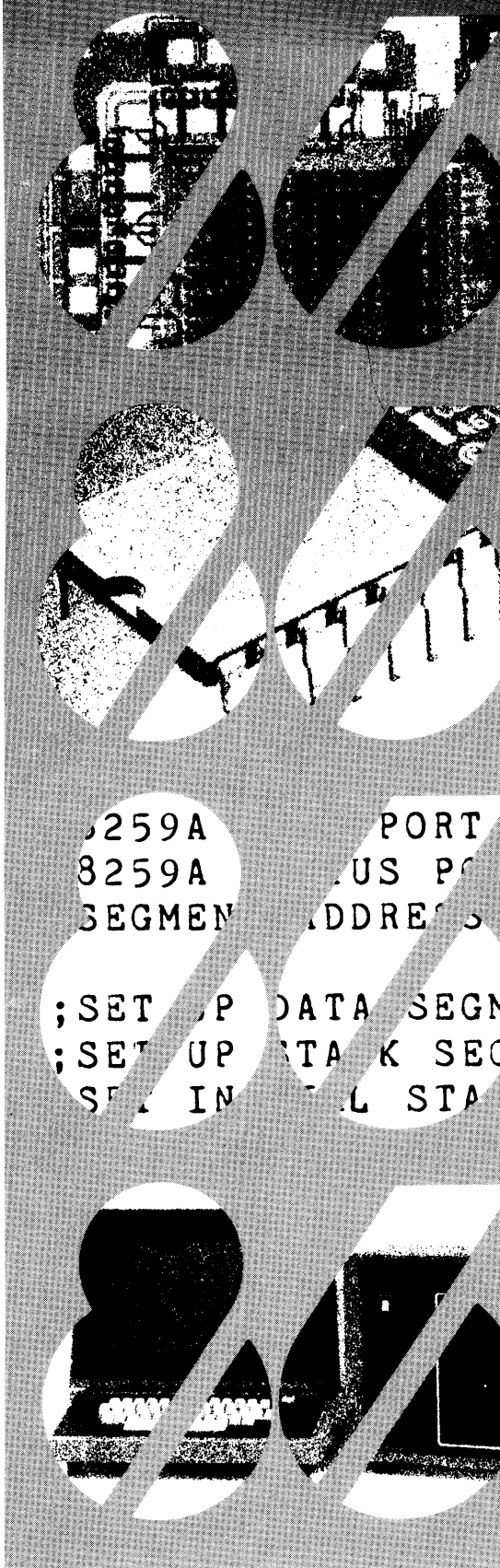
Appendix A
Application Notes



APPENDIX A
APPLICATION NOTES

This appendix contains Intel application notes pertinent to the 8086 family microprocessors. The following application notes, in the order listed, have been included within this appendix:

AP-67	8086 System Design
AP-61	Multitasking for the 8086
AP-50	Debugging Strategies and Considerations for 8089 Systems
AP-51	Designing 8086, 8088, 8089 Multiprocessing Systems with the 8289 Bus Arbiter
AP-59	Using the 8259A Programmable Interrupt Controller
AP-28A	Intel® Multibus™ Interfacing
AP-43	Using the iSBC-957™ Execution Vehicle for Executing 8086 Program Code

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APPLICATION NOTE

AP-67

September 1979

8086 System Design

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Microcomputer Applications

8086 System Design

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1. INTRODUCTION

The 8086 family, Intel's new series of microprocessors and system components, offers the designer an advanced system architecture which can be structured to satisfy a broad range of applications. The variety of speed, configuration and component selections available within the family enables optimization of a specific design to both cost and performance objectives. More important however, the 8086 family concept allows the designer to develop a family of systems providing multiple levels of enhancement within a single design and a growth path for future designs.

This application note is directed toward the implementation of the system hardware and will provide an introduction to a representative sample of the systems configurable with the 8086 CPU member of the family. Application techniques and timing analysis will be given to aid the designer in understanding the system requirements, advantages and limitations. Additional Intel publications the reader may wish to reference are the 8086 User's Manual (9800722A), 8086 Assembly Language Reference Guide (9800749A), AP-28A MULTIBUS™ Interfacing (98005876B), INTEL MULTIBUS™ SPECIFICATION (9800683), AP-45 Using the 8202 Dynamic RAM Controller (9800809A), AP-51 Designing 8086, 8088, 8089 Multiprocessor Systems with the 8289 Bus Arbiter and AP-59 Using the 8259A Programmable Interrupt Controller. References to other Intel publications will be made throughout this note.

2. 8086 OVERVIEW AND BASIC SYSTEM CONCEPTS

2A. 8086 Bus Cycle Definition

The 8086 is a true 16-bit microprocessor with 16-bit internal and external data paths, one megabyte of memory address space (2**20) and a separate 64K byte (2**16) I/O address space. The CPU communicates with its external environment via a twenty-bit time multiplexed address, status and data bus and a command bus. To transfer data or fetch instructions, the CPU executes a bus cycle (Fig. 2A1). The minimum bus cycle consists of four CPU clock cycles called T states. During the first T state (T1), the CPU asserts an address on the twenty-bit

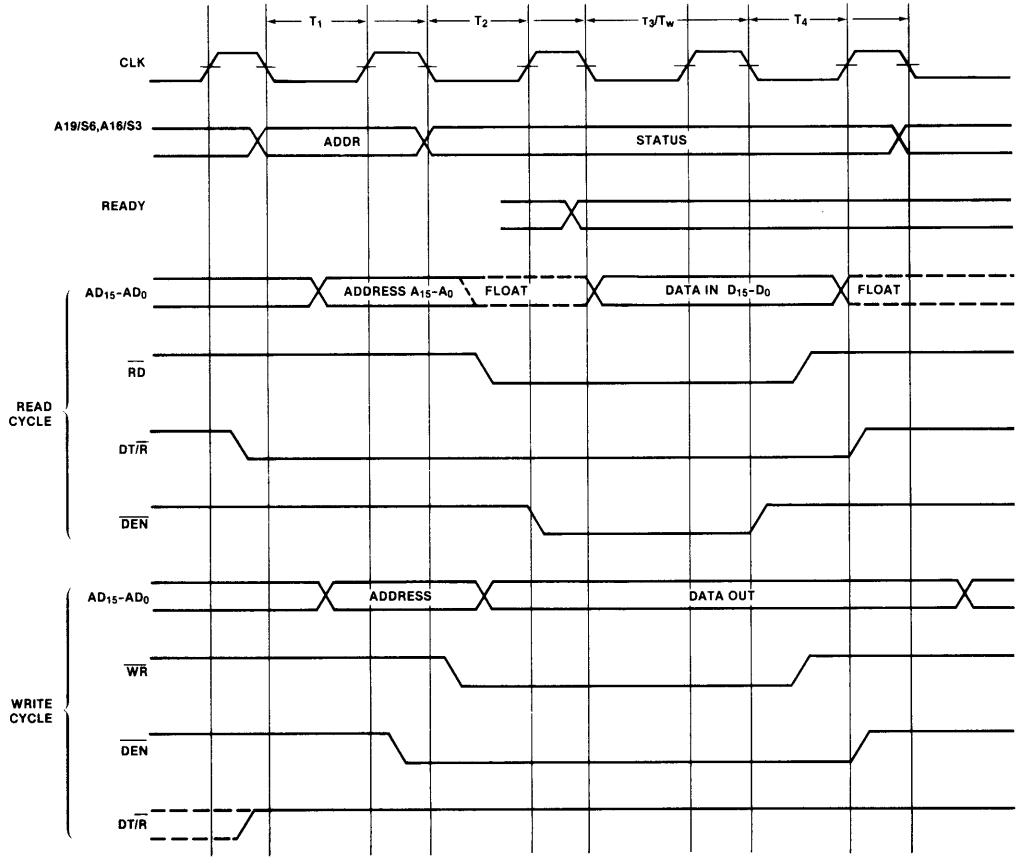


Figure 2A1. Basic 8086 Bus Cycle

multiplexed address/data/status bus. For the second T state (T2), the CPU removes the address from the bus and either three-states its outputs on the lower sixteen bus lines in preparation for a read cycle or asserts write data. Data bus transceivers are enabled in either T1 or T2 depending on the 8086 system configuration and the direction of the transfer (into or out of the CPU). Read, write or interrupt acknowledge commands are always enabled in T2. The maximum mode 8086 configuration (to be discussed later) also provides a write command enabled in T3 to guarantee data setup time prior to command activation.

During T2, the upper four multiplexed bus lines switch from address (A19-A16) to bus cycle status (S6,S5,S4,S3). The status information (Table 2A1) is available primarily for diagnostic monitoring. However, a decode of S3 and S4 could be used to select one of four banks of memory, one assigned to each segment register. This technique allows partitioning the memory by segment to expand the memory addressing beyond one megabyte. It also provides a degree of protection by preventing erroneous write operations to one segment from overlapping into another segment and destroying information in that segment.

The CPU continues to provide status information on the upper four bus lines during T3 and will either continue to assert write data or sample read data on the lower sixteen bus lines. If the selected memory or I/O device is not capable of transferring data at the maximum CPU transfer rate, the device must signal the CPU "not ready" and force the CPU to insert additional clock cycles (Wait states TW) after T3. The 'not ready' indication must be presented to the CPU by the start of T3. Bus activity during TW is the same as T3. When the selected device has had sufficient time to complete the transfer, it asserts "Ready" and allows the CPU to continue from the TW states. The CPU will latch the data on the bus during the last wait state or during T3 if no wait states are requested. The bus cycle is terminated in T4 (command lines are disabled and the selected external device deselects from the bus). The bus cycle appears to devices in the system as an asynchronous event consisting of an address to select the device followed by a read strobe or data and a write strobe. The selected device accepts bus data during a write cycle and drives the desired data onto the bus during a read cycle. On termination of the command, the device latches write data or disables its bus drivers. The only control the device has on the bus cycle is the insertion of wait cycles.

The 8086 CPU only executes a bus cycle when instructions or operands must be transferred to or from memory or I/O devices. When not executing a bus cycle, the bus interface executes idle cycles (TI). During the idle cycles, the CPU continues to drive status information from the previous bus cycle on the upper address lines. If the previous bus cycle was a write, the CPU continues to drive the write data onto the multiplexed bus until the start of the next bus cycle. If the CPU executes idle cycles following a read cycle, the CPU will not drive the lower 16 bus lines until the next bus cycle is required.

Since the CPU prefetches up to six bytes of the instruction stream for storage and execution from an internal instruction queue, the relationship of instruction fetch and associated operand transfers may be skewed in time and separated by additional instruction fetch bus cycles. In general, if an instruction is fetched into the 8086's internal instruction queue, several additional instructions may be fetched before the instruction is removed from the queue and executed. If the instruction being executed from the queue is a jump or other control transfer instruction, any instructions remaining in the queue are not executed and are discarded with no effect on the CPU's operation. The bus activity observed during execution of a specific instruction is dependent on the preceding instructions but is always deterministic within the specific sequence.

Table 2A1

S3	S4	
0	0	Alternate (relative to the ES segment)
1	0	Stack (relative to the SS segment)
0	1	Code/None (relative to the CS segment or a default of zero)
1	1	Data (relative to the DS segment)

S5 = IF (interrupt enable flag)
S6 = 0 (indicates the 8086 is on the bus)

2B. 8086 Address and Data Bus Concepts

Since the majority of system memories and peripherals require a stable address for the duration of the bus cycle, the address on the multiplexed address/data bus during T1 should be latched and the latched address used to select the desired peripheral or memory location. Since the 8086 has a 16-bit data bus, the multiplexed bus components of the 8085 family are not applicable to the 8086 (a device on address/data bus lines 8-15 will not be able to receive the byte selection address on lines 0-7). To demultiplex the bus (Fig. 2B1a), the 8086 system provides an Address Latch Enable signal (ALE) to capture the address in either the 8282 or 8283 8-bit bi-stable latches (Diag. 2B1). The latches are either inverting (8283) or non-inverting (8282) and have outputs driven by three-state buffers that supply 32 mA drive capability and can switch a 300 pF capacitive load in 22 ns (inverting) or 30 ns (non-inverting). They propagate the address through to the outputs while ALE is high and latch the address on the falling edge of ALE. This only delays address access and chip select decoding by the propagation delay of the latch. The outputs are enabled through the low active $\overline{OE}$ input. The demultiplexing of the multiplexed address/data bus (latchings of the address from the multiplexed bus), can be done locally at appropriate points in the system or at the CPU with a separate address bus distributing the address throughout the system (Fig. 2B1b). For optimum system performance and compatibility with multiprocessor and MULTIBUS™ configurations, the latter technique is strongly recommended over the first. The remainder of this note will assume the bus is demultiplexed at the CPU.

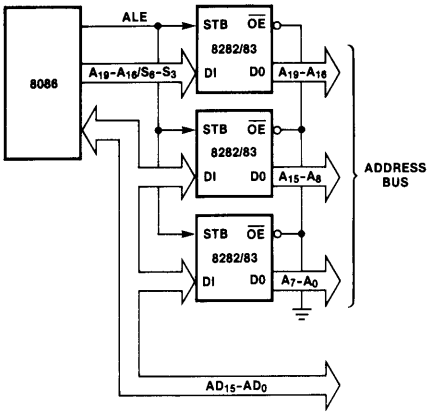


Figure 2B1a. Demultiplexing the 8086 Bus

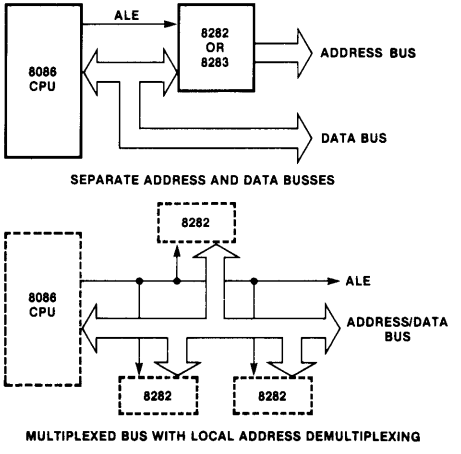


Figure 2B1b.

The programmer views the 8086 memory address space as a sequence of one million bytes in which any byte may contain an eight bit data element and any two consecutive bytes may contain a 16-bit data element. There is no constraint on byte or word addresses (boundaries). The address space is physically implemented on a sixteen bit data bus by dividing the address space into two banks of up to 512K bytes (Fig. 2B2). One bank is connected to the lower half of the sixteen-bit data bus (D7-0) and contains even addressed bytes (A0 = 0). The other bank is connected to the upper half of the data bus (D15-8) and contains odd addressed bytes (A0 = 1). A specific byte within each bank is selected by address lines A19-A1. To perform byte transfers to even addresses (Fig. 2B3a), the information is transferred over the lower half of the data bus (D7-0). A0 (active low) is used to enable the bank connected to the lower half of the data bus to participate in the transfer. Another signal provided by the 8086, Bus High Enable ($\overline{BHE}$), is used to disable the bank on the upper half of the data bus from participating in the transfer. This is necessary to prevent a write operation to the lower bank from destroying data in the upper bank. Since $\overline{BHE}$ is a multiplexed signal with timing identical to the A19-A16 address lines, it also should be latched with ALE to provide a stable signal during the bus cycle. During T2 through T4, the $\overline{BHE}$ output is multiplexed with status line S7 which is equal to $\overline{BHE}$. To perform byte transfers to odd addresses (Fig. 2B3b), the information is transferred over the upper half of the data bus (D15-D8) while $\overline{BHE}$ (active low) enables the upper bank and A0 disables the lower bank. Directing the data transfer to the appropriate half of the data bus and activation of $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 is performed by the 8086, transparent to the programmer. As an example, consider loading a byte of data into the CL register (lower half of the CX register) from an odd addressed memory location (referenced over the upper half of the 16-bit data bus). The data is transferred into the 8086 over the upper 8 bits of the data bus, automatically redirected to the lower half of the 8086 internal 16-bit data path and stored into the CL register. This capability also allows byte I/O transfers with the AL register to be directed to I/O devices connected to either the upper or lower half of the 16-bit data bus.

To access even addressed sixteen bit words (two consecutive bytes with the least significant byte at an even

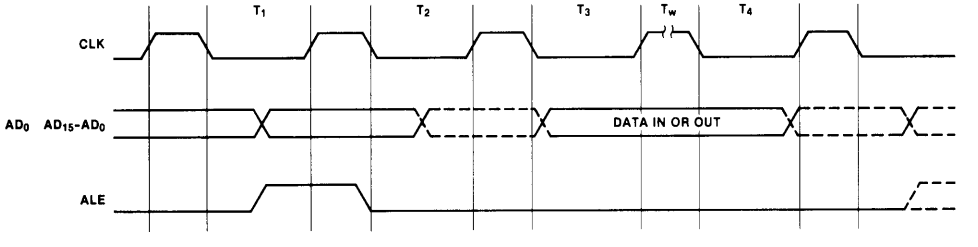


Diagram 2B1. ALE Timing

byte address), A19-A1 select the appropriate byte within each bank and A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ (active low) enable both banks simultaneously (Fig. 2B3c). To access an odd addressed 16-bit word (Fig. 2B3d), the least significant byte (addressed by A19-A1) is first transferred over the upper half of the bus (odd addressed byte, upper bank, $\overline{BHE}$ low active and A0 = 1). The most significant byte is accessed by incrementing the address (A19-A0) which allows A19-A1 to address the next physical word location (remember, A0 was equal to one which indicated a word referenced from an odd byte boundary). A second bus cycle is then executed to perform the transfer of the most significant byte with the lower bank (A0 is now active low and $\overline{BHE}$ is high). The sequence is automatically executed by the 8086 whenever a word transfer is executed to an odd address. Directing the upper and lower bytes of the 8086's internal sixteen-bit registers to the appropriate halves of the data bus is also performed automatically by the 8086 and is transparent to the programmer.

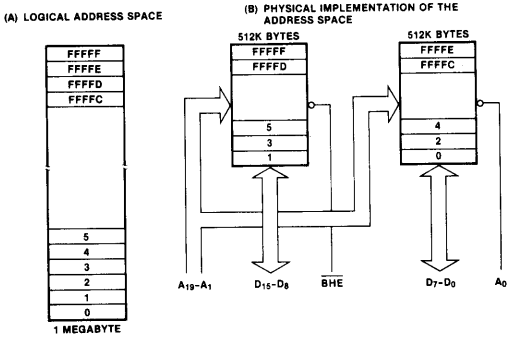


Figure 2B2. 8086 Memory

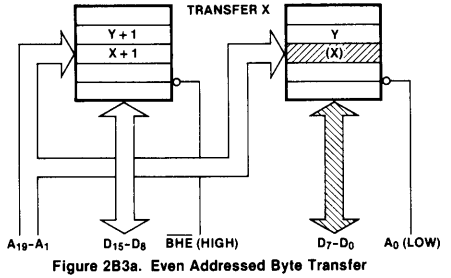


Figure 2B3a. Even Addressed Byte Transfer

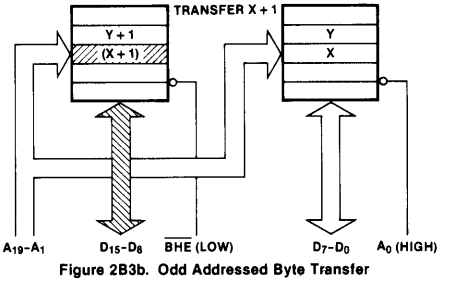


Figure 2B3b. Odd Addressed Byte Transfer

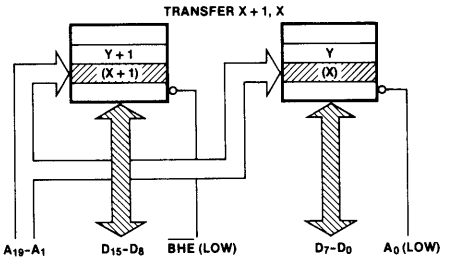


Figure 2B3c. Even Addressed Word Transfer

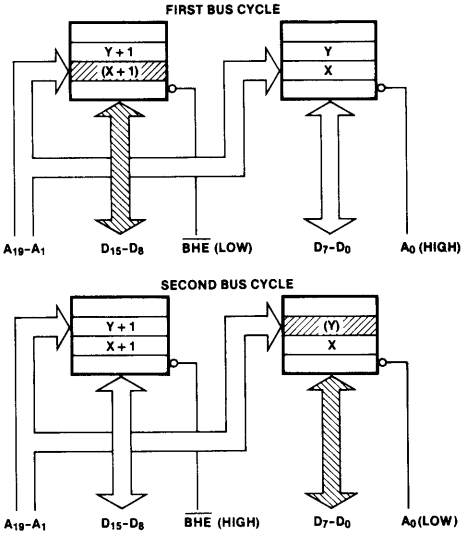


Figure 2B3d. Odd Addressed Word Transfer

During a byte read, the CPU floats the entire sixteen-bit data bus even though data is only expected on the upper or lower half of the data bus. As will be demonstrated later, this action simplifies the chip select decoding requirements for read only devices (ROM, EPROM). During a byte write operation, the 8086 will drive the entire sixteen-bit data bus. The information on the half of the data bus not transferring data is indeterminate. These concepts also apply to the I/O address space. Specific examples of I/O and memory interfacing are considered in the corresponding sections.

