

8051

TUTORIAL

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Some reference material:

Test books

- + MacKenzie Scott. The 8051 Microcontroller, Prentice Hall. 3rd. Ed., 1999
- + Yeralan and Ahluwalia. Programming and Interfacing the 8051 Microcontroller. Addison-Wesley. 1995.

U.L. Server (Shared folder)

Go to 'Network Neighborhood', then 'Entire Network', then pick Domain 'Intel_Data_Comm' and choose the server 'Intel_Comm'. In the folder 'ET4514' you will find the required information

Web Sites

8052 tutorial information by Vault Information Services:
<http://www.8052.com>

Intel's site for 8051 based products:
<http://developer.intel.com/design/mcs51/>

Philips' site for 8051 based products:
<http://www-us.semiconductors.philips.com/microcontrol/>

Infineon (formerly Siemens) site for 8051 based products:
<http://www.infineon.com/products/micro/micro.htm>

Keil development tools:
<http://www.keil.com/home.htm>

Information on Analog Devices ADuC812 (8051/8052 compatible processor):
www.analog.com/microconverter

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CONTENTS

Chapter 1	8051 Microcomputer Overview	6
Chapter 2	A Simple Design Example	31
Chapter 3	Software Delay Routines	36
Chapter 4	Interrupts	45
Chapter 5	Timer/Counters	53
Chapter 6	The 8051 Serial Port	65
Appendix A	Example Term Assignments	A1
Appendix B	Sample Exam Questions & Answers	B1
Appendix C	A Brief Introduction to Using Keil Tools	C1

Chapter 1 8051 Microcomputer Overview

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Figure 1.1 shows a functional block of the internal operation of an 8051 microcomputer. The internal components of the chip are shown within the broken line box.

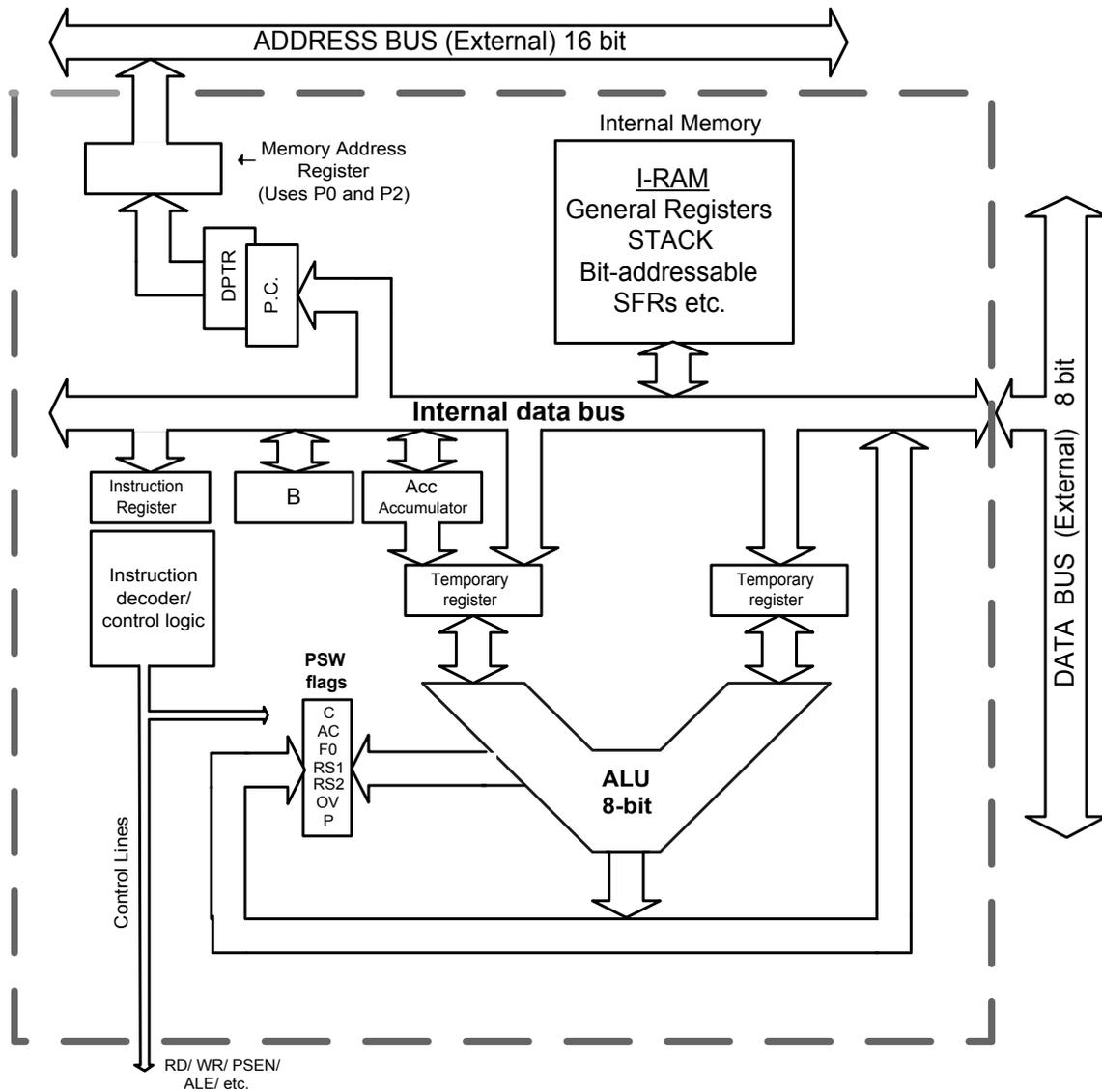


Figure 1.1 8051 functional block diagram.

Figure 1.2 shows the external code memory and data memory connected to the 8051 chip.

Note – part of the external code memory can be located within the chip but we will ignore this feature for now. Also, variants of the chip will allow a lot more memory devices and I/O devices to be accommodate within the chip but such enhanced features will not be considered right now.

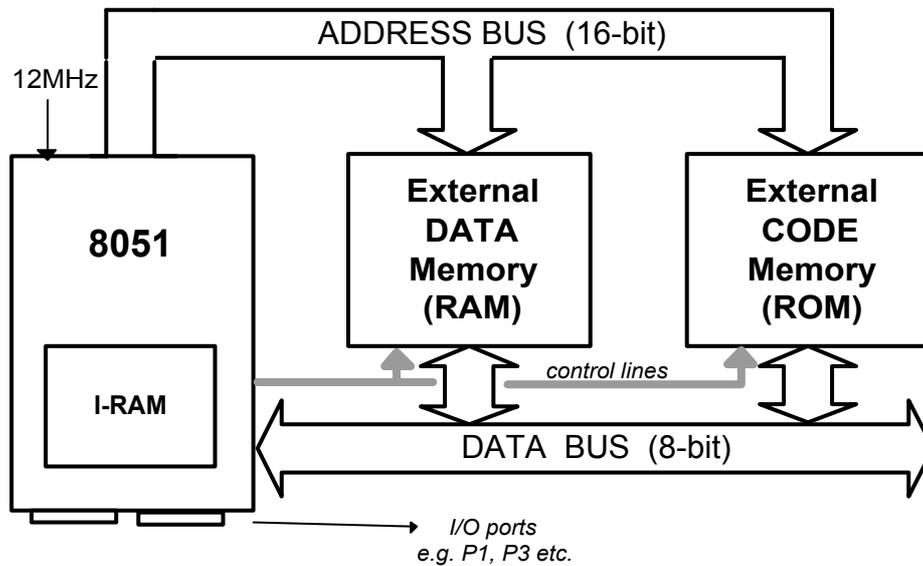


Figure 1.2 8051 chip with external memory

A quick comparison with the well known Pentium processor

A modern PC is powered by a Pentium processor (or equivalent), which is really a very powerful microprocessor. Where the 8051 microcontroller represents the low end of the market in terms of processing power, the Pentium processor is one of the most complex processors in the world. Figure 1.3 shows a simplified block diagram of the Pentium processor and a simple comparison between the 8051 and the Pentium is given in the table below.

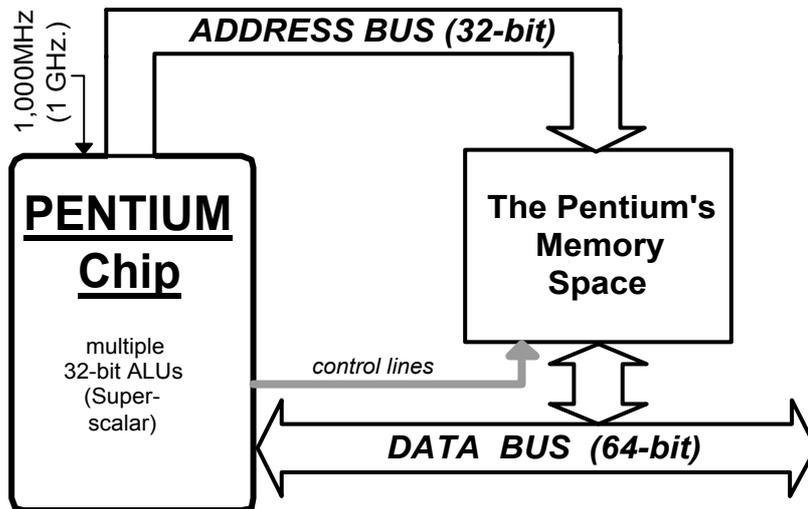


Figure 1.3 Simplified diagram of a Pentium processor

Simple comparison: Pentium vs. 8051

FEATURE	8051	PENTIUM	COMMENT
Clock Speed	12Mhz. typical but 60MHz. ICs available	1,000 MHz. (1GHz.)	8051 internally divides clock by 12 so for 12MHz. clock effective clock rate is just 1MHz.
Address bus	16 bits	32 bits	8051 can address 2^{16} , or 64Kbytes of memory. Pentium can address 2^{32} , or 4 GigaBytes of memory.
Data bus	8 bits	64 bits	Pentium's wide bus allows very fast data transfers.
ALU width	8 bits	32 bits	But - Pentium has multiple 32 bit ALUs – along with floating-point units.
Applications	Domestic appliances, Peripherals, automotive etc.	Personal Computers And other high performance areas.	
Power consumption	Small fraction of a watt	Tens of watts	Pentium runs hot as power consumption increases with frequency.
Cost of chip	About 2 Euros. In volume	About 200 Euros – Depending on spec.	

The basic 8051 chip includes a number of peripheral I/O devices including two t Timer/Counters, 8-bit I/O ports, and a UART. The inclusion of such devices on the 8051 chip is shown in figure 1.4. These I/O devices will be described later.

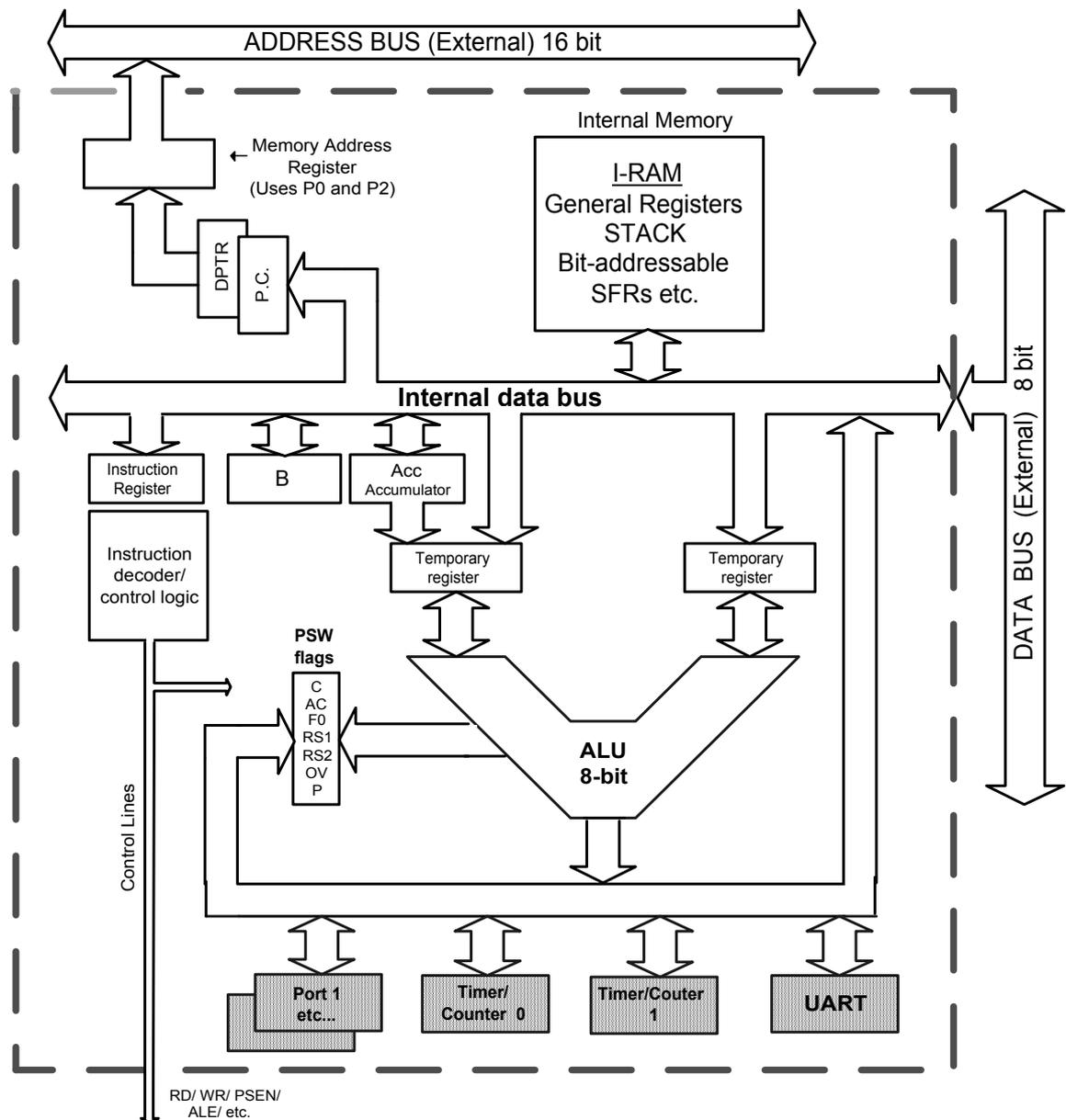


Figure 1.4 8051 showing the on-chip I/O devices

1.2 MEMORY AND REGISTER ORGANISATION

The 8051 has a separate memory space for code (programs) and data. We will refer here to on-chip memory and external memory as shown in figure 1.5. In an actual implementation the external memory may, in fact, be contained within the microcomputer chip. However, we will use the definitions of internal and external memory to be consistent with 8051 instructions which operate on memory. Note, the separation of the code and data memory in the 8051 architecture is a little unusual. The separated memory architecture is referred to as *Harvard* architecture whereas *Von Neumann* architecture defines a system where code and data can share common memory.

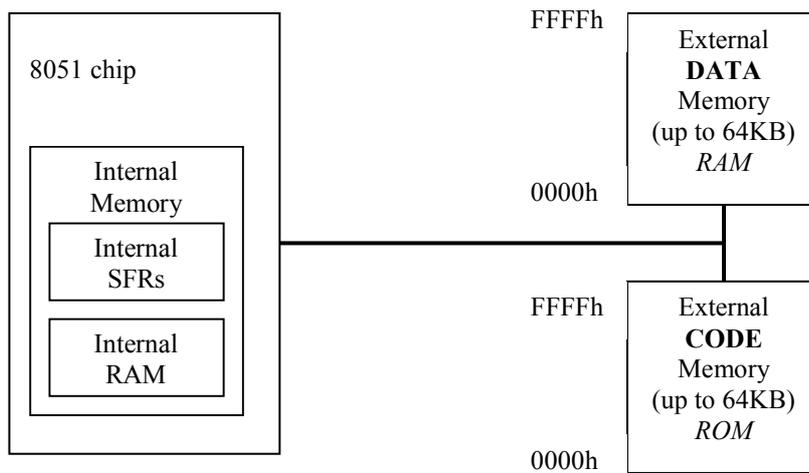


Figure 1.5 8051 Memory representation

External Code Memory

The executable program code is stored in this code memory. The code memory size is limited to 64KBytes (in a standard 8051). The code memory is *read-only* in normal operation and is programmed under special conditions e.g. it is a PROM or a Flash RAM type of memory.

External RAM Data Memory

This *is read-write* memory and is available for storage of data. Up to 64KBytes of external RAM data memory is supported (in a standard 8051).

Internal Memory

The 8051's on-chip memory consists of 256 memory bytes organised as follows:

<i>First 128 bytes:</i>	00h to 1Fh	Register Banks
	20h to 2Fh	Bit Addressable RAM
	30 to 7Fh	General Purpose RAM
<i>Next 128 bytes:</i>	80h to FFh	Special Function Registers

The first 128 bytes of internal memory is organised as shown in figure 1.6, and is referred to as Internal RAM, or IIRAM.

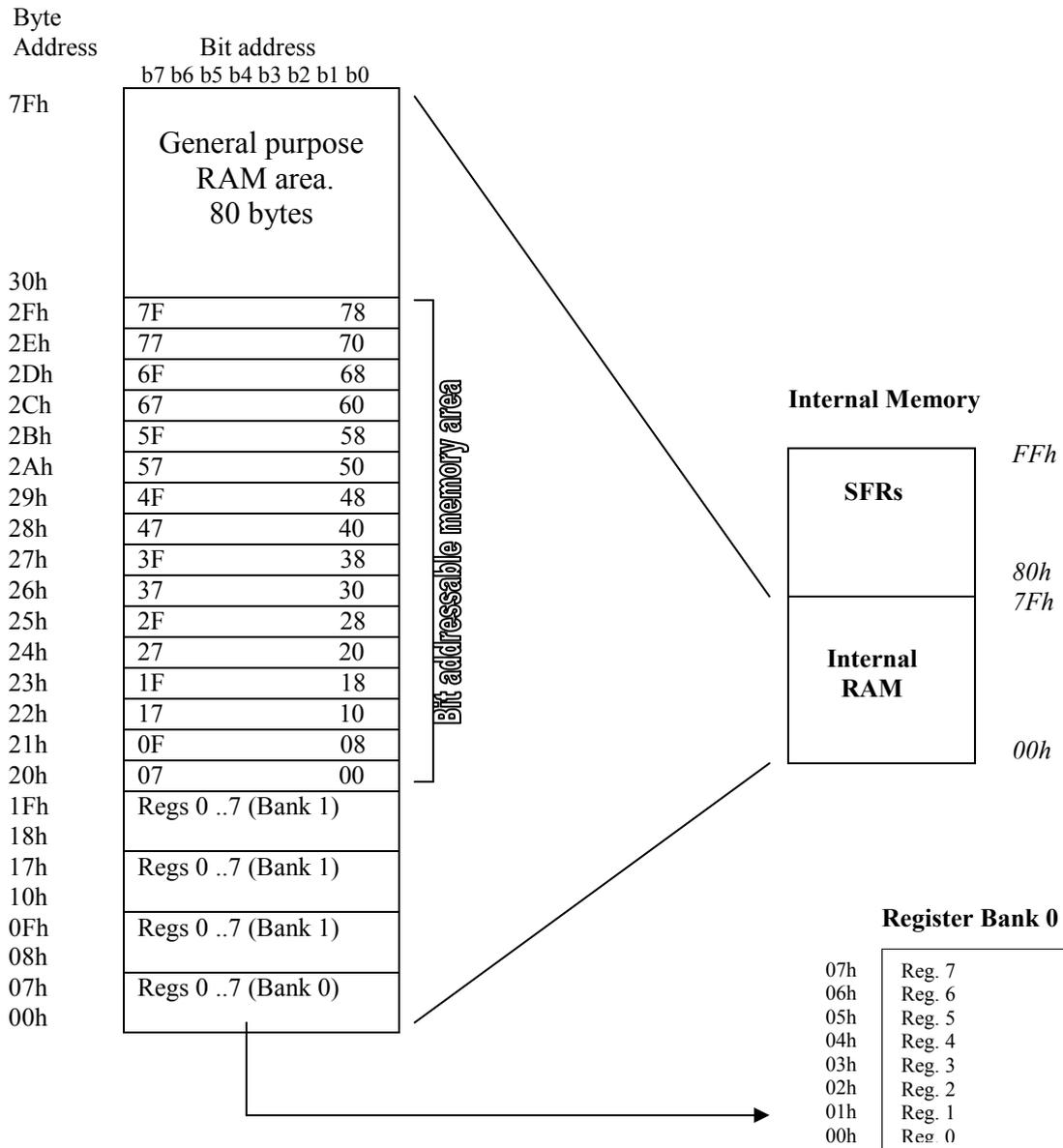


Figure 1.6 Organisation of Internal RAM (IRAM) memory

Register Banks: 00h to 1Fh

The 8051 uses 8 general-purpose registers R0 through R7 (R0, R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R6, and R7). These registers are used in instructions such as:

ADD A, R2 ; adds the value contained in R2 to the accumulator

Note since R2 happens to be memory location 02h in the Internal RAM the following instruction has the same effect as the above instruction.

ADD A, 02h

Now, things get more complicated when we see that there are four banks of these general-purpose registers defined within the Internal RAM. For the moment we will consider register bank 0 only. Register banks 1 to 3 can be ignored when writing introductory level assembly language programs.

Bit Addressable RAM: 20h to 2Fh

The 8051 supports a special feature which allows access to *bit variables*. This is where individual memory bits in Internal RAM can be set or cleared. In all there are 128 bits numbered 00h to 7Fh. Being bit variables any one variable can have a value 0 or 1. A bit variable can be set with a command such as SETB and cleared with a command such as CLR. Example instructions are:

SETB 25h ; sets the bit 25h (becomes 1)

CLR 25h ; clears bit 25h (becomes 0)

Note, bit 25h is actually bit b5 of Internal RAM location 24h.

The Bit Addressable area of the RAM is just 16 bytes of Internal RAM located between 20h and 2Fh. So if a program writes a byte to location 20h, for example, it writes 8 *bit variables*, bits 00h to 07h at once.

Note bit addressing can also be performed on some of the SFR registers, which will be discussed later on.

General Purpose RAM: 30h to 7Fh

These 80 bytes of Internal RAM memory are available for general-purpose data storage. Access to this area of memory is fast compared to access to the main memory and special instructions with single byte operands are used. However, these 80 bytes are used by the system stack and in practice little space is left for general storage. The general purpose RAM can be accessed using direct or indirect addressing modes. Examples of direct addressing:

MOV A, 6Ah ; reads contents of address 6Ah to accumulator

Examples for indirect addressing (**use registers R0 or R1**):

MOV R1, #6Ah ; move immediate 6Ah to R1

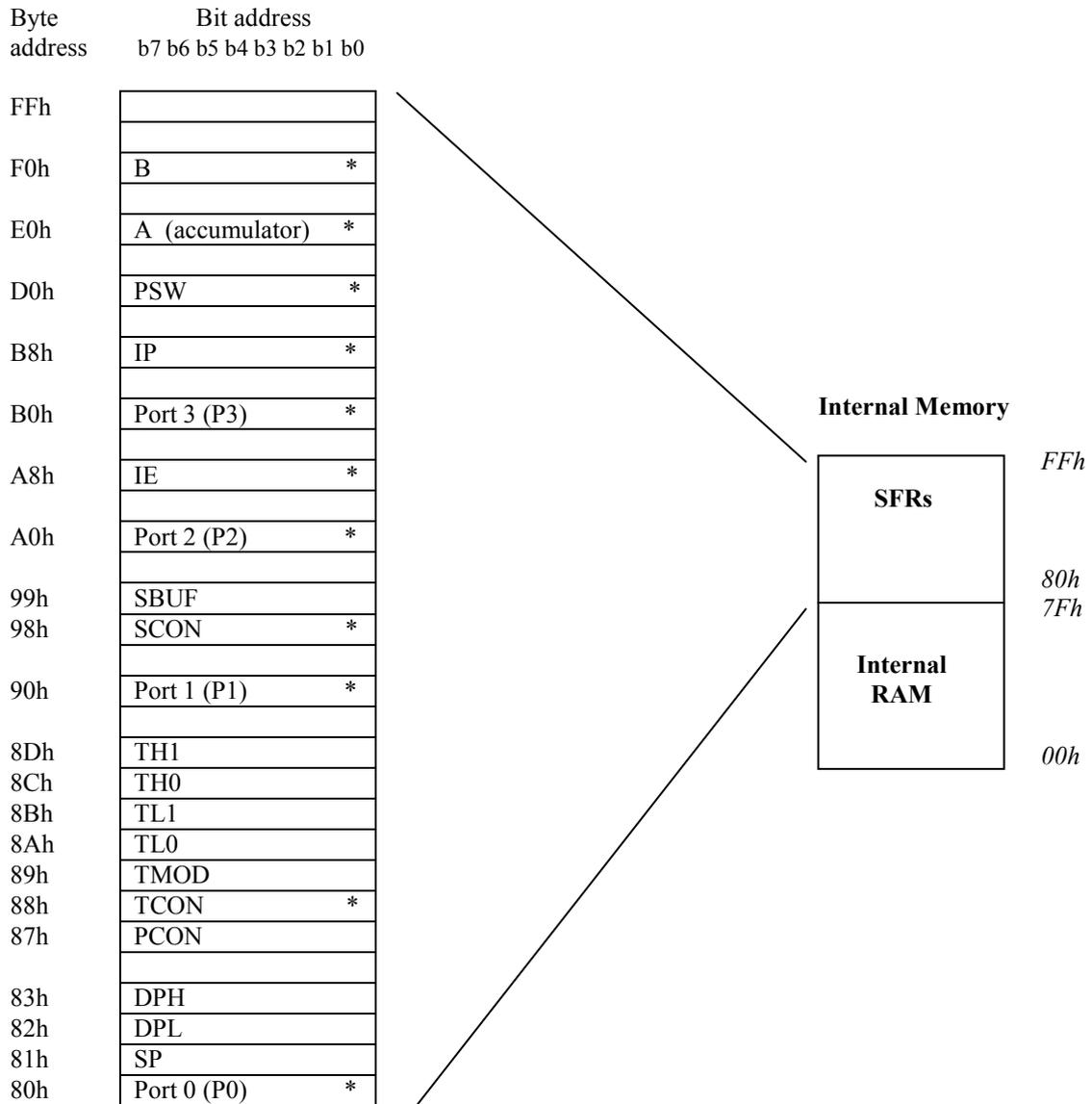
MOV A, @R1 ; move indirect: R1 contains address of Internal RAM which contains data that is moved to A.

These two instructions have the same effect as the direct instruction above.

SFR Registers

The SFR registers are located within the Internal Memory in the address range 80h to FFh, as shown in figure 1.7. Not all locations within this range are defined. Each SFR has a very specific function. Each SFR has an address (within the range 80h to FFh) and a name which reflects the purpose of the SFR. Although 128 bytes of the SFR

address space is defined only 21 SFR registers are defined in the standard 8051. Undefined SFR addresses should not be accessed as this might lead to some unpredictable results. Note some of the SFR registers are *bit addressable*. SFRs are accessed just like normal Internal RAM locations.



* indicates the SFR registers which are bit addressable

Figure 1.7 SFR register layout

We will discuss a few specific SFR registers here to help explain the SFR concept. Other specific SFR will be explained later.

Port Registers SFR

The standard 8051 has four 8 bit I/O ports: P0, P1, P2 and P3.

For example Port 0 is a physical 8 bit I/O port on the 8051. Read (input) and write (output) access to this port is done in software by accessing the SFR P0 register which is located at address 80h. SFR P0 is also bit addressable. Each bit corresponds to a physical I/O pin on the 8051. Example access to port 0:

```
SETB P0.7 ; sets the MSB bit of Port 0
CLR P0.7 ; clears the MSB bit of Port 0
```

The operand P0.7 uses the dot operator and refers to bit 7 of SFR P0. The same bit could be addressed by accessing bit location 87h. Thus the following two instructions have the same meaning:

```
CLR P0.7
CLR 87h
```

PSW Program Status Word

PSW, the Program Status Word is at address D0h and is a bit-addressable register. The status bits are listed in table 1.1.

