

Embedded System(EC381)



EC381	Embedded Systems	3-0-0-6
Introduction: Introduction to embedded systems with examples, Concept of real-time system, Challenges in embedded system design.		
Embedded System Architecture: Basic Embedded processor/Microcontroller architecture, CISC (8051), RISC (ARM) Architecture, and Harvard Architecture (PIC).		
Designing Embedded computing platform: The CPU Bus, memory devices, I/O devices, component interfacing, Design with microprocessor.		
Embedded system design with FPGs: Introduction to FPGA and Verilog HDL, Hardware Design with Verilog HDL.		
Processes and Operating Systems: Multiple Tasks and Multiple Processes; Preemptive Real-Time Operating Systems, Priority-Based Scheduling, Interprocess Communication Mechanisms, Evaluating Operating System Performance, Power Management and Optimization for Processes.		
Networks: Distributed embedded architectures; Networks for embedded systems.		
Case studies: Washing machine, Inkjet printer, telephone exchange, etc.		
Texts:		
1. W. Wolf, "Computers as components: Principles of embedded computing system design", 2/e, Elsevier, 2008. 2. Samir Palnitkar, "Verilog HDL: A Guide to Digital Design and Synthesis", Prentice Hall, 2003		
References:		
1.D. Symes, and C. Wright, "ARM system developer's guide: Designing and optimizing system software", Elsevier, 2008. 2. The 8051 Microcontroller and Embedded Systems by Muhammad Ali Mazidi, Janice G.Mazidi, RolinD.McKinlay 3. Jack Ganssle, "The art of designing embedded systems", 2/e, Elsevier, 2008. 4. M. D. Ciletti , "Advanced Digital Design with the Verilog HDL", Prentice Hall, 2010		

- ❑ Introduction to embedded systems
- ❑ Applications of embedded systems
- ❑ Typical subsystems in an embedded system

Prepared By Indranil Sengupta, IITKGP

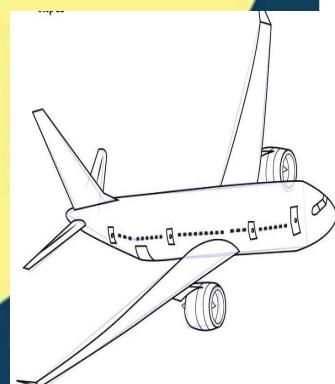
- ❑ Introduction to embedded systems
- ❑ Applications of embedded systems
- ❑ Typical subsystems in an embedded system

Introduction

- We have been brought up in the age of computing.
 - Computers are everywhere (some we see, some we do not see).
- Types of computers we are familiar with:
 - Desktops and Laptops
 - Servers
 - Mobile phones
- But there's another type of computing system that is often hidden.
 - Far more common and pervasive...
 - Hidden in the environment.

What are Embedded Systems?

- Computers are embedded within other systems:
 - What is “*other systems*”? – Hard to define.
 - Any computing system other than desktop / laptop server.
 - Typical examples:
 - Washing machine, refrigerator, camera, vehicles, airplane, missile, printer.
 - Processors are often very simple and inexpensive (depending on application of course).
 - Billions of embedded system units produced yearly, versus millions of desktop units.



Common Features of Embedded Systems

- They are special-purpose or single-functioned.
 - Executes a single program, possibly with inputs from the environment.
 - Imagine a microwave oven, a washing machine, an AC machine, etc.
- Tight constraints on cost, energy, form factor, etc.
 - Low cost, low power, small size, relatively fast.
- They must react to events in real-time.
 - Responds to inputs from the system's environment.
 - Must compute certain results in real-time without delay.
 - The delay that can be tolerated depends on the application.

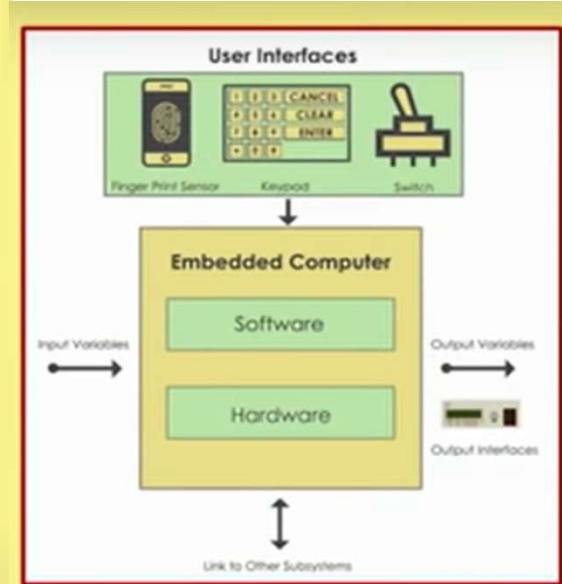


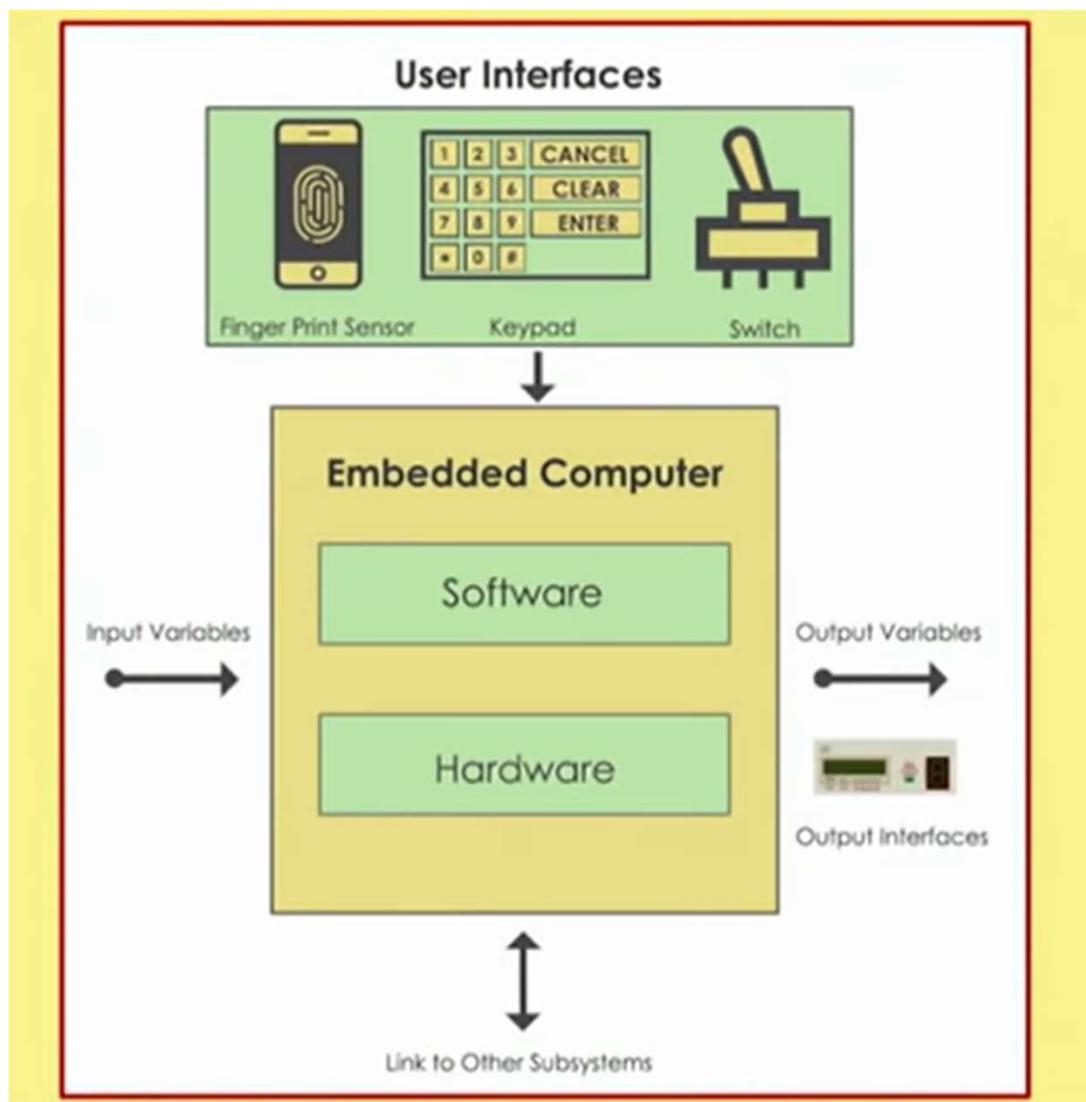
Typical Design Constraints

- Low Cost
 - A sophisticated processor can increase the cost of the embedded system.
- Low Energy Consumption
 - Many embedded systems operate on battery.
- Limited Memory
 - Typically constrained to a finite and small amount of memory.
- Real-Time Response
 - Most embedded systems are used for controlling some equipment.
 - Must generate response within a specified time.

How to define an Embedded System?

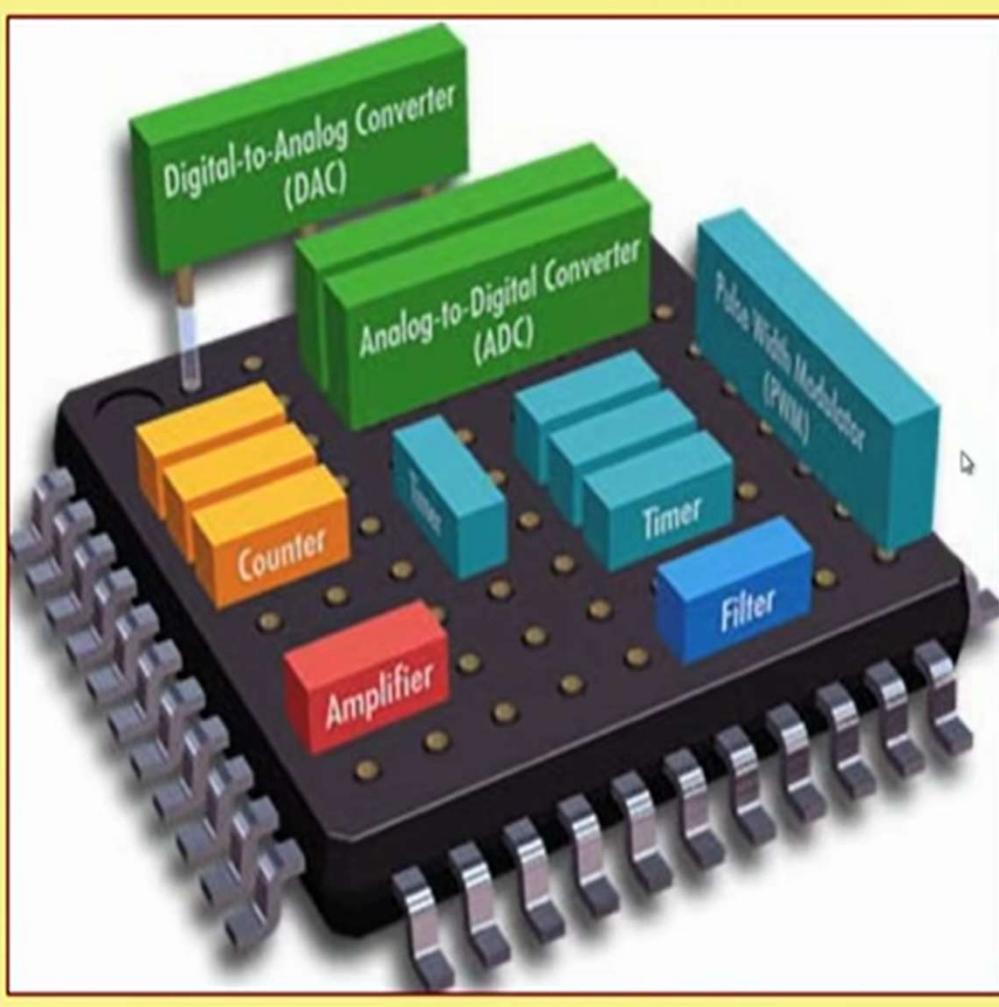
- It is a microcontroller-based system that is designed to control a function or range of functions, and is not meant to be programmed by the end user.
 - The user may make choices concerning the functionality but cannot change them.
 - The user cannot make modifications to the software.
 - Can you “*program*” your washing machine or refrigerator or car?
 - Not today ... but not very sure of the near future.





Applications of Embedded Systems

- *Limited by imagination.*
 - a) **Consumer Segment:** Refrigerator, washing machine, A/C machine, camera, microwave oven, TV, security system, etc.
 - b) **Office Automation:** Printers, Fax machines, photocopying machines, scanners, biometric scanner, surveillance camera, etc.
 - c) **Automobiles:** Air bags, anti-lock braking system (ABS), engine control, door lock, GPS system, vehicular ad-hoc network (VANET), etc.
 - d) **Communication:** Mobile phones, network switches, WiFi hotspots, telephones, MODEM, etc.
 - e) **Miscellaneous:** Automatic door locks, automatic baggage screening, surveillance systems, intelligent toilet, etc.

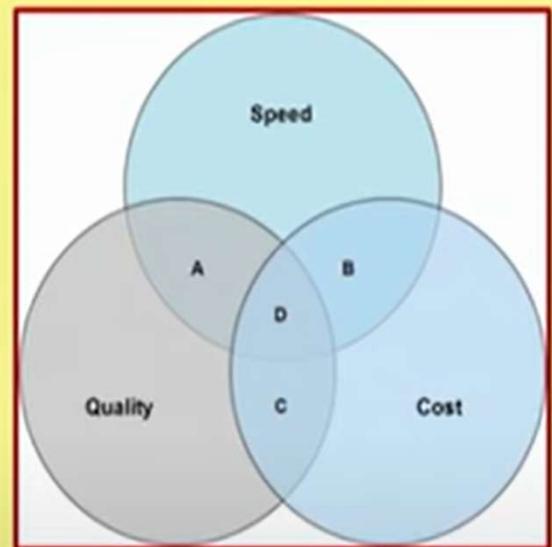


Notable subsystems:

- a) Analog-to-digital (ADC) interfaces
- b) Digital-to-analog (DAC) interfaces
- c) Pulse-width-modulation (PWM) interfaces
- d) Timers and counters
- e) In addition to ... processor, memory, digital I/O ports, etc.

Design Challenges

- Primary design goal:
 - An implementation that realizes the desired functionality.
- The main design challenge is ...
 - To simultaneously optimize several design metrics.
 - Often mutually conflicting.
- What is a design metric?
 - Some feature of an implementation that can be *measured* and *evaluated*.



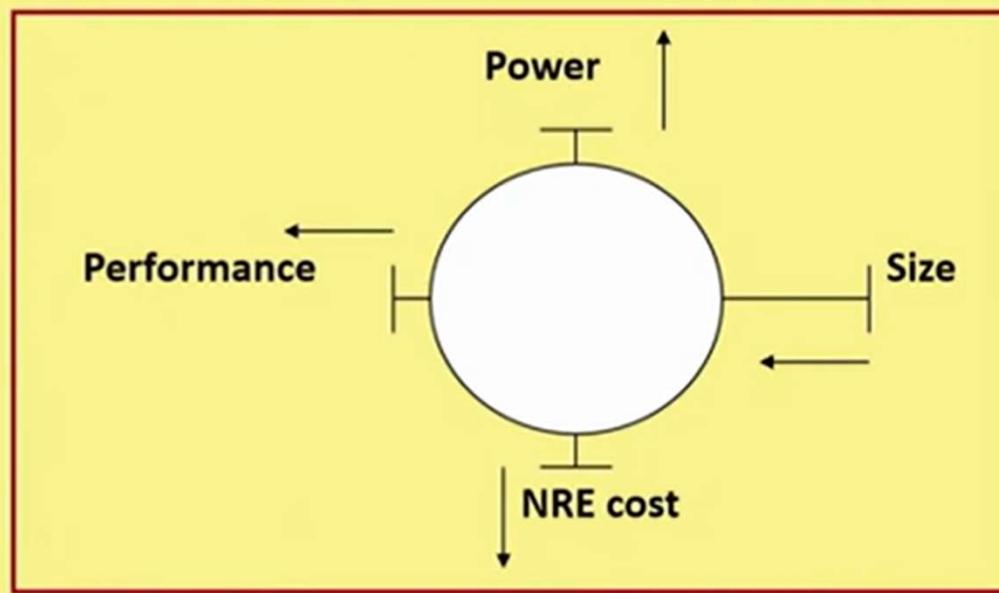
Common Design Metrics

- **Non Recurring Engineering (NRE) Cost:** One-time initial cost of designing a system.
- **Unit Cost:** The cost of manufacturing each copy of the system, without counting the NRE cost.
- **Size:** The actual physical space occupied by the system.
- **Performance:** This is measured in terms of the time taken or throughput.
- **Power:** The amount of (battery) power consumed by the system.
- **Flexibility:** The ability to change the functionality of the system.

- **Maintainability**: How easy or difficult it is to modify the design of the system?
- **Time-to-prototype**: How much time is required to build a working version of the system (i.e. a prototype)?
- **Time-to-market**: How much time is required to develop a system such that it can be released to the market commercially?
- **Safety**: Are there any adverse effects on the operating environment?
- Can be many more ...

Design Tradeoff

- Many of the design metrics can be mutually conflicting.
 - Improving one may degrade the other (e.g. power, performance, size and NRE cost, etc.).



- Often requires expertise in both hardware and software to take a proper decision.
 - Expertise in hardware may indicate the types of co-processor or I/O interfaces to use for specific applications (e.g. analog ports, digital ports, PWM ports, etc.).
 - Expertise in software is required to identify parts of the implementation that need to be implemented in software and run on the microcontroller.
 - Hardware / Software Co-design becomes important.

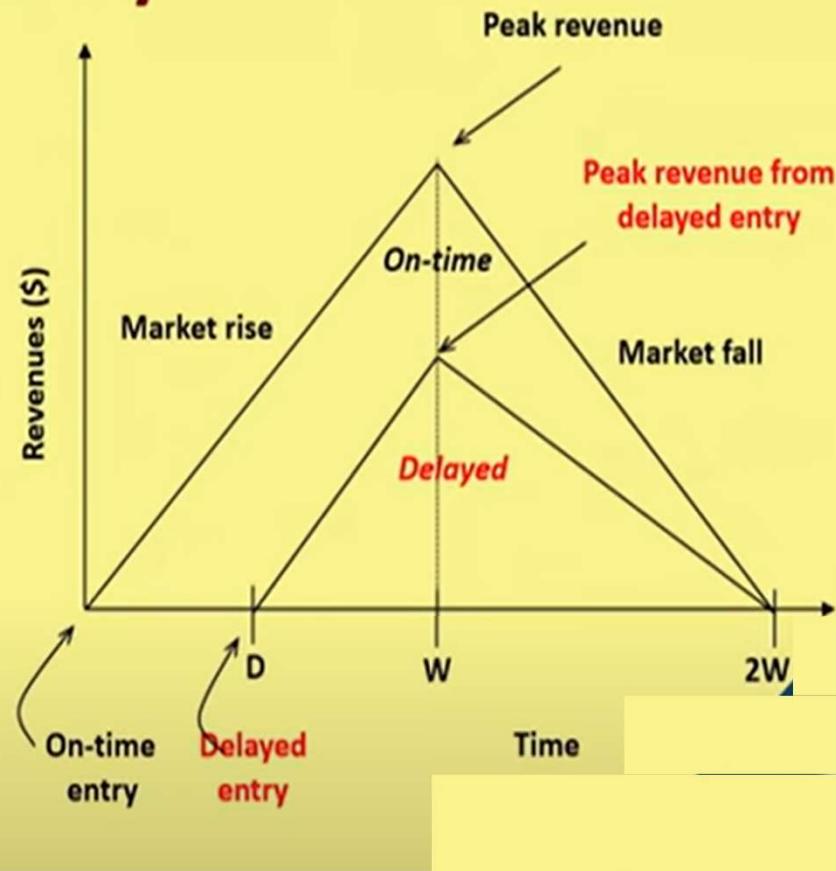
Time-to-market Design Metric

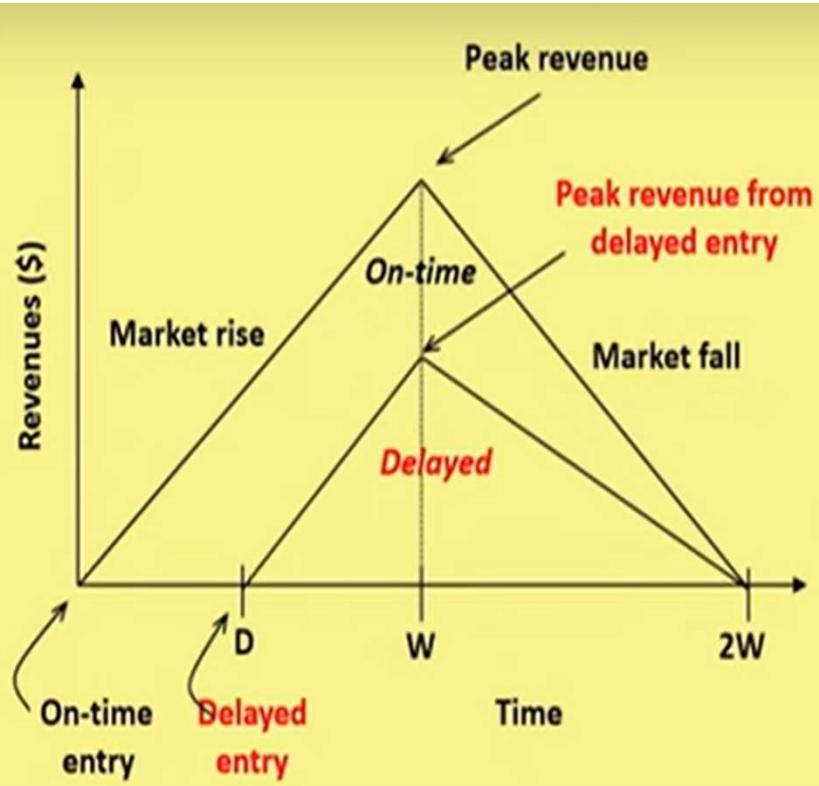
- This is a very crucial design metric.
 - Must be strictly followed to make a product commercially viable.
 - Requires exhaustive market study and analysis.
- Starting from the point a product design starts, we can define a *Market Window* within which it is expected to have the highest sales.
 - Any delay can result in drastic reductions in sales.