2C. System Data Bus Concepts

When referring to the system data bus, two implementation alternatives must be considered; (a) the multiplexed address/data bus (Fig. 2C1a) and a data bus buffered from the multiplexed bus by transceivers (Fig. 2C1b).

If memory or I/O devices are connected directly to the multiplexed bus, the designer must guarantee the devices do not corrupt the address on the bus during T1.

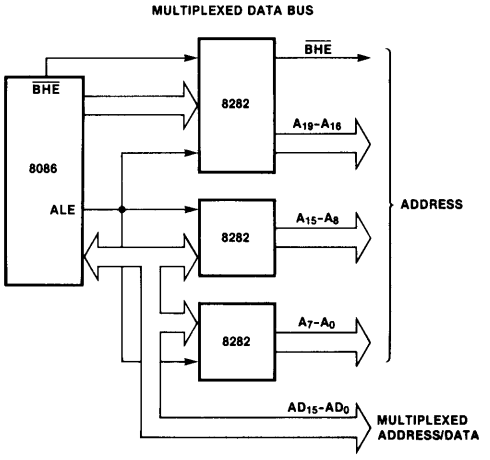


Figure 2C1a. Multiplexed Data Bus

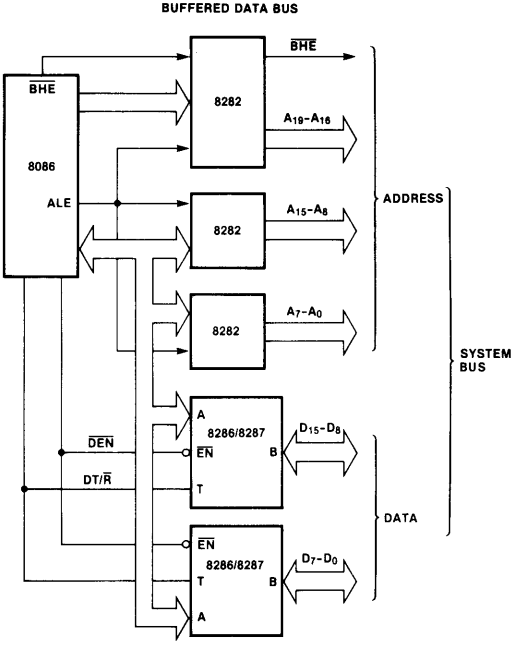


Figure 2C1b. Buffered Data Bus

To avoid this, device output drivers should not be enabled by the device chip select, but should have an output enable controlled by the system read signal (Fig. 2C2). The 8086 timing guarantees that read is not valid until after the address is latched by ALE (Diag. 2C1). All Intel peripherals, EPROM products and RAM's for microprocessors provide output enable or read inputs to allow connection to the multiplexed bus.

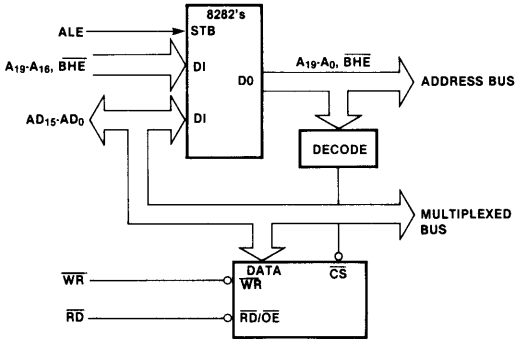


Figure 2C2. Devices with Output Enables on the Multiplexed Bus

Several techniques are available for interfacing devices without output enables to the multiplexed bus but each introduces other restrictions or limitations. Consider Figure 2C3 which has chip select gated with read and write. Two problems exist with this technique. First, the chip select access time is reduced to the read access time, and may require a faster device if maximum system performance (no wait states) is to be achieved (Diag. 2C2). Second, the designer must verify that chip select to write setup and hold times for the device are not violated (Diag. 2C3). Alternate techniques can be extracted from the bus interfacing techniques given later in this section but are subject to the associated restrictions. In general, the best solution is obtained with devices having output enables.

A subsequent limitation on the multiplexed bus is the 8086's drive capability of 2.0 mA and capacitive loading of 100 pF to guarantee the specified A.C. characteristics. Assuming capacitive loads of 20 pF per I/O device, 12 pF per address latch and 5-12 pF per memory device, a system mix of three peripherals and two to four memory devices (per bus line) are close to the loading limit.

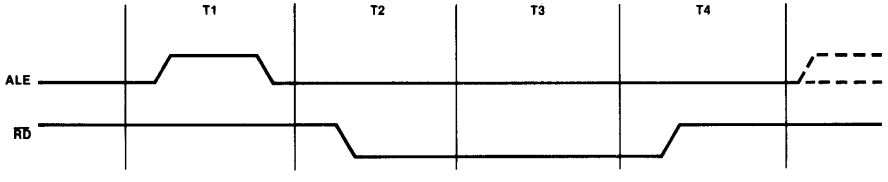


Diagram 2C1. Relationship of ALE to READ

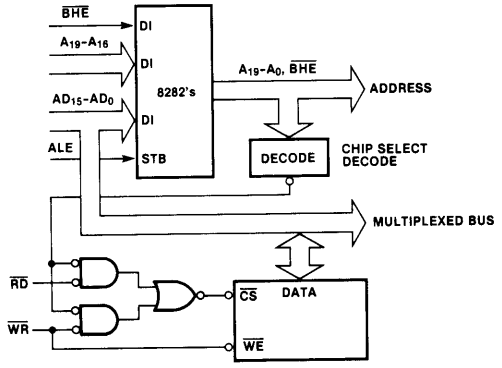
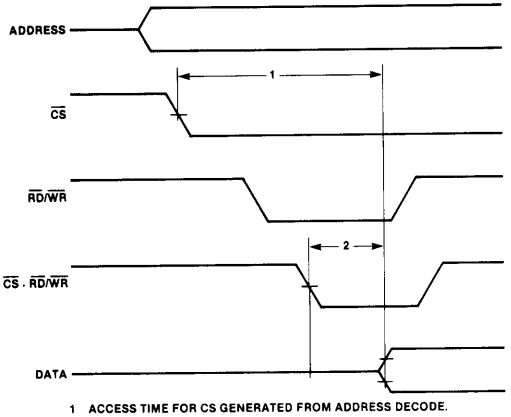


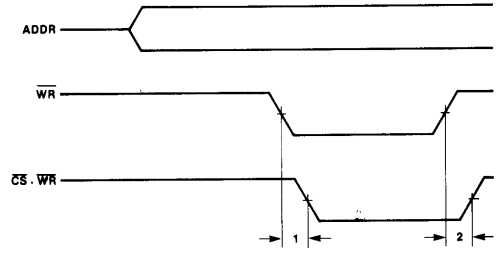
Figure 2C3. Devices without Output Enables on the Multiplexed Bus



1 ACCESS TIME FOR CS GENERATED FROM ADDRESS DECODE.

2 ACCESS TIME IF CS IS GATED WITH RD/WR.

Diagram 2C2. Access Time: CS Gated with $\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}$



1 CS IS NOT VALID PRIOR TO WRITE AND BECOMES ACTIVE ONE OR TWO GATE DELAYS LATER.

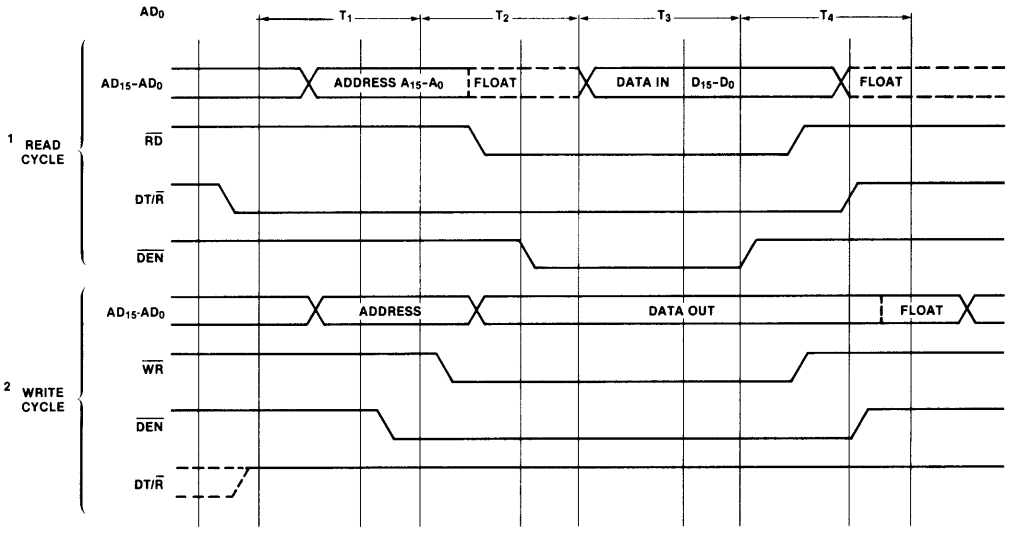
2 CS REMAINS VALID AFTER WRITE ONE OR TWO GATE DELAYS.

Diagram 2C3. CS to $\overline{WR}$ Set-Up and Hold

To satisfy the capacitive loading and drive requirements of larger systems, the data bus must be buffered. The 8286 non-inverting and 8287 inverting octal transceivers are offered as part of the 8086 family to satisfy this requirement. They have three-state output buffers that drive 32 mA on the bus interface and 10 mA on the CPU interface and can switch capacitive loads of 300 pF at the bus interface and 100 pF on the CPU interface in 22 ns (8287) or 30 ns (8286). To enable and control the direction of the transceivers, the 8086 system provides Data ENable (DEN) and Data Transmit/Receive (DT/$\overline{R}$) signals (Fig. 2C1b). These signals provide the appropriate timing to guarantee isolation of the multiplexed bus from the system during T1 and elimination of bus contention with the CPU during read and write (Diag. 2C4). Although the memory and peripheral devices are isolated from the CPU (Fig. 2C4), bus contention may still exist in the system if the devices do not have an output enable control other than chip select. As an example, bus contention will exist during transition from one chip select to another (the newly selected device begins driving the bus before the previous device has disabled its drivers). Another, more severe case exists during a write cycle. From chip select to write active, a device whose outputs are controlled only by chip select, will drive the bus simultaneously with write data being driven through the transceivers by the CPU (Diag. 2C5). The same technique given for circumventing these problems on the multiplexed bus can be applied here with the same limitations.

One last extension to the bus implementation is a second level of buffering to reduce the total load seen by devices on the system bus (Fig. 2C5). This is typically done for multiboard systems and isolation of memory arrays. The concerns with this configuration are the additional delay for access and more important, control of the second transceiver in relationship to the system bus and the device being interfaced to the system bus. Several techniques for controlling the transceiver are given in Figure 2C6. This first technique (Fig. 2C6a) simply distributes DEN and DT/$\overline{R}$ throughout the system. DT/$\overline{R}$ is inverted to provide proper direction control for the second level transceivers. The second example (Fig. 2C6b) provides control for devices with output enables. $\overline{RD}$ is used to normally direct data from the system bus to the peripheral. The buffer is selected whenever a device on the local bus is chip selected. Bus contention is possible on the device's local bus during a read as the read simultaneously enables the device output and changes the transceiver direction. The contention may also occur as the read is terminated.

For devices without output enables, the same technique can be applied (Fig. 2C6c) if the chip select to the device is conditioned by read or write. Controlling the chip select with read/write prevents the device from driving against the transceiver prior to the command being received. The limitations with this technique are access limited to read/write time and limited CS to write setup and hold times.



1 $\overline{DEN}$ IS ENABLED AFTER THE 8086 HAS FLOATED THE MULTIPLEXED BUS

2 $\overline{DEN}$ ENABLES THE TRANSCEIVERS EARLY IN THE CYCLE, BUT DT/R GUARANTEES THE TRANSCEIVERS ARE IN TRANSMIT RATHER THAN RECEIVE MODE AND WILL NOT DRIVE AGAINST THE CPU.

Diagram 2C4. Bus Transceiver Control

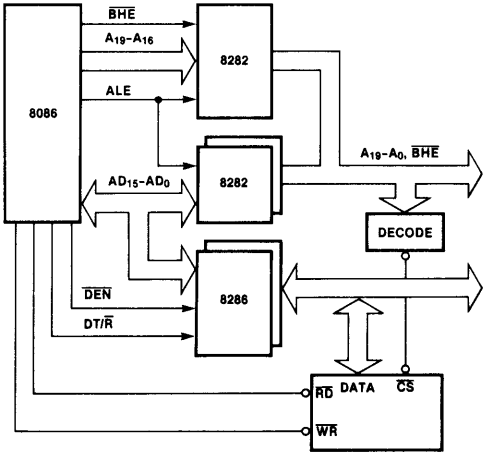


Figure 2C4. Devices with Output Enables on the System Bus

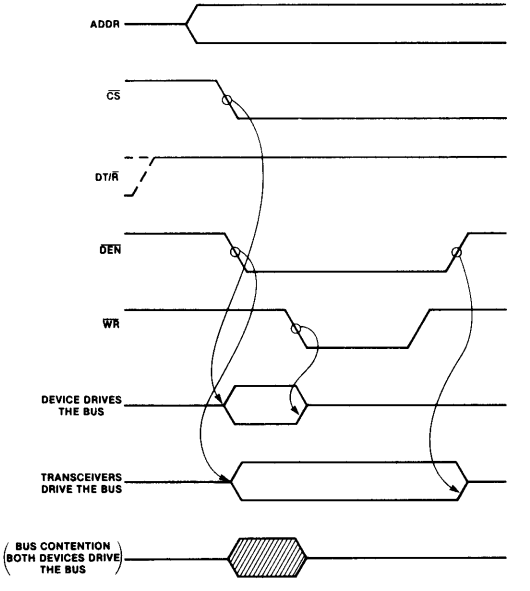


Diagram 2C5.

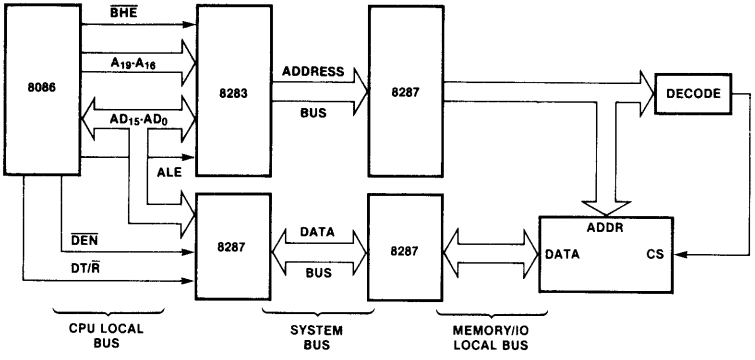


Figure 2C5. Fully Buffered System

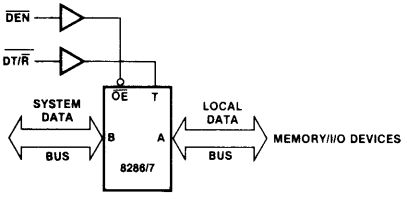


Figure 2C6a. Controlling System Transceivers with DEN and DT/R

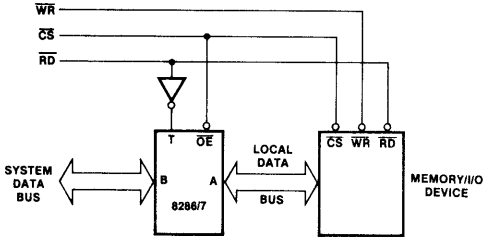


Figure 2C6b. Buffering Devices with OE/RD

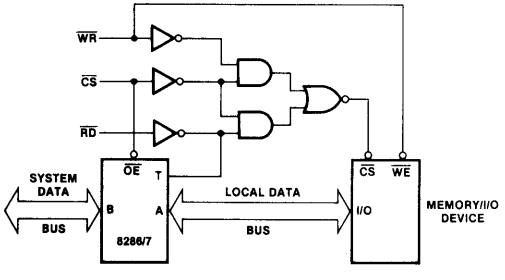


Figure 2C6c. Buffering Devices without OE/RD and with Common or Separate Input/Output

An alternate technique applicable to devices with and without output enables is shown in Figure 2C6d. RD again controls the direction of the transceiver but it is not enabled until a command and chip select are active. The possibility for bus contention still exists but is reduced to variations in output enable vs. direction change time for the transceiver. Full access time from chip select is now available, but data will not be valid prior to write and will only be held valid after write by the delay to disable the transceiver.

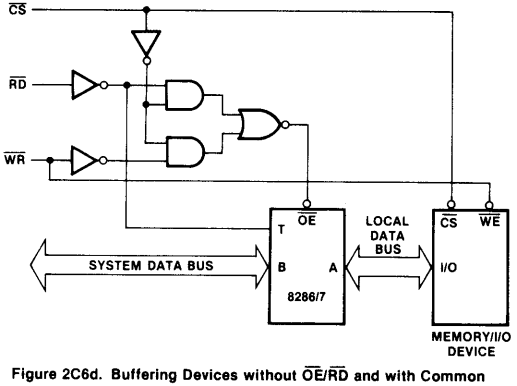


Figure 2C6d. Buffering Devices without OE/RD and with Common or Separate Input/Output

One last technique is given for devices with separate inputs and outputs (Fig. 2C6e). Separate bus receivers and drivers are provided rather than a single transceiver. The receiver is always enabled while the bus driver is controlled by RD and chip select. The only possibility for bus contention in this system occurs as multiple devices on each line of the local read bus are enabled and disabled during chip selection changes.

Throughout this note, the multiplexed bus will be considered the local CPU bus and the demultiplexed address and buffered data bus will be the system bus. For additional information on bus contention and the system problems associated with it, refer to Appendix 1.

