The MCS - $80 / 85$ Family User's Manual

## MCS ${ }^{\circ}$-80/85 FAMILY USER'S MANUAL

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## WORKSHOPS

*For complete data sheets on all microprocessor and peripheral products, refer to the Microprocessor and Peripherals Handbook. See inside front cover to order.

## Introduction

## CHAPTER 1 <br> PART 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE FUNCTIONS OF A COMPUTER

This chapter introduces certain basic computer concepts. It provides background information and definitions which will be useful in later chapters of this manual. Those already familiar with computers may skip this material, at their option.

## A TYPICAL COMPUTER SYSTEM

A typical digital computer consists of:
a) A central processor unit (CPU)
b) A memory
c) Input/output (I/O) ports

The memory serves as a place to store Instructions, the coded pieces of information that direct the activities of the CPU, and Data, the coded pieces of information that are processed by the CPU. A group of logically related instructions stored in memory is referred to as a Program. The CPU "reads" each instruction from memory in a logically determined sequence, and uses it to initiate processing actions. If the program sequence is coherent and logical, processing the program will produce intelligible and useful results.

The memory is also used to store the data to be manipulated, as well as the instructions that direct that manipulation. The program must be organized such that the CPU does not read a non-instruction word when it expects to see an instruction. The CPU can rapidly access any data stored in memory; but often the memory is not large enough to store the entire data bank required for a particular application. The problem can be resolved by providing the computer with one or more Input Ports. The CPU can address these ports and input the data contained there. The addition of input ports enables the computer to receive information from external equipment (such as a paper tape reader or floppy disk) at high rates of speed and in large volumes.

A computer also requires one or more Output Ports that permit the CPU to communicate the result of its processing to the outside world. The output may go to a display, for use by a human operator, to a peripheral device that produces "hard-copy," such as a line-printer, to a
peripheral storage device, such as a floppy disk unit, or the output may constitute process control signals that direct the operations of another system, such as an automated assembly line. Like input ports, output ports are addressable. The input and output ports together permit the processor to communicate with the outside world.

The CPU unifies the system. It controls the functions performed by the other components. The CPU must be able to fetch instructions from memory, decode their binary contents and execute them. It must also be able to reference memory and I/O ports as necessary in the execution of instructions. In addition, the CPU should be able to recognize and respond to certain external control signals, such as INTERRUPT and WAIT requests. The functional units within a CPU that enable it to perform these functions are described below.

## THE ARCHITECTURE OF A CPU

A typical central processor unit (CPU) consists of the following interconnected functional units:

- Registers
- Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU)
- Control Circuitry

Registers are temporary storage units within the CPU. Some registers, such as the program counter and instruction register, have dedicated uses. Other registers, such as the accumulator, are for more general purpose use.

## Accumulator:

The accumulator usually stores one of the operands to be manipulated by the ALU. A typical instruction might direct the ALU to add the contents of some other register to the contents of the accumulator and store the result in the accumulator itself. In general, the accumulator is both a source (operand) and a destination (result) register.

Often a CPU will include a number of additional general purpose registers that can be used to store operands or intermediate data. The availability of general purpose
registers eliminates the need to "shuffle" intermediate results back and forth between memory and the accumulator, thus improving processing speed and efficiency.

## Program Counter (Jumps, Subroutines and the Stack):

The instructions that make up a program are stored in the system's memory. The central processor references the contents of memory, in order to determine what action is appropriate. This means that the processor must know which location contains the next instruction.

Each of the locations in memory is numbered, to distinguish it from all other locations in memory. The number which identifies a memory location is called its Address.

The processor maintains a counter which contains the address of the next program instruction. This register is called the Program Counter. The processor updates the program counter by adding " 1 " to the counter each time it fetches an instruction, so that the program counter is always current (pointing to the next instruction).

The programmer therefore stores his instructions in numerically adjacent addresses, so that the lower addresses contain the first instructions to be executed and the higher addresses contain later instructions. The only time the programmer may violate this sequential rule is when an instruction in one section of memory is a Jump instruction to another section of memory.

A jump instruction contains the address of the instruction which is to follow it. The next instruction may be stored in any memory location, as long as the programmed jump specifies the correct address. During the execution of a jump instruction, the processor replaces the contents of its program counter with the address embodied in the Jump. Thus, the logical continuity of the program is maintained.

A special kind of program jump occurs when the stored program "Calls" a subroutine. In this kind of jump, the processor is required to "remember" the contents of the program counter at the time that the jump occurs. This enables the processor to resume execution of the main program when it is finished with the last instruction of the subroutine.

A Subroutine is a program within a program. Usually it is a general-purpose set of instructions that must be executed repeatedly in the course of a main program. Routines which calculate the square, the sine, or the logarithm of a program variable are good examples of functions often written as subroutines. Other examples might be programs designed for inputting or outputting data to a particular peripheral device.

The processor has a special way of handling subroutines, in order to insure an orderly return to the main program. When the processor receives a Call instruction, it increments the Program Counter and stores the counter's contents in a reserved memory area known as the Stack. The Stack thus saves the address of the instruction to be executed after the subroutine is completed. Then the pro-
cessor loads the address specified in the Call into its Program Counter. The next instruction fetched will therefore be the first step of the subroutine.

The last instruction in any subroutine is a Return. Such an instruction need specify no address. When the processor fetches a Return instruction, it simply replaces the current contents of the Program Counter with the address on the top of the stack. This causes the processor to resume execution of the calling program at the point immediately following the original Call Instruction.

Subroutines are often Nested; that is, one subroutine will sometimes call a second subroutine. The second may call a third, and so on. This is perfectly acceptable, as long as the processor has enough capacity to store the necessary return addresses, and the logical provision for doing so. In other words, the maximum depth of nesting is determined by the depth of the stack itself. If the stack has space for storing three return addresses, then three levels of subroutines may be accommodated.

Processors have different ways of maintaining stacks. Some have facilities for the storage of return addresses built into the processor itself. Other processors use a reserved area of external memory as the stack and simply maintain a Pointer register which contains the address of the most recent stack entry. The external stack allows virtually unlimited subroutine nesting. In addition, if the processor provides instructions that cause the contents of the accumulator and other general purpose registers to be "pushed" onto the stack or "popped" off the stack via the address stored in the stack pointer, multi-level interrupt processing (described later in this chapter) is possible. The status of the processor (i.e., the contents of all the registers) can be saved in the stack when an interrupt is accepted and then restored after the interrupt has been serviced. This ability to save the processor's status at any given time is possible even if an interrupt service routine, itself, is interrupted.

## Instruction Register and Decoder:

Every computer has a Word Length that is characteristic of that machine. A computer's word length is usually determined by the size of its internal storage elements and interconnecting paths (referred to as Busses); for example, a computer whose registers and busses can store and transfer 8 bits of information has a characteristic word length of 8 -bits and is referred to as an 8-bit parallel processor. An eight-bit parallel processor generally finds it most efficient to deal with eight-bit binary fields, and the memory associated with such a processor is therefore organized to store eight bits in each addressable memory location. Data and instructions are stored in memory as eight-bit binary numbers, or as numbers that are integral multiples of eight bits: 16 bits, 24 bits, and so on. This characteristic eight-bit field is often referred to as a Byte.

Each operation that the processor can perform is identified by a unique byte of data known as an Instruction

Code or Operation Code. An eight-bit word used as an instruction code can distinguish between 256 alternative actions, more than adequate for most processors.

The processor fetches an instruction in two distinct operations. First, the processor transmits the address in its Program Counter to the memory. Then the memory returns the addressed byte to the processor. The CPU stores this instruction byte in a register known as the Instruction Register, and uses it to direct activities during the remainder of the instruction execution.

The mechanism by which the processor translates an instruction code into specific processing actions requires more elaboration than we can here afford. The concept, however, should be intuitively clear to any logic designer. The eight bits stored in the instruction register can be decoded and used to selectively activate one of a number of output lines, in this case up to 256 lines. Each line represents a set of activities associated with execution of a particular instruction code. The enabled line can be combined with selected timing puises, to develop electrical signals that can then be used to initiate specific actions. This translation of code into action is performed by the Instruction Decoder and by the associated control circuitry.

An eight-bit instruction code is often sufficient to specify a particular processing action. There are times, however, when execution of the instruction requires more information than eight bits can convey.

One example of this is when the instruction references a memory location. The basic instruction code identifies the operation to be performed, but cannot specify the object address as well. In a case like this, a two- or threebyte instruction must be used. Successive instruction bytes are stored in sequentially adjacent memory locations, and the processor performs two or three fetches in succession to obtain the full instruction. The first byte retrieved from memory is placed in the processor's instruction register, and subsequent bytes are placed in temporary storage; the processor then proceeds with the execution phase. Such an instruction is referred to as Variable Length.

## Address Register(s):

A CPU may use a register or register-pair to hold the address of a memory location that is to be accessed for data. If the address register is Programmable, (i.e., if there are instructions that allow the programmer to alter the contents of the register) the program can "build" an address in the address register prior to executing a Memory Reference instruction (i.e., an instruction that reads data from memory, writes data to memory or operates on data stored in memory).

## Arithmetic/Logic Unit (ALU):

All processors contain an arithmetic/logic unit, which is often referred to simply as the ALU. The ALU, as its name implies, is that portion of the CPU hardware which
performs the arithmetic and logical operations on the binary data.

The ALU must contain an Adder which is capable of combining the contents of two registers in accordance with the logic of binary arithmetic. This provision permits the processor to perform arithmetic manipulations on the data it obtains from memory and from its other inputs.

Using only the basic adder a capable programmer can write routines which will subtract, multiply and divide, giving the machine complete arithmetic capabilities. In practice, however, most ALUs provide other built-in functions, including hardware subtraction, boolean logic operations, and shift capabilities.

The ALU contains Flag Bits which specify certain conditions that arise in the course of arithmetic and logical manipulations. Flags typically include Carry, Zero, Sign, and Parity. It is possible to program jumps which are conditionally dependent on the status of one or more flags. Thus, for example, the program may be designed to jump to a special routine if the carry bit is set following an addition instruction.

## Control Circuitry:

The control circuitry is the primary functional unit within a.CPU. Using clock inputs, the control circuitry maintains the proper sequence of events required for any processing task. After an instruction is fetched and decoded, the control circuitry issues the appropriate signals (to units both internal and external to the CPU) for initiating the proper processing action. Often the control circuitry will be capable of responding to external signals, such as an interrupt or wait request. An Interrupt request will cause the control circuitry to temporarily interrupt main program execution, jump to a special routine to service the interrupting device, then automatically return to the main program. A Wait request is often issued by a memory or I/O element that operates slower than the CPU. The control circuitry will idle the CPU until the memory or I/O port is ready with the data.

## COMPUTER OPERATIONS

There are certain operations that are basic to almost any computer. A sound understanding of these basic operations is a necessary prerequisite to examining the specific operations of a particular computer.

## Timing:

The activities of the central processor are cyclical. The processor fetches an instruction, performs the operations required, fetches the next instruction, and so on. This orderly sequence of events requires precise timing, and the CPU therefore requires a free running oscillator clock which furnishes the reference for all processor actions. The combined fetch and execution of a single instruction is referred to as an Instruction Cycle. The portion of a cycle identified
with a clearly defined activity is called a State. And the interval between pulses of the timing oscillator is referred to as a Clock Period. As a general rule, one or more clock periods are necessary for the completion of a state, and there are several states in a cycle.

## Instruction Fetch:

The first state(s) of any instruction cycle will be dedicated to fetching the next instruction. The CPU issues a read signal and the contents of the program counter are sent to memory, which responds by returning the next instruction word. The first byte of the instruction is placed in the instruction register. If the instruction consists of more than one byte, additional states are required to fetch each byte of the instruction. When the entire instruction is present in the CPU, the program counter is incremented (in preparation for the next instruction fetch) and the instruction is decoded. The operation specified in the instruction will be executed in the remaining states of the instruction cycle. The instruction may call for a memory read or write, an input or output and/or an internal CPU operation, such as a register-to-register transfer or an add-registers operation.

## Memory Read:

An instruction fetch is merely a special memory read operation that brings the instruction to the CPU's instruction register. The instruction fetched may then call for data to be read from memory into the CPU. The CPU again issues a read signal and sends the proper memory address; memory responds by returning the requested word. The data received is placed in the accumulator or one of the other general purpose registers (not the instruction register).

## Memory Write:

A memory write operation is similar to a read except for the direction of data flow. The CPU issues a write signal, sends the proper memory address, then sends the data word to be written into the addressed memory location.

## Wait (memory synchronization):

As previously stated, the activities of the processor are timed by a master clock oscillator. The clock period determines the timing of all processing activity.

The speed of the processing cycle, however, is limited by the memory's Access Time. Once the processor has sent a read address to memory, it cannot proceed until the memory has had time to respond. Most memories are capable of responding much faster than the processing cycle requires. A few, however, cannot supply the addressed byte within the minimum time established by the processor's clock.

Therefore a processor should contain a synchronization provision, which permits the memory to request a Wait state. When the memory receives a read or write enable signal, it places a request signal on the processor's READY line, causing the CPU to idle temporarily. After the memory has
had time to respond, it frees the processor's READY line, and the instruction cycle proceeds.

## Input/Output:

Input and Output operations are similar to memory read and write operations with the exception that a peripheral I/O device is addressed instead of a memory location. The CPU issues the appropriate input or output control signal, sends the proper device address and either receives the data being input or sends the data to be output.

Data can be input/output in either parallel or serial form. All data within a digital computer is represented in binary coded form. A binary data word consists of a group of bits; each bit is either a one or a zero. Parallel I/O consists of transferring all bits in the word at the same time, one bit per line. Serial I/O consists of transferring one bit at a time on a single line. Naturally serial I/O is much slower, but it requires considerably less hardware than does parallel I/O.

## Interrupts:

Interrupt provisions are included on many central processors, as a means of improving the processor's efficiency. Consider the case of a computer that is processing a large volume of data, portions of which are to be output to a printer. The CPU can output a byte of data within a single machine cycle but it may take the printer the equivalent of many machine cycles to actually print the character specified by the data byte. The CPU could then remain idle waiting until the printer can accept the next data byte. If an interrupt capability is implemented on the computer, the CPU can output a data byte then return to data processing. When the printer is ready to accept the next data byte, it can request an interrupt. When the CPU acknowledges the interrupt, it suspends main program execution and automatically branches to a routine that will output the next data byte. After the byte is output, the CPU continues with main program execution. Note that this is, in principle, quite similar to a subroutine call, except that the jump is initiated externally rather than by the program.

More complex interrupt structures are possible, in which several interrupting devices share the same processor but have different priority levels. Interruptive processing is an important feature that enables maximum untilization of a processor's capacity for high system throughput.

## Hold:

Another important feature that improves the throughput of a processor is the Hold. The hold provision enables Direct Memory Access (DMA) operations.

In ordinary input and output operations, the processor itself supervises the entire data transfer. Information to be placed in memory is transferred from the input device to the processor, and then from the processor to the designated memory location. In similar fashion, information that goes
from memory to output devices goes by way of the processor.

Some peripheral devices, however, are capable of transferring information to and from memory much faster than the processor itself can accomplish the transfer. If any appreciable quantity of data must be transferred to or from such a device, then system throughput will be increased by
having the device accomplish the transfer directly. The processor must temporarily suspend its operation during such a transfer, to prevent conflicts that would arise if processor and peripheral device attempted to access memory simultaneously. It is for this reason that a hold provision is included on some processors.


## PART 2: INTRODUCTION TO MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$

## THE MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ MICROCOMPUTER SYSTEM

The basic philosophy behind the MCS-85 microcomputer system is one of logical, evolutionary advance in technology without the waste of discarding existing investments in hardware and software. The MCS-85 provides the existing 8080 user with an increase in performance, a decrease in the component count, operation from a single 5 -Volt power supply, and still preserves $100 \%$ of his existing software investment. For the new microcomputer user, the MCS-85 represents the refinement of the most popular microcomputer in the industry, the Intel 8080, along with a wealth of supporting software, documentation and peripheral components to speed the cycle from prototype to production. The same development tools that Intel has produced to support the 8080 microcomputer system can be used for the MCS-85, and additional add-on features are available to optimize system development for MCS-85.

This section of the MCS-80/85 User's Manual will briefly detail the basic differences between the MCS-85 and MCS-80 families. It will illustrate both the hardware and software compatibilities and also reveal some of the engineering trade-offs that were met during the design of the MCS-85. More detailed discussion of the MCS-85 bus operation and component specifications are available in Chapters: 2, 3, 4, and 5. The information provided in Chapter 1 will be helpful in understanding the basic concepts and philosophies behind the MCS-85.

## EVOLUTION

In December 1971, Intel introduced the first general purpose, 8-bit microprocessor, the 8008. It was implemented in P-channel MOS technology and was packaged in a single 18 pin, dual in-line package (DIP). The 8008 used standard semiconductor ROM and RAM and, for the most part, TTL components for I/O and general interface. It immediately found applications in byte-oriented end products such as terminals and computer peripherals where its instruction execution ( 20 micro -seconds), general


purpose organization and instruction set matched the requirements of these products. Recognizing that hardware was but a small part in the overall system picture, Intel developed both hardware and software tools for the design engineer so that the transition from prototype to production would be as simple and fast as possible. The commitment of providing a total systems approach with the 8008 microcomputer system was actually the basis for the sophisticated, comprehensive development tools that Intel has available today.

## THE 8080A MICROPROCESSOR

With the advent of high-production N -channel RAM memories and 40 pin DIP packaging, Intel designed the 8080A microprocessor. It was designed to be software compatible with the 8008 so that the existing users of the 8008 could preserve their investment in software and at the same time provide dramatically increased performance ( 2 micro-second instruction execution), while reducing the amount of components necessary to implement a system. Additions were made to the basic instruction set to take advantage of this increased performance and large system-type features were included onchip such as DMA, 16 -bit addressing and external stack memory so that the total spectrum of application could be significantly increased. The 8080 was first sampled in December 1973. Since that time it has become the standard of the industry and is accepted as the primary building block for more microcomputer based applications than all other microcomputer systems combined.

## A TOTAL SYSTEMS COMMITMENT

The Intel ${ }^{\circledR}$ 8080A Microcomputer System encompasses a total systems commitment to the user to fully support his needs both in developing prototype systems and reliable, high volume production. From complex MOS/LSI peripheral components to resident high level systems language (PL/M) the Intel ${ }^{\circledR} 8080$ Microcomputer System provides the most comprehensive, effective solution to today's system problems.



## SOFTWARE COMPATIBILITY

As with any computer system the cost of software development far outweighs that of hardware. A microcomputer-based system is traditionally a very cost-sensitive application and the development of software is one of the key areas where success or failure of the cost objectives is vital.


The 8085A CPU is $100 \%$ software compatible with the Intel ${ }^{\circledR}$ 8080A CPU. The compatibility is at the object or "machine code" level so that existing programs written for 8080A execution will run on the 8085A as is. The value of this becomes even more evident to the user who has mask programmed ROMs and wishes to update his system without the need for new masks.

## PROGRAMMER TRAINING

A cost which is often forgotten is that of programmer training. A new, or modified instruction set, would require programmers to relearn another set of mnemonics and greatly affect the productivity during development. The 100\% compatibility of the 8085A CPU assures that no re-training effort will be required.


For the new microcomputer user, the software compatibility between the 8085A and the 8080A means that all of the software development tools that are available for the 8080A and all software libraries for 8080A will operate with the new design and thus save immeasurable cost in development and debug.
The 8085A CPU does however add two instructions to initialize and maintain hardware features of the 8085A. Two of the unused opcodes of the 8080A instruction set were designated for the addition so that $100 \%$ compatibility could be maintained.

## HARDWARE COMPATIBILITY

The integration of auxiliary 8080A functions, such as clock generation, system control and interrupt prioritization, dramatically reduces the amount of components necessary for most systems. In addition, the MCS-85 operates off a single +5 Volt power supply to further simplify hardware development and debug. A close examination of the AC/DC specifications of the MCS-85 systems components shows that each is specified to supply a minimum of $400 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ of source current and a full TTL load of sink current so that a very substantial system can be constructed without the need for extra TTL buffers or drivers. Input and output voltage levels are also specified so that a minimum of 350 mV noise margin is provided for reliable, highperformance operation.

## PC BOARD CONSIDERATIONS

The 8085A CPU and the 8080A are not pincompatible due to the reduction in power supplies and the addition of integrated auxiliary features. However, the pinouts of the MCS-85 system components were carefully assigned to minimize PC board area and thus yield a smooth, efficient layout. For new designs this incompatibility of pinouts presents no problems and for upgrades of existing designs the reduction of components and board area will far offset the incompatibility.

## MCS-85™ SPECIAL PERIPHERAL COMPONENTS

The MCS-85 was designed to minimize the amount of components required for most systems. Intel designed several new peripheral components that combine memory, I/O and timer functions to fulfill this requirement. These new peripheral devices directly interface to the multiplexed MCS-85 bus structure and provide new levels in system integration for today's designer.


8155/8156 RAM, I/O and Timer
256 bytes RAM
Two 8-bit ports
One 6 -bit port (programmable)
One 14-bit programmable interval timer
Single +5 Volt supply operation
40 pin DIP plastic or cerdip package


8355 ROM and $1 / O$
2K bytes ROM
Two 8-bit ports (direction programmable)
Single +5 Volt supply operation
40 pin DIP plastic or cerdip package


One of the most important advances made with the MCS-85 is the socket-compatibility of the 8355 and 8755A components. This allows the systems designer to develop and debug in erasable PROM and then, when satisfied, switch over to mask-programmed ROM 8355 with no performance degradation or board relayout. It also allows quick prototype production for market impact without going to a compromise solution.


## SYSTEM EXPANSION

Each of these peripheral components has features that allow a small to medium system to be constructed without the addition of buffers and decoders to maintain the lowest possible component count.


Figure 1-1. MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Basic System

## INTERFACING TO MCS-80/85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ PROGRAMMABLE PERIPHERAL COMPONENTS

The MCS-85 shares with the MCS-80 a wide range of peripheral components that solve system problems and provide the designer with a great deal of flexibility in his I/O, Interrupt and DMA structures. The MCS-85 is directly compatible with these peripherals, and, with the exception of the 8257-5 DMA controller, needs no additional circuitry for their interface in a minimum system. The 8257-5 DMA controller uses an 8212 latch and some gating to support the multiplexed bus of MCS-85.

## PROGRAMMABLE PERIPHERALS

The list of programmable peripherals for use with the 8085A includes:
8251A Programmable Communications Interface
8253-5 Programmable Interval Timer 8255A-5

Programmable Peripheral Interface
8257-5 Programmable DMA Controller 8259-5 Programmable Interrupt Controller
8271 Diskette Controller
8273 Synchronous Data Link Controller
8275 CRT Controller
8278 Keyboard/Display Controller
8279 Keyboard/Display Controller
The MCS-80/85 peripheral compatibility assures the designer that all new peripheral components from Intel will interface to the MCS-85 bus structure to further expand the application spectrum of MCS-85.


## INTERFACING TO STANDARD MEMORY

The MCS-85 was designed to support the full range of system configurations from small 3 chip applications to large memory and I/O applications. The 8085A CPU issues advanced READ/WRITE status signals (S0, S1, and IO/M) so that, in the case of large systems, these signals could be used to simplify bus arbitration logic and dynamic RAM refresh circuitry.
In large, memory-intensive systems, standard memory devices may provide a more costeffective solution than do the special 8155 and 8355 devices, especially where few I/O lines are required.

## DEMULTIPLEXING THE BUS

In order to interface standard memory components such as Intel ${ }^{\text {© }}$ 2114, 2142, 2716, 2316E, 2104A and 2117 the MCS-85 bus must be "demultiplexed". This is accomplished by connecting an Intel ${ }^{\circledR} 8212$ latch to the data bus and strobing the latch with the ALE signal from the 8085A CPU. The ALE signal is issued to indicate that the multiplexed bus contains the lower 8 -bits of the address. The 8212 latches this information so that a full 16 -bit address is available to interface standard memory components.

## USE OF 8212

Large, memory intensive systems are usually multi-card implementations and require some form of TTL buffering to provide necessary current and voltage levels. Frequently, 8212s are used for this purpose. The 8212 has the advantage of being able to latch and demultiplex the address bus and provide extra address drive capability at the same time.


## SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

The true benchmark of any microcomputerbased system is the amount of tasks that can be performed by the system in a given period of time. Increasing speed of CPU instruction execution has been the common approach to increasing system throughput but this puts a greater strain on the memory access requirement and bus operation than is usually practical for most applications. A much more desirable method would be to distribute the task-load to peripheral devices.

## DISTRIBUTED PROCESSING

The concept of distributed task processing is not new to the computer designer, but until recently little if any task distribution was available to the microcomputer user. The use of the new programmable MCS-80/85 peripherals can relieve the central processor of many of the bookkeeping I/O and timing tasks that would otherwise have to be handled by system software.

## INSTRUCTION CYCLEIACCESS TIME

The basic instruction cycle of the 8085A is 1.3 microseconds, the same speed as the 8080A-1. A close look at the MCS-85 bus operation shows that the access requirement for this speed is only 575 nanoseconds. The MCS-80 access requirements for this speed would be under 300 nanoseconds. This illustrates the efficiency and improved timing margins of the MCS-85 bus structure. The new 8085A-2, a high-speed selected version of the 8085A with a .8 microsecond instruction cycle, provides a $60 \%$ performance improvement over the standard 8085A.

## CONCLUSIONS: THROUGHPUT/COST

When a total system throughput/cost analysis is taken, the MCS-85 system with its advanced processor will yield the most cost-effective, reliable and producible system.



## CHAPTER 2 <br> 8085A FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION

### 2.1 WHAT THE 8085A IS

The 8085A is an 8 -bit general-purpose microprocessor that is very cost-effective in small systems because of its extraordinarily low hardware overhead requirements. At the same time it is capable of accessing up to 64 K bytes of memory and has status lines for controlling large systems.

### 2.2 WHAT'S IN THE 8085A

In the 8085A microprocessor are contained the functions of clock generation, system bus control, and interrupt priority selection, in addition to execution of the instruction set. (See Figure 2-1.) The 8085A transfers data on an 8-bit, bidirectional 3-state bus ( $A D_{0.7}$ ) which is timemultiplexed so as to also transmit the eight lower-order address bits. An additional eight lines ( $A_{8-15}$ ) expand the MCS-85 system memory addressing capability to 16 bits, thereby allowing 64K bytes of memory to be accessed directly by the CPU. The 8085A CPU (central processing unit) generates control signals that can be used to select appropriate external devices and
functions to perform READ and WRITE operations and also to select memory or I/O ports. The 8085A can address up to 256 different I/O locations. These addresses have the same numerical values ( 00 through FFH) as the first 256 memory addresses; they are distinguished by means of the IO/M output from the CPU. You may also choose to address I/O ports as memory locations (i.e., memory-map the I/O, Section 3.2).

### 2.2.1 Registers

The 8085A, like the 8080, is provided with internal 8 -bit registers and 16 -bit registers. The 8085A has eight addressable 8-bit registers. Six of them can be used either as 8 -bit registers or as 16 -bit register pairs. Register pairs are treated as though they were single, 16-bit registers; the high-order byte of a pair is located in the first register and the low-order byte is located in the second. In addition to the register pairs, the 8085 A contains two more 16 -bit registers.


FIGURE 2-1 8085A CPU FUNCTIONAL BLOCK DIAGRAM

The 8085A's CPU registers are distinguished as follows:

- The accumulator (ACC or A Register) is the focus of all of the accumulator instructions (Table 4-1), which include arithmetic, logic, load and store, and I/O instructions. It is an 8-bit register only. (However, see Flags, in this list.)
- The program counter (PC) always points to the memory location of the next instruction to be executed. It always contains a 16-bit address.
- General-purpose registers BC, DE, and HL may be used as six 8-bit registers or as three 16-bit registers, interchangeably, depending on the instruction being performed. HL functions as a data pointer to reference memory addresses that are either the sources or the destinations in a number of instructions. A smaller number of instructions can use BC or DE for indirect addressing.
- The stack pointer (SP) is a special data pointer that always points to the stack top (next available stack address). It is an indivisible 16-bit register.
- The flag register contains five one-bit flags, each of which records processor status information and may also control processor operation. (See following paragraph.)


### 2.2.2 Flags

The five flags in the 8085A CPU are shown below:

| $D_{7}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{6}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{4}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{0}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| S | Z |  | AC |  | P |  | CY |

The carry flag (CY) is set and reset by arithmetic operations. Its status can be directly tested by a program. For example, the addition of two one-byte numbers can produce an answer that does not fit into one byte:

## HEXIDECIMAL <br> BINARY

$\begin{array}{r}\text { AEH } \\ +74 \mathrm{H} \\ \hline\end{array}$
122H


Carry bit sets carry flag to 1

An addition operation that results in an overflow out of the high-order bit of the accumulator sets the carry flag. An addition operation that does nod result in an overflow clears the carry flag. (See 8080/8085 Assembly Language Programming Manual for further details.) The carry flag also acts as a "borrow" flag for subtract operations.
The auxiliary carry flag (AC) indicates overflow out of bit 3 of the accumulator in the same way that the carry flag indicates overflow out of bit 7. This flag is commonly used in BCD (binary coded decimal) arithmetic.
The sign flag is set to the condition of the most significant bit of the accumulator following the execution of arithmetic or logic instructions. These instructions use bit 7 of data to represent the sign of the number contained in the accumulator. This permits the manipulation of numbers in the range from -128 to +127 .
The zero flag is set if the result generated by certain instructions is zero. The zero flag is cleared if the result is not zero. A result that has a carry but has a zero answer byte in the accumulator will set both the carry flag and the zero flag. For example,

HEXADECIMAL

## BINARY

A7H
$+59 \mathrm{H}$
10100111 01011001
+000000000
Carry bit
Eight zero bits set zero flag to 1

Incrementing or decrementing certain CPU registers with a zero result will also set the zero flag.
The parity flag $(P)$ is set to 1 if the parity (number of 1-bits) of the accumulator is even. If odd, it is cleared.

### 2.2.3 Stack

The stack pointer maintains the address of the last byte entered into the stack. The stack pointer can be initialized to use any portion of read-write memory as a stack. The stack pointer is decremented each time data is pushed onto the stack and is incremented each time data is popped off the stack (i.e., the stack grows downward in terms of memory address, and the stack "top" is the lowest numerical address represented in the stack currently in use). Note that the stack pointer is always incremented or decremented by two bytes since all stack operations apply to register pairs.

### 2.2.4 Arithmetic-Logic Unit (ALU)

The ALU contains the accumulator and the flag register (described in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2) and some temporary registers that are inaccessible to the programmer.
Arithmetic, logic, and rotate operations are performed by the ALU. The results of these operations can be deposited in the accumulator, or they can be transferred to the internal data bus for use elsewhere.

### 2.2.5 Instruction Register and Decoder

During an instruction fetch, the first byte of an instruction (containing the opcode) is transferred from the internal bus to the 8 -bit instruction register. (See Figure 2-1.) The contents of the instruction register are, in turn, available to the instruction decoder. The output of the decoder, gated by timing signals, controls the registers, ALU, and data and address buffers. The outputs of the instruction decoder and internal clock generator generate the state and machine cycle timing signals.

### 2.2.6 Internal Clock Generator

The 8085A CPU incorporates a complete clock generator on its chip, so it requires only the addition of a quartz crystal to establish timing for its operation. (It will accept an external clock input at its $X_{1}$ input instead, however.) A suitable crystal for the standard 8085A must be parallelresonant at a fundamental of 6.25 MHz or less, twice the desired internal clock frequency. The 8085A-2 will operate with crystal of up to 10 MHz . The functions of the 8085A internal clock generator are shown in Figure 2-2. A Schmitt trigger is used interchangeably as oscillator or


* EXTERNAL CAPACITORS REQUIRED ONLY FOR CRYSTAL FREQUENCIES $\leq 4 \mathrm{MHz}$.
as input conditioner, depending upon whether a crystal or an external source is used. The clock circuitry generates two nonoverlapping internal clock signals, $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ (see Figure 2-2). $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ control the internal timing of the 8085A and are not directly available on the outside of the chip. The external pin CLK is a buffered, inverted version of $\phi_{1}$. CLK is half the frequency of the crystal input signal and may be used for clocking other devices in the system.


FIGURE 2-3 8085A HARDWARE AND SOFT. WARE RST BRANCH LOCATIONS

### 2.2.7 Interrupts

The five hardware interrupt inputs provided in the 8085A are of three types. INTR is identical with the 8080A INT line in function; i.e., it is maskable (can be enabled or disabled by El or DI software instructions), and causes the CPU to fetch in an RST instruction, externally placed on the data bus, which vectors a branch to any one of eight fixed memory locations (Restart addresses). (See Figure 2-3.) INTR can also be controlled by the 8259 programmable interrupt controller, which generates CALL instructions instead of RSTs, and can thus vector operation of the CPU to a preprogrammed subroutine located anywhere in your system's memory map. The RST 5.5, RST 6.5, and RST 7.5 hardware interrupts are different in function in that they are maskable through the use of the SIM
instruction, which enables or disables these interrupts by clearing or setting corresponding mask flags based on data in the accumulator. (See Figure 2-4.) You may read the status of the interrupt mask previously set by peforming a RIM instruction. Its execution loads into the accumulator the following information. (See Figure 2-5.)

- Current interrupt mask status for the RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 hardware status.
- Current interrupt enable flag status (except that immediately following TRAP, the IE flag status preceding that interrupt is loaded).
- RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 interrupts pending.

RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 are also subject to being enabled or disabled by the EI and DI instructions, respectively. INTR, RST 5.5, and RST 6.5 are level-sensitive, meaning that these inputs may be acknowledged by the processor when they are held at a high level. RST 7.5 is edgesensitive, meaning that an internal flip-flop in the 8085A registers the occurrence of an interrupt the instant a rising edge appears on the RST 7.5 input line. This input need not be held high; the flip-flop will remain set until it is cleared by one of three possible actions:

- The 8085A responds to the interrupt, and sends an internal reset signal to the RST 7.5 flip-flop. (See Figure 2-6A.)


## SIM - SET INTERRUPT MASK (OPCODE = 30)

CONTENTS OF ACCUMULATOR BEFORE EXECUTING SIM:


FIGURE 2-4 INTERRUPT MASKS SET USING SIM INSTRUCTION

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { RIM - READ INTERRUPT MASK } \\
& \text { (OPCODE }=20 \text { ) }
\end{aligned}
$$



FIGURE 2-5 RIM - READ INTERRUPT MASK


FIGURE 2-6A RST 7.5 FLIP FLOP


FIGURE 2-6B TRAP INTERRUPT INPUTS

FIGURE 2-6 RST 7.5 AND TRAP INTERRUPT INPUTS

## FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION

- The 8085A, before responding to the RST 7.5 interrupt, receives a RESET IN signal from an external source; this also activates the internal reset.
- The 8085A executes a SIM instruction, with accumulator bit 4 previously set to 1. (See Figure 2-4.)

The third type of hardware interrupt is TRAP. This input is not subject to any mask or interrupt enable/disable instruction. The receipt of a positive-going edge on the TRAP input triggers the processor's hardware interrupt sequence, but the pulse must be held high until acknowledged internally (see Figure 2-6B).
The sampling of all interrupts occurs on the descending edge of CLK, one cycle before the end of the instruction in which the interrupt input is activated. To be recognized, a valid interrupt must occur at least 160 ns before sampling time in the 8085A, or 150 ns in the 8085A-2. This means that to guarantee being recognized, RST 5.5 and 6.5 and TRAP need to be held on for at least 17 clock states plus 160 ns ( 150 for 8085A-2), assuming that the interrupt might arrive just barely too late to be acknowledged during a particular instruction, and that the following instruction might be an 18 -state CALL. This timing assumes no WAIT or HOLD cycles are used.
The way interrupt masks are set and read is described in Chapter 4 under the RIM (read in-
terrupt mask) and SIM (set interrupt mask) instruction listings. Interrupt functions and their priorities are shown in the table that follows.

| Name | PriorityAddress (1) <br> Branched to <br> when inter- <br> rupt occurs | Type <br> Trigger |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TRAP | 1 | 24 H | Rising edge <br> AND high <br> level until <br> sampled |
| RST 7.5 | 2 | 3 CH | Rising edge <br> (latched) |
| RST 6.5 | 3 | 34 H | High level <br> until sam- <br> pled <br> High level <br> until sam- <br> pled |
| RST 5.5 | 4 | $2 C H$ | (2) |
| INTR | 5 | High level |  |
| until sam- |  |  |  |
| pled |  |  |  |

NOTES:
(1) In the case of TRAP and RST 5.5-7.5, the contents of the Program Counter are pushed onto the stack before the branch occurs.
(2) Depends on the instruction that is provided to the 8085A by the 8259 or other circuitry when the interrupt is acknowledged.

### 2.2.8 Serial Input and Output

The SID and SOD pins help to minimize chip count in small systems by providing for easy interface to a serial port using software for timing and for coding and decoding of the data. Each time a RIM instruction is executed, the status of the SID pin is read into bit 7 of the accumulator. RIM is thus a dual-purpose instruction. (See Chapter 4.) In similar fashion, SIM is used to latch bit 7 of the accumulator out to the SOD output via an internal flip-flop, providing that bit 6 of the accumulator is set to 1. (See Figure 2-7.) Section 2.3:8 describes SID and SOD timing.

SID can also be used as a general purpose TEST input and SOD can serve as a one-bit control output.

## EFFECT OF RIM INSTRUCTION



EFFECT OF SIM INSTRUCTION


FIGURE 2.7 EFFECT OF RIM AND SIM INSTRUCTIONS ON SERIAL DATA LINES

### 2.3 HOW THE MCS-85 SYSTEM WORKS

The 8085A CPU generates signals that tell peripheral devices what type of information is on the multiplexed Address/Data bus and from that point on the operation is almost identical to the MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ CPU Group. A multiplexed bus structure was chosen because it freed device pins so that more functions could be integrated on the 8085A and other components of the family. The multiplexed bus is designed to allow complete compatibility to existing peripheral
components with improved timing margins and access requirements. (See Figure 2-8.)
To enhance the system integration of MCS-85, several special components with combined memory and I/O were designed. These new devices directly interface to the multiplexed bus of the 8085A. The pin locations of the 8085A and the special peripheral components are assigned to minimize PC board area and to allow for efficient layout. The details on peripheral components are contained in subsequent paragraphs of this chapter and in Chapters 5 and 6.


FIGURE 2-8A MCS-80TM CPU GROUP


FIGURE 2-8B MCS-85TM CPUI8085A (MCS-80 COMPATIBLE FUNCTIONS)


FIGURE 2.8C MULTIPLEXED BUS TIMING

### 2.3.1 Multiplexed Bus Cycle Timing

The execution of any 8085A program consists of a sequence of READ and WRITE operations, of which each transfers a byte of data between the 8085A and a particular memory or I/O address. These READ and WRITE operations are the only communication between the processor and the other components, and are all that is necessary to execute any instruction or program.

Each READ or WRITE operation of the 8085A is referred to as a machine cycle. The execution of each instruction by the 8085A consists of a sequence of from one to five machine cycles, and each machine cycle consists of a minimum of from three to six clock cycles (also referred to as T states). Consider the case of the Store Accumulator Direct (STA) instruction, shown in Figure 2-9. The STA instruction causes the contents of the accumulator to be stored at the direct address specified in the second and third bytes of the instruction. During the first machine cycle $\left(\mathrm{M}_{1}\right)$, the CPU puts the contents of the program counter ( PC ) on the address bus and performs a MEMORY READ cycle to read from memory the opcode of the next instruction (STA). The $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ machine cycle is also referred to as the OPCODE FETCH cycle, since it fetches the operation code of the next instruction. In the fourth clock cycle ( $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ ) of $\mathrm{M}_{1}$, the CPU interprets the data read in and recognizes it as the opcode of the STA instruction. At this point the

CPU knows that it must do three more machine cycles (two MEMORY READs and one MEMORY WRITE) to complete the instruction.

The 8085A then increments the program counter so that it points to the next byte of the instruction and performs a MEMORY READ machine cycle $\left(\mathrm{M}_{2}\right)$ at address (PC+1). The accessed memory places the addressed data on the data bus for the CPU. The 8085A temporarily stores this data (which is the low-order byte of the direct address) internally in the CPU. The 8085A again increments the program counter to location ( $\mathrm{PC}+2$ ) and reads from memory $\left(\mathrm{M}_{3}\right)$ the next byte of data, which is the highorder byte of the direct address.

At this point, the 8085A has accessed all three bytes of the STA instruction, which it must now execute. The execution consists of placing the data accessed in $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ on the address bus, then placing the contents of the accumulator on the data bus, and then performing a MEMORY WRITE machine cycle $\left(\mathrm{M}_{4}\right)$. When $\mathrm{M}_{4}$ is finished, the CPU will fetch $\left(M_{1}\right)$ the first byte of the next instruction and continue from there.

## State Transition Sequence

As the preceding example shows, the execution of an instruction consists of a series of machine cycles whose nature and sequence is determined by the opcode accessed in the $M_{1}$


FIGURE 2.9 CPU TIMING FOR STORE ACCUMULATOR DIRECT (STA) INSTRUCTION

| MACHINE CYCLE |  |  | STATUS |  |  | CONTROL |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 10/M | S1 | S0 | हD | WR | INTA |
| OPCODE FETCH | (OF) |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| MEMORY READ | (MR) |  | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| MEMORY WRITE | (MW) |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| I/O READ | (IOR) |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| H/O WRITE | (IOW) |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| INTR ACKNOWLEDGE | (INA) |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| BUS IDLE | (BI): | DAD | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  |  | INA(RST/TRAP) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  |  | HALT | TS | 0 | 0 | TS | TS | 1 |

$0=$ Logic " 0 " $1=$ Logic "1" TS = High Impedance $X=$ Unspecified
FIGURE 2-10 8085A MACHINE CYCLE CHART
machine cycle. While no one instruction cycle will consist of more than five machine cycles, every machine cycle will be one of the seven types listed in Figure 2-10. These seven types of machine cycles can be differentiated by the state of the three status lines ( $10 / \bar{M}, \mathrm{~S}_{0}$, and $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ ) and the three control signals ( $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$, and INTA).

Most machine cycles consist of three T states, (cycles of the CLK output) with the exception of OPCODE FETCH, which normally has either four or six T states. The actual number of states required to perform any instruction depends on the instruction being executed, the particular machine cycle within the instruction cycle, and the number of WAIT and HOLD states inserted into each machine cycle through the use of the READY and HOLD inputs of the 8085A. The state transition diagram in Figure 2-11 illustrates how the 8085A proceeds in the course of a machine cycle. The state of various status and control signals, as well as the system buses, is shown in Figure 2-12 for each of the ten possible $T$ states that the processor can be in.

Figure 2-11 also shows when the READY, HOLD, and interrupt signals are sampled, and how they modify the basic instruction sequence ( $T_{1}-$ $\mathrm{T}_{6}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\text {wait }}$ ). As we shall see, the timings for each of the seven types of machine cycles are almost identical.

