

PHYS 319 Lab Notes

Rio Weil, Student# 47189394

This document was typeset on February 20, 2021

Contents

1	Lab 1	2
1.1	Lab Objective	2
1.2	Breadboard Refamiliarization	2
1.3	Understanding how the chips work	2
1.4	Finer details on input/output voltages and specifications	4
1.5	Set-up of the circuit	5
1.6	Setting the display manually	6
2	Lab 2	7
2.1	Lab Objective	7
2.2	Finding the code files	8
2.3	Configuring the MSP to Work with my Mac	8
2.4	MSP430 Specifications and Input/Outputs	9
2.5	Wiring up the MSP430 to the display	9
2.6	Programming our display board	9
2.7	Analyzing Assembly programs - Program 1 (Loops without loops)	11
2.8	Analyzing Assembly programs - Program 2 (Interrupts)	14
2.9	Bonus - Button press counter	18
2.10	Bonus - Breaking(?) something	18
3	Lab 3	18
3.1	Lab Objective	18
3.2	Finding the code files	18
3.3	Setup	19
3.4	Compiling + Running C Programs	19
3.5	Debugging on the MSP	19
3.6	Program 1 Revisited	19
3.7	Differences Between Program1 Compiled vs. Assembly	21
3.8	Program 2 Revisited	22
3.9	Differences Between Program2 Compiled vs. Assembly	23
3.10	Analog to digital conversion (ADC) with Launchpad	24
3.11	ADC LED Program	25
3.12	Wiring it up and testing the program	26
4	Lab 4	29
4.1	Lab Objective	29
4.2	PWM	29
4.3	Buzzer	31
4.4	Lightbulb Dimmer	32
4.5	Bonus: Making music	34

1 Lab 1

1.1 Lab Objective

The objective of today's lab is to manually set a group of 4 7-segmented number displays to read the last 4 digits of my student number, i.e. 9394. Next lab we will work on programming the MSP430 to set the display for us.

1.2 Breadboard Refamiliarization

The breadboard holes are connected as seen in the diagram below, in horizontal lines at the top/bottom of the board and in vertical groups of 5. Since the red/blue lines on my board are not broken, the power labels are connected all the way through.

The diagram was taken from <https://components101.com/misc/breadboard-connections-uses-guide>.

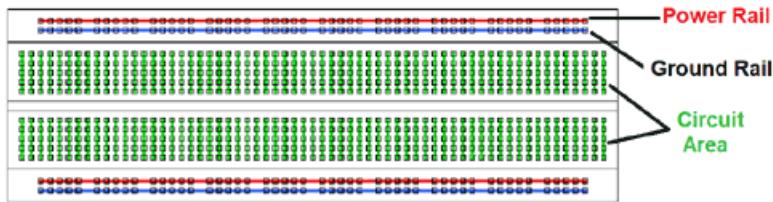


Figure 1: Connectedness of breadboard holes.

1.3 Understanding how the chips work

Attached is a schematic of the lab breadboard display. The first part of this lab will be trying to understand how the DM9368 (7 segment decoder/driver/latch) and the 74HC139 (2 to 4 line decoder) work. The combination of these two chips allows us to control the 4 segments with 7 wires (D0-D3 data pins, Address A0/A1, and Strobe) rather than 16.

To start, it may be useful to define what all this jargon means. A *decoder* changes code into a circuit of signals. The DM9368 does this by taking in inputs (essentially binary "code" as we will see shortly) and turning this into a signal (the display we see on screen). What goes on inside the DM9368 might be a black box but we leave the inner workings of the microchip to the computer engineers. A *driver* controls another circuit component, which again the DM9368 can be seen to be doing as it controls the display. A *latch* is a circuit component with two states that can store stable information (in this case, the DM9368 can store the data of what digit we wish to display, depending on the high/low status of the STROBE pin). A *demultiplexer* is something that takes in a common input line into multiple output lines (which we will see the 74HC139 does in a moment, as it takes in two input lines to determine the status of 4 output lines) (and a *multiplexer* does basically the opposite).

We first begin with a discussion of how the DM9368 works. There are four of these, one for each display, as shown above. The D0-D3 (data) pins (which we can control to have an input of either high or low) feed into the A0-A3 (address) pins on each of the DM9368 chips. The attached truth table from the datasheet of the DM9368 shows us what inputs correspond to which segments of the display lighting up: Essentially, we use 4 binary inputs (4 bits) to set the display. Looking at this datasheet, it becomes clear that if we did not have a 74HC139 decoder chip, we would require 16 inputs (i.e. one for each of the A0-A3 address pins for each of the DM9368+displays). Note that in this truth table, L represents a low voltage (i.e. ground) and H represents a high voltage (i.e. 5V). It is now clear what we are manipulating when we change

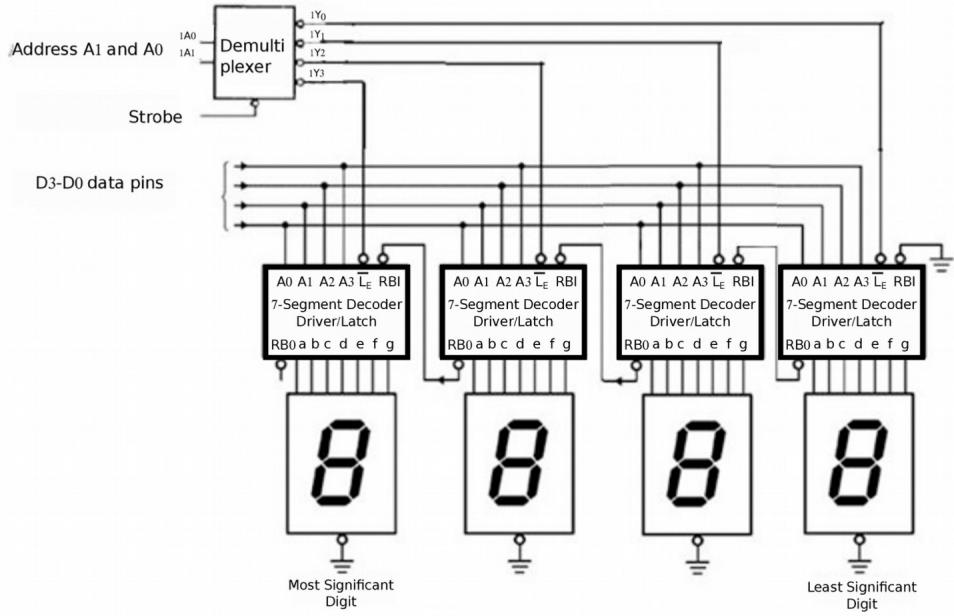


Figure 2: Schematic of Lab Breadboard Display

Truth Table

BINARY STATE	INPUTS					OUTPUTS							DISPLAY	
	LE	RBI	A3	A2	A1	A0	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	
-	H	*	X	X	X	X	L	L	L	L	L	L	H	STABLE
0	L	L	L	L	L	L	H	H	H	H	H	H	L	BLANK
0	L	H	L	L	L	L	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	0
1	L	X	L	L	L	H	L	H	H	L	L	L	H	1
2	L	X	L	L	H	L	H	H	L	H	L	H	H	2
3	L	X	L	L	H	H	H	H	H	L	L	H	H	3
4	L	X	L	H	L	L	L	H	H	L	H	H	H	4
5	L	X	L	H	L	H	H	L	H	L	H	L	H	5
6	L	X	L	H	H	L	H	L	H	H	H	H	H	6
7	L	X	L	H	H	H	H	H	H	L	L	L	H	7
8	L	X	H	L	L	L	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	8
9	L	X	H	L	L	H	H	H	H	L	H	H	H	9
10	L	X	H	L	H	L	H	H	H	L	H	H	H	10
11	L	X	H	L	H	H	L	L	H	H	H	H	H	11
12	L	X	H	H	L	L	H	L	L	H	H	H	L	12
13	L	X	H	H	L	H	L	H	H	H	L	H	H	13
14	L	X	H	H	H	L	H	L	H	H	H	H	H	14
15	L	X	H	H	H	H	H	L	L	L	L	H	H	15
X	X	X	X	X	X	X	L	L	L	L	L	L	L**	BLANK

*The RBI will blank the display only if a binary zero is stored in the latches.

The RBO used as an input overrides all other input conditions.

H = HIGH Voltage Level

L = LOW Voltage Level

X = Immortal



Figure 3: Truth table of what inputs into A0-A3 for the DM9368 chip corresponds to the values that we see on the display.

the D0-D3 data pins from our switchboard, but now we should look into what manipulating the A0 and A1 datapins do (we can see on the schematic that manipulating A0 and A1 will control the demultiplexer, which in turn controls the LE pin on each of the DM9368s).

Attached is the functional diagram for the 74HC139 decoder, as well as a table of what it does according to each input: Looking at this table, it becomes clear that depending on our inputs into the A0 and A1 pins,

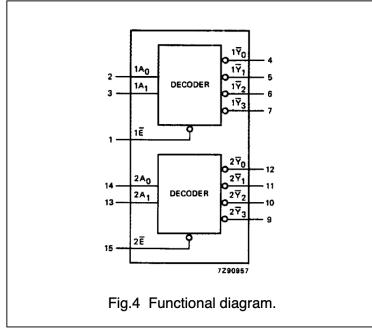


Fig.4 Functional diagram.

FUNCTION TABLE

nE	INPUTS		OUTPUTS			
	nA ₀	nA ₁	nY ₀	nY ₁	nY ₂	nY ₃
H	X	X	H	H	H	H
L	L	L	L	H	H	H
L	H	L	H	L	H	H
L	L	H	H	H	L	H
L	H	H	H	H	H	L

Figure 4: The schematic of the 74HC139 decoder and function table of what inputs correspond to what outputs

the decoder chip returns an output of L to one of the four of Y₀-Y₃, which each correspond to one DM9368 chip. Looking back at the truth table of the DM9368 chip, we can see that if the LE input is set to high, then the display will be STABLE (which corresponds to an "F" on the display) and if the LE input is set to low, then we are able to control the address pins to set the display to be what we want.

Putting it together, this gives us a method on how to control each display one at a time. When we control the A₀/A₁ pins through the switchboard, we are specifying which one of the four DM9368 chips/displays we are setting. We can then use the D₀-D₃ pins to set that specified chip/display to the desired number (using the truth table as attached above). We then switch the STROBE pin from high to low, which updates the display (this is given to us in the lab manual). Repeating this 4 times for each of the displays will allow us to set the displays to our student number! From this, it is clear why this setup allows us to reduce the number of input pins we use from 16 to 7; instead of having to set 4 address pins (4 bits) for 4 DM9368 displays at once, we instead control which chip to control using the A₀/A₁ pins that lead into the 74HC139 decoder, then we can use the D₀-D₃ pins to set each DM9368 individually. These 6 pins + the strobe pin for updating the chip/displays are definitely a gain in terms of efficiency in the number of inputs required.

1.4 Finer details on input/output voltages and specifications

In this section, we discuss on finger specifications of the devices we are using, with respect to voltages (e.g. answering the question of what constitutes as high voltage?) as well as AC characteristics of the chips and display that we are using.

