APPLICATION NOTE

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Design with EPROMs For Future Flexibility

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by John F. Rizzo

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INTRODUCTION

Flexibility and design ease-those are the key words in today's fast paced world of microprocessor system design. We must be practical in our designs and have flexibility to accommodate larger memory densities and more useful peripherals. Such a flexible, practical approach will allow us to design-in the future today." Designing EPROM systems based on speculation of future events is indeed a risky business. Vendors introduce devices with different pinouts, varying power reguirements and unique densities. A more prevalent problem is one of industry wide availability; how can one possibly implement a firm design based on precarious and unpredictable supplies? How are designers to foresee rapid advances in EPROM densities? And, what about microprocessor evolution? Why should we implement a long range design when answers to such questions are so unsure? The reasons are clear. A small additional effort now will save a complete redesign and reimplementation in the years ahead. In one particular area—EPROM memory systems—the tools are available now, today.

The following paragraphs seek to refocus present EPROM design concepts. Flexible and creative approaches that encourage straightforward system evolution will be discussed. Simple and complex decoding schemes for device selection will be detailed and various control approaches explained. Logical design configurations that permit natural density upgrades will be noted. Finally, basic calculations aimed at determining memory speed requirements are discussed. These general system concepts are intended to inform the reader of recent developments that provide greater flexibility and system understanding.

In an ideal sense a flexible design would allow the use of all possible pinouts, package sizes, control schemes, and power requirements. To accomplish such universality one would have to make available all voltage and system signals and jumper them in at each device location. Figure 1 details this jumpered implementation. Admittedly, such a design would be inefficient—nevertheless, it fulfills all of our desired goals. Several power supply voltages are available, the pinout extends addressing up to 512K bits, the package is a relatively modest 28 pins, both single and dual control schemes are available. In the remaining paragraphs an attempt will be made to preserve that flexibility while making the implementation a more practical one.

BUS CONTENTION

The most fundamental decision a designer has to face involves solving the bus contention problem. Bus contention can arise when multiple devices are connected to a common data bus. If chip selection is accomplished only through address decoding then timing incompatibilities can result. The crucial timing parameters are address decode time (t_{ACC}), time from active chip enable to data valid (t_{CE}), and device deselect time (t_{DF}). Basically, contention occurs when one device is being selected while another is undergoing deselection. The

1

_			
+ 5		C)	+ 5
+ 12		C)	+ 12
- 12			+ 25
A9	\mathbf{O}	6 0	A10
A8	•		A11
A7		8 8	A12
A6	00		A 8
A 5	0 0		A9
A4	00	60 60	A11
A3	00	6 0	OE/VPP
A2		6) 6)	A10
A1	00		ĈĒ
A 0			07
00			O 6
01			05
02		00	04
GND			03
- 12	6	8	- 12
+ 12	8	C 3	+ 12
GND			GND
GND		_	GND

Figure 1.

worst case is when devices driving opposite logic levels are involved. A timing incompatibility results from fast decode times and relatively slow device turnoff times. Figure 2 illustrates the timing relationships while Figure 3 shows the physical circuit arrangement. The major problems that bus contention can cause are somewhat subtle in nature. Current and voltage spiking on the power supply rails is the most measurable one. Such noise can lead to a whole host of problems including invalid data, false triggering, race conditions, and reflections. In low performance systems these phenomena may have little effect-however-higher speed CPUs and mainframes can certainly be affected. Figure 4 shows a photograph of bus contention and its effects on circuit voltages and currents. Typically, the system designer solves the contention problem by making worst case timing calculations of decoder delays and EPROM turnoff times. Unfortunately, these parameters are subject to wide variation over time and temperature and correct designs on paper may not function in a realistic environment. When multiple cards with fast RAMs and PROMs are connected to a common bus the calculation and interaction becomes extremely complex. Schemes for device selection that rely only on decoded addresses (single line control) require intensive design efforts, with less than sure results. These schemes are thus prime candidates for bus contention problems.



Figure 2. 1-Line Control Timing



Figure 3. Bus Contention Path



Figure 4.

