

LOGIC DEVICES

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Tristate devices
- 1.3 Buffers
- 1.4 Encoder
- 1.5 Decoder
- 1.6 Latches
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Review Questions
- 1.9 Reference

1.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Understand the working of tri state devices
- Explain the use of buffer in electronics
- Describe the use of encoder and decoder in 8085
- Understand the working of Latch

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter reviews logic theory of encoder and decoder. It discusses the working of tristate devices and latch. These logic devices play an important role in 8085 microprocessor. In order to separate the low order address bus and data bus, latch IC is used.

1.2 TRI-STATE DEVICES

Tri-state logic devices have three states:

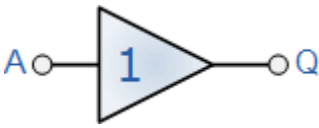
- 1) Logic 1 or Low
- 2) Logic 0 or High
- 3) High impedance

A tri-state logic device has a extra input line called **Enable**. When this line is active (Enabled), a tri-state device functions in the same way as ordinary logic devices. When this line is not active(disabled), the logic device goes into a high impedance state,

as if it is disconnected from the system and practically no current is drawn from the system.

1.3 BUFFER

A **Digital Buffer** is a single input device that does not invert or perform any type of logical operation on its input signal. In other words, the logic level of the output is same as that of the input. The buffer is a logic circuit that amplifies the current or power. The buffer is used primarily to increase the driving capability of a logic circuit. It is also known as driver.

Symbol	Truth Table	
 <p>A Tri-state Buffer</p>	A	Q
	0	0
	1	1
Boolean Expression $Q = A$	Read as A gives Q	

1.3.1 Tri-state Buffer

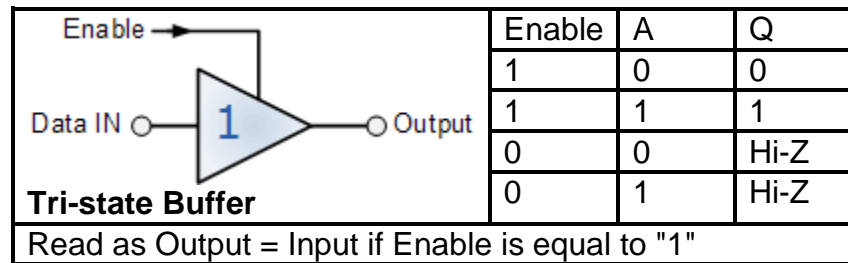
A Tri-state Buffer can be thought of as an input controlled switch which has an output that can be electronically turned "ON" or "OFF" by means of an external "Enable" signal input. This Enable signal can be either a logic "0" or a logic "1" type signal. When Enable line is low (logic '0'), the circuit functions as a buffer. When Enable line is high (logic '1'), its output produces an open circuit condition that is neither "High" nor "low", but instead gives an output state of very high impedance, **high-Z**, or more commonly Hi-Z.

Then this type of device has two logic state inputs, "0" or a "1" but can produce three different output states, "0", "1" or "Hi-Z" which is why it is called a "3-state" device.

There are two different types of Tri-state Buffer, one whose output is controlled by an "**Active-HIGH**" Enable signal and the other which is controlled by an "**Active-LOW**" Enable signal, as shown below

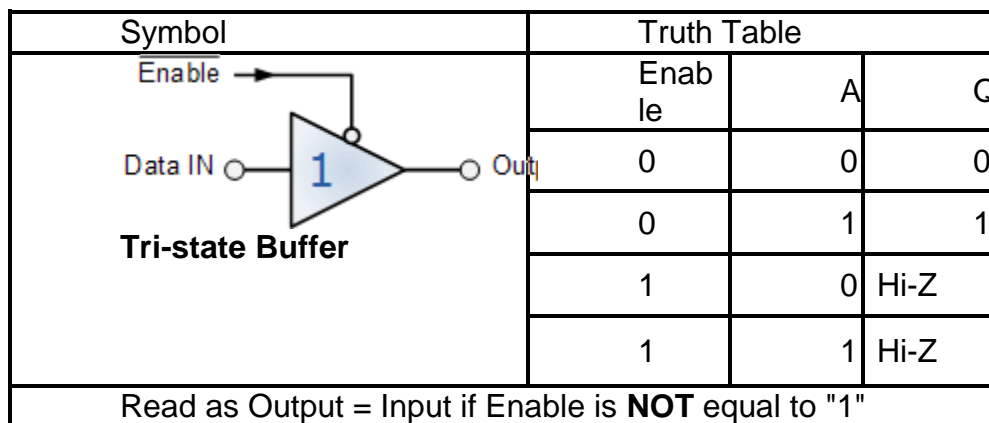
1.3.1 Active "HIGH" Tri-state Buffer

Symbol	Truth Table
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An **Active-high** Tri-state Buffer is activated when a logic level "1" is applied to its "**enable**" control line and the data passes through from its input to its output. When the enable control line is at logic level "0", the buffer output is disabled and a high impedance condition, Hi-Z is present on the output.

1.3.2 Active "LOW" Tri-state Buffer



An **Active-low** Tri-state Buffer is the opposite to the above, and is activated when a logic level "0" is applied to its "**enable**" control line. The data passes through from its input to its output. When the enable control line is at logic level "1", the buffer output is disabled and a high impedance condition, Hi-Z is present on the output.

1.4 ENCODER

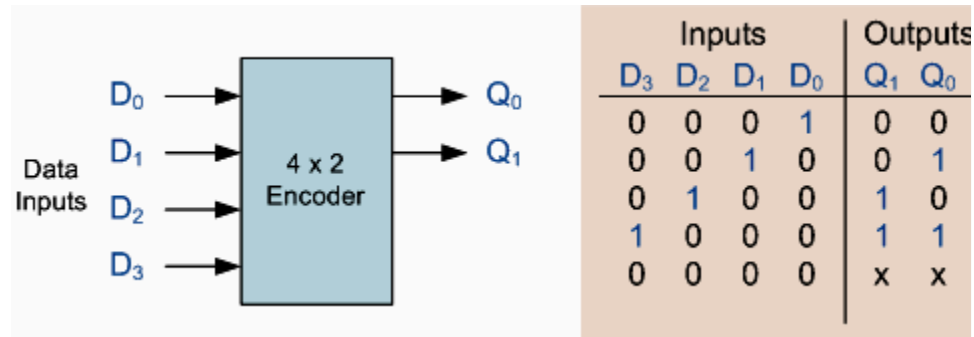
The encoder is a logic circuit that provides the appropriate code (binary, BCD, etc.) as output for each input signal.

1.4.1 Binary Encoder

A binary encoder, is a multi-input combinational logic circuit that converts the logic level "1" data at its inputs into an equivalent binary code at its output. Generally, digital encoders produce outputs of 2-bit, 3-bit or 4-bit codes depending upon the number of data input lines. An "n-bit" binary encoder has 2^n input lines and n-bit output lines with common types that include 4-to-2, 8-to-3 and 16-to-4 line configurations. The output lines of a digital

encoder generate the binary equivalent of the input line whose value is equal to "1" and are available to encode either a decimal or hexadecimal input pattern to typically a binary or B.C.D. output code.

1.4.24-to-2 Bit Binary Encoder



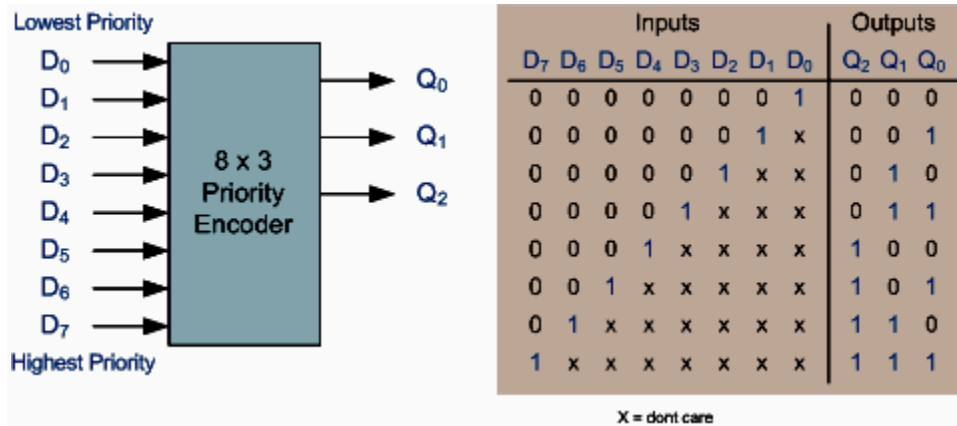
One of the main disadvantages of standard digital encoders is that they can generate the wrong output code when there is more than one input present at logic level "1". For example, if we make inputs D_1 and D_2 HIGH at logic "1" at the same time, the resulting output is neither at "01" or at "10" but will be at "11" which is an output binary number that is different to the actual input present. Also, an output code of all logic "0"s can be generated when all of its inputs are at "0" or when input D_0 is equal to one.

One simple way to overcome this problem is to "Prioritise" the level of each input pin and if there was more than one input at logic level "1" the actual output code would only correspond to the input with the highest designated priority. Then this type of digital encoder is known commonly as a **Priority Encoder** or **P-encoder** for short.

1.4.2 Priority Encoder

The Priority Encoder solves the problems mentioned above by allocating a priority level to each input. The *priority encoders* output corresponds to the currently active input which has the highest priority. So when an input with a higher priority is present, all other inputs with a lower priority will be ignored. The priority encoder comes in many different forms with an example of an 8-input priority encoder along with its truth table shown below.

8-to-3 Bit Priority Encoder



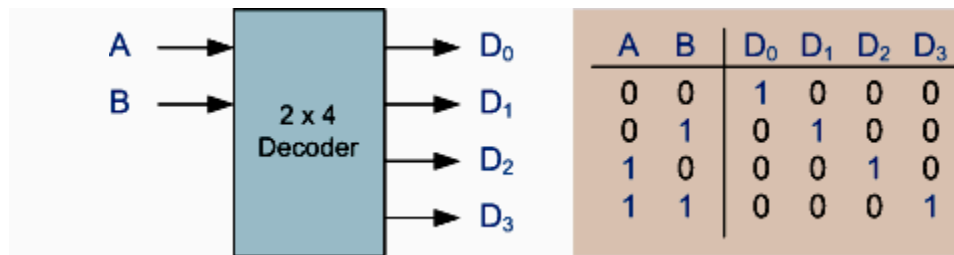
Priority encoders are available in standard IC form and the TTL 74LS148 is an 8-to-3 bit priority encoder which has eight active LOW (logic "0") inputs and provides a 3-bit code of the highest ranked input at its output. Priority encoders output the highest order input first for example, if input lines "D2", "D3" and "D5" are applied simultaneously the output code would be for input "D5" ("101") as this has the highest order out of the 3 inputs. Once input "D5" had been reMOVED the next highest output code would be for input "D3" ("011"), and so on.

1.5 DECODER

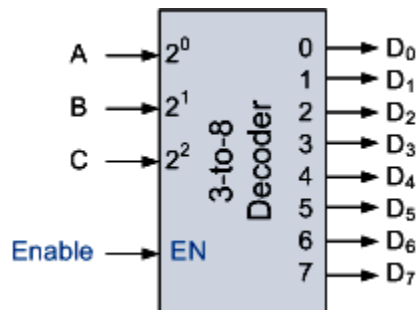
A **Decoder** is the exact opposite to that of an "Encoder". It is basically, a combinational type logic circuit that converts the binary code data at its input into an equivalent decimal code at its output. **Binary Decoders** have inputs of 2-bit, 3-bit or 4-bit codes depending upon the number of data input lines, and a n-bit decoder has 2^n output lines. Therefore, if it receives n inputs (usually grouped as a binary or Boolean number) it activates one and only one of its 2^n outputs based on that input with all other outputs deactivated. A decoders output code normally has more bits than its input code and practical binary decoder circuits include, 2-to-4, 3-to-8 and 4-to-16 line configurations.

A binary decoder converts coded inputs into coded outputs, where the input and output codes are different and decoders are available to "decode" either a Binary or BCD (8421 code) input pattern to typically a Decimal output code. An example of a 2-to-4 line decoder along with its truth table is given below.

1.5.1 2-to-4 Binary Decoder



In this simple example of a 2-to-4 line binary decoder, the binary inputs A and B determine which output line from D₀ to D₃ is "HIGH" at logic level "1" while the remaining outputs are held "LOW" at logic "0" so only one output can be active (HIGH) at any one time. Therefore, whichever output line is "HIGH" identifies the binary code present at the input, in other words it "de-codes" the binary input and these types of binary decoders are commonly used as **Address Decoders** in microprocessor memory applications.



Some binary decoders have an additional input labelled "Enable" that controls the outputs from the device. This allows the decoders outputs to be turned "ON" or "OFF". The logic diagram of the basic decoder is identical to that of the basic demultiplexer. Therefore, one can say that a demultiplexer is a decoder with an additional data line that is used to enable the decoder. An alternative way of looking at the decoder circuit is to regard inputs A, B and C as address signals. Each combination of A, B or C defines a unique address which can access a location having that address.

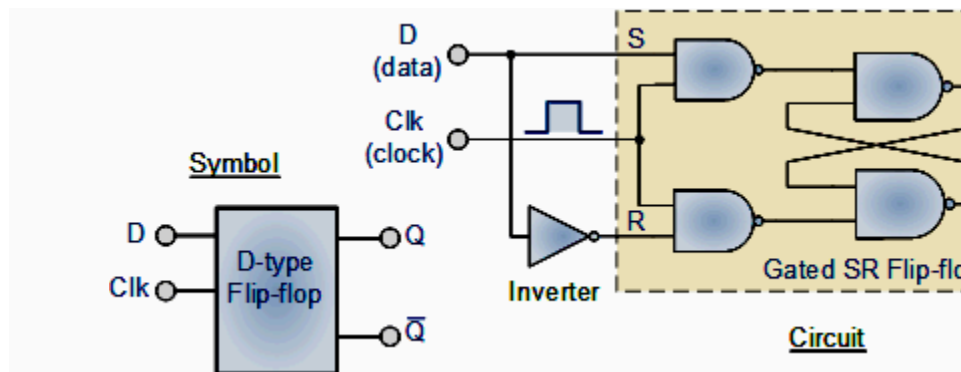
1.6 LATCHES

The D flip-flop:

The **D flip-flop** is by far the most important of the clocked flip-flops as it ensures that inputs **S** and **R** are never equal to one at the same time. D-type flip-flops are constructed from a gated **SR flip-flop** with an inverter added between the **S** and the **R** inputs to allow

for a single **D** (data) input. This single data input **D** is used in place of the "set" signal, and the inverter is used to generate the complementary "reset" input thereby making a level-sensitive D-type flip-flop from a level-sensitive RS-latch as now $S = D$ and $R = \text{not } D$ as shown.

D flip-flop Circuit



A simple SR flip-flop requires two inputs, one to "SET" the output and one to "RESET" the output. By connecting NOT gate to the SR flip-flop one can "SET" and "RESET" the flip-flop using just one input as now the two input signals are complements of each other. This complement avoids 'forbidden state' in the SR latch when both inputs are LOW, since that state is no longer possible.

Thus the single input is called the "DATA" input. If this data input is HIGH the flip-flop would be "SET" and when it is LOW the flip-flop would be "RESET". However, this would be rather pointless since the flip-flop's output would always change on every data input. To avoid this an additional input called the "CLOCK" or "ENABLE" input is used to isolate the data input from the flip-flop after the desired data has been stored. The effect is that **D** is only copied to the output **Q** when the clock is active. This forms the basis of a **D flip-flop**.

The **D flip-flop** will store and output whatever logic level is applied to its data terminal so long as the clock input is HIGH. Once the clock input goes LOW the "set" and "reset" inputs of the flip-flop are both held at logic level "1" so it will not change state and store whatever data was present on its output before the clock transition occurred. In other words the output is "latched" at either logic "0" or logic "1".

Truth Table for the D Flip-flop

Clk	D	Q	Q	Description
↓ » 0	X	Q	Q	Memory no change
↑ » 1	0	0	1	Reset Q » 0
↑ » 1	1	1	0	Set Q » 1

Note: ↓ and ↑ indicates direction of clock pulse as it is assumed D flip-flops are edge triggered

1.7 SUMMARY

- A tri-state logic device has a extra input line called **Enable**. When this line is active (Enabled), a tri-state device functions in the same way as ordinary logic devices. When this line is not active(disabled), the logic device goes into a high impedance state, as if it is disconnected from the system and practically no current is drawn from the system.
- A **Digital Buffer** is a single input device in which the logic level of the output is same as that of the input. The buffer is a logic circuit that amplifies the current or power. The buffer is used primarily to increase the driving capability of a logic circuit.
- The **Digital Encoder** is a combinational circuit that generates a specific code at its outputs such as binary or BCD in response to one or more active inputs. There are two main types of digital encoder. The **Binary Encoder** and the **Priority Encoder**.
- The **Binary Encoder** converts one of 2^n inputs into an n-bit output. Then a binary encoder has fewer output bits than the input code. Binary encoders are useful for compressing data and can be constructed from simple AND or OR gates.
- The **Priority Encoder** is another type of combinational circuit similar to a binary encoder, except that it generates an output code based on the highest prioritised input.
- A **Decoder** is a combinational type logic circuit that converts the binary code data at its input into an equivalent decimal code at its output.
- There are two different types of Tri-state Buffer, one whose output is controlled by an "**Active-HIGH**" Enable signal and the other which is controlled by an "**Active-LOW**" Enable signal.

1.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What do you mean by tri-state devices?
2. With the help of a neat symbol explain tri-state buffer.
3. State function of buffer.
4. Explain different types of encoder.
5. With the help of neat block diagram explain 4 to 2 encoder.
6. What do you mean by priority encoder?
7. With the help of neat block diagram explain 8 to 3 encoder.
8. Explain decoder in detail.
9. With the help of neat block diagram explain 3 to 8 decoder.
10. Explain the working of D flipflop.

1.9 REFERENCE

- Microprocessor Architecture, Programming, and Applications With the 8085 by Ramesh Gaonkar, Publisher: Prentice Hall
- Digital Principles and application by Malvino and Leach, Publisher: McGraw-Hill



MEMORY

Unit Structure

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Memory
- 1.3 Random Access Memory (RAM)
- 1.4 Read Only Memory (ROM)
- 1.5 Nonvolatile RAM (NVRAM)
- 1.6 Memory Interfacing
- 1.7 Summary
- 1.8 Review Questions
- 1.9 Reference

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Understand the different types of memory used in 8085
- Distinguish between SRAM & DRAM
- Understand different types ROM
- Understand the different technique of memory interfacing

1.6 INTRODUCTION

Many types of memory devices are available for use in modern computer systems. You must be aware of the differences between them and understand how to use each type effectively. As you are reading, try to keep in mind that the development of these devices took several decades and that there are significant physical differences in the underlying hardware. The names of the memory types frequently reflect the historical nature of the development process and are often more confusing than insightful.

1.2 MEMORY

Memory is the storage device which can be used to store monitor program, users program or users data. So memory is an important component of the microprocessor based system, which

will allow you to store program and data. The memory consists of the thousands of memory cells arranged to store data. Each memory cell is capable of storing 1 bit of the data. Hence, to use memory to store programs or data of user or system, memory must be interfaced with microprocessor properly, so that it can be accessed while reading or writing data or program from/to it. In the same way, input and output devices are also required to read or write data out from the microprocessor using input device such as keyboard or output device using console.

So, these devices must be interface properly with the microprocessor so that user can read data from input device and write data to the output device

1.3 RANDOM ACCESS MEMORY (RAM)

Random access means that the stored data can be accessed in any order, which is in contrast to the more restricted access provided by other memory systems, such as tape and disk drive. The access time to any piece of data stored on in RAM is essentially the same.

RAM is normally used in computer systems for main memory or primary storage. This is where running programs and the data they use are stored. Moving data from primary storage to the processor requires only a few cycles, although retrieving data from a hard drive can take considerably longer. For this reason, modern operating systems run primarily in RAM, and as they load and run additional applications, they move these programs and their data into RAM for faster processing.

RAM can be categorized as volatile or non-volatile. Volatile means that all data is lost when the chip is powered down. Most computers incorporate two types of volatile RAM: static and dynamic. Although both types require constant electrical current to function, they have some important differences.

1.3.1 Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

Dynamic RAM is less expensive, and therefore it is the most widely used.

When a computer is said to have 512 megabytes or one gigabyte of RAM, the specification refers to dynamic RAM (DRAM). DRAM stores each bit of information in a separate capacitor on the integrated circuit. The DRAM chip requires only one transistor and one capacitor for each bit of storage. This makes it both cheap and space efficient. One disadvantage with using capacitors for storage is that they gradually dissipate their charge, so the charge must be refreshed regularly (current specifications are for there fresh to

occur every 64 milliseconds or less). This refresh requirement is what makes this technology dynamic.

1.3.2 DRAM controller

The DRAM controller is an extra piece of hardware placed between the processor and the memory chips. Its main purpose is to perform the refresh operations required to keep your data alive in the DRAM.

Almost all DRAM controllers require a short initialization sequence that consists of one or more setup commands. The setup commands tell the controller about the hardware interface to the DRAM and how frequently the data there must be refreshed. If the DRAM in your system does not appear to be working properly, it could be that the DRAM controller either is not initialized or has been initialized incorrectly.

1.3.3 Static RAM (SRAM)

Static RAM (SRAM) has the advantage of being faster than DRAM, although the disadvantage is that it is more expensive. SRAM is static in the sense that it doesn't require constant electrical refreshes; however, it still requires constant current to maintain the voltage differentials. SRAM generally requires less power than DRAM.

Each bit in a SRAM chip requires a cell of six transistors, although DRAM needs only one transistor and one capacitor. This means that SRAM cannot achieve the storage densities of the DRAM family. As with DRAM, SRAM chips are mostly large arrays of these cells of transistors. The two primary applications of SRAM are embedded use and in computers.

1.4 READ ONLY MEMORY (ROM)

Memories in the ROM family are distinguished by the methods used to write new data to them and the number of times they can be rewritten. This classification reflects the evolution of ROM devices from hardwired to one-time programmable to erasable-and-programmable. A common feature across all these devices is their ability to retain data and programs forever, even during a power failure.

There are several types of read only memory (ROM), although most are obsolete. These ROMs are called read only because they cannot be modified by the casual user (and some types cannot be modified at all). ROMs have traditionally been used

in computer systems to store configuration data, such as bootstrap or BIOS code, which requires fast access.

1.4.1 Masked ROMs

The very first ROMs were hardwired devices that contained a preprogrammed set of data or instructions. The contents of the ROM had to be specified before chip production, so the actual data could be used to arrange the transistors inside the chip. Hardwired memories are still used, though they are now called "masked ROMs" to distinguish them from other types of ROM. The main advantage of a masked ROM is a low production cost. Unfortunately, the cost is low only when hundreds of thousands of copies of the same ROM are required. It was often used to contain the startup code (bootstrap) for early microcomputers.

1.4.2 Programmable Read Only Memory (PROM)

One step up from the masked ROM is the PROM (programmable ROM), which is purchased in an unprogrammed state. The process of writing your data to the PROM involves a special piece of equipment called a device programmer. The device programmer writes data to the device one word at a time, by applying an electrical charge to the input pins of the chip. Once a PROM has been programmed in this way, its contents can never be changed. If the code or data stored in the PROM must be changed, the current device must be discarded. As a result, PROMs are also known as *one-time programmable* (OTP) devices.

The PROM is a cheaper and more flexible approach than mask ROM, although each PROM can still be programmed only once. PROMs are reliable, permanent, and relatively fast. They are still in limited use.

1.4.3 Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EPROM)

An EPROM (erasable-and-programmable ROM) is programmed in exactly the same manner as a PROM. However, EPROMs can be erased and reprogrammed repeatedly. To erase an EPROM, you simply expose the device to a strong source of ultraviolet light. (There is a "window" in the top of the device to let the ultraviolet light reach the silicon.) By doing this, you essentially reset the entire chip to its initial-unprogrammed-state. EPROM chips preserve their data for roughly 10 to 20 years and allow for an unlimited number of reads. The erasing window is kept covered by a foil label to prevent erasure by exposure to sunlight.

The most popular use of EPROMs in computer systems was to store the BIOS in older PC systems. Though more expensive than

PROMs, their ability to be reprogrammed makes EPROMs an essential part of the software development and testing process.

1.4.4 Electronically Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EEPROM)

The electronically erasable programmable read only memory (EEPROM) has largely supplanted all other types of ROM in the current generation of computing devices. The capacity of EEPROMs ranges up to hundreds of kilobits. This is now the preferred technology for storing the BIOS in personal computers.

As the term electronically erasable implies, EEPROMs can be erased and rewritten, usually by creating a high-voltage pulse on the chip. This rewriting eventually damages the layer of insulating material on the chip, so the number of writes is limited. Although early models would fail after 100 write-erase cycles, current EEPROMs can sustain one million write-erases or more. Any byte within an EEPROM can be erased and rewritten. Once written, the new data will remain in the device forever-or at least until it is electrically erased. The tradeoff for this improved functionality is mainly higher cost.

1.4.5 Flash Memory

Flash memory is the most recent advancement in memory technology. It combines all the best features of the memory devices described thus far. Flash memory devices are high density, low cost, nonvolatile, fast (to read, but not to write), and electrically reprogrammable. Although flash memory is erased only one block or page at a time, it is much less expensive than EEPROM.

These advantages are overwhelming and the use of Flash memory has increased dramatically in embedded systems as a direct result. From a software viewpoint, Flash and EEPROM technologies are very similar. The major difference is that Flash devices can be erased only one sector at a time, not byte by byte. Typical sector sizes are in the range of 256 bytes to 16 kilobytes. Despite this disadvantage, Flash is much more popular than EEPROM and is rapidly displacing many of the ROM devices as well.

1.5 NONVOLATILE RAM (NVRAM)

An NVRAM is usually just an SRAM with a battery backup. When the power is turned on, the NVRAM operates just like any other SRAM. But when the power is turned off, the NVRAM draws just enough electrical power from the battery to retain its current contents. NVRAM is fairly common in embedded systems. However,

it is very expensive-even more expensive than SRAM-so its applications are typically limited to the storage of only a few hundred bytes of system-critical information that cannot be stored in any better way.

1.6 MEMORY INTERFACING

In computer systems, $1K=1024$; therefore 1Kbyte memory chip has 1024 registers with 8 bits each. Similarly, a group of 256 registers is defined as one page and each register is viewed as a line to write on. This is analogous to a notebook containing various pages, with each page having a certain number of lines. With this analogy, 1Kbyte memory as a chip of four pages ($1024/256=4$) with each page having 256 registers. With two hex digits, 256 registers can be numbered from 00H to FFH; 1024 registers can be numbered from four digits from 0000H to 03FFH. The high order two digits of 1 K memory are representing 4 pages (00, 01, 02 & 03)

1.6.1 Memory Address

In computer science, a memory address is a unique identifier for a memory location at which a CPU or other device can store a piece of data for later retrieval. In modern byte-addressable computers, each address identifies a single byte of storage. Some microprocessors were designed to be word-addressable, so that the typical storage unit was actually larger than a byte.

Each memory chip like RAM, ROM, EPROM, E²PROM and DRAM have numbers of pins and these pins are used to accept different kinds of signals. Normally every memory chip has pins for address, data, control signals and chip select signals.

1.6.2 Address Pins

Address pins are used to accept address from the system address bus transmitted by the microprocessor. The numbers of address pins are depending upon size of the memory as shown in Table below

Number of Address lines used	Size of memory in bytes
1	2
2	4
3	8
4	16
5	32
6	64

7	128
8	256
9	512
10	1024 \approx 1k
11	2048 \approx 2k
12	4096 \approx 4k
13	8192 \approx 8k
14	16384 \approx 16k
15	32768 \approx 32k
16	65536 \approx 64k

In case of 8085 microprocessor the address bus is 16 bit wide; it can address 65,536 locations i.e. 64 Kbytes of memory.

1.6.3 \overline{CS} (Chip Select) or \overline{CE} (Chip Enable) Pin

This signal of the memory chip is ACTIVE LOW and acts as master enable pin for read or write operation. Hence, for every read or write operation, this signal must be low otherwise no operation will be performed.

1.6.4 \overline{WR} (Write Control Signal) Pin

This is an active low input control signal used to write data to the memory location whose address is available on address lines if chip select signal is enable.

This signal is available on system control bus and generated by the microprocessor or other master in the system such as DMA controller or co-processor.

1.6.5 \overline{RD} (Read Control Signal) Pin

This is an active low input control signal used to read data from the memory location whose address is available on address lines if chip select signal is enable.

This signal is available on system control bus and generated by the microprocessor or other master in the system such as DMA controller or co-processor.

1.6.6 Chip Select Logic

Chip select logic can be developed using either combination of different gates such as AND, NAND, NOT etc. or decoders.

1.6.6.1 Using Logic Gates

Now take an example of interfacing of 2K of RAM with the microprocessor 8085, the 8085 is an 8 bit microprocessor. Hence all 8 lines of data bus can be directly connected after de-

multiplexing to D₀-D₇ of the RAM memory. The eleven (11) address lines required to access any memory location within 2K memory, so out of 16 address lines (A₀-A₁₅) of 8085 microprocessor, the A₀-A₁₀ address lines can be connected directly memory chip. Remaining address lines A₁₁-A₁₅ to generate chip select signal using NAND and NOT gates depending on the addresses required as shown in following figure.

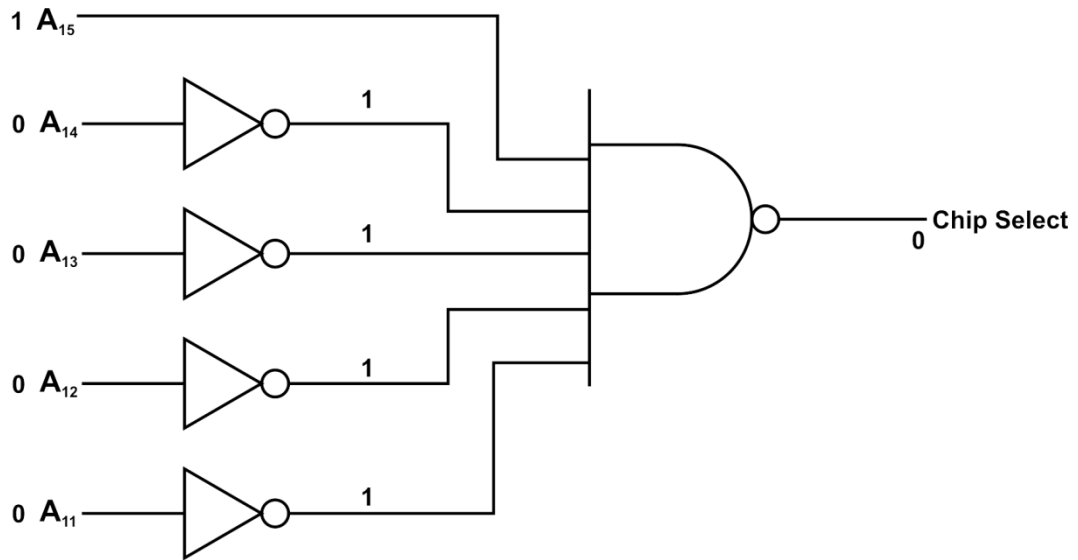


Fig 2.1 Chip select using NAND gates

For generation of chip select we are using NAND gate, when input to NAND gate are all logic 1, then output of NAND gate will be logic 0 and for all other combination the output will be logic 1. The chip select is active low signal, hence all inputs of the NAND gates must be logic 1 to generate chip select signal as given below.

A ₁₅	A ₁₄	A ₁₃	A ₁₂	A ₁₁
1	0	0	0	0

Hence addresses map of the 2K of RAM is given below.

A ₁₅	A ₁₄	A ₁₃	A ₁₂	A ₁₁	A ₁₀	A ₉	A ₈	A ₇	A ₆	A ₅	A ₄	A ₃	A ₂	A ₁	A ₀	ADDRESS
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8000H
1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	87FFH
Used for chip select Decoder logic					Connected to A ₀ -A ₁₀ 2 K RAM											

The interfacing diagram of 2K X 8 RAM is shown in following figure

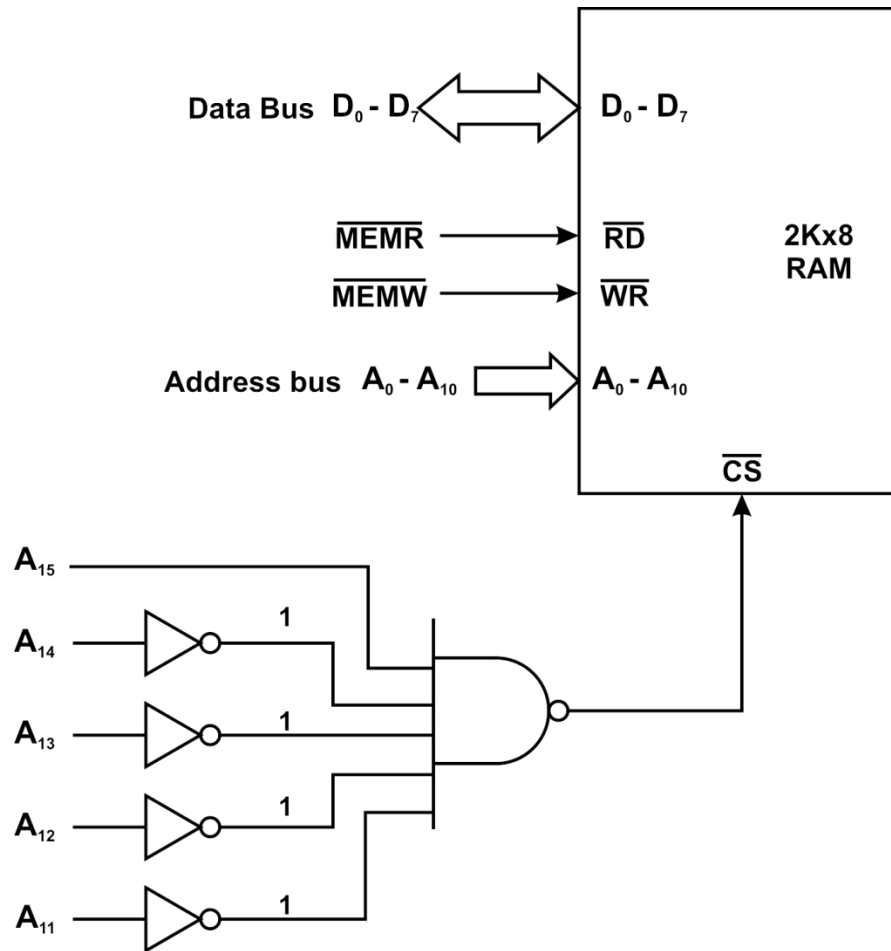


Fig. 2.2 Interfacing of 2K X 8 RAM

1.6.6.2 Using Decoder

Consider above example of memory interfacing, where remaining address lines i.e. $A_{11}-A_{15}$ can be connected to the decoder. Now connect A_{11} , A_{12} , A_{13} to A, B,C inputs of 3:8 decoder 74LS138 respectively, A_{14} to G_{2A} and G_{2B} enable pins and at last A_{15} to G_1 pin of 3:8 decoder as shown in following figure.

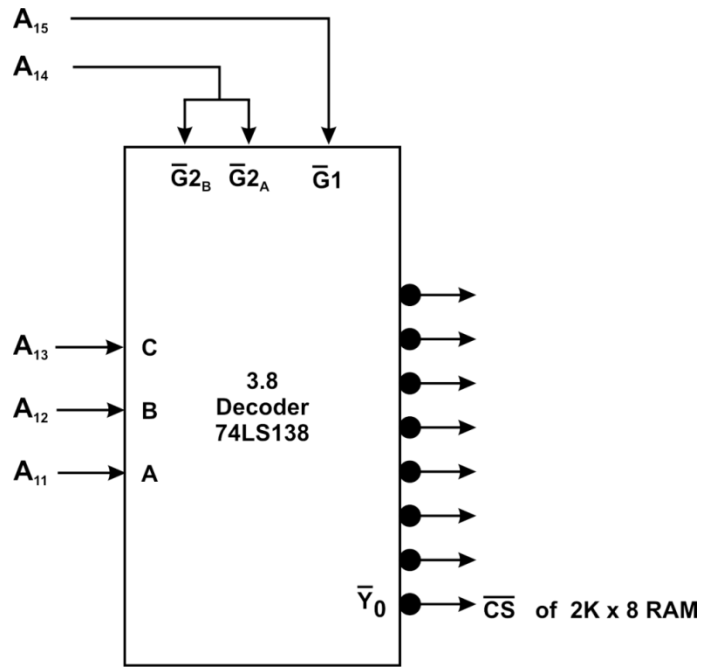


Fig. 2.3 Using decoder

After making the connection as shown above, the address map of 2K RAM will be same as specified above.

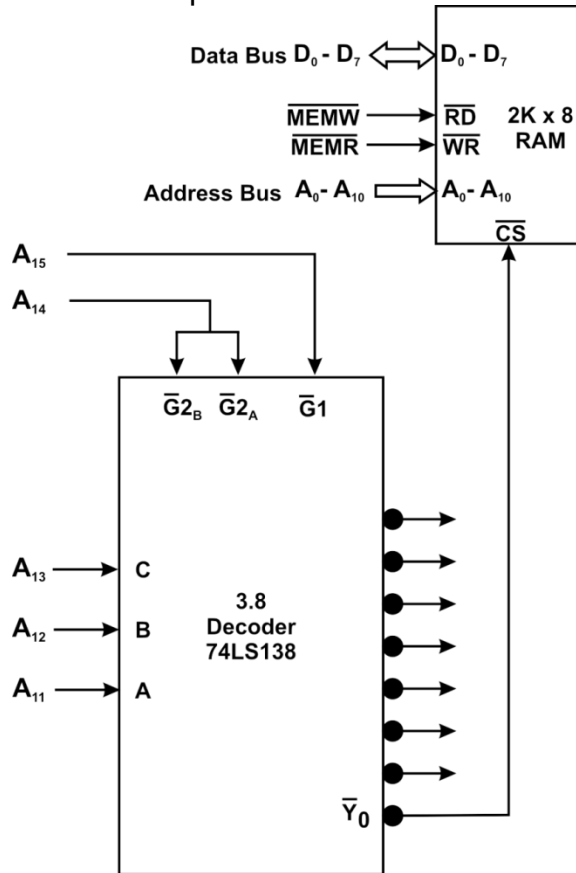


Fig. 2.4 Interfacing of 2K X 8 RAM using decoder chip select logic

Here, the advantage of using decoder is minimum hardware is required as compared using NAND gates. When we use NAND gates, other logical devices are also required as per requirement as in above examples, NOT gates are used. Hence for numbers of devices, numbers of NAND and other logical devices are required to generate chip select signals.

But when we use decoder like 3:8 (74LS138), we can generate eight chip select signals using one decoder IC, as it has eight active low output pins. The complete interfacing diagram using decoder to generate chip select signals for 2K of RAM is shown in Fig. 2.4

1.7 SUMMARY

- Most computers incorporate two types of volatile RAM: static and dynamic.
- DRAM stores each bit of information in a separate capacitor on the integrated circuit. With using capacitors for storage is that they gradually dissipate their charge, so the charge must be refreshed regularly.
- The DRAM controller is an extra piece of hardware placed between the processor and the memory chips. Its main purpose is to perform the refresh operations required to keep your data alive in the DRAM.
- Static RAM (SRAM) has the advantage of being faster than DRAM, although the disadvantage is that it is more expensive.
- The process of writing your data to the PROM involves a special piece of equipment called a device programmer.
- EPROMs can be erased and reprogrammed repeatedly. To erase an EPROM, you simply expose the device to a strong source of ultraviolet light.
- EEPROMs can be erased and rewritten, usually by creating a high-voltage pulse on the chip.
- Flash memory devices are high density, low cost, nonvolatile, fast (to read, but not to write), and electrically reprogrammable.
- An NVRAM is usually just an SRAM with a battery backup.

- In case of 8085 microprocessor the address bus is 16 bit wide; it can address 65,536 locations i.e. 64 Kbytes of memory.
- Chip select logic can be developed using either combination of different gates such as AND, NAND, NOT etc. or decoders.

1.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Distinguish between SRAM & DRAM.
- Q.2 Write a short note on RAM.
- Q.3 Explain different types of ROM.
- Q.4 Distinguish between EPROM & EEPROM.
- Q.5 Write a short note on Flash memory.
- Q.6 Explain memory interfacing in 8085.
- Q.7 Explain control signals WR , RD and chip select logic.

1.9 REFERENCE

- Microprocessor Architecture, Programming, and Applications With the 8085 by Ramesh Gaonkar, Publisher:Prentice Hall
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INTRODUCTION TO 8085 MICROPROCESSOR

Topics Covered:

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Organization of Microprocessor based System

3.3 Features of 8085 Microprocessor

3.1 INTRODUCTION

- ⇒ The microprocessor [MPU] is a programmable digital device, designed with registers, flip-flops and timing elements.
- ⇒ The microprocessor has a set of instructions, designed internally, to manipulate data and communicate with peripherals. This process of data manipulation and communication is determined by the logic design of the microprocessor, called architecture.
- ⇒ The microprocessor can be programmed to perform functions on given data by selecting necessary instructions from its set.
- ⇒ These instructions are given to the microprocessor by writing them into its memory.
- ⇒ Writing instructions and data is done through input device such as keyboard.
- ⇒ The functions performed by microprocessor can be classified into following categories:
 - Microprocessor – initiated operations.
 - Internal operations.
 - Peripheral (or externally initiated) operations.

Microprocessor – Initiated operations and 8085 Bus organization:

- ⇒ The MPU performs primarily four operations:
 1. Memory Read: Reads data (or instructions) from memory.
 2. Memory Write: Writes data (or instructions) into memory.

3. I/O Read: Accepts data from input devices.
4. I/O Write: Sends data to output devices.

⇒ All these operations are part of communication process between the MPU and peripheral devices.

⇒ To communicate with peripheral (or memory location) , the MPU needs to perform the following steps:

Step 1: Identify the peripheral or the memory location (with its address)

Step 2: Transfer binary information (data and instruction)

Step 3: Provide timing or synchronization signals.

⇒ The 8085 MPU performs these functions using three sets of communication lines called buses:

- Address bus
- Data bus
- Control bus

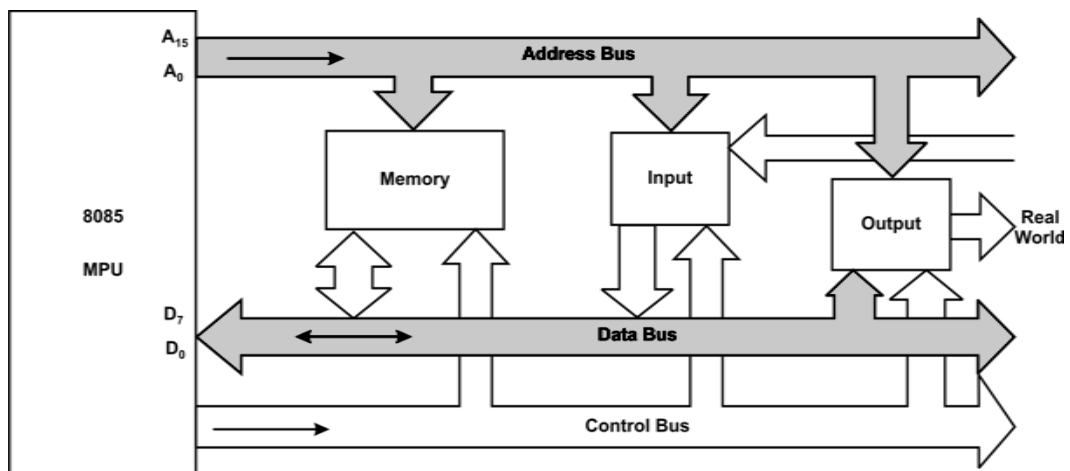


Fig. 3.1 The 8085 Bus Structure

Address Bus:

- ⇒ The address bus is a group of 16-lines generally identified as A₀ to A₁₅.
- ⇒ The address bus is unidirectional: bits flow in one direction- from the MPU to peripheral devices.
- ⇒ The MPU uses address bus to perform the first function: identifying a peripheral or a memory location.

- ⇒ In a computer system, a binary number called an address identifies each peripheral or memory location, and the address bus is used to carry a 16-bit address.
- ⇒ The number of address lines of the MPU determines its capacity to identify different memory locations (on peripherals).
- ⇒ The 8085 MPU with 16 address lines capable of addressing 65536 (generally known as 64K) memory locations.
- ⇒ E.g. Intel 8088 processor has 20 address lines and Pentium processor has 32 address lines.

Data Bus:

- ⇒ The data bus is a group of 8 lines used for data flow (the term data refers to any binary information that may include an instruction, an address or a number).
- ⇒ These lines are bi-directional- data flow in both directions between MPU and memory and peripheral devices.
- ⇒ The MPU uses data bus to perform second function: transferring binary information.
- ⇒ To eight data lines enable the MPU to manipulate 8-bit data ranging from 00 to FF.
- ⇒ The largest number that can appear on the data bus is 1111 1111. The 8085 is known as an 8-bit microprocessor.
- ⇒ Microprocessors such as Intel 8086, Zilog Z8000 and Motorola 68000 have 16 data lines; thus they are known as 16-bit microprocessor.
- ⇒ Intel 80386/486/586 are 32-bit microprocessor.

Control Bus:

- ⇒ The control bus is the various signal lines that carry synchronization signals.
- ⇒ The MPU generates specific control signals for every operation (such as Memory Read or I/O Write) it performs.
- ⇒ The MPU places the 16-bit address on the address bus.
- ⇒ The address on the bus is decoded by an external logic circuit.
- ⇒ The MPU sends a pulse called Memory Read as the control signal.

- ⇒ The pulse activates the memory chip, and the contents of the memory location are placed on the data bus and brought inside the microprocessor.