## OPCODE FETCH (OF):

The OPCODE FETCH (OF) machine cycle is unique in that it has more than three clock cycles. This is because the CPU must interpret the opcode accessed in $T_{1}, T_{2}$, and $T_{3}$ before it can decide what to do next.

note: SYmbol definition

| ${ }_{x}$ | $=$ CPU STATE $T_{x} \cdot$ ALL CPU STATE TRANSITIONS OCCUR ON THE FALLING EDGE OF CLK. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $=$ A DECISION (X) THAT DETERMINES WHICH OF SEVERAL ALTERNATIVE PATHS TO FOLLOW. |
| $\times$ | = PERFORM THE Action X . |
|  | flowline that indicates the sequence of events. |
| x | = FLOWLINE THAT INDICATES THE SEQUENCE OF EVENTS IF CONDITION X IS TRUE. |
| cc | = number of clock cycles in the current machine CYCLE. |
| bimc | = "BUS IDLE MACHINE CYCLE" = MACHINE CYCLE WHICH DOESN'T USE THE SYSTEM BUS. |
| VALIDINT $=$ | = "VALID INTERRUPT" - AN INTERRUPT IS PENDING THAT IS BOTH ENABLED AND UNMASKED (MASK. ING ONLY APPLIES FOR RST 5.5, 6.5, AND 7.5 INPUTS). |
| HLDA FF | $=$ INTERNAL HOLD ACKNOWLEDGE FLIP FLOP. NOTE THAT THE 8085A SYSTEM BUSES ARE 3-STATED ONE CLOCK CYCLE AFTER THE HLDA FLIP FLOP IS SET. |

FIGURE 2-11 8085A CPU STATE TRANSITION

| Machine State | Status \& Buses |  |  |  | Control |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | S1,S0 | 10/M | $A_{8}-A_{15}$ | $\mathrm{AD}_{0}-\mathrm{AD}_{7}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ | $\overline{\text { INTA }}$ | ALE |
| $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ | x | X | X | X | 1 | 1 | $1^{\dagger}$ |
| $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | 0 |
| TWAIT | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | x | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | X | x | x | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ | 1 | 0 * | X | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ | 1 | 0 * | $x$ | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{6}$ | 1 | 0* | X | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Treset | $x$ | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |
| Thalt | 0 | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |
| THOLD | x | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |

$0=$ Logic " 0 " $\quad 1=$ Logic " 1 " TS $=$ High Impedance $X=$ Unspecified
${ }^{\dagger}$ ALE not generated during 2 nd and 3rd machine cycles of DAD instruction.
${ }^{*} 10 / \bar{M}=1$ during $T_{4}-T_{6}$ states of RST and INA cycles.

FIGURE 2-12 8085A MACHINE STATE CHART

Figure 2-13 shows the timing relationships for an OF machine cycle. The particular instruction illustrated is DCX, whose timing for OF differs from other instructions in that it has six T states, while some instructions require only four T states for OF. In this discussion, as well as the following discussions, only the relative timing of the signals will be discussed; for the actual timings, refer to the data sheets of the individual parts in Chapters 5 and 6.

The first thing that the 8085A does at the beginning of every machine cycle is to send out three status signals (IO/ $\bar{M}, \mathrm{~S} 1, \mathrm{~S} 0$ ) that define what type of machine cycle is about to take place. The IO/M signal identifies the machine cycle as being either a memory reference or input/output operation. The S1 status signal identifies whether the cycle is a READ or WRITE operation. The S0 and S1 status signals can be used together (see Figure 2-10) to identify READ, WRITE, or OPCODE FETCH machine cycles as well as the HALT state. Referring to Figure 2-13, the 8085A will send out $I O / \bar{M}=0, S 1=1, S 0=1$ at the beginning of the machine cycle to identify it as a READ from a memory location to obtain an opcode; in other words, it identifies the machine cycle as an OPCODE FETCH cycle.

The 8085A also sends out a 16-bit address at the beginning of every machine cycle to identify the particular memory location or I/O port that the machine cycle applies to. In the case of an OF cycle, the contents of the program counter is placed on the address bus. The high order byte (PCH) is placed on the $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ lines, where it will stay until at least $\mathrm{T}_{4}$. The low order byte ( PCL ) is placed on the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ lines, whose three-state drivers are enabled if not found already on. Unlike the upper address lines, however, the information on the lower address lines will remain there for only one clock cycle, after which the drivers will go to their high impedance state, indicated by a dashed line in Figure 2-13. This is necessary because the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ lines are time mulitplexed between the address and data buses. During $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ of every machine cycle, $\mathrm{AD}_{0}$ $A D_{7}$ output the lower 8 -bits of address after which $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ will either output the desired data for a WRITE operation or the drivers will float (as is the case for the OF cycle), allowing the external device to drive the lines for a READ operation.

Since the address information on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ is of a transitory nature, it must be latched either internally in special multiplexed-bus components like the 8155 or externally in parts like the 8212 8-bit latch. (See Chapter 3.) The 8085A provides a special timing signal, ADDRESS LATCH ENABLE (ALE), to facilitate the latching of $A_{0}-A_{7}$; ALE is present during $T_{1}$ of every machine cycle.

After the status signals and address have been sent out and the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ drivers have been disabled, the 8085A provides a low level on $\overline{\text { RD }}$ to enable the addressed memory device. The device will then start driving the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ lines; this is indicated by the dashed line turning into a solid line in Figure 2-13. After a period of time (which is the access time of the memory) valid data will be present on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$. The 8085A during $T_{3}$ will load the memory data on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ into its instruction register and then raise $\overline{R D}$ to the high level, disabling the addressed memory device. At this point, the 8085A will have finished accessing the opcode of the instruction. Since this is the first machine cycle $\left(\mathrm{M}_{1}\right)$ of the instruction, the CPU will automatically step to $\mathrm{T}_{4}$, as shown in Figure 2-11.

During $T_{4}$, the CPU will decode the opcode in the instruction register and decide whether to enter $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ on the next clock or to start a new machine cycle and enter $\mathrm{T}_{1}$. In the case of the DCX instruction shown in Figure 2-13, it will enter $T_{5}$ and then $T_{6}$ before going to $T_{1}$.


FIGURE 2-13 OPCODE FETCH MACHINE CYCLE (OF DCX INSTRUCTION)

During $T_{5}$ and $T_{6}$, of DCX, the CPU will decrement the designated register. Since the $A_{8}-A_{15}$ lines are driven by the address latch circuits, which are part of the incrementer/decrementer logic, the $A_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ lines may change during $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{6}$. Because the value of $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ can vary during $T_{4}-T_{6}$, it is most important that all memory and I/O devices on the system bus qualify their selection with $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$. If they don't use $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$, they may be spuriously selected. Moreover, with a linear selection technique (Chapter 3), two or more devices could be simultaneously enabled, which could be potentially damaging. The generation of spurious addresses can also occur momentarily at address bus transitional periods in $\mathrm{T}_{1}$. Therefore, the selection of all memory and I/O devices must be qualified with RD or WR. Many new memory devices like the 8155 and 8355 have the RD input that internally is used to enable the data bus outputs, removing the need for externally qualifying the chip enable input with RD.

Figure 2-14 is identical to Figure 2-13 with one exception, which is the use of the READY line. As we can see in Figure 2-11, when the CPU is in $T_{2}$, it examines the state of the READY line. If the READY line is high, the CPU will proceed to $T_{3}$ and finish executing the instruction. If the READY line is low, however, the CPU will enter TwAIT and stay there indefinitely until READY goes high. When the READY line does go high, the CPU will exit Twait and enter $\mathrm{T}_{3}$, in order to complete the machine cycle. As shown in

Figure 2-14, the external effect of using the READY line is to preserve the exact state of the processor signals at the end of $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ for an integral number of clock periods, before finishing the machine gycle. This "stretching" of the system timing has the further effect of increasing the allowable access time for memory or I/O devices. By inserting TWAIT states, the 8085A can accommodate even the slowest of memories. Another common use of the READY line is to singe-step the processor with a manual switch.

### 2.3.2 Read Cycle Timing MEMORY READ (MR):

Figure 2-15 shows the timing of two successive MEMORY READ (MR) machine cycles, the first without a $T_{\text {WAIT }}$ state and the second with one $\mathrm{T}_{\text {WaIt }}$ state. The timing during $\mathrm{T}_{1}-\mathrm{T}_{3}$ is absolutely identical to the OPCODE FETCH machine cycle, with the exception that the status sent out during $T_{1}$ is $I O / \bar{M}=0, S 1=1, S 0=0$, identifying the cycles as a READ from a memory location. This differs from Figure 2-13 only in that S0 $=1$ for an OF cycle, identifying that cycle as an OPCODE FETCH operation. Otherwise, the two cycles are identical during $\mathrm{T}_{1}-\mathrm{T}_{3}$.
A second difference occurs at the end of $T_{3}$. As shown in Figure 2-11, the CPU always goes to $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ from $T_{3}$ during $M_{1}$, which is always an OF cycle. During all other machine cycles, the CPU will always go from $T_{3}$ to $T_{1}$ of the next machine cycle.


FIGURE 2-14 OPCODE FETCH MACHINE CYCLE WITH ONE WAIT STATE


FIGURE 2-15 MEMORY READ (OR I/O READ) MACHINE CYCLES (WITH AND WITHOUT WAIT STATES)

The memory address used in the OF cycle is always the contents of the program counter, which points to the current instruction, while the address used in the MR cycle can have several possible origins. Also, the data read in during an MR cycle is placed in the appropriate register, not the instruction register.

## I/O READ (IOR):

Figure 2-15 also shows the timing of two successive I/O READ (IOR) machine cycles, the first without a WAIT state. As is readily apparent, the timing of an IOR cycle is identical to the timing of an MR cycle, with the exception of $I O / \bar{M}=0$ for MR and $I O / \bar{M}=1$ for IOR; recall that $I O / \bar{M}$ status signal identifies the address of the current machine cycle as selecting either a memory location or an I/O port. The address used in the IOR cycle comes from the second byte (Port No.) of an INPUT instruction. Note that the I/O port address is duplicated onto both $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ and $A_{8}-A_{15}$. The IOR cycle can occur only as the third machine cycle of an INPUT instruction.
Note that the READY signal can be used to generate TWAIT $^{\text {states for I/O devices as well as }}$ memory devices. By gating the READY signal with the proper status lines, one could generate TWAIT states for memory devices only or for I/O devices only. By gating in the address lines, one can further qualify Twait $^{\text {state }}$ generation by the particular devices being accessed.

### 2.3.3 WRITE Cycle Timing MEMORY WRITE (MW):

Figure 2-16 shows the timing for two successive MEMORY WRITE (MW) machine cycles, the first without a $T_{\text {WAIT }}$ state, and the second with one Twait state. The 8085A sends out the status during $T_{1}$ in a similar fashion to the OF, MR and IOR cycles, except that $I O / \bar{M}=0, S 1=0$, and $\mathrm{SO}=1$, identifying the current machine cycle as being a WRITE operation to a memory location. The address is sent out during $T_{1}$ in an identical manner to MR. However, at the end of $\mathrm{T}_{1}$, there is a difference. While the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ drivers were disabled during $T_{2}-T_{3}$ of MR in expectation of the addressed memory device driving the $A D_{0-}$ $A D_{7}$ lines, the drivers are not disabled for MW. This is because the CPU must provide the data to be written into the addressed memory location. The data is placed on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ at the start of $T_{2}$. The WR signal is also lowered at this time to enable the writing of the addressed memory device. During $T_{2}$, the READY line is checked to see if a $T_{\text {wait }}$ state is required. If READY is low, Twait states are inserted until READY goes high. During $T_{3}$, the WR line is raised, disabling the addressed memory device and thereby terminating the WRITE operation. The contents of the address and data lines are not changed until the next $T_{1}$, which directly follows.
Note that the data on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ is not guaranteed to be stable before the falling edge


FIGURE 2-16 MEMORY WRITE (OR I/O WRITE) MACHINE CYCLES (WITH AND WITHOUT WAIT STATES)
of $\overline{W R}$. The $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ lines are guaranteed to be stable both before and after the rising edge of WR.

## I/O WRITE (IOW):

As Figure 2-16 shows, the timing for an I/O WRITE (IOW) machine cycle is the same as an MW machine cycle except that $I O / \bar{M}=0$ during the MW cycle and $10 / \bar{M}=$ during the IOW cycle. As with the IOR cycle discussed previously, the address used in an IOW cycle is the I/O port number which is duplicated on both the high and low bytes of the address bus. In the case of IOW, the port number comes from the second byte of an OUTPUT instruction as the instruction is executed.

### 2.3.4 Interrupt Acknowledge (INA) Timing

Figures 2-17 and 2-18 (a continuation of 2-17) depict the course of action the CPU takes in response to a high level on the INTR line if the INTE FF (interrupt enable flip-flop) has been set
by the El instruction. The status of the TRAP and RST pins as well as INTR is sampled during the second clock cycle before $\mathrm{M}_{1} \cdot \mathrm{~T}_{1}$. If INTR was the only valid interrupt and if INTE FF is set, then the CPU will reset INTE FF and then enter an INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE (INA) machine cycie. The INA cycle is identical to an OF cycle with two exceptions. INTA is sent out instead of $\overline{R D}$. Also, $I O / \bar{M}=1$ during INA, whereas $I O / \bar{M}=0$ for OF. Although the contents of the program counter are sent out on the address lines, the address lines can be ignored.

When INTA is sent out, the external interrupt logic must provide the opcode of an instruction to execute. The opcode is placed on the data bus and read in by the processor. If the opcode is the first byte of a multiple-byte instruction, additional INTA pulses will be provided by the 8085A to clock in the remaining bytes. RESTART and CALL instructions are the most


FIGURE 2-17 INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE MACHINE CYCLES (WITH CALL INSTRUCTION IN RESPONSE TO INTR)
logical choices, since they both force the processor to push the contents of the program counter onto the stack before jumping to a new location. In Figure 2-17 it is assumed that a CALL opcode is sent to the CPU during $M_{1}$. The CALL opcode could have been placed there by a device like the 8259 programmable interrupt controller.

After receiving the opcode, the processor then decodes it and determines, in this case, that the CALL instruction requires two more bytes. The CPU therefore performs a second INA cycle ( $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ ) to access the second byte of the instruction from the 8259. The timing of this cycle is identical to $M_{1}$, except that it has only three .T states. $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ is followed by another INA cycle $\left(\mathrm{M}_{3}\right)$ to access the third byte of the CALL instruction from the 8259.

Now that the CPU has accessed the entire instruction used to acknowledge the interrupt, it will execute that instruction. Note that any instruction could be used (except El or DI, the instructions which enable or disable interrupts), but the RESTART and CALL instructions are the most logical choices. Also notice that the CPU inhibited the incrementing of the program counter (PC) during the three INA cycles, so that the correct PC value can be pushed onto the stack during $\mathrm{M}_{4}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{5}$.

During $M_{4}$ and $M_{5}$, the CPU performs MEMORY WRITE machine cycles to write the upper and then lower bytes of the PC onto the top of the stack. The CPU then places the two bytes accessed in $M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ into the lower and upper bytes of the PC. This has the effect of jumping the execution of the program to the location specified by the CALL instruction.


FIGURE 2-18 INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE MACHINE CYCLES (WITH CALL INSTRUCTION IN RESPONSE TO INTR)

### 2.3.5 Bus Idle (BI) and HALT State

Most machine cycles of the 8085A are associated with either a READ or WRITE operation. There are two exceptions to this rule. The first exception takes place during $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ of the DAD instruction. The 8085A requires six internal T states to execute a DAD instruciton, but it is not desirable to have $M_{1}$ be ten (four normal plus six extra) states long. Therefore, the CPU generates two extra machine cycles that do not access either the memory or the I/O. These cycles are referred to as BUS IDLE (BI) machine cycles. In the case of DAD, they are identical to MR cycles except that RD remains high and ALE is not generated. Note that READY is ignored during $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ of DAD.

The other time when the BUS IDLE machine cycle occurs is during the internal opcode generation for the RST or TRAP interrupts. Figure 2-19 illustrates the Bl cycle generated in response to RST 7.5. Since this interrupt is rising-edgetriggered, it sets an internal latch; that latch is sampled at the falling edge of the next to the last T-state of the previous instruction. At this point the CPU must generate its own internal RESTART instruction which will (in subsequent machine cycles) cause the processor to push the program counter on the stack and to vector to location 3CH. To do this, it executes an OF machine cycle without issuing RD, generating the RESTART opcode instead. After $\mathrm{M}_{1}$, the CPU continues execution normally in all respects except that the state of the READY line is ignored during the BI cycle.


FIGURE 2-19 RST 7.5 BUS IDLE MACHINE CYCLE

Figure 2-20 illustrates the BI cycle generated in response to RST 7.5 when a HALT instruction has just been executed and the CPU is in the $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ state, with its various signals floating. There are only two ways the processor can completely exit the $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HaLt }}$ state, as shown in Figure 2-11. The first way is for RESET to occur, which always forces the 8085A to Treset. The second way to exit $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ permanently is for a valid interrupt to occur, which will cause the CPU to disable further interrupts by resetting INTE FF, and to then proceed to $M_{1} \cdot T_{1}$ of the next instruction. When the HOLD input is activated, the CPU will exit $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ for the duration of $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HOLD }}$ and then return to $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$.

In Figure 2-20 the RST 7.5 line is pulsed during $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$. Since RST 7.5 is a rising-edge-triggered interrupt, it will set an internal latch which is sampled during CLK = " 1 " of every $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ state (as well as during CLK = "1" two T states before any $M_{1} \cdot T_{1}$.) The fact that the latched interrupt was high (assuming that INTE FF $=1$ and the RST 7.5 mask $=0$ ) will force the CPU to exit the $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ state at the end of the next CLK period, and to enter $M_{1} \cdot T_{1}$.

This completes our analysis of the timing of each of the seven types of machine cycles.


FIGURE 2-20 HALT STATE AND BUS IDLE MACHINE CYCLE RST 7.5 TERMINATES THALT STATE

### 2.3.6 HOLD and HALT States

The 8085A uses the Thold state to momentarily cease executing machine cycles, allowing external devices to gain control of the bus and peform DMA cycles. The processor internally latches the state of the HOLD line and the unmasked interrupts during CLK = " 1 " of every $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ state. If the internal latched HOLD signal is high during CLK $=$ " 1 " of any $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ state, the CPU will exit $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ and enter $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HOLD }}$ on the following CLK = "1". As shown in Figure 2-21 this will occur even if a valid interrupt occurs simultaneously with the HOLD signal.

The state of the HOLD and the unmasked interrupt lines is latched internally during CLK $=1$ of each $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HOLD }}$ state as well as during $\mathrm{T}_{\text {halt }}$ states. If the internal latched HOLD signal is low during CLK = 1, the CPU will exit $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HOLD }}$ and enter $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HALT }}$ on the following CLK $=1$.

The 8085A accepts the first unmasked, enabled interrupt sampled; thereafter, all interrupt sampling is inhibited. The interrupt thus accepted will inevitably be executed when the CPU exits the HOLD state, even at the expense of holding off higher-priority interrupts (including TRAP). (See Figure 2-22.)

When the CPU is not in Thalt or $\mathrm{T}_{\text {hold }}$, it internally latches the HOLD line only during CLK = 1 of the last state before $T_{3}\left(T_{2}\right.$ or $\left.T_{\text {WAIT }}\right)$ and during CLK $=.1$ of the last state before $\mathrm{T}_{5}\left(\mathrm{~T}_{4}\right.$ of a six T-state $M_{1}$ ). If the internal latched HOLD signal is high during the next CLK $=1$, the CPU will enter $\mathrm{T}_{\text {HOLD }}$ after the following clock. When the CPU is not in Thalt or Thold, it will internally latch the state of the unmasked interupts only during CLK of the next to the last state before each $M_{1} \cdot T_{1}$.


FIGURE 2-21 HOLD VS INTERRUPT — NON HALT


FIGURE 2-22 8085A HOLD VS INTERRUPTS - HALT MODE

### 2.3.7 Power On and RESET IN

The 8085A employs a special internal circuit to increase its speed. This circuit, which is called a substrate bias generator, creates a negative voltage which is used to negatively bias the substrate. The circuit employs an oscillator and a charge pump which require a certain amount of time after POWER ON to stabilize. (See Figure 2-23.)

Taking this circuit into account, the 8085A is not guaranteed to work until 10 ms after $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{cc}}$ reaches 4.75 V . For this reason, it is suggested that RESET IN be kept low during this period. Note that the 10 ms period does not include the time it takes for the power supply to reach its 4.75V level - which may be milliseconds in some systems. A simple RC network (Figure 3-6) can satisfy this requirement.

The RESET IN line is latched every CLK $=1$. This latched signal is recognized by the CPU during CLK $=1$ of the next T state. (See Figure 2-24.) If it is low, the CPU will issue RESET OUT and enter ThaLT for the next T state. RESET IN should be kept low for a minimum of three clock periods to ensure proper synchronization of the CPU. When the RESET IN signal goes high, the

CPU will enter $M_{1} \cdot T_{1}$ for the next $T$ state. Note that the various signals and buses are floated in $\mathrm{T}_{\text {reset }}$ as well as $\mathrm{T}_{\text {halt }}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\text {hold. }}$ For this reason, it is desirable to provide pull-up resistors for the main control signals (particularly WR).
Specifically, the RESET IN signal causes the following actions:

## RESETS

PROGRAM COUNTER INSTRUCTION REGISTER INTE FF
RST 7.5 FF
TRAP FF
SOD FF
MACHINE STATE FF'S
MACHINE CYCLE FF's INTERNALLY LATCHED FF's for HOLD, INTR, and READY

RESET IN does not explicitly change the contents of the 8085A registers (A, B, C, D, E, H, L) and the condition flags, but due to RESETIN occurring at a random time during instruction execution, the results are indeterminate.


FIGURE 2-23 POWER-ON TIMING


FIGURE 2-24 RESET IN TIMING

Following RESET, the 8085A will start executing instructions at location 0 with the interrupt system disabled, as shown in Figure 2-24.

Figure 2-24 also shows READ and WRITE operations being terminated by a RESET signal. Note that a RESET may prematurely terminate any READ or WRITE operation in process when the RESET occurs.

### 2.3.8 SID and SOD Signals:

Figure 2-25 shows the timing relationship of the SID and SOD signals to the RIM and SIM instructions. The 8085A has the ability to read the SID line into the accumulator bit 7 using RIM instructions. The state of the SID line is latched internally during $\mathrm{T}_{3} \cdot \mathrm{CLK}=0$ of the RIM instruction. Following this, the state of the interrupt pins and masks are also transferred directly to the accumulator.

The 8085A can set the SOD flip-flop from bit 7 of the accumulator using the SIM instruction. (See Figure 2-26.) The data is transferred from the accumulator bit 7 to SOD during $\mathrm{M}_{1} \cdot \mathrm{~T}_{2} \cdot \mathrm{CLK}=0$ of the instruction following SIM, assuming that accumulator bit 6 is a 1 . Accumulator bit 6 is a "serial output enable" bit.


FIGURE 2-25 RELATIONSHIP OF SID AND SOD SIGNALS TO RIM AND SIM INSTRUCTIONS


EFFECT OF SIM INSTRUCTION


FIGURE 2-26 EFFECT OF RIM AND SIM INSTRUCTIONS

### 2.4 COMPARISON OF MCS-80 AND MCS-85 SYSTEM BUSES

This section compares the MCS-80 bus with the MCS-85 bus. Figure 2-28 details the signals and general timing of the two buses; the timing diagrams are drawn to the same scale (8080 A clock cycle $=480 \mathrm{~ns}$ and 8085A clock cycle $=$ 320 ns ) to facilitate comparison.

## MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus

The MCS-80 bus is terminated on one end by the CPU-GROUP (consisting of the 8080A, 8224, 8228) and on the other end by the various memory and I/O circuits. The following figure shows the major signals of the MCS-80 bus.


FIGURE 2-27 COMPARISON OF SYSTEM BUSES

## MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus

SIGNAL(S)
$\mathrm{A}_{0}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$
$D_{0}-D_{7}$

MEMR, MEMW, $\overline{\text { IOR, }} \overline{\text { IOWW, }} \overline{\text { INTA }}$

READY, RESET, HOLD, HLDA $\phi 2$ (TTL), INT

## FUNCTION

The 16 lines of the address bus identify a memory or I/O location for a data transfer operation.
The 8 lines of the data bus are used for the parallel transfer of data between two devices.

These five control lines (MEMORY READ, MEMORY WRITE, I/O READ, I/O WRITE, and INTERRUPT ACKNOWLEDGE) identify the type and timing of a data transfer operation.
These signals are used for the synchronization of slow speed memories, system reset, DMA, sytem timing, and CPU interrupt.

MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { SIGNAL(S) } & \begin{array}{l}\text { FUNCTION } \\ \text { These are the high order } \\ \text { eight bits of the address, } \\ \text { and are used to identify a } \\ \text { memory or I/O location for a } \\ \text { data transfer cycle. }\end{array} \\ \text { These eight lines serve a } \\ \text { dual function. During the } \\ \text { beginning of a data transfer } \\ \text { operation, these lines carry } \\ \text { the low order eight bits of } \\ \text { the address bus. During the } \\ \text { remainder of the cycle, } \\ \text { these lines are used for the } \\ \text { parallel transfer of data be- } \\ \text { tween two devices. }\end{array}\right\}$

## MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus for READ CYCLE

The basic timing of the MCS-80 BUS for a READ CYCLE is as follows:


The MCS-80 first presents the address (1) and shortly thereafter the control signal (2). The data bus, which was in the high impedance state, is driven by the selected device (3). The selected device eventually presents the valid data to the processor (4). The processor raises the control signal (5), which causes the selected device to put the data bus in the high impedance state (6). The processor then changes the address $(7)$ for the start of the next data transfer.

## MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus for WRITE CYCLE

The basic timing of the MCS-80 BUS for a WRITE CYCLE is as follows:


The MCS-80 first presents the address (1), then enables the data bus driver (2), and later presents the data (3). Shortly thereafter, the MCS-80 drops the control signal (4) for an interval of time and then raises the signal (5). The MCS-80 then changes the address (6) in preparation for the next data transfer. The advance write signal of the 8238 is also shown (7).

## MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus for READ CYCLE

The basic timing of the MCS-85 BUS for a READ CYCLE is as follows:


At the beginning of the READ cycle, the 8085A sends out all 16 bits of address (1). This is followed by ALE (2) which causes the lower eight bits of address to be latched in either the 8155/56, 8355, 8755A, or in an external 8212. $\overline{\text { RD }}$ is then dropped (3) by the 8085A. The data bus is then tri-stated by the 8085A in preparation for the selected device driving the bus (4); the selected device will continue to drive the bus with valid data (5), until $\overline{R D}$ is raised (6) by the 8085A. At the end of the READ CYCLE (7), the address and data lines are changed in preparation for the next cycle.

## MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ System Bus for WRITE CYCLE

The basic timing of the MCS-85 BUS for a WRITE CYCLE is as follows:


The timing of the WRITE CYCLE is identical to the MCS-85 READ CYCLE with the exception of the $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ lines. At the beginning of the cycle (1), the low order eight bits of address are on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$. After ALE drops, the eight bits of data (2) are put on $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$. They are removed (3) at the end of the WRITE CYCLE, in anticipation of the next data transfer.

The following observations of the two buses can be made:

1. The access times from address leaving the processor to returning data are almost identical, even though the 8085A is operating $50 \%$ faster than the 8080.
2. With the addition of an 8212 latch to the 8085A, the basic timings of the two systems are very similar.
3. The 8085A has more time for address setup to $\overline{R D}$ than the 8080.
4. The MCS-80 has a wider $\overline{R D}$ signal, but a narrower WR signal than the 8085A.
5. The MCS-80 provides stable data setup to the leading and trailing edges of WR, while the 8085 provides stable data setup to only the trailing edge of WR.
6. The MCS-80 control signals have different widths and occur at different points in the machine cycle, while the 8085A control signals have identical timing.
7. While not shown on the chart, the MCS-80 data and address hold times are adversely affected by the processor preparing to enter the HOLD state. The 8085A has identical timing regardless of entering HOLD.
8. Also not shown on the chart is the fact that all output signals of the 8085A have $-400 \mu$ a of source current and 2.0 ma of sink current. The 8085A also has input voltage levels of $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{IL}}=0.8 \mathrm{~V}$ and $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{IH}}=2.0 \mathrm{~V}$.

## CONCLUSION:

The preceding discussion has clearly shown that the MCS-85 bus satisfies the two restrictions of COMPATIBILITY and SPEED. It is compatible because it requires only an 8212 latch to generate an MCS-80 type bus. If the four control signals MEMR, MEMW, IOR and IOW are desired, they can be generated from $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$,
and IO/M with a decoder or a few gates. The MCS-85 bus is also fast. While running at 3 MHz , the 8085A generates better timing signals than the MCS-80 does at 2 MHz . Furthermore, the multiplexed bus structure doesn't slow the 8085A down, because it is using the internal states to overlap the fetch and execution portions of different machine cycles. Finally, the MCS-85 can be slowed down or sped up considerably, while still providing reasonable timing.

TO USE. The $\overline{R D}, \overline{W R}$, and INTA control signals all have identical timing, which isn't affected by the CPU preparing to enter the HOLD state. Furthermore, the address and data bus have good setup and hold times relative to the control signals. The voltage and current levels for the interface signals will all drive buses of up to 40 MOS devices, or 1 schottky TTL device.

The MCS-85 system bus is also EFFICIENT. Efficiency is the reason that the lower eight address lines are multiplexed with the data bus. Every chip that needs to use both $A_{0}-A_{7}$ and $D_{0}-$ $D_{7}$ saves 7 pins (the eighth pin is used for ALE) on the interface to the processor. That means that 7 more pins per part are available to either add features to the part or to use a smaller package in some cases. In the three chip system shown in Figure 3-6, the use of the MCS-85 bus saves $3 \times 7=21$ pins, which are used for extra I/O and interrupt lines. A further advantage of the MCS-85 bus is apparent in Figure 3-7, which shows a printed circuit layout of the circuit in Figure 3-6. The reduced number of pins and the fact that compatible pinouts were used, provides for an extremely compact, simple, and efficient printed circuit. Notice that great care was taken when the pinouts were assigned to ensure that the signals would flow easily from chip to chip to chip.

## System Operating and Interfacing

## CHAPTER 3 8085A SYSTEM OPERATION AND INTERFACING

### 3.1 INTERFACING TO THE 8085A

The 8085A interfaces to both memory and I/O devices by means of READ and WRITE machine cycles, the timing of which are identical. During each machine cycle the 8085A issues an address and a control signal, then either sends data out on the bus or reads data from the bus. The 8085A may be performing a READ machine cycle, but what it reads could be a ROM, RAM, I/O device, peripheral device, or nothing.
There is no distinction between data, instruction opcodes, and I/O port numbers except the way the CPU interprets what it reads from the bus. If an opcode is what would logically appear on the bus, the CPU will treat as an opcode whatever does appear there; if an I/O port number is to be expected, what appears will be interpreted as a port number. The same is true for a WRITE cycle. The 8085A issues an address, data, and a control signal. Unless it is requested to WAIT (by use of the READY line) it will complete the cycle and proceed to the next. Regardless of whether there is a device present to accept the data, the CPU executes one instruction at a time, in sequence, until told to do otherwise. The program controls the sequence and nature of all machine cycles until an interrupt occurs.
There are two ways of addressing I/O devices in the MCS-85 system. If the IO/M output from the CPU is used to distinguish between I/O and memory READ and WRITE cycles, then that system is said to employ standard, or I/O-mapped, IIO. If $10 / \bar{M}$ is not so used, the CPU does not distinguish between I/O and memory, and its system employs memorymapped I/O. Each method of addressing I/O has advantages and disadvantages.

### 3.2 MEMORY-MAPPED I/O

### 3.2.1 Advantages of Memory-Mapped IIO

Since the processor doesn't distinguish I/O from memory using this addressing scheme, you can take advantage of the larger instruction set that references the memory address space. Instead of only being able to transfer a byte of data between the accumulator and the I/O port (using INPUT and OUTPUT instructions), you can now program
arithmetic and logic operations on port data as well as move data between any internal register and the I/O port. Consider the new meaning of the following instructions:

| Examples: |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| MOVr,M | (Input Port to any Register) |
| MOV M,r | (Output any Register to Port) |
| MVI M | (Output immediate data to Port) |
| LDA | (Input Port to ACC) |
| STA | (Output from ACC to Port) |
| LHLD | (16-Bit Input) |
| SHLD | (16-Bit Output) |
| ADD M | (Add Port to ACC) |
| ANA M | (AND Port with ACC) |

### 3.2.2 Disadvantages of Memory-Mapped IVO

While memory instructions may increase the flexibility of the I/O system, there are some drawbacks. Since I/O devices are now addressed as memory, there are fewer addresses available for memory. A common practice is to use address bit $15\left(\mathrm{~A}_{15}\right)$ to distinguish memory from I/O. (See Figure 3-2 and accompanying discussion.) If $\mathrm{A}_{15}=0$ then memory is being addressed; if $A_{15}=1, I / O$ is being addressed. This particular scheme limits the maximum amount of memory that can be used to 32k bytes. A further disadvantage of memory-mapped I/O is that it takes 3 bytes of instruction and 13 clock cycles using the LDA or STA instructions to specify moving a byte of data between the accumulator and an I/O device, whereas the INPUT and OUTPUT instructions require only two bytes and 10 clock cycles. This is because the I/O address space is smaller (only 256 bytes) and therefore requires fewer bits to completely specify an address. A futher advantage of using the IN PUT and OUTPUT Instructions is that it allows the easy connection of the MCS-80 peripherals to the MCS-85 multiplexed bus. If you memorymap the MCS-80 peripherals to the MCS-85 bus, you must either latch the lower address bits with an 8212 or use a portion of the memory address space by connecting the chip selects and address lines of the ports to the unmultiplexed upper eight lines of the address bus.

### 3.3 ADDRESS ASSIGNMENT

### 3.3.1 Decoding

Besides memory-mapped I/O, another practice is to only partially decode the address bus when generating chip selects. Every device has a given number of unique addresses associated with it. The 8355, for instance, has $2 k$ bytes of ROM and therefore has 2 k addresses associated with the ROM. Any one of these $2 k$ addresses can be uniquely specified by a pattern on the 11 $(211=2 k)$ address lines. However, since the 8355 must work with other devices in a system, it isn't enough to simply specify the 11 bits; further bits of information must be used to locate the $2 k$ bytes within the 65 k address space. The $2 k$ bytes are located by the use of chip enable (CE) inputs to the 8355 chip. If the 8355 were to occupy the first 2 k bytes of the memory address space, it would, strictly speaking, be necessary to decode the fact that $A_{15}-A_{11}$ were all zeroes, and use that condition as a chip enable. Then the 8355 would be selected only when the address bus was less than $2 k$.

However, if other 2k blocks of addresses aren't being used, you may combine those addresses and not decode all of the upper five address lines for chip enables. In fact, in a small system you may need to decode only one bit of address, which is to say connect that bit of the address bus to the chip enable line of the 8355. If you connect $A_{11}$ to the $\overline{C E}$ line of the 8355 and tie CE to $V_{c c}$, then the 8355 would be selected whenever the memory address was less than $2 k$. (See Figure 3-1A.)

However, it will also be selected whenever memory locations $4 k-6 k$, $8 k-10 k$, 61k-63k (i.e., whenever bit $A_{11}=0$ ) is addressed. If the programmer is aware of this, and if there are no other devices assigned to the other address spaces, then it may be an acceptable condition. Care must be taken, however, to ensure that at no time will two different devices be selected simultaneously. Whenever one device is selected, that memory address must deselect all other devices. If two devices are selected simultaneously for a READ operation, the electrical conflict on the bus may damage one or both parts. Note also that the address bus may reflect an undesired address during $\mathrm{T}_{5}, \mathrm{~T}_{6}$ of an opcode fetch cycle and during address bus transitional periods in $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ (this is illustrated in Chapter 2). Therefore, all memory and I/O devices must qualify their selection with $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ or WR, or the address on the bus at the falling edge of the ALE, so as to ignore all spurious addresses.

### 3.3.2 Linear Selection

Using an address bit as a chip select is referred to as linear selection. The direct consequence of linear selection is that you cut the available address space in half for each single address bit used as a chip enable. If this penalty is too high, you can always use an 8205 one-of-eight decoder. Also, some chips have multiple chip enables, which allows for some automatic decoding of the address. (See Figures 3-1B and 3-1C.)
One drawback to linear selection is that the memory addresses of the different parts are not contiguous. For example, if three 8355 s are addressed using linear selection, one might be located at $0-2 \mathrm{k}$, the next at $6 \mathrm{k}-8 \mathrm{k}$, and the next at 10k-12k. The programmer must recognize these page boundries and jump over them.

### 3.4 INTERFACING TO THE 8155/8156, 8355/8755A

### 3.4.1 I/O Mapped I/O:

This section describes some of the techniques involved in connecting the MCS-85 combination memory and I/O chips to the 8085A as I/O devices.
Figure 3.1A shows one 8355 connected to the 8085A bus. (In the interest of simplicity, only the chip enable and IO/ $\bar{M}$ lines are shown; the other lines are connected as shown in Figures 3.6, 3.7 or 3.8.) Notice that CE is tied to $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ and $\overline{C E}$ is connected to $A_{11}$. This is because after RESET the processor always starts executing at location 0 . Since the ROM normally contains the program, it must be selected when the address is all zeroes.
One consequence of the ROM being selected by an all-zero address is that the I/O ports on the chip will be selected only when $\mathrm{A}_{11}=0$. This is because the $1 / O$ ports and the memory have common chip enables, therefore forcing the selection conditions of one onto the other. Furthermore, since the $I O / \bar{M}$ line of the chip is connected to the $10 / \bar{M}$ line of the 8085A, the port has I/O mapped I/O. The I/O ports can be accessed only by use of the INPUT and OUTPUT instructions; since these are the only instructions that cause $I O / \bar{M}$ to go high.
The boxes to the right of the chip in Figure 3.1A indicate the memory addresses and I/O Port numbers required to access the chip. As a result of the linear selection technique used, there are many "don't care" bits (marked by " $X$ " $s$ ) in the address. While they don't affect the addressing of this device, they may affect other

## FIGURE 3-1A SINGLE CHIP



FIGURE 3-1B MULTIPLE CHIPS


FIGURE 3-1C FULLY DECODED AND EXPANDED


10/M

FIGURE 3-1D SEPARATE CHIP ENABLES FOR I/O AND MEMORY


FIGURE 3-1 MCS-85™ PERIPHERALS WITH I/O MAPPED I/O
devices in the system, which would force them to be either ones or zeroes. Remember that two devices may not be selected simultaneously; thus each device must have an address that not only selects itself, but also deselects all other devices. If there are any bits which are truly "don't cares," they are customarily assigned to be zero. If all the " $X$ " bits in Figure 3.1A were "don't cares," then the chip could be addressed as memory locations $0-2 \mathrm{k}$, and I/O Ports 0-3.
Figure 3.1B shows a slightly larger system of two 8355s and one 8156. Notice that 8355 No. 1 uses its two chip enable lines to decode $A_{12}=1$, $\mathrm{A}_{13}=0$. It is possible to address each of the chips without selecting any of the others. Also notice that there are some illegal addresses (e.g., $A_{12}=0, A_{13}=1$ ) that would cause two of the devices to turn on simultaneously. The programmer must not use these addresses.
Figure 3.1C shows a larger MCS-85 system. Two 8205s are used to completely decode the addresses. There are some interesting points to observe here. First, while some of the devices have multiple possible address (i.e., they have some "don't care" bits), there aren't any addresses which can cause simultaneous selection of two or more parts. Second, the I/O and
memory portions of the $8 \times 55$ components share chip enables, so they are forced to live with each other's constraints. Third, only one 8205 is required per eight chips for the decoding; that's an overhead of only $1 / 8$ of a chip per part.
Figure 3.1D shows a remedy to the problem illustrated in Figure 3.1C, namely that I/O and memory portions of the chip are forced to live with each other's chip enable constraints. By using a quad 2 to 1 multiplexer, the chip enables of the I/O and memory portions of four chips can be independently assigned.

### 3.4.2 Memory-Mapped I/O:

Figure 3.2A shows an 8355 connected to the 8085A. Since the $10 / \bar{M}$ pin of the 8355 is connected to $A_{15}$, whenever $A_{15}=1$ the I/O ports will be accessed. While $A_{15}$ could be set to 1 either by a memory or by an I/O instruction, in this situation the port is usually accessed only by the memory instructions. You may access ports either as memory locations (where $\mathrm{A}_{15}=1$ refers to a memory address of 32 k or higher) or as I/O ports (where $A_{15}=1$ refers to an I/O address of 128 or higher, since bits $A_{8}-A_{15}$ are a

FIGURE 3-2A SINGLE CHIP


FIGURE 3-2B MULTIPLE CHIPS


FIGURE 3-2 MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {™ }}$ PERIPHERALS WITH MEMORY-MAPPED I/O
replication of bits $A_{0}-A_{7}$ ). Assuming that memory-mapped I/O is used, the addresses are shown in the boxes to the right in Figure 3-2. If you want to be sure that neither the I/O nor the memory is ever selected by any INPUT or OUTPUT instruction, then the chip enable must be conditioned by $10 / \bar{M}=0$.
Figure 3.2 B shows a somewhat larger system, also using memory-mapped I/O. As in Figure 3.1B care must be exercised to ensure that no two devices are accessed simultaneously. You can see that considerable memory address space is used up as a result of using memorymapped I/O.

### 3.5 INTERFACING TO MCS-80™ PERIPHERALS

### 3.5.1 I/O Mapped I/O:

For want of a better name, the Intel ${ }^{(8)} 825 x, 827 x$, and 829x series peripherals are referred to here as MCS-80 peripherals because unlike the $8155 /$ 56, 8355 and 8755A, they are compatible with the nonmultiplexed MCS-80 system bus.
To interface to an MCS-80 peripheral, you must provide a constant address, a chip select, and $\overline{R D}$ or $\overline{W R}$. Since the upper address lines $\left(\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}\right)$ of the 8085A are nonmultiplexed, they can be tied directly to the peripherals, as shown in Figure 3.3A. To provide I/O mapped I/O, use either linear selection (keeping the I/O and memory addresses noncoincidental), or condition the chip selects $\overline{W R}$ with $I O / \bar{M}=1$. Figure 3.3A shows a technique of gating the chip selects with $1 O / \bar{M}=1$, using an 8205 . This technique also allows more I/O devices to be used than linear selection would. Note that this technique relies on the fact that the I/O Port number is copied onto $A_{8}-A_{15}$ as well as $A_{0}-A_{7}$ during an INPUT or OUTPUT instruction.
Figure 3.3B shows an alternative approach to interfacing to MCS-80 components. By latching the lower 8 bits of address with an 8212, and decoding the control signals with an 8205, you create an exact copy of the MCS-80 (8080A, 8224, 8228) bus. You may then use whatever circuits have been previously developed for the 8080. The total cost is one 8212 and one 8205. Since the same signals might have needed buffering anyway (and the 8212 and 8205 provide buffering of their outputs), the extra component overhead ranges from little to nothing.

### 3.5.2 Memory-Mapped I/O:

Exactly the same techniques used to memory map the MCS-85 apply to the MCS-80 I/O devices. Figure 3.4 shows an 8205 used to qualify the chip select of the I/O device with IO/ $\bar{M}=0$. Since
the MCS-80 peripherals require nonmultiplexed address lines, linear select is not too useful unless the address lines are latched. This is because connecting both the chip selects and the address lines of the MCS-80 peripherals to $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ would deplete all the useful addresses very quickly.