We first answer the question of what is meant by the quantities of $V_{OH\min}$, $V_{IH\min}$, $V_{OL\max}$, and $V_{IL\max}$ ¹. For TTL (Transistor to Transistor logic) devices such as the DM9368, ideally we would have that a "high" voltage/logic state would be perfectly 5V and that a "low" voltage/logic state would be perfectly 0V. However this is very difficult to implement in practice and hence actual devices accept (as input) and transmit (as output) a range of what is considered "high" versus "low" voltage. For TTLs, this range is 0V – 0.8V for "low" and 2V – 5V for the "high" in terms of reading in the input. $V_{IL\max}$ refers to the maximum voltage at which input can be read in as "low", which in this case is 0.8V, and $V_{IH\max}$ refers to

¹Information from <https://www.allaboutcircuits.com/textbook/digital/chpt-3/logic-signal-voltage-levels/>.

the minimum voltage at which input can be read in as "high", which in this case is 2V. For TTL outputs, the range is 0 – 0.5V for a "low" voltage and the range is 2.7 – 5V for "high" voltage. V_{OLmax} refers to the maximum voltage at output which can be considered as "low" voltage, which in this case is 0.5V, and V_{OHmin} is the minimum voltage at output which can be considered as "high", which in this case is 2.7V. The voltage tolerance of CMOS (Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor) devices such as the 74HC139 decoder are very different. The acceptable input ranges are 0V – 1.5V for a "low" voltage and 3.5V – 5V for a "high" voltage. For outputs, the ranges are very narrow with 0V – 0.05V as the range that could be considered a "low" output and 4.95V – 5V for the range that could be considered as a "high" voltage state. These ranges correspond to $V_{ILmax} = 1.5V$, $V_{IHmin} = 3.5V$, $V_{OLmax} = 0.05V$, and $V_{OHmin} = 4.95V$. These findings are summarized in the table below. In addition to the general parameters for TTL and CMOS devices (as obtained from the website in the footnote), we also include the information for the DM9368 chip used in this experiment (the data for the 74HC139 could not be found in the datasheet).

	TTL (general)	CMOS (general)	DM9368
V_{ILmax}	0.8V	1.5V	0.8V
V_{IHmin}	2V	3.5V	2V
V_{OLmax}	0.5V	0.05V	0.4V
V_{OHmin}	2.7V	4.95V	2.4V

For the spec Next, we discuss the AC characteristics of the latch (i.e. the flip-flop DM9368) and how fast it can switch/how long it takes to respond to input changes. This can be found in the "Switching characteristics" part of the datasheet. We find that the propagation delay from the address pins A_n to the output/display pins $a – g$ (that each control a part of the display) are between 50 – 75 nanoseconds and the propagation delay between the LE pin (which is the pin whose state determines whether we can modify the output of the chip or not) is between 70 – 90 nanoseconds. Hence a good estimate for the response time for how fast the chip can respond to input changes is around $\sim 70\text{ns}$.

1.5 Set-up of the circuit

I began by plugging in the IC to the power supply by connecting the USB to my computer. I then hooked up the GND and the 5V wires to the pins on the display. I then placed down the CTS 206-8 to the board (straddling across the center) and connected it to the 5V power rail using resistors (the resistors are there so we can give the pins a high/logical 1 input but still be safe). The diagram of the setup is shown below: After

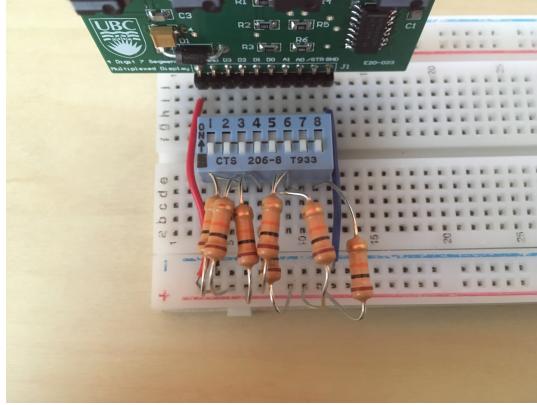


Figure 5: (Wrong) Closeup photo of the pin wiring

this process, the display showed "FFFF". Luke came and pointed out that we need to have the switches setup in such a way that they will be grounded when the input is not on. Therefore, we revised our setup so this would be the case. With Luke's suggestion, The D0-D3 pins, the A0, A1 pins, and the strobe pin

are all setup in a way such that the pins get the 5V (logical 1) input if the switchbox is open, and the pins are grounded (logical 0) if the switches are closed and the circuit leads into ground. This is demonstrated conceptually in the figure below:

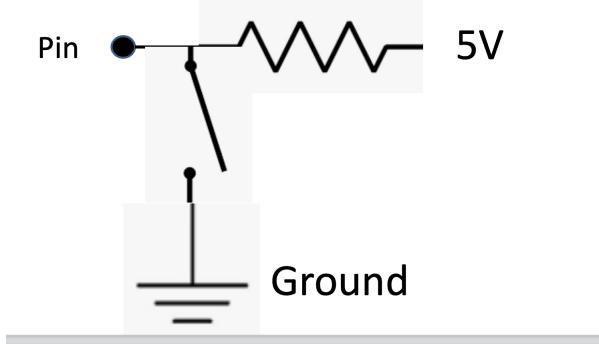


Figure 6: Demonstration of the switch setup. The pins are grounded when the switches are off, and have a HIGH (5V/1) input through a resistor when the switches are turned on.

After this revision, the circuit and wiring look as follows:

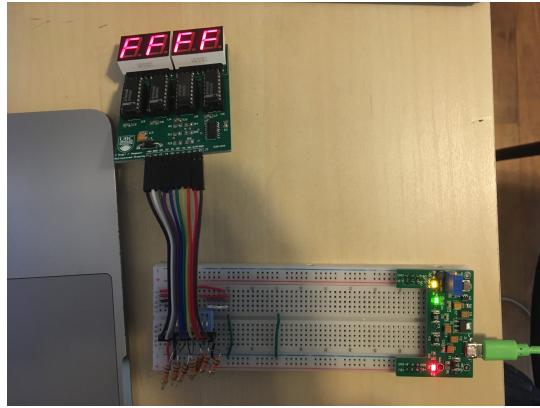


Figure 7: (Correct) picture of whole circuit

Essentially, the wiring consists of wiring from the 5V power rail to the 5V pin, ground wires from the grounding power rail to the ground pins, resistors going from the 5V power rail to the display and also to the switches in parallel. Then, each of the switches are hooked up to ground (from the ground) on the other side, allowing for a switch from high (5V) to low (GND). Note that after this I replaced the rainbow wires and just plugged in the display directly due to some connectivity issues with the rainbow wires (this can be seen in the final results as will be demonstrated shortly). At this point, the display still shows "FFFF", corresponding to the default state.

1.6 Setting the display manually

The 1 switch on my box is always grounded and has no effect. Switches 2-5 control the data pins D3-D0, switches 6-7 control address pins A1-A0, and switch 8 controls the STROBE. The last 4 digits of my student number are 9394, so let us walk through the process of setting the display to read these numbers.

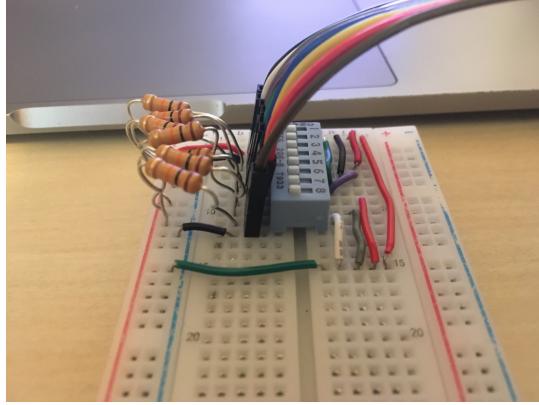


Figure 8: Closeup shot of the wiring

Initially, the display reads "FFFF" with all of the pins at L (grounded) and the strobe set to H (5V). In this explanation, note that "high/H/1" will correspond to having a 5v input (the switch is open) and "low/L/0" will correspond to having the pin grounded (the switch is closed).

1. To set the first digit of the display (which will be 9), we set A0 and A1 to high (as this tells the 74HC139 decoder to set Y3 output to L and the rest to H, i.e. set the LE pin for the first DM9368 chip to L (modifiable) and the rest to H (fixed)). We then set D3-H, D2-L, D1-L, D0-H (i.e. 9 in binary on the data pins). We then set strobe from high to low to update the display with 9 (and back to high for the next step).
2. Set A0-L and A1-H. This sets Y2 L and the rest H, and so sets the LE pin on the second DM9368 chip to L (and the rest to H so they are fixed). We then set D3-L D2-L D1-H D0-H (3 in binary) and then set strobe from high to low to update the display.
3. Set A0-H and A1-L. This sets Y1 L and the rest H, and so sets the LE pin on the third DM9368 chip to L (and the rest to H so they are fixed). We then set D3-H, D2-L, D1-L, D0-H (9 in binary) and then set strobe from high to low to update the display.
4. Set A0-L and A1-L. This sets Y0 L and the rest H, and so sets the LE pin on the fourth DM9368 chip to L (and the rest to H so they are fixed). We then set D3-L, D2-H, D1-L, D0-L (4 in binary) and then set strobe from high to low.

And this finishes the lab :D For fun, we can also do the last 4 digits of my student number in hexadeximal. $47189394 \mapsto 2D00D92$, so we would like to put 0D92. Unfortunately putting 0 on the display is not possible as it is the only input that requires us to have the RBI pin at H (rather than at L) and we have no access to this pin on our board. Inputting a binary 0 (i.e. 0000 or LLLL) into the DM9368 results in the display being turned off rather than the display being set to 0 if the RBI pin is set to L (what it is fixes as) rather than H. Since all of the RBI pins are connected + grounded, there is no hope of trying to illegally access the pin to try to set it to high "illegally", either. So unfortunately, that display will have to go blank. However, punching in the rest we obtain the (somewhat satisfactory result):

2 Lab 2

2.1 Lab Objective

The objective today is to do what we did last lab (display our student number on the multiplexed breadboard 4-display) but now via programming a microcontroller (the MSP430).

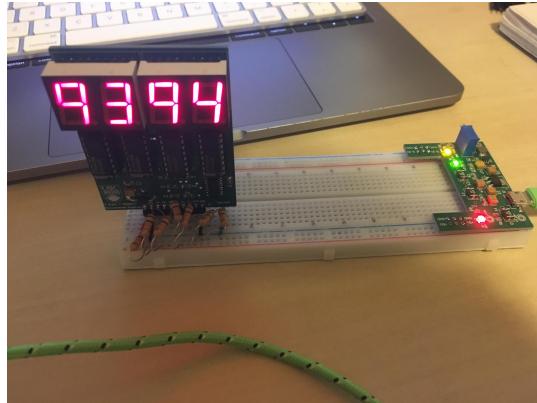


Figure 9: I feel like a proud dad. My display did it!

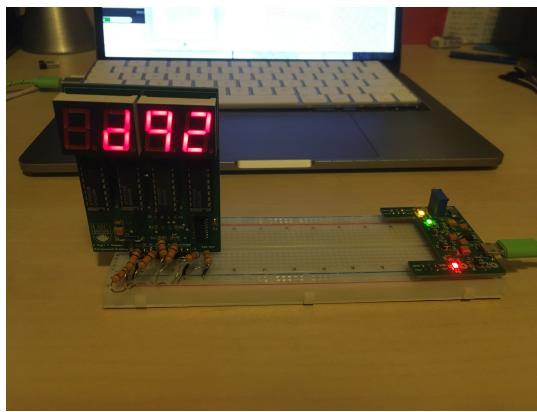


Figure 10: (Most of the) last 4 digits of my student number in hexadecimal.