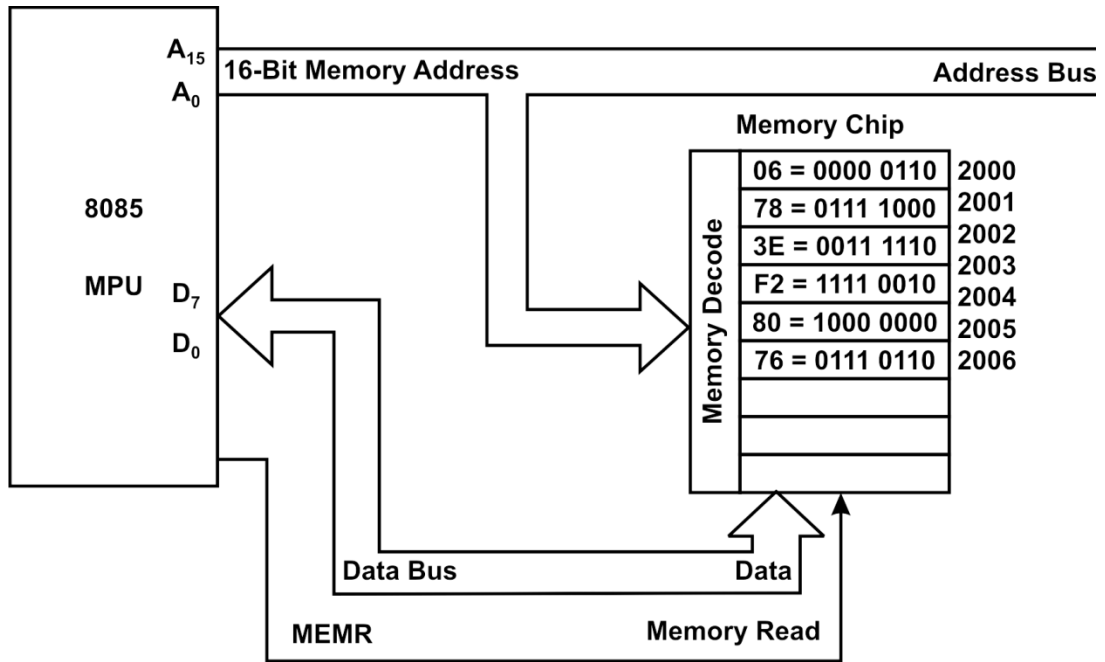


Fig. 3.2 Memory Read Operation

Internal Data Operations and the 8085 Registers:

- ⇒ The 8085 performs operations on data such as arithmetic, logical operations, stores data, test for conditions etc.
- ⇒ To perform these operations MPU requires registers, ALU and control logic and internal buses.
- ⇒ Consider the following hex codes of the instructions stored in memory locations from 2000H to 2005H as follows:

2000	06	MVI B, 78H
2001	78	
2002	3E	MVI A, F2H
2003	F2	
2004	80	ADD B
2005	76	HLT

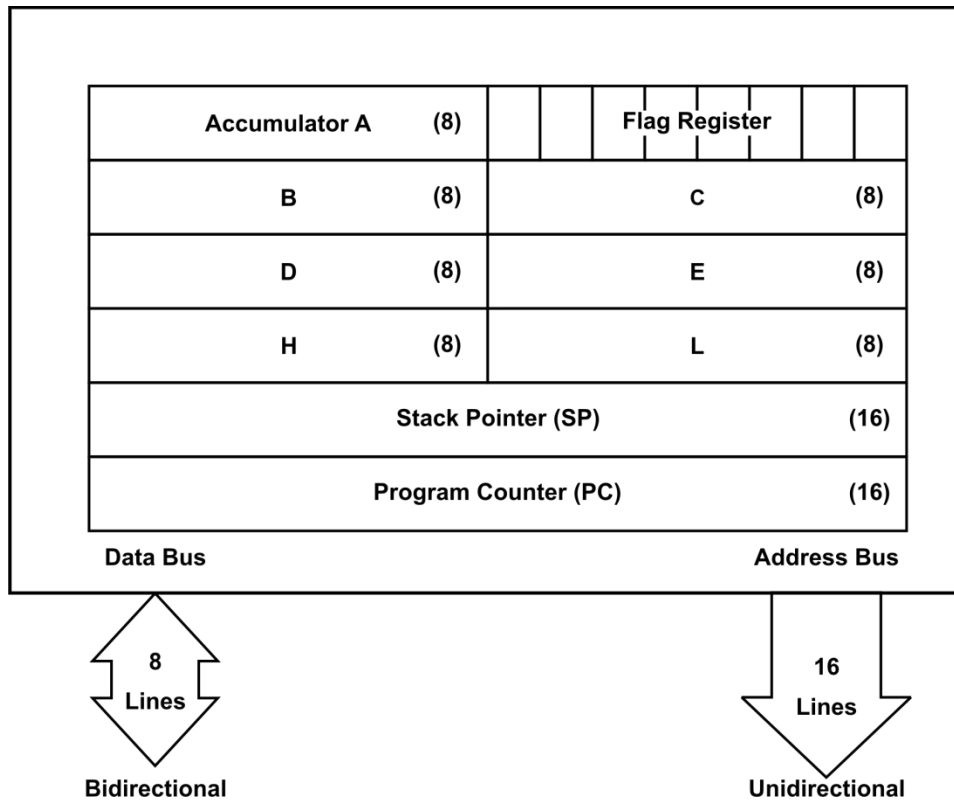


Fig. 3.3 8085 Programmable Registers

- ⇒ When user enters the memory address 2000H. The processor places the address 2000H in the Program Counter (PC).
1. When processor begins execution it places the address 2000H on the address bus and increment the address in the PC to 2001 for the next operation. It brings the code 06, interprets the code, and places the address 2001 H on the address bus, and then gets byte 78 H and increment the address in PC to 2002H. The processor repeats the same process for the next instruction MVI A, F2H.
 2. When processor executes the first two instructions, it uses register B to store 78H and register A to store F2H.
 3. When processor executes the instruction ADD B in the ALU it adds 78H and F2H and result is placed in Accumulator (78H + F2H = 16AH). It replaces F2H by 6AH in A and sets Carry flag.
 4. In the above addition operation generates the Carry. Therefore the Carry flag (CY) = 1 is set.
 5. The fifth operation deals with concept of stack. The stack pointer is a 16-bit register used as a memory pointer to identify the stack, part of R/W memory defined and used by the processor for temporary storage of data during the execution.

Peripheral or Externally Initiated Operations:

- ⇒ External devices (or signals) can initiate the following operations, for which individual pins on the microprocessor chip are assigned: Reset, Interrupt, Ready, Hold.

Reset: When an external key activates RESET key, all internal operations are suspended and the program counter is cleared (it holds 0000H). Now program execution begins at the zero memory address.

Interrupt: The microprocessor can be interrupted from the normal execution of instructions and asked to execute some other instructions called a service routine. The microprocessor resumes its operation after completing the service routine.

Ready: The 8085 has a pin called READY. If the signal at this READY pin is low, the microprocessor enters into a Wait state. This signal is used primarily to synchronize slower peripherals with the microprocessor.

Hold: When the HOLD pin is activated by an external signal, the microprocessor relinquishes control of buses and allows the external peripherals to use them. HOLD signal is used in Direct Memory Access (DMA) data transfer.

3.2 ORGANIZATION OF MICROPROCESSOR BASED SYSTEM

- ⇒ A microprocessor based system has standard components like memory, timing and input/output.
- ⇒ Depending on the application, other components are added such as digital to analog converter, interval timer, math coprocessors, interrupt controller etc.
- ⇒ Figure below shows the basic block diagram of microprocessor based system containing some standard components.

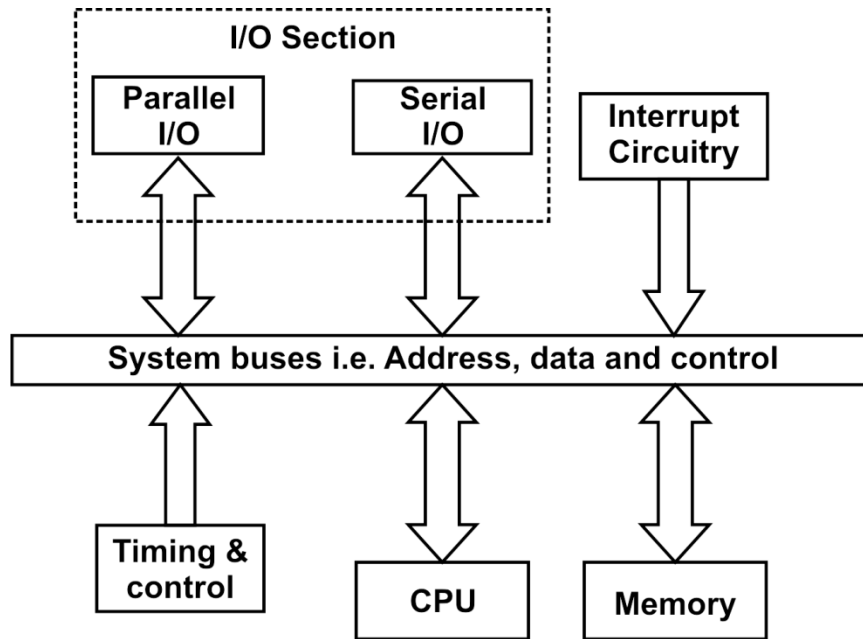


Fig. 3.4 Basic block diagram of Microprocessor Based System

- ⇒ All components of the system communicate via system buses i.e address, data and control buses.

Central Processing Unit [CPU]

- ⇒ The CPU is the heart of the system, the master controller of all operations that can be performed.
- ⇒ It reads instruction from the memory then decodes and finally executes that instruction to perform desired operation.
- ⇒ The CPU is also responsible to generate all necessary control signals and control other components in the system.
- ⇒ The CPU section consists of a microprocessor and the associated logic circuitry required enabling the CPU to communicate with the other components in the system via system buses.
- ⇒ This logic may consist of data and address driver for communication.
- ⇒ The actual microprocessor used depends on the complexity of the task that will be controlled or performed by the system.

Memory

- ⇒ It has two components i.e read only memory [ROM] and random access memory [RAM].
- ⇒ Sometimes other semiconductor memories such as EPROM, PROM, E²PROM can be used and usually contains monitor programs or BIOS program.
- ⇒ The ROM included provides the system with its intelligence, which is needed at the start up (power on) to configure or initialize peripheral.
- ⇒ The RAM is of again two types i.e static and dynamic RAM.
- ⇒ The static RAM is fast and easy to interface, but comes in small sizes and costly.
- ⇒ The dynamic RAM is slow and requires numerous refreshing cycles to retain the stored data, even so dynamic RAM is the choice for large memory where large amount of data can be stored as these RAM's are cheaper in cost.
- ⇒ Both static and dynamic RAM lose their information, when power is turned off, which may cause a problem in certain situations.
- ⇒ In the latest systems, non-volatile memory (NVM) is used which retains its information even when power is turned off.
- ⇒ NVM comes in a small size; hence it is used to store only the most important information during power failure.

Timing and Control

- ⇒ This section of the system governs all system timing and thus is responsible for the proper operation of the entire system hardware.
- ⇒ The timing section usually consists of a crystal oscillator and timing circuitry set to operate the microprocessor at its specified clock rate.

I/O Section

- ⇒ Some system may require the I/O peripherals for the some specific purpose such as keyboard for entering data and program, monitor to display results, printers to get hard copy etc.

- ⇒ So, microprocessor can communicate with these peripheral either using parallel or serial communication port.
- ⇒ Serial communication is slow but it has advantage of simplicity i.e requires only two wires for receive, transmit and ground.
- ⇒ Serial communication is easily adapted for use in fibre optics cables.
- ⇒ On other hand, parallel I/O is faster but requires more lines depending on size of data bus hence it is costly for implementation.
- ⇒ A parallel I/O operation can be used to transfer data to/from a hard disk, reading switch information, controlling indicator lights, transferring data to A/D or D/A converter and other types of parallel devices.

Interrupt Circuitry

- ⇒ When a microprocessor used in control applications, there will be times when the system must respond to special external circumstances.
- ⇒ Such circumstances interrupt the microprocessor from its normal execution to service the unexpected event.
- ⇒ The system software is designed to handle such unexpected event.
- ⇒ Interrupts are used to perform a special task such as real time clocks, multitasking capability and fast I/O operations.
- ⇒ The interrupt circuitry needed from system to system will vary depending on the applications.

3.3 FEATURES OF 8085 MICROPROCESSOR

- ⇒ 8085 microprocessor is an 8-bit microprocessor.
- ⇒ It can accept process or provide 8-bit data simultaneously.
- ⇒ It operates on a single +5v power supply connected at V_{cc} and power supply ground is connected to V_{ss}.
- ⇒ It can operate on clock cycle with 50% duty cycle.
- ⇒ It has on chip clock generator.
- ⇒ This internal clock generator requires tuned circuit like LC, RC or crystal.
- ⇒ It can operate with a 3 MHz clock frequency.
- ⇒ It has 16 address lines; hence it can access 64 kbytes of memory.
- ⇒ It provides 8 bit I/O addresses to access 256 I/O ports.

3.4 EXERCISE

1. What is a Microprocessor?
2. Explain the classification of the functions performed by the Microprocessor.
3. List the four operations commonly performed by the Microprocessor.
4. Explain the three set of communication lines used to perform the functions of 8085 microprocessors.
5. What is a bus?
6. Specify the function of the address bus and the direction of the information flow on the address bus.
7. Why is the data bus bidirectional?
8. Explain Control Bus.
9. What are the various operations performed by the 8085 Microprocessor on the data?
10. Specify the four control signals commonly used by the 8085 microprocessor.
11. Explain with diagram Microprocessor Based System.
12. What are the features of 8085 Microprocessor?

3.5 REFERENCES

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PIN DIAGRAM AND ARCHITECTURE OF 8085 MICROPROCESSOR

Topics Covered:

- 4.1 Pin Diagram of 8085 Microprocessor with description
- 4.2 Architecture of 8085 Microprocessor

4.1 PIN DIAGRAM OF 8085 MICROPROCESSOR WITH DESCRIPTION

The 8085 microprocessor

- ⇒ 8085 is a 8-bit general purpose microprocessor capable of addressing 64K memory. The device has 40 pins and requires +5V single power supply. It can operate with 3MHz single-phase clock.

- ⇒ The logic pin out of the 8085-microprocessor signals can be classified into six groups:
 1. Address bus
 2. Multiplexed Address/Data bus
 3. Control and status signals
 4. Power supply and clock frequency
 5. Externally initiated signals, including interrupts
 6. Serial I/O ports

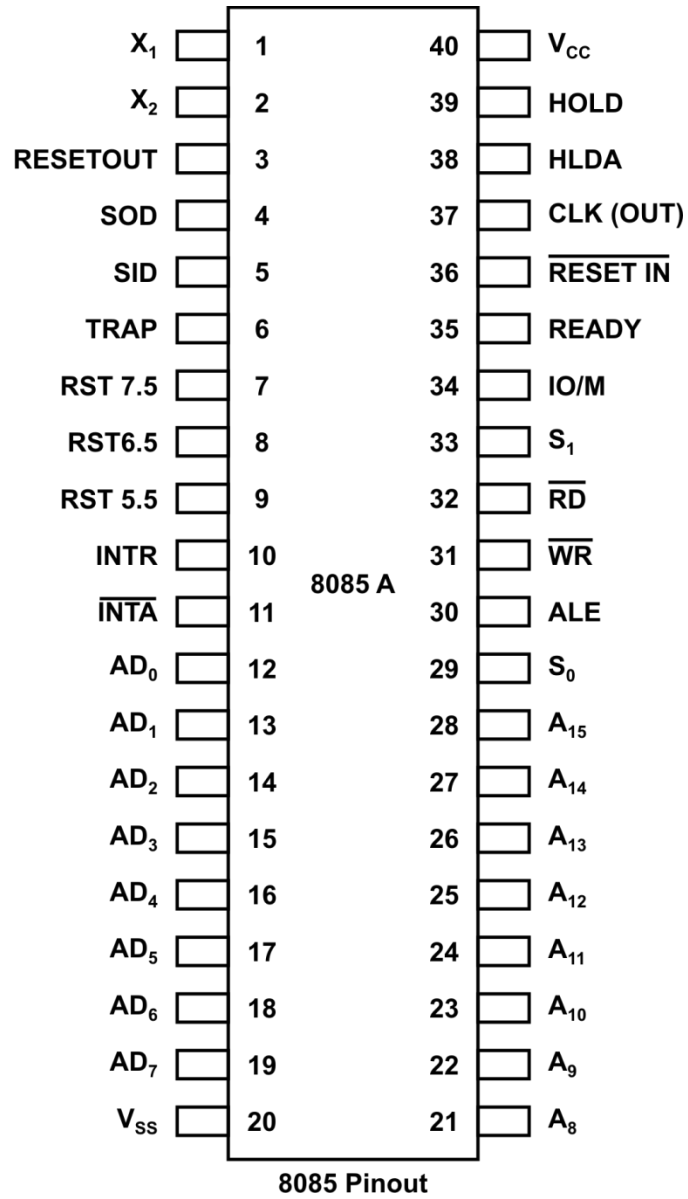


Fig. 4.1 Pin Diagram of 8085 Microprocessor

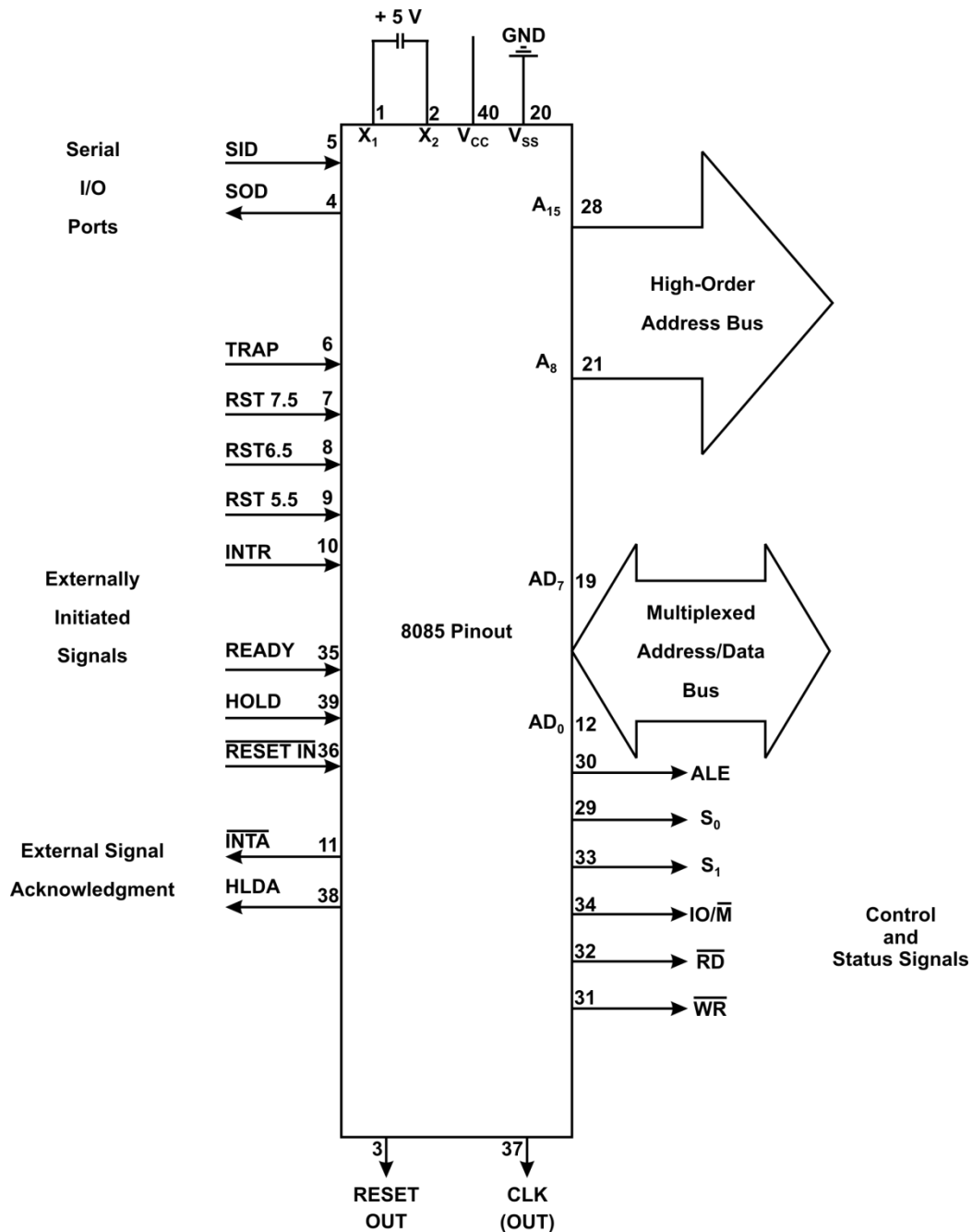


Fig. 4.2 The Signals of 8085 Microprocessor

Address Bus:

- ⇒ The 16 address lines are split into two parts A_{15} - A_8 and AD_7 - AD_0 . Higher order bus is unidirectional and the signal lines AD_7 - AD_0 are used for a dual purpose.

Multiplexed Address/Data Bus:

- ⇒ The signal lines AD_7 - AD_0 are bi-directional. They are used as lower order address bus as well as data bus. In executing an instruction, during the earlier part of the cycle, these lines are used as low order address bus. During later part of cycle these lines are used as data bus.

Control and Status Signals:

⇒ This group of signals includes two control signals RD and WR, three status signals (IO/M, S1 and S0) to identify nature of operation.

- **ALE (Address Latch Enable)** : This is a +ve pulse generated every time when 8085 begins an operation(machine cycle); it indicates that the bits on AD₇-AD₀ are address bits. This signal is primarily used to latch the low-order address bus.
- **RD-(Read)** : This is a Read control signal(Active low). This signal indicates that the selected I/O or memory device is to be read and data are available on data bus.
- **WR-(Write)** : This is a Write control signal(Active low). This signal indicates that the data on the data bus are to be written into a selected memory or I/O location.
- **IO/M** : This is a status signal used to differentiate between I/O and memory operations. When it is high, it indicates an I/O operation; when it is low, it indicates a memory operation. This signal is combined with RD and WR to generate I/O and memory control signals.
- **S1 and S0** : These status signals are similar to IO/M and used to identify various operation as follows

Table 4.1 8085 Machine Cycle Status and Control Signals

Machine Cycle	Status			Control signals
	IO/M	S1	S0	
<i>Opcode Fetch</i>	0	1	1	<i>RD=0</i>
Memory Read	0	1	0	RD=0
Memory Write	0	0	1	WR=0
I/O Read	1	1	0	RD=0
I/O Write	1	0	1	WR=0
Interrupt Acknowledge	1	1	1	INTA=0
Halt	Z	0	0	RD,WR=Z and INTA=1
Hold	Z	X	X	
Reset	Z	X	X	

Z= High impedance X=Unspecified

- **Power Supply and Clock Frequency:**

The power supply and frequency signals are as follows

V_{cc} : +5V power supply

V_{ss} : Ground Reference

X_1, X_2 : A crystal is connected at these two pins. The frequency is internally divided by two; therefore to operate a system at 3MHz the crystal should have frequency of 6MHz.

CLK(OUT) : Clock output. This signal can be used as the system clock for other devices.

Externally initiated signals, including interrupts:

⇒ The 8085 has five interrupt signals that can be used to interrupt program execution. The microprocessor acknowledges the interrupt request by INTA signal.

⇒ In addition to interrupts, three pins- RESET, HOLD and READY – accept the externally initiated signals as inputs. To respond to the HOLD request, the 8085 has one signal HLDA (Hold Acknowledge).

RESET IN:

⇒ When the signal on this pin goes low, the program counter is set to zero the buses are tri-stated and the MPU is Reset.

RESET OUT

⇒ This signal indicates that the MPU is being Reset. The signal can be used to Reset other devices.

Interrupt	Description
INTR (Input)	Interrupt Request: This is used as a general purpose interrupt; it is similar to INT of 8080A
INTA (Output)	Interrupt Acknowledge: This is used to Acknowledge the interrupt.
RST 7.5 (Inputs) RST 6.5 RST 5.5	Restart Interrupts: These are vectored interrupts that transfer the program control to specific memory locations. They have higher priorities than INTR interrupt. Among these three priority order is 7.5, 6.5 and 5.5
TRAP (Input)	This is non mask able interrupt and has highest priority.
HOLD (Input)	This signal indicates the peripherals such as DMA (Direct Memory Access) controller are requesting the use of the address and data buses.

HLDA (Output)	Hold Acknowledge: This signal acknowledges the HOLD request.
READY (Input)	This signal is used to delay the microprocessor Read or Write cycles until a slow-responding peripheral is ready to send or accept data. When this signal goes low, the microprocessor waits for an integral number of clock cycles until it goes high.

Table 4.2 8085 Interrupts and Externally Initiated Signals

Serial I/O Ports:

- ⇒ The 8085 has two signals to implement the serial transmission: SID (Serial Input Data) and SOD (Serial Output Data).
- ⇒ In serial transmission, data bits are sent over a single line, one bit at a time, such as a transmission over telephone lines.

4.2 ARCHITECTURE OF 8085 MICROPROCESSOR

The architecture of the 8085 Microprocessor is shown below:

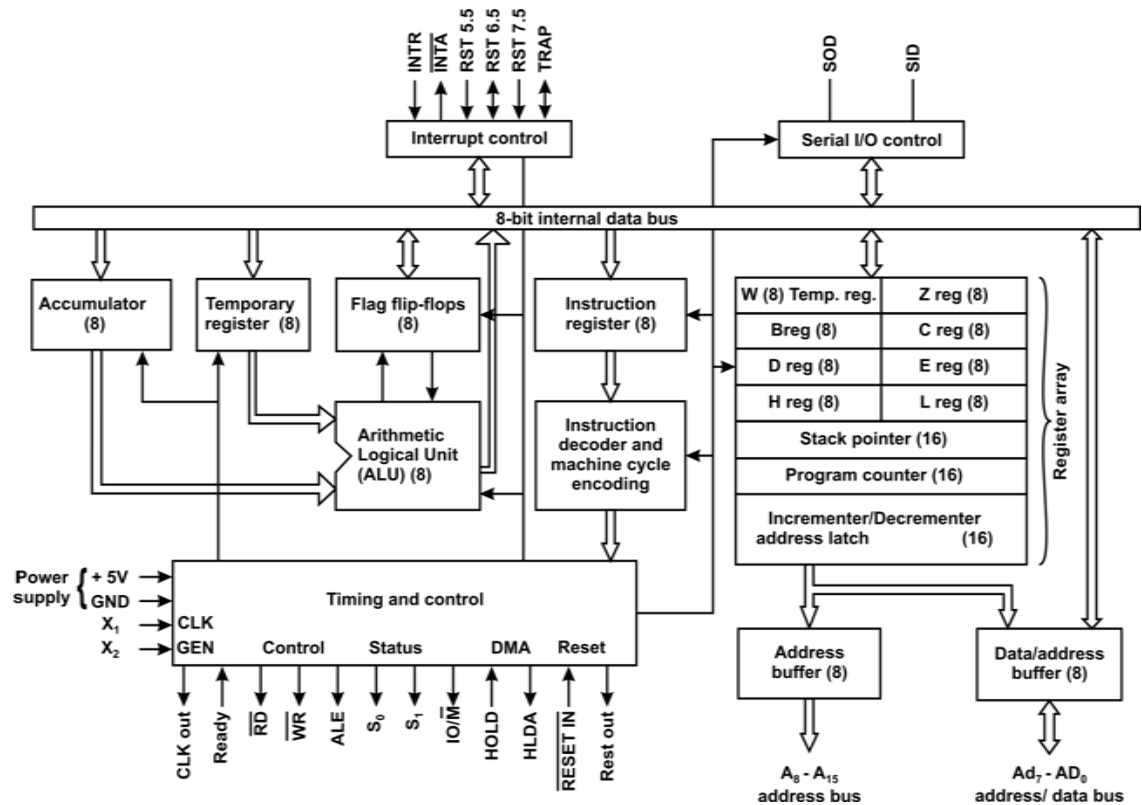


Fig. 4.3 Block diagram of 8085 microprocessor

Control Unit

- ⇒ Generates signals within microprocessor to carry out the instruction, which has been decoded.
- ⇒ In reality causes certain connections between blocks of the microprocessor to be opened or closed, so that data goes where it is required, and so that ALU operations occur.

Arithmetic Logic Unit

- ⇒ The ALU performs the actual numerical and logic operation such as 'add', 'subtract', 'AND', 'OR', etc.
- ⇒ Uses data from memory and from Accumulator to perform arithmetic.
- ⇒ Always stores result of operation in Accumulator.

Registers

- ⇒ The 8085 programming model includes six registers, one accumulator, and one flag register, as shown in Figure.

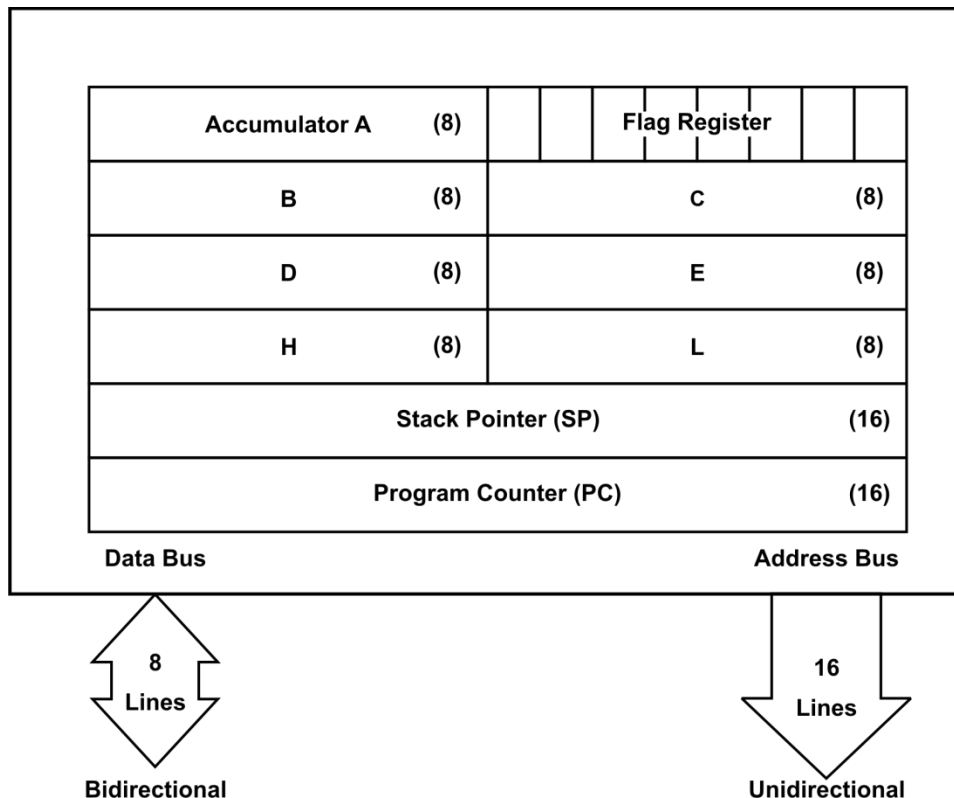


Fig. 4.4 The 8085 Programmable Registers

- ⇒ In addition, it has two 16-bit registers: the stack pointer and the program counter.

- ⇒ They are described briefly as follows.
- ⇒ The 8085/8080A has six general-purpose registers to store 8-bit data; these are identified as B, C, D, E, H and L as shown in the figure.
- ⇒ They can be combined as register pairs - BC, DE, and HL - to perform some 16-bit operations.
- ⇒ The programmer can use these registers to store or copy data into the registers by using data copy instructions.

Accumulator

- ⇒ The accumulator is an 8-bit register that is a part of arithmetic/logic unit (ALU).
- ⇒ This register is used to store 8-bit data and to perform arithmetic and logical operations.
- ⇒ The result of an operation is stored in the accumulator.
- ⇒ The accumulator is also identified as register A.

Flags

- ⇒ The ALU includes five flip-flops, which are set or reset after an operation according to data conditions of the result in the accumulator and other registers.
- ⇒ They are called Zero (Z), Carry (CY), Sign (S), Parity (P), and Auxiliary Carry (AC) flags.
- ⇒ The most commonly used flags are Zero, Carry, and Sign.
- ⇒ The microprocessor uses these flags to test data conditions.
- ⇒ For example, after an addition of two numbers, if the sum in the accumulator is larger than eight bits, the flip-flop used to indicate a carry -- called the Carry flag (CY) -- is set to one.
- ⇒ When an arithmetic operation results in zero, the flip-flop called the Zero (Z) flag is set to one.
- ⇒ The figure shows an 8-bit register, called the flag register, adjacent to the accumulator.

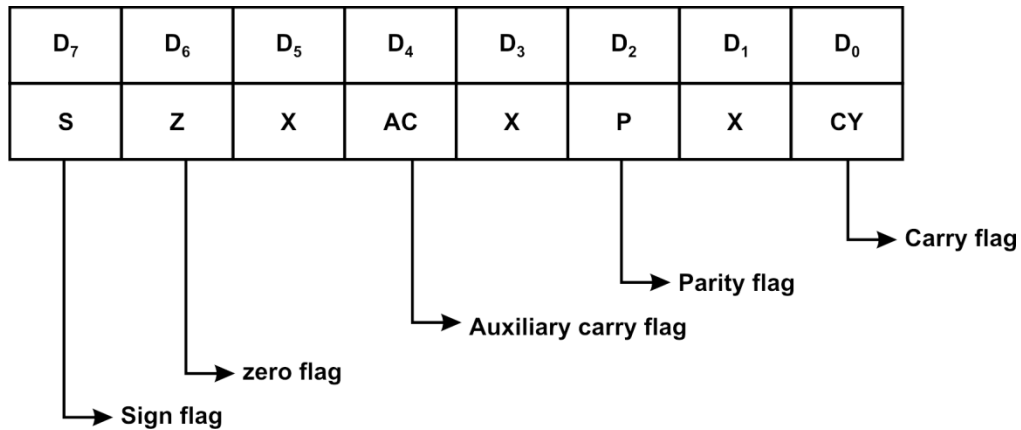


Fig. 4.5 Format of flag registers of 8085 register

- ⇒ However, it is not used as a register; five bit positions out of eight are used to store the outputs of the five flip-flops.
- ⇒ The flags are stored in the 8-bit register so that the programmer can examine these flags (data conditions) by accessing the register through an instruction.
- ⇒ These flags have critical importance in the decision-making process of the microprocessor.
- ⇒ The conditions (set or reset) of the flags are tested through the software instructions. For example, the instruction JC (Jump on Carry) is implemented to change the sequence of a program when CY flag is set.
- ⇒ The thorough understanding of flag is essential in writing assembly language programs.

Program Counter (PC)

- ⇒ This 16-bit register deals with sequencing the execution of instructions.
- ⇒ This register is a memory pointer.
- ⇒ Memory locations have 16-bit addresses, and that is why this is a 16-bit register.
- ⇒ The microprocessor uses this register to sequence the execution of the instructions.
- ⇒ The function of the program counter is to point to the memory address from which the next byte is to be fetched.

- ⇒ When a byte (machine code) is being fetched, the program counter is incremented by one to point to the next memory location.

Stack Pointer (SP)

- ⇒ The stack pointer is also a 16-bit register used as a memory pointer.
- ⇒ It points to a memory location in R/W memory, called the stack.
- ⇒ The beginning of the stack is defined by loading 16-bit address in the stack pointer.
- ⇒ The stack concept is explained in the chapter "Stack and Subroutines."

Instruction Register/Decoder

- ⇒ Temporary store for the current instruction of a program.
- ⇒ Latest instruction sent here from memory prior to execution.
- ⇒ Decoder then takes instruction and 'decodes' or interprets the instruction.
- ⇒ Decoded instruction then passed to next stage.

Memory Address Register

- ⇒ Holds address, received from PC, of next program instruction.
- ⇒ Feeds the address bus with addresses of location of the program under execution.

Control Generator

- ⇒ Generates signals within microprocessor to carry out the instruction which has been decoded.
- ⇒ In reality causes certain connections between blocks of the uP to be opened or closed, so that data goes where it is required, and so that ALU operations occur.

Register Selector

- ⇒ This block controls the use of the register stack in the example.
- ⇒ Just a logic circuit which switches between different registers in the set will receive instructions from Control Unit.

General Purpose Registers

- ⇒ Microprocessor requires extra registers for versatility.
- ⇒ Can be used to store additional data during a program.
- ⇒ More complex processors may have a variety of differently named registers.

8085 System Bus

- ⇒ Typical system uses a number of buses i.e collections of wires, which transmit binary numbers, one bit per wire in term of voltage levels 0 volt or 5 volt for 0 and 1 respectively.
- ⇒ A typical microprocessor communicates with memory and other devices input and output using three busses i.e Address bus, Data bus and Control bus.

Address Bus

- ⇒ One wire is required for each bit, therefore 16 bits requires 16 wires. Binary number carried by these wires tells memory to open the designated memory location. Binary data can then be store in or taken out from the memory location depending on the control signal.
- ⇒ The Address bus consists of 16 wires, therefore its “width” is 16 bits.
- ⇒ A 16 bit binary number allows 2^{16} or 64K different numbers i.e 0000000000000000 up to 1111111111111111.
- ⇒ Because size of memory location is of 8 bit each, each with a unique address, the size of the address bus determines the size of memory which can be accessed.
- ⇒ To communicate with memory the microprocessor sends an address on the address bus, e.g 0000000000000011 (3 in decimal), to the memory.
- ⇒ The memory selects location number 3 for reading or writing data.
- ⇒ Address bus is unidirectional, i.e numbers only sent from microprocessor to memory, not other way.

Data Bus

- ⇒ Data Bus carries ‘data’, in binary form, between microprocessor and other external devices such as memory or peripherals.

- ⇒ Size of data bus is determined by the size of location in memory and data bus size helps determine performance of microprocessor.
- ⇒ The Data Bus is typically of 8 bit, 16 bit or 32 bit and it is bi-directional.
- ⇒ 8085 has 8 bit data bus, therefore 28 combinations of binary digits are possible.
- ⇒ Data bus used to transmit “data”, i.e information, results of arithmetic, etc between memory and the microprocessor.
- ⇒ Therefore larger number has to be broken down into chunks of 255, this slows microprocessor.
- ⇒ Data Bus also carries instructions from memory to the microprocessor.
- ⇒ Size of the bus therefore limits the number of possible instructions to 256, each specified by a separate number.

Control Bus

- ⇒ Control bus is unidirectional.
- ⇒ How can we tell the address is a memory address or an I/O port address and read/write data from/to memory or I/O port?
- ⇒ Normally control signal are of following types:
 - Memory Read
 - Memory Write
 - I/O Read
 - I/O Write
- ⇒ When Memory Read or I/O Read is active, data is input to the processor.
- ⇒ When Memory Write or I/O Write is active, data is output from the processor.
- ⇒ The control bus signals are defined from the processor's point of view.

De-Multiplexing of Address/Data Bus of 8085

- ⇒ In the 8085 microprocessor, the higher order address lines i.e A_8-A_{15} are directly available, but the lower order address lines are multiplexed with data bus in time sharing.

- ⇒ Hence the de-multiplexing of address/data bus is required i.e separation of address and data bus.
- ⇒ In T_1 state of every machine cycle, the contents on AD_0-AD_7 is the lower order address i.e A_0-A_7 and at the same time, the ALE also goes high for half of T_1 state.
- ⇒ After T_1 state, the 8085 remove the contents of AD_0-AD_7 lines and use same lines as a data lines [data bus] for next clock cycle T_2 state onwards.
- ⇒ Hence, the de-multiplexing of address/data bus can be implemented by using tri-state octal latch 74LS373 and this latch can be controlled by using ALE signal of 8085 as shown in the following figure:

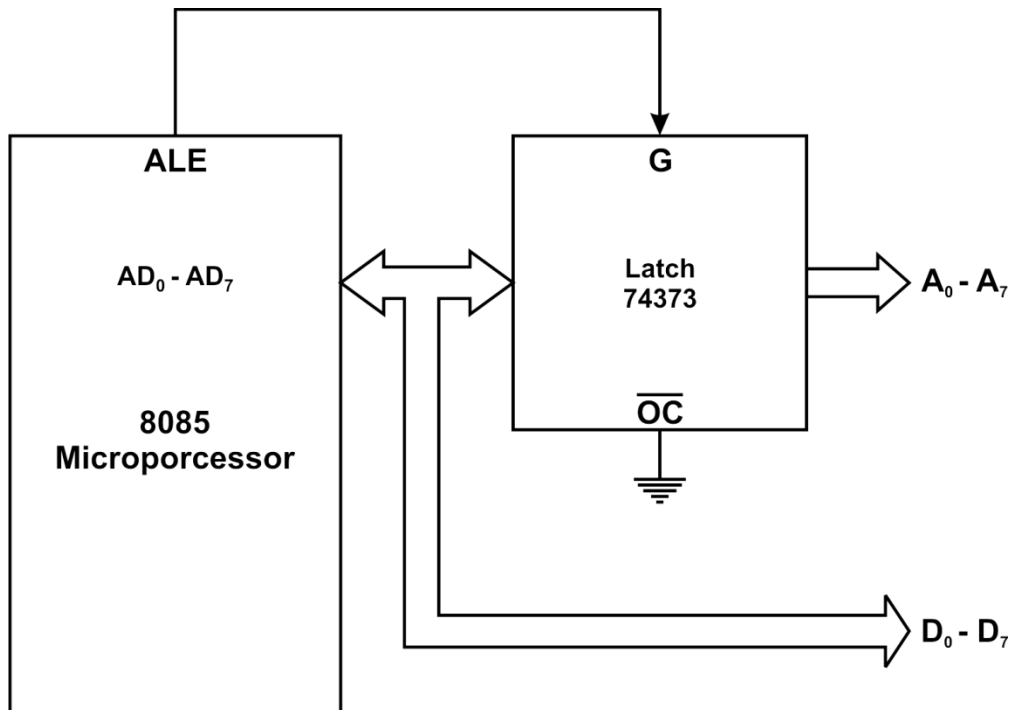


Fig. 4.6 De-multiplexing of AD_0-AD_7

- ⇒ When ALE goes high, the address signals will be latched in the octal latch 74LS373 and output of the latch will be provided on A_0-A_7 .
- ⇒ When ALE goes low, the latch will be disabled and the AD_0-AD_7 can be used as data bus D_0-D_7 .

Generation of Control Signal

- ⇒ The Control signals required are \overline{RD} and \overline{WR} , but in any microprocessor based system, we will find memory devices as well as I/O devices.
- ⇒ Hence, the control signals required are \overline{MEMR} , \overline{MEMW} , \overline{IOR} and \overline{IOW} and normally used to distinguish between memory and I/O devices. These signals can be generated by using 3:8 decoder 74LS138 as shown in figure below:

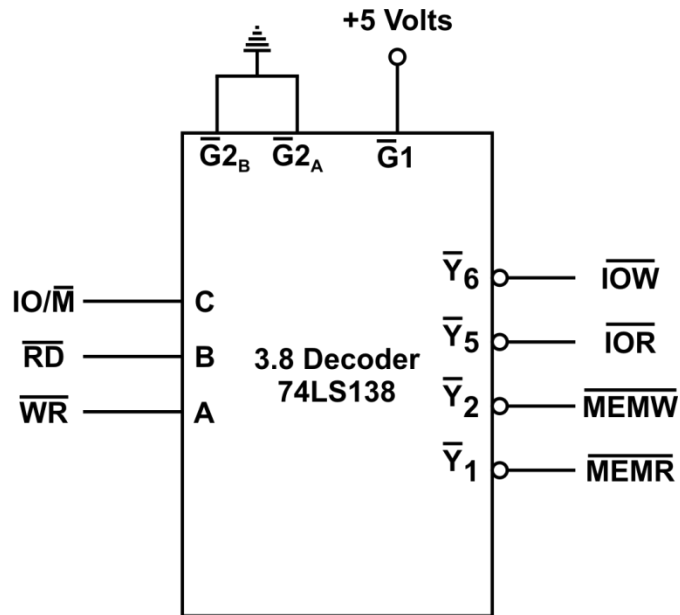


Fig. 4.7 Generation of Control Signal

Typical 8085 System Configuration

- ⇒ The typical 8085 system can be designed using decoder (74LS138) to generate different control signals, latch 74LS373 to de-multiplexed address/data bus i.e separate address and data bus.
- ⇒ The device 72LS245 Octal Transceiver is optional but in buffered system is required.
- ⇒ The typical 8085 based system configuration is shown in figure below:

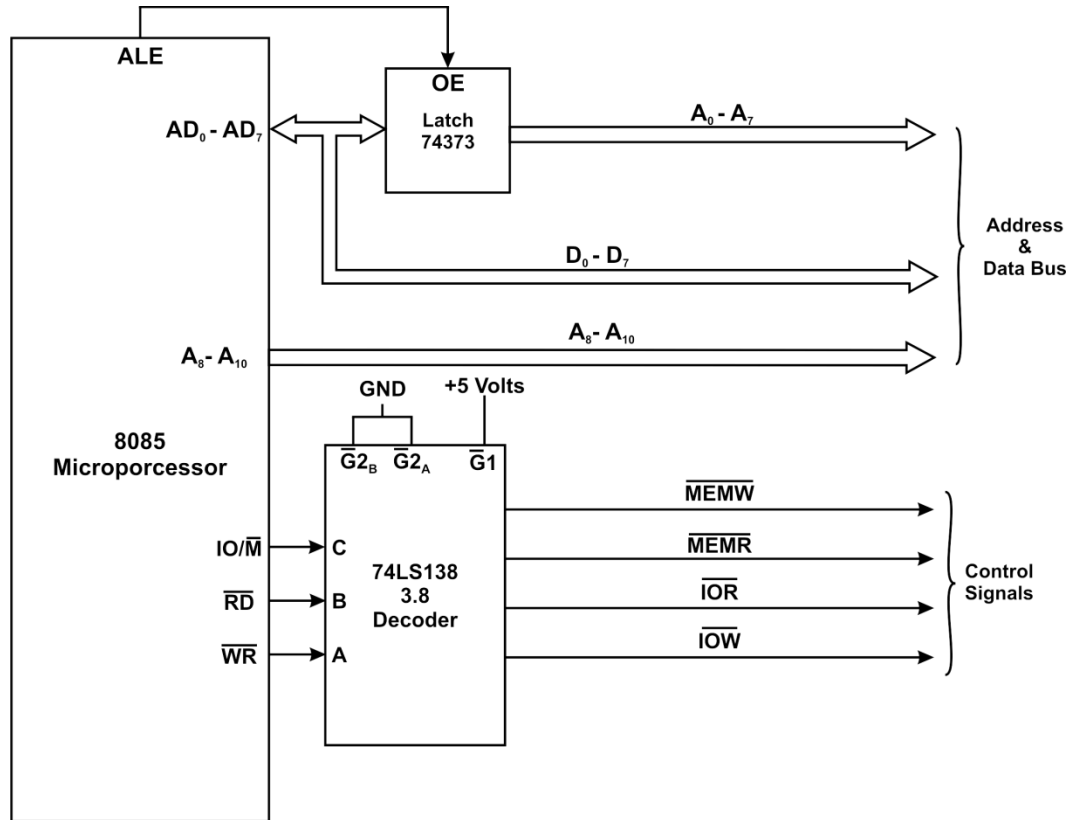


Fig. 4.8 Typical 8085 based system configuration

Address Decoding Techniques

- ⇒ As we know, 8085 has 16 address lines using which allows addressing up to 64 KB of main memory.
- ⇒ Most of the time we do not need complete 64KB memory, so most of the address lines will remain free which can be used generate chip select and determine the range of the addresses the memory will occupy.
- ⇒ There are two types of decoding technique depending on the number of lines used for the decoder.
 - Full or absolute decoding
 - Partial decoding
- ⇒ In full decoding, all remaining address lines are used for the decoder to generate chip select signal for the memories as shown in figure below:

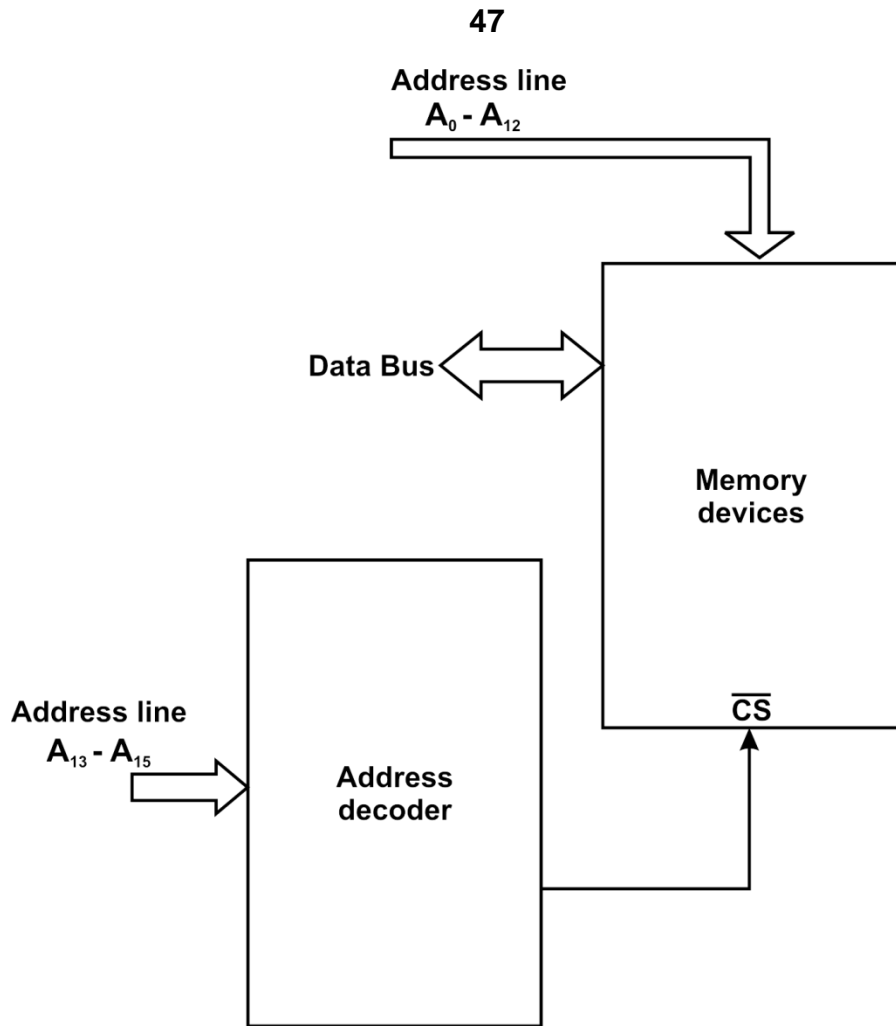


Fig. 4.9 Full Decoding

- ⇒ For example, suppose we want to interface 8k of memory, then thirteen address lines are required for the memory.
- ⇒ Then remaining three address lines can be used for decoder, so more hardware is required for decoding the numbers of address bits.
- ⇒ But in partial decoding, only one line out of remaining address lines is used to generate chip select signal as shown in figure below:

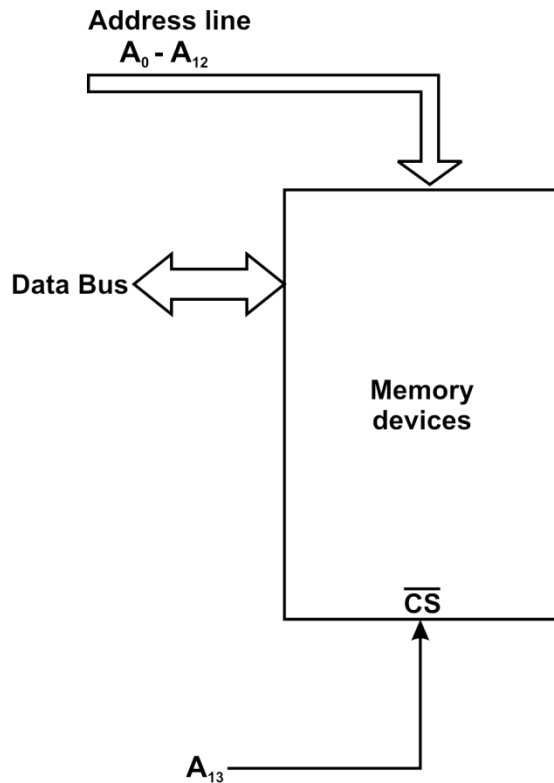


Fig. 4.10 Partial Decoding

- ⇒ For above example, out of remaining three address lines, we can use any one of them as chip select signal and rest of the address lines will remain open or unconnected, so less hardware is required for decoding.