Loss due to Delayed Market Entry

- Consider a simplified revenue model:
 - Product life is $2W$
 - Maximum sale occurs at time W
 - Market rise and market fall defines a *triangle* in the revenue graph.
 - Area of the triangle determines the total revenue.*
- For delayed entry, can estimate the loss.
 - Difference in areas of the expected and actual triangles.





- Area of a triangle = $\frac{1}{2} * \text{base} * \text{height}$
 - Area (on-time) = $\frac{1}{2} * 2W * W$
 - Area (delayed) = $\frac{1}{2} * (2W - D) * (W - D)$
 - Percentage revenue loss = $D(3W - D)/2W^2 * 100$
- Examples:
 - $2W = 52$ weeks, $D = 4$ weeks \rightarrow LOSS = 22%
 - $2W = 52$ weeks, $D = 10$ weeks \rightarrow LOSS = 50%

NRE and Unit Cost Metrics

- If C_{NRE} denotes the NRE cost and C_{unit} the unit cost of a product, then the total cost for manufacturing N units is given by:

$$\text{Total Cost} = C_{NRE} + N * C_{unit}$$

- Therefore, per-unit cost is given by: $C_{NRE}/N + C_{unit}$
- Example:
 - $C_{NRE} = \text{Rs. } 5,00,000$ and $C_{unit} = \text{Rs. } 5,000$
 - Total cost for manufacturing 100 units = $5,00,000 + 5000 * 100 = 10,00,000$
 - Per unit cost = $5,00,000 / 100 + 5000 = 10,000$

$$\text{Per-unit cost} = C_{NRE} / N + C_{unit}$$

- We can compare technologies by cost:
 - Choice A: $C_{NRE} = \text{Rs. } 20,000$, $C_{unit} = \text{Rs. } 8,000$
 - Choice B: $C_{NRE} = \text{Rs. } 4,00,000$, $C_{unit} = \text{Rs. } 3,000$
 - Choice C: $C_{NRE} = \text{Rs. } 10,00,000$, $C_{unit} = \text{Rs. } 8,000$
- Of course, time-to-market cost must also be considered.

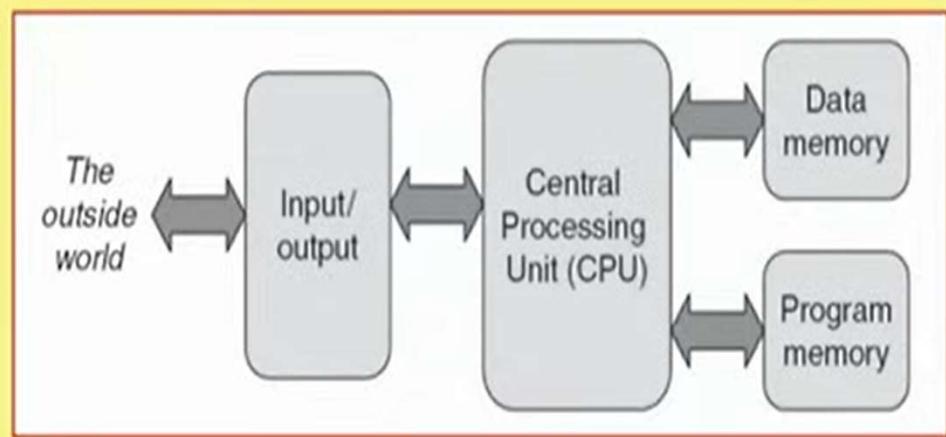
Performance Design Metric

- Most widely used, but can also be most misleading.
 - Must be careful in the evaluation.
- Some of the measures:
 - Clock frequency, MIPS --- not very good for comparison
 - Latency (response time)
 - Throughput
- Measure of speedup among design alternatives.

- ❑ Classification of computer architecture
- ❑ Characteristics of a microprocessor
- ❑ Characteristics of a microcontroller

Basic Operation of a Computing System

- The central processing unit (CPU) carries out all computations.
 - Fetches instructions from the program memory and executes it; may require access to data in data memory.
- The input/output block provides interface with the outside world.
 - Allows users to interact with the computing system, and also observe the output results.

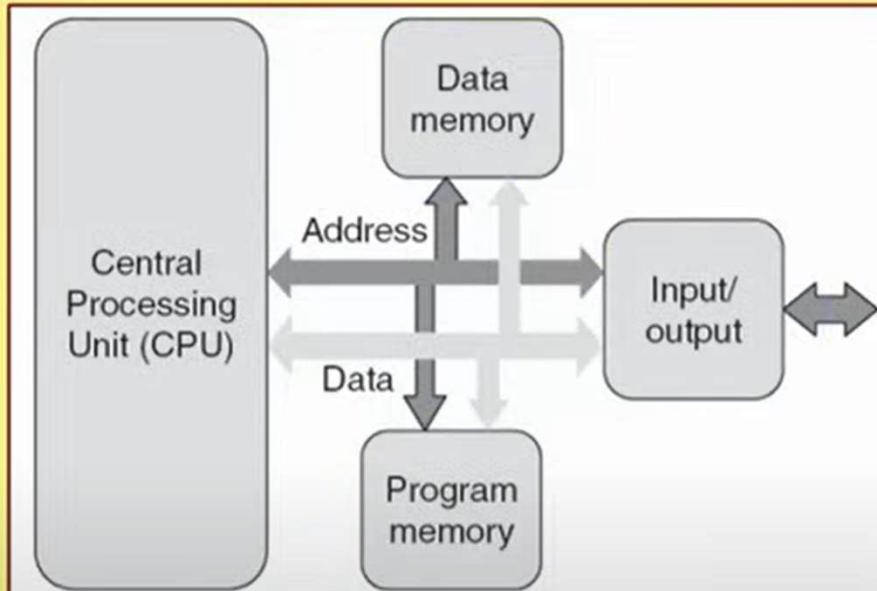


- About the instruction set architecture (ISA) of the CPU.
 - a) Complex Instruction Set Computer (CISC)
 - Typically used in desktops, laptops and servers (courtesy Intel).
 - b) Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC)
 - Typically used in microcontrollers, that are used to build embedded systems.
- Two different types of memory:
 - a) Random Access Memory (RAM)
 - Volatile; used for data memory in microcontrollers.
 - b) Read Only Memory (ROM)
 - Non-volatile; used for program memory in microcontrollers.

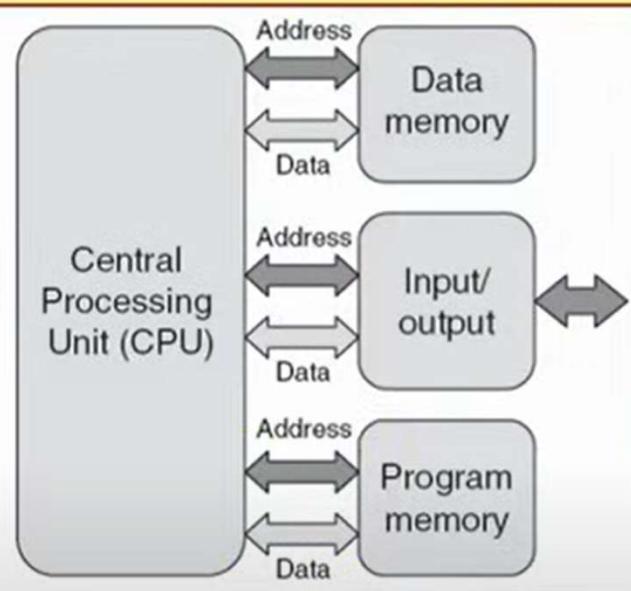
Classification of CPU Architecture

- Broadly two types of architectures:
 - a) Von Neumann Architecture
 - Both instructions and data are stored in the same memory.
 - This model is followed in conventional computing systems.
 - b) Harvard Architecture
 - Instructions and data are stored in separate memories.
 - Typically followed in microcontrollers, used for building embedded systems.
 - Instructions are stored in a ROM (permanent), while temporary data are in RAM.

Von Neumann Architecture



Harvard Architecture



Von Neumann Vs Harvard

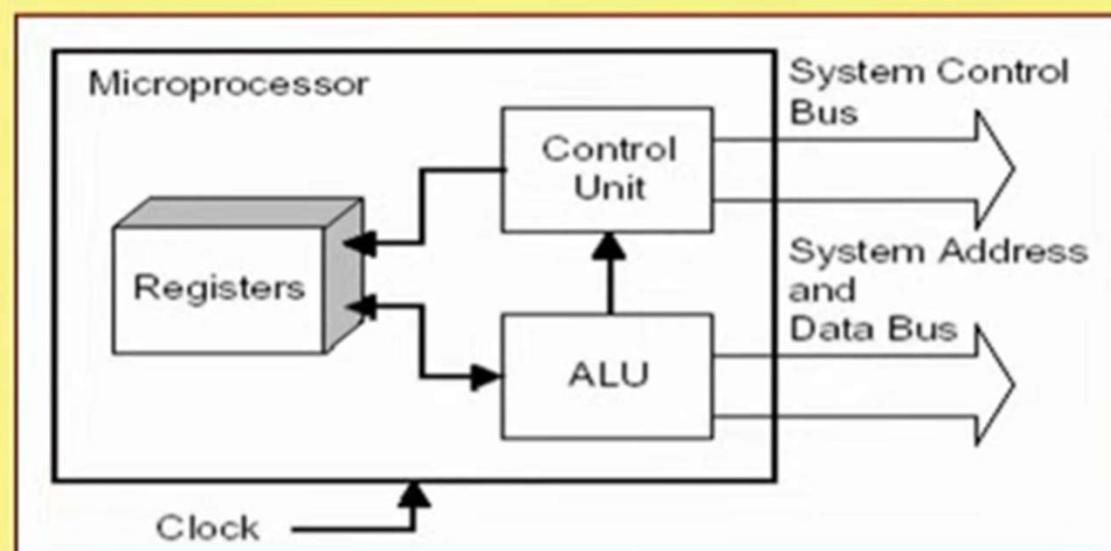


Parameters	Von Neumann	Harvard
Memory	❖ Data and Program {Code} are stored in same memory	❖ Data and Program {Code} are stored in different memory
Memory Type	❖ It has only RAM for Data & Code	❖ It has RAM for Data and ROM for Code
Buses	❖ Common bus for Address & Data/Code	❖ Separate Bus Address & Data/Code
Program Execution	❖ Code is executed serially and takes more cycles	❖ Code is executed in parallel with data so it takes less cycles.
Data/Code Transfer	❖ Data or Code in one cycle	❖ Data and Code in One cycle
Control Signals	❖ Less	❖ More
Space	❖ It needs less Space	❖ It needs more space
Cost	❖ Less	❖ Costly

What is a Microprocessor?

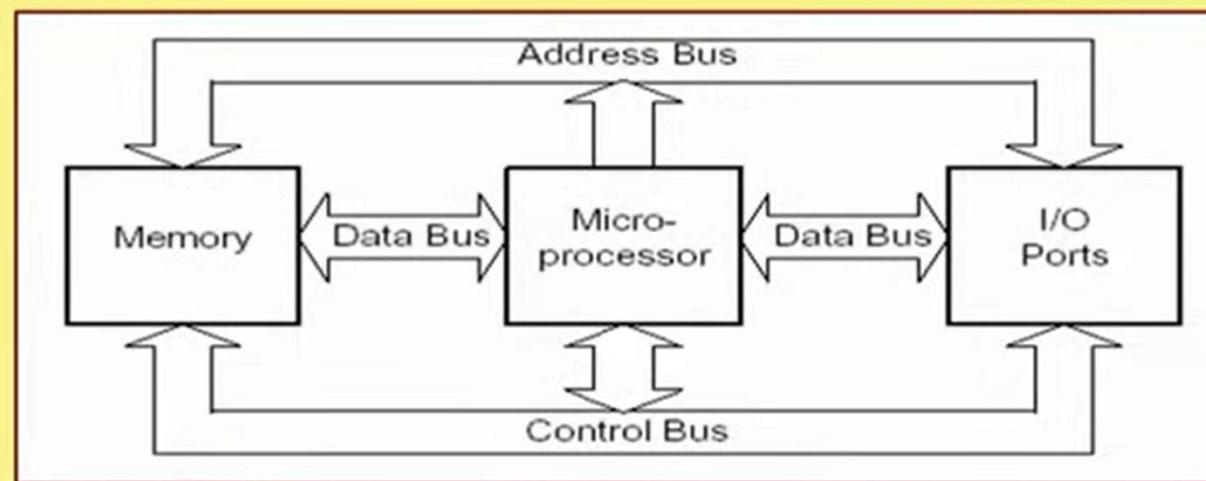
- It is basically the entire CPU fabricated on a single chip.
 - Consists of a set of registers to store temporary data.
 - Consists of an arithmetic logic unit (ALU), where all arithmetic and logical computations are carried out.
 - Consists of some mechanism to interface external devices (memory and I/O) through buses (address, data and control).
 - Consists of a control unit that synchronizes the operation.

Schematic Diagram of Microprocessor



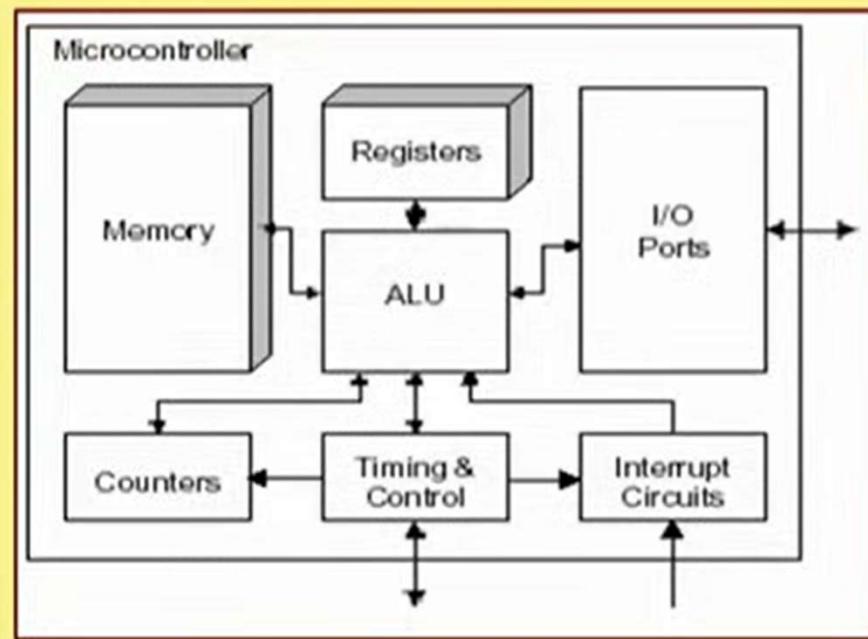
What is a Microcomputer?

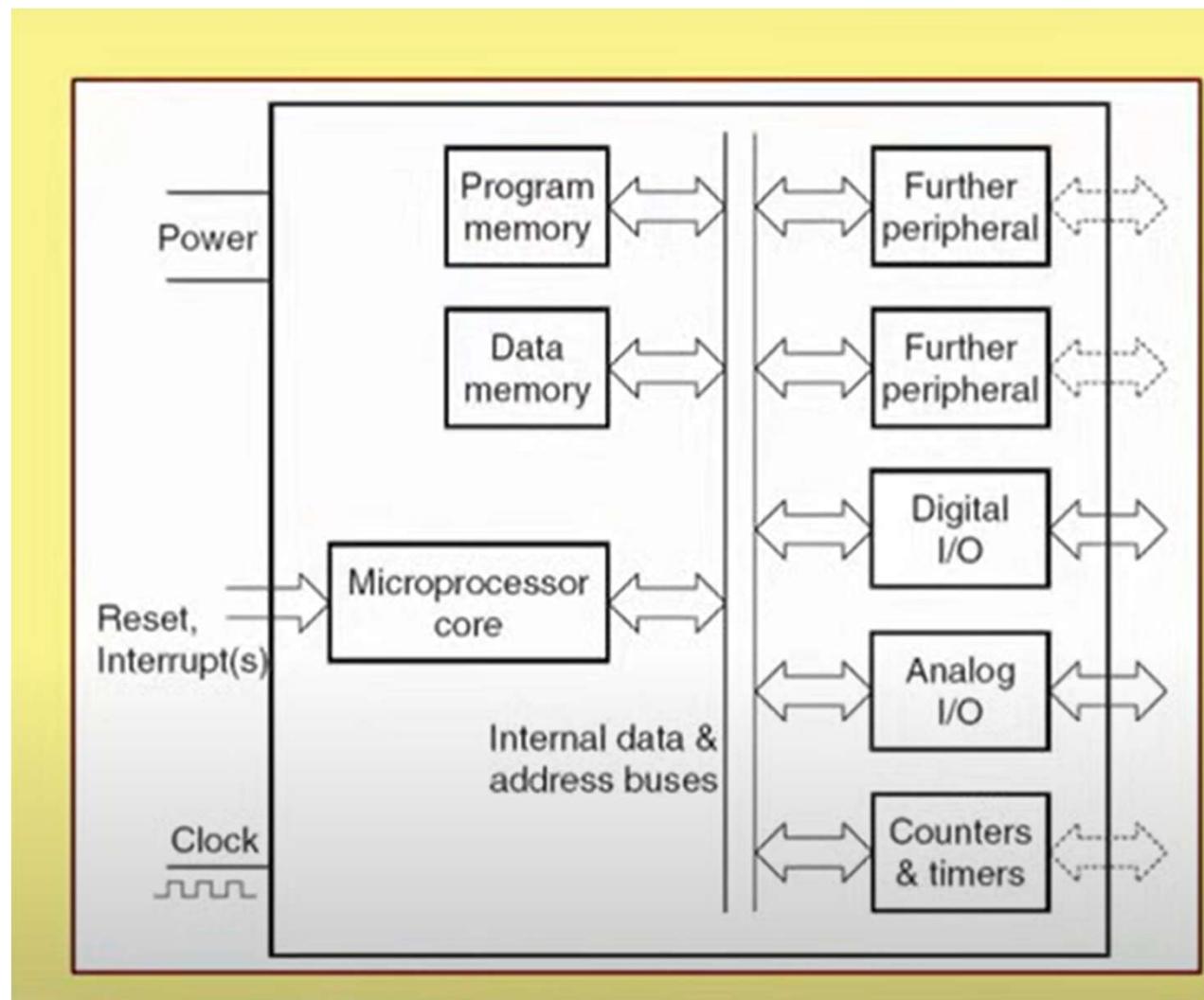
- It is a computer system built using a microprocessor.
- Since a microprocessor does not contain memory and I/O, we have to interface these to build a microcomputer.
 - Too complex and expensive for very small and low-cost embedded systems.



Microcontrollers: The Heart of Embedded Systems

- It is basically a computer on a single chip.
 - Very inexpensive, small, low power.
 - Convenient for use in embedded system design.
- It operates on data that are fed through its serial or parallel input ports, controlled by the software stored in on-chip memory.
 - Often has analog input pins, timers and other utility circuitry built-in.





Microcontroller Packaging and Appearance



From left to right:

PIC 12F508, PIC 16F84A, PIC 16C72, Motorola 68HC05B16, PIC 16F877, Motorola 68000

How Microcontrollers are different from PCs?