2.2 Finding the code files

All of the code used in this lab can be found at <https://github.com/RioWeil/PHYS319-MSP430>.

2.3 Configuring the MSP to Work with my Mac

Before coming to lab, the assembler/flasher/drivers for communicating with the MSP430 Launchpad were installed on my computer following the Mac OSX instructions found on the course website. They can be referred to here https://phas.ubc.ca/~kotlicki/Physics_319/tools_install_mac.pdf. To communicate with the MSP430, I plug it into my computer (drivers now installed) and type in:

`mspdebug rf2500` into the terminal window. To use the assembler (assuming I have a .asm assembly file written), I type in:

```
naken430asm -o <name>.hex <name>.asm
```

where `<name>` is the name of the .asm file. Then, to run it on the MSP430, I can type in:

```
mspdebug rf2500
```

```
prog <name>.hex
```

`Ctrl-D` (quite literally, hit `Ctrl-D`. Don't type it, future Rio.)

Where the first line opens the connection, the second line loads the program, and the last line quits/exports.

2.4 MSP430 Specifications and Input/Outputs

Consulting the MSP430 specifications, we find that V_{OH} is given by $V_{CC} - 0.3V$ and V_{OL} is given by $V_{SS} + 0.3V^2$ (where $V_{CC} = 1.8\text{--}3.6V$ during program execution but typically $3.3V$, and $V_{SS} = 0V/\text{grounded}$). Consulting the values we found for the max/min possible voltages for the TTL boards last lab (see section 1.4 from last lab), $V_{ILmax} = 0.8V$ and $V_{IHmin} = 2V$, so we can indeed see that the high/low output voltage states as from the MSP430 correspond to high/low input voltage states to the TTL (the 74HC139). However, we cannot conclude the same for the other way around; looking at the absolute maximum ratings for the inputs on the MSP430, we find that the voltage applied to V_{CC} to V_{SS} ranges from $-0.3V$ to $4.1V$, and the voltage applied to any pin ranges from $-0.3V$ to $V_{CC} + 0.3V$. Beyond this range we run the risk of damaging the board. Looking at the low/high output ranges for the TTL, we have that the range is $0 - 0.5V$ for "low" and $2.7 - 5V$ for "high". While the low voltage state does not pose a problem, the high voltage output goes above the absolute maximum ratings for the voltage applied on any pin. The high output can be between $3.6V - 5V$; above $3.6V$, we go above the maximum value for V_{CC} during program running. Above $4.1V$, we go above the absolute maximum value for V_{CC} and V_{SS} . Above $4.4V$, we go above the absolute maximum value for any pin even assuming we set V_{CC} at the highest possible $4.1V$. In short, this would not be a good idea and we would run the risk of frying our precious board. In conclusion, we would conclude that wiring up the output of the MSP430 to the TTL board would be safe and have the correct voltage ranges (which is fortunate, as else this lab would prove impossible) but we may not wire the outputs of the TTL to the MSP430 unless we really didn't want that money back from the equipment deposit.

2.5 Wiring up the MSP430 to the display

The lab manual was followed to connect the correct pins. We remove the manual switchboard that we used last day, and wire up the pins as follows:

MSP340	Lab Breadboard w/ Display	Wire Colour
GND pins (3)	Ground Rail	Black/Grey
P1.0	Strobe	White
P1.1	A0	Red
P1.2	A1	Orange
P1.4	D0	Yellow
P1.5	D1	Green
P1.6	D2	Blue
P1.7	D3	Purple

The wiring is shown in the figures above.

2.6 Programming our display board

We are given a template of skeleton code that includes a file defining the names of addresses, bytes and words:

```
.include "msp430g2553.inc"
```

Then, we have a command that tells the assembler where to put the program in memory:

```
ORG 0xC000
```

We then initialize the stack pointer/initialize the RAM for stack operation (the magic of what this means will be revealed in a later lab):

```
mov #0x0400, SP
```

We then disable the watchdog timer:

```
mov.w #WDTPW|WDTHOLD, &WDTCTL
```

Now finally moving into the realm of things we can actually understand well, we configure all P1.X pins at output pins, with the exception of P1.3: `mov.b #11110111b, &P1DIR`

²Values found pg. 21 and 24 from https://phas.ubc.ca/~kotlicki/Physics_319/msp430g2553.pdf

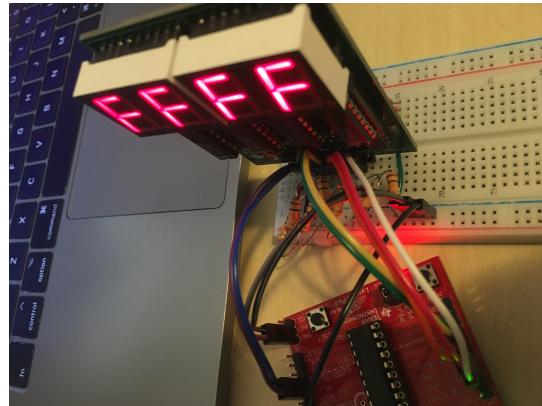


Figure 11: How the output pins from the MSP430 were connected to the breadboard and the 74HC139. Coincidentally, the initial display reads the final grade I'm going to get in this course.

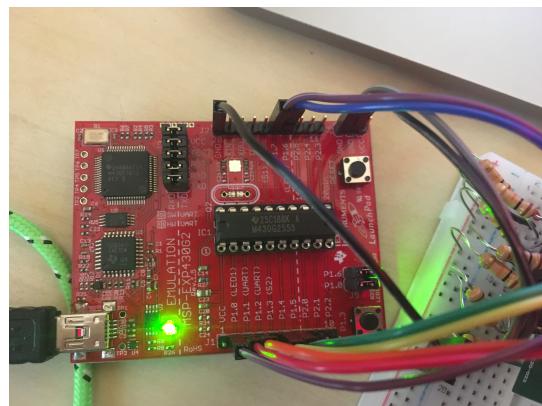


Figure 12: Close-up look at which output pins were used on the MSP. Color coded according to table below.

Where the `mov.b` indicates we want to move the bit, the 7 numbers correspond to the each of the pins (from P1.7 to P1.0), the `b` indicates binary, and `&P1DIR` indicates the place we want to move the byte. The bits are all set to 1 (except for the P1.3 bit, which we do not use as output as we will later (in program 2) use it as an interrupt pin) to indicate that we want to configure all of these pins to output pins.

Up until this point, this code was all things that were given to us. Now, we write some assembly code (**screams**) to program the output pins. Fortunately, what is required of us here are fairly simple. To do so, we write lines of code of the form:

```
mov.b #DDDD0AA1b, &P1OUT
mov.b #DDDD0AA0b, &P1OUT
mov.b #DDDD0AA1b, &P1OUT
```

Where DDDD are the four bits that correspond P1.7-P1.4 (in order) and send information to data pins D3-D0 on the 74HC139, the P1.3 pin is always set to 0, AA are the two bits that correspond to P1.2-P1.1 and send information to the address pins A1-A0 on the 74HC139, and the last bit corresponds to P1.0 and controls the Strobe pin on the 74HC139. As before, `mov.b` indicates we are moving a bit to a new location and `&P1OUT` indicates we are outputting these values at the pins. Essentially, we set AA to specify which display we want to set (11 would be the first display, 10 would be the second, 01 would be the third, 00 would be the fourth) and DDDD specifies what number we want to set on the display (essentially, send the binary number that we want to show on the display). We then have the three lines of code as we first set the code with the strobe pin high, then set the strobe pin low to update the display, and then set it back to high so we can proceed to set the next display. If I wanted to represent 9 on the third display, this code would be:

```
mov.b #10010011b, &P1OUT
mov.b #10010010b, &P1OUT
mov.b #10010011b, &P1OUT
```

We do this process for each of the four seven segment displays. This is documented in the `setdisplay.asm` file so we will not go through the gory detail of each step here (and instead refer to the file linked with this document). At the end of the .asm file, we disable the CPU and load the reset vector with the location of the program start (after powerup/reset).

After following the procedure for compiling the program and getting the MSP430 to run it (see 2.2 for details) we get the desired result!

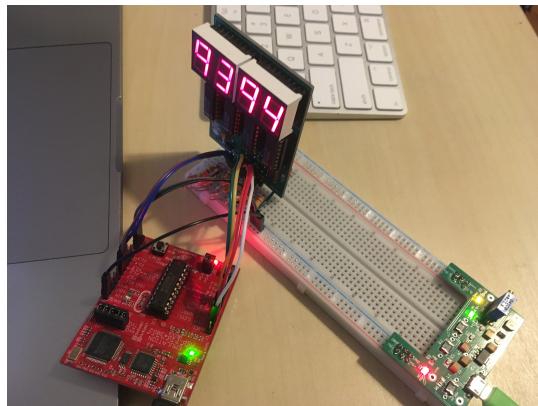


Figure 13: The displays show the last 4 digits of my student number, as desired.

2.7 Analyzing Assembly programs - Program 1 (Loops without loops)

Now we move to the portion of the lab where we analyze and modify assembly programs. The first program (aptly titled "Program1.asm") is a program that flashes the green and red LEDs on the MSP430-EXP430G2 board, one at a time, at around a frequency of 4 switches per second. We are interesting in increas-

```

.include "msp430g2553.inc"
.org 0xc000
start:
    mov.w #WDTPW|WDTHOLD, &WDTCTL
    mov.b #0x41, &P1DIR

    mov.w #0x01, r8

repeat:
    mov.b r8, &P1OUT
    xor.b #0x41, r8
    mov.w #60000, r9

waiter:
    dec r9
    jnz waiter
    jmp repeat
.org 0xffffe
dw start

```

Figure 14: Screenshot of Program 1

ing/decreasing the frequency of this flashing. To begin, it is helpful to note that P1.0 corresponds to the red LED and P1.6 to the green LED. The program file begins by importing the necessary names with `.include "msp430g2553.inc"`, and then telling the assembler where to put the program in memory with `org 0xc000`. Additionally, we note that at the end of the file, the commands `org 0xffffe` and `dw start` specifies that if we start or hit reset on the microcontroller, we look into that location of memory, and run the code in the `start` block.

Now we actually start running some code. The `start` block comes first so we run this first (sequentially). `mov.w #WDTPW|WDTHOLD, &WDTCTL` disables the watchdog counter, and then `mov.b #0x41, &P1DIR` configures P1.6 and P1.0 to outputs (these pins correspond to LEDs on the Launchpad). `mov.w #0x01, r8` then moves a 16-bit word `#0x01` into register 8.

Now, we move on to the `repeat` block. First, `mov.b r8, &P1OUT` moves the byte in register 8 to the output; this causes one of the lights to turn on (the first time through the program, it will be the red LED corresponding to P1.0). Then, `xor.b #0x41, r8` XORs the value in register 8 with `#0x41`, causing the value in `r8` to be changed to `01000000`. Then, `mov.w #60000, r9` sends the decimal number `60000` to register 9.

