

A Texas Instruments Application Report

**TMS 9900 Family System
Development
Manual**



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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

This manual describes the general operation of the TMS 9900 family of devices, interfacing details, and examples of several hardware configurations. The TMS 9900 family are microprocessors and peripheral support devices, produced using N-channel silicon-gate MOS technology and large-scale integration to provide a high degree of functional density with minimum component count and board area requirements.

The TMS 9900 and the TMS 9980A/81 microprocessors are single-chip 16-bit central-processing units (CPU's) with the word size, instruction set, and addressing capabilities normally associated with full minicomputers. Both single-chip CPU's are easily and economically implemented in small or large systems because of their simple, yet flexible, interfacing and architecture. The TMS 9900 utilizes a 15-bit address bus and a 16-bit data bus to address 32K words of memory space. Individual byte addressing is accomplished by means of a sixteenth address bit maintained internally within the TMS 9900 CPU. The TMS 9980A/81 possesses the same versatility as the TMS 9900, but is implemented with a 14-bit address bus and an 8-bit data bus to directly address 16K bytes of memory space. This combination of CPU's gives the systems designer wide flexibility in the development of microprocessor systems.

Two members of the growing family of support devices for the TMS 9900 and TMS 9980A/81 are the TMS 9901 programmable systems interface and the TMS 9902 asynchronous communications controller. The TMS 9901 provides six dedicated interrupts, seven dedicated I/O ports, nine programmable I/O or interrupt ports, and an interval timer, and is easily stacked to provide additional interrupt and I/O capabilities.

The TMS 9902 provides complete control of an asynchronous-communications channel to include baud rate generation, timing, and data serialization and deserialization. The TMS 9902 also provides an interval timer and all necessary modem control signals.

Texas Instruments continues to introduce additional support circuits and development tools for the TMS 9900 family. One new support circuit, soon to be introduced, is the TMS 9903 synchronous communications controller, which will provide all hardware control of a synchronous communications channel, as well as assuming much of the control overhead from the CPU.

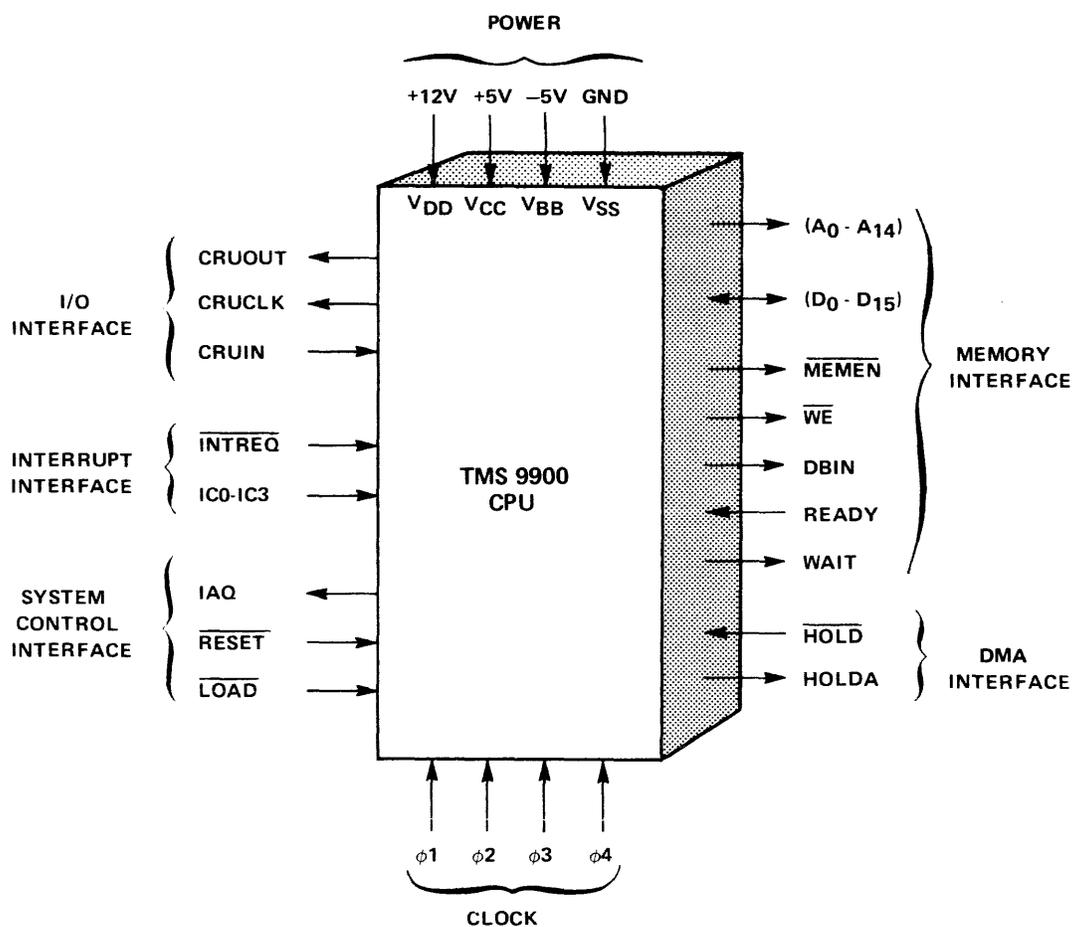
In the following discussions the reader is assumed to be familiar with the TMS 9900 family architecture and instruction set. Specific points not addressed here can be resolved by reference to the following publications, which contain detailed descriptions and specifications of device timing, signal sequences, interface requirements, and instruction sets of the TMS 9900 family.

- TMS 9900 Microprocessor Data Manual

- TMS 9980A/81 Microprocessor Data Manual
- TMS 9901 Programmable Systems Interface Data Manual
- TMS 9902 Asynchronous Communication Controller Data Manual
- 990 Computer Family System Handbook
- TMS 9900 Microprocessor Assembly Language Programmers' Guide

The following sections discuss the TMS 9900 family of microprocessors from the point of view of the TMS 9900. With certain exceptions this discussion also describes the operation of the TMS 9980A/81. Those features specific to the operation of the TMS 9980A/81 are discussed in detail in Section 8.

The TMS 9900 microprocessor is illustrated in Figure 1-1.



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Figure 1-1. TMS 9900 Microprocessor

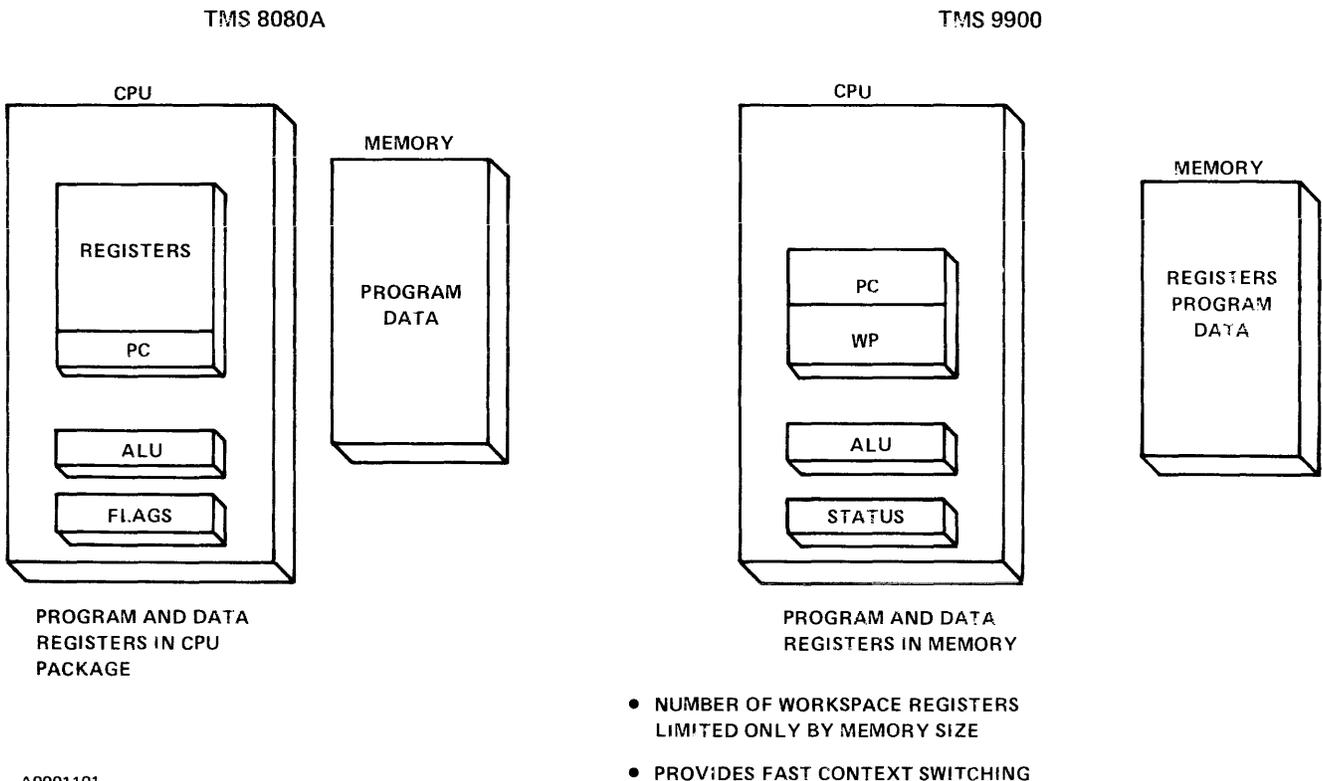
SECTION II

TMS 9900 ARCHITECTURE

The TMS 9900 has an advanced memory-to-memory architecture. The advantages of this architecture are best illustrated by comparison to other microprocessors currently available.

2.1 Registers

As shown in Figure 2-1, most microprocessors contain a set of registers internal to the device. This places restrictions on the number and size of internal registers due to limitations of LSI device size and density. These internal registers are used to contain high usage data because they may be accessed more efficiently and used more flexibly than memory. However, when more register storage is required than is available, register contents must be temporarily saved in memory. When a processor changes from one operation to another it is often desirable to save all internal register contents in memory so that the program controlling the new function may use all of the internal registers. Then, upon return to the original function, the registers are reloaded from memory.



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Figure 2-1. TMS 9900 Architecture

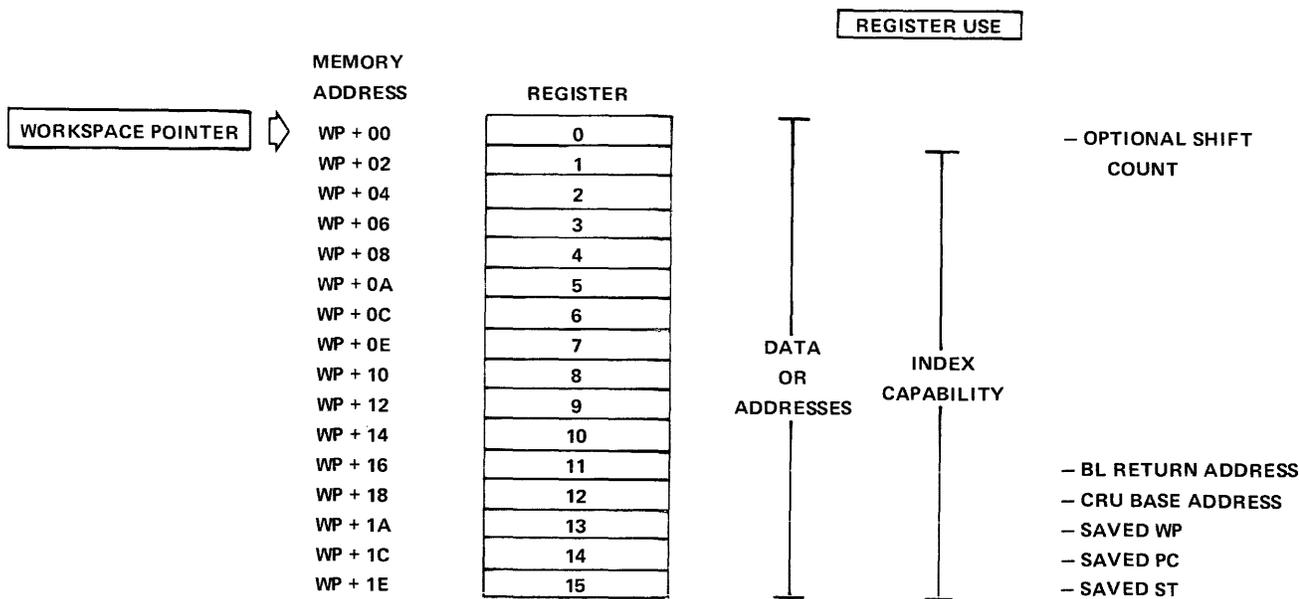
2.1.1 Workspace Pointer

The high usage data registers for the TMS 9900 are defined as blocks of memory called workspaces. The location of a workspace in memory is defined by a single internal register called the workspace pointer. The workspace pointer contains the memory word address of the first of sixteen consecutive memory words in the workspace, thus the processor has access to sixteen 16-bit registers. When a different set of registers is required, the program simply reloads the workspace pointer with the address of the new workspace, resulting in a significant reduction in processor overhead when a new set of registers is required. Also, the number of workspace registers is limited only by the amount of memory in the system.

2.1.2 Workspace Registers

The uses of the workspace registers are shown in Table 2-1. All 16 (WR0–WR15) may be used for storage of addresses, temporary data, and accumulated results. WR1–WR15 may be used as index registers to specify a bias from a fixed-memory location to select an instruction operand. Register 0 may contain the number of bit positions an operand is shifted by the shift instructions (SLA, SRA, SRC, and SRL). WR11 will contain the return address when the branch and link (BL) instruction is executed. Bits 3–14 of WR12 contain the CRU base address for CRU instructions. WR13–WR15 will contain the internal register values which are reloaded when the return to workspace (RTWP) instruction is executed.

TABLE 2-1. TMS 9900 WORKSPACE REGISTERS



2.1.3 Program Counter

The function of the program counter of the TMS 9900 is identical to that of the program counter in other microprocessors in that the PC contains the memory address of the next instruction to be executed. As each instruction is executed, the PC is automatically updated. Except when instructions or operations are performed which directly affect the PC, it is simply incremented to the next consecutive memory-word address as each instruction is executed.

2.1.4 Status Register

The status register of the TMS 9900 is similar to that of other microprocessors in that it contains flag bits which indicate results of the most recent arithmetic or logical operation performed. Additionally, the TMS 9900 contains a 4-bit interrupt mask in ST12–ST15 which defines the lowest-priority level interrupt which will be recognized by the microprocessor.

2.2 Memory-to-Memory Operations

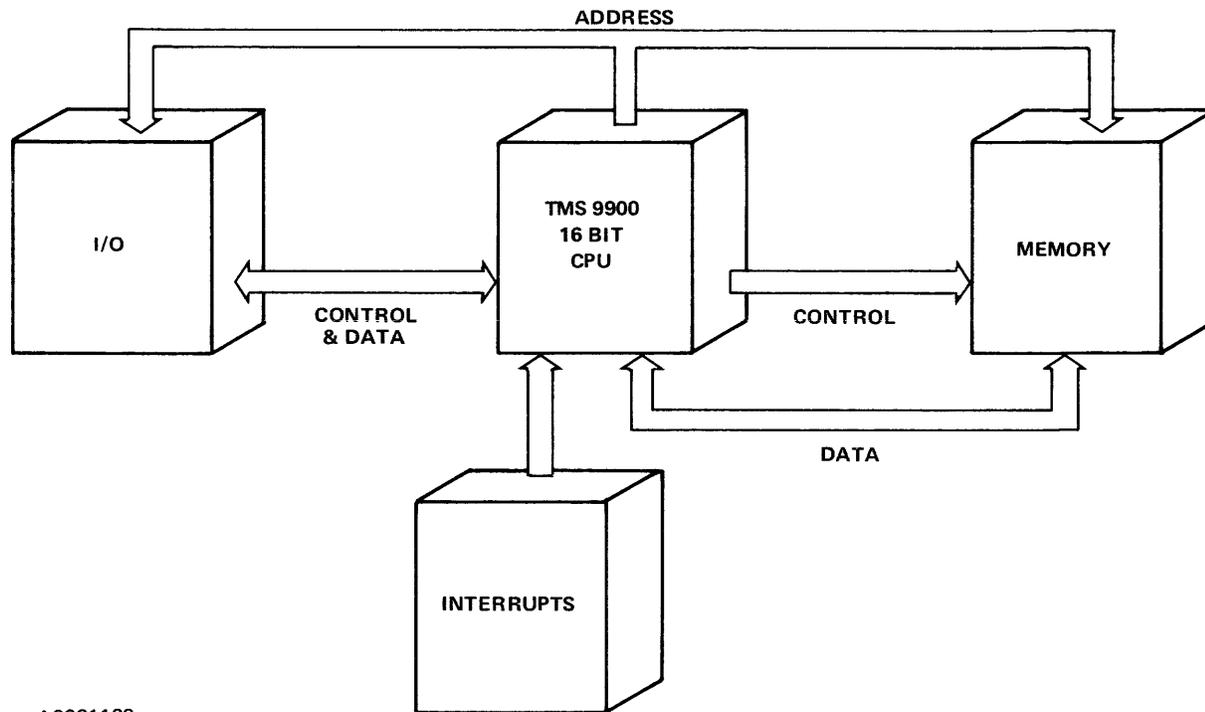
The TMS 9900 instructions are not limited to workspace registers for efficient data storage. The two-address instructions permit operations to be performed on any word in memory by any other word in memory. For example, a single add (A) instruction can add any memory word to any other memory word in the total 32K word memory space. Many microprocessor architectures require a series of instructions in which memory contents are moved to registers, added, and returned to memory. The TMS 9900 architecture minimizes program storage requirements by reducing the number of instructions and also reduces program complexity and documentation requirements, resulting in both lower memory cost and lower development cost for a TMS 9900 system.

2.3 Bus Structures

The TMS 9900 has separate memory, I/O, and interrupt bus structures as shown in Figure 2-2. Each bus structure is optimized for its individual function. The memory bus efficiently handles the uniform width memory words which are transferred in parallel between the CPU and memory. The memory reference instructions operate on parallel data words or bytes, with additional masking instructions to isolate individual bits. The TMS 9900 has separate address, control, and data outputs and uses standard memories without external address latches. The TMS 9900 64-pin package is economical since the elimination of control or address multiplexing eliminates several external circuits and simplifies circuit layout. A complete discussion of memory interface to the TMS 9900 is contained in Section III.

TMS 9900 I/O uses the communication register unit (CRU) concept. Individual or multiple bits are transferred serially between the CPU and peripheral devices, thus the I/O instructions operate on individual bits and on variable length fields. While the TMS 9900 can also use memory mapped I/O, the CRU bus is normally more efficient and economical for I/O operations. Operation, interface, and applications examples for the CRU are contained in Section IV.

The TMS 9900 also has a separate interrupt bus structure that provides multiple vectored and prioritized interrupts without complex external vector generation or slow software polling procedures. Interrupt processing by the TMS 9900 is described in Section IV.



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Figure 2-2. TMS 9900 System Bus Structure

2.4 Context Switching

When the TMS 9900 processes an interrupt, $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$, or $\overline{\text{RESET}}$, or executes an extended operation (XOP) or branch and load workspace pointer (BLWP) instruction, an operation called a context switch is automatically performed. The purpose of the context switch is twofold. First, the present internal registers (WP, PC, and ST) are stored in memory; second, new values for the WP and PC are loaded, thus setting up a different workspace and starting point for program execution.

The new values for the WP and PC are contained in dedicated memory locations which are described in Section 3.1. The BLWP instruction operand identifies the memory addresses which contain the new WP and PC values. The actual sequence in which the context switch is performed is as follows:

- The new WP is loaded into the CPU;
- The old ST is stored in WR15 of the new workspace;
- The old PC is stored in WR14 of the new workspace;
- The old WP is stored in WR13 of the new workspace;
- The new PC is loaded into the CPU and instruction execution begins at that point.

When the new program has completed execution, return to the original context is performed by execution of the return workspace pointer (RTWP) instruction, which causes the values contained in WR13–WR14 to be reloaded into the internal registers.

2.5 Machine Cycles

Each operation performed by the TMS 9900 consists of a sequence of machine cycles. In each machine cycle the processor performs a data transfer with memory or the CRU and/or an arithmetic or logical operation internally with the ALU. A detailed discussion of the machine cycles for all instructions is contained in Appendix A.

2.5.1 ALU Machine Cycles

Each ALU machine cycle is two clock cycles long. In an ALU cycle no external data transfer occurs, but the ALU performs an arithmetic or logical operation on two operands contained internally.

2.5.2 Memory Read Machine Cycles

The function of the memory-read cycle is to transfer a word of data contained in memory to the processor. An ALU operation may be performed during a memory-read cycle. Memory-read cycles are a minimum of two clock cycles long. If wait states are inserted to allow access to slow memories, the length of the memory-read cycle is extended.

2.5.3 Memory Write Machine Cycles

The memory-write cycle is identical to the memory-read cycle, except that data is written to rather than read from memory.

2.5.4 CRU Output Machine Cycles

Each CRU output machine cycle is two clock cycles long. In addition to outputting a bit of CRU data, an ALU operation may also be performed internally.

2.5.5 CRU Input Machine Cycles

The CRU input cycle is identical to the CRU output cycle, except that one bit of data is input rather than output.

2.5.6 Instruction Execution Examples

Examples of how sequences of machine cycles are used to execute instructions are illustrated in Figures 2-3 to 2-6. Note that the first machine cycle of each instruction is always a memory-read cycle in which the instruction is fetched, and the second is always an ALU cycle.

2.6 Machine Cycle Limits

Table 2-2 lists information which will be useful for system design. The maximum number of consecutive memory-read cycles is used to calculate the maximum latency for the TMS 9900 to enter the hold state, since the hold state is only entered from ALU, CRU input, or CRU output machine cycles. The minimum frequency of consecutive memory/non-memory cycle sequences occurs when the DIV instruction is executed. This number is used to ensure that the refresh rate meets specifications when the transparent-refresh mode described in paragraph 3.4.2.3 is used, since memory is refreshed in this mode each time an ALU or CRU cycle follows a memory cycle. Figure 2-7 shows the logic to generate a pulse for each memory access cycle, including consecutive cycles shown in Figure 2-8.

SBO OUTBIT		
CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	Memory Read	Instruction Fetch
2	ALU	Decode Op Code
3	ALU	Calculate Address of WR12
4	Memory Read	Fetch (WR12)
5	ALU	Calculate CRU Address
6	CRU Output	Output Bit, Increment PC

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Figure 2-3. SBO Instruction Machine Cycles

RTWP		
CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	Memory Read	Instruction Fetch
2	ALU	Decode Opcode
3	ALU	Calculate Address of WR15
4	Memory Read	Restore Status from WR15
5	Memory Read	Restore PC from WR14
6	Memory Read	Restore WP from WR13
7	ALU	Load PC into MA

A0001105

Figure 2-5. RTWP Instruction Machine Cycles

STCR RO,5		
CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	Memory Read	Instruction Fetch
2	ALU	Decode Op Code
3	Memory Read	Fetch (WRO)
4	ALU	Calculate Address of WR12
5	Memory Read	Fetch (WR12)
6	ALU	Set Up
7	ALU	Set Up
8-12	CRU Input	Transfer 5 Bits
13	ALU	Set Up
14	ALU	Set Up
15-17	ALU	Zero Filling
18	ALU	Parity Generation
19	ALU	Load WRO Address in MA
20	ALU	Byte Positioning
21	Memory Write	Store Data in WRO, Increment PC

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Figure 2-4. STCR Instruction Machine Cycles

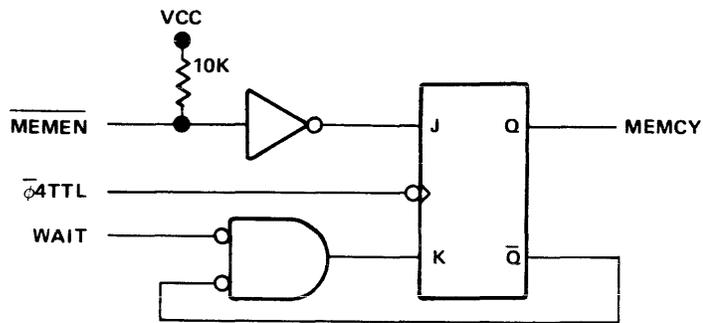
A *R1,R2		
CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	Memory Read	Instruction Fetch
2	ALU	Decode Opcode
3	Memory Read	Fetch (WR1)
4	ALU	Set Up
5	Memory Read	Fetch ((WR1))
6	ALU	Set Up
7	Memory Read	Fetch (WR2)
8	ALU	Addition
9	Memory Write	Store Result in WR2, Increment PC

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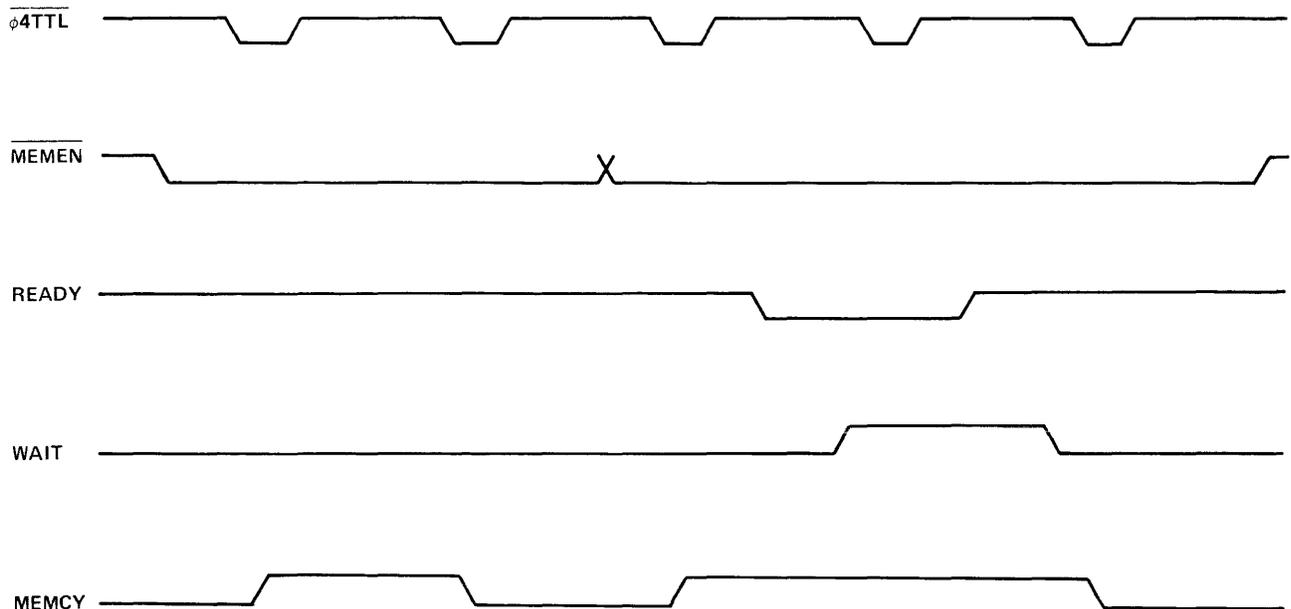
Figure 2-6. A Instruction Machine Cycles

TABLE 2-2. MACHINE CYCLE LIMITS

	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
Consecutive Memory Read Cycles	1	3
Consecutive Memory Write Cycles	1	1
Consecutive ALU Cycles	1	51
Consecutive CRU Cycles	1	16
Frequency of Consecutive memory/non-memory cycle pairs (used for transparent refresh)	5 pairs	64 machine cycles during DIV.)



A0001107 Figure 2-7. Memory Cycle Pulse Generation



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Figure 2-8. Memory Cycle Pulse Timing

SECTION III

MEMORY

The TMS 9900 workspace organization uses the system memory for register files in addition to program and data storage. The TMS 9900 is easily interfaced to any of the standard types of semiconductor memory devices. Texas Instruments provides masked ROMs, field-programmable ROMs (PROMs), and erasable PROMs (EPROMs) for non-volatile program and data storage. RAMs are available in sizes from a 64 x 8 static RAM to the 16K dynamic RAMs for use as temporary program and data storage. TMS 9900 compatible memory devices are listed in Table 3-1.

3.1 Memory Organization

The TMS 9900 instructions build a 16-bit address word which describes a 64K x 8 bit address space. The least-significant address bit is used internally by the CPU to select the even or odd byte, and the other 15 address bits are passed to external memory to describe a 32K x 16 bit address space. Although 32K words are the most locations that the CPU can directly access, additional memory can be accessed using address bank switches or address mapping.

The advanced architecture of the TMS 9900 uses part of the external memory space for workspace register files and for transfer vector storage. For maximum design flexibility, only the locations of the transfer vectors are restricted. A memory map for the TMS 9900 is shown in Figure 3-1. The transfer vectors are the new WP and PC for the context switches described in Section 2.4.

3.1.1 $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ Vector

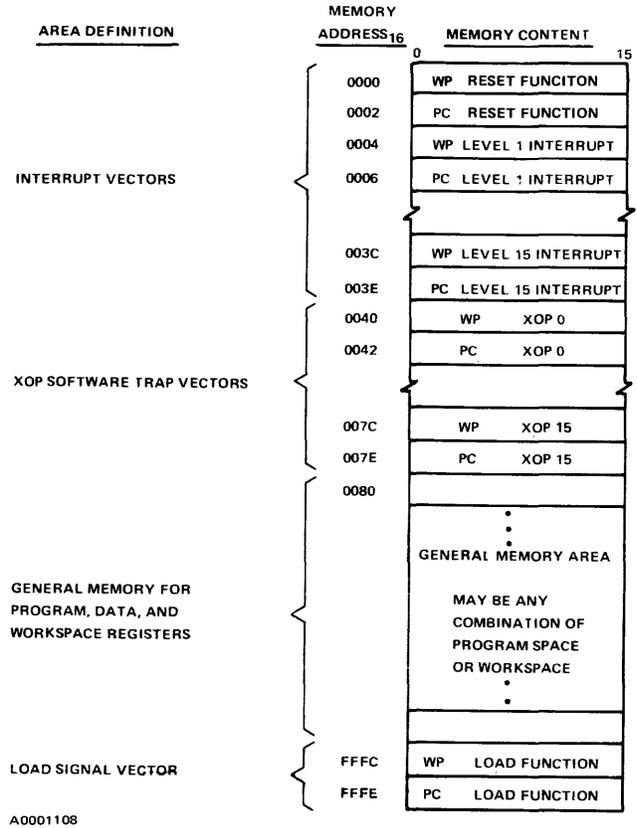
The first two memory words are reserved for storage of the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ vector. The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ vector is used to load the new WP and PC whenever the CPU $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal occurs. The first word contains the new WP, which is the starting address of the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ workspace. The second word contains the new PC, which is the starting address of the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ service routine.

3.1.2 Interrupt Vectors

The next thirty memory words, 0004_{16} through $003E_{16}$ are reserved for storage of the interrupt transfer vectors for levels 1 through 15. Each interrupt level uses a word for the workspace pointer (WP) and a word for the starting address of the service routine (PC). If an interrupt level is not used within a system, then the corresponding two memory words can be used for program or data storage.

**TABLE 3-1. TMS 9900
COMPATIBLE MEMORIES**

<u>Device</u>	<u>Organization</u>	<u>Package</u>
Dynamic RAMs		
TMS 4030	4096X1	22
TMS 4050	4096X1	18
TMS 4051	4096X1	18
TMS 4060	4096X1	22
TMS 4070	16384X1	16
Static RAMs (NMOS)		
TMS 4033	1024X1	16
TMS 4036-2	64X8	20
TMS 4039-2	256X4	22
TMS 4042-2	256X4	18
TMS 4043-2	256X4	16
ROMs (NMOS)		
TMS 4700	1024X8	24
TMS 4800	2048X8	24
PROMs (TTL)		
SN 74S287	256X4	16
SN 74S471	256X8	20
SN 74S472	512X8	20
SN 74S474	512X8	24
EPROMs (NMOS)		
TMS 2708	1024X8	24
TMS 2716	2048X8	24



**Figure 3-1. TMS 9900
Dedicated Memory Addresses**

3.1.3 Software Trap Vectors

The next thirty-two memory words, 00040_{16} through $007E_{16}$, are used for extended-operation software trap vectors. When the CPU executes one of the 16 extended operations (XOPs), the program traps through the corresponding vector. Two words are reserved for each trap vector, with one word for the WP and one word for the PC. If an XOP instruction is not used, the corresponding vector words can be used for program or data storage.

3.1.4 LOAD Vector

The last two memory words $FFFC_{16}$ and $FFFE_{16}$ are reserved for the LOAD vector, with one word for the WP and one word for the PC. the LOAD vector is used whenever the CPU LOAD signal is active (low).

3.1.5 Transfer Vectors Storage

The transfer vectors can be stored either in ROM or RAM, but the reset vector should be in non-volatile memory to ensure proper system start-up. The restart routine should initialize any vector which is in RAM. The program can then manipulate the RAM-based vectors to alter workspace assignments or service routine entry points, while ROM-based vectors are fixed and cannot be altered.

3.2 Memory Control Signals

The TMS 9900 uses three signals to control the use of the data bus and address bus during memory read or write cycles. Memory enable ($\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$) is active (low) during all memory cycles.

Data bus in (DBIN) is active (high) during memory read cycles and indicates that the CPU has disabled the output data buffers.

Write enable ($\overline{\text{WE}}$) is active (low) during memory write cycles and has timing compatible with the read/write (R/W) control signal for many standard RAMs.

3.2.1 Memory Read Cycle

Figure 3-2 illustrates the timing for a memory read machine cycle with no wait states. At the beginning of the machine cycle, $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ and DBIN become active and the valid address is output on A0–A14. D0–D15 output drivers are disabled to avoid conflicts with input data. WE remains high for the entire machine cycle. The READY input is sampled on $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 1, and must be high if no wait states are desired. Data is sampled on $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 2, and set-up and hold timing requirements must be observed. A memory-read cycle is never followed by a memory-write cycle, and D0-D15 output drivers remain disabled for at least one additional clock cycle.

3.2.2 Memory Write Cycle

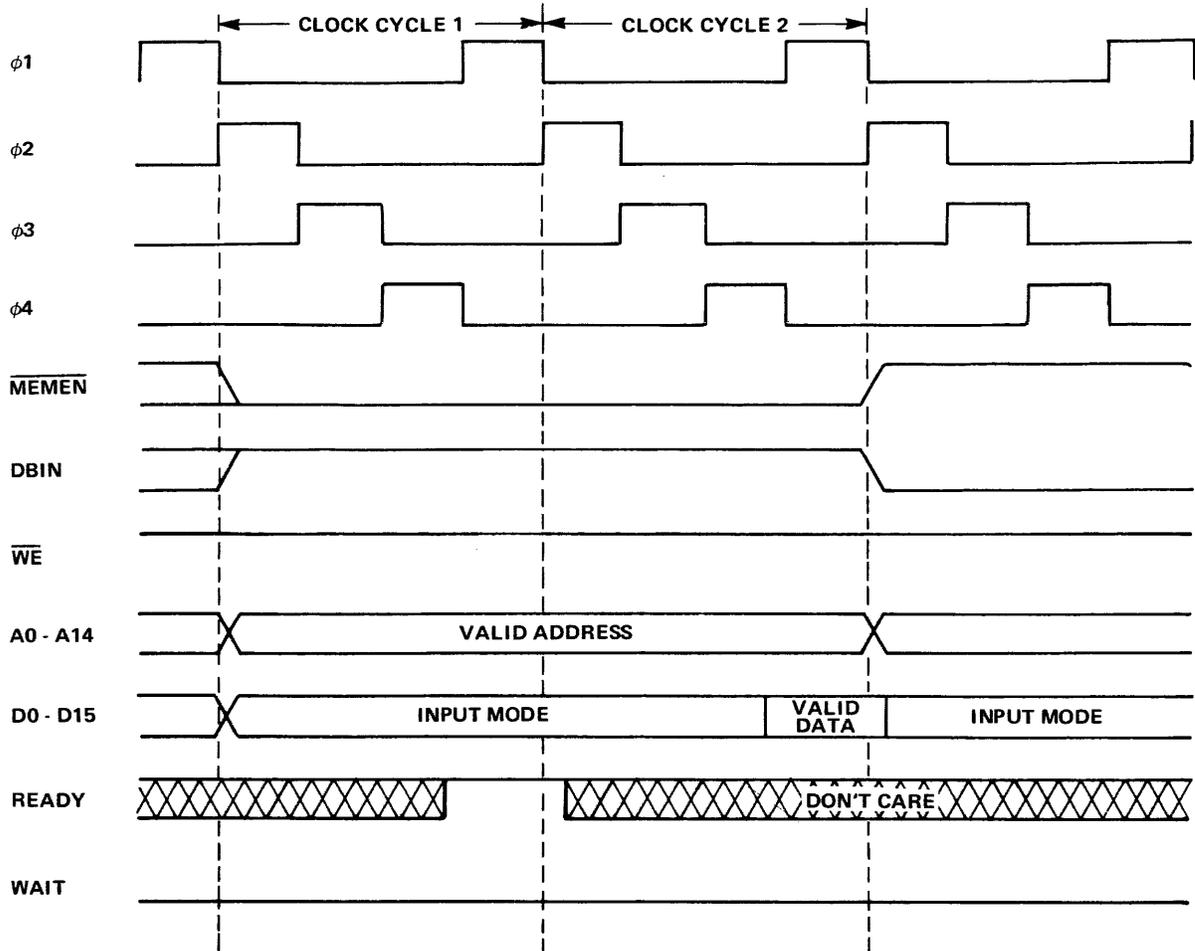
Figure 3-3 illustrates the timing for a memory write machine cycle with no wait states. $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ becomes active, and valid address and data are output at the beginning of the machine cycle. DBIN remains inactive for the complete cycle. $\overline{\text{WE}}$ goes low on $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 1 and goes high on $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 2, meeting the address and data set-up and hold timing requirements for the static RAMs listed in Table 3-1. For no wait states, READY must be high during $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 1.

3.2.3 Read/Write Control with DBIN

In some memory systems, particularly with dynamic RAMs, it may be desirable to have READ and WRITE control signals active during the full memory cycle. Figure 3-4 shows how the WRITE signal can be generated, since any memory cycle ($\overline{\text{MEMEN}} = 0$) in which DBIN = 0 is a memory-write cycle.