- When a PC executes a program, the program is first loaded from disk/SSD into an allocated section of memory.
 - Usually the program is loaded part by part to conserve memory space.
 - There is a complicated operating system that handles all low-level operations (includes low-level driver codes for interfacing with various devices).
- In a microcontroller there is no disk to read from.
 - On-chip ROM stores the program that is to be executed.
 - Size of the ROM limits the maximum size of the application.
 - There is no operating system, and the program in ROM is the only program that is running (must include low-level routines).

Where are Microcontrollers Used?

- Typically in applications where processing power is not critical.
 - Modern-day household can have 10 to 50 such devices embedded in various devices and equipments.
- One-third of the applications are in the office automation segment.
- Another one-third are in consumer electronics goods.
- Rest one-third are used in automotive and communication applications.

Evolution of Microcontrollers

- Microcontroller evolved from a microprocessor-based board-level design to a single chip in the mid-1970's.
 - As the process of miniaturization continued, all of the components needed for a controller were built into a single chip.
- In the mid-1980's, microcontrollers got embedded into a larger ASIC (Application Specific Integrated Circuit).
 - Microcontrollers are fabricated as a module inside a larger chip.

Advantages of using microcontrollers

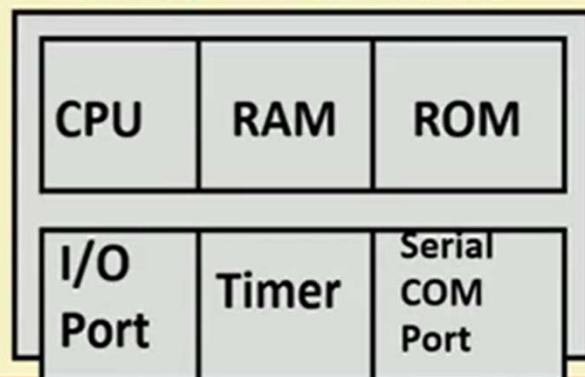
- Fast and effective
 - The architecture correlates closely with the problem being solved (control systems).
- Low cost / Low power
 - High level of system integration within one component.
 - Only a handful of components needed to create a working system.
- Compatibility
 - Opcodes and binaries are the SAME for all 80x51 / ARM / PIC variants.

8051 Microcontroller (CISC)

Prepared By Prof. Santanu Chattopadhyay, IITKGP

8051 Basic Component

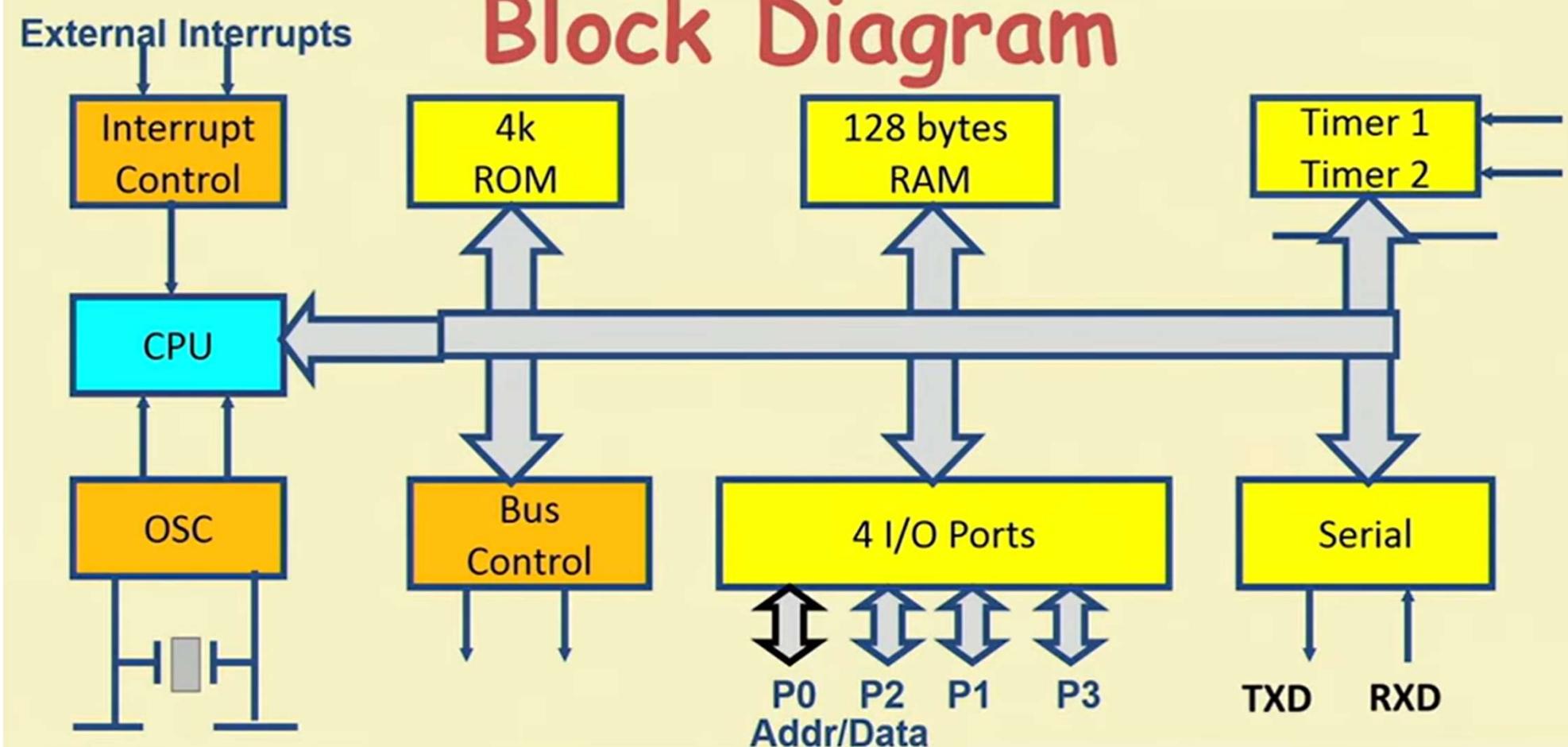
- 4K bytes internal ROM
- 128 bytes internal RAM
- Four 8-bit I/O ports (P0 - P3).
- Two 16-bit timers/counters
- One serial interface



A single chip
Microcontroller



Block Diagram



Other 8051 features

- Only 1 On chip oscillator (external crystal)
- 6 interrupt sources (2 external , 3 internal, Reset)
- 64K external code (program) memory(only read) PSEN
- 64K external data memory(can be read and write) by RD,WR
- Code memory is selectable by EA (internal or external)
- We may have External memory as data and code

Three criteria in Choosing a Microcontroller

- meeting the computing needs of the task efficiently and cost effectively
 - speed, the amount of ROM and RAM, the number of I/O ports and timers, size, packaging, power consumption
 - easy to upgrade
 - cost per unit
- availability of software development tools
 - assemblers, debuggers, C compilers, emulator, simulator, technical support
- wide availability and reliable sources of the microcontrollers

Comparison of the 8051 Family Members

- ROM type
 - 8031 no ROM
 - 80xx mask ROM
 - 87xx EPROM
 - 89xx Flash EEPROM
- 89xx
 - 8951
 - 8952
 - 8953
 - 8955
 - 898252
 - 891051
 - 892051
- Example (AT89C51,AT89LV51,AT89S51)
 - AT= ATMEL(Manufacture)
 - C = CMOS technology
 - LV= Low Power(3.0v)

Comparison of the 8051 Family Members

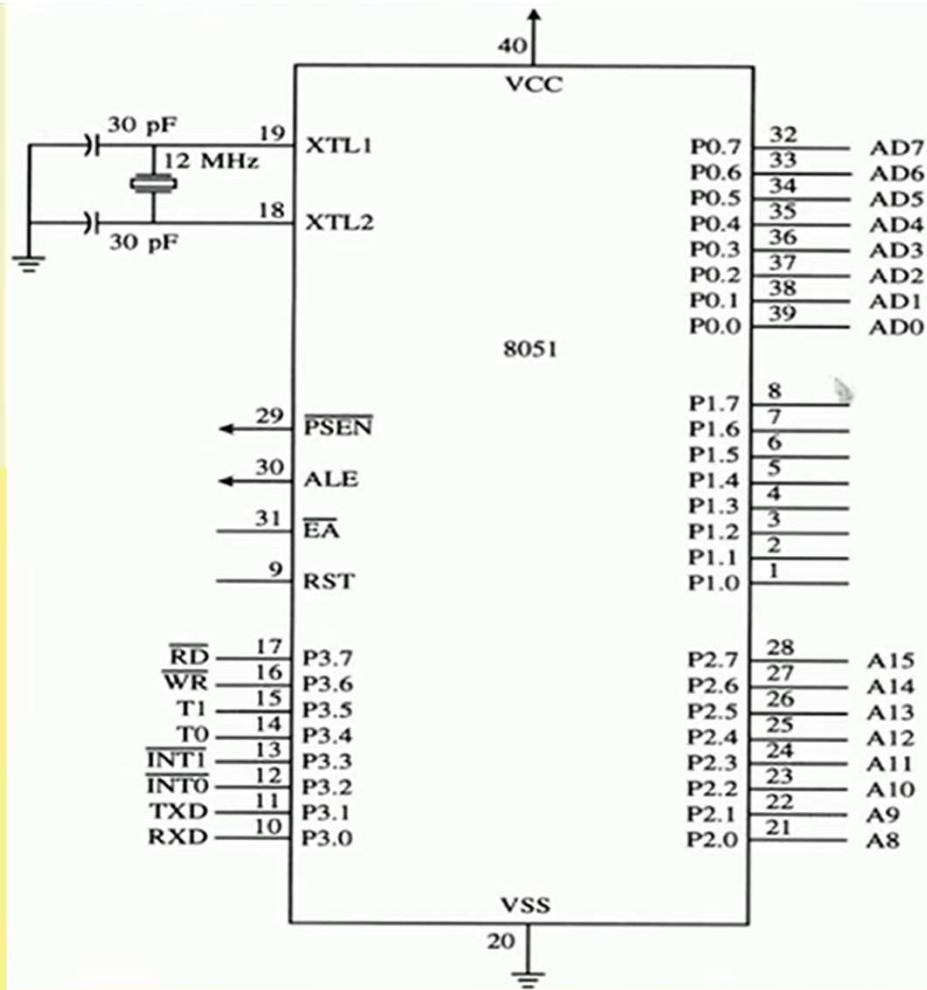
89XX	ROM	RAM	Timer	Int Source	IO pin	Other
8951	4k	128	2	6	32	-
8952	8k	256	3	8	32	-
8953	12k	256	3	9	32	WD
8955	20k	256	3	8	32	WD
898252	8k	256	3	9	32	ISP
891051	1k	64	1	3	16	AC
892051	2k	128	2	6	16	AC

WD: Watch Dog Timer

AC: Analog Comparator

ISP: In System Programmable

8051 Schematic Pin out



IMPORTANT PINS (IO Ports)

- One of the most useful features of the 8051 is that it contains four I/O ports (P0 - P3)
- Port 0 (pins 32-39) : P0 (P0.0~P0.7)
 - 8-bit R/W - General Purpose I/O
 - Or acts as a multiplexed low byte address and data bus for external memory design
- Port 1 (pins 1-8) : P1 (P1.0~P1.7)
 - Only 8-bit R/W - General Purpose I/O
- Port 2 (pins 21-28) : P2 (P2.0~P2.7)
 - 8-bit R/W - General Purpose I/O
 - Or high byte of the address bus for external memory design
- Port 3 (pins 10-17) : P3 (P3.0~P3.7)
 - General Purpose I/O
 - if not using any of the internal peripherals (timers) or external interrupts.
- Each port can be used as input or output (bi-direction)

IMPORTANT PINS

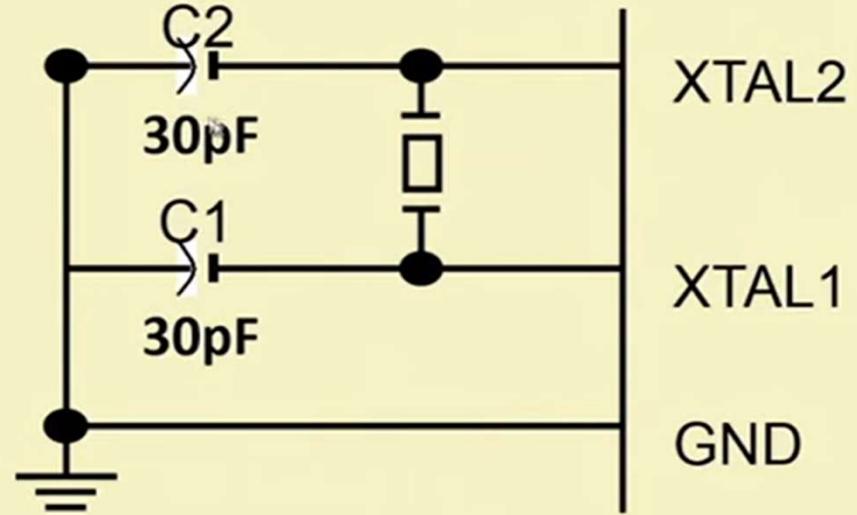
- **PSEN** (out): Program Store Enable, the read signal for external program memory (active low).
- **ALE** (out): Address Latch Enable, to latch address outputs at Port0 and Port2
- **EA** (in): External Access Enable, active low to access external program memory locations 0 to 4K
- **RXD,TXD**: UART pins for serial I/O on Port 3
- **XTAL1 & XTAL2**: Crystal inputs for internal oscillator.

Pins of 8051

- Vcc (pin 40) :
 - Vcc provides supply voltage to the chip.
 - The voltage source is +5V.
- GND (pin 20) : ground
- XTAL1 and XTAL2 (pins 19,18) :
 - These 2 pins provide external clock.
 - Way 1 : using a quartz crystal oscillator
 - Way 2 : using a TTL oscillator
 - Example 4-1 shows the relationship between XTAL and the machine cycle.

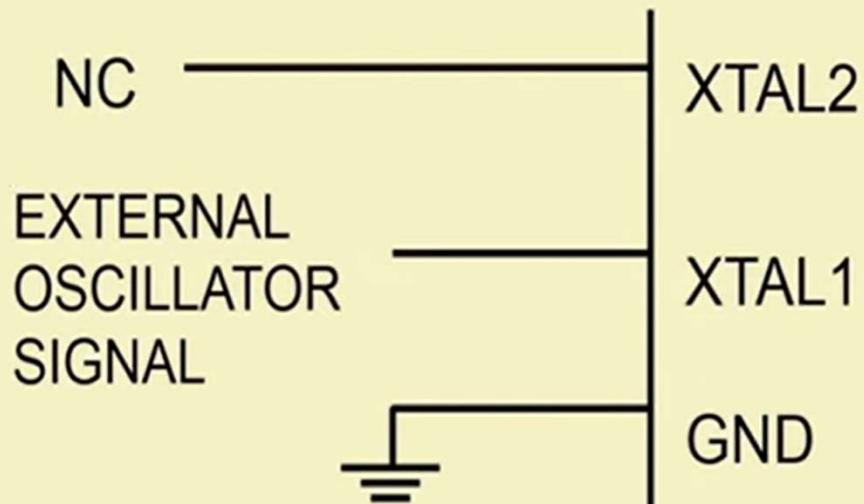
XTAL Connection to 8051

- Using a quartz crystal oscillator
- We can observe the frequency on the XTAL2 pin.



XTAL Connection to an External Clock Source

- Using a TTL oscillator
- XTAL2 is unconnected.



Machine cycle

Find the machine cycle for

- (a) XTAL = 11.0592 MHz
- (b) XTAL = 16 MHz.

Solution:

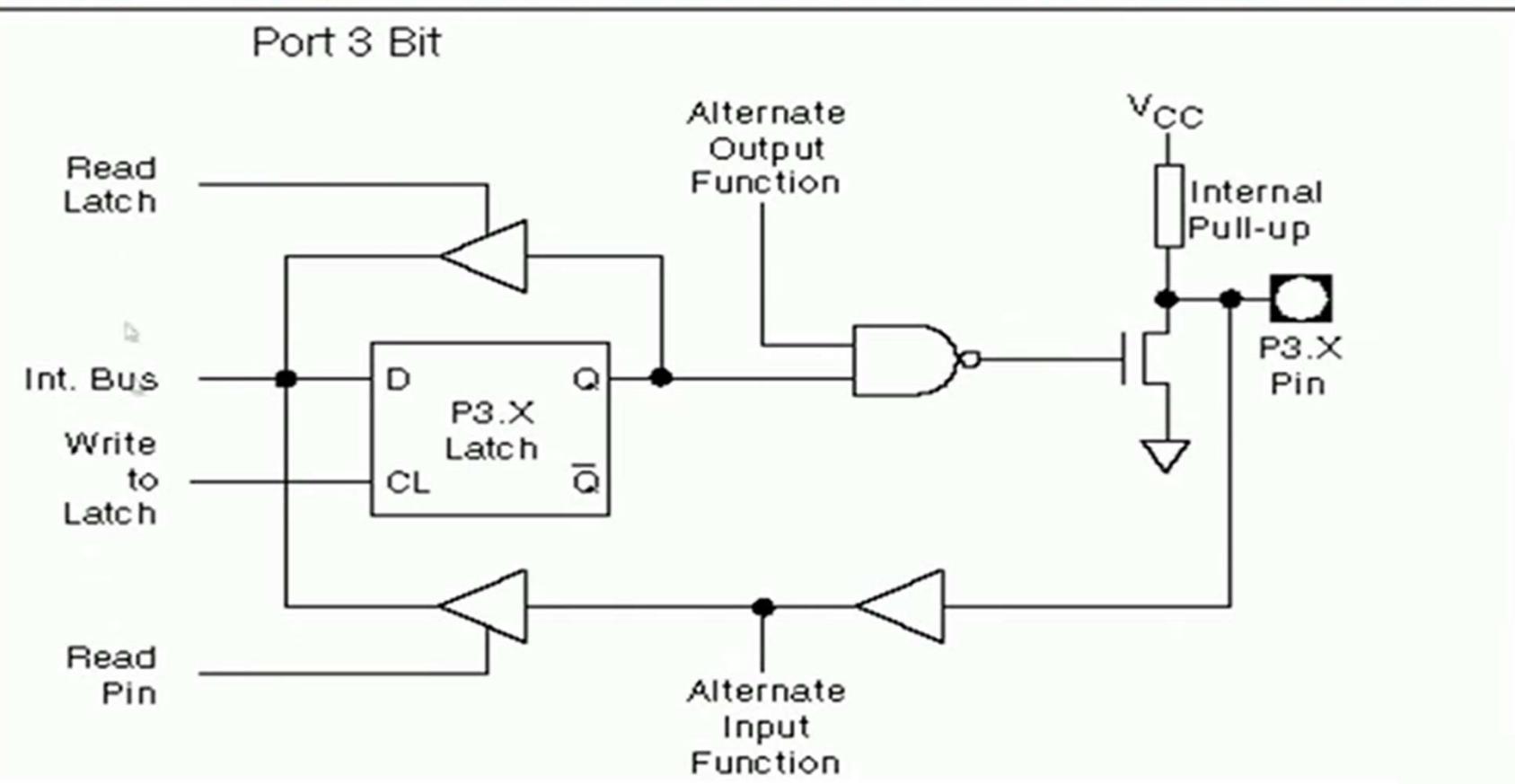
- (a) $11.0592 \text{ MHz} / 12 = 921.6 \text{ kHz}$;
machine cycle = $1 / 921.6 \text{ kHz} = 1.085 \mu\text{s}$
- (b) $16 \text{ MHz} / 12 = 1.333 \text{ MHz}$;
machine cycle = $1 / 1.333 \text{ MHz} = 0.75 \mu\text{s}$

Machine cycle

- Find the machine cycle for
- (a) XTAL = 11.0592 MHz
- (b) XTAL = 16 MHz.

