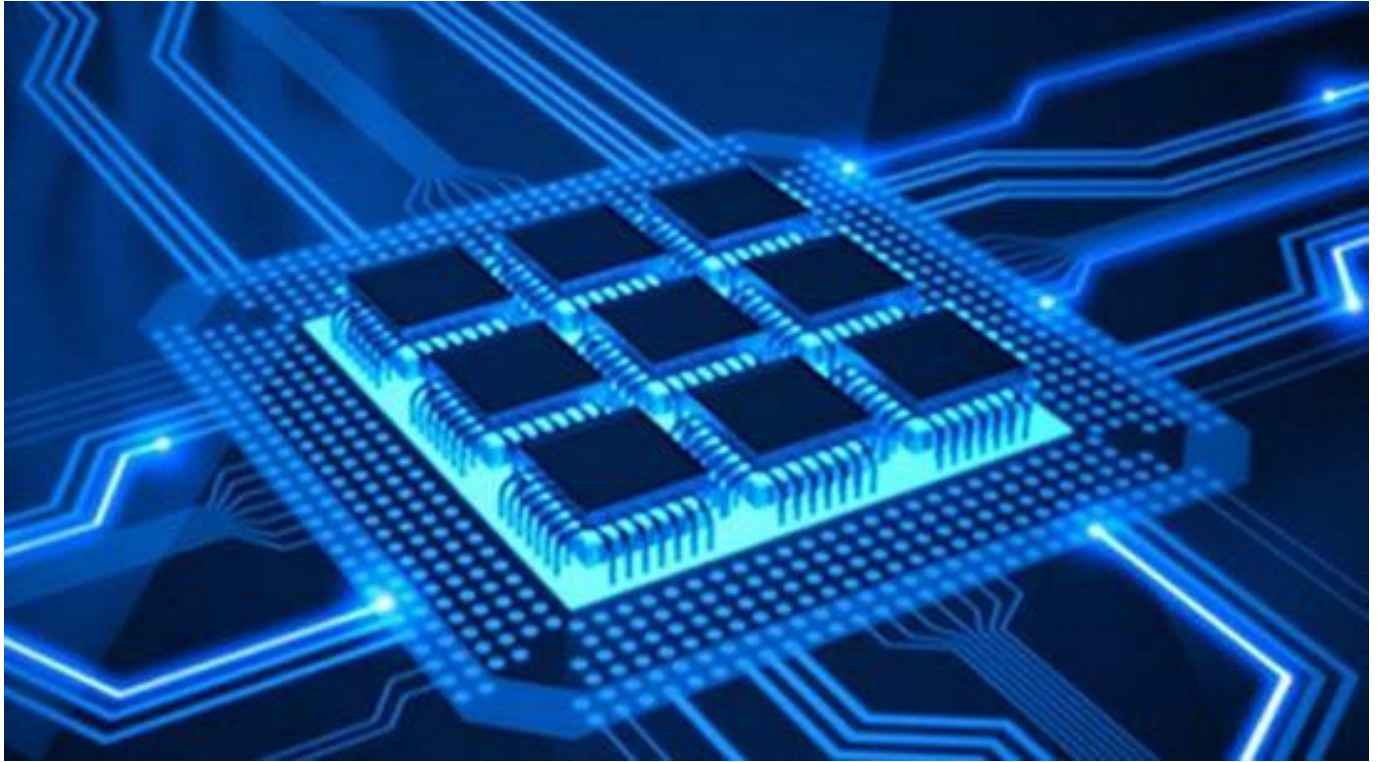


Embedded Systems

III-CSE



Unit-1

INTRODUCTION TO MICROPROCESSORS & MICROCONTROLLERS

M.Ramanjaneyulu

T Vinay simha Reddy

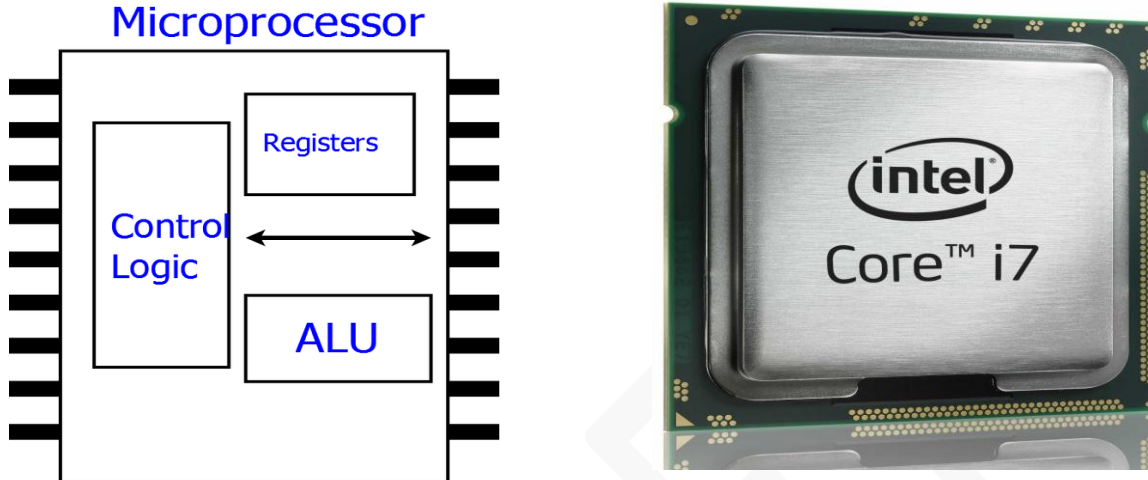
Department of ECE



**MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF
ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY**

Permanently Affiliated to JNTUH and Approved by AICTE, New Delhi

Microprocessor: Microprocessor is a controlling unit of a micro-computer, fabricated on a small chip capable of performing ALU (Arithmetic Logical Unit) operations and communicating with the other devices connected to it.



Microprocessor consists of an ALU, register array, and a control unit. ALU performs arithmetic and logical operations on the data received from the memory or an input device. The control unit controls the flow of data and instructions within the computer.

Block Diagram of a Basic Microcomputer:

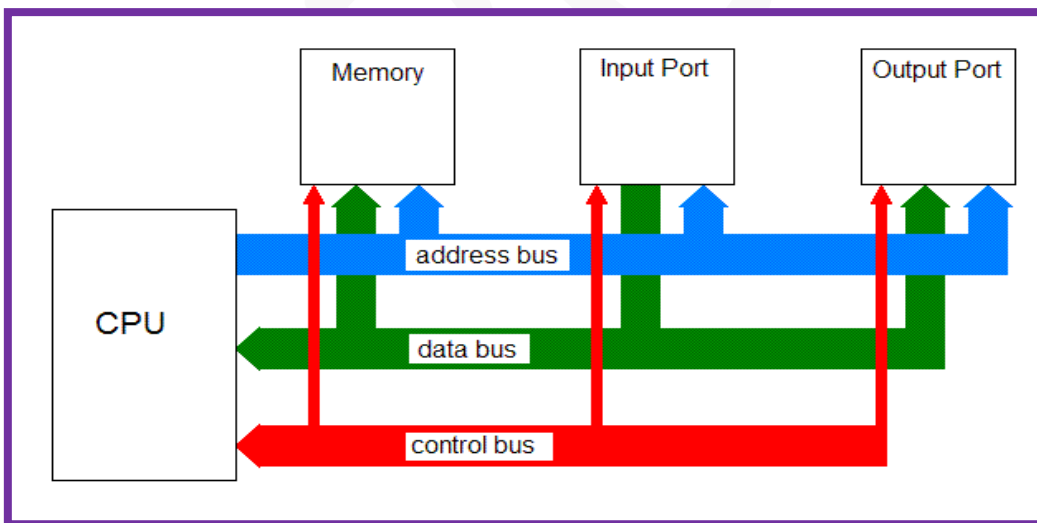


Figure 1 Block diagram of Computer

Figure shows block diagram of a simple microcomputer. The major parts are the central processing unit or CPU, memory and the input and output circuitry or Input/output. Connecting these parts are three sets of parallel line is called buses . In a microcomputer the CPU is a microprocessor and is often referred to as the

microprocessor unit (MPU). Its purpose is to decode the instruction and use them to control the activity within the system. It performs all arithmetic and logical computations.

Memory: Memory section usually consists of a mixture of RAM and ROM. It may also magnetic floppy disks, magnetic hard disks or optical disks, to store the data.

Input/output: The input/output section allows the computer to take in data from the outside world or send data to the outside world. Peripherals such as keyboards, video display terminals. Printers and modem are connected to the input/output section. These allow the user and computer to communicate with each other. The actual physical devices used to interface the computer buses to external systems are often called ports. An input/output port allows data from keyboard, an analog to digital converter (ADC) or some other source to be read into the computer under the control of the CPU. An output port is used to send data from the computer to some peripheral, such as a video display terminal, a printer or a digital to analog converter (DAC).

Central processing Unit (CPU): CPU controls the operation of the computer. In a microcomputer the CPU is a microprocessor. The CPU fetches the binary coded instructions from memory, decodes the instructions into a series of simple action and carries out these actions in sequence of steps.

CPU contains an address counter or instruction pointer register which holds the address of the next instruction or data item to be fetched from memory, general purpose register, which are used for temporary storage or binary data and circuitry, which generates the control bus signals.

Address bus: The address bus consists of 16, 20, 24 or 32 parallel lines. On these lines the CPU sends out the address of the memory locations that are to be written to or read from. The number of memory locations that the CPU can address is determined by the number of address lines, then it can directly address 2^n memory location. When the CPU reads data from or writes data to a port, it sends the port address on the address bus.

Ex: CPU has 16 address lines can address 2^{16} or 65536 memory locations.

Data bus: It consists of 8, 16, 32 parallel signal lines. The data bus lines are bidirectional. This means that the CPU can read, data from memory or from a port on these lines, or it can send data out to memory or to port on these lines.

Control bus: The control bus consists of 4 to 10 parallel signals lines. The CPU sends out signals on the control bus enable the outputs of addressed memory devices or port devices. Typical control bus signal are memory read, memory write, I/O read and I/O write.

Hardware, software and Firmware: hardware is the given to the physical devices and circuitry of the computer. Software refers to collection of programs written for the computer. Firmware is the term given programs stored in ROM's or in other devices which permanently keep their stored information.

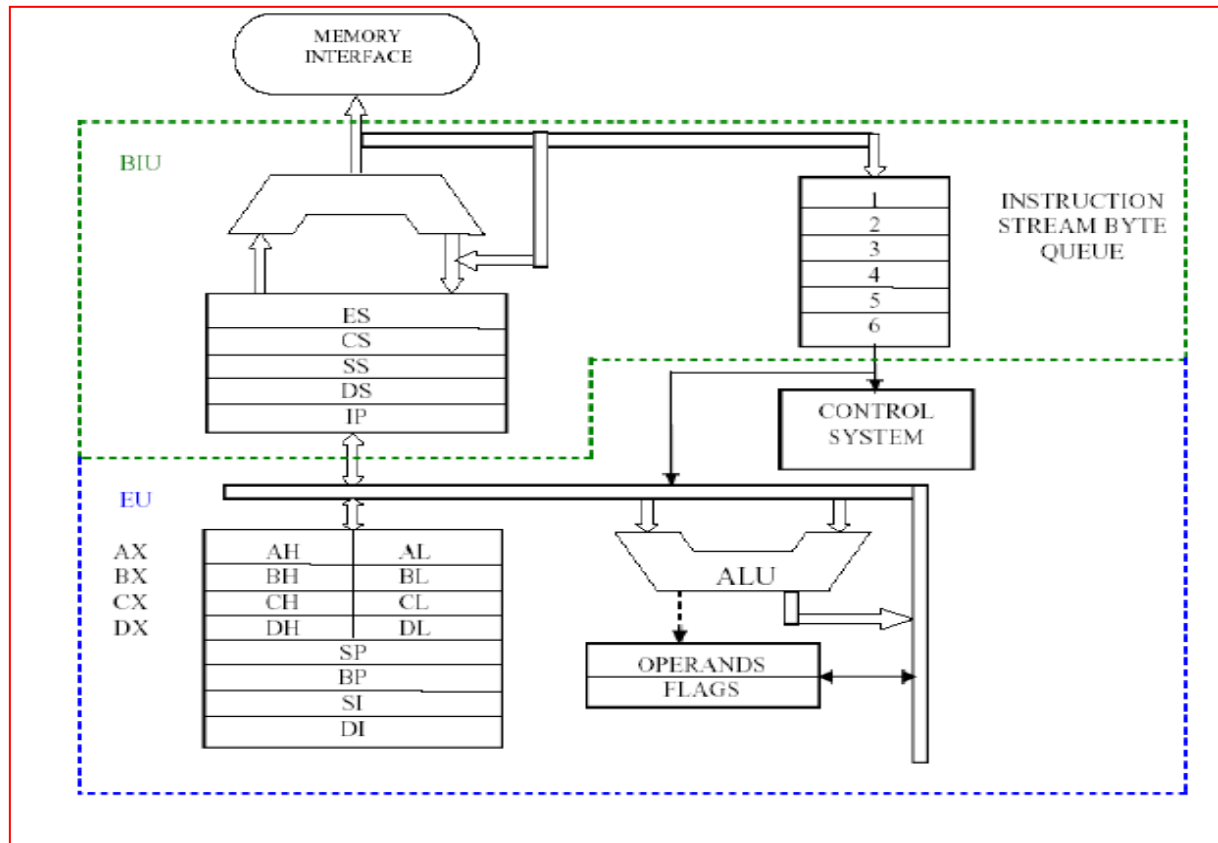
8086 Microprocessor

8086 Microprocessor is an enhanced version of 8085 Microprocessor that was designed by Intel in 1976.

Features of 8086 Microprocessor :

- It is a 16-bit Microprocessor (μp). Its ALU, internal registers work with 16-bit binary word.
- 8086 has a 20-bit address bus can access up to $2^{20} = 1\text{MB}$ memory locations.
- 8086 has a 16-bit data bus. It can read or write data to a memory/port either 16 bits or 8 bits at a time.
- It can support up to 64K I/O ports.
- It provides 14, 16-bit registers.
- Frequency range of 8086 is 6-10 MHz.
- It has multiplexed address and data bus AD0- AD15.
- It requires single phase clock with 33% duty cycle to provide internal timing.
- It can prefetch up to 6 instruction bytes from memory and queues them in order to speed up instruction execution.
- It requires +5V power supply.
- A 40 pin dual in line package.
- It has 256 vectored interrupts.
- It consists of 29,000 transistors.
- 8086 is designed to operate in two modes, Minimum mode and Maximum mode.
 - The minimum mode is selected by applying logic 1 to the $\overline{MN}/\overline{MX}$ input pin.
This is a single microprocessor configuration.
 - The maximum mode is selected by applying logic 0 to the $\overline{MN}/\overline{MX}$ input pin.
This is a multi micro processors configuration.

Architecture or Functional Block diagram of 8086:



8086 has two blocks 1. Bus Interface Unit (BIU) 2. Execution Unit (EU).

- The BIU performs all bus operations such as instruction fetching, reading and writing operands for memory and calculating the addresses of the memory operands. The instruction bytes are transferred to the instruction queue.
- EU executes instructions from the instruction byte queue.
- Both units operate asynchronously to give the 8086 an overlapping instruction fetch and execution mechanism which is called as Pipelining. This results in efficient use of the system bus and system performance.
- BIU contains Instruction queue, Segment registers, Instruction pointer and Address adder.
- EU contains Control circuitry, Instruction decoder, ALU, Pointer and Index register, Flag register.

BIU (Bus Interface Unit):

BIU takes care of all data and addresses transfers on the buses for the EU like sending addresses, fetching instructions from the memory, reading data from the ports and the memory as well as writing data to the ports and the memory and computes the 20-bit address. EU has no direct connection with System Buses so this is possible with the BIU. EU and BIU are connected with the Internal Bus.

It has the following functional parts:

Instruction queue: BIU contains the instruction queue. BIU gets up to 6 bytes of next instructions and stores them in the instruction queue. When EU executes instructions and is ready for its next instruction, then it simply reads the instruction from this instruction queue resulting in increased execution speed.

Address Adder: The BIU also contains a dedicated adder which is used to generate the 20-bit physical address that is output on the address bus. This address is formed by adding an appended 16-bit segment address and a 16-bit offset address.

Segment register: BIU has 4 segment registers, i.e. CS, DS, SS & ES. It holds the addresses of instructions and data in memory, which are used by the processor to access memory locations. It also contains 1 pointer register IP, which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed by the EU.

Instruction pointer: It is a 16-bit register used to hold the address of the next instruction to be executed.

EU (Execution Unit):

Execution unit gives instructions to BIU stating from where to fetch the data and then decode and execute those instructions. Its function is to control operations on data using the instruction decoder & ALU. EU has no direct connection with system buses as shown in the above figure, it performs operations over data through BIU.

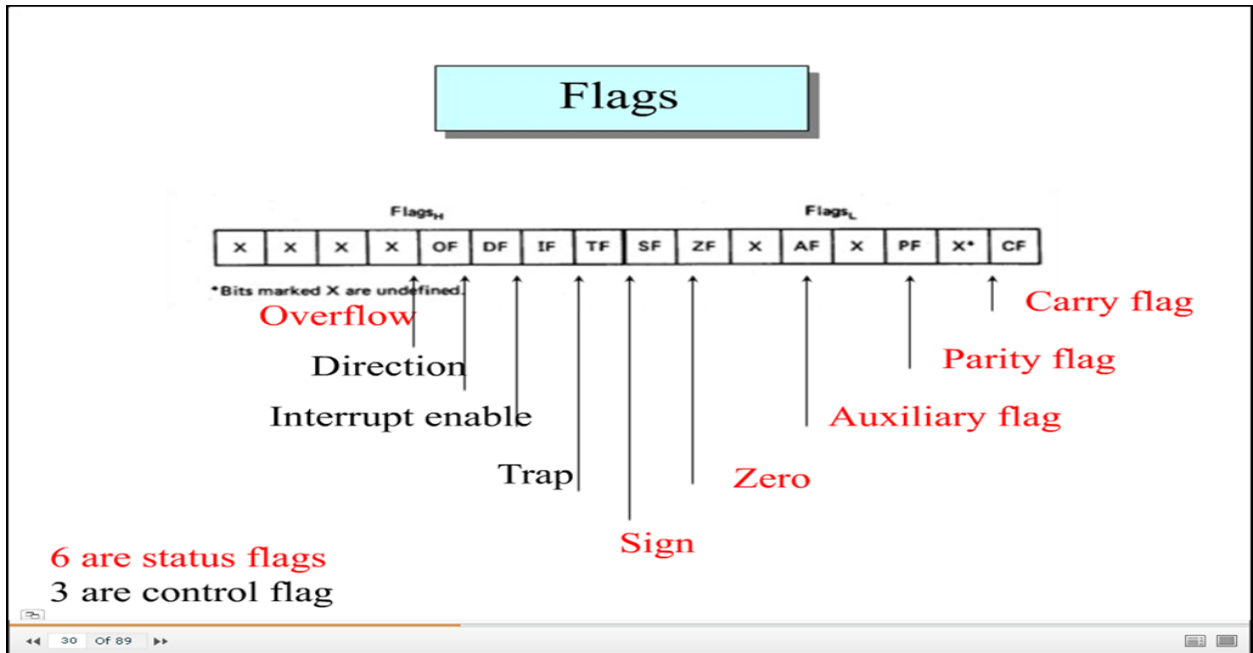
Let us now discuss the functional parts of 8086 microprocessors.

ALU: It handles all arithmetic and logical operations, like +, -, ×, /, OR, AND, NOT operations.

Flag Register: It is a 16-bit register that behaves like a flip-flop, i.e. it changes its status according to

the result stored in the accumulator. It has 9 flags and they are divided into 2 groups:

1. Conditional Flags
2. Control Flags.



Conditional Flags:

It represents the result of the last arithmetic or logical instruction executed. Following is the list of conditional flags:

- 1. Carry flag:** This flag is set, when there is a carry out of MSB in case of addition or a borrow in case of subtraction.
- 2. Auxiliary flag:** When an operation is performed at ALU, it results in a carry/borrow from lower nibble (i.e. D0 – D3) to upper nibble (i.e. D4 – D7), then this flag is set, i.e. carry given by D3 bit to D4 is AF flag. The processor uses this flag to perform binary to BCD conversion.
- 3. Parity flag:** This flag is used to indicate the parity of the result, i.e. when the lower order 8-bits of the result contains even number of 1's, then the Parity Flag is set. For odd number of 1's, the Parity Flag is reset.

4. Zero flag: This flag is set to 1 when the result of arithmetic or logical operation is zero else it is set to 0.

5. Sign flag: This flag holds the sign of the result, i.e. when the result of the operation is negative, then the sign flag is set to 1 else set to 0.

6. Overflow flag: This flag represents the result when the system capacity is exceeded.

Control Flags:

Control flags controls the operations of the execution unit. Following is the list of control flags:

1. Trap flag: It is used for single step control and allows the user to execute one instruction at a time for debugging. If it is set, then the program can be run in a single step mode.

2. Interrupt flag: It is an interrupt enable/disable flag, i.e. used to allow/prohibit the interruption of a program. It is set to 1 for interrupt enabled condition and set to 0 for interrupt disabled condition.

3. Direction flag: It is used in string operation. As the name suggests when it is set then string bytes are accessed from the higher memory address to the lower memory address and vice-a-versa.

General Purpose Register (GPR):

There are 8 general purpose registers, i.e., AH, AL, BH, BL, CH, CL, DH, and DL. These registers can be used individually to store 8-bit data and can be used in pairs to store 16-bit data. The valid register pairs are AH and AL, BH and BL, CH and CL, and DH and DL. It is referred to the AX, BX, CX, and DX respectively.

AX register: It is also known as accumulator register. It is used to store operands for arithmetic operations.

BX register: It is used as a base register. It is used to store the starting base address of the memory area within the data segment.