### 3.6 INTERFACING TO STANDARD BUS MEMORIES

Standard bus memory devices are designed to be used with nonmultiplexed address and data buses. Interfacing to standard memories is very similar to interfacing to MCS-85 memories with the exception that $A_{0}-A_{7}$ must be latched. Once this requirement is met, all the tricks discussed earlier can be used. Since the address lines would eventually require buffering as the system size grew, the overhead of the 8212 latch again becomes negligible.
Figure 3.5 shows the interface of the 8085A to a large block of memory, specifically 16 k bytes of ROM and 8 k bytes of RAM. Besides the memories, the circuit requires only 2-1/6 other parts for logical gating. If MCS-80 I/O parts were used, the 8212 latch could be shared between the two groups, further reducing the gating overhead per IC. Sixteen 2142 chips and eight 2316E chips are used in this design. The data bus, address lines 8-10, and control signals in this system all should be buffered. This applies to any system with the number of memory devices represented here.
Wherever two or more parts are paralleled on the same bus, they must be 3 -state devices such as the 2142 RAM, 2316E ROM, 2716 EPROM, 2332 ROM, 2732 EPROM, and 2364 ROM, which have either an output disable (OD) input or multiple chip select (CS) inputs. To prevent bus contention, only one memory device may be output-enabled at a time in this configuration; the outputs of all others must be deselected during $\overline{R D}$.
For additional information on interfacing standard memory devices, please read Section 2 of Appendix I and the Intel applications note AP-30 "Application of Intel's 5 V EPROM and ROM Family for Microprocessor Systems" available from: Intel, Literature Dept., 3065 Bowers Ave., Santa Clara, CA 95051.

### 3.7 DYNAMIC RAM INTERFACE:

For interfacing the dynamic RAM, Intel makes a single-component dynamic RAM refresh controller, the 8202, which interfaces the 8085A to multiplexed-address-bus dynamic RAMs like

FIGURE 3-3A DECODED CHIP SELECTS


FIGURE 3-3B DECODED CONTROLS AND LATCHED ADDRESS (MCS-80 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ TYPE BUS)


FIGURE 3-3 MCS-80™ PERIPHERALS WITH I/O MAPPED I/O


FIGURE 3-4 MCS-80™ PERIPHERALS WITH MEMORY-MAPPED I/O AND DECODED CHIP SELECTS
the Intel 2104A and 2117. The 8202 provides the necessary refreshing for such dynamic RAMs, and also provides the control signals required for accessing, selecting, and address clocking. It allows for the use of the 8085A's full capability of 64 k bytes of address space with no additional buffering devices. As with other standard memory interfaces, it is necessary to demultiplex the lower 8 bits of address from the multiplexed 8085A bus, AD $_{0.7}$.

### 3.8 MINIMUM MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ SYSTEM

The Schematics of Figure 3.6 depict a minimum system core. In actual use, some of the processor control signals (TRAP, INTR, and HOLD) would have to be terminated. Also, interface logic to external devices as well as more memory and I/O devices may be desirable. The first thing one notices about the system in Figure 3.6 is the scarcity of parts required to build this system. With a minimum of parts, we
have constructed a microcomputer system that has the following functions:

PARTS
1 8085A
$18355 / 8755 A$
18156
1 Crystal
4 Resistors
1 Capacitor
1 Diode
1 +5 Power Supply

## FUNCTIONS

1 CPU (Clock cycle $\leq 320 \mathrm{~ns}$ )
2048 Bytes of either EPROM or ROM 256 Bytes of RAM 38 I/O Lines

## 5 Interrupts

1 Programmable Timer/ Counter
1 Crystal and Oscillator
1 Clock
1 Power-on Reset
By looking at the printed circuit layout of Figure 3.7, we can see that not only are there just 3 ICs, but that the interconnection of these parts is extremely easy and provides a very dense layout. Expecially notice the easy flow of the system bus on the solder side of the board.


FIGURE 3-5 STANDARD MEMORIES WITH LATCHED ADDRESS AND DECODED CHIP SELECTS


FIGURE 3-6 MINIMUM 8085 SYSTEM


FIGURE 3.7 PRINTED CIRCUIT LAYOUT


NOTE 3: CONNECTION IS NECESSARY ONLY IF ONE TWAIT STATE IS DESIRED. NOTE 4: PULL-UP RESISTORS RECOMMENDED TO AVOID SPURIOUS SELECTION WHEN $\overline{R D}$ AND $\overline{W R}$ ARE 3-STATED.

### 3.9 EXPANDED MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ SYSTEM

Figure 3.8 shows the circuit Figure 3.6 expanded to its maximum size without the use of any extra logic. In an extremely small board area we can fit:

## PARTS

1 8085A
3 8355/8755A
28156
1 Crystal
4 Resistors
1 Capacitor
1 Diode

FUNCTION
1 CPU (Clock cycle $\leqslant 320 \mathrm{~ns}$ )
ROM/EPROM
6144 Bytes
512 Bytes RAM
76 I/O Lines
5 Interrupts
2 Programmable
Timer/Counters
2 Serial I/O Lines
1 Crystal and
Oscillator
1 Clock
1 Power-on Reset

### 3.10 MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ SYSTEM WITH 8185

The 81851 K -byte static RAM chip is another multiplexed-bus component that insures that the most highly integrated systems can be built with MCS. 85 components. Figure 3.9 shows a 4-chip MCS-85 system schematic with the following characteristics:

PARTS
1 8085A
18185
18156
$18355 / 8755 \mathrm{~A}$

FUNCTION
1 CPU
ROM/EPROM
2048 Bytes
1280 Bytes RAM
38 I/O Lines
5 Interrupts
1 Timer/Counter
2 Serial I/O Lines

The 8185 also has power-down capability. By connecting $\overline{C E}_{1}$ to $10 / \bar{M}$ from the 8085A the 8185 will be powered down during //O operations and Interrupt Acknowledge cycles.


FIGURE 3-9 MCS-85 SYSTEM WITH 8185

## Functional Description

## CHAPTER 4 THE 8080 CENTRAL PROCESSOR UNIT

The 8080 is a complete 8-bit paraltel, central processor unit (CPU) for use in general purpose digital computer systems. It is fabricated on a single LSI chip (see Figure 1-1). using Intel's n-channel silicon gate MOS process. The 8080 transfers data and internal state information via an 8-bit, bidirectional 3-state Data Bus ( $\mathrm{D}_{0}-\mathrm{D}_{7}$ ). Memory and peripheral device addresses are transmitted over a separate 16 -
bit 3-state Address Bus ( $A_{0}-A_{15}$ ). Six timing and control outputs (SYNC, DBIN, WAIT, WR, HLDA and INTE) emanate from the 8080, while four control inputs (READY, HOLD, INT and RESET), four power inputs ( $+12 \mathrm{v},+5 \mathrm{v}$, -5 v , and GND) and two clock inputs ( $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ ) are accepted by the 8080 .


Figure 4-1. 8080 Photomicrograph With Pin Designations

## ARCHITECTURE OF THE 8080 CPU

The 8080 CPU consists of the following functional units:

- Register array and address logic
- Arithmetic and logic unit (ALU)
- Instruction register and control section
- Bi-directional, 3-state data bus buffer

Figure $4-2$ illustrates the functional blocks within the 8080 CPU .

## Registers:

The register section consists of a static RAM array organized into six 16 -bit registers:

- Program counter (PC)
- Stack pointer (SP)
- Six 8-bit general purpose registers arranged in pairs, referred to as B,C;D,E; and H,L
- A temporary register pair called W,Z

The program counter maintains the memory address of the next program instruction and is incremented auto-
matically during every instruction fetch. The stack pointer maintains the address of the next available stack location in memory. The stack pointer can be initialized to use any portion of read-write memory as a stack. The stack pointer is decremented when data is "pushed" onto the stack and incremented when data is "popped" off the stack (i.e., the stack grows "downward").

The six general purpose registers can be used either as single registers ( 8 -bit) or as register pairs (16-bit). The temporary register pair, $W, Z$, is not program addressable and is only used for the internal execution of instructions.

Eight-bit data bytes can be transferred between the internal bus and the register array via the register-select multiplexer. Sixteen-bit transfers can proceed between the register array and the address latch or the incrementer/ decrementer circuit. The address latch receives data from any of the four register pairs and drives the 16 address output buffers ( $A_{0}-A_{15}$ ), as well as the incrementer/ decrementer circuit. The incrementer/decrementer circuit receives data from the address latch and sends it to the register array. The 16 -bit data can be incremented or decremented or simply transferred between registers.


Figure 4-2. 8080 CPU Functional Block Diagram

## Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU):

The ALU contains the following registers:

- An 8-bit accumulator
- An 8-bit temporary accumulator (ACT)
- A 5-bit flag register: zero, carry, sign, parity and auxiliary carry
- An 8-bit temporary register (TMP)

Arithmetic, logical and rotate operations are performed in the ALU. The ALU is fed by the temporary register (TMP) and the temporary accumulator (ACT) and carry flip-flop. The result of the operation can be transferred to the internal bus or to the accumulator; the ALU also feeds the flag register.

The temporary register (TMP) receives information from the internal bus and can send all or portions of it to the ALU, the flag register and the internal bus.

The accumulator (ACC) can be loaded from the ALU and the internal bus and can transfer data to the temporary accumulator (ACT) and the internal bus. The contents of the accumulator (ACC) and the auxiliary carry flip-flop can be tested for decimal correction during the execution of the DAA instruction (see Section 5).

## Instruction Register and Control:

During an instruction fetch, the first byte of an instruction (containing the OP code) is transferred from the internal bus to the 8 -bit instruction register.

The contents of the instruction register are, in turn, available to the instruction decoder. The output of the decoder, combined with various timing signals, provides the control signals for the register array, ALU and data buffer blocks. In addition, the outputs from the instruction decoder and external control signals feed the timing and state control section which generates the state and cycle timing signals.

## Data Bus Buffer:

This 8 -bit bidirectional 3 -state buffer is used to isolate the CPU's internal bus from the external data bus ( $\mathrm{D}_{0}$ through $\mathrm{D}_{7}$ ). In the output mode, the internal bus content is loaded into an 8 -bit latch that, in turn, drives the data bus output buffers. The output buffers are switched off during input or non-transfer operations.

During the input mode, data from the external data bus is transferred to the internal bus. The internal bus is precharged at the beginning of each internal state, except for the transfer state (TW and $T_{3}$-described later in this chapter).

## THE PROCESSOR CYCLE

An instruction cycle is defined as the time required to fetch and execute an instruction. During the fetch, a selected instruction (one, two or three bytes) is extracted from memory and deposited in the CPU's instruction register. During the execution phase, the instruction is decoded and translated into specific processing activities.

Every instruction cycle consists of one, two, three, four or five machine cycles. A machine cycle is required each time the CPU accesses memory or an I/O port. The fetch portion of an instruction cycle requires one machine cycle for each byte to be fetched. The duration of the execution portion of the instruction cycle depends on the kind of instruction that has been fetched. Some instructions do not require any machine cycles other than those necessary to fetch the instruction; other instructions, however, require additional machine cycles to write or read data to/ from memory or I/O devices. The DAD instruction is an exception in that it requires two additional machine cycles to complete an internal register-pair add (see Section 5).

Each machine cycle consists of three, four or five states. A state is the smallest unit of processing activity and is defined as the interval between two successive positivegoing transitions of the $\phi_{1}$ driven clock pulse. The 8080 is driven by a two-phase clock oscillator. All processing activities are referred to the period of this clock. The two nonoverlapping clock pulses, labeled $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$, are furnished by external circuitry. It is the $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse which divides each machine cycle into states. Timing logic within the 8080 uses the clock inputs to produce a SYNC pulse, which identifies the beginning of every machine cycle. The SYNC pulse is triggered by the low-to-high transition of $\phi_{2}$, as shown in Figure 4-3.

*SYNC DOES NOT OCCUR IN THE SECOND AND THIRD MACHINE CYCLES OF A DAD INSTRUCTION SINCE THESE MACHINE CYCLES ARE USED FOR AN INTERNAL REGISTER-PAIR ADD.

Figure 4-3. $\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}$ and SYNC Timing
There are three exceptions to the defined duration of a state. They are the WAIT state, the hold (HLDA) state and the halt (HLTA) state, described later in this chapter. Because the WAIT, the HLDA, and the HLTA states depend upon external events, they are by their nature of indeterminate length. Even these exceptional states, however, must
be synchronized with the pulses of the driving clock. Thus, the duration of all states are integral multiples of the clock period.

To summarize then, each clock period marks a state; three to five states constitute a machine cycle; and one to five machine cycles comprise an instruction cycle. A full instruction cycle requires anywhere from four to eightteen states for its completion, depending on the kind of instruction involved.

## Machine Cycle Identification:

With the exception of the DAD instruction, there is just one consideration that determines how many machine cycles are required in any given instruction cycle: the number of times that the processor must reference a memory address or an addressable peripheral device, in order to fetch and execute the instruction. Like many processors, the 8080 is so constructed that it can transmit only one address per machine cycle. Thus, if the fetch and execution of an instruction requires two memory references, then the instruction cycle associated with that instruction consists of two machine cycles. If five such references are called for, then the instruction cycle contains five machine cycles.

Every instruction cycle has at least one reference to memory, during which the instruction is fetched. An instruction cycle must always have a fetch, even if the execution of the instruction requires no further references to memory. The first machine cycle in every instruction cycle is therefore a FETCH. Beyond that, there are no fast rules. It depends on the kind of instruction that is fetched.

Consider some examples. The add-register (ADD r) instruction is an instruction that requires only a single machine cycle (FETCH) for its completion. In this one-byte instruction, the contents of one of the CPU's six general purpose registers is added to the existing contents of the accumulator. Since all the information necessary to execute the command is contained in the eight bits of the instruction code, only one memory reference is necessary. Three states are used to extract the instruction from memory, and one additional state is used to accomplish the desired addition. The entire instruction cycle thus requires only one machine cycle that consists of four states, or four periods of the external clock.

Suppose now, however, that we wish to add the contents of a specific memory location to the existing contents of the accumulator (ADD M). Although this is quite similar in principle to the example just cited, several additional steps will be used. An extra machine cycle will be used, in order to address the desired memory location.

The actual sequence is as follows. First the processor extracts from memory the one-byte instruction word addressed by its program counter. This takes three states. The eight-bit instruction word obtained during the FETCH machine cycle is deposited in the CPU's instruction register and used to direct activities during the remainder of the instruction cycle. Next, the processor sends out, as an address,
the contents of its H and L registers. The eight-bit data word returned during this MEMORY READ machine cycle is placed in a temporary register inside the 8080 CPU . By now three more clock periods (states) have elapsed. In the seventh and final state, the contents of the temporary register are added to those of the accumulator. Two machine cycles, consisting of seven states in all, complete the "ADD M" instruction cycle.

At the opposite extreme is the save $H$ and $L$ registers (SHLD) instruction, which requires five machine cycles. During an "SHLD" instruction cycle, the contents of the processor's $H$ and $L$ registers are deposited in two sequentially adjacent memory locations; the destination is indicated by two address bytes which are stored in the two memory locations immediately following the operation code byte. The following sequence of events occurs:
(1) A FETCH machine cycle, consisting of four states. During the first three states of this machine cycle, the processor fetches the instruction indicated by its program counter. The program counter is then incremented. The fourth state is used for internal instruction decoding.
(2) A MEMORY READ machine cycle, consisting of three states. During this machine cycle, the byte indicated by the program counter is read from memory and placed in the processor's $Z$ register. The program counter is incremented again.
(3) Another MEMORY READ machine cycle, consisting of three states, in which the byte indicated by the processor's program counter is read from memory and placed in the $W$ register. The program counter is incremented, in anticipation of the next instruction fetch.
(4) A MEMORY WRITE machine cycle, of three states, in which the contents of the $L$ register are transferred to the memory location pointed to by the present contents of the $W$ and $Z$ registers. The state following the transfer is used to increment the $W, Z$ register pair so that it indicates the next memory location to receive data.
(5) A MEMORY WRITE machine cycle, of three states, in which the contents of the H register are transferred to the new memory location pointed to by the $W, Z$ register pair.

In summary, the "SHLD" instruction cycle contains five machine cycles and takes 16 states to execute.

Most instructions fall somewhere between the extremes typified by the "ADD $r$ " and the "SHLD" instructions. The input (IN) and the output (OUT) instructions, for example, require three machine cycles: a FETCH, to obtain the instruction; a MEMORY READ, to obtain the address of the object peripheral; and an INPUT or an OUTPUT machine cycle, to complete the transfer.

While no one instruction cycle will consist of more then five machine cycles, the following ten different types of machine cycles may occur within an instruction cycle:

FETCH (M1)
MEMORY READ
MEMORY WRITE
STACK READ
STACK WRITE
INPUT
OUTPUT
INTERRUPT
HALT
(10) HALT•INTERRUPT

The machine cycles that actually do occur in a particular instruction cycle depend upon the kind of instruction, with the overriding stipulation that the first machine cycle in any instruction cycle is always a FETCH.

The processor identifies the machine cycle in progress by transmitting an eight-bit status word during the first state of every machine cycle. Updated status information is presented on the 8080 's data lines ( $\mathrm{D}_{0}-\mathrm{D}_{7}$ ), during the SYNC interval. This data should be saved in latches, and used to develop control signals for external circuitry. Table $4-1$ shows how the positive-true status information is distributed on the processor's data bus.

Status signals are provided principally for the control of external circuitry. Simplicity of interface, rather than machine cycle identification, dictates the logical definition of individual status bits. You will therefore observe that certain processor machine cycles are uniquely identified by a single status bit, but that others are not. The $M_{1}$ status bit ( $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ ), for example, unambiguously identifies a FETCH machine cycle. A STACK READ, on the other hand, is indicated by the coincidence of STACK and MEMR signals. Machine cycle identification data is also valuable in the test and de-bugging phases of system development. Table 4-1 lists the status bit outputs for each type of machine cycle.

## State Transition Sequence:

Every machine cycle within an instruction cycle consists of three to six active states (referred to as $T_{1}, T_{2}, T_{3}$, $T_{4}, T_{5}$ or $T_{W}$ ). The actual number of states depends upon the instruction being executed, and on the particular machine cycle within the greater instruction cycle. The state transition diagram in Figure $4-4$ shows how the 8080 proceeds from state to state in the course of a machine cycle. The diagram also shows how the READY, HOLD, and INTERRUPT lines are sampled during the machine cycle, and how the conditions on these lines may modify the
basic transition sequence. In the present discussion, we are concerned only with the basic sequence and with the READY function. The HOLD and INTERRUPT functions will be discussed later.

The 8080 CPU does not directly indicate its internal state by transmitting a "state control" output during each state; instead, the 8080 supplies direct control output (INTE, HLDA, DBIN, $\overline{W R}$ and WAIT) for use by external circuitry.

Recall that the 8080 passes through at least three states in every machine cycle, with each state defined by successive low-to-high transitions of the $\phi_{1}$ clock. Figure $4-5$ shows the timing relationships in a typical FETCH machine cycle. Events that occur in each state are referenced to transitions of the $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ clock pulses.

The SYNC signal identifies the first state ( $T_{1}$ ) in every machine cycle. As shown in Figure 4-5, the SYNC signal is related to the leading edge of the $\phi_{2}$ clock. There is a delay ( $\mathrm{t} D \mathrm{C}$ ) between the low-to-high transition of $\phi_{2}$ and the positive-going edge of the SYNC pulse. There also is a corresponding delay (also ${ }^{t} D C$ ) between the next $\phi_{2}$ pulse and the falling edge of the SYNC signal. Status information is displayed on $\mathrm{D}_{0}-\mathrm{D}_{7}$ during the same $\phi_{2}$ to $\phi_{2}$ interval. Switching of the status signals is likewise controlled by $\phi_{2}$.

The rising edge of $\phi_{2}$ during $T_{1}$ also loads the processor's address lines ( $A_{0}-A 15$ ). These lines become stable within a brief delay ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DA}}$ ) of the $\phi_{2}$ clocking pulse, and they remain stable until the first $\phi_{2}$ pulse after state $T_{3}$. This gives the processor ample time to read the data returned from memory.

Once the processor has sent an address to memory, there is an opportunity for the memory to request a WAIT. This it does by pulling the processor's READY line low, prior to the "Ready set-up" interval (tRS) which occurs during the $\phi_{2}$ pulse within state $T_{2}$ or TW. As long as the READY line remains low, the processor will idle, giving the memory time to respond to the addressed data request. Refer to Figure 4-5.

The processor responds to a wait request by entering an alternative state ( $T W$ ) at the end of $T_{2}$, rather than proceeding directly to the $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ state. Entry into the TW state is indicated by a WAIT signal from the processor, acknowledging the memory's request. A low-to-high transition on the WAIT line is triggered by the rising edge of the $\phi_{1}$ clock and occurs within a brief delay ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DC}}$ ) of the actual entry into the TW state.

A wait period may be of indefinite duration. The processor remains in the waiting condition until its READY line again goes high. A READY indication must precede the falling edge of the $\phi_{2}$ clock by a specified interval ( $t_{R S}$ ), in order to guarantee an exit from the $T_{W}$ state. The cycle may then proceed, beginning with the rising edge of the next $\phi_{1}$ clock. A WAIT interval will therefore consist of an integral number of TW states and will always be a multiple of the clock period.

Instructions for the 8080 require from one to five machine cycles for complete execution. The 8080 sends out 8 bit of status information on the data bus at the beginning of each machine cycle (during SYNC time). The following table defines the status information.

## STATUS INFORMATION DEFINITION

Data Bus



## STATUS WORD CHART



Table 4-1. 8080 Status Bit Definitions


Figure 4-4. CPU State Transition Diagram

The events that take place during the $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ state are determined by the kind of machine cycle in progress. In a FETCH machine cycle, the processor interprets the data on its data bus as an instruction. During a MEMORY READ or a STACK READ, data on this bus is interpreted as a data word. The processor outputs data on this bus during a MEMORY WRITE machine cycle. During I/O operations, the processor may either transmit or receive data, depending on whether an OUTPUT or an INPUT operation is involved.

Figure 4-7 illustrates the timing that is characteristic of a data input operation. As shown, the low-to-high transition of $\phi_{2}$ during $T_{2}$ clears status information from the processor's data lines, preparing these lines for the receipt of incoming data. The data presented to the processor must have stabilized prior to both the " $\phi_{1}$-data set-up" interval ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DS}}$ ), that precedes the falling edge of the $\phi_{1}$ pulse defining state $T_{3}$, and the " $\phi_{2}$-data set-up" interval ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DS} 2}$ ), that precedes the rising edge of $\phi_{2}$ in state $T_{3}$. This same
data must remain stable during the "data hold" interval ( tDH ) that occurs following the rising edge of the $\phi_{2}$ pulse. Data placed on these lines by memory or by other external devices will be sampled during $\mathrm{T}_{3}$.

During the input of data to the processor, the 8080 generates a DBIN signal which should be used externally to enable the transfer. Machine cycles in which DBIN is available include: FETCH, MEMORY READ, STACK READ, and INTERRUPT. DBIN is initiated by the rising edge of $\phi_{2}$ during state $T 2$ and terminated by the corresponding edge of $\phi_{2}$ during $T_{3}$. Any $T_{W}$ phases intervening between $T_{2}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ will therefore extend DBIN by one or more clock periods.

Figure 4-7 shows the timing of a machine cycle in which the processor outputs data. Output data may be destined either for memory or for peripherals. The rising edge of $\phi_{2}$ within state $T_{2}$ clears status information from the CPU's data lines, and loads in the data which is to be output to external devices. This substitution takes place within the


NOTE: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6.
Figure 4-5. Basic 8080 Instruction Cycle


NOTE: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6.

Figure 4-6. Input Instruction Cycle


NOTE: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6.

Figure 4-7. Output Instruction Cycle
"data output delay" interval (tDD) following the $\phi_{2}$ clock's leading edge. Data on the bus remains stable throughout the remainder of the machine cycle, until replaced by updated status information in the subsequent $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ state. Observe that a READY signal is necessary for completion of an OUTPUT machine cycle. Unless such an indication is present, the processor enters the TW state, following the $T_{2}$ state. Data on the output lines remains stable in the interim, and the processing cycle will not proceed until the READY line again goes high.

The 8080 CPU generates a $\overline{W R}$ output for the synchronization of external transfers, during those machine cycles in which the processor outputs data. These include MEMORY WRITE, STACK WRITE, and OUTPUT. The negative-going leading edge of $\overline{W R}$ is referenced to the rising edge of the first $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse following $\mathrm{T}_{2}$, and occurs within a brief delay ( ${ }^{\mathrm{D} D C}$ ) of that event. $\overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ remains low until re-triggered by the leading edge of $\phi_{1}$ during the state following $T_{3}$. Note that any $T_{W}$ states intervening between $T_{2}$ and $T_{3}$ of the output machine cycle will neces-
sarily extend $\overline{W R}$, in much the same way that DBIN is affected during data input operations.

All processor machine cycles consist of at least three states: $T_{1}, T_{2}$, and $T_{3}$ as just described. If the processor has to wait for a response from the peripheral or memory with which it is communicating, then the machine cycle may also contain one or more TW states. During the three basic states, data is transferred to or from the processor.

After the $T_{3}$ state, however, it becomes difficult to generalize. $T_{4}$ and $T_{5}$ states are available, if the execution of a particular instruction requires them. But not all machine cycles make use of these states. It depends upon the kind of instruction being executed, and on the particular machine cycle within the instruction cycle. The processor will terminate any machine cycle as soon as its processing activities are completed, rather than proceeding through the $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ states every time. Thus the 8080 may exit a machine cycle following the $T_{3}$, the $T_{4}$, or the $T_{5}$ state and proceed directly to the $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ state of the next machine cycle.

| STATE | ASSOCIATED ACTIVITIES |
| :---: | :--- |
| $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ | A memory address or I/O device number is <br> placed on the Address Bus (A 15-0); status <br> information is placed on Data Bus (D7-0). |
| $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ | The CPU samples the READY and HOLD in- <br> puts and checks for halt instruction. |
| TW <br> (optional) | Processor enters wait state if READY is low <br> or if HALT instruction has been executed. |
| T3 | An instruction byte (FETCH machine cycle), <br> data byte (MEMORY READ, STACK READ, <br> INPUT) or interrupt instruction (INTERRUPT <br> machine cycle) is input to the CPU from the <br> Data Bus; or a data byte (MEMORY WRITE, <br> STACK WRITE or OUTPUT machine cycle) <br> is output onto the data bus. |
| T4 | States T4 and T5 are available if the execu- <br> tion of a particular instruction requires them; <br> if not, the CPU may skip one or both of <br> them. T4 and T5 are only used for internal <br> processor operations. |

Table 4-2. State Definitions

## INTERRUPT SEQUENCES

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

The interrupt (INT) input is asynchronous, and a request may therefore originate at any time during any instruction cycle. Internal logic re-clocks the external request, so that a proper correspondence with the driving clock is established. As Figure 4.8 shows, an interrupt request (INT) arriving during the time that the interrupt enable line (tNTE) is high, acts in coincidence with the $\phi_{2}$ clock to set the internal interrupt latch. This event takes place during the last state of the instruction cycie in which the request occurs, thus ensuring that any instruction in progress is completed before the interrupt can be processed.

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

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

The interrupt cycle is otherwise indistinguishable from an ordinary FETCH machine cycle. The processor itself takes no further special action. It is the responsibility of the peripheral logic to see that an eight-bit interrupt instruction is "jammed" onto the processor's data bus during state T3. In a typical system, this means that the data-in bus from memory must be temporarily disconnected from the processor's main data bus, so that the interrupting device can command the main bus without interference.

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


NOTE: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6.

Figure 4-8. Interrupt Timing


Figure 4-9. HOLD Operation (Read Mode)


Figure 4-10. HOLD Operation (Write Mode)

## HOLD SEQUENCES

The 8080A CPU contains provisions for Direct Memory Access (DMA) operations. By applying a HOLD to the appropriate control pin on the processor, an external device can cause the CPU to suspend its normal operations and relinquish control of the address and data busses. The processor responds to a request of this kind by floating its address to other devices sharing the busses. At the same time, the processor acknowledges the HOLD by placing a high on its HLDA outpin pin. During an acknowledged HOLD, the address and data busses are under control of the peripheral which originated the request, enabling it to conduct memory transfers without processor intervention.

Like the interrupt, the HOLD input is synchronized internally. A HOLD signal must be stable prior to the "Hold set-up" interval ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{HS}}$ ), that precedes the rising edge of $\phi_{2}$.

Figures $4-9$ and $4-10$ illustrate the timing involved in HOLD operations. Note the delay between the asynchronous HOLD REQUEST and the re-clocked HOLD. As shown in the diagram, a coincidence of the READY, the HOLD, and the $\phi_{2}$ clocks sets the internal hold latch. Setting the latch enables the subsequent rising edge of the $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse to trigger the HLDA output as described below.

Acknowledgement of the HOLD REOUEST precedes slightly the actual floating of the processor's address and data lines. The processor acknowledges a HOLD at the beginning of $\mathrm{T}_{3}$, if a read or an input machine cycle is in progress (see Figure 4-9). Otherwise, acknowledgement is deferred until the beginning of the state following $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ (see Figure 4-10). In both cases, however, the HLDA goes high within a specified delay ( $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DC}}$ ) of the rising edge of the selected $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse. Address and data lines are floated within a brief delay after the rising edge of the next $\phi_{2}$ clock pulse. This relationship is also shown in the diagrams.

To all outward appearances, the processor has suspended its operations once the address and data busses are floated. Internally, however, certain functions may continue. If a HOLD REQUEST is acknowledged at $\mathrm{T}_{3}$, and if the processor is in the middle of a machine cycle which requires four or more states to complete, the CPU proceeds through $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ before coming to a rest. Not until the end of the machine cycle is reached will processing activities cease. Internal processing is thus permitted to overlap the external DMA transfer, improving both the efficiency and the speed of the entire system.

The processor exits the holding state through a sequence similar to that by which it entered. A HOLD REQUEST is terminated asynchronously when the external device has completed its data transfer. The HLDA output
returns to a low level following the leading edge of the next $\phi 1$ clock pulse. Normal processing resumes with the machine cycle following the last cycle that was executed.

## HALT SEQUENCES

When a halt instruction (HLT) is executed, the CPU enters the halt state ( $T_{W H}$ ) after state $T_{2}$ of the next machine cycle, as shown in Figure 4-11. There are only three ways in which the 8080 can exit the halt state:

- A high on the RESET line will always reset the 8080 to state $\mathrm{T}_{1}$; RESET also clears the program counter.
- A HOLD input will cause the 8080 to enter the hold state, as previously described. When the HOLD line goes low, the 8080 re-enters the halt state on the rising edge of the next $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse.
- An interrupt (i.e., INT goes high while INTE is enabled) will cause the 8080 to exit the Halt state and enter state $T_{1}$ on the rising edge of the next $\phi_{1}$ clock pulse. NOTE: The interrupt enable (INTE) flag must be set when the halt state is entered; otherwise, the 8080 will only be able to exit via a RESET signal.
Figure 4-12 illustrates halt sequencing in flow chart form.


## START-UP OF THE 8080 CPU

When power is applied initially to the 8080, the processor begins operating immediately. The contents of its program counter, stack pointer, and the other working registers are naturally subject to random factors and cannot be specified. For this reason, it will be necessary to begin the power-up sequence with RESET.

An external RESET signal of three clock period duration (minimum) restores the processor's internal program counter to zero. Program execution thus begins with memory location zero, following a RESET. Systems which require the processor to wait for an explicit start-up signal will store a halt instruction (EI, HLT) in the first two locations. A manual or an automatic INTERRUPT will be used for starting. In other systems, the processor may begin executing its stored program immediately. Note, however, that the RESET has no effect on status flags, or on any of the processor's working registers (accumulator, registers, or stack pointer). The contents of these registers remain indeterminate, until initialized explicitly by the program.

note: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6
Figure 4-11. HALT Timing


Figure 4-12. HALT Sequence Flow Chart

note: (N) Refer to Status Word Chart on Page 4-6.

Figure 4-13. Reset


Figure 4-14. Relation between HOLD and INT in the HALT State

| MNEMONIC | OP CODE |  | M1 ${ }^{[1]}$ |  |  |  |  | M2 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathrm{D}_{7} \mathrm{D}_{6} \mathrm{D}_{5} \mathrm{D}_{4}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{3} \mathrm{D}_{2} \mathrm{D}_{1} \mathrm{D}_{0}$ | T1 | T2 ${ }^{[2]}$ | T3 | T4 | T5 | T1 | $\mathrm{T}_{2}{ }^{[2]}$ | T3 |
| MOV +1, r2 | 01 D D | D S S S | PC OUT STATUS | $\mathrm{PC}=\mathrm{PC}+1$ | INST $\rightarrow$ TMP/IR | (SSS) $\rightarrow$ TMP | $($ (TMP) $\rightarrow$ DDD |  |  |  |
| MOV r, M | 01 D D | D 110 | + | 4 | 4 | $\mathrm{x}^{[3]}$ |  | HL OUT STATUS ${ }^{[6]}$ | DATA | $\rightarrow$ DDD |
| MOV M, r | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 1\end{array}$ | 0 S S S |  |  |  | $(S S S) \rightarrow$ TMP |  | HL OUT STATUS[7] | (TMP) | - DATA BUS |
| SPHL | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 1\end{array}$ | 10001 |  |  |  | (HL) | SP |  |  |  |
| MVI r, data | 00 D | D 110 |  |  |  | x |  | PC OUT <br> STATUS[6] | $\mathrm{PC}=\mathrm{PC}+1 \quad \mathrm{~B} 2-$ | -D00 |
| MVI M, data | 0 0 11 | 01110 |  |  |  | X |  | 4 | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | TMP |
| LXI rp, data | 00 RPP | $\begin{array}{llll}0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  |  | X |  |  | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | -r |
| LDA addr | 001 | 1010 |  |  |  | x |  |  | $P C=P C+1 \quad \mathrm{B2}-$ | z |
| STA addr | 001 | 0010 |  |  |  | X |  |  | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | -2 |
| LHLD addr | 00010 | 1010 |  |  |  | x |  | $\dagger$ | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | Z |
| SHLD addr | 0010 | 00010 |  |  |  | $\times$ |  | PC OUT STATUS[6] | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2$ | $-2$ |
| LDAX rp ${ }^{[4]}$ | 00 R P | 1010 |  |  |  | x |  | rp OUT STATUS[6] | DATA - | A |
| STAX rp ${ }^{[4]}$ | 0 OR P | 00010 |  |  |  | x |  | rp OUT STATUS[7] |  | - data bus |
| XCHG | 1110 | $1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 0 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  |  | $\times$ |  | (11] |  |  |
| ADD r | 1000 | 0 S S S |  |  |  | $\underset{\substack{(S S S) \rightarrow T M P \\(A) \rightarrow A C T}}{ }$ |  | [9] | $(\mathrm{ACT})+(\mathrm{TMP}) \rightarrow \mathrm{A}$ |  |
| ADD M | 1000 | 0 1 110 |  |  |  | (A) $\rightarrow$ ACT |  | HL OUT STATUS[6] | DATA | $\rightarrow$ TMP |
| ADI data | 1100 | 0110 |  |  |  | (A) $\rightarrow$ ACT |  | PC OUT STATUS[6] | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | -TMP |
| ADC r | 1000 | 1 s S S |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & (\mathrm{SSS}) \rightarrow \text { TMP } \\ & (\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT} \end{aligned}$ |  | [9] | $(A C T)+(T M P)+C Y \rightarrow A$ |  |
| ADC M | 1000 | 11190 |  |  |  | $(\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | HL OUT STATUS[6] | DATA | -TMP |
| ACl data | 1100 | 1110 |  |  |  | ( A$) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | PCOUT STATUS[6] | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2$ | -TMP |
| SUB r | 1001 | 0 s s s |  |  |  | $\underset{(\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}}{(\mathrm{SSS}) \rightarrow T \mathrm{MP}}$ |  | (9) | $(A C T)$-(TMP) $\rightarrow$ A |  |
| SUB M | 1001 | 0110 |  |  |  | $(\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | HL OUT STATUS ${ }^{[6]}$ | DATA- | $\rightarrow$ TMP |
| SUI data | 1101 | 01010 |  |  |  | (A) + ACT |  | PC OUT STATUS[6] | $P C=P C+1 \quad B 2-$ | $\rightarrow$ TMP |
| SBB r | 1001 | 1 s s s |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & (S S S) \rightarrow \text { TMP } \\ & (\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT} \end{aligned}$ |  | [9] | $(A C T)-(T M P)-C Y \rightarrow A$ |  |
| SBB M | 1001 | 1110 |  |  |  | $(\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | HL OUT status[6] | DATA- | -TMP |
| SBI data | 1101 | 11110 |  |  |  | ( A$) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | PC OUT STATUS[6] | $\mathrm{PC}=\mathrm{PC}+1 \quad \mathrm{~B} 2$ | -TMP |
| INR r | 000 D | D 100 |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (DDD) } \rightarrow \text { TMP } \\ & (\mathrm{TMP})+1 \rightarrow \mathrm{ALU} \end{aligned}$ | ALU $\rightarrow$ DDD |  |  |  |
| INR M | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 0 & 1\end{array}$ | 0100 |  |  |  | X |  | HL OUT STATUS[6] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DATA } \\ & (\text { TMP) }+1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & -T M P \\ & -A L U \end{aligned}$ |
| DCR r | 00 D | D 1001 |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (DDD) } \rightarrow \text { TMP } \\ & \text { (TMP) } \cdot 1 \rightarrow A L U \end{aligned}$ | ALU $\rightarrow$ DDD |  |  |  |
| DCR M | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 0 & 1\end{array}$ | 010 \% |  |  |  | X |  | HL OUT STATUS[6] | $\begin{array}{r} \text { DATA- } \\ (\mathrm{TMP})-1= \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & - \text { TMP } \\ & -\mathrm{ALU} \end{aligned}$ |
| INX rp | 00 RP | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 0 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  |  | (RP) +1 | RP |  |  |  |
| DCX rp | 00 R P | $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 0 & 1 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  |  | (RP) - 1 | RP |  |  |  |
| DAD rp ${ }^{[8]}$ | 00 R P | 10001 |  |  |  | X |  | $(\mathrm{rl}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ | $\begin{aligned} & (\mathrm{L}) \rightarrow T M P \\ & (\mathrm{ACT})+(T M P) \rightarrow A L U \end{aligned}$ | $A L . U \rightarrow L, C Y$ |
| DAA | 0010 | $\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 1\end{array}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 66 \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}[10] \\ & (\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{TMP} \end{aligned}$ |  | (9) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DAA-A } \\ & \text { FLAGS [10] } \end{aligned}$ |  |
| ANA r | 101 | 0 S S S |  | $\downarrow$ | 1 | $\begin{aligned} & (\mathrm{SSS}) \rightarrow \mathrm{TMP} \\ & (\mathrm{~A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT} \end{aligned}$ |  | [9] | $(\mathrm{ACT})+(\mathrm{TMP}) \rightarrow \mathrm{A}$ |  |
| ANA M | 1010 | 0110 | PC OUT STATUS | $P C=P C+1$ | INST $\rightarrow$ TMP/tR | $(\mathrm{A}) \rightarrow \mathrm{ACT}$ |  | HL OUT STATUS ${ }^{[6]}$ | DATA- | - TMP |





## NOTES:

1. The first memory cycle (M1) is always an instruction fetch; the first (or only) byte, containing the op code, is fetched during this cycle.
2. If the READY input from memory is not high during T2 of each memory cycle, the processor will enter a wait state (TW) until READY is sampled as high.
3. States T4 and T5 are present, as required, for operations which are completely internal to the CPU. The contents of the internal bus during T4 and T5 are available at the data bus; this is designed for testing purposes only. An " X " denotes that the state is present, but is only used for such internal operations as instruction decoding.
4. Only register pairs $r p=B$ (registers $B$ and $C$ ) or $r p=D$ (registers D and E) may be specified.
5. These states are skipped.
6. Memory read sub-cycles; an instruction or data word will be read.
7. Memory write sub-cycle.
8. The READY signal is not required during the second and third sub-cycles (M2 and M3). The HOLD signal is accepted during M2 and M3. The SYNC signal is not generated during M2 and M3. During the execution of DAD, M2 and M3 are required for an internal register-pair add; memory is not referenced.
9. The results of these arithmetic, logical or rotate instructions are not moved into the accumulator ( $A$ ) until state T2 of the next instruction cycle. That is, A is loaded while the next instruction is being fetched; this overlapping of operations allows for faster processing.
10. If the value of the least significant 4-bits of the accumulator is greater than 9 or if the auxiliary carry bit is set, 6 is added to the accumulator. If the value of the most significant 4 -bits of the accumulator is now greater than 9 , or if the carry bit is set, 6 is added to the most significant 4-bits of the accumulator.
11. This represents the first sub-cycle (the instruction fetch) of the next instruction cycle.
12. If the condition was met, the contents of the register pair WZ are output on the address lines $\left(\mathrm{A}_{0-15}\right)$ instead of the contents of the program counter (PC).
13. If the condition was not met, sub-cycles M4 and M5 are skipped; the processor instead proceeds immediately to the instruction fetch (M1) of the next instruction cycle.
14. If the condition was not met, sub-cycles M2 and M3 are skipped; the processor instead proceeds immediately to the instruction fetch (M1) of the next instruction cycle.
15. Stack read sub-cycle.
16. Stack write sub-cycle.
17. CONDITION

| $N Z-$ not zero $(Z=0)$ | 000 |
| :---: | :--- |
| $Z-$ zero $(Z=1)$ | 001 |
| $N C-$ no carry $(C Y=0)$ | 010 |
| $C-$ carry $(C Y=1)$ | 011 |
| $P O-$ parity odd $(P=0)$ | 100 |
| $P E-$ parity even $(P=1)$ | 101 |
| $P-\operatorname{plus}(S=0)$ | 110 |
| $M-\operatorname{minus}(S=1)$ | 111 |

18. I/O sub-cycle: the I/O port's 8 -bit select code is duplicated on address lines 0-7 ( $\mathrm{A}_{0.7}$ ) and 8-15 ( $\mathrm{A}_{8-15}$ ).
19. Output sub-cycle.
20. The processor will remain idle in the halt state until an interrupt, a reset or a hold is accepted. When a hold request is accepted, the CPU enters the hold mode; after the hold mode is terminated, the processor returns to the halt state. After a reset is accepted, the processor begins execution at memory location zero. After an interrupt is accepted, the processor executes the instruction forced onto the data bus (usually a restart instruction).

| SSS or DDD | Value | rp | Value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A | 111 | B | 00 |
| B | 000 | D | 01 |
| C | 001 | H | 10 |
| D | 010 | SP | 11 |
| E | 011 |  |  |
| H | 100 |  |  |
| L | 101 |  |  |

## CHAPTER 5 THE INSTRUCTION SET

### 5.1 WHAT THE INSTRUCTION SET IS

A computer, no matter how sophisticated, can do only what it is instructed to do. A program is a sequence of instructions, each of which is recognized by the computer and causes it to perform an operation. Once a program is placed in memory space that is accessible to your CPU, you may run that same sequence of instructions as often as you wish to solve the same problem or to do the same function. The set of instructions to which the 8085A CPU will respond is permanently fixed in the design of the chip.
Each computer instruction allows you to initiate the performance of a specific operation. The 8085A implements a group of instructions that move data between registers, between a register and memory, and between a register and an I/O port. It also has arithmetic and logic instructions, conditional and unconditional branch instructions, and machine control instructions. The CPU recognizes these instructions only when they are coded in binary form.