Another means of device selection that completely eliminates the possibility of bus contention is a 2-line control scheme. All higher density Intel EPROMs possess this power down control architecture. Contention is eliminated through the use of an Output Enable (\overline{OE}) control pin. The OE line controls the EPROM's tri-state output buffer and is designed to merge directly with the microprocessor outputs. The microprocessor allows data transfer through address decode and system control signals (typically RD in Intel processors). Chip selection is based on address decode as before. however, the microprocessor controls when data is allowed onto the bus through the OE pin. Generous timing between addresses and output enable guarantee that no contention will exist. Figure 5 illustrates 2-line control timing; Figure 6 shows oscilloscope photographs of system operation. It is clear that 2-line control frees the designer from much of the burden in assessing system timings. In addition, the design functionability is somewhat more assured than in a single control situation. Two-line control, an attribute of Intel products, thus reduces the burden that bus contention places on the system designer.

EPROM DENSITY UPGRADES

A fundamental advantage of flexible EPROM system design is the ability to increase storage capacity without hardware modification. The optimum situation would be one in which components of higher byte densities could be plugged directly into a socket used for lower densities. This gives the designer a wide range of options to tailor his memory system size to a particular application. A universal EPROM card is then available to a broad range of different products—saving design time and hardware costs. In designing such a system, several questions need to be addressed: Are EPROMs going to



Figure 5. 2-Line Control Timing



be used for program store in a production mode? Are ROMs to be used to replace EPROMs during production? Is board space at a premium? Are second sources available?

Generally a present generation EPROM pinout determines the next generation ROM pinout. If one is planning to utilize ROMs in a production mode, this generality is significant. However, if EPROMs are to be used solely, one must consider the present EPROM pinout and foresee the changes that will allow higher densities. If many different pinouts become available simultaneously, we are offered a confusing choice in assessing what pinout will become a volume standard. Unfortunately, we cannot accommodate all of the possible variations.

It is generally agreed that future developments in device density will occur through the conversion to 28 pin sites; such a direction is currently favored by the JEDEC standards committee. The advantage of such an approach is that lower capacity components can be inserted directly into the 28 pin site. This leaves the user with a wide range of board level densities to choose from. Figure 7 indicates one possible upgrade path for the near term; longer range possibilities are difficult to assess. In any event, the notable feature about the 28 pin site is its ability to accommodate very large EPROM densities. The addition of 4 pins allows a factor of 16 increase over the 2732 density. This future 512K bit device will even preserve the 2-line control scheme. Admittedly, these densities are some time away, however, more powerful microprocessors are becoming available that require large storage densities.

A basic design approach involves providing addresses on the board level for the highest foreseeable density (64K bytes in this case). Switches or jumpers then allow plug compatibility for different devices. One card accommodates all densities instead of a single board matched to a particular device. The flexibility gained would allow an "off the shelf" EPROM card that could be used for simple and complex system implementations. Product life can then be protracted because board level designs are kept intact for future developments. It would seem that the incremental cost in providing 28 pin sites is small in comparison to the benefit realized.



Figure 7. EPROM Density Upgrades

DECODING

Before any significant universality can be achieved, it is necessary to create a flexible decoding arrangement. Depending on the nature of the application, decoding schemes vary from the very simple to the extremely complex.

When there are few devices residing in system the most effective scheme is a simple NAND gate. Such an implementation is the lowest in cost, both from a component and power requirements standpoint. Figure 9 shows an arrangement for two devices. The major flaw with such an approach is the lack of simple density evolution. In addition, one must be careful to prevent bus contention when only using single line control (the rapid selection through the gate being the source of the problem).



Figure 9. Nand Gate Decoding

A somewhat more common and flexible approach is the use of decoders such as the Intel 8205. Decoders allow selection of a greater number of devices yet, unfortunately, they lack the complexity to automatically compensate for changes in device density. Decoders are somewhat more expensive than single gate selection schemes. Figure 10 shows the decoder in a typical system application.



Figure 10. MSI Decoder Implementation

The most flexible means of addressing the device selection problem is an LSI approach. Dense Bipolar PROMs provide high speed as well as complex gating ability and thus offer a potent solution to direct density upgrades. The basic circuit operation allows the selection of different page boundaries, the PROM map then causes automatic segmentation. By programming the PROM with a universal decoding map, higher density parts can be inserted directly into 28 pin sites with no hardware modification. The PROM map is constructed in such a way as to maximize the number of different device densities that are plug compatible. In addition, the ability to interface 8 and 16 bit systems is also required. Figure 11



Figure 1	1. Univ	ersal	PROM	Decoder
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For MCS-80/85, address in	put to 3636	looks like:
---------------------------	-------------	-------------