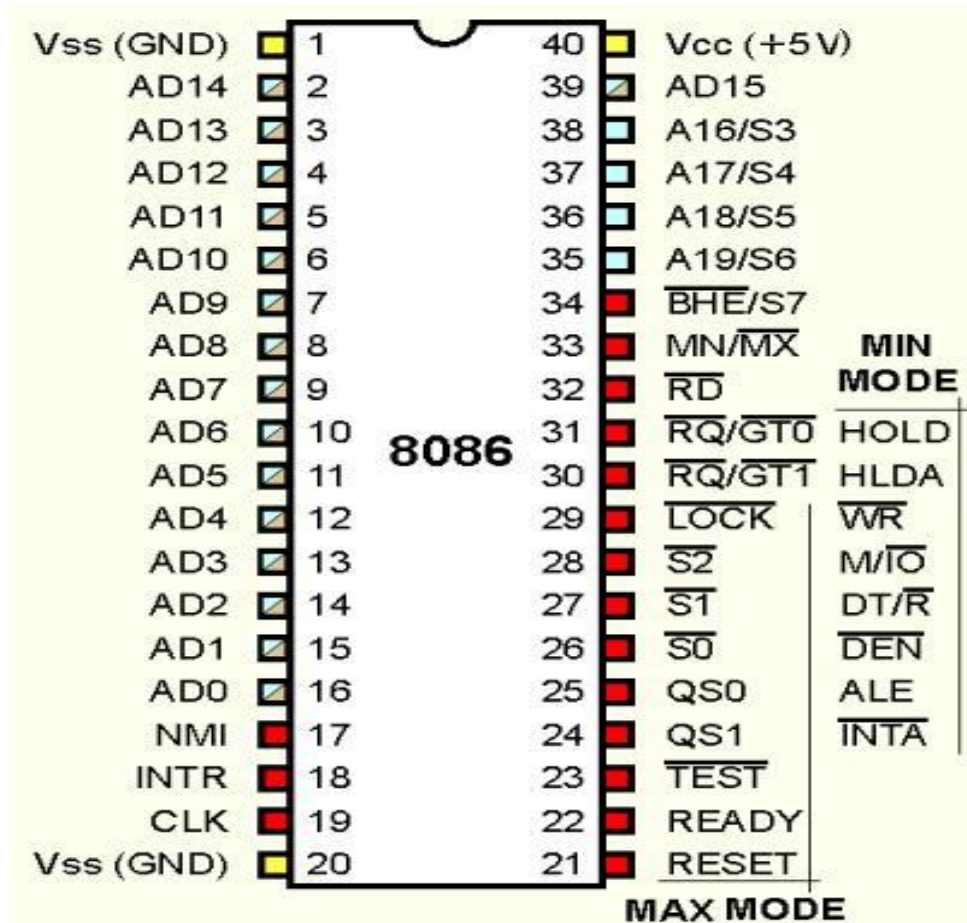
CX register: It is referred to as counter. It is used in loop instruction to store the loop counter.

DX register: This register is used to hold I/O port address for I/O instruction.

Stack pointer register: It is a 16-bit register, which holds the address from the start of the segment to the memory location, (stack top) where a word was most recently stored on the stack.

8086 Pin Diagram:

Here is the pin diagram of 8086 microprocessor:



Power supply & frequency signals:

It uses 5V DC supply at VCC pin 40, and uses ground at VSS pin 1 and 20 for its operation.

Clock signal: Clock signal is provided through Pin-19. It provides timing to the processor for operations. Its frequency is different for different versions, i.e. 5MHz, 8MHz and 10MHz.

Address/data bus: AD0-AD15. These are 16 address/data bus. AD0-AD7 carries low order byte data and AD8-AD15 carries higher order byte data. During the first clock cycle, it carries 16-bit address and after that it carries 16-bit data.

Address/status bus: A16-A19/S3-S6. These are the 4 address/status buses. During the first clock cycle, it carries 4-bit address and later it carries status signals.

S7/BHE: BHE stands for Bus High Enable. It is available at pin 34 and used to indicate the transfer of data using data bus D8-D15. This signal is low during the first clock cycle, thereafter it is active.

Read (\overline{RD}): It is available at pin 32 and is used to read signal for Read operation.

Ready: It is available at pin 32. It is an acknowledgement signal from I/O devices that data is transferred. It is an active high signal. When it is high, it indicates that the device is ready to transfer data. When it is low, it indicates wait state.

RESET: It is available at pin 21 and is used to restart the execution. It causes the processor to immediately terminate its present activity. This signal is active high for the first 4 clock cycles to RESET the microprocessor.

INTR: It is available at pin 18. It is an interrupt request signal, which is sampled during the last clock cycle of each instruction to determine if the processor considered this as an interrupt or not.

NMI: It stands for non-maskable interrupt and is available at pin 17. It is an edge triggered input, which causes an interrupt request to the microprocessor.

\overline{TEST} : This signal is like wait state and is available at pin 23. When this signal is high, then the processor has to wait for IDLE state, else the execution continues.

MN/ \overline{MX} : It stands for Minimum/Maximum and is available at pin 33. It indicates what mode the processor is to operate in; when it is high, it works in the minimum mode and vice-versa.

INTA: It is an interrupt acknowledgement signal and is available at pin 24. When the microprocessor receives this signal, it acknowledges the interrupt.

ALE: It stands for address enable latch and is available at pin 25. A positive pulse is generated each time the processor begins any operation. This signal indicates the availability of a valid address on the address/data lines.

DEN: It stands for Data Enable and is available at pin 26. It is used to enable Transceiver 8286. The transceiver is a device used to separate data from the address/data bus.

DT/R: It stands for Data Transmit/Receive signal and is available at pin 27. It decides the direction of data flow through the transceiver. When it is high, data is transmitted out and vice-a-versa.

M/IO: This signal is used to distinguish between memory and I/O operations. When it is high, it indicates I/O operation and when it is low indicates the memory operation. It is available at pin 28.

WR: It stands for write signal and is available at pin 29. It is used to write the data into the memory or the output device depending on the status of M/IO signal.

HLDA: It stands for Hold Acknowledgement signal and is available at pin 30. This signal acknowledges the HOLD signal.

HOLD: This signal indicates to the processor that external devices are requesting to access the address/data buses. It is available at pin 31.

QS1& QS0: These are queue status signals and are available at pin 24 and 25. These signals provide the status of instruction queue. Their conditions are shown in the following table:

QS ₁	QS ₀	Status
0	0	No operation
0	1	1 st byte of opcode from queue
1	0	Empty queue
1	1	Subsequent byte from queue

$\overline{S_0}$, $\overline{S_1}$, $\overline{S_2}$: These are the status signals that provide the status of operation, which is used by the Bus Controller 8288 to generate memory & I/O control signals. These are available at pin 26, 27, and 28. Following is the table showing their status:

$\overline{S_2}$	$\overline{S_1}$	$\overline{S_0}$	Status
0	0	0	Interrupt Acknowledge
0	0	1	I/O Read
0	1	0	I/O Write
0	1	1	Halt
1	0	0	Opcode Fetch
1	0	1	Memory Read
1	1	0	Memory Write
1	1	1	Passive

LOCK: When this signal is active, it indicates to the other processors not to ask the CPU to leave the system bus. It is activated using the LOCK prefix on any instruction and is available at pin 29.

RQ/GT1& RQ/GT0 : These are the Request/Grant signals used by the other processors requesting the CPU to release the system bus. When the signal is received by CPU, then it sends acknowledgment. RQ/GT0 has a higher priority than RQ/GT1.

Programming model of 8086: The programming model of a processor deals with internal registers, status and control flags, number of address lines, number of data lines and the input/output port addresses which are needed by the programmer to write the programs.

How can a 20-bit address be obtained, if there are only 16-bit registers? However, the largest register is only 16 bits (64k); so physical addresses have to be calculated.

These calculations are done in hardware within the microprocessor. The 16-bit contents of segment register gives the starting/ base address of particular segment. To address a specific memory location within a segment we need an offset address. The offset address is also 16-bit wide and it is provided by one of the associated pointer or index register.

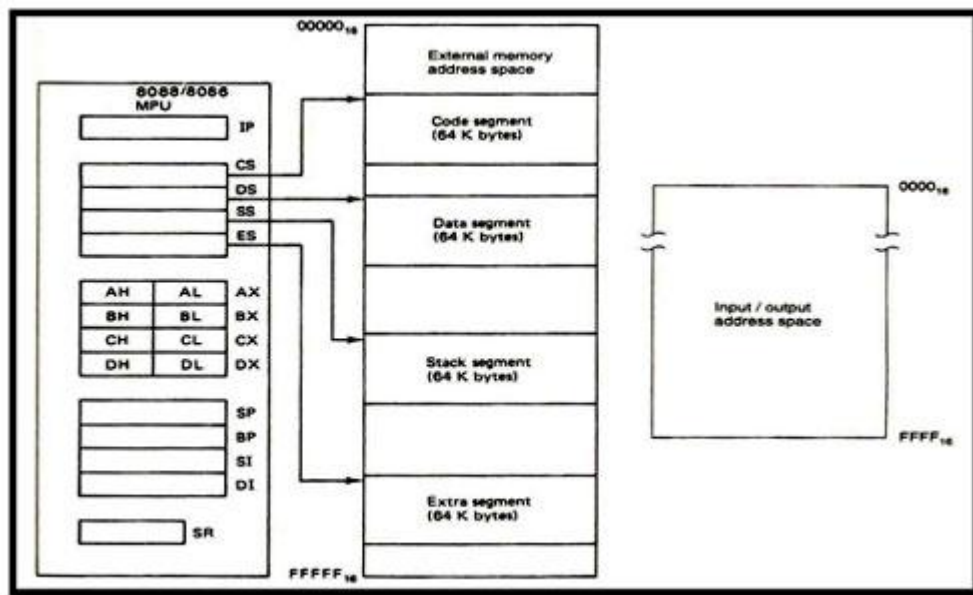


Figure: Software model of 8086 microprocessor

To be able to program a microprocessor, one does not need to know all of its hardware architectural features. What is important to the programmer is being aware of the various registers within the device and to understand their purpose, functions, operating capabilities, and limitations.

The above figure illustrates the software architecture of the 8086 microprocessor. From this diagram, we see that it includes fourteen 16-bit internal registers: the instruction pointer (IP), four data registers (AX, BX, CX, and DX), two pointer registers (BP and SP), two index registers (SI and DI), four segment registers (CS, DS, SS, and ES) and status register (SR), with nine of its bits implemented as status and control flags.

8086 Programming Model

BIU registers (20 bit adder)	ES		Extra Segment
	CS		Code Segment
	SS		Stack Segment
	DS		Data Segment
	IP		Instruction Pointer
EU registers	AX	AH AL	Accumulator
	BX	BH BL	Base Register
	CX	CH CL	Count Register
	DX	DH DL	Data Register
	SP		Stack Pointer
	BP		Base Pointer
	SI		Source Index Register
	DI		Destination Index Register
	FLAGS		

The point to note is that the beginning segment address must begin at an address divisible by 16. Also note that the four segments need not be defined separately. It is allowable for all four segments to completely overlap ($CS = DS = ES = SS$).

REGISTER ORGANISATION:

A register is a very small amount of fast memory that is built in the CPU (or Processor) in order to speed up the operation. Register is very fast and efficient than the other memories like RAM, ROM, external memory etc.,. That's why the registers occupied the top position in memory hierarchy model.

The 8086 microprocessor has a total of fourteen registers that are accessible to the programmer. All these registers are 16-bit in size. The registers of 8086 are categorized into 5 different groups.

- a) General registers
- b) Index registers
- c) Segment registers
- d) Pointer registers
- e) Status Register

S.No	Type	Register width	Name of the Registers
1	General purpose Registers(4)	16-bit	AX,BX,CX,DX
		8-bit	AL,AH,BL,BH,CL,CH,DL,DH
2	Pointer Registers	16-bit	Stack Pointer(SP) Base Pointer(BP)
3	Index Registers	16-bit	Source Index(SI) Destination Index(DI)
4	Segment Registers	16-bit	Code Segment(CS) Data Segment(DS) Stack Segment(SS) Extra Segment(ES)
5	Flag (PSW)	16-bit	Flag Register

a) General purpose Registers:

All general registers of the 8086 microprocessor can be used for arithmetic and logic operations. These all general registers can be used as either 8-bit or 16-bit registers. The general registers are:

AX (Accumulator): AX is used as 16-bit accumulator. The lower 8-bits of AX are designated to use as AL and higher 8-bits as AH. AL can be used as an 8-bit accumulator for 8-bit operation.

This Accumulator used in arithmetic, logic and data transfer operations. For manipulation and division operations, one of the numbers must be placed in AX or AL.

BX (Base Register): BX is a 16 bit register, but BL indicates the lower 8-bits of BX and BH indicates the higher 8-bits of BX. The register BX is used as address register to form physical address in case of certain addressing modes (ex: indexed and register indirect).

CX (Count Register): The register CX is used default counter in case of string and loop instructions. Count register can also be used as a counter in string manipulation and shift/rotate instruction.

		15	8	7	0	
Accumulator	AX	AH		AL		Multiply, divide, I/O
Base	BX	BH		BL		Pointer to base address (data)
Count	CX	CH		CL		Count for loops, shifts
Data	DX	DH		DL		Multiply, divide, I/O

General Purpose Registers

DX (Data Register): DX register is a general purpose register which may be used as an implicit operand or destination in case of a few instructions. Data register can also be used as a port number in I/O operations.

Segment Register:

The 8086 architecture uses the concept of segmented memory. 8086 can able to access a memory capacity of up to 1 megabyte. This 1 megabyte of memory is divided into 16 logical segments. Each segment contains 64 Kbytes of memory.

Code Segment	CS	
Data Segment	DS	
Stack Segment	SS	
Extra Segment	ES	

Segment Registers

This memory segmentation concept will discuss later in this document. There are four segment registers to access this 1 megabyte of memory. The segment registers of 8086 are:

CS(Code Segment): Code segment (CS) is a 16-bit register that is used for addressing memory location in the code segment of the memory (64Kb), where the executable program is stored. CS register cannot be changed directly. The CS register is automatically updated during far jump, far call and far return instructions.

Stack segment (SS): Stack Segment (SS) is a 16-bit register that used for addressing stack segment of the memory (64kb) where stack data is stored. SS register can be changed directly using POP instruction.

Data segment (DS): Data Segment (DS) is a 16-bit register that points the data segment of the memory (64kb) where the program data is stored. DS register can be changed directly using POP and LDS instructions.

Extra segment (ES): Extra Segment (ES) is a 16-bit register that also points the data segment of the memory (64kb) where the program data is stored. ES register can be changed directly using POP and LES instructions.

b) Index Registers:

The index registers can be used for arithmetic operations but their use is usually concerned with the memory addressing modes of the 8086 microprocessor (indexed, base indexed and relative base indexed addressing modes).

The index registers are particularly useful for string manipulation.

SI (Source Index):

SI is a 16-bit register. This register is used to store the offset of source data in data segment. In other words the Source Index Register is used to point the memory locations in the data segment.

DI (Destination Index):

DI is a 16-bit register. This is destination index register performs the same function as SI. There is a class of instructions called string operations that use DI to access the memory locations in Data or Extra Segment.

c) Pointer Registers:

Pointer Registers contains the offset of data(variables, labels) and instructions from their base segments (default segments).8086 microprocessor contains three pointer registers.



SP (Stack Pointer): Stack Pointer register points the program stack that means SP stores the base address of the Stack Segment.

BP (Base Pointer): Base Pointer register also points the same stack segment. Unlike SP, we can use BP to access data in the other segments also.

IP (Instruction Pointer):

The Instruction Pointer is a register that holds the address of the next instruction to be fetched from memory. It contains the offset of the next word of instruction code instead of its actual address

d) Status Register or Flag Register:

The status register also called as flag register. The 8086 flag register contents indicate the results of computation in the ALU. It also contains some flag bits to control the CPU operations.

It is a 16 bit register which contains six status flags and three control flags. So, only nine bits of the 16 bit register are defined and the remaining seven bits are undefined. Normally this status flag bits indicate the status of the ALU after the arithmetic or logical operations. Each bit of the status register is a flip/flop. The Flag register contains Carry flag, Parity flag, Auxiliary flag Zero flag, Sign flag ,Trap flag, Interrupt flag, Direction

flag and overflow flag as shown in the diagram. The CF,PF,AF,ZF,SF,OF are the status flags and the TF,IF and CF are the control flags.

X	X	X	X	OF	DF	IF	TF	SF	ZF	X	AF	X	PF	X	CF
---	---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	---	----	---	----	---	----

CF- Carry Flag: This flag is set, when there is a carry out of MSB in case of addition or a borrow in case of subtraction.

PF - Parity Flag : This flag is set to 1, if the lower byte of the result contains even number of 1's else (for odd number of 1s) set to zero.

AF- Auxilary Carry Flag: This is set, if there is a carry from the lowest nibble, i.e, bit three during addition, or borrow for the lowest nibble, i.e, bit three, during subtraction.

ZF- Zero Flag: This flag is set, if the result of the computation or comparison performed by the previous instruction is zero

SF- Sign Flag : This flag is set, when the result of any computation is negative

TF - Tarp Flag: If this flag is set, the processor enters the single step execution mode.

IF- Interrupt Flag: If this flag is set, the maskable interrupt INTR of 8086 is enabled and if it is zero ,the interrupt is disabled. It can be set by using the STI instruction and can be cleared by executing CLI instruction.

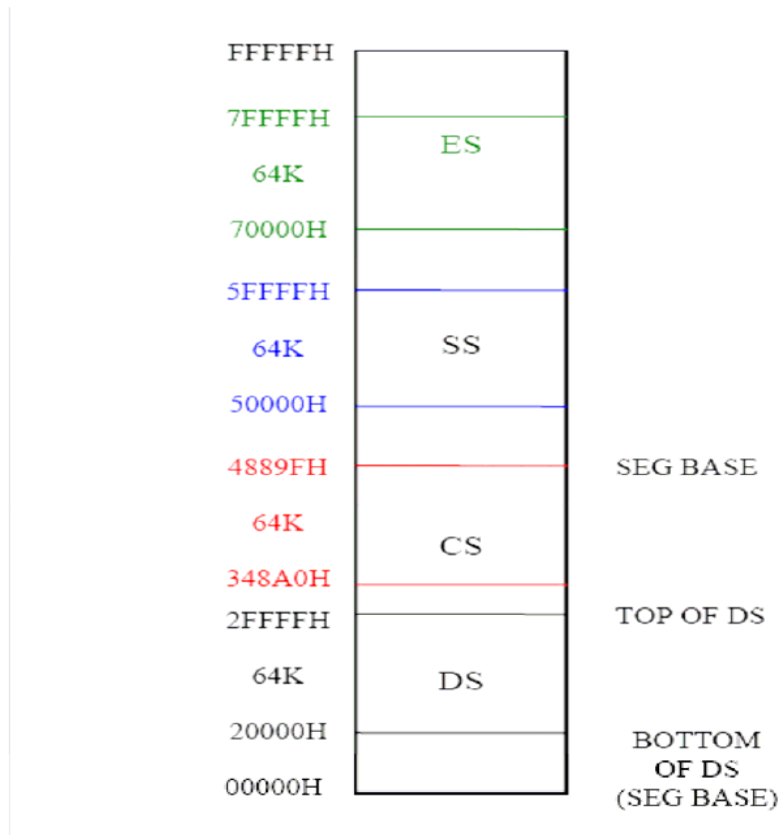
DF- Direction Flag: This is used by string manipulation instructions. If this flag bit is '0', the string is processed beginning from the lowest address to the highest address, i.e., auto incrementing mode. Otherwise, the string is processed from the highest address towards the lowest address, i.e., auto decrementing mode.

OF- Over flow Flag: This flag is set, if an overflow occurs, i.e, if the result of a signed operation is large enough to accommodate in a destination register. The result is of

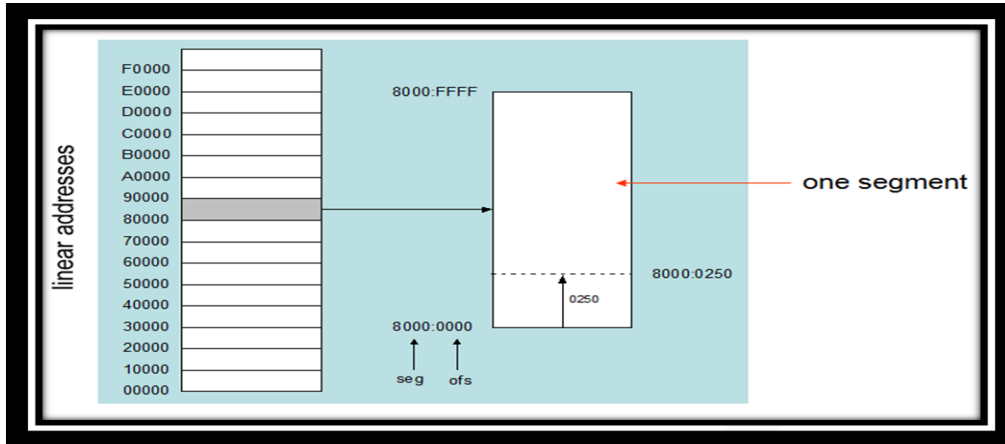
more than 7-bits in size in case of 8-bit signed operation and more than 15-bits in size in case of 16-bit sign operations, then the overflow will be set.

MEMORY SEGMENTATION:

- It is the process in which the main memory of computer is divided into different segments and each segment has its own base address.



- Segmentation is used to increase the execution speed of computer system so that processor can able to fetch and execute the data from memory easily and fastly.
- The size of address bus of 8086 is 20 and is able to address 1 Mbytes of physical memory.
- The complete 1 Mbytes memory can be divided into 16 segments, each of 64 Kbytes size.
- The addresses of the segment may be assigned as 0000H to F000H respectively.
- The offset values are from 0000H to FFFFFH.



Types of Segmentation:

1. Overlapping Segment:

- A segment starts at a particular address and its maximum size can go up to 64 Kbytes. But if another segment starts along this 64 Kbytes location of the first segment, the two segments are said to be overlapping segment.
- The area of memory from the start of the second segment to the possible end of the first segment is called as overlapped segment
- **Non Overlapped Segment:** A segment starts at a particular address and its maximum size can go up to 64 Kbytes. But if another segment starts before this 64 Kbytes location of the first segment, the two segments are said to be Non-overlapping segment.

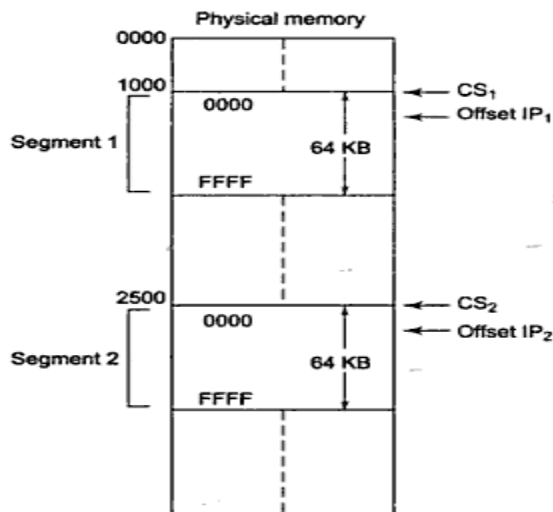


Fig. 1.3(a) Non-overlapping Segments

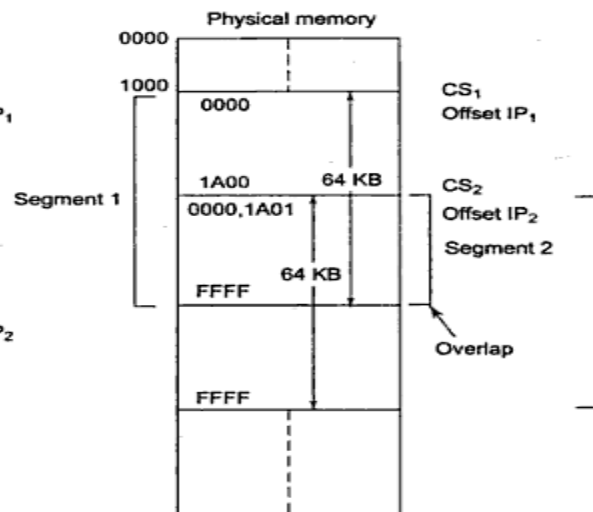


Fig. 1.3(b) Overlapping Segments

Advantages of Segmented memory:

- Allows the memory capacity to be 1MB although the actual addresses to be handled are of 16 bit size.
- Allows the placing of code, data and stack portions of the same program in different parts (segments) of the memory, for data and code protection.
- Permits a program and/or its data to be put into different areas of memory each time program is executed, i.e. provision for relocation may be done.
- The segment registers are used to allow the instruction, data or stack portion of a program to be more than 64Kbytes long. The above can be achieved by using more than one code, data or stack segments.