### 5.2 SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS:

The following symbols and abbreviations are used in the subsequent description of the 8085A instructions:

| SYMBOLS | MEANING |
| :--- | :--- |
| accumulator | Register A |
| addr | 16-bit address quantity |
| data | 8-bit quantity |
| data 16 | 16-bit data quantity <br> byte 2 |
| The second byte of the instruc- <br> tion |  |
| byte 3 | The third byte of the instruc- <br> tion |
|  | 8-bit address of an I/O device <br> port <br> r,r1,r2 |
|  | One of the registers A,B,C, <br> $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{H}, \mathrm{L}$ |

DDD,SSS
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { PC } & \begin{array}{l}\text { 16-bit program counter } \\ \text { register (PCH and PCL are }\end{array} \\ & \begin{array}{l}\text { used to refer to the high-order } \\ \text { and low-order } 8 \text { bits respec- } \\ \text { tively). }\end{array} \\ \text { 16-bit stack pointer register }\end{array}\right\}$

The instruction set encyclopedia is a detailed Jescription of the 8085A instruction set. Each nstruction is described in the following manler:

1. The MCS-85 macro assembler format, consisting of the instruction mnemonic and operand fields, is printed in BOLDFACE on the first line.
2. The name of the instruction is enclosed in parentheses following the mnemonic.
3. The next lines contain a symbolic description of what the instruction does.
4. This is followed by a narrative description of the operation of the instruction.
5. The boxes describe the binary codes that comprise the machine instruction.
6. The last four lines contain information about the execution of the instruction. The number of machine cycles and states required to execute the instruction are listed first. If the instruction has two possible execution times, as in a conditional jump, both times are listed, separated by a slash. Next, data addressing modes are listed if applicable. The last line lists any of the five flags that are affected by the execution of the instruction.

### 5.3 INSTRUCTION AND DATA FORMATS

Memory used in the MCS-85 system is organized in 8-bit bytes. Each byte has a unique location in physical memory. That location is described by one of a sequence of 16 -bit binary addresses. The 8085A can address up to $64 \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{~K}=1024$, or 210 ; hence, 64 K represents the decimal number 65,536 ) bytes of memory, which may consist of both random-access, read-write memory (RAM) and read-only memory (ROM), which is also random-access.
Data in the 8085A is stored in the form of 8-bit binary integers:

## DATA WORD



When a register or data word contains a binary number, it is necessary to establish the order in which the bits of the number are written. In the Intel 8085A, BIT 0 is referred to as the Least Significant Bit (LSB), and BIT 7 (of an 8-bit number) is referred to as the Most Significant Bit (MSB).
An 8085A program instruction may be one, two or three bytes in length. Multiple-byte instructions must be stored in successive memory locations; the address of the first byte is always used as the address of the instruction. The exact instruction format will depend on the particular operation to be executed.

Single Byte Instructions


Two-Byte Instructions
Byte
One


Byte
Two $\square$

Three-Byte Instructions


### 5.4 ADDRESSING MODES:

Often the data that is to be operated on is stored in memory. When multi-byte numeric data is used, the data, like instructions, is stored in successive memory locations, with the least significant byte first, followed by increasingly significant bytes. The 8085A has four different modes for addressing data stored in memory or in registers:

- Direct - Bytes 2 and 3 of the instruction contain the exact memory address of the data item (the loworder bits of the address are in byte 2, the high-order bits in byte 3).
- Register - The instruction specifies the register or register pair in which the data is located.
- Register Indirect - The instruction specifies a register pair which contains the memory address where the data is located (the high-order bits of the address are in the first register of the pair the low-order bits in the second).
- Immediate - The instruction contains the data itself. This is either an 8 -bit quantity or a 16 -bit quantity (least significant byte first, most significant byte second).
Unless directed by an interrupt or branch institution, the execution of instructions proceeds through consecutively increasing memory locations. A branch instruction can specify the address of the next instruction to be executed in one of two ways:
- Direct - The branch instruction contains the address of the next instruction to be executed. (Except for the 'RST' instruction, byte 2 contains the low-order address and byte 3 the high-order address.)
- Register Indirect - The branch instruction indicates a register-pair which contains the address of the next instruction to be executed. (The high-order bits of the address are in the first register of the pair, the loworder bits in the second.)
The RST instruction is a special one-byte call instruction (usually used during interrupt sequences). RST includes a three-bit field; program control is transferred to the instruction whose address is eight times the contents of this three-bit field.


### 5.5 CONDITION FLAGS:

There are five condition flags associated with the execution of instructions on the 8085A. They are Zero, Sign, Parity, Carry, and Auxiliary Carry. Each is represented by a 1-bit register (or flip-flop) in the CPU. A flag is set by forcing the bit to 1 ; it is reset by forcing the bit to 0 .
Unless indicated otherwise, when an instruction affects a flag, it affects it in the following manner:

Zero: If the result of an instruction has the value 0 , this flag is set; otherwise it is reset.
Sign: If the most significant bit of the result of the operation has the value 1, this flag is set; otherwise it is reset.
Parity: If the modulo 2 sum of the bits of the result of the operation is 0 , (i.e., if the result has even parity), this flag is set; otherwise it is reset (i.e., if the result has odd parity).
Carry: If the instruction resulted in a carry (from addition), or a borrow (from subtraction or a comparison) out of the high-order bit, this flag is set; otherwise it is reset.
Auxiliary Carry: If the instruction caused a carry out of bit 3 and into bit 4 of the resulting value, the auxiliary carry is set; otherwise it is reset. This flag is affected by single-precision additions, subtractions, increments, decrements, comparisons, and logical operations, but is principally used with additions and increments preceding a DAA (Decimal Adjust Accumulator) instruction.

### 5.6 INSTRUCTION SET ENCYCLOPEDIA

In the ensuing dozen pages, the complete 8085A instruction set is described, grouped in order under five different functional headings, as follows:

1. Data Transfer Group - Moves data between registers or between memory locations and registers. Includes moves, loads, stores, and exchanges. (See below.)
2. Arithmetic Group - Adds, subtracts, increments, or decrements data in registers or memory. (See page 5-13.)
3. Logic Group - ANDs, ORs, XORs, compares, rotates, or complements data in registers or between memory and a register. (See page 5-16.)
4. Branch Group - Initiates conditional or unconditional jumps, calls, returns, and restarts. (See page 5-20.)
5. Stack, I/O, and Machine Control Group - Includes instructions for maintaining the stack, reading from input ports, writing to output ports, setting and reading interrupt masks, and setting and clearing flags. (See page 5-22.)

The formats described in the encyclopedia reflect the assembly language processed by Intel-supplied assembler, used with the Intellec ${ }^{\oplus}$ development systems.

### 5.6.1 Data Transfer Group

This group of instructions transfers data to and from registers and memory. Condition flags are not affected by any instruction in this group.

MOV r1, r2 (Move Register)
(r1) $-(\mathrm{r} 2)$
The content of register r2 is moved to register r1.

| 0 | 1 | $D$ | $D$ | $D$ | $S$ | $S$ | $S$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | $4(8085), 5(8080)$ |
| Addressing: | register  <br> Flags: none |

LXI rp, data 16 (Load register pair immediate)
(rh) - (byte 3),
(rl) - (byte 2)
Byte 3 of the instruction is moved into the high-order register (rh) of the register pair rp. Byte 2 of the instruction is moved into the low-order register (rl) of the register pair rp.


LDA addr (Load Accumulator direct)
(A) - ((byte 3)(byte 2))

The content of the memory location, whose address is specified in byte 2 and byte 3 of the instruction, is moved to register $\mathbf{A}$.


STA addr (Store Accumulator direct)
((byte 3)(byte 2)) - (A)
The content of the accumulator is moved to the memory location whose address is specified in byte 2 and byte 3 of the instruction.


LHLD addr (Load H and L direct)
(L) -(byte 3)(byte 2))
(H) - ((byte 3)(byte 2) +1 )

The content of the memory location, whose address is specified in byte 2 and byte 3 of the instruction, is moved to register L . The content of the memory location at the succeeding address is moved to register H .


SHLD addr (Store H and L direct)
((byte 3)(byte 2))-(L)
((byte 3)(byte 2) +1 ) $-(\mathrm{H})$
The content of register $L$ is moved to the memory location whose address is specified in byte 2 and byte 3. The content of register H is moved to the succeeding memory location.


LDAX rp (Load accumulator indirect)
$(A)-((r p))$
The content of the memory location, whose address is in the register pair rp , is moved to register A. Note: only register pairs $\mathrm{rp}=\mathrm{B}$ (registers B and C ) or $\mathrm{rp}=\mathrm{D}$ (registers D and E) may be specified.


STAX rp
(Store accumulator indirect)
$((r p))-(A)$
The content of register $A$ is moved to the memory location whose address is in the register pair rp. Note: only register pairs $\mathrm{rp}=\mathrm{B}$ (registers B and C ) or $\mathrm{rp}=\mathrm{D}$ (registers D and E) may be specified.

| 0 | 0 | $R$ | $\mathbf{P}$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: none
XCHG
(Exchange H and L with D and E )

$$
(H)-(D)
$$

$$
(L) \rightarrow(E)
$$

The contents of registers H and L are exchanged with the contents of registers D and E .

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \text { none }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 5.6.2 Arithmetic Group

This group of instructions performs arithmetic operations on data in registers and memory.
Unless indicated otherwise, all instructions in this group affect the Zero, Sign, Parity, Carry, and Auxiliary Carry flags.according to the standard rules.
All subtraction operations are performed via two's complement arithmetic and set the carry flag to one to indicate a borrow and clear it to indicate no borrow.

## ADD r (Add Register)

$(A) \leftarrow(A)+(r)$
The content of register $r$ is added to the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $s$ | $s$ | $s$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Addressing: | register |
| Flags: | $\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}$ |

States: 4
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

ADD M (Add memory)
$(A) \leftarrow(A)+(H)(L))$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is added to the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

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

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

ADI data (Add immediate)
(A) - (A) + (byte 2)

The content of the second byte of the instruction is added to the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 2 \\
\text { States: } & 7 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { immediate } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

ADC r
(Add Register with carry)
$(A)-(A)+(r)+(C Y)$
The content of register $r$ and the content of the carry bit are added to the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.


$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

ADC M (Add memory with carry)
$(A)-(A)+((H)(L))+(C Y)$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers and the content of the CY flag are added to the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.


| Cycles: | 2 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 7 |
| Addressing: | reg. indirect |
| Flags: | $\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}$ |

Flags: $\quad Z, S, P, C Y, A C$

ACl data
(Add immediate with carry)
(A) - (A) + (byte 2) + (CY)

The content of the second byte of the instruction and the content of the CY flag are added to the contents of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| data |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: immediate
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

SUB M
(Subtract memory)
$(A)-(A)-((H)(L))$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is subtracted from the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

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

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

SUI data (Subtract immediate)
(A) - (A) - (byte 2)

The content of the second byte of the instruction is subtracted from the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.


Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: immediate
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

SBB r
(Subtract Register with borrow) $(A)-(A)-(r)-(C Y)$
The content of register $r$ and the content of the CY flag are both subtracted from the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | $S$ | $S$ | $S$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 1
States: 4
Addressing: register
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

SBB M (Subtract memory with borrow)

$$
(A)-(A)-((H)(L))-(C Y)
$$

The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers and the content of the CY flag are both subtracted from the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator.

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

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

INR M
(Increment memory)
$((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L})-((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L}))+1$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is incremented by one. Note: All condition flags except CY are affected.

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

Cycles: 3
States: 10
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,AC

DCR r (Decrement Register)
$(r)-(r)-1$
The content of register $r$ is decremented by one. Note: All condition flags except CY are affected.


$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \text { (8085), } 5(8080) \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

DCR M
(Decrement memory)
$((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L}))-((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L}))-1$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is decremented by one. Note: All condition flags except CY are affected.

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


| Cycles: | 3 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 10 |
| Addressing: | reg. indirect |
| Flags: | $\mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{AC}$ |

Cycles: 3
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,AC

INX rp
(Increment register pair)
$(r h)(r l)-(r h)(r l)+1$
The content of the register pair rp is incremented by one. Note: No condition flags are affected.

| 0 | 0 | $R$ | $P$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | $6(8085), 5(8080)$ |
| Addressing: | register <br> Flags: |
| none |  |

DCX rp (Decrement register pair)
$(\mathrm{rh})(\mathrm{rl}) \leftarrow(\mathrm{rh})(\mathrm{rl})-1$
The content of the register pair rp is decremented by one. Note: No condition flags are affected.

| 0 | 0 | $R$ | $P$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 6 \text { (8085), } 5(8080) \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \text { none }
\end{aligned}
$$

DAD rp (Add register pair to H and L )
$(\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L})-(\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L})+(\mathrm{rh})(\mathrm{rl})$
The content of the register pair rp is added to the content of the register pair H and L . The result is placed in the register pair $H$ and L. Note: Only the CY flag is affected. It is set if there is a carry out of the double precision add; otherwise it is reset.


Cycles: 3
States: 10
Addressing: register Flags: CY

DAA
(Decimal Adjust Accumulator)
The eight-bit number in the accumulator is adjusted to form two four-bit Binary-CodedDecimal digits by the following process:

1. If the value of the lease significant 4 bits of the accumulator is greater than 9 or if the AC flag is set, 6 is added to the accumulator.
2. If the value of the most significant 4 bits of the accumulator is now greater than 9 , or if the CY flag is set, 6 is added to the most significant 4 bits of the accumulator.

NOTE: All flags are affected.

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


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | $Z, S, P, C Y, A C$ |

### 5.6.3 Logical Group

This group of instructions performs logical (Boolean) operations on data in registers and memory and on condition flags.
Unless indicated otherwise, all instructions in this group affect the Zero, Sign, Parity, Auxiliary Carry, and Carry flags according to the standard rules.

ANA $r$
(AND Register)
$(A)-(A) \wedge$
(r)

The content of register $r$ is logically ANDed with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY flag is cleared and AC is set (8085). The CY flag is cleared and AC is set to the OR'ing of bits 3 of the operands (8080).


$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

ANA M
(AND metnory)
$(A)-(A) \wedge(H)(L)$
The contents of the memory location whese wodeds 18 contothed in the $H$ and $L$ teptst STGeally ANDed with the conRaccundutiow the result is y weunupitid The cy flag is




$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { Cydes: } & 2 \\
\text { states: } & 7, \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { reg, indirect } \\
\text { Hases: } & \mathrm{Z}, 5, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{array}
$$

ANI data (AND immedfate)
(A) - (A) $\wedge$ (byte 2 )

The content of the second byte of the instruction is logically ANDed with the contents of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY flag is cleared and AC is set (8085). The CY flag is cleared and AC is set to the OR'ing of bits 3 of the operands (8080).


XRAT, (Exclusite OR Register) $(A)-(A)+(t)$
The od ten of registet o exclusiveord with the eotent 0 the accumulator. The resultspored in fiteccumulater the Cy and AC hags are deared.

| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $S$ | $S$ | $S$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Addressing: | register |
| Flags: | $Z, S, P, C Y, A C$ |

States 4
Addressing: register
Flags: $\quad Z, S, P, C Y, A C$

XRA M (Exclusive OR Memory)
$(A)-(A) \forall((H)(L))$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is exclusive-OR'd with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY and AC flags are cleared.


XRI data (Exclusive OR immediate)
(A) - (A) $\forall$ (byte 2)

The content of the second byte of the instruction is exclusive-OR'd with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY and AC flags are cleared.

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| data |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

ORA r
$(A)-(A) \vee(r)$
The content of register $r$ is inclusive-OR'd with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY and AC flags are cleared.

| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $s$ | $s$ | $s$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 1
States: 4
Addressing: register
Flags: $\quad Z, S, P, C Y, A C$

ORA M
(OR memory)
$(\mathrm{A})-(\mathrm{A}) \vee((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L}))$
The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is inclusive-OR'd with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY and AC flags are cleared.

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

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

## ORI data <br> (OR Immediate)

(A) - (A) $V$ (byte 2)

The content of the second byte of the instruction is inclusive-OR'd with the content of the accumulator. The result is placed in the accumulator. The CY and AC flags are cleared.

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| data |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: immediate
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC

## CMP r

(Compare Register)
(A) $-(r)$

The content of register $r$ is subtracted from the accumulator. The accumulator remains unchanged. The condition flags are set as a result of the subtraction. The Z flag is set to 1 if $(A)=(r)$. The CY flag is set to 1 if $(A)$ $<$ (r).

| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $S$ | $S$ | $S$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { register } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

CMP M (Compare memory)
(A) $-((\mathrm{H})(\mathrm{L}))$

The content of the memory location whose address is contained in the $H$ and $L$ registers is subtracted from the accumulator. The accumulator remains unchanged. The condition flags are set as a result of the subtraction. The $Z$ flag is set to 1 if $(A)=(H)(L))$. The CY flag is set to 1 if (A) $<$ ( H ) (L)).

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

Cycles: 2
States: 7
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC
CPI data (Compare immediate)
(A) - (byte 2)

The content of the second byte of the instruction is subtracted from the accumulator. The condition flags are set by the result of the subtraction. The $Z$ flag is set to 1 if $(A)=$ (byte 2). The CY flag is set to 1 if (A) $<$ (byte 2).

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| data |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 2 \\
\text { States: } & 7 \\
\text { Addressing: } & \text { immediate } \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{~S}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{CY}, \mathrm{AC}
\end{aligned}
$$

RLC (Rotate left)
$\left(A_{n+1}\right)-\left(A_{n}\right) ;\left(A_{0}\right)-\left(A_{7}\right)$
$(C Y)-\left(A_{7}\right)$
The content of the accumulator is rotated left one position. The low order bit and the CY flag are both set to the value shifted out of the high order bit position. Only the CY flag is affected.

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


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | CY |

States: 4
Flags: CY

RRC
(Rotate right)
$\left(A_{n}\right) \leftarrow\left(A_{n+1}\right) ;\left(A_{7}\right) \leftarrow\left(A_{0}\right)$
(CY) - $\left(A_{0}\right)$
The content of the accumulator is rotated right one position. The high order bit and the CY flag are both set to the value shifted out of the low order bit position. Only the CY flag is affected.

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


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | CY |

RAL (Rotate left through carry)

$$
\left(A_{n+1}\right)-\left(A_{n}\right) ;(C Y) \leftarrow\left(A_{7}\right)
$$

( $\mathrm{A}_{0}$ ) - (CY)
The content of the accumulator is rotated left one position through the CY flag. The low order bit is set equal to the CY flag and the CY flag is set to the value shifted out of the high order bit. Only the CY flag is affected.

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

$\begin{aligned} \text { Cycles: } & 1 \\ \text { States: } & 4 \\ \text { Flags: } & \mathrm{CY}\end{aligned}$

RAR
(Rotate right through carry)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(A_{n}\right)-\left(A_{n}+1\right) ;(C Y)-\left(A_{0}\right) \\
& \left(A_{7}\right)-(C Y)
\end{aligned}
$$

The content of the accumulator is rotated right one position through the CY flag. The high order bit is set to the CY flag and the CY flag is set to the value shifted out of the low order bit. Only the CY flag is affected.

CMA
(Complement accumulator)
(A) $-(\overline{\mathrm{A}})$

The contents of the accumulator are complemented (zero bits become 1, one bits become 0 ). No flags are affected.

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

Cycles: 1
States: 4
Flags: none

CMC $\quad$ (Complement carry)
(CY) - ( $\overline{\mathrm{CY}})$
The CY flag is complemented. No other flags are affected.

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


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | CY |

STC
(Set carry)
(CY) -1
The CY flag is set to 1 . No other flags are affected.


Cycles: 1
States: 4
Flags: CY

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Cycles: } & 1 \\
\text { States: } & 4 \\
\text { Flags: } & \mathrm{CY}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 5.6.4 Branch Group

This group of instructions alter normal sequential program flow.
Condition flags are not affected by any instruction in this group.
The two types of branch instructions are unconditional and conditional. Unconditional transfers simply perform the specified operation on register PC (the program counter). Conditional transfers examine the status of one of the four processor flags to determine if the specified branch is to be executed. The conditions that may be specified are as follows:

## CONDITION

| $N Z-\operatorname{not}$ zero $(Z=0)$ | 000 |
| :---: | :--- |
| $Z-$ zero $(Z=1)$ | 001 |

$N C$ - no carry $(C Y=0) \quad 010$
C - carry $(\mathrm{CY}=1) \quad 011$
PO - parity odd $(\mathrm{P}=0) \quad 100$
$P E$ - parity even $(P=1) \quad 101$
$P$ - plus $(S=0) \quad 110$
$M$ - minus $(S=1) \quad 111$

JMP addr (Jump)
(PC) - (byte 3) (byte 2)
Control is transferred to the instruction whose address is specified in byte 3 and byte 2 of the current instruction.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| low-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| high-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| Cycles: | 3 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 10 |
| Addressing: | immediate |
| Flags: | none |

States: 10
Flags: none

Jcondition addr (Conditional jump)
If (CCC),
(PC) - (byte 3) (byte 2)
If the specified condition is true, control is transferred to the instruction whose address is specified in byte 3 and byte 2 of the current instruciton; otherwise, control continues sequentially.

| 1 | 1 | $C$ | $C$ | $C$ | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| low-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| high-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Cycles: 2/3 (8085), 3 (8080)
States: 7/10 (8085), 10 (8080)
Addressing: immediate
Flags: none

CALL addr (Call)
$((S P)-1) \leftarrow(P C H)$
$((S P)-2) \leftarrow(P C L)$
$(S P)-(S P)-2$
(PC) - (byte 3) (byte 2)
The high-order eight bits of the next instruction address are moved to the memory location whose address is one less than the content of register SP. The low-order eight bits of the next instruction address are moved to the memory location whose address is two less than the content of register SP. The content of register SP is decremented by 2 . Control is transferred to the instruction whose address is specified in byte 3 and byte 2 of the current instruction.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| low-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| high-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Cycles: 5
States: 18 (8085), 17 (8080) immediatel reg. indirect
Flags: none

## Ccondition addr (Condition call)

If (CCC),
$((S P)-1) \leftarrow(P C H)$
((SP) - 2) - (PCL)
$(S P) \leftarrow(S P)-2$
(PC) - (byte 3) (byte 2)
If the specified condition is true, the actions specified in the CALL instruction (see above) are performed; otherwise, control continues sequentially.

| 1 | 1 | $C^{1}$ | $C$ | $C$ | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| low-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| high-order addr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Cycles: $2 / 5$ (8085), $3 / 5$ (8080)
States: $9 / 18$ (8085), 11/17 (8080)
Addressing:
Flags: none

RET
(Return)
(PCL) - ((SP));
$(P C H)-((S P)+1) ;$
$(S P)-(S P)+2 ;$
The content of the memory location whose address is specified in register SP is moved to the low-order eight bits of register PC. The content of the memory location whose address is one more than the content of register SP is moved to the high-order eight bits of register PC. The content of register SP is incremented by 2.

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

Cycles: 3
States: 10
Addressing: reg. indirect Flags: none

```
Rcondition (Conditional return)
    If (CCC),
    (PCL) - ((SP))
    (PCH)-((SP) + 1)
    (SP) - (SP) + 2
    If the specified condition is true, the ac-
    tions specified in the RET instruction (see
    above) are performed; otherwise, control
    continues sequentially.
```

| 1 | 1 | $C$ | $C$ | $C$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

```
            Cycles: 1/3
            States: 6/12 (8085), 5/11 (8080)
            Addressing: reg. indirect
            Flags: none
```

RST $n$
(Restart)
$((S P)-1) \leftarrow(P C H)$
$((S P)-2)-(P C L)$
$(S P)-(S P)-2$
$(\mathrm{PC}) \leftarrow 8^{*}$ (NNN)
The high-order eight bits of the next instruction address are moved to the memory location whose address is one less than the content of register SP. The low-order eight bits of the next instruction address are moved to the memory location whose address is two less than the content of register SP. The content of register SP is decremented by two. Control is transferred to the instruction whose address is eight times the content of NNN.

| 1 | 1 | $N$ | $N$ | $N$ | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 3
States: 12 (8085), 11 (8080)
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: none


Program Counter After Restart

PCHL
(Jump H and Lindirect move H and L to PC )
$(\mathrm{PCH}) \leftarrow(\mathrm{H})$
(PCL) - (L)
The content of register H is moved to the high-order eight bits of register PC. The content of register $L$ is moved to the loworder eight bits of register PC.

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

Cycles: 1
States: 6 (8085), 5 (8080)
Addressing: register
Flags: none

### 5.6.5 Stack, I/O, and Machine Control Group

This group of instructions performs I/O, manipulates the Stack, and alters internal control flags.
Unless otherwise specified, condition flags are not affected by any instructions in this group.

PUSH rp (Push)
$((S P)-1)-(r h)$
((SP) - 2) - (rl)
$((S P)-(S P)-2$
The content of the high-order register of register pair $r p$ is moved to the memory location whose address is one less than the content of register SP. The content of the low-order register of register pair rp is moved to the memory location whose address is two less than the content of register SP. The content of register SP is decremented by 2. Note: Register pair rp = SP may not be specifled.

| 1 | 1 | $R$ | $P$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 3
States: 12 (8085), 11 (8080)
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: none
PUSH PSW (Push processor status word)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ((\mathrm{SP})-1)-(\mathrm{A}) \\
& ((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{0}-(\mathrm{CY}),((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{1}-\mathrm{X} \\
& ((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{2}-(\mathrm{P}),((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{3}-\mathrm{X} \\
& ((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{4}-(\mathrm{AC}),((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{5}-\mathrm{X} \\
& ((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{6}-(\mathrm{Z}),((\mathrm{SP})-2)_{7}-(\mathrm{S}) \\
& (\mathrm{SP})-(\mathrm{SP})-2 \quad \mathrm{X}: \text { Undefined. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The content of register A is moved to the memory location whose address is one less than register SP. The contents of the condition flags are assembled into a processor status word and the word is moved to the memory location whose address is two less than the content of register SP. The content of register SP is decremented by two.

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

Cycles: 3
States: 12 (8085), 11 (8080)
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: none

FLAG WORD


X : undefined

POP rp
(Pop)
$(\mathrm{rl})-((\mathrm{SP}))$
$(r h)-((S P)+1)$
(SP) $-(S P)+2$
The content of the memory location, whose address is specified by the content of register SP, is moved to the low-order register of register pair rp . The content of the memory location, whose address is one more than the content of register SP, is moved to the high-order register of register rp . The content of register SP is incremented by 2. Note: Register pair rp = SP may not be specified.

| 1 | 1 | $R$ | $P$ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Cycles: 3
States: 10
Addressing: reg.indirect
Flags: none

POP PSW (Pop processor status word)
(CY) - ((SP))
(P)- $\left((\mathrm{SP})_{2}\right)_{2}$
(AC)- ((SP) $)_{4}$
(Z) - ((SP) $)_{6}$
(S) $-(\text { (SP) })_{7}$
(A) $-((\mathrm{SP})+1)$
(SP) - (SP) +2
The content of the memory location whose address is specified by the content of register SP is used to restore the condition flags. The content of the memory location whose address is one more than the content of register SP is moved to register A. The content of register SP is incremented by 2 .


```
Cycles: 3
States: 10
Addressing: reg. indirect Flags: Z,S,P,CY,AC
```

XTHL
(Exchange stack top with H and L)
$(\mathrm{L}) \rightarrow((\mathrm{SP}))$
(H) $-($ (SP) +1$)$

The content of the $L$ register is exchanged with the content of the memory location whose address is specified by the content of register SP. The content of the H register is exchanged with the content of the memory location whose address is one more than the content of register SP.

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

Cycles: 5
States: 16 (8085), 18 (8080)
Addressing: reg. indirect
Flags: none

SPHL
$(S P)-(H)(L)$
The contents of registers H and L ( 16 bits) are moved to register SP.

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

Cycles: 1
States: 6 (8085), 5 (8080)
Addressing: register
Flags: none

IN port (Input)
(A)-(data)

The data placed on the eight bit bidirectional data bus by the specified port is moved to register $A$.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| port |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

OUT port (Output)
(data) - (A)
The content of register $A$ is placed on the eight bit bi-directional data bus for transmission to the specified port.

| 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| port |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| Cycles: | 3 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 10 |
| Addressing: | direct |
| Flags: | none |

Cycles: 3
States: 10
Flags: none

EI
(Enable interrupts)
The interrupt system is enabled following the execution of the next instruction. Interrupts are not recognized during the El instruction.

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Cycles: |
|  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | States: | 4 |  |  |  |  |
|  | Flags: | none |  |  |  |  |  |

NOTE: Placing an El instruction on the bus in response to INTA during an INA cycle is prohibited. (8085)

DI
(Disable interrupts)
The interrupt system is disabled immediately following the execution of the DI instruction. Interrupts are not recognized during the DI instruction.

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


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | none |

NOTE: Placing a DI instruction on the bus in response to INTA during an INA cycle is prohibited. (8085)

## HLT

(Halt)
The processor is stopped. The registers and flags are unaffected. (8080) A second ALE is generated during the execution of HLT to strobe out the Halt cycle status information. (8085)


Cycles: $1+(8085), 1$ (8080)
States: 5 (8085), 7 (8080)
Flags: none

## NOP

(No op)
No operation is performed. The registers and flags are unaffected.


RIM
(Read Interrupt Masks) (8085 only)
The RIM instruction loads data into the accumulator relating to interrupts and the serial input. This data contains the following information:

- Current interrupt mask status for the RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 hardware interrupts ( 1 = mask disabled)
- Current interrupt enable flag status (1 = interrupts enabled) except immediately following a TRAP interrupt. (See below.)
- Hardware interrupts pending (i.e., signal received but not yet serviced), on the RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 lines.
- Serial input data.

Immediately following a TRAP interrupt, the RIM instruction must be executed as a part of the service routine if you need to retrieve current interrupt status later. Bit 3 of the accumulator is (in this special case only) loaded with the interrupt enable (IE) flag status that existed prior to the TRAP interrupt. Following an RST 5.5, 6.5, 7.5, or INTR interrupt, the interrupt flag flip-flop reflects the current interrupt enable status. Bit 6 of the accumulator (I7.5) is loaded with the status of the RST 7.5 flip-flop, which is always set (edge-triggered) by an input on the RST 7.5 input line, even when that interrupt has been previously masked. (See SIM Instruction.)


| Cycles: | 1 |
| ---: | :--- |
| States: | 4 |
| Flags: | none |

SIM (Set Interrupt Masks) (8085 only)
The execution of the SIM instruction uses the contents of the accumulator (which must be previously loaded) to perform the following functions:

- Program the interrupt mask for the RST 5.5, 6.5, and 7.5 hardware interrupts.
- Reset the edge-triggered RST 7.5 input latch.
- Load the SOD output latch.

To program the interrupt masks, first set accumulator bit 3 to 1 and set to 1 any bits 0 , 1, and 2, which disable interrupts RST 5.5, 6.5 , and 7.5 , respectively. Then do a SIM instruction. If accumulator bit 3 is 0 when the SIM instruction is executed, the interrupt mask register will not change. If accumulator bit 4 is 1 when the SIM instruction is executed, the RST 7.5 latch is then reset. RST 7.5 is distinguished by the fact that its latch is always set by a rising edge on the RST 7.5 input pin, even if the jump to service routine is inhibited by masking. This latch remains high until cleared by a RESET IN, by a SIM Instruction with accumulator bit 4 high, or by an internal processor acknowledge to an RST 7.5 interrupt subsequent to the removal of the mask (by a SIM instruction). The RESET IN signal always sets all three RST mask bits.
If accumulator bit 6 is at the 1 level when the SIM instruction is executed, the state of accumulator bit 7 is loaded into the SOD latch and thus becomes available for interface to an external device. The SOD latch is unaffected by the SIM instruction if bit 6 is 0 . SOD is always reset by the RESET IN signal.


| Instruction |  | Code | Bytes | T States |  | Machine Cycles |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 8085A |  | 8080A |  |
| ACI | DATA |  | CE data | 2 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| ADC | REG | 1000 1SSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| ADC | M | 8 E | 1 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| ADD | REG | 1000 OSSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| ADD | M | 86 | 1 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| ADI | dATA | C6 data | 2 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| ANA | REG | 1010 OSSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| ANA | M | A6 | 1 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| ANI | DATA | E6 data | 2 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| CALL | LABEL | CD addr | 3 | 18 | 17 | S R R W W* |
| CC | LABEL | DC addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | SRe/SRRWW* |
| CM | LABEL | FC addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | SRo/S R RWW* |
| CMA |  | 2 F | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| CMC |  | 3 F | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| CMP | REG | 1011 1SSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| CMP | M | BE | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| CNC | LABEL | D4 addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | SRo/SRRWW* |
| CNZ | LABEL | C4 addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | SRe/SRRWW* |
| CP | LABEL | F4 addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | SRe/SRRWW* |
| CPE | LABEL | EC addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | S R•/SRRWW* |
| CPI | DATA | FE data | 2 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| CPO | LABEL | E4 addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | S Re/SRRWW* |
| CZ | LABEL | CC addr | 3 | 9/18 | 11/17 | S Ro/S R R W W* |
| DAA |  | 27 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| DAD | RP | OORP 1001 | 1 | 10 | 10 | F B B |
| DCR | REG | 00SS S101 | 1 | 4 | 5 | F* |
| DCR | M | 35 | 1 | 10 | 10 | F R W |
| DCX | RP | 00RP 1011 | 1 | 6 | 5 | $\mathrm{S}^{*}$ |
| DI |  | F3 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| El |  | FB | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| HLT |  | 76 | 1 | 5 | 7 | F B |
| IN | PORT | DB data | 2 | 10 | 10 | FRI |
| INR | REG | 00SS 5100 | 1 | 4 | 5 | F* |
| INR | M | 34 | 1 | 10 | 10 | F R W |
| INX | RP | OORP 0011 | 1 | 6 | 5 | S* |
| JC | LABEL | DA addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR $\mathrm{R}^{\dagger}$ |
| JM | LABEL | FA addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR R ${ }^{+}$ |
| JMP | LABEL | C3 addr | 3 | 10 | 10 | FRR |
| JNC | LABEL | D2 addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR $\mathrm{R}^{\dagger}$ |
| JNZ | LABEL | C2 addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR $\mathrm{R}^{\dagger}$ |
| JP | LABEL | F2 addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR $\mathrm{R}^{\dagger}$ |
| JPE | LABEL | EA addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR R ${ }^{\dagger}$ |
| JPO | LABEL | E2 addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR $\mathrm{R}^{\dagger}$ |
| JZ | LABEL | CA addr | 3 | 7/10 | 10 | FR/FR R ${ }^{\dagger}$ |
| LDA | ADDR | 3A addr | 3 | 13 | 13 | FRRR |
| LDAX | RP | 000X 1010 | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| LHLD | ADDR | 2 A addr | 3 | 16 | 16 | FRRRR |


| Instruction |  | Code | Bytes | T States |  | Machine Cycles |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 8085A |  | 8080A |  |
| LXI | RP, DATA16 |  | OORP 0001 datal6 | 3 | 10 | 10 | FRR |
| MOV | REG,REG | 010D DSSS | 1 | 4 | 5 | F* |
| MOV | M,REG | 0111 OSSS | 1 | 7 | 7 | F W |
| MOV | REG,M | 0100 D110 | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| MVI | REG,DATA | 000D D110 data | 2 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| MVI | M,DATA | 36 data | 2 | 10 | 10 | FRW |
| NOP |  | 00 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| ORA | REG | 1011 OSSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| ORA | M | B6 | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| ORI | DATA | F6 data | 2 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| OUT | PORT | O3 data | 2 | 10 | 10 | FRO |
| PCHL |  | E9 | 1 | 6 | 5 | $\mathrm{S}^{*}$ |
| POP | RP | 11 RP 0001 | 1 | 10. | 10 | FR R |
| PUSH | RP | 11RP 0101 | 1 | 12 | 11 | S W W* |
| RAL |  | 17 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| RAR |  | 1F | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| RC |  | D8 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/S R R* |
| RET |  | C9 | 1 | 10 | 10 | FRR |
| RIM (8085 | 5A only) | 20 | 1 | 4 | - | F |
| RLC |  | 07 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| RM |  | F8 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/S R R* |
| RNC |  | D0 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/SR R* |
| RNZ |  | CO | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/S R R* |
| RP |  | F0 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/S R R* |
| RPE |  | E8 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/SR R* |
| RPO |  | E0 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/SR R* |
| RRC |  | OF | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| RST | N | 11XX X111 | 1 | 12 | 11 | S W W* |
| RZ |  | C8 | 1 | 6/12 | 5/11 | S/S R R* |
| SBB | REG | 1001 1SSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| SBB | M | 9 E | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| SBI | DATA | DE data | 2 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| SHLD | ADDR | 22 addr | 3 | 16 | 16 | FRRWW |
| SIM (8085A only) |  | 30 | 1 | 4 | - | F |
| SPHL |  | F9 | 1 | 6 | 5 | $S^{*}$ |
| STA | ADDR | 32 addr | 3 | 13 | 13 | FRRW |
| StAX | RP | 000X 0010 | 1 | 7 | 7 | F W |
| STC |  | 37 | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| SUB | REG | 1001 OSSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| SUB | M | 96 | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| SUI | DATA | O6 data | 2 | 7 | 7 | F R |
| XCHG |  | EB | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| XRA | REG | 1010 1SSS | 1 | 4 | 4 | F |
| XRA | M | AE | 1 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| XRI | DATA | EE data | 2 | 7 | 7 | FR |
| XTHL |  | E3 | 1 | 16 | 18 | FRRWW |

\footnotetext{
Machine cycle types:

| F | Four clock period instr fetch |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S | Six clock period instr fetch |  |
| R | Memory read |  |
| 1 | 1/0 read |  |
| W | Memory write |  |
| 0 | 1/0 write |  |
| B | Busidle |  |
| X | Variable or optional binary digit |  |
| DOD | Binary digits identifying a destination register | $B=000, C=001, D=010$ Memory $=110$ |
| SSS | Binary digits identifying a source register | $E=011, H=100, L=101 \mathrm{~A}=111$ |
| RP | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { Register Pair } & B C=00, H L=10 \\ D E=01, S P=11 \end{array}$ |  |

*Five clock period instruction fetch with 8080A.
tThe longer machine cycle sequence applies regardless of condition evaluation with 8080 A .

- An extra READ cycle (R) will occur for this condition with 8080A.

Table 5-2

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { OP } \\ & \text { CODE } \end{aligned}$ | MNEMONIC |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { OP } \\ \text { CODE } \end{gathered}$ | MNEMONIC |  | OP CODE | MNEMONIC |  | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { OP } \\ \text { CODE } \end{gathered}\right.$ | MNEMONIC |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { OP } \\ & \text { CODE } \end{aligned}$ | MNEMONIC |  | $\left\|\begin{array}{c} O P \\ \text { CODE } \end{array}\right\|$ | MNEMONIC |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00 | NOP |  | 2B | DCX | H | 56 | MOV | D,M | 81 | ADD | C | AC | XRA | H | D7 | RST | 2 |
| 01 | LXI | B,D16 | 2C | INR | L | 57 | MOV | D,A | 82 | ADD | D | AD | XRA | L | D8 | RC |  |
| 02 | STAX | B | 2D | DCR | L | 58 | MOV | E,B | 83 | ADD | E | AE | XRA | M | D9 | - |  |
| 03 | INX | B | 2E | MVI | L,D8 | 59 | MOV | E, C | 84 | ADD | H | AF | XRA | A | DA | JC | Adr |
| 04 | INR | B | 2F | CMA |  | 5A | MOV | E,D | 85 | ADD | L | B0 | ORA | B | DB | IN | D8 |
| 05 | DCR | B | 30 | SIM |  | 5B | MOV | E,E | 86 | ADD | M | B1 | ORA | C | DC | CC | Adr |
| 06 | MVI | B,D8 | 31 | LXI | SP,D16 | 5 C | MOV | E, H | 87 | ADD | A | B2 | ORA | D | DD | - |  |
| 07 | RLC |  | 32 | STA | Adr | 5D | MOV | E,L | 88 | ADC | B | B3 | ORA | E | DE | SBI | D8 |
| 08 | - |  | 33 | INX | SP | 5E | mov | E,M | 89 | ADC | C | B4 | ORA | H | DF | RST | 3 |
| 09 | DAD | B | 34 | INR | M | 5 F | MOV | E,A | 8A | ADC | D | B5 | ORA | L | EO | RPO |  |
| OA | LDAX | B | 35 | DCR | M | 60 | MOV | H,B | 8B | ADC | E | B6 | ORA | M | E1 | POP | H |
| OB | DCX | B | 36 | MVI | M, D8 | 61 | MOV | H,C | 8C | ADC | H | B7 | ORA | A | E2 | JPO | Adr |
| OC | INR | C | 37 | STC |  | 62 | MOV | H, D | 8D | ADC | L | B8 | CMP | B | E3 | XTHL |  |
| OD | DCR | C | 38 | - |  | 63 | MOV | H,E | 8E | ADC | M | B9 | CMP | C | E4 | CPO | Adr |
| OE | MVI | C,D8 | 39 | DAD | SP | 64 | MOV | H,H | 8F | ADC | A | BA | CMP | D | E5 | PUSH | H |
| OF | RRC |  | 3 A | LDA | Adr | 65 | MOV | H,L | 90 | SUB | B | BB | CMP | E | E6 | ANI | D8 |
| 10 | - |  | 3B | DCX | SP | 66 | MOV | H,M | 91 | SUB | C | BC | CMP | H | E7 | RST | 4 |
| 11 | LXI | D,016 | 3 C | INR | A | 67 | MOV | H,A | 92 | SUB | D | BD | CMP | L | E8 | RPE |  |
| 12 | STAX | D | 3D | DCR | A | 68 | MOV | L,B | 93 | SUB | E | BE | CMP | M | E9 | PCHL |  |
| 13 | INX | D | 3E | MVI | A, D8 | 69 | MOV | L,C | 94 | SUB | H | BF | CMP | A | EA | JPE | Adr |
| 14 | INR | D | 3 F | CMC |  | 6 A | MOV | L, D | 95 | SUB | L | CO | RNZ |  | EB | XCHG |  |
| 15 | DCR | D | 40 | MOV | B, B | 6B | MOV | L, E | 96 | SUB | M | C1 | POP | B | EC | CPE | Adr |
| 16 | MVI | D, D8 | 41 | MOV | B,C | 6C | MOV | L, H | 97 | SUB | A | C2 | JNZ | Adr | ED | - |  |
| 17 | RAL |  | 42 | MOV | B, D | 6D | mov | L, L | 98 | SBB | B | C3 | JMP | Adr | EE | XRI | D8 |
| 18 | - |  | 43 | MOV | B, E | 6 E | MOV | L, M | 99 | SBB | C | C4 | CNZ | Adr | EF | RST | 5 |
| 19 | DAD | D | 44 | MOV | B, H | 6 F | MOV | L, A | 9A | SBB | D | C5 | PUSH | B | F0 | RP |  |
| 1 A | LDAX | D | 45 | MOV | B, L | 70 | MOV | M, B | 9B | SBB | E | C6 | ADI | D8 | F1 | POP | PSW |
| 1 B | DCX | D | 46 | MOV | $B, M$ | 71 | MOV | M,C | 9C | SBB | H | C7 | RST | 0 | F2 | JP | Adr |
| 1 C | INR | E | 47 | MOV | $B, A$ | 72 | MOV | M, D | 9D | SBB | L | C8 | RZ |  | F3 | DI |  |
| 1 D | DCR | E | 48 | MOV | C, B | 73 | MOV | M,E | 9E | SBB | M | C9 | RET | Adr | F4 | CP | Adr |
| 1 E | MVI | E,D8 | 49 | MOV | C, C | 74 | MOV | M, H | 9F | SBB | A | CA | JZ |  | F5 | PUSH | PSW |
| 1 F | RAR |  | 4A | MOV | C, D | 75 | MOV | M, L | A0 | ANA | B | CB | - |  | F6 | ORI | D8 |
| 20 | RIM |  | 4B | MOV | C, E | 76 | HLT |  | A1 | ANA | C | CC | CZ | Adr | F7 | RST | 6 |
| 21 | LXI | H,D16 | 4 C | MOV | C, H | 77 | MOV | M, A | A2 | ANA | D | CD | CALL | Adr | F8 | RM |  |
| 22 | SHLD | Adr | 4D | Mov | C, L | 78 | MOV | A, B | A3 | ANA | E | CE | ACl | D8 | F9 | SPHL |  |
| 23 | INX | H | 4E | MOV | C, M | 79 | MOV | A, C | A4 | ANA | H | CF | RST | 1 | FA | JM | Adr |
| 24 | INR | H | 4F | MOV | C, A | 7 A | MOV | A, D | A5 | ANA | L | DO | RNC |  | FB | EI |  |
| 25 | DCR | H | 50 | MOV | D, B | 7B | MOV | A, E | A6 | ANA | M | D1 | POP | D | FC | CM | Adr |
| 26 | MVI | H,D8 | 51 | MOV | D, C | 7 C | MOV | A, H | A7 | ANA | A | D2 | JNC | Adr | FD | - |  |
| 27 | DAA |  | 52 | MOV | D, D | 70 | MOV | A,L | A8 | XRA | B | D3 | OUT | D8 | FE | CPI | D8 |
| 28 | - |  | 53 | MOV | D, E | 7 E | MOV | A, M | A9 | XRA | C | D4 | CNC | Adr | FF | RST | 7 |
| 29 | DAD | H | 54 | MOV | D, H | 7F | MOV | A,A | AA | XRA | D | D5 | PUSH | D |  |  |  |
| 2A | LHLD | Adr | 55 | MOV | D,L | 80 | ADD | B | $A B$ | XRA | E | D6 | SUI | D8 |  |  |  |

D8 = constant, or logical/arithmetic expression that evaluates to an 8-bit data quantity.
Adr $=16$-bit address.

