

## MICROPROCESSOR SOFTWARE \& HARDWARE

Workbook/Text
Volume 2


## Self-Study Course

## Course 525A: <br> MICROPROCESSOR SOFTWARE \& HARDWARE

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SENIOR AUTHOR:
Edward Dillingham, M.E., M.S.E.E.
ASSISTED BY:
Dr. Daniel M. Forsyth
Dr. Rudolf Hirschmann
Ms. Ruth H. Savoie
Dr. David C. Collins

## EDUCATION IS OUR BUSINESS"

## MICROPROCESSOR SOFTWARE \& HARDWARE

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# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK 

## CHAPTER 8

INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES

Various techniques and peripheral devices may be used with the 8080 to provide input and output capabilities. This chapter describes the common methods of implementing I/O and provides exercises in the use of those that are readily carried out with the MTS .

The techniques differ from each other in three major respects: how the input or output device is addressed; what event initiates the transfer of information; and what form the data are in. (The latter will be treated in Chapter 9.)

## Addressing

Isolated Input/Output
Memory Mapped Input/Output
Direct Memory Access

## Initiation

Programmed Input/Output
Interrupt Driven Input/Output
Timed Input/Output
Repetitive Direct Memory Access

The MTS includes facilities for all of these in one form or another, so you can learn each of the processes. For some, however, you must add external hardware.

INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES

### 8.1 ISOLATED INPUT / OUTPUT

The address and data buses are used to address input and output devices and transfer data between them and the CPU. The control bus from the system controller includes $I / O$ Read and $I / O$ Write commands in addition to the Memory Read and Memory Write commands. It is the use of these command signals, and the instructions that generate them, that distinguish $I / O$ usage from memory usage of the buses.

### 8.1.1 I/O Ports

Any device with suitable electrical characteristics can be attached to the buses. In general such devices should have high impedance inputs from the bus and tri-state outputs to drive the bus. Intel and others provide the 8212 Input/Output Port for this purpose. The MTS includes one in the LED display circuit. A functional description is given in Figure 8-1; more detail is provided in the Intel 8080 Microcomputer System User's Manual. The principal features are low leakage currents of the inputs and outputs when the device is not selected, data latches, and control gating.

## Functional Description

## Data Latch

The 8 flip-flops that make up the data latch are of a " $D$ " type design. The output ( $Q$ ) of the flip-flop will follow the data input (D) while the clock input (C) is high. Latching will occur when the clock (C) returns low.
The data latch is cleared by an asynchronous reset input ( $\overline{C L} \bar{R}$ ). (Note: Clock (C) Overides Reset (CLR).)

## Output Buffer

The outputs of the data latch ( $Q$ ) are connected to 3 -state, non-inverting output buffers. These buffers have a common control line (EN); this control line either enables the buffer to transmit the data from the outputs of the data latch (Q) or disables the buffer, forcing the output into a high impedance state. (3-state)
This high-impedance state allows the designer to connect the 8212 directly onto the microprocessor bi-directional data bus.

## Control Logic

The 8212 has control inputs $\overline{\mathrm{DS}} 1, \mathrm{DS} 2, \mathrm{MD}$ and STB. These inputs are used to control device selection, data latching, output buffer state and service request flip-flop.

## DS1, DS2 (Device Select)

These 2 inputs are used for device selection. When $\overline{\mathrm{DS} 1}$ is low and DS2 is high ( $\overline{\mathrm{DS} 1} \cdot \mathrm{DS} 2$ ) the device is selected. In the selected state the output buffer is enabled and the service request flip-flop (SR) is asynchronously set.

## MD (Mode)

This input is used to control the state of the output buffer and to determine the source of the clock input (C) to the data latch.

When MD is high (output mode) the output buffers are enabled and the source of clock (C) to the data latch is from the device selection logic ( $\overline{\mathrm{DS1}} \cdot \mathrm{DS} 2$ ): When MD is low (input mode) the output buffer state is determined by the device selection logic ( $\overline{\mathrm{DS1}}$. DS2) and the source of clock (C) to the data latch is the STB (Strobe) input.

## STB (Strobe)

This input is used as the clock (C) to the data latch for the input mode $M D=0$ ) and to synchronously reset the service request flip-flop (SR).
Note that the SR flip-flop is negative edge triggered.

## Service Request Flip-Flop

The (SR) flip-flop is used to generate and control interrupts in microcomputer systems. It is asynchronously set by the $\overline{C L R}$ input (active low). When the (SR) flip-flop is set it is in the non-interrupting state.
The output of the (SR) flip-flop (Q) is connected to an inverting input of a "NOR" gate. The other input to the "NOR" gate is non-inverting and is connected to the device selection logic ( $\overline{\mathrm{DS} 1} \cdot \mathrm{DS} 2$ ). The output of the "NOR" gate (INT) is active low (interrupting state) for connection to active low input priority generating circuits.


CLR - RESETS DATA LATCH (NO EFFECT ON OUTPUT BUFFEA)

Figure 8-1

INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES


A suitable arrangement for using several $8212^{\prime}$ s as input and output ports is shown in Figure 8-2. Each is selected by a single bit of the high address bus to the non-inverting select input DS2, so no additional decoding is necessary. The input ports are enabled by the I/O $\overline{R E A D}$ command and the outputs by the I/O WRITE command, to the inverting select input DS1. Output data from the CPU enters an output port when the device is selected by DS1 and DS2, and latched by the 8212 when it is de-selected; the 8212 outputs are always enabled. This behavior is set by the MODE input being pulled high.

The STROBE input is unused for Output Ports 4 and 5. Output Port 6 receives a strobe from some external hardware to indicate a need for new data. With the MODE input high this has no effect on the data outputs, but it sets the INT output low, indicating a need for service. The diagram shows that signal being input to the processor through Input Port 3. When the CPU loads new data to Port 6 INT will be set high again to indicate that the requested data are ready.

Input Ports 1 and 3 are direct paths from their inputs onto the data bus when they are selected, because their strobe inputs are pulled high. This makes them suitable for stable data. Input Port 2 is designed to receive a fleeting input, which may be gone before the processor can service it. An external strobe is provided to latch the data in the 8212 and set $\overline{I N T}$ low, requesting service from the CPU when it reads Port 3.

The CPU accesses these ports with the commands:

| DB | IN | Input from port |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{x X}$ | port address | to Register $A$ |

High address <- (Byte 2)
Low address <- (Byte 2)
(A) $<-$ (Data bus)

No flags are affected

D3 OUT Output to port
$\mathbf{x x}$ port address from Register $A$
High Address <- (Byte 2)
Low Address <- (Byte 2)
(A) <- (Data Bus)

No flags are affected.

These are the only instructions for isolated input and output. They alone create the I/O Read and I/O Write commands to the ports.

Note that the port address is only one byte, not two. In response to one of these instructions the CPU places that byte on the low eight bits of the address bus, and duplicates it on the high eight bits.

This duplication permits the $1 / O$ devices to be selected from the high address bus, which is typically less heavily loaded by memory devices than the low address bus.

The addressing shown here, where a single bit on the address bus selects a device, is called linear select. It is economical of hardware but restricts the system size. Port addresses for the devices in Figure 8-2 are:

| Input Port 1 | 01 | 00000001 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Input Port 2 | 02 | 00000010 |
| Input Port 3 | 03 | 00000100 |
| Output Port 4 | 08 | 00001000 |
| Output Port 5 | 10 | 00010000 |
| Output Port 6 | 20 | 00100000 |

For a larger system some decoding of the address is necessary.


Because the 8255 occupies four addresses, it receives and internally decodes the two low bits of the address bus. The $I / O$ port address decoder examines only six bits of the address bus (AB2-AB7) to select the 8255.

Isolated Input/Output With the 8255

Figure 8-3

### 8.1.2 Programmable I/O Ports

The MTS includes one 8255 Programmable Peripheral Interface Adapter (Figure 8-3). It has 24 external connections which can be programmed as inputs or outputs in various combinations. It is connected to the microprocessor and system controller via the data bus, I/O Read, I/O Write, Reset, two address bits (ABO and AB1) and a chip select input from the address decoder.

The 8255 accepts data from the data bus when its chip select input and $I / O$ Write are both low. It delivers signals to the data bus when chip select and $I / O$ Read are both low.

Four $I / O$ port addresses are occupied by one 8255. Three of these correspond to the three groups of 8 bits provided by its 24 external connections. The fourth address is used to write control information to the 8255. For the 8255 on the MTS the addresses are:
(PORTOA)

01 Port B 02 Port C Control
(PORTOB)
(PORTOC)
(CNTO)

The ICS Interface Training System contains two additional 8255's whose ports are referred to as PORT1A, PORT2C, etc. Therefore, all references to the MTS 8255 include 0 in the port name.

INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES


## 8255 Mode 0 Combinations

 Figure 8-4Notes: (1) Only the four combinations marked are suitable for use with the MTS if the keyboard is to be used. (2) This combination is set by the monitor whenever it controls the keyboard and display. (3) Port A and Port $C$ (bits 4-7) should not both be programmed for output, since the keyboard would then short them together.

In addition to the three external ports, the 8255 has a "control port" addressed by 11 in the low bits of the address. This is used to program the external ports for input or output, and to select the mode of operation. The monitor programs the 8255 with the instructions:

| 3E MVI A,92 | Write 10010010 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 92 |  | to the control port. |
| D3 OUT CNTO |  |  |
| 03 |  |  |

This sets Ports $A$ and $B$ for input and Port $C$ for output. Ports $A$ and B are each eight bit ports and can be programmed independently of each other. In the basic mode of operation (Mode 0) Port $C$ is divided into two four-bit ports which can be independently programmed for input or output. Thus 16 different combinations of input and output assignments are available in Mode 0. The bits in the control byte are defined as follows:

| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  | Port | C | its 0-3 | Input or | utput |
|  | Port B Input or Output |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 8-4 shows all 16 combinations.

The 8255 provides a second mode of operation for Port A or Port B or both, in which certain bits of Port $C$ are used for "handshaking" with external devices. For input in this mode the external device places its data at the input port and gives a strobe pulse to one bit of Port $C$. This stores the data in an eight bit latch associated with the eight bit input port, and generates other status bits in Port $C$ which are accessible both to the CPU (by reading Port $C$ ) and to the external world at the Port $C$ outputs. This allows transient signals to be input and read subsequently by the program at its convenience. For details the student is referred to the Intel 8080 Microcomputer System User's Manual.

In the basic input mode which we have been discussing, the data latches follow their inputs whenever the port is addressed. If a port is programmed for input the $I N$ instruction will read the current state of the input. When a port is programmed for output, its data latch is cleared, setting all outputs low. Thereafter, the data latch is loaded by an UUT instruction, and the data remain stable until the next OUT. These data can be read back by the processor; in will always read the content of the data latch. This does not apply to the control port, for which the IN instruction is not effective.

A third mode of operation is available for Port $A$ only, in which it is both an input and an output port suitable for connection to a bi-directional data bus.


Figure 8-5

### 8.1.3 Keyboard Input

To acquire familiarity with the 8255 we will develop a keyboard input program. You have been using the MTS monitor subroutines for this purpose. The subroutines to be developed here will be different in design.

Figure 8-5 shows the connections between the 8255 and the keyboard. The keyboard is a 3 x 8 matrix. Reset is not in the matrix but is directly connected to the reset input. The other keys form three columns: keys 0 through 7; 8 through F; and the command keys. Each row has three keys and a pullup resistor and is connected to an input bit of Port A. If no key in the row is pressed that bit of Port $A$ will be 1 because of the resistor. If a key is pressed the input bit of Port $A$ is connected through the key to one of three output bits of Port. C. If that output is high the input to Port A will still be 1 , but if it is low the input will be 0 . Thus by setting one bit of Port $C$ low and reading port $A$ we can tell which, if any, key is pressed. We can make a quick test to see whether any key in the keyboard is pressed if we set all three outputs (C4, C5 and C6) low and read Port $A$; if the result is 11111111 no key is pressed.

There may be a circumstance where we are interested only in a particular key. This can be tested by setting the corresponding column low, reading the input, and masking to exclude all keys except the desired one. Subroutine KYIN is specified to permit any of these functions.

### 8.1.4 Subroutine KYIN

## Function:

Test the keyboard for any desired key or keys being pressed. Set one or more of output bits C4, C5, C6 low (without affecting any other bits of Port C) according to a parameter passed in the call. Read the keyboard and mask with another byte passed as a parameter. Return with the Zero flag set if no desired key is pressed; otherwise with Zero cleared and the binary input data in Register C. Restore the column select bit (C4, C5, or C6) to 1 before returning.

Two alternate entries provide for setting the input parameters to test for any key, and for programming the 8255.

Call

CD CALL KPRG
40 Program the 8255
82 and continue to KTST

CD CALL KTST
44 Test for any key
82

CD CALL KYIN
48 Test for specified key
82 or keys in specified
column or columns

Inputs

```
KPRG: None
KTST: None
KYIN:
a) Key column select in Register B
    contains O for each desired column.
    Bits 0, 1, 2, 3 and 7 must be 1
b) Key mask in Register C
    contains 1 for each desired key
```

8-16

## Outputs

```
Zero flag set if no desired key
Zero flag clear if desired key is pressed
Keyboard input (00 if no keys) in Register C
Key column select in Register B is preserved
(8F for KTST).
```

Registers

A, B, C, D are used.

## Constraints

If KPRG is called, 8255 will be programmed as follows: CO - C3 Output
Port B Output, mode 0
C4-C7 Output
Port A Input, mode 0
Outputs of all ports are cleared by KPRG.
If KTST or KYIN is called, C4 - C7 and Port A must be programmed as shown above.

We have discussed programming the 8255 by writing to the control port. There is another function in the control port: you can set or reset any individual bit of Port C. This is done by writing a byte from Register $A$ to the control port:
3E MVI A
(A) <- Selected command
XX
D3 OUT CNTO
03

This sequence applies to both programming the 8255 and setting bits In Port $C$. The command bytes are distinguished by the high order bit as shown below:

Command Bytes to Control Port

90


Program the 8255
Set C0 - C3 for output
Set Port B for output
Set Port B to mode 0 Set C4 - C7 for output Set Port A for input Set Port $A$ for mode 0 Mode set flag

This provides a technique for altering one output bit without changing others. Another technique is to read the content of the output data latch:

DB
IN PORTC

02
will read the data latch of the port into register $A$ even though the port is programmed for output. Then you can use "ORA r" or "ORI data" to set desired bits to 1; "ANA r" or "ANI data" to set desired bits to 0. For instance, to set C7, C6 and C5 to 1 and C4 to zero, use this prograin segment:

```
06 MVI B,11101111 Set up for C4 low
```

EF
DB IN PORTC Read old output data

02
F6 ORI 11110000 Set C7, C6, C5, C4 to 1
FO
AO ANA B

D3 OUT PORTC
Set selected bit to 0
Write to Port C

02

Wherever several bits must be controlled this takes less program space than the individual bit set and reset instructions. Caution: Reading from an output port is not included in the manufacturer's specification for the 8255. That it will work is predictable from the design of the 8212 , and proven by experiment with the 8255. A redesigned 8255 might not allow it.

Programs that write to the display or to Port $C$, or that program the 8255, are always difficult to debug because whenever the monitor actuates the keyboard and display it destroys whatever your program has done. Suggestion: at each point in the program when an output is written, first store the data in memory. When you read an input, immediately store the data. Being able to recover the data at a subsequent breakpoint makes debugging immensely easier. The additional instructions can be deleted when the program works properly.

Keyboard reading introduces another problem: at return from the monitor the keys are always released. You can simulate a key input by placing a breakpoint just after the IN instruction. When it is executed you can load some value other than $F F$ in the $A$ register to make sure that the rest of your program functions correctly.

If any peculiar condition arises while you have a key pressed, you can press RST while the other key is held down. The program counter will be saved. Press ADDR T MEM to see the program counter. This is the last value observed by the monitor (your program must have been running in Breakpoint mode). If your program was executing a subroutine when you pressed RESET, the return address can be found at (83DE, 83DF), provided no breakpoints had been entered.

Draw the flow chart and write the program for KYIN. Test it initially with a very simple calling program. To ease debugging, call KYIN, not KTST. The monitor leaves the 8255 programmed with Port $C$ for output and Port $A$ for mode 0 input.

| $\longrightarrow$ LXI | B, 8FFF |
| :--- | :--- |
| CALL | KYIN | | Enable all keys |
| :--- |
| JZ |

This will return to the monitor as soon as you press a key. Then you can look in the storage locations where you have saved the inputs and outputs to see if they are what you expect.

When you call the monitor with a key pressed, hold the key down until you see what you have. If you are displaying PC and the instruction, a numeric key will give the Err display as soon as you release it. If you are displaying a register, a numeric key will be entered into the register when you release it. You can retrieve the old value by pressing CLR, however.

Figures 8-6 to 8-9 provide a flow chart, test program, and two versions of KYIN, one with debugging code included.


## Subroutine KYIN

Figure 8-6


Figure 8-9
8.1.5 Keyboard Display Exercise

Now we can make more interesting use of KYIN. The following program takes any key from 0-7 (which appears as a single bit = 1 in register $C$ ) and $O R$ 's it into a display location at the corresponding display segment bit. By pressing successive keys, you may "paint" a character. It also tests for CLR and NXT, either clearing the presently addressed display location or moving to the next location. This demonstrates one requirement of keyboard input: you must distinguish between a key being held down for a long time versus repetitive depressions of the same key. The numeric keys and CLR don't care in this program, but if you do not test for release of $N X T$ it will step across the display many times before you can let go of the key.

Keyboard input programs normally provide for "debouncing". Many electrical switches do not change from closed to open perfectly, but "bounce" between the two states for some milliseconds. This can occur in the switch contact itself, or it can be created by a TTL circuit sensing the contact. To avoid seeing a single closure as multiple operations there is usually a time delay circuit or program used to require that the key be open for 10 to 30 milliseconds before it is accepted again. Such a provision is included in the MTS monitor subroutine GETKY, even though the MTS keys seem to be completely free of bounce. Before referring to Figures 8-10 through 8-12, try designing the program yourself, all the way from a specification and flow charts through the detailed coding.


Figure 8-10a

KEYBOARD DISPLAY PROGRAM (CONT'D)


Figure 8-10b


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## INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES



Figure 3-16. Typical I/O Interface.
(From INTEL 8080 User's Manual)
Figure 8-13

### 8.1.6 Other I/O Interfaces




Memory Mapped Input/Output With the 8255
Figure 8-14

An alternative to isolated input/output is "memory mapped I/O". The input or output device is connected to the Memory Read and/or Memory Write command signals from the system controller, instead of the I/O Read and I/O write commands. Figure 8-14 shows such a connection. Here the $I N$ and OUT instructions are not used, since the device is not connected to the command signals they generate. Instead any memory read or write command can be used. LDA may be used in place of $I N$, STA in place of OUT. All the convenience of register addressing and transfer becomes available. Suppose that Port A is addressed as memory location FFF8 and Port B as memory location FFF9, and both are programmed for inputs. Then they can be read by:

| LXI | H,FFF8 | Address Port A |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| MOV | E, M | (E) $<-$ (Port A) |
| INX | H | Address Port B |
| MOV | D,M | (D) $<-$ (Port B) |

Alternately, they can both be ready by a single instruction:

LHLD FFF8

The arithmetic and logic instructions become available for direct use with the input port. If you want to wait for a change in the input data you could use this:

| LXI | H,FFF8 | Address Port A |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| MOV | A,M | (A) $<-$ (Port A) |
| $\longrightarrow$ CMP | M | $(A)=$ (Port A)? |
| $\square$ JZ |  | Wait until equal |

Or you can test for an input of 11111111 :

LXI H,FFF8
INR M
JZ

The INR M command is only partially effective. If Port A is programmed for input, you cannot effectively write to it. Nevertheless the flags will be set as though you incremented the data.

This sequence will set zero and jump if the input is 11111111 , because the flags are set as if 11111111 is increased to 00000000 . It is, of course, not possible to complete the INR $M$ instruction, and store 00000000 because Port A is programmed for INPUT and not for OUTPUT.

While memory mapped $I / O$ has some definite advantages, it sacrifices the two byte IN and OUT instructions. LDA and STA are three byte instructions; only by maintaining the $I / O$ address in a register pair do you reduce the program length.

8-36

Note that with memory mapped $I / O$ the 8255 must occupy addresses that will not conflict with any real memory. A typical scheme in small systems is to use all addresses from 8000 to FFFF for input/output, and 0000 to $7 F F F$ for memory. Now address bus bit 15 indicates whether an $1 / 0$ device is to be selected. If only a few $I / O$ devices are to be used it is not necessary to fully decode the address. A single chip $1 / 8$ decoder can select eight different devices.

Memory mapped $I / O$ is probably overused in hardware design. For most applications isolated $I / O$ is more efficient in both hardware and program space - but the difference is very small. The one severe restriction on isolated $I / O$ is that the port address is fixed by the instruction, so it cannot be changed under program control if the instruction is in ROM.


Memory Mapped Display
Figure $8-15$

### 8.3 DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS

The third method of input and output is direct memory access, in which data are written to the processor's memory, or read from it, by external hardware as well as by the CPU. This is very efficient for the program, but typically it demands more external hardware than input and output ports require. In a Direct Memory Access system the DMA hardware ("channel") seizes control of the address and data buses whenever it is ready to read or write to the computer's memory. This briefly suspends the computer's operation, accomplishes the data transfer, and then allows normal computer operation to continue. We will describe in detail the DMA system used in the MTS for its display.

Let us suppose for a moment that we did not have memory devices at addresses $83 F 8-83 F F$ in the MTS, but a set of 8212 output latches, as shown in Figure 8-15. Now to display a digit we would use memory mapped $I / 0$, addressing $83 F 8,83 F 9$, etc. and write to those apparent memory locations. The data would be stored in the 8212 latches and would drive the LED displays. This demands eight latches and eight current drivers. Direct Memory Access provides an alternative which in this case takes less external hardware and appears almost identical to the program.


DMA Timing
Figure 8-17

### 8.3.1 Repetitive Direct Memory Access

In using the seven segment displays of the MTS you have been operating a repetitive direct memory access system. Data are written into a fixed set of addresses, and the DMA hardware periodically obtains data from these addresses and displays it. This is a very attractive scheme for displays of the kind used here, and also for video displays and some kinds of control systems. In each case the same data need to be accessed repetitively because very ittle external storage is provided. For the seven segment displays of the MTS, only one digit is stored externally, while that digit is illuminated. Then the DMA channel obtains the next digit and displays it.

Figure $8-16$ shows the circuit connections to the 8080 that are involved in the DMA operation. The 555 timer periodically generates a pulse which sets the flip flop Q1, provided that the enabling signal from PORTOC7 is high. The output of this flip flop generates a HOLD request to the 8080. It is gated with the monitor interrupt signal to give priority to the interrupt, because internally the 8080 gives priority to the HOLD request, which is undesirable here.

At receipt of HOLD the 8080 suspends its operations, gives HLDA (hold acknowledge) and floats the address and data buses.


HLDA becomes true just before a $\emptyset 2$ (Phase 2) clock. (See Figure 8-17.) Q1, HLDA and $\emptyset 2$ clock are gated to set Q2 when all are true. The inverted output cf Q2 goes low and immediately resets Q 1 , terminating the HOLD request. The processor keeps HLDA high for one clock cycle, and then regains control of the buses.

During the single clock cycle (0.5 microsecond) that HLDA is high, the DMA channel controls the address bus. Figure 8-18 shows the connections to the display. A three-bit counter receives the timing pulse from the 555 timer, so at each DMA cycle it counts. Its output selects among the digits and memory locations. When the second flip flop in Figure 8-16 generates DMA ENABLE, indicating that the processor has released the buses, the counter data are connected to Bits 0,1 and 2 of the address bus. Bits 3 through 9 are pulled high by resistors, and other logic (not shown) forces the chip select to the memory chips representing addresses $8000-83 F F$. Thus one of the data bytes 83F8-83FF is selected and is read onto the data bus.

DMA ENABLE strobes the data from the selected memory byte into an eight-bit latch. Thus the data byte from the selected memory locations has been copied into the single latch, and is ready to be displayed. The DMA channel no longer needs access to the memory, and the processor can resume its operation.

The outputs of the three-bit counter drive a $1 / 8$ decoder, turning on one transistor to apply power to one of the eight digits. The data latch and an eight-bit power driver allow current to flow in those segments for which the data bit is 1. The selected digit is illuminated in the appropriate pattern to show the desired character. At the next DMA cycle this digit is turned off and the next digit is turned on, so that each digit operates for one eighth of the time. To make a display that does not flicker visibly, each digit must be turned on about 30 times per second or more. The MTS DMA channel actually operates at about 1400 cycles per second, so each digit is on 175 times per second.

### 8.3.2 DMA Input and Output

Direct memory access is commonly used in computer systems for both input and output if a high data rate is required. Reading or writing to magnetic disc memory is a typical example; Intel's Microcomputer Development System/Diskette Operating System operates at 250,000 bits per second or about 30 microseconds per byte. The 8080 could not keep up with such a data rate on a programmed or interrupt driven input system. In fact Intel uses their series 3000 Bipolar Microprocessor for the disc controller.

The disadvantage of DMA is the significant amount of external hardware required. It should seldom be used unless high data rates are mandatory, or in specialized situations such as repetitive DMA where the hardware is minimized. The hardware always includes the following:
a) Address counter to store and alter the memory address to be read or written (represented by the 74LS93 Counter in the MTS )
b) Address Bus buffer to isolate the DMA address from the system bus (the 74LS367 Tri-state Buffers)
c) Data Bus buffer to isolate the DMA data from the system bus (the 8212)

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d) Gating circuits to appropriately command memory read or memory write. The MTS is only concerned with memory read, for the DMA channel, so this feature is not required in this instance.
e) Timing or signal input to initiate the hold request (the 555).


#### Abstract

In any DMA system other than a repetitive DMA there must be some means for the processor to inform the DMA channel that output data are ready, and for the DMA channel to inform the processor that input data have been stored or output data accepted. This can be handled as a separate programmed $I / O$, with the processor and channel exchanging discrete signals. If DMA input and output are both provided it can be done by writing a control byte into a specified memory location as the last operation in the DMA sequence; then the processor and channel both sample that location periodically. The most common practice, however, is to use a discrete output from the processor to initiate output and enable input, and an interrupt from the channel when data transfer is complete.


Sophisticated DMA systems generally provide for reading and writing to variable areas of memory. For output the processor will send a memory address and a byte count to the channel, which thereafter takes data from the given and succeeding addresses until the designated number of bytes have been read. For input the channel may interrupt to request a memory address where data are to be stored.

8.4 I/O INITIATION

### 8.4.1 Prograinmed I/O

Because a computer operates in sequential fashion, it is not always ready to receive an input or produce an output. If it is fast in comparison to the input device or the output requirement, which it often is, the computer can sample the input or produce the output at its own convenience. This is called "Programmed I/O". It is used in the MTS for the keyboard input. When the computer is slow compared to the input or output requirement, as in a magnetic disc system, we use direct memory access, but typically with either programmed or interrupt $I / O$ to initiate and/or terminate the DMA operation. Interrupts are discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

Consider the MTS keyboard input. When the monitor is in control (running), almost all of its time is spent waiting for keyboard input. (See Figure 8-19.) The program has nothing better to do with its time. It can process any command you give it and get back to reading the keyboard long before you can press another key.


Programmed Input/Output
Figure 8-20

The processor can tell whether you have pressed a key because a unique state exists (all inputs high) when no key is pressed. It tests for this state after each new key input before processing the key, to avoid processing a single key stroke repetitively, and yet be able to react to multiple operations of the same key. In many input applications there is no special state which has a significance different from all others, and the processor must know by other means whether a particular input has been processed. There are, of course, applications where it does not matter; a digital voltmeter will process the input as fast as it can update its display whether the data has changed or not.

In some systems the processor has lengthy functions to perform, which must be interrupted to handle input or output. This can be done by repeatedly calling an input subroutine during the main processing, as suggested in Figure 8-20. This tends to be time wasting, and it demands that the programmer consider how long his processing will take in comparison to the input requirement.

We have seen that the strobed input feature of the 8212 enables fleeting and asynchronous data to be latched, until the program is ready to deal with it. This is very suitable for infrequent inputs such as may exist in control systems.

Sometimes, however, the system may demand a very prompt response to its occasional inputs, or it may give many inputs during the course of other calculations, each demanding some degree of processing or at least storage before the next input is delivered. It is for this kind of requirement that interrupt driven systems were invented.

### 8.4.2 Interrupt Driven I/O

When an external event occurs that demands the processor's immediate attention, hardware is used to cause a branch in the program. Instead of repeated calls to an input (or output) subroutine at predetermined intervals, as suggested in Figure 8-20, that call is created when and only when it is needed. The 8080 and most other microprocessors include interrupt handing capability. We will discuss the internal and external logic required to create an interrupt; the MTS interrupt system; and the design of interrupt service subroutines.

### 8.4.2.1 Interrupt Logic

The following signals of the 8080 system are involved in the logic handling an interrupt:

INT Interrupt. Request input to the 8080. It is driven high by external hardware to request service.

INTE Interrupt Enable. A flip flop in the 8080 and also an external output, signifying that an interrupt will be accepted.

INT F/F Interrupt Accept. A flip flop in the 8080 signifying that an interrupt has been accepted.

INTA Interrupt Acknowledge. A signal passed in the status byte to the system controller, and also an output signal from the controller available to external hardware.

To create an interrupt the external logic must (in general) perform two functions: request an interrupt by raising INT, and respond to INTA by giving the 8080 an instruction. The instruction is usually one of the special one-byte restart calls: RSTO, RST1, etc. These are essentially identical to the CALL instruction except that the address is implied by the op-code. Thereafter the processor executes an interrupt service subroutine just as it would any other subroutine.

Some systems have a requirement to test INTE to be sure that an interrupt will be accepted. In other systems it can be used as an indication that an interrupt has been accepted. It is not generally necessary to use this signal externally. It is internally gated with the interrupt request, so that interrupts will not be honored unless the interrupt system is enabled.

The interrupt system is enabled by a RESET, or by the instruction:

FB EI Enable Interrupt

This instruction sets the INTE flag high, but it is carefully arranged to be too late for the next instruction to be interrupted. It is guaranteed that one instruction (usually a RETurn from the interrupt service subroutine) will be executed before another interrupt is accepted.

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The interrupt system is disabled by execution of an interrupt. This ensures that the interrupt service subroutine can accomplish its functions without itself being interrupted. It can also be disabled by the instruction:

F3 DI Disable Interrupt

This is commonly used when some time dependent task is to be executed and must not be delayed by interrupts, or when a process is being performed that will affect the results of the next interrupt.

Provided that INTE is set, the INT input sets the internal INT Flip Flop at the end of the current instruction, which is completed before any other action occurs.

When the next instruction cycle starts with INT F/F set, some special events occur. The CPU starts its normal cycle, sending out the PC content and status data. The status includes INTA, a bit on the data bus during status strobe time which commands the system controller to issue the INTA command instead of the MEMR command. Then an instruction is placed on the data bus by external logic so that this is loaded into the instruction register in place of the next programmed instruction. During this cycle the 8080 does not increment the program counter, so the address of the instruction that has been interrupted is preserved. The 8080 clears the INT F/F and the Interrupt Enable Flag, so that the next instruction will not be interrupted.

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### 8.4.2.2 Restart Instructions

It is usual (but not necessary) that the instruction placed on the
data bus in response to INTA is one of the special one-byte call
instructions, RSTO to RST7. These are equivalent to normal CALL's
except that the call address is implied by the op-code, as shown in
Figure 8-21. The diagrams of Figure $8-22$ through 8-24 show the
process, and Figure 8-25 (from the INTEL 8080 User's Manual) shows
the timing.


Coding and Effect of RST Instructions
Figure 8-21

## PROCESSOR

MEMORY


INT $F / F$ is set at end of instruction cycle.
PC is sent out again BUT MEMR command is not given


$$
\begin{array}{llll}
8 & 2 & F & F \\
8 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\
8 & 3 & 0 & 1
\end{array}
$$

Interrupt Processing
Figure 8-22


Figure 8-23


Figure 8-24

## INTERRUPT SEQUENCES

The 8080 has the built-in capacity to handle external interrupt requests. A peripheral device can initiate an interrupt simply by driving the processor's interrupt (INT) line high.

The interrupt (INT) input is asynchronous, and a request may therefore originate at any time during any instruction cycle. Internal logic re-clocks the external request, so that a proper correspondence with the driving clock is established. As Figure 2.8 shows, an interrupt request (INT) arriving during the time that the interrupt enable line (INTE) is high, acts in coincidence with the $\phi_{2}$ clock to set the internal interrupt latch. This event takes place during the last state of the instruction cycle in which the request occurs, thus ensuring that any instruction in progress is completed before the interrupt can be processed.

The INTERRUPT machine cycle which follows the arrival of an enabled interrupt request resembles an ordinary FETCH machine cycle in most respects. The $M_{1}$ status bit is transmitted as usual during the SYNC interval. It is accompanied, however, by an INTA status bit $\left(\mathrm{D}_{0}\right)$ which acknowledges the external request. The contents of the program counter are latched onto the CPU's address lines during $T_{1}$, but the counter itself is not incremented during the INTERRUPT machine cycle, as it otherwise would be.