Addressing Modes of 8086:

Addressing mode indicates a way of locating data or operands. Depending up on the data type used in the instruction and the memory addressing modes, any instruction may belong to one or more addressing modes or same instruction may not belong to any of the addressing modes.

The addressing mode describes the types of operands and the way they are accessed for executing an instruction. According to the flow of instruction execution, the instructions may be categorized as

1. Sequential control flow instructions and**2. Control transfer instructions.**

Sequential control flow instructions are the instructions in which after execution of current instruction, control will be transferred to the next instruction appearing immediately after it (in the sequence) in the program. For example the arithmetic, logic, data transfer and processor control instructions are Sequential control flow instructions.

The control transfer instructions on the other hand transfer control to some predefined address or the address somehow specified in the instruction, after their execution. For example INT, CALL, RET & JUMP instructions fall under this category.

The addressing modes for Sequential and control flow instructions are explained as follows.

1. Immediate addressing mode: In this type of addressing, immediate data is a part of instruction, and appears in the form of successive byte or bytes.

Example: MOV AX, 0005H.

In the above example, 0005H is the immediate data. The immediate data may be 8-bit or 16-bit in size.

2. Direct addressing mode: In the direct addressing mode, a 16-bit memory address (offset) directly specified in the instruction as a part of it.

Example: MOV AX, [5000H].

3. Register addressing mode: In the register addressing mode, the data is stored in a register and it is referred using the particular register. All the registers, except IP, may be used in this mode.

Example: MOV BX, AX

4. Register indirect addressing mode: Sometimes, the address of the memory location which contains data or operands is determined in an indirect way, using the offset registers. The mode of addressing is known as register indirect mode.

In this addressing mode, the offset address of data is in either BX or SI or DI Register. The default segment is either DS or ES.

Example: MOV AX, [BX].

5. Indexed addressing mode: In this addressing mode, offset of the operand is stored one of the index registers. DS & ES are the default segments for index registers SI & DI respectively.

Example: MOV AX, [SI]

Here, data is available at an offset address stored in SI in DS.

6. Register relative addressing mode: In this addressing mode, the data is available at an effective address formed by adding an 8-bit or 16-bit displacement with the content of any one of the register BX, BP, SI & DI in the default (either in DS & ES) segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX]

7. Based indexed addressing mode: The effective address of data is formed in this addressing mode, by adding content of a base register (any one of BX or BP) to the

content of an index register (any one of SI or DI). The default segment register may be ES or DS.

Example: MOV AX, [BX][SI]

8. Relative based indexed: The effective address is formed by adding an 8 or 16-bit displacement with the sum of contents of any of the base registers (BX or BP) and any one of the index registers, in a default segment.

Example: MOV AX, 50H [BX] [SI]

For the control transfer instructions, the addressing modes depend upon whether the destination location is within the same segment or in a different one. It also depends upon the method of passing the destination address to the processor. Basically, there are two addressing modes for the control transfer instructions, viz. intersegment and intrasegment addressing modes.

If the location to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment other than the current one, the mode is called intersegment mode. If the destination location lies in the same segment, the mode is called intrasegment mode.

Addressing Modes for control transfer instructions:

9. Intersegment

- a) Intersegment direct b) Intersegment indirect

10 Intrasegment

- a) Intrasegment direct b) Intrasegment indirect

9. (a) Intersegment direct: In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred is in a different segment. This addressing mode provides a means of branching from one code segment to another code segment. Here, the CS and IP of the destination address are specified directly in the instruction.

Example: JMP 5000H, 2000H;

Jump to effective address 2000H in segment 5000H.

9. (b) Intersegment indirect: In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in a different segment and it is passed to the instruction indirectly, i.e. contents of a memory block containing four bytes, i.e. IP(LSB), IP(MSB), CS(LSB) and

CS(MSB) sequentially. The starting address of the memory block may be referred using any of the addressing modes, except immediate mode.

Example: JMP [2000H].

Jump to an address in the other segment specified at effective address 2000H in DS.

10.(a) Intrasegment direct mode: In this mode, the address to which the control is to be transferred lies in the same segment in which the control transfers instruction lies and appears directly in the instruction as an immediate displacement value. In this addressing mode, the displacement is computed relative to the content of the instruction pointer.

The effective address to which the control will be transferred is given by the sum of 8 or 16 bit displacement and current content of IP. In case of jump instruction, if the signed displacement (d) is of 8-bits (i.e. $-128 < d < +127$), it is a short jump and if it is of 16 bits (i.e. $-32768 < d < +32767$), it is termed as long jump.

Example: JMP SHORT LABEL.

10.(b) Intrasegment indirect mode: In this mode, the displacement to which the control is to be transferred is in the same segment in which the control transfer instruction lies, but it is passed to the instruction indirectly. Here, the branch address is found as the content of a register or a memory location. This addressing mode may be used in unconditional branch instructions.

Example: JMP [BX]; Jump to effective address stored in BX.

Instruction set of 8086

The Instruction set of 8086 microprocessor is classified into 8, they are:-

- **Data transfer instructions**
- **Arithmetic instructions**
- **Logical instructions**
- **Shift / rotate instructions**
- **Flag manipulation instructions**
- **Program control transfer instructions**
- **Machine Control Instructions**
- **String instructions**

Data Transfer Instructions:

Data transfer instruction, as the name suggests is for the transfer of data from memory to internal register, from internal register to memory, from one register to another register, from input port to internal register, from internal register to output port etc

1. MOV instruction:

It is a general purpose instruction to transfer byte or word from register to register, memory to register, register to memory or with immediate addressing.

Syntax:

MOV destination, source

Here the source and destination needs to be of the same size, that is both 8 bit and both 16 bit.

MOV instruction does not affect any flags.

Example:-

MOV BX, 00F2H ; load the immediate number 00F2H in BX register

MOV CL, [2000H] ; Copy the 8 bit content of the memory location, at a displacement of 2000H from data segment base to the CL register

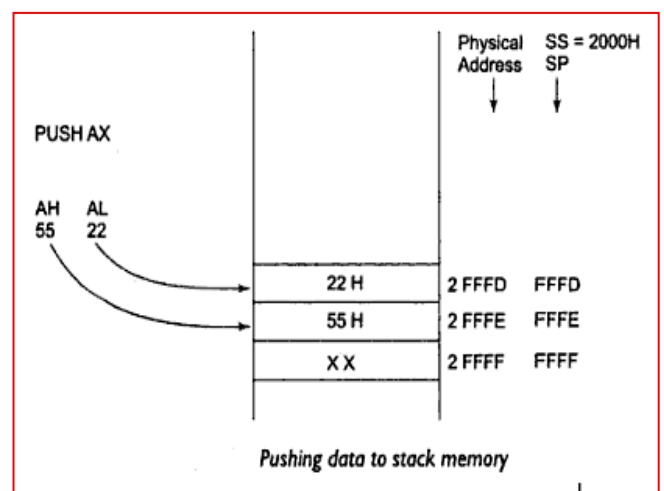
MOV [589H], BX ; Copy the 16 bit content of BX register on to the memory location, which at a displacement of 589H from the data segment base.

MOV DS, CX ; Move the content of CX to DS

2. PUSH instruction

The PUSH instruction decrements the stack pointer by two and copies the word from source to the location where stack pointer now points. Here the source must of word size data. Source can be a general purpose register, segment register or a memory location.

The PUSH instruction first pushes the most significant byte to sp-1, then the least significant to the sp-2.



Push instruction does not affect any flags.

Example:-

PUSH AX ; Decrements SP by 2, copy content of AX to the stack

(figure shows execution of this instruction)

PUSH DS ; Decrement SP by 2 and copy DS to stack

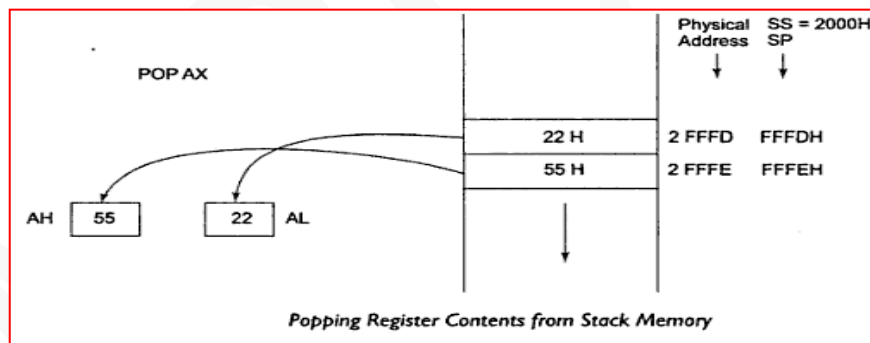
3. POP instruction:

The POP instruction copies a word from the stack location pointed by the stack pointer to the destination. The destination can be a General purpose register, a segment register or a memory location. Here after the content is copied the stack pointer is automatically incremented by two.

The execution pattern is similar to that of the PUSH instruction.

Example:

POP AX ; Copy a word from the top of the stack to CX and increment SP by 2.



4. IN & OUT instructions:

The IN instruction will copy data from a port to the accumulator. If 8 bit is read the data will go to AL and if 16 bit then to AX. Similarly OUT instruction is used to copy data from accumulator to an output port.

Both IN and OUT instructions can be done using direct and indirect addressing modes.

Example:

IN AL, 0F8H ; Copy a byte from the port 0F8H to AL

MOV DX, 30F8H ; Copy port address in DX

IN AL, DX	;	Move 8 bit data from 30F8H port
IN AX, DX	;	Move 16 bit data from 30F8H port
OUT 047H, AL	;	Copy contents of AL to 8 bit port 047H
MOV DX, 30F8H	;	Copy port address in DX
OUT DX, AL	;	Move 8 bit data to the 30F8H port
OUT DX, AX	;	Move 16 bit data to the 30F8H port

5. XCHG instruction

The XCHG instruction exchanges contents of the destination and source. Here destination and source can be register and register or register and memory location, but XCHG cannot interchange the value of 2 memory locations.

Syntax:

XCHG Destination, Source

Example:

XCHG BX, CX ; exchange word in CX with the word in BX

XCHG AL, CL ; exchange byte in CL with the byte in AL

6. LAHF: Load (copy to) AH with the low byte the flag register.

[AH] ← [Flags low byte]

Eg. LAHF

7. SAHF: Store (copy) AH register to low byte of flag register.

[Flags low byte] ← [AH]

Eg. SAHF

8. PUSHF: Copy flag register to top of stack.

[SP] [SP] - 2

[SP] [Flags]

Eg. PUSHF

9. POPF : Copy word at top of stack to flag register.

[Flags] [SP]

[SP] [SP] + 2

Arithmetic Instructions:

The arithmetic and logic logical group of instruction include,

1. ADD instruction

Add instruction is used to add the current contents of destination with that of source and store the result in destination. Here we can use register and/or memory locations. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected

Syntaxat:

ADD Destination, Source

Example:

- ADD AL, 0FH ; Add the immediate content, 0FH to the content of AL and store the result in AL
- ADD AX, BX ; AX <= AX+BX
- ADD AX, 0100H ; IMMEDIATE
- ADD AX, BX ;REGISTER
- ADD AX, [SI] ; REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED
- ADD AX, [5000H] ;DIRECT

2. ADC: ADD WITH CARRY

This instruction performs the same operation as ADD instruction, but adds the carry flag bit (which may be set as a result of the previous calculation) to the result. All the condition code flags are affected by this instruction. The examples of this instruction along with the modes are as follows:

Example:

- ADC AX, BX – REGISTER
- ADC AX, [SI] – REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED
- ADC AX, [5000H] – DIRECT

3. SUB instruction:

SUB instruction is used to subtract the current contents of destination with that of source and store the result in destination. Here we can use register and/or memory locations. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected

Syntaxat:**SUB Destination, Source****Example:**

- SUB AL, 0FH ; subtract the immediate content, 0FH from the content of AL and store the result in AL
- SUB AX, BX ; AX <= AX-BX
- SUB AX, 0100H ; IMMEDIATE (DESTINATION AX)
- SUB AX, BX ; REGISTER
- SUB AX, [5000H] ; DIRECT

4. SBB: SUBTRACT WITH BORROW

The subtract with borrow instruction subtracts the source operand and the borrow flag (CF) which may reflect the result of the previous calculations, from the destination operand. Subtraction with borrow, here means subtracting 1 from the subtraction obtained by SUB, if carry (borrow) flag is set.

The result is stored in the destination operand. All the flags are affected (condition code) by this instruction. The examples of this instruction are as follows:

Example:

- SBB AX, 0100H ; IMMEDIATE (DESTINATION AX)
- SBB AX, BX ; REGISTER
- SBB AX, [5000H] ; DIRECT

5. CMP: COMPARE

The instruction compares the source operand, which may be a register or an immediate data or a memory location, with a destination operand that may be a register or a memory

location. For comparison, it subtracts the source operand from the destination operand but does not store the result anywhere. The flags are affected depending upon the result of the subtraction. If both of the operands are equal, zero flag is set. If the source operand is greater than the destination operand, carry flag is set or else, carry flag is reset. The examples of this instruction are as follows:

Example:

- `CMP BX,0100H` – IMMEDIATE
- `CMP AX,0100H` – IMMEDIATE
- `CMP BX,[SI]` – REGISTER INDIRECT OR INDEXED
- `CMP BX, CX` – REGISTER

6. INC & DEC instructions

INC and DEC instructions are used to increment and decrement the content of the specified destination by one. AF, CF, OF, PF, SF, and ZF flags are affected.

Example:

- `INC AL` • $AL \leq AL + 1$
- `INC AX` • $AX \leq AX + 1$
- `DEC AL` • $AL \leq AL - 1$
- `DEC AX` • $AX \leq AX - 1$

7. NEG : Negate

The negate instruction forms 2's complement of the specified destination in the instruction. The destination can be a register or a memory location. This instruction can be implemented by inverting each bit and adding 1 to it.

Eg. `NEG AL`

`AL = 0011 0101 35H` Replace number in AL with its 2's complement

`AL = 1100 1011 = CBH`

8. MUL :Unsigned Multiplication Byte or Word

This instruction multiplies an unsigned byte or word by the contents of AL.

Eg. `MUL BH` ; (AX) (AL) x (BH)
 `MUL CX` ; (DX)(AX) (AX) x (CX)

9. IMUL :Signed Multiplication

This instruction multiplies a signed byte in source operand by a signed byte in AL or a signed word in source operand by a signed word in AX.

Eg. IMUL BH
IMUL CX
IMUL [SI]

10. CBW : Convert Signed Byte to Word

This instruction copies the sign of a byte in AL to all the bits in AH. AH is then said to be sign extension of AL.

Eg. CBW

AX= 0000 0000 1001 1000 Convert signed byte in AL signed word in AX.

Result in AX = 1111 1111 1001 1000

11.CWD : Convert Signed Word to Double Word

This instruction copies the sign of a word in AX to all the bits in DX. DX is then said to be sign extension of AX.

Eg. CWD

Convert signed word in AX to signed double word in DX : AX

DX= 1111 1111 1111 1111

Result in AX = 1111 0000 1100 0001

12. DIV : Unsigned division

This instruction is used to divide an unsigned word by a byte or to divide an unsigned double word by a word.

Eg. DIV CL ; Word in AX / byte in CL
; Quotient in AL, remainder in AH
DIV CX ; **Double word in DX and AX / word**
; in CX, and Quotient in AX,
; remainder in DX

Logical Instructions:**1. AND instruction**

This instruction logically ANDs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.

The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.

Syntax:**AND Destination, Source****Example:**

AND BL, AL ; suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100 1010 then after the operation BL would be BL= 1000 0010.

AND CX, AX ; CX <= CX AND AX

AND CL, 08H ; CL<= CL AND (0000 1000)

2. OR instruction:

This instruction logically ORs each bit of the source byte/word with the corresponding bit in the destination and stores the result in destination. The source can be an immediate number, register or memory location, register can be a register or memory location.

The CF and OF flags are both made zero, PF, ZF, SF are affected by the operation and AF is undefined.

Syntax:**OR Destination, Source****Example:**

OR BL, AL ; suppose BL=1000 0110 and AL = 1100 1010 then after the operation BL would be BL= 1100 1110.

OR CX, AX ; CX <= CX AND AX

OR CL, 08H ; CL<= CL AND (0000 1000)

3. NOT instruction:

The NOT instruction complements (inverts) the contents of an operand register or a memory location, bit by bit. The examples are as follows:

Example:

NOT AX (BEFORE AX= (1011)₂= 0BH ; AFTER EXECUTION AX= (0100)₂= 04H.

4. XOR instruction

The XOR operation is again carried out in a similar way to the AND and OR operation. The constraints on the operands are also similar. The XOR operation gives a

high output, when the 2 input bits are dissimilar. Otherwise, the output is zero. The example instructions are as follows:

Example: XOR AX, 0098H

XOR AX, BX

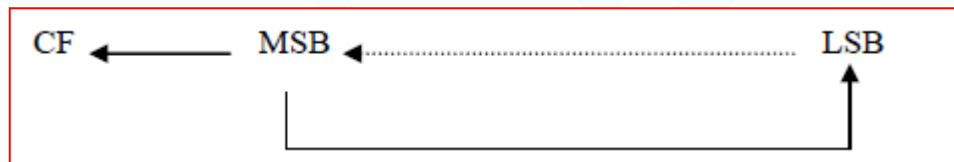
5. TEST : Logical Compare Instruction

The TEST instruction performs a bit by bit logical AND operation on the two operands. The result of this ANDing operation is not available for further use, but flags are affected.

Eg. TEST AX, BX

Shift / Rotate Instructions:

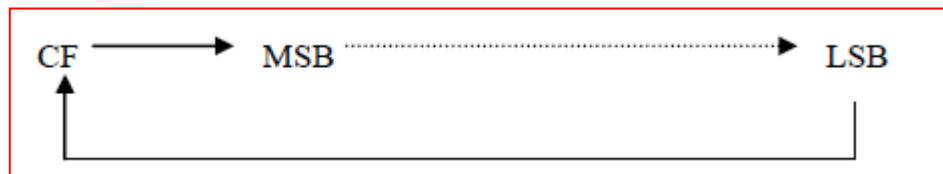
1. ROL – Rotate Left : This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified word or byte to the left some number of bit positions. The data bit rotated out of MSB is circled back into the LSB. It is also copied into CF. In the case of multiple-bit rotate, CF will contain a copy of the bit most recently moved out of the MSB.



Syntax: ROL Destination, Count

Example: ROL AX, 1

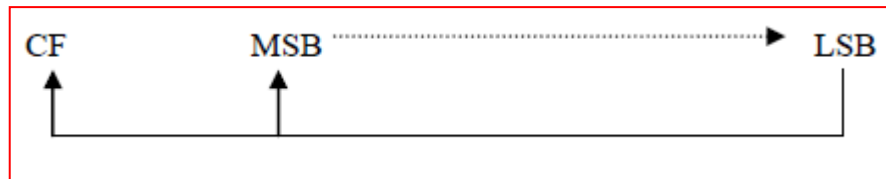
2. RCL: Rotate Left through carry: This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified word or byte some number of bit positions to the right. The operation is circular because the LSB of the operand is rotated into the carry flag and the bit in the carry flag is rotated around into MSB of the operand.



Syntax: RCL Destination, Count

Example: RCL AX, 1

3.ROR:Rotate Right: This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified word or byte some number of bit positions to right. The operation is desired as a rotate rather than shift, because the bit moved out of the LSB is rotated around into the MSB. The data bit moved out of the LSB is also copied into CF. In the case of multiple bit rotates, CF will contain a copy of the bit most recently moved out of the LSB.

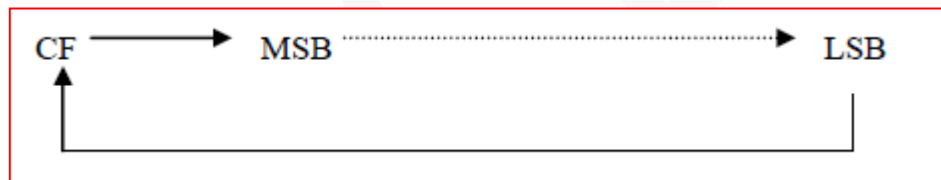


Syntax: ROR Destination, Count

Example: ROR AX, 1

4.RCR: Rotate Right through: This instruction rotates all the bits in a specified word or byte some number of bit positions to the right. The operation circular because the LSB of the operand is rotated into the carry flag and the bit in the carry flag is rotate around into MSB of

the
operand.



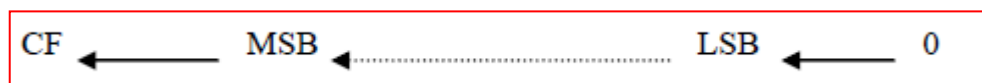
Syntax: RCR Destination, Count

Example: RCR AX, 1

5. SHL: Shift Logical Left

SAL: Shift arithmetic left

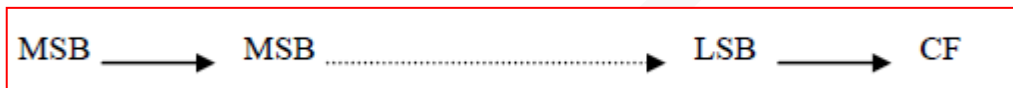
SAL and SHL are two mnemonics for the same instruction. This instruction shifts each bit in the specified destination some number of bit positions to the left. As a bit is shifted out of the LSB operation, a 0 is put in the LSB position. The MSB will be shifted into CF. Bits shifted into CF previously will be lost.



Syntax: SHL/SAL Destination, Count

Example: SHL/SAL AX, 1

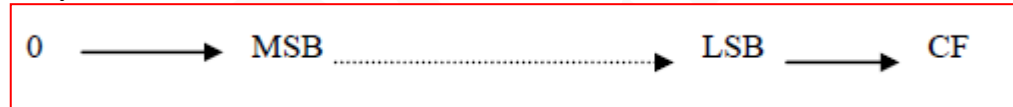
6.SAR: Shift arithmetic right: This instruction shifts each bit in the specified destination some number of bit positions to the right. As a bit is shifted out of the MSB position, a copy of the old MSB is put in the MSB position. In other words, the sign bit is copied into the MSB. The LSB will be shifted into CF. In the case of multiple-bit shift, CF will contain the bit most recently shifted out from the LSB. Bits shifted into CF previously will be lost.