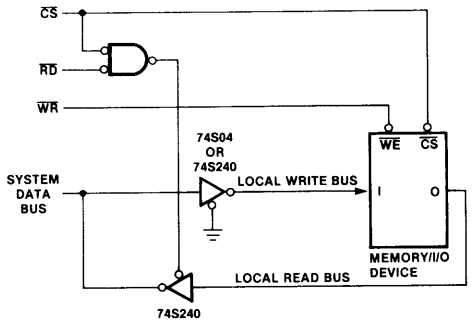


Figure 2C6e. Buffering Devices without $\overline{OE}/\overline{RD}$ and with Separate Input/Output

2D. Multiprocessor Environment

The 8086 architecture supports multiprocessor systems based on the concept of a shared system bus (Fig. 2D1). All CPU's in the system communicate with each other and share resources via the system bus. The bus may be either the Intel Multibus™ system bus or an extension of the system bus defined in the previous section. The major addition required to the demultiplexed system bus is arbitration logic to control access to the system bus. As each CPU asynchronously requests access to the shared bus, the arbitration logic resolves priorities and grants bus access to the highest priority CPU. Having gained access to the bus, the CPU completes its transfer and will either relinquish the bus or wait to be forced to relinquish the bus. For a discussion on Multibus™ arbitration techniques, refer to AP-28A, Intel Multibus™ Interfacing.

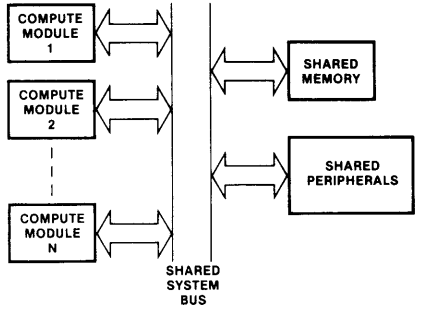


Figure 2D1. 8086 Family Multiprocessor System

To support a multimaster interface to the Multibus system bus for the 8086 family, the 8289 bus arbiter is included as part of the family. The 8289 is compatible with the 8086's local bus and in conjunction with the 8288 bus controller, implements the Multibus protocol for bus arbitration. The 8289 provides a variety of arbitration and prioritization techniques to allow optimization of bus availability, throughput and utilization of shared resources. Additional features (implemented through strapping options) extend the configuration options beyond a pure CPU interface to the multimaster system bus for access to shared resources to include concurrent support of a local CPU bus for private resources. For specific configurations and additional information on the 8289, refer to application note AP-51.

3. 8086 SYSTEM DETAILS

3A. Operating Modes

Possibly the most unique feature of the 8086 is the ability to select the base machine configuration most suited to the application. The MN/$\overline{MX}$ input to the 8086 is a strapping option which allows the designer to select between two functional definitions of a subset of the 8086 outputs.

MINIMUM MODE

The minimum mode 8086 (Fig. 3A1) is optimized for small to medium (one or two boards), single CPU systems. Its system architecture is directed at satisfying the requirements of the lower to middle segment of high performance 16-bit applications. The CPU maintains the full megabyte memory space, 64K byte I/O space and 16-bit data path. The CPU directly provides all bus control (DT/$\overline{R}$, $\overline{DEN}$, ALE, M/$\overline{IO}$), commands ($\overline{RD}$,$\overline{WR}$,$\overline{INTA}$) and a simple CPU preemption mechanism (HOLD, HLDA) compatible with existing DMA controllers.

MAXIMUM MODE

The maximum mode (Fig. 3A2) extends the system architecture to support multiprocessor configurations, and local instruction set extension processors (co-processors). Through addition of the 8288 bipolar bus controller, the 8086 outputs assigned to bus control and commands in the minimum mode are redefined to allow these extensions and enhance general system performance. Specifically, (1) two prioritized levels of processor preemption ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$, $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$) allow multiple processors to reside on the 8086's local bus and share its interface to the system bus, (2) Queue status (QS0,QS1) is available to allow external devices like ICE™-86 or special instruction set extension co-processors to track the CPU instruction execution, (3) access control to shared resources in multiprocessor systems is supported by a hardware bus lock mechanism and (4) system command and configuration options are expanded via ancillary devices like the 8288 bus controller and 8289 bus arbiter.

The queue status indicates what information is being removed from the internal queue and when the queue is being reset due to a transfer of control (Table 3A1). By monitoring the $\overline{S0}$,$\overline{S1}$,$\overline{S2}$ status lines for instructions entering the 8086 (1,0,0 indicates code access while A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ indicate word or byte) and QS0, QS1 for instructions leaving the 8086's internal queue, it is possible to track the instruction execution. Since instructions are executed from the 8086's internal queue, the queue status is presented each CPU clock cycle and is not related to the bus cycle activity. This mechanism (1) allows a co-processor to detect execution of an

ESCAPE instruction which directs the co-processor to perform a specific task and (2) allows ICE-86 to trap execution of a specific memory location. An example of a circuit used by ICE is given in Figure 3A3. The first up down counter tracks the depth of the queue while the second captures the queue depth on a match. The second counter decrements on further fetches from the queue until the queue is flushed or the count goes to zero indicating execution of the match address. The first counter decrements on fetch from the queue (QS0 = 1) and increments on code fetches into the queue. Note that a normal code fetch will transfer two bytes into the queue so two clock increments are given to the counter (T201 and T301) unless a single byte is loaded over the upper half of the bus (A0-P is high). Since the execution unit (EU) is not synchronized to the bus interface unit (BIU), a fetch from the queue can occur simultaneously with a transfer into the queue. The exclusive-or gate driving the ENP input of the first counter allows these simultaneous operations to cancel each other and not modify the queue depth.

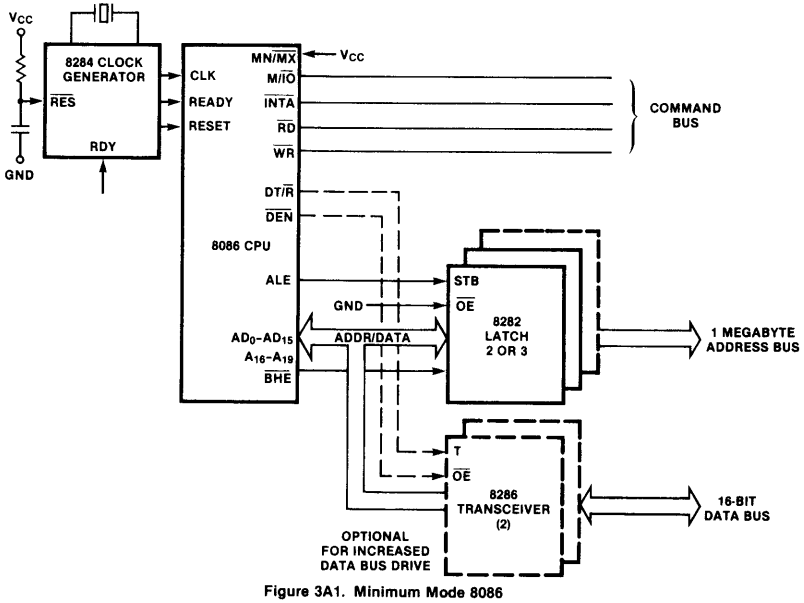


Figure 3A1. Minimum Mode 8086

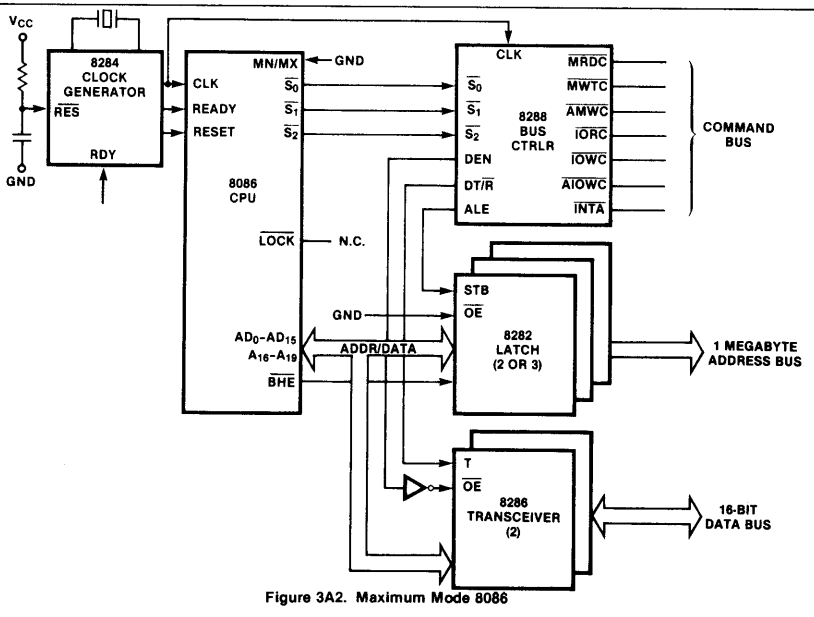


Figure 3A2. Maximum Mode 8086

TABLE 3A1. QUEUE STATUS

QS_1	QS_0	
0 (LOW)	0	No Operation
0	1	First Byte of Op Code from Queue
1 (HIGH)	0	Empty the Queue
1	1	Subsequent Byte from Queue

The queue status is valid during the CLK cycle after which the queue operation is performed.

To address the problem of controlling access to shared resources, the maximum mode 8086 provides a hardware $\overline{LOCK}$ output. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output is activated through the instruction stream by execution of the LOCK prefix instruction. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output goes active in the first CPU clock cycle following execution of the prefix and remains active until the clock following the completion of the instruction following the LOCK prefix. To provide bus access control in multiprocessor systems, the $\overline{LOCK}$ signal should be incorporated into the system bus arbitration logic resident to the CPU.

During normal multiprocessor system operation, priority of the shared system bus is determined by the arbitration circuitry on a cycle by cycle basis. As each CPU requires a transfer over the system bus, it requests access to the bus via its resident bus arbitration logic. When the CPU gains priority (determined by the system bus arbitration scheme and any associated logic), it takes control of the bus, performs its bus cycle and either maintains bus control, voluntarily releases the bus or is forced off the bus by the loss of priority. The lock mechanism prevents the CPU from losing bus control (either voluntarily or by force) and guarantees a CPU the ability to execute multiple bus cycles (during execution of the locked instruction) without intervention and possible corruption of the data by another CPU. A classic use of the mechanism is the 'TEST and SET semaphore' during which a CPU must read from a shared memory location and return data to the location without allowing another CPU to reference the same location between the TEST operation (read) and the SET operation (write). In the 8086 this is accomplished with a locked exchange instruction.

```
LOCK XCHG reg, MEMORY  ; reg is any register
                       ;MEMORY is the address of the
                       ;semaphore
```

The activity of the $\overline{LOCK}$ output is shown in Diagram 3A1. Another interesting use of the $\overline{LOCK}$ for multiprocessor systems is a locked block move which allows high speed message transfer from one CPU's message buffer to another.

During the locked instruction, a request for processor preemption ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$) is recorded but not acknowledged until completion of the locked instruction. The $\overline{LOCK}$ has no direct affect on interrupts. As an example, a locked HALT instruction will cause HOLD (or $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$) requests to be ignored but will allow the CPU to exit the HALT state on an interrupt. In general, prefix bytes are considered extensions of the instructions they precede. Therefore, interrupts that occur during execution of a prefix are not acknowledged (assuming interrupts are enabled) until completion of the instruction following the prefixes (except for instructions which allow servicing interrupts during their execution, i.e., HALT, WAIT and repeated string primitives). Note that multiple prefix bytes may precede an instruction. As another example, consider a 'string primitive' preceded by the repetition

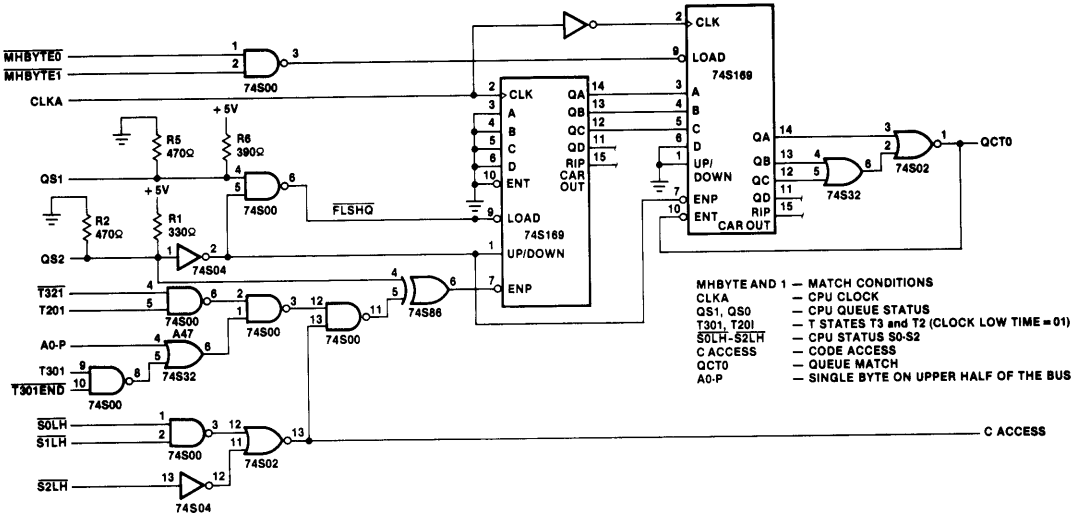


Figure 3A3. Example Circuit to Track the 8086 Queue

prefix (REP) which is interruptible after each execution of the string primitive. This holds even if the REP prefix is combined with the LOCK prefix and prevents interrupts from being locked out during a block move or other repeated string operation. As long as the operation is not interrupted, $\overline{LOCK}$ remains active. Further information on the operation of an interrupted string operation with multiple prefixes is presented in the section dealing with the 8086 interrupt structure.

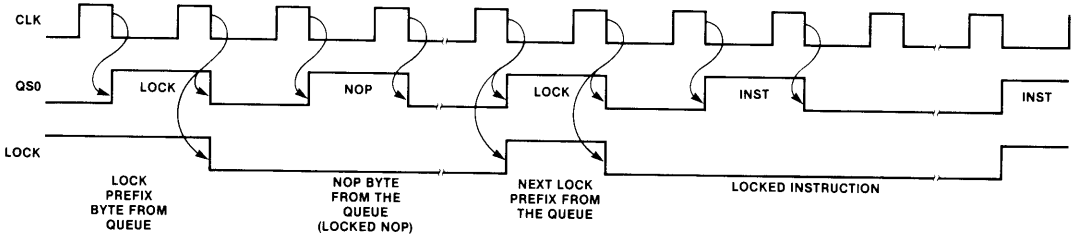
Three additional status lines ($\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, $\overline{S2}$) are defined to provide communications with the 8288 and 8289. The status lines tell the 8288 when to initiate a bus cycle, what type of command to issue and when to terminate the bus cycle. The 8288 samples the status lines at the beginning of each CPU clock (CLK). To initiate a bus cycle, the CPU drives the status lines from the passive state ($\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, $\overline{S2}$ = 1) to one of seven possible command codes (Table 3A2). This occurs on the rising edge of the clock during T4 of the previous bus cycle or a TI (idle cycle, no current bus activity). The 8288 detects the status change by sampling the status lines on the high to low transition of each clock cycle. The 8288 starts a bus cycle by generating ALE and appropriate buffer direction control in the clock cycle immediately following detection of the status change (T1). The bus transceivers and the selected command are enabled in the next clock cycle (T2) (or T3 for normal write commands). When the status returns to the passive state, the 8288 will terminate the command as shown in Diagram 3A2. Since the CPU will not return the status to the passive state until the 'ready' indication is received, the 8288 will maintain active command and bus control for any number of wait cycles. The status lines may also be used by other processors on the 8086's local bus to monitor bus activity and control the 8288 if they gain control of the local bus.

TABLE 3A2. STATUS LINE DECODES

$\overline{S_2}$	$\overline{S_1}$	$\overline{S_0}$	
0 (LOW)	0	0	Interrupt Acknowledge
0	0	1	Read I/O Port
0	1	0	Write I/O Port
0	1	1	Halt
1 (HIGH)	0	0	Code Access
1	0	1	Read Memory
1	1	0	Write Memory
1	1	1	Passive

The 8288 provides the bus control (DEN, DT/$\overline{R}$, ALE) and commands ($\overline{INTA}$, $\overline{MRDC}$, $\overline{IORC}$, $\overline{MWTC}$, $\overline{AMWC}$, $\overline{IOWC}$, $\overline{AIOWC}$) removed from the CPU. The command structure has separate read and write commands for memory and I/O to provide compatibility with the Multibus command structure.

The advanced write commands are enabled one clock period earlier than the normal write to accommodate the wider write pulse widths often required by peripherals and static RAMs. The normal write provides data setup prior to write to accommodate dynamic RAM memories and I/O devices which strobe data on the leading edge of write. The advanced write commands do not guarantee that data is valid prior to the leading edge of the command. The DEN signal in the maximum mode is inverted from the minimum mode to extend transceiver control by allowing logical conjunction of DEN with other signals. While not appearing to be a significant benefit in the basic maximum mode configuration, introduction of interrupt control and various system configurations will demonstrate the usefulness of qualifying DEN. Diagram 3A3 compares the timing of the minimum and maximum mode bus transfer commands. Although the



1 QUEUE STATUS INDICATES FIRST BYTE OF OPCODE FROM THE QUEUE.

2 THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT WILL GO INACTIVE BETWEEN SEPARATE LOCKED INSTRUCTIONS.

3 TWO CLOCKS ARE REQUIRED FOR DECODE OF THE LOCK PREFIX AND ACTIVATION OF THE $\overline{LOCK}$ SIGNAL.

4 SINCE QUEUE STATUS REFLECTS THE QUEUE OPERATION IN THE PREVIOUS CLOCK CYCLE, THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT ACTUALLY GOES ACTIVE COINCIDENT WITH THE START OF THE NEXT INSTRUCTION AND REMAINS ACTIVE FOR ONE CLOCK CYCLE FOLLOWING THE INSTRUCTION.

5 IF THE INSTRUCTION FOLLOWING THE LOCK PREFIX IS NOT IN THE QUEUE, THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT STILL GOES ACTIVE AS SHOWN WHILE THE INSTRUCTION IS BEING FETCHED.

6 THE BIU WILL STILL PERFORM INSTRUCTION FETCH CYCLES DURING EXECUTION OF A LOCKED INSTRUCTION. THE $\overline{LOCK}$ MERELY LOCKS THE BUS TO THIS CPU FOR WHATEVER BUS CYCLES THE CPU PERFORMS DURING THE LOCKED INSTRUCTION.

Diagram 3A1. 8086 Lock Activity

maximum mode configuration is designed for multiprocessor environments, large single CPU designs (either Multibus systems or greater than two PC boards) should also use the maximum mode. Since the 8288 is a bipolar dedicated controller device, its output drive for the commands (32 mA) and tolerances on AC characteristics (timing parameters and worse case delays) provide better large system performance than the minimum mode 8086.

In addition to assuming the functions removed from the CPU, the 8288 provides additional strapping options and controls to support multiprocessor configurations and peripheral devices on the CPU local bus. These capabilities allow assigning resources (memory or I/O) as shared (available on the Multibus system bus) or private (accessible only by this CPU) to reduce contention for access to the Multibus system bus and improve multi-CPU system performance. Specific configuration possibilities are discussed in AP-51.

