AVR Microcontroller

Microprocessor Course
Third Chapter
BRANCH, CALL, AND TIME DELAY LOOP

Aban 1393

Loop is Repeating a sequence of instructions or an operation a certain number of times. The loop is one of most widely used programming techniques.

In the AVR, there are several ways to repeat an operation many times. One way is to repeat the operation over and over until it is finished, as shown below:

```
LDI R16,0 ;R16 = 0

LDI R17,3 ;R17 = 3

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0x03)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0x06)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0x09)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0x0C)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0xOF)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0xOF)

ADD R16,R17 ;add value 3 to R16 (R16 = 0x12)
```

One problem with the above program is that too much code space would be needed to increase the number of repetitions to 50 or 100.

Using BRNE instruction for looping

A much better way is to use a loop. The BRNE (branch if not equal) instruction uses the zero flag in the status register. The BRNE instruction is used as follows:

```
BACK: ; start of the loop
; body of the loop
; body of the loop

DEC Rn ; decrement Rn, Z = 1 if Rn = 0
BRNE BACK ; branch to BACK if Z = 0
```

Using BRNE instruction for looping

Example 3-1

Write a program to (a) clear R20, then (b) add 3 to R20 ten times, and (c) send the sum to PORTB. Use the zero flag and BRNE.

Solution:

```
;this program adds value 3 to the R20 ten times
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"

LDI R16, 10 ;R16 = 10 (decimal) for counter
LDI R20, 0 ;R20 = 0
LDI R21, 3 ;R21 = 3

AGAIN:ADD R20, R21 ;add 03 to R20 (R20 = sum)
DEC R16 ;decrement R16 (counter)
BRNE AGAIN ;repeat until COUNT = 0
OUT PORTB,R20 ;send sum to PORTB
```

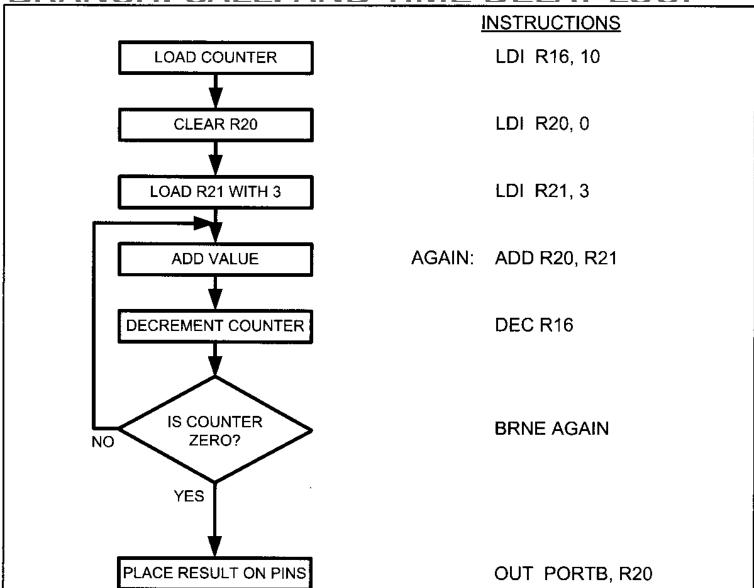


Figure 3-1. Flowchart for Example 3-1

Example 3-2

What is the maximum number of times that the loop in Example 3-1 can be repeated?

Solution:

Because location R16 is an 8-bit register, it can hold a maximum of 0xFF (255 decimal); therefore, the loop can be repeated a maximum of 255 times. Example 3-3 shows how to solve this limitation.

Loop inside a loop

What happens if we want to repeat an action more times than 255? To do that, we use a loop inside a loop, which is called a nested loop. In a nested loop, we use two registers to hold the count.

Example 3-3

Write a program to (a) load the PORTB register with the value 0x55, and (b) complement Port B 700 times.

Solution:

Because 700 is larger than 255 (the maximum capacity of any general purpose register), we use two registers to hold the count. The following code shows how to use R20 and R21 as a register for counters.

Loop inside a loop

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.ORG 0

LDI R16, 0x55 ;R16 = 0x55
OUT PORTB, R16 ;PORTB = 0x55
LDI R20, 10 ;load 10 into R20 (outer loop count)

LOP_1:LDI R21, 70 ;load 70 into R21 (inner loop count)

LOP_2:COM R16 ;complement R16
OUT PORTB, R16 ;load PORTB SFR with the complemented value
DEC R21 ;dec R21 (inner loop)
BRNE LOP_2 ;repeat it 70 times
DEC R20 ;dec R20 (outer loop)
BRNE LOP_1 ;repeat it 10 times
```

In this program, R21 is used to keep the inner loop count. In the instruction "BRNE LOP_2", whenever R21 becomes 0 it falls through and "DEC R20" is executed. The next instructions force the CPU to load the inner count with 70 if R20 is not zero, and the inner loop starts again. This process will continue until R20 becomes zero and the outer loop is finished.

Looping 100,000 times

Because two registers give us a maximum value of 65,025, we can use three registers to get up to more than 16 million (2^{24} iterations. The following code repeats an action 100,000 times:

```
LDI
           R16, 0x55
           PORTB, R16
     OUT
     LDI
           R23, 10
           R22, 100
LOP 3:LDI
LOP 2:LDI
           R21, 100
LOP 1:COM
           R16
     DEC
           R21
     BRNE LOP 1
     DEC
           R22
     BRNE LOP 2
     DEC
           R23
           LOP 3
     BRNE
```

Other conditional jumps

In Table 3-1 you see some of the Branch (Jump) Instructions conditional branches for the AVR. In Table 3-1 notice that the instructions, such as BREQ (Branch if Z = 1) and BRLO (Branch if C = I), jump only if a certain condition is met. Next, we examine some conditional branch instructions with examples.

Table 3-1: AVR Conditional

Instruction	Action
BRLO	Branch if $C = 1$
BRSH	Branch if $C = 0$
BREQ	Branch if $Z = 1$
BRNE	Branch if $Z = 0$
BRMI	Branch if $N = 1$
BRPL	Branch if $N = 0$
BRVS	Branch if $V = 1$
BRVC	Branch if $V = 0$

BREQ (branch if equal, branch if Z = 1)

In this instruction, the Z flag is checked. If it is high, the CPU jumps to the target address. For example, look at the following code.

```
OVER: IN R20,PINB ; read PINB and put it in R20
TST R20 ; set the flags according to R20
BREQ OVER ; jump if R20 is zero
```

In this program, if PINB is zero, the CPU jumps to the label OVER. It stays in the loop until PINB has a value other than zero.

BRSH (branch if same or higher, branch if C = 0)

In executing "BRSH", the processor looks at the carry flag to see if it is raised (C = 1). If it is not, the CPU starts to fetch and execute instructions from the address of the label. If C = 1, it will not branch but will execute the next instruction below BRSH.

Example 3-4

Write a program to determine if RAM location 0x200 contains the value 0. If so, put 0x55 into it.

Solution:

```
.EQU
            MYLOC=0x200
      LDS
            R30, MYLOC
      TST
            R30
                               ; set the flag
                               ; (Z=1 if R30 has zero value)
      BRNE
            NEXT
                               ;branch if R30 is not zero (Z=0)
            R30, 0x55
      LDI
                               ;put 0x55 if R30 has zero value
      STS
            MYLOC, R30
                               ;and store a copy to loc $200
NEXT: ...
```

3.1 BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS AND LOOPING

Example 3-5

Find the sum of the values 0x79, 0xF5, and 0xE2. Put the sum into R20 (low byte) and R21 (high byte).

Solution:

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.ORG 0
     LDI R21, 0 ; clear high byte (R21 = 0)
           R20, 0
                       ; clear low byte (R20 = 0)
     LDI
           R16, 0x79
      LDI
           R20, R16
                       ;R20 = 0 + 0x79 = 0x79, C = 0
      ADD
                       ; if C = 0, add next number
      BRSH
           N 1
      INC
           R21
                       ;C = 1, increment (now high byte = 0)
N 1: LDI
           R16. 0xF5
           R20, R16
                       ;R20 = 0x79 + 0xF5 = 0x6E \text{ and } C = 1
      ADD
      BRSH N 2
                       ; branch if C = 0
                       ;C = 1, increment (now high byte = 1)
      INC
           R21
N 2: LDI
           R16, 0xE2
           R20, R16
                       ;R20 = 0x6E + 0xE2 = 0x50 \text{ and } C = 1
      ADD
     BRSH
           OVER
                       ; branch if C = 0
      INC
           R21
                       ;C = 1, increment (now high byte = 2)
OVER:
                       ; now low byte = 0x50, and high byte = 02
```

	R21 (high byte)	R20 (low byte)
At first	\$0	\$00
Before LDI R16,0xF5	\$0	\$79
Before LDI R16,0xE2	\$1	\$6E
At the end	\$2	\$50

The other conditional branch instructions in Table 3-1 are discussed in Chapter 5 when arithmetic operations with signed numbers are discussed.

All conditional branches are short jumps

It must be noted that all conditional jumps are short jumps, meaning that the address of the target must be within 64 bytes of the program counter (PC). This concept is discussed next.

Calculating the short branch address

All conditional branches such as BRSH, BREQ, and BRNE are short branches due to the fact that they are all 2-byte instructions. In these instructions the opcode is 9 bits and the relative address is 7 bits.

The target address is relative to the value of the program counter.

If the relative address is positive, the jump is forward.

If the relative address is negative, then the jump is backwards.

The relative address can be a value from -64 to +63.

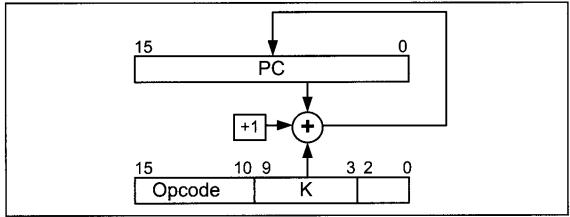


Figure 3-3. Calculating the Target Address in Conditional Branch Instructions

3.1 BRANCH INSTRUCTIONS AND LOOPING

Example 3-7

Verify the calculation of backward jumps for the listing of Example 3-1, shown below.