Difference between Full and Partial Decoding

Sr. No.	Full Decoding	Partial Decoding
1.	All address lines are used by memory chips and decoders.	All lines are not used.
2.	Each memory location has only one unique address.	Each location has two or more address because the number of addresses per memory location is 2^n where n is number of unused address lines.
3.	Address decoder hardware is complicated and expensive.	Address decoder is simple and less expensive.
4.	The size of memory is not reduced.	The size of memory is reduced.

Exercise

1. Draw the pin diagram of 8085 microprocessor and explain the various pins.
2. Explain the architecture of 8085 microprocessor with the help of the block diagram.
3. Explain with the help of a diagram various programmable registers of 8085.
4. With the help of a diagram, explain the format of the flag register.
5. Explain Program Counter and Stack Register.
6. Write a short note on 8085 system bus.
7. Explain de multiplexing of address bus of 8085.
8. Write a short note on address decoding techniques.
9. State the difference between full and partial decoding.

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INTERFACING TECHNIQUES

Topics Covered:

- 5.1 I/O Mapped I/O
- 5.2 Memory Mapped I/O
- 5.3 Difference between Memory Mapped I/O and I/O Mapped I/O
- 5.4 Memory Device
- 5.5 Chip Select Logic

Introduction

There are two method of interfacing memory or I/O devices with the microprocessor are as follows:

- a) I/O mapped I/O
- b) Memory mapped I/O

5.1 I/O MAPPED I/O

- ⇒ In this technique, I/O device is treated as a I/Q device and memory as memory.
- ⇒ Each I/Q device uses eight address lines.
- ⇒ If eight address lines are used to interface to generate the address of the I/O port, then 256 input and 256 output devices can be interfaced with the microprocessor.
- ⇒ The address bus of the 8085 microprocessor is 16 bit, so we can either use lower order address lines i.e. $A_0 - A_7$ or higher order address lines i.e. $A_8 - A_{15}$ to address I/O devices where the address available on $A_0 - A_7$ will be copied on the address lines $A_8 - A_{15}$.
- ⇒ In I/O mapped I/O, the complete 64 Kbytes of memory can be interfaced as all address lines can be used to address memory locations as the address space is not shared among I/O devices and memory and 256 input and /or output devices.
- ⇒ In this type, the data transfer is possible between accumulator A register and I/O devices only.
- ⇒ Address decoding is simple, as less hardware is required.
- ⇒ The separate control signals are used to access I/O devices and memory such as \overline{IOR} , \overline{IOW} for I/O port and \overline{MEMR} ,

MEMW for memory hence memory location are protected from the I/O access.

- ⇒ But in this type, arithmetic and logical operation are not possible directly.
- ⇒ Also we cannot use other register for data transfer between I/O device and microprocessor accepts A register.
- ⇒ The figure below shows interfacing I/O devices in I/O mapped I/O.

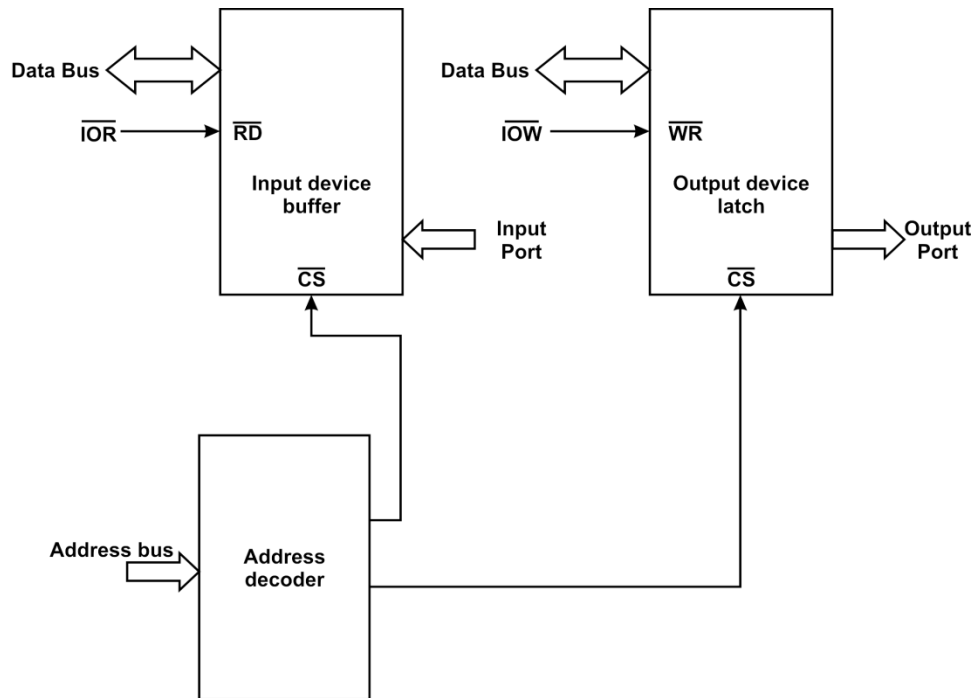


Fig.5.1 I/O mapped I/O ports

5.2 MEMORY MAPPED I/O

- ⇒ In this technique, I/O devices are treated as memory and memory as memory, hence the address of the I/O devices are as same as that of memory i.e. 16 bit for 8085 microprocessor.
- ⇒ So, the address space of the memory i.e. 64 Kbytes will be shared by the I/O devices as well as by memory.
- ⇒ All 16 address lines i.e. A_0-A_{15} is used to address memory locations as well as I/O devices.
- ⇒ The control signals $\overline{\text{MEMR}}$ and $\overline{\text{MEMW}}$ are used to access memory devices as well as I/O devices.
- ⇒ The data transfer is possible between any register of the microprocessor and I/O device or memory device.
- ⇒ Hence, all memory related instructions can be used to access devices as they are treated as memory devices.

- ⇒ Address decoding of the I/O devices and memory devices are complicated and expensive as more hardware is required.
- ⇒ The 8085 microprocessor can access either 64 K I/O ports or memory locations, hence the total numbers of the I/O ports and memory locations should not be greater than 64 K.
- ⇒ I/O devices and memory locations are distinguished by the addresses only.

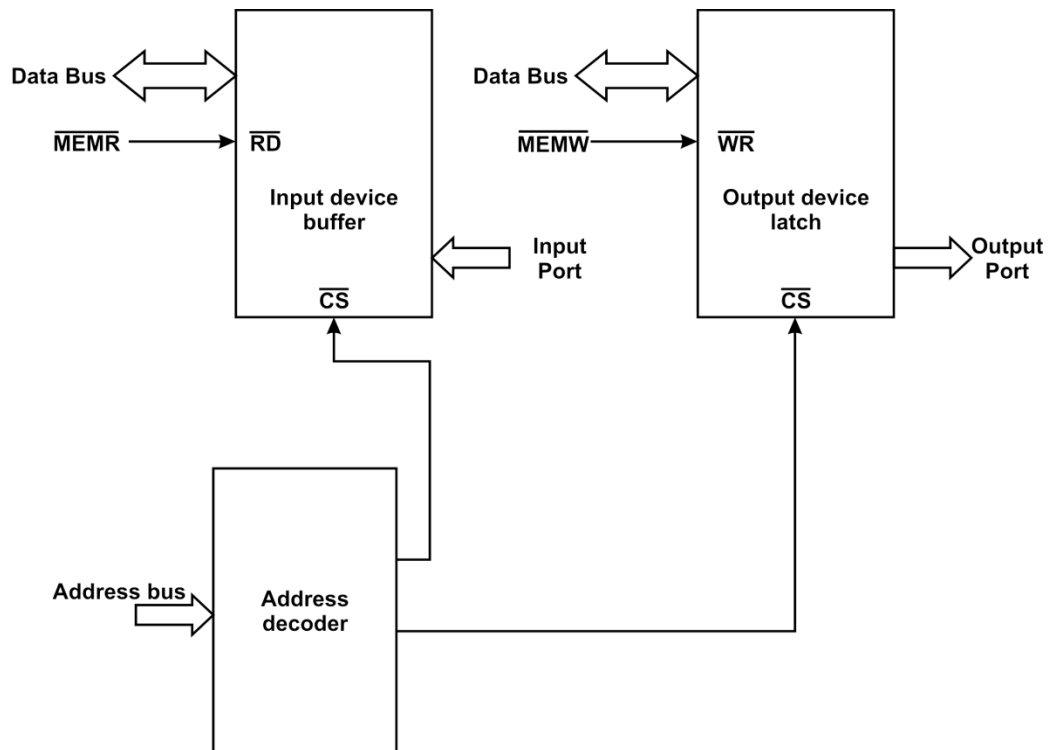


Fig. 5.2 Memory mapped I/O ports

- ⇒ Arithmetic and logical operation can be performed directly on the I/O devices.
- ⇒ Most of the memory instructions are long; hence it reduces the speed of I/O.
- ⇒ Normally, the speed of the I/O devices are very slow, hence the common interface used in memory mapped I/O will reduce the speed of memory access unnecessarily.
- ⇒ The Figure above shows interfacing of I/O devices in memory mapped I/O.

5.3 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEMORY MAPPED I/O AND I/O MAPPED I/O

No	I/O mapped I/O	Memory mapped I/O
1	I/O devices are treated as I/O devices and memory devices are treated as memory	I/O and memory devices are treated as memory devices.
2	Separate Control Signals for I/O devices are \overline{IOR} , \overline{IOW} and memory devices are \overline{MEMR} , \overline{MEMW} .	Control signals for memory as well as I/O devices are \overline{MEMR} and \overline{MEMW} .
3	IN and OUT instructions are required for I/O read and write operation.	All memory related instruction are used to Access I/O devices.
4	Data transfer is possible between I/O device and Accumulator only.	Data transfer is possible between any register and I/O devices.
5	Address decoding logic is simple.	Address decoding logic is complicated and expensive.
6	8085 can access complete 64 Kbytes of Memory and 256 of Input and 256 output devices as address space is not shared.	8085 can access 64 bytes maximum I/O devices or memory as address space is shared, so total numbers of I/O ports and memory locations should not more than 64K .
7	I/O Device address is 8 bit and memory address is 16 bit.	I/O device and memory address is 16 bit as I/O devices are treated as memory.
8	I/O devices and memory are distinguished by control signals and addresses.	I/O devices and memory are distinguished by only addresses.
9	Arithmetic and logical operations are not possible directly with I/O devices.	Arithmetic and logical operations are possible directly with I/O devices.

5.4 MEMORY DEVICE

- ⇒ Memory is the storage device which can be used to store monitor program, users program or users data.
- ⇒ So memory is an important component of the microprocessor based system, which will allow you to store program and data.
- ⇒ The memory consists of the thousands of memory cells arranged to store data.
- ⇒ Each memory cell is capable of storing 1 bit of the data.
- ⇒ Hence, to use memory to store programs or data of user or system, memory must be interfaced with microprocessor properly, so that it can be accessed while reading or writing data or program from/to it .
- ⇒ In the same way, input and output devices are also required to read or write data out from the microprocessor using input device such as keyboard or output device using console.
- ⇒ So, these devices must be interface properly with the microprocessor so that user can read data from input device and write data to the output device.

Memory Address

- ⇒ In computer science, a memory address is a unique identifier for a memory location at which a CPU or other device can store a piece of data for later retrieval.
- ⇒ In modern byte- addressable computers, each address identifies a single byte of storage; data too large to be stored in a single byte may reside in multiple bytes occupying a sequence of consecutive addresses.
- ⇒ Some microprocessors were designed to be word-addressable, so that the typical storage unit was actually larger than a byte.

Memory Interfacing

1. Each memory chip like RAM, ROM, EPROM, E²PROM and DRAM have numbers of pins and these pins are used to accept different kinds of signals.
2. Normally every memory chip has pins for address, data, control signals and chip select signals.

Address Pins

- ⇒ Address pins are used to accept address from the system address bus transmitted by the microprocessor.
- ⇒ The numbers of address pins are depending upon size of the memory as shown in Table below

Table 5.1

Nos of Address lines used	Size of memory in bytes
1	2
2	4
3	8
4	16
5	32
6	64
7	128
8	256
9	512
10	1024 \approx 1k
11	2048 \approx 2k
12	4096 \approx 4k
13	8192 \approx 8k
14	16384 \approx 16k
15	32768 \approx 32k
16	65536 \approx 64k

Data Pins

- ⇒ The size of the data bus depends on the data bits, which can be stored in memory location.
- ⇒ Slandered memory data bits stored in a memory location, available are 1, 4 and 8 bits.

$\overline{\text{CS}}$ (Chip Select) or $\overline{\text{CE}}$ (Chip Enable) Pin

- ⇒ This signal of the memory chip is ACTIVE LOW and acts as master enable pin for read or write operation.
- ⇒ Hence, for every read or write operation, this signal must be low otherwise no operation will be performed.

$\overline{\text{WR}}$ (Write Control Signal) Pin

- ⇒ This is an active low input control signal used to write data to the memory location whose address is available on address lines if chip select signal is enable.
- ⇒ This signal is available on system control bus and generated by the microprocessor or other master in the system such as DMA controller or co-processor.

$\overline{\text{RD}}$ / $\overline{\text{OE}}$ (Read / Output Enable) Pin

- ⇒ This is an active low input control signal used to read data from the memory location whose address is available on address lines if chip select signal is enable.

- ⇒ This signal is available on system control bus and generated by the microprocessor or other master in the system such as DMA controller or co-processor.
- ⇒ Beside these pin described above, some additional pin also available depending on the type of memory.
- ⇒ For example, Vpp and PGM pins are available in EPROM for programming as in normal condition EPROM is read only memory.
- ⇒ But EPROM can be programmed; the separate EPROM programming hardware is required.

Different Memory IC's Available are shown in table below

Table 5.2

Type of memory	IC number	Memory Sizes Address lines x data lines
EPROM	2716	2K X 8
EPROM	2732	4k x 8
EPROM	2764	8k X 8
SRAM	6116	2k X 8
SRAM	6264	8k x 8
SRAM	2114	1K X 4

5.5 CHIP SELECT LOGIC

Chip select logic can be developed using either combination of different gates such as AND, NAND, NOT etc. or decoders.

Using Logic Gates

- ⇒ Now take an example of interfacing of 2K of RAM with the microprocessor 8085, the 8085 is an 8 bit microprocessor. Hence all 8 lines of data bus can be directly connected after de-multiplexing to D₀-D₇ of the RAM memory. The eleven (11) address lines required to access any memory location within 2k memory, so out of 16 address lines (A₀-A₁₅) of 8085 microprocessor, the A₀-A₁₀ address lines can be connected directly to generate chip select signal using NAND and NOT gates depending on the addresses required as shown in following figure.

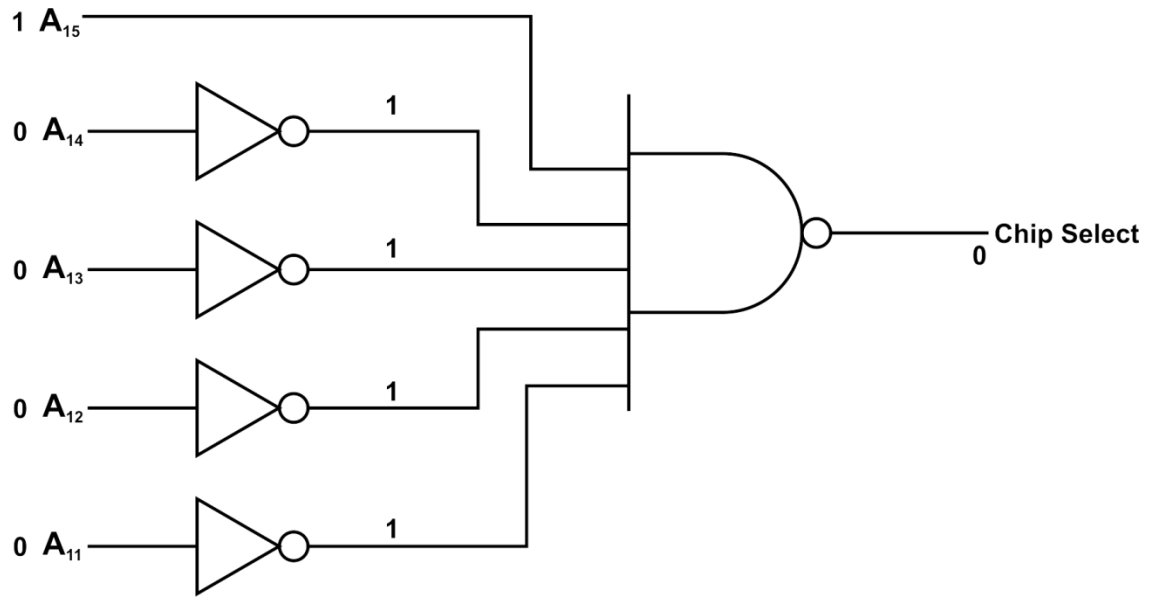


Fig 5.3 Chip select using NAND gates

- ⇒ For generation of chip select we are using NAND gate, when input to NAND gate are all logic 1, then output of NAND gate will be logic 0 and for all other combination the output will be logic 1.
- ⇒ The chip select is active low signal, hence all inputs of the NAND gates must be logic 1 to generate chip select signal as given below.

A_{15}	A_{14}	A_{13}	A_{12}	A_{11}
1	0	0	0	0

- ⇒ Hence addresses map of the 2K of RAM is given below.

A ₁₅	A ₁₄	A ₁₃	A ₁₂	A ₁₁	A ₁₀	A ₉	A ₈	A ₇	A ₆	A ₅	A ₄	A ₃	A ₂	A ₁	A ₀	ADDRESS
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8000H
1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	87FFH
Used for chip select Decoder logic					Connected to A ₁₀ -A ₀ 2 K RAM											

- ⇒ The interfacing diagram of 2K X 8 RAM is shown in following figure

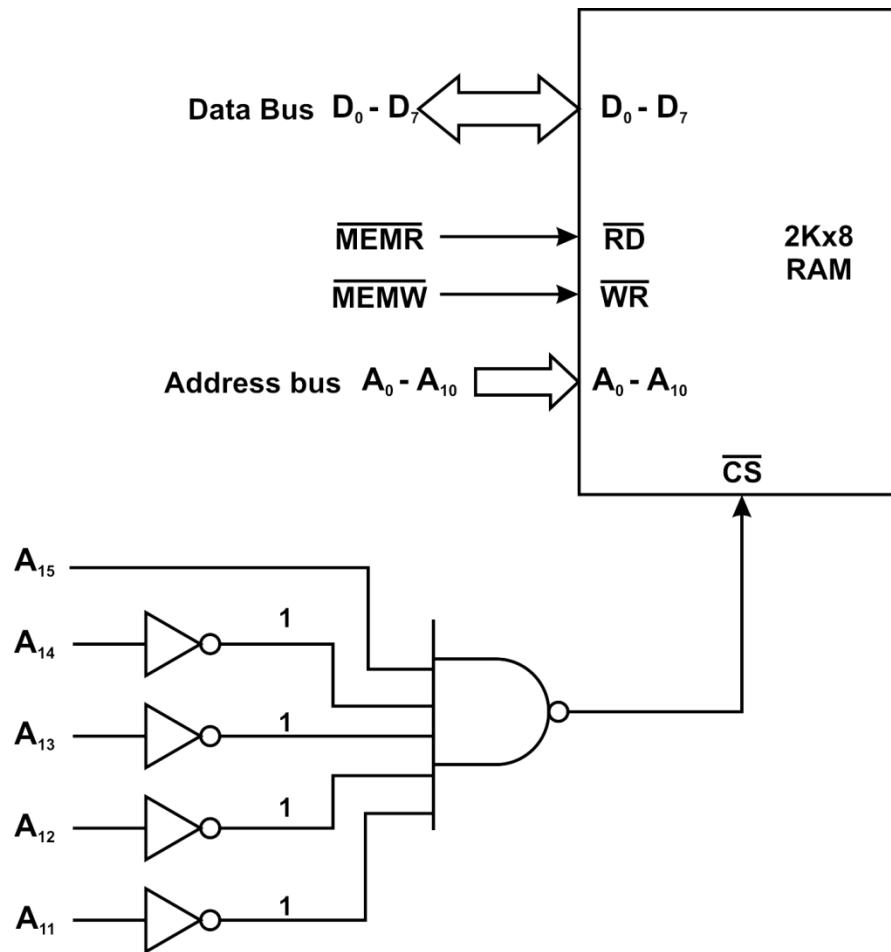


Fig. 5.4 Interfacing of 2K X 8 RAM

Using Decoder

⇒ Consider above example of memory interfacing, where remaining address lines i.e. $A_{11} - A_{15}$ can be connected to the decoder. Now connect A_{11} , A_{12} , A_{13} to A, B, C inputs of 3:8 decoder 74LS138 respectively, A_{14} to G_{2A} and G_{2B} enable pins and at last A_{15} to G_1 pin of 3:8 decoder as shown in following figure.

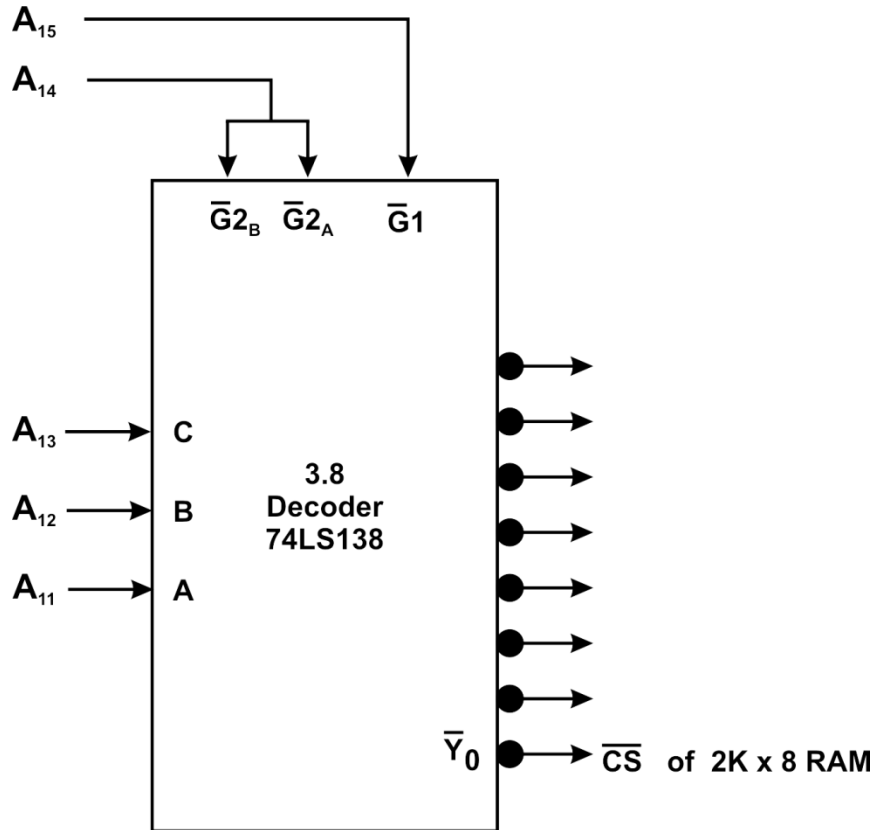


Fig. 5.5 Using decoder

⇒ After making the connection as shown above, the address map of 2K RAM will be same as specified above.

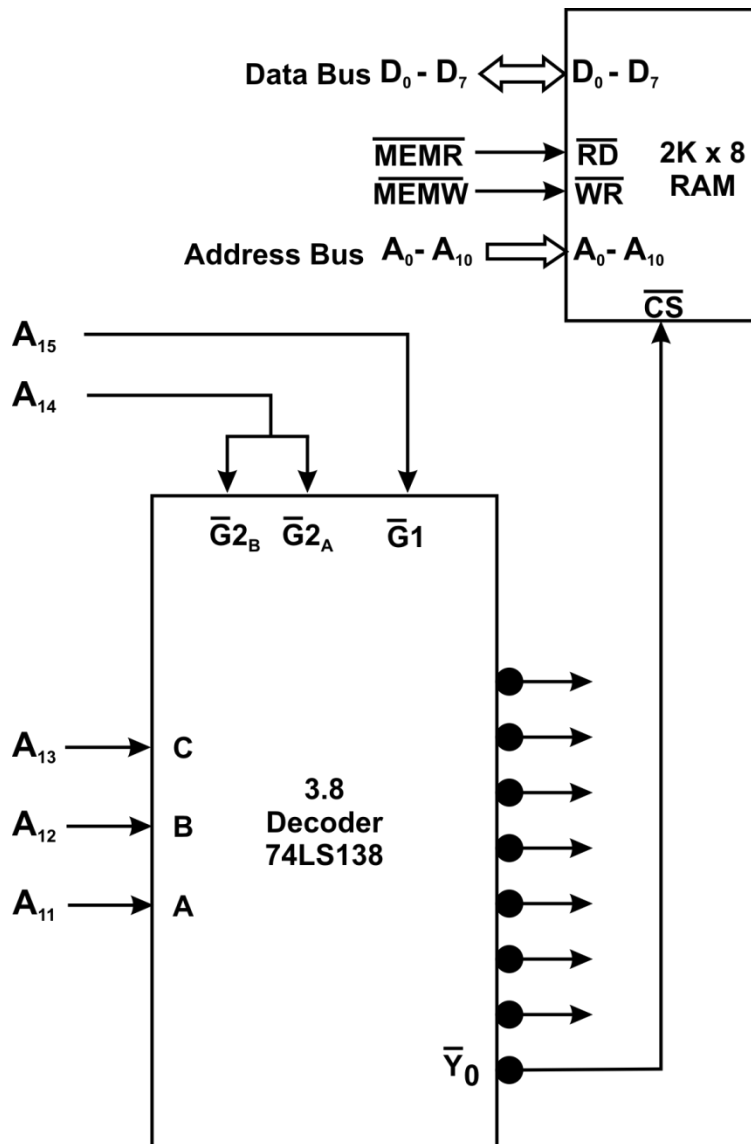


Fig. 5.6 Interfacing of 2K X 8 RAM using decoder chip select logic

- ⇒ Here, the advantage of using decoder is minimum hardware is required as compared using NAND gates. When we use NAND gates, other logical devices are also required as per requirement as in above examples, NOT gates are used. Hence for numbers of devices, numbers of NAND and other logical devices are required to generate chip select signals.
- ⇒ But when we use decoder like 3:8 (74LS138), we can generate eight chip select signals using one decoder IC, as it has eight active low output pins. The complete interfacing diagram using decoder to generate chip select signals for 2K of RAM is shown in Fig. 4.6

Exercise

1. Explain I/O Mapped I/O with diagram.
2. Explain Memory Mapped I/O with diagram.
3. Differentiate between I/O Mapped I/O and Memory Mapped I/O.
4. What is a memory device?
5. Explain Memory Interfacing.
6. Explain various data pins.
7. Explain how chip select logic can be used using GATES.
8. Explain how chip select logic can be used using decoders.

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Computer System Architecture – M. Morris Meno, PHI, 1998

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Unit III

8085 MICROPROCESSOR PROGRAMMING MODEL

Topics Covered:

- 6.1 8085 Programming Model
- 6.2 Instruction Classification
- 6.3 Instruction Format
- 6.4 Overview of 8085 Instruction Set

6.1 8085 PROGRAMMING MODEL

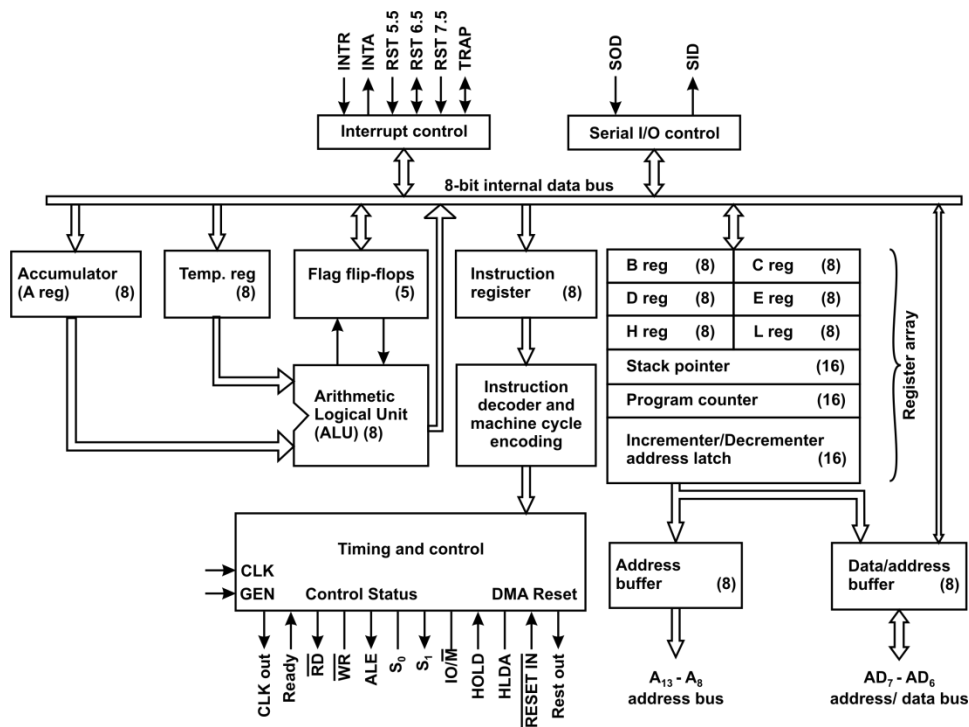


Figure 6.1 8085 programming model

- ⇒ The programming model consists of some segments of the ALU and the registers.
- ⇒ This model does not reflect the physical structure of 8085 but includes information that is critical writing assembly programs.

- ⇒ The model includes six registers; one accumulator and one flag register as shown in following figure.
- ⇒ In addition to this it has two 16-bit registers called stack pointer and program counter

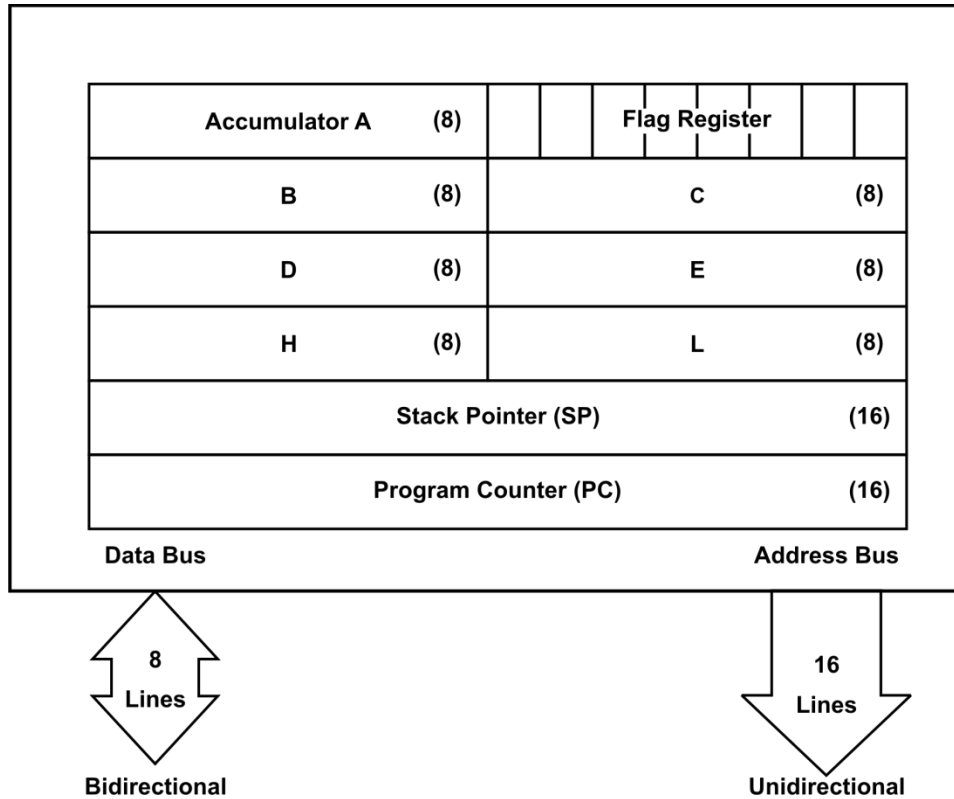


Fig 6.2 8085 Registers

Registers:

- ⇒ 8085 has six general-purpose registers to store 8-bit data.
- ⇒ These registers are B, C, D, E, H, L as shown in above figure.
- ⇒ They can be combined as register pairs – BC, DE, and HL – to perform some 16-bit operations.
- ⇒ The programmer can use these registers to store or copy data into the registers by using data copy instructions.

Accumulator:

- ⇒ The accumulator is an 8-bit register that is part of the arithmetic/logic unit (ALU).
- ⇒ This register is used to store 8-bit data and to perform arithmetic and logical operations.
- ⇒ The result of an operation is stored in the accumulator.
- ⇒ The accumulator is also identified as register A.

Flags:

- ⇒ The ALU includes five flip flops, which are set or reset as per the operations results in accumulator and other registers.
- ⇒ They are called Zero(Z) , Carry (CY), Sign(S) , Parity(P) and Auxiliary carry (AC) flags. The most commonly used flags are Zero, Carry and Sign.
- ⇒

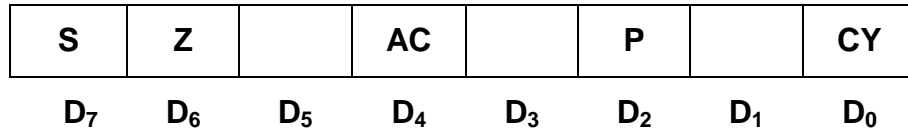


Figure 6.3 Flag Register

- ⇒ The flags are important in decision-making process.
- ⇒ E.g. the instruction JC (Jump on Carry) is implemented to change the sequence of a program when the Carry CY flag is set.
- ⇒ Z – Zero : The zero flag is set to 1 when the result is zero; otherwise it is reset.
- ⇒ CY – Carry : If an arithmetic operation results carry then CY flag is set; otherwise it is reset.
- ⇒ S – Sign: The sign flag is set if bit D₇ of the result =1 ; otherwise it is reset
- ⇒ P- Parity: If the result has an even number of 1s , the flag is set; for an odd number of 1s the flag is reset.
- ⇒ AC – Auxiliary Carry: In an arithmetic operation, when a carry is generated by digit D₄, the Ac flag is set. This flag is used internally for BCD operations; there is no Jump instruction associated with this flag.

Program Counter and Stack Pointer:

- ⇒ There are two 16-bit registers used to hold memory addresses.
- ⇒ The size of these registers is 16-bits because the memory addresses are 16-bits.
- ⇒ The MPU uses PC register to sequence the execution of the instructions.
- ⇒ The function of Program counter is to point to the memory location from which the next byte is to be fetched.

- ⇒ When a byte(machine code) is fetched the program counter is incremented by one to point to the next memory location.
- ⇒ The stack pointer points to the location in R/W memory. The beginning of the stack is defined by loading 16-bit address in the stack pointer. e.g. Instruction to initialize stack pointer is LXI SP,2400H

6.2 8085 INSTRUCTION CLASSIFICATION

Instruction:

- ⇒ An instruction is a binary pattern designed inside microprocessor to perform a specific function.
- ⇒ Entire group of instruction is called instruction set.
- ⇒ 8085 instructions are functionally categorized into five types
 - 1) Data transfer (copy) operations
 - 2) Arithmetic operations
 - 3) Logical operations
 - 4) Branching operation
 - 5) Machine control operations

Data transfer (copy) operations:

- ⇒ This group of instruction copies data from a location called a source to another location called destination, without modifying the contents of source.
 - e.g.
 - a. Copy contents of register B into register D
 - b. Load register B with the data byte 35H
 - c. From memory location 4000H to register B
 - d. From input keyboard to the accumulator

Arithmetic operations:

Addition:

- ⇒ Any 8-bit number, or contents of a register, or the contents of memory location can be added to the contents of accumulator and sum is stored in the accumulator.
- ⇒ No two other 8-bit registers can be added directly (e.g. Contents of register B cannot be added directly to the contents of C) The instruction DAD is an exception; it adds 16-bit data directly in register pair.

Subtraction:

- ⇒ Any 8-bit number, or contents of a register, or the contents of memory location can be subtracted from the contents of accumulator and the result is stored in the accumulator.

- ⇒ The subtraction is performed in 2's complement, and the result, if negative, is expressed in 2's complement. No two other registers are subtracted directly.

Increment/Decrement:

- ⇒ The 8-bit contents of register or memory location can be incremented or decremented by 1.
- ⇒ Similarly, 16-bit contents of register pair can be incremented or decremented.
- ⇒ The increment/decrement differs from addition and subtraction in such a way that they can be performed on any one the register or in memory location

Logical operations:

AND,OR, Exclusive-OR:

- ⇒ Any 8-bit number or the contents of a register, or a memory location can be logically ANDed, ORed, or Exclusive-ORed with the contents of the accumulator. The results are stored in accumulator.
- ⇒ E.g To logically AND the contents of a B register with the contents of A the instruction is ANA B.

Rotate (shift):

- ⇒ Each bit in the accumulator is can be shifted either left or right to the next position. E.g. To rotate left each binary bit of the accumulator instruction is RLC. (Bit D_7 is placed in the position of D_0 as well as in the Carry flag.)

Compare:

- ⇒ Any 8-bit numbers or the contents of a register, or a memory location can be compared for equality, greater than, or less than, with the contents of accumulator.
- ⇒ E.g. The instruction CPI 32H compare the content of accumulator with 32H for less than, equal to or greater than.

Complement:

- ⇒ The content of accumulator can be complemented; all the 0s are replaced by 1s and all 1s are replaced by 0s.
- ⇒ E.g. the instruction is CMA to complement the content of Accumulator.

Branching operation:**Jump:**

- ⇒ The conditional jumps are an important aspect of the decision-making process in programming.
- ⇒ These instructions test for certain condition (e.g. Zero /Carry/Sign etc) and alter the program sequence when condition is met. In addition to conditional jump, the instruction set includes unconditional jump. E.g. JMP 2500H

Call, Return and Restart:

- ⇒ These instructions change the sequence of program either by calling a subroutine or returning from a subroutine.
- ⇒ The conditional Call and Return instructions also can test condition flags.

Machine control operations:

- ⇒ These instructions control machine functions such as Halt, Interrupt or do nothing.

6.3 INSTRUCTION FORMAT

Instruction word size

- ⇒ **8085 instruction set is classified into the following three groups according to word size or byte size.**
 - 1) 1-Byte instruction
 - 2) 2-Byte instruction
 - 3) 3-Byte instruction

ONE-Byte Instruction:

- ⇒ A 1-byte instruction includes opcode and operand in the same byte
- ⇒ E.g.

Task	Opcode	Operand	Binary Code	Hex Code
Copy contents of accumulator in reg. C	MOV	C, A	0100 1111	4FH
Add contents of reg. B to the contents of accumulator.	ADD	B	1000 0000	80H
Invert(Complement) each bit in the accumulator (Implicit operand)	CMA		0010 1111	2FH

TWO-Byte Instruction:

⇒ In 2-byte instruction first byte specifies the operation code and the second byte specifies the operand.

⇒ E.g.

Task	Opcode	Operand	Binary Code	Hex Code
Load an 8-bit data byte in the accumulator	MVI	A, 50H	0011 1110 (1 st byte) 0101 0000 (2 nd byte)	3EH 50
Load an 8-bit data byte in reg. C	MVI	C, F2H	0000 0110 (1 st byte) 1111 0010 (2 nd byte)	06H F2H

THREE-Byte Instruction:

⇒ In 3-byte instruction first byte specifies the operation code and the following two bytes specifies the 16-bit address

⇒ E.g.

Task	Opcode	Operand	Binary Code	Hex Code
Load contents of memory 2050H into A	LDA	2050H	0011 1010 (1 st byte) 0101 0000 (2 nd byte) 0010 0000 (3 rd byte)	3A 50 20
Transfer the program sequence to memory location 2085H	JMP	2085	1100 1010 (1 st byte) 1000 0101 (2 nd byte) 0010 0000 (3 rd byte)	C3 85 20

Opcode Format

⇒ To understand operation code (opcode), we need to examine how an instruction is designed into the microprocessor.

⇒ This information is useful in reading user manual, in which operations codes are specified in binary formats and 8-bits are divided into various groups.

⇒ In 8085 microprocessor chip all operations, registers, and status flags are identified with specific code.

E.g. Internal registers can be identified as follows

CODE	Registers		CODE	Registers
000	B		00	BC
001	C		01	DE
010	D		10	HL
011	E		11	AF OR SP
100	H			
101	L			
111	A			
110	Reserved for memory related operation			

⇒ Some of the operation codes are identified as follows:

Function	Operation Code
Rotate each bit of accumulator to the left by one position.	00000111 = 07H (8-bit opcode)
Add the contents of a register to the accumulator	10000 SSS (5-bit opcode – 3bits reserved for a register)

⇒ E.g. The instruction of ADD B is completed by adding code of the register

Add 10000

Register B *000*

To A Implicit

Binary instruction 10000 000 = 80H

 ADD Reg. B

⇒ In assembly language it is expressed as

Opcode	Operand	Hex Code
ADD	B	80H
Function	Operation Code	
Move (copy) contents of register Rs(source) to register Rd (Destination)	01 DDD SSS 2-bit opcode for move, Reg. Rd and Reg. Rs	

⇒ Adding codes of two registers completes the instruction.

Move (copy) the content 01
 To register C 001 (DDD)
 From register A 111 (SSS)

Binary instruction **01 001 111 = 4FH**
 └──┬──┘ └──┬──┘
 Opcode operand

⇒ In assembly language it is expressed as

Opcode	Operand	Hex Code
MOV	C, A	4FH

Data Format

- ⇒ In 8-bit microprocessor systems, commonly used codes and data formats are
- ASCII code
 - BCD code
 - Signed integers
 - Unsigned integers

Addressing Modes

- ⇒ To perform any operation, we have to give the corresponding instructions to the microprocessor.
- ⇒ In each instruction, programmer has to specify 3 things:
- Operation to be performed.
 - Address of source of data.
 - Address of destination of result.
- ⇒ The method by which the address of source of data or the address of destination of result is given in the instruction is called Addressing Modes.
- ⇒ The term addressing mode refers to the way in which the operand of the instruction is specified.

Types of Addressing Modes

- ⇒ Intel 8085 uses the following addressing modes:
1. Direct Addressing Mode
 2. Register Addressing Mode
 3. Register Indirect Addressing Mode
 4. Immediate Addressing Mode
 5. Implicit Addressing Mode

Direct Addressing Mode

- ⇒ In this mode, the address of the operand is given in the instruction itself.
- ⇒ Eg. LDA 2500 H Load the contents of memory location 2500 H in accumulator.
 - LDA is the operation.
 - 2500 H is the address of source.
 - Accumulator is the destination.

Register Addressing Mode

- ⇒ In this mode, the operand is in general purpose register.
- ⇒ Eg. MOV A, B Move the contents of register B to A.
 - MOV is the operation.
 - B is the source of data.
 A is the destination.

Register Indirect Addressing Mode

- ⇒ In this mode, the address of operand is specified by a register pair.
- ⇒ Mov A, M Move data from memory location specified by H-L pair to accumulator.
 - MOV is the operation.
 - M is the memory location specified by H-L register pair.
 - A is the destination.

Immediate Addressing Mode

- ⇒ In this mode, the operand is specified within the instruction itself.
- ⇒ Eg. MVI A, 05H Move 05 H in accumulator.
 - MVI is the operation.
 - 05 H is the immediate data (source).
 - A is the destination.

Implicit Addressing Mode

- ⇒ If address of source of data as well as address of destination of result is fixed, then there is no need to give any operand along with the instruction.
- ⇒ Eg. CMA Complement Accumulator
 - CMA is the operation.
 - A is the source.
 - A is the destination.

6.4 OVERVIEW OF 8085 INSTRUCTION SET

- ⇒ The following are the notations used to describe the instructions

R= 8085 8-bit register (A, B, C, D, E, H, L)
M= Memory register (location)
Rs = Register source
Rd = Register destination (A, B, C, D, E, H, L)
Rp = Register pair (BC, DE, HL, SP)
() = Contents of

❖ **Data transfer instructions:**

These instruction perform six operations

1. Load an 8-bit number in register
2. Copy from register to register
3. Copy between I/O and accumulator
4. Load 16-bit number in a register
5. Copy between register and memory
6. Copy between register and stack memory

Mnemonics	<i>Examples</i>	Operation
MVI R, 8-bit	MVI B,4FH	Load 8-bit data in a register
MOV Rd, Rs	MOV B,A	Copy data from source register Rs to destination register Rd
LXI Rp, 16-bit	LXI B,2050H	Load 16-bit number in a register pair.
OUT 8-bit (port address)	OUT 01H	Send(write) data byte from the accumulator to an output device.
IN 8-bit (port address)	IN 07H	Accept(read) data byte from an input device and place it in accumulator.
LDA 16-bit	LDA 2050H	Copy data byte into A from memory specified by 16-bit address.
STA 16-bit	STA 2070H	Copy data byte from A into the memory specified by 16-bit address.
LDAX Rp	LDAX B	Copy the data byte into A from the memory specified by the address in the register pair.
STAX Rp	STAX D	Copy the data byte from A into the memory specified by the address in register pair.
MOV Rd, M	MOV B, M	Copy the data byte into destination register from the memory specified by the

		address in HL register.
MOV M, Rs	MOV M, C	Copy the data byte from the source register into memory specified by the address in HL register.

