

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Microcontrollers

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Introduction

Circumstances that we find ourselves in today in the field of microcontrollers had their beginnings in the development of technology of integrated circuits. This development has made it possible to store hundreds of thousands of transistors into one chip. That was a prerequisite for production of microprocessors, and the first computers were made by adding external peripherals such as memory, input-output lines, timers and other. Further increasing of the volume of the package resulted in creation of integrated circuits. These integrated circuits contained both processor and peripherals. That is how the first chip containing a microcomputer, or what would later be known as a microcontroller came about.

History

It is year 1969, and a team of Japanese engineers from the BUSICOM company arrives to United

States with a request that a few integrated circuits for calculators be made using their projects. The proposition was made to INTEL, and Marcian Hoff was responsible for the project. Since he was the one who has had experience in working with a computer (PC) PDP8, it occurred to him to suggest a fundamentally different solution instead of the suggested construction. This solution presumed that the function of the integrated circuit is determined by a program stored in it. That meant that configuration would be more simple, but that it would require far more memory than the project that was proposed by Japanese engineers would require. After a while, though Japanese engineers tried finding an easier solution, Marcian's idea won, and the first microprocessor was born. In transforming an idea into a ready made product, Federico Faggin was a major help to INTEL. He transferred to INTEL, and in only 9 months had succeeded in making a product from its first conception. INTEL obtained the rights to sell this integral block in 1971. First, they bought the license from the BUSICOM company who had no idea what treasure they had. During that year, there appeared on the market a microprocessor called 4004. That was the first 4-bit microprocessor with the speed of 6 000 operations per second. Not long after that, American company CTC requested from INTEL and Texas Instruments to make an 8-bit microprocessor for use in terminals. Even though CTC gave up this idea in the end, Intel and Texas Instruments kept working on the microprocessor and in April of 1972, first 8-bit microprocessor appears on the market under a name 8008. It could address 16Kb of memory, and it had 45 instructions and the speed of 300 000 operations per second. That microprocessor was the predecessor of all today's microprocessors. Intel kept their developments up in April of 1974, and they put on the market the 8-bit processor under a name 8080 which could address 64Kb of memory, and which had 75 instructions, and the price began at \$360.

In another American company Motorola, they realized quickly what was happening, so they put out on the market an 8-bit microprocessor 6800. Chief constructor was Chuck Peddle, and along with the processor itself, Motorola was the first company to make other peripherals such as 6820 and 6850. At that time many companies recognized greater importance of microprocessors and began their own developments. Chuck Peddle leaves Motorola to join MOS Technology and keeps working intensively on developing microprocessors.

At the WESCON exhibit in United States in 1975, a critical event took place in the history of microprocessors. The MOS Technology announced it was marketing microprocessors 6501 and 6502 at \$25 each, which buyers could purchase immediately. This was so sensational that many thought it was some kind of a scam, considering that competitors were selling 8080 and 6800 at \$179 each. As an answer to its competitor, both Intel and Motorola lower their prices on the first day of the exhibit down to \$69.95 per microprocessor. Motorola quickly brings suit against MOS Technology and Chuck Peddle for copying the protected 6800. MOS Technology stops making 6501, but keeps producing 6502. The 6502 is a 8-bit microprocessor with 56 instructions and a capability of directly addressing 64Kb of memory. Due to low cost, 6502 becomes very popular, so it is installed into computers such as: KIM-1, Apple I, Apple II, Atari, Comodore, Acorn, Oric, Galeb, Orao, Ultra, and many others. Soon appear several makers of 6502 (Rockwell, Sznertek, GTE, NCR, Ricoh, and Comodore takes over MOS Technology) which was at the time of its prosperity sold at a rate of 15 million processors a year!

Others were not giving up though. Federico Faggin leaves Intel, and starts his own Zilog Inc. In 1976 Zilog announces the Z80. During the making of this microprocessor, Faggin makes a pivotal decision. Knowing that a great deal of programs have been already developed for 8080, Faggin realizes that many will stay faithful to that microprocessor because of great expenditure which redoing of all of the programs would result in. Thus he decides that a new processor must be compatible with 8080, or that it must be capable of performing all of the programs which had already been written for 8080. Beside these characteristics, many new ones have been added, so

that Z80 was a very powerful microprocessor in its time. It could address directly 64 Kb of memory, it had 176 instructions, a large number of registers, a built in option for refreshing the dynamic RAM memory, single-supply, greater speed of work etc. Z80 was a great success and everybody converted from 8080 to Z80. It can be said that Z80 was without a doubt commercially most successful 8-bit microprocessor of that time. Besides Zilog, other new manufacturers like Mostek, NEC, SHARP, and SGS also appear. Z80 was the heart of many computers like Spectrum, Partner, TRS703, Z-3 and Galaxy here at home.

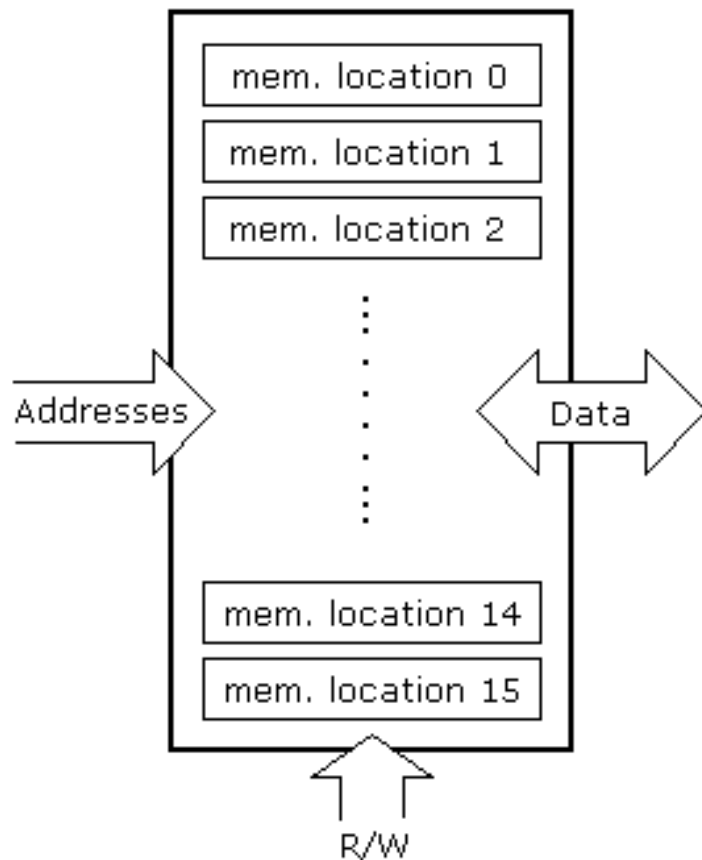
In 1976, Intel comes up with an improved version of 8-bit microprocessor named 8085. However, Z80 was so much better that Intel soon lost the battle. Even though a few more processors appeared on the market (6809, 2650, SC/MP etc.), everything was actually already decided. There weren't any more great improvements to make manufacturers convert to something new, so 6502 and Z80 along with 6800 remained as main representatives of the 8-bit microprocessors of that time.

Microcontrollers versus Microprocessors

Microcontroller differs from a microprocessor in many ways. First and the most important is its functionality. In order for a microprocessor to be used, other components such as memory, or components for receiving and sending data must be added to it. In short that means that microprocessor is the very heart of the computer. On the other hand, microcontroller is designed to be all of that in one. No other external components are needed for its application because all necessary peripherals are already built into it. Thus, we save the time and space needed to construct devices.

1.1 Memory unit

Memory is part of the microcontroller whose function is to store data. The easiest way to explain it is to describe it as one big closet with lots of drawers. If we suppose that we marked the drawers in such a way that they can not be confused, any of their contents will then be easily accessible. It is enough to know the designation of the drawer and so its contents will be known to us for sure.

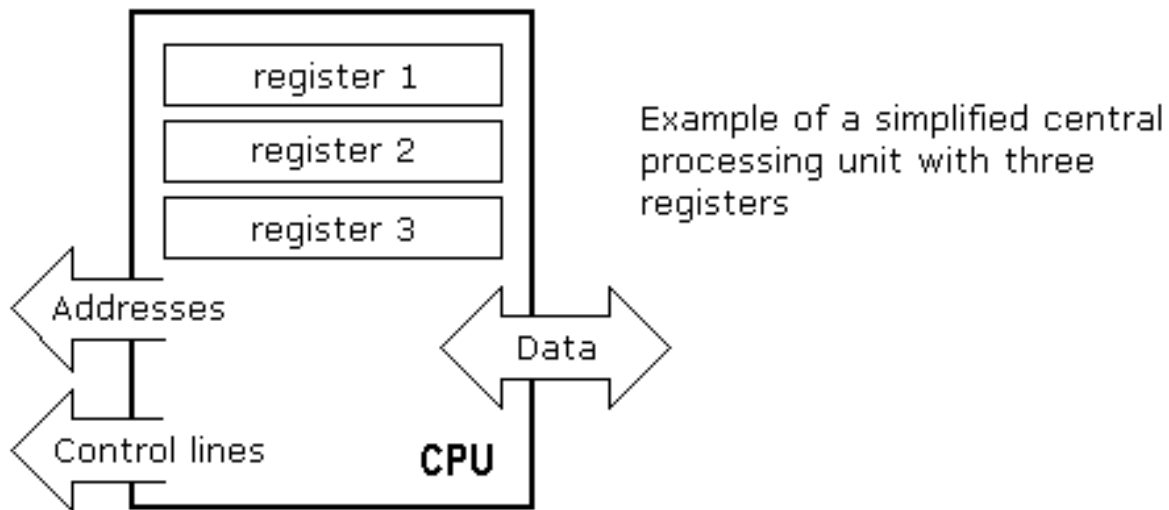


Example of a simplified model of a memory unit. For a specific input we get a corresponding output. Line R/W determines whether we are reading from or writing to memory.

Memory components are exactly like that. For a certain input we get the contents of a certain addressed memory location and that's all. Two new concepts are brought to us: addressing and memory location. Memory consists of all memory locations, and addressing is nothing but selecting one of them. This means that we need to select the desired memory location on one end, and on the other end we need to wait for the contents of that location. Beside reading from a memory location, memory must also provide for writing onto it. This is done by supplying an additional line called control line. We will designate this line as R/W (read/write). Control line is used in the following way: if $r/w=1$, reading is done, and if opposite is true then writing is done on the memory location. Memory is the first element, and we need a few others in order for our microcontroller to work.

1.2 Central Processing Unit

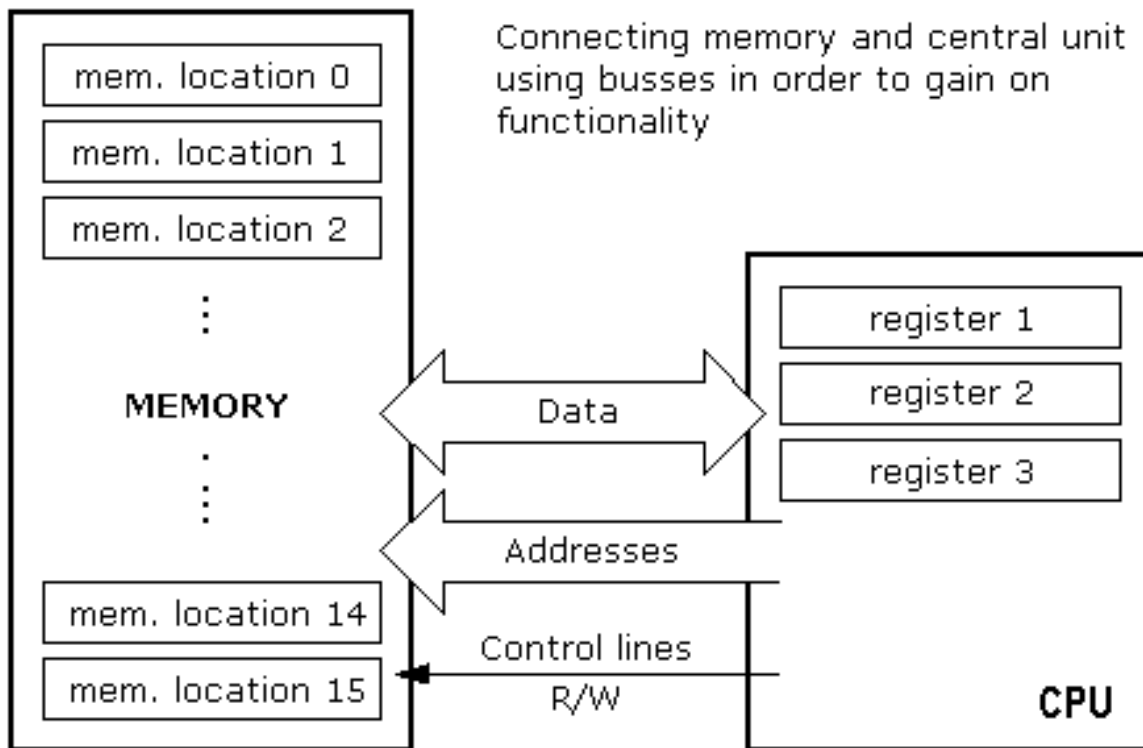
Let's add 3 more memory locations to a specific block that will have a built in capability to multiply, divide, subtract, and move its contents from one memory location onto another. The part we just added in is called "central processing unit" (CPU). Its memory locations are called registers.



Registers are therefore memory locations whose role is to help with performing various mathematical operations or any other operations with data wherever data can be found. Let's look at the current situation. We have two independent entities (memory and CPU) which are interconnected, and thus any exchange of data is hindered, as well as its functionality. If, for example, we wish to add the contents of two memory locations and return the result again back to memory, we will need a connection between memory and CPU. Simply stated, we must have some "way" through which data goes from one block to another.

1.3 Bus

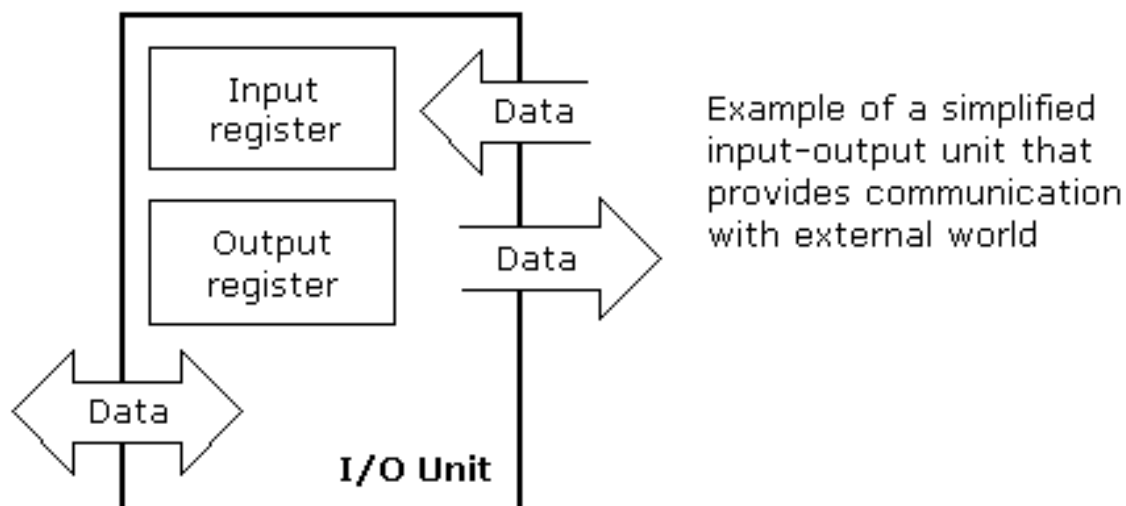
That "way" is called "bus". Physically, it represents a group of 8, 16, or more wires. There are two types of buses: address and data bus. The first one consists of as many lines as the amount of memory we wish to address, and the other one is as wide as data, in our case 8 bits or the connection line. The first one serves to transmit address from CPU memory, and the second to connect all blocks inside the microcontroller.



As far as functionality, the situation has improved, but a new problem has also appeared: we have a unit that's capable of working by itself, but which does not have any contact with the outside world, or with us! In order to remove this deficiency, let's add a block which contains several memory locations whose one end is connected to the data bus, and the other has connection with the output lines on the microcontroller which can be seen with the naked eye as pins on the electronic component.

1.4 Input-output unit

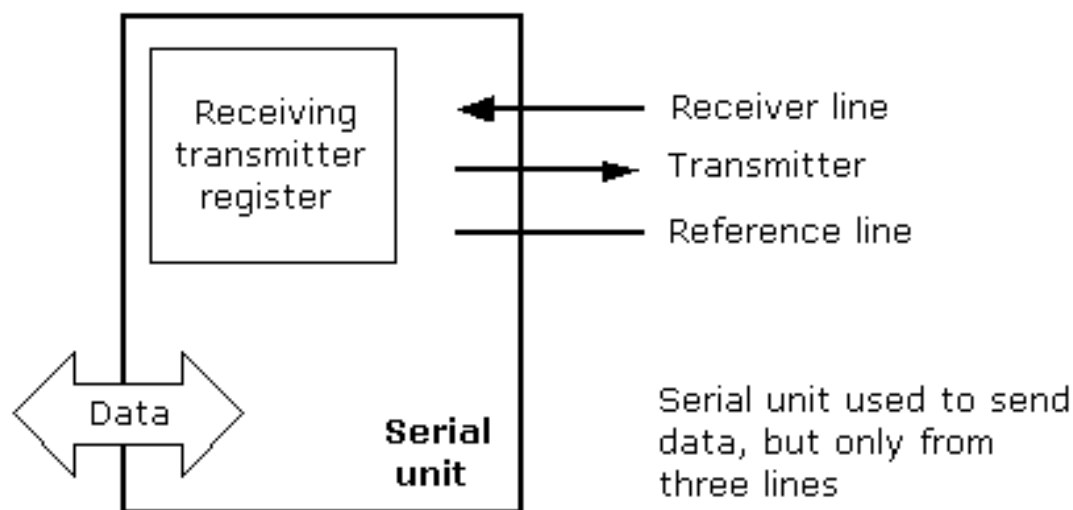
Those locations we've just added are called "ports". There are several types of ports : input, output or two-way ports. When working with ports, first of all it is necessary to choose which port we need to work with, and then to send data to, or take it from the port.



When working with it the port acts like a memory location. Something is simply being written into or read from it, and it is possible to easily register that on the pins of the microcontroller.

1.5 Serial communication

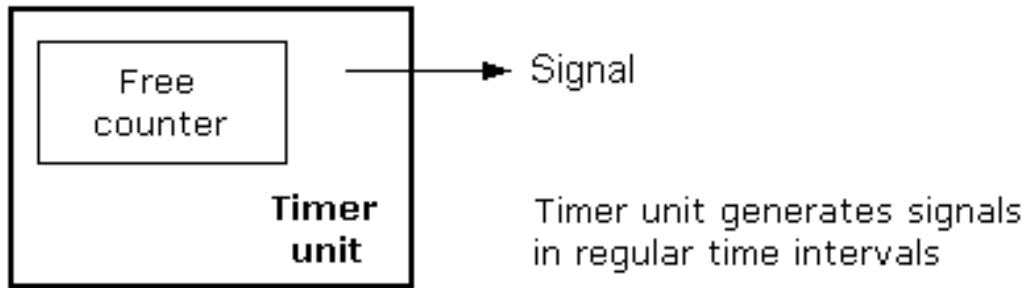
With this we've added to the already existing unit the possibility of communication with an outside world. However, this way of communicating has its drawbacks. One of the basic drawbacks is the number of lines which need to be used in order to transfer data. What if it is being transferred to a distance of several kilometers? The number of lines times number of kilometers doesn't promise the economy of the project. It leaves us having to reduce the number of lines though in such a way that we don't lessen its functionality. Suppose we are working with three lines only, and that one line is used for sending data, other for receiving, and the third one is used as a reference line for both the input and the output side. In order for this to work, we need to set the rules of exchange of data. These rules are called protocol. Protocol is therefore defined in advance so there wouldn't be any misunderstanding between the sides that are communicating with each other. For example, if one man is speaking in French, and the other in English, it is highly unlikely that they will quickly and effectively understand each other. Let's suppose we have the following protocol. The logical unit "1" is set up on the transmitting line until transfer begins. Once the transfer starts, we lower the transmission line to logical "0" for a period of time (which we will designate as T), so the receiving side will know that it is receiving data, and so it will activate its mechanism for reception. Let's go back now to the transmission side and start putting logic zeros and ones onto the transmitter line in the order from a bit of the lowest value to a bit of the highest value. Let each bit stay on line for a time period which is equal to T , and in the end, or after the 8th bit, let us bring the logical unit "1" back on the line which will mark the end of the transmission of one data. The protocol we've just described is called in professional literature NRZ (Non-Return to Zero).



As we have separate lines for receiving and sending, it is possible to receive and send data (info.) at the same time. Block which enables this way of communication is called a serial communication block. Unlike the parallel transmission, data moves here bit by bit, or in a series of bits which is where the name serial communication comes from. After the reception of data we need to read it from the transmitting location and store it in memory as opposed to sending where the process is reversed. Data goes from memory through the bus to the sending location, and from there to the receiving unit according to the protocol.

1.6 Timer unit

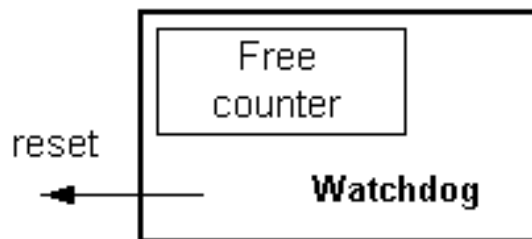
Now that we have the serial communication down, we can receive, send and process data.



However, for us to be able to utilize it in industry we need a few more blocks. One of those is the timer block which is significant to us because it can give us information about time, duration, protocol etc. The basic unit of the timer is a free counter which is in fact a register whose numeric value increases in even intervals, so that by taking its value during periods T1 and T2 and on the basis of their difference we can determine how much time has elapsed. This is a very important part of the microcontroller whose mastery requires most of our time.

1.7 Watchdog

One more thing requiring our attention is a flawless performance of the microcontroller during its use. Suppose that as a result of some interference (which often does occur in industry) our microcontroller stops executing the program, or worse, it starts working incorrectly.

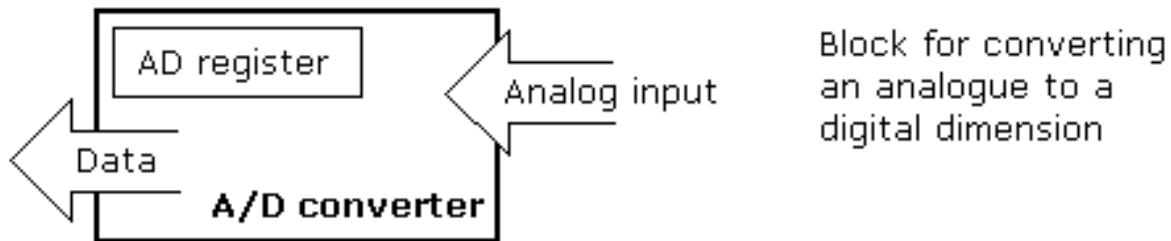


Of course, when this happens with a computer, we simply reset it and it will keep working. However, there is no reset button we can push on the microcontroller and thus solve our problem. To overcome this obstacle, we need to introduce one more block called watchdog. This block is in fact another free counter where our program needs to write a zero in every time it executes correctly. In case that program gets "stuck", zero will not be written in, and counter alone will reset the microcontroller upon obtaining its maximum value. This will result in running the program again, and correctly this time around. That is an important element of every program that needs to be reliable without man's supervision.

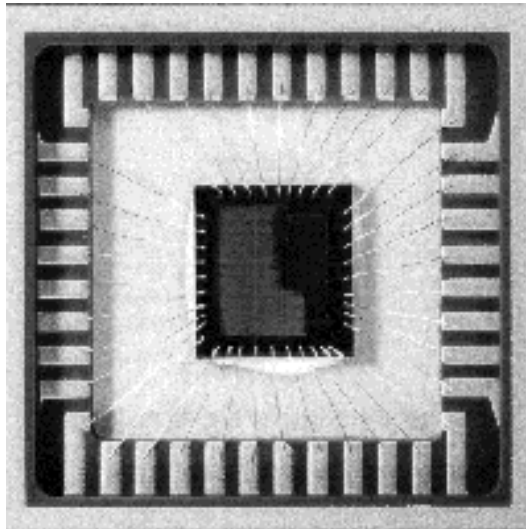
1.8 Analog-Digital Converter

As the peripheral signals are substantially different from the ones that microcontroller can understand (zero and one), they have to be converted into a mode which can be

comprehended by a microcontroller. This task is performed by a block for analog-digital conversion or by an AD converter. This block is responsible for converting an information about some analog value to a binary number and for follow it through to a CPU block so that CPU block can further process it.

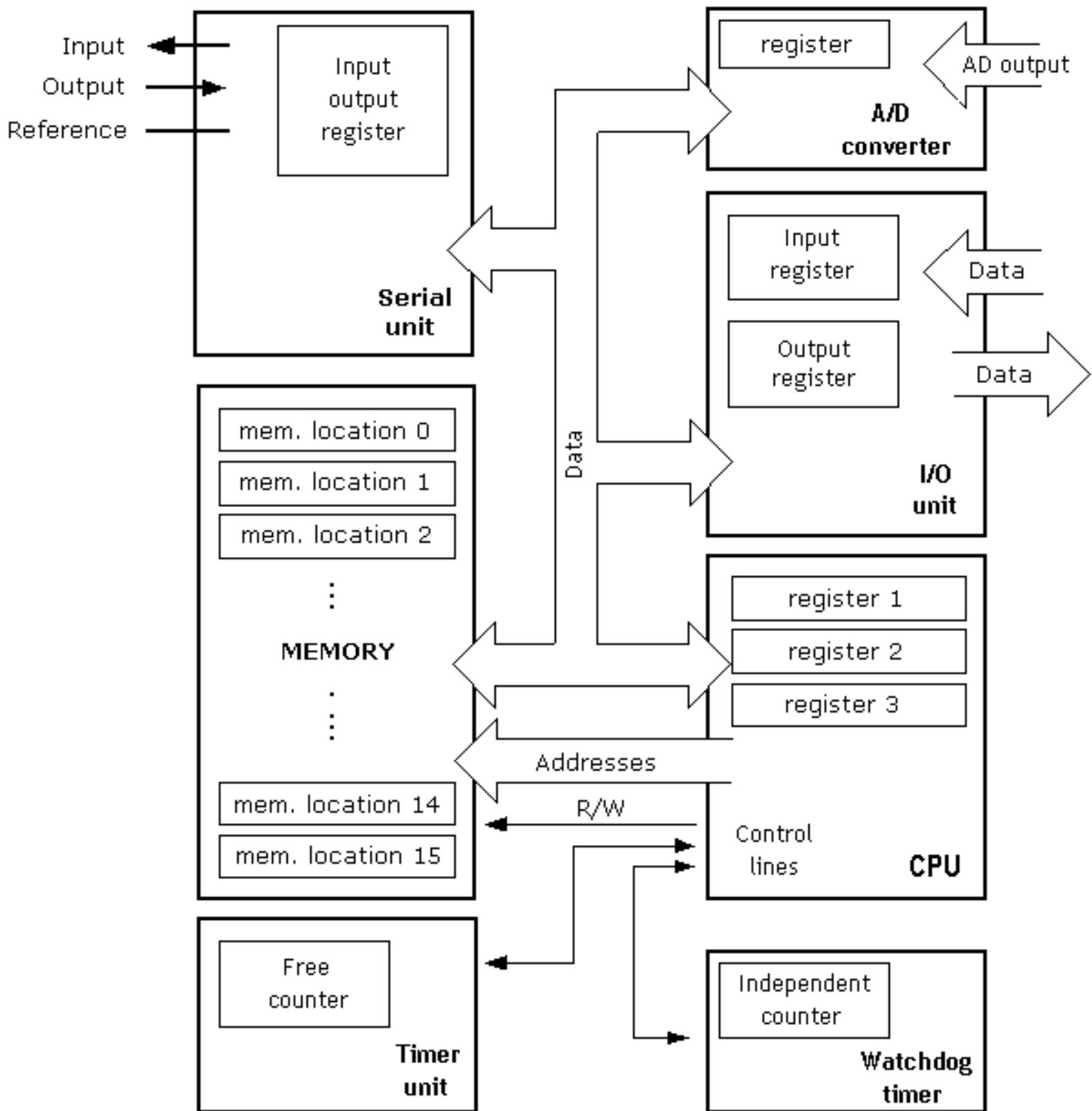


Thus, the microcontroller is now finished, and all that is left now is to put it into an electronic component where it will access inner blocks through the pins of this component. The picture below shows what a microcontroller looks like inside.



Physical configuration of the interior of a microcontroller

Thin lines which lead from the center towards the sides of the microcontroller represent wires connecting inner blocks with the pins on the housing of the microcontroller. Chart on the following page represents the center section of a microcontroller.



Microcontroller outline with its basic elements and internal connections

For a real application, a microcontroller alone is not enough. Beside a microcontroller, we need a program that will execute, and a few more elements which make up a interface logic towards the elements of regulation (which will be discussed in later chapters).

1.9 Program

Program writing is a special field of work with microcontrollers and is called "programming". Lets try writing a small program in a language that we will make up ourselves and that everyone will be able to understand.

```
START
REGISTER1=MEMORY_LOCATION_A
REGISTER2=MEMORY_LOCATION_B
PORTA=REGISTER1 + REGISTER2

END
```

The program adds up the contents of two memory locations, and views their total on port A. The first line of the program stands for moving the contents of memory location "A" into one of the registers of central processing unit. As we need the other data as well, we will also move it into the other register of the central processing unit. The next instruction instructs the central processing unit to add up the contents of those two registers and send a result obtained to port A, so that sum of that addition would be visible to the outside world. For a more complex problem, program that works on its solution will be bigger.

Programming can be done in several languages such as Assembler, C and Basic which are most commonly used languages. Assembler belongs to lower level languages that are programmed slowly, but take up the least amount of space in memory and gives the best results where the speed of program execution is concerned. As it is the most commonly used language in programming microcontrollers it will be discussed in a later chapter. Programs in C language are easier to be written, easier to be understood, but are slower in executing from assembler programs. Basic is the easiest one to learn, and its instructions are nearest a man's way of reasoning, but like C programming language it is also slower than assembler. In any case, before you make up your mind about one of these languages you need to consider carefully the demands for execution speed, for the size of memory and for the amount of time available for its assembly. After the program is written, we need to install the microcontroller into a device and let it work. In order to do this we need to add a few more external components necessary for its work. First we must give life to a microcontroller by connecting it to a supply (voltage needed for operation of all electronic instruments) and oscillator whose role is similar to the role that heart plays in a human body. Based on its clocks microcontroller executes instructions of a program. As it receives supply microcontroller will perform a small check up on itself, look up the beginning of the program and start executing it. How the device will work depends on many parameters, the most important of which is the skillfulness of the developer of hardware, and on programmer's expertise in getting the maximum out of the device with his program.

PIC microcontrollers *for beginners, too!*

Authors: Nebojsa Matic and Dragan Andric



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Introduction

PIC16F84 belongs to a class of 8-bit microcontrollers of RISC architecture. Its general structure is shown on the following map representing basic blocks.

Program memory (FLASH)- for storing a written program.

Since memory that's made in FLASH technology can be programmed and cleared more than once, it makes this microcontroller suitable for device development.

EEPROM - data memory that needs to be saved when there is no supply.

It is usually used for storing important data that must not be lost if supply suddenly stops. For instance, one such data is an assigned temperature in temperature regulators. If during a loss of supply this data is lost, we would have to make the adjustment once again upon return of supply. Thus our device loses on self-reliance.

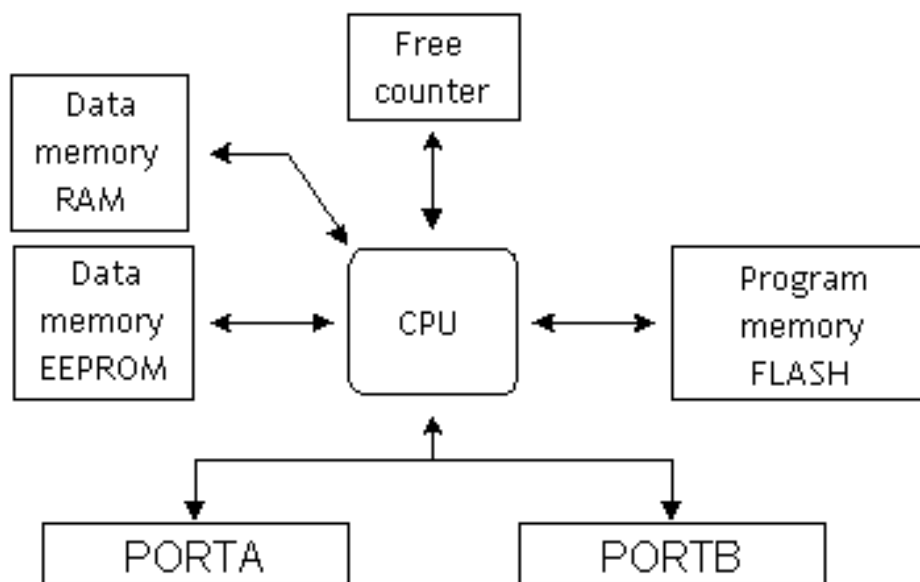
RAM - data memory used by a program during its execution.

In RAM are stored all inter-results or temporary data that are not crucial to running a device during a loss of supply.

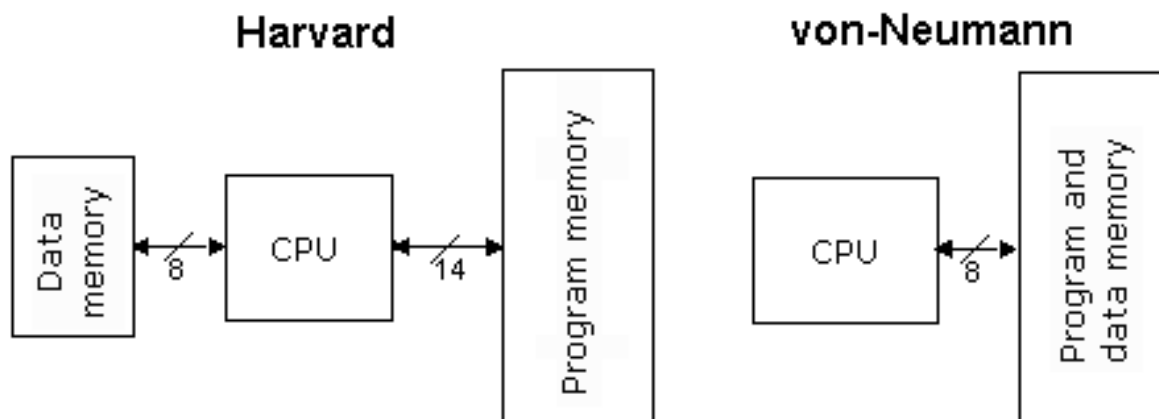
PORTA and PORTB are physical connections between the microcontroller and the outside world. Port A has five, and port B eight pins.

FREE TIMER is an 8-bit register inside a microcontroller that works independently of the program. On every fourth clock of the oscillator it increments its value until it reaches the maximum (255), and then it starts counting over again from zero. As we know the exact timing between each two increments of the timer contents, timer can be used for measuring time which is very useful with some devices.

CENTRAL PROCESSING UNIT has a role of connective element between other blocks in the microcontroller. It coordinates the work of other blocks and executes the user program.



PIC16F84 microcontroller outline



Harvard vs. von Neumann Block Architectures

CISC, RISC

It has already been said that PIC16F84 has a RISC architecture. This term is often found in computer literature, and it needs to be explained here in more detail. Harvard architecture is a newer concept than von-Neumann's. It rose out of the need to speed up the work of a microcontroller. In Harvard architecture, data bus and address bus are separate. Thus a greater flow of data is possible through the central processing unit, and of course, a greater speed of work. Separating a program from data memory makes it further possible for instructions not to have to be 8-bit words. PIC16F84 uses 14 bits for instructions which allows for all instructions to be one word instructions. It is also typical for Harvard architecture to have fewer instructions than von-Neumann's, and to have instructions usually executed in one cycle.

Microcontrollers with Harvard architecture are also called "RISC microcontrollers". RISC stands for Reduced Instruction Set Computer. Microcontrollers with von-Neumann's architecture are called 'CISC microcontrollers'. Title CISC stands for Complex Instruction Set Computer. Since PIC16F84 is a RISC microcontroller, that means that it has a reduced set of instructions, more precisely 35 instructions. (ex. Intel's and Motorola's microcontrollers have over hundred instructions) All of these instructions are executed in one cycle except for jump and branch instructions. According to what its maker says, PIC16F84 usually reaches results of 2:1 in code compression and 4:1 in speed in relation to other 8-bit microcontrollers in its class.

Applications

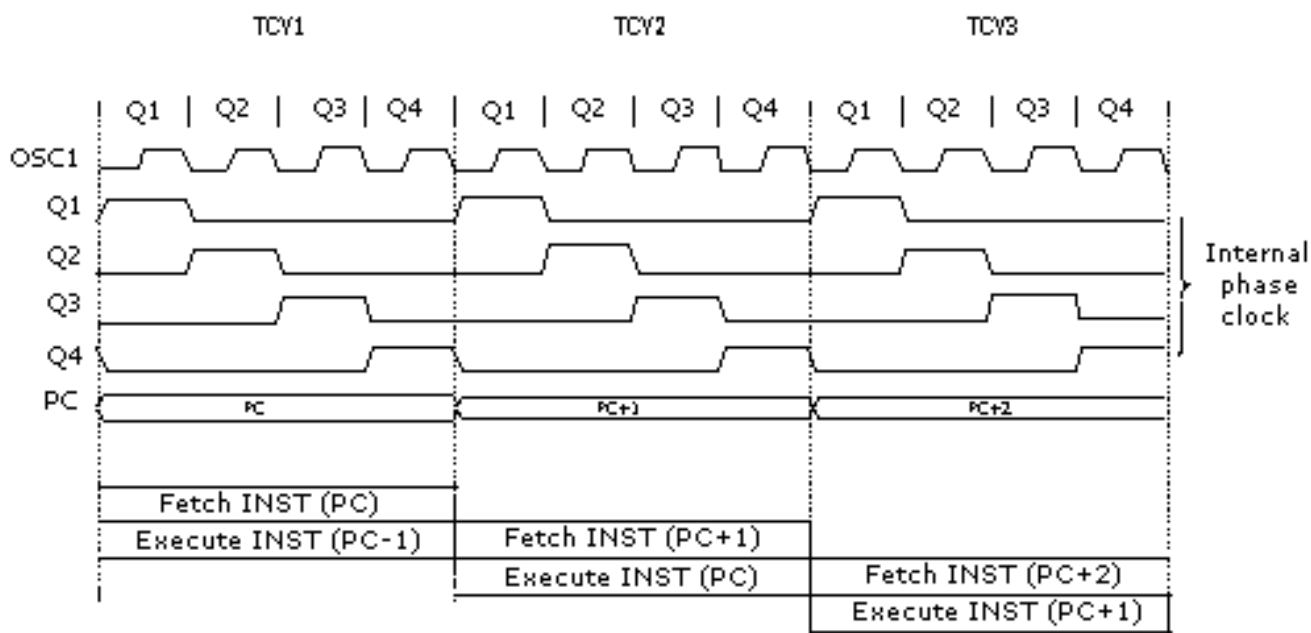
PIC16F84 perfectly fits many uses, from automotive industries and controlling home appliances to industrial instruments, remote sensors, electrical doorknobs and safety devices. It is also ideal for smart cards as well as for battery supplied devices because of its low consumption. EEPROM memory makes it easier to apply microcontrollers to devices where permanent storage of various parameters is needed (codes for transmitters, motor speed, receiver frequencies, etc.). Low cost, low consumption, easy handling and flexibility make PIC16F84 applicable even in areas where microcontrollers had not previously been considered (example: timer functions, interface replacement in larger systems, coprocessor applications, etc.). In System Programmability of this chip (along with using only two pins in data transfer) makes possible the flexibility of a product, after assembly and testing have been completed. This capability can be used to create assembly-line production, to store calibration data available only after final testing, or it can be used to improve programs on finished products.

Clock / instruction cycle

Clock is microcontroller's main starter, and is obtained from an external memory component called an "oscillator". If we were to compare a microcontroller with a time clock, our "clock" would then be a ticking sound we hear from the time clock. In that case, oscillator could be compared to a spring that is wound so time clock can run. Also, force used to wind the time clock can be compared to an electrical supply.

Clock from the oscillator enters a microcontroller via OSC1 pin where internal circuit of a microcontroller divides the clock into four even clocks Q1, Q2, Q3, and Q4 which do not overlap. These four clocks make up one instruction cycle (also called machine cycle) during which one instruction is executed.

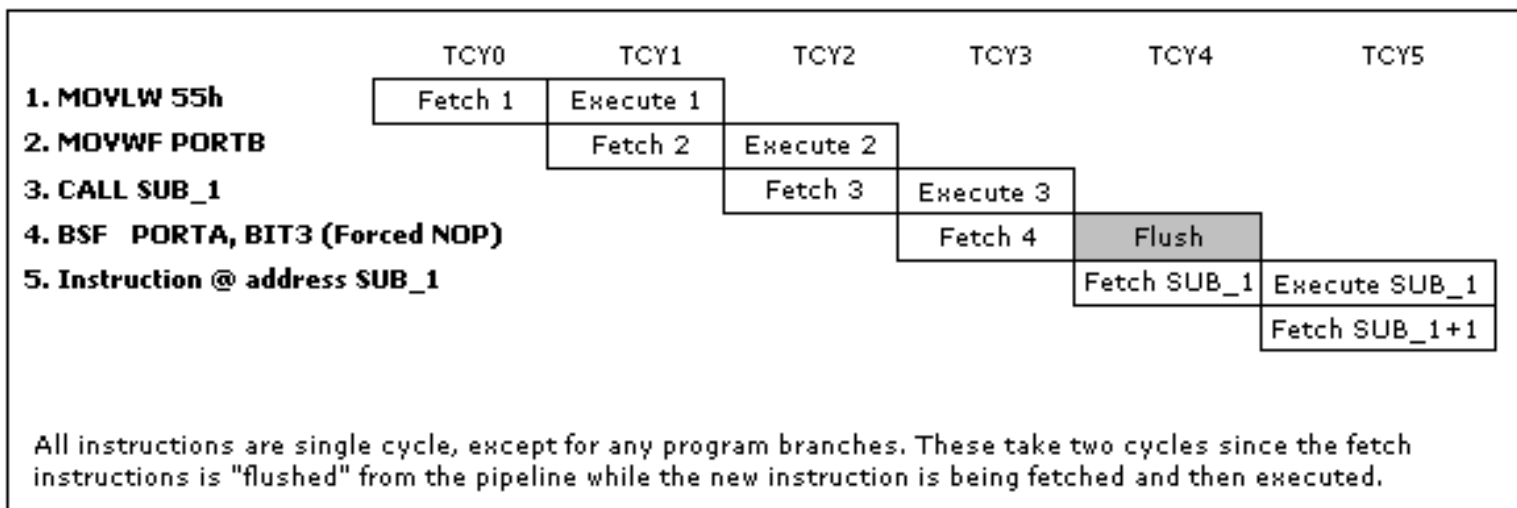
Execution of instruction starts by calling an instruction that is next in line. Instruction is called from program memory on every Q1 and is written in instruction register on Q4. Decoding and execution of instruction are done between the next Q1 and Q4 cycles. On the following diagram we can see the relationship between instruction cycle and clock of the oscillator (OSC1) as well as that of internal clocks Q1-Q4. Program counter (PC) holds information about the address of the next instruction.



Clock/Instruction Cycle

Pipelining

Instruction cycle consists of cycles Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4. Cycles of calling and executing instructions are connected in such a way that in order to make a call, one instruction cycle is needed, and one more is needed for decoding and execution. However, due to pipelining, each instruction is effectively executed in one cycle. If instruction causes a change on program counter, and PC doesn't point to the following but to some other address (which can be the case with jumps or with calling subprograms), two cycles are needed for executing an instruction. This is so because instruction must be processed again, but this time from the right address. Cycle of calling begins with Q1 clock, by writing into instruction register (IR). Decoding and executing begins with Q2, Q3 and Q4 clocks.



Instruction Pipeline Flow

TCY0 reads in instruction MOVLW 55h (it doesn't matter to us what instruction was then executed, which is why there is no rectangle pictured on the bottom).

TCY1 executes instruction MOVLW 55h and reads in MOVWF PORTB.

TCY2 executes MOVWF PORTB and reads in CALL SUB_1.

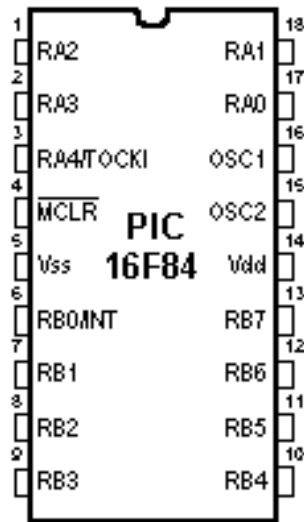
TCY3 executes a call of a subprogram CALL SUB_1, and reads in instruction BSF PORTA, BIT3. As this instruction is not the one we need, or is not the first instruction of a subprogram SUB_1 whose execution is next in order, instruction must be read in again. This is a good example of an instruction needing more than one cycle.

TCY4 instruction cycle is totally used up for reading in the first instruction from a subprogram at address SUB_1.

TCY5 executes the first instruction from a subprogram SUB_1 and reads in the next one.

Meaning of pins

PIC16F84 has a total of 18 pins. It is most frequently found in a DIP18 type of housing but can also be found in SMD housing which is smaller from a DIP. DIP is short for Dual In Package. SMD is short for Surface Mount Devices suggesting that holes for pins to go through when mounting, aren't necessary in soldering this type of a component.



Pins on PIC16F84 microcontroller have the following meaning:

- Pin no.1 **RA2** Second pin on port A. Has no additional function
- Pin no.2 **RA3** Third pin on port A. Has no additional function.
- Pin no.3 **RA4** Fourth pin on port A. TOCK1 which functions as a timer is also found on this pin
- Pin no.4 **MCLR** Reset input and Vpp programming voltage of a microcontroller
- Pin no.5 **Vss** Supply, mass.
- Pin no.6 **RB0** Zero pin on port B. Interrupt input is an additional function.
- Pin no.7 **RB1** First pin on port B. No additional function.
- Pin no.8 **RB2** Second pin on port B. No additional function.
- Pin no.9 **RB3** Third pin on port B. No additional function.
- Pin no.10 **RB4** Fourth pin on port B. No additional function.
- Pin no.11 **RB5** Fifth pin on port B. No additional function.
- Pin no.12 **RB6** Sixth pin on port B. 'Clock' line in program mode.
- Pin no.13 **RB7** Seventh pin on port B. 'Given' line in program mode.
- Pin no.14 **Vdd** Positive supply pole.
- Pin no.15 **OSC2** Pin assigned for connecting with an oscillator
- Pin no.16 **OSC1** Pin assigned for connecting with an oscillator
- Pin no.17 **RA2** Second pin on port A. No additional function
- Pin no.18 **RA1** First pin on port A. No additional function.

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2.1 Clock generator - oscillator

Oscillator circuit is used for providing a microcontroller with a clock. Clock is needed so that microcontroller could execute a program or program instructions.

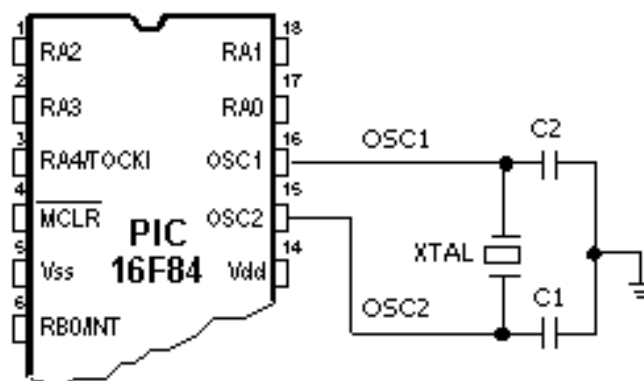
Types of oscillators

PIC16F84 can work with four different configurations of an oscillator. Since configurations with crystal oscillator and resistor-condenser (RC) are the ones that are used most frequently, these are the only ones we will mention here. Microcontroller type with a crystal oscillator has in its designation XT, and a microcontroller with resistor-condenser pair has a designation RC. This is important because you need to mention the type of oscillator when buying a microcontroller.

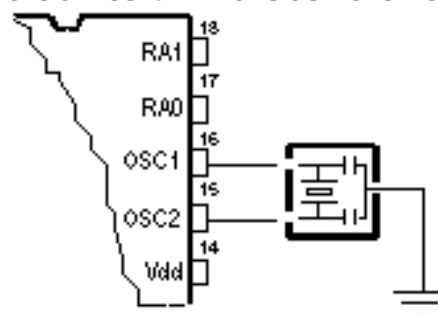
XT Oscillator

Crystal oscillator is kept in metal housing with two pins where you have written down the frequency at which crystal oscillates. One ceramic condenser of 30pF whose other end is connected to the mass needs to be connected with each pin.

Oscillator and condensers can be packed in joint housing with three pins. Such element is called ceramic resonator and is represented in charts like the one below. Center pins of the element is the mass, while end pins are connected with OSC1 and OSC2 pins on the microcontroller. When designing a device, the rule is to place an oscillator nearer a microcontroller, so as to avoid any interference on lines on which microcontroller is receiving a clock.



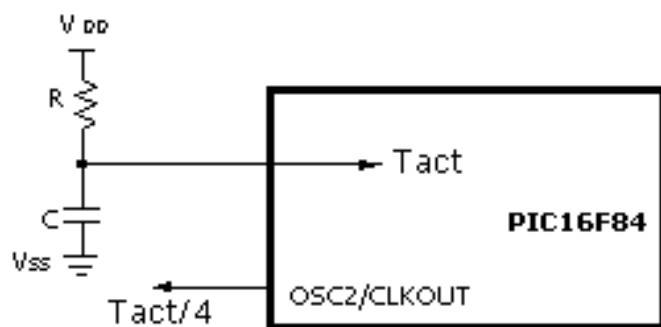
Connecting the quartz oscillator to give clock to a microcontroller



Connecting a resonator onto a microcontroller

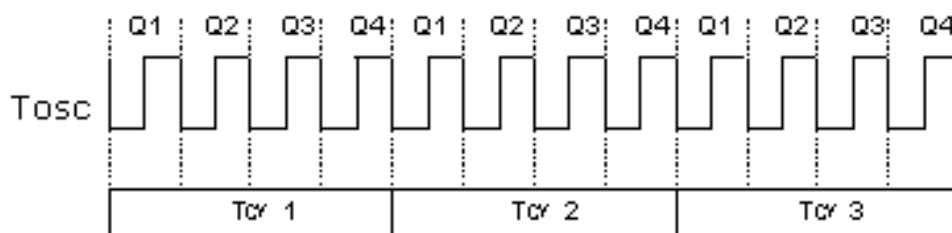
RC Oscillator

In applications where great time precision is not necessary, RC oscillator offers additional savings during purchase. Resonant frequency of RC oscillator depends on supply voltage rate, resistance R , capacity C and working temperature. It should be mentioned here that resonant frequency is also influenced by normal variations in process parameters, by tolerance of external R and C components, etc.