3.2.4 Slow Memory Control

Although most memories operate with the TMS 9900 at the full system speed, some memories cannot properly respond within the minimum access time determined by the system clock. The system clock could

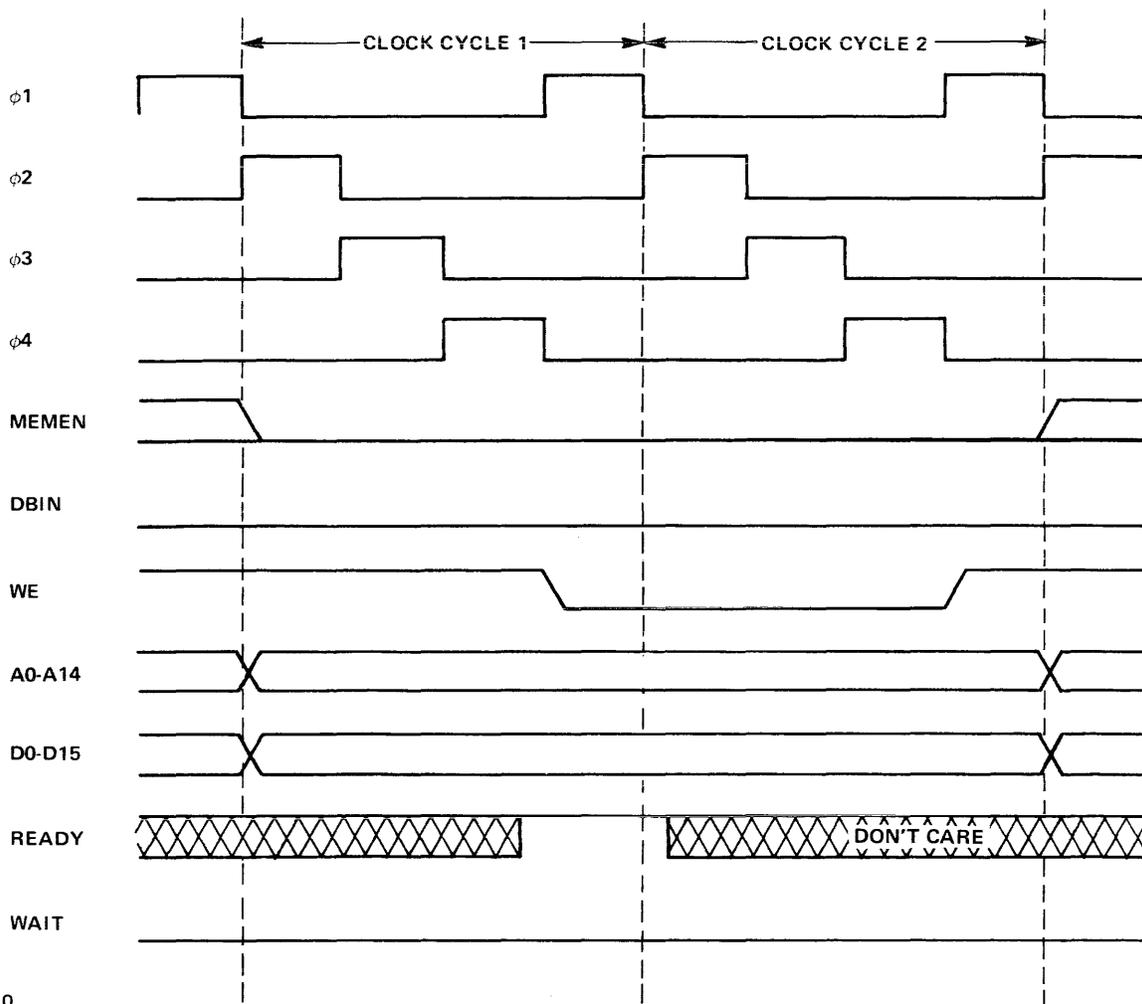


A0001109

Figure 3-2. Memory-Read Cycle Timing

be slowed down in order to lengthen the access time but the system through-put would be adversely affected since non-memory and other memory reference cycles would be unnecessarily longer. The READY and WAIT signals are used instead to synchronize the CPU with slow memories. The timing for memory-read and memory-write cycles with wait states is shown in Figures 3-5 and 3-6.

The READY input is tested on $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 1 of memory-read and memory-write cycles. If $READY = 1$, no wait states are used and the data transfer is completed on the next clock cycle. If $READY = 0$, the processor enters the wait state on the next clock cycle and all memory control, address, and data signals maintain their current levels. The WAIT output goes high on $\phi 3$ to indicate that a wait state has been entered. While in the wait state, the processor continues to sample READY on $\phi 1$, and remains in the wait state until $READY = 1$. When $READY = 1$ the processor progresses to clock cycle 2 and the data transfer is completed. WAIT goes low on $\phi 3$. It is important to note that READY is only tested during $\phi 1$ of clock cycle 1 of memory-read and memory-write cycles and wait states, and the specified set-up and hold timing requirements must be met; at any other time the READY input may assume any value. The effect of inserting wait states into memory access cycles is to extend the minimum allowable access time by one clock period for each wait state.

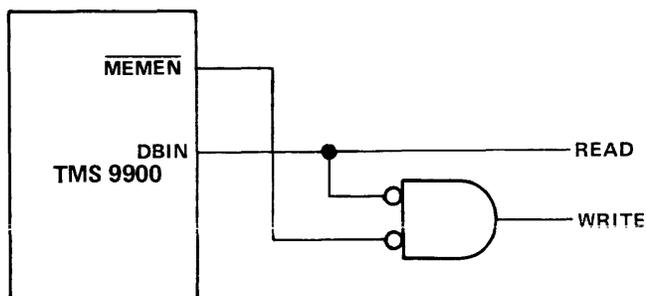


A0001110

Figure 3-3. Memory-Write Cycle Timing

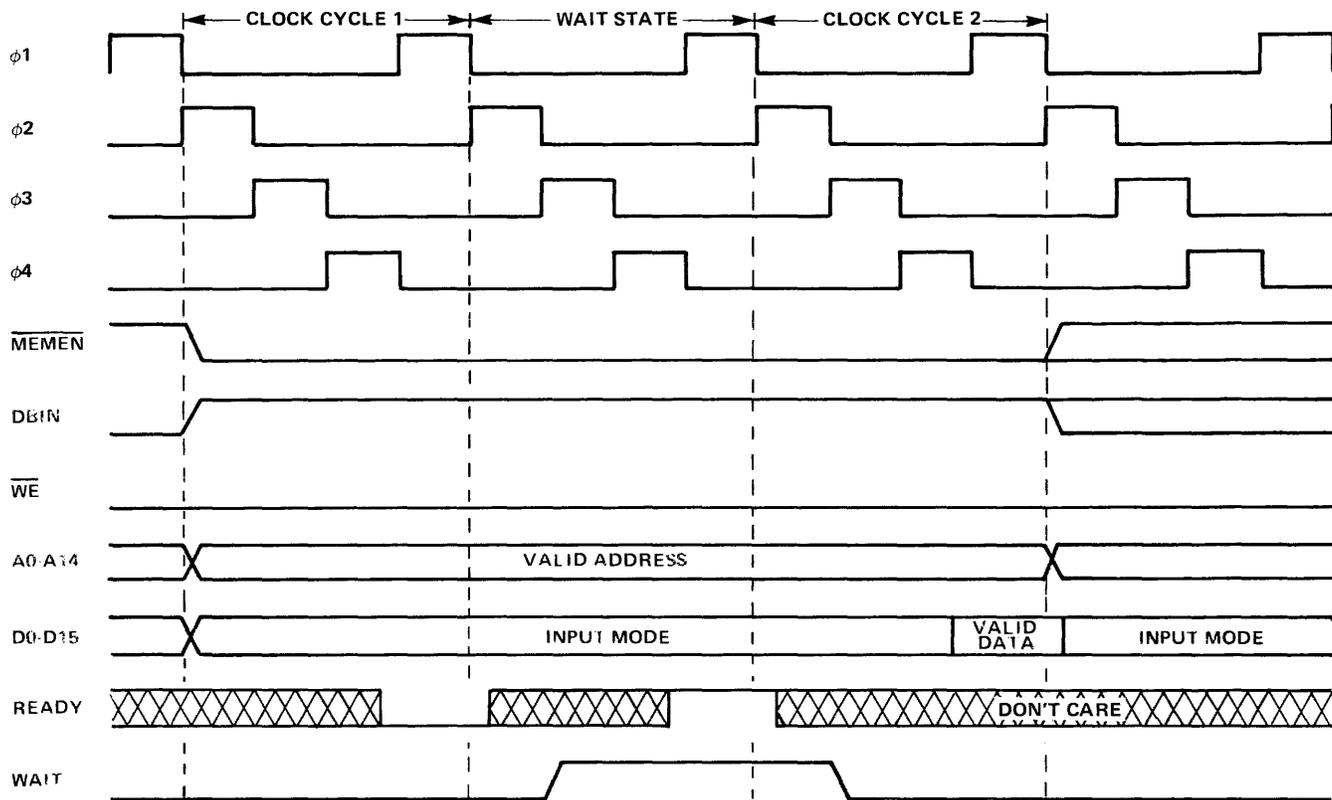
3.2.5 Wait State Control

Figure 3-7 illustrates the connection of the WAIT output to the READY input to generate one wait state for a selected memory segment. The address decode circuitry generates an active low signal ($\overline{\text{SLOMEM}} = 0$) whenever the slow memory is addressed. For example, if memory addresses $8000_{16} - \text{FFFE}_{16}$ select slow memory, $\overline{\text{SLOMEM}} = \overline{\text{A0}}$. If one wait state is required for all memory, WAIT may be connected directly to READY, causing one wait state to be generated on each memory-read or memory-write machine cycle. Referring again to Figures 3-5 and 3-6, note that the WAIT output satisfies all of the timing



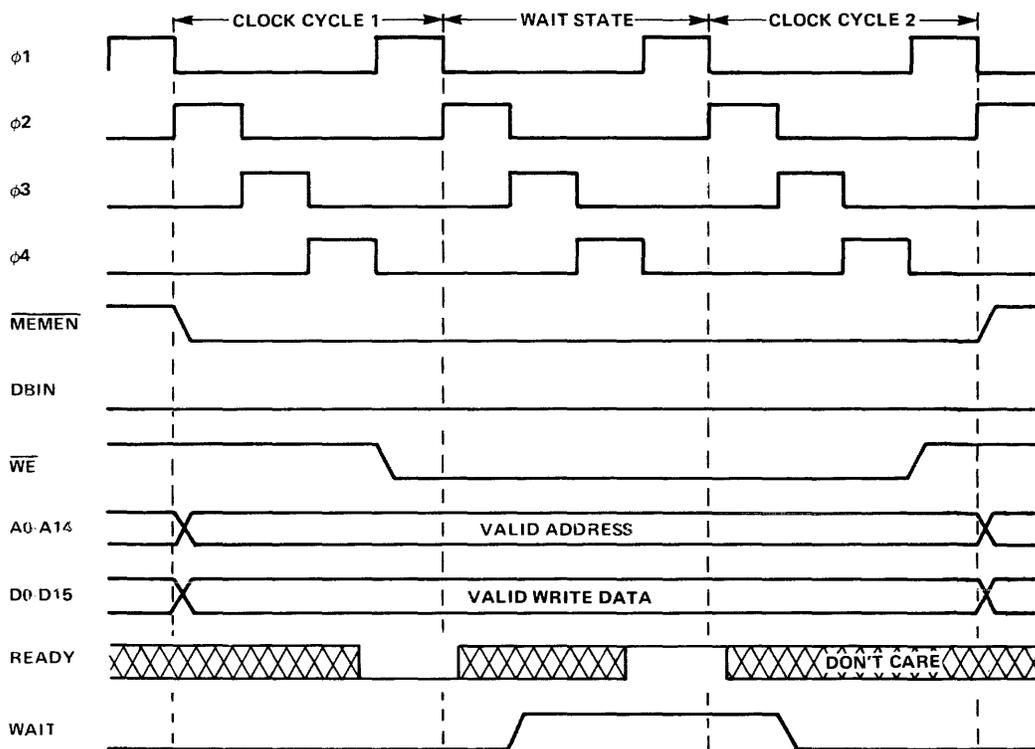
A0001111

Figure 3-4. Read/Write Control Using $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ and **DBIN**



A0001112

Figure 3-5. Memory-Read Cycle With One Wait State



A0001113

Figure 3-6. Memory-Write Cycle With One Wait State

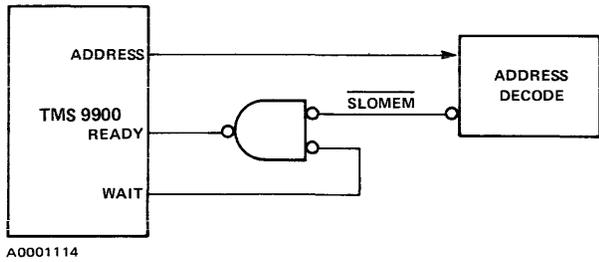


Figure 3-7. Single Wait State for Slow Memory

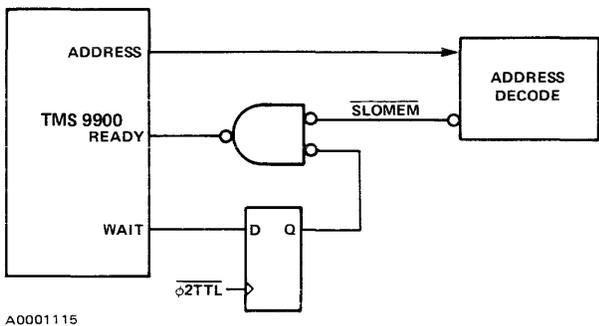


Figure 3-8. Double Wait States for Slow Memory

requirements for the READY input for a single wait state. The address decode signal is active only when a particular set of memory locations has been addressed. Figure 3-8 illustrates the generation of two wait states for selected memory by simply delaying propagation of the WAIT output to the READY input one clock cycle with a D-type flip-flop. The rising edge of $\phi 2TTL$ is assumed to be coincident with the falling edge of the $\phi 2$ clock input to the TMS 9900.

3.2.6 Memory Access Time Calculation

Maximum allowable memory access time for the TMS 9900 can be determined with the aid of Figure 3-9. Memory control and address signals are output on $\phi 2$ of clock cycle 1, and are stable 20 ns (t_{PLH} , t_{PHL}) afterwards. Data from memory must be valid 40 ns (t_{SU}) before the leading edge of $\phi 1$ during clock cycle 2. Therefore, memory access time may be expressed by the equation:

$$t_{acc} \leq (1.75 + n) t_{cy} - t_{PLH} - t_r - t_{su}$$

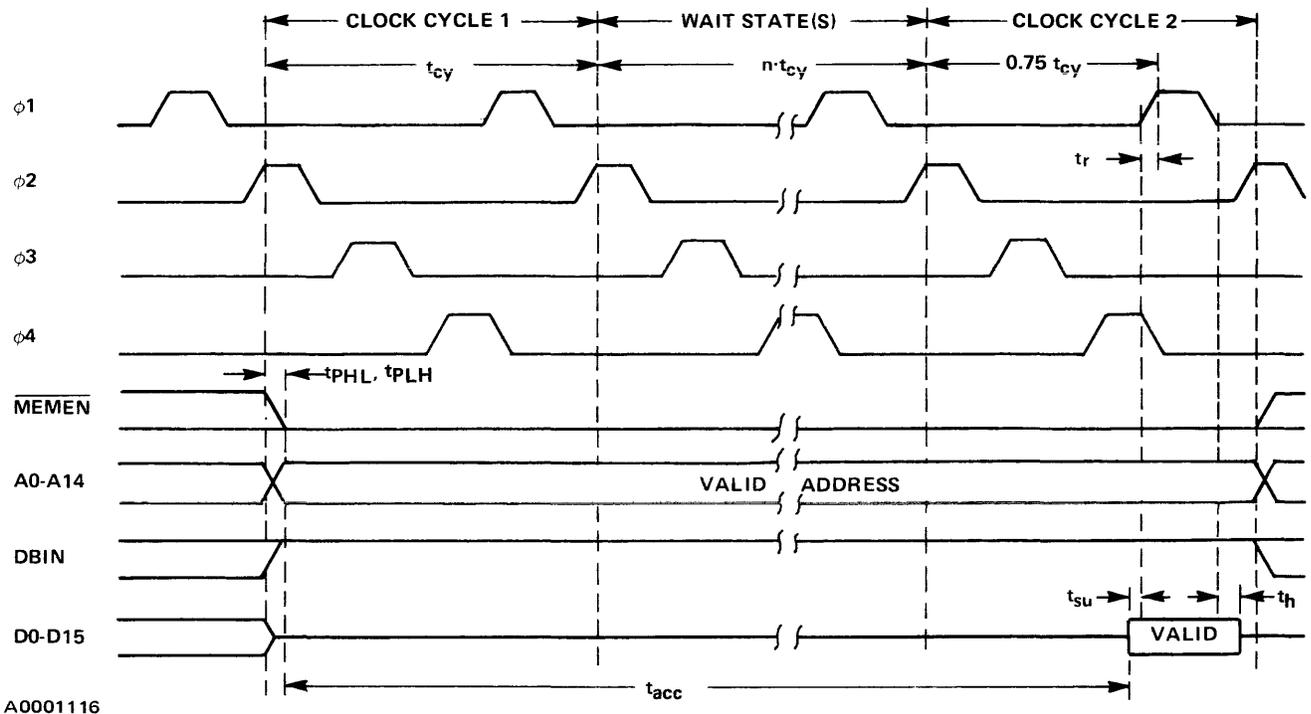


Figure 3-9. Memory Access Timing Calculation

where n equals the number of wait states in the memory-read cycle. Assigning worst-case specified values for t_{PLH} (20 ns), t_r (12 ns), and t_{su} (40 ns), and assuming 3 MHz operation:

$$t_{acc} \leq \frac{(1.75 + n)}{0.003} - 72 \text{ ns}$$

Access time is further reduced by address decoding, control signal gating, and address and data bus buffering, when used. The graph in Figure 3-10 illustrates the above equation for varying n and t_{cy} in an unbuffered memory system. Thus, for a known access time for a given device, the number of required wait states can be determined.

For example, a TMS 4042-2 RAM has a 450 nanosecond access time and does not require any wait states. A TMS 4042 has a 1000 nanosecond access time and requires two wait states. Propagation delays caused by address or data buffers should be added to the nominal device access time in order to determine the effective access time.

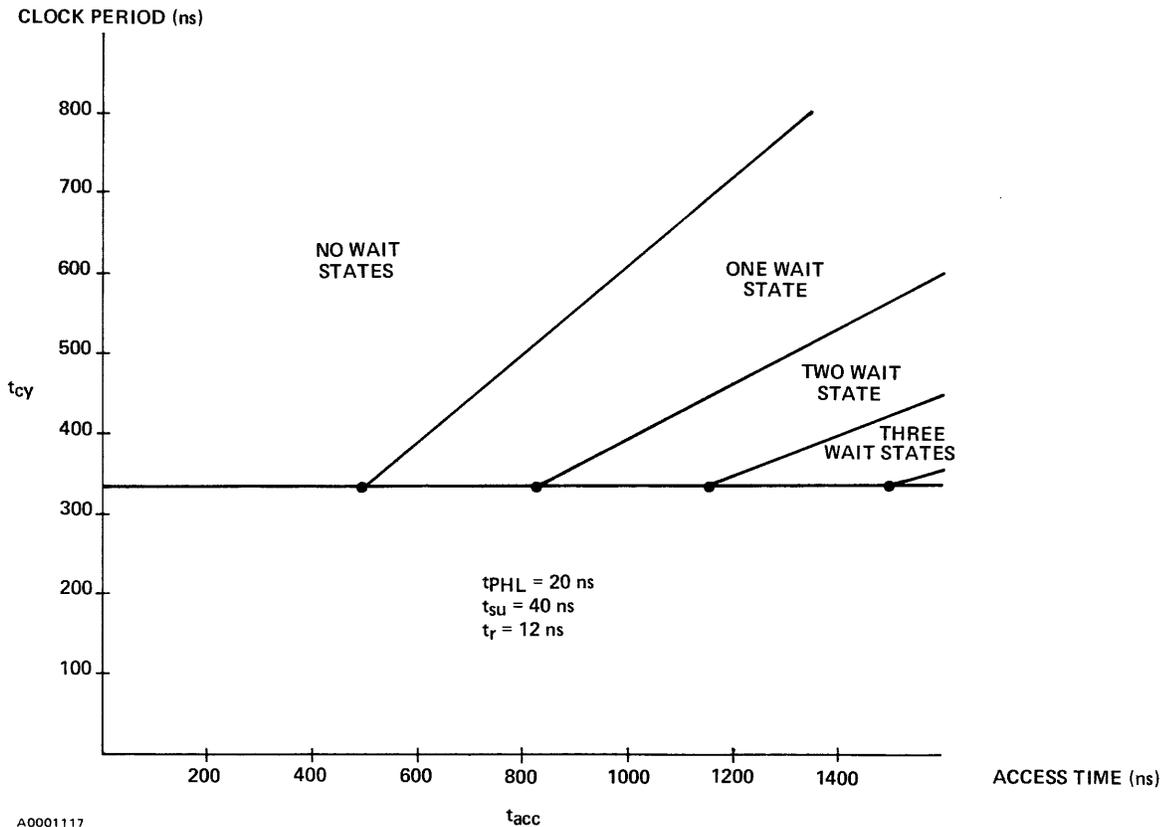


Figure 3-10. Memory Wait Time for Slow Memory

3.3 Static Memory

Static RAMs and PROMs are easily interfaced to the TMS 9900. A TMS 9900 memory system using the TMS 4042-2 256 X 4 static RAM and the TMS 2708 1K X 8 EPROM is shown in Figure 3-11.

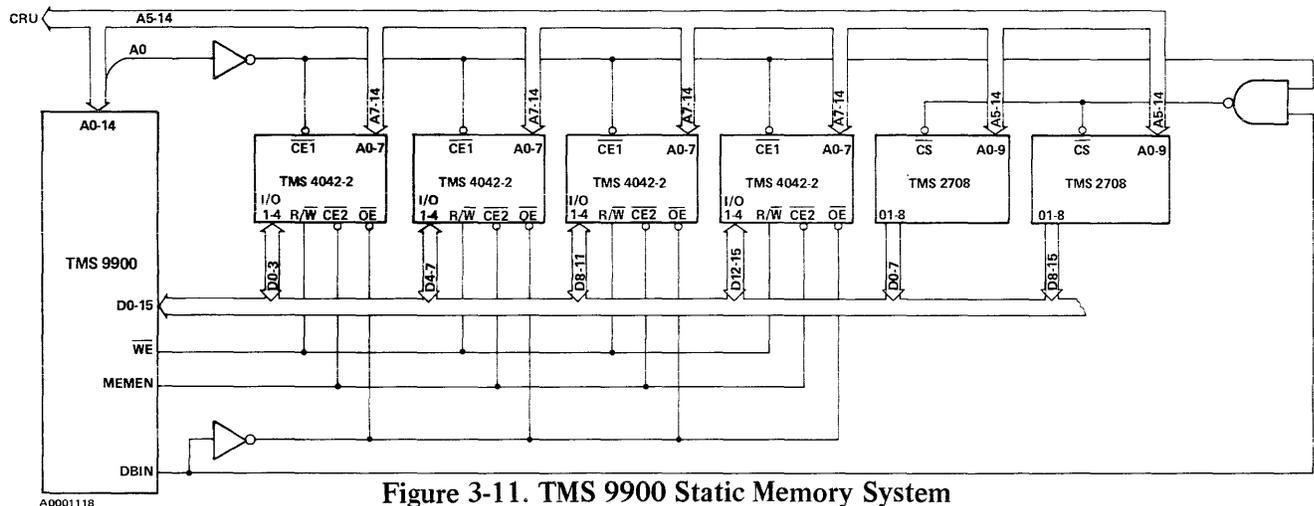


Figure 3-11. TMS 9900 Static Memory System

3.3.1 Address

The most-significant address bit, A0, is used to select either the EPROMs or the RAMs during memory cycles. When A0 is low, the EPROMs are selected, and when A0 is high, the RAMs are selected. Address lines A1 through A4 are not used since the full address space of the TMS 9900 is not required in the example. The lower address bits select internal RAM or EPROM cells. Other memory systems can fully decode the address word for maximum memory expansion.

3.3.2 Control Signals

Since DBIN is also used to select the EPROMs during memory-write cycles, the EPROMs cannot inadvertently be selected and placed into output mode while the CPU is also in the output mode on the data bus. $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ is used to select the RAMs during either read or write cycles, and $\overline{\text{WE}}$ is used to select the read/write mode. DBIN is also used to control the RAM output bus drivers.

The TMS 9900 outputs $\overline{\text{WE}}$ three clock phases after the address, data, and $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ are output. As a result, the address, data, and enable-hold times are easily met. $\overline{\text{WE}}$ is enabled for one clock cycle and satisfies the minimum write pulse width requirement of 300 nanoseconds. Finally, $\overline{\text{WE}}$ is disabled one clock phase before the address, data, and other control signals and meets the TMS 4042-2, 50-nanosecond minimum data and address hold time.

3.3.3 Loading

The loads on the CPU and memory outputs are well below the maximum rated loads. As a result no buffering is required for the memory system in Figure 3-11. The TMS 4042-2 and the TMS 2708 access times are low enough to eliminate the need for wait states, and the CPU READY input is connected to V_{CC} .

The minimum high-level input voltage of the TMS 2708 is 3 volts while the maximum high-output voltage for the TMS 9900 is 2.4 volts at the maximum specified loading. As described in Section 7.2.1, the TMS 9900 output voltage exceeds 3 volts and pull-up resistors are not needed for the system in Figure 3-11. The loads on the CPU and memory outputs are well below the maximum rated load and thus do not require buffering of the address or data lines.

There are many other Texas Instruments static memories compatible with the TMS 9900 as shown in Table 3-1. The memory devices in the table do not require wait states when used with the TMS 9900 at 3 MHz.

3.4 Dynamic Memory

Memory applications requiring large bit storage can use 4K or 16K dynamic memories for low cost, low power consumption, and high bit density. TMS 9900 systems requiring 4K words or more of RAM, can economically use the 4096-bit TMS 4051, the 16,384-bit TMS 4070, or any of the other dynamic RAMs shown in Table 3-1.

3.4.1 Refresh

The dynamic RAMs must be refreshed periodically to avoid the loss of stored data. The RAM data cells are organized into a matrix of rows and columns with on-chip gating to select the addressed bit. Refresh of the 4K RAM cell matrix is accomplished by performing a memory cycle of each of the 64 row addresses every 2 milliseconds or less. The 16K RAM has 128 row addresses. Performing a memory cycle at any cell on a row refreshes all cells in the row, thus allowing the use of arbitrary column address during refresh.

3.4.2 Refresh Modes

There are several dynamic memory refresh techniques which can be used for a TMS 9900 system. If the system periodically accesses at least one cell of each row every 2 milliseconds, then no additional refresh circuitry is required. A CRT controller which refreshes the display periodically is an example of such a system.

Refresh control logic must be included, however, in many systems since the system cannot otherwise ensure that all rows are refreshed every 2 milliseconds. The dynamic memory in such TMS 9900 systems can be refreshed in the block, cycle stealing, or transparent mode.

3.4.2.1 Block Refresh. The block mode of refresh halts the CPU every 2 milliseconds and sequentially refreshes each of the rows. The block technique halts execution for a 128 (4K) or 256 (16K) clock cycle period every 2 milliseconds. Some TMS 9900 systems cannot use this technique because of the possible slow response to priority interrupts or because of the effect of the delay during critical timing or I/O routines.

3.4.2.2 Cycle Stealing. The cycle stealing mode of refresh “steals” a cycle from the system periodically to refresh one row. The refresh interval is determined by the maximum refresh time and the number of rows to be refreshed. The 4K dynamic RAMs have 64 rows to be refreshed every 2 milliseconds and thus require a maximum cycle stealing interval of 31.2 microseconds.

A cycle stealing refresh controller for the TMS 4051 4K dynamic RAM is shown in Figure 3-12. The refresh timer generates the refresh signal (RFPLS) every 30 microseconds. The refresh request signal (RFREQ) is true until the refresh cycle is completed. The refresh grant signal (RFGNT) goes high during the next CPU clock cycle in which the CPU is not accessing the dynamic memory. The refresh memory cycle takes two clock cycles to complete after RFGNT is true. During the second clock cycle, however, the CPU can

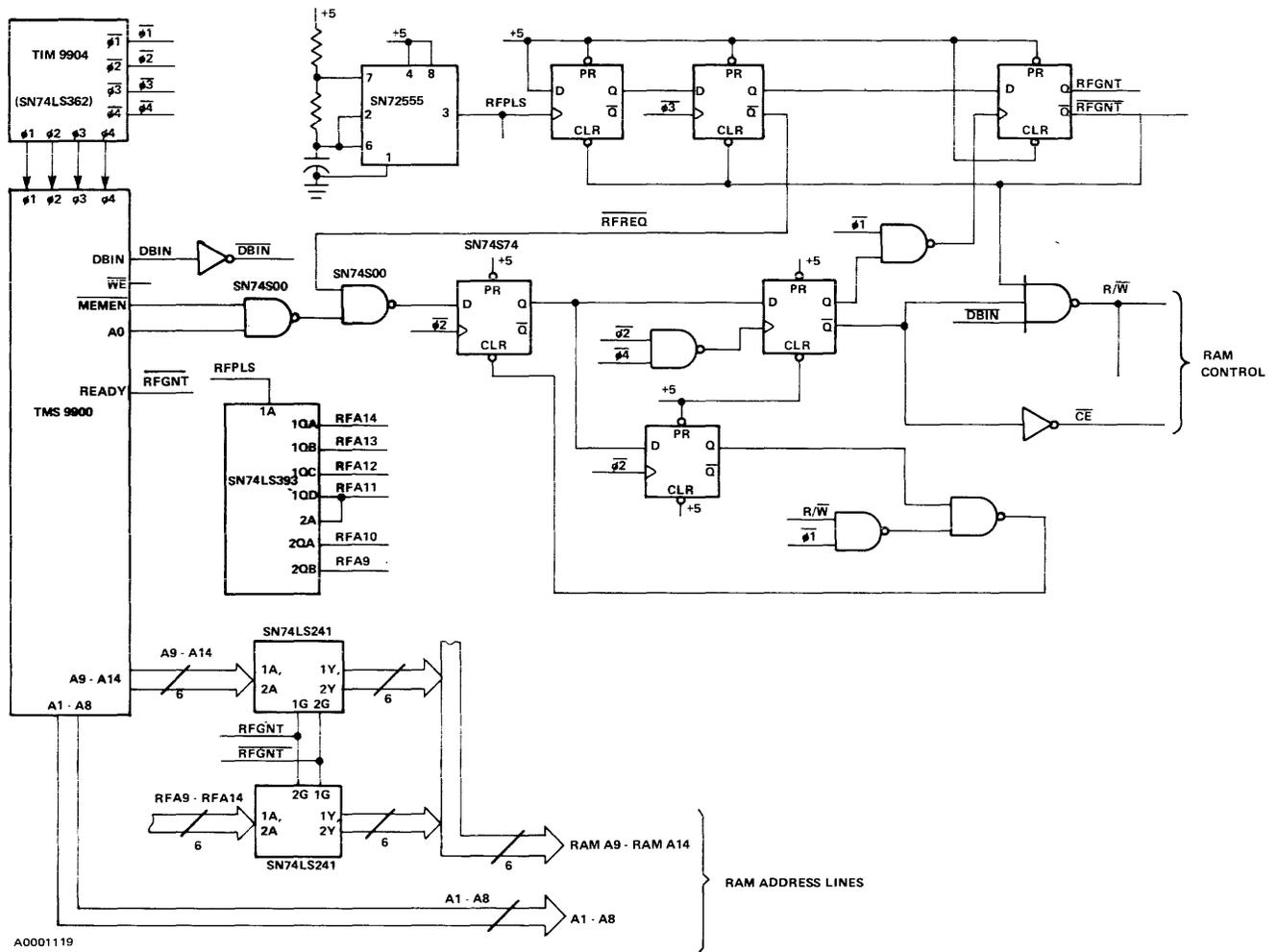


Figure 3-12. Cycle-Stealing Dynamic RAM Refresh for TMS 4051

attempt to access the dynamic memory since the CPU is not synchronized to the refresh controller. If the CPU does access memory during the last clock cycle of the refresh memory cycle, the refresh controller makes the memory not-ready for the remainder of the refresh memory cycle, and the CPU enters a wait state during this interval. The dynamic memory row address during the refresh memory cycle is the output of a modulo-64 counter. The counter is incremented each refresh cycle in order to refresh the rows sequentially.

The dynamic memory timing controller generates the proper chip enable timing for both CPU and refresh initiated memory cycles. The timing controller can be easily modified to operate with other dynamic RAMs.

Since the TMS 9900 performs no more than three consecutive memory cycles, the refresh request will be granted in a maximum of three memory cycles. Some systems may have to block DMA, which uses $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ as described in Section 3.4. RFREQ can be used in such systems to disable $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ temporarily in order to perform a refresh memory cycle if the DMA block transfer is relatively long (greater than 30 microseconds).

The cycle stealing mode “steals” clock cycles only when the CPU attempts to access the dynamic memory during the last half of the refresh cycle. Even if this interference occurs during each refresh cycle, a maximum of 64 clock cycles are “stolen” for refresh every 2 milliseconds.

3.4.2.3 Transparent Refresh. The transparent refresh mode eliminates this interference by synchronizing the refresh cycle to the CPU memory cycle. The rising edge of $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ marks the end of a memory cycle immediately preceding a non-memory cycle. The $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$ rising edge can initiate a refresh cycle with no interference with memory cycles. The refresh requirement does not interfere with the system throughput since only non-memory cycles are used for the refresh cycles. The worst-case TMS 9900 instruction execution sequence (all divides) will guarantee the complete refresh of a 4K or 16K dynamic RAM within 2 milliseconds.

While the transparent refresh mode eliminates refresh-related system performance degradation, the system power consumption can be higher since the RAMs are refreshed more often than required. As many as one-half of the CPU machine cycles can be refresh cycles, resulting in multiple refresh cycles for each row during the refresh interval. This situation can be corrected by adding a timer to determine the start of the refresh interval and an overflow detector for the refresh row counter. When every row has been refreshed during an interval, the refresh circuit is disabled until the beginning of the next interval. Since each row is refreshed only once, the system power consumption is reduced to a minimum.

Direct memory access using $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ should guarantee that sufficient non-memory cycles are available for refresh during large block transfers. An additional refresh timer can be used to block HOLDA in order to provide periodic refresh cycles.

3.5 Buffered Memory

The TMS 9900 outputs can drive approximately two standard TTL inputs and 200 picofarads. Higher capacitive loads may be driven, but with increased rise and fall times. Many small memory systems can thus be directly connected to the CPU without buffer circuits. Larger memory systems, however, may require external bipolar buffers to drive the address or data buses because of increased loading. Texas Instruments manufactures a number of buffer circuits compatible with the TMS 9900. The SN74LS241 noninverting-octal buffer with three-state outputs is an example of a buffer circuit.

A TMS 9900 memory system with address and data bus buffering is shown in Figure 3-13. The system consists of sets of four 256 X 4 memory devices in parallel to provide the 16-bit data word. The four sets of four devices provide a total of 1024 words of memory. The memory devices can be the TMS 4043-2 NMOS static RAM or the SN74S287 bipolar PROM. The devices within each set must be all RAMs or all PROMs, and the sets can all be RAM, all PROM, or any mixture of sets.

The SN74S412 octal buffer/latch is designed to provide a minimum high-level output voltage of 3.65 V. Buffered TMS 9900 memory systems containing the TMS 4700 ROM or the TMS 4908 EPROM, for example, require input voltages in excess of the output voltages of many buffer circuits. The SN74S412 can be used to buffer the memories without the pull-up resistors needed for buffers.

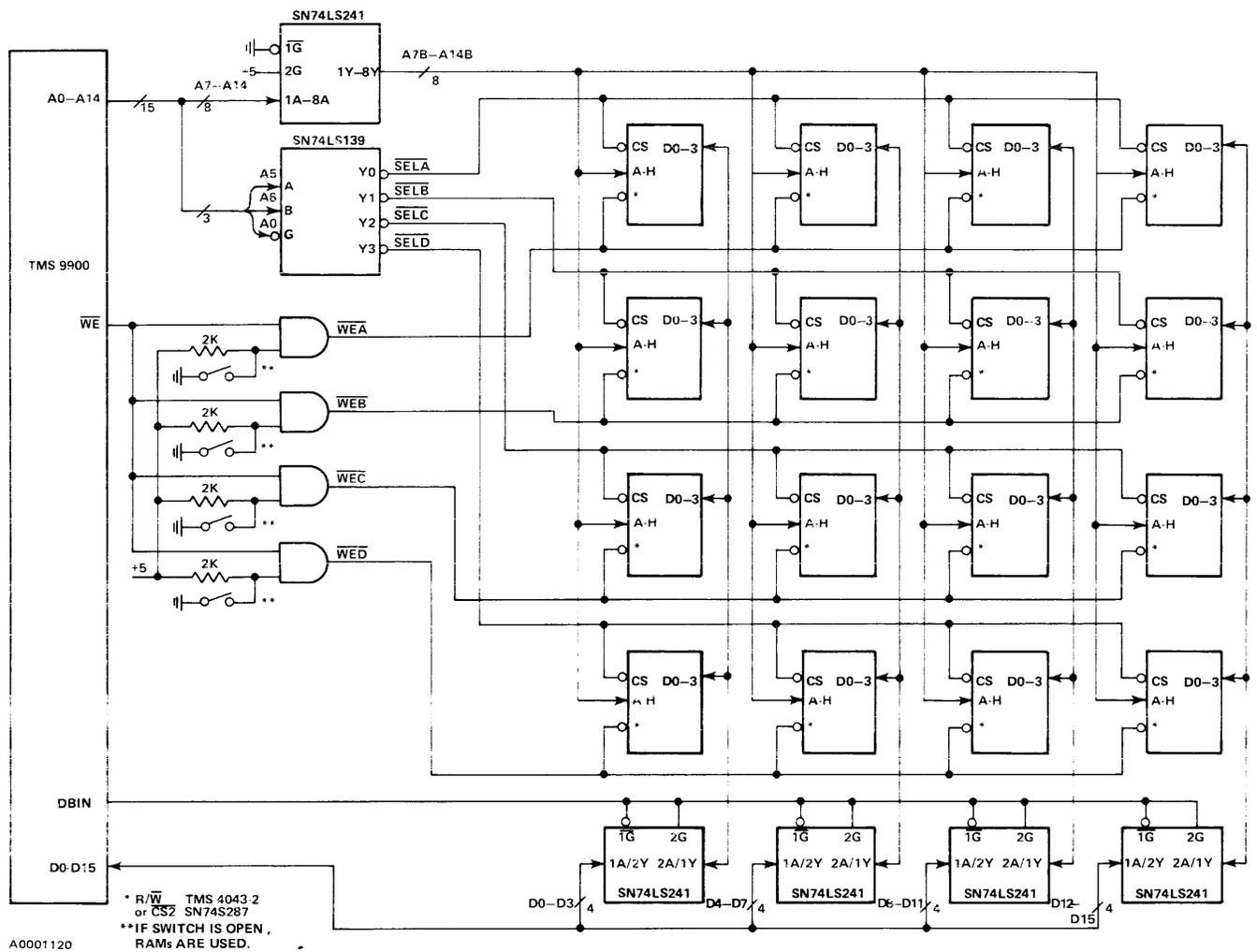


Figure 3-13. Buffered Memory with Mixed PROM/ROM

3.6 Memory Parity

Parity or other error detection/correction schemes are often used to minimize the effects of memory errors. Error detection schemes such as parity are used to indicate the presence of bad data, while error correction schemes correct single or multiple errors.