❖ **Arithmetic Instructions:**

The frequently used arithmetic operations are:

1. Add
2. Subtract
3. Increment (Add 1)
4. Decrement (Subtract 1)

Mnemonics	<i>Examples</i>	Operation
ADD R	ADD B	Add the contents of a register to the register to the contents of A
ADI 8-bit	ADI 37H	Add 8-bit data to the contents of A
ADD M	ADD M	Add the contents of memory to A; the address of memory is in HL register.
<i>SUB R</i>	<i>SUB C</i>	Subtract the contents of register from the contents of A.
<i>SUI 8-bit</i>	<i>SUI 7FH</i>	Subtract 8-bit data from the contents of A
<i>SUB M</i>	<i>SUB M</i>	Subtract the contents of memory from A; the address of memory is in HL register.
<i>INR R</i>	<i>INR D</i>	Increment the contents of register.
<i>INR M</i>	<i>INR M</i>	Increment the contents of memory, the address of which is in HL.
<i>DCR R</i>	<i>DCR E</i>	Decrement the contents of a register.
<i>DCR M</i>	<i>DCR M</i>	Decrement the contents of a memory, the address of which is in HL.
<i>INX Rp</i>	<i>INX H</i>	Increment the contents of a register pair.
<i>DCX Rp</i>	<i>DCX B</i>	Decrement the contents of a register pair.

❖ **Logic and Bit Manipulation Instructions:**

These instructions include the following operations:

1. AND
2. OR
3. X-OR(Exclusive OR)
4. Compare
5. Rotate Bits

Mnemonics	<i>Examples</i>	Operation
ANA R	ANA B	Logically AND the contents of a register with the contents of A.
Mnemonics	<i>Examples</i>	Operation
ANI 8-bit	ANI 2FH	Logically AND 8-bit data with the contents of A.
ANA M	ANA M	Logically AND the contents of memory with the contents of A; the address of memory is in HL register
ORA R	ORA E	Logically OR the contents of a register with the contents of A
ORI 8-bit	ORI 3FH	Logically OR 8-bit data with the contents of A
ORA M	ORA M	Logically OR the contents of memory with the contents of A; the address of memory is in HL register.
XRA R	XRA B	Exclusive OR the contents of a register with the contents of A
XRI 8-bit	XRI 6AH	Exclusive OR 8-bit data with the contents of A
XRA M	XRA M	Exclusive OR the contents of memory with the contents of A; the address of memory are in HL register.
CMP R	CMP B	Compare the contents of register with the contents of A for less than, equal to, or greater than
CPI 8-bit	CPI 4FH	Compare 8-bit data with the contents of A for less than, equal to, or greater than

❖ **Branch Instructions:**

The following instruction changes the program sequence.

Mnemonics	<i>Examples</i>	Operation
JMP 16-bit	JMP	Change the program sequence to the

address	2050H	specified 16-bit address.
JZ 16-bit address	JZ 2080H	Change the program sequence to the specified 16-bit address if the Zero flag is set.
JNZ 16-bit address	JNZ 2070H	Change the program sequence to the specified 16-bit address if Zero flag is reset.
JC 16-bit address	JC 2025H	Change the program sequence to the specified 16-bit address if the Carry flag is set.
JNC 16-bit address	JNC 2030H	Change the program sequence to the specified 16-bit address if the Carry flag is set.
CALL 16-bit address	CALL 2075H	Change the program sequence to the location of a subroutine.
RET	RET	Return to the calling program after completing the subroutine sequence

❖ Machine Control Instructions:

These instructions affect the operation of the processor

Mnemonics	Examples	Operation
HLT	HLT	Stop processing and wait
NOP	NOP	Do not perform any operation

Exercise

1. What is an instruction set?
2. Give the functional categories of 8085 microinstructions.
3. Define Opcode and operand.
4. Define the types of branching operations.
5. Define one byte/two byte/three byte instruction with one example.
6. What is the machine control operations used in 8085 microprocessor?
7. What is data transfer instructions?
8. What are the notations used in the 8085 instructions?
9. Give the classification of Instruction set.
10. Explain with the help of a diagram 8085 programming model.
11. Explain various register used in 8085 microprocessor.
12. Explain various addressing modes used in 8085 microprocessor.

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8085 PROGRAMS

List of Programs covered:

- 7.1 To add two 8-bit data
- 7.2 To add two 8-bit data present in the memory
- 7.3 To add two 16-bit data
- 7.4 To subtract two 16-bit data
- 7.5 To add two 2-digit BCD data
- 7.6 To add two 4-digit BCD data
- 7.7 To multiply two numbers of 8-bit data
- 7.8 To multiply two numbers of 16-bit data
- 7.9 To divide two numbers of 8-bit data
- 7.10 To add an array of data
- 7.11 To search smallest data in the array
- 7.12 To search largest data in the array
- 7.13 To sort an array of data in ascending order
- 7.14 To sort an array of data in descending order
- 7.15 To find the square root of an 8-bit binary number
- 7.16 To convert 2 digit BCD to binary number
- 7.17 To convert 8-bit binary number to BCD
- 7.18 To convert 8-bit binary to ASCII
- 7.19 To convert ASCII code to binary value
- 7.20 Transfer a block of data from one location to another

7.1 TO ADD TWO 8-BIT DATA

```
LDA 0000
MOV B,A
LDA 0001
MVI C,00
ADD B
```

```

JNC AHEAD
INR C
[LAB1] STA 0002
MOV A,C
STA 0003
HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> 1st Operand 0001 -> 2nd Operand
0003 -> Sum 0004 -> Carry

7.2 TO ADD TWO 8-BIT DATA PRESENT IN THE MEMORY

```

LXI H,0000
MVI C,00
MOV A,M
INX H
ADD M
JNC LAB1
INR C
[LAB1] INX H
MOV M,A
INX H
MOV M,C
HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> 1st Operand 0001 -> 2nd Operand
0003 -> Sum 0004 -> Carry

7.3 TO ADD TWO 16-BIT DATA

```

LHLD 0000
XCHG
LHLD 0002
XRA A
DAD D

```

```
JNC LAB1
INR A
[LAB1] SHLD 0004
STA 0006
HLT
```

Here, 0000 & 0001 -> 1st Operand 0002& 0003 -> 2nd Operand
0004 & 0005 -> Sum 0006 -> Carry

7.4 TO SUBTRACT TWO 16-BIT DATA

```
LDA 0002
MOV B,A
LDA 0000
SUB B
STA 0004
LDA 0003
MOV B,A
LDA 0001
SBB
STA 0005
HLT
```

Here, 0000 & 0001 -> 1st Operand 0002& 0003 -> 2nd Operand
0004 & 0005 -> Subtracted Result

7.5 TO ADD TWO 2-DIGIT BCD DATA

```
LDA 0000
MOV B,A
LDA 0001
MIV C,00
ADD D
DAA
```

```

        JNC LAB1
        INR C
[LAB1] STA 0002
        MOV A,C
        STA 0003
        HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> 1st Operand 0001 -> 2nd Operand
 0002 -> Sum 0003 -> Carry

7.6 TO ADD TWO 4-DIGIT BCD DATA

```

        LDA 0000
        MOV B,A
        LDA 0002
        MVI C,00
        ADD B
        DAA
        STA 0004
        LDA 0001
        MOV B,A
        LDA 0003
        ADC B
        DAA
        STA 0005
        JNC GO
        INR C
[GO]   MOV A,C
        STA 0006
        HLT

```

Here, 0000 & 0001 -> 1st Operand 0002& 0003 -> 2nd Operand
 0004 & 0005 -> Sum 0006 -> Carry

7.7 TO MULTIPLY TWO NUMBERS OF 8-BIT DATA

```

LXI H,00
MVI C,00
XRA A
MOV B,M
INX H
MOV D,M
[REPT] ADD D
      JNC GO
      INR C
[GO]  DCR B
      JNZ REPT
      INX H
      MOV M,A
      INX H
      MOV M,C
      HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> 1st Operand 0001 -> 2nd Operand
0002 -> Sum 0003 -> Carry

7.8 TO MULTIPLY TWO NUMBERS OF 16-BIT DATA

```

LHLD 0000
SPHL
LHLD 0002
XCHG
LXI H,0000
LXI B,0000
[NEXT] DAD SP
      JNC AHED
      INX B
[AHED] DCX D
      MOV A,E
      ORA D

```

```

JNZ NEXT
SHLD 0004
MOV L,C
MOV H,B
SHLD 0006
HLT

```

Here, 0000 & 0001 -> 1st Operand 0002& 0003 -> 2nd Operand

0004 -> 1st byte of Product

0005 -> 2nd byte of Product

0006 -> 3rd byte of Product

0007 -> 4th byte of Product

7.9 TO DIVIDE TWO NUMBERS OF 8-BIT DATA

```

LDA 0001
MOV B,A
LDA 0000
MVI C,00
[AGO] CMP B
JC STORE
SUB B
INR C
JMP AGO
[STO] STA 0003
MOV A,C
STA 0002
HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> Dividend 0001 -> Divisor

0002 -> Quotient 0003 -> Remainder

7.10 TO ADD AN ARRAY OF DATA

```
LXI H,0000
MOV B,M
MVI C,00
XRA A
[REPT] INX H
      ADD M
      JNC AH1
      INR C
[AH1] DCR B
      JNZ REPT
      STA 1000
      MOV A,C
      STA 1001
      HLT
```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data to be added (n). Data are taken from next
'n' consecutive memory locations.

1000 -> 1st byte of sum

1001 -> 2nd byte of sum

7.11 TO SEARCH SMALLEST DATA IN THE ARRAY

```
LXI H,0000
MOV B,M
INX H
MOV A,M
DCR B
[LOOP] INX H
      CMP M
      JC AHED
      MOV A,M
[AHD] DCR B
```

```

JNZ LOOP
STA 1000
HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data(n). Data are taken from next 'n'
consecutive memory locations.
1000 ->Smallest element

7.12 TO SEARCH LARGEST DATA IN THE ARRAY

```

LXI H,0000
MOV B,M
INX H
MOV A,M
DCR B
[LOOP] INX H
      CMP M
      JNC AHED
      MOV A,M
[AHED] DCR B
      JNZ LOOP
      STA 1000
      HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data(n). Data are taken from next 'n'
consecutive memory locations.
1000 ->Largest element

7.13 TO SORT AN ARRAY OF DATA IN ASCENDING ORDER

```

LDA 0000
MOV B,A
DCR B
[LOP2] LXI H,1000
      MOV C,M

```

```

                DCR C
[LOP1]         INX H
                MOV A,M
                INX H
                CMP M
                JC AHD1
                MOV D,M
                MOV M,A
                DCX H
                MOV M,D
                JMP AHED
[AHD1]         DCX H
[AHED]         DCR C
                JNZ LOP1
                DCR B
                JNZ LOP2
                HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data (n). Data are taken from next
'n' consecutive memory locations.

Sorted data present in the same memory location.

7.14 TO SORT AN ARRAY OF DATA IN DESCENDING ORDER

```

                LDA 0000
                MOV B,A
                DCR B
[LOP2]         LXI H,1000
                MOV C,M
                DCR C
[LOP1]         INX H
                MOV A,M
                INX H
                CMP M

```

```

JNC AHD1
MOV D,M
MOV M,A
DCX H
MOV M,D
JMP AHED
[AHD1] DCX H
[AHED] DCR C
JNZ LOP1
DCR B
JNZ LOP2
HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data (n). Data are taken from next
'n' consecutive memory locations.

Sorted data present in the same memory location.

7.15 TO FIND THE SQUARE ROOT OF AN 8-BIT BINARY NUMBER

```

LDA 0000
MOV B,A
MVI C,02
CALL DIV
[REPT] MOV E,D
MOV A,M
MOV C,D
CALL DIV
MOV A,D
ADD E
MVI C,02
CALL DIV
MOV A,E
CMP D
JNZ REPT

```

```

        STA 0001
        HLT
[DIV]  MOV D,00
[NEXT] SUB C
        INR D
        CMP C
        JNC NEXT
        RET

```

Here, 0000 -> data 0001 -> Square root of data

7.16 TO CONVERT 2 DIGIT BCD TO BINARY NUMBER

```

        LDA 0000
        MOV E,A
        ANI F0
        RLC
        RLC
        RLC
        RLC
        MOV B,A
        XRA A
        MVI C,0A
[REPT] ADD B
        DCR C
        JNZ REPT
        MOV B,A
        MOV A,E
        ANI 0F
        ADD B
        STA 1000
        HLT

```

Here, 0000 -> BCD data 1000 -> Binary data (result)

7.17 TO CONVERT 8-BIT BINARY NUMBER TO BCD

```
        MVI E,00
        MOV D,E
        LDA 0000
[HUND] CPI 64
        JC TEN
        SUI 64
        INR E
        JMP HUND
[TEN]  CPI 0A
        JC UNIT
        SUI 0A
        INR D
        JMP TEN
[UNIT] MOV C,A
        MOV A,D
        RLC
        RLC
        RLC
        RLC
        ADD C
        STA 2500
        MOV A,E
        STA 2501
        HLT
```

Here, 0000 -> Binary data

2500 -> Ten's and Units's digit

2501 -> Hundred's digit

7.18 TO CONVERT 8-BIT BINARY TO ASCII

```
LDA 0000
MOV B,A
```



```

ANI 0F
CALL CODE
STA 0001
MOV A,B
ANI F0
RLC
RLC
RLC
RLC
CALL CODE
STA 0002
HLT
[CODE] CPI 0A
      JC SKIP
      ADI 07
[SKIP] ADI 30
      RET

```

Here, 000 ->Hexa data

0001 -> ASCII Code of LSB of data

0002 -> ASCII Code of MSB of data

7.19 TO CONVERT ASCII CODE TO BINARY VALUE

```

LXI H,0000
MOV D,M
LXI B,1000
[LOOP] INX H
      MOV A,M
      CALL BIN
      STAX B
      INX B
      DCR D
      JNZ LOOP
      HLT

```

```

[BIN] SUI 30
      CPI 0A
      RC
      SUI 07
      RET

```

Here, 0000 -> No. of data (n). Data (ASCII) are taken from next 'n' consecutive memory locations.

(HL register pair points to source memory)

1000 -> Result starting from this memory location

(BC register pair points to destination memory)

7.20 TRANSFER A BLOCK OF DATA FROM ONE LOCATION TO ANOTHER