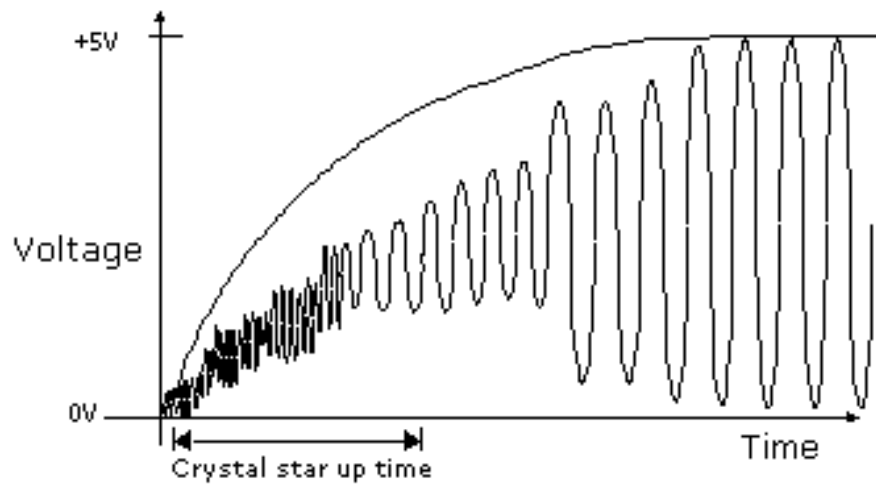
Note: This pin can be configured as an input output pin

Above diagram shows how RC oscillator is connected with PIC16F84. With value of resistor R being below 2.2k, oscillator can become unstable, or it can even stop the oscillation. With very high value of R (ex. 1M) oscillator becomes very sensitive to noise and humidity. It is recommended that value of resistor R should be between 3 and 100k. Even though oscillator will work without an external condenser ($C=0\text{pF}$), condenser above 20pF should still be used for noise and stability. No matter which oscillator is being used, in order to get a clock that microcontroller works upon, a clock of the oscillator must be divided by 4. Oscillator clock divided by 4 can also be obtained on OSC2/CLKOUT pin, and can be used for testing or synchronizing other logical circuits.



Relationship between a clock and a number of instruction cycles

Following a supply, oscillator starts oscillating. Oscillation at first has an uneven period and amplitude, but after some period of time it becomes stabilized.



Signal of an oscillator clock after receiving the supply on the microcontroller

To prevent such inaccurate clock from influencing microcontroller's performance, we need to keep the microcontroller in reset state during stabilization of oscillator's clock. Above diagram shows a typical shape of a signal which microcontroller gets from the quartz oscillator following a supply.

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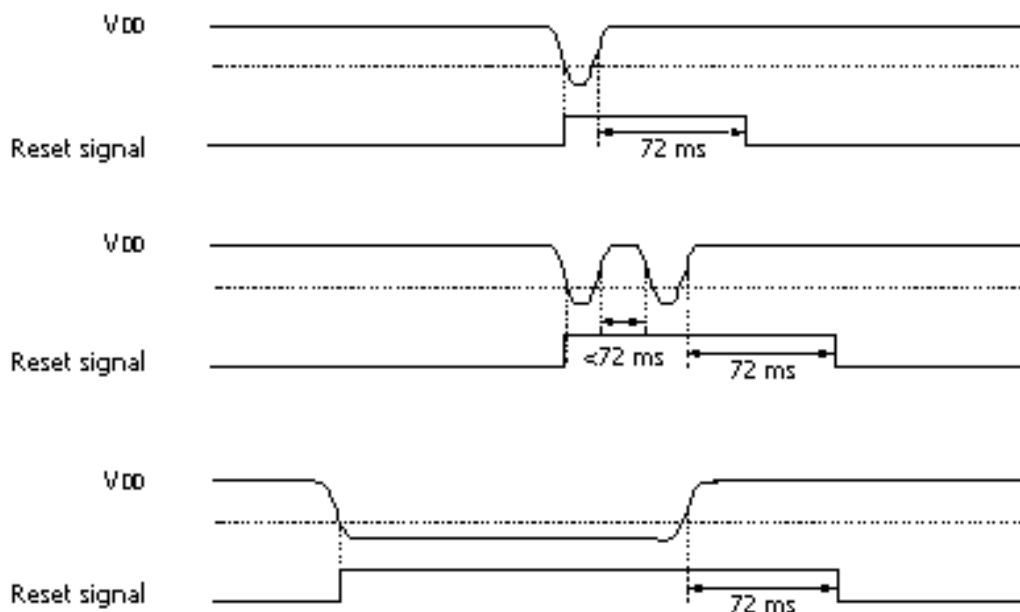
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Impulse for resetting during supply (power-up) is generated by microcontroller itself when it detects an increase in supply V_{DD} (in a range from 1.2V to 1.8V). That impulse lasts 72ms which is enough time for an oscillator to get stabilized. These 72ms are provided by an internal PWRT timer which has its own RC oscillator. Microcontroller is in a reset mode as long as PWRT is active. However, as device is working, problem arises when supply doesn't drop to zero but falls below the limit that guarantees microcontroller's proper functioning. This is a likely case in practice, especially in industrial environment where disturbances and instability of supply are an everyday occurrence. To solve this problem we need to make sure that microcontroller is in a reset state each time supply falls below the approved limit.

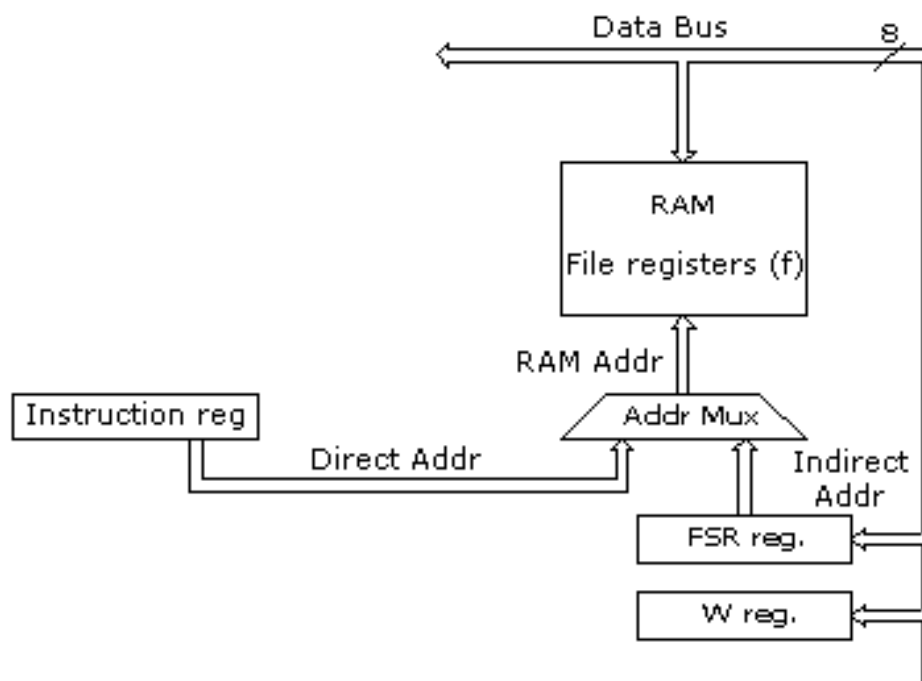


Examples of supply drop below the limit

If, according to electrical specification, internal reset circuit of a microcontroller can not satisfy the needs, special electronic components can be used which are capable of generating the desired reset signal. Beside this function, they can also function in watching over supply voltage. If voltage drops below specified level, a logical zero appears on MCLR pin which holds the microcontroller in reset state until voltage is not within limits that guarantee correct performance.

2.3 Central Processing Unit

Central processing unit (CPU) is the brain of a microcontroller. That part is responsible for finding and obtaining the right instruction which needs to be executed, for decoding that instruction, and finally for its execution.

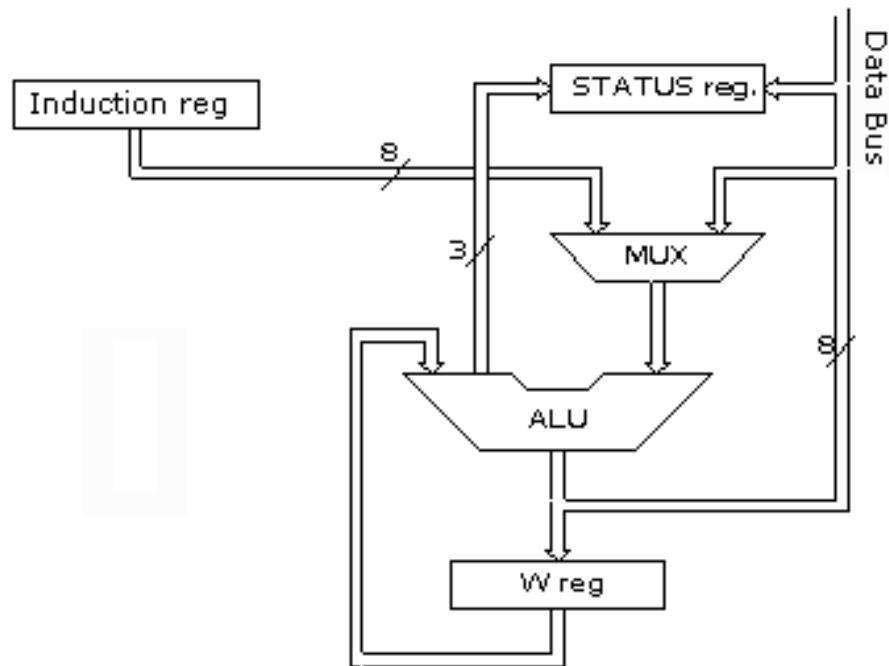


Outline of the central processing unit – CPU

Central processing unit connects all parts of the microcontroller into one whole. Surely, its most important function is to decode program instructions. When programmer writes a program, instructions have a clear form like `MOVLW 0x20`. However, in order for a microcontroller to understand that, this 'letter' form of an instruction must be translated into a series of zeros and ones which is called an 'opcode'. This transition from a letter to binary form is done by translators such as assembler translator (also known as an assembler). Instruction thus derived from program memory must be decoded by a central processing unit. We can then select from the table of all the instructions a set of actions which execute a needed assignment defined in that instruction. As instructions may within themselves contain assignments which require different transfers of data from one memory into another, from memory onto ports, or some other calculations, CPU must be connected with all parts of the microcontroller. This is made possible through a data bus and an address bus.

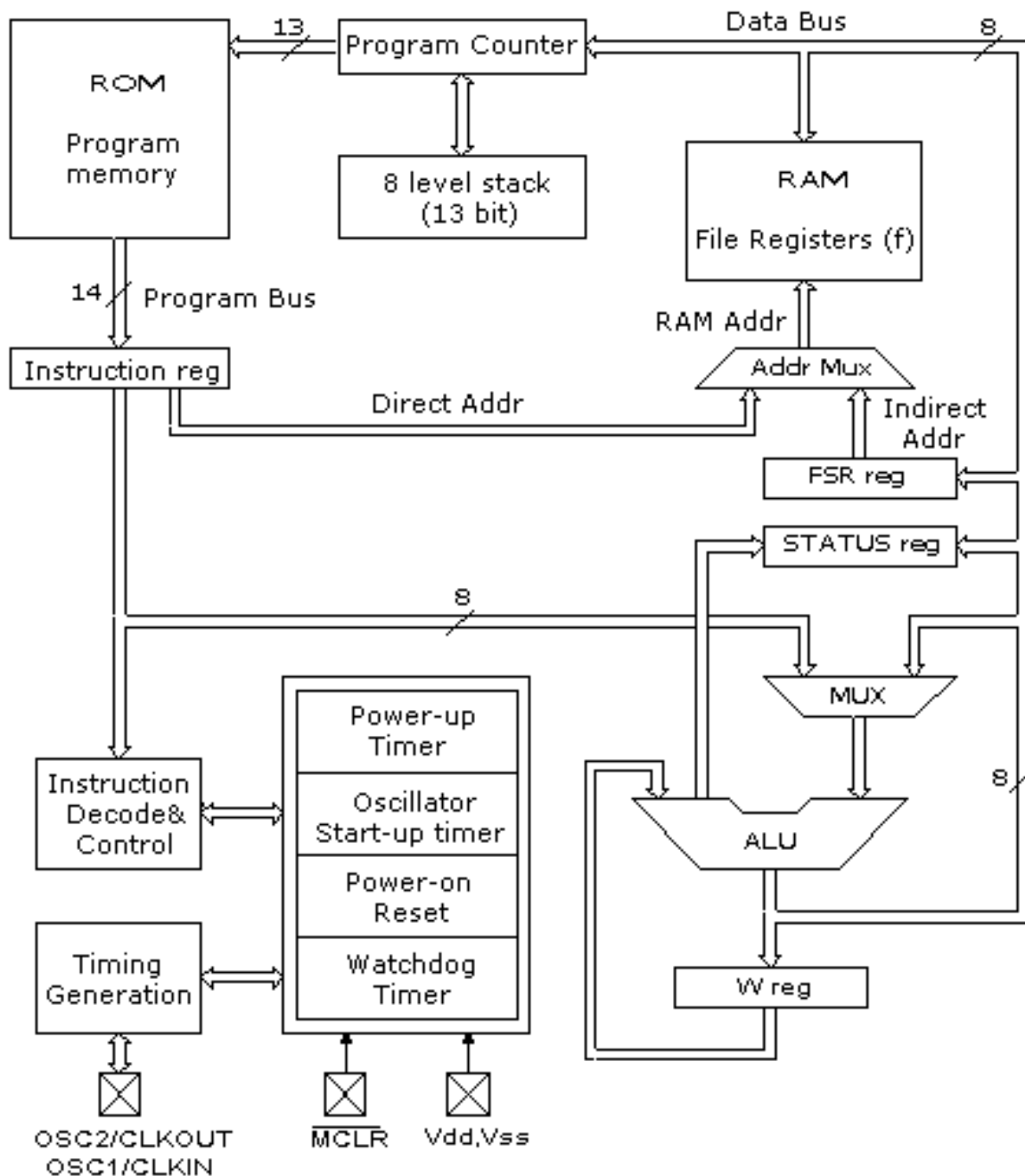
Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

Arithmetic logic unit is responsible for performing operations of adding, subtracting, moving (left or right within a register) and logic operations. Moving data inside a register is also known as 'shifting'. PIC16F84 contains an 8-bit arithmetic logic unit and 8-bit work registers.



Arithmetic-logic unit and how it works

In instructions with two operands, ordinarily one operand is in work register (W register), and the other is one of the registers or a constant. By operand we mean the contents on which some operation is being done, and a register is any one of the GPR or SFR registers. GPR is short for 'General Purposes Registers', and SFR for 'Special Function Registers'. In instructions with one operand, an operand is either W register or one of the registers. As an addition in doing operations in arithmetic and logic, ALU controls status bits (bits found in STATUS register). Execution of some instructions affects status bits, which depends on the result itself. Depending on which instruction is being executed, ALU can affect values of Carry (C), Digit Carry (DC), and Zero (Z) bits in STATUS register.



More detailed block outline of PIC16F84 microcontroller

STATUS Register

R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R-1	R-1	R/W-x	R/W-x	R/W-x
IRP	RP1	RP0	TO	PD	Z	DC	C
bit 7					bit 0		

Legend:

R = Readable bit

W = Writable bit

U = Unimplemented bit, read as '0'

-n = Value at POR reset

bit 0 C (Carry) Transfer

Bit that is affected by operations of addition, subtraction and shifting. This bit is set when a smaller value is being subtracted from a larger one, and is reset when a larger one is subtracted from a smaller one.

1= transfer occurred from the highest resulting bit

0=transfer did not occur

C bit is affected by ADDWF, ADDLW, SUBLW, SUBWF instructions.

bit 1 DC (Digit Carry) DC Transfer

Bit affected by operations of addition and subtraction. Unlike C bit, this bit represents transfer from the fourth resulting place. It is set when smaller value is subtracted from a larger one, and is reset when a larger one is subtracted from a smaller one.

1=transfer occurred on the fourth bit according to the order of the result

0=transfer did not occur

DC bit is affected by ADDWF, ADDLW, SUBLW, SUBWF instructions.

bit 2 Z (Zero bit) Indication of a zero result

This bit is set when the result of an executed arithmetic logic operation is zero.

1=result equals zero

0=result does not equal zero

bit 3 PD (Power-down bit)

Bit which is set whenever supply is brought to a microcontroller as it starts running, after each regular reset and after execution of instruction CLRWDT. Instruction SLEEP resets it when microcontroller falls into low spending/usage regime. Its repeated setting is possible via reset or by turning the supply on, or off. Setting can be triggered also by a signal on RB0/INT pin, change on RB port, completion of writing in internal DATA EEPROM, and by a watchdog, too.

1=after supply has been turned on

0= executing SLEEP instruction

bit 4 TO Time-out ; Watchdog overflow.

Bit is set after turning on the supply and execution of CLRWDT and SLEEP instructions. Bit is reset when watchdog gets to the end signaling that something is not right.

1=overflow did not occur

0=overflow did occur

bit6:5 RP1:RPO (Register Bank Select bits)

These two bits are upper part of the address for direct addressing. Since instructions which address the memory directly have only seven bits, they need one more bit in order to address all 256 bytes which is how many bytes PIC16F84 has. RP1 bit is not used, but is left for some future expansions of this microcontroller.

01=first bank

00=zero bank

bit 7 IRP (Register Bank Select bit)

Bit whose role is to be an eighth bit for indirect addressing of internal RAM.

1=bank 2 and 3

0=bank 0 and 1 (from 00h to FFh)

STATUS register contains arithmetic status ALU (C, DC, Z), RESET status (TO, PD) and bits for selecting of memory bank (IRP, RP1, RPO). Considering that selection of memory bank is controlled through this register, it has to be present in each bank. Memory bank will be discussed

in more detail in Memory organization chapter. STATUS register can be a destination for any instruction, with any other register. If STATUS register is a destination for instructions which affect Z, DC or C bits, then writing to these three bits is not possible.

OPTION register

R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1
RBPU ⁽¹⁾	INTEDG	TOCS	TOSE	PSA	PS2	PS1	PS0
bit 7						bit 0	

Legend:
R = Readable bit **W** = Writable bit
U = Unimplemented bit, read as '0' -n = Value at POR reset

bit 0:2 **PS0, PS1, PS2** (Prescaler Rate Select bit)

These three bits define prescaler rate select bit. What a prescaler is and how these bits can affect the work of a microcontroller will be dealt with in section on TMRO.

Bits	TMRO	WDT
000	1 : 2	1 : 1
001	1 : 4	1 : 2
010	1 : 8	1 : 4
011	1 : 16	1 : 8
100	1 : 32	1 : 16
101	1 : 64	1 : 32
110	1 : 128	1 : 64
111	1 : 256	1 : 128

bit 3 **PSA** (Prescaler Assignment bit)

Bit which assigns prescaler between TMRO and watchdog.

1= prescaler is assigned to watchdog

0= prescaler is assigned to a free timer TMRO

bit 4 **TOSE** (TMRO Source Edge Select bit)

If it is allowed to trigger TMRO by impulses from the pin RA4/TOCKI, this bit determines whether this will be to the falling or rising edge of a signal.

1= falling edge

0= rising edge

bit 5 **TOCS** (TMRO Clock Source Select bit)

This pin enables free timer to increase its state either from internal oscillator on every ¼ of oscillator clock, or through external impulses on RA4/TOCKI pin.

1= external impulses

0= 1/4 internal clock

bit 6 **INTEDG** (Interrupt Edge Select bit)

If interrupt is made possible this bit will determine the edge at which an interrupt will be activated on pin RB0/INT.

1= rising edge

0= falling edge

bit 7 **RBPU** (PORTB Pull-up Enable bit)

This bit turns on and off internal 'pull-up' resistors on port B.

1= "pull-up" resistors turned off

0= "pull-up" resistors turned on

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PORTB

PORTB has 8 pins joined to it. The appropriate register for direction of data is TRISB at address 86h. Setting a bit in TRISB register defines the corresponding port pin as an input pin, and resetting a bit in TRISB register defines the corresponding port pin as the output pin. Each pin on PORTB has a weak internal pull-up resistor (resistor which defines a line to logic one) which can be activated by resetting the seventh bit RBPU in OPTION register. These 'pull-up' resistors are automatically being turned off when port pin is configured as an output. When a microcontroller is started, pull-up's are disabled.

Four pins PORTB, RB7:RB4 can cause an interrupt which occurs when their status changes from logical one into logical zero and the other way around. Only pins configured as input can cause this interrupt to occur (if any RB7:RB4 pin is configured as an output, an interrupt won't be generated at the change of status.) This interrupt option along with internal pull-up resistors makes it easier to solve common problems we find in practice like for instance that of matrix keyboard. If rows on the keyboard are connected to these pins, each push on a key will then cause an interrupt. A microcontroller will determine which key is at hand while processing an interrupt. It is not recommended to refer to port B at the same time that interrupt is being processed.

```

    clrf  STATUS      ;Bank0
    clrf  PORTB       ;PORTB=0
    bsf   STATUS,RPO  ;Bank1
    movlw 0x0F        ;Defining input and output pins
    movwf TRISB      ;Writing to TRISB register

```

The above example shows how pins 0, 1, 2, and 3 are declared for input, and pins 4, 5, 6, and 7 for output.

PORTA

PORTA has 5 pins joined to it. The corresponding register for data direction is TRISA at address 85h. Like with port B, setting a bit in TRISA register defines also the corresponding port pin as an input pin, and resetting a bit in TRISA register defines the corresponding port pin as an output pin. The fifth pin of port A has dual function. On that pin is also situated an external input for timer TMR0. One of these two options is chosen by setting or resetting the TOCS bit (TMR0 Clock Source Select bit). This pin enables the timer TMR0 to increase its status either from internal oscillator or via external impulses on RA4/TOCKI pin.

```

    bcf   STATUS,RPO  ;Bank0
    clrf  PORTA       ;PORTA=0
    bsf   STATUS,RPO  ;Bank1
    movlw 0x1F        ;Defining input and output pins pinova
    movwf TRISA      ;Writing to TRISA register

```

Example shows how pins 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 are declared to be input, and pins 5, 6, and 7 to be output pins.

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2.5 Memory organization

PIC16F84 has two separate memory blocks, one for data and the other for program. EEPROM memory and GPR registers in RAM memory make up a block for data, and FLASH memory makes up a program block.

Program memory

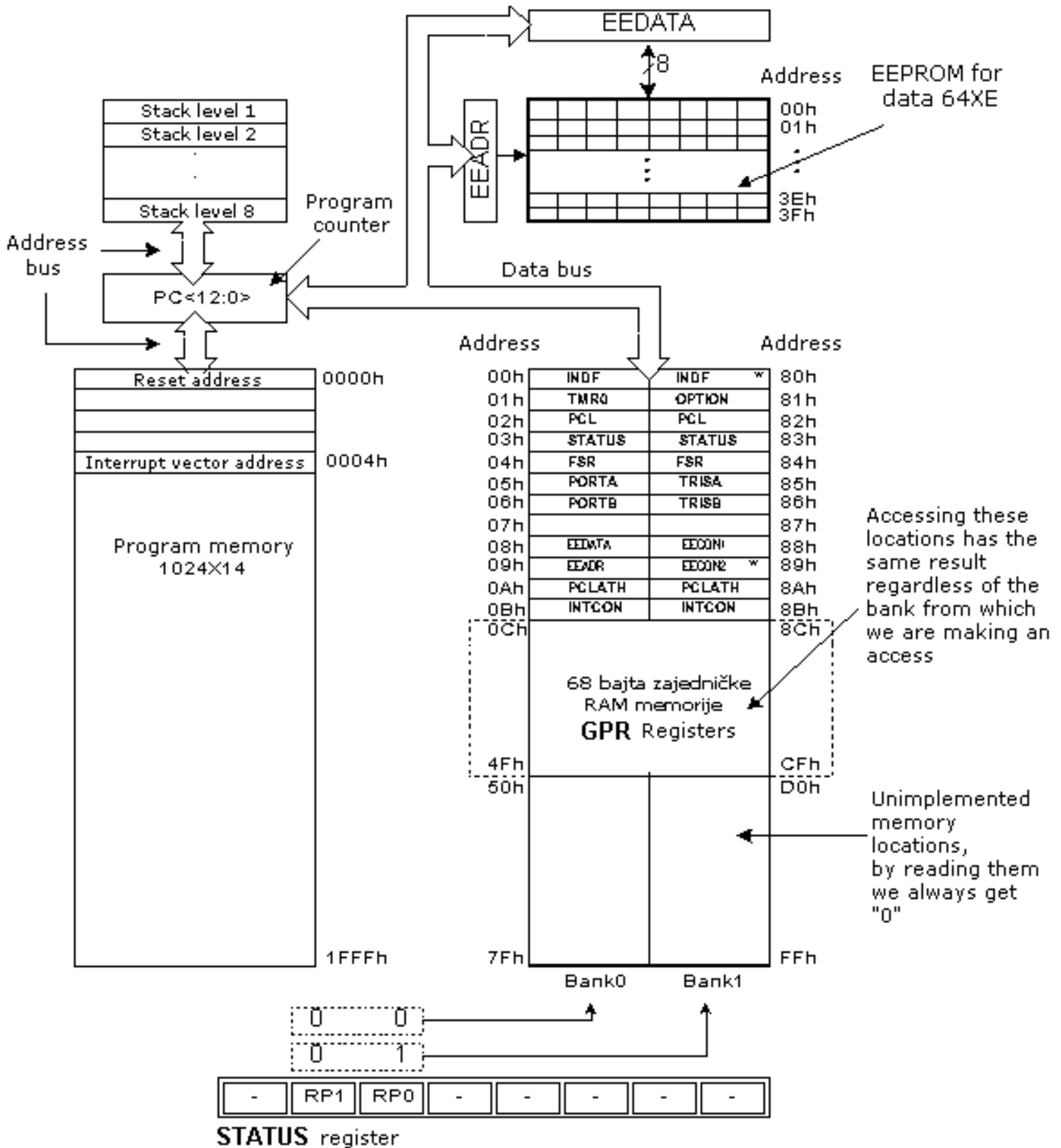
Program memory has been realized in FLASH technology which makes it possible to program a microcontroller many times before it's installed into a device, and even after its installment if eventual changes in program or process parameters should occur. The size of program memory is 1024 locations with 14 bits width where locations zero and four are reserved for reset and interrupt vector.

Data memory

Data memory consists of EEPROM and RAM memories. EEPROM memory consists of 64 eight bit locations whose contents is not lost during an interrupt in supply. EEPROM is not stored directly in memory space, but is accessed indirectly through EEADR and EEDATA registers. As EEPROM memory usually serves for storing important parameters (for example, of a given temperature in temperature regulators) , there is a strict procedure for writing in EEPROM which must be followed in order to avoid accidental writing. RAM memory for data takes up space on a memory map from location 0x0C to 0x4F which comes to 68 locations. Locations of RAM memory are also called GPR registers which is short for General Purpose Registers. GPR registers can be accessed regardless of which bank is selected at the moment.

SFR registers

Registers which take up first 12 locations in banks 0 and 1 are registers of specialized function and have to do with working with certain blocks of the microcontroller. These are called Special Function Registers.



Memory organization of microcontroller 16F84

Memory Banks

Beside this 'linear' division to SFR and GPR registers, memory map is also divided in 'width' (see preceding map) to two areas called 'banks'. Selecting one of the banks is done via RP0 and RP1 bits in STATUS register.

Example:

```
bcf STATUS, RP0
```

Instruction BCF resets bit RP0 (RP0=0) in STATUS register and thus sets up bank 0.

```
bsf STATUS, RP0
```

Instruction BSF sets the bit RP0 (RP0=1) in STATUS register and thus sets up bank1.

Usually, groups of instructions that are often in use, are connected into one unit which can easily be recalled in a program, and whose name has a clear meaning, so called Macros. With their use, selection between two banks becomes more clear and the program itself more legible.

```
BANK0 macro
    Bcf STATUS, RP0    ;Select memory bank 0
Endm

BANK1 macro
    Bsf STATUS, RP0    ;Select memory bank 1
Endm
```



Locations 0Ch - 4Fh are general purpose registers (GPR) which are used as RAM memory. When locations 8Ch - CFh in Bank 1 are accessed, we actually access the exact same locations in Bank 0. In other words, whenever you wish to access one of the GPR registers, there is no need to worry about which bank we are in!

Program Counter

Program counter (PC) is a 13 bit register that contains the address of the instruction being executed. By its incrementing or change (ex. in case of jumps) microcontroller executes program instructions one by one.

Stack

PIC16F84 has a 13-bit stack with 8 levels, or in other words, a group of 8 memory locations of 13 - bits width with special function. Its basic role is to keep the value of program counter after a jump from the main program to an address of a subprogram being executed has occurred. In order for a program to know how to go back to the point where it started from, it has to return the value of a program counter from a stack. When moving from a program to a subprogram, program counter is being pushed onto a stack (example of this is CALL instruction). When executing instructions such as RETURN, RETLW or RETFIE which are executed at the end of a subprogram, program counter is taken from a stack so that program could continue where it stopped before it was interrupted. These operations of placing on and taking off from a program counter stack are called PUSH and POP, and are named after instructions which exist on some bigger microcontrollers.

In System Programming

In order to program a program memory, microcontroller must be set to special working regime by bringing up MCLR pin to 13.5V, and supply voltage V_{dd} has to be stabilized between 4.5V to 5.5V. Program memory can be programmed serially using two 'data/clock' pins which must previously be separated from device lines, so that errors wouldn't come up during programming.

Addressing modes

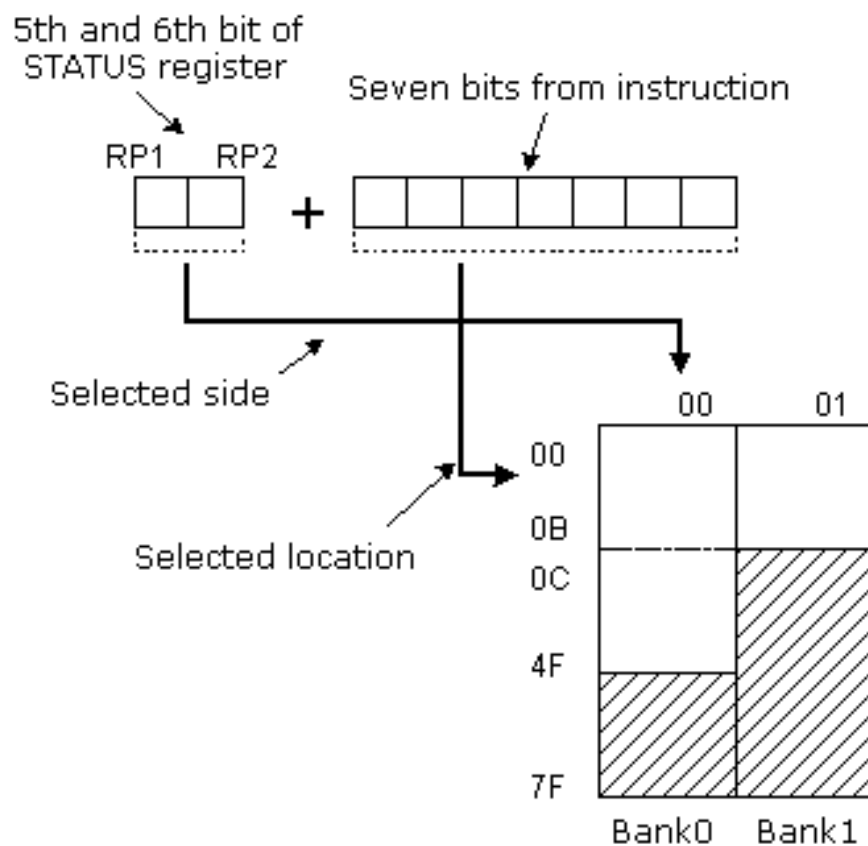
RAM memory locations can be accessed directly or indirectly.

Direct Addressing

Direct Addressing is done through a 9-bit address. This address is obtained by connecting 7th bit of direct address of an instruction with two bits (RP1, RP0) from STATUS register as is shown on the following picture. Any access to SFR registers can be an example of direct addressing.

```

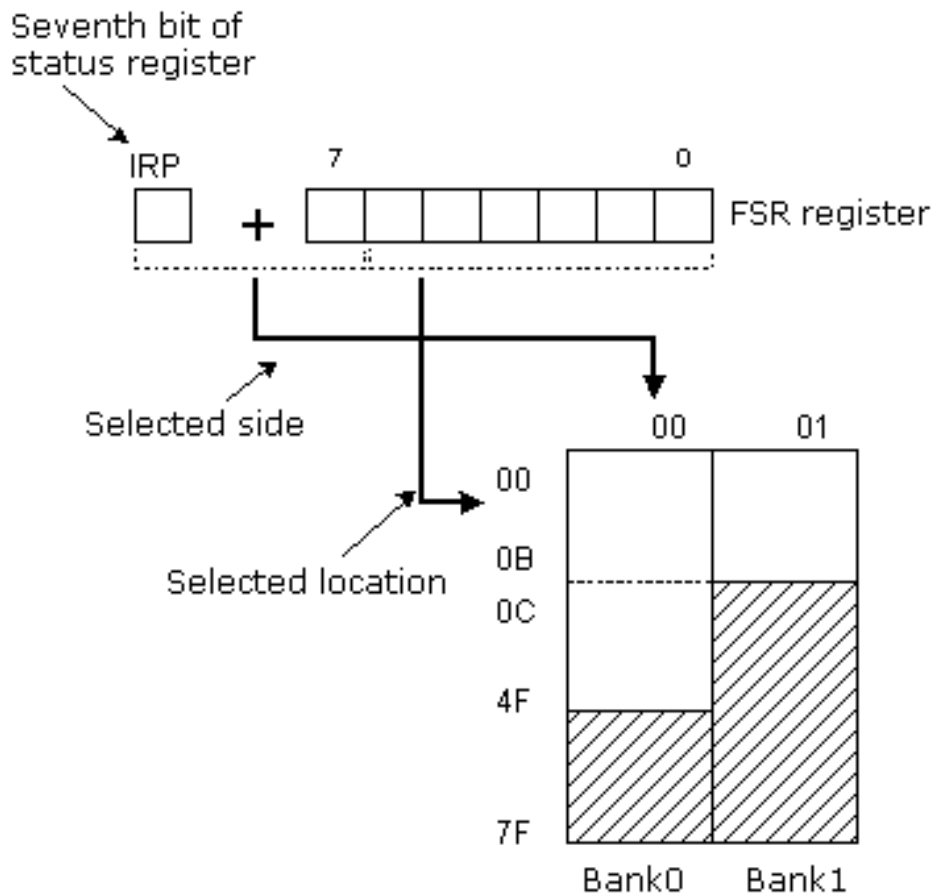
Bsf STATUS, RP0 ;Bank1
movlw 0xFF      ;w=0xFF
movwf TRISA     ;address of TRISA register is taken from
                ;instruction movwf
  
```



Direct addressing

Indirect Addressing

Indirect unlike direct addressing does not take an address from an instruction but makes it with the help of IRP bit of STATUS and FSR registers. Addressed location is accessed via INDF register which in fact holds the address indicated by a FSR. In other words, any instruction which uses INDF as its register in reality accesses data indicated by a FSR register. Let's say, for instance, that one general purpose register (GPR) at address 0Fh contains a value of 20. By writing a value of 0Fh in FSR register we will get a register indicator at address 0Fh, and by reading from INDF register, we will get a value of 20, which means that we have read from the first register its value without accessing it directly (but via FSR and INDF). It appears that this type of addressing does not have any advantages over direct addressing, but certain needs do exist during programming which can be solved smoothly only through indirect addressing.



Indirect addressing

An example can be sending a set of data via serial communication, working with buffers and indicators (which will be discussed further in a chapter with examples), or erasing a part of RAM memory (16 locations) as in the following instance.

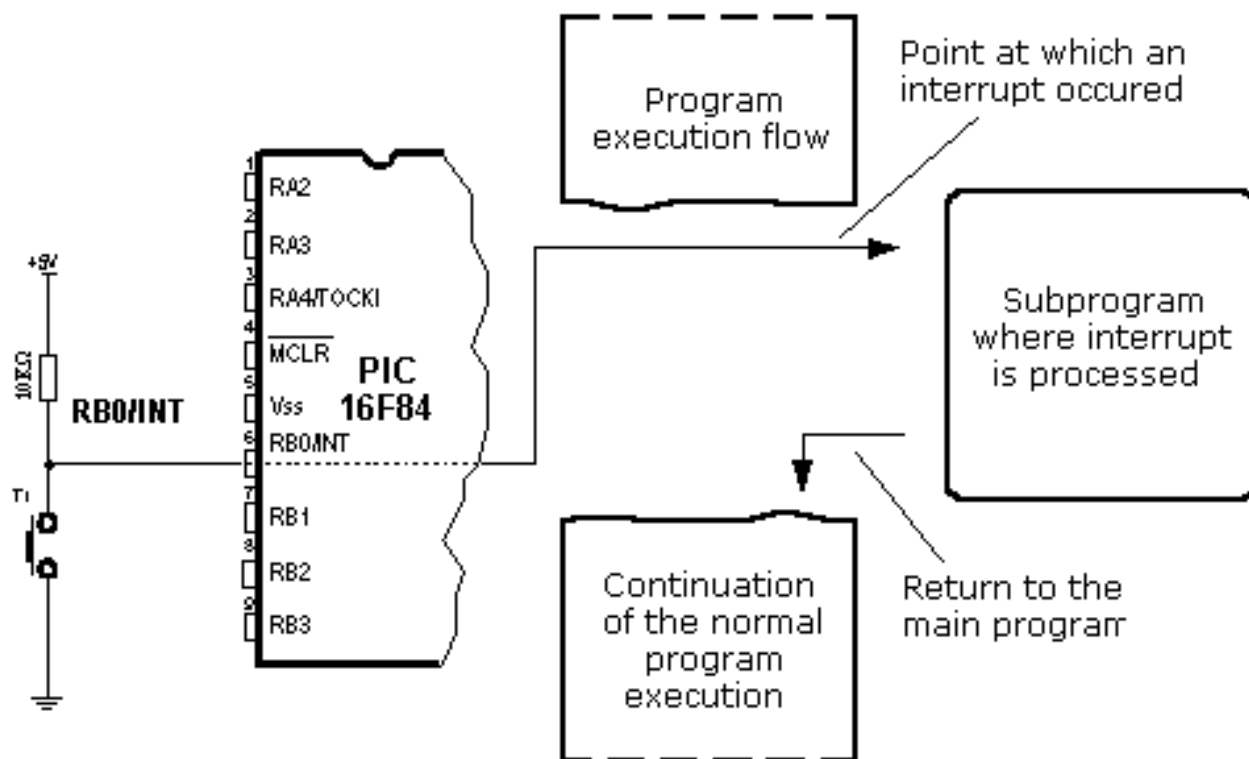
```
        Movlw 0x0C           ;initialization of starting address
        Movwf FSR           ;FSR indicates address 0x0C
LOOP    clrf INDF           ;INDF = 0
        incf FSR            ;address = initial address + 1
        btfss FSR,4        ;are all locations erased
        goto loop          ;no, go through a loop again
CONTINUE
        :                  ; yes, continue with program
```

Reading data from INDF register when the contents of FSR register is equal to zero returns the value of zeros, and writing to it results in NOP operation (no operation).

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2.6 Interrupts

Interrupts are a mechanism of a microcontroller which makes it possible to respond to some events at the moment when they occur, regardless of what microcontroller is doing at the time. This is a very important part, because it provides connection between a microcontroller and a real world which surrounds us. Generally, each interrupt changes the flow of program execution, interrupts it and after executing an interrupt subprogram (interrupt routine) it continues from that same point on.



One of the possible sources of an interrupt and how it affects the main program

Control register of an interrupt is called INTCON and is found at 0Bh address. Its role is to allow or disallowed interrupts, and in case they are not allowed, it registers specific interrupt requests through its own bits.

INTCON Register

R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0	R/W-0
GIE	PEIE	TOIE	INTE	RBIE	TOIF	INTF	RBIF
bit 7						bit 0	

Legend:
R = Readable bit **W** = Writable bit
U = Unimplemented bit, read as '0' -n = Value at POR reset

bit 0 RBIF (RB Port Change Flag bit) Bit which informs about changes on pins 4, 5, 6 and 7 of port B.

1=at least one pin has changed its status

0=no change occurred on any of the pins

bit 1 INTF (INT External Interrupt Flag bit) External interrupt occurred.

1=interrupt occurred

0=interrupt did not occur

If a rising or falling edge is detected on pin RB0/INT, (which is defined with bit INTEDG in OPTION register), bit INTF is set. Bit must be reset in interrupt subprogram in order to detect the next interrupt.

bit 2 TOIF (TMR0 Overflow Interrupt Flag bit) Overflow of counter TMR0.

1= counter changed its status with FFh 00h

0=overflow did not occur

Bit must be reset in program in order for an interrupt to be detected.

bit 3 RBIE (RB port change Interrupt Enable bit) Enables interrupts to occur at the change of status of pins 4, 5, 6, and 7 of port B.

1= enables interrupts at the change of status

0=interrupts disabled at the change of status

If RBIE and RBIF are simultaneously set, an interrupt will occur.

bit 4 INTE (INT External Interrupt Enable bit) Bit which enables external interrupt from pin RB0/INT.

1=external interrupt enabled

0=external interrupt disabled

If INTE and INTF are set simultaneously, an interrupt will occur.

bit 5 TOIE (TMR0 Overflow Interrupt Enable bit) Bit which enables interrupts during counter TMR0 overflow.

1=interrupt enabled

0=interrupt disabled

If TOIE and TOIF are set simultaneously, interrupt will occur.

Bit 6 EEIE (EEPROM Write Complete Interrupt Enable bit) Bit which enables an interrupt at the end of a writing routine to EEPROM

1=interrupt enabled

0=interrupt disabled

If EEIE and EEIF (which is in EECON1 register) are set simultaneously, an interrupt will occur.

Bit 7 GIE (Global Interrupt Enable bit) Bit which allows or disallows all interrupts.

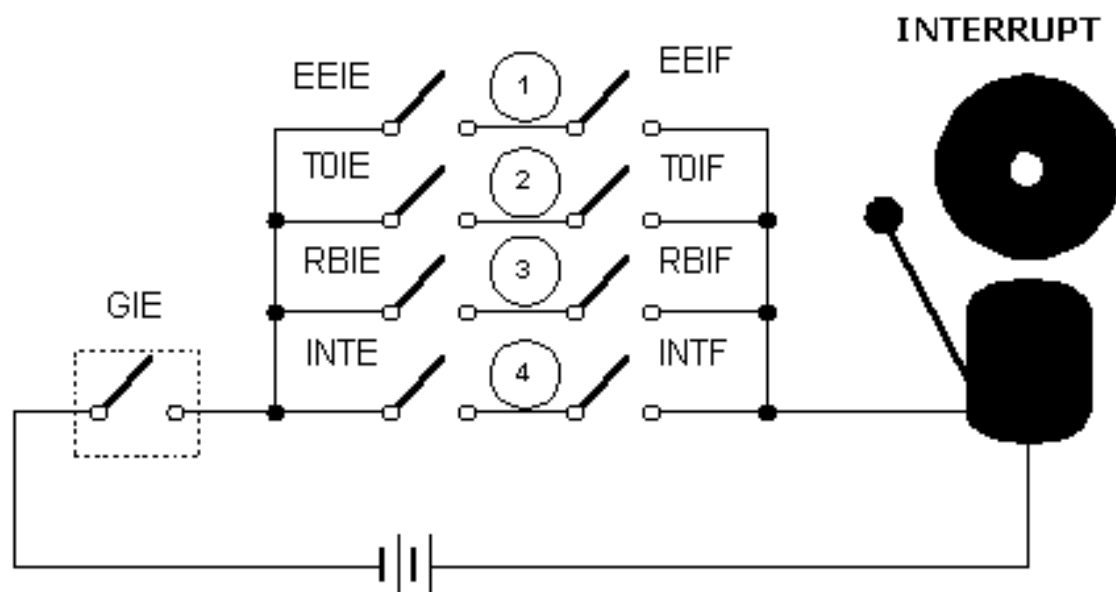
1=all interrupts are enabled

0= all interrupts are disabled

PIC16F84 has four interrupt sources:

1. Termination of writing data to EEPROM
2. TMR0 interrupt caused by timer overflow
3. Interrupt during alteration on RB4, RB5, RB6 and RB7 pins of port B.
4. External interrupt from RB0/INT pin of microcontroller

Generally speaking, each interrupt source has two bits joined to it. One enables interrupts, and the other detects when interrupts occur. There is one common bit called GIE which can be used to disallow or enable all interrupts simultaneously. This bit is very useful when writing a program because it allows for all interrupts to be disabled for a period of time, so that execution of some important part of a program would not be interrupted. When instruction which resets GIE bit is executed (GIE=0, all interrupts disallowed), any interrupt that remained unsolved should be ignored.



Outline of 16F84 microcontroller interrupt

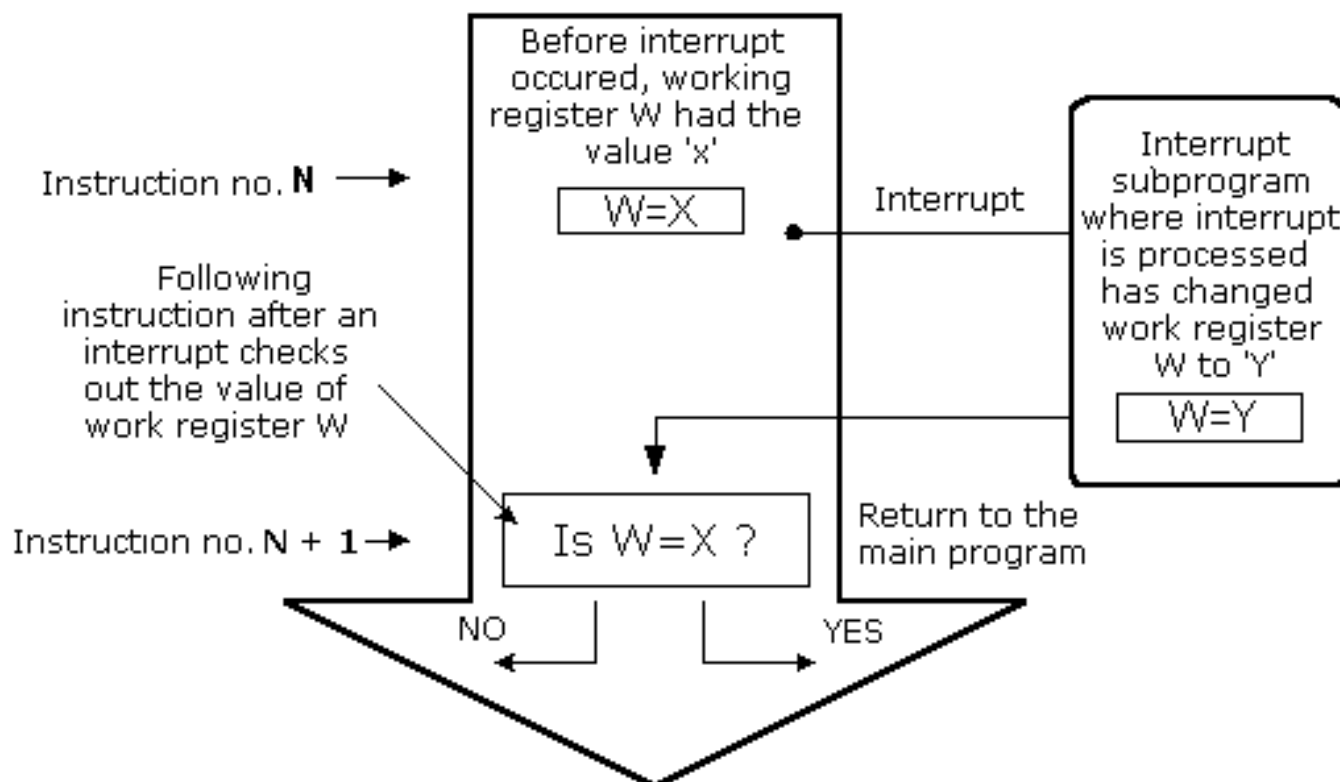
Interrupts which remained unsolved and are ignored, are processed when GIE bit (GIE= 1, all interrupts allowed) is reset. When interrupt is answered, GIE bit is reset so that any additional interrupts would be disabled, return address is pushed onto stack and address 0004h is written in program counter - only after this does replying to an interrupt begin! After interrupt is processed, bit whose setting caused an interrupt must be reset, or interrupt routine will automatically be processed over again during a return to the main program.

Keeping the contents of important registers

Only return value of program counter is stored on a stack during an interrupt (by return value of program counter we mean the address of the instruction which was to be executed, but wasn't because interrupt occurred). Keeping only the value of program counter is often not enough. Some registers which are already in use in the main program can also be in use in interrupt routine. If

they were not retained, main program would during a return from an interrupt routine get completely different values in those registers, which would cause an error in the program. One example for such a case is contents of the work register W. If we suppose that main program was using work register W for some of its operations, and if it had stored in it some value that's important for the following instruction, then an interrupt which occurs before that instruction will change the value of work register W which will directly influence the main program.

Procedure of recording important registers before going to an interrupt routine is called PUSH, while the procedure which brings recorded values back, is called POP. PUSH and POP are instructions with some other microcontrollers (Intel), but are so widely accepted that a whole operation is named after them. PIC16F84 does not have instructions like PUSH and POP, and they have to be programmed.



One of the possible cases of errors if saving is not done when going to a subprogram of an interrupt

Due to simplicity and frequent usage, these parts of the program can be made as macros. The concept of a Macro is explained in "Program assembly language". In the following example, contents of W and STATUS registers are stored in W_TEMP and STATUS_TEMP variables prior to interrupt routine. At the beginning of PUSH routine we need to check presently selected bank because W_TEMP and STATUS_TEMP are found in bank 0. For exchange of data between these registers, SWAPF instruction is used instead of MOVF because it does not affect the status of STATUS register bits.

Example is a program assembler for following steps:

1. Testing the current bank
2. Storing W register regardless of the current bank
3. Storing STATUS register in bank 0.


```

push    macro
        movwf W_Temp           ;W_Temp <- W
        swapf W_Temp,F        ;Swap them
        BANK1                 ;Macro for switching to Bank1
        swapf OPTION_REG,W    ;W <- OPTION_REG
        movwf Option_Temp     ;Option_Temp <- W
        BANK0                 ;macro for switching to Bank0
        swapf STATUS,W       ;W <- STATUS
        movwf Stat_Temp      ;Stat_Temp <-W
        endm                  ;End of push macro

pop     macro
        swapf Stat_Temp,W     ;W <- Stat_Temp
        movwf STATUS         ;STATUS <- W
        BANK1                 ;Macro for switching to Bank1
        swapf Option_Temp,W  ;W <- Option_Temp
        movwf OPTION_REG     ;OPTION_REG <- W
        BANK0                 ;Macro for switching to Bank0
        swapf W_Temp,W       ;W <- W_Temp
        endm                  ;End of a pop macro

```

External interrupt on RB0/INT pin of microcontroller

External interrupt on RB0/INT pin is triggered by rising signal edge (if bit INTEDG= 1 in OPTION<6> register), or falling edge (if INTEDG=0). When correct signal appears on INT pin, INTF bit is set in INTCON register. INTF bit (INTCON<1>) must be reset in interrupt routine, so that interrupt wouldn't occur again while going back to the main program. This is an important part of the program which programmer must not forget, or program will constantly go into interrupt routine. Interrupt can be turned off by resetting INTE control bit (INTCON<4>).

Interrupt during a TMR0 counter overflow

Overflow of TMR0 counter (with FFh on 00h) will set TOIF (INTCON<2>) bit. This is quite a significant interrupt because many real problems can be solved using this interrupt. One of the examples is time measurement. If we know how much time counter needs in order to complete one cycle from 00h to FFh, then a number of interrupts multiplied by that amount of time will yield the total of elapsed time. In interrupt routine some variable would be incremented in RAM memory, value of that variable multiplied by the amount of time the counter needs to count through a whole cycle, would yield total elapsed time. Interrupt can be turned on/off by setting/resetting TOIE (INTCON<5>) bit.