The SN742LS280 parity generator/checker can be used to implement memory parity in a TMS 9900 system. The system in Figure 3-14 uses two SN74LS280 circuits to generate and to check the odd-memory parity. During memory write cycles, the generated parity bit is output to bit D16 of the memory. During memory read cycles, the parity is checked and an interrupt, PARERR, is generated if the parity is even.

It should be noted that the faulty memory word will have already been used by the CPU as an op code, address, or data before the interrupt is generated. This can cause trouble in determining the exact location of the error. For example, an error in bit 8 of the CLR op code will cause the CPU to branch

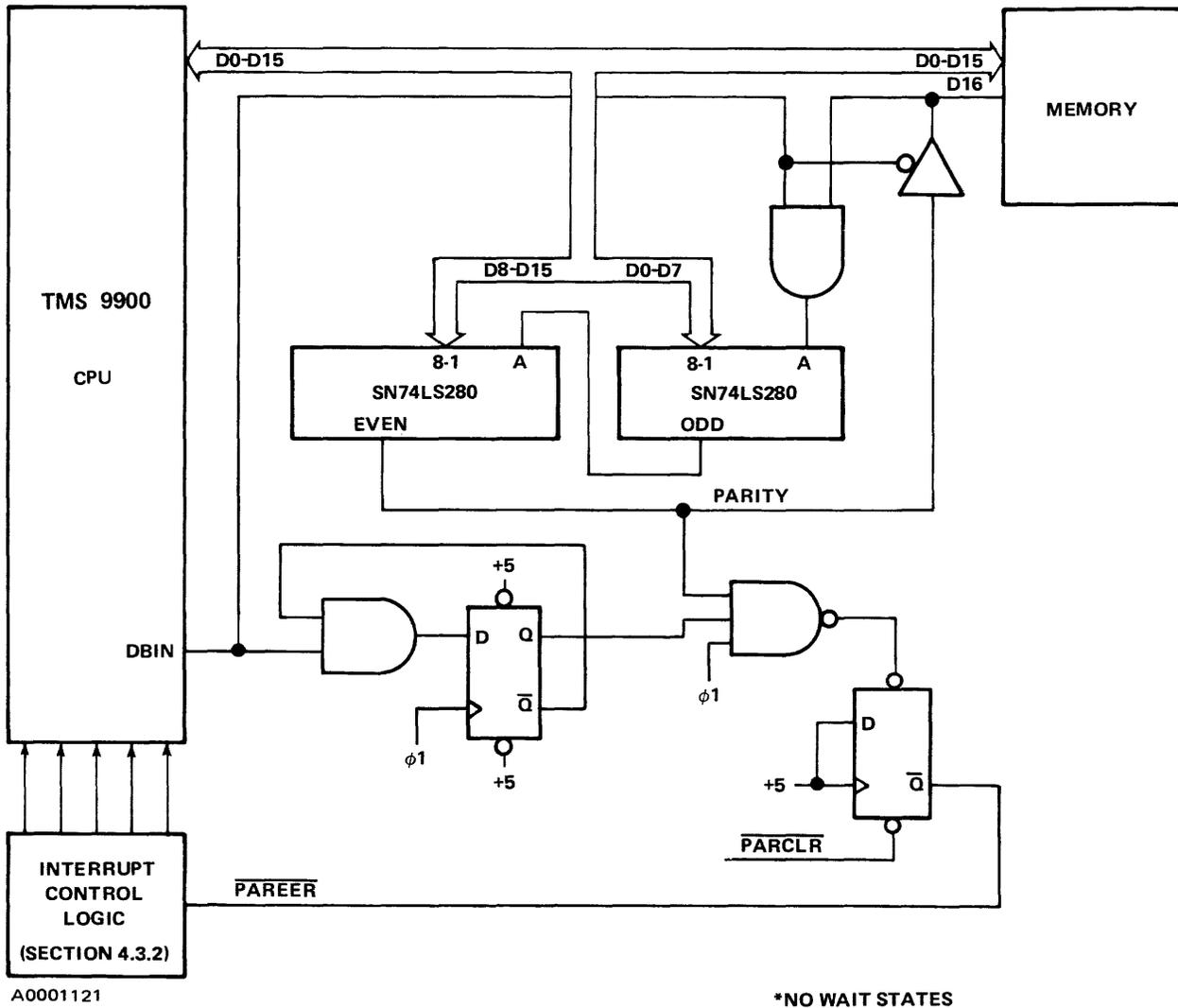


Figure 3-14. Memory Parity Generator Checker

unconditionally. When the interrupt is serviced, there would then be no linkage to the part of the program at which the error occurred. A diagnostic routine can often isolate such errors by scanning the memory and checking parity under program control. Such a parity error in the diagnostic itself can be extremely difficult to isolate.

An external address latch clocked by IAQ can be used to retain program linkage under the above circumstances. When the parity error is detected, the address latch is frozen, thus pointing to the address of the instruction during which the parity error occurred.

3.7 Direct Memory Access

The TMS 9900 controls CRU-based I/O transfers between the memory and peripheral devices. Data must pass through the CPU during these program-driven I/O transfers, and the CPU may need to be synchronized with the I/O device by interrupts or status-bit polling.

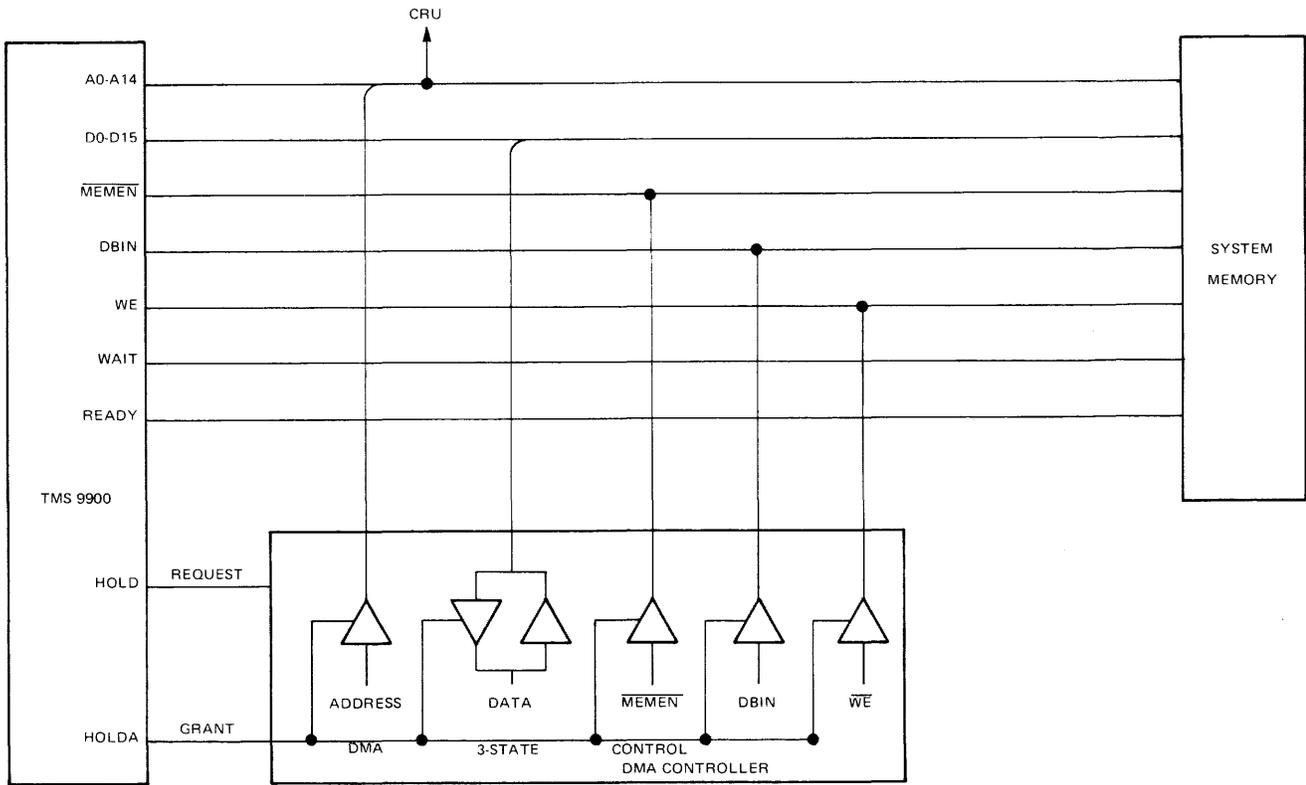
Some I/O devices, such as disk units, transfer large amounts of data to or from memory. Program driven I/O can require relatively large response times, high program overhead, or complex programming techniques. Consequently, direct memory access (DMA) is used to permit the I/O device to transfer data to or from memory without CPU intervention. DMA can result in a high I/O response time and system throughput, especially for block data transfers. The DMA control circuitry is somewhat more expensive and complex than the economical CRU I/O circuitry and should therefore be used only when required.

TMS 9900-based DMA can occur in the same modes as dynamic memory refresh: block, cycle stealing, or transparent. The transparent DMA mode is implemented similarly to the refresh mode and must be synchronized with memory refresh cycles if dynamic memory is used. The block and cycle stealing modes, however, use the CPU $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ capability and are more commonly used. The I/O device holds $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ active (low) when a DMA transfer needs to occur. At the beginning of the next available non-memory cycle, the CPU enters the hold state and raises HOLDA to acknowledge the $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ request. The maximum latency time between the hold request and the hold acknowledge is equal to three clock cycles plus three memory cycles. The minimum latency time is equal to one clock cycle. A 3-megahertz system with no wait cycles has a maximum hold latency of nine clock cycles or 3 microseconds and a minimum hold latency of one clock cycle or 0.3 microseconds.

When HOLDA goes high, the CPU address bus, data bus, DBIN , MEMEN , and WE are in the high-impedance state to allow the I/O device to use the memory bus. The I/O device must then generate the proper address, data, and control signals and timing to transfer data to or from the memory as shown in Figure 3-15. Thus the DMA device has control of the memory bus when the TMS 9900 enters the hold state ($\text{HOLDA} = 1$), and may perform memory accesses without intervention by the microprocessor. Since DMA operations, in effect remove the TMS 9900 from control while memory accesses are being performed, no further discussion is provided in this manual. Because the lines shown in Figure 3-15 go into high impedance when $\text{HOLDA} = 1$, the DMA controller must force these signals to the proper levels. The I/O device can use the memory bus for one transfer (cycle-stealing mode) or for multiple transfers (block mode). At the end of the DMA transfer, the I/O device releases $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ and normal CPU operation proceeds. TMS 9900 $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ and HOLDA timing are shown in Figure 3-16.

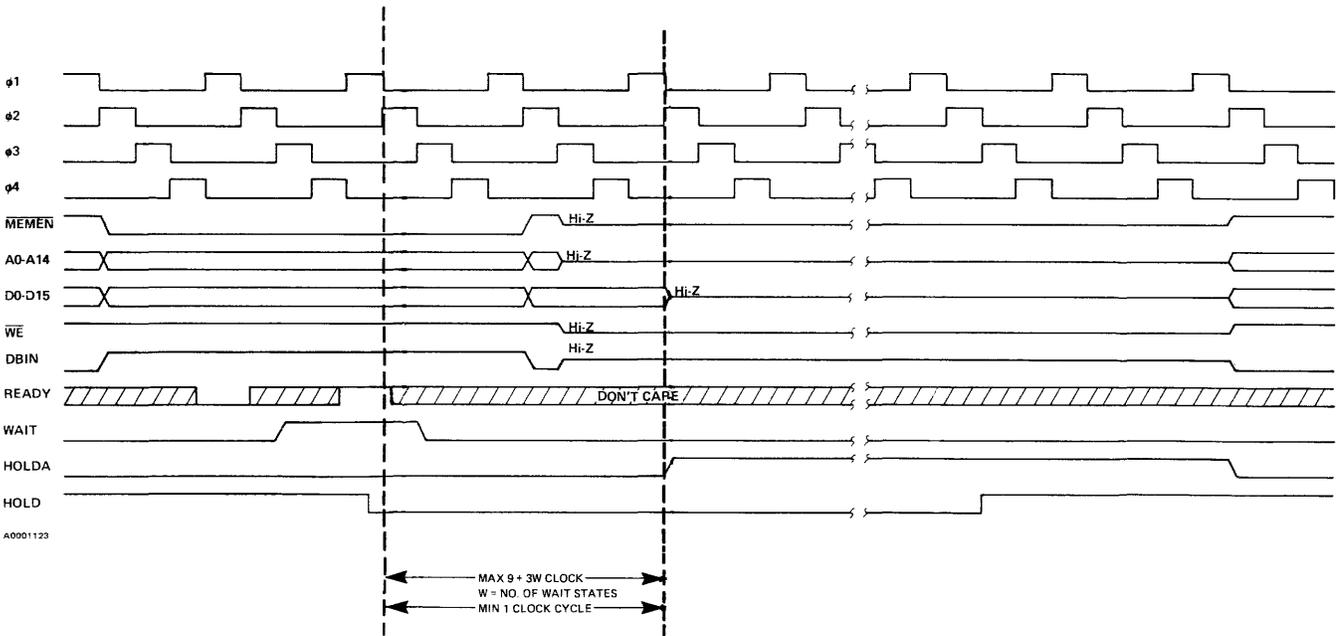
3.8 Memory Layout

It is generally advantageous to lay out memory devices as arrays in the system. The advantages are twofold. First, positioning the devices in an orderly fashion simplifies identification of a particular memory element when troubleshooting. Second, and most important, layout of memory arrays simplifies layout, shortens interconnections, and generally allows a more compact and efficient utilization of board space. Crosstalk between adjacent lines in memory arrays is minimized by running address and data lines parallel to each other, and by running chip enable signals perpendicular to the address lines.



A0001122

Figure 3-15. DMA Bus Control



A0001123

Figure 3-16. $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ and $\overline{\text{HOLDA}}$ Timing

Memory devices, particularly dynamic RAMs generally require substantially greater supply currents when addressed than otherwise. It is therefore important that all power and ground paths be as wide as possible to memory arrays. Furthermore, in order to avoid spikes in supply voltages, it is advisable to decouple supply voltages with capacitors as close as possible to the pins of the memory devices. As an example, a system containing a 4K x 16-bit array of TMS 4051s should contain one 15 μ F and one 0.05 μ F capacitor for each set of four memory devices; with the large capacitors decoupling V_{DD} , and the small capacitors decoupling V_{BB} .

SECTION IV

INTERRUPTS

The TMS 9900 provides fifteen maskable interrupt levels in addition to the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ functions. The CPU has a priority ranking system to resolve conflicts between simultaneous interrupts and a level mask to disable lower priority interrupts. Once an interrupt is recognized, the CPU performs a vectored context switch to the interrupt service routine. The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ functions are initiated by external input signals and should not be confused with the RSET and LREX instructions which are described in Section V.

4.1 RESET

The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal is normally used to initialize the CPU following a power-up. When active (low), the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal inhibits $\overline{\text{WE}}$ and CRUCLK, places the CPU memory bus and control signals in a high-impedance state, and resets the CPU. When the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal is released, the CPU fetches the restart vector from locations 0000 and 0002, stores the old WP, PC, and ST into the new workspace, resets all status bits to zero and starts execution at the new PC. The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal must be held active for a minimum of three clock cycles. The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ machine cycle sequence is shown in Figure 4-1.

A convenient method of generating the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal is to use the Schmitt-triggered D-input of the TIM 9904 clock generator. An RC network connected to the D-input maintains an active $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal for a short time immediately following the power-on, as shown in Figure 4-2.

CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
*	*	Loop While Reset is Active
1	ALU	Set Up
2	ALU	Set Up
3	Memory	Fetch New WP, Move Status To T Reg, Clear Status
4	ALU	Set Up
5	Memory	Store Status
6	ALU	Set Up
7	Memory	Store PC
8	ALU	Set Up
9	Memory	Store WP
10	ALU	Set Up
11	Memory	Fetch New PC
12	ALU	Set Up MAR for Next Instruction

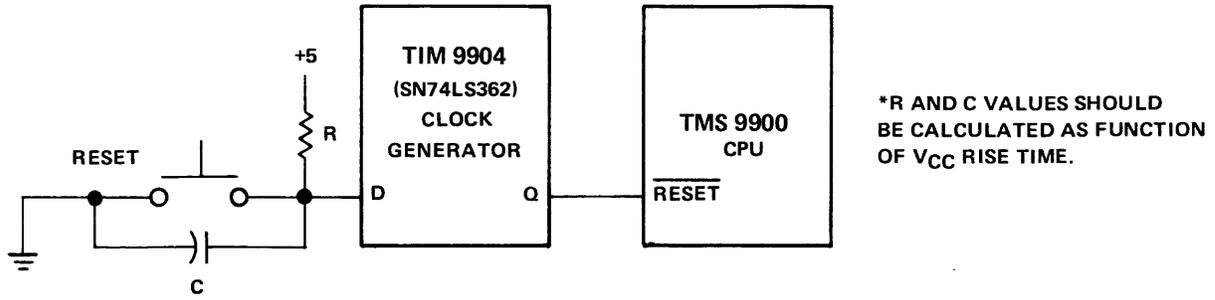
A0001124

Figure 4-1. $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ Machine Cycles

4.2 LOAD

The $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is normally used to implement a restart ROM loader or front panel functions. When active (low), the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal causes the CPU to perform a non-maskable interrupt. The $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal can be used to terminate a CPU idle state.

The $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal should be active for one instruction period. Since there is no standard TMS 9900 instruction period, IAQ should be used to determine instruction boundaries. If the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is active during the time that the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal is released, the CPU will perform the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ function immediately after the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ function is completed. The CPU performs the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ function



A0001125

Figure 4-2. $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ Generation

by fetching the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ vector from addresses FFFC_{16} and FFFE_{16} , storing the old WP, PC, and ST in the new workspace, and starting the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ service routine at the new PC, as shown in Figure 4-3.

An example of the use of the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is a bootstrap ROM loader. When the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is enabled, the CPU enters the service routine, transfers a program from peripheral storage to RAM, and then transfers control to the loaded program.

Figure 4-4 illustrates the generation of the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal for one instruction period.

4.3 Maskable Interrupts

The TMS 9900 has 16 interrupt levels with the lower 15 priority levels used for maskable interrupts. The maskable interrupts are prioritized and have transfer vectors similar to the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ vectors.

CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	ALU	Set Up
2	Memory Read	Fetch New WP
3	ALU	Set Up
4	Memory Write	Store Status
5	ALU	Set Up
6	Memory Write	Store PC
7	ALU	Set Up
8	Memory Write	Store WP
9	ALU	Set Up
10	Memory Read	Fetch New PC
11	ALU	Set UP MAR for Next Instruction

A0001126

Figure 4-3. $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ Machine Cycle Sequence

4.3.1 Interrupt Service

A pending interrupt of unmasked priority level is serviced at the end of the current instruction cycle with two exceptions. The first instruction of a $\overline{\text{RESET}}$, $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$, or interrupt service routine is executed before the CPU tests the $\overline{\text{INTREQ}}$ signal. The interrupt is also inhibited for one instruction if the current instruction is a branch and load workspace pointer instruction (BLWP) or an extended operation (XOP). The one instruction delay permits one instruction to be completed before an interrupt context switch can occur. A LIM1 instruction can be used as the first instruction in a routine to lock out higher priority maskable interrupts.

The pending interrupt request should remain active until recognized by the CPU during the service routine. The interrupt request should then be cleared under program control. The CRU bit manipulation instructions can be used to recognize and clear the interrupt request.

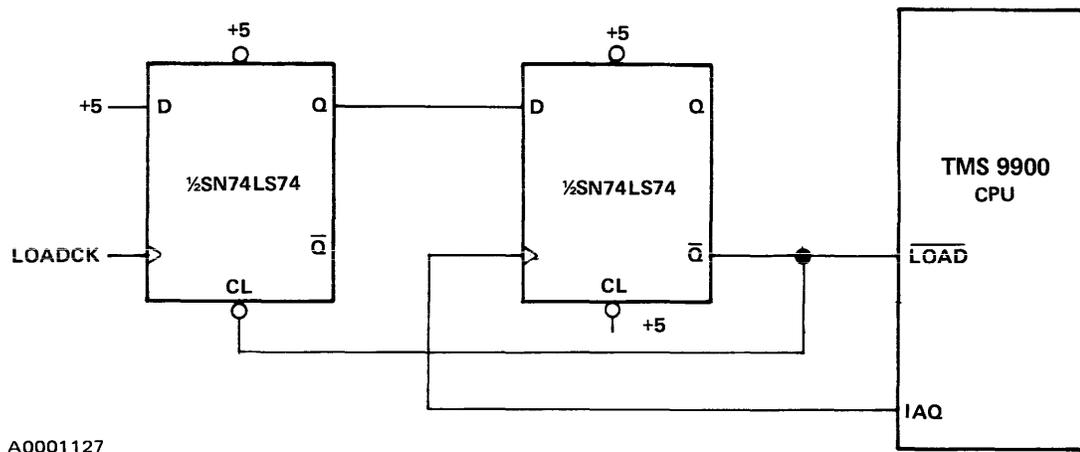


Figure 4-4. $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ Generation

The interrupt context switch causes the interrupt vector to be fetched, the old WP, PC, and ST to be saved in the new workspace, and the new WP and PC to be loaded. Bits 12–15 of ST are loaded with a value of one less than the level of the interrupt being serviced. The old WP, PC, and ST are stored in the new workspace registers 13, 14, and 15. When the return instruction is executed, the old WP, PC, and ST are restored to the CPU. Since the ST contains the interrupt mask, the old interrupt level is also restored. Consequently, all interrupt service routines should terminate with the return instruction in order to restore the CPU to its state before the interrupt.

The linkage between two interrupt service routines is shown in Figure 4-5, and the interrupt machine cycle sequence is shown in Figure 4-6.

4.3.2 Interrupt Signals

The TMS 9900 has five inputs used for maskable interrupts. The $\overline{\text{INTREQ}}$ signal is active (low) when a maskable interrupt is pending. If $\overline{\text{INTREQ}}$ is active at the end of the instruction cycle, the CPU compares the priority code on IC0 through IC3 to the interrupt mask (ST12–ST15). If the interrupt code of the pending interrupt is equal to or less than the current interrupt mask, the CPU executes a vectored interrupt; otherwise, the interrupt request is ignored. The interrupt priority codes are shown in Table 4-1. Note that the level-0 interrupt code should not be used for external interrupts since level 0 is reserved for RESET.

Figure 4-7 illustrates the use of the TMS 9901 programmable system interface for generation of the interrupt code from individual interrupt input lines. The TMS 9901 provides six dedicated and nine programmable latched, synchronized, and prioritized interrupts, complete with individual enabling/disabling masks. Figure 4-8 illustrates the use of an SN74148 priority encoder and an SN74373 octal latch to provide a TTL eight-input interrupt system. Synchronization prevents transitions of IC0–IC3 while the code is being read. A single-interrupt system with an arbitrarily chosen level-7 code is shown in Figure 4-9. The single-interrupt input does not need to be synchronized since the hardwired interrupt code is always stable.

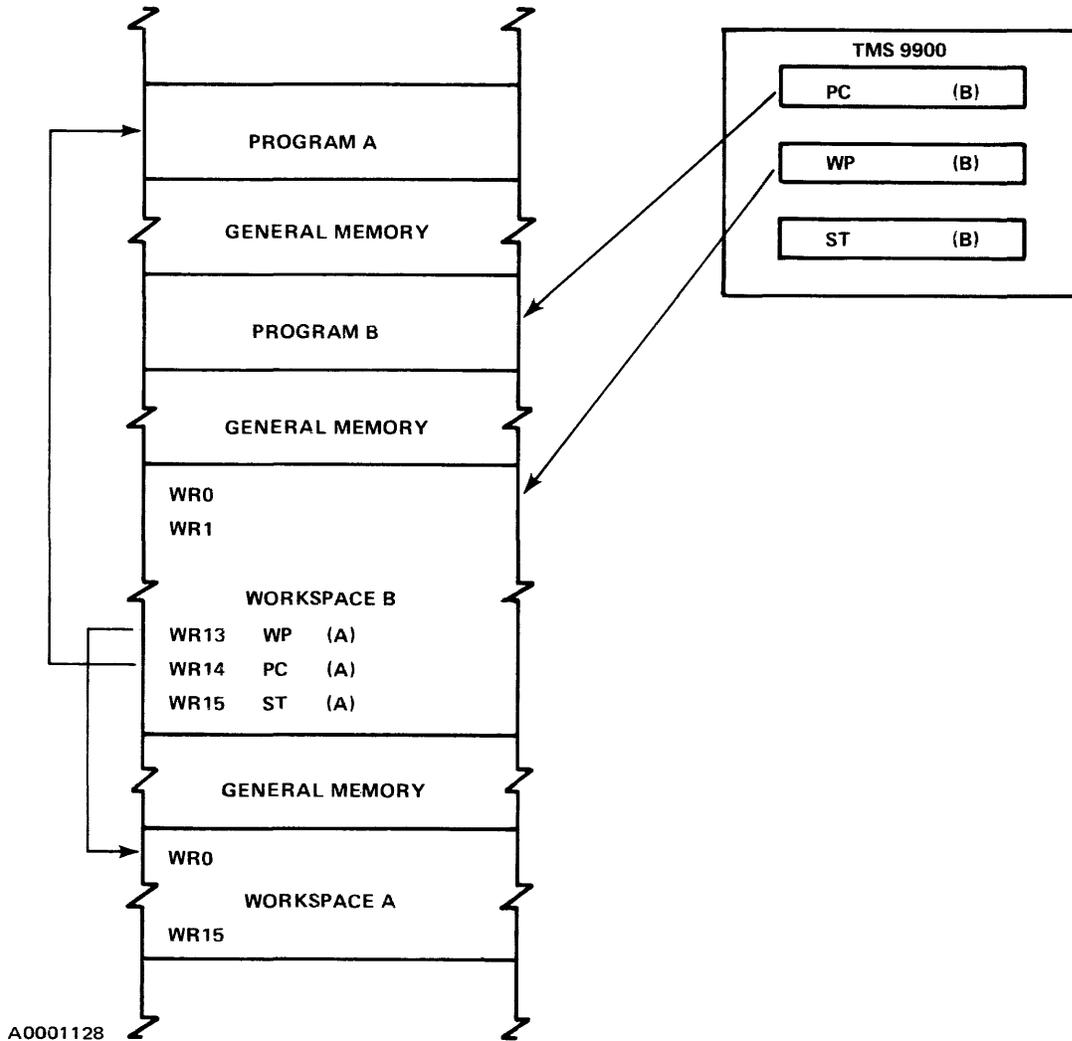


Figure 4-5. Interrupt Linkage

4.3.3 Interrupt Masking

The TMS 9900 uses a four-bit field in the status register, ST12 through ST15, to determine the current interrupt priority level. The interrupt mask is automatically loaded with a value of one less than the level of the maskable interrupt being serviced. The interrupt mask is also affected by the load interrupt mask instruction (LIMI).

Since the interrupt mask is compared to the external interrupt code before an interrupt is recognized, an interrupt service routine will not be halted due to another interrupt of lower or equal priority unless a LIMI instruction is used to alter the interrupt mask. The LIMI instruction can be used to alter the interrupt-mask level in order to disable intervening interrupt levels. At the end of the service routine, a return (RTWP) restores the interrupt mask to its value before the current interrupt occurred.

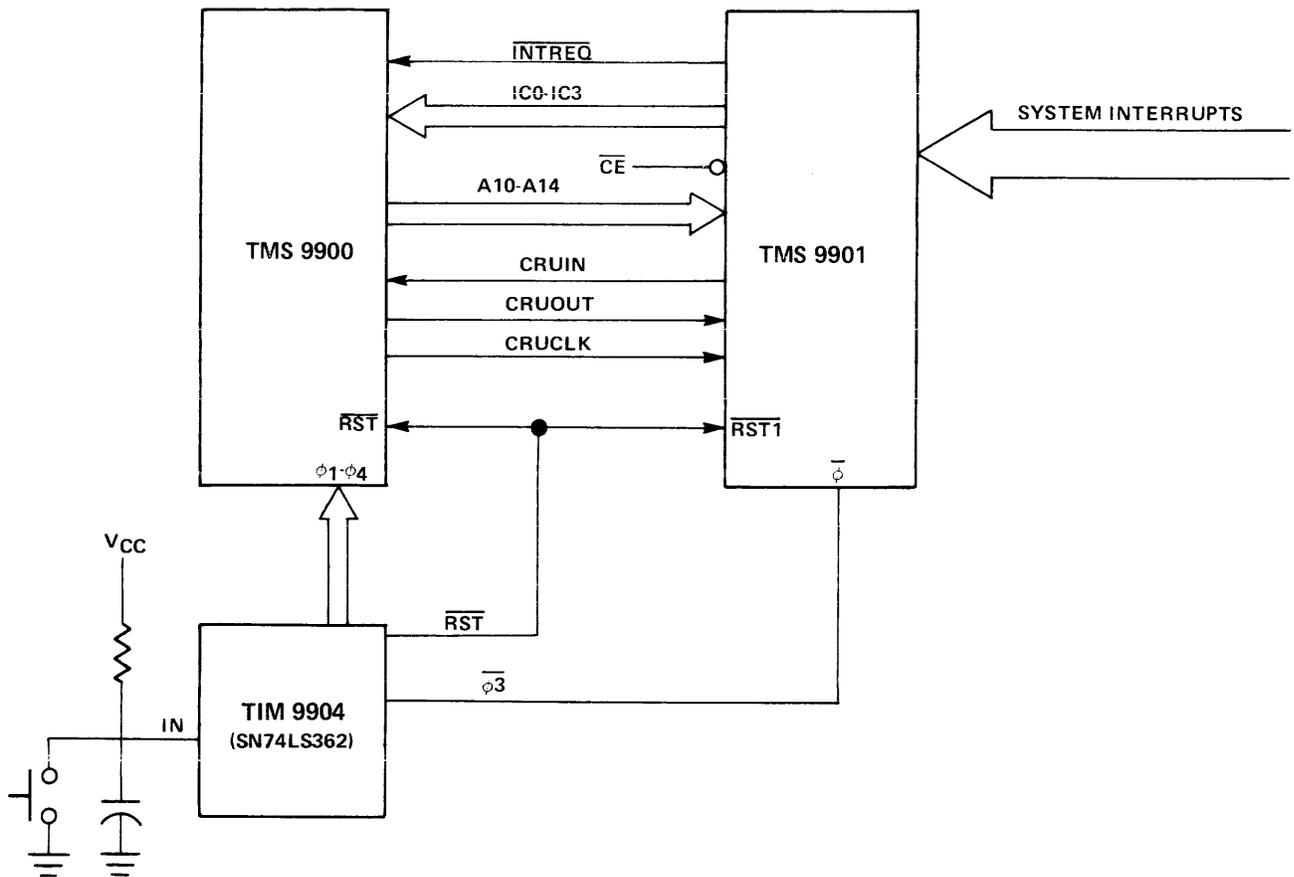
CYCLE	TYPE	FUNCTION
1	ALU	Set Up
2	Memory Read	Fetch New WP
3	ALU	Set Up
4	Memory Write	Store Status
5	ALU	Set Up
6	Memory Write	Store PC
7	ALU	Set Up
8	Memory Write	Store WP
9	ALU	Set Up
10	Memory Read	Fetch New PC
11	ALU	Set Up MAR for Next Instruction

A0001129

Note that the TMS 9900 actually generates the interrupt vector address using IC0–IC3 five clock cycles after it has sampled INTREQ and four clock cycles after it has compared the interrupt code to the interrupt mask in the status register. Thus, interrupt sources which have individual masking capability can cause erroneous operation if a command to the device to mask the interrupt occurs at a time when the interrupt is active and just after the TMS 9900 has sampled INTREQ but before the vector address has been generated using IC0–IC3.

Figure 4-6. Interrupt Processing Machine Cycle Sequence

The individual interrupt masking operation can be easily allowed if the masking instruction is placed in a short subroutine which masks all interrupts



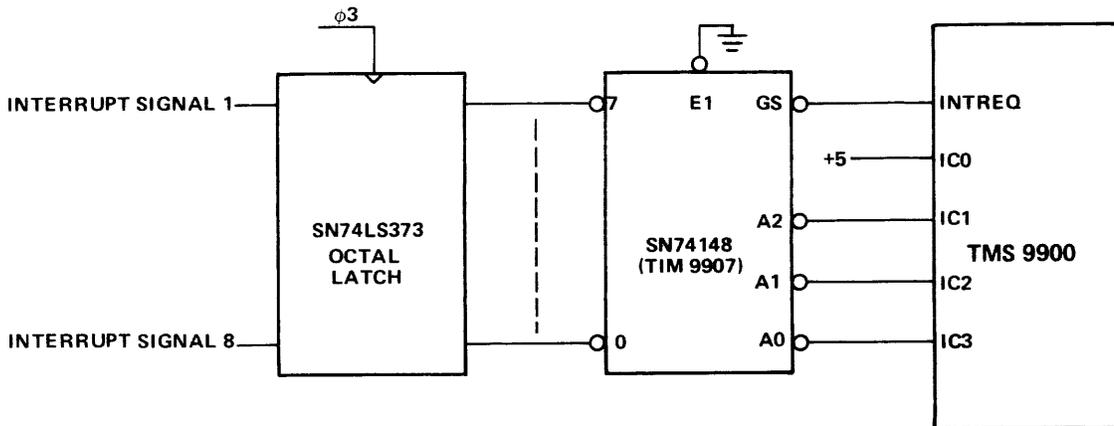
A0001130

Figure 4-7. System With 15 External Interrupts

TABLE 4-1. INTERRUPT PRIORITY CODES

Interrupt Level	Vector Location (Memory Address In Hex)	Device Assignment	Interrupt Mask Values To Enable Respective Interrupts (ST12 thru ST15)	Interrupt Codes IC0 thru IC3
(Highest priority) 0	00	Reset	0 through F*	0000
1	04	External device ↓	1 through F	0001
2	08		2 through F	0010
3	0C		3 through F	0011
4	10		4 through F	0100
5	14		5 through F	0101
6	18		6 through F	0110
7	1C		7 through F	0111
8	20		8 through F	1000
9	24		9 through F	1001
10	28		A through F	1010
11	2C		B through F	1011
12	30		C through F	1100
13	34		D through F	1101
14	38		E and F	1110
(Lowest priority) 15	3C	External device	F only	1111

* Level 0 can not be disabled.



* LEVELS 8-15 USED; LEVELS 0-7 CAN BE USED BY GROUNDING IC0

A0001131

Figure 4-8. Eight-Input Interrupt System With Synchronization

with a LIM1 0 instruction before individually masking the interrupt at the device, as shown in Figure 4-10.

4.3.4 Interrupt Processing Example

The routine in Figure 4-11 illustrates the use of the LIM1 instruction as a privileged or non-interruptable instruction. The level-5 routine sets a CRU bit and then loops until a corresponding CRU bit is true. The

first instruction in the routine is completed before a higher priority interrupt can be recognized. The LIM1 instruction, however, raises the CPU priority level to level 0 in order to disable all other maskable interrupts. Consequently, the level-5 routine will run to completion unless a $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal or a $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is generated. At the end of the routine, the RTWP instruction restores the CPU to its state before the level-5 interrupt occurred.

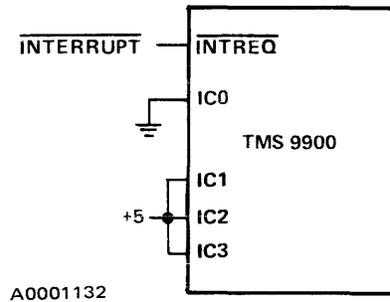


Figure 4-9. Single-Interrupt System

INCORRECT

XXX

SBO	0	SET MASK (INTERRUPT CAN OCCUR DURING SBO CAUSING ERRONEOUS OPERATION)
YYY		

CORRECT

XXX

BLWP	9	(WR9) = ADDRESS OF SBW
XXXX		(WR10) = ADDRESS OF SB1

SB1	LIMI	0	CLEAR STATUS MASK TO INHIBIT INTERRUPTS
	MOV	@ 24 (13), 12	MOVE CRU BASE ADDRESS TO WR12
	SBO	0	SET MASK
	RTWP		RETURN

SBW	BSS	32	SUBROUTINE WORKSPACE
-----	-----	----	----------------------

A0001133

Figure 4-10. External Interrupt Clearing Routine

Level 5	LIMI	O	Disable Maskable INTREQs
	SBO	ACK	Set CRU Output Bit
Loop	TB	RDY	Test CRU Input Bit
	JNE	LOOP	Loop Until Input True
A0001134	RTWP		Return

Figure 4-11. LIM Instruction Routine

SECTION V
INPUT/OUTPUT

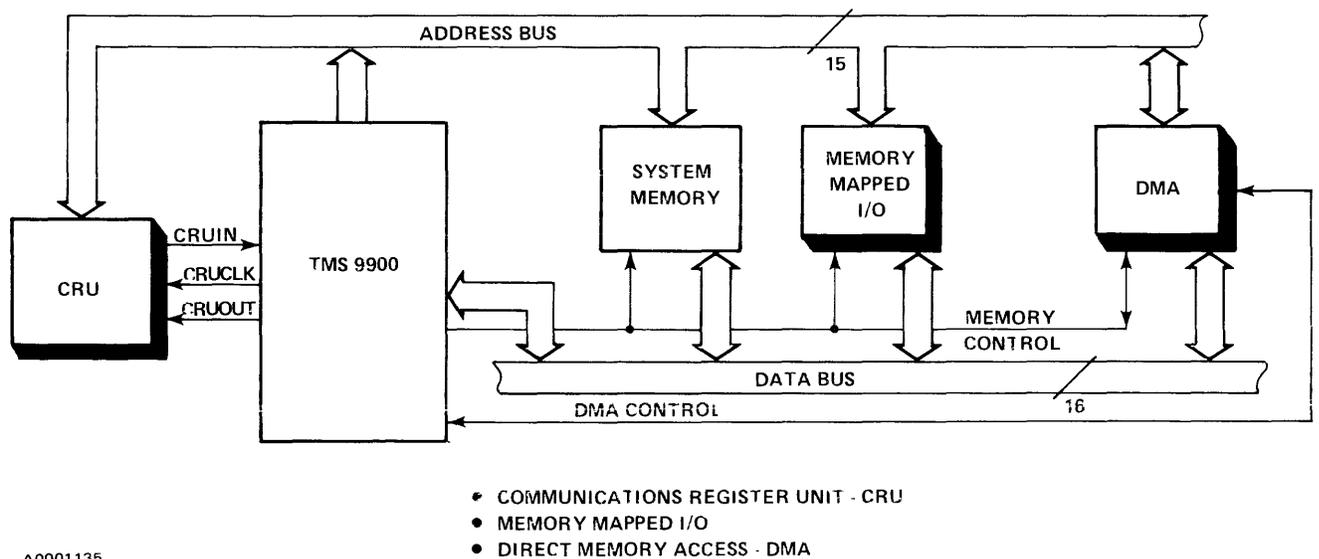
The TMS 9900 has three I/O modes: direct memory access (DMA), memory mapped, and communications register unit (CRU). This multi-mode capability enables the designer to optimize a TMS 9900 I/O system to match a specific application. One or all modes can be used, as shown in Figure 5-1.

