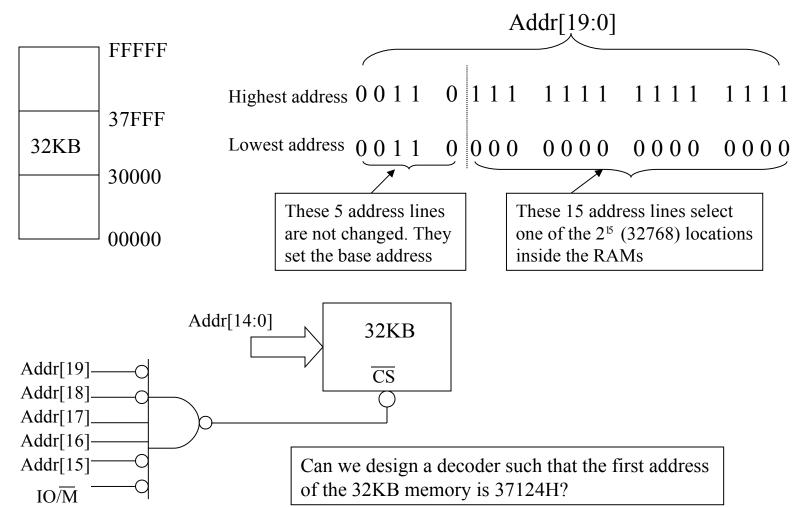




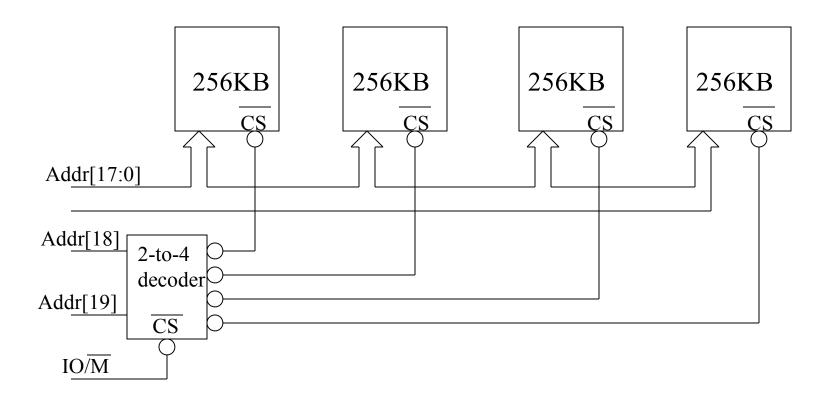
# **Decoding Circuits**



☐ Using Full memory addressing space

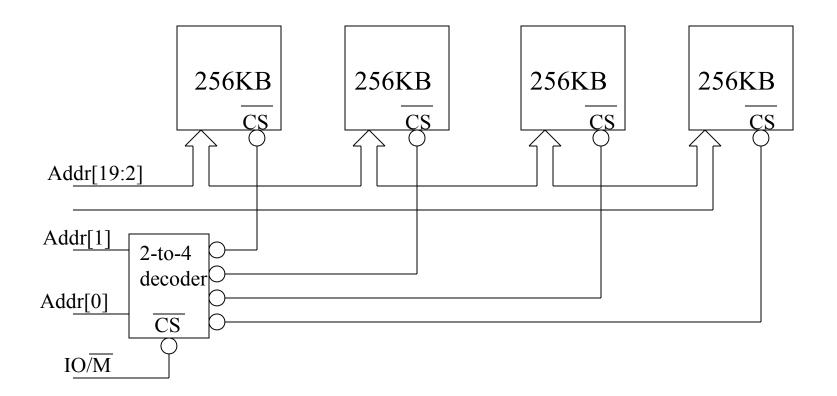


□ Design a 1MB memory system consisting of multiple memory chips — *Solution 1:* 

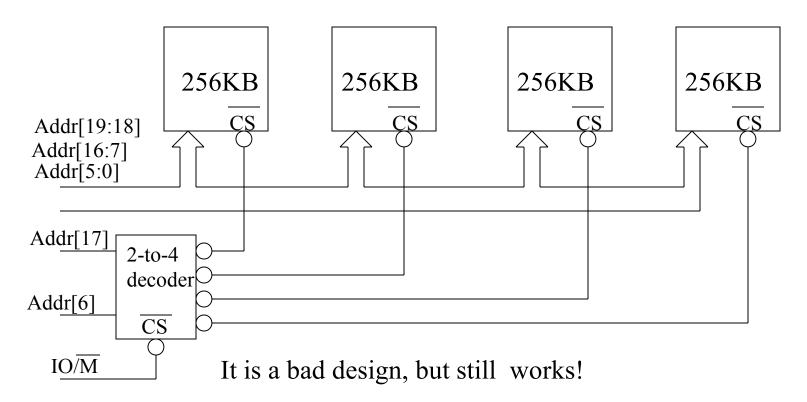


☐ Design a 1MB memory system consisting of multiple memory chips

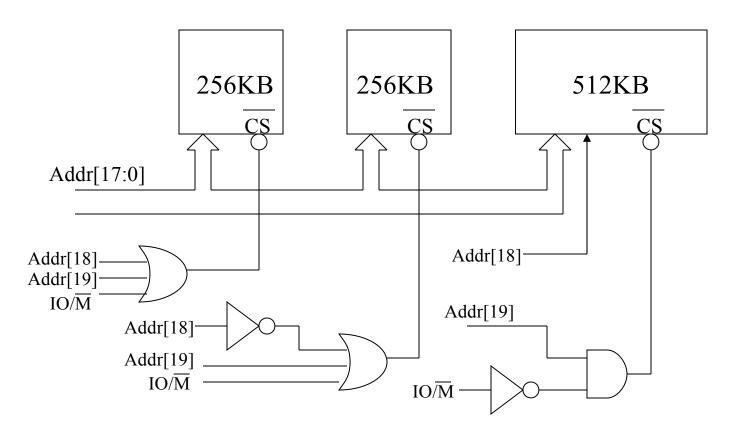
#### — Solution 2:



□ Design a 1MB memory system consisting of multiple memory chips — *Solution 3:* 

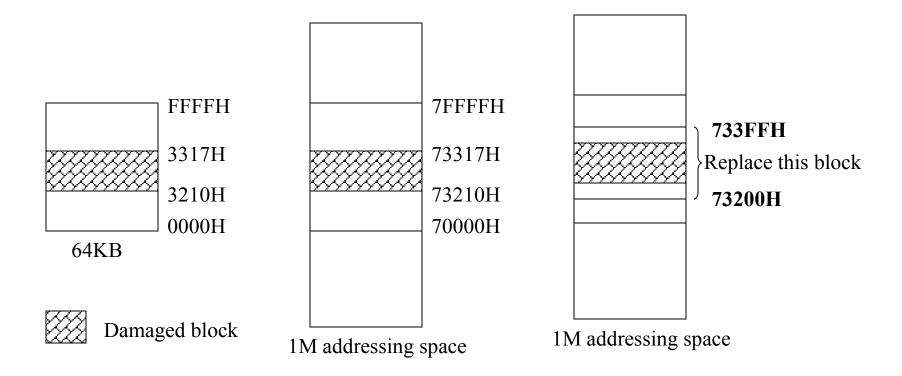


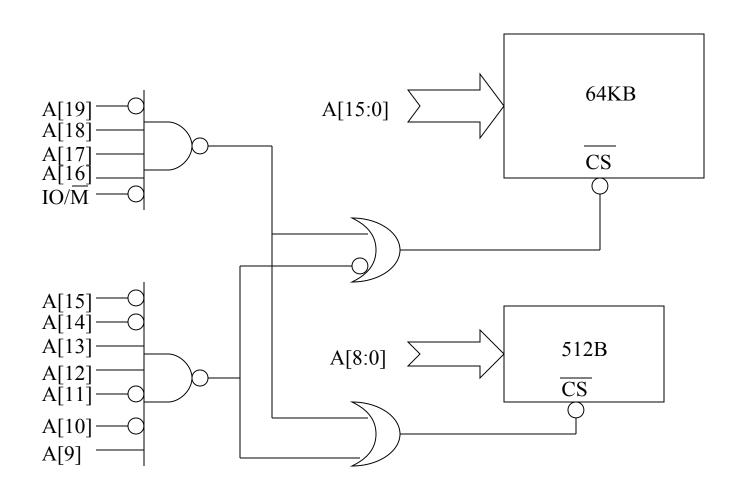
□ Design a 1MB memory system consisting of multiple memory chips
 — Solution 4:



#### ☐ Exercise Problem:

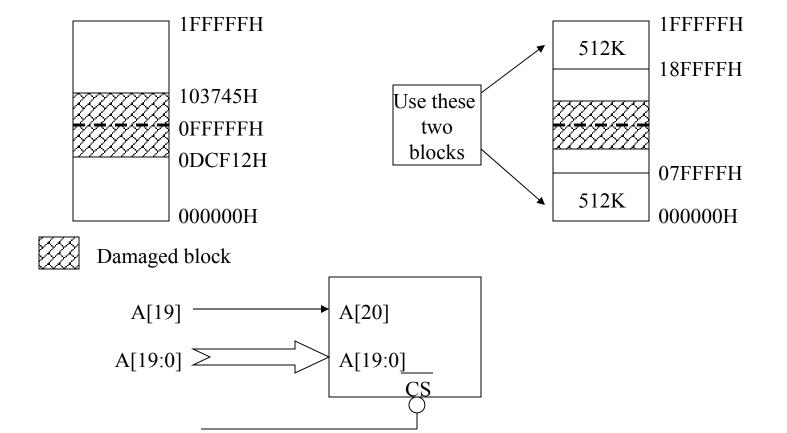
— A 64KB memory chip is used to build a memory system with the starting address of 7000H. A block of memory locations in the memory chip are damaged.





#### Exercise Problem:

— A 2MB memory chip with a damaged block (from 0DCF12H to 103745H) is used to build a 1MB memory system for an 8088-based computer

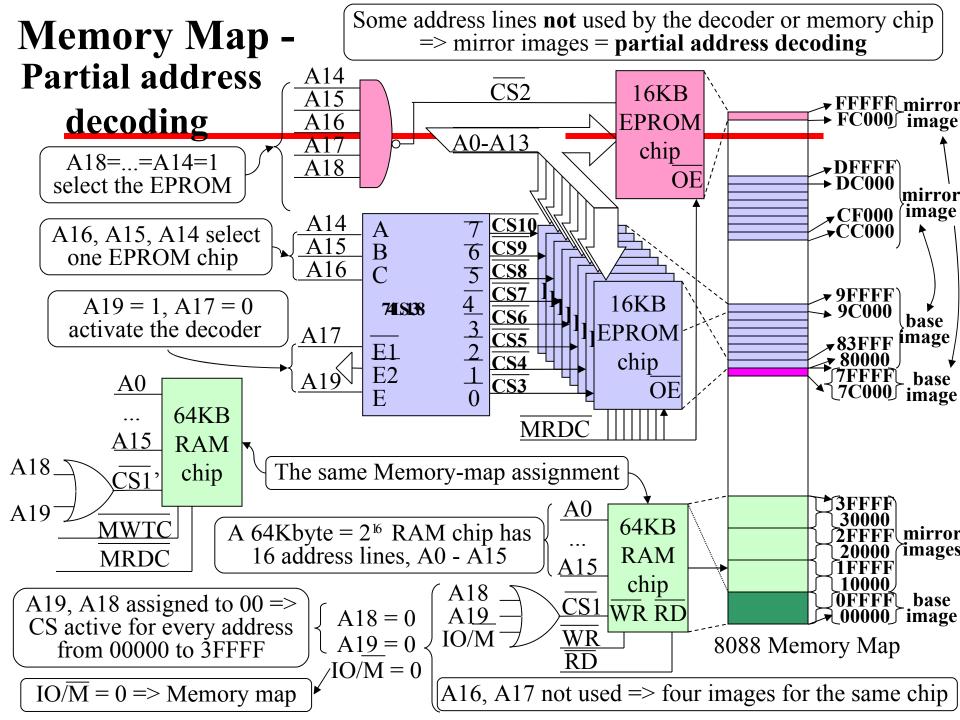


- ☐ Partial decoding
  - Example:
    - build a 32KB memory system by using four 8KB memory chips
    - The starting address of the 32KB memory system is 30000H

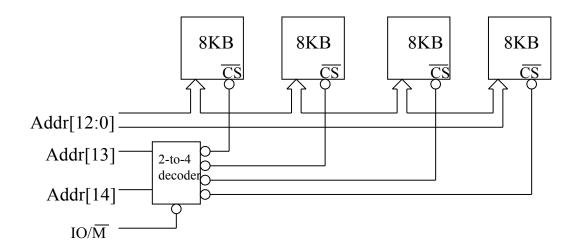
			0011	0	1 1	1	1111	1111	1 $1$ $1$ $1$	
			0011	0	1 1	0	0000	0000	0000	
	Chip #3		0011	0	1 0	1	1111	1111	1111	
		36000H	0011	0	1 0	0	0000	0000	0000	
		34000H	0011	0	0 1	1	1111	1111	1111	
	Chip #2	32000H		0			0000			
	Chip #1		0.011	0	0.0	1	1111	1 1 1 1	1111	
		30000H	0 0 1 1	U	UU	1	1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1	1111	
			0011	0	0 0	0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0000	

high addr. of chip #4
Low addr. of chip #4
high addr. of chip #3
Low addr. of chip #3
high addr. of chip #2
Low addr. of chip #2
high addr. of chip #1