In this way, the pre-interrupt status of the program counter is preserved, so that data in the counter may be restored by the interrupted program after the interrupt request has been processed.

The interrupt cycle is otherwise indistinguishable from an ordinary FETCH machine cycle. The processor itself takes no further special action. It is the responsibility of the peripheral logic to see that an eight-bit interrupt instruction is "jammed" onto the processor's data bus during state $\mathrm{T}_{3}$. In a typical system, this means that the data-in bus from memory must be temporarily disconnected from the processor's main data bus, so that the interrupting device can command the main bus without interference.

The 8080's instruction set provides a special one-byte call which. facilitates the processing of interrupts (the ordinary program Call takes three bytes). This is the RESTART instruction (RST). A variable three-bit field embedded in the eight-bit field of the RST enables the interrupting device to direct a Call to one of eight fixed memory locations. The decimal addresses of these dedicated locations are: $0,8,16$, $24,32,40,48$, and 56. Any of these addresses may be used to store the first instruction(s) of a routine designed to service the requirements of an interrupting device. Since the (RST) is a call, completion of the instruction also stores the old program counter contents on the STACK.


NOTE: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 2-6.

### 8.4.2.3 Interfaces for RST Instruction

The restart (or other) instruction that is to be placed on the data bus during INTA must not interfere with the data bus at other times. It is best to buffer the data bus with a tri-state device such as the Intel or NEC 8212, or two 74125 Quad Buffers. Figure 8-26 shows an 8212 generating RST6 in response to an external interrupt.

When more than one device is to interrupt the 8080 , it is often useful to use vectored interrupts. Each device creates a different RST instruction, thereby calling a different service routine. Figure 8-27 shows an arrangement with which two independent interrupts can create three different restarts: RST5 for INT1, RST6 for INT2, and RST4 for both at once.

In a small system, the data bus can tolerate some resistive pullup, and tri-state or open collector inverters or gates can be used to pull down specific bits. Figure 8 - 28 shows such a configuration.


Note 1 : If the external interrupt is a continuous signal it should provide the interrupt to the 8080. If it is a pulse, the 8212 can store it and provide the interrupt request.

Note 2 : The configuration shown places RST 6 (F7) on the data bus during INTA.




> Vectored Interrupt Using Resistors
> Figure 8-28

### 8.4.2.4 Generating RST7

For systems that need only one kind of interrupt, it is easiest to use RST7 (code FF). Simply pulling the data bus bigh with resistors will enter this instruction when the data bus is floated during INTA. No gates or buffers are needed provided that all other devices on the data bus are able to pull this resistive load down.

In systems that use the 8228 system controller the RST7 interrupt can be generated by pulling the INTA output of the 8228 to +12 volts through a 1 K ohm resistor.

### 8.4.2.5 HALT Instruction

Many microprocessor based systems have no function to perform while they are waiting for input. The program can be made to cycle indefinitely in one place with:

8200 C3 JMP 8200
00
82

Now an interrupt with an RST instruction will call an interrupt service routine which handles all of the processing, and the return will go back to 8200. An alternative is the instruction:

76 HLT Halt at this address until
an interrupt occurs.

When this instruction is executed the processor enters a WAIT state until an interrupt occurs. Now if INTA is OR'ed with MEMR, the next instruction in the program will be read and program execution will continue:

## Program Flow:

| EI | Enable interrupt |
| :--- | :--- |
| HLT | Wait for interrupt |
| Next instruction | Process interrupt |
|  | Go wait for next interrupt |

This avoids the need for placing a special instruction on the data bus. Note, however, that the byte following HLT will be read twice because the program counter is not incremented during INTA. Therefore, this instruction should be NOP.

### 8.4.3 The MTS Interrupt System

When the MTS executes your program in STEP mode (whether it was started with the STEP or RUN key) an interrupt is generated by the MTS hardware as each of your instructions is executed, causing a RST7 that calls the monitor program. The monitor then operates as an interrupt service routine, which we will describe later. The hardware involved will show something of the timing relations of an interrupt system.

### 8.4.3.1 Interrupt Circuit Details

Figure 8-29 shows the interrupt circuit and timing. Recall that an 8080 instruction cycle comprises one to five machine cycles. Each machine cycle includes three to five clock periods, or states. The first state of each machine cycle is identified by a status strobe signal from the 8224; this is shown in the timing diagram as $\overline{S T S T B}$. During the first state of each machine cycle the 8080 sends out signals on the data bus to identify the operations to be carried out. These are latched by the system controller and provide the information to generate all the control signals - MEMR, MEMW, I/O READ, I/O WRITE and INTA. Status strobe identifies the time at which the status data can be latched by the system controller.

Two of the status bits from the 8080 are used in the interrupt system. M1 identifies the first (or only) machine cycle of an instruction cycle, and appears on data bus bit 5 during status strobe. INTA signifies that the processor acknowledges an interrupt, and appears on data bus bit 0 . These are latched by the system controller to be available as continuous signals, as shown in Figure 8-29. INTE (interrupt enable) is available as a continuous signal from the 8080 itself.



MTS Interrupt Circuit and Timing
Figure 8-29

The timing diagram of Figure 8-29 starts with the monitor in control. INTE has been set low at entry to the monitor. The STEP or RUN key has been pressed, so the monitor restores the registers, enables interrupts, and returns to the user's program. The timing diagram shows EI and RET of the monitor program, one user instruction (MVI A) and the RST7 that reenters the monitor.

At the end of the EI instruction the 8080 sets INTE high. Even if an interrupt were already present, however, the RET instruction would not be interrupted, because the 8080 demands that both INTE and INT be true before the end of an instruction to allow the next to be interrupted. This insures that EI, RET can always be executed at the exit from an interrupt service routine. The monitor has an additional requirement: one user instruction must also be executed. The flip flop provides for this.

The flip flop is held reset while INTE is low. When INTE goes high the flip flop is ready to set when $M 1$ goes from low to high, provided that PORTOC1, which is the monitor enable signal, is also high. M1 does not change at the start of the RET instruction, however, because it was already set high by the single instruction EI. During the second and third machine cycles of RET, the M1 signal goes low. Then at the start of the user instruction (shown as MVI A), M1 goes high, clocks the flip flop, and generates an interrupt. This is too late to interrupt the MVI A instruction. At the end of MVI A the 8080 acknowledges the interrupt by sending INTA on data bus bit 0 during status strobe, and by setting INTE low. The flip flop is reset by INTE low, removing the INT input to the 8080 , until once again the

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monitor executes EI and RET. Thus every user instruction is interrupted before being executed.

Note that when the toggle switch AUTO/STEP is set to AUTO the monitor interrupt is not generated. This allows you to write instructions into experimental programs that enable breakpoint operation in parts that need debugging, but to operate other portions in automatic mode. This may be important in "real time" programs -- where prograin running time is critical. Section 8.6.4 describes how to disable and enable the monitor. Most of the monitor input subroutines disable monitor interrupts while they are running and enable monitor interrupts before they return.

Referring again to Figure 8-29, you will see that there are other ways that you can cause an interrupt. At the upper right corner of the MTS circuit board there are eight test points. One of these, INT, is connected to the interrupt circuit. We will use this in the following experiment.
8.4.3.2 External Interrupt Experiment

Enter this trivial program
8200 C3 JMP8200

820100
820282

Set the toggle switch to AUTO and press STEP (not RUN). Since the monitor interrupts do not reach the 8080 , the program will run continuously, but an external interrupt will enter the monitor and
stop program execution. Connect a test lead to INT dnd'touch it to ground. This will create the interrupt and stop your program.
8.4.3.3 Effect of DI and EI
Experiment with the DI and EI instructions. Enter this:

| 8200 F3 | DI |
| ---: | :--- |
| 01 | 3C |
| 02 | C2 |$\quad$ INR A $\quad$ JNZ 8201

The DI instruction prevents the external interrupt from being effective until the EI at 8205 enables interrupts again. When you operate this, again using STEP to initiate it but in AUTO mode, your external interrupt with the test lead will always return you to the monitor at address 8207. The interrupt cannot affect the instruction immediately following the EI.

You will find that if you try to operate this program in STEP mode, the monitor will not interrupt it. It is a requirement of the MTS interrupt logic (not of the 8080) that the interrupt is not generated until a multi-cycle instruction has been completed and the next instruction has started. In normal operation this allows the
monitor's return and one user instruction to be executed before the monitor is called again. With this test program the single-cycle NOP does not create an interrupt. The JMP is executed, the monitor initiates the interrupt, but the instruction being processed at that time is Disable Interrupt, which makes the interrupt ineffective even though it had already been received. If you change the instruction at 8206 from NOP to:

820677 MOV M, A
or any other instruction requiring two memory cycles, then the interrupt will occur as the JMP is executed and the monitor will be called before DI is executed at 8200.

### 8.5 INTERRUPT SERVICE ROUTINES

When an interrupt occurs the interrupt instruction generally calls an inter rupt service routine. This is a subroutine, but it has two special requirements. It must:
a) Preserve the environment.
b) Find out why it was called.

### 8.5.1 Preserving the Environment

An interrupt service routine does not use the registers to exchange data with a calling program. On the contrary, it must preserve the contents of all registers and flags, and restore those contents before returning to the instruction that was interrupted. The interrupted program module makes no special provisions for the interrupt, and except for the time taken by the interrupt service its functions must not be interfered with. It may be interrupted but not disrupted, and the service routine must be transparent.

The first several instructions in any interrupt service routine are almost invariably PUSH instructions to save the registers:

| PUSH | PSW | Save A and flags |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PUSH | B | Save B, C |
| PUSH | D | Save D, E |
| PUSH | H | Save H, L |

The routine can now use all of the registers to perform its functions - typically input and/or output. When finished it restores the environment that existed before the interrupt by popping the registers in reverse order:
POP H

POP D
POP B
POP PSW
EI
RET

Remember that the interrupt itself disabled the inter rupt system, so to restore the environment, allowing for another interrupt, there must be an EI in the service routine. If this is placed immediately before the return, it is guaranteed that the return will be executed. Placing it earlier in the interrupt routine will allow another interrupt to interrupt the interrupt routine! This is sometimes done, but usually with priority interrupt systems (which are discussed below), and requires special consideration. Many interrupt service routines cannot tolerate being interrupted. This is the case with the MTS monitor, for instance. Other program modules may also be intolerant of interrupts. They must be protected by a DI instructions, and at some point must also include EI.
8.5.2 Identifying the Source of the Interrupt

Commonly a system will have only one generalized interrupt service routine to handle a variety of interrupts. For instance an "intelligent" communications terminal might be interrupted by a transmit next character signal, or by an operator's keystroke. Hardware can be provided to call different interrupt service routines, as we showed earlier. This adds cost and introduces the problem of simultaneous interrupts from different sources. If there is not a severe time constraint it is usually less costly to use programmed i/O rather than providing for vectored priority interrupts. We will define these termr but otherwise in this course will not be concerned with them.

### 8.5.3 Vectored Interrupt Systems

This is a combination of hardware and software such that each different source of interrupt calls a service routine specific to the device that created the interrupt.

The prior discussion of RST instructions showed how vectored interrupts can be created by placing different instructions on the data bus in response to INTA. Other schemes are possible, for instance the program may store the address of a module to process the next interrupt, if a particular sequence is expected.

### 8.5.4 Priority Interrupt Systems

A priority interrupt system is a combination of hardware and software guaranteeing that an interrupt from one source is given priority over another; the higher priority can interrupt the lower, or, if they arrive simultaneously, will be handled first. This can be extended to many levels if necessary.

Specific hardware devices (LSI chips) are available to perform this function. In combination with software the 8255 can also create a priority interrupt system.

### 8.5.5 Timed Interrupt Systems

Systems that need to know the time of day often use a hardware counter, operating on the computer's crystal clock, to generate an interrupt once every millisecond (or any other desirable interval). An interrupt service routine increments a "clock" address in memory. The service routine may also conduct $1 / 0$ operations at this time, checking each input port to see if any service is needed. This scheme provides frequent service to all I/O ports without requiring each $1 / O$ device to create interrupts, and is called "polling".

### 8.6 USING INTERRUPTS WITH THE MTS


#### Abstract

The MTS provides for vectored interrupts using any of the RST instructions except RSTO, which is the same as RESET The data bus is pulled high by resistors, so that if no external device places an instruction on the data bus, the 8080 will receive FF during interrupt acknowledge. This is the RST7 instruction, which normally enters the monitor program for a STEP or a breakpoint test. You can connect an external device to enter a different RST instruction, using any of the schemes described earlier.


### 8.6.1 Interrupt Dispatch

The RST instructions enter the monitor program at these locations:

RST1 0008
RST2 0010
RST3 0018
RST4 0020
RST5 0028
RST6 0030
RST7 0038

Since all of these locations are in Read Only Memory you cannot enter interrupt service routines here. The monitor provides for your interrupt service by loading an address from $R A M$ and jumping to that location when an interrupt occurs.

The actual instruction sequence at the RST location (for RST7) is:

| 0038 | E5 | PUSH H |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0039 | $2 A$ | LHLD 83E8 |
| 003A | E8 |  |
| 003B | 83 |  |
| 003C | E3 | XTHL |
| 003D | C9 | RET |

The RST instruction pushes the program counter into the stack. PUSH $H$ places (HL) into the stack. Now the jump address is loaded into (HL), using LHLD, i.e. the content of location $83 E 8$ is loaded into Register $L$ and the content of location 83 E 9 into Register H. XTHL exchanges the content of (HL) with the top two bytes of the stack, so the original value of (HL) is restored and the stack now contains the jump address followed by the address of the interrupted instruction. RET pops the jump address into the program counter, so the program continues at the address that was stored at $83 E 8$ and $83 E 9$. The same instructions, except for different addresses in the LHLD instruction, exist for each of the seven RST instructions. Your program can store a jump address in the appropriate RAM location, and the RET instruction will then jump to that address. Note that it arrives there with the stack top containing the address of the interrupted instruction, and the registers unchanged, exactly as though the RST location had contained a JMP. (RST 4 also contains DI because it is used for programmed calls to the monitor, which must not be interrupted.)

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At RESET the monitor loads all the jump addresses. In general your program must replace one or more of these to use inter rupts. RST5 and RST6, however, are preloaded to jump into your program area. Refer to Appendix A, Section A.4.2, for the storage location and preset values.
In the following exercise we will develop an interrupt service routine which will be called instead of the monitor when the RST7 interrupt occurs. This can be exercised by operating in breakpoint mode, so that the MTS interrupt circuit will invoke your service routine after each instruction in your main program. We will demonstrate enabling and disabling the monitor interrupt system.

## MAIN PROGRAM



### 8.6.2 Interrupt Service Routine Exercise

The program to be developed uses the monitor interrupt circuit to generate repeated interrupts, much like a timed interrupt system. The interrupt will call a service routine to increment a two-byte counter in memory. The main program will display the high digit of the count, and test the keyboard. In response to the BRK key it will enable the monitor interrupt system, and in response to CLR, it will disable the monitor interrupts.

When the monitor interrupt circuit is enabled, each instruction in your program will be interrupted, and your interrupt service routine will be called. The dispatch program in the monitor plus your interrupt service will take about 100 microseconds, so the fourth digit of the count (the high digit of the second byte) will count at about 0.4 second intervals.

The solution given used the following memory assignments:

| $8200-820 F$ | Initialize |
| :--- | :--- |
| $8210-823 F$ | Main Loop |
| $8248-8258$ | KYIN (Figure 8-9) |
| $8260-8270$ | Interrupt Service |
| $8300-8301$ | Counter |
| $83 E 8-83 E 9$ | Store Interrupt Service Address |

## INTERRUPT SERVICE ROUTINE


Interrupt Service Routine
Figure 8-31

Figure 8-31 shows the interrupt service routine. This is to be located at 8260, and the two byte counter will occupy addresses 8300 , 8301. For a preliminary test of the service routine, use a trivial main program that calls this subroutine repeatedly. This will allow you to step through it and check the stack usage. Write the service routine and test program. (A solution is given in Figure 8-32.) Step through the program. After incrementing and storing the count, examine the stack, It is convenient to load the registers with some easily recognized data so you can identify the stack. The pages following the program solution show a testing procedure and the expected results.
8-84



## Testing Procedure

| REG A | A | 8200 | A-0A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEXT | B | 8200 | $\mathrm{B}-0 \mathrm{~B}$ |
| NEXT | C | 8200 | $\mathrm{C}-0 \mathrm{C}$ |
| NEXT | D | 8200 | D-0D |
| NEXT | E | 8200 | E-OE |
| NEXT | 7 | 8200 | F-07 |
| NEXT | 8 | 8200 | H-08 |
| NEXT | 9 | 8200 | L-09 |
| ADDR, MEM |  | 8200 | . CD |
| STEP |  | 8260 | F5 |
| STEP |  | 8261 | C5 |
| STEP |  | 8262 | D5 |
| STEP |  | 8263 | E5 |
| STEP |  | 8264 | 2A |
| STEP |  | 8267 | 23 |
| STEP |  | 8268 | 22 |
| STEP |  | 826B | E1 |

The displays above assume the coding shown in Figure 8-32. Examine the stack after storing the new count.

Testing Procedure (continued)

| ADDR 1/P MEM | $83 D 6$ SP.09 | Register L |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| NEXT | $83 D 7$ | 08 | Register H |
| NEXT | $83 D 8$ | $0 E$ | Register E |
| NEXT | $83 D 9$ | $0 D$ | Register D |
| NEXT | $83 D A$ | $0 C$ | Register C |
| NEXT | $83 D B$ | $0 B$ | Register B |
| NEXT | $83 D C$ | 07 | Register F |
| NEXT | $83 D D$ | $0 A$ | Register A |
| NEXT | $83 D E$ | 03 | Return |
| NEXT | $83 D F$ | 82 |  |

If you have pushed the registers in some different order, their data will be in a different sequence in the stack.

Check the registers again. Note that only $H$ and $L$ have been changed, since the interrupt service routine used no others. Change the data in the registers.

| REG A | 826 B | $\mathrm{~A}-0 \mathrm{~A}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 826 B | $\mathrm{~A}-00$ |
| NEXT | 826 B | $\mathrm{~B}-0 \mathrm{~B}$ |
| 0 | $826 B$ | $\mathrm{~B}-00$ |

etc.

Now step to the return instructions.

| ADDR, MEM | 826 B | E1 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| STEP | 826 C | D1 |
| STEP | 826 D | C1 |
| STEP | 826 E | F1 |
| STEP | 826 F | FB |
| STEP | 8270 | C9 |

Check the registers again to be sure that they have been restored properly, and check the stack top to be sure it contains the return address.

| ADDR 2/T MEM | 8203 | ST.C3 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| STEP | 8203 | C3 |

Whenever you write an interrupt service routine, it is a good idea to test it this way. Debugging an interrupt service routine in real time operation is difficult because the monitor is disabled when an interrupt has occurred.

### 8.6.4 Memory Change Breakpoints

Before going on to the main program, we will use this test program to demonstrate the memory change breakpoint system in the monitor.
RESET 8200 CD

ADDR $8300 \quad 8300$ ??
BRK 8300 BP

Since 8300 contains data rather than an instruction, the program counter should never reach this value. Your program will change the
data stored here, however, and the monitor breakpoint system willstop your program when that occurs.
ADDR ..... 8200 CD
RUN 826B ..... E1
The SHLD instruction has changed the content of 8300 , and yourprogram is stopped after that has happened. Check the breakpoint.BRK 8300 BP. 00
Note that the 00 displayed here is not the content of 8300 , but is
the breakpoint count. Display the memory content by:
ADDR 8300 MEM 8300 ..... 01
NEXT ..... 8301 ..... ??
0 ..... 8301 ..... 00
Press ADDR 0 BRK. This automatically enters a breakpoint at thecurrent memory address. The display should show 8301 BP.Now we have breakpoints at both data locations.RUN 826B E1

## INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES

The program has stopped again when (8300) was changed. Remove this breakpoint.

| BRK | 8300 | BP. 00 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLR | 8301 | BP. 00 |
| RUN | $836 B$ | E1 |

Now your program has run until the data was changed at 8301.

| BRK | 8301 | BP. 00 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| MEM | 8301 | 01 |
| MEM | 8300 | 00 |

The content of 8301 changed when the count went from O0FF to 0100 .

The memory change breakpoint is very useful in debugging programs that use interrupts. Since most interrupt service routines store results in specified memory locations, you can enter a breakpoint at such a location. Now program execution will stop after return from your interrupt service routine.

Another use of the memory change breakpoint protects against unbalanced stack usage, which is one of the common errors in coding complicated programs. If you have more PUSH's than POP's in a repetitive loop, the program will fill the stack until it writes over the program and destroys itself. When you have loaded a lengthy program by hand, this can be extremely annoying. To protect against this, enter a breakpoint at the highest location in your program. Now if the stack destroys the data at that point, program execution will stop before the rest of the program is destroyed.

### 8.6.5 Interrupt Service Operation - Main Program

Write the main program to fulfill the design described in Figure 8-30. Use your KYIN program (Figure 8-9) to test for the keys that we want to recognize.

LXI B, BF40 Test for BRK
CALL KYIN Returns Not Zero if BRK

If not Zero enable monitor interrupts.
LXI B, BF80 Test for CLR
CALL KYIN Returns Not Zero if CLR

If not Zero disable monitor interrupts.

Since no other interrupts are being used, we could use EI and DI to enable or disable the interrupts. In many real systems, however, it is necessary to selectively enable or disable certain interrupts while allowing others to occur. The MTS hardware allows you to switch the monitor interrupt circuit on or off by setting PORTOC1 high or low.

MVI A, 03
OUT CNTO
or
MVI A, 02
OUT CNTO To Disable Monitor

Use this procedure here. Note that the solution given for KYIN (Figure 8-9) carefully preserves all of the low bits of PORTOC so that it will not affect the monitor enablement. THIS IS NOT TRUE OF THE MONITOR I/O SUBROUTINES.

To display the high digit of the count we will use the only monitor display subroutine that does not affect monitor interrupts:

DISPR (02A6)

DISPR displays the low digit of (A) at the display position addressed by (DE). Call with:
$(A)=$ digit to be displayed, right justified
$(D E)=$ display position

Copies (A) into (C). Loads (HL) with a table address (02B2) and adds (A) into (HL). Copies a seven-segment code from this table into (A) and ((DE)). Decrements (DE). Copies (C) into (A) to restore the entry value.

Since we want to display the high digit of (8301) we must right justify that digit. This can be done by:

LDA 8301 Load high byte
RRC Move high digit
RRC To low digit
RRC
RRC
CALL DISPR (02A6)

The program solution given in Figure 8-33 follows the flow chart of Figure 8-30.



|  | 82440 | 3 | E |  | M\| | $V$ | I |  | $A$ |  | 9 | 0 |  |  | KPRG |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 9 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Prograne 8255 |
|  | 2 | $D$ | 3 |  | OL | $U$ | $T$ |  | $C$ | $N$ | $T$ | 0 |  |  |  |
|  | 3 | 0 | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 | 0 | 6 |  | M | V | I |  | $B$ |  | 8 | $F$ |  |  | KTST |
|  | 5 | 8 | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $(B) \leftarrow$ all columxa) |
|  | 6 | 0 | $E$ |  | M | $\checkmark$ | I |  | $C$ |  | $F$ | $F$ |  |  | $(C) \leftarrow$ all beys |
|  | 7 | $F$ | $F$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | , |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 | $D$ | $B$ |  | I | $N$ |  |  | $P$ | 0 | R | T | 0 | C | KYIN |
|  | 9 | 0 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Read efinting outputs |
|  | A | $F$ | 6 |  | 0 | $R$ | I |  | $F$ | 0 |  |  |  |  | Disable all besp |
|  | B | $F$ | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Preserver low bitto |
|  | C | 5 | 7 |  | $M$ | 0 | $V$ |  | D |  | A |  |  |  | of Port OC |
|  | D | A | 0 |  | A | $N$ | A |  | $B$ |  |  |  |  |  | Enceluleselected |
|  | E | $D$ | 3 |  | 0 | $U$ | $T$ |  | P | 0 | $R$ | T | 0 | C | big colmana) |
|  | F | 0 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8250 | D | $B$ |  | I | $N$ |  |  | $P$ | 0 | $R$ | $T$ | 0 | A | Lead keypand |
|  | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | invert so key |
|  | 2 | 2 | F |  | C | M | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\text { pressed }=1$ |
|  | 3 | A | 1 |  | A | $N$ | $A$ |  | $C$ |  |  |  |  |  | hank uenwanted |
|  | 4 | 4 | $F$ |  | $M$ | 0 | $V$ |  | $C$ |  | $A$ |  |  |  | kerpanes etore |
|  | 5 | 7 | $A$ |  | M | 0 | $V$ |  | A |  | $D$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 | (1) | 3 |  | 0 | U | T |  | $P$ | 0 | $P$ | 7 | 0 | C | Disable berpe |
|  | 7 | 0 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Presesme low luits |
|  | 8 | C | 9 |  | R | E | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | of Port OC |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | C |  |  |  | I | D | E | N | T | I | C | A | L |  | TO FIGURE 8-9 |
|  | D |  |  |  |  | 8 | 2 | 4 | 0 | - | 8 | 2 | 4 | 7 | NOT NEEDED |
| , | E |  |  |  |  | $F$ | 0 | R |  | 7 | H | I | S |  | EXERCISE |
|  | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Figure 8-33c |



For an initial test of your program, start after the initialization sequence by:

ADDR 8210 STEP

This permits normal monitor operation instead of using your interrupt service routine. You can step through to test program flow and the display function. Observe Register A as you step through 8230-823A and DISPR. Then RUN (still avoiding the initialization) and observe the display. Since your interrupt service routine is not called the count will not change.

Reset, and set a breakpoint at each of the OUT CNTO instructions in the main program. Then ADDR 8210 RUN, again avoiding initialization.

ADDR 821B BRK 821B BP.
ADDR 822B BRK 822B BP.
ADDR 8210 RUN

The program will be stopped the first time you press BRK, and if you press BRK repeatedly it will stop each time. Because you will still be pressing BRK when the monitor keyboard functions are enabled, the breakpoint will be displayed.

$$
\text { BRK } \quad 821 \mathrm{~B} \quad \text { BP. } 00
$$

Now RUN and press CLR. The monitor will give the usual display. of the program counter instruction.

| CLR | $822 B$ | D3 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| REG | $822 B$ | $A-02$ |

When your program writes 02 to CNTO at the next instruction, the monitor interrupt system will be disabled, just as if you had switched to AUTO mode. Press STEP, and observe that your program runs continuously. CLR will no longer stop at the breakpoint, because the monitor is not enabled to test for the breakpoint. BRK will reenable the monitor and your program will be stopped.

Now that both the main program with its monitor controls and the interrupt service routine have been tested, they can be operated together.

RESET
RUN

The interrupt system is enabled, your interrupt service routine is called to count in the memory locations 8300 and 8301 , and the count is displayed. CLR will disable the interrupts and counting will stop. BRK will enable interrupts and counting will proceed.

### 8.6.6 Combining Interrupt Service with Monitor Functions

In the preceding exercise the monitor breakpoint functions are not available, since the monitor interrupt has called your interrupt service instead of calling the monitor. You can have both functions, however. Replace the EI, RET instructions in your interrupt service routine with JMP 006A. Now after your interrupt service has been processed and the registers have been restored, normal monitor functions will be resumed. You can step through your main program, or enter breakpoints in your main program (but not in your interrupt service routine), or enter breakpoints at data storage locations. Set a breakpoint at 8301. The program will be stopped each time the high byte of your counter is incremented. The monitor will show the address of the interrupted instruction as the program counter. The address will vary because the program is only stopped after 256 instructions have been executed. Clear the breakpoint and observe that counting is much slower than it was with only your own inter rupt service. This illustrates the amount of time required by the monitor in checking for breakpoints.

INPUT/OUTPUT TECHNIQUES

### 8.6.7 External Interrupt

You can introduce an external interrupt instead of using the monitor interrupt source. Switch to AUTO mode and connect a clip lead to the INT pin at the upper right corner of the circuit board. Each time you ground it your inter rupt service routine will be called. Modify your program to display the entire two-byte counter.

| 8230 | $2 A$ | LHLD 8300 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 8231 | 00 |  |
| 8232 | 83 |  |
| 8233 | CD | CALL DWORD |
| 8234 | D1 |  |
| 8235 | 02 |  |
| 8236 | C3 | JMP 8230 |
| 8237 | 30 |  |
| 8238 | 82 |  |

You will see a number of different counts each time you ground the clip lead. The grounding will not make a single clean connection, but will open and close many times.

```
8.6.8 Interrupt Handling - Summary
In this exercise you have written and tested an interrupt service
routine, and used three important monitor features related to
interrupt operations:
a) Storing a jump address for dispatch of an interrupt to your service routine. This is available for any of seven RST instructions.
b) Enabling and disabling monitor interrupts while leaving other interrupts enabled.
c) Entering a data change breakpoint. This permits stopping program execution whenever an interrupt has been serviced.
Other ICS courses deal much more extensively with interrupt systems, and are recommended for students concerned with more detailed treatment of interrupt hardware and programming.
```


# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK 

CHAPTER 9

## DATA FORMAT

9. DATA FORMAT
In Chapter 8 you used only discrete inputs and outputs, each bit being essentially independent of all others. An output at C4, C5 or C6 selects a column of the keyboard; an input at any bit of Port A comes from one key. The timing of inputs and outputs, apart from their sequence, has no meaning. We will now consider parallel $I / O$, where $a$ data byte representing a number is transferred, and serial $1 / 0$, where the timing of signals carries information.

## DATA FORMAT

## SILICON GATE MOS 8255

## Input Control Signal Definition

## $\overline{\text { STB }}$ (Strobe Input)

A "low" on this input loads data into the input latch.

## IBF (Input Buffer Full F/F)

A "high" on this output indicates that the data has been loaded into the input latch; in essence, an acknowledgement IBF is set by the falling edge of the STB input and is reset by the rising edge of the RD input.

## INTR (Interrupt Request)

A "high" on this output can be used to interrupt the CPU when an input device is requesting service. INTR is set by the rising edge of STB if IBF is a "one" and INTE is a "one". It is reset by the falling edge of $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$. This procedure allows an input device to request service from the CPU by simply strobing its data into the port.

INTE A
Controlled by bit set/reset of $\mathrm{PC}_{4}$.
INTE B
Controlled by bit set/reset of $\mathrm{PC}_{2}$.


Mode 1 Input

MODE 9 (STROBED INPUT)
BASIC TIMING


9-2
Figure 9-1

Clearly the 8255 data ports are principally intended for 8-bit, parallel data transfer. Such data might come from a paper tape reader, an analog to digital converter, another computer, a keyboard that includes built-in scanning and decoding, or a communications device that includes serial to parallel conversion. A usual characteristic of such devices is that they generate a strobe signal indicating that an input byte is ready for the computer. When Port A or Port B of the 8255 is programmed to Input Mode 1 , it uses some bits of Port $C$ to handle the strobe and give an interrupt to the 8080 , and responds with an acknowledgement to the input device when the computer has accepted the data. Some input devices are designed to demand such an acknowledgement before entering the next byte, or to recognize an error condition if it is not received.

### 9.1.1 Paper Tape Reader Example

Figure 9-1 shows bit assignments and timing for Mode 1 input through an 8255. Consider how this would be used with a high-speed paper tape reader.


High Speed Paper Tape Reader Interface
Figure 9-2

The photoelectric reader senses holes in the paper tape. The sprocket hole (which is present at every character position even though there may be no other holes) is sensed to indicate that the data holes are in position to be read. The sprocket hole signal provides the strobe to latch data into the 8255. The logic and timing diagram of Figure 9-2 shows the sprocket hole signal clocking a $D$ flip-flop. The IBF signal is taken into the $D$ input. Since it is (presumably) low, indicating that the buffer is ready to take data, the flip-flop is reset. Its output is the strobe signal; this enters the data into the 8255 data latch and sets IBF high. IBF high sets the $D$ flip-flop through the asynchronous set input, ending the strobe pulse and latching the data. The end of strobe sets the $8255^{\prime}$ s interrupt request output. The 8080 acknowledges the interrupt, calls the interrupt service routine, and reads the data from the 8255.

The act of reading (I/O $R D$ ) resets $I B F$, indicating that the buffer is again available. All of this is normally accomplished while the sprocket hole is still visible to the reader. (At 1000 characters per second it lasts for about 200 microseconds, time enough for a reasonable interrupt service routine). While the IBF signal is high the reader's motor is allowed to coast; when $I B F$ is reset it runs again.

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In the second segment of the timing diagram the CPU is not available to read the data promptly. Either it has disabled the 8255 interrupt, or its program has disabled all interrupts. The lBF signal stays high beyond the sprocket hole signal. This signals the paper tape reader that, although the 8255 has accepted and latched the present character, it may not be ready in time for the next. The mechanism now applies a brake to stop paper motion before the next character. When the data are finally accepted by the CPU by an I/O Read, the motor can run again.

The final segment of the timing diagram shows a failure: IBF is not set by the strobe (perhaps the 8255 has been reprogrammed). Strobe goes low but fails to rise again. This can generate a visible alarm signal to indicate a loss of data.