Interrupt during a change on pins 4, 5, 6 and 7 of port B

Change of input signal on PORTB <7:4> sets RBIF (INTCON<0>) bit. Four pins RB7, RB6, RB5 and RB4 of port B, can trigger an interrupt which occurs when status on them changes from logic one to logic zero, or vice versa. For pins to be sensitive to this change, they must be defined as input. If any one of them is defined as output, interrupt will not be generated at the change of status. If they are defined as input, their current state is compared to the old value which was stored at the last reading from port B. Interrupt can be turned on/off by setting/resetting RBIE bit

in INTCON register.

Interrupt during

This interrupt is of practical nature only. Since writing to one EEPROM location takes about 10ms (which is a long time in the notion of a microcontroller), it doesn't pay off to a microcontroller to wait for writing to end. Thus interrupt mechanism is added which allows the microcontroller to continue executing the main program, while writing in EEPROM is being done in the background. When writing is completed, interrupt informs the microcontroller that writing has ended. EEIF bit, through which this informing is done, is found in EECON1 register. Occurrence of an interrupt can be disabled by resetting the EEIE bit in INTCON register.

Interrupt initialization

In order to use an interrupt mechanism of a microcontroller, some preparatory tasks need to be performed. These procedures are in short called "initialization". By initialization we define to what interrupts the microcontroller will respond, and which ones it will ignore. If we do not set the bit that allows a certain interrupt, program will not execute an interrupt subprogram. Through this we can obtain control over interrupt occurrence, which is very useful.

```

clrf INTCON           ; all interrupts disabled
movlw B'00010000'    ; external interrupt only is enabled
bsf INTCON, GIE      ; occurrence of interrupts allowed

```

The above example shows initialization of external interrupt on RB0 pin of a microcontroller. Where we see one being set, that means that interrupt is enabled. Occurrence of other interrupts is not allowed, and all interrupts together are disallowed until GIE bit is set to one.

The following example shows a typical way of handling interrupts. PIC16F84 has only one location where the address of an interrupt subprogram is stored. This means that first we need to detect which interrupt is at hand (if more than one interrupt source is available), and then we can execute that part of a program which refers to that interrupt.

```

org ISR_ADDR           ;ISR_ADDR is interrupt routine address
btfsc INTCON, GIE     ;GIE bit turned off?
goto ISR_ADR          ;no, go back to the beginning
PUSH                  ;keep the contents of important registers
btfsc INTCON, RBIF    ;change on pins 4, 5, 6 and 7 of port B?
goto ISR_PORTB       ;jump to that section
btfsc INTCON, INTF    ;external interrupt occurred?
goto ISR_RBO         ;jump to that part
btfsc INTCON, TOIF    ;overflow of timer TMRO?
goto ISR_TMRO        ;jump to that section
BANK1                 ;Bank1 because of EECON1
Btfsc EECON1, EEIF    ;writing to EEPROM completed?
goto ISR_EEPROM      ;jump to that section
BANK0                 ;Bank0

ISR_PORTB
:                    ;section of code which is processed by an
                    ;interrupt ?
:
goto END_ISR         ;jump to the exit of an interrupt
ISR_RBO
:                    ;section of code processing an interrupt?
:
goto END_ISR        ;jump to exit of an interrupt.
ISR_TMRO
:                    ;section of code processing an interrupt
:
goto END_ISR        ;jump to the exit of an interrupt
ISR_EEPROM
:                    ;section of code which processes an interrupt
:
goto END_ISR        ;jump to an exit from an interrupt.
END_ISR
:
POP                  ;bringing back the contents of important
                    ;registers
RETFIE               ;return and setting of GIE bit

```



Return from interrupt routine can be accomplished with instructions RETURN, RETLW and RETFIE. It is recommended that instruction RETFIE be used because that instruction is the only one which automatically sets the GIE bit which bit allows new interrupts to occur.

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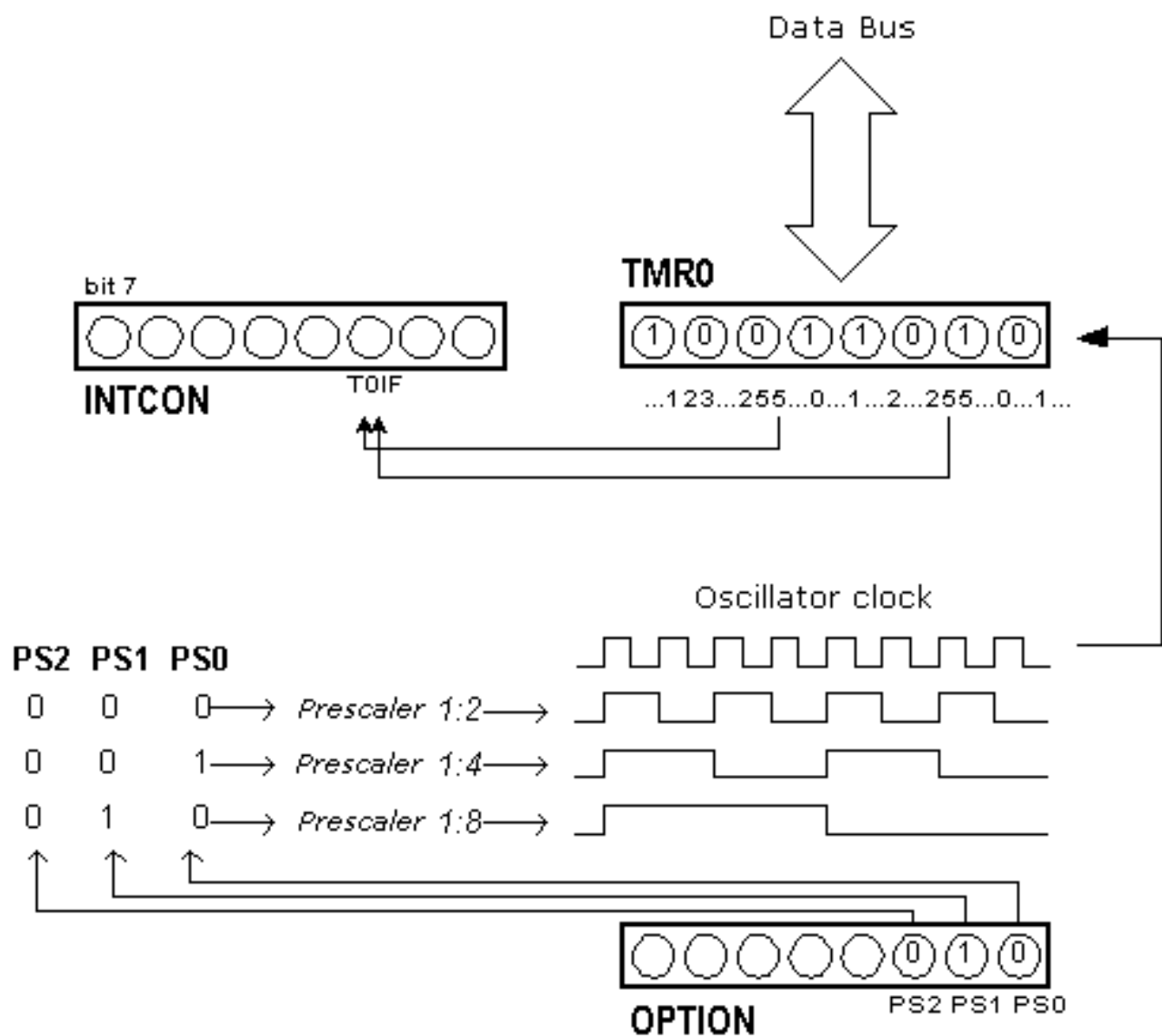
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2.7 Free timer TMR0

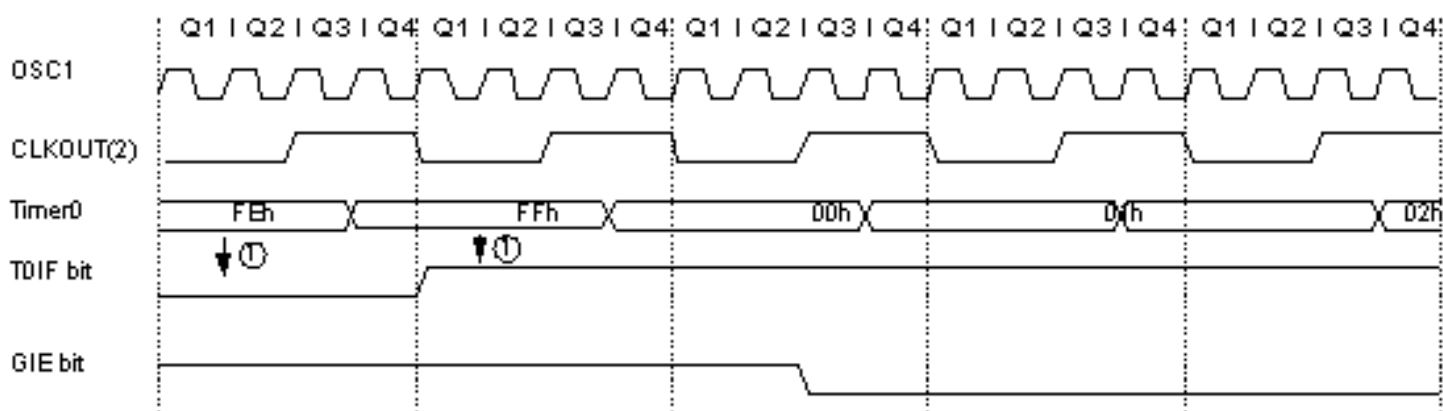
Timers are ordinarily most complicated parts of a microcontroller, so it is necessary to set aside more time for their mastering. With their application it is possible to create relations between a real dimension such as "time" and a variable which represents status of a timer within a microcontroller. Physically, timer is a register whose value is continually increasing to 255, and then it starts all over again: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4...255.....1, 2, 3.....etc.



Relation between the timer TMR0 and prescaler

This incrementing is done in the background of everything a microcontroller does. It is up to programmer to "think up a way" how he will take advantage of this characteristic for his needs. One of the ways is increasing some variable on each timer overflow. If we know how much time a timer needs to make one complete round, then multiplying the value of a variable by that time will yield the total amount of elapsed time.

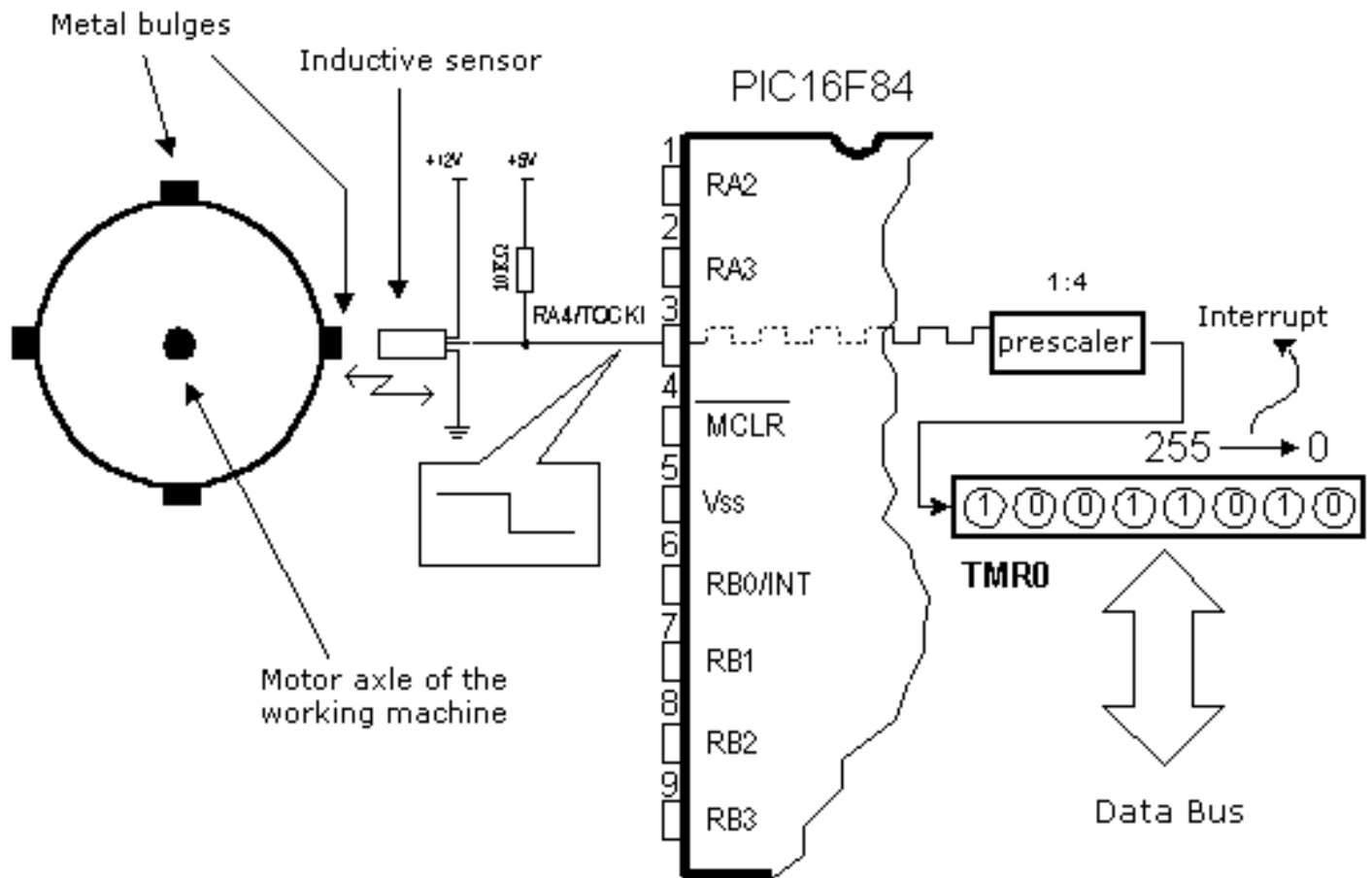
PIC16F84 has an 8-bit timer. Number of bits determines what value timer counts to before starting to count from zero again. In the case of an 8-bit timer, that number is 256. A simplified scheme of relation between a timer and a prescaler is represented on the previous diagram. Prescaler is a name for the part of a microcontroller which divides oscillator clock before it will reach logic that increases timer status. Number which divides a clock is defined through first three bits in OPTION register. The highest divisor is 256. This actually means that only at every 256th clock, timer status would increase by one. This provides us with the ability to measure longer timer periods.



Note: 1. Interrupt flag bit TOIF is examined at the new place at each Q1 cycle
3. CLKOUT exists only in RC oscillator mode

Time diagram of interrupt occurrence with TMR0 timer

After each count up to 255, timer resets its value to zero and starts with a new cycle of counting to 255. During each transition from 255 to zero, TOIF bit in INTCOM register is set. If interrupts are allowed to occur, this can be taken advantage of in generating interrupts and in processing interrupt routine. It is up to programmer to reset TOIF bit in interrupt routine, so that new interrupt, or new overflow could be detected. Beside the internal oscillator clock, timer status can also be increased by the external clock on RA4/TOCKI pin. Choosing one of these two options is done in OPTION register through TOCS bit. If this option of external clock is selected, it is possible to define the edge of a signal (rising or falling), on which timer will increase its value.



Application of TMR0 timer to determining a number of full axle turns of the working machine of a motor

In practice, one of the typical examples that is solved via external clock and a timer is counting full turns of an axle of some production machine, like transformer winder for instance. Let's wind four metal screws on the axle of a winder. These four screws will represent metal convexity. Let's place now the inductive sensor at a distance of 5mm from the head of a screw. Inductive sensor will generate the falling signal every time the head of the screw is parallel with sensor head. Each signal will represent one fourth of a full turn, and the sum of all full turns will be found in TMR0 timer. Program can easily read this data from the timer through a data bus.

The following example illustrates how to initialize timer to signal falling edges from external clock source with a prescaler 1:4. Timer works in "polig" mode.


```

    clrf TMRO           ;TMRO=0
    clrf INTCON        ;Interrupts and TOIF=0 disallowed
    bsf STATUS,RPO    ;Bank1 because of OPTION_REG
    movlw B'00110001' ;prescaler 1:4, falling edge selected external
                        ;clock source and pull up ;selected resistors
                        ;on port B activated
    movwf OPTION_REG ;OPTION_REG <- W
TO_OVFL
    btfss INTCON, TOIF ;testing overflow bit
    goto TO_OVFL      ;interrupt has not occurred yet, wait
;
; (Part of the program which processes data regarding a number of turns)
;
goto TO_OVFL          ;waiting for new overflow

```

The same example can be realized through an interrupt in the following way:

```

    org 0x00           ;reset vector address
    goto Start        ;beginning of program

    org 0x04           ;interrupt vector address
    goto TO_OVFL      ;beginning of interrupt routine

Start clrf TMRO       ;TMRO=0
    clrf INTCON       ;Interrupts and TOIF=0 disallowed
    bsf STATUS,RPO   ;Bank1 because of OPTION_REG
    movlw B'00110001' ;prescaler 1:4, falling edge, external clock
                        ;source and pull up selected ;resistors on port
                        ;B activated
    movwf OPTION_REG ;OPTION_REG <- W
    bsf INTCON,TOIE  ;interrupt on overflow enabled
    bsf INTCON,GIE   ;interrupts allowed
TO_OVFL

; (Part of the program which is processing data regarding a number of
; turns)

bcf INTCON,TOIF     ;interrupt flag is cleared so that next one could be
                    ;detected
retfie              ;return from interrupt routine

```

Prescaler can join either timer TMRO or a watchdog. Watchdog is a mechanism which microcontroller uses to defend itself against programs getting stuck. As with any other electrical circuit, so with a microcontroller too can occur failure, or some work impairment. Unfortunately,

microcontroller also has a component called program where problems can occur as well. When this happens, microcontroller will stop working and will remain in that state until someone resets it. Because of this, watchdog mechanism has been introduced. After a certain period of time, watchdog resets the microcontroller (microcontroller in fact resets itself). Watchdog works on a simple principle: if timer overflow occurs, microcontroller is reset, and it starts executing a program all over again. In this way, reset will occur in case of both correct and incorrect functioning. Next step is preventing reset in case of correct functioning, which is done by writing zero in WDT register (instruction CLRWDT) every time it nears its overflow. Thus program will prevent a reset as long as it's executing correctly. Once it gets stuck, zero will be written, overflow of WDT timer and a reset will occur which will bring the microcontroller back to correct functioning again.

Prescaler is accorded to timer TMR0, or to watchdog timer with the help of PSA bit in OPTION register. By clearing PSA bit, prescaler will be accorded to timer TMR0. When prescaler is accorded to timer TMR0, all instructions of writing to TMR0 register (CLRF TMR0, MOVWF TMR0, BSF TMR0,...) will clear prescaler. When prescaler is assigned to a watchdog timer, only CLRWDT instruction will clear a prescaler at the same time watchdog clears it. Prescaler change is completely under programmer's control, and can be changed while program is running.



There is only one prescaler and one timer. Depending on the needs, they are accorded either to timer TMR0 or to a watchdog.

OPTION Control Register

R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-1
$\overline{\text{RBPU}}^{(1)}$	INTEDG	TOCS	TOSE	PSA	PS2	PS1	PS0
bit 7							bit 0

Legend:
R = Readable bit **W** = Writable bit
U = Unimplemented bit, read as '0' -n = Value at POR reset

Bit 0:2 PS0, PS1, PS2 (Prescaler Rate Select bit)

The subject of a prescaler, and how these bits affect the work of a microcontroller will be covered in section on TMR0.

Bits	TMR0	WDT
000	1 : 2	1 : 1
001	1 : 4	1 : 2
010	1 : 8	1 : 4
011	1 : 16	1 : 8
100	1 : 32	1 : 16
101	1 : 64	1 : 32
110	1 : 128	1 : 64
111	1 : 256	1 : 128

bit 3 PSA (Prescaler Assignment bit)

Bit which assigns prescaler between TMR0 and watchdog timer.

1=prescaler is assigned to watchdog timer.

0=prescaler is assigned to free timer TMR0

bit 4 TOSE (TMR0 Source Edge Select bit)

If we are able to trigger TMR0 with impulses from a RA4/T0CKI pin, this bit will determine whether it will be on the rising or falling edge of a signal.

1=falling edge

0=rising edge

bit 5 TOCS (TMR0 Clock Source Select bit)

This pin enables a free timer to increment its status either from an internal oscillator, which is on every 1 of oscillator clock, or via external impulses on RA4/T0CKI pin.

1=external impulses

0=1/4 internal clock

bit 6 INTEDG (Interrupt Edge Select bit)

If occurrence of interrupts is enabled, this bit will determine at what edge interrupt on RB0/INT pin will occur.

1= "pull-up" resistors turned off

0= "pull-up" resistors turned on

bit 7 RBPU (PORTB Pull-up Enable bit)

This bit turns internal pull-up resistors on port B on or off.

1= 'pull-up' resistors turned on

0= 'pull-up' resistors turned off

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2.8 EEPROM Data memory

PIC16F84 has 64 bytes of EEPROM memory locations on addresses from 00h to 63h that can be written to or read from. The most important characteristic of this memory is that it does not lose its contents during supply. That practically means that what is written to it remains even if microcontroller is turned off. Data can be retained in EEPROM without supply for up to 40 years (as maker of PIC16F84 microcontroller says), and up to 10000 cycles of writing can be executed.

In practice, EEPROM memory is used for storing important data or some process parameters. One such parameter is a given temperature, assigned when setting up a temperature regulator to some process. In case that this data isn't retained, it will be necessary to adjust a given temperature after each loss of supply. Since this is very impractical (and even dangerous), makers of microcontrollers have began installing one smaller type of EEPROM memory.

EEPROM memory is contained in a special memory space and can be accessed through special registers. These registers are:

- **EEDATA** at address 08h, which holds data that is read or that needs to be written.
- **EEADR** at address 09h, which contains an address of EEPROM location being accessed.
- **EECON1** at address 88h, which contains control bits.
- **EECON2** at address 89h. This register does not exist physically and serves to protect EEPROM from accidental writing.

EECON1 register at address 88h is a control register with five applied bits.

Bits 5, 6 and 7 are not used, and when read always are zero. Interpretation of EECON1 register bits follows.

EECON1 Register

U-0	U-0	U-0	R/W-1	R/W-1	R/W-x	R/S-0	R/S-x
—	—	—	EEIF ⁽¹⁾	WRERR	WREN	WR	RD
bit 7							bit 0

Legend:

R = Readable bit **W** = Writable bit

U = Unimplemented bit, read as '0' **-n** = Value at POR reset

bit 0 **RD** (Read Control bit)

Setting this bit initializes transfer of data from address defined in EEADR to EEDATA register. Since time is not as essential in reading data as in writing, data from EEDATA can already be used further in the next instruction.

1=initializes reading
0=does not initialize reading

bit 1 **WR** (Write Control bit)

Setting of this bit initializes writing data from EEDATA register to the address on EEADR register.

1=initializes writing
0=does not initialize writing

bit 2 **WREN** (EEPROM Write Enable bit) Enables writing to EEPROM

If this bit is not set, microcontroller will not allow writing to EEPROM.

1=writing allowed
0=writing disallowed

bit 3 **WRERR** (EEPROM Error Flag bit) Error during writing to EEPROM

This bit is set only in cases when writing to EEPROM was interrupted by a reset signal or by running out of time in watchdog timer (if it's activated).

1=error occurred
0=error did not occur

bit 4 **EEIF** (EEPROM Write Operation Interrupt Flag bit) Bit used to inform that writing data to EEPROM has ended.

When writing has terminated, this bit will be set automatically. Programmer must reset EEIF bit in his program in order to detect new termination of writing.

1=writing terminated
0=writing not terminated yet, or has not started

Reading from EEPROM Memory

Setting the RD bit initializes transfer of data from address found in EEADR register to EEDATA register. As in reading data we don't need so much time as in writing, data taken over from EEDATA register can already be used further in the next instruction.

Sample of the part of a program which reads data in EEPROM, could look something like the following:

```

bcf    STATUS, RPO           ;bank0, because EEADR is at 09h
movlw  0x00                 ;address of location being read
movwf  EEADR                ;address transferred to EEADR
bsf    STATUS, RPO           ;bank1 because EECON1 is at 88h
bsf    EECON1, RD           ;reading from EEPROM
bcf    STATUS, RPO           ;Bank0 because EEDATA is at 08h
movf   EEDATA, W            ;W <-- EEDATA

```

After the last program instruction, contents from an EEPROM address zero can be found in working register w.

Writing to EEPROM Memory

In order to write data to EEPROM location, programmer must first write address to EEADR register and data to EEDATA register. Only then is it useful to set WR bit which sets the whole action in

motion. WR bit will be reset, and EEIF bit set following a writing which may be used in processing interrupts. Values 55h and AAh are the first and the second key which make it impossible for accidental writing to EEPROM to occur. These two values are written to EECON2 which serves only that purpose, to receive these two values and thus prevent any accidental writing to EEPROM memory. Program lines marked as 1, 2, 3, and 4 must be executed in that order in even time intervals. Therefore, it is very important to turn off interrupts which could change the timing needed for executing instructions. After writing, interrupts can be enabled again in the end.

Example of the part of a program which writes data 0xEE to first location in EEPROM memory could look something like the following:

```

bcf    STATUS, RPO           ;bank0, because EEADR is at 09h
movlw  0x00                 ;address of location being
                               ;written to
movwf  EEADR                ;address being transferred to
                               ;EEADR
movlw  0xEE                 ;write the value 0xEE
movwf  EEDATA               ;data goes to EEDATA register
bsf    STATUS, RPO         ;Bank1 because EEADR is at 09h
bcf    INTCON, GIE         ;all interrupts are disabled
bsf    EECON1, WREN        ;writing enabled
movlw  55h
1)    movwf EECON2          ;first key 55h --> EECON2
2)    movlw AAh
3)    movwf EECON2          ;second key AAh --> EECON2
4)    bsf EECON1, WR        ;initializes writing
      bsf INTCON, GIE       ;interrupts are enabled

```



*It is recommended that WREN be turned off the whole time except when writing data to EEPROM, so that possibility of accidental writing would be minimal.
All writing to EEPROM will automatically clear a location prior to writing anew!*

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CHAPTER 3

Instruction Set

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Introduction

We have already mentioned that microcontroller is not like any other integrated circuit. When they come out of production most integrated circuits are ready to be built into devices which is not the case with microcontrollers. In order to "make" microcontroller perform a task, we have to tell it exactly what to do, or in other words we must write the program microcontroller will execute. We will describe in this chapter instructions which make up the assembler, or program language for PIC microcontrollers of lower standard.

Instruction Set in PIC16Cxx Microcontroller Family

Complete set which encompasses 35 instructions is given in the following table. A reason for such a small number of instructions lies primarily in the fact that we are talking about a RISC microcontroller whose instructions are well optimized considering the speed of work, architectural simplicity and code compactness. The only drawback is that programmer is expected to master "uncomfortable" technique of using a modest set of 35 instructions.

Data transfer

Transfer of data in a microcontroller is done between work (W) register and an 'f' register that represents any location in internal RAM (regardless whether those are special or general purpose registers).

First three instructions (look at the following table) provide for a constant being written in W register (MOVLW is short for MOVE Literal to W), and for data to be copied from W register onto RAM and data from RAM to be copied onto W register (or on the same RAM location, at which point only the status of Z flag changes). Instruction CLRF writes constant 0 in 'f' register, and CLRW writes constant 0 in register W. SWAPF instruction exchanges places of the 4-bit nibbles crosswise inside a register.

Arithmetic and logic

Of all arithmetic operations, PIC like most microcontrollers supports only subtraction and addition. Flags C, DC and Z are set depending on a result of addition or subtraction, but with one exception: since subtraction is performed like addition of a negative value, C flag is inverse following a subtraction. In other words, it is set if operation is possible, and reset if larger number was subtracted from a smaller one.

Logic one of PIC has capability of performing operations AND, OR, EX-OR, negations (COMF) and rotation (RLF and RRF).

Instructions which rotate the register contents move bits inside a register through flag C by one space to the left (toward bit 7), or to the right (toward bit 0). Bit which "comes out" of a register is written in flag C, and status of that flag is written in a bit on the "opposite side" of the register.

Bit operations

Instructions BCF and BSF do setting or resetting of one bit anywhere in the memory. Even though this seems like a simple operation, it is executed so that CPU first reads the whole byte, changes one bit in it and then writes in the entire byte at the same place.

Directing a program flow

Instructions GOTO, CALL and RETURN are executed the same way as on all other microcontrollers, only stack is independent of internal RAM and limited to eight levels.

'RETLW k' instruction is identical with RETURN instruction, except that before coming back from a subprogram a constant defined by instruction operand is written in W register. This instruction enables us to design easily the Lookup tables (lists). Mostly we use them by determining data position on our table adding it to the address at which the table begins, and then we read data from that location (which is usually found in program memory).

Table can be formed as a subprogram which consists of a series of 'RETLW k' instructions, where 'k' constants are members of the table.


```

Main      molov 2
          call Lookup
Lookup    addwf PCL, f
          retlw k
          retlw k1
          retlw k2
          :
          :
          retlw kn

```

We write the position of a member of our table in W register, and using CALL instruction we call a subprogram which makes up the table. First subprogram line ADDWF PCL, f adds the position of a W register member to the starting address of our table, found in PCL register, and so we get the real data address in program memory. When returning from a subprogram we will have in W register the contents of an addressed table member. In a previous example, constant 'k2' will be in W register following a return from a subprogram.

RETFIE (RETurn From Interrupt - Interrupt Enable) is a return from interrupt routine and differs from a RETURN only in that it automatically sets GIE (Global Interrupt Enable) bit. Upon an interrupt, this bit is automatically reset. As interrupt begins, only the value of program counter is put at the top of a stack. No automatic storing of register status is provided.

Conditional jumps are synthesized into two instructions: BTFSC and BTFSS. Depending on a bit status in 'f' register that is being tested, instructions skip or don't skip over the next program instruction.

Instruction Execution Period

All instructions are executed in one cycle except for conditional branch instructions if condition is true, or if the contents of program counter is changed by some instruction. In that case, execution requires two instruction cycles, and the second cycle is executed as NOP (No Operation). Four oscillator clocks make up one instruction cycle. If we are using an oscillator with 4MHz frequency, the normal time for executing an instruction is 1 μ s, and in case of conditional branching, execution period is 2 μ s.

Word list

- f** any memory location in a microcontroller
- W** work register
- b** bit position in 'f' register
- d** destination bit
- label* group of eight characters which marks the beginning of a part of the program
- TOS** top of stack
- []** option
- <>** register bit field

Mnemonic	Description		Fleg	CLK	Notes	
Data transfer						
MOVLW	k	Move literal to W	k → W		1	
MOVWF	f	Move W to f	W → f		1	
MOVF	f, d	Move f	f → d	Z	1, 2	
CLRW	-	Clear W	0 → W	Z	1	
CLRF	f	Clear f	0 → f	Z	1, 2	
SWAPF	f, d	Swap nibbles in f	f(7:4), (3:0) → f(3:0), (7:4)		1, 2	
Arithmetic and logic						
ADDLW	k	Add literal and W	W+1 → W	C, DC, Z	1	
ADDWF	f, d	Add W and f	W+f → d	C, DC, Z	1, 2	
SUBLW	k	Subtract W from literal	W-k → d	C, DC, Z	1	
SUBWF	f, d	Subtract W from f	W-f → d	C, DC, Z	1, 2	
ANDLW	k	AND literal with W	W .AND. k → W	Z	1	
ANDWF	f, d	AND W with f	W .AND. f → d	Z	1, 2	
IORLW	k	Inclusive OR literal with W	W .OR. k → W	Z	1	
IORWF	f, d	Inclusive OR W with f	W .OR. f → d	Z	1, 2	
XORWF	f, d	Exclusive OR W with f	W .XOR. k → W	Z	1, 2	
XORLW	k	Exclusive OR literal with W	W .XOR. k → W	Z	1, 2	
RLF	f, d	Rotate Left f through Carry	(C) ← (7) (6) (5) (4) (3) (2) (1) (0) ← C	C	1, 2	RLF
RRF	f, d	Rotate Right f through Carry	(7) (6) (5) (4) (3) (2) (1) (0) → (C)	C	1, 2	RRF
COMF	f, d	Complement f	f → d	Z	1, 2	COMF
Bit operations						
BCF	f, b	Bit Clear f	0 → f(b)		1, 2	BCF
BSF	f, b	Bit Set f	1 → f(b)		1, 2	BSF
Directing a program flow						
BTFSC	f, b	Bit Test f, Skip if Clear	jump if f(b)=0	1(2)	3	BTFSC
BTFSS	f, b	Bit Test f, Skip if Set	jump if f(b)=1	1(2)	3	BTFSS
DECFSZ	f, d	Decrement f, Skip if 0	f-1 → d, jump if = 1	1(2)	1, 2, 3	DECFSZ
INCFSZ	f, d	Increment f, Skip if 0	f+1 → d, jump if = 1	1(2)	1, 2, 3	INCFSZ
GOTO	k	Go to address	k → PC	2		GOTO
CALL	k	Call subroutine	PC → TOS, k → PC	2		CALL
RETURN	-	Return from Subroutine	TOS → PC	2		RETURN
RETLW	k	Return with literal in W	k → W, TOS → PC	2		RETLW
RETFIE	-	Return from interrupt	TOS → PC, 1 → GIE	2		RETFIE
Other instructions						
NOP	-	No Operation		1		NOP
CLRWDWDT	-	Clear Watchdog Timer	0 → WDT, 1 → TO, 1 → PD	TO, PD	1	CLRWDWDT
SLEEP	-	Go into standby mode	0 → WDT, 1 → TO, 0 → PD	TO, PD	1	SLEEP

* 1 If I/O port is source operand, status on microcontroller pins is read

* 2 If this instruction is executed on TMR register and if d= 1, prescaler assigned to that timer will automatically be cleared

* 3 If PC is modified, or test result = 1, instruction is executed in two cycles.

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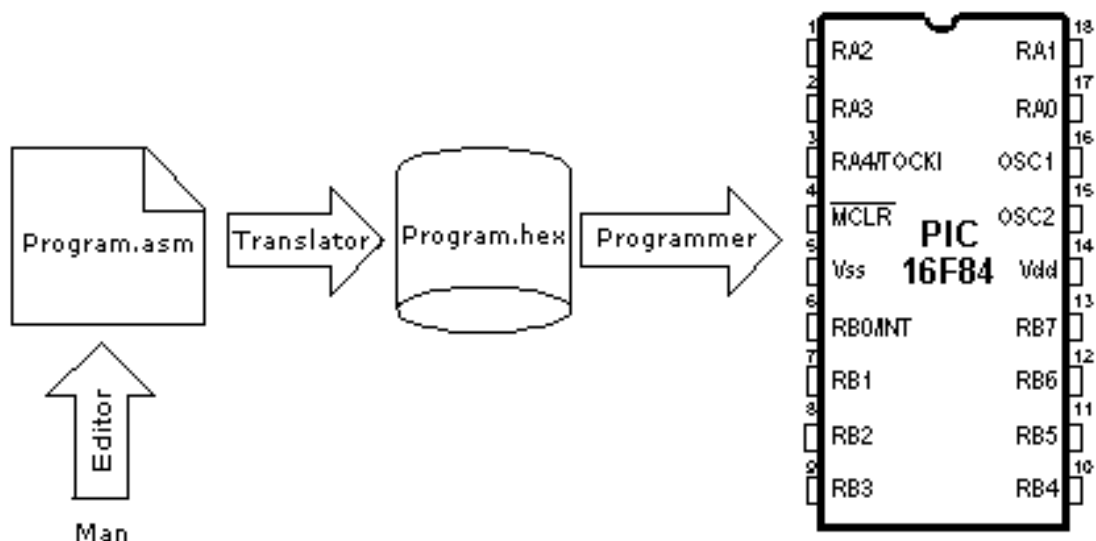
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Introduction

The ability to communicate is of great importance in any field. However, it is only possible if both communication partners know the same language, or follow the same rules during communication. Using these principles as a starting point, we can also define communication that occurs between microcontrollers and man. Language that microcontroller and man use to communicate is called "assembly language". The title itself has no deeper meaning, and is analogue to names of other languages, ex. English or French. More precisely, "assembly language" is just a passing solution. Programs written in assembly language must be translated into a "language of zeros and ones" in order for a microcontroller to understand it. "Assembly language" and "assembler" are two different notions. The first represents a set of rules used in writing a program for a microcontroller, and the other is a program on the personal computer which translates assembly language into a language of zeros and ones. A program that is translated into "zeros" and "ones" is also called "machine language".



The process of communication between a man and a microcontroller

Physically, "**Program**" represents a file on the computer disc (or in the memory if it is read in a microcontroller), and is written according to the rules of assembly or some other language for microcontroller programming. Man can understand assembly language as it consists of alphabet signs and words. When writing a program, certain rules must be followed in order to reach a desired effect. A **Translator** interprets each instruction written in assembly language as a series of zeros and ones which have a meaning for the internal logic of the microcontroller.

Lets take for instance the instruction "RETURN" that a microcontroller uses to return from a sub-program.

When the assembler translates it, we get a 14-bit series of zeros and ones which the microcontroller knows how to interpret.

Example: RETURN 00 0000 0000 1000

Similar to the above instance, each assembly instruction is interpreted as corresponding to a series of zeros and ones.

The place where this translation of assembly language is found, is called an "execution" file. We will often meet the name "HEX" file. This name comes from a hexadecimal representation of that file, as well as from the appendage "hex" in the title, ex. "run through.hex". Once it is generated, the execution file is read in a microcontroller through a programmer.

An **Assembly Language** program is written in a program for text processing (editor) and is capable of producing an ASCII file on the computer disc or in specialized surroundings such as MPLAB - to be explained in the next chapter.

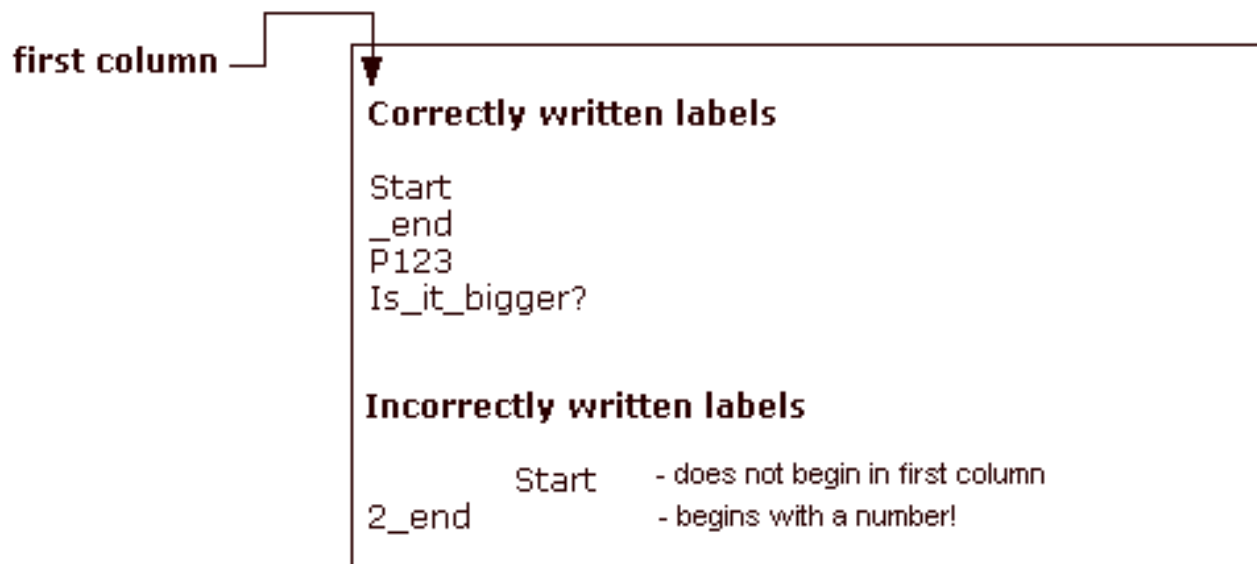
Assembly language

Basic elements of assembly language are:

- Labels
- Instructions
- Operands
- Directives
- Comments

Labels

A **Label** is a textual designation (generally an easy-to-read word) for a line in a program, or section of a program where the micro can jump to - or even the beginning of set of lines of a program. It can also be used to execute program branching (such as Goto) and the program can even have a condition that must be met for the Goto instruction to be executed. It is important for a label to start with a letter of the alphabet or with an underline "_". The length of the label can be up to 32 characters. It is also important that a label starts in the first row.



Instructions

Instructions are already defined by the use of a specific microcontroller, so it only remains for us to follow the instructions for their use in assembly language. The way we write an instruction is also called instruction "syntax". In the following example, we can recognize a mistake in writing because instructions `movlp` and `gotto` do not exist for the PIC16F84 microcontroller.

Correctly written instructions

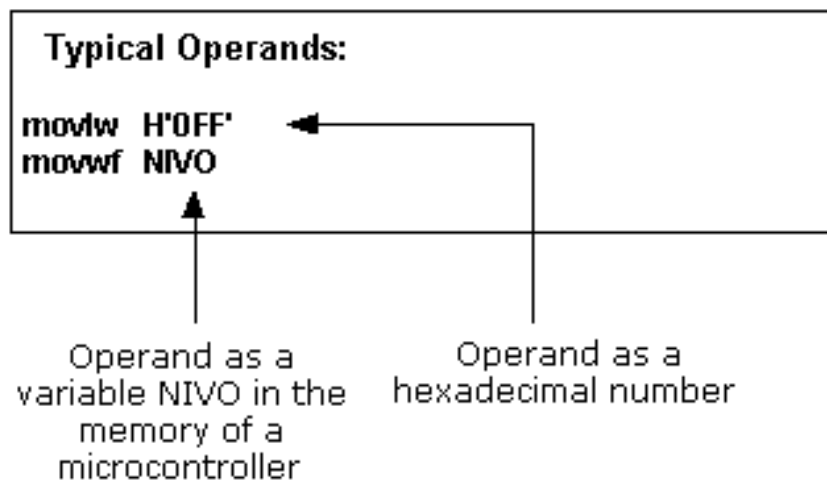
```
movlw    H'01FF'
goto     Start
```

Incorrectly written instructions

```
movlp    H'01FF'
gotto    Start
```

Operands

Operands are the instruction elements for the instruction is being executed. They are usually **registers** or **variables** or **constants**. Constants are called "literals." The word literal means "number."



Comments

Comment is a series of words that a programmer writes to make the program more clear and legible. It is placed after an instruction, and must start with a semicolon ";".

Directives

A **directive** is similar to an instruction, but unlike an instruction it is independent on the microcontroller model, and represents a characteristic of the assembly language itself. Directives are usually given purposeful meanings via variables or registers. For example, LEVEL can be a designation for a variable in RAM memory at address 0Dh. In this way, the variable at that address can be accessed via LEVEL designation. This is far easier for a programmer to understand than for him to try to remember address 0Dh contains information about LEVEL.

Some frequently used directives:

```

PROCESSOR 16F84
#include "p16f84.inc"

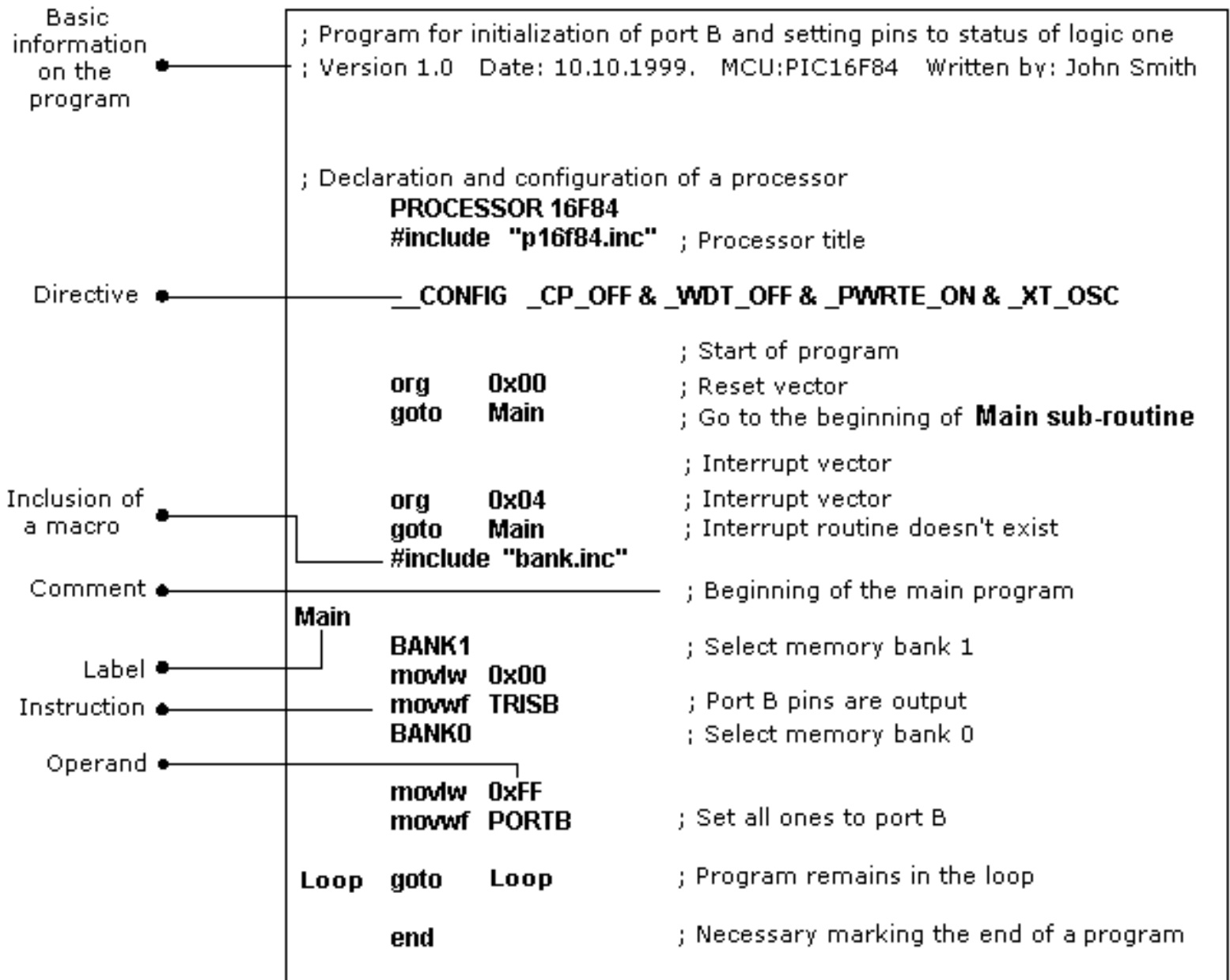
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

```

An example of a written program

The following example illustrates a simple program written in assembly language respecting the basic rules.

When writing a program, beside mandatory rules, there are also some rules that are not written down but need to be followed. One of them is to write the name of the program at the beginning, what the program does, its version, date when it was written, type of microcontroller it was written for, and the programmer's name.



Since this data isn't important for the assembly translator, it is written as **comments**. It should be noted that a comment always begins with a semicolon and it can be placed in a new row or it can follow an instruction. It's best kept in the third row to make the layout easy to follow. After the opening comment has been written, the **directive** must be included. This is shown in the example above.

In order to function properly, we must define several microcontroller parameters such as: - type of oscillator,
- whether watchdog timer is turned on, and
- whether internal reset circuit is enabled.
All this is defined by the following directive:

```
_CONFIG _CP_OFF&_WDT_OFF&PWRTE_ON&XT_OSC
```

When all the needed elements have been defined, we can start writing a program. First, it is necessary to determine an address from which the microcontroller starts, following a power supply start-up. This is (org 0x00).

The address from which the program starts if an interrupt occurs is (org 0x04). Since this is a simple program, it will be enough to direct the microcontroller to the beginning of a program with a "**goto Main**" instruction.

The instructions found in the **Main sub-routine** select memory bank1 (BANK1) in order to access TRISB register, so that port B can be declared as an output (movlw 0x00, movwf TRISB).

The next step is to select memory bank 0 and place status of logic one on port B (movlw 0xFF, movwf PORTB), and thus the main program is finished.

We need to make another loop where the micro will be held so it doesn't "wander" if an error occurs. For that purpose, one infinite loop is made where the micro is retained while power is connected. The necessary "end" at the conclusion of each program informs the assembly translator that no more instructions are in the program.

Control directives

4.1 #DEFINE Exchanges one piece of text for another

Syntax:

```
#define <name> [<text which changes name> ]
```

Description:

Each time <name> appears in the program , it will be exchanged for <text which changes name> .

Example:

```
#define turned on 1
#define turned off 0
```

Similar directives: #UNDEFINE, IFDEF,IFNDEF

4.2 INCLUDE Include an additional file in a program

Syntax:

```
#include <file_name>
#include "
```

Description:

An application of this directive has the effect as though the entire file was copied to a place where the "include" directive was found. If the file name is in the square brackets, we are dealing with a system file, and if it is inside quotation marks, we are dealing with a user file. The directive "include" contributes to a better layout of the main program.

Example:

```
#include <regs.h>
#include "subprog.asm"
```

4.3 CONSTANT Gives a constant numeric value to the textual

designation

Syntax:

Constant <name>=<value>

Description:

Each time that <name> appears in program, it will be replaced with <value>.

Example:

Constant MAXIMUM=100

Constant Length=30

Similar directives: SET, VARIABLE

4.4 VARIABLE Gives a variable numeric value to textual designation

Syntax:

Variable<name>=<value>

Description:

By using this directive, textual designation changes with particular value.

It differs from CONSTANT directive in that after applying the directive, the value of textual designation can be changed.

Example:

variable level=20

variable time=13

Similar directives: SET, CONSTANT

4.5 SET Defining assembler variable

Syntax:

<name_variable>set<value>

Description:

To the variable <name_variable> is added expression <value>. SET directive is similar to EQU, but with SET directive name of the variable can be redefined following a definition.

Example:

level set 0

length set 12

level set 45

Similar directives: EQU, VARIABLE

4.6 EQU Defining assembler constant

Syntax:

<name_constant> equ <value>

Description:

To the name of a constant <name_constant> is added value <value>

Example:

```
five equ 5
six equ 6
seven equ 7
```

Similar instructions: SET

4.7 ORG Defines an address from which the program is stored in microcontroller memory

Syntax:

<label> org <value>

Description:

This is the most frequently used directive. With the help of this directive we define where some part of a program will be in the program memory.

Example:

```
Start org 0x00
    movlw
    movwf
```

The first two instructions following the first 'org' directive are stored from address 00, and the other two from address 10.

4.8 END End of program

Syntax:

end

Description:

At the end of each program it is necessary to place 'end' directive so that assembly translator would know that there are no more instructions in the program.

Example:

```
.
.
movlw 0xFF
movwf PORTB
end
```

Conditional instructions

4.9 IF Conditional program branching

Syntax:

```
if<conditional_term>
```

Description:

If condition in <conditional_term> is met, part of the program which follows IF directive will be executed. And if it isn't, then the part following ELSE or ENDIF directive will be executed.

Example:

```
if nivo=100
goto PUNI
else
goto PRAZNI
endif
```

Similar directives: #ELSE, ENDIF

4.10 ELSE 'IF' alternative to program block with conditional terms

Syntax:

```
Else
```

Description:

Used with IF directive as an alternative if conditional term is incorrect.

Example:

```
If time< 50
goto SPEED UP
else goto SLOW DOWN
endif
```

Similar instructions: ENDIF, IF

4.11 ENDIF End of conditional program section

Syntax:

```
endif
```

Description:

Directive is written at the end of a conditional block in order for the assembly translator to know that it is the end of the conditional block

Example:

```
If level=100
goto LOADS
else
goto UNLOADS
endif
```

Similar directives: ELSE, IF

4.12 WHILE Execution of program section as long as condition is met

Syntax:

```
while<condition>
```

```
.
```

```
endw
```

Description:

Program lines between WHILE and ENDW will be executed as long as condition is met. If a condition stops being valid, program continues executing instructions following ENDW line. Number of instructions between WHILE and ENDW can be 100 at the most, and number of executions 256.