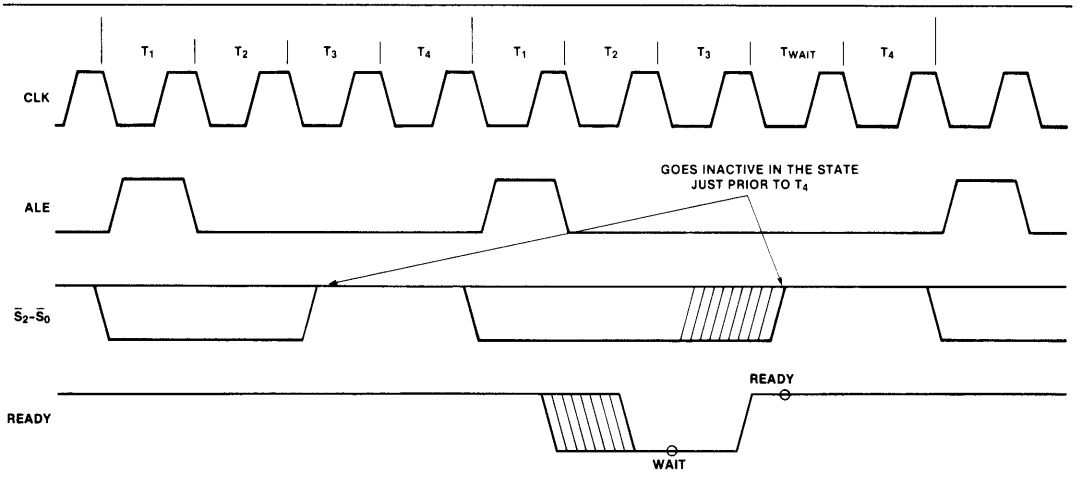


Diagram 3A2. Status Line Activation and Termination

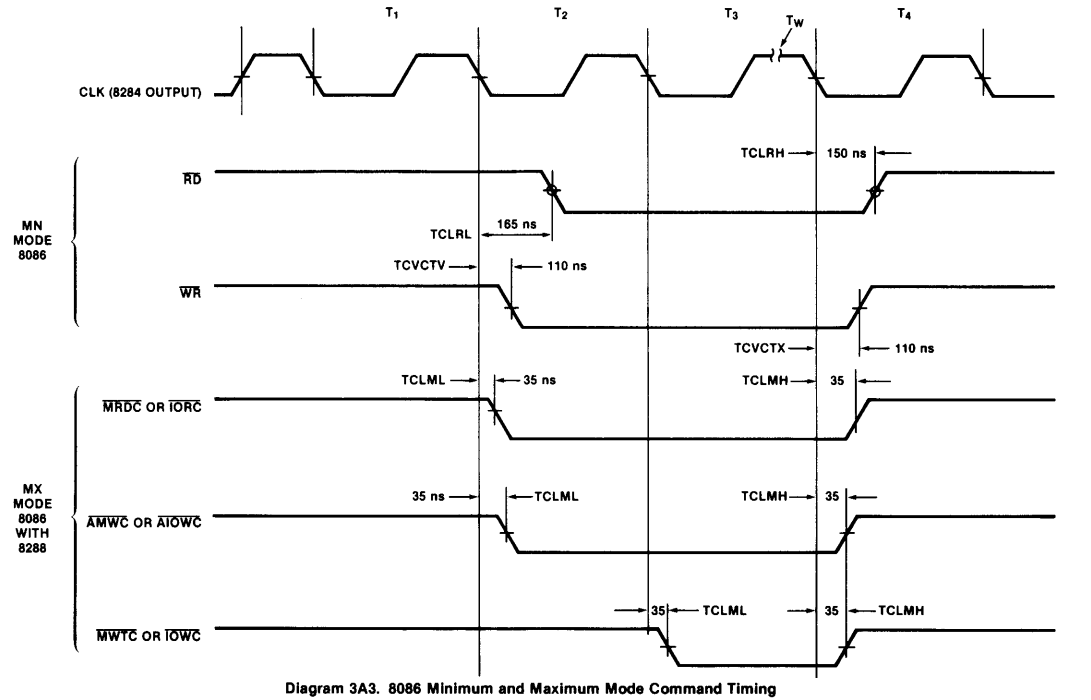


Diagram 3A3. 8086 Minimum and Maximum Mode Command Timing

3B. Clock Generation

The 8086 requires a clock signal with fast rise and fall times (10 ns max) between low and high voltages of −0.5 to +0.6 low and 3.9 to VCC+1.0 high. The maximum clock frequency of the 8086 is 5 MHz and 8 MHz for the 8086-2. Since the design of the 8086 incorporates dynamic cells, a minimum frequency of 2 MHz is required to retain the state of the machine. Due to the minimum frequency requirement, single stepping or cycling of the CPU may not be accomplished by disabling the clock. The timing and voltage requirements of the CPU clock are shown in Figure 3B1. In general, for frequencies below the maximum, the CPU clock need not satisfy the frequency dependent pulse width limitations stated in the 8086 data sheet. The values specified only reflect the minimum values which must be satisfied and are stated in terms of the maximum clock frequency. As the clock frequency approaches the maximum frequency of the CPU, the clock must conform to a 33% duty cycle to satisfy the CPU minimum clock low and high time specifications.

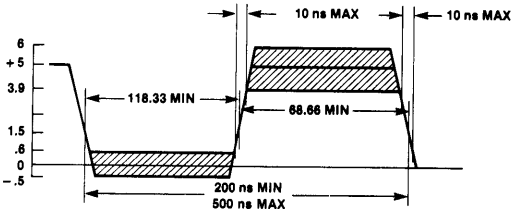


Figure 3B1. 8086 Clock

An optimum 33% duty cycle clock with the required voltage levels and transition times can be obtained with the 8284 clock generator (Fig. 3B2). Either an external frequency source or a series resonant crystal may drive the 8284. The selected source must oscillate at 3X the desired CPU frequency. To select the crystal inputs of the 8284 as the frequency source for clock generation, the F/$\overline{C}$ input to the 8284 must be strapped to ground. The strapping option allows selecting either the crystal or the external frequency input as the source for clock generation. Although the 8284 provides an input for a tank circuit to accommodate overtone mode crystals, fundamental mode crystals are recommended for more accurate and stable frequency generation. When selecting a crystal for use with the 8284, the series resistance should be as low as possible. Since other circuit components will tend to shift the operating frequency from resonance, the operating impedance will typically be higher than the specified series resistance. If the attenuation of the oscillator's feedback circuit reduces the loop gain to less than one, the oscillator will fail. Since the oscillator delays in the 8284 appear as inductive elements to the crystal, causing it to run at a frequency below that of the pure series resonance, a capacitor should be placed in series with the crystal and the X2 input of the 8284. This capacitor serves to cancel this inductive element. The value of the capacitor (CL) must not cause the impedance of the feedback circuit to reduce the loop gain below one. The impedance of the capacitor is a function of the operating frequency and can be determined from the following equation:

$$XCL = 1/2\pi * F * CL$$

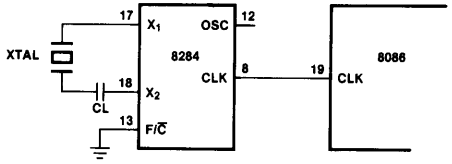


Figure 3B2. 8284 Clock Generator

It is recommended that the crystal series resistance plus XCL be kept less than 1K ohms. This capacitor also serves to debias the crystal and prevent a DC voltage bias from straining and perhaps damaging the crystalline structure. As the crystal frequency increases, the amount of capacitance should be decreased. For example, a 12 MHz crystal may require CL ~ 24 pF while 22 MHz may require CL ~ 8 pF. If very close correlation with the pure series resonance is not necessary, a nominal CL value of 12-15 pF may be used with a 15 MHz crystal (5 MHz 8086 operation). Board layout and component variances will affect the actual amount of inductance and therefore the series capacitance required to cancel it out (this is especially true for wire-wrapped layouts).

Two of the many vendors which supply crystals for Intel microprocessors are listed in Table 3B1 along with a list of crystal part numbers for various frequencies which may be of interest. For additional information on specifying crystals for Intel components refer to application note AP-35.

TABLE 3B1. CRYSTAL VENDORS

f	Parallel/ Series	Crystek[1] Corp.	CTS Knight,[2] Inc.
15.0 MHz	S	CY15A	MP150
18.432	S	CY19B*	MP184*
24.0 MHz	S	CY24A	MP240

*Intel also supplies a crystal numbered 8801 for this application.

Notes: 1. Address: 1000 Crystal Drive, Fort Meyers, Florida 33901
2. Address: 400 Reimann Ave., Sandwich, Illinois

If a high accuracy frequency source, externally variable frequency source or a common source for driving multiple 8284's is desired, the External Frequency Input (EFI) of the 8284 can be selected by strapping the F/$\overline{C}$ input to 5 volts through ~1K ohms (Fig. 3B3). The external frequency source should be TTL compatible, have a 50% duty cycle and oscillate at three times the desired CPU operating frequency. The maximum EFI frequency the 8284 can accept is slightly above 24 MHz with minimum clock low and high times of 13 ns. Although

no minimum EFI frequency is specified, it should not violate the CPU minimum clock rate. If a common frequency source is used to drive multiple 8284's distributed throughout the system, each 8284 should be driven by its own line from the source. To minimize noise in the system, each line should be a twisted pair driven by a buffer like the 74LS04 with the ground of the twisted pair connecting the grounds of the source and receiver. To minimize clock skew, the lines to all 8284's should be of equal length. A simple technique for generating a master frequency source for additional 8284's is shown in Figure 3B4. One 8284 with a crystal is used to generate the desired frequency. The oscillator output of the 8284 (OSC) equals the crystal frequency and is used to drive the external frequency to all other 8284's in the system.

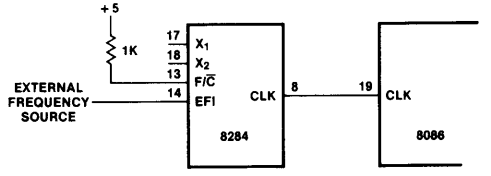


Figure 3B3. 8284 with External Frequency Source

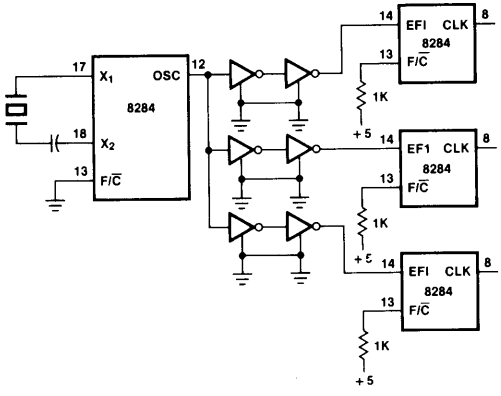


Figure 3B4. External Frequency for Multiple 8284s

The oscillator output is inverted from the oscillator signal used to drive the CPU clock generator circuit. Therefore, the oscillator output of one 8284 should not drive the EFI input of a second 8284 if both are driving clock inputs of separate CPU's that are to be synchronized. The variation on EFI to CLK delay over a range of 8284's may approach 35 to 45 ns. If, however, all 8284's are of the same package type, have the same relative supply voltage and operate in the same temperature environment, the variation will be reduced to between 15 and 25 ns.

There are three frequency outputs from the 8284, the oscillator (OSC) mentioned above, the system clock (CLK) which drives the CPU, and a peripheral clock (PCLK) that runs at one half the CPU clock frequency. The oscillator output is only driven by the crystal and is not affected by the F/$\overline{C}$ strapping option. If a crystal is not connected to the 8284 when the external frequency input is used, the oscillator output is indeterminate. The CPU clock is derived from the selected frequency source by an internal divide by three counter. The counter generates the 33% duty cycle clock which is optimum for the CPU at maximum frequency. The peripheral clock has a 50% duty cycle and is derived from the CPU clock. Diagram 3B0 shows the relationship of CLK to OSC and PCLK to CLK. The maximum skew is 20 ns between OSC and CLK, and 22 ns between CLK and PCLK.

Since the state of the 8284 divide by three counter is indeterminate at system initialization (power on), an external sync to the counter (CSYNC) is provided to allow synchronization of the CPU clock to an external event. When CSYNC is brought high, the CLK and PCLK outputs are forced high. When CSYNC returns low, the next positive clock from the frequency source starts clock generation. CSYNC must be active for a minimum of two periods of the frequency source. If CSYNC is asynchronous to the frequency source, the circuit in Figure 3B5 should be used for synchronization. The two latches minimize the probability of a meta-stable state in the latch driving CSYNC. The latches are clocked with the inverse of the frequency source to guarantee the 8284 setup and hold time of CSYNC to the frequency source (Diag. 3B1). If a single 8284 is to be synchronized to an external event and an external frequency source is not used, the oscillator output of the 8284 may be used to

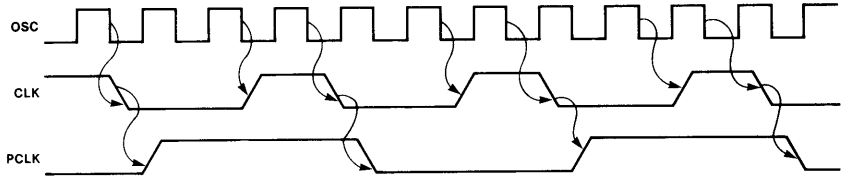


Diagram 3B0. OSC → CLK and CLK → PCLK Relationships

synchronize CSYNC (Fig. 3B6). Since the oscillator output is inverted from the internal oscillator signal, the inverter in the previous example is not required. If multiple 8284's are to be synchronized, an external frequency source must drive all 8284's and a single CSYNC synchronization circuit must drive the CSYNC input of all 8284's (Fig. 3B7). Since activation of CSYNC may cause violation of CPU minimum clock low time, it should only be enabled during reset or CPU clock high. CSYNC must also be disabled a minimum of four CPU clocks before the end of reset to guarantee proper CPU reset.

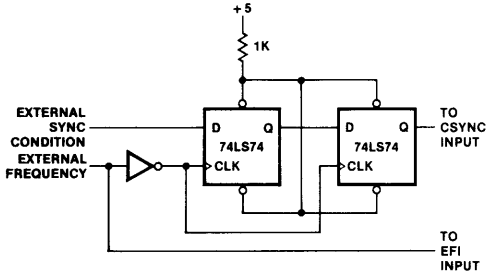
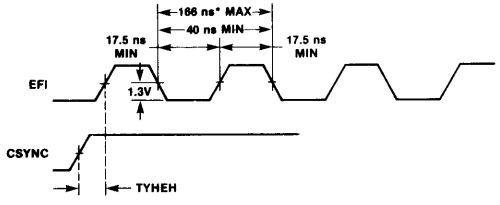


Figure 3B5. Synchronizing CSYNC with EFI



*MAX IS SPEC'ED TO GUARANTEE MAX 8086 CLOCK FREQUENCY

Diagram 3B1. CSYNC Setup and Hold to EFI

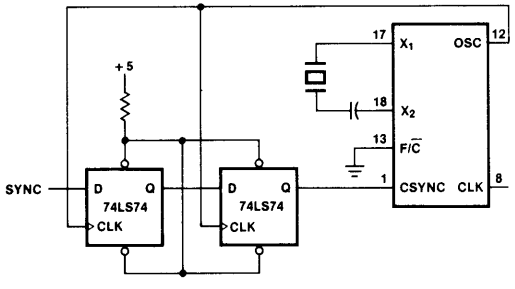


Figure 3B6. EFI from 8284 Oscillator

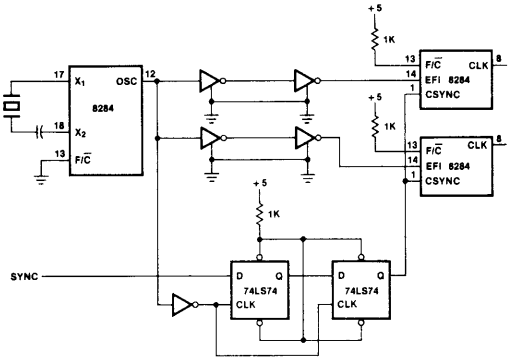


Figure 3B7. Synchronizing Multiple 8284s

Due to the fast transitions and high drive (5 mA) of the 8284 CLK output, it may be necessary to put a 10 to 100 ohm resistor in series with the clock line to eliminate ringing (resistor value depending on the amount of drive required). If multiple sources of CLK are needed with minimum skew, CLK can be buffered by a high drive device (74S241) with outputs tied to 5 volts through 100 ohms to guarantee VOH = 3.9 min (8086 minimum clock input high voltage) (Fig. 3B8). A single 8284 should not be used to generate the CLK for multiple CPU's that do not share a common local (multiplexed) bus since the 8284 synchronizes ready to the CPU and can only accommodate ready for a single CPU. If multiple CPU's share a local bus, they should be driven with the same clock to optimize transfer of bus control. Under these circumstances, only one CPU will be using the bus for a particular bus cycle which allows sharing a common READY signal (Fig. 3B9).

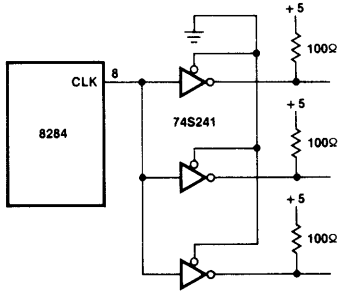


Figure 3B8. Buffering the 8284 CLK Output

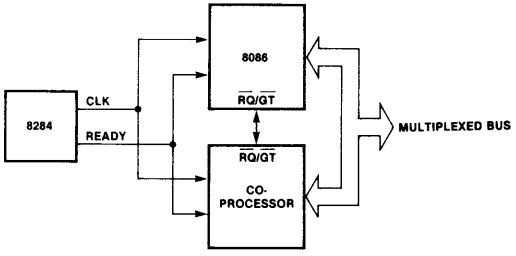


Figure 3B9. 8086 and Co-Processor on the Local Bus Share a Common 8284

3C. Reset

The 8086 requires a high active reset with minimum pulse width of four CPU clocks except after power on which requires a 50 μs reset pulse. Since the CPU internally synchronizes reset with the clock, the reset is internally active for up to one clock period after the external reset. Non-Maskable Interrupts (NMI) or hold requests on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ which occur during the internal reset, are not acknowledged. A minimum mode hold request or maximum mode $\overline{RQ}$ pulses active immediately after the internal reset will be honored before the first instruction fetch.

From reset, the 8086 will condition the bus as shown in Table 3C1. The multiplexed bus will three-state upon detection of reset by the CPU. Other signals which three-state will be driven to the inactive state for one clock low interval prior to entering three-state (Fig. 3C1). In the minimum mode, ALE and HLDA are driven inactive and are not three-stated. In the maximum mode, $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ lines are held inactive and the queue status indicates no activity. The queue status will not indicate a reset of the queue so any user defined external circuits monitoring the queue should also be reset by the system reset. 22K ohm pull-up resistors should be connected to the CPU command and bus control lines to guarantee the inactive state of these lines in systems where leakage currents or bus capacitance may cause the voltage levels to settle below the minimum high voltage of devices in the system. In maximum mode systems, the 8288 contains internal pull-ups on the $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ inputs to maintain the inactive state for these lines when the CPU floats the bus. The high state of the status lines during reset causes the 8288 to treat the reset sequence as a passive state. The condition of the 8288 outputs for the passive state are shown in Table 3C2. If the reset occurs during a bus cycle, the return of the status lines to the passive state will terminate the bus cycle and return the command lines to the inactive state. Note that the 8288 does not three-state the command outputs based on the passive state of the status lines. If the designer needs to three-state the CPU off the bus during reset in a single CPU system, the reset signal should also be connected to the 8288's $\overline{AEN}$ input and the output enable of the address latches (Fig. 3C2). This forces the command and address bus interface to three-state while the inactive state of DEN from the 8288 three-states the transceivers on the data bus.