Solution:

```
LINE
        ADDRESS Machine Mnemonic Operand
                                          R16, 10
                                                       ;R16 = 10 (decimal) for counter
3:
        +00000000: E00A
                               LDI
                                          R20, 0 ; R20 = 0
R21, 3 ; R21 = 3
R20, R21 ; add 03 to R20 (R20 = sum)
R16 ; decrement R16 (counter)
AGAIN ; repeat until COUNT = 0
        +00000001: E040
                               LDI
                               LDI
       +00000002: E053
       +00000003: 0F45 AGAIN:ADD
    +00000004: 950A
                               DEC
    +00000005: F7E9
                               BRNE
                                          PORTB, R20
       +00000006: BB48
                                                          ; send sum to PORTB SFR
                               OUT
```

In the program list, "BRNE AGAIN" has machine code F7E9. Because the binary equivalent of the instruction is 1111 0111 1110 1000, the opcode is 111101001 and the operand (relative address) is 1111101. The 1111101 gives us -3, which means the displacement is -3.

When the relative address of -3 is added to 000006, the address of the instruction below, we have -3 + 06 = 03 (the carry is dropped). Notice that 000003 is the address of the label AGAIN. 1111101 is a negative number, which means it will branch backward.

Unconditional branch instruction

The unconditional branch is a jump in which control is transferred unconditionally to the target location. In the AVR there are three unconditional branches:

```
JMP (jump),
RJMP (relative jump), and
IJMP (indirect jump).
```

Deciding which one to use depends on the target address.

JMP (JMP is a long jump)

JMP is an unconditional jump that can go to any memory location in the 4M (word) address space of the AVR.

 $1001010k_{21}$ $k_{20}...k_{17}110k_{16}$ k_{15} ... k_{8} \mathbf{k}_{0} $0 \le k < 4M$ **Program Memory** 0x0000 Jump OP. instruction **16 LSB** PC **FlashEnd**

RJMP (relative jump)

In this 2-byte (16-bit) instruction, the first 4 bits are the opcode and the rest (lower 12 bits) is the relative address of the target location.

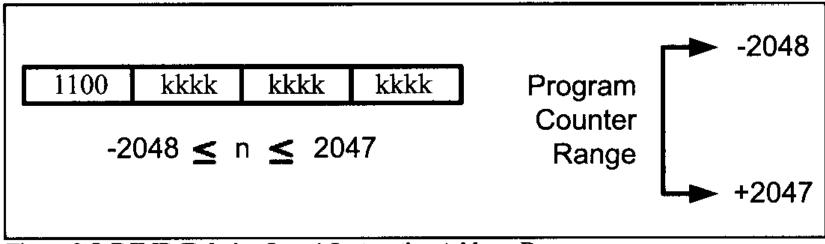


Figure 3-5. RJMP (Relative Jump) Instruction Address Range

IJMP (indirect jump)

IMP is a 2-byte instruction. When the instruction executes, the PC is loaded with the contents of the **Z register**, so it jumps to the address pointed to by the Z register.

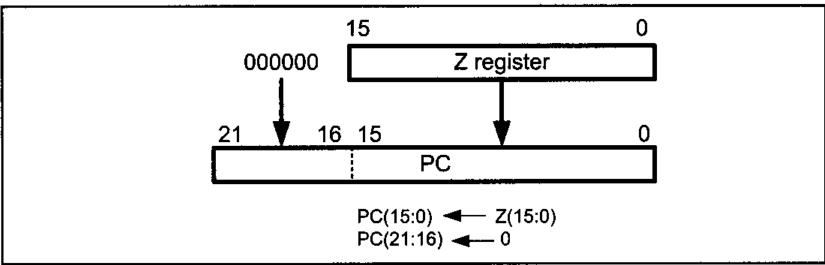


Figure 3-6. IJMP (Indirect Jump) Instruction Target Address

BRANCH, CALL, AND TIME DELAY LOOP 3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

CALL INSTRUCTIONS

Another control transfer instruction is the CALL instruction, which is used to call a subroutine. Subroutines are often used to perform tasks that need to be performed frequently. This makes a program more structured in addition to saving memory space. In the AVR there are four instructions for the call subroutine:

- CALL (long call)
- RCALL (relative call),
- ICALL (indirect 4 to Z), and
- EICALL (extended indirect *call to Z*).

The choice of which one to use depends on the target address.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

CALL

In this 4-byte (32-bit) instruction, 10 bits are used for the opcode and the other 22 bits, k21-k0, are used for the address of the target subroutine, just as in the JMP instruction.