```

      MVI D, 0AH
      LXI H, D000H
      LXI B, D100H
NEXT:  MOV A, M
      STAX B
      INX H
      INX B
      DCR D
      JNZ NEXT
      HLT

```

Here, before the execution, the ten data bytes must be stored from memory location D000H. After the execution, the contents of source block will be transferred to destination block starting from D100H.

Exercise:

1. To find GCD of two numbers
2. To find LCM of two numbers
3. To swap block of data.

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Microprocessor Architecture and Programming and Applications with the 8085 – R.S.Gaonkar, PRI



INTRODUCTION TO MODERN DAY COMPUTER SYSTEMS

Topics Covered:

8.1 Introduction

8.2 Hardware

8.3 Processor

8.4 Bus System

8.5 PCI (Peripheral Component Interface) Bus

8.1 INTRODUCTION

- ⇒ A computer system is made up of both hardware and software.
- ⇒ Software is another term for computer program.
- ⇒ Software controls the computer and makes it do useful work. Without software a computer is useless, like to a car without someone to drive it.
- ⇒ Hardware refers to the physical components that make up a computer system.
- ⇒ These include the computer's processor, memory, monitor, keyboard, mouse, disk drive, printer and so on.

8.2 HARDWARE

- ⇒ The hardware of a computer system is made up of a number of electronic devices connected together. Figures 8.1 and 8.1A are block diagrams of a typical computer system.

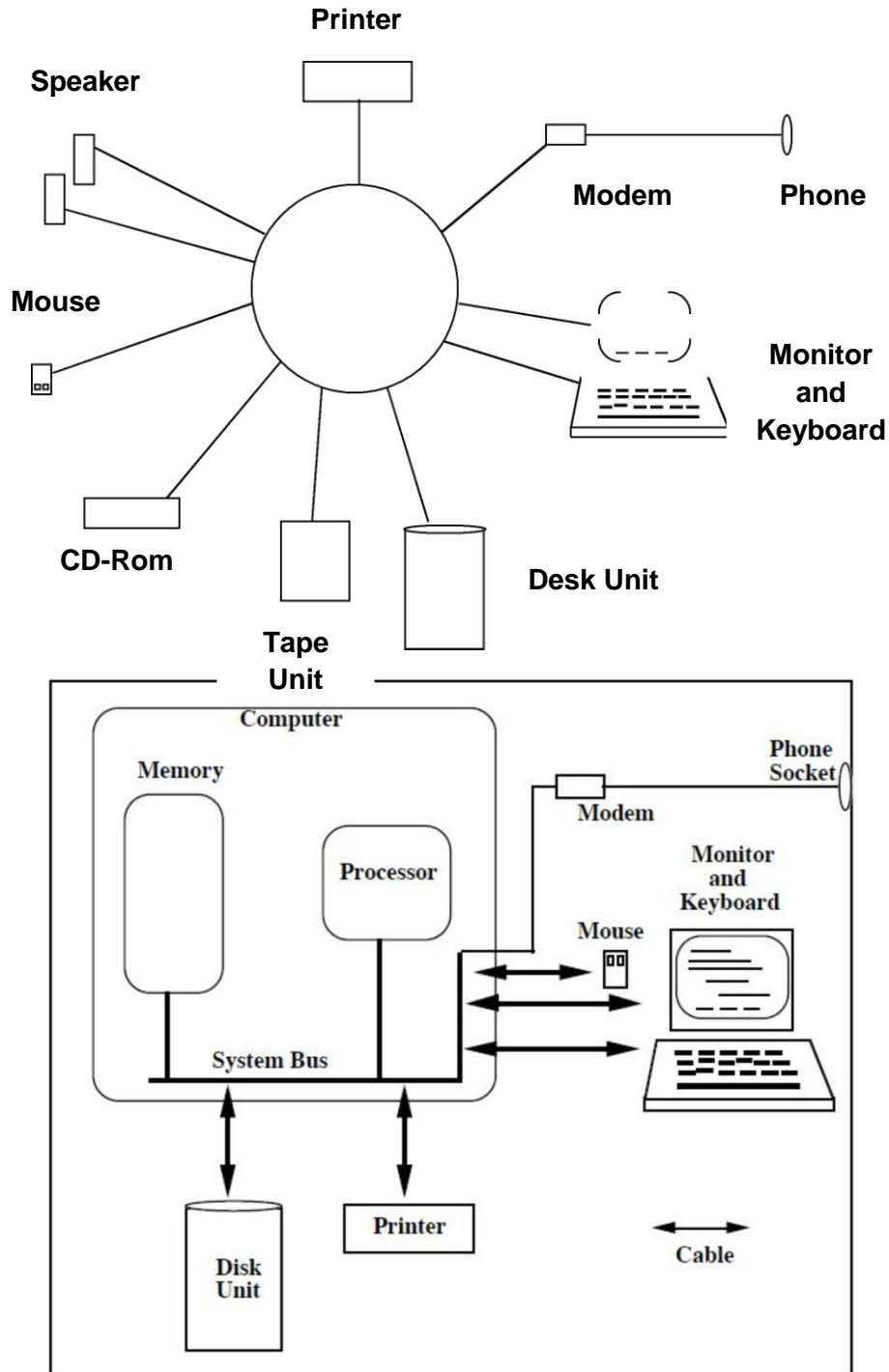


Figure 8.1A: Typical computer system: Processor and Memory (RAM)

- ⇒ A computer has two major internal components, namely its processor and its memory.
- ⇒ There will also be a power supply unit (not shown) to provide power for the system.

- ⇒ The term device is used to describe any piece of hardware that we connect to a computer such as a keyboard, monitor, disk drive, printer and so on.
- ⇒ Such devices are also sometimes described as peripheral devices or simply peripherals.
- ⇒ They may be classified as input/output (I/O) devices and storage devices.
- ⇒ As the name suggests, I/O devices are responsible for communicating with the computer, providing input for the computer to process and arranging to display output for computer users.
- ⇒ The keyboard and mouse are commonly used input devices. The monitor is the commonest output device, followed by the printer for hardcopy (permanent) output.
- ⇒ Storage devices are used to store information in a computer system.
- ⇒ The memory is used to store information inside the computer while the computer is switched on.
- ⇒ Disk storage is the commonest form of external storage, followed by the tape storage.
- ⇒ External storage devices can store information indefinitely or more realistically, for some number of years.
- ⇒ A very important component of a computer system is the system bus. This is used to transfer information between all system components.
- ⇒ It is crucial to understand that all information is represented inside a computer system in binary form i.e. using the binary numbers 1 and 0.
- ⇒ The hardware of a computer system has no other way of representing information.
- ⇒ Thus when you press a key on a computer's keyboard, a binary number (code) which represents the symbol on that key is transmitted to the computer and not the symbol itself, for example, 'A', displayed on the key.
- ⇒ Similarly, when a computer transmits a character to be displayed on the monitor, it is the binary code representing that character that is sent to the monitor.
- ⇒ The monitor hardware takes this binary code and displays the corresponding symbol on the screen.
- ⇒ To reiterate, all information is transmitted and manipulated inside a computer system in the form of binary numbers.

- ⇒ A binary digit (1 or 0) is called a bit and a group of 8 bits is called a byte.
- ⇒ When describing storage capacity, the byte and multiples of bytes are the units used. A kilobyte (Kb) is 2^{10} (1024) bytes, a megabyte (Mb) is 2^{20} bytes (1024Kb), a gigabyte (Gb) is 2^{30} bytes (1024Mb) and a terabyte (Tb) is 2^{40} bytes (1024Gb).
- ⇒ When describing transmission speeds, the number of bits per second (bps) is the unit used.
- ⇒ A typical modem can handle speeds of up to 56 Kbps i.e 56 kilo bits per second or approx 56,000 bps.

8.3 THE PROCESSOR

- ⇒ The processor as its name suggests is the unit that does the work of the computer system i.e. it executes computer programs.
- ⇒ Software is composed of instructions, which are executed (obeyed) by the processor.
- ⇒ These instructions tell the processor when and what to read from a keyboard; what to display on a screen; what to store and retrieve from a disk drive and so on.
- ⇒ A computer program is a set of such instructions that carries out a meaningful task. It is worth remembering at this stage that the processor can only perform a limited range of operations.
- ⇒ It can do arithmetic, compare numbers and perform input/output (read information and display or store it).
- ⇒ It is instructive to bear in mind that all computer programs are constructed from sequences of instructions based on such primitive operations.
- ⇒ The processor itself is made up of a number of components such as the arithmetic logic unit (ALU) and the control unit (CU).
- ⇒ The ALU carries out arithmetic operations (e.g. addition and subtraction) and logical operations (e.g. and, or xor) while the CU controls the execution of instructions.
- ⇒ Traditionally, the processor is referred to as the central processing unit or CPU.
- ⇒ With the advent of microprocessors, the term MPU or microprocessor unit is also used.

- ⇒ A microprocessor is simply a processor contained on a single silicon chip.
- ⇒ In addition to the ALU and CU, the processor has a small number (usually less than 100) of storage locations to store information that is currently being processed.
- ⇒ These locations are called registers and depending on the processor, a register may typically store 8, 16, 32 or 64 bits.
- ⇒ The register size of a particular processor allows us to classify the processor. Processors with a register size of n -bits are called n -bit processors, so that processors with 8-bit registers are called 8-bit processors, similarly there are 16-bit, 32-bit and 64-bit processors.
- ⇒ An n -bit processor is said to have an n -bit word size so a 32-bit processor has a 32-bit word size.
- ⇒ The greater the number of bits the more powerful the processor is, since it will be able to process a larger unit of information in a single operation.
- ⇒ For example, a 32-bit processor will be able to add two 32-bit numbers in a single operation whereas an 8-bit processor will only be able to add two 8-bit numbers in a single operation.
- ⇒ An n -bit processor will usually be capable of transferring n -bits to or from memory in a single operation. This number of bits is also referred to as the memory word size.
- ⇒ So, while a byte refers to an 8-bit quantity, a word can mean 8, 16, 32, 64 or some other number of bits.
- ⇒ On some machines a word is taken to mean a 16-bit quantity and the term long word is used to refer to a 32-bit quantity.
- ⇒ An alternative method of classifying a processor is to use the width of the data bus, in which case an n -bit processor describes one operating with a data bus of n -bits.
- ⇒ This means that the CPU can transfer n -bits to another device in a single operation.
- ⇒ Using this classification, the Intel 8088 microprocessor is an 8-bit processor since it uses an 8-bit data bus, although its CPU registers are in fact 16-bit registers. Similarly the Motorola 68000 is classified as a 16-bit processor, even though its CPU registers are 32-bit registers. Sometimes a combination of the two classifications is used where the 8088 might be described as 8/16-bit processor and the Motorola 68000 as a 16/32-bit processor.

- ⇒ The data bus width is very important in a computer system, since it determines the amount of information that can be transferred to or from the CPU, in a single operation.
- ⇒ This means, for example, that the Motorola 68000 would have to transfer two 16-bit items to the CPU to fill a 32-bit register, since the data bus width is 16-bits.
- ⇒ I/O devices and memory operate at very slow speeds compared to the speed of the CPU. As a result, the CPU is frequently delayed by these slower devices, waiting for information to be transferred along the data bus.
- ⇒ So, the more information we can transfer in a single operation, between an I/O devices and the CPU, the less time the CPU will spend waiting for information to process. This in turns means that we should strive to have the data bus as wide as possible.
- ⇒ An important component not shown in Figure 8.1 is the CPU clock.
- ⇒ The clock controls the rate at which activities are carried out by the CPU.
- ⇒ It generate a stream of cycles or ticks and an action can only be carried out on the occurrence of a clock tick.
- ⇒ Obviously, the more cycles per second, the more actions that the CPU can carry out.
- ⇒ The speed of the clock is measured in millions of cycles per second.
- ⇒ One cycle per second is one Hertz (Hz), a kilohertz (KHz) is 1000Hz, a megahertz (MHz) is 1000 KHz and a gigahertz is 1000 MHz. Currently, PCs are being marketed with clock rates range from 2 to 4 GHz and the rate continues to increase.

Bus System

- ⇒ The processor must be able to communicate with all devices.
- ⇒ They are connected together by a communications channel called a bus.
- ⇒ A bus is composed of a set of communication lines or wires.
- ⇒ A simple bus configuration is shown Figure 8.2.
- ⇒ We refer to this bus as the system bus as it connects the various components in a computer system.

- ⇒ Internally, the CPU has a CPU bus for transferring information between its components (e.g. the control unit, the ALU and the registers).

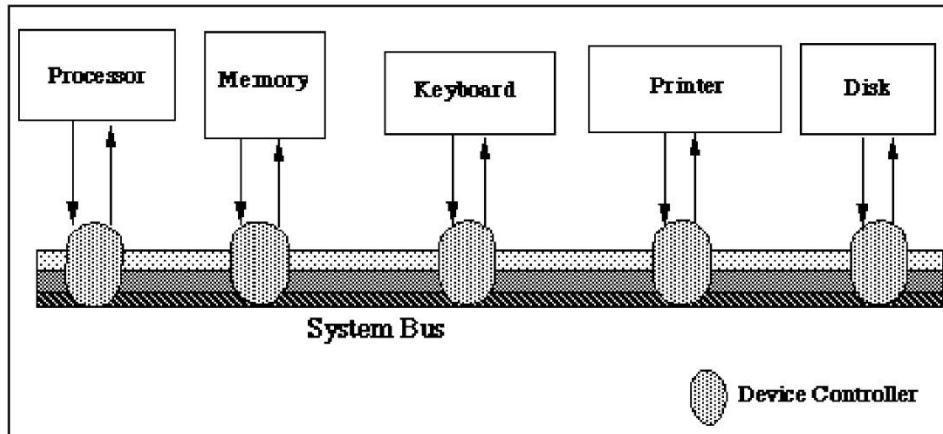


Figure 8.2: The system bus: the processor communicates with all devices via the system bus

- ⇒ Information is transferred from one device to another on the bus.
- ⇒ For example, information keyed in at the keyboard is passed along the bus to the processor.
- ⇒ The processor executes programs made up of instructions, which are stored in the computer's memory.
- ⇒ These instructions are transferred to the processor using the bus.
- ⇒ As indicated in Figure 8.2, the lines of the bus may be classified into 3 groups.
- ⇒ One group of lines, the data lines, is used to carry the actual data along the bus from one device to another.
- ⇒ A second group of lines, the address lines, allow the CPU to specify where the data is going to or coming from i.e. which memory location is to be accessed or which I/O device is to be used.
- ⇒ The third group of lines, the control lines, carries control signals that allow the CPU control the transfer of information along the bus.
- ⇒ For example, the CPU must be able to indicate whether information is to be transferred from memory or to memory; it must be able to signal when to start the transfer and so on. We will refer to these groups of lines as separate buses, so we refer to the data bus, address bus and control bus as separate entities.

- ⇒ It is important to realise that a computer system may have a number of separate bus systems so that information can be transferred between more than one pair of components at the same time.
- ⇒ For example, it is common to have one bus for communicating between memory and the CPU at high speeds.
- ⇒ This bus is called a CPU-memory bus.
- ⇒ In addition, this bus would be connected to a second I/O bus via a bus adapter, as illustrated in Figure 8.3.
- ⇒ This second bus would be used for the slower I/O devices.

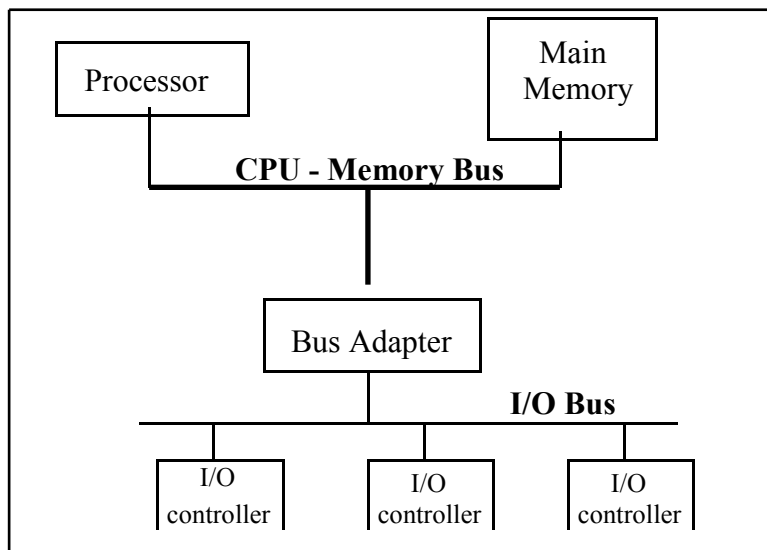


Figure 8.3: CPU-memory bus and I/O bus

- ⇒ This allows the processor more efficient access to memory, as the CPU-memory bus can operate at very high speeds.
- ⇒ These high speeds are only possible, if the physical bus length is quite short.
- ⇒ Thus, by providing a second I/O bus to accommodate the various I/O devices that may be connected to the computer, the length of the CPU-memory bus can be kept shorter than it would be if the I/O devices were to be directly attached to a single system bus.
- ⇒ On the other hand, to keep the cost of a computer system low, a single bus running at a slower speed, may be used to connect all devices to the CPU.
- ⇒ In order to attach any device to a computer, it must be connected to the computer's bus system.

- ⇒ This means that we need a unit that connects the device to the bus.
- ⇒ The terms device controller and device interface are used to refer to such a unit.
- ⇒ So, for example, a disk controller would be used to connect a disk drive to the system bus and the term I/O controller refers to the controller for any I/O device to be connected to the bus system.
- ⇒ A computer system will have some standard interfaces such as a serial interface, which can be used with a number of different I/O devices.
- ⇒ The serial interface, for example, can be used to attach a printer, a mouse or a modem (device for communications over a telephone line) to the computer.

8.4 PCI (PERIPHERAL COMPONENT INTERFACE) BUS

- ⇒ The PCI bus was developed in the early 1990's by a group of companies with a goal to advance the interface allowing OEM's or users to upgrade the I/O (Input-Output) of personal computers.
- ⇒ The PCI bus has proven a huge success and has been adopted in almost every PC and Server since.
- ⇒ The latest advancement of the PCI bus is PCI-X. PCI-X is a 64-bit parallel interface that runs at 133 MHz enabling 1GB/s (8 GB/s) of bandwidth.
- ⇒ Though other advancements are in the works, including DDR, or the PCI bus, they are perceived as falling short.
- ⇒ They are too expensive (too many pins in the 64-bit versions) for the PC industry to implement in the mass volumes of PCs and that they do not offer sufficient bandwidth and advanced feature set required for the servers of the future.
- ⇒ Many would argue that there is no need to advance the bandwidth of PCI on PCs since few I/O cards are taxing the 250 to 500 MB/s bandwidth that is currently available. This is not the case for Servers.
- ⇒ High performance servers are frequently equipped with clustering, communication and storage I/O cards that together tax the bandwidth of the PCI-X bus.

- ⇒ Another key limitation of PCI-X is that it can support only one slot per controller, which means that multiple controllers (and their expense) are needed on each server.

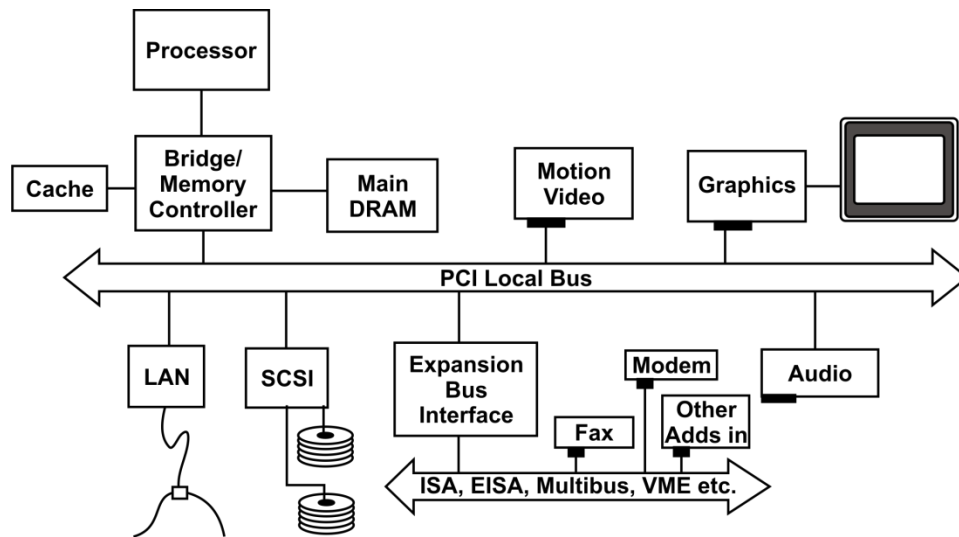
Features of PCI Bus

- ⇒ Speed: The basic PCI protocol can transfer up to 132 Mbytes per second, well over an order of magnitude faster than other buses.
- ⇒ Configurability: PCI offers the ability to configure a system automatically, relieving the user of the task of system configuration.
- ⇒ Multiple Masters: Prior to PCI, most buses supported only one “master”, the processor. High bandwidth devices could have direct access to memory through a mechanism called DMA (Direct Memory Access) but devices, in general, could not talk to each other. In PCI, any device has the potential to take control of the bus and initiate transactions with any other device.
- ⇒ Reliability: “Hot Plug” and “Hot Swap”, defined respectively for PCI and compact PCI, offer the ability to replace modules without disrupting a system’s operation. This sustainability reduces MTTR (Mean Time to Repair) to yield the necessary degree of up-time required of mission-critical systems such as the telephone network.
- ⇒ The transfer protocol is optimized around transferring blocks of data. A single transfer is just a block transfer with a length of one.
- ⇒ Although PCI is officially processor-independent, it inevitably reflects its origins with Intel and its primary application in the PC architecture.
- ⇒ PCI implements plug and play configurability. Every device in the system is automatically configured each time the system is turned on. The configuration protocol supports up to 256 devices in a system.
- ⇒ The electrical specifications emphasize low power use including support for both 3.3 and 5 volt signaling environments. PCI is a “green” architecture.

System with PCI Bus

- ⇒ The system with PCI is shown in figure below.
- ⇒ The “PCI Bridge” connects between the CPU/Cache/Memory sub system and PCI bus.
- ⇒ It provides low latency path for the CPU to access any PCI device mapped into the I/O or memory space.

⇒ It provides path for PCI master to access main memory.



Exercise

Q1. Write a short note on computer system.

Q2. What is a processor?

Q3. Explain the need of bus system.

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COMPUTER MEMORY

Topics Covered:

- 9.1 Memory
- 9.2 Cache Memory
- 9.3 Computer Memory System Overview
- 9.4 Cache Memory Principles
- 9.5 Cache Mapping

9.1 MEMORY

- ⇒ Memory is used to store the information (programs and data) that the computer is currently using.
- ⇒ It is sometimes called main or primary memory.
- ⇒ One form of memory is called RAM -random access memory. This means that any location in memory may be accessed in the same amount of time as any other location.
- ⇒ Memory access means one of two things, either the CPU is reading from a memory location or the CPU is writing to a memory location.
- ⇒ When the CPU reads from a memory location, the contents of the memory location are copied to a CPU register.
- ⇒ When the CPU writes to a memory location, the CPU copies the contents of a CPU register to the memory location, overwriting the previous contents of the location.
- ⇒ The CPU cannot carry out any other operations on memory locations.
- ⇒ RAM is a form of short term or volatile memory.
- ⇒ Information stored in short term storage is lost when the computer is switched off (or when power fails).
- ⇒ There is therefore a requirement for permanent or long term storage which is also referred to as secondary storage or auxiliary storage.
- ⇒ This role is fulfilled by disk and tape storage.
- ⇒ RAM consists of a large number of storage locations or cells, each one capable of storing a small amount of information typically a single byte. These cells are numbered or addressed starting at zero, up to some maximum number

determined by the amount of RAM present, as illustrated in Figure 9.1.

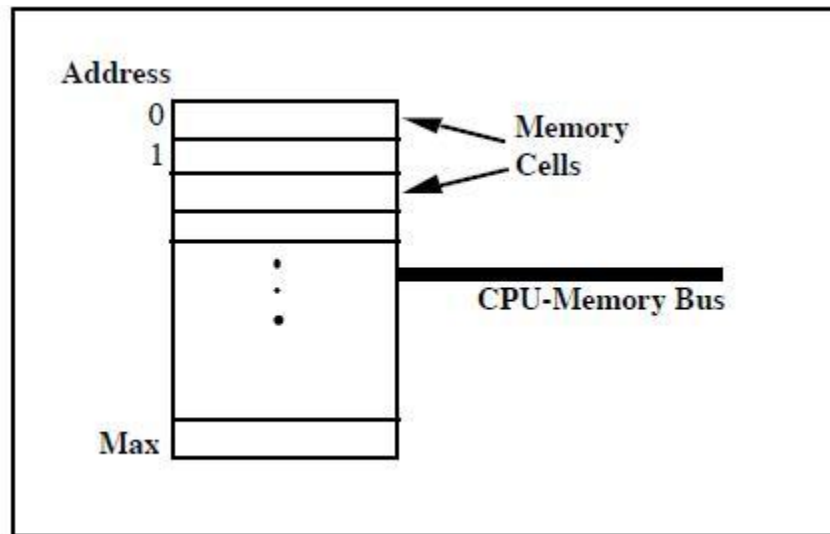


Figure 9.1 Memory Organizations

- PCs typically have 256 Mb to 512Mb of RAM installed, but the figure is constantly being revised upwards.
- The address of a memory cell is used when we wish to access that particular memory location.
- This means that we must know the address of a cell in memory before we can access its contents.
- A byte is a small unit of storage, capable of storing unsigned numbers in the range 0 to 255.
- In order to allow you store larger quantities in memory, the hardware allows you treat a number of consecutive cells as a unit. For example, by using two consecutive cells, 16-bits are available for storing information giving an unsigned number range from 0 to $2^{16}-1$ (65,535). By using 4 consecutive cells, 32 bits are available, allowing numbers in excess of 1 billion to be manipulated.
- There are two major forms of RAM called static RAM (SRAM) and dynamic RAM (DRAM).
- SRAM is the more expensive of the two as it is more complex to manufacture but it is considerably faster to access than DRAM.

- DRAM has an access time in the range of 20-60 nanoseconds upwards, while SRAM access times range from 4 or 5 nanoseconds to 20 nanoseconds.
- It is not uncommon for a computer system to have a small amount of SRAM and a larger volume of DRAM making up its total RAM capacity.
- The SRAM is used to construct a cache memory which stores frequently accessed information and so speed up memory access for the system.
- There are other forms of primary memory such as ROM, PROM, EPROM EEPROM and flash memory.
- ROM (Read Only Memory) is the same as RAM in so far as any location can be read from at random, but it cannot be written to.
- ROM is pre-programmed by the manufacturer and its contents cannot be changed, hence its name read only.
- This means that ROM is a form of permanent storage.
- However, since the user cannot store information in ROM, its usefulness is restricted.
- ROM is typically used to store programs and data that are required to start up (boot) a computer system.
- When a computer is powered on, its RAM will contain no useful information, but the processor is designed to run programs that it finds in memory.
- One major use of ROM is to store the initial program used by the processor when the machine is started.
- Another use of ROM in personal computers, is to store operating systems subprograms for carrying out I/O and other activities.
- The term firmware is used for the combination of ROM and the software stored on it.
- PROM stands for programmable ROM which means that the memory chip manufacturer provides a form of ROM that can be programmed via the use of a special hardware device.

- This allows computer system designers place their own programs on the PROM chip. If their programs do not operate correctly, the designer can program another PROM chip, as opposed to getting the memory manufacturer to do it, as is the case when a designer uses ROM.
- EPROM is a form of ROM that is erasable which means that the contents of the EPROM chip can be erased in their entirety and the chip can be reprogrammed (a limited number of times).
- As in the case of PROM, EPROM can only be programmed and erased (via exposure to ultra violet light) by a special hardware device, outside the computer system.
- EEPROM is electrically erasable PROM. EEPROM can be erased inside a computer system using an electrical current. Its major advantage is that it does not have to be removed from the computer system.

9.2 CACHE MEMORY

- ⇒ Computer memory is organized into a hierarchy.
- ⇒ At the highest level (closest to the processor) are the processor registers.
- ⇒ Next comes one or more levels of cache.
- ⇒ When multiple levels are used, they are denoted L1, L2, etc...
- ⇒ Next comes main memory, which is usually made out of a dynamic random-access memory (DRAM).
- ⇒ All of these are considered internal to the computer system.
- ⇒ The hierarchy continues with external memory, with the next level typically being a fixed hard disk, and one or more levels below that consisting of removable media such as ZIP cartridges, optical disks, and tape.
- ⇒ As one goes down the memory hierarchy, one finds decreasing cost/bit, increasing capacity, and slower access time.
- ⇒ It would be nice to use only the fastest memory, but because that is the most expensive memory, we trade off access time and cost by using more of the slower memory.
- ⇒ The trick is to organize the data and programs in memory so

that the memory words needed are usually in the fastest memory.

- ⇒ In general, it is likely that most future accesses to main memory by the processor will be to locations recently accesses.
- ⇒ So the cache automatically retains a copy of some of the recently used words from the DRAM.
- ⇒ If the cache is designed properly, then most of the time the processor will request memory words that are already in the cache.

9.3 COMPUTER MEMORY SYSTEM OVERVIEW

Characteristics of Memory Systems

Location

- Processor
- Internal – main memory
- External – secondary memory

Capacity

- Word size – natural unit or organization
- Number of words – number of bytes

Unit of Transfer

- Internal
 - Usually governed by bus width
- External
 - Usually a block which is much larger than a word
- Addressable unit
 - Smallest location which can be uniquely addressed
 - Cluster on external disk

Access Methods

- Sequential – tape
 - Start at the beginning and read through in order

- Access time depends on location of data and previous location
- Direct – disk
 - Individual blocks have unique address
 - Access is by jumping to vicinity plus sequential search
 - Access time depends on location of data and previous location
- Random - RAM
 - Individual addresses identify location exactly
 - Access time is independent of data location and previous location
- Associative – cache
 - Data is located by a comparison with contents of a portion of the store
 - Access time is independent of data location and previous location

Performance

- Access time (latency)
 - The time between presenting an address and getting access to valid data
- Memory Cycle time – primarily random-access memory
 - Time may be required for the memory to “recover” before the next access
 - Access time plus recovery time
- Transfer rate
 - The rate at which data can be transferred into or out of a memory unit

Physical Types

- Semiconductor – RAM
- Magnetic – disk and tape
- Optical – CD and DVD
- Magneto-optical

Physical Characteristics

- Volatile/non-volatile
- Erasable/non-erasable

- Power requirements

Organization

- The physical arrangement of bits to form words
- The obvious arrangement is not always used

The Memory Hierarchy

How much?

- If the capacity is there, applications will be developed to use it.

How fast?

- To achieve performance, the memory must be able to keep up with the processor.

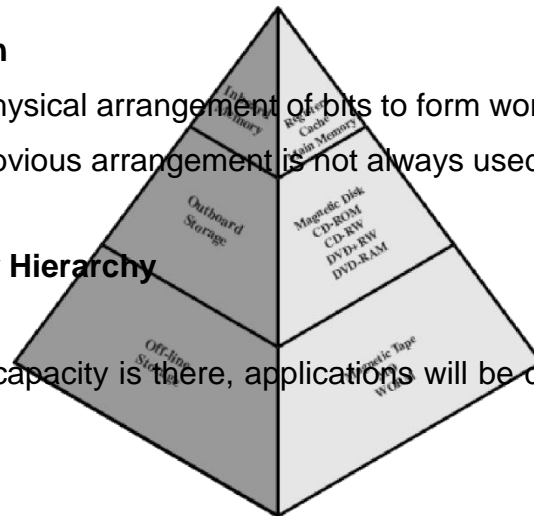
How expensive?

- For a practical system, the cost of memory must be reasonable in relationship to other components

There is a trade-off among the three key characteristics of memory: cost, capacity, and access time.

- Faster access time – greater cost per bit
- Greater capacity – smaller cost per bit
- Greater capacity – slower access time

The way out of this dilemma is not to rely on a single memory component or technology. Employ a memory hierarchy.



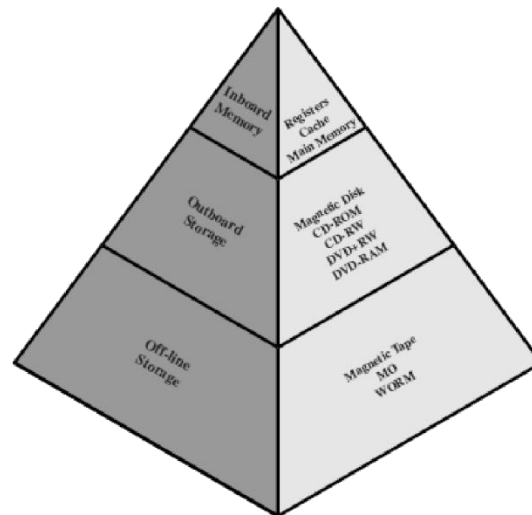


Figure 9.2 Memory Hierarchy

As one goes down the hierarchy: (a) decreasing cost per bit; (b) increasing capacity; (c) increasing access time; (d) decreasing frequency of access of the memory by the processor.

Thus smaller, more expensive, faster memories are supplemented by larger, cheaper, slower memories. The key to the success of this organization is item (d).

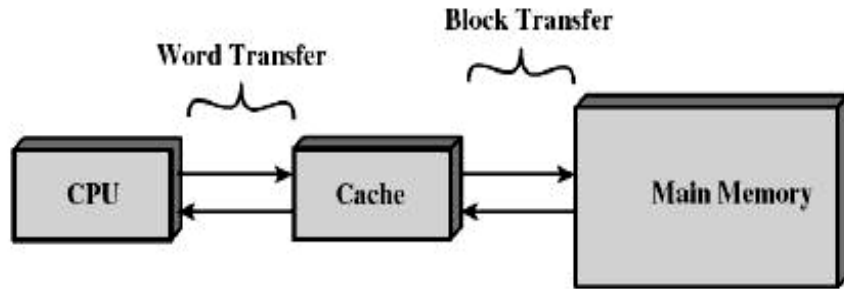
Locality of Reference principle

- Memory references by the processor, for both data and instructions, cluster
- Programs contain iterative loops and subroutines - once a loop or subroutine is entered, there are repeated references to a small set of instructions
- Operations on tables and arrays involve access to a clustered set of data word

Cache Memory Principles

Cache memory

- Small amount of fast memory
- Placed between the processor and main memory
- Located either on the processor chip or on a separate module



Cache Operation Overview

- Processor requests the contents of some memory location
- The cache is checked for the requested data
 - If found, the requested word is delivered to the processor
 - If not found, a block of main memory is first read into the cache, then the requested word is delivered to the processor

When a block of data is fetched into the cache to satisfy a single memory reference, it is likely that there will be future references to that same memory location or to other words in the block – locality or reference principle. Each block has a tag added to identify it.

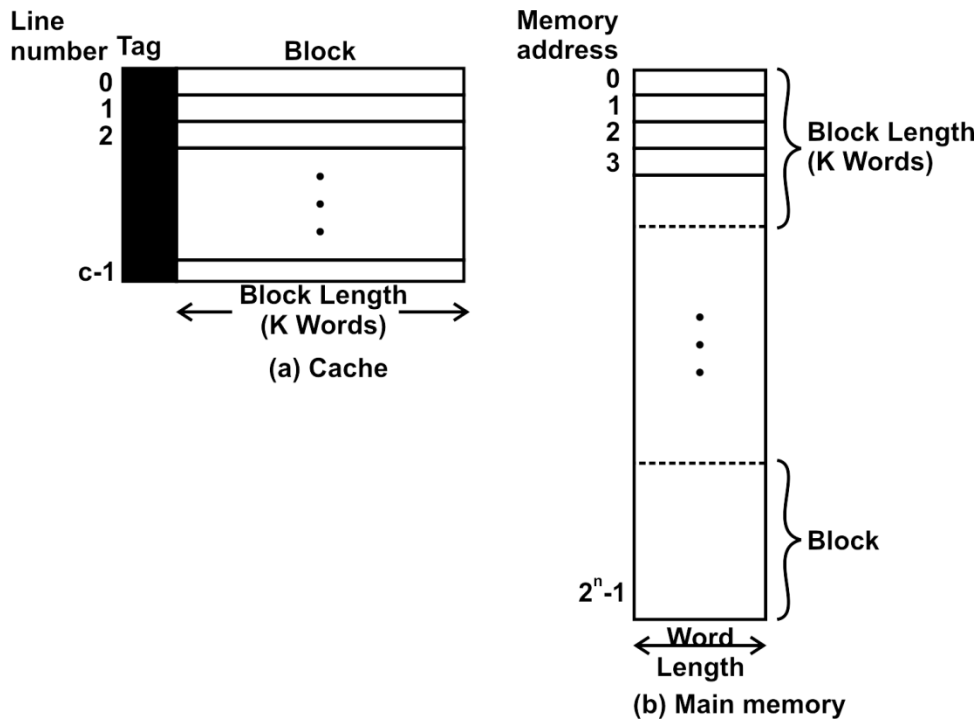


Figure 9.3

An example of a typical cache organization is shown below :

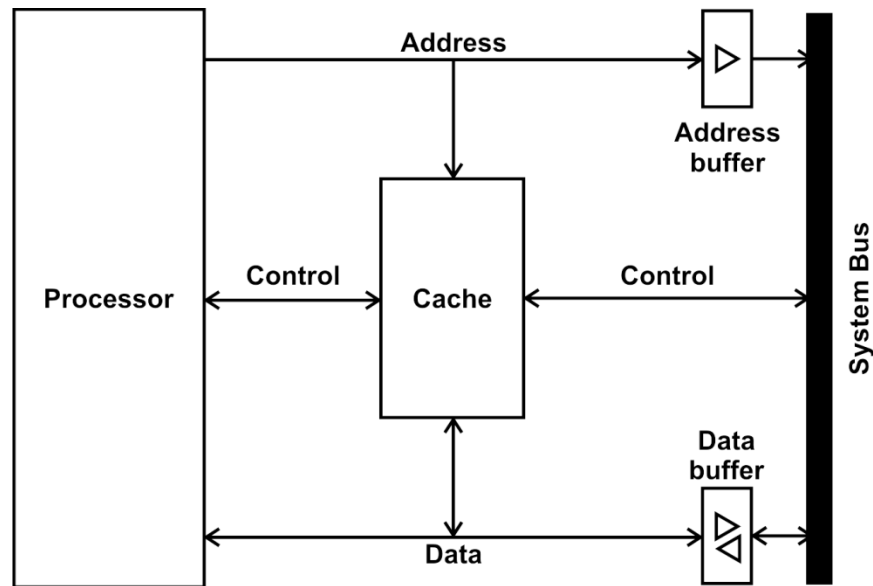


Figure 9.4

Elements of Cache Design

Cache Size

- Small enough so overall cost/bit is close to that of main memory.
- Large enough so overall average access time is close to that of the cache alone.
 - Access time = main memory access time plus cache access time.
- Large caches tend to be slightly slower than small caches.

Cache Mapping

Mapping Function

An algorithm is needed to map main memory blocks into cache lines. A method is needed to determine which main memory block occupies a cache line. Three techniques used: direct, associative, and set associative. Assume the following:

- Cache of 64 Kbytes
- Transfers between main memory and cache are in blocks of 4 bytes each – cache organized as $16K = 2^{14}$ lines of 4 bytes each
- Main memory of 16 Mbytes, directly addressable by a 24-bit address (where $2^{24} = 16M$) – main memory consists of $4M$ blocks of 4 bytes each

Direct Mapping

- Each block of main memory maps to only one cache line
 - “cache line #” = “main memory block #” % “number of lines in cache”
- Main memory addresses are viewed as three fields
 - Least significant w bits identify a unique word or byte within a block
 - Most significant s bits specify one of the 2^s blocks of main memory Tag field of $s-r$ bits (most significant)
 - Line field of r bits – identifies one of the $m = 2^r$ lines of the cache

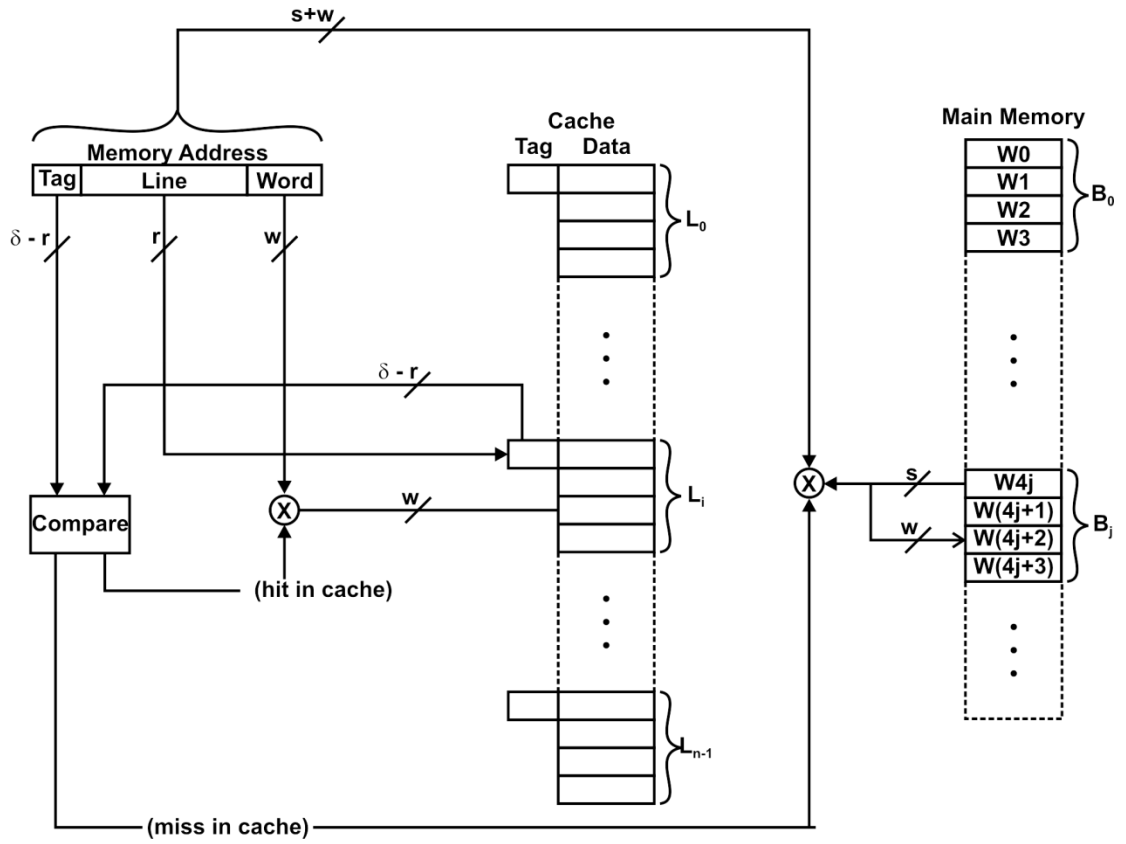
Tag (s-r)	Line or Slot (r)	Word (w)
8 bits	14 bits	2 bits

- 24 bit address
- 2 bit word identifier
- 22 bit block identifier
- 8 bit tag (22-14)
- 14 bit slot or line
- No two blocks in the same line have the same Tag field
- Check contents of cache by finding and checking Tag

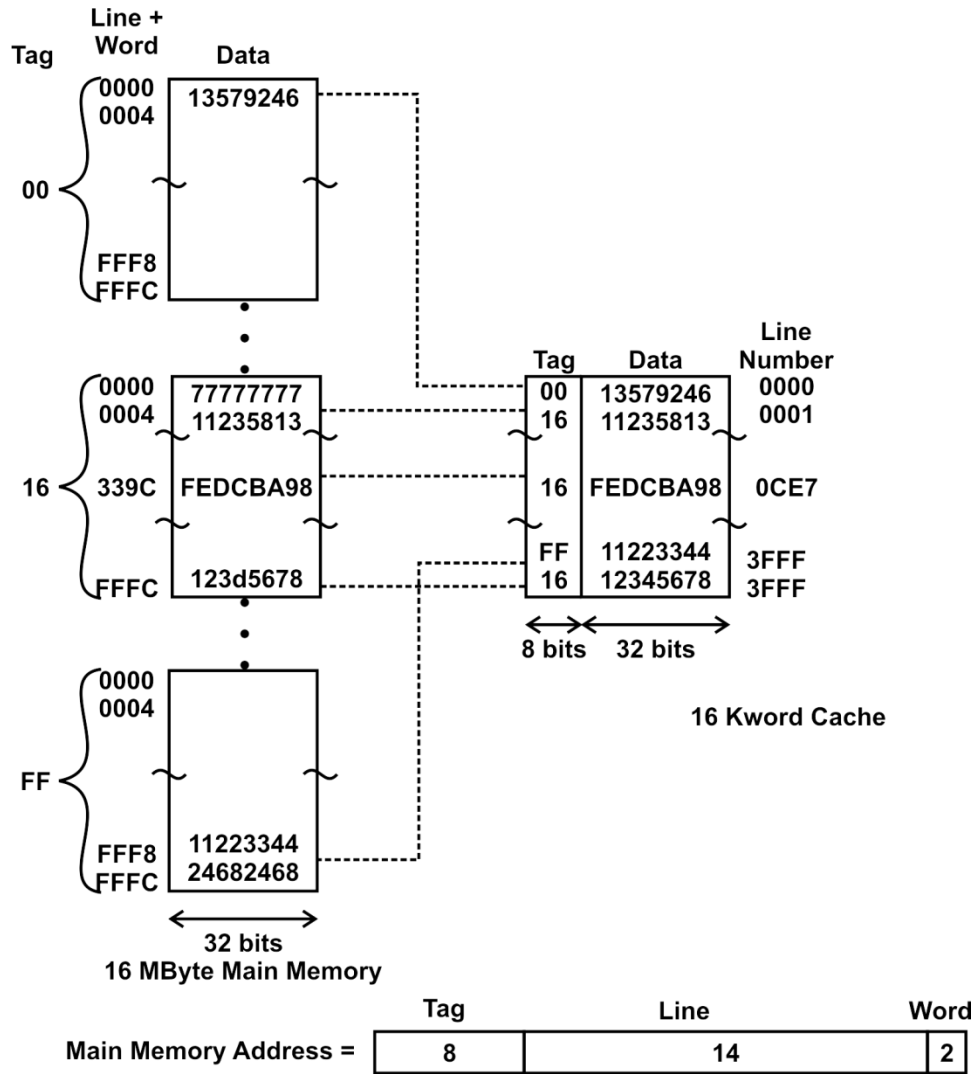
Direct Mapping Cache Table

Cache Line assigned	Main memory blocks
0	0, m, 2m, ..., $2^s - m$
1	1, m+1, 2m+1, ..., $2^s - m + 1$
...	...
m-1	m-1, 2m-1, 3m-1, ..., $2^s - 1$

Direct Mapping Cache Organization



Example of Direct Mapping



Direct Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s+w) bits
- Number of addressable units = $2^{(s+w)}$ words or bytes
- Block size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = $2^{(s+w)} / 2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in cache = $m = 2^r$
- Size of tag = (s-r) bits

Direct Mapping Pros and Cons

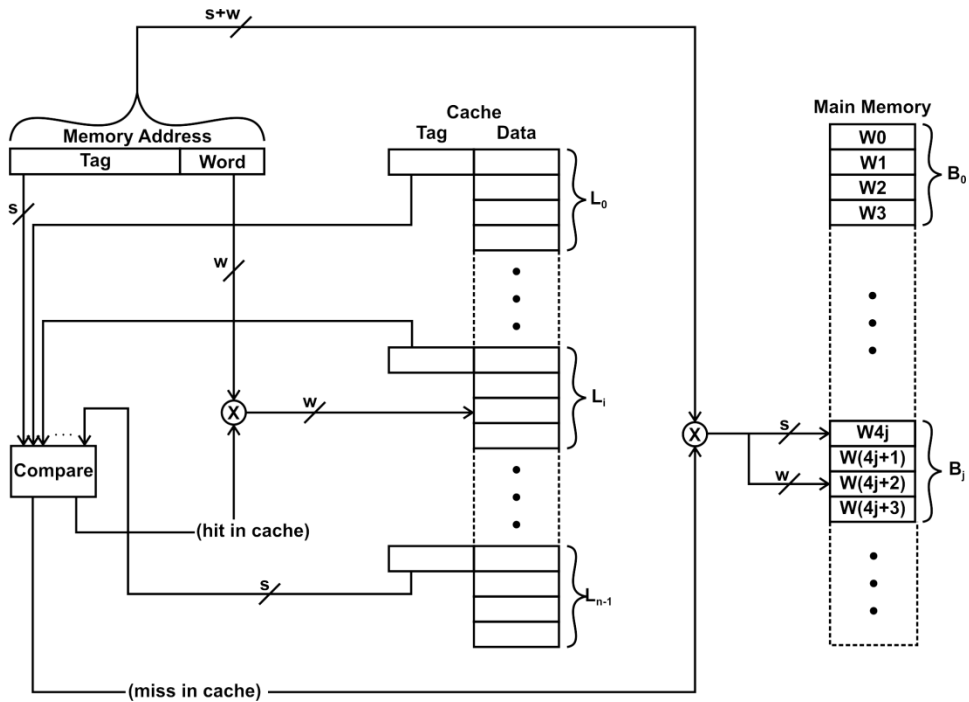
- Simple
- Inexpensive

- Fixed location for a given block
 - If a program accesses two blocks that map to the same line repeatedly, then cache misses are very high

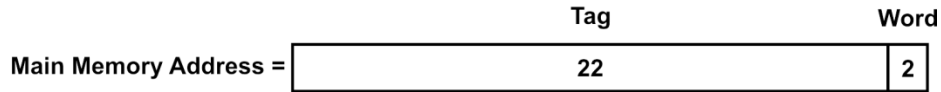
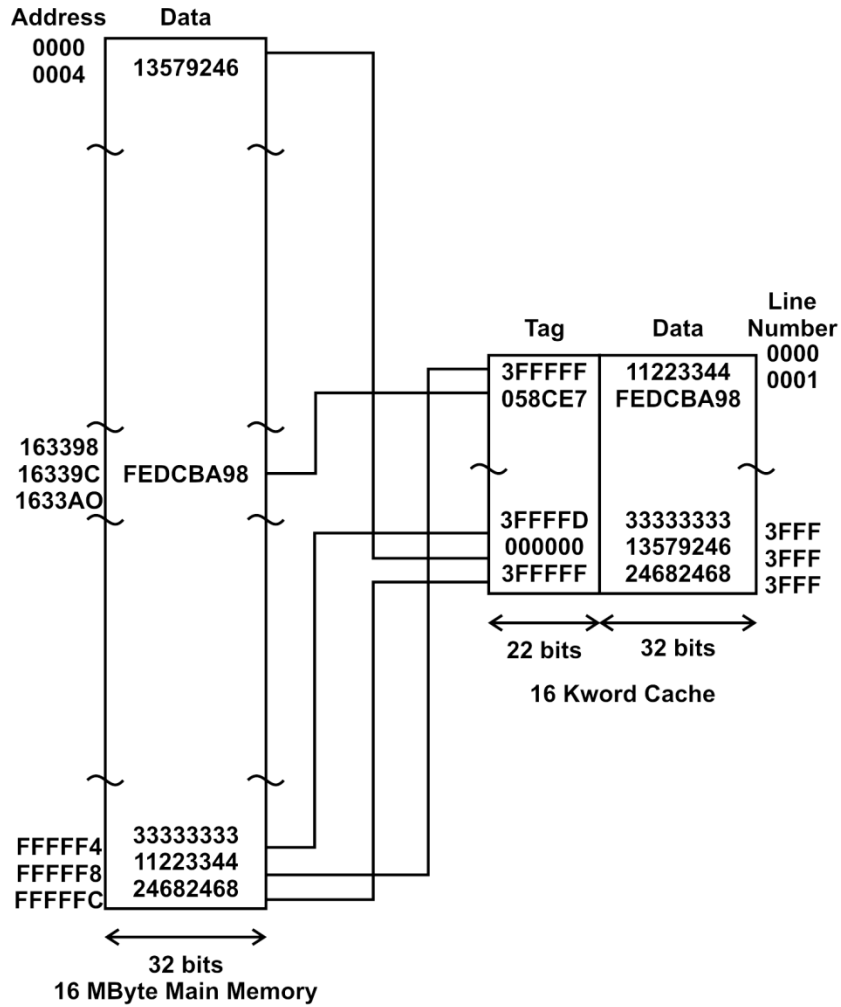
Associative Mapping

- A main memory block can be loaded into any line of the cache
- A memory address is interpreted as a tag and a word field
- The tag field uniquely identifies a block of main memory
- Each cache line's tag is examined simultaneously to determine if a block is in cache

Associative Mapping Cache Organization:



Example of Associative Mapping



Main memory addresses are viewed as two fields

Tag (s)	Word (w)
22 bits	2 bits

- 22 bit tag stored with the 32 bit block of data
- Tag field compared with tag entry to check for cache hit
- 2 bit byte number

Example:

Hex Address: 16339C Binary Address: 0001 0110 0011 0011 1001 1100

Hex Tag: 058CE7 Binary Tag: 0000 0101 1000 1100 1110 0111

Associative Mapping Summary

- Address length = $(s+w)$ bits
- Number of addressable units = $2^{(s+w)}$ words or bytes
- Block Size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = $2^{(s+w)}/2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in cache = undetermined
- Size of tag = s bits

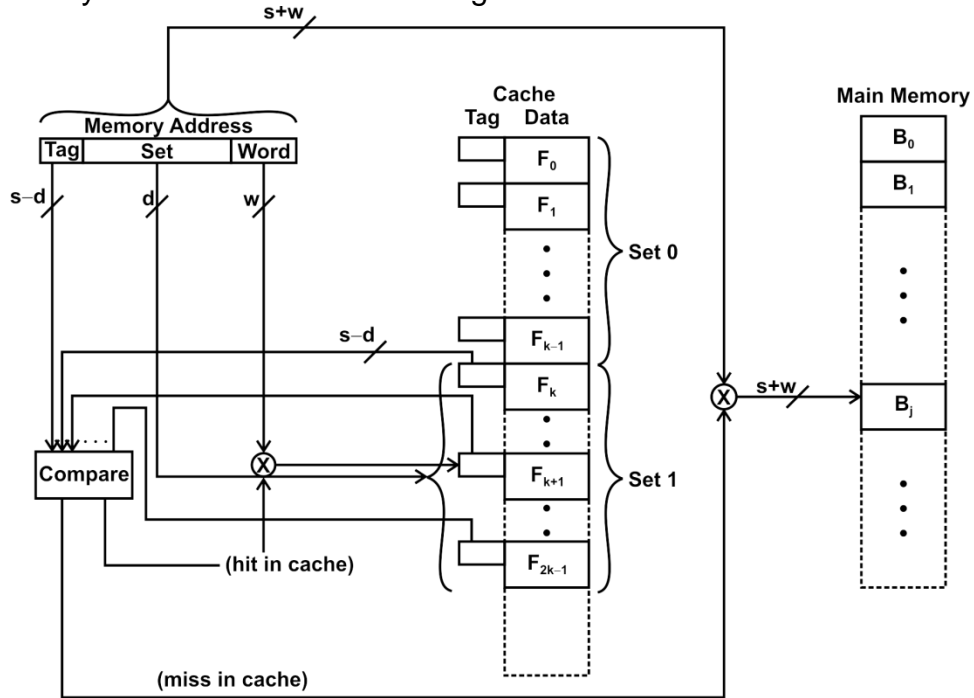
Associative Mapping Pros and Cons

- Flexibility as to which block to replace when a new block is read into cache
 - Replacement algorithms designed to maximize cache hit ratio
- Complex circuitry required to examine the tags of all cache lines in parallel

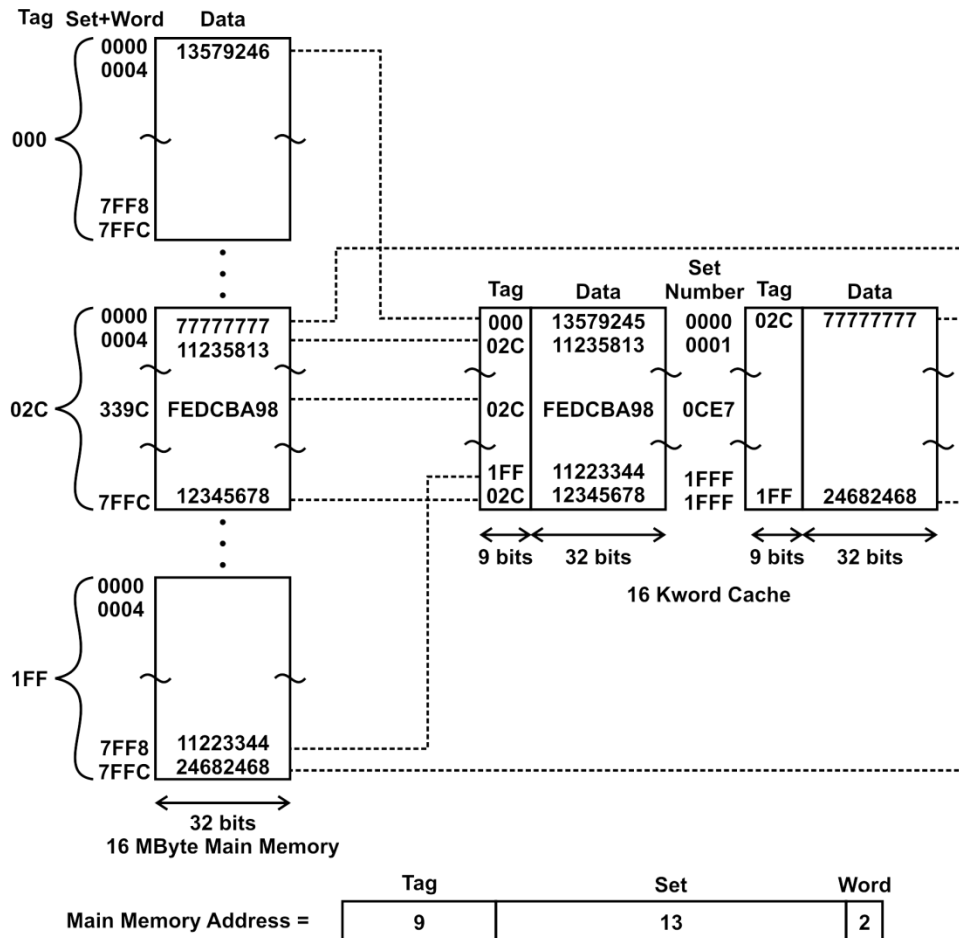
Set Associative Mapping

- Compromise between direct and associative mapping
- Cache divided into v sets
- Each set contains k lines
- A given block maps into any line in a given set
 - Ex: block B can be mapped into any line in set i
- Ex: Assume that $k = 2$ – meaning there are 2 lines per set
 - 2-way associative mapping – k -way mapping
 - A given block can map into either of the 2 lines in exactly 1 set

k-Way Set Associative Cache Organization



Example of Set Associative Mapping



Main memory addresses are viewed as two fields

Tag (s-d)	Set (d)	Word (w)
9 bits	13 bits	2 bits

- 9 bit tag field – only compared with k tags in the given set
- 13 bit set field – specifies one of the $v = 2^d$ sets
- 2 bit byte number

Example:

Hex Address: 16339C Binary Address: 0001 0110 0011 0011 1001 1100

Hex Tag: 02C Binary Tag: 0 0010 1100

Hex Address: 16339C Binary Address: 0001 0110 0011 0011 1001 1100

Hex Set: 0CE7 Binary Set: 0 1100 1110 0111

“cache set #” = “main memory block #” % “number of sets”

Set Associative Mapping Summary

- Address length = (s+w) bits
- Number of addressable units = $2^{(s+w)}$ words or bytes
- Block Size = line size = 2^w words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory = $2^{(s+w)}/2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in set = k
- Number of sets $v = 2^d$
- Number of lines in cache = $kv = k \cdot 2^d$
- Size of tag = (s-d) bits
- $v = m, k = 1$ reduces to direct mapping
- $v = 1, k = m$ reduces to associative mapping
- 2-way mapping is most commonly used – significantly improves cache hit ratio over direct mapping
- 4-way mapping – makes a modest additional improvement for a relatively small additional cost

Replacement Algorithms

Direct Mapping

- No choice
- Each block only maps to one line
- Must replace that line

Associative and Set Associative

- Must be implemented in hardware for speed
- Most effective – Least Recently Used (LRU)
- Replace the block in the set that has been in cache the longest with no references to it
 - 2-way set associative – each line includes a USE bit
- First-in-first-out (FIFO)
 - Replace the block in the set that has been in the cache the longest
 - Uses a round-robin or circular buffer technique
- Least Frequently Used (LFU)
 - Replace the block in the set that has experienced the fewest references
 - Associate a counter with each line
- Pick a line at random – not based usage
 - Only slightly inferior in performance to algorithms based on usage
- Write Policy
 - What if cache has been altered and main memory doesn't match must write to memory before replacing the word in cache
 - What if multiple processors are present and each one has its own cache
 - What if an I/O device addresses main memory directly
- Write Through
 - All writes go to both cache and main memory
 - Each processor can monitor main memory activity to keep local cache current
 - Generates a lot of memory traffic
- Write Back
 - Minimizes memory writes
 - Updates are made only in cache
 - UPDATE bit associated with the line is set
 - When the block is replaced it is written back to main memory only if the UPDATE bit is set
 - This may cause other caches to be out of sync
 - I/O must access main memory through the cache
 - 15% of memory references are writes

Exercise

Q1. Explain the usage of memory.

Q2. Explain RAM and ROM.

Q3. Explain different types of ROM.

Q4. Explain the concept of cache memory.

Q5. Explain different characteristics of Memory Systems.

Q6. Explain Cache mapping.

References

Computer System Architecture – M. Morris Meno, PHI, 1998

Computer Architecture and Organization - John P Hayes, McGraw Hill, 1998

Digital Computer Fundamentals – Malvino

Digital Computer Fundamentals – Thomas C Barteo, TMG

Computer Organization and Architecture – William Stallings

Microprocessor Architecture and Programming and Applications with the 8085 – R.S. Gaonkar, PRI



EXTERNAL MEMORY

Topics Covered:

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Magnetic Disk
- 10.3 Data Organization and Formatting
- 10.4 RAID

10.1 INTRODUCTION

- ⇒ Magnetic disks remain the most important component of external memory.
- ⇒ Both removable and fixed, hard disks are used in systems ranging from personal computers to mainframes and supercomputers.
- ⇒ To achieve greater performance and higher availability, a popular scheme on servers and larger systems is the RAID disk technology.
- ⇒ RAID refers to a family of techniques for using multiple disks as a parallel array of data storage devices, with redundancy built in to compensate for disk failure.
- ⇒ Optical storage technology has become increasingly important in all types of computer systems.
- ⇒ While CD-ROM has been widely used for many years, more recent technologies, such as writable CD and DVD, are becoming increasingly important.

10.2 MAGNETIC DISK

- ⇒ Circular platter constructed of nonmagnetic material, called the substrate, coated with a magnetize able material
- ⇒ Substrate was traditionally aluminum or aluminum alloy
- ⇒ Substrate now glass
 - Improved surface uniformity – increased reliability
 - Reduction in surface defects – reduce read/write errors
 - Support lower fly heights
 - Greater ability to withstand shock and damage

Magnetic Read and Write Mechanisms

- ⇒ Data recording and retrieval via a conducting coil named the head
- ⇒ Read and write heads may be combined or separate
- ⇒ Read/write operations – the head is stationary while the platter rotates beneath it
- ⇒ Write
 - Current flowing through a coil produces a magnetic field
 - Pulses are sent to the head
 - Magnetic patterns are recorded on the surface below
- ⇒ Read (traditional)
 - A magnetic field moving relative to a coil produces current in the coil
 - When the surface of the disk passes under the head current of the same polarity is generated as the one already recorded
 - Structure of the head for reading is essentially the same as for writing – therefore the same head can be used
 - Such single heads are used in floppy disks and older rigid disk systems
- ⇒ Read (contemporary)
 - Requires separate read and write heads
 - Consists of a partially shielded magneto resistive (MR) sensor
 - Electrical resistance depends on the direction of the magnetic field moving under it
 - Resistance changes are detected as voltage signals
 - Allows for higher-frequency operation – greater storage densities and operating speeds

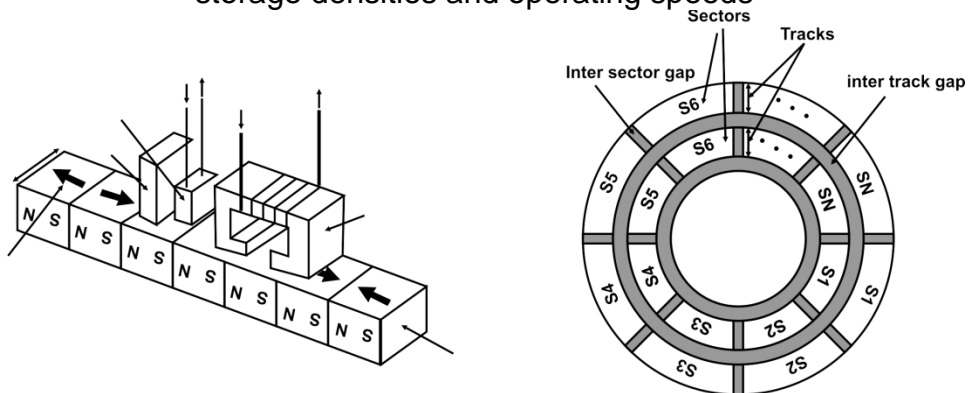


Figure 10.1

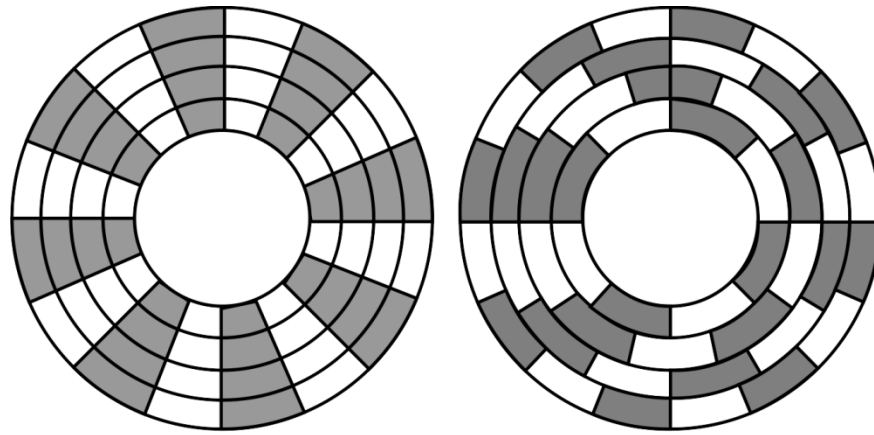
10.3 DATA ORGANIZATION AND FORMATTING

- ⇒ Data is organized on a platter using a set of concentric rings named tracks
 - Each track is the same width as the head
 - Adjacent tracks are separated by gaps – minimizes errors due to misalignment or magnetic field interference

- ⇒ Tracks divided into sectors
 - Data is transferred to and from disk in sectors – blocks of sectors
 - Adjacent sectors separated by intra track gaps

Disk Velocity

- ⇒ A bit stored near the center of a rotating disk passes a fixed point slower than a bit stored near the outside edge of the disk
- ⇒ Spacing between bits is increased on the tracks towards the outside edge
- ⇒ Constant angular velocity (CAV) – rotating the disk at a fixed rate
 - Sectors are pie shaped and the tracks are concentric
 - Individual tracks and sectors can be directly addressed
 - Head is moved to the desired track and then waits for the desired sector
 - Wastes disk space on the outer tracks – lower data density
- ⇒ Multiple zone recording
 - The number of bits per track is constant
 - Zones towards the outer edge contain more bits and more sectors
 - Read and write timing changes from one zone to the next
 - Increased capacity traded for more complex circuitry



(a) Constant angular velocity

(b) Multiple zoned recording

Figure 10.2

Locating Sectors

- ⇒ Must be able to identify the start and end of each sector
- ⇒ Disk Format
 - Marks the start and end of sectors
 - Allocates additional space for disk management – not user accessible

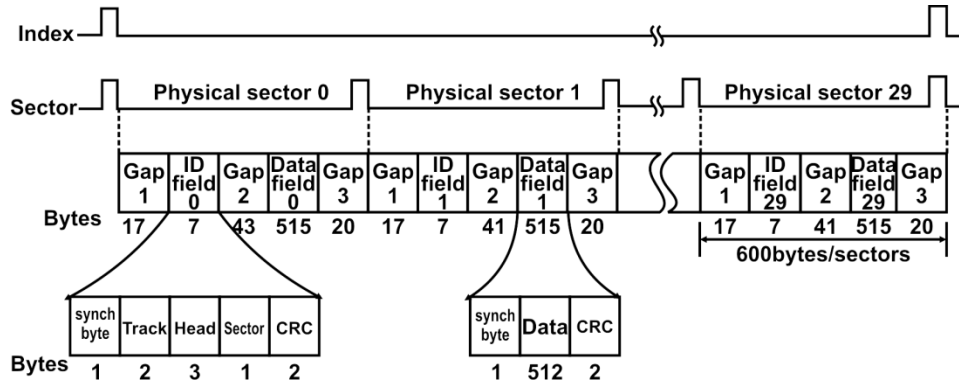


Figure 10.3

Physical Characteristics

- ⇒ Head Motion
 - Fixed head – one per track – heads mounted on fixed rigid arm
 - Movable head – one per surface – heads mounted on movable arm
- ⇒ Disk Portability
 - Non-removable disk – permanently mounted

- ⇒ Removable disk – can remove one drive and replace with another – unlimited storage capacity – easy data transfer between systems
- ⇒ Sides
 - Single sided – 1 set of heads
 - Double sided – 2 sets of heads – most common
- ⇒ Platters
 - Single platter
- ⇒ Multiple platter – heads joined and aligned – aligned tracks on each platter form a cylinder – improves transfer rate
- ⇒ Head Mechanism
- ⇒ Contact
 - Head is in contact with disk medium – floppy disk
- ⇒ Fixed gap
 - Fixed distance air gap between the head and the platter
- ⇒ Aerodynamic gap (Winchester)
 - Head is an aerodynamic foil – the heads flies above the platter as it spins

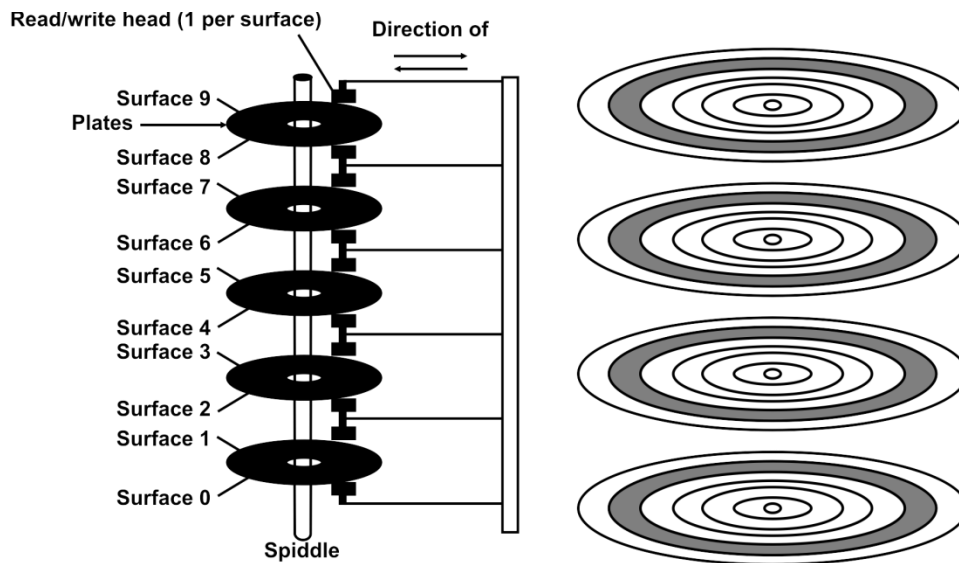


Figure 10.4

Disk Performance Parameters

General timing diagram of disk I/O transfer:

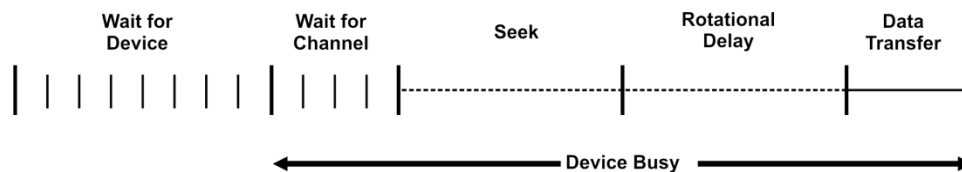


Figure 10.5

- ⇒ Seek time
 - Time it takes to position the head at the desired track
 - moveable head system
- ⇒ Rotational delay
 - Time it takes for the beginning of the desire sector to reach the head
 - Floppy disks rotate at a rate between 300 and 600 rpm
 - Hard disks rotate at a rate between 3600 and 15000 rpm
- ⇒ Access time
 - Sum of the seek time and the rotational delay
- ⇒ Transfer time
 - Time required for the data transfer
 - Dependent on the rotation speed of the disk

10.4 RAID

- ⇒ Redundant Array of Independent Disks
- ⇒ Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks
- ⇒ 7 levels numbered 0 through 6 – does not imply a hierarchical relationship
- ⇒ Set of physical disk drives viewed by the OS as a single logical drive
- ⇒ Data are distributed across the physical drives of an array
- ⇒ Redundant disk capacity used to store parity information – guarantees data Recoverability

RAID Level 0 - Striping

- ⇒ No redundancy
- ⇒ Data striped across all disks
- ⇒ Uses Round Robin striping
- ⇒ Increase speed
 - Multiple data requests found on different disks
 - Multiple disks can be seeked in parallel
 - A set of data is likely to be striped across multiple disks

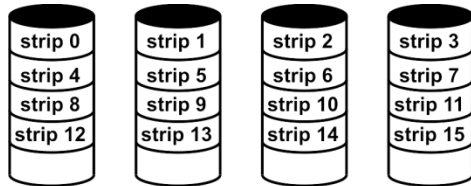
RAID Level 1 - Mirroring

- ⇒ Mirrored disks
- ⇒ Data is striped across disks
- ⇒ 2 copies of each stripe exist on 2 separate disks
- ⇒ Read request handled by either disk – minimum seek plus rotation latency
- ⇒ Write requests go to both disks

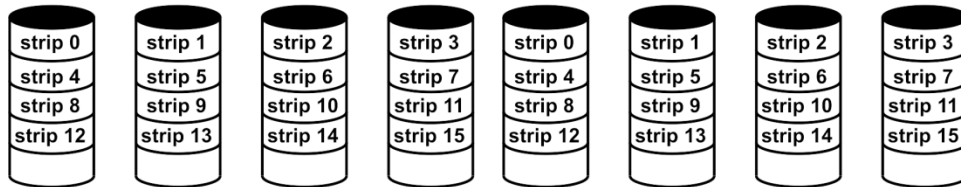
- ⇒ Recovery from failure is simple – swap out bad disk and re-mirror
- ⇒ Expensive – requires twice the disk space

RAID Level 2 – Parallel access

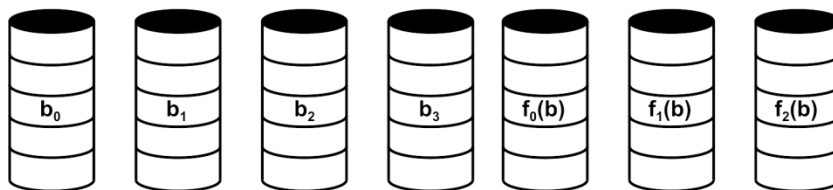
- ⇒ Disks are synchronized – heads in same position on every disk
- ⇒ Stripes are very small – single byte or word
- ⇒ Error-correcting code calculated across corresponding bits on each disk
- ⇒ Multiple parity disks store the code in corresponding positions – Hamming code
- ⇒ Too much redundancy – expensive – overkill so not implemented



a) RAID0 (non-redundant)



b) RAID1 (non-redundant)



a) RAID3 (redundancy through hamming code)

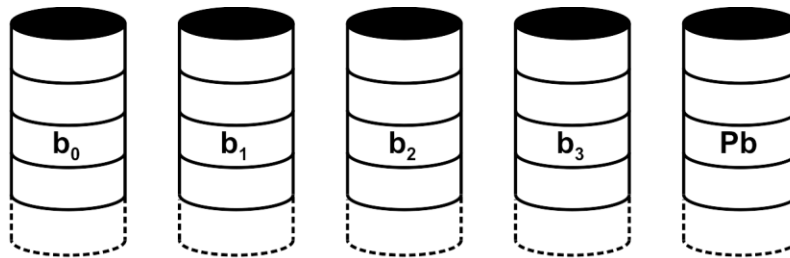
Figure 10.6

RAID Level 3 – Parallel access

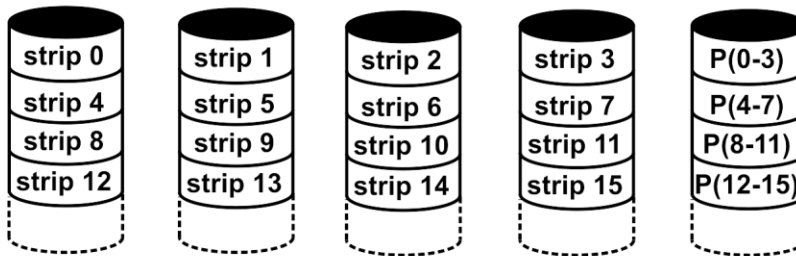
- ⇒ Similar to RAID 2
- ⇒ Only a single redundant disk – no matter what the array size is
- ⇒ Simple parity bit is computed for the set of individual bits in the same position
- ⇒ Data on a failed disk reconstructed from surviving data and parity info
- ⇒ Very high transfer rates – small stripes yield parallel transfer from all disks

RAID Level 4 – Independent access

- ⇒ Each disk operates independently
- ⇒ High I/O request rates – separate I/O request satisfied in parallel
- ⇒ Large stripes are used
- ⇒ Bit-by-bit parity strip is calculated across corresponding strips on each disk
- ⇒ Parity strips stored in the corresponding strip on the parity disk
- ⇒ Every write must involve a parity disk – potential I/O bottleneck



d) RAID3 (bit inter level parity)



e) RAID4 (block level parity)

Figure 10.7

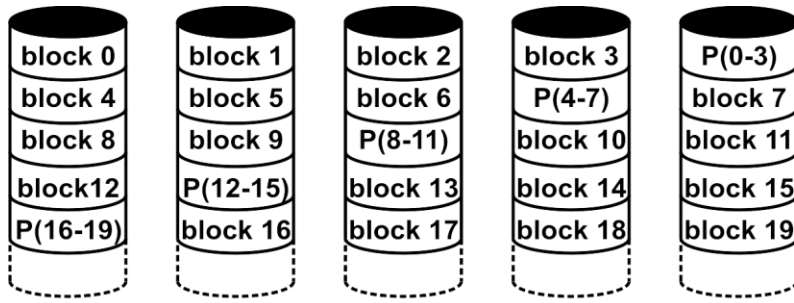
RAID Level 5 – Independent access

- ⇒ Similar to RAID 4
- ⇒ Distributes the parity strips across all disks
- ⇒ Uses Round Robin allocation scheme
- ⇒ Avoids RAID 4 I/O bottleneck
- ⇒ Commonly used in network servers

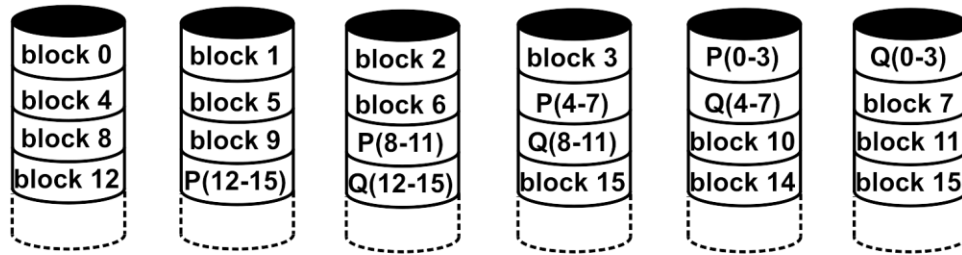
RAID Level 6 – Independent access

- ⇒ Two parity calculations
- ⇒ Stored in separate blocks on different disks
- ⇒ Requires $N+2$ disks – where N is number of disk required for user data
- ⇒ Extremely high data availability
 - Three disk must fail before loss of data

- Substantial write penalty – affects two parity blocks



d) RAID5 (block level distributed parity)



e) RAID6 (dual redundancy)

Figure 10.8

Data Mapping for a RAID Level 0 Arrays

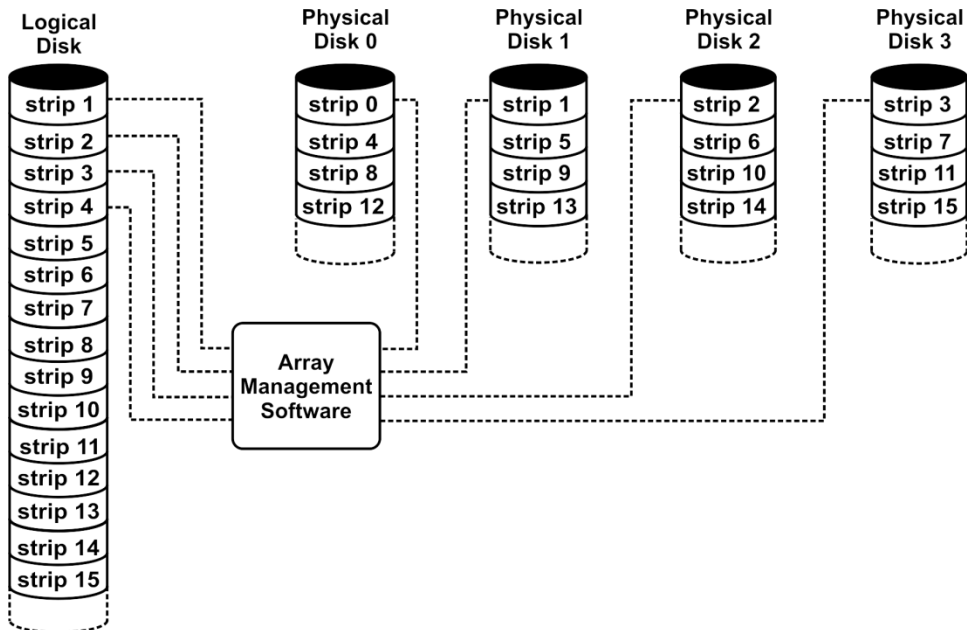


Figure 10.9

Exercise

Q1. Write a short note on external memory.

Q2. Explain RAID memory with different levels.

References

Computer System Architecture – M. Morris Meno, PHI, 1998

Computer Architecture and Organization - John P Hayes, McGraw Hill, 1998

Digital Computer Fundamentals – Malvino

Digital Computer Fundamentals – Thomas C Barteo, TMG

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THE 8051 MICROCONTROLLER

Topics Covered:

- 11.1 Introduction
- 11.2 History
- 11.3 The 8051 Microcontroller Hardware
- 11.4 The 8051 Microcontroller Architecture
- 11.5 Memory Organisation
- 11.6 Summary
- 11.7 Review Questions
- 11.8 Reference

11.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the hardware features of the 8051 microcontroller.
- List the internal registers of the 8051 microcontroller and their functions.
- Understand the memory organization in 8051 microcontroller.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite its relatively old age, the 8051 is one of the most popular microcontrollers in use today. Many derivative microcontrollers have since been developed that are based on and compatible with the 8051. Thus, the ability to program an 8051 is an important skill for anyone who plans to develop products that will take advantage of microcontrollers.

A microcontroller is an integrated circuit or a chip with a processor and other support devices like program memory, data memory, I/O ports, serial communication interface etc integrated together. Unlike a microprocessor (ex: Intel 8085), a microcontroller does not require any external interfacing of support devices. Intel 8051 is the most popular microcontroller ever produced in the world market.

11.2 HISTORY

Intel, first produced a microcontroller in 1976 under the name MCS-48, which is an 8 bit microcontroller. Later in 1980 they released a further improved version (which is also 8 bit), under the name MCS-51. The most popular microcontroller 8051 belongs to the MCS-51 family of microcontrollers by Intel. Following the success of 8051, many other semiconductor manufacturers released microcontrollers under their own brand name but using the MCS-51 core. Global companies and giants in semiconductor industry like Microchip, Zilog, Atmel, Philips, Siemens released products under their brand name. The specialty was that all these devices could be programmed using the same MCS-51 instruction sets. They basically differed in support device configurations like improved memory, presence of an ADC or DAC etc.

11.2.1 8051 Family

Intel fabricated the original **8051** which is known as MCS-51. The other two members of the 8051 family are:

I] 8052 – This microcontroller has 256 bytes of RAM and 3 timers. In addition to the standard features of 8051, this microcontroller has an added 128 bytes of RAM and timer. It has 8K bytes of on chip program ROM. The programs written for projects using 8051 microcontroller can be used to run on the projects using 8052 microcontroller as 8051 is a subset of 8052.

II] 8031 – This microcontroller has all the features of 8051 except for it to be ROM-less. An external ROM that can be as large as 64 K bytes should be programmed and added to this chip for execution. The disadvantage of adding external ROM is that 2 ports (out of the 4 ports) are used. Hence, only 2 ports are left for I/O operations which can also be added externally if required for execution.

Comparison of 8051 family members:

Features	8051	8052	8031
RAM(bytes)	128	256	128
ROM	4K	8K	0K
Timers	2	3	2
Serial port	1	1	1
I/O pins	32	32	32
Interrupt sources	6	8	6

11.3 THE 8051 MICROCONTROLLER HARDWARE

In this chapter, we will study a “generic” 8051 housed in a 40-pin DIP. The block diagram of the 8051 in figure 1 shows all of the features unique to microcontrollers.

- Internal ROM and RAM
- I/O ports with programmable pins.
- Timers and counters.
- Serial data communication.

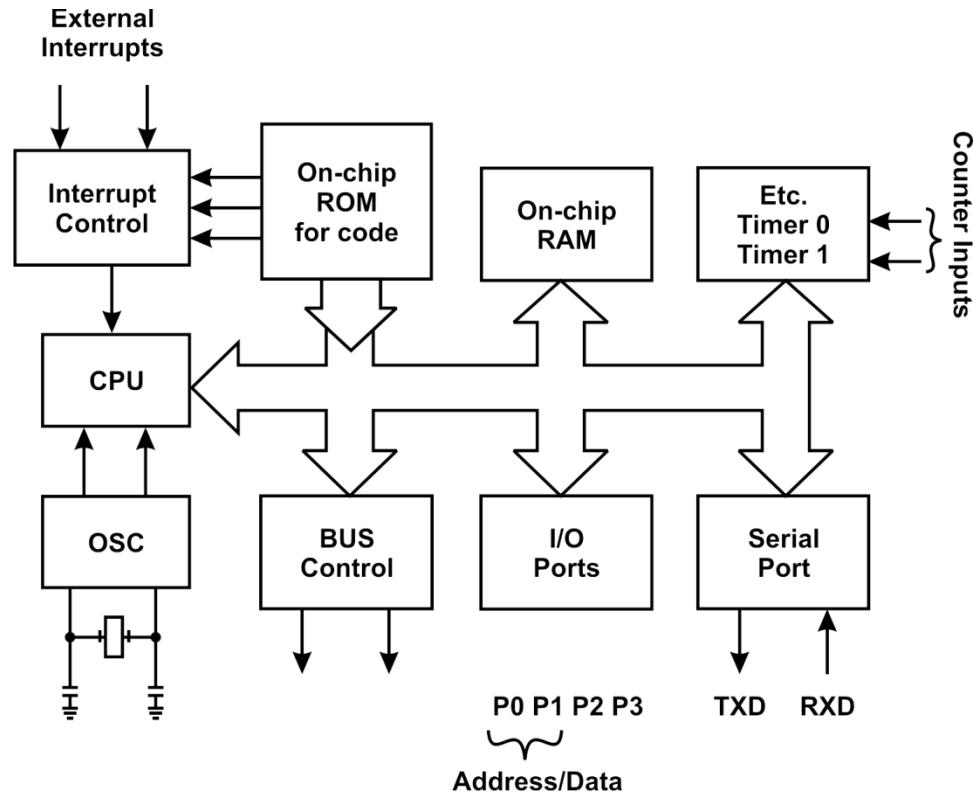


Fig. 1 Block Diagram of 8051 microcontroller

11.3.1 Features of 8051 microcontroller

The main features of 8051 microcontroller are:

- RAM – 128 Bytes (Data memory)
 - Four register banks, each containing eight registers.
 - Sixteen bytes, which may be addressed at the bit level.
 - Eighty bytes of general – purpose data memory.
- ROM – 4Kbytes (ROM signify the on – chip program space)
- Serial Port – Using UART makes it simpler to interface for serial communication
- Two 16 bit timer / counters : T0 and T1
- Input/output Pins – 4 Ports of 8 bits each on a single chip

- 6 Interrupt Sources
- Eight bit CPU with registers A (the accumulator) and B
- It has 16 bit Address bus and 8 bit Data Bus
- 8051 can execute 1 million one-cycle instructions per second with a clock frequency of 12MHz.

This microcontroller is also called as “System on a chip” because it has all the features on a single chip.

11.3.2 8051 Pin diagram

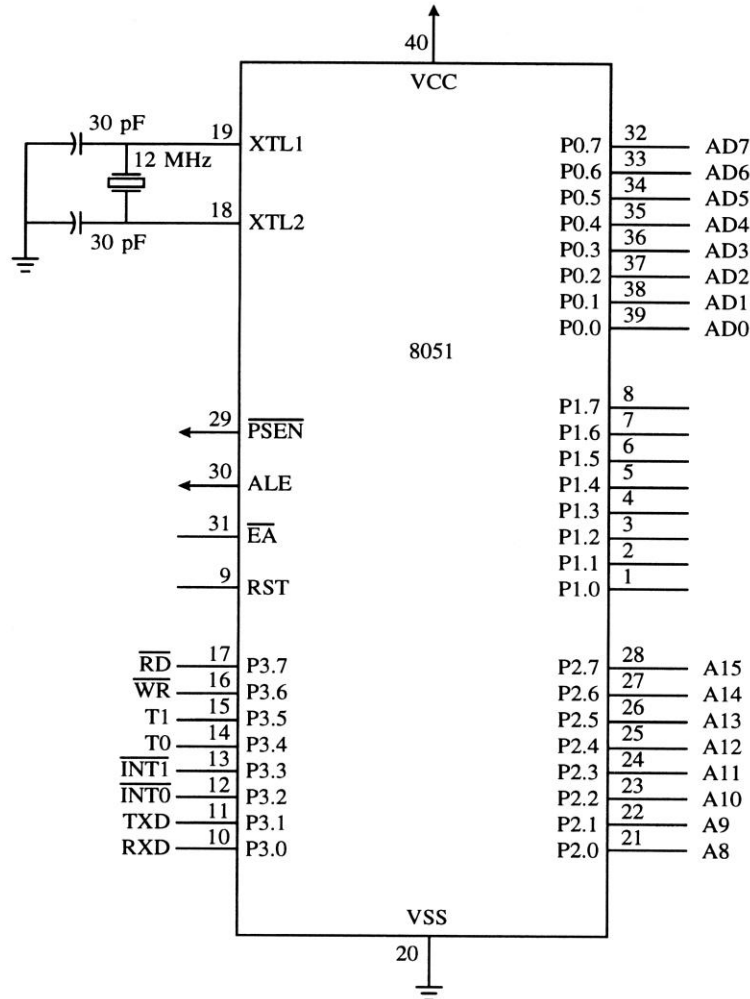


FIGURE 2–2
8051 pinouts

Fig. 2 Pin out diagram 8051 microcontroller

A pinout of the 8051 packaged in a 40 pin DIP is shown in fig 3 with the full and abbreviated names of the signals for each pin. It is important to note that many of the pins are used for more than one function.

Pins 32 – 39: Known as Port 0 (P0.0 to P0.7) – In addition to serving as I/O port, lower order address and data bus signals are multiplexed with this port (to serve the purpose of external memory

interfacing). This is a bi directional I/O port (the only one in 8051) and external pull up registers are required to function this port as I/O.

Pins 1 – 8: Known as Port 1. Port 1 is an internally pulled up, quasi bi directional I/O port. Unlike other ports, this port does not serve any other functions.

Pins 21 – 28: Known as Port 2 (P 2.0 to P 2.7) – in addition to serving as I/O port, higher order address bus signals are multiplexed with this quasi bi directional port.

Pins 10 – 17: Known as Port 3. This port also serves some other functions like interrupts, timer input, control signals for external memory interfacing RD and WR, serial communication signals RxD and TxD etc. This is a quasi bi directional port with internal pull up.

Pin 9: As explained before RESET pin is used to set the 8051 microcontroller to its initial values, while the microcontroller is working or at the initial state of application.

Pins 18 and 19: Used for interfacing an external crystal to provide system clock.

Pin 20: Named as Vss – It represents Ground (0 V) connection.

Pin 29: PSEN or Program Store Enable is used to read signal from external program memory.

Pin 30: EA or External Access input is used to enable or disallow external memory interfacing. If there is no external memory requirement, this pin is pulled high by connecting it to Vcc.

Pin 31: ALE or Address Latch Enable is used to demultiplex the address-data signal of port 0 (for external memory interfacing.)

Pin-40 : Named as Vcc is the main power source. Usually it is +5V DC.

11.4 THE 8051 MICROCONTROLLER ARCHITECTURE

11.4.1 Oscillator and Clock :

The heart of the 8051 is the circuitry that generates the clock pulses by which all internal operations are synchronized. Pins XTAL 1 and XTAL 2 are provide for connecting a resonant network to form an oscillator. Typically, a quartz crystal and capacitors are employed, as shown in figure 4. The crystal frequency is the basic internal clock frequency of the microcontroller. Clock frequency limits (maximum and minimum) may change from device to device. Standard practice is to use 12MHz frequency. If serial

communications are involved then its best to use 11.0592 MHz frequency.

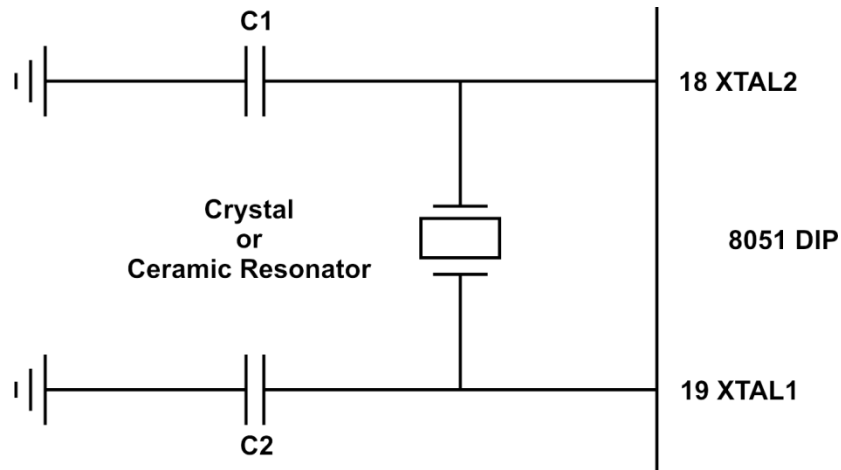


Fig. 3

To calculate the time any particular instruction will take to be executed, and the number of cycles, C . The time to execute that instruction is then found by multiplying C by 12 and dividing the product by the crystal frequency :

$$T_{inst} = \frac{C \times 12 d}{\text{Crystal frequency}}$$

For example, if the crystal frequency is 16 megahertz, then the time to execute an ADD A, R1 one-cycle instruction is .75 micro seconds. A 12 megahertz crystal yields the convenient time of 1 microsecond per cycle. An 11.0592 megahertz crystal, although seemingly an odd value, yields a cycle frequency of 921.6 kilohertz.

11.4.2 Program Counter and Data Pointer

The 8051 contains two 16 bit registers : The program counter (PC) and the data pointer (DPTR). Each is used to hold the address of a byte in memory.

The Program Counter (PC) is a 2-byte address which tells the 8051 where the next instruction to execute is found in memory. When the 8051 is initialized PC always starts at 0000h and is incremented each time an instruction is executed. It is important to note that PC is not always incremented by one. Since some instructions require 2 or 3 bytes the PC will be incremented by 2 or 3 in these cases.

The Data Pointer DPTR, as the name suggests, is used to point to data. The DPTR register is made up of two 8 bit registers, named DPH and DPL, which are used to furnish memory addresses for internal and external code access and external data access. The DPTR is under the control of program instructions and

can be specified by its 16 bit name, DPTR, or by each individual byte name, DPH and DPL. DPTR does not have a single internal address; DPH and DPL are each assigned an address.

11.4.3 A and B CPU Registers :

The A (accumulator) register is the most versatile of the two CPU register and is used for many operations, including addition, subtraction, integer multiplication and division, and Boolean bit manipulations. The A register is also used for all data transfers between the 8051 and any external memory. The B register is used with the A register for multiplication and division operations and has no other function other than as a location where data may be stored.

11.4.4 Flags and the Program Status Word (PSW) :

The register PSW(*Program Status Word*) or the program status word contains information on the status of the CPU. Contains indicators or *flags* to use conditional statements to make decisions. The 8051 has four math flags that respond automatically to the outcomes of math operations and three general – purpose user flags that can be set to 1 or cleared to 0 by the programmer as desired. The math flags include carry (C), Auxiliary carry (AC), Overflow (OV), and Parity (P). User flags is named F0, it is a general purpose flags that may be used by the programmer to record some event in the program. Note that all of the flags can be set and cleared by the programmer at will. The math flags, however, are also affected by math operations.

The program status word is shown in figure 5 the PSW contains the math flags, user program flag F0, and the register select bits that identify which of the four general purpose register banks is currently in use by the program.

Figure 5 PSW program status word Register

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
CY	AC	F0	RS1	RS0	OV	–	P

The Program Status Word (PSW) is a Special Function Register

Bit	Symbol	Function
7	CY	Carry Flag : Used in arithmetic, jump, rotate, and Boolean instructions.
6	AC	Auxiliary Carry Flag : Used for BCD arithmetic
5	FO	User flag 0
4	RS1	Register Bank Select bit 1
3	RS0	Register Bank Select bit 0
		RS1 RS0
		0 0 Select Register Bank 0
		0 1 Select Register Bank 1
		1 0 Select Register Bank 2
		1 1 Select Register Bank 3
2	OV	Overflow flag : Used in arithmetic instructions.
1	-	Reserved for future use
0	P	Parity Flag : Shows parity of register A : 1 = odd parity. Bit Addressable as PSW 0 to PSW 7

11.4.5 Stack Pointer

The stack pointer indicates where the next value to be taken from the stack will be read from in internal RAM. If you push a value on to the stack, the value will be written to the address $SP + 1$. If SP holds the value 07h, a PUSH instruction will push the value onto the stack address 08h. The stack pointer is modified by instructions such as PUSH, POP, LCALL, RET, RETI and whenever interrupts are provoked by the microcontroller.

11.5 MEMORY ORGANISATION

The 8051 has two types of memory and these are Program Memory and Data Memory. Program Memory (ROM) is used to permanently save the program being executed, while Data Memory (RAM) is used for temporarily storing data and intermediate results created and used during the operation of the microcontroller.

All 8051 microcontrollers have a 16-bit addressing bus and are capable of addressing 64 kb memory.

11.5.1 Program Memory

It has an internal program of 4K size and if needed an external memory can be added (by interfacing) of size 60K maximum. So in total 64K size memory is available for 8051 micro controller. By default, the External Access (EA) pin should be connected Vcc so that instructions are fetched from internal memory initially. When the limit of internal memory (4K) is crossed, control will automatically MOVE to external memory to fetch remaining instructions. If the programmer wants to fetch instruction from external memory only (bypassing the internal memory), then he must connect External Access (EA) pin to ground (GND).

EA=0In this case, the microcontroller completely ignores internal program memory and executes only the program stored in external memory.

EA=1In this case, the microcontroller executes first the program from built-in ROM, then the program stored in external memory.

11.5.2 Data Memory

Data Memory is used for temporarily storing data and intermediate results created and used during the operation of the microcontroller. Besides, RAM memory built in the 8051 family includes many registers such as hardware counters and timers, input/output ports, serial data buffers etc. Locations available to the user occupy memory space with addresses 00-7Fh, i.e. first 128 registers. This part of RAM is divided in several blocks.

The 128 byte internal RAM, which is shown generally in figure is organized into three distinct areas :

1. **Register Bank** :Thirty two bytes from address 00h to 1Fh, that make up 32 working registers organized as four banks of eight registers each. The four register banks are numbered 0 to 3 and are made up of eight registers named R0 to R7. Each register can be addressed by name (when its bank is selected or by its RAM address. Thus R0 of bank 3 is R0 (if bank 3 is currently selected) or address 18h (whether bank 3 is selected or not). Bits RS0 and RS1 in the PSW determine which bank of registers is currently in use at any time when the program is running. Register banks not selected can be used as general purpose RAM. Bank 0 is selected on reset.
2. **A bit – addressable area**: A bit – addressable area of 16 bytes occupies RAM byte addresses 20h to 2Fh, forming a total of 128 addressable bits. An addressable bit may be specified by its bit address of 00h to 7Fh, or 8 bits may form any byte address.

From 20h to 2Fh. Thus, For example, bit address 4Fh is also bit 7 of byte address 29 h.

3. **A general purpose RAM:**A general purpose RAM area above the bit area, from 30h to 70h, addressable as bytes.

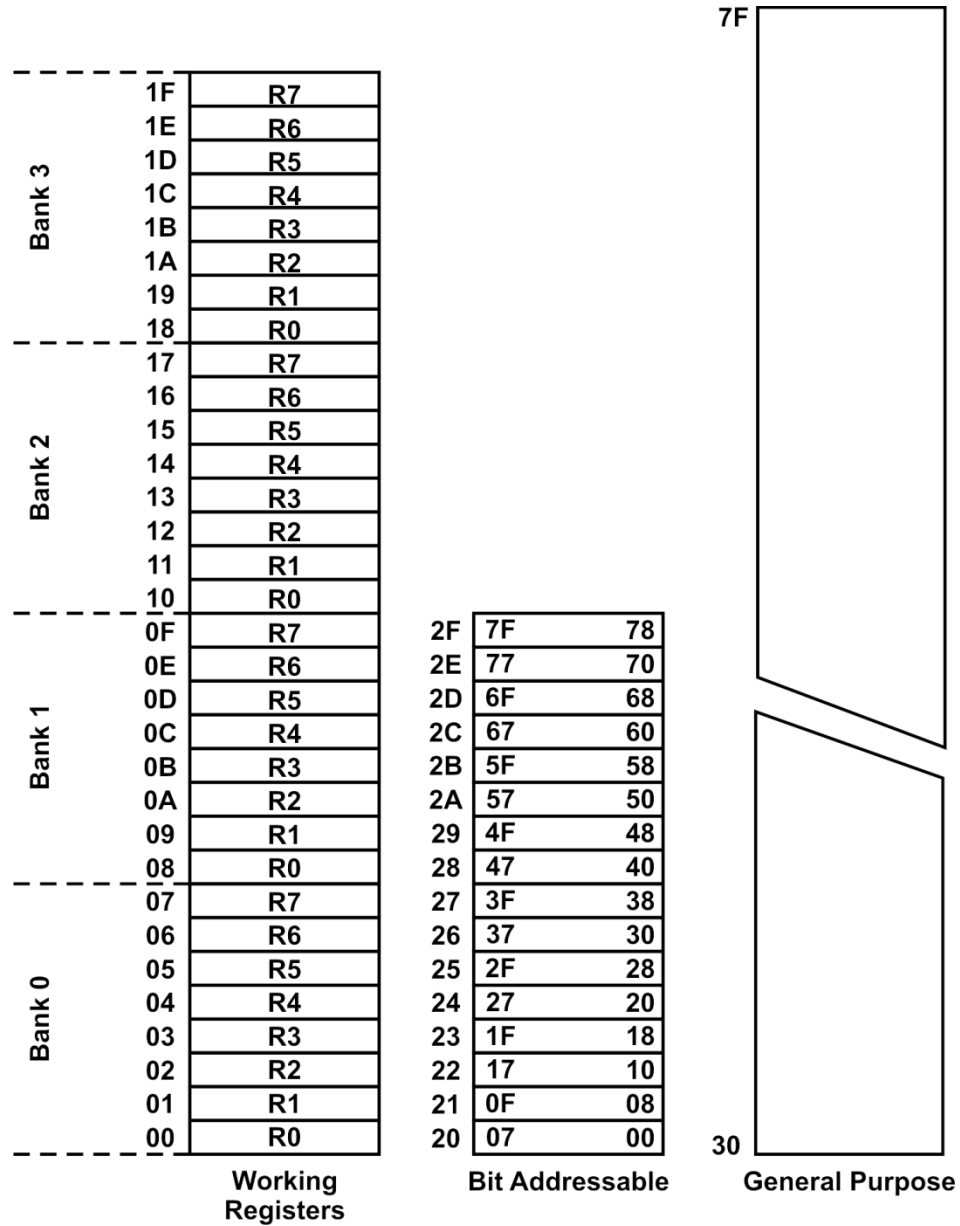


Figure: Memory (a)

11.6 SUMMARY

- A microcontroller is an integrated circuit or a chip with a processor and other support devices like program memory, data memory, I/O ports, serial communication interface etc integrated together.
- Unique features of microcontrollers.
 - Internal ROM and RAM
 - I/O ports with programmable pins
 - Timers and counters
 - Serial data communication
- The Program Counter (PC) is a 2-byte address which tells the 8051 where the next instruction to execute is found in memory.
- The crystal frequency is the basic internal clock frequency of the microcontroller. Clock frequency limits (maximum and minimum) may change from device to device. Standard practice is to use 12MHz frequency.
- The DPTR register is made up of two 8 bit registers, named DPH and DPL, which are used to furnish memory addresses for internal and external code access and external data access.
- The A (accumulator) register is the most versatile of the two CPU register and is used for many operations, including addition, subtraction, integer multiplication and division, and Boolean bit manipulations.
- The stack pointer indicates where the next value to be taken from the stack will be read from in internal RAM.
- The PSW(*Program Status Word*) contains information of *flags*. This includes carry (C), Auxiliary carry (AC), Overflow (OV), and Parity (P), user flag F0 and RS0 & RS1 to select Register bank.
- RAM memory built in the 8051 family includes many registers such as hardware counters and timers, input/output ports, serial data buffers etc. Locations available to the user occupy memory space with addresses 00-7Fh, i.e. first 128 registers.

11.7 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Describe in brief the history of 8051.
- Q.2 Draw and explain the block diagram of inside the microcontroller 8051.
- Q.3 State the features of 8051 microcontroller.
- Q.4 Describe the program counter in the 8051.
- Q.5 Describe the stack pointer in the 8051.
- Q.6 Explain the role of DPTR register in the 8051.
- Q.8 Compare the features of 8031, 8051
- Q.9 Write a note on PSW register.
- Q.10 Describe the various flags used along with their functions in the 8051.
- Q.11 Explain the oscillator and clock in the 8051.
- Q.12 How the RAM of 8051 is organized?

11.7 REFERENCE

- The 8051 Microcontroller by Kenneth J. Ayala, Publisher: Thomson Delmar Learning
- The 8051 Microcontroller And Embedded Systems Using Assembly And C, 2/E By Mazidi and Mazidi, Publisher: Pearson Education India



THE 8051 MICROCONTROLLER ...continued

- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Special Function Registers
- 12.3 Counter and timers
- 12.4 Serial communication
- 12.4 Interrupts
- 12.5 Summary
- 12.6 Review Questions
- 12.7 Reference

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the SFR in the 8051 microcontroller
- Understand the working of counters in the 8051
- Understand the interrupts in the 8051

12.2 SPECIAL FUNCTION REGISTERS

The 8051 operations that do not use the internal 128-byte RAM addresses from 00h to 7Fh are done by a group of specific internal registers, each called a special Function register (SFR), which may be addressed much like internal RAM using addresses from 80h to FFh.

Some SFRs (marked with an asterick * in figure) are also bit addressable, as is the case for the bit area of RAM. This feature allows the programmer to change only what needs to be altered, leaving the remaining bits in that SFR unchanged.

Not all of the addresses from 80h to FFh are used for SFRs, and attempting to use an address that is not defined or empty, results in unpredictable results. The SFR names and equivalent internal RAM addresses are given in the following list :

NAME	FUNCTION	INTERNAL RAM ADDRESS (HEX)
A	Accumulator	0E0
B	Arithmetic	0F0
DPH	Addressing external memory	83
DPL	Addressing external memory	82
IE	Interrupt enable control	0A8
IP	Interrupt priority	0B8
P0	Input/Output port latch	80
P1	Input/Output port latch	90
P2	Input/Output port latch	A0
P3	Input/Output port latch	0B0
PCON	Power control	87
PSW	Program status word	0D0
SCON	Serial port control	98
SBUF	Serial port data buffer	99
SP	Stack pointer	81
TMOD	Timer/ counter mode control	89
TCON	Timer/counter control	88
TL0	Timer 0 low byte	8A
TH0	Timer 0 high byte	8C
TL1	Timer 1 low byte	8B
TH1	Timer 1 high byte	8D

Note that the PC is not part of the SFR and has no internal RAM address.

Byte address	Bit address	
FF		
F0	F7 F6 F5 F4 F3 F2 F1 F0	E
E0	E7 E6 E5 E4 E3 E2 E1 E0	ACC
D0	D7 D6 D5 D4 D3 D2 D1 D0	PSW
C0	-- -- -- BC BB BA B9 B8	IP
B0	B7 B6 B5 B4 B3 B2 B1 B0	CS
A8	AF -- -- AC AB AA A9 A8	IE
A0	A7 A6 A5 A4 A3 A2 A1 A0	P2
99	not bit-addressable	SBUF
98	9F 9E 9D 9C 9B 9A 99 98	SCON
90	97 96 95 94 93 92 91 90	P1
8D	not bit-addressable	TH1
8C	not bit-addressable	TH0
8B	not bit-addressable	TL1
8A	not bit-addressable	TLO
89	not bit-addressable	TMOD
88	8F 8E 8D 8C 8B 8A 89 88	TCON
87	not bit-addressable	PCON
83	not bit-addressable	DPH
82	not bit-addressable	DPL
81	not bit-addressable	SP
80	87 86 85 84 83 82 81 80	P0

Special Function Registers

12.3 COUNTER AND TIMER

The microcontroller oscillator uses quartz crystal for its operation. As the frequency of this oscillator is precisely defined and very stable, pulses it generates are always of the same width, which makes them ideal for time measurement. In order to measure time between two events it is sufficient to count up pulses coming from this oscillator. That is exactly what the timer does. If the timer is properly programmed, the value stored in its register will be

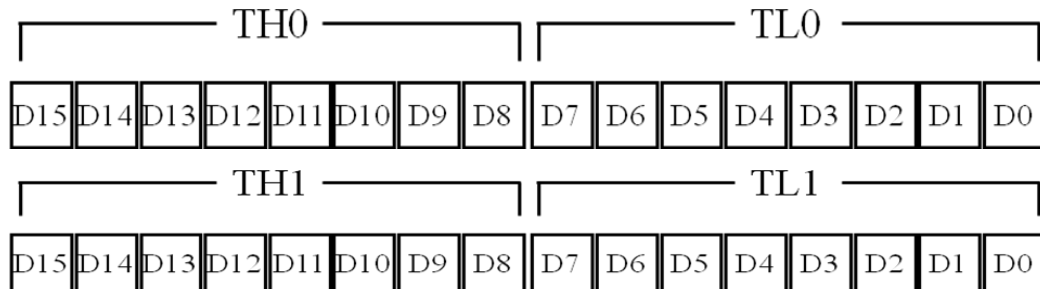
incremented (or decremented) with each coming pulse, i.e. once per each machine cycle. A single machine-cycle instruction lasts for 12 quartz oscillator periods, which means that by embedding quartz with oscillator frequency of 12MHz, a number stored in the timer register will be changed million times per second, i.e. each microsecond.

The 8051 microcontroller has 2 timers/counters called T0 and T1. As their names suggest, their main purpose is to measure time and count external events. Besides, they can be used for generating clock pulses to be used in serial communication, so called Baud Rate.

12.3.1 Timer T0 and T1

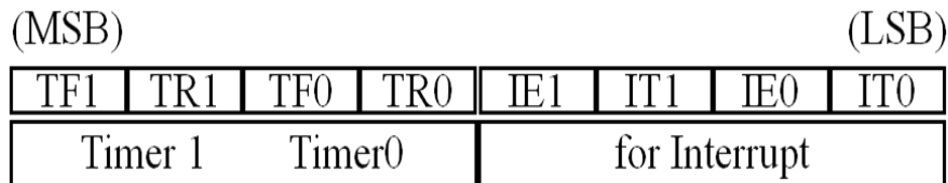
The counters are divided into two 8 bit registers called the timer low (TL0, TL1) and high (TH0, TH1) bytes. All counter action is controlled by bit states in the timer mode control register (TMOD), the timer/counter control register (TCON), and certain program instructions.

Since the timer T0 is virtually 16-bit register, the largest value it can store is 65 535. In case of exceeding this value, the timer will be automatically cleared and counting starts from 0. This condition is called an overflow.



12.3.2 TCON: Timer/Counter Control Register (Bit Addressable)

TCON has control bits and flags for the timers in the upper nibble. It has control bits and flags for the external interrupts in the lower nibble.



TF1	TCON. 7	Timer 1 overflow flag. Set by hardware when the Timer/Counter 1 overflows. Cleared by hardware as the processor vectors to the interrupt service routine.
TR1	TCON. 6	Timer 1 run control bit. Set/cleared by software to turn Timer/Counter 1 ON/OFF.
TF0	TCON. 5	Timer 0 overflow flag. Set by hardware when the Timer/Counter 0 overflows. Cleared by hardware as the processor vectors to the service routine.
TR0	TCON. 4	Timer 0 run control bit. Set/cleared by software to turn Timer/Counter 0 ON/OFF.
IE1	TCON. 3	External Interrupt 1 edge flag. Set by hardware when the External Interrupt edge is detected. Cleared by hardware when the interrupt is processed.
IT1	TCON. 2	Interrupt 1 type control bit. Set/cleared by software to specify falling edge/low level triggered External Interrupt.
IE0	TCON. 1	External Interrupt 0 edge flag. Set by hardware when External Interrupt edge detected. Cleared by hardware when interrupt is processed.
IT0	TCON. 0	Interrupt 0 type control bit. Set/cleared by software to specify falling edge/low level triggered External Interrupt.

12.3.3 TMOD: Timer/Counter Mode Control Register (Not Bit Addressable)

TMOD is dedicated solely to the two timers and can be considered to be two duplicate 4-bit registers, each of which controls the action of one of the timers.

(MSB)				(LSB)			
GATE	C/T	M1	M0	GATE	C/T	M1	M0
Timer 1				Timer 0			

GATE When TR_x (in TCON) is set and GATE = 1, TIMER/COUNTER_x runs only while the INT_x pin is high

(hardware control). When $GATE = 0$, $TIMER/COUNTERx$ will run only while $TRx = 1$ (software control).

C/T Timer or Counter selector. Cleared for Timer operation (input from internal system clock). Set for Counter operation (input from Tx input pin).

M1 Mode selector bit.

M0 Mode selector bit.

M1	M0	Operating Mode
0	0	0 13-bit Timer
0	1	1 16-bit Timer/Counter
1	0	2 8-bit Auto-Reload Timer/Counter
1	1	3 Split Timer Mode: (Timer 0) TL0 is an 8-bit Timer/Counter controlled by the standard Timer 0 control bits, TH0 is an 8-bit Timer and is controlled by Timer 1 control bits.
1	1	3 (Timer 1) Timer/Counter 1 stopped.

12.3.4 Modes of operation

TIMER MODE 0 (13 bit mode)

MODE 0 is a 13 bit mode. In this mode the THx acts as an 8 bit timer & TLx acts as a 5 bit timer. The TLx counts up to 31 & then resets to 00 & increment THx by 1. Suppose you load 0 in the timer then the timer will overflow in 2^{13} i.e. 8192 machine cycles.

TIMER MODE 1 (16 bit mode)

MODE 1 is similar to MODE 0 except it is a 16 bit mode. In this mode the THx & TLx both acts as an 8 bit timer. The TLx counts upto 255 & then resets to 00 & increment THx by 1. Since this is a full 16 bit timer we can get maximum of 2^{16} i.e. 65536 Machine cycle before the the timer overflows.

TIMER MODE 2 (8 bit mode)

In this Mode TLx acts as the timer & THx contains the **RELOAD VALUE** i.e. THx is loaded in TLx everytime it overflows i.e. when TLx reaches 255 & is incremented then instead of resetting it to 0 it will be reseted to the value stored in THx . This mode is very commony used for generating baud rate used in serial communication.

TIMER MODE 3 (Split Mode)

Timers 0 and 1 may be programmed to be in mode 0, 1, or 2 independently of a similar mode for the other timer. This is not true for mode 3; the timers do not operate independently if mode 3 is chosen for timer 0. Placing timer 1 in mode 3 causes it to stop counting; the control bit TR1 and the timer 1 flag TF1 are then used by timer 0.

When Timer 0 is placed in mode 3, it essentially becomes two separate 8-bit timers. That is to say, Timer 0 is TL0 and Timer 1 is TH0. Both timers count from 0 to 255 and overflow back to 0. All the bits that are related to Timer 1 will now be tied to TH0. So even if you use Timer 1 in Mode 0, 1 or 2 you won't be able to START or STOP the timer & no INTERRUPT will be generated by Timer 1. So the Timer 1 will be incremented every machine cycle no matter what.

12.4 SERIAL COMMUNICATION

The 8051 has a serial data communication circuit that uses register SBUF to hold the data. Register SCON controls data communication, Register PCON controls data rates, and pins RXD (P3.0) and TXD (P3.1) connect to serial network.

10.8.1 PCON – Power Control Register

D7	D6	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1	D0
SMOD	x	x	x	GF1	GF0	PD	IDL

Address: 87H (not bit addressable)

SMOD – Serial mode bit used to determine the baud rate with Timer 1.

$$BaudRate = \frac{\text{Oscillator frequency in Hz}}{N [256 - (TH1)]}$$

If SMOD = 0 then N = 384. If SMOD = 1 then N = 192. TH1 is the high byte of timer 1 when it is in 8-bit autoreload mode.

GF1 and GF0 are General purpose flags not implemented on the standard device

PD is the power down bit. Not implemented on the standard device
IDL activate the idle mode to save power. Not implemented on the standard device

12.4 .2 SCON – Serial Control Register

The Serial Control SFR is used to configure the behavior of the 8051's on-board serial port. This SFR controls the baud rate of the

serial port, whether the serial port is activated to receive data, and also contains flags that are set when a byte is successfully sent or received.

D7	D6	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1	D0
SM0	SM1	SM2	REN	TB8	RB8	TI	RI

Address: 98H (bit-addressable)

SM0	SM1	Operation	Baud rate
0	0	Shift register	Osc/12
0	1	8-bit UART	Set by timer
1	0	9-bit UART	Osc/12 or Osc/64
1	1	9-bit UART	Set by timer

SM2 – Enables multiprocessor communication in modes 2 and 3.

REN – Receiver enable

TB8 – Transmit bit 8. This is the 9th bit transmitted in modes 2 and 3.

RB8 – Receive bit 8. This is the 9th bit received in modes 2 and 3.

TI – Transmit interrupt flag. Set at end of character transmission. Cleared in software.

RI – Receive interrupt flag. Set at end of character reception. Cleared in software.

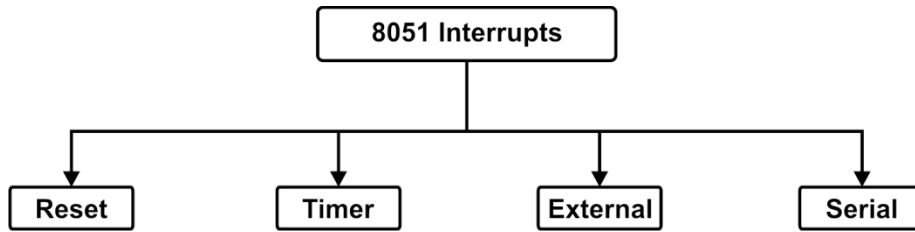
12.5 INTERRUPTS

Five interrupts are provided in 8051. Three of these are generated automatically by internal operation : Timer flag 0, Timer flag 1 and serial port interrupt (R1 or T1)

Two interrupts are triggered by external signals provided by circuitry that is connected to pins INT0 and INT1 (Port pins P3.2 and P3.3)

RESET interrupt - This is also known as Power on Reset (POR). When the RESET interrupt is received, the controller restarts executing code from 0000H location. This is an interrupt which is not available to or, better to say, need not be available to the programmer.

The programmer is able to alter control bits in the interrupt enable register (IE), the interrupt priority register (IP), and the timer control register (TCON). The program can block all or any combination of the interrupts from acting on the program by suitably setting and clearing bits in these registers.



12.5.1 IE - Interrupt Enable register

The Interrupt Enable SFR is used to enable and disable specific interrupts. The D0 bits of the SFR are used to enable/disable the specific interrupts, whereas the highest bit D7 is used to enable or disable ALL interrupts. Thus, if the high bit of IE is 0 all interrupts are disabled regardless of whether an individual interrupt is enabled by setting a lower bit.

D7	D6	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1	D0
EA	x	ET2	ES	ET1	EX1	ET0	EX0

EA – Global interrupt enable

x – not defined

ET2 – Timer 2 interrupt enable

ES – Serial port interrupt enable

ET1 – Timer 1 interrupt enable

EX1 – External interrupt 1 enable

ET0 – Timer 0 interrupt enable

EX0 – External interrupt 0 enable

12.5.2 IP - Interrupt Priority register

The Interrupt Priority SFR is used to specify the relative priority of each interrupt. On the 8051, an interrupt may either be of low (0) priority or high (1) priority. An interrupt may only interrupt interrupts of lower priority. For example, if we configure the 8051 so that all interrupts are of low priority except the serial interrupt, the serial interrupt will always be able to interrupt the system, even if another interrupt is currently executing. However, if a serial interrupt is executing no other interrupt will be able to interrupt the serial interrupt routine since the serial interrupt routine has the highest priority.

D7	D6	D5	D4	D3	D2	D1	D0
x	x	PT2	PS	PT1	PX1	PT0	PX0

x – not defined

PT2 – Priority for timer 2 interrupt

PS – Priority for serial port interrupt

PT1 – Priority for timer 1 interrupt

PX1 – Priority for external interrupt 1

PT0 – Priority for timer 0 interrupt

PX0 – Priority for external interrupt 0

12.5 SUMMARY

- The 8051 microcontroller has 2 timers/counters called T0 and T1. They are used to measure time and count external events. Besides, they can be used for generating clock pulses to be used in serial communication.
- The 8051 has a serial data communication circuit that uses register SBUF to hold the data. Register SCON controls data communication, Register PCON controls data rates, and pins RXD (P3.0) and TXD (P3.1) connect to serial network.
- Five interrupts are provided in 8051. Three of these are generated automatically by internal operation : Timer flag 0, Timer flag 1 and serial port interrupt (R1 or T1)
- Two interrupts are triggered by external signals provided by circuitry that is connected to pins INT0 and INT1 (Port pins P3.2 and P3.3)

12.6 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Explain the concept of SFR.
- Q.2 Explain the concept of timer T0 & T1.
- Q.3 Explain different modes of operation of timer.
- Q.4 Explain serial communication in 8051.



THE 8051 PORT PROGRAMMING

Unit Structure

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 I/O Ports and their Functions
- 13.3 I/O Programming
- 13.4 Addressing Modes
- 13.5 External Data Moves
- 13.6 Summary
- 13.7 Review Questions
- 13.8 Reference

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the I/O ports of the 8051 microcontroller.
- Do the I/O programming
- Understand addressing modes in 8051 programming
- Understand flag register

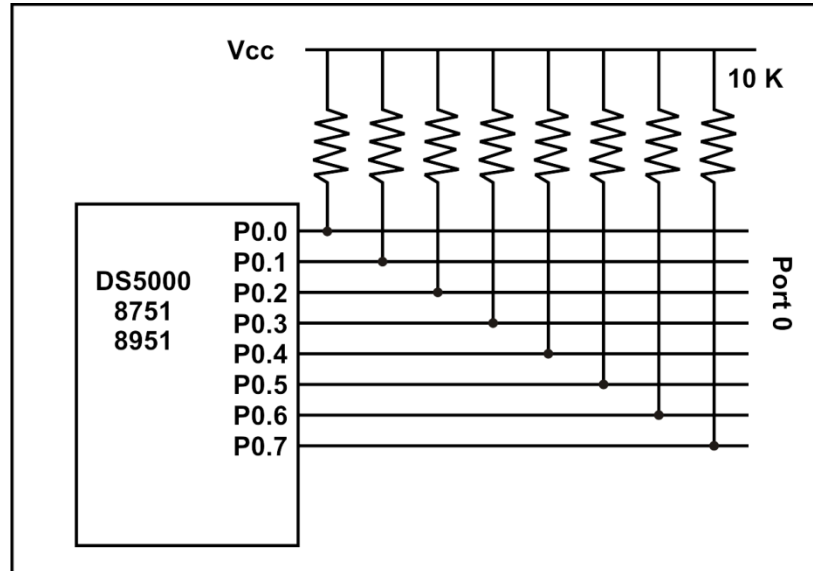
13.1 INTRODUCTION

A Computer typically spends more time moving data from one location to another than it spends on any other operation. Data is stored at a source address and moved to a destination address. The ways by which these addresses are specified are called the addressing modes. The 8051 mnemonics are written with the destination address named first, followed by the source address.

The 8051 microcontroller has four I/O ports. The four ports P0, P1, P2 and P3 each use 8 pins – making them 8-bit ports. All the ports upon RESET are configured as output, ready to be used as output port. To use any of these ports as an input port, it must be programmed, as we will explain throughout this section.

13.2 I/O PORT PINS AND THEIR FUNCTIONS :

13.2.1 Port 0



Port 0 occupies a total of 8 pins (Pins 32-39). It can be used for input or output. To use the pins of port 0 as both input and output ports, each pin must be connected externally to a 10K ohm pull-up resistor. This is due to the fact that P0 is an open drain is a term used for MOS chips in the same way that open collector is used to TTL chips. See figure 1. in this way we take advantage of port 0 for both input and output. With external pull up resistors connected upon reset, port 0 is configured as an output port. For example, the following code will continuously send out to port 0 the alternating values 55H and AAH.