Table 3C1. 8086 Bus During Reset

Signals	Condition
$AD_{15\text{-}0}$	Three-State
$A_{19\text{-}16}/S_{6\text{-}3}$	Three-State
BHE/S_7	Three-State
$\overline{S2}/(M/\overline{IO})$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{S1}/(DT/\overline{R})$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{S0}/\overline{DEN}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$LOCK/\overline{WR}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{RD}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{INTA}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
ALE	0
HLDA	0
$\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$	1
$\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$	1
QS0	0
QS1	0

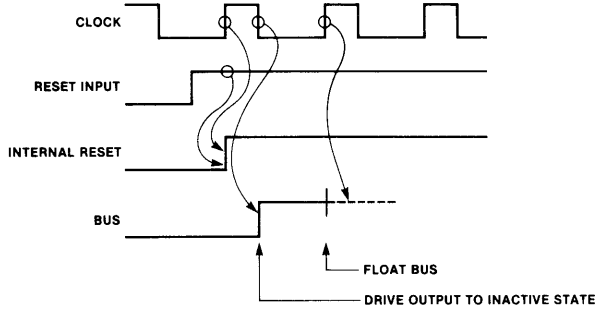


Figure 3C1. 8086 Bus Conditioning on Reset

TABLE 3C2. 8288 OUTPUTS DURING PASSIVE MODE

ALE	0
DEN	0
DT/$\overline{R}$	1
MCE/PDEN	0/1
COMMANDS	1

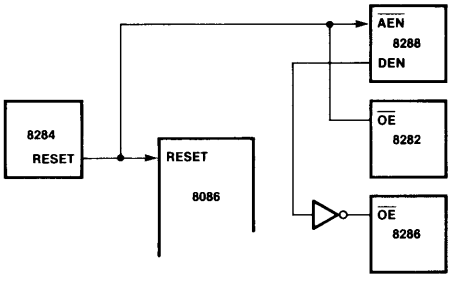


Figure 3C2. Reset Disable for Max Mode 8086 Bus Interface

For multiple processor systems using arbitration of a multimaster bus, the system reset should be connected to the INIT input of the 8289 bus arbiter in addition to the 8284 reset input (Fig. 3C3). The low active INIT input forces all 8289 outputs to their inactive state. The inactive state of the 8289 AEN output will force the 8288 to three-state the command outputs and the address latches to three-state the address bus interface. DEN inactive from the 8288 will three-state the data bus interface. For the multimaster CPU configuration, the reset should be common to all CPU's (8289's and 8284's) and satisfy the maximum of either the CPU reset requirements or 3 TBLBL (3 8289 bus clock times) + 3 TCLCL (3 8086 clock cycle times) to satisfy 8289 reset requirements.

If the 8288 command outputs are three-stated during reset, the command lines should be pulled up to V_{CC} through 2.2K ohm resistors.

The reset signal to the 8086 can be generated by the 8284. The 8284 has a schmitt trigger input ($\overline{RES}$) for generating reset from a low active external reset. The hysteresis specified in the 8284 data sheet implies that at least .25 volts will separate the 0 and 1 switching point of the 8284 reset input. Inputs without hysteresis will switch from low to high and high to low at approximately the same voltage threshold. The inputs are guaranteed to switch at specified low and high voltages (VIL and VIH) but the actual switching point is anywhere in-between. Since VIL min is specified at .8 volts, the hysteresis guarantees that the reset will be active until the input reaches at least 1.05 volts. A reset will not be recognized until the input drops at least .25 volts below the reset inputs VIH of 2.6 volts.

To guarantee reset from power up, the reset input must remain below 1.05 volts for 50 microseconds after V_{CC} has reached the minimum supply voltage of 4.5 volts. The hysteresis allows the reset input to be driven by a simple RC circuit as shown in Figure 3C4. The calculated RC value does not include time for the power supply to reach 4.5 volts or the charge accumulated during this interval. Without the hysteresis, the reset output might oscillate as the input voltage passes through the switching voltage of the input. The calculated RC value provides the minimum required reset period of 50 microseconds for 8284's that switch at the 1.05 volt level and a reset period of approximately 162 microseconds for 8284's that switch at the 2.6 volt level. If tighter tolerance between the minimum and maximum reset times is necessary, the reset circuit shown in Figure 3C5 might be used rather than the simple RC circuit. This circuit provides a constant current source and a linear charge rate on the capacitor rather than the inverse exponential charge rate of the RC circuit. The maximum reset period for this implementation is 124 microseconds.

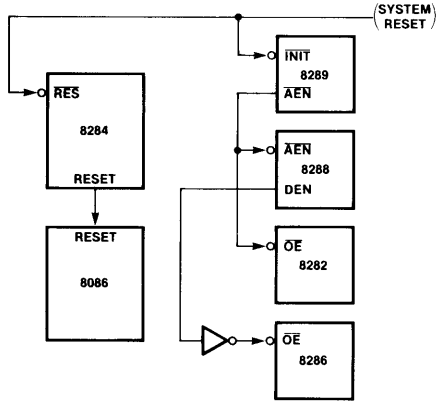


Figure 3C3. Reset Disable of for Max Mode 8086 Bus Interface in Multi CPU System

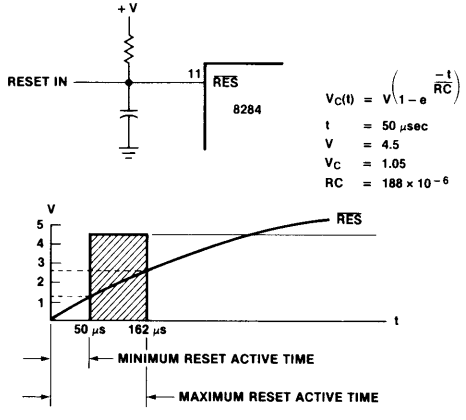


Figure 3C4. 8284 Reset Circuit

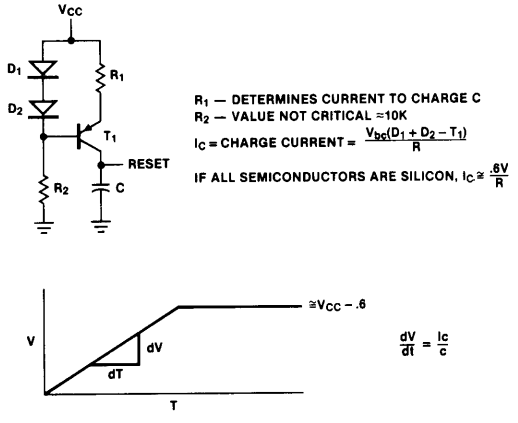


Figure 3C5. Constant Current Power-On Reset Circuit

The 8284 synchronizes the reset input with the CPU clock to generate the RESET signal to the CPU (Fig. 3C6). The output is also available as a general reset to the entire system. The reset has no effect on any clock circuits in the 8284.

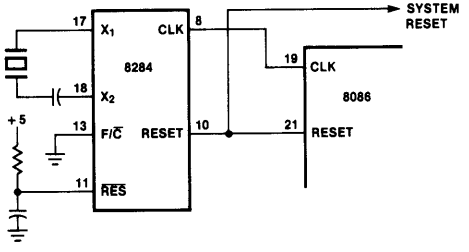


Figure 3C6. 8086 Reset and System Reset

3D. Ready Implementation and Timing

As discussed previously, the ready signal is used in the system to accommodate memory and I/O devices that cannot transfer information at the maximum CPU bus bandwidth. Ready is also used in multiprocessor systems to force the CPU to wait for access to the system bus or Multibus system bus. To insert a wait state in the bus cycle, the READY signal to the CPU must be inactive (low) by the end of T2. To avoid insertion of a wait state, READY must be active (high) within a specified setup time prior to the positive transition during T3. Depending on the size and characteristics of the system, ready implementation may take one of two approaches.

The classical ready implementation is to have the system 'normally not ready.' When the selected device receives the command ($\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}/\overline{INTA}$) and has had sufficient time to complete the command, it activates READY to the CPU, allowing the CPU to terminate the bus cycle. This implementation is characteristic of large multiprocessor, Multibus systems or systems where propagation delays, bus access delays and device characteristics inherently slow down the system. For maximum system performance, devices that can run with no wait states must return 'READY' within the previously described limit. Failure to respond in time will only result in the insertion of one or more wait cycles.

An alternate technique is to have the system 'normally ready.' All devices are assumed to operate at the maximum CPU bus bandwidth. Devices that do not meet the requirement must disable READY by the end of T2 to guarantee the insertion of wait cycles. This implementation is typically applied to small single CPU systems and reduces the logic required to control the ready signal. Since the failure of a device requiring wait states to disable READY by the end of T2 will result in premature termination of the bus cycle, the system timing must be carefully analyzed when using this approach.

The 8086 has two different timing requirements on READY depending on the system implementation. For a 'normally ready' system to insert a wait state, the READY must be disabled within 8 ns (TRYLCL) after the end of T2 (start of T3) (Diag. 3D1). To guarantee proper

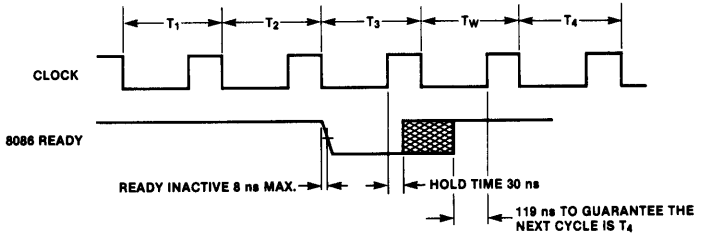


Diagram 3D1. Normally Ready System Inserting a Wait State

operation of the 8086, the READY input must not change from ready to not ready during the clock low time of T3. For a 'normally not ready' system to avoid wait states, READY must be active within 119 ns (TRYHCH) of the positive clock transition during T3 (Diag. 3D2). For both cases, READY must satisfy a hold time of 30 ns (TCHRYX) from the T3 or TW positive clock transition.

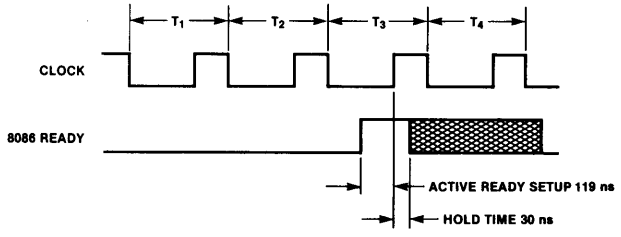


Diagram 3D2. Normally Not Ready System Avoiding a Wait State

To generate a stable READY signal which satisfies the previous setup and hold times, the 8284 provides two separate system ready inputs (RDY1, RDY2) and a single synchronized ready output (READY) for the CPU. The RDY inputs are qualified with separate access enables ($\overline{AEN1}$,$\overline{AEN2}$, low active) to allow selecting one of the two ready signals (Fig. 3D1). The gated signals are logically OR'ed and sampled at the beginning of each CLK cycle to generate READY to the CPU (Diag. 3D3). The sampled READY signal is valid within 8 ns (TRYLCL) after CLK to satisfy the CPU timing requirements on 'not ready' and ready. Since READY cannot change until the next CLK, the hold time requirements are also satisfied. The system ready inputs to the 8284 (RDY1,RDY2) must be valid 35 ns (TRIVCL) before T3 and $\overline{AEN}$ must be valid 60 ns before T3. For a system using only one RDY input, the associated $\overline{AEN}$ is tied to ground while the other $\overline{AEN}$ is connected to 5 volts through ~1K ohms (Fig. 3D2a). If the system generates a low active ready signal, it can be connected to the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input if the additional setup time required by the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input is satisfied. In this case, the associated RDY input would be tied high (Fig. 3D2b).

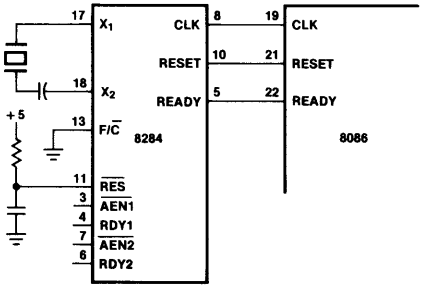
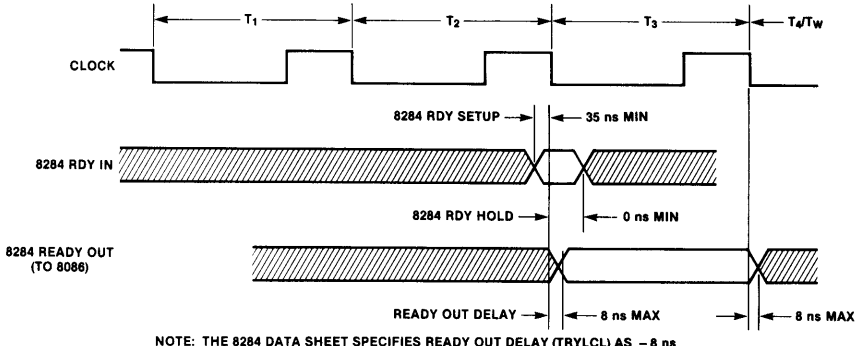


Figure 3D1. Ready Inputs to the 8284 and Output to the 8086



NOTE: THE 8284 DATA SHEET SPECIFIES READY OUT DELAY (TRYLCL) AS −8 ns 'BEFORE' THE END OF T_2 WHICH IMPLIES THE TIMING SHOWN.

Diagram 3D3. 8284 with 8086 Ready Timing

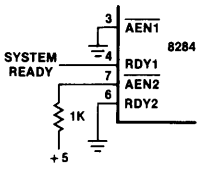


Figure 3D2a. Using RDY1/RDY2 to Generate Ready

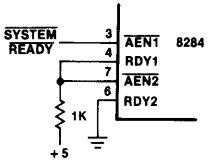


Figure 3D2b. Using $\overline{AEN1}$/$\overline{AEN2}$ to Generate Ready

The majority of memory and peripheral devices which fail to operate at the maximum CPU frequency typically do not require more than one wait state. The circuit given in Figure 3D3 is an example of a simple wait state generator. The system ready line is driven low whenever a device requiring one wait state is selected. The flip flop is cleared by ALE, enabling RDY to the 8284. If no wait states are required, the flip flop does not change. If the system ready is driven low, the flip flop toggles on the low to high clock transition of T2 to force one wait state. The next low to high clock transition toggles the flip flop again to indicate ready and allow completion of the bus cycle. Further changes in the state of the flip flop will not affect the bus cycle. The circuit allows approximately 100 ns for chip select decode and conditioning of the system ready (Diag. 3D4).

If the system is 'normally not ready,' the programmer should not assign executable code to the last six bytes of physical memory. Since the 8086 prefetches instructions, the CPU may attempt to access non-existent memory when executing code at the end of physical memory. If the access to non-existent memory fails to enable READY, the system will be caught in an indefinite wait.

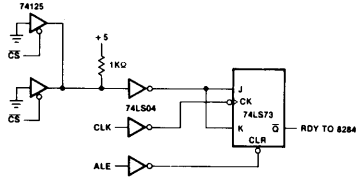


Figure 3D3. Single Wait State Generator

3E. Interrupt Structure

The 8086 interrupt structure is based on a table of interrupt vectors stored in memory locations 0H through 003FFH. Each vector consists of two bytes for the instruction pointer and two bytes for the code segment. These two values combine to form the address of the interrupt service routine. This allows the table to contain up to 256 interrupt vectors which specify the starting address of the service routines anywhere in the one megabyte address space of the 8086. If fewer than 256 different interrupts are defined in the system, the user need only allocate enough memory for the interrupt vector table to provide the vectors for the defined interrupts. During initial system debug, however, it may be desirable to assign all undefined interrupt types to a trap routine to detect erroneous interrupts.

Each vector is associated with an interrupt type number which points to the vector's location in the interrupt vector table. The interrupt type number multiplied by four gives the displacement of the first byte of the associated interrupt vector from the beginning of the table. As an example, interrupt type number 5 points to the sixth entry in the interrupt vector table. The contents of this entry in the table points to the interrupt service routine for type 5 (Fig. 3E1). This structure allows the user to specify the memory address of each service routine by placing the address (instruction pointer and code segment values) in the table location provided for that type interrupt.

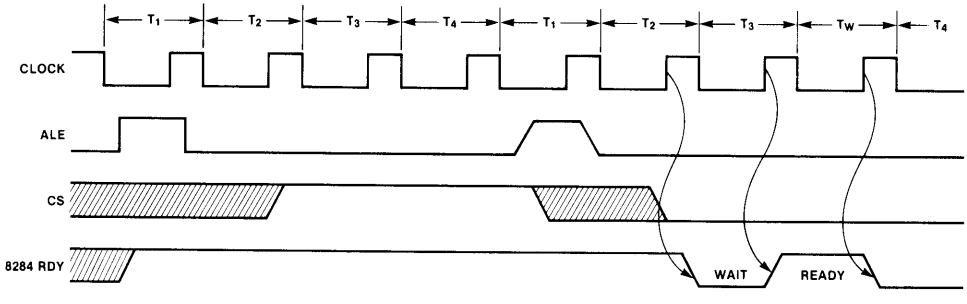


Diagram 3D4.

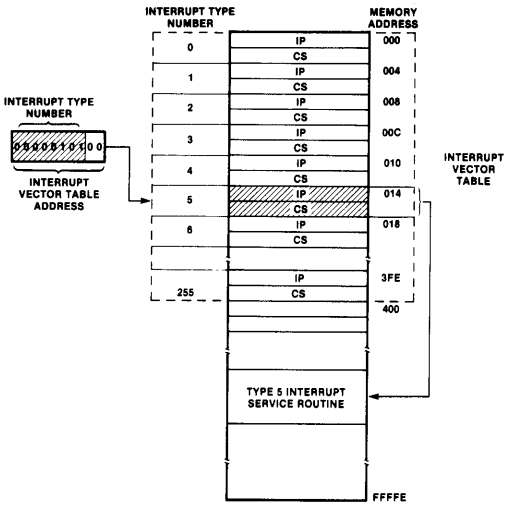


Figure 3E1. Direction to Interrupt Service Routine through the Interrupt Vector Table

All interrupts in the 8086 must be assigned an interrupt type which uniquely identifies each interrupt. There are three classes of interrupt types in the 8086; predefined interrupt types which are issued by specific functions within the 8086 and user defined hardware and software interrupts. Note that any interrupt type including the predefined interrupts can be issued by the user's hardware and/or software.

PREDEFINED INTERRUPTS

The predefined interrupt types in the 8086 are listed below with a brief description of how each is invoked. When invoked, the CPU will transfer control to the memory location specified by the vector associated with the specific type. The user must provide the interrupt service routine and initialize the interrupt vector table with the appropriate service routine address. The user may additionally invoke these interrupts through hardware or software. If the preassigned function is not used in the system, the user may assign some other function to the associated type. However, for compatibility with future Intel hardware and software products for the 8086 family, interrupt types 0-31 should not be assigned as user defined interrupts.

TYPE 0 — DIVIDE ERROR

This interrupt type is invoked whenever a division operation is attempted during which the quotient exceeds the maximum value (ex. division by zero). The interrupt is non-maskable and is entered as part of the execution of the divide instruction. If interrupts are not reenabled by the divide error interrupt service routine, the service routine execution time should be included in the worst case divide instruction execution time (primarily when considering the longest instruction execution time and its effect on latency to servicing hardware interrupts).