Example:

```
While i<10
```

```
i=i+1
```

```
endw
```

4.13 ENDW End of conditional part of the program

Syntax:

```
endw
```

Description:

Instruction is written at the end of the conditional WHILE block, so that assembly translator would know that it is the end of the conditional block

Example:

```
while i<10
```

```
i=i+1
```

```
endw
```

Similar directives: WHILE

4.14 IFDEF Execution of a part of the program if symbol is defined

Syntax:

```
ifdef< designation>
```

Description:

If designation < designation> is previously defined (most commonly by #DEFINE instruction), instructions which follow are executed until ELSE or ENDIF directives are not reached.

Example:

```
#define test
```

```
.
```

```

ifdef test ;how the test is defined
.....; instructions from these lines will execute
endif

```

Similar directives: #DEFINE, ELSE, ENDIF, IFNDEF, #UNDEFINE

4.15 IFNDEF Execution of a part of the program if symbol is defined

Syntax:

```
ifndef<designation>
```

Description:

If designation <designation> was not previously defined, or if its definition was erased with directive #UNDEFINE, instructions which follow are executed until ELSE or ENDIF directives are not reached.

Example:

```

#define test
.....
#undef test
.....
ifndef test ;how the test is undefined
..... .; instructions from these lines will execute
endif

```

Similar directives: #DEFINE, ELSE, ENDIF, IFDEF, #UNDEFINE

Data Directives

4.16 CBLOCK Defining a block for the named constants

Syntax:

```

Cblock [<term> ]
      <label> [:<increment> ], <label> [:<increment> ],.....
endc

```

Description:

Directive is used to give values to named constants. Each following term receives a value greater by one than its precursor. If <increment> parameter is also given, then value given in <increment> parameter is added to the following constant.

Value of <term> parameter is the starting value. If it is not given, it is considered to be zero.

Example:

```

Cblock 0x02
First, second, third ;first=0x02, second=0x03, third=0x04
endc

cblock 0x02
first : 4, second : 2, third ;first=0x06, second=0x08, third=0x09

```

endc

Similar directives: ENDC

4.17 ENDC End of constant block definition

Syntax:

endc

Description:

Directive is used at the end of a definition of a block of constants so assembly translator could know that there are no more constants.

Similar directives: CBLOCK

4.18 DB Defining one byte data

Syntax:

[<term>]db <term> [, <term> ,.....,<term>]

Description:

Directive reserves a byte in program memory. When there are more terms which need to be assigned a byte each, they will be assigned one after another.

Example:

```
db 't', 0x0f, 'e', 's', 0x12
```

Similar instructions: DE, DT

4.19 DE Defining the EEPROM memory byte

Syntax:

[<term>] de <term> [, <term> ,....., <term>]

Description:

Directive is used for defining EEPROM memory byte. Even though it was first intended only for EEPROM memory, it can be used for any other location in any memory.

Example:

```
org H'2100'
de "Version 1.0" , 0
```

Similar instructions: DB, DT

4.20 DT Defining the data table

Syntax:

[<term>] dt <term> [, <term> ,....., <term>]

Description:

Directive generates RETLW series of instructions, one instruction per each term.

Example:

```
dt "Message", 0
dt first, second, third
```

Similar directives: DB, DE

Configuring a directive

4.21 _CONFIG Setting the configurational bits

Syntax:

· -config<term> or __config<address>,<term>

Description:

Oscillator, watchdog timer application and internal reset circuit are defined. Before using this directive, the processor must be defined using PROCESSOR directive.

Example:

```
_CONFIG _CP_OFF&_WDT_OFF&_PWRTE_ON&_XT_OSC
```

Similar directives: _IDLOCS, PROCESSOR

4.22 PROCESSOR Defining microcontroller model

Syntax:

Processor <microcontroller_type>

Description:

Instruction sets the type of microcontroller where programming is done.

Example:

```
processor 16F84
```

Assembler arithmetic operators

Operator Description Example

Operator	Description	Example
\$	Current status of program counter	goto \$ +3
(Left bracket	1 + (d * 4)
)	Right bracket	(Length + 1) * 256
!	NE (logic complement)	if ! (a - b)
-	Complement	flags = -flags
-	Negation (second complement)	-1 * Length

-	Negation (second complement)	-1 * Length
high	Returns higher byte	movlw high CTR_Table
low	Returns lower byte	movlw low CTR_Table
*	Multiplying	a = b * c
/	Subdividing	a = b / c
%	Subdividing by module	entry_len = tot_len % 16
+	Addition	tot_len = entry_len * 8 + 1
-	Subtraction	entry_len = (tot - 1) / 8
<<	Moving to the left	val = flags << 1
>>	Moving to the right	val = flags >> 1
>=	Higher than, or equal	if entry_idx >= num_entries
>	Higher than	if entry_idx > num_entries
<	Lesser than	if entry_idx < num_entries
<=	Lesser than, or equal	if entry_idx <= num_entries
==	Equal	if entry_idx == num_entries
!=	Not equal	if entry_idx != num_entries
&	Operation AND on bits	flags = flags & ERROR_BIT
^	Exclusive OR on bits	flags = flags ^ ERROR_BIT
	Logic OR on bits	flags = flags ERROR_BIT
&&	Logic AND	if (len == 512) && (b == c)
 	Logic OR	if (len == 512) (b == c)
=	Equal	entry_index = 0
+=	Add and assign	entry_index += 1
-=	Subtract and assign	entry_index -= 1
*=	Multiply and assign	entry_index *= entry_length
/=	Divide and assign	entry_total /= entry_length
%=	Divide at module and assign	entry_index %= 8
<<=	Move to the left and assign	flags <<= 3
>>=	Move to the right and assign	flags >>= 3
&=	Logic AND and assign	flags &= ERROR_FLAG
 =	Logic OR on bits and assign	flags = ERROR_FLAG
^=	Exclusive OR on bits and assign	flags ^= ERROR_FLAG
++	Increment by one	i ++
--	Decrease by one	i --

Files created as a result of program translation


As a result of the process of translating a program written in assembler language we get files like:

- Executing file (Program_Name.HEX)
- Program errors file (Program_Name.ERR)
- List file (Program_Name.LST)

The first file contains translated program which is read in microcontroller by programming. Its contents can not give any information to programmer, so it will not be considered any further. The second file contains possible errors that were made in the process of writing, and which were noticed by assembly translator during translation process. Errors can be discovered in a "list" file as well. This file is more suitable though when program is big and viewing the 'list' file takes longer.

The third file is the most useful to programmer. Much information is contained in it, like information about positioning instructions and variables in memory, or error signalization.

Example of 'list' file for the program in this chapter follows. At the top of each page is found information about the file name, date when it was translated, and page number. First column contains an address in program memory where a instruction from that row is placed. Second column contains a value of any variable defined by one of the directives : SET, EQU, VARIABLE, CONSTANT or CBLOCK. Third column is reserved for the form of a translated instruction which PIC is executing. The fourth column contains assembler instructions and programmer's comments. Possible errors will appear between rows following a line in which the error occurred.



Makro: Proba.lst

```

MPASM 02.40Released          PROBA.ASM    4-26-2000  7:18:17          PAGE 1

LOC  OBJECT CODE          LINE SOURCE TEXT
VALUE

          00001  ;Program for initialization of port B and setting its pins
          00002  ;to the state of logic one
          00003  ;Version: 1.0 Date: 10.05.2000.      MCU: PIC16F84 Written
          00004  ;by: Petar Petrovic
          00005
          00006  ;Declaration and configuration of the processor
          00007  PROCESSOR 16F84
          00008  #include "p16f84.inc" ;Processor title
          00001  LIST
          00002  ;P16F84.INC Standard Header File, Version 2.00 Microchip
          ;Technology, Inc.
          00136  LIST
          00009
2007 3FF1      00010  __CONFIG  __CP_OFF & __WDT_OFF & __PWRTE_ON & __XT_OSC
          00011
000C          00012  CONSTANT BASE = 0x0c
          00013
          00014  ;Start of a program
0000          00015  org 0x00 ;Reset vector
0000 2805      00016  goto Main ;Go to the beginning of the main program
          00017
          00018  ;Interrupt vector
0004          00019  org 0x04 ;Interrupt vector
0004 2805      00020  goto Main ;Interrupt routine does not exist

```

```

00019 ;Interrupt vector
0004      00019 org      0x04  ;Interrupt vector
0004      2805      00020 goto      Main    ;Interrupt routine does not exist
00021
00022 ;Beginning of the main program
00023 #include "Bank.inc"  ; File with macros
00001 ;*****
00002 ;      Makros BANK0 and BANK1
00003 ;*****
00004
0000      0010      00005 W_Temp      set      BASE+4
0000      0011      00006 Stat_Temp   set      BASE+5
0000      0012      00007 Option_Temp set      BASE+6
00008
00009
00010 BANK0 macro
00011 bcf      STATUS,RPO    ; Select memory bank 0
00012 endm
00013
00014 BANK1 macro
00015 bsf      STATUS,RPO    ; Select memory bank 1
00016 endm
00017
0005      00024 Main
00025 BANK1                ; Select memory bank 1
0005      1683      M      bsf      STATUS,RPO    ; Select memory bank 1
0006      3000      00026 movlw    0x00
Message[302]: Register in operand not in bank 0. Ensure that bank bits are
correct.
0007      0086      00027 movwf    TRISB      ;Port B pins are output
00028
00029 BANK0                ;Select memory bank 0
0008      1283      M      bcf      STATUS,RPO    ;Select memory bank 0
0009      30FF      00030 movlw    0xFF
000A      0086      00031 movwf    PORTEB     ;Set all ones to port B
00032
000B      280B      00033 Loop    goto    Loop    ; Program stays in the loop
00034
00035 END                  ;Necessary marking the end of a program

MEMORY USAGE MAP ('X' = Used, '-' = Unused)

0000 : X---XXXXXXXX-----
2000 : -----X-----

All other memory blocks unused.

Program Memory Words Used:      9
Program Memory Words Free:     1015

Errors:      0
Warnings:    0 reported,      0 suppressed
Messages:    1 reported,      0 suppressed

```

At the end of the "list" file there is a table of symbols used in a program. Useful element of 'list'

file is a graph of memory utilization. At the very end, there is an error statistic as well as the amount of remaining program memory.

Macros

Macros are a very useful element in assembly language. They could briefly be described as "user defined group of instructions which will enter assembler program where macro was called". It is possible to write a program even without using macros. But with their use written program is much more legible, especially if more programmers are working on the same program. Macros have the same purpose as functions of complex program languages.

How to write them:

```
<label> macro [<argument1>,<argument2>,...<argumentN> ]
.....
.....
endm
```

From the way they are written, we see that macros can accept arguments, which is also very useful in programming. Whenever argument appears in the body of a macro, it will be replaced with the <argumentN> value.

Example:

```
NA_PORTB      macro ARG1
                BANK0          ;Select memory bank 0
                movlw ARG1      ;Value from ARG1 argument
                                ;is stored in working register
                movwf PORTB     ;value from ARG1
                                ; argument placed on port B
                endm           ;macro ended
```

The above example shows a macro whose purpose is to place on port B the ARG1 argument that was defined while macro was called. Its use in the program would be limited to writing one line: ON_PORTB 0xFF , and thus we would place value 0xFF on PORTB. In order to use a macro in the program, it is necessary to include macro file in the main program with instruction include "macro_name.inc". Contents of a macro is automatically copied onto a place where this instruction is written. This can be best seen in a previous list file where file with macros is copied below the line #include"bank.inc"

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CHAPTER 5

MPLAB

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Introduction

MPLAB is a Windows program package that makes writing and developing a program easier. It could best be described as developing environment for some standard program language that is intended for programming a PC computer. Some operations which were done from the instruction line with a large number of parameters until the discovery of IDE "Integrated Development Environment" are now made easier by using the MPLAB. Still, our tastes differ, so even today some programmers prefer the standard editors and compilers from instruction line. In any case, the written program is legible, and well documented help is also available.

5.1 Installing the program -MPLAB



MPLAB consists of several parts:

- Grouping the files of the same project into one project (Project Manager)
- Generating and processing a program (Text Editor)
- Simulator of the written program used for simulating program function on the microcontroller.

Besides these, there are support systems for Microchip products such as PICStart Plus and ICD (In Circuit Debugger). As this book does not cover these, they will be mentioned only as options.

Minimal computer requirements for starting the MPLAB are:

- PC compatible computer 486 or higher
- Microsoft Windows 3.1x or Windows 95 and new versions of the Windows operating system
- VGA graphic card
- 8MB memory (32MB recommended)
- 20MB space on hard disc
- Mouse

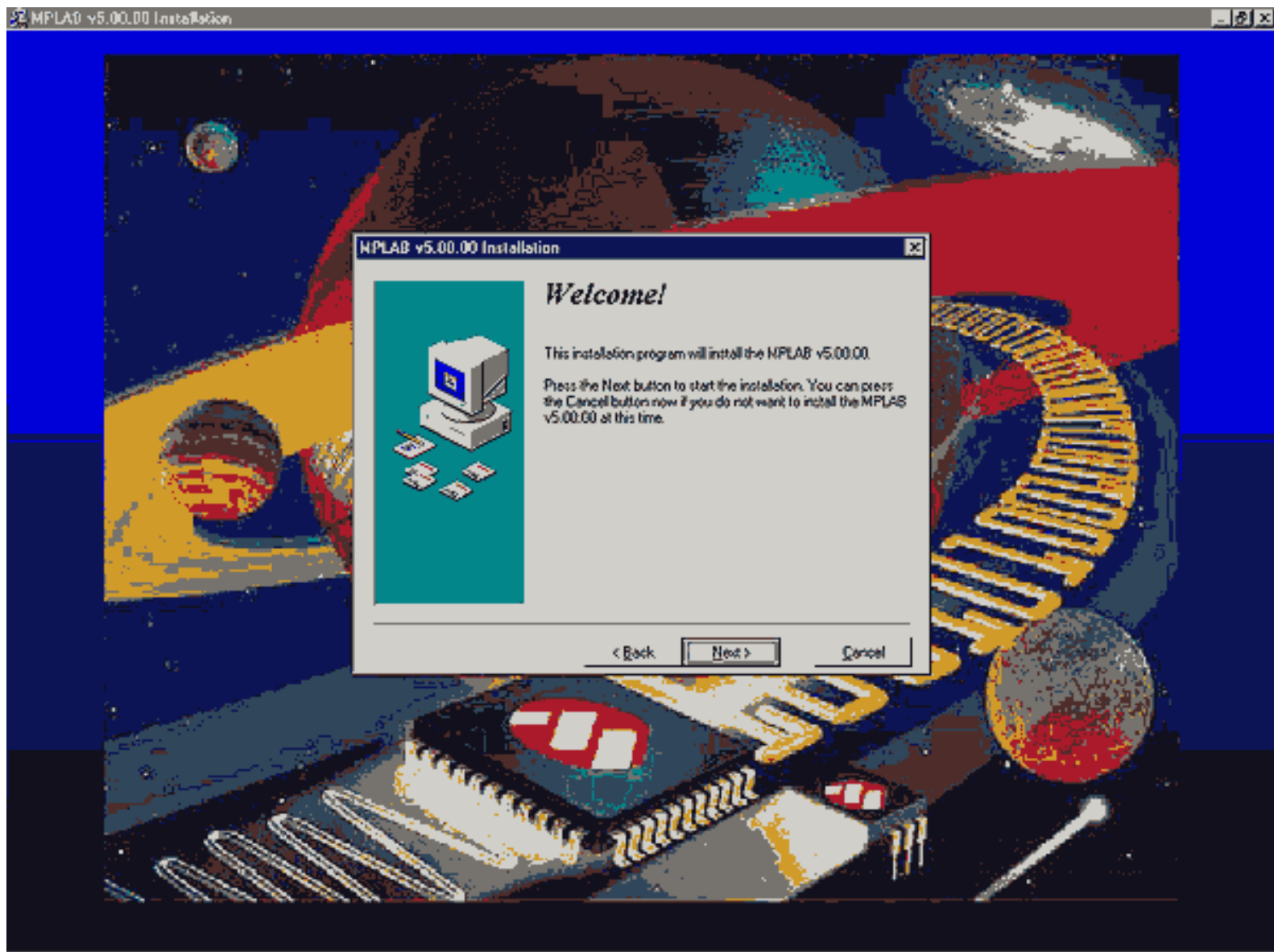
In order to start the MPLAB we need to install it. Installing is a process of copying MPLAB files from the CD onto a hard disc of your computer. There is an option on each new window which helps you return to a previous one, so errors should not present a problem or become a stressful experience. Installment itself works much the same as installment of most Windows programs. First you get the Welcome screen, then you can choose the options followed by installment itself, and, in the end, you get the message which says your installed program is ready to start.

Steps for installing MPLAB:

1. Moving the Microsoft Windows
2. Put the Microchip CD disc into CD ROM
3. Click on START in the bottom left corner of the screen and choose the RUN option
4. Click on BROWSE and select CD ROM drive of your computer.
5. Find directory called MPLAB on your CD ROM
6. Click on SETUP.EXE and then on OK .
7. Click again on OK in your RUN window

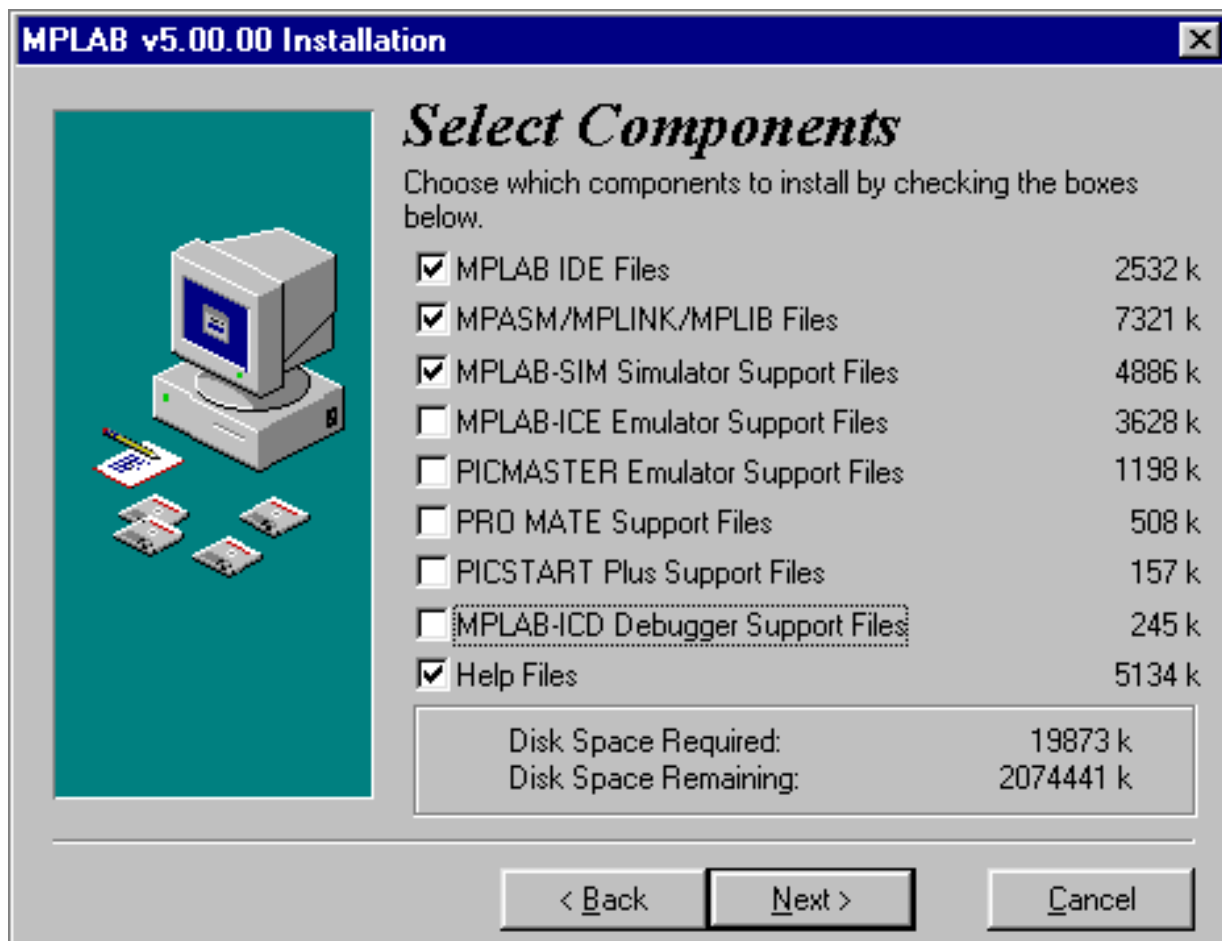
Installing begins after these seven steps. The following pictures explain the meaning of certain

installment steps.



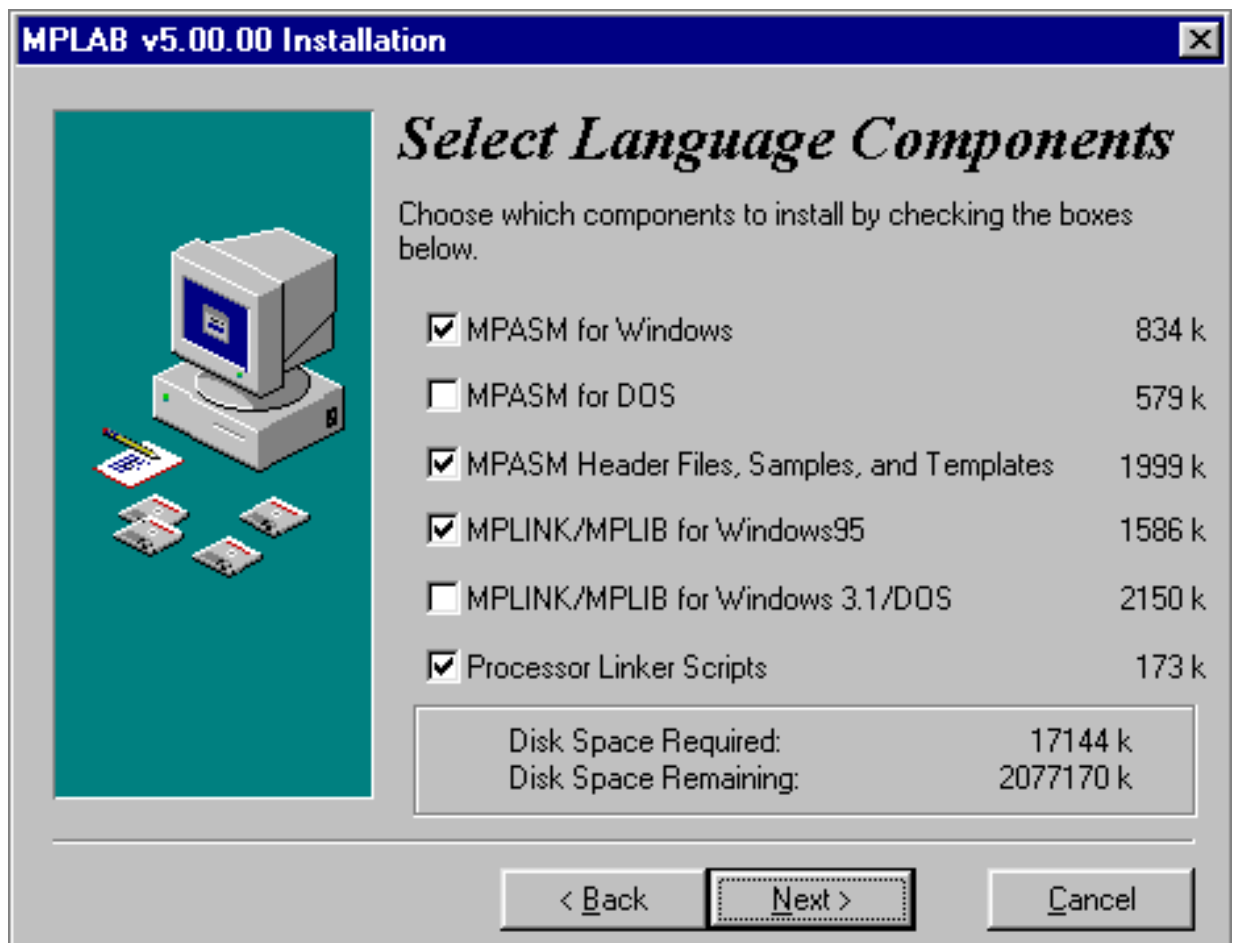
Welcome screen at the beginning of MPLAB installment

At the very beginning, it is necessary to select those MPLAB components we will be working with. Since we don't have any original Microchip hardware components such as programmers or emulators, we will only install MPLAB environment, Assembler, Simulator and the instructions.



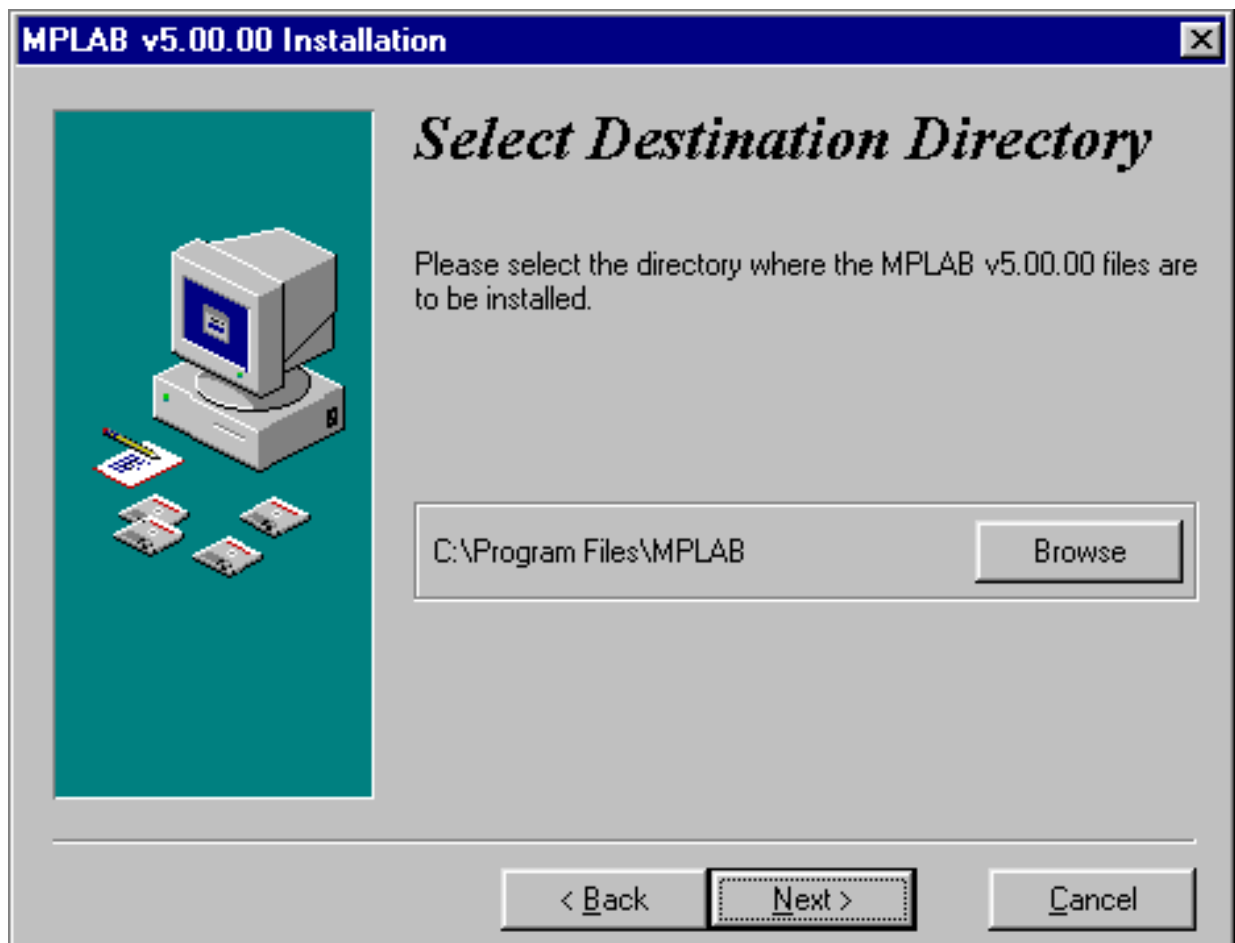
Selecting components of MPLAB developing environment

As it is assumed you will work in Windows 95 (or a newer operating system), everything in connection with DOS operating system has been taken out during selection of assembler language. However, if you still wish to work in DOS, you need to deselect all options connected with Windows, and choose the components appropriate for DOS.



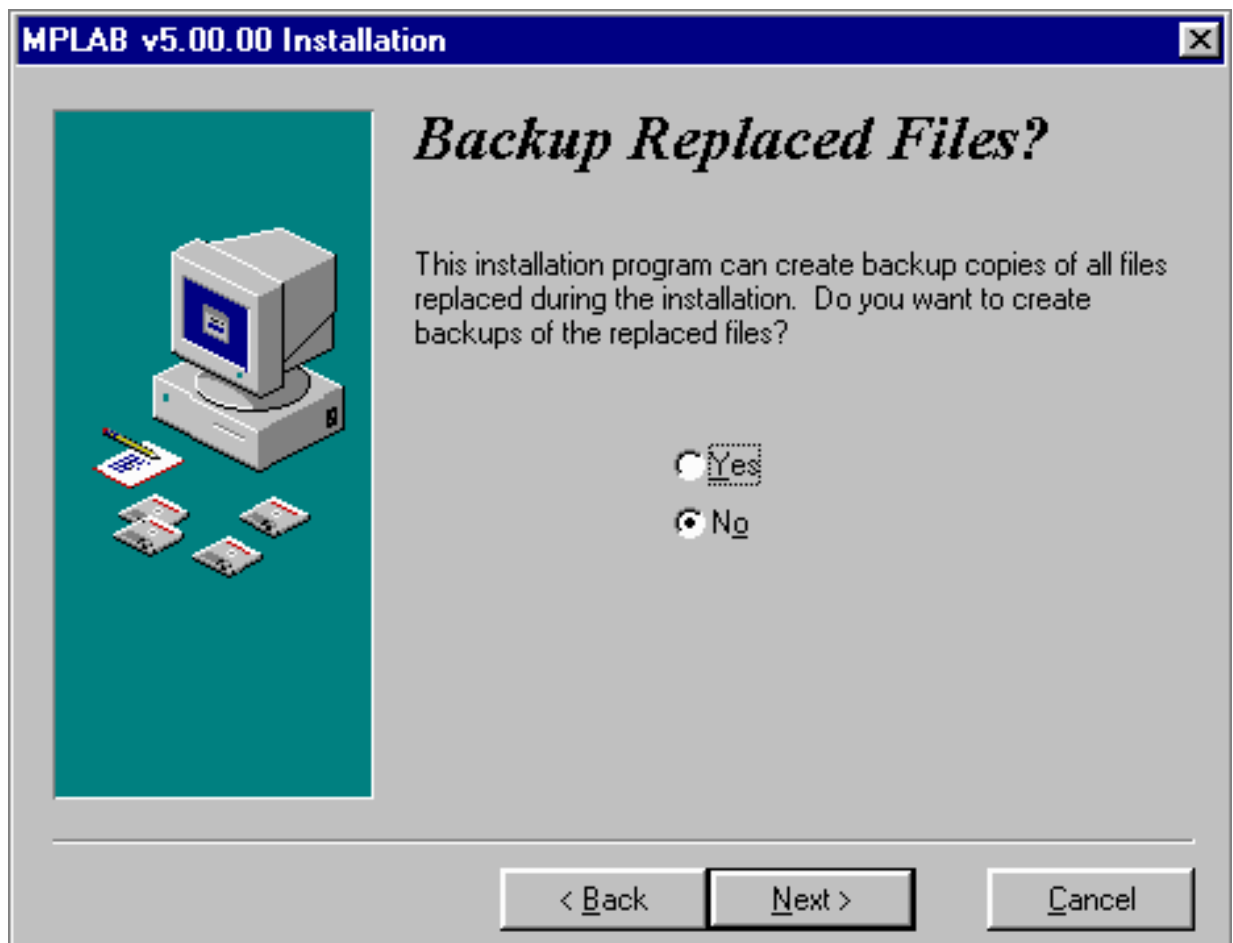
Selecting the assembler and the operating system

Like any other program, MPLAB should be installed into some directory. This option can change into any directory on any hard disc of your computer. If you don't have a more pressing need, it should be left at selected place.



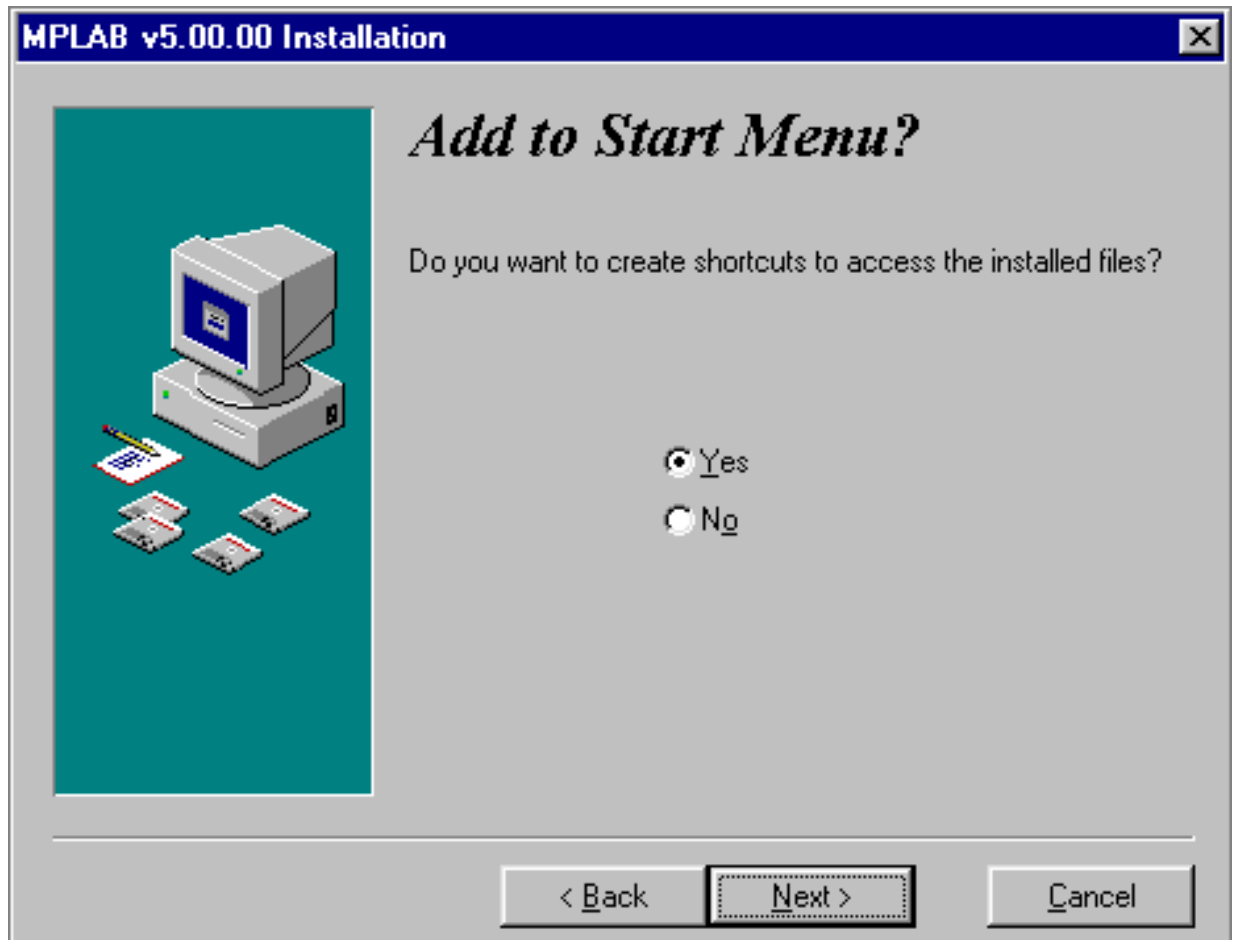
Choosing the directory where MPLAB will be installed

Users who have already had MPLAB (older version than this one) need the following option. The purpose of this option is to save copies of all files which are modified during a changeover to a new MPLAB version. In our case we should leave selected NO because of presumption that this is your first installment of MPLAB on your computer.



Option for users who are installing a new version over an already installed MPLAB

Start menu is a group of program pointers, and is selected by clicking on START option in the lower left corner of the screen. Since MPLAB will be started from here, we need to leave this option as it is.



Adding the MPLAB to the start menu

Location that will be mentioned from here on, has to do with a part of MPLAB whose explanation we don't need to get into. By selecting a special directory , MPLAB will keep all files in connection with the linker in a separate directory.



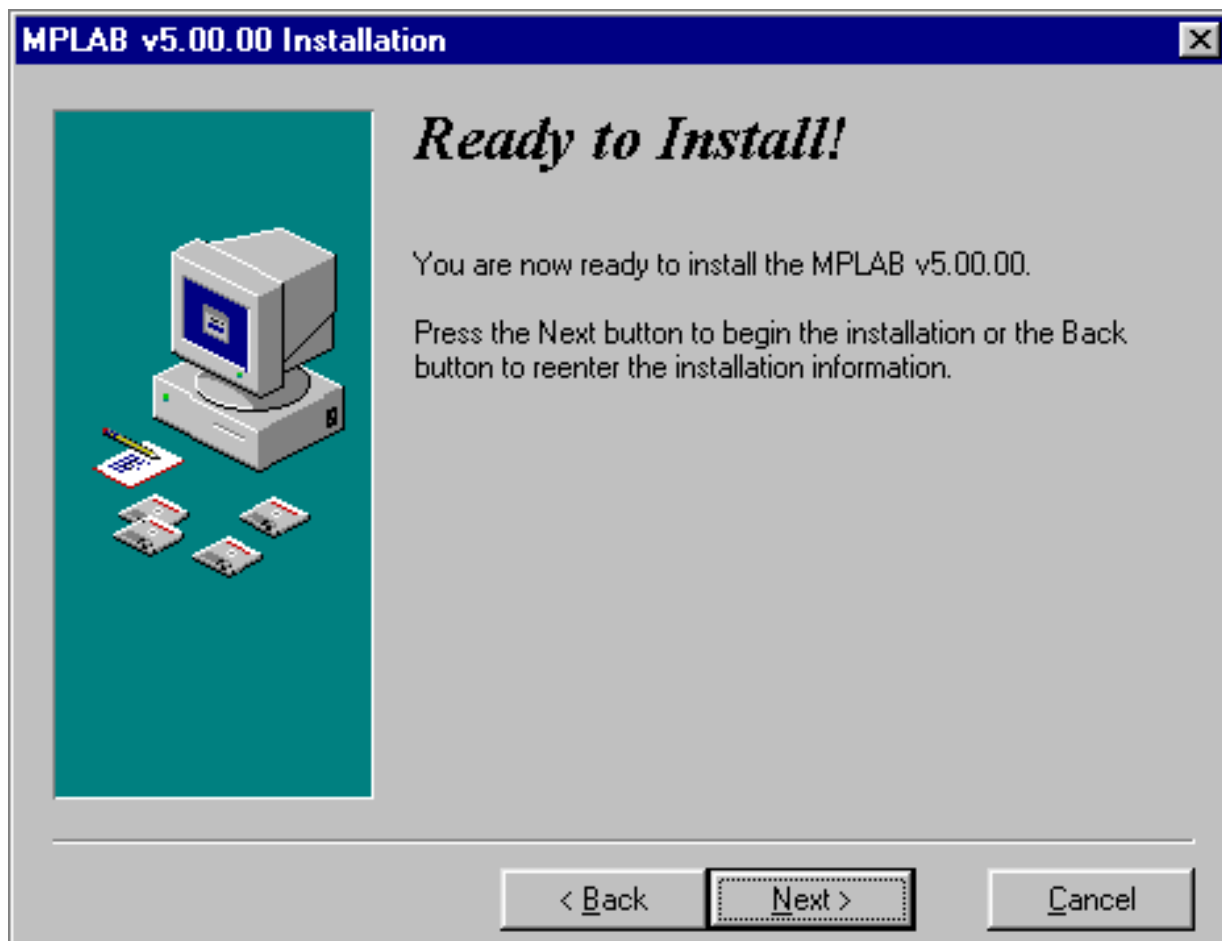
Determining a directory for linker files

Every Windows program has system files usually stored in a directory containing Windows program. After a number of different installments, the Windows directory becomes overcrowded and too big. Thus, some programs allow for their system files to be kept in same directories with programs. MPLAB is an example of such program, and the bottom option should be selected.



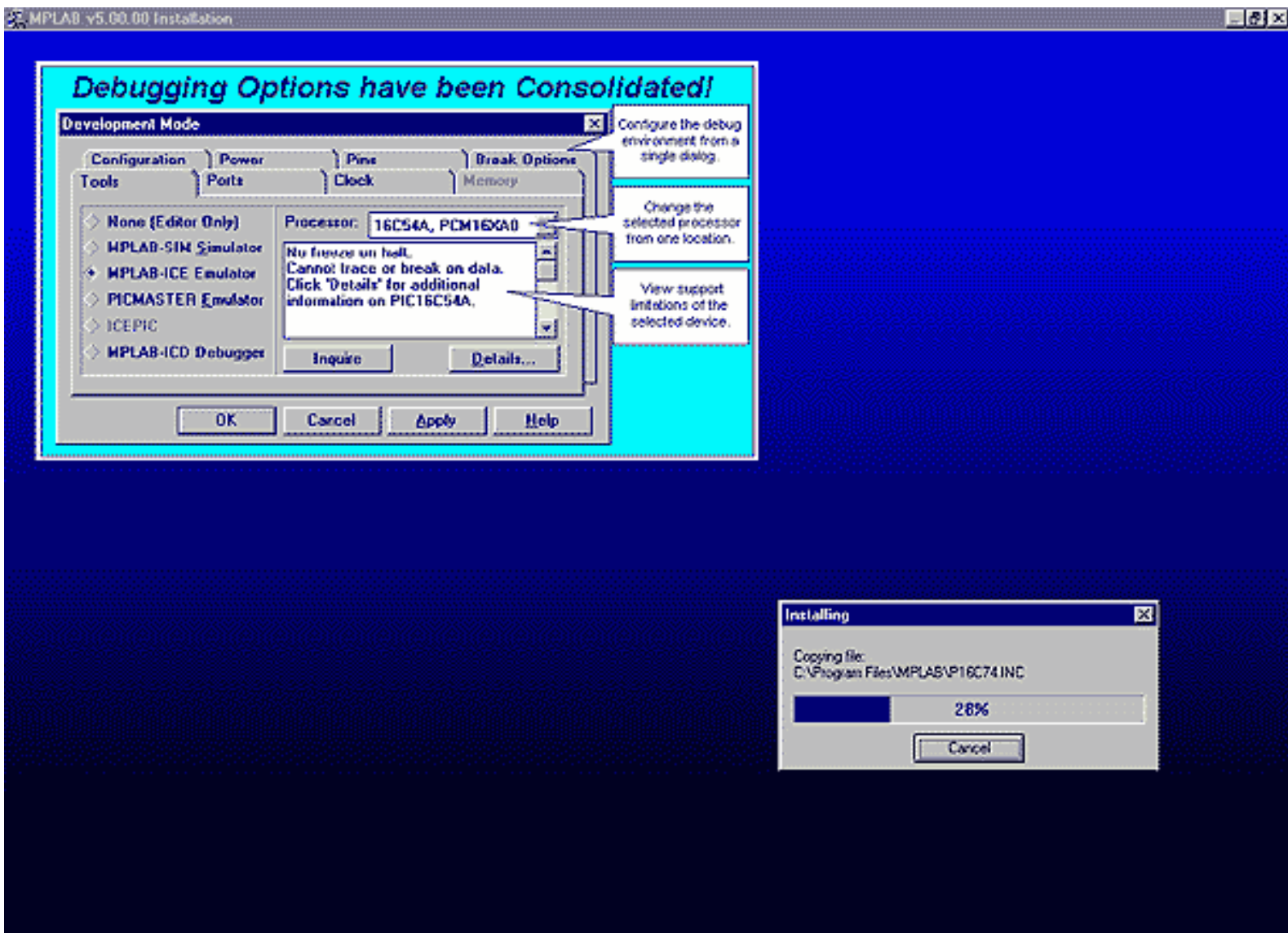
Selecting a directory for system files

After all of the above steps, installment begins by clicking on 'Next'.



Screen prior to installment

Installment doesn't take long, and the process of copying the files can be viewed on a small window in the right corner of the screen.



Installation flow

After installation is completed, there are two dialog screens, one for the last minute information regarding program versions and corrections, and the other is a welcome screen. If text files (Readme.txt) have opened, they need to be closed.



Last minute information regarding program versions and corrections.

By clicking on Finish, installment of MPLAB is finished.

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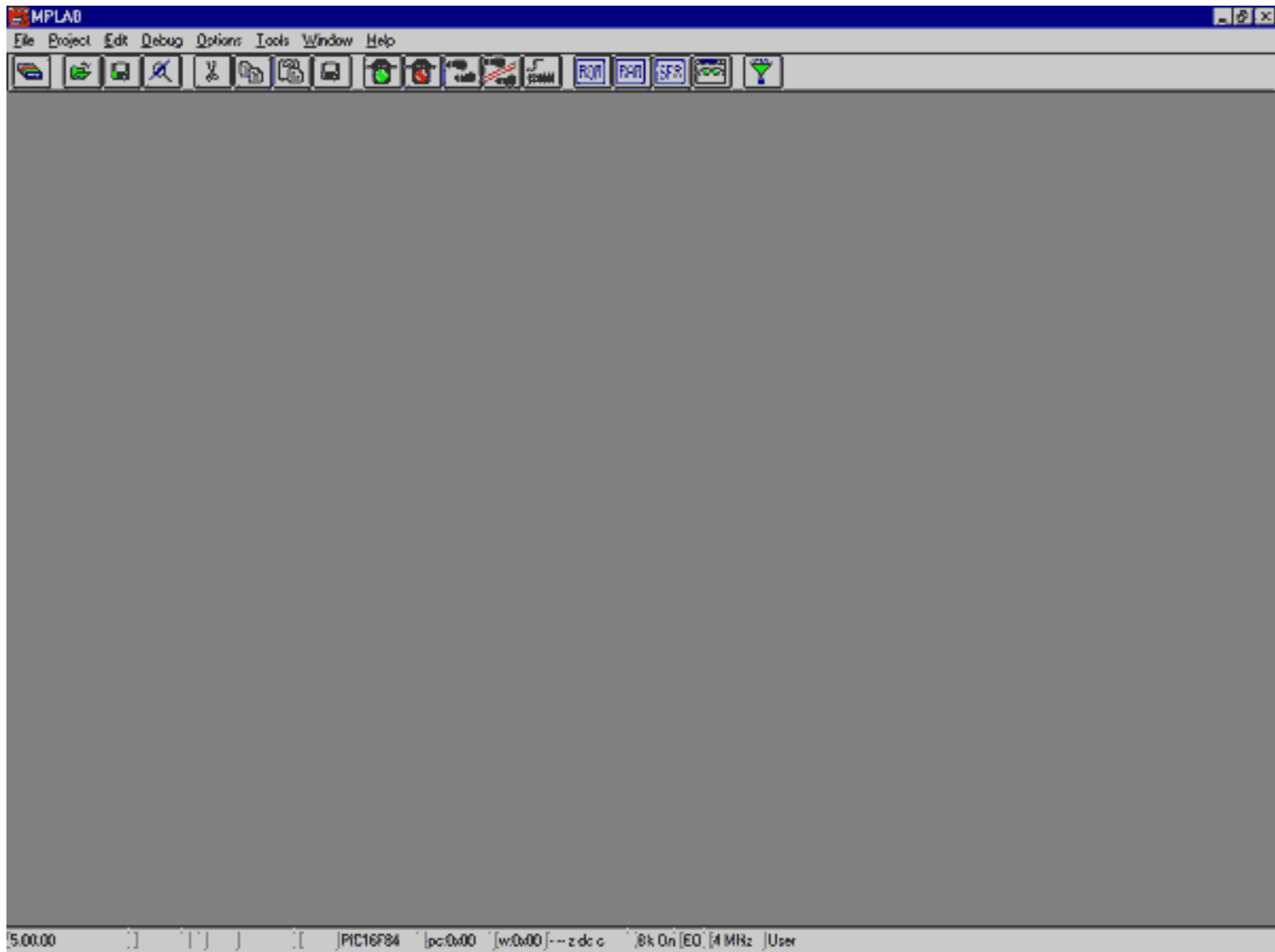
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5.2 MPLAB

Following the installment procedure, you will get a screen of the program itself. As you can see, MPLAB looks like most of the Windows programs. Near working area there is a "menu" (upper blue colored area with options File, Edit..etc.), "toolbar" (an area with illustrations the size of small squares), and status line on the bottom of the window. There is a rule in Windows of taking some of the most frequently used program options and placing them below the menu, too. Thus we can access them easier and speed up the work. In other words, what you have in the toolbar you also have in the menu.



The screen after starting the MPLAB

The purpose of this chapter is for you to become familiar with MPLAB developing environment and with basic elements of MPLAB such as:

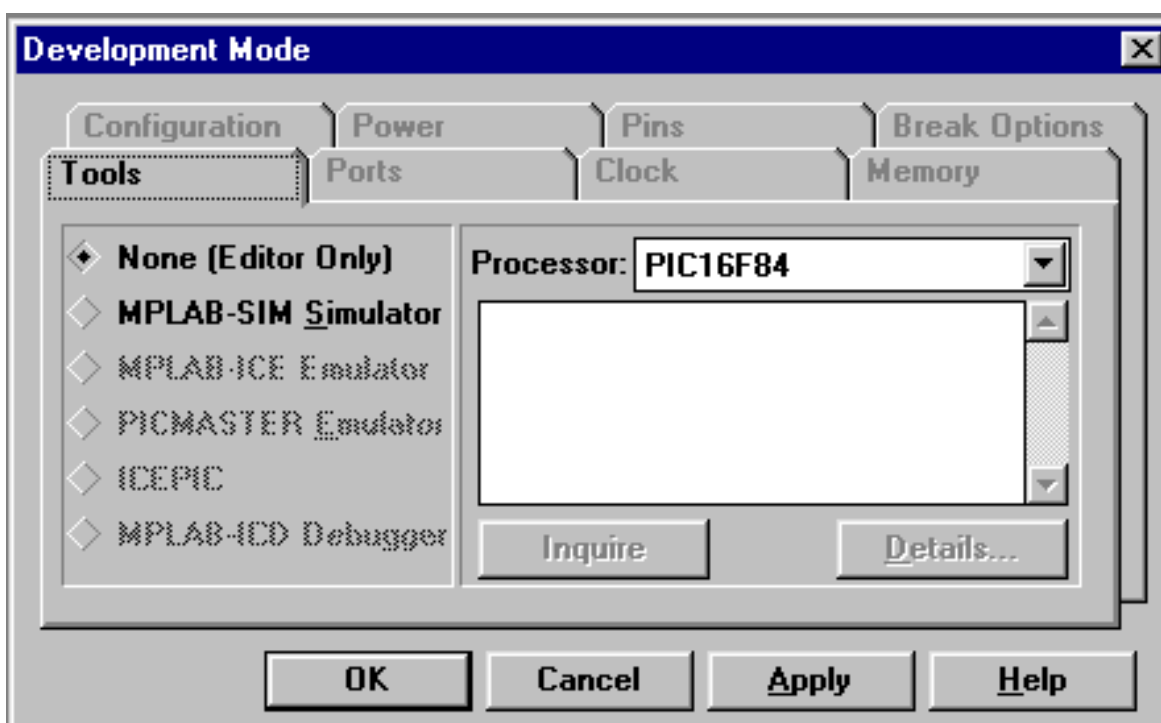
- Choosing a developing mode
- Designing a project
- Designing a file for the original program
- Writing an elementary program in assembler program language
- Translating a program into executive code
- Starting the program
- Opening a new window for a simulator
- Opening a new window for variables whose values we watch (Watch Window)
- !saving a window with variables whose values we are watching
- Setting the break points in a simulator (Break point)

Preparing a program to be read in a microcontroller can boil down to several basic steps:



5.3 Choosing the development mode

Setting a developing mode is necessary so that MPLAB can know what tools will be used to execute the written program. In our case, we need to set up the simulator as a tool that's being used. By clicking on OPTIONS---> DEVELOPMENT MODE, a new window will appear as in the picture below:



Setting a developing mode

We should select the 'MPLAB-SIM Simulator' option because that is where the program will be tried out. Beside this option, the 'Editor Only' option is also available. This option is used only if we want to write a program and using a programmer write 'hex file' in a microcontroller. Selection of the microcontroller model is done on the right hand side. Since this book is based on the PIC16F84, this model should be selected.