```

MOV    A, # 55H
BACK : MOV    P0, A
      ACALL  DELAY
      CPL   A
      SJMP  BACK

```

13.2.1.1 Port 0 as input

With resistors connected to port 0, in order to make it an input, the port must be programmed by writing 1 to all the bits. In the following code, port 0 is configured first as an input port by writing 1s to it and then data is received from that port and sent to P1.

```

MOV    A, # FFH ; A = FF hex
MOV    P0, A    ; make P0 an input port
                ; by writing all 1s to it
BACK : MOV    A, P0 ; get data from P0
        MOV    P1, A ; send it to port 1
        SJMP   BACK ; keep doing it

```

13.2.1.2 Dual role of port 0

As shown in figure 1, port 0 is also designated as AD₀-AD₇, allowing it to be used for both address and data. When connecting an 8051 to an external memory, port 0 provides both address and data. The 8051 multiplexes address and data through port 0 to save pins. ALE indicates if P₀ has address or data. When ALE = 0, it provides data D₀-D₇, but when ALE = 1 it has address A₀-A₇. Therefore, ALE is used for demultiplexing address and data with the help of a 74LS373 latch.

13.2.2 Port 1

Port 1 occupies a total of 8 pins (pins 1 through 8). It can be used as input or output. In contrast to port 0, this port does not need any pull-up resistors since it already has pull-up resistors internally. Upon reset port 1 is configured as an output port. For example, the following code will continuously send out to port. For example, the following code will continuously send out to port 1 the alternating values 55H and AAH.

```

BACK : MOV    A, # 55H
        MOV    P1, A
        ACALL  DELAY
        CPL    A
        SJMP   BACK

```

13.2.2.1 Port 1 as input

To make port 1 an input port, it must be programmed as such by writing 1 to all its bits. In the following code, port 1 is configured first as an input port by writing 1s to it and then data is received from that port and saved in R7, R6 and R5.