TYPE 1 — SINGLE STEP

This interrupt type occurs one instruction after the TF (Trap Flag) is set in the flag register. It is used to allow software single stepping through a sequence of code. Single stepping is initiated by copying the flags onto the stack, setting the TF bit on the stack and popping the flags. The interrupt routine should be the single step routine. The interrupt sequence saves the flags and program counter, then resets the TF flag to allow the single step routine to execute normally. To return to the routine under test, an interrupt return restores the IP, CS and flags with TF set. This allows the execution of the next instruction in the program under test before trapping back to the single step routine. Single Step is not masked by the IF (Interrupt Flag) bit in the flag register.

TYPE 2 — NMI (Non-Maskable Interrupt)

This is the highest priority hardware interrupt and is non-maskable. The input is edge triggered but is synchronized with the CPU clock and must be active for two clock cycles to guarantee recognition. The interrupt signal may be removed prior to entry to the service routine. Since the input must make a low to high transition to generate an interrupt, spurious transitions on the input should be suppressed. If the input is normally high, the NMI low time to guarantee triggering is two CPU clock times. This input is typically reserved for catastrophic failures like power failure or timeout of a system watchdog timer.

TYPE 3 — ONE BYTE INTERRUPT

This is invoked by a special form of the software interrupt instruction which requires a single byte of code space. Its primary use is as a breakpoint interrupt for software debug. With full representation within a single byte, the instruction can map into the smallest instruction for absolute resolution in setting breakpoints. The interrupt is not maskable.

TYPE 4 — INTERRUPT ON OVERFLOW

This interrupt occurs if the overflow flag (OF) is set in the flag register and the INTO instruction is executed. The instruction allows trapping to an overflow error service routine. The interrupt is non-maskable.

Interrupt types 0 and 2 can occur without specific action by the programmer (except for performing a divide for Type 0) while types 1, 3, and 4 require a conscious act by the programmer to generate these interrupt types. All but type 2 are invoked through software activity and are directly associated with a specific instruction.

USER DEFINED SOFTWARE INTERRUPTS

The user can generate an interrupt through the software with a two byte interrupt instruction INT nn. The first byte is the INT opcode while the second byte (nn) contains the type number of the interrupt to be performed. The INT instruction is not maskable by the interrupt enable flag. This instruction can be used to transfer control to routines that are dynamically relocatable and whose location in memory is not known by the calling

program. This technique also saves the flags of the calling program on the stack prior to transferring control. The called procedure must return control with an interrupt return (IRET) instruction to remove the flags from the stack and fully restore the state of the calling program.

All interrupts invoked through software (all interrupts discussed thus far with the exception of NMI) are not maskable with the IF flag and initiate the transfer of control at the end of the instruction in which they occur. They do not initiate interrupt acknowledge bus cycles and will disable subsequent maskable interrupts by resetting the IF and TF flags. The interrupt vector for these interrupt types is either implied or specified in the instruction. Since the NMI is an asynchronous event to the CPU, the point of recognition and initiation of the transfer of control is similar to the maskable hardware interrupts.

USER DEFINED HARDWARE INTERRUPTS

The maskable interrupts initiated by the system hardware are activated through the INTR pin of the 8086 and are masked by the IF bit of the status register (interrupt flag). During the last clock cycle of each instruction, the state of the INTR pin is sampled. The 8086 deviates from this rule when the instruction is a MOV or POP to a segment register. For this case, the interrupts are not sampled until completion of the following instruction. This allows a 32-bit pointer to be loaded to the stack pointer registers SS and SP without the danger of an interrupt occurring between the two loads. Another exception is the WAIT instruction which waits for a low active input on the $\overline{TEST}$ pin. This instruction also continuously samples the interrupt request during its execution and allows servicing interrupts during the wait. When an interrupt is detected, the WAIT instruction is again fetched prior to servicing the interrupt to guarantee the interrupt routine will return to the WAIT instruction.

UNINTERRUPTABLE INSTRUCTION SEQUENCE

```
MOV SS, NEW$STACK$SEGMENT
MOV SP, NEW$STACK$POINTER
```

Also, since prefixes are considered part of the instruction they precede, the 8086 will not sample the interrupt line until completion of the instruction the prefix(es) precede(s). An exception to this (other than HALT or WAIT) is the string primatives preceded by the repeat (REP) prefix. The repeated string operations will sample the interrupt line at the completion of each repetition. This includes repeat string operations which include the lock prefix. If multiple prefixes precede a repeated string operation, and the instruction is interrupted, only the prefix immediately preceding the string primative is restored. To allow correct resumption of the operation, the following programming technique may be used:

```
LOCKED$BLOCK$MOVE: LOCK REP MOVS DEST, CS:SOURCE
                   AND CX,     CX
                   JNZ LOCKED$BLOCK$MOVE
```

The code bytes generated by the 8086 assembler for the MOVS instruction are (in descending order): LOCK prefix, REP prefix, Segment Override prefix and MOVS. Upon return from the interrupt, the segment override prefix is restored to guarantee one additional transfer is performed between the correct memory locations. The instructions following the move operation test the repetition count value to determine if the move was completed and return if not.

If the INTR pin is high when sampled and the IF bit is set to enable interrupts, the 8086 executes an interrupt acknowledge sequence. To guarantee the interrupt will be acknowledged, the INTR input must be held active until the interrupt acknowledge is issued by the CPU. If the BIU is running a bus cycle when the interrupt condition is detected (as would occur if the BIU is fetching an instruction when the current instruction completes), the

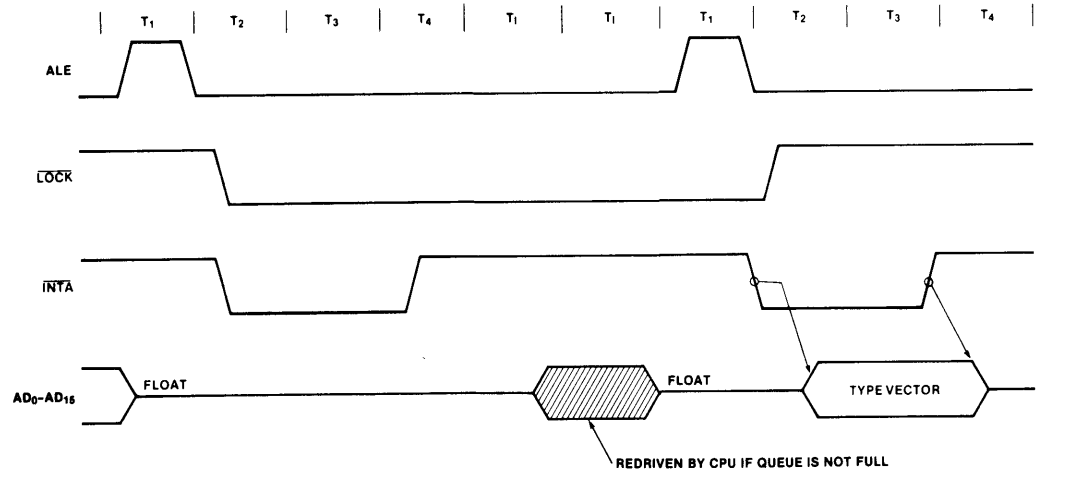


Figure 3E2. Interrupt Acknowledge Sequence

interrupt must be valid at the 8086 2 clock cycles prior to T4 of the bus cycle if the next cycle is to be an interrupt acknowledge cycle. If the 2 clock setup is not satisfied, another pending bus cycle will be executed before the interrupt acknowledge is issued. If a hold request is also pending (this might occur if an interrupt and hold request are made during execution of a locked instruction), the interrupt is serviced after the hold request is serviced.

The interrupt acknowledge sequence is only generated in response to an interrupt on the 8086 INTR input. The associated bus activity is shown in Figure 3E2. The cycle consists of two $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles separated by two idle clock cycles. During the bus cycles the $\overline{INTA}$ command is issued rather than read. No address is provided by the 8086 during either bus cycle ($\overline{BHE}$ and status are valid), however, ALE is still generated and will load the address latches with indeterminate information. This condition requires that devices in the system do not drive their outputs without being qualified by the Read Command. As will be shown later, the ALE is useful in maximum mode systems with multiple 8259A priority interrupt controllers. During the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles, DT/$\overline{R}$ and DEN are conditioned to allow the 8086 to receive a one byte interrupt type number from the interrupt system. The first $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle signals an interrupt acknowledge cycle is in progress and allows the system to prepare to present the interrupt type number on the next $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle. The CPU does not capture information on the bus during the first cycle. The type number must be transferred to the 8086 on the lower half of the 16-bit data bus during the second cycle. This implies that devices which present interrupt type numbers to the 8086 must be located on the lower half of the 16-bit data bus. The timing of the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles (with exception of address timing) is similar to read cycle timing. The 8086 interrupt acknowledge sequence deviates from the form used on 8080 and 8085 in that no instruction is issued as part of the sequence. The 8080 and 8085 required either a restart or call instruction be issued to affect the transfer of control.

In the minimum mode system, the M/$\overline{IO}$ signal will be low indicating I/O during the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles. The 8086 internal $\overline{LOCK}$ signal will be active from T2 of the first bus cycle until T2 of the second to prevent the BIU from honoring a hold request between the two $\overline{INTA}$ cycles.

In the maximum mode, the status lines $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ will request the 8288 to activate the $\overline{INTA}$ output for each cycle. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output of the 8086 will be active from T2 of the first cycle until T2 of the second to prevent the 8086 from honoring a hold request on either $\overline{RQ}$/$\overline{GT}$ input and to prevent bus arbitration logic from relinquishing the bus between $\overline{INTA}$'s in multi-master systems. The consequences of READY are identical to those for READ and WRITE cycles.

Once the 8086 has the interrupt type number (from the bus for hardware interrupts, from the instruction stream for software interrupts or from the predefined condition), the type number is multiplied by four to form the displacement to the corresponding interrupt vector in the interrupt vector table. The four bytes of the interrupt vector are: least significant byte of the instruction pointer, most significant byte of the instruction pointer, least significant byte of the code segment register, most significant byte of the code segment register. During the transfer of control, the CPU pushes the flags and current code segment register and instruction pointer onto the stack. The new code segment and instruction pointer values are loaded and the single step and interrupt flags are reset. Resetting the interrupt flag disables response to further hardware interrupts in the service routine unless the flags are specifically re-enabled by the service routine. The CS and IP values are read from the interrupt vector table with data read cycles. No segment registers are used when referencing the vector table during the interrupt context switch. The vector displacement is added to zero to form the 20-bit address and S4, S3 = 10 indicating no segment register selection.

The actual bus activity associated with the hardware interrupt acknowledge sequence is as follows: Two interrupt acknowledge bus cycles, read new IP from the interrupt vector table, read new CS from the interrupt vector table, Push flags, Push old CS, Opcode fetch of the first instruction of the interrupt service routine, and Push old IP. After saving the old IP, the BIU will resume normal operation of prefetching instructions into the queue and servicing EU requests for operands. S5 (interrupt enable flag status) will go inactive in the second clock cycle following reading the new CS.

The number of clock cycles from the end of the instruction during which the interrupt occurred to the start of interrupt routine execution is 61 clock cycles. For software generated interrupts, the sequence of bus cycles is the same except no interrupt acknowledge bus cycles are executed. This reduces the delay to service routine execution to 51 clocks for INT nn and single step, 52 clocks for INT3 and 53 clocks for INTO. The same interrupt setup requirements with respect to the BIU that were stated for the hardware interrupts also apply to the software interrupts. If wait states are inserted by either the memories or the device supplying the interrupt type number, the given clock times will increase accordingly.

When considering the precedence of interrupts for multiple simultaneous interrupts, the following guidelines apply: 1. INTR is the only maskable interrupt and if detected simultaneously with other interrupts, resetting of IF by the other interrupts will mask INTR. This causes INTR to be the lowest priority interrupt serviced after all other interrupts unless the other interrupt service routines reenable interrupts. 2. Of the nonmaskable interrupts (NMI, Single Step and software generated), in general, Single Step has highest priority (will be serviced first) followed by NMI, followed by the software interrupts. This implies that a simultaneous NMI and Single Step trap will cause the NMI service routine to follow single step; a simultaneous software trap and Single Step trap will cause the software interrupt service routine to follow single step and a simultaneous NMI and software trap will cause the NMI service routine to be executed followed by the software interrupt service routine. An exception to this priority structure occurs if all three interrupts are pending. For this case, transfer of control to the software interrupt ser-

vice routine followed by the NMI trap will cause both the NMI and software interrupt service routines to be executed without single stepping. Single stepping resumes upon execution of the instruction following the instruction causing the software interrupt (the next instruction in the routine being single stepped).

If the user does not wish to single step before INTR service routines, the single step routine need only disable interrupts during execution of the program being single stepped and reenable interrupts on entry to the single step routine. Disabling the interrupts during the program under test prevents entry into the interrupt service routine while single step (TF = 1) is active. To prevent single stepping before NMI service routines, the single step routine must check the return address on the stack for the NMI service routine address and return control to that routine without single step enabled. As examples, consider Figures 3E3a and 3E3b. In 3E3a Single Step and NMI occur simultaneously while in 3E3b, NMI, INTR and a divide error all occur during a divide instruction being single stepped.

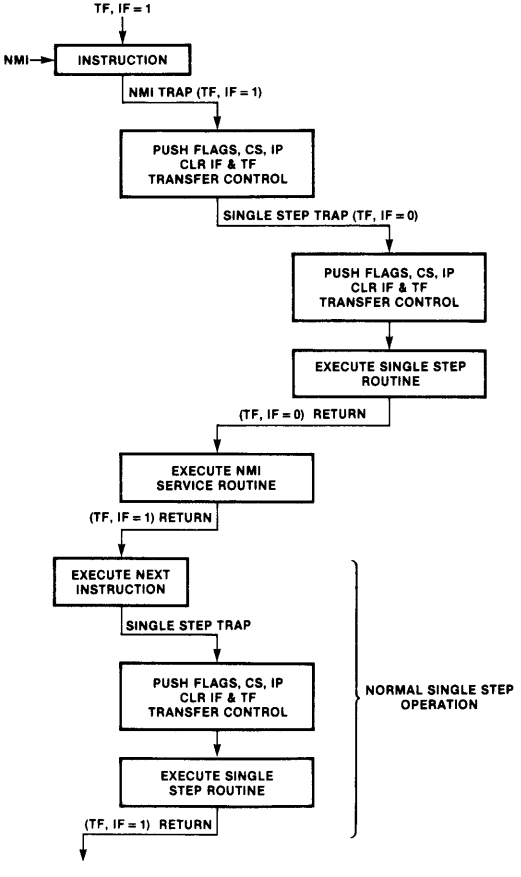


Figure 3E3a. NMI During Single Stepping and Normal Single Step Operation

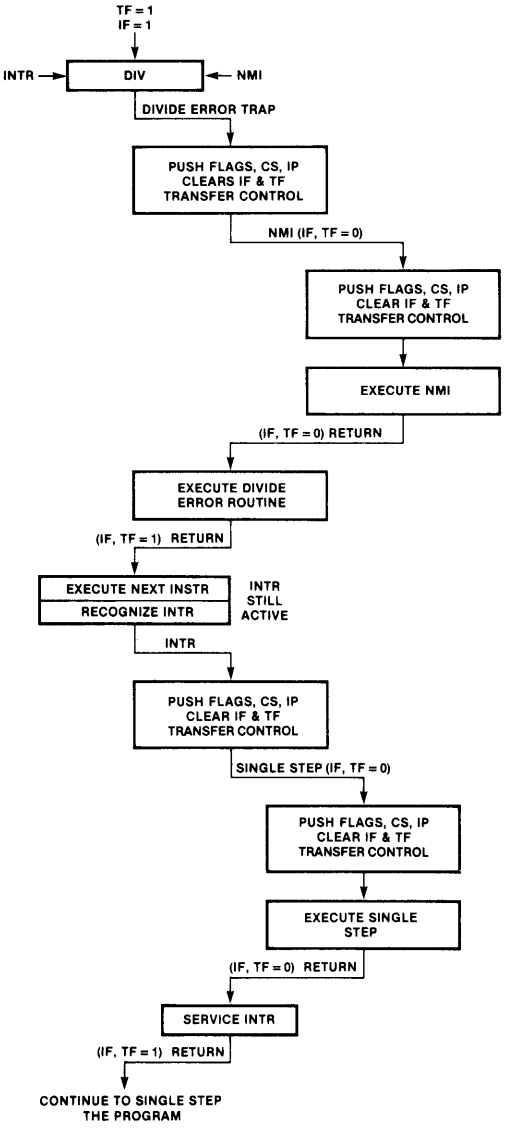


Figure 3E3b. NMI, INTR, Single Step and Divide Error Simultaneous Interrupts

SYSTEM CONFIGURATIONS

To accommodate the $\overline{\text{INTA}}$ protocol of the maskable hardware interrupts, the 8259A is provided as part of the 8086 family. This component is programmable to operate in both 8080/8085 systems and 8086 systems. The devices are cascadable in master/slave arrangements to allow up to 64 interrupts in the system. Figures 3E4 and 3E5 are examples of 8259A's in minimum and maximum mode 8086 systems. The minimum mode configuration (a) shows an 8259A connected to the CPU's

multiplexed bus. Configuration (b) illustrates an 8259A connected to a demultiplexed bus system. These interconnects are also applicable to maximum mode systems. The configuration given for a maximum mode system shows a master 8259A on the CPU's multiplexed bus with additional slave 8259A's out on the buffered system bus. This configuration demonstrates several unique features of the maximum mode system interface. If the master 8259A receives interrupts from a mix of slave 8259A's and regular interrupting devices, the slaves must provide the type number for devices connected to them while the master provides the type number for devices directly attached to its interrupt inputs. The master 8259A is programmable to determine if an interrupt is from a direct input or a slave 8259A and will use this information to enable or disable the data bus transceivers (via the 'nand' function of DEN and $\overline{EN}$). If the master must provide the type number, it will disable the data bus transceivers. If the slave provides the type number, the master will enable the data bus transceivers. The $\overline{EN}$ output is normally high to allow the 8086/8288 to control the bus transceivers. To select the proper slave when servicing a slave interrupt, the master must provide a cascade address to the slave. If the 8288 is not strapped in the I/O bus mode (the 8288 IOB input connected to ground), the MCE/$\overline{PDEN}$ output becomes a MCE or Master Cascade Enable output. This signal is only active during $\overline{INTA}$ cycles as shown in Figure 3E6 and enables the master 8259A's cascade address onto the 8086's local bus during ALE. This allows the address latches to capture the cascade address with ALE and allows use of the system address bus for selecting the proper slave 8259A. The MCE is gated with $\overline{LOCK}$ to minimize local bus contention between the 8086 three-stating its bus outputs and the cascade address being enabled onto the bus. The first $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle allows the master to resolve internal priorities and output a cascade address to be transmitted to the slaves on the subsequent $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle. For additional information on the 8259A, reference application note AP-59.

