

Popular Electronics®

WORLD'S LARGEST-SELLING ELECTRONICS MAGAZINE

MAY 1980 / 95¢

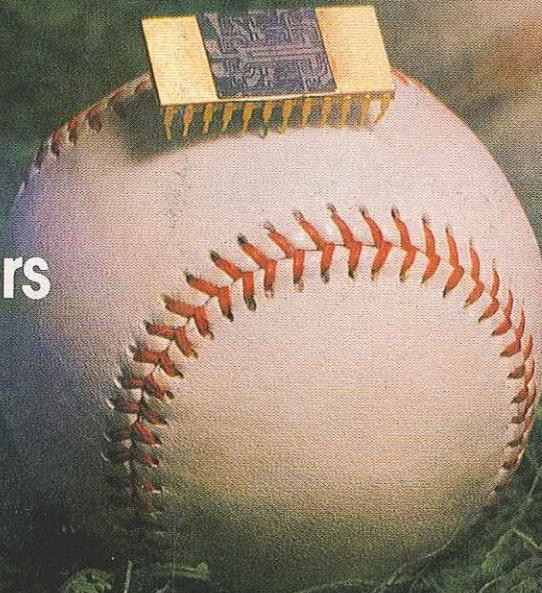
Build A Super Intrusion Alarm
SENSES MOVEMENT AT A DISTANCE

How Far Did You Cycle Today?
ELECTRONIC DEVICE MEASURES MILEAGE

Experimenting With Sound-Effect Circuits

**Programming Microprocessors for
the 1980's ...a Whole New Ball Game!**

New Training
Course:
How to Use
Microprocessors
in
Your Own
Circuits



14024 14278

Popular Electronics

**Tested
In This
Issue:**

Elect
Naga
Audio Control Spectra...
Equalizer

COLCHESTER VT 05446
BX 629 WESTBURY PK
MILLIAM CLEMENCE 05
720516 CEN 80823M92 1410 NOV82

by George Meyerle

Part 1 of a series devoted to the use of inexpensive microprocessors in custom applications

Microprocessor Applications for the 1980's...

It's a Whole New Ballgame!

THE MICROPROCESSOR (central processing unit or CPU), a powerful and versatile integrated circuit, was born only in the last decade. We have witnessed its startling price decline and reveled in the result—modestly priced computers.

With \$10 microprocessors available now, it's clear that the devices can be used economically for *non-computer* purposes—electronic games, telephone dialers, photographic timers, robots, "smart" thermostats, sophisticated security systems, or wherever your imagination leads you. And you need not tie up a \$1000 computer for these applications. All that is required is a reasonable knowledge of microprocessors, which will also give you a better understanding of computer hardware and software.

To use a microprocessor for any of a host of applications, you need only become familiar with:

- The way the processor functions and relates to its inputs and outputs.
- The processor's program language.
- The fundamentals of the binary number system.

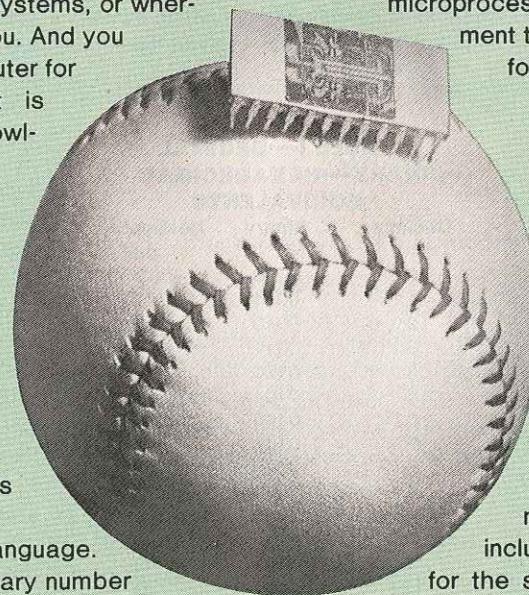
The foregoing doesn't require much more effort than learning about 100 words or so of a foreign language and some simple grammar. Mastering this, you can use inexpensive microprocessors where discrete parts would be awkward at best and often prohibitively costly and bulky.

Clearly, using microprocessors in the 1980's will be a whole new ballgame for electronics enthusiasts. To be certain that readers of POPULAR ELECTRONICS will be able to keep up with what we plan to present to you as time unfolds, we're launching this first-in-a-series microprocessor training course for the new decade.