5.1 Direct Memory Access

DMA is used for high-speed block data transfer when CPU interaction is undesirable or not required. The DMA control circuitry can be relatively complex and expensive when compared to other I/O methods.

5.2 Memory Mapped I/O

Memory mapped I/O permits I/O data to be addressed as memory with parallel data transfer through the system data bus. Memory mapped I/O requires a memory bus compatible interface; that is, the device is addressed in the same manner as a memory, thus the interface is identical to that of memory. Figure 5-2 shows a memory mapped I/O interface with eight latched outputs and eight buffered inputs. In using memory mapped I/O for output only, care must be taken in developing the output device strobe to ensure it



A0001135

Figure 5-1. TMS 9900 I/O Capability

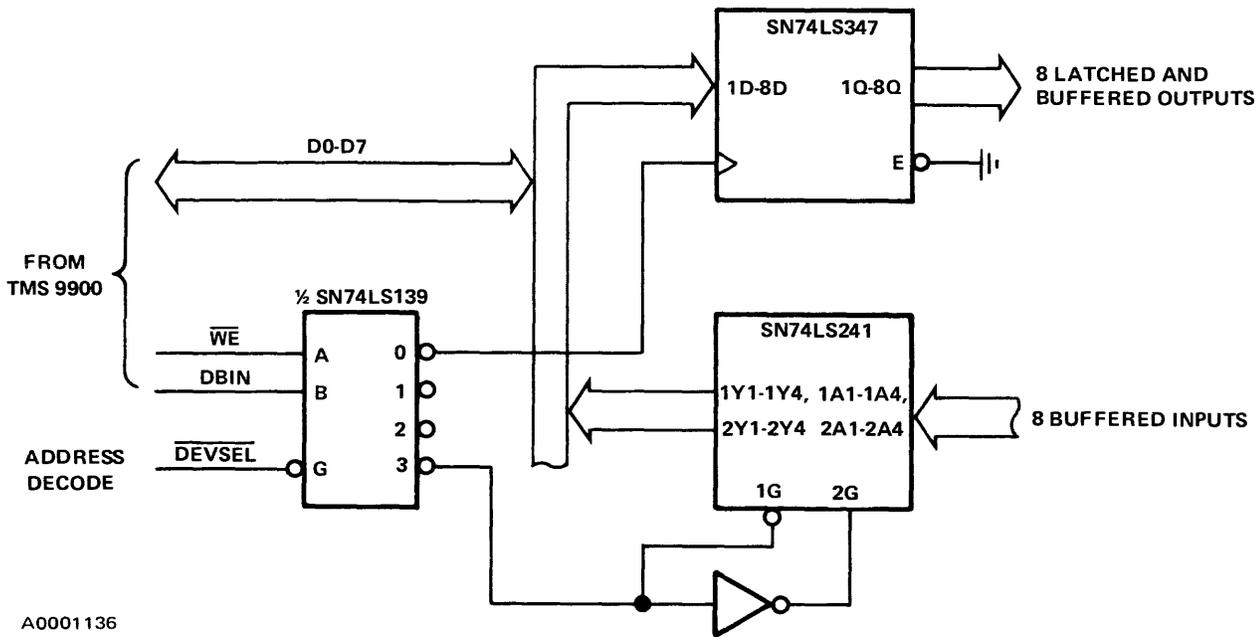


Figure 5-2. 8-Bit Memory Mapped I/O Interface

is not enabled during the initial read of the memory address, since the TMS 9900 family of processors first reads, then writes data to a memory location in write operations. This can be effectively accomplished by using the processor write control signal \overline{WE} in decoding the output address.

5.3 Communication Register Unit (CRU)

CRU I/O uses a dedicated serial interface for I/O. The CRU instructions permit transfer of one to sixteen bits. The CRU interface requires fewer interface signals than the memory interface and can be expanded without affecting the memory system. In the majority of applications, CRU I/O is superior to memory mapped I/O as a result of the powerful bit manipulation capability, flexible field lengths, and simple bus structure.

The CRU bit manipulation instructions eliminate the masking instructions required to isolate a bit in memory mapped I/O. The CRU multiple-bit instructions allow the use of I/O fields not identical to the memory word size, thus permitting optimal use of the I/O interface. Therefore, the CRU minimizes the size and complexity of the I/O control programs, while increasing system throughput.

The CRU does not utilize the data bus which is used only for system memory. This can reduce the complexity of printed circuit board layouts for most systems. The standard 16-pin CRU I/O devices are less expensive and easier to insert than larger, specially designed, memory mapped I/O devices. The smaller I/O devices are possible as a result of the serial CRU bus which eliminates the need for several pins dedicated to a parallel-data bus with multiple control lines. System costs are lower because of simplified circuit layouts, increased density, and lower component costs.

5.3.1 CRU Interface

The interface between the TMS 9900 and CRU devices consists of A0–A14, CRUIN, CRUOUT, and CRUCLK as shown in Figure 5-1. A0–A2 indicate whether data is to be transferred and A3–A14 contain the address of the selected bit for data transfers; therefore, up to 2^{12} or 4,096 bits of input and output may be individually addressed. CRU operations and memory-data transfers both use A0–A14; however, these operations are performed independently, thus no conflict arises.

5.3.2 CRU Machine Cycles

Each CRU operation consists of one or more CRU output or CRU input machine cycles, each of which is two clock cycles long. As shown in Table 5-1, five instructions (LDCR, STCR, SBO, SBZ, TB) transfer data to or from the TMS 9900 with CRU machine cycles, and five external control instructions (IDLE, RSET, CKOF, CKON, LREX) generate control signals with CRU output machine cycles.

TABLE 5-1. INSTRUCTIONS GENERATING CPU CYCLES

Instruction	Number of CRU Cycles	Type of CRU Cycles	A0-A2	Data Transfer
LDCR	1-16	Output	0 0 0	Yes
STCR	1-16	Input	0 0 0	Yes
SBO	1	Output	0 0 0	Yes
SBZ	1	Output	0 0 0	Yes
TB	1	Input	0 0 0	Yes
IDLE	1	Output	0 1 0	No
RSET	1	Output	0 1 1	No
CKOF	1	Output	1 0 1	No
CKON	1	Output	1 1 0	No
LREX	1	Output	1 1 1	No

5.3.2.1 CRU Output Machine Cycles. Figure 5-3 shows the timing for CRU output machine cycles. Address (A0–A14) and data (CRUOUT) are output on $\phi 2$ of clock cycle 1. One clock cycle later, the TMS 9900 outputs a pulse on CRUCLK for $\frac{1}{2}$ clock cycle. Thus, CRUCLK can be used as a strobe, since address and data are stable during the pulse. Referring again to Table 5-1, it is important to note that output data is transferred only when A0–A2 = 000. Otherwise, no data transfer should occur, and A0–A2 should be decoded to determine which external control instruction is being executed. These external control instructions may be used to perform simple control operations.

The generation of control strobes for external instructions and a data transfer strobe (OUTCLK) is illustrated in Figure 5-4. If none of the external control instructions is used, A0–A2 need not be decoded for data transfer since they will always equal 000.

5.3.2.2 CRU Input Machine Cycles. The timing for CRU input machine cycles is shown in Figure 5-5. The address is output at the beginning of the first clock cycle. The CRUIN data input is sampled on 01 of clock cycle 2. Thus, CRU input is accomplished by simply multiplexing the addressed bit onto the CRUIN input. A0–A2 will always be 000, and may be ignored. CRU input machine cycles cannot be differentiated from ALU cycles by external logic, thus no operations (such as clearing interrupts) other than CRU input should be performed during CRU input machine cycles.

5.3.3 CRU Data Transfer

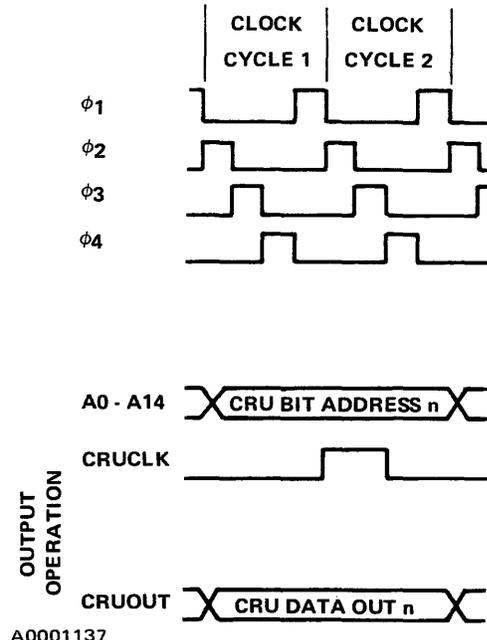
The CRU base address is defined by bits 3–14 of the current WR12 when a CRU data transfer is performed. Bits 0–2 and bit 15 of WR12 are ignored for CRU address determination.

5.3.3.1 Single Bit Instructions. For single-bit CRU instructions (SBO, SBZ, TB), the address of the CRU bit to or from which data is transferred is determined as shown in Figure 5-6. Bits 8–15 of the machine code instruction contain a signed displacement. This signed displacement is added to the CRU base address (bits 3–14 of WR12). The result of this addition is output on A3–A14 during the CRU output or the CRU input machine cycle.

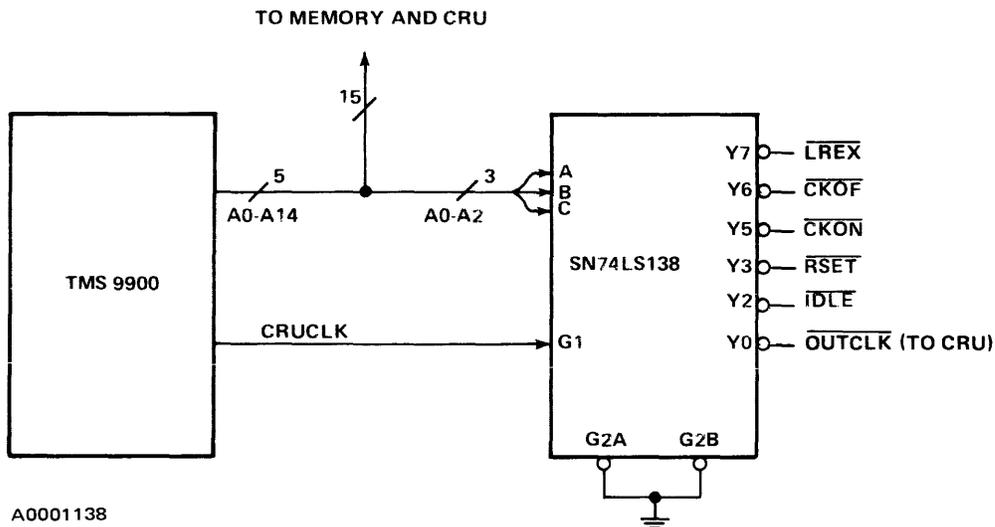
For example, assume the instruction “SBO 9” is executed when WR12 contains a value of 1040_{16} . The machine code for “SBO 9” is $1D09_{16}$ and the signed displacement is 0009_{16} . The CRU base address is 0820_{16} (bits 0–2 and bit 15 are ignored). Thus, the effective CRU address is $0820_{16} + 0009_{16} = 0829_{16}$, and this value is output on A0–A14 during the CRU output machine cycle.

As a second example, assume that the instruction “TB–32” is executed when $WR12 = 100_{16}$. The effective CRU address is 80_{16} (CRU base) + $FFEO_{16}$ (signed displacement) = 60_{16} . Thus, the “TB–32” instruction in this example causes the value of the CRU input bit at address 60_{16} to be transferred to bit 2 of the status register. This value is operated on by the JEQ or JNE instructions, which cause the PC to be changed depending on the value of ST2.

5.3.3.2 LDCR Instruction. The LDCR may transfer from 1 to 16 bits of output data with each instruction. The output of each bit is performed by a CRU output machine cycle; thus, the number of CRU output machine cycles performed by a LDCR instruction is equal to the number of bits to be transferred.

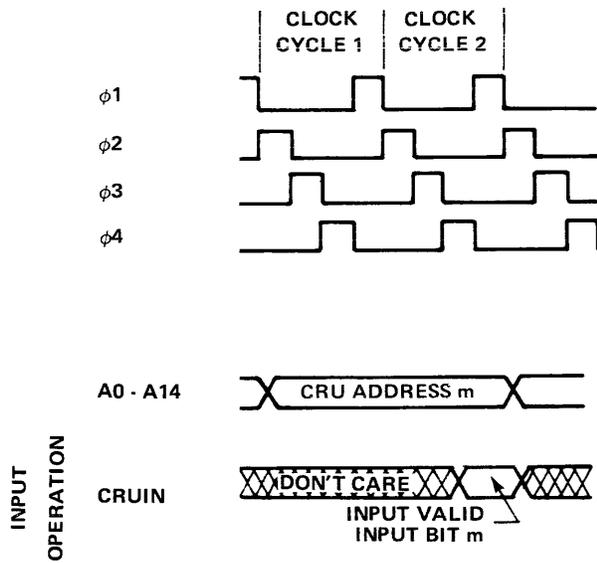


A0001137
Figure 5-3. CRU Output Machine Cycle Timing



A0001138

Figure 5-4. CRU Control Strobe Generation



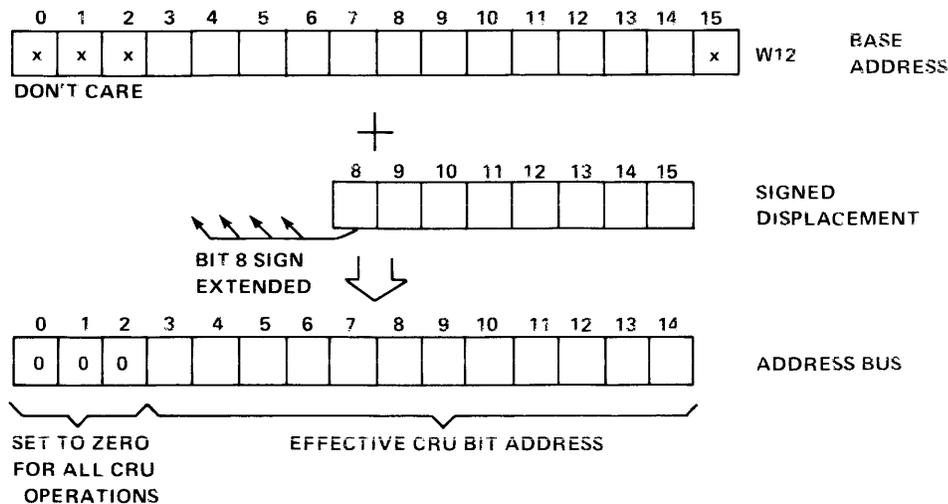
A0001139

Figure 5-5. CRU Input Machine Cycle Timing

As an example, assume that the instruction “LDCR @ 600,10” is executed, and that $WR12 = 800_{16}$ and the memory word at address 600 contains the bit pattern shown in Figure 5-7. In the first CRU output machine successive machine cycle the address is incremented by one and the next least-significant bit of the operand is output on CRUOUT, until 10 bits have been output. It is important to note that the CRU base address is unaltered by the LDCR instruction, even though the address is incremented as each successive bit is output.

5.3.3.3 STCR Instruction. The STCR instruction causes from 1 to 16 bits of CRU data to be transferred into memory. Each bit is input by a CRU input machine cycle.

Consider the circuit shown in Figure 5-8. The CRU interface logic multiplexes input signals m-t onto the CRUIN line for addresses $200_{16} - 207_{16}$. If $WR12 @ 400_{16}$ when the instruction “STCR @ 602,6” is executed, the operation is performed as shown in Figure 5-9. At the end of the instruction, the six LSBs of memory byte 602 are loaded with m-r. The upper bits of the operand are forced to zero. The generation of SEL200 may be simplified if the total CRU address space is not used.



A0001140

Figure 5-6. TMS 9900 Single-Bit CRU Address Development

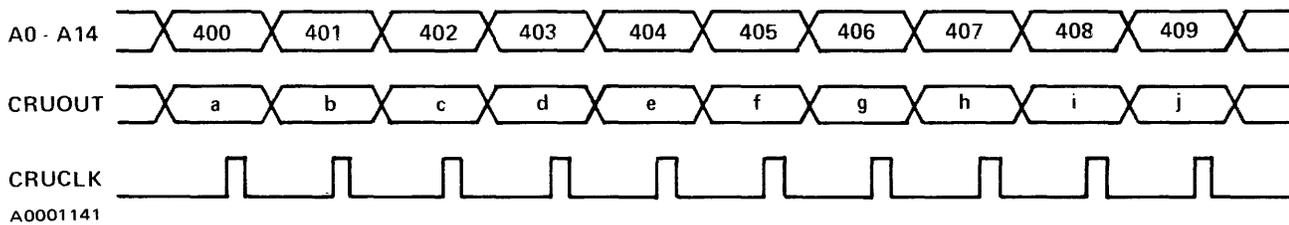
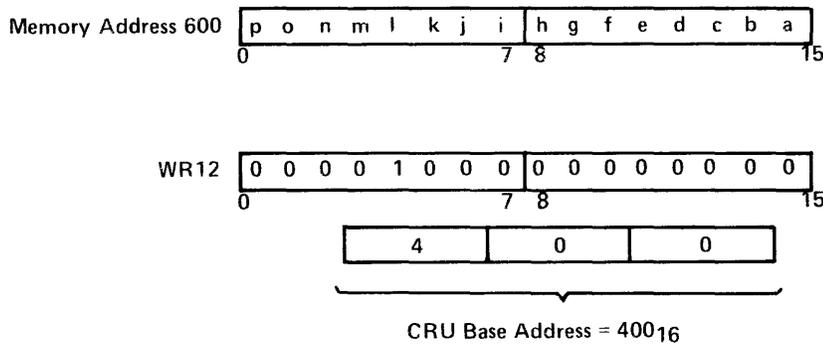
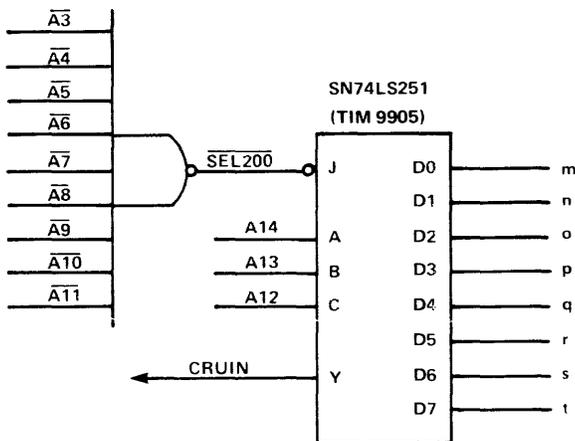


Figure 5-7. Multiple-Bit CRU Output

5.3.4 CRU Interface Logic

CRU based I/O interfaces are easily implemented using either TMS CRU peripheral devices such as the TMS 9901 or the TMS 9902, or TTL multiplexers and addressable latches, such as the TIM 9905 (SN74LS251) and the TIM 9906 (SN74LS259). These I/O circuits can be easily cascaded with the addition of simple address decoding logic.



A0001142

Figure 5-8. Example CRU Input Circuit

5.3.4.1 TTL Outputs. The TIM 9906 (SN74LS259) octal-addressable latch can be used for CRU outputs. The latch outputs are stable and are altered only when the CRUCLK is pulsed during a CRU output transfer. Each addressable latch is enabled only when addressed as determined by the upper address bits. The least-significant address bits (A12–A14) determine which of the eight outputs of the selected latch is to be set equal to CRUOUT during CRUCLK, as shown in Figure 5-10.

5.3.4.2 TTL Inputs. The SN74LS151 and TIM 9905 (SN74LS251) octal multiplexers are used for CRU inputs, as shown in Figure 5-11. The

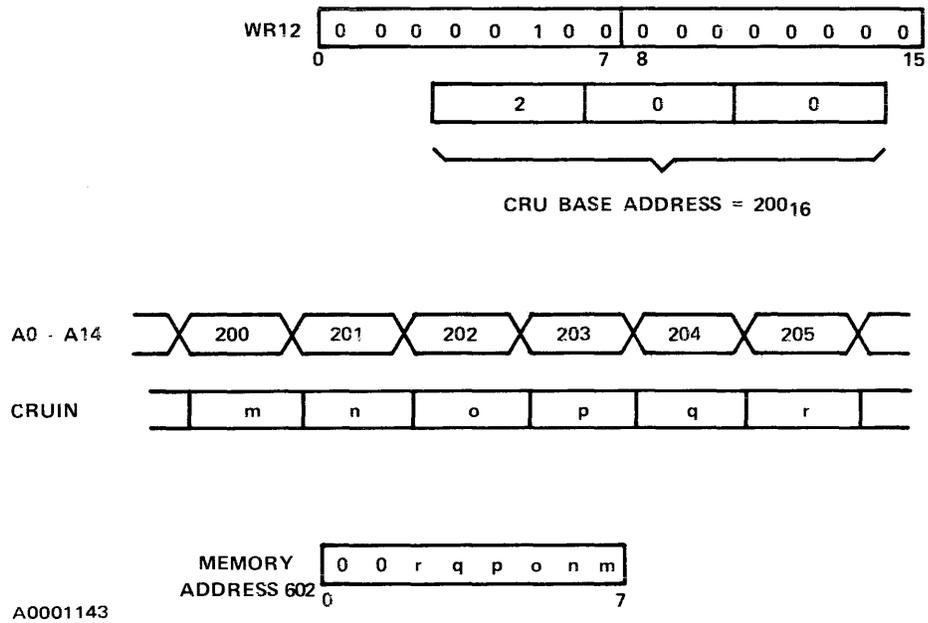


Figure 5-9. Multiple-Bit CRU Input

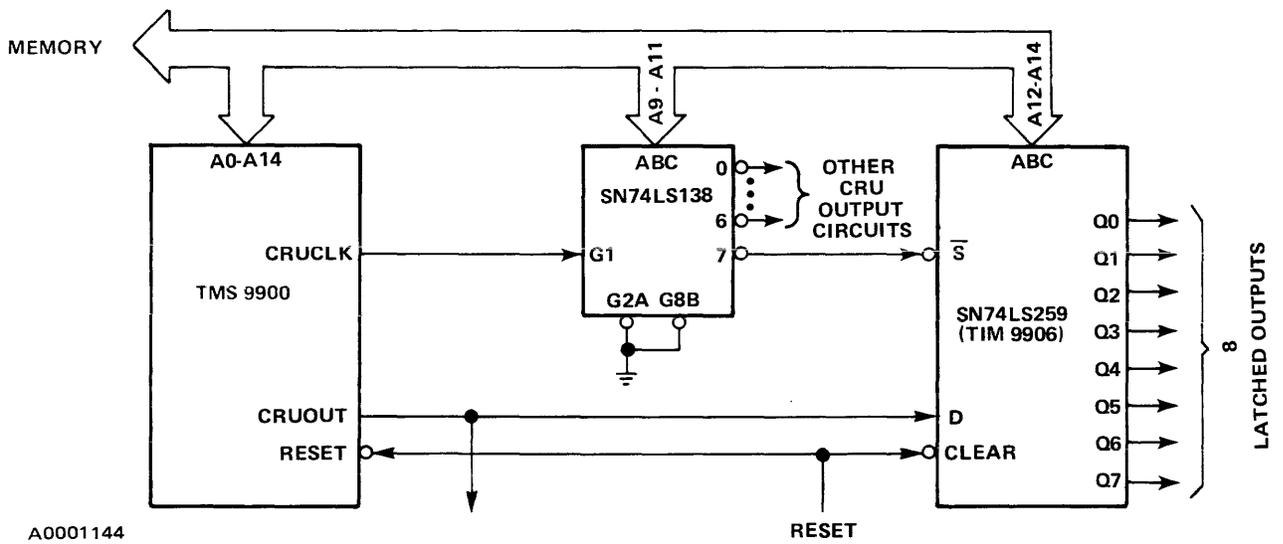


Figure 5-10. Latched CRU Interface

multiplexers are continuously enabled with CRUIN equal to the addressed input. The TIM 9905 should be used for larger systems since its three-state outputs permit simple “wire-ORing” of parallel-input multiplexers.

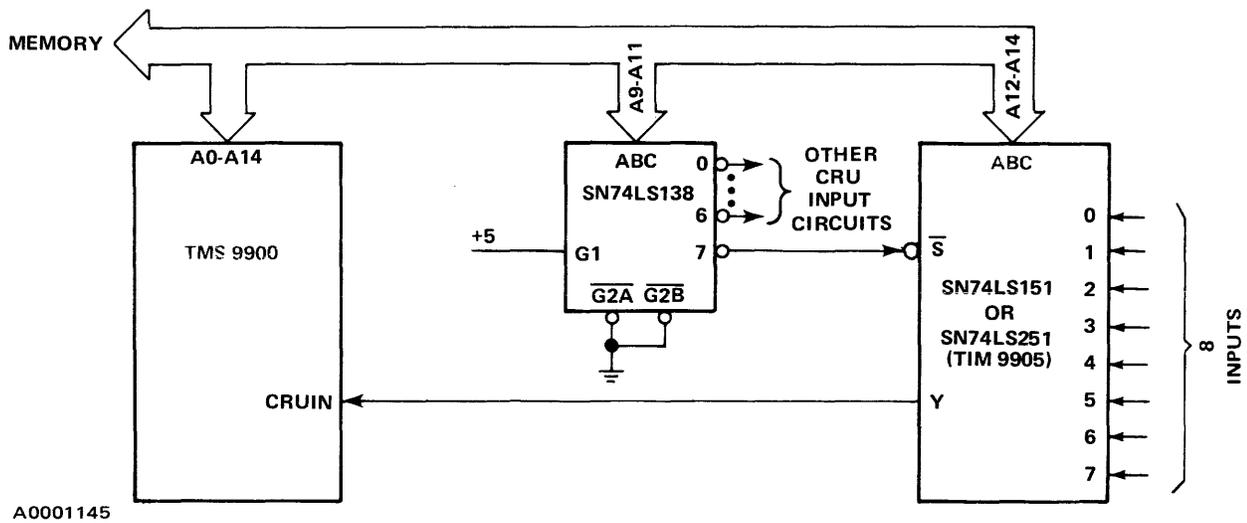


Figure 5-11. Multiplexer CRU Interface

5.3.4.3 Expanding CRU I/O. A CRU interface with eight inputs and eight outputs is shown in Figure 5-12, using the TMS 9901. An expanded interface with 16 inputs and 16 outputs is shown in Figure 5-13, using TTL devices. The CRU inputs and outputs can be expanded up to 4096 inputs and 4096 outputs by decoding the complete CRU address. Larger I/O requirements can be satisfied by using memory mapped I/O or by using a CRU bank switch, which is set and reset under program control. When reset, the lower CRU I/O bank is selected, and when set, the upper CRU I/O bank is selected. In actual system applications, however, only the exact number of interface bits required need to be implemented. It is not necessary to have a 16-bit CRU output register to interface a 10-bit device.

5.4 CRU Paper Tape Reader Interface

CRU interface circuits are used to interface data and control lines from external devices to the TMS 9900. This section describes an example interface for a paper tape reader.

The paper tape reader is assumed to have the following characteristics:

1. It generates a TTL-level active-high signal (SPROCKET HOLE) on detection of a sprocket hole on the paper tape.
2. It generates an 8-bit TTL active-low data which stays valid during SPROCKET HOLE = 1.
3. It responds to a TTL-level active-high command (Paper Tape RUN) signal by turning on when PTRUN = 1 and turning off when PTRUN = 0.

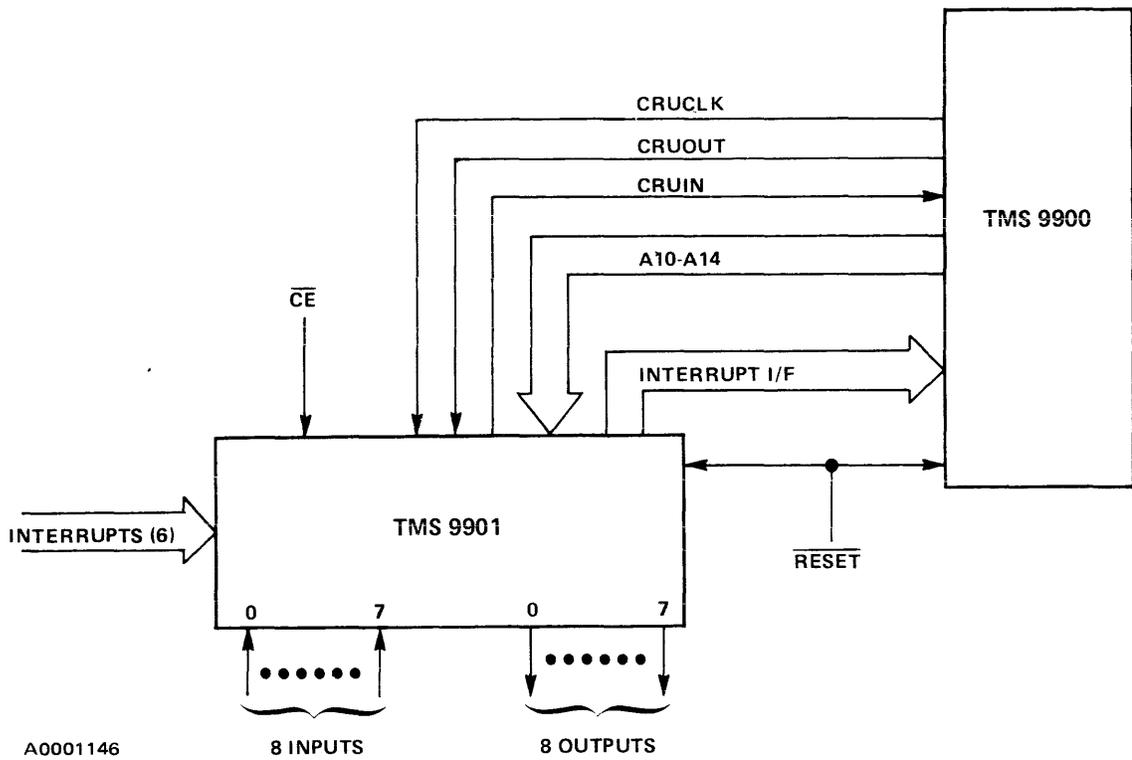


Figure 5-12. 8-Bit CRU Interface

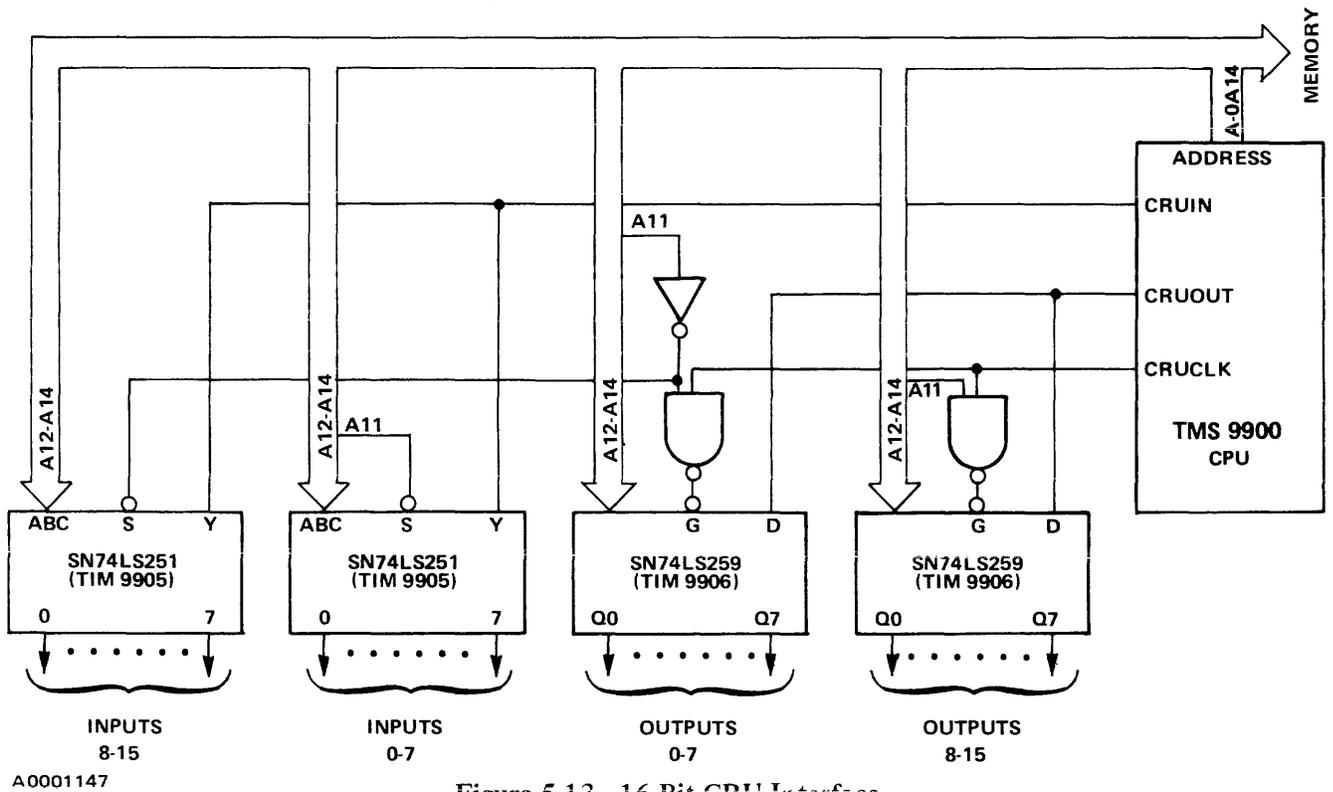
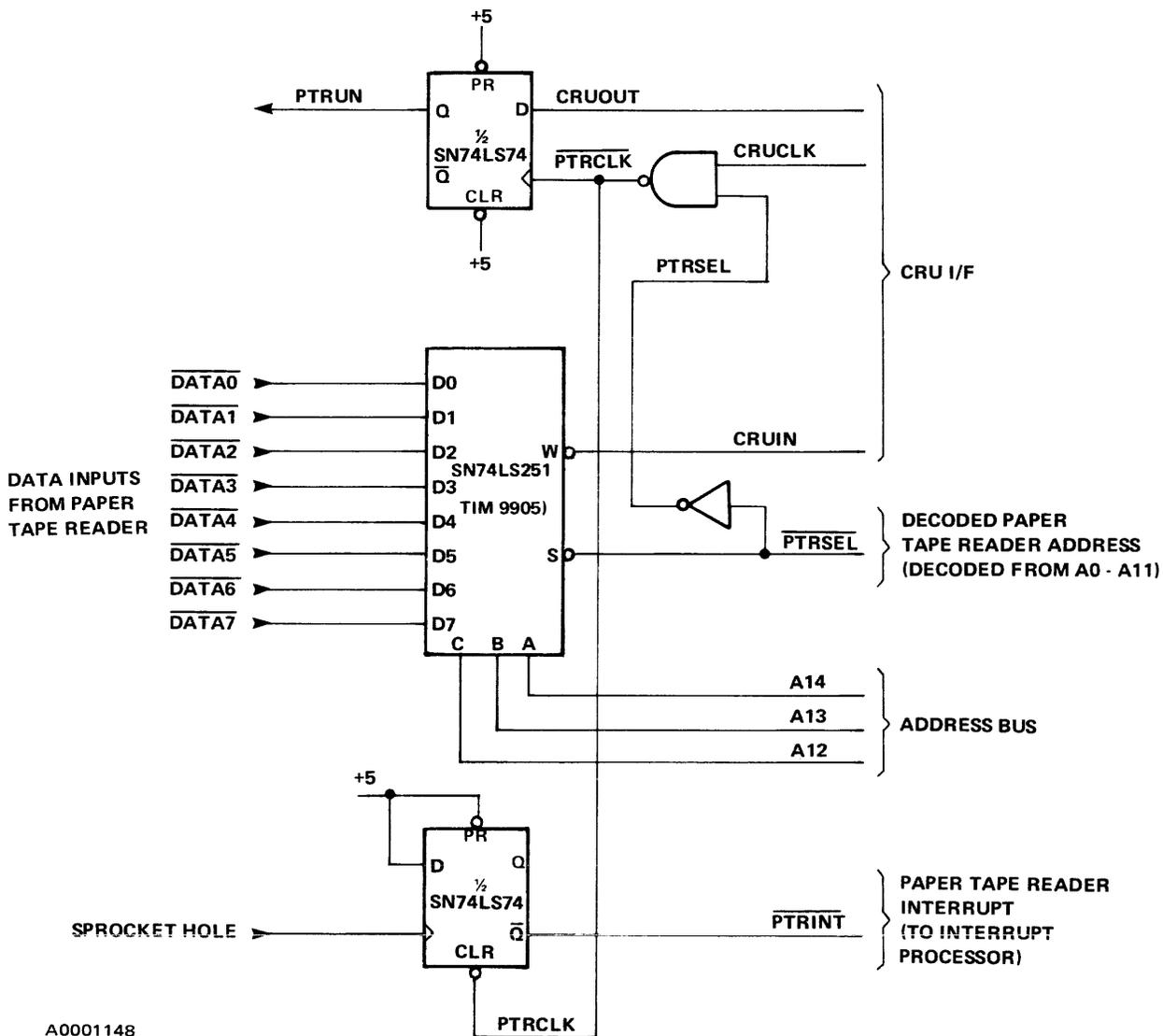


Figure 5-13. 16-Bit CRU Interface

5.4.1 Operation

Figure 5-14 illustrates the circuitry to interface the reader to the CRU. The interface is selected when $\overline{PTRSEL} = 0$; \overline{PTRSEL} is decoded from the A0–A11 address outputs from the TMS 9900. Thus, the output of the SN74LS251 is active only when $\overline{PTRSEL} = 0$; otherwise, the output is in high impedance and other devices may drive CRUIN. The data inputs are selected by A12–A14 and inverted, resulting in active high data input on CRUIN. The positive transition of SPROCKET HOLE causes \overline{PTRINT} to go low. \overline{PTRINT} is the active low interrupt from the interface. \overline{PTRINT} is set high, clearing the interrupt, whenever a CRU output machine cycle is executed and the address causes \overline{PTRSEL} to be active. When a one is output, PTRUN is set, enabling the reader, and the reader is disabled when a zero is output to the device. Thus, any time PTRUN is set or reset, the interrupt is automatically cleared.