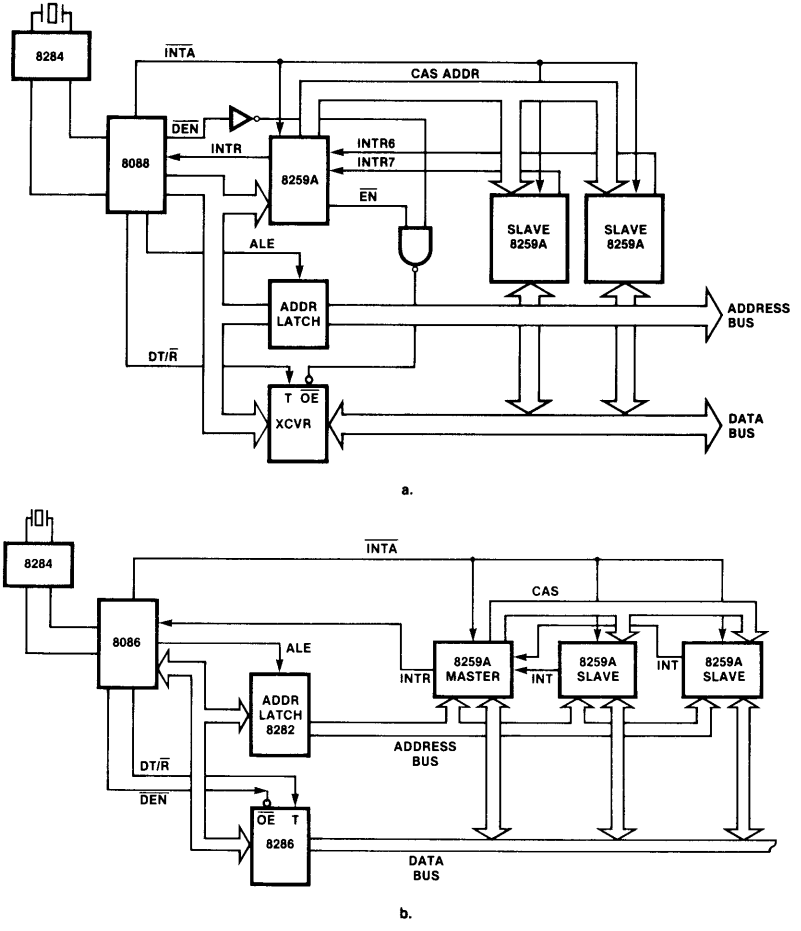


Figure 3E4. Min Mode 8086 with Master 8259A on the Local Bus and Slave 8259As on the System Bus

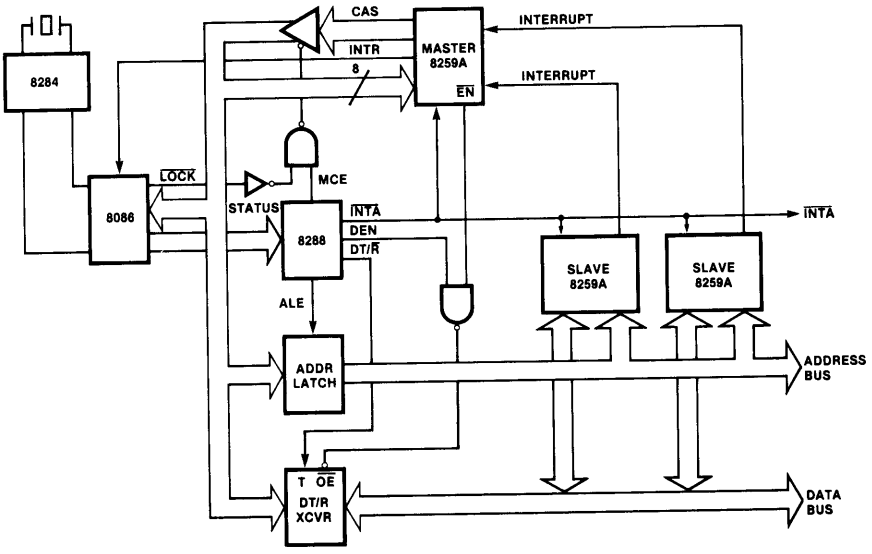


Figure 3E5. Max Mode 8086 with Master 8259A on the Local Bus and Slave 8259As on the System Bus

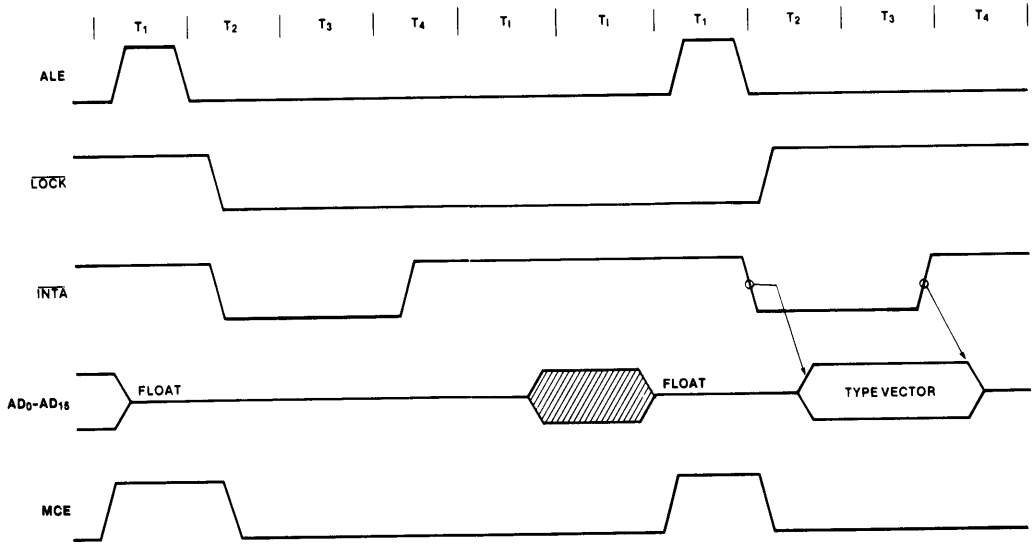


Figure 3E6. MCE Timing to Gate 8259A CAS Address onto the 8086 Local Bus

3F. Interpreting the 8086 Bus Timing Diagrams

At first glance, the 8086 bus timing diagrams (Diag. 3F1 min mode and Diag. 3F2 max mode) appear rather complex. However, with a few words of explanation on how to interpret them, they become a powerful tool in determining system requirements. The timing diagrams for both the minimum and maximum modes may be divided into six sections: (1) address and ALE timing; (2) read cycle timing; (3) write cycle timing; (4) interrupt acknowledge timing; (5) ready timing; and (6) HOLD/HLDA or $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ timing. Since the A.C. characteristics of the signals are specified relative to the CPU clock, the relationship between the majority of signals can be deduced by simply determining the clock cycles between the clock edges the signals are relative to and adding or subtracting the appropriate minimum or maximum parameter values. One aspect of system timing not compensated for in this approach is the worst case relationship between minimum and maximum parameter values (also known as tracking relationships). As an example, consider a signal which has specified minimum and maximum turn on and turn off delays. Depending on device characteristics, it may not be possible for the component to simultaneously demonstrate a maximum turn-on and minimum turn-off delay even though worst case analysis might imply the possibility. This argument is characteristic of MOS devices and is therefore applicable to the 8086 A.C. characteristics. The message is: worst case analysis mixing minimum and maximum delay parameters will typically exceed the worst case obtainable and therefore should not be subjected to further subjective degradation to obtain worst-worst case values. This section will provide guidelines for specific areas of 8086 timing sensitive to tracking relationships.

A. MINIMUM MODE BUS TIMING

1. ADDRESS and ALE

The address/ALE timing relationship is important to determine the ability to capture a valid address from the multiplexed bus. Since the 8282 and 8283 latches capture the address on the trailing edge of ALE, the critical timing involves the state of the address lines when ALE terminates. If the address valid delay is assumed to be maximum TCLAV and ALE terminates at its earliest point, TCHLLmin (assuming zero minimum delay), the address would be valid only TCLCHmin-TCLAVmax = 8 ns prior to ALE termination. This result is unrealistic in the assumption of maximum TCLAV and minimum TCHLL. To provide an accurate measure of the true worst case, a separate parameter specifies the minimum time for address valid prior to the end of ALE (TAVAL). TAVAL = TCLCH-60 ns overrides the clock related timings and guarantees 58 ns of address setup to ALE termination for a 5 MHz 8086. The address is guaranteed to remain valid beyond the end of ALE by the TLLAX parameter. This specification overrides the relationship between TCHLL and TCLAX which might seem to imply the address may not be valid by the end of the latest possible ALE. TLLAX holds for the entire address bus. The TCLAXmin spec on the address indicates the earliest the bus will go invalid if not restrained by a slow ALE. TLLAX and TCLAX apply to the entire multiplexed bus for both read and write cycles. AD15-0 is three-stated for read cycles and immediately switched to write data during write cycles. AD19-16 immediately switch from address to status for both read and write cycles. The minimum ALE pulse width is guaranteed by TLHLLmin which takes precedence over the value obtained by relating TCLLHmax and TCHLLmin.

To determine the worst case delay to valid address on a demultiplexed address bus, two paths must be considered: (1) delay of valid address and (2) delay to ALE. Since the 8282 and 8283 are flow through latches, a valid address is not transmitted to the address bus until ALE is active. A comparison of address valid delay TCLAVmax with ALE active delay TCLLHmax indicates TCLAVmax is the worst case. Subtracting the latch propagation delay gives the worst case address bus valid delay from the start of the bus cycle.

2. Read Cycle Timing

Read timing consists of conditioning the bus, activating the read command and establishing the data transceiver enable and direction controls. DT/$\overline{R}$ is established early in the bus cycle and requires no further consideration. During read, the $\overline{DEN}$ signal must allow the transceivers to propagate data to the CPU with the appropriate data setup time and continue to do so until the required data hold time. The $\overline{DEN}$ turn on delay allows TCLCL + TCHCLmin – TCVCTVmax – TDVCL = 127 ns transceiver enable time prior to valid data required by the CPU. Since the CPU data hold time TCLDXmin and minimum $\overline{DEN}$ turnoff delay TCVCTXmin are both 10 ns relative to the same clock edge, the hold time is guaranteed. Additionally, $\overline{DEN}$ must disable the transceivers prior to the CPU redriving the bus with the address for the next bus cycle. The maximum $\overline{DEN}$ turn off delay (TCVCTXmax) compared with the minimum delay for addresses out of the 8086 (TCLCL + TCLAVmin) indicates the transceivers are disabled at least 105 ns before the CPU drives the address onto the multiplexed bus.

If memory or I/O devices are connected directly to the multiplexed address and data bus, the TAZRL parameter guarantees the CPU will float the bus before activating read and allowing the selected device to drive the bus. At the end of the bus cycle, the TRHAV parameter specifies the bus float delay the device being deselected must satisfy to avoid contention with the CPU driving the address for the next bus cycle. The next bus cycle may start as soon as the cycle following T4 or any number of clock cycles later.

The minimum delay from read active to valid data at the CPU is 2TCLCL – TCLRLmax – TDVCL = 205 ns. The minimum pulse width is 2TCLCL – 75 ns = 325 ns. This specification (TRLRH) overrides the result which could be derived from clock relative delays (2TCLCL – TCLRLmax + TCLRHmin).

3. Write Cycle Timing

The write cycle involves providing write data to the system, generating the write command and controlling data bus transceivers. The transceiver direction control signal DT/$\overline{R}$ is conditioned to transmit at the end of each read cycle and does not change during a write cycle.

This allows the transceiver enable signal $\overline{DEN}$ to be active early in the cycle (while addresses are valid) without corrupting the address on the multiplexed bus. The write data and write command are both enabled from the leading edge of T2. Comparing minimum $\overline{WR}$ active delay TCVCTVmin with the maximum write data delay TCLDV indicates that write data may be not valid until 100 ns after write is active. The devices in the system should capture data on the trailing edge of the write command rather than the leading edge to guarantee valid data. The data from the 8086 is valid a minimum of 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCVCTXmin = 300 ns before the trailing edge of write. The minimum write pulse width is TWLWH = 2TCLCL – 60 ns = 340 ns. The CPU maintains valid write data TWHDX ns after write. The TWHDZ specification overrides the result derived by relating TCLCHmin and TCHDZmin which implies write data may only be valid 18 ns after $\overline{WR}$. The 8086 floats the bus after write only if being forced off the bus by a HOLD or $\overline{RQ}$ input. Otherwise, the CPU simply switches the output drivers from data to address at the beginning of the next bus cycle. As with the read cycle, the next bus cycle may start in the clock cycle following T4 or any clock cycle later.

$\overline{DEN}$ is disabled a minimum of TCLCHmin + TCVCTXmin – TCVCTXmax = 18 ns after write to guarantee data hold time to the selected device. Since we are again evaluating a minimum TCVCTX with a maximum TCVCTX, the real minimum delay from the end of write to transceiver disable is approximately 60 ns.

4. Interrupt Acknowledge Timing

The interrupt acknowledge sequence consists of two interrupt acknowledge bus cycles as previously described. The detailed timing of each cycle is identical to the read cycle timing with two exceptions: command timing and address/data bus timing.

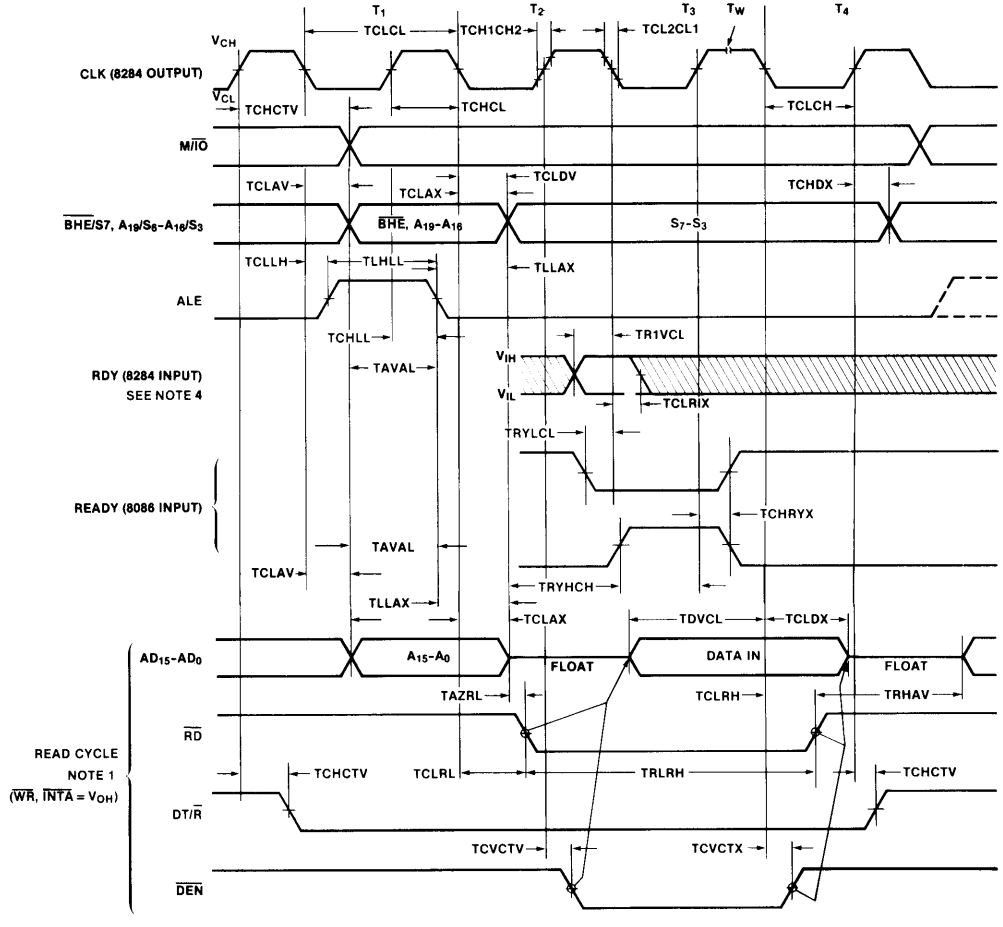
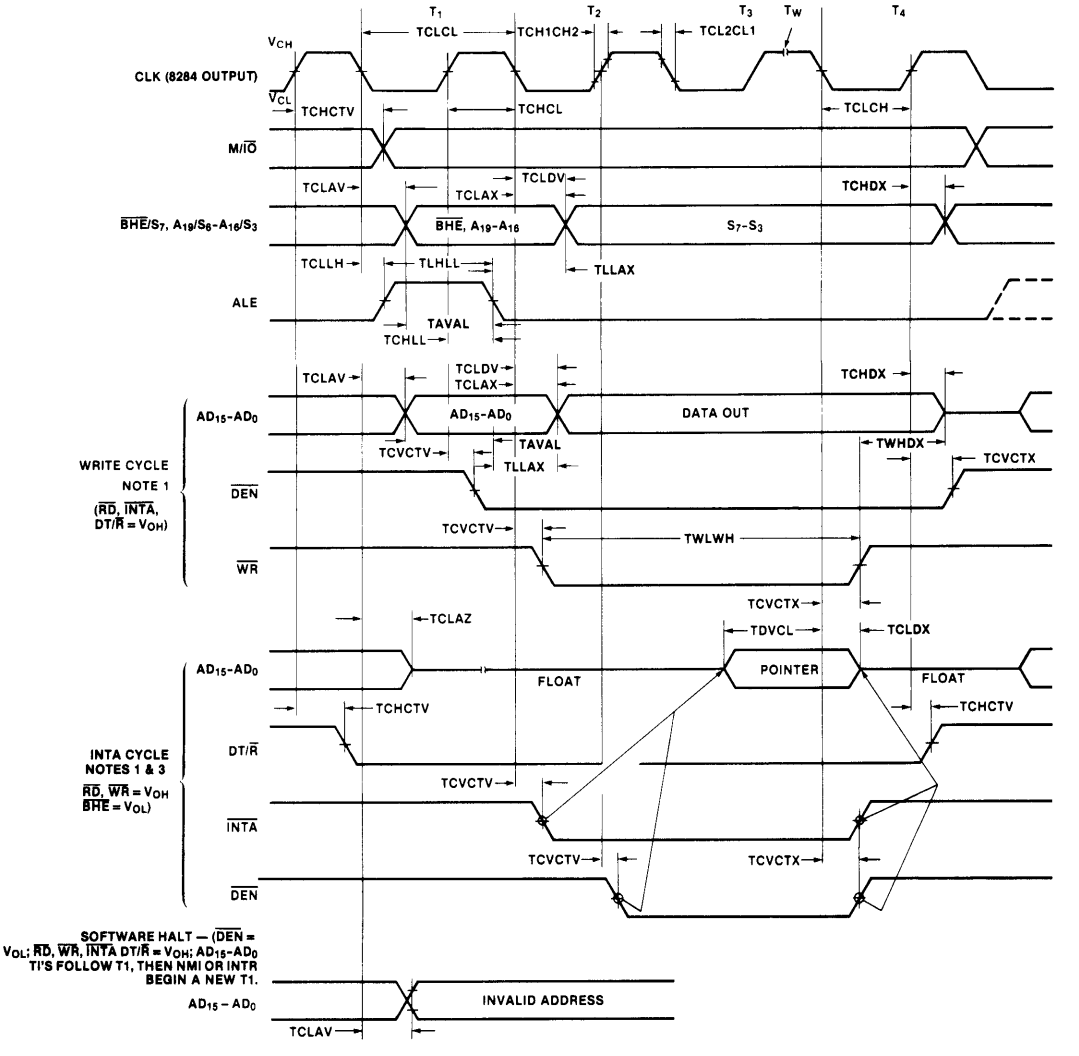


Figure 3F1. 8086 Bus Timing — Minimum Mode System



NOTES:
1. ALL SIGNALS SWITCH BETWEEN V_{OH} AND V_{OI} UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.
2. RDY IS SAMPLED NEAR THE END OF T_2, T_3, T_W TO DETERMINE IF T_W MACHINES STATES ARE TO BE INSERTED.
3. BOTH INTA CYCLES RUN BACK-TO-BACK. THE 8088 LOCAL ADDR/DATA BUS IS FLOATING DURING THE SECOND INTA CYCLE. CONTROL SIGNALS SHOWN FOR SECOND INTA CYCLE.
4. SIGNALS AT 8284 ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE ONLY.
5. ALL TIMING MEASUREMENTS ARE MADE AT 1.5V UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.

