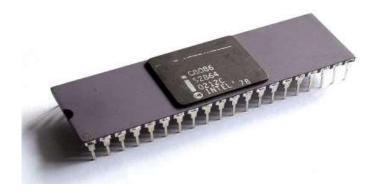
- The 8086 is a 16-bit microprocessor chip designed by Intel between early 1976 and 1978, when it was released. The Intel 8088, released July 1979, is a slightly modified chip with an external 8-bit data bus.
- The 8086 gave rise to the x86 architecture, which eventually became Intel's most successful line of processors.
- On June 5th 2018, Intel released a limited-edition CPU celebrating the anniversary of the Intel 8086, called the Intel Core i7-8086K.



<u>Memory</u>

Program, data and stack memories occupy the same memory space. The total addressable memory size is 1MB KB. As the most of the processor instructions use 16-bit pointers the processor can effectively address only 64 KB of memory. To access memory outside of 64 KB the CPU uses special segment registers to specify where the code, stack and data 64 KB segments are positioned within 1 MB of memory (see the "Registers" section below).

16-bit pointers and data are stored as:

address: low-order byte

address+1: high-order byte

32-bit addresses are stored in " segment: offset " format as:

address: low-order byte of segment address+2: low-order byte of offset

address+1: high-order byte of segment address+3: high-order byte of offset

Physical memory address pointed by segment: offset pair is calculated as: address = (<segment> * 16) + <offset>

• Program memory :

program can be located anywhere in memory.

• Data memory :

the 8086 processor can access data in any one out of 4 available segments, which limits the size of accessible memory to 256 KB (if all four segments point to different 64 KB blocks). Accessing data from the Data, Code, Stack or Extra segments can be usually done by prefixing instructions with the DS, CS, SS or ES (some registers and instructions by default may use the ES or SS segments instead of DS segment).

• Stack memory:

can be placed anywhere in memory

Interrupts

The processor has the following interrupts:

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

Software interrupts can be caused by:

- INT instruction breakpoint interrupt. This is a type 3 interrupt.
- INT <interrupt number> instruction any one interrupt from available 256 interrupts.
- INTO instruction interrupt on overflow

I/O ports

65536 8-bit I/O ports. These ports can be also addressed as 32768 16-bit I/O ports.

Registers

Most of the registers contain data/instruction offsets within 64 KB memory segment. There are four different 64 KB segments for instructions, stack, data and extra data. To specify where in 1 MB of processor memory these 4 segments are located the 8086 microprocessor uses four segment registers:

 Code segment (CS) is a 16-bit register containing address of 64 KB segment with processor instructions. The processor uses CS segment for all accesses to instructions referenced by instruction pointer (IP) register.

Intel Processors Generations <u>Intel 8086</u>

• **Stack segment (**SS) is a **16-bit register** containing address of 64KB segment with program stack.

 Data segment (DS) is a 16-bit register containing address of 64KB segment with program data. By default, the processor assumes that all data referenced by general registers (AX, BX, CX, DX) and index register(SI, DI) is located in the data segment. DS register can be changed directly using POP and LDS instructions.

• Extra segment (ES) is a 16-bit register containing address of 64KB segment, usually with program data

All general registers of the 8086 microprocessor can be used for arithmetic and logic operations. The general registers are:

- Accumulator register consists of 2 8-bit registers AL and AH, which can be combined together and used as a 16-bit register AX. AL in this case contains the low-order byte of the word, and AH contains the high order byte. Accumulator can be used for I/O operations and string manipulation.
- Base register consists of 2 8-bit registers BL and BH, which can be combined together and used as a 16-bit register BX. BL in this case contains the low-order byte of the word, and BH contains the highorder byte. BX register usually contains a data pointer used for based, based indexed or register indirect addressing.

- Count register consists of 2 8-bit registers CL and CH, which can be combined together and used as a 16-bit register CX. When combined, CL register contains the low-order byte of the word, and CH contains the high-order byte. Count register can be used as a counter in string manipulation and shift/rotate instructions.
- Data register consists of 2 8-bit registers DL and DH, which can be combined together and used as a 16-bit register DX. When combined, DL register contains the low-order byte of the word, and DH contains the high-order byte. Data register can be used as a port number in I/O operations

Intel Processors Generations <u>Intel 8086</u>

The following registers are **both** general and index registers:

- Stack Pointer (SP) is a 16-bit register pointing to program stack.
- Base Pointer (BP) is a 16-bit register pointing to data in stack segment. BP register is usually used for based, based indexed or register indirect addressing.
- Source Index (SI) is a 16-bit register. SI is used for indexed, based indexed and register indirect addressing, as well as a source data address in string manipulation instructions.
- Destination Index (DI) is a 16-bit register. DI is used for indexed, based indexed and register indirect addressing, as well as a destination data address in string manipulation instructions.