Ordinarily when we start working with microcontrollers, we use a simulator. As the level of knowledge increases, program can be written in a microcontroller right after translation. Our advice is that you always use the simulator. Though program will seem to develop slower, it will pay off in the end.

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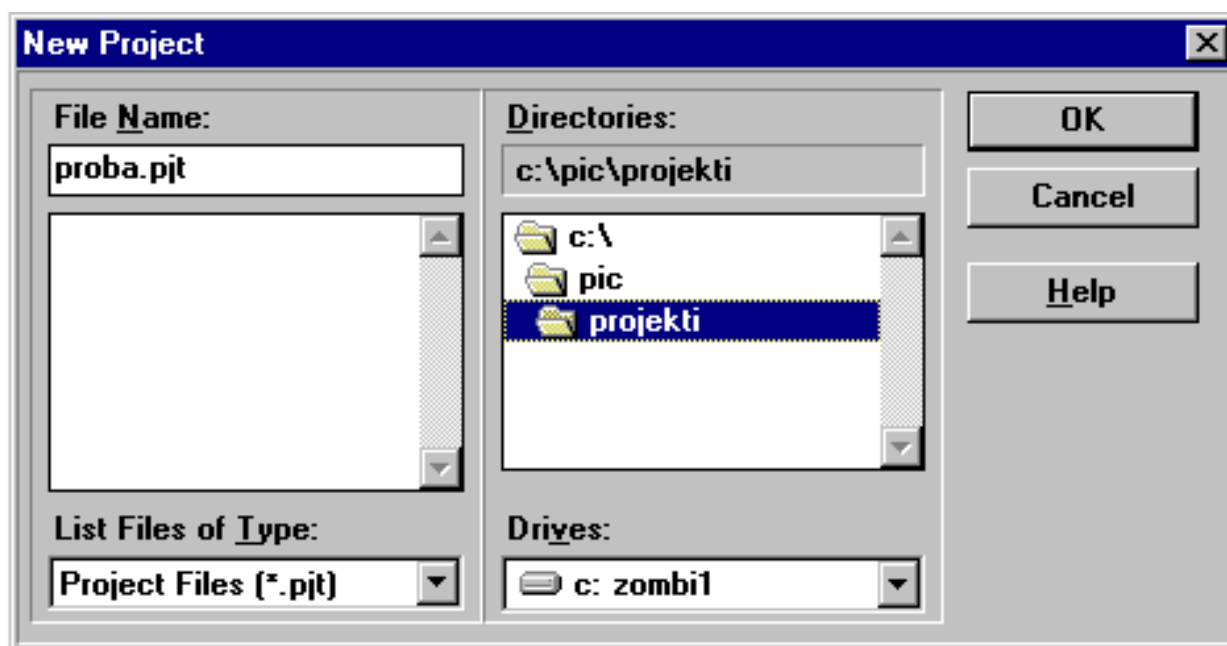
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5.4 Designing a project

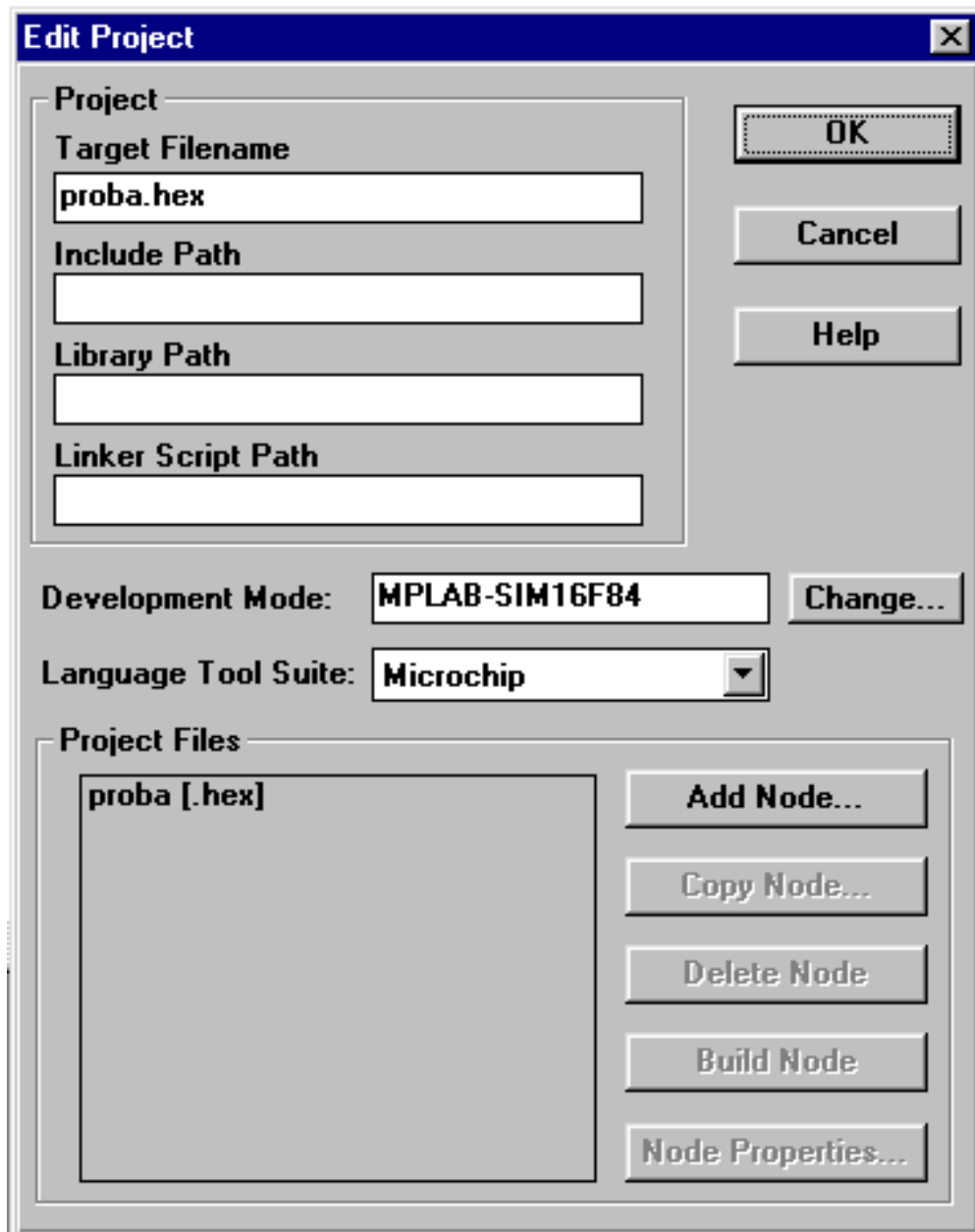
In order to start writing a program you need to create a project first. By clicking on PROJECT --> NEW PROJECT you are able to name your project and store it in a directory of your choice. In the picture below, a project named 'proba.pjt' is being created and stored in c:\PIC\PROJEKTI\ directory.

This directory is chosen because authors had such directory set up of on their computer. Generally speaking, directory with files is usually placed in a larger directory whose name is unmistakably associated with its contents.



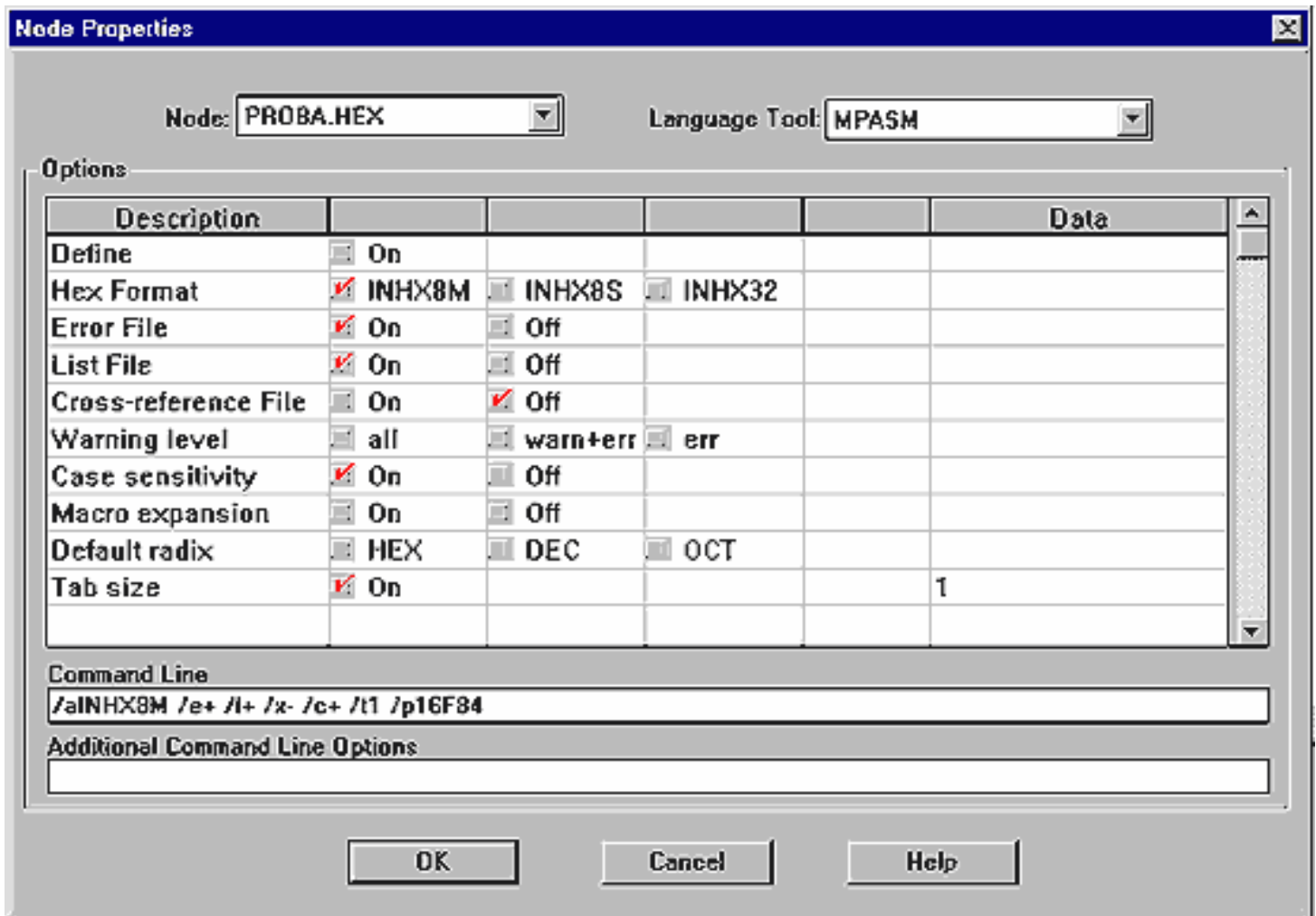
Opening a new project

After naming the project, click on OK. New window comes up as in the next picture.



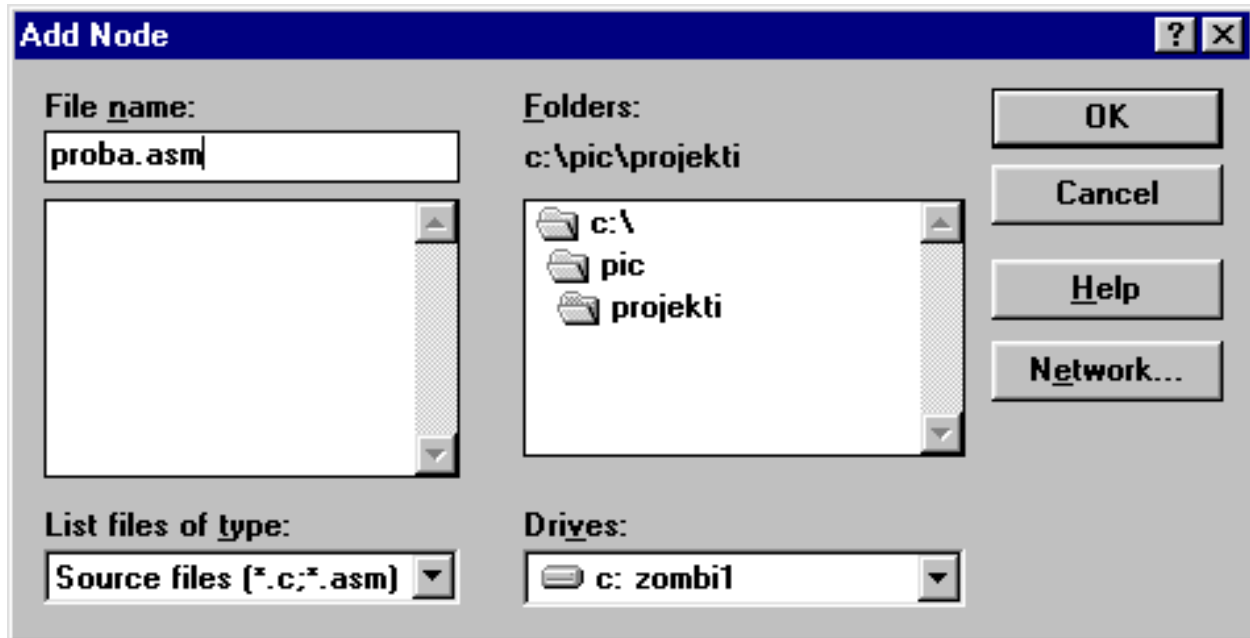
Adjusting project elements

Using a mouse click on "proba [.hex]" which activates 'Node properties' option in the bottom right corner of a window. By clicking on it you get the following window.



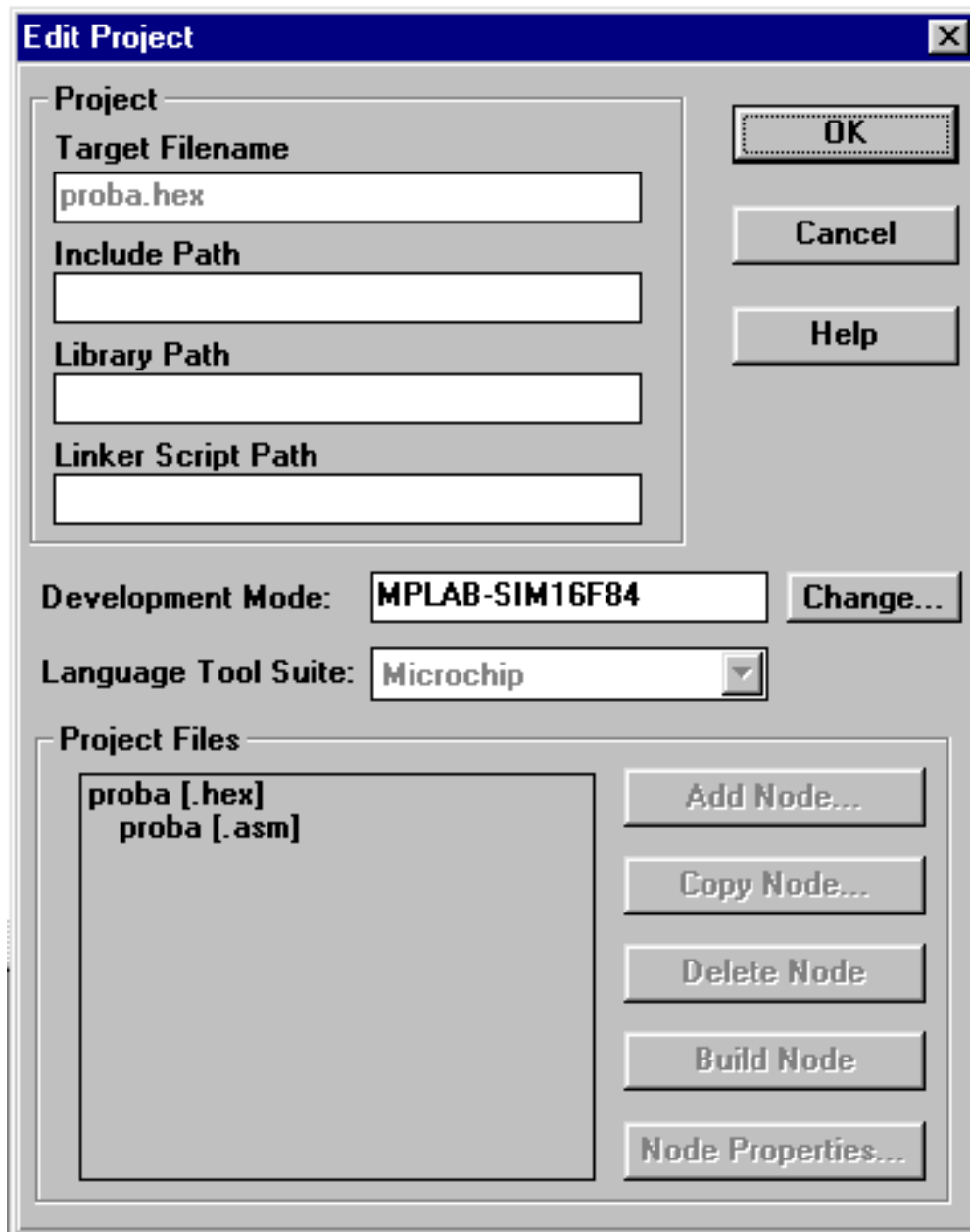
Defining parameters of MPASM assembler

From the picture we see that there are many different parameters. Each kind corresponds to one parameter in "Command line" term. As memorizing these parameters is very uncomfortable, even forbidding for beginners, graphic adjustment has been introduced. From the picture we see which options need to be turned on. By clicking on OK we go back to previous window where "Add node" is an active option. By clicking on it we get the following window where we name our assembler program. Let's name it "Proba.asm" since this is our first program in MPLAB.



Opening a new project

By clicking on OK we go back to the starting window where we see added an assembler file.



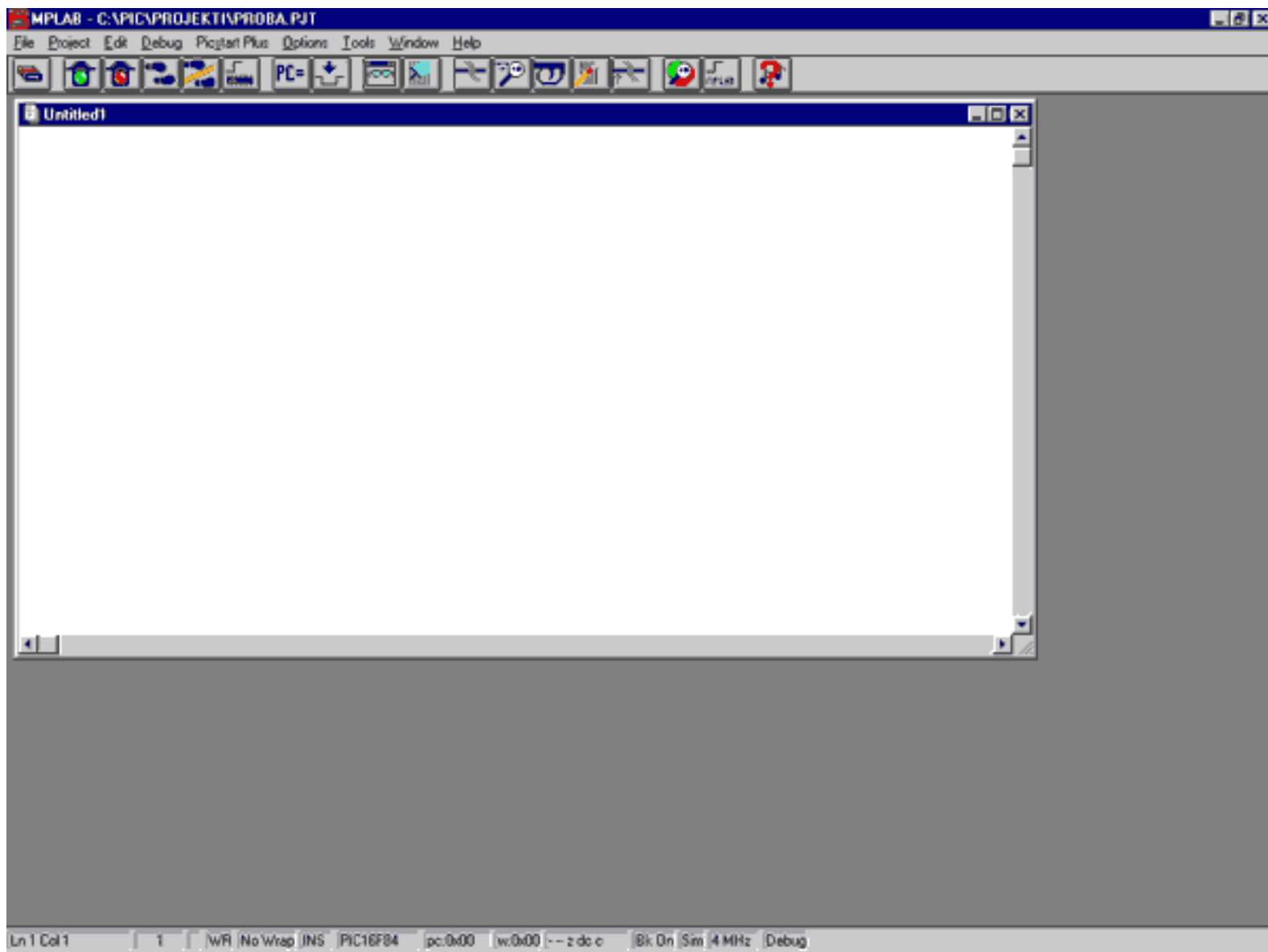
Assembler file added

By clicking on OK we return to MPLAB environment.

5.5 Designing a new assembler file (writing a new program)

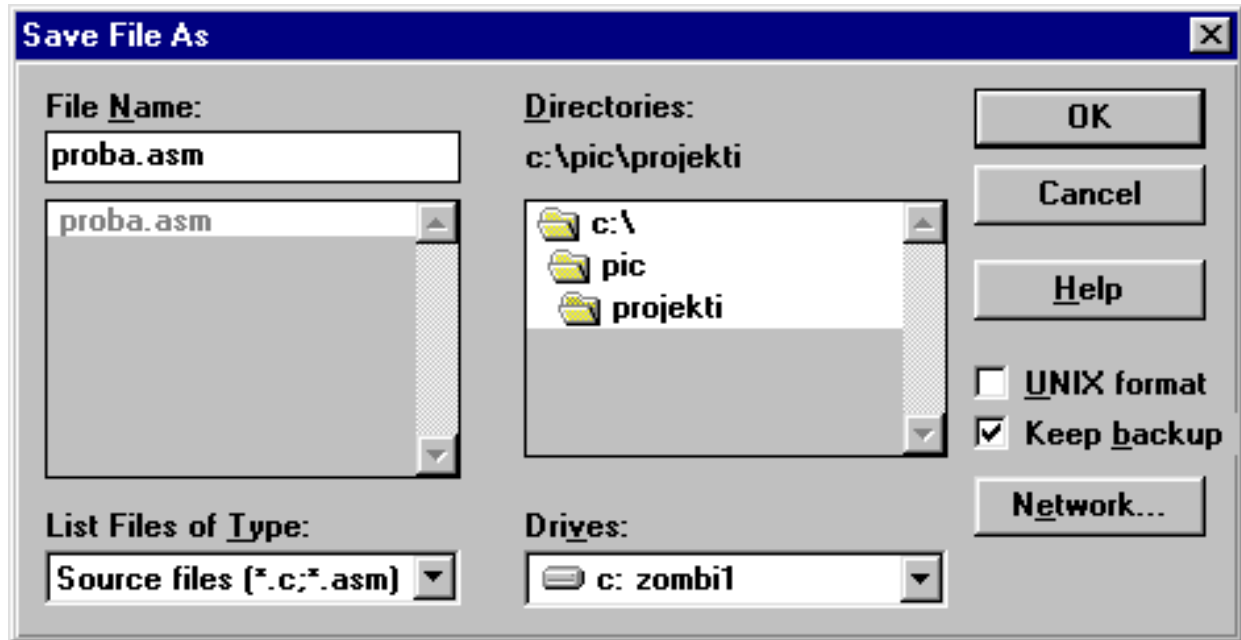
When "project" part of the work is finished, we need to start writing a program. In other words, new file must be opened, and will be named "proba.asm". In our case, file has to be named "proba.asm" because in projects which have only one file (such as ours), name of the project and name of the original file have to be the same.

New file is opened by clicking on FILE>NEW. Thus we get a text window inside MPLAB work space.



New assembler file opened

New window represents a file where program will be written. Since our assembler file has to be named "proba.asm", we will name it so. Naming is done (as with all Windows programs) by clicking on FILE>SAVE AS. Then we get a window like the following picture.



Naming and saving a new assembler file

When we get this window, we need to write 'proba.asm' below 'File name:', and click on OK. After that, we will see 'proba.asm' file name at the top of our window.

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5.6 Writing a program

Only after all of the preceding operations have been completed can we start writing a program. Since a simple program has already been written in "Assembly Language Programming" section of the book, so we will use that same program here, too.



Program: Proba.asm

```

;Program for initialization of port B and setting its pins to
;state of logic one
;Version: 1.0 Date: 25.04.2000 MCU: PIC16F84 Written by: Petar
;Petrovic

;Declaration and configuration of processor

PROCESSOR 16F84
#include      "p16f84.inc"      ; Processor title

__CONFIG    _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

org    0x00          ; Reset vector
goto   Main         ; Go to the beginning of the main
                    ; program

org    0x04          ; Interrupt vector
goto   Main         ; Interrupt routine does not exist

#include "bank.inc" ; Macros BANK0 and BANK1

;Beginning of the main program

Main
    BANK1          ; Select memory bank 1
    movlw 0x00
    movwf TRISB   ; Port B pins are output
    BANK0          ; Select memory bank 0

    movlw 0xFF
    movwf PORTB   ; Set all ones to port B

```

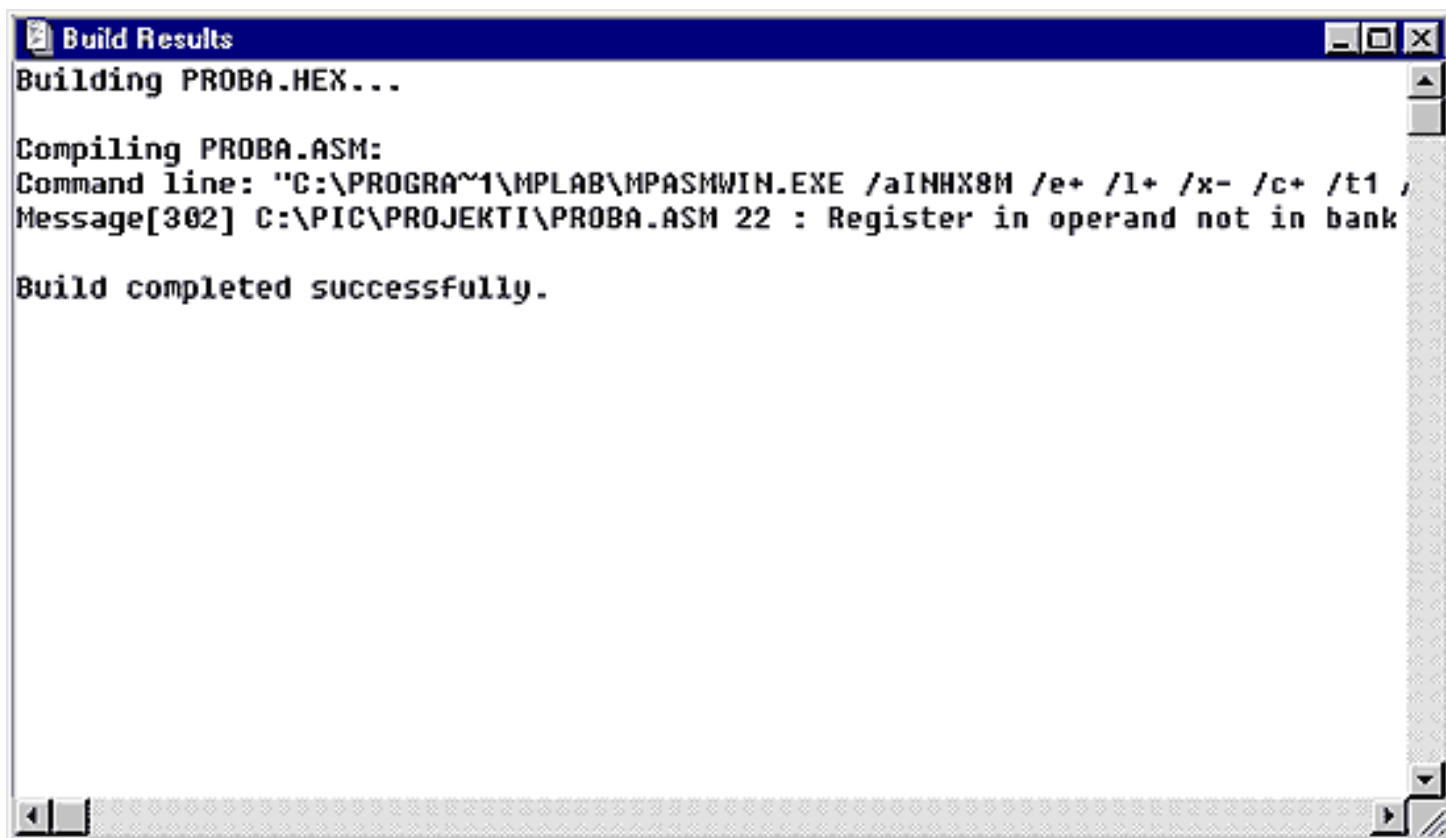


```

        movwi    POR1B          ; set all ones to port b
Petlja goto    Petlja          ; Program stays in the loop
        end                    ; Necessary marking the end of a
                               ; program

```

Program has to be copied to a window that's opened, or copied from a disc, or taken from MikroElektronika Internet presentation using options copy and paste. When the program is copied to "proba.asm" window, we can use PROJECT -> BUILD ALL command (if there were no errors), and a new window will appear as in the next picture.



Window with messages following a translation of assembler program

We can see from the picture that we get "proba.hex" file as a result of translation process, that MPASMWIN program is used for translation, and that there is one message. In all that information, the last sentence in the window is the most important one because it shows whether translation was successful or not. 'Build completed successfully' is a message stating that translation was successful and that there were no errors.

In case an error shows up, we need to double click on error message in 'Build Results' window. This will automatically transfers you to assembler program and to the line where the error is.

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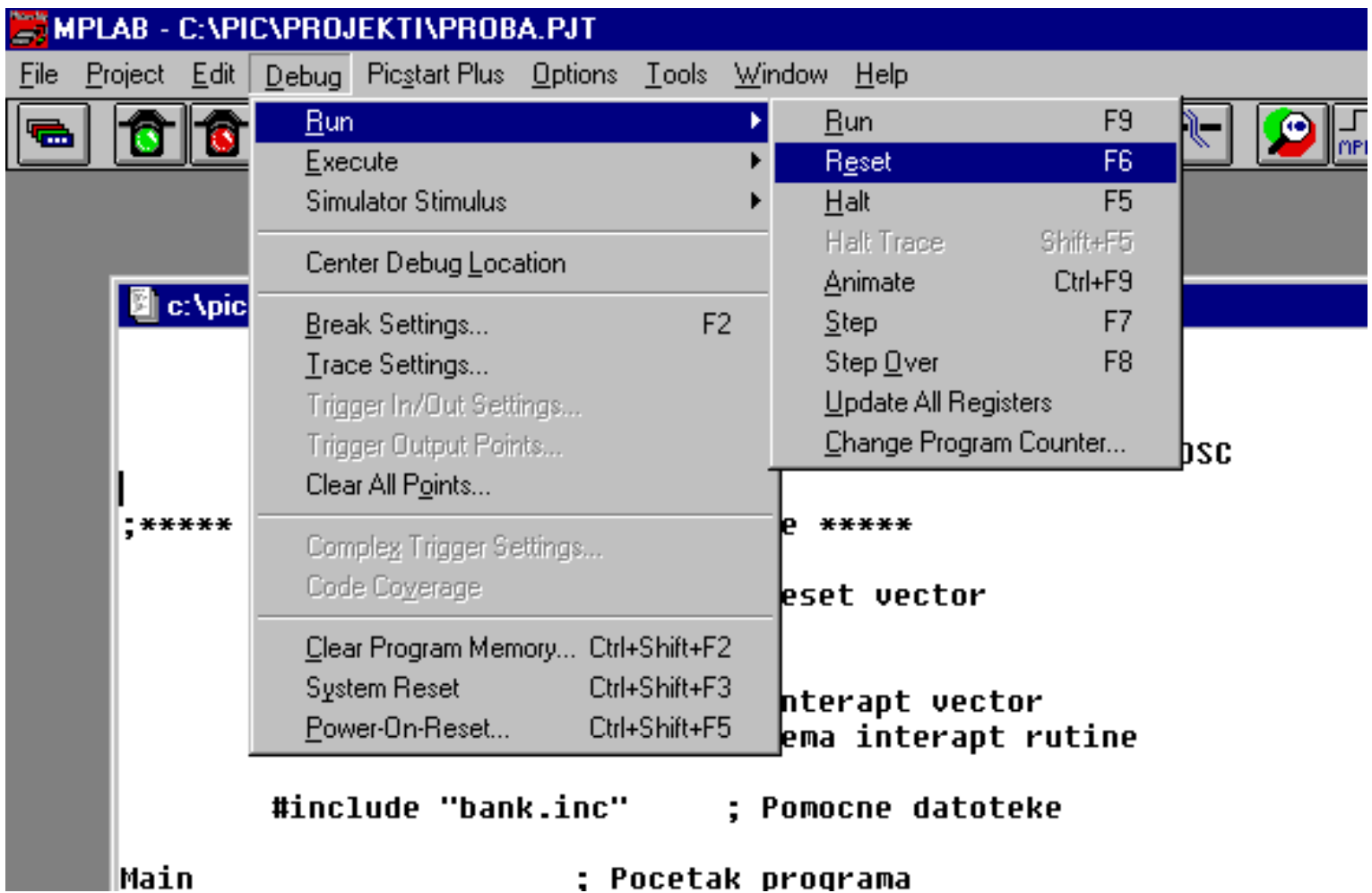
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5.7 MPSIM Simulator

Simulator is part of MPLAB environment which provides a better insight into the workings of a microcontroller. With the help of a simulator, we can watch current variable values, register values and status of port pins. Truthfully, simulator does not have the same value in all programs. If a program is simple (like the one given here as an example), simulation is not of great importance because setting port B pins to logic one is not a difficult task. However, simulator can be of great help with more complicated programs which include timers, different conditions where something happens and other similar requirements (especially with mathematical operations). Simulation, as the name indicates "simulates the work of a microcontroller". As microcontroller executes instructions one by one, simulator is conceived - programmer moves through a program step by step (line by line) and follows what goes on with data within a microcontroller. When writing is completed, it is a good trait if programmer first checks his program in a simulator, and then tries it out in a real situation. Unfortunately, as with many other good habits, man avoids this one too, more or less. Reasons for this are partly personality, and partly lack of good simulators.

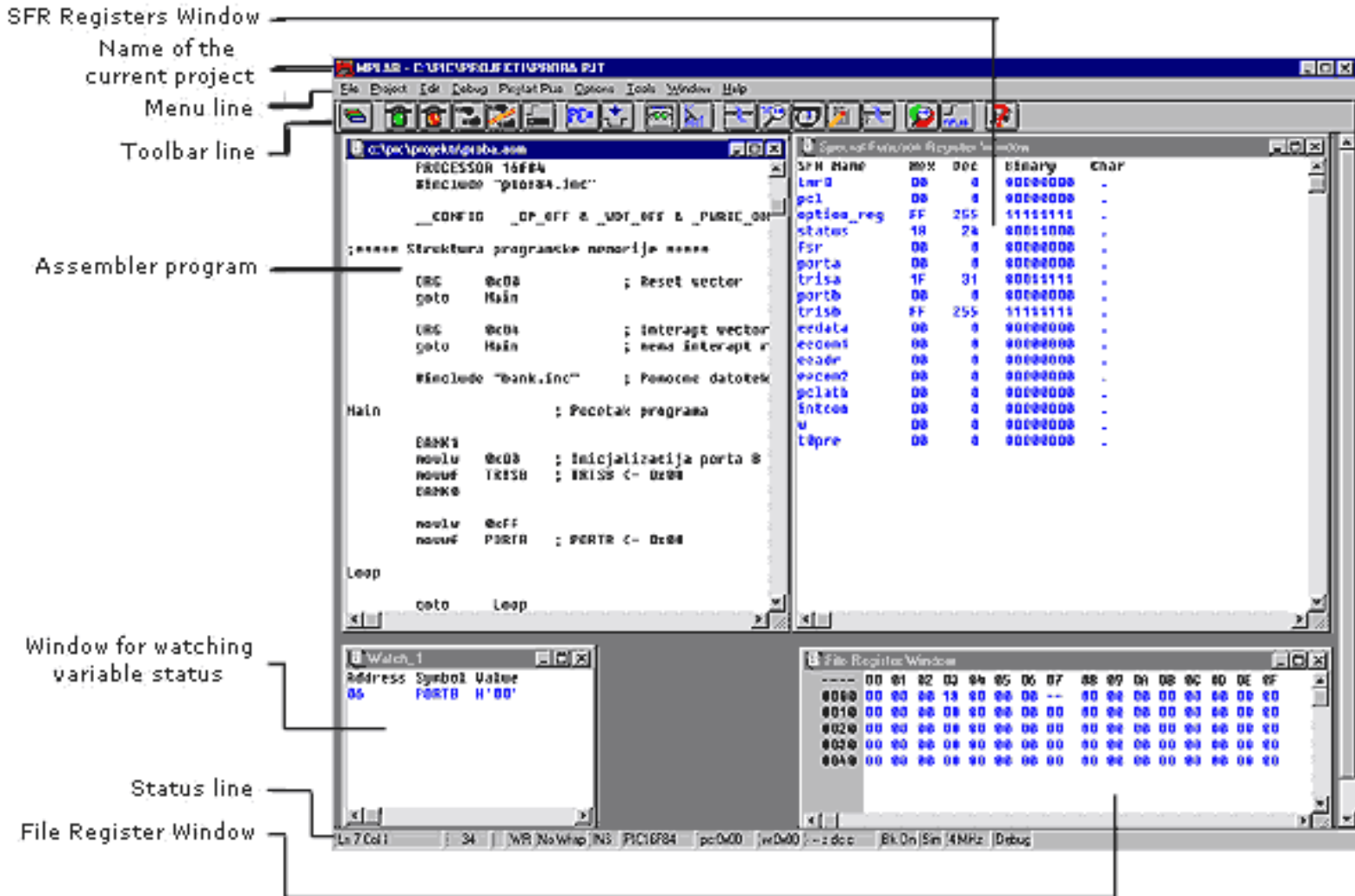
First thing we need to do, as we would in a real situation, is to reset a microcontroller with `DEBUG > RUN > RESET` command. This command results in bold line positioned at the beginning of a program, and program counter is positioned at zero which can be seen in status line (pc: 0x00).



Beginning of program simulation, resetting a microcontroller

One of the main characteristics of a simulator is the ability to view register status within a microcontroller. These registers are also called special function registers, or SFR registers. We can get a window with SFR registers by clicking on WINDOW->SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS, or on SFR icon.

Beside SFR registers, it is useful to have an insight into file registers. Window with file registers can be opened by clicking on WINDOW->FILE REGISTERS. If there are variables in the program, it is good to watch them, too. To each variable is assigned one window (Watch Windows) by clicking on WINDOW->WATCH WINDOWS.



Simulator with open windows for SFR registers, file registers and variables.

The next command in a simulator is `DEBUG>RUN>STEP` which starts our movement through the program. The same command could have been assigned from a keyboard with `<F7>` key (generally speaking, all significant commands have keys assigned on the keyboard). By using the F7 key, program is executed step by step. When we get to a macro, file containing a macro is opened (`Bank.inc`), and we proceed to go through a macro. In a SFR registers window we can observe how W register receives value `0xFF` and delivers it to port B. By clicking on F7 key again, we don't achieve anything because program has arrived to an "infinite loop". Infinite loop is a term we will meet often. It represents a loop from which a microcontroller can not get out until interrupt occurs (if it is used in a program), or until a microcontroller is reset.

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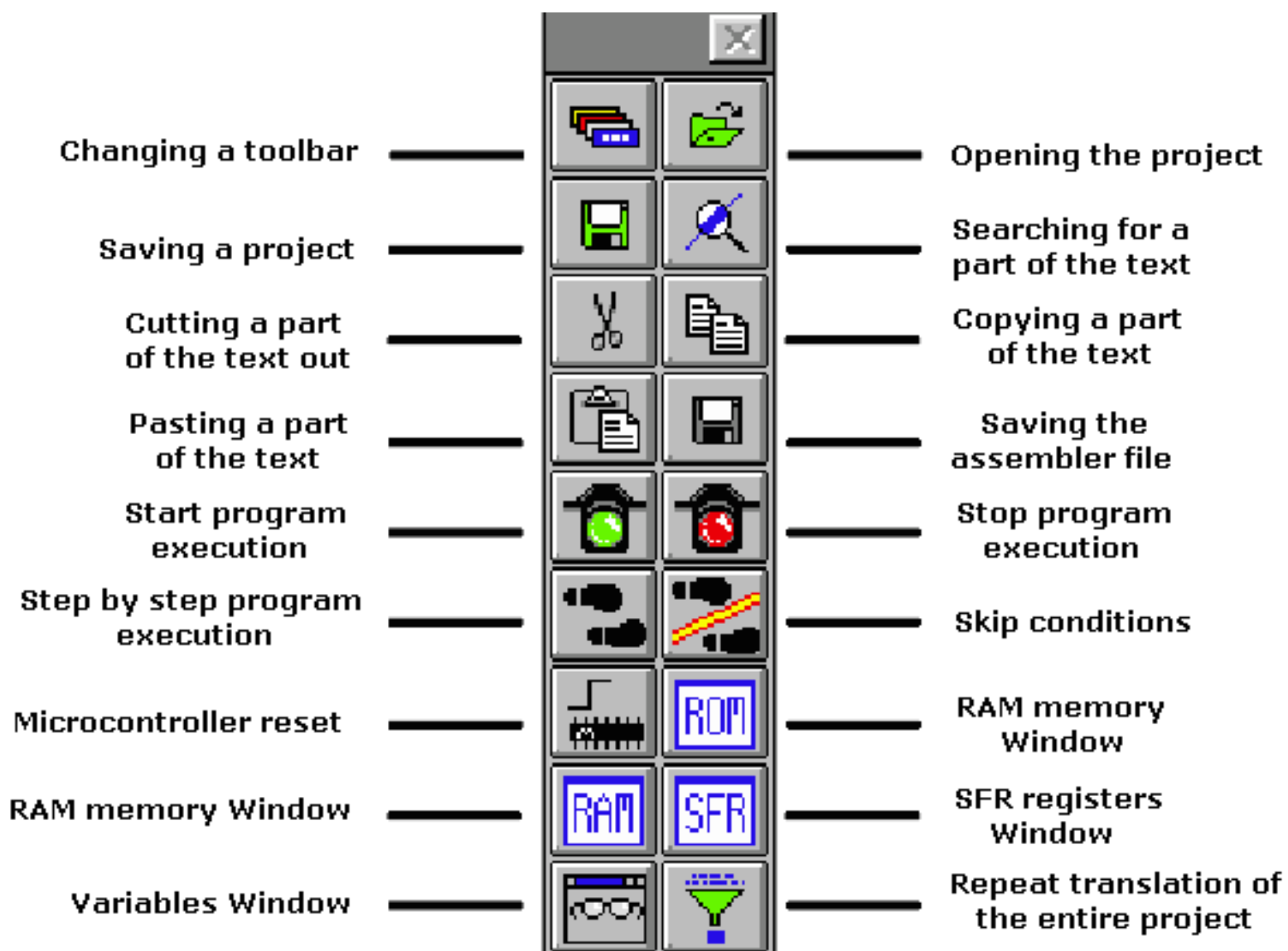
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5.8 Toolbar

Since MPLAB has more than one component, each of the components has its own toolbar. However, there is a toolbar which is some sort of a combination of all toolbars, and can serve as a common toolbar. This toolbar is enough for our needs, and it will be explained in more detail. In the picture below, we can see a toolbar we need with a brief explanation of each icon. Because of the limited format of this book, this toolbar is shown as a hanging toolbar. Generally, it is placed horizontally below the menu, over the entire length of the screen.



Universal toolbar with brief explanations of the icons

Meaning of icons in a toolbar

	If the current toolbar for some reason does not respond to a click on this icon, the next one appears. Changeover is repeated so that on the fourth click we will get the same toolbar again.
	Icon for opening a project. Project opened in this way contains all screen adjustments and adjustment of all elements which are crucial to the current project.
	Icon for saving a project. Saved project will keep all window adjustments and all parameter adjustments. When we read in a program again, everything will return to the screen as when the project was closed.
	Searching for a part of the program, or words is operation we need when searching through bigger assembler or other programs. By using it, we can find quickly a part of the program, label, macro, etc.
	Cutting a part of the text out. This one and the following three icons are standard in all programs that deal with processing textual files. Since each program is actually a common text file, those operations are useful.
	Copying a part of the text. There is a difference between this one and the previous icon. With cut operation, when you cut a part of the text out, it disappears from the screen (and from a program) and is copied afterwards. But with copy operation, text is copied but not cut out, and it remains on the screen.
	When a part of the text is copied, it is moved into a part of the memory which serves for transferring data in Windows operational system. Later, by clicking on this icon it can be 'pasted' in the text where the cursor is.
	Saving a program (assembler file).
	Start program execution in full speed. It is recognized by appearance of a yellow status line. With this kind of program execution, simulator executes a program in full speed until it is interrupted by clicking on the red traffic light icon.
	Stop program execution in full speed. After clicking on this icon, status line becomes gray again, and program execution can continue step by step.
	Step by step program execution. By clicking on this icon, we begin executing an instruction from the next program line in relation to the current one.
	Skip requirements. Since simulator is still a software simulation of real work, it is possible to simply skip over some program requirements. This is especially handy with instructions which are waiting for some requirement following which program can proceed further. That part of the program which follows a requirement is the part that's interesting to a programmer.
	Resetting a microcontroller. By clicking on this icon, program counter is positioned at the beginning of a program and simulation can start.
	By clicking on this icon we get a window with a program, but this time as program memory where we can see which instruction is found at which address.



With the help of this icon we get a window with the contents of RAM memory of a microcontroller.



By clicking on this icon, window with SFR register appears. Since SFR registers are used in every program, it is recommended that in simulator this window is always active.



If a program contains variables whose values we need to keep track of (ex. counter), a window needs to be added for each of them, which is done by using this icon.



When certain errors in a program are noticed during simulation process, program has to be corrected. Since simulator uses HEX file as its input, so we need to translate a program again so that all changes would be transferred to a simulator. By clicking on this icon, entire project is translated again, and we get the newest version of HEX file for the simulator.

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CHAPTER 6

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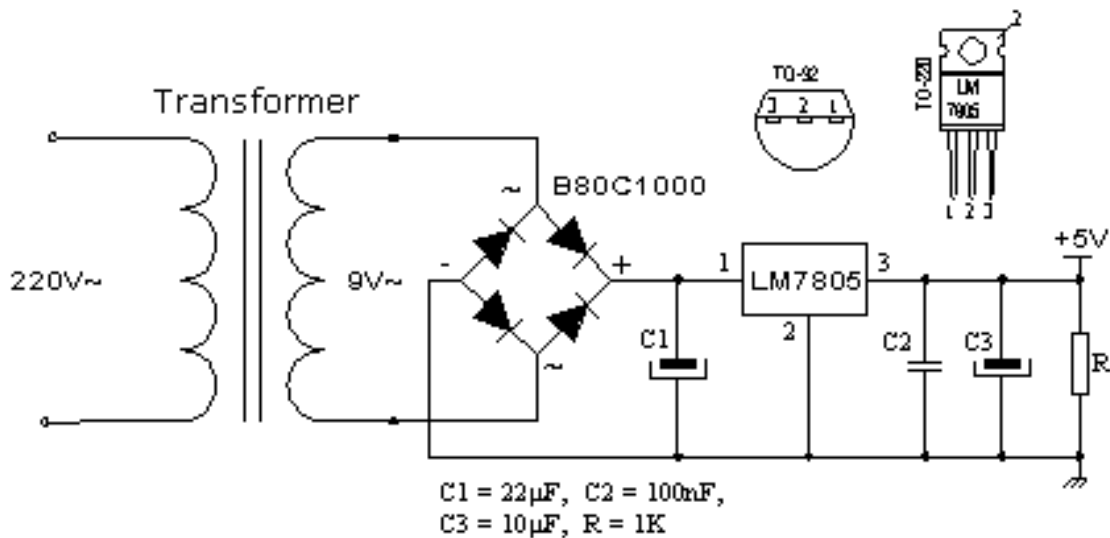
Introduction

Examples given in this chapter will show you how to connect the PIC microcontroller with other peripheral components or devices when developing your own microcontroller system. Each example contains detailed description of the hardware part with electrical outline and comments about the program. All programs can be taken directly from the from copied from 'MikroElektronika' internet presentation.

6.1 Supplying the microcontroller

Generally speaking, the correct voltage supply is of utmost importance for the proper functioning of the microcontroller system. It can easily be compared to a man breathing in the air. It is more likely that a man who is breathing in fresh air will live longer than a man who lives in a polluted environment.

For a proper function of any microcontroller, it is necessary to provide a stable source of supply, a sure reset when you turn it on and an oscillator. According to technical specifications by the maker of PIC microcontroller, supply voltage should move between 2.0V to 6.0V in all versions. The simplest solution to the source of supply is using the voltage stabilizer LM7805 which gives stable +5V on its output. One such source is shown in the picture below.



In order to function properly, or in order to have stable 5V at the output (pin 3), input voltage on pin 1 of LM7805 should be between 7V through 24V. Depending on current consumption of device we will use the appropriate type of voltage stabilizer LM7805. There are several versions of LM7805. For electricity consumption of up to 1A we should use the version in TO-220 housing with the capability of additional cooling. If the total consumption is 50mA, we can use 78L05 (stabilizer version in small TO - 92 packaging for electricity of up to 100mA).

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6.2 Macros used in programs

Examples given in the following sections of this chapter often use macros WAIT, WAITX and PRINT, so they will be explained in more detail.