What Is a Microprocessor? In its simplest terms, a microprocessor IC can be considered an element that can read data from inputs, perform computations, and control outputs. What makes it special is that it can be *programmed*. That is, it can be made to perform its various functions in any desired sequence. This flexibility is the key characteristic that lets a microprocessor and external circuitry perform such a wide variety of electronic tasks.

A microprocessor-based system is shown in Fig. 1. Note that there are four main elements. These elements can be included in the microprocessor IC, but for the sake of simplicity we will assume that they are all separate components. We will deal with the microprocessor itself separately.

The microprocessor is connected to all of the other components via the data bus by which information is passed back and forth. Control signals from the microprocessor along with the memory address signals determine which elements communicate with



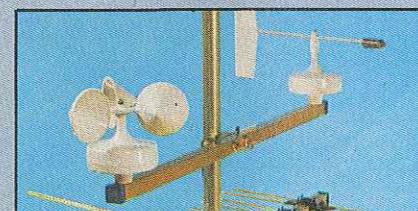
Get up-to-the-minute weather reports from your own Heathkit Digital Weather Computer.

Heathkit imagination applied to microprocessor electronics brings you a personal weather computer that monitors current weather, keeps track of changes and stores past data—and puts it all at your fingertips.

- Just push a button to get:
- Indoor and outdoor temperatures in Fahrenheit or Celsius
 - Wind speed, both average and gusts, in mph, kph or knots
 - Wind direction
 - Barometric pressure and rate of change
 - Wind chill factor
 - Time and date

Memory stores highs and lows and the times they occurred. Data remains in memory for as long as you want, ready to be recalled at the push of a button. Handsome solid walnut console adds

a touch of class to any home. Weather information is relayed to the console from a special transmitter that mounts on your TV antenna mast.



The transmitter features a unique infrared sensing device for greater sensitivity and accuracy. A special piezo resistive silicon bridge transducer senses the slightest changes in barometric pressure. For serious weather research, the Heathkit Digital Weather Computer can interface with chart recorder or digital computer.

Fun to build: Like all Heath electronic kits, the Digital Weather Computer comes with its own easy-to-follow assembly manual that guides you step-by-step through every phase of assembly. Anyone can do it. The Digital Weather Computer is also available completely assembled and tested.



Free Catalog

Complete details and price on the Digital Weather Computer are in the new Heathkit Catalog, along with descriptions of nearly 400 electronic kits for your home, work or pleasure. Send for your free catalog today or pick one up at your Heathkit Electronic Center.*

Heathkit®

CIRCLE NO. 69 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD

Write to Heath Company, Dept. 010-654, Benton Harbor, MI 49022

*Visit your Heathkit Electronic Center where Heathkit Products are displayed, sold and serviced. See your telephone white pages for the location nearest you. Heathkit Electronic Centers are units of Veritechology Electronics Corporation.

Microprocessor Applications . . .

the processor at any one time.

The block labelled Program is the storage area for the sequential instructions to be executed by the microprocessor. On reset or power on, the microprocessor will automatically obtain the first instruction from this memory via the data bus. After executing the first instruction it will signal for the next instruction, etc. To generate this series of instructions, better known as the program, is called "programming."

The input port section is the communication link between the microprocessor and data from keyboards, sensor switches, or the like. An input port usually can signal the microprocessor via the control bus when data is available. Output ports are used to transfer data from the microprocessor or memory components to output devices.

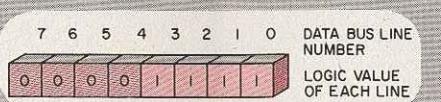
As an example, let's consider this system to be the controller for a simple robot and follow some theoretical steps which might occur in its operation. On reset or power on, the processor will signal the program memory to put the first instruction on the data bus. The processor reads and executes that instruction. Let's assume that the instruction tells the microprocessor to read the contents of the input port and store that data in one of its internal registers. The processor now requests the next instruction, which could be to have the microprocessor test the data from the input port. Subsequent instructions, called on the basis of the data analysis, would have the microprocessor issue to the output port data that would cause the robot to take a specific action.

While the robot is performing its mission, the processor will request its next instruction, which might be to reread the input port that monitors the progress of the robot. Each reading of the input port would similarly be tested, with the microprocessor issuing commands to control the course of action. This general system could just as easily operate as a telephone dialer or other product.

Signal Lines. Before we tackle the microprocessor functions, let's review the types of signals you might find on the signal lines. These lines carry voltages that represent binary numbers. The microprocessor, the I/O ports, and memory also respond only to these electrically coded binary numbers. It would be a great asset, therefore, to have an

understanding of binary numbers and their decimal and hexadecimal (base 16) equivalents.