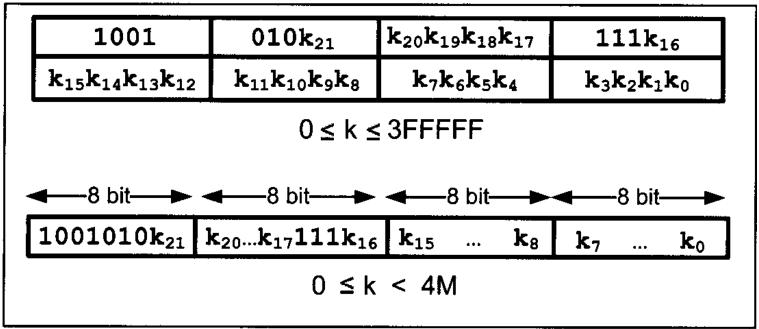


Figure 3-7. CALL Instruction Formation

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

How stacks are accessed in the AVR

The stack is a section of RAM, there must be a register inside the CPU to point to it. The register used to access the stack is called the SP (stack pointer) register.

In I/O memory space, there are two registers named SPL (the low byte of the SP) and SPH (the high byte of the SP). The SP is implemented as two registers.

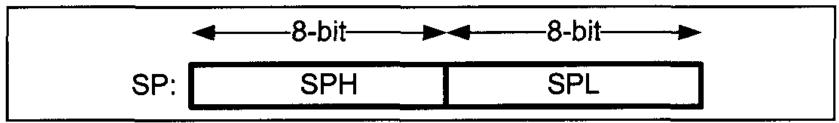


Figure 3-8. SP (Stack Pointer) in AVR

The stack pointer in the AVRs with more than 256 bytes of memory the SP is made of two 8-bit registers (SPL and SPH), while in the AVRs with less than 256 bytes the SP is made of only SPL, as an 8-bit register can address 256 bytes of memory.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Pushing onto the stack

As we push data onto the stack, the data are saved where the SP points to, and the SP is decremented by one.

To push a register onto stack we use the PUSH instruction.

```
PUSH Rr ; Rr can be any of the general purpose registers (R0-R31)
```

For example, to store the value of R10 we can write the following instruction:

```
PUSH R10 ; store R10 onto the stack, and decrement SP
```

BRANCH, CALL, AND TIME DELAY LOOP 3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Popping from the stack

When the POP instruction is executed, the SP is incremented and the top location of the stack is copied back to the register. That means the stack is LIFO (Last-In-First-Out) memory.

To retrieve a byte of data from stack we can use the POP instruction

```
POP Rr ; Rr can be any of the general purpose registers (RObR31)
```

For example, the following instruction pops from the top of stack and copies to R10:

```
POP R16 ;inrement SP, and then load top of Stack to R16
```

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Example 3-8

This example shows the stack and stack pointer and the registers used after the execution of each instruction.

;load SPH

:load SPL

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
     .ORG 0
     ;initialize the SP to point to the last location of RAM (RAMEND)
     LDI R16, HIGH (RAMEND)
     OUT SPH, R16
     LDI R16, LOW (RAMEND)
          SPL, R16
     OUT
     LDI R31, 0
     LDI R20, 0x21
          R22, 0x66
     LDI
     PUSH R20
     PUSH R22
     LDI R20, 0
           R22, 0
     LDI
           R22
     POP
           R31
     POP
```

After the	Contents of some of the registers				Stack	
execution of	R20	R22	R31	SP		
OUT SPL,R16	\$0	\$0	0	\$085F	85D 85E 85F	
LDI R22, 0x66	\$21	\$66	0	\$085F	85D 85E 85F SP	

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

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~v		,,,,,

PUSH R20	\$21	\$66	0	\$085E	85E SP 85E 21
PUSH R22	\$21	\$66	0	\$085D	85D SP 85E 66 85F 21
LDI R22, 0	\$0	\$0	0	\$085D	85D SP 85E 66 85F 21
POP R22	\$0	\$66	0	\$085E	85D 85E SP 85F 21
POP R31	\$0	\$66	\$21	\$085F	85D 85E 85F SP

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Initializing the stack pointer

When the AVR is powered up, the SP register contains the value 0. Therefore, we must initialize the SP at the beginning of the program so that it points to somewhere in the internal SRAM. So, it is common to initialize the SP to the uppermost memory location.

Different AVRs have different amounts of RAM. In the AVR assembler RAMEND represents the address of the last RAM location. So, if we want to initialize the SP so that it points to the last memory location, we can simply load RAMEND into the SP.

LDI R16, HIGH(RAMEND) ;load SPH

OUT SPH, R16

LDI R16, LOW (RAMEND) ;load SPL

OUT SPL, R16

BRANCH, CALL, AND TIME DELAY LOOP 3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

CALL instruction and the role of the stack

When a subroutine is called,

- the processor first saves the address of the instruction just below the CALL instruction on the stack,
- And then transfers control to that subroutine.

For the AVRs whose program counter is not longer than 16 bits (e.g., ATmegal28, ATmega32), the value of the program counter is broken into 2 bytes. The higher byte is pushed onto the stack first, and then the lower byte is pushed.

For the AVRs whose program counters are longer than 16 bits but shorter than 24 bits, the value of the program counter is broken up into 3 bytes. The highest byte is pushed first, then the middle byte is pushed, and finally the lowest byte is pushed.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

RET instruction and the role of the stack

When the RET instruction at the end of the subroutine is executed, the top location of the stack is copied back to the program counter and the stack pointer is incremented. so when the execution of the function finishes and RET is executed, the address of the instruction below the CALL is loaded into the PC, and the instruction below the CALL instruction is executed.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Example 3-9

Toggle all bits of Port B by sending to it the value 0x55 and 0xAA continuously. Put a time delay between each issuing of data to Port B.

1	.INCLUDE	"M32DE	F.INC"	22	AGAIN:		
2	•ORG 0			23		NOP	
3	L	DI	R16, HIGH (RAMEND)	24		NOP	
4	0	UT	SPH,R16	25		DEC	R20
5	L	DI	R16, LOW (RAMEND)	26		BRNE	AGAIN
6	0	UT	SPL,R16	27		RET	
7			•	28			
8	L	DI	R16,0xFF	29	DELAY1:		
9		UT	DDRB,R16	30		LDI	R20,0xFF
10	BACK:		DDID / ICI	31	AGAIN1:	LDI	R21,0xFF
11		DI	R16,0x55	32	AGAIN2:		
12		OUT	PORTB,R16	33		NOP	
13			•	34		NOP	
		ALL	DELAY1	35		DEC	R21
14		DI	R16,0xAA	36		BRNE	AGAIN2
15		UT	PORTB,R16	37		DEC	R20
16		ALL	DELAY1	38		BRNE	AGAIN1
17	R	RJMP	BACK	39		RET	.3

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

The upper limit of the stack

As mentioned earlier, we can define the stack anywhere in the general purpose memory. So, in the AVR the stack can be as big as its RAM. Note that we must not define the stack in the register memory, nor in the I/O memory. So, the SP must be set to point above 0x60. In AVR, the stack is used for calls and interrupts.

Example 3-10

Analyze the stack for the CALL instructions in the following program.

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
.ORG 0
+00000000: LDI R16, HIGH(RAMEND) ;initialize SP
+00000001: OUT SPH, R16
```