[^0]
# 8085A INSTRUCTION SET SUMMARY BY FUNCTIONAL GROUPING Table 5-3 


*All mnemonics copyrighted (c)Intel Corporation 1976.

Table 5-3

| Instruction Code (1) Instruction Code (1) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mnemonic | Description | D7 | $\mathrm{D}_{6}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ | D4 | D3 | $\mathrm{D}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{0}$ | Page | Mnemonic | Description | D7 | $\mathrm{D}_{6}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ | D4 | $\mathrm{D}_{3}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{2}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{1}$ | $\mathrm{D}_{0}$ | Page |
| SBI | Subtract immediate from A with borrow | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.8 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { RRC } \\ & \text { RAL } \end{aligned}$ | Rotate A right <br> Rotate A left through carry | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $5-12$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | $5 \cdot 12$ |
| ANAr ${ }^{\text {. }}$ | And register with $A$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | S | S | S | 5.9 | RAR | Rotate A right through | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $5 \cdot 12$ |
| XRA r | Exclusive OR register with $A$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | S | S | S | 5.10 | SPECIALS | carry |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ORA, | OR register with A | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | S | S | S | $5 \cdot 10$ | SPECIALS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| CMP r | Compare register with A | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | S | S | S | 5.11 | CMA | Complement A | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5-12 |
| ANA M | And memory with A | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.10 | STC | Set carry | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5-12 |
| XRAM | Exclusive OR memory | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5-10 | CMC | Complement carry | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5.12 |
|  | with A |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | DAA | Decimal adjust A | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5-9 |
| ORAM | OR memory with A | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.11 | CONTRO |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| CMP M | Compare memory with $A$ | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.11 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ANI | And immediate with $A$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $5 \cdot 10$ | El | Enable Interrupts | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 5-17 |
| XRI | Exclusive OR immediate | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.10 | DI | Disable Interrupt | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | $5 \cdot 17$ |
|  | with $A$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | NOP | No-operation | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5.17 |
| ORI | OR immediate with $A$ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5-11 | HLT | Halt | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5-17 |
| CPI | Compare immediate with A | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | $5 \cdot 11$ | NEW 808 | A INSTRUCTIONS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ROtATE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | RIM | Read Interrupt Mask | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $5 \cdot 17$ |
| RLC | Rotate A left | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 5.11 | SIM | Set Interrupt Mask | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5-18 |

NOTES: 1. DDS or SSS: B 000, C 001, D 010, E011, H 100, L 101, Memory 110, A 111.
2. Two possible cycle times. (6/12) indicate instruction cycles dependent on condition flags.
*All mnemonics copyrighted Intel Corporation 1976.

## Device Specifications

 8080A/8080A-1/8080A-2 8-BIT N-CHANNEL MICROPROCESSOR- TTL Drive Capability

■ $2 \mu \mathrm{~s}(-1: 1.3 \mu \mathrm{~s},-2: 1.5 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ ) Instruction Cycle

- Powerful Problem Solving Instruction Set
- 6 General Purpose Registers and an Accumulator


## - 16-Bit Program Counter for Directly Addressing up to 64 K Bytes of Memory

- 16-Bit Stack Pointer and Stack Manipulation Instructions for Rapid Switching of the Program Environment
- Decimal, Binary, and Double Precision Arithmetic
- Ability to Provide Priority Vectored Interrupts
- 512 Directly Addressed I/O Ports
- Available in EXPRESS
- Standard Temperature Range

The Intel ${ }^{\circledast}$ 8080A is a complete 8 -bit parallel central processing unit (CPU). It is fabricated on a single LSI chip using Intel's n-channel silicon gate MOS process. This offers the user a high performance solution to control and processing applications.
The 8080A contains 68 -bit general purpose working registers and an accumulator. The 6 general purpose registers may be addressed individually or in pairs providing both single and double precision operators. Arithmetic and logical instructions set or reset 4 testable flags. A fifth flag provides decimal arithmetic operation.
The 8080A has an external stack feature wherein any portion of memory may be used as a last in/first out stack to store/retrieve the contents of the accumulator, flags, program counter, and all of the 6 general purpose registers. The 16-bit stack pointer controls the addressing of this external stack. This stack gives the 8080A the ability to easily handle multiple level priority interrupts by rapidly storing and restoring processor status. It also provides almost unlimited subroutine nesting.

This microprocessor has been designed to simplify systems design. Separate 16 -line address and 8 -line bidirectional data busses are used to facilitate easy interface to memory and I/O. Signals to control the interface to memory and I/O are provided directly by the 8080A. Ultimate control of the address and data busses resides with the HOLD signal. It provides the ability to suspend processor operation and force the address and data busses into a high impedance state. This permits OR-tying these busses with other controlling devices for (DMA) direct memory access or multi-processor operation.

## NOTE:

The 8080A is functionally and electrically compatible with the Inte| ${ }^{\oplus} 8080$.


Figure 1. Block Diagram


Figure 2. Pin Configuration

Table 1. Pin Description

| Symbol | Type | Name and Function |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| $A_{15} A_{0}$ | $O$ | Address Bus: The address bus provides the address to memory (up to 64K 8-bit words) or denotes the I/O <br> device number for up to 256 input and 256 output devices. $A_{0}$ is the least significant address bit. |
| $\mathrm{D}_{7}-\mathrm{D}_{0}$ | $\mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ | Data Bus: The data bus provides bi-directional communication betweeen the CPU, memory, and I/O <br> devices for instructions and data transfers. Also, during the first clock cycle of each machine cycle, the <br> 8080A outputs a status word on the data bus that describes the current machine cycle. D <br> significant bit. |
| SYNC the least |  |  |

## ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS*

| Temperature Under Bias . . . . . . . . $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Storage Temperature . . . . . . . . . . . . . $-65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+150^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |  |
| All Input or Output Voltages |  |
| With Respect to $V_{B B}$ | -0.3 V to +20 V |
| $\mathrm{V}_{C C}, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{DD}}$ and $\mathrm{V}_{S S}$ With Respect to $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{BB}}$ | -0.3 V to +20 V |
| Power Dissipation | 1.5 W |

*NOTICE: Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. This is a stress rating only and functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicated in the operational sections of this specification is not implied. Exposure to absolute maximum rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

## D.C. CHARACTERISTICS $\left(T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{DD}}=+12 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%$,

$\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=+5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{BB}}=-5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$; unless otherwise noted)

| Symbol | Parameter | Min. | Typ. | Max. | Unit | Test Condition |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| VILC | Clock Input Low Voltage | $\mathrm{V}_{\text {SS }}-1$ |  | $V_{\text {SS }}+0.8$ | V | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{OL}}=1.9 \mathrm{~mA} \text { on all outputs, } \\ & \mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{OH}}=-150 \mu \mathrm{~A} . \end{aligned}$ |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\text {IHC }}$ | Clock Input High Voltage | 9.0 |  | $V_{D D}+1$ | V |  |
| $V_{\text {IL }}$ | Input Low Voltage | $\mathrm{V}_{\text {SS }}-1$ |  | $V_{\text {SS }}+0.8$ | V |  |
| $V_{\text {IH }}$ | Input High Voltage | 3.3 |  | $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}+1$ | V |  |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\text {OL }}$ | Output Low Voltage |  |  | 0.45 | V |  |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{OH}}$ | Output High Voltage | 3.7 |  |  | V |  |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{DD}}(\mathrm{AV})$ | Avg. Power Supply Current ( $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{DD}}$ ) |  | 40 | 70 | mA | Operation$T_{C Y}=.48 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ |
| $1 \mathrm{lCC}(\mathrm{AV})$ | Avg. Power Supply Current ( $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ ) |  | 60 | 80 | mA |  |
| $I_{B B}(A V)$ | Avg. Power Supply Current ( $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{BB}}$ ) |  | . 01 | 1 | mA |  |
| $I_{\text {IL }}$ | Input Leakage |  |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{A}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{SS}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IN}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CC}} \\ & \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CLOCK}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{DD}} \\ & \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IN}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}+0.8 \mathrm{~V} \\ & \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}+0.8 \mathrm{~V} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IN}} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CC}} \end{aligned}$ |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{CL}}$ | Clock Leakage |  |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{A}$ |  |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{DL}}{ }^{\text {[2] }}$ | Data Bus Leakage in Input Mode |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & -100 \\ & -2.0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mu \mathrm{A} \\ \mathrm{~mA} \end{gathered}$ |  |
| $I_{\text {FL }}$ | Address and Data Bus Leakage During HOLD |  |  | $\begin{array}{r} +10 \\ -100 \end{array}$ | $\mu \mathrm{A}$ | $\begin{aligned} & V_{\text {ADDR/DATA }}=V_{C C} \\ & V_{\text {ADDR/DATA }}=V_{S S}+0.45 \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ |

CAPACITANCE ( $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{A}}=25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{DD}}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{BB}}=-5 \mathrm{~V}$ )

| Symbol | Parameter | Typ. | Max. | Unit | Test Condition |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| $\mathrm{C}_{\phi}$ | Clock Capacitance | 17 | 25 | pf | $\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{c}}=1 \mathrm{MHz}$ |
| $\mathrm{C}_{\text {IN }}$ | Input Capacitance | 6 | 10 | pf | Unmeasured Pins |
| $\mathrm{C}_{\text {OUT }}$ | Output Capacitance | 10 | 20 | pf | Returned to $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{SS}}$ |

## NOTES:

1. The RESET signal must be active for a minimum of 3 clock cycles.
2. $\Delta \mathrm{I}$ supply $/ \Delta T_{A}=-0.45 \% /{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.


Typical Supply Current vs. Temperature, ${ }^{\text {Normalized }}{ }^{[3]}$
A.C. CHARACTERISTICS (8080A) $\left(T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{DD}}=+12 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=+5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%$, $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{BB}}=-5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$; unless otherwise noted)


## A.C. TESTING LOAD CIRCUIT


$C_{L}=100 \mathrm{pF}$
$C_{L}$ INCLUDES JIG CAPACITANCE

## WAVEFORMS



NOTE:
Timing measurements are made at the following reference voltages: CLOCK "1" $=8.0 \mathrm{~V}$, $" 0 "=1.0 \mathrm{~V}$; INPUTS $" 1 "=3.3 \mathrm{~V}, " 0 "=0.8 \mathrm{~V}$; OUTPUTS $" 1 "=2.0 \mathrm{~V}, " 0 "=0.8 \mathrm{~V}$.

WAVEFORMS (Continued)


NOTES: (Parenthesis gives $-1,-2$ specifications, respectively)

1. Data input should be enabled with DBIN status. No bus conflict can then occur and data hold time is assured.
$t_{D H}=50 \mathrm{~ns}$ or $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{DF}}$, whichever is less.
2. $t_{C Y}=t_{D 3}+t_{r \phi 2}+t_{\phi 2}+t_{f \phi 2}+t_{D 2}+t_{r \phi 1} \geqslant 480 \mathrm{~ns}(-1: 320$
$\mathrm{ns},-2: 380 \mathrm{~ns}$ ).

TYPICAL $\triangle$ OUTPUT DELAY VS. $\triangle$ CAPACITANCE

3. The following are relevant when interfacing the 8080A to devices having $\mathrm{V}_{1 \mathrm{H}}=3.3 \mathrm{~V}$ :
a) Maximum output rise time from .8 V to $3.3 \mathrm{~V}=100 \mathrm{~ns} @ \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}$
= SPEC.
b) Output delay when measured to $3.0 \mathrm{~V}=\mathrm{SPEC}+60 \mathrm{~ns} @ \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}$ $=$ SPEC.
c) If $C_{L}=$ SPEC, add $.6 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$ if $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}>\mathrm{C}_{\text {SPEC }}$, subtract $.3 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$ (from modified delay) if $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}<\mathrm{C}_{\text {SPEC }}$.
4. $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AW}}=2 \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CY}}-\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{D} 3}-\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{r} \phi 2}-140 \mathrm{~ns}(-1: 110 \mathrm{~ns},-2: 130 \mathrm{~ns})$.
5. $t_{D W}=t_{C Y}-t_{D 3}-t_{r_{\phi 2}}-170 \mathrm{~ns}(-1: 150 \mathrm{~ns},-2: 170 \mathrm{~ns})$.
6. If not HLDA, $t_{W D}=t_{W A}=t_{D 3}+t_{r \phi 2}+10 \mathrm{~ns}$. If HLDA, $t_{W D}$ $=t_{W A}=t_{W F}$.
7. $\left.t_{H F}=t_{D 3}+t_{\mathrm{r} \phi 2}-50 \mathrm{~ns}\right)$.
8. $t_{W F}=t_{D 3}+t_{r \phi 2}-10 \mathrm{~ns}$.
9. Data in must be stable for this period during DBIN $\mathrm{T}_{3}$. Both tDS1 and $t_{D S 2}$ must be satisfied.
10. Ready signal must be stable for this period during $T_{2}$ or $T_{W}$. (Must be externally synchronized.)
11. Hold signal must be stable for this period during $T_{2}$ or $T_{W}$ when entering hold mode, and during $T_{3}, T_{4}, T_{5}$ and $T_{W H}$ when in hold mode. (External synchronization is not required.)
12. Interrupt signal must be stable during this period of the last clock cycie of any instruction in order to be recognized on the following instruction. (External synchronization is not required.)
13. This timing diagram shows timing relationships only; it does not represent any specific machine cycle.

## INSTRUCTION SET

The accumulator group instructions include arithmetic and logical operators with direct, indirect, and immediate addressing modes.
Move, load, and store instruction groups provide the ability to move either 8 or 16 bits of data between memory, the six working registers and the accumulator using direct, indirect, and immediate addressing modes.
The ability to branch to different portions of the program is provided with jump, jump conditional, and computed jumps. Also the ability to call to and return from subroutines is provided both conditionally and unconditionally. The RESTART (or single byte call instruction) is useful for interrupt vector operation.

Double precision operators such as stack manipulation and double add instructions extend both the arithmetic and interrupt handling capability of the 8080A. The ability to
increment and decrement memory, the six general registers and the accumulator is provided as well as extended increment and decrement instructions to operate on the register pairs and stack pointer. Further capability is provided by the ability to rotate the accumulator left or right through or around the carry bit.

Input and output may be accomplished using memory addresses as I/O ports or the directly addressed I/O provided for in the 8080A instruction set.

The following special instruction group completes the 8080A instruction set: the NOP instruction, HALT to stop processor execution and the DAA instructions provide decimal arithmetic capability. STC allows the carry flag to be directly set, and the CMC instruction allows it to be complemented. CMA complements the contents of the accumulator and XCHG exchanges the contents of two 16 -bit register pairs directly.

## Data and Instruction Formats

Data in the 8080A is stored in the form of 8 -bit binary integers. All data transfers to the system data bus will be in the same format.

$$
\begin{array}{|llllllll|}
\hline D_{7} & D_{6} & D_{5} & D_{4} & D_{3} & D_{2} & D_{1} & D_{0} \\
\text { DATA WORD }
\end{array}
$$

The program instructions may be one, two, or three bytes in length. Multiple byte instructions must be stored in successive words in program memory. The instruction formats then depend on the particular operation executed.
One Byte Instructions

$$
\begin{array}{|lllllllll}
\mathrm{D}_{7} & D_{6} & D_{5} & D_{4} & D_{3} & D_{2} & D_{1} & D_{0} & \text { OP CODE }
\end{array}
$$

Two Byte Instructions

| $\mathrm{D}_{7}$ | $D_{6}$ | $D_{5}$ | $D_{4}$ | $D_{3}$ | $D_{2}$ | $D_{1}$ | $D_{0}$ | OP CODE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{D}_{7}$ | $D_{6}$ | $D_{5}$ | $D_{4}$ | $D_{3}$ | $D_{2}$ | $D_{1}$ | $D_{0}$ | OPERAND |

Three Byte Instructions

| $D_{7}$ | $D_{6}$ | $D_{5}$ | $D_{4}$ | $D_{3}$ | $D_{2}$ | $D_{1}$ | $D_{0}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  OP CODE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

For the 8080A a logic " 1 " is defined as a high level and a logic " 0 " is defined as a low level.

Table 2. Instruction Set Summary

| Mnemonic |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Operations Description | Clock Cycles [2] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MOVE, LOAD | D | ND | STO | ORE |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| MOVr1,r2 | 0 | 1 | D | D | D | S | S | S | Move register to register | 5 |
| MOV M,r. | 0 |  |  |  |  |  | S | S | Move register to memory | 7 |
| MOV r,M | 0 |  | D | D | D | 1 | 1 | 0 | Move memory to register | 7 |
| MVI r | 0 | 0 | D | D | D | 1 | 1 | 0 | Move immediate register | 7 |
| MVI M | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | Move immediate memory | 10 |
| LXIB | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Load immediate register Pair B \& C | 10 |
| LXI D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Load immediate register Pair D \& E | 10 |
| LXIH | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Load immediate register Pair H\& L | 10 |
| STAX B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Store A indirect | 7 |
| STAX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Store A indirect | 7 |
| LDAX B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Load A indirect | 7 |
| LDAX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Load A indirect | 7 |
| STA | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Store A direct | 13 |
| LDA | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Load A direct | 13 |
| SHLD | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Store H \& L direct | 16 |
| LHLD | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Load H\&L direct | 16 |
| XCHG | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Exchange D \& E, H\&L Registers | 4 |
| STACK OPS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| PUSH B | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Push register Pair B \& C on stack | 11 |
| PUSH D | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Push register Pair D \& E on stack | 11 |
| PUSH H | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Push register Pair H \& L on stack | 11 |
| PUSH | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Push A and Flags | 11 |
| PSW |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | on stack |  |
| POP B | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Pop register Pair B \& C off stack | 10 |
| POP D | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Pop register Pair D \& E off stack | 10 |
| POP H | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Pop register Pair H \& L off stack | 10 |
| POP PSW | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Pop A and Fiags off stack | 10 |
| XTHL | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Exchange top of stack, H \& L | 18 |
| SPHL | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | H\& L to stack pointer | 5 |
| LXISP | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Load immediate stack pointer | 10 |
| INX SP | 0 | . 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment stack pointer | 5 |
| DCX SP | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement stack pointer | 5 |
| JUMP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| JMP | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Jump unconditional | 10 |
| JC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on carry | 10 |
| JNC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on no carry | 10 |
| JZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on zero | 10 |
| JNZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on no zero | 10 |
| JP | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on positive | 10 |
| JM | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on minus | 10 |
| JPE | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | Jump on parity even | 10 |


| Mnemonic | $D_{7}$ |  | $\mathrm{D}_{5}$ | iction | $\begin{gathered} n \mathrm{Co} \\ \mathrm{D}_{3} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ode [ } \\ & \mathrm{D}_{2} \mathrm{D} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & {[1]} \\ & \mathbf{D}_{1} \quad \mathbf{D}_{0} \end{aligned}$ | $\|c\|$ <br> Operations <br> Description <br> Jump on parity odd <br> H \& L to program <br> counter | Clock <br> Cycles <br> $[2]$ <br> 10 <br> 5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| JPO | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  |  |
| PCHL | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  |  |
| CALL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| CALL | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Call unconditional | 17 |
| CC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on carry | 11/17 |
| CNC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on no carry | 11/17 |
| CZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on zero | 11/17 |
| CNZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on no zero | 11/17 |
| CP | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on positive | 11/17 |
| CM | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on minus | 11/17 |
| CPE | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0. | Call on parity even | 11/17 |
| CPO | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on parity odd | 11/17 |
| RETURN |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| RET | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Return | 10 |
| RC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on carry | 5/11 |
| RNC | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on no carry | 5/11 |
| RZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on zero | 5/11 |
| RNZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on no zero | 5/11 |
| RP | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on positive | 5/11 |
| RM | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on minus | 5/11 |
| RPE | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on parity even | 5/11 |
| RPO | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on parity odd | 5/11 |
| RESTART RST | 1 | 1 | A | A | A | 1 | 1 | 1 | Restart | 11 |
| INCREMENT AND DECREMENT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| INR r | 0 | 0 | D | D | D | 1 | 0 | 0 | Increment register | 5 |
| DCR r | 0 | 0 | D | D | D | 1 | 0 | 1 | Decrement register | 5 |
| INR M | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | Increment memory | 10 |
| DCR M | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | Decrement memory | 10 |
| INX B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment B \& C registers | 5 |
| INX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment D \& E registers | 5 |
| INX H | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment H\& L registers | 5 |
| DCX B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement B \& C | 5 |
| DCX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement D \& E | 5 |
| DCXH | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement H\& L | 5 |
| ADD |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ADD r | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | S | S | S | Add register to $\mathbf{A}$ | 4 |
| ADC r | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | S | S | S | Add register to $\mathbf{A}$ with carry | 4 |
| ADD M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add memory to A | 7 |
| ADC M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add memory to $\mathbf{A}$ with carry | 7 |
| ADI | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add immediate to A | 7 |
| ACl | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add immediate to $A$ with carry | 7 |
| DAD B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add B \& C to H \& L | 10 |
| DAD D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add D \& E to H \& L | 10 |
| DAD H | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add H\&L to H\&L | 10 |
| DAD SP | 0 |  | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |  | 1 | Add stack pointer to $\mathrm{H} \& \mathrm{~L}$ | 10 |

## Summary of Processor Instructions (Cont.)




## NOTES:

1. $D D D$ or SSS: $B=000, C=001, D=010, E=011, H=100, L=101$, Memory $=110, A=111$.
2. Two possible cycle times $(6 / 12)$ indicate instruction cycles dependent on condition flags.
*All mnemonics copyright © Intel Corporation 1977

# 8085AH/8085AH-2/8085AH-1 8-BIT HMOS MICROPROCESSORS 

- Single +5V Power Supply with 10\% Voltage Margins
- 3 MHz, 5 MHz and 6 MHz Selections Available
- 20\% Lower Power Consumption than 8085A for 3 MHz and 5 MHz
- $1.3 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ Instruction Cycle (8085AH); 0.8 $\mu \mathrm{s}$ (8085AH-2); $0.67 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ (8085AH-1)
- 100\% Compatible with 8085A
- 100\% Software Compatible with 8080A
- On-Chip Clock Generator (with External Crystal, LC or RC Network)
- On-Chip System Controller; Advanced Cycle Status Information Available for Large System Control
- Four Vectored Interrupt Inputs (One is Non-Maskable) Plus an 8080A-Compatible Interrupt
- Serial In/Serial Out Port
- Decimal, Binary and Double Precision Arithmetic
- Direct Addressing Capability to 64K Bytes of Memory
- Available in EXPRESS
- Standard Temperature Range
- Extended Temperature Range

The Intel ${ }^{\circledR} 8085 \mathrm{AH}$ is a complete 8 bit parallel Central Processing Unit (CPU) implemented in N -channel, depletion load, silicon gate technology (HMOS). Its instruction set is $100 \%$ software compatible with the 8080A microprocessor, and it is designed to improve the present 8080A's performance by higher system speed. Its high level of system integration allows a minimum system of three IC's [8085AH (CPU), 8156H (RAM/IO) and 8355/8755A (ROM/PROM/IO)] while maintaining total system expandability. The 8085AH-2 and 8085AH-1 are faster versions of the 8085 AH .

The 8085AH incorporates all of the features that the 8224 (clock generator) and 8228 (system controller) provided for the 8080A, thereby offering a high level of system integration.
The 8085AH uses a multiplexed data bus. The address is split between the 8 bit address bus and the 8 bit data bus. The on-chip address latches of $8155 \mathrm{H} / 8156 \mathrm{H} / 8355 / 8755 \mathrm{~A}$ memory products allow a direct interface with the 8085AH.


Figure 1. 8085AH CPU Functional Block Diagram

Table 1. Pin Description

| Symbol | Type | Name and Function |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ | 0 | Address Bus: The most significant 8 bits of the memory address or the 8 bits of the I/O address, 3 -stated during Hold and Halt modes and during RESET. |
| $A D_{0-7}$ | I/O | Multiplexed Address/Data Bus: Lower 8 bits of the memory address (or $1 / 0$ address) appear on the bus during the first clock cycle (T state) of a machine cycle. It then becomes the data bus during the second and third clock cycles. |
| ALE | 0 | Address Latch Enable: It occurs during the first clock state of a machine cycle and enables the address to get latched into the on-chip latch of peripherals. The falling edge of ALE is set to guarantee setup and hold times for the address information. The falling edge of ALE can also be used to strobe the status information. ALE is never 3-stated. |
| $\mathrm{S}_{0}, \mathrm{~S}_{1}$, and $1 \mathrm{O} / \overline{\mathrm{M}}$ | 0 | Machine Cycle Status: <br> $S_{1}$ can be used as an advanced $R / \bar{W}$ status. $10 / \bar{M}, S_{0}$ and $S_{1}$ become valid at the beginning of a machine cycle and remain stable throughout the cycle. The falling edge of ALE may be used to latch the state of these lines. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ | 0 | Read Control: A low level on $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ indicates the selected memory or //O device is to be read and that the Data Bus is available for the data transfer, 3-stated during Hold and Halt modes and during RESET. |
| $\overline{W R}$ | 0 | Write Control: A low level on $\overline{W R}$ indicates the data on the Data Bus is to be written into the selected memory or I/O location. Data is set up at the trailing edge of WR. 3stated during Hold and Halt modes and during RESET. |


| Symbol | Type | Name and Function |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| READY | 1 | Ready: If READY is high during a read or write cycle, it indicates that the memory or peripheral is ready to send or receive data. If READY is low, the cpu will wait an integral number of clock cycles for READY to go high before completing the read or write cycle. READY must conform to specified setup and hold times. |
| HOLD | 1 | Hold: Indicates that another master is requesting the use of the address and data buses. The cpu, upon receiving the hold request, will relinquish the use of the bus as soon as the completion of the current bus transfer. Internal processing can continue. The processor can regain the bus only after the HOLD is removed. When the HOLD is acknowledged, the Address, Data $\overline{R D}, \overline{W R}$, and $I O / \bar{M}$ lines are 3-stated. |
| HLDA | 0 | Hold Acknowledge: Indicates that the cpu has received the HOLD request and that it will relinquish the bus in the next clock cycle. HLDA goes low after the Hold request is removed. The cpu takes the bus one half clock cycle after HLDA goes low. |
| INTR | 1 | Interrupt Request: Is used as a general purpose interrupt. It is sampled only during the next to the last clock cycle of an instruction and during Hold and Halt states. If it is active, the Program Counter (PC) will be inhibited from incrementing and an INTA will be issued. During this cycle a RESTART or CALL instruction can be inserted to jump to the interrupt service routine. The INTR is enabled and disabled by software. It is disabled by Reset and immediately after an interrupt is accepted. |
| $\overline{\text { INTA }}$ | 0 | Interrupt Acknowledge: is used instead of (and has the same timing as) $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ during the Instruction cycle after an INTR is accepted. It can be used to activate an 8259A Interrupt chip or some other interrupt port. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { RST } 5.5 \\ & \text { RST } 6.5 \\ & \text { RST } 7.5 \end{aligned}$ | 1 | Restart Interrupts: These three inputs have the same timing as INTR except they cause an internal RESTART to be automatically inserted. <br> The priority of these interrupts is ordered as shown in Table 2. These interrupts have a higher priority than INTR. In addition, they may be individually masked out using the SIM instruction. |

Table 1. Pin Description (Continued)

| Symbol | Type | Name and Function |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TRAP | 1 | Trap: Trap interrupt is a nonmaskable RESTART interrupt. It is recognized at the same time as INTR or RST 5.5-7.5. It is unaffected by any mask or Interrupt Enable. It has the highest priority of any interrupt. (See Table 2.) |
| RESET IN | 1 | Reset In: Sets the Program Counter to zero and resets the Interrupt Enable and HLDA flip-flops. The data and address buses and the control lines are 3 -stated during RESET and because of the asynchronous nature of RESET, the processor's internal registers and flags may be altered by RESET with unpredictable results. $\overline{R E S E T} \overline{T N}$ is a Schmitt-triggered input, allowing connection to an R-C network for power-on RESET delay (see Figure 3). Upon power-up, $\overline{\text { RESET IN must }}$ remain low for at least 10 ms after minimum $V_{C C}$ has been reached. For proper reset operation after the power-up duration, RESET IN should be kept low a minimum of three clock periods. The CPU is held in the reset condition as long as RESET IN is applied. |


| Symbol | Type | Name and Function |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RESET OUT | 0 | Reset Out: Reset Out indicates cpu is being reset. Can be used as a system reset. The signal is synchronized to the processor clock and lasts an integral number of clock periods. |
| $x_{1}, x_{2}$ | I | $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ : Are connected to a crystal, LC, or RC network to drive the internal clock generator. $X_{1}$ can also be an external clock input from a logic gate. The input frequency is divided by 2 to give the processor's internal operating frequency. |
| CLK | 0 | Clock: Clock output for use as a system clock. The period of CLK is twice the $X_{1}, X_{2}$ input period. |
| SID | 1 | Serial Input Data Line: The data on this line is loaded into accumulator bit 7 whenever a RIM instruction is executed. |
| SOD | 0 | Serial Output Data Line: The output SOD is set or reset as specified by the SIM instruction. |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ |  | Power: +5 volt supply. |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\text {SS }}$ |  | Ground: Reference. |

Table 2. Interrupt Priority, Restart Address, and Sensitivity

| Name | Priority | Address Branched To (1) <br> When Interrupt Occurs | Type Trigger |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| TRAP | $\mathbf{1}$ | 24 H | Rising edge AND high level until sampled. |
| RST 7.5 | 2 | 3 CH | Rising edge (latched). |
| RST 6.5 | 3 | 34 H | High level until sampled. |
| RST 5.5 | 4 | 2 CH | High level until sampled. |
| INTR | 5 | See Note (2). | High level until sampled. |

## NOTES:

1. The processor pushes the PC on the stack before branching to the indicated address.
2. The address branched to depends on the instruction provided to the cpu when the interrupt is acknowledged.


Figure 3. Power-On Reset Circuit

## FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION

The 8085AH is a complete 8 -bit parallel central processor. It is designed with N -channel, depletion load, silicon gate technology (HMOS), and requires a single +5 volt supply. Its basic clock speed is 3 MHz ( 8085 AH ), 5 MHz ( $8085 \mathrm{AH}-2$ ), or 6 MHz (8085AH-1), thus improving on the present 8080A's performance with higher system speed. Also it is designed to fit into a minimum system of three IC's: The CPU (8085AH), a RAM/IO (8156H), and a ROM or EPROM/IO chip (8355 or 8755A).

The 8085AH has twelve addressable 8 -bit registers. Four of them can function only as two 16 -bit register pairs. Six others can be used interchangeably as 8 -bit registers or as 16 -bit register pairs. The 8085AH register set is as follows:

| Mnemonic | Register | Contents |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ACC or A | Accumulator | 8 bits |
| PC | Program Counter | 16 -bit address |
| BC,DE,HL | General-Purpose <br> Registers; data | 8 bits $\times 6$ or |
|  | 16 bits $\times 3$ |  |
| pointer (HL) |  |  |
| SP | Stack Pointer | 16 -bit address |
| Flags or F | Flag Register | 5 flags (8-bit space) |

The 8085AH uses a multiplexed Data Bus. The address is split between the higher 8 -bit Address Bus and the lower 8 -bit Address/Data Bus. During the first T state (clock cycle) of a machine cycle the low order address is sent out on the Address/Data bus. These lower 8 bits may be latched externally by the Address Latch Enable signal (ALE). During the rest of the machine cycle the data bus is used for memory or I/O data.

The 8085AH provides $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}, \mathrm{S}_{0}, \mathrm{~S}_{1}$, and $10 / \bar{M}$ signals for bus control. An Interrupt Acknowledge signal ( $\overline{(\mathbb{N T A})}$ is also provided. HOLD and all Interrupts are synchronized with the processor's internal clock. The 8085AH also provides Serial Input Data (SID) and Serial Output Data (SOD) lines for simple serial interface.

In addition to these features, the 8085AH has three maskable, vector interrupt pins, one nonmaskable TRAP interrupt, and a bus vectored interrupt, INTR.

## INTERRUPT AND SERIAL I/O

The 8085AH has 5 interrupt inputs: INTR, RST 5.5, RST 6.5, RST 7.5, and TRAP. INTR is identical in function to the 8080A INT. Each of the three RESTART inputs, $5.5,6.5$, and 7.5 , has a programmable mask. TRAP is also a RESTART interrupt but it is nonmaskable.

The three maskable interrupts cause the internal execution of RESTART (saving the program counter in the stack and branching to the RESTART address) if the interrupts are enabled and if the interrupt mask is not set. The nonmaskable TRAP causes the internal execution of a RESTART vector independent of the state of the interrupt enable or masks. (See Table 2.)

There are two different types of inputs in the restart interrupts. RST 5.5 and RST 6.5 are high levelsensitive like INTR (and INT on the 8080) and are recognized with the same timing as INTR. RST 7.5 is rising edge-sensitive.

For RST 7.5, only a pulse is required to set an internal flip-flop which generates the internal interrupt request (a normally high level signal with a low going pulse is recommended for highest system, noise immunity). The RST 7.5 request flip-flop remains set until the request is serviced. Then it is reset automatically. This flip-flop may also be reset by using the SIM instruction or by issuing a RESET IN to the 8085AH. The RST 7.5 internal flipflop will be set by a pulse on the RST 7.5 pin even when the RST 7.5 interrupt is masked out.

The status of the three RST interrupt masks can only be affected by the SIM instruction and RESET IN. (See SIM, Chapter 5 of the MCS-80/85 User's Manual.)

The interrupts are arranged in a fixed priority that determines which interrupt is to be recognized if more than one is pending as follows: TRAPhighest priority, RST 7.5, RST 6.5, RST 5.5, INTRlowest priority. This priority scheme does not take into account the priority of a routine that was started by a higher priority interrupt. RST 5.5 can interrupt an RST 7.5 routine if the interrupts are re-enabled before the end of the RST 7.5 routine.

The TRAP interrupt is useful for catastrophic events such as power failure or bus error. The TRAP input is recognized just as any other interrupt but has the highest priority. It is not affected by any flag or mask. The TRAP input is both edge and level sensitive. The TRAP input must go high and remain high until it is acknowledged. It will not be recognized again until it goes low, then high again. This avoids any false triggering due to noise or logic glitches. Figure 4 illustrates the TRAP interrupt request circuitry within the 8085AH. Note that the servicing of any interrupt (TRAP, RST 7.5, RST 6.5, RST 5.5, INTR) disables all future interrupts (except TRAPs) until an El instruction is executed.


Figure 4. TRAP and RESET IN Circuit

The TRAP interrupt is special in that it disables interrupts, but preserves the previous interrupt enable status. Performing the first RIM instruction following a TRAP interrupt allows you to determine whether interrupts were enabled or disabled prior to the TRAP. All subsequent RIM instructions provide current interrupt enable status. Performing a RIM instruction following INTR, or RST 5.5-7.5 will provide current Interrupt Enable status, revealing that Interrupts are disabled. See the description of the RIM instruction in the MCS-80/85 Family User's Manual.

The serial I/O system is also controlled by the RIM and SIM instructions. SID is read by RIM, and SIM sets the SOD data.

## DRIVING THE $X_{1}$ AND $X_{2}$ INPUTS

You may drive the clock inputs of the 8085AH, 8085AH-2, or 8085AH-1 with a crystal, an LC tuned circuit, an RC network, or an external clock source. The crystal frequency must be at least 1 MHz , and must be twice the desired internal clock frequency; hence, the 8085AH is operated with a 6 MHz crystal (for 3 MHz clock), the 8085AH-2 operated with a 10 MHz crystal (for 5 MHz clock), and the 8085AH-1 can be operated with a 12 MHz crystal (for 6 MHz clock). If a crystal is used, it must have the following characteristics:

Parallel resonance at twice the clock frequency desired
$C_{L}$ (load capacitance) $\leqslant 30 \mathrm{pF}$
$\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{S}}$ (shunt capacitance) $\leqslant 7 \mathrm{pF}$
$R_{\text {S }}$ (equivalent shunt resistance) $\leqslant 75$ Ohms
Drive level: 10 mW
Frequency tolerance: $\pm .005 \%$ (suggested)
Note the use of the 20 pF capacitor between $\mathrm{X}_{2}$ and ground. This capacitor is required with crystal frequencies below 4 MHz to assure oscillator startup at the correct frequency. A parallel-resonant LC circuit may be used as the frequency-determining network for the 8085 AH , providing that its frequency tolerance of approximately $\pm 10 \%$ is acceptable. The components are chosen from the formula:

$$
f=\frac{1}{2 \pi \sqrt{L\left(C_{e x t}+C_{i n t}\right)}}
$$

To minimize variations in frequency, it is recommended that you choose a value for $\mathrm{C}_{\text {ext }}$ that is at least twice that of $C_{i n t}$, or 30 pF . The use of an LC circuit is not recommended for frequencies higher than approximately 5 MHz .

An RC circuit may be used as the frequencydetermining network for the 8085AH if maintaining a precise clock frequency is of no importance. Variations in the on-chip timing generation can cause a wide variation in frequency when using the RC mode. Its advantage is its low component cost. The driving frequency generated by the circuit shown is approximately 3 MHz . It is not recommended that frequencies greatly higher or lower than this be attempted.

Figure 5 shows the recommended clock driver circuits. Note in D and E that pullup resistors are required to assure that the high level voltage of the input is at least 4 V and maximum low level voltage of 0.8 V .

For driving frequencies up to and including 6 MHz you may supply the driving signal to $X_{1}$ and leave $X_{2}$ open-circuited (Figure 5D). If the driving frequency is from 6 MHz to 12 MHz , stability of the clock generator will be improved by driving both $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ with a push-pull source (Figure 5E). To prevent self-oscillation of the 8085AH, be sure that $X_{2}$ is not coupled back to $X_{1}$ through the driving circuit.

c. RC Circuit Clock Driver

d. 1-6 MHz Input Frequency External Clock Driver Circuit

e. 1-12 MHz Input Frequency External Clock Driver Circuit

Figure 5. Clock Driver Circuits

## GENERATING AN 8085AH WAIT STATE

If your system requirements are such that slow memories or peripheral devices are being used, the circuit shown in Figure 6 may be used to insert one WAIT state in each 8085AH machine cycle.

The D flip-flops should be chosen so that

- CLK is rising edge-triggered
- CLEAR is low-level active.

- ALE AND CLK (OUT) SHOULD BE BUFFERED IF CLK INPUT OF LATCH EXCEEDS B085AH IOL OR IOH.

Figure 6. Generation of a Wait State for 8085AH CPU

As in the 8080, the READY line is used to extend the read and write pulse lengths so that the 8085AH can be used with slow memory. HOLD causes the CPU to relinquish the bus when it is through with it by floating the Address and Data Buses.

## SYSTEM INTERFACE

The 8085AH family includes memory components, which are directly compatible to the 8085AH CPU. For example, a system consisting of the three chips, $8085 \mathrm{AH}, 8156 \mathrm{H}$, and 8355 will have the following features:

- 2K Bytes ROM
- 256 Bytes RAM
- 1 Timer/Counter
- 4 8-bit I/O Ports
- 1 6-bit I/O Port
- 4 Interrupt Levels
- Serial In/Serial Out Ports

This minimum system, using the standard I/O technique is as shown in Figure 7.

In addition to standard I/O, the memory mapped I/O offers an efficient I/O addressing technique. With this technique, an area of memory address space is assigned for $1 / O$ address, thereby, using the memory address for I/O manipulation. Figure 8 shows the system configuration of Memory Mapped I/O using 8085AH.

The 8085AH CPU can also interface with the standard memory that does not have the multiplexed address/data bus. It will require a simple 8212 (8-bit latch) as shown in Figure 9.


Figure 7. 8085AH Minimum System (Standard I/O Technique)


Figure 8. MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {® }}$ Minimum System (Memory Mapped I/O)


Figure 9. MCS-85 ${ }^{\circledR}$ System (Using Standard Memories)

## BASIC SYSTEM TIMING

The 8085AH has a multiplexed Data Bus. ALE is used as a strobe to sample the lower 8 -bits of address on the Data Bus. Figure 10 shows an instruction fetch, memory read and I/O write cycle (as would occur during processing of the OUT instruction). Note that during the I/O write and read cycle that the I/O port address is copied on both the upper and lower half of the address.

There are seven possible types of machine cycles. Which of these seven takes place is defined by the status of the three status lines ( $10 / \bar{M}, \mathrm{~S}_{1}, \mathrm{~S}_{0}$ ) and the three control signals ( $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$, and $\overline{\mathrm{NTA}}$ ). (See Table 3.) The status lines can be used as advanced controls (for device selection, for example), since they become active at the $T_{1}$ state, at the outset of each machine cycle. Control lines $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ become active later, at the time when the transfer of data is to take place, so are used as command lines.

A machine cycle normally consists of three $T$ states, with the exception of OPCODE FETCH, which normally has either four or six T states (unless WAIT or HOLD states are forced by the receipt of READY or HOLD inputs). Any T state must be one of ten possible states, shown in Table 4.

Table 3. 8085AH Machine Cycle Chart

| MACHINE CYCLE |  | STATUS |  |  | CONTROL |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 10/M | S1 | S0 | $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ | $\overline{W R}$ | INTE |
| OPCODE FETCH | (OF) | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| MEMORY READ | (MR) | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| MEMORY WRITE | (MW) | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| I/O READ | (IOR) | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| I/O WRITE | (IOW) | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| ACKNOWLEDGE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| OF INTR | (INA) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| BUS IDLE | (BI): DAD | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | ACK. OF |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | RST, TRAP | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
|  | HALT | TS | 0 | 0 | TS | TS | 1 |

Table 4. 8085AH Machine State Chart

| Machine State | Status \& Buses |  |  |  | Control |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | s1, 50 | 10/M | $A_{8}-A_{15}$ | $A D_{0}-A D_{7}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ | $\overline{\text { INTA }}$ | ALE |
| $\mathrm{T}_{1}$ | $x$ | $x$ | X | $x$ | 1 | 1 | ${ }^{\text {i }}$ |
| $\mathrm{T}_{2}$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | 0 |
| TWAIT | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | $x$ | X | x | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{3}$ | X | $x$ | $x$ | X | $x$ | x | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{4}$ | 1 | 0 - | $x$ | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{5}$ | 1 | $0{ }^{+}$ | $x$ | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $\mathrm{T}_{6}$ | 1 | 0 + | $x$ | TS | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Treset | $x$ | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |
| $T_{\text {HALT }}$ | 0 | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |
| THOLD | $x$ | TS | TS | TS | TS | 1 | 0 |

*ALE not generated during 2 nd and 3 rd machine cycles of DAD instruction.
$+10 / M=1$ during $T_{4}-T_{6}$ of INA machine cycle.