In an 8-bit microprocessor, the data bus will consist of 8 lines. The status of each of these lines can either be a logic 1 or a logic 0, each represented by one of a pair of voltage levels (high and low, positive and negative, etc.). If the microprocessor is reading from the data bus, and lines 0, 1, 2, and 3 are logic 1, and lines 4, 5, 6, and 7 are at logic 0, you can write that input as 00001111 as shown.



Writing long lists of these inputs in binary form would be very tedious and cumbersome. It is convenient to convert this binary representation of the 8 bits into a hexadecimal form. Thus, 00001111 can be represented by OF (hex). Writing a 16-bit address in binary will convince you of the value of binary to hexadecimal conversion. This conversion is listed in Table I.

We cannot, however, completely forget about binary representation of these numbers because in that form they will allow easy identification of which switch is to be turned on for a given input or

TABLE I—DECIMAL—BINARY—HEXADECIMAL EQUIVALENTS

Decimal	Binary	Hexadecimal
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

which light or motor will go on as a result of particular outputs. For example, if we are at an output port capable of driving low-voltage lamps and we want a certain

sequence of these lamps to light at any one time, we must remember that the lamp will go on only when there is a logic 1 appearing on the data line at the output port. It will be helpful to remember that binary digit, 0 or 1, is referred to as a bit. This group of eight bits is called a byte. A 16-bit address is thus made up of two bytes. Four bits (half a byte) are sometimes referred to as a nibble.

The RCA 1802. In this article we will discuss the RCA 1802. In subsequent articles, other processors will be described. Although microprocessors vary greatly in terms of their capabilities and specific language or instruction set, they are similar in many functions. Some are faster, more input/output compatible, easier to program, or more suitable for data processing, etc. But if you can understand the basic workings of the 1802 and its instruction set, evaluating any microprocessor specification sheet will be easier. (The complete 1802 specification sheet and instruction summary can be had at no charge by sending a self-addressed, stamped (30c) envelope to Netronics R & D Limited, 333 Litchfield Road, New Milford, CT 06776.)

As our first example does not require all the elements of this processor, we will omit those that will not be used. The processor elements we will need are:

SCRATCH-PAD REGISTERS: There are 16 scratch-pad registers, each of which holds 16 bits. They are used to hold intermediate results. As the data bus can handle only 8 bits at a time, these registers are loaded and unloaded 8 bits at a time—the high-order byte in one operation, the low-order byte in another.

D-REGISTER: The D or Data register is used as an input and output to the ALU register (Arithmetic Logic Unit). Data is transferred to the D register, tested or modified by the ALU register and then returned to the data bus. The DF register is a flag used in arithmetic operations to determine if a carry or borrow occurred.

Q: This is a single-bit output line which can be set or reset by a program instruction. It is often used as an output. For example, it can turn a light on or off.

INPUT FLAGS: The 1802 has four input flags that are tested for their logic level by instructions.

Figure 2 shows a practical hook-up of an 1802 microprocessor and a simple array of peripheral equipment. Control inputs EF1,2,3, and 4 sense when any of the four pushbuttons is closed. The Q output is coupled to transistor Q1 that, in turn, drives a solenoid. Instructions, called for from ROM via the 8-line address bus, are delivered via the 8-line data bus. This arrangement is sufficient to solve our example problem.

The Problem. For our example application, we have selected a solenoid-operated lock that will open only when four pushbutton switches are operated in the proper sequence. If any button is pressed out of sequence, the controller ignores all inputs for a period of one minute. After that time, it will respond only to the entire combination in correct sequence. To further forestall attempts to solve the combination, each button must be released before the system will register that the next one has been pushed. Finally, when the lock does open, it will remain in that condition for only five seconds.

The Instruction Set. The 91 instructions recognized by the 1802 fall into nine categories. In this introductory article, however, we will need only four. These are the Control, Short Branch, Memory Reference and Register Operations subsets. Each instruction has two identifications—one called a *mnemonic* (memory aid for humans), the other called an *op code* (the digital representation required by the processor). The mnemonic is closely allied to the specified instruction, and in many cases is an abbreviation. This is exemplified by BR for BRANCH and REQ for RESET Q.

The mnemonic REQ corresponds to the binary op code 0111 1010, which can, for convenience, be written 7A (hex). Eight-bit binary numbers are often written as two groups of four (nibbles).

Each nibble can be converted into a single hex digit. Binary numbers are the only ones the processor "understands." Instructions and binary data written in binary form or the hex equivalent are said to be in "machine language." Data is sometimes entered into a processor via a hex keypad that automatically produces a binary output.