Table 1.1. Program status word (PSW) flags

Symbol Bit	Address	Description
C (or CY)	PSW.7 D7h	Carry flag
AC	PSW.6 D6h	Auxiliary carry flag
F0	PSW.5 D5h	Flag 0
RS1	PSW.4 D4h	Register bank select 1
RS0	PSW.3 D3h	Register bank select 0
OV	PSW.2 D2h	Overflow flag
	PSW.1 D1h	Reserved
P	PSW.0 D0h	Even Parity flag

Carry flag. C

This is a conventional carry, or borrow, flag used in arithmetic operations. The carry flag is also used as the 'Boolean accumulator' for Boolean instruction operating at the bit level. This flag is sometimes referenced as the CY flag.

Auxiliary carry flag. AC

This is a conventional auxiliary carry (half carry) for use in BCD arithmetic.

Flag 0. F0

This is a general-purpose flag for user programming.

Register bank select 0 and register bank select 1. RS0 and RS1

These bits define the active register bank (bank 0 is the default register bank).

Overflow flag. OV

This is a conventional overflow bit for signed arithmetic to determine if the result of a signed arithmetic operation is out of range.

Even Parity flag. P

The parity flag is the accumulator parity flag, set to a value, 1 or 0, such that the number of '1' bits in the accumulator plus the parity bit add up to an even number.

Stack Pointer

The Stack Pointer, SP, is an 8-bit SFR register at address 81h. The small address field (8 bits) and the limited space available in the Internal RAM confines the stack size and this is sometimes a limitation for 8051 programmes. The SP contains the address of the data byte currently on the top of the stack. The SP pointer is initialised to a defined address. A new data item is 'pushed' on to the stack using a PUSH instruction which will cause the data item to be written to address SP + 1. Typical instructions, which cause modification to the stack are: PUSH, POP, LCALL, RET, RETI etc.. The SP SFR, on start-up, is initialised to 07h so this means the stack will start at 08h and expand upwards in Internal RAM. If register banks 1 to 3 are to be used the SP SFR should be initialised to start higher up in Internal RAM. The following instruction is often used to initialise the stack:

```
MOV SP, #2Fh
```

Data Pointer

The Data Pointer, DPTR, is a special 16-bit register used to address the external code or external data memory. Since the SFR registers are just 8-bits wide the DPTR is stored in two SFR registers, where DPL (82h) holds the low byte of the DPTR and DPH (83h) holds the high byte of the DPTR. For example, if you wanted to write the value 46h to external data memory location 2500h, you might use the following instructions:

```
MOV  A, #46h           ; Move immediate 8 bit data 46h to A (accumulator)

MOV  DPTR, #2504h      ; Move immediate 16 bit address value 2504h to A.
                        ; Now DPL holds 04h and DPH holds 25h.

MOVX @DPTR, A         ; Move the value in A to external RAM location 2500h.
                        ; Uses indirect addressing.
```

Note the **MOVX** (Move X) instruction is used to access external memory.

Accumulator

This is the conventional accumulator that one expects to find in any computer, which is used to hold the result of various arithmetic and logic operations. Since the 8051 microcontroller is just an 8-bit device, the accumulator is, as expected, an 8 bit register.

The accumulator, referred to as ACC or A, is usually accessed explicitly using instructions such as:

```
INC A ; Increment the accumulator
```

However, the accumulator is defined as an SFR register at address E0h. So the following two instructions have the same effect:

MOV A, #52h ; Move immediate the value 52h to the accumulator

MOV E0h, #52h ; Move immediate the value 52h to Internal RAM location E0h, which is, in fact, the accumulator SFR register.

Usually the first method, MOV A, #52h, is used as this is the most conventional (and happens to use less space, 2 bytes as oppose to 3 bytes!)

B Register

The B register is an SFR register at addresses F0h which is bit-addressable. The B register is used in two instructions only: i.e. MUL (multiply) and DIV (divide). The B register can also be used as a general-purpose register.

Program Counter

The PC (Program Counter) is a 2 byte (16 bit) register which always contains the memory address of the next instruction to be executed. When the 8051 is reset the PC is always initialised to 0000h. If a 2 byte instruction is executed the PC is incremented by 2 and if a 3 byte instruction is executed the PC is incremented by three so as to correctly point to the next instruction to be executed. A jump instruction (e.g. LJMP) has the effect of causing the program to branch to a newly specified location, so the jump instruction causes the PC contents to change to the new address value. Jump instructions cause the program to flow in a non-sequential fashion, as will be described later.

SFR Registers for the Internal Timer

The set up and operation of the on-chip hardware timers will be described later, but the associated registers are briefly described here:

TCON, the Timer Control register is an SFR at address 88h, which is bit-addressable. TCON is used to configure and monitor the 8051 timers. The TCON SFR also contains some interrupt control bits, described later.

TMOD, the Timer Mode register is an SFR at address 89h and is used to define the operational modes for the timers, as will be described later.

TL0 (Timer 0 Low) and TH0 (Timer 0 High) are two SFR registers addressed at 8Ah and 8Bh respectively. The two registers are associated with Timer 0.

TL1 (Timer 1 Low) and TH1 (Timer 1 High) are two SFR registers addressed at 8Ch and 8Dh respectively. These two registers are associated with Timer 1.

Power Control Register

PCON (Power Control) register is an SFR at address 87h. It contains various control bits including a control bit, which allows the 8051 to go to ‘sleep’ so as to save power when not in immediate use.

Serial Port Registers

Programming of the on-chip serial communications port will be described later in the text. The associated SFR registers, SBUF and SCON, are briefly introduced here, as follows:

The SCON (Serial Control) is an SFR register located at addresses 98h, and it is bit-addressable. SCON configures the behaviour of the on-chip serial port, setting up parameters such as the baud rate of the serial port, activating send and/or receive data, and setting up some specific control flags.

The SBUF (Serial Buffer) is an SFR register located at address 99h. SBUF is just a single byte deep buffer used for sending and receiving data via the on-chip serial port

Interrupt Registers

Interrupts will be discussed in more detail later. The associated SFR registers are:

IE (Interrupt Enable) is an SFR register at addresses A8h and is used to enable and disable specific interrupts. The MSB bit (bit 7) is used to disable all interrupts.

IP (Interrupt Priority) is an SFR register at addresses B8h and it is bit addressable. The IP register specifies the relative priority (high or low priority) of each interrupt. On the 8051, an interrupt may either be of low (0) priority or high (1) priority. .

1.3 ADDRESSING MODES

There are a number of addressing modes available to the 8051 instruction set, as follows:

Immediate Addressing	Register Addressing	Direct Addressing
Indirect Addressing	Relative Addressing	Absolute addressing
Long Addressing	Indexed Addressing	

Immediate Addressing

Immediate addressing simply means that the operand (which immediately follows the instruction op. code) is the data value to be used. For example the instruction:

MOV A, #99d



Moves the value 99 into the accumulator (note this is 99 decimal since we used 99d). The # symbol tells the assembler that the immediate addressing mode is to be used.

Register Addressing

One of the eight general-registers, R0 to R7, can be specified as the instruction operand. The assembly language documentation refers to a register generically as *Rn*. An example instruction using register addressing is :

ADD A, R5 ; Adds register R5 to A (accumulator)

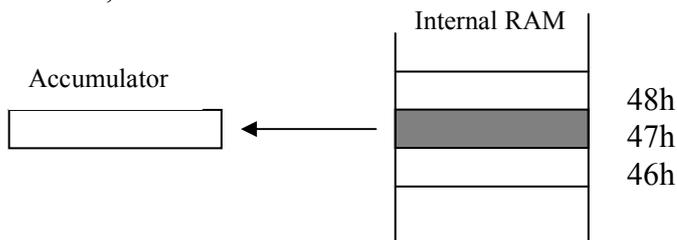


Here the contents of R5 is added to the accumulator. One advantage of register addressing is that the instructions tend to be short, single byte instructions.

Direct Addressing

Direct addressing means that the data value is obtained directly from the memory location specified in the operand. For example consider the instruction:

MOV A, 47h

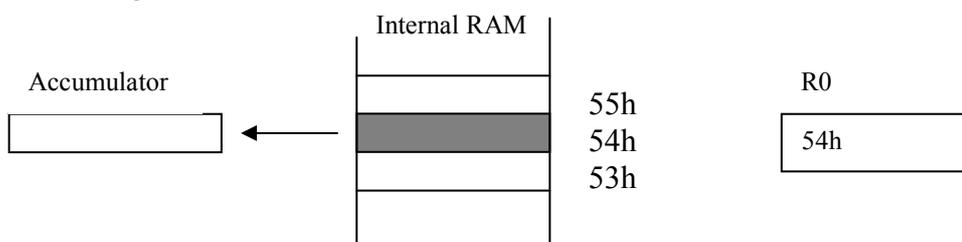


The instruction reads the data from Internal RAM address 47h and stores this in the accumulator. Direct addressing can be used to access Internal RAM , including the SFR registers.

Indirect Addressing

Indirect addressing provides a powerful addressing capability, which needs to be appreciated. An example instruction, which uses indirect addressing, is as follows:

MOV A, @R0



Note the @ symbol indicated that the indirect addressing mode is used. R0 contains a value, for example 54h, which is to be used as the address of the internal RAM

location, which contains the operand data. Indirect addressing refers to Internal RAM only and cannot be used to refer to SFR registers.

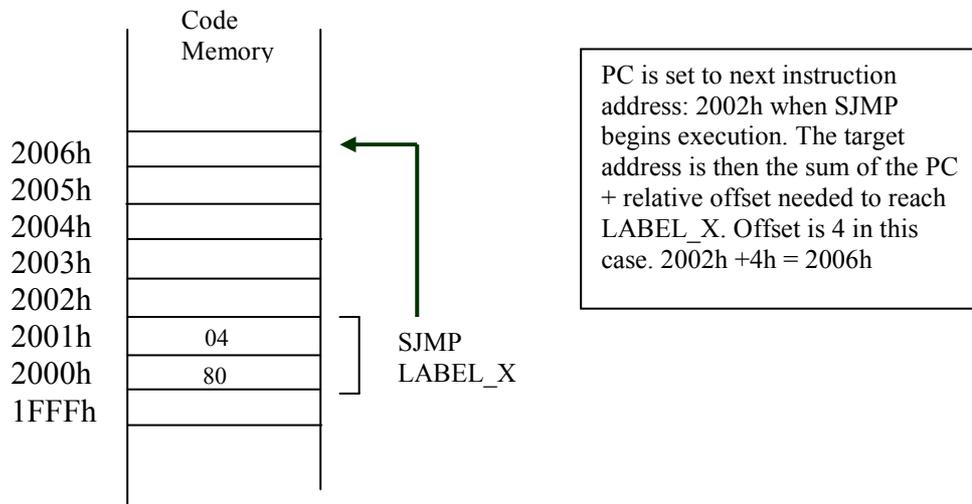
Note, only R0 or R1 can be used as register data pointers for indirect addressing when using MOV instructions.

The 8052 (as opposed to the 8051) has an additional 128 bytes of internal RAM. These 128 bytes of RAM can be accessed only using indirect addressing.

Relative Addressing

This is a special addressing mode used with certain jump instructions. The relative address, often referred to as an offset, is an 8-bit signed number, which is automatically added to the PC to make the address of the next instruction. The 8-bit signed offset value gives an address range of +127 to -128 locations. Consider the following example:

SJMP LABEL_X



An advantage of relative addressing is that the program code is easy to relocate in memory in that the addressing is relative to the position in memory.

Absolute addressing

Absolute addressing within the 8051 is used only by the AJMP (Absolute Jump) and ACALL (Absolute Call) instructions, which will be discussed later.

Long Addressing

The long addressing mode within the 8051 is used with the instructions LJMP and LCALL. The address specifies a full 16 bit destination address so that a jump or a call can be made to a location within a 64KByte code memory space ($2^{16} = 64K$). An example instruction is:

LJMP 5000h ; full 16 bit address is specified in operand

Indexed Addressing

With indexed addressing a separate register, either the program counter, PC, or the data pointer DPTR, is used as a base address and the accumulator is used as an offset address. The effective address is formed by adding the value from the base address to the value from the offset address. Indexed addressing in the 8051 is used with the JMP or MOVC instructions. Look up tables are easy to implement with the help of index addressing. Consider the example instruction:

```
MOVC A, @A+DPTR
```

MOVC is a move instruction, which moves data from the external code memory space. The address operand in this example is formed by adding the content of the DPTR register to the accumulator value. Here the DPTR value is referred to as the *base address* and the accumulator value is referred to as the *index address*. An example program using the indexed addressing mode will be shown later.

1.4 ASSEMBLY LANGUAGE PROGRAMMING

Number Representation for Different Bases

The following is an example showing the decimal number 46 represented in different number bases:

```
46d          ; 46 decimal
2Eh          ; 2Eh is 46 decimal represented as a hex number
56o          ; 56o is 46 decimal represented as an octal number
101110b     ; 101110b is 46 decimal represented as a binary number.
```

Note a number digit must be used in the first character of a hexadecimal number. For example the hexadecimal number A5h is illegally represented and should be represented as 0A5h.

The Arithmetic Operators

The arithmetic operators are:

```
+      add
-      subtract
*      multiply
/      divide
MOD    modulo (result is the remainder following division)
```

The Logical Operators

The logical operators are:

AND Logical AND
OR Logical OR
XOR Logical XOR (exclusive OR)
NOT Logical NOT

The Relational Operators

The result of a relational operation is either true (represented by *minus 1*), or false (represented by zero). The relational operators are:

Equal to	EQ	=
not equal to	NE	<>
greater than	GT	>
greater than or equal to	GE	>=
less than	LT	<
less than or equal to	LE	<=

(note 'EQ' symbol and '=' symbol have the same meaning)

Operator Precedence

Like a high level language, assembly level programs define operator precedence. Operators with same precedence are evaluated left to right. Note, brackets () means to evaluate this first. HIGH indicates the high-byte and LOW indicates the low-byte. Later examples will clarify the use of such special operators. The precedence list, highest first, is as follows:

()
HIGH LOW
* / MOD SHL SHR
+ -
= <> < <= > >=
NOT
AND
OR XOR

Some Assembler Directives

The assembler directives are special instruction to the assembler program to define some specific operations but these directives are not part of the executable program. Some of the most frequently assembler directives are listed as follows:

ORG OriGinate, defines the starting address for the program in program (code) memory

EQU EQUate, assigns a numeric value to a symbol identifier so as to make the program more readable.

DB Define a Byte, puts a byte (8-bit number) number constant at this memory location

DW Define a Word, puts a word (16-bit number) number constant at this memory location

- DBIT** Define a Bit, defines a bit constant, which is stored in the bit addressable section of the Internal RAM.
- END** This is the last statement in the source file to advise the assembler to stop the assembly process.

Types of Instructions

The assembly level instructions include: data transfer instructions, arithmetic instructions, logical instructions, program control instructions, and some special instructions such as the rotate instructions.

Data Transfer

Many computer operations are concerned with moving data from one location to another. The 8051 uses five different types of instruction to move data:

MOV	MOVX	MOVC
PUSH and POP	XCH	

MOV

In the 8051 the MOV instruction is concerned with moving data internally, i.e. between Internal RAM, SFR registers, general registers etc. MOVX and MOVC are used in accessing external memory data. The MOV instruction has the following format:

MOV destination <- source

The instruction copies (*copy* is a more accurate word than *move*) data from a defined source location to a destination location. Example MOV instructions are:

MOV R2, #80h	; Move immediate data value 80h to register R2
MOV R4, A	; Copy data from accumulator to register R4
MOV DPTR, #0F22Ch	; Move immediate value F22Ch to the DPTR register
MOV R2, 80h	; Copy data from 80h (Port 0 SFR) to R2
MOV 52h, #52h	; Copy immediate data value 52h to RAM location 52h
MOV 52h, 53h	; Copy data from RAM location 53h to RAM 52h
MOV A, @R0	; Copy contents of location addressed in R0 to A (indirect addressing)

MOVX

The 8051 the external memory can be addressed using *indirect* addressing only. The DPTR register is used to hold the address of the external data (since DPTR is a 16-bit register it can address 64KByte locations: $2^{16} = 64K$). The 8 bit registers R0 or R1 can also be used for indirect addressing of external memory but the address range is limited to the lower 256 bytes of memory ($2^8 = 256$ bytes).

The MOVX instruction is used to access the external memory (X indicates eXternal memory access). All external moves must work through the A register (accumulator). Examples of MOVX instructions are:

```
MOVX @DPTR, A ; Copy data from A to the address specified in DPTR
MOVX A, @DPTR ; Copy data from address specified in DPTR to A
```

MOVC

MOVC instructions operate on RAM, which is (normally) a volatile memory. Program tables often need to be stored in ROM since ROM is non volatile memory. The MOVC instruction is used to read data from the external code memory (ROM). Like the MOVX instruction the DPTR register is used as the indirect address register. The indirect addressing is enhanced to realise an indexed addressing mode where register A can be used to provide an offset in the address specification. Like the MOVX instruction all moves must be done through register A. The following sequence of instructions provides an example:

```
MOV DPTR, # 2000h ; Copy the data value 2000h to the DPTR register
MOV A, #80h ; Copy the data value 80h to register A
MOVC A, @A+DPTR ; Copy the contents of the address 2080h (2000h + 80h)
; to register A
```

Note, for the MOVC the program counter, PC, can also be used to form the address.

PUSH and POP

PUSH and POP instructions are used with the stack only. The SFR register SP contains the current stack address. Direct addressing is used as shown in the following examples:

```
PUSH 4Ch ; Contents of RAM location 4Ch is saved to the stack. SP is
          incremented.
PUSH 00h ; The content of R0 (which is at 00h in RAM) is saved to the stack and
          SP is incremented.
POP 80h ; The data from current SP address is copied to 80h and SP is
         decremented.
```

XCH

The above move instructions copy data from a source location to a destination location, leaving the source data unaffected. A special XCH (eXCHange) instruction will actually swap the data between source and destination, effectively changing the source data. Immediate addressing may not be used with XCH. XCH instructions must use register A. XCHD is a special case of the exchange instruction where just the lower nibbles are exchanged. Examples using the XCH instruction are:

```
XCH A, R3 ; Exchange bytes between A and R3
XCH A, @R0 ; Exchange bytes between A and RAM location whose address is in R0
XCH A, A0h ; Exchange bytes between A and RAM location A0h (SFR port 2)
```

Arithmetic

Some key flags within the PSW, i.e. C, AC, OV, P, are utilised in many of the arithmetic instructions. The arithmetic instructions can be grouped as follows:

Addition
Subtraction
Increment/decrement
Multiply/divide
Decimal adjust

Addition

Register A (the accumulator) is used to hold the result of any addition operation. Some simple addition examples are:

ADD A, #25h ; Adds the number 25h to A, putting sum in A
ADD A, R3 ; Adds the register R3 value to A, putting sum in A

The flags in the PSW register are affected by the various addition operations, as follows:

The C (carry) flag is set to 1 if the addition resulted in a carry out of the accumulator's MSB bit, otherwise it is cleared.

The AC (auxiliary) flag is set to 1 if there is a carry out of bit position 3 of the accumulator, otherwise it is cleared.

For signed numbers the OV flag is set to 1 if there is an arithmetic overflow (described elsewhere in these notes)

Simple addition is done within the 8051 based on 8 bit numbers, but it is often required to add 16 bit numbers, or 24 bit numbers etc. This leads to the use of multiple byte (multi-precision) arithmetic. The least significant bytes are first added, and if a carry results, this carry is carried over in the addition of the next significant byte etc. This addition process is done at 8-bit precision steps to achieve multi-precision arithmetic. The ADDC instruction is used to include the carry bit in the addition process. Example instructions using ADDC are:

ADDC A, #55h ; Add contents of A, the number 55h, the carry bit; and put the sum in A

ADDC A, R4 ; Add the contents of A, the register R4, the carry bit; and put the sum in A.

Subtraction

Computer subtraction can be achieved using 2's complement arithmetic. Most computers also provide instructions to directly subtract signed or unsigned numbers. The accumulator, register A, will contain the result (difference) of the subtraction operation. The C (carry) flag is treated as a borrow flag, which is always subtracted

from the minuend during a subtraction operation. Some examples of subtraction instructions are:

SUBB A, #55d ; Subtract the number 55 (decimal) and the C flag from A; and put the result in A.

SUBB A, R6 ; Subtract R6 the C flag from A; and put the result in A.

SUBB A, 58h ; Subtract the number in RAM location 58h and the C flag From A; and put the result in A.

Increment/Decrement

The increment (INC) instruction has the effect of simply adding a binary 1 to a number while a decrement (DEC) instruction has the effect of subtracting a binary 1 from a number. The increment and decrement instructions can use the addressing modes: direct, indirect and register. The flags C, AC, and OV are **not** affected by the increment or decrement instructions. If a value of FFh is increment it overflows to 00h. If a value of 00h is decrement it underflows to FFh. The DPTR can overflow from FFFFh to 0000h. The DPTR register cannot be decremented using a DEC instruction (unfortunately!). Some example INC and DEC instructions are as follows:

INC R7 ; Increment register R7

INC A ; Increment A

INC @R1 ; Increment the number which is the content of the address in R1

DEC A ; Decrement register A

DEC 43h ; Decrement the number in RAM address 43h

INC DPTR ; Increment the DPTR register

Multiply / Divide

The 8051 supports 8-bit multiplication and division. This is low precision (8 bit) arithmetic but is useful for many simple control applications. The arithmetic is relatively fast since multiplication and division are implemented as single instructions. If better precision, or indeed, if floating point arithmetic is required then special software routines need to be written. For the MUL or DIV instructions the A and B registers must be used and only unsigned numbers are supported.

Multiplication

The MUL instruction is used as follows (note absence of a comma between the A and B operands):

MUL AB ; Multiply A by B.

The resulting product resides in registers A and B, the low-order byte is in A and the high order byte is in B.

Division

The DIV instruction is used as follows:

DIV AB ; A is divided by B.

The remainder is put in register B and the integer part of the quotient is put in register A.

Decimal Adjust (Special)

The 8051 performs all arithmetic in binary numbers (i.e. it does not support BCD arithmetic). If two BCD numbers are added then the result can be adjusted by using the DA, decimal adjust, instruction:

DA A ; Decimal adjust A following the addition of two BCD numbers.

Logical

Boolean Operations

Most control applications implement control logic using Boolean operators to act on the data. Most microcomputers provide a set of Boolean instructions that act on byte level data. However, the 8051 (somewhat uniquely) additionally provides Boolean instruction which can operate on bit level data.

The following Boolean operations can operate on byte level or bit level data:

ANL Logical AND
ORL Logical OR
CPL Complement (logical NOT)
XRL Logical XOR (exclusive OR)

Logical operations at the BYTE level

The destination address of the operation can be the accumulator (register A), a general register, or a direct address. Status flags are not affected by these logical operations (unless PSW is directly manipulated). Example instructions are:

ANL A, #55h ; AND each bit in A with corresponding bit in number 55h, leaving the result in A.

ANL 42h, R4 ; AND each bit in RAM location 42h with corresponding bit in R4, leaving the result in RAM location 42h.

ORL A, @R1 ; OR each bit in A with corresponding bit in the number whose address is contained in R1 leaving the result in A.

XRL R4, 80h ; XOR each bit in R4 with corresponding bit in RAM location 80h (port 0), leaving result in A.

CPL R0 ; Complement each bit in R0

Logical operations at the BIT level

The C (carry) flag is the destination of most bit level logical operations. The carry flag can easily be tested using a branch (jump) instruction to quickly establish program flow control decisions following a bit level logical operation.

The following SFR registers only are addressable in bit level operations:

PSW IE IP TCON SCON

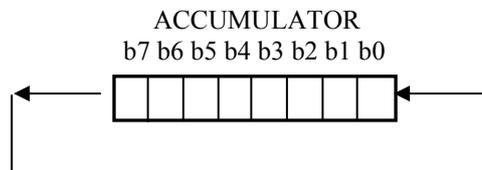
Examples of bit level logical operations are as follows:

SETB 2Fh ; Bit 7 of Internal RAM location 25h is set
CLR C ; Clear the carry flag (flag =0)
CPL 20h ; Complement bit 0 of Internal RAM location 24h
MOV C, 87h ; Move to carry flag the bit 7 of Port 0 (SFR at 80h)
ANL C, 90h ; AND C with the bit 0 of Port 1 (SFR at 90)
ORL C, 91h ; OR C with the bit 1 of Port 1 (SFR at 90)

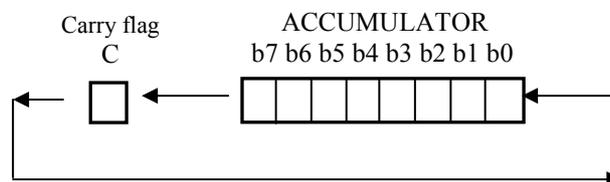
Rotate Instructions

The ability to rotate the A register (accumulator) data is useful to allow examination of individual bits. The options for such rotation are as follows:

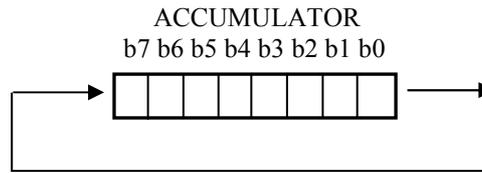
RL A ; Rotate A one bit to the left. Bit 7 rotates to the bit 0 position



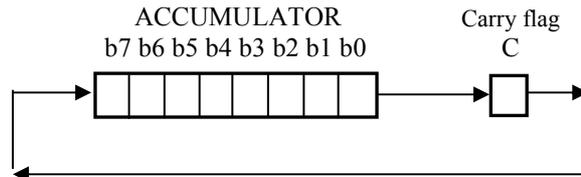
RLC A ; The Carry flag is used as a ninth bit in the rotation loop



RR A ; Rotates A to the right (clockwise)



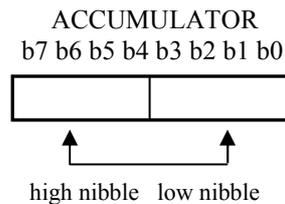
RRC A ; Rotates to the right and includes the carry bit as the 9th bit.



Swap = special

The Swap instruction swaps the accumulator's high order nibble with the low-order nibble using the instruction:

SWAP A



Program Control Instructions

The 8051 supports three kind of jump instructions:

LJMP SJMP AJMP

LJMP

LJMP (long jump) causes the program to branch to a destination address defined by the 16-bit operand in the jump instruction. Because a 16-bit address is used the instruction can cause a jump to any location within the 64KByte program space ($2^{16} = 64K$). Some example instructions are:

LJMP LABEL_X ; Jump to the specified label
LJMP 0F200h ; Jump to address 0F200h
LJMP @A+DPTR ; Jump to address which is the sum of DPTR and Reg. A

SJMP

SJMP (short jump) uses a single byte address. This address is a signed 8-bit number and allows the program to branch to a distance -128 bytes back from the current PC

address or +127 bytes forward from the current PC address. The address mode used with this form of jumping (or branching) is referred to as *relative addressing*, introduced earlier, as the jump is calculated relative to the current PC address.

AJMP

This is a special 8051 jump instruction, which allows a jump with a 2KByte address boundary (a 2K page)

There is also a generic JMP instruction supported by many 8051 assemblers. The assembler will decide which type of jump instruction to use, LJMP, SJMP or AJMP, so as to choose the most efficient instruction.

Subroutines and program flow control

A subroutine is called using the LCALL or the ACALL instruction.

LCALL

This instruction is used to call a subroutine at a specified address. The address is 16 bits long so the call can be made to any location within the 64KByte memory space. When a LCALL instruction is executed the current PC content is automatically pushed onto the stack of the PC. When the program returns from the subroutine the PC contents is returned from the stack so that the program can resume operation from the point where the LCALL was made

The return from subroutine is achieved using the RET instruction, which simply pops the PC back from the stack.

ACALL

The ACALL instruction is logically similar to the LCALL but has a limited address range similar to the AJMP instruction.

CALL is a generic call instruction supported by many 8051 assemblers. The assembler will decide which type of call instruction, LCALL or ACALL, to use so as to choose the most efficient instruction.

Program control using conditional jumps

Most 8051 jump instructions use an 8-bit destination address, based on relative addressing, i.e. addressing within the range -128 to +127 bytes.

When using a conditional jump instruction the programmer can simply specify a program label or a full 16-bit address for the conditional jump instruction's destination. The assembler will position the code and work out the correct 8-bit relative address for the instruction. Some example conditional jump instructions are:

JZ LABEL_1 ; Jump to LABEL_1 if accumulator is equal to zero

JNZ LABEL_X ; Jump to LABEL_X if accumulator is not equal to zero

JNC LABEL_Y ; Jump to LABEL_Y if the carry flag is not set

DJNZ R2, LABEL ; Decrement R2 and jump to LABEL if the resulting value of R2 is not zero.

CJNE R1, #55h, LABEL_2
; Compare the magnitude of R1 and the number 55h and jump to LABEL_2 if the magnitudes are not equal.

Note, jump instructions such as DJNZ and CJNE are very powerful as they carry out a particular operation (e.g.: decrement, compare) and then make a decision based on the result of this operation. Some example code later will help to explain the context in which such instructions might be used.

Chapter 2 A Simple Design Example

A simple burglar alarm project is described to demonstrate an 8051 based control application. A four zone burglar system is realised. The design makes use of the input and output ports of the 8051 processor.

2.1 HARDWARE DESCRIPTION

Figure 2.1 shows a hardware diagram for the burglar alarm system. Port 3 (P3) is used as an input port. The four input pins, P3.0 to P3.3, are connected to separate alarm zones. A single zone consists of a series of normally close switches. When any one of these switches is opened the corresponding input pin transitions to a logic high level and the processor becomes aware of an alarm situation for the corresponding zone. Pins P3.4 to P3.7 are not used and are tied to ground, logic low. This is a crude alarm system design and the zone wiring could not operated over any long distances. However, the example will suffice to demonstrate the concept.

The burglar alarm's output consists of a seven-segment display device and an alarm bell. The alarm bell is connected to Port 1, bit 7, and the bell is sounded when this output pin is set to a logic high level by the software. The seven-segment display device is connected to Port 1, bits 0 to 6. Each output pin is fed to the relevant display segment via a non-inverting buffer device. The seven-segment display device is a common-cathode device so writing a logic high level to any segment will cause that segment to light.

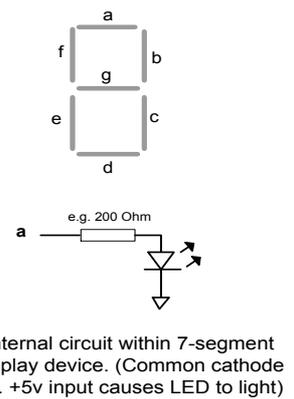
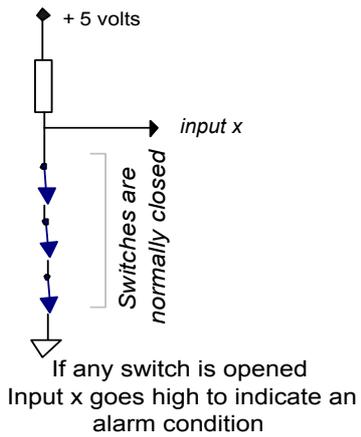
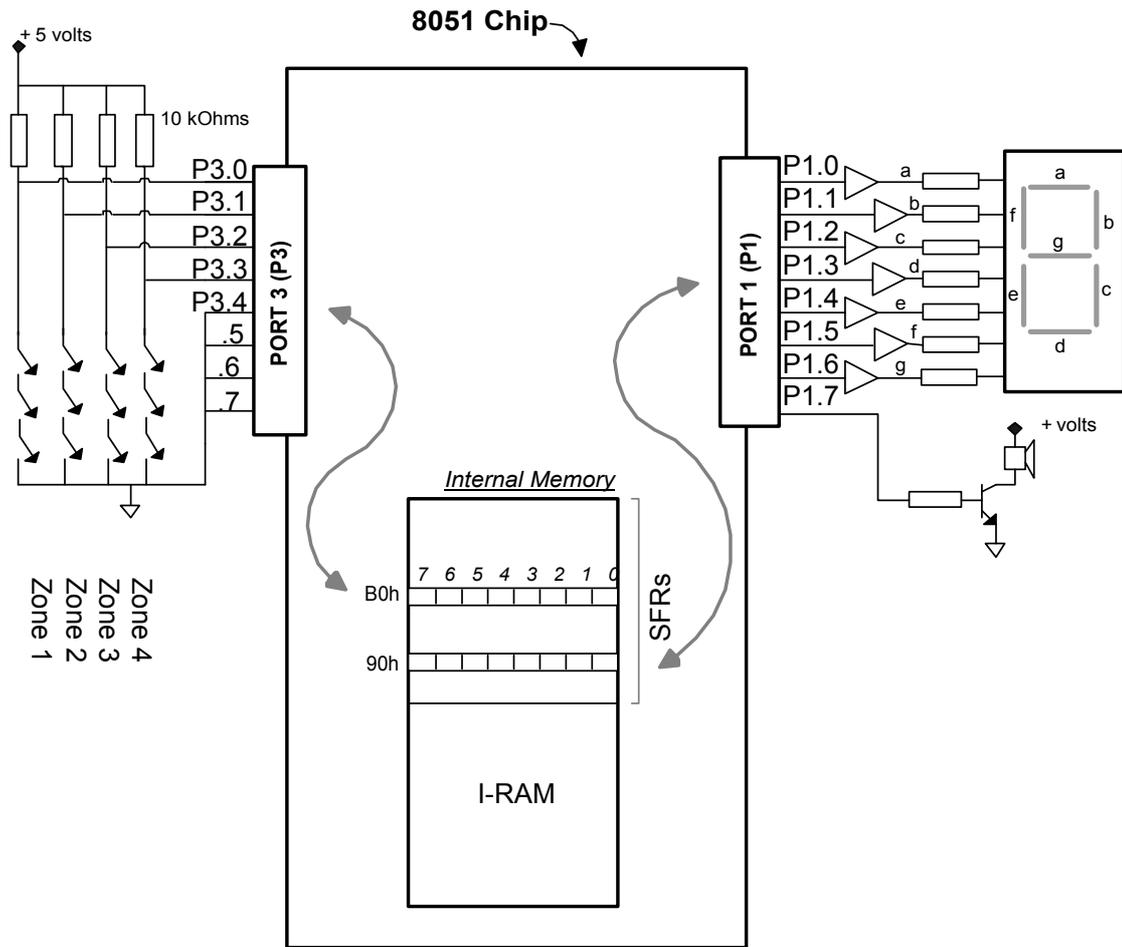
2.2 SOFTWARE DESCRIPTION

The first example program, ALARM_1, is a simple program which continuously polls the four input zones. If any zone input goes to logic high then the alarm bell is sounded by writing a logic high level to Port 1, bit 7. The flow chart for this program is shown in figure 2.2 and the actual program source code is shown in listing 2.1. Port 3 is put into an initial state by writing all ones to this port, so that the port does not pull down any of the input lines. Port 1 is put into an initial state of all zeros. This has the effect of blanking the display and the alarm bell is off. The display device is not used in the ALARM_1 program example.

Note how the program reads the P3 SFR register (Internal memory location B0h) to read the physical Port 3 and how it writes to the P1 SFR register (Internal memory location 90h) to write to the Port 1. Figure 2.1 shows the relationship between the physical ports and the SFR registers. Thus the programmer can simply access internal registers to achieve real input/output port access.

A second example program, ALARM_2, is an enhanced program which displays the active alarm zone number on the display. If more than one zone is activated a 'C' is displayed to indicate a *combination* of activated zones. The flowchart for this program is shown in figure 2.3 and the actual source code for the program is shown in listing 2.2. The truth table for the Port 1 bit patterns to drive the seven-segment display device and the alarm bell is shown in table 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Burglar alarm system hardware



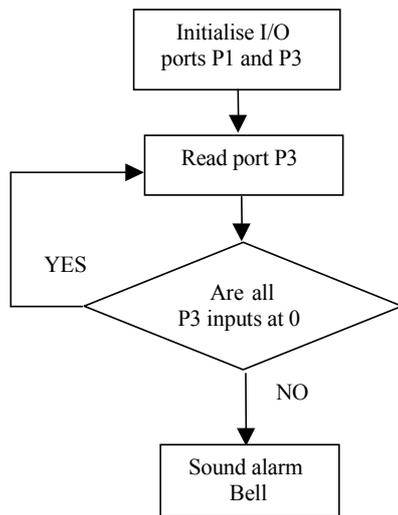


Figure 2.2 ALARM_1 Program flow chart

```

; ALARM_1.A51
; Simple program to poll 4 input zones. If any zone input, P3.0
; to P3.3 goes to 1 (logic 1) then the BELL is activated by writing
; a 1 (logic high) to P1.7
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    25-Feb-99
;=====

                ORG 0000h                ; define memory start address 0000h

; Initialise the I/O ports

                MOV P3, #0ffh            ; write all ones to P3 to use as an input port
                MOV P1, #00              ; all zeros to put P1 in a known output state

POLL:
                MOV A, P3                ; read P3 to accumulator
                CJNE A, #00h, ALARM      ; if not all zeros then jump to ALARM
                LJMP POLL                ; else loop back to POLL

ALARM:
                SETB P1.7                ; enable the BELL by setting P1.7 high

END_LOOP:
                LJMP END_LOOP            ; program just loops around here

END              ; end of program
  
```

Listing 2.1 ALARM_1 Program source code

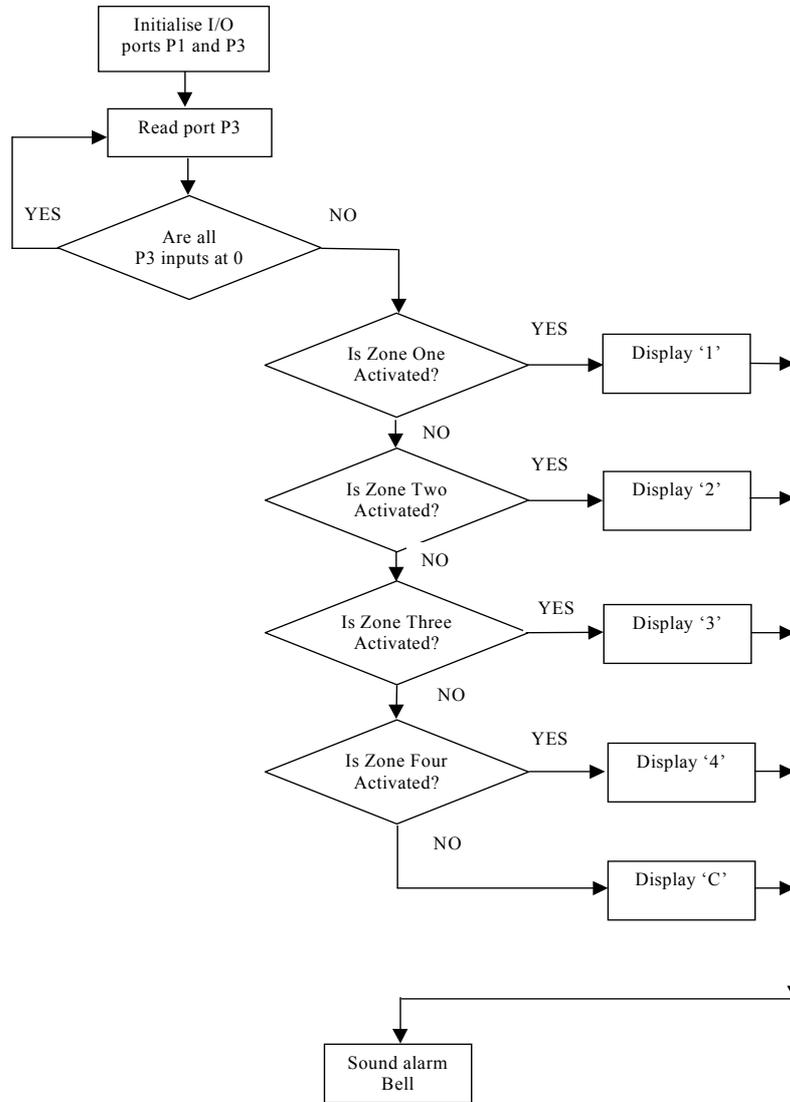


Figure 2.3 ALARM_2 Program flow chart

PORT 1

P1.7 P1.6 P1.5 P1.4 P1.3 P1.2 P1.1 P1.0

Display Value	Bell 1=on	g	f	e	d	c	b	a
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
2	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
3	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
4	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
C	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1

Table 2.1 Truth table for Port 1

```

; ALARM_2.A51
; Simple program to poll 4 input zones. If any zone input, P3.0 to P3.3 goes to 1 (logic 1) then the zone
; number is displayed and the BELL is activated by writing a 1 (logic high) to P1.7. If more than one
; zone is activated, display C (C for Combination)
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    25-Feb-99
;=====
; Equates
NUM_0 EQU    00111111B      ; code to display 0 on 7 segment
NUM_1 EQU    00000110B      ; code to display 1 on 7 segment
NUM_2 EQU    01011011B      ; code to display 2 on 7 segment
NUM_3 EQU    01001111B      ; code to display 3 on 7 segment
NUM_4 EQU    01100110B      ; code to display 4 on 7 segment
LET_C EQU    00111001B      ; code to display C on 7 segment

        ORG 0000h           ; define memory start address 0000h
; Initialise the I/O ports
        MOV P3,#0ffh        ; write all ones to P3 to use as an input port
        MOV P1,#NUM_0       ; P1 displays zero and alarm is off
POLL:
        MOV A, P3           ; read P3 to accumulator
        CJNE A, #00h, ALARM  ; if not all zeros then jump to ALARM
        LJMP POLL          ; else loop back to POLL

ALARM:
TEST_ZONE_1:
        CJNE A, #00000001B, TEST_ZONE_2 ; if not zone 1 then jump to zone 2
        MOV P1, #NUM_1      ; display number 1
        LJMP BELL_ON        ; jump to BELL_ON

TEST_ZONE_2:
        CJNE A, #00000010B, TEST_ZONE_3 ; if not zone 1 then jump to zone 3
        MOV P1, #NUM_2      ; display number 2
        LJMP BELL_ON        ; jump to BELL_ON

TEST_ZONE_3:
        CJNE A, #00000100B, TEST_ZONE_4 ; if not zone 1 then jump to zone 4
        MOV P1, #NUM_3      ; display number 3
        LJMP BELL_ON        ; jump to BELL_ON

TEST_ZONE_4:
        CJNE A, #00001000B, DISPLAY_C   ; if not zone 1 then jump to display C
        MOV P1, #NUM_4      ; display number 4
        LJMP BELL_ON        ; jump to BELL_ON

DISPLAY_C:
        MOV P1, #LET_C      ; display letter C
        LJMP BELL_ON        ; jump to BELL_ON

BELL_ON:
        SETB P1.7           ; enable the BELL by setting P1.7 high

END_LOOP:
        LJMP END_LOOP       ; program just loops around here

END                                           ; end of program

```

Listing 2.2 ALARM_2 Program source code

Chapter 3 Software Delay Routines

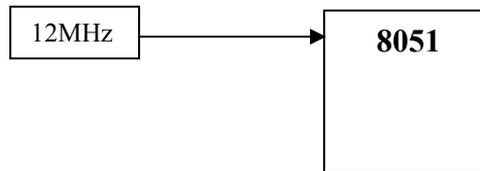
This chapter introduces software based timing delay routines. The examples introduce the useful programming concept of sub-routines.

For an 8051 microcomputer a single instruction cycle is executed for every 12 clock cycles of the processor clock. Thus, for an 8051 clocked at 12MHz. the instruction cycle time is one microsecond, as follows:

$$\text{Instruction cycle time} = \frac{12 \text{ clock cycles}}{12 \times 10^6 \text{ cycles/sec.}} = 10^{-6} \text{ seconds, or } 1 \mu\text{sec.}$$

The shortest instructions will execute in one instruction cycle, i.e. 1 μ sec. Other instructions may take two or more instruction cycle times to execute.

A given instruction will take one or more instruction cycles to execute (e.g. 1, 2 or 3 μ secs.)



3.1 SOME EXAMPLE ROUTINES

Sample routine to delay 1 millisecond: ONE_MILLI_SUB

Consider a software routine called 'ONE_MILLI_SUB', written as a subroutine program, which takes a known 1000 instructions cycles (approx.) to execute. Thus it takes 1000 μ secs, or 1 millisecond, to execute. The program is written as a subroutine since it may be called on frequently as part of some longer timing delay routines. The flow chart for the routine is shown in figure 3.1 and the source code for the subroutine is shown in listing 3.1. Note, register R7 is used as a loop counter. It is good practice in writing subroutines to save to the stack (PUSH) any registers used in the subroutine and to restore (POP) such registers when finished. See how R7 is saved and retrieved in the program. We say that R7 is 'preserved'. This is important as the program which called the subroutine may be using R7 for another purpose and a subroutine should not be allowed to 'accidentally' change the value of a register used elsewhere.

When calling a subroutine the Program Counter (PC) is automatically pushed onto the stack, so the SP (Stack Pointer) is incremented by 2 when a subroutine is entered. The PC is automatically retrieved when returning from the subroutine, decrementing the SP by 2.

In the ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine a tight loop is executed 250 times. The number of instruction cycles per instruction is known, as published by the 8051 manufacturer. The tight loop is as follows:

NOP	takes 1 instruction cycle to execute
NOP	takes 1 instruction cycle to execute
DJNZ R7, LOOP_1_MILLI	takes 2 instruction cycle to execute
<hr/>	
Total instruction cycles =	4

So, it takes 4 instruction cycles, or 4 µsecs, to execute the loop. Thus, if we execute the loop 250 times it will take a 1000 µsecs (250 x 4), i.e. 1 millisecond, to complete the loops.

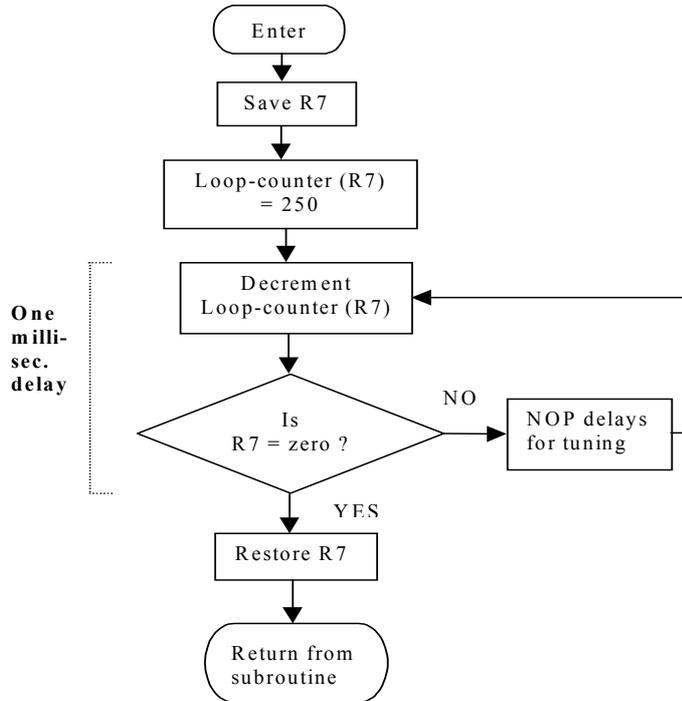


Figure 3.1 ONE_MILLI_SUB flow chart

```

=====
; ONE_MILLI_SUB:
; Subroutine to delay ONE millisecond
; Uses register R7 but preserves this register
=====
ONE_MILLI_SUB:

    PUSH 07h                ; save R7 to stack
    MOV R7, #250d           ; 250 decimal to R7 to count 250 loops

LOOP_1_MILLI:              ; loops 250 times
    NOP                     ; inserted NOPs to cause delay
    NOP                     ;
    DJNZ R7, LOOP_1_MILLI   ; decrement R7, if not zero loop back

    POP 07h                 ; restore R7 to original value

    RET                     ; return from subroutine
  
```

Listing 3.1 Source code for: ONE_MILLI_SUB

Sample routine to delay 1 second: ONE_SEC_SUB

The ONE_SEC_SUB subroutine, when called, causes a delay of ONE second. This subroutine calls the ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine and is structured so that the ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine is called exactly 1000 times, thus causing a total delay of 1000 milli. seconds, i.e. ONE second. (There are some small inaccuracies, which will be ignored for now). Note, R7 is used again as the loop counter (we could have used another register). Since R7 is preserved in the ONE_SEC_SUB subroutine, its value is not corrupted within the ONE_SEC_SUB subroutine. This example shows how one subroutine can call another subroutine, demonstrating the concept of *subroutine nesting*. It is interesting to track the value of the Stack Pointer (SP) during program operation. The flow chart for the ONE_SEC_SUB routine is shown in figure 3.2 and the source code is shown in listing 3.2.

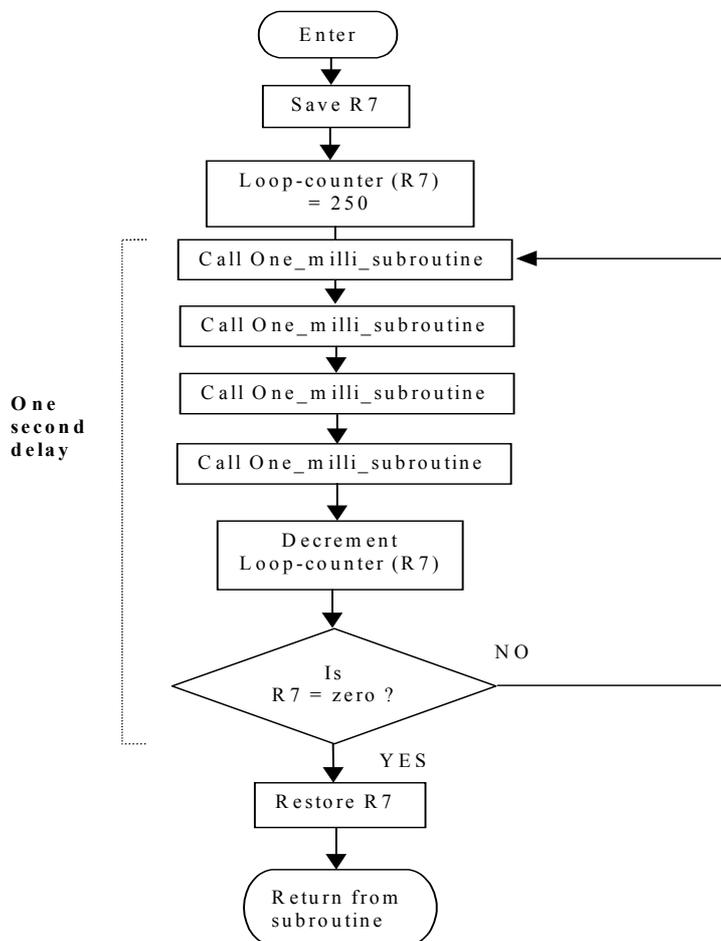


Figure 3.2 ONE_SEC_SUB flow chart

```

=====
; ONE_SEC_SUB
; Subroutine to delay ONE second
; Uses register R7 but preserves this register
=====

ONE_SEC_SUB:

    PUSH 07h                ; save R7 to stack

    MOV R7, #250d           ; 250 decimal to R7 to count 250 loops

LOOP_SEC:                    ; Calls 4 one millise. delays, 250 times

    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB     ; call subroutine to delay 1 millisecond
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB     ; call subroutine to delay 1 millisecond
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB     ; call subroutine to delay 1 millisecond
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB     ; call subroutine to delay 1 millisecond

    DJNZ R7, LOOP_SEC       ; decrement R7, if not zero loop back

    POP 07h                 ; restore R7 to original value

    RET                     ; return from subroutine

```

Listing 3.2 Source code for: ONE_SEC_SUB

Sample routine to delay N seconds: PROG_DELAY_SUB

PROG_DELAY_SUB is a subroutine, which will cause a delay for a specified number of seconds. The subroutine is called with the required number, N, of delay seconds specified in the accumulator. The subroutine calls the ONE_SEC_SUB subroutine, which in turn calls the ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine. Here is a further example of nesting subroutines. The PROG_DELAY_SUB subroutine preserves the accumulator value. The subroutine also checks to see if it has been called with a zero value in the accumulator. If this is the case the subroutine returns immediately without causing further delay. A maximum delay of 255 seconds can be specified, i.e. accumulator can have a maximum value of 0FFh (255 decimal). The program provides a simple example of passing a parameter to a subroutine where the accumulator is used to pass a number N into the subroutine. The flow chart for the PROG_DELAY_SUB routine is given in figure 3.3 and the assembly language source code is given in listing 3.3.

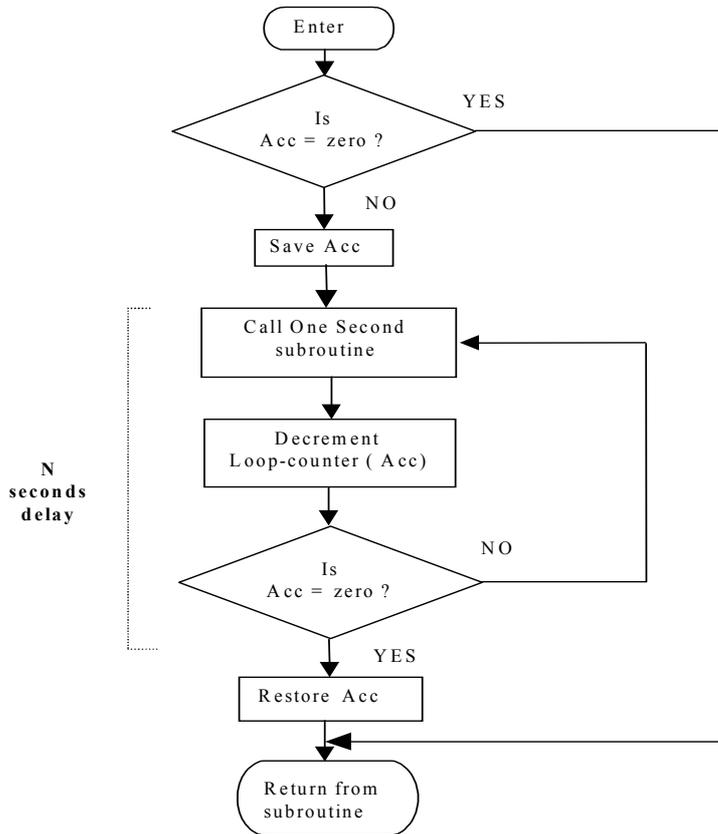


Figure 3.3 PROG_DELAY_SUB flow chart

```

=====
; PROG_DELAY_SUB    Programmable Delay Subroutine
; Subroutine to delay N number of seconds. N is defined in A (accumulator)
; and passed to the subroutine. A is preserved.
; If N=0 the subroutine returns immediately. N max. value is FFh (255d)
=====

```

PROG_DELAY_SUB:

```

    CJNE A, #00h, OK      ; if A=0 then exit
    LJMP DONE            ; exit

```

OK: PUSH Acc ; save A to stack

LOOP_N: ; calls one second delay, no. of times in A

```

    LCALL ONE_SEC_SUB    ; call subroutine to delay 1 second

```

```

    DJNZ Acc, LOOP_N    ; decrement A, if not zero loop back

```

```

    POP Acc              ; restore Acc to original value

```

```

DONE:    RET              ; return from subroutine

```

Listing 3.3 Source code for: PROG_DELAY_SUB

Example application using a time delay

In this example an 8051 microcomputer, clocked at 12MHz., will be connected to a loudspeaker and a program will be written to sound the loudspeaker at a frequency of 500Hz. Figure 3.4 shows the hardware interface where the loudspeaker is connected to Port 1 at pin P1.0. A simple transistor is used as an amplifier as the 8051 output port does not have enough current drive capability to drive the loudspeaker directly. Figure 3.4 also shows a simple timing diagram to explain how the 500Hz. square wave is generated by the software. The ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine is used to provide the basic time delay for each half cycle. Listing 3.4 shows the source code for the program.

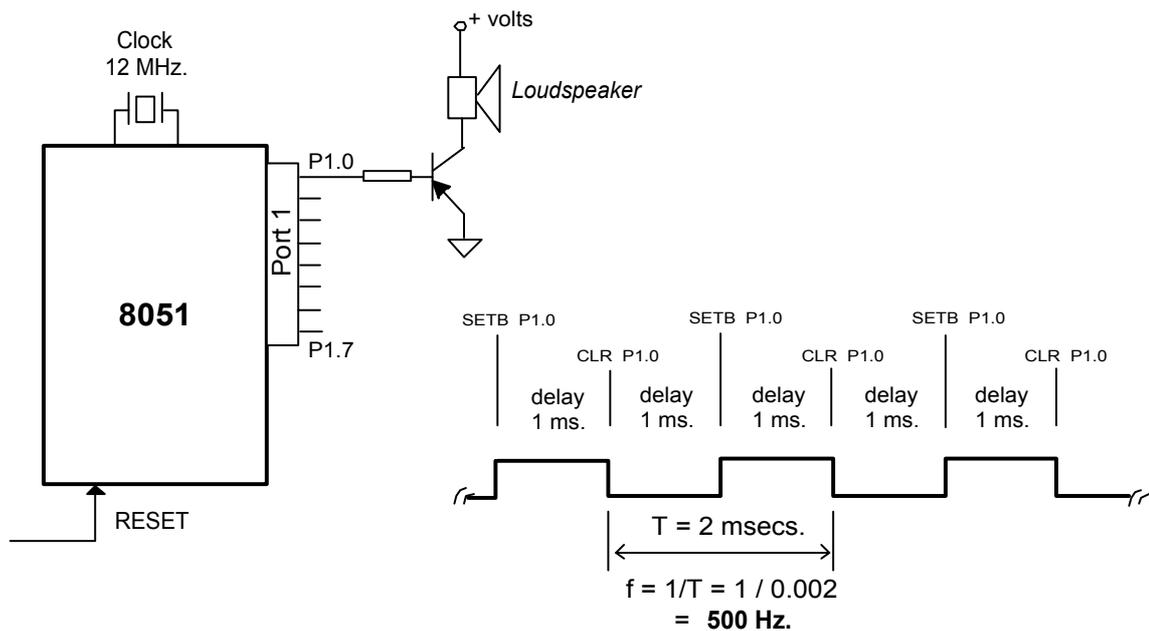


Figure 3.4 Hardware circuit with timing diagram

```

=====
;
; SOUND.A51
; This program sounds a 500Hz. tone at Port 1, pin 0
; Rev. 0.0 D.Heffernan 19-December-2000
=====
;

ORG 0000h                ; start address is 0000h

MOV P1, #00              ; clear all bits on P1

LOOP:
    SETB P1.0            ; set P1.0 high
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB  ; delay one millisecond
    CLR P1.0             ; set P1.0 low
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB  ; delay one millisecond

    LJMP LOOP            ; loop around!

=====
;
; ONE_MILLI_SUB:
; Subroutine to delay ONE millisecond
; Uses register R7 but preserves this register
=====
ONE_MILLI_SUB:

    PUSH 07h             ; save R7 to stack
    MOV R7, #250d        ; 250 decimal to R7 to count 250 loops

LOOP_1_MILLI:            ; loops 250 times
    NOP                  ; inserted NOPs to cause delay
    NOP                  ;
    DJNZ R7, LOOP_1_MILLI ; decrement R7, if not zero loop back

    POP 07h              ; restore R7 to original value

    RET                  ; return from subroutine

END                       ; end of program

```

Listing 3.4 Source code for example program to sound 500Hz. note

3.2 A NOTE ON THE OPERATION OF THE STACK POINTER

When a subroutine is called the current content of the Program Counter (PC) is save to the stack, the low byte of the PC is save first, followed by the high byte. Thus the Stack Pointer (SP) in incremented by 2. When a RET (return from subroutine) instruction is executed the stored PC value on the stack is restored to the PC, thus decrementing the SP by 2.

When a byte is PUSHed to the stack, the SP in incremented by one so as to point to the next available stack location. Conversely, when a byte is POP'ed from the stack the SP is decremented by one.

Figure 3.5 shows the organisation of the stack area within the I-RAM memory space.

The stack values during the operation of the nested subroutine example are shown in figure 3.6. Here it is assumed that the SP is initialised to 07h. This is possible where the alternative register banks are not used in a program. The stack then has a ceiling value of 20h, if we want to preserve the 'bit addressable' RAM area. It is probably more common to initialise the SP higher up in the internal RAM at location 2Fh. The diagram shows how data is saved to the stack.

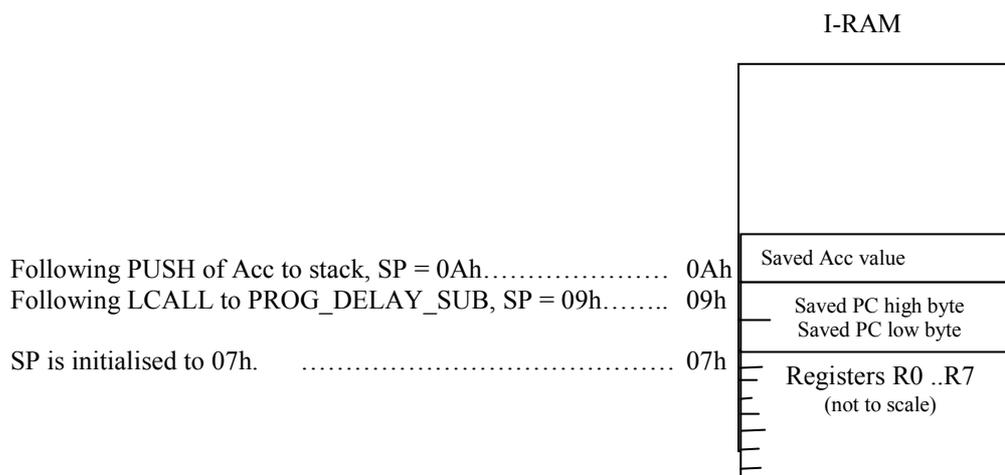


Figure 3.5 The stack operation

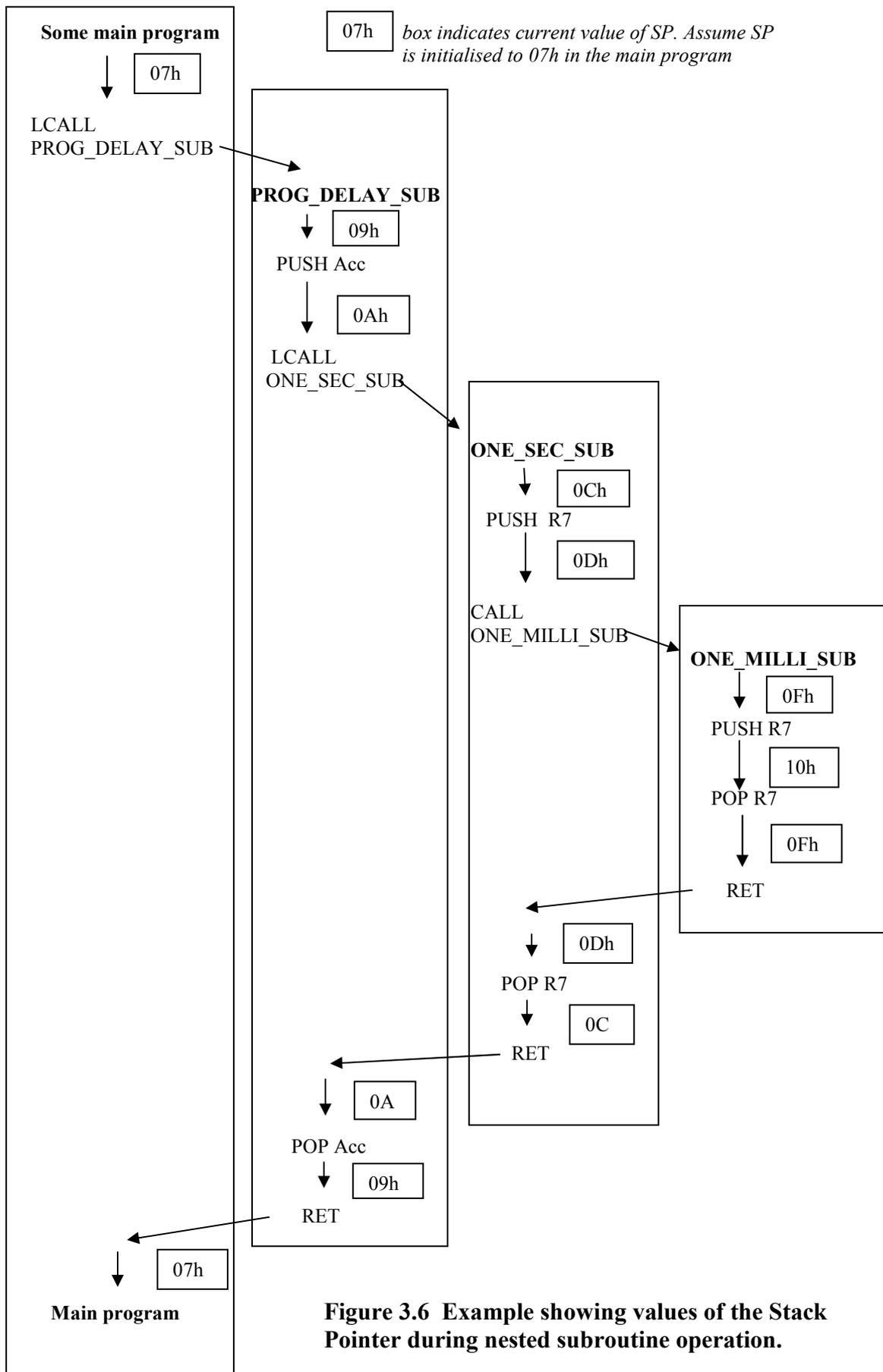


Figure 3.6 Example showing values of the Stack Pointer during nested subroutine operation.

Chapter 4 Interrupts

An interrupt causes a temporary diversion of program execution in a similar sense to a program subroutine call, but an interrupt is triggered by some event, external to the currently operating program. We say the interrupt event occurs *asynchronously* to the currently operating program as it is not necessary to know in advance when the interrupt event is going to occur.

4.1 8051 INTERRUPTS

There are five interrupt sources for the 8051. Since the main RESET input can also be considered as an interrupt, six interrupts can be listed as follows:

Interrupt	Flag	Vector address
System RESET	RST	0000h
External interrupt 0	IE0	0003h
Timer/counter 0	TF0	000Bh
External interrupt 1	IE1	0013h
Timer/counter 1	TF1	001Bh
Serial port	RI or TI	0023h

We will concentrate on the external interrupts for now, and later we will examine the other interrupt sources. Here's a brief look at some of the register bits which will be used to set up the interrupts in the example programs.

The Interrupt Enable, IE, register is an SFR register at location A8h in Internal RAM. The EA bit will enable all interrupts (when set to 1) and the individual interrupts must also be enabled.

Interrupt Enable register

EA <i>msb</i>			ES	ET1	EX1	ET0	EX0 <i>lsb</i>
------------------	--	--	----	-----	-----	-----	-------------------

For example, if we want to enable the two external interrupts we would use the instruction:

```
MOV IE, #10000101B
```

Each of the two external interrupt sources can be defined to trigger on the external signal, either on a negative going edge or on a logic low level state. The negative edge trigger is usually preferred as the interrupt flag is automatically cleared by hardware, in this mode. Two bits in the TCON register are used to define the trigger operation. The TCON register is another SFR register and is located at location 88h in Internal RAM. The other bits in the TCON register will be described later in the context of the hardware Timer/Counters.

TCON register

<i>msb</i>					IT1		IT0 <i>lsb</i>
------------	--	--	--	--	-----	--	-------------------

To define negative edge triggering for the two external interrupts use instructions as follows:

```
SETB IT0          ; negative edge trigger for interrupt 0
SETB IT1          ; negative edge trigger for interrupt 1
```

Figure 4.1 shows the flow of operation when a system is interrupted. In the example it is assumed that some program, say the main program, is executing when the external interrupt INT0 occurs. The 8051 hardware will automatically complete the current machine level (assembler level) instruction and save the Program Counter to the stack. The IE register is also saved to the stack. The IE0 flag is disabled (cleared) so that another INT0 interrupt will be inhibited while the current interrupt is being serviced. The Program Counter is now loaded with the vector location 0003h. This vector address is a predefined address for interrupt INT0 so that program execution will always trap to this address when an INT0 interrupt occurs. Other interrupt sources have uniquely defined vector addresses for this purpose. The set of these vector addresses is referred to as the interrupt vector table.

Program execution is now transferred to address location 0003h. In the example a LJMP instruction is programmed at this address to cause the program to jump to a predefined start address location for the relevant ISR (Interrupt Service Routine) routine. The ISR routine is a user written routine, which defines what action is to occur following the interrupt event. It is good practice to save (PUSH) to the stack any registers used during the ISR routine and to restore (POP) these registers at the end of the ISR routine, thus preserving the registers' contents, just like a register is preserved within a subroutine program. The last instruction in the ISR routine is a RETI (RETurn from Interrupt) instruction and this instruction causes the 8051 to restore the IE register values, enable the INT0 flag, and restore the Program Counter contents from the stack.

Since the Program Counter now contains the address of the next instruction which was to be executed before the INT0 interrupt occurred, the main program continues as if it had never being interrupted. Thus only the temporal behaviour of the interrupted program has been affected by the interrupt; the logic of the program has not been otherwise affected.

4.2 EXAMPLE INTERRUPT DRIVEN PROGRAM

Figure 4.2 shows an oven control system where a heating oven, as part of a manufacturing process, is to be controlled within the temperature range, between 190°C and 200 °C . An 8051 microcomputer based system is used to control the temperature. The oven has two built-in temperature sensors. The low threshold sensor outputs a logic 0 if the temperature is below 190 °C, otherwise it outputs a logic high level (say 5 volts). The high threshold sensor outputs a logic low level if the temperature exceeds 200 °C, otherwise it outputs a logic high level. The temperature sensors are connected to the 8051's interrupt inputs, INT0 and INT1, as shown in the diagram. Both of these interrupt inputs are set to trigger at negative voltage transitions. The microcomputer outputs a logic 1 on the P1.0 output pin to turn on the heater element and it outputs a logic 0 to turn off the heating element. Assume the necessary hardware driver circuitry, to switch power to the oven, is included in the oven.

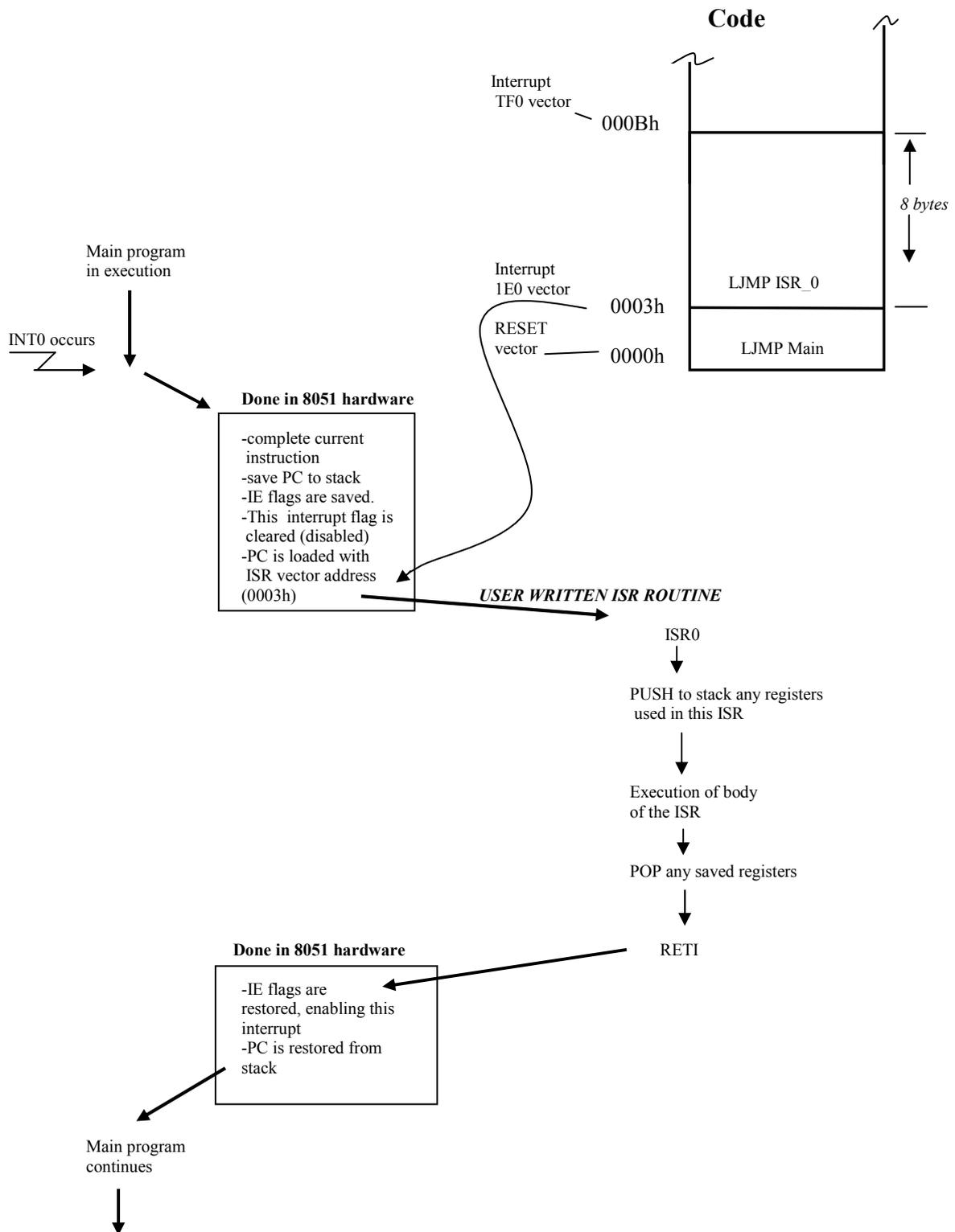


Figure 4.1 Interrupt operation example

The microcomputer's program is written so that an interrupt from the low threshold sensor will cause the heating element to turn on and interrupt from the high threshold sensor will cause the heating element to turn off. Figure 4.3 shows a timing diagram for the oven's operation.

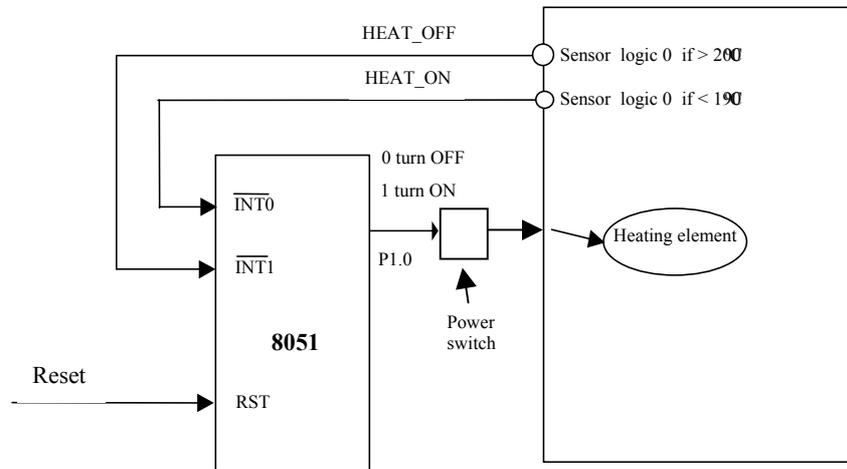


Figure 4.2 Temperature controlled heating oven

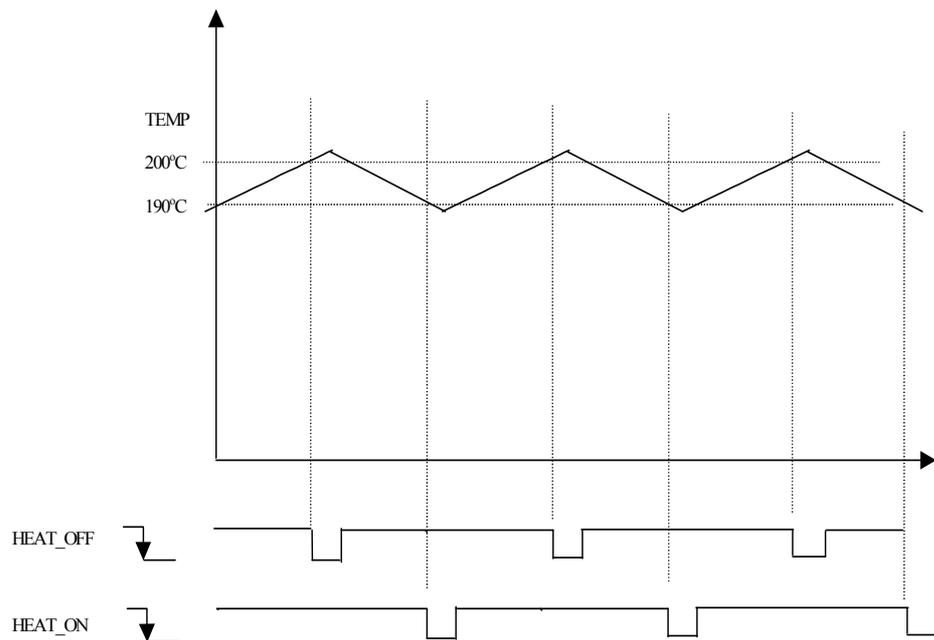


Figure 4.3 Timing diagram for the oven control

The assembler language source program to control the oven is shown in listing 4.1. Since the ISR routines (**I**nterrupt **S**ervice **R**outines) are very short they could have been positioned within the 8 bytes of memory available at the respective vector locations. However, the ISR routines are located higher up in memory to show the memory positioning structure which would be used for larger ISR routines. Three vector locations are defined at the beginning of the program. The RESET vector, at address 0000h, contains a jump instruction to the MAIN program. Location 0003h is the vector location for external interrupt 0, and this contains a jump instruction to the relevant ISR routine, ISR0. External interrupt 1 uses the vector location 0013h which contains a jump instruction to the ISR routine, ISR1. In this oven control program example the main program just loops around doing nothing. When an interrupt occurs, the required action is carried out by the relevant ISR routine. However, in a more sophisticated program the main program could be doing something very useful and would be interrupted only when the oven temperature needs to be adjusted, on or off. Thus the main program does not have to waste time polling the sensor inputs.

The resulting allocation of space in code memory for the OVEN.A51 program is shown in figure 4.4

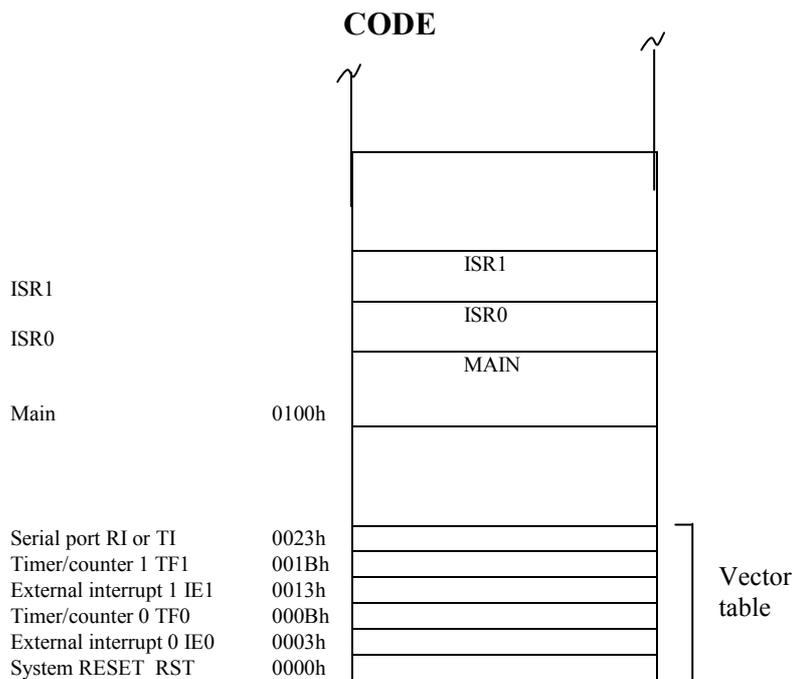


Figure 4.4 Code positioning in code memory space

```

=====
;
; OVEN.A51
; Simple interrupt driven program to control oven temperature. If 200C
; sensor goes low INT1 interrupts causing ISR1 to turn off heater. If
; 190C sensor goes low INT0 interrupts causing ISR0 to turn on heater.
; Port 1, bit0, i.e. P1.0 connects to the heater.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    12-Mar-99
=====

    ORG 0000h      ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN     ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

    ORG 0003h     ; vector address for interrupt 0
    LJMP ISR0    ; jump to start of ISR0

    ORG 0013h     ; vector address for interrupt 1
    LJMP ISR1    ; jump to start of ISR1

=====
;
; MAIN enables the interrupts and defines negative trigger operation.
; Heater is turned on and program just loops letting the ISRs do the work.
;
=====
    ORG 0100h     ; defines where MAIN starts..
MAIN:
    MOV IE, #10000101B ; enable external interrupts IE0, IE1
    SETB IT0        ; negative edge trigger for interrupt 0
    SETB IT1        ; negative edge trigger for interrupt 1

; Initialise heater ON
    SETB P1.0      ; heater is ON

LOOP:
    LJMP LOOP     ; loop around doing nothing!

=====
;
; ISR0 simply turns ON the heater
;
=====
ISR0:
    SETB P1.0     ; turn ON heater
    RETI          ; return from interrupt

=====
;
; ISR1 simply turns OFF the heater
;
=====
ISR1:
    CLR P1.0      ; turn OFF heater
    RETI          ; return from interrupt

END              ; end of program

```

Listing 4.1 Program for interrupt driven oven control

4.3 OTHER SOURCES OF INTERRUPTS

Figure 4.5 shows the set of 8051 interrupt sources. If we follow the external interrupt INT0, for example, we see that this external interrupt connects to the processor at the P3.2 pin. Note Port 3 can be used as a standard input/output port as shown earlier – but various Port 3 pins have alternative functionality. When INT0 is activated (negative edge usually), internally within the 8051 the EX0 request is raised. This flags an interrupt request but the relevant interrupt bit within the IE register must be set, along with the EA bit if this interrupt request is to raise an interrupt flag. The interrupt flag IE0 is then raised and causes the program counter (PC) to vector to vector location 0003h, as discussed earlier. Note, the Timer/Counter interrupt flags can be software polled even if the ETx bits are not enabled. Interrupts can also be software generated by setting the interrupt flags in software. The interrupt flags are accessible as flags on the TCON and SCON registers as follows:

TCON register

TF1 <i>msb</i>		TF0		IE1	IT1	IE0	IT0 <i>lsb</i>
--------------------------	--	------------	--	------------	-----	------------	-------------------

SCON register

<i>msb</i>						TI	RI <i>lsb</i>
------------	--	--	--	--	--	-----------	-------------------------

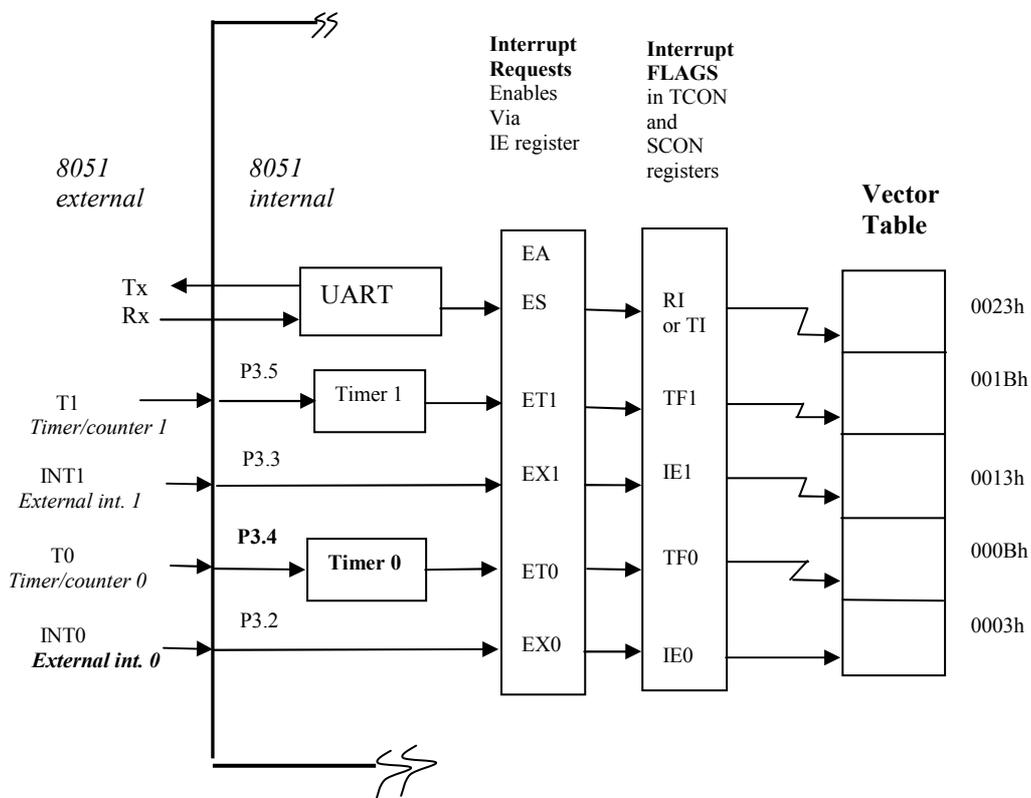


Figure 4.5 Interrupt sources

4.4 INTERRUPT PRIORITY LEVEL STRUCTURE

An individual interrupt source can be assigned one of two priority levels. The Interrupt Priority, IP, register is an SFR register used to program the priority level for each interrupt source. A logic 1 specifies the *high* priority level while a logic 0 specifies the *low* priority level.

IP register

x	x	PT2	PS	PT1	PX1	PT1	PX0
<i>msb</i>							<i>lsb</i>

IP.7	x	reserved
IP.6	x	reserved
IP.5	PT2	Timer/counter-2 interrupt priority (8052 only, not 8051)
IP.4	PS	Serial port interrupt priority
IP.3	PT1	Timer/Counter-1 interrupt priority
IP.2	PX1	External interrupt-1 priority
IP.1	PT0	Timer/Counter-0 interrupt priority
IP.0	PX0	External interrupt-0 priority

An ISR routine for a high priority interrupt cannot be interrupted. An ISR routine for a low priority interrupt can be interrupted by a high priority interrupt, but not by a low priority interrupt.

If two interrupt requests, at different priority levels, arrive at the same time then the high priority interrupt is serviced first. If two, or more, interrupt requests at the same priority level arrive at the same time then the interrupt to be serviced is selected based on the order shown below. Note, this order is used only to resolve simultaneous requests. Once an interrupt service begins it cannot be interrupted by another interrupt at the same priority level.

Interrupt source	Priority within a given level
IE0	<i>highest</i>
TF0	
IE1	
TF1	
RI, TI	
TF2 (8052, not 8051)	<i>lowest</i>

Chapter 5 Timer/Counters

The 8051 has two internal sixteen bit hardware Timer/Counters. Each Timer/Counter can be configured in various modes, typically based on 8-bit or 16-bit operation. The 8052 product has an additional (third) Timer/Counter.

Figure 5.1 provides us with a brief refresher on what a hardware counter looks like. This is a circuit for a simple 3-bit counter which counts from 0 to 7 and then overflows, setting the overflow flag. A 3-bit counter would not be very useful in a microcomputer so it is more typical to find 8-bit and 16-bit counter circuits.

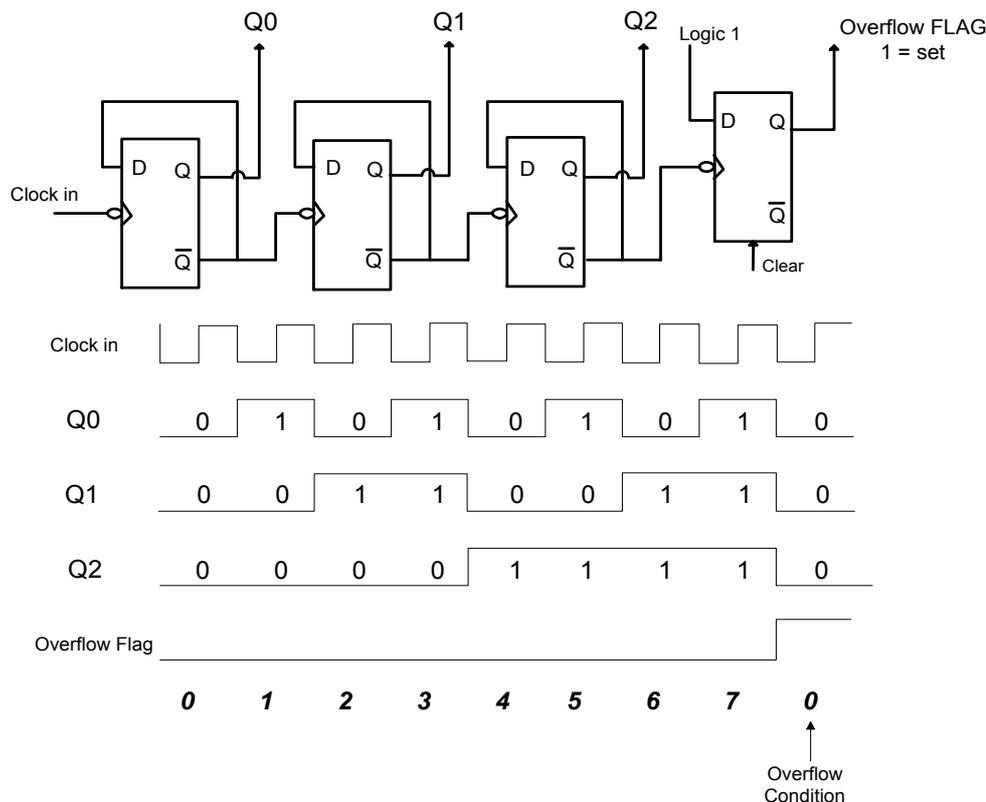


Figure 5.1 3-bit counter circuit

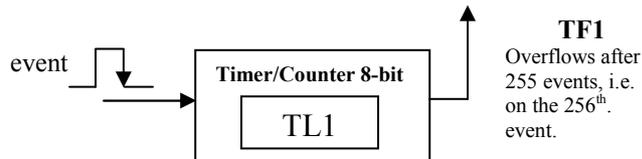
5.1 8-bit COUNTER OPERATION

First let us consider a simple 8-bit counter. Since this is a modulo-8 set up we are concerned with 256 numbers in the range 0 to 255 ($2^8 = 256$). The counter will count in a continuous sequence as follows:

Hex	Binary	Decimal
00h	00000000	0
01h	00000001	1
02h	00000010	2
.	.	.
.	.	.
FEh	11111110	254

FFh	11111111	255	
00h	00000000	0	→ here the counter overflows to zero
01h	00000001	1	
etc.			
etc.			

We will use **Timer/Counter 1** in our examples below.



Supposing we were to initialise this Timer/Counter with a number, say 252, then the counter would overflow after just four event pulses, i.e.:

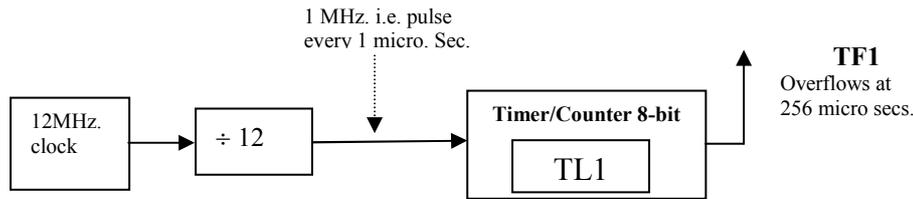
FCh	11111100	252	counter is initialised at 252
FDh	11111101	253	
FEh	11111110	254	
FFh	11111111	255	
00h	00000000	0	→ here the counter overflows

An 8-bit counter can count 255 events before overflow, and overflows on the 256th event. When initialised with a predefined value of say 252 it overflows after counting just four events. Thus the number of events to be counted can be programmed by pre-loading the counter with a given number value.

5.2 8-bit TIMER OPERATION

The 8051 internally divides the processor clock by 12. If a 12 MHz. processor clock is used then a 1 MHz. instruction rate clock, or a pulse once every microsecond, is realised internally within the chip. If this 1 microsecond pulse is connected to a Timer/Counter input, in place of an *event* input, then the Timer/Counter becomes a timer which can delay by up to 255 microseconds. There is a clear difference between a timer and a counter. The counter will count events, up to 255 events before overflow, and the timer will count time pulses, thus creating delays up to 255 microseconds in our example.

To be precise we would refer to the *counter* as an *event counter* and we would refer to the *timer* as an *interval timer*.



If the timer is initialised to zero it will count 256 microseconds before overflow. If the timer is initialised to a value of 252, for example, it will count just 4 microseconds before overflow. Thus this timer is programmable between 1 microsecond and 256 microseconds.

5.2.1 HOW DO WE PROGRAM THE 8-BIT TIMER/COUNTER?

Let's look at how to do the following:

- o Configure the Timer/Counter as a TIMER or as a COUNTER
- o Program the Timer/Counter with a value between 0 and 255
- o Enable and disable the Timer/Counter
- o How to know when the timer has overflowed – interrupt vs. polling.

The TMOD register (**Timer Mode Control**) is an SFR register at location 89h in internal RAM and is used to define the Timer/Counter mode of operation.

TMOD register

Gate <i>msb</i>	C/T	M1	M0	Gate	C/T	M1	M0 <i>Lsb</i>
----- timer 1 -----				----- timer 0 -----			

Consider Timer/Counter 1 only. The Gate bit will be ignored for now and will be set to 0 in the examples. The C/T bit is set to 1 for COUNTER operation and it is set to 0 for TIMER operation. M1 and M2 bits define different modes, where mode 2 is the 8 bit mode, i.e.:

M1	M0	
0	0	mode 0: 13 bit mode (seldom used).
0	1	mode 1: 16-bit mode
1	0	mode 2: 8-bit mode (with auto reload feature)
1	1	mode 3: ignore for now

To run in TIMER mode using 8-bit operation, the TMOD register is initialised as follows:

```
MOV TMOD, #00100000b ; assume timer 0 is not considered
```

Program the Timer/Counter value

The 8-bit Timer/Counter is pre-programmed with a value in the range 0..255. This is achieved by writing this value into the TH1 register for the Timer/Counter. TH1 is an SFR register (located at 8Dh in Internal RAM). An example is as follows:

```
MOV TH1, #129d ; Timer/Counter 1 is programmed for 129 counts
```

How to know when the timer has overflowed?

The TCON register (Timer Control) has some bits which represent Timer/Counter status flags as well as some bits which can be set or cleared to control the Timer/Counter operation. The relevant bits for Timer/Counter 1 are bolded in the diagram. TR1 is set to 1 to enable Timer/Counter 1. Clearing TR1 turns the Timer/Counter off. TF1 is the Timer/Counter overflow flag. When the Timer/Counter overflows TF1 goes to a logic 1. Under interrupt operation TF1 is automatically cleared by hardware when the processor vectors to the associated ISR routine.

TCON register

TF1 <i>msb</i>	TR1	TF0	TR0	IE1	IT1	IE0	IT0 <i>lsb</i>
--------------------------	------------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------------------

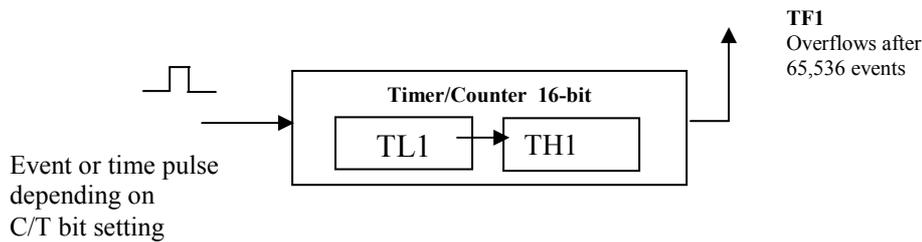
Auto reloading of the 8-bit Timer/Counter

The TL1 SFR register (located at 8Bh in Internal RAM) represents the current value in the 8-bit Timer/Counter. The Timer/Counter can be programmed by initialising this register with a number between 0 and 255. However, there is an interesting automatic reload feature in *mode 2*, where, when TL1 overflows (its value reaches 0), the Timer/Counter is automatically reloaded with the 8-bit value stored in SFR register TH1 (The pre-programmed value in TH1 does not change during this operation).

5.3 THE 16 BIT TIMER/CONTER

When the Timer/Counter is configured for *mode 1* operation it operates in 16 bit mode. Since this is a modulo-16 set up we are concerned with 65,536 numbers in the range 0 to 65,535 ($2^{16} = 65,536$). Consider a 16 bit Timer/Counter as shown below, which will count in the sequence as follows:

Hex	Binary	Decimal	
0000h	0000000000000000	0	
0001h	0000000000000001	1	
0010h	0000000000000010	2	
.	.	.	
FFFEh	1111111111111110	65,534	
FFFFh	1111111111111111	65,535	
00000h	0000000000000000	0	→ here it overflows to zero.



Now we have a 16-bit Timer/Counter and we can preload it with a sixteen bit number so as to cause a delay from between 1 to 65,535 microseconds (65.535 millisecs.), or in counter mode it can count between 1 and 65,535 events. To preload the Timer/Counter value simply write the most significant byte into the TH1 register and the least significant byte into the TL1 register. The 16-bit counter is not automatically reloaded following an overflow and such reloading must be explicitly programmed. We will see this in some examples below.

Interrupt vs. polling operation

When a Timer/Counter overflow occurs it can be arranged to automatically cause an interrupt. Alternatively the Timer/Counter interrupt can be disabled and the software can test the TF1 (Timer 1 flag) bit in the TCON register to check that the overflow has occurred.

It is also possible to read the Timer/Counter value (TH1, TL1) so as to ascertain the current value. (Beware, care must be exercised in reading the 16 bit values in this manner as the low byte might overflow into the high byte between the successive read operations).

5.4 EXAMPLE PROGRAMS

Here we will look at some short example programs to illustrate the following:

- o TIMER1.A51 8-bit TIMER, polled overflow flag. See listing 5.1.
- o TIMER2.A51 16-bit TIMER, polled overflow flag. See listing 5.2.
- o TIMER3.A51 16-bit TIMER, interrupt driven. See listing 5.3.
- o TIMER4.A51 16 bit COUNTER, interrupt driven. See listing 5.4.

TIMER1.A51 program example

The TIMER1.A51 program preloads the timer with value of *minus 250 decimal*. This means that the TIMER will have to count 250 microseconds to reach overflow. Port 1 bit 7, P1.7, is complemented every time the TIMER overflows hence a square wave with a period of 500 microseconds (2 x 250) is produced at P1.7, realising a frequency of 2kHz. The software simply polls the overflow bit, TF1, and acts on TF1 being set. Note, the TIMER is automatically reloaded (with $-250d$) each time it overflows so there is no need to explicitly reload the TIMER initialisation value. Note the line where the TIMER value is initialised, as follows:

```
MOV TH1, #-250d
```

Since $(256-250) = 6$, this could have been written as:

```
MOV TH1, #6d
```

Figure 5.3 (a) shows a programmer's view of the 8-bit Timer/Counter showing how the Timer/Counter is accessed via the SFR registers.

TIMER2.A51 program example

The TIMER2.A51 program uses Timer/Counter 1 in 16 bit mode (mode 1). This example program delays for 10 milliseconds. By complementing P1.7 at every TIMER overflow a square wave with a period of 20 milliseconds, or a 50Hz. square wave, is achieved. Note how the 16-bit timer is not automatically reloaded and this must be explicitly done within the program. Since the timer is stopped for short periods during the program operation this will introduce some inaccuracies into the timing loop. Figure 5.3 (b) shows a programmer's view of the 16-bit Timer/Counter showing how the Timer/Counter is accessed via the SFR registers.

Note the Timer/Counter in the standard 8052 product (Timer/Counter 2) does have additional features such as 16-bit mode auto reload facility.

TIMER3.A51 program example

The TIMER3.A51 program shows a 16-bit TIMER operation where the overflow flag TF1 causes an interrupt. Like the TIMER2.A51 program, this program generates a 50Hz. Square wave; but because it is an interrupt driven program it does not need to use valuable processing time for polling purposes. The loop where it sits 'doing nothing' could be used for more productive processing, doing other tasks. Every time the TIMER overflows the interrupt can be serviced and then the program can return to the more productive work.

TIMER4.A51 program example

The TIMER4.A51 program shows an example where the 16-bit Timer/Counter is used as an *event counter*. The counter counts 20,000 events and then sets P1.7 to a logic high. The program is interrupt driven so when TF1 is set the program vectors to location 001Bh (Timer/Counter 1). A real application example for this sort of program might be to count *n* devices passing down a manufacturing assembly line and then to take some action once *n* devices have passed through. Figure 5.2 illustrates the example.

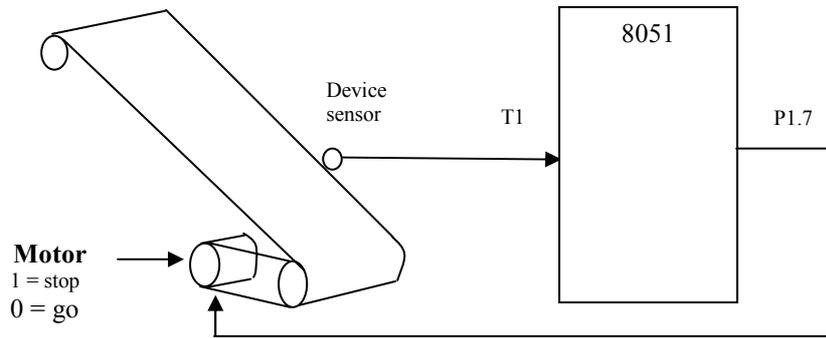
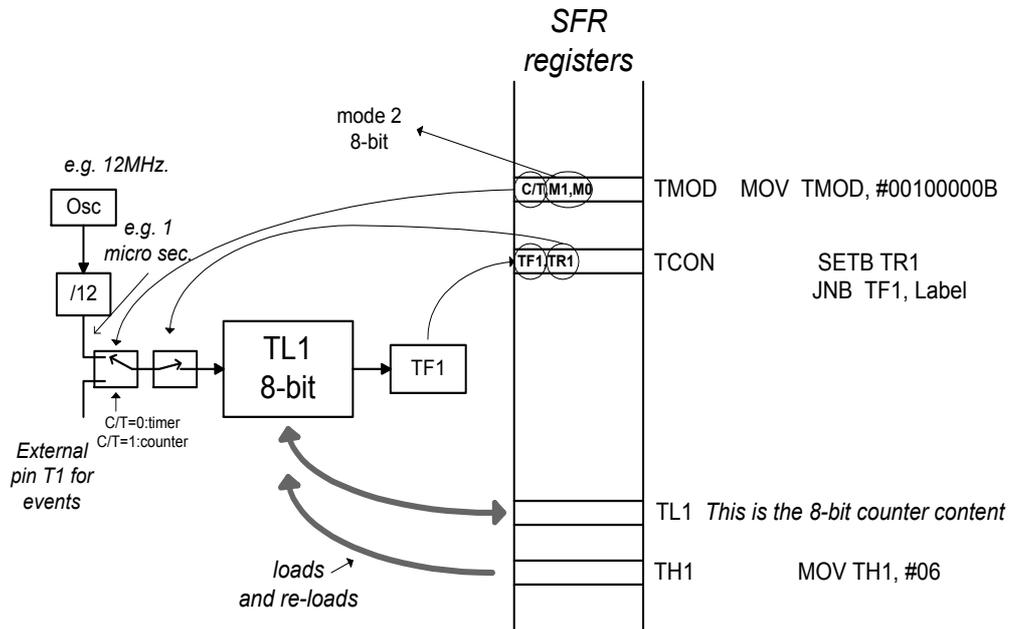
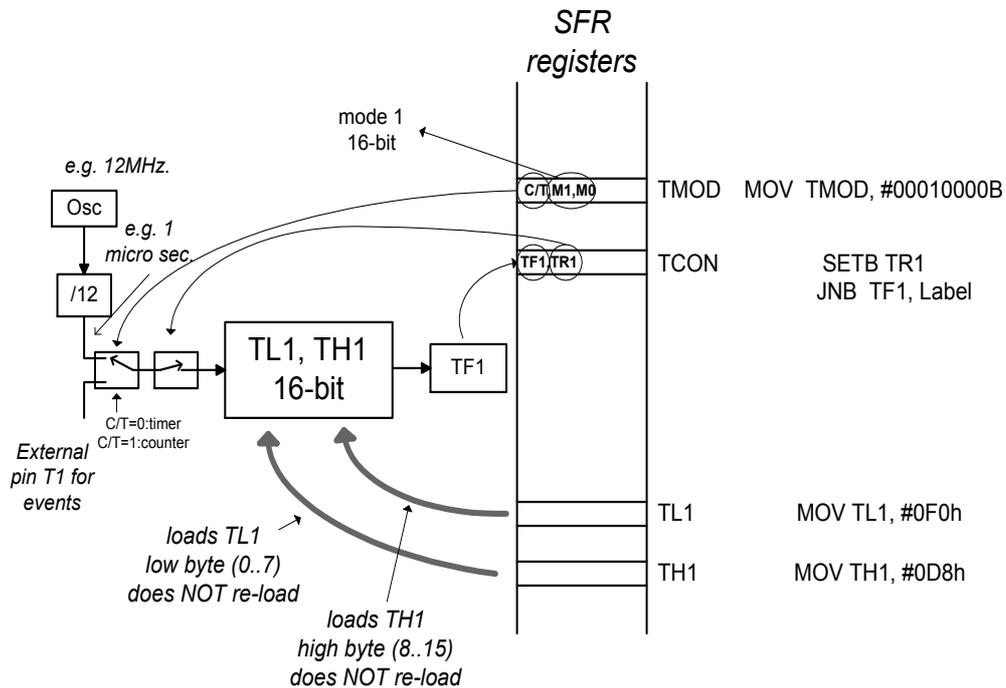


Figure 5.2 Counting items on a conveyer line.



a) Programmer's view of Timer/Counter 1, Mode 2, 8-bit



b) Programmer's view of Timer/Counter 1, Mode 1, 16-bit

Figure 5.3 Programmer's view of Timer/Counter

```

=====
;
; TIMER1.A51
; Example program to generate a 2KHz. square wave at P1.7 using
; Timer/counter 1 in 8-bit TIMER mode. Polled , NOT interrupt driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    17-Mar-99
=====

                ORG 0000h      ; entry address for 8051 RESET
                LJMP MAIN      ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

;
;=====
; MAIN initialises Timer/counter 1 and loops polling Timer overflow flag TF1
; and toggles Port 1 bit 7 each time Timer overflows (every 250 micro secs.)
;=====
                ORG 0100h      ; entry address for main
MAIN:

                MOV TH1, #-250d      ; timer is initialised with -250 to count 250 usecs.
                MOV TMOD, #00100000b ; timer 1 is set for mode 2, TIMER operation
                SETB TR1            ; start Timer 1

LOOP:
                JNB TF1, LOOP        ; loop around until Timer 1 overflows
                CLR TF1              ; clear overflow flag
                CPL P1.7             ; complement P1 bit 7
                LJMP LOOP           ; jump back for polling

END

```

Listing 5.1 TIMER1.A51

```

=====
;
; TIMER2.A51
; Example program to generate a 50Hz. square wave at P1.7 using
; Timer/counter 1 in 16-bit mode. Polled, NOT interrupt driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    17-Mar-99
=====

        ORG 0000h      ; entry address for 8051 RESET
        LJMP MAIN     ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

;
;
=====
; MAIN initialises Timer 1 and loops polling Timer overflow flag TF1
; and toggles port 1 bit 7 each time Timer overflows (every 10 milli.secs.)
; 65536 - 10000 = 55536, or D8F0h
;
=====
        ORG 0100h      ; entry address for main
MAIN:
        MOV TMOD, #00010000b    ; Timer 1 is set for mode 1, TIMER operation

LOOP:   MOV TH1, #0D8h          ; Timer 1 high byte is loaded
        MOV TL1, #0F0h          ; Timer 1 low byte is loaded
        SETB TR1                ; start Timer 1

;
;
POLL:
        JNB TF1, POLL           ; loop around until Timer 1 overflows
        CLR TR1                 ; stop Timer 1
        CLR TF1                 ; clear overflow flag
        CPL P1.7                ; complement P1 bit 7
        LJMP LOOP              ; jump back for polling

END

```

Listing 5.2 TIMER2.A51

```

=====
;
; TIMER3.A51
; Example program to generate a 50Hz. square wave at P1.7 using
; Timer/counter 1 in 16-bit mode. INTERRUPT driven.
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    17-Mar-99
=====

    ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN         ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

    ORG 001Bh         ; vector address for interrupt
    LJMP ISR_TIMER1  ; jump to start of ISR_TIMER1

=====
;
; MAIN initialises Timer 1 and enables Timer 1 interrupt, then
; it just waits around letting the interrupt routine ISR_TIMER1 do the work.
; The Timer 1 is loaded with a value (65536 - 10000 = 55536,
; or D8F0h) so that it interrupts every 10 milliseconds.
;
=====
    ORG 0100h          ; entry address for main
MAIN:
    MOV TMOD, #00010000b ; Timer 1 is set for mode 1, TIMER operation

    MOV TH1, #0D8h     ; Timer 1 high byte is loaded
    MOV TL1, #0F0h     ; Timer 1 low byte is loaded
    MOV IE, #10001000b ; enable Timer 1 interrupt
    SETB TR1          ; start Timer 1

LOOP: LJMP LOOP        ; just loop around doing nothing

=====
;
; ISR_TIMER1
; In Timer 16 bit operation the Timer 1 must be reloaded each
; time it overflows. The overflow flag is cleared automatically.
;
=====
ISR_TIMER1:

    CLR TR1           ; stop Timer 1
    MOV TH1, #0D8h    ; reloads Timer 1 values in TH1
    MOV TL1, #0F0h    ; and in TL1

    CPL P1.7         ; complement P1 bit 7
    SETB TR1        ; start Timer 1

    RETI             ; return from interrupt

END

```

Listing 5.3 TIMER3.A51

```

=====
;
; TIMER4.A51
; Example program to count 20,000 events and to generate an interrupt
; following the 20,000 events, and then set bit P1.7 high. This
; example shows Timer/counter 1 being used as a COUNTER. The program is
; INTERRUPT driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    17-Mar-99
=====

    ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN         ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

    ORG 001Bh         ; vector address for interrupt
    LJMP ISR_TIMER1  ; jump to start of ISR_TIMER1

=====
;
; MAIN initialises Timer 1 as a COUNTER and enables Timer 1
; interrupt, then
; it just waits around letting the interrupt routine do the work.
; The Timer 1 is loaded with a value (65,536 - 20,000 = 45,536,
; or B1E0h) so that it interrupts after 20,000 events.
=====
    ORG 0100h          ; entry address for main
MAIN:
    MOV TMOD, #01010000b ; Timer 1 is set for mode 1, COUNTER operation

    MOV TH1, #0B1h     ; Timer 1 high byte is loaded
    MOV TL1, #0E0h     ; Timer 1 low byte is loaded
    MOV IE, #10001000b ; enable Timer/counter 1 interrupt
    SETB TR1           ; start Timer/counter 1

    LOOP: LJMP LOOP    ; just loop around doing nothing

=====
;
; ISR_TIMER1
; P1.7 is set to logic 1 to flag that 20,000 counts have occurred
=====
ISR_TIMER1:

    CLR TR1           ; stop Timer 1 to be safe

    SETB P1.7        ; set high P1 bit 7

    RETI             ; return from interrupt

END

```

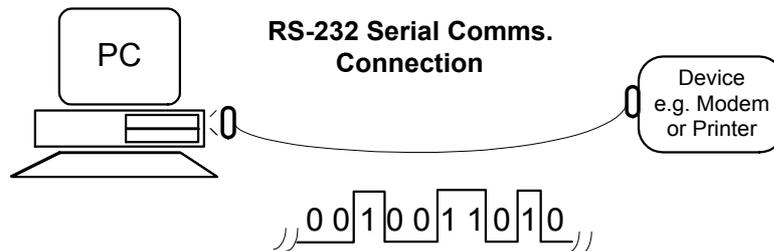
Listing 5.4 TIMER4.A51

Chapter 6 The 8051 Serial Port

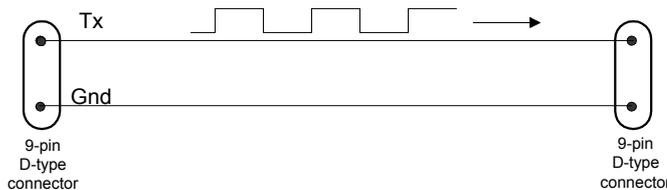
6.1 OVERVIEW OF ASYNCHRONOUS SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS

RS-232 Serial Communications

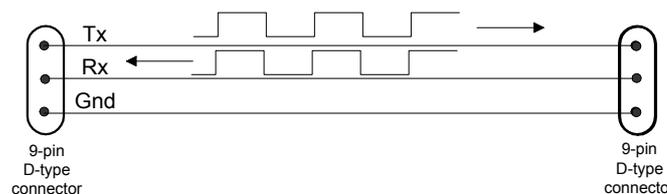
The EIA RS-232 serial communication standard is a universal standard, originally used to connect teletype terminals to modem devices. Figure 6.1(a) shows a PC connected to a device such as a modem or a serial printer using the RS-232 connection. In a modern PC the RS-232 interface is referred to as a COM port. The COM port uses a 9-pin D-type connector to attach to the RS-232 cable. The RS-232 standard defines a 25-pin D-type connector but IBM reduced this connector to a 9-pin device so as to reduce cost and size. Figure 6.1(b) shows a simple simplex serial communication link where data is being transmitted serially from left to right. A single Tx (transmit) wire is used for transmission and the return (Gnd) wire is required to complete the electrical circuit. Figure 6.1(c) shows the inclusion of another physical wire to support full-duplex (or half-duplex) serial communication. The RS-232 (COM port) standard includes additional signal wires for “hand-shake” purposes, but the fundamental serial communication can be achieved with just two or three wires as shown.



a) Serial communication link



b) Simple transmission using two wires



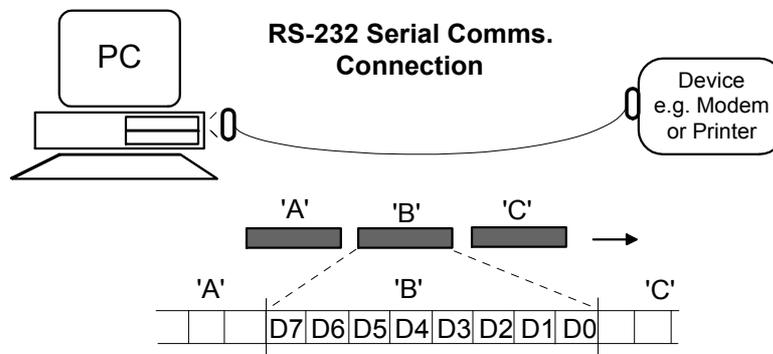
c) Two way communication using three wires

Figure 6.1 Serial communications

The serial data is transmitted at a predefined rate, referred to as the baud rate. The term baud rate refers to the number of state changes per second which is the same as the bit rate for this particular communication scheme. Typical baud rates are: 9600 bps; 19,200 bps; 56kbps etc.

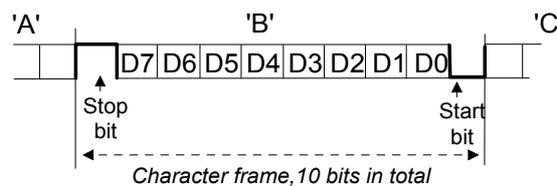
Asynchronous Serial Communications

Since data is sent in a serial fashion, without any reference to a timing clock to help synchronise the receiver clock in terms of frequency and phase, the system is said to be non-synchronous, or asynchronous. The baud rate clocks at each end of the RS-232 link are set to the same frequency values but there is no mechanism to synchronise these clocks. Figure 6.2(a) shows three bytes transmitted by the PC. Assume the bytes are *ascii* coded to represent the characters A, B and C. The receiver needs to know exactly where each character starts and finishes. To achieve this the data character is framed with a start bit at the beginning of each character and a stop bit at the end of each character. Figure 6.2(b) shows the start bit as a low logic level and the stop bit as a high logic level. Thus the receiver can detect the start bit and it then clocks in the

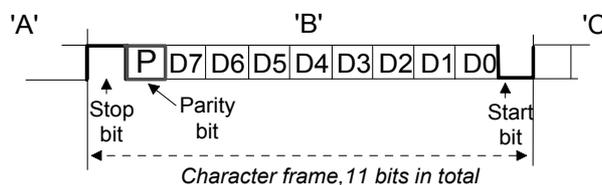


next eight

a) Sequence without framing



b) Framed data



c) Framed data including a parity bit

Figure 6.2 Asynchronous transmission

character bits. The receiver then expects to find the stop bit, existing as a logic high bit. This is a crude form of synchronisation applied to a system which is inherently

non-synchronous. A high price is paid for this form of synchronisation in terms of bandwidth, as for every eight bits of data transmitted two bits are required to support the framing. Ten bits are transmitted to support eight bits of data thus the scheme is, at best, just eighty percent efficient. Figure 6.2(c) shows the inclusion of an additional parity bit for error control purposes.

Single Bit Parity for Error Checking

All communication systems are prone to errors. An RS-232 communication system is susceptible to bit errors as data bits can become corrupted (bit changes from 1 to 0 or from 0 to 1). Such corruption is often caused by unwanted electrical noise coupled into the wiring. Figure 6.3(a) shows an example where an 8-bit data character is transmitted and a single bit becomes corrupted during transmission. The receiver gets the wrong data. The receiver cannot know that the received data contains an error. Figure 6.2(b) show a single bit parity scheme where the parity bit is calculated at the transmitter and this parity bit is sent along with the eight data bits. The receiver can apply a test on the received data to establish whether or not an error exists in the

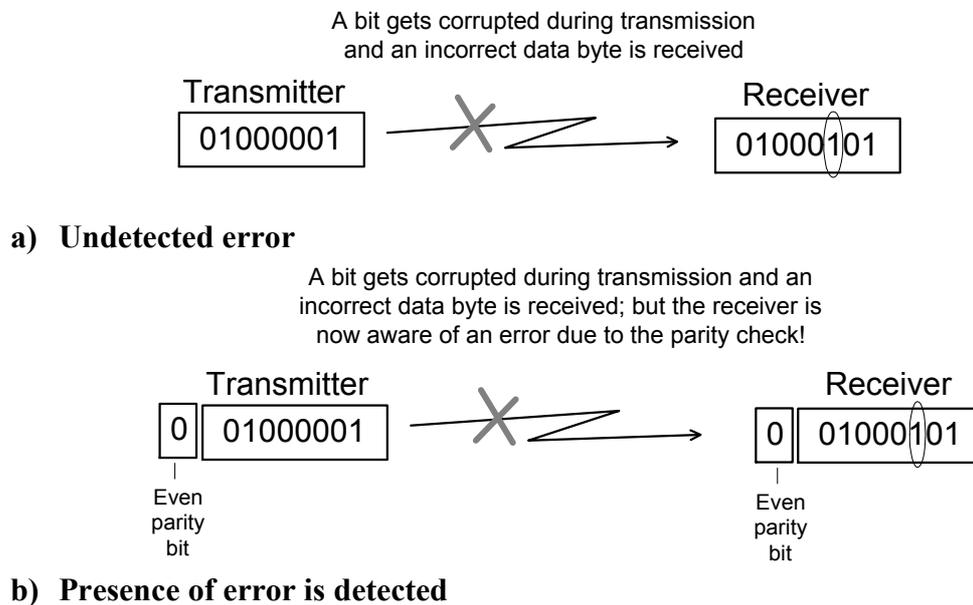


Figure 6.3 Single bit parity error detection

received data. In this example *even* parity is used. The parity bit is calculated at the transmitter so that all of the bits, including the parity bit add up to an even number of ones. Thus, in the example, the parity bit is set to 0 so that an even number of ones (two ones) exists across the 9 bits. The receiver checks the received data for *even* parity and in this case finds that the parity test fails. The receiver now knows that an error exists and it is up to a higher layer protocol to act on the error. Note, the receiver does not know which bit is in error, it is simply aware than an error exist in the received data. If the parity bit itself had been corrupted the same parity test would detect this error also. If any odd number of bits (1, 3, 5, 7 or 9 bits) are in error the simple parity test will detect the error. However, if an even number of bits are in error (2, 4, 6 or 8 bits) then such errors will go unnoticed in the parity test. Since the majority of errors in communication systems are single bit errors then the simple single bit parity scheme is worthwhile. There are more complex techniques used to provide more rigorous error checking and error correction.

6.2 THE 8051 UART

The 8051 includes a hardware UART to support serial asynchronous communications so that, typically, the product can support RS-232 standard communication. The UART (Universal Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter) block diagram is shown in figure 6.4. In our examples the BAUD clocks are, in fact, a single clock source provided by Timer/Counter 1.

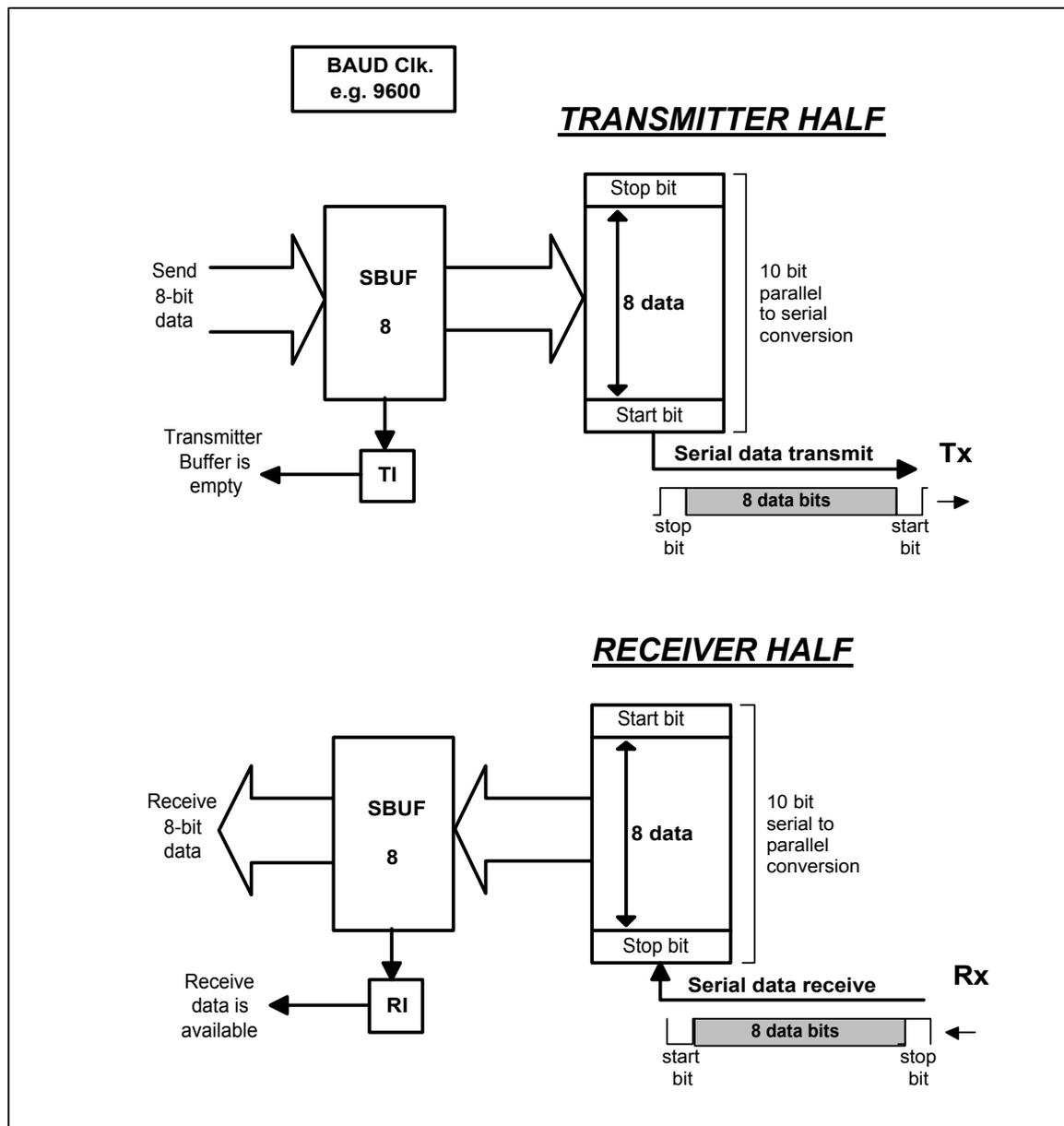


Figure 6.4 UART block diagram

The UART can be configured for 9-bit data transmission and reception. Here 8 bits represent the data byte (or character) and the ninth bit is the parity bit. Figure 6.5 shows a block diagram for the UART transmitter, where the ninth bit is used as the parity bit.

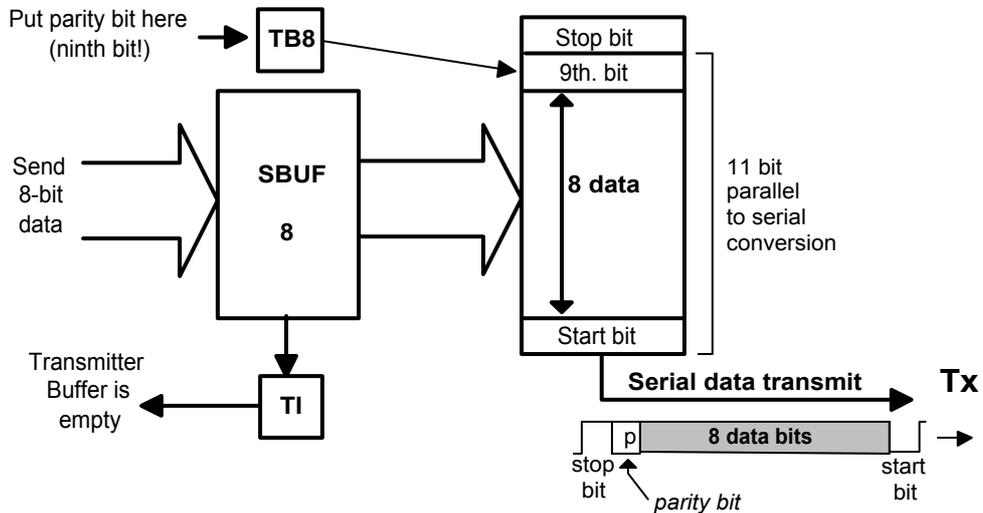


Figure 6.5 Block diagram of UART transmitter, using the 9th. bit

Figure 6.6 shows a block diagram for the UART receiver, where the ninth bit is used as the parity bit.

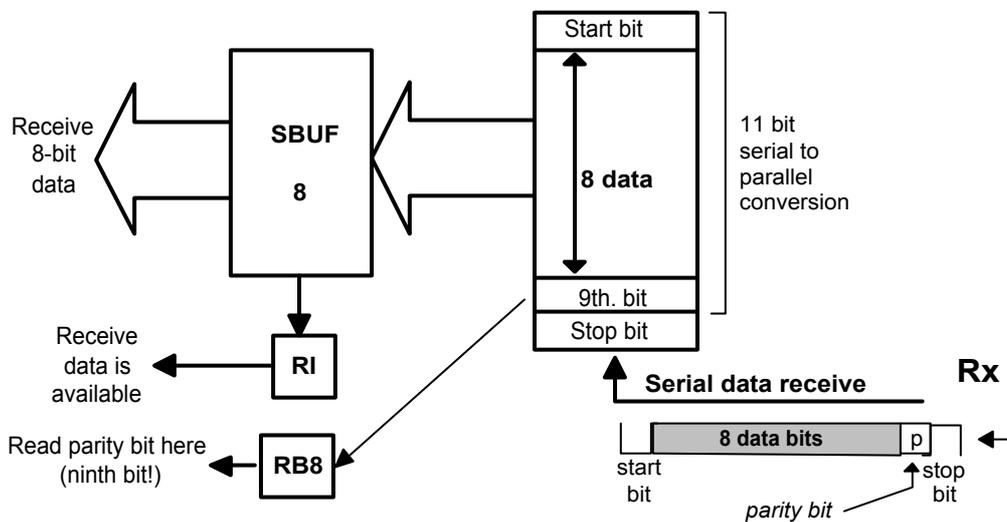


Figure 6.6 Block diagram of UART receiver, using the 9th. bit

SBUF is an SFR register which can be written to, so as to hold the next data byte to be transmitted. Also it can be read from to get the latest data byte received by the serial port. SBUF is thus effectively two registers: one for transmitting and one for receiving.

The SCON (Serial Control) register is an SFR register, used for configuring and monitoring the serial port status.

SCON register

SM0 <i>msb</i>	SM1	SM2	REN	TB8	RB8	TI	RI <i>lsb</i>
--------------------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	-----------	-------------------------

SM0, SM1 bits define the mode of operation, such as the number of data bits (8 or 9), the clock source etc. Our examples will use *mode 3*, which specifies 9 data bits (8 data plus a parity bit) with the clock source being Timer/Counter 1.

SM2 is set to 0 for normal operation

REN is set to 1 to enable reception, 0 to disable reception

TB8 is the ninth bit (parity bit) to be transmitted

RB8 is the ninth bit received (parity bit)

TI Transmit Interrupt flag. A logic 1 indicates that transmit buffer (SBUF) is empty. This flag must be cleared by software.

RI Receive Interrupt flag. A logic 1 indicates that data has been received in the receive buffer (SBUF). This flag must be cleared by software.

In the example programs the serial port is initialised for *mode 3* operation with the receiver enabled using the following instruction:

```
MOV SCON, #11010000B
```

SETTING THE BAUD RATE

Timer/Counter 1 (in SCON mode 3) provides the serial port baud rate clock. Usually the 8-bit auto reload operation (Timer/Counter mode 2) is used. The table shows some values defined for the TH1 register to achieve some of the more common baud rates. The values shown assume a processor clock rate of 11.059MHz. This is a common crystal value for 8051 based designs as it divides down to provide accurate baud rates.

Baud rate	Timer/Counter1 TH1 value	PCON.7 SMOD	8051clock frequency
300	A0h	0	11.059MHz.
1,200	D0h	0	11.059MHz.
2,400	FAh	0	11.059MHz.
9,600	FDh	0	11.059MHz.

Note. The most significant bit of the PCON register is assumed to be at 0. If this were set to 1 the baud rate value would be doubled.

Based on the above we could set up the timer for 9,600 baud operation using the following code:

```
MOV TMOD, #00100000B ; timer/counter 1 set for mode 2, 8-bit TIMER operation
MOV TH1, #0FDh      ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
SETB TR1           ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will just free run now
```

Some sample programs using the serial port are listed below as follows:

SEND_1.A51

This program continuously transmits the *ascii* 'A' character. The 9th. bit exists but is ignored. Listing 6.1 shows the source code listing.

SEND_2.A51

This program example is similar to SEND_1.A51 above but puts an *even* parity bit into the ninth bit. Listing 6.2 shows the source code listing.

READ_1.A51

This program reads a character from the serial port and stores the character in R7. The parity bit is ignored. Listing 6.3 shows the source code listing.

READ_2.A51

This program is an interrupt driven version of the READ_1.A51 program. Listing 6.4 shows the source code listing.

SEND_3.A51

This program sends a block of 100 characters from external memory out through the serial port. Listing 6.5 shows the source code listing.

```

=====
;
; SEND_1.A51
; Transmits the ascii 'A' character continuously using the 8051 serial port.
; Uses 9 bit data at 9600 baud. Parity bit exists but is not calculated.
; Uses POLLED operation, not interrupt driven
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   19-April-99
=====

ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN      ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

                ORG 0100h
MAIN:

; set up timer/counter 1 to drive 9600 baudrate
    MOV TMOD, #00100000B    ; timer/counter 1 is set for mode 2 8-bit TIMER
    MOV TH1, #0FDh          ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
    SETB TR1                ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will free run

; Initialise serial port for mode 3: operation
    MOV SCON, #11010000B

SEND:
    MOV SBUF, #41h          ; acsii 'A' to SBUF

LOOP:
    JNB TI, LOOP           ; loop testing TI to know when data is sent
    CLR TI                 ; clear TI
    LJMP SEND              ; back to send 'A' again

END

```

Listing 6.1 SEND_1.A51

```

=====
;SEND_2.A51
;
; Like SEND_1.A51 above but parity bit is calculated and used. EVEN parity.
; The program transmits the ascii 'A' character continuously, using the 8051
; serial port. It uses 9 bit data at 9600 baud. Uses POLLED operation,
; Not interrupt driven
;
; Rev 0.0      D.Heffernan   19-April-1999
=====

        ORG 0000h           ; entry address for 8051 RESET
        LJMP MAIN          ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

        ORG 0100h
MAIN:

;set up timer/counter 1 to drive 9600 baudrate
        MOV TMOD, #00100000B ; timer/counter 1 is set for mode 2, 8-bit TIMER
        MOV TH1, #0FDh       ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
        SETB TR1             ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will free run

; Initialise serial port for mode 3: operation
        MOV SCON, #11010000B

; Move Ascii 'A' to SBUF via the accumulator so that parity bit is calculated

SEND:   MOV A, #41h
        MOV SBUF, A          ; acsii 'A' to SBUF

        MOV C, P             ; the parity flag in the PSW is moved to carry flag
        MOV TB8, C          ; the carry flag is move to TB8

        LOOP:
        JNB TI, LOOP        ; loop testing TI to know when data is sent
        CLR TI              ; clear TI
        LJMP SEND          ; back to send 'A' again

END

```

Listing 6.2 SEND_2.A51

```

=====
;
; READ_1.A51
; Program to receive a character from serial port and save this character
; in R7. Uses 9 bit data at 9600 baud. Parity bit exists but is ignored.
; Uses POLLED operation, not interrupt driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   19-April-1999
=====

        ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
        LJMP MAIN          ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

        ORG 0100h

MAIN:

;set up timer/counter 1 to drive 9600 baudrate
        MOV TMOD, #00100000B ; timer/counter 1 is set for mode 2 8-bit TIMER
        MOV TH1, #0FDh      ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
        SETB TR1            ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will free run

; initialise serial port for mode 3: operation
        MOV SCON, #11010000B

INCHAR:

LOOP: JNB RI, LOOP          ; loop testing RI to know when data is received
      CLR RI                ; clear RI
      MOV R7, SBUF          ; read data to R7

END

```

Listing 6.3 READ_1.A51

```

=====
;
; READ_2.A51
; Like READ_1.A51 program but this is an interrupt program. When a character is
; received from serial port RI interrupt ISR saves the received character in R7.
; Uses 9 bit data at 9600 baud. Parity bit exists but is ignored.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   19-April-1999
=====

    ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN         ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

    ORG 23h           ; vector address serial port interrupt
    LJMP ISR_SERIAL

    ORG 0100h
MAIN:

;set up timer/counter 1 to drive 9600 baudrate
    MOV TMOD, #00100000B ; timer/counter 1 is set for mode 2 8-bit TIMER
    MOV TH1, #0FDh       ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
    SETB TR1             ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will free run

; initialise serial port for mode 3: operation
    MOV SCON, #11010000B

; enable the serial port interrupt
    MOV IE, #10010000B

LOOP: LJMP LOOP        ; Main just loops around doing nothing!

=====
;
; ISR_SERIAL
; TI or RI will cause a serial port interrupt. This routine ignores TI
; but on RI it reads the received character to R7
;
=====
ISR_SERIAL:

    JNB RI, RETURN     ; return if RI is not set (TI caused int.)
    MOV R7, SBUF       ; read data to R7
    CLR RI             ; clear RI

RETURN:
    RETI               ; return from interrupt
END

```

Listing 6.4 READ_2.A51

```

=====
;
; SEND_3.A51
; Program sends block of 100 characters to serial port from XDATA RAM
; starting at location 2000h.
; Uses 9 bit data at 9600 baud. Parity bit exist but is ignored.
; Uses POLLED operation, not interrupt driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   23-April-1999
=====

```

```

        ORG 0000h          ; entry address for 8051 RESET
        LJMP MAIN         ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

        ORG 0100h
MAIN:

;set up timer/counter 1 to drive 9600 baudrate
        MOV TMOD, #00100000B ; timer/counter 1 is set for mode 2 8-bit TIMER
        MOV TH1, #0FDh      ; timer/counter 1 is timed for 9600 baud
        SETB TR1            ; timer/counter 1 is enabled and will free run

; initialise serial port for mode 3: operation
        MOV SCON, #11010000B

;Initialise DPTR as memory pointer, starting at 2000
;and initialise R6 as send character counter with value 100d
        MOV DPTR, #2000h
        MOV R6, #100d

SEND_BLOCK:
        LCALL SEND_CHAR    ;send a character
        INC DPTR           ;increment DPTR memory pointer
        DJNZ R6, SEND_BLOCK ; decrement R6 and loop back if not zero

STOP:  LJMP STOP          ; program is finished and stops

SEND_CHAR:
        MOVX A, @ DPTR    ; Memory data to SBUF, via Acc
        MOV SBUF, A

LOOP:
        JNB TI, LOOP      ; loop testing TI to know when data is sent
        CLR TI            ; clear TI
        RET

END

```

Listing 6.5 SEND_3.A51

APPENDIX A

Example term assignments

EXAMPLE TERM ASSIGNMENT

Module: ET4514 Digital Systems 2

Term: Example

D. Heffernan 15/Oct/1999

OBJECTIVES:

- 1) Learn how to use the Keil development environment for 8051 based assembly language programming
- 2) Design an electronic organ product as an exercise in 8051 assembly language programming and system design.

METHODOLOGY:

The Keil development environment provides an Editor, an Assembler, Debugger and Simulator. Students will learn the Keil development environment in a 'hands-on' fashion in the lab. Further information on Keil tools can be found at :

<http://www.keil.com>

TIME-SCALE, ASSESSMENT AND OTHER RULES

Due Date: The completed report must be submitted no later than 17:00 on xxxx.. **LATE REPORTS WILL NOT BE ACCEPTED!**

Working rules:

- Students can work alone or in pairs. A student pair will submit a single report with both names on the front cover.
- It is each student's responsibility to sign the Lab. Attendance sheet.

Assessment:

- Proficiency in the use of the Keil tools will be assessed in the Lab., on a PASS/FAIL basis
- The grading will be based on the submitted report.

SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS FOR ELECTRONIC ORGAN PRODUCT

Objective: Design a simple microcomputer based toy electronic organ, as described below. Note, this is a paper design only with program code tested in the Simulator environment. You are not required to build the real system. The design is to be presented in a quality standard report showing:

- Product requirements specification
- Hardware diagram along with description etc.
- Flow charts along with description of program behaviour, table values etc.
- Assembler language source code program.
- Include an Appendix explaining how an interrupt driven 8-bit timer/counter can be used to generate a single musical note.

Product requirements specification. The product is to be based on a low-cost 8051 microcomputer. A simple keyboard consisting of 8 keys (push switches) are to represent the eight keys for the musical scale of C, starting at the note *Middle C*. A simple speaker will be connected to an output pin, through a simple amplifier circuit. On pressing a key the corresponding frequency is to be sounded for 500 milliseconds. These are the basic requirements. The student will list these requirements and any other relevant detail in a more formal product requirements specification section of the report.

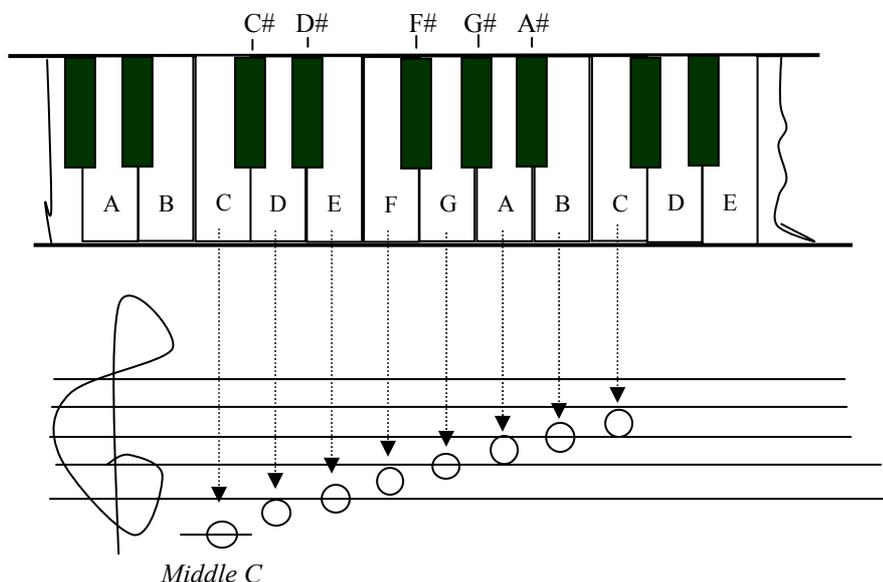
Hardware design. Design the hardware circuit based on the 8051 microcontroller. Show a circuit diagram, which is as complete as possible showing the actual pin connections etc. used on the chip. State how much memory will be used and show (if possible) that a single-chip 8051 is sufficient, without resorting to the use of external memory. State the power supply requirements in terms of voltage and current etc. Include an estimated cost for the product by showing a costed parts list. Assume PCB level only; no need to consider enclosure etc. (packaging).

Software. The software will be written so that the keys (switches) are polled and the frequency and timing for the different notes will be generated using software loops. Do not use the 8051 hardware timers and do not use hardware interrupts. The input keys will be polled continuously and the note will be sounded at the correct frequency for the correct duration i.e. 500 m.secs. Use a flow chart to show your software design. Write your program in 8051 assembler language source code. Document your program to a professional standard.

HINT: The ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine covered in the lectures could be re-written as a programmable delay subroutine which could be called using two arguments, one which specifies the frequency and the other specifying the delay duration.

Appendix on Timer/Counter. Instead of using software delay loops this project could have been based on the use of hardware Timer/Counters. The appendix needs to include only one program example showing how a Timer/Counter with interrupt support can be used to generate a single musical note. Your example code needs to be tested in the Simulator.

SOME BACKGROUND ON MUSICAL NOTES



Each musical note has a defined frequency. If *Middle C* is represented by a frequency of 262 Hz., then the higher C is one octave higher, or twice the *Middle C* frequency: 524 Hz. There are 12 notes, including sharps, within the range of a single octave, where 8 notes represent a scale for a given musical key. For example the key of C (*C_Major to be precise*) uses the notes C, D, E, F, G, A, B, C' and does not include any sharps. The frequency increases on a log. scale where any one of 12 notes is **n** times the frequency of the lower adjacent key (white or black) on the keyboard. Now **n** is the twelfth root of 2, calculated to be 1.059463094 as follows:

$$\text{Frequency of piano (key } i) = (\text{frequency of (key } i-1)) \times 2^{1/12}$$

$^{12}\sqrt{2}$ or $2^{1/12} = 1.059463094$ which is 1.059 to 3 decimal places. Integer numbers for frequency values will be sufficiently accurate in this project, so round frequency to integer numbers.

So, if <i>Middle C</i> = 262 Hz.	262 Hz.
<i>C#</i> = 262 * 1.059 = 277.458 Hz.	277 Hz.
D = 277.458 * 1.059 = 293.828	294 Hz.
--	
<i>C'</i>	524 Hz.

 Another hint: How would we sound a 500Hz. note for a 500 ms. duration?

```

LOOP 250 TIMES          {      Delay ONE millisecond
                          Set port bit
                          Delay ONE millisecond
                          Clear port bit      }
    
```

EXAMPLE TERM ASSIGNMENT

Module: ET4514 Digital Systems 2

Term: Example

D. Heffernan 21/12/1999

Objective: Use the 8051 Timer/Counters to play musical notes. The program will be interrupt driven, based on two ISR routines. The purpose of the exercise is to give the student experience of writing an interrupt driven real-time program based on timer/counters.

Due Date: The completed report must be submitted no later than **xxxx**. Reports may be handed in during the lecture, or they can be posted under the office door, E2011, no later than 17:00 on that day. **LATE REPORTS WILL NOT BE ACCEPTED!**

Assessment: Each student can provide an individual report, or students may work in the pairs chosen for assignment #1. Names and I.D. numbers are to be shown clearly on the front cover. The report will represent x % of the module assessment.

Program requirements:

Write a program which will simply play the scale of C Major: C, D, E, F, G, A, B, C'. Each note is to sound for 500 ms. The program can halt once the scale is played. The program will use two separate timer/counters as follows:

- Frequency generation

A timer/counter is to be used to generate the individual frequencies. This timer/counter is to be written as an interrupt driven program. HINT: you could base this on the TIMER3.A51 example program.

- 500 ms Timer duration

A separate timer/counter is to be used to generate the 500ms duration for sounding each note. This timer/counter is also to be used in an interrupt driven mode. This ISR routine will set up the frequency generation timer/counter for the next note, until the full scale has been played.

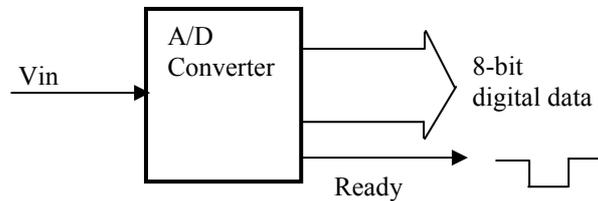
What needs to be presented in the report

The report does not need to be a long detailed report as was presented in assignment #1. A well commented program, which is easy to read and understand, can be provided in just a few pages.

APPENDIX B

Some sample exam questions and answers

Q1 A simple 8-bit analog-to-digital converter device, as shown, is to be interfaced to an 8051 microcomputer. The READY line goes low when conversion data is available. The READY line should be used to interrupt the 8051 microcontroller.



- a) With the aid of a block diagram show how this device can be interfaced to the 8051. **10**
- b) Write an assembly language program which will capture 250 data samples from the **23** A/D converter and store this data in XDATA memory. The program is to be interrupt driven.

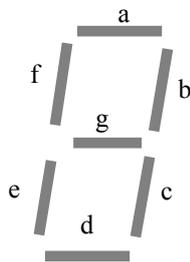
Q2 [33 marks]

Write an 8051 assembly language program which will cause a timed program delay of n seconds, where n can have a value between 1 and 255. The program design is to be based on the use of nested subroutines which will include a *one milli-second delay* subroutine and a *one second delay* subroutine. The program is to be based on software timing loops and it will not employ hardware timers. Show all timing calculations and assumptions. Assume that the basic instruction cycle time for the 8051 is 1 microsecond.

Q3 A simple burglar alarm system has 4 zone inputs connected to an 8051 I/O port. If any one of these inputs is activated a bell will sound for 5 minutes and the corresponding zone LED, or LEDS, will be activated.

- a) With the aid of a diagram describe the hardware circuit for this alarm device. **10**
- b) Design an 8051 assembly language program to implement the required functionality **23** for this system.

Q4 A single digit 7-segment display device, as shown, is to be interfaced to Port 1 of an 8051 microcomputer. The 8051 will produce the correct 7-bit codes for the desired display outputs.



- a) With the aid of a simple hardware diagram, explain how this device can be connected to the 8051. Assume that the 7-segment display is a common-cathode device. Show connections to the power supply source and state the estimated current consumption for your circuit. **10**
- b) Write an 8051 assembly language program which can output any number (0..9) to the display. As part of your program show a table which defines the bit patterns for each number. **23**

Q5 Write an 8051 assembly language program which will output a musical note, at a defined frequency, to an I/O pin. The program is to be written as a sub-routine which will accept two arguments: a number representing the frequency of the desired note and a number which will cause the note duration to be 500 millisecs. For this question show the argument values used to produce the correct frequency for the note 'Middle C' (262 Hz.) only. The program is to be based on software timing loops and it will not employ hardware timers. Show all calculations. Assume that the basic instruction cycle time is 1 microsecond. **33**

Q6 A heating oven in a manufacturing process is to be maintained at a temperature level between 210°C and 215°C. The controller device is to be based on an 8051 microcomputer. Two temperature sensor devices are fitted to the oven as follows:

- (i) Sensor_A outputs a logic 0 if temperature exceeds 215°C
- (ii) Sensor_B outputs a logic 0 if temperature falls below 210°C

- a) With the aid of a block diagram show the design of the 8051 microcontroller based system used to control this oven, where each sensor device is used to cause an real-time interrupt to the system. **10**
- b) For your design in a) above, write an assembly level program to implement the control of the oven temperature. Use interrupt driven routines in your solution. **23**

Q7

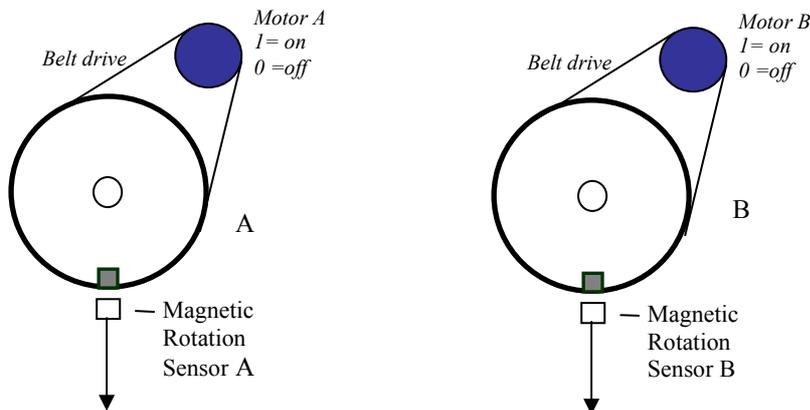
- a) Draw a simple block diagram for the transmitter section of an 8051 UART which supports 9-bit data transmission. Briefly explain the function of each block in your diagram. **10**
- b) Write an 8051 assembly language program to send a block of 256 bytes from the external memory (XDATA) out through the serial port UART. You can choose to ignore the parity bit if you wish. Include the necessary code to configure the UART, baudrate timer etc. **23**

Q8

- a) With the aid of a block diagram explain the operation of an 8051 UART device. **10**
- b) Write an 8051 assembly language subroutine which will transmit an 8-bit data character via the serial port. A ninth bit is to be used as an even parity bit. Your program must insert the correct parity bit. **23**

Write an 8051 assembly language subroutine which will receive an 8-bit data character via the serial port. The subroutine is to be interrupt driven but it can ignore receive parity if you choose.

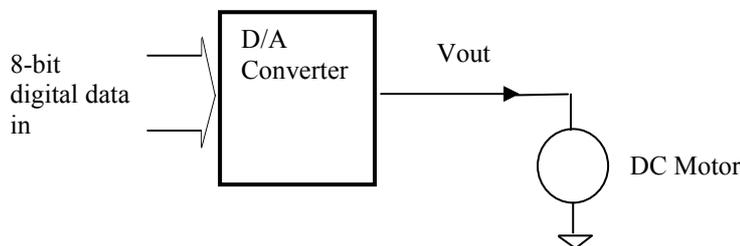
- Q9** As part of a industrial automation system two wheels are driven by two separate motors, motor A and motor B. The rotation sensors give a logic low level as the wheel magnet passes the sensor. Each motor can be turned on of off by providing a logic signal as indicated in the diagram. An 8051 is to be used to control these motors where a motor can be turned on and allowed run for N rotations and then turned off. The sensor signals will cause timer/counter interrupts. **33**



- a) With the aid of a block diagram describe the 8051 based hardware circuit for this system. **10**
- b) Write an 8051 assembly language program which will turn on the two motors at the same time. Motor A will do 200 rotations and will then be stopped. Motor B will do 20,000 rotations and will then be stopped. A separate timer/counter interrupt is to be used for the control of each motor. **23**

- Q10** Assume that the 8051 hardware timers have a 1 microsecond clock input.
- a) Write an 8051 assembly language program which will generate a 50 Hz square wave at an output pin. The program is to use a 16 bit timer/counter. The timer is to be interrupt driven. **16**
- b) Write an 8051 assembly language program which will generate a 5 KHz square wave at an output pin. The program is to use an 8 bit timer/counter. The timer is to be interrupt driven. **17**

Q11 **33**
 The figure shows a D/A (digital to analog) converter which drives a dc motor. Assume the power stage is included in the D/A converter so that the motor can be driven directly by Vout.



An 8051 microcomputer has this D/A converter connected to an I/O port. The 8051 is connected to a PC via the serial port. When a 8 bit data character is received from the PC it interrupts the 8051 through the 8051's serial port interrupt and the received 8-bit data value is passed to the D/A converter so that the PC is effectively controlling the motor speed. Write an 8051 assembly language program to implement this system. Assume a serial data baud rate of 9,600 baud. Show all configuration of the UART etc.

Q12 **33**
 An 8051 based system constantly outputs a square wave at some frequency through an I/O port bit. The frequency is timed based on an 8-bit timer (assume a 1 microsecond timer input). The 8051 is connected to a PC via the serial port. When an 8-bit data character is received from the PC it interrupts the 8051 through the 8051's serial port interrupt and the received 8-bit data value is passed to the timer so as to respecify the frequency. Thus a PC programmable frequency generator is achieved. Write an 8051 assembly language program to implement this system. Assume a serial data baud rate of 9,600 baud. Show all configuration of the UART, timer etc. etc. Calculate the programmable frequency range for your system, showing all calculations.

ET4514 EXAM SUPPORT DATA FOR 8051 PROGRAMMING

D,Heffernan 26/April/1999

8051 SFR REGISTERS

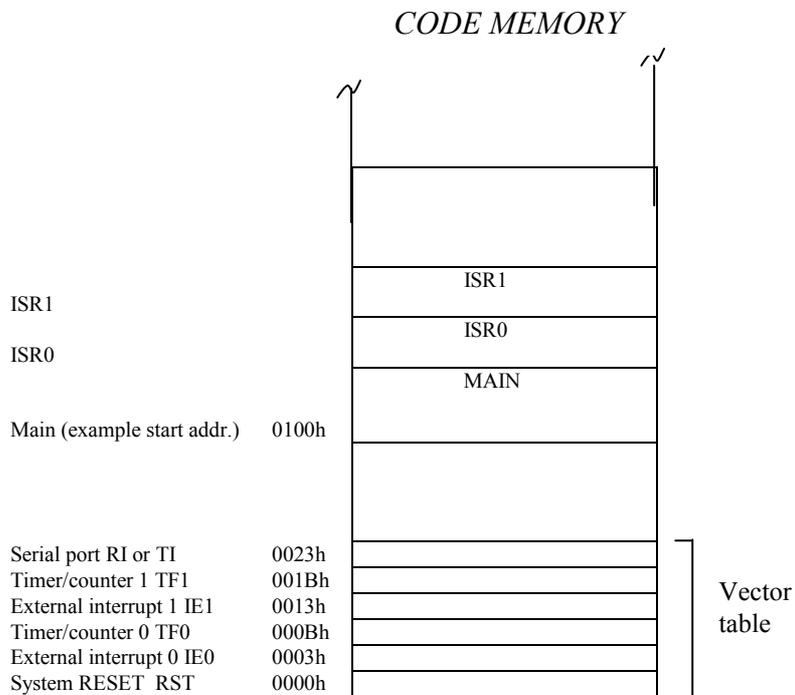
Byte address Bit address
 b7 b6 b5 b4 b3 b2 b1 b0

FFh	
F0h	B *
E0h	A (accumulator) *
D0h	PSW *
B8h	IP *
B0h	Port 3 (P3) *
A8h	IE *
A0h	Port 2 (P2) *
99h	SBUF
98h	SCON *
90h	Port 1 (P1) *
8Dh	TH1
8Ch	TH0
8Bh	TL1
8Ah	TL0
89h	TMOD
88h	TCON *
87h	PCON
83h	DPH
82h	DPL
81h	SP
80h	Port 0 (P0) *

SFR register layout
** indicates the SFR registers
which are bit addressable*

8051 INTERRUPT PROGRAMMING SUPPORT DATA

THE INTERRUPT VECTOR TABLE



IE Interrupt Enable register

EA			ES	ET1	EX1	ET0	EX0
msb							lsb

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| EA Enable all | ES Enable serial port |
| ET1 Enable Timer/counter 1 | EX1 Enable external interrupt 1 |
| ET0 Enable Timer/counter 0 | EX0 Enable external interrupt 0 |

8051 TIMER/COUNTER PROGRAMMING SUPPORT DATA

The TMOD register (Timer **Mode** Control) is an SFR and is used to define the Timer/Counter mode of operation.

TMOD register

Gate	C/T	M1	M0	Gate	C/T	M1	M0
ms							<i>lsb</i>
b							

----- timer 1 -----|-----timer 0 -----

The **Gate** bit can be set to 0 for these examples.

The **C/T** bit is set to 1 for COUNTER operation and it is set to 0 for TIMER operation.

M1 and M2 bits define different modes i.e.:

M1	M0	
1	0	mode 0: 13 bit mode seldom used these days. Ignore.
2	1	mode 1: 16-bit mode
3	0	mode 2: 8-bit mode (with auto reload feature)
1	1	mode 3: ignore for now

TCON Timer Control Register

TCON register

TF1	TR1	TF0	TR0	IE1	IT1	IE0	IT0
ms							lsb
b							

TF1 Timer 1 overflow flag. Set when timer overflows. Clear by software

TR1 Set to enable Timer 1

TF0 Timer 0 overflow flag. Set when timer overflows. Clear by software

TR0 Set to enable Timer 0

IE1 Interrupt flag for interrupt 1

IT1 Set for negative edge trigger for interrupt 1, clear for level trigger

IE0 Interrupt flag for interrupt 0

IT0 Set for negative edge trigger for interrupt 0, clear for level trigger

8051 SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING SUPPORT DATA

The SCON is an SFR register, used for configuring and monitoring the serial port.

SCON register

SM0 msb	SM1	SM2	REN	TB8	RB8	TI	RI lsb
--------------------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	------------	-----------	-------------------------

SM0, **SM1** bits define the mode of operation, such as the number of data bits (8 or 9), the clock source etc. Our examples will use *mode 3*, which specifies 9 data bits (8 data plus a parity bit) with the clock source being Timer/Counter 1.

SM2 is set to 0 for normal operation

REN is set to 1 to enable reception, 0 to disable reception

TB8 is the ninth bit (parity bit) to be transmitted

RB8 is the ninth bit received (parity bit)

TI Transmit Interrupt flag. 1 indicates that transmit buffer (SBUF) is empty. This flag must be cleared by software.

RI Receive Interrupt flag. 1 indicates that data has been received in the receive buffer (SBUF). This flag must be cleared by software.

Serial port baud rate configuration.

For exam purposes assume that the following values for TH1 to achieve the listed baud rates.

Baud rate	Timer/Counter1 TH1 value
300	A0h
1,200	D0h
2,400	FAh
9,600	FDh

8051 INSTRUCTION SET

ARITHMETIC OPERATORS

MNEMONIC	DESCRIPTION	BYTES	CYCLES	C	OV	AC
<u>ADD A, Rn</u>	Add register to ACC	1	1	x	x	x
<u>ADD A, direct</u>	Add direct byte to ACC	2	1	x	x	x
<u>ADD A, @Ri</u>	Add indirect RAM to ACC	1	1	x	x	x
<u>ADD A, #data</u>	Add immediate data to ACC	2	1	x	x	x
<u>ADDC A, Rn</u>	Add register to ACC with Carry	1	1	x	x	x
<u>ADDC A, direct</u>	Add direct byte to ACC with Carry	2	1	x	x	x
<u>ADDC A, @Ri</u>	Add indirect RAM to ACC with Carry	1	1	x	x	x
<u>ADDC A, #data</u>	Add immediate data to ACC with Carry	2	1	x	x	x
<u>SUBB A, Rn</u>	Subtract Register from ACC with borrow	1	1	x	x	x
<u>SUBB A, direct</u>	Subtract indirect RAM from ACC with borrow	2	1	x	x	x
<u>SUBB A, @Ri</u>	Subtract indirect RAM from ACC with borrow	1	1	x	x	x
<u>SUBB A, #data</u>	Subtract immediate data from ACC with borrow	2	1	x	x	x
<u>INC A</u>	Increment ACC	1	1			
<u>INC Rn</u>	Increment register	1	1			
<u>INC direct</u>	Increment direct byte	2	1			
<u>INC @Ri</u>	Increment direct RAM	1	1			
<u>DEC A</u>	Decrement ACC	1	1			
<u>DEC Rn</u>	Decrement Register	1	1			
<u>DEC direct</u>	Decrement direct byte	2	1			
<u>DEC @Ri</u>	Decrement indirect RAM	1	1			
<u>INC DPTR</u>	Increment Data Pointer	1	2			
<u>MUL AB</u>	Multiply A and B	1	4	0	x	
<u>DIV AB</u>	Divide A by B	1	4	0	x	
<u>DAA</u>	Decimal Adjust ACC	1	1	x		

BOOLEAN OPERATORS

MNEMONIC	DESCRIPTION	BYTES	CYCLES	C	OV	AC
<u>CLR C</u>	Clear carry flag	1	1	0		
<u>CLR bit</u>	Clear direct bit	2	1			
<u>SETB C</u>	Set carry flag	1	1	1		
<u>SETB bit</u>	Set direct bit	2	1			
<u>CPL C</u>	Complement carry flag	1	1	x		
<u>CPL bit</u>	Complement direct bit	2	1			
<u>ANL C,bit</u>	AND direct bit to carry	2	2	x		
<u>ANL C,/bit</u>	AND complement of direct bit to carry	2	2	x		
<u>ORL C,bit</u>	OR direct bit to carry	2	2	x		
<u>ORL C,/bit</u>	OR complement of direct bit to carry	2	2	x		
<u>MOV C,bit</u>	Move direct bit to carry	2	1	x		
<u>MOV bit,C</u>	Move carry to direct bit	2	2			
<u>JC rel</u>	Jump if carry is set	2	2			

<u>JNC rel</u>	Jump if carry is NOT set	2	2			
<u>JB bit,rel</u>	Jump if direct bit is set	3	2			
<u>JNB bit,rel</u>	Jump if direct bit is NOT set	3	2			
<u>JBC bit,rel</u>	Jump if direct bit is set and clear that bit	3	2			

LOGICAL OPERATIONS

MNEMONIC	DESCRIPTION	BYTES	CYCLES	C	OV	AC
<u>ANL A,Rn</u>	AND register to ACC	1	1			
<u>ANL A,direct</u>	AND direct byte to ACC	2	1			
<u>ANL A,@Ri</u>	AND indirect RAM to ACC	1	1			
<u>ANL A,#data</u>	AND immediate data to ACC	2	1			
<u>ANL direct,A</u>	AND ACC to direct byte	2	1			
<u>ANL direct,#data</u>	AND immediate data to direct byte	3	2			
<u>ORL A,Rn</u>	OR register to ACC	1	1			
<u>ORL A,direct</u>	OR direct byte to ACC	2	1			
<u>ORL A,@Ri</u>	OR indirect RAM to ACC	1	1			
<u>ORL A,#data</u>	OR immediate data to ACC	2	1			
<u>ORL direct,A</u>	OR ACC to direct byte	2	1			
<u>ORL direct,#data</u>	OR immediate data to direct byte	3	2			
<u>XRL A,Rn</u>	XOR register to ACC	1	1			
<u>XRL A,direct</u>	XOR direct byte to ACC	2	1			
<u>XRL A,@Ri</u>	XOR indirect RAM to ACC	1	1			
<u>XRL A,#data</u>	XOR immediate data to ACC	2	1			
<u>XRL direct,A</u>	XOR ACC to direct byte	2	1			
<u>XRL direct,#data</u>	XOR immediate data to direct byte	3	2			
<u>CLR A</u>	Clear the ACC	1	1			
<u>CPL A</u>	Complement the ACC	1	1			
<u>RL A</u>	Rotate the ACC left	1	1			
<u>RLC A</u>	Rotate the ACC left through Carry	1	1	x		
<u>RR A</u>	Rotate the ACC right	1	1			
<u>RRC A</u>	Rotate the ACC right through Carry	1	1	x		
<u>SWAP A</u>	Swap nibbles in the ACC	1	1			

JUMPS AND BRANCHES

MNEMONIC	DESCRIPTION	BYTES	CYCLES	C	OV	AC
<u>ACALL addr11</u>	Absolute call within 2K page	2	2			
<u>LCALL addr16</u>	Absolute call (Long call)	3	2			
<u>RET</u>	Return from subroutine	1	2			
<u>RETI</u>	Return from interrupt	1	2			
<u>AJMP addr11</u>	Absolute jump within 2K page	2	2			
<u>LJMP addr16</u>	Absolute jump (Long jump)	3	2			
<u>SJMP rel8</u>	Relative jump within +/- 127 bytes (Short jump)	2	2			
<u>JMP @A+DPTR</u>	Jump direct relative to DPTR	1	2			
<u>JZ rel8</u>	Jump if ACC is zero	2	2			
<u>JNZ rel8</u>	Jump if ACC is NOT zero	2	2			
<u>CJNE A,direct,rel8</u>	Compare direct byte to ACC, jump if NOT equal	3	2	x		
<u>CJNE A,#data,rel8</u>	Compare immediate to ACC, jump if NOT equal	3	2	x		
<u>CJNE Rn,#data,rel8</u>	Compare immediate to register, jump if NOT equal	3	2	x		
<u>CJNE @Ri,#data,rel8</u>	Compare immediate to indirect, jump if NOT equal	3	2	x		
<u>DJNZ Rn,rel8</u>	Decrement register, jump if NOT	2	2			

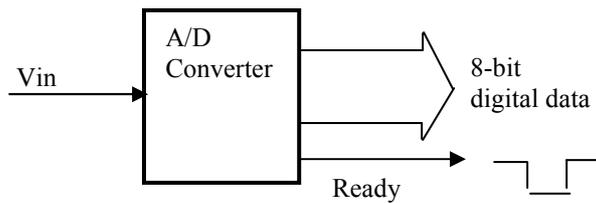
	zero					
<u>DJNZ direct,rel8</u>	Decrement direct byte, jump if NOT zero	3	2			
<u>NOP</u>	No operation (Skip to next instruction)	1	1			

DATA TRANSFER

MNEMONIC	DESCRIPTION	BYTES	CYCLES	C	OV	AC
<u>MOV A,Rn</u>	Move Register to ACC	1	1			
<u>MOV A,direct</u>	Move Direct byte to ACC	2	1			
<u>MOV A,@Ri</u>	Move Indirect byte to ACC	1	1			
<u>MOV A,#data</u>	Move Immediate data to ACC	2	1			
<u>MOV Rn,A</u>	Mov ACC to Register	1	1			
<u>MOV Rn,direct</u>	Move Direct byte to Register	2	2			
<u>MOV Rn,#data</u>	Move Immediate data to Register	2	1			
<u>MOV direct,A</u>	Move ACC to Direct byte	2	1			
<u>MOV direct,Rn</u>	Move Register to Direct byte	2	2			
<u>MOV direct,direct</u>	Move Direct byte to Direct byte	3	2			
<u>MOV direct,@Ri</u>	Mov Indirect RAM to Direct byte	3	2			
<u>MOV direct,#data</u>	Move Immediate data to Direct byte	3	2			
<u>MOV @Ri,A</u>	Move ACC to Indirect RAM	1	1			
<u>MOV @Ri,direct</u>	Move direct byte to indirect RAM.	2	2			
<u>MOV @Ri,#data</u>	Move Immediate data to Indirect RAM	2	1			
<u>MOV DPTR,#data16</u>	Load datapointer with 16 bit constant	3	2			
<u>MOVC A,@A+DPTR</u>	Move code byte at ACC+DPTR to ACC	1	2			
<u>MOVC A,@A+PC</u>	Move code byte at ACC+PC to ACC	1	2			
<u>MOVX A,@Ri</u>	Move external RAM to ACC	1	2			
<u>MOVX @Ri,A</u>	Move ACC to external RAM	1	2			
<u>MOVX A,@DPTR</u>	Move external RAM to ACC	1	2			
<u>MOVX @DPTR,A</u>	Move ACC to external RAM	1	2			
<u>PUSH direct</u>	Push direct byte to stack	2	2			
<u>POP direct</u>	Pop direct byte from stack	2	2			
<u>XCH A,Rn</u>	Exchange register with ACC	1	1			
<u>XCH A,direct</u>	Exchange direct byte with ACC	2	1			
<u>XCH A,@Ri</u>	Exchange indirect RAM with ACC	1	1			
<u>XCHD A,@Ri</u>	Exchange low order digit indirect RAM with ACC	1	1			

SAMPLE ANSWERS TO SOME OF THE QUESTIONS

Q1 A simple 8-bit analog-to-digital converter device, as shown, is to be interfaced to an 8051 microcomputer. The READY line goes low when conversion data is available. The READY line should be used to interrupt the 8051 microcontroller.

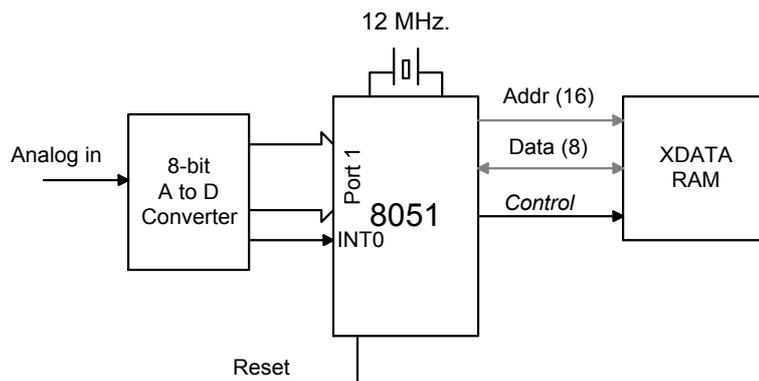


a) With the aid of a block diagram show how this device can be interfaced to the 8051. **10**

c) Write an assembly language program which will capture 250 data samples from the A/D converter and store this data in XDATA memory. The program is to be interrupt driven. **23**

Q1 Sample Answer

a) Block diagram. Student will also provide a brief explanation.



b)

```
=====
;
; CAPTURE.A51
; Capture 250 samples from ADC. When a sample is ready the 8051 is interrupted.
; Uses External interrupt 0. ADC is connected to Port 1.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   7-Dec-99
=====
```

```
ORG 0000h    ; define memory start address 0000h
LJMP MAIN    ; jump to MAIN program
```

```
ORG 0003h    ; define vector location for INT0
LJMP ISR0     ; jump to ISR0
```

MAIN:

```
MOV P1, #0FFh    ; initialise Port 1 for use as input
```

```
MOV DPTR, #2000h ; set up memory pointer
MOV R6, #250d    ; use R6 to count
```

```
SETB IT0        ; define negative edge trigger for int 0
MOV IE, #10000001b ; enable Interrupt 0
```

LOOP:

```
LJMP LOOP        ; just loop around!
```

ISR0:

```
MOV A, P1        ; read the ADC
```

```
MOVX @DPTR, A    ; save to memory location
INC DPTR         ; increment memory pointer
DJNZ R6, AGAIN   ; decrement R6 count: if not 0 go again
MOV IE, #00000000b ; else disable interrupt!
```

AGAIN:

```
RETI            ; return from interrupt
```

Q2 [33 marks]

Write an 8051 assembly language program which will cause a timed program delay of n seconds, where n can have a value between 1 and 255. The program design is to be based on the use of nested subroutines which will include a *one milli-second delay* subroutine and a *one second delay* subroutine. The program is to be based on software timing loops and it will not employ hardware timers. Show all timing calculations and assumptions. Assume that the basic instruction cycle time for the 8051 is 1 microsecond.

Q2 Sample Answer

Simple calculations for timing loops

No attempt is made to tune out minor inaccuracies due to code overhead

Inner loop

There is an inner loop in the ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine which will cause a 4 microsecond delay. Instruction execution times are taken from instruction set data which is given in the back of the exam paper.

NOP	1
NOP	1
DJNZ R7, LOOP_1_MILLI	2
<hr/>	
	4

ONE_MILLI_SUB

The ONE_MILLI_SUB subroutine simply executes the inner loop 250 times.

$$250 \times 4 = 1000 \text{ microseconds} = 1 \text{ milliseconds}$$

ONE_SEC_SUB

The ONE_SEC_SUB subroutine has an inner loop which calls the ONE_MILLI_SUB four times; giving an inner delay of 4 milliseconds. This 4 millisecond delay is called 250 times.

$$250 \times 4 \text{ milliseconds} = 1 \text{ second.}$$

PROG_DELAY_SUB

The PROG_DELAY_SUB subroutine is called with a value 1..255 in the accumulator; to cause the corresponding delay in seconds. If the accumulator has a value of zero the subroutine immediately returns.

```

;=====
; SOFTIME1.A51
; SUBROUTINES FOR GENERATING SOFTWARE; TIME DELAYS.
;
; Rev. 0.0 D.Heffernan 2-Nov-99
;=====

        ORG 0000h    ; define memory start address 0000h

MOV A, #10d        ; example value to delay 10 seconds
LCALL PROG_DELAY_SUB

LOOP: LJMP LOOP

;=====
; PROG_DELAY_SUB
; Subroutine to delay n number of seconds. n is defined in A (acc)
; and passed to the subroutine (call-by-ref). A is preserved.
; If n=0 the subroutine returns immediately. n max. value is FFh ;(256d)
;=====

PROG_DELAY_SUB:

        PUSH Acc                ; save A to stack
        CJNE A, #00h, OK        ; If Acc is zero exit
        LJMP DONE              ; exit

OK:

LOOP_N:                ; Calls one sec delay, no. of times in A

        LCALL ONE_SEC_SUB ; call subroutine to delay 1 second
        DJNZ Acc, LOOP_N ; decrement A, if not zero loop back

DONE: POP Acc          ; restore R7 to original value
        RET            ; return from subroutine

```

Q2 Continued.....

```
=====
; ONE_SEC_SUB
; Subroutine to delay ONE second
; Uses Register R7 but preserves this register
=====

ONE_SEC_SUB:

    PUSH 07h          ; save R7 to stack
;
    MOV R7, #250d     ; 250 decimal to R7 to count 250 loops
LOOP_SEC:              ; Calls the one millisec. delay, 250 times

    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB ; call subroutine to delay 1 m.sec
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB ; call subroutine to delay 1 m.sec
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB ; call subroutine to delay 1 m.sec
    LCALL ONE_MILLI_SUB ; call subroutine to delay 1 m.sec

    DJNZ R7, LOOP_SEC ; decrement R7, if not zero go back

    POP 07h          ; restore R7 to original value

    RET              ; return from subroutine

;=====
; ONE_MILLI_SUB:
; Subroutine to delay ONE millisecond
; Uses Register R7 but preserves this register
=====

ONE_MILLI_SUB:

    PUSH 07h          ; save R7 to stack
    MOV R7, #250d     ; 250 decimal to R7 to count 250 loops
LOOP_1_MILLI:         ; loops around 250 times

    NOP              ; inserted NOPs to cause delay
    NOP              ;
    DJNZ R7, LOOP_1_MILLI ; decrement R7, if not zero loop back

    POP 07h          ; restore R7 to original value

    RET              ; return from subroutine

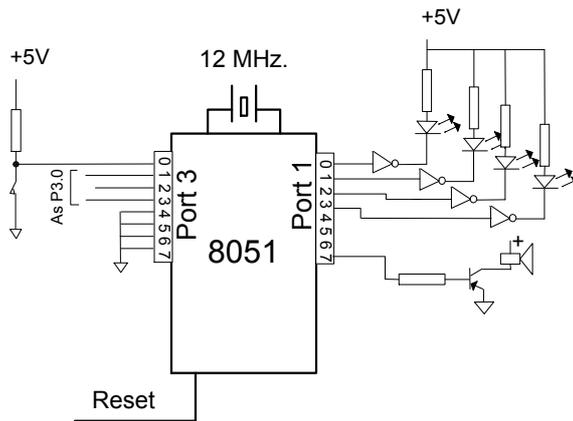
END                  ; End of program
```

Q3 A simple burglar alarm system has 4 zone inputs connected to an 8051 I/O port. If any one of these inputs is activated a bell will sound for 5 minutes and the corresponding zone LED, or LEDS, will be activated.

- a) With the aid of a diagram describe the hardware circuit for this alarm device. **10**
- b) Design an 8051 assembly language program to implement the required functionality for this system. **23**

Q3 Sample Answer

- a) A brief description will accompany the diagram.



b)

```
=====
;
; SIMPLE_ALARM.A51
; Alarm system demonstration program
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan   2-Nov-99
;
=====

    ORG 0000h          ; define memory start address 0000h

    MOV P3, # 0FFh    ; initialise Port 3 for input
    MOV P1, # 00h     ; initialise Port 1: LEDs off and bell off

POLL:
    MOV A, P3         ; read P3 to accumulator
    CJNE A, 00h, ALARM ; If not all zeros then ALARM
    LPMP POLL        ; else back to POLL

ALARM:
    MOV P1, A         ; Output code for LEDs
    SETB P1.7        ; Turn on Bell

    MOV A, #150d      ; set up for 150 sec (2.5 min) delay
    LCALL PROG_DELAY_SUB ; delay 2.5 mins
    LCALL PROG_DELAY_SUB ; delay 2.5 mins

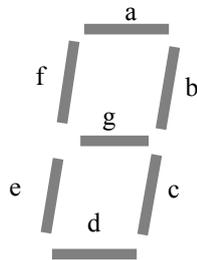
    CLR P1.7         ; turn off the Bell

LOOP: LJMP LOOP      ; just looping around!

END
```

NB: The student will show the code for the PROG_DELAY_SUB as found elsewhere in these notes.

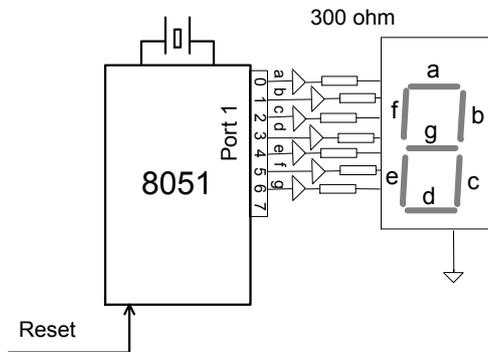
Q4 A single digit 7-segment display device, as shown, is to be interfaced to Port 1 of an 8051 microcomputer. The 8051 will produce the correct 7-bit codes for the desired display outputs.



- With the aid of a simple hardware diagram, explain how this device can be connected to the 8051. Assume that the 7-segment display is a common-cathode device. Show connections to the power supply source and state the estimated current consumption for your circuit.
- Write an 8051 assembly language program which can output any number (0..9) to the display. As part of your program show a table which defines the bit patterns for each number.

Q4 Sample Answer

a) Diagram is shown. Each segment will consume 10 ma current approx. The buffers are powered from a 5v supply. The 7-segment display device is not separately powered, each segment effectively sinks current to ground to light the relevant LED. 8051 will be shown to connect to 5v etc.



b)

A table can be devised to show the truth table for decoding the 7-segment display, as follows:

For Port 1:

	P1.7	P1.6	P1.5	P1.4	P1.3	P1.2	P1.1	P1.0
Number	x	g	f	e	d	c	b	a
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
2	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
3	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
4	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
5	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1
6	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1
8	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
9	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1

Now, this table is built into the program using equates (EQU) as shown in the example below:

```
;=====
; DISPLAY.A51
; Demonstrates 7-segment decode
; Actual program just demonstrates a display of number zero!
;
; Rev. 0.0 D.Heffernan 9-Dec-99
;=====
```

; Build the truth table using equates...

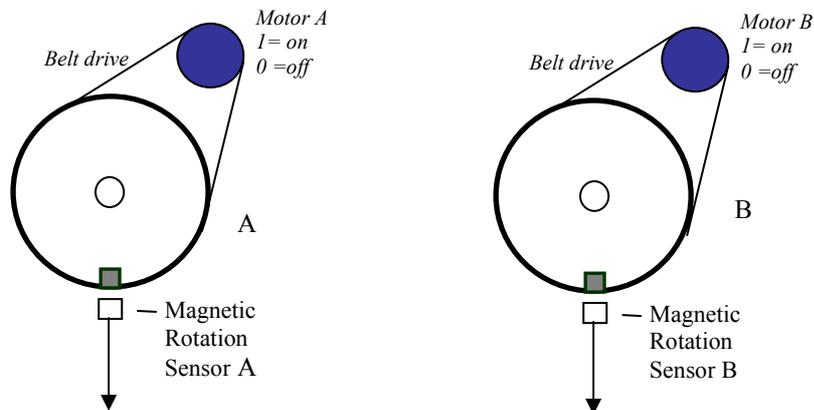
```
NUM_0 EQU 00111111b
NUM_1 EQU 00000110b
NUM_2 EQU 01011011b
NUM_3 EQU 01001111b
NUM_4 EQU 01100110b
NUM_5 EQU 01101101b
NUM_6 EQU 01111100b
NUM_7 EQU 00000111b
NUM_8 EQU 01111111b
NUM_9 EQU 01100111b
```

```
ORG 0000h ; start at memory location zero
```

```
MOV P1, #NUM_0 ; displays a zero
```

Etc.....

Q9 As part of an industrial automation system two wheels are driven by two separate motors, motor A and motor B. The rotation sensors give a logic low level as the wheel magnet passes the sensor. Each motor can be turned on or off by providing a logic signal as indicated in the diagram. An 8051 is to be used to control these motors where a motor can be turned on and allowed run for N rotations and then turned off. The sensor signals will cause timer/counter interrupts. **33**



- c) With the aid of a block diagram describe the 8051 based hardware circuit for this system. **10**
- d) Write an 8051 assembly language program which will turn on the two motors at the same time. Motor A will do 200 rotations and will then be stopped. Motor B will do 20,000 rotations and will then be stopped. A separate timer/counter interrupt is to be used for the control of each motor. **23**

Q9 Sample Answer

- a) BLOCK DIAGRAM TO BE DONE !!

b) Sample program.

```
=====
; Motors.A51
; Example control program to start two motors; generate an interrupt
; following 200 motor A rotation events, and then stop motor A.
; Generate an interrupt following 20,000 rotation events of motor B,
; and then stop motor B. Timer/counter 0, 8-bit, is used for motor A,
; Timer/Counter 1, 16-bit, is used for motor B. The program is
; INTERRUPT driven.
;
;
; Rev. 0.0      D.Heffernan    2-Nov-99
=====

    ORG 0000h    ; entry address for 8051 RESET
    LJMP MAIN   ; MAIN starts beyond interrupt vector space

    ORG 000Bh    ; vector address for interrupt
    LJMP ISR_TIMER0 ; jump to start of ISR_TIMER0

    ORG 001Bh    ; vector address for interrupt
    LJMP ISR_TIMER1 ; jump to start of ISR_TIMER1

=====
; MAIN initialise Timer/Counter 0 and Timer/Counter 1 as COUNTERs
; and enable these Counter interrupts.
; Timer/Counter 0 is 8-bit and Timer/Counter 1 is 16-bit.
; it just waits around letting the interrupt routine do the work.
; The Timer/Counter 1 is loaded with a value
;(65,536 - 20,000 = 45,536,
; or B1E0h) so that it interrupts after 20,000 events.
=====
MAIN:
    MOV TMOD, #01010110b    ; Timer/Counter 1 :mode 1, COUNTER – 16 bit
                           ; Timer/Counter 0 :mode 2, COUNTER – 8 bit
    MOV TH0, #-200d         ; Timer/Counter 0 value is loaded

    MOV TH1, #0B1h         ; Timer/Counter 1 high byte is loaded
    MOV TL1, #0E0h         ; Timer/Counter 1 low byte is loaded

    MOV IE, #10001010b     ; enable both Timer/counter interrupts
    SETB TR0                ; Start Timer/Counter 0
    SETB TR1                ; Start Timer/Counter 1

    SETB P1.6                ; Turn on motor A
    SETB P1.7                ; Turn on motor B

LOOP: LJMP LOOP            ; just loop around doing nothing!
```

Motors.A51 continued.....

```
=====
;
; ISR_TIMER0
; P1.6 is set to logic 0 to turn off motor A as 200 counts have
; occurred
;
;
ISR_TIMER1:
    CLR TR0      ; stop Timer 0 to be safe

    CLR P1.6    ; clear P1 bit 6 to turn off motor A

    RETI        ; return from interrupt

=====
;
; ISR_TIMER1
; P1.7 is set to logic 0 to turn off motor B as 20,000 counts have
; occurred
;
;
ISR_TIMER1:
    CLR TR1      ; stop Timer 1 to be safe

    CLR P1.7    ; clear P1 bit 7 to turn off motor B

    RETI        ; return from interrupt

END
```

Some Sample Mini-Questions

Typically one of these mini-questions would be worth about 10% of a full exam question.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

- a) Briefly describe the steps involved in the development and debugging of a microcomputer based assembly language programme. Draw a simple block for the flow of the development process.
- b) What is the function of the assembler in microcontroller program development?
- c) What is the function of the editor in microcontroller program development?
- d) What is the function of the linker in microcontroller program development?
- e) What is the function of the simulator in microcontroller program development?
- f) What is the function of the downloader in microcontroller program development?
- g) What is the function of the debugger in microcontroller program development?

HARDWARE RELATED MINI-QUESTIONS

- a) Draw a simple block diagram of an 8051 processor connected to external CODE memory and external DATA memory.
- b) The 8051 address bus is 16 bits wide and the data bus is 8-bits wide – what is the maximum size for the external CODE memory or DATA memory. Show your calculation.
- c) What is a typical clock speed for an 8051 processor?
- d) What is the function of the PC register i.e. the Program Counter?
- e) What is the function of the SP register i.e. the Stack Pointer?
- f) Explain how the hardware RESET signal works and what memory location (reset vector) is used by the RESET scheme in the 8051 microcomputer?
- g) Explain what is meant by an on-chip I/O port on the 8051 microcomputer.

PROGRAMMING RELATED MINI-QUESTIONS

- a) What is meant by the term: immediate addressing?
- b) What is meant by the term: direct addressing?
- c) What is meant by the term: indirect addressing?
- d) Explain what the CJNE instruction does and show an example program line using CJNE instruction.
- e) What is an 8051 SFR register and describe an example SFR register
- g) There is no STOP instruction in the 8051 instruction. Describe a method for implementing program stop.
- h) If the instruction cycle time in a 8051 microcomputer is 1 microsecond, suggest a simple programming method of delaying for, say, six microseconds.

APPENDIX C

A brief introduction to using the Keil tools

This is for uVision –1 .. not the latest product!

This information will help to get the student started on the use of the Keil development tools. The Keil tools include two components of immediate interest:

- a) **µVision:** A project editor with 8051 assembler, linker etc.
- b) **dScope:** A simulator environment for testing and debugging 8051 programs.

STEP BY STEP GUIDE TO USING KEIL TOOLS

N.B. The Alarm1.A51 program will need to be modified as described in last page of this note.

The following is a step by step guide on how to create, build and debug an 8051 assembly language program using **µVision** and the **dScope Debugger**.

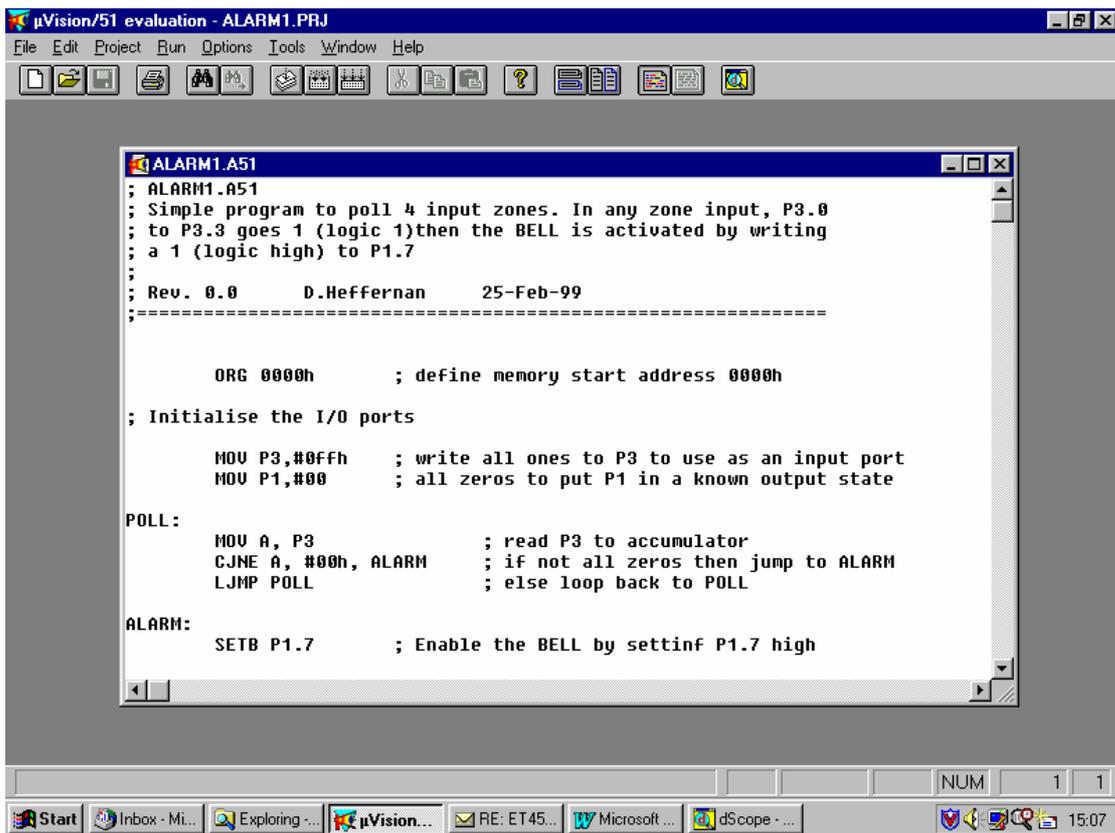
The *Alarm1.A51* program from the module notes is the example program.

Editing and Assembling a Program in µVision:

Make a folder to hold your source files and other project files. Create a folder called, say, D:\MY_PROGS. Copy the Alarm1.A51 source file in here. Be careful to copy all your saved files to a floppy disk when you finish the Lab. as your system's disk may be wiped clean at regular intervals during the week.

- Run µVision from C:\C51Eval\Bin (or use short-cut if available!)
- From the *Project* menu click *New Project*.
- In *Create New Project* window enter a file name for your project (use ALARM1.PRJ), specify your folder D:\MY_PROGS, and click OK.
- In the *Project* dialog box click *Add* and browse through your source files to get Alarm1.A51. Note: choose *List files of type:* (assembly Source(*.A51).
- Click *Save* to save your project.
- Go to the *Project* menu and click *Edit Project*. Just click on your source file to open it. THIS WOULD BE A GOOD TIME TO MODIFY Alarm1.A51 AS DETAILED ON THE FINAL PAGE OF THIS NOTE.
- Go to the *Project* menu and click *Make: Build Project*. Your project is now assembled and linked. Click *OK* on successful completion.

You now have successfully created your program as a project. You can now proceed to executing your program using **dScope**. Here is a sample µVision window:



Debug and Run the Program Using dScope Debugger:

- Within µVision go to the *Run* menu and click *dScope Debugger*. This launches the dScope program.

Before you can debug you have to set up dScope:

- Go to *File* menu and click *Load CPU Driver*, and select *8051.DLL*
- Go to *View* menu and ensure the following are selected:

Toolbar

Status Bar

Register Window

Debug Window

Command Window

Toolbox

- Go to *Peripherals* menu, select *I/O.Ports -Port 1*, then *I/O.Ports - Port 3*
- Go to *File* menu and click *Load object file...* Browse your project files and select *Alarm1* (note – no extension!). Your program source code is now shown in the *Debug* window. (If comments and labels are not shown then in µVision from *Options* menu choose *A51 Assembler* and tick *Include symbols in Listings* and *Include debug information in Object*).

Now you can execute your program:

- In the *Toolbox* window click *Reset*.

- In the *Debug* window click *Go*. Your program should now be running. If you activate an alarm zone, by clicking on Port 3, bit 0, for example, the alarm bell is activated. Click P3's upper row *P3:*, not the *Pins*. You will see Port 1, bit 7, become enabled.

Now you can single-step through your program:

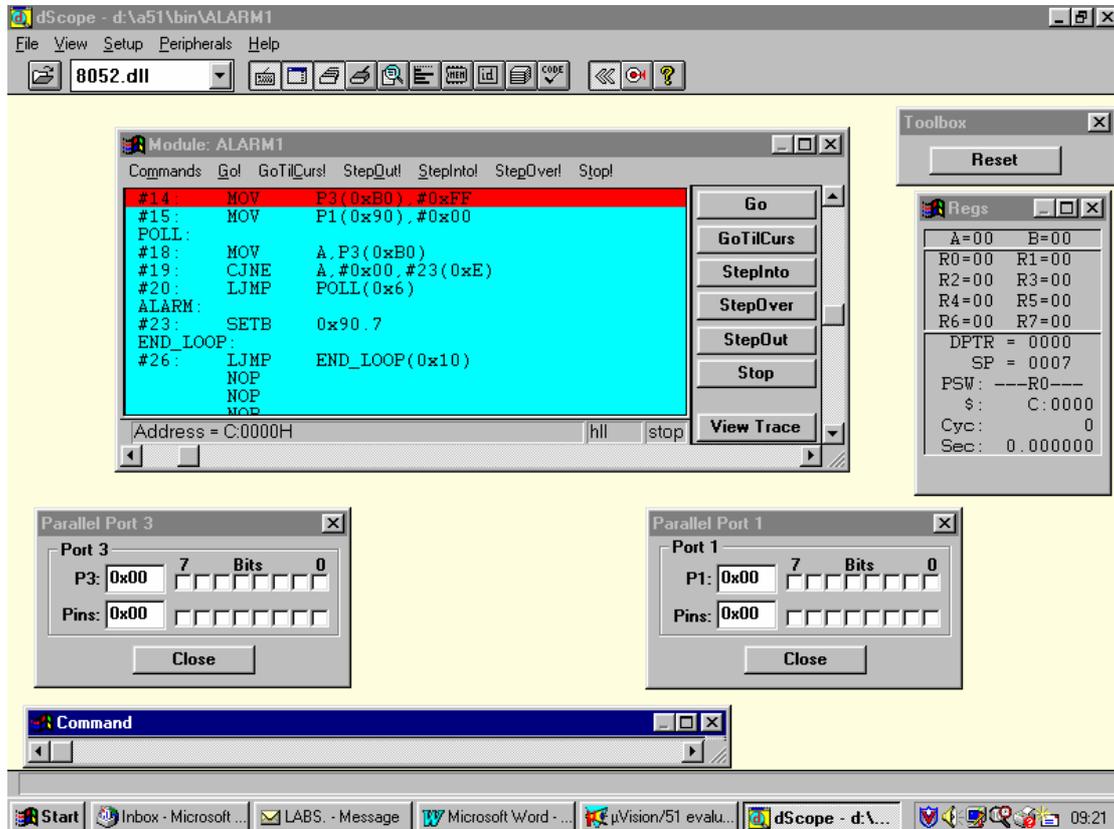
- Press *Stop* in the *Debug* window. Press *Reset* in the *Toolbox* window. Clear the Port pins again. Now you can single-step through your program by clicking *StepInto* in the *Debug* Window. This is useful to watch register values etc.
- You can click *Stop* and do a *Toolbox - Reset* at any time and then run the program again.

Try setting a single break-point:

Sometimes it is useful to allow the program to run until it hits a pre-defined break-point.

- Press *Stop* in the *Debug* window. Press *Reset* in the *Toolbox* window. Clear the Port pins again.
- Double click on a line, say line number 18. The line turns yellow so indicate a break-point. Now run the program and it will stop at the break-point.

Example dScope Debugger window:



HINT: To switch between μ Vision and dScope click on the Task bar on the bottom of the screen. Do not start multiple μ Vision and dScope sessions as this can lead to problems.

NB: MODIFICATION TO ALARM1.A51 PROGRAM

In the Alarm1.A51 program Port 3 is initialised by writing all ones to it. In a real 8051 this has the effect of disabling the output drive and allows the external pins to act as inputs. However in the dScope Debugger, since we do not have any real circuitry connected to Port 3 the output pins stay high and hamper our experiment. This problem is overcome by writing all zeros to Port 3 and clicking on the P3: bits, instead of the Pins to simulate an input. So, in your Alarm1.A51 program initialise Port 3 as follows:

MOV P3, #00h ; Write all zeros to P3 for dScope purposes

The same modification will apply to Alarm2.A51 etc.