### 9.1.2 Computer to Computer Interface

Some applications overburden a microprocessor, particularly when two or more tasks require fast interrupt service response. One solution, of course, is to use a faster or more powerful computer such as a bipolar bit-slice machine, whose instruction time may be a small fraction of the $8080^{\prime}$ s. Often it is more economical to divide the task between two microprocessors. They will then need to communicate with each other. This can be handled in three ways:
a) Through input/output ports
b) Direct memory access
c) Memory sharing

## SILICON GATE MOS 8255



## Mode 2 Control Word

## Operating Modes

## Mode 2 (Strobed Bi-Directional Bus I/O)

This functional configuration provides a means for communicating with a peripheral device or structure on a single 8 -bit bus for both transmitting and receiving data (bi-directional bus I/O). "Handshaking" signals are provided to maintain proper bus flow discipline in a similar manner to Mode 1. Interrupt generation and enable/disable functions are also available.

Mode 2 Basic Functional Definitions:

- Used in Group A only.
- One 8-bit, bi-directional bus Port (Port A) and a 5-bit control Port (Port C).
- Both inputs and outputs are latched.
- The 5 -bit control port (Port C) is used for control and status for the 8 -bit, bi-directional bus port (Port A).


## Bi-Directional Bus I/O Control Signal Definition INTR (Interrupt Request)

A high on this output can be used to interrupt the CPU for both input or output operations.


Mode 2

## Output Operations

## $\overline{\text { OBF }}$ (Output Buffer Full)

The $\overline{O B F}$ output will go "low" to indicate that the CPU has written data out to Port A.

## ACK (Acknowledge)

A "low" on this input enables the tri-state output buffer of Port $A$ to send out the data. Otherwise, the output buffer will be in the high-impedance state.

INTE 1 (The INTE Flip-Flop associated with OBF)
Controlled by bit set/reset of $\mathrm{PC}_{6}$.

## Input Operations

## $\overline{\text { STB }}$ (Strobe Input)

A 'low" on this input loads data into the input latch.

## IBF (Input Buffer Full F/F)

A "high" on this output indicates that data has been loaded into the input latch.

INTE 2 (The INTE Flip-Flop associated with IBF)
Controlled by bit set/reset of $\mathrm{PC}_{4}$.

### 9.1.2.1 I/O Port Interface

One computer can write to a data latch (such as the 8212) and create an interrupt to another computer, which can read the data through a similar port or through a tri-state buffer. The 8255 can operate Port $A$ as a tri-state, bi-directional bus interface, avoiding the need for a second device between the systems. The 8255 is connected as an $I / O$ port to one 8080 (the master) and Port A is connected to tine data bus of the other (the slave). Five bits of Port $C$ are used for handshaking between the processors; the slave needs additional gating to enable Port A to interact with its bus.

Figure $9-3$ defines Mode 2 of the 8255 , and Figure $9-4$ shows the connection between two processors through the 8255. The master writes and reads Ports $A$ and $B$ as in any other use of the device. The slave is connected to Port A. It can address the 8255 through an I/O Read or Write with a port address that gives the "Select" signal. I/O Write and Select generate an $\overline{S T B}$ input to $C 4$, latching the slave's data bus content into the Port $A$ input latch, to be read by the master. I/O Read and Select generate an $\overline{A C K}$ input to C6, which places the output latch content onto the port $A$ outputs and so onto the slave's data bus. Otherwise Port A is in the high impedance state. IBF (Port C5) goes low when the input buffer is empty. $\overline{\mathrm{OBF}}$ (Port C7) goes low when the output buffer is full. Either of these will generate an interrupt to the slave CPU to indicate that the 8255 needs service. These two signals may also be taken to other input ports of the slave, so that it can determine which kind of service is needed.

SYSTEM 1
SYSTEM 2
MASTER
SLAVE


### 9.1.2.2 Direct Memory Access Interface


#### Abstract

Clearly a DMA channel can be established between two processors. It may be handled by $1 / O$ ports with one processor given direct memory access to the other processor, or there may be separate hardware to operate DMA to both processors. This subject will not be covered further since DMA has been extensively discussed.


### 9.1.2.3 Shared Memory

A powerful but somewhat expensive technique for interfacing two processors is shown in Figure 9-5. Some part of memory is fully accessible to both processors, and either can address it at any time. As the figure shows, ten logic chips are needed to share 512 bytes (four chips) of RAM. The interesting point is the ready access each processor has to the data: it is simply addressed like any other part of memory. The timing diagram in Figure 9-5 shows what happens if both processors address the memory at the same time. Whoever gets there first has immediate access, while the other must enter a WAIT state for one clock period. If the first processor uses the memory for two consecutive reads or writes (with an INR $M$ or $S H L D$ instruction, for instance), the other must wait for two machine cycles. It is guaranteed access within one full instruction cycle, however, unless the other processor is executing a program stored in the shared memory. (That operation is not unreasonable. A master CPU might pass some lengthy task to a slave by loading a program into the shared memory).


SYSTEM 1



Figure 9-5

The shared memory is accessible to both processors, but it is vitally important that one does not alter data that the other is using, or unforeseen results are likely to occur. A typical convention is to reserve certain locations for flags and addresses to be passed between the two processors. System 1 writes (in a reserved location) a byte that indicates: "I have stored a message for you to process". The next two bytes identify the starting location of the message, and another two bytes indicate its length. Once having written these dota, System 1 must not alter the data until System 2 responds by writing (in the same reserved location) a byte that indicates "I have finished processing this message". Thereafter System 2 must not alter the data in that message until it has been acknowledged by System 1.

In general one of the two systems must be responsible for allocating storage areas, or else each system must have some portion of the shared memory allocated to it. In a typical system, however, only one of the processors initiates messages, while the other always responds. In this case the initiator would generally be responsible for control of memory allocation.

We can attach a meaning to the time of arrival of a data bit, just as we attach a meaning to its position in a binary number. To communicate an eight bit number from one machine to another, the sender outputs a discrete signal on one bit of a'data port, thereafter sending successive bits at fixed time intervals. In the early days of computers it was common to send a data signal and two timing signals as discrete outputs.


### 9.2.1 Signal Coding

These signals are easy to generate and interpret. The sender switches the clock signal at some convenient time interval. Each time it is switched low, a new data bit is sent on a separate line. The receiver observes the clock and reads the data bit when the clock switches high. The first bit of each word is accompanied by a word mark. This delineates characters so that if an occasional bit is lost the entire message will not be garbled.

This scheme is simple, but transmitting it over long distances is extravagant as the timing signals carry very little information. If both transmitter and receiver have accurate timing sources, the bit clock is unnecessary. The receiver can recreate it, starting from the edge of the word mark. There are several ways of transmitting the word mark on the same wires with the data, thereby greatly reducing the cost.
We can put time intervals between words on the data line and fit
the word marks into the intervals.
from the data bits (by a narrower or wider pulse, or a different
frequen for instance) they will still serve the same function.

### 9.2.2 Synchronous Communication

A technique which is in common use is to send word marks only infrequently, maintaining a well synchronized clock over a long message. The word mark is now transmitted not as a single pulse for each word, but as a special, recognizable pattern called an Idle character.

IDLE


DATA


This is merged into the normal data stream as though it were part of the message. It fulfills the role of a word mark in controlling synchronization of the bit clock and in marking the boundary of a character. When the receiver is seeking synchronization, it collects eight bits and compares the pattern with that of the known idle. If the pattern is wrong it discards the oldest bit and shifts in the next. This continues until the idle pattern is recognized, indicating that synchronization has been achieved and communication can begin. It is common in such systems to have at least some degree of reverse communication or feedback from the receiver to the sender, which is used to say "OK" or "HELP". This is called a supervisory channel and is only used to operate the communication system, not to transmit messages.

This method is referred to as "synchronous communication" because of the requirement for continuously synchronized send and receive signals. After the initial period of seeking synchronization, the receiver stays synchronized by observing signal transitions in the data stream. Its crystal clock is able to maintain sync even if long strings of data are all ones or all zeros, of if the signal is temporarily lost. Thus all the signals on the communications line are part of the message being sent. If there is a break in the message, the sender must fill the spaces with idle characters so that the time from the beginning of one word to the beginning of the next is always exactly one word time.

### 9.2.3 Asynchronous Communication

An alternative method is especially suited to devices such as the teletype, whose characters are transmitted and received asynchronously. There may be long pauses between characters, but occasionally one character will quickly follow another.

The transmission rate for a teletype is usually 10 characters per second or approximately 120 words per minute ( a very fast typing speed). The same signal format has been adopted for faster electronic communication devices.

In asynchronous communication each character is independent and carries its own word mark. The adopted convention is for each data character to be preceded by a zero, followed by one or more bit-times (intervals) of the "one" signal.


After some period of time with no data, (i.e. constant "one" signals) the receiver will see a transition to zero. This signals the start of a character, and the receiver synchronizes its clock.

One half bit-time later the receiver checks the start bit. If it is not zero, an error has been made. Thereafter the receiver accepts eight bits, reading them at one bit-time intervals, then tests the stop bit to see that it is a "one". Now the receiver waits until another transition to zero marks the start of next character.
Within a character the data are transmitted least significant bit first, so the sequence is:

Start Bit
Bit 0

Bit 7
Stop Bit
(optional addiitional stop bits)

This data format has been adopted for asynchronous communication by the American National Standards Institute and by CCITT. The data content is also coded in a standardized form. These standards were promulgated by the Anerican Standards Committee on Information Interchange (ASCII).

### 9.3 ASYNCHRONOUS TRANSMITTING AND RECEIVING

A special purpose communications device, the 8251, is available as a peripheral to the 8080. This is a "Universal Synchronous Asynchronous Receiver - Transmitter" (UART). It is a very capable device, and in any busy system its use is well justified. Often, however, the microprocessor has little enough to do that it can readily handle serial communications by "bit banging" - processing and timing each bit under program control. In this and the next exercises we will program the MTS to send and receive in the asynchronous format.

The tape cassette modem circuit on the MTS provides for recording and reading serial data. Connect an audio cable from the $I \mathbb{N}$ connector to the earphone connector of a cassette recorder, and from the OUT connector of the MTS to the microphone or auxiliary connection of the recorder. The programs to be developed will then record and read tapes in the same format used by the monitor read and record program.

The output from the writing program must be at PORTOCO (the least significant bit of port address 02) and the input is received at PORTOBO (the least significant bit of port address 01).

### 9.3.1 Serial Transmission Exercise

For practice in handling interrupts, we will write an interrupt service routine that will transmit one bit each time it is entered. If a timer were available we could use it to generate the interrupt at the appropriate intervals. In this program we will call a timing loop subroutine to generate the time delay, and use a programmed call to the interrupt service at the end of the delay period.

The main program loads successive bytes from memory and passes them to the interrupt service routine. Since in a real interrupt system the main program has no knowledge of when an interrupt occurs, the data must be passed through some fixed location in memory, and interrupt service must indicate when it has finished with one byte and needs another.

The interrupt service routine must send start and stop bits as well as data bits. A simple way of handling this is to store the full data pattern in 12 bits. This will be shifted out, one bit at a time, by the interrupt service routine. When the pattern is empty ( 0000 ), both the interrupt service routine and the main program will know that the character has been sent. No more bits will be sent until the main program stores a new pattern.

DATA FORMAT

## This page intentionally left blank.

### 9.3.2 Character Data Pattern

The data pattern is stored as two bytes, as follows:


This is loaded and stored by the main program by:

| MOV L,A | Data byte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| MVI H,07 | Stop bits |
| DAD H | Enters start bit |

Interrupt service will shift the data pattern right and output each successive bit until the data pattern is empty (all zero).


Serial Data Transmit Interrupt Service Routine
Figure 9-6

### 9.3.3 Interrupt Service Routine


#### Abstract

The interrupt service routine is shown in Figure 9-6. Write this routine and test it as described in Section 8.6.2. Note that the output is to be PORTOCO, which is connected to the tape cassette modem. Also copy the data bit to PORTOC2, which controls the Carry Indicator.


| 9F | SBB A | Copy CY to all bits |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| E6 | ANI 05 | Mask for bits 0,2 |
| 05 |  |  |
| F6 | ORI 02 | Set Bit 1 to enable monitor |
| 02 |  |  |
| D3 | OUT PORTOC |  |

This will cause the carry indicator to display each bit as it is transmitted.

We will use RST5 to call the interrupt service routine. You can store a jump address at 83EC,ED.

| LXI H | (interrupt service address) |
| :--- | :--- |
| SHLD | $83 E C$ |

Since the monitor automatically stores the address 8228 as a jump address for RST5, you can avoid the need for these instructions by locating your interrupt service routine at 8228.


Serial Transmit - Main

### 9.3.4 Main Program

After testing your interrupt service routine, write the main program shown in Figure 9-7. This will not fit in the space from 82008227, and the following locations are used by interrupt service. It is convenient to place initialization functions (in this case the two data entry calls) before interrupt service, and the main loop beyond it, say at 8250.

We can save both effort and program space by sharing a delay subroutine between this transmit program and the receive program of the next exercise. The monitor contains a suitable delay subroutine, which includes data input:

DELYT
(03EB)

Delays for a time set by Register C. $106+148(C)$ system clocks, including CALL All registers preserved. Zero Set. Returns Carry $=$ input bit from PORTOBO.

Load Register $C$ with 7D to make this delay compatible with the tape cassette program of the monitor.

DATA FORMAT

The solution given in Figure 9-8 also uses another monitor subroutine:

SHLRT
(022D)

This tests the content of (HL) and then shifts (HL) right one bit. It returns the least significant bit of (HC) in Carry. Zero is set if the entry value of (HL) was 0000 .

You can use your program to record a tape, which the monitor tape reading program can then read back. In the next exercise we will create a serial input program which will read tapes recorded by this program or by the monitor.





# Transmit - Receive Data Entry <br> Figure 9-9 

### 9.4 ASYNCHRONOUS RECEIVING

Modify the keyboard data entry section of the previous main program to select between recording and receiving according to whether a byte count is entered at the second call to ENTWD (Note that ENTWD returns the Zero flag set if no hex keys are entered.) Figure 9-9 shows this program segment. It will allow you to record data from memory to tape, then stop and rewind the tape and read it back.

It is somewhat more complex to receive than to transmit in the serial format because two input functions are needed:
a) Wait for a start bit
b) Receive successive data bits

The start bit is initially detected when the received data bit changes from one to zero -- from a stop or no data condition to a start bit. This must be recognized promptly in order to obtain synchronization between the incoming data and the receiver's timing device or programmed timing loop.

To use interrupts for receiving data we would need to generate an interrupt at the leading edge of the start bit to obtain synchronization, delay one half bit time to the middle of the start bit, and then delay one bit time to the middle of each successive bit until the entire character has been received. In this exercise we will use a loop that repeatedly tests the input until it becomes low. Then a timing loop will be used to accept successive bits.


Wait for Start Bit
Figure 9-10

### 9.4.1 Wait for Start Bit

The subroutine shown in Figure $9-10$ repeatedly reads the input from PORTOBO and waits for a start bit:

IN PORTOBO
RAR
JC

The three instructions above take 24 clock times or about 12 microseconds. This gives adequate precision for detecting the edge of the start bit at low data rates.

Now we delay one half bit time and check to be sure that the input is still low. This avoids synchronizing the receive timing to a momentary "glitch". There is good confidence that if the falling edge has been seen and the signal is low half a bit time later, the signal received is a legitimate start bit.

Recall from Section 9.3.4 that the delay subroutine DELYT delays for one bit time and returns with the input bit in Carry. An alternate entry delays balf a bit time:

DELYC
(03F0)
Delays for a time set by Register C: $48+74$ (C) system clocks, including CALL.

All registers preserved. Zero set.
Returns Carry $=$ input bit from PORTOBO.

Using the DELYC entry avoids any need for changing the entry value in (C) between the half bit time and full bit time delays.


Data byte complete


Receive Data Bits
Figure 9-11

### 9.4.2 Receive Data Bits

After the start bit has been recognized we must receive and store eight successive data bits at full bit time intervals. Figure 9-11 shows a suitable process. Register A is used both for saving the received data and for counting bits. The start bit is marked by shifting a one into Bit 7. When that bit is shifted out from Bit 0 we know that the eight data bits have been shifted in.

It is possible to misread the start bit and synchronize improperly. If this happens, the data received will be garbage. Some protection against this is obtained by testing to make sure that a proper stop bit is received. If characters are received at lengthy intervals, as from a manually operated keyboard, this test has little, if any, value. When a continuous string of characters is being received, however, any timing error is likely to propagate to the following characters. Now synchronization will occur, not on a start bit but when a one- zero transition occurs in the data. Fairly soon this is likely to result in a zero data bit appearing when the program expects a stop bit. The stop bit test detects such an error.

The subroutine of Figure 9-11 returns with the data byte in (A) and the stop bit in Carry. Thus, if Carry is not set at return, an error has been detected. The Zero flag is set by DELYT, and so returned by the receive subroutine.


Receive Main Loop
Figure 9-12

### 9.4.3 Receive Main Loop

In the previous exercise we recorded a program on a tape cassette. Now we will read it back. Rather than storing the program, however, we will compare it with the program already in memory. Thus, if the recording or receiving program is bad, or if the two are not compatible, we will not have destroyed the programs and will quickly detect the problem.

If an error is detected, either by lack of a stop bit or by disagreement between the received data and the previously stored data, store the memory address and enter the monitor by RST4, as shown in Figure 9-12.

The monitor uses the content of $83 E 4,83 E 5$ as the memory address, so MEM will display the location and the data byte that was recorded or reread incorrectly. REG A displays the received data byte.

Since the delay subroutine returns with Zero set, if the error was detected by a missing stop bit the Zero indicator will be on. If the error was detected by the comparison, Zero will be off.

As long as data bytes or a continuous "one" input signal are received, there is no exit from the receive loop. When the tape reaches the place where you stopped it during recording, an error is bound to occur. MEM will display the address beyond the last byte that was recorded.


RECEIVE MAIN LOOP




### 9.5 MONITOR TAPE PROGRAMS AND SUBROUTINES

The modules you have developed in the preceding exercises are available in different form in the monitor. We have already used DELYT, DELYC, and SHLRT. Before defining the other subroutines we will describe the use of the monitor tape recording functions.

### 9.5.1 Tape Recording Program

The normal monitor function of recording a program on the tape is accomplished by:

Set toggle switch to AUTO.
Turn recorder on.
RESET
ADDR (starting address) MEM
ADDR (stopping address) BRK
ADDR 0371 RUN

The tape recording program uses the breakpoint system to terminate the transmission. It is important that no other breakpoints be entered while this is running.

While the program is running, the display is disabled. When the data have been recorded, the display will show: 0382 CD . Wait about two seconds before turning the recorder off. Note that the content of the stopping address is not recorded on the tape. Instead, an error check character is recorded. Therefore, the stopping address must be the next location past the end of the program you want to record. When you read the program back, the error check character will be
written to this location. When you have finished recording you can observe this character by pressing BRK. It will display the stopping address, the $B P$. symbol, and the error check character.

The tape is recorded at a data rate of 110 baud. This means 110 bit intervals per second. Since the tape program sends 12 bits per character, the data rate is 9.17 bytes per second. Each page (256 bytes) of memory recorded takes 28 seconds. If you wish, you may increase the data rate by loading a different delay count in Register $C$, and enter the program at 0373. A value of 2 D in Register $C$ generates 300 baud or 25 characters per second.

If you operate this program in STEP mode the tape will be recorded correctly but the final display of the breakpoint count will not show the recorded check character accurately.

### 9.5.2 Tape Reading Program

To read back and store in memory a program that has been recorded on tape, listen to the tape until you hear the steady tone that was recorded before you started the recording program. Stop the tape, connect the recorder earphone output to the modem input, set the toggle switch to AUTO, and enter:

```
                                    ADDR (starting address) MEM
                                    ADDR 03AE
                                    Start the tape player
                                    RUN
```

It is important that the recorded tape have a few seconds of continuous tone before the data starts, to give you time enough to hear it, stop the recorder, and press RUN after starting it again. The tape must be giving the continuous tone when you press RUN. If data has already started before RUN, an error will be detected and the display will show Err.

While the tape is being read the display will be disabled. At the end of the tape the display will show 03CF C5. Hegister pair HL will contain the stopping address. $\operatorname{ADDR} 8 / H$ MEM will display the error check character recorded when the tape was made. The reading program has also calculated the error check character, and if the two agree, Register $A$ will contain 00. If it does not, an error has occurred.

### 9.5.3 Error Check Character (LRC)

The error check character, also called "longitudinal redundancy check" (LRC) character, is the exclusive OR of all data bytes sent or received. The reading program receives each data byte from a subroutine, stores it, and calculates the LRC.

| MOV M, A | Store data byte |
| :--- | :--- |
| INX H | Address next byte |
| XRA E | Calculate LRC |
| MOV E, A | Save LRC |

The last character recorded is the LRC of all preceding characters. This character is included in the LRC calculated in receiving, which therefore must be zero if no errors have occurred.

### 9.6 MONITOR SEND AND RECEIVE SUBROUTINES

The subroutine used by the monitor for sending and receiving are also available to your programs. We have already defined the delay subroutines DELYT and DELYC (see Sections 9.3.4 and 9.4.1). Additional subroutines are defined here. In the exercise of Section 9.6.5 we will use these monitor subroutines to record and read cassette tapes.

### 9.6.1 SOTBT (0382)

This monitor subroutine combines the testing and shifting function for the data pattern with the process of loading the next byte when the pattern is empty. You can call this subroutine from an interrupt service routine or at intervals set by a programmed timing loop. It must be entered with the data pattern in (HL). It returns with the data pattern shifted right, and the data bit to be output in bit 0 of Register A. Carry and Zero flags are both cleared. When the pattern is empty SOTBT loads the memory address from (83E4, 83E5) and tests whether this address has been entered as a breakpoint. If not, it loads the content of this address to the data pattern, stores the next memory address, and returns a start bit. This is marked by Zero, Not Carry.

SOTBT also calculates an LRC character (see Section 9.5.3) for the message being transmitted. When the breakpoint address is encountered, SOTBT loads the LRC instead of the data byte into the data pattern. When the LRC has been transmitted, SOTBT returns Carry, Not Zero, and $(A)=F F$ to indicate the end of transmission.

The starting address must be stored at (83E4, 83E5). The stopping address may be entered as a breakpoint either by monitor command or by calling a monitor subroutine. Section 9.6.2 describes entry and removal of breakpoints under program control.

## SOTBT Data Entry and Return

Enter with
$(H L)=$ data pattern
(83DE-83E3) loaded by entering stopping address as a breakpoint.
(83E4-83E5) memory address for data byte.
Return
(a) If the data pattern (HL) was not empty (zero)
at entry, SOTBT returns:
(A) 000 bit to be output.
(HL) shifted right
Not Carry, Not Zero.
(b) If the data pattern (HL) was empty at entry, and more data remains to be sent, SOTBT returns: $(A)=00000000$ to send start bit
(L) data byte $(H)=\begin{array}{lllllllll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1\end{array}$ to send 3 stop bits Not Carry, Zero
(c) If the data pattern (HL) was empty and the stopping address has been reached, return as in (b) except that
$(L)=$ LRC for message
(83EO) changed to mark end of message
(d) After the LRC has been transmitted SOTBT returns
(A) $=\mathrm{FF}$
(L) $=\mathrm{FF}$
(H) $=07$

Carry, Not Zero
In all cases SOTBT preserves (BC).

Note that during data transmission the data returned in (A) by SOTBT, which will be written to PORTOC, disables monitor interrupts. At the end of transmission SOTBT returns $(A)=F F$ which enables monitor inter rupts when written to PORTOC. If the AUTO/STEP toggle switch is set to STEP a RST7 interrupt will occur.

### 9.6.2 Program Entry and Removal of Breakpoints

The breakpoint system can be controlled by user programs. This might be used in debugging a complicated program, to enter a breakpoint within some subroutine only when it is called by one of several modules. Another use is to let the breakpoint system terminate a memory search, as is done in the serial output module of the monitor.

Three monitor subroutines are used in such a process. BKLOC finds a breakpoint that exists in the table. BKENT enters a breakpoint into the table, and BKRMV deletes it from the table. It is important that BKLOC be used in conjunction with the other two subroutines, and that monitor interrupts be disabled while these subroutines are in use.

Their addresses are:

BKLOC 01C3
BKENT O1A3
BKRMV 0186

## DATA FORMAT

## Given an address in (HL), it can be entered as a breakpoint by:

 DIXRA ..... A
CALL BKLOC
CNC BKENT
EI
The address can be removed by:
DI
XRA ..... A
CALL BKLOC
CC BKRMV
EI
Subroutine BKLOC finds the location in the breakpoint table of thegiven address, and returns Carry set if the address exists. Then itcan be entered or removed. The conditional calls to BKENT and BKRMVprevent duplicating an existing breakpoint or removing a non-existingbreakpoint. Since these subroutines lengthen or shorten the stack itis vital that they not be used improperly. The procedures shownabove protect against stack errors. BKLOC must be entered with Carryclear.

### 9.6.3 Subroutine BKMEM (O1D5)

This is the subroutine used by the monitor breakpoint system to test for a change in the data stored at a memory location that has been entered as a breakpoint. SOTBT marks the end of transmission of the message by changing the data stored in the breakpoint memory table (rather than that in the main memory), which allows BKMEM to detect the end of transmission.

To be effective, BKMEM must be entered with Carry cleared.

If no breakpoint data has changed, BKMEM returns:
Not Carry, Not Zero
(A) = Data byte from oldest breakpoint
$(B C)=$ Address of oldest breakpoint
(DE) Preserved
$(H L)=$ Address of count byte of oldest breakpoint

If breakpoint data has been changed, BKMEM returns:
Carry, Not Zero
(A) = Data byte that has changed
$(B C)=$ Address of data byte that has changed
(DE) Preserved
$(H L)=$ Address of count byte for breakpoint whose data has changed

### 9.6.4 Subroutine SINWS (O3CF)


#### Abstract

This subroutine waits for a start bit and then for successive data bits. It includes calls to the delay subroutine. SINWS returns with the received data byte in (A), stop bit in Carry, and Not Zero if a character has been received. If a long delay expires without a start bit SINWS returns with Zero set.


The delay times must be loaded to Registers $C$ and $B$ before the call to SINWS.
$(C)=B i t$ time delay count
Bit time $=106+148$ (C) system clocks
$(B)=$ Delay to wait for start bit
Delay 9.375 milliseconds for each count in (B).

All registers except (A) are preserved.


### 9.6.5 Transmit/Receive with Monitor Subroutines

This exercise uses the subroutine described above to record data on tape and read it back, comparing the received data with that recorded.

A starting address must be entered via ENTWD. (See Figure 9-14.) Another call to ENTWD accepts a stopping address for transmission, but if none is entered the receive function is performed. ENTWD returns Zero set after a command.

### 9.6.5.1 Transmission

Monitor subroutine SOTBT is called by an interrupt service routine, activated by a programmed RST6 after the time delay subroutine DELYT. At the end of the transmission the service routine stores $F F$ as the high byte of the data pattern, indicating completion as a signal to the main loop. Interrupt service and the transmit loop are shown in Figures 9-15 and 9-16.


Transmit Interrupt Service With SOTBT
Figure 9-15


Transmit Main Loop With Breakpoint Entry
Figure 9-16

The main transmit loop uses the procedures of Section 9.6.2 to enter the stopping address as a breakpoint and remove it when transmission is finished (Figure 9-16). It recognizes the end of the message by finding $F F$ at address 8301, which otherwise contains stop bits or zeros. The final address and the LRC generated by SOTBT are displayed, along with a symbol, Lr. Since the display subroutines enable monitor interrupts, it is necessary here to disable interrupts until the breakpoint has been removed. Otherwise the monitor will detect a data change at the breakpoint, because SOTBT changes the data in the breakpoint table to indicate that the LRC has been sent.

### 9.6.5.2 Receiving

The receive loop calls SINWS in three different places (Figure 9-17). The first call is repeated indefinitely until a data byte is received. Data bytes are compared with successive data locations in memory, and the address and data are displayed until one of two possible events terminates the operation.
a) SINWS returns Zero set, to indicate the end of the recording.
b) Received data is different from the memory data.

In the latter case, there may be an error, or the LRC recorded on tape may have been received. If an error has occurred, more data will be received, but if the LRC has been received SINWS should return Zero set. This is tested by the final call to SINWS. If there is an error, Err is displayed. If the end of message is found, Lr is displayed to signify the LRC character.


Receive Main Loop With SINWS
Figure 9-17a


Receive Main Loop With SINWS
Figure 9-17b
MOV r,r ..... 5
MOV r,M; MOV M,r ..... 7
MVI $r$ ..... 7
MVI M ..... 10
LXI rp ..... 10
LDA; STA ..... 13
LDAX; STAX ..... 7
LHLD; SHLD ..... 16
SPHL; PCHL ..... 5
XCHG ..... 4
XTHL ..... 18
POP ..... 10
PUSH ..... 11
INR r; DCR 4 ..... 5
INR M; DCR M ..... 10
INX rp; DCX rp ..... 5
DAD rp ..... 10
ADD r; ADC r; SUB r; SBB r ..... 4
ANA $r$; XRA $r$; ORA $r, C M P r$ ADD M, etc ..... 7
ADI etc ..... 7
RLC; RRC; RAL; RAR
RLC; RRC; RAL; RAR DAA; CMA; STC; CMC
JMP; JNZ; etc ..... 10
CALL ..... 17
CNZ etc - executed ..... 17

- not executed ..... 11
$\overline{\text { RET }}$ ..... 10
RNZ etc - executed ..... 11
- not executed ..... 5
HLT (if interrupted immediately) ..... 4
NOP
10
IN; OUT
4
4
EI; DI
EI; DI ..... 11


### 9.7 CALCULATING DELAY TIMES

In the previous exercises we have used the monitor subroutine DELYT
and DELYC. When you design delay loops with critical time
requirements, it is necessary to calculate the timing. Figure 9-15
lists the number of clocks for each 8080 instruction. As an exercise
design a delay subroutine to replace DELYT in the transmit program.
Calculate the timing and the necessary delay value.

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MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK

CHAPTER 10

BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

## 10. BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

A number of the exercises presented in earlier chapters have
included some arithmetic functions, including (in Chapter
4) addition, subtraction and multiplication. In this chapter we
review the basic concepts of binary arithmetic and the arithmetic
instructions. We shall write programs for decimal arithmetic and
signed numbers. The multiplication by repetitive addition technique
used in Chapter 4 would be very slow for multi-byte numbers; we shall
write a fast multiplication program using shifting. Fractions and
floating point numbers are also discussed.

### 10.1 BINARY ADDITION

The rules for binary addition were presented in Chapter 1 , Section 1.2 .4 , and a quick review of that material is suggested. The complete addition table for binary arithmetic is:
$0+0=0$
$0+1=1$
$1+0=1$
$1+1=10$

Addition of two bit numbers produces carries into the third position. This extends to full eight bit addition:

11111111
$+11111111$
$=111111110$

Eight bit addition can generate a carry into the ninth position. The addition of two numbers of any size may produce a carry into the next bit position. When a carry is generated, however, the sum never has ones in all positions. The example above shows the addition of the two largest possible eight bit numbers. A carry is generated but the least significant bit is zero. This is of fundamental importance for multiple precision addition.

### 10.1.1 Multiple Precision:

The use of more than one word to represent a number is termed multiple precision. If the number is an integer, this permits a
greater value than can be represented in a single word. If the number is a fraction it permits greater precision than can be represented in a single word. The number of words used often serves to describe the operation. Thus, double precision refers to arithmetic operations using two words, triple precision to three words, etc.

Consider a double precision addition in which each number is represented by two memory words (or bytes in an eight bit machine):


We add the two less significant bytes, and if a carry is generated, as above, it must be added in with the more significant bytes. Even if every bit in all four bytes was one, only a single carry bit is generated from the complete addition. This permits a multiple precision addition to proceed as follows:
a) Add the two less significant bytes.
b) Add the next two bytes, and if a carry resulted from the preceding addition add it into the sum.
c) Repeat (b) for as many bytes as are required.

The ADC instruction is used for multiple precision arithmetic. As with the other arithmetic and logical instructions there is a version of $A D C$ using each of the registers as a source:

| 8F | ADC | A | Add the content of the |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 88 | ADC | B | named register and the |
| 89 | ADC | C | Carry flag to the content |
| 8A | ADC | D | of Register A, and place |
| 8B | ADC | E | the result in Register A. |
| 8C | ADC | H |  |
| 8D | ADC | L | All flags are set or reset |
| 8E | ADC | M | according to the result. |

A double precision add of the content of register pairs $B, C$ and D, E could be done by:

| MOV | A,C | (A) <- Less significant byte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ADD | E | Ignore previous carry on first addition |
| MOV | E,A | Store less significant byte |
| MOV | A,B | (A) <- More significant byte |
| ADC | D | Add with carry |
| MOV | D,A | Store more significant byte |

The 8080 includes a separate double precision add function; however, allowing two register pairs to be added directly. The above could have been performed by:

| XCHG | Move (D, E) into (H,L) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DAD B | Add (B,C) to (H,L) |
| XCHG | Put the result in (D, E) |

Of course if one number had been in $H L$ originally and we wanted the result in $H L$, a single DAD instruction would do the job. Therefore, double precision is usually done with DAD rather than ADC. For convenience in discussing these functions we will refer to the augend (a number to which another will be added to generate a sum) and the addend (a number to be added to an augend to generate a sum) .

## BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

### 10.2 FOUR BYTE ADDITION

We will use the following specification for this exercise:
a) To a four byte number in memory locations 8380-8383 add the four byte number in 8390-8393.
b) Place the result in 8380-8383 and clear 8390-8393.
c) Display the result.

Write a subroutine for the addition, to be called with addresses and byte count already loaded. Note that you can modify addresses and count bytes without affecting the Carry flag, because INR and DCR affect all flags except carry.

Figures $10-1$ through $10-4$ present flow charts and coding sheets for this exercise.


Main Programs for Four Byte Add and Display Figure 10-1


Multi Byte Add Subroutine
Figure 10-2
MAIN PROGRAM FOR 4 BYTE ADD AND DISPLAY



The calling program uses a feature that is seldom convenient with the monitor - the HLT instruction. After displaying the result, your taskis finished until you load new data, so it is reasonable to HLT until an interrupt occurs. As long as the STEP/AUTO toggle switch is in the STEP position, however, the monitor interrupts at every instruction, so you cannot really halt. You will be interrupted, go back to the start and do the addition and display again. Since the augend now contains the result and the addend is cleared, the result will be the same and the display will be fixed, as though the halt had been effective. Now if you turn the switch to AUTO, the processor will indeed balt until you press RST or introduce an interrupt some other way. The difference is not visible unless you watch with an oscilloscope. The modification shown in Figure 10-5 uses a trick to make it visible. We turn on the decimal point at the right hand digit just before the halt, and turn it off immediately afterward, so it is only illuminated during the halt. Try it in both STEP and AUTO modes.


### 10.3 BINARY SUBTRACTION

The process of subtraction is defined by these equations:

If $\quad \mathrm{A}=\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{C}$
then $A-B=C$
and $A-C=B$

This can be expressed in terms of 8080 instructions:

MOV A,B
$\mathrm{ADD} \quad \mathrm{C} \quad(\mathrm{A})<-(\mathrm{B})+(\mathrm{C})$
SUB B (A) $<-(A)-(B) \quad$ result is equal to $C$

Successive $A D D$ and SUB of the same values cancel each other, except that flags may be affected. The subtract instruction is again one of a set which includes one for each register:

97 SUB A

90 SUB B

91 SUB C

92 SUB D

93 SUB E

94 SUB H

95 SUB L

96 SUB M

Subtract the content of the named register from the content of Register A. If the content of the named register was greater than Register $A$, set the carry flag. Set or clear the other flags according to the results of the subtraction.

Like ADD, SUB ignores and destroys the previous content of the Carry flag. Another set of instructions $S B B$, includes the Carry flag:
$\mathrm{SBB} \mathrm{r} \quad(\mathrm{A}) \quad(\mathrm{A})<-\quad(\mathrm{r}) \quad-\quad(\mathrm{CY})$
Example: 98 SBB B (A) (A) $<-$ (B) - (CY)

The result of SUB or SBB sets or clears the Carry flag, which is meant to be passed to the next more significant byte. In subtraction, it becomes a borrow flag. It is set if the subtrahend ( (B, in the example) is greater than the minuend (A), and in multi-byte subtraction the borrow is subtracted from $A$ when the next byte is processed. This is done by the subtract with borrow instruction:

| $9 F$ | SBB | Subtract from the content |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 98 | SBB | B | of the Register $A$ |
| 99 | SBB | C | content of the Carry |
| $9 A$ | SBB | D | flag and the content |
| $9 B$ | SBB | E | of the named register. |
| $9 C$ | SBB | H | Place the result in |
| $9 D$ | SBB | L | Register A. Set or clear |
| $9 E$ | SBB M | all flags according to the result. |  |

A double precision subtraction can be done by:

```
    MOV A,C
    SUB L
    MOV E,A (E)<- (C) - (L)
    MOV A,B
    SBB H
    MOV D,A (D) <- (B) - (H) - (CY)
The result in (DE) is (BC) - (HL). Multiple precision subtraction
would use the SBB M instruction:
LDAX B
SBB M
STAX D ((DE)) <- ((BC)) - ((HL)) - (CY)
INX B
INX D
    next addresses
INX H
```

Note that we have used three register pairs for addresses, and Register $A$ for the subtraction, leaving no register available to count bytes. We can keep a byte counter in a fixed memory location and use LDA, DCR A, STA to count, or we can use the stack. But be careful: $\quad$ POP PSW to bring a counter into Register $A$ will destroy the Carry flag, which is needed. This is a place where the XTHL instruction is very useful. Write a subroutine for a general purpose multi-byte subtraction, entering with:
(A) $\quad=$ number of bytes
( $B, C$ ) = address for minuend
(D,E) = address for difference
$(H, L)=$ address for subtrahend

We can use the same calling program as for the addition, except that we must load an address to ( $B, C$ ) and initialize a byte counter in $A$, and the call will be to the subtract subroutine at 82D0. Place the minuend (from which the subtrahend will be subtracted) at 8370-73; the difference at $8380-83$, and the subtrahend at $8390-93$. Since they are to be kept separate, do not clear any of these areas during the operation. For convenience in an exercise of the following section, leave a NOP immediately after the $S B B$ M instruction.


Multi-Byte Subtract Subroutine Figure 10-6


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The subroutine can be changed from subtraction to addition by altering one instruction (at 82D4):

| $9 E$ | SBB | $M$ | to subtract |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $8 E$ | ADC | $M$ | to add |

We now introduce a scheme that is not available to programs stored in ROM but can be very convenient for programs in RAM. The program can modify itself by altering the instruction in response to an input. After the display, and before jumping back to the start, take a key input for a command to add or subtract. Use NEXT (=15) for add; STEP (=13) for subtract. For any undefined key enter NOP instead of either $A D C$ or $S B B$. Use the monitor subroutine GETKY, which waits for a key to be entered. Figures 10-10 through 10-12 show a coding example.


Program Modify Module
Figure 10-10



Often the microprocessor will have a human interface for its arithmetic results, and decimal input and output will be required. The 8080 provides an instruction to convert a binary result to a decimal result:

27 DAA Decimal Adjust Accumulator

This tests the result of an arithmetic instruction and corrects the content of the accumulator to create a "packed decimal" result, in the form of two decimal digits. Before exploring the operation in detail we will insert the instruction into the subroutine of the previous exercise. To compare results of decimal versus binary arithmetic, we will provide for inserting or deleting this instruction under keyboard control as we did the ADC and SBB instructions. Use the key RUN to invoke binary and ADDR to invoke decimal results, and interpret them as you did NEXT or STEP. Insert NOP after $A D C$ or $S B B$ for binary, DAA for decimal. As before, any undefined key should place a NOP in place of the ADC or SBB.

If the numbers used generate no carries, the binary and decimal results are alike. Try putting $33 \quad 33$ 33 33 at 8370 - 73 for the augend or minuend and 222222 22 at 8390-93 for the addend or subtrahend. Then addition will produce 55555555 ; subtraction, 111111 11. Try your program with those numbers to make sure it works. Coding examples are shown in Figures 10-13 and 10-14.




| ADDR, STEP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (decimal subtract) | Minuend | 0 | 9 | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 |
|  | Subtrahend | 0 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 |

The computer generats an incorrect result! Decimal Adjust only works for addition, not for subtraction. We will see what is necessary for decimal subtraction in Section 10.7.3.

The binary to decimal correction process for addition works as follows: the addition is performed, and a flag called Auxiliary Carry is set if a carry occurs from Bit 3 to Bit 4 - that is, from the first digit to the second. When DAA is executed, the content of the Accumulator and both Carry (CY) and Auxiliary Carry (AC) flags are tested. Then the following is done:

If the value of the low four bits exceeds 9, or if the AC is set, add 06 to the Accumulator. These corrections occur:

| ADC | $07+08 \rightarrow 0 F$ | no carry |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DAA | $0 F+06 \rightarrow 15$ |  |
| ADC | $08+08 \rightarrow 10$ | AC set |
| DAA | $10+06 \rightarrow 16$ |  |

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After this correction to the low digit, if the value of the high four bits exceeds 9 or if $C Y$ is set, add 60 to the Accumulator. These corrections are made:

| ADC | $70+80 \rightarrow F 0$ | no carry |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DAA | $\mathrm{FA}+60 \rightarrow 50$ | CY set |
| ADC | $80+80 \rightarrow 00$ | CY set |
| DAA | $00+60 \rightarrow 60$ | CY still set |

Note that when 60 is added it may set the $C Y$ but will not clear it. The following examples taken from the experiment with the program show the correction process in operation:

| ADC | 43 | + 78 -> | BB | no carry |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DAA | BB | + $06->$ | C1 |  |
|  | C1 | + $60->$ | 21 | sets $C Y$ |
| ADC | 65 | $+77+$ | CY - DD | no carry |
| DAA | DD | + $06->$ | E3 | sets AC |
|  | E3 | + $60->$ | 43 | sets CY |
| ADC | 87 | +77 + | $C Y-F F$ | no carry |
| DAA | FF | + $06->$ | 05 | sets CY |
|  | 05 | + $60 \rightarrow$ | 65 | CY still |
| ADC | 09 | $+07+$ | CY-11 | sets $A C$ |
| DAA | 11 | + $06->$ | 17 |  |

Caution: The DAA instruction only works correctly while the CY andAC flags are still set or cleared in response to the arithmeticinstruction that produced the binary result. Any interveningarithmetic or logical instruction, or INR or DCR, affects itsoperation. The safe procedure is always to place DAA immediatelyafter the instruction whose result is to be corrected.Note that DAA corrects the result of addition of decimal numbers togive a decimal result. It does NOT convert a binary number to adecimal equivalent.If you want to investigate the DAA command further, the program shownin Figure 10-15 will let you try different instructions and view theresults.


### 10.5 BINARY MULTIPLICATION

Multiplication of integers is a process of repeated addition, or a substitute process that gives the same results.

$$
3+3+3+3=12
$$

$4 \times 3=12$

We have previously performed multiplication by repetitive addition. This is the easiest way, and the required program can be very short and easy to write, but it is very slow when the multiplier is large. The usual computer multiplication process is similar to what we do by hand.

Multiplicand 362
Multiplier $\quad \underline{426}$

| 1972 | $=$ | 6 | x | 362 |  |
| ---: | :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 7240 | $=$ | 20 | x | 362 |  |
| Product | $\frac{144800}{154012}$ | $=$ | 400 | x | 362 |
|  |  | 426 | x | 362 |  |

In our familiar multiplication process we simply multiply the multiplicand by each component of the multiplier and add the individual products. Multiplication becomes trivially easy if the multiplier happens to comprise only ones and zeros:

362 1 x 362
$0 \quad 0 \times 362$
$36200 \quad 100 \times 362$
36562

With binary numbers, of course, multiplication is that easy. According to whether each bit in the multiplier is zero or one, the multiplicand, appropriately shifted, is added into a partial product. Figure $10-16$ shows the process, with an example of two 8-bit numbers. The flow chart shows one approprite procedure. The only difference from paper and pencil multiplication is that the addition is performed after each shift, instead of writing the numbers down and adding the column later. Write a program to implement the process. A solution is provided in figure 10-17a.




There is an alternate scheme, sometimes more convenient, in which the multiplication is done backwards:

| $\longrightarrow$ DAD | $H$ | Double Product |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| ADD A | Next MSB to ©Y |  |
| JNC |  | Skip add if bit $=0$ |
| DAD | D | Add multiplicand |
| $\longrightarrow$ DCR | C | Count bits |
| JNZ |  |  |

The product is developed from most significant position toward least significant, and instead of shifting the multiplicand we shift the product. The result is identical. This requires a bit counter, since the product must be shifted eight times, whereas the previous program can stop as soon as the multiplier reaches a value of zero. Figure 10-17b shows the program.


Basically the same procedure is used for decimal multiplication, but it must be done digit by digit instead of a byte at a time, and since decimal adjustment is necessary the additions must take place in the Accumulator. It is common, but not necessary, to use unpacked decimal arithmetic (one decimal digit per byte) if multiplication and division are to be done, because it is more efficient. The decimal multiplication subroutine developed here is for packed decimal, with two digit multiplier and multiplicand and four digit result. This is the largest value that can be handled without storing data in the memory.

Figure 10-18 shows a flowchart of the subroutine, and figure 10-19 the code. Like the first binary multiplication method, this shifts the multiplier right and doubles the multiplicand for each bit, stopping when the multiplier reaches zero. It also requires a bit counter, initialized to four bits, because after the first digit of the multiplier has been handled the original multiplicand must be recovered and multiplied by ten for the second digit.

The program used for the binary multiplication provides the input and display functions, calling this subroutine instead of doing the arithmetic itself.

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Decimal Multiply Subroutine
Figure 10-18



|  | 8260 | D | $1 /$ |  | $\rho$ | $0 ¢$ |  |  | D |  |  |  |  | Catow multiplicand |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | E | B |  | $\times$ | C H | H | $G$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 | 2 | 9 |  | $D$ | $A D$ | D |  | H |  |  |  |  | Multiply luy 10 |
|  | 3 | 2 | 9 |  | $D$ | $A D$ | D |  | H |  |  |  |  | Hov high digit |
|  | 4 | 2 | 9 |  | $D$ | $A D$ | D |  | H |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 | 2 | 9 |  | D | $A D$ |  |  | H |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 | E | B |  | $\times$ | $C H$ | H | $G$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 | C | 3 |  | J | $M P$ | P |  | 8 | 2 | 40 | 0 |  |  |
|  | 8 | 4 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 | 8 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $8 \quad 0$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 30 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 号 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 左 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 迷 | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Figure 10－19c |

## BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

### 10.7 OTHER REPRESENTATIONS OF NUMBERS

There are many ways of storing numeric values in a computer, and we have used only two: binary unsigned integer and packed decimal unsigned integer. There are numerous others, including:

## Binary Number Representations

Unsigned integer
Twos complement (signed binary)
Fractional, fixed binary point
Floating point

## Decimal Number Representation

Packed, unsigned integer
Unpacked, unsigned integer
Sign and magnitude (packed or unpacked)
Hundreds complement (signed decimal)
Tens complement (signed, unpacked)
Fractional, fixed decimal point
Floating Point

We will discuss the representation of signed numbers using twos or hundreds complement, and both fixed and floating point fractions.

### 10.7.1 Negative Binary Numbers

When we represent negative numbers on paper, we use a separate signindicator attached to the corresponding positive value: e.g. - 232 .This procedure is sometimes used in computers. It is called "sign andmagnitude" representation. For integer arithmetic it is moreefficient to use a different representation, called "twoscomplement".Consider the sequence of hexadecimal values generated by decrementinga register, and the corresponding signed values that would begenerated by repeatedly subtracting 1 from a number:

| Count | Signed Value |
| :---: | :---: |
| 03 | +3 |
| 02 | +2 |
| 01 | +1 |
| 00 | 0 |
| FF | -1 |
| FE | -2 |

Here we can see that a hexadecimal value with 0 in the high digit can be considered positive, and an $F$ in the high digit somehow represents a negative number.

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If we add two numbers in this representation according to the rules of binary addition, we will obtain a correct result:


This is the advantage of "twos complement" representation of signed numbers: They can be added (or subtracted) without separately considering their signs.

### 10.7.1.1 Changing the Sign

A positive number is changed to a negative number by subtracting it from zero:

$$
00-02=\text { FE which represents }-2
$$

Similarly:

$$
00-\mathrm{FE}=02
$$

The following program accepts a number and changes its sign. Try it, and find the representations for various negative numbers.

| - D CODE CHANGE SIGN OF NUMBER |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 8200 | C. | $D$ |  | C | AL |  | $L$ |  | E | $N$ | T | B | $y$ | Aocept numbei) |
|  | 1 | 3 | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 | 0 | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3 | 3 | E |  | M | $V$ | I |  | $A$ |  | 0 | 0 |  |  | $\text { dubtract fisom } 0$ |
|  | 4 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | , |
|  | 5 | 9 | 5 |  | S | $\cup$ | $B$ |  | L |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 | C | 17 |  | C | A | L | L |  | $D$ | $B$ | $Y$ | 7 | E | Pisplay number |
|  | 7 | 9 | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | with sigilchanged |
|  | 8 | 0 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 | c | 3 |  | J | M | P |  |  | 8 | 2 | 0 | 0 |  |  |
|  | A | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | B | 8 | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $8 \quad 0$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Figure 10-20 |

10.7.1.2 Range of Signed Numbers

Since we only need a single bit to indicate the sign of a number, we can define the most significant bit to represent the sign, and the other seven bits to represent the magnitude.

| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $+7 F$ | $(+127$ decimal $)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | +01 |  |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | -01 |  |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | $-7 F$ | $(-127$ decimal $)$ |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | -80 | $(-128$ decimal $)$ |

The list above demonstrates that a single byte can represent a signed number from -80 through +7 F .

Note that the twos complement of zero is still zero. Also, the twos complement of 80 (hex) is still 80 , but all other values change from positive to negative (or vice versa) when subtracted from zero. Numbers expressed in this form can be added or subtracted provided that the result can be expressed in seven bits.

### 10.7.1.3 Changing Sign by Complementing

A different procedure for changing the sign of a number is more convenient in many instances: Complement the number and increment the result:

| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | +1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

$\begin{array}{lllllllll}1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & \text { Complement }\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & \text { Increment }\end{array}$

The result is the same as obtained by subtracting from zero. The advantage appears when the value was already in the Accumulator, since no other register needs to be used. Also, the Carry flag is not affected. Satisfy yourself that the following program gives the same result as the preceding program.


### 10.7.1.4 Sign Flag

Using twos complement representation, negative and positive numbers can be added and subtracted to obtain a signed result in twos complement notation. The sign of the result is also available in the Sign flag. This is set if the bigh bit of the result of an arithmetic, logical or counting operation is 1 , reset if the result is zero. Like the Zero flag and the Carry flag, it will control the action of several conditional instructions.
F2 JP Jump if Plus
xx low address (if high bit is 0)
yy high address
FA JM Jump if Minus
xx low address (if high bit is 1)
yy high address
F4 CP Call if Plus
xx low address
yy high address
FC CM Call if Minus
xx low address
yy high address
F0 RP Return if Plus
F8 RM Return if Minus

Like the other conditional instructions, these respond to a flag set
by one of the arithmetic or logical instructions (also DAA, INR and DCR), not to the present content of the Accumulator.

### 10.7.1.5 Overflow

Twos complement representation permits addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of signed numbers, giving correct results in twos complement form, correctly signed, provided that the magnitude of the result does not exceed the allowed range for the number of bits used ( -128 to +127 for one byte). In many applications the programmer can be certain that the limits will not be exceeded. If results reach the limits, however, an "arithmetic overflow" will occur.

| 40 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| + | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0

There are two ways of treating this problem. One is simply to provide additional capacity. If two byte numbers are used, only the highest bit of the high byte represents the sign, and values from 0 to +32767 and -1 to -32768 can be represented.
$+40 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$

80


```
            L_still positive
```

With multiple precision arithmetic this can be carried to as many bytes as are necessary.

Another way of handing arithmetic overflow is to test for it. If two positive numbers are added and the result is negative, an overflow has occurred. If two negative numbers are added producing a positive result, an overflow has occurred. Subtraction of numbers with the same sign or addition of numbers with different signs cannot produce overflow. In most cases where only addition and subtraction are required, it is easier to provide additional storage capacity so that overflow cannot occur, but for multiplication and division the test for overflow is likely to be necessary.
10.7.2 Change Sign, Add, Subtract Exercise

Write a program that will accept a binary number of two bytes, and on command do one of the following:

NEXT key: Store the number as entered.
STEP key: Change the sign of the number and store it.
RUN key: Subtract the number from the previously stored value.

ADDR key: Add the number to the previously stored value.
CLR key: Clear the stored value.

After each entry display the result. If the result is negative, display its twos complement with a minus sign. A flow chart and coding sheets are presented in Figure $10-22$ through $10-26$.


Figure 10-22

10-56




### 10.7.3 Signed Decimal Numbers

Decimal numbers are commonly represented in "sign and magnitude" form in computers as well as on paper. Often one bit in a number occupying two or more bytes is used to designate the sign:

| +1327 | 0 | 001 | 0011 | 0010 | 0111 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| -1327 | 1 | 001 | 0011 |  | 0010 |

A signed two byte packed decimal number then has a possible range of +7999 to $\mathbf{- 7 9 9 9 .}$

This representation is convenient for several reasons. A number expressed in sign and magnitude form is easily displayed, with the sign bit controling only the display of minus sign. Similarly at data entry, if a minus key or change sign key is pressed it is easy to complement the high bit. Also, multiplicaton is easy, since the magnitudes can be multiplied without regard to sign and the signs combined by the exclusive $O R$ function.

Unfortunately, this representation is not convenient for addition and subtraction of signed decimal numbers. The Decimal Adjust Accumulator (DAA) instruction of the 8080 does not work correctly for the result of a subtraction. Therefore, it is necessary to convert signed decimal numbers into "hundreds complement" form before addition. Subtraction is performed by changing the sign of the number to be subtracted, and adding the negative number.
"Hundreds complement" properly should refer only to a two digit number: It is the sum of 100 (decimal) plus or minus the number,

## BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

with the carry discarded:
$100+16=16$
$100-16=84$

In this form signed numbers can be added, giving correct results in hundreds complement form.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
36=100+36=36 \\
-14=100-14=86 \\
=22=100+22=(1) 22
\end{array}
$$

This is also effective when the result is negative:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
-36=100-36= \\
+14=100+14=64 \\
=-22=100-22=14 \\
78
\end{array}
$$

Provided that 78 is recognized as a negative value, this answer is correct. Because of the limited range of a one byte signed number, decimal values almost always require more than one byte; typically at least three and often as many as seven bytes are used.

A two byte decimal number in "hundreds complement" form is really 10000 plus or minus the number. A three byte number in hundreds complement is $1,000,000$ plus or minus the number.

```
            1327=1000000 + 1327 = 00 00 13 27
    -6564 = 1000000 - 6564 = 99 99 33 36
=-5237 = 1000000 - 5237 = 99 99 46 63
```

When enough bytes are allocated for the number it becomes reasonable 10-60
to define as negative any number whose high bit is one. This gives an unbalanced range of possible values:

$$
+799999 \text { to }-199999
$$

In general, hundreds complement numbers must occupy one more byte than their sign and magnitude representation. Sometimes this byte is assigned in memory and used for the sign; then the other bytes can have a full range of decimal values:
+999999 to - 999999
10.7.3.1 Signed Decimal Arithmetic Exercise

We shall develop a program to accept a six digit decimal number from the keyboard, change its sign if desired, add it to a previously stored value, and display the result.

The new data and the result will be stored in memory in this form:

Result New Data

| 8300 | 8304 | Sign Byte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 8301 | 8305 | High Byte |
| 8302 | 8306 | Mid Byte |
| 8303 | 8307 | Low Byte |

Note that we have reversed the usual storage sequence here. The only disadvantage to this is that LHLD and SHLD would not load these data into $H L$ in the normal high-low sequence; with multi-byte numbers we would be unlikely to load variable data that way. The sequence given is sometimes more convenient than the normal sequence.

We shall define a group of subroutines to handle the data process requirements. Most of these operate on only one set of data; they are to be entered with (HL) addressing the sign byte of the number to be processed and must return that address unchanged.

CLRMEM: Clear the four bytes of memory from (HL) through (HL) + 3 . SIXKEY: Accept and display six decimal keys. Pack the entered data into three bytes from $(H L)+1$ through (HL) +3 . Ignore keys A-F. Return when a command is entered with $(A)=$ command key.

DISPLAY: Display a three byte packed decimal number. If the sign byte is negative display a minus sign.

CHSIGN: Change the sign of a number in sign and magnitude form by complementing the high bit of its sign byte.

HUNCP: Convert a three byte magnitude with a one byte sign into a four byte hundreds complement.

DECADD: Add two decimal numbers in four byte hundreds complement form, replacing the augend with the sum:
(HL) addresses the augend
(DE) addresses the addend

SIGNMAG: Convert a four byte hundreds complement numer to three byte sign with one byte magnitude.

The main program will provide the addresses to be used by the subroutines, exchanging (HL) with the stack top as required. The main program is shown in a functional form below.

```
START: CALL CLRMEM (addressing result)
LOOP: CALL SIXKEY (addressing new data)
    IF COMMAND = STEP
```

    CALL CHSIGN (addressing new data)
    IF COMMAND \(=\) CLR
    CALL CLRMEM (addressing result)
    CALL HUNCP (addressing result)
    CALL HUNCP (addressing new data)
    CALL DECADD (addressing both)
    CALL SIGNMAG (addressing result)
    CALL DISPLAY (addressing result)
    JMP LOOP
    Use the top down approach, coding and testing the main program first, and then each of the subroutines. It is suggested that DISPLAY be the first subroutine, since it can be used by SIXKEY to display the new data.

We have not yet described the process for generating a hundreds complement; this is covered in Section 10.7.3.2. The data entry, display and addition subroutines require only reasonably familiar programming techniques. Two hints that may be useful in your development:

Entering keys: Use GETKY (023D) to obtain a key. This returns Not

Carry if a command is entered; use RNC or JNC after GETKY. The key value is returned in Register $A$ and in $C$; Register $B$ is cleared. Shift the old data left four bits and enter the new key. You can keep the data in registers while it is being entered, and store it only at the command key, but the given solution always keeps the data in memory.

Displaying data: Address the low byte and the right display digit. Load the byte, decrement $H L$, and call DBY2 (0298) three times to display the three data bytes. Register $B$ can be used as a counter. At exit from this loop, register pair DE addresses the next blank digit, and HL again addresses the sign byte. Its high bit is 1 if the number is negative. This will display a minus sign or a blank:

MOV A,M
RAR
ANI 40
STAX D

Without subroutine CHSIGN, HUNCP and SIGNMAG this program will work for positive numbers. Develop the program using stubs for these three subroutines. A solution is given on the following pages.



| $8230$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Clean 4 lyjus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Ó4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 9 |  |  | AT | ${ }^{6}$ |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{\text {in }} 823$ \％ | $2{ }^{2}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | 为 |
|  | 3.6 |  |  | $\checkmark$ I | M， | $\bigcirc$ |  | Stereod |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| － | A |  |  | cR |  |  |  | cunt bytas |
| $\stackrel{\square}{4}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 82 |  |  |  | － |  |  |  |
| $\bigcirc$ | ${ }_{c}^{1}$ |  |  | Op |  |  |  |  |
| － | － |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| \％ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\square$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 駆 | $7$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 詨 | $\#$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\because$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\square$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| － |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 㮣 ： | － |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 鮞 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 䂙 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 詨 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{2}{3}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Fioure $10-270$ |






BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

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10.7.3.2 Hundreds Complement

The decimal arithmetic program as developed so far is useful for demonstrating hundreds complement arithmetic. Run the program and enter a number:

RUN
$\begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 2 & \text { NEXT }\end{array}$

Add 1 to this number:

1 NEXT
$00 \quad 0123$

Now add 999999 to this result:
$\begin{array}{llllllllll}9 & 9 & 9 & 9 & 9 & 9 & \text { NEXT }\end{array}$

We can see here that 999999 is equivalent to -1. Try other values close to this. You can see that a negative number is equivalent to $1,000,000$ minus the magnitude of the number.

The reason for using hundreds complement is in part the fact that the 3080 cannot do a decimal subtraction. Therefore we cannot perform the conversion in the simple way that we did a twos complement.

The conversion of a negative decimal number to hundreds complement form involves a series of steps. First the decimal number is subtracted from decimal 100, represented as $9 \mathrm{~A}(=90+10)$. Now to make the following DAA correct we must add zero to this value, because the subtraction has improperly set the Auxiliary Carry flag, which controls the DAA operation. Adding zero clears the flag and DAA generates a correct hundreds complement decimal value. If the value
is greater than 99 a carry is generated.

For successive bytes the carry is added to 99 (without DAA) to give 99 or 9A. Then the next byte is subtracted from this value; once again zero is added and DAA is executed. The program segment below makes the conversion for a four digit (two byte) decimal number in (HL) .

| MVI | A,9A | (A) く-100 decimal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SUB | L | Subtract low byte |
| ADI | 00 | Correct flags |
| DAA |  | Decimal adjust |
| MOV | L, A | (L) < - low byte |
| MVI | A, 99 | (A) < - 99 |
| ACI | 00 | (A) $<-9 A$ if Carry |
| SUB | H | Subtract high byte |
| ADI | 00 | Correct flags |
| DAA |  | Decimal adjust |
| MOV | H, A | (H) く - high byte |

This is coded, with calls to data entry and display subroutines, in Figure 10-28. You may want to experiment with this before going on to a multi-byte subroutine for the decimal arithmetic program.

10.7.3.3 Subroutine HUNCP and CHSIGN

Now let us see how this technique will be applied for the data structure we have adopted for the decimal arithmetic program. First we shall test the sign byte; if it is positive no conversion is needed except that the sign byte must be set to zero. If the number is marked negative we must make the conversion; here also the sign byte should be set to zero, to be converted to 99 in the four byte hundreds complement number.

| MOV A,M | (A) <-Sign byte |
| :--- | :--- |
| MVI M, OO | Clear for highest byte |
| RAL | Sign bit to Carry |
| RNC | Exit if positive |

We shall use a loop to make the conversion, so we must load a counter. We also must address the least significant byte.

LXI B,0004
DAD B

Now Register $C$ contains the count to convert four bytes, and (HL) addresses the byte beyond the least significant. We shall decrement the address as the first step in the loop, so the conversion will be done for the appropriate four bytes and at the end the original content of HL will be restored.

Since we have loaded Register $B$ with zero for the DAD $B$ we can ADD B and $A D C$ instead of $A D I O 0$ and $A C I$ 00. By setting Carry before entering the loop we can use MVI A,99; ADC B for the least
significant byte as well as for the higher bytes.

STC
DCX H

MVI A,99
ADC B

SUB M
ADD B
DAA
MOV M, A
DCR C
JNZ

RET

To use negative numbers we must also provide subroutine CHSIGN. This is entered with $H L$ addressing the sign byte; we are to complement the most significant bit. Recall that the main program makes another test on the command in Register A after calling CHSIGN, so this subroutine must preserve Register A.

These two subroutines are given in Figure 10-29. HUNCP also performs the function defined for SIGNMAG, properly converting a four byte hundreds complement number to sign and magnitude. Figure 10-29 shows a jump from 82 EO to 82 CO to use the same subroutine.

Experiment with the program to show that it correctly adds and subtracts decimal numbers, provided that the sum or difference has a magnitude no greater than $999,999$.

|  | R CODE CHSIGN |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 8120 | F | 5 |  |  | U | 5 | $1 f$ |  | P | 5 | $\ldots$ |  |  |  |
|  | 1 | 7 | E |  |  | OV | $\checkmark$ |  | A |  | M |  |  |  |  |
|  | 2 | $E$ | $E$ |  |  | $R$ I | I |  | 8 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 上 | 3 | 8 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 岃 | 4 | 7 | 7 |  | M1 | 0 | $\checkmark$ |  | $M$ |  | A |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { I }}{ }$ | 5 | F | 1 |  | Plo | OP | P |  | $\rho$ | 5 | W |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | 6 | C | 9 |  | $R E$ | $E T$ | $T$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 詥 | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  | C | $1+$ | $A N$ | N | $G$ | $E$ |  | S | I | $G$ | $N$ SUBROUTINE |
|  | B |  |  |  | F | 01 | R |  | $D$ | E | C | I | M | A | L ARITHMETIC |
|  | C |  |  |  | PR | R | 06 | G | $R$ | A | M |  | C | F | FIGURE 10－27 |
| $\sum_{\text {¢ }}$ | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\sqrt[5]{2}$ | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $i_{i}^{\infty}$ | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\overline{2}$ | $8 \quad 0$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{1}{4}$ | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { L }}{5}$ | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { r }}{\text { ¢ }}$ | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{0}{2}$ | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $0$ | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| O | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\frac{0}{\Sigma}$ | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\sum_{\omega}^{\infty}$ | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| es | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{0}{2}$ | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\bigcirc$ | 8 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 号 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{4}{4}$ | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 㰤 | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10－78 | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Figure 10－29a |


10.7.3.4 Decimal Overflow

The possibility of overflow was discussed in Section 10.7.1.5. The same problem obviously exists in decimal arithmetic, since we still have a limit to the range of a number. Since we are using one more byte for the arithmetic than for storing numbers, the highest byte will always have a value of either 00 or 99 unless overflow has occurred.

If the sum (or difference) is within the three byte range HUNCP will not change the sign byte. If the sum is between zero and +999999 the highest byte of the sum is zero; HUNCP inserts zero. If the sum is negative, but not more negative than -999999 , then the highest byte is 99. HUNCP inserts zero but then converts it back to 99.

Now consider three cases where overflow occurs.
a) Addition of two positive numbers:
$00 \quad 50 \quad 00 \quad 00$
$+00500000$
$=0100 \quad 00 \quad 00$

Here the highest byte is $1 ;$ HUNCP makes it 0.
b) Addition of two negative numbers; sum 0:
$\left.\begin{array}{rcccl}99 & 50 & 00 & 00 & (-500000) \\ + & 99 & 50 & 00 & 00\end{array}\right)(-500000)$

Here the highest byte is 99. HUNCP makes it zero and converts this number to all zeros.
c) Addition of two negative numbers; sum >0:

|  | 99 | 50 | 00 | 00 |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| + | 99 | 49 | 99 | 99 |$(-500000)$

Now the highest byte is 98. HUNCP inserts zero and converts this number to -1, stored as 99000001.