Low addr. of chip #1



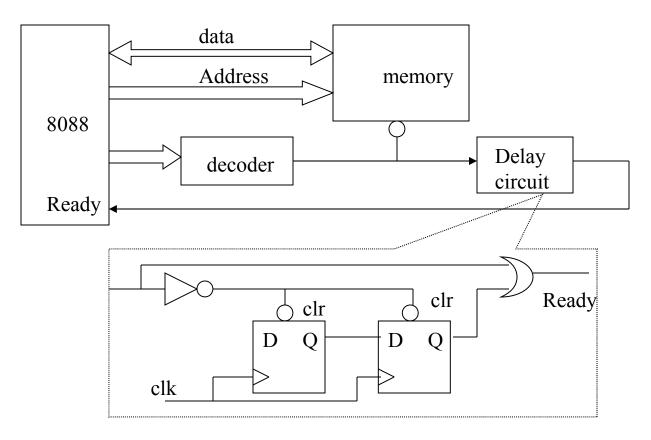
— Implementation of partial decoding



- ☐ With the above decoding scheme, what happens if the processor accesses location 02117H, 32117H, and 9A117H?
- ☐ If two 16KB memory chips are used to implement the 32KB memory system, what is the partial decoding circuit?
- ☐ What are the advantage and disadvantage of partial decoding circuits?

#### Generating Wait States

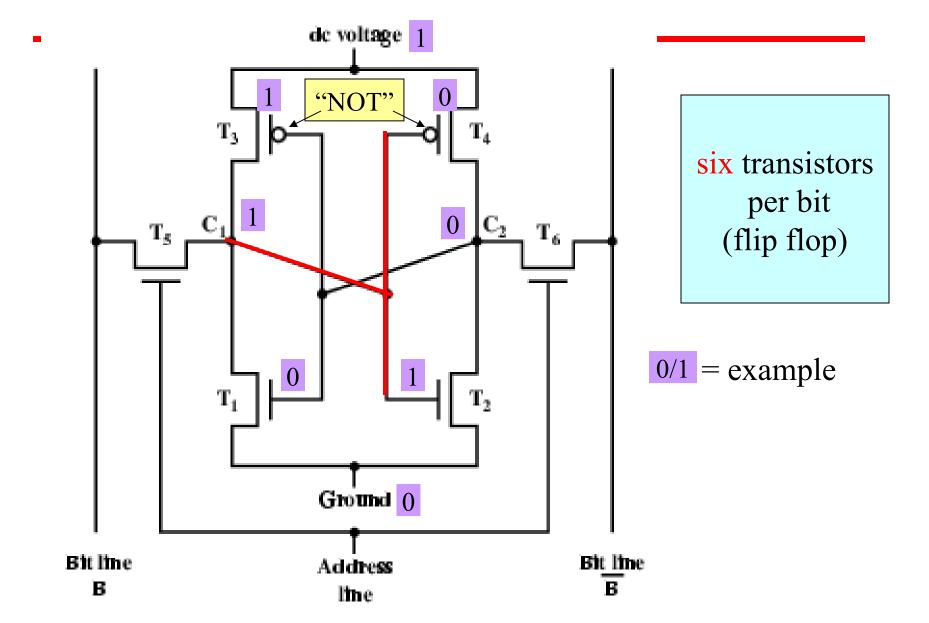
- ☐ Wait states are inserted into memory read or write cycles if slow memories are used in computer systems
- Ready signal is used to indicate if wait states are needed



# 1. Static RAM (SRAM)

- Essentially uses flip-flops to store charge (transistor circuit)
- As long as power is present, transistors do not lose charge (no refresh)
- Very fast (no sense circuitry to drive nor charge depletion)
- Complex construction
- Large bit circuit
- Expensive
- Used for Cache RAM because of speed and no need for large volume

# Static RAM Structure



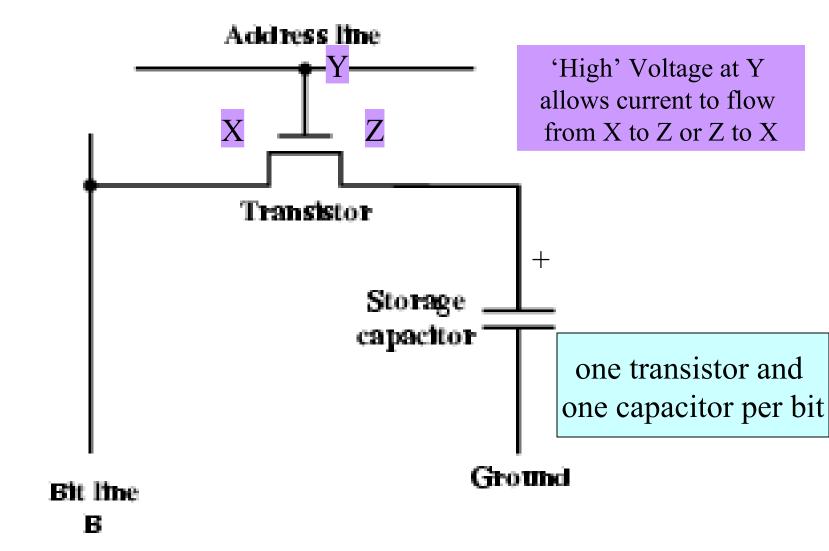
# Static RAM Operation

- Transistor arrangement (flip flop) has 2 stable logic states
- Write
  - 1. signal bit line: High  $\rightarrow$  1 Low  $\rightarrow$  0
  - 2.address line active → "switch" flip flop to stable state matching bit line
- Read
  - 1. address line active
  - 2. drive bit line to same state as flip flop

# 2. Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

- Bits stored as charge in capacitors
- Simpler construction
- Smaller per bit
- Less expensive
- Slower than SRAM
- Typical application is main memory
- Essentially analogue -- level of charge determines value

## Dynamic RAM Structure



# **DRAM Operation**

- Address line active
  - → transistor switch closed and current flows
- Write
  - 1. data signal to bit line: High  $\rightarrow$  1 Low  $\rightarrow$  0
  - 2. address line active → transfers charge from bit line to capacitor