+00000003: OUT SPL,R16

+00000002: LDI R16, LOW (RAMEND)

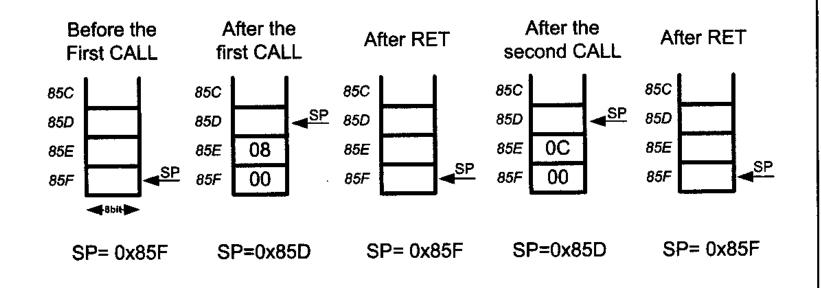
3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

```
BACK:
            LDI R16,0x55 ;load R16 with 0x55
+00000004:
+00000005: OUT PORTB, R16 ; send 55H to port B
+00000006: CALL DELAY ; time delay
+00000008: LDI R16,0xAA ;load R16 with 0xAA
+00000009: OUT PORTB, R16 ; send 0xAA to port B
+0000000A: CALL DELAY ; time delay
                           ; keep doing this indefinitely
+0000000C: RJMP BACK
         ;----this is the delay subroutine
             .ORG 0x300 ;put time delay at address 0x300
         DELAY:
            LDI R20,0xFF ; R20 = 255, the counter
+00000300:
         AGAIN:
                         ;no operation wastes clock cycles
+00000301: NOP
+00000302: NOP
+00000303: DEC R20
                            ;repeat until R20 becomes 0
+00000304: BRNE AGAIN
                            ; return to caller
+00000305: RET
```

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Solution:

When the first CALL is executed, the address of the instruction "LDI R16, 0xAA" is saved (pushed) onto the stack. The last instruction of the called subroutine must be a RET instruction, which directs the CPU to pop the contents of the top location of the stack into the PC and resume executing at address 0008. The diagrams show the stack frame after the CALL and RET instructions.



3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Calling many subroutines from the main program

In Assembly language programming, it is common to have one main program and many subroutines that are called from the main program. It needs to be emphasized that in using CALL, the target address of the subroutine can be anywhere within the 4M (word) memory space of the AVR.

```
.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"
                         ; Modify for your chip
;MAIN program calling subroutines
MAIN:
            CALL SUBR 1
            CALL SUBR 2
                  SUBR 3
                   SUBR 4
HERE:
            RJMP HERE
                               ;stay here
         end of MAIN
SUBR 1:
            RET
         end of subroutine 1
SUBR 2:
            RET
         end of subroutine 2
SUBR 3:
            RET
         end of subroutine 3
SUBR 4:
            RET
         end of subroutine 4
```

Figure 3-9. AVR Assembly Main Program That Calls Subroutines

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

RCALL (relative call)

RCALL is a 2-byte instruction in contrast to CALL, which is 4 bytes.