For each case of overflow, HUNCP has changed the content of the highest byte in converting the number to sign and magnitude. Figure 10-30 shows a test for this change. If there is no overflow a blank is displayed in the left digit, but if a change occurs a symbol (E.) is displayed to indicate "Error."

|  | A D D R CODE SIGNMAG |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $8-2 E$ | 7 I |  | $M$ | 0 | $V$ |  | A |  | M |  |  |  | Save heophest brite |
|  | 1 | F 5 |  | P | 4 | S 1 | it |  | P | 5 | W |  |  | ， |
|  | 2 | $C D$ |  | C | $A$ | $L$ | $L$ |  | H | 4 | N | C | $P$ | Hnugativic chaxcie |
|  | 3 | CO |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | tiserperence |
| 뿐 | 4 | 8.2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | macinituc碞 |
| $\stackrel{\text { I }}{ }$ | 5 | F1 |  | P | 0 | $p$ |  | $P$ | S | W |  |  |  | HuNC dows not |
| $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | 6 | 46 |  | S | 4 | $B$ |  | M |  |  |  |  |  | chanope heruksit |
| 8 | 7 | C 7 |  | $J$ | Z |  |  |  | 8 | 2 | $E$ | C |  | liute coxtiond |
|  | 8 | EC |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Qruestlove has |
|  | 9 | 82 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | acdursect |
|  | A | $3 E$ |  | M | $\checkmark$ | I |  | A |  | F | 9 |  |  | A oresflow |
|  | B | F9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | － |
|  | $82 E$ | 32 |  | S | $T$ | A |  |  | 8 | 3 | F | 8 |  | Display Lelank) |
| $\sum_{4}^{5}$ | －D | F 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | ar E. at left |
| 知 | E | 8.3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | F | C 9 |  | R | E | $T$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | $8 \quad 0$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\square}{8}$ | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{+}{+}$ | 2 |  |  | $C$ |  | N | $\checkmark$ | E | $R$ | T |  | H | U | NDREDS |
| $\stackrel{4}{5}$ | 3 |  |  | C | OM | M | $P$ | $L$ | $E$ | M | E | N | T | TO SIGN |
| $\stackrel{2}{2}$ | 4 |  |  | A | $N$ | D |  | M | A | G | N | I | T | UDE，WITH |
| O | 5 |  |  | I | $E$ | 5 | $T$ |  | $F$ | 0 | $R$ |  | 0 | VERFLOW |
| $\stackrel{\square}{\square}$ | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{O}{ \pm}$ | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\sum_{\sim}^{\sim}$ | B |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | c |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0 | D |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\substack{\text { u }}}{\stackrel{1}{5}}$ | E |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{3}{2}$ | F |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| O | 80 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 号 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{5}{4}$ | 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ¢ | 3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { ¢ }}{5}$ | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10－82 | 6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 8 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Figure 10－30 |

10.7.4 Fractional Numbers

A fractional value in the decimal number system is expressed by digits to the right of a decimal point:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.1=1 / 10 \\
& 0.01=1 / 100 \\
& 0.11=1 / 10+1 / 100=11 / 100
\end{aligned}
$$

In the binary number system fractional values are also expressed by digits to the right of a binary point:

```
0.1 = 1/2 = 1/10
0.01 = 1/4 = 1/100
0.11=1/2+1/4=3/4=11/100
```

The beauty of this representation is that all the arithmetic operations of integer numbers apply equally to fractional numbers and mixed numbers:

| 3 | 10/16 | $\begin{array}{llllllllll}0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| + 4 | 7/16 | + | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 1 |
| $=8$ | 1/16 | = | 1 |  |  |  |  | 1 |

Twos complement still works with fractional values:

| - | 3 | $10 / 16$ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | . | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | 0

Computers use two binary point systems, fixed point and floating point. The examples above are fixed point. Each number has its

BINARY AND DECIMAL ARITHMETIC
binary point in the same place. Generally multi-byte precision is needed in real problems, and the binary point lies between two of the bytes. A four byte number can represent any value from - 32768.0 to 32767.9999847 with a precision of . 0000152 (one part in 65536).

For many purposes floating point numbers are much more satisfactory. This is equivalent to scientific notation with the number represented as a fraction times the number system base raised to a power:
$0.9876 . \times 10^{4}=9876$

To avoid the difficulties of showing exponents in print this is often shown as:
$0.9876 \mathrm{EO4}$
where E represents "10 with exponent".

Scientific notation is very convenient for multiplication and division. The two fractions are multiplied (or divided) and the exponents are added (or subtracted):
0.9000 E 04
x 0.2000 E 02
$=0.1800 \mathrm{E} 06$

For addition and subtraction, however, the numbers must be converted to fixed point format:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0.9000 \mathrm{E} 04 & =9000.0000 \\
+ & 0.2000 \mathrm{E} 02
\end{aligned}=0020.000009 \mathrm{E} 4=9020.0000
$$

These same techniques apply to binary numbers in the computer. In a computer as on paper, the fraction (or mantissa) must be stored separately from the exponent. Each can be positive or negative, and expressed in twos complement or sign and magnitude form. Generally a computing system that is doing floating point arithmetic will operate in binary form, converting from decimal at input and to decimal at output. Decimal/binary/decimal conversions are treated in Appendix B.

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# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK 

CHAPTER 11

## REVIEW

You have now met all of the instructions of the 8080 , and actually used most of them. We will review the instruction set and look at the code structure and flags. The instructions can be divided into several categories:
a) Data Transfer Instructions
b) Counting Instructions
c) Accumulator/Carry Instructions
d) Arithmetic and Logical Instructions
e) Branch Instructions
f) Input/Output Instructions

### 11.1 DATA TRANSFER

Data transfer instructions include MOV, MVI, STA, etc. All register reference instructions in the 8080 conform to a pattern in which three bits identify a source, or else a different three bits identify a destination, or both.


Other data transfer instructions are the eight instructions that load and store the accumulator and register pair $H, L$ :

| $3 A$ | LDA | yyxx | 32 | STA | yyxx |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: |
| 0A | LDAX | B | 02 | STAX | B |
| 1A | LDAX | D | 12 | STAX | D |
| 2A | LHLD | yyxx | 22 | SHLD | yyxx |

## The four LXI instructions:

| 01 | LXI | B |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 11 | LXI | D |
| 21 | LXI | H |
| 31 | LXI | SP |

## The stack instructions:

| C5 | PUSH | B | C1 | POP | B |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| D5 | PUSH | D | D1 | POP | D |
| E5 | PUSH | H | E1 | POP | H |
| F5 | PUSH | PSW | F1 | POP | PSW |

The register pair transfer instructions:

| EB | XCHG | (DE) | $\langle-\rangle$ | (HL) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| E3 | XTHL | (ST) | $\langle-\rangle$ | (HL) |
| F9 | SPHL | (SP) | <- | (HL) |
| E9 | PCHL | (PC) | く- | (HL) |

## REVIEW

The 8080 has an abundance of data transfer instructions, yet is lacking three needed functions that therefore require multiple instructions:
a) Exchange BC with HL
PUSH B (BC) $\leftrightarrow$ (HL)

PUSH H
POP B

POP HI

## b) Initialize the stack to a new location and push the old stack pointer into the new stack.

LXI H,0000
DAD SP
LXI SP, new location
PUSH H

It is easier to restore the old value:

POP H

SPHL
c) Save all registers and flags.

Some microprocessors have a single command that pushes all registers into the stack; others, such as the Intel 8048 have a duplicate set of registers. In the 8080 four instructions are needed. Data instructions do not affect any flags (Except POP PSW, which restores the flags to the state when PUSH PSW was executed).

### 11.2 COUNTING INSTRUCTIONS

The INR and DCR instructions use the same register identification that appears in MOV.


The structure is modified for register pair instruction


The counting instructions affect flags as follows:

INX:
DCX:
INR:

DCR:
Set or clear zero, sign, parity
Does not affect carry
Set or clear auxiliary carry

Zero, sign and parity flags may be used to cause a conditional branch as a result of INR or DCR. INR or DCR may be used in a loop with ADC or SBB instructions, since carry is preserved.

### 11.3 ACCUMULATOR/CARRY INSTRUCTIONS

These instructions affect only the accumulator and flags. The instruction format is:


| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 07 | RLC |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $0 F$ | RRC |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 17 | RAL |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $1 F$ | RAR |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 27 | DAA |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $2 F$ | CMA |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 37 | STC |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $3 F$ | CMC |

The rotate instructions shift the accumulator left or right.

RLC Copies bit 7 to bit 0 and $C Y$ and shifts other bits left.

RRC Copies bit 0 to bit 7 and $C Y$ and shifts other bits right. Previous carry is lost.

RAL Copies bit 7 to $C Y, C Y$ to bit 0 and shifts other bits left

RAR Copies bit 0 to $C Y$, $C Y$ to bit 7 and shifts other bits right

STC Sets carry

CMC Complements carry

These instructions do not affect any flags except carry, even though execution may result in the accumulator containing zero or having a different sign or parity condition. To set or clear the flags to correspond to the content of the accumulator you must execute a logical or arithmetic instruction.

CMA complements the accumulator but affects no flags.

DAA corrects the result of an addition to decimal. It affects sign, zero, parity and carry flags. It may set carry but never clears carry.
11.4 ARITHMETIC AND LOGICAL INSTRUCTIONS

There are eight types of instructions and each has nine possible sources: the seven registers, the memory location addressed by (HL), and the program memory (the immediate instructions). As in the MOV instructions the three low bits designate the source. The next three bits specify which of the instructions is intended:


Arithmetic/Logic group


The operations designated by bits $5,4,3$, are:


The same coding for the operation applies to the immediate instructions.

CMP $r$ (or CMP M) performs a subtract operation and sets or clears the flags appropriately, but discards the result instead of storing it in the accumulator.

The four DAD instructions are also included in the arithmetic group. They are:

| 09 | DAD B | $(\mathrm{HL})<-(\mathrm{HL})+(\mathrm{BC})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 19 | DAD D | $(\mathrm{HL})<-(\mathrm{HL})+(\mathrm{DE})$ |
| 29 | DAD H | $(\mathrm{HL})<-(\mathrm{HL})+(\mathrm{HL})$ |
| 39 | DAD SP | $(\mathrm{HL})<-(\mathrm{HL})+(\mathrm{SP})$ |

These instructions affect only the carry flag. They can be used both for double precision arithmetic and to index a memory address. The latter is especially useful when operations are to be performed on bytes that are spaced from each other by some fixed or variable distance.

### 11.4.1 The Flags

The flag register (Processor Status Word, PSW) contains 5 bits. These are arranged as indicated below.

| Bit | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Flag | Sign | Zero | 0 | AC | 0 | Par | 1 | CY |

```
The following list summarizes how these are affected by the
various instructions:
```

Sign: Set if the high bit of the result is 1 , cleared if 0 , by the following instructions:

INR, DCR, DAA
Any arithmetic or logical instruction (except DAD).
Not affected by shift or complement instructions.

Zero: Set if the result is zero, cleared if not, by:

INR, DCR, DAA
Any arithmetic or logical instruction (except DAD).
Not affected by shift or complement instructions.

Parity: Set if parity of the result is even, cleared if odd, by:

INR, DCR, DAA
Any arithmetic or logical instruction (except DAD).
Not affected by shift or complement instructions.

## REVIEW

## Auxiliary Carry: Set if a carry or borrow occurs from bit 3 as a result of:

ADD, ADC, ADI, INR; cleared if the digit carry does not occur. Also, set if no borrow occurs from bit 3 to bit 4 as a result of SUB, SBB, SUI, SBI, CMP, CPI, DCR; cleared if borrow occurs.

It is cleared by logical instructions (ANA, XRA, ORA, ANI, XRI, ORI).

Not affected by shift instructions.

Carry: Set or cleared by any shift or arithmetic operation, including:

CMP, DAD and DAA. Cleared by any of the logical instructions ANA, ORA, XRA.

Set by STC; complemented by CMC.

Not affected by count instructions.

## 11.5 <br> BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS

Jump, Call, Return, Restart and PCHL are the branch instructions.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | C3 | JMP |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | C9 | RET |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | CD | CALL |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | E9 | PCHL |

All of the branch instructions include 11 as the two high bits (bits 7 and 6) of the instruction. The three low bits distinguish among the branch, conditional branch, and various non-branching instructions. The conditional branches use bits 5 and 4 to determine which flag is to be tested and bit 3 to indicate whether the jump is to be executed when the flag is set or when it is clear.

```
1 x x x 0 1 0 Conditional Jump
1 x x 1 0 0 Conditional Call
1 x x x 0 0 0 Conditional Return
    000 If Not Zero
    0}
    0 1 0 If not Carry
    0 1 1 If Carry
    100 If Parity Odd
    1 0 1 If Parity Even
    1 0 If Plus
    11 1 If Minus
```

The Restart instructions use the three bits 5,4 and 3 as part of the address for the single byte CALL. They are copied into the corresponding three bits of the program counter while the remaining bits are all set to zero. For instance, RST 5 jumps to 0028 :

## EF RST 5



Note that a programmed RST instruction does not affect the interrupt enable flip flop. Interrupts are disabled by acknowledgement of an external interrupt, not by the instruction.

No flags are affected by any branch instruction.
11.6 INPUT/OUTPUT

DB IN
xx port address

D3 OUT
xx port address

The port address is copied to both the high eight bits and the low eight bits of the address bus. I/O Read or I/O Write is activated. The CPU copies the data bus to (A) on input; copies (A) to the data bus on output. No flags are affected.

FB Enable Interrupt
F3 Disable Interrupt

Set or clear the internal interrupt enabled flip-flop. EI is not effective until one instruction following EI has been executed. No flags are affected.
11.7 UNDEF INED INSTRUCTIONS

Twelve operation codes are "undefined" in the sense that. Intel has not specified meanings for them. In fact they all translate into defined instructions because the instruction decoder ignores certain bits.

The following are all treated as NOP.
00000000000000 Defined as NOP
$\begin{array}{llllllllll}0 & 8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
$100 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0$
$\begin{array}{llllllllll}1 & 8 & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0\end{array} 0$
$20 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad$ (See 11.8.2)
$280 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 10010000$
$\begin{array}{lllllllllll}3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0\end{array} \quad$ (See 11.8.2)
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CB acts as C3, JMP (Bit 3 is ignored).

D9 acts as C9, RET (Bit 4 is ignored).

DD, ED and FD all act as CD, CALL. (Bits 4 and 5 are ignored.)

### 11.8 OTHER MICROPROCESSORS

Various manufacturers other than Intel make exact equivalents of the 8080. In addition, there are several microprocessors that use the 8080 instruction set but are not equivalent.
11.8.1 NEC 8080A and NEC 8080AF

Nippon Electric manufactures the NEC 8080AF as an exact equivalent to the Intel 8080A. The NEC 8080A has a useful added feature that permits DAA to be effective for decimal subtraction as well as addition. It also executes the MOV instructions in four clock periods instead of five. Although these are desirable features the designer must recognize that if he uses them he will have no alternate source of supply for the microprocessor.

### 11.8.2 INTEL 8085

The 8085 uses the 8080 instruction set, and any program developed for the 8080 can be used without change. The 8085 includes the functions of the clock generator (8224) and system controller (8228) in the microprocessor chip. Hardware interfaces are different. In the 8085 the data bus is time multiplexed with the low eight bits of the address bus. This requires either special memory chips or additional interface hardware.

The 8085 has five separate interrupt inputs. One is exactly equivalent to the 8080 interrupt input. The other four are directly vectored, and have a defined priority sequence, so RST instructions need not be used. The interrupts can be masked independently of each other. Two of the undefined instructions in the 8080 set (op codes 20 and 30 ) are used to read and set the masks, and also to read and transmit serial data through separate pins.

The 8085 operates with a 1.3 microsecond clock, the same speed as the fastest version of the 8080A, but does not require high speed memory devices. It requires only a single power supply (+ 5 volts.)

All of these features make the 8085 very attractive, especially for small systems. Having learned to program the 8080 , you are fully prepared to use the 8085. Only the two additional instructions mentioned above, and the use of the additional interrupt inputs, will be new.

### 11.8.3 ZILOG Z-80

This is a very sophisticated microprocessor that greatly extends the addressing capability of the 8080 instruction set. It is software compatible, in that it will execute programs written for the 8080. The undefined 8080 op-codes are used in the $Z-80$, in some cases for four byte instructions. Although there are a number of features that will be new to the 8080 programmer, use of the extended instruction set greatly simplifies programming of arithmetic functions. One of the most popular uses of the $\mathrm{Z}-80$ is in personal computers with BASIC interpreters.

# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK 

## APPENDIX A

THE ICS MONITOR

## A. 1 ICS ADVANCED MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

1) The ICS Microcomputer Training System uses the INTEL 8080A microprocessor, or an exact equivalent.
2) There are 1 K bytes of ROM (addresses 0000 to 03FF), expandable on the board to 4 K or 8 K bytes using 1 K by 8 or 2 K by 8 chips, and 2 K bytes of RAM (addresses 8000 to 87FF), expandable on the board to 4 K bytes. With the optional $\mathrm{S}-100$ bus, memory may be expanded to 64 K bytes (any combination of RAM or ROM chips).
3) An 8255 Programmable Peripheral Interface chip is provided for Input/Output.
4) A Keyboard is provided with 25 keys. RESET gives a reset signal to the 8080A. Other switches provide input to the 8255.
5) A display is provided with eight digit positions. This is driven by DMA using the contents of addresses $83 F 8$ through 83FF for digit positions 1 through 8.
6) Two LED's display the user's carry and zero flags.
7) The complete instruction set for the 8080 A is given in the 8080 Microcomputer System User's Manual, together with detailed specifications of the machine's internal state during instruction execution and a description of all registers.
8) The MTS board layout is shown in Figure A-1. A block diagram is presented in Figure A-2.

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THE ICS MONITOR

## A. 2 GENERAL MONITOR FUNCTIONS

The monitor provides five general functions:
Load memory from keyboard
Store program on tape
Load program from tape
Operate program in debug mode
Run user program
A.2.1 Load Memory from keyboard
A.2.1.1 To select a memory address, press

ADDR n n n
MEM
(where nnnn is the address: e.g. ADDR 8300 MEM)

The address will appear in the left four digits, and its present contents will appear in the right two digits preceded by a decimal point.
A.2.1.2 To enter data to memory after pressing MEM, key in one or two digits. They will replace the contents of the memory location whose address is displayed, and the new data will appear on the right.

A-4
A.2.1.3 If an error is made, it can be corrected by pressing additional digits. The last two digits keyed in will be stored and displayed. Pressing CLR will restore the original value that was stored, provided that no other command key has been pressed.
A.2.1.4 To proceed to the next higher memory location, press NEXT. It is not necessary to press MEM again.
A.2.1.5 Press MEM again to access the next lower memory location.
A.2.1.6 A decimal point to the left of the two right hand digits indicates that MEM has been pressed and data entry is enabled. If no symbol is displayed in this position data will not be accepted.
A.2.1.7 If data entry is attempted without being enabled, or if the memory location is in $R O M$ or does not exist, the display will show Err. Press MEM to restore the address and enable entry.

THE ICS MONITOR

## A.2.2 Store program on tape.

The monitor program SEROT copies binary data from memory to a serial recording medium such as an audio tape cassette. The MTS circuit board includes an oscillator and modulator which are driven by this program. Data are recorded in serial synchronous format as described in Chapter 9.

A typical program will occupy 30 seconds to two minutes of tape. Several programs may be recorded on one tape; it is advisable to identify each program with a voice message preceding it. Then connect a cable from the MTS audio connector labeled with an outward arrow to the recorder Microphone or Auxiliary Input.

## A.2.2.1 Operating Procedure

Press RESET. Now the modem will record a continuous tone. Let this continue for five to ten seconds while you do the following.

Set the STEP/AUTO toggle switch to AUTO. Store the starting address by:

ADDR (starting address) MEM

If the starting address is 8200 , this step is not necessary because RESET sets the memory address to 8200 .

A-6

Then store the stopping address by:

ADDR (stopping address) BRK
(If this step is omitted, the serial output program will continue forever.) Note that the content of the stopping address is not recorded, so it must be the location of the next byte beyond the end of the program.

Start the program by:

## ADDR 0371 RUN

The display will be blank. The Carry indicator will flicker, showing that data are being transmitted. This indicator is on during all data and stop bits; off during the start bit only. When the block of memory specified has all been transmitted, an error check character is recorded on the tape. Then the program reenters the monitor and the display will show: 0382 CD . Let the recorder run for another two or three seconds, then turn it off.

You can observe the error check character by pressing BRK. The stopping address and the error check character will be displayed. There is no need to observe this character, however.

## A.2.2.2 Data Rate for Recording

The monitor program records data at 110 baud: That is, 110 bit intervals per second. (This rate is compatible with Teletype paper tape punches and readers.) Since the program records 12 bits per character, the resulting data rate is 9.17 characters per second. A 256 byte program will occupy 28 seconds of tape.

You can record at a higher data rate by entering the recording program with a delay count in register C. A value of 2D (hex) generates 300 baud. The procedure to use this feature is:

Turn recorder on
RESET

REG C (delay count)
ADDR (starting address) MEM

ADDR. (stopping address) BRK

ADDR 0373 RUN

Note that the entry address is different, to avoid the monitor instruction that loads register $C$ with 7D for 110 baud.
A.2.3 Load Program from TapeThe program SERIN loads binary data from a serial recording mediuminto memory. It is complementary to SEROT: it receives data in theformat described above. A demodulator circuit is provided forreading from an audio tape cassette.
A.2.3.1 Operating Procedure
Before connecting the tape player to the MTS, listen to the tape andwait for the continuous tone. Now stop it promptly, so that when youturn it on again the continuous tone will appear again. Connect therecorder Earphone output to the MTS audio connector labeled with aninward arrow. Enter the starting address by:
ADDR (starting address) MEM
(This step may be replaced by RESET if the program is to start at8200.)
Now load the program address:
ADDR 03AE
Turn the recorder on and press RUN. The display will go blank. Indicators labeled AUDIO and DATA will flicker while data is being received. If the continuous tone was not present the moment you pressed RUN, the display will show Err. Then you must repeat the procedure.

When the tape has been read successfully the prograin will reenter the monitor and display 03CF C5. Press MEM to display the stopping address. The error check character resorded on the tape is stored here. Now press REG A. The display will show 03CF A-00.

If the content of register $A$ is not zero, there is a discrepancy between the error check character calculated and recorded by the output program and that calculated by the reading program. This means that an error exists somewhere in the data read back, but there is no indication of which byte is incorrect.

## A.2.3.2 Alternate Data Rate

If you have recorded a tape at a different data rate than 110 baud, as described in A.2.2.2, you must again load register $C$ for that data rate before entering the reading program.

It is also necessary to load register $B$ with a constant. This determines the delay time before the reading prograin recognizes the end of the recording. A value of 20 H gives a 0.3 second delay. The procedure is:

REG B 20
NEXT (data rate constant)
ADDR 03B1
turn tape player on
RUN

## A.2.4 Operating in Debug Mode

The monitor provides for tracing the flow and results of a user's program. The STEP/AUTO toggle switch must be set to STEP; after each user instruction is executed a hardware interrupt is generated. This causes an entry to the monitor.

## A.2.4.1 Step and Run

Operation of the user's program is initiated by the STEP command or the RUN command. A flag byte (SFLAG) is stored by the monitor when the STEP or the RUN key is operated. This flag determines the procedure to be followed at the next interrupt entry to the monitor. With the Mode toggle switch at STEP, either command will result in the user's program being interrupted at each instruction, but in RUN the return to the user program is automatic unless a Breakpoint is encountered. With the Mode toggle switch at STEP, the STEP key results in the monitor activating the keyboard and display after each user instruction is executed. With the Mode toggle switch at AUTO, the user's program runs without interruption, with either command.

## A.2.4.2 Breakpoint Operation

If the initiating command was RUN, the monitor tests any breakpoints entered by the user. Two tests are made:
a) Is the user's program counter equal to any breakpoint entered?
b) Has the data changed at any memory location entered as a breakpoint?
neither condition is true, the monitor returns control to the user's program. If either test is true, the monitor tests a counter associated with that breakpoint. If non-zero, it decrements the counter and returns to the user's program, but if the counter is zero, the keyboard and display are activated.

Note that a breakpoint stops the user's program before executing an instruction whose address is entered as a breakpoint, but after data has been changed at a breakpoint. If any breakpoint is encountered, no other breakpoint will be tested until the next instruction in the user's program has been executed.

The breakpoint system can also be used to stop execution after a specified number of instructions have been executed, rather than at a specific instruction. The process of entering and removing breakpoints is covered in Section A.3.3.8 of this appendix.
A.2.4.3 Monitor Display

When the display is active under monitor control, it shows an address in display positions 1-4 (the left four digits) and a data byte in positions 7 and 8 (the right two digits). At entry to the monitor the address displayed is the program counter, and the data are either the next instruction or the contents of a register. The latter is identified in digits 5 and 6.

The user may request many other displays, such as another register, another address in memory, a register pair and the contents of the addressed location, the stack pointer, or the user's stack top.

## A. 3 MONITOR COMMANDS

The major sections of the monitor operate as an interrupt service routine entered by a hardware interrupt automatically generated as each user instruction is executed, provided that the AUTO/STEP switch is in the STEP position.

The user may program entry to the monitor by including the RST4 instruction (E7) in his program. He may alter addresses and flags used by the monitor through his own program, thereby affecting monitor functions. Various monitor subroutines are accessible to the user by normal subroutine calls.

## A.3.1 Monitor Entry

When the monitor is entered by interrupt (RST7) or by programmed call (RST4) the user's registers, program counter, and stack pointer are saved in memory and may be accessed by monitor commands.

The RESET key causes a hardware reset to the 8080. In general, the user's register contents and stack are lost. The user's memory address and program counter are set to 8200, and the user's stack pointer is set to 83EO. All interrupt entry addresses are initialized and all breakpoints are cleared. Some data, including the user's program counter, may be recovered as described in Section A. 3.4.

## A.3.2 Monitor Data Storage

At entry to the monitor, the user's program counter is popped from the stack and stored at PCADR. The registers are pushed onto the stack. If the STEP Key was used or a breakpoint is encountered, the Carry and Zero flags are shown in two LED's. Neither these nor the hexadecimal display are changed unless STEP was used or a breakpoint is encountered.

The monitor stores the following data in fixed memory locations:

BKLOW (83E2) is a one byte pointer to the oldest breakpoint in the breakpoint table. If no breakpoints have been entered, it contains E2, pointing to itself.

BKPOS ( 83 E 3 ) is a one byte pointer to the breakpoint most recently encountered.

MADDR (83E4, E5) The address of the last memory location accessed via the MEM or NEXT command.

PCADR (83E6, E7) The user's program counter.

SFLAG (83F6) indicates whether the user's program was last initiated by RUN or STEP. If it contains zero, breakpoints are tested; otherwise, the monitor keyboard and display functions are enabled at entry to the monitor.

RGNAM (83F7) The name of the register displayed by REG command, or zero if MEM command has been used since the last REG command. If this value is non-zero when the monitor keyboard and display functions are activated, the named register is displayed.

When the monitor is awaiting a command or data, register pair $H, L$ generally contains a display address, which points to either the memory address, the user's program counter, a breakpoint, or an address just keyed in by the user following the ADDR command.

Operation of the monitor commands can be described in large part by reference to these addresses:

PCADR (the user's program counter)
MADDR (the memory location most recently addressed with MEM or NEXT)
and the display address in (HL).

## A.3.3 Monitor Commands

Monitor commands are issued by pressing one of the eight command keys: ADDR, MEM, NEXT, CLR, REG, STEP, RUN, BRK. These are discussed below in the order listed.

## A.3.3.1 ADDR

Recalls the user's program counter and makes it the display address. The $P C$ is displayed in the left four digits, and the content of memory at that address in the right two digits.


#### Abstract

If ADDR is followed by hexadecimal keys, the display address is cleared and the hex characters are entered as the display address. In general four characters must be entered, but this depends on the command which follows ADDR. A count of the number of keys is complemented and stored in register $D$ for use by the monitor in executing the next command.


## Contents of $D$ :

| 00 ADDR not used |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| FF | ADDR used, no hex keys |
| FE | one hex key |
| FD | two hex keys |
| FC | three hex keys |
| FB | four hex keys |

When the first hex key is pressed, the left display digit shows that key with three leading zeros, and the right hand display is blanked. Additional keys are shifted into the left hand display. When four keys have been entered, they represent an address, and the memory content of that address is displayed at the right.

When another command key is pressed, the displayed address is passed to the appropriate command processing module. In some cases fewer than four hex keys will be accepted as an address or converted to an address. See the sections describing MEM, BRK, STEP and RUN for details.

## A.3.3.2 MEM

Calls for display of a memory address and its contents. If the preceding command was not ADDR, the previously stored memory address is used. If ADDR was used, the address in H,L becomes the memory address. This may be the user's program counter or a newly keyed address. If exactly one hex key followed ADDR, that is taken as the name of a register pair, the stack pointer, or the stack top, and the two bytes referred to thereby become the memory address.

| Key | Register Pair |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1/SP | Stack pointer |
| $2 /$ ST | Stack top |
| $8 / \mathrm{H}$ | H,L |
| B | B,C |
| D | D,E |

Other single key entries are errors.

With a memory address determined, it is displayed in the four left digits and the contents of that location are displayed in the right two digits. If the address was derived from a register pair, a label identifying that pair is displayed.

After the MEM command has been issued, the contents of the displayed location can be altered by keying in one or two (or more) hex digits. A decimal point in digit 6 indicates that data can be altered.

The NEXT command increments the memory address and displays the new address and contents. Again, the contents can be altered.

Note that ADDR causes display of a memory address, but the contents cannot be altered until the MEM command has beers given. Assume that the present memory address is 8300:

MEM
8300
. AF

Recalls and displays previous memory address and contents with a decimal point. Contents can be altered by hex keys.

4
4
8300
. 44

ADDR
8200
01

Recalls and displays user's PC and instruction. Contents cannot be altered, No decimal point is shown.

A-1 8

ADDR MEM 8200 . 01

Now contents can be altered. 8200 is now the stored memory address.

NEXT
8201
.80

Displays the next byte in memory. 8201 is the stored memory address. Contents can be altered.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { ADDR } & 8 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 8300 & 44\end{array}$

Displays 8300 again and its contents again, but contents are protected.

MEM 8300 . 44

Now 8300 is the stored memory address and its contents can be altered, as indicated by the decimal point:
$3 \quad 2$
8300
. 32

MEM
82FF
.00

Repeated use of MEM with no other command intervening displays the address and content of the next lower memory location. By using NEXT or MEM, the memory content can be reviewed (and altered if desired) in either ascending or descending order.

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Register pair display

ADDR B MEM


When a register pair is displayed, its contents are stored as the memory address, and the data addressed can be altered. The address can be incremented or decremented by NEXT or MEM, but this changes only the memory address, not the content of the register pair. The register pair symbol is removed when the address is changed.

## A.3.3.3 NEXT

This increments the memory address if a memory location is being displayed. If MEM has not previously been pressed, NEXT increments the display address and stores it as the current memory address, but does not enable data entry.

If a register pair is displayed, the content of that pair is the memory address. NEXT will display the next higher address, and remove the register pair symbol.

When a register is displayed NEXT selects the next register in sequence: $A, B, C, D, E, F, H, L, A--\quad$ (See A. 3. 3.5)

When a breakpoint is displayed NEXT calls for display of the next breakpoint in the list. If there is only one breakpoint in the table; NEXT has no effect. (See A.3.3.8)

## A.3.3.4 CLR

If CLR follows entry of data (to a register or a memory location) the previous data are restored and displayed.

If a memory location was being displayed and MEM had been pressed, the address, pair label (if any) and data are still displayed. Data entry is still enabled.

If a memory location was being displayed without MEM having been pressed, CLR restores the display of the program counter. The memory location can be recovered by $M E M$.

If an address was being entered, CLR restores the display of the program counter and permits an address to be entered. (ADDR need not be pressed again.) MEM will recover the previous memory address. CLR is also used to remove a breakpoint. See A.3.3.8.

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## A.3.3.5 REG

REG is followed by a hex key naming the register desired. REG $n$ displays the current contents of the user's program counter and the contents of register $n$, with a label.

REG 8/H


Legal register names are A, B, C, D, E, F, H (Key 8) and L (Key 9). If followed by any hexadecimal key or keys the contents of the displayed register are altered:

REG
8/H
3
2
8224
H-32

If followed by NEXT, the next register (alphabetically) is displayed:

NEXT
8224
L-13

The name of the register selected for display is retained, and at subsequent entry to the monitor the selected register will be displayed. When the MEM key is used, the register name is cleared; then further entries to the monitor will display the contents of the current address. A register name is stored (as one byte at RGNAM) when a register is selected by REG $n$ or by NEXT while a register is being displayed.

If REG follows an ADDR command the effect of the ADDR command is lost. REG always shows the program counter in the left hand four digits.