Other registers:

Instruction Pointer (IP) is a 16-bit register.

Flags is a 16-bit register containing 9 1-bit flags:

- 1. Overflow Flag (OF)
- 2. Direction Flag (DF)
- 3. Interrupt-enable Flag (IF)
- 4. Single-step Flag (TF)
- 5. Sign Flag (SF)
- 6. Zero Flag (ZF)
- 7. Auxiliary carry Flag (AF)
- 8. Parity Flag (PF)
- 9. Carry Flag (CF)

Instruction Set

Instruction set of Intel 8086 processor consists of the following instructions:

- 1. Data moving instructions.
- 2. Arithmetic add, subtract, increment, decrement, convert byte/word and compare.
- 3. Logic AND, OR, exclusive OR, shift/rotate and test.
- 4. String manipulation load, store, move, compare and scan for byte/word.
- 5. Control transfer conditional, unconditional, call subroutine and return from subroutine.
- 6. Input / Output instructions.
- 7. Other setting/clearing flag bits, stack operations, software interrupts, etc.

Addressing modes

- 1. Implied the data value/data address is implicitly associated with the instruction.
- 2. Register references the data in a register or in a register pair.
- 3. Immediate the data is provided in the instruction.
- 4. Direct the instruction operand specifies the memory address where data is located.
- 5. Register indirect instruction specifies a register containing an address, where data is located. This addressing mode works with SI, DI, BX and BP registers.

- 6. Based 8-bit or 16-bit instruction operand is added to the contents of a base register (BX or BP), the resulting value is a pointer to location where data resides.
- 7. Indexed 8-bit or 16-bit instruction operand is added to the contents of an index register (SI or DI), the resulting value is a pointer to location where data resides.
- 8. Based Indexed the contents of a base register (BX or BP) is added to the contents of an index register (SI or DI), the resulting value is a pointer to location where data resides.
- 9. Based Indexed with displacement 8-bit or 16-bit instruction operand is added to the contents of a base register (BX or BP) and index register (SI or DI), the resulting value is a pointer to location where data resides.

Intel 8086 registers				
¹ 9 ¹ 8 ¹ 7 ¹ 6 ¹ 5 ¹ 4 ¹ 3 ¹ 2 ¹ 1 ¹ 0 ⁰ 9 ⁰ 8 ⁰ 7 ⁰ 6 ⁰ 5 ⁰ 4 ⁰ 3 ⁰ 2 ⁰ 1 ⁰ 0 (bit position)				
Main registers				
	AH	AL		AX (primary accumulator)
	BH	BL		BX (base, accumulator)
	СН	CL		CX (counter, accumulator)
	DH	DL		DX (accumulator, extended acc.)
Index registers				
0000	SI		Source Index	
0000	DI			Destination Index
0000	BP		Base Pointer	
0000	SP			Stack Pointer
Program counter				
0000	l. I	P		Instruction Pointer
Segment registers				
	CS	(0000	Code Segment
	DS		0000	Data Segment
	ES		0000	Extra Segment
	SS	(0000	Stack Segment
Status register				
	O D I T	S Z - A -	P - C	Flags

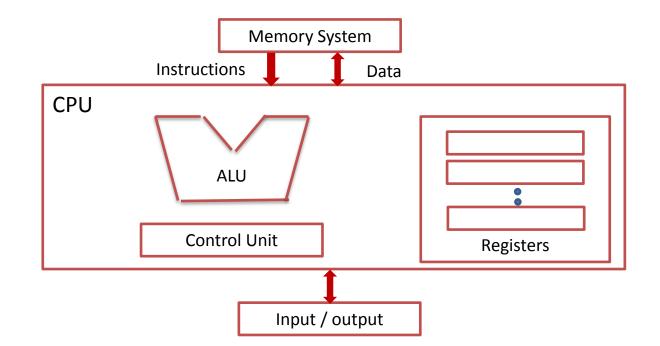
The Intel 8088 ("eighty-eighty-eight") microprocessor is a variant of the Intel 8086. Introduced on July 1979, the 8088 had an eight-bit external data bus instead of the 16-bit bus of the 8086. The 16-bit registers and the one megabyte address range were unchanged, however. In fact, according to the Intel documentation, the 8086 and 8088 have the same execution unit (EU) only the bus interface unit (BIU) is different. The original IBM PC was based on the 8088.