1101	kkkk	kkkk	kkkk
------	------	------	------

Write a program to count up from 00 to 0xFF and send the count to Port B. Use one call subroutine for sending the data to Port B. and another one for time delay. Put a time delay between each issuing of data to Port B.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

1	.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"				DISPLAY	:	
2	.PEF COU	F COUNT = R20				INC	COUNT
3	.ORG 0			18		OUT	PORTB, COUNT
4		LDI	R16, HIGH (RAMEND)	19		CALL	DELAY
5		OUT	SPH,R16	20		RET	
6		LDI	R16,LOW(RAMEND)	21			
7		OUT	SPL,R16	22	; DELAY	SUBROUT	INE
8		001	DIE, KIO	23	.ORG	300	
	_	. D.T	D1.6 0	24	DELAY:		
9		LDI	R16,0xFF	25		LDI	R16,0xFF
10		OUT	DDRB,R16	26	AGAIN1:	LDI	R17,0xFF
11		LDI	COUNT, 0	27	AGAIN2:		
12	BACK:			28		NOP	
13		CALL	DISPLAY	29		NOP	
14	I	RJMP	BACK	30		DEC	R17
				31		BRNE	AGAIN2
				32		DEC	R16
				33		BRNE	AGAIN1
				34		RET	

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Rewrite the main part of Example 3-9 as efficiently as you can.

-							
1	.INCLUDE "M3	.INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC"			; DELAY SUBROUTINE		
2	.ORG 0		18	DELAY:			
3	LDI	R16,HIGH(RAME	END) 19		LDI	R20,0xFF	
4	OUT	SPH,R16	20	AGAIN1:	LDI	R21,0xFF	
5	LDI	R16,LOW(RAMEN	ID) 21	AGAIN2:			
6	OUT	SPL,R16	22		NOP		
7			23		NOP		
8	LDI	R16,0xFF	24		DEC	R21	
9	OUT	DDRB,R16	25		BRNE	AGAIN2	
10	LDI	R16,0x55	26		DEC	R20	
11	BACK:	,	27		BRNE	AGAIN1	
12	COM	R16	28		RET		
13	OUT	PORTB,R16					
		•					
14	RCAI	LL DELAY					
15	RJMI	BACK					

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

Example 3-13

A developer is using the AVR microcontroller chip for a product. This chip has only 4K of on-chip flash ROM. Which of the instructions, CALL or RCALL, is more useful in programming this chip?

Solution:

The RCALL instruction is more useful because it is a 2-byte instruction. It saves two bytes each time the call instruction is used. However, we must use CALL if the target address is beyond the 2K boundary.

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

ICALL (indirect call)

In this 2-byte (16-bit) instruction, the Z register specifies the target address.

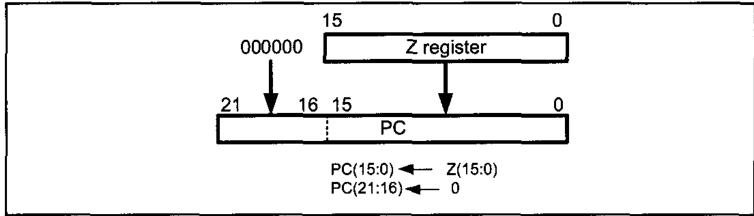


Figure 3-10. ICALL Instruction

3.2: CALL INSTRUCTIONS AND STACK

ICALL (indirect call)

In the AVRs with more than 64K words of program memory, the EICALL (extended indirect call) instruction is available. The EICALL loads the Z register into the lower 16 bits of the PC and the EIND register into the upper 6 bits of the PC. Notice that EIND is a part of I/O memory.

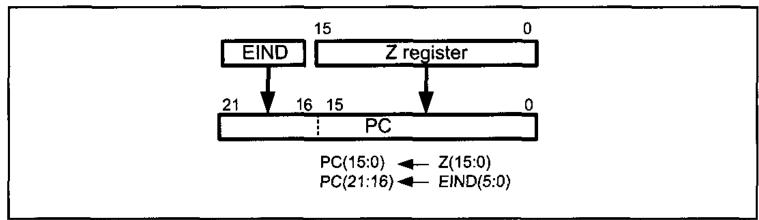


Figure 3-11. EICALL Instruction

3.3: AVR TIME DELAY AND INSTRUCTION PIPELINE

Delay calculation for the AVR

In creating a time delay using Assembly language instructions, one must be mindful of two factors that can affect the accuracy of the delay:

- 1. The crystal frequency: The frequency of the crystal oscillator connected to the XTALl and XTAL2 input pins is one factor in the time delay calculation.
- 2. The AVR design: Advances in both IC technology and CPU design in the 1980s and 1990s have made the single instruction cycle a common feature of many microcontrollers. One might wonder how microprocessors such as AVR are able to execute an instruction in one cycle. There are three ways to do that:
 - (a) Use Harvard architecture to get the maximum amount of code and data into the CPU,
 - (b) use RISC architecture features such as fixed-size instructions, and finally
 - (c) use pipelining to overlap fetching and execution of instructions.

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Pipelining

In early microprocessors such as the 8085, the CPU could either fetch or execute at a given time. In other words, the CPU had to fetch an instruction from memory, then execute it; and then fetch the next instruction, execute it, and so on. The idea of pipelining in its simplest form is to allow the CPU to fetch and execute at the same time.