Now, we go to the `waiter` block. First, `dec r9` decrements the value in register 9 by one. `jnz waiter` does one of two things; if the zero bit has not been set, we go back to the top of the `waiter` block and then start the decrement process again. If the zero bit is set to 1 (i.e. the value in `r9` has just been decremented to zero) then we go to the next line, which is `jmp repeat`. This makes the code jump back to the `repeat` block. There, the light colour is switched, and then the whole process repeats. This is further elaborated on in the commented code. The general flow of the program is also sketched out in the chart below:

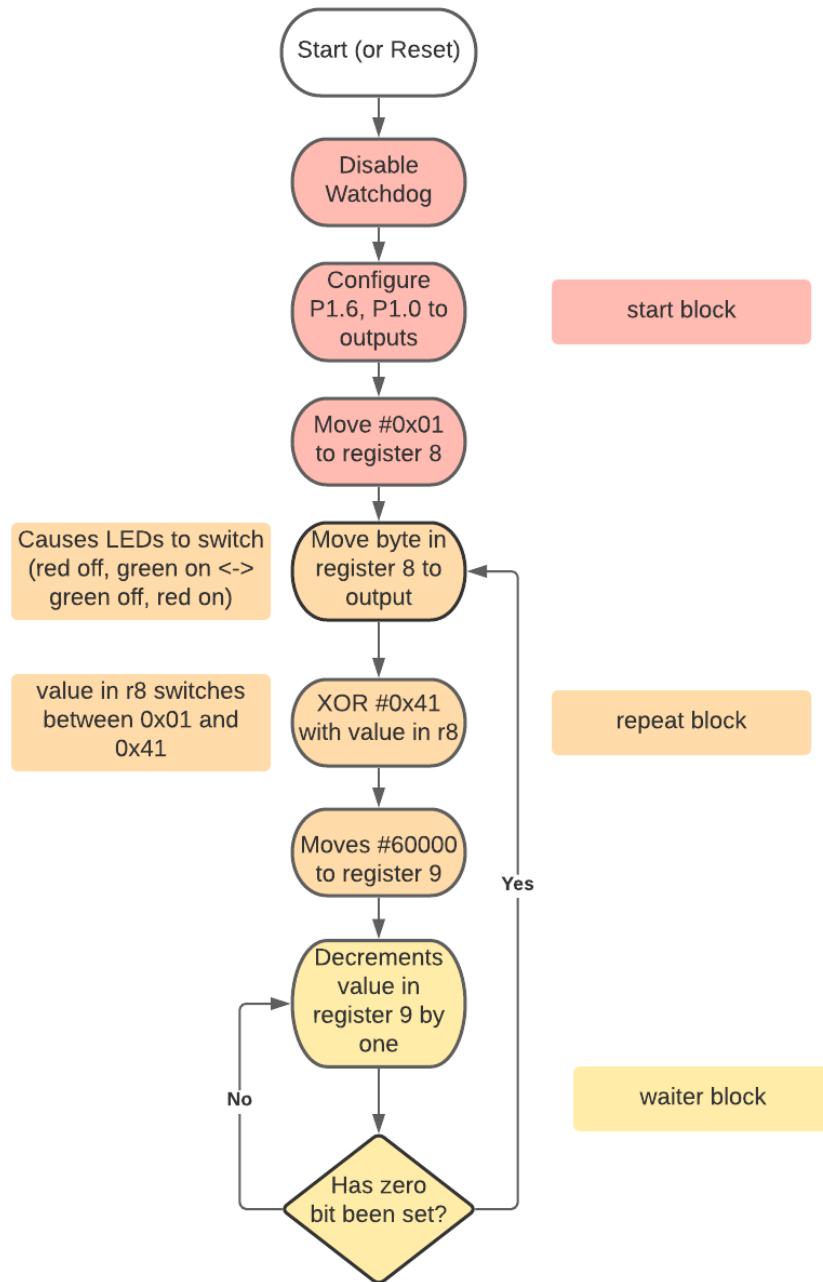


Figure 15: Flow chart for program 1. We omit the steps where we tell the assembler where to put the program in memory, where to look in memory in the case of a reset, and the import statement as those are not main components of what the program does.

```

#include "msp430g2553.inc"
org 0x0C000
RESET:
    mov.w #0x400, sp
    mov.w #WDTPW|WDTHOLD,&WDTCTL
    mov.b #11110111b, &P1DIR
    mov.b #01001001b, &P1OUT
    mov.b #00001000b, &P1REN
    mov.b #00001000b, &P1IE
    mov.w #0x0049, R7
    mov.b R7, &P1OUT

    EINT
    bis.w #CPUOFF,SR

PUSH:
    xor.w #000000001000001b, R7
    mov.b R7,&P1OUT
    bic.b #00001000b, &P1IFG
    reti

    org 0ffe4
    dw PUSH
    org 0fff4
    dw RESET

```

Figure 16: Screenshot of Program 2

Now to modify the program! To make it flash twice as fast is simple; we simply change the value we write to register 9 in the repeat block from #60000 to #30000; this makes the decrement cycle/waiting time half as long as we have to decrement half as less. Making it flash slower is not as simple; we cannot just double the value we write to register 9 as we have a 16-bit integer limit, and the maximal value we can write there is $2^{16} = 65536$. To get around this, we simply use another register and make another waiter code block (I called this waiter2, I know very original). We store #60000 in register 10 just like we do for register 9, and put in the second waiter block before the first so the program has to decrement through the value in register 10 and register 9 before looping back; this results in light switching that is twice as slow.

The original program and the half/double speed versions can be found in the github repository (all heavily commented).

2.8 Analyzing Assembly programs - Program 2 (Interrupts)

The next program has the function that it starts by turning both LEDs on, and then on presses of the P1.3 button, turns both off (and then on further presses, turns the two on, then off etc.). Let's dissect how this code works. The program file begins by importing the necessary names with `.include "msp430g2553.inc"`, and then telling the assembler where to put the program in memory with `org 0xc000`. Additionally, we note

that at the end of the file, the commands `org 0xffffe` and `dw RESET` specifies that if we start the program, or hit reset on the microcontroller, we look into that location of memory, and run the code in the `RESET` block. Additionally, the commands `org 0xffe4` and `dw PUSH` specify that if we interrupt the program, to look into that location of memory, and run the code in the `PUSH` block.

Getting into the bulk of the code, we start with the `RESET` block. First, the `mov.w #0x400, sp` initializes the stack pointer, and `mov.w #WDTPW|WDTHOLD, &WDTCTL` disables the watchdog. `mov.b #11110111b, &P1DIR` configures P1.3 to be an input and the rest of P1.0-1.7 to be outputs. `mov.b #01001001b, &P1OUT` Then sets P1.6, P1.3, and P1.0 to be high and the rest to low to output, which turns both LEDs on. `mov.b #00001000b, &P1REN` then enables the pulldown resistor on P1.3, and `mov.b #00001000b, &P1IE` enables input to P1.3 as an interrupt (helpful, because there is a button we can press to send an input to P1.3 on the Launchpad board!) Then, `mov.w #0x0049, R7` writes `#0x0049 (000000001001001 in binary)` to register 7. `mov.b R7, &P1OUT` then sets P1.6, P1.3, P1.0 outputs to high. `EINT` enables a global interrupt (allows interrupts to occur) and `bis.w #CPUOFF,SR` sets bits in the status register that tells the CPU to halt. The proram is then stopped until the reset button is hit (in which case we start with the reset block of code once more) or the P1.3 button is hit and an interrupt occurs.

In this second case, the code in the `PUSH` block is run. `xor.w #000000001000001b, R7` XORS 000000001000001b with 000000001001001b in R7, changing it to 0000000000001000b. Then, `mov.b R7,&P1OUT` moves this new value in R7 to the output, meaning both LEDs turn off as bot h P1.0 and P1.6 are set to low. `bic.b #00001000b, &P1IFG` clears the bit that holds the interrupt flag so the processor does not try to deal with it again. `reti` then indicates a return from interrupt. A future press of the reset button will start us back at `RESET`, and another press of the P1.3 button will send us back to the `PUSH` code, wherein R7 gets XORd again, now resulting in both LEDs turning on when the byte is moved to the output. On future presses of the switch, the LEDs will therefore turn on and off. The flow of the program is represented visually in the flow chart below.

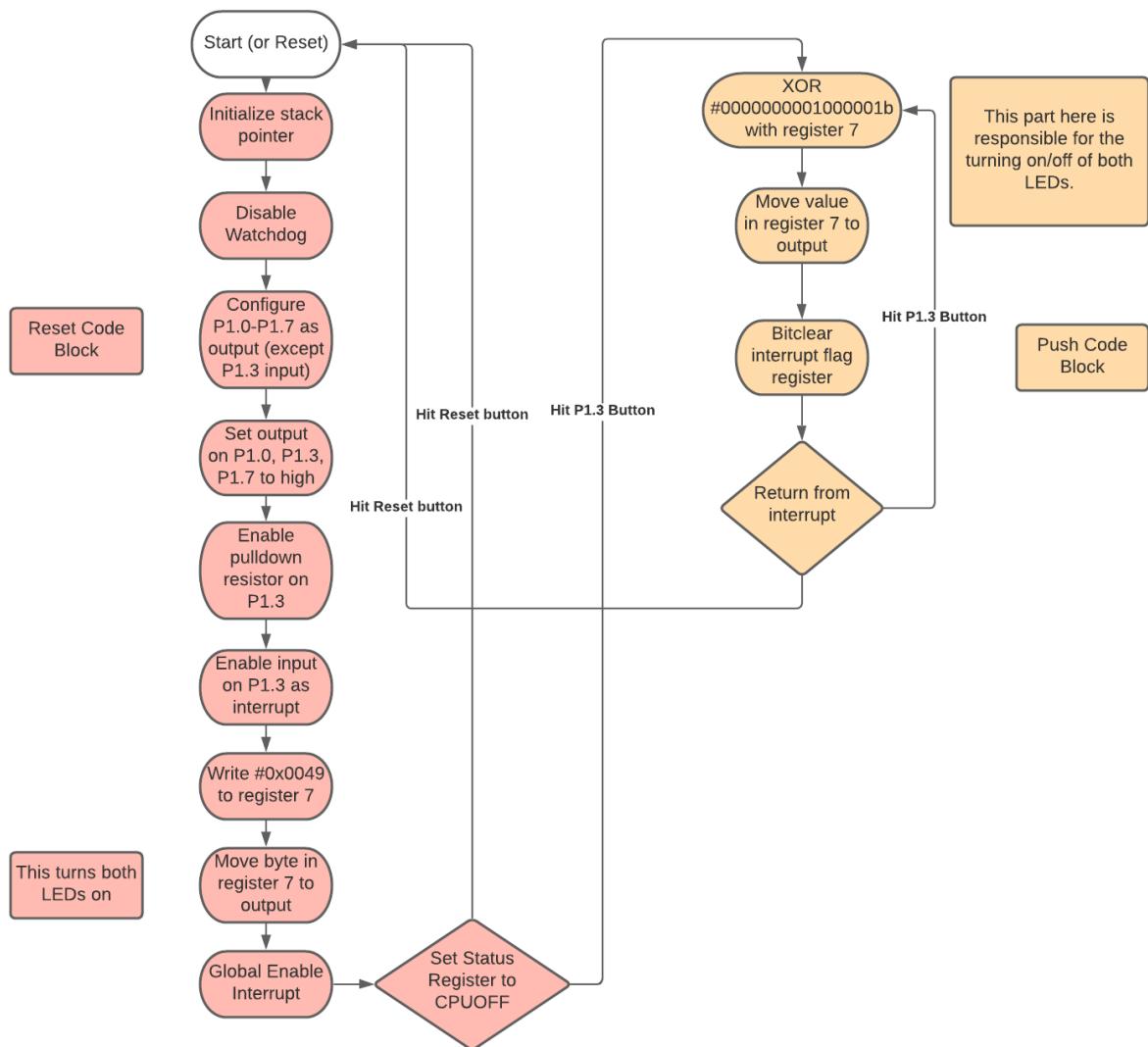


Figure 17: Flow chart for program 2.