Syntax: SAR Destination, Count

Example: SAR AX, 1

7. SHR: Shift Logical Right: This instruction shifts each bit in the specified destination some number of bit positions to the right. As a bit is shifted out of the MSB position, a 0 is put in its place. The bit shifted out of the LSB position goes to CF. In the case of multi-bit shifts, CF will contain the bit most recently shifted out from the LSB. Bits shifted into CF previously will be lost.



Syntax: SHR Destination, Count

Example: SHR AX, 1

Flag Manipulation Instructions:

The following instructions are used to manipulate the some of the flags

1. STC: SET CARRY FLAG

This instruction sets the carry flag to 1. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: STC

2. CLC: CLEAR CARRY FLAG

This instruction resets the carry flag to 0. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: CLC

3. CMC: COMPLEMENT CARRY FLAG

This instruction complements the carry flag. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: CMC

4. STD: SET DIRECTION FLAG

This instruction sets the direction flag to 1. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: STD

5. CLD: CLEAR DIRECTION FLAG

This instruction resets the direction flag to 0. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: CLD

6. STI : SET INTERRUPT FLAG

Setting the interrupt flag to a 1 enables the INTR interrupt input of the 8086. The instruction will not take effect until the next instruction after STI. When the INTR input is enabled, an interrupt signal on this input will then cause the 8086 to interrupt program execution, push the return address and flags on the stack, and execute an interrupt service procedure. An IRET instruction at the end of the interrupt service procedure will restore the return address and flags that were pushed onto the stack and return execution to the interrupted program. STI does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: STI

7. CLI : CLEAR INTERRUPT FLAG

This instruction resets the interrupt flag to 0. If the interrupt flag is reset, the 8086 will not respond to an interrupt signal on its INTR input. The CLI instructions, however, has no effect on the non-maskable interrupt input, NMI. It does not affect any other flag.

Syntax: CLI

Machine Control Instructions**1. HLT instruction**

The HLT instruction will cause the 8086 microprocessor stop fetching and executing instructions. The 8086 will enter a halt state. The processor gets out of this Halt signal upon an interrupt signal in INTR pin/NMI pin or a reset signal on RESET input.

Syntax :- HLT

2. WAIT instruction

When this instruction is executed, the 8086 enters into an idle state. This idle state is continued till a high is received on the TEST input pin or a valid interrupt signal is

received. Wait affects no flags. It generally is used to synchronize the 8086 with a peripheral device(s).

Syntax :- WAIT

3. ESC instruction

This instruction is used to pass instruction to a coprocessor like 8087. There is a 6 bit instruction for the coprocessor embedded in the ESC instruction. In most cases the 8086 treats ESC and a NOP, but in some cases the 8086 will access data items in memory for the coprocessor

Syntax :- ESC

4. LOCK instruction

In multiprocessor environments, the different microprocessors share a system bus, which is needed to access external devices like disks. LOCK Instruction is given as prefix in the case when a processor needs exclusive access of the system bus for a particular instruction. It affects no flags.

Example:

LOCK XCHG SEMAPHORE, AL : The XCHG instruction requires two bus accesses. The lock prefix prevents another processor from taking control of the system bus between the 2 accesses

5. NOP instruction:

At the end of NOP instruction, no operation is done other than the fetching and decoding of the instruction. It takes 3 clock cycles. NOP is used to fill in time delays or to provide space for instructions while trouble shooting. NOP affects no flags

Syntax :- NOP

Program control transfer instructions

There are 2 types of such instructions. They are:

- 1. Unconditional transfer instructions – CALL, RET, JMP**
- 2. Conditional transfer instructions – Jump on condition**

1. Unconditional transfer instructions:

(a). CALL instruction: The CALL instruction is used to transfer execution to a subprogram or procedure. There are two types of CALL instructions, near and far.

A **near CALL** is a call to a procedure which is in the same code segment as the CALL instruction. 8086 when encountered a near call, it decrements the SP by 2 and copies the offset of the next instruction after the CALL on the stack. It loads the IP with the offset of the procedure then to start the execution of the procedure.

A **far CALL** is the call to a procedure residing in a different segment. Here value of CS and offset of the next instruction both are backed up in the stack. And then branches to the procedure by changing the content of CS with the segment base containing procedure and IP with the offset of the first instruction of the procedure.

Example:

Near call

CALL PRO ; PRO is the name of the procedure

CALL CX ; Here CX contains the offset of the first instruction of the procedure, that is replaces the content of IP with the content of CX

Far call

CALL DWORD PTR[8X] ; New values for CS and IP are fetched from four memory locations in the DS. The new value for CS is fetched from [8X] and [8X+1], the new IP is fetched from [8X+2] and [8X+3].

(b). RET instruction

RET instruction will return execution from a procedure to the next instruction after the CALL instruction in the calling program. If it was a near call, then IP is replaced with the value at the top of the stack, if it had been a far call, then another POP of the stack is required. This second popped data from the stack is put in the CS, thus resuming the execution of the calling program passed.

A RET instruction can be followed by a number, to specify the parameters

RET instruction does not affect any flags.

General format: RET**Example:**

```
p1 PROC      ; procedure declaration.  
MOV AX, 1234h ;  
RET          ; return to caller.  
p1 ENDP
```

(c) **JMP instruction:** This is also called as unconditional jump instruction, because the processor jumps to the specified location rather than the instruction after the JMP instruction. Jumps can be **short jumps** when the target address is in the same segment as the JMP instruction or **far jumps** when it is in a different segment.

General Format: JMP <target address>

2. Conditional transfer instructions – Jump on condition: Conditional jumps are always short jumps in 8086. Here jump is done only if the condition specified is true/false. If the condition is not satisfied, then the execution proceeds in the normal way.

Example: There are many conditional jump instructions like

JC : Jump on carry (CF=set)

JNC : Jump on non carry (CF=reset)

JZ : Jump on zero (ZF=set)

JNO : Jump on overflow (OF=set)

Iteration control(LOOP) instructions :

These instructions are used to execute a series of instructions some number of times. The number is specified in the CX register, which will be automatically decremented in course of iteration. But here the destination address for the jump must be in the range of -128 to 127 bytes.

Example: Instructions here are:-

LOOP : loop through the set of instructions until CX is 0

LOOPE/LOOPZ : here the set of instructions are repeated until CX=0 or ZF=0

LOOPNE/LOOPNZ: here repeated until CX=0 or ZF=1

String Instructions

1. MOVS/MOVSMB/MOVSX: These instructions copy a word or byte from a location in the data segment to a location in the extra segment. The offset of the source is in SI and that of destination is in DI. For multiple word/byte transfers the count is stored in the CX register.

When direction flag is 0, SI and DI are incremented and when it is 1, SI and DI are decremented.

MOVS affect no flags. MOVSMB is used for byte sized movements while MOVSX is for word sized.

2. REP/REPE/REP2/REPNE/REPZ

REP is used with string instruction; it repeats an instruction until the specified condition becomes false. **Example:**

REP	=>	CX=0
REPE/REPZ	=>	CX=0 OR ZF=0
REPNE/REPZ	=>	CX=0 OR ZF=1

3. LODS/LODSB/LODSX :

This instruction copies a byte from a string location pointed to by SI to AL or a word from a string location pointed to by SI to AX. LODS does not affect any flags. LODSB copies byte and LODSX copies word.

4. STOS/STOSB/STOSX :

The STOS instruction is used to store a byte/word contained in AL/AX to the offset contained in the DI register. STOS does not affect any flags. After copying the content DI is automatically incremented or decremented, based on the value of direction flag

5. CMPS/CMPSB/CMPSX

CMPS is used to compare the strings, byte wise or word wise. The comparison is affected by subtraction of content pointed by DI from that pointed by SI. The AF, CF, OF, PF, SF and ZF flags are affected by this instruction, but neither operand is affected.

INTEL 8051 MICRCONTROLLER

Introduction: A decade back the process and control operations were totally implemented by the Microprocessors only. But now a days the situation is totally changed and it is occupied by the new devices called Microcontroller. The development is so drastic that we can't find any electronic gadget without the use of a microcontroller. This microcontroller changed the embedded system design so simple and advanced that the embedded market has become one of the most sought after for not only entrepreneurs but for design engineers also.

What is a Microcontroller?

A single chip computer or A CPU with all the peripherals like RAM, ROM, I/O Ports, Timers, ADCs etc... on the same chip. For ex: Motorola's 6811, Intel's 8051, Zilog's Z8 and PIC 16X etc...

MICROPROCESSORS & MICROCONTROLLERS:

Microprocessor: A CPU built into a single VLSI chip is called a microprocessor. It is a general-purpose device and additional external circuitry are added to make it a microcomputer. The microprocessor contains arithmetic and logic unit (ALU), Instruction decoder and control unit, Instruction register, Program counter (PC), clock circuit (internal or external), reset circuit (internal or external) and registers. But the microprocessor has no on chip I/O Ports, Timers, Memory etc.

For example, Intel 8085 is an 8-bit microprocessor and Intel 8086/8088 a 16-bit microprocessor. The block diagram of the Microprocessor is shown in Fig.1

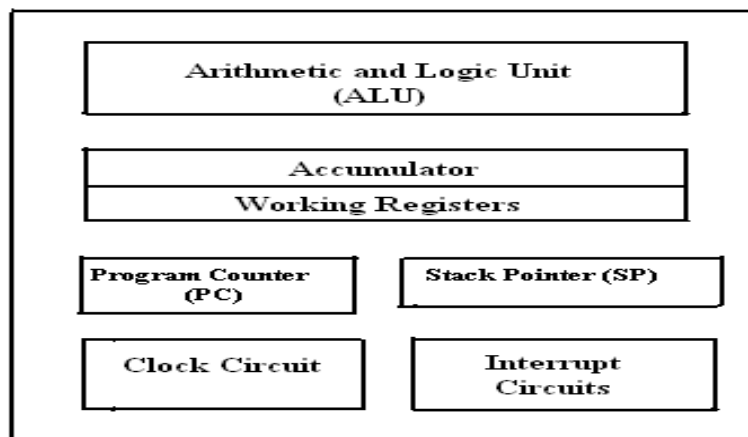


Fig.1 Block diagram of a Microprocessor.

MICROCONTROLLER :

A microcontroller is a highly integrated single chip, which consists of on chip CPU (Central Processing Unit), RAM (Random Access Memory), EPROM/PROM/ROM (Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory), I/O (input/output) – serial and parallel, timers, interrupt controller. For example, Intel 8051 is 8-bit microcontroller and Intel 8096 is 16-bit microcontroller. The block diagram of Microcontroller is shown in Fig.2.

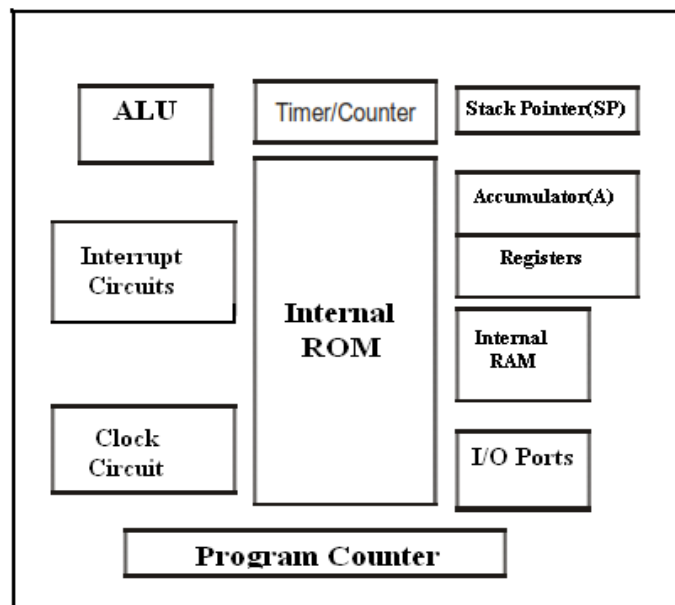


Fig.2. Block Diagram of a Microcontroller

Distinguish between Microprocessor and Microcontroller

S.No	Microprocessor	Microcontroller
1	A microprocessor is a general purpose device which is called a CPU	A microcontroller is a dedicated chip which is also called single chip computer.
2	A microprocessor do not contain onchip I/OPorts, Timers, Memories etc..	A microcontroller includes RAM, ROM, serial and parallel interface, timers, interrupt circuitry (in addition to CPU) in a single chip.
3	Microprocessors are most commonly used as the CPU in microcomputer systems	Microcontrollers are used in small, minimum component designs performing control-oriented applications.
4	Microprocessor instructions are mainly nibble or byte addressable	Microcontroller instructions are both bit addressable as well as byte addressable.
5	Microprocessor instruction sets are mainly intended for catering to large volumes of data.	Microcontrollers have instruction sets catering to the control of inputs and outputs.
6	Microprocessor based system design is complex and expensive	Microcontroller based system design is rather simple and cost effective
7	The Instruction set of microprocessor is complex with large number of instructions.	The instruction set of a Microcontroller is very simple with less number of instructions. For, ex: PIC microcontrollers have only 35 instructions.
8	A microprocessor has zero status flag	A microcontroller has no zero flag.

INTEL 8051 MICROCONTROLLER:

The 8051 microcontroller is a very popular 8-bit microcontroller introduced by Intel in the year 1981 and it has become almost the academic standard now a days. The 8051 is based on an 8-bit CISC core with Harvard architecture. Its 8-bit architecture is optimized for control applications with extensive Boolean processing. It is available as a 40-pin DIP chip and works at +5 Volts DC. The salient features of 8051 controller are given below.

SALIENT FEATURES: The salient features of 8051 Microcontroller are

1. 4 KB on chip program memory (ROM or EPROM).
2. 128 bytes on chip data memory(RAM).
3. 8-bit data bus
4. 16-bit address bus
5. 32 general purpose registers each of 8 bits
6. Two -16 bit timers T_0 and T_1
7. Five Interrupts (3 internal and 2 external).
8. Four Parallel ports each of 8-bits (PORT0, PORT1, PORT2, PORT3) with a total of 32 I/O lines.
9. One 16-bit program counter and One 16-bit DPTR (data pointer)
10. One 8-bit stack pointer

ARCHITECTURE & BLOCK DIAGRAM OF 8051 MICROCONTROLLER:

The architecture of the 8051 microcontroller can be understood from the block diagram. It has Harward architecture with RISC (Reduced Instruction Set Computer) concept. The blockdiagram of 8051 microcontroller is shown in Fig 3. below1

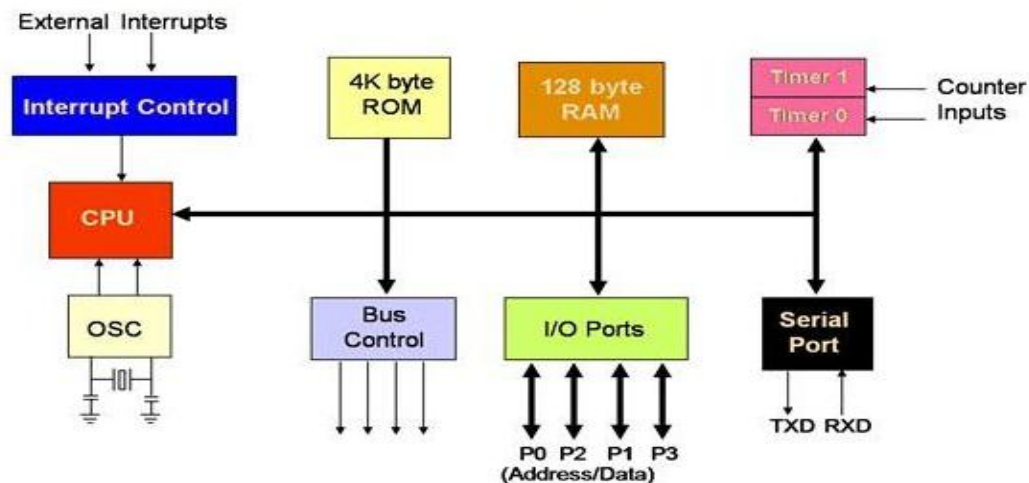
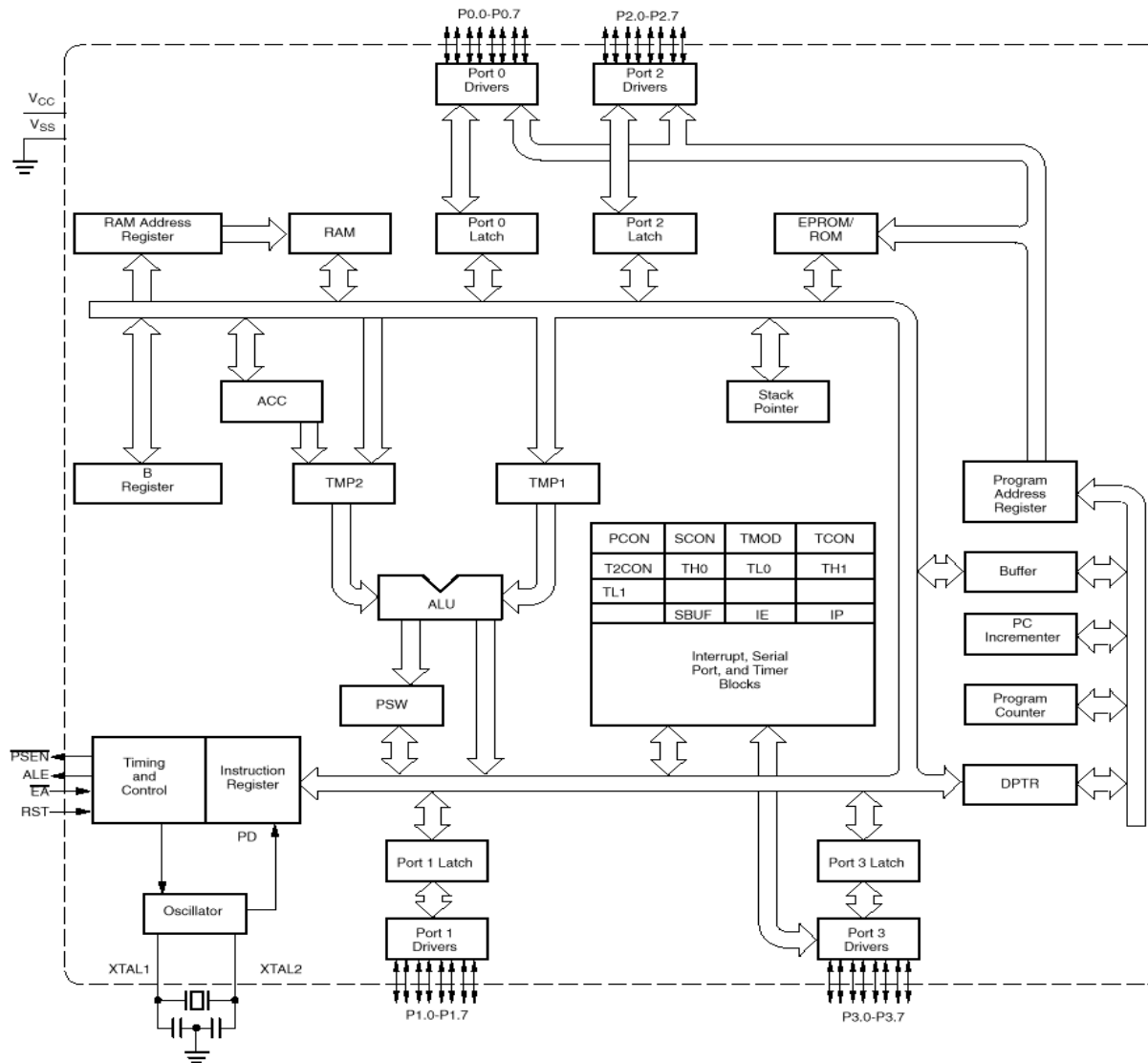


Fig.3. Block Diagram of 8051 Microcontroller.

It consists of an 8-bit ALU, one 8-bit PSW(Program Status Register), A and B registers , one 16-bit Program counter , one 16-bit Data pointer register(DPTR),128 bytes of RAM and 4kB of ROM and four parallel I/O ports each of 8-bit width.

8051 has 8-bit ALU which can perform all the 8-bit arithmetic and logical operations in one machine cycle. The ALU is associated with two registers A & B



A and B Registers : The A and B registers are special function registers which hold the results of many arithmetic and logical operations of 8051. The A register is also called the **Accumulator** and as its name suggests, is used as a general register to accumulate the

results of a large number of instructions. By default it is used for all mathematical operations and also data transfer operations between CPU and any external memory.

The B register is mainly used for multiplication and division operations along with A register.

MUL AB : DIV AB.

It has no other function other than as a location where data may be stored.

The R registers: The "R" registers are a set of eight registers that are named R0, R1, etc. up to and including R7. These registers are used as auxiliary registers in many operations. The "R" registers are also used to temporarily store values.

Program Counter (PC) : 8051 has a 16-bit program counter. The program counter always points to the address of the next instruction to be executed. After execution of one instruction the program counter is incremented to point to the address of the next instruction to be executed. It is the contents of the PC that are placed on the address bus to find and fetch the desired instruction. Since the PC is 16-bit width, 8051 can access program addresses from 0000H to FFFFH, a total of 6kB of code.

Stack Pointer Register (SP) : It is an 8-bit register which stores the address of the stack top. i.e the Stack Pointer is used to indicate where the next value to be removed from the stack should be taken from. When a value is pushed onto the stack, the 8051 first increments the value of SP and then stores the value at the resulting memory location. Similarly when a value is popped off the stack, the 8051 returns the value from the memory location indicated by SP, and then decrements the value of SP. Since the SP is only 8-bit wide it is incremented or decremented by two. SP is modified directly by the 8051 by six instructions: PUSH, POP, ACALL, LCALL, RET, and RETI. It is also used intrinsically whenever an interrupt is triggered.

STACK in 8051 Microcontroller : The stack is a part of RAM used by the CPU to store information temporarily. This information may be either data or an address. The CPU needs this storage area as there are only limited number of registers. The register used to access the stack is called the Stack pointer which is an 8-bit register. So, it can take values of 00 to FF H. When the 8051 is powered up, the SP register contains the

value 07.i.e the RAM location value 08 is the first location being used for the stack by the 8051 controller

There are two important instructions to handle this stack. One is the PUSH and the Other is the POP. The loading of data from CPU registers to the stack is done by PUSH and the loading of the contents of the stack back into a CPU register is done by POP.

```
EX : MOV R6 ,#35 H
      MOV R1 ,#21 H
      PUSH 6
      PUSH 1
```

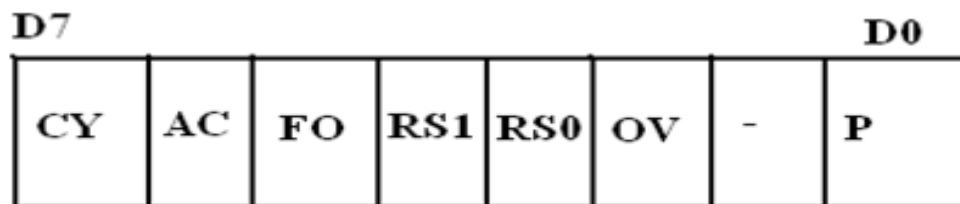
In the above instructions the contents of the Registers R6 and R1 are moved to stack and they occupy the 08 and 09 locations of the stack. Now the contents of the SP are incremented by two and it is 0A

Similarly POP 3 instruction pops the contents of stack into R3 register. Now the contents of the SP is decremented by 1

In 8051 the RAM locations 08 to 1F (24 bytes) can be used for the Stack. In any program if we need more than 24 bytes of stack ,we can change the SP point to RAM locations 30-7F H. this can be done with the instruction MOV SP,# XX.