(MSB)	S ₂ S ₁ S	io, L	00A ₁	5 A ₁₄ A ₁₃ A ₁₂ A ₁₁ A ₁₀	(LSB)
	S ₂	S ₁	S ₀	DEVICE	
	0	0	0	2758	
	0	0	1	2716	
	0	1	0	2732	
	0	1	1	2764	
	1	0	0	128K	
	1	0	1	256K	

shows the hardware implementation of such a scheme; Figure 12 is a PROM map that satisfies 8085, 8086, and 8088 processor interfaces with EPROM chip densities ranging from 1K byte to 64K bytes. In 8 bit microprocessor systems the decoder will handle 2716, 2732, 64K, 128K and 256K bit devices. The maximum decode capacity is 64K bytes. For 8086 systems, devices up to 512K bits can be decoded with a maximum capacity of 256K bytes.

In practice, the user sets the decoder page boundary by selecting switches S0–S2. The mode select table relates those switch positions to the device density that is to be used in the socket. Depending on the microprocessor status (8085, 8088, or 8086), switches S3 and S4 are adjusted. These switches allow the decoder to interpret byte or word accesses in 16 bit systems. As noted before, Figure 11 details such a scheme. Figures 11a and 11b indicate the switch positions and PROM addressing for 8085 and 8086 systems.

Figure 11a.

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For MCS-86, address input to 3636 looks like:

(MSB)	S2 S	$S_2 S_1 S_0$		BHE • A ₁₆ A ₁₅	A14 A13 A12	A ₁₁ (LSB)
S ₂	S ₁	S ₀	A ₀	BHE	DEVICE	BYTE
0	0	0	0	0	2716	LO
0	0	0	0	1	2716	вотн
0	0	0	1	0	2716	NONE
0	0	0	1	1	2716	н
0	0	1	0	0	2732	LO
0	0	1	0	1	2732	BOTH
0	0	1	1	0	2732	NONE
0	0	1	1	1	2732	HI
0	1	0	0	0	2764	LO
0	1	0	0	1	2764	вотн
0	1	0	1	0	2764	NONE
0	1	0	1	1	2764	н
0	1	1	0	0	128K	LO
0	1	1	0	1	128K	вотн
0	1	1	1	0	128K	NONE
0	1	1	1	1	128K	н
1	0	0	0	0	256K	LO
1	0	0	0	1	256K	BOTH

(MSB)	S ₂	$S_2 S_1 S_0$		HE* A ₁₆ A _{15j}	A14 A13 A12	A ₁₁ (LSB)
S ₂	S ₁	S ₀	A ₀	BHE	DEVICE	BYTE
1	0	0	1	0	256K	NONE
1	0	0	1	1	256K	н
1	0	1	0	0	512K	LO
1	0	1	0	1	512K	BOTH
1	0	1	1	0	512K	NONE
1	0	1	1	1	512K	н

*Note BHE complemented to active high.

For MCS-80/85 systems using "128K," no more than 4 devices may be used, and they must be enabled by outputs 1-4 of 3636 (sockets 0-3 on page 1). No more than 2 "256Ks" may be used, and they must be enabled by outputs 1-2 of 3636 (sockets 0-1 on page 1).

For MCS-86 systems using "512Ks," no more than 4 devices may be used, and they must be configured in the manner of pages 0-1 as described in Figure 11.