Control Instructions. As the category name implies, these instructions are used where some general control

over processor operations is required. We will use three of the 10 instructions in this subset. For each, we give the mnemonic, op code, name, and description.

NO-C4-No Operation. This instruction performs no processor operations. It causes the processor to remain idle for three machine cycles, then fetch the next instruction. It is used mainly in timing applications to generate a delay.

REQ-7A-Reset Q. This instruction causes the processor's Q line to assume a low state (0 volt).

SEQ-7B-Set Q. This instruction causes the Q line to assume the high state (+5 volts).

Branch Instructions. Normally, a processor executes instructions in the

the memory location specified by the byte (____) following the 30 op code.

B1-34—Short Branch if EF1=1. If the EF1 line has a logic value of 1, the program will branch to the memory location that follows the op code. If EF1 is not 1, the processor goes to the next instruction in sequence.

B2-35_____, B3-36_____, and B4-37_____. perform the same action on the EF2, EF3 and EF4 lines respectively.

BNZ-3A—Short Branch if D not 0. If the D register contains other than zero, the program will branch to the specified memory location. If it contains zero, the program advances to the next instruction in sequence.

BN1-3C—Short Branch if EF1=0. If the EF1 input line is a logic zero, the

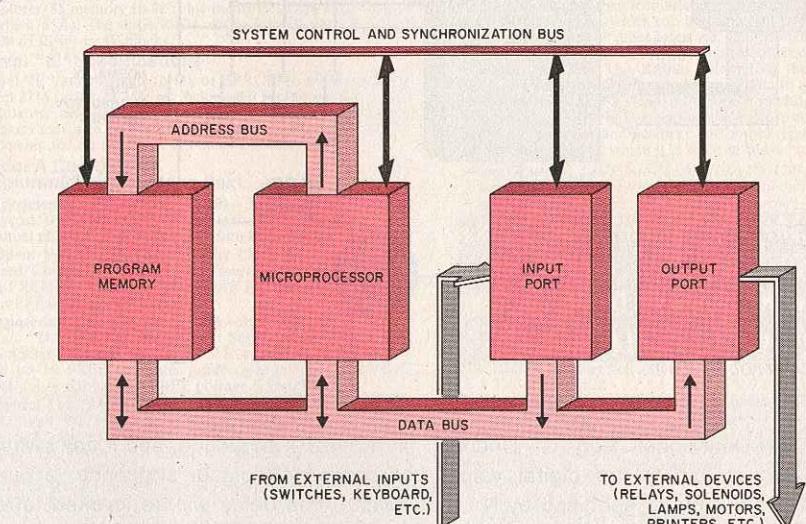


Fig. 1. Block diagram of a microprocessor-based system.

order in which they are stored in memory—the one at the lowest-order memory location first, then the next, etc. A branch causes the processor to depart from the sequence, jump to another part of the memory, and execute one or more of the instructions stored there.

Branches are often (but not necessarily) conditional, taking place only when a defined condition arises. They require two bytes of data. The first is the op code for the branch instruction and the second is the address to which the processor will branch. For reasons of its own internal organization, the 1802 has "long" and "short" branch instructions. We will use 10 of the short ones.

BR-30—Short Branch. Branch to

program will branch to the specified memory location. If the EF1 line is 1, the program proceeds to the next instruction in sequence.

BN2-3D_____, BN3-3E_____, and BN4-3F_____. are used similarly to test the EF2, EF3 and EF4 lines, respectively.

Memory Reference. These instructions allow the user to load data into the temporary storage registers in the processor. We use only one of the seven provided.

LDI-F8—Load Immediate. This instruction places the "___" data, following the F8 op code, into the D register of the processor. If the instruction were F8 55, the processor would place 55 (01010101) in the D register.