Now that we understand the original program, we again get into modifying it. We want to change things such that on pushes of the button, the LEDs will cycle through:

- (1) Both off
- (2) Red on/green off
- (3) Green on/red off
- (4) Both on
- (5) Start at (1) again.

In order to do this, I added:

```
mov.w #0000000000000001b, R8
```

mov.w #000000001000000b, R9 At the end of the RESET code block (before EINT) and replaced xor.w #0000000010000001b, R7 at the beginning of the PUSH code block with:

```
xor.w R9, R8
```

xor.w R8, R7 this has the desired result, and we didn't need to write any more functions. How does it work? Well, the value in register 9 is fixed as 01000000 (I'll only write the latter byte as that's what's important), and every time the button is pressed, the value in register 8 gets XORed with this. Hence, the value in register 8 constantly is switching between 00000001 and 01000001. Additionally, each cycle, we have that the value in R7 (which is what gets written to the output) gets XORed with what is in register 8. This allows the values in register 7 to cycle through the four necessary states. Since this might be a bit unclear in the way I've worded it, let's just walk through what one 4 button cycle looks like. In the following description, I again only write the last 8 bits of the words in the registers (the rest are all zeros and are insignificant for the program):

1. Initially, R7 is set to 01001001, R8 to 00000001 in the RESET block. Both LEDs are on at this point (P1.0, P1.6 both high).
2. We hit the button the first time. First, 00000001 in R8 gets XORed with 01000000 in R9. The resulting value in R8 is 01000001.
3. 01001001 in R7 is XORed with 01000001 in R8. This results in 00001000 in R7, which gets moved to the output. Both LEDs are off (P1.0 and P1.6 both low).
4. The button is hit a second time. 01000001 in R8 is XORed with 01000000 in R9. The resulting value in R8 is 00000001 in R8.
5. 00001000 in R7 is XORed with 00000001 in R8. This results in 00001001 in R7, which is moved to the output. Just the red LED turns on (P1.0 high, P1.6 low).
6. The button is hit a third time. 00000001 in R8 gets XORed with 01000000 in R9. The resulting value in R8 is 01000001.
7. 00001001 in R7 gets XORed with 01000001 in R8. This results in 01001000 in R7, which is moved to the output. Just the green LED turns on (P1.0 low, P1.6 high).
8. 01000001 in R8 gets XORed with 01000000 in R9. The resulting value in R8 is 00000001.
9. 01001000 in R7 gets XORed with 00000001 in R8. This results in 01001001 in R7, which gets moved to the output. Both LEDs turn on (P1.0, P1.6 both high).
10. The states of all registers in steps 1/9 are identical and the cycle hence repeats upon further presses of the button

The original program and the modified version to include the cycle of actions when the P1.3 interrupt button is pressed can be found in the [github repository](#).

2.9 Bonus - Button press counter

As a challenge, I tried to write a program that would count the number of times the interrupt P1.3 button was pressed and display this on the 7-segment displays. Essentially, every time the button was pressed the values in registers would be incremented by some amount, and would update the displays (with a coded "if statement" that would handle cases where the digits in a certain place surpassed 9). A lengthy discussion will be omitted here as the file is heavily commented and well-explained in terms of how the code runs (also, I should probably start on my 5 other assignments). A video of me using the program and the code file `counter.asm` can be found in the github repository.

2.10 Bonus - Breaking(?) something

In the process of trying to design the above counter program, I somehow managed to get the displays to show 0 (even though this shouldn't be hypothetically possible/accessible as per the discussion in lab 1). This is especially strange because nothing I programmed should have hypothetically caused this behavior; I only was trying to make the display read 4-blank-blank-blank. This adds nothing to the discussion, just thought it was kind of funny.

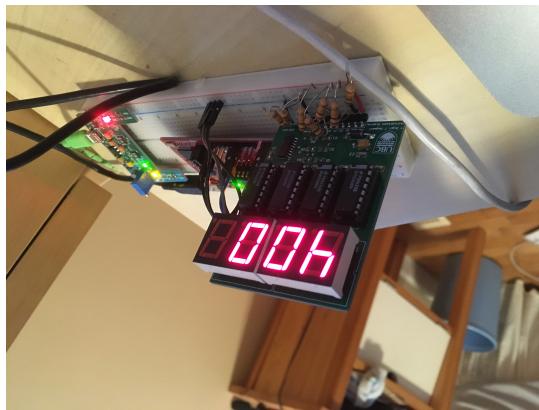


Figure 18: Me somehow getting the display to show 0 even though it shouldn't be able to. Either I'm an electronics wizard, or these ICs are ****ing with me.

3 Lab 3

3.1 Lab Objective

The objective of this lab is to start to program the microcontroller using C (thank god). We will begin by writing the same programs we used in Labs 1/2 except now using C instead of assembly. Then, we will use and the built-in 10-bit ADC (Analog to digital converter) on the MSP430 that can process input voltages more precisely, and use this to write a program that will turn on different coloured LEDs based on whether the input voltage is low, intermediate, or high.

3.2 Finding the code files

All of the code used in this lab (and lab 4) can be found at <https://github.com/RioWeil/PHYS319-MSP430>.

3.3 Setup

Following the instructions at https://phas.ubc.ca/~kotlicki/Physics_319/tools_install_mac.pdf, we installed a C compiler. In particular we will be using the open-source compiler tool chain of gcc and mspdebug.

3.4 Compiling + Running C Programs

To use the compiler, we work off of the Makefile from:

https://phas.ubc.ca/~kotlicki/Physics_319/Makefile that I have edited slightly for more convenient use. The slightly edited version (which the following instructions will be based off of) can be found in the Github Repo. To use the Makefile, we copy it into a new directory that contains just the .c file and the makefile. We then change the FILENAME "variable" in the makefile to match the filename of our C file. Then to run the makefile, we can navigate to the directory in terminal. We can produce the .elf file (that the MSP430 can run) by typing:

```
make or make elf
```

And we can produce the .asm file (if we want to see what the assembly file looks like) by typing:

```
make asm
```

After making the .elf file, to get the MP430 to run the program, we type:

```
mspdebug rf2500
```

And then type in:

```
Programname.elf
```

Finally, pressing Control-D will make the MSP430 start the program.

3.5 Debugging on the MSP

To run the debugger on the MSP, we follow the instructions in section 3.4 above, but stop just before we hit Control-D to start the program. Instead, we enter the command:

```
gdb
```

Which should then print out a message that looks like "Bound to port 2000. Now waiting for connection...". Then, we start a new terminal instance and navigate to the same directory. Then, on this new terminal instance, we type:

```
msp430-elf-gdb Programname.elf
```

And then type:

```
target remote port2000
```

And we can now run the debugger! Conveniently, with this setup we are able to debug "through the C code" rather than the hex code. For example, to set a breakpoint we can do:

`break #` Where # is the line number of the C program we want to set a breakpoint at. We can then go through the program with `continue` (which will run the program until encountering the next breakpoint) or with `step` (which progresses the program step by step). To quit, we can type `q` or `quit`.

3.6 Program 1 Revisited

We revisit the program from lab 2 that blinked the red/green LEDs on and off. The commented .c file is shown below, commented in all of its glory. We won't make a method flow diagram (as this would be highly similar to what we had for labs 1/2) but we can describe the program here. The program begins by declaring a volatile unsigned integer count variable (the variable is stored in random access memory rather than in registers as it will change frequently throughout the program). We then configure the P1.0 and P1.6 pins to be outputs (these output pins are connected to LEDs on the launchpad) and then set P1.0 to be high, so just the red LED turns on. Then, we enter a while loop that runs continuously as the argument is always true (1 indicates true in C, as there is no Boolean datatype). We then set the count variable we declared earlier to be 60000, indicating how long we want the program to count down before switching the

lights. Then, we enter a while loop that continuously decrements the count variable while it is not zero. When the count variable does reach zero, we exit the whiler loop and bitwise OR P1OUT with 0x41, which causes P1.0 to be set to low and P1.6 to be set to high, turning the red light off and the green light on. We then go back to the start of the outermost while loop, where count is again set to 60000, and the process repeats indefinitely.

```

16 #include <msp430.h> // Imports functionality for programming the msp430
17
18 void main(void) {
19     volatile unsigned int count; // Declare integer; volatile tells compiler that variable can change unexpectedly
20     // (e.g. interrupt) hence, we should store the variable in RAM and not just the register.
21     WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD; // Stop the watchdog.
22     P1DIR = 0x41;           // Set P1 output direction (e.g. set P1.0 and P1.6 to outputs)
23     P1OUT = 0x01;           // Sets P1.0 to high.
24
25     while (1){             // Loop forever (1 is true in C, while loop runs while condition is true)
26         count = 60000;      // Counter variable.
27         while(count != 0) { // Decrement while counter is not zero (i.e. positive)
28             count--;        // Decrement the count
29         }
30         P1OUT = P1OUT ^ 0x41; // Bitwise xor the output with 0x41 (flips which LED is on)
31     }
32 }
```

Figure 19: Screenshot of Program1 in C.

We wish to make the same modifications to this program as we did in lab 2. Hence, we want to modify this program so that the switching frequency of the lights can be changed to twice as fast and twice as slow. To make the lights switch twice as fast, we can simply assign 30000 instead of 60000 to the the `count` variable in the code above at line 26. This makes it such that the count variable has to decrement half as much before the while loop ends and the lights switch. To make the lights switch twice as slow, the first thought is to assign the count variable to 120000; however this fails as we get an error when we try to compile of: unsigned conversion from 'long int' to 'unsigned int' changes value from '120000' to '54464'. Since an unsigned int in C can only go up to 65635, so this will not work. We could declare count as a long datatype instead (as this would give us more bytes to work with) but when we try to run this on the MSP, the frequency of switching is **much** slower than twice as slow; it takes a couple seconds to switch in between the two in fact. What is going on? Gabe's theory is that the value does not get stored in the registers in this case (or at least, not in the same way) as the registers can hold only up to 16 bits. Hence, a better fix for this is to keep `count` as an unsigned int, and at the end of the loop, to set it back at 60000 again before going through another loop and then switching the LEDs (in other words, we copy the lines from 26-29 and insert a second copy of it before line 30). By doubling up on the while loop, we can make the frequency of switching twice as slow. As always, the modified versions of the programs and the original can be found in the Github repo.

3.7 Differences Between Program1 Compiled vs. Assembly

Following the instructions in section 3.4, we can produce a .asm file from the .c code. We can therefore compare the assembly code we wrote last week versus the assembly code produced by the compiler from the C code.

```
.file  "Program1.c"
.text
.balign 2
.global main
.type  main, @function
main:
; start of function
; framesize_regs:    0
; framesize_locals:  2
; framesize_outgoing: 0
; framesize:        2
; elim ap -> fp    2
; elim fp -> sp    2
; saved regs:(none)
; start of prologue
SUB.W #2, R1
; end of prologue
MOV.W #23168, &WDTCTL
MOV.B #65, &P1DIR
MOV.B #1, &P1OUT
MOV.W #-5536, R12
.L4:
MOV.W R12, @R1
.L2:
MOV.W @R1, R13
CMP.W #0, R13 { JNE .L3
XOR.B #65, &P1OUT
BR #.L4
.L3:
ADD.W #-1, @R1
BR #.L2
.size main, .-main
.ident "GCC: (Mitto Systems Limited - msp430-gcc 8.3.0.16) 8.3.0"
```

Figure 20: Assembly code written by the C Compiler for program 1.