- **Solution:**
- (a) $11.0592 \text{ MHz} / 12 = 921.6 \text{ kHz}$; 
- machine cycle = $1 / 921.6 \text{ kHz} = 1.085 \mu\text{s}$
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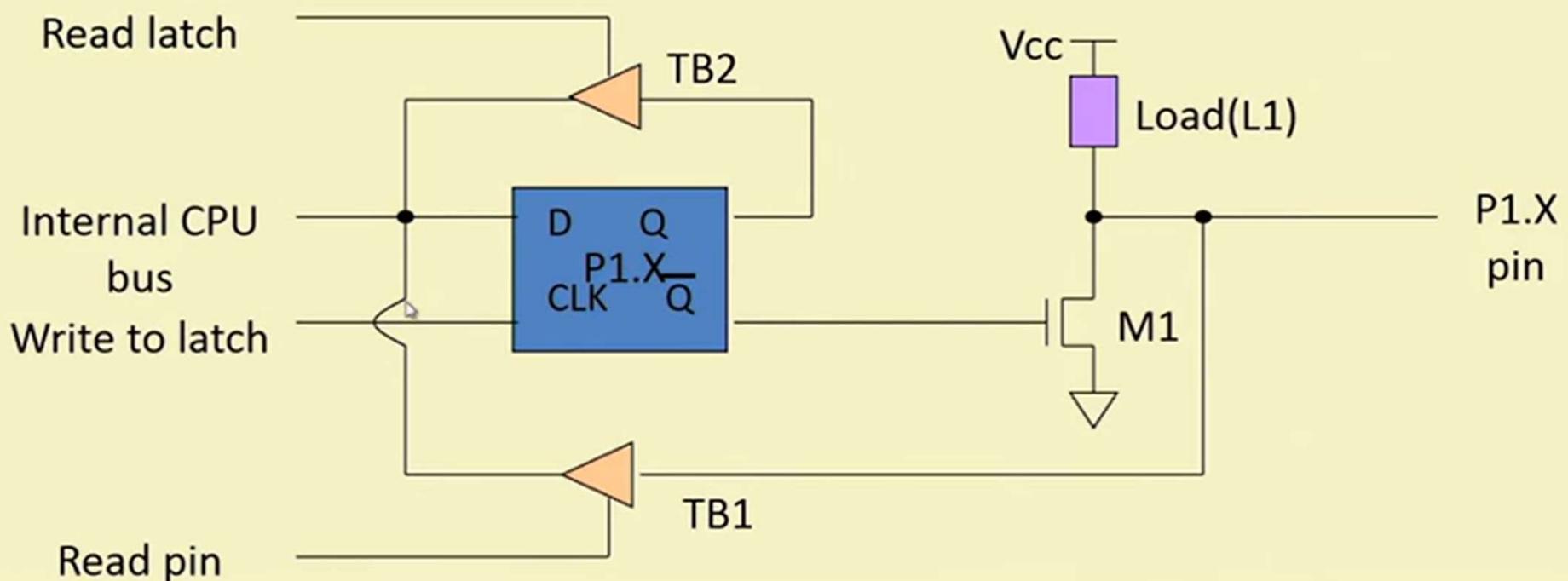
8051 Port 3 Bit Latches and I/O Buffers



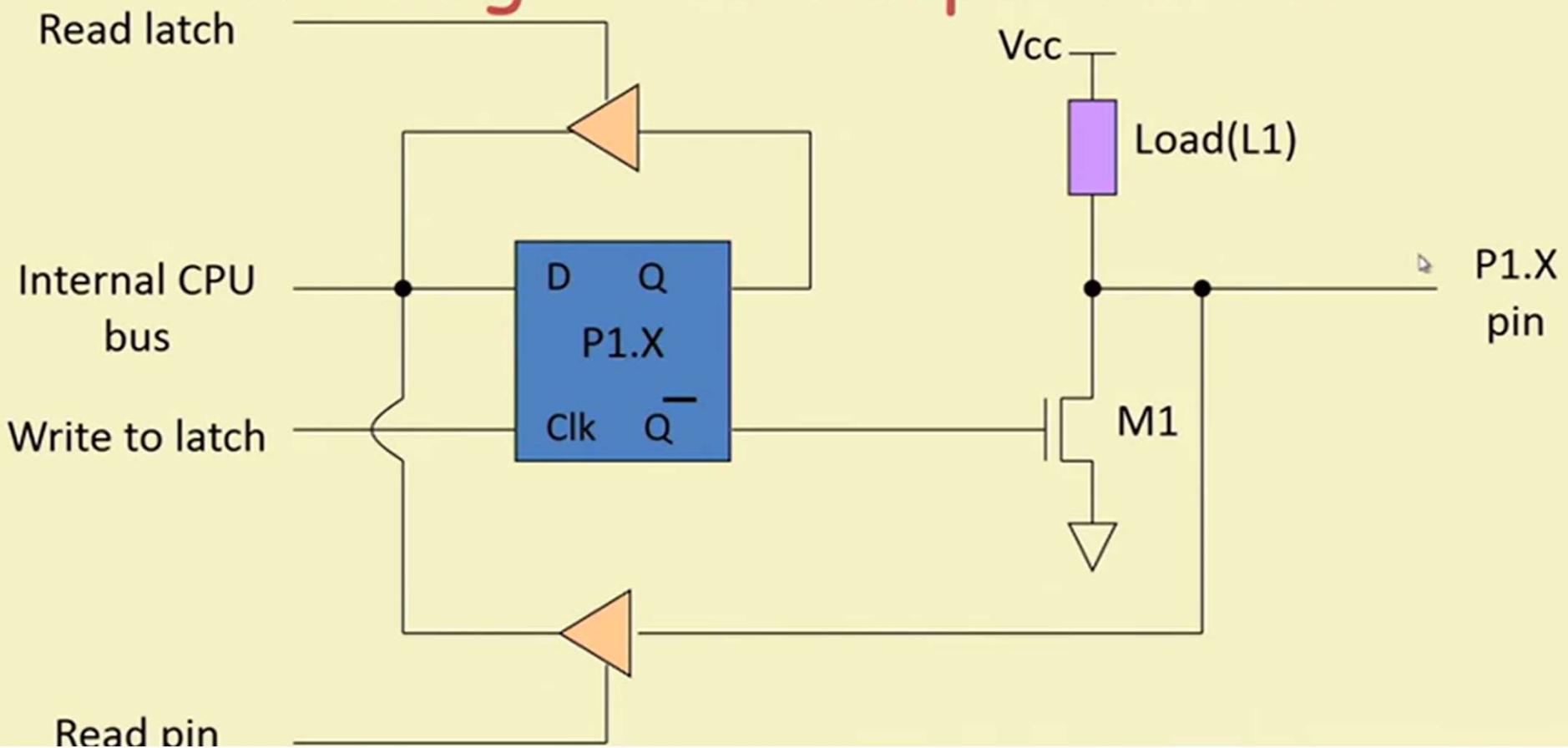
Hardware Structure of I/O Pin

- Each pin of I/O ports
 - Internally connected to CPU bus
 - A **D latch** store the value of this pin
 - Write to latch = 1 : write data into the D latch
 - 2 **Tri-state buffer** :
 - TB1: controlled by “Read pin”
 - Read pin = 1 : really read the data present at the pin
 - TB2: controlled by “Read latch”
 - Read latch = 1 : read value from internal latch
 - A **transistor M1 gate**
 - Gate=0: open
 - Gate=1: close

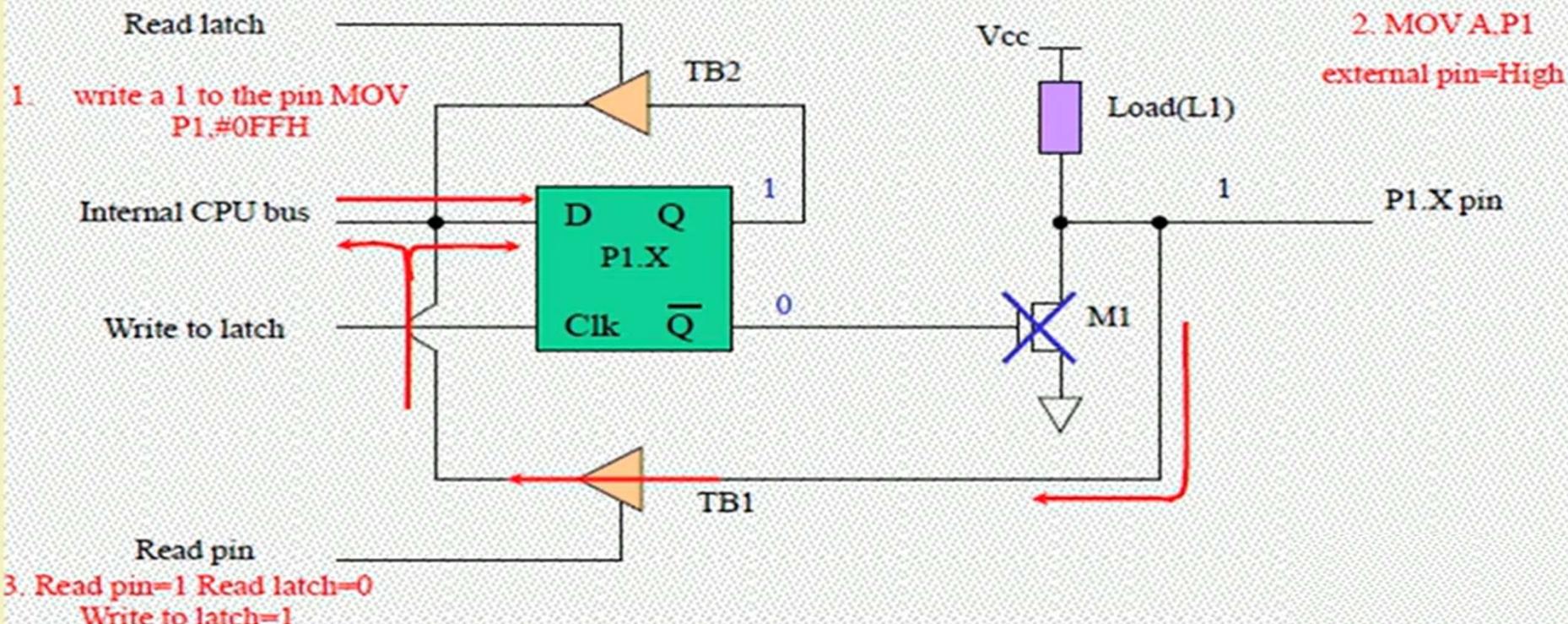
Hardware Structure of I/O Pin



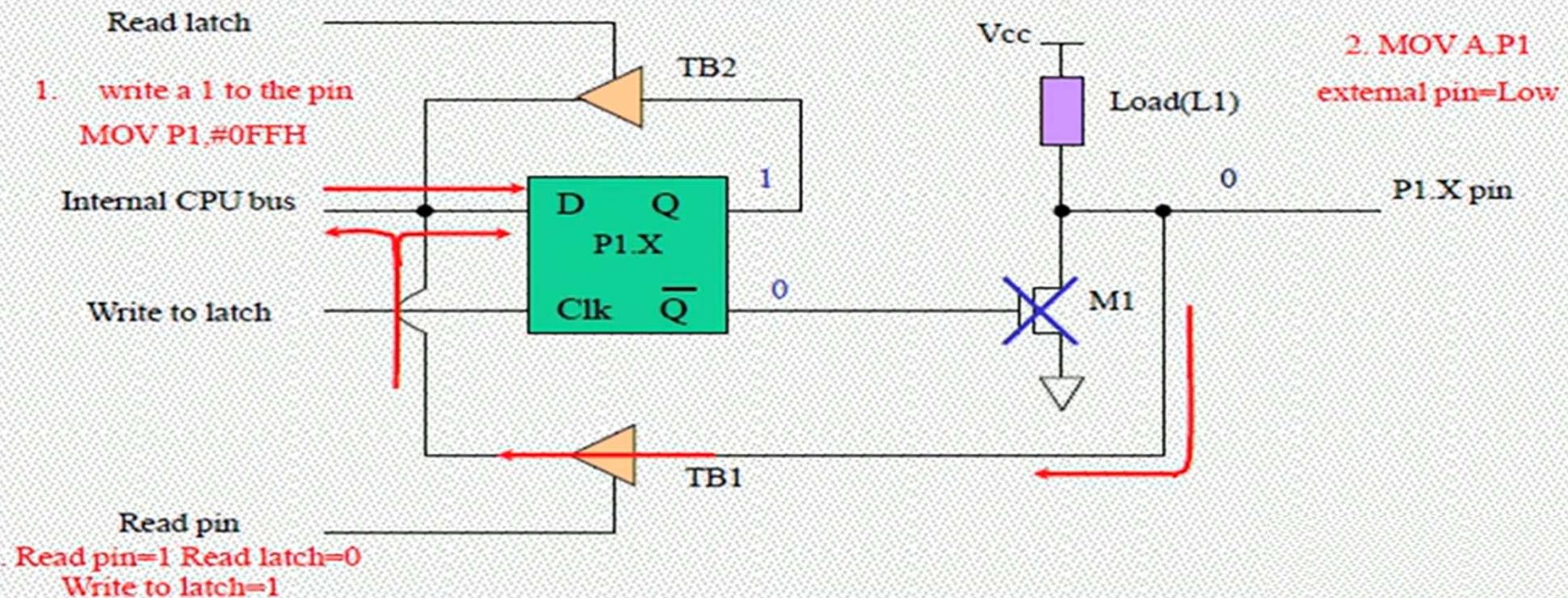
Writing "1" to Output Pin P1.X



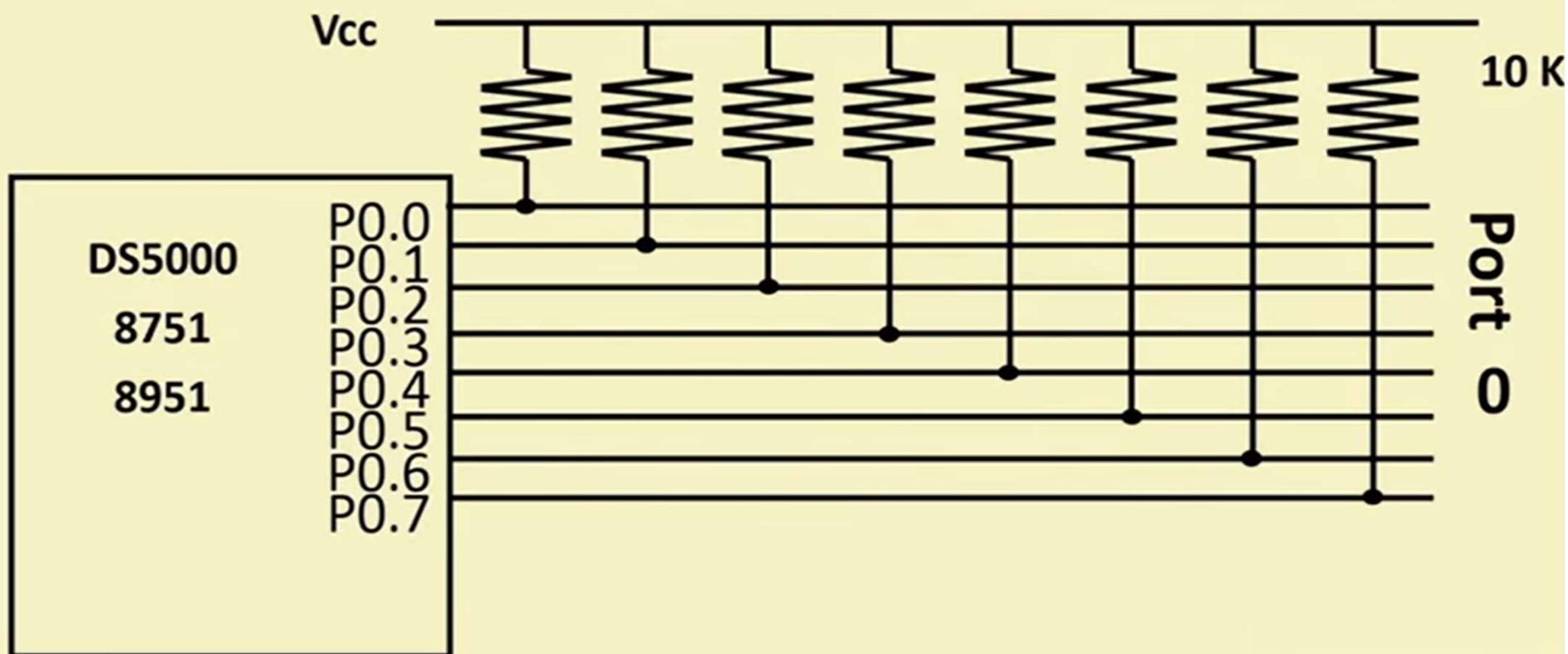
Reading "High" at Input Pin



Reading "Low" at Input Pin

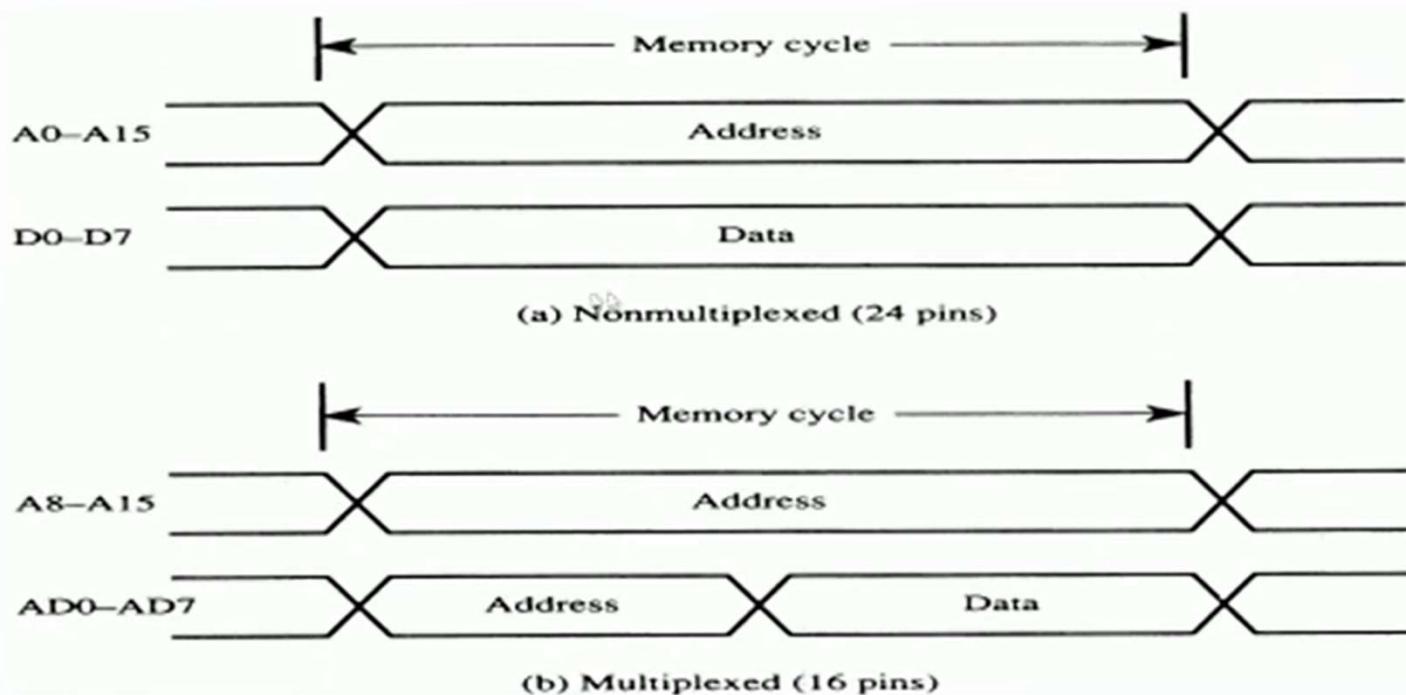


Port 0 with Pull-Up Resistors



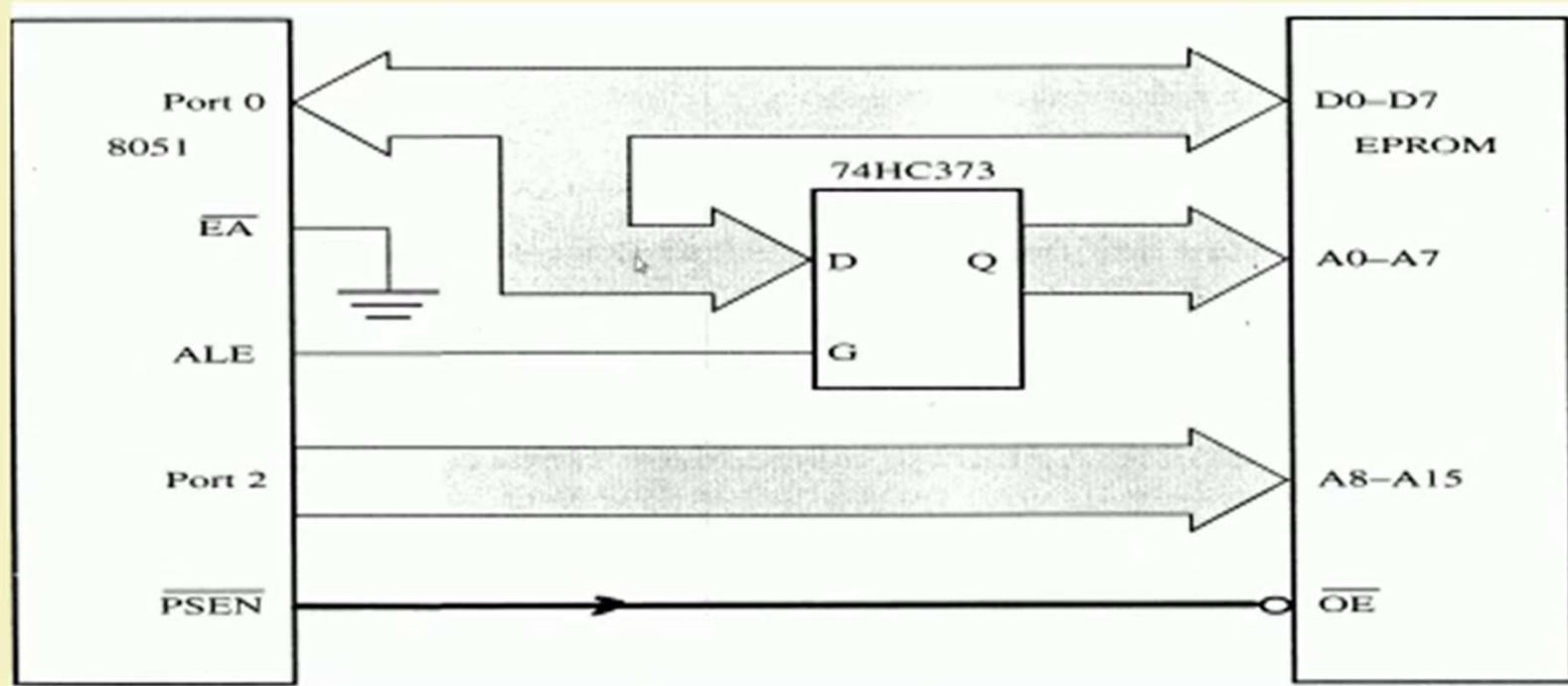
Address Multiplexing for External Memory