A0001148

Figure 5-14. Paper Tape Reader Interface

5.4.2 Software Control

The software routine in Figure 5-15 controls the paper-tape reader interface described above. It is a re-entrant procedure that can be shared by several readers. The assumptions are that:

1. Each reader has its own workspace which is set up on the trap location for that reader's interrupt.
2. The workspace registers are allocated as shown in Figure 5-15.
3. The CRU input bits 0–7 (relative to CRU base) are reader data. CRU output bit 0 controls PTRUN and clears the interrupt.

PTRINT	STCR	*R11, 8
	CB	*R11+, R9
	JEQ	PTREND
	DEC	R10
	JEQ	PTREND
PTRBEG	SBO	PTRUN
	RTWP	
PTREND	SBZ	PTRUN
	CLR	R8
A0001149	RTWP	

The procedure has two entry points. It is entered by a calling routine at PTRBEG to start the reader and it returns control to that routine. It is entered at PTRINT via interrupt to read a character. The return in this case is to the interrupted program.

Figure 5-15. Paper Tape Reader Control Program

The control program may be used by any number of paper-tape reader interfaces, as long as each interface has a separate interrupt level and workspace. As each reader issues an interrupt, the TMS 9900 will process the interrupt beginning at location PTRINT. However, the workspace unique to the interrupting device is used. The organization of memory to control two paper tape readers is shown in Figure 5-16. The interrupt-transfer vector causes the appropriate WP value to be loaded. In both cases PTRINT, the entry point for the control program, is loaded into the PC.

5.5 TMS 9902 Interface

This section describes an example CRU interface using the TMS 9902 asynchronous communications controller. The TMS 9902 transmits and receives data over a serial communications link. It performs its own baud rate generation, parity and format generation, and error checking, and additionally provides an internal interval timer with interrupt capability. The TMS 9902 interfaces directly with the TMS 9900 family CRU with a minimum of additional logic required only for chip-select decode.

5.5.1 Operation

Figure 5-17 illustrates the circuit for the TMS 9902 interface. The CPU uses LDCR and STCR instructions to transfer character data, and TB, SBO, and SB2 instructions to test and to alter the status and control bits.

The TMS 9902 sets RBRL to a logic one and generates an interrupt request via the TMS 9901 programmable systems interface whenever a received character is ready to be read. It correspondingly sets

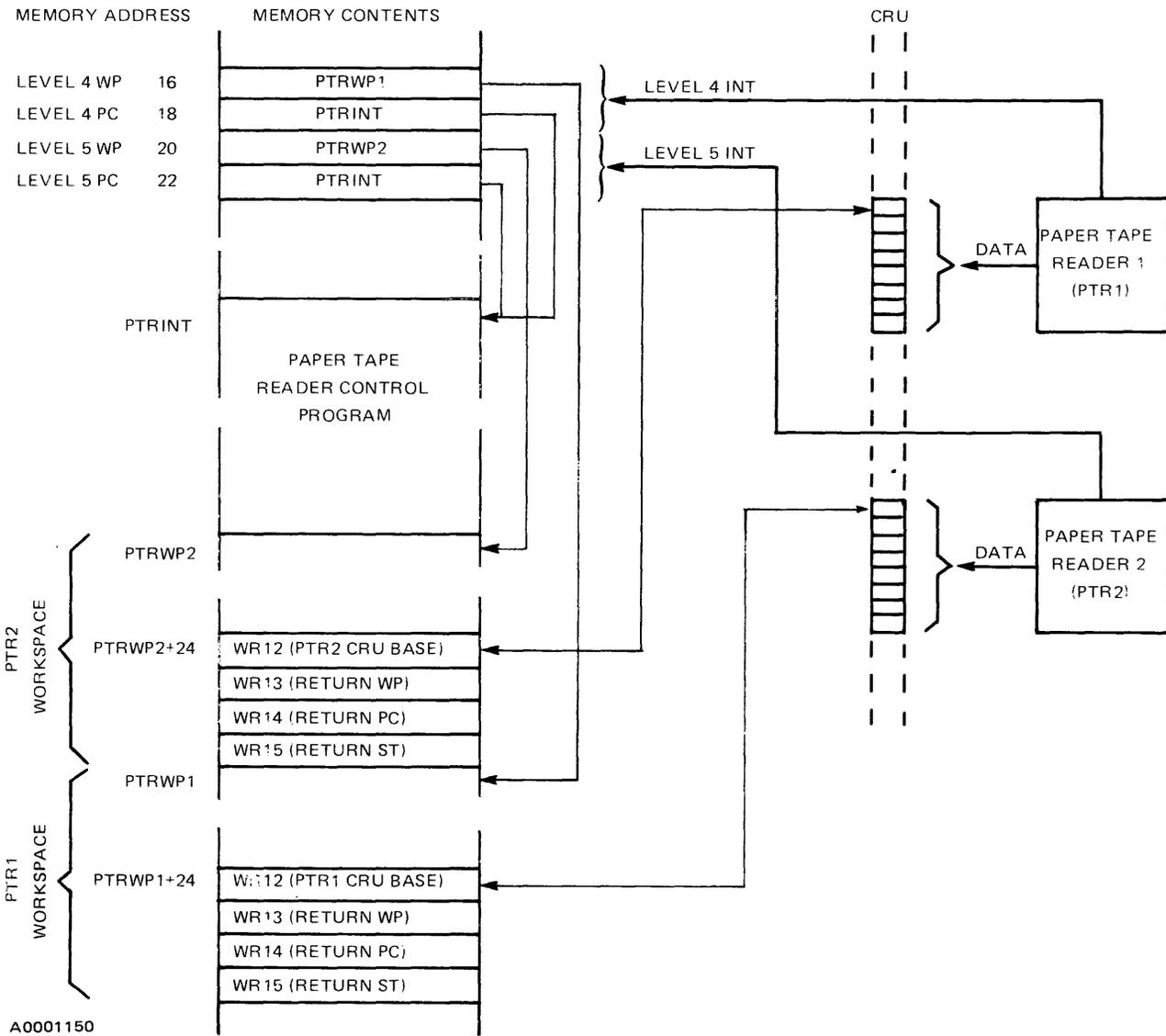
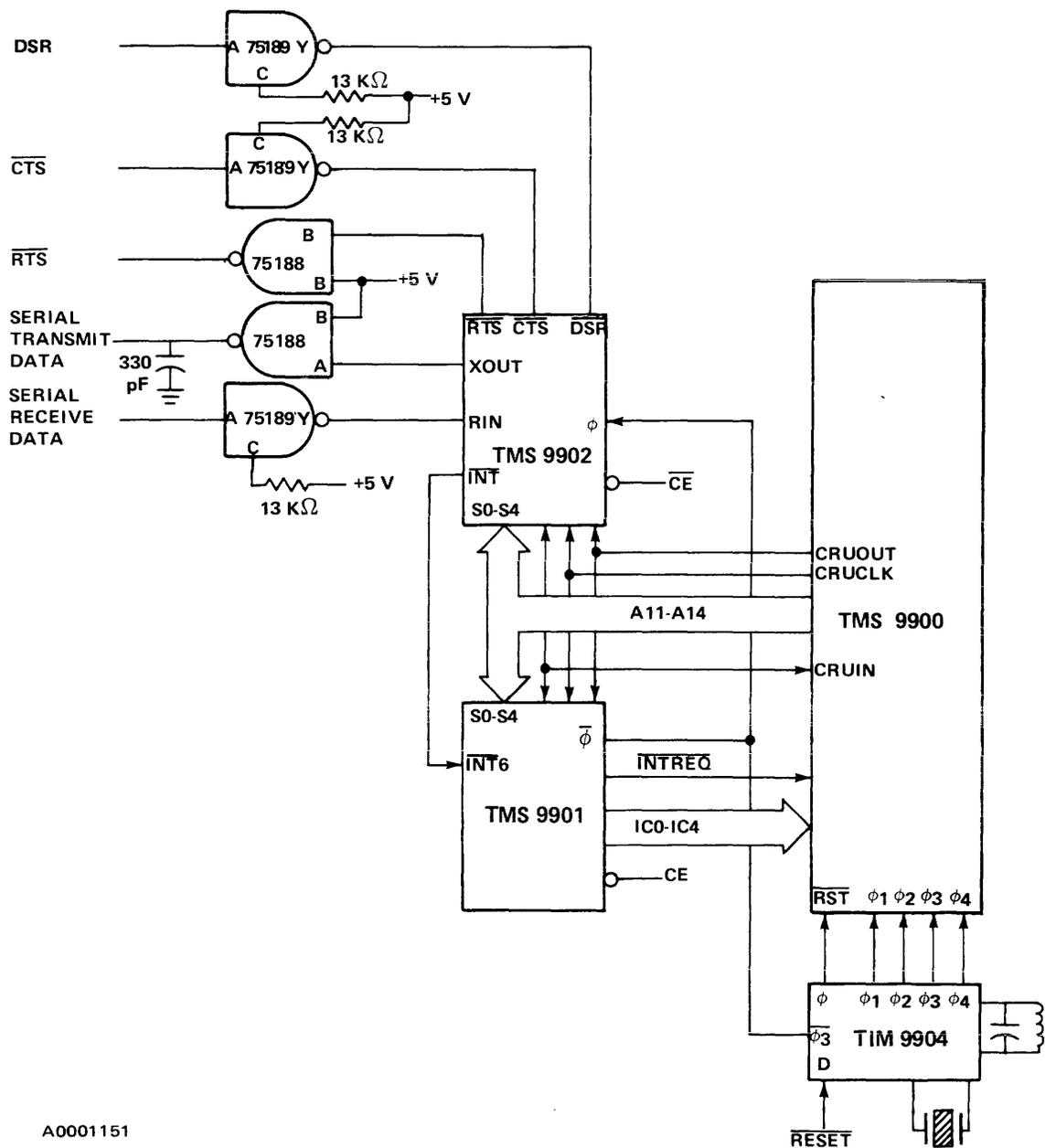


Figure 5-16. Software Configuration for Two Paper Tape Readers with Common Control Program

TBRE to a logic one and generates an interrupt in a transmit operation when a character can be loaded into the transmit buffer. The CPU recognizes $\overline{\text{INTREQ}}$ and context switches to the service routine when the interrupt code is less than or equal to the CPU interrupt mask. Data is transferred and the interrupts are cleared in the service routines, and processing of the interrupted routine is resumed at the point of interruption. While a number of techniques for hardware-interrupt processing and prioritizing exist, the TMS 9901 programmable system interface is used in this example due to its ease of design and its simplicity of interconnection.

The XOUT and RIN signals are buffered through SN75188 and SN75189 interface circuits to provide an RS-232C compatible interface. The 75188 and SN75189 interface devices are also used to condition the modem control signals $\overline{\text{RTS}}$, $\overline{\text{CTS}}$, and $\overline{\text{DSR}}$.



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Figure 5-17. TMS 9902 Interface

5.5.2 Software Routines

The software routines in Figure 5-18 control the TMS 9902. The initialization routine can be a part of the normal system power-up reset. Upon being reset the device is cleared and all load flags are set. Loading the control register with $A2_{16}$ sets the device for seven bits per character, even parity, one stop bit, and sets the internal clock rate at one-third the system clock rate. Loading the control register also resets the load control register flag, setting up the next register, the timer interval register, to be loaded. In this example,

**DEVICE
INITIALIZATION**

	LI	R12, >40	INITIALIZE CRU BASE
	SBO	31	RESET DEVICE AND SET LOAD FLAGS
	LDCR	@ CTL, 8	LOAD CONTROL REGISTER AND RESET CTL LOAD FLAG
	SBZ	13	RESET INTERVAL LOAD FLAG
	LDCR	@ RDR, 12	LOAD READ DATA RATE REG.,
	:	:	LOAD XMT DATA RATE REG. & RESET LRDR, LXDR
	:	:	
CTL	BYTE	>A2	7 BITS/CHAR, EVEN PARITY, 1 STOP BIT, 0 DIVIDE BY 3
RXDR	BYTE	<4D0	300 BAUD OPERATION

TRANSMIT OPERATION INITIALIZATION

XMTOP	LI	R0, DATAD	INITIALIZE DATA ADDRESS
	LI	R1, DATCNT	INITIALIZE DATA COUNT
	LI	R12, CRUBAS	INITIALIZE CRU BASE
	SBO	16	TURN TRANSMITTER ON
	SBO	19	ENABLE TRANSMIT INTERRUPTS
	B	*R11	RETURN

RECEIVE OPERATION INITIALIZATION

RCVOP	LI	R1, RCVBUF	INITIALIZE BUFFER ADDRESS
	LI	R2, BLVCNT	INITIALIZE RCV COUNT
	LI	R3, EOB	INITIALIZE EOB CHARACTER
	SBO	18	ENABLE RCV INTERRUPTS
	B	*R11	RETURN
EOB	BYTE	>0D	END OF BLOCK CHARACTER

INTERRUPT SERVICE ROUTINE

INT6	TB	21	RCVR INTERRUPT?
	JEQ	RCV	YES
	TB	22	XMTR INTERRUPT?
	JEQ	XMT	YES
	RTWP		NOT EITHER, GO HOME
XMT	LDCR	*R0+, 8	TRANSMIT CHARACTER
	DEC	R1	DECREMENT COUNTES
	JEQ	XMTEND	END IT IF FINISHED
	RTWP		RETURN
XMTEND	SBZ	19	MASK XBRE INTERRUPT
	RTWP		RETURN
RCV	TB	9	RECEIVE ERROR?
	JEQ	RCVERR	YES, GO PROCESS IT
	STCR	*R1,8	STORE CHARACTER
	SBZ	18	RESET RBRL
	DEC	R2	BLOCK FULL
	JEQ	RCVEND	YES, EXIT
	CB	*R1+, R3	NO; EOB CHARACTER?
	JEQ	RCVEND	YES; EXIT
	RTWP		GO HOME
RCVEND	SBZ	18	INHIBIT RCV INTERRUPTS
	RTWP		

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Figure 5-18. TMS 9902 Control Programs


```

0001          IDT 'SWART'          SOFTWARE UART CONTROL PROGRAM
0002          *
0003          * REGISTER EQUATES
0004          *
0005          0004 R4 EQU 4          LOOP COUNTER
0006          0005 R5 EQU 5          BIT COUNT
0007          0006 R6 EQU 6          HALF-BIT DELAY LINKAGE
0008          0007 R7 EQU 7          FULL-BIT DELAY LINKAGE
0009          0008 R8 EQU 8          CHARACTER ACCUMULATOR
0010          0009 R9 EQU 9          BIT MASK (>8000)
0011          000A R10 EQU 10         SCRATCH
0012          000B R11 EQU 11        LINKAGE
0013          000C R12 EQU 12        CRU BASE
0014          000D R13 EQU 13        RETURN WP
0015          *
0016          * CRU EQUATES
0017          *
0018          0000 CRUBAS EQU 0        CRU BASE ADDRESS
0019          0000 INBIT EQU 0        RECEIVE INPUT
0020          0000 OUTBIT EQU 0       TRANSMIT OUTPUT
0021          *
0022          * HALF-BIT AND FULL-BIT TIME DELAY SUBROUTINES
0023          *
0024          * ENTRY: BL *R6 FOR HALF-BIT DELAY
0025          *          BL *R7 FOR FULL-BIT DELAY
0026          *
0027          * R6 = HBIT, R7 = FBIT
0028          *
0029          00F8 HBDLY EQU 248        HALF-BIT DELAY COUNT
0030          0000 FBIT EQU $          FULL-BIT DELAY ENTRY
0031          0000 C28B MOV R11,R10    SAVE LINKAGE
0032          0002 0696 BL *R6         CALL HALF-BIT DELAY
0033          0004 C2CA MOV P10,R11    RESTORE LINKAGE
0034          0006 HBIT EQU $          HALF-BIT DELAY ENTRY
0035          0006 0204 LI R4,HBDLY    INITIALIZE LOOP COUNTER
0036          0008 0604 DLOOP DEC R4    DECREMENT COUNT
0037          000C 16FE JNE DLOOP      LOOP UNTIL END OF DELAY
0038          000E 045B RT              RETURN
0039          *
0040          * RECEIVER CONTROL PROGRAM
0041          *
0042          * ENTRY: BLWP @RCVCT
0043          *
0044          * UPON RETURN TO CALLING PROGRAM, THE LEFT BYTE OF
0045          * M0 OF THE CALLING PROGRAM CONTAINS THE RECEIVED
0046          * CHARACTER. CHARACTERS WITH PARITY OR FRAMING
0047          * ERRORS ARE IGNORED.
0048          *
0049          *
0050          0010 PCV EQU $            RECEIVE ENTRY POINT
0051          0010 0300 LIMB 0         MASK ALL INTERRUPTS
0052          0014 0205 LI R5,8        INITIALIZE BIT COUNT
0053          0018 1F00 FLOOP1 TB INBIT TEST FOR START BIT
0054          001A 13FE JEQ FLOOP1     NO, CONTINUE TESTING
0055          001C 0696 BL *R6         DELAY HALF-BIT TIME
0056          001E 1F00 TB INBIT
0057          0020 13FB JEQ FLOOP1     IF FALSE START BIT, START OVER
0058          0022 0697 BL *R7         DELAY FULL-BIT TIME
0059          0024 0918 SPL R3,1       SHIFT FOR NEXT BIT
0060          0026 1F00 TB INBIT      READ INPUT
0061          0028 16-- JNE RSKIP      IF INPUT IS 0, SKIP
0062          002A E209 JOC R9,R8      ELSE SET MSR
0063          002C 0605 RSKIP DEC R5   LAST DATA BIT?
0064          002E 1601 JNE FLOOP2     NO, LOOP
0065          0030 0697 BL *R7         YES, DELAY FULL-BIT TIME
0066          0032 1F00 TB INBIT      TEST FOR STOP BIT
0067          0034 160D JNE PCV        IF ERROR, IGNORE CHARACTER
0068          0036 0748 MOVB R8,*R13  IF NO ERROR, STORE CHARACTER
0069          0038 1C-- JOP REXIT     IF PARITY ERROR,
0070          003A 10EA JMP PCV      IGNORE CHARACTER
0071          003C 4749 REXIT JOC R9,*R13 MASK PARITY BIT
0072          003E 045B RTWP          RETURN

```

```

0074          *
0075          * TRANSMITTER CONTROL PROGRAM
0076          *
0077          * ENTRY: BLWP @XMTVCT
0078          *
0079          * THE LEFT BYTE OF WRO OF THE CALLING PROGRAM
0080          * IS SERIALLY TRANSMITTED, PRECEDED BY A START
0081          * BIT, CORRECTED FOR PARITY, AND FOLLOWED
0082          * BY A STOP BIT.
0083          *
0084 0040 0300 XMT   LIMI 0           MASK ALL INTERRUPTS
0042 0000
0085 0044 0408     CLR R8           CLEAR CHARACTER ACCUMULATOR
0086 0046 0205     LI  R5,10        LOAD BIT COUNT
0048 000A
0087 004A 021D     MOVB #R13,R8    FETCH CHARACTER
0088 004C 1C--     JOP  XSKIP       CORRECT PARITY
0089 004E 2A09     XDB  R9,R8
0090 0050 0918     XSKIP SRL  R8,1
004C♦♦1C01
0091 0052 E209     SDB  R9,R8      APPEND STOP BIT
0092 0054 0968     SRL  R8,6       RIGHT JUSTIFY CHARACTER
0093 0056 0918     XLOOP SRL  R8,1  SHIFT OUT LSB
0094 0058 18--     JOC  XONE       IF ONE, SET OUTBIT TO ONE
0095 005A 1E00     SBE  OUTBIT     ELSE, SET TO ZERO
0096 005C 10--     JMP  XNEXT
0097 005E 1D00     XONE SDB  OUTBIT
0058♦♦1802
0098 0060 0697     XNEXT BL  #R7     DELAY FULL-BIT TIME
005C♦♦1001
0099 0062 0605     DEC  R5         LAST BIT?
0100 0064 16F8     JNE  XLOOP      NO, CONTINUE
0101 0066 0380     RTWP          YES, RETURN
0103
0104          *
0105          * INITIALIZATION PROGRAM
0106          *
0107          * ENTRY: BLWP @ENTVCT
0108          *
0109          * REGISTERS ARE INITIALIZED
0110          *
0110          0068/  ENTER EQU  $         ENTRY POINT
0111 0068 0206     LI  #4,HBIT     HALF-BIT SUBROUTINE
006A 0006
0112 006C 0207     LI  #7,FBIT     FULL-BIT SUBROUTINE
006E 0007
0113 0070 0209     LI  #9,>S000    BIT MASK
0072 0000
0114 0074 020C     LI  #12,>CRUBAS  CRU BASE ADDRESS
0076 0000
0115 0078 0458     RTWP          RETURN
0116
0117          *
0118          * PROGRAM WORKSPACE
0119          *
0119 007A          UARTWP BSS 32
0120          *
0121          * ENTRY TRANSFER VECTORS
0122          *
0123 009A 007A/  ENTVCT DATA UARTWP,ENTER  INITIALIZATION ENTRY VECTOR
009C 0068/
0124 009E 007A/  RCVVCT DATA UARTWP,RCV   RECEIVER ENTRY VECTOR
00A0 0010/
0125 00A2 007A/  XMTVCT DATA UARTWP,XMT   TRANSMIT ENTRY VECTOR
00A4 0040/
0126          END                END OF PROGRAM

```

5.7 Burroughs SELF-SCAN Display Interface

This section describes a TMS 9900 CRU interface to a Burrough's SELF-SCAN[®] panel display model SS30132-0070. The display panel has a 32-position, single-row character array with a repertoire of 128 characters.

The panel display operates in a serial-shift mode in which characters are shifted into the panel one at a time. Characters are shifted in right-to-left and can be shifted or backspaced left-to-right. A clear pulse erases the display.

The CRU display interface is shown in Figure 5-21 and a display control subroutine is shown in Figure 5-22. The subroutine is called by one of two XOP instructions, XOP0 and XOP1. The calling routine passes

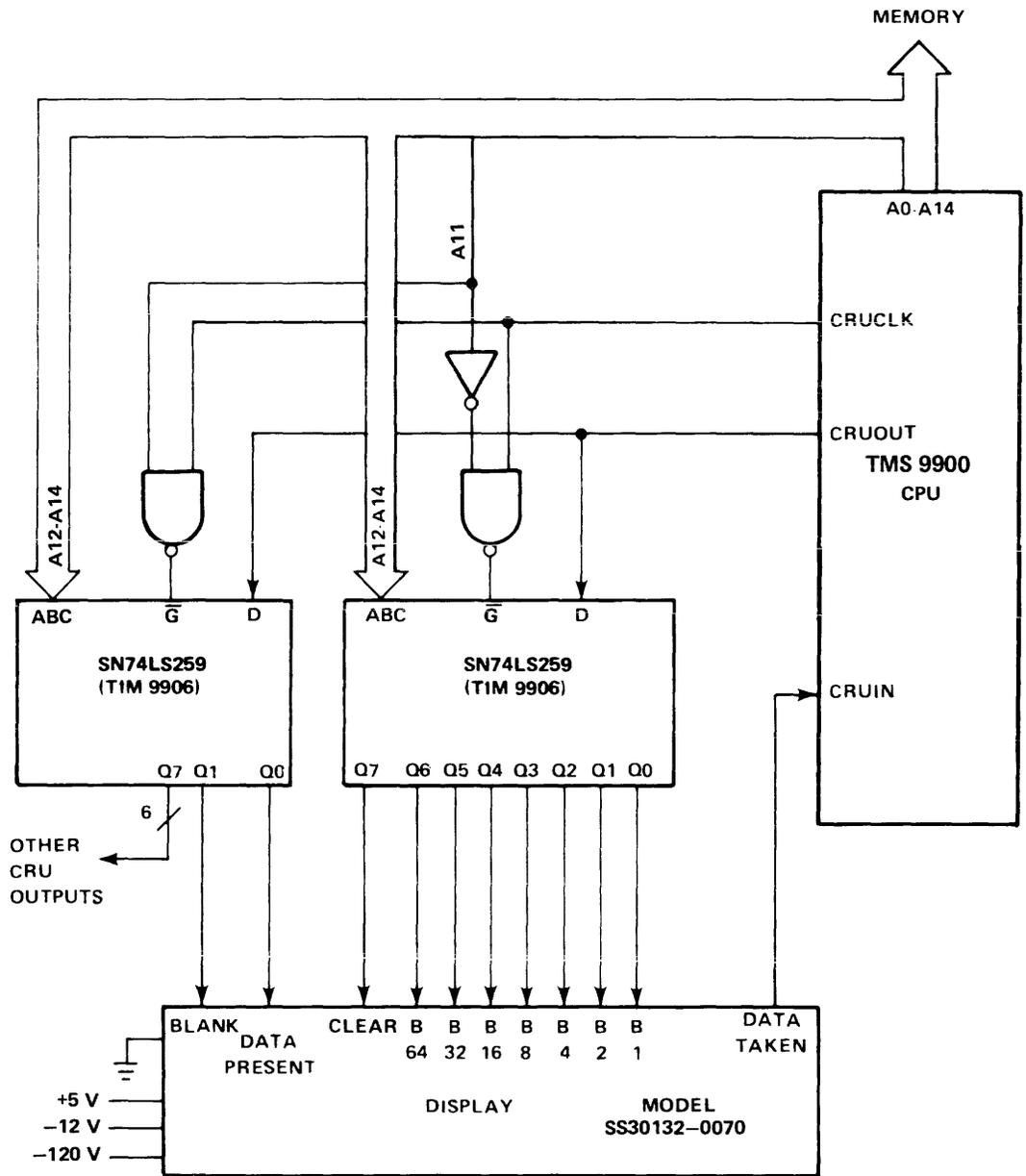


Figure 5-21. Display Control Interface

the address and length of the output string in registers 8 and 9 of its workspace. The two XOP subroutines share the same workspace and perform the same function except that XOP1 clears the panel display first. The backspace feature is not used. The panel display is blanked during character entry.

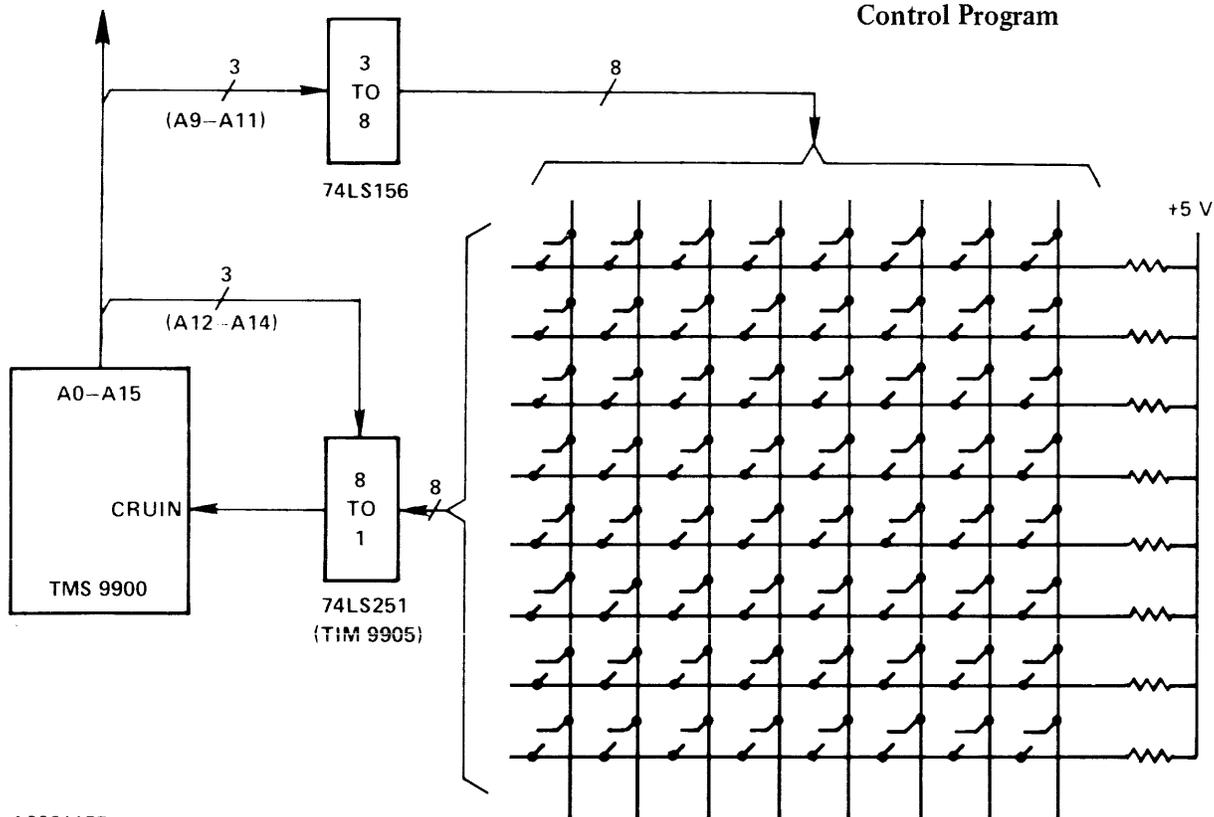
5.8 Matrix Keyboard Interface

Figure 5-23 shows how two 16-pin devices and eight resistors can be used to interface a 64-key keyboard connected as a row-column matrix. This circuit requires a 64-bit CRU input-address space. Columns are selected by A9–A11, and specific keys in each column are addressed by A12–A14. Therefore, individual keys may be read by the TB (test bit) instruction, or the entire array may be read by four 16-bit STCR instructions, incrementing the CRU base address by 16 between each STCR instruction. Functions such as switch debounce and key rollover may be performed in software.

EIGHT	EQU	8	
NINE	EQU	9	
RXOP1	SBZ	7	Clear Panel
	LI	R1,11	
LOOP1	DEC	R1	Delay >67μsec
	JNE	LOOP1	
	SBO	7	
RXOP2	SBO	9	Blank Panel
	MOV	@EIGHT (13),1	Load Address
	MOV	@NINE (13),2	Load Length
LOOP2	LDCR	*1+,7	Output Char
	SBO	8	Data Present
WAIT	TB	0	Wait for Data Taken
	JEQ	Wait	
	SBZ	8	
	DEC	2	Decrement Count
	JNE	LOOP2	Loop Until Through
	SBZ	9	Unblank Panel
	RTWP		Return

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Figure 5-22. Burrough's SELF-SCAN Display Control Program



A0001157

Figure 5-23. 64-Key Scanning Circuit

SECTION VI

AUXILIARY SYSTEM FUNCTIONS

This section describes the circuitry and application of several functions which may be useful in a TMS 9900 system.

6.1 Unused Op Codes

The unused op codes for the TMS 9900 are shown in Table 6-1. An instruction which consists of any of these codes will cause the TMS 9900 to perform no operation other than the updating of the PC to point to the next sequential even word address and the processing of RESET, LOAD, and interrupts in the normal way. It is not recommended that any of these codes be used to perform the function of a no-op, however, since future upward-compatible members of the TMS 9900 microprocessor family will use these codes for presently unimplemented instructions. The TMS 9900 assembler has defined the pseudo-instruction "NOP" to generate a code of 1000_{16} , which is equivalent to the "JMP \$+2" instruction.

6.1.1 Unused Op Code Detection

The occurrence of unused op codes may be detected by the circuitry shown in Figure 6-1. The signal ILOPCD is set high at the end of memory cycle which fetches the unused op code. On the first clock cycle of each instruction fetch, the IAQT1 signal is set high. Then, when memory data is read (on the next clock cycle in which the processor is not in a WAIT state) the IAQT1 signal is reset and, if $\overline{\text{ILODEC}} = 0$, the illegal op code flag ILOPCD is set. It may be convenient to use ROM, a PLA, or random logic to generate the signal $\overline{\text{ILODEC}}$, which is low when any of the unused codes is decoded. If WAIT states do not occur, one SN74LS32 gate may be deleted.

6.1.2 Unused Op Code Processing

The occurrence of an unused op code is an error condition which may be caused by device failure, signal noise, or errors in software. Therefore, the error flag generated should be a high-priority (low-level) interrupt which causes the processor to suspend operation before any further instructions are executed. The flag should be cleared by the $\overline{\text{CLILOP}}$ signal only after the cause of the error is determined.

6.2 Software Front Panel

A useful feature during hardware and software development is a means for controlling the operation of the processor at a more basic level than is required during normal system operation. For instance, it is desirable to start and stop execution of a program segment, to execute single instructions, to inspect and to modify memory and internal registers, and to load programs into RAM. These features are associated with the front

TABLE 6-1. UNUSED OP CODES

HEXADECIMAL	BINARY															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
0 0 0 0 - 0 1 F F	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
0 3 2 0 - 0 3 3 F	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	x	x	x	x	x
0 7 8 0 - 0 7 F F	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
0 C 0 0 - 0 F F F	0	0	0	0	1	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

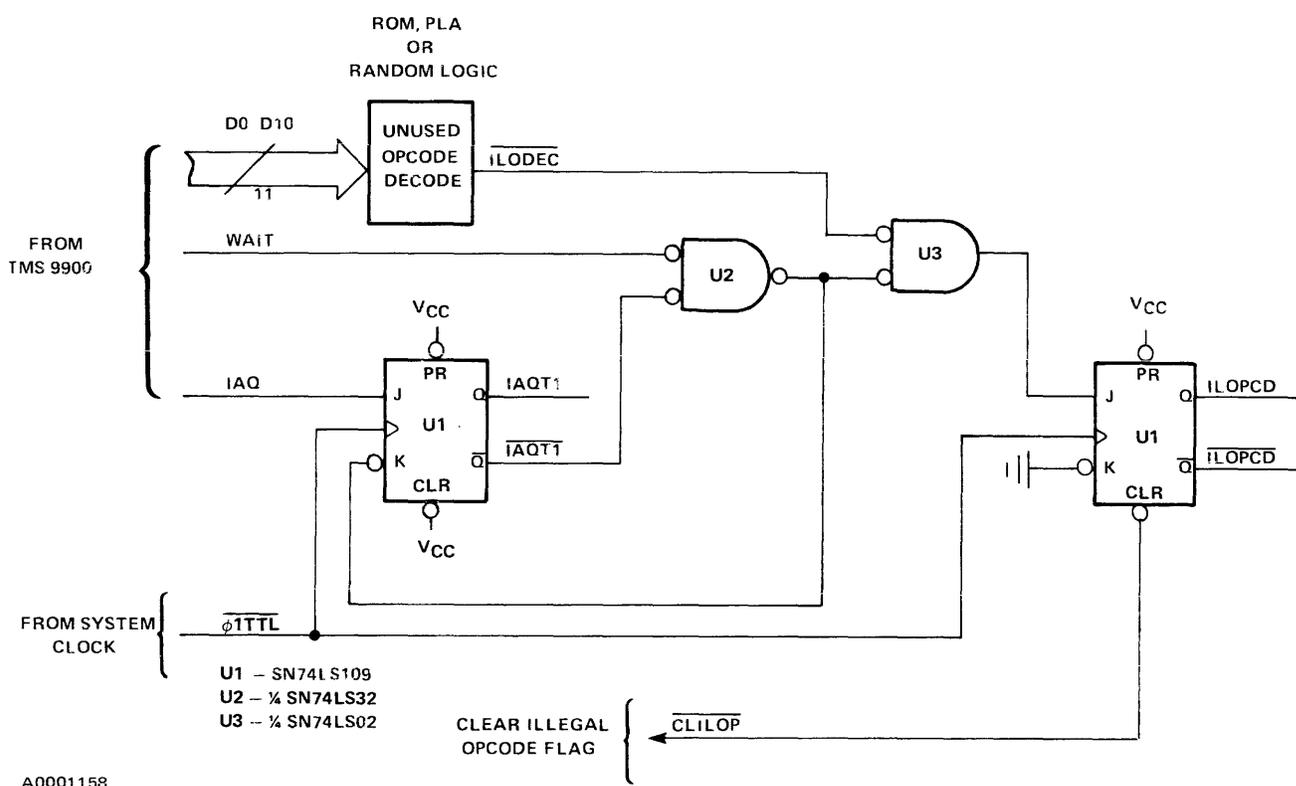
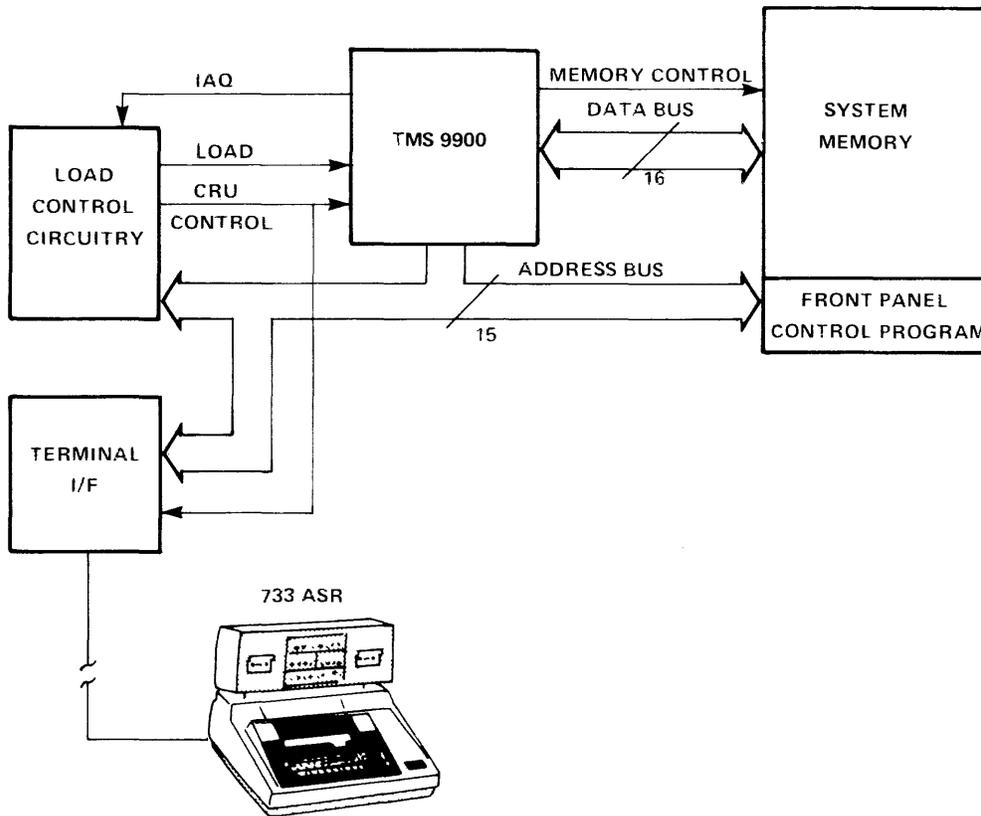


Figure 6-1. Illegal Op Code Detection Circuitry

panel of a conventional minicomputer and are normally implemented in hardware. Similar capabilities may be provided for any TMS 9900 system very economically using a combination of hardware and software.

