

## MICROPROCESSORS INTERFACING AND APPLICATIONS VI Semester –IT IARE-R16

A.Y: 2019-2020

**Institute of Aeronautical Engineering** 



#### **COURSE OUTCOMES**

CO1	Describe the concepts of Architectures of 8085 and 8086 with its functionalities and understand the addressing modes and instructions sets of 8086.
CO2	Describe Minimum mode and maximum mode of operation of 8086 and Analyze the Assembly language programs involving in various arithmetic and logical operations.
CO3	Discuss the importance of 8255 ,8257 and explain interfacing of I/O device with different modules.
CO4	Analyze the various synchronous and asynchronous serial data transfer schemes in 8086 and importance of 8251
CO5	Understand the advanced 16 and 32 bit microprocessors architectures and its features.



# UNIT-I OVERVIEW OF 8086 MICROPROCESSOR



#### **COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

CL01	Differentiate between 8085 and 8086 microprocessors architectures and its functionalities.
CLO2	Describe the internal Architecture of 8086 microprocessor and explain its functionalities.
CLO3	Describe in detail about functions of general purpose register and 8086 flag register with its functions.
CLO4	Explain various addressing modes and instruction set present in 8086 microprocessors and Describe in detail about the concept of interrupt, types of interrupts 8086 microprocessor.
CLO5	Understand and apply the fundamentals and procedures and assembler directives of assembly level programming of microprocessors.
CLO6	Develop low level languages like ALP in 8086 microprocessor systems for real time applications



## Introduction to 8085 microprocessor



#### Introduction to processor:

- A processor is the logic circuitry that responds to and processes the basic instructions that drives a computer.
- The term processor has generally replaced the term central processing unit. The processor in a personal computer or embedded in small devices is often called a microprocessor.
- The processor (CPU, for Central Processing Unit) is the computer's brain. It allows the processing of numeric data, meaning information entered in binary form, and the execution of instructions stored in memory.



#### **Evolution of Microprocessor:**

- A microprocessor is used as the CPU in a microcomputer. There are now many different microprocessors available.
- Microprocessor is a program-controlled device, which fetches the instructions from memory, decodes and executes the instructions. Most Micro Processor are singlechip devices.
- Microprocessor is a backbone of computer system. which is called CPU
- Microprocessor speed depends on the processing speed depends on DATA BUS WIDTH.
- A common way of categorizing microprocessors is by the no. of bits that their ALU can Work with at a time



- The address bus is unidirectional because the address information is always given by the Micro Processor to address a memory location of an input / output devices.
- The data bus is Bi-directional because the same bus is used for transfer of data between Micro Processor and memory or input / output devices in both the direction.
- It has limitations on the size of data. Most Microprocessor does not support floating-point operations.
- Microprocessor contain ROM chip because it contain instructions to execute data.
- Storage capacity is limited. It has a volatile memory. In secondary storage device the storage capacity is larger. It is a nonvolatile memory.



Primary devices are: RAM (Read / Write memory, High Speed, Volatile Memory) / ROM (Read only memory, Low Speed, Non Voliate Memory)
Secondary devices are: Floppy disc / Hard disk

#### **Compiler:**

Compiler is used to translate the high-level language program into machine code at a time. It doesn't require special instruction to store in a memory, it stores automatically. The Execution time is less compared to Interpreter



### RISC and CISC processors



#### **RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer):**

- RISC stands for Reduced Instruction Set Computer. To execute each instruction, if there is separate
- electronic circuitry in the control unit, which produces all the necessary signals, this approach of the design of the control section of the processor is called RISC design. It is also called hardwired approach.

#### **Examples of RISC processors:**

- IBM RS6000, MC88100
- DEC's Alpha 21064, 21164 and 21264 processors



#### **Features of RISC Processors:**

- The standard features of RISC processors are listed below:
- RISC processors use a small and limited number of instructions.
- RISC machines mostly uses hardwired control unit.
- RISC processors consume less power and are having high performance.
- Each instruction is very simple and consistent.
- RISC processors uses simple addressing modes.
- RISC instruction is of uniform fixed length



#### **CISC (Complex Instruction Set Computer):**

• CISC stands for Complex Instruction Set Computer. If the control unit contains a number of microelectronic circuitry to generate a set of control signals and each micro circuitry is activated by a micro code, this design approach is called CISC design.

#### **Examples of CISC processors are:**

- Intel 386, 486, Pentium, Pentium Pro, Pentium II, Pentium III
- Motorola's 68000, 68020, 68040, etc.



#### **Features of CISC Processors:**

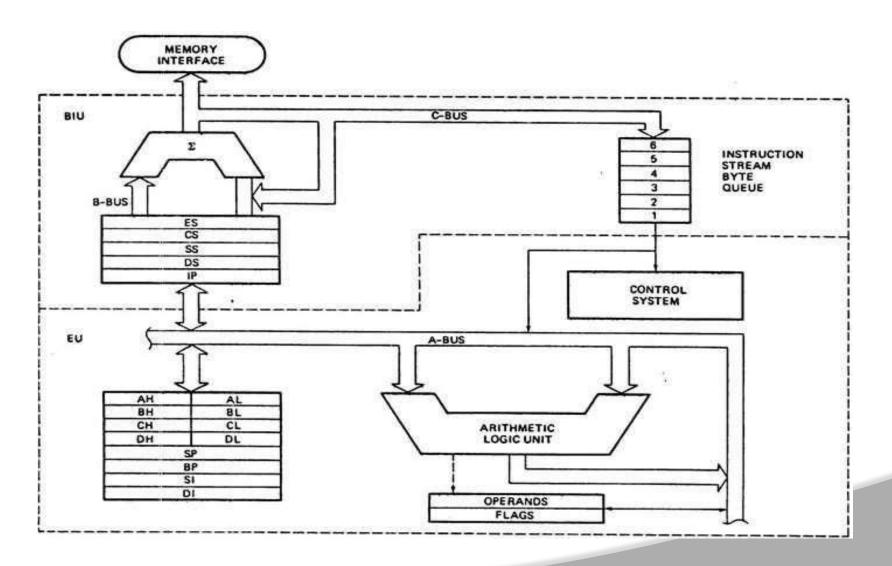
- CISC chips have a large amount of different and complex instructions.
- CISC machines generally make use of complex addressing modes.
- Different machine programs can be executed on CISC machine.
- CISC machines uses micro-program control unit.
- CISC processors are having limited number of registers



## Architecture of 8086 microprocessor

#### **Architecture:**







 8086 Microprocessor is divided into two functional units, i.e.,
 EU(Execution Unit) and BIU (Bus Interface Unit).

#### **EU (Execution Unit):**

- Execution unit gives instructions to BIU stating from where to fetch the data and then decode and execute those instructions.
- Its function is to control operations on data using the instruction decoder & ALU.
- EU has no direct connection with system buses as shown in the above figure, it performs operations over data through BIU.



#### • BIU(Bus Interface Unit):

BIU takes care of all data and addresses transfers on the buses for the EU like sending addresses, fetching instructions from the memory, reading data from the ports and the memory as well as writing data to the ports and the memory. EU has no direction connection with System Buses so this is possible with the BIU. EU and BIU are connected with the Internal Bus.



#### **Instruction queue**

BIU contains the instruction queue. BIU gets up to 6 bytes
of next instructions and stores them in the instruction
queue. When EU executes instructions and is ready for its
next instruction, then it simply reads the instruction from
this instruction queue resulting in increased execution
speed.



#### Segment register:

- BIU has 4 segment buses, i.e. CS, DS, SS& ES. It holds the
  addresses of instructions and data in memory, which are
  used by the processor to access memory locations.
- It also contains 1 pointer register IP, which holds the address of the next instruction to executed by the EU.



## Special functions of general purpose register



#### **AX & DX registers:**

- In 8 bit multiplication, one of the operands must be in AL.
  The other operand can be a byte in memory location or in another 8 bit register. The resulting 16 bit product is stored in AX, with AH storing the MS byte.
- In 16 bit multiplication, one of the operands must be in AX.
  The other operand can be a word in memory location or in another 16 bit register. The resulting 32 bit product is stored in DX and AX, with DX storing the MS word and AX storing the LS word.



#### **BX** register:

• In instructions where we need to specify in a general purpose register the 16 bit effective address of a memory location, the register BX is used (register indirect).



#### **CX** register:

- In Loop Instructions, CX register will be always used as the implied counter. In I/O instructions, the 8086 receives into or sends out data from AX or AL depending as a word or byte operation.
- In these instructions the port address, if greater than FFH has to be given as the contents of DX register.
- Ex: IN AL, DX
   DX register will have 16 bit address of the I/P device



- Segment register:
- BIU has 4 segment buses, i.e. CS, DS, SS& ES. It holds the addresses of instructions and data in memory, which are used by the processor to access memory locations.
- It also contains 1 pointer register IP, which holds the address of the next instruction to executed by the EU.



### 8086 Flag Register and Function of 8086 Flags



#### **Flag Register**

- Flag Register contains a group of status bits called flags that indicate the status of the CPU or the result of arithmetic operations.
- There are two types of flags:
- The status flags which reflect the result of executing an instruction. The programmer cannot set/reset these flags directly.
- The control flags enable or disable certain CPU operations. The programmer can set/reset these bits to control the CPU's operation.

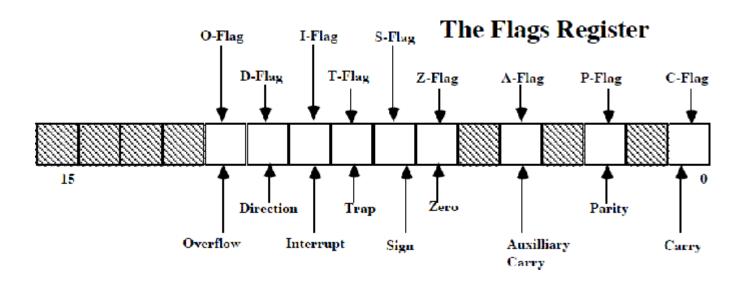


 Nine individual bits of the status register are used as control flags (3 of them) and status flags (6 of them). The remaining 7 are not used.

• A flag can only take on the values 0 and 1. We say a flag is set if it has the value 1. The status flags are used to record specific characteristics of arithmetic and of logical instructions.

#### 8086 flag register







- Control Flags: There are three control flags
- The Direction Flag (D): Affects the direction of moving data blocks by such instructions as MOVS, CMPS and SCAS. The flag values are 0 = up and 1 = down and can be set/reset by the STD (set D) and CLD (clear D) instructions.
- The Interrupt Flag (I): Dictates whether or not system interrupts can occur. Interrupts are actions initiated by hardware block such as input devices that will interrupt the normal execution of programs. The flag values are 0 = disable interrupts or 1 = enable interrupts and can be manipulated by the CLI (clear I) and STI (set I) instructions.



- The Trap Flag (T): Determines whether or not the CPU is halted after the execution of each instruction. When this flag is set (i.e. = 1), the programmer can single step through his program to debug any errors. When this flag = 0 this feature is off. This flag can be set by the INT 3 instruction.
- Status Flags: There are six status flags
- The Carry Flag (C): This flag is set when the result of an unsigned arithmetic operation is too large to fit in the destination register. This happens when there is an end carry in an addition operation or there an end borrows in a subtraction operation. A value of 1
  - = carry and 0 = no carry.



- The Overflow Flag (O): This flag is set when the result of a signed arithmetic operation is too large to fit in the destination register (i.e. when an overflow occurs). Overflow can occur when adding two numbers with the same sign (i.e. both positive or both negative). A value of 1 = overflow and 0 = no overflow.
- The Sign Flag (S): This flag is set when the result of an arithmetic or logic operation is negative. This flag is a copy of the MSB of the result (i.e. the sign bit). A value of 1 means negative and 0 = positive.



- The Zero Flag (Z): This flag is set when the result of an arithmetic or logic operation is equal to zero. A value of 1 means the result is zero and a value of 0 means the result is not zero.
- The Auxiliary Carry Flag (A): This flag is set when an operation causes a carry from bit 3 to bit 4 (or a borrow from bit 4 to bit 3) of an operand. A value of 1 = carry and 0 = no carry.
- The Parity Flag (P): This flags reflects the number of 1s in the result of an operation. If the number of 1s is even its value = 1 and if the number of 1s is odd then its value = 0.



### Addressing Modes of 8086

### Addressing Modes



#### **Addressing Modes of 8086:**

- Addressing mode indicates a way of locating data or operands. Depending up on the data type used in the instruction and the memory addressing modes, any instruction may belong to one or more addressing modes or same instruction may not belong to any of the addressing modes.
- The addressing mode describes the types of operands and the way they are accessed for executing an instruction. According to the flow of instruction execution, the instructions may be categorized as
- Sequential control flow instructions and
- Control transfer instructions.

### Addressing Modes



- Sequential control flow instructions are the instructions which after execution, transfer control to the next instruction appearing immediately after it (in the sequence) in the program. For example the arithmetic, logic, data transfer and processor control instructions are Sequential control flow instructions.
- The control transfer instructions on the other hand transfer control to some predefined address or the address somehow specified in the instruction, after their execution. For example INT, CALL, RET & JUMP instructions fall under this category.



- The addressing modes for Sequential and control flow instructions are explained as follows.
- Immediate addressing mode:
- In this type of addressing, immediate data is a part of instruction, and appears in the form of successive byte or bytes. Example: MOV AX, 0005H.
- In the above example, 0005H is the immediate data
   .The immediate data may be 8- bit or 16-bit in size.



## **Direct addressing mode:**

 In the direct addressing mode, a 16-bit memory address (offset)

directly specified in the instruction as a part of it.

Example: MOV AX, [5000H].

## Register addressing mode:

In the register addressing mode, the data is stored in a register and it is referred using the particular register. All the registers, except IP, may be used in this mode.

**Example: MOV BX, AX** 



## Register indirect addressing mode:

- Sometimes, the address of the memory location which contains data or operands is determined in an indirect way, using the offset registers. The mode of addressing is known as register indirect mode.
- In this addressing mode, the offset address of data is in either BX or SI or DI Register. The default segment is either DS or ES.

Example: MOV AX, [BX].

•



- Indexed addressing mode:
- In this addressing mode, offset of the operand is stored one of the index registers. DS & ES are the default segments for index registers SI & DI respectively.

Example: MOV AX, [SI]

- Here, data is available at an offset address stored in SI in DS.
- Register relative addressing mode:
- In this addressing mode, the data is available at an effective address formed by adding an 8-bit or 16-bit displacement with the content of any one of the register BX, BP, SI & DI in the default (either in DS & ES) segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX]



- Based indexed addressing mode:
- The effective address of data is formed in this addressing mode, by adding content of a base register (any one of BX or BP) to the content of an index register (any one of SI or DI). The default segment register may be ES or DS.

Example: MOV AX, [BX][SI]

- Relative based indexed:
- The effective address is formed by adding an 8 or 16-bit displacement with the sum of contents of any of the base registers (BX or BP) and any one of the index registers, in a default segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX] [SI]



- Addressing Modes for control transfer instructions:
- Intersegment
  - Intersegment direct
  - Intersegment indirect
- Intrasegment
  - Intrasegment direct
  - Intrasegment indirect



- Intersegment direct:
- In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred is in a different segment. This addressing mode provides a means of branching from one code segment to another code segment. Here, the CS and IP of the destination address are specified directly in the instruction.

Example: JMP 5000H: 2000H;

• Jump to effective address 2000H in segment 5000H.



- Intersegment indirect:
- In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment and it is passed to the instruction indirectly, i.e. contents of a memory block containing four bytes,
  - i.e. IP(LSB), IP(MSB), CS(LSB) and CS(MSB) sequentially. The starting address of the memory block may be referred using any of the addressing modes, except immediate mode.
  - Example: JMP [2000H].

Jump to an address in the other segment specified at effective address 2000H in DS.



- Intrasegment direct mode:
- In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in the same segment in which the control transfers instruction lies and appears directly in the instruction as an immediate displacement value. In this addressing mode, the displacement is computed relative to the content of the instruction pointer.



The effective address to which the control will be transferred is given by the sum of 8 or 16 bit displacement and current content of IP. In case of jump instruction, if the signed displacement (d) is of 8-bits (i.e. -128<d<+127), it as short jump and if it is of 16 bits (i.e. - 32768<d<+32767), it is termed as long jump.</p>

**Example: JMP SHORT LABEL.** 



- Intrasegment indirect mode:
- In this mode, the displacement to which the control is to be transferred is in the same segment in which the control transfer instruction lies, but it is passed to the instruction directly. Here, the branch address is found as the content of a register or a memory location.
- This addressing mode may be used in unconditional branch instructions.
- Example: JMP [BX]; Jump to effective address stored in BX.



## Instruction set of 8086

## **INSTRUCTION SET OF 8086**



- The Instruction set of 8086 microprocessor is classified into 7 Types, they are:-
  - Data transfer instructions
  - Arithmetic& logical instructions
  - Program control transfer instructions
  - Machine Control Instructions
  - Shift / rotate instructions
  - Flag manipulation instructions
  - String instructions



#### **Data Transfer instructions**

• Data transfer instruction, as the name suggests is for the transfer of data from memory to internal register, from internal register to memory, from one register to another register, from input port to internal register, from internal register to output port etc

#### **MOV** instruction

 It is a general purpose instruction to transfer byte or word from register to register, memory to register, register to memory or with immediate addressing.



- General Form:
- MOV destination, source
- Here the source and destination needs to be of the same size, that is both 8 bit or both 16 bit.
- MOV instruction does not affect any flags.

## Example:-

- MOV BX, 00F2H; load the immediate number 00F2H in BX register
- MOV CL, [2000H]; Copy the 8 bit content of the memory
  - location, at a displacement of 2000H from data segment base to the CL register



• MOV [589H], BX;

Copy the 16 bit content of BX register on to the memory location,

which at a displacement of 589H from the data segment base.

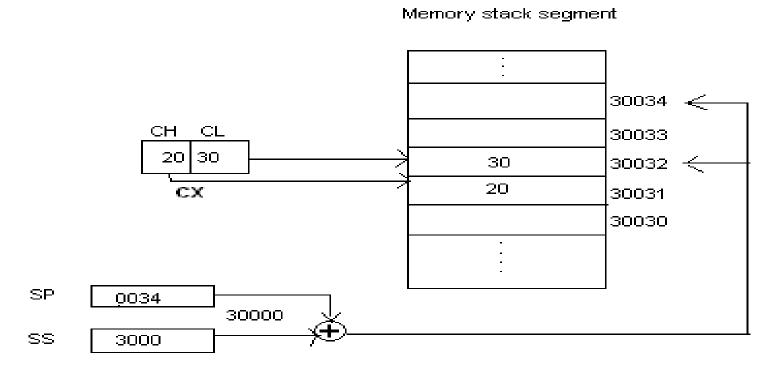
• MOV DS, CX; Move the content of CX to DS

#### **PUSH** instruction

The PUSH instruction decrements the stack pointer by two and copies the word from source to the location where stack pointer now points. Here the source must of word size data. Source can be a general purpose register, segment register or a memory location.



The PUSH instruction first pushes the most significant byte to sp-1, then the least significant to the sp-2. Push instruction does not affect any flags.





## **Example:**-

- PUSH CX; Decrements SP by 2, copy content of CX to the stack (figure shows execution of this instruction)
- PUSH DS ; Decrement SP by 2 and copy DS to stack
- POP instruction

The POP instruction copies a word from the stack location pointed by the stack pointer to the destination. The destination can be a General purpose register, a segment register or a memory location. Here after the content is copied the stack pointer is automatically incremented by two.

 The execution pattern is similar to that of the PUSH instruction. Example: POP CX; Copy a word from the top of the stack to CX and increment SP by 2.



- IN & OUT instructions
- The IN instruction will copy data from a port to the accumulator. If 8 bit is read the data will go to AL and if 16 bit then to AX. Similarly OUT instruction is used to copy data from accumulator to an output port.
- Both IN and OUT instructions can be done using direct and indirect addressing modes.
   Example:
- IN AL, 0F8H; Copy a byte from the port 0F8H to AL
- MOV DX, 30F8H;Copy port address in DX
- IN AL, DX;
  Move 8 bit data from 30F8H port
- IN AX, DX; Move 16 bit data from 30F8H port
- OUT 047H, AL; Copy contents of AL to 8 bit port 047H
- MOV DX, 30F8H; Copy port address in DX



#### **XCHG** instruction

• The XCHG instruction exchanges contents of the destination and source. Here destination and source can be register and register or register and memory location, but XCHG cannot interchange the value of 2 memory locations.

#### **General Format**

- XCHG Destination, Source Example:
- XCHG BX, CX; exchange word in CX with the word in BX
- XCHG AL, CL; exchange byte in CL with the byte in AL
- XCHG AX, SUM[BX]; here physical address, which isDS+SUM+[BX].
   The content at physical address and the content of AX are interchanged.