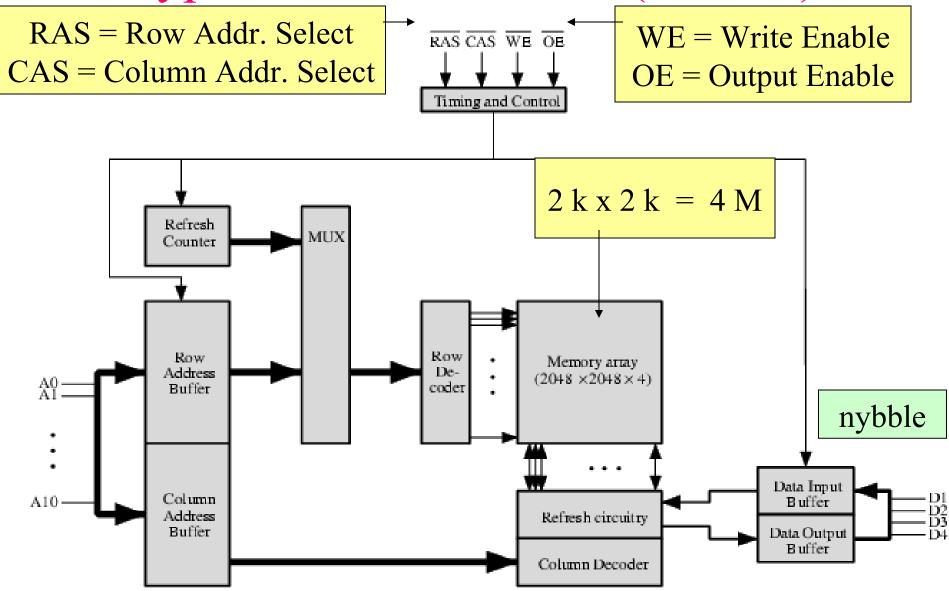
#### Read

- 1. address line active
- 2. transfer charge from capacitor to bit line (then to amplifier)
- 3. capacitor charge must be restored!

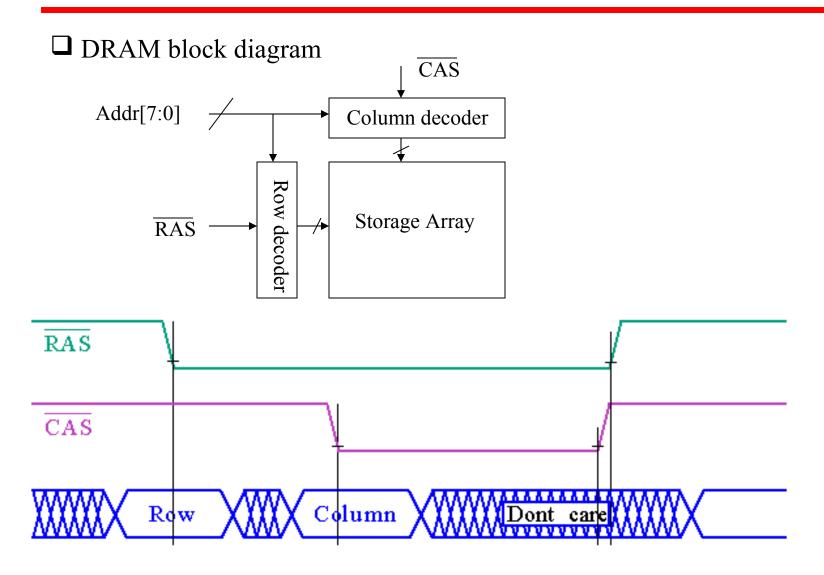
## SRAM v.s. DRAM

	Static Random Access Memory (SRAM)	Dynamic Random Access Memory (DRAM)			
Storage element					
Advantages	<ol> <li>Fast</li> <li>No refreshing operations</li> </ol>	1. High density and less expensive			
Disadvantages	<ol> <li>Large silicon area</li> <li>expensive</li> </ol>	<ol> <li>Slow</li> <li>Require refreshing operations</li> </ol>			
Applications	High speed memory applications, Such as cache	Main memories in computer systems			

# Typical 16 Mb DRAM (4M x 4)

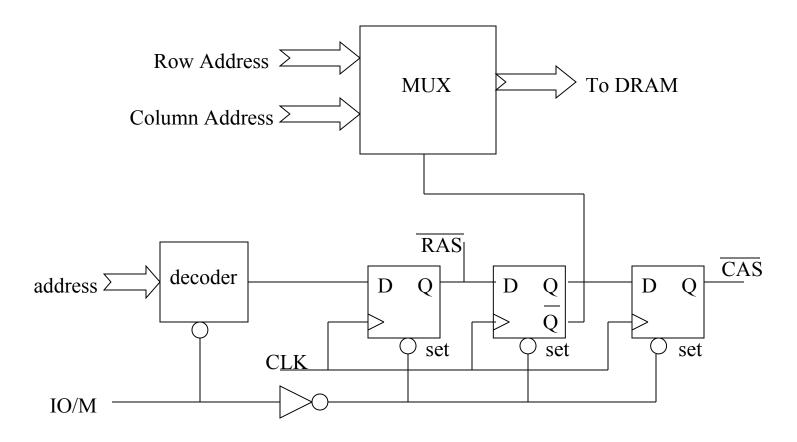


## Accessing DRAMs



## Accessing DRAMs

☐ Address bus selection circuit



## Accessing DRAMs

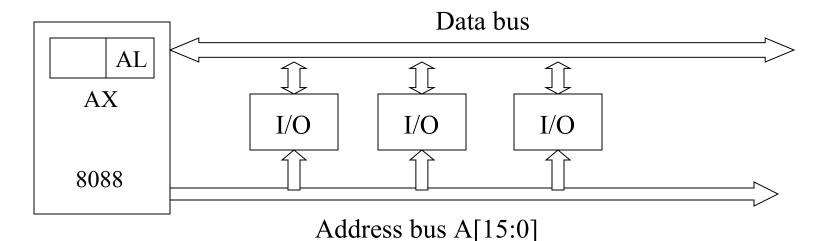
#### ☐ Refreshing operations

- Because leakage current will destroy information stored on DRAM capacitors periodic refreshing operations are required for DRAM circuits
- During refreshing operation, DRAM circuit are not able to response processor's request to perform read or write operations
- How to suspend memory operations?
- DRAM controllers are developed to take care DRAM refreshing operations