The first difference is that there are a lot of what appear to be "setup" lines of code that make the compiled program quite a bit longer than the original. I imagine these are an artifact of the compilation process. Not including these lines, the length of the compiled and handwritten program are quite similar. The compiled code is somewhat incomprehensible (as we would expect for machine written code). One stylistic difference is that all the numbers used are specified as decimal numbers rather than binary or hex. However, the ultimate flow of the program seems to be highly similar to what we wrote last lab, with the cycle of initing a counter variable, checking if its zero, decrementing it if it is not zero, and switching the LEDs with an XOR if it is zero. With this compiled code, we see that L4 moves some large waiting number into @R1, then L2 running a check to see if the counter has decreased to zero, if not going to L3 and decrementing the counter and repeating this process until the counter (in @R1) reaches zero. The switching of which LED is on seems to be carried out in a similar way (where if a certain comparison is satisfied, the byte in P1OUT is XORd with a separate byte to switch the LED that is turned on). Ultimately, while the code is a lot harder to read, it does seem like the program is written and carried out in a similar way to how we implemented it last lab.

3.8 Program 2 Revisited

We also revisit the program from lab 2 that turns the LEDs on/off as we toggle an interrupt using the P1.3 button. The commented C code is below. The program flow is quite simple. Upon initialiation, the watchdog is stopped, P1.3 is set to input, and the rest of the pins to output. Then, P1.0, P1.3, and P1.7 are set to high (this turns on both LEDs). We enable the pulldown resistor on P1.3, and then enable input on P1.3 as an interrupt, before going into the low power mode and temporarily stopping the program with a chipset-specific command. Upon pressing the P1.3 button, we enable the interrupt, which triggers the lower code block. There, P1OUT is bitwise OR'd with 0x41, which turns both LEDs off. The P1.3 interrupt flag is then cleared. As with the program from last day, the interrupt can be triggered again to turn the lights back on and so on.

```
12 #include <msp430.h>
13
14 void main(void)
15 {
16     WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD;      // Stop watchdog
17     P1DIR = 0xF7;                //P1DIR set to 0xF7, or 11110111; P1.0-P1.2 and P1.4-P1.7 is output, P1.3 is input.
18     P1OUT = 0x49;                //P1OUT set to 0x49, or 01001001; P1.0, P1.3, P1.7 are set to high.
19     P1REN = 0x08;                //enable pulldown resistor on P1.3
20     P1IE = 0x08;                //Enable input at P1.3 as an interrupt
21
22     _BIS_SR (LPM4_bits + GIE); //Turn on interrupts and go into the lowest
23     |-----| //power mode (the program stops here)
24     |-----| //Notice the strange format of the function, it is an "intrinsic"
25     |-----| //ie. not part of C; it is specific to this chipset
26 }
27
28 // Port 1 interrupt service routine
29 void __attribute__ ((interrupt(PORT1_VECTOR))) PORT1_ISR(void)
30 {
31     P1OUT ^= 0x41;              // toggle the LEDS; XORS P1OUT with 0x41 (i.e. 01000001) which turns both on/off.
32     P1IFG &= ~0x08;              // Clear P1.3 Interrupt flag. If you don't, it just happens again.
33 }
```

Figure 21: Screenshot of Program2 in C.

We now implement the same functionality we did in assembly, where we want the LEDs to cycle between:

- (1) Both off
- (2) Red on/green off
- (3) Green on/red off
- (4) Both on
- (5) Start at (1) again.

On presses of the 1.3 button. To do this, we implement a decision tree with if and else if statements as follows: In essence, on successive presses of the button, the C code checks what the current byte is in P1OUT, and then sets P1OUT to be a new byte (the next state) accordingly. Both of these fully commented programs can be found in the repository.

```

// Port 1 interrupt service routine
void __attribute__ ((interrupt(PORT1_VECTOR))) PORT1_ISR(void)
{
    if (P1OUT == 0x08) { // If P1OUT is 00001000 (Both off)
        P1OUT = 0x09; // Sets P1OUT to 00001001 (Red on)
    }
    else if (P1OUT == 0x09) { // If P1OUT is 00001001 (Red on)
        P1OUT = 0x48; // Sets P1OUT to 01001000 (Green on)
    }
    else if (P1OUT == 0x48) { // If P1OUT is 01001000 (Green on)
        P1OUT = 0x49; // Sets P1OUT to 01001001 (Both on)
    }
    else if (P1OUT == 0x49) { // If P1OUT is 01001001 (Both on)
        P1OUT = 0x08; // Sets P1OUT to 00001000 (Both off)
    }
    P1IFG &= ~0x08; // Clear P1.3 Interrupt flag. If you don't, it just happens again.
}

```

Figure 22: Screenshot of the if/else decision tree that controls the cycle of the lights on presses of the P1.3 button.

3.9 Differences Between Program2 Compiled vs. Assembly

Again comparing the assembly code written by the C compiler and the assembly code written by me, we follow the process outlined in Section 3.4 once more. This yields: We again notice that this program is much longer than the handwritten versions, due to a bunch of additional lines that look like they specify different settings for registers. However, the ultimate flow of the program is ultimately extremely similar to what we have written last day (again, just less comprehensible), where we have an initial block of code that configures the outputs/inputs, enables the pulldown resistor, allows for an interrupt at P1.3, and halts the program by sending a halt instruction to the status register. On interrupt, an XOR occurs to change the status of the lights, the bitflag is cleared, and we return from interrupt. Though the code is less compact, it is identical in function and fairly identical in form! Now to finally move to new content!

```

| .file "Program2.c"
.text
    .balign 2
    .global main
    .type main, @function
main:
; start of function
; framesize_regs: 0
; framesize_locals: 0
; framesize_outgoing: 0
; framesize: 0
; elim ap -> fp 2
; elim fp -> sp 0
; saved regs:(none)
; start of prologue
; end of prologue
    MOV.W #23168, &WDTCTL
    MOV.B #-9, &P1DIR
    MOV.B #73, &P1OUT
    MOV.B #8, &P1REN
    MOV.B #8, &P1IE
; 22 "Program2.c" 1
    bis.w #248, SR
; 0 "" 2
; start of epilogue
    .refsym __crt0_call_exit
    RET
    .size main, .-main
    .balign 2
    .global PORT1_ISR
    .section __interrupt_vector_3,"ax",@progbits
    .word PORT1_ISR
    .text
    .type PORT1_ISR, @function
PORT1_ISR:
; start of function
; attributes: interrupt
; framesize_regs: 0
; framesize_locals: 0
; framesize_outgoing: 0
; framesize: 0
; elim ap -> fp 2
; elim fp -> sp 0
; saved regs:(none)
; start of prologue
; end of prologue
    XOR.B #65, &P1OUT
    BIC.B #8, &P1IFG
; start of epilogue
    RETI
    .size PORT1_ISR, .-PORT1_ISR
    .ident "GCC: (Mitto Systems Limited - msp430-gcc 8.3.0.16) 8.3.0"

```

Figure 23: Assembly code written by the C Compiler for program 2.

3.10 Analog to digital conversion (ADC) with Launchpad

As discussed in the manual, the MSP430 has a 10-bit ADC converter that we can use to sample the IO pin. What this means is that the MSP430 can sample the input voltage at a resolution of $2^{10} - 1 = 1023$ (since the CMOS input is 3.3V, in particular, it can detect voltage differences in increments of $3.3V/1023 = 0.00322V$). To use this functionality, we will build a CMOS (complementary metal-oxide-semiconductor) level tester. The objective is to illuminate the (built-in) red LED when the input pin level is high, the (built-in) green LED when the input pin level is low, and light up an (external) yellow (I did blue) LED when the voltage is in-between the low/high acceptable levels. The High and Low voltages for 3.3V CMOS inputs were found at: <https://learn.sparkfun.com/tutorials/logic-levels/all>. For 3.3V CMOS inputs, "low" input ranges from 0-0.8V ($V_{IL} = 0.8V$) and "high" input ranges from 2-5V ($V_{IH} = 2V$). As discussed above, since the MSP430 uses a 10-bit ADC converter, we subdivide 3.3V into 1024 increments of 0.00322V. For a low voltage (upper) threshold of $V = 0.8V$, this corresponds to the a value of 248, or 0xF8 in Hex. For the high voltage (lower) threshold of $V = 2V$, this corresponds to a value of 621, or 0x26D in Hex.

3.11 ADC LED Program

Using the values we calculated above, we can modify the provided ADC10 program as follows:

```
#include "msp430.h"

void main(void)
{
    WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD;           // Stop WDT
    ADC10CTL0 = ADC10SHT_2 + ADC10ON;   // ADC10ON
    ADC10CTL1 = INCH_1;                // input A1
    ADC10AE0 |= 0x02;                  // PA.1 ADC option select
    P1DIR = 0x45;                     // Configure P1.0, P1.2, and P1.6 as output pins

    while (1)                         // Continually run the while loop.
    {
        ADC10CTL0 |= ENC + ADC10SC;    // Sampling and conversion start
        while (ADC10CTL1 & ADC10BUSY); // ADC10BUSY?
        if (ADC10MEM < 0xF8) {         // If input is below 0.8V
            P1OUT = 0x01;              // Turn on red light by setting P1.0 high, rest low.
        }
        else_if (ADC10MEM > 0x26D) {   // If input is above 2V
            P1OUT = 0x40;              // Turn on green LED by setting P1.6 high, rest low.
        }
        else {                         // Else (i.e. if input voltage in between 0.8V and 2V)
            P1OUT = 0x04;              // Set P1.2 to high, which lights up blue LED on breadboard.
        }

        unsigned i;                   // Initialize counter variable
        for (i = 0xFFFF; i > 0; i--); // Delay
    }
}
```

Figure 24: Screenshot of the code for the ADC LED switch program

Let us briefly run through how the program works. We start by disabling the watchdog timer, and then by turning the 10-bit ADC on. We then configure A1 (P1.1) as input and set it so that the ADC reads in the input from the epin. We then set P1.0, P1.2, and P1.6 as output pins. Then, we enter a while loop that will continually run. The ADC begins sampling and conversion inside of the while loop, and reads in the current input voltage. If it reads a value below 0.8V (0xF8) it will set P1.0 output high and the rest to low, turning on the red LED. If it instead reads a value above 2V (0x26D) then it will set P1.6 output high and the rest to low, turning on the green LED. If it reads in anything else, it will set P1.2 output high and the rest to low, turning on the external blue LED. There is then a delay before the input at P1.1 is sampled again and the same if/else decision tree is run. This program flow is summarized in the following flowchart:

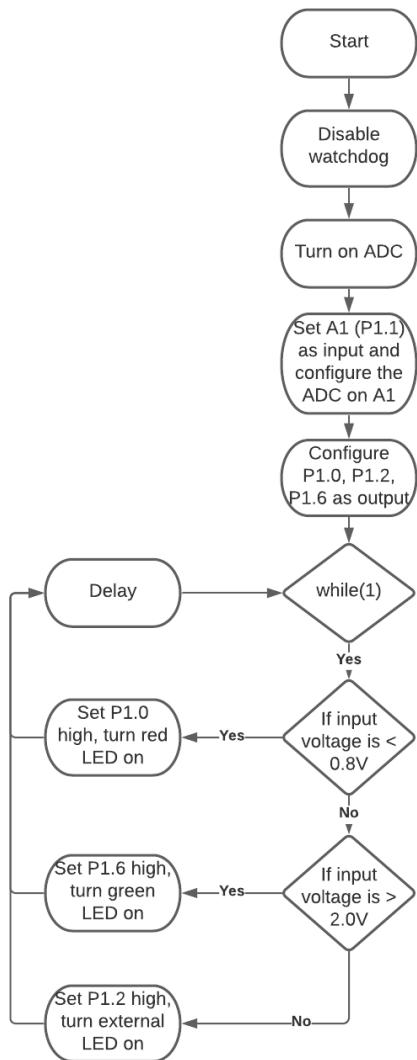


Figure 25: Flowchart for adc.c program

3.12 Wiring it up and testing the program

Having finished the software portion, we now finish off the task by wiring up the breadboard, MSP430, and LEDs so we can test the program! The lab manual provides the following circuit diagram:

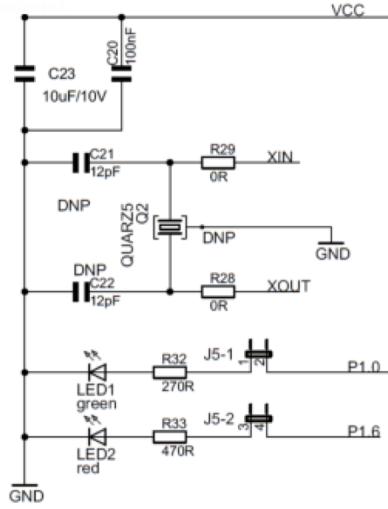


Figure 26: Provided Circuit diagram for the ADC setup

But in practice wiring up the circuit is a lot more simple than what is shown (a lot of the components shown above are pre-wired onto the MSP). For our input voltage, instead of using the adjustable voltage on our breadboard, we instead opted to use the Hantek as this allows us to control the input voltage more easily. As usual, we start by connecting the three GND pins on the MSP430 to ground. We then connect the output from the Hantek test voltage source to the P1.1 input pin on the MSP (as we have activated the ADC on A1), through a $1\text{ k}\Omega$ resistor (Note that I actually used 3 330Ω resistors as I could not find a $1\text{ k}\Omega$ one in the kit). Finally, we set up the external LED. We ground one lead (the shorter lead/cathode) of the external (blue) LED to ground, and connect the other (longer/anode) lead to the output from the P1.2 pin of the MSP430, with a 330Ω resistor in between the MSP output and the LED. Having finished all of this, our circuit looks as follows:

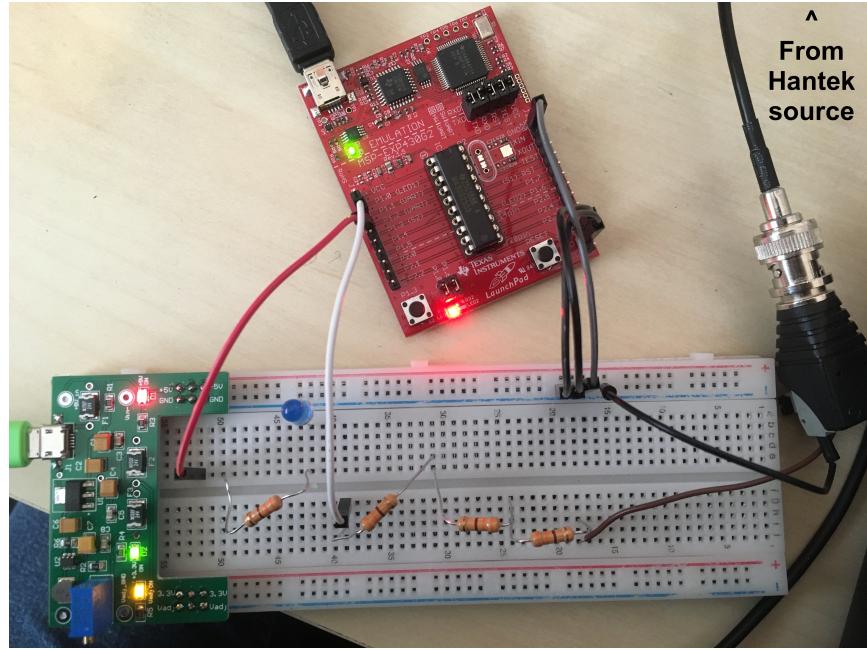


Figure 27: Photograph of the wiring of the ADC Circuit. The shown resistors are all 330Ω . The black wires connect the MSP GND pins to GND on the breadboard, the white wire connects the Hantek output (through $1k\Omega$ of resistors) to the P1.1 (A1) input pin (with the ADC) and the red wire connects the MSP430 output to the external blue LED (through a 330Ω resistor)

Finally, to test that the program works as intended, we first start by taking the program from 3.11 and compiling & running it on the MSP with the instructions in 3.4. Then, we can either output a constant voltage from the Hantek that we vary from 0V to 3.3V (from which we see that the green LED on the MSP turns on from 0-0.8V, the blue external LED when the voltage is 0.8-2V, and the red LED on the MSP from 2-3.3V) or we can output a triangular wave with peak-to-peak amplitude of 3.2V with a vertical offset of 1.6V to see the lights continually switch as the voltage changes. This concludes the lab!

4 Lab 4

4.1 Lab Objective

The goal of the lab today is to use the PWM (Pulse Width Modulation) waveform with the Launchpad to get an external speaker to play a tone, and then (with the ADC) to create a LCD dimmer.

4.2 PWM

We start by looking at the given PWM program: Let us walkthrough what this program does. To start,

```
#include "msp430.h"
void main(void) {
    WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD; // Stop WDT

    P1DIR |= BIT2;           // P1.2 to output
    P1SEL |= BIT2;           // P1.2 to TA0.1

    CCR0 = 1000-1;           // PWM Period
    CCTL1 = OUTMOD_7;        // CCR1 reset/set
    CCR1 = 250;              // CCR1 PWM duty cycle
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_1; // SMCLK, up mode
    _BIS_SR(LPM0_bits);     // Enter Low Power Mode 0
}
```

Figure 28: Screenshot of the original pwm.c program

we disable the watchdog timer (seems to be a recurring theme) and then configure the P1.2 pin to output. We then set CCR0 to 1000-1, which corresponds to the period of the produces waveform (in this case, 999 microseconds; the MSP430 counts time in μs). We then reset/set CCR1, and set it to be 250 microseconds. We then configure TACTL before entering low power mode and halting the program. If we compile and run the program (According to the instructions on 3.2) and connect the P1.2 output to the input of the Hantek oscilloscope, we see this:

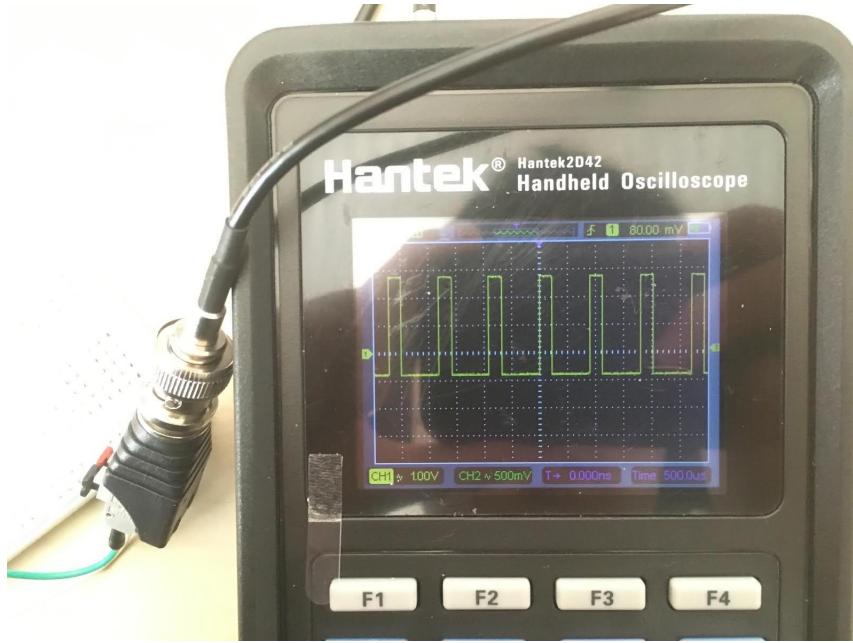


Figure 29: Waveform seen on the Hantek scope when running the `pwm.c` program on the MSP

So what is going on? Basically, we have set P1.2 to output a square waveform, characterized by the two variables of CCR0 and CCR1. CCR0 determines the period of the waveform, that is, the time in between the successive rises of the peaks. CCR1 determines the percentage of the waveform for which we have an output of high, i.e. the pulse width of the waveform (another way of looking at this is that it controls the power output, as will become relevant when we construct a light dimmer a short while later). As a concrete example, here we have $CCR0 = 999$ for a period of 999us. Setting $CCR1 = 250$ results in a quarter of the output being in the "high" state and the other three quarters as the "low" state of the square wave (exactly as we see on the scope!). If we were to set $CCR1 = 0$, then we would get just a flat signal of 0 (pulse width of 0% of the period), and conversely if we set $CCR1 = CCR0$, we would get a flat signal of the high output voltage (pulse width of 100% of the period, e.g. high the entire time).

4.3 Buzzer

We can use the PWM waveform to play tones on a buzzer. We can connect one end of the buzzer to ground, and the other end to the P1.2 output of the MSP430. Running the `pwm.c` program will produce a waveform which then corresponds to the frequency of the sound wave produced by the buzzer. In order to get the cleanest tone, we can set CCR1 to be half of the value of CCR0 (e.g. the pulse width is perfectly half of the full period) as this emulates the shape of a sine wave the closest. Then, to set the desired frequency, we can simply take the inverse of the period which is specified by CCR0. Hence, to get concert A (440Hz) for example, we set CCR0 to be $1/440\text{Hz} = 0.002273$ seconds = 2273 microseconds and CCR1 to be half of this value. In `pwmbuzzer.c`, I have made it such that you can just modify the first variable (frequency) and running this program will play the tone of your choice! We note that later experimentation showed that this program produced a frequency that was off by around 10% higher than expected (e.g. I would need to set the frequency to be 10% lower in the .c file than the actual frequency i wanted; this final modification is made in the files uploaded to github) but the cause for this was not completely certain.