Multiplexing
the address
(low-byte)
and data
bus

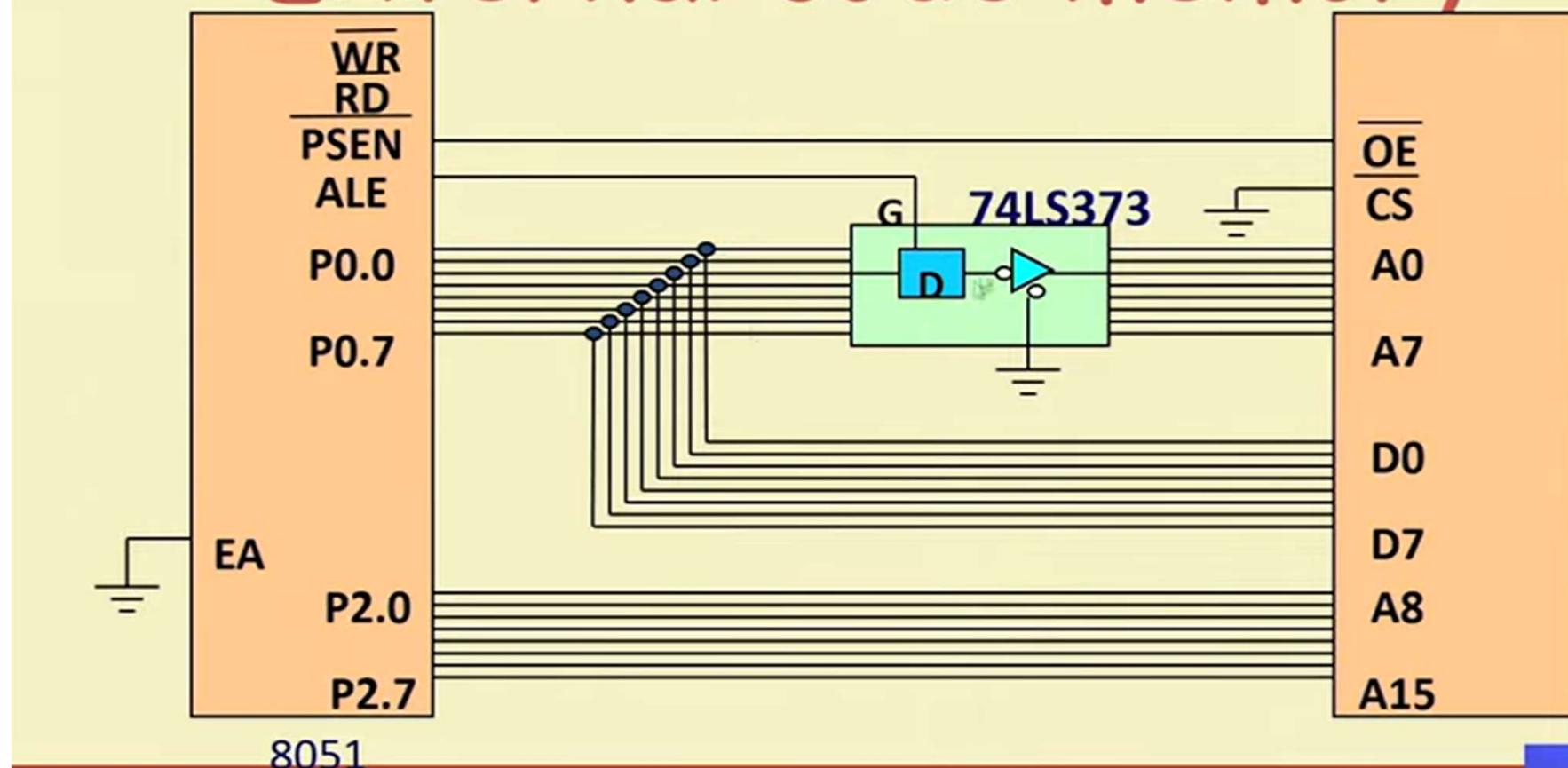


Address Multiplexing for External Memory

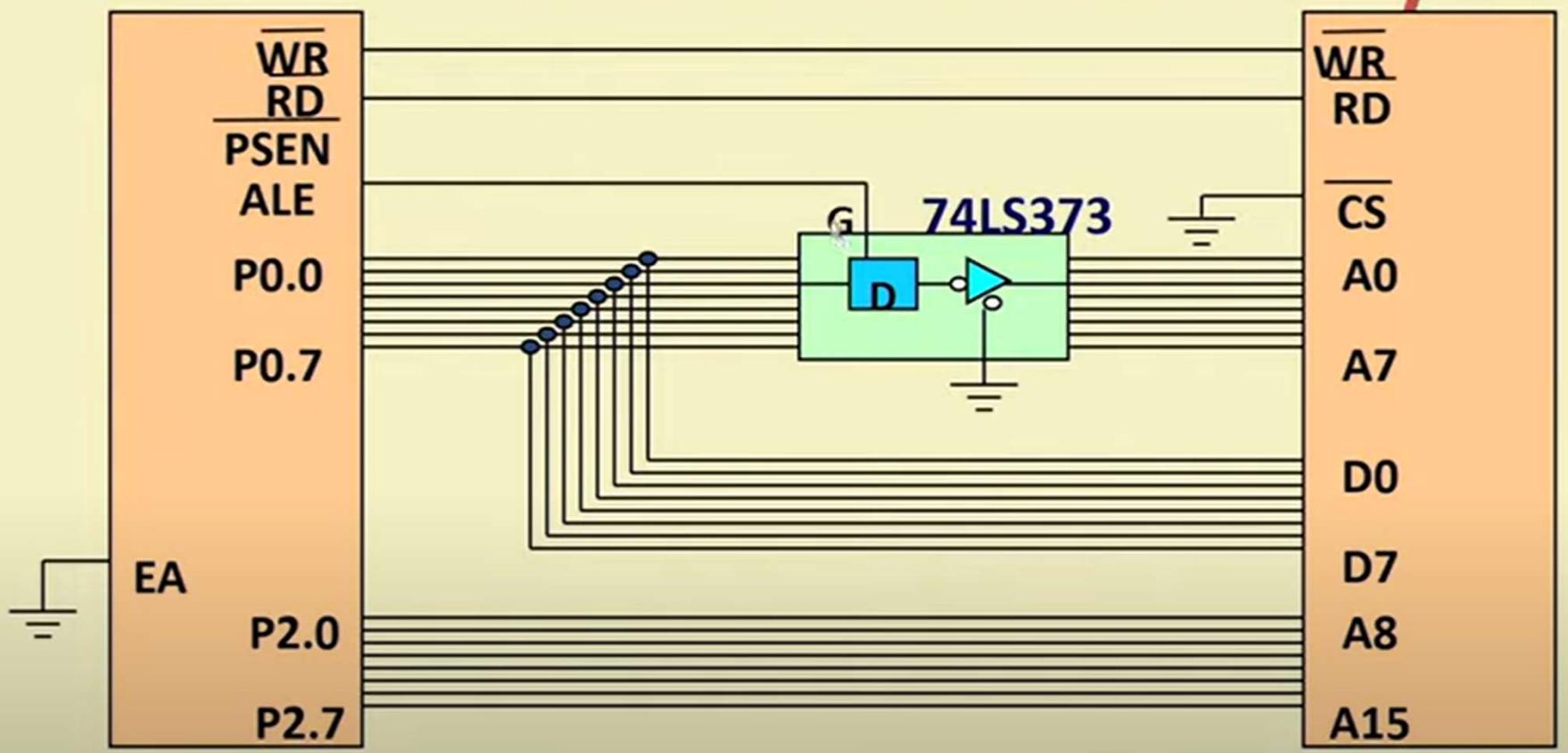
Accessing
external
code
memory



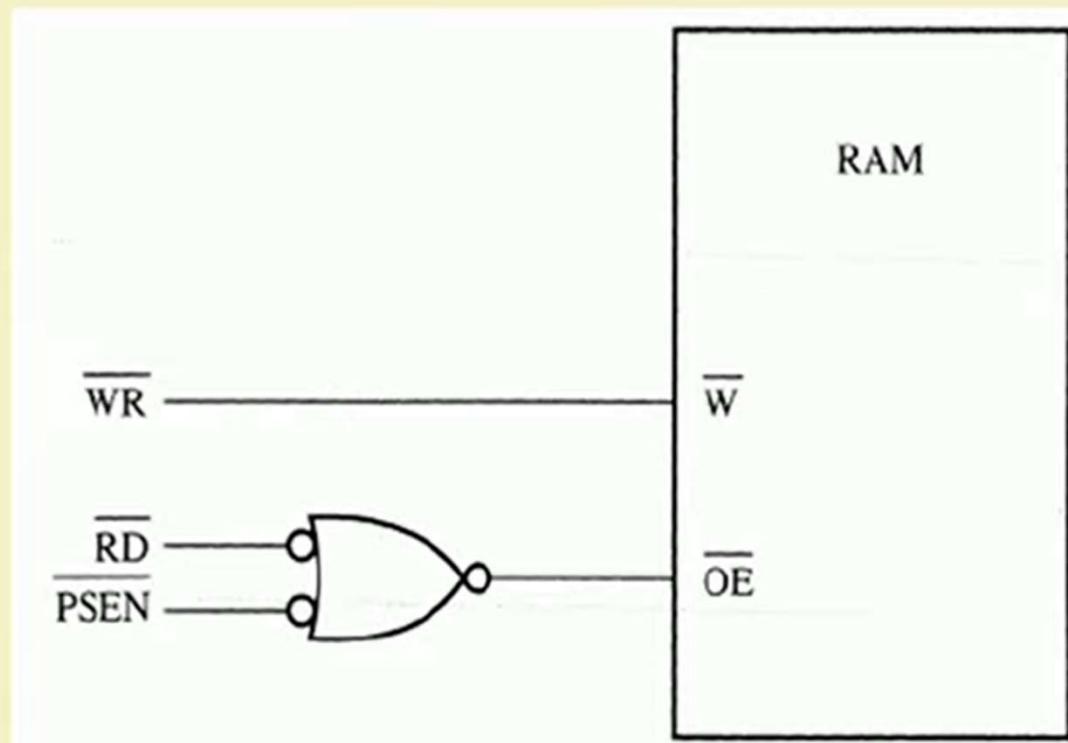
External code memory



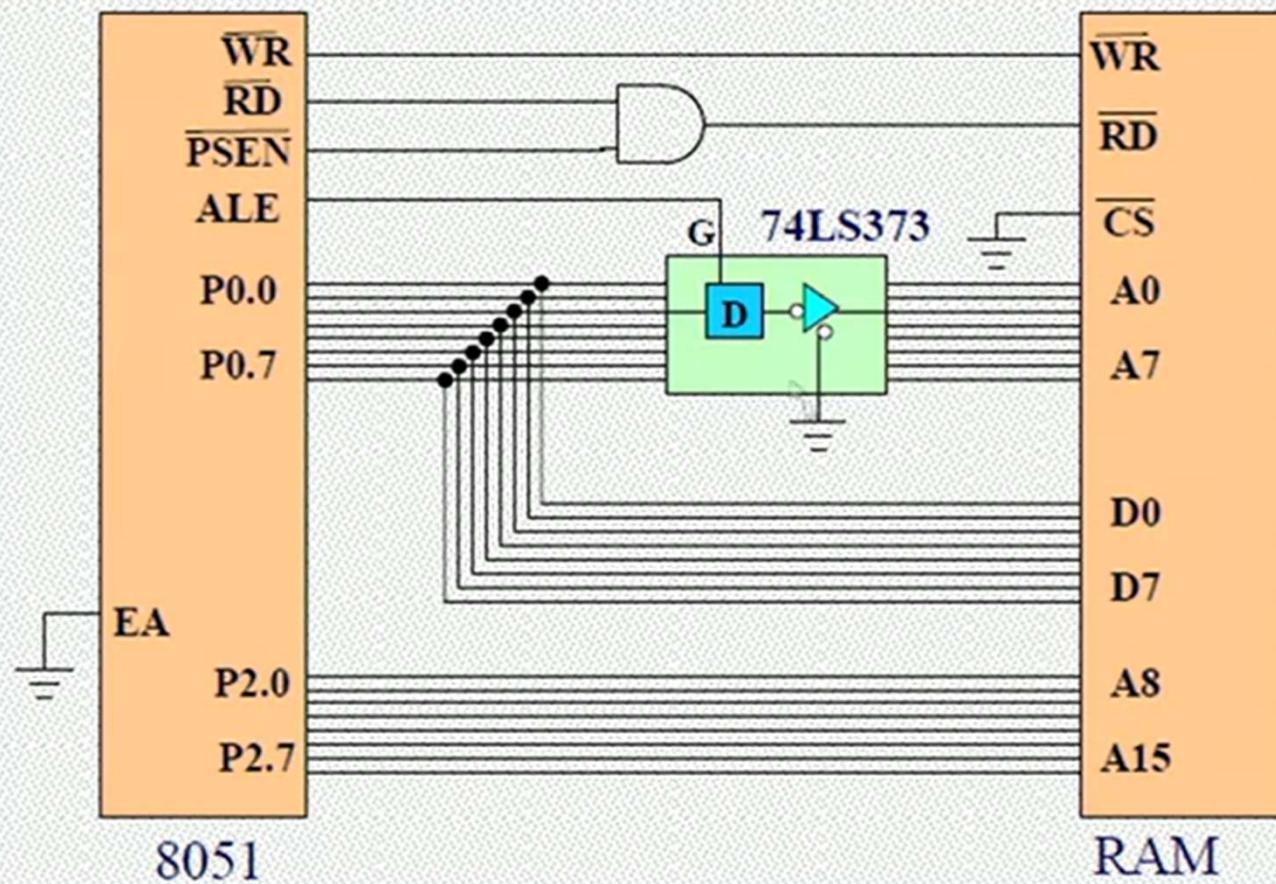
External data memory



Overlapping External Code and Data Spaces



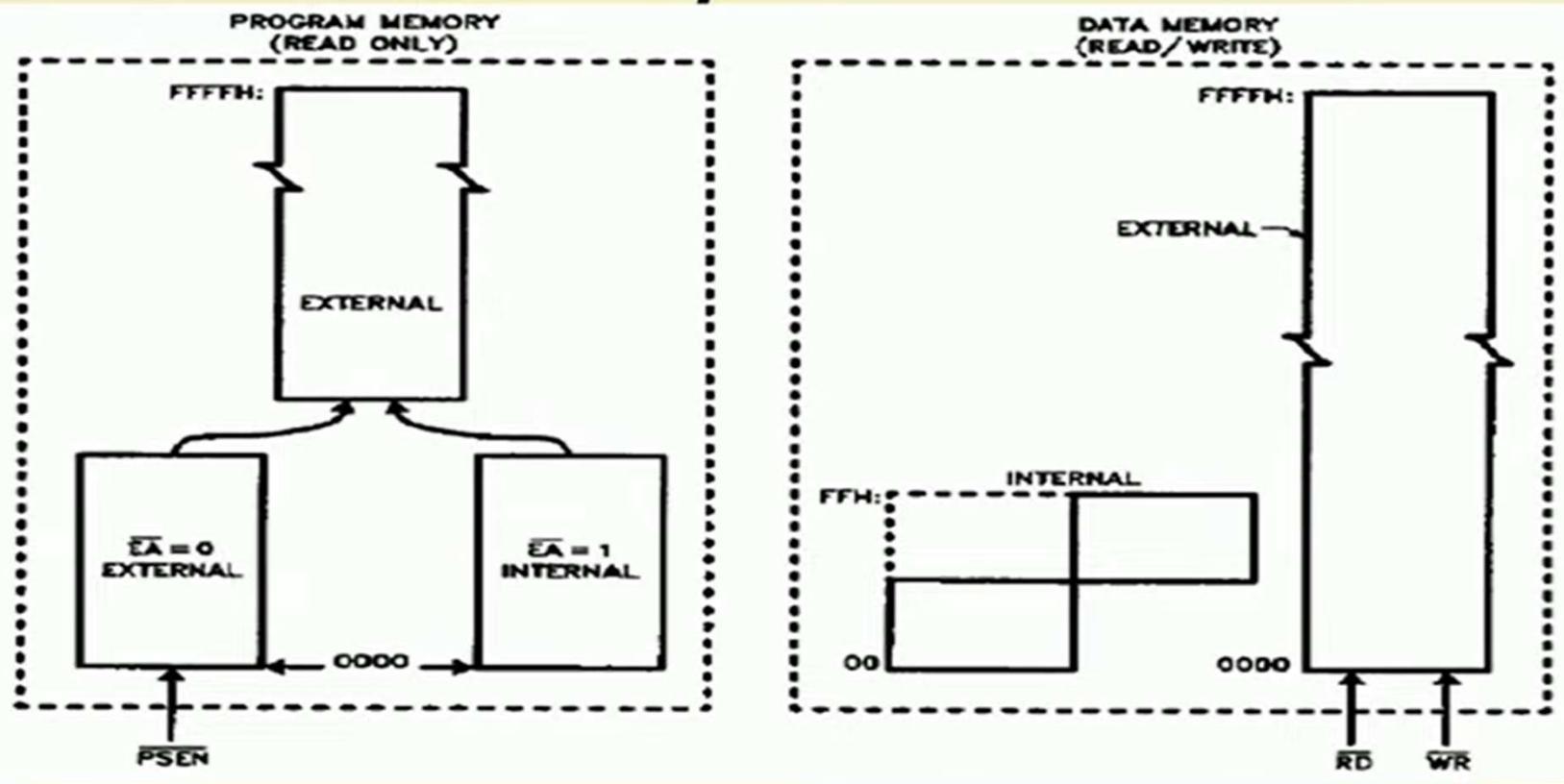
Overlapping External Code and Data Spaces



Overlapping External Code and Data Spaces

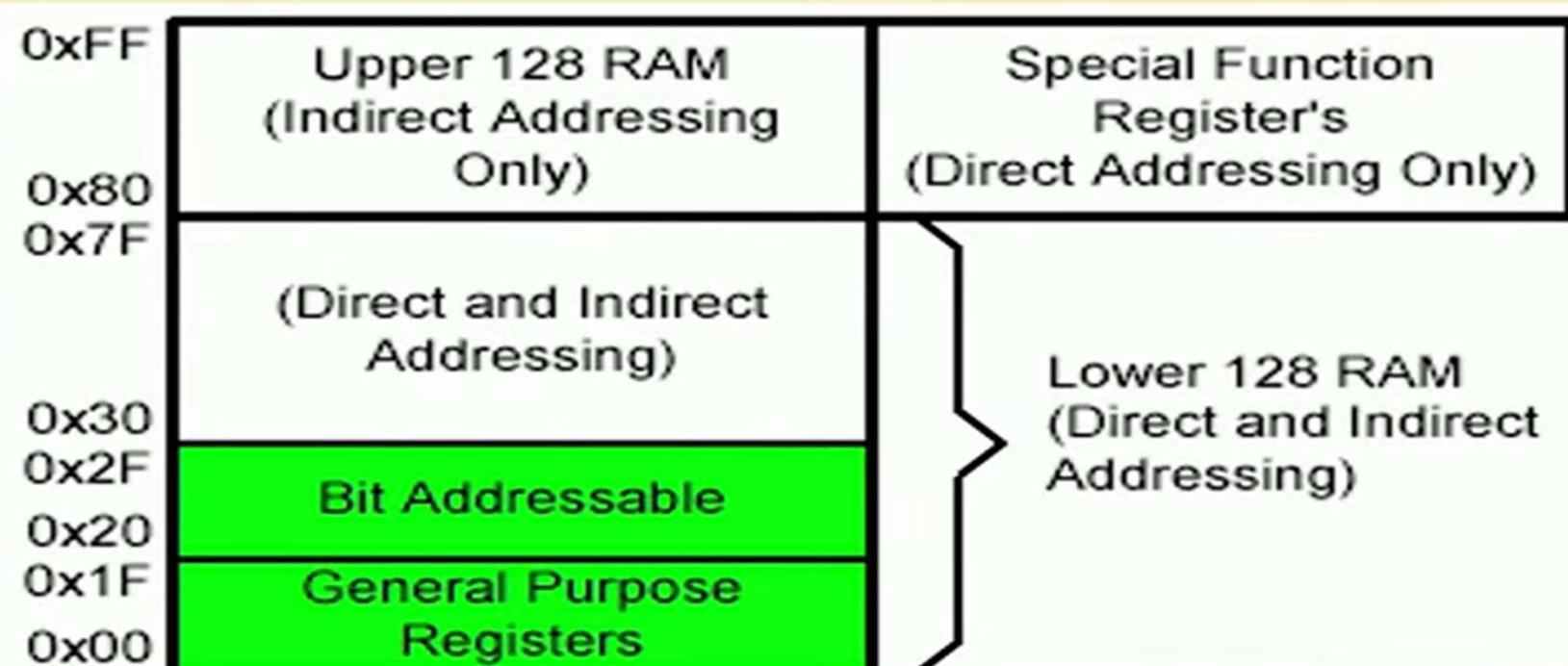
- ❑ Allows the RAM to be
 - ❖ written as data memory, and
 - ❖ read as data memory as well as **code memory**.
- ❑ This allows a program to be
 - ❖ downloaded from outside into the RAM as data, and
 - ❖ executed from RAM as code.