Data Pointer Register (DPTR) : It is a 16-bit register which is the only user-accessible. DPTR, as the name suggests, is used to point to data. It is used by a number of commands which allow the 8051 to access external memory. When the 8051 accesses external memory it will access external memory at the address indicated by DPTR. This DPTR can also be used as two 8-registers DPH and DPL.

Program Status Register (PSW) : The 8051 has a 8-bit PSW register which is also known as Flag register. In the 8-bit register only 6-bits are used by 8051. The two unused bits are user definable bits. In the 6-bits four of them are conditional flags .They are Carry –CY, Auxiliary Carry-AC, Parity-P, and Overflow-OV .These flag bits indicate some conditions that resulted after an instruction was executed.



The bits PSW3 and PSW4 are denoted as RS0 and RS1 and these bits are used to select the bank registers of the RAM location. The meaning of various bits of PSW register is shown below.

CY	PSW.7	Carry Flag
AC	PSW.6	Auxiliary Carry Flag
FO	PSW.5	Flag 0 available for general purpose .
RS1	PSW.4	Register Bank select bit 1
RS0	PSW.3	Register bank select bit 0
OV	PSW.2	Overflow flag
---	PSW.1	User definable flag
P	PSW.0	Parity flag .set/cleared by hardware.

The selection of the register Banks and their addresses are given below.

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

Memory organization : The 8051 microcontroller has 128 bytes of Internal RAM and 4kB of on chip ROM .The RAM is also known as Data memory and the ROM is known as program memory. The program memory is also known as Code memory .This Code memory holds the actual 8051 program that is to be executed. In 8051 this

memory is limited to 64K .Code memory may be found on-chip, as ROM or EPROM. It may also be stored completely off-chip in an external ROM or, more commonly, an external EPROM. The 8051 has only 128 bytes of Internal RAM but it supports 64kB of external RAM. As the name suggests, external RAM is any random access memory which is off-chip. Since the memory is off-chip it is not as flexible in terms of accessing, and is also slower. For example, to increment an Internal RAM location by 1, it requires only 1 instruction and 1 instruction cycle but to increment a 1-byte value stored in External RAM requires 4 instructions and 7 instruction cycles. So, here the external memory is 7 times slower.

Internal RAM OF 8051 : This Internal RAM is found on-chip on the 8051 .So it is the fastest RAM available, and it is also the most flexible in terms of reading, writing, and modifying its contents. Internal RAM is volatile, so when the 8051 is reset this memory is cleared. The 128 bytes of internal RAM is organized as below.

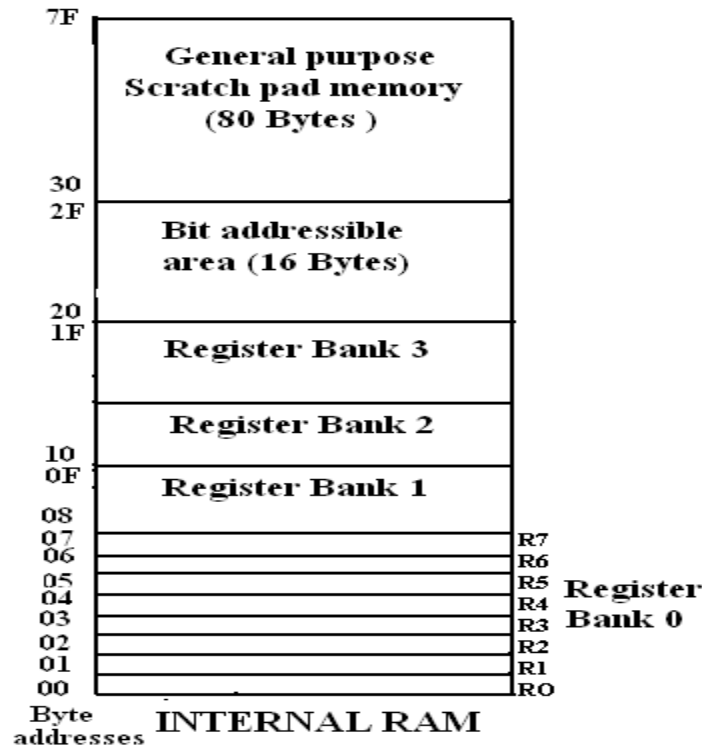
(i) Four register banks (Bank0, Bank1, Bank2 and Bank3) each of 8-bits (total 32 bytes). The default bank register is Bank0. The remaining Banks are selected with the help of RS0 and RS1 bits of PSW Register.

(ii) 16 bytes of bit addressable area and

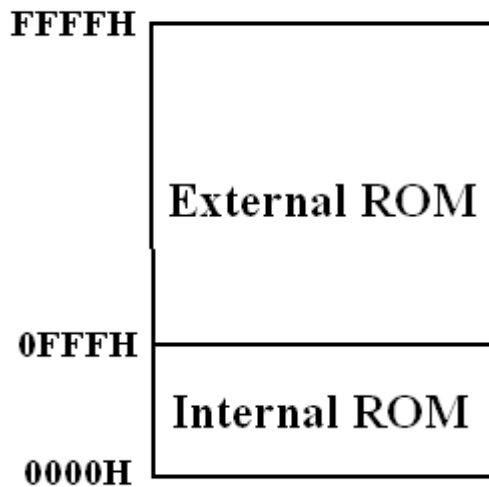
(iii) 80 bytes of general purpose area (Scratch pad memory) as shown in the diagram below. This area is also utilized by the microcontroller as a storage area for the operating stack.

The 32 bytes of RAM from address 00 H to 1FH are used as working registers organized as four banks of eight registers each. The registers are named as R0-R7 .Each register can be addressed by its name or by its RAM address.

For EX : MOV A, R7 or MOV R7, #05H



Internal ROM (On –chip ROM): The 8051 microcontroller has 4kB of on chip ROM but it can be extended up to 64kB. This ROM is also called program memory or code memory. The CODE segment is accessed using the program counter (PC) for opcode fetches and by DPTR for data. The external ROM is accessed when the EA(active low) pin is connected to ground or the contents of program counter exceeds 0FFFFH. When the Internal ROM address is exceeded the 8051 automatically fetches the code bytes from the external program memory.



PARALLEL I/O PORTS :

The 8051 microcontroller has four parallel I/O ports, each of 8-bits. So, it provides the user 32 I/O lines for connecting the microcontroller to the peripherals. The four ports are P0 (Port 0), P1 (Port 1), P2 (Port 2) and P3 (Port 3). Upon reset all the ports are output ports. In order to make them input, all the ports must be set i.e a high bit must be sent to all the port pins. This is normally done by the instruction "SETB".

Ex: MOV A, #0FFH ; A = FF

MOV P0, A ; make P0 an input port

PORT 0: Port 0 is an 8-bit I/O port with dual purpose. If external memory is used, these port pins are used for the lower address byte address/data (AD₀-AD₇), otherwise all bits of the port are either input or output..

Dual role of port 0: Port 0 can also be used as address/data bus (AD₀-AD₇), allowing it to be used for both address and data. When connecting the 8051 to an external memory, port 0 provides both address and data. The 8051 multiplexes address and data through port 0 to save the pins. ALE indicates whether P0 has address or data. When ALE = 0, it provides data D₀-D₇, and when ALE = 1 it provides address

Port 1: Port 1 occupies a total of 8 pins (pins 1 through 8). It has no dual application and acts only as input or output port. Upon reset, Port 1 is configured as an output port. To configure it as an input port, port bits must be set i.e a high bit must be sent to all the port pins. This is normally done by the instruction "SETB".

For Ex :

MOV A, #0FFH ; A=FF HEX

MOV P1, A ; make P1 an input port by writing 1's to all of its pins

Port 2 : Port 2 is also an eight bit parallel port. (pins 21- 28). It can be used as input or output port. Upon reset, Port 2 is configured as an output port. If the port is to be used as input port, all the port bits must be made high by sending FF to the port. For ex,

MOV A, #0FFH ; A=FF hex

MOV P₂, A ; make P₂ an input port by writing all 1's to it

Dual role of port 2 : Port2 lines are also associated with the higher order address lines A8-A15. Port 2 is used along with P0 to provide the 16-bit address for the external memory. Since an 8051 is capable of accessing 64K bytes 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 8051 is connected to external memory, Port 2 is used for the upper 8 bits of the 16 bit address, and it cannot be used for I/O operations.

PORT 3 : Port3 is also an 8-bit parallel port with dual function.(pins 10 to 17). The port pins can be used for I/O operations as well as for control operations. The details of these additional operations are given below in the table. Upon reset port 3 is configured as an output port. If the port is to be used as input port, all the port bits must be made high by sending FF to the port. For ex,

MOV A, #0FFH ; A= FF hex

MOV P₃, A ; make P₃ an input port by writing all 1's to it

Alternate Functions of Port 3 : P3.0 and P3.1 are used for the RxD (Receive Data) and TxD (Transmit Data) serial communications signals. Bits P3.2 and P3.3 are meant for external interrupts. Bits P3.4 and P3.5 are used for Timers 0 and 1 and P3.6 and P3.7 are used to provide the write and read signals of external memories connected in 8031 based systems

Table: PORT 3 alternate functions

S.No	Port 3 bit	Pin No	Function
1	P3.0	10	RxD
2	P3.1	11	TxD
3	P3.2	12	$\overline{\text{INT0}}$
4	P3.3	13	$\overline{\text{INT1}}$
5	P3.4	14	T0
6	P3.5	15	T1
7	P3.6	16	$\overline{\text{WR}}$
8	P3.7	17	$\overline{\text{RD}}$

8051 Instructions: The process of writing program for the microcontroller mainly consists of giving instructions (commands) in the specific order in which they should be executed in order to carry out a specific task. All commands are known as INSTRUCTION SET. All microcontrollers compatible with the 8051 have in total of 255 instructions

These can be grouped into the following categories

1. **Arithmetic Instructions**
2. **Logical Instructions**
3. **Data Transfer instructions**
4. **Boolean Variable Instructions**
5. **Program Branching Instructions**

The following nomenclatures for register, data, address and variables are used while write instructions.

A: Accumulator

B: "B" register

C: Carry bit

Rn: Register R0 - R7 of the currently selected register bank

Direct: 8-bit internal direct address for data. The data could be in lower 128bytes of RAM (00 - 7FH) or it could be in the special function register (80 - FFH).

@Ri: 8-bit external or internal RAM address available in register R0 or R1. This is used for indirect addressing mode.

#data8: Immediate 8-bit data available in the instruction.

#data16: Immediate 16-bit data available in the instruction.

Addr11: 11-bit destination address for short absolute jump. Used by instructions AJMP & ACALL. Jump range is 2 kbyte (one page).

Addr16: 16-bit destination address for long call or long jump.

bit: Directly addressed bit in internal RAM or SFR

The first part of each instruction, called MNEMONIC refers to the operation an instruction performs (copy, addition, logic operation etc.). Mnemonics are abbreviations of the name of operation being executed.

The other part of instruction, called OPERAND is separated from mnemonic by at least one whitespace and defines data being processed by instructions. Some of the instructions have no operand, while some of them have one, two or three. If there is more than one operand in an instruction, they are separated by a comma

1.Arithmetic Instructions: Arithmetic instructions perform several basic arithmetic operations such as addition, subtraction, division, multiplication etc. After execution, the result is stored in the first operand.

For example:

ADD A, R1 - The result of addition (A+R1) will be stored in the accumulator.

Mnemonics	Description
ADD A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A + Rn$
ADD A, direct	$A \leftarrow A + (\text{direct})$
ADD A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A + @Ri$
ADD A, #data	$A \leftarrow A + \text{data}$
ADDC A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A + Rn + C$
ADDC A, direct	$A \leftarrow A + (\text{direct}) + C$
ADDC A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A + @Ri + C$
ADDC A, #data	$A \leftarrow A + \text{data} + C$
DA A	Decimal adjust accumulator
DIV AB	Divide A by B $A \leftarrow \text{quotient}$ $B \leftarrow \text{remainder}$
DEC A	$A \leftarrow A - 1$
DEC Rn	$Rn \leftarrow Rn - 1$
DEC direct	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) - 1$
DEC @Ri	$@Ri \leftarrow @Ri - 1$
INC A	$A \leftarrow A + 1$
INC Rn	$Rn \leftarrow Rn + 1$
INC direct	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) + 1$
INC @Ri	$@Ri \leftarrow @Ri + 1$
INC DPTR	$DPTR \leftarrow DPTR + 1$
MUL AB	Multiply A by B $A \leftarrow \text{low byte } (A * B)$ $B \leftarrow \text{high byte } (A * B)$
SUBB A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A - Rn - C$
SUBB A, direct	$A \leftarrow A - (\text{direct}) - C$
SUBB A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A - @Ri - C$
SUBB A, #data	$A \leftarrow A - \text{data} - C$

2.Logical Instructions: The Logical Instructions are used to perform logical operations like AND, OR, XOR, NOT, Rotate, Clear and Swap. Logical Instruction are performed on Bytes of data on a bit-by-bit basis. Logic instructions perform logic operations upon corresponding bits of two registers. After execution, the result is stored in the first operand.

Mnemonics	Description
ANL A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A \text{ AND } Rn$
ANL A, direct	$A \leftarrow A \text{ AND (direct)}$
ANL A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A \text{ AND } @Ri$
ANL A, #data	$A \leftarrow A \text{ AND data}$
ANL direct, A	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ AND } A$
ANL direct, #data	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ AND data}$
CLR A	$A \leftarrow 00H$
CPL A	$A \leftarrow \neg A$
ORL A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A \text{ OR } Rn$
ORL A, direct	$A \leftarrow A \text{ OR (direct)}$
ORL A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A \text{ OR } @Ri$
ORL A, #data	$A \leftarrow A \text{ OR data}$
ORL direct, A	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ OR } A$
ORL direct, #data	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ OR data}$
RL A	Rotate accumulator left
RLC A	Rotate accumulator left through carry
RR A	Rotate accumulator right
RRC A	Rotate accumulator right through carry
SWAP A	Swap nibbles within Accumulator
XRL A, Rn	$A \leftarrow A \text{ EXOR } Rn$
XRL A, direct	$A \leftarrow A \text{ EXOR (direct)}$
XRL A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow A \text{ EXOR } @Ri$
XRL A, #data	$A \leftarrow A \text{ EXOR data}$
XRL direct, A	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ EXOR } A$
XRL direct, #data	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (\text{direct}) \text{ EXOR data}$

3. Data Transfer Instructions: Data transfer instructions move the content of one register to another. The register the content of which is moved remains unchanged. If they have the suffix “X” (MOVX), the data is exchanged with external memory.

Mnemonics	Description
MOV A, Rn	$A \leftarrow Rn$
MOV A, direct	$A \leftarrow (\text{direct})$
MOV A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow @Ri$
MOV A, #data	$A \leftarrow \text{data}$
MOV Rn, A	$Rn \leftarrow A$
MOV Rn, direct	$Rn \leftarrow (\text{direct})$

MOV Rn, #data	$Rn \leftarrow \text{data}$
MOV direct, A	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow A$
MOV direct, Rn	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow Rn$
MOV direct1, direct2	$(\text{direct1}) \leftarrow (\text{direct2})$
MOV direct, @Ri	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow @Ri$
MOV direct, #data	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow \text{\#data}$
MOV @Ri, A	$@Ri \leftarrow A$
MOV @Ri, direct	$@Ri \leftarrow (\text{direct})$
MOV @Ri, #data	$@Ri \leftarrow \text{data}$
MOV DPTR, #data16	$DPTR \leftarrow \text{data16}$
MOVC A, @A+DPTR	$A \leftarrow \text{Code byte pointed by } A + DPTR$
MOVC A, @A+PC	$A \leftarrow \text{Code byte pointed by } A + PC$
MOVC A, @Ri	$A \leftarrow \text{Code byte pointed by Ri 8-bit address}$
MOVX A, @DPTR	$A \leftarrow \text{External data pointed by DPTR}$
MOVX @Ri, A	$@Ri \leftarrow A \text{ (External data - 8bit address)}$
MOVX @DPTR, A	$@DPTR \leftarrow A \text{ (External data - 16bit address)}$
PUSH direct	$(SP) \leftarrow (\text{direct})$
POP direct	$(\text{direct}) \leftarrow (SP)$
XCH Rn	Exchange A with Rn
XCH direct	Exchange A with direct byte
XCH @Ri	Exchange A with indirect RAM
XCHD A, @Ri	Exchange least significant nibble of A with that of indirect RAM

4.Boolean Variable Instructions: Boolean or Bit Manipulation Instructions will deal with bit variables. Similar to logic instructions, bit-oriented instructions perform logic operations. The difference is that these are performed upon single bits.

Mnemonics	Description
CLR C	$C\text{-bit} \leftarrow 0$
CLR bit	$\text{bit} \leftarrow 0$
SET C	$C \leftarrow 1$
SET bit	$\text{bit} \leftarrow 1$
CPL C	$C \leftarrow \overline{C\text{-bit}}$
CPL bit	$\text{bit} \leftarrow \overline{\text{bit}}$
ANL C, /bit	$C \leftarrow C \cdot \overline{\text{bit}}$
ANL C, bit	$C \leftarrow C \cdot \text{bit}$
ORL C, /bit	$C \leftarrow C + \overline{\text{bit}}$

ORL C, bit	$C \leftarrow C + \text{bit}$
MOV C, bit	$C \leftarrow \text{bit}$
MOV bit, C	$\text{bit} \leftarrow C$

5.Program Branching Instructions: There are two kinds of branch instructions:

Unconditional jump instructions: upon their execution a jump to a new location from where the program continues execution is executed.

Conditional jump instructions: Jump to a new program location is executed only if a specified condition is met. Otherwise, the program normally proceeds with the next instruction.

Mnemonics	Description
ACALL addr11	$PC + 2 \rightarrow (SP) ; \text{addr11} \rightarrow PC$
AJMP addr11	$\text{Addr11} \rightarrow PC$
CJNE A, direct, rel	Compare with A, jump (PC + rel) if not equal
CJNE A, #data, rel	Compare with A, jump (PC + rel) if not equal
CJNE Rn, #data, rel	Compare with Rn, jump (PC + rel) if not equal
CJNE @Ri, #data, rel	Compare with @Ri A, jump (PC + rel) if not equal
DJNZ Rn, rel	Decrement Rn, jump if not zero
DJNZ direct, rel	Decrement (direct), jump if not zero
JC rel	Jump (PC + rel) if C bit = 1
JNC rel	Jump (PC + rel) if C bit = 0
JB bit, rel	Jump (PC + rel) if bit = 1
JNB bit, rel	Jump (PC + rel) if bit = 0
JBC bit, rel	Jump (PC + rel) if bit = 1
JMP @A+DPTR	$A+DPTR \rightarrow PC$
JZ rel	If A=0, jump to PC + rel
JNZ rel	If A ≠ 0, jump to PC + rel
LCALL addr16	$PC + 3 \rightarrow (SP), \text{addr16} \rightarrow PC$
LJMP addr16	$\text{Addr16} \rightarrow PC$
NOP	No operation
RET	$(SP) \rightarrow PC$
RETI	$(SP) \rightarrow PC$, Enable Interrupt
SJMP rel	$PC + 2 + \text{rel} \rightarrow PC$
JMP @A+DPTR	$A+DPTR \rightarrow PC$
JZ rel	If A = 0. jump PC+ rel
JNZ rel	If A ≠ 0, jump PC + rel
NOP	No operation

Memory interfacing To 8051: The system designer is not limited by the amount of internal RAM and ROM available on chip. Two separate external memory spaces are made available by the 16-bit PC and DPTR and by different control pins for enabling external ROM and RAM chips.

External RAM, which is accessed by the DPTR, may also be needed when 128 bytes of internal data storage is not sufficient. External RAM, up to 64K bytes, may also be added to any chip in the 8051 family.

Connecting External Memory: Figures shows the connections between an 8051 and an external memory configuration consisting of EPROM and static RAM. The 8051 accesses external RAM whenever certain program instructions are executed. External ROM is accessed whenever the EA (external access) pin is connected to ground or when the PC contains an address higher than the last address in the internal 4K bytes ROM (0FFFh). 8051 designs can thus use internal and external ROM automatically; the 8051, having no internal ROM, must have (EA)' grounded.

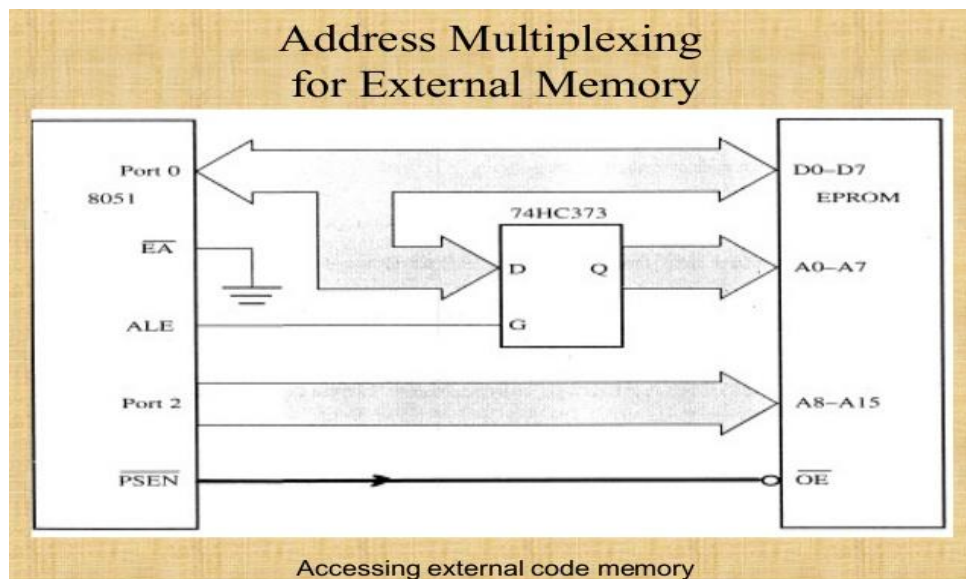


Figure: Interfacing External code memory to 8051

Interfacing with External Data Memory

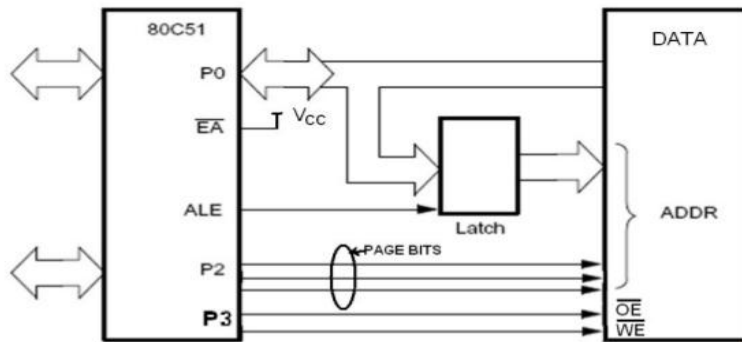


Figure: Interfacing External data memory to 8051

If the memory access is for a byte of program code in the ROM, the (PSEN)'(program store enable) pin will go low to enable the ROM to place a byte of program code on the data bus. If the access is for a RAM byte, the (WR)'(write) or (RD)'(read) pins will go low, enabling data to flow between the RAM and the data bus.