Figure 10. 8085AH Basic System Timing

## ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS*

Ambient Temperature Under Bias
..... $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
Storage Temperature ................. $-65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+150^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
Voltage on Any Pin
With Respect to Ground ................ - 0.5 V to +7 V
Power Dissipation .................................. 1.5 Watt
*NOTICE: Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. This is a stress rating only and functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicated in the operational sections of this specification is not implied. Exposure to absolute maximum rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.

## D.C. CHARACTERISTICS

$8085 \mathrm{AH}, 8085 \mathrm{AH}-2$ : ( $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{A}}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 10 \%$, $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$; unless otherwise specified)*
8085AH-1: $\left(T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$; unless otherwise specified)

| Symbol | Parameter | Min. | Max. | Units | Test Conditions |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $V_{1 L}$ | Input Low Voltage | -0.5 | +0.8 | V |  |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{IH}}$ | Input High Voltage | 2.0 | $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}+0.5$ | V |  |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{OL}}$ | Output Low Voltage |  | 0.45 | V | $\mathrm{l} \mathrm{OL}=2 \mathrm{~mA}$ |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{OH}}$ | Output High Voltage | 2.4 |  | V | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{OH}}=-400 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ |
|  |  |  | 135 | mA | 8085AH, 8085AH-2 |
| ICC | Power Supply Current |  | 200 | mA | 8085AH-1 (Preliminary) |
| $I_{1 L}$ | Input Leakage |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{A}$ | $0 \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\text {IN }} \leqslant \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ |
| ILO | Output Leakage |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{A}$ | $0.45 \mathrm{~V} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\text {OUT }} \leqslant \mathrm{V}_{\text {CC }}$ |
| $V_{\text {ILR }}$ | Input Low Level, RESET | -0.5 | +0.8 | V |  |
| $V_{\text {IHR }}$ | Input High Level, RESET | 2.4 | $\mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{CC}}+0.5$ | V |  |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{HY}}$ | Hysteresis, RESET | 0.25 |  | V |  |

## A.C. CHARACTERISTICS

8085AH, 8085AH-2: ( $T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $\left.70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 10 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{S S}=\mathrm{OV}\right)^{*}$
8085AH-1: $\left(T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ to $\left.70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=5 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}\right)$

| Symbol | Parameter | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{8 0 8 5 A H}^{[2]} \\ \text { (Final) } \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 8085AH-2 }{ }^{[2]} \\ & \text { (Final) } \end{aligned}$ |  | 8085AH-1 <br> (Preliminary) |  | Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. |  |
| ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{CYC}$ | CLK Cycle Period | 320 | 2000 | 200 | 2000 | 167 | 2000 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{1}$ | CLK Low Time (Standard CLK Loading) | 80 |  | 40 |  | 20 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{2}$ | CLK High Time (Standard CLK Loading) | 120 |  | 70 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| $t_{r}, t_{f}$ | CLK Rise and Fall Time |  | 30 |  | 30 |  | 30 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }}$ KKR | $\mathrm{X}_{1}$ Rising to CLK Rising | 25 | 120 | 25 | 100 | 20 | 100 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {tXKF }}$ | $X_{1}$ Rising to CLK Falling | 30 | 150 | 30 | 110 | 25 | 110 | ns |
| ${ }^{t} A C$ | $\mathrm{A}_{8-15}$ Valid to Leading Edge of Control ${ }^{[1]}$ | 270 |  | 115 |  | 70 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }}$ ACL | $A_{0-7}$ Valid to Leading Edge of Control | 240 |  | 115 |  | 60 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }}$ AD | $\mathrm{A}_{0-15}$ Valid to Valid Data In |  | 575 |  | 350 |  | 225 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {taFR }}$ | Address Float After Leading Edge of $\overline{R E A D}$ (INTA) |  | 0 |  | 0 |  | 0 | ns |
| $t_{\text {AL }}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{8-15}$ Valid Before Trailing Edge of ALE ${ }^{[1]}$ | 115 |  | 50 |  | 25 |  | ns |

*Note: For Extended Temperature EXPRESS use M8085AH Electricals Parameters.

## A.C. CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)

| Symbol | Parameter | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 8085AH }{ }^{[2]} \\ & \text { (Final) } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 8085AH-2 } 2^{[2]} \\ & \text { (Final) } \end{aligned}$ |  | 8085AH-1(Preliminary) |  | Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. |  |
| $t_{\text {ALL }}$ | $A_{0-7}$ Valid Before Trailing Edge of ALE | 90 |  | 50 |  | 25 |  | ns |
| $t_{\text {ARY }}$ | READY Valid from Address Valid |  | 220 |  | 100 |  | 40 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t CA }}$ | Address (A8-15) Valid After Control | 120 |  | 60 |  | 30 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{CC}$ | Width of Control Low ( $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}, \overline{\mathrm{NTA}}$ ) Edge of ALE | 400 |  | 230 |  | 150 | . | ns |
| ${ }^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{CL}$ | Trailing Edge of Control to Leading Edge of ALE | 50 |  | 25 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| tow | Data Valid to Trailing Edge of WRITE | 420 |  | 230 |  | 140 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HABE }}$ | HLDA to Bus Enable |  | 210 |  | 150 |  | 150 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HABF }}$ | Bus Float After HLDA |  | 210 |  | 150 |  | 150 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {thaCK }}$ | HLDA Valid to Trailing Edge of CLK | 110 |  | 40 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HDH }}$ | HOLD Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HDS }}$ | HOLD Setup Time to Trailing Edge of CLK | 170 |  | 120 |  | 120 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {INH }}$ | INTR Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| tins | INTR, RST, and TRAP Setup Time to Falling Edge of CLK | 160 |  | 150 |  | 150 |  | ns |
| tLA | Address Hold Time After ALE | 100 |  | 50 |  | 20 |  | ns |
| tLC | Trailing Edge of ALE to Leading Edge of Control | 130 |  | 60 |  | 25 |  | ns |
| tick | ALE Low During CLK High | 100 |  | 50 |  | 15 |  | ns |
| tidr | ALE to Valid Data During Read |  | 460 |  | 270 |  | 175 | ns |
| t LDW | ALE to Valid Data During Write |  | 200 |  | 120 |  | 110 | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {tLL }}$ | ALE Width | 140 |  | 80 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| tLRY | ALE to READY Stable |  | 110 |  | 30 |  | 10 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RAE }}$ | Trailing Edge of $\overline{\text { READ }}$ to Re-Enabling of Address | 150 |  | 90 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | $\overline{\text { READ }}$ (or $\overline{\text { INTA }}$ ) to Valid Data |  | 300 |  | 150 |  | 75 | ns |
| $t_{\text {RV }}$ | Control Trailing Edge to Leading Edge of Next Control | 400 |  | 220 |  | 160 |  | ns |
| $t_{\text {RDH }}$ | Data Hold Time After READ INTA | 0 |  | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RYH }}$ | READY Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | 5 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RYS}}$ | READY Setup Time to Leading Edge of CLK | 110 |  | 100 |  | 100 |  | ns |
| two | Data Valid After Trailing Edge of $\overline{\text { WRITE }}$ | 100 |  | 60 |  | 30 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {twDL }}$ | LEADING Edge of WRITE to Data Valid |  | 40 |  | 20 |  | 30 | ns |

NOTES:

1. $A_{8}-A_{15}$ address Specs apply $I O / \bar{M}, S_{0}$, and $S_{1}$ except $A_{8}-A_{15}$ are undefined during $\mathrm{T}_{4}-\mathrm{T}_{6}$ of OF cycle whereas $\mathrm{IO} / \overline{\mathrm{M}}, \mathrm{S}_{0}$, and $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ are stable.
2. Test Conditions: $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CYC}}=320 \mathrm{~ns}(8085 \mathrm{AH}) / 200 \mathrm{~ns}(8085 \mathrm{AH}-2) ; /$ 167 ns ( $8085 \mathrm{AH}-1$ ); $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}=150 \mathrm{pF}$.

## A.C. TESTING INPUT, OUTPUT WAVEFORM


3. For all output timing where $C_{L} \neq 150 \mathrm{pF}$ use the following correction factors:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 25 \mathrm{pF} \leqslant \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}<150 \mathrm{pF}:-0.10 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF} \\
& 150 \mathrm{pF}<\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}} \leqslant 300 \mathrm{pF}:+0.30 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}
\end{aligned}
$$

4. Output timings are measured with purely capacitive load.
5. To calculate timing specifications at other values of $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{Crc}}$ use Table 5.
A.C. TESTING LOAD CIRCUIT


Table 5. Bus Timing Specification as a TCYC Dependent

| Symbol | 8085AH | 8085AH-2 | 8085AH-1 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{\text {t }}$ AL | (1/2) T - 45 | (1/2) T - 50 | (1/2) T - 58 | Minimum |
| $t_{\text {LA }}$ | (1/2) T - 60 | (1/2) T - 50 | (1/2) T-63 | Minimum |
| $t_{\text {LL }}$ | (1/2) T - 20 | (1/2) T-20 | $(1 / 2) T-33$ | Minimum |
| tLCK | (1/2) T - 60 | (1/2) T - 50 | (1/2) T - 68 | Minimum |
| $t_{L C}$ | (1/2) T - 30 | (1/2) T - 40 | (1/2) T-58 | Minimum |
| $t_{A D}$ | (5/2+N) T-225 | $(5 / 2+N) T-150$ | $(5 / 2+N) T-192$ | Maximum |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-180$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-150$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-175$ | Maximum |
| $t_{\text {RAE }}$ | (1/2) T-10 | (1/2) T-10 | $(1 / 2) T-33$ | Minimum |
| ${ }^{t} \mathrm{CA}$ | (1/2) T-40 | (1/2) T-40 | (1/2) T-53 | Minimum |
| ${ }^{\text {D }}$ W | $(3 / 2+N) T-60$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-70$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-110$ | Minimum |
| ${ }^{\text {twD }}$ | (1/2) T - 60 | (1/2) T-40 | (1/2) T-53 | Minimum |
| ${ }^{\text {c Cc }}$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-80$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-70$ | $(3 / 2+N) T-100$ | Minimum |
| ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{CL}$ | (1/2) T-110 | (1/2) T-75 | (1/2) T - 83 | Minimum |
| $t_{\text {ARY }}$ | (3/2) T-260 | (3/2) T-200 | (3/2) T-210 | Maximum |
| $t_{\text {HACK }}$ | (1/2) T-50 | (1/2) T-60 | (1/2) T-83 | Minimum |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{HABF}}$ | $(1 / 2) T+50$ | (1/2) T+50 | (1/2) T+67 | Maximum |
| $t_{\text {HABE }}$ | $(1 / 2) T+50$ | (1/2) T+50 | (1/2) T+67 | Maximum |
| ${ }_{\text {t }}{ }_{\text {c }}$ | (2/2) T-50 | (2/2) T-85 | (2/2) T - 97 | Minimum |
| $\mathrm{t}_{1}$ | (1/2) T-80 | (1/2) T-60 | (1/2) T-63 | Minimum |
| $\mathrm{t}_{2}$ | (1/2) T-40 | (1/2) T-30 | (1/2) T-33 | Minimum |
| $t_{\text {RV }}$ | (3/2) T-80 | (3/2) T-80 | (3/2) T-90 | Minimum |
| $t_{\text {LDR }}$ | (4/2) T-180 | (4/2) T-130 | (4/2) T-159 | Maximum |

NOTE: $\quad \mathrm{N}$ is equal to the total WAIT states. $\mathrm{T}=\mathbf{t}_{\mathrm{CYC}}$.

WAVEFORMS


READ


## WAVEFORMS (Continued)

READ OPERATION WITH WAIT CYCLE (TYPICAL) - SAME READY TIMING APPLIES TO WRITE


## INTERRUPT AND HOLD



Table 6. Instruction Set Summary


| Mnemonic | Instruction Code$\begin{array}{llllll} D_{7} & D_{6} & D_{5} & D_{4} & D_{3} & D_{2} \\ D_{1} & D_{0} \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Operations Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on zero |
| CNZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on no zero |
| CP |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on positive |
| CM | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on minus |
| CPE |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on parity even |
| CPO | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Call on parity odd |
| RETURN |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| RET |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | Return |
| RC |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on carry |
| RNC |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on no carry |
| RZ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on zero |
| RNZ |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on no zero |
| RP | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on positive |
| RM |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on minus |
| RPE | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on parity even |
| RPO | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | Return on parity odd |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { RESTART } \\ & \text { RST } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 1 | 1 | A | A | A |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | Restart |
| INPUT/OUTP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| IN | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Input |
| OUT | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Output |
| INCREMENT | AND | DE | ECR | REM | MEN |  |  |  |  |  |
| INR r |  | 0 | D | D | D |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Increment register |
| DCR r |  | 0 | D | D | D |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | Decrement register |
| INR M |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | Increment memory |
| DCR M |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | Decrement memory |
| INX B |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment B \& C registers |
| INX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment D \& E registers |
| INX H |  | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Increment H \& L registers |
| DCX B |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement B \& C |
| DCX D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement D \& E |
| DCX H | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | Decrement H\&L |
| ADD |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ADD r |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | S | S | S | Add register to A |
| ADC r |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | S | S | S | Add register to $\mathbf{A}$ with carry |
| ADD M |  | 0 | C | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add memory to $A$ |
| ADC M |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add memory to $A$ with carry |
| ADI | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add immediate to A |
| ACl |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Add immediate to $A$ with carry |
| DAD B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add B \& C to H \& L |
| DAD D | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add D \& E to H \& L |
| DAD H |  | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add H \& L to H \& L |
| DAD SP | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | Add stack pointer to H\& L |
| SUBTRACT |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| SUB r | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | S | S | S | Subtract register from A |
| SBB r | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | S | S | S | Subtract register from <br> A with borrow |
| SUB M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Subtract memory from A |
| SBB M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Subtract memory from A with borrow |
| SUI | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Subtract immediate from A |
| SBI | 1 | 1 | 0 |  |  |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | Subtract immediate from A with borrow |

Table 6. Instruction Set Summary (Continued)

| Mnemonic |  | 7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | Operations Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LOGICAL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ANA r |  | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 0 | S | S | S |  | nd register with A |
| XRA r | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 | 1 | S | S | S |  | Exclusive OR register with A |
| ORA $r$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | S | S | S |  | R register with A |
| CMP r | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | S | S | S |  | Compare register with A |
| ANA M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | and memory with A |
| XRA M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | Exclusive OR memory with A |
| ORA M | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | R memory with A |
| CMP M | 1 |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | ompare memory with A |
| ANI | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | nd immediate with A |
| XRI | 1 |  | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | xclusive OR immediate with A |
| ORI | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | R immediate with A |
| CPI | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |  | Compare immediate with A |
| Rotate RLC | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | Rotate A left |
| RRC | 0 |  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | Rotate A right |
| RAL |  |  | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | Rotate A left through arry |
| RAR |  |  |  | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | Rotate A right through arry |



NOTES:

1. DDS or SSS: B 000, C 001, D 010, E011, H 100, L 101, Memory 110, A 111.
2. Two possible cycle times $(6 / 12)$ indicate instruction cycles dependent on condition flags.
*All mnemonics copyrighted ©|ntel Corporation 1976.

# 8085A/8085A-2 <br> SINGLE CHIP 8-BIT N-CHANNEL MICROPROCESSORS 

- Single +5 V Power Supply

100\% Software Compatible with 8080A

- $1.3 \mu$ Instruction Cycle (8085A);
$0.8 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ (8085A-2)
- On-Chip Clock Generator (with External Crystal, LC or RC Network)
- On-Chip System Controller; Advanced Cycle Status Information Available for Large System Control
- Four Vectored Interrupt Inputs (One is Non-Maskable) Plus an 8080ACompatible Interrupt
- Serial In/Serial Out Port
- Decimal, Binary and Double Precision Arithmetic
- Direct Addressing Capability to 64k Bytes of Memory

The Intel ${ }^{8}$ 8085A is a complete 8 bit parallel Central Processing Unit (CPU). Its instruction set is 100\% software compatible with the 8080A microprocessor, and it is designed to improve the present 8080A's performance by higher system speed. Its high level of system integration allows a minimum system of three IC's [8085A (CPU), 8156 (RAM/IO) and 8355/8755A (ROM/PROM/IO)] while maintaining total system expandability. The 8085A-2 is a faster version of the 8085A.
The 8085A incorporates all of the features that the 8224 (clock generator) and 8228 (system controller) provided for the 8080A, thereby offering a high level of system integration.
The 8085A uses a multiplexed data bus. The address is split between the 8 bit address bus and the 8 bit data bus. The on-chip address latches of 8155/8156/8355/8755A memory products allow a direct interface with the 8085A.

Figure 2. 8085A Pin
Configuration


Figure 1. 8085A CPU Functional Block Diagram

## ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS*

Ambient Temperature Under Bias. . . $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Storage Temperature $-65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $+150^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
Voltage on Any Pin
With Respect to Ground . . . . . . . . . . . . -0.5 V to +7 V
Power Dissipation
1.5 Watt
*NOTICE: Stresses above those listed under "Absolute Maximum Ratings" may cause permanent damage to the device. This is a stress rating only and functional operation of the device at these or any other conditions above those indicated in the operational sections of this specification is not implied. Exposure to absolute maximum rating conditions for extended periods may affect device reliability.
D.C. CHARACTERISTICS $\left(T_{A}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right.$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=0 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$; unless otherwise specified)

| Symbol | Parameter | Min. | Max. | Units | Test Conditions |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{IL}}$ | Input Low Voltage | -0.5 | +0.8 | V |  |
| $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IH}}$ | Input High Voltage | 2.0 | $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CC}}+0.5$ | V |  |
| $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{OL}}$ | Output Low Voltage |  | 0.45 | V | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{OL}}=2 \mathrm{~mA}$ |
| $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{OH}}$ | Output High Voltage | 2.4 |  | V | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{OH}}=-400 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ | Power Supply Current |  | 170 | mA |  |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{IL}}$ | Input Leakage |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $0 \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IN}} \leqslant \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ |
| $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{LO}}$ | Output Leakage |  | $\pm 10$ | $\mu \mathrm{~A}$ | $0.45 \mathrm{~V} \leqslant \mathrm{~V}_{\text {out }} \leqslant \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}$ |
| $\mathrm{V}_{\text {ILR }}$ | Input Low Level, RESET | -0.5 | +0.8 | V |  |
| $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{IHR}}$ | Input High Level, RESET | 2.4 | $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{CC}}+0.5$ | V |  |
| $\mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{HY}}$ | Hysteresis, RESET | 0.25 |  | V |  |

## A.C. CHARACTERISTICS ( $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{A}}=0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $70^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{CC}}=0 \mathrm{~V} \pm 5 \%, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{SS}}=0 \mathrm{~V}$ )

| Symbol | Parameter | 8085A ${ }^{[2]}$ |  | 8085A-2 ${ }^{[2]}$ |  | Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. |  |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CrC}}$ | CLK Cycle Period | 320 | 2000 | 200 | 2000 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{1}$ | CLK Low Time (Standard CLK Loading) | 80 |  | 40 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{2}$ | CLK High Time (Standard CLK Loading) | 120 |  | 70 |  | ns |
| $t_{r}, t_{f}$ | CLK Rise and Fall Time |  | 30 |  | 30 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {XKR }}$ | $X_{1}$ Rising to CLK Rising | 30 | 120 | 30 | 100 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{XKF}}$ | $X_{1}$ Rising to CLK Falling | 30 | 150 | 30 | 110 | ns |
| $t_{A C}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{8-15}$ Valid to Leading Edge of Control ${ }^{(1)}$ | 270 |  | 115 |  | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {t }}^{\text {ACL }}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{0-7}$ Valid to Leading Edge of Control | 240 |  | 115 |  | ns |
| $t_{A D}$ | $A_{0-15}$ Valid to Valid Data in |  | 575 |  | 350 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {AFR }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Address Float After Leading Edge of } \\ & \overline{\text { READ }} \text { (INTA) } \end{aligned}$ |  | 0 |  | 0 | ns |
| $t_{\text {AL }}$ | $\mathrm{A}_{8-15}$ Valid Before Trailing Edge of ALE ${ }^{[1]}$ | 115 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {ALL }}$ | $A_{0-7}$ Valid Before Trailing Edge of ALE | 90 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {ARY }}$ | READY Valid from Address Valid |  | 220 |  | 100 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{ca}}$ | Address ( $A_{8-15}$ ) Valid After Control | 120 |  | 60 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {c }} \mathrm{C}$ | Width of Control Low ( $\overline{R D}, \overline{W R}$, INTA) Edge of ALE | 400 |  | 230 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{CL}$ | Trailing Edge of Control to Leading Edge of ALE | $50$ |  | 25 |  | ns |
| $t_{\text {DW }}$ | Data Valid to Trailing Edge of WRITE | 420 |  | 230 |  | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {thabe }}$ | HLDA to Bus Enable |  | 210 |  | 150 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HABF }}$ | Bus Float After HLDA |  | 210 |  | 150 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HACK }}$ | HLDA Valid to Trailing Edge of CLK | 110 |  | 40 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{HDH}}$ | HOLD Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {HDS }}$ | HOLD Setup Time to Trailing Edge of CLK | 170 |  | 120 |  | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {I }}$ | INTR Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {INS }}$ | INTR, RST, and TRAP Setup Time to Falling Edge of CLK | 160 |  | 150 |  | ns |
| $t_{\text {LA }}$ | Address Hold Time After ALE | 100 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {t }}^{\text {L }}$ ( | Trailing Edge of ALE to Leading Edge of Control | 130 |  | 60 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {LCK }}$ | ALE Low During CLK High | 100 |  | 50 |  | ns |
| t LOR | ALE to Valid Data During Read |  | 460 |  | 270 | ns |
| tow | ALE to Valid Data During Write |  | 200 |  | 120 | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {LL }}$ | ALE Width | 140 |  | 80 |  | ns |
| ${ }_{\text {LLRY }}$ | ALE to READY Stable |  | 110 |  | 30 | ns |

## A.C. CHARACTERISTICS (Continued)

| Symbol | Parameter | 8085A ${ }^{[2]}$ |  | 8085A-2 ${ }^{[2]}$ |  | Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Min. | Max. | Min. | Max. |  |
| ${ }^{\text {t RAE }}$ | Trailing Edge of $\overline{\text { READ }}$ to Re-Enabling of Address | 150 |  | 90 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }}$ RD | $\overline{\text { READ }}$ (or INTA) to Valid Data |  | 300 |  | 150 | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{RV}$ | Control Trailing Edge to Leading Edge of Next Control | 400 |  | 220 |  | ns |
| $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RDH }}$ | Data Hold Time After $\overline{\text { READ }}$ INTA $^{[7]}$ | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t RYH }}$ | READY Hold Time | 0 |  | 0 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t RYS }}$ | READY Setup Time to Leading Edge of CLK | 110 |  | 100 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t W }}$ | Data Valid After Trailing Edge of WRITE | 100 |  | 60 |  | ns |
| ${ }^{\text {t WDL }}$ | LEADING Edge of WRITE to Data Valid |  | 40 |  | 20 | ns |

## NOTES:

1. $A_{8} \cdot A_{15}$ address Specs apply to $10 / \bar{M}, S_{0}$, and $S_{1}$ except $A_{8} \cdot A_{15}$ are undefined during $T_{4}-T_{6}$ of OF cycle whereas $\mathrm{IO} / \overline{\mathrm{M}}, \mathrm{S}_{0}$, andS ${ }_{1}$ are stable.
2. Test conditions: $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CYC}}=320 \mathrm{~ns}(8085 \mathrm{~A}) / 200 \mathrm{~ns}(8085 \mathrm{~A}-2) ; \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}=150 \mathrm{pF}$.
3. For all output timing where $C_{L}=150 \mathrm{pF}$ use the following correction factors:
$25 \mathrm{pF} \leqslant \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}<150 \mathrm{pF}:-0.10 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$ $150 \mathrm{pF}<\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}} \leqslant 300 \mathrm{pF}:+0.30 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$
4. Output timings are measured with purely capacitive load.
5. All timings are measured at output votage $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{L}}=0.8 \mathrm{~V}, \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{H}}=2.0 \mathrm{~V}$, and 1.5 V with 20 ns rise and fall time on inputs.
6. To calculate timing specifications at other values of $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CYC}}$ use Table 7.
7. Data hold time is guaranteed under all loading conditions.

## A.C. TESTING INPUT, OUTPUT WAVEFORM


A.C. TESTING LOAD CIRCUIT


## Appendix Applications of MCS ${ }^{\circledR}$-85

# APPENDIX 1 APPLICATIONS OF MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {™ }}$ 

## SECTION 1 <br> INTRODUCTION TO MCS-85™ APPLICATIONS

When the first microprocessor was introduced about five years ago, it was largely ignored by the electronics industry. However, since that inasupicious beginning, this new device has become the hottest topic in current technology. As more and more product designers become familiar with the capabilities of microcomputers, the number of new applications increases geometrically. In most of these applications, the new technology has been used to replace designs which were formerly implemented with TTL logic and under-utilized minicomputers. However, an increasing number of products are surfacing which would have been impractical prior to the microcomputer era.

Microcomputers are being applied to a wide range of data communications tasks. The field of telephone equipment is being invaded by systems which control and monitor calls. Point of sale terminals are increasing daily with the addition of interface to coin changers, electronic scales and remote computers. Small stand-alone computers are relying heavily upon microcomputers in teleprocessing, timesharing, data base management and similar interactive applications. An increasing number of microcomputer-based data terminals are providing local interactive intelligence with programmable character sets, vector generation and the pre-processing of data.

Instrumentation is widely utilizing the microprocessor for a variety of control and arithmetic processing functions. Microcomputers are controlling laboratory equipment such as oscilloscopes, DVM's, network analyzers and frequency synthesizers. Medical electronics are crediting microcomputers with tasks such as patient monitoring, blood analysis and X-ray scanning. Travel is becoming microcomputerized by automotive control, air and ocean navigation equipment and rapid transit systems.

## MCS-85™ SYSTEM

Many possible microcomputer applications have been overlooked because of the design tasks required to build the microcomputer. These tasks include the system clock, read/ write memory, I/O ports, serial communications interface and bus control logic. The MCS-85 system will enable the design engineer to concentrate on the application of the microcomputer, rather than on the implementation details.
The MCS-85 is yet another family of components which has the potential to provide a solution to the three problems which will always plague designers: cost, size and power. The reduced component count of an MCS-85 microcomputer, coupled with the increased integration of functions reduces both cost and size while increasing power.

## Sample Applications

Calculating Oscilloscope Blood Analyzer Programmable Video Game Process Control System Line Printer

Intelligent Terminal N.C. Machine Digital Multimeter Graphic Terminal Automotive Control

Navigation Equipment Vending Machine Spectrum Analyzer Front End Processor Credit Verifier

Disk Controller Patient Monitor Network Analyzer Frequency Synthesizer

| APPLICATION | PERIPHERAL DEVICES ENCOUNTERED | MCS-85 ${ }^{\text {™ }}$ COMPONENTS |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Intelligent Terminals | Cathode Ray Tube Display Printing Units Synchronous and Asynchronous data lines Cassette Tape Unit Keyboards | $\begin{aligned} & 8275 \\ & 8155 \\ & 8251 \\ & 8279 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8085 A \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Gaming Machines | Keyboards, pushbuttons and switches Various display devices Coin acceptors Coin dispensers | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8279 \\ & 8155 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8085 A \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Cash Registers | Keyboard or Input Switch Array <br> Change Dispenser <br> Digital Display <br> Ticket Printer <br> Magnetic Card reader <br> Communication interface | $\begin{aligned} & 8279 \\ & 8155 \\ & \\ & 8273 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8085 \mathrm{~A} \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Accounting and Billing Machines | Keyboard <br> Printer Unit <br> Cassette or other magnetic tape unit "Floppy" disks | $\begin{aligned} & 8279 \\ & 8155 \\ & 8257 \\ & 8271 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8085 A \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Telephone Switching Control | Telephone Line Scanner Analog Switching Network Dial Registers Class of Service Parcel | $\begin{aligned} & 8253 \\ & 8155 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8085 A \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Numerically Controlled Machines | Magnetic or Paper Tape Reader Stepper Motors Optical Shaft Encoders | 8155 | $\begin{aligned} & 8085 A \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |
| Process Control | Analog-to-Digital Converters Digital-to-Analog Converters Control Switches Displays | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 8155 \\ & 8279 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8085 \mathrm{~A} \\ & 8355 \end{aligned}$ |

## Baud Rate Generator

Shown in Figure 2 is a minimum system configuration with the 8156 timer output connected to an 8085 interrupt input.
This configuration allows convenient use of the timer as a baud rate generator. A 6.144 MHz crystal is used as the frequency control element of the 8085A, providing integral divisors for the standard baud rates (300, 600, 1200, 2400, 4800, 9600 baud). The timer is programmed with the appropriate divisor (Figure 1) for the selected baud rate resulting in one pulse on the timer output for each bit cell time. The clock output (CLK) of the 8085A is used to clock the timer (TIMERIN). The frequency of this clock is one-half the crystal frequency or in this example 3.072 MHz . TIMEROUT now provides a crystal controlled pulse train at the baud rate selected.

## Serial Communications

By feeding the TIMEROUT signal of the 8156 back to the edge triggered RST 7.5 input of the 8085A, the processor can be interrupt driven at
the required baud rate. As shown in Figure 1, the minimum system supports serial communications with only the addition of the send and receive interface circuits.
The SID (SERIAL INPUT DATA) line and the SOD (SERIAL OUTPUT DATA) line are connected directly to a TTY or RS232 interface circuit. Assuming inverted data at the SID input, a direct connection is made to the RST6.5 input for detection of the start bit.
Additional insight into using the 8085's serial I/O lines in communications application can be found in Section 2 of this Appendix.

| BAUD RATE | COUNT (DECIMAL) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 300 | 10,240 |
| 600 | 5,120 |
| 1200 | 2,560 |
| 2400 | 1,280 |
| 4800 | 640 |
| 9600 | 320 |

FIGURE 1. BAUD RATES


NOTE 1: TRAP, INTR, AND HOLD MUST BE GROUNDED IF THEY AREN'T USED.
NOTE 2: USE IO/M FOR STANDARD I/O MAPPING. USE A15 FOR MEMORY MAPPED I/O.
NOTE 3. CONNECTION IS NECESSARY ONLY IF ONE TWAIT STATE IS DESIRED.
NOTE 4: PULL-UP RESISTORS RECOMMENDED TO AVOID SPURIOUS SELECTION WHEN RD̄ AND $\bar{W} \bar{R}$ ARE
3-STATED.
FIGURE 2. MINIMUM SYSTEM CONFIGURATION


FIGURE 3. SMALL SYSTEM SCHEMATIC (similar to the schematic of Intel's SDK-85)


## Small System

The schematic in Figure 3 is of a complete microcomputer with only 6 ICs. The system contains its own serial I/O communication lines, multi-level interrupt, two programmable timers, and power-on reset. System capacity is 512 bytes of RAM, 4K bytes of PROM, and 76 lines of programmable I/O.

## Block Move, Block Search

In a large system application high speed block moves may be necessary. The addition of an 8257 Direct Memory Access (DMA) controller and an 8255 Programmable Peripheral Interface (PPI) device with some miscellaneous logic removes the task from the 8085 and results in a very high speed capability. The addition of an eight bit comparator also permits block searches. (See Figure 4.)


FIGURE 4. BLOCK MOVE, BLOCK SEARCH addition of an 8257 Direct Memory Access (DMA) controller and an 8255 Programmable Peripheral Interface (PPI) device permits block searches, high speed block moves. ( $2.5 \mu \mathrm{~s} /$ word ).

Basic operation, for a block move, is that the CPU loads the 8257 with the starting address of the source block and the length* of the block into Channel 0 . Channel 1 is programmed with the starting location of the destination block and the length. A bit in Port $C$ of the 8255 is set by the CPU which initiates a DMA request on Channels 0 and 1. Because the 8257 is initialized to the rotating priority mode, the first DMA cycle is from Channel 0 which latches the data from the first location of the source block into the 8212. The second cycle will be from Channel 1 which will store the latched data into the first location of the destination block. The next cycle will return to Channel 0 and the sequence will start over again until the length (terminal count) is reached. Programming the 8257 stop bit insures that each channel will be disabled when its respective terminal count is reached.

This configuration also supports a block fill. DMA Channel 0 points to a location containing the fill value and has a length of one. Channel 1 points to the starting location of the destination block and contains the length. When the sequence is initiated the value will be loaded into the latch by Channel 0 . Channel 0 reaches TC and is disabled. Priority rotates to Channel 1 which will repeatedly write into the destination block the value stored in the latch until TC is reached.

Block search operations use the 8 -bit comparator and Ports A \& B of the 8255 and Channel 2 of the 8257 . The CPU loads Port B with the search value and the DMA channel with the search area (starting address and length). A Port C bit initiates the DMA READ request. Channel 2 DMA Acknowledge sets Port A of the 8255 up as the receiver for the DMA READ cycle by multiplexing $A_{0}, A_{1}$, and CS. Each cycle of the DMA then loads Port $A$ with the value of the
*(The value loaded into the low-order 14 -bits of the terminal count register specifies the number of DMA cycles minus one before the Terminal Count (TC) output is activated. For instance, a terminal count of 0 would cause the TC output to be active in the first DMA cycle for that channel. In general, if Length $=$ the number of desired DMA cycles, load the value Length- 1 into the low-order 14-bits of the terminal count register.)
pointed-to location in the block. When Port A equals Port $B$, the output of the comparator will gate off the DMA request. The requesting program can now read the Channel 2 address which is pointing to the search value plus one. However, if the status register of the 8257 indicates that TC of Channel 2 has been reached, then no match was found.

## RST 7

On the 8080A/8228 system if one tied INTA out of the 8228 to +12 volts through a $1 \mathrm{~K} \Omega$ resistor, the 8228 would generate a RST 7 instruction to the 8080A upon interrupt. This was a very inexpensive mechanism.
The 8085A has expanded this facility with the RST 5.5, 6.5, 7.5 inputs but is not compatible with the RST 7 generated by the 8228. (Figure 5) To maintain this compatibility it can be achieved by adding an 8212 which will force a RST 7 instruction into the bus upon interrupt acknowledge (INTA). (Figure 6)

| RESTART | VECTOR LOCATION |
| :--- | :---: |
| RST 7 | $38_{16}$ |
| RST 5.5 | $2 \mathrm{C}_{16}$ |
| RST 6.5 | $34_{16}$ |
| RST 7.5 | $3 \mathrm{C}_{16}$ |
| TRAP | $24_{16}$ |

FIGURE 5. ADDITIONAL 8085A INTERRUPTS


FIGURE 6. 8085A "RST 7" IMPLEMENTATION

## SECTION 2 <br> DETAILED APPLICATION EXAMPLES

## Memory Addressing

One of the necessary functions of the microprocessor bus is to interface with the memory where the program is stored. ROM and EPROM memories are typically used to store programs while static and dynamic RAMS are generally used for data memory. The following discussions cover the interfacing to be used for these types of memory.
ROM - EPROM ADDRESSING
Later in this Appendix a section is devoted to an approach for developing a chart showing memory device compatibility for the 8085A. However, there is one area not included that will be discussed here, that is, unbuffered interfacing to standard ROM or EPROM memories. To use an unbuffered interface to ROM or EPROM it is necessary to understand a particular characteristic of the 8085A.
The 8085A has a period of time, T4 through T6 of the op code fetch cycle and certain instructions, where addresses A8 through A15 are undefined. Be careful about this. Not having addresses stable and using an address select method that would randomly turn on memory devices will cause bus contention and reliability problems in the unbuffered system. In the memory compatibility section of this Application Note, a minimum (unbuffered MCS-85 family and medium system (at least one level of buffering) configurations are considered. These configurations do not have bus contention problems. In the minimum system only MCS-85 components will be discussed where addresses are latched on the falling edge of ALE, thus ignoring any extraneous address transitions. The medium system is assumed to have data buffers that are enabled only at the proper time, thus again preventing any bus contention problems. What about the user who wants to use standard ROM or EPROM without buffering?

As an example let's look at Intel's ROM/EPROM family (Fig. 7) and develop a system block diagram. This system should allow upward compatibility for these particular devices and avoid any bus contentions due to undefined addresses. In Figure 8 a traditional decoding scheme is shown that uses the time difference between tacc (address access) and tco (chip select access) to allow for decoding of the EPROM/ROM to be selected. Connecting only these signals, however, in an unbuffered system will result in data contention because of the spurious addresses during opcode fetch. The proper interconnect for this type of interface is shown in Figure 9 where an output enable ( $\overline{\mathrm{OE}}$ ) signal will prevent any bus contention. This output enable is controlled by the read control signal, $\overline{R D}$, of the 8085A. This signal only occurs after addresses have stabilized.*

Note also that a PROM is recommended for the decoding function vs. an 8205 ( 1 of 8 decoder). Why? This PROM allows the user to easily upgrade his system to the 32 and 64 K versions with minimum rewiring. As seen in Figure 3, only 4 pins are being altered (18-21) in the Intel ROM/EPROM family to allow for this upward compatibility. All a user would need to do is initially design his layout for 28 pin devices, thereby allowing total flexibility from 8 K through 64 K with the ease of only changing a decoding PROM and a few wires. $\dagger$ Application Note AP-30 can be ordered at no charge which fully discusses the application of Intel's 5 Volt EPROM and ROM family for microprocessor systems.
*Both $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ signals should be pulled up to +5 V through a resistor to avoid random selection during 3 -state.
$\dagger$ Another method is shown later in Figure 15 that facilitates the use of a decoder, such as the Intel 8205 .


Figure 7. Intel ${ }^{\circledR}$ EPROM/ROM Compatible Family


Figure 8. Traditional 16K EPROM System


Figure 9. Correct 16K EPROM System

## STATIC MEMORIES

The same consideration must be applied to standard static memories as with the ROMs/EPROMs in an unbuffered system. Memory device selection must be qualified by a memory read or write to prevent spurious selection. Some Intel static RAM devices have an Output Enable for this purpose, such as the 2142 ( $1 \mathrm{k} \times 4$ ). This part was designed to be specifically used with a microprocessor bus. For other standard static RAMs, the chip selects must be qualified by $\overline{\mathrm{RD}}, \overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ or ALE to prevent random selection.

## DYNAMIC RAM INTERFACE

An earlier Intel Application Report (APR-1) extensively covered dynamic RAM interface with different types of memory and refresh in the MCS-80 system. This dynamic RAM section was taken from the most memory intensive example in APR-1, the 2116, modified to be compatible with the 8085A bus. These minor modifications are such that an 8080 system can be converted without much trouble. Before discussion of this section, however, a strong word of advice is in order. At about the same time this Application Note is published, Intel will be sampling an 8202 dynamic RAM refresh controller which does all dynamic RAM interfacing (except the data bus) and refreshing in one packaged component. It is highly recommended that the reader investigate this before using the attached schematic. Reading this section will still be useful in terms of understanding the 8085A bus.

This section uses the APR-1 2116 (multiplexed address 16K) example modified for the 2117-4 dynamic RAM. These devices have some differences from the 2116. One is that the output is not latched and is 3 -stated during a write operation. This allows a user to tie both the data in and data out pins together at the device and at the data buffers, saving board traces. The 2117 also have hidden refresh capabilities where if $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ is held low, $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}$ can be toggled to refresh the device.

The schematic shown in Figure 10 is aimed at a high performance, relatively inexpensive solution (disregarding the 8202). Refresh circuitry is not shown, but can be implemented in a variety of ways. This will be discussed later in an upcoming section. In this refresh section, code for a simple, very low cost refresh controller that requires no special hardware, other than an 8155 timer, is presented.

For system timing, a $4 x$ clock is used to obtain the resolution necessary to provide the clocks for the multiplexed address 2117's. Other solutions are possible with delay lines, one shots, etc., but are relatively expensive and don't provide for a nice baud rate source for any peripherals that may be in the system as does this $4 \times$ clock. Another approach can use the clock edges from the 8085A CLKOUT to interface to dynamic RAM. To facilitate this type of approach, Clock related timing parameters are listed later in this note.

To aid in understanding the operation of this circuit, the explanation is broken into a discussion of the main signal paths. 2117-4 Spec compatibility with the 8085A will be discussed in detail in the dynamic RAM section of the Memory Compatibility section.

## Addresses

The lower 14 addresses (A0-A13) are used to select one of the 16,3848 -bit bytes in each 16 K byte data bank. The lower 8 of these 14 addresses (A0-A7) flow through an 8212 and are latched by ALE, effectively demultiplexing the address/ data bus. These lower 8 addresses with the next 6 (A8-A13) enter the 3242 multiplexer/refresh controller. The Row Enable of the 3242 controls which half of the addresses are presented to the dynamic RAM memory. Looking at the row enable on the 3242, it is seen that the row and column addresses are swapped with respect to convention. The higher order addresses are used as row addresses and the lower order addresses are used as column addresses. This does not create problems because this is invisible to the CPU. Refreshing is done properly as the 3242 controls the addressing for this. The upper two address lines $\left(\mathrm{A}_{14}-\mathrm{A}_{15}\right)$ are decoded to qualify one of the four $\overline{R A S}$ (Row Address Strobe) lines to select one of the four 16K byte data banks of memory.

## Cycle Requests

Cycle requests are generated from several sources; ALE automatically initiates a request when S 1 indicates that there is a read taking place (flip-flop C), WR during write cycles (D) and refresh delayed ( $Q$ output of refresh flipflop (B)) when there is a refresh. ALE is used to start a read (qualified by S 1 ) to provide ample time for access from the memories. This cycle request signal (A) immediately creates a RAS and starts a timing chain ( 74 S174 shift register (E)) to generate the remaining signals. Synchronization between this cycle request pulse and the $4 x$ clock is accomplished by the first $D$ flip-flop in the 'S174 shift register (timing chain).

## $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}} / \overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$

When $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ is enabled by a cycle request, it is qualified with either a refresh request (all RAS's turn on) or the decoded upper two bits of the address bus. A careful reader may question whether address is valid prior to $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ being enabled. This question can be answered by noting that the 8212 passes the address through before the falling edge of ALE latches it. $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{AL}}{ }^{\dagger}$ (115 ns for 320 ns 8085A processor cycle), which is the time from address to the falling edge of ALE, gives ample time for addresses to be valid at the 3242 outputs before $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ is valid. $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ is extended past the clearing of the cycle request flip-flop by ORing this enabling signal with a tap from the D flip-flop shift register.
$\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ (Column Address Strobe) is produced between 123 and 164 ns after $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}$, depending upon when the first D flip-flop in the shift register synchronizes with the cycle request signal (C). Since this is greater than the specified maximum delay from $\overline{R A S}$ to $\overline{C A S}$, this memory system is $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ access limited and $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ access no longer has any meaning. The $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ tap can't move up one D flip-flop to provide more time for memory access as this would not provide sufficient data set up time with respect to $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ during a write.