Macros WAIT, WAITX

File Wait.inc contains two macros WAIT and WAITX. Through these macros it is possible to assign time delays in different intervals. Both macros use the overflow of counter TMRO as a basic interval. By changing the prescaler we can change the length of the overflow interval of the counter TMRO.

```

;***** Declaring constants *****

    CONSTANT PRESCstd = .1      ;standard prescaler value for TMRO

;***** Macros *****

WAIT macro timeconst_1
    movlw timeconst_1
    call WAITstd
endm

WAITX macro timeconst_2, PRESCext
    movlw timeconst_2
    movwf WCYCLE                ;set the delay time period
    movlw PRESCext              ;write specific prescaler value
    call WAIT_x
endm

;***** Subprograms *****

WAITstd
    movwf WCYCLE                ;set the delay time period
    movlw PRESCstd              ;write specific prescaler value

WAIT_x
    clrf TMRO
    BANK1
    movwf OPTION_REG            ;assign the prescaler to TMRO timer
    BANK0

WAITa bcf INTCON,TOIF           ;erase TMRO Overflow Flag
WAITb btfss INTCON,TOIF        ;check whether it is erased, skip if it
                                        ;isn't
    goto WAITb                  ;Wait loop
    decfsz WCYCLE,1             ;repeat the loop if delay period has not
                                        ;run out

    goto WAITa
RETURN

```

If we use the oscillator (resonator) of 4MHz, for prescaler values 0, 1 and 7 that divide the basic clock of the oscillator, the interval followed by an overflow of timer TMRO will be 0.512, 1.02 and 65.3 mS. Practically, that means that the biggest delay that can result would be $256 \times 65.3 \text{ mS}$ which is equal to 16.72 seconds.

Prescaler	Divisor	Overflow
b'00000000'	1:2	0.512 ms
b'00000001'	1:4	1.02 ms
b'00000111'	1:256	65.3 ms

In order to use macros in the main program it is necessary to declare variables `wcycle` and `prescWAIT` as has been done in examples which follow in this chapter.

Macro `WAIT` has one argument. The standard value assigned to prescaler of this macro is 1 (1.02mS), and it can not be changed.

`WAIT timeconst_1`

timeconst_1 is number from 0 to 255. By multiplying that number with the overflow time period we get the total amount of the delay: $\text{TIME} = \text{timeconst_1} \times 1.02\text{mS}$.

Example: `WAIT .100`

Example shows how to make a delay of $100 \times 1.02\text{mS}$, or total of 102mS.

Unlike macro `WAIT`, macro `WAITX` has one more argument that can assign prescaler value. Macro `WAITX` has two arguments:

Timeconst_2 is number from 0 to 255. By multiplying that number with the overflow time period we get the total amount of the delay:

$\text{TIME} = \text{timeconst_1} \times 1.02\text{mS} \times \text{PRESCext}$

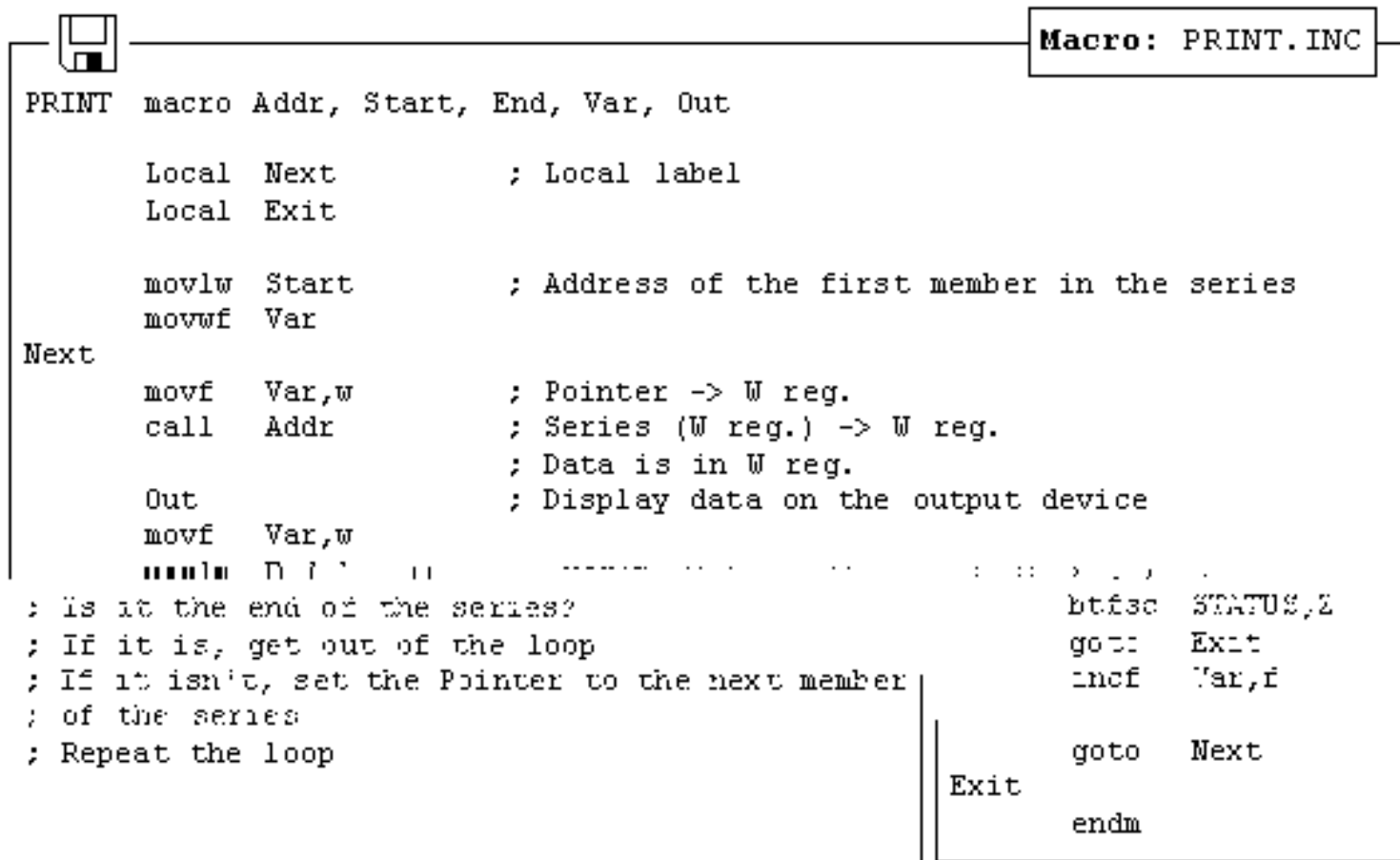
PRESCext is number from 0 to 7 which sets up the relationship between a clock and timer TMR0.

Example: `WAITX .100,7`

Example shows how to make a delay of $100 \times 65.3 \text{ mS}$, or total of 653mS.

Macro PRINT

Macro `PRINT` is found in `Print.inc` file. It makes it easy to send a series of data on one of the output devices such as : LCD, RS232, matrix printer...etc. The easiest way to form a series is by using a `dt` (define table) directive. This instruction stores a series of data into program memory as a group of `retlw` instructions whose operand is data from the series.



How one such sequence is formed by using dt instruction is shown in the following example:

```

org 0x00
goto Main

Series movwf PCL
Series1 dt "this is 'ASCII' series"
Series2 dt "Second series"
End
Main

movlw .5
call Series
:

```

First instruction after label Main writes the position of a member of the sequence in w register. We jump with instruction call onto label series where position of a member of the sequence is added to the value of the program counter: $PCL = PCL + W$. Next we will have in the program counter an address of retlw instruction with the desired member of the sequence. When this instruction is executed, member of the sequence will be in w register, and address of the instruction that executed after the call instruction will be in the program counter. End label is an elegant way to mark the address at which the series ends.

Macro PRINT has five arguments:

PRINT macro Addr, Start, End, Var, Out

Addr is an address where one or more sequences (which follow one after another) begin.

Start is an address of the first member of the sequence

End is an address where the sequence ends

Var is the variable which has a role of showing (pointing) the members of the sequence

Out is an argument we use to send the address of existing subprograms in working with output devices such as : LCD, RS-232 etc.

```

Example:      org      0x00
                  goto     Main

                  Series  movwf PCL
                  Message dt "mikroElektronika"
                  End

```

```

Main
    PRINT Series, Message, End, Pointer, LCDw
    :

```

Macro PRINT writes out a series of ASCII signs for 'MikroElektronika' on LCD display. The sequence takes up one part of program memory beginning at address 0x03.

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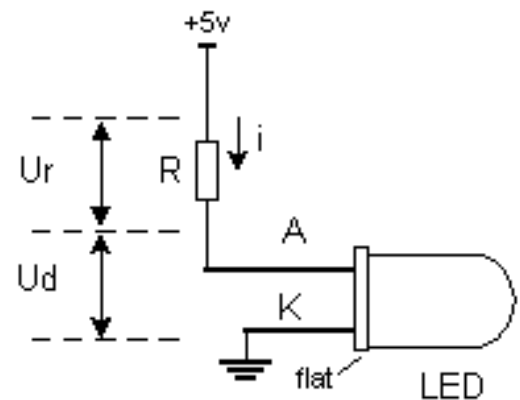
6.3 Samples

LED Diodes

LEDs are surely one of the most commonly used elements in electronics. LED is short for 'Light Emitting Diode'. When choosing a LED, several parameters should be looked at: diameter, which is usually 3 or 5 mm (millimeters), working current which is usually about 20mA (It can be as low as 2mA for LEDs with high efficiency - high light output), and color of course, which can be red or green though there is also orange, blue, yellow....

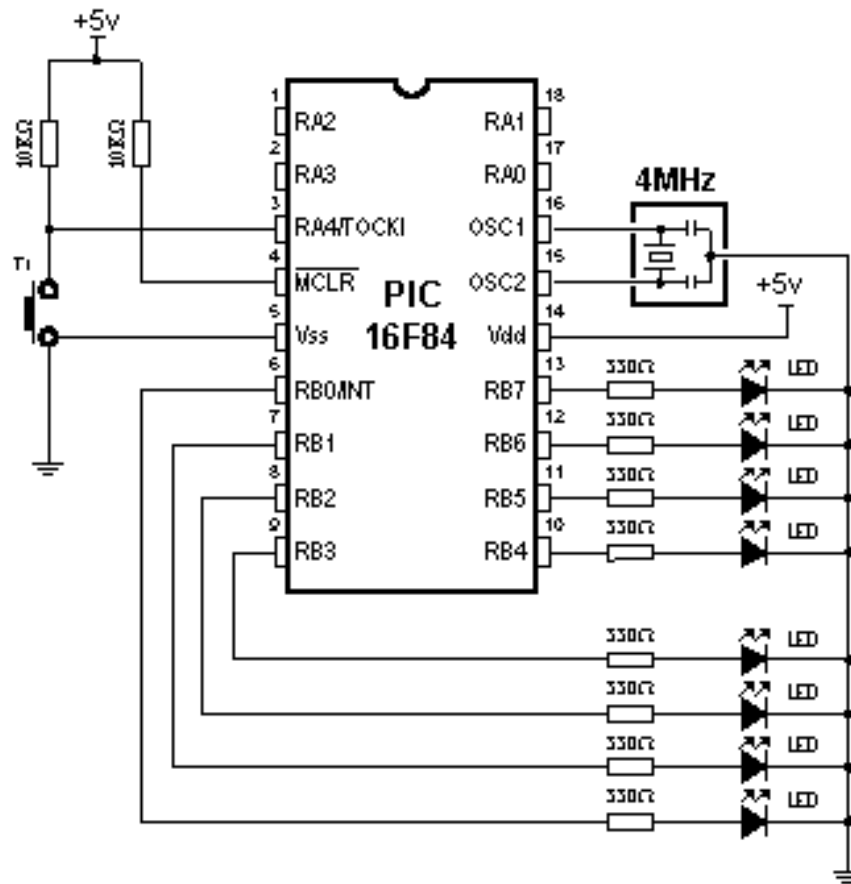
LEDs must be connected around the correct way, in order to emit light and the current-limiting resistor must be the correct value so that the LED is not damaged or burn out (overheated). The positive of the supply is taken to the anode, and the cathode goes to the negative or earth of the project (circuit). In order to identify each lead, the cathode is the shorter lead and the LED housing usually has a cut or "flat" on the cathode side. Diodes will emit light only if current is flowing from anode to cathode. Otherwise, its PN junction is reverse biased and current won't flow. In order to connect a LED correctly, a resistor must be added in series that will limit the amount of current through the diode, so that it does not burn out. The value of the resistor is determined by the amount of current you want to flow through the LED. This can range from 2mA to 25mA. High-efficiency LEDs can produce a very good output with a current as low as 2mA.

To determine the value of the dropper-resistor, we need to know the value of the supply voltage. From this we subtract the characteristic voltage drop of a LED. This value will range from 1.7v to 2.3v depending on the color of the LED. The answer is the value of U_r . Using this value and the current we want to flow through the LED (0.002A to 0.01A) we can work out the value of the resistor from the formula $R = U_r / I$.



LEDs are connected to a microcontroller in two ways. One is to turn them on with logic zero, and other to turn them on with logic one. The first is called NEGATIVE logic and the other is called POSITIVE logic. The normal method is POSITIVE logic. The above diagram shows how they are connected for POSITIVE logic. Since POSITIVE logic provides a voltage of +5V to the diode and dropper resistor, it will emit light each time a pin of port B is provided with a logic 1 (1 = HIGH output). NEGATIVE logic requires the LED to be turned around the other way and the cathode

connected to the positive supply. When a LOW output from the microcontroller is delivered to the LED and resistor, the LED will illuminate.



Connecting LED diodes to PORTB microcontroller

The following example initializes port B as output and sets logic one to each pin of port B to turn on all LEDs.

```

;***** Declaring and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Structure of program memory *****

ORG 0x00          ; Reset vector .....
goto Main

ORG 0x04 goto Main ; Interrupt vector
goto Main ; Interrupt vector

;***** Main program *****

Main              ; Beginning of program
EANKL
movlw 0x0f        ; Port A initialization
movwf TRISA      ; TRISA ← 0xf
movlw 0xc0        ; Port E initialization
movwf TRISE      ; TRISE ← 0xc0
EANKL

movlw 0x0f
movwf PORTA      ; Turn on all LEDs

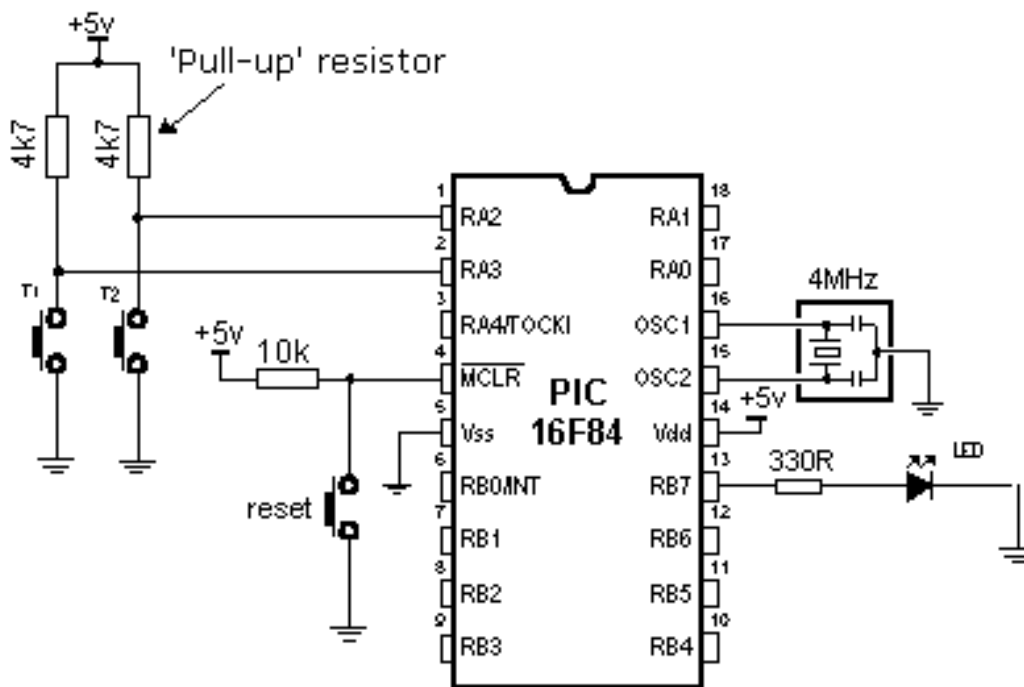
Loop
goto Loop        ; Stay in the loop

End              ; End of program

```

Keyboard


Keyboards are mechanical devices used to execute an interrupt or make connections between two points. They come in different sizes and with different purposes. Keys that are used here are also called "dip-keys". They are soldered directly onto a printed plate and are often found in electronics. They have four pins (two for each contact) which give them mechanical stability.



Example of connecting keys to microcontroller pins.

Key function is simple. When we press a key, two contacts are joined together and connection is made. Still, it isn't all that simple. The problem lies in the nature of voltage as an electrical dimension, and in the imperfection of mechanical contacts. That is to say, before contact is made or cut off, there is a short time period when vibration (oscillation) can occur as a result of unevenness of mechanical contacts, or as a result of the different speed in pressing a key (this depends on person who presses the key). The term given to this phenomena is called SWITCH (CONTACT) DEBOUNCE. If this is overlooked when program is written, an error can occur, or the program can produce more than one output pulse for a single key press. In order to avoid this, we can introduce a small delay when we detect the closing of a contact. This will ensure that the press of a key is interpreted as a single pulse. The debounce delay is produced in software and the

length of the delay depends on the key, and the purpose of the key. The problem can be partially solved by adding a capacitor across the key, but a well-designed program is a much-better answer. The program can be adjusted until false detection is completely eliminated. In some case a simple delay will be adequate but if you want the program to be attending to a number of things at the same time, a simple delay will mean the processor is "doing-nothing" for a long period of time and may miss other inputs or be taken away from outputting to a display. The solution is to have a program that looks for the press of a key and also the release of a key. The macro below can be used for keypress debounce.



Makro: TESTER.INC

```

TESTER macro HiLo, Port, Bit, Delay, Address

    Local Exit          ; Local labels
    Local Loop
    if HiLo == 0        ; Is the key pressed?
        btfsc Port,Bit  ; Is input line LOW?
    else
        btfss Port,Bit  ; Is input line HIGH?
    endif
    goto Exit           ; If key hasn't been pressed, exit the
                        ; macro
    WAIT Delay          ; Delay for key debounce
Loop
    if HiLo == 0        ; Is the key released?
        btfss Port,Bit
    else
        btfsc Port,Bit
    endif
    goto Loop
    WAIT Delay          ; Delay for key debounce
                        ;
    call Address         ; Call the service subprogram
Exit
    endm                ; End of macro

```

The above macro has several arguments that need to be explained:

TESTER macro HiLo, Port, Bit, Delay, Address

HiLo can be '0' or '1' which represents rising or falling edge where service subprogram will be executed when you press a key.

Port is a microcontroller's port to which a key is connected. In the case of a PIC16F84 microcontroller, it can be PORTA or PORTB.

Bit is port's line to which the key is connected.

Delay is a number from 0 to 255, used to assign the time needed for key debounce detection - contact oscillation - to stop. It is calculated as $TIME = Delay \times 1ms$.

Address is the address where the micro goes after a key is detected. The sub-routine at the address carries out the required instruction for the keypress.

Example 1: TESTER 0, PORTA, 3, .100, Tester1_below

Key-1 is connected to RA0 (the first output of port A) with a delay of 100 microseconds and a reaction to logic zero. Subprogram that processes key is found at address of label Tester1_above.

Example2: TESTER 0, PORTA, 2, .200, Tester2_below

Key-2 is connected to RA1 (the second output of port A) with 200 mS delay and a reaction to logic one. Subprogram that processes key is found at address of label Tester2_below.

The next example shows the use of macros in a program. TESTER.ASM turns LED on and off. The LED is connected to the seventh output of port B. Key-1 is used to turn LED on. Key-2 turns LED off.



Program: TESTER.ASM

```

;***** Declaring and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring variables *****

Cblock 0x0C          ; Beginning of RAM
WCYCLE              ; Belongs to 'WAIT' macro
PRESCwait
endc

;***** Structure of program memory *****

ORG 0x00            ; Reset vector
goto Main

ORG 0x04            ; Interrupt vector
goto Main          ; No interrupt routine

#include "bank.inc" ; Assistant files
#include "tester.inc"
#include "wait.inc"

Main                ; Beginning of a program
BANK1
movlw 0xff          ; Port A initialization
movwf TRISA        ; TRISA <- 0xff
movlw 0x00          ; Port B initialization
movwf TRISB        ; TRISB <- 0x00
BANK0

clrf PORTB         ; PORTB <- 0

Loop
TESTER 0, PORTA, 2, .100, On ; Tester 1
TESTER 0, PORTA, 3, .100, Off ; Tester 2

```

```
TESTER 0, PORTA, 2, .100, On ; Tester 1
TESTER 0, PORTA, 3, .100, Off ; Tester 2
goto      Loop

On
bsf      PORTB,7      ; Turn on LED
return

Off
bcf      PORTB,7      ; Turn off LED
return

End      ; End of program
```

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Optocouplers

Optocouplers combine a LED and photo-transistor in the same housing. The purpose of an optocoupler is to separate two parts of a circuit.

This is done for a number of reasons:

- Interference.** One part of a circuit may be in a location where it picks up a lot of interference (such as from electric motors, welding equipment, petrol motors etc.) If the output of this circuit goes through an optocoupler to another circuit, only the intended signals will pass through the optocoupler. The interference signals will not have enough "strength" to activate the LED in the optocoupler and thus they are eliminated. To protect a section of the device. Typical examples are industrial units with lots of interferences which affect signals in the wires. If these interferences affect the function of control section, errors will occur and the unit will stop working.
- Simultaneous separation and intensification of a signal.** A signal as low as 3v is able to activate an optocoupler and the output of the optocoupler can be connected to an input line of a microcontroller. The microcontroller requires an input swing of 5v and in this case the 3v signal is amplified to 5v. It can also be used to amplify the current of a signal. See below for use on the output line of a microcontroller for current amplification.
- High Voltage Separation.** Optocouplers have inherent high voltage separation qualities. Since the LED is completely separate from the photo-transistor, optocouplers can exhibit voltage isolation of 3kv or higher.

Optocouplers can be used as input or output device. They can have additional functions such as Schmitt triggering (the output of a Schmitt trigger is either 0 or 1 - it changes slow rising and falling waveforms into definite low or high values). Optocouplers are packaged as a single unit or in groups of two or more in one housing. They are also called PHOTO INTERRUPTERS where a spoked wheel is inserted in a slot between the LED and phototransistor and each time the light is interrupted, the transistor produces a pulse.

Each optocoupler needs two supplies in order to function. They can be used with one supply, but the voltage isolation feature is lost.

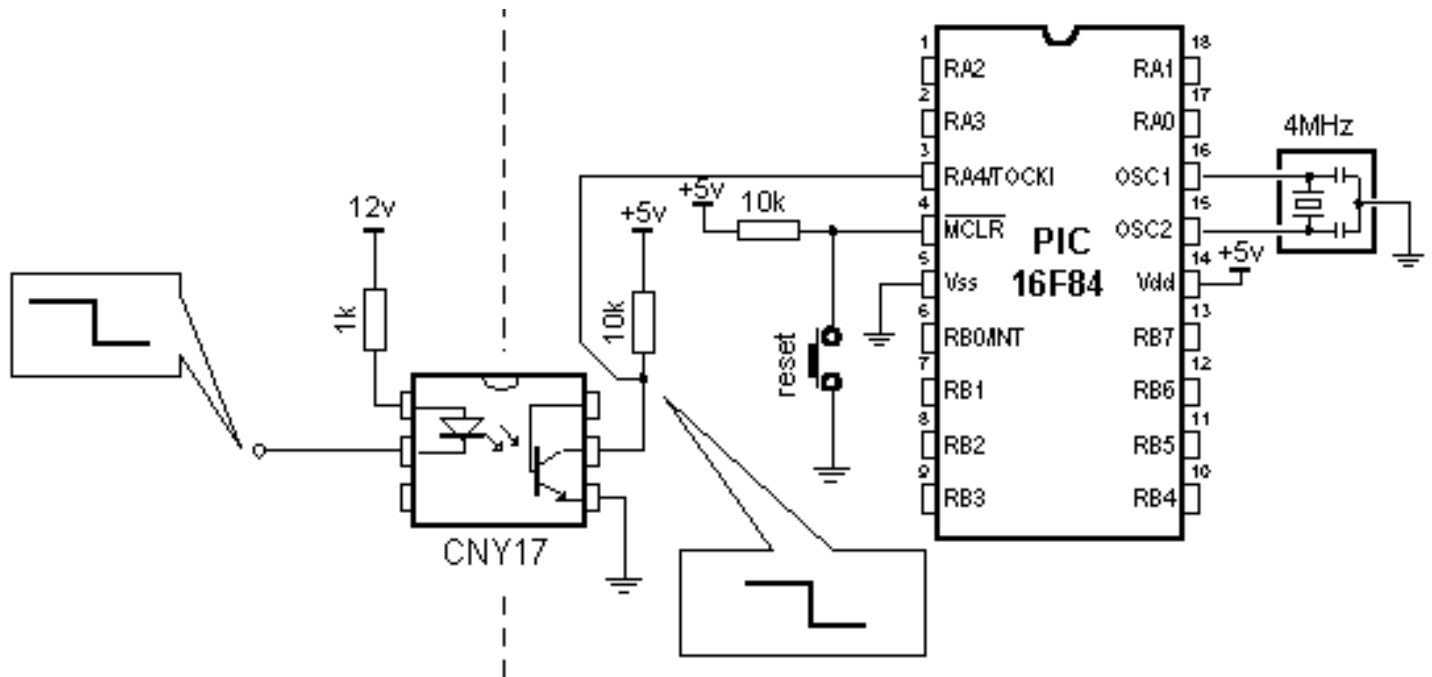
Optocoupler on an input line

The way it works is simple: when a signal arrives, the LED within the optocoupler is turned on, and it shines on the base of a photo-transistor within the same housing. When the transistor is activated, the voltage between collector and emitter falls to 0.5V or less and the microcontroller sees this as a logic zero on its RA4 pin.

The example below is a counter, used for counting products on production line, determining motor

speed, counting the number of revolutions of an axle etc.

Let the sensor be a micro-switch. Each time the switch is closed, the LED is illuminated. The LED 'transfers' the signal to the phototransistor and the operation of the photo-transistor delivers a LOW to input RA4 of a microcontroller. A program in the microcontroller will be needed to prevent false counting and an indicator connected to any of the outputs of the microcontroller will show the current state of the counter.



Input line optocoupler example


Makro: OPTO_UL.ASM

```

;***** Declaration and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Program memory structure *****

ORG    0x00          ; Reset vector
goto   Main

ORG    0x04          ; Interrupt vector
goto   Main          ; No interrupt routine

#include "bank.inc" ; Assistant files

Main                                ; Beginning of program
BANK1
movlw  0xef          ; Port A initialization
movwf  TRISA         ; TRISA <- 0xff
movlw  0x00          ; port B initialization
movwf  TRISB         ; TRISB <- 0x00
movlw  b'00110000'  ; RA4 -> TMRO, PS=1:2
movwf  OPTION_REG   ; Increment TMRO to/at falling edge
BANK0

clrf   PORTB         ; PORTB <- 0
clrf   TMRO          ; TMRO <- 0

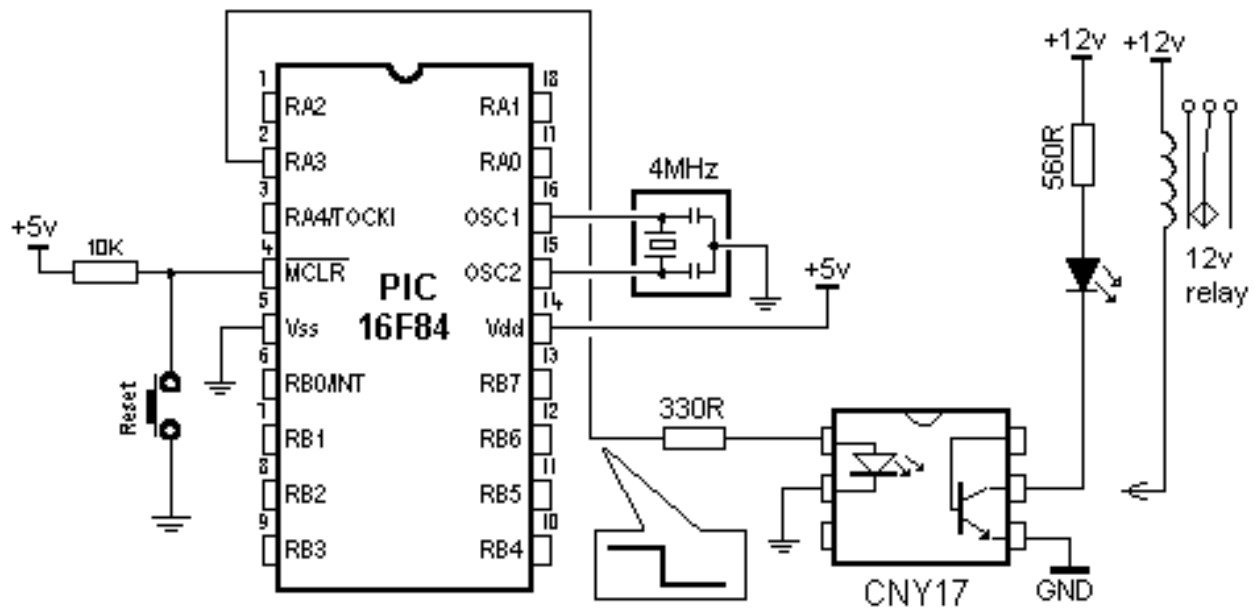
Loop   movf   TMRO,w  ; Copy the timer value
        movwf PORTB   ; to PORTB
        goto  Loop    ; Repeat the loop

End    ; End of program

```

Optocoupler on an output line

An Optocoupler can be used to separate the output signal of a microcontroller from an output device. This may be needed for high voltage separation or current amplification. The output of some microcontrollers is limited to 25mA. The optocoupler will take the low-current signal from the microcontroller and drive a LED or relay, as shown below:



Output line optocoupler example

The program for this example is simple. By delivering a logic '1' to the fourth pin of port A, the LED will be turned on and the transistor will be activated in the optocoupler. Any device connected to the output of the optocoupler will be activated. The transistor current-limit is about 250mA.

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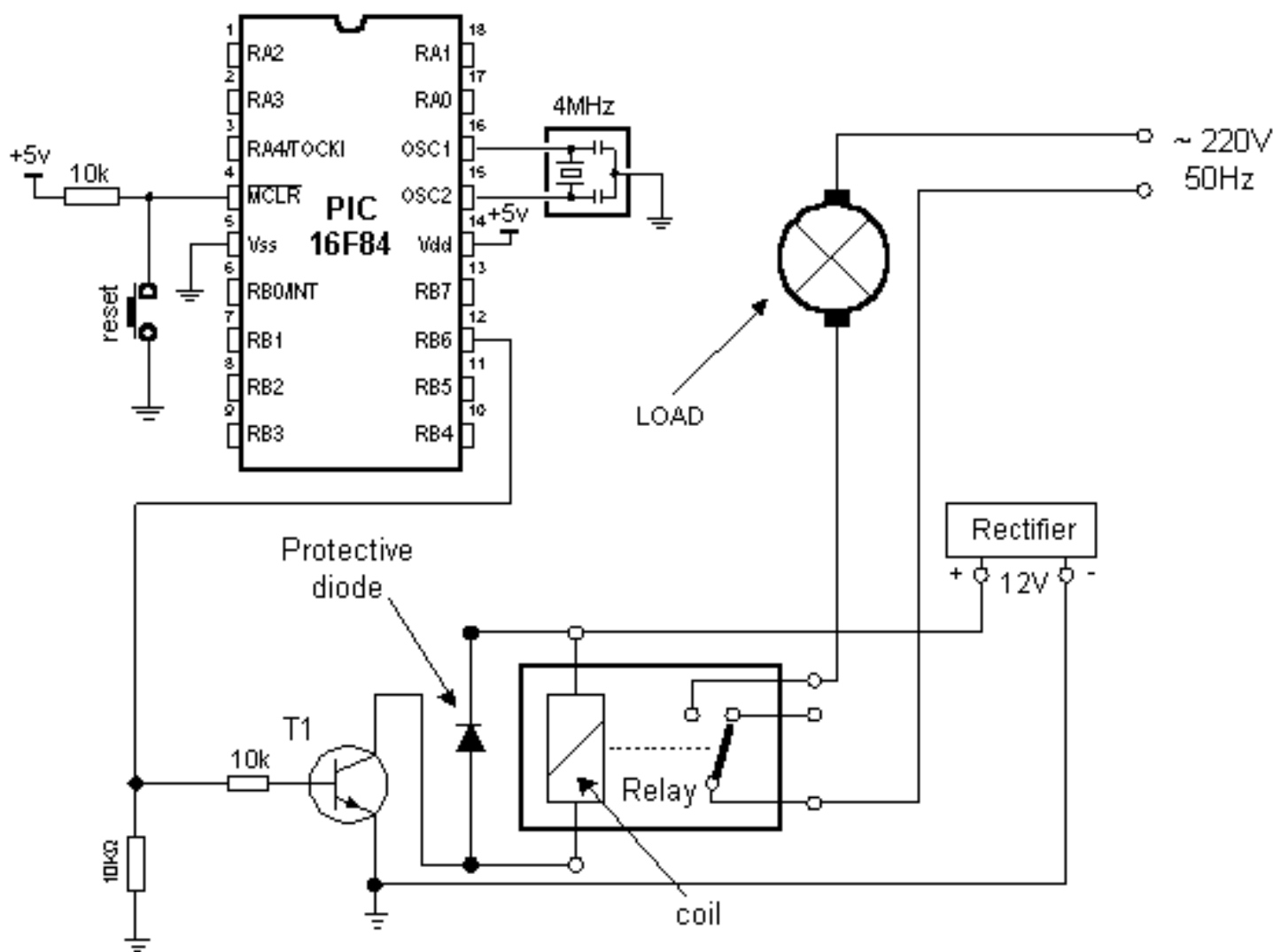
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The Relay

The relay is an electromechanical device, which transforms an electrical signal into mechanical movement. It consists of a coil of insulated wire on a metal core, and a metal armature with one or more contacts.

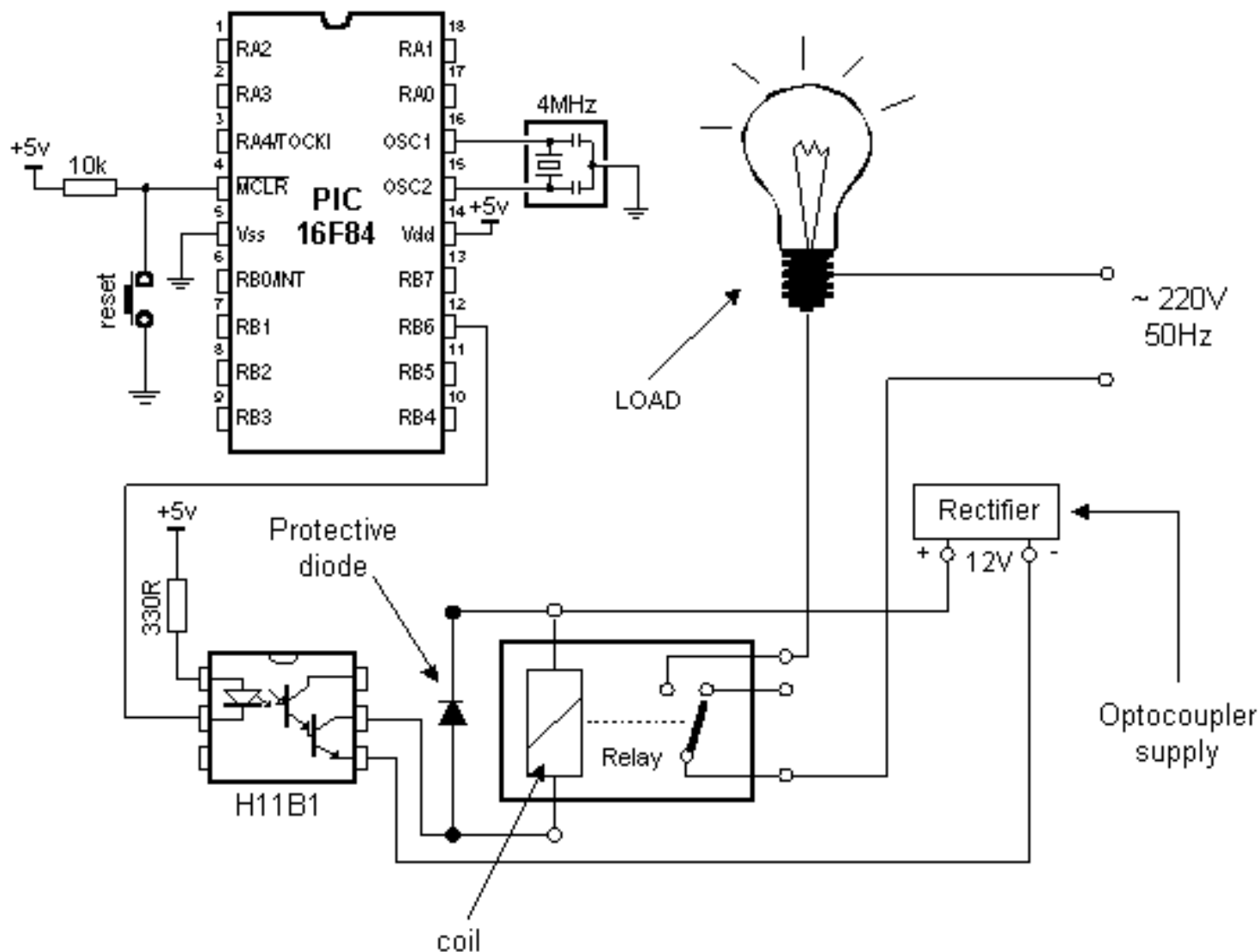
When a supply voltage is delivered to the coil, current will flow and a magnetic field is produced that moves the armature to close one set of contacts and open another set. When power is removed from the relay, the magnetic flux in the coil collapses and produces a fairly high voltage in the opposite direction. This voltage can damage the driver transistor and thus a reverse-biased diode is connected across the coil to "short-out" the spike when it occurs.



Connecting a relay to the microcontroller via a transistor

Many microcontrollers cannot drive a relay directly and so a driver transistor is required. A HIGH on the base of the transistor turns the transistor ON and this activates the relay. The relay can be connected to any electrical device via the contacts.

The 10k resistor on the base of the transistor limits the current from the microcontroller to that required by the transistor. The 10k between base and the negative rail prevents noise on the base from activating the relay. Thus only a clear signal from the microcontroller will activate the relay.



Connecting the optocoupler and relay to a microcontroller

A relay can also be activated via an optocoupler which at the same time strengthens the current from the output of the microcontroller and provides a high degree of isolation. High current optocouplers usually contain a 'darlington' output transistor to provide high output current.

Connecting via an optocoupler is recommended especially for microcontroller applications, where motors are activated as the commutator noise from the motor can get back to the microcontroller

via the supply lines. The optocoupler drives a relay and the relay activates the motor. The figure below shows the program needed to activate the relay, and includes some of the already discussed macros.


Program: RELAY.ASM

```

;***** Declaring and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring the variables *****

Cblock 0x0C                ; Beginning of RAM
WCYCLE                    ; Belongs to macros WAIT and WAITX
PRESCwait
endc

;***** Declaring the hardware *****

#define RELAY PORTB,6      ; Relay is on the 7th pin of port B

;***** Structure of program memory *****

ORG 0x00                  ; Reset vector
goto Main

ORG 0x04                  ; Interrupt vector
goto Main                 ; No interrupt routine

#include "bank.inc"       ; Macros
#include "tester.inc"
#include "wait.inc"

Main                       ; Beginning of program

BANK1
movlw b'00010111'        ; Initialization of port A
movwf TRISA              ; TRISA <- 0x17
movlw 0x00               ; Initialization of port B
movwf TRISB              ; TRISB <- 0x00
BANK0

clrf PORTB               ; PORTB <- 0x00

Loop

TESTER 0, PORTB, 0, .100, On ; Tester 1
TESTER 0, PORTB, 1, .100, Off ; Tester 2

goto Loop

```

```
On
    bsf RELAY          ; Turn the relay on
    return

Off
    bcf RELAY         ; Turn the relay off
    return

End                   ; End of program
```

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Generating a sound

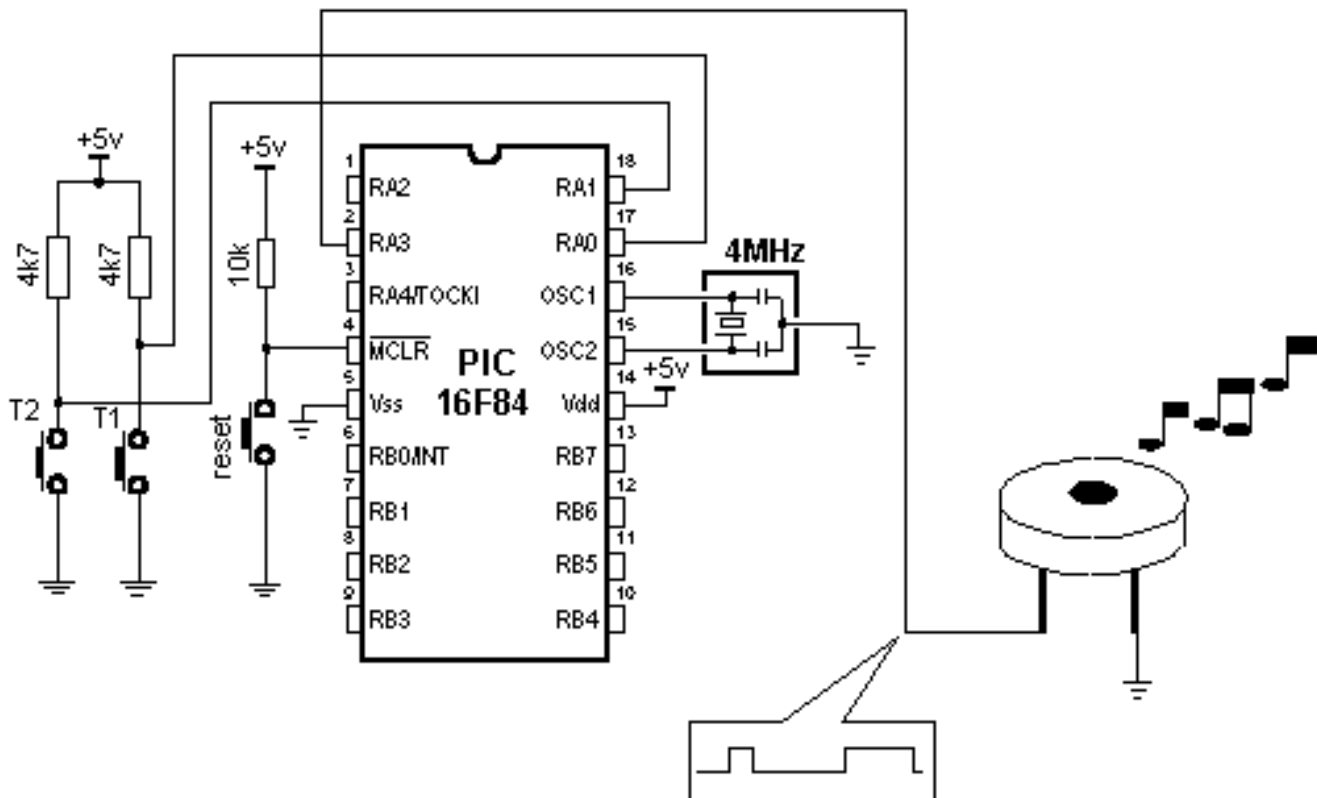
A Piezo diaphragm can be added to an output line of a microcontroller to deliver a whole range of tones, beeps and signals.

It is important to know there are two main types of piezo sound-emitting devices. One has active components inside the casing and only requires a DC supply for the "sounder" to emit a tone or beep. Generally the tones or beeps emitted by these "sounders" or "beepers" cannot be changed - they are fixed by the internal circuitry. This is not the type we are discussing in this article.

The other type consists of a piezo diaphragm and requires a signal to be delivered to it for it to function. Depending on the frequency of the waveform, the output can be a tone, tune, alarm or even voice messages.

In order for them to work we must deliver a cycle consisting of a HIGH and LOW. It is the change from HIGH to LOW or LOW to HIGH that causes the diaphragm to "dish" (move) to produce the characteristic "tinny" sound. The waveform can be a smooth change from one value to the other (called a sine wave) or a fast change (called a SQUARE WAVE). A computer is ideal for producing a square wave. The square wave delivery produces a slightly harsher output.

Connecting a piezo diaphragm is very simple. One pin is connected to the negative rail and the other to an output of a microcontroller, as shown in the diagram below. This will deliver a 5v waveform to the piezo diaphragm. To produce a higher output, the waveform must be increased and this requires a driver transistor and inductor.



Connecting a piezo diaphragm to a microcontroller

As with a key, you can employ a macro that will deliver a BEEP ROUTINE into a program when needed.

BEEP macro has two arguments:

freq: frequency of the sound. The higher number produces higher frequency

duration: sound duration. The higher the number, the longer the sound.

Example 1: BEEP 0xFF, 0x02

The output of the piezo diaphragm has the highest frequency and duration at 2 cycles per 65.3mS which gives 130.6 mS

Example2: BEEP 0x90, 0x05

The output of the piezo diaphragm has a frequency of 0x90 and duration of 5 cycles per 65.3mS. It is best to determine these macro arguments through experimentation and select the sound that best suits the application.

The following is the BEEP Macro listing:



```

;***** Declaring constants *****

        CONSTANT PRESCbeep = b'00000111' ; 65,3 ms per cycle

;***** Macros *****

BEEP    macro    freq,duration
        movlw    freq
        movwf    Beep_TEMP1
        movlw    duration
        call     BEEPsub
        endm

BEEPinit macro
        bcf     BEEPport
        BANK1
        bcf     BEEPtris
        BANK0
        endm

;***** Subprograms *****

BEEPsub movwf Beep_TEMP2           ; Set the value of sound duration
        clrf   TMR0                ; Initialize the counter
        bcf   BEEPport
        BANK1
        bcf   BEEPport
        movlw PRESCbeep            ; Set the prescaler for TMR0
        movwf OPTION REG          ; OPTION <- W
        BANK0

BEEPa   bcf   INTCON,TOIF          ; Erase the TMR0 Overflow Flag
BEEPb   bsf   BEEPport
        call  B_Wait               ; Duration of logic '1'
        bcf   BEEPport
        call  B_Wait               ; Duration of logic '0'
        btfsz INTCON,TOIF          ; Check the TMR0 overflow flag
        goto  BEEPb               ; Skip of it is set
        decfsz Beep_TEMP2,1        ; Is the Beep_TEMP2 = 0 ?
        goto  BEEPa               ; If not, jump to BEEP again
        RETURN

B_Wait  movfw  Beep_TEMP1
        movwf  Beep_TEMP3
B_Waita decfsz Beep_TEMP3,1
        goto  B_Waita
        RETURN

```

The following example shows the use of a macro in a program. The program produces two

melodies which are obtained by pressing T1 or T2. Some of the previously discussed macros are included in the program.



Program: BEEP.ASM

```

;***** Declaring and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring variables *****

Cblock 0x0C ; Beginning of RAM
WCYCLE ; Belongs to 'WAITX' macro
PRESCwait
Beep_TEMP1 ; Belongs to 'BEEP' macro
Beep_TEMP2
Beep_TEMP3
endc

;***** Declaring the hardware *****

#define BEEPport PORTA,3 ; Port and pin for piezo diaphragm
#define BEEPtris TRISA,3 ;

;***** Structure of program memory *****

ORG 0x00 ; Reset vector
goto Main
ORG 0x04 ; Interrupt vector
goto Main ; No interrupt routine

#include "bank.inc" ; Assistant files
#include "tester.inc"
#include "wait.inc"
#include "beep.inc"

Main ; Beginning of the program
BANK1
movlw b'00010111 ; Port A initialization
movwf TRISA ; TRISA <- 0x17
BANK0
BEEPinit ; Beeper initialization

Loop
TESTER 0, PORTA, 0, .100, Play1 ; Button 1
TESTER 0, PORTA, 1, .100, Play2 ; Button 2
goto Loop

Play1
BEEP 0xFF, 0x02
BEEP 0x90, 0x05
BEEP 0x00, 0x00

```

```
    BEEP 0xFF, 0x02
    BEEP 0x90, 0x05
    BEEP 0xC0, 0x03
    BEEP 0xFF, 0x03          ; First melody
    return
Play2
    BEEP 0xbb, 0x02
    BEEP 0x87, 0x05
    BEEP 0xa2, 0x03
    BEEP 0x98, 0x03          ; Second melody
    return
End                          ; End of program
```

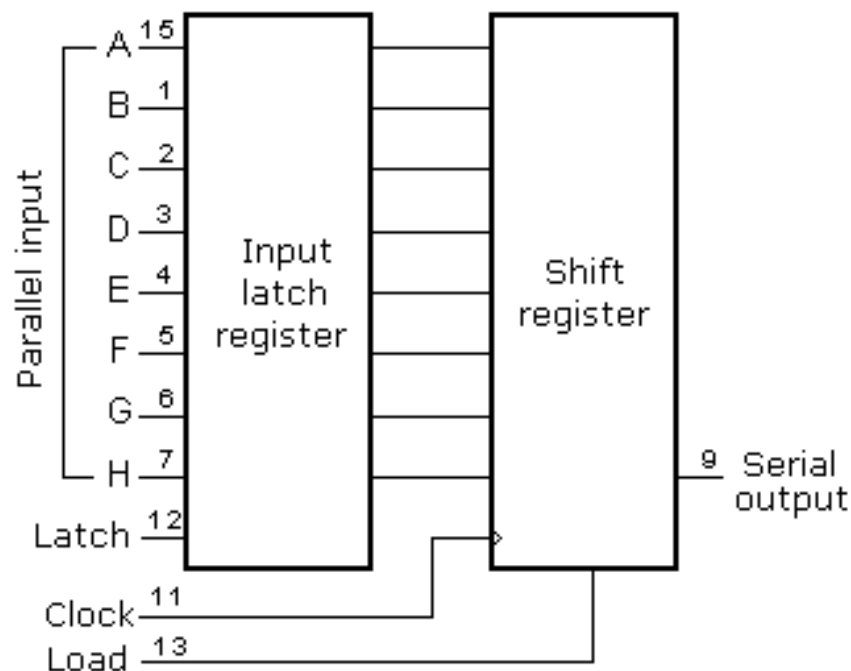
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Shift registers

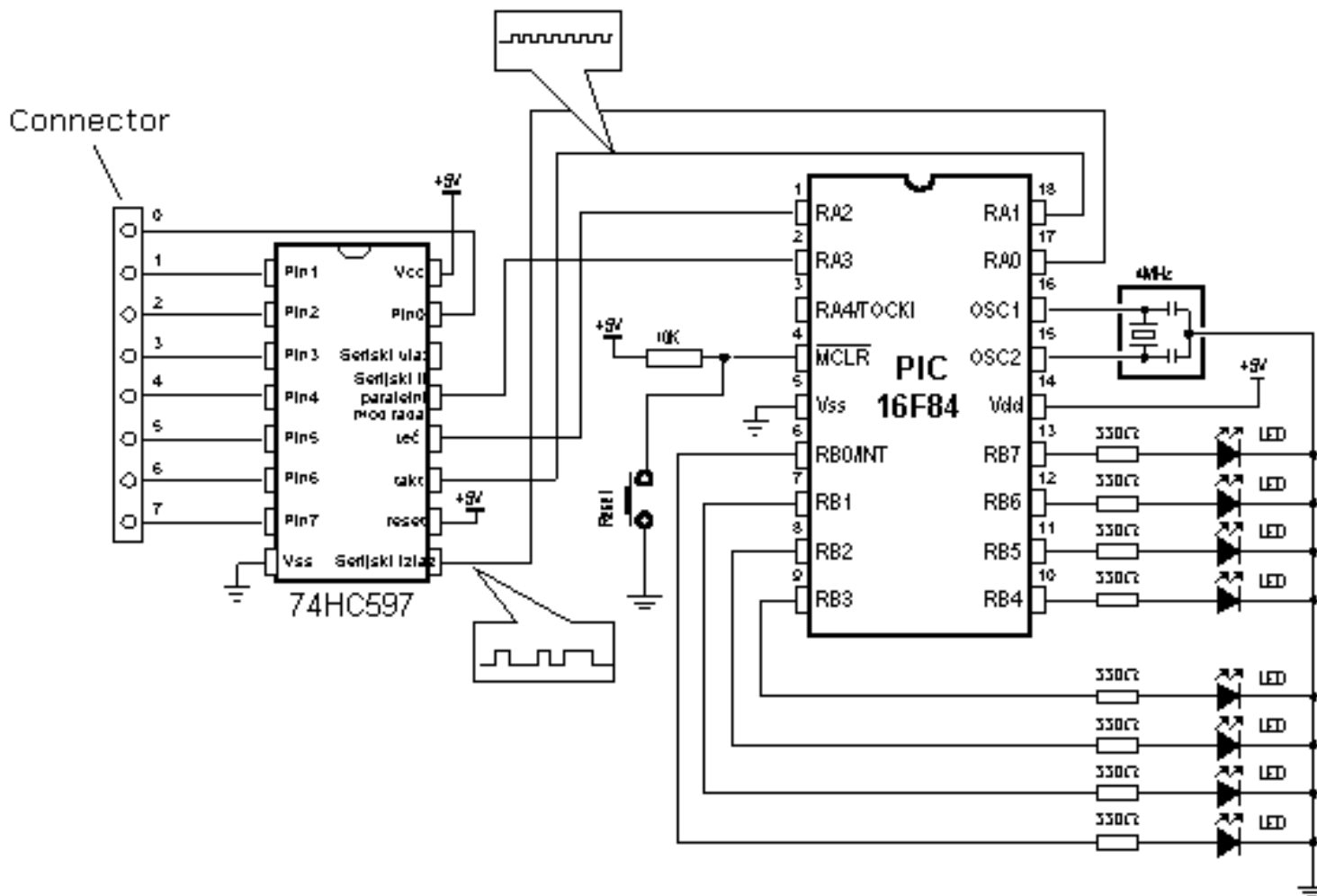
There are two types of shift registers: **input and output**. **Input shift registers** receive data in parallel, through 8 lines and then send it serially through two lines to a microcontroller. **Output shift registers** work in the opposite direction; they receive serial data and on a "latch" line signal, they turn it into parallel data. Shift registers are generally used to increase the number of input-output lines of a microcontroller. They are not so much in use any more though, because most modern microcontrollers have a large number of input/output lines. However, their use with microcontrollers such as PIC16F84 can be justified.