(hex) LOCATION	(hex) CONTENTS	DEVICE	BYTE	MCS	(hex) LOCATION	(hex) CONTENTS	DEVICE	BYTE	MCS
0	FE	2758/2716	LO	80/85, 86	248-24B	BB	2764	вотн	86
1	FD	2758/2716	LO	80/85, 86	24C-24F	77	2764	BOTH	86
2	FB	2758/2716	LO	80/85, 86	280-28F	FF	2764	NONE	86
3	F7	2758/2716	LO	80/85, 86	2C0-2C3	EF	2764	н	86
4	EF	2758		80/85	2C4-2C7	DF	2764	н	86
5	DF	2758	_	80/85	2C8-2CB	BF	2764	н	86
6	BF	2758	_	80/85	2C6-2CF	7F	2764	н	86
7	7F	2758	_	80/85	300-307	FE	2764/128K	LO	80/85, 86
40	EE	2716	вотн	86	308-30F	FD	2764/128K	LO	80/85, 86
41	DD	2716	вотн	86	310-317	FB	2764/128K	LO	80/85, 86
42	BB	2716	BOTH	86	318-31F	F7	2764/128K	LO	80/85, 86
43	77	2716	вотн	86	320-327	EF	2764	_	80/85
80-83	FF	2716	NONE	86	328-32F	DF	2764	_	80/85
C0	EF	2716	н	86	330-337	BF	2764	-	80/85
C1	DF	2716	н	86	338-33F	7F	2764	_	80/85
C2	BF	2716	н	86	340-347	EE	128K	вотн	86
C3	7F	2716	н	86	348-34F	DD	128K	вотн	86
100-101	FE	2716/2732	LO	80/85, 86	350-357	BB	128K	вотн	86
102-103	FD	2716/2732	LO	80/85, 86	358-35F	77	128K	BOTH	86
104-105	FB	2716/2732	10	80/85, 86	380-39F	FF	128K	NONE	86
106-107	F7	2716/2732	LO	80/85, 86	300-307	FF	128K	HI	86
108-109	FF	2716	_	80/85	3C8-3CF	DE	128K	н	86
10A-10B	DF	2716	_	80/85	300-307	BE	128K	н	86
10C-10D	BF	2716	_	80/85	3D8-3DF	7F	128K	н	86
10E-10E	7F	2716	_	80/85	400-40F	FF	128K/256K	10	80/85 86
140-141	FF	2732	вотн	86	410-41F	FD	128K/256K	10	80/85 86
142-143	00	2732	BOTH	86	420-42E	FB	128K/256K	10	80/85 86
144-145	BB	2732	BOTH	86	430-43F	F7	128K/256K	10	80/85 86
146-147	77	2732	BOTH	86	440-44F	FF	256K	BOTH	86
180-187	FF	2732	NONE	86	450-45E		256K	BOTH	86
100-101	FF	2732	HI	86	460-46F	BB	256K	BOTH	86
102-103	DE	2732	н	86	400-401 470-47E	77	256K	BOTH	86
104-105	BE	2732	н	86	480-4BE	FF	256K	NONE	86
104-107	7F	2732	н	86		FF	256K	HI	86
200-203	FF	2732/2764	10	80/85 86			256K	н	86
204-207	FD	2732/2764	10	80/85 86		BE	256K	н	86
208-20B	FB	2732/2764	10	80/85 86	460-466	75	2564	н Н	86
200-20B	F7	2732/2764	10	80/85 86	4FU-4FF 500 51E	76	2566/5126	10	80/85_86
210-213	FF	2732		80/85	500-51F	FD	2566/5126		80/85 86
210-210		2732	_	80/85	520-55F		230N312N	BOTH	86
218_21B	BF	2732	_	80/85	540-55		512K	BOTH	86
21C-21E	7F	2732		80/85	500-37F	55	512K	NONE	86
240-243	FF	2764	BOTH	86		гг 55	512K	HI	86
244-247		2764	BOTH	86	500-50F		512K	н	86
		2104	00111		360-366	UF	JIZN	111	

Figure 11b.

Figure 12.

MEMORY PERFORMANCE CALCULATIONS AND THE MEMORY MATRIX

An extremely important factor in implementing a cost effective design is appropriate speed selection of EPROM devices. In determining required memory parameters, one must consider several factors. Processor speeds, card layout, buffer and latch delays, and capacitive loading effects all must be assessed. The following considerations are important in selecting the most appropriate and cost effective memory device. An important decision regards the use of bus cycle wait states. If one can tolerate any number of wait state cycles, the following discussion will have little importance. However, if the decision is between none, 1, or 2 states, the memory matrix is a useful tool in making such a decision. The matrix (for Intel Microprocessors) is shown in Figure 13. It simply relates microprocessor type and system configuration to worst case memory speed requirements. The numbers in each of the matrix cells are worst case t_{CE} times. They represent the combination of all the system attributes on the matrix axis.



Access Times Requirements



Figure 13. Microprocessor/Memory Matrix

To generate such a number array one must have a fairly complete understanding of the memory microprocessor interface. We will consider the system in Figure 14 and the relevant data paths noted there. The access scenario is as follows: The microprocessor issues an address onto its address/data bus. The multiplexed address is latched, and delayed; the address may be delayed further by bus drivers. The address is then decoded (another delay) and CE reaches the memory device. Valid data then appears on the device output pins after t_{CE}. This data is propagated and delayed through levels of data transceivers and finally reaches the microprocessor. Depending on the circuit arrangement, wire lengths may increase these delays, and small capacitive loading may decrease them. The buffer and latch blocks may be several layers deep to accommodate different system sizes and applications.

To provide a complete explanation of matrix derivation, Figures 15 and 16 are referenced extensively. A realistic example is provided for clarity.