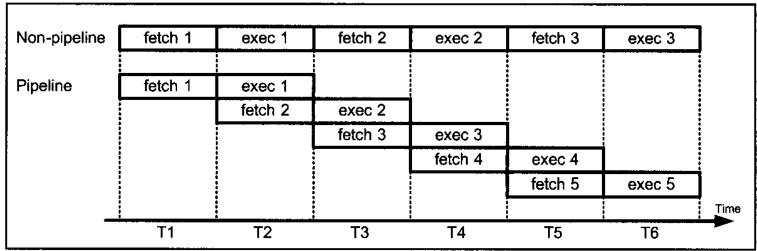


Figure 3-12. Pipeline vs. Non-pipeline

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Pipelining

We can use a pipeline to speed up execution of instructions. In pipelining, the process of executing instructions is split into small steps that are all executed in parallel. In this way, the execution of many instructions is overlapped. One limitation of pipelining is that the speed of execution is limited to the slowest stage of the pipeline.

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AVR multistage execution pipeline

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
READ OPERANDS	PROCESS	WRITE BACK

Figure 3-13. Single Cycle ALU Operation

As shown in Figure 3-13, in the AVR, each instruction is executed in 3 stages: operand fetch, ALU operation execution, and result write back.

In step 1, the operand is fetched. In step 2, the operation is performed; for example, the adding of the two numbers is done. In step 3, the result is written into the destination register.

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AVR multistage execution pipeline

In reality, one can construct the AVR pipeline for three instructions.

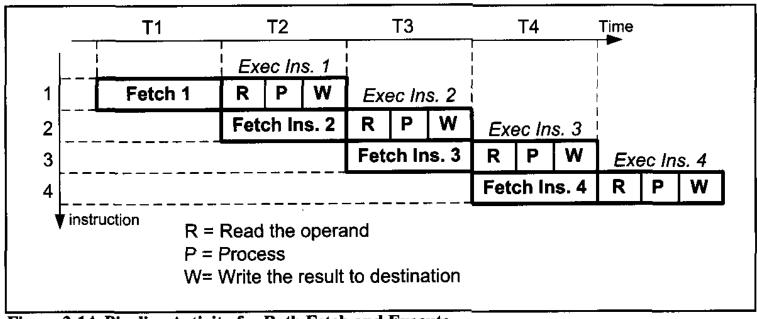


Figure 3-14. Pipeline Activity for Both Fetch and Execute

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Instruction cycle time for the AVR

It takes a certain amount of time for the CPU to execute an instruction. This time is referred to as machine cycles. Most instructions take no more than one or two machine cycles to execute.

In the AVR, one machine cycle consists of one oscillator period, which means that with each oscillator clock, one machine cycle passes. Therefore, to calculate the machine cycle for the AVR, we take the inverse of the crystal frequency, as shown in Example 3-14.

Example 3-14

The following shows the crystal frequency for four different AVR-based systems. Find the period of the instruction cycle in each case.

- (a) 8 MHz
- (b) 16 MHz (c) 10 MHz (d) 1 MHz

Solution:

- (a) instruction cycle is 1/8 MHz = $0.125 \mu s$ (microsecond) = 125 ns (nanosecond)
- (b) instruction cycle = 1/16 MHz = $0.0625 \mu s = 62.5$ ns (nanosecond)
- (c) instruction cycle = $1/10 \text{ MHz} = 0.1 \mu \text{s} = 100 \text{ ns}$
- (d) instruction cycle = 1/1 MHz = $1 \mu s$

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Branch penalty

For the concept of pipelining to work, we need a buffer or queue in which an instruction is prefetched and ready to be executed. In some circumstances, the CPU must flush out the queue. For example, when a branch instruction is executed, the CPU starts to fetch codes from the new memory location, and the code in the queue that was fetched previously is discarded. In this case, the execution unit must wait until the fetch unit fetches the new instruction. This is called a *branch penalty*.

The penalty is an extra instruction cycle.

This means that while the vast majority of AVR instructions take only one machine cycle, some instructions take two, three, or four machine cycles. These are JMP, CALL, RET, and all the conditional branch instructions such as BRNE, BRLO, and so on.

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Example 3-15

For an AVR system of 1 MHz, find how long it takes to execute each of the following instructions:

(a) LDI (b) DEC (c) LD (d) ADD (e) NOP (f) JMP (q) CALL (h) BRNE (i) .DEF

Solution:

The machine cycle for a system of 1 MHz is 1 μ s, as shown in Example 3-14. Appendix A shows instruction cycles for each of the above instructions. Therefore, we have:

Instruction	Instruction cycles	Time to execute
(a) LDI	1	$1 \times 1 \mu s = 1 \mu s$
(b) DEC	1	$1 \times 1 \mu s = 1 \mu s$
(c) OUT	1	$1 \times 1 \mu s = 1 \mu s$
(d) ADD	1	$1 \times 1 \mu s = 1 \mu s$
(e) NOP	1	$1 \times 1 \mu s = 1 \mu s$
(f) JMP	3	$3 \times 1 \mu s = 2 \mu s$
(g) CALL	4	$4 \times 1 \mu s = 4 \mu s$
(h) BRNE		μs taken, 1 μs if it falls arough)
(i) .DEF	- ·	rective instructions do not duce machine instructions)