Input shift register 74HC597

Input shift registers transform parallel data into serial data and transfer it to a microcontroller. Their working is quite simple. There are four lines for the transfer of data: **clock, latch, load and data**. Data is first read from the input pins by an internal register through a 'latch' signal. Then, with a 'load' signal, data is transferred from the input latch register to the shift register, and from there it is serially transferred to a microcontroller via 'data' and 'clock' lines.



An outline of the connection of the shift register 74HC597 to a micro, is shown below.



How to connect an input shift register to a microcontroller

In order to simplify the main program, a macro can be used for the input shift register. Macro HC597 has two arguments:

HC597 macro Var, Var1

Var variable where data from input pins is transferred

Var1 loop counter

Example: HC597 data, counter

Data from the input pins of the shift register is stored in data variable. Timer/counter variable is used as a loop counter.

Macro listing:


Makro: HC597.INC

```

HC597 macro    Var,Var1

    Local  Loop          ; local label

    movlw  .8            ; transfer eight bits
    movwf  Var1          ; counter initialization

    bsf    Latch         ; receive status from pins at input latch
    nop
    bcf    Latch

    bcf    Load
    nop
    bsf    Load

Loop  rlf    Var,f        ; Rotate 'Var' one space to the left

    btfss  Data         ; Is Data line = '1' ?
    bcf    Var,0        ; If not, set erase bit '0' at Var variable
    btfsc  Data         ; Is Dataline = '0'?
    bsf    Var,0        ; If not set bit '0'

    bsf    Clock        ; make one clock
    nop
    bcf    Clock

    decfsz Var1,f       ; are 8 bits received?
    goto   Loop         ; if not, repeat

endm

```

Example of how to use the HC597 macro is given in the following program. Program receives data from a parallel input of the shift register and moves it serially into the RX variable of the microcontroller. LEDs connected to port B will indicate the result of the data input.


Program: HC597.INC

```

;***** Declaration and configuration of microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring the variables *****

Cblock 0x0C ; beginning of RAM
RX

```



```

    Chlock 0x0C      ; beginning of RAM
    RX
    CountSPI
    endc

;***** Declaring the hardware *****

    #define Data PORTA,0      ; can be any other I/O pin
    #define Clock PORTA,1
    #define Latch PORTA,2
    #define Load PORTA,3

;***** Program memory structure *****

    ORG    0x00              ; reset vector
    goto   Main

    ORG    0x04              ; Interrupt vector
    goto   Main              ; no interrupt routine

    #include "bank.inc"      ; assistant files
    #include "hc597.inc"

Main                                ; beginning of a program
    BANK1
    movlw b'00010001'       ; port A initialization
    movwf TRISA              ; TRISA <- 0x11
    clrf  TRISB              ; pins of port B
    BANK0

    clrf  PORTA              ; PORTA <- 0x00
    bsf   Load              ; Enable SHIFT register

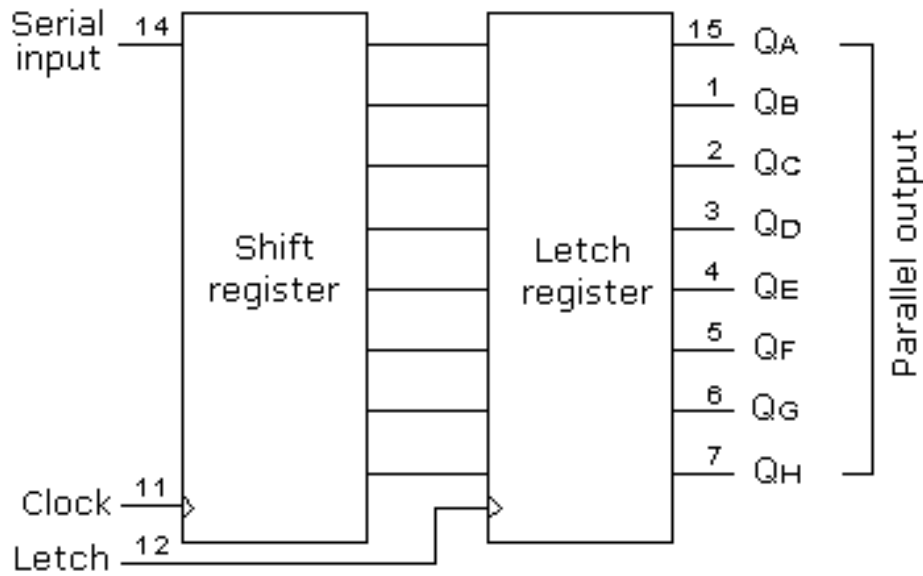
Loop  HC597 RX, CountSPI     ; Status of input pins of SHIFT register
    movf  RX,W               ; Are found in variable RX
    movwf PORTB              ; Set the contents of RX register to
                                ; port B

    goto  Loop               ; Repeat the loop
End      ; End of program

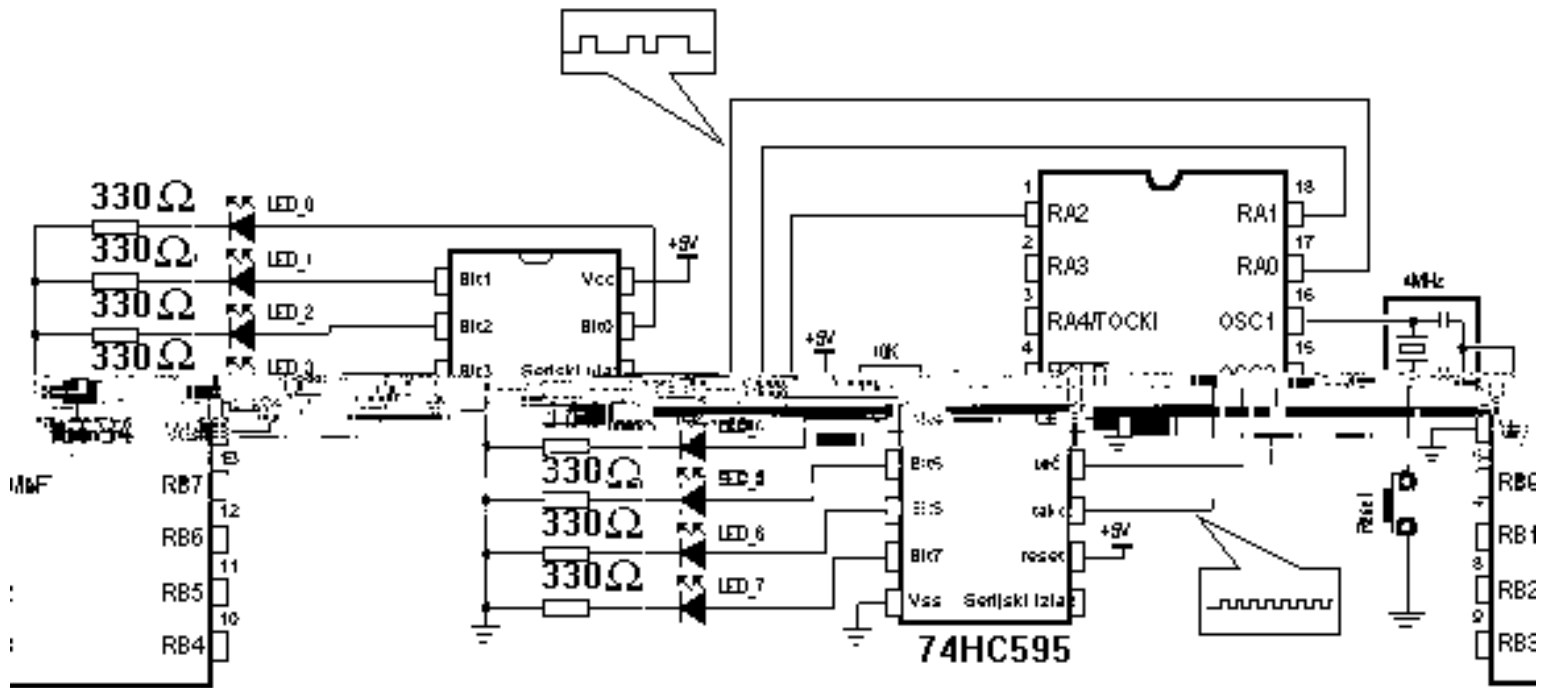
```

Output shift register

Output shift registers transform serial data into parallel data. On every rising edge of the clock, the shift register reads the value from data line, stores it in temporary register, and then repeats this cycle 8 times. On a signal from 'latch' line, data is copied from the shift register to input register, thus data is transformed from serial into parallel data.



An outline of the 74HC595 shift register connections is shown on the diagram below:



Connecting an output shift register to a microcontroller

Macro used in this example is found in hc595.inc file, and is called HC595.

```
HC595mMacroVar,oVar1
```

variablewhoser cotentsd istransferred to outpuse of shift registe.

Example: HC595 Data, counter

The data we want to transfer is stored in data variable, and counter variable is used as a loop counter.



Makro: HC595.INC

```

HC595 macro Var,Var1

    Local Loop          ; local label
    movlw .8            ; transfer eight bits
    movwf Var1          ; counter initialization

Loop   rlf    Var,f      ; Rotate 'Var' one space to the left

    btfss STATUS,C      ; Is carry = '1' ?
    bcf    Data          ; If not, set Data line to '0'
    btfsc STATUS,C      ; Is carry = '0' ?
    bsf    Data          ; If not, set Data line to '1'

    bsf    Clock         ; Make one clock
    nop
    bcf    Clock

    decfsz Var1,f       ; Are eight bits sent?
    goto   Loop         ; If not, repeat

    bsf    Latch         ; If all 8 bits have been sent, move the
    nop          ; contents from SHIFT register to output latch
    bcf    Latch

    endm

```

An example of how to use the HC595 macro is given in the following program. Data from variable TX is serially transferred to shift register. LEDs connected to the parallel output of the shift register will indicate the state of the lines. In this example value 0xCB (1100 1011) is sent so that the eighth, seventh, fourth, second and first LEDs are illuminated.



```

;***** Microcontroller configuration and declaration *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring the variables *****

Cblock 0x0C                ; Beginning of RAM
TX                        ; Belongs to function "HC595"
CountSPI
endc

;***** Declaring the hardware *****

#define Data PORTA,0
#define Clock PORTA,1
#define Latch PORTA,2

;***** Structure of program memory *****

ORG    0x00                ; Reset vector
goto   Main
ORG    0x04                ; Interrupt vector
goto   Main                ; There is no interrupt routine

#include "bank.inc"        ; Assistant files
#include "hc595.inc"

Main                                ; Beginning of the program
BANK1
movlw  b'00011000'        ; Port A initialization
movwf  TRISA              ; TRISA <- 0x18
BANK0
clrf   PORTA              ; PORTA <- 0x00
movlw  0xcb               ; Fill the TX buffer
movwf  TX                 ; TX <- '11001011'
HC595 TX, CountSPI
Loop   goto   Loop        ; Stay here
End                                         ; End of program

```

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Seven-Segment Display (multiplexing)

The segments in a 7-segment display are arranged to form a single digit from 0 to 9 as shown in the animation:



We can display a multi-digit number by connecting additional displays. Even though LCD displays are more comfortable to work with, 7-segment displays are still standard in the industry. This is due to their temperature robustness, visibility and wide viewing angle. Segments are marked with non-capital letters: a, b, c, d, e, f, g and dp, where dp is the decimal period.

The 8 LEDs inside each display can be arranged with a common cathode or common anode. With a common cathode display, the common cathode must be connected to the 0v rail and the LEDs are turned on with a logic one. Common anode displays must have the common anode connected to the +5v rail. The segments are turned on with a logic zero.

The size of a display is measured in millimeters, the height of the digit itself (not the housing, but the digit!). Displays are available with a digit height of 7, 10, 13.5, 20, or 25 millimeters. They come in different colors, including: red, orange, and green.

The simplest way to drive a display is via a display driver. These are available for up to 4 displays.

Alternatively displays can be driven by a microcontroller and if more than one display is required, the method of driving them is called "multiplexing."

The main difference between the two methods is the number of "drive lines." A special driver may need only a single "clock" line and the driver chip will access all the segments and increment the display.

If a single display is to be driven from a microcontroller, 7 lines will be needed plus one for the decimal point. For each additional display, only one extra line is needed.

To produce a 4, 5 or 6 digit display, all the 7-segment displays are connected in parallel.

The common line (the common-cathode line) is taken out separately and this line is taken low for a short period of time to turn on the display.

Each display is turned on in turn and if this is repeated at a rate above 100 times per second, it will appear that all the displays are on at the same time.

As each display is turned on, the appropriate information must be delivered to it so that it will give the correct reading.

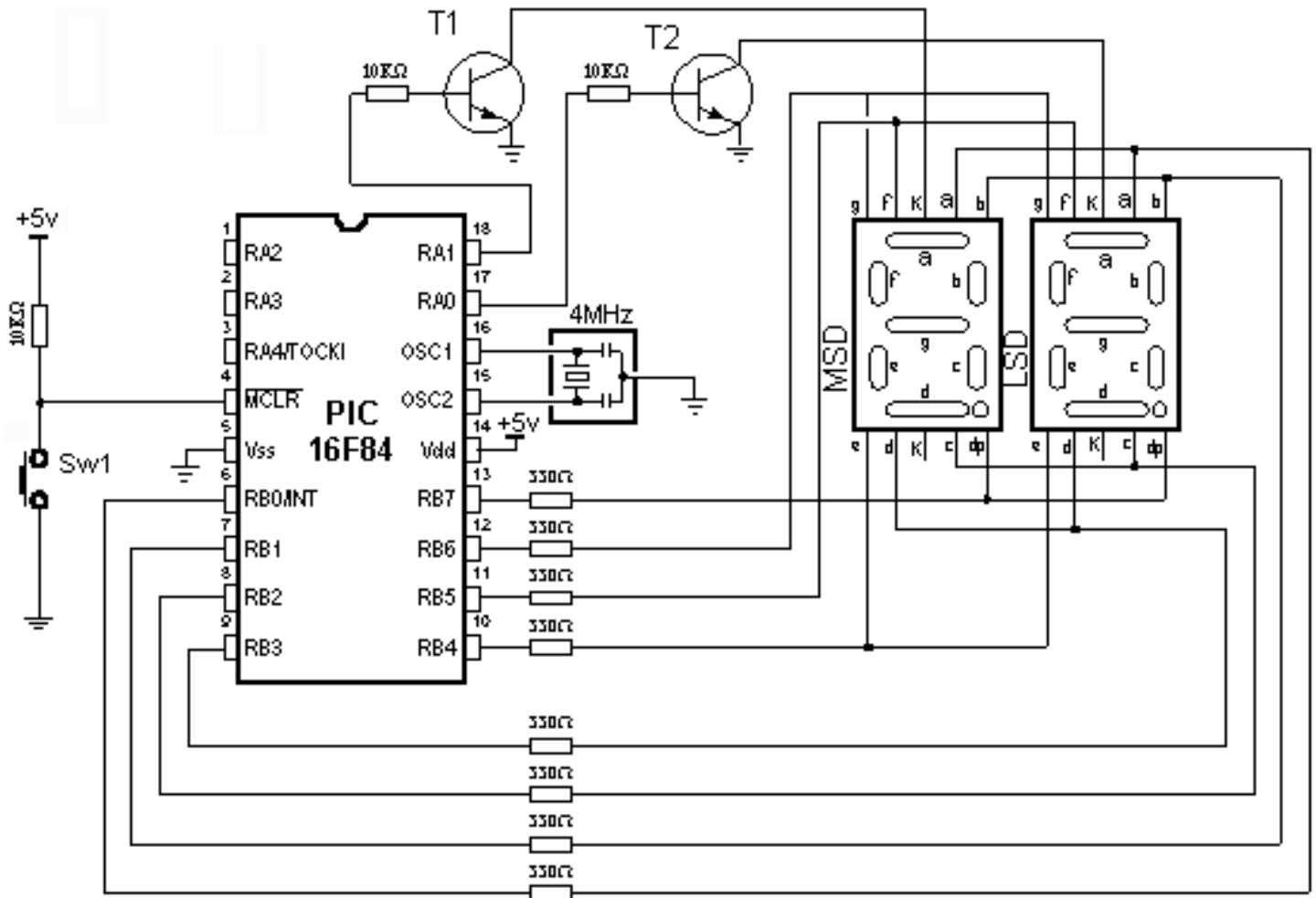
Up to 6 displays can be accessed like this without the brightness of each display being affected. Each display is turned on very hard for one-sixth the time and the POV (persistence of vision) of

our eye thinks the display is turned on the whole time.

All the timing signals for the display are produced by the program, the advantage of a microcontroller driving the display is flexibility.

The display can be configured as an up-counter, down-counter, and can produce a number of messages using letters of the alphabet that can be readily displayed.

The example below shows how to drive two displays.



Connecting a microcontroller to 7-segment displays in multiplex mode

File Led.inc contains two macros: LED_Init and LED_Dis2. The first macro is used for display initialization. That is where display refreshment period is defined as well as microcontroller pins used for connecting the displays. The second macro is used for displaying numbers from 0 to 99 on two displays.

Macro LED_Dis2 has one argument:

LED_Dis2 first macro

first is the number from 0 to 99 to be displayed on Msd and Lsd digit.

Example: LED_Dis2 0x34

Number 34 will be shown on the display

Realization of a macro is given in the following listing.



Macro: LED.INC

```

;***** Macros *****

LED_Init      macro
              call    InitPorts
              call    InitTimers
              endm

LED_Disp2     macro prvi
              movlw   prvi
              movwf   LO
              call    UpdateDisplay
              endm

;***** Subprograms *****

InitPorts
    BANK1
    clrf   LEDtrisA      ; Pins RA0-4 are output
    clrf   LEDtrisB      ; Port B is output
    BANK0
    clrf   LEDportA      ; Set all outputs to "0"
    clrf   LEDportB      ;           /
    bsf   LEDportA,3     ; Turn on MSD display
    RETURN

InitTimers
    BANK1
    movlw B'10000100'    ; Move the prescaler to TMR0
    movwf OPTION_REG     ; ps = 32
    BANK0
    movlw B'00100000'    ; Enable TMR0 interrupt
    movwf INTCON
    movlw .96
    movwf TMR0           ; Start the timer
    RETFIE

;***** Interrupt Routine *****

ISR    bcf     INTCON,GIE      ; Disable all interrupts
       btfs   INTCON,GIE      ; Check whether they are disabled
       goto   ISR
       movlw  .96              ; Initialize the TMR0
       movwf  TMR0
       bcf   INTCON,TOIF      ; Erase the int. (initialization) flag
       call  UpdatedDisplay    ; "Refresh" the display
       RETFIE

UpdatedDisplay

```


UpdateDisplay

```

    movf    LEDportA,W           ; Display status -> w register
    clrf   LEDportA             ; Turn off all 7-segment displays
    andlw  0x0f                  ; Separate the lower halfbyte
    movwf  TempC                 ; Save display status in TempC
    bsf    TempC,4               ; Beginning status of Lsd display
    rrf    TempC,F               ; Set the status of the next display
    btfss  STATUS,C              ; c=1 ?
    bcf    TempC,3               ; If not, turn off the Lsd display
    btfsc  TempC,0               ; If it is, check the status of Msd
                                           ; display
    goto   UpdateMsd            ; If it is turned on, display the MSD
                                           ; digit of the number

```

UpdateLsd

```

    call   ChkMsdZero           ; msd = 0 ?
    btfss  STATUS,Z              ; If it is, skip
    movf   LO,W                  ; Third Lsd digit -> w
    andlw  0x0f                  ;      /
    goto   DisplayOut           ; Show it on the display

```

UpdateMsd

```

    swapf  LO,W                  ; Msd figure -> W
    andlw  0x0f                  ;      /
    btfsc  STATUS,Z              ; msd != 0 ?
    movlw  0x0a                  ; If it is, skip

```

DisplayOut

```

    call   LedTable              ; Take the mask for a digit
    movwf  LEDportB              ; Set the mask on port B
    movf   TempC,W               ; Turn on displays
    movwf  LEDportA
    RETURN

```

LedTable

```

    addwf  PCL, F
    retlw  B'00111111'           ; mask for digit 0
    retlw  B'00000110'           ; mask for digit 1
    retlw  B'01011011'           ; mask for digit 2
    retlw  B'01001111'           ; mask for digit 3
    retlw  B'01100110'           ; mask for digit 4
    retlw  B'01101101'           ; mask for digit 5
    retlw  B'01111101'           ; mask for digit 6
    retlw  B'00000111'           ; mask for digit 7
    retlw  B'01111111'           ; mask for digit 8
    retlw  B'01101111'           ; mask for digit 9
    retlw  B'00000000'           ; no digit.....

```

ChkMsdZero

```

                                           ; Checking the leading zero
    movf   LO,W                  ; Msd figure -> W
    btfss  STATUS,Z              ; = 0 ? skip
    RETURN                           ; If it is, skip
    retlw  .10                   ; If not, go back from 10 to W reg

```

```

RETURN                                , 11 10 10, skip
retlw  .10                             ; If not, go back from 10 to W reg

```

The following example shows the use of macros in a program. Program displays number '21' in two 7-segment digits.



Program: LED.ASM

```

;***** Declaring and configuring a microcontroller *****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;***** Declaring the variables *****

Cblock 0x0C                                ; Beginning of RAM
TempC                                       ; Belongs to macro "LED_Disp2"
TempD
TempE
Count
HI
LO
endc

;***** Declaring the hardware *****

LEDtrisA    equ    TRISA
LEDportA    equ    PORTA
LEDtrisB    equ    TRISB
LEDportB    equ    PORTB

;***** Program memory structure *****

ORG    0x00                                ; Reset vector
goto   Main

ORG    0x04                                ; Interrupt vector
goto   ISR                                ; Interrupt routine is found
; in led.inc file
#include "bank.inc"                        ; Assistant file
#include "led.inc"

Main                                         ; Beginning of the program
LED_Init
LED_Disp2 0x21                             ; Display on two 7-segment displays
; Number "21"
loop goto   loop                          ; Stay in the loop

End                                         ; End of program

```

End

; End of program

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LCD Display

More microcontroller devices are using 'smart LCD' displays to output visual information. The following discussion covers the connection of a **Hitachi LCD display** to a PIC microcontroller. LCD displays designed around Hitachi's LCD HD44780 module, are inexpensive, easy to use, and it is even possible to produce a readout using the 8 x 80 pixels of the display. Hitachi LCD displays have a standard ASCII set of characters plus Japanese, Greek and mathematical symbols.



A 16x2 line Hitachi HD44780 display

Each of the 640 pixels of the display must be accessed individually and this is done with a number of surface-mount driver/controller chips mounted on the back of the display. This saves an enormous amount of wiring and controlling so that only a few lines are required to access the display to the outside world. We can communicate to the display via an 8-bit data bus or 4-bit data bus.

For a 8-bit data bus, the display requires a +5v supply plus 11 I/O lines. For a 4-bit data bus it only requires the supply lines plus seven extra lines. When the LCD display is not enabled, data lines are tri-state which means they are in a state of high impedance (as though they are disconnected) and this means they do not interfere with the operation of the microcontroller when the display is not being addressed.

The LCD also requires 3 "control" lines from the microcontroller.

The **Enable (E)** line allows access to the display through R/W and RS lines. When this line is low, the LCD is disabled and ignores signals from R/W and RS. When (E) line is high, the LCD checks the state of the two control lines and responds accordingly.

The **Read/Write (R/W)** line determines the direction of data between the LCD and microcontroller. When it is low, data is written to the LCD. When it is high, data is read from the LCD.

With the help of the **Register select (RS)** line, the LCD interprets the type of data on data lines. When it is low, an instruction is being written to the LCD. When it is high, a character is being written to the LCD.

Logic status on control lines:

E 0 Access to LCD disabled
 1 Access to LCD enabled

R/W 0 Writing data to LCD

1 Reading data from LCD

RS 0 Instruction
1 Character

Writing data to the LCD is done in several steps:

Set R/W bit to low
Set RS bit to logic 0 or 1 (instruction or character)
Set data to data lines (if it is writing)
Set E line to high
Set E line to low
Read data from data lines (if it is reading)

Reading data from the LCD is done in the same way, but control line R/W has to be high. When we send a high to the LCD, it will reset and wait for instructions. Typical instructions sent to LCD display after a reset are: turning on a display, turning on a cursor and writing characters from left to right.

When the LCD is initialized, it is ready to continue receiving data or instructions. If it receives a character, it will write it on the display and move the cursor one space to the right. The Cursor marks the next location where a character will be written. When we want to write a series of characters, first we need to set up the starting address, and then send one character at a time. Characters that can be shown on the display are stored in data display (DD) RAM. The size of DDRAM is 80 bytes.

The LCD display also possesses 64 bytes of Character-Generator (CG) RAM. This memory is used for characters defined by the user. Data in CG RAM is represented as an 8-bit character bit-map.

Each character takes up 8 bytes of CG RAM, so the total number of characters, which the user can define is eight. In order to read in the character bit-map to the LCD display, we must first set the CG RAM address to starting point (usually 0), and then write data to the display. The definition of a 'special' character is given in the picture opposite.

CG RAM address	Bit map	Data
0000	<input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	01010
0001	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	00100
0010	<input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	01110
0011	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	10001
0100	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	10000
0101	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	10001
0110	<input type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	01110
0111	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	00000

Before we access DD RAM after defining a special character, the program must set the DD RAM address. Writing and reading data from any LCD memory is done from the last address which was set up using set-address instruction. Once the address of DD RAM is set, a new written character will be displayed at the appropriate place on the screen.

Until now we discussed the operation of writing and reading to an LCD as if it were an ordinary memory. But this is not so. The LCD controller needs 40 to 120 microseconds (uS) for writing and reading. Other operations can take up to 5 mS. During that time, the microcontroller can not access the LCD, so a program needs to know when the LCD is busy. We can solve this in two ways.

Set DD RAM address

RS	R/W	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	DB3	DB2	DB1	DB0
0	0	1	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

Set CG RAM address

RS	R/W	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	DB3	DB2	DB1	DB0
0	0	0	1	A	A	A	A	A	A

Write in data to RAM

RS	R/W	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	DB3	DB2	DB1	DB0
1	0	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D

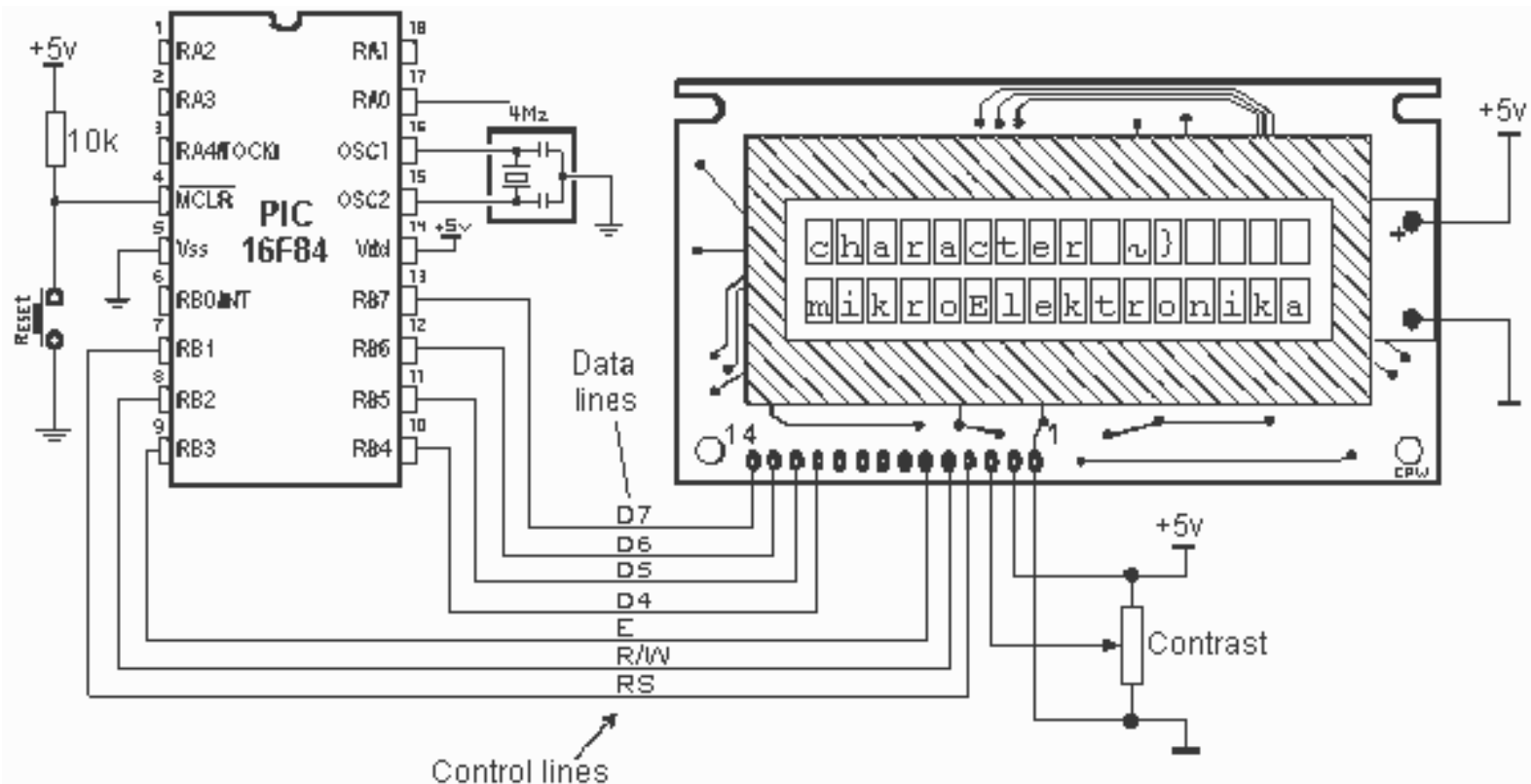
Read data from RAM

RS	R/W	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	DB3	DB2	DB1	DB0
1	1	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D

A = address**D = data**

One way is to check the BUSY bit found on data line D7. This is not the best method because LCD's can get stuck, and program will then stay forever in a loop checking the BUSY bit. The other way is to introduce a delay in the program. The delay has to be long enough for the LCD to finish the operation in process. Instructions for writing to and reading from an LCD memory are shown in the previous table.

At the beginning we mentioned that we needed 11 I/O lines to communicate with an LCD. However, we can communicate with an LCD through a 4-bit data bus. Thus we can reduce the total number of communication lines to seven. The wiring for connection via a 4-bit data bus is shown in the diagram below. In this example we use an LCD display with 2x16 characters, labelled LM16X212 by Japanese maker SHARP. The message 'character' is written in the first row: and two special characters '~' and '}' are displayed. In the second row we have produced the word 'mikroElektronika'.



Connecting an LCD display to a microcontroller

File **LCD.inc** contains a group of macros for use when working with LCD displays.

```

Makro: LCD.INC

;***** Declaring hardware *****
RS      equ      1          ; Signal Register Select
RW      equ      2          ; Signal Read/Write
EN      equ      3          ; Signal Enable Output / "CLK"

;***** LCD commands *****

CONSTANT LCDEM8 = b'00110000' ; 8-bit mode, 2 lines
CONSTANT LCDDZ = b'10000000' ; write 0 to DDRAM
CONSTANT LCDEM4 = b'00100000' ; 4-bit mode, 2 lines

;***** Standard commands for LCD initialization *** ( HI- / LO-NIBBLE)

CONSTANT LCD2L = b'00101000' ; function: 4 bit 2 lines
CONSTANT LCDCONT = b'00001100' ; Display control: Display ON,
                                ; Cursor OFF,blinking Cursor OFF
CONSTANT LCDSH = b'00101000' ; display mode: AutoIncrement
                                ; Cursor, NoDisplayAutoShift

;***** Standard LCD commands *****

;In order to send one of these commands to LCD, we need to use LCDcmd
;function or "LCDcmd LCDCLR"

```

```
;In order to send one of these commands to LCD, we need to use LCDcmd
;function, ex. "LCDcmd LCDCLR"
```

```
CONSTANT LCDCLR = b'00000001' ; clears display, resets the
                                ; cursor
CONSTANT LCDCH  = b'00000010' ; cursor to the beginning
CONSTANT LCDCR  = b'00000110' ; moving cursor to the right
CONSTANT LCDCL  = b'00000100' ; moving cursor to the left
CONSTANT LCDSL  = b'00011000' ; move the display contents to
                                ; the left
CONSTANT LCDSR  = b'00011100' ; move the display contents to
                                ; the right
CONSTANT LCDL1  = b'10000000' ; select the first line
CONSTANT LCDL2  = b'11000000' ; select the second line
```

```
;***** Macros *****
```

```
LCDinit    macro
            call    LCD_init          ; LCD initialization
            endm

LCDchar    macro LCDarg              ; write out the character on
                                       ; LCD
            movlw   LCDarg
            call    LCDdata
            endm

LCDw       macro
            call    LCDdata
            endm

LCDcmd     macro LCDcommand          ; send the command to LCD
            movlw  LCDcommand
            call   LCDcmd
            endm

LCDline    macro line_num
            IF (line_num == 1)
                LCDcmd LCDL1          ; Start the macro with "First Line"
                                       ; instruction
            ELSE
                IF (line_num == 2)
                    LCDcmd LCDL2      ; Start the macro with "Second Line"
                                       ; instruction
                ELSE
                    ENDIF
                ENDIF
            endm

LCD_DDAdr  macro DDRamAddress
            Local value = DDRamAddress | b'10000000' ; beginning of
                                                         ; DDRAM
```



```

LCD_init
    clrf LCDport          ; prepare LCDport
    BANK1
    clrf OPTION_REG
    movlw b'00000000'
    movwf LCDtris
    BANK0
    WAIT 0x01
    movlw LCDEM8          ; START INITIALIZATION
    movwf LCDport        ; start with "8-bit mode"
    call LCDclk

; write 0 in DDRAM
    clrf LCDport
    WAIT 0x01
    movlw LCDDZ
    movwf LCDport
    call LCDclk
    clrf LCDport
    movlw LCDEM4          ; go to 4 bit mode
    movwf LCDport
    call LCDclk
    clrf LCDport

4-bit mode
    LCDcmd LCD2L          ; function: 2 lines,
; display ON, no cur
LCDcmd LCDCONT          ; Mode displaying Au
    LCDcmd LCDSH
; clear display, add
; read in characters
;to CGRAM
    LCDcmd LCDCLR
    call LCDspecialChars
RETURN

LCDspecialChars          ; maximum number of
; that user can defi
; *** first special character is "E" at the position
; *** is called from "LCDchar 0x00" ***

LCD_CGAdr 0x00          ; send CGRAM address
LCDchar b'00001010'    ; write data to CGRAM
LCD_CGAdr 0x01
LCDchar b'00000100'
LCD_CGAdr 0x02
LCDchar b'00001110'
LCD_CGAdr 0x03
LCDchar b'00010001'
LCD_CGAdr 0x04
LCDchar b'00010000'
LCD_CGAdr 0x05
LCDchar b'00010001'
LCD_CGAdr 0x06
LCDchar b'00001110'
LCD_CGAdr 0x07
LCDchar b'00000000'

```

```

LCD_CGAdr 0x07
LCDchar b'00000000'

***
; *** second special character is & at position 0x01
; *** is called from "LCDchar 0x01" ***

LCD_CGAdr 0x08           ; send CGRAM address
LCDchar b'00000010'     ; write data to CGRAM
LCDchar b'00000100'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0A
LCDchar b'00001110'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0B
LCDchar b'00010001'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0C
LCDchar b'00010000'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0D
LCDchar b'00010001'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0E
LCDchar b'00001110'
LCD_CGAdr 0x0F
LCDchar b'00000000'
LCD_DDAdr 0x00           ; reset DDRAM
RETURN

```

Macro Terms

LCDinit macro used to initialize LCD. Initialize port for LCD. LCD is configured to work in four-bit mode.

Example: LCDinit

LCDchar LCDarg Write ASCII character. Argument is ASCII sign.

Example: LCDChar 'd'

LCDw Write character found in W register.

Example: movlw 'p'
LCDw

LCDcmd LCDcommand Sending command instructions

Example: LCDcmd LCDCH

LCD_DDAdr DDRamAddress Set DD RAM address.

Example: LCD_DDAdr .3

LCDline line_num Set cursor to the beginning of 1st or 2nd row

Example: LCDline 2

When working with a microcontroller the numbers are presented in a binary form. As such, they cannot be displayed on a display. That's why it is necessary to change the numbers from a binary system into a decimal system so they can be easily understood. Listings of two macros **LCDval_08** and **LCDval_16** are given below. The first converts a number from the binary system to the decimal system and displays it on an LCD display.

Macro **LCDval_08** converts an eight-bit binary number into a decimal number from 0 to 255 and displays it on the LCD display. It is necessary to declare the following variables in the main program: TEMP1, TEMP2, LO, LO_TEMP, Bcheck. An eight-bit binary number is found in variable LO. When a macro is executed, the decimal equivalent of its number will be displayed on the LCD display. The leading zeros before the number will not be displayed.



Makro: LCDv08.INC

```

;***** Macros *****

LCDval_08      macro
                call LCDval08
                endm

;***** Subprograms *****

LCDval08
    movfw  LO
    movwf  LO_TEMP
    clrf   Bcheck
    movlw  d'100'
    movwf  TEMP2
    call   VALcnv
    movlw  d'10'
    movwf  TEMP2
    call   VALcnv
    movlw  d'1'
    movwf  TEMP2
    bsf    Bcheck,0
    call   VALcnv
    RETURN

VALcnv  clrf   TEMP1
        movfw  TEMP2
VALc01  subwf  LO_TEMP,0
        skpc
        goto  LCDval2
        incf  TEMP1,1
        movfw  TEMP2
        subwf  LO_TEMP,1
        bsf    Bcheck,0
        goto  VALc01

        LCDval2  movlw '0'
        addwf  TEMP1,0
        btfss  Bcheck,0
        movlw  ' '

```

```

    btfss Bcheck,0
    movlw ' '
    LCDw
    RETURN

```

Macro **LCDval_16** converts 16-bit binary number into decimal number from 0 to 65535 and displays it on LCD display. The following variables need to be declared in the main program: TEMP1, TEMP2, TEMP3, LO, HI, LO_TEMP, HI_TEMP, Bcheck. A 16-bit binary number is found in variables LO and HI. When a macro is executed, a decimal equivalent of this number will be displayed on LCD display. The leading zeros before the number will not be displayed.



Macro: LCDv16.INC

```

;***** Macros *****

LCDval_16    macro
              call LCDvall6
              endm

;***** Subprograms *****

LCDvall6
    movfw    LO
    movwf    LO_TEMP
    movfw    HI
    movwf    HI_TEMP
    clrf     Bcheck

    movlw    b'00010000'
    movwf    TEMP2
    movlw    b'00100111'
    movwf    TEMP3
    call     VALcnv

    movlw    b'11101000'
    movwf    TEMP2
    movlw    b'00000011'
    movwf    TEMP3
    call     VALcnv

    movlw    b'01100100'
    movwf    TEMP2
    clrf     TEMP3
    call     VALcnv

    movlw    b'00001010'
    movwf    TEMP2
    clrf     TEMP3
    call     VALcnv

    movlw    b'00000001'
    movwf    TEMP2

```

```

        movlw    b'00000001'
        movwf   TEMP2
        clrf    TEMP3
        bsf     Bcheck,0

        call    VALcnv
        RETURN

VALcnv  clrf    TEMP1
Vcnv1   movfw   TEMP3
        subwf   HI_TEMP,0
        skpc
        goto   LCDval2
        bnz    Vcnv2

        movfw   TEMP2
        subwf   LO_TEMP,0
        skpc
        goto   LCDval2

Vcnv2   movfw   TEMP3
        subwf   HI_TEMP,1
        movfw   TEMP2
        subwf   LO_TEMP,1
        skpc
        decf   HI_TEMP,1
        incf   TEMP1,1
        bsf    Bcheck,0
        goto   Vcnv1

LCDval2 movlw   '0'
        addwf  TEMP1,0
        btfss Bcheck,0
        movlw  ' '
        LCDw
        RETURN

```

The main program is a demonstration of how to use the LCD display and generate new characters. At the beginning of a program, we need to declare variables **LCDbuf** and **LCDtemp** used by subprograms for the LCD as well as the microcontroller port connected to the LCD. The program writes the message 'characters:' on the first row and shows two special characters '~' and '}'. In the second row, 'mikroElektronika' is displayed.



Program: LCD.ASM

```

;*****
PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

*****

```

```
;*****
```

```
    Cblock 0x0C  
    LCDbuf  
    LCDtemp  
    WCYCLE  
    PRESCwait  
    Pointer  
    endc
```

```
;*****
```

```
    LCDtris equ   TRISB  
    LCDport equ   PORTB
```

```
;*****
```

```
    ORG    0x00  
    goto   Main  
  
    ORG    0x04  
    goto   Main
```

```
Poruke
```

```
    movwf   PCL
```

```
Porukal dt "mIkRoEleKtrOnIkA"
```

```
Kraj
```

```
    #include "bank.inc"  
    #include "wait.inc"  
    #include "lcd.inc"  
    #include "print.inc"
```

```
Main
```

```
LCDinit
```

```
    LCDchar 'K'  
    LCDchar 'a'  
    LCDchar 'r'  
    LCDchar 'a'  
    LCDchar 'k'  
    LCDchar 't'  
    LCDchar 'e'  
    LCDchar 'r'  
    LCDchar 'i'  
    LCDchar ':'  
    LCDchar ' '
```

```
    LCDchar 0x00  
    LCDchar 0x01
```

```
LCDline 2
```

```
PRINT Poruke, Porukal, Kraj, Pointer, LCDw
```

```
      LCDline 4  
      PRINT  Poruke, Porukal, Kraj, Pointer, LCDw  
  
Loop  goto  Loop  
  
      End
```

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12-bit AD converter

Since everything in the microcontroller world is represented with "0's" and "1's", how do we cater for a signal that is 0.5 or 0.77?

Most of the world outside a computer consists of audio signals. Apart from speech and music, there are many quantities that need to be fed into a computer. Humidity, temperature, air pressure, colour, turbidity, and methane levels, are just a few.

The answer is to take a number of digital lines and combine them so they can "read" an analogue value. An analogue value is any value **between** 0 and 1. You can also call it a "fractional value." All the above quantities must now be converted to a value between 0 and 1 so they can be fed into a computer.

This is the broad concept. It becomes a little more complex in application.

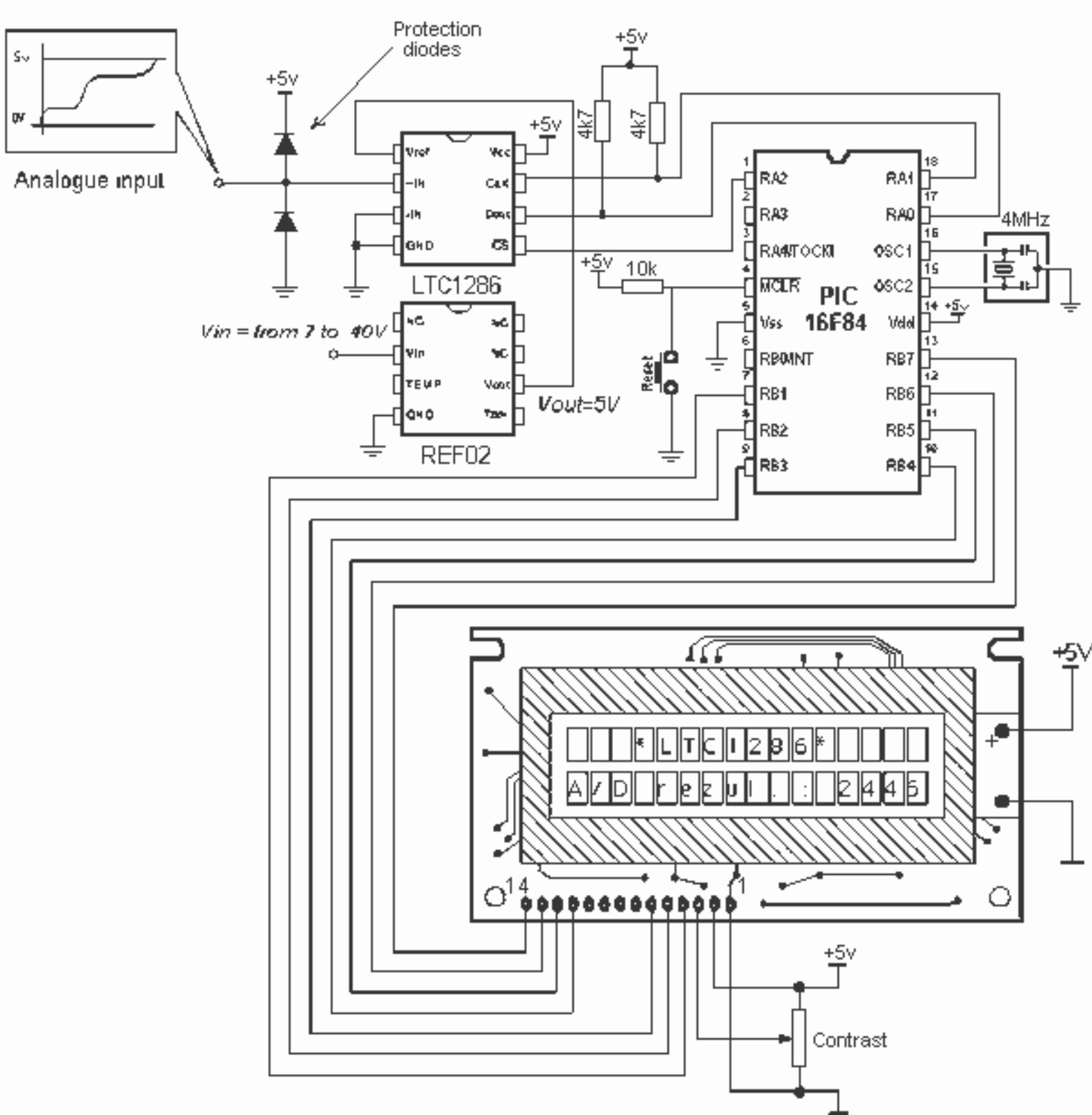
If we take 8 lines and arrange them so they accept binary values, the total count will be 256 (this is obtained by a count to 255 plus the value 0).

If we connect these 8 lines into a "black box," they will be called output lines and so we must provide a single input line. With this arrangement we can detect up to 255 increments between zero and "1." This black box is called a CONVERTER and since we are converting from **Analogue** to **Digital**, the converter is called an **A-to-D converter** or **AD CONVERTER**.

AD converters can be classified according to different parameters. The most important parameters are **precision** and **mode of transferring data**. As to precision, the range is: 8-bit, 10-bit, 12-bit, 14-bit, 16-bit. Since 12-bit conversion is an industrial standard, the example we have provided below was done with a 12-bit AD converter. The other important parameter is the way data is transferred to a microcontroller. It can be parallel or serial. Parallel transmission is faster. However, these converters are usually more expensive. Serial transmission is slower, but in terms of cost and fewer input lines to a microcontroller, it is the favourite for many applications. Analogue signals can sometimes go above the allowed input limit of an AD converter. This may damage the converter. To protect the input, two diodes are connected as shown in the diagram. This will protect from voltages above 5v and below 0v.

In our example we used a LTC1286 12-bit AD converter (Linear Technology). The converter is connected to the microcontroller via three lines: data, clock and CS (Chip Select). The CS line is used to select an input device as it is possible to connect other input devices (eg: input shift register, output shift register, serial AD converter) to the microcontroller and have them use the same data lines.

The circuit below shows how to connect an AD converter, reference and LCD display to a micro. The LCD display has been added to show the result of the AD conversion.



Connecting an AD converter with voltage reference to a microcontroller

The Macro used in this example is LTC86 and is found in LTC1286.inc file.



Macro: LTC1286.INC

```

LTC86 macro Var_LO, Var_HI, Var

    Local Loop
    Local Loop1

    clrfsz Var_LO
    clrfsz Var_HI
    movlw .4
    movwf Var
    bcf CS
    call CLK
    call CLK
    call CLK

Loop   rlf    Var_HI,f
       btfss Data
       bcf    Var_HI,0
       btfsc Data
       bsf    Var_HI,0
       call  CLK
       decfsz Var,f
       goto  Loop
       movlw .8
       movwf Var
Loop1  rlf    Var_LO,f
       btfss Data
       bcf    Var_LO,0
       btfsc Data
       bsf    Var_LO,0
       call  CLK
       decfsz Var,f
       goto  Loop1
       bsf    CS
       endm

CLK    bsf    Clock
       nop
       nop
       nop
       bcf    Clock
       RETURN

```

The LTC86 Macro has three arguments:

LTC86 macro Var_LO, Var_HI, Var

Var_LO variable is where the result of **lower byte conversion** is stored

Var_HI variable is where the result of **higher byte conversion** is stored

Var loop counter

Example: LTC86 LO, HI, Count

The four bits of the highest value are in variable **HI**, and first eight bits of conversion result are in variable **LO**. **Count** is an assistant variable to count the passes through loops.