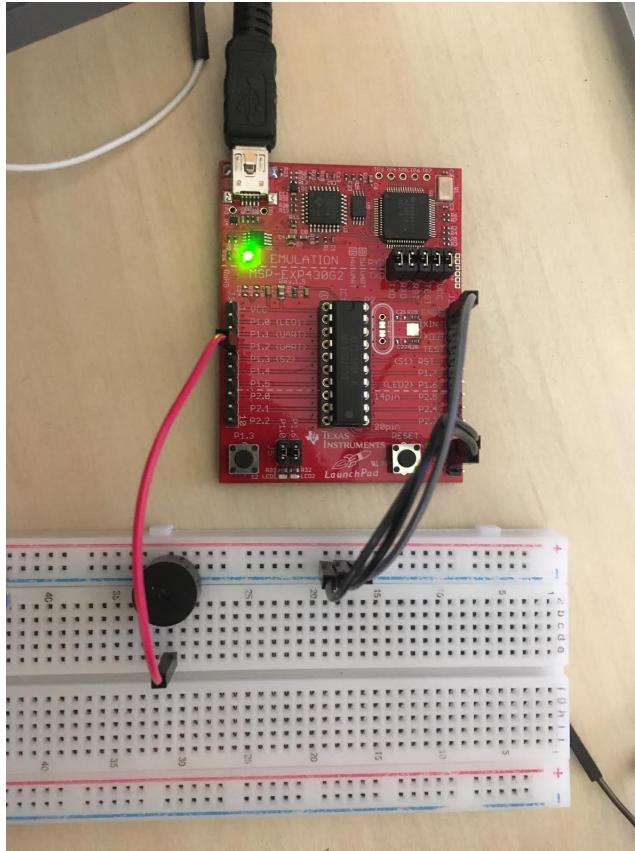


Figure 30: Wiring up the buzzer and the MSP430 to play a tone. The blue rail is GND.

```

#include "msp430.h"
void main(void) {
    int frequency = 440;           // Input frequency
    int period = 1000000/frequency; // Convert frequency into corresponding period in us
    int halfperiod = period/2;     // Halve the period for CCR1 value

    WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD;      // Stop WDT
    P1DIR |= BIT2;                // P1.2 to output
    P1SEL |= BIT2;                // P1.2 to TA0.1
    CCR0 = period;                // PWM Period, in us.
    CCTL1 = OUTMOD_7;              // CCR1 reset/set
    CCR1 = halfperiod;             // CCR1 PWM duty cycle
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_1;       // SMCLK, up mode
    _BIS_SR(LPM0_bits);           // Enter Low Power Mode 0
}

```

Figure 31: Screenshot of slightly modified pwm.c code for use with the buzzer.

4.4 Lightbulb Dimmer

In the most ambitious crossover event in history, we will now combine the ADC from Lab 3 with the functionalities of the PWM waveform to create a program/circuit that continuously dims an external LED as we decrease the input voltage from high to low. We combine the ADC and PWM programs to produce a lightbulb dimmer program:

```

#include "msp430.h"
void main(void) {
    int period = 1023;           // Period of PWM in us

    WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD;      // Stop WDT
    ADC10CTL0 = ADC10SHT_2 + ADC10ON; // ADC10ON
    ADC10CTL1 = INCH_1;            // input A1
    ADC10AE0 |= 0x02;              // PA.1 ADC option select
    P1DIR |= BIT2;                // P1.2 to output
    P1SEL |= BIT2;                // P1.2 to TA0.1
    CCR0 = period;                // PWM Period

    while (1) {
        ADC10CTL0 |= ENC + ADC10SC; // Sample P1.1 (ADC)
        while (ADC10CTL1 & ADC10BUSY) { // ADC conversion in progress
            CCTL1 = OUTMOD_7;          // CCR1 reset/set
            CCR1 = ADC10MEM;            // Set PWM pulselength to be the value from the ADC
            TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_1;    // SMCLK, up mode
        }
    }
}

```

Figure 32: Screenshot of dimmer.c lightbulb dimmer program.

The structure of the program is as follows. We start by initializing a period variable to be 1023. We then set up the ADC, in particular setting it up on the A1/P1.1 input pin. After setting P1.2 as the output (where we will output the PWM) we set the PWM period to be 1024 (on the order of 1ms to prevent flickering). We then enter a while loop that continuously runs. P1.1 is sampled, and CCR1 (the PWM pulselength) is set to the value from the ADC (e.g. a number between 0 (if the input is 0V) and 1023 (if the input is 3.3V)).

We then enter up mode. Since the power output of the PWM is maximized when $CCR1 = 1023$ (e.g. the PWM is just a constant high voltage output) and minimized when $CCR1 = 0$ (e.g. the PWM is a constant 0 voltage output) and the power output continuously varies from minimum to maximum as we vary $CCR1$, this means that by assigning $CCR1$ to the ADC value, we can continuously dim/brighten our external LED by changing the external voltage that we apply to the P1.1 input pin on the MSP430. Wiring up the circuit, we have something that looks like the figure below (essentially identitcal to the wiring we had for 3.12).

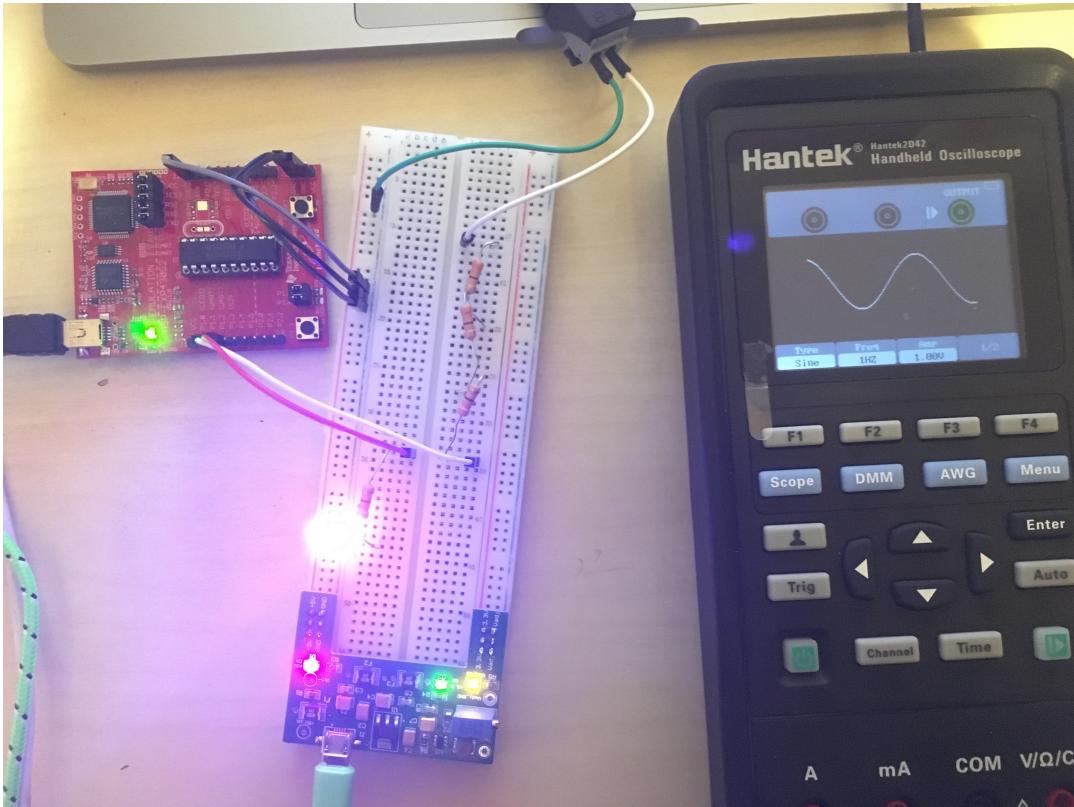


Figure 33: Picture of the wired circuit for the lightbulb dimmer. We connect the hantek voltage source through $3 \times 330\Omega$ resistors to the P1.1 pin on the MSP430, which then outputs a PWM (with pulselwidth determined by the magnitude of the voltage from the Hantek) into an external LED (one leg grounded, the other connected to the MSP430 P1.2 output through a 330Ω resistor) which dims/brightens as we change the voltage from the Hantek.

Although we most certainly cannot tell from the picture, by putting a sine wave on the Hantek with Peak-to-peak amplitude of 3.2V and a voltage offset of 1.6V, the lightbulb continuously dims and brightens with a pulse frequency as determined by the frequency of the sine wave. This concludes this lab!

4.5 Bonus: Making music

Firstmost, thank you for Gabe Bottrill for some help with troubleshooting. Extending the work we did with the buzzer, we can make a music playing program. The setup of the circuit is exactly the same as we used in Lab 3. The main idea is to define functions that will play specified notes/frequencies (or rest) for a specified number of time (in this case, the time it takes to decrement a variable 10000 times, which we denote as a sixteenth note) and then to call these functions in the desired sequence. We then define in the main method all of the desired note frequencies as variables to make it easy to play the notes we want. Each call of the function sets down mode, resets the variables for CCR0 and CCR1 depending on the desired frequency, sets up mode, and then waits for the specified number of time before moving onto the next function call. A blank template of this program (music.c) as well as an example song (song.c) (of one of my favourite songs) can be found in the Github repository (in the Lab4 Programs/Music directory), along with a video of me demonstrating the use of song.c. There's also a second (longer) song program (song2.c) that plays Coldplay's "Yellow" if you want to try to run this for yourself!

```
// Get period of waveform from frequency of note
int getperiod(int frequency) {
    int period = 1000000/frequency;
    return period;
}

// Waits by decrementing counter 10000 times (one quarter note)
void wait() {
    for(volatile int i = 10000; i > 0; i--) {
    }
}

// Plays given note, for a period of waits times (waits = 1 is a 16th note)
void playnote(int note, int waits) {
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_0;          // SMCLK, down mode
    int period = getperiod(note);    // Convert note to period
    CCR0 = period;                  // PWM Period, in us.
    CCTL1 = OUTMOD_7;               // CCR1 reset/set
    CCR1 = period/2;                // CCR1 PWM duty cycle (halfperiod to get a clean tone)
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_1;         // SMCLK, up mode
    while(waits > 0) {             // Wait (play) for specified amount of 16th notes
        wait();
        waits--;
    }
}

// Rests for a period of wait times (waits = 1 is a 16th rest)
void rest(int waits) {
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_0;          // SMCLK, down mode
    CCTL1 = OUTMOD_7;               // CCR1 reset/set
    CCR1 = 0;                       // CCR1 PWM duty cycle (set to zero so it plays nothing)
    TACTL = TASSEL_2 + MC_1;         // SMCLK, up mode
    while(waits > 0) {             // Wait (play) for specified amount of 16th notes
        wait();
        waits--;
    }
}
```

Figure 34: Screenshot of music.c functions that can be called to play the desired notes/rests.

```
int C4 = 262*0.9;
int C4s = 277*0.9;
int D4 = 294*0.9;
int D4s = 311*0.9;
int E4 = 330*0.9;
int F4 = 349*0.9;
int F4s = 379*0.9;
int G4 = 392*0.9;
int G4s = 415*0.9;
int A4 = 440*0.9;
int A4s = 466*0.9;
int B4 = 494*0.9;
int C5 = 523*0.9;
```

Figure 35: Screenshot of music.c note constants (multiplied by factor of 0.9 as else the notes are slightly off).

```
WDTCTL = WDTPW + WDTHOLD;
P1DIR |= BIT2;
P1SEL |= BIT2;
playnote(F4, 6);
playnote(G4, 6);
playnote(C4, 4);
rest(1);
```

Figure 36: Screenshot of example usage of the music.c program. This plays an F4 for a dotted quarter note, a G4 for a dotted quarter note, a C4 for a quarter note, and then rests (for a sixteenth note and then eternally, as the program then ends and continues to do the last specified note/rest).