The microprocessor system consists of a CPU card, in this case an 8086 processor with one level of buffering, and a remote memory card which is composed of 6 EPROMs and a buffer. There are 8 of these cards in the system, some of which contain RAM and PROM. Physically, the system could reside in a rack mounting with a total distance between CPU buffer and EPROM of 36 inches. Two calculations will be discussed—memory performance requirements and system timing margins. The memory performance parameters under consideration are t_{ACC} and t_{CE} . The output enable time t_{OE} can be calculated in a similar manner. We will proceed as follows:

- Determine the processor requirements.
 Time from addresses to data valid
- 2. Determine time from addresses to CE.
 - Consider propagation delays
 - Consider capacitive effects
 - Consider wiring delays
- 3. Determine the propagation delay from memory device to microprocessor.

Referring now to Figure 15. Arrows within data paths indicate the calculation flow. The sectioned boxes contain several pieces of information that are pertinent to the overall calculation. The sections contain wiring delays, capacitance timing advantages (which are subtracted from propagation delays), and latch or transceiver delays. The long rectangle to the immediate right contains the total propagation delay through that circuit section. This delay is subtracted from the incoming performance requirement in the upper left box—resulting in the quantity in the upper right. The delay is subtracted because memory speed must increase to compensate for relatively slow peripherals. The calculation



Figure 14. Timing Example



Figure 15. Memory Requirements Timing Flow



Figure 16. System Margins Timing Flow

continues in a similar fashion throughout the system returning finally to the CPU data pins. Two numbers are provided in the lower set of boxes—one for t_{ACC} , the other for t_{CE} . The final result appears at the lowest left buffer in the diagram and is repeated in the square labeled Memory Requirements. Figure 15 then shows the calculation path for EPROM performance needs.

Margins on the other hand are calculated in Figure 16. The flow is identical to the previous discussion except that in this case we assume the memory parameters and calculate the associated margins for the peripheral circuitry. The memory parameters are then subtracted from the timings just as if they were propagation delays. The final result appears in the same place as the previous example but is a system timing margin. A number that is less than zero indicates that the memory or peripheral circuit is too slow, and will necessitate the use of bus cycle wait states.

A computer generated diagram that physically illustrates the timing flow is shown in Figure 17. The diagram is for a similar system to the one discussed but does not include wiring or capacitive affects. The memory matrix is then built from this technique. The cells for zero wait states are filled by calculation of different system configurations. Multiple wait state times are simply results of adding clock cycles to the full speed numbers. The usefulness of the memory matrix lies in its ability to condense many system attributes into a simple form. Memory selection and system cost/benefit tradeoffs can be easily compared by fitting memory speed (and its associated cost) to desired system performance.

The scope of the previous discussion involved integrating many EPROM system design concepts. Bus contention and its causes, effects and solution was detailed. Simple and straightforward density upgrades, coupled with universal PROM decoding provided the basis for a universal EPROM card. Finally, the memory matrix and its derivation gave us a useful way of focusing many system attributes. Above all, we have stressed the importance of planning for the future by being flexible in our design implementations. The cost for such flexibility is small and can be quite easily justified based on the benefit received.