[^1]

Figure 10. 8085A-2117 Dynamic RAM Interface

## Data

The data path to the 2117 s is through two sets of buffers to account for memory being off board. To determine bus timing it is helpful to know that Write data is not guaranteed to be valid from the 8085A until 40 ns after the leading edge of the write control signal. On account of this and the delay times for the buffers it is necessary to delay the cycle request on a write until the WR signal goes low. The solution shown still does not require wait states. An inhibit memory signal is also involved. This is useful when using memory address space overlap such as the case with bootstrap ROM (which would be necessary in this system if a full 64K of dynamic RAM is used).

## Refresh

Dynamic RAMs are generally refreshed in two different modes; burst (i.e., all at once every 2 ms ) and distributed (one row every ( $2 \mathrm{~ms} / \mathrm{number}$ of rows) period of time). The schematic shown provides for a distributed refresh where refresh requests are applied to the Hold request input of the 8085A (not shown). This signal needs to occur at least once every $15 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ ( $(2 \mathrm{~ms} / 128$ rows to be refreshed) - HOLD to HLDA delay) and can be generated through a baud rate timing chain, intel 3222, one shots or other similar devices. Another approach to refresh could qualify the refresh cycles with program fetch cycles (use status lines). If program memory is in static RAM or ROM and the dynamic RAM bus can be isolated, refresh cycles can be performed with no overhead. Instead of using the HOLD feature of the 8085A, refresh can be hidden in the program fetch and decode. Further considerations for refresh include proper handling of resets and excessive hold times from other peripherals to be certain the memory is being refreshed adequately.
Some applications don't require high CPU efficiency and require a very inexpensive method to refresh their dynamic RAM. Since writing, reading or performing special refresh cycles all refresh a particular row, why not do "dummy" reads to refresh? To use this technique memory must be mapped on a one to one correspondence with the address space. This will allow the programmer to read one byte in each physical row in the 2117s, thereby refreshing that row. A simple software routine can be devised to refresh 16 K bytes of RAM. If more dynamic RAM than this is desired it can be accomplished by specially enabling all the desired RAS signals via an 8085A output port. First let's analyze how many CPU cycles are available in the 2 ms period:
$2 \mathrm{~ms} /(320 \mathrm{~ns} /$ cycle $)=6,250$ cycles
for 8085A@ 3.125 MHz
$2 \mathrm{~ms} /(200 \mathrm{~ns} /$ cycle $)=10,000$ cycles
for 8085A-2@ 5.0 MHz

If there is a convenient component that can count 8085A cycles (8085A CLKOUT) and interrupt the 8085A, you're home free. An example of such a device is the 8155 in the MCS- 85 family. On the 8155 one can use the TO (timer Out) pin to interrupt the CPU everytime a refresh needs to be performed and an interrupt service routine could dummy read 128 consecutive locations and return to CPU operation. (128 reads are necessary to completely refresh the full 16 K bytes of 2117 memory.) The highest priority interrupt should be used for this to insure that refresh occurs. Figure 11 is an example program to perform this burst dummy read refresh. This routine basically uses 64 pops of the stack, each reading two consecutive locations in the memory. Note that this routine destroys the contents of registers $B, C$ and $D$ in the 8085A. The user may want to save these registers in the routine before performing the software refresh. If memory space is more valuable than CPU efficiency, the POPs can be performed in a loop instead of a string, saving additional memory.

This routine requires 690 cycles which is about $11 \%$ of the available 8085A CPU cycles, or 7\% of the available 8085A2 cycles. If this is acceptable and there is a counter available, you can't find a cheaper way to do refresh. Note that as processor speeds become faster, this overhead becomes proportionately less and more attractive as an alternative. Again, as with any refresh routine, reset and excessive holds must be dealt with to guarantee proper refresh.

## DMA (Direct Memory Access)

DMA is becoming more common in the microcomputer system for many applications. Some examples include the 8271 floppy disk controller and refreshing a CRT via an 8275 CRT Controller. It is always helpful to reduce the overhead of the DMA (as DMA can tie up the system bus) whenever possible. In many applications, where program memory is resident in ROM or PROM, DMA cycles can be performed in coincidence with op code fetch. This will make them invisible to the CPU as described for Refresh in the Refresh section of the 2117 dynamic RAM example.

In the dynamic Ram system, Refresh requests can be made on the DMA controller via the DRQ lines, with the 8237 in a rotating priority mode to insure refreshing is done. Another technique would be to devise an arbiter for DMA and refresh requests at the processor hold input. With this technique the designer must not allow DMA to monopolize the bus when refresh is needed.

| During initialization: |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MVI | A, D5H | SET TIMER COUNT TO 5550* FOR REFRESH COUNT |  |  |
| OUT | TIMER MSBYTE |  |  |  |
| MVI | A, A4H | INTERRUPT CPU AT $\overline{\text { TO }}$ (TIMER OUT) |  |  |
| OUT | TIMER LSBYTE |  |  |  |
| MVI | A, COH | START COUNTER, PLACE CO IN 8155 STATUS REG. |  |  |
| OUT | TIMER COMMAND |  |  |  |
| Program |  |  |  |  |
| AT RST | 7.5 RETURN ADD | RESS | CALL RFRS | (REFRESH SERVICE) |
| TOTAL \#CYCLESCYCLES |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 10 | RFRS: | LXI HL, 0 | SAVE STACK POINTER IN HL |
|  | 10 |  | DAD SP |  |
| 30 | 10 |  | LXI SP, 0080 | 32K - 48K REFRESH |
|  | 10 |  | POP BC |  |
|  | 10 |  | POP BC | REFRESH, DUMMY READ |
|  |  |  | . |  |
|  |  |  | . | 64 TIMES |
| 640 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6 |  | SPHL | RESTORE STACK POINTER |
|  | 4 |  | El | ENABLE INTERRUPTS |
| $\underline{20}$ | 10 |  | RET | RETURN |
| 690 | TOTAL CYCLES |  | (round up to 700 |  |

Figure 11. Software Refresh

The standard technique for interfacing the 8085A processor to the 8237 DMA controller is shown in the MCS-85 User's Manual and is reproduced in Figure 12. This configuration is set up to interface with standard memories or peripherals, i.e., ones that don't share their data bus with addresses, not the MCS-85 family components ( $8155,8355,8755 \mathrm{~A}$, etc.). DMA is unlikely with these MCS-85 components as they are intended for
minimum system applications. If the system has both MCS-85 and standard addressed components, and DMA is used for the standard addressed components, ALE must be or'ed with ADSTB from the 8257. This is necessary to deselect the MCS-85 components from the bus. Due to the latching feature of the MCS-85 components, bus contention may result if this is not done and DMA tries to use the bus.


Figure 12. Detailed System Interface Schematic

## SYSTEM TIMINGS

## 8085A CLK-IN vs. CLK-OUT vs. Control Timings

This section shows timing characteristics that relate the input clock to the control signals and the output clock. These timings can be treated as constants, that is, within the normal operative range of the processor, they are cycle or 8085A, A-2 speed independent.

Be careful about manipulating the timings given in this section with the specifications in the data sheet. The specifications on the 8085A, A-2 are not mutually exclusive; that is, you can't add minimums to minimums and obtain a valid minimum for some other timing parameter. Where the timing parameter is specified directly, this takes precedence over any other method you come up with to find that specification (through adding and subtracting others). This was not done to confuse the user, but to provide him with the most optimal timings for his system!

To understand the timing parameters in this section it would be helpful to understand how the internal signals are generated in the 8085A. Referring to Figure 13, it is
seen that the rising edge of the X1 input causes flip-flop A to toggle. From this flip-flop two internal signals are generated that drive all functions in the 8085A, A-2 and produce the output control signals and clock. Referring to Figure 15, it is seen that clock output is derived from the internal $\phi 1$ signal in the schematic of Figure 14. This output signal is a MOS output unlike the bipolar outputs of the 8224 in the 8080A system. This restricts the user to the loading limitations of a MOS driver (for further details see bus loading section). The rest of the output control signals with their respective internal controlling edges are also shown in Figure 14.

Since the path between the X 1 input and the clock output can have a considerable amount of variance, the relationships of these two clocks vary significantly. Figures 15 and 16 are a set of timing diagrams illustrating the relationship of the clock input to the clock output to the various control signals. For designs that require these relationships to synchronize different systems, components, etc; the designer must allow for these variances in the relationships.

| Parameter | Description | Min | Max | Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $t \phi A L$ | Time from C.F. to next Address valid ( $A_{0}-A_{7}$ ) |  | 130 | ns |
| t $\phi$ ALU | Time from C.F. to next Address valid ( $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ only) |  | 70 | ns |
| t $\phi_{\text {at }}$ | Time from C.F. to present Address remaining valid ( $\mathrm{A}_{8}-\mathrm{A}_{15}$ only) | -20 |  | ns |
| $t \phi C L$ | Time from C.F. to control low (L.E.) | -10 | 60 | ns |
| $t \phi C T$ | Time from C.R. to control low (T.E.) | -10 | 60 | ns |
| $t \phi D L$ | Time from C.F. to Data Out becoming valid |  | 65 | ns |
| $t \phi D T$ | Time from C.F. to Data Out remaining valid | -20 |  | ns |
| $t \phi$ DS | Data-in set up time to C.R. | 100 |  | ns |
| t $\phi$ DH | Data-in hold time to C.R. | 0 |  | ns |
| t $\phi$ LL | Time from C.F. to ALE high (L.E.) | -60 | 0 | ns |
| $t \phi L T$ | Time from C.R. to ALE high (T.E.) | 0 | 70 | ns |
| tXKF | Time from $X_{1}$ input to C.F. | 30 | 150 | ns |
| tXKR | Time from $X_{1}$ input to C.R. | 30 | 120 | ns |

C.F. $=$ Clock Falling, C.R. $=$ Clock Rising, L.E. $=$ Leading Edge, T.E. $=$ Trailing Edge

NOTE: These numbers are guaranteed by design and are not tested by Intel.
8085A, 8085A-2 Clock Parameters


Figure 13. Clock and Sample Control Logic


Figure 14. Clock $\ln (\mathbf{X 1})$ to Output Relationship


Figure 15. 8085A-2 Clock In/Clock Out Timing


Figure 16. 8085A-2 Clock Related Timing

### 3.125 vs. 5 MHz Considerations

The 8085A (with maximum internal clock frequency of 3.125 MHz ) and 8085A-2 ( 5 MHz ) have some differences in their bus operation. There are two sets of peripherals that can be used with both the 8085A and A-2. There are the dedicated peripherals in the MCS-85 family that directly interface with the 8085A, A-2 bus and the standard MCS-80 peripherals that Intel also provides. The standard peripherals that are denoted 825X-5 (also the 8251A and 827X peripherals) are peripherals that can be used with an 8085A or 8085A-2. In the 8085A-2 system a wait state is required for proper I/O operation, but even with this wait state system speed is still $30 \%$ higher than the 8085A without wait states. An example wait state generator for this purpose is shown at the end of the peripheral compatibility section in this Application Note (Figure 19).

The main timing differences to consider when using an 8085A vs. an A-2 are listed in Table 1.

Cycle dependent timings are listed in Table 2. These are very useful when the user is not operating at the full bus speed. Remember that each 8085A, A-2 device divides its clock input frequency by 2 . Therefore, a 10 MHz crystal will produce a 200 ns output cycle (denoted as $T$ in the cycle dependent timings). A timing diagram showing the relationships of the timing parameters given in Table 2 can be found on the data sheets.
—Clock (crystal) requirements. The 8085A, A-2 requires the following crystal specifications to run at top bus speed:

8085A 6.25 MHz frequency, parallel resonant, fundamental, 10 mwatt drive level, RS < 75 ohms, $\mathrm{CL}=\mathbf{2 0 - 3 5} \mathrm{pf}$, and $\mathrm{CS}<7 \mathrm{pf}$.

8085A-2 10 MHz frequency, all other specifications the same as 8085A.
-Memory and Peripheral Compatibility - Discussed in detail in upcoming sections.
-Cycle dependent timings (Table 2)

Table 1. 8085A vs. 8085A-2.

| Parameter | $\text { (ns) } \quad \text { 3.125 MHz (8085A) }$ |  |  | 5 MHz (8085A-2) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Min | Max | Cycle Dependencies | Min | Max | Cycle Dependencies |
| tcyc | 320 | 2000 |  | 200 | 2000 |  |
| t1 | 80 |  | 1/2T-80 | 40 |  | 1/2T-70 |
| t2 | 120 |  | 1/2T-40 | 70 |  | 1/2T-50 |
| tr |  | 30 |  |  | 30 |  |
| tf |  | 30 |  |  | 30 |  |
| tAL | 115 |  | 1/2T-45 | 50 |  | 1/2T-50 |
| tLA | 100 |  | 1/2T-60 | 50 |  | 1/2T-50 |
| tLL | 140 |  | 1/2T-20 | 80 |  | 1/2T-20 |
| tLCK | 100 |  | 1/2T-60 | 50 |  | 1/2T-50 |
| tLC | 130 |  | 1/2T-30 | 60 |  | 1/2T-40 |
| tAFR |  | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |
| tAD |  | 575 | $(5 / 2+N) T-225$ |  | 350 | $(5 / 2+N) T-150$ |
| tRD |  | 300 | $(3 / 2+N) T-180$ |  | 150 | $(3 / 2+N) T-150$ |
| tRDH | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  |
| tRAE | 150 |  | 1/2T-10 | 90 |  | 1/2T-10 |
| tCA | 120 |  | 1/2T-40 | 60 |  | 1/2T-40 |
| tDW | 420 |  | $(3 / 2+N) T-60$ | 230 |  | $(3 / 2+N) T-70$ |
| tWD | 100 |  | 1/2T-60 | 60 |  | 1/2T-40 |
| tCC | 400 |  | $(3 / 2+N) T-80$ | 230 |  | $(3 / 2+N) T-70$ |
| tCL | 50 |  | 1/2T-110 | 25 |  | 1/2T-75 |
| tARY |  | 220 | 3/2T-260 |  | 100 | 3/2T-200 |
| tRYS | 110 |  |  | 100 |  |  |
| tRYH | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  |
| tHACK | 110 |  | 1/2T-50 | 40 |  |  |
| thabe |  | 210 | 1/2T+50 |  | 150 | $1 / 2 \mathrm{~T}+50$ |
| tRV | 400 |  | 3/2T-80 | 220 |  | 3/2T-80 |
| tAC | 270 |  | T-50 | 115 |  | T-85 |
| tHDS | 170 |  |  | 120 |  |  |
| tHDH | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  |
| tiNS | 360 |  | 1/2T+200 | 150 |  | $1 / 2 \mathrm{~T}+50$ |
| tINH | 0 |  |  | 0 |  |  |
| tLDR |  | 460 | $2 \mathrm{~T}-180$ |  | 270 | 4/2T-130 |

Where $T=$ tcyc and $N=$ the number of wait states that are incorporated.
All mathematical operations in Table 2 are performed from left to right, except where qualified with parenthesis.

Table 2. 8085A and 8085A-2 Cycle Dependencies

## Memory Device Compatibility

Determining What Memory to Select For Your Application When developing a system which will use sufficient memory to require buffering (see the capacitive loading section to determine when it is needed), it is important to understand how to select the slowest, lowest cost memory and still be compatible with the bus timings with minimum wait states. A generalized procedure has been developed in the following section for determining the memory access needed for different applications and the number of wait states required (if any). In general the amount of time available for accessing the memory can be obtained from the following formula: Available memory access $=8085 \mathrm{~A}$ access time (from control signal of interest) - Buffering/Decoding delay (to and from memory)

The three main "control" signals of interest which determine memory access are that of $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ (read to valid data in), $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AD}}$ (valid address to valid data in) and tLDR (address latch enable to valid data in). When dealing with different types of memories, one or more of these signals becomes important. Even though memory access compatibility is probably one of the most important parameters to consider, as this is directly reflected in the price of the memory, it is not the only parameter that is important. Some of the other major timing considerations are as follows:
WRITE ENABLE - Is the write enable signal sufficiently long to guarantee a write?
Is data set up properly with respect to this write to be compatible with the memory's requirements?
Is data held long enough?
DATA FLOAT - Does your system have sufficient margin to prevent bus contention?
(i.e., Does the memory let go of the data bus in time for the processor to use it? Remember that the 8085A shares its Data Bus with the lower 8 addresses.)


Figure 17. Minimum System

We will first go through the minimum system which can be represented by the dedicated set of components Intel has developed for the 8085A (Fig. 17). The two timing specs were taken from the data catalog for $t_{R D}$ and $t_{A D}$ (tLDR is irrelevant here). Looking at the 8155/6 and 8355/8755A, a comparison can be made for the access times:

|  | $8085 \mathrm{~A}(3.125 \mathrm{MHz})$ | $8155 / 6$ | $8355 / 8755 \mathrm{~A}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| tRD | $300(\max )$ | $170(\max )$ | $170($ max $)$ |
| tAD | $575(\max )$ | $400(\max )$ | $400 / 450($ max $)$ |

This shows that there is plenty of bus margin for the 3.125 MHz minimum application of the 8085A. Access time for the processor can be interpreted as the time from when the control signal is presented on the bus to the time when the processor will expect the data to be valid so it can sample it. Conversely, memory access times show the amount of time that will elapse between when it is told to present its information to when it actually does it. As long as the memory access spec is less than the processor access spec (minus appropriate buffering delays) the memory is access time compatible.

In more complicated systems where one level of data, address and control buffering is required (such as the case when there are many signal paths and device loading on one card), the delays of the latches and bidirectional drivers must be taken into consideration.

First consider a ROM, EPROM or static RAM configuration as shown in Figure 18. Using the generalized available memory access formula, $t_{A D}, t_{R D}$ and $t_{L D R}$ for the memory can be determined using the data sheet timing delays for the buffers.


Figure 18. Medium Buffered System
$t_{A D}$ MEMORY $=t_{A D} 8085 A-(8282+8205$ delay $)-(8286$ delay) + transitional gain due to buffering*
$=$ t $_{\text {AD }} 85-$ (TIVOV $+\mathrm{t}-$-) $-($ TIVOV $)+$ t $^{\text {CAPB }}{ }^{*}$
$=(5 / 2+N) T-225-55-35+15$ $=(5 / 2+N) T-300$ (for 8085A)
$(5 / 2+N) T-225$ (for 8085A-2)
where $N=$ number of wait states and $T=$ cycle time,
For minimum 8085A timing $500 \mathrm{~ns}=\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AD}}$ memory
8085A-2 timing $275 \mathrm{~ns}=\mathrm{t}_{\text {AD }}$ memory
The 8085A timing parameter $t_{\text {AL }}$ was not taken into consideration as the 8282 transfers information directly through without concern of the address latch enable. tRD can be obtained in a similar manner.

The read signal $\overline{R D}$ goes through a buffer before it reaches the memory. This must be taken into consideration when calculating effective tRD for the memory.
$t_{\text {RD }}$ MEMORY $=$ tRD 8085A - (buffer delay) - ( 8286
delay) + transitional gain due to buffering
$=\operatorname{t}_{\text {RD }} 85-$ (delay) $-(T \mathrm{IVOV})+\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{CAPB}}$
$=(3 / 2+N) T-180-30-35+15$
$=(3 / 2+N) T-230$ (for 8085A)
$(3 / 2+N) T-200 \mathrm{~ns}(f o r 8085 \mathrm{~A}-2)$
${ }^{*} \mathrm{t} \mathrm{CAPB}$ is additional time thrown back in for improvement in signal transitions. This is because buffering the signals reduces the capacitive loading considerably. The data sheet gives timings for maximum capacitive loading. Characterization has shown change in delay versus capacitive loading as $.12 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pf}$ min (under 20 pF loading) and $.24 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$ max (under 150 pF loading). To take into consideration the effects of this loading two parameters are defined:
${ }^{t}$ CAPA - delay for a signal to leave the old logic level
${ }^{t}$ CAPB - delay for a signal to complete the transition from the old to new logic level
where ${ }^{t}$ CAPA $=1 / 2{ }^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{CAPB}$

|  | MIN | MAX |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $t_{\text {CAPA }}$ | 7 ns | 15 ns |
| tCAPB | 15 ns | 30 ns |

In the memory compatibility calculations tCAPB min is added on as spec sheet values assume 150 pF loading and this system is not worst case, i.e., it has buffering that reduces this loading to approximately 20 pf. Since the CAP = 130 pF and change in delay versus capacitance is $1 / 2 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$ min, t CAPBMIN $=$ $(.1 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}) 130 \mathrm{pF}=$ approx. 15 ns .

For minimum 8085A timing $\quad 250 \mathrm{~ns}=\mathrm{t}$ RD memory 8085A-2 timing $100 \mathrm{~ns}=\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ memory

Therefore for tLDR:
tLDR MEMORY = tLDR 8085 - (buffer delay) - (8205)
$-(8286)+$ tCAPB
$=\mathrm{t}$ LDR - (delay) $-(\mathrm{t}--)-($ TIVOV $)+{ }^{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{CAPB}$
$=2 \mathrm{~T}-180-30-20-35+15$
$=2 \mathrm{~T}-250$ for 8085 A
$=2 \mathrm{~T}-200$ for 8085A-2
For minimum 8085 timing $=390 \mathrm{~ns}$
8085A-2 timing $=200 \mathrm{~ns}$
To obtain memory access parameters for a multicard system (which would have buffering at both ends of the system bus), it is a simple matter of subtracting off the additional buffering delays.

With these timings a memory compatibility table can be developed from the data sheets (Table 3). With most of these memories it is relatively straightforward to determine the controlling signal used to select and enable the device. To illustrate this, listed below are the controlling signals of interest for the different memories as they are used in a typical configuration:

Relevant Control Signal
RAM
2114

| Address access | - tad MEM |
| :---: | :---: |
| Chip select access | - tLDR MEM** |
| Address access | - ${ }_{\text {tad }}$ MEM |
| Chip select access | - tLDR MEM** |
| Output enable | - trD MEM |

ROM
**Chip selects for these static RAMs need not be qualified with ALE. If 2114 or 2142 chip selects are generated directly from the address lines, the relevant timing is $t_{A D} M E M$.

|  | 3.125 MHz | 5 MHz |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MINIMUM SYSTEM: |  |  |
| STATIC RAM | 8155/8156, (256x8) <br> 8185 (1Kx8) | $\begin{aligned} & 8155-2 / 8156-2 \\ & 8185-2 \end{aligned}$ |
| ROM/EPROM | $\begin{array}{r} 8355(2 K \times 8) \\ 8755 \mathrm{~A}(2 K \times 8) \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8355-2 \\ & 8755 A-2 \end{aligned}$ |
| BUFFERED SYSTEM: |  |  |
| STATIC RAM | 2114 (1Kx4) | $\begin{aligned} & 2114-2 \\ & 2142-2 \end{aligned}$ |
| ROM/EPROM | 2732 (4Kx8) |  |
|  | 2716-2 (2Kx8) | 2716-2** |
| *Contact Intel for high performance EPROM/ROM Family. <br> **With 1 wait state. |  |  |

Table 3. 8085A, A-2 Memory Compatibility.

In general, $t_{A D}$ MEM and tLDR MEM are the parameters needed for chip enabling, selection and address access times, and probably are the most important considerations when determining which memory device to use. When there is an output enable, tRD MEM is also used. All relevant access times must be met by the resulting system configuration to be compatible.
This note will not attempt to generalize a procedure that deals with the interface to dynamic RAM, but the 2117 example shown earlier is described below. In the dynamic RAM system, many variables come into play upon which the memory access is dependent. Among these are refresh controllers, decoding, whether or not the system is designed for minimum hardware or maximum performance, and consideration for nonmultiplexed vs. multiplexed address dynamic RAMs.

For the Intel 2107C, which has nonmultiplexed addresses, tAD is the important parameter as it generates the chip selects and chip enables. However, with a multiplexed address part, things are different and both a $\overline{R A S}$ and $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ access time must be considered. Note that since $\overline{R A S}$ is applied before $\overline{C A S}, \widetilde{R A S}$ access time is effective only while the $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ signal stays within the specified $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ to $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ delay time. If it is not possible to do this, $\overline{C A S}$ access becomes the limiting factor for memory selection. Don't be mislead by the RAS to CAS maximum delay (tRCD: $\overline{\text { RAS }}$ to $\overline{C A S}$ delay time) spec'd on dynamic RAM data sheets! This maximum only applies to guarantee $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}$ access.

For a specific example the following shows how the speed versions were selected for previous 2117 dynamic RAM interface.

| $\overline{R A S}$ path (from ALE) | approximate delay |
| :---: | :---: |
| 5 gates | 7 ns ea |
| 1 Flip Flop | 15 ns |
| (return path) 28216 s | 25 ns ea |
| $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ path (from ALE) | approximate delay |
| 3 gates | 7 ns ea |
| 1 Flip Flop | 15 ns |
| 4 D Flip Flops | 41 ns ea |

${ }^{\text {t ACCESS }}$ AVAILABLE FOR $\overline{\text { RAS }}=$

$$
\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{LDR}}-5(7)-15-2(25)=360 \mathrm{~ns}
$$

${ }^{\mathrm{t}}$ ACCESS AVAILABLE FOR $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}=$
tLDR - 3(7) - $15-4(41)-2(25)=210 \mathrm{~ns}$
Since $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}$ available time - $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ available time is greater than the spec value for $\overline{R A S}$ to $\overline{\text { CAS }}$ delay on all 2117 specs, $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ access becomes the limiting factor. A $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ access of 165 ns of the 2117-4 is well within the time available.
To verify the other 2117 specs such that there is certainty that this sytem will play, a comparison can be made of the timing specs in the 2117 data sheet to the timings that result in the circuit configuration in Figure 12. When looking at the following timing comparisons, remember that the read cycle is initiated by the falling edge of ALE (Address Latch Enable) and the write from the falling edge of WR (Write). For descriptions of the parameters in Table 4, please refer to a 2117-4 data sheet. Delay assumptions used are shown in Table 5.


Table 4. Bus Compatibility Analysis (see Figure 11)

|  | TAKEN FROM 2117-4 DATA SHEET | DYNAMIC RAM CONFIGURATION |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| WRITE |  |  |
| CYCLE | MIN MAX | MIN $\quad$ MAX |
| tRC | 410 ns | 720 ns |
| tRAS | 250 ns | 307 ns |
| tCAS | 165 ns | 198 ns |
| tWCS | -20 ns | 34 ns |
| tWCH | 75 ns | 164 ns |
| tWCR | 160 ns | 287 ns |
| tWP | 75 ns | 205 ns |
| tRWL | 100 ns | 205 ns |
| tCWL | 100 ns | 205 ns |
| tDS | 0 ns | $23 \mathrm{~ns} *$ |
| tDH | 75 ns | Data held until next cycle |
| tDHR | 160 ns | Data held until next cycle |
| **Data is not valid from the 8085 A |  |  |
| until 40 ns after $\overline{W R}$ falls. |  |  |

## Table 4. Bus Compatibility Analysis (see Figure 11) (Cont'd)

The numbers in Table 4 were obtained by using the following delay assumptions (Table 5) and very conservative techniques of obtaining minimum 8085A timings. Where no direct specification applied, minimum specs were added assuming 0 ns for any rise or fall times. This is more conservative than necessary. Another approach can be made from the clock related timings discussed in an earlier section.

| DELAY |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | MIN | MAX |  |
| Gates | 0 ns | 7 ns |  |
| Flip Flops | 0 ns | 15 ns |  |
| 8216s | 0 ns | 30 ns |  |
| D flip flop | 41 ns | 41 ns |  |
| (Timing Chain) |  |  |  |
| 3242 | 0 ns | 25 ns | (Min Ons for |
| 8212 | 0 ns | 30 ns | synchronization D FF) |

Table 5. Delay Assumptions
An exhaustive approach as Table 4 will more than pay itself back in terms of debugging the circuit. However, while this analysis may be helpful in understanding an existing circuit, it won't help as much in creating a new one. A general procedure for designing with memories is itemized below:

1. Determine how much processor time is available for memory access. Access from addresses is the most important parameter.
2. Determine how much buffering will be used (both to and from the memory) and how much delay there will be due to decode or qualifications in the circuit (in the memory design in Fig. 11, $\overline{\mathrm{WR}}$ qualifies a write). Subtract these resulting delays from step 1 to get an effective access for the memory. If multiplexed address RAM is used go to 3 , if not go to 4 .
3. Determine how the $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ timings will be generated, be it one shots, delay lines, shift registers, etc. Adjust memory access available for the method chosen.
4. Select a memory that meets this criterion.
5. Design the system to meet all the specified parameters of the memory and verify.

Steps 1, 2 and 4 have been done for you in the Memory Compatibility Table for ROM, EPROM and Static RAM memories in a medium and minimum system. Remember - for dynamic RAM, Intel will soon be providing an 8202, a refresh, dynamic RAM controller that generates all $\overline{\mathrm{RAS}}, \overline{\mathrm{CAS}}$ control signals for a 64 kByte memory (made of 2117s).

## Peripheral Compatibility-3.125 and $5 \mathbf{M H z}$

Intel supports its processors with many LSI peripheral components that do a wide range of functions to simplify circuit design. The 8085A compatible peripherals have been denoted the " -5 " notation to show compatibility. The " -5 " notation also signifies that these devices are compatible with the 8085A-2 with one wait state interjected. This wait state is produced by taking the ready line low at the proper time as shown in Figure 19.
A list of these peripherals is shown in Table 6 with corresponding relevant specifications to illustrate 8085A-2 compatibility. The analysis for determining the resulting timings is similar to the analysis in the previous memory compatibility section.


Figure 19. 8085A-2 Wait State Generator

| Part No. | AC. Parameter | Min. <br> (ns) | Max. <br> (ns) | 8085A-2 <br> AC. Parameter | $\begin{gathered} \text { Margin } \\ \text { vs. }-2 \text { Spec. } \\ \text { (ns) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8251A | $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RD }}$ |  | 200 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | ${ }^{*} 150$ |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ \& t $W_{\text {A }}$ | 0 |  | $t_{\text {cA }}$ | 60 |
|  | tow | 150 |  | tow | 80 |
|  | twD | 0 |  | two | 60 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& $t_{W W}$ | 250 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{C}}$ | *180 |
|  | $t_{A R}$ \& $t_{A W}$ | 0 |  | $t_{\text {AC }}$ |  |
| 8253-5 | ${ }_{\text {t }}$ D |  | 200 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | *150 |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ | 5 |  | tca | 55 |
|  | twa | 30 |  | ${ }_{\text {t }}$ CA | 60 |
|  | tow | 250 |  | tbw | *180 |
|  | ${ }^{\text {tw }}$ D | 30 |  | twD | 30 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& twW | 300 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{C}}$ | *130 |
|  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RV}}$ | 1000 |  | $t_{\text {RV }}$ | ** |
|  | ${ }^{\text {AR }}$ \& $t_{\text {AW }}$ | 50 |  | $t_{A C}$ | 65 |
| 8255A-5 | $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RD }}$ |  | 200 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | *150 |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ | 0 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{C} A}$ | 60 |
|  | twA | 20 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\text {ca }}$ | 40 |
|  | $t_{\text {DW }}$ | 100 |  | tow | 130 |
|  | twD | 30 |  | twD | 30 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& twW | 300 |  | ${ }^{\text {che }}$ | *130 |
|  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RV}}$ | 850 |  | tr ${ }_{\text {r }}$ | ** |
|  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AR}}$ \& $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AW}}$ | 0 |  | $t_{\text {AC }}$ | 115 |
| 8257-5 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ |  | 200 | $\mathrm{t}_{\text {RD }}$ | *150 |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ \& twA | 0 |  | $t_{C A}$ | 60 |
|  | ${ }_{\text {t }}$ W | 200 |  | tow | 30 |
|  | ${ }_{\text {tw }}$ | 0 |  | two | 60 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ | 250 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{cc}}$ | *180 |
|  | tww | 200 |  | ${ }^{\text {t }} \mathrm{C}$ | 30 |
|  | $t_{\text {AR }}$ | 0 |  | $t_{A C}$ | 115 |
|  | ${ }^{\text {A }}$ AW | 20 |  | $t_{A C}$ | 95 |
| $\begin{aligned} & 8271 \& \\ & 8273 \end{aligned}$ | $t_{\text {AD }}$ |  | 200 | $t_{A D}$ | *350 |
|  | ${ }_{\text {t }}^{\text {RD }}$ |  | 150 | $t_{\text {RD }}$ | *200 |
|  | ${ }_{\text {t }}$ CA | 0 |  | t CA | 60 |
|  | tDW | 150 |  | tDw | 80 |
|  | ${ }^{\text {twD }}$ | 0 |  | two | 80 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& twW | 250 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{c}}$ | ${ }^{*} 180$ |
|  | $t_{A C}$ | 0 |  | ${ }^{\text {t }}$ A | 115 |
| 8275 | $t_{\text {RD }}$ |  | 200 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | ${ }^{*} 150$ |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ \& t ${ }_{\text {W }}$ | 0 |  | ${ }^{\text {t }}$ CA | 60 |
|  | tow | 150 |  | tow | 80 |
|  | two | 0 |  | ${ }^{\text {two }}$ | 60 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& tww | 250 |  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{C}$ | *180 |
|  | $t_{A P}$ \& $t_{A W}$ | 0 |  | ${ }^{\text {t }}{ }_{\text {A }}$ | 115 |
| 8279-5 | ${ }^{\text {A }}$ AD |  | 250 | ${ }_{\text {t }}{ }_{\text {d }}$ | 300 |
|  | ${ }_{\text {t }}^{\text {RD }}$ |  | 150 | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{RD}}$ | 200 |
|  | $t_{\text {RA }}$ \& twA | 0 |  | ${ }_{t}$ CA | 60 |
|  | tow | 150 |  | tow | 80 |
|  | two | 0 |  | two | 60 |
|  | $t_{\text {RR }}$ \& twW | 250 |  | tcc | *180 |
|  | tracy | 1000 |  | triv | ** |
|  | $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AP}}$ \& $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{AW}}$ | 0 |  | $t_{A C}$ | 115 |

Table 6. Peripherals vs. 8085A-2
*With 1 "Wait State"
**Must allow for in Software

Taking note of asterisked margins shown on the comparison sheet: $t_{A D}, t_{R D}$, tRR and tDW, it is seen that they are all taken care of by introducing a wait state. The double asterisked margins deal with the tRV spec on the 8255A-5, 8253-5 and 8279-5 peripherals. tRV is the time from the rising edge of $\overline{W R}$ or $\overline{R D}$ to the next falling edge. To allow sufficient time for this spec it is necessary to delay the commands sent to these three peripherals. Enough dead time must occur to make up for the entire negative portion of the margin (for example: 790 ns in the $8253-5$ medium system). Since in the 8085A-2 every machine cycle is at least 200 ns long, 4 machine cycles are sufficient time to allow peripheral control signal recovery (tRV).
One may notice that all of the 8085A instructions take at least 4 T-states (providing a minimum of 800 ns ) giving ample time to meet this requirement, just by programming one instruction in between every command sent to the peripheral. I/O mapped I/O, which results in using the Input, Output instructions has this delay time built in when moving the data to be transferred into the accumulator. With memory mapped I/O, any instruction that accesses memory for data will provide the time necessary to not violate $t_{R V}$ as a second fetch is performed.

## Bus - Loading Considerations - Decoupling

For the cost conscious designer it is always helpful to know when buffering is needed and when it is not. How much can I load the 8085A output pins down? To answer this it is helpful to first list the DC requirements of the common types of logic loading and compare this to the capabilities of the 8085A.

|  | Maximum <br> High-Level <br> Input Current | Maximum <br> Low-Level |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Input Current |  |  |

The 8085 A is capable of an IOL of 2 mA (low) and IOH of $-400 \mu \mathrm{~A}$. With this spec it is easy to come up with the possible combinations of D.C. loading that the designer can use without buffering:

| LOADS | 8085A, <br> A-2 limiting factor (level) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1 TTL + 1 LSTTL | LOW |
| $1 \mathrm{TTL}+36 \mathrm{MOS}^{*}$ | HIGH |
| 1 SCHOTTKY or 1 HTTL | LOW |
| 40 MOS (various combinations possible)* | HIGH |
| 5 LS TTL | LOW |

If a user exceeds these DC loading limitations he must buffer that particular signal. Another factor that the designer must consider is the capacitive load that is seen by the 8085A outputs, which may very well be excessive even if DC loading is not. One may note that even though the 8085A can handle a DC load of 40 MOS devices or 36 MOS +1 TL , their collective input capacitances exceed the 150 pF max spec.

The timing specs of the 8085A are guaranteed as long as the 150 pF maximum loading is not exceeded, which includes the wires, components and parasitics. If the user exceeds this value and wants to guarantee his system timing he must either derate the system timings or use buffering.

What if you choose to ignore this limit and say you can live with the performance degradation? First the timing performance is not all that would degrade, a user must be willing to give up some reliability of his components (All MOS devices have this restraint). This is caused by the excessive switching currents that are needed for this extra loading capacitance. If reliability is not an important consideration, the user can load up to 300 pF on the 8085A bus, but the following correction factors must be used to adjust the timings:
for $150 \mathrm{pF}<300 \mathrm{pF}$ add $.13 \mathrm{~ns} / \mathrm{pF}$
conversely if less than 150 pF :
for $25<\mathrm{CL}<150 \mathrm{pF}$ you can subtract $.1 / \mathrm{ns} / \mathrm{pF}$.

What happens after 300 pF ? If the user exceeds this, the noise levels become excessive and problems will result. How much is to much noise? 350 mvolts zero to peak. Prudent designers will always buffer when noise approaches this level, especially in the case of going from one board to another.

The above takes into consideration the actual specification considerations of when to buffer, but there are also transmission line and noise effects that must be considered. When working with dynamic RAMs small (20-30 ohm) resistors are commonly put in series in the address lines to help match impedance levels and reduce reflections. Note that this resistor should be chosen such that it does not severely degrade the voltage levels of the signal. Long parallel board traces with signals that could adversely affect each other should also be avoided to prevent cross talk problems.

By-passing is very important to prevent intermittent problems which often plague the board designer. Large bulk capacitors should be used at strategic locations on the board to prevent power supply droop. This becomes a major factor when there are many devices that can turn on at once and produce a considerable drain from the power supply (such as burst refresh in dynamic RAM).

To help smooth out the current spikes that naturally occur when devices turn on and off, it is recommended to liberally use small capacitors such as the monolithic and other ceramic capacitors which have low inherent inductance. Attached in the 2117 data sheet is a suggested layout of capacitors to effectively bypass the supply lines to ensure proper system operation. Cutting corners here will often times turn around and bite you.

Proper layout is an important consideration. Power supply lines should be well gridded to supply sufficient current to all areas of the board. A strong ground layout is advised to offset noise problems. Remember if the ground plane moves up in voltage because of excessive charge dumping in a particular area, the supply will drift up correspondingly. Sensing low levels often becomes an intermittent problem when proper ground is not provided.

## APPLICATION EXAMPLE 1

## MINIMUM SYSTEM APPLICATION AS A TEMPERATURE SENSOR

## Overview

Following is an application example that illustrates the use of the interrupt and SOD pins on the 8085A, software for a block search routine, and the procedure for using and reading the 8155 counter. It is a simple application showing the use of the small but powerful 3 -chip MCS-85 system as a temperature sensor (SDK-85 board used). This example can be modified to be an accurate industrial temperature controller, for several locations if desired.
The basic operation behind this application is a monostable multivibrator having its timing pulse duration controlled by a thermistor. The counter in the 8155 converts this timing pulse to a decimal count that is software mapped into a temperature and displayed in degrees C in the address field of the display in the SDK-85 Kit. For the purpose of keeping the software relatively simple, many approximations were incorporated into the code.

## Detailed Hardware

The basic SDK kit was used for the initial hardware. This Kit provides for everything necessary to develop and debug a program through the use of the SDK-85 monitor, keyboard and display board. The kit provides for 256 bytes of RAM resident in the 8155 and 2 K bytes of ROM or EPROM where the SDK-85 monitor is placed. (See the Intel SDK-85 User's Manual for copy of monitor software code.)
Figure 20 is a schematic of the SDK-85 Kit with only one 8155 and 8355 . There is no buffering in this system as all compo-
nents are on the same board and far below the maximum component loading. A monostable multivibrator (74121) is also shown with a thermistor connected to RE/CE.

The SOD output pin from the 8085A is used for the purpose of starting the monostable multivibrator in generating its temperature controlled timing pulse. This pulse is created by the RC time constant provided for by the thermistor acting as a variable resistor and a $.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor to put the timing pulse in the desired timing range.

The inverted output of the monostable multivibrator (one shot) has been directly connected to the RST 6.5 pin on the 8085A. Since this pin is high level sensitive, it is necessary to disable interrupts in the program until after the pulse from the one shot goes low.

The hardware addressing in the configuration shown allows for several code spaces that could be used. The RST and TRAP interrupt lines on the 8085A also have hardware start addresses but many of these are altered by the SDK monitor. Table 7 should be useful in understanding the addresses used in the software that follows. Each memory/ I/O component in the basic SDK-85 system is enabled by a signal coming from the 8205 address decoder. Since no expansion chips are used, output enables 00 ( 8355 monitor ROM), 03 ( 8279 Keyboard) and 04 ( 8155 RAM) were the only ones needed. Additional memory and/or I/O could have been incorporated using other output enables from the 8205.


Since the monitor uses locations 10C8 through 20FF, the stack pointer must be initialized to 20 C 8 or less.

|  | 8085A jump address | Usage | monitor mapped address |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| trap | 24 H | T0 of 8155 | 0157 |
| RST 5.5 | 2 CH | 8279 interrupt | 028E |
| RST 6.5 | 34 H | oneshot interrupt | 20CE |
| RST 7.5 | 3 CH | vector interrupt |  |


| I/O ports address |  | Function |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
| 00 |  | Monitor ROM Port A (8355) |
| 02 |  | Monitor ROM Port B (8355) |
| 03 |  | Monitor ROM Port A (8355) Data direction register |
| 20 | Basic command/status register direction register |  |
| 21 | Basic RAM Port A |  |
| 22 | Basic RAM Port B |  |
| 23 | Basic RAM Port C |  |
| 24 | Basic RAM LOW order byte of timer count |  |
| 25 | Basic RAM HIGH order byte of timer count |  |

Table 7. Addressing


Figure 20. Detailed SDK-85 Kit with Temperature Sensor

## Software

The software (at end of section) for this application illustrates several features of the 8085A, such as the programming of the SOD line, interrupts and 8155 counter. Additionally, an example of a block search routine is illustrated.

Figure 21 is a flow diagram of the program. It has been cross referenced with program lines to the actual software for the reader's convenience. Following through the flow diagram it is seen that the interrupts are disabled in the beginning as the one shot is outputting a high level on its Q output and interrupt pin 6.5 is high level sensitive. However, this high level will not be recognized until the level goes low and then high again. If the user would prefer a positive pulse interrupt the 8085A a dual one shot can be used with one triggering the other, or just a simple inverter. Starting and loading the counter is as described in the 8155 data sheet with the Port addresses being given in the previous Table (7). Code lines 18-23 represent placing the counter in the counter mode (single terminal count pulse at the end of count) and starting the count, having the count clocked by the 8085A clock out pin. Reading the counter is not as straight forward and will be approached shortly. Code lines 28-32 are representative of programming the SOD line to output a pulse. This pin is intended for serial I/O interfaces such as a teletype, but as seen in this application, it can also be used as a single I/O port.

After the pulse is presented to the one shot, the interrupts enabled, the processor idles (lines 36, 37; Halt could have just as easily been used) until interrupted. Through the design of this application it was known that the down counter would never reach terminal count, as it is only being used as a pulse to digital count converter.