# Instruction set of 8086 (Arithmetic Instructions in 8086)

## Arithmetic Instructions: ADD, ADC, INC, AAA, DAA



Mnemonic	Meaning	Format	Operation	Flags affected
ADD	Addition	ADD D,S	(S)+(D) → (D) carry → (CF)	ALL
ADC	Add with carry	ADC D,S	(S)+(D)+(CF) → (D) carry → (CF)	ALL
INC	Increment by one	INC D	(D)+1 → (D)	ALL but CY
AAA	ASCII adjust for addition	AAA	If the sum is >9, AH is incremented by 1	AF,CF
DAA	Decimal adjust for addition	DAA	Adjust AL for decimal Packed BCD	ALL

## Arithmetic Instructions-SUB, SBB, DEC, AAS, DAS, NEG



Mnemonic	Meaning	Format	Operation	Flags affected
SUB	Subtract	SUB D,S	$\begin{array}{ccc} (D) - (S) \rightarrow & (D) \\ Borrow \rightarrow & (CF) \end{array}$	AII
SBB	Subtract with borrow	SBB D,S	(D) - (S) - (CF) → (D)	AII
DEC	Decrement by one	DEC D	(D) - 1 → (D)	All but CF
NEG	Negate	NEG D		All
DAS	Decimal adjust for subtraction	DAS	Convert the result in ALto packed decimal format	AII
AAS	ASCII adjust for subtraction	AAS	(AL) difference (AH) dec by 1 if borrow	CY,AC

## **Multiplication and Division**



Mnemonic	Meaning	Format	Operation	Flags Affected
MUL	Multiply (unsigned)	MULS	(AL) · (S8) → (AX) (AX) · (S16) → (DX),(AX)	OF, CF SF, ZF, AF, PF undefined
DIV	Division (unsigned)	DIVS	(1) Q((AX)/(S8)) → (AL) R((AX)/(S8)) → (AH)	OF, SF, ZF, AF, PF, CF undefined
	(i) (i)		(2) Q((DX,AX)/(S16)) → (AX) R((DX,AX)/(S16)) → (DX) If Q is FF <sub>16</sub> in case (1) or FFFF <sub>16</sub> in case (2), then type 0 interrupt occurs	
IMUL	Integer multiply (signed)	IMUL S	$(AL) \cdot (S8) \rightarrow (AX)$ $(AX) \cdot (S16) \rightarrow (DX),(AX)$	OF, CF SF, ZF, AF, PF undefined
IDIV	Integer divide (signed)	IDIV S	(1) Q((AX)/(S8)) → (AL) R((AX)/(S8)) → (AH)	OF, SF, ZF, AF, PF, CF undefined
	E COMMANDE PORTO DE PORTO DE PARE		(2) Q((DX,AX)/(S16)) → (AX) R((DX,AX)/(S16)) → (DX) If Q is positive and exceeds 7FFF <sub>16</sub> or if Q is negative and becomes less than 8001 <sub>16</sub> , then type 0 interupt occurs	
AAM	Adjust AL for	AAM	$Q((AL)/10) \rightarrow (AH)$	SF, ZF, PF
	multiplication	(A)	$R((AL)/10) \rightarrow (AL)$	OF, AF,CF undefined
AAD	Adjust AX for division	AAD	$(AH) \cdot 10 + (AL) \rightarrow (AL)$ $00 \rightarrow (AH)$	SF, ZF, PF OF, AF, CF undefined
CBW	Convert byte to word	CBW	(MSB of AL) → (All bits of AH)	None
CMD	Convert word to double word	CWD	(MSB of AX) $\rightarrow$ (All bits of DX)	None

(a)

Reg8 Reg16 Mem8

(b)



Multiplication (MUL or IMUL)	Multiplicand	Operand (Multiplier)	Result
Byte*Byte	AL	Register or memory	AX
Word*Word	AX	Register or memory	DX :AX
Dword*Dword	EAX	Register or memory	EAX :EDX

Division (DIV or IDIV)	Dividend	Operand (Divisor)	Quotient: Remainder
Word/Byte	AX	Register or Memory	AL :AH
: Dword/Word	DX:AX	Register or Memory	AX : DX
Qword/Dword	EDX: EAX	Register or Memory	EAX : EDX



# Instruction set of 8086 (Logical Instructions in 8086)



#### **AND** instruction

- This instruction logically ANDs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.
- The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.



- General Format:
- AND Destination, Source

## **Example:**

- AND BL, AL ;suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100
   1010 then after the operation BL would be BL=
   1000 0010.
- AND CX, AX ;CX <= CX AND AX</p>
- AND CL, 08 ;CL<= CL AND (0000 1000)</p>



#### **OR** instruction

- This instruction logically ORs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.
- The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.
- General Format:
- OR Destination, Source



#### **Example:**

- OR BL, AL; suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100 1010 then after the operation BL would be BL= 1100 1110.
- OR CX, AX;CX <= CX AND AX</p>
- OR CL, 08;CL<= CL AND (0000 1000)</li>

#### **NOT** instruction

 The NOT instruction complements (inverts) the contents of an operand register or a memory location, bit by bit. The examples are as follows:

#### **Example:**

- NOT AX (BEFORE AX= (1011)2= (B) 16 AFTER EXECUTION AX= (0100)2= (4)16).
- NOT [5000H]



#### **XOR** instruction

• The XOR operation is again carried out in a similar way to the AND and OR operation. The constraints on the operands are also similar. The XOR operation gives a high output, when the 2 input bits are dissimilar. Otherwise, the output is zero. The example instructions are as follows:

## **Example:**

- XOR AX,0098H
- O XOR AX,BX
- XOR AX,[5000H]



- Shift / Rotate Instructions
- Shift instructions move the binary data to the left or right by shifting them within the register or memory location. They also can perform multiplication of powers of 2+n and division of powers of 2-n.
- There are two type of shifts logical shifting and arithmetic shifting, later is used with signed numbers while former with unsigned.



- SHL/SAL instruction
- Both the instruction shifts each bit to left, and places the MSB in CF and LSB is made 0. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.
- All flags are affected.
- General Format:
- SAL/SHL destination, count Example:
- MOV BL, B7H;
- BL is made B7HSAL BL, 1;
- shift the content of BL register one place to left.
- Before execution,
- CY B7,B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0



- SHR instruction
- This instruction shifts each bit in the specified destination to the right and 0 is stored in the MSB position. The LSB is shifted into the carry flag. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.
- All flags are affected
- General Format: SHR destination, count Example:
- MOV BL, B7H;BL is made B7H
- SHR BL, 1;shift the content of BL register one place to the right.
- Before execution,B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0 CY



- After execution,
- B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0 CY
- ROL instruction
- This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified byte or word to the left some number of bit positions. MSB is placed as a new LSB and a new CF. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.
- All flags are affected



- General Format: ROL destination, count Example:
- MOV BL, B7H;BL is made B7H
- O CY B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0
- ROL BL, 1;rotates the content of BL register one place to the left.

## Before execution,

• CY B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0



- ROR instruction
- This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified byte or word to the right some number of bit positions. LSB is placed as a new MSB and a new CF. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.
- General Format: ROR destination,

#### count Example:

- MOV BL, B7H; BL is made B7H
- ROR BL, 1;shift the content of BL register one place to the right.
- Before execution,
- B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0 CY



- RCR instruction
- This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified byte or word to the right some number of bit positions along with the carry flag. LSB is placed in a new CF and previous carry is placed in the new MSB. The destination can be of byte size or of word size, also it can be a register or a memory location. Number of shifts is indicated by the count.
- All flags are affected
- General Format: RCR destination, count Example:
- MOV BL, B7H;BL is made B7H
- RCR BL, 1;shift the content of BL register one place to the right.



### **INSTRUCTION SET OF 8086**



#### **String Instruction Basics**

- > Source DS:SI, Destination ES:DI
  - You must ensure DS and ES are correct
  - You must ensure SI and DI are offsets into DS and ES respectively
- $\triangleright$  Direction Flag (0 = Up, 1 = Down)
  - CLD Increment addresses (left to right)
  - STD Decrement addresses (right to



#### **String ControlInstructions**

#### 1) MOVS/ MOVSB/ MOVSW

Dest string name, src string name

This instruction moves data byte or word from location in DS

to location in ES.

#### 2) REP / REPE / REPZ / REPNE / REPNZ

Repeat string instructions until specified conditions exist.

This is prefix a instruction.



#### **String Control Instructions**

- 4) SCAS / SCASB / SCASW
  Scan a string byte or string word.
  Compares byte in AL or word in AX. String address is to be loaded in DI.
- 5) STOS / STOSB / STOSW
  Store byte or word in a string.
  Copies a byte or word in AL or AX to memory location pointed by DI.
- 6) LODS / LODSB /LODSW
  Load a byte or word in AL or AX
- > Copies byte or word from memory location pointed by SI into AL or AX register.



#### 5. Program Execution TransferInstructions

- > instructions are similar to branching or looping instructions. These instructions include unconditional jump or loop instructions.
- Classification:
- Unconditional transfer instructions
- Conditional transfer instructions
- Iteration control instructions
- Interrupt instructions



#### **Unconditional transfer instructions**

- > CALL: Call a procedure, save return address on stack
- RET: Return from procedure to the main program.
- > JMP: Goto specified address to get next instruction

**CALL** instruction: The CALL instruction is used to transfer

execution of program to a subprogram or procedure.



#### **CALL** instruction

- Near call
- 1. Direct Near CALL: The destination address is specified in the instruction itself.
- 2.Indirect Near CALL: The destination address is specified in any 16-bit register, except IP.
- Far call
- 1. Direct Far CALL: The destination address is specified in the instruction itself. It will be in different Code Segment.
- 2.Indirect Far CALL: The destination address is specified in two word memory locations pointed by a register.



#### JMP instruction

The processor jumps to the specified location rather than the

instruction after the JMP instruction.

- Intra segment jump
- Inter segment jump

#### **RET**

RET instruction will return execution from a procedure to the

next instruction after the CALL instruction in the calling program.



#### **Conditional Transfer Instructions**

- JA/JNBE: Jump if above / jump if not below or equal
- JAE/JNB: Jump if above /jump if not below
- JBE/JNA: Jump if below or equal/ Jump if not above
- JC: jump if carry flag CF=1
- JE/JZ: jump if equal/jump if zero flag ZF=1
- JG/JNLE: Jump if greater/ jump if not less than or equal.



#### **Conditional Transfer Instructions**

- JGE/JNL: jump if greater than or equal/ jump if not less than
- JL/JNGE: jump if less than/ jump if not greater than or equal
- JLE/JNG: jump if less than or equal/ jump if not greater than
- JNC: jump if no carry (CF=0).
- JNE/JNZ: jump if not equal/ jump if not zero(ZF=0)



#### **Conditional Transfer Instructions**

- JNO: jump if no overflow(OF=0)
- JNP/JPO: jump if not parity/ jump if parity odd(PF=0)
- JNS: jump if not sign(SF=0)
- JO: jump if overflow flag(OF=1)
- JP/JPE: jump if parity/jump if parity even(PF=1)
- JS: jump if sign(SF=1).



#### **Iteration Control Instructions**

- > These instructions are used to execute a series of instructions for certain number of times.
- > LOOP: Loop through a sequence of instructions until CX=0.
- > LOOPE/LOOPZ : Loop through a sequence of instructions while ZF=1 and instructions CX = 0.
- > LOOPNE/LOOPNZ : Loop through a sequence of instructions while ZF=0 and CX =0.
- > JCXZ : jump to specified



#### **Interrupt Instructions**

#### Two types of interrupt instructions:

- Hardware Interrupts (External Interrupts)
- Software Interrupts (Internal Interrupts and Instructions)

#### **Hardware Interrupts:**

- INTR is a maskable hardware interrupt.
- NMI is a non-maskable interrupt.



#### **Software Interrupts**

- INT: Interrupt program execution, call service procedure
- INTO: Interrupt program execution if OF=1
- IRET: Return from interrupt service procedure to main program.



### **High Level Language Interface Instructions**

- **ENTER**: enter procedure.
- > LEAVE: Leave procedure.
- **≻BOUND:** Check if effective address within specified array

bounds.



#### **Processor ControlInstructions**

- I. Flag set/clear instructions
- STC: Set carry flag CF to 1
- CLC: Clear carry flag CF to 0
- CMC: Complement the state of the carry flagCF
- STD: Set direction flag DF to 1 (decrement stringpointers)
- CLD: Clear direction flag DF to 0
- STI: Set interrupt enable flag to 1(enable INTR input)
- CLI: Clear interrupt enable Flag to 0 (disable INTRinput)



#### II. External Hardware synchronizationinstructions

- > HLT: Halt (do nothing) until interrupt or reset.
- > WAIT: Wait (Do nothing) until signal on the test pin is low.
- > ESC: Escape to external coprocessor such as 8087 or 8089.
- **➤ LOCK:** An instruction prefix. Prevents another processor from taking the bus while the adjacent instruction executes.
- ➤ NOP: No operation. This instruction simply takes up three clock cycles and does no processing.



### **Assembler Directives**



#### **Assembler Directives**

- > ASSUME
- DB Defined Byte.
- DD Defined Double Word
- DQ Defined Quad Word
- **Define Ten Bytes**
- Dw Define Word



➤ **ASSUME Directive**- The ASSUME directive is used to tell the assembler that the name of the logical segment should be used for a specified segment. The 8086 works directly with only 4 physical segments: a Code segment, a data segment, a stack segment, and an extra segment.

#### **Example:**

**ASUME CS:CODE**; This tells the assembler that the logical segment named CODE contains the instruction statements for the program and should be treated as a code segment.

**ASSUME DS:DATA**; This tells the assembler that for any instruction which refers to a data in the data segment, data will found in the logical segment DATA.



- > **DB** DB directive is used to declare a byte- type variable or to store a byte in memory location.
- > Example:
- **1. PRICE DB 49h, 98h, 29h**; Declare an array of 3 bytes, named as PRICE and initialize.
- **2. NAME DB** 'ABCDEF' ; Declare an array of 6 bytes and initialize with ASCII code for letters
- **3. TEMP DB 100 DUP(?)** ;Set 100 bytes of storage in memory and give it the name as TEMP, but leave the 100 bytes uninitialized. Program instructions will load values into these locations.



DW-The DW directive is used to define a variable of type word or to reserve storage location of type word in memory.

#### Example:

- MULTIPLIER DW 437Ah; this declares a variable of type word and named it as MULTIPLIER. This variable is initialized with the value 437Ah when it is loaded into memory to run.
- EXP1 DW 1234h, 3456h, 5678h; this declares an array of 3 words and initialized with specified values.
- STOR1 DW 100 DUP(0); Reserve an array of 100 words of memory and initialize all words with 0000. Array is named as STOR1.



- END-END directive is placed after the last statement of a program to tell the assembler that this is the end of the program module. The assembler will ignore any statement after an END directive.
- ENDP-ENDP directive is used along with the name of the procedure to indicate the end of a procedure to the assembler

#### **Example:**

- SQUARE\_NUM PROCE ; It start the procedure ;Some steps to find the square root of a number
- SQUARE\_NUM ENDP ;Hear it is the End for the procedure



- > END
- > ENDP
- > ENDS
- > EQU
- > EVEN
- > EXTRN

End Program

- End Procedure
- End Segment
  - Equ\_ate
  - Align on Even Memory Address



ENDS - This ENDS directive is used with name of the segment to indicate the end of that logic segment.

```
Example: CODE SEGMENT ;Hear it Start the logic segment containing code;
```

- CODE ENDS ;End of segment named as CODE
- GLOBAL Can be used in place of a PUBLIC directive or in place of an EXTRN directive.



- GROUP-Used to tell the assembler to group the logical statements named after the directive into one logical group segment, allowing the contents of all the segments to be accessed from the same group segment base.
- INCLUDE Used to tell the assembler to insert a block of source code from the named file into the current source module.
- LABEL- Used to give a name to the current value in the location counter.
- NAME- Used to give a specific name to each assembly module when programs consisting of several modules are written.
  - E.g.: NAME PC\_BOARD



OFFSET- Used to determine the offset or displacement of a named data item or procedure from the start of the segment which contains it.

E.g.: MOV BX, OFFSET PRICES

ORG- The location counter is set to 0000 when the assembler starts reading a segment. The ORG directive allows setting a desired value at any point in the program.

E.g.: ORG 2000H

- PROC- Used to identify the start of a procedure. E.g.: SMART\_DIVIDE PROC FAR
- PTR- Used to assign a specific type to a variable or to a label. E.g.: INC BYTE PTR[BX] tells the



- PUBLIC- Used to tell the assembler that a specified name or label will be accessed from other modules.
- SEGMENT- Used to indicate the start of a logical segment.
  E.g.: CODE SEGMENT indicates to the assembler the start of a logical segment called CODE
- SHORT- Used to tell the assembler that only a 1 byte displacement is needed to code a jump instruction.
  - E.g.: JMP SHORT NEARBY\_LABEL
- > TYPE Used to tell the assembler to determine the type of a specified variable.
  - E.g.: ADD BX, TYPE WORD\_ARRAY is used where we want to increment BX to point to the next word in an array of words.



# **Simple Programs of 8086**

# Write an assembly language program for addition of two 8-bit numbers using 8086 microprocessors.



```
DATA SEGMENT
  A1 DB 50H
  A2 DB 51H
   RES DB?
DATA ENDS
CODE SEGMENT
ASSUME CS: CODE, DS:DATA
START:
             MOV AX, DATA
      MOV DS,AX
      MOV AL,A1
      MOV BL,A2
      ADD AL,BL
      MOV RES,AL
      MOV AX,4C00H
      INT 21H
CODE ENDS
```

**END START** 



```
DATA SEGMENT
   FIRST DW 03H
   SEC DW 01H
DATA ENDS
CODE SEGMENT
ASSUME CS:CODE,DS:DATA
             MOV AX, DATA
START:
      MOV DS,AX
      MOV AX,SEC
      MOV CX,FIRST
    L1: MULCX
      DEC CX
      JCXZ L2
      JMP L1
    L2: INT 3H
CODE ENDS
END START
```

# Write an assembly language program to find the sum of squares using 8086 microprocessors.



```
DATA SEGMENT
   NUM DW 5H
   RES DW?
DATA ENDS
CODE SEGMENT
ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA
       MOV AX, DATA
START:
       MOV DS,AX
       MOV CX, NUM
       MOV BX,00
   L1: MOV AX,CX
         MUL CX
               ADD BX,AX
               DEC CX
               JNZ L1
               MOV RES,BX
               INT 3H
 CODE ENDS
 END START
```



## **Procedures and Macros**



#### **Procedures:**

• While writing programs, it may be the case that a particular sequence of instructions is used several times. To avoid writing the sequence of instructions again and again in the program, the same sequence can be written as a separate subprogram called a procedure.

#### **Defining Procedures:**

• Assembler provides PROC and ENDP directives in order to define procedures. The directive PROC indicates beginning of a procedure. Its general form is:

Procedure\_name PROC [NEAR|FAR]



### Passing parameters to and from procedures:

The data values or addresses passed between procedures and main program are called parameters. There are four ways of passing parameters:

- Passing parameters in registers
- Passing parameters in dedicated memory locations
- Passing parameters with pointers passed in registers
- Passing parameters using the stack



#### **MACROS:**

When the repeated group of instruction is too short or not suitable to be implemented as a procedure, we use a MACRO. A macro is a group of instructions to which a name is given. Each time a macro is called in a program, the assembler will replace the macro name with the group of instructions.

### **Defining MACROS:**

- Before using macros, we have to define them. MACRO directive informs the assembler the beginning of a macro. The general form is:
- Macro\_name MACRO argument1, argument2, ...
- Arguments are optional. ENDM informs the assembler the end of
  - the macro. Its general form is: ENDM





Procedures	Macros
Accessed by CALL and RET	Accessed by name given to macro
mechanism during program execution	when
	defined during assembly
Machine code for instructions only put	Machine code generated for
in memory once	instructions
	each time called
Parameters are passed in registers,	Parameters passed as part of statement
memory locations or stack	which calls macro
Procedures uses stack	Macro does not utilize stack
A procedure can be defined anywhere	A macro can be defined anywhere in
in program using the directives PROC	program using the directives MACRO
and ENDP	and ENDM
Procedures takes huge memory for	Length of code is very huge if macro's
CALL(3 bytes each time CALL is	are called for more number of times
used) instruction	



# UNIT-II 8086 AEESMBLY LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING



## **COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

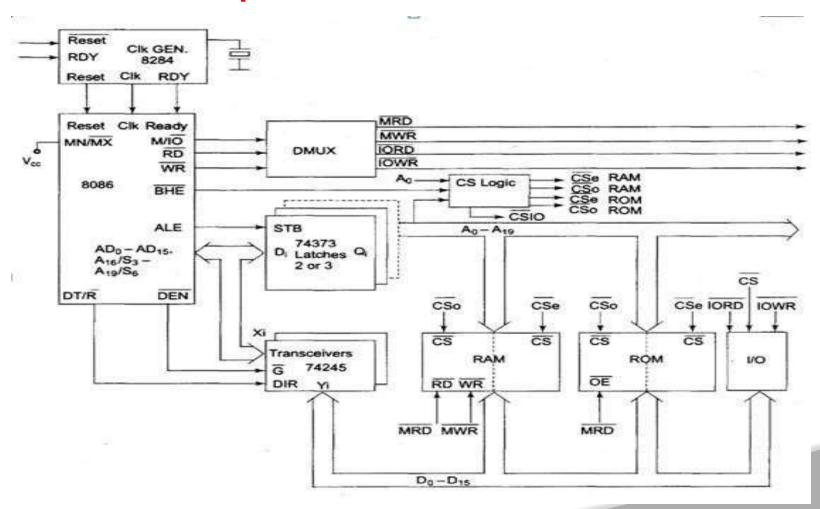
CLO7	Describe Minimum mode and maximum mode of operation and timing diagram of 8086 microprocessor
CLO8	Explain various Assembly language programs involving logical, branch and call instructions.
CLO9	Evaluation of arithmetic expressions, string manipulation,
	sorting using various Assembly language programs.



# Minimum mode operation in 8086



### Minimum mode operation in 8086:





- In a minimum mode 8086 system, the microprocessor 8086 is operated in minimum mode by strapping its MN/MX pin to logic 1.
- In this mode, all the control signals are given out by the microprocessor chip itself. There is a single microprocessor in the minimum mode system.
- The remaining components in the system are latches, transceivers, clock generator, memory and I/O devices. Some type of chip selection logic may be required for selecting memory or I/O devices, depending upon the address map of the system.
- Latches are generally buffered output D-type flip-flops like 74LS373 or 8282. They are used for separating the valid address from the multiplexed address/data signals and are controlled by the ALE signal generated by 8086.



- Fransceivers are the bidirectional buffers and sometimes they are called as data amplifiers. They are required to separate the valid data from the time multiplexed address/data signals.
- > They are controlled by two signals namely, DEN and DT/R.
- > The DEN signal indicates the direction of data, i.e. from or to the processor. The system contains memory for the monitor and users program storage.
- Usually, EPROM is used for monitor storage, while RAM for users program storage. A system may contain I/O devices.



# Maximum mode operation in 8086



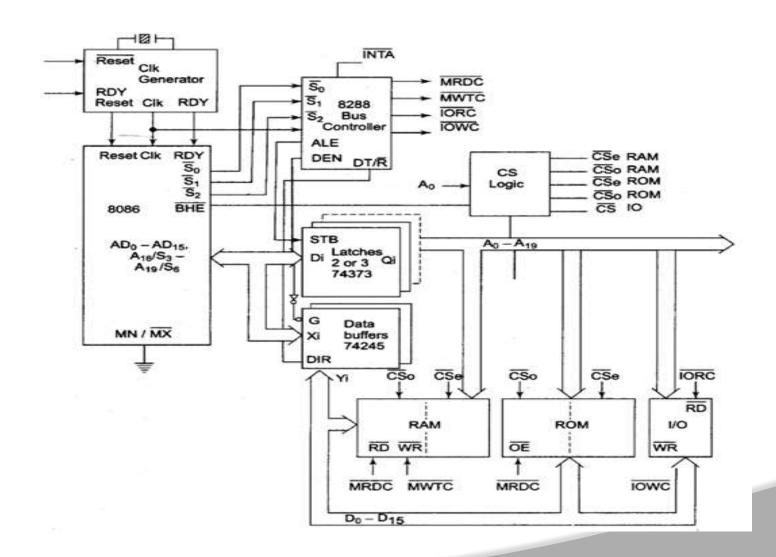
- In the maximum mode, the 8086 is operated by strapping the MN/MX pin to ground.
- In this mode, the processor derives the status signal S2, S1,
   S0. Another chip called bus controller derives the control signal using this status information.
- In the maximum mode, there may be more than one microprocessor in the system configuration.



- The components in the system are same as in the minimum mode system.
- The basic function of the bus controller chip IC8288 is to derive control signals like RD and WR (for memory and I/O devices), DEN, DT/R, ALE etc. using the information by the processor on the status lines.
- The bus controller chip has input lines S2, S1, S0 and CLK. These inputs to 8288 are driven by CPU.

### Maximum mode







- It derives the outputs ALE, DEN, DT/R, MRDC, MWTC, AMWC, IORC, IOWC and AIOWC. The AEN, IOB and CEN pins are especially useful for multiprocessor systems.
- AEN and IOB are generally grounded. CEN pin is usually tied to +5V. The significance of the MCE/PDEN output depends upon the status of the IOB pin.
- If IOB is grounded, it acts as master cascade enable to control cascade 8259A, else it acts as peripheral data enable used in the multiple bus configurations.



- INTA pin used to issue two interrupt acknowledge pulses to the interrupt controller or to an interrupting device.
- IORC, IOWC are I/O read command and I/O write command signals respectively.
- These signals enable an IO interface to read or write the data from or to the address port.
- The MRDC, MWTC are memory read command and memory write command signals respectively and may be used as memory read or write signals.



- The MRDC, MWTC are memory read command and memory write command signals respectively and may be used as memory read or write signals.
- All these command signals instructs the memory to accept or send data from or to the bus.
- For both of these write command signals, the advanced signals namely AIOWC and AMWTC are available.



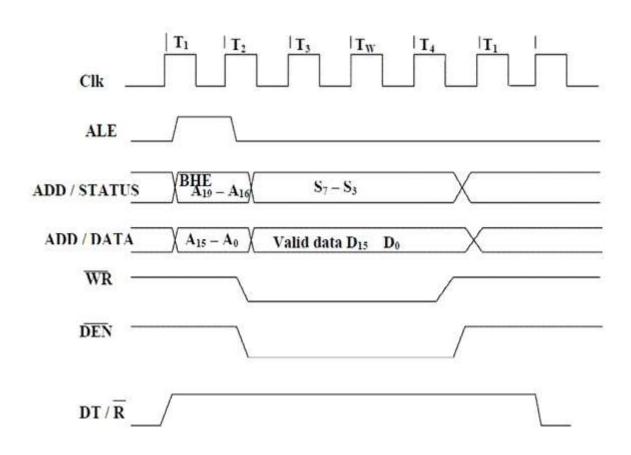
- ➤ Here the only difference between in timing diagram between minimum mode and maximum mode is the status signals used and the available control and advanced command signals.
- ➤RO, S1, S2 are set at the beginning of bus cycle.8288 bus controller will output a pulse as on the ALE and apply a required signal to its DT / R pin during T1.
- ➤In T2, 8288 will set DEN=1 thus enabling transceivers, and for an input it will activate MRDC or IORC. These signals are activated until T4. For an output, the AMWC or AIOWC is activated from T2 to T4 and MWTC or IOWC is activated from T3 to T4.



# Timing diagram for minimum mode



## **Write Cycle Timing Diagram for**

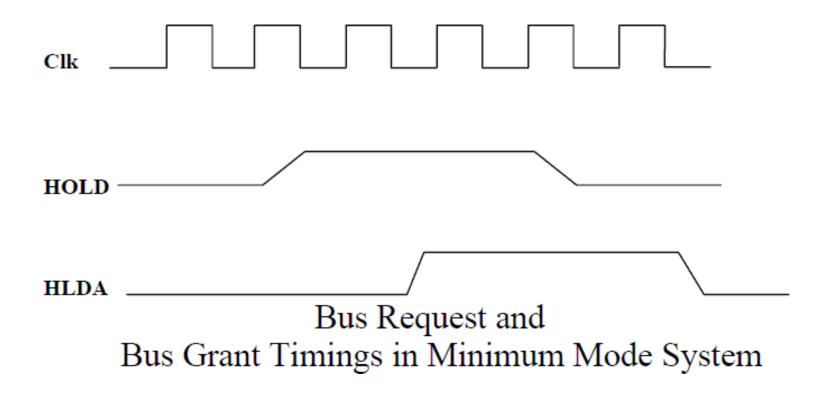




- The working of the minimum mode configuration system can be better described in terms of the timing diagrams rather than qualitatively describing the operations.
- The opcode fetch and read cycles are similar. Hence the timing diagram can be categorized in two parts, the first is the timing diagram for read cycle and the second is the timing diagram for write cycle.

# Bus Request and Bus Grant Timings in Minimum Mode System of 8086



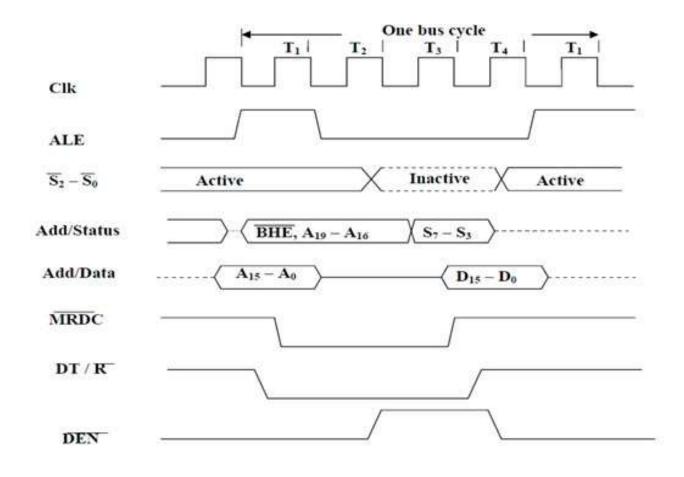




# Timing diagram for maximum mode

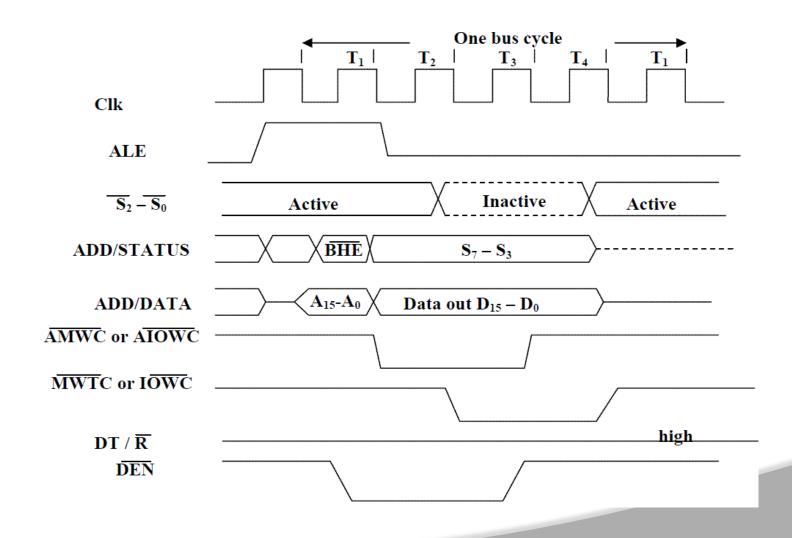
# Memory Read Timing Diagram in Maximum Mode of 8086





## Memory Write Timing in Maximum mode of 8086







# Memory interfacing to 8086 (Static RAM and EPROM)



• Interface two 4Kx8 EPROMS and two 4Kx8 RAM chips with 8086. select suitable maps.

				Table			Memory Map for Problem													
Address	A19	A <sub>18</sub>	A <sub>17</sub>	A <sub>16</sub>	A <sub>15</sub>	A <sub>14</sub>	A <sub>13</sub>	A <sub>12</sub>	$A_{II}$	A <sub>10</sub>	A <sub>09</sub>	A <sub>08</sub>	A <sub>07</sub>	A <sub>06</sub>	A <sub>05</sub>	A <sub>04</sub>	A <sub>03</sub>	A <sub>02</sub>	A <sub>01</sub>	A <sub>00</sub>
FFFFFH	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
<b>南</b> 建筑等	erior.		B - 18	NEW.	6.7	EPR	OM				4	37	8K×	8	100	W.	3/4	576	10	
FE000H	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FDFFFH		1	1	1	1	1	. 0	1.1	1	1	1.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-18	1
							AM	(T) (				K×								
PC000H	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0



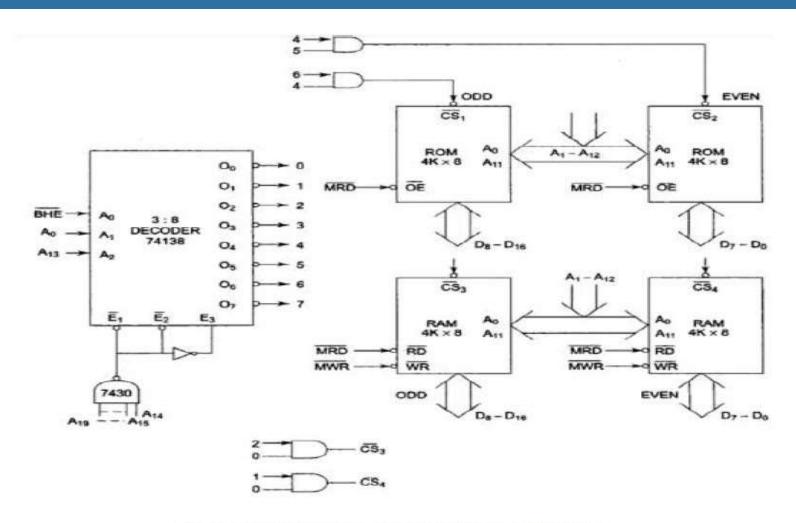


Fig shows the interfacing diagram for the memory system



- amin [military military manager [military manager	Table	Memory	Chip	Selection	for	Problem
---	-------	--------	------	-----------	-----	---------

Decoder I/P →	A2	$A_{I}$	$A_\phi$	Selection/
Address/BHE →	$A_{IJ}$	$A_0$	BHE	Comment
Word transfer on $D_0 - D_{15}$	0	0	0	Even and odd addresses in RAM
Byte transfer on $D_7 - D_0$	0	0	1	Only even address in RAM
Byte transfer on $D_8 - D_{15}$	0	1	0	Only odd address in RAM
Word transfer on $D_0 - D_{15}$	1	0	0	Even and odd addresses in ROM
Byte transfer on $D_0 - D_7$	1	0	1	Only even address in ROM
Byte transfer on D <sub>8</sub> - D <sub>15</sub>		1 1	0	Only odd address in ROM



# Assembly language programs using logical, branch& call instructions



Programs using logical, Branch and call instructions.

**Data segment** 

Org 2000h Mov [di],ax

N1 dw 5678h Int 03h

N2 dw 2345h Code ends

Data ends End

**Code segment** 

Assume cs:code,ds:dats

Mov ax, data

Mov ds,ax

Mov DI,2040h

Movax,N1

AND ax,bx



- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- N2 dw 2345h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- MOV bx,N2
- OR ax,bx
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End

# Assembly language



- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- N2 dw 2345h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- MOV bx,N2
- xor ax,bx
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End



- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- SHL ax,04
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End



## Programs using logical, Branch and call instructions.

- 1)Data segment
- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- SHR ax,04

- . Mov [di],ax
- . Int 03h
  - . Code ends
  - . End



- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- ROR ax,02
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End

# Assembly language



- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- RCR ax,03
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End

## Assembly language programs



#### 4)Data segment

- Org 2000h
- N1 dw 5678h
- Data ends
- Code segment
- Assume cs:code,ds:dats
- Mov ax,data
- Mov ds,ax
- Mov DI,2040h
- Mov ax,N1
- RCL ax,04
- Mov [di],ax
- Int 03h
- Code ends
- End



## Sorting



# Assembly language program to sort the given numbers in Ascending order

**ASSUME CS: CODE** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

START: MOV AX,0000H

**MOV CH, 0004H** 

**DEC CH** 

**UP1**: MOV CL, CH

**MOV SI, 2000H** 

UP: MOV AL, [SI]

**INC SI** 

CMP AL, [SI]



**JC DOWN** 

XCHG AL,

[SI] DEC SI

MOV [SI], AL

**INC SI** 

DOWN: DEC CL

**JNZ UP** 

**DEC CH** 

**JNZ UP1** 

INT 3

**CODE ENDS** 

**END START** 



# Assembly language program to sort the given numbers in Descending order

**ASSUME CS: CODE** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

START: MOV AX, 0000H

MOV CH, 0004H

**DEC CH** 

UP1: MOV CL, CH

**MOV SI, 2000H** 

UP: MOV AL, [SI]

**INC SI** 

CMP AL, [SI]



**JNC DOWN** 

XCHG AL, [SI]

**DEC SI** 

MOV [SI], AL

**INC SI** 

DOWN: DEC CL

**JNZ UP** 

**DEC CH** 

**JNZ UP1** 

INT3

CODE ENDS END START



## **Evaluation of arithmetic expressions**



## An Assembly program for performing the following operation Z= ((A-B)/10\*C)

**DATA SEGMENT** 

**A DB 60** 

**B DB 20** 

CDB5

Z DW?

**ENDS** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

**ASSUME DS: DATA CS: CODE** 

START: MOV AX, DATA

**MOV DS, AX** 

MOV AH, 0; Clear content of AX

MOV AL, A ; Move A to register AL



SUB AL, B ; Subtract AL and B

MUL C ; Multiply C to AL

MOV BL, 10; Move 10 to register BL

DIV BL ; Divide AL content by BL

MOV Z, AX; Move content of AX to Z

**MOV AH, 4CH** 

**INT 21H** 

ENDS END START



## **Evaluation of string manipulation**



#### **Program For String Transfer**

DATA SEGMENT ; start of data segment

STR1 DB 'HOW ARE YOU'

LEN EQU \$-STR1

STR2 DB 20 DUP (0)

DATA ENDS ; end of data segment

CODE SEGMENT ; start of code segment

ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA, ES: DATA

START: MOV AX, DATA; initialize data segment

MOV DS, AX



```
MOV ES, AX; initialize extra segment for string operations
```

LEA SI, STR1; SI points to starting address of string at; STR1

LEA DI, STR2; DI points to starting address of where the string

has to be transferred

MOV CX, LEN ; load CX with length of the string

CLD ; clear the direction flag for auto increment SI;

and DI

REP MOVSB; the source string is moved to destination

address till CX=0(after every move CX is;

decremented)

**MOV AH, 4CH**; terminate the process

**INT 21H** 

CODE ENDS ; end of code segment

**END START** 



#### **Program To Reverse A String**

DATA SEGMENT ; start of data segment

STR1 DB 'HELLO'

LEN EQU \$-STR1

STR2 DB 20 DUP (0)

DATA ENDS ; end of data segment

CODE SEGMENT ; start of code segment

ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA, ES: DATA

START: MOV AX, DATA ; initialize data segment

MOV DS, AX

**MOV ES, AX** 



LEA SI, STR1

LEA DI, STR2+LEN-1

**MOV CX, LEN** 

UP: CLD

**LODSB** 

**STD** 

**STOSB** 

**LOOP UP** 

MOV AH, 4CH

**INT 21H** 

**CODE ENDS** 

**END START** 



# UNIT-III 8255 PROGRAMMABLE PERIPHERAL INTERFACE (PPI)



### **COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

CLO10	Identify the importance of various modes of 8255 operation and interfacing to 8086.
CLO11	Discuss the interfacing diagram of I/O devices with keyboard, stepper motor, 7-segment display, LCD and digital to analog and analog to digital converter.
CLO12	Explain in detail about the importance of DMA,interrupt and interrupt sub routines in 8086 microprocessor



## Introduction to 8255 (PIO)



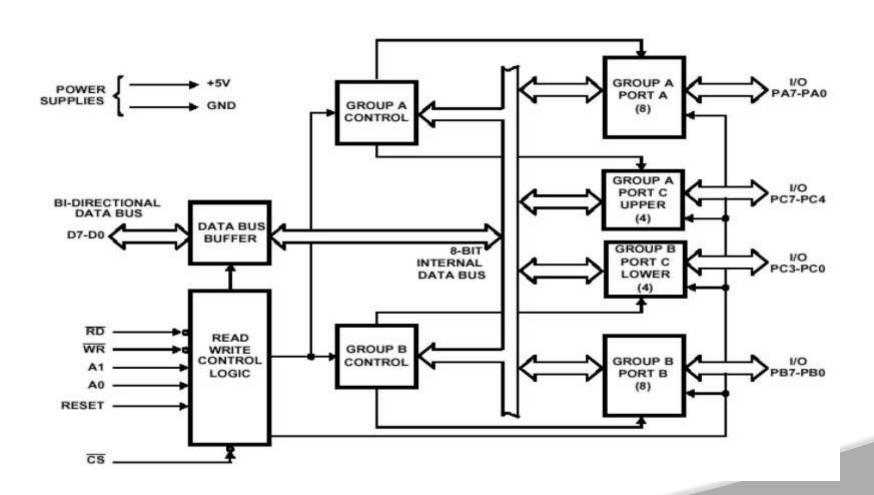
#### 8255-PROGRAMMABLE PERIPHERALINTERFACE

- ➤ It has 24 input/output lines
- > 24 lines divided into 3 ports
  - Port A(8bit)
  - Port B(8 bit)
  - Port C upper(4 bit), Port C Lower (4 bit)

All the above 3 ports can act as input or output ports



### **BLOCK DIAGRAM OF 8255**





#### **Data Bus buffer**

> It is a 8-bit bidirectional Data bus.

- > Used to interface between 8255 data bus with system bus.
- $\triangleright$  The internal data bus and Outer pins D<sub>0</sub>-D<sub>7</sub> pins are connected in internally.
- ➤ The direction of data buffer is decided by Read/Control Logic.



#### **Read/Write ControlLogic**

This is getting the input signals from control Address Bus. bus and

- ➤ Control signal are RD and WR.
- $\triangleright$  Address signals are A0, A1, and CS  $\overline{CS}$ .
- **≻8255** operation is enabledor disabled by

Group A and B get the Control Signal from CPU and send the command to the individual control blocks.

Group A send the control signal to port A and Port C (Upper) PC7-PC4. Group B send the control signal to port B and Port C (Lower) PC3-PC0.



#### PORT A:

- This is a 8-bit buffered I/O latch.
- It can be programmed by mode 0, mode 1, mode2.

#### **PORT B:**

- This is a 8-bit buffer I/O latch.
- ➤ It can be programmed by mode 0 and mode 1.

#### **PORTC:**

- > This is a 8-bit Unlatched buffer Input and an Output latch.
- It is spitted into two parts.
- ➤ It can be programmed by bit set/reset operation.



#### 8255-PROGRAMMABLE PERIPHERAL INTERFACE



#### Pin Description of 8255

PA7-PA0: These are eight port A lines that acts as either latched

output or buffered input lines depending upon the

control word loaded into the control word register.

PC7-PC4: Upper nibble of port C lines. They may act as either

output latches or input buffers lines. This port also

can be used for generation of handshake lines in

mode 1 or mode 2.

PC3-PC0: These are the lower port C lines, other details are

the same as PC7-PC4 lines.

PB0-PB7: These are the eight port B lines



#### Pin Description of 8255

- >RD: This is the input line driven by the microprocessor and should be low to indicate read operation to 8255.
- WR: This is an input line driven by the microprocessor. A low on
- this line indicates write operation.
- >CS: This is a chip select line. If this line goes low, it enables the 8255 to respond to RD and WR signals, otherwise RD and WR signal are neglected.
- >A1-A0: These are the address input lines and are driven by the microprocessor.
- > RESET: The 8255 is placed into its reset state if this input line is a logical 1. All peripheral ports are set to the input mode.



# Various modes of 8255 operation and interfacing to 8086



#### Various modes of 8255:

These are two basic modes of operation of 8255. I/O mode and Bit Set-Reset mode (BSR).

➤In I/O Mode, the 8255 ports work as programmable I/O ports, while in BSR mode only port C (PC0-PC7) can be used to set or reset its individual port bits.

Under the I/O mode of operation, further there are three modes of operation of 8255, so as to support different types of applications, mode 0, mode 1 and mode 2.



Mode 0 (Basic I/O mode): This mode is also called as basic input/output Mode. This mode provides simple input and output capabilities using each of the three ports. Data can be simply read from and written to the input and output ports respectively, after appropriate initialization.



- Mode 1: (Strobed input/output mode) in this mode the handshaking control the input and output action of the specified port. Port C lines PCO-PC2, provide strobe or handshake lines for port B.
- ➤ This group which includes port B and PCO-PC2 is called as group B for Strobed data input/output. Port C lines PC3-PC5 provides strobe lines for port A.
- >This group including port A and PC3-PC5 from group A. Thus port C is utilized for generating handshake signals.



- Mode 2 (Strobed bidirectional I/O): This mode of operation of 8255 is also called as strobed bidirectional I/O. This mode of operation provides 8255 with additional features for communicating with a peripheral device on an 8-bit data bus.
- Handshaking signals are provided to maintain proper data flow and synchronization between the data transmitter and receiver.
- The interrupt generation and other functions are similar to mode

1.



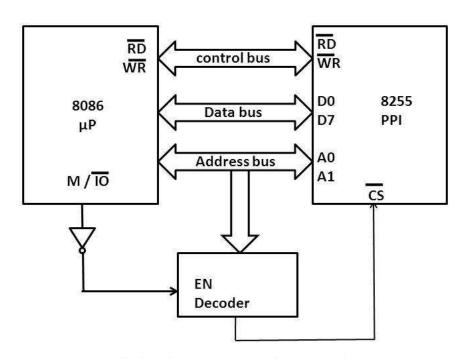
#### BSR Mode:

In this mode any of the 8-bits of port C can be set or reset depending on D0 of the control word. The bit to be set or reset is selected by bit select flags D3, D2 and D1 of the CWR as given in table.