Memory Structure

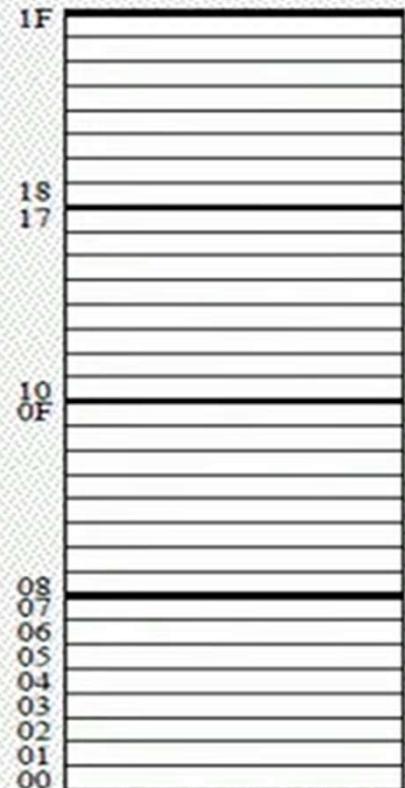


On-Chip Memory

Internal RAM

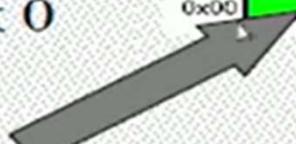
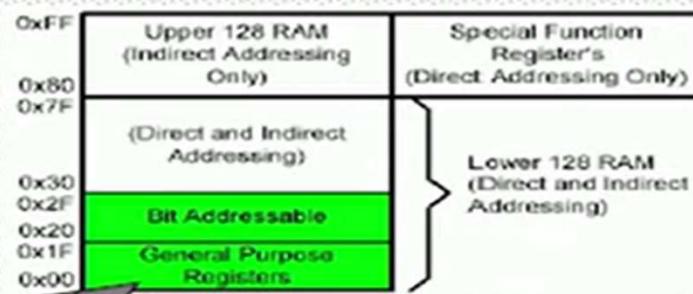


Registers

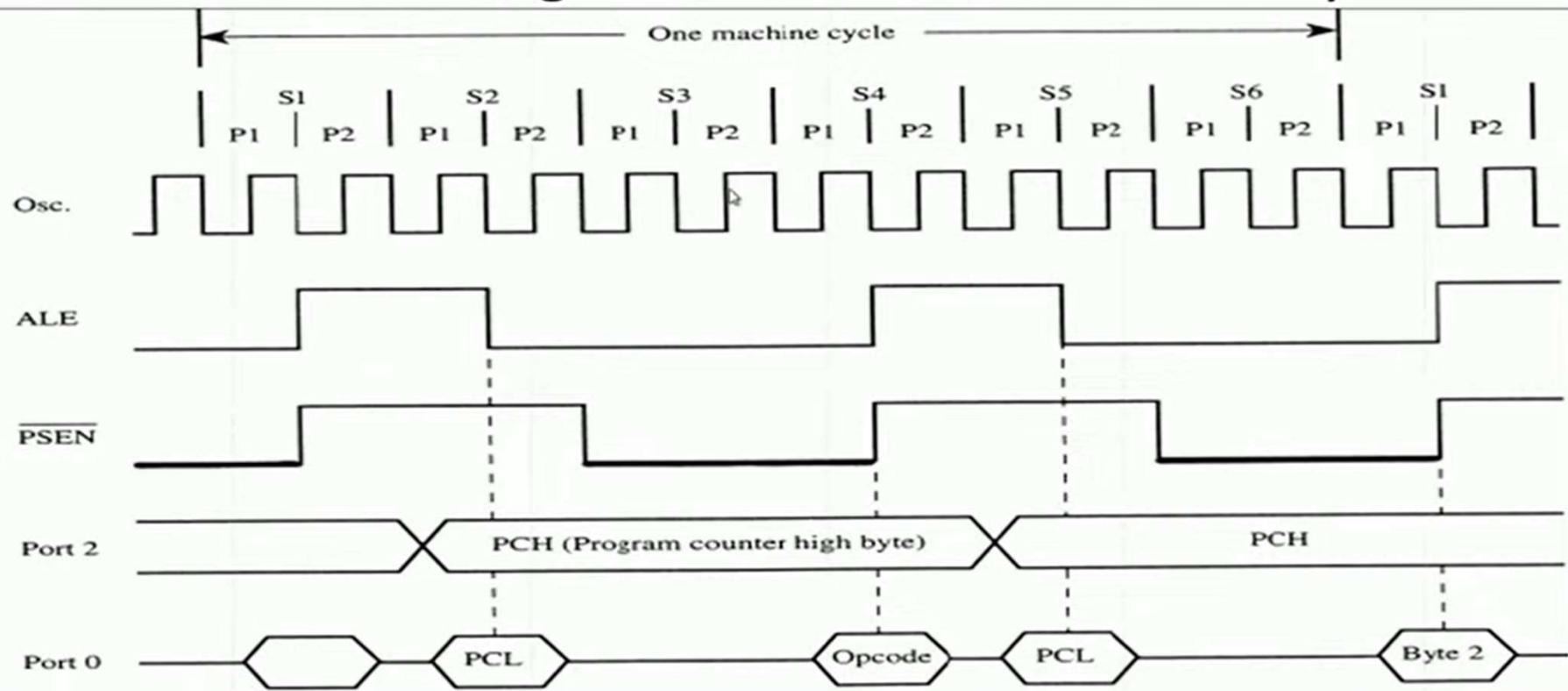


Bank 3
Bank 2
Bank 1
Bank 0

Four Register Banks
Each bank has R0-R7
Selectable by psw.2,3



Read Timing for External Code Memory

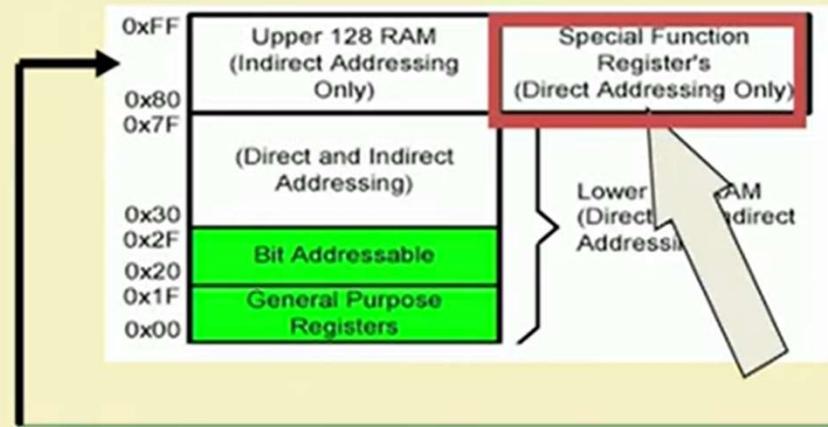


Special Function Registers

DATA registers

CONTROL registers

- ❖ Timers
- ❖ Serial ports
- ❖ Interrupt system
- ❖ Analog to Digital converter
- ❖ Digital to Analog converter
- ❖ Etc.



Addresses 80h - FFh

Direct Addressing used to access SPRs

Summary of the 8051 on-chip data memory (RAM)

Bit Addressable RAM

RAM

Byte address	Bit address							
27	3F	3E	3D	3C	3B	3A	39	38
26	37	36	35	34	33	32	31	30
25	2F	2E	2D	2C	2B	2A	29	28
24	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20
23	1F	1E	1D	1C	1B	1A	19	18
22	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10
21	0F	0E	0D	0C	0B	0A	09	08
20	07	06	05	04	03	02	01	00
1F	Bank 3							
18	Bank 2							
17	Bank 1							
10	Default register bank for R0-R7							
0F								
08								
07								
00								

Bit-addressable locations

Byte address	Bit address							
7F	General purpose RAM							
30	7F	7E	7D	7C	7B	7A	79	78
2F	77	76	75	74	73	72	71	70
2E	6F	6E	6D	6C	6B	6A	69	68
2D	67	66	65	64	63	62	61	60
2C	5F	5E	5D	5C	5B	5A	59	58
2B	57	56	55	54	53	52	51	50
2A	4F	4E	4D	4C	4B	4A	49	48
29	47	46	45	44	43	42	41	40
28								

Bit-addressable locations

Bit Addressable RAM

Summary
of the 8051
on-chip
data
memory
(Special
Function
Registers)

Byte address	Bit address	Byte address	Bit address	
98	9F 9E 9D 9C 9B 9A 99 98	SCON	FF	B
90	97 96 95 94 93 92 91 90	P1	F0	ACC
8D	not bit addressable	TH1	E0	PSW
8C	not bit addressable	TH0	D0	
8B	not bit addressable	TL1		
8A	not bit addressable	TL0	B8	IP
89	not bit addressable	TMOD		
88	8F 8E 8D 8C 8B 8A 89 88	TCON	B0	P3
87	not bit addressable	PCON		
83	not bit addressable	DPH	A8	IE
82	not bit addressable	DPL	A0	P2
81	not bit addressable	SP		
80	87 86 85 84 83 82 81 80	P0	99	SBUF

Register Banks

- ❑ Active bank selected by PSW [RS1,RS0] bit
- ❑ Permits fast “context switching” in interrupt service routines (ISR).

PSW: PROGRAM STATUS WORD. BIT ADDRESSABLE.

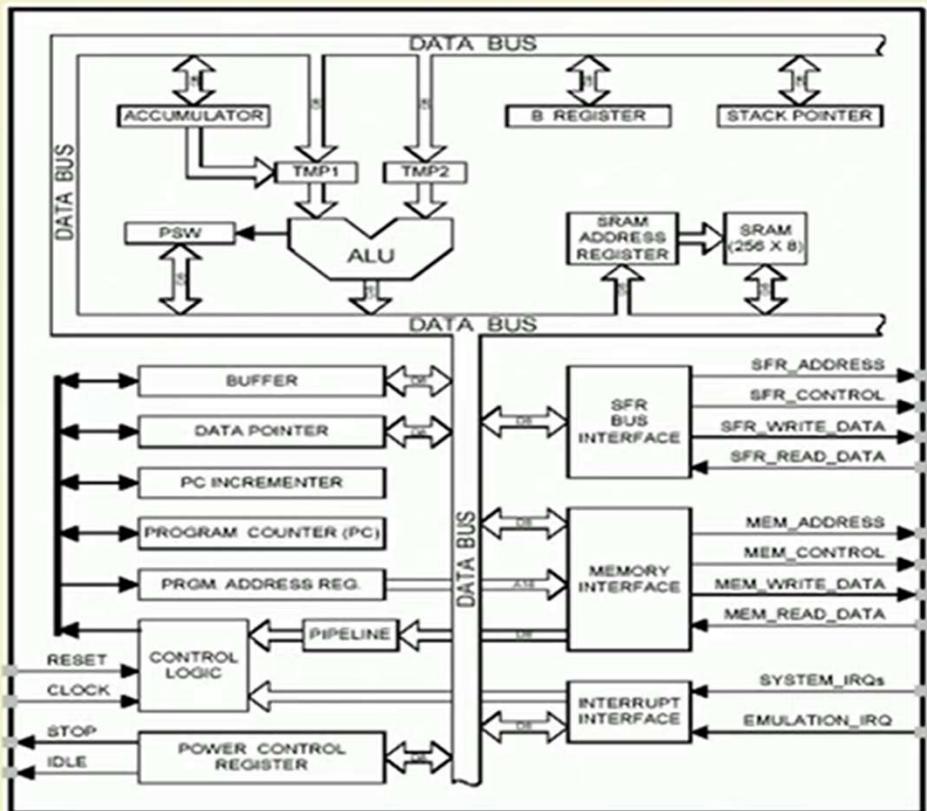
CY	AC	F0	RS1	RS0	OV	—	P
CY	PSW.7	Carry Flag.					
AC	PSW.6	Auxiliary Carry Flag.					
F0	PSW.5	Flag 0 available to the user for general purpose.					
RS1	PSW.4	Register Bank selector bit 1 (SEE NOTE 1).					
RS0	PSW.3	Register Bank selector bit 0 (SEE NOTE 1).					
OV	PSW.2	Overflow Flag.					
—	PSW.1	User definable flag.					
P	PSW.0	Parity flag. Set/cleared by hardware each instruction cycle to indicate an odd/even number of '1' bits in the accumulator.					

NOTE:

1. The value presented by RS0 and RS1 selects the corresponding register bank.

RS1	RS0	Register Bank	Address
0	0	0	00H-07H
0	1	1	08H-0FH
1	0	2	10H-17H
1	1	3	18H-1FH

8051 CPU Registers



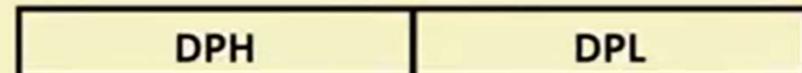
- A (Accumulator)
- B
- PSW (Program Status Word)
- SP (Stack Pointer)
- PC (Program Counter)
- DPTR (Data Pointer)

Used in assembler
instructions

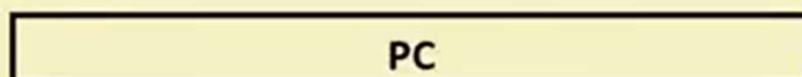
Registers



DPTR



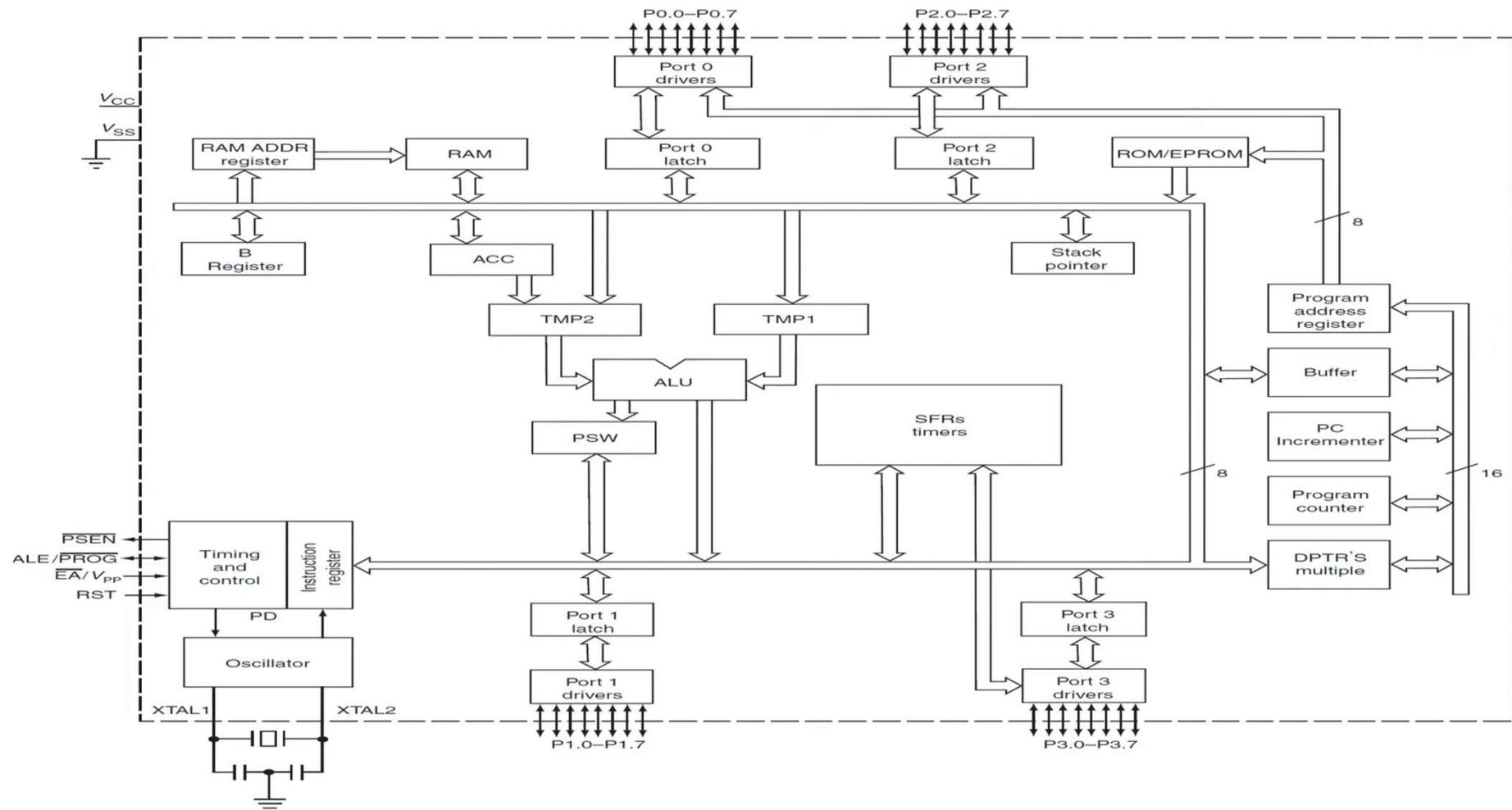
PC



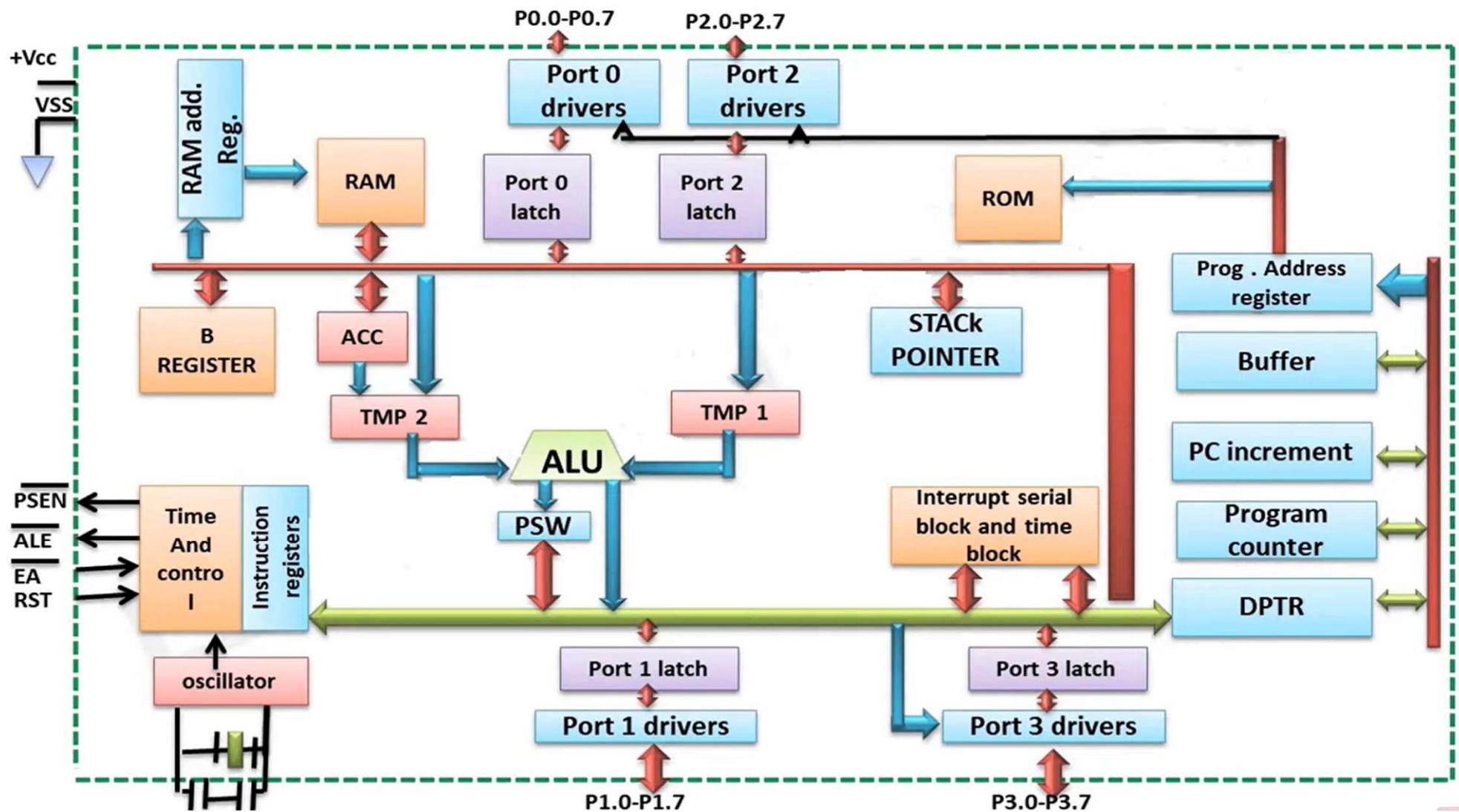
Some 8051 16-bit Register

Some 8-bit Registers of the 8051

Microcontroller 8051- Architecture



Microcontroller 8051- Architecture



FLAG BITS AND PSW REGISTER

Program Status Word (cont')