Note that the (WR)' and (RD)' signals are alternate uses for port 3 pins 16 and 17. Also, port 0 is used for the lower address byte and data; port 2 is used for upper address bits. The use of external memory consumes many of the port pins, leaving only port 1 and parts of port 3 for general I/O.

Text Books

1. D. V. Hall, Microprocessors and Interfacing, TMGH, 2nd Edition 2006.
2. Advanced Microprocessors and Peripherals – A. K. Ray and K.M. Bhurchandi, TMH, 2nd Edition 2006
3. Kenneth. J. Ayala, The 8051 Microcontroller , 3rd Ed., Cengage Learning

Embedded Systems

III-CSE



UNIT-2

Introduction to Embedded Systems

M Ramanjaneyulu
T Vinay Simha Reddy
Department of ECE



**MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF
ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY**

Permanently Affiliated to JNTUH and Approved by AICTE, New Delhi

1. Introduction to Embedded Systems

What is Embedded System?

(DEC2016, March-2017.)

An Electronic/Electro mechanical system which is designed to perform a specific function and is a combination of both hardware and firmware (Software)

E.g. Electronic Toys, Mobile Handsets, Washing Machines, Air Conditioners, Automotive Control Units, Set Top Box, DVD Player etc...

Embedded Systems are:

- ☐ Unique in character and behavior
- ☐ With specialized hardware and software

Embedded Systems Vs General Computing Systems:

(March-2017)

General Purpose Computing System	Embedded System
A system which is a combination of generic hardware and General Purpose Operating System for executing a variety of applications	A system which is a combination of special purpose hardware and embedded OS for executing a specific set of applications
Contain a General Purpose Operating System (GPOS)	May or may not contain an operating system for functioning
Applications are alterable (programmable) by user (It is possible for the end user to re-install the Operating System, and add or remove user applications)	The firmware of the embedded system is pre-programmed and it is non-alterable by end-user
Performance is the key deciding factor on the selection of the system. Always 'Faster is Better'	Application specific requirements (like performance, power requirements, memory usage etc) are the key deciding factors
Less/not at all tailored towards reduced operating power requirements, options for different levels of power management.	Highly tailored to take advantage of the power saving modes supported by hardware and Operating System
Response requirements are not time critical	For certain category of embedded systems like mission critical systems, the response time requirement is highly critical
Need not be deterministic in execution behavior	Execution behavior is deterministic for certain type of embedded systems like 'Hard Real Time' systems

History of Embedded Systems:

- First Recognized Modern Embedded System: Apollo Guidance Computer (AGC) developed by [Charles Stark Draper](#) at the MIT Instrumentation Laboratory.

- It has two modules
- 1.Command module(CM) 2.Lunar Excursion module(LEM)
- RAM size 256 , 1K ,2K words
- ROM size 4K,10K,36K words
- Clock frequency is 1.024MHz
- 5000 ,3-input RTL NOR gates are used
- User interface is DSKY(display/Keyboard)



- First Mass Produced Embedded System: *Autonetics D-17 Guidance computer for Minuteman-I missile*

Classification of Embedded Systems:

(March-2017)

- ☐ Based on Generation
- ☐ Based on Complexity & Performance Requirements
- ☐ Based on deterministic behavior
- ☐ Based on Triggering

1. Embedded Systems - Classification based on Generation

- **First Generation:** The early embedded systems built around 8-bit microprocessors like 8085 and Z80 and 4-bit microcontrollers
EX. stepper motor control units, Digital Telephone Keypads etc.
- **Second Generation:** Embedded Systems built around 16-bit microprocessors and 8 or 16-bit microcontrollers, following the first generation embedded systems
EX.SCADA, Data Acquisition Systems etc.
- **Third Generation:** Embedded Systems built around high performance 16/32 bit Microprocessors/controllers, Application Specific Instruction set processors like Digital Signal Processors (DSPs), and Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs).The instruction set is complex and powerful.
EX. Robotics, industrial process control, networking etc.

- **Fourth Generation:** Embedded Systems built around System on Chips (SoCs), Re-configurable processors and multicore processors. It brings high performance, tight integration and miniaturization into the embedded device market
EX Smart phone devices, MIDs etc.

2. Embedded Systems - Classification based on Complexity & Performance

- **Small Scale:** The embedded systems built around low performance and low cost 8 or 16 bit microprocessors/ microcontrollers. It is suitable for simple applications and where performance is not time critical. It may or may not contain OS.
- **Medium Scale:** Embedded Systems built around medium performance, low cost 16 or 32 bit microprocessors / microcontrollers or DSPs. These are slightly complex in hardware and firmware. It may contain GPOS/RTOS.
- **Large Scale/Complex:** Embedded Systems built around high performance 32 or 64 bit RISC processors/controllers, RSoC or multi-core processors and PLD. It requires complex hardware and software. These system may contain multiple processors/controllers and co-units/hardware accelerators for offloading the processing requirements from the main processor. It contains RTOS for scheduling, prioritization and management.

3. Embedded Systems - Classification Based on deterministic behavior: It is applicable for Real Time systems. The application/task execution behavior for an embedded system can be either deterministic or non-deterministic

These are classified in to two types

1. **Soft Real time Systems:** Missing a deadline may not be critical and can be tolerated to a certain degree
2. **Hard Real time systems:** Missing a program/task execution time deadline can have catastrophic consequences (financial, human loss of life, etc.)

4. Embedded Systems - Classification Based on Triggering:

These are classified into two types

1. **Event Triggered :** Activities within the system (e.g., task run-times) are dynamic and depend upon occurrence of different events .
2. **Time triggered:** Activities within the system follow a statically computed schedule (i.e., they are allocated time slots during which they can take place) and thus by nature are predictable.

Major Application Areas of Embedded Systems:

- ☐ **Consumer Electronics:** Camcorders, Cameras etc.
- ☐ **Household Appliances:** Television, DVD players, washing machine, Fridge, Microwave Oven etc.
- ☐ **Home Automation and Security Systems:** Air conditioners, sprinklers, Intruder detection alarms, Closed Circuit Television Cameras, Fire alarms etc.
- ☐ **Automotive Industry:** Anti-lock breaking systems (ABS), Engine Control, Ignition Systems, Automatic Navigation Systems etc.
- ☐ **Telecom:** Cellular Telephones, Telephone switches, Handset Multimedia Applications etc.
- ☐ **Computer Peripherals:** Printers, Scanners, Fax machines etc.
- ☐ **Computer Networking Systems:** Network Routers, Switches, Hubs, Firewalls etc.
- ☐ **Health Care:** Different Kinds of Scanners, EEG, ECG Machines etc.
- ☐ **Measurement & Instrumentation:** Digital multi meters, Digital CROs, Logic Analyzers PLC systems etc.
- ☐ **Banking & Retail:** Automatic Teller Machines (ATM) and Currency counters, Point of Sales (POS)
- ☐ **Card Readers:** Barcode, Smart Card Readers, Hand held Devices etc.

Purpose of Embedded Systems:**(DEC2016)**

Each Embedded Systems is designed to serve the purpose of any one or a combination of the following tasks.

- Data Collection/Storage/Representation
- Data Communication
- Data (Signal) Processing
- Monitoring
- Control
- Application Specific User Interface

1. Data Collection/Storage/Representation:-

- ❖ Performs acquisition of data from the external world.
- ❖ The collected data can be either analog or digital
- ❖ Data collection is usually done for storage, analysis, manipulation and transmission
- ❖ The collected data may be stored directly in the system or may be transmitted to some other systems or it may be processed by the system or it may be deleted instantly after giving a meaningful representation



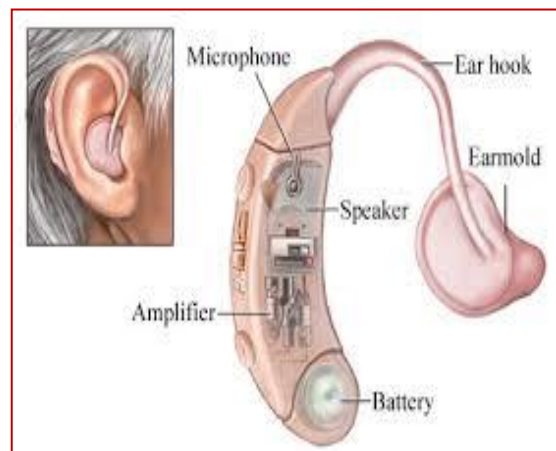
2. Data Communication:-

- Embedded Data communication systems are deployed in applications ranging from complex satellite communication systems to simple home networking systems
- Embedded Data communication systems are dedicated for data communication
- The data communication can happen through a wired interface (like Ethernet, RS-232C/USB/IEEE1394 etc) or wireless interface (like Wi-Fi, GSM/GPRS, Bluetooth, ZigBee etc)
- Network hubs, Routers, switches, Modems etc are typical examples for dedicated data transmission embedded systems



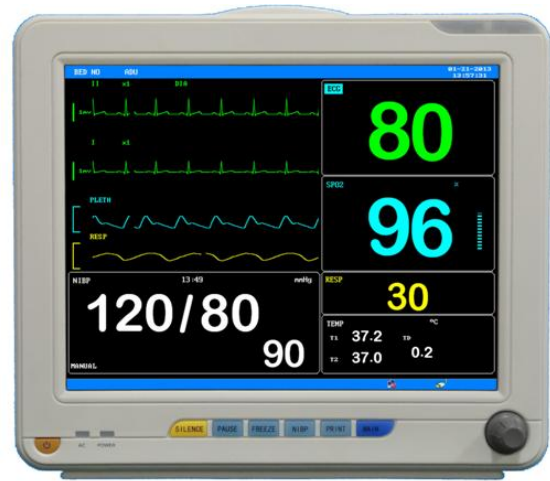
3. Data (Signal) Processing:-

- Embedded systems with Signal processing functionalities are employed in applications demanding signal processing like Speech coding, synthesis, audio video codec, transmission applications etc
- Computational intensive systems
- Employs Digital Signal Processors (DSPs)



4. Monitoring:-

- Embedded systems coming under this category are specifically designed for monitoring purpose
- They are used for determining the state of some variables using input sensors
- They cannot impose control over variables.
- Electro Cardiogram (ECG) machine for monitoring the heart beat of a patient is a typical example for this
- The sensors used in ECG are the different Electrodes connected to the patient's body
- Measuring instruments like Digital CRO, Digital Multi meter, Logic Analyzer etc used in Control & Instrumentation applications are also examples of embedded systems for monitoring purpose



5. Control:-

- Embedded systems with control functionalities are used for imposing control over some variables according to the changes in input variables
- Embedded system with control functionality contains both sensors and actuators
- Sensors are connected to the input port for capturing the changes in environmental variable or measuring variable
- The actuators connected to the output port are controlled according to the changes in input variable to put an impact on the controlling variable to bring the controlled variable to the specified range
- Air conditioner for controlling room temperature is a typical example for embedded system with 'Control' functionality
- Air conditioner contains a room temperature sensing element (sensor) which may be a thermistor and a handheld unit for setting up (feeding) the desired temperature
- The air compressor unit acts as the actuator. The compressor is controlled according to the current room temperature and the desired temperature set by the end user.



6. Application Specific User Interface:-

- Embedded systems which are designed for a specific application
- Contains Application Specific User interface (rather than general standard UI) like key board, Display units etc
- Aimed at a specific target group of users
- Mobile handsets, Control units in industrial applications etc are examples



Characteristics of Embedded systems:

(DEC2016, March-2017)

Embedded systems possess certain specific characteristics and these are unique to each Embedded system.

1. Application and domain specific
2. Reactive and Real Time
3. Operates in harsh environments
4. Distributed
5. Small Size and weight
6. Power concerns
7. Single-functioned
8. Complex functionality
9. Tightly-constrained
10. Safety-critical

1. Application and Domain Specific:-

- Each E.S has certain functions to perform and they are developed in such a manner to do the intended functions only.
- They cannot be used for any other purpose.
- Ex – The embedded control units of the microwave oven cannot be replaced with AC'S embedded control unit because the embedded control units of microwave oven and AC are specifically designed to perform certain specific tasks.

2. Reactive and Real Time:-

- E.S are in constant interaction with the real world through sensors and user-defined input devices which are connected to the input port of the system.
- Any changes in the real world are captured by the sensors or input devices in real time and the control algorithm running inside the unit reacts in a designed manner to bring the controlled output variables to the desired level.
- E.S produce changes in output in response to the changes in the input, so they are referred as reactive systems.
- Real Time system operation means the timing behavior of the system should be deterministic ie the system should respond to requests in a known amount of time.
- Example – E.S which are mission critical like flight control systems, Antilock Brake Systems (**ABS**) etc are Real Time systems.

3. Operates in Harsh Environment :-

- The design of E.S should take care of the operating conditions of the area where the system is going to implement.
- Ex – If the system needs to be deployed in a high temperature zone, then all the components used in the system should be of high temperature grade.
- Also proper shock absorption techniques should be provided to systems which are going to be commissioned in places subject to high shock.

4. Distributed: –

- It means that embedded systems may be a part of a larger system.
- Many numbers of such distributed embedded systems form a single large embedded control unit.
- Ex – Automatic vending machine. It contains a card reader, a vending unit etc. Each of them are independent embedded units but they work together to perform the overall vending function.

5. Small Size and Weight:-

- Product aesthetics (size, weight, shape, style, etc) is an important factor in choosing a product.
- It is convenient to handle a compact device than a bulky product.
- In embedded domain compactness is a significant deciding factor.

6. Power Concerns:-

- Power management is another important factor that needs to be considered in designing embedded systems.
- E.S should be designed in such a way as to minimize the heat dissipation by the system.

7. Single-functioned:- Dedicated to perform a single function**8. Complex functionality: -** We have to run sophisticated algorithms or multiple algorithms in some applications.**9. Tightly-constrained:-**

- Low cost, low power, small, fast, etc

10. Safety-critical:-

- Must not endanger human life and the environment

Quality Attributes of Embedded System: Quality attributes are the non-functional requirements that need to be documented properly in any system design. (DEC16, March-2017)

Quality attributes can be classified as

I. Operational quality attributes**II. Non-operational quality attributes.**

I. Operational Quality Attributes: The operational quality attributes represent the relevant quality attributes related to the embedded system when it is in the operational mode or online mode.

Operational Quality Attributes are:

1. Response :-

- It is the measure of quickness of the system.
- It tells how fast the system is tracking the changes in input variables.
- Most of the E.S demands fast response which should be almost real time.

Ex – Flight control application.

2. Throughput :-

- It deals with the efficiency of a system.
- It can be defined as the rate of production or operation of a defined process over a stated period of time.
- The rates can be expressed in terms of products, batches produced or any other meaningful measurements.
- Ex – In case of card reader throughput means how many transactions the reader can perform in a minute or in an hour or in a day.
- Throughput is generally measured in terms of “Benchmark”.
- A Benchmark is a reference point by which something can be measured

3. Reliability :-

- It is a measure of how much we can rely upon the proper functioning of the system.
- Mean Time Between Failure (MTBF) and Mean Time To Repair (MTTR) are the terms used in determining system reliability.
- MTBF gives the frequency of failures in hours/weeks/months.
- MTTR specifies how long the system is allowed to be out of order following a failure.
- For embedded system with critical application need, it should be of the order of minutes.

4. Maintainability:-

- It deals with support and maintenance to the end user or client in case of technical issues and product failure or on the basis of a routine system checkup.
- Reliability and maintainability are complementary to each other.
- A more reliable system means a system with less corrective maintainability requirements and vice versa.
- Maintainability can be broadly classified into two categories
 1. Scheduled or Periodic maintenance (Preventive maintenance)
 2. Corrective maintenance to unexpected failures

5. Security:-

- Confidentiality, Integrity and availability are the three major measures of information security.
- Confidentiality deals with protection of data and application from unauthorized disclosure.
- Integrity deals with the protection of data and application from unauthorized modification.
- Availability deals with protection of data and application from unauthorized users.

6. Safety :-

- Safety deals with the possible damages that can happen to the operator, public and the environment due to the breakdown of an Embedded System.
- The breakdown of an embedded system may occur due to a hardware failure or a firmware failure.
- Safety analysis is a must in product engineering to evaluate the anticipated damages and determine the best course of action to bring down the consequences of damage to an acceptable level.

II. Non-Operational Quality Attributes: The quality attributes that needs to be addressed for the product not on the basis of operational aspects are grouped under this category.

1. Testability and Debug-ability:-

- Testability deals with how easily one can test the design, application and by which means it can be done.
- For an E.S testability is applicable to both the embedded hardware and firmware.
- Embedded hardware testing ensures that the peripherals and total hardware functions in the desired manner, whereas firmware testing ensures that the firmware is functioning in the expected way.
- Debug-ability is a means of debugging the product from unexpected behavior in the system
- Debug-ability is two level process
- 1.Hardware level 2.software level
- **1. Hardware level:** It is used for finding the issues created by hardware problems.
- **2. Software level:** It is employed for finding the errors created by the flaws in the software.

2. Evolvability :-

- It is a term which is closely related to Biology.
- It is referred as the non-heritable variation.
- For an embedded system evolvability refers to the ease with which the embedded product can be modified to take advantage of new firmware or hardware technologies.

3. Portability:-

- It is the measure of system independence.
- An embedded product is said to be portable if the product is capable of functioning in various environments, target processors and embedded operating systems.
- 'Porting' represents the migration of embedded firmware written for one target processor to a different target processor.

4. Time-to-Prototype and Market:-

- It is the time elapsed between the conceptualization of a product and the time at which the product is ready for selling.
- The commercial embedded product market is highly competitive and time to market the product is critical factor in the success of commercial embedded product.
- There may be multiple players in embedded industry who develop products of the same category (like mobile phone).

5. Per Unit Cost and Revenue:-

- Cost is a factor which is closely monitored by both end user and product manufacturer.
- Cost is highly sensitive factor for commercial products
- Any failure to position the cost of a commercial product at a nominal rate may lead to the failure of the product in the market.
- Proper market study and cost benefit analysis should be carried out before taking a decision on the per-unit cost of the embedded product.
- The ultimate aim of the product is to generate marginal profit so the budget and total cost should be properly balanced to provide a marginal profit.

SUMMARY

1. An embedded system is an electronic/electromechanical system designed to perform a specific function and is a combination of both hardware and firmware (software).
2. A general purpose computing system is a combination of generic hardware and general purpose operating system for executing a variety of applications, whereas an embedded
3. System is a combination of special purpose hardware and embedded OS/firmware for executing a specific set of applications.
4. Apollo Guidance Computer (AGC) is the first recognized modern embedded system and Autonetics D-17, the guidance computer for the Minuteman-I missile, was the first mass produced embedded system.
5. Based on the complexity and performance requirements, embedded systems are classified into small-scale, medium-scale and large-scale/complex.
6. The presences of embedded system vary from simple electronic system toys to complex flight and missile control systems.
7. Embedded systems are designed to serve the purpose of any one or combination of data collection/storage/representation, data processing, monitoring, control or application specific user interface.
8. Wearable devices refer to embedded systems which are incorporated into accessories and apparels. It envisions the bonding of embedded technology in our day to day lives.