## 8255 interfacing with 8086:

8255 - 8086 Interfacing - 8 Bit Input - Output



Interfacing the 8255 PPI to the 8086 microprocessor



## Interfacing Keyboard



#### **Keyboard Interfacing:**

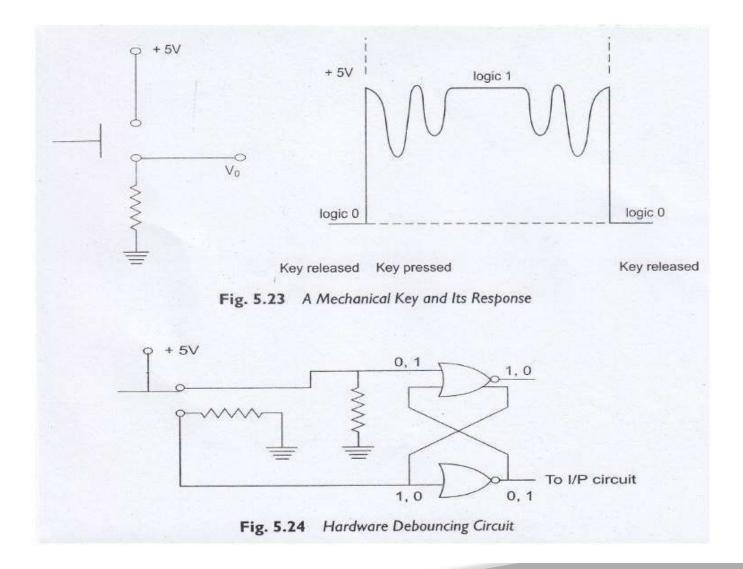
- ➤ In most keyboards, the key switches are connected in a matrix of Rows and Columns.
- ➤ Getting meaningful data from a keyboard requires three Major tasks:
  - Detect a key press
  - Debounce the key press.
  - Encode the key press (produce a standard code for the pressed key).
- > Logic '0' is read by the microprocessor when the key is pressed.



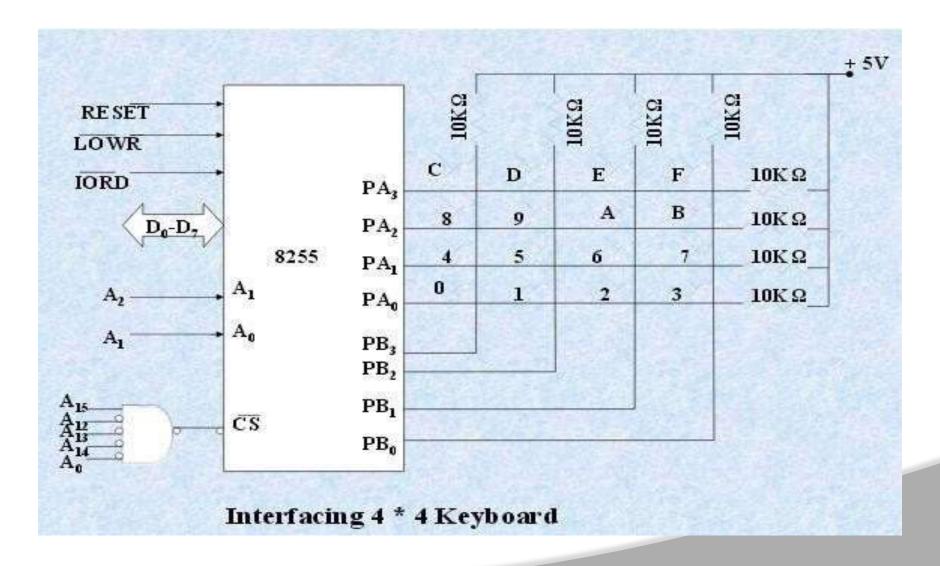
#### **Key Debounce:**

Whenever a mechanical push-bottom is pressed or released once, the mechanical components of the key do not change the position smoothly; rather it generates a transient response. These may be interpreted as the multiple pressures and responded accordingly



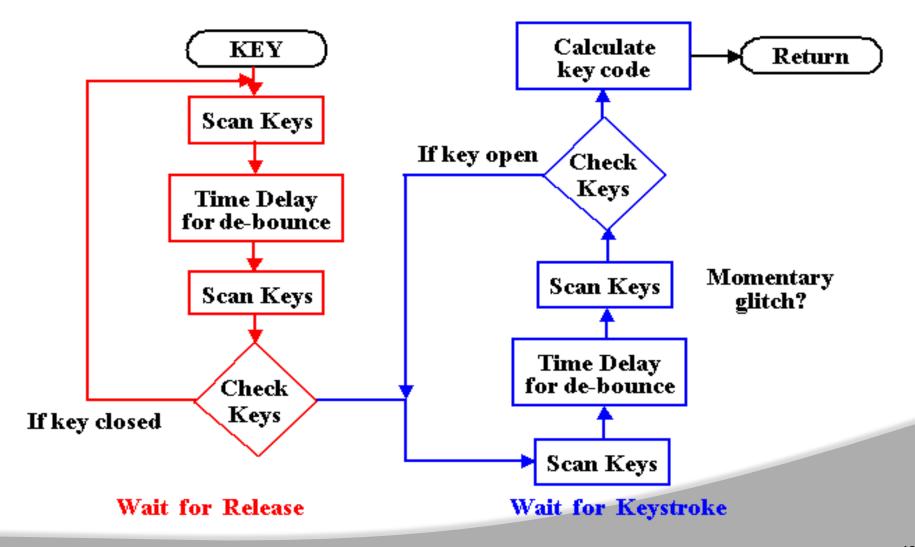








#### Flow chart of a keyboard-scanning procedure





#### **Keyboard Interfacing Program:**

Assume that base address of 8255 is 8000H. So, addresses of ports will be as follows.

PORT A = 8000H (ROWS)

PORT B = 8002H (COLUMNS)

CONTROL PORT = 8006H

**DATA SEGMENT** 

**CNTLPRT EQU 8006H** 

PORTA EQU 8000H

PORT B EQU 8002H

DELAY EQU 6666 for 20ms.

; Delay constant



#### **Keyboard Interfacing Program:**

TABLE DB 30H, 31H, 32H, 33H, 34H, 35H, 36H, 37H, 38H, 39H, 41H, 42H, 43H, 44H, 45H, 46H

**DATA ENDS** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA

START: MOV AX, DATA

MOV DS, AX.

MOV AL, 82H

**MOV DX, CNTLPRT** 

**OUT OX, AL** 



XOR AL, AL MOV

DX, PORTA OUT

DX, AL MOV DX,

**PORTB** 

RDCOL: IN AL, DX

AND AL, OFH CMP

AL, OFH JNE

RDCOL MOV CX,

**DELAY** 

**SELF:** LOOP SELF

IN AL, DX AND

AL, OFH CMP

AL, OFH JNE

**RDCOL** 

RDAGN: IN AL,DX

AND AL, OFH

**JE RDAGN** 

**MOV DX, DELAY** 

SELF1: LOOP SELF1

IN AL, DX



AND AL, OFH

**JE RDAGN** 

**MOV AL, OFEH** 

**MOV BL, AL** 

**ENROW:** MOV DX, PORTA

**OUT DX, AL** 

**MOV DX, PORTB** 

IN AL, DX

AND AL, OFH

CMP AL, OFH

**JNE CCODE** 

ROL BL, 1

**MOV AL, BL** 

**JMP ENROW** 

CCODE: MOV CL, 0

NXTCOL: ROR AL, 1

**JNC CHKROW** 

**INC CL** 



**JMP NXTCOL** 

CHKROW: MOV DL, 0

NXTROW: ROR BL, 1

**JNC CALADR** 

ADD DL, 4

**JMP NXTROW** 

CALADR: ADD DL, CL

MOV AL, DL

LEA BX, TABLE

**XLAT** 

INT 3

**CODE ENDS** 

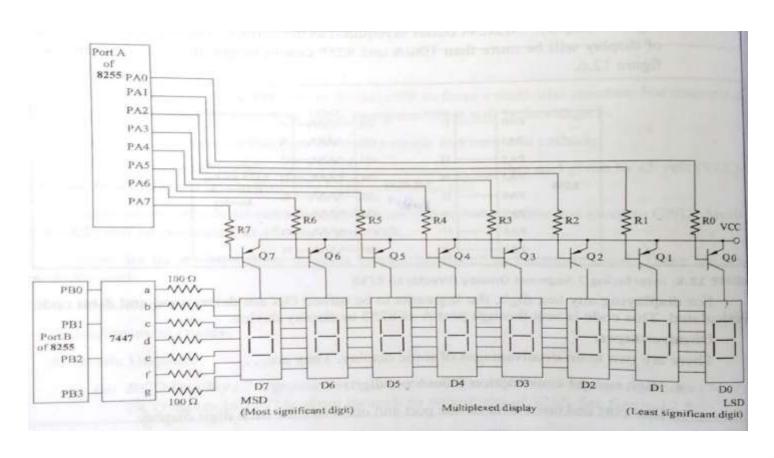
**END START** 



# **Displays**



### **Multiplexed Display:**





#### **Program for Multiplexed Display: Assume**

base address of 8255 to be FFF8H

Address of port A = FFF8H

Address of port B = FFFAH

Address of control port = FFFEH

#### Algorithm:

- 1. Turn ON Q0 (Q1 to Q7 OFF) by applying a logical low to base of Q0 as transistor.
- 2. Send seven segment code for D0 (LSD) i.e., digit 0'
- 3. After 1ms turn OFF Q0 turn on Q1, so Q] will be ON and Q0 and Q2 ~ Q7 Will be OFF.
- 4. Send seven segment code for D1 i.e., digit 1.
- 5. After 1ms turn off Q1 and turn on Q2. So Q2 will be ON and Q0 Q1 and Q3-Q7 will be OFF.
- 6. Repeat the process for all 8 digits. It completes one cycle.
- 7. Start the cycle again.



#### **Program for multiplexed Display:**

**DATA SEGMENT** 

**PORT A EQU OFFF8H** 

PORT B EQU OFFFAH

**CNTLPRT EQU OFFFEH** 

**DELAY EQU 012CH** 

**DIGITS DB 1, 2,3,4,6,7,8,9** 

DATA ENDS

**CODE SEGMENT** 

**ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA** 

START: MOV AX, DATA

**MOV DS, AX** 

**MOV DX, CNTL PRT** 

**MOV AL, 80H** 

**OUT DX, AL** 

REPEAT: MOV BH, 8

**LEA SI, DIGITS** 

MOV BL, 0FEH

**MOV AL, BL** 

MOV DX, PORT A

**OUT DX, AL** 

MOV AL, [SI]

**MOV DX, PORTB** 

**OUT DX, AL** 

**MOV CX, DELAY** 

**SELF:** LOOP SELF

**INC SI** 

ROL BL, 1

**DEC BH** 

**JNZ BACK** 

**JMP REPEAT** 

**CODE ENDS** 

**END START** 



# 8279 Stepper motor and actuators



- Stepper motor is often used in computer systems. Normally DC and AC motors move smoothly in a circular fashion.
- Stepper motor is a DC motor, specially designed, which moves in discrete or fixed step and thus complete one rotation of 360 degrees. To rotate the shaft of the motor a sequence of pulses are applied to the windings in a predefined sequence.
- The number of pulses required to complete one rotation depends on the number of teeth on the rotor. Hence rotation Per pulse sequence is 360°/NT where NT is the number of teeth on rotor.
- ▶ If NT is equal to 200 then one step rotation will be of 1.8°. The motors are generally available to move in steps of 0.9° to 30° i.e. The step size range is 0.9° -36°.



### **Programs for Stepper Motor Rotation:**

1. Program to rotate the stepper motor continuously in clockwise direction for following specification

NT = Number of teeth on rotor = 200

**Speed of motor = 12 rotations/minute.** 

**CPU frequency = 10MHz** 



**DATA SEGMENT** 

PORTC EQU 8004H

**CNTLPRT EQU 8006H** 

**DELAY EQU 14705** 

**DATA ENDS** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

**ASSUME CS: CODE, DS: DATA** 

START: MOV AX, DATA

**MOV DS, AX** 

MOV AL, 80H

**MOV DX, CNTLPORT** 

**OUT DX, AL** 



MOV AL, 33H

**MOV DX, PORTC** 

**BACK: OUT DX, AL** 

ROR AL, 1

**MOV CX, DELAY** 

**SELF: LOOP SELF** 

**DELAY LOOP FOR 25Ms** 

**JMP BACK** 

**CODE ENDS** 

**END START** 

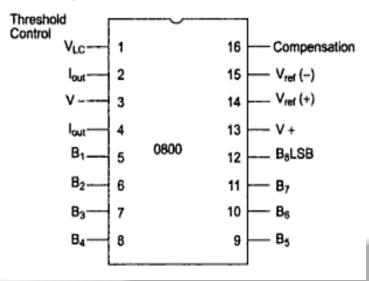


# Digital to analog converter interfacing



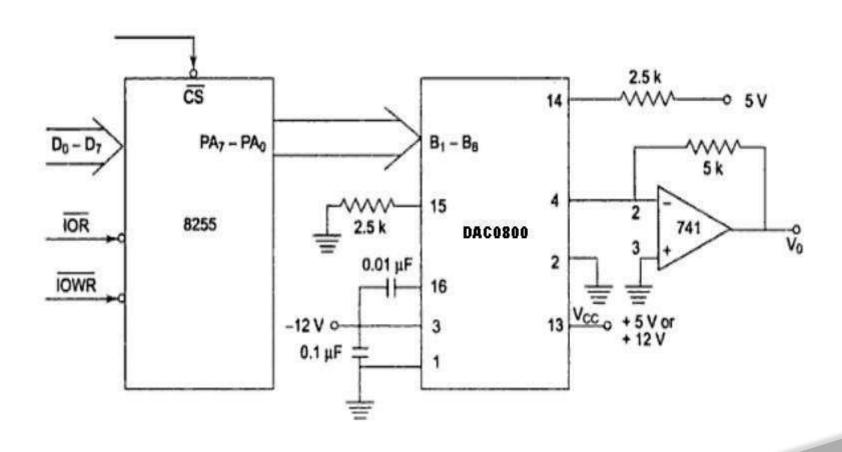
#### **DAC0800 8-bit Digital to Analog Converter**

- The DAC 0800 is a monolithic 8-bit DAC manufactured by National Semiconductor.
- It has settling time around 100ms and can operate on a range of power supply voltages i.e. from 4.5V to +18V.
- Usually the supply V+ is 5V or +12V.
- The V-pin can be kept at a minimum of -12V.



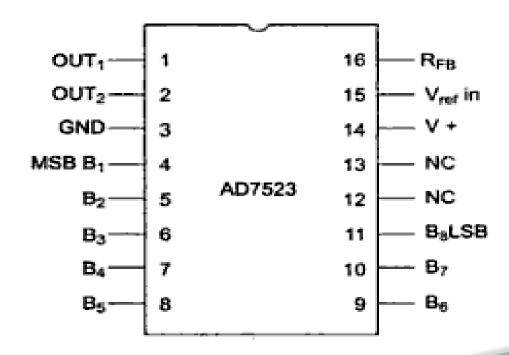
## **Interfacing DAC0808 with 8086**







Intersil"s AD 7523 is a 16 pin DIP, multiplying digital to analog converter, containing R-2R ladder(R=10K $\Omega$ ) for digital to analog conversion along with single pole double through NMOS switches to connect the digital inputs to the ladder.



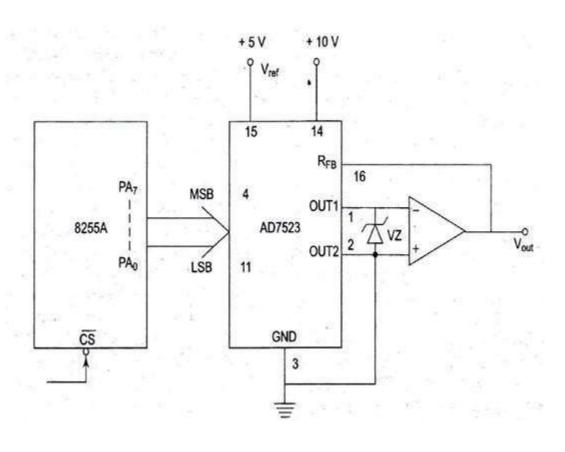


#### Pin Diagram of AD7523

- ➤ The supply range extends from +5V to +15V, while Vref may be anywhere between -10V to +10V. The maximum analog output voltage will be +10V, when all the digital inputs are at logic high state. Usually a Zener is connected between OUT1 and OUT2 to save the DAC from negative transients.
- ➤ An operational amplifier is used as a current to voltage converter at the output of AD 7523 to convert the current output of AD7523 to a proportional output voltage
- ➤ It also offers additional drive capability to the DAC output. An external feedback resistor acts to control the gain. One may not connect any external feedback resistor, if no gain control is required.

# **Interfacing of AD7523**



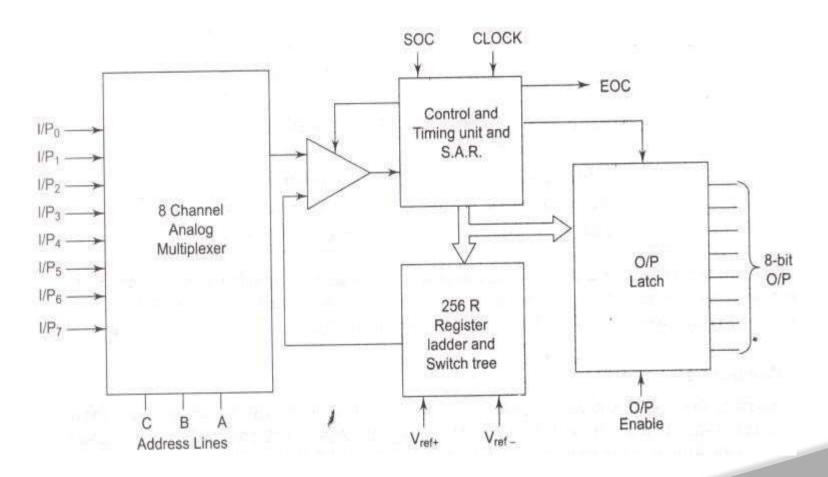




# Analog to digital converter interfacing

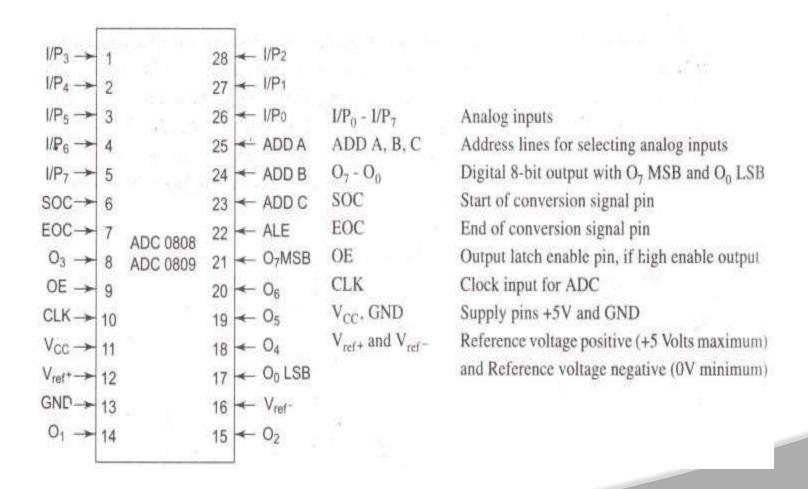


## Block Diagram of ADC 0808/0809



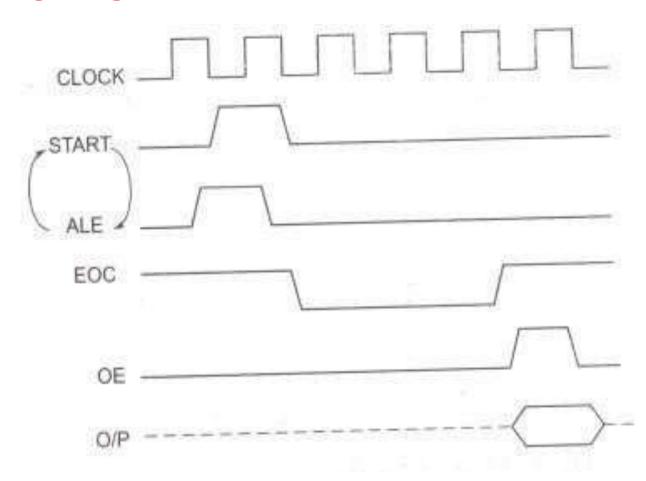


### Pin Diagram of ADC 0808/0809



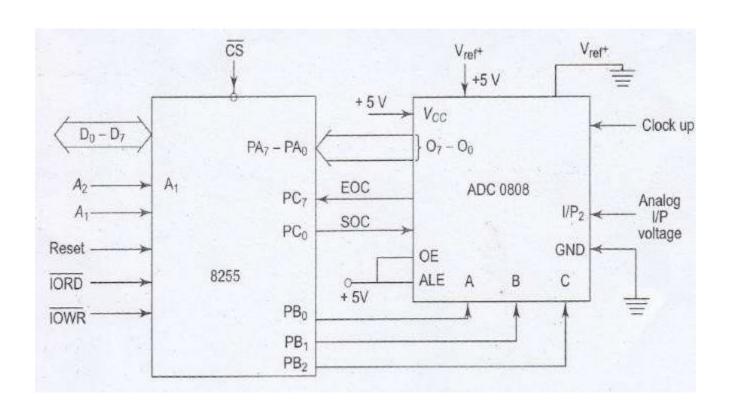


# **Timing Diagram Of ADC 0808.**



# **Interfacing ADC0808 with**







# Interrupt structure of 8086

# **Interrupt structure of 8086**



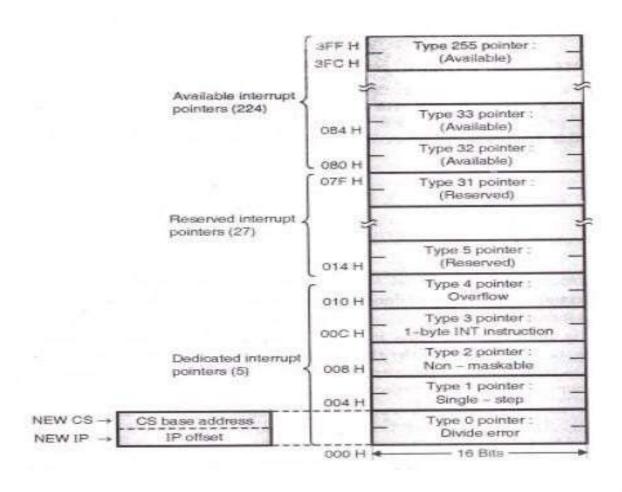
03FFh	Type 255 (Available)
Augilable	
Available 224 Interrupt	
)	202
0080h	Type 32 (Available)
00 7Fh	Type 31 Reserved
00 /F/I	Type of heserved
Reserved	**
27 Interrupt	36.6
	**
0014h	Type 5 Reserved
0010h	Type 4 Overflow interrupt
0000C	Type 3 Break point interrupt
0008h	Type 2 Non-Maskable
0004h	Type 1 Single Step
CS : IP 0000h	Type 0 Divide by Zero



# Vector interrupt table, interrupt service routines

## **Vector interrupt**







# Introduction to DOS and BIOS interrupts

#### **BIOS INTERRUPT**



#### **BIOS INTERRUPT**

- INT 10H Video Screen
  - The option is chosen by putting a specific value in register AH
  - The video screen is text mode is divided into 80 columns and 25 rows
  - A row and column number are associated with each location on the screen with the top left corner as 00,00 and the bottom right corner as 24,79. The center of the screen is at 12,39 or (0C,27 in hex)
  - Specific registers has to be set to specific values before invoking INT 10H