```

MOV    A, # FFH ; A = FF hex
MOV    P1, A    ; make P1 an input port
                ; by writing all 1s to it
MOV    A, P1    ; get data from P1
MOV    P7, A    ; save it in reg. R7
ACALL  DELAY    ; Wait
MOV    A, P1    ; get another data from P1
MOV    R6, A    ; save it in reg. R6
ACALL  DELAY    ; Wait
MOV    A, P1    ; get another data from P1
MOV    R6, A    ; save it in reg. R5

```

13.2.3 Port 2

Port 1 occupies a total of 8 pins (pins 21 through 28). It can be used as input or output. Just like P1, port 2 does not need any pull-up resistors since it already has pull-up resistors internally. Upon reset port 2 is configured as an output port. For example, the following code will send out continuously port 2 the alternating values 55H and AAH. That is, all the bits of P2 toggle continuously.

```

                MOV    A, # 55H
BACK :         MOV    P2, A
                ACALL  DELAY
                CPL    A
                SJMP   BACK

```

Port 2 as input

To make port 1 an input port, it must be programmed as such by writing 1 to all its bits. In the following code, port 1 is configured first as an input port by writing 1s to it. Then data is received from that port and is sent to P1 continuously.

```

                MOV    A, # FFH ; A = FF hex
                MOV    P2, A    ; make P2 an input port
                                ; by writing all 1s to it
BACK :         MOV    A, P2    ; get data from P2
                MOV    P1, A    ; send it to port 1
                SJMP   BACK    ; keep doing it

```

Dual role of port 2

In 8051-based systems, port 2 must be used along with P0 to provide the 16 bit address for the external memory. As shown in figure 1, port 2 is also designated as A8-A15, indicating its dual function.

Since an 8051 is capable of accessing 64 Kbytes of external memory, it needs a path for the 16 bits of the address. While P0 provides the lower 8 bits via A₀-A₇, it is the job of P2 to provide bits A₈-A₁₅ of the address. In other words, when the 8051 is connected to external memory, P2 is used for the upper 8 bits of the 16 bit address, and it cannot be used for I/O.

We have three ports. P0, P1 and P2, for I/O operations. This should be enough for most micro controller applications.

13.2.4 Port 3

Port 3 occupies a total of 8 pins, pins 10 through 17. It can be used as input or output. P3 does not need any pull up resistors, the same as P1 and P2 did not. Although port 3 is configured as an output port upon reset, this is not the way it is most commonly used. Port 3 has the additional function of providing some

extremely important signals such as interrupts. Table 1 provides these alternate functions of P3. this information applies to both 8051 and 8031 chips.

P3 Bit	Function	Pin
P3.0	RxD	10
P3.1	TxD	11
P3.2	INT0	12
P3.3	INT1	13
P3.4	T0	14
P3.5	T1	15
P3.6	WR	16
P3.7	RD	17

P3.0 and P3.1 are used for the RxD and TxD serial communications signals. Bits P3.2 and P3.3 are set aside for external interrupts. Bits P3.4 and P3.5 are used for timers 0 and 1. Finally P3.6 and P3.7 are used to provide the \overline{WR} and \overline{RD} signals of external memories connected in 8051 based systems.

13.3 I/O PROGRAMMING; BIT MANIPULATION

In this section we further examine 8051 I/O instructions. We pay special attention to I/O bit manipulation since it is a powerful and widely used 8051 feature.

13.3.1 Different ways of Accessing the entire 8 bits

In the following code, as in many previous I/O examples, the entire 8 bits of port 1 are accessed.

```
BACK : MOV    A, # 55H
        MOV    P1, A
        ACALL DELAY
        MOV    A, # AAH
        MOV    P1, A
        ACALL DELAY
        SJMP  BACK
```

The above code toggles even, bit of P1 continuously. We have seen a variation of the above program before. Now we can rewrite the above code in a more efficient manner by accessing the port directly without going through the accumulator. This is shown next.

```

BACK :  MOV    P1, # 55H
        ACALL  DELAY
        MOV    P1, # 55H
        ACALL  DELAY
        SJMP   BACK

```

We can write another variation of the above code by using a technique called read-modify-write.

13.3.2 Read-modify-write Feature

The ports on the 8051 can be accessed by the read-modify-write technique. This feature saves many lines of code by combining in a single instruction all three actions of (1) reading the port (2) modifying it, and (3) writing to the port. The following code first places 01010101 (binary) into port 1. next, the instruction "XLR P1, # 0FFH" performs an XOR logic operation on P1 with 1111 1111 (binary) and then writes the result back into P1

```

AGAIN  MOV    P1, # 55H    ; P1 = 01010101
        XLR   P1, # 0FFH  ; EX_OR P1 with 1111 1111
        ACALL DELAY
        SJMP  BACK

```

Notice that the XOR of 55H and FFH gives AAH. Likewise, the XOR of AAH and FFH gives 55H.

13.3.3 Single-bit addressability of ports

There are times that we need to access only 1 or 2 bits of the port instead of the entire 8 bits. A powerful feature of 8051 I/O ports is their capability to access individual bits of the port without altering the rest of the bits in that port. For example, the following code toggles the bit P1.2 continuously.

```

Back  CPL    P1.2    ; complement P1.2 only
        ACALL DELAY
        SJMP  BACK

```

Another variation of the above program follows.

```

AGAIN :  SET B    P1.2    ; change only P1.2 = high
        ACALL  DELAY
        CPL     P1.2    ; change P1.2 = low
        ACALL  DELAY
        SJMP   BACK

```


P0	P1	P2	P3	Port Bit
P0.0	P1.0	P2.0	P3.0	D0
P0.1	P1.1	P2.1	P3.1	D1
P0.2	P1.2	P2.2	P3.2	D2
P0.3	P1.3	P2.3	P3.3	D3
P0.4	P1.4	P2.4	P3.4	D4
P0.5	P1.5	P2.5	P3.5	D5
P0.6	P1.6	P2.6	P3.6	D6
P0.7	P1.7	P2.7	P3.7	D7

Table 2 : Single-Bit Addressability of ports

Notice that P1.2 is the third bit of P1, since the first bit is P1.2, the second bit is P1.1, and so on. Table 2 shows the bits of 8051 I/O ports. See example 2 for an example of bit manipulation of I/O bits. Notice in example 1 that unused portions of ports 1 and 2 are undisturbed. This single bit addressability of I/O ports is one of most powerful features of the 8051 microcontroller.

Example 1

Write a program to perform the following.

- Keep monitoring the P1.2 bit until it becomes high.
- When P1.2 becomes high, write value 45H to port 0, and
- Send a high-to-low (H to L) pulse to P2.3

Solution :

```

SETB    P1.2      ; make P1.2 an input
MOV     A, # 45H  A = 45H
AGAIN : JNB     P1.2,    ; get out-when P1.2 = 1
        AGAIN
MOV     P0, A     ; issue A to P0
SETB   P2.3      ; make P2.3 high
CLR    P2.3      ; make P2.3 low for H-to-L

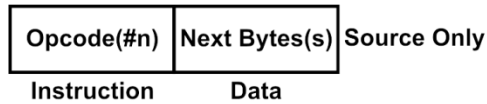
```

In this program, instruction “JNB P1.2, AGAIN” (JNB means jump if no bit) stays in the loop as long as P1.2 is low. When P1.2 becomes high, it gets out of the loop, writes the value 45H to port 0, and creates a H-to-L pulse by the sequence of instructions SET B and CLR.

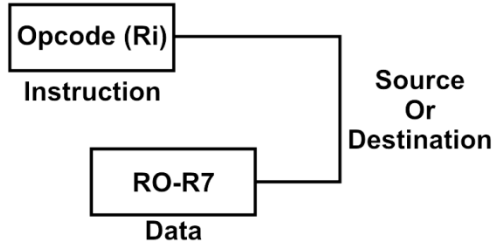
13.4 ADDRESSING MODES

The ways the data sources or destination address are specified in the mnemonic that moves that data determines the addressing mode. Figure 2 diagrams the four addressing modes immediate, register, direct and indirect.

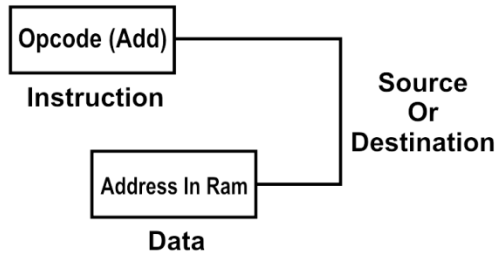
Addressing Modes



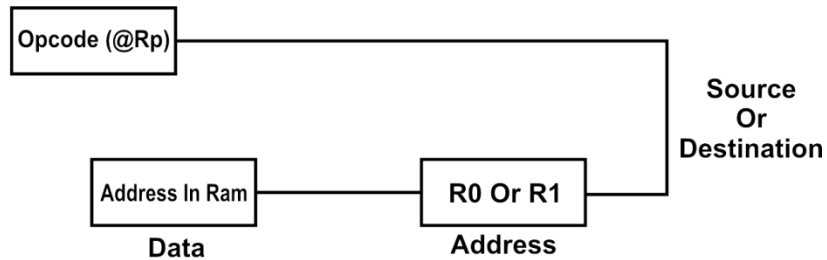
Immediate Addressing Mode



Register Addressing Mode



Direct Addressing Mode



Indirect Addressing Mode

13.4.1 Immediate Addressing Mode

The simplest way to get data to a destination is to make the source of the data part of the opcode. The data source is then immediately available as part of the instruction itself. When the 8051 executes an immediate data Move, the program counter is automatically incremented to point to the byte following the opcode byte in the program memory. Whatever data is found there is copied to the destination address.

The mnemonic for immediate data is the pound sign (#). Occasionally, in the rush to meet a deadline, we might forget to use the # for immediate data. The resulting opcode is often a legal command that is assembled with no objections by the assembler.

13.4.2 Register Addressing Mode

Certain register names may be used as part of the opcode mnemonic as sources or destinations of data. Registers A, DPTR, and R0 to R7 may be named as part of the opcode mnemonic. Other registers in the 8051 may be addressed using the direct addressing mode. Remember that the registers used in the opcode as R0 to R7 are the ones that are currently chosen by the blank-select bits, RS0 and RS1 in the PSW.

The following table shows all possible MOV opcodes using immediate and register addressing modes.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, #n	Copy the immediate data byte n to the A register
MOV A, Rr	Copy data from Rr to the A register
MOV Rr, A	Copy data from A to the Rr register
MOV Rr, #n	Copy the immediate data byte n to Rr register
MOV DPTR, #nn	Copy the immediate 16 bit number nn to the DPTR register

A data MOV does not alter the contents of the data source address. A copy of the data is made from the source and moved to the destination address the contents of the destination address are replaced by the source address contents the following table shows examples of MOV opcodes with immediate and register addressing modes.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, #0F1h	Move the immediate data byte F1h to the A register
MOV A, R0	Copy the data in register R0 to register A
MOV DPTR, #0ABCDh	Move the immediate data bytes ABCDh to the DPTR
MOV R5, a	Copy the data in register A to register R5
MOV R3, #1Ch	Move the immediate data byte 1Ch to register R3

13.4.3 Direct Addressing Mode

All 128 bytes of internal RAM and the SFRs may be addressed directly using the single-byte address assigned to each RAM location and each special function register.

Internal RAM uses addresses from 00h to 7Fh to address each byte. The SFR addresses exist from 80h to FFh at the following locations.

SFR	ADDRESS (HEX)
-----	---------------

A	0E0
B	0F0
DPL	82
DPH	83
IE	0A8
IP	0B8
P0	80
P1	90
P2	0A0
P3	0B0
PCON	87
PSW	0D0
SBUF	99
SCON	98
SP	81
TCON	88
TMOD	89
TH0	8C
TL0	8A
TH1	8D
TL1	8B

RAM address 00 to 1Fh is also the locations assigned to the four banks of eight working registers, R0 to R7. This assignment means that R2 of register bank 0 can be addressed in the register mode as R2 or in the direct mode as 02h. The direct addresses of the working registers are as follows :

BANK REGISTER		ADDRESS (HEX)	BANK REGISTER		ADDRESS (HEX)
0	R0	00	2	R0	10
0	R1	01	2	R1	11
0	R2	02	2	R2	12
0	R3	03	2	R3	13
0	R4	04	2	R4	14
0	R5	05	2	R5	15
0	R6	06	2	R6	16
0	R7	07	2	R7	17
1	R0	08	3	R0	18
1	R1	09	3	R1	19
1	R2	0A	3	R2	1A
1	R3	0B	3	R3	1B
1	R4	0C	3	R4	1C
1	R5	0D	3	R5	1D
1	R6	0E	3	R6	1E
1	R7	0F	3	R7	1F

Only one bank of working registers is active at any given time. The PSW special-function register holds the bank-select bits, RS0 and RS1, which determine which register bank is in use. When the 8051 is reset, RS0 and RS1 are set to 006 to select the working registers in bank 0, located from 00h to 07h in internal RAM. Reset also sets SP to 07h, and the stack will grow up as it is used. This growing stack will overwrite the register banks above bank 0 be sure to set the SP to a number above those of any working registers the program may use.

The programmer may choose any other bank by setting RS0 and RS1 as desired; this bank change is often done to “save” one bank and choose another when servicing an interrupt or using a subroutine. The programmer may elect to use the absolute numeric address number for an SFR or may use a symbol (name) for the SFR. For example, the following instructions both Move a constant number into port 1:

```
MOV 90h, #0A5h
MOV P1, #0A5h
```

The A51 assembler, supplied with this book, “looks up” the actual address of an SFR when the programmer uses an SFR symbol. We shall use both methods of specifying SFRS in this to emphasize the fact that SFRS are internal RAM addresses.

The Moves made possible using direct, immediate and register addressing modes are as follows :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, add	Copy data from direct address add to register A
MOV add, A	Copy data from register A to direct address add
MOV Rr, add	Copy data from direct address add to register Rr
MOV add, Rr	Copy data from register Rr to direct address add
MOV add, #n	Copy immediate data byte n to direct address add
MOV add 1, add 2	Copy data from direct address add2 to direct address add 1

The following table show example of MOV opcodes using direct, immediate, and registers addressing modes:

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, 80h	Copy data from the port 0 pins to register
MOV 80h, A	Copy data from register A to the port 0 latch
MOV 3Ah, #3Ah	Copy immediate data byte 3Ah to RAM location 3Ah
MOV R0, 12h	Copy data from RAM location 12h to register R0
MOV 8Ch, R7	Copy data from register R7 to timer 0 high byte
MOV 5Ch, A	Copy data from register A to RAM location 5Ch
MOV 0a8h, 77h	Copy data from RAM location 77h to IE register

13.4.4 Indirect Addressing Mode

For all the addressing modes covered to this point. The sources or destination of the data is an absolute number or a name. Inspection of the opcode reveals exactly what the address are of the destination and source. For example, the opcode MOV A, RT say that the A register will get a copy of whatever data is in register R7; MOV 33h, # 32h Moves the hex number 32 to hex RAM address 33.

The indirect addressing mode uses a register to hold the actual address that will finally be used in the data Move; the register itself is not the address, but rather the number in the register. Indirect addressing for MOV opcodes uses register R0 to R1; often called a data pointer, to hold the address of one of the data locations in RAM from address 00h to 7fh. The number that is in the pointing register (Rp) cannot be known unless the history of the register is known. The mnemonic symbol used for indirect addressing is the “act” sign, which is printed as @.

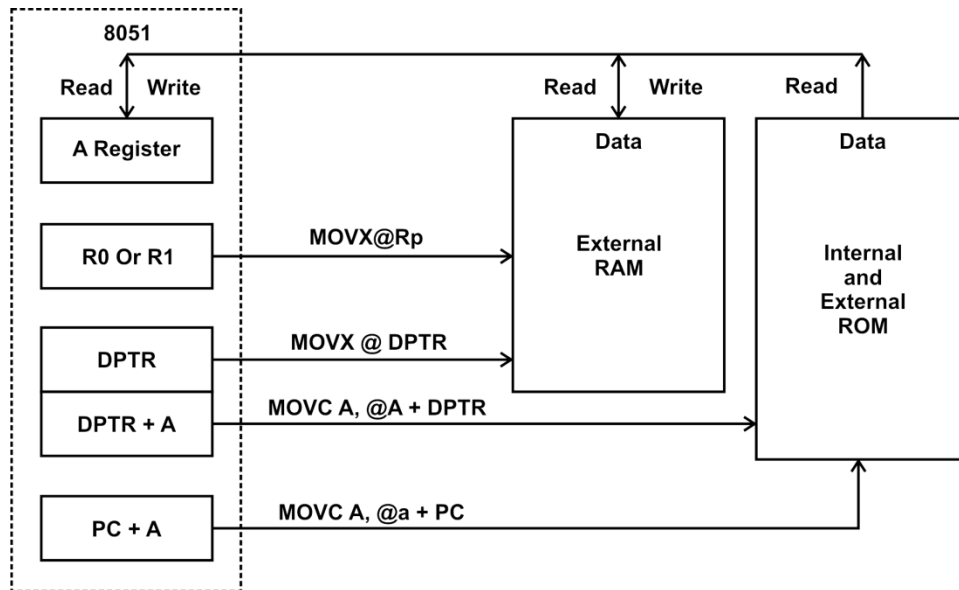
The Moves made possible using immediate, direct, register, and indirect modes are as follows :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV @Rp, #n	Copy the immediate byte n to the address in Rp
MOV @Rp, add	Copy the contents of add to the address in Rp
MOV @Rp, A	Copy the data in A to the address in Rp
MOV add, @ Rp	Copy the contents of the address in Rp to add
MOV add, @ Rp	Copy the contents of the address in Rp to A

The following list shows examples of MOVopcodes using immediate, register, and indirect modes :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, @R0	Copy the contents of the address in R0 to the A register
MOV @R1, #35h	Copy the number 35h to the address in R1
MOV add, @ R0	Copy the contents of the address in R0 to add
MOV @ R1, A	Copy the contents of A to the address in R1
MOV @R0, 80h	Copy the contents of the port 0 pins to the address in R0

13.5 EXTERNAL DATA MOVES



It is possible to expand RAM and ROM memory space by adding external memory chips to the 8051 microcontroller. The external memory can be as large as 64 k for each of the RAM and ROM memory areas. Opcodes that access this external memory always use indirect addressing to specify the external memory.

Figure 3 shows that register R0 R1, and the aptly named DPTR can be used to hold the address of the data byte in external RAM. R0 and R1 are limited to external RAM address ranges of 00h to 0FFh. While the DPTR register can address the maximum RAM space of 0000h to FFFFh.

An X is added to the MOV mnemonic to serve as a reminder that the data move external to 8051.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOVX A, @Rp	Copy the contents of the external address in Rp to A
MOVX A, @ DPTR	Copy the contents of the external address in DPTR to A
MOVX, @ Rp, A	Copy data from A to the external address in Rp
MOVX, @ DPTR, A	Copy data from A to the external address in DPTR

Code Memory Read Only Moves

There are times when access to a preprogrammed mass of data is needed, such as when using tables of predefined bytes. This data must be permanent to be of repeated use and is stored in the program ROM. Access to this data is made possible by using indirect addressing and A register in conjunction with either the PC or DPTR, as shown in fig. In both cases, the number in register A is added to the pointing register to form the ROM address so formed and placed in the A register. The original data in A lost, and the addressed data takes its place.

The letter C is added to the MOV mnemonic to highlight the use of opcodes for moving data from the source address in the code ROM to the A register in the 8051

Mnemonic	Operation
MOVC A,@A + DPTR	Copy the code byte, found at the ROM address formed by adding A and the DPTR to A
MOVC A, @ A + PC	Copy the code byte, found at the ROM address formed by adding A and the PC to A

The DPTR and PC are not changed; the A register contains the ROM byte found at the address formed. The following table shows example of code ROM moves using register and indirect addressing modes :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV DPTR, #1234h	Copy the immediate number 1234h to the DPTR
MOV A, #56h	Copy the immediate number 56h to A
MOVC A, @A + DPTR	Copy the contents of address 128h to A
MOVC A, @A + PC	Copies the contents of address 4059h to A if the PC contained 4000h and A contained 58h when the opcode is executed.

13.6 SUMMARY

- To use the pins of port 0 as both input and output ports, each pin must be connected externally to a 10K ohm pull-up resistor.
- ALE indicates if P0 has address or data. When ALE = 0, it provides data D0-D7, but when ALE = 1 it has address A0-A7.
- In contrast to port 0, port P1, P2 & P3 does not need any pull-up resistors since it already has pull-up resistors internally.
- When the 8051 is connected to external memory, P2 is used for the upper 8 bits of the 16 bit address, and it cannot be used for I/O.
- P3.0 and P3.1 are used for the RxD and TxD serial communications signals. Bits P3.2 and P3.3 are set aside for external interrupts. Bits P3.4 and P3.5 are used for timers 0 and 1. finally P3.6 and P3.7 are used to provide the \overline{WR} and \overline{RD} signals of external memories connected in 8051 based systems.
- When the 8051 executes an immediate data Move, the program counter is automatically incremented to point to the byte (S) following the opcode byte in the program memory.
- A data MOV does not alter the contents of the data source address.
- All 128 bytes of internal RAM and the SFRS may be addressed directly using the single-byte address assigned to each RAM location and each special function register.
- Only one bank of working registers is active at any given time. The PSW special-function register holds the bank-select bits, RS0 and RS1, which determine which register bank is in use.

- The mnemonic symbol used for indirect addressing is the “act” sign, which is printed as @.
- The 8051 has four arithmetic flags : the carry (c), Auxiliary carry (AC), over flow (OV), and parity (P).

13.7 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Explain Port 0 in detail.
- Q.2 Explain the Dual role of Port 0.
- Q.3 Explain Port 1 in detail.
- Q.4 Explain Port 2 in detail.
- Q.5 Explain Port 3 in detail.
- Q.6 Explain different addressing modes in 8051 with two examples of each.
- Q.7 Explain immediate addressing mode in 8051 in detail.
- Q.8 Explain direct addressing mode in 8051 in detail.
- Q.7 Explain indirect addressing mode in 8051 in detail.

13.8 REFERENCE

- The 8051 Microcontroller by Kenneth J. Ayala, Publisher: Thomson Delmar Learning
- The 8051 Microcontroller And Embedded Systems Using Assembly And C, 2/E By Mazidi and Mazidi, Publisher: Pearson Education India



ARITHMETIC & LOGICAL OPERATION

Unit Structure

- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Flags
- 14.3 Incrementing and Decrementing
- 14.4 Addition
- 14.5 Subtraction
- 14.6 Multiplication and Division
- 14.7 Decimal Arithmetic
- 14.8 Logical Instructions
- 14.9 Internal RAM Bit Addresses
- 14.10 SFR Bit Addresses
- 14.11 Bit – Level Boolean Operations
- 14.12 Rotate and Swap Operations
- 14.13 Summary
- 14.14 Review Question
- 14.15 Reference

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Understand addition, subtraction, multiplication and division
- Understand the logic of programs
- Do the assembly language programming
- Understand bit level Boolean operation

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Applications of microcontrollers often involve performing mathematical calculations on the data in order to alter program flow and modify program actions. The domain of the microcontroller is that of controlling events as they change. A sufficient number of mathematical opcodes must be provided, so that calculations associated with the control of simple processes can be done.

14.2 FLAGS

The 8051 has several dedicated latches, or flags, that store result of arithmetic operations. Opcodes are available to alter program flow based on the state of the flags. Not all instructions change the flags but many a programming error has been made by a forgetful programmer who overlooked an instruction that does change a flag. The 8051 has four arithmetic flags : the carry (c), Auxiliary carry (AC), over flow (OV), and parity (P).

14.2.1 Instructions Affecting Flags

The C, AC, and OV flags are arithmetic flags, they are set to 1 or cleared to 0 automatically, depending on the outcomes of the following instructions. The following instruction set includes all instructions that modify the flags and is not confined to arithmetic instructions.

INSTRUCTION MNEMONIC	FLAGS AFFECTED		
ADD	C	AC	OV
ADDC	C	AC	OV
ANL C, direct	C		
CJNE	C		
CLR C	C = 0		
CPL C	C = \bar{C}		
DA A	C		
DIV	C = 0		OV
MOV C, direct	C		
MUL	C = 0		OV
ORL C, direct	C		
RLC	C		
RRC	C		
SETB C	C = 1		
SUBB	C	AC	OV

However, that the flags are all stored in the PSW. Any instruction that can modify a bit or a byte in that register (MOV, SET B, XCHetc) changes the flags. A flag may be used for more than one type of result. For example, the C flag indicates a carry out of the lower byte position and indicates a borrow during subtraction. The instruction that last affects a flag determines the use of that flags. The parity flag is affected by every instruction executed. The P flag

will be set to a 1 if the number of 1's in the 'A' register is odd and will be set to 0 if the number of 1's is even. All 0's in 'A' yield a 1's count of 0, which is considered to be even. Parity check is an elementary error-checking method and is particularly valuable when checking data received via the serial port.

14.3 INCREMENTING AND DECREMENTING

The simplest arithmetic operations involve adding or subtracting a binary 1 and a number. These simple operations become very powerful when coupled with the ability to repeat the operations that is to INCrement or DECReament – be INCRemented or DECRemented. No math flags (C, AC, OV) are affected. The following table lists the increment and decrement mnemonics.

Mnemonic	Operation
INC A	Add a one to the A register
INC Rr	Add a one to register Rr
INC add	Add a one to the direct address
INC@ Rp	Add a one to the contents of the address in Rp
INC DPTR	Add a one to the 16-bit DPTR
DEC A	Subtract a one from register A
DEC Rr	Subtract a one from register Rr
DEC add	Subtract a one from the contents of the direct address
DEC @ Rp	Subtract a one from the contents of the address in register Rp

Note that increment and decrement instructions that operate on a port direct address alter the latch for that port. The following table shows examples of increment and decrement arithmetic operations.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, # 3h	A = 3Ah
DEC A	A = 39 h
MOV R0, #15h	R0 = 15h
MOV 15h, # 12h	Internal RAM address 15h = 12h
INC @ R0	Internal RAM address 15h = 13h
DEC 15h	Internal RAM address 15h = 12h
INC R0	R0 = 16h
MOV 16h, A	Internal RAM address 16h = 39h

INC @ R0	Internal RAM address 16h = 3Ah
MOV DPTR, # 12FFh	DPTR = 12FFh
INC DPTR	DPTR = 1300h
DEC 83h	DPTR = 1200h (SFR 83h is the DPH byte)

14.4 ADDITION

All addition is done with the A register on the destination of the result. All addressing modes may be used for the source. An immediate number, a register, a direct address, and an indirect address some instructions include the carry flag as an additional source of a single bit that is included in the operation at the least significant bit position.

The following table lists the addition mnemonics.

Mnemonic	Operation
ADD A, #n	Add A and the immediate number n; put the sum in A
ADD A, Rr	Add A and register Rr; put the sum in A
ADD A, add	Add A and the address contents; put the sum in A
ADD A, @Rp	Add A and the contents of the address in Rp; put the sum in A

Note that the C flag is set to 1 if there is a carry out of bit position 7; it is cleared to 0 otherwise. The AC flag is set to 1 if there is a carry out of bit position 3; it is cleared otherwise. The OV flag is set to 1 if there is a carry out of bit position 7, but not bit position 6 or if there is a carry out of bit position 6 but not position 7, which may be expressed as the logical operation.

$OV=C7 \text{ XOR } C6$

14.4.1 Unsigned and Signed Addition

The programmer may decide that the numbers used in the program are to be unsigned numbers - that is numbers that are 8 bit positive binary numbers ranging from 00h to FFh. Alternatively, the programmer may need to use both positive and negative signed numbers.

Signed numbers use bit 7 as a sign bit in the most significant byte (MSB). Bits 0 to 6 of the MSB, and any other bytes, express the magnitude of the number. Signed numbers use a 1 in bit position 7 of the MSB as a negative sign and a 0 as a positive sign. Further, all negative numbers are not in true form, but are in two's complement form.

In signed form, a single byte number may range in size from 10000000b, which is – 128d, to 0111 1111 b, which is +127d. the number 0000 0000 b is 000d and has a positive sign. So there are 128d negative numbers and 128 d positive numbers. The C and OV flags have been included in the 8051 to enable the programmer to use either numbering scheme.

Adding or subtracting unsigned numbers may generate a carry flag when the sum exceeds FFh or a Borrow flag when the minuend is less than the subtrahend. The OV flag is not used for unsigned addition and subtraction. Adding or subtracting signed numbers can lead to carries and borrows in a similar manner, and to overflow conditions as a result of the actions of the sign bits.

14.4.2 Unsigned Addition

Unsigned numbers make use of the carry flag to detect when the result of an ADD operation is a number larger than FFh. If the carry is set to 1 after an ADD, then the carry can be added to a higher order byte so that the sum is not lost. For instance.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 95d \quad = \quad 01011111b \quad \quad \quad = 5Fh \\
 189d \quad = \quad 10111101b \quad \quad \quad = BDh \\
 \hline
 284d \quad = \quad 1) 00011100b \quad = 284d \quad 1) 1Ch
 \end{array}$$

Where indicates the state of the C flag. The C flag is set to 1 to account for the carry out from the sum. The program could add the carry flag to another byte that forms the second byte of a larger number.

14.4.3 Signed Addition

Signed numbers may be added two ways : Addition of like signed numbers and addition of unlike signed numbers if unlike signed numbers are added then, it is not possible for the result to be larger than – 128 d or +127 d, and the sign of the result will always be correct. For example :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 -001d \quad = \quad 11111111b \quad \quad \quad = FFh \\
 +027d \quad = \quad 00011011b \quad \quad \quad = 1Bh \\
 \hline
 +026d \quad = \quad 1) 00011010b \quad = +026d \quad 1) 1Ah
 \end{array}$$

Here, there is a carry from bit 7 so the carry flag is 1. There is also a carry from bit 6, and the OV flag is 0. For this condition, no action need be taken by the program to correct the sum. If positive numbers are added, there is the possibility that the sum will exceed +127d, as demonstrated in the following example:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 +100 d \quad = \quad 01100100b \quad \quad \quad = 64h \\
 + 050 d \quad = \quad 00110010b \quad \quad \quad = 32h \\
 \hline
 + 150 d \quad = \quad 0) 10010110b \quad = -106d \quad 0) 96h
 \end{array}$$

Ignoring the sign of the result, the magnitude is seen to be +22d, which would be correct if we had some way of accounting for the +128d, which, unfortunately, is larger than a single byte can hold. There is no carry from bit 7 and the carry flag is 0; there is a carry from bit 6 so the OV flag is 1.

An example of adding two positive numbers that do not exceed the positive limit is this :

$$\begin{array}{r r r r r}
 + 045 \text{ d} & = & 00101101\text{b} & & = 2 \text{ Dh} \\
 + 075 \text{ d} & = & 01001011\text{b} & & = 4 \text{ Bh} \\
 \hline
 + 120 \text{ d} & = & 0) 01111000\text{b} & = 120 \text{ d} & 0) 78 \text{ h}
 \end{array}$$

Note that there are no carries from bits 6 or 7 of the sum; the carry and OV flags are both 0. the result of adding two negative two negative numbers together for a sum that does not exceed the negative limit is shown in this example :

$$\begin{array}{r r r r r}
 - 030 \text{ d} & = & 11100010\text{b} & & = \text{E2h} \\
 - 050 \text{ d} & = & 11001110\text{b} & & = \text{CEh} \\
 \hline
 - 080 \text{ d} & = & 1) 10110000\text{b} & = -080\text{d} & 1) \text{B0h}
 \end{array}$$

Here, there is a carry from bit 7 and the carry flag is 1, there is a carry from bit 6 and the OC flag is 0. These are the same flags as the case for adding unlike numbers; no corrections are needed for the sum. When adding two negative numbers whose sum does exceed – 128 d, we have :

$$\begin{array}{r r r r r}
 - 070 \text{ d} & = & 10111010\text{b} & & = \text{BAh} \\
 - 070 \text{ d} & = & 10111010\text{b} & & = \text{BAh} \\
 \hline
 - 140 \text{ d} & = & 1) 01110100\text{b} & = +116\text{d} & 1) 74\text{h}
 \end{array}$$

Or, the magnitude can be interpreted as -12d, which is the remainder after a carry out of -128d. in this example, there is a carry from bit position 7, and no carry from bit position 6, so the carry and the OV flags are set to 1. The magnitude of the sum is correct; the sign bit must be changed to A 1.

From these examples the programming actions needed for the C and OV flags are as follows :

FLAGS		ACTION
C	OV	
0	0	None
0	1	Complement the sign
1	0	None
1	1	Complement the sign

A general rule is that if the OV flag is set and then complement the sign. The OV flag also signals that the sum exceeds the largest positive or negative numbers thought to be needed in the program.

14.4.4 Multiple – Byte Signed Arithmetic

The nature of multiple – byte arithmetic for signed and unsigned numbers is distinctly different from single – byte arithmetic. Using more than one byte in unsigned arithmetic means that carries or borrows are propagated from low-order to high order bytes by the simple technique of adding the carry to the next highest byte for addition and subtracting the borrow from the next highest byte for subtraction.

Signed numbers appear to behave like unsigned numbers until the last byte is reached. For a signed numbers the seventh bit of the highest byte is the sign; if the sign is negative, then the entire number is in two's complement form.

For example, using a 2-byte signed number we have the following examples :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 + 32767 \text{ d} = 01111111 \quad 11111111 \text{ b} = 7FFF\text{h} \\
 + 00000 \text{ d} = 00000000 \quad 00000000\text{b} = 0000 \text{ h} \\
 - 00001 \text{ d} = 11111111 \quad 11111111 \text{ b} = FFFF\text{h} \\
 \hline
 - 32768 \text{ d} = 10000000 \quad 00000000 \text{ b} = 80000 \text{ h}
 \end{array}$$

Note that the lowest byte of the numbers 00000 d and - 32768 d are exactly alike, as are the lowest bytes for +32767 d and -00001 d. For multi-byte signed number arithmetic, then, the lower bytes are treated as unsigned numbers. All checks for overflow are done only for the highest order byte that contains the sign. An overflow at the highest order byte is not usually recoverable. The programmer has made a mistake and probably has made no provisions for a number larger than planned. Some error acknowledgement procedure, or user notification, should be included in the program if this type of mistake is a possibility.

The preceding examples show the need to add the carry flag to higher order bytes in signed and unsigned addition operations. Opcodes that accomplish this task are similar to the ADD mnemonics. A C is appended to show that the carry bit is added to the sum in bit position 0.

The following table lists the add with carry mnemonics :

Mnemonic	Operation
ADDC A, #n	Add the contents of A, the immediate number n and C flag; put the sum in A
ADDC A, add	Add the contents of A, the direct address contents, and the C flag; put the sum in A
ADDC A, Rr	Add the contents of A, register Rr, and the C flag; put the sum in A
ADDC A, @Rp	Add the contents of A, the contents of the indirect address in Rp, and the C flag; put the sum in A

Note that the AC and OV flags behave exactly as they do for the ADD commands. The following table shows examples of ADD and ADC multiple byte signed arithmetic operations.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, # 1Ch	A = 1 Ch
MOV R5, # 0A 1h	R5 = A 1h
ADD A, R5	A = BDh; C = 0, OV = 0
ADD A, R5	A = 5Eh; C = 1, OV = 1
ADD A, # 10h	A = 6Fh; C = 0, OV = 0
ADD A, # 10h	A = 7Fh; C = 0, OV = 0

14.5 SUBTRACTION

Subtraction can be done by taking the two's complement of the number to be subtracted, the subtrahend, and adding it to another number, the minuend. The 8051, however, has commands to perform direct subtraction of two signed or unsigned numbers. Register A is the destination address for subtraction. All four addressing modes may be used for source addresses. The commands treat the carry flag as a borrow and always subtract the carry flat as part of the operation.

The following table lists the subtract mnemonics :

Mnemonic	Operation
SUBB A, #n	Subtract immediate number n and the C flag from A; put the result in A
SUBB A, add	Subtract the contents of add and the C flag from A; put the result in A
SUBB A, Rr	Subtract Rr and the C flag from A; put the result in A
SUBB A, @ Rp	Subtract the contents of the address In Rp and the C flag from A; put the result in A

Note that the C flag is set if a borrow is needed into bit 7 and reset otherwise. The AC flag is set if a borrow is needed into bit 3 and reset otherwise. The OV flag is set if there is a borrow into bit 7 and not bit 6 or if there is a borrow into bit 6 and bit 7. As in the case for addition, the OV flag is the XOR of the borrows into bit positions 7 and 6.

14.5.1 Unsigned and Signed Subtraction

Again, depending on what is needed, the programmer may choose to use bytes as signed or unsigned numbers. The carry flag is now thought of as a Borrow flag to account for situations when a larger number is subtracted from a smaller number. The OV flag indicates results that must be adjusted whenever two numbers of unlike signs one subtracted and the result exceeds the planned signed magnitudes.

14.5.2 Unsigned Subtraction

Because the C flag is always subtracted from A along with the source byte, it must be set to 0 if the programmer does not want the flag included in the subtraction. If a multi – byte subtraction is done the C flag is cleared for the first byte and then included in subsequent higher byte operations.

The result will be in true form, with no borrow if the source number is smaller than A, or in two's complement form, with a borrow if the source is larger than A. these are not signed number as all 8 bits are used for the magnitude. The range of numbers is from positive 255 d (c = 0, A = FFh) to negative 255 d (C = 1, A = 01h).

The following example demonstrates subtraction of a larger number from a smaller number.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{SUB B } 015 \text{ d} = 0000 \text{ 1111 b} = 0\text{Fh} \\
 \text{SUB B } 100 \text{ d} = 01100 \text{ 100 b} = 64 \text{ h} \\
 \hline
 - 085 \text{ d} \quad 1) \text{ 10101011 b} = 171 \text{ h} = 1) \text{ ABh}
 \end{array}$$

The C flag is set to 1, and the OV flag is set to 0. The two's complement of the result is 085 d. The reverse of the example yields the following result :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} 100 \text{ d} \phantom{01100100 \text{ b}} \phantom{64 \text{ h0Fh}} \\
 \text{SUB B} 115 \text{ d} \phantom{00000000 \text{ b}} \\
 \hline
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} - 085 \text{ d} \phantom{0) 01010101 \text{ b}} \phantom{085 \text{ d}}
 \end{array}$$

The C flag is set to 0, and the OV flag is set 0. the magnitude of the result is in true form

14.5.3 Signed Subtraction

As is the case for addition two combinations of unsigned numbers are possible when subtracting: subtracting numbers of like and unlike signs. When number of like sign are subtracted, it is impossible for the result to exceed positive or negative magnitude limits of + 127 d or – 128 d, so the magnitude and sign of the result do not need to be adjusted, as shown in the following example :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} 100 \text{ d} \phantom{01100100\text{b}} \phantom{\text{(carry flag = 0 = 64 h}} \\
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} 126 \text{ d} \phantom{01111110\text{b}} \phantom{\text{before SUB B)}} \\
 \hline
 \text{SUB B} - 026 \text{ d} \phantom{1) 11100110\text{b}} \phantom{085 \text{ d}}
 \end{array}$$

There is a borrow into bit positions 7 and 6; the carry flag is set to 1, and the OV flag is cleaned. The following example demonstrates using two negative numbers.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} - 61 \text{ d} \phantom{11000011 \text{ b}} \phantom{\text{(carry flag = 0 = C3 h}} \\
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} - 116 \text{ d} \phantom{10001100\text{b}} \phantom{\text{before SUB B)}} \\
 \hline
 \text{SUB B} + 055 \text{ d} \phantom{0) 00110111 \text{ b}} \phantom{055 \text{ d}}
 \end{array}$$

There are no borrows into bit positions 6 or 7, so the OV and carry flags are cleared to 0. An overflow is possible when subtracting numbers of opposite sign because the situation becomes one of adding numbers of like signs, as can be demonstrated in the following example :

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} - 099 \text{ d} \phantom{10011101 \text{ b}} \phantom{\text{(carry flag = 0 = 9 Dh}} \\
 \phantom{\text{SUB B}} + 100 \text{ d} \phantom{01100100 \text{ b}} \phantom{\text{before SUB B)}} \\
 \hline
 \text{SUB B} - 199 \text{ d} \phantom{0) 00111001 \text{ b}} \phantom{+ 057 \text{ d}}
 \end{array}$$

Here, there is a borrow into bit position 6 but not into bit position 7; the OV flag is set to 1, and the carry flag is cleared to 0. Because the OV flag is set to 1, the result must be adjusted. In this

case, the magnitude can be interpreted as the two's complement of 71 d, the remainder after a carry out of 128 d from 199 d. The magnitude is correct, and the sign needs to be corrected to a 1.

The following example shows a positive overflow.

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 + 087 \text{ d} & = & 01010111 \text{ b} \quad (\text{carry flag} = 0 = 575 \text{ h} \\
 & & \text{before SUB B}) \\
 \text{SUB B } - 052 \text{ d} & = & 11001100 \text{ b} \quad = \text{CCh} \\
 \hline
 + 139 \text{ d} & = & 1) 10001011 \text{ b} = - 117 \text{ d} \quad 1) 8 \text{ Bh}
 \end{array}$$

Here, there is a borrow into bit position 6 or 7; the OV flag and the carry flag are both set to 1. Again the answer must be adjusted because the OV flag is set to 1. The magnitude can be interpreted as a +011d, the remainder from a carry out of 128 d. the sign must be changed to a binary 0 and the OV condition dealt with.

The general rule is that if the OV flag is set to 1, then complement the sign bit. The OV flag also signals that the result is greater than -128d or $+127\text{d}$. again, it must be emphasized, when an overflow occurs in a program, an errors has been made in the estimation of the largest number needed to successfully operate the program. Theoretically the program could resize every number used, but this extreme procedure could tend to hinder the performance of the microcontroller.

Note that for all the examples in the section, it is assumed that the carry flag = 0 before the SUB B. The carry flat must be 0 before any SUB B operation that depends on C = 0 is done.

The following table lists examples of SUB B multiple – byte signed arithmetic operations.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV 0D0H,# 00h	Carry flag = 0
MOV S, # 3Ah	A = 3Ah
MOV 45h # 13h	Address 45h = 13h
SUBB A, 45h	A = 27h; C = 0, OV = 0
SUBB A, 45h	A = 14h; C = 0, OV = 0
SUBB A, # 80h	A = 94h; C = 1, OV = 1
SUBB A, # 22h	A = 71h; C = 0, OV = 0
SUBB A, # 0FFh	A = 72h; C = 1, OV = 0

14.6 MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION

The 8051 has the capability to perform 8 bit integer multiplication and division using the A and B registers. Register B is used solely for these operations and has no other use except as a location in the SFR space of RAM that could be used to hold data. The A register holds 1 byte of data before a multiply or divide operation, and 1 of the result bytes after a multiply or divide operation.

Multiplication and division treat the numbers in registers A and B as unsigned. The programmer must devise ways to handle signed numbers.

14.6.1 Multiplication

Multiplication operations use registers A and B as both source and destination addresses for the operation. The unsigned number in register A is multiplied by the unsigned number B, as indicated in the following table.

Mnemonic	Operation
MUL AB	Multiply A by B; put the low-order byte of the product in A, put the high-order byte in B

The OV flag will be set if $AXB > FFh$. Setting the OV flag does not mean that an error has occurred. Rather, it signals that the number is larger than 8 bits, and the programmer needs to inspect register B for the high-order byte of the multiplication operation. The carry flag is always cleared to 0. The largest possible product is $F E01 h$ when both A and B contain FFh . Register A contains $01h$ and register B contains FEh after multiplication of FFh by FFh . The OV flag is set to 1 to signal that register B contains the high-order byte of the product, the carry flag is 0.

The following list gives examples of MUL multiple-byte arithmetic operations :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, # 7Bh	A = 7Bh
MOV 0F0h, # 0Ah	A = 02h
MUL AB	A = 00h and B = F6h; OV Flag = 0
MOV A, #0FEh	A = FEh
MUL AB	A = 14h and B = F4h; OV = Flag = 1

14.6.2 Division

Division operations use registers A and B as both source and destination addresses for the operation. The unsigned number in register A is divided by the unsigned number in register B, as indicated in the following table :

Mnemonic	Operation
DIV AB	Divide A by B; put the integer part of quotient in register A and the integer part of the remainder in B

The OV flag is cleared to 0 unless B holds ooh before the DIV. Then the OV flag is set to 1 to show division by 0. the contents of A and B, when division by 0 is attempted, are undefined. The carry flag is always reset.

Division always results in integer quotients and remainders, as shown in the following example :

$$\frac{A1=213d}{B1=017d} = 12 \text{ quotient and } 9 \text{ remainder} \quad [213d = 12 \times 17 + 9]$$

when done in hex :

$$\frac{A1=0D5h}{B1=011h} = C \text{ quotient and } 9 \text{ remainder}$$

The following table lists examples of DIV multiple – byte arithmetic operations :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A,# 0FFh	A = FFh (255d)
MOV 0F0h, # 2Ch	B = 2C (44d)
DIV AB	A = 05h and B = 23h [255d = (5 × 44) + 35]
DIV AB	A = 00h and B = 05h [05d = (0 × 35) + 5]
DIV AB	A = 00h and B = 00h [00d = (0 × 5) + 0]
DIV AB	A = ?? and B = ??; OV flag is set to one

14.7 DECIMAL ARITHMETIC

Most 8051 applications involve adding intelligence to machines where the hexadecimal numbering system works naturally. There are instances, however, when the application involves interacting with humans, who insist on using the decimal number system. In such cases, it may be more convenient for the programmer to use the decimal number system to represent all numbers in the program.

Four bits are required to represent the decimal numbers from 0 to 9 (0000 to 1001) and the numbers are often called binary coded decimal (BCD) numbers. Two of these BCD numbers can then be packed into a single byte of data.

The 8051 does all arithmetic operations in pure binary. When BCD numbers are being used the result will often be a non-BCD number, as shown in the following example :

49 BCD	=	01001001 b		= 49h
+ 38 BCD	=	00111000 b		= 38 h
87 BD	=	10000001 b	= 81 BCD	= 81 h

Note that to adjust the answer, an 06d needs to be added to the result. The opcode that adjusts the result of BCD addition is the decimal adjust A for addition (DA A) command, as shown in the following table :

Mnemonic	Operation
DA A	Adjust the sum of two packed BCD numbers found in A register; leave the adjusted number in A.

The C flag is set to 1 if the adjusted number exceeds 99 BCD and set to 0 otherwise. The DA A instruction makes use of the AC flag and the binary sums of the individual binary nibbles to adjust the answer to BCD. The AC flag has no other use to the programmer and no instructions – other than a MOV or a direct bit operation to the PSW – affect the AC flag.

It is important to remember that the DA A instruction assumes the added numbers were in BCD before the addition was done. Adding hexadecimal numbers and then using DA A will not convert the sum to BCD. The DA A opcode only works when used with ADD or ADDC opcodes and does not give correct adjustments for SUB B, MUL, or DIV operations. The programmer might best consider the ADD or ADDC and DA A as a single instruction and use the pair automatically when doing BCD addition in the 8051.

The following table gives examples of BCD multiple byte arithmetic operations.

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, 42h	A = 42 BCD
ADD A, # 13h	A = 55h; C = 0
DA A	A = 55h; C = 0
ADD A, # 17h	A = 6Ch; C = 0
DA A	A = 72BCD; C = 0
ADDC A, # 34h	A = A6h; C = 0
DA A	A = 06BCD; C = 1
ADDC A, # 11h	A = 18 BCD; C = 0
DA A	A = 18 BCD; C = 0

14.8 LOGICAL INSTRUCTIONS

14.8.1 Byte – Level Logical Operations

The byte – level logical operations are all four addressing modes for the source of a data byte. The A register or a direct address in internal RAM is the destination of the logical operation result. Keep in mind that all such operations are done using each individual bit of the destination and source bytes. These operations, called byte level Boolean operations because the entire byte is affected, are listed in the following table :

Mnemonic	Operation
ANL A, # n	AND each bit of a with the same bit of immediate number n; put the results in A
ANL A, add	AND each bit of A with the same bit of the direct RAM address; put the results A
ANL A, Rr	AND each bit of A with the same bit of register Rr; put the results in A
ANL A, @Rp	AND each bit of A with the same bit of the contents of the RAM address contained in Rp; put the results in A
ANL add, A	AND each bit of A with the direct RAM address; put the results in in the direct RAM address.
ANL, add, # n	AND each bit of the RAM address with the same bit in the number n; put the result in the RAM address

ORL A, #n	OR each bit of A with the same bit of n; put the results in A
ORL A, add	OR each bit of A with the same bit of the direct RAM address; put the results in A
ORL A, Rr	OR each bit of A with the same bit of register Rr; put the results in A
ORL A, @Rp	Or each bit of A with the same bit of the contents of the RAM address contained in Rp; put the results in A
ORL add, A	OR each bit of A with the direct RAM address; put the results in the direct RAM address.
ORL add, #n	Or each bit of the RAM address with the same bit in the number n, put the result in the RAM address
XRL A, #n	XOR each bit of A with the same bit of n; put the results in A
XRL A, add	XOR each bit o A with the same bit of the direct RAM address; put the results in A
XRL A, Rr	XOR each bit of A with the same bit of register Rr, put the results in A
XRL A, @ Rp	XOR each bit of A with the same bit of the contents of the RAM address contained in Rp; put the results in A
XRL add, A	XOR each bit of A with the direct RAM address; put the results in the direct RAM address.
XRL add, #n	XOR each bit of the RAM address with the same bit in the number n; put the result in the RAM address
CLR A	Clear each bit of the A register to zero
CPL A	Complement each bit of A; every 1 becomes a 0, and each 0 becomes a 1

Note that no flags are affected by the byte – level logical operation unless the direct. Ram address is the PSW. Many of these byte – level operations use a direct address, which can include the port SFR addresses, as a destination. The normal sources of data from a port are the port pins; the normal destination for a port data is the port latch. When the destination of a logical operation is the direct address of a port, the latch register, not the pins, is used both as the source for the original data and then the destination for the altered byte of data. Any port operation that must first read the sourced data, logically operate on it, and then wrote it back to the source (now the destination) must use the latch. Logical

operations that use the port as a source, but not as a destination, use the pins of the port as the source of the data.

For example, the port 0 latch contains FFh, but the pins are all driving transistor bases and are close to ground level. The logical operation.

ANL P0, # 0Fh

Which is designed to turn the upper nibble transistor off, read FFh from the latch, ANDS it with 0Fh to produce 0FH as a result, and then write it back to the latch to turn these transistor off. Reading the pits produce the result Ooh, turning all transistors off, in error. But, the operations.

ANL A, P0

Produce A = 00h by using the port 0 pin data, which is 00h

The following table shows byte-level logical operation examples :

Mnemonic	Operation
MOV A, #0FFh	A = FFh
MOV R0, #77h	R0 = 77h
ANL A, R0	A = 77h
MOV 15h, A	15 h = 77 h
CPL A	A = 88 h
ORL 15 h, #88 h	15 h = FF h
XRL A, 15h	A = 77 h
XRL A, R0	A = 00 h
ANL A, 15 h	A = 00 h
ORL A, R0	A = 77 h
CLR A	A = 00h
XRL 15 h, A	15 h = FF h
XRL A, R0	A = 77 h

Note that instructions that can use the SFR port latches as destinations are ANL, ORL and XRL

14.8.2 Bit – Level Logical Operations

Certain internal RAM and SFR's can be addressed by their byte addresses or by the address of each bit within a byte. Bit addressing is very convenient when you wish to alter a single bit of byte, in a control register for instance, without having to wonder what you need to do avoid altering some other crucial bit of the same byte. The assembler can also equate bit addresses to labels that make the program more readable. For example, bit 4 of TCON can become TR0, a label for the timer 0 run bit.

The ability to operate on individual bits creates the need for an area of RAM that contains data addresses that hold a single bit. Internal RAM byte addresses 20h to 2Fh serve this need and are

both byte and bit addressable. The bit addresses are numbered from 00h to 7Fh to represent the 128 bit addresses (16 bytes x 8 bits) that exists from byte addresses 20h to 2Fh. Bit 0 of byte address 20h is bit address 00h, and bit 7 of byte address 2Fh is bit address 7Fh. You must know your bits from your bytes to take advantage of this RAM area.

14.9 INTERNAL RAM BIT ADDRESSES

The availability of individual bit addresses in internal RAM makes the use of the RAM very efficient when storing bit information. Whole bytes do not have to be used up to store one or two bits of data. The correspondence between byte and bit addresses is shown in the following table.

BYTE ADDRESS (HEX)	BIT ADDRESSES (HEX)
20	00-07
21	08-0F
22	10-17
23	18-1F
24	20-27
25	28-2F
26	30-37
27	38-3F
28	40-47
29	48-4F
2A	50-57
2B	58-5F
2C	60-67
2D	68-6F
2E	70-77
2F	78-7F

Interpolation of this table shows, for example, the address of bit 3 of internal RAM byte address 2Ch is 63h, the bit address of bit 5 of RAM byte address 28h

14.10 SFR BIT ADDRESSES

All SFR's may be addressed at the byte level by using the direct address assigned to it, but not all of the SFR's are addressable at the bit level. The SFR's that are also bit addressable form the bit address by using the five most significant bits that identify the bit position 0 (LSB) to 7 (MSB).

The bit- addressable SFR and the corresponding bit addresses are as follows :

SFR	DIRECT ADDRESS (HEX)	BIT ADDRESSES (HEX)
A	0E0	0E0-0E7
B	0F0	0F0-0F7
IE	0A8	0A8-0AF
IP	0B8	0B8-0BF
P0	80	80-87
P1	90	90-97
P2	0A0	0A0-0A7
P3	0B0	0B0-0B7
PSW	0D0	0D0-0D7
TCON	88	88-8F
SCON	98	98-9F

The patterns in this table show the direct addresses assigned to the SFR byte all have bits 0-3 equal to zero so that the address of the byte is also the address of the LSB. For example, bit 0E3h is bit 3 of the 'A' register. The carry flag which is bit 7 of the PSW, is bit addressable as 0D7h. The assembler can also "understand" more descriptive mnemonics, such as P0-5 for bit 5 of port 0, which is more formally addressed as 85 h. For example, to clear the A register to 00h, we write:

CLR A

Where as to clear bit 5 of the A register, the instruction is :

CLR ACC, 5

It is unfortunate that Intel choose to use the same mnemonics to clear both the A register and to clear an A register addressable bit. Moreover, the instruction CLR ACC and CLR AA, 0 accomplish the same thing: clearing bit 0 of the A register. The SET B mnemonics is much less ambiguous. The other byte and bit

mnemonic is CPL (complement) Figure 4 shows all the bit – addressable SFRs and the function of each addressable bit:

14.11 BIT – LEVEL BOOLEAN OPERATIONS

The bit – level Boolean logical opcodes operate on any addressable RAM or SFR bit. The carry flag in the PSW special – function register is the destination for most of the opcodes because the flag can be tested.

The following table lists the Boolean bit level operations :

Mnemonic	Operation
ANL C, b	AND C and the addressed bit; put the result in C
ANL C, /b	AND C and the complement of the addressed bit; put the result in C; the addressed bit is not altered
ORL C,b	OR C and the addressed bit; put the result in C
ORL C, /b	OR C and the complement of the addressed bit; put the result in C; the addressed bit is not altered
CPL C	Complement the C flag
CPL b	Complement the addressed bit
CLR C	Clear the C flag to zero
CLR b	Clear the addressed bit to zero
MOV C, b	Copy the addressed bit to the C flag
MOV b, C	Copy the C flag to the addressed bit
SETB C	Set the flag to one
SETB b	Set the addressed bit to one

Note that no flags, other than the C flag, are affected, unless the flag is an addressed bit. As is the case for byte-logical operations when addressing ports a destination a port bit used a destination for a logical operation is part of the SFR latch, not the pin. A port bit used as a source only is a pin, not the latch. The bit instructions that can use a SFR latch bit are : CLR CPL, MOV and SET B.

Bit-level logical operation examples are shown in the following tables :

Mnemonic	Operation
SETB 00h	Bit 0 of RAM byte 20h = 1
MOV C, 00h	C = 1
MOV 7Fh, C	Bit 7 of RAM byte 2Fh = 1
ANL C,/00h	C = 0; bit 0 of RAM byte 20h = 1
ORL C, 00h	C = 1
CPL 7Fh	Bit 7 of RAM byte 2Fh = 0
CLR C	C = 0
ORL C,/7Fh	C = 1; bit 7 of RAM byte 2Fh = 0

14.12 ROTATE AND SWAP OPERATIONS

The ability to rotate data is useful for inspecting bits of a byte without using individual bit opcodes. The A register can be rotated one bit position to the left for right with or without including the C flag in the rotation. If the C flag is not included, then the rotation involves the eight-bits of the A register. If the C flag is included, then nine bits are involved in the rotation. Including the C flag enables the programmer to construct rotate of as a rotate operations involving any number of bytes.

The SWAP instruction can be thought of as a rotation of nibbles in the A register. Figure 5 diagrams the rotate and swap operations which are given in the following table :

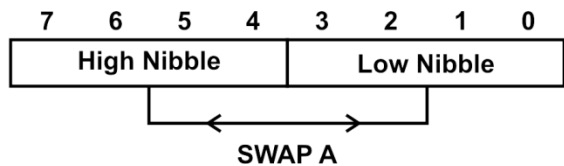
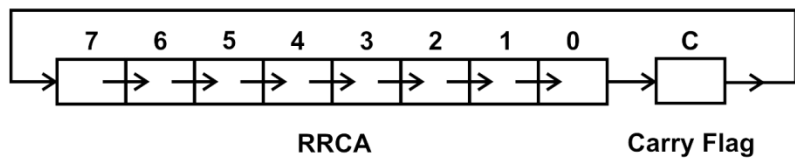
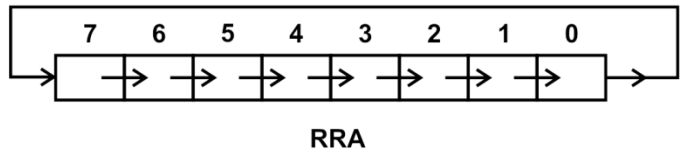
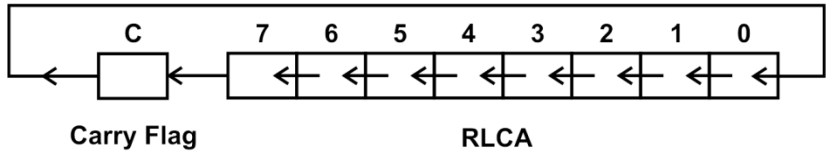
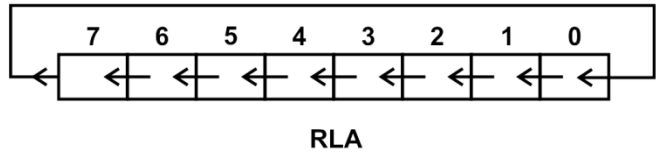
Mnemonic	Operation
RL A	Rotate the A register one bit position to the left; bit A0 to bit A1, A1 to A2, A2 to A3, A3 to A4, A4 to A5, A5 to A6, A6 to A7 and A7 to A0
RLC A	Rotate the A register and the carry flag, as a ninth bit, one bit position to the left; bit A0 to bit A1, A1 to A2, A2 to A3, A3 to A4, A4 to A5, A5 to A6, A6 to A7, A7 to the carry flag and the carry flag to A0
RR A	Rotate the A register one bit position to the right; bit A0 to bit A7, A6 to A5, A5 to A4, A4 to A3, A3 to A2, A2 to A1 and A1 to A0

RRC A	Rotate the A register and the carry flag, as a ninth bit, one bit position to the right; bit A0 to the carry flag, carry flag to A7, A7 to A6, A6 to A5, A5 to A4, A4 to A3, A3 to A2, A2 to A1, and A1 to A0
SWAP A	Interchange the nibbles of register A; put the high nibble in the low nibble position and the low nibble in the high nibble position

Note that no flags, other than the carry flag in RRC and RLC, are affected. If the carry is used as part of a rotate instruction, the state of the carry flag should be known before the rotate is done.

The following table shows examples of rotate and swap operations :

Register A Rotate Operation



14.13 SUMMARY

- Signed numbers use a 1 in bit position 7 of the MSB as a negative sign and a 0 as a positive sign.
- The OV flag also signals that the sum exceeds the largest positive or negative numbers thought to be needed in the program.
- Multiplication and division treat the numbers in registers A and B as unsigned.
- Certain internal RAM and SFR's can be addressed by their byte addresses or by the address of each bit within a byte.
- All SFR's may be addressed at the byte level by using the direct address assigned to it, but not all of the SFR's are addressable at the bit level.
- The A register can be rotated one bit position to the left for right with or without including the C flag in the rotation.

14.14 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Explain the different flags in 8051
- Q.2 Explain ADD instruction with suitable example.
- Q.3 Explain SUB instruction with suitable example.
- Q.4 Explain MUL instruction.
- Q.5 Explain DIV instruction.
- Q.6 Explain different Rotate instruction.

14.15 REFERENCE

- The 8051 Microcontroller by Kenneth J. Ayala, Publisher: Thomson Delmar Learning
- The 8051 Microcontroller And Embedded Systems Using Assembly And C, 2/E By Mazidi and Mazidi, Publisher: Pearson Education India



JUMP, CALL AND SUBROUTINES

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 The Jump and Call Program Range
- 15.3 Relative Range
- 15.4 Jumps
- 15.5 Calls and Subroutines
- 15.6 Interrupts and Returns
- 15.7 Summary
- 15.8 Review Questions
- 15.9 Reference

After studying this chapter you should be able to

- Describe the jump and call program range of the 8051 microcontroller.
- Study different types of jump instructions.
- Understand the call instructions and subroutines
- Study different types of return instructions.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

The jumps and calls discussed in this chapter are decision codes that alter the flow of the program by examining the results of the action codes and changing the contents of the program counter. A jump permanently changes the contents of the program counter if certain program conditions exist. A call temporarily changes the program counter to allow another part of the program to run. Jumps and calls may also be generically referred to as “branches”, which emphasizes that two divergent paths are made possible by this type of instruction.

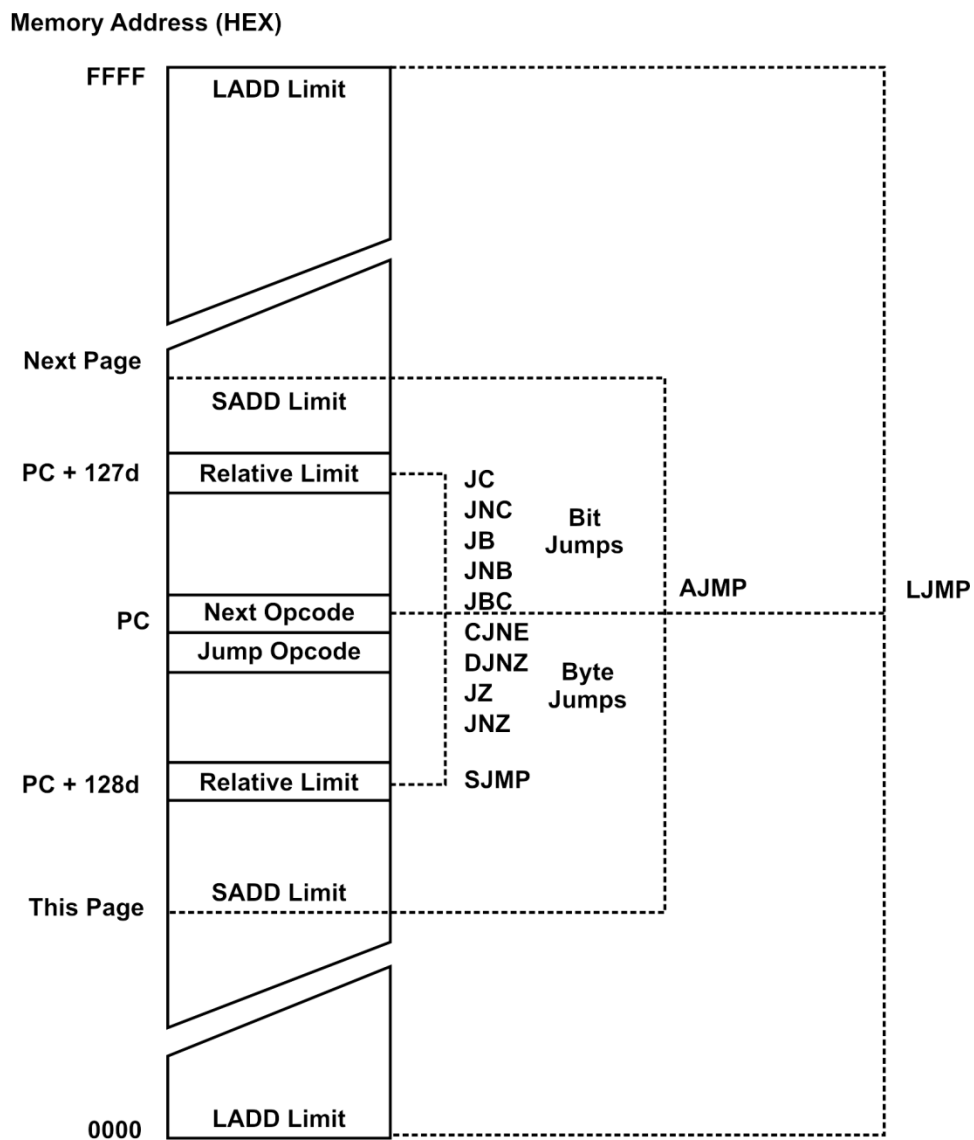
15.2 THE JUMP AND CALL PROGRAM RANGE

A jump or call instruction can replace the contents of the program counter with a new program address number that causes program execution to begin at the code located at the new address. The difference, in bytes, of this new address from the address in

the program where the jump or call is located is called the range of the jump or call. For example, if a jump instruction is located at program address 0100h, and the jump causes the program counter to become 0120h, then the range of the jump is 20h bytes.

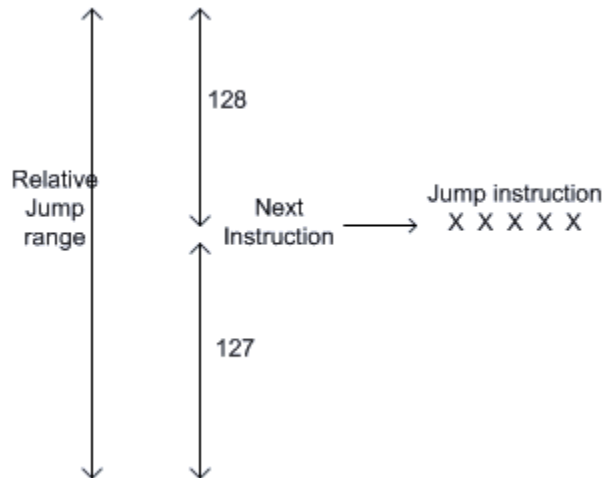
Jump or call instructions may have one of three ranges: a relative range of +127d, -128d bytes from the instruction following the jump or call instruction; an absolute range on the same 2K byte page as the instruction following the jump or call; or along range of any address from 0000h to FFFFh, anywhere in program memory. Figure 1 shows the relative range of all the jump instructions.

FIGURE 1: Jump Instruction Ranges



15.3 RELATIVE RANGE

Jump that replaces the PC (program counter) content with a new address that is greater than (the address following the jump instruction by 127 or less) or less than (the address following the jump by 128 or less) is called a relative jump. Schematically, the relative jump can be shown as follows: -



They are so named because the address that is placed in program counter is relative to the address where the jump occurs. If the absolute address of the jump instruction changes, then the jump address changes also but remains the same distance away from the jump away from the jump instruction. The address following the jump is used to calculate the relative jump because of the action of the PC. The PC is incremented to point to the next instruction before the current instruction is executed. Thus, the PC is set to the following address before the jump instruction is executed, or in the vernacular: “before the jump is taken.”

Relative jumping has two advantages:

1] Only one byte of data need be specified, either in positive format for jumps ahead in the program or in 2's complement negative format for jumps behind. The jump address displacement byte can then be added to the PC to get the absolute address. Specifying only one byte saves program bytes & speeds up program execution.

2] The program that is written using relative jumps can be located anywhere in the program address space without re-assembling the code to generate absolute addresses.

The disadvantage of using relative addressing is the requirement that all addresses jumped be within a range of +127d, -128d bytes of the jump instruction. This range is not a serious

problem. Most jumps form program loops over short code ranges that are within the relative address capability. Jumps are the only branch instructions that can use the relative range.

If jump beyond the relative range are needed, then a relative jump can be done to another relative jump until the desired address is reached. This need is better handled, however, by the jumps that are covered in the next sections.

15.3.1 Short Absolute Range

Absolute range makes use of the concept of dividing memory into logical divisions called “pages”. Program memory may be regarded as one continuous stretch of addresses from 0000h to FFFFh. Or, it may be divided into a series of pages any convenient binary size, such as 256 bytes, 2K bytes, 4K bytes, and so on.

The 8051 program memory is arranged as 2K byte pages, giving a total of 32d (20h) pages. The hexadecimal address of each page is shown in the following table:

PAGE	ADDRESS(H EX)	PAGE	ADDRESS(H EX)	PAGE	ADDRESS(H EX)
00	0000-07FF	0B	5800-5FFF	16	B000-B7FF
01	0800-0FFF	0C	6000-67FF	17	B800-BFFF
02	1000-17FF	0D	6800-6FFF	18	C000-C7FF
03	1800-1FFF	0E	7000-77FF	19	C800-CFFF
04	2000-27FF	0F	7800-7FFF	1A	D000-D7FF
05	2800-2FFF	10	8000-87FF	1B	D800-DFFF
06	3000-37FF	11	8800-8FFF	1C	E000-E7FF
07	3800-3FFF	12	9000-97FF	1D	E800-EFFF
08	4000-47FF	13	9800-9FFF	1E	F000-F7FF
09	4800-4FFF	15	A000-A7FF	1F	F800-FFFF
0A	5000-57FF	15	A800-AFFF		

Inspection of the page numbers shows that the upper five bits of the program counter hold the page number, and the lower eleven bits hold the address within each page. An absolute address is formed by taking the page number of the instruction following the branch and attaching the absolute page range address of eleven bits to it to form the 16-bit address.

Branches on page boundaries occur when the jump or call instruction finishes at X7FFh or XFFFh. The next instruction starts

at X800h or X000h, which places the jump or call address on the same page as the next instruction after the jump or call. The page change presents no problem when branching ahead but could be troublesome if the branch is backwards in the program. The assembler should flag such programs as errors, so adjustments can be made by the programmer to use a different type of range.

Absolute range addressing has the same advantages as relative addressing; fewer bytes are needed and the code is relocatable as long as the relocated code begins at the start of a page. Absolute addressing has the advantage of allowing jumps or calls over longer programming distances than does relative addressing.

15.3.2 Long Absolute Range

Addresses that can access the entire program space from 0000h to FFFFh use long range addressing. Long range addresses require more bytes of code to specify and are relocatable only at the beginning of 64K byte pages. Since we are limited to a nominal ROM address range of 64K bytes, the program must be re-assembled every time a long range address changes and these branches are not generally relocatable.

Long range addressing has the advantage of advantage of using the entire program address space available to the 8051. It is most likely to be used in large programs.

15.4 JUMPS

The ability of a program to respond quickly to changes in conditions depends largely upon the number and types of jump instructions available to the programmer. The 8051 has a rich set of jumps that can operate at the bit and byte levels. These jump opcodes are one reason the 8051 is such a powerful microcontroller.

Jumps operate by testing for conditions that are specified in the jump mnemonic. If the condition is true, then the jump is taken – that is, the program counter is altered to the address that is part of the jump instruction. If the condition is false, then the instruction immediately following the jump instruction is executed because the program counter is not altered. Keep in mind that the conditions of true dose not mean a binary 1 and that false does not mean binary 0. The condition specified by the mnemonic is either true or false.

15.4.1 Bit Jumps

Bit jumps all operate according to the status of the carry flag in the PSW or the status of any bit-addressable location. All bit jumps are relative to the program counter.

Jump instructions that test for bit conditions are shown in the following table:

Mnemonic	Operation
JC radd	Jump relative if the carry flag is set to 1
JNC radd	Jump relative if the carry flag is reset to 0
JB b,radd	Jump relative if addressable bit is set to 1
JNB b,radd	Jump relative if addressable bit is reset to 0
JBC b,radd	Jump relative if addressable bit is set, and clear the addressable bit to 0

Note that no flags are affected unless the bit in JBC is a flag bit in the PSW. When the bit used in a JBC instruction is a port bit, the SFR latch for that port is read, tested, and altered.

15.4.2 Byte Jumps

Byte jumps – jump instructions that test bytes of data – behave as bit jumps. If the condition that is tested is true, the jump is taken; if the condition is false, the instruction after the jump is executed. All byte jumps are relative to the program counter.

The following table lists examples of byte jumps:

Mnemonics	Operation
CJNE A,add,radd	Compare the contents of the A register with the contents of the Direct address; if they are not equal, then jump to the relative address; set the carry flag to 1 if A is less than the contents of the direct address; otherwise, set the carry flag to 0
CJNE A,#n,radd	Compare the content of the A resistor with the immediate number n; if they are not equal, then jump to the relative address; set the carry flag to 1 if A is less than the number; otherwise, set the carry flag to 0
CJNE Rn,#n,radd	Compare the contents of register Rn with the immediate number n; if they are not equal, then jump to the relative address; set the carry flag to 1 if Rn is less than the number; otherwise, set the carry flag to 0

CJNE @Rp,#n,radd	Compare the contents of the address contained in register Rp to the number n; if they are not equal, then jump to the relative address; set the carry flag to 1 if the contents of the address in Rp are less than the number; otherwise, set the carry flag to 0
DJNZ Rn,radd	Decrement register Rn by 1 and jump to the relative address if the result is not zero; no flags are affected
DJNZ add,radd	Decrement the direct address by 1 and jump to the relative address if the result is not 0; the flags are affected unless the direct address is the PSW
JZ radd	Jump to the relative address if A is 0; the flags and the A register are not changed
JNZ radd	Jump to the relative address if A is not 0; the flags and the A register are not changed

Note that if the direct address used in a DJNZ is a port, the port SFR is decremented and tested for 0

15.4.3 Unconditional Jumps

Unconditional jumps do not test any bit or byte to determine whether the jump should be taken. The jump is always taken. All jump ranges are found in this group of jumps, and these are the only jumps that can jump to any location in memory.

The following table shows examples of unconditional jumps:

Mnemonics	Operation
JMP @A+ DPTR	Jump to the address formed by adding A to the DPTR; this is an unconditional jump and will always be done; the address can be anywhere in program memory; A, the DPTR, and the flags are unchanged.
AJMP sadd	Jump to absolute short range address sadd; this is an unconditional jump and is always taken; no flags are affected
LJMP ladd	Jump to absolute long range address ladd; this is an unconditional jump and is always taken; no flags are affected
SJMP radd	Jump to relative address radd; this is an unconditional jump and is always taken; no flags are affected.

NOP	Do nothing and go to the next instruction; NOP (no operation) is used to waste time in a software timing loop; or to leave room in a program for later additions; no flags are affected
-----	---

15.5 CALLS AND SUBROUTINES

The method of changing program execution is using “interrupt” signals on certain external pins or internal registers to automatically cause a branch to a smaller program that deals with the specific situation. When the event that caused the interruption has been dealt with, the program resumes at the point in the program where the interruption took place. Interrupt action can also be generated using software instructions named calls.

Call instructions may be included explicitly in the program as mnemonics or implicitly included using hardware interrupts. In both cases, the call is used to execute a smaller, stand alone program, which is termed a routine or, more often, a subroutine.

15.5.1 Subroutines

A subroutine is a program that may be used many times in the execution of a larger program. The subroutine could be written into the body of main program everywhere it is needed, resulting in the fastest possible code execution. Using a subroutine in this manner has several serious drawbacks.

Common practice when writing a large program is to divide the total task among many programmers in order to speed completion. The entire program can be broken into smaller parts and each programmer given a part to write and debug. The main program can then call each of the parts, or subroutines, that have been developed and tested by each individual of the team.

Even if the program is written by one individual, it is more efficient to write an oft-used routine once and then call it many times as needed. Also, when writing a program, the programmer does the main part first. Calls to subroutines, which will be written later, enable the larger task to be defined before the programmer becomes bogged down in the details of the application.

15.5.2 Calls and the Stack

A call, whether hardware or software initiated, causes a jump to the address where the called subroutine is located. At the end of the subroutine the program resumes operation at the opcodes address immediately following the call. As calls can be located anywhere in the program address space and used many times,

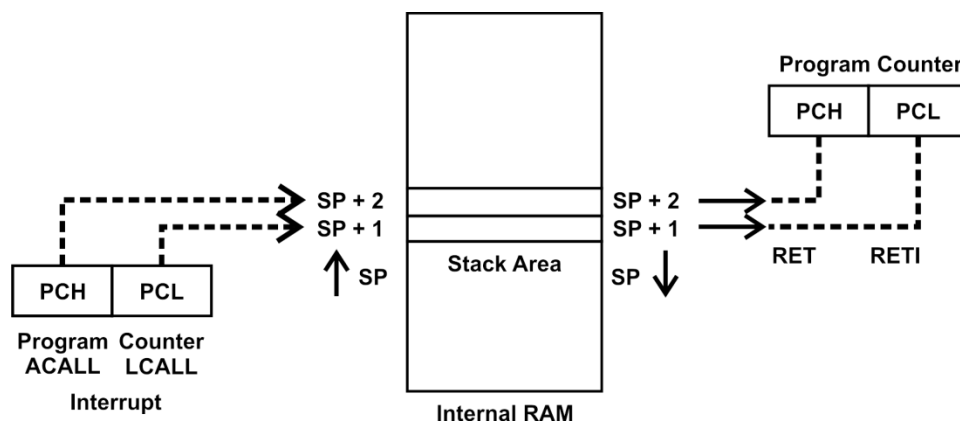
there must be an automatic means of storing the address of the instruction following the call so that program execution can continue after the subroutine has executed.

The stack area of internal RAM is used to automatically store the address, called the return address, of the instruction found immediately after the call. The stack pointer register holds the address of the last space used on the stack. It stores the return address above this place, adjusting itself upward as return address is stored. The term “stack” and “stack pointer” are often used interchangeably to designate the top of the stack area in RAM that is pointed to by the stack pointer.

Figure 2 diagram the following sequence of events:

1. A call opcodes occurs in the program software, or an interrupt is generated in the hardware circuitry.
2. The return address of the next instruction after the call instruction or interrupt is found in the program counter.
3. The return address bytes are pushed on the stack, low byte first.
4. The stack pointer is incremented for each push on the stack.
5. The subroutine address is placed in the program counter.
6. The subroutine address is executed.
7. A RET (return) opcode is encountered at the end of the subroutine.

FIGURE 2 Storing and Retrieving the Return Address.



8. Two pop operations restore the return address to the PC from the stack area in internal RAM.
9. The stack pointer is decremented for each address byte pop.

All of these steps are automatically handled by the 8051 hardware. It is the responsibility of the programmer to ensure that the subroutine ends in a RET instruction and that the stack does not grow up into data areas that are used by the program.

15.5.3 Calls and Returns

Calls use short or long range addressing: returns have no addressing mode specified but are always long range. The following table shows examples of call opcodes:

Mnemonic	Operation
ACALL sadd	Call the subroutine located on the same page as the address of the opcodes immediately following the ACALL instruction; push the address of the instruction immediately after the call on the stack
LCALL ladd	Call the subroutine located anywhere in program memory space; push the address of the instruction immediately following the call on the stack
RET	Pop two bytes from the stack into the program counter

Note that no flags are affected unless the stack pointer has been allowed to erroneously reach the address of the PSW special function register.

15.6 INTERRUPTS AND RETURNS

An interrupt is a hardware-generated call. Just as a call opcodes can be located within a program to automatically access a subroutine, certain pins on the 8051 can cause a call when external electrical signals on them go to a low state. Internal operations of the timers and the serial port can also cause an interrupt call to take place.

The subroutines called by an interrupt are located at fixed hardware addresses. The following table shows the interrupt subroutine addresses.

INTERRUPT	ADDRESS (HEX) CALLED
IE0	0003
TF0	000B
IE1	0013
TF1	001B
SERIAL	0023

When an interrupt call takes place, hardware interrupt disable flip-flops are set to prevent another interrupt of the same priority level from taking place until an interrupt return instruction has been executed in the interrupt subroutine. The action of the interrupt routine is shown in table below.

Mnemonic	Operation
RETI	Pop two bytes from the stack into the program counter and reset the interrupt enable flip-flops

Note that the only difference between the RET and RETI instructions is the enabling of the interrupt logic when RETI is used. RET is used at the ends of subroutines called by an opcodes. RETI is used by subroutines called by an interrupt.

The following program examples use a call to a subroutine.

ADDRESS	MNEMONIC	COMMENT
MAIN:	MOV 81h, #30h	; set the stack pointer to 30h in RAM
	LCALL SUB	; push address of NOP; PC = #SUB; SP = 32h
	NOP	;return from SUB to this opcodes
	...	
	...	
SUB	MOV A, #45h	;SU loads A with 45h and returns
	RET	;pop return address to PC; SP = 30h

In the following example of an interrupt call to a routine, timer 0 is used in mode 0 to overflow and set the timer 0 interrupt flag. When the interrupt is generated, the program vector to the interrupt routine, resets the timer 0 interrupt flag, stop the timer, and returns.

ADDRESS	MNEMONIC	COMMENT
	.ORG 0000h	;begin program at 0000
	AJMP OVER	;jump over interrupt subroutine
	.ORG 000Bh	;put timer 0 interrupt subroutine here
	CLR 8Ch	;stop timer 0; set TRO = 0
	RETI	;return and enable interrupt structure
OVER:	MOV 0A8h, #82h	; enable the timer 0 interrupt in the IE
	MOV 89h, #00h	;set timer operation, mode 0
	MOV 8Ah, #00h	;clear TL0
	MOV 8Ch, #00h	;clearTH0
	SET 8Ch	;start timer 0; set TR0 = 1

;
;
;
;
;

; the program will continue on and be interrupted when the timer has timed out

15.7 SUMMARY

- Jump alter program flow by replacing the PC counter contents with the address of the jump address.
- Jumps have the following ranges:
Relative : up to PC +127 bytes, PC – 128 bytes away from PC
Absolute short : anywhere on a 2K-byte page
Absolute long : anywhere in program memory
- Jump opcodes can test an individual bit, or a byte, to check for conditions that make the program jump to a new program address.
- Bit jumps all operate according to the status of the carry flag in the PSW or the status of any bit-addressable location.
- Unconditional jumps do not test any bit or byte to determine whether the jump should be taken. The jump is always taken. All jump ranges are found in this group of jumps, and these are the only jumps that can jump to any location in memory.

15.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS

- Q.1 Explain the relative range.
 Q.2 What do you mean by absolute short range and long range?
 Q.3 Explain bit and byte jump instructions.
 Q.4 Explain subroutine program.
 Q.5 Explain different return instructions.

15.9 REFERENCE

- The 8051 Microcontroller by Kenneth J. Ayala, Publisher: Thomson Delmar Learning
- The 8051 Microcontroller And Embedded Systems Using Assembly And C, 2/E By Mazidi and Mazidi, Publisher: Pearson Education India



8051 PROGRAMS

1. To search a number from a given set of numbers. The end of the data is indicated by 00.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R1,#30H	Starting location of the list
0002	L1	MOV A,@R1	Number copied into accumulator
0003		CJNE A,#00,L3	Compared for the end of a list with 00H
0006	L3	CJNE A,#0AH,L2	Compared with No. 0AH
0009		MOV A,R1	Moving the content of R1 to A
000A		MOV R2,A	Store the number
000B	HERE	SJMP HERE	End of the program
000D	L2	INC R1	Get the next number
000E		JMP L1	Jump to L1

2. Finding the average of signed numbers.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R0,#30H	Starting location of a list
0002		MOV R2,#00H	Initialize R2 to store carry
0004		MOV R1,#05H	Counter is set to 05.
0006		MOV B,R1	Moving the content of R1 to B
0008		MOV A,#00H	Clear the accumulator

000A	L2	ADD A,@R0	Adding the value to accumulator
000B		JB OV, HERE	Check overflow flag
000E		JNC L1	If there is no carry jump to L1
0010		INC R2	If there is carry, increment R2
0011	L1	DJNZ R1, L2	Decrement R1, if it is not equal to 0, jump L2
0013		DIV AB	Divide accumulator with B
0014		MOV 40H,R2	Copying R2 to memory address 40H
0016		MOV 41H,A	Copying A to memory address 41H
0018		MOV 42H,B	Copying B to memory address 42H
001B	HERE	SJMP HERE	End of the program

2.A. Average of string of numbers.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R0,#30H	Starting location of a list
0002		MOV R2,#00H	Initialize R2 to store carry
0004		MOV R1,#05H	Counter is set to 05.
0006		MOV B,R1	Moving the content of R1 to B
0008		MOV A,#00H	Clear the accumulator
000A	L2	ADD A,@R0	Adding the value to accumulator
000B		JNC L1	If there is no carry jump to L1
000D		INC R2	If there is carry, increment R2
000E	L1	DJNZ R1,L2	Decrement R1, if it is not equal to 0, jump L2
0010		DIV AB	Divide accumulator with B

0011		MOV 40H,R2	Copying R2 to memory address 40H
0013		MOV 41H,A	Copying A to memory address 41H
0015		MOV 42H,B	Copying B to memory address 42H
0018	HERE	SJMP HERE	End of the program

3. Multiplication of signed numbers.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R1,#01H	Store 01H in reg. R1
0002		MOV R0,#30H	Initialize memory location
0004		MOV A,@R0	Number copied into accumulator
0005		MOV R7,A	Number copied into reg. R7
0006		RLC A	Rotate accumulator to check the carry
0007		JNC L1	If there is no carry, jump to L1
0009		MOV A,@R0	Number copied into accumulator
000A		CPL A	Taking 1 st complement
000B		INC A	Taking 2's complement
000C		INC R1	Increment reg. R1
000D	L1	MOV A,R7	Number copied into reg. R7
000E		INC R0	Getting the next number
000F		MOV A,@R0	Number copied into accumulator
0010		MOV B,A	Number copied into reg. B
0012		RLC A	Rotate accumulator to check the carry
0013		JNC L2	If there is no carry, jump to L2

0015		CPL A	Taking 1 st complement
0016		INC A	Taking 2's complement
0017		MOV B,A	Number copied into reg.B
0019		DEC R1	Decrement the content of R1
001A	L2	MOV A,R7	Number copied from reg. R7 to A
001B		MUL AB	Multiplying content A & B
001C		INC R0	Increment memory location R0
001D		MOV @R0,A	Copying A to memory
001E		INC R0	Increment memory location R0
001F		MOV @R0,B	Copying B to memory
0021		INC R0	Increment memory location R0
0022		MOV A,R1	Number copied from reg. R1 to A
0023		CJNE A,#02H,L3	If A is not equal to 02H, jump to L3
0026		MOV @R0,#01H	If A is equal to 02H, store 01 at memory
0028	HERE	SJMP HERE	Short jump
002A	L3	MOV @R0,#00H	Store 00 at memory
002C		JMP HERE	Jump to HERE

4. Convert the BCD 0111 0101 number to two binary numbers and transfer this number to registers.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV A,#75H	Storing BCD no. in accumulator
0002		MOV B,A	Copying the number in reg. B
0004		ANL A,#0F0H	Masking lower nibble

0006		SWAP A	A ₃₋₀ swap A ₇₋₄
0007		MOV 19H,A	Store the number at 19H
0009		MOV A,B	Copying original number in accumulator
000B		ANL A,#0FH	Masking higher nibble
000D		MOV 18H,A	Store the number at 18H
000F	HERE	JMP HERE	End of the program

5. To find y where $y = x^2 + 2x + 5$ and x is between 0 and 9.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R2,#0AH	Store 0AH in reg. R2
0002		MOV R0,#60H	Store 60H in reg. R2
0004		MOV R1,#70H	Store 70H in reg. R2
0006		MOV R3,#00H	Initialize R3 with 00H
0008	L1	MOV A,R3	Copying R3 to Accumulator
0009		MOV @R0,A	Copying A to memory address 60H
000A		INC R3	Increment R3
000B		INC R0	Increment R0
000C		DJNZ R2,L1	If R2≠0AH, Jump to L1
000E		MOV R2,#0AH	Store 0AH in reg. R2
0010		MOV R0,#60H	Store 60H in reg. R2
0012		MOV R1,#70H	Store 70H in reg. R2
0014	L2	MOV A,@R0	Copying value from memory address to A
0015		MOV B,A	Copying A to reg. B
0017		MUL AB	Multiplying A & B
0018		MOV @R1,A	Copying A to memory
0019		MOV A,#02H	Store 02H in Accumulator
001B		MOV B,@R0	Copying value from memory address to B
001D		MUL AB	Multiplying A & B

001E		ADD A,#05H	Adding 05H To Accumulator
0020		ADD A,@R1	Adding content from memory to A
0021		MOV @R1,A	Copying A to memory address
0022		INC R0	Increment R0
0023		INC R1	Increment R1
0024		DJNZ R2,L2	If R2 \neq 0, jump to L2
0026	HERE	JMP HERE	End of program

6. Write a program to find the number of zeros in register R2

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV R2,#0AH	Store 0AH value in reg. R2
0002		MOV B,#00H	Initialize reg. B with 00H
0005		MOV A,R2	Copy the content from R2 to A
0006		MOV R3,#08H	Set the counter to 08H
0008	L2	RRC A	Rotate A to check no. Of zeroes
0009		JC L1	If carry=1, jump to L1
000B		INC B	If carry =0, increment reg. B
000D	L1	DJNZ R3,L2	If R3 not equal to 0, jump to L2
000F		MOV R1,B	Store the answer in reg. R1
0011	HERE	SJMP HERE	End of program

7. Write a program to check if the accumulator is divisible by 8.

Memory Location	Label	Instruction	Comment
0000		MOV A,#10H	Store a number in Accumulator
0002		MOV B,#08H	Store 08H in reg. B
0005		DIV AB	Divide A by B

0006		MOV 40H,A	Store the answer at memory address 40H
0008		MOV A,B	Copying remainder in reg. B to A
000A		CJNE A,#00H,L1	If remainder =00H, jump to L1
000D		MOV 41H,#01H	If remainder ≠ 00H, Store 01H at memory address 41H
0010	HERE	SJMP HERE	End of the program
0012	L1	MOV 41H,#00H	If remainder =00H, Store 00H at memory address 41H
0015		JMP HERE	



Syllabus

F.Y.B.Sc. (IT), Sem - II,

Microprocessor & Microcontrollers

Unit I : Internet and WWW

What is Internet? Introduction to Internet and its applications, E-mail, telnet, FTP, e-commerce, video conferencing, e-business. Internet service providers, domain name server, internet address

World Wide Web (WWW)

World Wide Web and its evolution, uniform resource locator (URL), browsers – internet explorer, netscape navigator, opera, firefox, chrome, mozilla, search engine, web saver-apache, IIS, proxy server, HTTP protocol

Unit II : HTML and Graphics

HTML Tag Reference, global Attributes, Event Handlers, Document Structure Tags, Formatting Tags, text Level formatting, Block Level formatting, List Tags, Hyperlink tags, Images and Image maps, Table tags, Form Tags, Frame Tags, Executable content tags

Imagemaps

What are Imagemaps? Client-side Imagemaps, Server-side Imagemaps, Using Server-side and Client-side Imagemaps together, Alternative text for Imagemaps,

Tables

Introduction to HTML tables and their structure, The table tags, Alignment, Aligning Entire Table, Alignment within a row, Alignment within a cell, Attributes, Content Summary, Background Color, Adding a Caption, Setting the width, Adding a border, Spacing within a cell, Spacing

between the cells, Spanning multiple rows or columns, Elements that can be placed in a table, Table Sections and column properties, Tables as a design tool.

Frames

Introduction to Frames, Applications, Frames document, The <FRAMESET> tag, Nesting <FRAMESET> tag, Placing content in frames with the <FRAME> tag, Targeting named frames, Creating floating frames, Using Hidden frames,

Forms

Creating Forms, The <FORM> tag, Named Input fields, The <INPUT> tag, Multiple lines text windows, Drop down and list boxes, Hidden, Text, Test Area, Password, File Upload, Button, Submit, Reset, radio, Checkbox. Select, Option, Forms and Scripling, Action Buttons, Labelling input files, Grouping related fields, Disabled and read-only fields, Form field event handlers, Passing form data.

Style Sheets

What are style sheets? Why are style sheets valuable? Different approaches to style sheets, Using Multiple approaches, Linking to style information in s separate file, Setting up style information, Using the <LINK> tag, Embedded style information, Using <STYLE> tag, Inline style information.

Unit III : Java Script

Introduction, Client-Side JavaScript, Server-Side Java Script, Java Script Objects, Java Script Security.

Operators

Assignment, Operators, Comparison Operators, Arithmetic Operators, % (Modulus), ++ (Increment), -- (Decreemnt), - (Unary Negation), Logical Operators, Short-Circuit Evaluation, String Operators, Special Operators, : (Conditional operator), (Comma operator), delete, new, this, void

Statements

Break, comment, continue, delete, do...while, export, for, for....in, function, if....else, import, labeled, return, switch, var, while, with,

Core JavaScript (Properties and Methods of Each)

Array, Boolean, Date, Function, Math, Number. Object, String, resExp

Document and its associated objects

Document, Link, Area, Anchor, Image. Applet, Layer

Events and Event Handlers

General Information about Events, Defining Even Handlers, event, onAbort, onBlur, onChange, onClick, onDbIclick, ondragDrop, onError, onFocus, onKeyDown, onKeyPress, onKeyUp. onLoad, onMouseDown, onMouseMove, onMouseOut, onMouseOver, onMouseUp, onMove, onReset, onResize, onSelect, onsubmit, onUnload

Unit IV : XML

Introduction to XML, Anatomy of an XML document, Creating XML Documents, Creating XML DTDs, XML Schemas, XSL.

Unit V : PHP

Why PHP and MySQL?, Server-side web scripting, Installing PHP, Adding PHP to HTML, Syntax and Variables, Passing information between pages, Strings, Arrays and Array Functions, Numbers, Basic PHP errors/problems.

Unit VI : Advanced PHP and MySQL

PHP/MySQL Functions, Displaying queries in tables, Building Forms from queries, String and Regular Expressions, Sessions, Cookies and HTTP, Type and Type Conversions, E-Mail

Term Work and tutorial**Should contain minimum 5 assignments and two class tests****Practical : Should contain minimum 8 experiments****List of Practicals :**

1. Design a web page using different text formatting tags
2. Design a web page with links to different pages and allow navigation between pages.
3. Design a web page with Imagemaps
4. Design a web page with different tables. Design a webpage using table so that the content appeared well placed.
5. Design a web page using frames.
6. Design a web page with a form that uses all types of controls.
7. Design a website using style sheets so that the pages have uniform style.
8. Using Java Script design a web page that prints factorial / Fibonacci series / any given series.
9. Design a form with a text box and a command button. Using Java script write a program whether the number entered in the text box is a prime number or not.
10. Design a form and validate all the controls placed on the form using Java Script.
11. Design a DTD, corresponding XML document and display it in browser using CSS.
12. Design an XML document and display it in browser using XSL.
13. Design XML Schema and corresponding XML document.
14. Design a php page to process a form.
15. Design a php page for authenticating a user.
16. Design a complete dynamic website with all validations.