Microprocessor

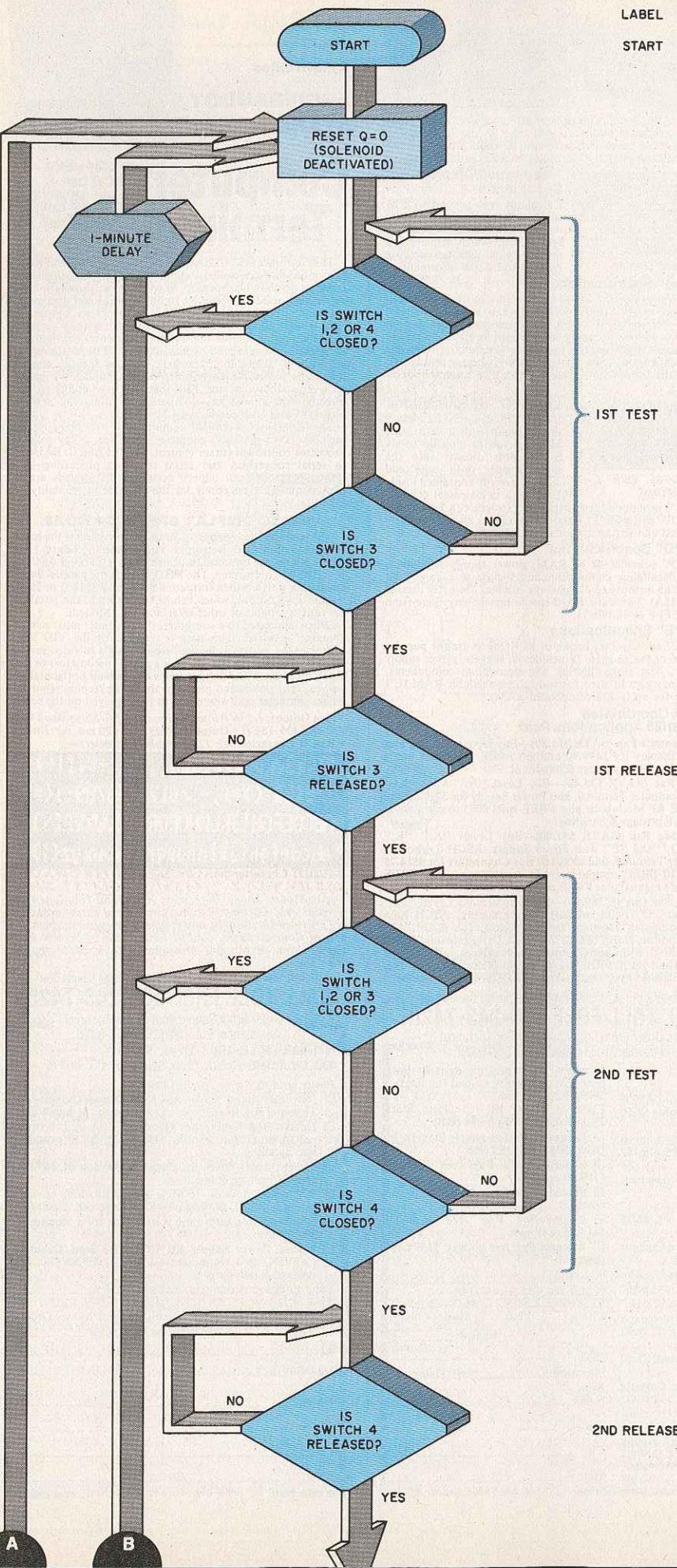


Fig. 3. Flowchart, at left and on opposite page, gives steps the microprocessor must perform.

MAY 1980

Applications . . .

the beginning address of that set of instructions.

The third column, OP CODE, represents the hexadecimal machine code for the instruction plus any extra byte required to modify the instruction. In most cases, the extra byte is a Branch address and is filled in after the program has been completed. The fourth column, MNEMONIC, contains the word-like version of the op code. This column, once you get used to it, makes reading a program considerably easier.

The column marked COMMENTS is strictly for the human being. At some later date, when you return to the program, reading this column will tell you in detail what is supposed to happen at each step. Trying to figure out what the program does without referring to the comments or the flowchart is difficult.

When first powered up, the processor fetches its first instruction at memory address 0000.

The label "Start" should use program address 0000. Since we have decided that, at the beginning, the solenoid should be de-activated, we use the mnemonic instruction REQ (reset Q) having the op code of 7A on the start line. The comments column then explains this action and the result.

The next step is a decision. In the flowchart, the three wrong switches were tested in one box. In the program, we force the processor to test each switch in turn for an open or closed condition. Like the flowchart, we label this 1st Test, and use the next memory address 0001. Switch 1 is tested by the mnemonic B1 having op code 34. This op code checks the status of switch 1 (actually the EF line associated with it). It is a two-part op code that requires a branch address if the switch was depressed. Since we don't know the address of the 1-minute time delay at this time, we temporarily leave the required second byte of the op code blank. Therefore, this line of the op code column is 34__.

Since two bytes were used at address 0001, the next memory address is 0003. Here the program op code queries the status of switch 2 via op code

35 (B2). Thus program address 0003 contains 35__. Keep in mind that, as each line is created, sufficient detail must be inserted in the COMMENTS column to explain what is going on.