CPU Basics

A typical CPU has three major components:

- (1) Register set
- (2) Arithmetic logic unit (ALU)
- (3) Control unit (CU)
- *The register* set differs from one computer architecture to another. It is usually a combination of general-purpose and special purpose registers.
- *General-purpose registers* are used for *any purpose*, hence the name general purpose.
- **Special-purpose registers** have *specific functions* within the CPU. For example, the *program counter (PC)* is a special-purpose register that is used to hold the address of the instruction to be executed next. Another example of special-purpose registers is the *instruction register (IR)*, which is used to hold the instruction that is currently executed.

- The ALU provides the circuitry needed to perform the arithmetic, logical and shift operations demanded of the instruction set.
- The *control unit* is the entity responsible for fetching the instruction to be executed from the main memory and decoding and then executing it.
 Figure below shows the main components of the CPU and its interactions with the memory system and the input/ output devices.



The **CPU fetches instructions** from memory, reads and writes data from and to memory, and transfers data from and to input/output devices. A typical and simple execution cycle can be summarized as follows:

- 1. The next instruction to be executed, whose address is obtained from the *PC*, is fetched from the memory and stored in the *IR*.
- 2. The instruction is **decoded**.
- 3. Operands are fetched from the memory and stored in *CPU* registers, if needed.
- 4. The instruction is **executed**.
- 5. **Results** are **transferred** from *CPU registers* to the *memory*, if needed.

The actions of the CPU during an execution cycle are defined by micro-orders issued by the control unit. These micro-orders are individual control signals sent over dedicated control lines.

For example

- Let us assume that we want to execute an instruction that moves the contents of register X to register Y.
- Let us also assume that **both registers** are *connected* to the **data bus**, D.
- The control unit will issue a control signal to tell register X to place its contents on the data bus D. After some delay,
- another control signal will be sent to tell register Y to read from data bus D. The activation of the control signals is determined using either hardwired control or microprogramming.

Register Set

Registers are essentially extremely fast memory locations within the *CPU* that are *used* to create and store the results of *CPU* operations and other calculations. Different computers have *different register sets*.

Memory Access Registers

Two registers are essential in memory write and read operations: the *memory data register* (MDR) and *memory address register* (MAR).

In order to *perform* a write operation into a specified memory location, the MDR and MAR are used as follows:

- 1. The **word** to be **stored** into the **memory location** is **first loaded** by the **CPU** into **MDR**.
- 2. The **address** of the **location** into which the **word** is to be **stored** is **loaded** by the *CPU* into a *MAR*.
- 3. A write signal is issued by the CPU.

To perform a memory read operation, the *MDR* and *MAR* are used as follows:

- 1. The **address** of the **location** from which the **word** is to be **read** is **loaded** into the *MAR*.
- 2. A read signal is issued by the *CPU*.
- 3. The **required word** will be **loaded** by the **memory** into the *MDR* ready for **use** by the *CPU*.

Instruction Fetching Registers

Two main registers are involved in **fetching an instruction** for **execution**: the *program counter* (*PC*) and the **instruction register** (*IR*).

- The *PC* is the register that **contains** the **address of the next instruction** to be **fetched**.
- The **fetched instruction** is **loaded** in the *IR* for **execution**.
- After a **successful** instruction **fetch**, the *PC* is **updated** to point to the **next instruction** to be **executed**.
- In the case of a **branch operation**, the *PC* is **updated** to point to the **branch target instruction** after the branch is **resolved**, that is, the target address is **known**.

Condition Registers

Condition registers, or flags, are used to maintain status information.

Some architectures contain a special program status word (*PSW*) register.

The *PSW* contains bits that are set by the *CPU* to indicate the current status of an executing program. These indicators are typically for arithmetic operations, interrupts, memory protection information, or processor status.