6.2.1 System Configuration for Software Front Panel

Figure 6-2 illustrates the hardware required to implement a software-controlled front panel for a TMS 9900 system. In this configuration the LOAD function, including the LOAD vector at addresses $FFFC_{16}$ - $FFFF_{16}$ is dedicated to the front panel. Some portion of the memory space must be allocated for



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Figure 6-2. System Configuration for Software Front Panel

the control program and temporary storage. Circuitry to control generation of the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ input to the processor requires approximately five networks. Finally, some means of communication between the user and the system must be provided. In this example, a teleprinter such as the 733 ASR was selected because of the word degree of flexibility it provides, with keyboard entry, a printer, and dual cassette transport for program loading. Other devices, such as a switch panel with an LED display, would serve the same purpose more economically with a sacrifice in flexibility and ease of use.

6.2.2 Memory Requirements

As shown in Figure 6-3, the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ vector at memory addresses FFFC_{16} - FFFF_{16} is required. It is normally convenient to use the contiguous memory area for the control program, since both will be contained in ROM or PROM. The size of the control program is a direct function of the number and sophistication of

utilities provided in the control program. Control program RAM requirements are minimal and may be satisfied with system RAM or implemented separately as desired.

6.2.3 Description of Operation

The system is operating in one of two modes whenever power is supplied to the system. In the front-panel mode (FPMODE=1) the processor is executing under the supervision of the front-panel control program. In this mode the user may communicate with the system via the terminal. Commands are entered through the keyboard and transmitted to the system, where the control program interprets the command and performs the desired operation. Commands may cause memory contents to be changed or displayed, particular programs to be executed, or other control operations such as setting up breakpoints or single instruction execution. The front-panel mode is entered through the LOAD function, thus the previous context is saved and may be restored when returning to the run mode (FPMODE=0). In the run mode the processor is executing programs at any location in memory, uncontrolled by the user until the LOAD function again becomes active.

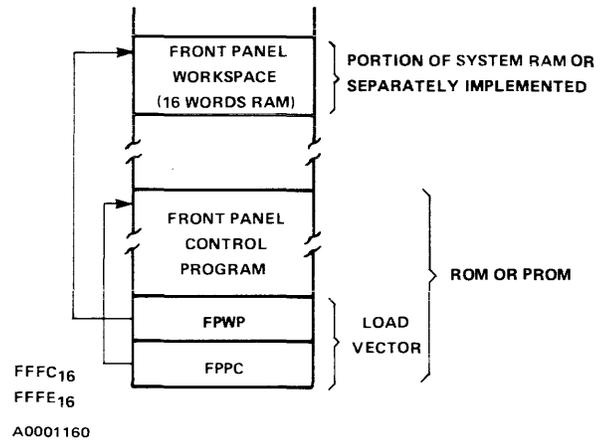
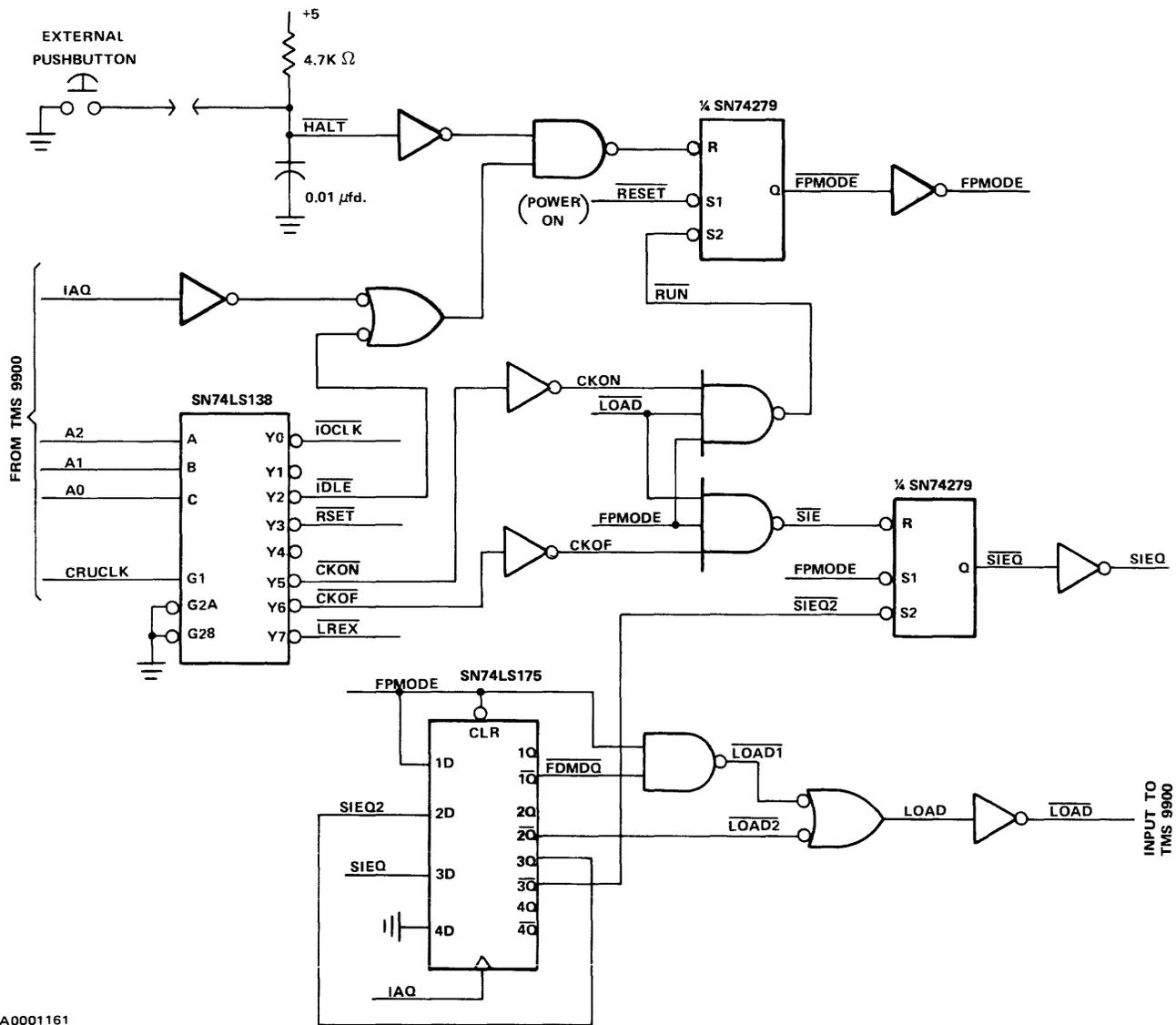


Figure 6-3. Software Front Panel Memory Requirements

6.2.3.1 Entry Into Front-Panel Mode. Figure 6-4 illustrates the front-panel control circuitry used to generate the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal to the TMS 9900. Initially, the power-on $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ signal to the system causes FDMODE to be reset. When the user desires to gain control, he actuates a pushbutton, causing $\overline{\text{HALT}}$ to be active. During the next instruction fetch by the processor (AQ=1), FPMODE is set and the system enters the front-panel mode. If the processor is currently executing an IDLE instruction, waiting for an unmasked interrupt to occur, FPMODE is set by the $\overline{\text{IDLE}}$ output of the SN74LS138, which is pulsed each machine cycle. The $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal remains active until the next instruction is fetched. The $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is therefore active for one instruction. This ensures that the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ function is executed, since this input is tested by the TMS 9900 at the end of each instruction cycle. It is necessary that the LOAD signal be active for no more than one instruction cycle; otherwise, the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ operation is repeated. Each time the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ function is performed, the internal registers of the TMS 9900 are saved in registers WR13–15 of the front-panel workspace. Thus, if the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ operation is repeated, the saved internal register contents would be destroyed when the internal registers are again stored. After the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ context switch is performed, the processor begins execution of the front-panel control program.

6.2.3.2 Single Instruction Execution. Part of the circuitry in Figure 6-4 allows the front-panel control program to execute single instructions in general memory and then to return to front-panel control. The CKOF instruction is used to initiate this operation, causing the CKOF signal to be pulsed. CKOF is gated with FPMODE and LOAD to ensure that no instructions outside the control program may initiate this operation. The gated CKOF signal sets SIEQ. The timing for the LOAD signal generation is shown in Figure 6-5. The instruction sequence to perform single instruction execution (SIE) is

.
 .
 .
 CKOF SET SIEQ
 RTWP RELOAD INTERNAL REGISTERS
 .
 .
 .



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Figure 6-4. Front Panel Control Circuitry

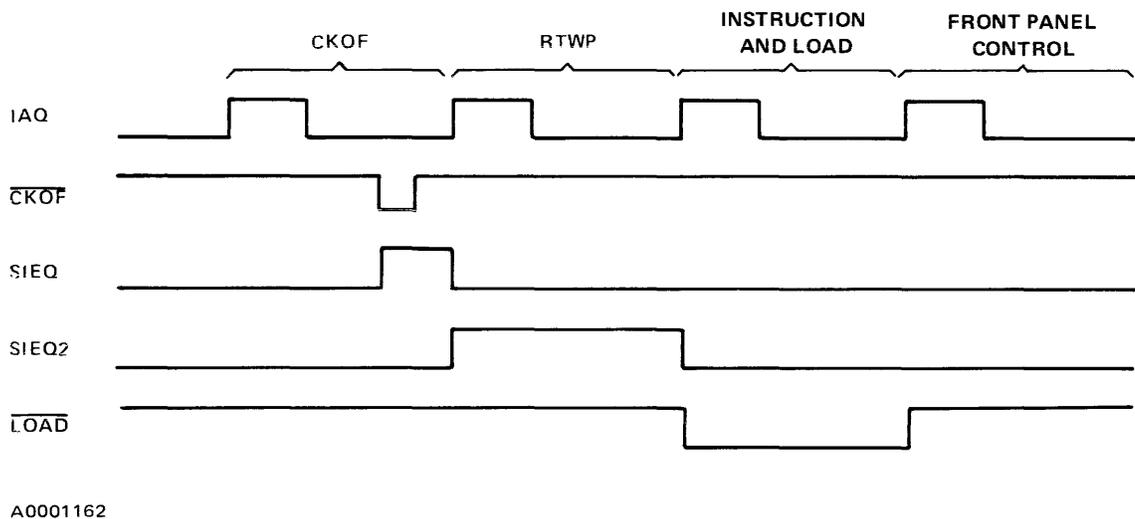


Figure 6-5. Single Instruction Execution Timing

The circuitry in Figure 6-4 causes the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal to be generated after delaying one instruction; therefore, the $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signal is active during the first instruction after RTWP, and control returns to the front-panel control program. This SIE function can also be used to implement breakpoints and constant updates of program operation. For example, a breakpoint may be accomplished by repetitively performing SIE and comparing the saved PC with the desired value.

6.2.3.3 Return to Run Mode. With the circuitry in Figure 6-4, the processor returns to the run mode by executing the following instruction sequence:

- -
 -
- | | |
|------|--------------------------|
| CKON | RESET FPMODE |
| RTWP | RELOAD INTERNAL REGISTER |

The CKON pulse, gated with FPMODE and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$, resets FPMODE and, after the RTWP instruction is executed, the processor resumes run mode operation and continues until the HALT pushbutton is again pressed.

SECTION VII

ELECTRICAL REQUIREMENTS

This section reviews the TMS 9900 electrical requirements, including the system clock generation and interface signal characteristics. The “TMS 9900 DATA MANUAL” should be used for minimum and maximum values.

7.1 TMS 9900 Clock Generation

The TMS 9900 requires a non-overlapping four-phase clock system with high-level MOS drivers. Additional TTL outputs are typically required for external signal synchronization or for dynamic memory controllers. A single-chip clock driver, the TIM 9904, can be used to produce these clock signals. An alternative clock generator uses standard TTL logic circuits and discrete components.

The TMS 9900 requires four non-overlapping 12 V clocks. The clock frequency can vary from 2 kilohertz to 3 to 250 picofarads. The clock rise and fall times must not exceed 100 nanoseconds and must be 10 to 15 nanoseconds for higher frequencies in order to satisfy clock pulse width requirements. While the clocks must not overlap, the delay time between clocks must not exceed 50 microseconds at lower frequencies. The typical clock timing for 3 MHz is illustrated in Figure 7-1.

7.1.1 TIM 9904 Clock Generator

The TIM 9904 (SN74LS362) is a single-chip clock generator and driver for use with the TMS 9900. The TIM 9904 contains a crystal-controlled oscillator, waveshaping circuitry, a synchronizing flip-flop, and quad MOS/TTL drivers as shown in Figure 7-2.

The clock frequency is selected by either an external crystal or by an external TTL-level oscillator input. Crystal operation requires a 16X input crystal frequency since the TIM 9904 divides the input frequency for waveshaping. For 3-megahertz operation, a 48-megahertz crystal is required. The LC tank inputs permit the use of overtone crystals. The LC network values are determined by the network resonant frequency:

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{LC}}$$

For less precise frequency control, a capacitor can be used instead of the crystal.

The external-oscillator input can be used instead of the crystal input. The oscillator input frequency is 4X the output frequency. A 12-megahertz input oscillator frequency is required for a 3-megahertz output

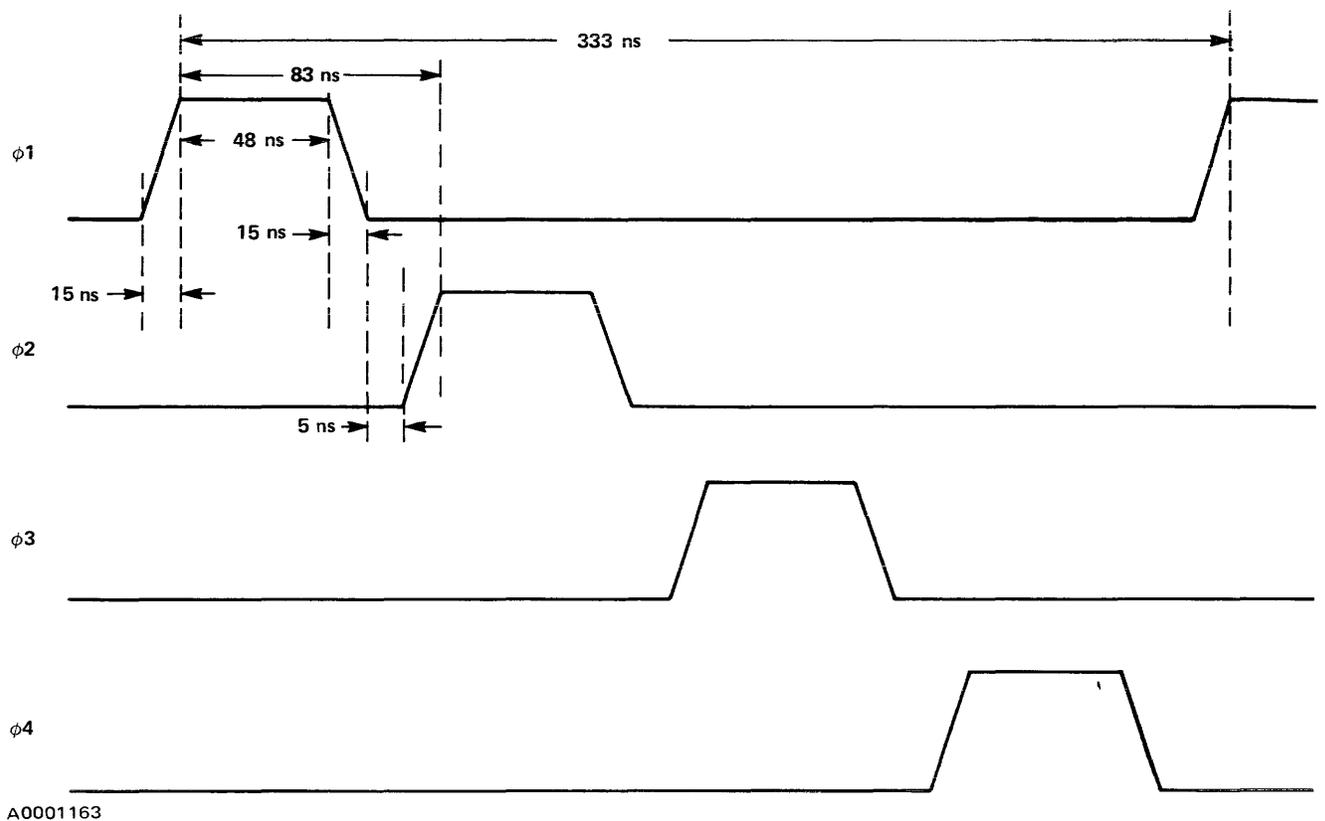


Figure 7-1. TMS 9900 Typical Clock Timing

frequency. A 4X TTL-compatible oscillator output (OSCOUT) is provided in order to permit the derivation of other system timing signals from the crystal or oscillator frequency source.

The oscillator frequency is divided by four to provide the proper frequency for each of the 4-clock phases. A high-level MOS output and an inverted TTL-compatible output is provided by each clock phase. The MOS-level clocks are used for the TMS 9900 CPU while the TTL clocks are used for system timing.

The D-type flip-flop is clocked by ϕ_3 and can be used to synchronize external signals such as $\overline{\text{RESET}}$. The Schmitt-triggered input permits the use of an external RC network for power-on $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ generation. The RC values are dependent on the power supply rise time and should hold $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ low for at least three clock cycles after the supply voltages reach the minimum voltages.

All TIM 9904 TTL-compatible outputs have standard short circuit protection. The high-level MOS clock outputs, however, do not have short circuit protection.

7.1.2 TTL Clock Generator

Figure 7-3 illustrates an alternate TMS 9900 clock generator circuit. This system is driven by a 36 megahertz clock (minimal duty cycle restriction) which can be derived by any of several popular clock

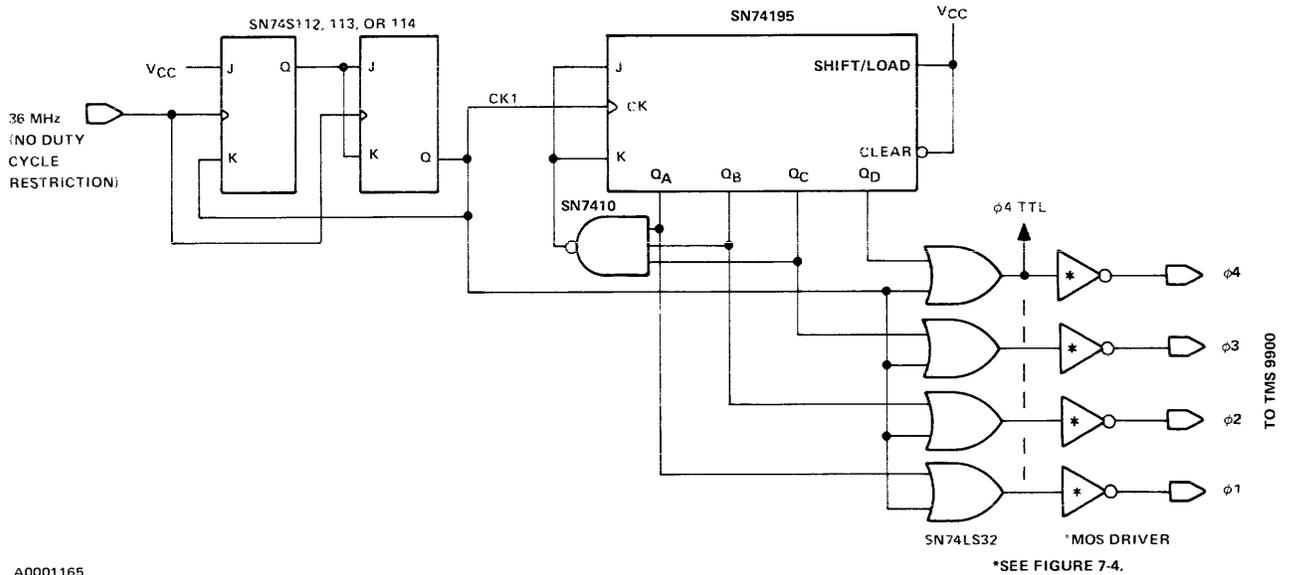


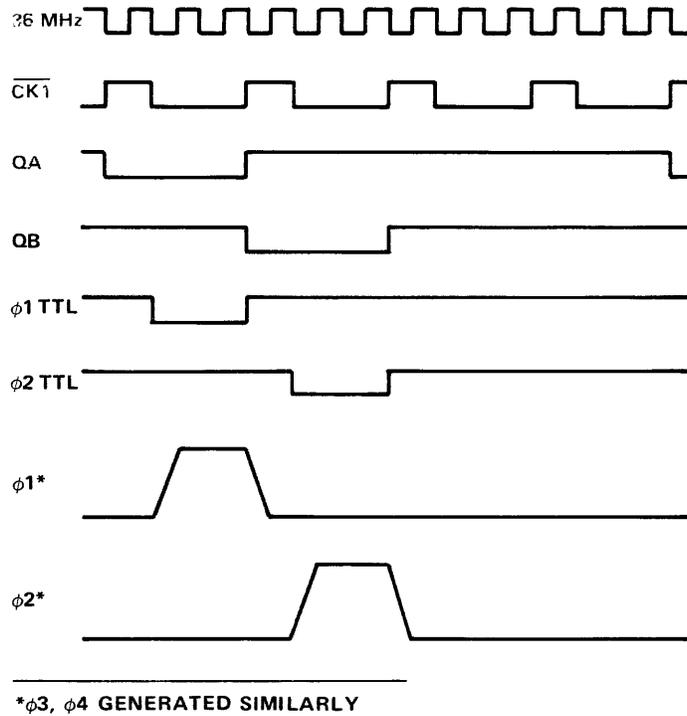
Figure 7-3. TMS 9900 Clock Generator

oscillator designs. The first stage is shown on the timing diagram in Figure 7-4 as CK1 and has a 33% duty cycle. The second stage of the generator is based on the SN74195 shift register. The shift register is connected to generate the consecutive 4-phase clocks shown for one phase as QA in the timing diagram. The shift register outputs are then gated with the input clock to form the non-overlapping TTL clocks ($\phi 1$ TTL).

The non-overlapping TTL clocks can be translated to 12 V MOS levels by several methods. Integrated memory drivers such as the SN75355 or SN75365 can be used but may force operation at reduced frequency due to supply, temperature, or device variation.

The discrete-transistor driver shown in Figure 7-5 has been designed to allow operation at 3 megahertz over standard commercial temperature and voltage ranges.

This driver uses inexpensive 2N3703s and 2N3704s and broad tolerance passive components. Resistor tolerances can be 10% with capacitor variations as much as 20% without affecting its performance noticeably. It shows very little sensitivity to transistor variations and its propagation times are largely unaffected by output capacitive loading. It produces rise times in the 10–12 ns region with fall times from 8–10 ns, driving 200 pF capacitive loads. Propagation times for this driver are such that it produces an output pulse that is wider than its input pulse. This driver can easily be used at 3 megahertz without special selection of components. It does have the advantage of taking nine discrete components per driver, but if assembly costs are prohibitive, these can be reduced by using two Q2T2222 and two Q2T2905 transistor packs. The Q2T2222 is basically four NPN transistors of the 2N2222 type while the Q2T2905 has four PNP, 2N2905 type transistors in single 14-pin dual-in-line packages. Thus, all four drivers can be built using two packages each of these quad packs.



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Figure 7-4. Timing Diagram for TMS 9900 Clock Generator

7.2 TMS 9900 Signal Interfacing

The non-clock CPU inputs and outputs are TTL compatible and can be used with bipolar circuits without external pull-up resistors or level shifters. The TMS 9900 inputs are high impedance to minimize loading on peripheral circuits. The TMS 9900 outputs can drive approximately two TTL loads, thus eliminating the need for buffer circuits in many systems.

7.2.1 Switching Levels

The TMS 9900 input switch levels are compatible with most MOS and TTL circuits and do not require pull-up resistors to reach the required high-level input switching voltage. The TMS 9900 output levels can drive most MOS and bipolar inputs. Some typical switching levels are shown in Table 7-1.

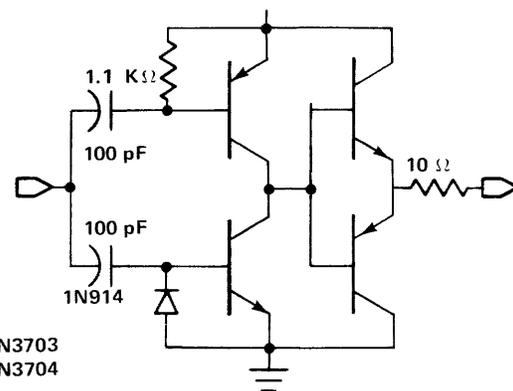


Figure 7-5. MOS Level Clock Drivers

It should be noted that some MOS circuits such as the TMS 4700 ROM and the TMS 2708 EPROM have a minimum high-level input voltage of 3 V to 3.3 V, which exceeds the TMS 9900 minimum high-level output voltage of 2.4 V. The TMS 9900 high-level output voltage exceeds 3.3 V; however, longer transition times as shown in Figure 7-6 are required.

TABLE 7-1. SWITCH LEVELS

SWITCHING LEVEL (V)	TMS 9900	TMS 4908	TMS 4042-2	SN 74XX	SN 74LSXX
V _{IH} min	2.2	3.0	2.2	2.0	2.0
V _{IL} max	0.6	0.65	0.65	0.8	0.7
V _{OH} * min	2.4	3.7	2.2	2.4	2.7
V _{OL} max	0.5	0.45	0.45	0.5	0.5

*V_{OH} exceeds 2.4 V as shown in Figure 7-6.

7.2.2 Loading

The TMS 9900 has high-impedance inputs to minimize loading on the system buses. The CPU data bus presents a maximum current load of $\pm 75 \mu\text{A}$ when DBIN is high. $\overline{\text{WE}}$, $\overline{\text{MEMEN}}$, and DBIN cause a maximum current load of $\pm 75 \mu\text{A}$ during HOLDA. Otherwise, the TMS 9900 inputs present a current load of only $\pm 10 \mu\text{A}$. The data bus inputs have a 25-picofarad input capacitance, and all other non-clock inputs have a 15-picofarad input capacitance.

The TMS 9900 outputs can drive approximately two standard TTL loads. Since most memory devices have high-impedance inputs, the CPU can drive small memory systems without address or data buffers. If the bus load exceeds the equivalent of two TTL unit loads, external buffers are required.

The TMS 9900 output switching characteristics are determined for approximately 200 picofarads. Higher capacitive loads can be driven with degraded switching characteristics as shown in Figure 7-7.

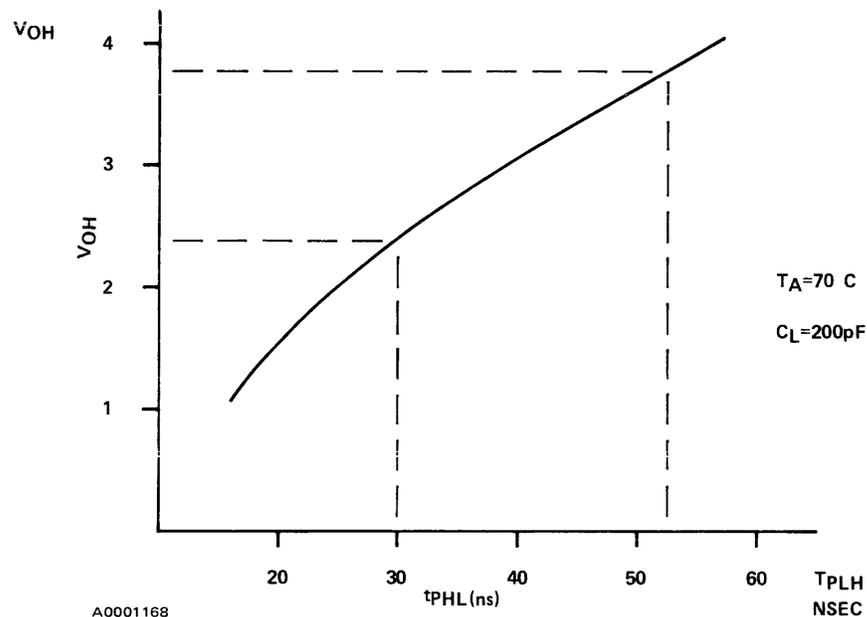


Figure 7-6. t_{PLH} vs V_{OH} Typical Output Levels

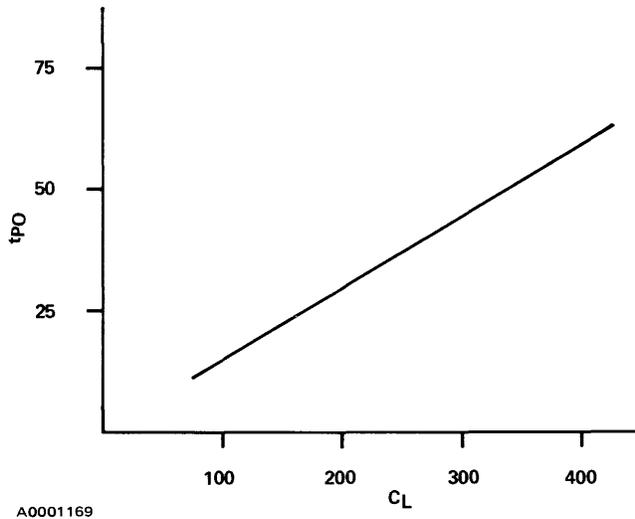


Figure 7-7. t_{pO} vs Load Capacitance (Typical)

7.2.3 Recommended Interface Logic

The TMS 9900 is compatible with the logic from any of the common TTL logic families. The Texas Instruments low-power Schottky logic circuits are, however, recommended for use in microprocessor systems. The SN74LSXX circuits have higher impedance inputs than standard TTL, allowing more circuits to be used without buffering. The SN74LSXX gates also consume less power at similar switching speeds. Texas Instruments has a wide assortment of Bipolar support circuits which can be used with the TMS 9900, as shown in Table 7-2. Note that three circuits which are particularly useful in many applications have been dual symbolized with TIM 99XX numbers for easy reference.

There are a number of buffer circuits available for use in TMS 9900 systems. The SN75S241 and SN74LS241 non-inverting octal buffers with three-state outputs can be used as memory address drivers or as bidirectional data transceivers. The SN74S240 and SN74LS240 are similar, but with inverted outputs. The SN74LS241 can be used as either a memory-address buffer or as a transceiver for bidirectional data transfers. The use of a single circuit type for both functions can result in a lower inventory and parts cost. The buffer switching times can be derated for higher capacitive loading as required.

7.2.4 System Layout

The pin assignments of the TMS 9900 are such that sets of signals (data bus, address bus, interrupt port, etc.) are grouped together. The layout of a printed circuit board can be simplified by taking advantage of these groups by locating associated circuitry (address buffers, interrupt processing hardware, etc.) as close as possible to the TMS 9900 interface. Shortened conductor runs result in minimal noise and compact and efficient utilization of printed circuit board area.

It is particularly important that the drivers for $\phi 1$ – $\phi 4$ be located as close as possible to the inputs of the TMS 9900, since these signals have fast rise and fall times while driving fairly high capacitance over a wide

voltage range. The 12 volt supply to the clock drivers should be decoupled with both high (15 μF) and low (0.05 μF) value capacitors in order to filter out high and lower frequency variations in supply voltage.

All voltage inputs to the TMS 9900 should be decoupled at the device. Particular attention should be paid to the +5 volt supply. All data and address lines are switched simultaneously. The worst-case condition occurs when all data and address signals switch to a low level simultaneously and they are each sinking 3.2 mA. It is thus possible for the supply current to vary nearly 100 mA over a 20 ns interval. Careful attention must be paid by the designer to avoid supply voltage spiking. The exact values for capacitors should be determined empirically, based on actual system layout and drive requirements.

TABLE 7-2. TMS 9900 BIPOLAR SUPPORT CIRCUITS

<u>BUFFERS (3-STATE)</u>		
<u>DEVICE</u>	<u>FUNCTION</u>	<u>PACKAGE</u>
SN74125	QUAD Inverting Buffer	14
SN74126	QUAD Inverting Buffer	14
SN74LS240	OCTAL Inverting Buffer/Transceiver	20
SN74LS241	OCTAL Noninverting Buffer/Transceiver	20
SN74LS242	OCTAL Inverting Transceiver	14
SN74LS243	OCTAL Noninverting Transceiver	14
SN74S240	OCTAL Inverting Buffer/Transceiver	20
SN74S241	OCTAL Noninverting Buffer/Transceiver	20
SN74365	Hex Noninverting Buffer	16
SN74366	Hex Inverting Buffer	16
SN74367	Hex Noninverting Buffer	16
SN74368	Hex Inverting Buffer	16
<u>LATCHES</u>		
SN74LS259 (TIM9906)	OCTAL Addressable Latch	16
SN74LS373	OCTAL Transparent Latch (3-state)	20
SN74LS412	OCTAL I/O Port (3-state)	24
<u>DATA MULTIPLEXERS</u>		
SN74LS151	OCTAL Multiplexer	16
SN74LS251 (TIM9905)	OCTAL Multiplexer (3-state)	16
<u>OTHER SUPPORT CIRCUITS</u>		
SN74148 (TIM 9907)	Priority Encoder	16
SN74LS74	Dual D-type flip-flop	14
SN74LS174	Hex D-type flip-flop	16
SN74LS175	Quad D-type flip-flop	16
SN74LS37	QUAD 2-Input nand Buffers	14
SN74LS362	Clock Generator	20

SECTION VIII

TMS 9980A/81

The TMS 9980A/81 microprocessor is an eight-bit central-processing unit produced using N-channel silicon-gate MOS technology (Figure 8-1). The TMS 9980A/81 extends the power and versatility of the TMS 9900 16-bit machine to those applications requiring an 8-bit data bus, providing the instruction set and addressing capabilities of a full minicomputer to such applications as intelligent or stand-alone terminals, communications controllers and other byte-oriented applications.

The TMS 9980A/81 is fully software compatible with the TMS 9900, yet provides opportunities for lower package count and simplified design effort for smaller systems. For example, the TMS 9900 configuration shown in Figure 8-2(a) requires 11 packages versus seven packages for the TMS 9980A/81 system shown in Figure 8-2(b). The 40-pin package of the TMS 9980A/81 also requires less board space, providing a further reduction in space requirements.