Since two bytes were used as address 0003, the next address is 0005. Here, op code 37 (B4) questions the status of switch 4. Since this is still the wrong switch, we must branch to the 1-minute delay. Thus, address 0005 contains 37__.

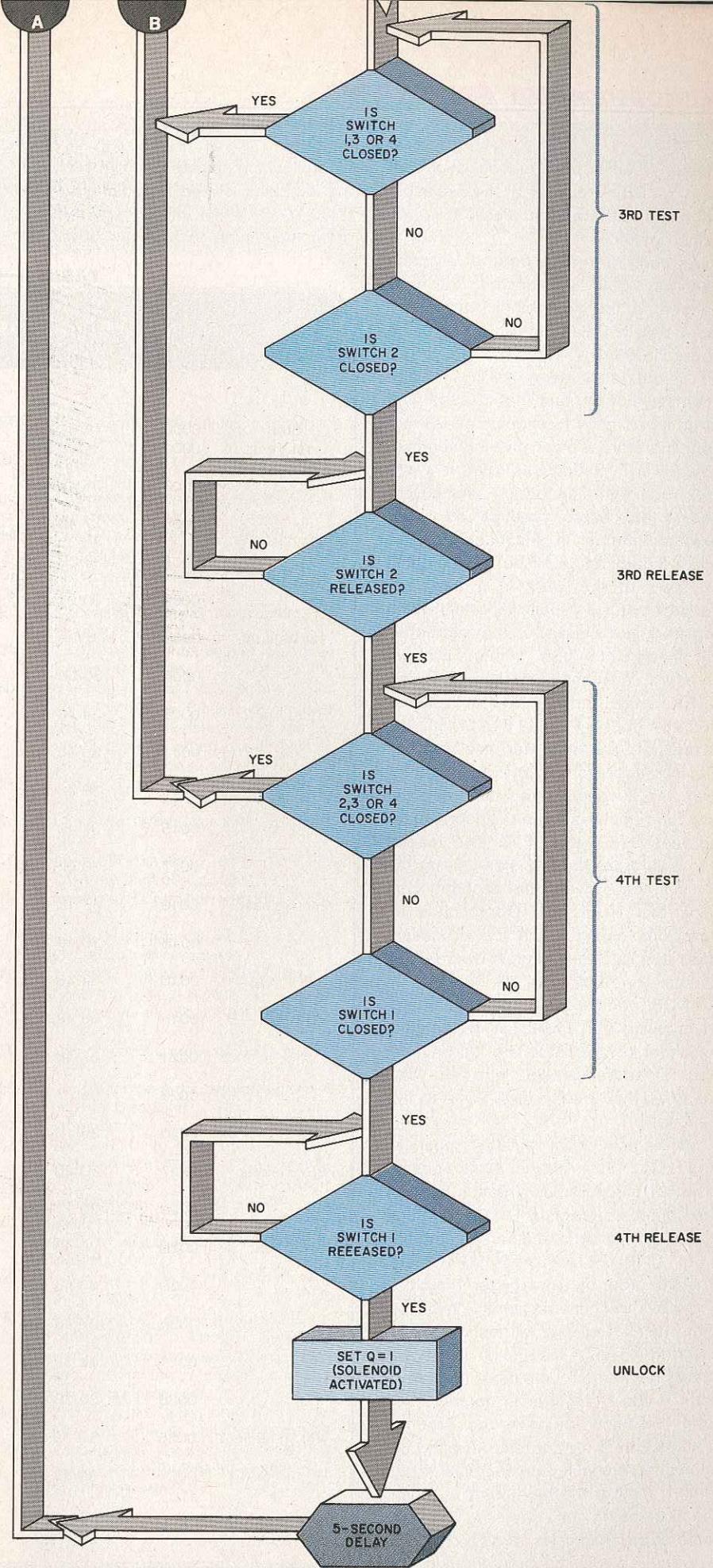
Now we are left with only one switch (switch 3, the correct one). Address 0007 checks this switch via op code 36. If this switch was depressed, the program branches to the 1st Release, whose address is as yet unknown. Thus, address 0007 contains 36__.

Now, what happens if no switches were touched? This is the purpose of program address 0009. If the flow gets to this point without branching, address 0009 forces the program to return to the 1st Test, which we now know is located at program address 0001. Now you see the value of the label. Since we are working with only one page of memory (256 bytes), the leading two zeroes of the address are not required, so address 0009 contains BR (branch immediately) to program address 01. Thus, if during the 1st Test no switches were operated, the program "loops" around this section, awaiting switch action.