Figure 17. 8086 Configuration 4, 3625 Decode

inta

3065 Bowers Avenue Santa Clara, California 95051 Tel: (408) 987-8080 TWX: 910-338-0026 TELEX: 34-6372

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MINNESOTA Intel Corp. 7401 Metro Blvd. Suite 355 Edina 55435 Tel: (612) 835-6722 TWX: 910-576-2867 TWX: 910-576-2867 Dytek North 1821 University Ave. Room 163N St. Paul 55104 Tel: (612) 645-5816 MISSOURI Technical Representatives, Inc. 320 Brookes Drive, Suite 104 Hazelwood 63042 Tel: (314) 731-5200 TWX: 910-762-0618 NEW JERSEY Intel Corp.* Raritan Plaza 2nd Floor Raritan Center Edison 08817 Tel: (201) 225-3000 TWX: 710-480-6238 NEW MEXICO NEW MEXICO BFA Corporation P.O. Box 1237 Las Cruces 88001 Tel: (505) 523-0601 TWX: 910-983-0543 TWX: 910-983-0543 BFA Corporation 3705 Westerfield, N.E. Albuquerque 87111 Tel: (505):292-1212 TWX: 910-989-1157 NEW YORK NEW YOHK intel Corp.* 350 Vanderbilt Motor Pkwy. Suite 402 Hauppauge 11787 Tel: (516) 231-3300 TWX: 510-227-6236 Tel: (716) 227-6236 Intel Corp. 80 Washington St. Poughkeepsie 12601 Tel: (914) 473-2303 TWX: 510-228-0060 Intel Corp.* 2255 Lyell Avenue Lower Floor East Suite Rochester 14606 Tel: (716) 254-6120 TWX: 510-253-7391 Measurement Technology, Inc. 159 Northern Boulevard Great Neck 11021 Tel: (516) 482-3500 T-Squared T-Squared 4054 Newcourt Avenue Syracuse 13206 Tel: (315) 463-8592 TWX: 710-541-0554 T-Squared 2 E. Main Victor 14564 Tel: (716) 924-9101 TWX: 510-254-8542 NORTH CAROLINA Intel Corp. 154 Huffman Mill Rd. Tel: (919) 584-3631 Pen-Tech Associates, Inc. 1202 Eastchester Dr. Highpoint 27260 Tel: (919) 883-9125 Glen White Associates 4009 Barrett Dr. Raleigh 27609 Tel: (919) 787-7016 OHIO Intel Corp.* 6500 Poe Avenue Dayton 45415 Tel: (513) 890-5350 TWX: 810-450-2528 Intel Corp.* Chagrin-Brainard Bldg. #210 28001 Chagrin Blvd. Cleveland 44122 Tel: (216) 464-2736 Levry & Associates Inc. 1440 Snow Road Suite 216 Cleveland 44134 Tel: (216) 398-0506

Lowry & Associates, Inc. 1524 Marsetta Drive Dayton 45432 Tet: (513) 429-9040

Lowry & Associates, Inc. 2735 Cleveland Ave. Columbus 43224 Tel: (614) 436-2051

OREGON Intel Corp. 10700 S.W. Beaverton Hillsdale Highway Suite 324 Beaverton 97005 Tel: (503) 641-8086

PENNSYLVANIA PENSYLVANIA Intel Corp.* 275 Commerce Dr. 200 Office Center Suite 300 Fort Washington 19034 Tel: (215) 542-9444 TWX: 510-661-2077

TWX: 510-661-2077 Lowry & Associates, Inc, Seven Parkway Center Suite 455 Pittsburgh 15520 Tei: (412) 922-5110 O E.D. Electronics 300 N. York Road Hatboro 19040 Tei: (215) 674-9600 TEXAS TEXAS Intel Corp.* 2925 L.B.J. Freeway Suite 175 Dallas 75234 Tel. (214) 241-9521 TWX: 910-860-5487 Intel Corp.* 6420 Richmond Ave. Suite 280 Houston 77057 Tel: (713) 784-3400

ret. (713) 764-3400 Industrial Digital Systems Corp. 5925 Sovereign Suite 101 Houston 77036 Tel. (713) 988-9421 Intel Corp. 313 E. Anderson Lane Suite 314 Austin 78752 Tel: (512) 454-3628

VIRGINIA Glen White Associates Route 2, Box 193 Charlottesville 22901 Tel; (804) 295-7686 Glen White Associates P.O. Box 10186 Lynchburg 24506 Tel: (804) 384-6920 Glen White Associates Rt. #1, Box 322 Colonial Beach 22442 Tel: (804) 224-7764

WASHINGTON Intel Corp. Suite 114 Bldg. 3 1603 116th Ave. N.E. Bellevue 98005 Tel: (206) 453-8086

WISCONSIN WISCONSIN Intel Corp. 150 S. Sunnyslope Rd. Brookfield 53005 Tel: (414) 784-9060 First Rep Company 9401 W. Beloit Rd. Suite 304 Milwaukee 53227 Tel: (414) 546-2033

CANADA

CANADA Intel Semiconductor Corp.* Suite 233, Bell Mews 39 Highway 7, Bells Corners Ottawa, Ontario K2H 8R2 Tel; (613) 829-9714 TELEX: 053-4115 Intel Semiconductor Corp. 50 Galaxy Blvd. Unit 12 Rexdale, Ontario M9W 4Y5 Tel:(416) 675-2105 TELEX: 06983574 Multilek, Inc.* 15 Grenfell Crescent Ottawa, Ontario K2G 0G3 Tel: (613) 226-2365 TELEX: 053-4585 Multilek, Inc. Toronto Tel: (416) 245-4622 Multilek, Inc. Montreal Tel: (514) 481-1350