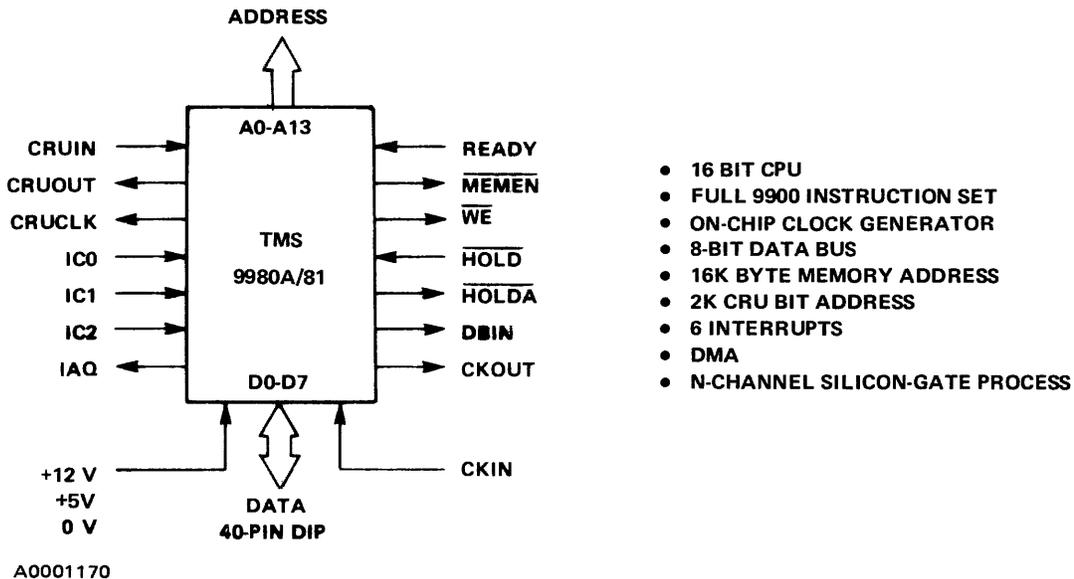


Figure 8-1. TMS 9980A/81 Microprocessor

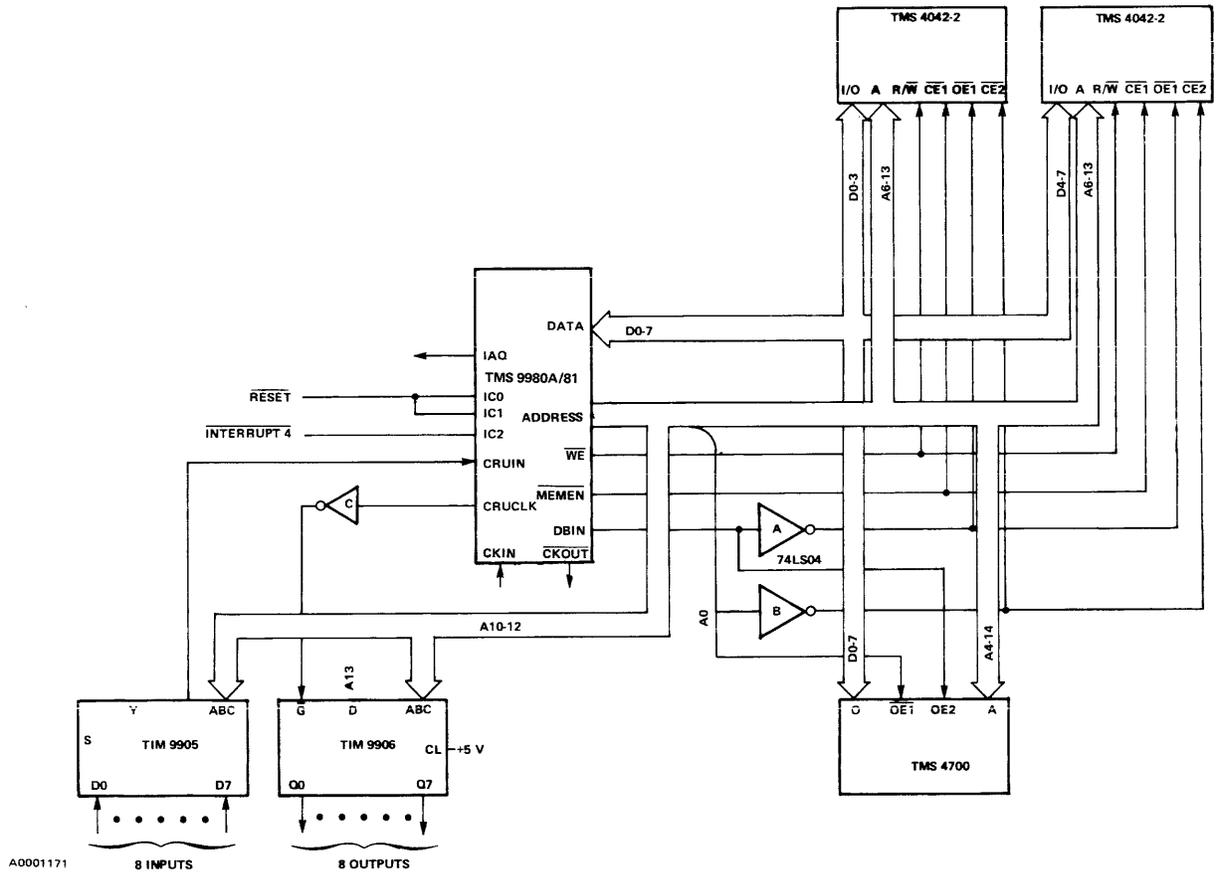
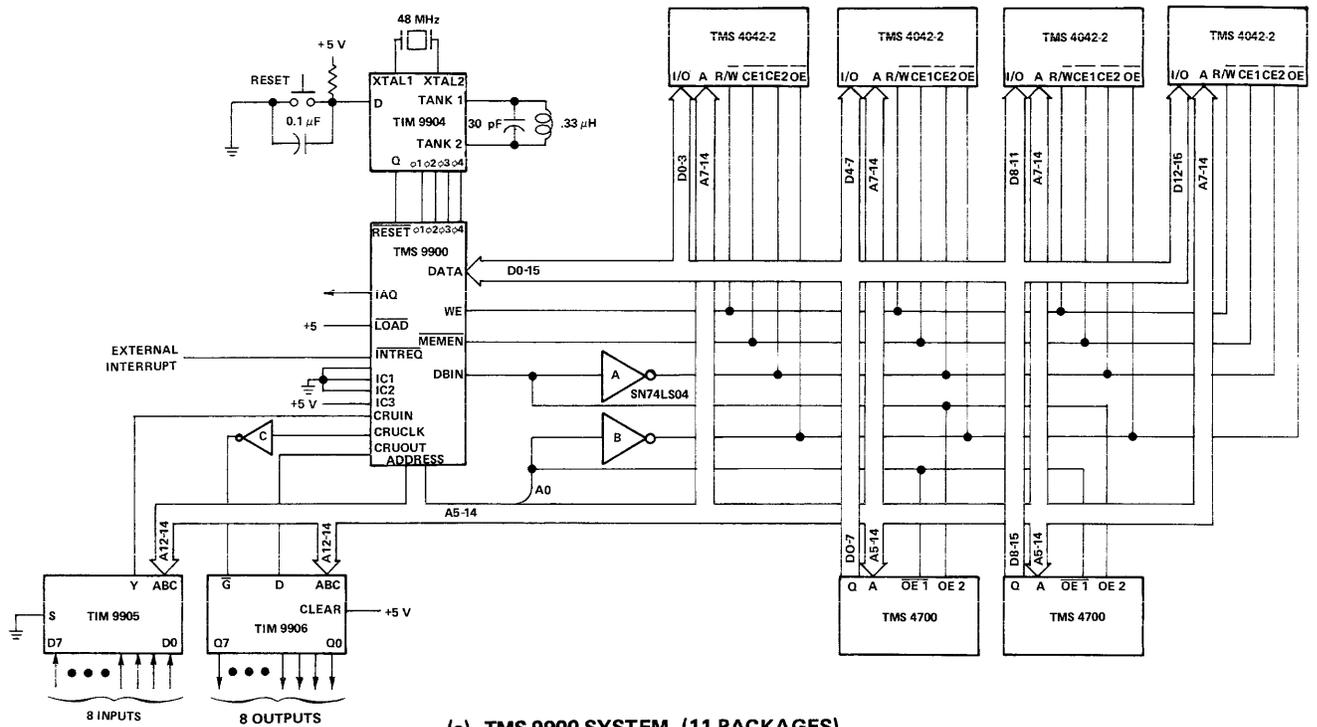


Figure 8-2. TMS 9980A/81 and TMS 9900 Configurations

8.1 Architecture

The TMS 9980A/81 employs the same advanced memory-to-memory architecture as the TMS 9900. The memory is addressable in up to 16,384 8-bit bytes with its memory word defined as 16 bits or two consecutive bytes.

Memory words are restricted to be on even address boundaries; i.e., the most-significant half (8 bits) resides at the even address and the least-significant half resides at the subsequent odd address. A byte can reside at either an even or an odd address. The formats are shown in Figure 8-3.

All memory accesses by the TMS 9980A/81 CPU result in a 16-bit transfer. Therefore, a byte instruction referencing an odd byte address will result in a read or a write of the complete word located at the even word address.

8.2 Memory

The TMS 9980A/81 instructions build a 14-bit address word which describes a 16K X 8 bit address space. All address bits are brought out to define completely the 16K X 8 bit address space, as opposed to the TMS 9900 which manages the least-significant address bit internally for byte addressing.

The advanced architecture of the TMS 9980A/81 uses part of the external memory space for workspace register files and for transfer vector storage. For maximum design flexibility only the locations of the transfer vectors are restricted. A memory map of the TMS 9980A/81 is shown in Figure 8-4. Note that since the TMS 9980A/81 has only four maskable external interrupts, only addresses 0004_{16} through 0013_{16} are used as interrupt vectors, as opposed to the TMS 9900 which has 15 external interrupts.

The TMS 9980A/81 utilizes the same three signals to control the use of the data bus and address bus during memory read and write cycles as the TMS 9900, described in Section 3.2. Memory read and write cycles are

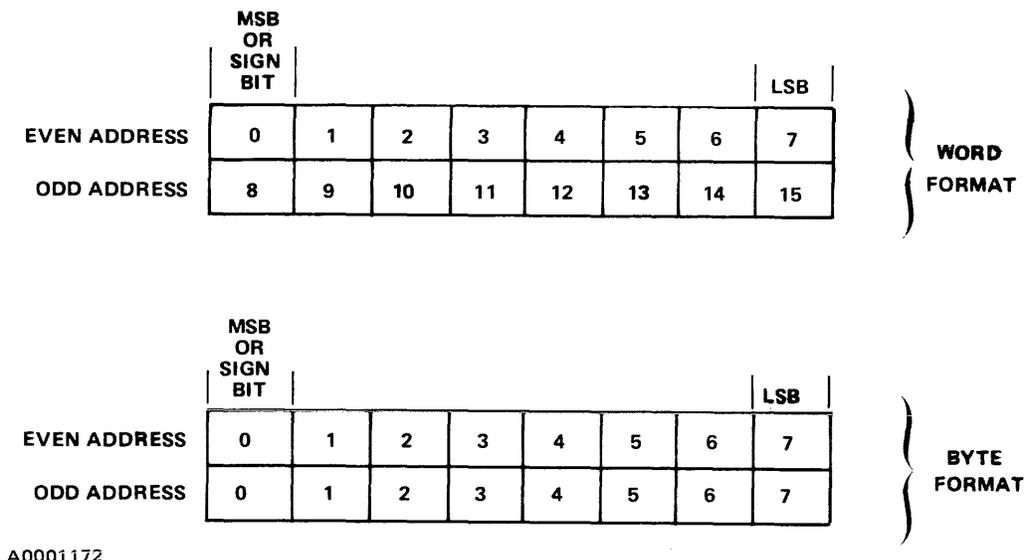


Figure 8-3. TMS 9980A/81 Memory Data Formats

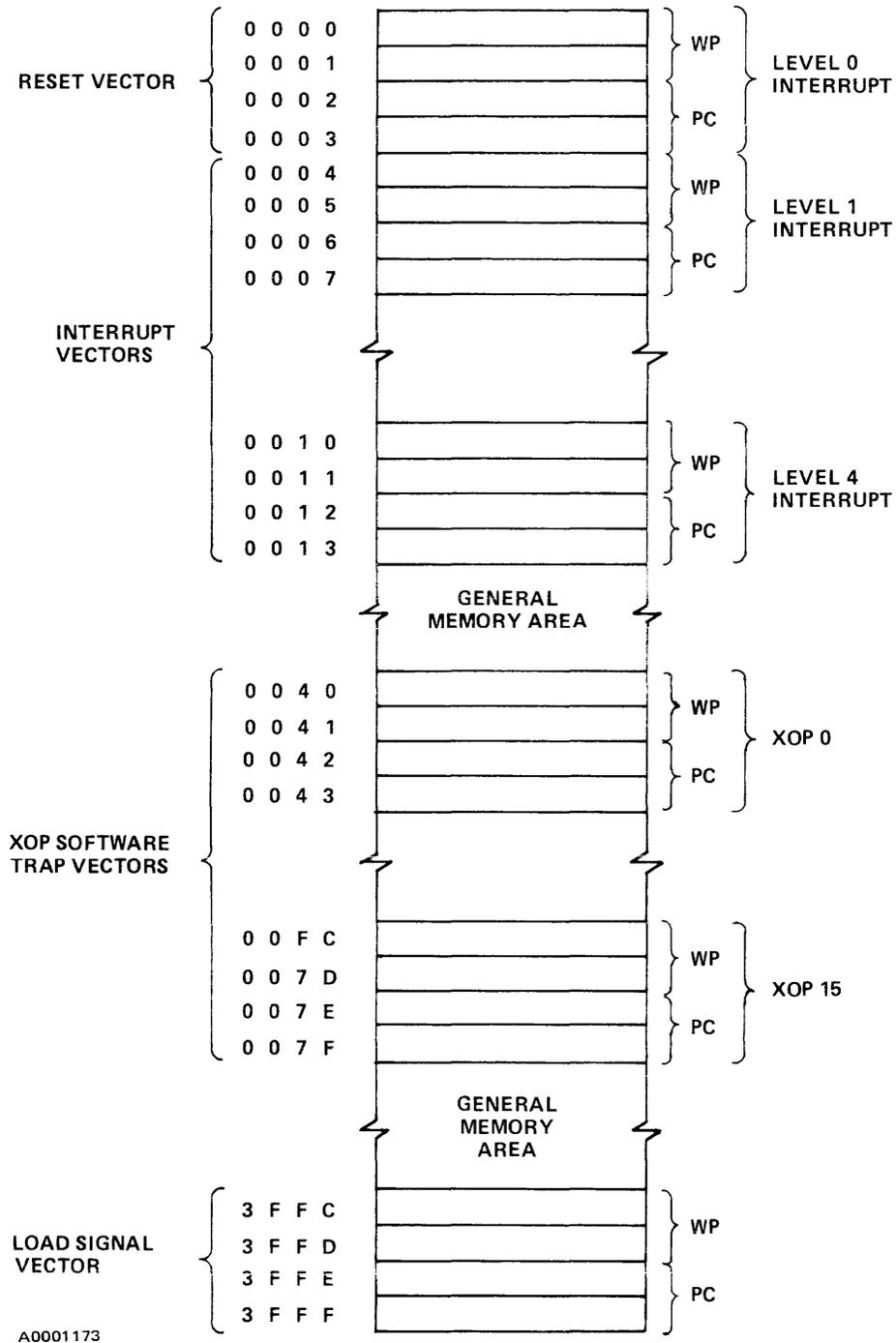


Figure 8-4. TMS 9980A/81 Memory Map

depicted in Figure 8-5(a) for bus timing with no wait states and in Figure 8-5(b) for memory bus timing with one wait state. Note, however, that the TMS 9980A/81 does not provide the WAIT control signal, as in the TMS 9900, when the CPU has entered the WAIT state. Therefore, READY must be generated externally even when only a single WAIT state is desired. This can easily be accomplished, however, by a circuit similar to that shown in Figure 8-6 to produce one wait state, or that shown in Figure 8-7 to generate two wait states. The address-decode circuitry generates an active-high signal SLOMEM whenever the slow memory is addressed. If memory addresses $8000_{16} - FFFF_{16}$ select slow memory example, $SLOMEM = A_0$. READY then provides the proper memory timing.

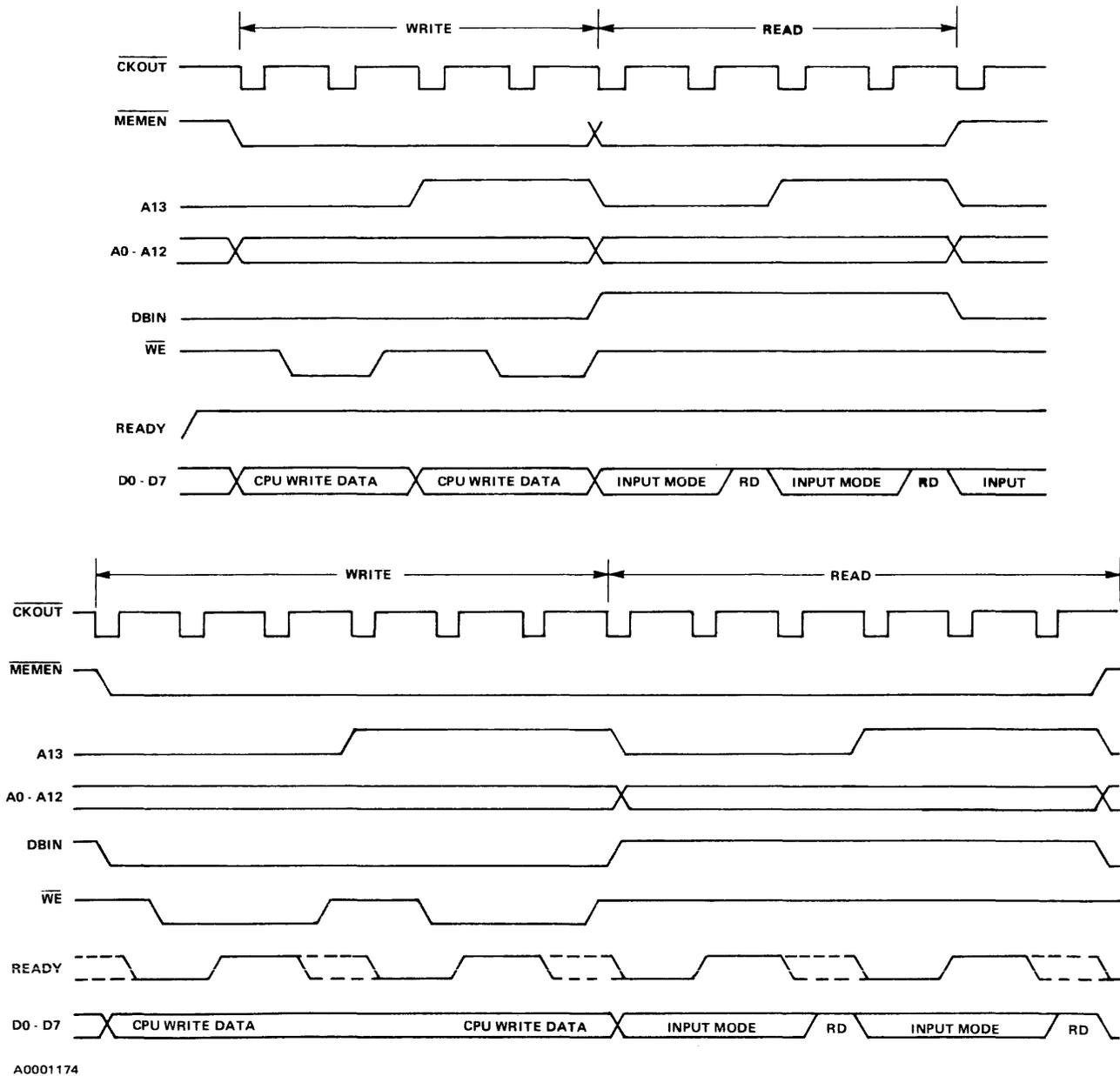


Figure 8-5. TMS 9980A/81 Memory Bus Timing

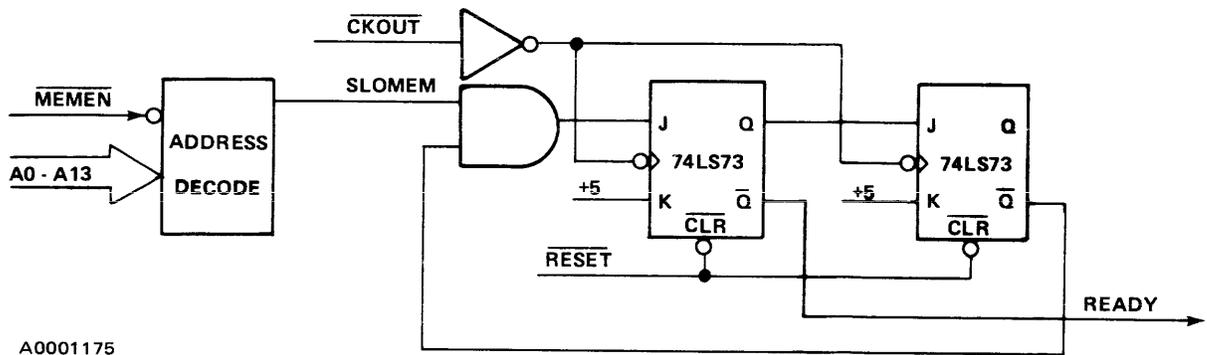


Figure 8-6. Single Wait States For Slow Memory

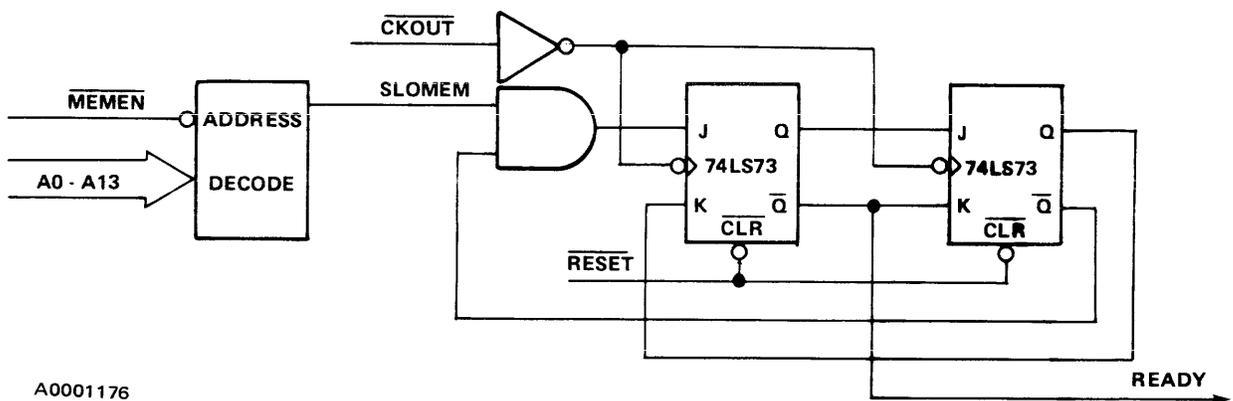


Figure 8-7. Double Wait States For Slow Memory

The TMS 9980A/81 uses direct-memory access (DMA) to permit high volume data transfer between an external I/O device and memory without direct CPU intervention. $\overline{\text{HOLD}}$ and HOLDA timing are shown in Figure 8-8. The maximum latency time between a hold request and a hold acknowledge by the TMS 9980A/81 is three clock cycles plus six memory cycles. Thus, the worst case response will be 7.5 microseconds for a system operating at 2 MHz.

8.3 Interrupts

The TMS 9980A/81 provides four maskable interrupt levels in addition to the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ functions. As in the TMS 9900 the CPU has a priority ranking system to resolve conflicts between

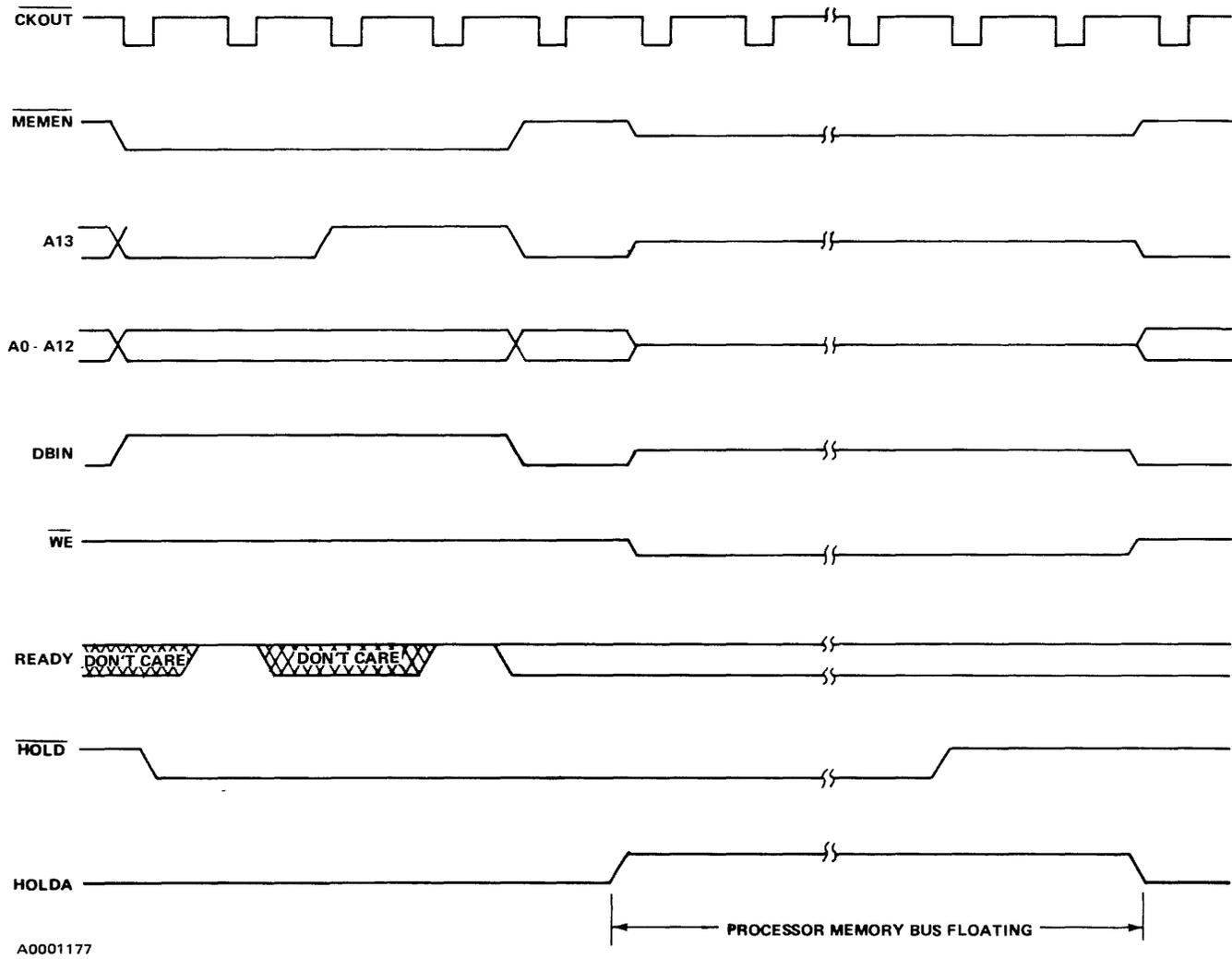


Figure 8-8. TMS 9980A/81 HOLD Timing

simultaneous interrupts and a level mask to disable lower priority interrupts. Once an interrupt is recognized, the CPU performs as a vectored context switch to the interrupt service routine. The $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ signals are also encoded on the interrupt-code input lines as opposed to the $\overline{\text{RESET}}$ and $\overline{\text{LOAD}}$ inputs on the TMS 9900. Figure 8-9 illustrates three of the possible interrupt configurations of the TMS 9900. The interrupt vector locations, device assignments, enabling mask values, and the interrupt codes are shown in Table 8-1. Figure 8-9(a) depicts the simplest configuration in which the reset and only one external interrupt are implemented. Figure 8-9(b) also has only one external interrupt, but implements the load signal as well as the reset signal. Figure 8-9(c) uses the SN74LS148 priority encoder to implement and prioritize all four external interrupt signals as well as the reset and load signals. The constraints described in Section 4.3.3 also apply to the TMS 9980A/81 with respect to masking interrupts; that is, an external interrupt mask should be altered only when the interrupt mask is at a level such that the interrupt will not be processed.

8.4 Input/Output

The TMS 9980A/81 uses the same three I/O modes as the TMS 9900: direct memory access (DMA), memory-mapped, and communications register unit (CRU). This multi-mode capability enables the designer to simply and easily optimize the I/O system to the application.

The CRU is a versatile command-driven I/O interface which provides up to 2048 directly addressable input or output bits. Both input and output bits can be addressed either individually or in fields from 1 to 16 bits. The TMS 9980A/81 employs CRUIN, CRUCLK, and A13 (for CRUOUT) and 11 bits (A2–A12) of the address bus to interface with the CRU system. Processor instructions can set, reset, or test any bit in the CRU array or move them between memory and the CRU. Figure 8-10 illustrates the development of a CRU single-bit address. Figure 8-11 depicts an 8-bit I/O interface utilizing the TMS 9901 programmable system interface, and Figure 8-12 depicts a 16-bit I/O interface implemented in TTL using the TIM 9905 (SN74LS251) and TIM 9906 (SN74LS259).

8.5 External Instructions

The TMS 9980A/81 has five external instructions that allow user-defined external functions to be initiated under program control. These instructions are CKON, CKOF, RSET, IDLE, and LREX. These mnemonics, except for IDLE, relate to functions implemented in the 990 minicomputer and do not restrict use of the instructions to initiate various user-defined functions. IDLE also causes the TMS 9980A/81 to enter the idle state and remain until an interrupt, RESET, or LOAD occurs. When any of these five instructions are executed by the TMS 9980A/81, a unique 3-bit code appears on A0, A1, and A13 along with a CRUCLK pulse. When the TMS 9980A/81 is in an idle state, the 3-bit code and CRUCLK pulses occur repeatedly until the idle state is terminated. The codes are shown in Table 8-2, and a circuit is shown in Figure 8-13 which can be used to decode these external instructions.

8.6 TMS 9980A/81 System Clock

The TMS 9980A/81 differs from the TMS 9900 in that it has an internal four-phase clock generator. This internal system clock generator is operated by providing a TTL level periodic wave of frequency equal to or less than 10 MHz to the CKIN terminal using a circuit similar to that shown in Figure 8-14. This external clock signal is divided by four to provide the necessary 2.5 MHz or less system clock frequency. System synchronization is maintained with the $\overline{\text{CKOUT}}$ signal, $\phi 3$.

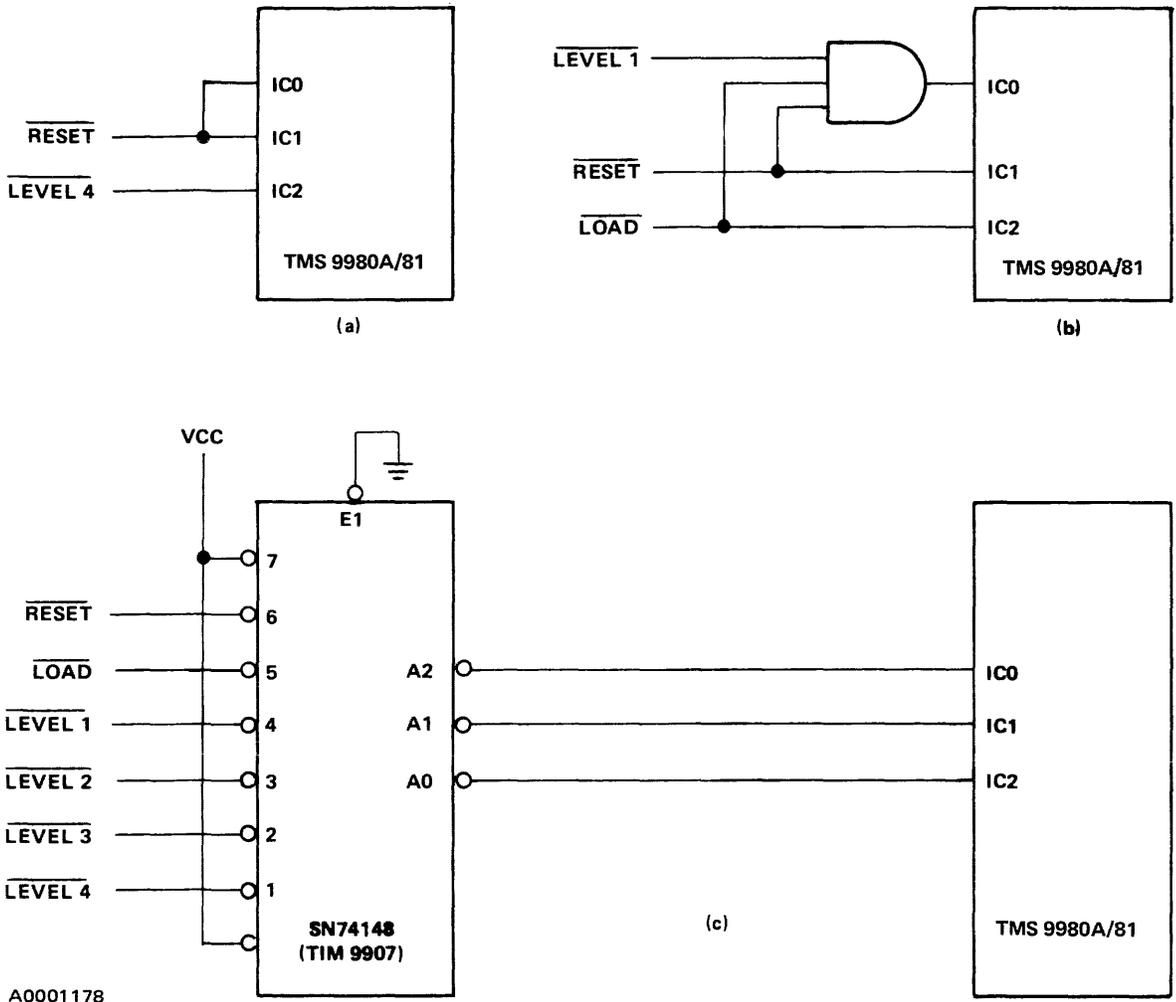
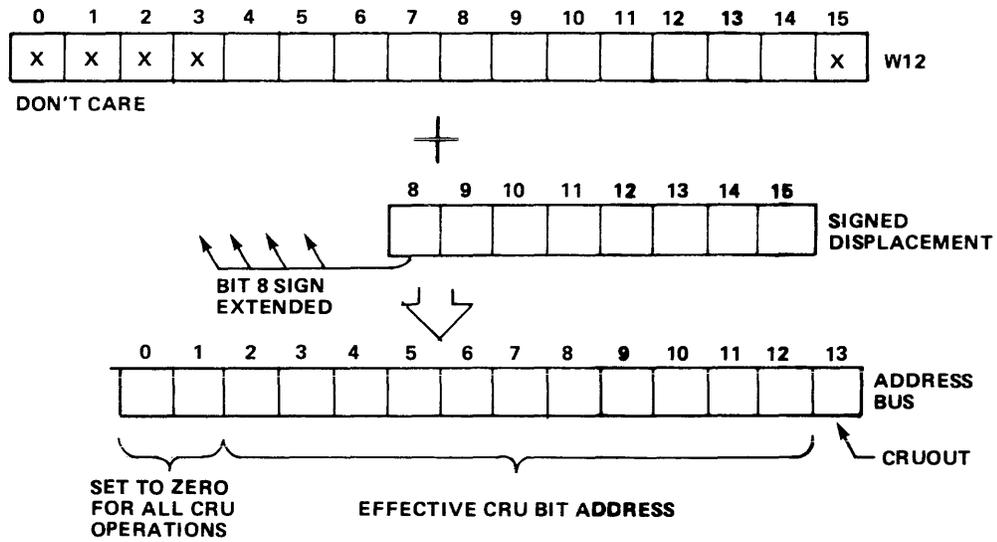


Figure 8-9. TMS 9980A/81 Interrupt Interfaces

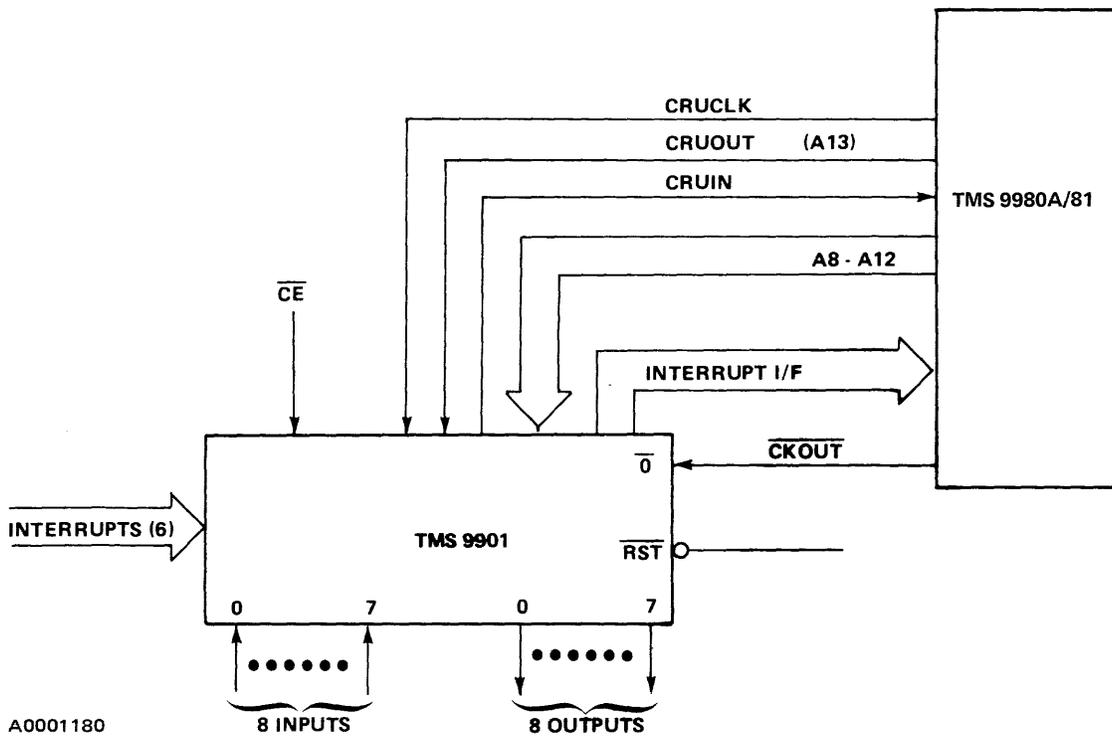
TABLE 8-1. INTERRUPT LEVEL DATA

INTERRUPT CODE (IC0–IC2)	FUNCTION	VECTOR LOCATION (MEMORY ADDRESS IN HEX)	DEVICE ASSIGNMENT	INTERRUPT MASK VALUES TO ENABLE (ST12 THROUGH ST15)
1 1 0	Level 4	0 0 1 0	External Device	4 Through F
1 0 1	Level 3	0 0 0 C	External Device	3 Through F
1 0 0	Level 2	0 0 0 8	External Device	2 Through F
0 1 1	Level 1	0 0 0 4	External Device	1 Through F
0 0 1	Reset	0 0 0 0	Reset Stimulus	Don't Care
0 1 0	Load	3 F F C	Load Stimulus	Don't Care
0 0 0	Reset	0 0 0 0	Reset Stimulus	Don't Care
1 1 1	No-Op	----	----	----