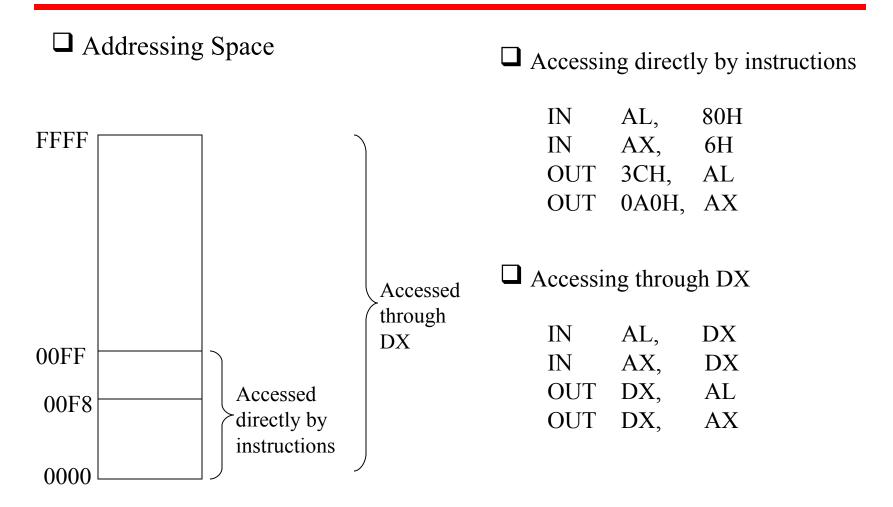
# I/O System Design

## Overview of 8088 I/O System

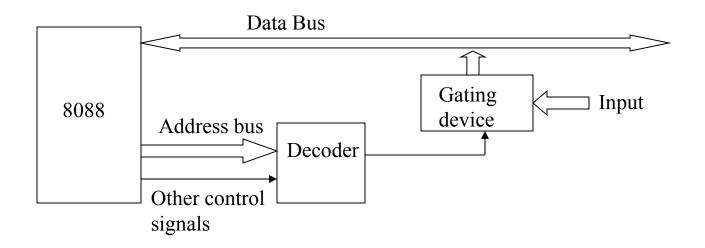
- □ 65,536 possible I/O ports
- ☐ Data transfer between ports and the processor is over data bus
- □ 8088 uses address bus A[15:0] to locate an I/O port
- ☐ AL (or AX) is the processor register that takes input data (or provide output data)



## 8088 Port Addressing Space



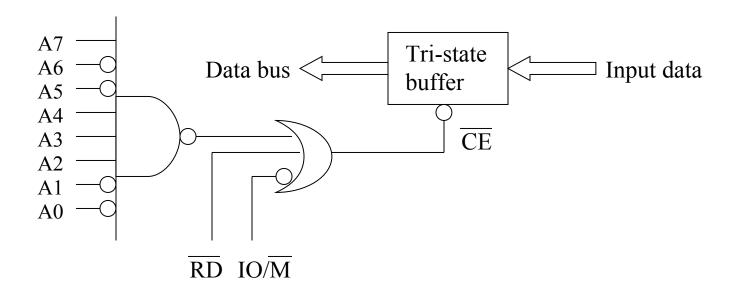
## Input Port Implementation



- The outputs of the gating device are high impedance when the processor is not accessing the input port
- When the processor is accessing the input port, the gating device transfers input data to CPU data bus
- The decoding circuit controls when the gating device has high impedance output and when it transfers input data to data bus

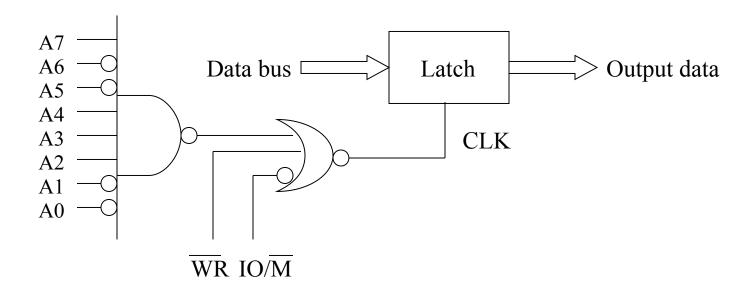
## Input Port Implementation

- ☐ Circuit Implementation
  - Assume that the address of the input port is 9CH

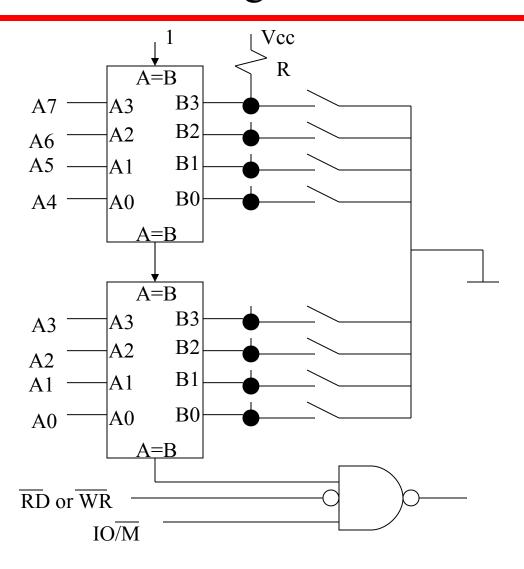


## Output Port Implementation

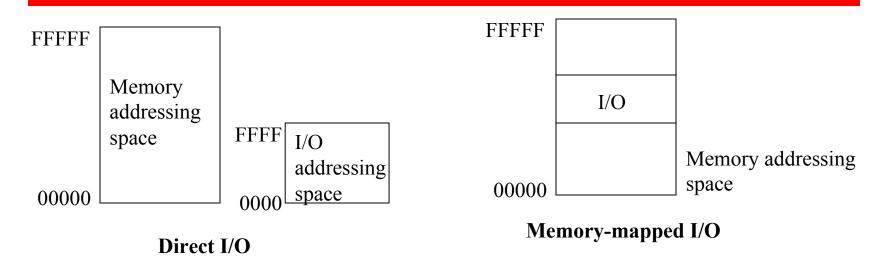
- ☐ Circuit Implementation
  - Assume that the address of the output port is 9CH