#### **BIOS INTERRUPT**



- Function 06 clear the screen
- AH = 06 ; function number
- AL = 00 ; page number
- BH = 07 ; normal attribute
- CH = 00 ; row value of start point
- CL = 00 ; column value of start point
- DH = 24 ; row value of ending point
- DL = 79 ; column value of ending point

- Function 02 setting the cursor to a specific location
- AH = 06 ; function number
- DH = row ; cursor
- DL = column ; position

### **BIOS INTERRUPT**



- Function 03 get the current cursor position
- AH = 03 ; function number
- BH= 00 ; currently viewed page
- The position is returned in DH = row and DL = column

- Function 0E output a character to the screen
- AH = 0E ; function number
- AL = Character to be displayed
- BH = 00 ; currently viewed page
- BL = 00 ; default foreground color

#### DOS INTERRUPT



- Function 09 outputting a string of data to the monitor
- AH = 09; function number
- DX = offset address of the ASCII data to be displayed, data segment is assumed
- The ASCII string must end with the dollar sign \$
- Function 02 outputting a single character to the monitor
- AH = 02; function number
- DL = ASCII code of the character to be displayed
- Function 01 inputting a single character, with an echo
- AH = 01; function number.After the interrupt AL = ASCII code of the input and is echoed to the monitor

# **DOS INTERRUPT**



- Function 0A inputting a string of data from the keyboard
- AH = 0A; function number
- DX = offset address at which the string of data is stored (buffer area), data
- segment is assumed and the string must end with <RETURN>
- After execution:
- DS:DX = buffer in bytes (n characters + 2)
- DS:DX+1 = number of entered characters excluding the return key
- DS:DX+2 = first character input
- • •
- DS:DX+n = last character input
- To set a buffer, use the following in the data segment:
- Buffer DB 10, ?, 10 DUP(FF)

# **DOS INTERRUPT**



- Function 07 inputting a single character from the keyboard without an echo
- AH = 07; function number
- Waits for a single character to be entered and provides it in AL
- INT16 Keyboard Programming
- Function 01 check for a key press without waiting for the user
- AH = 01
- Upon execution ZF = 0 if there is a key pressed
- Function 00 keyboard read
- $\bullet$  AH = 00
- Upon execution AL = ASCII character of the pressed key
- Note this function must follow function 01



# Need for DMA, DMA Data transfer Method

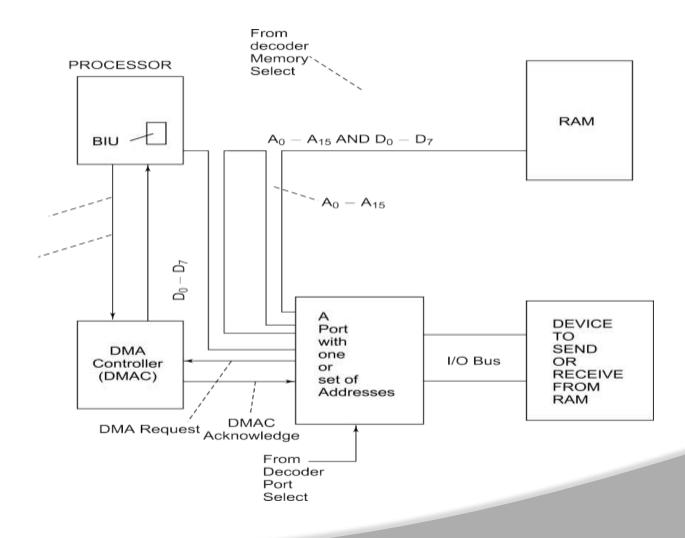
# **Need For DMA**



- Direct memory access (DMA) is a feature of modern computer systems that allows certain hardware subsystems to read/write data to/from memory without microprocessor intervention, allowing the processor to do other work.
- Used in disk controllers, video/sound cards etc, or between memory locations.
- Typically, the CPU initiates DMA transfer, does other operations while the transfer is in progress, and receives an interrupt from the DMA controller once the operation is complete.
- Can create cache coherency problems (the data in the cache may be different from the data in the external memory after DMA)









- The I/O device asserts the appropriate DRQ signal for the channel.
- The DMA controller will enable appropriate channel, and ask the CPU to release the bus so that the DMA may use the bus. The DMA requests the bus by asserting the HOLD signal which goes to the CPU.
- The CPU detects the HOLD signal, and will complete executing the current instruction. Now all of the signals normally generated by the CPU are placed in a tri-stated condition (neither high or low) and then the CPU asserts the HLDA signal which tells the DMA controller that it is now in charge of the bus.
- The CPU may have to wait (hold cycles).



- DMA activates its -MEMR, -MEMW, -IOR, -IOW output signals, and the address outputs from the DMA are set to the target address, which will be used to direct the byte that is about to transferred to a specific memory location.
- The DMA will then let the device that requested the DMA transfer know that the transfer is commencing by asserting the -DACK signal.
- The peripheral places the byte to be transferred on the bus Data lines.
- Once the data has been transferred, The DMA will de-assert the -DACK2 signal, so that the FDC knows it must stop placing data on the bus.



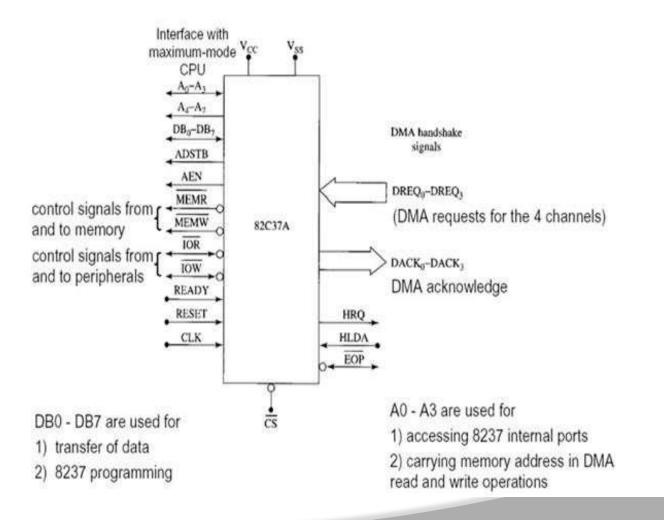
- The DMA will now check to see if any of the other DMA channels have any work to do. If none of the channels have their DRQ lines asserted, the DMA controller has completed its work and will now tri-state the -MEMR, -MEMW, -IOR, -IOW and address signals.
- Finally, the DMA will de-assert the HOLD signal. The CPU sees this, and de-asserts the HOLDA signal. Now the CPU resumes control of the buses and address lines, and it resumes executing instructions and accessing main memory and the peripherals.



# 8237-DMA Controller

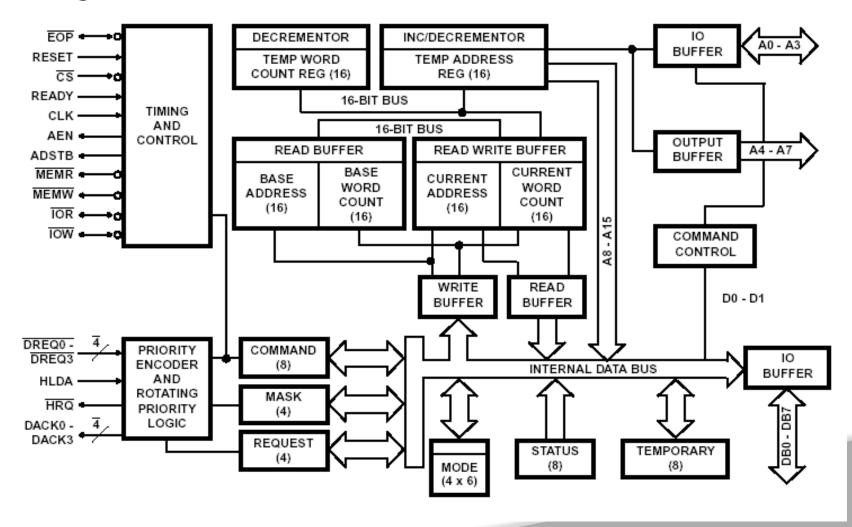
# Pin diagram







## Block Diagram





# **8237 Internal Registers**

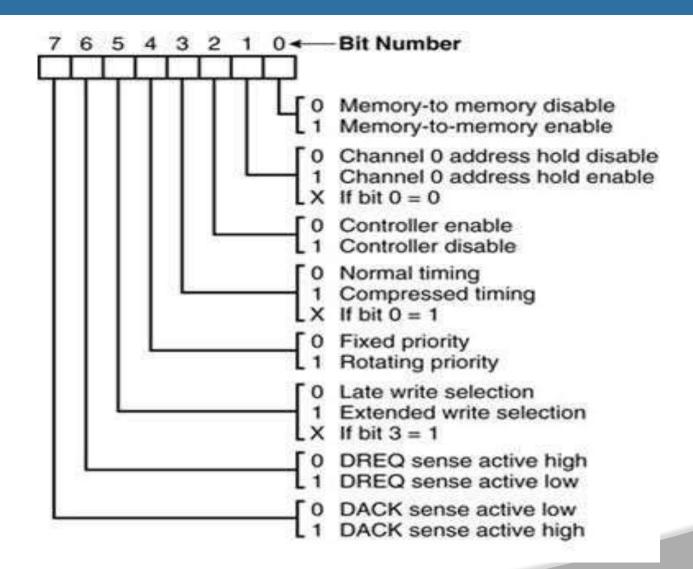
- CAR
- The current address register holds a 16-bit memory address used for the DMA transfer.
- each channel has its own current address register for this purpose.
- When a byte of data is transferred during a DMA operation, CAR is either incremented or decremented. depending on how it is programmed
- CWCR
- The current word count register programs a channel for the number of bytes to transferred during a DMA action.



# **CR(Command Register)**

- The command register programs the operation of the 8237 DMA controller.
- The register uses bit position 0 to select the memory-to-memory DMA transfer mode.
  - Memory-to-memory DMA transfers use DMA channel
  - DMA channel 0 to hold the source address
  - DMA channel 1 holds the destination address.







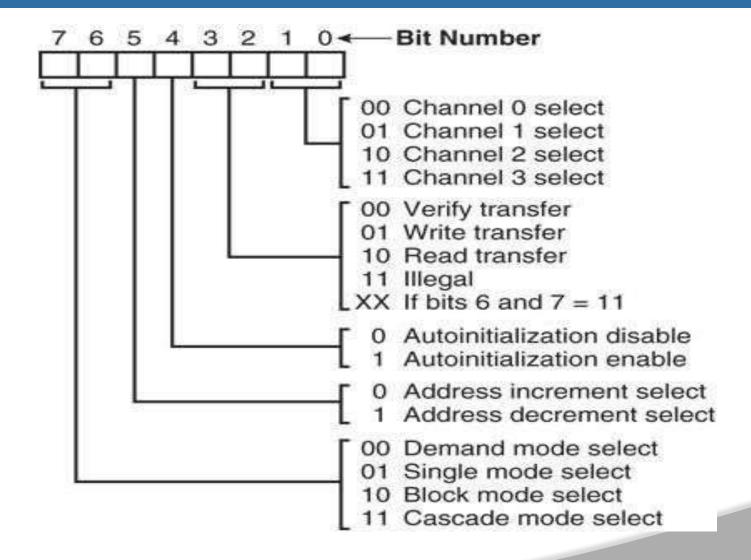
### BA and BWC

- The base address (BA) and base word count (BWC) registers are used when auto-initialization is selected for a channel.
- In auto-initialization mode, these registers are used to reload the CAR and CWCR after the DMA action is completed.

# MR\_(Mode Register)

- The mode register programs the mode of operation for a channel.
- Each channel has its own mode register as selected by bit positions 1 and 0.
  - Remaining bits of the mode register select operation, autoinitialization, increment/decrement, and mode for the channel





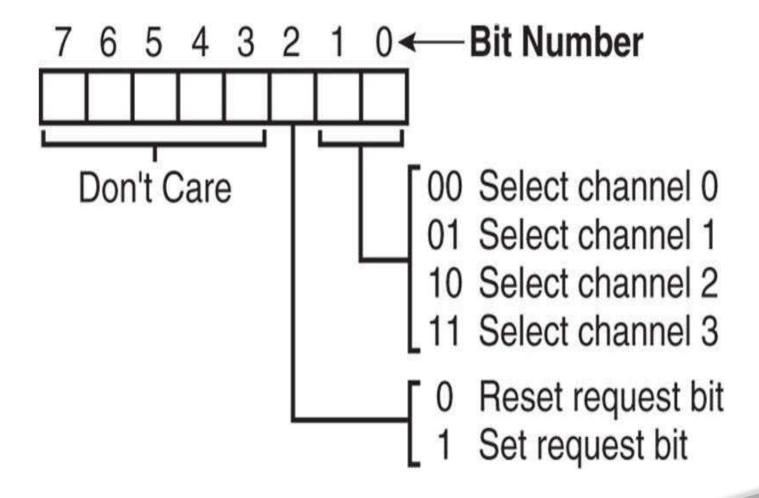


# **RR(Request Register)**

- The request register is used to request a DMA transfer via software.
- very useful in memory-to-memory transfers, where an external signal is not available to begin the DMA transfer

# **Request Register**

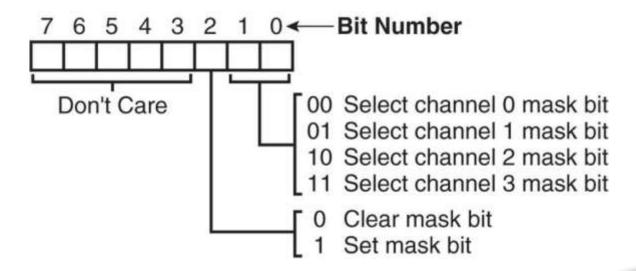




# MR(Mask Register)



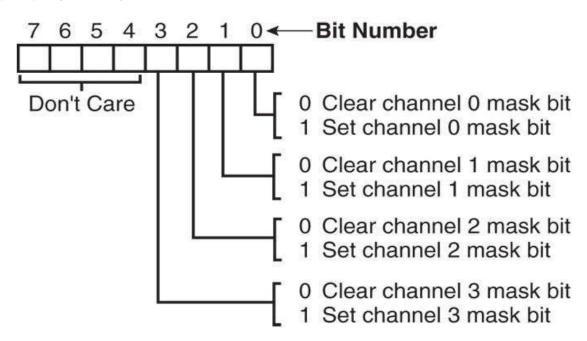
- The mask register set/reset sets or clears the channel mask.
- if the mask is set, the channel is disabled.
- The RESET signal sets all channel masks to disable them





### **MSR**

The mask register clears or sets all of the masks with one command instead of individual channels, as with the MRSR.



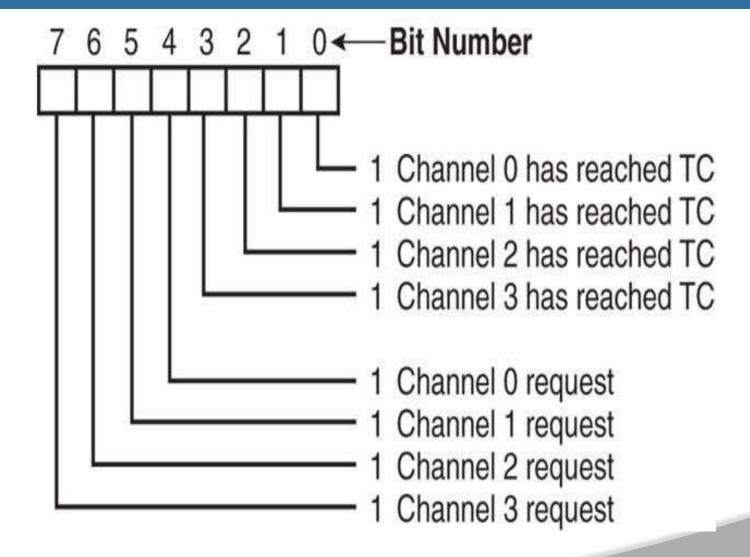
# **SR(Status Register)**



- The status register shows status of each DMA channel. The TC bits indicate if the channel has reached its terminal count (transferred all its bytes).
- When the terminal count is reached, the DMA transfer is terminated for most modes of operation.
- The request bits indicate whether the DREQ input for a given channel is active.

# **Status Register**







# **DMA Controller-8257**

# Features of 8257

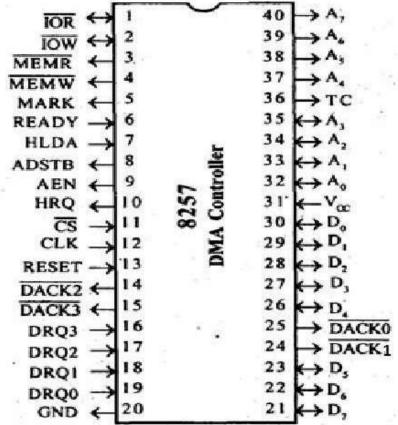


- Here is a list of some of the prominent features of 8257 –
- It has four channels which can be used over four I/O devices.
- Each channel has 16-bit address and 14-bit counter.
- Each channel can transfer data up to 64kb.
- Each channel can be programmed independently.
- Each channel can perform read transfer, write transfer and verify transfer operations.
- It generates MARK signal to the peripheral device that 128 bytes have
- been transferred.
- It requires a single phase clock.
- Its frequency ranges from 250Hz to 3MHz.



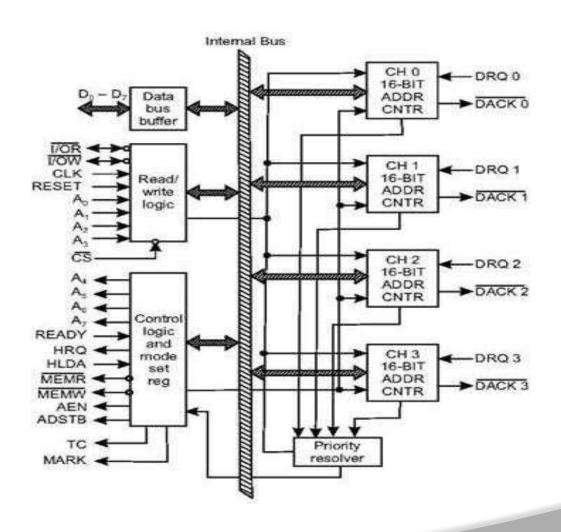
# **8257 Pin Description**

The following image shows the pin diagram of a 8257 DMA controller



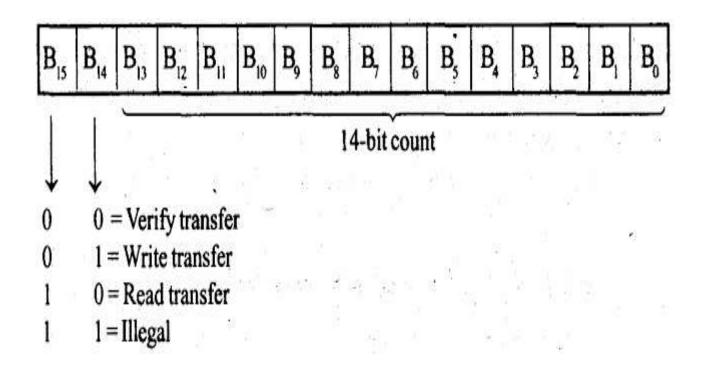
# **Block Diagram of 8257**





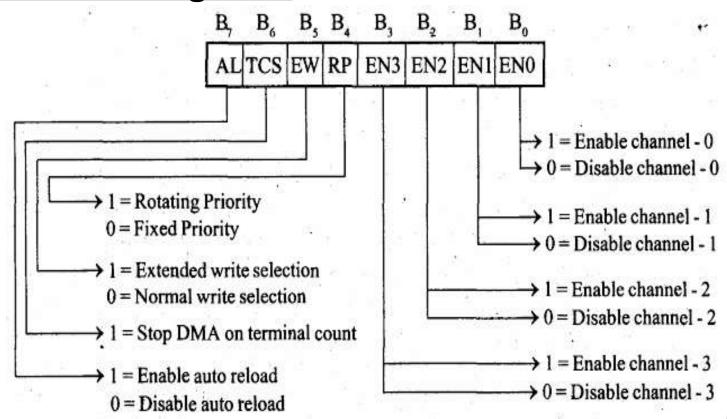


# **Terminal Count Register:**



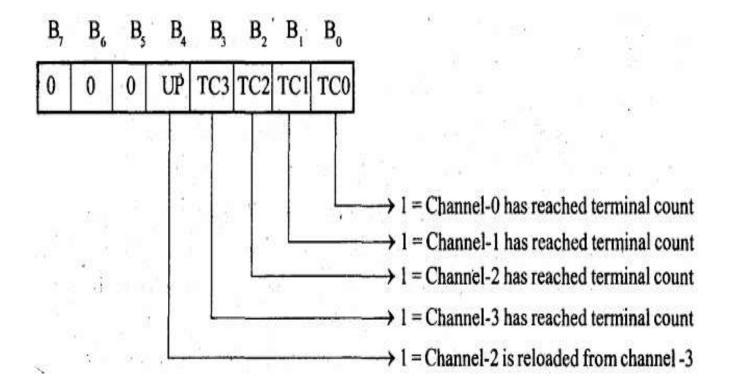


# Mode Set Register:





# Status Register:





Dogistan		Address			
Register	$\mathbf{A}_{3}$	A <sub>2</sub>	A <sub>1</sub>	A	
Channel-0 DMA address register ·	0 -	0	0	0	
Channel-0 Count register	0	. 0	0	1	
Channel-1 DMA address register	0	0	1	0	
Channel-1 Count register	0	0	1	1	
Channel-2 DMA address register	0	1	0	0	
Channel-2 Count register	. 0	1	0	1	
Channel-3 DMA address register	0	1	1	0	
Channel-3 Count register	0	1	1	1	
Mode set register (Write only)	1	0	0	0	
Status register (Read only)	1	0	0	0	



# UNIT-IV SERIAL DATA TRANSFER SCHEMES



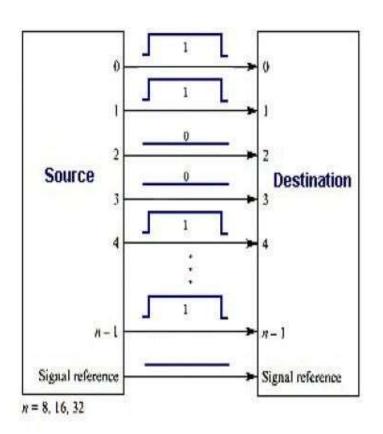
# **COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

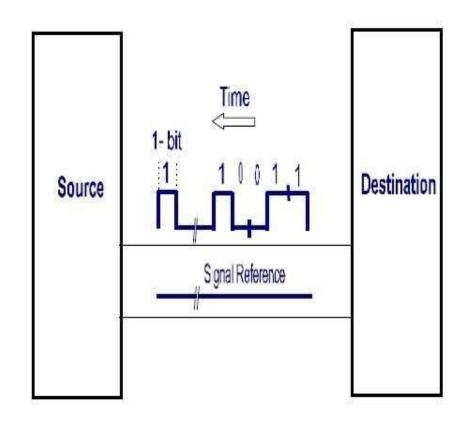
CLO13	Analyze and understand various synchronous and asynchronous serial data transfer schemes in 8086.			
CLO14	Develop and design the interfacing circuit diagram of 8251USART with 8086 processor.			
CLO15	Understand the high- speed serial communications standards, USB.			