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Example 3-16

Find the size of the delay of the code snippet below if the crystal frequency is 10 MHz:

Solution:

From Appendix A, we have the following machine cycles for each instruction of the DELAY subroutine:

Instruction Cycles

	.DEF COU	JNT = R20		0
DELAY:	LDI	COUNT,	0xFF	1
AGAIN:	NOP			1
	NOP			1
	DEC	COUNT		1
	BRNE	AGAIN		2/1
	RET			4

Therefore, we have a time delay of $[1 + ((1 + 1 + 1 + 2) \times 255) + 4] \times 0.1 \,\mu\text{s} = 128.0 \,\mu\text{s}$. Notice that BRNE takes two instruction cycles if it jumps back, and takes only one when falling through the loop. That means the above number should be 127.9 μ s.

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Delay calculation for AVR

As seen in the last section, a delay subroutine consists of two parts:

- (1) setting a counter, and
- (2) a loop.

Most of the time delay is performed by the body of the loop, as shown in Examples 3-17 and 3-18.

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Example 3-17 Find the size of the delay in the following program if the crystal frequency is 1 MHz: .INCLUDE "M32DEF.INC" .ORG 0 LDI R16, HIGH (RAMEND) ; initialize SP OUT SPH, R16 LDI R16, LOW (RAMEND) OUT SPL, R16 BACK: LDI R16,0x55 :load R16 with 0x55 OUT PORTB, R16 ;send 55H to port B RCALL DELAY ;time delay LDI R16,0xAA ;load R16 with 0xAA OUT PORTB, R16 ; send 0xAA to port B ;time delay RCALL DELAY ; keep doing this indefinitely RJMP BACK ;----this is the delay subroutine ORG 0x300 ;put time delay at address 0x300 DELAY: LDI R20,0xFF ;R20 = 255, the counterAGATN: NOP ;no operation wastes clock cycles NOP DEC R20 ;repeat until R20 becomes 0 BRNE AGAIN RET return to caller

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Solution:

From Appendix A, we have the following machine cycles for each instruction of the DELAY subroutine:

Instruction Cycles

DELAY:	LDI R20,0xFF	1
AGAIN:	NOP	1
	NOP	1
	DEC R20	1
	BRNE AGAIN	2/1
	RET	4

Therefore, we have a time delay of $[1 + (255 \times 5) - 1 + 4] \times 1 \mu s = 1279 \mu s$.

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Loop inside a loop delay

Another way to get a large delay is to use a loop inside a loop, which is also called a *nested loop*.

Example 3-18

For an instruction cycle of 1 μs (a) find the time delay in the following subroutine, and (b) find the amount of ROM it takes.

		Ins	truction	Cycles
DELAY:	LDI	R16,200	1	
AGAIN:	LDI	R17,250	1	(a) For the HERE loop, we have
HERE:	NOP		1	$[(5 \times 250) - 11 \times 1 \mu s = 1249 \mu s.$
•	NOP		1	The AGAIN loop repeats the
	DEC	R17	1	1 1
	BRNE	HERE	2/1	HERE loop 200 times; therefore,
	DEC	R16	1	we have $200 \times 1249 \text{ ps} = 249,800$
	BRNE	AGAIN	2/1	ps, if we do not include the
	RET		4	overhead.

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However, the following instructions of the outer loop add to the delay:

AGAIN:	LDI	R17,250	1
	DEC	R16	1
	BRNE	AGAIN	2/1

The above instructions at the beginning and end of the AGAIN loop add

$$[(4 \times 200) - 11 \times 1 \mu s = 799 \mu s]$$

to the time delay. As a result we have $249,800 + 799 = 250,599 \,\mu s$ for the total time delay associated with the above DELAY subroutine. Notice that this calculation is an approximation because we have ignored the "LDI R16,020" instruction and the last instruction, RET, in the subroutine.

(b) there are 9 instructions in the above DELAY program and all the instructions are 2 byte instructions. That means that the loop delay takes 22 bytes of ROM code space.

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Example 3-19

Find the time delay for the following subroutine, assuming a crystal frequency of 1 MHz. Discuss the disadvantage of this over Example 3-18.

Machine Cycles

DELAY: AGAIN:	LDI NOP	R16,	200	1 1
AGAIN:	NOP			1
	DEC	R16		1
	BRNE	AGAIN	J	2
	RET			4

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Solution:

The time delay inside the AGAIN loop is $[200(13 + 2)] \times 1 \mu s = 3000 \mu s$. NOP is a 2-byte instruction, even though it does not do anything except to waste cycle time. There are 16 instructions in the above DELAY program, and all the instructions are 2-byte instructions. This means the loop delay takes 32 bytes of ROM code space, and gives us only a 3000 μs delay. That is the reason we use a nested loop instead of NOP instructions to create a time delay. Chapter 9 shows how to use AVR timers to create delays much more efficiently.