## A Reconfigurable Port Decoder



## Direct I/O v.s. Memory-Mapped I/O

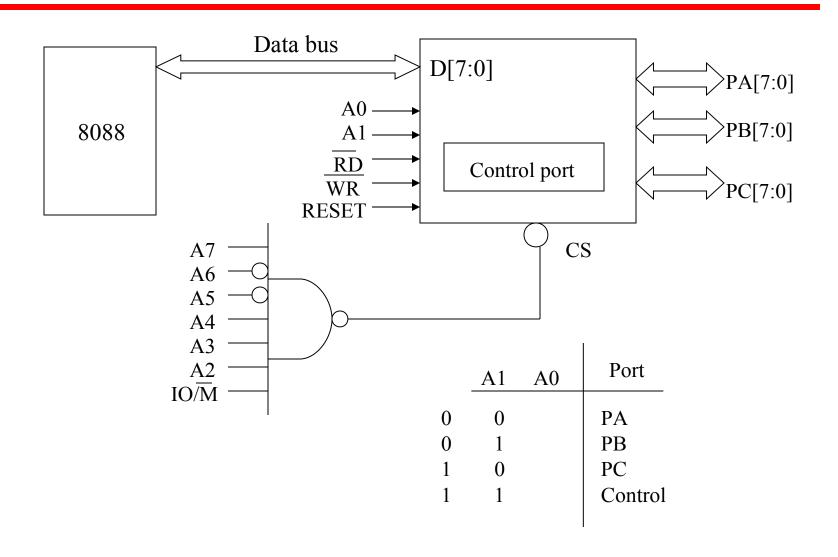


- ☐ Direct I/O: I/O addresses are separated from memory address
  - Advantage: Do not take memory addressing space
  - Disadvantage: Use only AL or AX transferring data
- ☐ Memory-mapped I/O: I/O ports are treated as memory locations
  - Advantage: Accessing I/O ports is like accessing memory locations Can use other instructions to access I/O ports
  - Disadvantage: Take memory addressing space

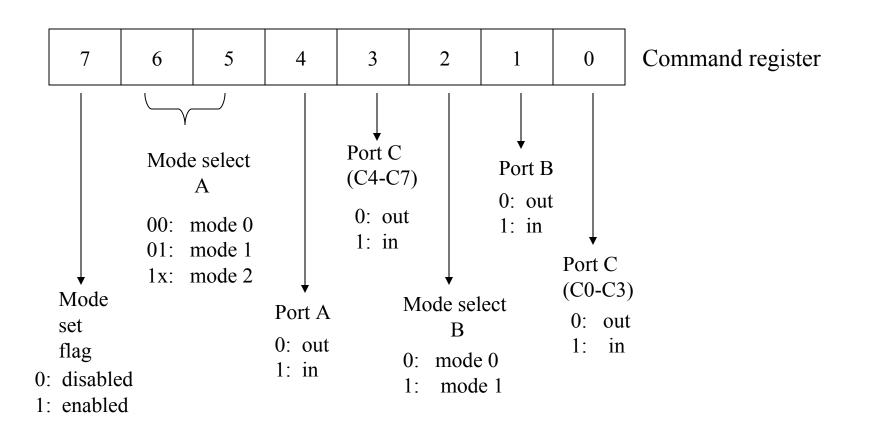
# Handshaking

- I/O devices are typically slower than the microprocessor.
- Handshaking is used to synchronize I/O with the microprocessor.
  - A device indicates that it is ready for a command or data (through some I/O pin or port).
  - The processor issues a command to the device, and the device indicates it is busy (not ready).
  - The I/O device finishes its task and indicates a ready condition, and the cycle continues.
- There are two basic mechanisms for the processor to service a device.
  - Polling: Processor initiated. Device indicates it is ready by setting some status bit and the processor periodically checks it.
  - Interrupts: Device initiated. The act of setting a status bit causes an interrupt, and the processor calls an ISR to service the device.

## 8255 Programmable Peripheral Interface



■ 8255 has three operation modes: mode 0, mode 1, and mode 2

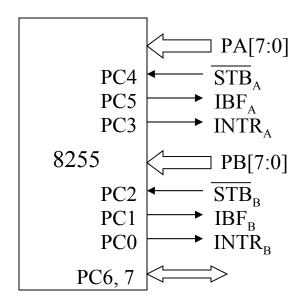


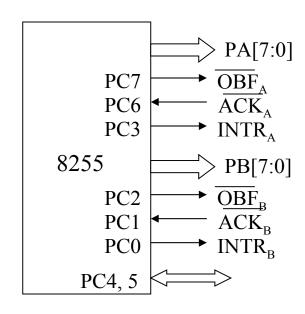
#### $\square$ Mode 0:

- Ports A, B, and C can be individually programmed as input or output ports
- Port C is divided into two 4-bit ports which are independent from each other

#### **□** Mode 1:

- Ports A and B are programmed as input or output ports
- Port C is used for handshaking





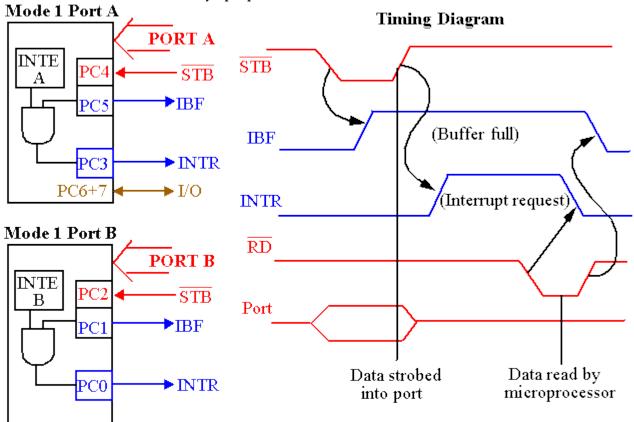
STB The strobe input loads data into the port latch on a 0-to-1 transition

IFB Input buffer full is an output indicating that the input latch contain information

INTR Interrupt request is an output that requests an interrupt

INTE The interrupt enable signal is neither an input nor an output; it is an internal bit programmed via the PC4(port A) or PC2(port B) bits.

PC7,PC6 The port C pins 7 and 6 are general-purpose I/O pins that are available for any purpose.



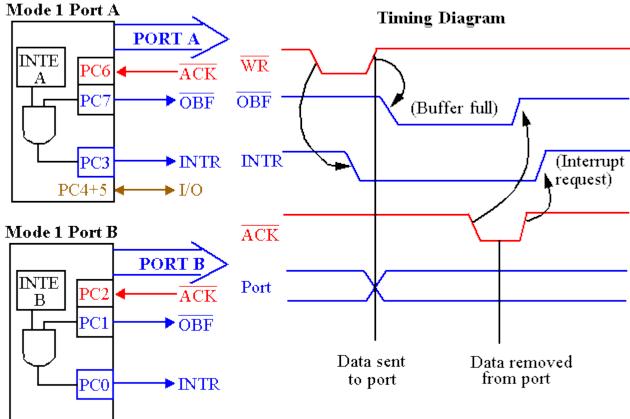
Output buffer full is an output that goes low when data is latched in either port A or port B. Goes low on ACK.