- Special-Purpose Address Registers
- Index Register: The index register holds an address displacement. Index addressing is indicated in the instruction by including the name of the index register in parentheses and using the symbol X to indicate the constant to be added.
- Segment Pointers: the address issued by the processor should consist of a segment number (base) and a displacement (or an offset) within the segment. A segment register holds the address of the base of the segment.
- Stack Pointer: Two specific operations can be performed on a stack. These are the *Push* and the *Pop* operations. A specific register, called the *stack pointer (SP)*, is used to indicate the stack location that can be addressed. In the stack push operation, the SP value is used to indicate the location (called the top of the stack). After storing (pushing) this value, the SP is incremented.

➤ The Bus

The CPU communicates with the other components via a *bus*.

<u>A bus</u> is a set of wires that acts as a shared but common data path to connect multiple subsystems within the system. It consists of multiple lines, allowing the parallel movement of bits.

Internal to the CPU, data move from one register to another and between ALU and registers.

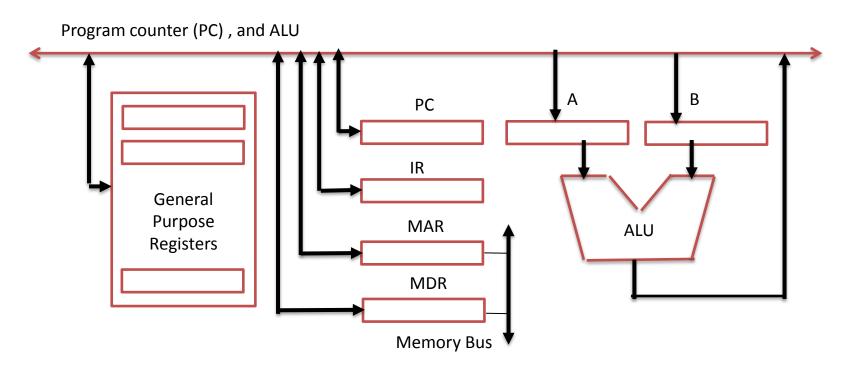
Internal data movements are performed via **local buses**, which may carry data, instructions, and addresses.

Externally, data move from registers to memory and I/O devices, often by means of a **system bus**.

Internal data movement among registers and between the ALU and registers may be carried out using different organizations including one-bus, two-bus, or three-bus organizations.

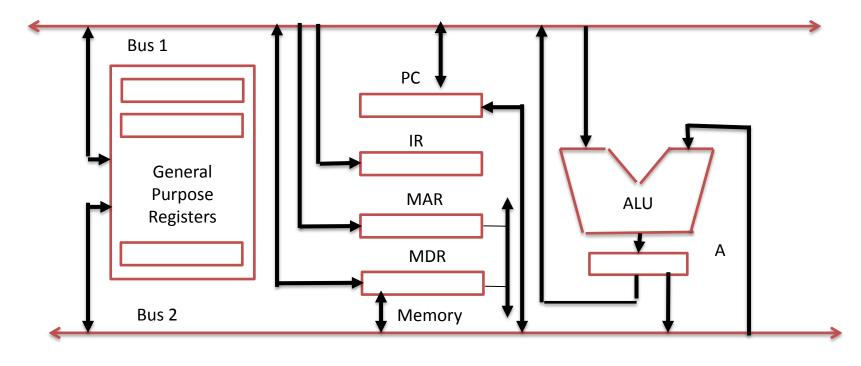
One-Bus Organization

Using one bus, the CPU registers and the ALU use a single bus to move outgoing and incoming data. Since a bus can handle only a single data movement within one clock cycle, two-operand operations will need two cycles to fetch the operands for the ALU. Additional registers may also be needed to buffer data for the ALU.



Two-Bus Organization

Using two buses is a faster solution than the one-bus organization. In this case, general-purpose registers are connected to both buses. Data can be transferred from two different registers to the input point of the ALU at the same time. Therefore, a two-operand operation can fetch both operands in the same clock cycle. An additional buffer register may be needed to hold the output of the ALU when the two buses are busy carrying the two operands.



Three-Bus Organization

In a three-bus organization, two buses may be used as source buses while the third is used as destination. The source buses move data out of registers (out-bus), and the destination bus may move data into a register (in-bus). Each of the two out-buses is connected to an ALU input point. The output of the ALU is connected directly to the in-bus. As can be expected, the more buses we have, the more data we can move within a single clock cycle. However, increasing the number of buses will also increase the complexity of the hardware.