Since we have determined that switch 3 was depressed at address 0007, we now perform the 1st Release at address 000B. The 3E instruction at address 000B says that, if the switch was released, branch the program to 0F, the start of the 2nd Test. If the switch is still depressed, the instructions at 000D force the program to return (30, Branch Immediate) back to memory address 0B, and await switch release.

The 2nd Test, switch 2 Release, 3rd Test, switch 3 Release, 4th Test and switch 4 Release, operate just as did the 1st Test and switch 1 Release. The reader can follow the program flow to make sure that the four switches must be depressed in proper sequence before the program arrives at the Unlock block at program address 0039.

The Unlock statement is one-byte instruction 7B that causes the 1802 to set its Q-output line to the high state. Since the solenoid is connected to this



output, when this instruction is carried out by the processor, the solenoid becomes activated and allows the door to be opened.

As soon as the op code at program address 0039 is executed, the flow passes to the next block having the label 5-Sec. Delay located at program address 003A.

To create a delay, we can take advantage of the fact that it takes time for the processor to execute an instruction. Therefore, we can give it a series of "busy work" instructions to let it waste the required time. Such maneuvers should of course produce no other external effects. In this case, data is passed back and forth between internal registers of the 1802 in a particular sequence. It is not really important which registers are used, but the instruction set allows us to "play" with the D register more easily than with some others.

The delay starts at program address 003A by loading FF (1111 1111) into the D register. The next step uses instruction A1 (address 003C) to load the FF from the D register into the low-order half of register-1. Then, according to address 003D, the FF is also loaded into high-order half register-1 using the B1 instruction. Next, the program contains four NOPs (No Operations), instructions during which the processor does absolutely nothing but waste clock cycles. The 1802 uses the op code C4 for NOP, each wastes 10-11 microseconds (using a 1.71-MHz timing reference oscillator or "clock"). The four instructions at address 003E "pad" the time delay so that the loop will come to five seconds.

As we now know, register-1 contains 1111 1111 (FF). Address 0042 uses op code 21 to decrement (reduce by one) the contents of register-1. After the first cycle, low-order register-1 contains 1111 1110 (FE). Address 0043 loads the high-order byte of register-1 into the D register using instruction 91. We know that the D register will contain 1111 1111 (FF). The 3A instruction at address 0044 checks the contents of the D register. If the D register is not all zeros (and we know it isn't), the program branches back to address 3E and continues decrementing the contents of register-1, moving the high-order byte into the D register, and checking the contents of the D register for all zeros, etc.

After 65,280 passes through the

"loop," which should total five seconds, the contents of the D register will be 0000 0000. When this occurs, the program moves on to address 0046 and

finds a BR (30) that goes back to the Start at address 00. At this point, the Q line is forced low and the solenoid is de-activated. The program then pro-

ceeds to the 1st Test, and loops around it, awaiting further switch action.

The one-minute delay invoked when a wrong switch is depressed starts at pro-

gram address 0048. It works by running through the 5-Sec. Delay 12 times under control of another outside loop. This action requires 5×12 or 60 seconds.

The 12-times loop starts at address 0048 by loading the D register (F8) with 0C (0000 1100) which is decimal 12. Address 004A loads this byte into register-2 (A2).

The program from address 004B to 0056 is the five-second delay as previously described. In this case, when the D register contains all zeros, the program drops to address 0057 that decrements the contents of register-2 by one (it now contains 1011 or decimal 11).

The next two instructions (address 0058 and 0059) are the remainder of the "outside" loop that decrements register-2 each time the five-second delay is executed. After the twelfth pass, register-2 will contain zero. When this occurs, the program advances to address 005B, where it is told to branch (30) back to the Start (00).

Since we now know the address of the 1-Minute Delay (0048), we can go back into program and substitute 48 for each of the blanks (depicted as __) that were used where the program had to branch to the one-minute delay.

Modifications. The basic program is easily modified even by an inexperienced programmer. For example, at each switch Release segment (identified by its program label), you might as an exercise write a small program that requires, say, that the switch be released within two seconds, otherwise the program branches to the 1-minute time delay. Such a new set of instructions can reside above program address 005C (the end of the present program) and can be invoked (called) from the switch release segment. Some branch statements can be used. If you require a longer combination, then enlarge the program accordingly. Note that you can change the combination easily by modifying the pertinent instruction in each switch Test location.

In Conclusion. We have seen how powerful an element a microprocessor can be. To realize even the simple example presented above in single-function logic gates would be impractical. Implementing the actions we wanted from the microprocessor was a task of modest difficulty by comparison.