## A.3.3.6 STEP

STEP sets (SFLAG) $=1$ to indicate that the monitor keyboard and display functions are to be activated at the next entry to the monitor. All user registers are restored, the inter rupt system is enabled, and control is returned to the user's program at the location stored in PCADR. The user's program is interrupted upon execution of the next instruction and the monitor is reactivated.

If the STEP (or RUN) command immediately follows an ADDR command with four (or more) hexadecimal keys, then the address entered becomes the user's program counter, and control is passed to that location.

## A.3.3.7 RUN

RUN sets (SFLAG) $=0$ to indicate that the RUN command was issued and then returns to the user's program exactly as in STEP. The user's program is interrupted at each instruction to test for breakpoints, but the keyboard and display are not activated unless a breakpoint is encountered and its count reaches zero. When this occurs the monitor behaves as though STEP had been used.

## A.3.3.8 Breakpoints

BRK displays the address of the current breakpoint. If a breakpoint has been encountered during execution of the user's program, it will be displayed in response to BRK.


A breakpoint is "encountered" either when the user's program counter is equal to the breakpoint, or when the user's program changes the content of a memory location whose address has been set as a breakpoint.

If no breakpoints have been entered, the BP. symbol will be displayed with all other digits blank.

A breakpoint is entered by:


When a breakpoint is displayed it can be cleared.

8210
BP. 24

CLR
BP.

The blank display shows that no breakpoints exist. If other breakpoints are still stored, the next one in the list would now be displayed. If more than one breakpoint is stored NEXT will display each in turn. Whenever a breakpoint is displayed it may have a new count entered or it may be cleared. RST clears all breakpoints.

The breakpoint system can also be used to stop execution after a specified number of instructions have been executed, rather than at a specific instruction:

ADDR 83E6 BRK (count)

This sets a breakpoint at the location where the monitor stores the user's program counter. Since the content of this location is changed at each monitor entry, the breakpoint will be encountered after every instruction. When the count is decremented to zero, program execution will stop.

Each breakpoint entered occupies four bytes of memory. These data are entered above the user's stack, which is pushed down in memory. The data are:

```
Breakpoint address (two bytes)
Breakpoint data
Breakpoint count
```

The oldest breakpoint is stored immediately above the user's stack area, and BKLOW points to the low byte of its address. The breakpoint data is a copy of the data stored in the memory location addressed by the breakpoint; it is updated each time the breakpoint is tested. The count is zero unless another value is entered when the breakpoint is displayed.

The number of breakpoints that can be entered is limited only by the space available in page 8300 of memory. However, it is seldom useful to have more than four breakpoints in operation at one time.

Note that when a breakpoint is entered or removed, the entire stack from 83E1 down is moved. If the user's program reinitializes the stack pointer, no breakpoints should be added or removed subsequently.

Breakpoints can be entered or removed by the user's program. See Section 9.6.2 in the text for a description of this process.

## A.3.3.9 Error Display

Err may be displayed for any of the reasons listed below. CLR or ADDR will restore the display of program counter and instruction. MEM will recover and display the memory address and its content. Error conditions are:
a) Attempt to write to a non-existent or ROM memory location; or to enter data when data entry is not enabled.
b) REG $x$ where $x$ is not a register name (A, B, C, D, E, $F$, H, L) .
c) ADDR $x$ MEM where $x$ is not a register pair name (B, D, H, P, T).
d) ADDR $x$ BRK where $x$ is not a register pair name nor 0 .
e) Attempt to enter a breakpoint count when no breakpoint exists.
f) Numeric key pressed without a preceding legitimate command key (ADDR, MEM, REG, BRK).
g) Attempt to STEP or RUN after entering a one, two or three byte address.

The error display can be generated by the user's program using a call to monitor subroutine ERRDS. See A.5.4.6.

## A.3.4 Recovering Data after RESET

Occasionally a program which has not been fully debugged will enter an endless loop, with no input or output accomplished. Control can be restored to the monitor by pressing RESET.

The fixed data locations 83E8 through $83 F 7$ are initialized with the interrupt dispatch addresses. MADDR and PCADR are loaded with 8200. RGNAM and SFLAG are cleared, and all breakpoints are cleared. Provided that the program was running in breakpoint mode (toggle switch at STEP), some useful data can be recovered.

Before PCADR is initialized, its content is copied to 83E0, E1. During RESET initialization, this is treated as a fixed address, but it is subsequently treated as part of the stack. It can be viewed by pressing ADDR $2 / T \mathrm{MEM}$ after a reset.

Eight bytes of the stack (83D8-83DF) are also preserved. If no breakpoint had been entered and the user's stack was empty, these contain the user's registers as last stored while the user's program was running, and can be observed as register contents by REG $A$, NEXT, etc. If the user's program was executing a subroutine when RESET was pressed, its return address will be found at 83DE, DF. If a breakpoint had been entered, then four bytes of the preserved stack area will be occupied by useless data, but four bytes of the user's stack or registers will be preserved. If two breakpoints had been entered, no useful data except the program counter can be recovered. The following table shows the content of this area under several conditions.

|  | ```User Stack Empty``` | POINTS <br> User Subroutine | ONE BR <br> User Stack Empty | $\begin{aligned} & \text { KPOINT } \\ & \text { User } \\ & \text { Subroutine } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 33D8 | F | E | C | L |
| D9 | A | D | B | H |
| DA | E | C | L | Return |
| DB | D | B | H | Address |
| DC | C | L | Previous last |  |
| DD | B | H | program counter |  |
| DE | L | Return | Breakpoint Address |  |
| DF | H | Address |  |  |
| 83 EO |  |  |  |  |
| E1 | Last observed user program counter |  |  |  |

## A. 4 PROGRAM CONTROL OF MONITOR FUNČTIONS

## A.4.1 Output Port OC

The keyboard, display, modem output, and the monitor interrupts are controlled by outputs at Port $C$ of the 8255. (This is referred to as PORTOC to distinguish it from ports of the ICS Interface Training System.) The bit assignments and effects are listed below.

| PORTOC | Zero | One |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Bit 0 | Modem frequency low | High |
| Bit 1 | Monitor disabled | Enabled |
| Bit 2 | Carry LED off | On |
| Bit 3 | Zero LED off | On |
| Bit 4 | Keys 0-7 enabled | Disabled |
| Bit 5 | Keys 8-F enabled | Disabled |
| Bit 6 | Command keys enabled | Disabled |
| Bit 7 | Display disabled | Enabled |

These can be controlled by the user's program, either by writing to PORTOC:

| 3Exx | MVI | A, xx |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| D302 | OUT | PORTOC |

or by setting or resetting a single bit:

| 3Eyy | MVI | A,yy |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| D303 | OUT | CNTO |

The table below gives values to be loaded to (A) for the bit set/reset function (using MVI $A, x x ;$ OUT CNTO).

| 00 | Set modem frequency low |
| :--- | :--- |
| 01 | Set modem frequency high |
| 02 | Disable monitor |
| 03 | Enable monitor |
| 04 | Carry LED off |
| 05 | Carry LED on |
| 06 | Zero LED off |
| 07 | Zero LED on |
| 08 | Enable keys $0-7$ |
| 09 | Disable keys 0-7 |
| 04 | Enable keys 8-F |
| $0 B$ | Disable keys 8-F |
| OC | Enable command keys |
| OD | Disable command keys |
| OE | Disable display |
| OF | Enable display |

All of these bits are controlled by the monitor when its keyboard and display functions are enabled. They are also affected by certain monitor subroutines which may be called by the user.

The monitor sets the modem frequency high, enables monitor interrupts, shows the user's carry and zero flags in the LED's, enables all rows of the keyboard, and enables the display.

Monitor subroutines DBYTE, DWORD, ENTBY, ENTWD, ENMEM, KEYS and GETKY enable the monitor, the display and all rows of the keyboard. The modem and LED's are not affected. During execution of all keyboard input subroutines, the monitor interrupts are disabled to avoid slowing the debounce delay by repeated interrupts.

Monitor subroutine SCAN reads the keyboard once. If any key is pressed, it returns with the row containing that key enabled. If no key is pressed, all keys are disabled. Monitor interrupts are disabled.

## A.4.2 Interrupt Entry Points

The MTS provides for external interrupts as well as the monitor interrupt. All of the 8080 RST instructions except RSTO (which is also RESET) are available, although RST7 is required for monitor debug operation.

RST1 through RST7 are treated identically when they are detected. Each loads a dispatch address from a different location in memory and jumps to that address with all registers and the stack intact. The stack top contains the address of the interrupted instruction. The instruction sequence is:

RSTX: PUSH H
LHLD ENTX
XTHL

RET

Except for timing, this is equivalent to JMP xxxx. RST4 precedes the above sequence with DI, because it is used for programmed calls to the monitor which must not be interrupted. The other RST entry points do not disable interrupts, but if invoked by an external interrupt, that action will have disabled interrupts.

The dispatch address locations and initial values set by the monitor at RESET are listed below.

| Interrupt | Dispatch | Initial |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Vector | Location | Value |
| RST1 | $83 F 4$, F5 | 0000 |
| RST2 | $83 F 2$, F3 | 0000 |
| RST3 | $83 F 0$, F1 | 0000 |
| RST4 | $83 E E$, EF | 0063 |
| RST5 | $83 E C$, ED | 8228 |
| RST6 | $83 E A$, EB | 8230 |
| RST7 | $83 E 8$, E9 | 006 A |

The user may change these values either by monitor commands or by program instructions. The latter is recommended since RESET will restore the values listed above. If it is possible for an interrupt to occur before initialization, the user's program should disable interrupts as its first instruction.

Note that changing the dispatch address for RST7 allows the user to write his own monitor functions (See Section 8.6.2 in the text).

The hexadecimal and command keys of the MTS and the eight digit display are accessible to the user either by direct input and output or memory operations or through monitor subroutines. Refer to Chapter 8 for a discussion of input and output techniques and exercises.

## A.5.1 Keyboard Input

The keyboard is connected as a $3 \times 8$ matrix. A row of eight keys is enabled by setting one bit at output port OC low.

Port 0C4 Low enables keys 0-7
Port 0C5 Low enables keys 8-F
Port 0C6 Low enables command keys.

If one row is enabled and the other two rows are disabled, the eight keys in that row can be sensed at input port 0A.

Input Bit
Key

| OAO | 0 | 8 | MEM |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| OA1 | 1 | 9 | REG |
| OA2 | 2 | A | ADDR |
| OA3 | 3 | B | STEP |
| OA4 | 4 | C | RUN |
| OA5 | 5 | D | NEXT |
| OA6 | 6 | E | BRK |
| OA7 | 7 | $F$ | CLR |

If a key is pressed and its row is enabled, the corresponding input bit will be low. Otherwise, the input bit will be high.

When the monitor returns control to the user's program after STEP or RUN, all three rows of the keyboard are enabled. Several of the monitor $1 / 0$ subroutines also enable all three rows. In this state no single key can be recognized, but it is easy to test whether the keyboard is idle or in use.

| DBOO | IN PORTOA |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3C | INR A |

sets the zero flag if no key is pressed. This function can be followed by a conditional jump or a conditional call to an input subroutine.

## A.5.2 Monitor Input Subroutines

Six monitor subroutines are provided for keyboard input. These are described below. Any of them can be called by user programs. Each is identified by a name and by its address. The descriptions specify the data returned by the subroutine, and entry data where required.

## A.5.2.1 SCAN (0257)

Disables monitor interrupts. Tests each row of the keyboard in turn, until all have been tested or until an active key is found. If no key is pressed, all keyboard rows are disabled. If a key is pressed, its row is left enabled, and the others are disabled. It tests command keys first, then $8-F$, and finally 0-7. If two keys in different rows are pressed, SCAN detects the key from the higher valued row. If two keys in the same row are pressed, SCAN returns the lower valued key. If more than two keys are pressed, an erroneous value may be returned, but it will still lie in the range of allowed values, 00-17.

If no key is pressed, SCAN returns $(A)=00$, Zero Set, No Carry.

If a key is pressed, SCAN returns (A) = key value (00-17), Carry Set. Zero is set if the key is 0 .

All registers except $A$ are preserved.

No entry data are required.

The stack is used for one level in addition to the return address.

Timing depends on the input detected:

| No keys | 457 clocks |
| :--- | ---: |
| Maximum (Key 7) | 553 clocks |
| Minimum (MEM key) | 200 clocks |

Add 5432 clocks if the monitor was enabled at entry.

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## A.5.2.2 GETKY (023D)

GETKY waits indefinitely for a key to be pressed, and then waits until all keys are released for a time of 26 milliseconds to protect against contact bounces.

GETKY calls SCAN to read the keyboard. Comments under SCAN regarding multiple key depressions apply to GETKY. The first key detected is returned by GETKY.

Returns (A) $=(C)=$ Key
(B) $=00$

All other registers preserved

Carry is cleared for command keys, set for hexadecimal keys.

Zero is set for MEM, cleared for all others.

At exit monitor interrupts, display, and all rows of the keyboard are enabled.

No entry data are required.
A.5.2.3 KEYS (0365)Subroutine KEYS accepts successive hexadecimal keys by calling GETKYand shifting the hexadecimal values into register pair $H L$, to returnthe last four hexadecimal digits packed into two bytes. It incrementsregister $D$ and returns to the calling program after each key. KEYSdoes not demand any entry data, but is usually called with (HL)containing previous data and (D) containing the key count. Usually(HL) is cleared and (D) $=F F$ at the first call. The followingassumes that initialization:
Return (A) $=(C)=$ last key pressed
(B) $=00$$(D)=$ count of hexadecimal keys, provided
(D) was initialized to FF before the first call
(E) preserved
(HL) last four hexadecimal keys pressed,
with leading zeros if cleared before the first call.
Carry set if the last key is hexadecimal, clearif command.Zero is cleared, except zero is set after the
first key if $D$ was initialized to $F F$.

## A.5.2.4 MENAB (0222)

Enables the monitor, display, and all rows of the keyboard, by writing to PORTOC. Zero indicator, carry indicator, and modem control bits are preserved. At return:

All registers and flags are preserved.

```
PORTOC = 1 [ < 0 0 E E X 1 X
                                    Modem (preserved)
                                    Monitor (enabled)
                            Z, CY indicators (preserved)
                            Keyboard (enabled)
                            Display (enabled)
```

The following monitor subroutines exit via MENAB:
All display subroutines except DISPR
GETKY, which is called by all input subroutines except SCAN

## A.5.2.5 ENTBY (0336)

ENTBY is intended for entry of one byte. It initializes (D) = FF and (HL) $=0000$. It then calls KEYS repeatedly until Not Carry is returned indicating that a command key has been entered. After each hexadecimal key it calls DBYTE to display the last two keys.

At return:
$(A)=(C)=$ command
(B) $=00$
$(D)=$ count of hexadecimal keys
(E) preserved
$(H L)=$ last four hex keys
Carry clear
Zero clear, except if no hex keys
entered then Zero is set.

## A.5.2.6 ENTWD (0346)

ENTW2 (0349)

ENTWD is intended for entry of two bytes of data as a memory address. AT ENTWD, (HL) is cleared. Alternate entry ENTW2 preserves (HL) if no hex keys are entered. Register $D$ is initialized to $F F$.

ENTWD calls KEYS to accept keyboard entry, and returns when a command is entered.

When the first hex key is entered, it is placed in (HL) as the low digit, with higher digits cleared. The right hand display digits are cleared.

Subsequent hex keys are shifted into (HL) by KEYS. ENTWD calls DWORD to display (HL) at the left after each hex key. After four or more hex keys have been entered, representing a memory address, ENTWD calls DMEM to display the content of the memory location.

At return:
$(A)=(C)=$ command
(B) $=00$
(D) $=$ count of hex keys
(E) preserved
$(H L)=$ keyed data. If no hex keys entered, ENTWD entry clears (HL), but ENTW2 preserves (HL). If one, two three or four hex keys entered, (HL) contains leading zeros.

Carry and Zero clear, except Zero set if no hex keys.

> Return from ENTW2 if no hex keys entered: $$
\begin{array}{l}(A)=(C)=\text { command } \\ (D)=00 \\ (E)=\text { preserved } \\ (H L) \text { preserved } \\ \text { Carry clear, Zero set }\end{array}
$$

## A.5.2.7 ENMEM (O1FF)

ENME2 (0200)

ENMEM accepts keyboard entry and stores the last two hexadecimal keys entered into the memory location addressed by (HL). After each hexadecimal key is entered it calls DMEM to display the data.

If entry is at ENMEM (O1FF) the existing data at (HL) are displayed before any key is entered. If entry is at ENME2 (0200) and the carry is set, this initial display is omitted.

ENMEM returns when a command is entered. If no hexadecimal keys precede the command, the data byte at (HL) is preserved. Also, if RESET is pressed with no hex keys having been entered, the data have not been changed.

When the first hex key is pressed, it is stored and displayed as the low digit of the data byte with the high digit set to zero. Successive keys are shifted into the data byte. The data byte is stored in memory as each hex key is entered, so RESET following a hex key leaves the data entered in the designated memory location.

When a command key is pressed, it is tested for CLR. If the command is CLR, the original data found at (HL) is restored before return.

## Entry Data:

$(H L)=$ memory address
For entry at ENME2, carry set to suppress
initial display.

Return Data, after command key:
$(\mathrm{A})=(\mathrm{C})=$ command
(B) $=00$
(D) = new data entered
$(E)=$ original data from ((HL))
(HL) preserved
If command key is not CLR:
$((H L))=$ new data if entered,
otherwise ((HL)) preserved
Not Zero. Carry set, except Not Carry
if command is BRK.
If command key is CLR:
$((H L))=$ original data
Zero Set, Not Carry

Error Detection: See next page.

```
If data entry is attempted to a ROM or non-existent memory location,
returns via ERRDS to display Err, with:
```

$(A)=(B)=00$
(C) = (D) = hex key
(E) $=F 7$
(HL) preserved
Zero Set, Not Carry

Note that the flags do not distinguish the error return from the CLEAR return. The content of $A$ can be tested for the error condition: $(A)=00$ only if an error return has been made. The memory address which could not be written to is preserved in (HL).

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## A.5.3 Display

Data stored in memory locations 83F8-83FF are displayed by the DMA channel, provided the display is enabled by a high output at Port 0C7. The content of $83 F 8$ controls the left digit, 83FF controls the right digit. The data must be stored in seven segment code, with each bit controlling one segment. Bit assignments, as shown in Figure A-3, are:

| Bit 0 | Top horizontal |
| :--- | :--- |
| Bit 1 | Upper right |
| Bit 2 | Lower right |
| Bit 3 | Bottom horizontal |
| Bit 4 | Lower left |
| Bit 5 | Upper left |
| Bit 6 | Middle horizontal |
| Bit 7 | Decimal point |

Monitor subroutines are available for displaying hexadecimal data. A table of hexadecimal symbols is in ROM at 02B3.

## Digit

Position


Address

(80)

Hexadecimal Codes for LED Segments
Figure $A-3$

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## A.5.4 Monitor Display Subroutines

Four display subroutines are described:

DISPR displays one digit
DBYTE displays one byte
DWORD displays two bytes
DMND displays a memory address and its content.

Several alternate entries are also identified. In addition, a subroutine is provided to right justify the high digit of a byte to make it ready for display by DISPR. Another subroutine clears all or part of the display.
A.5.4.1 DISPR (02A6)

Displays one digit at a specified location. It masks register $A$ to obtain the low digit, adds this to a table address to find a corresponding seven segment code, and stores the result at the memory location specified by (DE). It then decrements (DE) to address the next leftward display position.

```
Entry (A) = digit to be displayed, right justified
                                    (High bits need not be clear)
    (DE) = display digit address
Return (A) = (C) = byte entered
    (B) preserved
    (DE) decremented
    (HL) = table address for seven segment code
```

A.5.4.1.1 DIGHI (02C3)
DIGSW (02C5)
DIGHI clears the low digit of the byte entered in (A) and rightjustifies the high digit. DIGSW switches the two digits of the byteentered in (A).All other registers are preserved.
A.5.4.2 DBYTE (0295)
DMEM (0294)
DBY2 (0298)DBYTE displays the content of register $A$, after loading (DE) with theaddress of the right display digit, so that the data are displayed inthe two right positions.DMEM loads the data stored at the memory location addressed by (HL)to be displayed.
DBY2 displays the content of register $A$ in the digit addressed by(DE) and the next digit to the left. The translation and memorywrite are done by:
CALL DISPR Display low digit
CALL DIGHI Get high digit
CALL DISP2 Display high digit

After the second digit is displayed, the subroutine exits via MENAB to enable the monitor, display, and all rows of the keyboard.

## Entry data

DMEM (HL) addressing memory location
DBYTE (A) contains byte to be displayed
DBY2 (A) contains byte to be displayed
(DE) addresses display digit for low digit

Return (via MENAB)
$(A)=(C)=$ digit displayed
(B) preserved
(DE) addressing next digit to left of high
digit displayed; for DMEM and DBYTE (DE) $=83 F D$.
(HL) preserved
Not zero, Not carry
Display, monitor and all rows of the keyboard are enabled.

## A.5.4.3 DWORD (02D1)

DWD2 (02D4)

DWORD displays the content of register pair HL as four digits at the left, by loading pair $D E$ with $83 F B$, the address of the fourth display location. DWD2 displays the content of register pair HL as four digits, placing the low digit at the location addressed by (DE).

The procedure is:
DWORD: LXI D, 83FB

DWD2: MOV A, L
CALL DBY2
MOV A, H
JMP DBY2

Note, that the exit is from DBY2 via MENAB. See the summary of entry and return data in Section A.5.4.4.1.
A.5.4.4 DMWD (02CE)

DMWD displays a nemory address and its content. It comprises a single instruction, CALL DMEM, immediately preceding DWORD. The address contained in (HL) is displayed at the left and the memory content, ((HL)) is displayed at the right. See A.5.4.4.1 for entry and return data.

## A.5.4.4.1 DYPC (02CB)

DYPC loads (HL) with the data stored at 83E6, E7 and enters DMWD. These data represent the last recorded user program counter when operating in breakpoint mode with interrupts enabled, so DYPC would always display its own address and instruction. It is useful as a debugging and analysis tool if called by an interrupt service routine, because it will then display the interrupted instruction and its address.

The table below summarizes entry and return data for DYPC, DMWD, DWORD and DWD2.

Entry Data

|  | DYPC | DMWD | DWORD | DWD2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (DE) | -- | -- | - | Digit Address |
| (HL) | -- |  |  |  |

Return Data
(A)
$=(\mathrm{H})$
$=(\mathrm{H})$
$=(\mathrm{H})$
$=(\mathrm{H})$
(B)

Preserved
(C)
$=(\mathrm{H}) \quad=(\mathrm{H})$
$=(\mathrm{H})$
(DE)
83 F7
$83 F 7$
$83 F 7$
(DE) -2
(HL)
(PCADR)
Preserved-

## A.5.4.5 Clear Display and Memory

CLRGT (0282)

CLEAR (0287)

CLRHI (0289)

CLRLP (028C)

CLRGT clears the right hand four digits of the display; CLEAR clears the entire display. Neither of these needs any entry data.

CLRHI starts at 83FF, the right hand display digit, and clears the number of bytes specified by the content of register $B$, working downward.

CLRLP starts at the memory location addressed by (HL) and clears the number of bytes specified by (B), working downward. CLRLP is not restricted to the display, but can be used to clear any desired part of memory, up to 256 bytes.

All return with $(B)=00$ and (HL) addressing the byte below the lowest byte cleared. For CLEAR this addresses RGNAM.

Zero is set. Carry is preserved.

Registers $A, C, D$ and $E$ are preserved.

THE ICS MONITOR
A.5.4.6 ERRDS (OOBC)

Displays Err in three left hand digits of the displays, the clears the remaining digits. No entry data required.

## Returns

Zero, Not Carry
$(A)=(B)=00$
(E) $=F 7$

C, D, H, L Preserved

## A.5.5 Time Delay Subroutines

## A.5.5.1 DELAY (0236)

DELYA (0238)

DELYA counts down in register $A$ and returns at Zero. DELAY loads register $A$ with 83 H to delay slightly less than one millisecond. Return (A) $=00$, Zero set. Carry and all other registers preserved. Each count in (A) represents 15 clocks. Including CALL and RET, the delay generated is given by:

$$
t=(15(A)+27) \quad \text { system clocks }
$$

Some sample values calculated from the system clock frequency of 2048000 clocks per second:

| A | Time (milliseconds) |
| :--- | :---: |
| 00 | 1.888 |
| 87 H | 1.002 |
| 83 H | 0.973 |
| 42 H | 0.497 |
| 20 H | 0.248 |
| 0 CH | 0.101 |

## A.5.5.2 DELYT (O3EB)

DELYC (03EE)
Subroutine DELYC delays for a time period set by the content of (C) and returns with the input from PORTOBO in the carry.
DELYT calls DELYC and then exits into DELYC, thereby doubling the delay period. These subroutines are used in serial data transmission and receiving, where DELYC gives a half bit time delay and DELYT a full bit time. They are also useful for giving longer delay times than are available from DELYA. Some delay times are tabulated below.

Enter with (C) = delay count
Return Carry $=$ PORTOBO
Zero set
All registers preserved
The delay time is given by:
DELYC $48+74$ X (C) system clocks
DELYT $106+148 \mathrm{X}(\mathrm{C})$ system clocks

These counts include 17 clocks for the user's call to the subroutine.
Some typical values are:

| (C) | DELYC |  | DELYT |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Clocks | Time | Clocks | Time |
|  | (msec) |  | (msec) |  |
| 01 | 122 | . 06 | 254 | . 12 |
| 1B | 2046 | 1.00 | 4102 | 2.00 |
| 37 | 4118 | 2.01 | 8246 | 4.03 |
| 53 | 6190 | 3.02 | 12390 | 6.05 |
| 6 E | 8118 | 4.00 | 16386 | 8.00 |
| 7D | 9298 | 4.54 | 18606 | 9.08 |
| 8A | 10260 | 5.01 | 20530 | 10.02 |
| FF | 18918 | 9.24 | 37846 | 18.48 |

A. 5.6 Shift HL Subroutine
SHLRT (022D)
SHLRZ (022E)
SHLRC (022F)Shift the content of register pair $H L$ right one bit, returning theprevious least significant bit in carry. SHLRZ shifts zero into thehigh bit; SHLRC enters carry into the high bit. SHLRT tests thecontent of (HL) before shifting, and returns Zero set if the valuewas zero. These subroutines are useful in double precisionmultiplication and division.
Enter (HL) = two byte value to be shifted
Return (HL) shifted right one bit
(A) $\quad=(\mathrm{L})$
Carry $=$ previous LSB of (HL)
A.5.7 Breakpoint System Subroutines
BKLOC (01C3)
Tests whether a memory location exists in thebreakpoint table. See Section 9.6.2
BKENT (01A3)
Enters a breakpoint. See Section 9.6.2.
BKRMV (0186)
Removes a breakpoint. See Section 9.6.2.

THE ICS MONITOR
A.5.8 Move MemoryA monitor function allows copying the contents of a memory areaeither to a higher overlapping area or to a non-overlapping area.
Enter COPYL (0059) with:
(C) = number of bytes to be moved
$(D E)=$ address of the highest byte to be moved
(HL) = new address for the highest byte.
Return is to the monitor at NORUN. Press RESET
when finished. If more than 256 bytes are tobe moved the registers must be loaded againand a new entry made.
A.5.9 Serial Data Communications
SOTBT (0382)Returns successive bits for serial data transmission.Refer to Chapter 9, Section 9.6.2 for details
SINWS (03CF)Receives serial data, returning after each character.Refer to Chapter 9, Section 9.6.3 for details.

# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING .WORKBOOK 

## APPENDIX B

BINARY/DECIMAL CONVERSIONS

## Appendix $B$

## B INARY/DECIMAL CONVERSIONS

Several programs are presented for conversion of decimal data to binary data. All of these are written as subroutines; generally the data to be converted (or a memory address for the data) are entered in register pair $H L$ and the result is returned in the same, with all other registers preserved.

## B. 1 DECIMAL TO BINARY INTEGER

The conversion from decimal data to binary can be done by calculating and summing the values of the successive bits. Figure $B-1$ lists the values of the bits. These can be calculated by the following procedure:

Bit zero value $=1$

| $\longrightarrow$ |  |
| ---: | :--- |
| Next bit $=$ | double the value |
| Next bit $=$ | double the value |
| Next bit $=$ | double the value |
| Next bit $=$ | add one fourth |
|  | to previous value, |
|  | or multiply by $5 / 8$. |


|  | Decimal | Hex |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bit | Value | Value |
| 0 | 1 | 0001 |
| 1 | 2 | 0002 |
| 2 | 4 | 0004 |
| 3 | 8 | 0008 |
| 4 | 10 | 000A |
| 5 | 20 | 0014 |
| 6 | 40 | 0028 |
| 7 | 80 | 0050 |
| 8 | 100 | 0064 |
| 9 | 200 | $00 \mathrm{C8}$ |
| 10 | 400 | 0190 |
| 11 | 800 | 0320 |
| 12 | 1000 | 03E8 |
| 13 | 2000 | 07D0 |
| 14 | 4000 | OFAO |
| 15 | 8000 | 1 F 40 |
| 16 | 10,000 | 2710 |
| 20 | 100,000 | 186 A 0 |
| 24 | 1,000,000 | F4240 |
| 28 | 10,000,000 | 989680 |

Values of Bits in a Decimal Number

## Figure B-1

The bit value can be calculated and added into the sum representing the binary value as each bit of the decimal value is processed, or they can be pre-calculated and stored. It is faster and simpler to store a table of the bit values, but this requires memory for the storage, as shown in the program of Figure B-2. The procedure of Figure B-3 calculates the values and pushes them into the stack; then recovers each bit value as the decimal value is shifted. Thus no memory is permanently allocated to the bit value. The stack is used for 38 bytes - six to save registers and 32 for bit values. Either subroutine meets the same specification, except for length.

DECBN Convert four digit packed decimal value to two byte binary.

Enter with decimal value in (HL) Return with binary value in (HL) All other registers are preserved.

The programs of Figure B-4 can be used to test either of these programs.






A single byte conversion can use either of the foregoing procedures, but a simpler method results from separating the two decimal digits. The low digit, with a value from 0 to 9 , is already in binary as well as binary coded decimal form. The high digit, 00 to 90 , can be converted by a binary multiplication by $5 / 8$, which only takes five steps.

| RAR | (A) | $\mathrm{X} / 2$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| MOV E, A | (C) | $\mathrm{X} / 2$ |
| RAR | (A) | $\mathrm{X} / 4$ |
| RAR | (A) | $\mathrm{X} / 8$ |
| ADD E | (A) | $X / 2+X / 8$ |

Figure $B-5$ shows the complete subroutine, which accepts the two digit decimal number in (L) and returns the binary equivalent in (L).


The procedure of Figure B-5 can also be used with multi-byte values. Almost any realistic program that requires decimal to binary conversion will also have a binary multiplication subroutine, which can be used to multiply the value of the two digit number by an appropriate power of 10 expressed in binary. These values can be stored in a table, or they can also be calculated by binary multiplication. This scheme is by far the best when more than four digits are involved.

## B. 2 DECIMAL FRACTION TO BINARY FRACTION

Surprisingly, the conversion of a decimal fraction to a binary fraction is significantly simpler than the conversion of integers. The decimal fraction is repeatedly doubled: if a carry out of the fraction results, a one is shifted into the binary value; if no carry occurs, a zero is shifted in. Figure $B-6$ shows a 16 bit conversion program. For larger numbers of bits, the data would be kept in memory, and the procedure can then be extended to any desired precision.


## B. 3 BINARY TO DECIMAL CONVERSION

Since each bit in a binary number, either integer or fraction, has twice the value of the preceding bit, this conversion starts with a decimal value for the least significant bit and repeatedly doubles that value for succeeding bits. The successive bits of the binary value are tested, and each time a one is encountered, the bit value is summed into the decimal value.

The program of Figure $B-7$ operates in memory rather than in registers, and allows conversion of any number of bytes. It demonstrates passing parameters to a subroutine through memory with a command and address table. Five areas in memory are required:

Binary Data
Decimal Result

Temporary Bit Value
Value of Least Significant Bit
Command and Address Table

The conversion subroutine is entered with (HL) $=$ address of the command and address table, which contains (in this order):

Number of binary bytes to be converted
Number of decimal bytes
Binary data address

Result address $\quad$ address
Temporary bit value address
LSB value address
for least
significant byte

The conversion program alters only the result and the temporary bit value. None of the other data are changed, so the binary value remains available for further processing and the other data could be stored in ROM.

A subroutine, RECAD, recovers these addresses and places them in registers for use in initialization and in the repetitive conversion loop. In the initialization, the least significant bit value is copied from its permanent location to the temporary bit value area, and the result area is closed.

In the loop, RECAD is called with a byte count in register C (initially set to 00 ), and RECAD adds this value to the binary data address from the table, returning the address of the binary data byte now being processed. The data byte addressed is masked by the content of register $B$ (initially set to 01 and subsequently shifted left), giving the value of the current bit.

If the current bit is one, another subroutine, DCADM, is called to add the decimal value of the bit (addressed by $B C$ ) to the decimal result (addressed by $H L$ ). Then the bit value address is duplicated in $H L$ and another call to DCADM adds the bit value to itself, giving the value of the next higher bit.