# Asynchronous and synchronous data transfer schemes







**Parallel Transmission** 

**Serial Transmission** 



- Even in shorter distance communications, serial computer buses are becoming more common because of a tipping point where the disadvantages of parallel busses (clock skew, interconnect density) outweigh their advantage of simplicity.
- The serial port on your PC is a full-duplex device meaning that it can send and receive data at the same time. In order to be able to do this, it uses separate lines for transmitting and receiving data.



# **Advantages of serial communications:**

- Requires fewer interconnecting cables and hence occupies less space.
- "Cross talk" is less of an issue, because there are fewer conductors compared to that of parallel communication cables.
- Many IC s and peripheral devices have serial interfaces.
- Clock skew between different channels is not an issue.
- Cheaper to implement.



- SERIAL DATA TRANSMISSION MODES
  - When data is transmitted between two pieces of equipment, three communication modes of operation can be used.
- Simplex: In a simple connection, data is transmitted in one direction only. For example, from a computer to printer that cannot send status signals back to the computer.
- Half-duplex: In a half-duplex connection, two-way transfer of data is possible, but only in one direction at a time.
- Full duplex: In a full-duplex configuration, both ends can send and receive data simultaneously, which technique is common in our PCs.



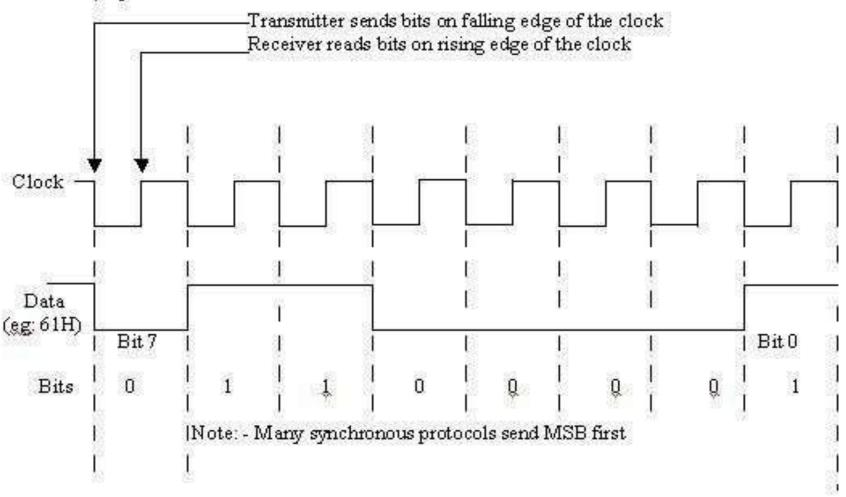
SERIAL DATA TRANSFER SCHEMS

- There are two ways to synchronize the two ends of the communication.
  - Synchronous data transmission
  - Asynchronous data transmission



## **Synchronous Data Transmission**

1) Synchronous Transmission: -





• The synchronous signaling methods use two different signals. A pulse on one signal line indicates when another bit of information is ready on the other signal line.

• In synchronous transmission, the stream of data to be transferred is encoded and sent on one line, and a periodic pulse of voltage which is often called the "clock" is put on another line, that tells the receiver about the beginning and the ending of each bit



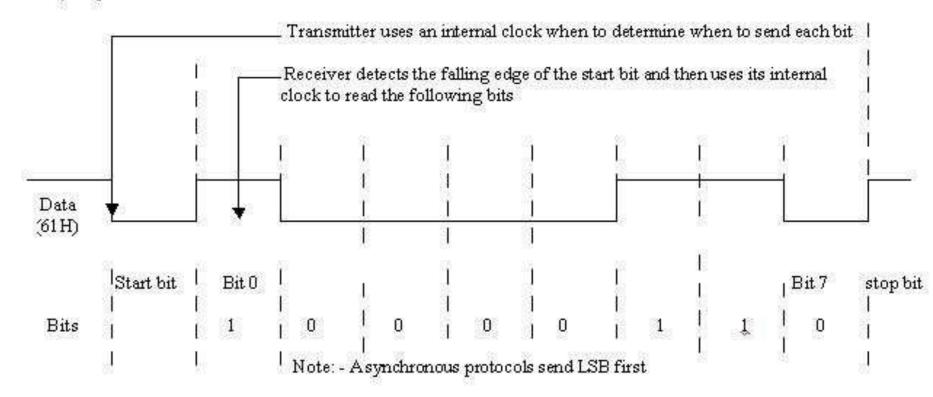
<u>Advantages</u>: The only advantage of synchronous data transfer is the Lower overhead and thus, greater throughput, compared to asynchronous one.

### Disadvantages:

- Slightly more complex
- Hardware is more expensive



#### 2) Asynchronous Transmission: -





- The asynchronous signaling methods use only one signal. The receiver uses transitions on that signal to figure out the transmitter bit rate (known as auto baud) and timing.
- A pulse from the local clock indicates when another bit is ready. That means synchronous transmissions use an external clock, while asynchronous transmissions are use special signals along the transmission medium.



Asynchronous communication is the commonly prevailing communication method in the personal computer industry, due to the reason that it is easier to implement and has the unique advantage that bytes can be sent whenever they are ready, no need to wait for blocks of data to accumulate.



### **Advantages:**

- Simple and doesn't require much synchronization on both communication sides. The timing is not as critical as for synchronous transmission; therefore hardware can be made cheaper.
- Set-up is very fast, so well suited for applications where messages are generated at irregular intervals, for example data entry from the keyboard.



#### **Disadvantages:**

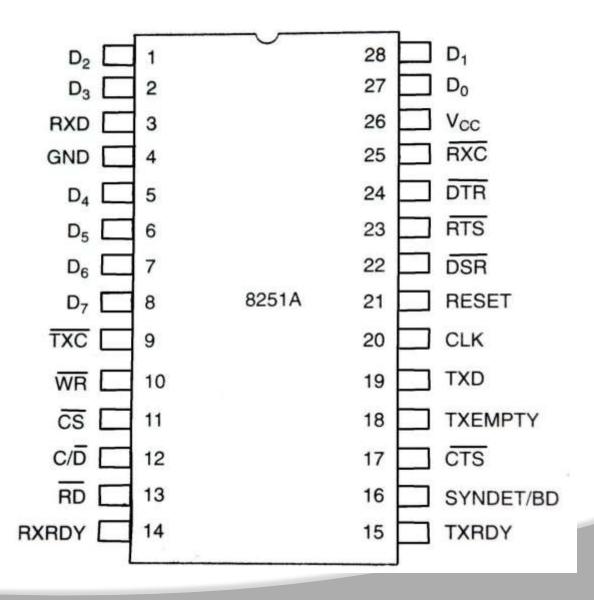
• One of the main disadvantages of asynchronous technique is the large relative overhead, where a high proportion of the transmitted bits are uniquely for control purposes and thus carry no useful information.



# Introduction to 8251 (USART)

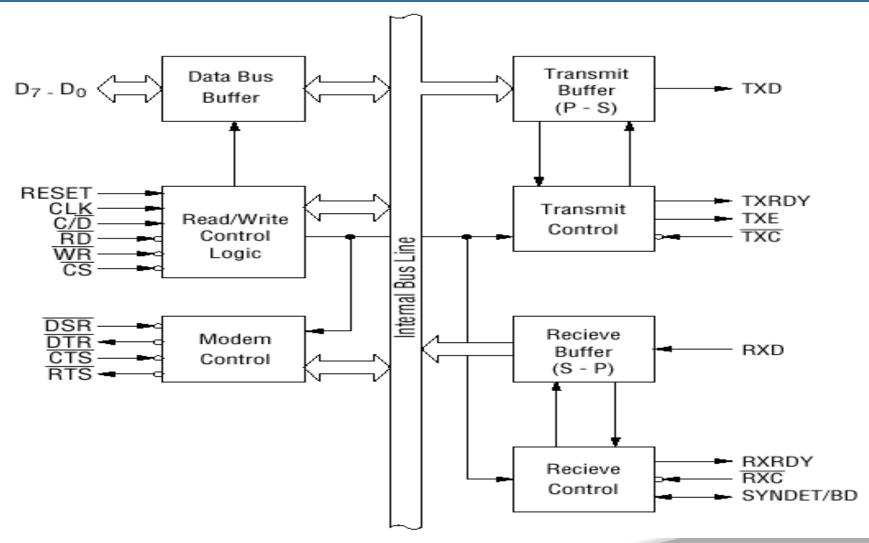
# Pin diagram of 8251





# Block diagram of 8251





#### **Sections of 8251A**



- Data Bus buffer
- Read/Write Control Logic
- Modem Control
- Transmitter
- ➤ CS Chip Select
  - Receiver

#### **Data Bus Buffer**

D0-D7: 8-bit data bus used to read or write status, command word or data

#### **Read/Write Control logic**

- ➤ C/D Control/Data
- > WR: When signal is low, the MPU either writes.
- > RD: When signal goes low, the MPU either reads.
- > RESET: A high on this signal reset 8252A.



### **Control Register**

- ➤ 16-bit register for a control word consist of two independent bytes namely mode word & command word.
- Mode word : Specifies the general characteristics of operation such as baud, parity, number of bits etc.
- Command word : Enables the data transmission and reception.
- Register can be accessed as an output port when the Control/Data pin is high.

#### **Status register**

- Checks the ready status of the peripheral.
- Status word register provides the information concerning register status and transmission errors.



## **Data register**

➤ Used as an input and output port when the C/D is low.

CS	C/D	RD	WR	
1	X	Х	X	Data Bus 3-State
0	X	1	1	Data Bus 3-State
0	1	0	1	Status → CPU
0	1	1	0	Control Word ← CPU
0	0	0	1	Data → CPU
0	0	1	0	Data ← CPU



# 8251 USART Architecture



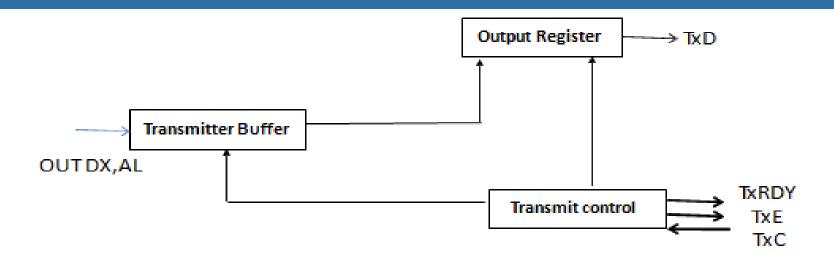
#### **Modem Control**

- DSR Data Set Ready : Checks if the Data Set is ready when communicating with a modem.
- ➤DTR Data Terminal Ready : Indicates that the device is ready to <u>accept</u> data when the 8251 is communicating with a modem.
- > CTS Clear to Send: If its low, the 8251A is enabled to transmit the serial data provided the enable bit in the command byte is set to '1'.
- > RTS Request to Send Data: Low signal indicates the modem that the receiver is ready to receive a data byte from the modem.

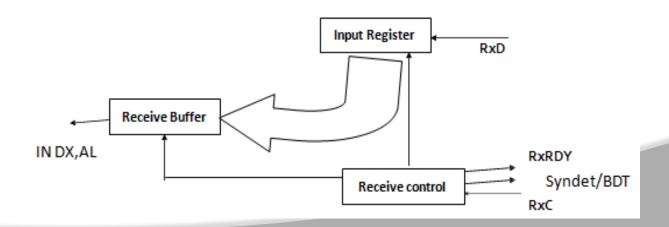
#### Transmitter section

- Accepts parallel data from MPU & converts them into serial data.
- Has two registers:
- Buffer register : To hold eight bits
- Output register: To convert eight bits into a stream of serial bits.



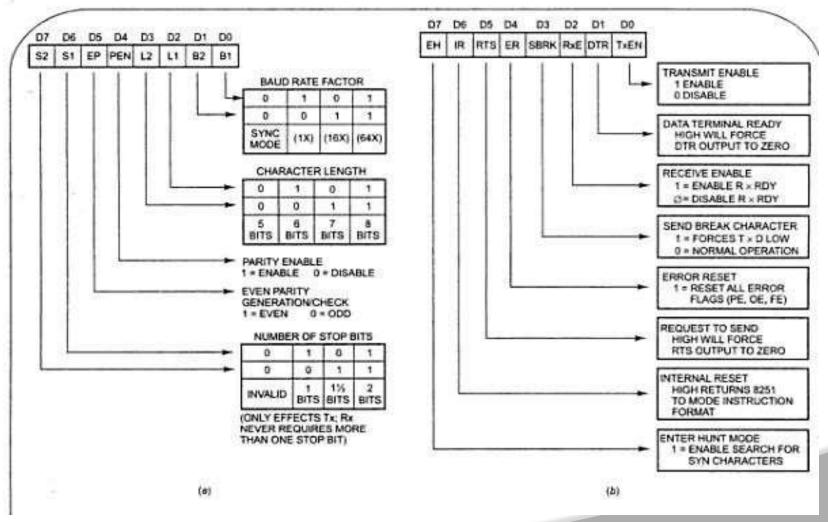


#### **Receiver Section**

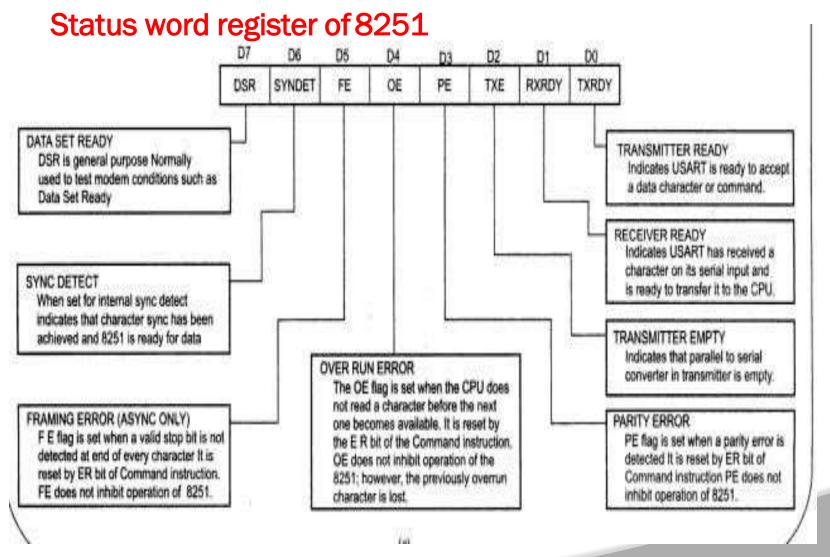




#### Mode word & command word for 8251







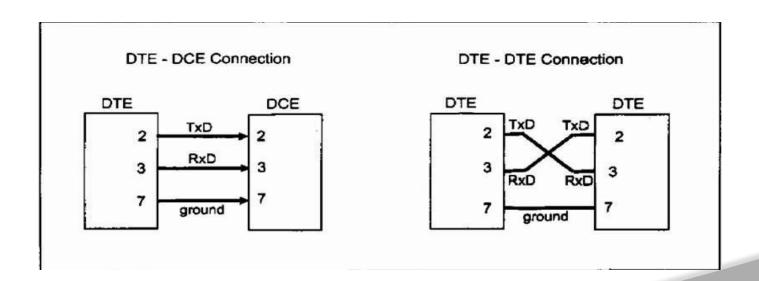


# TTL to RS 232C and RS232C to TTL conversion



#### RS-232 defines serial, asynchronous communication

- Serial bits are encoded and transmitted one at a time (as opposed to parallel transmission)
- Asynchronous characters can be sent at any time and bits are not individually synchronized





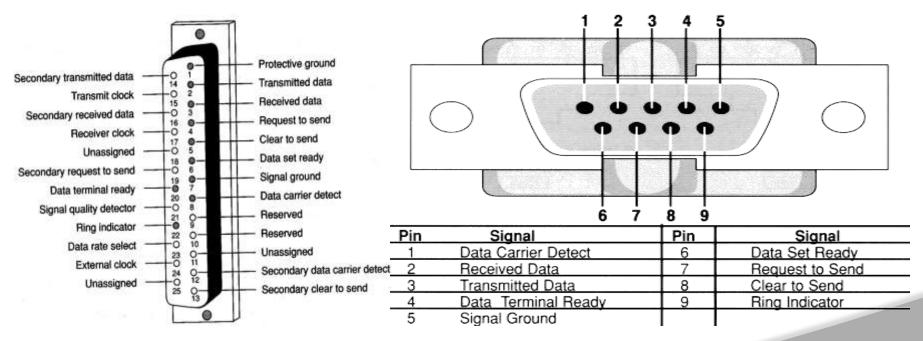
#### **Electrical Characteristics**

- Single-ended
  - One wire per signal, voltage levels are with respect to system common (i.e. signal ground)
- ➤ Mark: -3V to -15V
  - represent Logic 1, Idle State (OFF)
- Space: +3 to +15V
  - represent Logic 0, Active State (ON)
- Usually swing between -12V to+12V
- Recommended maximum cable length is 15m, at 20kbps



#### **Mechanical Characteristics**

- 25-pin connector
- Use male connector on DTE and female connector on DCE.



25-Pin RS232 Connector

9-Pin RS232 Connector



#### **Function of Signals**

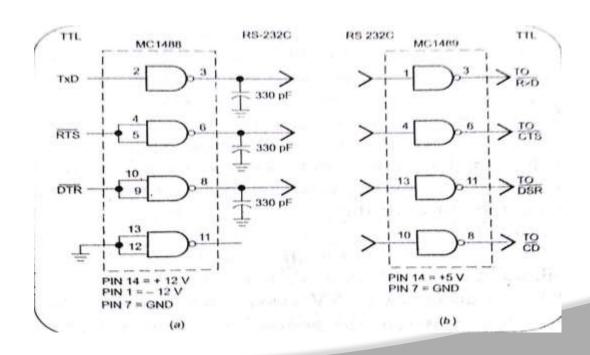
- TD: transmitted data
- RD: receiveddata
- DSR: data set ready
  - indicate whether DCE is poweredon.
- DTR: data terminal ready
  - indicate whether DTR is powered on
  - turning off DTR causes modem to hang up the line
- > RI: ring indicator
  - ON when modem detects phone call.
- DCD: data carrier detect
  - ON when two modems have negotiated successfully and the carrier signal is established on the phoneline.



- RTS: request to send
  - ON when DTE wants to send data
  - Used to turn on and off modem's carrier signal in multi-point (i.e. multi-drop) lines
  - Normally constantly ON in point-to-point lines
- CTS: clear to send
  - ON when DCE is ready to receive data.
  - > SG: signal ground



Voltage levels, slew rate, and short-circuit behavior are typically controlled by a line driver(MC 1488) that converts from the USART's logic levels (TTL levels) to RS-232 compatible signal levels, and a receiver (MC 1489) that converts RS-232 compatible signal levels to the USART's logic levels (TTL levels).





# Sample program of serial data transfer



Assembly Language Program to transmit 100 bytes of data string starting at location 2000:5000H.

Asynchronous mode control word for transmitting 100 bytes of data:

		Enable	ed f	ormat			
2 Sto	p bits	Even	Parity	8-bit		CLK	scaled
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0 = FEH
D7	D6	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1	D0



#### **ASSUME CS: CODE**

#### **CODE SEGMENT**

START: MOV AX, 2000H

MOV DS,AX; DS points to byte string segment

MOV SI,5000H; SI points to byte string

MOV CL,64H; Length of string in CL (hex)

MOV AL, OFEH; Mode control word to D0 – D7

**OUT OFEH,AL** 

MOV AX,11H; Load command word

OUT OFE, AL; to transmit enable and error reset

WAIT: IN AL, OFEH; Read status



AND AL,01H; Check transmitter enable

JZ WAIT; bit, if zero wait for the transmitter to be ready

MOV AL,[SI]; If ready, first byte of string data

OUT OFCH, AL; is transmitted

INC SI; Point to next byte

DEC CL; Decrement counter

JNZ WAIT; If CL is not zero, go for next byte

MOV AH,4CH

**INT 21H** 

**CODE ENDS** 

**END START** 



# Assembly Language Program to receive 100 bytes of data string and store it at 3000:4000.

**ASSUME CS:CODE** 

**CODE SEGMENT** 

START: MOV AX,3000H

MOV DS,AX; Data segment set to 3000H

MOV SI,4000H; Pointer to destination offset

MOV CL,64H; Byte count in CL

MOV AL,7EH; Only one stop bit for

OUT OFEH, AL; receiver is set

MOV AL,14H; Load command word to enable



OUT OFEH, AL; the receiver and disable transmitter

NXTBT: IN AL,OFEH; Read status

AND AL,38H; Check FE, OE and PE

JZ READY; If zero, jump to READY

MOV AL,14H; If not zero, clear them

**OUT OFEH,AL** 

READY: IN AL, OFEH; Check RXRDY, if receiver is not ready

AND AL,02H

JZ READY; wait

IN AL, OFCH; If it is ready,



MOV [SI],AL; receive the character

INC SI; Increment pointer to next byte

DEC CL; Decrement counter

JNZ NXTBT; Repeat, if CL is not zero

MOV AH, 4CH

**INT 21H** 

CODE ENDS

**END START** 



# Sample program of serial data transfer



#### **Program To Test 8251 Receiving Part**

**DSEG SEGMENT** 

ORG 0000: 3000H

**DSEG ENDS** 

**CSEG SEGMENT** 

ORG 0000: 4000H

ASSUME CS: CSEG, DS: DSEG

START: MOV AX, 00H

MOV SS, AX

MOV SP, 2000H

MOV DS, AX

CLI

CLD

MOV BX, 0202H

**PUSH CS** 

POP AX



MOV [BX], AX MOV BX, 200H LEA AX, CS: SRVC2 MOV [BX], AX MOV DX, FFD8H ; ICW1 MOV AL, 13H OUT DX, AL MOV DX, FFDAH MOV AL, 80H OUT DX, AL MOV AL, OFH OUT DX, AL MOV AL, OFEH OUT DX, AL MOV BX, EXT\_RAM\_LC MOV DX, CTL 8253



MOV AL, 76H OUT DX, AL MOV DX, TMR1\_8253 MOV AL, <CNT\_BAUD\_9600\_MODE16 OUT DX, AL MOV AL, >CNT\_BAUD\_9600\_MODE16 OUT DX, AL STI MOV DX, CTL\_8251 MOV AL, 00H OUT DX, AL **NOP NOP NOP** 

**NOP** 



OUT DX, AL

**NOP** 

**NOP** 

**NOP** 

NOP

OUT DX, AL

MOV DX, CTL\_8251

MOV AL, 40H

OUT DX, AL

NOP

NOP

NOP

NOP

MOV DX, CTL\_8251

MOV AL, MODE\_WORD16

OUT DX, AL



NOP

NOP

NOP

NOP

MOV DX, CTL\_8251

MOV AL, 36H

OUT DX, AL

BACK1: NOP

JMP BACK1

SRVC2: MOV DX, DATA\_8251

IN AL, DX

IN AL, DX

NOP

NOP

NOP

NOP



CMP AL, ODH

JNZ AHEAD2

MOV AH, 00

MOV SI, AX

**CALL FAR DBDT** 

MOV BX, EXT\_RAM\_LC

**JMP TERM** 

AHEAD2: MOV [BX], AL

INC BX

TERM: STI

**IRET** 

**CSEG ENDS** 

**END** 



# Introduction to high speed serial communications standards, USB



#### **USB Features:**

- ➤ Simple Connectivity
- ➤ Simple cables
- ➤ One interface for many devices
- ➤ Automatic configuration
- ➤ No user Setting
- ➤ Hot pluggable
- > Data transfer rates
- ➤ Coexistence with IEEE 1394
- ➤ Reliability
- > Low cost
- > Low power consumption
- > Flexibility
- ➤ Operating system support



#### **USB System:**

The Figure shows the basic components of USB system. It consists of USB host, USB device and USB cable. The USB host is a personal computer (PC) and devices are scanner, printer etc. There will be only one host in the USB system; however there can be 127 devices in the USB system.