Succeeding articles in this series will extend the uses of microprocessors further. We will also discuss the hardware needed in more detail.

TABLE II—PROGRAM

LABEL	PROGRAM ADDRESS	OP CODE	MNEMONIC	COMMENTS	LABEL	PROGRAM ADDRESS	OP CODE	MNEMONIC	COMMENTS
Start					Unlock	0039	7B	SEQ	Set Q output high (unlock door), go to next instruction
1st Test	0000	7A		REQ	5-Sec. Delay	003A	F8 FF	LDI	Load FF (1111 1111) into the D register
	0001	34 48	B1	If switch #1 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		003C	A1	PLO	Loads D register into low-order half of register-1
	0003	35 48	B2	If switch #2 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		003D	B1	PHI	Loads D register into high-order half of register-1
	0005	37 48	B4	If switch #4 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		003E	C4 C4	NOP	Waste time to increase delay
	0007	36 0B	B3	If switch #3 depressed, branch to #1 Release, else next instruction		0040	C4 C4	NOP	Decrement (reduce) the contents of register-1 by 1
	0009	30 01	BR	If no switches depressed, branch to 1st Test.		0042	21	DEC	Load the high-order byte of register-1 into the D register
	000B	3E 0F	BN3	If switch released, branch to 2nd Test, else next instruction		0043	91	GHI	If the content of the D register is not zero, branch to Timer and continue decrementing register-1 and testing the D register. When the D register contains zero, go to next instruction.
	000D	30 0B	BR	If switch not released, branch to 1st Release		0044	3A 3E	BNZ	End of 5-sec. time delay, branch to Start.
	000F	34 48	B1	If switch #1 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		0046	30 00	BR	Load the D register with 0C (0000 1100)
	0011	35 48	B2	If switch #2 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		0048	F8 0C	LD1	Load OC from the D register into the low-order half of register-2
	0013	36 48	B3	If switch #3 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		004A	A2	PLO	Load FF from the D register into the low-order half of register-1
	0015	37 19	B4	If switch #4 depressed, branch to #2 Release, else next instruction		004B	F8 FF	LDI	Load the D register with FF (1111 1111)
	0017	30 0F	BR	No switches depressed, branch to 2nd Test		004D	A1	PLO	Load FF from the D register into the high-order half of register-1
	0019	3F 1D	BN4	If switch released, branch to 3rd Test, else next instruction		004E	B1	PHI	Waste time to pad out the delay
	001B	30 19	BR	If switch not released, branch to #2 Release		004F	C4 C4	NOP	Decrement the contents of register-1 by 1
	001D	34 48	B1	If switch #1 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		0051	C4 C4	NOP	Load FF from the D register into the low-order half of register-1
	001F	36 48	B3	If switch #3 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		0053	21	DEC	Load FF from the D register into the high-order half of register-1
	0021	37 48	B4	If switch #4 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		0054	91	PHI	Decrement the contents of register-2 by 1. (Register-2 contains 1100 from address 004A)
	0023	35 27	B2	If switch #2 depressed, branch to #3 Release, else next instruction		0055	3A 4F	BNZ	Load the high-order byte of register-1 into the D register
	0025	30 1D	BR	If no switches depressed, branch to 3rd Test		0057	22	DEC	If the content of the D register is not zero, branch to Timer Start. Continue decrementing register-1 and testing the D register. When the D register contains zero, next instruction
	0027	3D 2B	BN2	If switch released, branch to 4th Test, else next instruction		0058	82	PLO	Decrement the contents of register-2 by 1.
	0029	30 27	BR	If switch not released, branch to #3 Release		0059	3A 4B	BNZ	Load the contents of register-2 into the D register
	002B	35 48	B2	If switch #2 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction		005B	30 00	BR	If the content of the D register is not zero, branch to Loop 1. Continue decrementing, then testing the D register. When the D register contains zero, next instruction
	002D	36 48	B3	If switch #3 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction					End of 1-min. delay, branch to Start. This sets the Q output low to deactivate the solenoid and lock the door. The program then awaits further switch operations.
	002F	37 48	B4	If switch #4 depressed, branch to 1-min. delay, else next instruction					
	0031	34 35	B1	If switch #1 depressed, branch to #4 Release, else next instruction					
	0033	30 2B	BR	If no switches depressed, branch to 4th Test					
	0035	3C 39	BN1	If switch released, branch to Unlock, else next instruction					
	0037	30 35	BR	If switch not released, branch to #4 Release					