At the end of the loop, the bit mask and byte count are recovered, and the bit mask in register $B$ is rotated left before repeating the loop. When it shifts from bit 7 back to bit 0 , the byte count is incremented and compared with the number of bytes to be converted.

The command table shown is suitable for conversion of a four byte binary value with 16 integer bits and 16 fractional bits. The coding given is for locations 8280 to $82 F 4$, with the command table, LSB value and scratch pad in 8300-831F; binary data and decimal result are in 8320-832E.






## B. 4 BINARY FRACTION TO DECIMAL FRACTION

The program of Figure B-8 is a shortened version of the binary to decimal conversion, taking a two byte binary fraction in (HL) and returning the two byte decimal equivalent in (HL). For economy of program space it does not save the other registers, and returns only the two high bytes of the result in (HL). The other bytes of the conversion are stored in memory, with the least significant at 8308 and most significant at 830F. It requires that its scratch pad and result area occupy the lowest 16 bytes of the page immediately following the least significant bit value, which is stored at 82F8-82FF. The program would work for integers or mixed integer/fraction values if a different LSB value were stored in that location.



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MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK

## APPENDIX C

## CALCULATING TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

## CALCULATING TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

The sine of an angle (in radians) is calculated from:
(a) $\sin x=x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{5}}{4!}-\frac{x^{7}}{7!}+\cdots$

The cosine is generated by a similar series:
(b) $\cos x=1-\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{4}}{4!}-\frac{x^{6}}{6!}+--$

The exponential function $e^{x}$ is:
(c)

$$
e^{x}=1+x+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{4}}{4!}+\cdots
$$

A11 three functions can be generated simultaneously by a procedure that calculates each successive term in the series for $e^{x}$; adds the terms into a sum for $e^{x}$; and adds or subtracts each term to a sine or cosine sum. Each term is calculated from the preceding term, the term number, and the value of $x$.

$$
t_{i}=x t_{i-1} / i
$$

Starting with $t=1$, this gives:
Term Value Disposition
$0 \quad 1$
1
$x / 1$
$x / 2$
Subtract from cosine
3
4
5
6
$x / 3.2$ Subtract from sine
$x / 4.3 .2 \quad$ Add to cosine
$x / 5.4 .3 .2$ Add to sine
$x / 6.5 .4 .3 .2$ Subtract from cosine

The value of $x$ must be expressed in radians, and for reasonably rapid convergence of the series large values of $x$ should be avoided. Since the sine of an angle is equal to the cosine of its complement:

$$
\sin x=\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2}-x\right)
$$

it is easy to restrict the angle to less than 45 , or 0.785 radians. With this limit terms beyond 6 are not needed for 16 bit precision.

In this Appendix, we present a subroutine to calculate the sine and cosine, given $x$ as a value between 0.0 and 0.785 radians. A main program (Figure C-1) will accept an angle in decimal degrees and convert it to binary radians, call SINCOS, and display the results in decimal.

The prograin also uses a binary multiplication subroutine and a twos complement subroutine, presented in the following pages; the single byte decimal to binary integer conversion of Figure B-5 and the two byte binary fraction to decimal fraction conversion of Figure B-8, in Appendix B. These are also duplicated here.

Memory assignments for the program are:

| MAIN | $8200-823 F$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| SINCOS | $8250-827 F$ |
| TERM | $8280-82 \mathrm{AF}$ |
| DECBI | $82 \mathrm{~B} 0-82 \mathrm{BF}$ |
| BFDCF | $82 C 0-82 \mathrm{FF}$ |
| Variable Data | $8300-830 F$ |
| BMULT | $8310-8330$ |
| TWOSC | $8336-833 F$ |



Main Program
Figure C-1


Subroutines SINCOS and TERM are defined in the text below and depicted in Figures $C-3$ and $C-4$. SINCOS adds or subtracts successive terms, as discussed early in this Appendix. TERM generates the terms, addressing a table of coefficients according to the term number. These coefficients are nominally $1 / 2,1 / 3,1 / 4,1 / 5$, etc. Adjustments to the coefficients for terms 5 and 6 are made as shown in the table of Figure $C-5$ to correct for rounding errors and absent higher order terms.
The table of Figure $C-5$ shows the results returned by this program. Note that the adjusted coefficients affect only the least significant digit, for angles between 40 and 50 degrees. The adjustment may be important in some instances, to make sin $45^{\circ}=\cos 45^{\circ}$.

## CALCULATING TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

```
    SINCOS Find the sine and cosine of X
    Enter with (HL) = X
    Return with (BC) = X
    (DE) = sin X
    (HL) = cos X
Constraints: X must be a fractional value (i.e. less than 1). The
cosine of zero is returned as FFFF.
    TERM
    Find successive terms of e}\mp@subsup{e}{}{x
    Enter with (A) = term number 1 to 8
    (BC) = X
    (HL) = previous term
    Return with (A) = next term number
        (BC) = X
        (HL) = new term
Requires a table of values of 1/(A). Term is always positive.
```

ENTER (HL) =X
$(B C) \longleftarrow X$ for multiplicand
$(S T) \longleftarrow(D E) \longleftarrow F F F F$ for cosine
$(D E) \longleftarrow 0000$ for sine
$(A) \longleftarrow 01$ to mark term 1
(ST) - (HL) save positive term Test for term 2,3,6,7 Take two's complement to subtract these terms
$(\mathrm{DE}) \longleftrightarrow(\mathrm{HL})$
$(\mathrm{HL}) \longleftrightarrow(\mathrm{DE})+(\mathrm{HL})$
Add term to function in ( HL )
$(D E) \longleftarrow$ (ST) Positive term
$(\mathrm{HL}) \leftrightarrow i S T)$ Exchange sine and cosine in (HL), (ST)
$(D E) \longleftrightarrow i H L) \quad(D E) \longleftarrow$ function $(\mathrm{HL}) \longleftarrow$ term

CALL TERM
$(A) \longleftarrow(A)+1$
$(H L) \longleftarrow(B C) x(H L) x$ Coef
Set zero flag if term $=0$

(HL) $\longleftarrow$ (ST) Sine or cosine
If term number is odd exchange
sine and cosine

Subroutine SINCOS
Figure C-3


Subroutine Term
Figure C-4

## Coefficients for Successive Terms

| Term | Nominal Value |  | Adjusted |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Decimal | Hex | Decimal | Hex |
| $\mathrm{a}_{1}$ | 1.0000 | - | 1.0000 | - |
| $\mathrm{a}_{2}^{1}$ | 0.5000 | 8000 | 0.5000 | 8000 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{3}$ | 0.3333 | 5555 | 0.3333 | 5555 |
| ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 0.2500 | 4000 | 0.2500 | 4000 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{5}$ | 0.2000 | 3344 | 0.1953 | 3200 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{6}$ | 0.1667 | 2AAD | 0.0937 | 1800 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{7}$ | 0.1429 | 2498 | 0 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{8}$ | 0.1250 | 2000 | 0 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{a}_{9}$ | 0.1111 | 1 C 72 | 0 | 0 |
| Results of Sine/Cosine Calculation |  |  |  |  |
| Angle | Cosine |  | Sine |  |
| 0 | 0.9999 |  | 0.0000 |  |
| 1 | . 9998 |  | . 0174 |  |
| 2 | . 9993 |  | . 0349 |  |
| 3 | . 9986 |  | . 0523 |  |
| 4 | . 9975 |  | . 0697 |  |
| 5 | . 9961 |  | . 0871 |  |
| 10 | . 9847 |  | . 1736 |  |
| 15 | . 9658 |  | . 2588 |  |
| 20 | . 9396 | With | . 3420 | With |
| 25 | . 9062 | adjusted | . 4266 a | justed |
| 30 | . 8659 | coefficients | . 5000 coe | ficients |
| 35 | . 8191 |  | . 5736 |  |
| 40 | . 7661 * | . 7660 | . 6428 |  |
| 44 | . 7195 * | . 7193 | . 6949 * | 6947 |
| 45 | . 7073 * | . 7071 | . 7072 * | 7071 |
| 46 | . 6949 * | . 6947 | . 7195 * | 7193 |
| 50 | . 6428 |  | . 7661 * | 7660 |
| 60 | . 5000 |  | . 8659 |  |
| 75 | . 2588 |  | . 9658 |  |
| 90 | 0.0000 |  | 0.9999 |  |

Results in Sine/Cosine Calculation
Figure C-5









# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK ADDENDIX D 

EXPANDIAig YOUR MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING SYSTEM WITH THE S-100 BUS ADAPTER

Your Microcomputer Training System (MTS) can be easily expanded to a more complete system with floppy disk drives, printers, CRT terminals and other peripherals as illustrated in Figure D-1. This is easily accomplished via the $S-100$ Adapter Card which interfaces the MTS to any standard $S-100$ mainframe, into which you can insert other $S-100$ compatible circuit cards. The $S-100$ bus has rapidly become the industry standard for personal computers and as a result, has nurtured the explosion of many compatible peripherals.

To expand your system, you will need an $S-100$ bus mainframe to house the $S-100$ compatible cards. The mainframe should contain at least 12 - 16 slots to allow ample room for expansion. Each slot will hold one card, for example a 16 K RAM card, a disk controller card, or a serial interface card. Note also that in addition to allowing one slot for each card you have planned, it is wise to leave one empty slot between each of the RAM cards for thermal stability. This is especially true for static RAM cards, which dissipate considerable heat.


Typical Expanded MTS-S100 System Configuration
Figure D-1

Generally the mainframe will contain a built-in power supply. Note that the $S-100$ power supplies furnish unregulated $D C$ power on the bus and that each individual card in the system, including the MTS $S-100$ Bus Adapter, has its own on-board regulators to create the necessary regulated voltages for that board. You should be certain that the mainframe has a large enough power supply to power the $S-100$ cards. Typical current and voltage outputs are: $+8 \mathrm{~V} @ 30 \mathrm{~A},+18 \mathrm{~V} @ 15 \mathrm{~A},-18 \mathrm{~V}$ @ 15A.

TEI manufactures a mainframe which has been used in testing the MTS S-100 adapter. (For list of distributor addresses, see Table I.) What $s-100$ compatible cards and peripherals should you buy? The answer of course is dependent on your application requirements, which will determine the extent of memory and type of peripherals necessary. However, almost any expanded system will involve adding more than the 4 K bytes of $R A M$ and 8 K bytes of PROM available on the MTS itself. Thus, the first boards you will probably buy are RAM memory cards. Most operating systems that run Basic, Fortran, Editors, and Assemblers, require at least 32 K bytes of RAM, so plan on buying at least two 16 K RAM boards.

RAM cards from many different manufacturers can be used. However, you should select one that responds to the $S-100$ bus control signal named 'PHANTOM.' As described in detail later, the PHANTOM signal is issued by the $S-100$ Adapter card whenever a RESET occurs. The purpose of the PHANTOM signal is to disable all memory cards and thereby allow the $S-100$ adapter to force a 'JMP XXXX' instruction onto the bus as the first instruction to be executed after the RESET.

You can specify the jump address, XXXX, in switch settings on the S-100 adapter card as described later in this section.

The PHANTOM signal thus allows the $S-100$ adapter card to override the RAM memory at address 0 after a RESET, so that the processor can automatically jump to a specified address (other than 0000) to begin program execution. This is especially important since most $S-100$ disk operating systems have a 'Bootstrap Loader' program in a ROM located at a high memory address. Such Bootstrap Loaders are designed to be executed automatically following RESET. They read the Disk Operating System itself into the memory from the disk. To implement this function, the RAM cards you select must respond to the PHANTOM signal.

You will probably want to communicate with the microcomputer using an ASCII keyboard entry device and a CRT (Cathode Ray Tube) display (also commonly referred to as a VDU - Video Display Unit). Most terminals communicate through the standard EIA RS232C serial convention; therefore you will need a serial/parallel I/O card. Cromemco manufactures an $S-100$ card called the TU-ART which has two RS232C serial ports and two parallel $1 / O$ ports as well. You can connect any RS232C compatible VDU terminal, printer or modem to the TU-ART since it has software programmable communication rates. The TU-ART has been tested with a DIABLO printer/terminal and a Lear Siegler ADM-3A CRT terminal. Newbury Labs, a manufacturer in England, also manufactures a low cost VDU suitable for connection.

D-4

To efficiently develop and execute programs using higher-level languages, you will ultimately need a Disk Operating System and therefore, disk drives. Micropolis Corporation has a diskette drive system which includes an $S-100$ compatible controller card and a disk operating system called MDOS. This system runs well with the MTS. The MDOS software is rather powerful, and includes utility programs to read and write files on the disk, keep a directory and other 'housekeeping' functions. The system also includes a text editor, an assembler and a reasonably powerful version of BASIC.

Finally, you might want to include video monitors with controllers employing memory mapped techniques for use in word processing and limited graphics displays. You may even add speech recognition and synthesizing capabilities are $S-100$ compatible Digital to Analog/Analog to Digital converter cards, multi-channel data acquisition systems, musical synthesizers, relay controllers and other interesting new devices constantly appearing in the Personal Computer market. You are limited only by your imagination, since you can even design your 'better mouse-trap' onto blank $S-100$ card-size printed circuit boards.

# To keep up-to-date on these developments, you may want to subscribe to one of the many magazines now devoted to covering the personal computer field. Two of the leading magazines are: 

## BYTE MAGAZ INE

BYTE Subscriptions
P.O. Box ..... 590
Martinsville, New Jersey ..... 08836
INTERFACE AGE MAGAZINE
13913 Artesia ..... Blvd.
Cerritos, California ..... 90701

| S-100-Module/Hardw | U.S. Distributor | European Distribu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Micro System Main-Frame MCs - 112 | TEI, Inc. <br> 5636 Etheridge <br> houston, Texas 77087 $\text { (713) } 738-2300$ <br> TWX: 1-910-881-3639 | (Sub-Distributor) CMC Marketing <br> (Dealer) Abacus Computers <br> 62 New Cavendish Street <br> London, England WIM7LD |
| TU-ART Digital Interface Contains: 2 channels of duplex data exchange. 2 channels of parallel data exchange. 10 interval timers. | CROMEMCO, Inc. <br> 2400 Charleston Rd. <br> Mountain View, CA. 94043 <br> (415) 964-7400 | Hiltrup 4400, Munster, W. Germany BASIS MICROCCMPUTER VERTRIEB <br> Von-Flotow-Strabe 5 $02501-4800$ |
| 16K Dynamic RAM Memory | DYNABYTE, Inc. 4020 Fabian Way <br> Palo Alto, CA. 94303 <br> (415) $965-1010$ | BELVEDERE COMPUTERS <br> 9 Belvedere Place Scarborough North Yorkshire England Y01122x |
| 16K Static RAM Memory Module | PROBLEM SOLVER SYSTEMS 20834 Lassen Street Chatsworth, CA. 91311 (213) 998-5100 | FIMECA FA <br> Avenue Albert 125 <br> 1060 Brussels, Belgium <br> Phone: (02) 345-98-37 |
| VDM-1 Video Display Module | PROCESSOR TECENOLOGY <br> 7100 Johnson Industrial <br> Pleasanton, CA. 94566 <br> (415) 829-2600 | SPA TALTEC <br> Square Larousse, 5 <br> 1060 Bruxelis <br> Phone: (02) 345-98-95 <br> WERNOR ELECTRONICS <br> Torsvagen 61 <br> Box 72, S-133 01 <br> Saltsjobaden <br> Stockholm, Sweden <br> Phone: 08717-6288 |
| Disk Storage <br> Module - Model 102311 <br> and Controller | MICROPOLIS CORP. <br> 7959 Deering Avenue <br> Canoga Park, CA. 91304 <br> (213) 703-1121 | TERELEC-AIRTRONIC <br> Cite des Bruyeres rue Carle Vernet 92310 Sevres, France <br> Phone: <br> (1) 027-75-35 |
| CRT Terminal | - | Yewbley inboratories imd. <br> King Street <br> Odiham <br> Hampshire RG25 INN, UK <br> Telex: 858815 |

Manufacturers and Distributors of
Representative S-100 Compatible Equipment
Table I
D-7

S-100 ADAPTER DESIGN

The $\mathrm{S}-100$ bus was originally specified by MITS, a company in Albuquerque, New Mexico, when they designed the first computer aimed at hobbyists - the Altair 8800A. Soon after the introduction of the 8800A, other manufacturers began producing compatible memory and peripheral boards which would operate on the 8800 A bus. Various unused lines in the 100 line structure soon began to be defined by those manufacturers, sometimes in conflicting ways. MITS themselves defined new signals in their 8800B, the successor to the model A. Despite these occasional conflicts, the $S-100$ is so close to a universal standard that literally dozens of manufacturer's equipment and software can be used together.

To achieve optimum compatibility, the $\mathrm{S}-100$ Bus Adapter Card has been designed not only to emulate the Altair 8800 B definition of the $\mathrm{S}-100$ bus, but also to incorporate additional signals used by other manufacturers (such as the PHANTOM), where these are compatible with the 8800 B and are generally useful. While some manufacturer's equipment may not meet these standards, most will. You should have little difficulty if you follow the guidelines presented in this section.

The basic difference between the MTS microcomputer bus and the S-100 bus is that the MTS uses a single bi-directional data bus, as do most 8080 systems. The $\mathrm{s}-100$ bus involves two separate 8 -bit data buses; one for outbound and one for inbound data. The other key difference in the $\mathrm{S}-100$ bus involves the status byte, placed on the data bus by the 8080 during the first clock cycle of each bus cycle. In most D-8

8080 systems, including the MTS, this status byte is decoded either with an 8228 or with discrete logic, and this logic then produces MEMR, MEMW, IOR, and IOW signals. Therefore, in most systems the status byte itself is 'discarded' following decoding. However, in the $S-100$ bus definition, this status byte must be stored in a register and made available on eight separate $S-100$ control lines, so that each external card can decode it. Your $S-100$ Bus Adapter Card does produce these status signals even though most external cards do not actually require them.

Table III at the conclusion of this section describes the $S-100$ signals emulated by the MTS S-100 Adapter. You will notice on the 'comments' heading that some signals are delayed. These signals are actually double-buffered. They are buffered once before they leave the MTS board, via the ribbon cable, and again are buffered on the S-100 Bus Adapter. This is to minimize the length of any single-driven signal path to eliminate noise problems. While the double buffering results in signal delays of 20 - 40 nano-seconds compared to the standard $S-100$ definition, this minimal delay should present no timing problems.

A few signals are not emulated by the Adapter. These were unique to the original Altair design. In particular, they were used with front panel switch operation of the Altair computer. Since most $S-100$ systems today are operated through a CRT or printing terminal, they have no front panel switches at all, except for RESET. Therefore, those front panel related signals have not been emulated.

In addition to creating the control signals specified in the $S-100$
bus definition and splitting the data bus into separate in/out buses, the Adapter Card performs several other necessary functions. First, the Adapter Card has on it eight switches which emulate the eight 'sense' switches on the front panel of an Altair 8800B. These are attached to an input port with device address FF. Some programs available for $S-100$ systems read these switch settings to learn the configuration of the peripherals (i.e. whether a CRT, printer, etc. is available for I/O). If you want to use the switches, they are located in position 22 on the Adapter Card. The topmost switch (labeled '1' on the switch itself) is data bit 7 (the most significant bit) and the bottom switch (labeled '8' on the switch itself) is data bit 0 (the least significant bit). These are marked on the PCB itself as D7 and DO respectively. Moving a switch to the 'on' position grounds the associated bit and creates a logic 0 . Switching it to 'off' (to the left) creates a logic 1. Thus, to create a Hexadecimal 83, the switch positions would be set as in Figure D-2.

Sense Switch Positions to Create Hexadecimal 83 on Input Port FF Figure D-2

The Adapter Card also has on it a circuit to cause the microprocessor to jump to a selected address upon RESET. This address is selectable by setting six switches located in position 31 on the Adapter Card. You can specify a starting address at the first location of any 1 K page, i.e. memory locations $0,1024,2048,3072$, etc. (decimal), or in hexadecimal, $000,0400,0800,0000,1000$, etc.

The jump start address is selected using switches 1 through 6 . Switches 7 and 8 are unused. Switch 1 corresponds to address bit 10 , switch 2 corresponds to address bit 11 , etc. (Address bits 0-9 are always set to 0). To specify an address bit as 0 , move the switch to on. To specify an address as 1 , move the switch to off. As an example, for a jump start address $\quad$ f $A 000$, the binary equivalent is 101000000000 0000. Thus the switch settings should be 101000 as shown in Figure $\mathrm{D}-3$.

Switch Settings
for
Jump Start Address A000
Figure D-3

The first step in implementing an expanded system is to plan the memory and $I / O$ device addresses. We assume there are two general categories of expanded systems: those that incorporate disks and use a disk operating system as the fundamental software for interfacing with the user, and those that do not have a disk and rely on the Microcomputer Training System's Monitor program.

Most monitor-based expanded systems simply involve additional RAM memory. In these cases the memory on the training system can be left in the original addresses assigned to it, and the expansion memory assigned to other unused locations as illustrated in Figure $D-4$.

Most disk-based systems, however, require RAM memory at address 0. Therefore, the MTS PROMs must be relocated, and in some cases, the MTS RAM should be relocated as well. Instructions for relocating these memories are given in STEP 10 below. Note that if you move either the MTS PROM or RAM, the monitor will no longer function since it relies on being located in address 0 and having the display RAM at locaton 83F8-83FF. A typical arrangement of memory for a disk-based system is shown in Figure D-5.


Typical Expanded Memory Configuration with a total of 36 K RAM plus 4 K PROM. To be used with the MTS MONITOR in PROM at location 0

Figure D-4


A typical disk operating system memory organization containing 36 K RAM plus 4 K PROM on MTS board. The bootstrap PROM's for disk operating system begin at EOOO and are physically located on the disk controller card itself.

Figure D-5

After designing the memory space, you can start installing the hardware. We suggest the following steps:

STEP 1

Do not yet change the memory addresses on the MTS. Leave the monitor in location 0 and the RAM at 8000. Remove all cards from the $S-100$ chassis. Turn on the $S-100$ power and check the voltages on bus lines 1, 2, 51 and 52 , relative to line 50 (ground). They should be within a few volts of $+8,+18,-8$ and -18 V respectively (Remember, this is an unregulated supply). Turn the $S-100$ power off. Turn the MTS power off. BEFORE CONTINUING, HEED THE FOLLOWING WARNING:

CAUTION: NEVER REMOVE OR INSERT CHIPS, S-100 CARDS, OR THE RIBBON CABLES WHILE THE POWER IS ON: FIRST TURN POWER OFF, WAIT 5-10 SECONDS FOR THE CAPACITORS TO DISCHARGE, THEN REMOVE OR INSERT THE DEVICE.

STEP 2

Set the 'Jump Start' address to 0000 by switching all the $A \quad-\quad A$ address select switches (in position 31 of the Adapter Card) to 'ON', which represents logic 0.

STEP 3

Plug the ribbon connector into socket J2 on the MTS. This connector is labeled 'S-100'. Both this connector and the connector labeled 'ITS' are keyed to prevent accidentally plugging the cable into the wrong connector, or plugging it in backwards.

Insert the Adapter Card into the first (front) slot in your $S-100$ mainframe. Turn on power for both the $S-100$ and MTS. Verify that the monitor functions normally. Try entering and executing the following program to verify that the MTS can read the sense switches. If you have set the sense switches to ' $55^{\prime}$ ', you should see a pattern of in the leftmost display on the MTS.

| 8000 | D3 |  | IN FF |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8001 | FF |  |  |
| 8002 | 32 |  | STA 83F8 |
| 8003 | F8 |  |  |
| 8004 | 83 |  | JMP 8000 |
| 8005 | C3 |  |  |
| 8006 | 00 |  |  |
| 8007 | 30 |  |  |

Next, try pressing the RESET switch on the front of the $s-100$. It should cause the monitor to RESET just as if you had pressed the RST switch on the MTS keyboard.

STEP 4

Set the address on an Expansion RAM card to 4000 by following the directions supplied by the manufacturer of the card. Also, set the control switch on the RAM card to enable it to recognize the PHANTOM signal (Not all cards have this switch). Finally, set the control switch(es) to allow you to write into the RAM, i.e., set the WRITE

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PROTECT switch to the 'unprotect' position. Again, some cards don't have this switch either.

An example of setting up a typical RAM card is shown in figure D-6 for the 16 K Static RAM manufactured by Problem Solvers, Inc. Referring to the manufacturer's documentation, the following switch settings would activate the RAM at address 4000.



No Boundary Protected


Memory Unprotected

## Switch positions to enable the PROBLEM

 SOLVER 16 K RAM at address 4000NOTE: Refer to manufacturer's documentation for details

Figure D-6

STEP 5

Turn off all power (both MTS and $S-100$ ). Insert the RAM card into any open slots; however, in most $S-100$ mainframes, it is a good idea co leave a vacant slot on each side of a RAM card for better cooling.

STEP 6

Turn on power for both the $S-100$ and the MTS. Using the monitor, store data in the $S-100$ RAM at address $4000,5000,6000$ and 7000 , and then check that the data is there. First, store 55, then repeat with AA. Turn off the MTS and $S-100$ system power. Remove the RAM card.

## STEP 7

Repeat steps 4,5 and 6 for each RAM card you have purchased to verify that you can store and retrieve data in it.

STEP 8

If you have purchased an RS232C serial interface card such as the TU-ART, read the manufacturer's directions carefully. Set up the switches on the card as directed. Turn off all power. Insert the TU-ART card in the $S-100$ frame and connect the cable to the 25 -pin ' $D^{\prime}$ shaped connector, commonly used for RS232C cables (Figure D-7a). The TU-ART to 'D' connector cable is available from Cromemco (the TU-ART manufacturer). Now write a simple program to output characters to the terminal. An example program is shown in Figure $D-7 b$.

TERMINAL TO TU-ART CABLE


This is a diagram of the cable required to connect a serial RS-232 I/O device (such as a CRT terminal) from the DB $25-\mathrm{S}$ socket of the TU-ART cable (model TRTCBL) to the DB 25-S connector of the RS-232 device.

The jumper connection between pins 4,5,6,8 and 20 may not be required since some terminals have internal pullups on these lines.


An Example Program for the TU-ART Card
Figure D-7b

STEP 9

Now you're ready to integrate the system. Set up the $s-100$ RAM card(s) to the addresses you initially designed. Turn off all power. Insert the cards. If you're not planning to add a disk, the system is ready to use. If you are going to add a disk system, you should now thoroughly study the manufacturer's hardware and software manuals.

STEP 10

Should you want to locate an $S-100$ RAM in memory address 0000 , as required with most disk systems, you will need to relocate the ICS monitor and any other PROMs which currently occupy addresses 0000 03FF. To do this you will need to modify certain jumpers on the decoding circuitry of the MTS. If you do, the MTS monitor will not execute properly due to the non-relocatable code.

The MTS has the facility to locate the $P R O M$ and the RAM at any $8 K$ page of memory in the 64 K address space, as well as to locate the 8255 at any 32 block increment of $\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ in the $256 \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ address range from 00 - FF (Refer to Figures $D-8$ and $D-9$ and Table II).

For example, in order to relocate the address of the MTS PROMs to C000 - CFFF, you will need to cut the existing jumper trace between pin 16 marked '0000' on the silk-screen and pin 4 marked 'PROM'. Next, insert a jumper wire from pin 11 marked ' $0000^{\prime}$ to pin 4 marked 'PROM' (as shown in Figure D-9). You can also perform the same type of operation for moving the RAM or I/O devices, if necessary for your memory system design.


MTS Standard Memory and I/O Configuration
Figure D-8


Address Decoder Jumper Tracess
Figure D-9

MTS ADDRESS DECODER JUMPER SETTINGS

| MTS DEVICE | ADDRESS | JUMP | ERS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EPROM | 0000-1FFF | "PROM" | to pin 16 |
|  | 2000-3FFF | " | to pin 15 |
|  | 4000-5FFF | " | to pin 14 |
|  | 6000-7FFF | " | to pin 13 |
|  | $8000-9 \mathrm{FFF}$ | " | to pin 12 |
|  | A000-BFFF | " | to pin 11 |
|  | C000- DFFF | " | to pin 10 |
|  | E000-FFFF | " | to pin 9 |
| RAM | 0000-1FFF | "RAM" | to pin 16 |
|  | 2000-3FFF | " | to pin 15 |
|  | 4000-5FFF | " | to pin 14 |
|  | 6000-7FFF | " | to pin 13 |
|  | $8000-9 F F F$ | " | to pin 12 |
|  | A000-BFFF | " | to pin 11 |
|  | C000- DFFF | " | to pin 10 |
|  | E000-FFFF | " | to pin 9 |
| 8255A | 00-03 | "PIO" | to pin 16 |
|  | 20-23 | " | to pin 15 |
| Control register $=\mathrm{X0}$ | 40-43 | " | to pin 14 |
| Port $A=X 1$ | 60-63 | " | to pin 13 |
| Port $\mathrm{B}=\mathrm{X} 2$ | 80-83 | " | to pin 12 |
| Port $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{X} 3$ | A0-A3 | " | to pin 11 |
|  | CO-C3 | " | to pin 10 |
|  | E0 - E3 | " | to pin 9 |

STEP 11

Set the Jump Start address on the $\mathrm{S}-100$ Adapter Card to the address of the Disk System bootstrap PROM.

STEP 12

Set up the disk controller card according to the manufacturer's directions. Turn off all power. Insert the card, connect the cables, and the hardware is configured. Note, however, that you will probably have to configure the disk operating system software, i.e., to create a version of the disk operating system that uses your addresses for inputs and outputs to CRT terminals and printers. This procedure will be described in the manual for your disk system.