#### **Cables:**

- ➤ USB cables are designed to ensure correct connections are always made. By having different connectors on host and devices, it is possible to connect, two hosts or two devices together.
- ➤USB requires a shielded cable containing 4 wires. Two of these, D+ and D-, from a twisted pair responsible for carrying a differential data signal, as well as some single-ended signal states. The signals on these two wires are referenced to the (third) GND wire.
- The fourth wire is called VBUS, and carries a nominal 5V supply, which may be used by a device for power.



#### **CLASSIFICATION:**

Modes of Data Transfer can be broadly divided into two types:

- 1. PARALLEL TRANSFER
- 2. SERIAL TRANSFER

Modes of Data Transfer can also be divided into

- 1. SYNCHRONOUS TRANSMISSION
- 2. ASYNCHRONOUS TRANSMISSION



#### **USB HOST:**

The USB host communicates with the devices using a USB host controller. The host is responsible for detecting and enumerating devices, managing bus access, performing error checking, providing and managing power, and exchanging data with the devices.

#### **USB DEVICE:**

A USB device implements one or more USB functions where a function provides one specific capability to the system. Examples of USB functions are keyboards, webcam, speakers, or a mouse. The requirements of the USB functions are described in the USB class specification.



#### **CONTROL TRANSFERS:**

Control transfers are used to configure and retrieve information about the device capabilities.

- **a. BULK TRANSFERS**: Bulk transfers are intended for devices that exchange large amounts of data where the transfer can take all of the available bus bandwidth.
- **b. INTERRUPT TRANSFERS**: Interrupt transfers are designed to support devices with latency constrains.
- **c. ISOCHRONOUS TRANSFERS**:: Isochronous transfers are used by devices that require data delivery at a constant rate with a certain degree of error-tolerance.



## UNIT-V ADVANCED MICROPROCESSORS



#### **COURSE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

CLO16	Understand basic architecture of 16 bit and 32 bit microprocessors with the help of GDT, LDT and multitasking and addressing modes.
CLO17	Flag register 80386: Architecture, register organization, memory access in protected mode
CLO18	Analyze the various advanced microprocessors internal architectures for 80X86 by paging and technical features.



# 80286 Microprocessor Architecture



#### Salient features of 80286

- High performance microprocessor with memory management and protection
- 80286 is the first member of the family of advanced microprocessors with built-in/on-chip memory management and protection abilities primarily designed for multiuser/multitasking systems
- Available in 8 MHz, 10 MHz & 12.5 MHz clock frequencies
- 80286 is upwardly compatible with 8086 in terms of instruction set.
- 80286 have two operating modes namely real address mode and virtual address mode.



#### Salient features of 80286:

- In real address mode, the 80286 can address up to 1Mb of physical memory address like 8086.
- In virtual address mode, it can address up to 16 Mb of physical memory address space and 1 GB of virtual memory address space.
- 80286 has some extra instructions to support operating system and memory management.
- In protected virtual address mode, it is source code compatible with 8086.
- The performance of 80286 is five times faster than the standard 8086.



#### **Bus and memory sizes**

- The 80286 CPU, with its 24-bit address bus is able to address 16MB of physical memory.
- 1GB of virtual memory for each task

Microprocessor	Data bus width	Address bus width	Memory size
8086	16	20	1M
80186	16	20	<b>1M</b>
80286	16	24	16M



#### **Operating Modes:**

Intel 80286 has 2 operating modes:

#### **Real Address Mode:**

- > 80286 is just a fast 8086 --- up to 6 times faster
- All memory management and protection mechanisms are disabled
- 286 is object code compatible with 8086

#### **Protected Virtual Address Mode**

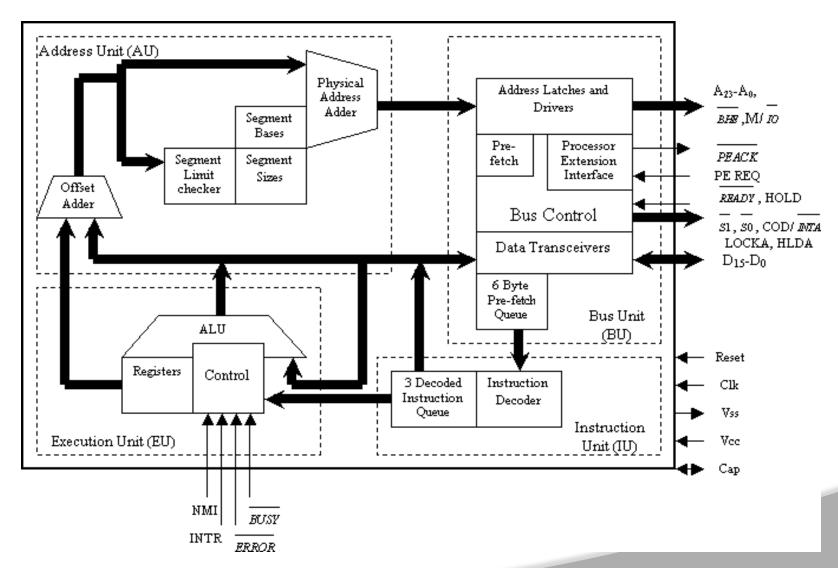
- 80286 works with all of its memory management and protection capabilities with the advanced instruction set.
- it is source code compatible with 8086



# 80286 Microprocessor Architecture(cont.)

#### 80286 Architecture:







#### **Functional Parts:**

- 1. Bus Interface unit
- 2.Instruction unit
- 3. Execution unit
- 4. Address unit



#### **Bus Interface Unit**

- Performs all memory and I/O read and write operations.
- Take care of communication between CPU and a coprocessor.
- > Transmit the physical address over address bus  $A_0 A_{23}$ .
- Prefetcher module in the bus unit performs this task of prefetching.
- Bus controller controls the prefetcher module.
- Fetched instructions are arranged in a 6 byte prefetch queue.



#### **Instruction Unit**

- Receive arranged instructions from 6 byte prefetch queue.
- Instruction decoder decodes up to 3 prefetched instruction and are latched them onto a decoded instruction queue.
- Output of the decoding circuit drives a control circuit in the Execution unit.



#### **Execution unit**

- > EU executes the instructions received from the decoded instruction queue sequentially.
- Contains Register Bank.
- contains one additional special register called Machine status
   word (MSW) register --- lower 4 bits are only used.
- ALU is the heart of execution unit.
- After execution ALU sends the result either over data bus or back to the register bank.



#### **Address Unit**

- Calculate the physical addresses of the instruction and data that the CPU want to access
- Address lines derived by this unit may be used to address different peripherals.
- Physical address computed by the address unit is handed over to the BUS unit.



### Registers (Real/Protected mode)

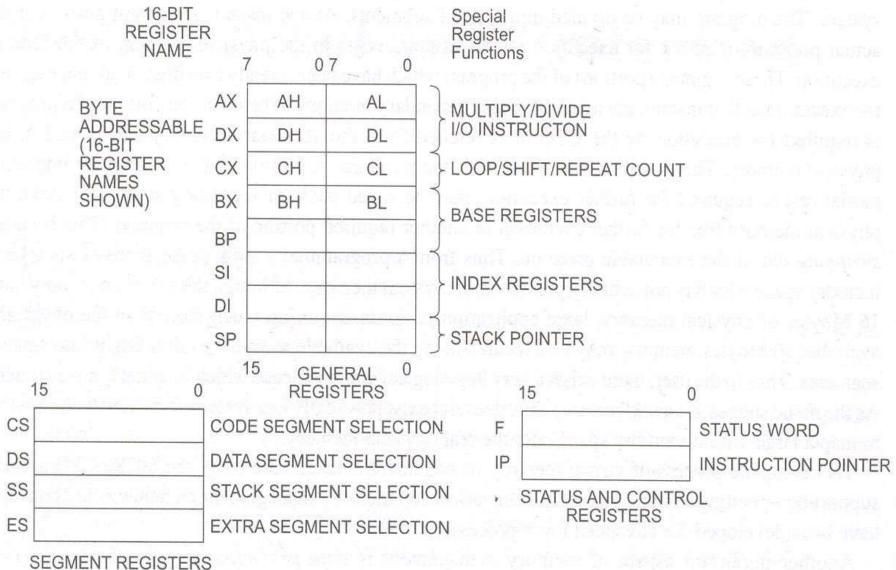


#### **REGISTER ORGANIZATION OF 80286:**

The 80286 CPU contains almost the same set of registers, as in 8086, namely

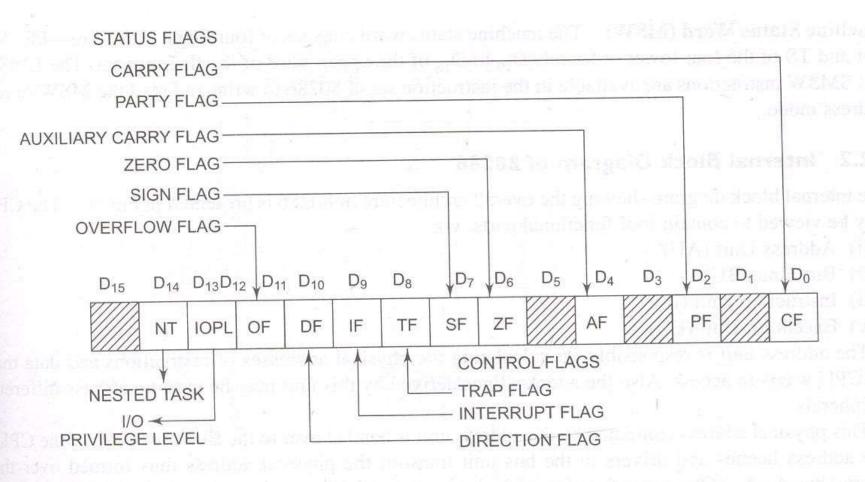
- Eight 16-bit general purpose registers (AX, BX, CX, DX)
- Four 16-bit segment registers (CS, SS, DS, ES)
- > Status and control registers (SP, BP, SI, DI)
- ➤ Instruction Pointer (IP)
- ➤ Two 16-bit register FLAGS, MSW
- ➤ Two 16-bit register LDTR and TR
- > Two 48-bit register GDTR and IDTR





### Flag Register







- The initial protected mode, released with the 286, was not widely used;
- for example, it was used by Microsoft xenix (around 1984),coherent and minix. Several shortcomings such as the inability to access the BIOS or DOS calls due to inability to switch back to real mode without resetting the processor prevented widespread usage.
- Acceptance was additionally hampered by the fact that the 286 only allowed memory access in 16 bit segments via each of four segment registers, meaning only 4\*2 bytes, equivalent to 256 kilobytes, could be accessed at a time Because changing a segment register in protected mode caused a 6-byte segment descriptor to be loaded into the CPU from memory



• The segment register load instruction took many tens of processor cycles, making it much slower than on the 8086; therefore, the strategy of computing segment addresses on-the-fly in order to access data structures larger than 128 kilobytes (the combined size of the two data segments) became impractical, even for those few programmers who had mastered it on the 8086/8088



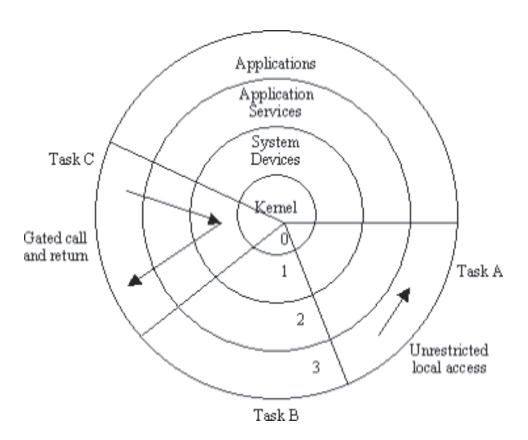
### Privilege levels



#### There are four types of privilege levels

- 00 kernel level (highest privilege level)
- 01 OS services
- 10 OS extensions
- 11 Applications (lowest privilege level)
- Each task assigned a privilege level, which indicates the priority or privilege of that task.
- It can only changed by transferring the control, using gate descriptors, to a new segment.
- A task executing at level 0, the most privileged level, can access all the data segment defined in GDT and LDT of the task.
- A task executing at level 3, the least privileged level, will have the most limited access to data and other descriptors.







# **Descriptor cache**



#### **Base Address**

- 32 bit starting memory address of the segment Segment Limit
- 20 bit length of the segment. (More specifically, the address of the last accessible data, so the length is one more that the value stored here.) How exactly this should be interpreted depends on other bits of the segment descriptor.

#### **G=Granularity**

If clear, the limit is in units of bytes, with a maximum of 2<sup>20</sup> bytes. If set, the limit is in units of 4096-byte pages, for a maximum of 2<sup>32</sup> bytes.



#### **Base Address**

- D=Default operand size

  If clear, this is a 16-bit code segment; if set, this is a 32-bit segment
- L=Long-mode segment If set, this is a 64-bit segment (and D must be zero), and code in this segment uses the 64-bit instruction encoding
- AVL=Available
   For software use, not used by hardware
- D=Default operand size

  If clear, this is a 16-bit code segment; if set, this is a 32-bit segment
- L=Long-mode segment
   If set, this is a 64-bit segment (and D must be zero), and code in this segment uses the 64-bit instruction encoding
- AVL=Available
   For software use, not used by hardware



#### **P=Present**

 If clear, a "segment not present" exception is generated on any reference to this segment

#### **DPL=Descriptor privilege level**

Privilege level required to access this descriptor

#### **C=Conforming**

Code in this segment may be called from less-privileged levels

#### R=Readable

If clear, the segment may be executed but not read from

#### A=Accessed

 This bit is set to 1 by hardware when the segment is accessed, and cleared by software





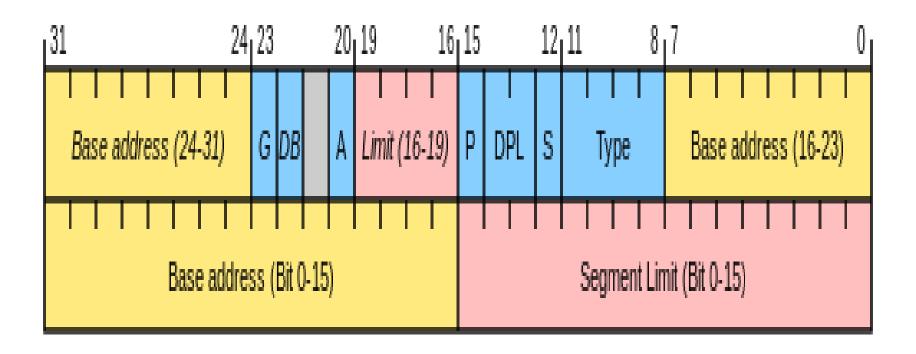
 The Global Descriptor Table or GDT is a data structure used by Intel x86-

family processors starting with the 80286 in order to define the characteristics of the various memory areas used during program execution, including the base address, the size and access privileges like execute- ability and write-ability.

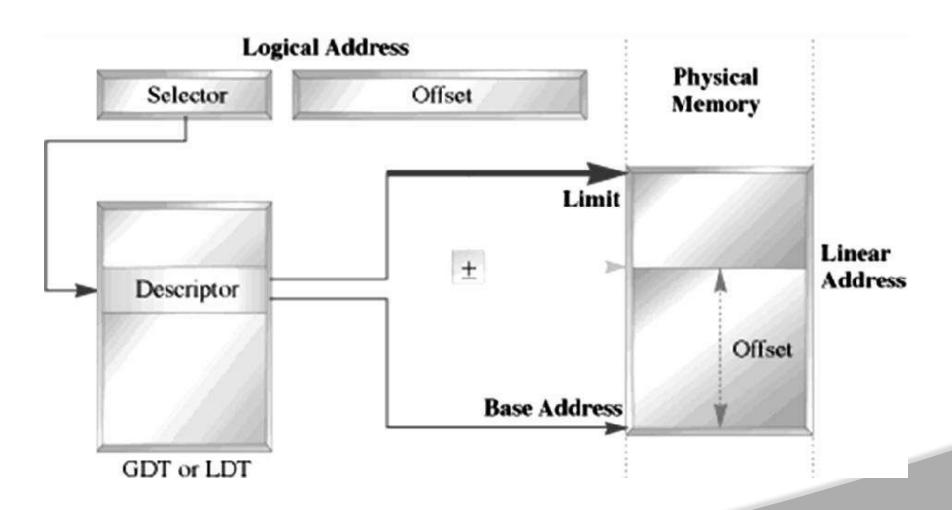


- There is also a Local Descriptor Table (LDT). While the LDT contains memory segments which are private to a specific program, the GDT contains global segments.
- The x86 processors have facilities for automatically switching the current LDT on specific machine events, but no facilities for automatically switching the GDT.









or LDT



#### **Memory Accessing In GDT or LDT**

- A segment cannot be accessed, if its descriptor does not exist in either LDT or GDT.
- Set of descriptor (descriptor table) arranged in a proper sequence describes the complete program.



- The descriptor is a block of contiguous memory location containing information of a segment, like
  - Segment base address
  - Segment limit
  - Segment type
  - Privilege level prevents unauthorized access
  - Segment availability in physical memory
  - Descriptor type
  - Segment use by another task



• The Global Descriptor Table or GDT is a data structure used by Intel x86-family processors starting with the 80286 in order to define the characteristics of the various memory areas used during program execution, including the base address, the size and access privileges like execute- ability and write-ability.



• Local Descriptor Table (LDT). While the LDT contains memory segments which are private to a specific program, the GDT contains global segments. The x86 processors have facilities for automatically switching the current LDT on specific machine events, but no facilities for automatically switching the GDT.



#### Differentiate between GDT and LDT.

- LDT is actually defined by a descriptor inside the GDT, while the GDT is directly defined by a linear address. The lack of symmetry between both tables is underlined by the fact that the current LDT can be automatically switched on certain events, notably if TSS-based multitasking is used, while this is not possible for the GDT.
- The LDT also cannot store certain privileged types of memory segments.



- The LDT is the sibling of the Global Descriptor Table (GDT) and similarly defines up to 8191 memory segments accessible to programs.
- LDT (and GDT) entries which point to identical memory areas are called aliases.
- Instruction to load GDT is LGDT(Load Global Descriptor

Table) and instruction to load LDT is LLDT(Load Global

Descriptor Table). Both are privileged instructions.





### Multitasking

- multitasking is the concurrent execution of multiple tasks
   (also known as processes) over a certain period of time.

   New tasks can interrupt already started ones before they
   finish, instead of waiting for them to end.
- As a result, a computer executes segments of multiple tasks in an interleaved manner, while the tasks share common processing resources such as central processing unit (CPUs) and main memory.



#### context switch

- Multitasking automatically interrupts the running program, saving its state (partial results, memory contents and computer register contents) and loading the saved state of another program and transferring control to it.
- This "context switch" may be initiated at fixed time intervals (pre-emptive multitasking), or the running program may be coded to signal to the supervisory software when it can be interrupted (cooperative multitasking).



#### **Features of Multitasking**

- It allows more efficient use of the computer hardware; where a program is waiting for some external event such as a user input or an input/output transfer with a peripheral to complete, the central processor can still be used with another program.
- In a time sharing system, multiple human operators use the same processor as if it was dedicated to their use, while behind the scenes the computer is serving many users by multitasking their individual programs.



 In multiprogramming systems, a task runs until it must wait for an external event or until the operating system's scheduler forcibly swaps the running task out of the CPU.



#### **Applications:**

- Real-time systems such as those designed to control industrial robots, require timely processing;
- a single processor might be shared between calculations of machine movement, communications, and user interface.



#### **Advantages**

- Often multitasking operating systems include measures to change the priority of individual tasks, so that important jobs receive more processor time than those considered less significant.
- Depending on the operating system, a task might be as large as an entire application program, or might be made up of smaller threads that carry out portions of the overall program.



# Addressing modes for 80286



### Multitasking

- multitasking is the concurrent execution of multiple tasks
   (also known as processes) over a certain period of time.

   New tasks can interrupt already started ones before they
   finish, instead of waiting for them to end.
- As a result, a computer executes segments of multiple tasks in an interleaved manner, while the tasks share common processing resources such as central processing unit (CPUs) and main memory.



#### context switch

- Multitasking automatically interrupts the running program, saving its state (partial results, memory contents and computer register contents) and loading the saved state of another program and transferring control to it.
- This "context switch" may be initiated at fixed time intervals (pre-emptive multitasking), or the running program may be coded to signal to the supervisory software when it can be interrupted (cooperative multitasking).