The acknowledge signal causes the OBF pin to return to 0. This is a response from an external device.

INTR Interrupt request is an output that requests an interrupt

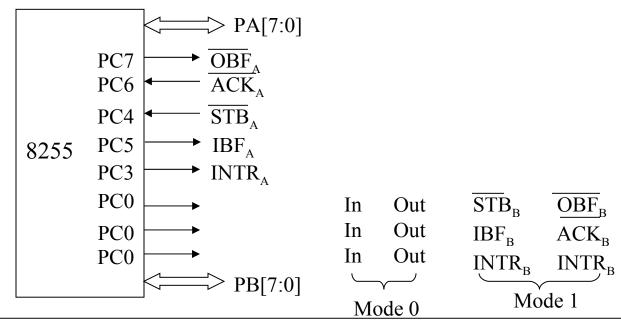
INTE The interrupt enable signal is neither an input nor an output; it is an internal bit programmed via the PC6(port A) or PC2(port B) bits.

PC5,PC4 The port C pins 5 and 4 are general-purpose I/O pins that are available for any purpose.



#### ☐ Mode 2:

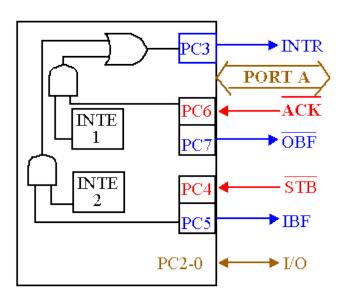
- Port A is programmed to be bi-directional
- Port C is for handshaking
- Port B can be either input or output in mode 0 or mode 1



- 1. Can you design a decoder for an 8255 chip such that its base address is 40H?
- 2. Write the instructions that set 8255 into mode 0, port A as input, port B as output, PC0-PC3 as input, PC4-PC7 as output?

INTR	Interrupt request is an output that requests an interrupt					
OBF	Output buffer full is an output indicating that the output buffer contains data for the bi-directional bus					
ACK	Acknowledge is an input that enables tri-state buffers which are otherwise in their high-impedance state					
STB	The strobe input loads data into the port A latch					
IFB	Input buffer full is an output indicating that the input latch contains information for the external bi-directional bus					
INTE	Interrupt enable are internal bits that enable the INTR pin. Bit PC6(INTE1) and PC4(INTE2)					

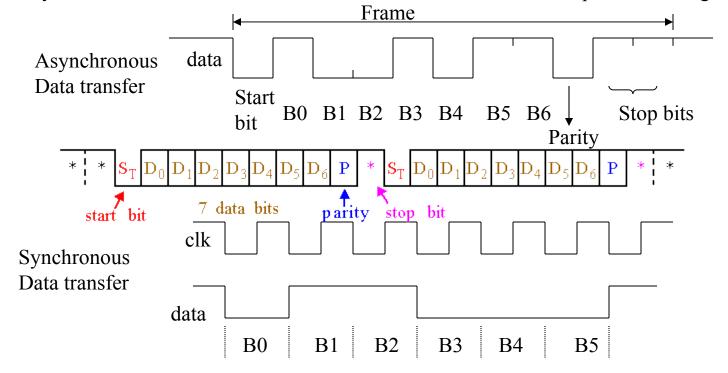
PC2,PC1 Theses port C pins are general-purpose I/O pins that are and PC0 available for any purpose.



#### Serial Data Transfer

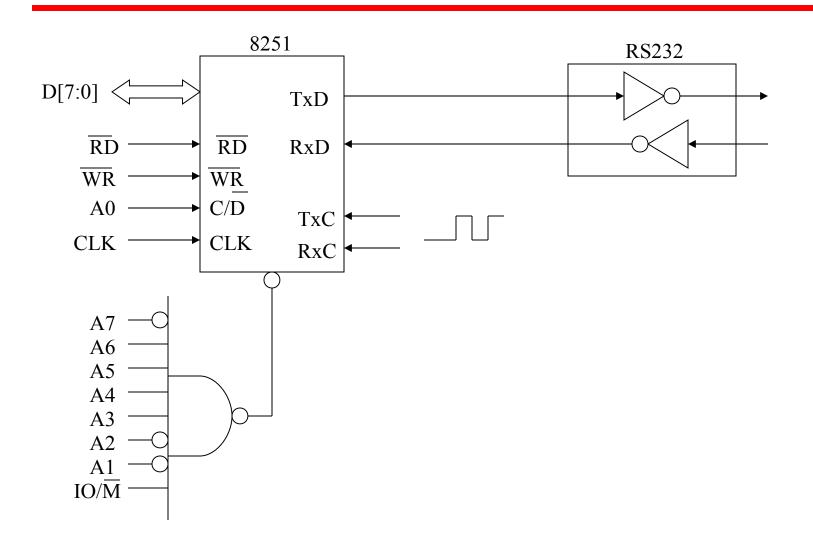
#### ☐ Asynchronous *v.s.* Synchronous

- Asynchronous transfer does not require clock signal. However, it transfers extra bits (start bits and stop bits) during data communication
- Synchronous transfer does not transfer extra bits. However, it requires clock signal

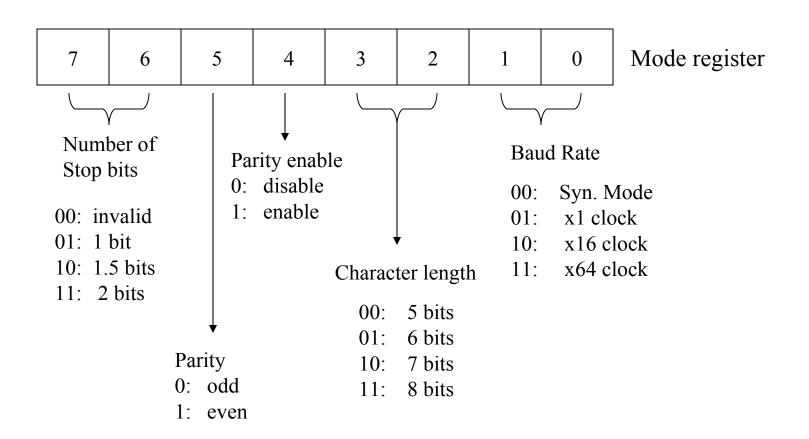


Baud (Baud is # of bits transmitted/sec, including start, stop, data and parity).