The key elements in bringing up a complete system are:
(1) to test only one new card at a time,
(2) to read the manufacturer's literature prior to using their card, and
(3) to carefully follow the step-by-step procedure given above.
(1) Connect the MTS to the $S-100$ mainframe using the adapter card and run the ICS monitor.
(2) Draw a memory and I/O map of the proposed system.
(3) Remove any addressing conflicts via the jumper connections n the decoding circuit of the MTS.
(4) Verify that the low address 0000 memory cards can recognize the PHANTOM LINE. If so, set the appropriate switches by referring to the manufacturer's documentation. IF NOT, DO NOT USE.
(5) Configure switch 31 'Jump Address' to vector to the appropriate address upon power-up or a master reset.
(6) Connect J4 of the S-100 Adapter to socket J2 on the MTS.
(7) Insert the 100 pin edge connector J5 into the $\mathrm{S}-100$ system.
(8) Power-up the $\mathrm{S}-100$ system.
(9) Power-up the MTS.
(1) If the MTS monitor is moved from starting location 0000 to another 8 K page, the monitor program will not execute properly.
(2) If RAM locations $8000-8 F F F$ are moved and the MTS monitor is not, the MTS monitor will still not function because the display locations from 83F8 to $83 F F$ will follow the $8000-$ 8FFF block whenever it is moved; i.e., if 8000-8FFF is moved to A000 - AFFF, display locations will now be at locations A3F8 to A3FF. The monitor assumes they will be at 83F8-83FF.
(3) To use the MTS S-100 Adapter with any $S-100$ memory card, the automatic Jump Address Vector switches U31 must be configured. In addition, the lower address 0000 of any $S-100$ RAM card must be capable of disabling itself should the PHANTOM signal be generated upon a master RESET or power-up.
(4) If any memory or $I / O$ address conflicts occur, the MTS memory will
have highest priority and therefore will be selected over $S-100$ memory with the same address.

|  |  | S100 BUS SPECIFI | TABLE ILI <br> TION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR <br> MULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAP | IR ALTAIR 8800B |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { PIN } \\ \text { NUMBER } \end{gathered}$ | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION | AMTS S 100 ADAPTER IMPLEMENTATION | COMMENTS |
| 1 | +8v | +8 VOLTS | UNREGULATED VOLTAGE ON BUS, SUPPLIED TO PC BOARDS AND REGULATED TO 5 v . | YES | VOLTAGE <br> NOT SUPPLIED |
| 2 | +18v | +18 VOLTS | POSITIVE PRE-REGULATED VOLTAGE. | YeS | VOLTAGE <br> NOT SUPPLIED |
| 3 | XRDY | EXTERNAL READY | EXTERNAL READY INPUT TO CPU BOARD'S READY CIRCUITRY. | YES | DELAYED |
| 4 | VIO | VECTORED INTERRUPT LINE \#O |  | NO | THESE SIGNALS ARE |
| 5 | VII | VECTORED INTERRUPT <br> LINE \#1 |  | NO | GENERATED BY I/O <br> BOARDS AND ARE TO <br> BE PROCESSED By A |
| 6 | VI2 | VECTORED INTERRUPT LINE \#2 |  | No $\{$ | SEPARATE PRIORITY <br> INTERRRUPT BOARD <br> WHICH THEN GENERATES |
| 7 | VI3 | VECTORED INTERRUPT <br> LINE 非3 |  | NO | A SINGLE INTERRUPT REQUEST (ON LINE 73) TO THE ADAPTER CARD |
| 8 | VI4 | VECTORED INTERRUPT <br> LINE \#\# |  | NO |  |
| 9 | VI5 | VECTORED INTERRUPT LINE \#5 |  | NO |  |
| 10 | VI6 | VECTORED INTERRUPT LINE \#6 |  | NO |  |

S100 BUS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTAIR 8800B
\& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER

| PIN NUMTBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION AM | AMTS S100 ADAPTER IMPIEMENTATION | COMMENTS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 11 | VI7 | VECTORED INTERRUPT <br> LINE \#7 |  | NO | ' |
| 12 | *XRDY2 | EXTERNAL READY \#2 | A SECOND EXTERNAL READY LINE SIMILAR TO XRDY | YES | DELAYET |
| 13 | TO BE DEFINED |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { T0 } & \text { DEFINED } \\ 17 \end{array}$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18 |  |  |  |  | $\overline{\text { STAT DSB }}$ | STATUS DISABLE | ALLOWS THE BUFFERS FOR THE 8 STATUS LINES TO BE TRI-STATED | YES | - |
| 19 | $\overline{\mathrm{C} / \mathrm{C} \text { DSB }}$ | $\overline{\text { COMMAND/CONTROL }}$ | ALLOWS THE BUFFERS FOR THE 6 OUTPUT COMMAND/CONTROL LINES TO BE TRI-STATED | YES | - |
| 20 | UNPROT | UNPROTECT | INPUT TO THE MEMORY PROTECT FLIP-FLOP ON A GIVEN MEMORY BOARD | NO | MOST MEMORY BOARDS HAVE SOF'TWARE CONTROLLABLE FLIP-FLOPS |
| 21 | Ss | SINGLE STEP | INDICATES THAT THE MACHINE IS IN THE PROCESS OF PERFORMING A SINGLE STEP (i.e. THAT SS FLIP-FLOP ON D/C IS SET) | No | NOT USED |
| 22 | $\overline{\mathrm{ADD} \mathrm{DSB}}$ | $\overline{\text { ADDRESS DISABI.E }}$ | ALLOWS THE BUFFERS FOR THE 16 ADDRESS LINES TO BE TRI-STATED | 6 YES | - |
| 23 | $\overline{\text { DO DBS }}$ | $\overline{\text { DATA OUT DISABLE }}$ | ALLOWS THE BUFFERS FOR THE 8 Data Output lines to be triSTATED | YES | - |



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S100 BUS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTAIR 8800B
\& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER

| PIN NUMBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION | AMTS S 100 ADAPTER IMPLEMENTATION | COMMENTS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 29 | A5 | ADDRESS LINE \#5 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 30 | A4 | ADDRESS LINE \#4 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 31 | A3 | ADDRESS LINE \#3 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 32 | A15 | ADDRESS LINE \#15 | (MSB) | YES | DELAYED |
| 33 | A12 | ADDRESS LINE \#12 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 34 | A9 | ADDRESS LINE \#9 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 35 | D01 | DATA OUT LINE \#1 |  | YES | - |
| 36 | D00 | DATA OUT LINE \#0 | (LSB) | YES | - |
| 37 | A10 | ADDRESS LINE \#10 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 38 | D04 | DATA OUT LINE \#4 |  | YES | - |
| 39 | D05 | DATA OUT LINE \#5 |  | YES | - |
| 40 | D06 | DATA OUT LINE \#\# |  | YES | - |
| 41 | DI2 | DATA IN LINE \#2 |  | YES | - |
| 42 | DI3 | DATA IN LINE \#3 |  | YES | - |
| 43 | DI7 | DATA IN LINE \#7 | (MSB) | YES | - |

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| $\begin{aligned} & \underset{\sim}{1} \\ & \mathbf{\omega} \end{aligned}$ | TABLE III <br> S100 BUS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTATR 8800B \& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PIN NUMBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION | 100 ADAPTER MENTATION | COMMENTS | 号 |
| 44 | SM1 | MACHINE CYCLE 1 | STATUS OUTPUT SIGNAL THAT INDICATES THAT THE PROCESSOR IS IN THE FETCH CYCLE FOR THE FIRST BYTE OF AN INSTRUCTION. | YES | DELAYED | 令 |
| 45 | SOUT | OUTPUT | STATUS OUTPUT SIGNAL THAT INDICATES THE ADDRESS BUS CONTAINS THE ADDRESS OF AN OUTPUT DEVICE AND THE DATA BUS WILL CONTAIN THE OUTPUT DATA WHEN PWR IS ACTIVE. | YES | DELAYED |  |
| 46 | SINP | INPUT | STATUS OUTPUT SIGNAL THAT INDICATES THE ADDRESS BUS CONTAINS THE ADDRESS OF AN INPUT DEVICE AND THE INPUT DATA SHOULD BE PLACED ON THE DATA BUS WHEN PDBIN IS ACTIVE. | YES | DELAYED |  |
| 47 | SMEMR | MEMORY READ | STATUUS OUTPUT SIGNAL THAT INDICATES THE DATA BUS WILL BE USED TO READ MEMORY DATA. | YES | DELAYED |  |
| 48 | SHLTA | HALT | STATUS OUTPUT SIGNAL THAT ACKNOWLEDGES A HALT INSTRUCTION. | YES | DELAYED |  |
| 49 | $\overline{\text { CLOCK }}$ | $\overline{\text { CLOCK }}$ | INVERTED OUTPUT OF THE $\\|_{2}$ CLOCK | YES | DELAYED |  |

[^0]| TABLE III |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S100 BUS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTAIR 8800B |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| \& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| PIN NUMBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION | AMTS S100 ADAPTER IMPLEMENTATION | COMMENTS |  |
| 50 | GND | GROUND |  | YES |  |  |
| 51 | +8v | +8 VOLTS | UNREGULATED INPUT TO 5 VOLT REGULATORS | YES | VOLTAGE NOT SUPPLIED BY AMTS |  |
| 52 | -18v | -18 VOLTS | NEGATIVE PRE-REGULATED VOLTAGE | YES | VOLTAGE NOT SUPPLIED BY AMTS |  |
| 53 | $\overline{\text { SSWI }}$ | SENSE SWITCH INPUT | INDICATES THAT AN INPUT DATA TRANSFER FROM THE SENSE SWITCHES IS TO TAKE PLACE. THIS SIGNAL IS USED BY THE DISPLAY/CONTROL LOGIC TO: | NO | FRONT PANEL RELATED FUNCTION |  |
|  |  |  | A) ENABLE SENSE SWITCH DRIVERS |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | B) ENABLE THE DISPLAY/ CONTROL BOARD DRIVERS DATA INPUT (FDI $\emptyset-F D I 7$ |  |  | - 붖 |
|  |  |  | C) DISABLE THE CPU BOARD DATA INPUT DRIVERS (DI $\emptyset-D I 7$ ) |  |  | 1 <br> $\stackrel{1}{8}$ <br> 0 <br>  |
| 54 | EXT CLR | EXTERNAL CLEAR | CLEAR SIGNAL FOR I/O DEVICES (FRONT PANEL SWITCH CLOSURE TO GROUND) | NO | MOST S100 CARDS NOW USE MASTER SYSTEM RESET | 另 |

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## TABLE III

S100 buS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTAIR 8800B
\& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER

| PIN <br> NUMBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION AMT | MTS S100 ADAPTER IMPLEMENTATION | COMMENTS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 68 | MWRITE | MEMORY WRITE | INDICATES THAT THE DATA PRESENT ON THE DATA OUT BUS IS TO BE WRITTEN INTO THE MEMORY LOCATION CURRENTLY ON THE ADDRESS BUS. | YES | DELAYED |
| 69 | $\overline{\text { PS }}$ | PROTECT STATUS | INDICATES THE STATUS OF THE MEMORY PROTECT FLIP-FLOP ON THE MEMORY BOARD. | NO | NO FRONT PANEL LAMPS ON WHICH TO INDICATE STATUS |
| 70 | PROT | PROTECT | INPUT TO THE MEMORY PROTECT FLIP-FLOP ON THE MEMORY BOARD CURRENTLY ADDRESSED. | NO | MEMORY PROTECT USUALLY IS SWITCH SELECTABLE ON THE RAM CARD ITSELF |
| 71 | RUN | RUN | INDICATES THAT THE STOP/RUN FLIP-FLOP IS RESET; i.e. MACHINE IS IN RUN MODE. | NO | NOT USED |
| 72 | PRDY | PROCESSOR READY | MEMORY AND I/O INPUT TO THE CPU BOARD WAIT CIRCUITRY | YES | DELAYED |
| 73 | PINT | INTERRUPT REQUEST | THE PROCESSOR RECOGNIZES AN INTERRUPT REQUEST ON THIS LINE AT THE END OF THE CURRENT INSTRUCTION OR WHILE HALTED. IF THE PROCESSOR IS IN THE HOLD STATE OR THE INTER RUPT ENABLE FLIP-FLOP IS RESET IT WILL NOT HONOR THE REQUEST. | YES | DELAYED |



[^1]S100 BUS SPECIFICATION AS DEFINED BY MITS FOR THEIR ALTAIR 8800B
\& EMULATED BY THE S100 BUS ADAPTER

| PIN <br> NUMBER | SYMBOL | NAME | FUNCTION | AMTS S100 ADAPTER IMPLEMENTATION | COMMENTS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 79 | A0 | APDRESS LINE \#0 | (LSB) | YES | DELAYED |
| 80 | A1 | ADDRESS LINE \#1 |  | YES | DELAYEd |
| 81 | A2 | ADDRESS LINE \#2 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 82 | A6 | ADDRESS LINE \#6 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 83 | A7 | ADDRESS LINE \#7 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 84 | A8 | ADDRESS LINE \#8 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 85 | A13 | ADDRESS LINE \#13 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 86 | A14 | ADDRESS LINE \#14 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 87 | All | ADDRESS LINE \#11 |  | YES | DELAYED |
| 88 | D02 | DATA OUT LINE \#2 |  | YES | - |
| 89 | D03 | DATA OUT LINE \#3 |  | YES | - |
| 90 | D07 | DATA OUT LINE \#7 |  | YES | - |
| 91 | DI4 | DATA IN LINE \#\#4 |  | YES | - |
| 92 | DI5 | DATA IN LINE \#5 |  | YES | - |
| 93 | DI6 | DATA IN LINE \#6 |  | YES | - |
| 94 | DI7 | DATA IN LINE \#1 |  | YES | - |



[^2]
# MICROCOMPUTER TRAINING WORKBOOK 

## APPENDIX E

## AMTS SCHEMATICS


U38-12, U50-1 TNTE
AMTS SCHEMATIC
CENTRAL PROCESSING UNIT
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AMTS SCHEMATIC
DMA CLOCK
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AMTS SCHEMATIC
DMA SELECT
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AMTS SCHEMATIC
KEYBOARD CONTROLLER
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A PRIMER TO DIGITAL LOGIC

## What is the most basic logic device?

Answer: a wire


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Logical property of a wire:
    Any voltage potential that is placed on the "A" input of the wire will
soon (very soon) appear at the "B" output. In other words, a wire can be used
to transmit voltage states from any node "A" to any node "B".
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## WHAT INFORMATION MAY BE TRANSMITTED ON A WIRE?

First Answer: A voltage representing a number (an analog signal) :

Here's an example,


An electrical reading scale:

1. Person steps on scale
2. Platform sags in response to person standing on scale
3. Causing metal wiper to change position along a resistive material
4. That is connected as a potentiometer in a voltage divider network
5. Whose wiper output is connected via a wire to cause a voltage that is proportional to the weight of the person:
6. To be transmitted to a voltmeter that indicates the weight of the person

Second Answer: A wire can also transmit a voltage representing one of two conditions:


If switch is up, voltage at end of wire will be equal to battery voltage If switch is down, voltage at end of wire will be zero (or nearly so)

Let's look more at this setup in which the wire must carry a voltage that represents one of two conditions:

For many kinds of electronic devices that are classified as digital. devices, the two possible conditions are defined as follows:
lst condition:
Wire is defined to be ON when voltage between wire and ground is between $+2.5 v$ and $+5.25 v$.

2nd condition:
Wire is defined to be OFF when voltage between wire and ground is between $-0.5 v$ and $+0.5 v$.

BUT WHAT ABOUT VOLTAGES THAT ARE NOT WITHIN ABOVE RANGES?
Answer: they are not allowed. Voltages between $+9.5 v$ and $+2.5 v$ are unclear and therefore not to be trusted. Voltages below $-\ldots .{ }^{5} v$ or above +5.25 volts are hazardous (may cause smoke and fire! and are therefore expressly forbidden !

CAN WE SIMPLIFY THE DEFINITION OF "ON" AND "OFF" WHEN TALKING ABOUT VOLTAGES ON WIRES?

Answer: certainly. For sake of disćussion we will simply define the on state as +5 volts between the wire and ground.

The OFF state we will define as $\sigma$ volts between the wire and ground.

Definition: Digital electronics: That branch of electrionics specializing in circuits whose signals are defined as "on" and "off" voltages.

Actually, let's go further and define what 5 volts and $\emptyset$ volts are really equivalent to:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 5 \text { volts }=\text { ON }=\text { True }=\text { One }=\text { High }=" 1 " \\
& \emptyset \text { volts }=O F F=\text { False }=\text { Zero }=\text { Low }=" 风 "
\end{aligned}
$$

So now, when we talk about the signal on a wire being $O N$, true, one, or high we mean that there is approximately 5 volts on it. And when the signal is OFF, false, zero, or low we mean the voltage is zero. (Actually, there is an exception to these assignments but we'll talk about that laten.


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Other variations on the schematic symbols for a wire:
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a. (2 wires crossing but not touching each other)

b. same as a. (less commonly seen)

c. 2 wires connected together
d. a wire in hiding

OKAY. BUT WHAT'S SO GREAT ABOUT A WIRE? AFTER ALL, IT'S JUST A WIRE.
Answer: yes, true. What's exciting is what we can do with more than one of them.

WHAT?
Answer: well, take one wire.

Quiz (l): WHAT CAN $a$ VOLTS REPRESENT?

Answer (1): (you fill inl : $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , or $\qquad$

AND WHAT CAN 5 VOLTS REPRESENT?
Answer (2) : $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , or $\qquad$ -

Let's use the terms "one and "zero" to define 5 volts and $\emptyset$ volts respectively in conjunction with the voltage on a wire. On the following schematic drawing of a wire, how many different combinations of "one" and "zero" can be true over a period of time?

Answer (3) : $\qquad$

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    48TH д0 'әu% 'วnx\ 'NO 'Z
```



Now, add another wire:


NOW, HOW MANY COMBINATIONS OF VOLTAGES CAN BE APPLIED TO TWO WIRES?

Answer (4): $\qquad$

WHAT ARE THE COMBINATIONS?
Answer (5): (fill in "1" or "O" in the table:)

|  | Wire A | Wire B |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st combination |  |  |
| 2nd combination |  |  |
| 3rd combination |  |  |
| 4th combination |  |  |

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| 0 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 |



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```
Let's assign numeric values to each combination:
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| Combination | Number |
| :---: | :---: |
| 00 | 0 |
| 01 | 1 |
| 10 | 2 |
| 11 | 3 |

So now, our two wires:
$\qquad$ (Wire A)
$\qquad$ (Wire B)
can define any number between 0 and 3 .

HOW ABOUT 3 WIRES? HOW MANY COMBINATIONS OF " 1 " AND "0" CAN THERE BE FOR 3 WIRES?

Answer (6): $\qquad$

WHAT ARE THEY?(7)
$\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$ , $\qquad$
(Hint: one answer is 000 )

Let's again assign numeric values to the combinations. As a quiz, fill in the combinations for 3 and 6:

Combination
$000 \quad 0$
$001 \quad 1$
$010 \quad 2$
$011^{\sim}(8) 3$
$100 \quad 4$
1015
$1!6$
1117

Definition: a bundle of wires bunched together to define a number is called a bus.
_ This bus has the combination 011

1. or the number 3.
$\qquad$ 1

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## Other schematic symbols for a bus:



Schematic often found in block diagrams
Indicates bus has 3 wires


> How to divide the schematic symbol for a bus into its individual wires

WHAT OTHER THINGS CAN YOU DO WITH WIRES?
Answer: hook electronic circuits to them

LIKE WHAT KIND OF ELECTRONIC CIRCUITS?
Answer: well, one of the simplest is an inverter. An inverter has 2 wires connected to it: one wire to its input and one to its output. The schematic drawing is as follows;


They can also be drawn with the little circle or bubble at the left like this:


OKAY. WHAT'S AN INVERTER DO FOR A LIVING ANYWAYS?
Answer: simple. A "1" at the input causes an "O" at the output and a "0" at the input causes a "1" at the output.

Quiz question: fill in the table for the output of an inverter:
(Called a "truth table")


HOW EXCITING! WHAT DO YOU USE INVERTERS FOR, FOR PETE'S SAKES? Answer: lots of things. Some digital circuits need signals to be inverted. Those cases will be shown later.


WHAT OTHER CIRCUITS ARE USED?
Answer: an AND gate for one. Two wires are connected to its input and it has one output. Here's its schematic.


This circuit has the following properties:
A. When both $A$ and $B$ are "1", the output is one.
B. If either $A$ or $B$ is "O", or if they are both "O", then the output is "0".

Quiz (12): Fill in the truth table for the AND circuit:

| $A$ | $B$ | Output |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 |  |
| 0 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 0 |  |
| 1 | 1 |  |


| 1 | $b$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $O$ | 0 | 1 |
| $O$ | 1 | 0 |
| $O$ | 0 | 0 |
| andano | $G$ | $V$ |

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Answer: yes. Here is the schematic for an AND gate with three inputs:


The property of the circuit is as follows:
A. If all three inputs are "1", the output is "1"
B. If any one or more inputs are low, the output is "0"

Quiz (13): Fill in the truth table for a 3-input AND circuit:

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| C | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 1 |


| 1 | 0 | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | 0 | 7ndino |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\downarrow$ | $\downarrow$ | 1 | し | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\bigcirc$ |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\downarrow$ | 0 | 0 | $g$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $\downarrow$ | 0 | V |

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HOW ABOUT OTHER CIRCUITS?

Answer: sure, the $O R$ circuit. It's schematic for two inputs and one output is as follows:


Its electrical property is as follows:
A. If both $A$ and $B$ are "0", the output is "O"
B. If either $A$ or $B$ is "1", or if both $A$ and $B$ are "q", then the output is "1"

```
Quiz (14): Fill in the truth table for an OR gate:
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| A | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |


| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 7ndzno |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | $G$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $\forall$ |

CAN AN "OR" CIRCUIT HAVE MORE THAN TWO INPUTS?

Answer: yes, it can. Here is a schematic symbol of a 3-input OR circuit:


Its electrical property is similar to a 2-input $O R$ circuit:
A. If all three inputs are "O", then the output is "0"
B. In all other cases, the output is "1"

Quiz (15): Fill in the truth table for a 3-input OR gate:

| A | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| C | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 7nd7no |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $b$ | 1 | $b$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | $b$ | 0 | 0 | $b$ | $b$ | 0 | 0 | $日$ |
| 1 | 0 | $b$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | $b$ | 0 | $\forall$ |

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ANY OTHER CIRCUITS WE HAVEN'T SEEN?
Answer: one more. It's called an EXCLUSIVE-OR circuit, sometimes called an XOR circuit. Its schematic symbol is as follows:


Its characters are as follows:
A. If $A$ and $B$ are different; that is, if $A_{b}$ is "O" when $B$ is "1", or A is " 1 " when $B$ is " 0 ", then the output is "1"
B. If $A$ and $B$ are the same; that is, $A$ and $B$ are both "O" or $A$ and $B$ are both "1", then the output is "0"

Quiz (16): Fill in the truth table for the XOR circuit:

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $B$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |

IS THERE A 3 -INPUT XOR CIRCUIT?
Answer: yes, but you don't see them very often and we won't go into them here.

| $O$ | 1 | 1 | $O$ | qndzno |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $L$ | $L$ | 0 | 0 | $G$ |
| $L$ | 0 | $L$ | 0 | $U$ |

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Definition: All of the circuits discussed so far, that is, the AND, OR, and XOR circuits are called "gates."

AS OPPOSED TO WHAT?
Answer: as opposed to another circuit called a "flip-flop".

WHAT IS A FLIP-FLOP? IS THAT A MANEUVER EXECUTED BY AN ACROBAT?
Answer: No. It is a device that stores the logic condition of a wire ("1" or "Ø゙!

WHY WOULD YOU WANT TO STORE ANYTHING?
Answer: two reasons:
A. To remember the condition of a wire at a specified time.
B. So the wire can be used for something else.

ALL RIGHT THEN, WHAT IS A FLIP-FLOP?
Answer: there are several different kinds of flip-flops. The commonest one is the D-flip-flop and its schematic symbol is as follows:


Most of the time it is drawn without the words as follows:


## CAN YOU BREAK IT DOWN SOMEWHAT TO SHOW WHAT IT DOES?

Answer: sure. The idea of a flip-flop is to be able to capture the " "" or " $\emptyset$ " state of a wire at any time electronically. There are three components needed to do this:
A. The data line. This input line is attached to the wire that you want to capture the "1" or "®" state on.
B. The clock line. This input line tells you when to capture the state of the data line.
C. The output. This output line holds the state "captured" on the data line when "told" to by the clock line.


In the following illustration, you will see that the output of the flip-flop depends on what the data line was doing at the time the clock changes from a zero to a one. At event $A$, the clock changes (transitions) from " 0 " to " 1 ", and at that time the data line happens to be " 1 ", so the output becomes " 1 " also. Note: The output is not affected by a " 1 " to " 0 " transition in the clock; the output remains the same. So the output does not change at event $B$, the clock's " 1 " to " 0 " transition, Event $C$ is a " 0 " to " 1 " clock transition when the data is " 0 ", hence the output becomes " 0 " also. Finally, note that the output does not change at event $D$ even though the data line is a " 1 ". This is again because of the fact that clock " 1 " to " 0 " transitions do not affect the output.

In summary, the flip-flop's clock feature is simple; the output changes to become the same as the data line whenever the clock transitions from a " 0 " to a "1".


Quiz (17): Fill in the table below for whether the output is "0" or "1" based on the behavior of the data line and the transtions of the clock line. The first two time points are done for you.


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WHAT ARE THE LITTLE CIRCLES (i.e. THE BUBBLES) FOR?


Answer: the little bubbles indicate that the lines connected to the bubbles are inverted - that is, instead of a "1", a "0" either appears or causes something to happen. For example: there are usually two outputs to a flip-flop: one is a "normal" output while the other is connected to a bubble and is therefore the inverted output, the opposite of the "normal" output.

Example of normal vs. inverted output


Quiz (18): Fill in the values for the inverted output for a flip-flop whose output is given. The first two are done for you.

| Time interval | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Output | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Inverted Output | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $\because$ | 0 | 0 | 7ndzno pəұдәлиI |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| L | L | 0 | $\checkmark$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | L | 7ndino |
| 8 | $L$ | 9 | $\varsigma$ | $\pi$ | $\varepsilon$ | 己 | 1 |  |

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I NOTICED THAT THE PRESET AND RESET LINES WERE ALSO CONNECTED TO BUBBLES. WHAT
DO THEY DO?


Answer: "Preset" causes the output to immediately change to a "1", regardless of its previous state or what the data and clock lines do... In the same manner, "Reset" causes the output to immediately change to a "zero".

The output is left in that condition when "Preset" or "Reset" is removed and remains there until a clock or another preset or reset occurs. Note that in this flip-flop the "Preset" and "Reset" signals are inverted; that is, the bubble indicates that the "preset" or "reset" function occurs when the line is low or "0".

Now note the response of the flip-flop to the following stimulus:


NOTES: A. "Preset" $=0$ causes output to go high.
B. "Reset" $=0$ causes output to go low.
C. "Data" = 1 and "Clock" cause output to go high.
D. "Reset" causes output to go low.
E. " Data" = 1 and "Clock" have no effect because "Reset" is still low.
F. "Reset" is released ("Reset" = 1).
G. Now "Data" $=1$ and "Clock" cause output to go high.

Quiz (19): Fill in the values for the output of a flip-flop from the following diagram (called a "timing diagram"). (The first 2 are done for you).


| Event | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Output | 0 | 1 |  | . |  |  |  |  | $\because$ |


| O | 0 | 0 | 0 | \| | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7ndano |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I | H | $\bigcirc$ | $\pm$ | ㅋ | $\square$ | $\bigcirc$ | g | V | 7Uəニ』 |

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ARE BUBBLES EVER USED WITH GATED LOGIC? THAT IS, "AND" GATES, "OR" GATES, ETC? Answer: yes, as follows:

Definition: A "NAND" gate is equivalent to an "AND" gate followed by an inverter in series. Schematically:


The truth table for a "NAND" gate yields the opposite state for the output as for an "AND" gates:

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $B$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Definition: A "NOR" gate is equivalent to an "OR" gate followed by an inverter in series. Schematically:


Quiz (20): Fill in' the truth table for the output of a "NOR" gate as follows:

| A | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |


| 0 | $O$ | $O$ | 1 | zndəno |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | $G$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $\mathbf{V}$ |

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I SEE THAT A BUBBLE PLACED ON THE OUTPUT OF A GATE CAUSES THE "NORMAL" OUTPUT OF THAT GATE TO BE INVERTED. IS A BUBBLE EVER PLACED ON THE INPUT OF A GATE? Answer: yes. As one would guess, it causes the input to be inverted going into the gate. For example:


Its truth table looks as follows:

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $B$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

which is the same as that for a "NOR" gate.

Quiz (21): Examine the following schematic symbol:


One of the following schematic diagrams has the same circuit behavior as the above symbol: (Hint: draw a truth table for each circuit)
a.

b.

c.

d.


WHICH ONE IS IT?
Answer: $\qquad$

Quiz（22）：Fill in the truth table for the output of the symbol whose schematic is as follows：


| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $B$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  |  |

DO SCHEMATIC SYMBOLS EVER USE BUBBLES ON BOTH THE INPUTS AND THE OUTPUTS？
Answer：yes．For example，the following schematic


Quiz（23）：Fill in the truth table for the previous schematic symbol：

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output |  |  |  | $\vdots$ |

©iz（24）：What previous logic gate is equivalent to the above symbol？ （multiple choice）
a．An＂OR＂gate
b．An＂AND＂gate
c．A＂NOR＂gate
d．A＂NAND＂gate
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| 1 | $O$ | 0 | $O$ | 7ndzno |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $L$ | $L$ | 0 | 0 | $G$ |
| $L$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | $V$ |

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| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | andzno |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | $a$ |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | $\forall$ |

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WHY WOULD ANYONE DRAW A SYMBOL WITH BUBBLES ON ALL INPUTS AND OUTPUTS WHEN THERE IS AN EQUIVALENT SYMBOL THAT DOESN'T REQUIRE ANY BUBBLES AT ALL?

Answer: to clarify the intention of the circuit. For example, on the flip-flop, "preset" and "reset" are inverted inputs.


If a normal signal is intended to preset the flip-flop when it is high, it must have an inverter placed between it and the preset input.


Such a signal is called an "active high" signal because it causes an action when its state is "1".

BUT WHAT IF THE SIGNAL CAUSES AN EFFECT WHEN IT IS "Ø"?
Answer: such a signal is called "active low" and is denoted on a schematic diagram in any of the following ways (presume the signal name is "SIGNAL" .
a) With a bar over it or a slash in front of it

b) With a "-" or "*" before it

- SIGNAL


Now, say that either of two active low signals can preset our flip-flop. This is an "OR" function of two active low signals as follows:


The above schematic directly states that if either $\overline{\text { SIGNAL } 1}$ or SIGNAL2 is " 0 " ("true" in an active low sense), then the flip-flop will be preset. This is more straightforward than using the active high symbol.


This schematic is functionally identical to the previous one, but its meaning is obscured by having to switch from active low signals to an active high device back to an active low preset. In this case, the AND gate indicates that the preset is not activated when both SIGNAL and SIGNAL" are "]", which is logically accurate but does not really communicate the intention of the designer.

Quiz (24): (multiple choice) - Given the following truth table for the inverted NAND:

| $A$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $B$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Output | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

what is the design intention of the following schematic?


Choose one:
[ ] a) The flip-flop is preset if either *CTL1 or *CTL2 is "1".
[ ] b) The flip-flop is preset if either *CTL1 or *CTL2 is "0".
[ ] c) The flip-flop is preset if both *CTL1 and *CTL2 are "1".
[ : ] d) The flip-flop is preset if both *CTL1 and *CTL2 are "0".

## SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENT:

Take a breather. In the next section we are going to look at devices that connect to busses.

COULD YOU REFRESH ME ON WHAT A BUS IS?
Answer: certainly. A bus is simply a bundle of wires upon which information may be transmitted. This information is implemented as "1" and "0" voltages on the wire that represent a number: "O11"


Above Bus has number "011" on it.

ARE THERE DEVICES THAT CONNECT TO BUSSES?

Answer: you bet. One of the most common devices is the multiplexer.

WHAT'S THAT?
Definition: A multiplexer is a digital electronic circuit that has the ability to choose one of several bus inputs.

GIVE ME AN EXAMPLE OF A MULTIPLEXER Okay: Here is a schematic that chnoses of of two 4-wire busses:


If SELECT = "O", the output will contain the A input, in this example "0011".

If $\operatorname{SELECT}=$ "1", the output will contain the $B$ input, in this example "1010".

Notice that multiplexers are more complex than gates or flip-flops. The above multiplexer, not including power connections, requires 13 wires total connected to it as follows:

| SELECT | 1 line |
| :--- | :---: |
| AINPUT | 4 lines |
| BINPUT | $\Delta$ lines |
| OUTPUT | $\Delta$ lines |
|  | 13 lines |

There are several ways to draw a multiplexer in a block diagram. For instance, the previous example could be drawn as follows:


Quiz (25): If AINPUT $=" 1010 "$ and BINPUT $=" 0010 "$ and SELECT $=" 0 "$, what will OUTPUT be?

Answer: $\qquad$

Bubbles may be used on multiplexers just as in gates and flip-flops. For example, a bubble placed on the output means that all 4 output lines are inverted:


Quiz (26): If the select line in the above example is equal to 0 , then what is the output?

Answer: $\qquad$

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> "OLOL" SṬ dəMsuy •SZ

WHAT ABOUT FLIP-FLOPS? ARE ANY OF THEM EVER CONNECTED TO A BUS IN SUCH A WAY AS TO BE ABLE TO STORE A NUMBER ON THE BUS?

Answer: you bet. As a matter of fact, flip-flops connected in such a fashion form a circuit called a register. A register schematic symbol can look like the following:

which internally is an array of flip-flops hooked up as follows:


Note the following about the flip-flops connected as a register:

1) All of the clock inputs are connected together
2) All of the reset inputs are connected together
3) The preset inputs are internally connected to a logic "1" so that they are deactivated. Therefore, the user does not have access to the preset lines, they are always disabled.

Quiz (27) : How many flip-flops would the register in the schematic circuit be likely to contain?


Answer : $\qquad$

Registers, multiplexers and busses can be show interconnected as in the following schematic


On a block diagram or simplified schematic, the above schematic would be drawn as:


There are many kinds of digital circuits that are used with busses: registers, multiplexers, counters, and arithmetic logic units to name a few. For example, a circuit to route one of two 4-bit busses ( $A$ and $B$ to a register might be drawn as follows:


Quiz (28): One of the following circuits selects one of two register outputs. Which is it?
a

d


Answer: $\qquad$

That completes the preparation for the course in which you are enrolled. Thank you for reading it, and for working out the quizzes. Your knowledge of digital fundamentals is now up to speed for the course. Please bring this material with you when you come to the course.

```
8085 Microprocessor
8212 I/O Port
8251 USART
8255 Mode 1
8255 Mode 2
8255 PIA
Accumulator
Accumulator/Carry Instructions
ACI Instruction
ADC A as Shift Left
ADC Instruction
ADD Instruction
Addend
Addition by Counting
ADDR Command
Address Bus
Address Size
Addresses, Input/Output Ports
ADI Instruction
Alternate Subroutine Entries
Alternative Memory Addressing
AMTS Description
AMTS Setup
AMTS Test
ANA Instruction
AND Function (ANA)
ANI Instruction
A-Register
Arithmetic and Logic Unit
Arithmetic Intructions
Arithmetic Overflow
Arithmetic Shift
Array of Input/Output Ports
ASCII
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NORTH AMERICAN HEADQUARTERS
Integrated Computer Systems, Inc 3304 Pico Boulevard
P.O. Box 5339

Santa Monica, California 90405 USA Telephone: (213) 450-2060 TWX: 910-343-6965

## FRANCE

ICS France
90 Ave Albert ler
92500 Rueil-Malmaison France

Telephone: (OI) 7494037
Telex:204593

NORTH AMERICA - EASTERN REGION Integrated Computer Systems, Inc. 300 North Washington Street Suite 103
Alexandria, Virginia 22314 USA
Telephone: (7O3) 548-1333
TWX: 710-832-0045

## GERMANY

ICSD GmbH
Leonrodstrabe 54
8000 Munich 19
West Germany
Telephone: (O89) 198066
Telex: 5215508

EUROPEAN HEADQUARTERS
ICSP - U.K.
Pebblecoombe, Tadworth
Surrey KT2O 7PA
England
Telephone: Leatherhead (O3723) 7921
Telex: 915133

## SCANDINAVIA

ICSP Inc. - Scandinavia
Utbildningshuset $A B$
Box 1719
S-221 Ol Lund, Sweden
Telephone: (O46) 307070
Telex: 33345


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