OBJECTIVE QUESTIONS

1. Embedded systems are
 - (a) General Purpose
 - (b) Special Purpose
2. Embedded system is
 - (a) An electronic system
 - (b) A pure mechanical system
 - (c) An electro-mechanical system
 - (d) (a) or (c)
3. Which of the following is not true about embedded systems?
 - (a) Built around specialized hardware
 - (b) Always contain an operating system
 - (c) Execution behavior may be deterministic
 - (d) All of these
 - (e) none of these
4. Which of the following is not an example of small scale embedded system?
 - (a) Electronic Barbie doll
 - (b) Simple calculator
 - (c) Cell Phone
 - (d) Electronic toy car

5. The first recognized modern embedded system is
 - (a) Apple computer
 - (b) Apollo Guidance Computer
 - (c) Calculator
 - (d) Radio navigation system
6. The first mass produced embedded system is
 - (a) Minuteman-I
 - (b) Minuteman-II
 - (c) Autonetics D17
 - (d) Apollo Guidance Computer
7. Which of the following is (are) an intended purpose of embedded systems?
 - (a) Data collection
 - (b) Data processing
 - (c) Data communication
 - (d) All of these
 - (e) None of these
8. Which of the following is an example of an embedded system for data communication?
 - (a) USB mass storage device
 - (b) Network router
 - (c) Digital camera
 - (d) Music player
 - (e) All of these
 - (f) None of these
9. A digital multimeter is an example of embedded system for
 - (a) Data communication
 - (b) Monitoring
 - (c) Control
 - (d) All of these
 - (e) None of these
10. Which of the following is an example of an embedded system for signal processing?
 - (a) Apple iPod
 - (b) Sandisk USB mass storage device
 - (c) both a and b
 - (d) None of these

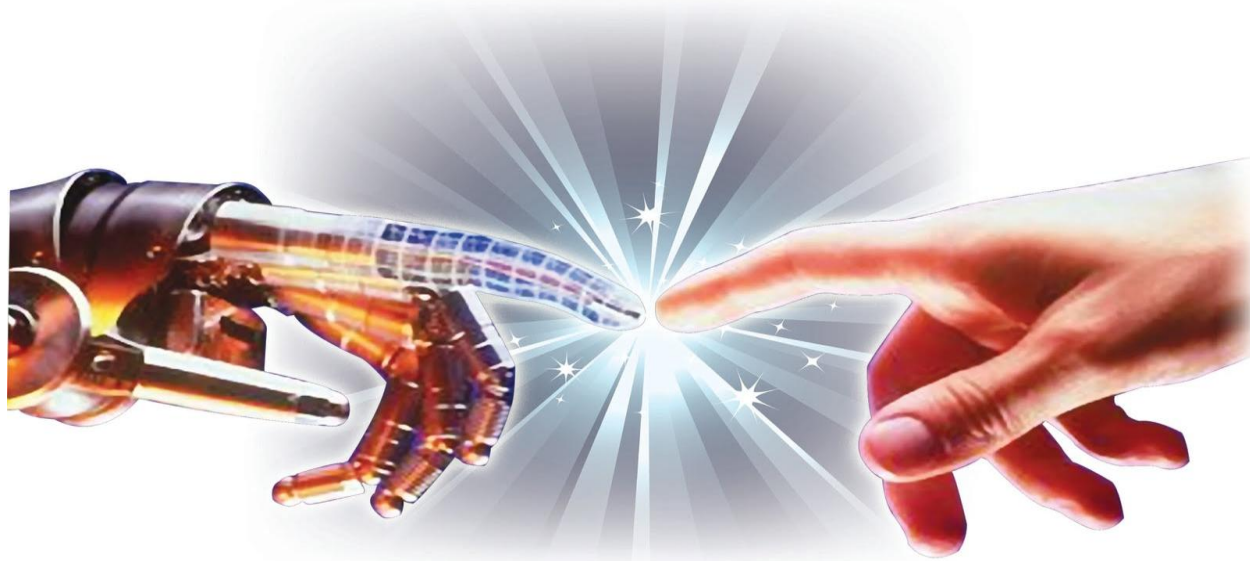
Reference Text Books:-

1. Introduction to Embedded Systems – Shibu K.V Mc Graw Hill

2. Embedded System Design-Raj Kamal TMH

Embedded Systems

III-CSE



UNIT-3

The Typical Embedded System

M Ramanjaneyulu
T Vinay Simha Reddy
Department of ECE

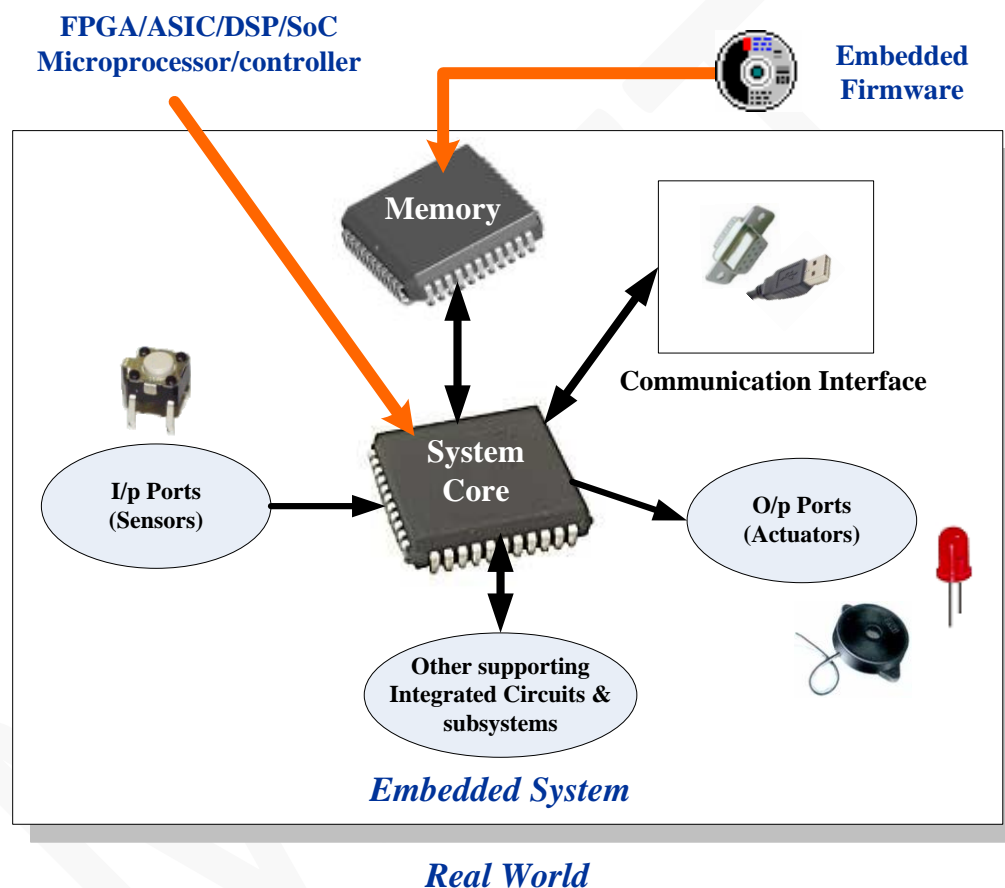


**MALLA REDDY COLLEGE OF
ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY**

Permanently Affiliated to JNTUH and Approved by AICTE, New Delhi

ELEMENTS OF EMBEDDED SYSTEMS:

An embedded system is a combination of 3 things, Hardware Software Mechanical Components and it is supposed to do one specific task only. A typical embedded system contains a single chip controller which acts as the master brain of the system. Diagrammatically an embedded system can be represented as follows:



Embedded systems are basically designed to regulate a physical variable (such as Microwave Oven) or to manipulate the state of some devices by sending some signals to the actuators or devices connected to the output port system (such as temperature in Air Conditioner), in response to the input signal provided by the end users or sensors which are connected to the input ports. Hence the embedded systems can be viewed as a reactive

system. The control is achieved by processing the information coming from the sensors and user interfaces and controlling some actuators that regulate the physical variable.

Keyboards, push button, switches, etc. are Examples of common user interface input devices and LEDs, LCDs, Piezoelectric buzzers, etc examples for common user interface output devices for a typical embedded system. The requirement of type of user interface changes from application to application based on domain.

Some embedded systems do not require any manual intervention for their operation. They automatically sense the input parameters from real world through sensors which are connected at input port. The sensor information is passed to the processor after signal conditioning and digitization. The core of the system performs some predefined operations on input data with the help of embedded firmware in the system and sends some actuating signals to the actuator connect connected to the output port of the system.

The memory of the system is responsible for holding the code (control algorithm and other important configuration details). There are two types of memories are used in any embedded system. Fixed memory (ROM) is used for storing code or program. The user cannot change the firmware in this type of memory. The most common types of memories used in embedded systems for control algorithm storage are OTP,PROM,UVEPROM,EEPROM and FLASH

An embedded system without code (i.e. the control algorithm) implemented memory has all the peripherals but is not capable of making decisions depending on the situational as well as real world changes.

Memory for implementing the code may be present on the processor or may be implemented as a separate chip interfacing the processor

In a controller based embedded system, the controller may contain internal memory for storing code Such controllers are called Micro-controllers with on-chip ROM, eg. Atmel AT89C51.

The Core of the Embedded Systems: The core of the embedded system falls into any one of the following categories.

❑ **General Purpose and Domain Specific Processors**

- Microprocessors
- Microcontrollers
- Digital Signal Processors

❑ **Programmable Logic Devices (PLDs)**

❑ **Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs)**

❑ **Commercial off the shelf Components (COTS)**

GENERAL PURPOSE AND DOMAIN SPECIFIC PROCESSOR:

- Almost 80% of the embedded systems are processor/ controller based.
- The processor may be microprocessor or a microcontroller or digital signal processor, depending on the domain and application.

Microprocessor:

- A silicon chip representing a Central Processing Unit (CPU), which is capable of performing arithmetic as well as logical operations according to a pre-defined set of Instructions, which is specific to the manufacturer
- In general the CPU contains the Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU), Control Unit and Working registers
- Microprocessor is a dependant unit and it requires the combination of other hardware like Memory, Timer Unit, and Interrupt Controller etc for proper functioning.
- Intel claims the credit for developing the first Microprocessor unit Intel 4004, a 4 bit processor which was released in Nov 1971
- Developers of microprocessors.
 - Intel – Intel 4004 – November 1971(4-bit)
 - Intel – Intel 4040.
 - Intel – Intel 8008 – April 1972.
 - Intel – Intel 8080 – April 1974(8-bit).
 - Motorola – Motorola 6800.
 - Intel – Intel 8085 – 1976.
 - Zilog - Z80 – July 1976

Microcontroller:

- ❖ A highly integrated silicon chip containing a CPU, scratch pad RAM, Special and General purpose Register Arrays, On Chip ROM/FLASH memory for program storage, Timer and Interrupt control units and dedicated I/O ports
- ❖ Microcontrollers can be considered as a super set of Microprocessors
- ❖ Microcontroller can be general purpose (like Intel 8051, designed for generic applications and domains) or application specific (Like Automotive AVR from Atmel Corporation. Designed specifically for automotive applications)
- ❖ Since a microcontroller contains all the necessary functional blocks for independent working, they found greater place in the embedded domain in place of microprocessors
- ❖ Microcontrollers are cheap, cost effective and are readily available in the market
- ❖ Texas Instruments TMS 1000 is considered as the world's first microcontroller

Microprocessor Vs Microcontroller:

Microprocessor	Microcontroller
A silicon chip representing a Central Processing Unit (CPU), which is capable of performing arithmetic as well as logical operations according to a pre-defined set of Instructions	A microcontroller is a highly integrated chip that contains a CPU, scratch pad RAM, Special and General purpose Register Arrays, On Chip ROM/FLASH memory for program storage, Timer and Interrupt control units and dedicated I/O ports
It is a dependent unit. It requires the combination of other chips like Timers, Program and data memory chips, Interrupt controllers etc for functioning	It is a self contained unit and it doesn't require external Interrupt Controller, Timer, UART etc for its functioning
Most of the time general purpose in design and operation	Mostly application oriented or domain specific
Doesn't contain a built in I/O port. The I/O Port functionality needs to be implemented with the help of external Programmable Peripheral Interface Chips like 8255	Most of the processors contain multiple built-in I/O ports which can be operated as a single 8 or 16 or 32 bit Port or as individual port pins
Targeted for high end market where performance is important	Targeted for embedded market where performance is not so critical (At present this demarcation is invalid)
Limited power saving options compared to microcontrollers	Includes lot of power saving features

General Purpose Processor (GPP) Vs Application Specific Instruction Set Processor (ASIP)

- ❖ General Purpose Processor or GPP is a processor designed for general computational tasks
- ❖ GPPs are produced in large volumes and targeting the general market. Due to the high volume production, the per unit cost for a chip is low compared to ASIC or other specific ICs
- ❖ A typical general purpose processor contains an Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU) and Control Unit (CU)
- ❖ Application Specific Instruction Set processors (ASIPs) are processors with architecture and instruction set optimized to specific domain/application requirements like Network processing, Automotive, Telecom, media applications, digital signal processing, control applications etc.
- ❖ ASIPs fill the architectural spectrum between General Purpose Processors and Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs)
- ❖ The need for an ASIP arises when the traditional general purpose processor are unable to meet the increasing application needs
- ❖ Some Microcontrollers (like Automotive AVR, USB AVR from Atmel), System on Chips, Digital Signal Processors etc are examples of Application Specific Instruction Set Processors (ASIPs)
- ❖ ASIPs incorporate a processor and on-chip peripherals, demanded by the application requirement, program and data memory

Digital Signal Processors (DSPs):

- Powerful special purpose 8/16/32 bit microprocessors designed specifically to meet the computational demands and power constraints of today's embedded audio, video, and communications applications
- Digital Signal Processors are 2 to 3 times faster than the general purpose microprocessors in signal processing applications
- DSPs implement algorithms in hardware which speeds up the execution whereas general purpose processors implement the algorithm in firmware and the speed of execution depends primarily on the clock for the processors
- DSP can be viewed as a microchip designed for performing high speed computational operations for 'addition', 'subtraction', 'multiplication' and 'division'

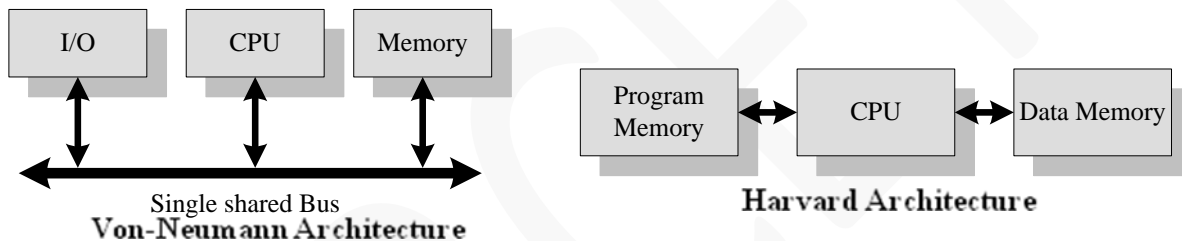
- A typical Digital Signal Processor incorporates the following key units
 - ❖ Program Memory
 - ❖ Data Memory
 - ❖ Computational Engine
 - ❖ I/O Unit
- Audio video signal processing, telecommunication and multimedia applications are typical examples where DSP is employed

RISC V/s CISC Processors/Controllers:

RISC	CISC
Lesser no. of instructions	Greater no. of Instructions
Instruction Pipelining and increased execution speed	Generally no instruction pipelining feature
Orthogonal Instruction Set (Allows each instruction to operate on any register and use any addressing mode)	Non Orthogonal Instruction Set (All instructions are not allowed to operate on any register and use any addressing mode. It is instruction specific)
Operations are performed on registers only, the only memory operations are load and store	Operations are performed on registers or memory depending on the instruction
Large number of registers are available	Limited no. of general purpose registers
Programmer needs to write more code to execute a task since the instructions are simpler ones	. A programmer can achieve the desired functionality with a single instruction which in turn provides the effect of using more simpler single instructions in RISC
Single, Fixed length Instructions	Variable length Instructions
Less Silicon usage and pin count	More silicon usage since more additional decoder logic is required to implement the complex instruction decoding.
With Harvard Architecture	Can be Harvard or Von-Neumann Architecture

Harvard V/s Von-Neumann Processor/Controller Architecture

- The terms Harvard and Von-Neumann refers to the processor architecture design.
- Microprocessors/controllers based on the **Von-Neumann** architecture shares a single common bus for fetching both instructions and data. Program instructions and data are stored in a common main memory
- Microprocessors/controllers based on the **Harvard** architecture will have separate data bus and instruction bus. This allows the data transfer and program fetching to occur simultaneously on both buses
- With Harvard architecture, the data memory can be read and written while the program memory is being accessed. These separated data memory and code memory buses allow one instruction to execute while the next instruction is fetched (“Pre-fetching”)

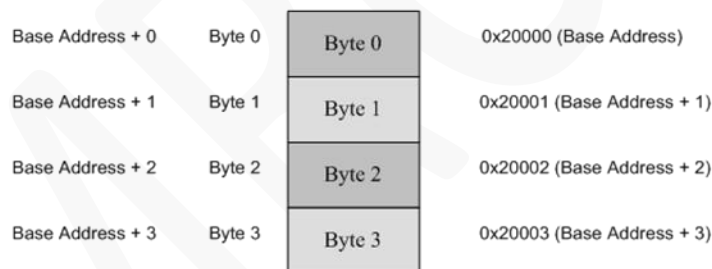
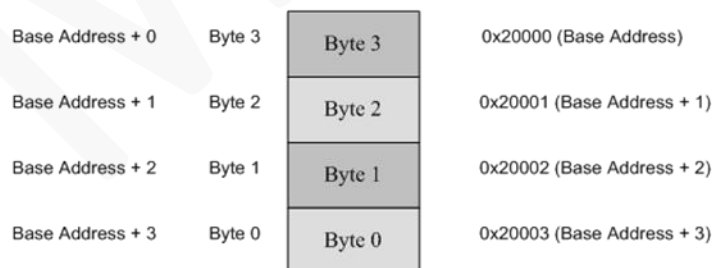


Harvard V/s Von-Neumann Processor/Controller Architecture:

Harvard Architecture	Von-Neumann Architecture
Separate buses for Instruction and Data fetching	Single shared bus for Instruction and Data fetching
Easier to Pipeline, so high performance can be achieved	Low performance Compared to Harvard Architecture
Comparatively high cost	Cheaper
No memory alignment problems	Allows self modifying codes [†]
Since data memory and program memory are stored physically in different locations, no chances for accidental corruption of program memory	Since data memory and program memory are stored physically in same chip, chances for accidental corruption of program memory

Big-endian V/s Little-endian processors:

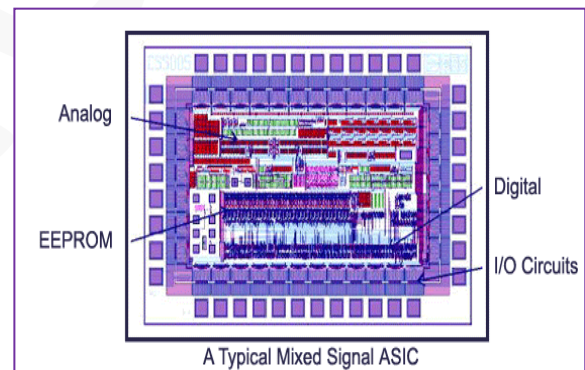
- ✓ Endianness specifies the order in which the data is stored in the memory by processor operations in a multi byte system (Processors whose word size is greater than one byte). Suppose the word length is two byte then data can be stored in memory in two different ways
 - Higher order of data byte at the higher memory and lower order of data byte at location just below the higher memory
 - Lower order of data byte at the higher memory and higher order of data byte at location just below the higher memory
- ✓ *Little-endian* means the lower-order byte of the data is stored in memory at the lowest address, and the higher-order byte at the highest address. (The little end comes first)
- ✓ *Big-endian* means the higher-order byte of the data is stored in memory at the lowest address, and the lower-order byte at the highest address. (The big end comes first.)

Big-endian V/s Little-endian processors**Little-endian Operation****Big-endian Operation**

- During the decode operation the memory address bus is available and if it possible to effectively utilize it for an instruction fetch, the processing speed can be increased
- In its simplest form instruction pipelining refers to the overlapped execution of instructions

Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC):

- A microchip designed to perform a specific or unique application. It is used as replacement to conventional general purpose logic chips.
- ASIC integrates several functions into a single chip and thereby reduces the system development cost
- Most of the ASICs are proprietary products. As a single chip, ASIC consumes very small area in the total system and thereby helps in the design of smaller systems with high capabilities/functionalities.
- ASICs can be pre-fabricated for a special application or it can be custom fabricated by using the components from a re-usable '*building block*' library of components for a particular customer application



- Fabrication of ASICs requires a non-refundable initial investment (Non Recurring Engineering (NRE) charges) for the process technology and configuration expenses
- If the Non-Recurring Engineering Charges (NRE) is born by a third party and the Application Specific Integrated Circuit (ASIC) is made openly available in the market, the ASIC is referred as Application Specific Standard Product (ASSP)
- The ASSP is marketed to multiple customers just as a general-purpose product , but to a smaller number of customers since it is for a specific application.

- Some ASICs are proprietary products , the developers are not interested in revealing the internal details.

Programmable Logic Devices (PLDs):

- ❖ Logic devices provide specific functions, including device-to-device interfacing, data communication, signal processing, data display, timing and control operations, and almost every other function a system must perform.
- ❖ Logic devices can be classified into two broad categories - Fixed and Programmable. The circuits in a fixed logic device are permanent, they perform one function or set of functions - once manufactured, they cannot be changed
- ❖ Programmable logic devices (PLDs) offer customers a wide range of logic capacity, features, speed, and voltage characteristics - and these devices can be re-configured to perform any number of functions at any time
- ❖ Designers can use inexpensive software tools to quickly develop, simulate, and test their logic designs in PLD based design. The design can be quickly programmed into a device, and immediately tested in a live circuit
- ❖ PLDs are based on re-writable memory technology and the device is reprogrammed to change the design

Programmable Logic Devices (PLDs) – CPLDs and FPGA

- Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs) and Complex Programmable Logic Devices (CPLDs) are the two major types of programmable logic devices

FPGA:

- FPGA is an IC designed to be configured by a designer after manufacturing.
- FPGAs offer the highest amount of logic density, the most features, and the highest performance.
- Logic gate is Medium to high density ranging from **1K to 500K** system gates

- These advanced FPGA devices also offer features such as built-in hardwired processors (such as the IBM Power PC), substantial amounts of memory, clock management systems, and support for many of the latest, very fast device-to-device signaling technologies

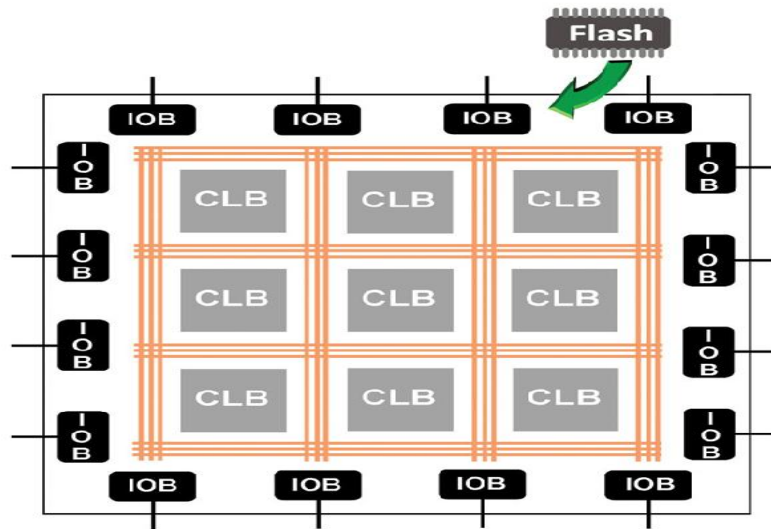


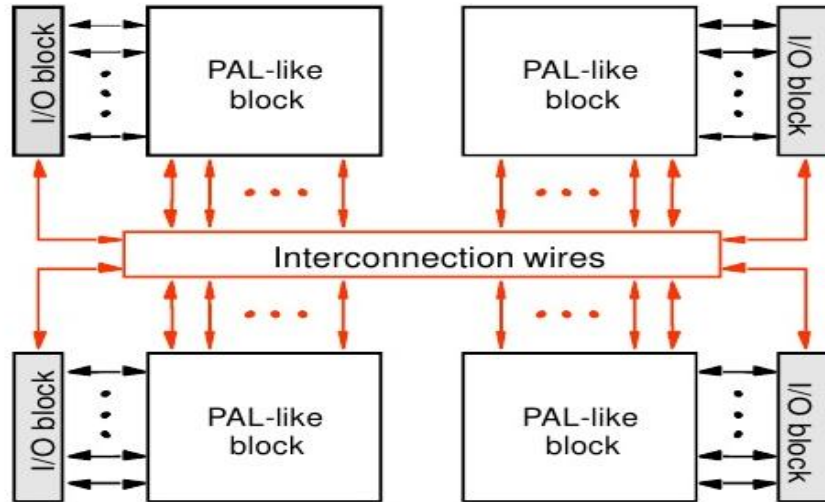
Figure: FPGA Architecture

- These advanced FPGA devices also offer features such as built-in hardwired processors, substantial amounts of memory, clock management systems, and support for many of the latest, very fast device-to-device signaling technologies.
- FPGAs are used in a wide variety of applications ranging from data processing and storage, to instrumentation, telecommunications, and digital signal processing

CPLD:

- A **complex programmable logic device (CPLD)** is a programmable logic device with complexity between that of PALs and FPGAs, and architectural features of both.
- CPLDs, by contrast, offer much smaller amounts of logic - up to about 10,000 gates.
- CPLDs offer very predictable timing characteristics and are therefore ideal for critical control applications.

► Structure of a CPLD



- CPLDs such as the Xilinx **CoolRunner** series also require extremely low amounts of power and are very inexpensive, making them ideal for cost-sensitive, battery-operated, portable applications such as mobile phones and digital handheld assistants.