Figure 3F1. 8086 Bus Timing — Minimum Mode System (Con't)

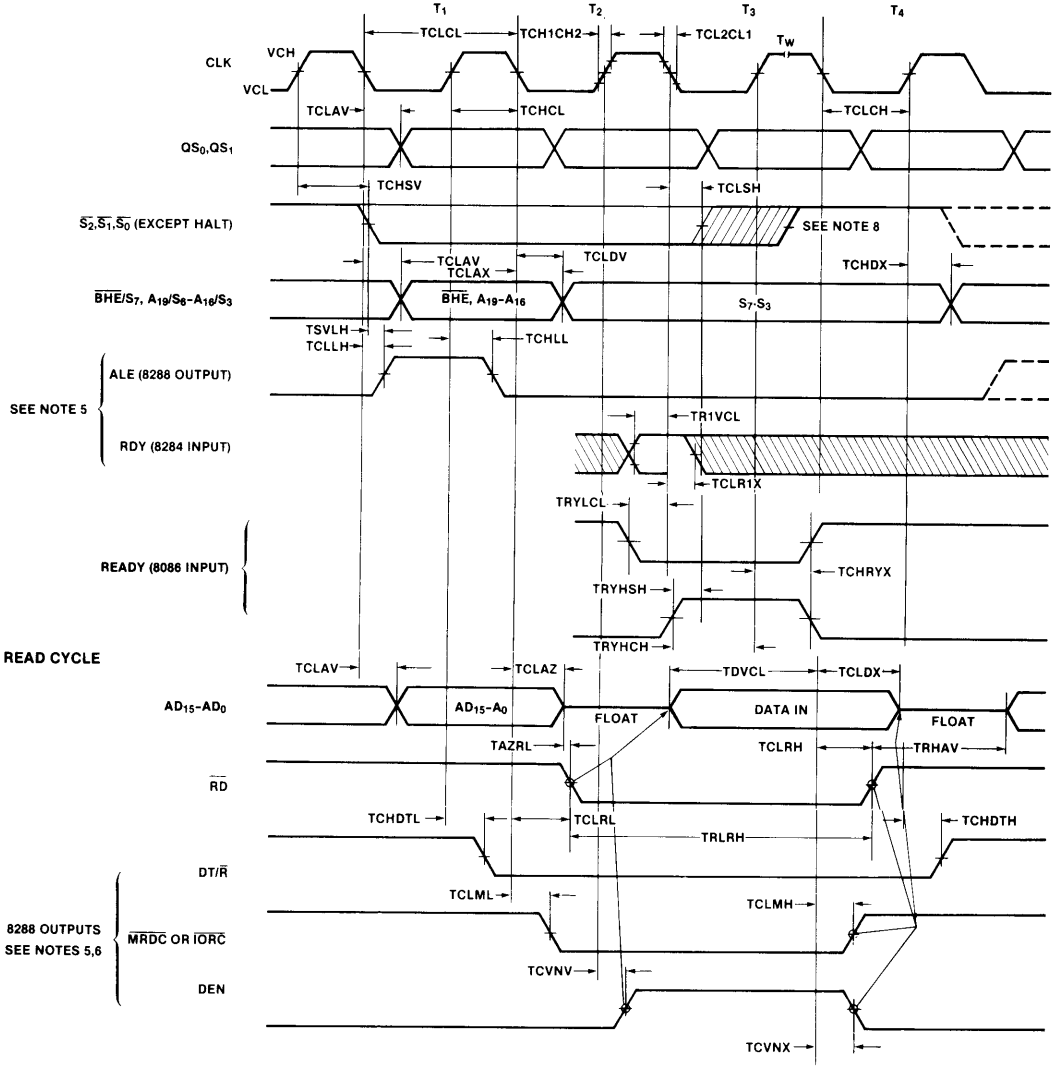
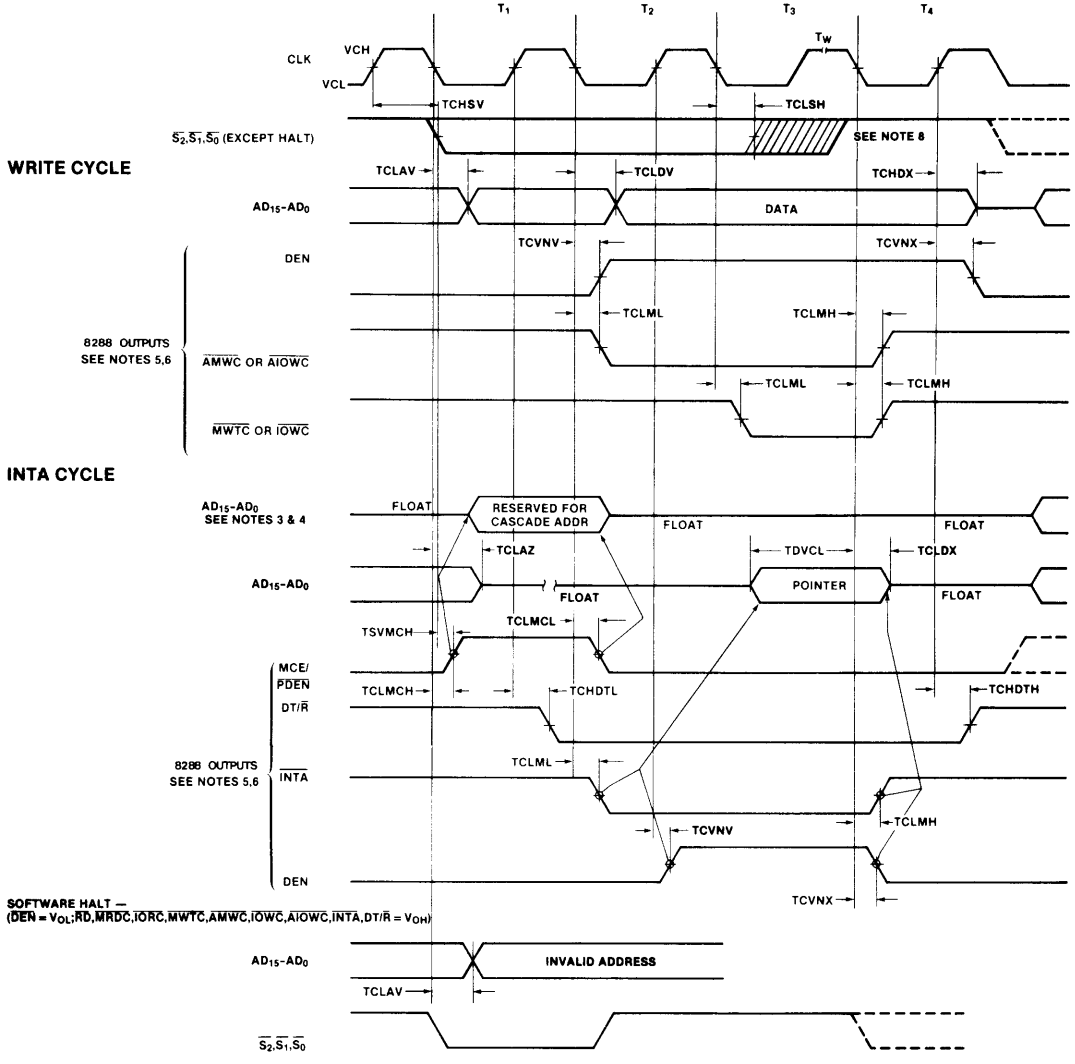


Figure 3F2a. 8086 Bus Timing — Maximum Mode System (Using 8288)



NOTES:
1. ALL SIGNALS SWITCH BETWEEN V_{OH} AND V_{OL} UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.
2. RDY IS SAMPLED NEAR THE END OF T_2, T_3, T_W TO DETERMINE IF T_W MACHINES STATES ARE TO BE INSERTED.
3. CASCADE ADDRESS IS VALID BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND INTA CYCLES.
4. BOTH INTA CYCLES RUN BACK-TO-BACK. THE 8086 LOCAL ADDR/DATA BUS IS FLOATING DURING THE SECOND INTA CYCLE. CONTROL FOR POINTER ADDRESS IS SHOWN FOR SECOND INTA CYCLE.
5. SIGNALS AT 8284 OR 8288 ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE ONLY.
6. THE ISSUANCE OF THE 8288 COMMAND AND CONTROL SIGNALS ($\overline{MRDC}$, $\overline{MWTC}$, $\overline{AMWC}$, $\overline{IORC}$, $\overline{IOWC}$, $\overline{AIOWC}$, $\overline{INTA}$ AND DEN) LAGS THE ACTIVE HIGH 8288 CEN.
7. ALL TIMING MEASUREMENTS ARE MADE AT 1.5V UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.
8. STATUS INACTIVE IN STATE JUST PRIOR TO T_4.

Figure 3F2b. 8086 Bus Timing — Maximum Mode System (Using 8288) (Con't)

The multiplexed address/data bus floats from the beginning (T1) of the $\overline{INTA}$ cycle (within TCLAZ ns). The upper four multiplexed address/status lines do not three-state. The address value on A19-A16 is indeterminate but the status information will be valid (S3 = 0, S4 = 0, S5 = IF, S6 = 0, S7 = $\overline{BHE}$ = 0). The multiplexed address/data lines will remain in three-state until the cycle after T4 of the $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. This sequence occurs for each of the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles. The interrupt type number read by the 8086 on the second $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle must satisfy the same setup and hold times required for data during a read cycle.

The $\overline{DEN}$ and DT/$\overline{R}$ signals are enabled for each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle and do not remain active between the two cycles. Their timing for each cycle is identical to the read cycle.

The $\overline{INTA}$ command has the same timing as the write command. It is active within 110 ns of the start of T2 providing 260 ns of access time from command to data valid at the 8086. The command is active a minimum of TCVCTXmin = 10 ns into T4 to satisfy the data hold time of the 8086. This provides minimum $\overline{INTA}$ pulse width of 300 ns, however taking signal delay tracking into consideration gives a minimum pulse width of 340 ns. Since the maximum inactive delay of $\overline{INTA}$ is TCVCTXmax = 110 ns and the CPU will not drive the bus until 15 ns (TCLAVmin) into the next clock cycle, 105 ns are available for interrupt devices on the local bus to float their outputs. If the data bus is buffered, $\overline{DEN}$ provides the same amount of time for local bus transceivers to three-state their outputs.

5. Ready Timing

The detailed timing requirements of the 8086 ready signal and the system ready signal into the 8284 are described in Section 3D. The system ready signal is typically generated from either the address decode of the selected device or the address decode and the command ($\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$, $\overline{INTA}$). For a system which is normally not ready, the time to generate ready from a valid address and not insert a wait state, is 2TCLCL – TCLAVmax – TR1VCLmax = 255 ns. This time is available for buffer delays and address decoding to determine if the selected device does not require a wait state and drive the RDY line high. If wait cycles are required, the user hardware must provide the appropriate ready delay. Since the address will not change until the next ALE, the RDY will remain valid throughout the cycle. If the system is normally ready, selected devices requiring wait states also have 255 ns to disable the RDY line. The user circuitry must delay re-enabling RDY by the appropriate number of wait states.

If the $\overline{RD}$ command is used to enable the RDY signal, TCLCL – TCLRLmax – TRIVCLmax = 15 ns are available for external logic. If the $\overline{WR}$ command is used, TCLCL – TCVCTVmax – TRIVCLmax = 55 ns are available. Comparison of RDY control by address or command indicates that address decoding provides the best timing. If the system is normally not ready, address decode alone could be used to provide RDY for devices not requiring wait states while devices requiring wait states may use a combination of address decode and command to activate a wait state generator. If the system is normally ready, devices not requiring wait states do nothing to RDY while devices needing wait states should disable RDY via the address decode and use a combination of address decode and command to activate a delay to re-enable RDY.

If the system requires no wait states for memory and a fixed number of wait states for $\overline{RD}$ and $\overline{WR}$ to all I/O devices, the M/$\overline{IO}$ signal can be used as an early indication of the need for wait cycles. This allows a common circuit to control ready timing for the entire system without feedback of address decodes.

6. Other Considerations

Detailed HOLD/HLDA timing is covered in the next section and is not examined here. One last signal consideration needs to be mentioned for the minimum mode system. The $\overline{TEST}$ input is sampled by the 8086 only during execution of the WAIT instruction. The $\overline{TEST}$ signal should be active for a minimum of 6 clock cycles during the WAIT instruction to guarantee detection.

B. MAXIMUM MODE BUS TIMING

The maximum mode 8086 bus operations are logically equivalent to the minimum mode operation. Detailed timing analysis now involves signals generated by the CPU and the 8288 bus controller. The 8288 also provides additional control and command signals which expand the flexibility of the system.

1. ADDRESS and ALE

In the maximum mode, the address information continues to come from the CPU while the ALE strobe is generated by the 8288. To determine the worst case relationships between ALE and the address, we first must determine 8288 ALE activation relative to the $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ status from the CPU. The maximum mode timing diagram specifies two possible delay paths to generate ALE. The first is TCHSV + TSVLH measured from the rising edge of the clock cycle preceding T1. The second path is TCLLH measured from the start of T1. Since the 8288 initiates a bus cycle from the status lines leaving the passive state ($\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ = 1), if the 8086 is late in issuing the status (TCHSVmax) while the clock high time is a minimum (TCHCLmin), the status will not have changed by the start of T1 and ALE is issued TSVLH ns after the status changes. If the status changes prior to the beginning of T1, the 8288 will not issue the ALE until TCLLH ns after the start of T1. The resulting worst case delay to enable ALE (relative to the start of T1) is TCHSVmax + TSVLHmax – TCHCLmin = 58 ns. Note, when calculating signal relationships, be sure to use the proper maximum mode values rather than equivalent minimum mode values.

The trailing edge of ALE is triggered in the 8288 by the positive clock edge in T1 regardless of the delay to enable ALE. The resulting minimum ALE pulse width is TCLCHmax – 58 ns = 75 ns assuming TCHLL = 0. TCLCHmax must be used since TCHCLmin was assumed to derive the 58 ns ALE enable delay. The address is guaranteed to be valid TCLCHmin + TCHLLmin – TCLAVmax = 8 ns prior to the trailing edge

of ALE to capture the address in the 8282 or 8283 latches. Again we have assumed a very conservative TCHLL = 0. Note, since the address and ALE are driven by separate devices, no tracking of A.C. characteristics can be assumed.

The address hold time to the latches is guaranteed by the address remaining valid until the end of T1 while ALE is disabled a maximum of 15 ns from the positive clock transition in T1 (TCHCLmin – TCHLLmax = 52 ns address hold time). The multiplexed bus transitions from address to status and write data or three-state (for read) are identical to the minimum mode timing. Also, since the address valid delay (TCLAV) remains the critical path in establishing a valid address, the address access times to valid data and ready are the same as the minimum mode system.

2. Read Cycle Timing

The maximum mode system offers read signals generated by both the 8086 and the 8288. The 8086 $\overline{RD}$ output signal timing is identical to the minimum mode system. Since the A.C. characteristics of the read commands generated by the 8288 are significantly better than the 8086 output, access to devices on the demultiplexed buffered system bus should use the 8288 commands. The 8086 $\overline{RD}$ signal is available for devices which reside directly on the multiplexed bus. The following evaluations for read, write and interrupt acknowledge only consider the 8288 command timing.

The 8288 provides separate memory and I/O read signals which conform to the same A.C. characteristics. The commands are issued TCLML ns after the start of T2 and terminate TCLMH ns after the start of T4. The minimum command length is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMLmin = 375 ns. The access time to valid data at the CPU is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax – TDVCLmax = 335 ns. Since the 8288 was designed for systems with buffered data busses, the commands are enabled before the CPU has three-stated the multiplexed bus and should not be used with devices which reside directly on the multiplexed bus (to do so could result in bus contention during 8086 bus float and device turn-on).

The direction control for data bus transceivers is established in T1 while the transceivers are not enabled by DEN until the positive clock transition of T2. This provides TCLCH + TCVNVmin = 123 ns for 8086 bus float delay and TCHCLmin + TCLCL – TCVNVmax – TDVCLmax = 187 ns of transceiver active to data valid at the CPU. Since both DEN and command are valid a minimum of 10 ns into T4, the CPU data hold time TCLDX is guaranteed. A maximum DEN disable of 45 ns (TCVNX max) guarantees the transceivers are disabled by the start of the next 8086 bus cycle (215 ns minimum from the same clock edge). On the positive clock transition of T4, DT/$\overline{R}$ is returned to transmit in preparation for a possible write operation on the next bus cycle. Since the system memory and I/O devices reside on a buffered system bus, they must three-state their outputs before the device for the next bus cycle is selected (approximately 2TCLCL) or the transceivers drive write data onto the bus (approximately 2TCLCL).

3. Write Cycle Timing

In the maximum mode, the 8288 provides normal and advanced write commands for memory and I/O. The advanced write commands are active a full clock cycle ahead of the normal write commands and have timing identical to the read commands. The advanced write pulse width is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 375 ns while the normal write pulse width is TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 175 ns. Write data setup time to the selected device is a function of either the data valid delay from the 8086 (TCLDV) or the transceiver enable delay TCVNV. The worst case delay to valid write data is TCLDV = 110 ns minus transceiver propagation delays. This implies the data may not be valid until 100 ns after the advanced write command but will be valid approximately TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMLmin = 100 ns prior to the leading edge of the normal write command. Data will be valid 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMHmin = 300 ns before the trailing edge of either write command. The data and command overlap for the advanced command is 300 ns while the overlap with the normal write command is 175 ns. The transceivers are disabled a minimum of TCLCHmin – TCLMHmax + TCVNXmin = 85 ns after the write command while the CPU provides valid data a minimum of TCLCHmin – TCLMHmax + TCHDZmin = 85 ns. This guarantees write data hold of 85 ns after the write command. The transceivers are disabled TCLCL – TCVNXmax + TCHDTLmin = 155 ns (assuming TCHDTL = 0) prior to transceiver direction change for a subsequent read cycle.

4. Interrupt Acknowledge Timing

The maximum mode $\overline{INTA}$ sequence is logically identical to the minimum mode sequence. The transceiver control (DEN and DT/$\overline{R}$) and $\overline{INTA}$ command timing of each interrupt acknowledge cycle is identical to the read cycle. As in the minimum mode system, the multiplexed address/data bus will float from the leading edge of T1 for each $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle and not be driven by the CPU until after T4 of each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. The setup and hold times on the vector number for the second cycle are the same as data setup and hold for the read. If the device providing the interrupt vector number is connected to the local bus, TCLCL – TCLAZmax + TCLMLmin = 130 ns are available from 8086 bus float to $\overline{INTA}$ command active. The selected device on the local bus must disable the system data bus transceivers since DEN is still generated by the 8288.

If the 8288 is not in the IOB (I/O Bus) mode, the 8288 MCE/$\overline{PDEN}$ output becomes the MCE output. This output is active during each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle and overlaps the ALE signal during T1. The MCE is available for gating cascade addresses from a master 8259A onto three of the upper AD15-AD8 lines and allowing ALE to latch the cascade address into the address latches. The address lines may then be used to provide CAS address selection to slave 8259A's located on the system bus (reference Figure 3E5). MCE is active within 15 ns of status or the start of T1 for each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. MCE should not enable the CAS lines onto the multiplexed bus during the first cycle since the CPU does not guarantee to float