The result of signed number operation is too large, causing the high-order bit to overflow into the sign bit

		CY	AC	F0	RS1	RS0	OV	--	P
CY	PSW.7	Carry flag.					A carry from D3 to D4		
AC	PSW.6						Carry out from the d7 bit		
--	PSW.5						Available to the user for general purpose		
RS1	PSW.4						Register Bank selector bit 1.		
RS0	PSW.3						Register Bank selector bit 0.		
OV	PSW.2						Overflow flag.		
--	PSW.1						User definable bit.	Reflect the number of 1s in register A	
P	PSW.0						Parity flag. Set/cleared by hardware each instruction cycle to indicate an odd/even number of 1 bits in the accumulator.		

RS1	RS0	Register Bank	Address
0	0	0	00H – 07H
0	1	1	08H – 0FH
1	0	2	10H – 17H
1	1	3	18H – 1FH

FLAG BITS AND PSW REGISTER

ADD Instruction And PSW

Instructions that affect flag bits

Instruction	CY	OV	AC
ADD	X	X	X
ADDC	X	X	X
SUBB	X	X	X
MUL	0	X	
DIV	0	X	
DA	X		
RPC	X		
PLC	X		
SETB C	1		
CLR C	0		
CPL C	X		
ANL C, bit	X		
ANL C, /bit	X		
ORL C, bit	X		
ORL C, /bit	X		
MOV C, bit	X		
CJNE	X		

FLAG BITS AND PSW REGISTER

ADD Instruction And PSW (cont')

- The flag bits affected by the ADD instruction are CY, P, AC, and OV

Example 2-2

Show the status of the CY, AC and P flag after the addition of 38H and 2FH in the following instructions.

MOV A, #38H

ADD A, #2FH ;after the addition A=67H, CY=0

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r} 38 \quad 00111000 \\ + 2F \quad \underline{00101111} \\ \hline 67 \quad 01100111 \end{array}$$

CY = 0 since there is no carry beyond the D7 bit

AC = 1 since there is a carry from the D3 to the D4 bit

P = 1 since the accumulator has an odd number of 1s (it has five 1s)

FLAG BITS AND PSW REGISTER

ADD Instruction And PSW (cont')

Example 2-3

Show the status of the CY, AC and P flag after the addition of 9CH and 64H in the following instructions.

MOV A, #9CH

ADD A, #64H ;after the addition A=00H, CY=1

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r} 9C \quad 10011100 \\ + \underline{64} \quad \underline{01100100} \\ \hline 100 \quad 00000000 \end{array}$$

CY = 1 since there is a carry beyond the D7 bit

AC = 1 since there is a carry from the D3 to the D4 bit

P = 0 since the accumulator has an even number of 1s (it has zero 1s)

FLAG BITS AND PSW REGISTER

ADD Instruction And PSW (cont')

Example 2-4

Show the status of the CY, AC and P flag after the addition of 88H and 93H in the following instructions.

```
MOV A, #88H  
ADD A, #93H ;after the addition A=1BH, CY=1
```

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r} 88 \quad 10001000 \\ + \underline{93} \quad \underline{10010011} \\ \hline 11B \quad 00011011 \end{array}$$

CY = 1 since there is a carry beyond the D7 bit

AC = 0 since there is no carry from the D3 to the D4 bit

P = 0 since the accumulator has an even number of 1s (it has four 1s)

The 8051 Assembly Language

**8051
ASSEMBLY
PROGRAMMING**

**Structure of
Assembly
Language**

- ❑ **Assembly language instruction includes**
 - a mnemonic (abbreviation easy to remember)
 - the commands to the CPU, telling it what those to do with those items
 - optionally followed by one or two operands
 - the data items being manipulated
- ❑ **A given Assembly language program is a series of statements, or lines**
 - Assembly language instructions
 - Tell the CPU what to do
 - Directives (or pseudo-instructions)
 - Give directions to the assembler

8051 ASSEMBLY PROGRAMMING

Structure of Assembly Language

Mnemonics
produce
opcodes

- An Assembly language instruction consists of four fields:

[label:] Mnemonic [operands] [;comment]

```
ORG 0H ; start(origin) at location
        0
MOV R5, #25H ; load 25H into R5
MOV R7, #34H ; load 34H into R7
MOV A, #0 ; load 0 into A
ADD A, R5 ; add contents of R5 to A
            ; now A = A + R5
ADD A, R7 ; add contents of R7 to A
            ; now A = A + R7
ADD A, #12H ; add to A value 12H
            ; now A = A + 12H
HERE: SJMP HERE ; stay in this loop
END ; end of program
```

The label field allows
the program to refer to a
line of code by name

Directives do not
generate any machine
code and are used
only by the assembler

Comments may be at the end of a
line or on a line by themselves
The assembler ignores comments

ASSEMBLING AND RUNNING AN 8051 PROGRAM

- **The step of Assembly language program are outlines as follows:**
 - 1) First we use an editor to type a program, many excellent editors or word processors are available that can be used to create and/or edit the program
 - Notice that the editor must be able to produce an ASCII file
 - For many assemblers, the file names follow the usual DOS conventions, but the source file has the extension “asm” or “src”, depending on which assembly you are using

ASSEMBLING AND RUNNING AN 8051 PROGRAM (cont')

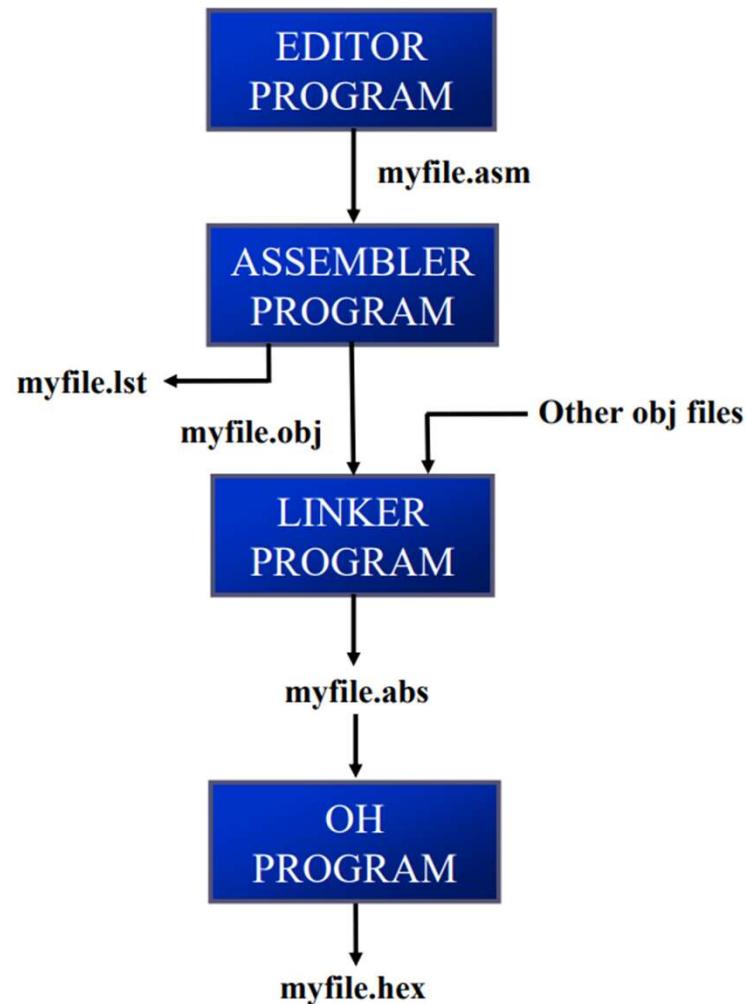
- 2) The “asm” source file containing the program code created in step 1 is fed to an 8051 assembler**
 - The assembler converts the instructions into machine code
 - The assembler will produce an object file and a list file
 - The extension for the object file is “obj” while the extension for the list file is “lst”
- 3) Assembler require a third step called *linking***
 - The linker program takes one or more object code files and produce an absolute object file with the extension “abs”
 - This abs file is used by 8051 trainers that have a monitor program

ASSEMBLING AND RUNNING AN 8051 PROGRAM (cont')

- 4) Next the “abs” file is fed into a program called “OH” (object to hex converter) which creates a file with extension “hex” that is ready to burn into ROM
 - This program comes with all 8051 assemblers
 - Recent Windows-based assemblers combine step 2 through 4 into one step

ASSEMBLING AND RUNNING AN 8051 PROGRAM

**Steps to Create
a Program**



PROGRAM COUNTER AND ROM SPACE

Placing Code in ROM

- ❑ Examine the list file and how the code is placed in ROM

```
1 0000      ORG 0H          ;start (origin) at 0
2 0000 7D25    MOV R5,#25H   ;load 25H into R5
3 0002 7F34    MOV R7,#34H   ;load 34H into R7
4 0004 7400    MOV A,#0     ;load 0 into A
5 0006 2D      ADD A,R5    ;add contents of R5 to A
                      ;now A = A + R5
6 0007 2F      ADD A,R7    ;add contents of R7 to A
                      ;now A = A + R7
7 0008 2412    ADD A,#12H   ;add to A value 12H
                      ;now A = A + 12H
8 000A 80EF    HERE: SJMP HERE ;stay in this loop
9 000C      END            ;end of asm source file
```

ROM Address	Machine Language	Assembly Language
0000	7D25	MOV R5, #25H
0002	7F34	MOV R7, #34H
0004	7400	MOV A, #0
0006	2D	ADD A, R5
0007	2F	ADD A, R7
0008	2412	ADD A, #12H
000A	80EF	HERE: SJMP HERE

PROGRAM COUNTER AND ROM SPACE

Placing Code in ROM (cont')

- After the program is burned into ROM, the opcode and operand are placed in ROM memory location starting at 0000

ROM contents

Address	Code
0000	7D
0001	25
0002	7F
0003	34
0004	74
0005	00
0006	2D
0007	2F
0008	24
0009	12
000A	80
000B	FE

Overview

- Data transfer instructions
- Addressing modes
- Data processing (arithmetic and logic)
- Program flow instructions

Data Transfer Instructions

- MOV dest, source
- Stack instructions

$\text{dest} \leftarrow \text{source}$

PUSH byte ;increment stack pointer,
;move byte on stack

POP byte ;move from stack to byte,
;decrement stack pointer

- Exchange instructions

XCH a, byte ;exchange accumulator and byte

XCHD a, byte ;exchange low nibbles of
;accumulator and byte

Addressing Modes

Immediate Mode – specify data by its **value**

mov A, #0 ;put 0 in the accumulator

mov R4, #11h ;put 11hex in the R4 register

mov B, #11 ;put 11 decimal in b register

mov DPTR, #7521h ;put 7521 hex in DPTR

Addressing Modes

Immediate Mode – specify data by its **value**

```
mov A, #0          ;put 0 in the accumulator  
;A = 00000000  
  
mov R4, #11h       ;put 11hex in the R4 register  
;R4 = 00010001  
  
mov B, #11          ;put 11 decimal in b register  
;B = 00001011  
  
mov DPTR,#7521h    ;put 7521 hex in DPTR  
;DPTR = 0111010100100001
```

Addressing Modes

Register Addressing – either source or destination is one of CPU register

MOV R0,A

MOV A,R7

ADD A,R4

Note that **MOV R4,R7** is incorrect

ADD A,R7

MOV DPTR,#25F5H

MOV R5,DPL

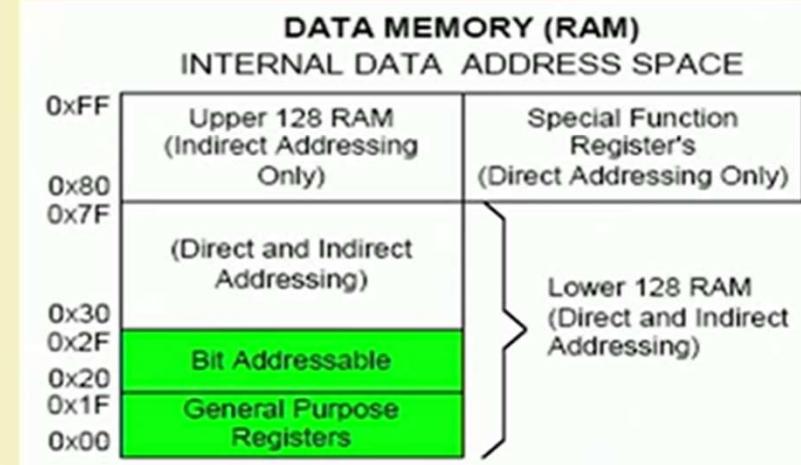
MOV R,DPH

Addressing Modes

Direct Mode – specify data by its 8-bit address

Usually for 30h-7Fh of RAM

```
Mov a, 70h      ; copy contents of RAM at 70h to a  
Mov R0, 40h    ; copy contents of RAM at 40h to R0  
Mov 56h,a      ; put contents of a at 56h  
Mov 0D0h,a      ; put contents of a into PSW
```



Addressing Modes

Register Indirect – the address of the source or destination is specified in registers

Uses registers R0 or R1 for **8-bit** address:

```
mov psw, #0          ; use register bank 0
mov r0, #0x3C
mov @r0, #3          ; memory at 3C gets #3
                      ; M[3C] ← 3
```

Uses DPTR register for **16-bit** addresses:

```
mov dptr, #0x9000    ; dptr ← 9000h
movx a, @dptr        ; a ← M[9000]
```

Note that 9000 is an address in external memory

Addressing Modes

Register Indexed Mode – source or destination address is the sum of the base address and the accumulator(Index)

- Base address can be DPTR or PC

```
mov dptr, #4000h  
mov a, #5  
movc a, @a + dptr ; a ← M[4005]
```

Addressing Modes

Register Indexed Mode continue

- Base address can be DPTR or PC

```
ORG 1000h
1000  mov a, #5
1002  movc a, @a + PC    ;a ← M[1008]
PC → 1003  Nop
```

- Table Lookup
- MOVC **only** can read internal code memory

Acc Register

- A register can be accessed by direct and register mode
- This 3 instruction has same function with different code

0703 E500

mov a,00h

0705 8500E0

mov acc,00h

0708 8500E0

mov 0e0h,00h

- Also this 3 instruction

070B E9

mov a,r1

070C 89E0

mov acc,r1

070E 89E0

mov 0e0h,r1

SFRs Address

- B – always direct mode - except in MUL & DIV

0703 8500F0	mov b,00h
0706 8500F0	mov 0f0h,00h
0709 8CF0	mov b,r4
070B 8CF0	mov 0f0h,r4

- P0~P3 – are direct address

0704 F580	mov p0,a
0706 F580	mov 80h,a
0708 859080	mov p0,p1

- Also other SFRs (pcon, tmmod, psw,...)

SFRs Address

All SFRs such as

(ACC, B, PCON, TMOD, PSW, P0~P3, ...)

are accessible by name and direct address

But

both of them

Must be coded as direct address

8051 Instruction Format

- immediate addressing

Op code	Immediate data
add a,#3dh	;machine code= 243d

- Direct addressing

Op code	Direct address
mov r3.0E8h	;machine code= ABE8

8051 Instruction Format

- Register addressing

Op code	n	n	n
---------	---	---	---

070D E8	mov	a,	r0	;E8 = 1110 1000
070E E9	mov	a,	r1	;E9 = 1110 1001
070F EA	mov	a,	r2	;EA = 1110 1010
0710 ED	mov	a,	r5	;ED = 1110 1101
0711 EF	mov	a,	r7	;Ef = 1110 1111
0712 2F	add	a,	r7	
0713 F8	mov	r0,	a	
0714 F9	mov	r1,	a	
0715 FA	mov	r2,	a	
0716 FD	mov	r5,	a	
0717 FD	mov	r5,	a	

8051 Instruction Format

❑ relative addressing



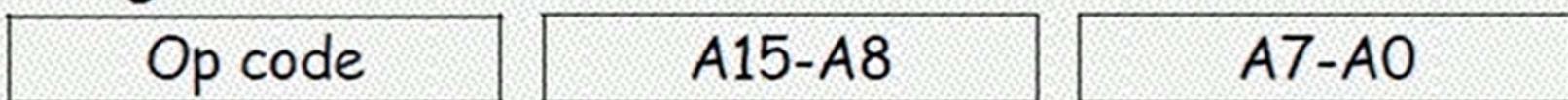
here: sjmp here ;machine code=80FE (FE=-2)
Range = (-128 ~ 127)

❑ Absolute addressing (limited in 2k current mem block)

A10-A8	Op code	A7-A0	
0700		1	org 0700h
0700 E106		2	ajmp next ;next=706h
0702 00		3	nop
0703 00		4	nop
0704 00		5	nop
0705 00		6	nop
		7	next:
		8	end

8051 Instruction Format

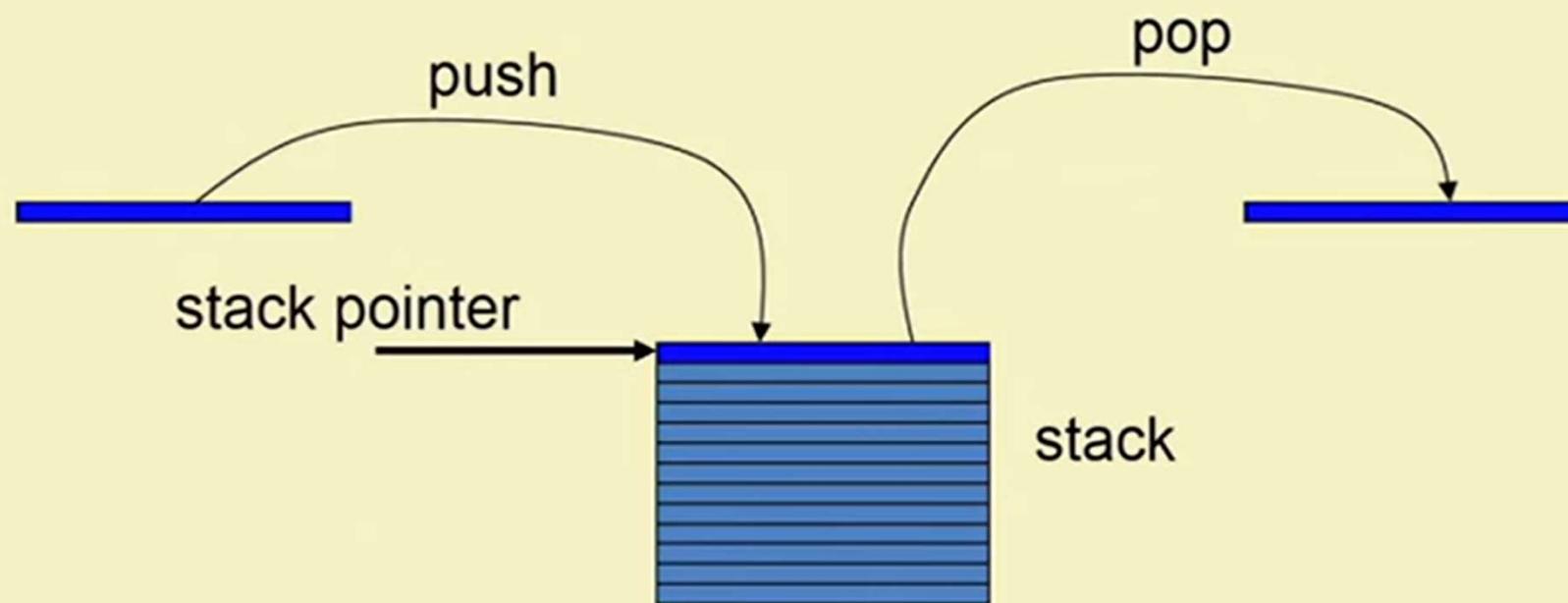
□ Long distance address



Range = (0000h ~ FFFFh)