#### **Features of Multitasking**

- It allows more efficient use of the computer hardware; where a program is waiting for some external event such as a user input or an input/output transfer with a peripheral to complete, the central processor can still be used with another program.
- In a time sharing system, multiple human operators use the same processor as if it was dedicated to their use, while behind the scenes the computer is serving many users by multitasking their individual programs.



• In multiprogramming systems, a task runs until it must wait for an external event or until the operating system's scheduler forcibly swaps the running task out of the CPU.



#### **Applications:**

- Real-time systems such as those designed to control industrial robots, require timely processing;
- a single processor might be shared between calculations
   of machine movement, communications, and user interface.



#### **Advantages**

- Often multitasking operating systems include measures to change the priority of individual tasks, so that important jobs receive more processor time than those considered less significant.
- Depending on the operating system, a task might be as large as an entire application program, or might be made up of smaller threads that carry out portions of the overall program.



#### **Direct addressing mode:**

In the direct addressing mode, a 16-bit memory address (offset)

directly specified in the instruction as a part of it.

**Example: MOV AX, [5000H].** 

### Register addressing mode:

In the register addressing mode, the data is stored in a register and it is referred using the particular register. All the registers, except IP, may be used in this mode.

**Example: MOV BX, AX** 



### Register indirect addressing mode:

- Sometimes, the address of the memory location which contains data or operands is determined in an indirect way, using the offset registers. The mode of addressing is known as register indirect mode.
- In this addressing mode, the offset address of data is in either BX or SI

or DI Register. The default segment is either DS or ES.

Example: MOV AX, [BX].



#### **Indexed addressing mode:**

 In this addressing mode, offset of the operand is stored one of the index registers. DS & ES are the default segments for index registers SI & DI respectively.

Example: MOV AX, [SI]

Here, data is available at an offset address stored in SI in DS.

### Register relative addressing mode:

• In this addressing mode, the data is available at an effective address formed by adding an 8-bit or 16-bit displacement with the content of any one of the register BX, BP, SI & DI in the default (either in DS & ES) segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX]



#### **Based indexed addressing mode:**

• The effective address of data is formed in this addressing mode, by adding content of a base register (any one of BX or BP) to the content of an index register (any one of SI or DI). The default segment register may be ES or DS.

Example: MOV AX, [BX][SI]

#### Relative based indexed:

• The effective address is formed by adding an 8 or 16-bit displacement with the sum of contents of any of the base registers (BX or BP) and any one of the index registers, in a default segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX] [SI]

•



### Addressing Modes for control transfer instructions:

- Intersegment
  - Intersegment direct
  - Intersegment indirect
- Intrasegment
  - Intrasegment direct
  - Intrasegment indirect



#### **Intersegment direct:**

• In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred is in a different segment. This addressing mode provides a means of branching from one code segment to another code segment. Here, the CS and IP of the destination address are specified directly in the instruction.

Example: JMP 5000H: 2000H;

• Jump to effective address 2000H in segment 5000H.



#### **Intersegment indirect:**

 In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment and it is passed to the instruction indirectly, i.e. contents of a memory block containing four bytes,

i.e. IP(LSB), IP(MSB), CS(LSB) and CS(MSB) sequentially. The starting address of the memory block may be referred using any of the addressing modes, except immediate mode.

**Example: JMP [2000H].** 

Jump to an address in the other segment specified at effective

address 2000H in DS.

## **Addressing Modes**



#### **Intrasegment direct mode:**

- In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in the same segment in which the control transfers instruction lies and appears directly in the instruction as an immediate displacement value.
- In this addressing mode, the displacement is computed relative to the content of the instruction pointer.

# **Addressing Modes**

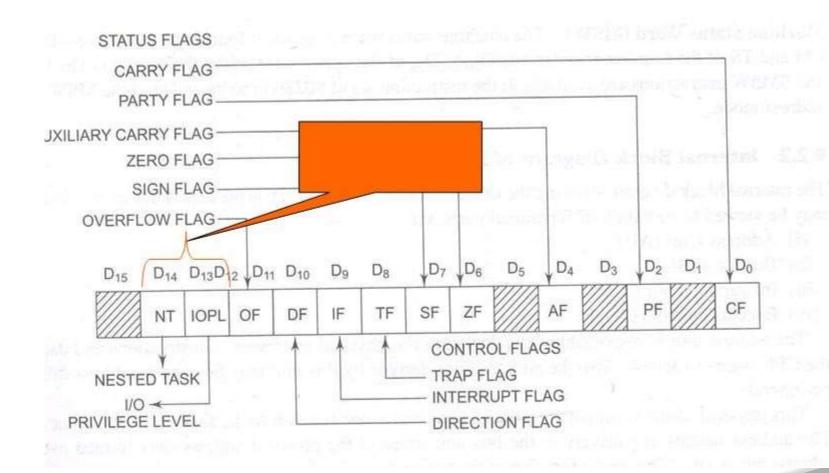


#### Intrasegment indirect mode:

- In this mode, the displacement to which the control is to be transferred is in the same segment in which the control transfer instruction lies, but it is passed to the instruction directly. Here, the branch address is found as the content of a register or a memory location.
- This addressing mode may be used in unconditional branch instructions.
- Example: JMP [BX]; Jump to effective address stored in BX.









#### IOPL – Input Output Privilege Level flags (bit D12 and D13

- IOPL is used in protected mode operation to select the privilege level for I/O devices. IF the current privilege level is higher or more trusted than the IOPL, I/O executed without hindrance.
- If the IOPL is lover than the current privilege level, an interrupt occurs, causing execution to suspend. Note that IPOL 00 is the highest or more trusted; and IOPL 11 is the lowest or least



- NT Nested task flag (bit D14)
- When set, it indicates that one system task has invoked another through a CALL instruction as opposed to a JMP.
- For multitasking this can be manipulated to our advantage



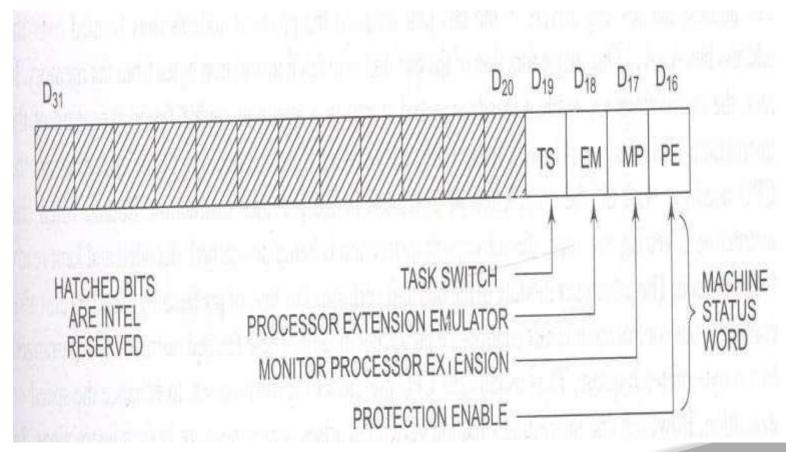
#### **Machine Status Word Register**

- Consist of four flags
  - PE,
  - MP,
  - EM and
  - TS are for the most part used toindicate whether a processor extension (co-processor) is present in the

system or not



# • Word Machine Status...





PE - Protection enable
 Protection enable flag places the 80286 in protected mode,
 if set. this can only be cleared by resetting the CPU.

MP – Monitor processor extension
 flag allows WAIT instruction to generate a processor extension.

 Emulate processor extension flag,
 if set, causes a processor extension absent exception and permits the emulation of processor extension by CPU.



# **Architecture of 80386**



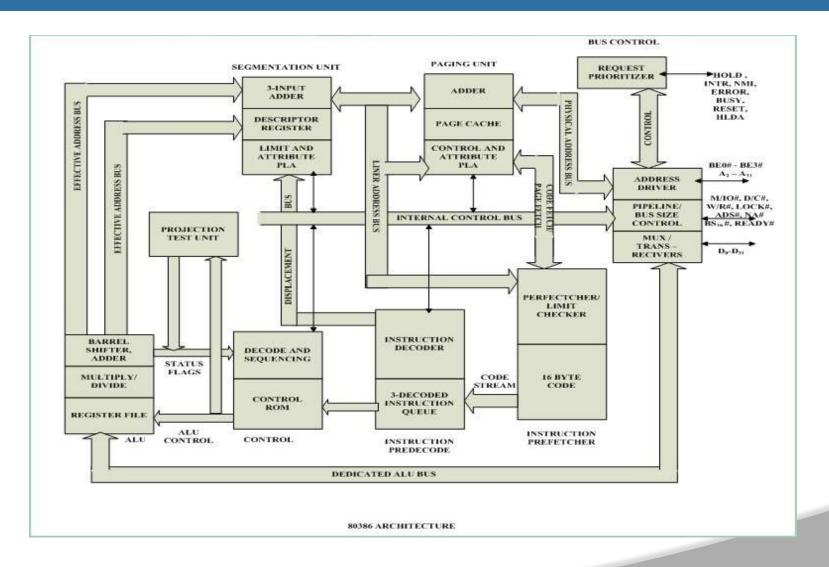
#### **Architecture of 80386**

The Internal Architecture of 80386 is divided into 3 sections.

- Central processing unit
- Memory management unit
- Bus interface unit
- •Central processing unit is further divided into Execution unit and Instruction unit
- •Execution unit has 8 General purpose and 8 Special purpose registers which are either used for handling data or calculating offset addresses.

#### **Architecture of 80386**







- The Instruction unit decodes the opcode bytes received from the 16byte instruction code queue and arranges them in a 3- instruction decoded instruction queue.
- After decoding them pass it to the control section for deriving the necessary control signals. The barrel shifter increases the speed of all shift and rotate operations.
- The multiply / divide logic implements the bit-shift-rotate algorithms to complete the operations in minimum time.
- Even 32- bit multiplications can be executed within one microsecond by the multiply / divide logic.
- The Memory management unit consists of a Segmentation unit and a Paging unit.

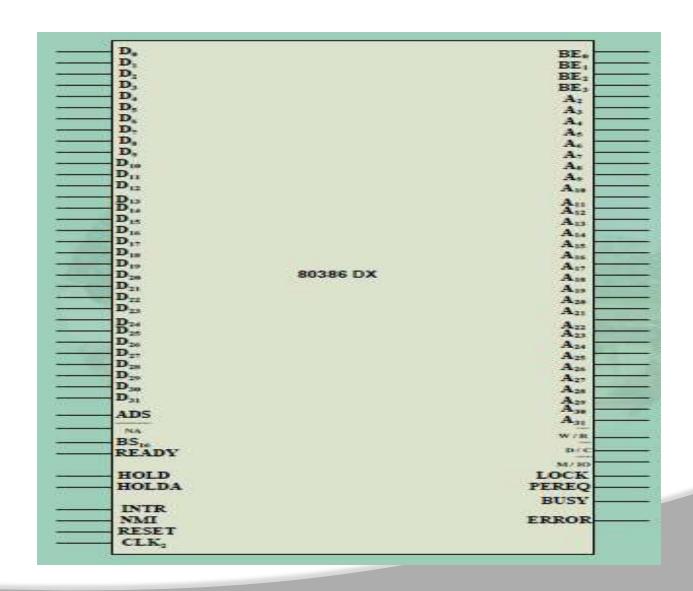
# Pin diagram of 80386



	A	В	С	D	E	F	G	н	J	K	L	м	N	P	
1	vcc	vss O	A.	A <sub>n</sub>	A,,	A <sub>i</sub>	A <sub>16</sub>	A <sub>i</sub>	A <sub>28</sub>	A <sub>21</sub>	A <sub>23</sub>	A <sub>ss</sub>	A <sub>r</sub>	A <sub>ss</sub>	1
2	vss O	Å,	A.	A <sub>ie</sub>	A <sub>13</sub>	vss	VCC	A <sub>11</sub>	vss	A <sub>22</sub>	A <sub>24</sub>	A <sub>29</sub>	An O	vcc	2
3	A <sub>1</sub>	Å.	A.	A.	An O	vss O	VCC	A <sub>i</sub>	vss O	Azs O	A <sub>28</sub>	Ar O	vss O	A <sub>30</sub>	3
4	NC O	NC O	A:									vss O	O	D <sub>rs</sub>	4
5	vcc	vss O	VCC									D <sub>m</sub>	D <sub>2</sub> ,	D <sub>26</sub>	5
6	vss	NC O	NC O									D <sub>28</sub>	D <sub>26</sub>	vss O	
7	VCC	INTR	NC O									VCC	O	D <sub>24</sub>	7
8	ERROR#	0	PERE				MET	AL LII	)			vss O	O <sub>B</sub>	VCC	8
9	8	0	RESI									D <sub>20</sub>	O	O <sub>n</sub>	9
10	VCC O	W/R#	LOCK									VSS O	0	D <sub>18</sub>	10
n	D/C#	VSS O NC	VSS		BED#	i	vcc	n	vec	D.	vcc	D <sub>15</sub>	D <sub>10</sub>	D.,	n
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
13	BE,#	BE,#	BE,#	NA#	NC O	0	C	Ö	O	O	0	O	D <sub>11</sub>	O D	13
14	VCC O	vss O	BS <sub>10</sub> #	HOLD	ADS#	vss O	O	D,	<b>р</b> ,	O.	D <sub>c</sub>	HLDA	O	VSS O	14
	. <b>A</b> :	В	c	D	E	F	G	н	J	K	L	м	N	P	

# Pin diagram of 80386







- •CLK2 :The input pin provides the basic system clock timing for the operation of 80386.
- •D0 D31:These 32 lines act as bidirectional data bus during different access cycles.
- •A31 A2: These are upper 30 bit of the 32- bit address bus.
- •BE0 toBE3: The 32- bit data bus supported by 80386 and the memory system of 80386 can be viewed as a 4- byte wide memory access mechanism.
- •ADS: The address status output pin indicates that the address bus and bus cycle definition pins( W/R#, D/C#, M/IO#, BE0# to BE3# ) are carrying the respective valid signals.



- VCC: These are system power supply lines.
- VSS: These return lines for the power supply.
- •BS16: The bus size 16 input pin allows the interfacing of 16 bit devices with the 32 bit wide 80386 data bus.
- •HOLD: The bus hold input pin enables the other bus masters to gain control of the system bus if it is asserted.
- HLDA: The bus hold acknowledge output indicates that a valid bus hold

request has been received and the bus has been relinquished by the CPU.



- ERROR: The error input pin indicates to the CPU that the coprocessor has encountered an error while executing its instruction.
- PEREQ: The processor extension request output signal indicates to the CPU to fetch a data word for the coprocessor.
- •INTR: This interrupt pin is a maskable interrupt, that can be masked using the IF of the flag register.
- NMI: A valid request signal at the non-maskable interrupt request input pin internally generates a non-maskable interrupt of type2.



- READY: The ready signals indicates to the CPU that the previous bus cycle has been terminated and the bus is ready for the next cycle.
- BUSY: The busy input signal indicates to the CPU that the coprocessor is busy with the allocated task.
- RESET: A high at this input pin suspends the current operation and restart the execution from the starting location.
- N / C : No connection pins are expected to be left open.



# 80386 Register Organization

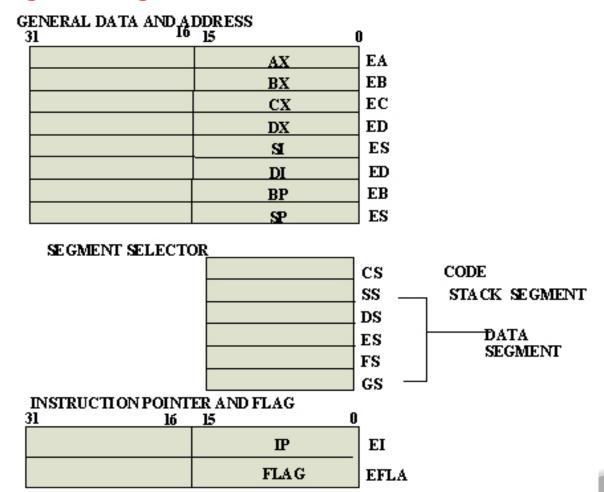


#### **80386 Register Organization**

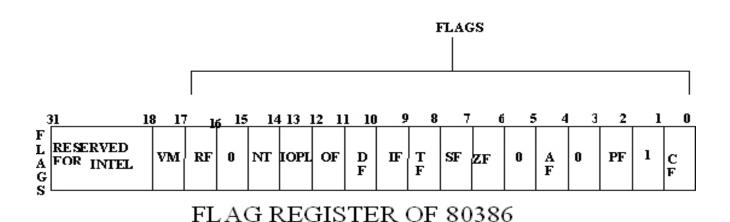
- The 80386 has eight 32 bit general purpose registers which may be used as either 8 bit or 16 bit registers.
- A 32 bit register known as an extended register, is represented by the register name with prefix E.
- The six segment registers available in 80386 are CS, SS, DS, ES, FS and GS.
- The CS and SS are the code and the stack segment registers respectively, while DS, ES, FS, GS are 4 data segment registers.
- A 16 bit instruction pointer IP is available along with 32 bit counterpart EIP.



### **80386 Register Organization**







- The Flag register of 80386 is a 32 bit register. Out of the 32 bits, Intel has reserved bits D18 to D31, D5 and D3, while D1 is always set at 1.
- Two extra new flags are added to the 80286 flag to derive the flag register of 80386. They are VM and RF flags.



- VM Virtual Mode Flag: If this flag is set, the 80386 enters the virtual 8086 mode within the protection mode.
- RF- Resume Flag: This flag is used with the debug register breakpoints.
- Segment Descriptor Registers: This registers are not available for programmers, rather they are internally used to store the descriptor information, like attributes, limit and base addresses of segments



- Control Registers: The 80386 has three 32 bit control registers
   CR0, CR2 and CR3 to hold global machine status
- System Address Registers: Four special registers are defined to refer to the descriptor tables supported by 80386.
- Debug and Test Registers: Intel has provide a set of 8 debug registers for hardware debugging.



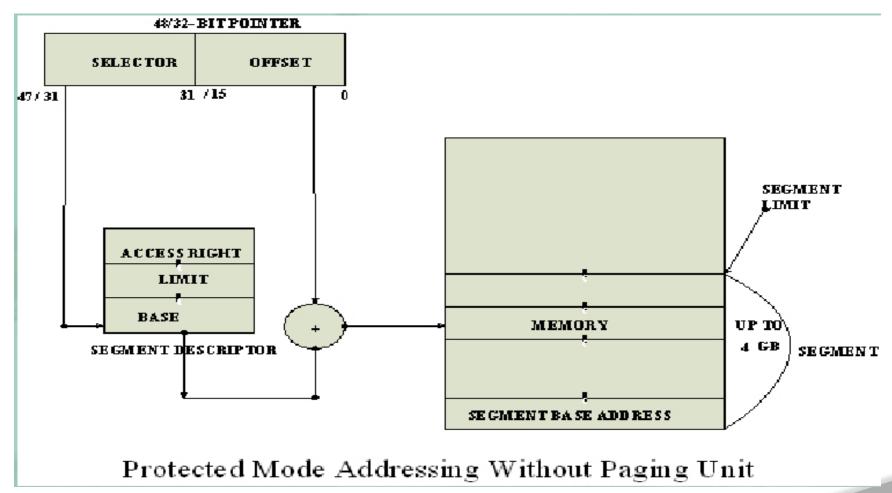
# Memory access in protected mode



#### **Protected Mode of 80386:**

- ➤ All the capabilities of 80386 are available for utilization in its protected mode of operation.
- ➤ The 80386 in protected mode support all the software written for 80286 and 8086 to be executed under the control of memory management and protection abilities of 80386.
- ➤The protected mode allows the use of additional instruction, addressing modes and capabilities of 80386.







### Addressing in protected mode

- ➤In this mode, the contents of segment registers are used as selectors to address descriptors which contain the segment limit, base address and access rights byte of the segment.
- The effective address (offset) is added with segment base address to calculate linear address.
- This linear address is further used as physical address, if the paging unit is disabled, otherwise the paging unit converts the linear address into physical address.

## Addressing in protected mode



- The paging unit is a memory management unit enabled only in protected mode.
- The paging mechanism allows handling of large segments of memory in terms of pages of 4Kbyte size.
- The paging unit operates under the control of segmentation unit.
- > The paging unit if enabled converts linear addresses into physical address, in protected mode.



# **Paging**



#### **Paging Unit:**

- The paging unit of 80386 uses a two level table mechanism to convert a linear address provided by segmentation unit into physical addresses.
- The paging unit converts the complete map of a task into pages, each of size 4K. The task is further handled in terms of its page, rather than segments.
- >The paging unit handles every task in terms of three components namely page directory, page tables and page itself.



#### **Paging Unit:**

- The Paging unit organizes the physical memory in terms of pages of 4kbytes size each.
- ➤ Paging unit works under the control of the segmentation unit, i.e. each segment is further divided into pages.
- The virtual memory is also organizes in terms of segments and pages by the memory management unit.
- ➤ Paging unit converts linear addresses into physical addresses.



## **Paging Unit**

- ➤ The control and attribute PLA checks the privileges at the page level.
- **≻**Each of the pages maintains the paging information of the task.
- The limit and attribute PLA checks segment limits and attributes at segment level to avoid invalid accesses to code and data in the memory segments.



# 80486: Only the technical features



#### Introduction:

- One of the most obvious feature included in a 80486 is a built in math coprocessor. This coprocessor is essentially the same as the 80387 processor used with a 80386, but being integrated on the chip allows it to execute math instructions about three times as fast as a 80386/387 combination.
- 80486 is an 8Kbyte code and data cache.
- To make room for the additional signals, the 80486 is packaged in a 168 pin, pin grid array package instead of the 132 pin PGA used for the 80386.



- Operates on 25MHz, 33 MHz, 50 MHz, 60 MHz, 66 MHz or 100MHz.
- It consists of parity generator/checker unit in order to implement parity detection and generation for memory reads and writes.
- Supports burst memory reads and writes to implement fast cache fills.
- Three mode of operation: real, protected and virtual 8086 mode.
- The 80486 microprocessor is a highly integrated device, containing well over 1.2 million transistors.



- The address bus is unidirectional because the address information is always given by the Micro Processor to address a memory location of an input / output devices.
- The data bus is Bi-directional because the same bus is used for transfer of data between Micro Processor and memory or input / output devices in both the direction.
- It has limitations on the size of data. Most Microprocessor does not support floating-point operations.
- Microprocessor contain ROM chip because it contain instructions to execute data.



Primary devices are: RAM (Read / Write memory, High Speed, Volatile Memory) / ROM (Read only memory, Low Speed, Non Voliate Memory)

Secondary devices are: Floppy disc / Hard disk

#### **Compiler:**

Compiler is used to translate the high-level language program into machine code at a time. It doesn't require special instruction to store in a memory, it stores automatically. The Execution time is less compared to Interpreter