The following example shows how macros are used in the program. The program reads the value from an AD converter and displays it on the LCD display. The result is given in quantum's. Eg: for 0V the result is 0, and for 5V it is 4095.



Program: LTC1286.INC

```

;*****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"

__CONFIG __CP_OFF & __WDT_OFF & __PWRTE_ON & __XT_OSC

;*****

Cblock 0x0C
LCDbuf
LCDtemp
WCYCLE
PRESCwait
TEMP1
TEMP2
TEMP3
LO
HI
LO_TEMP
HI_TEMP
Bcheck
Count
Pointer
endc

;*****

#define Data PORTA,0
#define Clock PORTA,1
#define CS PORTA,2
LCDtris equ TRISB
LCDport equ PORTB

;*****

ORG 0x00
goto Main
ORG 0x04

```

```

goto    main
ORG     0x04
goto    Main

```

```

Messages movwf PCL
Message0 dt "* LTC1286 *"
Message1 dt "A/D rezul.:"
Kraj

```

```

#include "bank.inc"
#include "ltc1286.inc"
#include "wait.inc"
#include "lcd.inc"
#include "lcdvl6.inc"
#include "print.inc"

```

```

Main

```

```

BANK1
movlw   0xf1
movwf   TRISA
BANK0
LO_TEMP
HI_TEMP
Bcheck
Count
Pointer
endc

```

```

;*****

```

```

#define Data PORTA,0
#define Clock PORTA,1
#define CS PORTA,2
LCDtris equ TRISB
LCDport equ PORTB

```

```

;*****

```

```

ORG     0x00
goto    Main
ORG     0x04
goto    Main

```

```

Messages movwf PCL
Message0 dt "* LTC1286 *"
Message1 dt "A/D rezul.:"
Kraj

```

```

#include "bank.inc"
#include "ltc1286.inc"
#include "wait.inc"
#include "lcd.inc"
#include "lcdvl6.inc"
#include "print.inc"

```

```

Main

```

```

BANK1
movlw   0xf1
movwf   TRISA

```

```
    movlw    0xf1
    movwf    TRISA
    BANK0

    LCDinit

    clrf    PORTA
    LCD_DDAdr .3
    PRINT Messages, Message0, Message1, Pointer, LCDw

Loop LTC86 L0, HI, Count

    call    Out
    goto    Loop

Out

    LCDline 2

    PRINT Messages, Message1, EndMsg, Pointer, LCDw
    LCDval_16
    return

End
```

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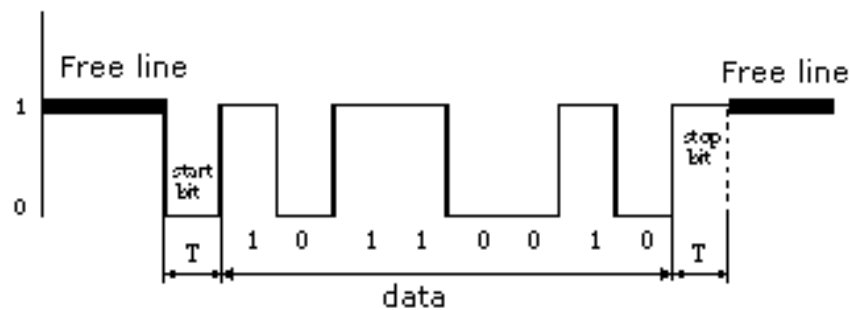
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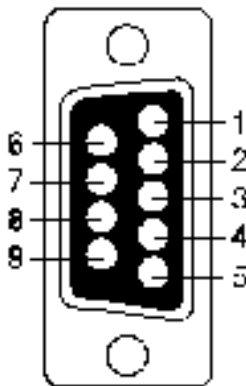
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Serial Communication

SCI is short for Serial Communication Interface and, as a special subsystem, it exists on most microcontrollers. When it is not available, as is the case with PIC16F84, it can be created in software.



As with hardware communication, we use standard NRZ (Non Return to Zero) format also known as 8 (9)-N-1, or 8 or 9 data bits, without a pair bit and with one stop bit. **Free line** is defined as the status of **logic one**. Start of transmission - **Start Bit**, has the status of **logic zero**. The data bits follow the start bit (the first bit is the bit of the lowest value), and after the bits we place the **Stop Bit** of **logic one**. The duration of the stop bit 'T' depends on the speed of transmission and is adjusted according to the needs of the transmission. For the transmission speed of 9600 baud, T is 104 μ S.



1. CD (Carrier Detect)
2. RXD (Receive Data)
3. TXD (Transmit Data)
4. DTR (Data terminal Ready)
5. GND (Ground)
6. DSR (Data Set Ready)
7. RTS (Request To Send)
8. CTS (Clear To Send)
9. RI (Ring Indicator)

Pin designations on RS232 connector


```

;*****

#define RXport PORTB,0
#define RXtris TRISB,0

;*****

CONSTANT LF = d'10'
CONSTANT CR = d'13'
CONSTANT TAB = d'9'
CONSTANT BS = d'8'

;***** Macros *****

RS232init macro
    call RS_init
endm

SEND macro S_string
    movlw S_string
    call SENDsub
endm

SENDw macro
    call SENDsub
endm

RECEIVE macro
    call RECSUB
endm

;***** Subprograms *****

RS_init bcf TXport
        BANK1
        clrf OPTION_REG
        bcf TXtris
        bsf RXtris
        BANK0
        bsf TXport
        movlw b'10010000'
        movwf INTCON
        RETURN

SENDsub movwf TXD
        bcf TXport
        movlw 0x08
        movwf RS_TEMP1
        call S_Wait
SENDa  btfsc TXD,0
        goto SENDb
        bcf TXport
        goto SENDc
SENDb  bsf TXport
SENDc  rrf TXD,1

```

```
SENDb bsf    TXport
SENDc rrf    TXD,1
      call   S_Wait
      decfsz RS_TEMP1,1
      goto   SENDa
      goto   SENDd
SENDd bsf    TXport
      call   S_Wait
      call   S_Wait
      RETURN

S_Wait movlw 0x1E
      movwf RS_TEMP2
      goto  X_Wait

Rs_Wait movlw 0x0C
      movwf RS_TEMP2
      goto  X_Wait

R_Wait movlw 0x1D
      movwf RS_TEMP2
      goto  X_Wait

X_Wait decfsz RS_TEMP2,1
      goto  X_Wait
      RETURN

RECSub call   Rs_Wait
      btfsc  RXport
      goto  REENTRY
      movlw 0x08
      movwf RS_TEMP1
      goto  RECa
RECa  call   R_Wait
      btfss  RXport
      goto  RECb
      bsf    RXD,0x07
      goto  RECc
RECb  bcf    RXD,0x07

RECC  decfsz RS_TEMP1,0
      rrf    RXD,1
      decfsz RS_TEMP1,1
      goto  RECa
      call   R_Wait
      btfss  RXport
      clrf  RXD
      RETURN

REENTRY clrf  RXD
      goto  ISRend
```

Using the macro:

RS232init Macro for initializing RBO pin and line for transmitting data (TX-pin).

Example: RS232init

SEND S_string Sending ASCII character. Argument is ASCII sign.

Example: SEND 'g'

SENDw Sending data found in W register.

Example: movlw 't'

SENDw

RECEIVE macro in interrupt routine receives data for RS232 and stores it in RXD register

Example:

```

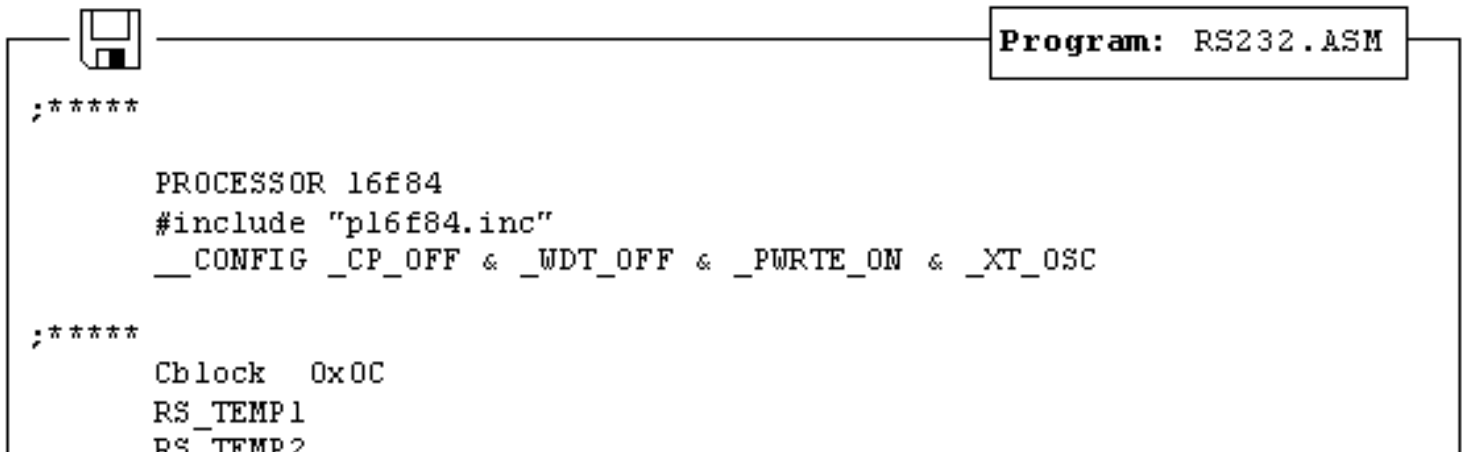
ORG    0x04
        goto    ISR
ISR     bcf     INTCON,GIE
        btfsc  INTCON,GIE
        goto    ISR
        RECEIVE
        :
        :
ISRend  bcf     INTCON,INTF
        RETFIE

```

At the beginning of the main program, we need to declare variables RS_TEMP1, RE_TEMP2, TXD, RXD and TX pin on microcontroller. After resetting a microcontroller the program sends a greeting message to PC computer: **\$ PIV16F84** on line \$, and is ready to receive data from RX line.

We can send and receive data from PC computer from some communication program. When microcontroller receives data, it will send a message: Primljen karakter od PIC16F84: x (Character received from PIC16F84: x), thus confirming that reception was successful.

Main program:



```

;*****

PROCESSOR 16f84
#include "p16f84.inc"
__CONFIG _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _PWRTE_ON & _XT_OSC

;*****
Cblock 0x0C
RS_TEMP1
RE_TEMP2

```

```

    RS_TEMP1
    RS_TEMP2
    TXD
    RXD
    Pointer
endc

Messages movwf PCL

Message0 dt "Received character from PIC16F84"
Message1 dt "$ PIC16F84 connected $"
Kraj

    #include "bank.inc"
    #include "rs232.inc"
    #include "print.inc"

; *****

ISR    bcf    INTCON,GIE
      btfsc  INTCON,GIE
      goto  ISR

      RECEIVE

      SEND TAB

      PRINT Messages, Message0, Message1, Pointer, SENDw

      movfw  RXD
      SENDw

      SEND  CR
      SEND  LF
      SEND  LF

ISRend bcf INTCON,INTF
      RETFIE

Main
      RS232init

      PRINT Messages, Message1, EndMsg , Pointer, SENDw
      SEND  CR
      SEND  LF
      SEND  LF

Loop  goto  Loop

      End

```

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Appendix A

Instruction Set

Introduction

Appendix contains all instructions presented separately with examples for their use. Syntax, description and its effects on status bits are given for each instruction.

- [A.1 MOVLW](#)
- [A.2 MOVWF](#)
- [A.3 MOVF](#)
- [A.4 CLRW](#)
- [A.5 CLRF](#)
- [A.6 SWAPF](#)
- [A.7 ADDLW](#)
- [A.8 ADDWF](#)
- [A.9 SUBLW](#)
- [A.10 SUBWF](#)
- [A.11 ANDLW](#)
- [A.12 ANDWF](#)
- [A.13 IORLW](#)
- [A.14 IORWF](#)
- [A.15 XORLW](#)
- [A.16 XORWF](#)
- [A.17 INCF](#)
- [A.18 DECF](#)
- [A.19 RLF](#)
- [A.20 RRF](#)
- [A.21 COMF](#)
- [A.22 BCF](#)
- [A.23 BSF](#)
- [A.24 BTFSC](#)

- [A.25 BTFSS](#)
- [A.26 INCFSZ](#)
- [A.27 DECFSZ](#)
- [A.28 GOTO](#)
- [A.29 CALL](#)
- [A.30 RETURN](#)
- [A.31 RETLW](#)
- [A.32 RETFIE](#)
- [A.33 NOP](#)
- [A.34 CLRWDT](#)
- [A.35 SLEEP](#)

A.1 Write constant in W register

Syntax: `[label] MOVLW k`
Description: 8-bit constant **k** is written in **W** register.
Operation: $k \Rightarrow (W)$
Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `MOVLW 0x5A`

After instruction: `W=0x5A`

Example 2 `MOVLW REGISTAR`

Before instruction: `W=0x10` and `REGISTAR=0x40`

After instruction: `W=0x40`

A.2 Copy W to f

Syntax: `[label] MOVWF f`
Description: Contents of **W** register is copied to **f** register.
Operation: $W \Rightarrow (f)$
Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `MOVWF OPTION_REG`

Before instruction: `OPTION_REG=0x20`
`W=0x40`
 After instruction: `OPTION_REG=0x40`
`W=0x40`

Example 2 `MOVWF INDF`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
`address contents 0xC2=0x00`
 After instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
`address contents 0xC2=0x17`

A.3 Copy f to d

Syntax: `[label] MOVF f, d`

Description: Contents of **f** register is stored in location determined by **d** operand.
 If **d=0**, destination is **W** register.
 If **d=1**, destination is **f** register itself.
 Option **d=1** is used for testing the contents of **f** register because execution of this instruction affects Z flag in STATUS register.

Operation: $f \Rightarrow (d)$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `MOVF FSR, 0`

Before instruction: `FSR=0xC2`
`W=0x00`

After instruction: `W=0xC2`
`Z=0`

Example 2 `MOVF INDF, 0`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents `0xC2=0x00`

After instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents `0xC2=0x00`
`Z=1`

A.4 Write 0 in W

Syntax: `[label] CLRW`
Description: Contents of **W** register evens out to zero, and Z flag in STATUS register is set to one.
Operation: $0 \Rightarrow (W)$
Operand: -
Flag: Z
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example CLRW

Before instruction: `W=0x55`
 After instruction: `W=0x00`
`Z=1`

A.5 Write 0 in f

Syntax: `[label] CRLF f`
Description: Contents of 'f' register evens out to zero, and Z flag in status register is set to one.
Operation: $0 \Rightarrow f$
Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
Flag: Z
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 CRLF STATUS

Before instruction: `STATUS=0xC2`
 After instruction: `STATUS=0x00`
`Z=1`

Example 2 CLRF INDF

Before instruction: `FSR=0xC2`
`address contents 0xC2=0x33`
 After instruction: `FSR=0xC2`
`address contents 0xC2=0x00`
`Z=1`

A.6 Copy the nibbles from f to d crosswise

Syntax: `[label] SWAPF f, d`
Description: Upper and lower half of **f** register exchange places.
 If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
 If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $f\langle 0:3\rangle \Rightarrow d\langle 4:7\rangle, f\langle 4:7\rangle \Rightarrow d\langle 0:3\rangle;$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$

$d \in [0,1]$

Flag: -

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `SWAP REG, 0`

Before instruction: `REG=0xF3`

After instruction: `REG=0xF3`

`W=0x3F`

Example 2 `SWAP REG, 1`

Before instruction: `REG=0xF3`

After instruction: `REG=0x3F`

A.7 Add W to a constant

Syntax: `[label] ADDLW k`

Description: Contents of **W** register is added to 8-bit constant **k** and result is stored in **W** register.

Operation: $(W) + k \Rightarrow W$

Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$

Flag: C, DC, Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `ADDLW 0x15`

Before instruction: `W=0x10`

After instruction: `W=0x25`

Example 2 `ADDLW REG`

Before instruction: `W=0x10`

register contents `REG=0x37`

After instruction: `W=0x47`

A.8 Add W to f

Syntax:	<code>[label] ADDWF f, d</code>
Description:	Add contents of register W to register f . If d=0 , result is stored in W register. If d=1 , result is stored in f register.
Operation:	$(W) + (f) \Rightarrow d$ $d \in [0, 1]$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$
Flag:	C, DC, Z
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1

Example 1 `ADDWF FSR, 0`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 After instruction: `W=0xD9`
`FSR=0xC2`

Example 2 `ADDLW INDF, 1`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC0`
`address contents 0xC2=0x20`
 After instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
`address contents 0xC2=0x37`

A.9 Subtract W from a constant

Syntax: `[label] SUBLW k`
Description: Contents of **W** register is subtracted from **k** constant, and result is stored in **W** register.
Operation: $k - (W) \Rightarrow W$
Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$
Flag: C, DC, Z
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `SUBLW 0x03`

Before instruction:	W=0x01, C=x, Z=x	
After instruction:	W=0x02, C=1, Z=0	Result > 0
Before instruction:	W=0x03, C=x, Z=x	
After instruction:	W=0x00, C=1, Z=1	Result = 0
Before instruction:	W=0x04, C=x, Z=x	
After instruction:	W=0xFF, C=0, Z=0	Result < 0

Example 2 `SUBLW REG`

Before instruction:	W=0x10	
	contents REG=0x37	
After instruction:	W=0x27	
	C=1	Result > 0

A.10 Subtract W from f

Syntax:	<code>[label] SUBWF f, d</code>
Description:	Contents of W register is subtracted from the contents of f register. If d=0 , result is stored in W register. If d=1 , result is stored in f register.
Operation:	$(f) - (W) \Rightarrow d$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $d \in [0,1]$
Flag:	C, DC, Z
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1

Example 1 SUBWF REG, 1

Before instruction:	REG=3, W=2, C=x, Z=x	
After instruction:	REG=1, W=2, C=1, Z=0	Result > 0
Before instruction:	REG=2, W=2, C=x, Z=x	
After instruction:	REG=0, W=2, C=1, Z=1	Result = 0
Before instruction:	REG=1, W=2, C=x, Z=x	
After instuction:	REG=0xFF, W=2, C=0, Z=0	Result < 0

A.11 Logic AND W with constant

Syntax: `[label] ANDLW k`

Description: Performs operation logic AND over the contents of **W** register and constant **k**.
Result is stored in **W** register.

Operation: $(W) .AND. k \Rightarrow W$

Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `ANDLW 0x5F`

Before instruction:	W=0xA3		; 0101 1111 (0x5F)
After instruction:	W=0x03		; 1010 0011 (0xA3)

			; 0000 0011 (0x03)

Example 2 `ANDLW REG`

Before instruction:	W=0xA3		; 1010 0011 (0xA3)
	REG=0x37		; 0011 0111 (0x37)
After instruction:	W=0x23		-----
			; 0010 0011 (0x23)

A.12 Logic AND W with f

Syntax: `[label] ANDWF f, d`

Description: Performs operation of logic AND over the contents of **W** and **f** registers.
 If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
 If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $(W) \text{ .AND. } f \Rightarrow d$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `ANDWF FSR, 1`

Before instruction:	W=0x17, FSR=0xC2	; 0001 0111 (0x17)
After instruction:	W=0x17, FSR=02	; 1100 0010 (0xC2)

		; 0000 0010 (0x02)

Example 2 `ANDWF FSR, 0`

Before instruction:	W=0x17, FSR=0xC2	; 0001 0111 (0x17)
After instruction:	W=0x02, FSR=0xC2	; 1100 0010 (0xC2)

		; 0000 0010 (0x02)

A.13 Logic OR W with constant

Syntax:	<code>[label] IORLW k</code>
Description:	Operation logic OR is performed over the contents of W register and over 8-bit constant k , and result is stored in W register.
Operation:	$(W) .OR. (k) \Rightarrow W$
Operand:	$0 \leq k \leq 255$
Flag:	Z
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1

Example 1 `IORLW 0x35`

Before instruction: `W=0x9A`
 After instruction: `W=0xBF`
`Z=0`

Example 2 `IORLW REG`

Before instruction: `W=0x9A`
`content REG=0x37`
 After instruction: `W=0x9F`
`Z=0`

A.14 Logic IIR W with f

Syntax: `[label] IORWF f, d`

Description: Operation logic OR is performed over the contents of **W** and **f** registers.
If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $(W) .OR. (f) \Rightarrow d$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$

$d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `IORWF REG, 0`

Before instruction: REG=0x13, W=0x91

After instruction: REG=0x13, W=0x93

Z=0

Example 2 `IORWF REG, 1`

Before instruction: REG=0x13, W=0x91

After instruction: REG=0x93, W=0x91

Z=0

A.15 Logic exclusive OR W with constant

Syntax: `[label] XORLW k`

Description: Operation exclusive OR (XOR) is done over the contents of **W** register and constant **k**, and result is stored in **W** register.

Operation: $(W) \text{ .XOR. } k \Rightarrow W$

Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `XORLW 0xAF`

Before instruction:	W=0xB5		; 1010 1111 (0xAF)
After instruction:	W=0x1A		; 1011 0101 (0xB5)

			; 0001 1010 (0x1A)

Example 2 `XORLW REG`

Before instruction:	W=0xAF		; 1010 1111 (0xA3)
	REG=0x37		; 0011 0111 (0x37)
After instruction:	W=0x18		-----
	Z=0		; 0001 1000 (0x18)

A.16 Logic exclusive OR W with f

Syntax: `[label] XORWF f, d`

Description: Operation exclusive OR is performed over the contents of **W** and **f** registers.
 If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
 If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $(W) .XOR. (f) \Rightarrow d$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 XORWF REG, 1

Before instruction:	REG=0xAF, W=0xB5	; 1010 1111 (0xAF)
After instruction:	REG=0x1A, W=0xB5	; 1011 0101 (0xB5)

		; 0001 1010 (0x1A)

Example 2 XORWF REG, 0

Before instruction:	REG=0xAF, W=0xB5	; 1010 1111 (0xAF)
After instruction:	REG=0xAF, W=0x1A	; 1011 0101 (0xB5)

		; 0001 1010 (0x1A)

A.17 Increment f

Syntax: `[label] INCF f, d`

Description: Increments **f** register by one.
 If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
 If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $(f) + 1 \Rightarrow d$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `INCF REG, 1`

Before instruction: `REG=0xFF`
`Z=0`

After instruction: `REG=0x00`
`Z=1`

Example 2 `INCF REG, 0`

Before instruction: `REG=0x10`
`W=x`
`Z=0`

After instruction: `REG=0x10`
`W=0x11`
`Z=0`

A.18 Decrement **f**

Syntax: `[label] DECF f, d`

Description: Decrements `f` register by one.
 If `d=0`, result is stored in `W` register.
 If `d=1`, result is stored in `f` register.

Operation: $(f) - 1 \Rightarrow d$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: Z

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 DECF REG, 1

Before instruction: REG=0x01
 Z=0

After instruction: REG=0x00
 Z=1

Example 2 DECF REG, 0

Before instruction: REG=0x13
 W=x
 Z=0

After instruction: REG=0x13
 W=0x12
 Z=0

A.19 Rotate f to the left through CARRY

Syntax: `[label] RLF f, d`

Description: Contents of **f** register is rotated by one space to the left through C (Carry) flag.
 If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.
 If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

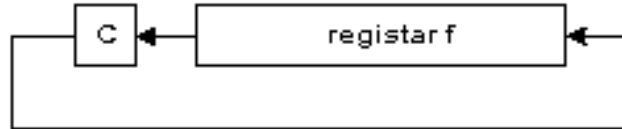
Operation: $(f\langle n \rangle) \Rightarrow d\langle n+1 \rangle, f\langle 7 \rangle \Rightarrow C, C \Rightarrow d\langle 0 \rangle;$

Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $d \in [0,1]$

Flag: C

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1



Example 1 `RLF REG, 0`

Before instruction: REG=1110 0110
 C=0

After instruction: REG=1110 0110
 W=1100 1100
 C=1

Example 2 `RLF REG, 1`

Before instruction: REG=1110 0110
 C=0

After instruction: REG=1100 1100
 C=1

A.20 Rotate f to the right through CARRY

Syntax: `[label] RRF f, d`

Description: Contents of **f** register is rotated by one space to the right through **C** (Carry) flag.

If **d=0**, result is stored in **W** register.

If **d=1**, result is stored in **f** register.

Operation: $(f\langle n \rangle) \Rightarrow d\langle n-1 \rangle, f\langle 0 \rangle \Rightarrow C, C \Rightarrow d\langle 7 \rangle;$

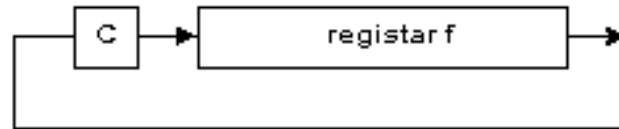
Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$

$d \in [0, 1]$

Flag: C

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1



Example 1 `RRF REG, 0`

Before instruction: `REG=1110 0110`

`W=X`

`C=0`

After instruction: `REG=1110 0110`

`W=0111 0011`

`C=0`

Example 2 `RRF REG, 1`

Before instruction: `REG=1110 0110`

`C=0`

After instruction: `REG=0111 0011`

`C=0`

A.21 Complement f

Syntax:	<code>[label] COMF f, d</code>
Description:	Contents of f register is complemented. If d=0 , result is stored in W register. If d=1 , result is stored in f register.
Operation:	$\overline{(f)} \Rightarrow d$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $d \in [0,1]$
Flag:	Z
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1

Example 1 `COMF REG, 0`

Before instruction:	REG=0x13		; 0001 0011 (0x13)
After instruction:	REG=0x13		; complement
	W=0xEC		-----
			; 1110 1100 (0xEC)

Example 2 `COMF INDF, 1`

Before instruction:	FSR=0xC2	
	address contents (FSR)=0xAA	
After instruction:	FSR=0xC2	
	address contents (FSR)=0x55	

A.22 Reset bit b in f

Syntax: `[label] BCF f, b`
Description: Reset bit **b** in **f** register.
Operation: $(0) \Rightarrow f\langle b \rangle$
Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $0 \leq b \leq 7$
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `BCF REG, 7`

Before instruction: `REG=0xC7` ; 1100 0111 (0xC7)
 After instruction: `REG=0x47` ; 0100 0111 (0x47)

Example 2 `BCF INDF, 3`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents (FSR)=0x2F
 After instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents (FSR)=0x27

A.23 Set bit b in f

Syntax: `[label] BSF f, b`
Description: Set bit **b** in **f** register.
Operation: $1 \Rightarrow f\langle b \rangle$
Operand: $0 \leq f \leq 127$
 $0 \leq b \leq 7$
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example 1 `BSF REG, 7`

Before instruction: `REG=0x07` ; 0000 0111 (0x07)
 After instruction: `REG=0x17` ; 1000 0111 (0x17)

Example 2 `BCF INDF, 3`

Before instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents (FSR)=0x20
 After instruction: `W=0x17`
`FSR=0xC2`
 address contents (FSR)=0x28

A.24 Test bit b in f, skip if it = 0

Syntax:	<code>[label] BTFSC f, b</code>
Description:	If bit b in f register equals zero, then we skip the next instruction. If bit b equals zero, during execution of the current instruction, execution of the next one is disabled, and NOP instruction executes instead thus making the current one a two-cycle instruction.
Operation:	Skip next instruction if $(f\langle b \rangle) = 0$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $0 \leq b \leq 7$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1 or 2 depending on a b bit

Example

```
LAB_01      BTFSC  REG,1      ;Test bit no.1 in REG
LAB_02      . . . . .      ;Skip this line if =0
LAB_03      . . . . .      ;Skip here if =1
```

Before instruction, program counter was at address LAB_01.

After instruction, if the first bit in REG register was zero, program counter points to address LAB_03.

If the first bit in REG register was one, program counter points to address LAB_02.

A.25 Test bit b in f, skip if = 1

Syntax:	<code>[label] BTFSS f, b</code>
Description:	If bit b in f register equals one, then skip over the next instruction. If bit b equals one, during execution of the current instruction, the next one is disabled, and NOP instruction is executed instead, thus making the current one a two-cycle instruction.
Operation:	Skip next instruction if $(f \langle b \rangle) = 1$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $0 \leq b \leq 7$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1 or 2 depending on a b bit

Example

```
LAB_01      BTFSS REG,1      ;Test bit no.1 in REG
LAB_02      .....          ;Skip this line if =1
LAB_03      .....          ;Skip here if =0
```

Before instruction, program counter was at address LAB_01

After instruction, if the first bit in REG register was one, program counter points to address LAB_03.

If the first bit in REG register was zero, program counter points to address LAB_02.

A.26 Increment f, skip if=0

Syntax:	<code>[label] INCFSZ f, d</code>
Description:	Contents of f register is incremented by one. If d=0 , result is stored in W register. If d=1 , result is stored in f register. If result =0, the next instruction is executed as NOP making the current one a two-cycle instruction.
Operation:	$(f) + 1 \Rightarrow d$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $d \in [0,1]$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1 or 2 depending on a result

Example

```

LAB_01      INCFSZ  REG, 1           ; Increase the contents REG by one.
LAB_02      .....                 ; Skip this line if =0
LAB_03      .....                 ; Skip here if =0

```

The contents of program counter before instruction, PC=address LAB_01

The contents of REG register after executing an instruction $REG=REG+1$, if $REG=0$, program counter points to label address LAB_03. Otherwise, program counter points to address of the next instruction or to LAB_02.

A.27 Decrement f, skip if = 0

Syntax:	<code>[label] DECFSZ f, d</code>
Description:	Contents of f register is decremented by one. If d=0 , result is stored in W register. If d=1 , result is stored in f register. If result = 0, next instruction is executed as NOP, thus making the current one, a two-cycle instruction.
Operation:	$(f) - 1 \Rightarrow d$
Operand:	$0 \leq f \leq 127$ $d \in [0,1]$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	1 or 2 depending on a result

Example

```
LAB_01      DECFSZ  CNT, 1          ; Decrement the contents REG by one.
LAB_02      .....                ; Skip this line if = 0
LAB_03      .....                ; Skip here if = 1
```

The contents of program counter before instruction, PC=address LAB_01

The contents of CNT register after executing an instruction CNT=CNT-1, if CNT=0, program counter points to address of label LAB_03. Otherwise, program counter points to address of the following instruction, or to LAB_02.

A.28 Jump to address

Syntax:	<code>[label] GOTO k</code>
Description:	Unconditional jump to address k .
Operation:	$k \Rightarrow PC\langle 10:0 \rangle, (PCLATH\langle 4:3 \rangle) \Rightarrow PC\langle 12:11 \rangle$
Operand:	$0 \leq k \leq 2048$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	2

Example

```
LAB_00      GOTO LAB_01          ; Jump to LAB_01
            :
            :
LAB_01      .....
```

Before instruction: PC=address LAB_00

After instruction: PC=address LAB_01

A.29 Call a program

Syntax:	<code>[label] CALL k</code>
Description:	Instruction calls a subprogram. First, return address (PC+1) is stored on stack, then 11-bit direct operand k , which contains the subprogram address, is stored in program counter.
Operation:	$(PC) + 1 \Rightarrow \text{Top Of Stack (TOS)}$ $k \Rightarrow PC\langle 10:0 \rangle, (PCLATH\langle 4:3 \rangle) \Rightarrow PC\langle 12:11 \rangle$
Operand:	$0 \leq k \leq 2048$
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	2

Example

```
LAB_01      CALL LAB_02          ; Call subroutine LAB_02
            :
            :
LAB_02      . . . . .
```

```
Before instruction:  PC=address LAB_01
                   TOS=x
After instruction:  PC=address LAB_02
                   TOS=LAB_01
```

A.30 Return from a subprogram

Syntax:	<code>[label] RETURN</code>
Description:	Contents from the top of a stack is stored in program counter.
Operation:	$TOS \Rightarrow \text{program counter PC}$
Operand:	-
Flag:	-
Number of words:	1
Number of cycles:	2

Example RETURN

```
Before instruction:  PC=x
                   TOS=x
After instruction:  PC=TOS
                   TOS=TOS-1
```

A.31 Return from a subprogram with constant in W

Syntax: `[label] RETLW k`
Description: 8-bit constant **k** is stored in **W** register. Value off the top of a stack is stored in program counter.
Operation: $(k) \Rightarrow W$; $TOS \Rightarrow PC$
Operand: $0 \leq k \leq 255$
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 2

Example `RETLW 0x43`

Before instruction: $W = X$
 $PC = X$
 $TOS = X$
 After instruction: $W = 0x43$
 $PC = TOS$
 $TOS = TOS - 1$

A.32 Return from interrupt routine

Syntax: `[label] RETFIE`
Description: Return from a subprogram. Value from TOS is stored in program counter PC. Interrupts are enabled by setting a GIE (Global interrupt Enable) bit.
Operation: $TOS \Rightarrow PC$; $1 \Rightarrow GIE$
Operand: -
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 2

Example `RETFIE`

Before instruction: $PC = X$
 $GIE = 0$
 After instruction: $PC = TOS$

A.33 No operation

Syntax: $[label]$ NOP
Description: Does not execute any operation or affect any flag.
Operation: -
Operand: -
Flag: -
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example NOP

Before instruction: PC=X
 After instruction: PC=X+1

A.34 Initialize watchdog timer

Syntax: $[label]$ CLRWDT
Description: Watchdog timer is reset. Prescaler of the Watchdog timer is also reset, and status bits \overline{TO} and \overline{PD} are set also.
Operation:
 0 \Rightarrow WDT
 0 \Rightarrow WDT prescaler
 1 \Rightarrow \overline{TO}
 1 \Rightarrow \overline{PD}
Operand: -
Flag: \overline{TO} , \overline{PD}
Number of words: 1
Number of cycles: 1

Example CLRWDT

Before instruction: WDT counter=X
 WDT prescaler=1:128
 After instruction: WDT counter=0x00
 WDT prescaler counter=0
 \overline{TO} =1
 \overline{PD} =1
 WDT prescaler=1:128

A.35 Stand by mode

Syntax: *[label]* SLEEP

Description: Processor goes into low consumption mode. Oscillator is stopped. \overline{PD} (Power Down) status bit is reset. \overline{TO} (Timer Out) bit is set. WDT (Watchdog) timer and its prescaler are reset.

Operation:
 0 \Rightarrow WDT
 0 \Rightarrow WDT prescaler
 1 \Rightarrow \overline{TO}
 0 \Rightarrow \overline{PD}

Operand: -

Flag: \overline{TO} , \overline{PD}

Number of words: 1

Number of cycles: 1

Example SLEEP

Before instruction: WDT counter= \times
 WDT prescaler= \times

After instruction: WDT counter= 0×00
 WDT prescaler=0
 $\overline{TO}=1$
 $\overline{PD}=0$

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Decimal numeric system is defined by its basis 10 and decimal space that is counted from right to left, and consists of numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. That means that the end left number of the total sum is multiplied by 1, next one by 10, next by 100, etc.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 4631 \\
 \begin{array}{l}
 | \\
 | \\
 | \\
 | \\
 \hline
 \end{array}
 \begin{array}{l}
 1 * 10^0 = 1 \\
 3 * 10^1 = 30 \\
 6 * 10^2 = 600 \\
 4 * 10^3 = 4000 \\
 \hline
 \text{Result} = 4631
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Operations of addition, subtraction, division, and multiplication in a decimal numeric system are used in a way that is already known to us, so we won't discuss it further.

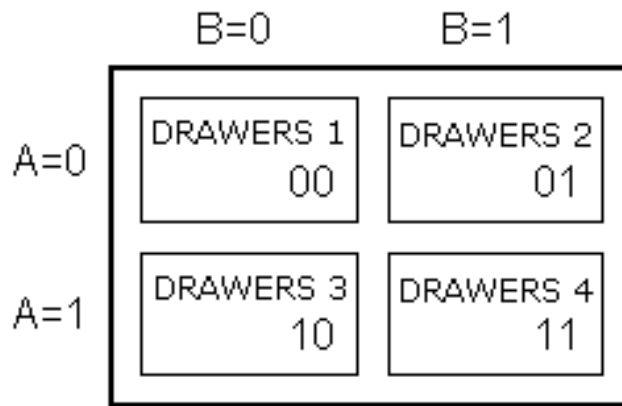
B.2 Binary numeric system

Binary numeric system differs in many aspects from the decimal system we are used to in our everyday lives. Its numeric basis is 2, and each number can have only two values, '1' or '0'. Binary numeric system is used in computers and microcontrollers because it is far more suitable for processing than a decimal system. Usually, binary number consists of binary numbers 8, 16 or 32, and it is not important in view of the contents of our book to discuss why. It will be enough for now to adopt this information.

Example:

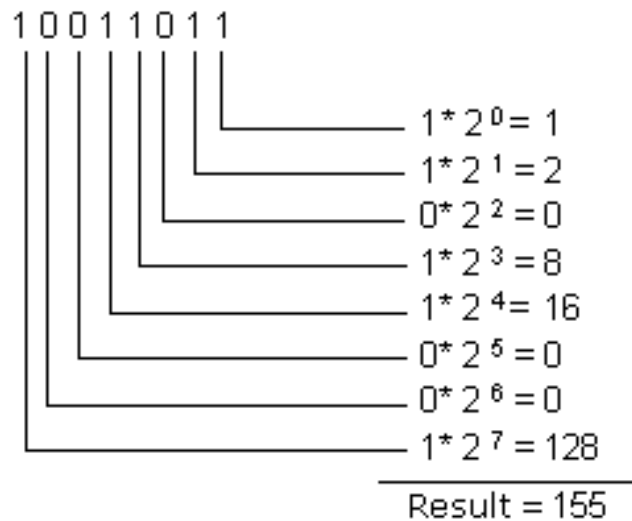
10011011 binary number with 8 digits

In order to understand the logic of binary numbers, we will consider an example. Let's say that we have a small chest with four drawers, and that we need to tell someone to bring something from one of the drawers to us. Nothing is more simple, we will say left side, bottom (drawer), and the desired drawer is clearly defined. However, if we had to do this without the use of instructions like left, right, beneath, above, etc., then we would have a problem. There are many solution to this problem, but we should look for one that is most beneficent and practical! Lets designate rows with A, and types with B. If A=1, it refers to the upper row of drawers, and for A=0, bottom row. Similarly with columns, B=1 represents the left column, and B=0, the right (next picture). Now it is already easier to explain from which drawer we need something. We simply need to state one of the four combinations: 00, 01, 10 or 11. This characteristic naming of each drawer individually is nothing but binary numeric representation, or conversion of common numbers from a decimal into binary form. In other words, references like "first, second, third and fourth" are exchanged with "00,01, 10 and 11".



What remains is for us to get acquainted with logic that is used with binary numeric system, or how to get a numeric value from a series of zeros and ones in a way we can understand, of course. This procedure is called conversion from a binary to a decimal number.

Example:



As you can see, converting a binary number into a decimal number is done by calculating the expression on the left side. Depending on the position in a binary number, digits carry different values which are multiplied by themselves, and by adding them we get a decimal number we can understand. Let's further suppose that there are few marbles in each of the drawers: 2 in the first one, 4 in the second drawer, 7 in the third and 3 in the fourth drawer. Let's also say to the one who's opening the drawers to use binary representation in answer. Under these conditions, question would be as follows: "How many marbles are there in 01?", and the answer would be: "There are 100 marbles in 01." It should be noted that both question and the answer are very clear even though we did not use the standard names. It should further be noted that for decimal numbers from 0 to 3 it is enough to have two binary digits, and that for all values above that we must add new binary digits. So, for numbers from 0 to 7 it is enough to have three digits, for numbers from 0 to 15, four, etc. Simply said, the biggest number that can be represented by a binary digit is the one obtained when basis 2 is graded onto a number of binary digits in a binary number and thus derived number is decremented by one.

Example:

$$2^4 - 1 = 16 - 1 = 15$$

This means that it is possible to represent decimal numbers from 0 to 15 with 4 binary digits, including numbers '0' and '15', or 16 different values.

Operations which exist in decimal numeric system also exist in a binary system. For reasons of clarity and legibility, we will review addition and subtraction only in this chapter.

Basic rules that apply to binary addition are:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ + 0 \\ \hline 1 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 0 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 1 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 0 \\ + 0 \\ \hline 0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 1 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 10 \end{array}$$

Addition is done so that digits in the same numeric positions are added, similar to the decimal numeric system. If both digits being added are zero, their sum remains zero, and if they are '0' and '1', result is '1'. The sum of two ones gives a zero, but with transferring '1' to a higher position that is added to digits from that position.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1010 \text{ First number} \\ - 1001 \text{ Second number} \\ \hline 1001 \text{ Result} \end{array}$$

We can check whether result is correct by transferring these number to decimal numeric system and by performing addition in it. With a transfer we get a value 10 as the first number, value 9 as the second, and value 19 as the sum. Thus we have proven that operation was done correctly. Trouble comes when sum is greater than what can be represented by a binary number with a given number of binary digits. Different solutions can be applied then, one of which is expanding the number of binary digits in the sum as in the previous example.

Subtraction, like addition is done on the same principle. The result of subtraction between two zeros, or two ones remains a zero. When subtracting zero and one, we have to borrow one from binary digit which has a higher value in the binary number.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1010 \text{ First number} \\ - 1001 \text{ Second number} \\ \hline 0001 \text{ Result} \end{array}$$

By checking the result as we did with addition, when we translate these binary numbers we get decimal numbers 10 and 9. Their difference corresponds to number 1 which is what we get in

subtraction.

B.3 Hexadecimal numeric system

Hexadecimal numeric system has a number 16 as its basis. Since the basis of a numeric system is 16, there are 16 different digits that can be found in a hexadecimal number. Those digits are "0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, F". Letters A, B, C, D, E and F are nothing but values 10, 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15. They are introduced as a replacement to make writing easier. As with a binary system, here too, we can determine with same formula what is the biggest decimal number we can represent with a specific number of hexadecimal digits.

Example:

$$16^2 - 1 = 256 - 1 = 255$$

Usually, hexadecimal number is written with a sign "\$" or "0x" before it, to emphasize the numeric system. Thus, number A37E would be written more correctly as \$A37E or 0xA37E. In order to translate a hexadecimal number into a binary numeric system it is not necessary to perform any calculation but simple exchange of hexadecimal digits with binary digits. Since the maximum value of a hexadecimal digit is 15, that means that it is enough to use 4 binary digits for one hexadecimal digit.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r} \$E4 = \underline{1110} \underline{0100} \\ \quad \quad \quad | \quad \quad | \\ \quad \quad \quad E \quad \quad 4 \end{array}$$

By checking, or transferring both numbers into decimal numeric system, we get a number 228 which proves the accuracy of our action.

In order to get a decimal equivalent of a hexadecimal number, we need to multiply each digit of a number with number 16 which is gradated by the position of that digit in hexadecimal number.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r} A37E \\ \begin{array}{l} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{array} \begin{array}{l} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{array} \begin{array}{l} 14 * 16^0 = 14 \\ 7 * 16^1 = 112 \\ 3 * 16^2 = 768 \\ 10 * 16^3 = 40960 \end{array} \\ \hline \text{Result} = 41854 \end{array}$$

Addition is, like in two preceding examples, performed in a similar manner.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \$3A2B \\
 + \$A9C1 \\
 \hline
 \$E3EC
 \end{array}$$

First number
Second number
Result

We need to add corresponding digits of the number; and, if their sum is higher than 16, we need to write number '0' there. The value above 16 should be added to the sum of the next two digits higher in value. By checking, we get 14891 as the first number, and second is 43457. Their sum is 58348, which is a number \$E3EC when it is transferred into a decimal numeric system.

Subtraction is an identical process to previous two numeric systems. If the number we are subtracting from is smaller, we borrow from the next place of higher value.

Example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \$2D46 \\
 + \$1752 \\
 \hline
 \$15F4
 \end{array}$$

First number
Second number
Result

By checking this result, we get values 11590 for the first number and 5970 for the second, where their difference is 5620, which corresponds to a number \$15F4 after a transfer into a decimal numeric system.

Conclusion

Binary numeric system is still the one that is most in use, decimal the one that's easiest to understand, and a hexadecimal is somewhere between those two systems. Its easy conversion to a binary numeric system and easy memorization make it, along with binary and decimal systems, one of the most important numeric systems.

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Appendix C

Glossary

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Introduction

Since all the fields of man's activity are regularly based on adequate and already adopted terms (through which other notions and definitions become), so in the field of microcontrollers we can single out some frequently used terms. Ideas are often connected so that correct understanding of one notion is needed in order to get acquainted with one or more of the other ideas.

Microcontroller

Microprocessor with peripherals in one electronic component.

I/O pin

External microcontroller's connector pin which can be configured as input or output. In most cases I/O pin enables a microcontroller to communicate, control or read information.

Software

Information that microcontroller needs in order to be able to function. Software can not have any errors if we want the program and a device to function properly. Software can be written in different languages such as: Basic, C, pascal or assembler. Physically, that is a file on computer disc.

Hardware

Microcontroller, memory, supply, signal circuits and all components connected with microcontroller.

The other way of viewing this (especially if it's not working) is, that, hardware is something you can kick.

Simulator

Software package for PC which simulates the internal function of microcontroller. It is ideal for checking software routines and all the parts of the code which do not have over demanding connections with an outside world. Options are installed to watch the code, movement around the program back and forth step by step, and debugging.

ICE

ICE (In Circuit Emulator), internal emulator, very useful part of the equipment which connects a PC instead of microcontroller on a device that is being developed. It enables software to function on the PC computer, but to appear as if a real microcontroller exists in the device. ICE enables you to move through program in real time, to see what is going on in the microcontroller and how it communicates with an outside world.

EPROM Emulator

EPROM Emulator is a device which does not emulate the entire microcontroller like ICE emulator, but it only emulates its memory. It is mostly used in microcontrollers that have external memory. By using it we avoid constant erasing and writing of EPROM memory.

Assembler

Software package which translates source code into a code which microcontroller can understand. It contains a section for discovering errors. This part is used when we debug a program from errors made when program was written.

HEX file

This is a file made by assembler translator when translating a source file, and has a form "understood" by microcontrollers. A continuation of the file is usually File_name.HEX where the name HEX file comes from.

List file

This is a file made by assembler translator and it contains all instructions from source file with addresses and comments programmer has written. This is a very useful file for keeping track of errors in the program. File extension is LST which is where its name comes from.

Source File

File written in the language understood by man and assembler translator. By translating the source file, we get HEX and LIST files.

Debugging

Error made in writing a program, which error we are not aware of. Errors can be quite simple such as typing errors, and quite complex such as incorrect use of program language. Assembler will find most of these errors and report them to '.LST' file. Other errors will need to be searched for by trying it out and watching how device functions.

ROM, EPROM, EEPROM, FLASH, RAM

Types of memories we meet with microcontroller use. First one can not be erased, what you write in it once, stays forever, and can not be erased. The second is erasable electrically with supply brought in separately, and voltage above that on which microcontroller is operating. Third one can also be erased electrically, but uses voltage which microcontroller operates on. Fourth one is electrically erasable, but unlike EEPROM memory it does not have such a great number of cycles of writing and erasing at memory locations. Fifth one is fast, but it does not hold back the contents as the previous when there is supply shortage. Thus, program is not stored in it, but it serves for different variables and inter-results.

Addressing

Determines and designates certain memory locations.

ASCII

Short for "American Standard Code for Information Interchange". It is widely accepted type of coding where each number and letter have their eight-bit code.

Carry

Transfer bit connected with arithmetic operations

Code

File, or section of a file which contains program instructions.

Byte, Kilobyte, Megabyte

Terms designating amounts of information. The basic unit is a byte, and it has 8 bits. Kilobyte has 1024 bytes, and mega byte has 1024 kilobytes.

Flag

Bits from a status register. By their activation, programmer is informed about certain actions. Program activates its response if necessary.

Interrupt vector or interrupts

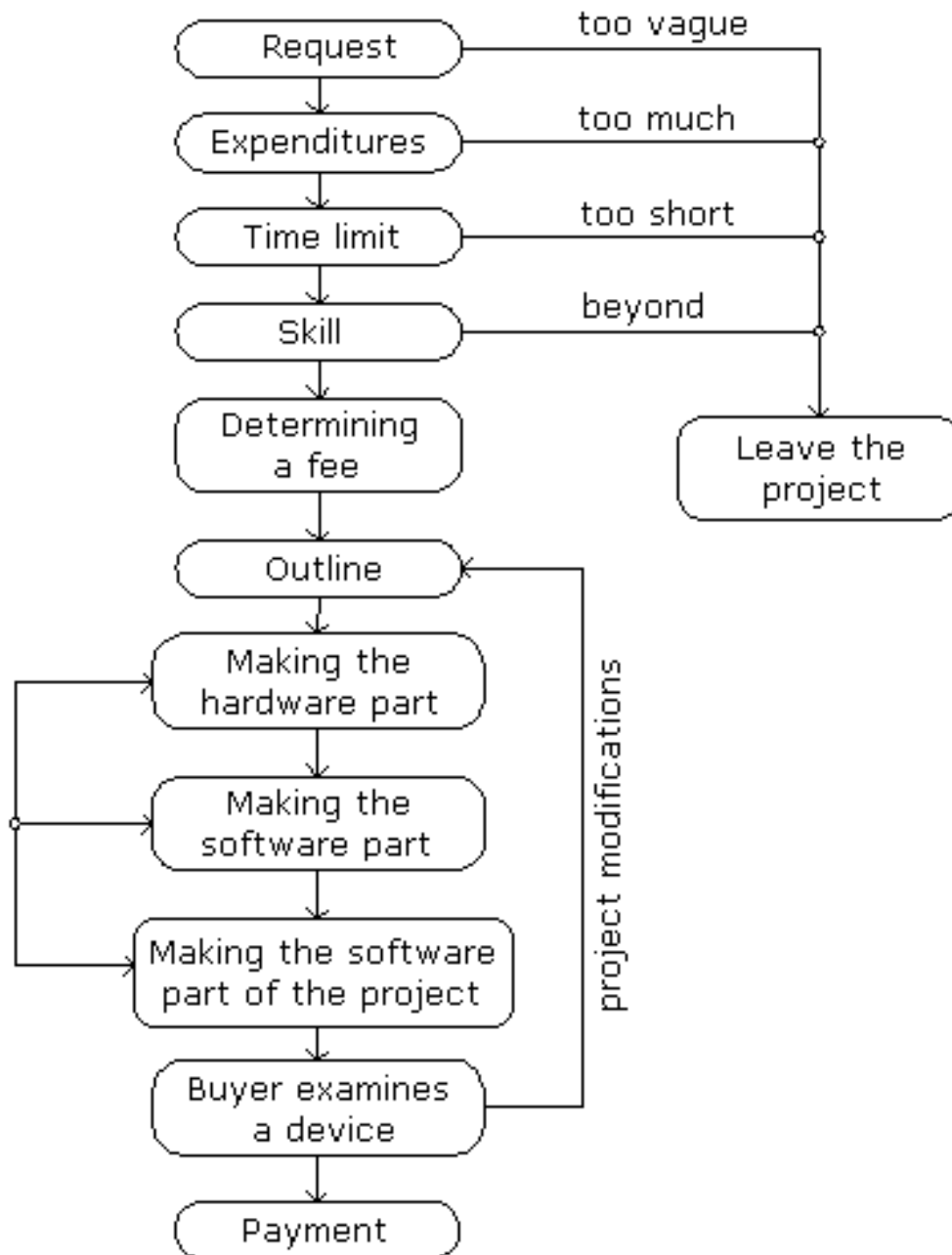
Location in microcontroller memory. Microcontroller takes from this location information about a section of the program that is to be executed as an answer to some event of interest to programmer and device.

Programmer

Device which makes it possible to write software in microcontroller memory, thus enabling the microcontroller to work independently. It consists of the hardware section usually connected with one of the ports and software section used on the computer as a program.

Product

Product development is a combination of luck and experience. Short terms, or time-limits for production should be avoided because even with most simple assignments, much time is needed to develop and improve. When creating a project, we need time, quiet, logical mind and most importantly, a thorough understanding of consumer's needs. Typical course in creating a product would have the following algorithm.



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