0700	1	ora 0700h
0700 020707	2	ljmp next ;next=0707h
0703 00	3	nop
0704 00	4	nop
0705 00	5	nop
0706 00	6	nop
	7	next:
	8	end

Stacks



Stack

- Stack-oriented data transfer
 - Only one operand (**direct** addressing)
 - SP is other operand – register indirect - implied
- Direct addressing mode must be used in Push and Pop

```
mov sp, #0x40 ; Initialize SP
push 0x55      ; SP ← SP+1, M[SP] ← M[55]
                ; M[41] ← M[55]
pop b          ; b ← M[55]
```

Note: can only specify RAM or SFRs (direct mode) to push or pop. Therefore, to push/pop the accumulator, must use **acc**, not **a**

Stack (push, pop)

- Therefore

```
Push a      ;is invalid  
Push r0     ;is invalid  
Push r1     ;is invalid

---

push acc    ;is correct  
Push psw    ;is correct  
Push b      ;is correct  
Push 13h  
Push 0  
Push 1  
Pop 7  
Pop 8  
Push 0e0h   ;acc  
Pop 0f0h   ;b
```

Exchange Instructions

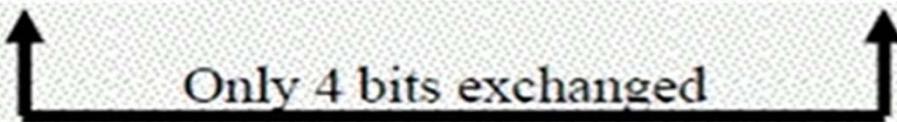
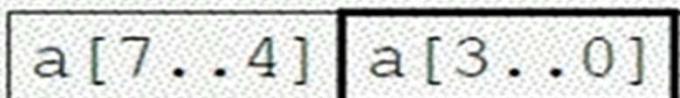
two way data transfer

XCH a, 30h ; a \leftrightarrow M[30]

XCH a, R0 ; a \leftrightarrow R0

XCH a, @R0 ; a \leftrightarrow M[R0]

XCHD a, R0 ; exchange "digit"



Bit-Oriented Data Transfer

- transfers between individual bits.
- Carry flag (C) (bit 7 in the PSW) is used as a single-bit accumulator
- RAM bits in addresses 20-2F are bit addressable

mov C, P0.0

mov C, 67h

mov C, 2ch.7

Byte address	Bit address							
27	3F	3E	3D	3C	3B	3A	39	38
26	37	36	35	34	33	32	31	30
25	2F	2E	2D	2C	2B	2A	29	28
24	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20
23	1F	1E	1D	1C	1B	1A	19	18
22	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10
21	0F	0E	0D	0C	0B	0A	09	08
20	07	06	05	04	03	02	01	00
1F	Bank 3							
18	Bank 2							
17	Bank 1							
10	Default register bank for R0-R7							

Byte address	Bit address							
7F	7F	7E	7D	7C	7B	7A	79	78
7E	77	76	75	74	73	72	71	70
7D	6F	6E	6D	6C	6B	6A	69	68
7C	67	66	65	64	63	62	61	60
7B	5F	5E	5D	5C	5B	5A	59	58
7A	57	56	55	54	53	52	51	50
29	4F	4E	4D	4C	4B	4A	49	48
28	47	46	45	44	43	42	41	40

SFRs that are Bit Addressable

SFRs with addresses ending in 0 or 8 are bit-addressable.
(80, 88, 90, 98, etc)

Notice that all 4 parallel I/O ports are bit addressable.

	Byte address	Bit address		Byte address	Bit address	
	98	9F 9E 9D 9C 9B 9A 99 98		SCON	FF	
					F0	F7 F6 F5 F4 F3 F2 F1 F0
	90	97 96 95 94 93 92 91 90		P1		
					E0	E7 E6 E5 E4 E3 E2 E1 E0
	8D	not bit addressable		TH1		
	8C	not bit addressable		TH0	D0	D7 D6 D5 D4 D3 D2 - D0
	8B	not bit addressable		TL1		
	8A	not bit addressable		TL0	B8	- - - BC BB BA B9 B8
	89	not bit addressable		TMOD		
	88	8F 8E 8D 8C 8B 8A 89 88		TCON	B0	B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0
				PCON		
	87	not bit addressable			A8	AF - - AC AB AA A9 A8
				DPH		
	83	not bit addressable		DPL	A0	A7 A6 A5 A4 A3 A2 A1 A0
	82	not bit addressable		SP		
	81	not bit addressable		P0	99	not bit addressable
	80	87 86 85 84 83 82 81 80		SBUF		

Data Processing Instructions

Arithmetic Instructions

Logic Instructions

Arithmetic Instructions

- Add
- Subtract
- Increment
- Decrement
- Multiply
- Divide
- Decimal adjust

Arithmetic Instructions

Mnemonic	Description
ADD A, byte	add A to byte, put result in A
ADDC A, byte	add with carry
SUBB A, byte	subtract with borrow
INC A	increment A
INC byte	increment byte in memory
INC DPTR	increment data pointer
DEC A	decrement accumulator
DEC byte	decrement byte
MUL AB	multiply accumulator by b register
DIV AB	divide accumulator by b register
DA A	decimal adjust the accumulator

ADD Instructions

add a, byte ; $a \leftarrow a + \text{byte}$

addc a, byte ; $a \leftarrow a + \text{byte} + C$

These instructions affect 3 bits in PSW:

C = 1 if result of add is greater than FF

AC = 1 if there is a carry out of bit 3

OV = 1 if there is a carry out of bit 7, but not from bit 6, or visa versa.

Program Status Word (PSW)

Bit	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
Flag	CY	AC	F0	RS1	RS0	OV	F1	P
Name	Carry Flag	Auxiliary Carry Flag	User Flag 0	Register Bank Select 1	Register Bank Select 0	Overflow flag	User Flag 1	Parity Bit

Instructions that Affect PSW bits

Instructions that Affect Flag Settings⁽¹⁾

Instruction	Flag	Instruction	Flag
	C OV AC		C OV AC
ADD	X X X	CLR C	0
ADDC	X X X	CPL C	X
SUBB	X X X	ANL C,bit	X
MUL	0 X	ANL C,/bit	X
DIV	0 X	ORL C,bit	X
DA	X	ORL C,/bit	X
RRC	X	MOV C,bit	X
RLC	X	CJNE	X
SETB C	1		



Signed Addition and Overflow

2's complement:

0000	0000	00	0
...			
0111	1111	7F	127
1000	0000	80	-128
...			
1111	1111	FF	-1

0111 1111 (positive 127)
0111 0011 (positive 115)

1111 0010 (overflow)
cannot represent 242 in 8
bits 2's complement)
1000 1111 (negative 113)
1101 0011 (negative 45)

0110 0010 (overflow)
0011 1111 (positive)

1101 0011 (negative)

0001 0010 (never overflows)

Addition Example

```
; Computes Z = X + Y
; Adds values at locations 78h and 79h and puts them in 7Ah
;-----
X      equ    78h
Y      equ    79h
Z      equ    7Ah
;-----
        org 00h
        ljmp Main
;-----
        org 100h
Main:
        mov a, X
        add a, Y
        mov Z, a
        end
```

The 16-bit ADD example

; Computes Z = X + Y (X,Y,Z are 16 bit)

```
X      equ      78h  
Y      equ      7Ah  
Z      equ      7Ch
```

```
org 00h  
ljmp Main
```

```
org 100h
```

Main:

```
    mov a, X  
    add a, Y  
    mov Z, a  
    mov a, X+1  
    adc a, Y+1  
    mov Z+1, a  
    end
```

Subtract

SUBB A, byte

subtract with borrow

Example:

SUBB A, #0x4F ;A \leftarrow A - 4F - C

Notice that

There is no subtraction WITHOUT borrow.

Therefore, if a subtraction without borrow is desired,
it is necessary to clear the C flag.

Example:

Clr c

SUBB A, #0x4F ;A \leftarrow A - 4F

Increment and Decrement

INC A	increment A
INC byte	increment byte in memory
INC DPTR	increment data pointer
DEC A	decrement accumulator
DEC byte	decrement byte

- The increment and decrement instructions do **NOT** affect the C flag.
- Notice we can **only** INCREMENT the data pointer, not decrement.

Example: Increment 16-bit Word

- Assume 16-bit word in R3:R2

```
mov a, r2
add a, #1      ; use add rather than increment to affect C
mov r2, a
mov a, r3
addc a, #0     ; add C to most significant byte
mov r3, a
```

Multiply

When multiplying two 8-bit numbers, the size of the maximum product is 16-bits

$$\text{FF} \times \text{FF} = \text{FE01}$$

$$(255 \times 255 = 65025)$$

MUL AB ; BA \leftarrow A * B

Note : B gets the High byte

A gets the Low byte

Division

- Integer Division

DIV AB ; divide A by B

A \leftarrow Quotient (A/B)

B \leftarrow Remainder (A/B)

OV - used to indicate a divide by zero condition.

C – set to zero

Decimal Adjust

DA a ; decimal adjust a

Used to facilitate BCD addition.

Adds “6” to either high or low nibble after an addition to create a valid BCD number.

Example:

```
mov a, #23h
mov b, #29h
add a, b          ; a ← 23h + 29h = 4Ch (wanted 52)
DA a             ; a ← a + 6 = 52
```

Logic Instructions

- ❑ Bitwise logic operations
 - ❖ (AND, OR, XOR, NOT)
- ❑ Clear
- ❑ Rotate
- ❑ Swap

Logic instructions do **NOT** affect the flags in PSW

Bitwise Logic

ANL → AND

ORL → OR

XRL → XOR

CPL → Complement

Examples:

ANL $\begin{array}{r} 00001111 \\ 10101100 \\ \hline 00001100 \end{array}$

ORL $\begin{array}{r} 00001111 \\ 10101100 \\ \hline 10101111 \end{array}$

XRL $\begin{array}{r} 00001111 \\ 10101100 \\ \hline 10100011 \end{array}$

CPL $\begin{array}{r} 10101100 \\ 01010011 \end{array}$

Address Modes with Logic

ANL – AND

ORL – OR

XRL – eXclusive oR

a, byte

↑
direct, reg. indirect, reg,
immediate

byte, a

↑
direct

byte, #constant

CPL – Complement

a

ex: cpl a

Uses of Logic Instructions

- Force individual bits low, without affecting other bits.

anl PSW, #0xE7 ; PSW AND 11100111

- Force individual bits high.

orl PSW, #0x18 ; PSW OR 00011000

- Complement individual bits

xrl P1, #0x40 ; P1 XRL 01000000

Other Logic Instructions

- CLR** – clear
- RL** – rotate left
- RLC** – rotate left through Carry
- RR** – rotate right
- RRC** – rotate right through Carry
- SWAP** – swap accumulator nibbles

CLR (Set all bits to 0)

CLR A

CLR byte

(direct mode)

CLR Ri

(register mode)

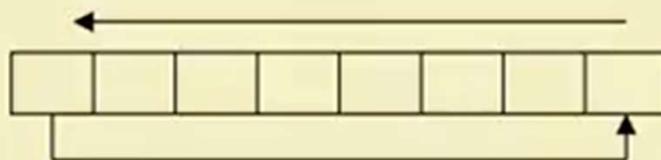
CLR @Ri

(register indirect mode)

Rotate

- Rotate instructions operate **only** on a

RL a



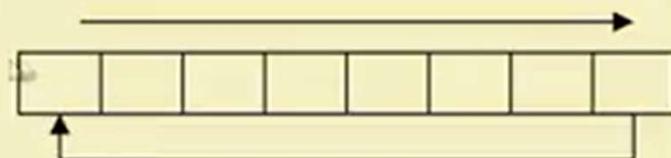
Mov a, #0xF0

; a \leftarrow 11110000

RR a

; a \leftarrow 11100001

RR a



Mov a, #0xF0

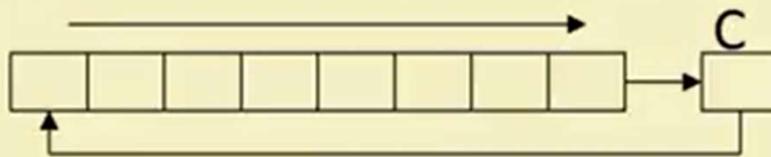
; a \leftarrow 11110000

RR a

; a \leftarrow 01111000

Rotate through Carry

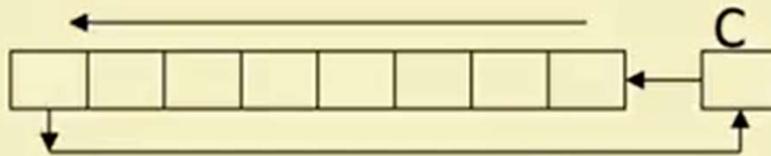
RRC a



```
mov a, #0A9h  
add a, #14h  
rrc a
```

; a \leftarrow A9
; a \leftarrow BD (10111101), C \leftarrow 0
; a \leftarrow 01011110, C \leftarrow 1

RLC a



```
mov a, #3ch  
setb c  
rlc a
```

; a \leftarrow 3ch (00111100)
; c \leftarrow 1
; a \leftarrow 01111001, C \leftarrow 1

Rotate and Multiplication/Division

- Note that a shift left is the same as multiplying by 2, shift right is divide by 2

```
mov a, #3      ; A← 00000011 (3)
clr C          ; C← 0
rlc a          ; A← 00000110 (6)
rlc a          ; A← 00001100 (12)
rrc a          ; A← 00000110 (6)
```

Swap

SWAP a



```
mov a, #72h ; a ← 72h  
swap a ; a ← 27h
```

Bit Logic Operations

- Some logic operations can be used with single bit operands

ANL C, bit

ORL C, bit

CLR C

CLR bit

CPL C

CPL bit

SETB C

SETB bit

- “bit” can be any of the bit-addressable RAM locations or SFRs.

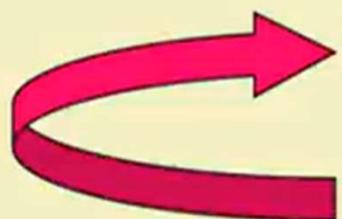
Program Flow Control

- Unconditional jumps (“go to”)
- Conditional jumps
- Call and return

Unconditional Jumps

- **SJMP <rel addr>** ; Short jump,
relative address is 8-bit 2's complement number, so
jump can be up to 127 locations forward, or 128
locations back.
- **LJMP <address 16>** ; Long jump
- **AJMP <address 11>** ; Absolute jump to
anywhere within 2K block of program memory
- **JMP @A + DPTR** ; Long indexed jump

Infinite Loops



```
Start: mov C, p3.7  
       mov p1.6, C  
       sjmp Start
```

Microcontroller application programs are almost always infinite loops!

Re-locatable Code

Memory specific NOT Re-locatable (machine code)

```
        org 8000h
Start: mov C, p1.6
        mov p3.7, C
    ljmp Start
        end
```

Re-locatable (machine code)

```
        org 8000h
Start: mov C, p1.6
        mov p3.7, C
    sjmp Start
        end
```

Jump table

```
Mov dptr,#jump_table  
Mov a,#index_number  
Rl a  
Jmp @a+dptr
```

...

```
Jump_table: ajmp case0  
            ajmp case1  
            ajmp case2  
            ajmp case3
```

Conditional Jump

- These instructions cause a jump to occur **only** if a condition is **true**. Otherwise, program execution continues with the next instruction.

```
loop: mov a, P1  
      jz loop      ; if a=0, goto loop,  
                  ; else goto next instruction  
      mov b, a
```

- There is **no** zero flag (**z**)
- Content of A checked for zero **on time**

Conditional jumps

Mnemonic	Description
JZ <rel addr>	Jump if a = 0
JNZ <rel addr>	Jump if a != 0
JC <rel addr>	Jump if C = 1
JNC <rel addr>	Jump if C != 1
JB <bit>, <rel addr>	Jump if bit = 1
JNB <bit>, <rel addr>	Jump if bit != 1
JBC <bit>, <rel addr>	Jump if bit =1, &clear bit
CJNE A, direct, <rel addr>	Compare A and memory, jump if not equal

Example: Conditional Jumps

```
if (a = 0) is true  
    send a 0 to LED  
else  
    send a 1 to LED
```

```
        jz led_off  
        Setb P1.6  
        sjmp skipover  
led_off: clr P1.6  
        mov A, P0  
skipover:
```

More Conditional Jumps

4

Mnemonic	Description
CJNE A, #data <rel addr>	Compare A and data, jump if not equal
CJNE Rn, #data <rel addr>	Compare Rn and data, jump if not equal
CJNE @Rn, #data <rel addr>	Compare Rn and memory, jump if not equal
DJNZ Rn, <rel addr>	Decrement Rn and then jump if not zero
DJNZ direct, <rel addr>	Decrement memory and then jump if not zero

Iterative Loops

For A = 0 to 4 do
{...}

```
    clr a
loop: ...
    ...
inc a
cjne a, #4, loop
```

For A = 4 to 0 do
{...}

```
    mov R0, #4
loop: ...
    ...
djnz R0, loop
```

Call and Return

- Call is similar to a jump, but
 - Call **pushes PC** on stack before branching

```
acall <address 11>      ; stack ← PC  
                          ; PC ← address 11 bit  
  
lcall <address 16>      ; stack ← PC  
                          ; PC ← address 16 bit
```

Return

- Return is also similar to a jump, but
 - Return instruction **pops PC** from stack to get address to jump to

ret

; PC ← stack

Subroutines

Main:

...

acall sublabel

...

...

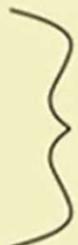
sublabel:

...

...

ret

call to the subroutine



the subroutine

Initializing Stack Pointer

- SP is initialized to 07 after reset.(Same address as R7)
- With each push operation 1st , pc is increased
- When using subroutines, the stack will be used to store the PC, so it is very important to initialize the stack pointer. Location **2Fh** is often used.

```
mov SP, #2Fh
```

Subroutine - Example

```
square: push b
        mov  b,a
        mul  ab
        pop  b
        ret
```

- 8 byte and 11 machine cycle

```
square: inc a
        movc a,@a+pc
        ret
table: db 0,1,4,9,16,25,36,49,64,81
```

- 13 byte and 5 machine cycle

example of delay

```
    mov a,#0aah  
Back1:mov p0,a  
      lcall delay1  
      cpl a  
      sjmp back1  
Delay1:mov r0,#0ffh;1cycle  
Here: djnz r0,here ;2cycle  
      ret           ;2cycle  
      end  
  
Delay=1+255*2+2=513 cycle
```

```
Delay2:  
      mov r6,#0ffh  
back1: mov r7,#0ffh ;1cycle  
Here: djnz r7,here ;2cycle  
      djnz r6,back1;2cycle  
      ret           ;2cycle  
      end
```

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Delay} &= 1 + (1 + 255 * 2 + 2) * 255 + 2 \\ &= 130818 \text{ machine cycle} \end{aligned}$$

Example

```
; p0:input  p1:output
        mov a,#0ffh
        mov p0,a
back:   mov a,p0
        mov p1,a
        sjmp back
```

Example

```
; duty cycle 50%
back:      cpl p1.2
            acall delay
            sjmp back
```

```
back:      setb p1.2
            acall delay
            Clr p1.2
            acall delay
            sjmp back
```

Example

```
; duty cycle 66%  
back:    setb p1.2  
            acall delay  
            acall delay  
            Clr p1.2  
            acall delay  
            sjmp back
```