To read in the count value it is best that the counter is first stopped. The least and most significant bytes of the count length register in the 8155 are read using the same port addresses as was used during loading the counter, as seen in code lines 42-47. If one looks at this value and knows how many pulses occurred, he would come to the conclusion that there is a gross discrepancy! The reason for this is that the counter in the 8155/6 was designed to make its square wave function generation easy and when used in the counter mode, it counts by two's. For this application (where length of time is mapped into a temperature) and other similar event timing applications it is imperative to have an intelligible count returned from the 8155.

The counter in the 8155 is essentially a count down by 2 counter. After it counts down by 2 the initial value loaded by the user, it reloads the initial count (initial count - 1 if odd) and counts down by 2 again until terminal count is reached. When reading the counter, the least significant bit of the counter does not represent the least significant bit of the count, but which half of the countdown operation you are in. If this bit equals 1, the 8155/6 counter is counting down by 2 in the first half, and if it is zero you are in the second half of the operation. Because of this method of down counting there are two restrictions placed on its use:

1. The user can not use the initial value of 1 to detect only one pulse.
2. The user can not discern (through reading the counter) whether exactly one or two pulses on the timer input pin has occurred if he loaded in an initial odd count (does not apply to even). After three pulses the user can determine exactly how many pulses occurred. Note that this restriction only applies to reading the counter, the $\overline{T 0}$ pin pulses correctly after the correct number of pulses regardless of what is read from the counter.

The first pulse to the 8155/6 counter (high level sensitive) loads the count length register, which says that the counter is not readable until a pulse occurs. If the user tries to read before a pulse is provided he will read a previous or old value. Now what is done with the value read?

Good question. An adjustment routine to convert this value read to an actual count can be summarized as follows:

1. Read in 16 bit count length register.
2. Reset the upper two bits (mode bits).
3. Reset carry and rotate right all 16 bits through carry.
4. If carry is set add $1 / 2$ of full original count ( $1 / 2$ (full count -1 ) if full count is odd).

In the software for this application is a general purpose routine to do this; lines 179-199. To call this routine it is assumed that the lower order byte of the counter is in register C , higher order byte in register $B$ and full original count is in HL. Contents of $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{B}$ and C are destroyed returning actual count in BC register pair. To obtain the number of pulses that occurred, subtract this number from full original count and add 1.

Converting this remaining count to an actual temperature can be done by various methods but it was chosen to do a software map through the use of a block search routine. Table 8 presents approximations of what the remaining count should be for each temperature. To keep the software simple it was only necessary to compare the most significant byte to a list to find the appropriate temperature. This search routine is set up to find a "less than" match, incrementing the HL register as a pointer when a compare is made. The code for this search routine is in lines 118-144 and is optimized to be a fast 8 byte block search. This search routine can be made to search for a match by replacing all return on carry with return on zero. The performance of this subroutine is as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Byte time } & =(11+(166 / 8) \mathrm{N}) \mathrm{CC} / \mathrm{N}=(11 / \mathrm{N}+20.8) \mathrm{CC} \\
\text { where: } \mathrm{CC} & =\text { microseconds per clock cycle } \\
\mathrm{N} & =\text { total number of bytes searched } \\
\text { Byte time } & =\text { time per byte searched }
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 21. Temperature Sensor Flow Diagram

| DEG. C | THERMISTOR OHMS | $(.7)(.1 \mu)\left(R_{T}\right)$ <br> APPROX. TIME (ms) | START WITH 3FFE ${ }_{\text {H }}$ APPROX. COUNT LEFT (HEX) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 20 | 12,490 | . 874 | 3585 |
| 21 | 11,940 | . 836 | 35FA |
| 22 | 11,420 | . 799 | 366A |
| 23 | 10,920 | . 764 | 36D5 |
| 24 | 10,450 | . 732 | 373A |
| 25 | 10,000 | . 7 | 3772 |
| 26 | 9,573 | . 670 | 37D0 |
| 27 | 9,167 | . 642 | 384D |
| 28 | 8,777 | . 614 | 38A1 |
| 29 | 8,407 | . 588 | 38F1 |
| 30 | 8,057 | . 564 | 393C |
| 31 | 7,723 | . 541 | 3984 |
| 32 | 7,403 | . 518 | 39 C 8 |
| 33 | 7,097 | . 497 | 3A0A |
| 34 | 6,807 | . 476 | 3 A 48 |
| 35 | 6,530 | . 457 | 3A84 |
| 36 | 6,267 | . 439 | 3ABC |
| 37 | 6,017 | . 421 | 3AF2 |
| 38 | 5,747 | . 402 | 3B2C |
| 39 | 5,547 | . 388 | 3B57 |
| 40 | 5,327 | . 373 | 3B86 |
| 41 | 5,117 | . 358 | 3BB3 |

## 8085A Cycle Time $=326 \mathrm{~ns}$



Oneshot Approx. Time $=$
$L_{\mathrm{N} 2}$ (CEXT) (REXT)
$\approx(.7)(.1 \mu) R_{\text {thermistor }}$
Table 8. Thermistor Resistance Mapping

For an example with $\mathrm{N}=256, \mathrm{CC}=.32 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ at 3.125 MHz ; Byte time $=6.7 \mu \mathrm{sec}$. A match search routine with minimum memory usage is given below:

| Search | Cmp M RZ | compare byte return if match |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | INX H | else increment pointer |
|  | DCR C | has the entire |
|  | JNZ search | block been searched? |
|  | STC | If so set no match flag |
|  | RET | and return. |

In this application, a user may want to have several temperature ranges which can be swapped in and out with a block move subroutine. Similar code can be developed for this as shown below for a 4 byte move group:

| BLKMV | LXI H, OOOH | clear HL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | DAD SP | move SP to HL |
|  | SHLD SAVESP | save sP |
|  | MOV H, B | move Block move |
|  | MOV L, C | Source address |
|  | SPHL | To SP |
|  | XCHG | Move Block move <br> address to HL |
|  |  | POP B |
|  | POP D | fetch four bytes from |
|  | MOV M, C | source store 1st byte |
|  | at destination |  |

Once the count less than match is found in the application the HL register has 10 added to it which points it at the corresponding temperature (lines 79-82). This temperature is then displayed in the address field of the SDK 85 display using user available monitor routines. If the temperature is out of range the code detects it (lines 69-74) and outputs 1's on Port A or Port B if the temperature was too low or too high respectively (lines 101-105 "too low" and lines 108-112 "too high").

## APPLICATION EXAMPLE 2

## CRT INTERFACE

Most microprocessor systems require some sort of serial communications. This may be selected for reasons of economy (to reduce the number of interconnections required in a distributed system), or it may be necessary in order to communicate with such common peripherals as CRT's or teletypewriters.
These peripherals all use a standard convention for transmitting serial ASCII code. Each data byte is transmitted as a series of 10 or 11 bits. The uniform time per bit corresponds to the data transmission rate. For example, if the transmission rate is to be 2400 baud ( 2400 bits per second), each bit time must be $1 / 2400 \mathrm{bps}=416.7 \mu \mathrm{sec} / \mathrm{bit}$. The standard 10 -bit sequence consists of a logically zero "Start" bit, 8 data bits (least significant bit first), and one or more stop bits (logic 1). An 11 -bit sequence with two stop bits is used for 110 baud TTY's. The logic one level continues until the start bit of the next byte to ensure that each 10-bit sequence is initiated with a one-to-zero transition. The 8 bits transferred might be raw binary data or alphanumeric characters using the standard ASCII code. In this case, the most significant bit - the last data bit transmitted - will depend on the parity convention being used. This sequence is illustrated for the ASCII "space" character in Figure 22.

The algorithm for receiving serial code involves sampling the incoming data at the middle of each bit time. The eight sampled values are shifted into a serial byte corresponding to the data originally transmitted. The one-to-zero transition at the beginning of each byte makes it possible to synchronize the sampling points relative to the start of each data sequence.

## Hardware Interface

In general, any serial communications system will require both hardware and software interfaces. Since the SOD line can drive only one TTL load, additional current and voltage buffering is required to be compatible with the RS-232C interface standard used by most peripherals. A schematic for achieving this buffering is shown in Figure 23. The MC1488 and MC1489 circuits interface positive logic TTL signals with the RS-232 high voltage inverted logic levels.

## Software Package

The software needed to drive the CRT interface is divided into three parts. All three use software timing and delay loops, with fixed and variable parameters. In conjunction, they are able to identify incoming signals at any rate from below 110 to over 9600 baud and respond at the same rate.


Figure 22. ASCII Space Character


Figure 23. RS-232C Interface Schematic

Upon power-up or reset, or when the console device baud rate is changed, the baud rate identification subroutine (BRID) is called. This routine waits until an ASCII space character $(20 \mathrm{H})$ is received from the console. (Any other character will result in a case of mistaken identification.) When a space character is received, two time parameters are computed which correspond to the bit time and one-half the bit time of the baud rate being used. These are stored as variables BITTIME and HALFBIT. To output a character to the console, the character code is placed in register C, and the subroutine COUT is called. This routine uses BITTIME as a parameter for the software delay loop which determines the baud rate. To accept i . character from the keyboard, CIN is called. CIN returns after the next key is typed, with the corresponding character code in register C. CIN uses both parameters BITTIME and HALFBIT.

Since COUT and CIN use time parameters computed by BRID, they will function at a rate the same as that of the initial space character input. Because of the nature of the software, the rate does not depend on the CPU clock frequency. This
results in additional flexibility in the following respects:

1. The software does not need to be modified if the 8085 crystal frequency is changed or Wait states are added.
2. Since the time base is no longer critical, the quartz crystal could be replaced by a less expensive RC network, provided the frequency does not drift by more than a few percent during a session. Additional drift can be accommodated by periodically recalling the BRID routine.
3. Communication is possible at non-standard baud rates which relaxes the constraints on system peripherals.
It should be noted, though, that slowing down the CPU clock will decrease its throughput proportionately. In addition, it will degrade the maximum resolution of the delay loops, with the result that the highest baud rates may no longer be achievable.

A more detailed analysis of the CRT interface routines will be presented in the order of increasing complexity: COUT, CIN, and BRID. Since SID and

SOD are ideal for many applications which involve critical I/O timing, the timing techniques used here may be of interest to software designers. Accordingly, the mathematical derivation of the timing parameters is included in this analysis, as well as a justification for the BRID algorithm. The algebra involved might be a bit too tedious for designers unconcerned with generating software delays. If so, they (and other bored readers) have the freedom of choice to skip over the sections they find objectionable.

## OUTPUT ROUTINE

It would seem natural to write data in the standard format in three stages: output a zero start bit, then the 8 data bits (using a loop sequence), then the stop bits. Each stage would incorporate its own appropriate delay and output sections, leading to unnecessary duplication. Instead, the code below executes the same main loop 11 times. Its bit manipulation routine inherently results in the correct data sequence being formed. It accomplishes this by using the carry and C register as a 9 -hit pseudo-circular shift register. Initially $\mathrm{CY}=0$. The algorithm outputs CY, waits one bit time, sets $\mathrm{CY}=1$, and then rotates the pseudo-register right one bit. This repeats for 11 cycles. On the tenth and all subsequent loops, the output bit will be a logical one, since that bit had been set nine loops earlier while in the CY (see Figure 24).

When COUT is called the registers to be used must be preserved and interrupts disabled so the timing loop will not be disrupted. Clear the CY in preparation for outputting the start bit, and set the loop counter for 11 bits (if 110 baud will never be used, the counter could be set to 10 ):

| Tout. |  | E |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | FISH | ب |
|  | 01 |  |
|  | MRT | $\square$ |
|  | MHI | E. 11 |

Output of the contents of the CY :

| 04 : | MuI | 9.98 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Pper |  | 4) |
|  | SIM |  | 4) |

The numbers in brackets indicate how many macine cycles are required for each instruction. They will be referred to in the timing analysis section.


Figure 24. Data Serialization Algorithm

Get stuck in a loop for the appropriate time (don't worry for now how "BITTIME" is determined):

|  | LHLO | BITTIME | 16 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 02 | Or | - | (i) |
|  | N2 | 0 e | (b) |
|  | OP | H | (i) |
|  | M2 | 0 L | (0) |

Rotate the contents of register C right into the CY, while moving a one into the left end. Continue until all bits have been transmitted:

| $5 \pi$ |  | (4) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 400 | $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{~S}$ | 4. |
| Pres |  | 4 |
| MOH | EP | (4) |
| 0 C | 8 | $4{ }^{4}$ |
| M2 | 01 | (10) |

[^2]| POP | $H$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| PUT | P |
| EI |  |
| DET |  |

## INPUT ROUTINE

The console input routine uses the opposite procedure; instead of moving a bit from register C to the CY, then to $A_{7}$, then to SOD, CIN loads a bit from SID into $\mathrm{A}_{7}$, then moves it to CY , then into register C .
First, set up the CPU as before:

CIM | Cich | $H$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | al |  |
|  | Mul | $E$ |

When a start bit transition arrives, the first sampling should not be taken until the middle of the first data bit, one and one-half bit times after the transition. Await the start bit transition, then set up the delay parameter for one-half bit time:

| IT. | Pim |  | (4) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | IPM | H | (4) |
|  | JM | 111 | \% |
|  | HLE | MGLFEIT | 16 |

Loop for one-half bit time before starting to sample data:

| $\mathrm{Cl}_{12}$ | ur | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ma | Cl |
|  | dCo | ب |
|  | Jnz | Cl 2 |

Wait until the middle of the next bit before sampling SID, then move the data bit into CY:

| 013 | Lheo | gitilic | 10 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C14: | cor | L | (0) |
|  | JME | Cl 4 | (b) |
|  | are | H | (0) |
|  | $\mathrm{m} / \mathrm{S}$ | 014 | (0) |
|  | 9 Cm |  | (4) |
|  | PqL |  | 4 |

Decrement the bit counter. If this is the ninth cycle, the 8 data bits are in register C, so quit (the first stop bit will already have been received, and be in CY):

| $0 C P$ | $E$ | $G\rangle$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $j$ | 015 | $6 \%$ |

Otherwise, continue. Rotate the data bit right into register C , and repeat the cycle:

| MOY | H, E | (4) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PAP |  | (4) |
| H0Y | 0 | 4) |
| N(b)' |  | 4 |
| JMP | 15 | 10) |

(A NOP is needed to make the COUT and CIN loops exactly equal in number of machine cycles, so that each can use the same delay parameter.) Restore status and return.
CI5 PIF H

## TIMING ANALYSIS

COUT and CIN now need to be provided with parameters for BITTIME and HALFBIT. It can be seen from the above code that each routine uses $61+$ D machine cycles per input or output bit, where $D$ is the number of cycles spent in either four line delay segment. If $\langle\mathrm{H}\rangle$ and $\langle\mathrm{L}\rangle$ are the contents of the H and L registers going into this section of code, then:

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathrm{D}= & 22+(\langle\mathrm{L}\rangle-1) \times 14+(\langle\mathrm{H}\rangle-1) \times \\
& {[(255 \times 14)+25] } \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\text { If } \begin{align*}
\langle\mathrm{H}\rangle^{\prime} \equiv & \langle\mathrm{H}\rangle-1,\langle\mathrm{~L}\rangle^{\prime} \equiv\langle\mathrm{L}\rangle-1, \text { and } \\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime} \equiv 256\langle\mathrm{H}\rangle^{\prime}+\langle\mathrm{L}\rangle^{\prime} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{D}=22+14\langle\mathrm{~L}\rangle^{\prime}+3595\langle\mathrm{H}\rangle^{\prime} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

This can be approximated by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{D}=22+14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This approximation is exact for $\left\langle\mathrm{H}^{\prime}\right\rangle^{\prime}=0$; otherwise, it is accurate to within $0.3 \%$. Thus each loop of COUT or CIN uses a total of:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{C}=61+\mathrm{D}=83+14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime} \text { machine cycles } \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Each machine cycle uses two crystal cycles in the 8085 , so the resulting data rate is:

$$
\begin{align*}
& B=\frac{\text { cycle frequency }}{C} \\
= & \frac{\text { (crystal frequency) } \div 2}{83+14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}} \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

For a typical calculation, see the example below.

## EXAMPLE

To produce 2400 baud with the standard 6.144 MHz crystal:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2400=\frac{\left(6.144 \times 10^{6}\right) \div 2}{83+14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}} \\
& 14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}= \\
& \left(\frac{6.144 \times 10^{6} \div 2}{2400}\right)-83 \\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}= \\
& \\
& \quad\left[\left(\frac{6.144 \times 10^{6} \div 2}{2400}\right)-83\right] \\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}=85.5 \cong 86 \\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle=8610=0056 \mathrm{H} \\
& \langle=0157 \mathrm{H}=\text { BITTIME }
\end{aligned}
$$

To determine the true data rate this parameter will produce, substitute into equation (6):

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Date Rate } & =\frac{6.144 \times 10^{6} \div 2}{83+14(86)} \\
& =2387 \text { baud, which is } 0.54 \% \text { slow. }
\end{aligned}
$$

For 9600 baud, the same calculations will yield $\left\langle\mathrm{HL}\right.$ ) $^{\prime}$ $=17$, which is actually $0.3 \%$ slow; a sizzling 19200 baud or 38400 baud could each be generated to within $5 \%$ if $\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}=6$ or 0 ! Table 9 presents the parameters for several standard baud rates.

Notice that the resolution of the delay algorithm the difference between bit times resulting from parameters which differ by one - is 14 machine cycles. As a result, the true bit delay produced can always manage to be within $\pm 2.3 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ of the delay
desired. This guarantees that at rates up to 9600 baud, where each bit time is at least $104 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ wide, some value of BITTIME can be found which will be accurate to within $2.2 \%$.

## BAUD RATE IDENTIFICATION ROUTINE

The function of BRID is to compute the appropriate parameters BITTIME and HALFBIT. It accomplishes this by observing the data pattern received when the space bar is pressed on the console device. Since a space character has the ASCII code $20 \mathrm{H}=00100000 \mathrm{~B}$, the pattern represented back in Figure 4 is transmitted. Notice that the initial zero level is 6 bits wide. Suppose it could be determined that this corresponds to M machine cycles. Then one bit would correspond to ( $\mathrm{M} \div 6$ ) machine cycles. The reason for dividing down a space several bits long is so that any distortion caused by the signal rise and fall times, or any lack of precision in detecting the two transitions, will be reduced by a factor of six. Since the bit period of COUT and CIN is $83+14$ ( HL$\rangle^{\prime}$, BRID must generate a value $\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}$ such that:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathrm{M} \div 6=83+14\langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}  \tag{7}\\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}=\frac{(\mathrm{M} \div 6)-83}{14}  \tag{8}\\
& \langle\mathrm{HL}\rangle^{\prime}=\frac{\mathrm{M}}{84}-6 \text { (approximately) } \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

This value can be determined by setting register pair HL to -6 , then incrementing it once every 84 machine cycles during the period that the incom-

Table 9
DELAY PARAMETERS FOR STANDARD BAND RATES USING 6.144 MHz CRYSTAL

| TARGET BAUD RATE | $\begin{gathered} \langle H L\rangle^{\prime} 10 \\ \text { (See Text) } \end{gathered}$ | (HL) ${ }_{16}$ <br> (See Text) | (HL) or BITTIME (See Text) | HALFBIT | ACTUAL BAUD RATE PRODUCED | $\%$ ERROR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 110 | 1989 | 07C5 | 08C6 | 04E3 | 109.99 | -0.006 |
| 150 | 1457 | 05B1 | 06B2 | 03D9 | 149.99 | -0.005 |
| 300 | 726 | $02 \mathrm{D6}$ | $03 \mathrm{D7}$ | 026C | 299.80 | -0.068 |
| 600 | 360 | 0168 | 0269 | 01A5 | 599.65 | -0.059 |
| 1200 | 177 | 00B1 | 0182 | 0159 | 1199.5 | -0.039 |
| 2400 | 86 | 0056 | 0157 | 012C | 2386.9 | -0.547 |
| 4800 | 40 | 0028 | 0129 | 0115 | 4777.6 | -0.469 |
| 9600 | 17 | 0011 | 0112 | 0109 | 9570.1 | -0.312 |
| 19200 | 6 | 0006 | 0107 | 0104 | 18395.2 | -4.37 |

ing signal is zero. BITTIME is then obtained by individually incrementing registers H and L . To obtain HALFBIT, divide the value of 〈HL〉' determined above by two before incrementing each register.
In order to implement this algorithm, set HL to -6, verify that the incoming signal is a logic one, then wait for the start bit transition.

| RRID: | MYI |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | SIM |
|  | L.Y. |
| BRII: | RIM |
|  | ORA |
|  | JP |
| EFI2: | RIM |
|  | O4, |
|  | IM |

Increment register pair HL , then delay so that each cycle will require 84 machine cycles:

| ERIS | IN: | H | 6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | MY! | E ¢ ¢ith | \% |
| ERI4: | OEF | E | (5) |
|  | INZ | ERIA | (\%) |

Check if SID is still low. If so, repeat:

| RIM |  | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ORA | A | 4 |
| JF | ERT | (10) |

Otherwise continue. Store HL temporarily for the HALFBIT calculation. Obtain and store BITTIME:

| PUSH | $H$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| INR | $H$ |
| IMP | L |
| SH_D | EITTIME |

Restore HL, calculate HALFBIT, and return:

| FPP | H |
| :---: | :---: |
| ORA | A |
| May | P. H |
| PRP |  |
| M9\% | H. $\mathrm{H}^{\text {r }}$ |
| M | H. ${ }^{\text {L }}$ |
| RHFP |  |
| M194 | L. ${ }^{\text {H }}$ |
| me | H |
| IME: | 1 |
| CHLD | Hencelt |
| PET |  |

The assembled listings for these subroutines, along with a simple test program, is presented in the CRT and Cassette Code.

## APPLICATION EXAMPLE 3

## CASSETTE RECORDER INTERFACE

There are many situations where data has to be transmitted through a non-ideal medium. To give three typical examples, a system with electrically isolated elements might require that signals be AC coupled, communications through an audio network (such as telephone or radio) are greatly bandwidth limited, and some applications (such as a distributed network in an industrial environment) must tolerate random electrical noise. Attempting to record data on a cheap cassette recorder (the one used for this note cost $\$ 17.00$ ) will reveal all of these shortcomings, plus one: The tape speed fluctuates significantly and varies as the batteries run down, hence the data rate is inconsistent.

The recording scheme used here makes very few demands on the transmission medium. It makes no attempt to transmit DC voltage levels. Instead, data is transmitted by a series of variable length tone bursts. The dominant frequency of the tone used can be selected to be within the passband of the particular medium. Data is transmitted with each bit composed of a tone burst followed by a pause. The first third of a bit period is always a tone burst, the middle third is either a tone burst continuous with the first or a pause corresponding to, respectively, a one or zero, and the final third is always a pause, as shown in Figure 25. Thus, data is distinguished by the burst/pause ratio.

## Hardware Design

These tone bursts are obtained from the 8085 SOD line, using analog signal conditioning to eliminate the DC component of the waveform. (This low frequency component is due to the single-ended nature of the SOD line: it's deviations from ground are all positive, which unbalances the capacitive input stage of the recorder.) A suggested interface
circuit is shown in Figure 26, using one LM324 quad op amp and a few standard value discrete components which should be available in even a digital design laboratory. On playback, analog circuitry is again used to detect the presence of a tone burst. In Figure 26, A2 buffers the incoming signal, and A3 inverts it. The peaks of these two signals are transmitted through D1 or D2 and are filtered by an RC network. Comparator A4 then squares up the output and produces the logic signal read by the SID pin. Since the op amps are powered by the single 5 -volt supply, a 2.0 -volt reference level is obtained from a resistive voltage divider. The waveforms present at several points in the circuit are shown in Figure 27.

## Software

The algorithm for reading a data bit off the tape is simple and straightforward: If the tone burst is longer than the pause, the bit is a one. Otherwise, it is a zero. Since only the time ratio is considered, any variation in tape speed will not affect the data determination.

> VOLUME CONTROL
> A question that arises with any audio cassette interface is how to set the volume control. (Recording level is usually determined internally.) When the playback level is correct, the logic signal output from A4 will have either a one-third or two-thirds duty cycle. This can be readily observed with an oscilloscope. In the field, an old-fashioned mechanical-type voltmeter could be connected to the A4 output, and the volume adjusted until the meter needle hovered somewhere between $1 / 3$ and $2 / 3$ the high level output voltage. With random data, the reading would be about 2 volts. There will be a fairly wide range of acceptable volume settings. (Since the quivering meter needle is being used here for inertial signal averaging, a digital voltmeter would not be very helpful in this application.)


Figure 25. Tape Interface Data Recording Scheme


Figure 26. One Chip Magnetic Tape Interface Schematic


Figure 27．Analog Signal Waveforms

After the CRT software analysis，the tape routines are almost trivial．TAPEO is a subroutine for out－ putting the contents of register C to a cassette recorder．TAPEIN reads 8 bits into register C．

## OUTPUT ROUTINE

TAPEO calls a subroutine named BURST three times for each bit．If $\mathrm{A}_{6}$（the SOD enable bit）is set when BURST is called，a square－wave tone burst will be transmitted．If $\mathrm{A}_{6}$ is not set，BURST simply delays for exactly the same amount of time before returning．The three calls are used to， respectively，output the initial burst，output the data burst／space，and create the space at the end of each bit．Nine bits will be output：the eight data bits（LSB first）followed by a zero bit．The start of the initial burst of the trailing zero is needed to mark the end of the final space of the preceding data bit．
Start each bit by outputting a tone burst：

| TAPEO： | M ${ }^{\text {HI }}$ | E． 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| T01： | MVI | A．日ctur |
|  | CALL | EIPST |

Rotate register C through CY：

| MOY | ATE |
| :--- | :--- |
| RAR |  |
| MOY | CA |

Move CY to the SOD enable bit position， $\mathrm{A}_{6}$ ． Simultaneously set $A_{7}$ to one，and clear all other bits．Output a tone burst or space，depending on the previous contents of CY：

| RHI | R．GIH |
| :--- | :--- |
| RFR |  |
| RAR |  |
| CPLL |  |

Clear the accumulator，and output a space：

| YRPR | A |
| :--- | :--- |
| CALL | EMPST |

Keep cycling until the full 9－bit sequence is fin－ ished：


The BURST subroutine executes the SIM in－ struction CYCNO times，at intervals of $29+14$〈HALFCYC〉 machine cycles．In between each SIM， bit $\mathrm{A}_{7}$ is complemented．CYCNO should be an even number．If $\mathrm{A}_{6}$ is set upon calling BURST a square－wave will be created．Otherwise，the same code sequence is followed but SOD does not change－thus a space results．

| EUPST | 4 T | 0.04040 | （7） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ein | 5 m |  | 4 |
|  | MYI | E．Mitlfite | 63 |
| But | OR | E | （4） |
|  | THE | 812 | （7／10） |
|  | SRI | 8 BH | （7） |
|  | DOR | 0 | 4） |
|  | Hiz | Bill | T／40） |
|  | PET |  | （10） |

## INPUT ROUTINE

TAPEIN uses a subroutine called BITIN to move the data at the SID pin into the CY．The maximum rate at which SID is read is limited by a delay loop in BITIN．
Initialize the bit counter and the register D ，which will keep track of the tone burst time．If a tone
burst is being received when TAPEIN is called, wait until the burst is over:

| TAPEIN: | M MI | B. 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | MVI | 0. Wh |
| TI1: | CALL | bitin |
|  | Jc | TII |
|  | CHLL | EITiN |
|  | Jf | Til |

(Throughout this subroutine, a level transition is recognized only after it has been read once initially and then verified on the next reading. This provides some degree of software noise immunity.) Now await the start of the next burst:

| 12 | cfil | Bitin |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | INC | Ti2 |
|  | Cill | EITM |
|  | 7m | T12 |

The next burst has now arrived. Keep reading the SID pin, decrementing register D (thus making it more negative), each cycle until the pause is detected:

| $\Pi 13$ | Me | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Cil | bitin |
|  | J | 112 |
|  | chil | EITin |
|  | J | 132 |

Now continue reading the SID pin, incrementing the D register (back towards zero), each cycle until the next burst is received:

TI4 | IHR | D |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | CFLL | BITIN |
|  | JNC | TI4 |
|  | CALL | BIIIN |
|  | JNC | II4 |

Now, if the burst lasted longer than the space, D was not incremented all the way back to zero; it is still negative. If the space was longer, $D$ was incremented up through zero; it is now positive. In other words, the sign bit of $D$ will now correspond to the data bit that would lead to each of these results. Move the sign bit into the CY , then rotate it into register C :

| MOV | $A, D$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| RFL |  |
| MOV | $A, C$ |
| RAR |  |
| MOV | $C_{1} A$ |
| MVI | $D_{1}$ DOH |

Continue until the last bit has been received:

| OCR | 8 |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nh | TI |
| RET |  |

(Notice that the first half of this subroutine is incorporated in the second half. In fact, the assembled listing included in the Appendix makes use of this fact to eliminate 24 bytes of duplicated code.)
BITIN waits a short time in order to regulate the sampling rate, then reads SID and moves the data bit into the CY :

| BITII: | WII | ECKRATE | $\rangle\rangle$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: |
| BII: | DCR | E | $\langle 4\rangle$ |
|  | JNZ | BII | $\langle 7 / 19\rangle$ |
|  | PIM |  | $\langle 4\rangle$ |
|  | RAL |  | $\langle 4\rangle$ |
|  | RET |  | $\langle 19\rangle$ |

The tone burst frequency and duration, and the TAPEIN sampling rate are determined by HALFCYC, CYCNO, and CKRATE. Tables 10 and 11 give typical values.

Table 10
EXAMPLE COMBINATIONS OF HALFCYC AND CYCNO. ALL VALUES IN DECIMAL

| APPROXIMATE | CORRESPONDING |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: |
| TONE |  |  |  |  |  |
| HALFFCY |  |  |  |  |  |
| FREQUENCY | VALUE | RESULTING DATA RATE |  |  |  |
|  | VALU | $\mathbf{8}$ | $\mathbf{2 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ | CYCNO |
| 500 Hz | 217 | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5 0}$ | CYC/BURST |  |
| 1 kHz | 108 | 82 | 17 | 3.3 | bps |
| 2 kHz | 53 | 166 | 63 | 6.6 | bps |
| 5 kHz | 20 | 414 | 166 | 33 | bps |
| 10 kHz | 9 | 826 | 330 | 66 | bps |

Table 11
MAXIMUM SAMPLING RATES FOR VARIOUS VALUES OF CKRATE

| CKRATE VALUE | SAMPLING RATE (INCLUDING CALL \& RET) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $17.6 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ |
| 20 | $104 \mu \mathrm{sec}$ |
| 80 | 378 usec |
| 250 | 1.14 msec |

The CRT and Cassette Code also includes a simple block record routine utilizing TAPEO. Before calling BLKRCD, HL must be set to the start of the desired block, and the recorder turned on manually. Successive bytes will be recorded until the end of that page, i.e., until L is incremented to zero. The playback routine requires presetting HL to the target address and turning on the recorder before PLAYBK is called. These routines incorporate a long tone burst before each data block to allow a recorder with Automatic Gain Control to stabilize before the data starts.

## ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

The two design examples given so far were built up using an SDK-85 System Design Kit. Both hardware interfaces were wire-wrapped on the ample breadboarding area provided on the board. The connections between SID and SOD and the onboard TTY interface were broken, so as not to affect the $8085 \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{O}$ electrical characteristics.
The CRT interface was tested with a Beehive MiniBee II Terminal in the full duplex mode at each of its 14 possible transmission rates, from 110 to 9600 baud. It was also checked out at 19200 baud using a Beehive B-100 terminal. In addition, the software was exercised using an SBC $80 / 20$ system as a variable baud rate character generator and receiver.

An additional advantage to having software selectable communications rates is that it would be possible to communicate with several system periperals, each at its own preferred rate, without having to duplicate hardware. For example, the addition of a single 7408 AND gate and an output port (such as on the 8155) would make it possible to use the same two RS- 232 circuits to interface with up to seven I/O devices (see Figure 28). Three of the MC1488 drivers have Enable inputs which can be controlled by the output port. One AND gate can be used to buffer the SOD line and drive the MC1488 Data inputs. The rest of the 7408 can be configured as a four input AND gate. This would act as an inverted logic OR gate to reduce the four MC1489 receiver outputs to a single line, which could be read by the SID. This assumes that only one input device (CRT, PTR) at a time will be used (which is usually the case in a non-time shared, interactive application), and that the unused devices are transmitting a logic one level (which should also be the case).


Figure 28. Interfacing $\mathbf{8 0 8 5}$ to Multiple Peripherals

The software needed to support additional peripherals would be simple and straightforward. A routine intended to dump a section of memory to a paper tape punch, for example, would first have to store BITTIME and HALFBIT somewhere (perhaps on stack), load the variables with new parameters corresponding to the paper tape punch rate, and then write a bit pattern to the output port which would disable the console driver and enable the punch (and perhaps a typewriter). After the dump was over, the original time parameters and driver status would be restored.

As explained before, the BRID routine computed rate parameters based on the fact that an ASCII "space" character resulted in a zero level 6 bits long. Conceivably, some obscure peripherals might produce a transient between successive zero bits. (This might be the case, for example, if the signal was produced by mechanical rather than electronic means.) If so, the BRID algorithm used here probably would not work reliably. Once the two time parameters were identified, though, COUT and CIN could still be used. An alternate algorithm for baud rate identification would require a table in ROM (note the fifth and final R/S-I/O-M/D permutation). This table would contain a list of delay parameters corresponding to the standard transmis-
sion rates, as computed for the selected crystal frequency. Initialization would require the operator to hit a specific key several times (usually the "U" key, which generates a pattern of alternating ones and zeros). The identification routine would attempt to "read" this pattern at each baud rate, in turn, until finding the rate at which the read was successful.

The cassette recorder used to develop the tape interface was a Lloyd's push-button model which cost $\$ 17$ in 1972. Empirical testing has indicated that for this application, the quality of the cassette recorder is less critical than the quality of the tape itself. In other words, some $33 \phi$ cassettes were not very reliable, even when used with more expensive recorders.

When using a cassette at the beginning of a side, allow the tape to run for about 10 seconds until the leader has passed before starting to write data. Otherwise, data will be lost to the leader.

Depending on the recorder quality, the tone burst frequency and duration can be optimized for higher data rates by modifying HALFCYC and CYCNO. If so, CKRATE should also be reduced, so that between about 10 and 80 data samplings are made during a single (one-third width) tone burst. At greatly increased frequencies, some of the
components in the analog interface might also be modified.

The two simple routines for recording and playing back blocks of data were intended to illustrate one way of using TAPEIN and TAPEO, and therefore do not contain any provisions for error detection or correction. Depending on the nature of a particular application, these routines could be augmented with parity bit or checksum comparison, or an error correcting code technique.

Funny things happen when recording and playing back a page of RAM which includes the subroutine stack. Eventually, PLAYBK will start writing over the data at the top of the stack, destroying the subroutine traceback sequence. The next RET instruction will then cause a jump to a place where you'd rather not be.
The printout reproduced in the CRT Code includes the assembled listings for the CRT and magnetic tape interfaces discussed in this application note. The object code produced was programmed into an 8755 EPROM, which was installed in the expansion PROM socket of the SDK-85 board. Some very minor differences exist between this listing and the code segments presented earlier, which were written for maximum clarity.

## Temperature Sensor Code

ASHBO :F1:TEST. SRC H0065

15IS-II 8688/8885 MGCRO ASSEMBLER, V2. 0 MODULE PFGEE 1


# Temperature Sensor Code (Cont'd) 

ISIS-II 8888/8885 MHCRO RSSEMBLER, V2. 0 MOUULE PAGE 2


## Temperature Sensor Code (Cont'd)

1SIS-II 8989/8985 MACRO ASSEMELER, 42.0 MOOULE PRCE 3


## Temperature Sensor Code (Cont'd)

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ISIS-1I 8889 /E885 MACKU HSSEMRLER. 220 MONUE PAGE 5

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## CRT and Cassette Code

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## CRT and Cassette Code (Cont'd)

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## CRT and Cassette Code（Cont＇d）

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8085 SERIAL I／O NOTE APPENDIX

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| 297E C27608 | 104 | JNT | 002 |  |
| 987E 77 | 185 | STE |  | －SET WHTT WILL EYENTURLLY BECOME A STOP BIT |
| 日87F 79 | 106 | MOY | A， | ：POTATE CHAPRCTER PIGHT GNE EIT， |
| 988015 | 187 | RFR |  | $\therefore$ MOHING NEXT DATR SIT ！NTO CARPY |
| 0881 4F | 108 | Moy | C． H |  |
| 088285 | 109 | 000 | $E$ | －CHECK IF Character（ato Stop bitcis done |
| 0883 C26Fbs | 110 | IWR | 001 | ：IF MOT，OUTPUT OUREENT CARPY |
| 日086 E1 | 111 | P Pop | H | ：REETAPE STATUS GNO RETURN |
| 4887 CL | 112 | FPr | 8 |  |
| 8888 FP | 112 | EI |  |  |
| 9889 0 | 114 | RET |  |  |
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|  | 117； |  |  |  |
| 0984 FS | 115 CIN | 01 |  |  |
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## CRT and Cassette Code (Cont'd)

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## CRT and Cassette Code (Cont'd)

ISI5-II 8980. 8085 ASSEMELER, 41. 1
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PIUELIC SYMBOLS

## CRT and Cassette Code (Cont'd)

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## CRT and Cassette Code (Cont'd)

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\hline EITSO & 154 & 95 & & & & \\
\hline SITTIM & 13* & 60 & 180 & 129 & & \\
\hline RLVPCS & 1E3\# & & & & & \\
\hline ER1 & 165* & 167 & & & & \\
\hline RR2 & 1ア怑 & 173 & & & & \\
\hline BFII & 45* & 47 & & & & \\
\hline EPI? & 49\# & 55 & & & & \\
\hline PDI4 & 50 & 54 & & & & \\
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\hline Bl1 & 201\# & 207 & & & & \\
\hline 812 & 293* & 204 & & & & \\
\hline BIPST & 105 & 169 & 18.4 & 191 & 193 & 200* \\
\hline 511 & 12.1* & 12 & & & & \\
\hline Cl & 125 & 126 & 128 & & & \\
\hline CI & 12\% & 142 & & & & \\
\hline Cl 4 & 170\% & 131 & 133 & & & \\
\hline CIS & 137 & 143* & & & & \\
\hline CIN & 30 & 113\# & & & & \\
\hline CRRATE & 155\% & 248 & & & & \\
\hline 001 & 97* & 110 & & & & \\
\hline 002 & 101* & 102 & 104 & & & \\
\hline COUT & 35 & 81 & 92\# & & & \\
\hline CRT1 & 26* & 3 & & & & \\
\hline CRTTST & 25* & & & & & \\
\hline CrCHO & 153* & 2 20 & & & & \\
\hline ECHO & 20\# & 36 & & & & \\
\hline HPLFP! & 14* & 71 & 124 & & & \\
\hline HREFCY & 154" & 292 & & & & \\
\hline LORCH & 157A & 214 & & & & \\
\hline LEMDEP & 156* & 163 & & & & \\
\hline PE: 1 & 215* & 218 & & & & \\
\hline Pg2 & 210* & 222 & & & & \\
\hline Playek & 214* & 216 & & & & \\
\hline 51 & 77* & 82 & & & & \\
\hline SISNON & 29 & 76\# & & & & \\
\hline STRWG & 76 & 85\# & & & & \\
\hline TAPEIN & 219 & 227* & & & & \\
\hline TAPE0 & 171 & 179* & & & & \\
\hline TI1 & 228* & 24.5 & & & & \\
\hline T12 & 229* & 231 & 22 & & & \\
\hline T13 & 234 & 26 & 288 & & & \\
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## Workshops



## Training in Microcomputers

Whether your present involvement with microcomputers is a result of long-term planning or simply an exploratory project undertaken by your company in response to external circumstances, there exists an obvious and urgent need for you to familiarize yourself with this exciting new technology. If the microcomputer is, or is destined to become, a part of your working scene, then the importance of carefully planned training cannot be over-emphasized. A modest outlay in time and money now can save many weeks of self-study and could well prevent some very expensive mistakes during the initial development of your systems.

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 As the designers and manufacturers of the most widely accepted microcomputer products in the world, our knowledge is both comprehensive and topical. Remember the saying about "the horse's mouth"!EXTENSIVE MATERIAL Teaching aids include slide and video tape equipment, student notebooks and a wide range of printed materials which are designed to provide post-training assimilation and act as practical reference manuals in your own laboratory.
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## Introduction to Microprocessors

Included in the price of the course is an SDK-85 kit which includes:

3 MHz 8085 CPU (enhanced 8080)
Keyboard-24 keys
Display-6 digits
Monitor ROM 2048 bytes
RAM Memory 256 bytes
38 I/O Lines
Teletype interface
Complete documentation

## Course Description

- Fundamental computer concepts and terminology introduced
- Operation of the Intel 8085 microprocessor explained
- 8085 assembly language programming
- Stacks, subroutines, interrupts and I/O interfacing introduced
- Lab sessions on SDK-85 System Design Kit
- An SDK-85 Kit (valued at $\$ 300$ ) is yours to keep


## Attendees

- Engineers, scientists, or other technical people with limited computer or digital electronics background.
Length: 4 Days
Tuition: \$895 (includes SDK-85 Kit)


Course Outline

## DAY 1

Introduction to Microelectronics
Computer Concepts
Computer Languages
Using the SDK-85
Lab: Kit Operation and
Programming
Moving Data
DAY 2
Delay Loops
Lab: Audio Oscillator Using Digital Techniques

## Subroutines

Stack Operation
Lab: Using Subroutines

## DAY 3

Logic Instructions
Lab: Handshaking Techniques Addition
Lab: Multi-Function Programs Microprocessor Operation
DAY 4
Interrupts
Memory Operation and Address Decoding
Programmable Peripheral Chips
Lab: Chip Programming Exercises
Introduction to the Development System, ICE, Assembler, and High Level Languages Course Summary and
Review

## MCS ${ }^{\circledR}$-80/85 Microprocessors



## Course Description

- 8085 architecture explained in detail
- Assembly language programming for 8080/8085
- Design and development of systems using Intel 8080, 8085 chips
- Interfacing and programming techniques
- "Hands-on" lab sessions using the Intellec Microcomputer Development System
- ICE-85 In-Circuit Emulator used to debug programs


## Attendees

- Design engineer or programmer who is familiar with binary numbers and logic functions
- Prior attendance at Introduction to Microcomputers Workshop or equivalent knowledge is recommended
Length: 5 Days
Tuition: \$995
\$850 (Group rate)

Course Outline

## DAY 1

Introduction to Microprocessors
Assembly Language Instructions
Programmed Input and Output Microcomputer Development System Monitor
Lab: Using System Monitor
DAY 2
Microcomputer Development System
Disk Operating System
CREDIT Text Editor and Macro Assembler
The Processors
Lab: Using Text Editor and Assembler
DAY 3
Stacks and Subroutines Interrupts
In-Circuit Emulator
Lab: In-Circuit Emulator Introduction

## DAY 4

Input and Output Techniques
Programming Techniques
Lab: Using 8085 In-Circuit
Emulator

DAY 5
8555, 8355, 8185, 8251A Peripherals
Tools for Modular Program Development
Lab: Multimodule Programming

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[^0]:    *All mnemonics copyrighted (c)Intel Corporation 1976.

[^1]:    †Note that TAL now only applies to the high order address byte. TALL, for the lower address byte equals 90 ns . This was done to allow for additional TRAE time for data float.

[^2]:    Restore processor status and return:

