
CHAPTER 11

AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY AND C

OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this chapter, you will be able to:

- >> Contrast and compare serial versus parallel data transfer
- >> List the advantages of serial communication over parallel
- >> Explain serial communication protocol
- >> Contrast synchronous versus asynchronous communication
- >> Contrast half- versus full-duplex transmission
- >> Explain the process of data framing
- >> Describe data transfer rate and bps rate
- >> Define the RS232 standard
- >> Explain the use of the MAX232 and MAX233 chips
- >> Interface the AVR with an RS232 connector
- >> Discuss the baud rate of the AVR
- >> Describe serial communication features of the AVR
- >> Describe the main registers used by serial communication of the AVR
- >> Program the ATmega32 serial port in Assembly and C

Computers transfer data in two ways: parallel and serial. In parallel data transfers, often eight or more lines (wire conductors) are used to transfer data to a device that is only a few feet away. Devices that use parallel transfers include printers and IDE hard disks; each uses cables with many wires. Although a lot of data can be transferred in a short amount of time by using many wires in parallel, the distance cannot be great. To transfer to a device located many meters away, the serial method is used. In serial communication, the data is sent one bit at a time, in contrast to parallel communication, in which the data is sent a byte or more at a time. Serial communication of the AVR is the topic of this chapter. The AVR has serial communication capability built into it, thereby making possible fast data transfer using only a few wires.

In this chapter we first discuss the basics of serial communication. In Section 11.2, AVR interfacing to RS232 connectors via MAX232 line drivers is discussed. Serial port programming of the AVR is discussed in Section 11.3. Section 11.4 covers AVR C programming for the serial port using the Win AVR compiler. In Section 11.5 interrupt-based serial port programming is discussed.

SECTION 11.1: BASICS OF SERIAL COMMUNICATION

When a microprocessor communicates with the outside world, it provides the data in byte-sized chunks. For some devices, such as printers, the information is simply grabbed from the 8-bit data bus and presented to the 8-bit data bus of the device. This can work only if the cable is not too long, because long cables diminish and even distort signals. Furthermore, an 8-bit data path is expensive. For these reasons, serial communication is used for transferring data between two systems located at distances of hundreds of feet to millions of miles apart. Figure 11-1 diagrams serial versus parallel data transfers.

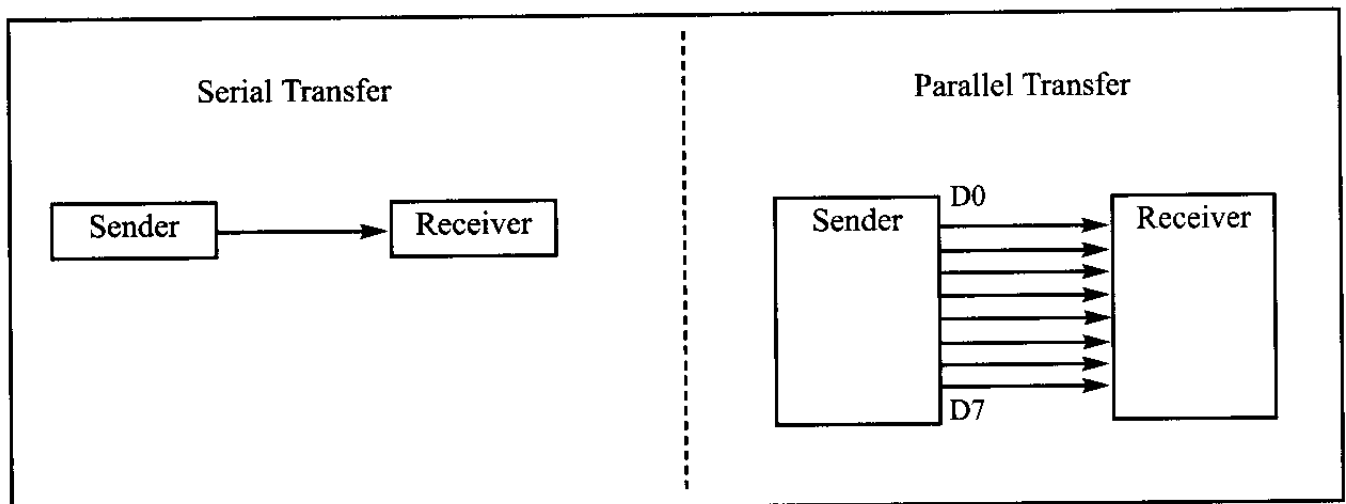


Figure 11-1. Serial versus Parallel Data Transfer

The fact that a single data line is used in serial communication instead of the 8-bit data line of parallel communication makes serial transfer not only much cheaper but also enables two computers located in two different cities to communicate over the telephone.

For serial data communication to work, the byte of data must be converted

to serial bits using a parallel-in-serial-out shift register; then it can be transmitted over a single data line. This also means that at the receiving end there must be a serial-in-parallel-out shift register to receive the serial data and pack them into a byte. Of course, if data is to be transmitted on the telephone line, it must be converted from 0s and 1s to audio tones, which are sinusoidal signals. This conversion is performed by a peripheral device called a *modem*, which stands for “modulator/demodulator.”

When the distance is short, the digital signal can be transmitted as it is on a simple wire and requires no modulation. This is how x86 PC keyboards transfer data to the motherboard. For long-distance data transfers using communication lines such as a telephone, however, serial data communication requires a modem to *modulate* (convert from 0s and 1s to audio tones) and *demodulate* (convert from audio tones to 0s and 1s).

Serial data communication uses two methods, asynchronous and synchronous. The *synchronous* method transfers a block of data (characters) at a time, whereas the *asynchronous* method transfers a single byte at a time. It is possible to write software to use either of these methods, but the programs can be tedious and long. For this reason, special IC chips are made by many manufacturers for serial data communications. These chips are commonly referred to as UART (universal asynchronous receiver-transmitter) and USART (universal synchronous-asynchronous receiver-transmitter). The AVR chip has a built-in USART, which is discussed in detail in Section 11.3.

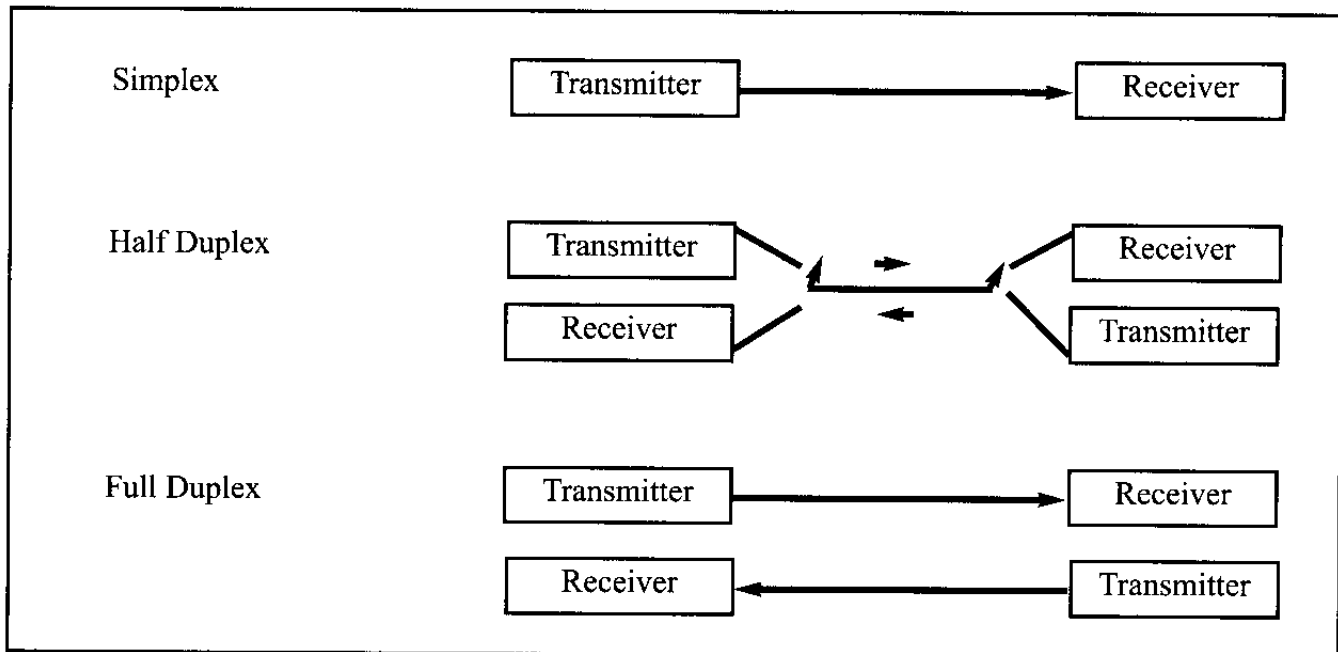


Figure 11-2. Simplex, Half-, and Full-Duplex Transfers

Half- and full-duplex transmission

In data transmission, if the data can be both transmitted and received, it is a *duplex* transmission. This is in contrast to *simplex* transmissions such as with printers, in which the computer only sends data. Duplex transmissions can be half or full duplex, depending on whether or not the data transfer can be simultaneous. If data is transmitted one way at a time, it is referred to as *half duplex*. If the data

can go both ways at the same time, it is *full duplex*. Of course, full duplex requires two wire conductors for the data lines (in addition to the signal ground), one for transmission and one for reception, in order to transfer and receive data simultaneously. See Figure 11-2.

Asynchronous serial communication and data framing

The data coming in at the receiving end of the data line in a serial data transfer is all 0s and 1s; it is difficult to make sense of the data unless the sender and receiver agree on a set of rules, a *protocol*, on how the data is packed, how many bits constitute a character, and when the data begins and ends.

Start and stop bits

Asynchronous serial data communication is widely used for character-oriented transmissions, while block-oriented data transfers use the synchronous method. In the asynchronous method, each character is placed between start and stop bits. This is called *framing*. In data framing for asynchronous communications, the data, such as ASCII characters, are packed between a start bit and a stop bit. The start bit is always one bit, but the stop bit can be one or two bits. The start bit is always a 0 (low), and the stop bit(s) is 1 (high). For example, look at Figure 11-3 in which the ASCII character “A” (8-bit binary 0100 0001) is framed between the start bit and a single stop bit. Notice that the LSB is sent out first.

Notice in Figure 11-3 that when there is no transfer, the signal is 1 (high), which is referred to as *mark*. The 0 (low) is referred to as *space*. Notice that the transmission begins with a start bit (space) followed by D0, the LSB, then the rest of the bits until the MSB (D7), and finally, the one stop bit indicating the end of the character “A”.

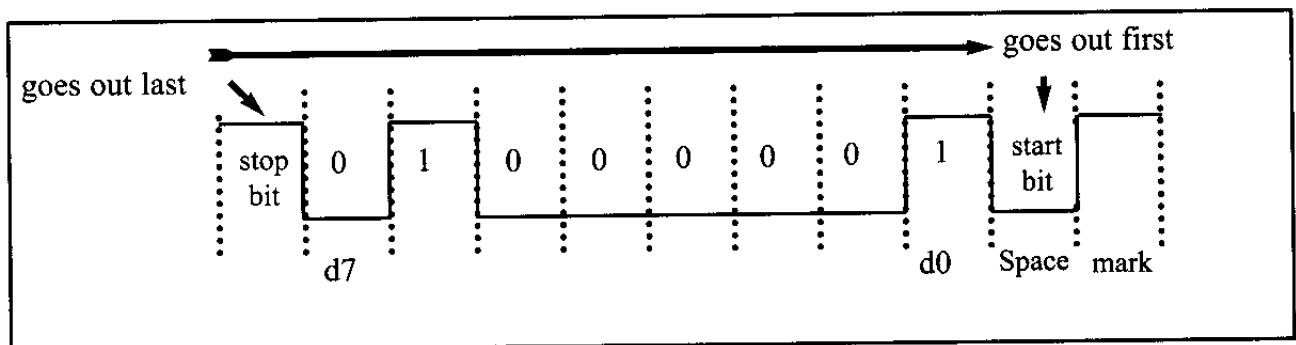


Figure 11-3. Framing ASCII 'A' (41H)

In asynchronous serial communications, peripheral chips and modems can be programmed for data that is 7 or 8 bits wide. This is in addition to the number of stop bits, 1 or 2. While in older systems ASCII characters were 7-bit, in recent years, 8-bit data has become common due to the extended ASCII characters. In some older systems, due to the slowness of the receiving mechanical device, two stop bits were used to give the device sufficient time to organize itself before transmission of the next byte. In modern PCs, however, the use of one stop bit is standard. Assuming that we are transferring a text file of ASCII characters using 1 stop bit, we have a total of 10 bits for each character: 8 bits for the ASCII code, and 1 bit each for the start and stop bits. Therefore, each 8-bit character has an extra 2 bits, which gives 25% overhead.

In some systems, the parity bit of the character byte is included in the data frame in order to maintain data integrity. This means that for each character (7- or 8-bit, depending on the system) we have a single parity bit in addition to start and stop bits. The parity bit is odd or even. In the case of an odd parity bit the number of 1s in the data bits, including the parity bit, is odd. Similarly, in an even parity bit system the total number of bits, including the parity bit, is even. For example, the ASCII character “A”, binary 0100 0001, has 0 for the even parity bit. UART chips allow programming of the parity bit for odd-, even-, and no-parity options.

Data transfer rate

The rate of data transfer in serial data communication is stated in *bps* (bits per second). Another widely used terminology for bps is *baud rate*. However, the baud and bps rates are not necessarily equal. This is because baud rate is the modem terminology and is defined as the number of signal changes per second. In modems, sometimes a single change of signal transfers several bits of data. As far as the conductor wire is concerned, the baud rate and bps are the same, and for this reason in this book we use the terms bps and baud interchangeably.

The data transfer rate of a given computer system depends on communication ports incorporated into that system. For example, the early IBM PC/XT could transfer data at the rate of 100 to 9600 bps. In recent years, however, Pentium-based PCs transfer data at rates as high as 56K. Notice that in asynchronous serial data communication, the baud rate is generally limited to 100,000 bps.

RS232 standards

To allow compatibility among data communication equipment made by various manufacturers, an interfacing standard called RS232 was set by the Electronics Industries Association (EIA) in 1960. In 1963 it was modified and called RS232A. RS232B and RS232C were issued in 1965 and 1969, respectively. In this book we refer to it simply as RS232. Today, RS232 is one of the most widely used serial I/O interfacing standards. This standard is used in PCs and numerous types of equipment. Because the standard was set long before the advent of the TTL logic family, however, its input and output voltage levels are not TTL compatible. In RS232, a 1 is represented by -3 to -25 V, while a 0 bit is $+3$ to $+25$ volts, making -3 to $+3$ undefined. For this reason, to connect any RS232 to a microcontroller system we must use voltage converters such as MAX232 to convert the TTL logic levels to the RS232 voltage levels, and vice versa. MAX232 IC chips are commonly referred to as line drivers. Original RS232 connection to MAX232 is discussed in Section 11.2.

RS232 pins

Table 11-1 shows the pins for the original RS232 cable and their labels, commonly referred to as the DB-25 connector. In labeling, DB-25P refers to the plug connector (male), and DB-25S is for the socket connector (female). See Figure 11-4.

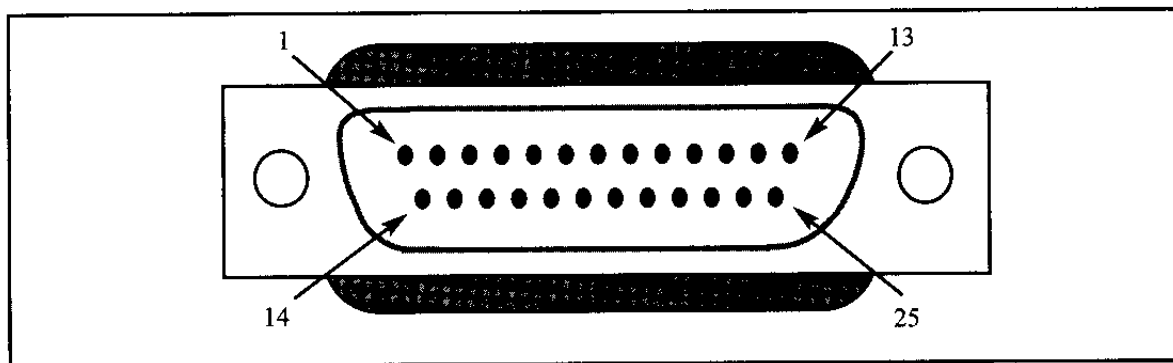


Figure 11-4. The Original RS232 Connector DB-25 (No longer in use)

Because not all the pins were used in PC cables, IBM introduced the DB-9 version of the serial I/O standard, which uses only 9 pins, as shown in Table 11-2. The DB-9 pins are shown in Figure 11-5.

Data communication classification

Current terminology classifies data communication equipment as DTE (data terminal equipment) or DCE (data communication equipment). DTE refers to terminals and computers that send and receive data, while DCE refers to communication equipment, such as modems, that are responsible for transferring the data. Notice that all the RS232 pin function definitions of Tables 11-1 and 11-2 are from the DTE point of view.

The simplest connection between a PC and a microcontroller requires a minimum of three pins, TX, RX, and ground, as shown in Figure 11-6. Notice in that figure that the RX and TX pins are interchanged.

Examining RS232 handshaking signals

To ensure fast and reliable data transmission between two devices, the data transfer must be coordinated. Just as in the case of the printer, because the receiving device may have no room for the data in serial data communication, there must be a way to inform the sender to stop sending data. Many of the pins of the RS-232 connector are used for handshaking signals. Their description is provided below only as a reference, and they can be bypassed

Table 11-1: RS232 Pins (DB-25)

Pin	Description
1	Protective ground
2	Transmitted data (TxD)
3	Received data (RxD)
4	Request to send (RTS)
5	Clear to send (CTS)
6	Data set ready (DSR)
7	Signal ground (GND)
8	Data carrier detect (DCD)
9/10	Reserved for data testing
11	Unassigned
12	Secondary data carrier detect
13	Secondary clear to send
14	Secondary transmitted data
15	Transmit signal element timing
16	Secondary received data
17	Receive signal element timing
18	Unassigned
19	Secondary request to send
20	Data terminal ready (DTR)
21	Signal quality detector
22	Ring indicator
23	Data signal rate select
24	Transmit signal element timing
25	Unassigned

because they are not supported by the AVR UART chip.

1. DTR (data terminal ready). When the terminal (or a PC COM port) is turned on, after going through a self-test, it sends out signal DTR to indicate that it is ready for communication. If there is something wrong with the COM port, this signal will not be activated. This is an active-LOW signal and can be used to inform the modem that the computer is alive and kicking. This is an output pin from DTE (PC COM port) and an input to the modem.
2. DSR (data set ready). When the DCE (modem) is turned on and has gone through the self-test, it asserts DSR to indicate that it is ready to communicate. Thus, it is an output from the modem (DCE) and an input to the PC (DTE). This is an active-LOW signal. If for any reason the modem cannot make a connection to the telephone, this signal remains inactive, indicating to the PC (or terminal) that it cannot accept or send data.
3. RTS (request to send). When the DTE device (such as a PC) has a byte to transmit, it asserts RTS to signal the modem that it has a byte of data to transmit. RTS is an active-LOW output from the DTE and an input to the modem.
4. CTS (clear to send). In response to RTS, when the modem has room to store the data it is to receive, it sends out signal CTS to the DTE (PC) to indicate that it can receive the data now. This input signal to the DTE is used by the DTE to start transmission.
5. DCD (data carrier detect). The modem asserts signal DCD to inform the DTE (PC) that a valid carrier has been detected and that contact between it and the other modem is established. Therefore, DCD is an output from the modem and an input to the PC (DTE).
6. RI (ring indicator). An output from the modem (DCE) and an input to a PC (DTE) indicates that the telephone is ringing. RI goes on and off in synchronization with the ringing sound. Of the six handshake signals, this is the least often used because modems take care of answering the phone. If in a given sys-

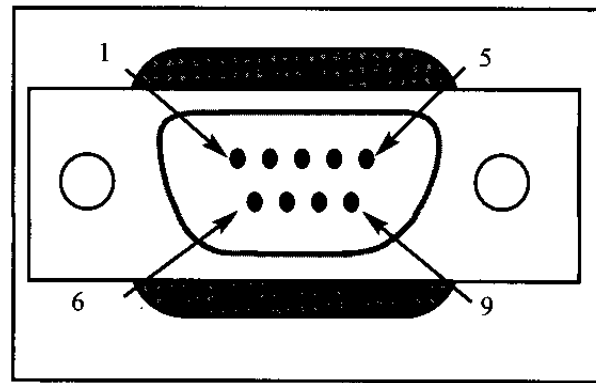


Figure 11-5. 9-Pin Connector for DB-9

Table 11-2: IBM PC DB-9 Signals

Pin	Description
1	Data carrier detect (DCD)
2	Received data (RxD)
3	Transmitted data (TxD)
4	Data terminal ready (DTR)
5	Signal ground (GND)
6	Data set ready (DSR)
7	Request to send (RTS)
8	Clear to send (CTS)
9	Ring indicator (RI)

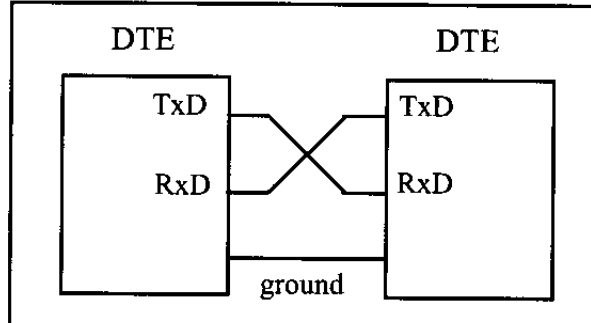


Figure 11-6. Null Modem Connection

tem the PC is in charge of answering the phone, however, this signal can be used.

From the above description, PC and modem communication can be summarized as follows: While signals DTR and DSR are used by the PC and modem, respectively, to indicate that they are alive and well, it is RTS and CTS that actually control the flow of data. When the PC wants to send data it asserts RTS, and in response, the modem, if it is ready (has room) to accept the data, sends back CTS. If, for lack of room, the modem does not activate CTS, the PC will deassert DTR and try again. RTS and CTS are also referred to as hardware control flow signals.

This concludes the description of the most important pins of the RS232 handshake signals plus TX, RX, and ground. Ground is also referred to as SG (signal ground).

x86 PC COM ports

The x86 PCs (based on 8086, 286, 386, 486, and all Pentium microprocessors) used to have two COM ports. Both COM ports were RS232-type connectors.

The COM ports were designated as COM 1 and COM 2. In recent years, one of these has been replaced with the USB port, and COM 1 is the only serial port available, if any. We can connect the AVR serial port to the COM 1 port of a PC for serial communication experiments. In the absence of a COM port, we can use a COM-to-USB converter module.

With this background in serial communication, we are ready to look at the AVR. In the next section we discuss the physical connection of the AVR and RS232 connector, and in Section 11.3 we see how to program the AVR serial communication port.

Review Questions

1. The transfer of data using parallel lines is _____ (faster, slower) but _____ (more expensive, less expensive).
2. True or false. Sending data from a radio station is duplex.
3. True or false. In full duplex we must have two data lines, one for transfer and one for receive.
4. The start and stop bits are used in the _____ (synchronous, asynchronous) method.
5. Assuming that we are transmitting the ASCII letter "E" (0100 0101 in binary) with no parity bit and one stop bit, show the sequence of bits transferred serially.
6. In Question 5, find the overhead due to framing.
7. Calculate the time it takes to transfer 10,000 characters as in Question 5 if we use 9600 bps. What percentage of time is wasted due to overhead?
8. True or false. RS232 is not TTL compatible.
9. What voltage levels are used for binary 0 in RS232?
10. True or false. The AVR has a built-in UART.

SECTION 11.2: ATMEGA32 CONNECTION TO RS232

In this section, the details of the physical connections of the ATmega32 to RS232 connectors are given. As stated in Section 11.1, the RS232 standard is not TTL compatible; therefore, a line driver such as the MAX232 chip is required to convert RS232 voltage levels to TTL levels, and vice versa. The interfacing of ATmega32 with RS232 connectors via the MAX232 chip is the main topic of this section.

RX and TX pins in the ATmega32

The ATmega32 has two pins that are used specifically for transferring and receiving data serially. These two pins are called TX and RX and are part of the Port D group (PD0 and PD1) of the 40-pin package. Pin 15 of the ATmega32 is assigned to TX and pin 14 is designated as RX. These pins are TTL compatible; therefore, they require a line driver to make them RS232 compatible. One such line driver is the MAX232 chip. This is discussed next.

MAX232

Because the RS232 is not compatible with today's microprocessors and microcontrollers, we need a line driver (voltage converter) to convert the RS232's signals to TTL voltage levels that will be acceptable to the AVR's TX and RX pins. One example of such a converter is MAX232 from Maxim Corp. (www.maxim-ic.com). The MAX232 converts from RS232 voltage levels to TTL voltage levels, and vice versa. One advantage of the MAX232 chip is that it uses a +5 V power source, which is the same as the source voltage for the AVR. In other words, with a single +5 V power supply we can power both the AVR and MAX232, with no need for the dual power supplies that are common in many older systems.

The MAX232 has two sets of line drivers for transferring and receiving data, as shown in Figure 11-7. The line drivers used for TX are called T1 and T2,

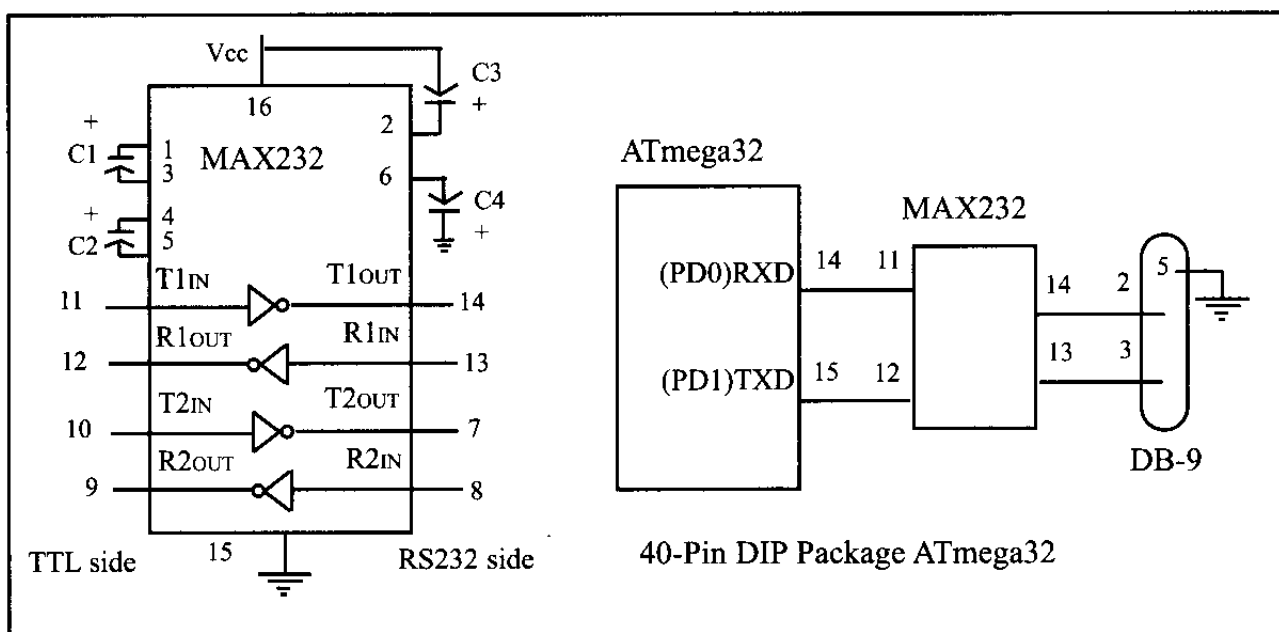


Figure 11-7. (a) Inside MAX232 and (b) Its Connection to the ATmega32 (Null Modem)

while the line drivers for RX are designated as R1 and R2. In many applications only one of each is used. For example, T1 and R1 are used together for TX and RX of the AVR, and the second set is left unused. Notice in MAX232 that the T1 line driver has a designation of T1in and T1out on pin numbers 11 and 14, respectively. The T1in pin is the TTL side and is connected to TX of the microcontroller, while T1out is the RS232 side that is connected to the RX pin of the RS232 DB connector. The R1 line driver has a designation of R1in and R1out on pin numbers 13 and 12, respectively. The R1in (pin 13) is the RS232 side that is connected to the TX pin of the RS232 DB connector, and R1out (pin 12) is the TTL side that is connected to the RX pin of the microcontroller. See Figure 11-7. Notice the null modem connection where RX for one is TX for the other.

MAX232 requires four capacitors ranging from 0.1 to 22 μ F. The most widely used value for these capacitors is 22 μ F.

MAX233

To save board space, some designers use the MAX233 chip from Maxim. The MAX233 performs the same job as the MAX232 but eliminates the need for capacitors. However, the MAX233 chip is much more expensive than the MAX232. Notice that MAX233 and MAX232 are not pin compatible. You cannot take a MAX232 out of a board and replace it with a MAX233. See Figure 11-8 for MAX233 with no capacitor used.

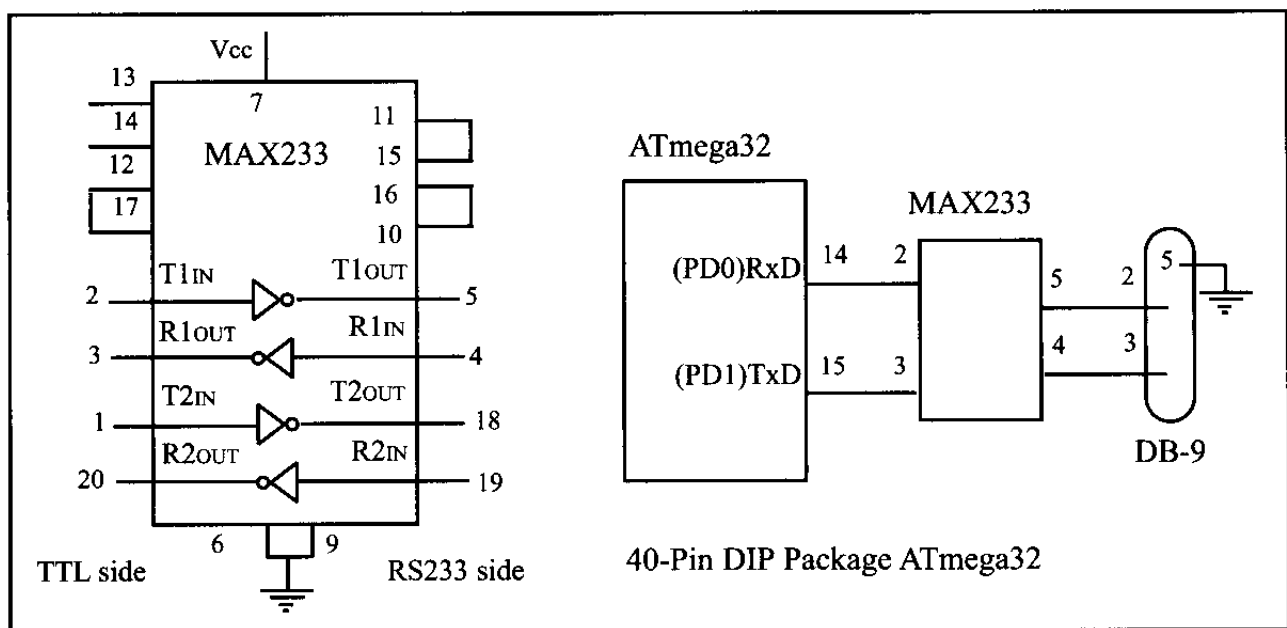


Figure 11-8. (a) Inside MAX233 and (b) Its Connection to the ATmega32 (Null Modem)

Review Questions

1. True or false. The PC COM port connector is the RS232 type.
2. Which pins of the ATmega32 are set aside for serial communication, and what are their functions?
3. What are line drivers such as MAX 232 used for?
4. MAX232 can support ____ lines for TX and ____ lines for RX.
5. What is the advantage of the MAX233 over the MAX232 chip?

SECTION 11.3: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY

In this section we discuss the serial communication registers of the ATmega32 and show how to program them to transfer and receive data using asynchronous mode. The USART (universal synchronous asynchronous receiver/transmitter) in the AVR has normal asynchronous, double-speed asynchronous, master synchronous, and slave synchronous mode features. The synchronous mode can be used to transfer data between the AVR and external peripherals such as ADC and EEPROMs. The asynchronous mode is the one we will use to connect the AVR-based system to the x86 PC serial port for the purpose of full-duplex serial data transfer. In this section we examine the asynchronous mode only.

In the AVR microcontroller five registers are associated with the USART that we deal with in this chapter. They are UDR (USART Data Register), UCSRA, UCSRB, UCSRC (USART Control Status Register), and UBRR (USART Baud Rate Register). We examine each of them and show how they are used in full-duplex serial data communication.

UBRR register and baud rate in the AVR

Because the x86 PCs are so widely used to communicate with AVR-based systems, we will emphasize serial communications of the AVR with the COM port of the x86 PC. Some of the baud rates supported by PC HyperTerminal are listed in Table 11-3. You can examine these baud rates by going to the Microsoft Windows HyperTerminal program and clicking on the Communication Settings option. The AVR transfers and receives data serially at many different baud rates. The baud rate in the AVR is programmable. This is done with the help of the 8-bit register called UBRR. For a given crystal frequency, the value loaded into the UBRR decides the baud rate. The relation between the value loaded into UBRR and the F_{osc} (frequency of oscillator connected to the XTAL1 and XTAL2 pins) is dictated by the following formula:

Table 11-3: Some PC Baud Rates in HyperTerminal

1,200
2,400
4,800
9,600
19,200
38,400
57,600
115,200

$$\text{Desired Baud Rate} = F_{osc} / (16(X + 1))$$

where X is the value we load into the UBRR register. To get the X value for different baud rates we can solve the equation as follows:

$$X = (F_{osc} / (16(\text{Desired Baud Rate}))) - 1$$

Assuming that $F_{osc} = 8 \text{ MHz}$, we have the following:

$$\text{Desired Baud Rate} = F_{osc} / (16(X + 1)) = 8 \text{ MHz} / 16(X + 1) = 500 \text{ kHz} / (X + 1)$$

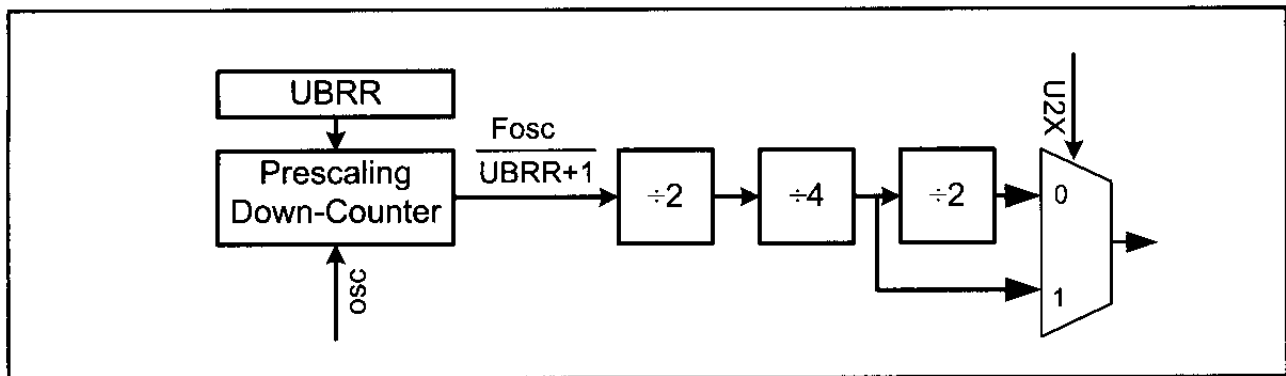
$$X = (500 \text{ kHz} / \text{Desired Baud Rate}) - 1$$

Table 11-4: UBRR Values for Various Baud Rates (Fosc = 8 MHz, U2X = 0)

Baud Rate	UBRR (Decimal Value)	UBRR (Hex Value)
38400	12	C
19200	25	19
9600	51	33
4800	103	67
2400	207	CF
1200	415	19F

Note: For Fosc = 8 MHz we have $UBRR = (500000/BaudRate) - 1$

Table 11-4 shows the X values for the different baud rates if Fosc = 8 MHz. Another way to understand the UBRR values listed in Table 11-4 is to look at Figure 11-9. The UBRR is connected to a down-counter, which functions as a programmable prescaler to generate baud rate. The system clock (Fosc) is the clock input to the down-counter. The down-counter is loaded with the UBRR value each time it counts down to zero. When the counter reaches zero, a clock is generated. This makes a frequency divider that divides the OSC frequency by UBRR + 1. Then the frequency is divided by 2, 4, and 2. See Example 11-1. As you can see

**Figure 11-9. Baud Rate Generation Block Diagram****Example 11-1**

With Fosc = 8 MHz, find the UBRR value needed to have the following baud rates:

- (a) 9600 (b) 4800 (c) 2400 (d) 1200

Solution:

$$Fosc = 8 \text{ MHz} \Rightarrow X = (8 \text{ MHz}/16(\text{Desired Baud Rate})) - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow X = (500 \text{ kHz}/(\text{Desired Baud Rate})) - 1$$

- (a) $(500 \text{ kHz}/9600) - 1 = 52.08 - 1 = 51.08 = 51 = 33 \text{ (hex)}$ is loaded into UBRR
 (b) $(500 \text{ kHz}/4800) - 1 = 104.16 - 1 = 103.16 = 103 = 67 \text{ (hex)}$ is loaded into UBRR
 (c) $(500 \text{ kHz}/2400) - 1 = 208.33 - 1 = 207.33 = 207 = CF \text{ (hex)}$ is loaded into UBRR
 (d) $(500 \text{ kHz}/1200) - 1 = 416.66 - 1 = 415.66 = 415 = 19F \text{ (hex)}$ is loaded into UBRR

Notice that dividing the output of the prescaling down-counter by 16 is the default setting upon Reset. We can get a higher baud rate with the same crystal by changing this default setting. This is explained at the end of this section.

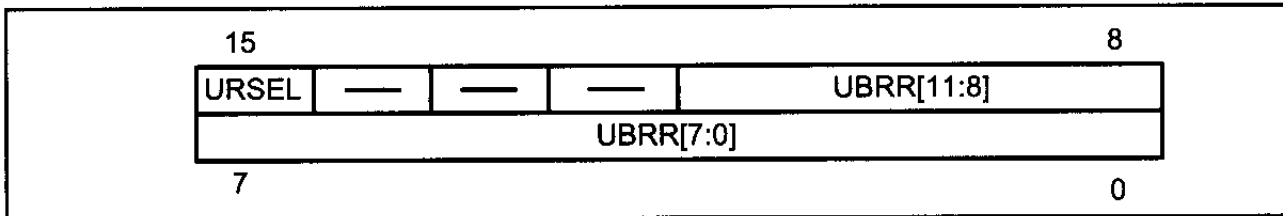


Figure 11-10. UBRR Register

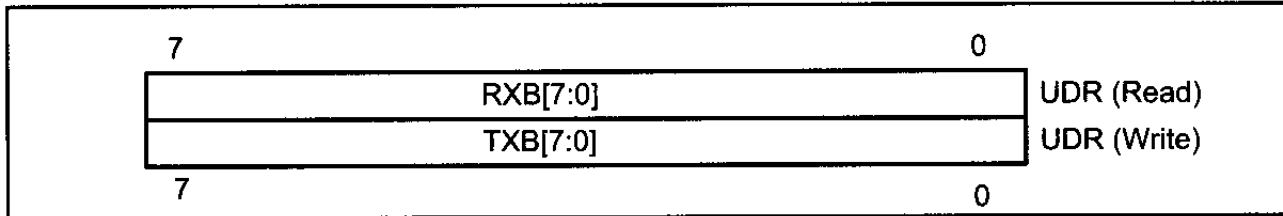


Figure 11-11. UDR Register

in Figure 11-9, we can choose to bypass the last divider and double the baud rate. In the next section we learn more about it.

As you see in Figure 11-10, UBRR is a 16-bit register but only 12 bits of it are used to set the USART baud rate. Bit 15 is URSEL and, as we will see in the next section, selects between accessing the UBRRH or the UCSRC register. The other bits are reserved.

UDR registers and USART data I/O in the AVR

In the AVR, to provide a full-duplex serial communication, there are two shift registers referred to as *Transmit Shift Register* and *Receive Shift Register*. Each shift register has a buffer that is connected to it directly. These buffers are called *Transmit Data Buffer Register* and *Receive Data Buffer Register*. The USART Transmit Data Buffer Register and USART Receive Data Buffer Register share the same I/O address, which is called *USART Data Register* or *UDR*. When you write data to UDR, it will be transferred to the Transmit Data Buffer Register (TXB), and when you read data from UDR, it will return the contents of the Receive Data Buffer Register (RXB). See Figure 11-12.

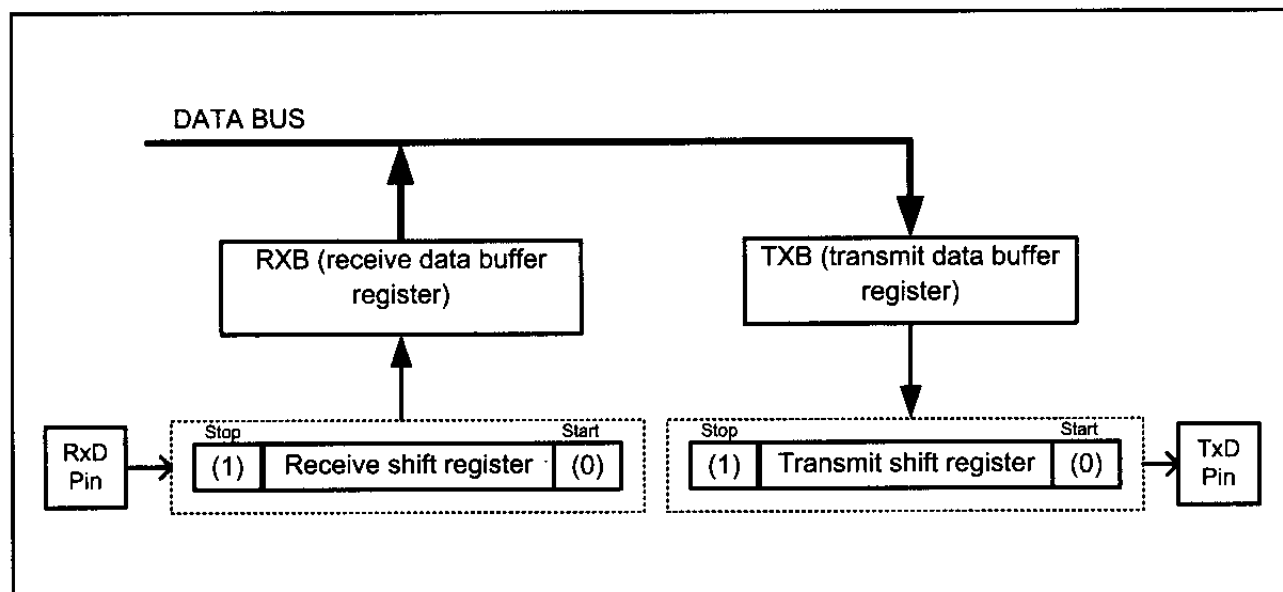


Figure 11-12. Simplified USART Transmit Block Diagram

UCSR registers and USART configurations in the AVR

UCSRs are 8-bit control registers used for controlling serial communication in the AVR. There are three USART Control Status Registers in the AVR. They are UCSRA, UCSRB, and UCSRC. In Figures 11-13 to 11-15 you can see the role of each bit in these registers. Examine these figures carefully before continuing to read this chapter.

RXC	TXC	UDRE	FE	DOR	PE	U2X	MPCM
-----	-----	------	----	-----	----	-----	------

RXC (Bit 7): USART Receive Complete

This flag bit is set when there are new data in the receive buffer that are not read yet. It is cleared when the receive buffer is empty. It also can be used to generate a receive complete interrupt.

TXC (Bit 6): USART Transmit Complete

This flag bit is set when the entire frame in the transmit shift register has been transmitted and there are no new data available in the transmit data buffer register (TXB). It can be cleared by writing a one to its bit location. Also it is automatically cleared when a transmit complete interrupt is executed. It can be used to generate a transmit complete interrupt.

UDRE (Bit 5): USART Data Register Empty

This flag is set when the transmit data buffer is empty and it is ready to receive new data. If this bit is cleared you should not write to UDR because it overrides your last data. The UDRE flag can generate a data register empty interrupt.

FE (Bit 4): Frame Error

This bit is set if a frame error has occurred in receiving the next character in the receive buffer. A frame error is detected when the first stop bit of the next character in the receive buffer is zero.

DOR (Bit 3): Data OverRun

This bit is set if a data overrun is detected. A data overrun occurs when the receive data buffer and receive shift register are full, and a new start bit is detected.

PE (Bit 2): Parity Error

This bit is set if parity checking was enabled ($UPM1 = 1$) and the next character in the receive buffer had a parity error when received.

U2X (Bit 1): Double the USART Transmission Speed

Setting this bit will double the transfer rate for asynchronous communication.

MPCM (Bit 0): Multi-processor Communication Mode

This bit enables the multi-processor communication mode. The MPCM feature is not discussed in this book.

Notice that FE, DOR, and PE are valid until the receive buffer (UDR) is read. Always set these bits to zero when writing to UCSRA.

Figure 11-13. UCSRA: USART Control and Status Register A

RXCIE	TXCIE	UDRIE	RXEN	TXEN	UCSZ2	RXB8	TXB8
-------	-------	-------	------	------	-------	------	------

RXCIE (Bit 7): Receive Complete Interrupt Enable

To enable the interrupt on the RXC flag in UCSRA you should set this bit to one.

TXCIE (Bit 6): Transmit Complete Interrupt Enable

To enable the interrupt on the TXC flag in UCSRA you should set this bit to one.

UDRIE (Bit 5): USART Data Register Empty Interrupt Enable

To enable the interrupt on the UDRE flag in UCSRA you should set this bit to one.

RXEN (Bit 4): Receive Enable

To enable the USART receiver you should set this bit to one.

TXEN (Bit 3): Transmit Enable

To enable the USART transmitter you should set this bit to one.

UCSZ2 (Bit 2): Character Size

This bit combined with the UCSZ1:0 bits in UCSRC sets the number of data bits (character size) in a frame.

RXB8 (Bit 1): Receive data bit 8

This is the ninth data bit of the received character when using serial frames with nine data bits. This bit is not used in this book.

TXB8 (Bit 0): Transmit data bit 8

This is the ninth data bit of the transmitted character when using serial frames with nine data bits. This bit is not used in this book.

Figure 11-14. UCSRB: USART Control and Status Register B

Three of the UCSRB register bits are related to interrupt. They are RXCIE, TXCIE, and UDRIE. See Figure 11-14. In Section 11-5 we will see how these flags are used with interrupts. In this section we monitor (poll) the UDRE flag bit to make sure that the transmit data buffer is empty and it is ready to receive new data. By the same logic, we monitor the RXC flag to see if a byte of data has come in yet.

Before you start serial communication you have to enable the USART receiver or USART transmitter by writing one to the RXEN or TXEN bit of UCSRB. As we mentioned before, in the AVR you can use either synchronous or asynchronous operating mode. The UMSEL bit of the UCSRC register selects the USART operating mode. Since we want to use synchronous USART operating mode, we have to set the UMSEL bit to one. Also you have to set an identical character size for both transmitter and the receiver. If the character size of the receiver does not match the character size of the transmitter, data transfer would fail. Parity mode and number of stop bits are other factors that the receiver and transmitter must agree on before starting USART communication.

URSEL	UMSEL	UPM1	UPM0	USBS	UCSZ1	UCSZ0	UCPOL
-------	-------	------	------	------	-------	-------	-------

URSEL (Bit 7): Register Select

This bit selects to access either the UCSRC or the UBRRH register and will be discussed more in this section.

UMSEL (Bit 6): USART Mode Select

This bit selects to operate in either the asynchronous or synchronous mode of operation.

0 = Asynchronous operation

1 = Synchronous operation

UPM1:0 (Bit 5:4): Parity Mode

These bits disable or enable and set the type of parity generation and check.

00 = Disabled

01 = Reserved

10 = Even Parity

11 = Odd Parity

USBS (Bit 3): Stop Bit Select

This bit selects the number of stop bits to be transmitted.

0 = 1 bit

1 = 2 bits

UCSZ1:0 (Bit 2:1): Character Size

These bits combined with the UCSZ2 bit in UCSRB set the character size in a frame and will be discussed more in this section.

UCPOL (Bit 2): Clock Polarity

This bit is used for synchronous mode only and will not be covered in this section.

Figure 11-15. UCSRC: USART Control and Status Register C

To set the number of data bits (character size) in a frame you must set the values of the UCSZ1 and UCSZ0 bits in the UCSRB and UCSZ2 bits in UCSRC. Table 11-5 shows the values of UCSZ2, UCSZ1, and UCSZ0 for different character sizes. In this book we use the 8-bit character size because it is the most common in x86 serial communications. If you want to use 9-bit data, you have to use the RXB8 and TXB8 bits in UCSRB as the 9th bit of UDR (USART Data

Table 11-5: Values of UCSZ2:0 for Different Character Sizes

UCSZ2	UCSZ1	UCSZ0	Character Size
0	0	0	5
0	0	1	6
0	1	0	7
0	1	1	8
1	1	1	9

Note: Other values are reserved. Also notice that UCSZ0 and UCSZ1 belong to UCSRC and UCSZ2 belongs to UCSRB

Register).

Because of some technical considerations, the UCSRC register shares the same I/O location as the UBRRH, and therefore some care must be taken when accessing these I/O locations. When you write to UCSRC or UBRRH, the high bit of the written value (URSEL) controls which of the two registers will be the target of the write operation. If URSEL is zero during a write operation, the UBRRH value will be updated; otherwise, UCSRC will be updated. See Examples 11-2 and 11-3 to learn how we access the bits of UCSRC and UBRR.

Example 11-2

- (a) What are the values of UCSRB and UCSRC needed to configure USART for asynchronous operating mode, 8 data bits (character size), no parity, and 1 stop bit? Enable both receive and transmit.
- (b) Write a program for the AVR to set the values of UCSRB and UCSRC for this configuration.

Solution:

- (a) RXEN and TXEN have to be 1 to enable receive and transmit. UCSZ2:0 should be 011 for 8-bit data, UMSEL should be 0 for asynchronous operating mode, UPM1:0 have to be 00 for no parity, and USBS should be 0 for one stop bit.

- (b)

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

LDI  R16, (1<<RXEN) | (1<<TXEN)
OUT  UCSRB, R16
;In the next line URSEL = 1 to access UCSRC. Note that instead
;of using shift operator, you can write "LDI R16, 0b10000110"
LDI  R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL)
OUT  UCSRC, R16
```

Example 11-3

In Example 11-2, set the baud rate to 1200 and write a program for the AVR to set up the values of UCSRB, UCSRC, and UBRR. (Focs = 8 MHz)

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

LDI  R16, (1<<RXEN) | (1<<TXEN)
OUT  UCSRB, R16
;In the next line URSEL = 1 to access UCSRC. Note that instead
;of using shift operator, you can write "LDI R16, 0b10000110"
LDI  R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL)
OUT  UCSRC, R16                ;move R16 to UCSRC
LDI  R16, 0x9F                 ;see Table 11-4
OUT  UBRRH, R16                ;1200 baud rate
LDI  R16, 0x1                  ;URSEL= 0 to
OUT  UBRRH, R16                ;access UBRRH
```

FE and PE flag bits

When the AVR USART receives a byte, we can check the parity bit and stop bit. If the parity bit is not correct, the AVR will set PE to one, indicating that a parity error has occurred. We can also check the stop bit. As we mentioned before, the stop bit must be one, otherwise the AVR would generate a stop bit error and set the FE flag bit to one, indicating that a stop bit error has occurred. We can check these flags to see if the received data is valid and correct. Notice that FE and PE are valid until the receive buffer (UDR) is read. So we have to read FE and PE bits before reading UDR. You can explore this on your own.

Programming the AVR to transfer data serially

In programming the AVR to transfer character bytes serially, the following steps must be taken:

1. The UCSRB register is loaded with the value 08H, enabling the USART transmitter. The transmitter will override normal port operation for the TxD pin when enabled.
2. The UCSRC register is loaded with the value 06H, indicating asynchronous mode with 8-bit data frame, no parity, and one stop bit.
3. The UBRR is loaded with one of the values in Table 11-4 (if $F_{osc} = 8$ MHz) to set the baud rate for serial data transfer.
4. The character byte to be transmitted serially is written into the UDR register.
5. Monitor the UDRE bit of the UCSRA register to make sure UDR is ready for the next byte.
6. To transmit the next character, go to Step 4.

Importance of monitoring the UDRE flag

By monitoring the UDRE flag, we make sure that we are not overloading

Example 11-4

Write a program for the AVR to transfer the letter 'G' serially at 9600 baud, continuously. Assume XTAL = 8 MHz.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
    LDI    R16, (1<<TXEN)           ;enable transmitter
    OUT    UCSRB, R16
    LDI    R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);8-bit data
    OUT    UCSRC, R16               ;no parity, 1 stop bit
    LDI    R16, 0x33                 ;9600 baud rate
    OUT    UBRR, R16                ;for XTAL = 8 MHz
AGAIN:
    SBIS   UCSRA, UDRE               ;is UDR empty
    RJMP   AGAIN                    ;wait more
    LDI    R16, 'G'                  ;send 'G'
    OUT    UDR, R16                  ;to UDR
    RJMP   AGAIN                    ;do it again
```

the UDR register. If we write another byte into the UDR register before it is empty, the old byte could be lost before it is transmitted.

We conclude that by checking the UDRE flag bit, we know whether or not the AVR is ready to accept another byte to transmit. The UDRE flag bit can be checked by the instruction “SBIS UCSRA,UDRE” or we can use an interrupt, as we will see in Section 11.5. In Section 11.5 we will show how to use interrupts to transfer data serially, and avoid tying down the microcontroller with instructions such as “SBIS UCSRA,UDRE”. Example 11-4 shows the program to transfer ‘G’ serially at 9600 baud.

Example 11-5 shows how to transfer “YES ” continuously.

Example 11-5

Write a program to transmit the message “YES ” serially at 9600 baud, 8-bit data, and 1 stop bit. Do this forever.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)    ;initialize high
OUT    SPH,R21             ;byte of SP
LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)     ;initialize low
OUT    SPL,R21             ;byte of SP

LDI    R16,(1<<TXEN)       ;enable transmitter
OUT    UCSRB,R16
LDI    R16,(1<<UCSZ1)|(1<<UCSZ0)|(1<<URSEL); 8-bit data
OUT    UCSRC,R16           ;no parity, 1 stop bit
LDI    R16,0x33            ;9600 baud rate
OUT    UBRRL,R16

AGAIN:
LDI    R17,'Y'             ;move 'Y' to R17
CALL   TRNSMT              ;transmit r17 to TxD
LDI    R17,'E'             ;move 'E' to R17
CALL   TRNSMT              ;transmit r17 to TxD
LDI    R17,'S'             ;move 'S' to R17
CALL   TRNSMT              ;transmit r17 to TxD
LDI    R17,' '             ;move ' ' to R17
CALL   TRNSMT              ;transmit space to TxD
RJMP   AGAIN              ;do it again

TRNSMT:
SBIS   UCSRA,UDRE          ;is UDR empty?
RJMP   TRNSMT              ;wait more
OUT    UDR,R17             ;send R17 to UDR
RET
```

Programming the AVR to receive data serially

In programming the AVR to receive character bytes serially, the following

steps must be taken:

1. The UCSRB register is loaded with the value 10H, enabling the USART receiver. The receiver will override normal port operation for the RxD pin when enabled.
2. The UCSRC register is loaded with the value 06H, indicating asynchronous mode with 8-bit data frame, no parity, and one stop bit.
3. The UBRRL is loaded with one of the values in Table 11-4 (if $F_{osc} = 8 \text{ MHz}$) to set the baud rate for serial data transfer.
4. The RXC flag bit of the UCSRA register is monitored for a HIGH to see if an entire character has been received yet.
5. When RXC is raised, the UDR register has the byte. Its contents are moved into a safe place.
6. To receive the next character, go to Step 5.

Example 11-6 shows the coding of the above steps.

Example 11-6

Program the ATmega32 to receive bytes of data serially and put them on Port B. Set the baud rate at 9600, 8-bit data, and 1 stop bit.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
    LDI    R16, (1<<RXEN)                ;enable receiver
    OUT    UCSRB, R16
    LDI    R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);8-bit data
    OUT    UCSRC, R16                    ;no parity, 1 stop bit
    LDI    R16, 0x33                      ;9600 baud rate
    OUT    UBRRL, R16
    LDI    R16, 0xFF                      ;Port B is output
    OUT    DDRB, R16
RCVE:
    SBIS   UCSRA, RXC                    ;is any byte in UDR?
    RJMP   RCVE                          ;wait more
    IN     R17, UDR                      ;send UDR to R17
    OUT    PORTB, R17                   ;send R17 to PORTB
    RJMP   RCVE                          ;do it again
```

Transmit and receive

In previous examples we showed how to transmit or receive data serially. Next we show how do both send and receive at the same time in a program. Assume that the AVR serial port is connected to the COM port of the x86 PC, and we are using the HyperTerminal program on the PC to send and receive data serially. Ports A and B of the AVR are connected to LEDs and switches, respectively. Example 11-7 shows an AVR program with the following parts: (a) sends the message "YES" once to the PC screen, (b) gets data on switches and transmits it via the serial port to the PC's screen, and (c) receives any key press sent by HyperTerminal and puts it on LEDs.

Example 11-7

Write an AVR program with the following parts: (a) send the message "YES" once to the PC screen, (b) get data from switches on Port A and transmit it via the serial port to the PC's screen, and (c) receive any key press sent by HyperTerminal and put it on LEDs. The programs must do parts (b) and (c) repeatedly.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

    LDI    R21,0x00
    OUT    DDRA,R21                ;Port A is input
    LDI    R21,0xFF
    OUT    DDRB,R21                ;Port B is output

    LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)         ;initialize high
    OUT    SPH,R21                  ;byte of SP
    LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)          ;initialize low
    OUT    SPL,R21                  ;byte of SP

    LDI    R16,(1<<TXEN)|(1<<RXEN)  ;enable transmitter
    OUT    UCSRB,R16                ;and receiver
    LDI    R16,(1<<UCSZ1)|(1<<UCSZ0)|(1<<URSEL) ;8-bit data
    OUT    UCSRC,R16                ;no parity, 1 stop bit
    LDI    R16,0x33                 ;9600 baud rate
    OUT    UBRRL,R16

    LDI    R17,'Y'                  ;move 'Y' to R17
    CALL   TRNSMT                   ;transmit r17 to TxD
    LDI    R17,'E'                  ;move 'E' to R17
    CALL   TRNSMT                   ;transmit r17 to TxD
    LDI    R17,'S'                  ;move 'S' to R17
    CALL   TRNSMT                   ;transmit r17 to TxD
AGAIN:
    SBIS   UCSRA,RXC                 ;is there new data?
    RJMP   SKIP_RX                  ;skip receive cmnds
    IN     R17,UDR                   ;move UDR to R17
    OUT    PORTB,R17                ;move R17 TO PORTB

SKIP_RX:
    SBIS   UCSRA,UDRE                ;is UDR empty?
    RJMP   SKIP_TX                  ;skip transmit cmnds
    IN     R17,PINA                  ;move Port A to R17
    OUT    UDR,R17                  ;send R17 to UDR
SKIP_TX:
    RJMP   AGAIN                    ;do it again

TRNSMT:
    SBIS   UCSRA,UDRE                ;is UDR empty?
    RJMP   TRNSMT                   ;wait more
    OUT    UDR,R17                  ;send R17 to UDR
    RET
```

Doubling the baud rate in the AVR

There are two ways to increase the baud rate of data transfer in the AVR:

1. Use a higher-frequency crystal.
2. Change a bit in the UCSRA register, as shown below.

Option 1 is not feasible in many situations because the system crystal is fixed. Therefore, we will explore option 2. There is a software way to double the baud rate of the AVR while the crystal frequency stays the same. This is done with the U2X bit of the UCSRA register. When the AVR is powered up, the U2X bit of the UCSRA register is zero. We can set it to high by software and thereby double the baud rate.

To see how the baud rate is doubled with this method, look again at Figure 11-9. If we set the U2X bit to HIGH, the third frequency divider will be bypassed. In the case of XTAL = 8 MHz and U2X bit set to HIGH, we would have:

$$\text{Desired Baud Rate} = F_{\text{osc}} / (8 (X + 1)) = 8 \text{ MHz} / 8 (X + 1) = 1 \text{ MHz} / (X + 1)$$

To get the X value for different baud rates we can solve the equation as follows:

$$X = (1 \text{ kHz} / \text{Desired Baud Rate}) - 1$$

In Table 11-6 you can see values of UBRR in hex and decimal for different baud rates for U2X = 0 and U2X = 1. (XTAL = 8 MHz).

Table 11-6: UBRR Values for Various Baud Rates (XTAL = 8 MHz)

U2X = 0			U2X = 1	
Baud Rate	UBRR	UBR (HEX)	UBRR	UBR (HEX)
38400	12	C	25	19
19200	25	19	51	33
9,600	51	33	103	67
4,800	103	67	207	CF
$UBRR = (500 \text{ kHz} / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$			$UBRR = (1 \text{ kHz} / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$	

Baud rate error calculation

In calculating the baud rate we have used the integer number for the UBRR register values because AVR microcontrollers can only use integer values. By dropping the decimal portion of the calculated values we run the risk of introducing error into the baud rate. There are several ways to calculate this error. One way would be to use the following formula.

$$\text{Error} = (\text{Calculated value for the UBRR} - \text{Integer part}) / \text{Integer part}$$

For example, with XTAL = 8 MHz and U2X = 0 we have the following for

the 9600 baud rate:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{UBRR value} &= (500,000 / 9600) - 1 = 52.08 - 1 = 51.08 = 51 \\ \Rightarrow \text{Error} &= (51.08 - 51) / 51 = 0.16\% \end{aligned}$$

Another way to calculate the error rate is as follows:

$$\text{Error} = (\text{Calculated baud rate} - \text{desired baud rate}) / \text{desired baud rate}$$

Where the desired baud rate is calculated using $X = (\text{Fosc} / (16(\text{Desired Baud rate}))) - 1$, and then the integer X (value loaded into UBRR reg) is used for the calculated baud rate as follows:

$$\text{Calculated baud rate} = \text{Fosc} / (16(X + 1)) \quad (\text{for } U2X = 0)$$

For XTAL = 8 MHz and 9600 baud rate, we got $X = 51$. Therefore, we get the calculated baud rate of $8 \text{ MHz} / (16(51 + 1)) = 9765$. Now the error is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Error} = (9615 - 9600) / 9600 = 0.16\%$$

which is the same as what we got earlier using the other method. Table 11-7 provides the error rates for UBRR values of 8 MHz crystal frequencies.

Table 11-7: UBRR Values for Various Baud Rates (XTAL = 8 MHz)

U2X = 0			U2X = 1	
Baud Rate	UBRR	Error	UBRR	Error
38400	12	0.2%	25	0.2%
19200	25	0.2%	51	0.2%
9,600	51	0.2%	103	0.2%
4,800	103	0.2%	207	0.2%
$UBRR = (500,000 / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$			$UBRR = (1,000,000 / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$	

In some applications we need very accurate baud rate generation. In these cases we can use a 7.3728 MHz or 11.0592 MHz crystal. As you can see in Table 11-8, the error is 0% if we use a 7.3728 MHz crystal. In the table there are values of UBRR for different baud rates for U2X = 0 and U2X = 1.

Table 11-8: UBRR Values for Various Baud Rates (XTAL = 7.3728 MHz)

U2X = 0			U2X = 1	
Baud Rate	UBRR	Error	UBRR	Error
38400	11	0%	23	0%
19200	23	0%	47	0%
9,600	47	0%	95	0%
4,800	95	0%	191	0%
$UBRR = (460,800 / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$			$UBRR = (921,600 / \text{Baud rate}) - 1$	

See Example 11-8 to see how to calculate the error for different baud rates.

Example 11-8

Assuming XTAL = 10 MHz, calculate the baud rate error for each of the following:

(a) 2400 (b) 9600 (c) 19,200 (d) 57,600

Use the U2X = 0 mode.

Solution:

UBRR Value = $(F_{osc} / 16(\text{baud rate})) - 1$, $F_{osc} = 10 \text{ MHz} \Rightarrow$

(a) UBRR Value = $(625,000 / 2400) - 1 = 260.41 - 1 = 259.41 = 259$

Error = $(259.41 - 259) / 259 = 0.158\%$

(b) UBRR Value $(625,000 / 9600) - 1 = 65.104 - 1 = 64.104 = 64$

Error = $(64.104 - 64) / 64 = 0.162\%$

(c) UBRR Value $(625,000 / 19,200) - 1 = 32.55 - 1 = 31.55 = 31$

Error = $(31.55 - 31) / 31 = 1.77\%$

(d) UBRR Value $(625,000 / 57,600) - 1 = 10.85 - 1 = 9.85 = 9$

Error = $(9.85 - 9) / 9 = 9.4\%$

Review Questions

1. Which registers of the AVR are used to set the baud rate?
2. If XTAL = 10 MHz, what value should be loaded into UBRR to have a 14,400 baud rate? Give the answer in both decimal and hex.
3. What is the baud rate error in the last question?
4. With XTAL = 7.3728 MHz, what value should be loaded into UBRR to have a 9600 baud rate? Give the answer in both decimal and hex.
5. To transmit a byte of data serially, it must be placed in register _____.
6. UCSRA stands for _____.
7. Which bits are used to set the data frame size?
8. True or false. UCSRA and UCSRB share the same I/O address.
9. What parameters should the transmitter and receiver agree on before starting a serial transmission?
10. Which register has the U2X bit, and why do we use the U2X bit?

SECTION 11.4: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN C

As we have seen in previous chapters, all the special function registers of the AVR are accessible directly in C compilers by using the appropriate header file. Examples 11-9 through 11-14 show how to program the serial port in C. Connect your AVR trainer to the PC's COM port and use HyperTerminal to test the operation of these examples.

Example 11-9

Write a C function to initialize the USART to work at 9600 baud, 8-bit data, and 1 stop bit. Assume XTAL = 8 MHz.

Solution:

```
void usart_init (void)
{
    UCSRB = (1<<TXEN);
    UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
    UBRRL = 0x33;
}
```

Example 11-10 (C Version of Example 11-4)

Write a C program for the AVR to transfer the letter 'G' serially at 9600 baud, continuously. Use 8-bit data and 1 stop bit. Assume XTAL = 8 MHz.

Solution:

```
#include <avr/io.h> //standard AVR header
void usart_init (void)
{
    UCSRB = (1<<TXEN);
    UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
    UBRRL = 0x33;
}
void usart_send (unsigned char ch)
{
    //wait until UDR
    while (! (UCSRA & (1<<UDRE))); //is empty
    UDR = ch; //transmit 'G'
}

int main (void)
{
    usart_init(); //initialize the USART
    while(1) //do forever
        usart_send ('G'); //transmit 'G' letter
    return 0;
}
```

Example 11-11

Write a program to send the message "The Earth is but One Country." to the serial port continuously. Using the settings in the last example.

Solution:

```
#include <avr/io.h>                                //standard AVR header

void usart_init (void)
{ UCSRB = (1<<TXEN);
  UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
  UBRRL = 0x33;
}

void usart_send (unsigned char ch)
{ while (!(UCSRA & (1<<UDRE)));
  UDR = ch;
}

int main (void)
{ unsigned char str[30] = "The Earth is but One Country. ";
  unsigned char strLenght = 30;
  unsigned char i = 0;
  usart_init();
  while(1)
  {
    usart_send(str[i++]);
    if (i >= strLenght)
      i = 0;
  }
  return 0;
}
```

Example 11-12

Program the AVR in C to receive bytes of data serially and put them on Port A. Set the baud rate at 9600, 8-bit data, and 1 stop bit.

Solution:

```
#include <avr/io.h>                                //standard AVR header
int main (void)
{
  DDRA = 0xFF;                                       //Port A is input
  UCSRB = (1<<RXEN);                                //initialize USART
  UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
  UBRRL = 0x33;
  while(1)
  {
    while (!(UCSRA & (1<<RXC)));                    //wait until new data
    PORTA = UDR;
  }
  return 0;
}
```

Example 11-13

Write an AVR C program to receive a character from the serial port. If it is 'a' – 'z' change it to capital letters and transmit it back. Use the settings in the last example.

Solution:

```
#include <avr/io.h>                                //standard AVR header

void transmit (unsigned char data);

int main (void)
{
    // initialize USART transmitter and receiver
    UCSRB = (1<<TXEN)|(1<<RXEN);

    UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1)|(1<<UCSZ0)|(1<<URSEL);
    UBRRL = 0x33;

    unsigned char ch;

    while(1)
    {
        while(!(UCSRA&(1<<RXC)));                //while new data received
        ch = UDR;
        if (ch >= 'a' && ch<='z')
        {
            ch+=('A'-'a');
            while (! (UCSRA & (1<<UDRE)));
            UDR = ch;
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Example 11-14

In the last five examples, what is the baud rate error?

Solution:

According to Table 11-8, for 9600 baud rate and XTAL = 8 MHz, the baud rate error is about 2%.

Review Questions

1. True or false. All the SFR registers of AVR are accessible in the C compiler.
2. True or false. The FE flag is cleared the moment we read from the UDR register.

SECTION 11.5: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY AND C USING INTERRUPTS

By now you might have noticed that it is a waste of the microcontroller's time to poll the TXIF and RXIF flags. In order to avoid wasting the microcontroller's time we use interrupts instead of polling. In this section, we will show how to use interrupts to program the AVR's serial communication port.

Interrupt-based data receive

To program the serial port to receive data using the interrupt method, we need to set HIGH the Receive Complete Interrupt Enable (RXCIE) bit in UCSRB. Setting this bit enables the interrupt on the RXC flag in UCSRA. Upon completion of the receive, the RXC (USART receive complete flag) becomes HIGH. If $RXCIE = 1$, changing RXC to one will force the CPU to jump to the interrupt vector. Program 11-15 shows how to receive data using interrupts.

Example 11-15

Program the ATmega32 to receive bytes of data serially and put them on Port B. Set the baud rate at 9600, 8-bit data, and 1 stop bit. Use Receive Complete Interrupt instead of the polling method.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.CSEG                                ;put in code segment
    RJMP MAIN                        ;jump main after reset
.ORG URXCaddr                        ;int-vector of URXC int.
    RJMP URXC_INT_HANDLER            ;jump to URXC_INT_HANDLER
.ORG 40                              ;start main after
                                      ;interrupt vector
MAIN: LDI    R16, HIGH(RAMEND)        ;initialize high byte of
    OUT     SPH, R16                 ;stack pointer
    LDI     R16, LOW(RAMEND)         ;initialize low byte of
    OUT     SPL, R16                 ;stack pointer
    LDI     R16, (1<<RXEN) | (1<<RXCIE) ;enable receiver
    OUT     UCSRB, R16               ;and RXC interrupt
    LDI     R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);sync, 8-bit data
    OUT     UCSRC, R16               ;no parity, 1 stop bit
    LDI     R16, 0x33                ;9600 baud rate
    OUT     UBRRL, R16
    LDI     R16, 0xFF                ;set Port B as an
    OUT     DDRB, R16                ;input
    SEI                                     ;enable interrupts
WAIT_HERE:
    RJMP WAIT_HERE                    ;stay here
URXC_INT_HANDLER:
    IN      R17, UDR                  ;send UDR to R17
    OUT     PORTB, R17                ;send R17 to PORTB
    RETI
```

Interrupt-based data transmit

To program the serial port to transmit data using the interrupt method, we need to set HIGH the USART Data Register Empty Interrupt Enable (UDRIE) bit in UCSRB. Setting this bit enables the interrupt on the UDRE flag in UCSRA. When the UDR register is ready to accept new data, the UDRE (USART Data Register Empty flag) becomes HIGH. If UDRIE = 1, changing UDRE to one will force the CPU to jump to the interrupt vector. Example 11-16 shows how to transmit data using interrupts. To transmit data using the interrupt method, there is another source of interrupt; it is Transmit Complete Interrupt. Try to clarify the difference between these two interrupts for yourself. Can you provide some example that the two interrupts can be used interchangeably?

Example 11-16

Write a program for the AVR to transmit the letter 'G' serially at 9600 baud, continuously. Assume XTAL = 8 MHz. Use interrupts instead of the polling method.

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

.CSEG                                ;put in code segment
    RJMP MAIN                        ;jump main after reset
.ORG UDREaddr                        ;int. vector of UDRE int.
    RJMP UDRE_INT_HANDLER           ;jump to UDRE_INT_HANDLER
.ORG 40                              ;start main after
                                    ;interrupt vector
;*****
MAIN:
    LDI R16, HIGH(RAMEND)            ;initialize high byte of
    OUT SPH, R16                    ;stack pointer
    LDI R16, LOW(RAMEND)             ;initialize low byte of
    OUT SPL, R16                    ;stack pointer
    LDI R16, (1<<TXEN) | (1<<UDRIE) ;enable transmitter
    OUT UCSRB, R16                  ;and UDRE interrupt
    LDI R16, (1<<UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL); sync., 8-bit
    OUT UCSRC, R16                  ;data no parity, 1 stop bit
    LDI R16, 0x33                    ;9600 baud rate
    OUT UBRRL, R16
    SEI                             ;enable interrupts
WAIT_HERE:
    RJMP WAIT_HERE                  ;stay here
;*****
UDRE_INT_HANDLER:
    LDI R26, 'G'                    ;send 'G'
    OUT UDR, R26                    ;to UDR
    RETI
```

Examples 11-17 and 11-18 are the C versions of Examples 11-15 and 11-16, respectively.

Example 11-17

Write a C program to receive bytes of data serially and put them on Port B. Use Receive Complete Interrupt instead of the polling method.

Solution:

```
#include <avr\io.h>
#include <avr\interrupt.h>

ISR(USART_RXC_vect)
{
    PORTB = UDR;
}

int main (void)
{
    DDRB = 0xFF; //make Port B an output
    UCSRB = (1<<RXEN) | (1<<RXCIE); //enable receive and RXC int.
    UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
    UBRRL = 0x33;
    sei(); //enable interrupts
    while (1); //wait forever
    return 0;
}
```

Example 11-18

Write a C program to transmit the letter 'G' serially at 9600 baud, continuously. Assume XTAL = 8 MHz. Use interrupts instead of the polling method.

Solution:

```
#include <avr\io.h>
#include <avr\interrupt.h>
ISR(USART_UDRE_vect)
{
    UDR = 'G';
}

int main (void)
{
    UCSRB = (1<<TXEN) | (1<<UDRIE);
    UCSRC = (1<< UCSZ1) | (1<<UCSZ0) | (1<<URSEL);
    UBRRL = 0x33;

    sei(); //enable interrupts
    while (1); //wait forever
    return 0;
}
```

Review Questions

1. What is the advantage of interrupt-based programming over polling?
2. How do you enable transmit or receive interrupts in AVR?

SUMMARY

This chapter began with an introduction to the fundamentals of serial communication. Serial communication, in which data is sent one bit at a time, is used in situations where data is sent over significant distances. (In parallel communication, where data is sent a byte or more at a time, great distances can cause distortion of the data.) Serial communication has the additional advantage of allowing transmission over phone lines. Serial communication uses two methods: synchronous and asynchronous. In synchronous communication, data is sent in blocks of bytes; in asynchronous, data is sent one byte at a time. Data communication can be simplex (can send but cannot receive), half duplex (can send and receive, but not at the same time), or full duplex (can send and receive at the same time). RS232 is a standard for serial communication connectors.

The AVR's UART was discussed. We showed how to interface the ATmega32 with an RS232 connector and change the baud rate of the ATmega32. In addition, we described the serial communication features of the AVR, and programmed the ATmega32 for serial data communication. We also showed how to program the serial port of the ATmega32 chip in Assembly and C.

PROBLEMS

SECTION 11.1: BASICS OF SERIAL COMMUNICATION

1. Which is more expensive, parallel or serial data transfer?
2. True or false. 0- and 5-V digital pulses can be transferred on the telephone without being converted (modulated).
3. Show the framing of the letter ASCII 'Z' (0101 1010), no parity, 1 stop bit.
4. If there is no data transfer and the line is high, it is called _____ (mark, space).
5. True or false. The stop bit can be 1, 2, or none at all.
6. Calculate the overhead percentage if the data size is 7, 1 stop bit, and no parity bit.
7. True or false. The RS232 voltage specification is TTL compatible.
8. What is the function of the MAX 232 chip?
9. True or false. DB-25 and DB-9 are pin compatible for the first 9 pins.
10. How many pins of the RS232 are used by the IBM serial cable, and why?
11. True or false. The longer the cable, the higher the data transfer baud rate.
12. State the absolute minimum number of signals needed to transfer data between two PCs connected serially. What are those signals?
13. If two PCs are connected through the RS232 without a modem, both are con-

- figured as a _____ (DTE, DCE) -to- _____ (DTE, DCE) connection.
14. State the nine most important signals of the RS232.
 15. Calculate the total number of bits transferred if 200 pages of ASCII data are sent using asynchronous serial data transfer. Assume a data size of 8 bits, 1 stop bit, and no parity. Assume each page has 80×25 of text characters.
 16. In Problem 15, how long will the data transfer take if the baud rate is 9600?

SECTION 11.2: ATMEGA32 CONNECTION TO RS232

17. The MAX232 DIP package has _____ pins.
18. For the MAX232, indicate the V_{CC} and GND pins.
19. The MAX233 DIP package has _____ pins.
20. For the MAX233, indicate the V_{CC} and GND pins.
21. Is the MAX232 pin compatible with the MAX233?
22. State the advantages and disadvantages of the MAX232 and MAX233.
23. MAX232/233 has _____ line driver(s) for the RX wire.
24. MAX232/233 has _____ line driver(s) for the TX wire.
25. Show the connection of pins TX and RX of the ATmega32 to a DB-9 RS232 connector via the second set of line drivers of MAX232.
26. Show the connection of the TX and RX pins of the ATmega32 to a DB-9 RS232 connector via the second set of line drivers of MAX233.
27. What is the advantage of the MAX233 over the MAX232 chip?
28. Which pins of the ATmega32 are set aside for serial communication, and what are their functions?

SECTION 11.3: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY

29. Which of the following baud rates are supported by the HyperTerminal program in PC?

(a) 4800	(b) 3600	(c) 9600
(d) 1800	(e) 1200	(f) 19,200
30. Which register of ATmega32 is used for baud rate programming?
31. Which bit of the UCSRA is used for baud rate speed?
32. What is the role of the UDR register in serial data transfer?
33. UDR is a(n) _____-bit register.
34. For XTAL = 10 MHz, find the UBRR value (in both decimal and hex) for each of the following baud rates.

(a) 9600	(b) 4800	(c) 1200
----------	----------	----------
35. What is the baud rate if we use UBRR = 15 to program the baud rate? Assume XTAL = 10 MHz.
36. Write an AVR program to transfer serially the letter 'Z' continuously at 9600 baud rate. Assume XTAL = 10 MHz.
37. When is the PE flag bit raised?
38. When is the RXC flag bit raised or cleared?
39. When is the UDRE flag bit raised or cleared?
40. To which register do RXC and UDRE belong?
41. Find the UBRR for the following baud rates if XTAL = 16 MHz and U2X = 0.

- (a) 9600 (b) 19200
(c) 38400 (d) 57600
42. Find the UBRR for the following baud rates if XTAL = 16 MHz and U2X = 1.
(a) 9600 (b) 19200
(c) 38400 (d) 57600
43. Find the UBRR for the following baud rates if XTAL = 11.0592 MHz and U2X = 0.
(a) 9600 (b) 19200
(c) 38400 (d) 57600
44. Find the UBRR for the following baud rates if XTAL = 11.0592 MHz and U2X = 1.
(a) 9600 (b) 19200
(c) 38400 (d) 57600
45. Find the baud rate error for Problem 41.
46. Find the baud rate error for Problem 42.
47. Find the baud rate error for Problem 43.
48. Find the baud rate error for Problem 44.

SECTION 11.4: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN C

49. Write an AVR C program to transmit serially the letter 'Z' continuously at 9600 baud rate.
50. Write an AVR C program to transmit serially the message "The earth is but one country and mankind its citizens" continuously at 57,600 baud rate.

ANSWERS TO REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 11.1: BASICS OF SERIAL COMMUNICATION

1. Faster, more expensive
2. False; it is simplex.
3. True
4. Asynchronous
5. With 0100 0101 binary the bits are transmitted in the sequence:
(a) 0 (start bit) (b) 1 (c) 0 (d) 1 (e) 0 (f) 0 (g) 0 (h) 1 (i) 0 (j) 1 (stop bit)
6. 2 bits (one for the start bit and one for the stop bit). Therefore, for each 8-bit character, a total of 10 bits is transferred.
7. $10,000 \times 10 = 100,000$ total bits transmitted. $100,000 / 9600 = 10.4$ seconds; $2 / 10 = 20\%$.
8. True
9. +3 to +25 V
10. True

SECTION 11.2: ATMEGA32 CONNECTION TO RS232

1. True
2. Pin 14, which is RxD, and pin15, which is TXD .
3. They convert different voltage levels to each other to make two different standards compatible.
4. 2, 2
5. It has a built-in capacitor.

SECTION 11.3: AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY

1. UBRRL and UBRRH.
2. $(F_{osc} / 16 (\text{baud rate})) - 1 = (10M / 16 (14400)) - 1 = 42.4 = 42 \text{ or } 2AH$
3. $(42.4 - 42) / 42 = 0.95\%$
4. $(F_{osc} / 16 (\text{baud rate})) - 1 = (7372800 / 16 (9600)) - 1 = 47 \text{ or } 2FH$
5. UDR
6. USART Control Status Register A
7. UCSZ0 and UCSZ1 bits in UCSRB and UCSZ2 in UCSRC
8. False
9. Baud rate, frame size, stop bit, parity
10. U2X is bit1 of UCSRA and doubles the transfer rate for asynchronous communication.

SECTION 11.4 : AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN C

1. True
2. True

SECTION 11.5 : AVR SERIAL PORT PROGRAMMING IN ASSEMBLY AND C USING INTERRUPTS

1. In interrupt-based programming, CPU time is not wasted.
2. By writing the value of 1 to the UDRIE and RXCIE bits

CHAPTER 12

LCD AND KEYBOARD INTERFACING

OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this chapter, you will be able to:

- >> List reasons that LCDs are gaining widespread use, replacing LEDs
- >> Describe the functions of the pins of a typical LCD
- >> List instruction command codes for programming an LCD
- >> Interface an LCD to the AVR
- >> Program an LCD in Assembly and C
- >> Explain the basic operation of a keyboard
- >> Describe the key press and detection mechanisms
- >> Interface a 4×4 keypad to the AVR using C and Assembly

This chapter explores some real-world applications of the AVR. We explain how to interface the AVR to devices such as an LCD and a keyboard. In Section 12.1, we show LCD interfacing with the AVR. In Section 12.2, keyboard interfacing with the AVR is shown. We use C and Assembly for both sections.

SECTION 12.1: LCD INTERFACING

This section describes the operation modes of LCDs and then describes how to program and interface an LCD to an AVR using Assembly and C.

LCD operation

In recent years the LCD is finding widespread use replacing LEDs (seven-segment LEDs or other multisegment LEDs). This is due to the following reasons:

1. The declining prices of LCDs.
2. The ability to display numbers, characters, and graphics. This is in contrast to LEDs, which are limited to numbers and a few characters.
3. Incorporation of a refreshing controller into the LCD, thereby relieving the CPU of the task of refreshing the LCD. In contrast, the LED must be refreshed by the CPU (or in some other way) to keep displaying the data.
4. Ease of programming for characters and graphics.

LCD pin descriptions

The LCD discussed in this section has 14 pins. The function of each pin is given in Table 12-1. Figure 12-1 shows the pin positions for various LCDs.

V_{CC} , V_{SS} , and V_{EE}

While V_{CC} and V_{SS} provide +5 V and ground, respectively, V_{EE} is used for controlling LCD contrast.

RS , register select

There are two very important registers inside the LCD. The RS pin is used for their selection as follows. If $RS = 0$, the instruction command code register is selected, allowing the user to send commands such as clear display, cursor at home, and so on. If $RS = 1$ the data register is selected, allowing the user to send data to be displayed on the LCD.

R/W , read/write

R/W input allows the user to write information to the LCD or read information from it. $R/W = 1$ when reading; $R/W = 0$ when writing.

E , enable

The enable pin is used by the LCD to latch information presented to its data pins.

Table 12-1: Pin Descriptions for LCD

Pin	Symbol	I/O	Description
1	V_{SS}	--	Ground
2	V_{CC}	--	+5 V power supply
3	V_{EE}	--	Power supply to control contrast
4	RS	I	$RS = 0$ to select command register, $RS = 1$ to select data register
5	R/W	I	$R/W = 0$ for write, $R/W = 1$ for read
6	E	I/O	Enable
7	$DB0$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
8	$DB1$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
9	$DB2$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
10	$DB3$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
11	$DB4$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
12	$DB5$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
13	$DB6$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus
14	$DB7$	I/O	The 8-bit data bus

When data is supplied to data pins, a high-to-low pulse must be applied to this pin in order for the LCD to latch in the data present at the data pins. This pulse must be a minimum of 450 ns wide.

D0–D7

The 8-bit data pins, D0–D7, are used to send information to the LCD or read the contents of the LCD's internal registers.

To display letters and numbers, we send ASCII codes for the letters A–Z, a–z, and numbers 0–9 to these pins while making RS = 1.

There are also instruction command codes that can be sent to the LCD to clear the display or force the cursor to the home position or blink the cursor. Table 12-2 lists the instruction command codes.

In this section you will see how to interface an LCD to the AVR in two different ways. We can use 8-bit data or 4-bit data options. The 8-bit data interfacing is easier to program but uses 4 more pins.

Dot matrix character LCDs are available in different packages. Figure 12-1 shows the position of each pin in different packages.

Table 12-2: LCD Command Codes

Code (Hex)	Command to LCD Instruction Register
1	Clear display screen
2	Return home
4	Decrement cursor (shift cursor to left)
6	Increment cursor (shift cursor to right)
5	Shift display right
7	Shift display left
8	Display off, cursor off
A	Display off, cursor on
C	Display on, cursor off
E	Display on, cursor blinking
F	Display on, cursor blinking
10	Shift cursor position to left
14	Shift cursor position to right
18	Shift the entire display to the left
1C	Shift the entire display to the right
80	Force cursor to beginning of 1st line
C0	Force cursor to beginning of 2nd line
28	2 lines and 5 × 7 matrix (D4–D7, 4-bit)
38	2 lines and 5 × 7 matrix (D0–D7, 8-bit)

Note: This table is extracted from Table 12-4.

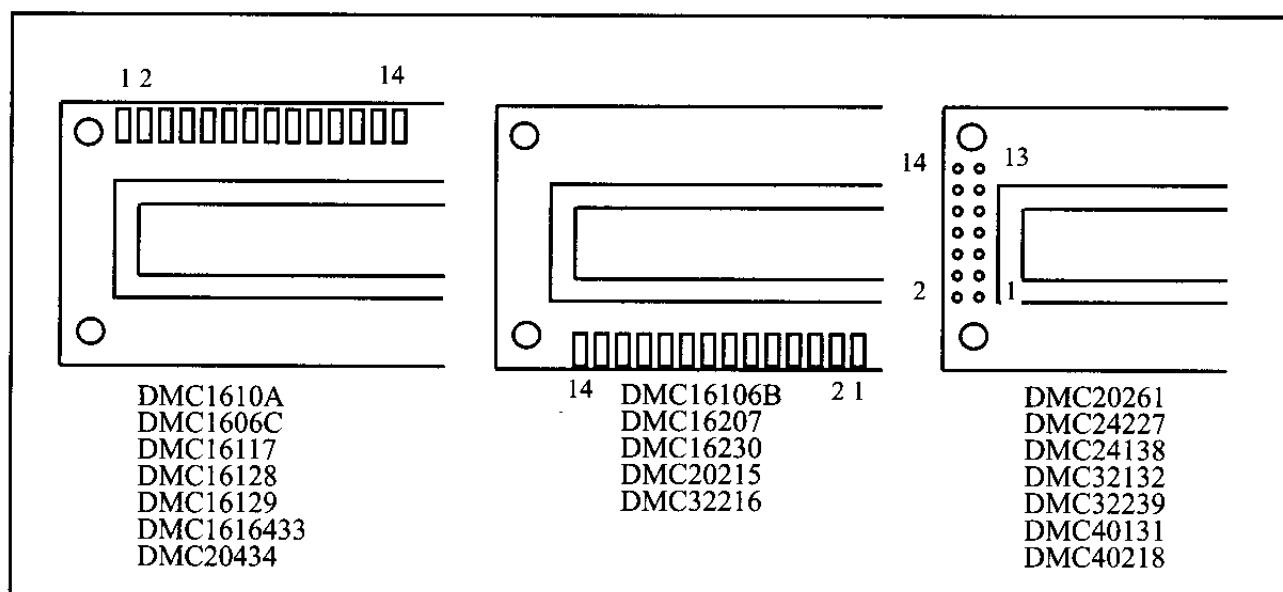


Figure 12-1. Pin Positions for Various LCDs from Optrex

Sending commands and data to LCDs

To send data and commands to LCDs you should do the following steps. Notice that steps 2 and 3 can be repeated many times:

1. Initialize the LCD.
2. Send any of the commands from Table 12-2 to the LCD.
3. Send the character to be shown on the LCD.

Initializing the LCD

To initialize the LCD for 5×7 matrix and 8-bit operation, the following sequence of commands should be sent to the LCD: 0x38, 0x0E, and 0x01. Next we will show how to send a command to the LCD. After power-up you should wait about 15 ms before sending initializing commands to the LCD. If the LCD initializer function is not the first function in your code you can omit this delay.

Sending commands to the LCD

To send any of the commands from Table 12-2 to the LCD, make pins RS and R/W = 0 and put the command number on the data pins (D0–D7). Then send a high-to-low pulse to the E pin to enable the internal latch of the LCD. Notice that after each command you should wait about 100 μ s to let the LCD module run the command. Clear LCD and Return Home commands are exceptions to this rule. After the 0x01 and 0x02 commands you should wait for about 2 ms. Table 12-3 shows the details of commands and their execution times.

Sending data to the LCD

To send data to the LCD, make pins RS = 1 and R/W = 0. Then put the data on the data pins (D0–D7) and send a high-to-low pulse to the E pin to enable the internal latch of the LCD. Notice that after sending data you should wait about 100 μ s to let the LCD module write the data on the screen.

Program 12-1 shows how to write “Hi” on the LCD using 8-bit data. The AVR connection to the LCD for 8-bit data is shown in Figure 12-2.

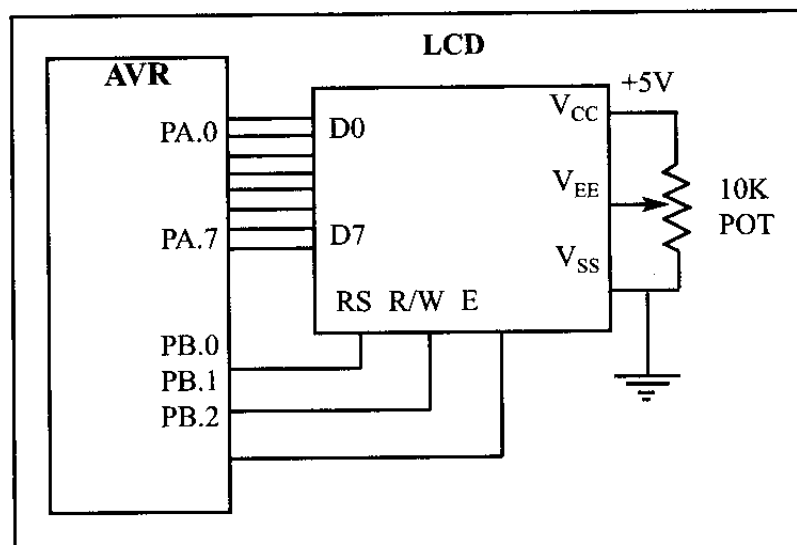


Figure 12-2. LCD Connections for 8-bit Data

```

.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.EQU    LCD_DPRT = PORTA      ;LCD DATA PORT
.EQU    LCD_DDDR = DDRA       ;LCD DATA DDR
.EQU    LCD_DPIN = PINA       ;LCD DATA PIN
.EQU    LCD_CPRT = PORTB      ;LCD COMMANDS PORT
.EQU    LCD_CDDR = DDRB       ;LCD COMMANDS DDR
.EQU    LCD_CPIN = PINB       ;LCD COMMANDS PIN
.EQU    LCD_RS = 0            ;LCD RS
.EQU    LCD_RW = 1            ;LCD RW
.EQU    LCD_EN = 2            ;LCD EN

    LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPH,R21            ;set up stack
    LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPL,R21

    LDI    R21,0xFF;
    OUT    LCD_DDDR, R21      ;LCD data port is output
    OUT    LCD_CDDR, R21      ;LCD command port is output
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN;LCD_EN = 0
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;wait for power on
    LDI    R16,0x38           ;init LCD 2 lines,5x7 matrix
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;wait 2 ms
    LDI    R16,0x0E           ;display on, cursor on
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x01           ;clear LCD
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;wait 2 ms
    LDI    R16,0x06           ;shift cursor right
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    LDI    R16,'H'            ;display letter 'H'
    CALL    DATAWRT          ;call data write function
    LDI    R16,'i'            ;display letter 'i'
    CALL    DATAWRT          ;call data write function
HERE:    JMP    HERE          ;stay here
;-----
CMNDWRT:
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R16       ;LCD data port = R16
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RS     ;RS = 0 for command
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RW     ;RW = 0 for write
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN     ;EN = 1
    CALL    SDELAY             ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN     ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse
    CALL    DELAY_100us        ;wait 100 us
    RET

```

Program 12-1: Communicating with LCD *(continued on next page)*

```

DATAWRT:
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R16           ;LCD data port = R16
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RS        ;RS = 1 for data
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RW        ;RW = 0 for write
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN        ;EN = 1
    CALL   SDELAY                 ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN        ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse
    CALL   DELAY_100us            ;wait 100 us
    RET

;-----
SDELAY:  NOP
        NOP
        RET

;-----
DELAY_100us:
        PUSH    R17
        LDI     R17,60
DR0:    CALL    SDELAY
        DEC     R17
        BRNE    DR0
        POP     R17
        RET

;-----
DELAY_2ms:
        PUSH    R17
        LDI     R17,20
LDR0:   CALL    DELAY_100US
        DEC     R17
        BRNE    LDR0
        POP     R17
        RET

```

Program 12-1: Communicating with LCD (continued from previous page)

Sending code or data to the LCD 4 bits at a time

The above code showed how to send commands to the LCD with 8 bits for the data pin. In most cases it is preferred to use 4-bit data to save pins. The LCD may be forced into the 4-bit mode as shown in Program 12-2. Notice that its initialization differs from that of the 8-bit mode and that data is sent out on the high nibble of Port A, high nibble first.

In 4-bit mode, we initialize the LCD with the series 33, 32, and 28 in

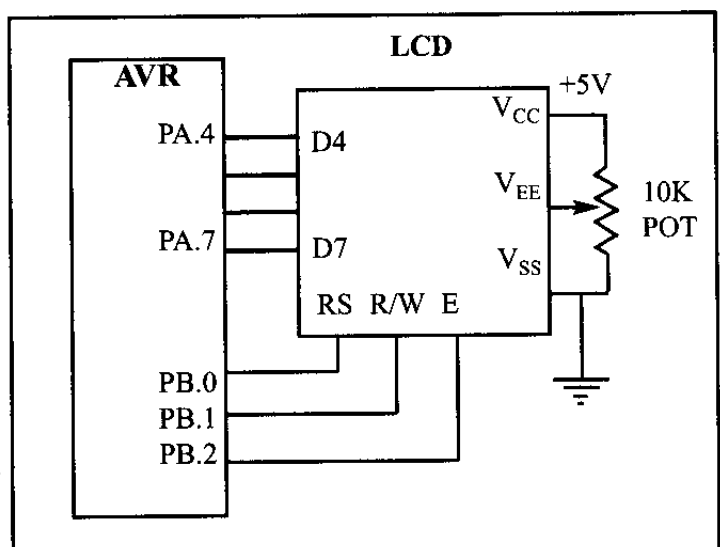


Figure 12-3. LCD Connections Using 4-bit Data

hex. This represents nibbles 3, 3, 3, and 2, which tells the LCD to go into 4-bit mode. The value \$28 initializes the display for 5 × 7 matrix and 4-bit operation as required by the LCD datasheet. The write routines (CMNDWRT and DATAWRT) send the high nibble first, then swap the low nibble with the high nibble before it is sent to data pins D4–D7. The delay function of the program is the same as in Program 12-1.

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

.EQU    LCD_DPRT = PORTA      ;LCD DATA PORT
.EQU    LCD_DDDR = DDRA       ;LCD DATA DDR
.EQU    LCD_DPIN = PINA       ;LCD DATA PIN
.EQU    LCD_CPRT = PORTB     ;LCD COMMANDS PORT
.EQU    LCD_CDDR = DDRB       ;LCD COMMANDS DDR
.EQU    LCD_CPIN = PINB       ;LCD COMMANDS PIN
.EQU    LCD_RS = 0            ;LCD RS
.EQU    LCD_RW = 1            ;LCD RW
.EQU    LCD_EN = 2            ;LCD EN

    LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPH,R21             ;set up stack
    LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPL,R21
    LDI    R21,0xFF;
    OUT    LCD_DDDR, R21      ;LCD data port is output
    OUT    LCD_CDDR, R21      ;LCD command port is output
    LDI    R16,0x33           ;init. LCD for 4-bit data
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x32           ;init. LCD for 4-bit data
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x28           ;init. LCD 2 lines,5x7 matrix
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x0E           ;display on, cursor on
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x01           ;clear LCD
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    CALL    DELAY_2ms         ;delay 2 ms for clear LCD
    LDI    R16,0x06           ;shift cursor right
    CALL    CMNDWRT           ;call command function
    LDI    R16,'H'            ;display letter 'H'
    CALL    DATAWRT          ;call data write function
    LDI    R16,'i'            ;display letter 'i'
    CALL    DATAWRT          ;call data write function
HERE:    JMP    HERE          ;stay here
```

Program 12-2: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Mode *(continued on next page)*

```

;-----
CMNDWRT:
    MOV    R27,R16
    ANDI   R27,0xF0
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R27           ;send the high nibble
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RS       ;RS = 0 for command
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RW       ;RW = 0 for write
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
    CALL   SDELAY                ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse
    CALL   DELAY_100us           ;make a wide EN pulse

    MOV    R27,R16
    SWAP   R27                   ;swap the nibbles
    ANDI   R27,0xF0             ;mask D0-D3
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R27         ;send the low nibble
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
    CALL   SDELAY                ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse
    CALL   DELAY_100us           ;wait 100 us
    RET

;-----
DATAWRT:
    MOV    R27,R16
    ANDI   R27,0xF0
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R27         ;;send the high nibble
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RS       ;RS = 1 for data
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_RW       ;RW = 0 for write
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
    CALL   SDELAY                ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

    MOV    R27,R16
    SWAP   R27                   ;swap the nibbles
    ANDI   R27,0xF0             ;mask D0-D3
    OUT    LCD_DPRT,R27         ;send the low nibble
    SBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
    CALL   SDELAY                ;make a wide EN pulse
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

    CALL   DELAY_100us           ;wait 100 us
    RET

;-----
;delay functions are the same as last program and should
;be placed here.
;-----

```

Program 12-2: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Mode (continued from previous page)

Sending code or data to the LCD using a single port

The above code showed how to send commands to the LCD with 4-bit data but we used two different ports for data and commands. In most cases it is preferred to use a single port. Program 12-3 shows Program 12-2 modified to use a single port for LCD interfacing.

Figure 12-4 shows the hardware connection.

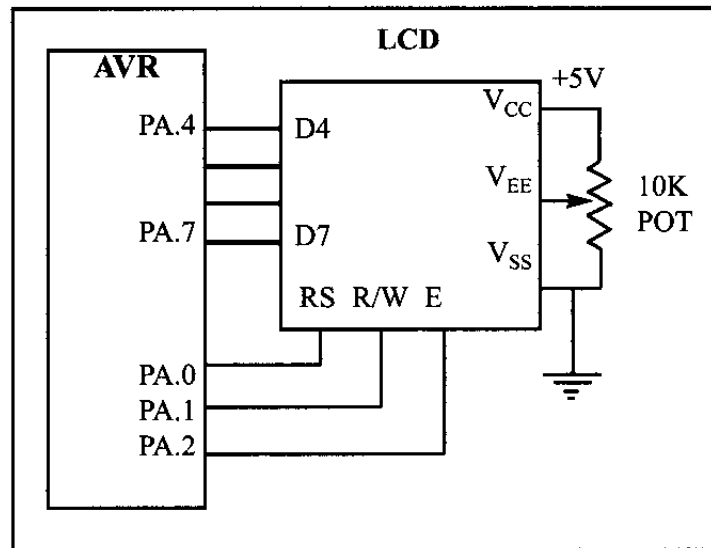


Figure 12-4. LCD Connections Using a Single Port

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

.EQU    LCD_PRT = PORTA        ;LCD DATA PORT
.EQU    LCD_DDR = DDRA         ;LCD DATA DDR
.EQU    LCD_PIN = PINA         ;LCD DATA PIN
.EQU    LCD_RS = 0             ;LCD RS
.EQU    LCD_RW = 1             ;LCD RW
.EQU    LCD_EN = 2             ;LCD EN

    LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPH,R21             ;set up stack
    LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPL,R21

    LDI    R21,0xFF;
    OUT    LCD_DDR, R21        ;LCD data port is output
    OUT    LCD_DDR, R21        ;LCD command port is output

    LDI    R16,0x33             ;init. LCD for 4-bit data
    CALL   CMNDWRT              ;call command function
    CALL   DELAY_2ms            ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x32             ;init. LCD for 4-bit data
    CALL   CMNDWRT              ;call command function
    CALL   DELAY_2ms            ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x28             ;init. LCD 2 lines,5x7 matrix
    CALL   CMNDWRT              ;call command function
    CALL   DELAY_2ms            ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x0E             ;display on, cursor on
    CALL   CMNDWRT              ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x01             ;clear LCD
```

Program 12-3: Communicating with LCD Using a Single Port (continued on next page)

```

CALL    CMNDWRT          ;call command function
CALL    DELAY_2ms        ;delay 2 ms for clear LCD
LDI     R16,0x06         ;shift cursor right
CALL    CMNDWRT          ;call command function

LDI     R16,'H'          ;display letter 'H'
CALL    DATAWRT         ;call data write function
LDI     R16,'i'          ;display letter 'i'
CALL    DATAWRT         ;call data write function
HERE:
JMP     HERE             ;stay here
;-----
CMNDWRT:
MOV     R27,R16
ANDI    R27,0xF0
IN      R26,LCD_PRT
ANDI    R26,0x0F
OR      R26,R27
OUT     LCD_PRT,R26      ;LCD data port = R16
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_RS   ;RS = 0 for command
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_RW   ;RW = 0 for write
SBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN   ;EN = 1 for high pulse
CALL    SDELAY           ;make a wide EN pulse
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN   ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

CALL    DELAY_100us      ;make a wide EN pulse

MOV     R27,R16
SWAP    R27
ANDI    R27,0xF0
IN      R26,LCD_PRT
ANDI    R26,0x0F
OR      R26,R27
OUT     LCD_PRT,R26      ;LCD data port = R16
SBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN   ;EN = 1 for high pulse
CALL    SDELAY           ;make a wide EN pulse
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN   ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

CALL    DELAY_100us      ;wait 100 us
RET
;-----
DATAWRT:
MOV     R27,R16
ANDI    R27,0xF0
IN      R26,LCD_PRT
ANDI    R26,0x0F

```

Program 12-3: Communicating with LCD Using a Single Port *(continued from previous page)*

```

OR      R26,R27
OUT     LCD_PRT,R26           ;LCD data port = R16
SBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_RS       ;RS = 1 for data
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_RW       ;RW = 0 for write
SBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
CALL    SDELAY               ;make a wide EN pulse
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

MOV     R27,R16
SWAP    R27
ANDI    R27,0xF0
IN      R26,LCD_PRT
ANDI    R26,0x0F
OR      R26,R27
OUT     LCD_PRT,R26           ;LCD data port = R16
SBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN       ;EN = 1 for high pulse
CALL    SDELAY               ;make a wide EN pulse
CBI     LCD_PRT,LCD_EN       ;EN=0 for H-to-L pulse

CALL    DELAY_100us          ;wait 100 us
RET

;-----
SDELAY:
    NOP
    NOP
    RET

;-----
DELAY_100us:
    PUSH    R17
    LDI     R17,60
DR0:    CALL    SDELAY
    DEC     R17
    BRNE    DR0
    POP     R17
    RET

;-----
DELAY_2ms:
    PUSH    R17
    LDI     R17,20
LDR0:   CALL    DELAY_100us
    DEC     R17
    BRNE    LDR0
    POP     R17
    RET

```

Program 12-3: Communicating with LCD Using a Single Port *(continued from previous page)*

Sending information to LCD using the LPM instruction

Program 12-4 shows how to use the LPM instruction to send a long string of characters to an LCD. Program 12-4 shows only the main part of the code. The other functions do not change. If you want to use a single port you have to change the port definition in the beginning of the code according to Program 12-2.

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

.EQU    LCD_DPRT = PORTA      ;LCD DATA PORT
.EQU    LCD_DDDR = DDRA       ;LCD DATA DDR
.EQU    LCD_DPIN = PINA       ;LCD DATA PIN
.EQU    LCD_CPRT = PORTB      ;LCD COMMANDS PORT
.EQU    LCD_CDDR = DDRB       ;LCD COMMANDS DDR
.EQU    LCD_CPIN = PINB       ;LCD COMMANDS PIN
.EQU    LCD_RS = 0            ;LCD RS
.EQU    LCD_RW = 1            ;LCD RW
.EQU    LCD_EN = 2            ;LCD EN

    LDI    R21,HIGH(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPH,R21            ;set up stack
    LDI    R21,LOW(RAMEND)
    OUT    SPL,R21
    LDI    R21, 0xFF;
    OUT    LCD_DDDR, R21      ;LCD data port is output
    OUT    LCD_CDDR, R21      ;LCD command port is output
    CBI    LCD_CPRT,LCD_EN;LCD_EN = 0
    CALL   LDELAY             ;wait for init.
    LDI    R16,0x38           ;init LCD 2 lines, 5x7 matrix
    CALL   CMNDWRT            ;call command function
    CALL   LDELAY             ;init. hold
    LDI    R16,0x0E           ;display on, cursor on
    CALL   CMNDWRT            ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x01           ;clear LCD
    CALL   CMNDWRT            ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x06           ;shift cursor right
    CALL   CMNDWRT            ;call command function
    LDI    R16,0x84           ;cursor at line 1 pos. 4
    CALL   CMNDWRT            ;call command function
    LDI    R31,HIGH(MSG<<1)
    LDI    R30,LOW(MSG<<1);Z points to MSG
LOOP:    LPM    R16,Z+
        CPI    R16,0          ;compare R16 with 0
        BREQ   HERE           ;if R16 equals 0 exit
        CALL   DATAWRT       ;call data write function
        RJMP   LOOP           ;jump to loop
HERE:    JMP    HERE           ;stay here
MSG:     .DB    "Hello World!",0
```

Program 12-4: Communicating with LCD Using the LPM Instruction

LCD data sheet

Here we deepen your understanding of LCDs by concentrating on two important concepts. First we will show you the timing diagram of the LCD; then we will discuss how to put data at any location.

LCD timing diagrams

In Figures 12-5 and 12-6 you can study and contrast the Write timing for the 8-bit and 4-bit modes. Notice that in the 4-bit operating mode, the high nibble is transmitted. Also notice that each nibble is followed by a high-to-low pulse to enable the internal latch of the LCD.

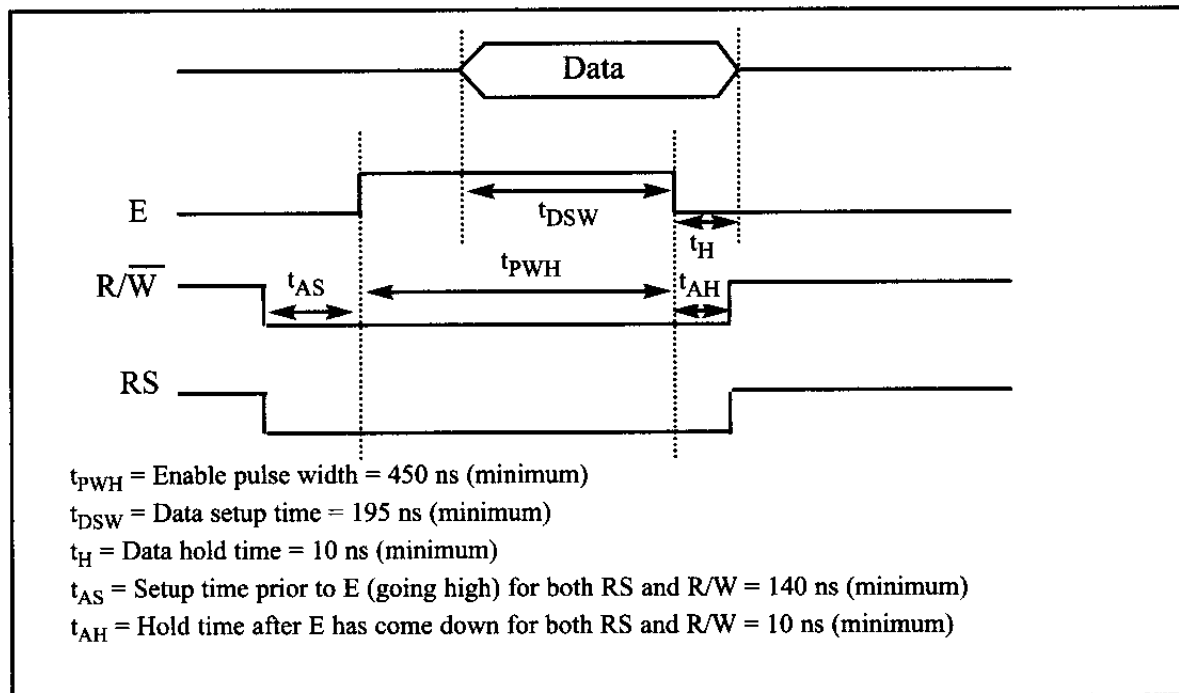


Figure 12-5. LCD Timing for Write (H-to-L for E line)

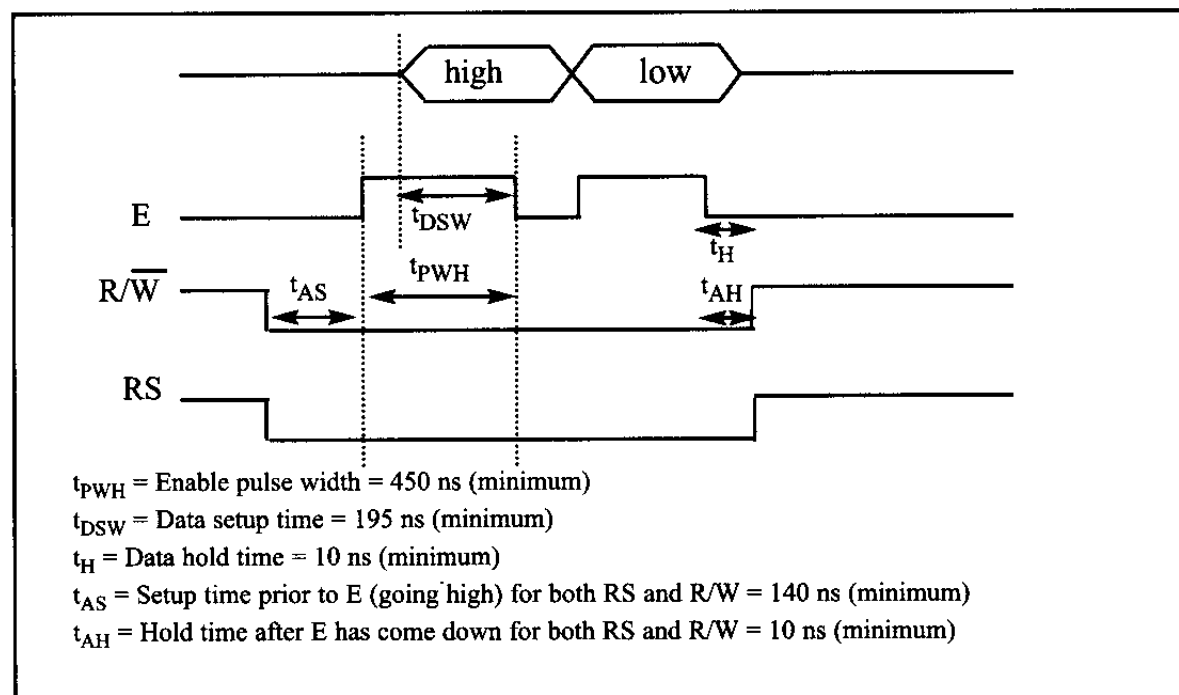


Figure 12-6. LCD Timing for 4-bit Write

LCD detailed commands

Table 12-3 provides a detailed list of LCD commands and instructions.

Table 12-3: List of LCD Instructions

Instruction	RS	R/W	DB7	DB6	DB5	DB4	DB3	DB2	DB1	DB0	Description	Execution Time (Max)
Clear Display	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	Clears entire display and sets DD RAM address 0 in address counter.	1.64 ms
Return Home	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	-	Sets DD RAM address 0 as address counter. Also returns display being shifted to original position. DD RAM contents remain unchanged.	1.64 ms
Entry Mode Set	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	D	S	Sets cursor move direction and specifies shift of display. These operations are performed during data write and read.	40 μ s
Display On/Off Control	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	D	C	B	Sets On/Off of entire display (D), cursor On/Off (C), and blink of cursor position character (B).	40 μ s
Cursor or Display Shift	0	0	0	0	0	1	S/C	R/L	-	-	Moves cursor and shifts display without changing DD RAM contents.	40 μ s
Function Set	0	0	0	0	1	DL	N	F	-	-	Sets interface data length (DL), number of display lines (L), and character font (F).	40 μ s
Set CG RAM Address	0	0	0	1			AGC				Sets CG RAM address. CG RAM data is sent and received after this setting.	40 μ s
Set DD RAM Address	0	0	1				ADD				Sets DD RAM address. DD RAM data is sent and received after this setting.	40 μ s
Read Busy Flag & Address	0	1	BF				AC				Reads Busy flag (BF) indicating internal operation is being performed and reads address counter contents.	40 μ s
Write Data CG or DD RAM	1	0					Write Data				Writes data into DD or CG RAM.	40 μ s
Read Data CG or DD RAM	1	1					Read Data				Reads data from DD or CG RAM.	40 μ s

Notes:

1. Execution times are maximum times when f_{cp} or f_{osc} is 250 kHz.
2. Execution time changes when frequency changes. Ex: When f_{cp} or f_{osc} is 270 kHz: $40 \mu s \times 250 / 270 = 37 \mu s$.
3. Abbreviations:

DD RAM	Display data RAM	
CG RAM	Character generator RAM	
ACC	CG RAM address	
ADD	DD RAM address, corresponds to cursor address	
AC	Address counter used for both DD and CG RAM addresses	
I/D = 1	Increment	I/D = 0 Decrement
S = 1	Accompanies display shift	
S/C = 1	Display shift;	S/C = 0 Cursor move
R/L = 1	Shift to the right;	R/L = 0 Shift to the left
DL = 1	8 bits, DL = 0: 4 bits	
N = 1	1 line, N = 0: 1 line	
F = 1	5 \times 10 dots, F = 0: 5 \times 7 dots	
BF = 1	Internal operation;	BF = 0 Can accept instruction

(Table 12-2 is extracted from this table.) As you see in the eighth row of Table 12-3, you can set the DD RAM address. It lets you put data at any location. The following shows how to set DD RAM address locations.

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

Where AAAAAAAAA = 0000000 to 0100111 for line 1 and AAAAAAAAA = 1000000 to 1100111 for line 2.

The upper address range can go as high as 0100111 for the 40-character-wide LCD, while for the 20-character-wide LCD it goes up to 010011 (19 decimal = 10011 binary). Notice that the upper range 0100111 (binary) = 39 decimal, which corresponds to locations 0 to 39 for the LCDs of 40 × 2 size.

From the above discussion we can get the addresses of cursor positions for various sizes of LCDs. See Table 12-4 for the cursor addresses for common types of LCDs. Notice that all the addresses are in hex. See Example 12-1.

LCD Type	Line	Address Range				
16 × 2 LCD	Line 1:	80	81	82	83	through 8F
	Line 2:	C0	C1	C2	C3	through CF
20 × 1 LCD	Line 1:	80	81	82	83	through 93
20 × 2 LCD	Line 1:	80	81	82	83	through 93
	Line 2:	C0	C1	C2	C3	through D3
20 × 4 LCD	Line 1:	80	81	82	83	through 93
	Line 2:	C0	C1	C2	C3	through D3
	Line 3:	94	95	96	97	through A7
	Line 4:	D4	D5	D6	D7	through E7
40 × 2 LCD	Line 1:	80	81	82	83	through A7
	Line 2:	C0	C1	C2	C3	through E7

Note: All data is in hex.

Table 12-4: Cursor Addresses for Some LCDs

Example 12-1

What is the cursor address for the following positions in a 20 × 4 LCD?

- (a) Line 1, Column 1
- (b) Line 2, Column 1
- (c) Line 3, Column 2
- (d) Line 4, Column 3

Solution:

- (a) 80
- (b) C0
- (c) 95
- (d) D6

LCD programming in C

Programs 12-5, 12-6, and 12-7 show how to interface an LCD to the AVR using C programming. The codes are modular to improve code clarity.

Program 12-5 shows how to use 8-bit data to interface an LCD to the AVR in C language.

```
// YOU HAVE TO SET THE CPU FREQUENCY IN AVR STUDIO
// BECAUSE YOU ARE USING PREDEFINED DELAY FUNCTION

#include <avr/io.h>                //standard AVR header
#include <util/delay.h>            //delay header

#define LCD_DPRT  PORTA           //LCD DATA PORT
#define LCD_DDDR  DDRA            //LCD DATA DDR
#define LCD_DPIN  PINA            //LCD DATA PIN
#define LCD_CPRT  PORTB           //LCD COMMANDS PORT
#define LCD_CDDR  DDRB            //LCD COMMANDS DDR
#define LCD_CPIN  PINB            //LCD COMMANDS PIN
#define LCD_RS    0               //LCD RS
#define LCD_RW    1               //LCD RW
#define LCD_EN    2               //LCD EN

//*****
void delay_us(unsigned int d)
{
    _delay_us(d);
}

//*****
void lcdCommand( unsigned char cmnd )
{
    LCD_DPRT = cmnd;                //send cmnd to data port
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RS);      //RS = 0 for command
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW);      //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);        //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(1);                    //wait to make enable wide
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN);      //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(100);                  //wait to make enable wide
}

//*****
void lcdData( unsigned char data )
{
    LCD_DPRT = data;                //send data to data port
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_RS);        //RS = 1 for data
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW);      //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);        //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(1);                    //wait to make enable wide
}
```

Program 12-5: Communicating with LCD Using 8-bit Data in C (continued on next page)

```

LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN);      //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
delay_us(100);                  //wait to make enable wide
}

/*****
void lcd_init()
{
    LCD_DDDR = 0xFF;
    LCD_CDDR = 0xFF;

    LCD_CPRT &=~ (1<<LCD_EN);      //LCD_EN = 0
    delay_us(2000);                //wait for init.
    lcdCommand(0x38);              //init. LCD 2 line, 5 x 7 matrix
    lcdCommand(0x0E);              //display on, cursor on
    lcdCommand(0x01);              //clear LCD
    delay_us(2000);                //wait
    lcdCommand(0x06);              //shift cursor right
}

/*****
void lcd_gotoxy(unsigned char x, unsigned char y)
{
    unsigned char firstCharAdr[]={ 0x80,0xC0,0x94,0xD4}; //Table 12-5
    lcdCommand(firstCharAdr[ y-1] + x - 1);
    delay_us(100);
}

/*****
void lcd_print( char * str )
{
    unsigned char i = 0;
    while(str[ i] !=0)
    {
        lcdData(str[ i] );
        i++;
    }
}

/*****
int main(void)
{
    lcd_init();
    lcd_gotoxy(1,1);
    lcd_print("The world is but");
    lcd_gotoxy(1,2);
    lcd_print("one country");

    while(1);                      //stay here forever
    return 0;
}

```

Program 12-5: Communicating with LCD Using 8-bit Data in C

Program 12-6 shows how to use 4-bit data to interface an LCD to the AVR in C language.

```
#include <avr/io.h>           //standard AVR header
#include <util/delay.h>       //delay header
#define LCD_DPRT  PORTA      //LCD DATA PORT
#define LCD_DDDR  DDRA       //LCD DATA DDR
#define LCD_DPIN  PINA       //LCD DATA PIN
#define LCD_CPRT  PORTB      //LCD COMMANDS PORT
#define LCD_CDDR  DDRB       //LCD COMMANDS DDR
#define LCD_CPIN  PINB       //LCD COMMANDS PIN
#define LCD_RS    0          //LCD RS
#define LCD_RW    1          //LCD RW
#define LCD_EN    2          //LCD EN

void delay_us(int d)
{
    _delay_us(d);
}

void lcdCommand( unsigned char cmnd )
{
    LCD_DPRT = cmnd & 0xF0;    //send high nibble to D4-D7
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RS); //RS = 0 for command
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW); //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);   //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(1);               //make EN pulse wider
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(100);             //wait
    LCD_DPRT = cmnd<<4;        //send low nibble to D4-D7
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);   //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(1);               //make EN pulse wider
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(100);             //wait
}

void lcdData( unsigned char data )
{
    LCD_DPRT = data & 0xF0;    //send high nibble to D4-D7
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_RS);   //RS = 1 for data
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW); //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);   //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(1);               //make EN pulse wider
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
    LCD_DPRT = data<<4;        //send low nibble to D4-D7
    LCD_CPRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);   //EN = 1 for H-to-L pulse
}
```

Program 12-6: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Data in C (continued on next page)

```

    delay_us(1);                //make EN pulse wider
    LCD_CPRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L pulse
    delay_us(100);              //wait
}

void lcd_init()
{
    LCD_DDDR = 0xFF;
    LCD_CDDR = 0xFF;
    LCD_CPRT &= ~(1<<LCD_EN); //LCD_EN = 0
    lcdCommand(0x33);         //send $33 for init.
    lcdCommand(0x32);         //send $32 for init.
    lcdCommand(0x28);         //init. LCD 2 line, 5x7 matrix
    lcdCommand(0x0e);         //display on, cursor on
    lcdCommand(0x01);         //clear LCD
    delay_us(2000);
    lcdCommand(0x06);         //shift cursor right
}

void lcd_gotoxy(unsigned char x, unsigned char y)
{
    unsigned char firstCharAdr[] = { 0x80, 0xC0, 0x94, 0xD4 };
    lcdCommand(firstCharAdr[y-1] + x - 1);
    delay_us(100);
}

void lcd_print(char * str )
{
    unsigned char i = 0;
    while(str[i] != 0)
    {
        lcdData(str[i]);
        i++;
    }
}

int main(void)
{
    lcd_init();
    lcd_gotoxy(1,1);
    lcd_print("The world is but");
    lcd_gotoxy(1,2);
    lcd_print("one country");
    while(1);                //stay here forever
    return 0;
}

```

Program 12-6: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Data in C

Program 12-7 shows how to use 4-bit data to interface an LCD to the AVR in C language. It uses only a single port. Also there are some useful functions to print a string (array of chars) or to move the cursor to a specific location.

```
#include <avr/io.h>                //standard AVR header
#include <util/delay.h>             //delay header
#define LCD_PRT PORTA              //LCD DATA PORT
#define LCD_DDR DDRA               //LCD DATA DDR
#define LCD_PIN PINA               //LCD DATA PIN
#define LCD_RS 0                   //LCD RS
#define LCD_RW 1                   //LCD RW
#define LCD_EN 2                   //LCD EN

void delay_us(int d)
{
    _delay_us(d);
}

void delay_ms(int d)
{
    _delay_ms(d);
}

void lcdCommand( unsigned char cmnd ){
    LCD_PRT = (LCD_PRT & 0x0F) | (cmnd & 0xF0);
    LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RS);      //RS = 0 for command
    LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW);      //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_PRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);        //EN = 1 for H-to-L
    delay_us(1);                   //wait to make EN wider
    LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN);      //EN = 0 for H-to-L

    delay_us(20);                  //wait

    LCD_PRT = (LCD_PRT & 0x0F) | (cmnd << 4);
    LCD_PRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);        //EN = 1 for H-to-L
    delay_us(1);                   //wait to make EN wider
    LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN);      //EN = 0 for H-to-L
}

void lcdData( unsigned char data ){
    LCD_PRT = (LCD_PRT & 0x0F) | (data & 0xF0);
    LCD_PRT |= (1<<LCD_RS);        //RS = 1 for data
    LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_RW);      //RW = 0 for write
    LCD_PRT |= (1<<LCD_EN);        //EN = 1 for H-to-L
}
```

Program 12-7: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Data in C (continued on next page)

```

delay_us(1); //wait to make EN wider
LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L

LCD_PRT = (LCD_PRT & 0x0F) | (data << 4);
LCD_PRT |= (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 1 for H-to-L
delay_us(1); //wait to make EN wider
LCD_PRT &= ~ (1<<LCD_EN); //EN = 0 for H-to-L
}

void lcd_init(){
    LCD_DDR = 0xFF; //LCD port is output

    LCD_PRT &=~(1<<LCD_EN); //LCD_EN = 0
    delay_us(2000); //wait for stable power
    lcdCommand(0x33); //$33 for 4-bit mode
    delay_us(100); //wait
    lcdCommand(0x32); //$32 for 4-bit mode
    delay_us(100); //wait
    lcdCommand(0x28); //$28 for 4-bit mode
    delay_us(100); //wait
    lcdCommand(0x0e); //display on, cursor on
    delay_us(100); //wait
    lcdCommand(0x01); //clear LCD
    delay_us(2000); //wait
    lcdCommand(0x06); //shift cursor right
    delay_us(100);
}

void lcd_gotoxy(unsigned char x, unsigned char y)
{
    //Table 12-5
    unsigned char firstCharAdr[] = { 0x80, 0xC0, 0x94, 0xD4 };

    lcdCommand(firstCharAdr[ y-1 ] + x - 1);
    delay_us(100);
}

void lcd_print( char * str )
{
    unsigned char i = 0;

    while(str[ i ] !=0)
    {
        lcdData(str[ i ] );
        i++;
    }
}

```

Program 12-7: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Data in C

```

int main(void)
{
    lcd_init();
    while(1)
    {
        //stay here forever
        lcd_gotoxy(1,1);
        lcd_print("The world is but");
        lcd_gotoxy(1,2);
        lcd_print("one country      ");
        delay_ms(1000);
        lcd_gotoxy(1,1);
        lcd_print("and mankind its ");
        lcd_gotoxy(1,2);
        lcd_print("citizens      ");
        delay_ms(1000);
    }
    return 0;
}

```

Program 12-7: Communicating with LCD Using 4-bit Data in C *(cont. from previous page)*

**You can purchase the LCD expansion board of
the MDE AVR trainer from the
following websites:**

**www.digilentinc.com
www.MicroDigitalEd.com**

**The LCDs can be purchased from the
following websites:**

**www.digikey.com
www.jameco.com
www.elexp.com**

Review Questions

1. The RS pin is an _____ (input, output) pin for the LCD.
2. The E pin is an _____ (input, output) pin for the LCD.
3. The E pin requires an _____ (H-to-L, L-to-H) pulse to latch in information at the data pins of the LCD.
4. For the LCD to recognize information at the data pins as data, RS must be set to _____ (high, low).
5. What is the 0x06 command ?
6. Which of the following commands takes more than 100 microseconds to run?
 - (a) Shift cursor left
 - (b) Shift cursor right
 - (c) Set address location of DDRAM
 - (d) Clear screen
7. Which of the following initialization commands initializes an LCD for 5×7 matrix characters in 8-bit operating mode?
 - (a) 0x38, 0x0E, 0x0, 0x06
 - (b) 0x0E, 0x0, 0x06
 - (c) 0x33, 0x32, 0x28, 0x0E, 0x01, 0x06
 - (d) 0x01, 0x06
8. Which of the following initialization commands initializes an LCD for 5×7 matrix characters in 4-bit operating mode?
 - (a) 0x38, 0x0E, 0x0, 0x06
 - (b) 0x0E, 0x0, 0x06
 - (c) 0x33, 0x32, 0x28, 0x0E, 0x01, 0x06
 - (d) 0x01, 0x06
9. Which of the following is the address of the second column of the second row in a 2×20 LCD?
 - (a) 0x80
 - (b) 0x81
 - (c) 0xC0
 - (d) 0xC1
10. Which of the following is the address of the second column of the second row in a 4×20 LCD?
 - (a) 0x80
 - (b) 0x81
 - (c) 0xC0
 - (d) 0xC1
11. Which of the following is the address of the first column of the second row in a 4×20 LCD?
 - (a) 0x80
 - (b) 0x81
 - (c) 0xC0
 - (d) 0xC1

SECTION 12.2: KEYBOARD INTERFACING

Keyboards and LCDs are the most widely used input/output devices in microcontrollers such as the AVR and a basic understanding of them is essential. In the previous section, we discussed how to interface an LCD with an AVR using some examples. In this section, we first discuss keyboard fundamentals, along with key press and key detection mechanisms. Then we show how a keyboard is interfaced to an AVR.

Interfacing the keyboard to the AVR

At the lowest level, keyboards are organized in a matrix of rows and columns. The CPU accesses both rows and columns through ports; therefore, with two 8-bit ports, an 8×8 matrix of keys can be connected to a microcontroller. When a key is pressed, a row and a column make a contact; otherwise, there is no connection between rows and columns. In x86 PC keyboards, a single microcontroller takes care of hardware and software interfacing of the keyboard. In such systems, it is the function of programs stored in the Flash of the microcontroller to scan the keys continuously, identify which one has been activated, and present it to the motherboard. In this section we look at the mechanism by which the AVR scans and identifies the key.

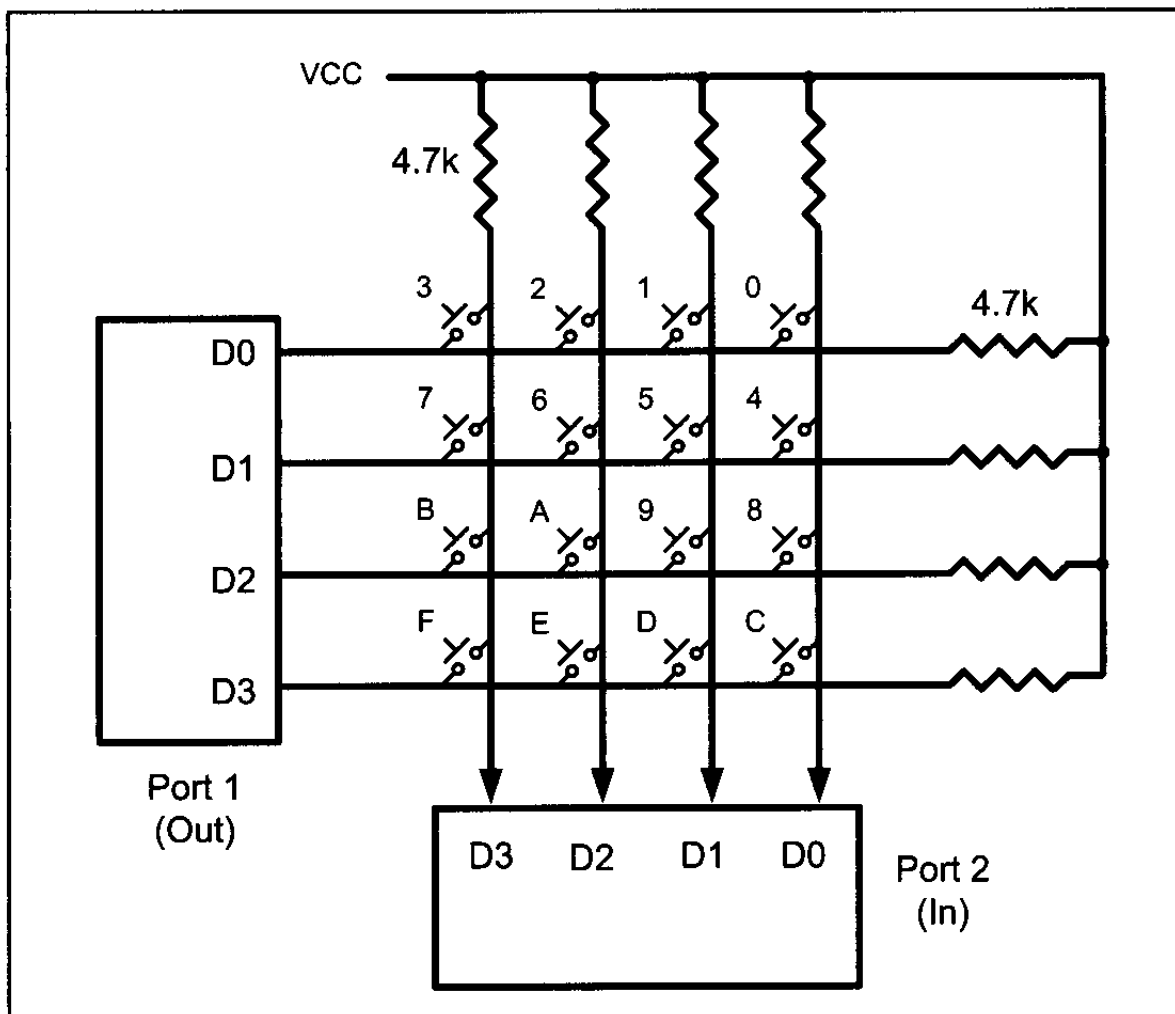


Figure 12-7. Matrix Keyboard Connection to Ports

Scanning and identifying the key

Figure 12-7 shows a 4×4 matrix connected to two ports. The rows are connected to an output port and the columns are connected to an input port. If no key has been pressed, reading the input port will yield 1s for all columns since they are all connected to high (VCC). If all the rows are grounded and a key is pressed, one of the columns will have 0 since the key pressed provides the path to ground. It is the function of the microcontroller to scan the keyboard continuously to detect and identify the key pressed. How this is done is explained next.

Grounding rows and reading the columns

To detect a pressed key, the microcontroller grounds all rows by providing 0 to the output latch, and then it reads the columns. If the data read from the columns is $D3-D0 = 1111$, no key has been pressed and the process continues until a key press is detected. However, if one of the column bits has a zero, this means that a key press has occurred. For example, if $D3-D0 = 1101$, this means that a key in the D1 column has been pressed. After a key press is detected, the microcontroller will go through the process of identifying the key. Starting with the top row, the microcontroller grounds it by providing a low to row D0 only; then it reads the columns. If the data read is all 1s, no key in that row is activated and the process is moved to the next row. It grounds the next row, reads the columns, and checks for any zero. This process continues until the row is identified. After identification of the row in which the key has been pressed, the next task is to find out which column the pressed key belongs to. This should be easy since the microcontroller knows at any time which row and column are being accessed. Look at Example 12-2.

Example 12-2

From Figure 12-7 identify the row and column of the pressed key for each of the following.

- (a) $D3-D0 = 1110$ for the row, $D3-D0 = 1011$ for the column
- (b) $D3-D0 = 1101$ for the row, $D3-D0 = 0111$ for the column

Solution:

From Figure 12-7 the row and column can be used to identify the key.

- (a) The row belongs to D0 and the column belongs to D2; therefore, key number 2 was pressed.
- (b) The row belongs to D1 and the column belongs to D3; therefore, key number 7 was pressed.

Program 12-8 is the AVR Assembly language program for detection and identification of key activation. In this program, it is assumed that PC0–PC3 are connected to the rows and PC4–PC7 are connected to the columns.

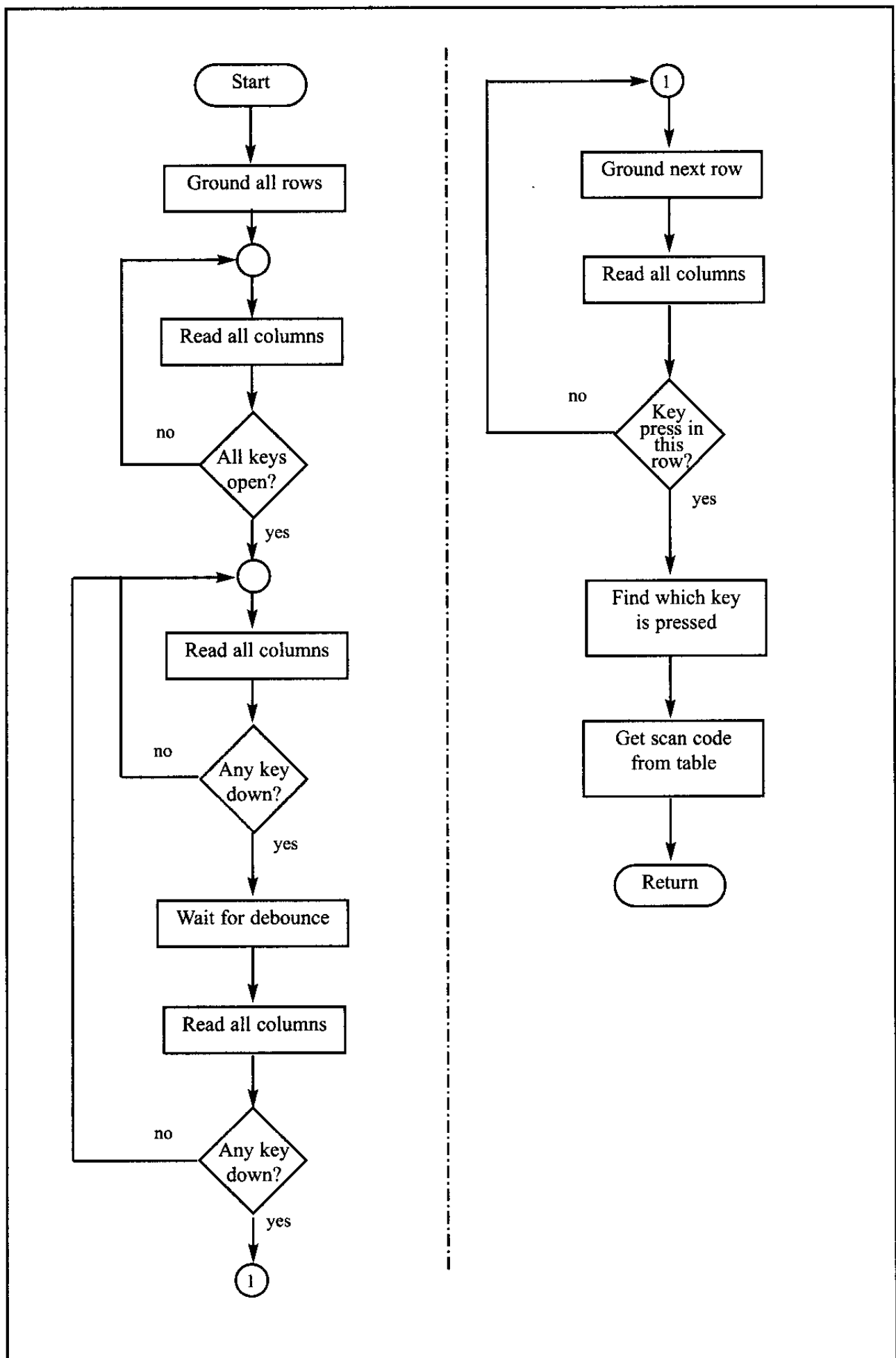


Figure 12-8. Flowchart for Program 12-8

Program 12-8 goes through the following four major stages (Figure 12-8 flowcharts this process):

1. To make sure that the preceding key has been released, 0s are output to all rows at once, and the columns are read and checked repeatedly until all the columns are high. When all columns are found to be high, the program waits for a short amount of time before it goes to the next stage of waiting for a key to be pressed.
2. To see if any key is pressed, the columns are scanned over and over in an infinite loop until one of them has a 0 on it. Remember that the output latches connected to rows still have their initial zeros (provided in stage 1), making them grounded. After the key press detection, the microcontroller waits 20 ms for the bounce and then scans the columns again. This serves two functions: (a) it ensures that the first key press detection was not an erroneous one due to a spike noise, and (b) the 20-ms delay prevents the same key press from being interpreted as a multiple key press. Look at Figure 12-9. If after the 20-ms delay the key is still pressed, it goes to the next stage to detect which row it belongs to; otherwise, it goes back into the loop to detect a real key press.
3. To detect which row the key press belongs to, the microcontroller grounds one row at a time, reading the columns each time. If it finds that all columns are high, this means that the key press cannot belong to that row; therefore, it grounds the next row and continues until it finds the row the key press belongs to. Upon finding the row that the key press belongs to, it sets up the starting address for the look-up table holding the scan codes (or the ASCII value) for that row and goes to the next stage to identify the key.
4. To identify the key press, the microcontroller rotates the column bits, one bit at a time, into the carry flag and checks to see if it is low. Upon finding the zero, it pulls out the ASCII code for that key from the look-up table; otherwise, it increments the pointer to point to the next element of the look-up table.

While the key press detection is standard for all keyboards, the process for determining which key is pressed varies. The look-up table method shown in Program 12-8 can be modified to work with any matrix up to 8×8 . Example 12-3 shows keypad programming in C.

There are IC chips such as National Semiconductor's MM74C923 that incorporate keyboard scanning and decoding all in one chip. Such chips use combinations of counters and logic gates (no microcontroller) to implement the underlying concepts presented in Program 12-8.

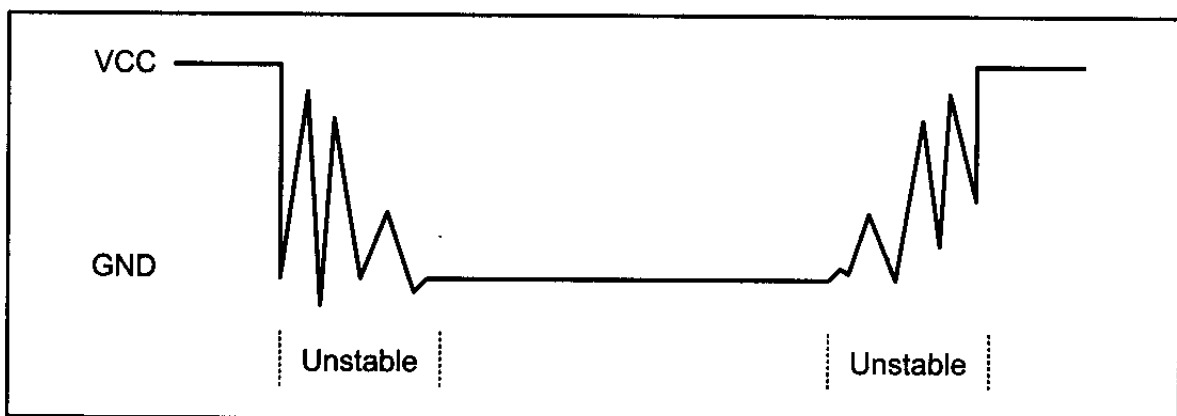


Figure 12-9. Keyboard Debounce

```

;Keyboard Program. This program sends the ASCII code
;for pressed key to Port D
;PC0-PC3 connected to rows PC4-PC7 connected to columns

.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.EQU KEY_PORT = PORTC
.EQU KEY_PIN = PINC
.EQU KEY_DDR = DDRC
    LDI R20,HIGH(RAMEND)
    OUT SPH,R20
    LDI R20,LOW(RAMEND)      ;init. stack pointer
    OUT SPL,R20
    LDI R21,0xFF
    OUT DDRD,R21
    LDI R20,0xF0
    OUT KEY_DDR,R20
GROUND_ALL_ROWS:
    LDI R20,0x0F
    OUT KEY_PORT,R20
WAIT_FOR_RELEASE:
    NOP
    IN R21,KEY_PIN          ;read key pins
    ANDI R21,0x0F          ;mask unused bits
    CPI R21,0x0F           ;(equal if no key)
    BRNE WAIT_FOR_RELEASE  ;do again until keys released
WAIT_FOR_KEY:
    NOP                    ;wait for sync. circuit
    IN R21,KEY_PIN         ;read key pins
    ANDI R21,0x0F         ;mask unused bits
    CPI R21,0x0F          ;(equal if no key)
    BREQ WAIT_FOR_KEY     ;do again until a key pressed
    CALL WAIT15MS         ;wait 15 ms
    IN R21,KEY_PIN         ;read key pins
    ANDI R21,0x0F         ;mask unused bits
    CPI R21,0x0F          ;(equal if no key)
    BREQ WAIT_FOR_KEY     ;do again until a key pressed
    LDI R21,0b01111111    ;ground row 0
    OUT KEY_PORT,R21
    NOP                    ;wait for sync. circuit
    IN R21,KEY_PIN         ;read all columns
    ANDI R21,0x0F         ;mask unused bits
    CPI R21,0x0F          ;(equal if no key)
    BRNE COL1             ;row 0, find the colum
    LDI R21,0b10111111    ;ground row 1
    OUT KEY_PORT,R21
    NOP                    ;wait for sync. circuit
    IN R21,KEY_PIN         ;read all columns
    ANDI R21,0x0F         ;mask unused bits
    CPI R21,0x0F          ;(equal if no key)
    BRNE COL2             ;row 1, find the colum

```

Program 12-8: Keyboard Interfacing Program (continued on next page)

```

LDI R21,0b11011111 ;ground row 2
OUT KEY_PORT,R21
NOP ;wait for sync. circuit
IN R21,KEY_PIN ;read all columns
ANDI R21,0x0F ;mask unused bits
CPI R21,0x0F ;(equal if no key)
BRNE COL3 ;row 2, find the colum
LDI R21,0b11101111 ;ground row 3
OUT KEY_PORT,R21
NOP ;wait for sync. circuit
IN R21,KEY_PIN ;read all columns
ANDI R21,0x0F ;mask unused bits
CPI R21,0x0F ;(equal if no key)
BRNE COL4 ;row 3, find the colum
COL1:
LDI R30,LOW(KCODE0<<1)
LDI R31,HIGH(KCODE0<<1)
RJMP FIND
COL2:
LDI R30,LOW(KCODE1<<1)
LDI R31,HIGH(KCODE1<<1)
RJMP FIND
COL3:
LDI R30,LOW(KCODE2<<1)
LDI R31,HIGH(KCODE2<<1)
RJMP FIND
COL4:
LDI R30,LOW(KCODE3<<1)
LDI R31,HIGH(KCODE3<<1)
RJMP FIND
FIND:
LSR R21
BRCC MATCH ;if Carry is low go to match
LPM R20,Z+ ;INC Z
RJMP FIND
MATCH:
LPM R20,Z
OUT PORTD,R20
RJMP GROUND_ALL_ROWS
WAIT15MS: ;place a code to wait 15 ms
;here
RET

.ORG 0x300

KCODE0: .DB '0','1','2','3' ;ROW 0
KCODE1: .DB '4','5','6','3' ;ROW 1
KCODE2: .DB '8','9','A','B' ;ROW 2
KCODE3: .DB 'C','D','E','F' ;ROW 3

```

Program 12-8. Keyboard Interfacing Program (continued from previous page)

Example 12-3

Write a C program to read the keypad and send the result to Port D.
PC0–PC3 connected to columns
PC4–PC7 connected to rows

Solution:

```
#include <avr/io.h>           //standard AVR header
#include <util/delay.h>       //delay header

#define KEY_PRT PORTC         //keyboard PORT
#define KEY_DDR DDRC         //keyboard DDR
#define KEY_PIN PINC         //keyboard PIN

void delay_ms(unsigned int d)
{
    _delay_ms(d);
}

unsigned char keypad[4][4] = { '0','1','2','3',
                               '4','5','6','7',
                               '8','9','A','B',
                               'C','D','E','F'};

int main(void)
{
    unsigned char colloc, rowloc;

    //keyboard routine. This sends the ASCII
    //code for pressed key to port c
    DDRD = 0xFF;
    KEY_DDR = 0xF0;           //
    KEY_PRT = 0xFF;
    while(1)                  //repeat forever
    {
        do
        {
            KEY_PRT &= 0x0F;   //ground all rows at once
            colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F); //read the columns
        } while(colloc != 0x0F); //check until all keys released

        do
        {
            do
            {
                delay_ms(20); //call delay
                colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F); //see if any key is pressed
            } while(colloc == 0x0F); //keep checking for key press

            delay_ms(20); //call delay for debounce
            colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F); //read columns
        } while(colloc == 0x0F); //wait for key press

        while(1)
        {
            KEY_PRT = 0xEF; //ground row 0
            colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F); //read the columns
```


Example 12-3 (continued from previous page)

```

    if(colloc != 0x0F)                //column detected
    {
        rowloc = 0;                  //save row location
        break;                       //exit while loop
    }

    KEY_PRT = 0xDF;                   //ground row 1
    colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F);        //read the columns

    if(colloc != 0x0F)                //column detected
    {
        rowloc = 1;                  //save row location
        break;                       //exit while loop
    }

    KEY_PRT = 0xBF;                   //ground row 2
    colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F);        //read the columns
    if(colloc != 0x0F)                //column detected
    {
        rowloc = 2;                  //save row location
        break;                       //exit while loop
    }

    KEY_PRT = 0x7F;                   //ground row 3
    colloc = (KEY_PIN & 0x0F);        //read the columns
    rowloc = 3;                       //save row location
    break;                           //exit while loop
}

//check column and send result to Port D
if(colloc == 0x0E)
    PORTD = (keypad[ rowloc][ 0 ] );
else if(colloc == 0x0D)
    PORTD = (keypad[ rowloc][ 1 ] );
else if(colloc == 0x0B)
    PORTD = (keypad[ rowloc][ 2 ] );
else
    PORTD = (keypad[ rowloc][ 3 ] );
}
return 0 ;
}

```

Review Questions

1. True or false. To see if any key is pressed, all rows are grounded.
2. If D3–D0 = 0111 is the data read from the columns, which column does the pressed key belong to?
3. True or false. Key press detection and key identification require two different processes.
4. In Figure 12-7, if the rows are D3–D0 = 1110 and the columns are D3–D0 = 1110, which key is pressed?
5. True or false. To identify the pressed key, one row at a time is grounded.

SUMMARY

This chapter showed how to interface real-world devices such as LCDs and keypads to the AVR. First, we described the operation modes of LCDs, and then described how to program the LCD by sending data or commands to it via its interface to the AVR.

Keyboards are one of the most widely used input devices for AVR projects. This chapter also described the operation of keyboards, including key press and detection mechanisms. Then the AVR was shown interfacing with a keyboard. AVR programs were written to return the ASCII code for the pressed key.

PROBLEMS

SECTION 12.1: LCD INTERFACING

1. The LCD discussed in this section has ____ pins.
2. Describe the function of pins E, R/W, and RS in the LCD.
3. What is the difference between the V_{CC} and V_{EE} pins on the LCD?
4. “Clear LCD” is a _____ (command code, data item) and its value is ____ hex.
5. What is the hex value of the command code for “display on, cursor on”?
6. Give the state of RS, E, and R/W when sending a command code to the LCD.
7. Give the state of RS, E, and R/W when sending data character ‘Z’ to the LCD.
8. Which of the following is needed on the E pin in order for a command code (or data) to be latched in by the LCD?
(a) H-to-L pulse (b) L-to-H pulse
9. True or false. For the above to work, the value of the command code (data) must already be at the D0–D7 pins.
10. There are two methods of sending commands and data to the LCD: (1) 4-bit mode or (2) 8-bit mode. Explain the difference and the advantages and disadvantages of each method.
11. For a 16×2 LCD, the location of the last character of line 1 is 8FH (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
12. For a 16×2 LCD, the location of the first character of line 2 is C0H (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
13. For a 20×2 LCD, the location of the last character of line 2 is 93H (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
14. For a 20×2 LCD, the location of the third character of line 2 is C2H (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
15. For a 40×2 LCD, the location of the last character of line 1 is A7H (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
16. For a 40×2 LCD, the location of the last character of line 2 is E7H (its command code). Show how this value was calculated.
17. Show the value (in hex) for the command code for the 10th location, line 1 on a 20×2 LCD. Show how you got your value.
18. Show the value (in hex) for the command code for the 20th location, line 2 on

a 40×2 LCD. Show how you got your value.

SECTION 12.2: KEYBOARD INTERFACING

19. In reading the columns of a keyboard matrix, if no key is pressed we should get all _____ (1s, 0s).
20. In the 4×4 keyboard interfacing, to detect the key press, which of the following is grounded?
(a) all rows (b) one row at time (c) both (a) and (b)
21. In the 4×4 keyboard interfacing, to identify the key pressed, which of the following is grounded?
(a) all rows (b) one row at time (c) both (a) and (b)
22. For the 4×4 keyboard interfacing (Figure 12-7), indicate the column and row for each of the following.
(a) D3–D0 = 0111 (b) D3–D0 = 1110
23. Indicate the steps to detect the key press.
24. Indicate the steps to identify the key pressed.
25. Indicate an advantage and a disadvantage of using an IC chip for keyboard scanning and decoding instead of using a microcontroller.
26. What is the best compromise for the answer to Problem 25?

ANSWERS TO REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 12.1: LCD INTERFACING

1. Input
2. Input
3. H-to-L
4. High
5. Shift cursor to right
6. d
7. a
8. c
9. d
10. d
11. c

SECTION 12.2: KEYBOARD INTERFACING

1. True
2. Column 3
3. True
4. 0
5. True

CHAPTER 13

ADC, DAC, AND SENSOR INTERFACING

OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this chapter, you will be able to:

- >> Discuss the ADC (analog-to-digital converter) section of the AVR chip
- >> Interface temperature sensors to the AVR
- >> Explain the process of data acquisition using ADC
- >> Describe factors to consider in selecting an ADC chip
- >> Program the AVR's ADC in C and Assembly
- >> Describe the basic operation of a DAC (digital-to-analog converter) chip
- >> Interface a DAC chip to the AVR
- >> Program DAC chips in AVR C and Assembly
- >> Explain the function of precision IC temperature sensors
- >> Describe signal conditioning and its role in data acquisition

This chapter explores more real-world devices such as ADCs (analog-to-digital converters), DACs (digital-to-analog converters), and sensors. We will also explain how to interface the AVR to these devices. In Section 13.1, we describe analog-to-digital converter (ADC) chips. We will program the ADC portion of the AVR chip in Section 13.2. In Section 13.3, we show the interfacing of sensors and discuss the issue of signal conditioning. The characteristics of DAC chips are discussed in Section 13.4.

SECTION 13.1: ADC CHARACTERISTICS

This section will explore ADC generally. First, we describe some general aspects of the ADC itself, then focus on the functionality of some important pins in ADC.

ADC devices

Analog-to-digital converters are among the most widely used devices for data acquisition. Digital computers use binary (discrete) values, but in the physical world everything is analog (continuous). Temperature, pressure (wind or liquid), humidity, and velocity are a few examples of physical quantities that we deal with every day. A physical quantity is converted to electrical (voltage, current) signals using a device called a *transducer*. Transducers are also referred to as *sensors*. Sensors for temperature, velocity, pressure, light, and many other natural quantities produce an output that is voltage (or current). Therefore, we need an analog-to-digital converter to translate the analog signals to digital numbers so that the microcontroller can read and process them. See Figures 13-1 and 13-2.

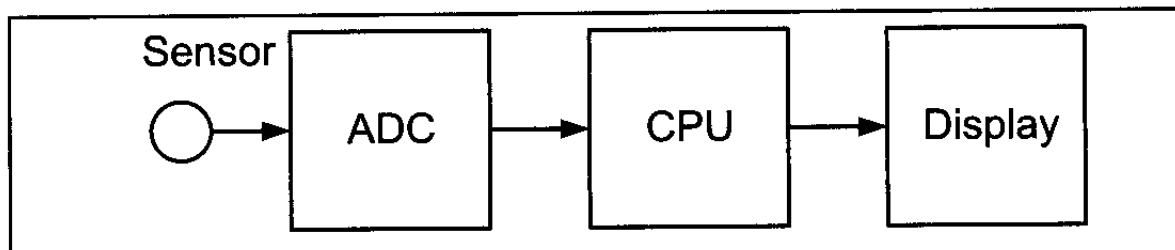


Figure 13-1. Microcontroller Connection to Sensor via ADC

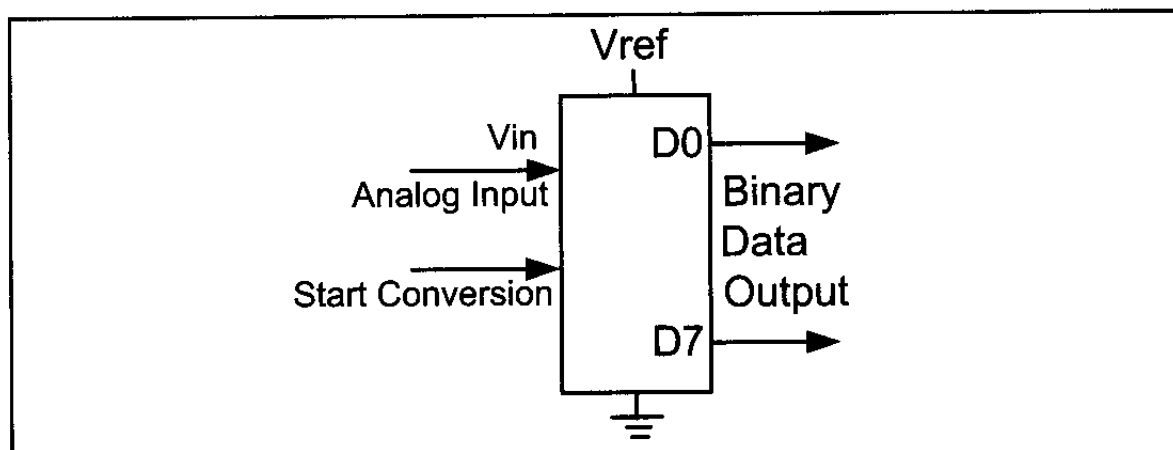


Figure 13-2. An 8-bit ADC Block Diagram

Table 13-1: Resolution versus Step Size for ADC ($V_{\text{ref}} = 5 \text{ V}$)

n -bit	Number of steps	Step size (mV)
8	256	$5/256 = 19.53$
10	1024	$5/1024 = 4.88$
12	4096	$5/4096 = 1.2$
16	65,536	$5/65,536 = 0.076$

Notes: $V_{CC} = 5 \text{ V}$

Step size (resolution) is the smallest change that can be discerned by an ADC.

Some of the major characteristics of the ADC

Resolution

The ADC has n -bit resolution, where n can be 8, 10, 12, 16, or even 24 bits. Higher-resolution ADCs provide a smaller step size, where *step size* is the smallest change that can be discerned by an ADC. Some widely used resolutions for ADCs are shown in Table 13-1. Although the resolution of an ADC chip is decided at the time of its design and cannot be changed, we can control the step size with the help of what is called V_{ref} . This is discussed below.

Conversion time

In addition to resolution, conversion time is another major factor in judging an ADC. *Conversion time* is defined as the time it takes the ADC to convert the analog input to a digital (binary) number. The conversion time is dictated by the clock source connected to the ADC in addition to the method used for data conversion and technology used in the fabrication of the ADC chip such as MOS or TTL technology.

V_{ref}

V_{ref} is an input voltage used for the reference voltage. The voltage connected to this pin, along with the resolution of the ADC chip, dictate the step size. For an 8-bit ADC, the step size is $V_{\text{ref}}/256$ because it is an 8-bit ADC, and 2 to the power of 8 gives us 256 steps. See Table 13-1. For example, if the analog input range needs to be 0 to 4 volts, V_{ref} is connected to 4 volts. That gives $4 \text{ V}/256 = 15.62 \text{ mV}$ for the step size of an 8-bit ADC. In another case, if we need a step size

Table 13-2: V_{ref} Relation to V_{in} Range for an 8-bit ADC

V_{ref} (V)	V_{in} Range (V)	Step Size (mV)
5.00	0 to 5	$5/256 = 19.53$
4.0	0 to 4	$4/256 = 15.62$
3.0	0 to 3	$3/256 = 11.71$
2.56	0 to 2.56	$2.56/256 = 10$
2.0	0 to 2	$2/256 = 7.81$
1.28	0 to 1.28	$1.28/256 = 5$
1	0 to 1	$1/256 = 3.90$

Step size is $V_{\text{ref}}/256$

Table 13-3: V_{ref} Relation to V_{in} Range for an 10-bit ADC

V_{ref} (V)	V_{in} (V)	Step Size (mV)
5.00	0 to 5	$5/1024 = 4.88$
4.096	0 to 4.096	$4.096/1024 = 4$
3.0	0 to 3	$3/1024 = 2.93$
2.56	0 to 2.56	$2.56/1024 = 2.5$
2.048	0 to 2.048	$2.048/1024 = 2$
1.28	0 to 1.28	$1/1024 = 1.25$
1.024	0 to 1.024	$1.024/1024 = 1$

of 10 mV for an 8-bit ADC, then $V_{ref} = 2.56$ V, because $2.56 \text{ V}/256 = 10 \text{ mV}$. For the 10-bit ADC, if the $V_{ref} = 5\text{V}$, then the step size is 4.88 mV as shown in Table 13-1. Tables 13-2 and 13-3 show the relationship between the V_{ref} and step size for the 8- and 10-bit ADCs, respectively. In some applications, we need the differential reference voltage where $V_{ref} = V_{ref}(+) - V_{ref}(-)$. Often the $V_{ref}(-)$ pin is connected to ground and the $V_{ref}(+)$ pin is used as the V_{ref} .

Digital data output

In an 8-bit ADC we have an 8-bit digital data output of D0–D7, while in the 10-bit ADC the data output is D0–D9. To calculate the output voltage, we use the following formula:

$$D_{out} = \frac{V_{in}}{\text{step size}}$$

where D_{out} = digital data output (in decimal), V_{in} = analog input voltage, and step size (resolution) is the smallest change, which is $V_{ref}/256$ for an 8-bit ADC. See Example 13-1. This data is brought out of the ADC chip either one bit at a time (serially), or in one chunk, using a parallel line of outputs. This is discussed next.

Example 13-1

For an 8-bit ADC, we have $V_{ref} = 2.56$ V. Calculate the D0–D7 output if the analog input is: (a) 1.7 V, and (b) 2.1 V.

Solution:

Because the step size is $2.56/256 = 10 \text{ mV}$, we have the following:

(a) $D_{out} = 1.7 \text{ V}/10 \text{ mV} = 170$ in decimal, which gives us 10101010 in binary for D7–D0.

(b) $D_{out} = 2.1 \text{ V}/10 \text{ mV} = 210$ in decimal, which gives us 11010010 in binary for D7–D0.

Parallel versus serial ADC

The ADC chips are either parallel or serial. In parallel ADC, we have 8 or more pins dedicated to bringing out the binary data, but in serial ADC we have only one pin for data out. That means that inside the serial ADC, there is a parallel-in-serial-out shift register responsible for sending out the binary data one bit at a time. The D0–D7 data pins of the 8-bit ADC provide an 8-bit parallel data path between the ADC chip and the CPU. In the case of the 16-bit parallel ADC chip,

we need 16 pins for the data path. In order to save pins, many 12- and 16-bit ADCs use pins D0–D7 to send out the upper and lower bytes of the binary data. In recent years, for many applications where space is a critical issue, using such a large number of pins for data is not feasible. For this reason, serial devices such as the serial ADC are becoming widely used. While the serial ADCs use fewer pins and their smaller packages take much less space on the printed circuit board, more CPU time is needed to get the converted data from the ADC because the CPU must get data one bit at a time, instead of in one single read operation as with the parallel ADC. ADC848 is an example of a parallel ADC with 8 pins for the data output, while the MAX1112 is an example of a serial ADC with a single pin for D_{out} . Figures 13-3 and 13-4 show the block diagram for ADC848 and MAX1112.

Analog input channels

Many data acquisition applications need more than one ADC. For this reason, we see ADC chips with 2, 4, 8, or even 16 channels on a single chip. Multiplexing of analog inputs is widely used as shown in the ADC848 and MAX1112. In these chips, we have 8 channels of analog inputs, allowing us to monitor multiple quantities such as temperature, pressure, heat, and so on. AVR microcontroller chips come with up to 16 ADC channels.

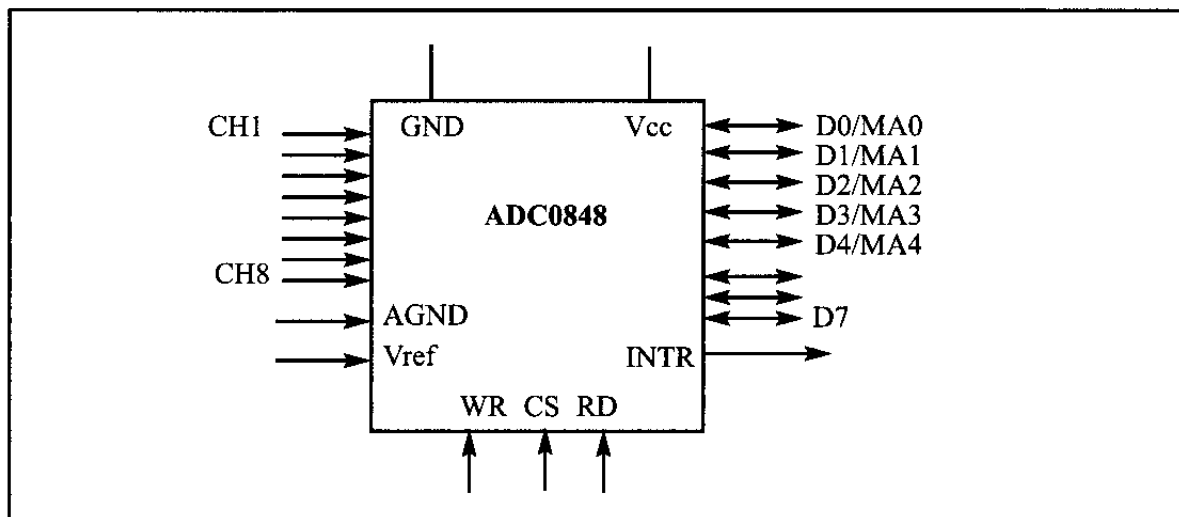


Figure 13-3. ADC0848 Parallel ADC Block Diagram

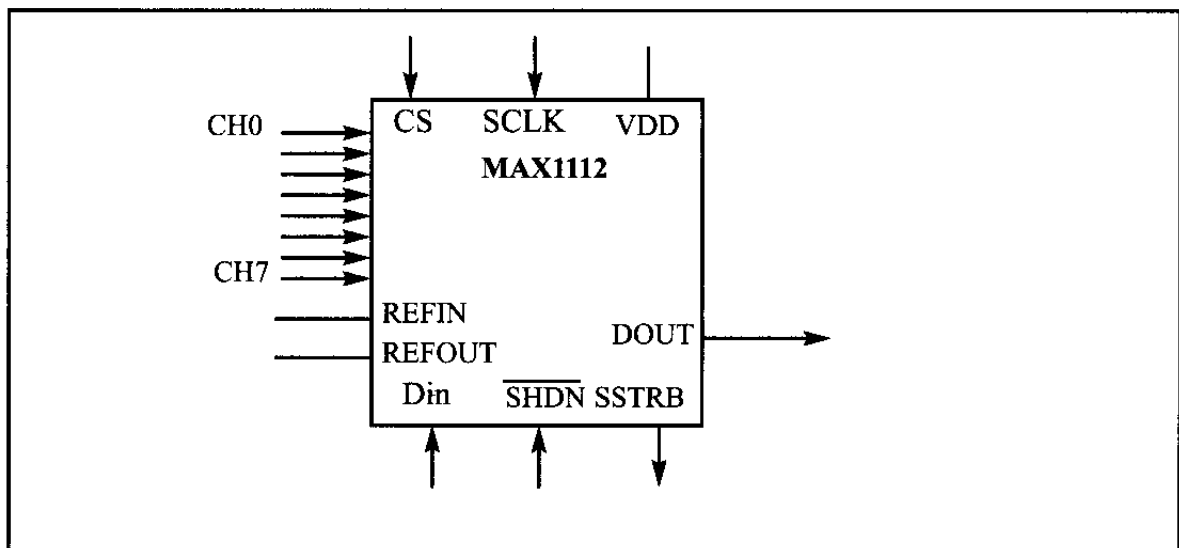


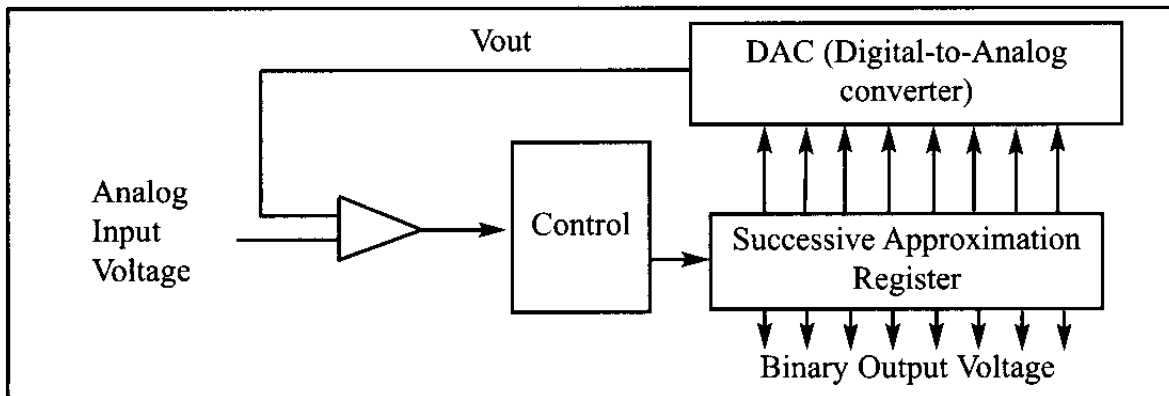
Figure 13-4. MAX1112 Serial ADC Block Diagram

Start conversion and end-of-conversion signals

The fact that we have multiple analog input channels and a single digital output register creates the need for start conversion (SC) and end-of-conversion (EOC) signals. When SC is activated, the ADC starts converting the analog input value of V_{in} to an n -bit digital number. The amount of time it takes to convert varies depending on the conversion method as was explained earlier. When the data conversion is complete, the end-of-conversion signal notifies the CPU that the converted data is ready to be picked up.

Successive Approximation ADC

Successive Approximation is a widely used method of converting an analog input to digital output. It has three main components: (a) successive approximation register (SAR), (b) comparator, and (c) control unit. See the figure below.



Assuming a step size of 10 mV, the 8-bit successive approximation ADC will go through the following steps to convert an input of 1 volt:

(1) It starts with binary 10000000. Since $128 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1.28 \text{ V}$ is greater than the 1 V input, bit 7 is cleared (dropped). (2) 01000000 gives us $64 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 640 \text{ mV}$ and bit 6 is kept since it is smaller than the 1 V input. (3) 01100000 gives us $96 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 960 \text{ mV}$ and bit 5 is kept since it is smaller than the 1 V input, (4) 01110000 gives us $112 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1120 \text{ mV}$ and bit 4 is dropped since it is greater than the 1 V input. (5) 01101000 gives us $108 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1080 \text{ mV}$ and bit 3 is dropped since it is greater than the 1 V input. (6) 01100100 gives us $100 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1000 \text{ mV} = 1 \text{ V}$ and bit 2 is kept since it is equal to input. Even though the answer is found it does not stop. (7) 011000110 gives us $102 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1020 \text{ mV}$ and bit 1 is dropped since it is greater than the 1 V input. (8) 01100101 gives us $101 \times 10 \text{ mV} = 1010 \text{ mV}$ and bit 0 is dropped since it is greater than the 1 V input.

Notice that the Successive Approximation method goes through all the steps even if the answer is found in one of the earlier steps. The advantage of the Successive Approximation method is that the conversion time is fixed since it has to go through all the steps.

Review Questions

1. Give two factors that affect the step size calculation.
2. The ADC0848 is a(n) _____-bit converter.
3. True or false. While the ADC0848 has 8 pins for D_{out} , the MAX1112 has only one D_{out} pin.
4. Find the step size for an 8-bit ADC, if $V_{ref} = 1.28 \text{ V}$.
5. For question 4, calculate the output if the analog input is: (a) 0.7 V, and (b) 1 V.

SECTION 13.2: ADC PROGRAMMING IN THE AVR

Because the ADC is widely used in data acquisition, in recent years an increasing number of microcontrollers have had an on-chip ADC peripheral, just like timers and USART. An on-chip ADC eliminates the need for an external ADC connection, which leaves more pins for other I/O activities. The vast majority of the AVR chips come with ADC. In this section we discuss the ADC feature of the ATmega32 and show how it is programmed in both Assembly and C.

ATmega32 ADC features

The ADC peripheral of the ATmega32 has the following characteristics:

- (a) It is a 10-bit ADC.
- (b) It has 8 analog input channels, 7 differential input channels, and 2 differential input channels with optional gain of 10x and 200x.
- (c) The converted output binary data is held by two special function registers called ADCL (A/D Result Low) and ADCH (A/D Result High).
- (d) Because the ADCH:ADCL registers give us 16 bits and the ADC data out is only 10 bits wide, 6 bits of the 16 are unused. We have the option of making either the upper 6 bits or the lower 6 bits unused.
- (e) We have three options for V_{ref} . V_{ref} can be connected to AVCC (Analog V_{cc}), internal 2.56 V reference, or external AREF pin.
- (f) The conversion time is dictated by the crystal frequency connected to the XTAL pins (F_{osc}) and ADPS0:2 bits.

AVR ADC hardware considerations

For digital logic signals a small variation in voltage level has no effect on the output. For example, 0.2 V is considered LOW, since in TTL logic, anything less than 0.5 V will be detected as LOW logic. That is not the case when we are dealing with analog voltage. See Example 13-2.

We can use many techniques to reduce the impact of ADC supply voltage and V_{ref} variation on the accuracy of ADC output. Next, we examine two of the most widely used techniques in the AVR.

Example 13-2

For an 10-bit ADC, we have $V_{ref} = 2.56$ V. Calculate the D0–D9 output if the analog input is: (a) 0.2 V, and (b) 0 V. How much is the variation between (a) and (b)?

Solution:

Because the step size is $2.56/1024 = 2.5$ mV, we have the following:

(a) $D_{out} = 0.2 \text{ V} / 2.5 \text{ mV} = 80$ in decimal, which gives us 1010000 in binary.

(b) $D_{out} = 0 \text{ V} / 2.5 \text{ mV} = 0$ in decimal, which gives us 0 in binary.

The difference is 1010000, which is 7 bits!

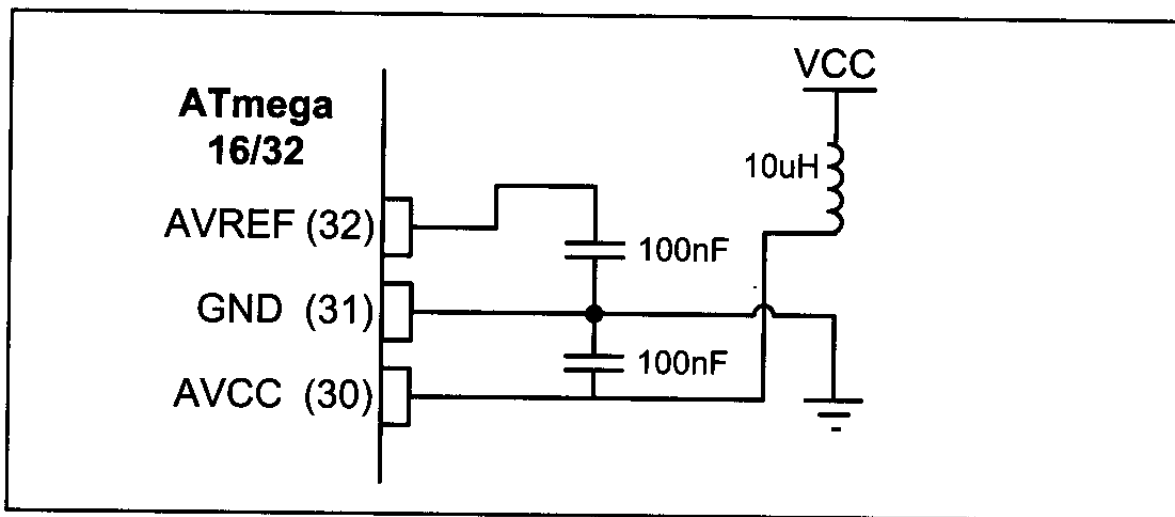


Figure 13-5. ADC Recommended Connection

Decoupling AVCC from VCC

As we mentioned in Chapter 8, the AVCC pin provides the supply for analog ADC circuitry. To get a better accuracy of AVR ADC we must provide a stable voltage source to the AVCC pin. Figure 13-5 shows how to use an inductor and a capacitor to achieve this.

Connecting a capacitor between V_{ref} and GND

By connecting a capacitor between the AVREF pin and GND you can make the V_{ref} voltage more stable and increase the precision of ADC. See Figure 13-5.

AVR programming in Assembly and C

In the AVR microcontroller five major registers are associated with the ADC that we deal with in this chapter. They are ADCH (high data), ADCL (low data), ADCSRA (ADC Control and Status Register), ADMUX (ADC multiplexer selection register), and SPIOR (Special Function I/O Register). We examine each of them in this section.

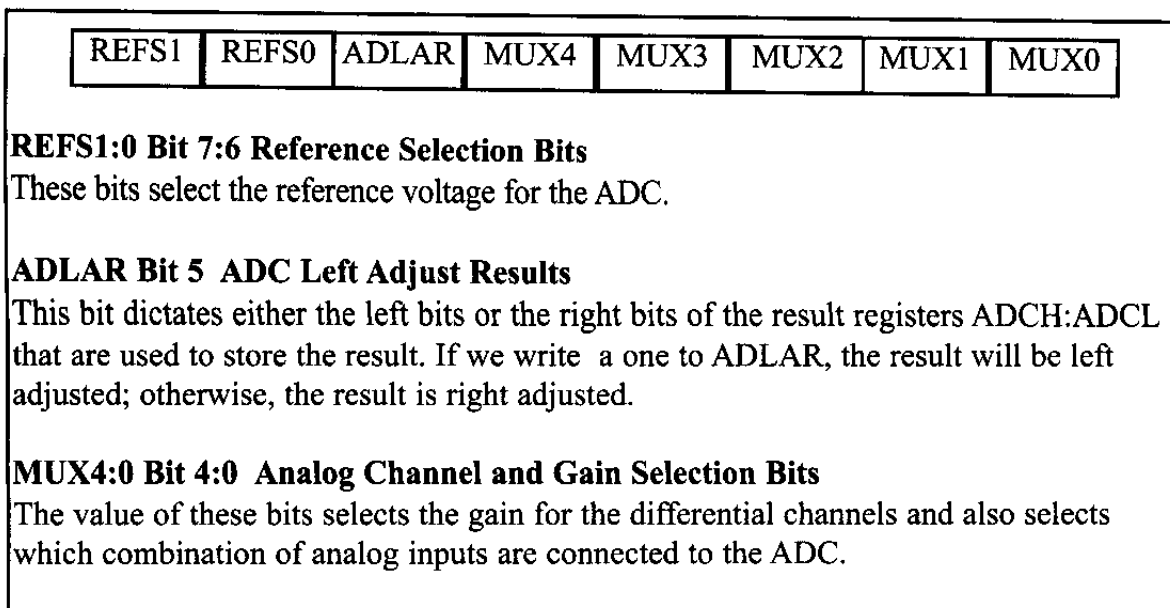


Figure 13-6. ADMUX Register

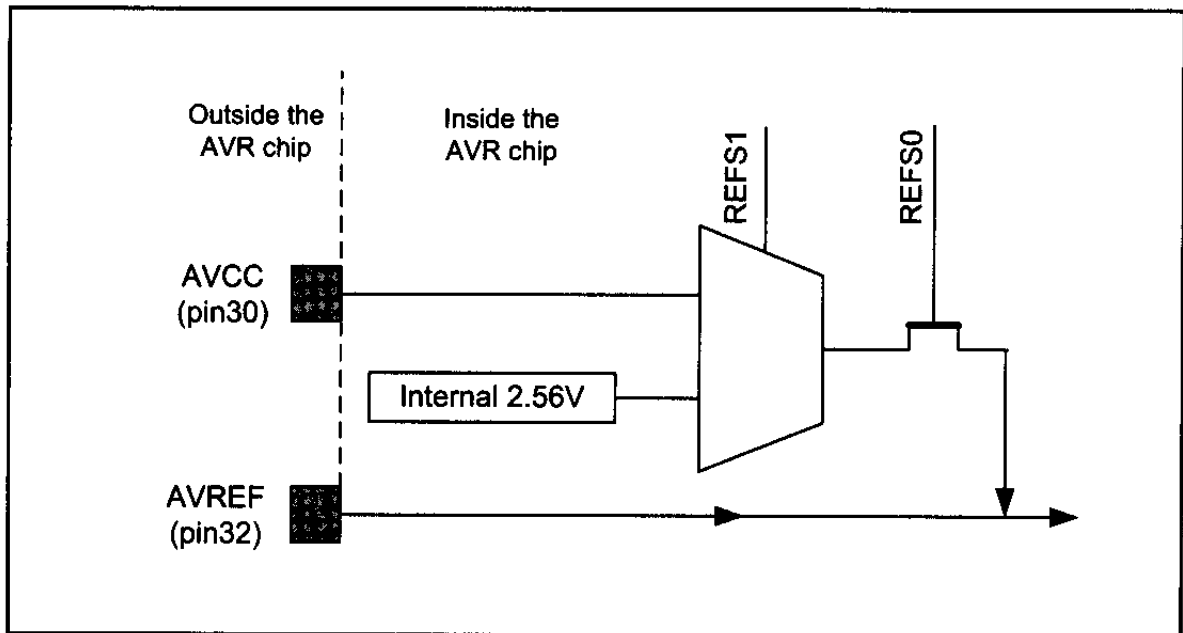


Figure 13-7. ADC Reference Source Selection

ADMUX register

Figure 13-6 shows the bits of ADMUX registers and their usage. In this section we will focus more on the function of these bits.

V_{ref} source

Figure 13-7 shows the block diagram of internal circuitry of V_{ref} selection. As you can see we have three options: (a) AREF pin, (b) AVCC pin, or (c) internal 2.56 V. Table 13-4 shows how the REFS1 and REFS0 bits of the ADMUX register can be used to select the V_{ref} source.

Table 13-4: V_{ref} Source Selection Table for AVR

REFS1	REFS0	V_{ref}	
0	0	AREF pin	Set externally
0	1	AVCC pin	Same as VCC
1	0	Reserved	----
1	1	Internal 2.56 V	Fixed regardless of VCC value

Notice that if you connect the VREF pin to an external fixed voltage you will not be able to use the other reference voltage options in the application, as they will be shorted with the external voltage.

Another important point to note is the fact that connecting a 100 nF external capacitor between the VREF pin and GND will increase the precision and stability of ADC, especially when you want to use internal 2.56 V. Refer to Figure 13-5 to see how to connect an external capacitor to the VREF pin of the ATmega32.

If you choose 2.56 V as the V_{ref} , the step size of ADC will be $2.56 / 1024 = 10/4 = 2.5$ mV. Such a round step size will reduce the calculations in software.

ADC input channel source

Figure 13-8 shows the schematic of the internal circuitry of input channel selection. As you can see in the figure, either single-ended or the differential input can be selected to be converted to digital data. If you select single-ended input, you can choose the input channel among ADC0 to ADC7. In this case a single pin is used as the analog line, and GND of the AVR chip is used as common ground. Table 13-5 lists the values of MUX4–MUX0 bits for different single-ended inputs. As you see in Figure 13-8, if you choose differential input, you can also select the op-amp gain. You can choose the gain of the op-amp to be 1x, 10x,

Table 13-5: Single-ended Channels

MUX4...0	Single-ended Input
00000	ADC0
00001	ADC1
00010	ADC2
00011	ADC3
00100	ADC4
00101	ADC5
00110	ADC6
00111	ADC7

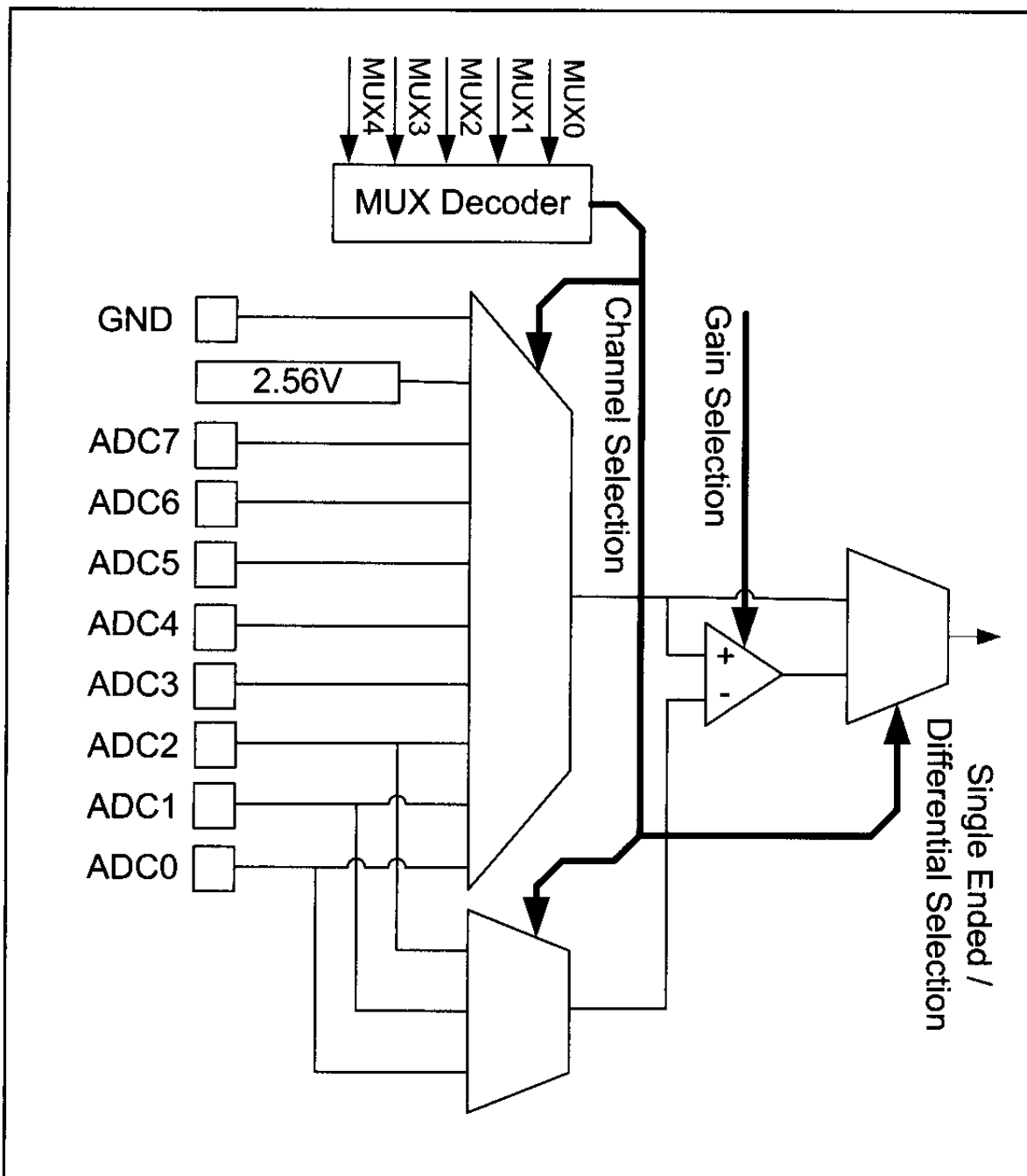


Figure 13-8. ADC Input Channel Selection

Table 13-6: V_{ref} Source Selection Table

MUX4...0	+ Differential Input	– Differential Input	Gain
01000 *	ADC0	ADC0	10x
01001	ADC1	ADC0	10x
01010 *	ADC0	ADC0	200x
01011	ADC1	ADC0	200x
01100 *	ADC2	ADC2	10x
01101	ADC3	ADC2	10x
01110 *	ADC2	ADC2	200x
01111	ADC3	ADC2	200x
10000	ADC0	ADC1	1x
10001 *	ADC1	ADC1	1x
10010	ADC2	ADC1	1x
10011	ADC3	ADC1	1x
10100	ADC4	ADC1	1x
10101	ADC5	ADC1	1x
10110	ADC6	ADC1	1x
10111	ADC7	ADC1	1x
11000	ADC0	ADC2	1x
11001	ADC1	ADC2	1x
11010 *	ADC2	ADC2	1x
11011	ADC3	ADC2	1x
11100	ADC4	ADC2	1x
11101	ADC5	ADC2	1x

*Note: The rows with * are not applicable.*

or 200x. You can select the positive input of the op-amp to be one of the pins ADC0 to ADC7, and the negative input of the op-amp can be any of ADC0, ADC1, or ADC2 pins. See Table 13-6.

ADLAR bit operation

The AVR has a 10-bit ADC, which means that the result is 10 bits long and cannot be stored in a single byte. In AVR two 8-bit registers are dedicated to the ADC result, but only 10 of the 16 bits are used and 6 bits are unused. You can select the position of used bits in the bytes. If you set the ADLAR bit in ADMUX register, the result bits will be left-justified; otherwise, the result bits will be right-justified. See Figure 13-9. Notice that changing the ADLAR bit will affect the ADC data register immediately.

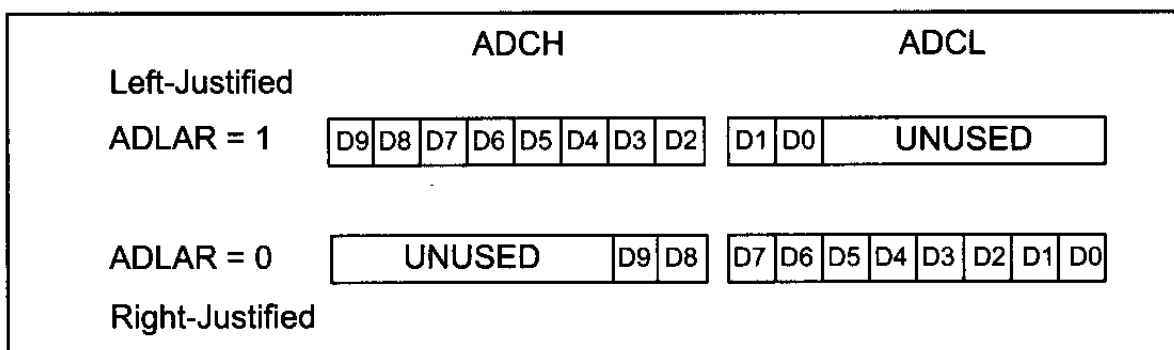


Figure 13-9. ADLAR Bit and ADCx Registers

ADCH: ADCL registers

After the A/D conversion is complete, the result sits in registers ADCL (A/D Result Low Byte) and ACDH (A/D Result High Byte). As we mentioned before, the ADLAR bit of the ADMUX is used for making it right-justified or left-justified because we need only 10 of the 16 bits.

ADCSRA register

The ADCSRA register is the status and control register of ADC. Bits of this register control or monitor the operation of the ADC. In Figure 13-10 you can see a description of each bit of the ADCSRA register. We will examine some of these bits in more detail.

ADEN	ADSC	ADATE	ADIF	ADIE	ADPS2	ADPS1	ADPS0
ADEN Bit 7 ADC Enable This bit enables or disables the ADC. Setting this bit to one will enable the ADC, and clearing this bit to zero will disable it even while a conversion is in progress.							
ADSC Bit 6 ADC Start Conversion To start each conversion you have to set this bit to one.							
ADATE Bit 5 ADC Auto Trigger Enable Auto triggering of the ADC is enabled when you set this bit to one.							
ADIF Bit 4 ADC Interrupt Flag This bit is set when an ADC conversion completes and the data registers are updated.							
ADIE Bit 3 ADC Interrupt Enable Setting this bit to one enables the ADC conversion complete interrupt.							
ADPS2:0 Bit 2:0 ADC Prescaler Select Bits These bits determine the division factor between the XTAL frequency and the input clock to the ADC.							

Figure 13-10. ADCSRA (A/D Control and Status Register A)

ADC Start Conversion bit

As we stated before, an ADC has a Start Conversion input. The AVR chip has a special circuit to trigger start conversion. As you see in Figure 13-11, in addition to the ADCSC bit of ADCSRA there are other sources to trigger start of conversion. If you set the ADATE bit of ADCSRA to high, you can select auto trigger source by updating ADTS2:0 in the SFIOR register. If ADATE is cleared, the ADTS2:0 settings will have no effect. Notice that there are many considerations if you want to use auto trigger mode. We will not cover auto trigger mode in this book. If you want to use auto trigger mode we strongly recommend you to refer to the datasheet of the device that you want to use at www.atmel.com.

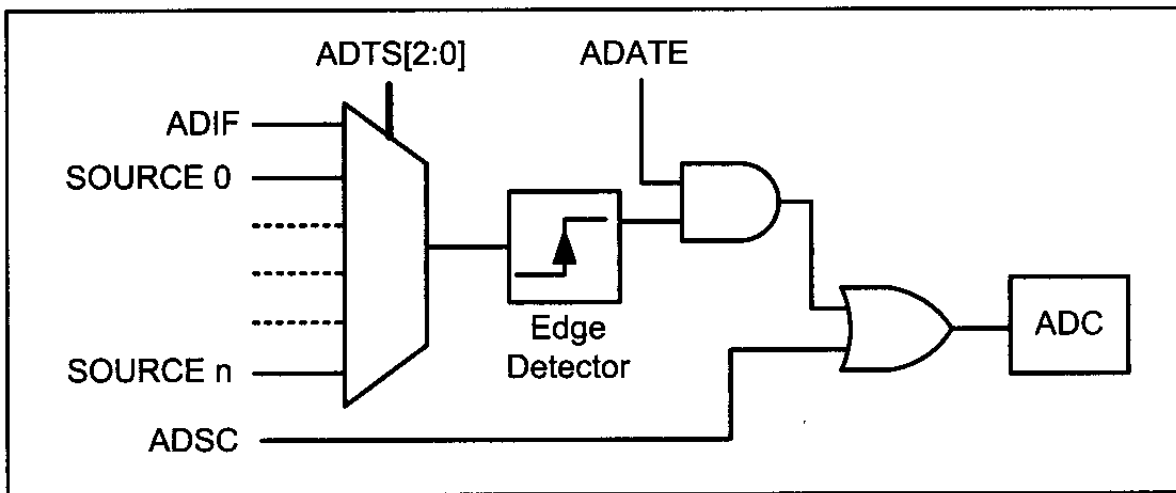


Figure 13-11. AVR ADC Trigger Source

A/D conversion time

As you see in Figure 13-12, by using the ADPS2:0 bits of the ADCSRA register we can set the A/D conversion time. To select the conversion time, we can select any of $F_{osc}/2$, $F_{osc}/4$, $F_{osc}/8$, $F_{osc}/16$, $F_{osc}/32$, $F_{osc}/64$, or $F_{osc}/128$ for ADC clock, where F_{osc} is the speed of the crystal frequency connected to the AVR chip. Notice that the multiplexer has 7 inputs since the option $ADPS2:0 = 000$ is reserved. For the AVR, the ADC requires an input clock frequency less than 200 kHz for the maximum accuracy. Look at Example 13-3 for clarification.

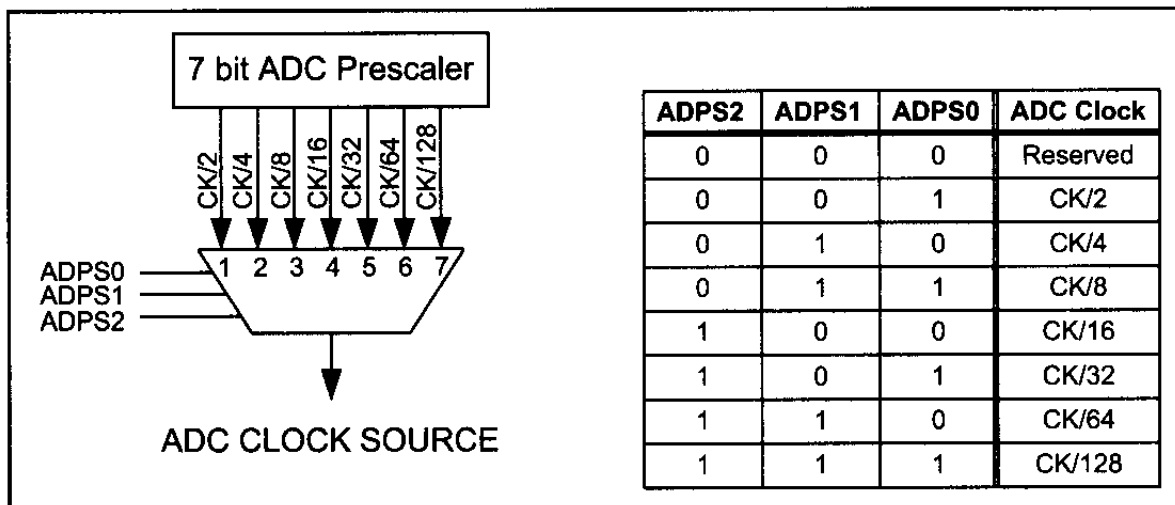


Figure 13-12. AVR ADC Clock Selection

Example 13-3

An AVR is connected to the 8 MHz crystal oscillator. Calculate the ADC frequency for (a) $ADPS2:0 = 001$ (b) $ADPS2:0 = 100$ (c) $ADPS2:0 = 111$

Solution:

- (a) Because $ADPS2:0 = 001$ (1 decimal), the $ck/2$ input will be activated; we have $8 \text{ MHz} / 2 = 4 \text{ MHz}$ (greater than 200 kHz and not valid)
- (b) Because $ADPS2:0 = 100$ (4 decimal), the $ck/8$ input will be activated; we have $8 \text{ MHz} / 16 = 500 \text{ kHz}$ (greater than 200 kHz and not valid)
- (c) Because $ADPS2:0 = 111$ (7 decimal), the $ck/128$ input will be activated; we have $8 \text{ MHz} / 128 = 62 \text{ kHz}$ (a valid option since it is less than 200 kHz)

Sample-and-hold time in ADC

A timing factor that we should know about is the acquisition time. After an ADC channel is selected, the ADC allows some time for the sample-and-hold capacitor (C_{hold}) to charge fully to the input voltage level present at the channel.

In the AVR, the first conversion takes 25 ADC clock cycles in order to initialize the analog circuitry and pass the sample-and-hold time. Then each consecutive conversion takes 13 ADC clock cycles.

Table 13-7 lists the conversion times for some different conditions. Notice that sample-and-hold time is the first part of each conversion.

Table 13-7: Conversion Time Table

Condition	Sample and Hold Time (Cycles)	Total Conversion Time (Cycles)
First Conversion	14.5	25
Normal Conversion, Single-ended	1.5	13
Normal Conversion, Differential	2	13.5
Auto trigger conversion	1.5 / 2.5	13/14

If the conversion time is not critical in your application and you do not want to deal with calculation of ADPS2:0 you can use ADPS2:0 = 111 to get the maximum accuracy of ADC.

Steps in programming the A/D converter using polling

To program the A/D converter of the AVR, the following steps must be taken:

1. Make the pin for the selected ADC channel an input pin.
2. Turn on the ADC module of the AVR because it is disabled upon power-on reset to save power.
3. Select the conversion speed. We use registers ADPS2:0 to select the conversion speed.
4. Select voltage reference and ADC input channels. We use the REFS0 and REFS1 bits in the ADMUX register to select voltage reference and the MUX4:0 bits in ADMUX to select the ADC input channel.
5. Activate the start conversion bit by writing a one to the ADSC bit of ADCSRA.
6. Wait for the conversion to be completed by polling the ADIF bit in the ADCSRA register.
7. After the ADIF bit has gone HIGH, read the ADCL and ADCH registers to get the digital data output. Notice that you have to read ADCL before ADCH; otherwise, the result will not be valid.
8. If you want to read the selected channel again, go back to step 5.
9. If you want to select another V_{ref} source or input channel, go back to step 4.

Programming AVR ADC in Assembly and C

The Assembly language Program 13-1 illustrates the steps for ADC conversion shown above. Figure 13-13 shows the hardware connection of Program 13-1.

```

;Program 13-1: This program gets data from channel 0 (ADC0) of
;ADC and displays the result on Port C and Port D. This is done
;forever.
;***** Program 13-1 *****

.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
    LDI    R16,0xFF
    OUT    DDRB, R16        ;make Port B an output
    OUT    DDRD, R16        ;make Port D an output
    LDI    R16,0
    OUT    DDRA, R16        ;make Port A an input for ADC
    LDI    R16,0x87         ;enable ADC and select ck/128
    OUT    ADCSRA, R16
    LDI    R16,0xC0         ;2.56V Vref, ADC0 single ended
    OUT    ADMUX, R16       ;input, right-justified data

READ_ADC:
    SBI    ADCSRA,ADSC      ;start conversion
KEEP_POLING:
    SBIS    ADCSRA,ADIF     ;is it end of conversion yet?
    RJMP    KEEP_POLING     ;keep polling end of conversion
    SBI    ADCSRA,ADIF     ;write 1 to clear ADIF flag
    IN      R16,ADCL        ;YOU HAVE TO READ ADCL FIRST
    OUT     PORTD,R16       ;give the low byte to PORTD
    IN      R16,ADCH        ;READ ADCH AFTER ADCL
    OUT     PORTB,R16       ;give the high byte to PORTB
    RJMP    READ_ADC        ;keep repeating it

```

Program 13-1: Reading ADC Using Polling Method in Assembly

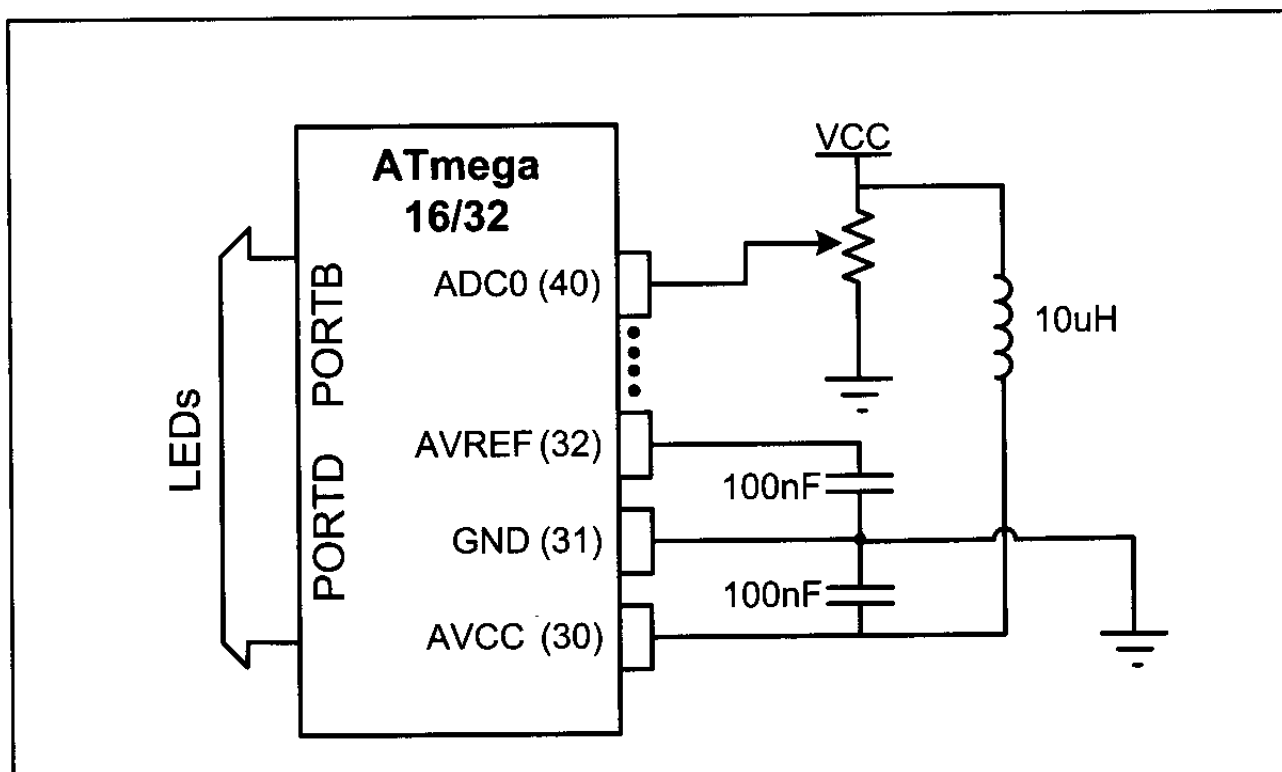


Figure 13-13. ADC Connection for Program 13-1

Program 13-1C is the C version of the ADC conversion for Program 13-1.

```
#include <avr/io.h>           //standard AVR header
int main (void)
{
    DDRB = 0xFF;              //make Port B an output
    DDRD = 0xFF;              //make Port D an output
    DDRA = 0;                 //make Port A an input for ADC input
    ADCSRA= 0x87;             //make ADC enable and select ck/128
    ADMUX= 0xC0;              //2.56V Vref, ADC0 single ended input
                                //data will be right-justified

    while (1){
        ADCSRA|=(1<<ADSC);    //start conversion
        while((ADCSRA&(1<<ADIF))==0); //wait for conversion to finish
        PORTD = ADCL;          //give the low byte to PORTD
        PORTB = ADCH;          //give the high byte to PORTB
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Program 13-1C: Reading ADC Using Polling Method in C

Programming A/D converter using interrupts

In Chapter 10, we showed how to use interrupts instead of polling to avoid tying down the microcontroller. To program the A/D using the interrupt method, we need to set HIGH the ADIE (A/D interrupt enable) flag. Upon completion of conversion, the ADIF (A/D interrupt flag) changes to HIGH; if ADIE = 1, it will force the CPU to jump to the ADC interrupt handler. Programs 13-2 and 13-2C show how to read ADC using interrupts.

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.CSEG
    RJMP MAIN
.ORG ADCCaddr
    RJMP ADC_INT_HANDLER
.ORG 40
;*****
MAIN: LDI    R16, HIGH(RAMEND)
      OUT    SPH, R16
      LDI    R16, LOW(RAMEND)
      OUT    SPL, R16
      SEI
      LDI    R16, 0xFF
      OUT    DDRB, R16      ;make Port B an output
      OUT    DDRD, R16      ;make Port D an output
      LDI    R16, 0
      OUT    DDRA, R16      ;make Port A an input for ADC
      LDI    R16, 0x8F       ;enable ADC and select ck/128
      OUT    ADCSRA, R16
      LDI    R16, 0xC0       ;2.56V Vref, ADC0 single ended
      OUT    ADMUX, R16      ;input right-justified data
      SBI    ADCSRA, ADSC    ;start conversion
```

Program 13-2: Reading ADC Using Interrupts in Assembly (continued on next page)

```

WAIT_HERE:
    RJMP WAIT_HERE           ;keep repeating it
;*****
ADC_INT_HANDLER:
    IN    R16,ADCL           ;YOU HAVE TO READ ADCL FIRST
    OUT   PORTD,R16          ;give the low byte to PORTD
    IN    R16,ADCH           ;READ ADCH AFTER ADCL
    OUT   PORTB,R16          ;give the high byte to PORTB
    SBI   ADCSRA,ADSC        ;start conversion again
    RETI

```

Program 13-2: Reading ADC Using Interrupts in Assembly (continued from previous page)

Program 13-2C is the C version of Program 13-2. Notice that this program is checked under WinAVR (20080610). If you use another compiler you may need to read the documentation of your compiler to know how to deal with interrupts in your compiler.

```

#include <avr\io.h>
#include <avr\interrupt.h>
ISR(ADC_vect){
    PORTD = ADCL;           //give the low byte to PORTD
    PORTB = ADCH;           //give the high byte to PORTB
    ADCSRA|=(1<<ADSC);      //start conversion
}

int main (void){
    DDRB = 0xFF;            //make Port B an output
    DDRD = 0xFF;            //make Port D an output
    DDRA = 0;               //make Port A an input for ADC input
    sei();                  //enable interrupts
    ADCSRA= 0x8F;           //enable and interrupt select ck/128
    ADMUX= 0xC0;            //2.56V Vref and ADC0 single-ended
                             //input right-justified data
    ADCSRA|=(1<<ADSC);      //start conversion
    while (1);              //wait forever
    return 0;
}

```

Program 13-2C: Reading ADC Using Interrupts in C

Review Questions

1. What is the internal V_{ref} of the ATmega32?
2. The A/D of AVR is a(n) _____-bit converter.
3. True or false. The A/D of AVR has pins for D_{OUT} .
4. True or false. A/D in the AVR is an off-chip module.
5. Find the step size for an AVR ADC, if $V_{ref} = 2.56$ V.
6. For problem 5, calculate the D0–D9 output if the analog input is: (a) 0.7 V, and (b) 1 V.
7. How many single-ended inputs are available in the ATmega32 ADC?
8. Calculate the first conversion time for $ADPS0-2 = 111$ and $F_{osc} = 4$ MHz.
9. In AVR, the ADC requires an input clock frequency less than _____.
10. Which bit is used to poll for the end of conversion?

SECTION 13.3: SENSOR INTERFACING AND SIGNAL CONDITIONING

This section will show how to interface sensors to the microcontroller. We examine some popular temperature sensors and then discuss the issue of signal conditioning. Although we concentrate on temperature sensors, the principles discussed in this section are the same for other types of sensors such as light and pressure sensors.

Temperature sensors

Transducers convert physical data such as temperature, light intensity, flow, and speed to electrical signals. Depending on the transducer, the output produced is in the form of voltage, current, resistance, or capacitance. For example, temperature is converted to electrical signals using a transducer called a *thermistor*. A thermistor responds to temperature change by changing resistance, but its response is not linear, as seen in Table 13-8.

The complexity associated with writing software for such non-linear devices has led many manufacturers to market a linear temperature sensor. Simple and widely used linear temperature sensors include the LM34 and LM35 series from National Semiconductor Corp. They are discussed next.

Table 13-8: Thermistor Resistance vs. Temperature

Temperature (C)	Tf (K ohms)
0	29.490
25	10.000
50	3.893
75	1.700
100	0.817

From William Kleitz, Digital Electronics

LM34 and LM35 temperature sensors

The sensors of the LM34 series are precision integrated-circuit temperature sensors whose output voltage is linearly proportional to the Fahrenheit temperature. See Table 13-9. The LM34 requires no external calibration because it is internally calibrated. It outputs 10 mV for each degree of Fahrenheit temperature. Table 13-9 is a selection guide for the LM34.

Table 13-9: LM34 Temperature Sensor Series Selection Guide

Part Scale	Temperature Range	Accuracy	Output
LM34A	−50 F to +300 F	+2.0 F	10 mV/F
LM34	−50 F to +300 F	+3.0 F	10 mV/F
LM34CA	−40 F to +230 F	+2.0 F	10 mV/F
LM34C	−40 F to +230 F	+3.0 F	10 mV/F
LM34D	−32 F to +212 F	+4.0 F	10 mV/F

Note: Temperature range is in degrees Fahrenheit.

Table 13-10: LM35 Temperature Sensor Series Selection Guide

Part	Temperature Range	Accuracy	Output Scale
LM35A	-55 C to +150 C	+1.0 C	10 mV/C
LM35	-55 C to +150 C	+1.5 C	10 mV/C
LM35CA	-40 C to +110 C	+1.0 C	10 mV/C
LM35C	-40 C to +110 C	+1.5 C	10 mV/C
LM35D	0 C to +100 C	+2.0 C	10 mV/C

Note: Temperature range is in degrees Celsius.

The LM35 series sensors are precision integrated-circuit temperature sensors whose output voltage is linearly proportional to the Celsius (centigrade) temperature. The LM35 requires no external calibration because it is internally calibrated. It outputs 10 mV for each degree of centigrade temperature. Table 13-10 is the selection guide for the LM35. (For further information see <http://www.national.com>.)

Signal conditioning

Signal conditioning is widely used in the world of data acquisition. The most common transducers produce an output in the form of voltage, current, charge, capacitance, and resistance. We need to convert these signals to voltage, however, in order to send input to an A-to-D converter. This conversion (modification) is commonly called *signal conditioning*. See Figure 13-14. Signal conditioning can be current-to-voltage conversion or signal amplification. For example, the thermistor changes resistance with temperature. The change of resistance must be translated into voltages to be of any use to an ADC. We now look at the case of connecting an LM34 (or LM35) to an ADC of the ATmega32.

Interfacing the LM34 to the AVR

The A/D has 10-bit resolution with a maximum of 1024 steps, and the LM34 (or LM35) produces 10 mV for every degree of temperature change. Now, if we use the step size of 10 mV, the V_{out} will be 10,240 mV (10.24 V) for full-scale output. This is not acceptable even though the maximum temperature sensed by the LM34 is 300 degrees F, and the highest output we will get for the A/D is 3000 mV (3.00 V).

Now if we use the internal 2.56 V reference voltage, the step size would be $2.56 \text{ V}/1024 = 2.5 \text{ mV}$. This makes the binary output number for the ADC four times the real temperature because the sensor produces 10 mV for each degree of temperature change and the step size is 2.5 mV ($10 \text{ mV}/2.5 \text{ mV} = 4$). We can scale it by dividing it by 4 to get the real number for temperature. See Table 13-11.

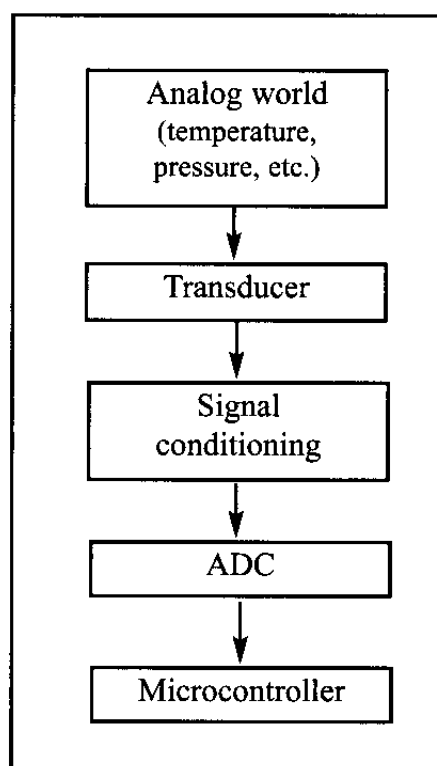
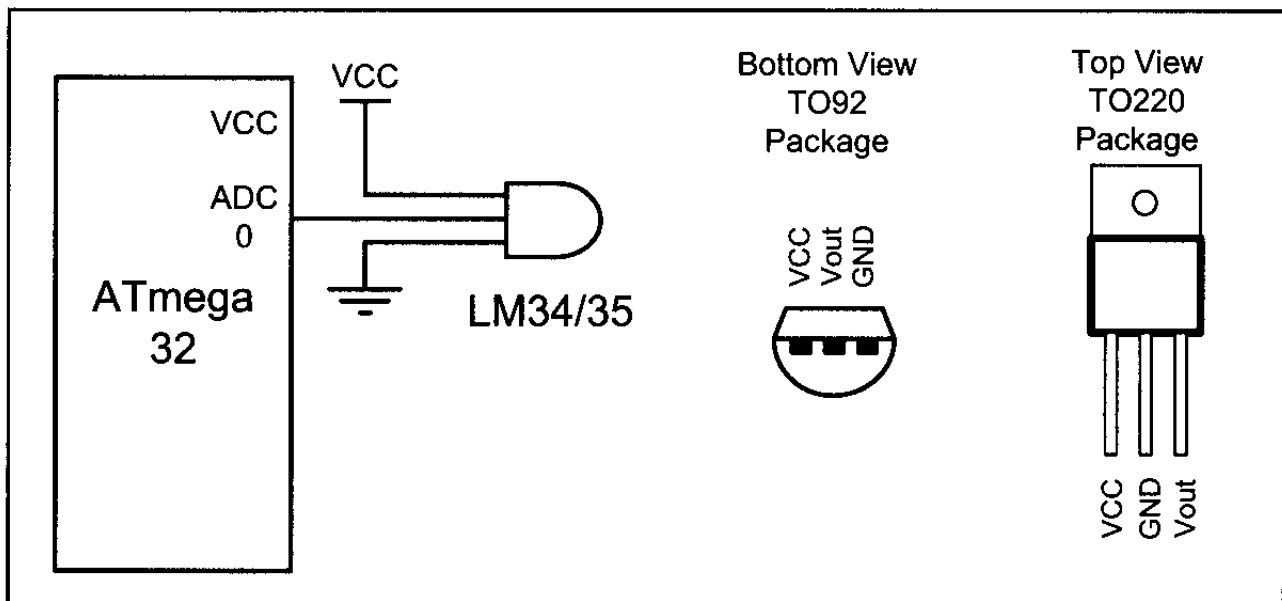


Figure 13-14. Getting Data from the Analog World

Table 13-11: Temperature vs. V_{out} for AVR with $V_{ref} = 2.56\text{ V}$

Temp. (F)	V_{in} (mV)	# of steps	Binary V_{out} (b9–b0)	Temp. in Binary
0	0	0	00 00000000	00000000
1	10	4	00 00000100	00000001
2	20	8	00 00001000	00000010
3	30	12	00 00001100	00000011
10	100	20	00 00101000	00001010
20	200	80	00 01010000	00010100
30	300	120	00 01111000	00011110
40	400	160	00 10100000	00101000
50	500	200	00 11001000	00110010
60	600	240	00 11110000	00111100
70	700	300	01 00011000	01000110
80	800	320	01 01000000	01010000
90	900	360	01 01101000	01011010
100	1000	400	01 10010000	01100100

Figure 13-15 shows the pin configuration of the LM34/LM35 temperature sensor and the connection of the temperature sensor to the ATmega32.

**Figure 13-15. LM34/35 Connection to AVR and Its Pin Configuration**

Reading and displaying temperature

Programs 13-4 and 13-4C show code for reading and displaying temperature in both Assembly and C, respectively.

The programs correspond to Figure 13-15. Regarding these two programs, the following points must be noted:

- (1) The LM34 (or LM35) is connected to channel 0 (ADC0 pin).
- (2) The 10-bit output of the A/D is divided by 4 to get the real temperature.
- (3) To divide the 10-bit output of the A/D by 4 we choose the left-justified option and only read the ADCH register. It is same as shifting the result two bits right. See Example 13-4.

```

;this program reads the sensor and displays it on Port D
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
    LDI    R16,0xFF
    OUT    DDRD, R16           ;make Port D an output
    LDI    R16,0
    OUT    DDRA, R16          ;make Port A an input for ADC
    LDI    R16,0x87           ;enable ADC and select ck/128
    OUT    ADCSRA, R16
    LDI    R16,0xE0           ;2.56 V Vref, ADC0 single-ended
    OUT    ADMUX, R16         ;left-justified data
READ_ADC:
    SBI    ADCSRA,ADSC        ;start conversion
KEEP_POLING:
    SBIS   ADCSRA,ADIF        ;wait for end of conversion
    ;is it end of conversion?
    RJMP   KEEP_POLING       ;keep polling end of conversion
    SBI    ADCSRA,ADIF        ;write 1 to clear ADIF flag
    IN     R16,ADCH           ;read only ADCH for 8 MSB of
    OUT    PORTD,R16          ;result and give it to PORTD
    RJMP   READ_ADC          ;keep repeating

```

Program 13-3: Reading Temperature Sensor in Assembly

```

;this program reads the sensor and displays it on Port D
#include <avr/io.h>           //standard AVR header
int main (void)
{
    DDRD = 0xFF;              //make Port D an output
    DDRA = 0;                 //make Port A an input for ADC input
    ADCSRA = 0x87;            //make ADC enable and select ck/128
    ADMUX = 0xE0;             //2.56 V Vref and ADC0 single-ended
                                //data will be left-justified

    while (1){
        ADCSRA |= (1<<ADSC); //start conversion
        while((ADCSRA&(1<<ADIF))==0); //wait for end of conversion
        PORTB = ADCH;         //give the high byte to PORTB
    }
    return 0;
}

```

Program 13-3C: Reading Temperature Sensor in C

Example 13-4

In Table 13-11, verify the AVR output for a temperature of 70 degrees. Find values in the AVR A/D registers of ADCH and ADCL for left-justified.

Solution:

The step size is $2.56/1024 = 2.5$ mV because $V_{ref} = 2.56$ V.

For the 70 degrees temperature we have 700 mV output because the LM34 provides 10 mV output for every degree. Now, the number of steps are $700 \text{ mV} / 2.5 \text{ mV} = 280$ in decimal. Now $280 = 0100011000$ in binary and the AVR A/D output registers have $ADCH = 01000110$ and $ADCL = 00000000$ for left-justified. To get the proper result we must divide the result by 4. To do that, we simply read the ADCH register, which has the value 70 (01000110) in it.

Review Questions

1. True or false. The transducer must be connected to signal conditioning circuitry before its signal is sent to the ADC.
2. The LM35 provides _____ mV for each degree of _____ (Fahrenheit, Celsius) temperature.
3. The LM34 provides _____ mV for each degree of _____ (Fahrenheit, Celsius) temperature.
4. Why do we set the V_{ref} of the AVR to 2.56 V if the analog input is connected to the LM35?
5. In Question 4, what is the temperature if the ADC output is 0011 1001?

SECTION 13.4: DAC INTERFACING

This section will show how to interface a DAC (digital-to-analog converter) to the AVR. Then we demonstrate how to generate a stair-step ramp on the scope using the DAC.

Digital-to-analog converter (DAC)

The digital-to-analog converter (DAC) is a device widely used to convert digital pulses to analog signals. In this section we discuss the basics of interfacing a DAC to the AVR.

Recall from your digital electronics course the two methods of creating a DAC: binary weighted and R/2R ladder. The vast majority of integrated circuit DACs, including the MC1408 (DAC0808) used in this section, use the R/2R method because it can achieve a much higher degree of precision. The first criterion for judging a DAC is its resolution, which is a function of the number of binary inputs. The common ones are 8, 10, and 12 bits. The number of data bit inputs decides the resolution of the DAC because the number of analog output levels is equal to 2^n , where n is the number of data bit inputs. Therefore, an 8-input DAC such as the DAC0808 provides 256 discrete voltage (or current) levels of output. See Figure 13-16. Similarly, the 12-bit DAC provides 4096 discrete voltage levels. There are also 16-bit DACs, but they are more expensive.

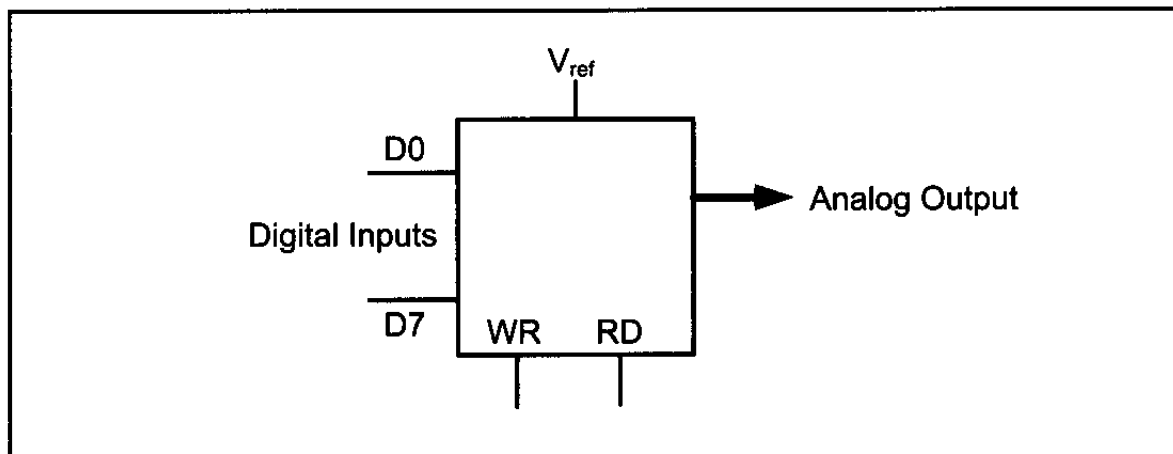


Figure 13-16. DAC Block Diagram

MC1408 DAC (or DAC0808)

In the MC1408 (DAC0808), the digital inputs are converted to current (I_{out}), and by connecting a resistor to the I_{out} pin, we convert the result to voltage. The total current provided by the I_{out} pin is a function of the binary numbers at the D0–D7 inputs of the DAC0808 and the reference current (I_{ref}), and is as follows:

$$I_{out} = I_{ref} \left(\frac{D7}{2} + \frac{D6}{4} + \frac{D5}{8} + \frac{D4}{16} + \frac{D3}{32} + \frac{D2}{64} + \frac{D1}{128} + \frac{D0}{256} \right)$$

where D0 is the LSB, D7 is the MSB for the inputs, and I_{ref} is the input current that must be applied to pin 14. The I_{ref} current is generally set to 2.0 mA. Figure 13-17 shows the generation of current reference (setting $I_{ref} = 2$ mA) by using the standard 5 V power supply. Now assuming that $I_{ref} = 2$ mA, if all the inputs to the DAC are high, the maximum output current is 1.99 mA (verify this for yourself).

Converting I_{out} to voltage in DAC0808

Ideally we connect the output pin I_{out} to a resistor, convert this current to voltage, and monitor the output on the scope. In real life, however, this can cause inaccuracy because the input resistance of the load where it is connected will also affect the output voltage. For this reason, the I_{ref} current output is isolated by connecting it to an op-amp such as the 741 with $R_f = 5$ kilohms for the feedback resistor. Assuming that $R = 5$ kilohms, by changing the binary input, the output voltage changes as shown in Example 13-5.

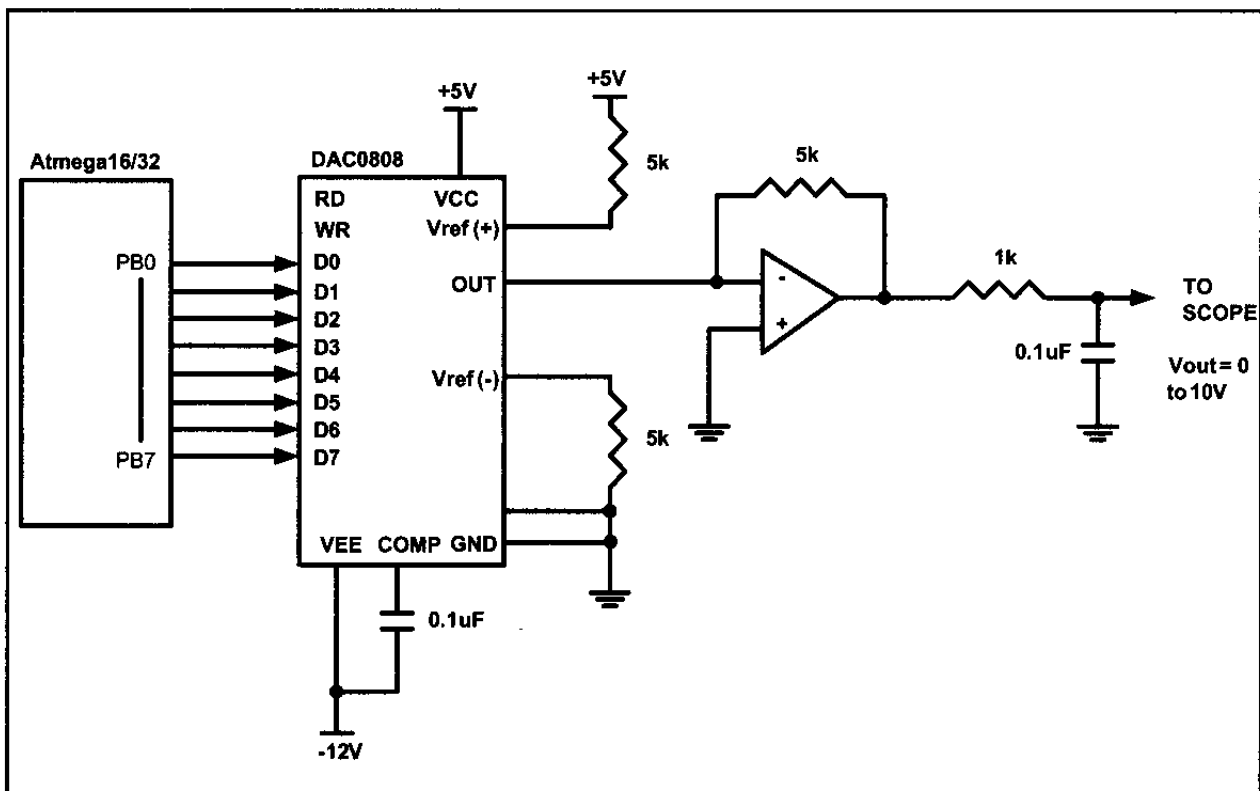


Figure 13-17. AVR Connection to DAC0808

Example 13-5

Assuming that $R = 5$ kilohms and $I_{\text{ref}} = 2$ mA, calculate V_{out} for the following binary inputs:

- (a) 10011001 binary (99H)
- (b) 11001000 (C8H)

Solution:

- (a) $I_{\text{out}} = 2 \text{ mA} (153/256) = 1.195 \text{ mA}$ and $V_{\text{out}} = 1.195 \text{ mA} \times 5\text{K} = 5.975 \text{ V}$
- (b) $I_{\text{out}} = 2 \text{ mA} (200/256) = 1.562 \text{ mA}$ and $V_{\text{out}} = 1.562 \text{ mA} \times 5\text{K} = 7.8125 \text{ V}$

Generating a stair-step ramp

In order to generate a stair-step ramp, you can set up the circuit in Figure 13-17 and load Program 13-4 on the AVR chip. To see the result wave, connect the output to an oscilloscope. Figure 13-18 shows the output.

```
LDI    R16,0xFF
      OUT    DDRB, R16           ;make Port B an output
AGAIN:
      INC    R16                 ;increment R16
      OUT    PORTB,R16          ;sent R16 to PORTB
      NOP                      ;let DAC recover
      NOP
      RJMP   AGAIN
```

Program 13-4: DAC Programming**Programming DAC in C**

Program 13-4C shows how to program the DAC in C.

```
#include <avr/io.h>           //standard AVR header

int main (void)
{
    unsigned char i = 0;       //define a counter
    DDRB = 0xFF;               //make Port B an output
    while (1){                 //do forever
        PORTB = i;             //copy i into PORTB to be converted
        i++;                   //increment the counter
    }
    return 0;
}
```

Program 13-4C: DAC Programming in C

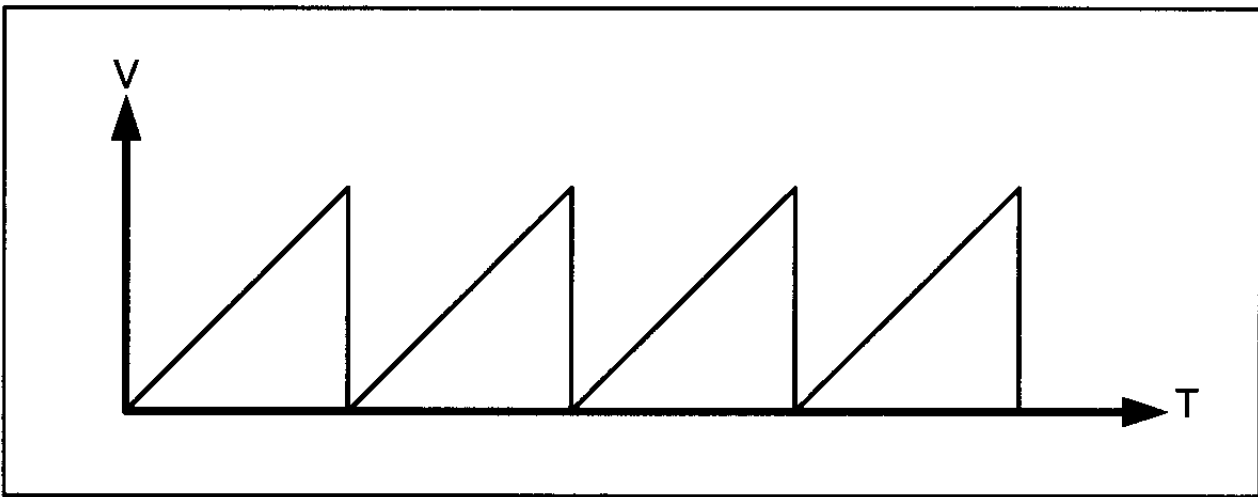


Figure 13-18. Stair Step Ramp Output

Review Questions

1. In a DAC, input is _____ (digital, analog) and output is _____ (digital, analog).
2. In an ADC, input is _____ (digital, analog) and output is _____ (digital, analog).
3. DAC0808 is a(n) _____-bit D-to-A converter.
4. (a) The output of DAC0808 is in _____ (current, voltage).
(b) True or false. The output of DAC0808 is ideal to drive a motor.

SUMMARY

This chapter showed how to interface real-world devices such as DAC chips, ADC chips, and sensors to the AVR. First, we discussed both parallel and serial ADC chips, then described how the ADC module inside the AVR works and explained how to program it in both Assembly and C. Next we explored sensors. We also discussed the relation between the analog world and a digital device, and described signal conditioning, an essential feature of data acquisition systems. In the last section we studied the DAC chip, and showed how to interface it to the AVR.

PROBLEMS

SECTION 13.1: ADC CHARACTERISTICS

1. True or false. The output of most sensors is analog.
2. True or false. A 10-bit ADC has 10-bit digital output.
3. True or false. ADC0848 is an 8-bit ADC.
4. True or false. MAX1112 is a 10-bit ADC.
5. True or false. An ADC with 8 channels of analog input must have 8 pins, one for each analog input.

6. True or false. For a serial ADC, it takes a longer time to get the converted digital data out of the chip.
7. True or false. ADC0848 has 4 channels of analog input.
8. True or false. MAX1112 has 8 channels of analog input.
9. True or false. ADC0848 is a serial ADC.
10. True or false. MAX1112 is a parallel ADC.
11. Which of the following ADC sizes provides the best resolution?
(a) 8-bit (b) 10-bit (c) 12-bit (d) 16-bit (e) They are all the same.
12. In Question 11, which provides the smallest step size?
13. Calculate the step size for the following ADCs, if V_{ref} is 5 V:
(a) 8-bit (b) 10-bit (c) 12-bit (d) 16-bit
14. With $V_{\text{ref}} = 1.28 \text{ V}$, find the V_{in} for the following outputs:
(a) D7–D0 = 11111111 (b) D7–D0 = 10011001 (c) D7–D0 = 11011100
15. In the ADC0848, what should the V_{ref} value be if we want a step size of 5 mV?
16. With $V_{\text{ref}} = 2.56 \text{ V}$, find the V_{in} for the following outputs:
(a) D7–D0 = 11111111 (b) D7–D0 = 10011001 (c) D7–D0 = 01101100

SECTION 13.2: ADC PROGRAMMING IN THE AVR

17. True or false. The ATmega32 has an on-chip A/D converter.
18. True or false. A/D of the ATmega32 is an 8-bit ADC.
19. True or false. ATmega32 has 8 channels of analog input.
20. True or false. The unused analog pins of the ATmega32 can be used for I/O pins.
21. True or false. The A/D conversion speed in the ATmega32 depends on the crystal frequency.
22. True or false. Upon power-on reset, the A/D module of the ATmega32 is turned on and ready to go.
23. True or false. The A/D module of the ATmega32 has an external pin for the start-conversion signal.
24. True or false. The A/D module of the ATmega32 can convert only one channel at a time.
25. True or false. The A/D module of the ATmega32 can have multiple external V_{ref} at any given time.
26. True or false. The A/D module of the ATmega32 can use the V_{cc} for V_{ref} .
27. In the A/D of ATmega32, what happens to the converted analog data? How do we know that the ADC is ready to provide us the data?
28. In the A/D of ATmega32, what happens to the old data if we start conversion again before we pick up the last data?
29. For the A/D of ATmega32, find the step size for each of the following V_{ref} :
(a) $V_{\text{ref}} = 1.024 \text{ V}$ (b) $V_{\text{ref}} = 2.048 \text{ V}$ (c) $V_{\text{ref}} = 2.56 \text{ V}$
30. In the ATmega32, what should the V_{ref} value be if we want a step size of 2 mV?
31. In the ATmega32, what should the V_{ref} value be if we want a step size of 3 mV?

32. With a step size of 1 mV, what is the analog input voltage if all outputs are 1?
33. With $V_{\text{ref}} = 1.024 \text{ V}$, find the V_{in} for the following outputs:
 - (a) D9–D0 = 0011111111 (b) D9–D0 = 0010011000 (c) D9–D0 = 0011010000
34. In the A/D of ATmega32, what should the V_{ref} value be if we want a step size of 4 mV?
35. With $V_{\text{ref}} = 2.56 \text{ V}$, find the V_{in} for the following outputs:
 - (a) D9–D0 = 1111111111 (b) D9–D0 = 1000000001 (c) D9–D0 = 1100110000
36. Find the first conversion times for the following cases if XTAL = 8 MHz. Are they acceptable?
 - (a) $F_{\text{osc}}/2$ (b) $F_{\text{osc}}/4$ (c) $F_{\text{osc}}/8$ (d) $F_{\text{osc}}/16$ (e) $F_{\text{osc}}/32$
37. Find the first conversion times for the following cases if XTAL = 4 MHz. Are they acceptable?
 - (a) $F_{\text{osc}}/8$ (b) $F_{\text{osc}}/16$ (c) $F_{\text{osc}}/32$ (d) $F_{\text{osc}}/64$
38. How do we start conversion in the ATmega32?
39. How do we recognize the end of conversion in the ATmega32?
40. Which bits of which register of the ATmega32 are used to select the A/D's conversion speed?
41. Which bits of which register of the ATmega32 are used to select the analog channel to be converted?
42. Give the names of the interrupt flags for the A/D of the ATmega32. State to which register they belong.
43. Upon power-on reset, the A/D of the ATmega32 is given (on, off).

SECTION 13.3: SENSOR INTERFACING AND SIGNAL CONDITIONING

44. What does it mean when a given sensor is said to have a linear output?
45. The LM34 sensor produces _____ mV for each degree of temperature.
46. What is signal conditioning?

SECTION 13.4: DAC INTERFACING

47. True or false. DAC0808 is the same as DAC1408.
48. Find the number of discrete voltages provided by the n -bit DAC for the following:
 - (a) $n = 8$ (b) $n = 10$ (c) $n = 12$
49. For DAC1408, if $I_{\text{ref}} = 2 \text{ mA}$, show how to get the I_{out} of 1.99 when all inputs are HIGH.
50. Find the I_{out} for the following inputs. Assume $I_{\text{ref}} = 2 \text{ mA}$ for DAC0808.
 - (a) 10011001 (b) 11001100 (c) 11101110
 - (d) 00100010 (e) 00001001 (f) 10001000
51. To get a smaller step, we need a DAC with _____ (more, fewer) digital inputs.
52. To get full-scale output, what should be the inputs for DAC?

ANSWERS TO REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 13.1: ADC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Number of steps and V_{ref} voltage
2. 8
3. True
4. $1.28 \text{ V}/256 = 5 \text{ mV}$
5. (a) $0.7 \text{ V}/5 \text{ mV} = 140$ in decimal and D7–D0 = 10001100 in binary.
(b) $1 \text{ V}/5 \text{ mV} = 200$ in decimal and D7–D0 = 11001000 in binary.

SECTION 13.2: ADC PROGRAMMING IN THE AVR

1. 2.56 V
2. 10
3. False
4. False
5. $2.56/1024 = 2.5 \text{ mV}$
6. (a) $700 \text{ mV}/2.5 \text{ mV} = 280$ (100011000), (b) $1000 \text{ mV}/2.5 \text{ mV} = 400$ (110010000)
7. 8 channels
8. $(1/(4 \text{ MHz}/128)) \times 25 = 800$ microseconds
9. 200 kHz
10. ADIF bit of the ADCSRA register

SECTION 13.3: SENSOR INTERFACING AND SIGNAL CONDITIONING

1. True
2. 10, Celsius
3. 10, Fahrenheit
4. Using the 8-bit part of the 10-bit ADC, it gives us 256 steps, and $2.56 \text{ V}/256 = 10 \text{ mV}$. The LM35 produces 10 mV for each degree of temperature, which matches the ADC's step size.
5. 00111001 = 57, which indicates it is 57 degrees.

SECTION 13.4: DAC INTERFACING

1. Digital, analog
2. Analog, digital
3. 8
4. (a) current (b) true