### 8251 USART Interface



#### □ 8251 mode register



□ 8251 command register

ЕН	IR	RTS	ER	SBRK	RxE	DTR	TxE	command register
----	----	-----	----	------	-----	-----	-----	------------------

TxE: transmit enable

DTR: data terminal ready

RxE: receiver enable

SBPRK: send break character

ER: error reset

RTS: request to send

IR: internal reset

EH: enter hunt mode

□ 8251 status register

DSR SYNDET	FE OE	PE 1	ГхЕМРТҮ	RxRDY	TxRDY	status register
------------	-------	------	---------	-------	-------	-----------------

TxRDY: transmit ready

RxRDY: receiver ready

TxEMPTY: transmitter empty

PE: parity error

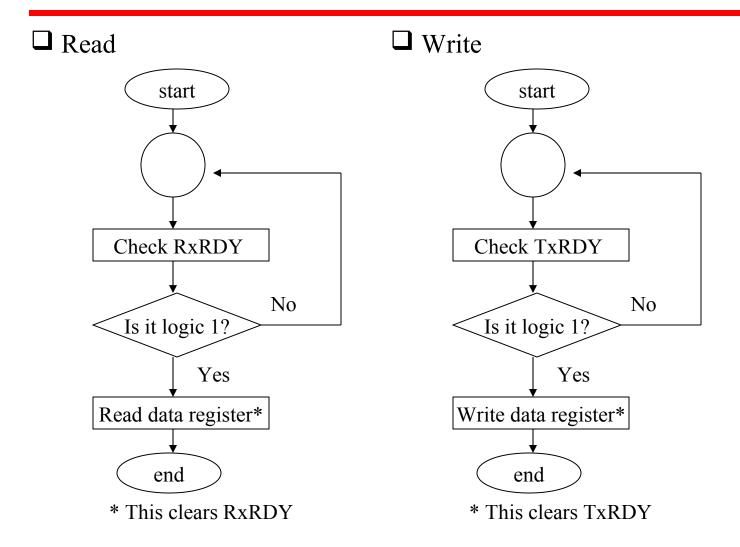
OE: overrun error

FE: framing error

SYNDET: sync. character detected

DSR: data set ready

## Simple Serial I/O Procedures

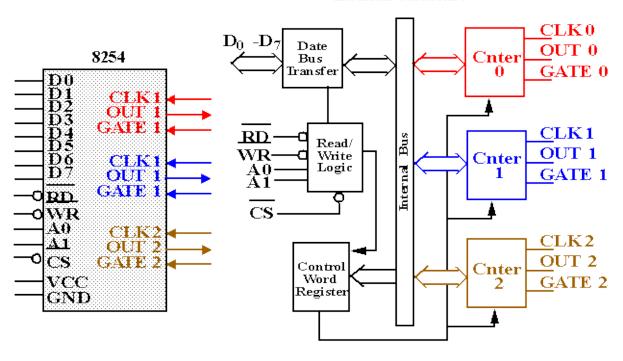


## **Errors**

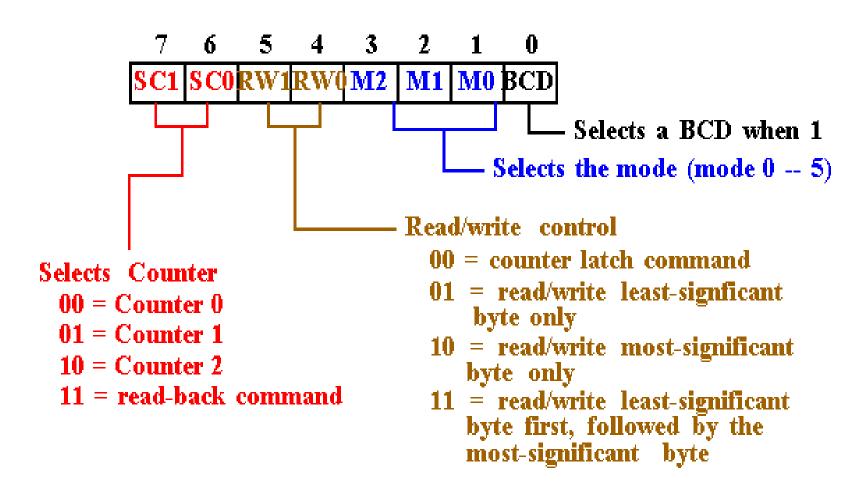
- Framing error: Start and stop bits not in their proper places.
  - This usually results if the receiver is receiving data at the incorrect baud rate.
- Overrun error: Data has overrun the internal receiver FIFO buffer.
  - Software is failing to read the data from the FIFO.

# Programmable Timer 8254

#### Internal structure



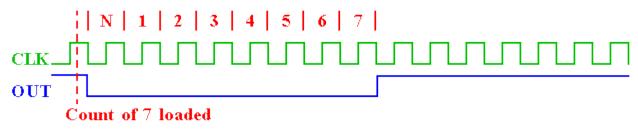
$\mathbf{A_1}$	$\mathbf{A}_0$	Function
0 0 1 1	0 1 0 1	Counter 0 Counter 1 Counter 2 Control Word



- Each counter may be programmed with a count of 1 to FFFFH.
  - Minimum count is 1 all modes except 2 and 3 with minimum count of 2.
- Each counter has a program control word used to select the way the counter operates.
  - If two bytes are programmed, then the first byte (LSB) stops the count, and the second byte (MSB) starts the counter with the new count.

## **8254 Modes**

- Mode 0: An events counter enabled with G.
  - The output becomes a logic 0 when the control word is written and remains there until N plus the number of programmed counts.



#### Mode 1: One-shot mode.

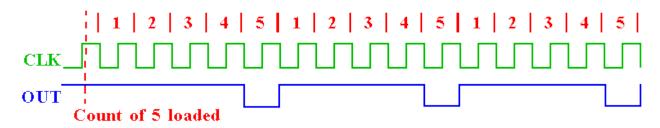
- The G input triggers the counter to output a 0 pulse for `count' clocks.
- Counter reloaded if G is pulsed again.

  CLK GATE GOUT

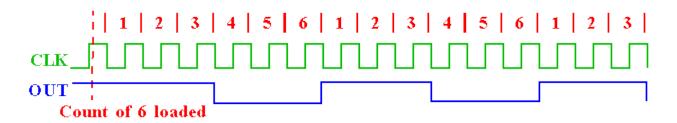
Trigger with count of 5

## **8254 Modes**

- Mode 2: Counter generates a series of pulses 1 clock pulse wide.
  - The seperation between pulses is determined by the count.
  - The cycle is repeated until reprogrammed or G pin set to 0.



- Mode 3: Generates a continuous square-wave with G set to 1.
  - If count is even, 50% duty cycle otherwise OUT is high 1 cycle longer.



## **8254 Modes**