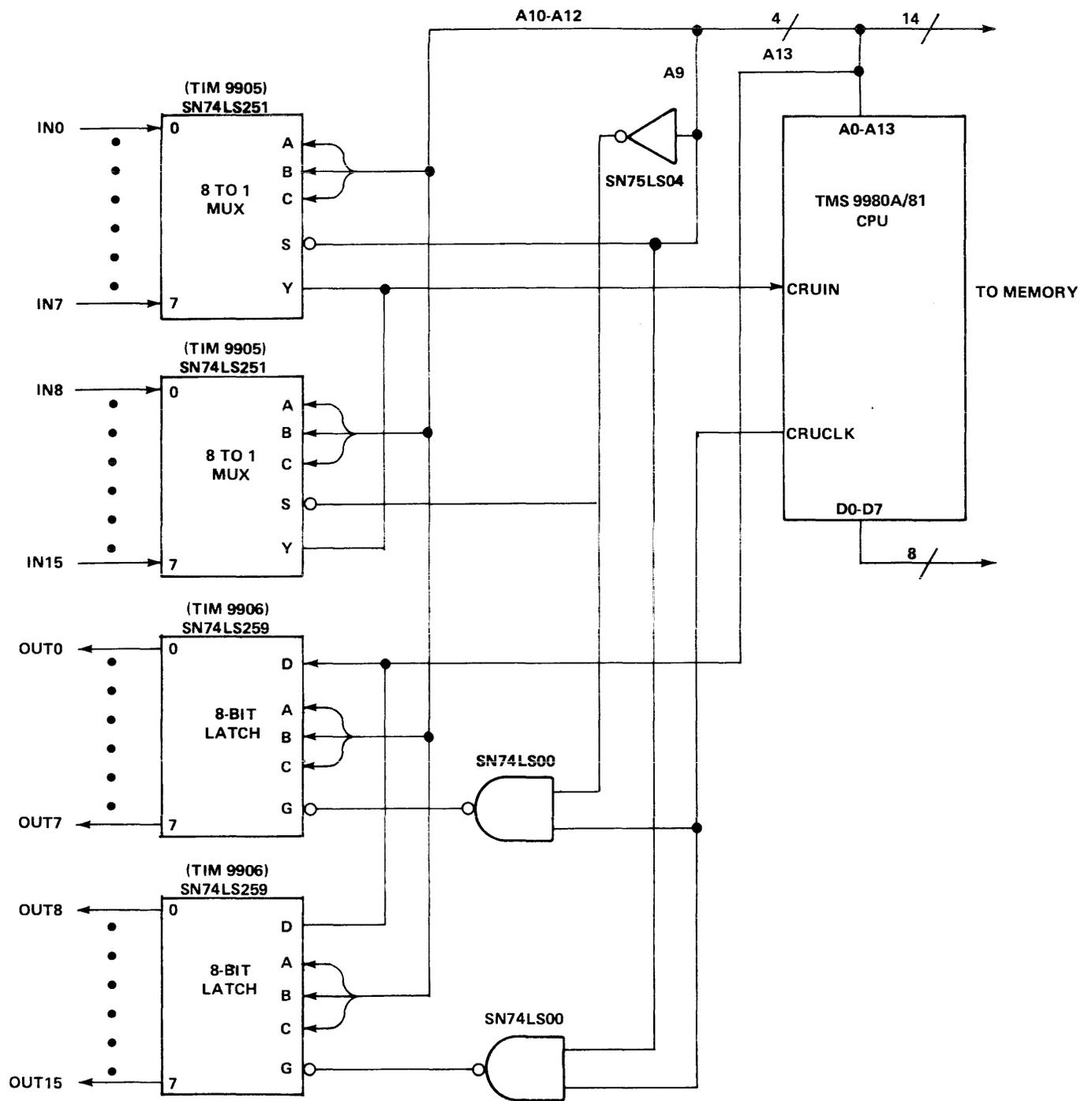
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Figure 8-10. TMS 9980A/81 Single-Bit CRU Address Development



A0001180

Figure 8-11. 8-Bit CRU Interface

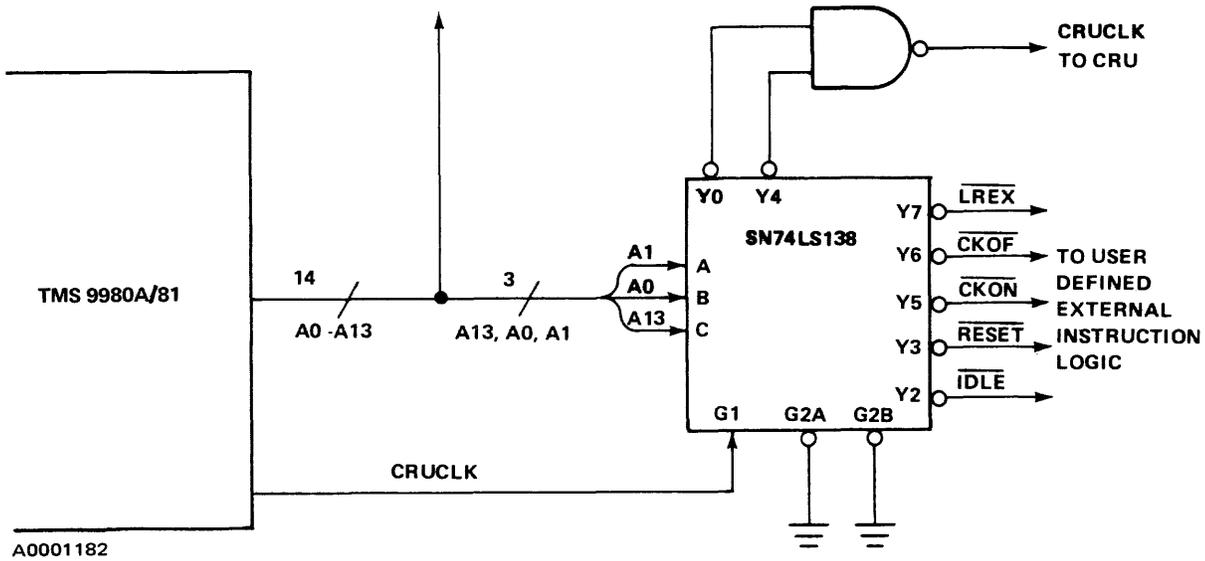


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Figure 8-12. TMS 9980A/81 16-Bit Input/Output Interface

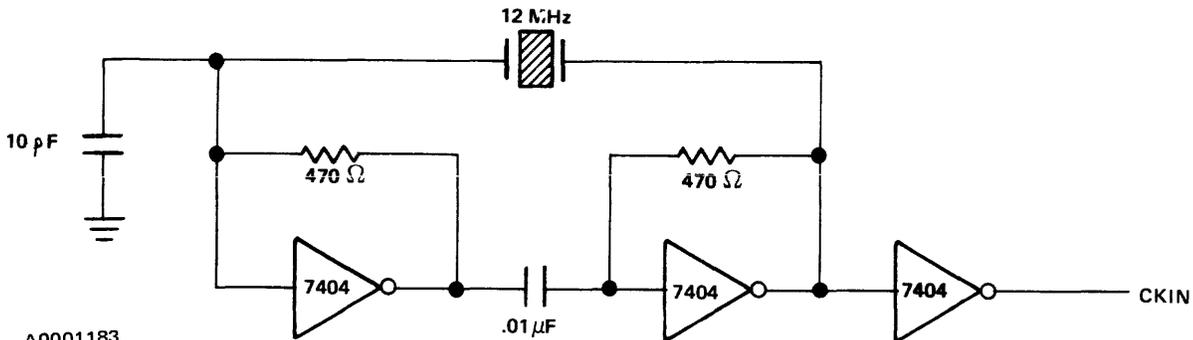
TABLE 8-2. EXTERNAL INSTRUCTION CODES

EXTERNAL INSTRUCTION	A13	A0	A1
LREX	H	H	H
CKOF	H	H	L
CKON	H	L	H
RSET	L	H	H
IDLE	L	H	L
CRU INSTRUCTIONS	H/L	L	L



A0001182

Figure 8-13. External Instruction Decode Logic



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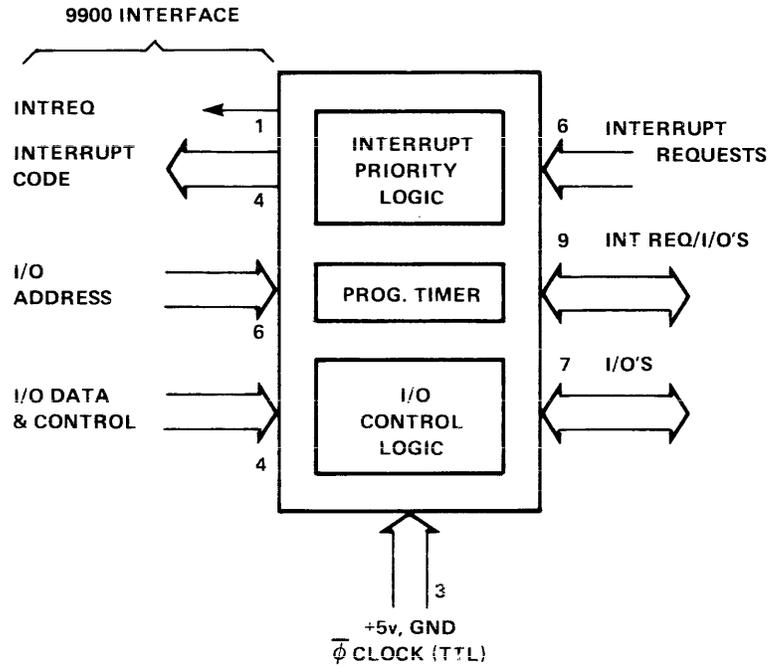
Figure 8-14. Example TMS 9980A/81 Clock Oscillator

SECTION IX

TMS 9900 FAMILY SUPPORT DEVICES

Texas Instruments will continue to introduce additional support circuits and development tools for the TMS 9900 family. The latest support circuits are the TMS 9901 programmable systems interface and the TMS 9902 asynchronous communication controller. Detailed discussion of the use and operation of each are contained in their respective data manual.

The next device to be released is the TMS 9903 synchronous communication controller, which will provide complete synchronous channel control capabilities to the TMS 9900 family. (See Figures 9-1, 9-2, and 9-3.)



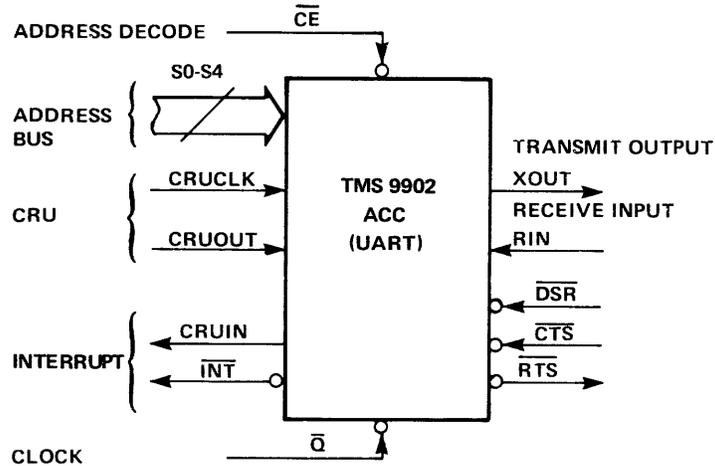
- CRU PERIPHERAL
- 22 SYSTEM INTERFACE PINS
 - 6 DEDICATED INTERRUPT INPUTS
 - INT 3 PROGRAMMABLE AS TIMER INTERRUPT FOR INTERVALS FROM 21 to 699 μ SEC
 - 7 DEDICATED I/O PORTS
 - 9 PINS PROGRAMMABLE AS INTERRUPTS OR I/O
- MAY BE STACKED FOR INTERRUPT AND I/O EXPANSION
- SINGLE 5 V SUPPLY
- N-CHANNEL SILICON GATE PROCESS
- 40-PIN DIP

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Figure 9-1. TMS 9901 Programmable System Interface



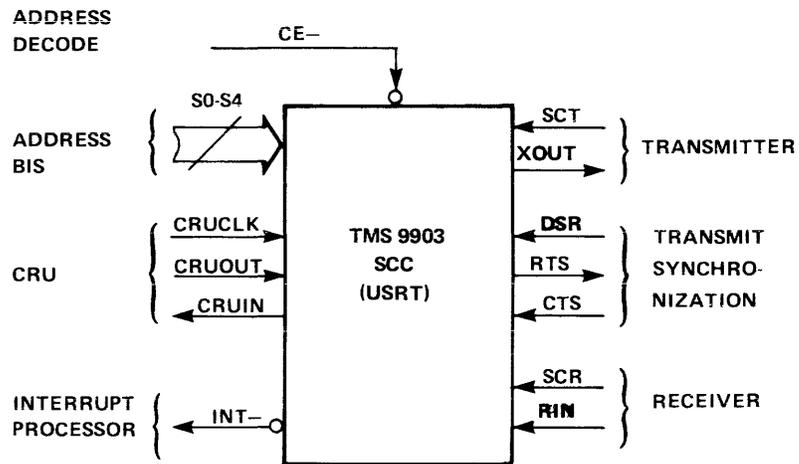
- 9900 CRU PERIPHERAL
- PROGRAMMABLE DATA RATE FROM 110 TO 76,800 BITS/SECOND
- PROGRAMMABLE CHARACTER LENGTH (5-8 BITS), STOP BITS (1, 1½, 2), PARITY (ODD, EVEN, NONE)
- ON-CHIP INTERVAL TIMER (64µSEC TO 16,384 µSEC)
- SINGLE 5v SUPPLY
- N-CHANNEL SILICON GATE PROCESS
- 18 PIN DIP

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Figure 9-2. TMS 9902 Asynchronous Communication Controller



- 9900 CRU PERIPHERAL
- DC TO 250K BITS/SEC DATA RATE
- PROGRAMMABLE SYNC REGISTER AND CHARACTER LENGTH
- BI-SYNC & SDLC COMPATIBLE
- ON-CHIP INTERVAL TIMER (64 μ SEC TO 16,384 μ SEC)
- SINGLE 5V SUPPLY
- N-CHANNEL SILICON GATE PROCESS
- 20 PIN 300 MIL DIP

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Figure 9-3. TMS 9903 Synchronous Communication Controller

APPENDIX A

TMS 9900 FAMILY MACHINE CYCLES

A.1 General Description of Machine Cycles

The TMS 9900 family of microprocessors execute a series of steps to perform an instruction or other operation. This basic step common to all operations is the machine cycle, which requires two clock cycles to execute. (Note: These machine cycles apply equally to the TMS 9980A/81 microprocessor, with the exception of the memory cycle as detailed below.) The TMS 9900 family machine cycles are divided into three categories described in the following paragraphs.

A.1.1 ALU Cycle

The ALU cycle performs an internal operation of the microprocessor. The memory interface control signals and CRU interface control signals are not affected by the execution of an ALU cycle, which takes two clock cycles to execute.

A.1.2 Memory Cycle

The memory cycle primarily performs a data transfer between the microprocessor and the external memory device. Appropriate memory bus control signals are generated by the microprocessor as a result of a memory cycle execution. The memory cycle takes $2+W$ (where W is the number of wait states) clock cycles to execute.

In the TMS 9980A/81, which has an 8-bit data bus, the memory cycle is composed of two data transfers to move a complete 16-bit word. The TMS 9980A/81 memory cycle takes $4+2W$ (where W is the number of wait states) clock cycles to execute. For the TMS 9980A/81 the following machine cycle sequences replace the memory sequences used in the instruction discussion.

CYCLE

1	Memory Read/Write	AB = Address of most significant byte ($A13 = 0$)
		DB = Most significant byte
2	Memory Read/Write	AB = Address of least significant byte ($A13 = 1$)
		DB = Least significant byte

A.1.3 CRU Cycle

The CRU cycle performs a bit transfer between the microprocessor and I/O devices. It takes two clock cycles to execute. The address of the CRU bit is set up during the first clock cycle. For an input operation

the CRUIN line is sampled by the microprocessor during the second clock cycle. For an output operation the data bit is set up on the CRUOUT line at the same time the address is set up. The CRUCLK line is pulsed during the second clock cycle of the CRU output cycle. Please refer to the specific TMS 99XX microprocessor data manual for timing diagrams.

The TMS 9900 executes its operations under the control of a microprogrammed control ROM. Each microinstruction specifies a machine cycle. A microprogram specifies a sequence of machine cycles. The TMS 9900 executes a specific sequence of machine cycles for a specific operation. These sequences are detailed on the following pages. The information can be used by the systems designers to determine the bus contents and other interface behavior at various instants during a certain TMS 9900 operation. This description is maintained at the address bus (AD) and data bus (DB) levels.

A.2 TMS 9900 Machine Cycle Sequences

Most TMS 9900 instructions execution consists of two parts: 1) the data derivation and 2) operation execution. The data derivation sequence depends on the addressing mode for the data. Since the addressing modes are common to all instructions, the data derivation sequence is the same for the same addressing mode, regardless of the instruction. Therefore, the data derivation sequences are described first. These are then referred to in appropriate sequence in the instruction execution description.

A.3 Terms and Definitions

The following terms are used in describing the instructions of the TMS 9900:

TERM	DEFINITION
B	Byte Indicator (1 = byte, 0 = word)
C	Bit count
D	Destination address register
DA	Destination address
IOP	Immediate operand
PC	Program counter
Result	Result of operation performed by instruction
S	Source address register
SA	Source address
ST	Status register
STn	Bit n of status register
SD	Source data register internal to the TMS 9900 microprocessor*
W	Workspace register
SRn	Workspace register n
(n)	Contents of n
Ns	Number of machine cycles to derive source operand
Nd	Number of machine cycles to derive destination operand
AB	Address Bus of the TMS 9900
DB	Data Bus of the TMS 9900
NC	No change from previous cycle

*NOTE: The contents of the SD register remain latched at the last value written by the processor unless changed by the ALU. Therefore, during all memory read or ALU machine cycles the SD register and hence the data bus will contain the operand last written to the data bus by the CPU or the results of the last ALU cycle to have loaded the SD register.

A.4 Data Derivation Sequences

A.4.1 Workspace Register

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory Read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Operand

A.4.2 Workspace Register Indirect

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory Read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Workspace register contents
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	Memory Read	AB = Workspace register content DB = Operand

A.4.3 Workspace Register Indirect Auto-Increment (Byte Operand)

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory Read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Workspace register contents
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	Memory write	AB = Workspace register address DB = (WRn) + 1
4	Memory Read	AB = Workspace register contents DB = Operand

A.4.4 Workspace Register Indirect Auto-Increment (Word Operand)

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Workspace register contents
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory write	AB = Workspace register address DB = (WRn) + 2
5	Memory read	AB = Workspace register contents DB = Operand

A.4.5 Symbolic

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
3	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Symbolic address
4	ALU	AB = NC DB = 0000 ₁₆
5	Memory read	AB = Symbolic address DB = Operand

A.4.6 Indexed

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Workspace register contents
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Symbolic address
4	ALU	AB = PC+2 DB = Workspace register contents
5	Memory read	AB = Symbolic address + (WRn) DB = Operand

A.5 Instruction Execution Sequences

A.5.1 A, AB, C, CB, S, SB, SOC, SOCB, SZC, SZCB, MOV, MOVB, COC, CZC, XOR

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate sequence for source data addressing mode, from the data derivation sequences	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
N _d	Insert appropriate sequence for destination data addressing mode from the data derivation sequences	
3+N _s +N _d	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+N _s +N _d	Memory write	AB = DA (Note 4) DB = Result

NOTES:

- 1) Since the memory operations of the TMS 9900 microprocessor family fetch or store 16-bit words; the source and the destination data fetched for byte operations are 16-bit words. The ALU operates on

the specified bytes of these words and modifies the appropriate byte in the destination word. The adjacent byte in the destination word remains unaltered. At the completion of the instruction, the destination word, consisting of the modified byte and the adjacent unmodified byte, is stored in a single-memory write operation.

- 2) For MOV_B instruction the destination data word (16 bits) is fetched. The specified byte in the destination word is replaced with the specified byte of the source-data word. The resultant destination word is then stored at the destination address.
- 3) For MOV instruction the destination data word (16 bits) is fetched although not used.
- 4) For C, CB, COC, CZC instructions cycle $4+N_s+N_d$ above is an ALU cycle with AB = DA and DB = SD.

A.5.2 MPY (Multiply)

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
N_s	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data (multiplier) addressing mode	
$3+N_s$	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
$4+N_s$	Memory read	AB = Workspace register address DB = Workspace register contents
$5+N_s$	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
$6+N_s$	ALU	AB = NC DB = Multiplier
$7+N_s$	16 ALU	Multiply the two operands AB = NC DB = MSH of partial product
$22+N_s$	Memory write	AB = Workspace register address DB = MSH of the product
$23+N_s$	ALU	AB = DA+2 DB = MSH of product
$24+N_s$	Memory write	AB = DA+2 DB = LSH of the product

A.5.3 DIV (Divide)

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data (divisor) addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+N _s	Memory read	AB = Address of workspace register DB = Contents of workspace register
5+N _s	ALU	(Check overflow) AB = NC DB = Divisor
6+N _s	ALU	(Skip if overflow to next instruction fetch) AB = NC DB = SD
7+N _s	Memory read	AB = DA+2 DB = Contents of DA+2
8+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
9+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
	Divide sequence consisting of N _i cycles where 48 ≤ N _i ≤ 32. N _i is data dependent	AB = NC DB = SD
10+N _s +N _i	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
11+N _s +N _i	Memory write	AB = Workspace register address DB = Quotient
12+N _s +N _i	ALU	AB = DA+2 DB = Quotient
13+N _s +N _i	Memory write	AB = DA+2 DB = Remainder

A.5.4 XOP

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	Instruction decode AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SA
5+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
6+N _s	Memory read	AB = $40_{16} + 4 \times D$ DB = New workspace pointer
7+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SA
8+N _s	Memory write	AB = Address of WR11 DB = SA
9+N _s	ALU	AB = Address of WR15 DB = SA
10+N _s	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 15 DB = Status register contents
11+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = PC+2
12+N _s	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 14 DB = PC+2
13+N _s	ALU	AB = Address of WR13 DB = SD
14+N _s	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = WP
15+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
16+N _s	Memory read	AB = $42_{16} + 4 \times D$ DB = New PC
17+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.5 CLR, SETO, INV, NEG, INC, INCT, DEC, DECT

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
N _s	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+N _s	Memory write	AB = Source data address DB = Modified source data

NOTE: The operand is fetched for CLR and SETO although not used.

A.5.6 ABS

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	Test source data AB = NC DB = SD
4+N _s	ALU	Jump to 5'+N _s if data positive AB = NC DB = SD
5+n _s	ALU	Negate source AB = NC DB = SD
6+N _s	Memory write	AB = Source data address DB = Modified source data
5'+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.7 X

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert the appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

NOTE: Add sequence for the instruction specified by the operand.

A.5.8 B

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

NOTE: The source data is fetched, although it is not used.

A.5.9 BL

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+Ns	ALU	AB = Address of WR11 DB = SD
5+Ns	Memory write	AB = Address of WR11 DB = PC+2

NOTE: The source data is fetched although it is not used.

A.5.10 BLWP

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+Ns	ALU	AB = Address of WR15 DB = NC
5+Ns	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 15 DB = Status register contents
6+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = PC+2
7+Ns	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 14 DB = PC+2
8+Ns	ALU	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = SD
9+Ns	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = WP
10+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
11+Ns	Memory read	AB = Address of new PC DB = New PC
12+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.11 LDCR

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence	
3+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
5+Ns	ALU	AB = Address of WR12 DB = SD
6+Ns	ALU	AB = Address of WR12 DB = SD
7+Ns	Memory read	AB = Address of WR12 DB = Contents of WR12
8+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
C	Enable CRUCLK. Shift next bit onto CRUOUT line. Increment CRU bit address on AB. Iterate this sequence C times, where C is number of bits to be transferred.	AB = Address + 2 Increments C Times DB = SD
9+Ns+C	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.12 STCR

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
Ns	Insert appropriate data derivation sequence according to the source data addressing mode	
3+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4+Ns	Memory read	AB = Address of WR12 DB = Contents of WR12
5+Ns	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
6+N _s	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
C	Input selected CRU bit. Increment CRU bit address. Iterate this sequence C times where C is the number of CRU bits to be input.	AB = Address + 2 C times DB = SD
7+N _s +C	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
8+N _s +C	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
C'	Right adjust (with zero fill) byte (if C < 8) or word (if 8 < C < 16).	AB = NC DB = SD
C'	= 8-C-1 if C ≤ 8 = 16-C-1 if 8 < C ≤ 16	
9+N _s +C+C'	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
10+N _s +C+C'	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
11+N _s +C+C'	ALU	AB = Source address DB = SD
12+N _s +C+C'	Memory write	AB = Source address DB = I/O data

NOTE: For STCR instruction the 16-bit word at the source address is fetched. If the number of CRU bits to be transferred is ≤ 8, the CRU data is right justified (with zero fill) in the specified byte of the source word and source data word thus modified is then stored back in memory. If the bits to be transferred is > 8 then the source data fetched is not used. The CRU data in this case is right justified in 16-bit word which is then stored at the source address.

A.5.13 SBZ, SBO

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = Address of WR12 DB = Contents of WR12
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
6	CRU	Set CRUOUT = 0 for SBZ = 1 for SBO Enable CRUCLK

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
		AB = CRU bit address
		DB = SD

A.5.14 TB

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = Address of WR12 DB = Contents of WR12
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
6	CRU	Set ST(2) = CRUIN AB = Address of CRU bit DB = SD

A.5.15 JEQ, JGT, JH, JHE, JL, JLE, JLT, JMP, JNC, JNE, JNO, JOC, JOP

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	Skip to cycle #5 if TMS 9900 status satisfies the specified jump condition AB = NC DB = SD
4	ALU	AB = NC DB = Displacement value
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.16 SRA, SLA, SRL, SRC

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	Memory read	AB = Address of the workspace register DB = Contents of the workspace register
4	ALU	Skip to cycle #9 if C ≠ 0 C = Shift count AB = NC DB = SD
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
6	Memory read	AB = Address of WRO DB = Contents of WRO
7	ALU	AB = Source address DB = SD
8	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
9		AB = NC DB = SD
C	Shift the contents of the specified workspace register in the specified direction by the specified number of bits. Set appropriate status bits.	
9+C	Memory write	AB = Address of the workspace register DB = Result
10+C	ALU	Increment PC AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.17 AI, ANDI, ORI

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = Address of workspace register DB = Contents of workspace register
5	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Immediate operand
6	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
7	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register DB = Result of instruction

A.5.18 CI

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = NC
3	Memory read	AB = Address of workspace register DB = Contents of workspace register
4	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
5	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Immediate operand

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
6	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
7	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.19 LI

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Immediate operand
5	ALU	AB = Address of workspace register DB = SD
6	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register DB = Immediate operand

A.5.20 LWPI

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Immediate operand
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.21 LIM1

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	Memory read	AB = PC+2 DB = Immediate data
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
6	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
7	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.22 STWP, STST

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = Address of workspace register DB = SD
4	Memory write	AB = Address of the workspace register DB = TMS 9900 internal register contents (WP or ST)

A.5.23 CKON, CKOF, LREX, RSET

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	CRU	Enable CRUCLK AB = External instruction code DB = SD
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
6	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.5.24 IDLE

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1	Memory read	AB = PC DB = Instruction
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
4	CRU	Enable CRUCLK AB = Idle code DB = SD
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
6	ALU	AB = NC DB = NC

A.6 Machine-Cycle Sequences in Response to External Stimuli

A.6.1 RESET

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1*	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
2	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
3	ALU	AB = 0 DB = 0
4	Memory read	AB = 0 DB = Workspace pointer
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = Status
6	Memory write	AB = Address of WR15 DB = Contents of Status register
7	ALU	AB = NC DB = PC
8	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 14 DB = PC+2
9	ALU	AB = Address of WR13 DB = SD
10	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = WP
11	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
12	Memory read	AB = 2 DB = New PC
13	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.6.2 LOAD

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1**	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
2	Memory read	AB = FFFC ₁₆ DB = Contents of FFFC ₁₆
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = Status
4	Memory write	AB = Address WR15 DB = Contents of status register
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = PC
6	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace DB = PC+2
7	ALU	AB = Address of WR13 DB = SD
8	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = WP

*Occurs immediately after RESET is released.

**Occurs immediately after last clock cycle of preceding instruction.

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
9	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
10	Memory Read	AB = FFFE DB = New PC
11	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

A.6.3 Interrupts

CYCLE	TYPE	DESCRIPTION
1*	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
2	Memory read	AB = Address of interrupt vector DB = WP
3	ALU	AB = NC DB = Status
4	Memory write	AB = Address of WR15 DB = Status
5	ALU	AB = NC DB = PC
6	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 14 DB = PC+2
7	ALU	AB = Address of WR13 DB = SD
8	Memory write	AB = Address of workspace register 13 DB = WP
9	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD
10	Memory read	AB = Address of second word of interrupt vector DB = New PC
11	ALU	AB = NC DB = SD

*Occurs immediately after last clock cycle of preceding instruction

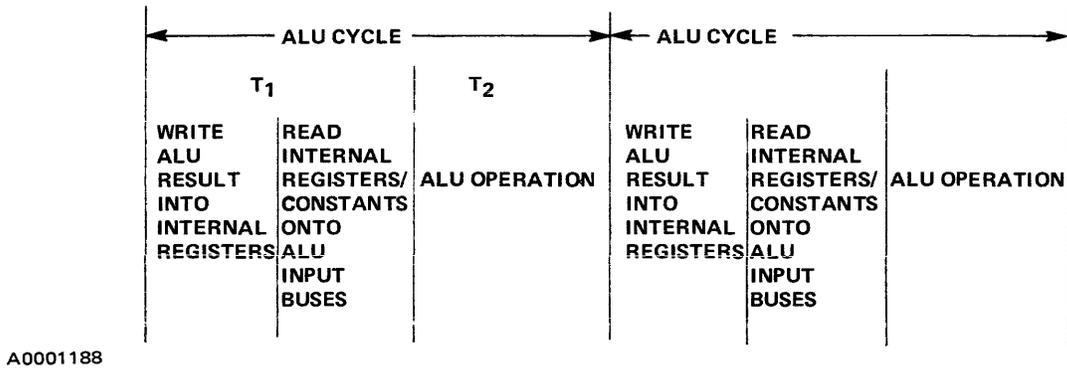


Figure A-1. ALU Cycle

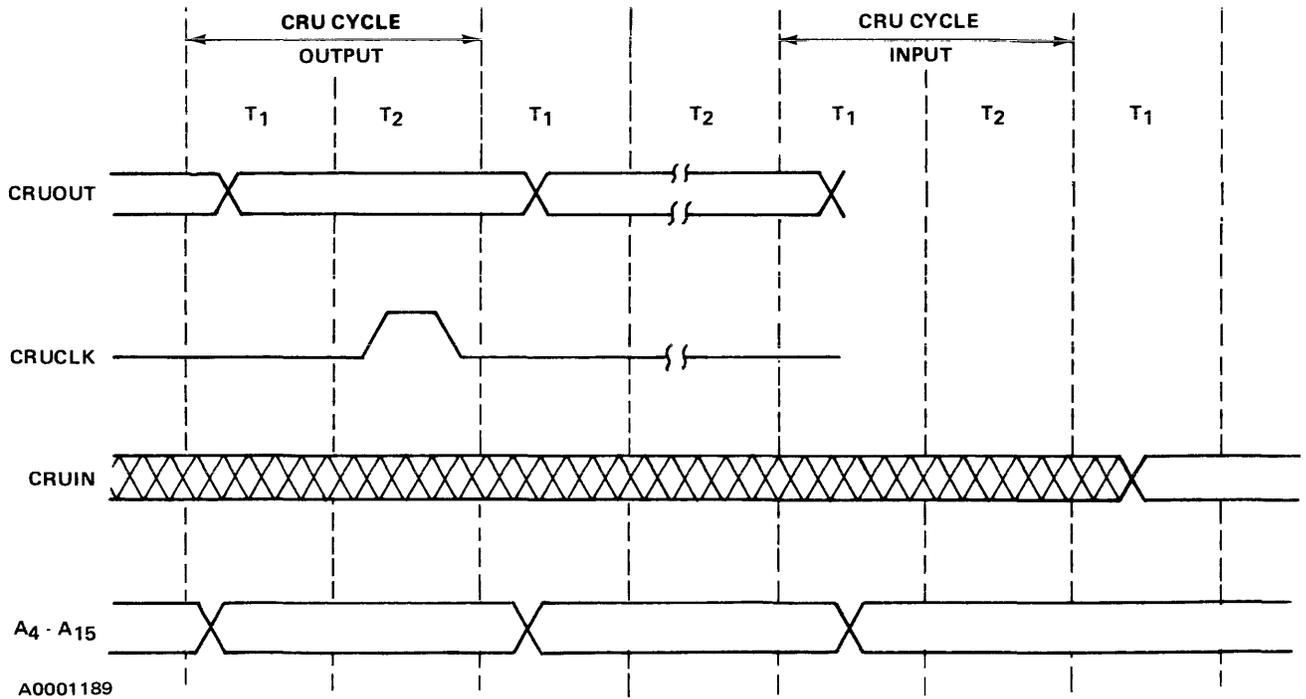


Figure A-2. CRU Cycle

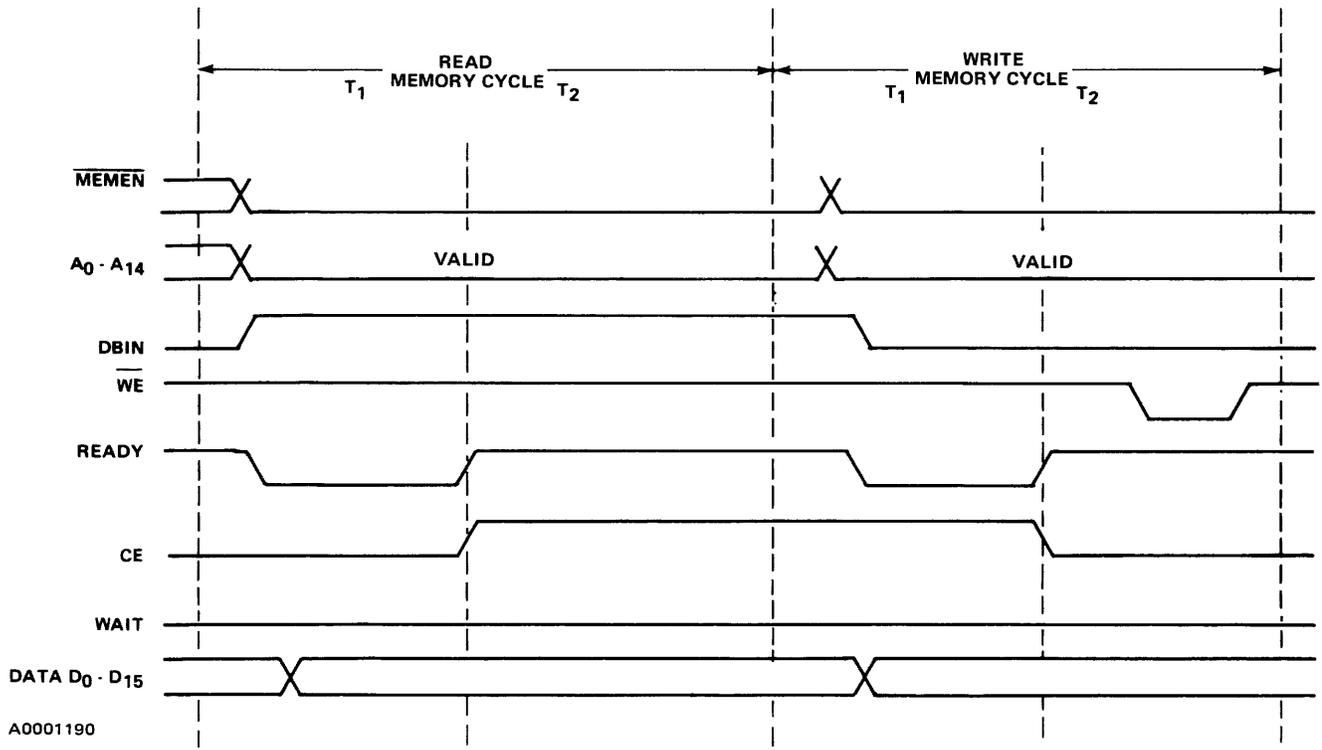


Figure A-3. TMS 9900 Memory Cycle (No Wait States)

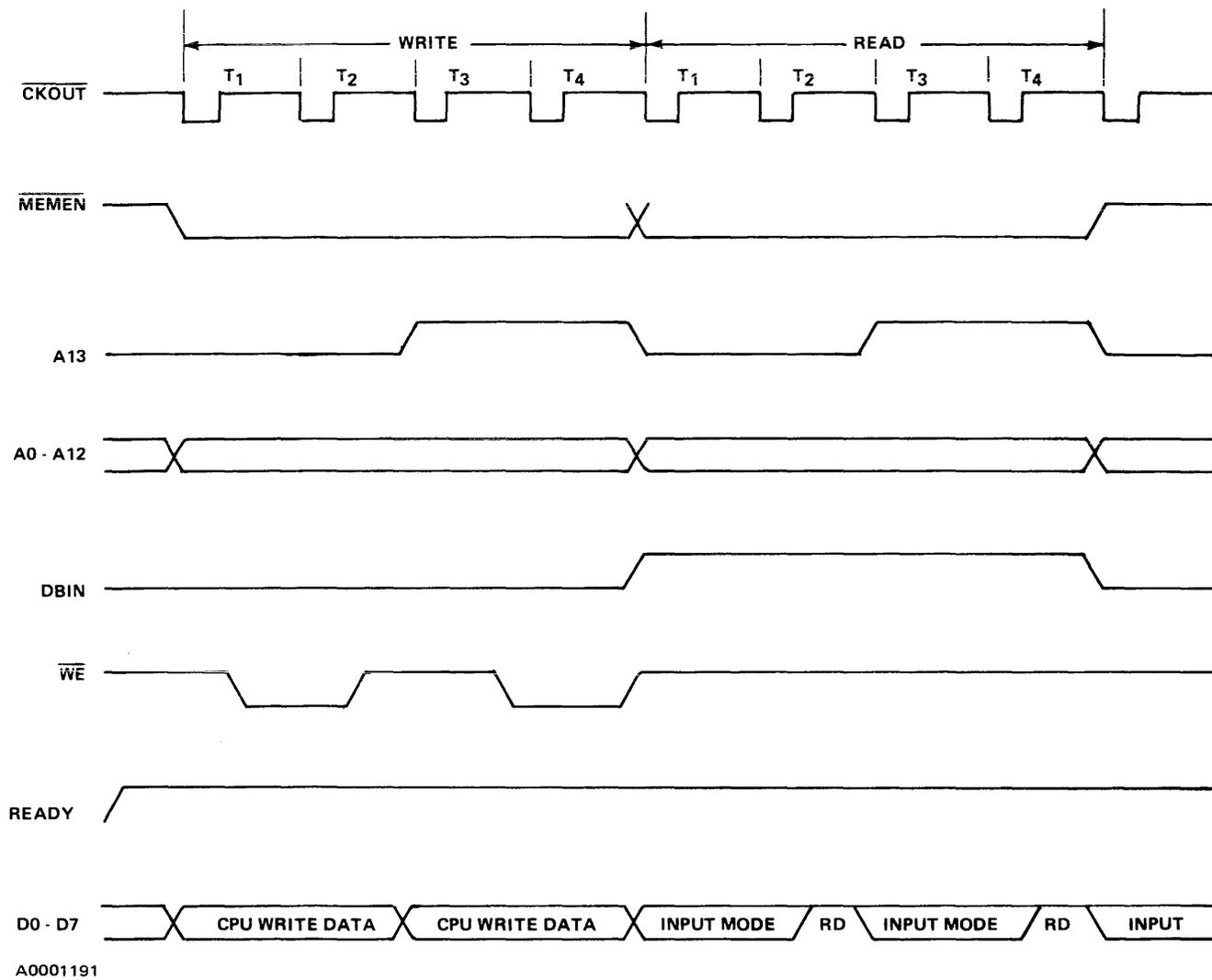


Figure A-4. TMS 9980A/81 Memory Cycle (No Wait States)

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