ADVANTAGES OF PLDs:

- PLDs offer customer much more flexibility during design cycle
- PLDSs do not require long lead times for prototype or production-the PLDs are already on a distributor's self and ready for shipment
- PLDs do not require customers to pay for large NRE costs and purchase expensive mask sets
- PLDs allow customers to order just the number of parts required when they need them. allowing them to control inventory.
- PLDs are reprogrammable even after a piece of equipment is shipped to a customer.
- The manufacturers able to add new features or upgrade the PLD based products that are in the field by uploading new programming file

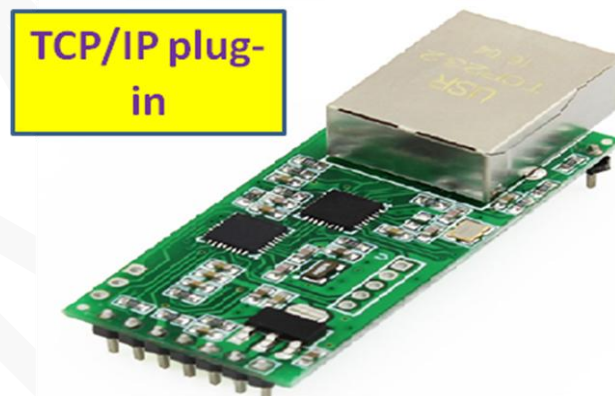
Commercial off the Shelf Component (COTS):

- A Commercial off-the-shelf (COTS) product is one which is used '*as-is*'
- COTS products are designed in such a way to provide easy integration and interoperability with existing system components

- Typical examples for the COTS hardware unit are Remote Controlled Toy Car control unit including the RF Circuitry part, High performance, high frequency microwave electronics (2 to 200 GHz), High bandwidth analog-to-digital converters, Devices and components for operation at very high temperatures, Electro-optic IR imaging arrays, UV/IR Detectors etc



- A COTS component in turn contains a General Purpose Processor (GPP) or Application Specific Instruction Set Processor (ASIP) or Application Specific Integrated Chip (ASIC)/Application Specific Standard Product (ASSP) or Programmable Logic Device (PLD)



- The major advantage of using COTS is that they are readily available in the market, cheap and a developer can cut down his/her development time to a great extent.
- There is no need to design the module yourself and write the firmware .
- Everything will be readily supplied by the COTs manufacturer.

- The major problem faced by the end-user is that there are no operational and manufacturing standards.
- The major drawback of using COTs component in embedded design is that the manufacturer may withdraw the product or discontinue the production of the COTs at any time if rapid change in technology
- This problem adversely affect a commercial manufacturer of the embedded system which makes use of the specific COTs

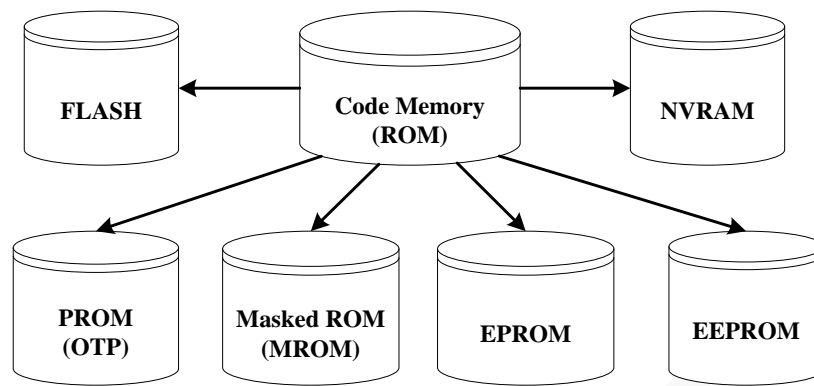
Memory:

- Memory is an important part of an embedded system. The memory used in embedded system can be either Program Storage Memory (ROM) or Data memory (RAM)
- Certain Embedded processors/controllers contain built in program memory and data memory and this memory is known as on-chip memory
- Certain Embedded processors/controllers do not contain sufficient memory inside the chip and requires external memory called **off-chip memory or external memory**.



Memory – Program Storage Memory:

- ❖ Stores the program instructions
- ❖ Retains its contents even after the power to it is turned off. It is generally known as Non volatile storage memory
- ❖ Depending on the fabrication, erasing and programming techniques they are classified into



1. Masked ROM (MROM):

- One-time programmable memory.
- Uses hardwired technology for storing data.
- The device is factory programmed by masking and metallization process according to the data provided by the end user.
- The primary advantage of MROM is low cost for high volume production.
- MROM is the least expensive type of solid state memory.
- Different mechanisms are used for the masking process of the ROM, like
 - ❖ Creation of an enhancement or depletion mode transistor through channel implant
 - ❖ By creating the memory cell either using a standard transistor or a high threshold transistor.
 - ❖ In the high threshold mode, the supply voltage required to turn ON the transistor is above the normal ROM IC operating voltage.
 - ❖ This ensures that the transistor is always off and the memory cell stores always logic 0.
- The limitation with MROM based firmware storage is the inability to modify the device firmware against firmware upgrades.
- The MROM is permanent in bit storage, it is not possible to alter the bit information

2. Programmable Read Only Memory (PROM) / (OTP) :

- It is not pre-programmed by the manufacturer
- The end user is responsible for Programming these devices.
- PROM/OTP has *nichrome* or *polysilicon* wires arranged in a matrix, these wires can be functionally viewed as fuses.
- It is programmed by a PROM programmer which selectively burns the fuses according to the bit pattern to be stored.
- Fuses which are not blown/burned represents a logic “1” where as fuses which are blown/burned represents a logic “0”. The default state is logic “1”.
- OTP is widely used for commercial production of embedded systems whose proto-typed versions are proven and the code is finalized.
- It is a low cost solution for commercial production.
- OTPs cannot be reprogrammed.

3. Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EPROM):

- Erasable Programmable Read Only (EPROM) memory gives the flexibility to re-program the same chip.
- During development phase , code is subject to continuous changes and using an OTP is not economical.
- EPROM stores the bit information by charging the floating gate of an FET
- Bit information is stored by using an EPROM Programmer, which applies high voltage to charge the floating gate
- EPROM contains a quartz crystal window for erasing the stored information. If the window is exposed to Ultra violet rays for a fixed duration, the entire memory will be erased
- Even though the EPROM chip is flexible in terms of re-programmability, it needs to be taken out of the circuit board and needs to be put in a UV eraser device for 20 to 30 minutes

4. Electrically Erasable Programmable Read Only Memory (EEPROM):

- Erasable Programmable Read Only (EPROM) memory gives the flexibility to re-program the same chip using electrical signals
- The information contained in the EEPROM memory can be altered by using electrical signals at the register/Byte level
- They can be erased and reprogrammed within the circuit
- These chips include a chip erase mode and in this mode they can be erased in a few milliseconds
- It provides greater flexibility for system design
- The only limitation is their capacity is limited when compared with the standard ROM (A few kilobytes).

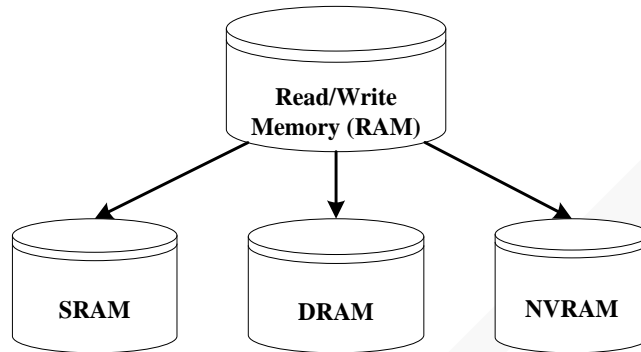
5. Program Storage Memory – FLASH

- FLASH memory is a variation of EEPROM technology.
- FLASH is the latest ROM technology and is the most popular ROM technology used in today's embedded designs
- It combines the re-programmability of EEPROM and the high capacity of standard ROMs
- FLASH memory is organized as sectors (blocks) or pages
- FLASH memory stores information in an array of floating gate MOSFET transistors
- The erasing of memory can be done at sector level or page level without affecting the other sectors or pages
- Each sector/page should be erased before re-programming
- The typical erasable capacity of FLASH is of the order of a few 1000 cycles.

Read-Write Memory/Random Access Memory (RAM)

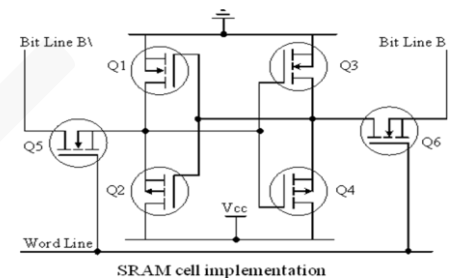
- ❖ RAM is the data memory or working memory of the controller/processor
- ❖ RAM is volatile, meaning when the power is turned off, all the contents are destroyed

- ❖ RAM is a direct access memory, meaning we can access the desired memory location directly without the need for traversing through the entire memory locations to reach the desired memory position (i.e. Random Access of memory location)



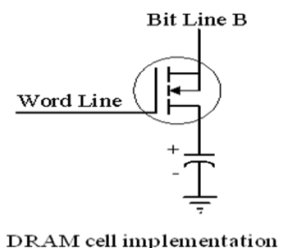
1. Static RAM (SRAM):

- ❖ Static RAM stores data in the form of Voltage.
- ❖ They are made up of flip-flops
- ❖ In typical implementation, an SRAM cell (bit) is realized using 6 transistors (or 6 MOSFETs).
- ❖ Four of the transistors are used for building the latch (flip-flop) part of the memory cell and 2 for controlling the access.
- ❖ Static RAM is the fastest form of RAM available.
- ❖ SRAM is fast in operation due to its resistive networking and switching capabilities



2. Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

- ❖ Dynamic RAM stores data in the form of charge. They are made up of MOS transistor gates
- ❖ The advantages of DRAM are its high density and low cost compared to SRAM
- ❖ The disadvantage is that since the information is stored as charge it gets leaked off with time and to prevent this they need to be refreshed periodically
- ❖ Special circuits called DRAM controllers are used for the refreshing operation. The refresh operation is done periodically in milliseconds interval



SRAM Vs DRAM:

SRAM Cell	DRAM Cell
Made up of 6 CMOS transistors (MOSFET)	Made up of a MOSFET and a capacitor
Doesn't Require refreshing	Requires refreshing
Low capacity (Less dense)	High Capacity (Highly dense)
More expensive	Less Expensive
Fast in operation. Typical access time is 10ns	Slow in operation due to refresh requirements. Typical access time is 60ns. Write operation is faster than read operation.

3. Non Volatile RAM (NVRAM):

- ❖ Random access memory with battery backup
- ❖ It contains Static RAM based memory and a minute battery for providing supply to the memory in the absence of external power supply
- ❖ The memory and battery are packed together in a single package
- ❖ NVRAM is used for the non volatile storage of results of operations or for setting up of flags etc
- ❖ The life span of NVRAM is expected to be around 10 years
- ❖ DS1744 from Maxim/Dallas is an example for 32KB NVRAM

Memory selection for Embedded Systems:

- Selection of suitable memory is very much essential step in high performance applications, because the challenges and limitations of the system performance are often decided upon the type of memory architecture.
- Systems memory requirement depend primarily on the nature of the application that is planned to run on the system.
- Memory performance and capacity requirement for low cost systems are small, whereas memory throughput can be the most critical requirement in a complex, high performance system.

- Following are the factors that are to be considered while selecting the memory devices,
 - Speed
 - Data storage size and capacity
 - Bus width
 - Power consumption
 - Cost
- **Embedded system require:**
 - ❖ Program memory for holding control algorithm or embedded OS and the applications designed to run on top of OS.
 - ❖ Data memory for holding variables and temporary data during task execution.
 - ❖ Memory for holding non-volatile data which are modifiable by the application.
- The memory requirement for an embedded system in terms of RAM (SRAM/DRAM) and ROM (EEPROM/FLASH/NVRAM) is solely dependent on the type of the embedded system and applications for which it is designed.
- There is no hard and fast rule for calculating the memory requirements.
- Lot of factors need to be considered for selecting the type and size of memory for embedded system.
- **Example:** Design of Embedded based electronic Toy.
- SOC or microcontroller can be selected based type(RAM &ROM) and size of on-chip memory for the design of embedded system.
- If on-chip memory is not sufficient then how much external memory need to be interfaced.
- If the ES design is RTOS based ,the RTOS requires certain amount of RAM for its execution and ROM for storing RTOS Image.
- The RTOS suppliers gives amount of run time RAM requirements and program memory requirements for the RTOS.
- Additional memory is required for executing user tasks and user applications.

- On a safer side, always add a buffer value to the total estimated RAM and ROM requirements.
- A smart phone device with windows OS is typical example for embedded device requires say 512MB RAM and 1GB ROM are minimum requirements for running the mobile device.
- And additional RAM &ROM memory is required for running user applications.
- So estimate the memory requirements for install and run the user applications without facing memory space.
- Memory can be selected based on size of the memory ,data bus and address bus size of the processor/controller.
- Memory chips are available in standard sizes like 512 bytes,1KB,2KB ,4KB,8KB,16 KB1MB etc.
- FLASH memory is the popular choice for ROM in embedded applications .
- It is powerful and cost-effective solid state storage technology for mobile electronic devices and other consumer applications.
- Flash memory available in two major variants
 - 1. NAND FLASH 2. NOR FLASH
- NAND FLASH is a high density low cost non-volatile storage memory.
- NOR FLASH is less dense and slightly expensive but supports Execute in place(XIP).
- The XIP technology allows the execution of code memory from ROM itself without the need for copying it to the RAM.
- The EEPROM is available as either serial interface or parallel interface chip.
- If the processor/controller of the device supports serial interface and the amount of data to write and read to and from the device (Serial EEPROM) is less.
- The serial EEPROM saves the address space of the total system.
- The memory capacity of the serial EEPROM is expressed in bits or Kilobits.

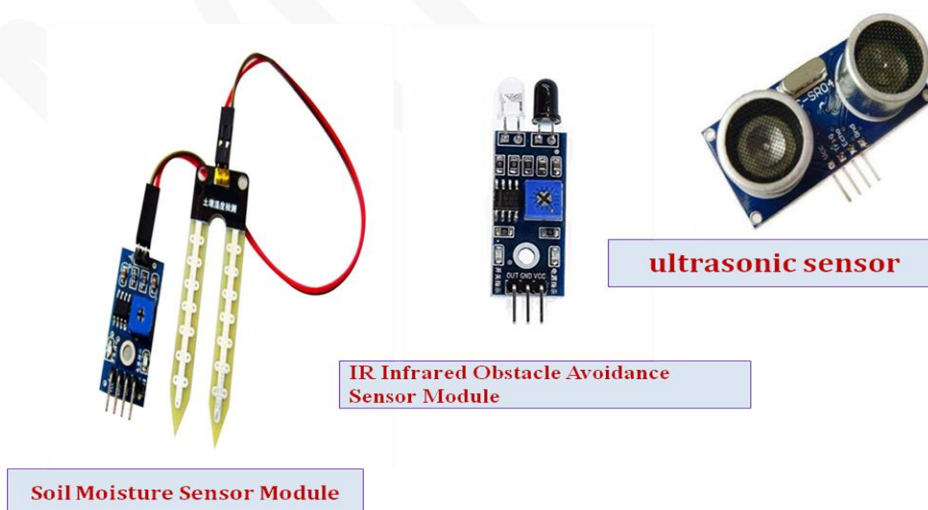
- Industrial grade memory chips are used in certain embedded devices may be operated at extreme environmental conditions like high temperature.

Sensors & Actuators:

- Embedded system is in constant interaction with the real world
- Controlling/monitoring functions executed by the embedded system is achieved in accordance with the changes happening to the Real World.
- The changes in the system environment or variables are detected by the sensors connected to the input port of the embedded system.
- If the embedded system is designed for any controlling purpose, the system will produce some changes in controlling variable to bring the controlled variable to the desired value.
- It is achieved through an actuator connected to the out port of the embedded system.

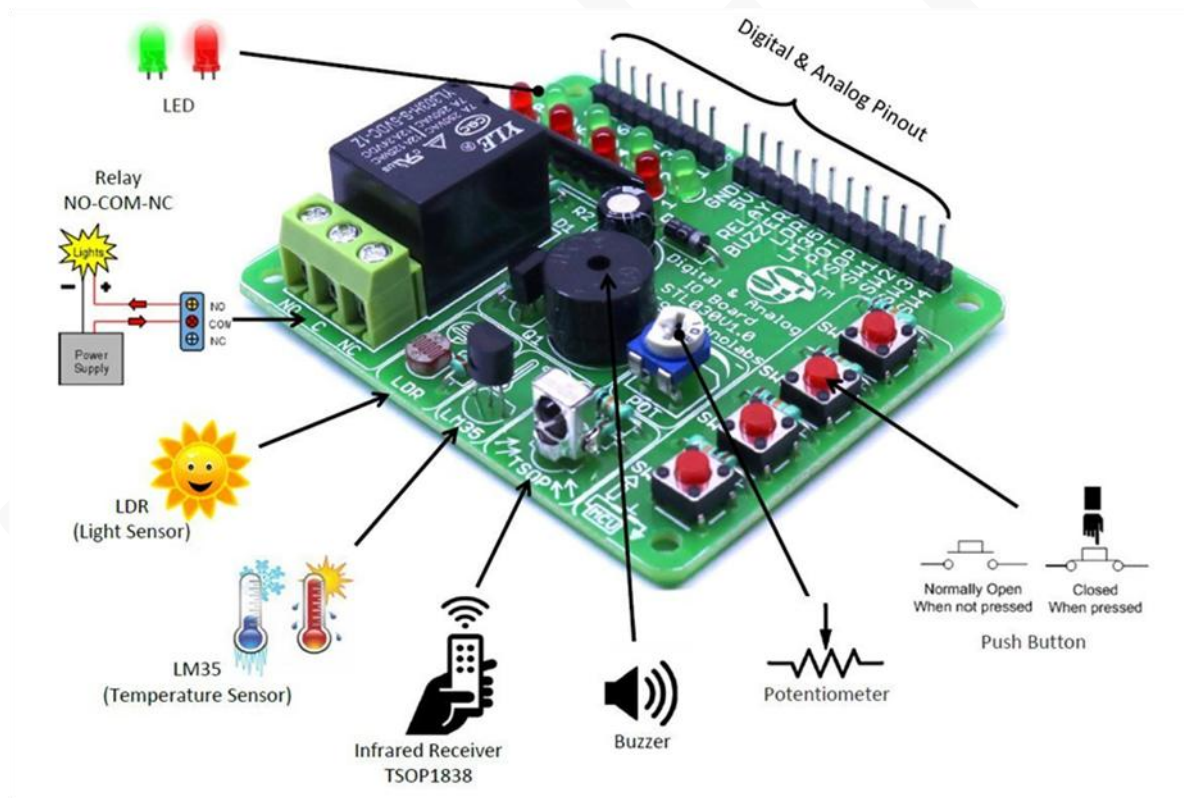
Sensor:

- A transducer device which converts energy from one form to another for any measurement or control purpose. Sensors acts as input device
- Eg. Hall Effect Sensor which measures the distance between the cushion and magnet in the Smart Running shoes from adidas
- **Example: IR, humidity , PIR(passive infra red) , ultrasonic , piezoelectric , smoke sensors**



Actuator:

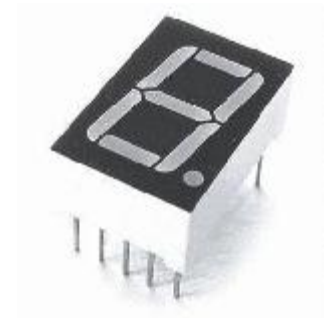
- A form of transducer device (mechanical or electrical) which converts signals to corresponding physical action (motion). Actuator acts as an output device
- Eg. Micro motor actuator which adjusts the position of the cushioning element in the Smart Running shoes from adidas



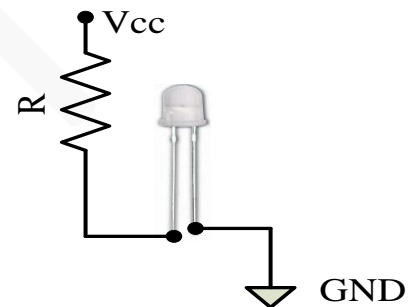
Silicon TechnoLabs Digital Analog Arduino Starter kit

The I/O Subsystem:

- ❑ The I/O subsystem of the embedded system facilitates the interaction of the embedded system with external world
- ❑ The interaction happens through the sensors and actuators connected to the Input and output ports respectively of the embedded system
- ❑ The sensors may not be directly interfaced to the Input ports, instead they may be interfaced through signal conditioning and translating systems like ADC, Optocouplers etc

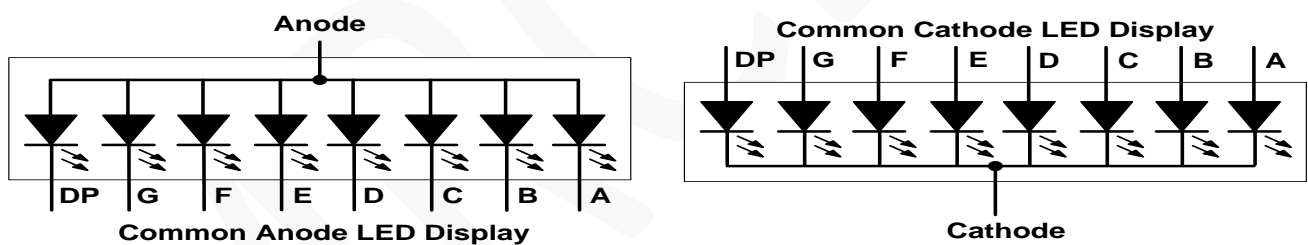
**1. I/O Devices - Light Emitting Diode (LED):**

- Light Emitting Diode (LED) is an output device for visual indication in any embedded system
- LED can be used as an indicator for the status of various signals or situations.
- Typical examples are indicating the presence of power conditions like 'Device ON', 'Battery low' or 'Charging of battery' for a battery operated handheld embedded devices
- LED is a p-n junction diode and it contains an anode and a cathode.
- For proper functioning of the LED, the anode of it should be connected to +ve terminal of the supply voltage and cathode to the -ve terminal of supply voltage
- The current flowing through the LED must be limited to a value below the maximum current that it can conduct.
- A resistor is used in series between the power supply and the resistor to limit the current through the LED

**2. I/O Devices – 7-Segment LED Display**

- The 7 – segment LED display is an output device for displaying alpha numeric characters
- It contains 8 light-emitting diode (LED) segments arranged in a special form. Out of the 8 LED segments, 7 are used for displaying alpha numeric characters

- The LED segments are named A to G and the decimal point LED segment is named as DP
- The LED Segments A to G and DP should be lit accordingly to display numbers and characters
- The 7 – segment LED displays are available in two different configurations, namely; Common anode and Common cathode
- In the Common anode configuration, the anodes of the 8 segments are connected commonly whereas in the Common cathode configuration, the 8 LED segments share a common cathode line
- Based on the configuration of the 7 – segment LED unit, the LED segment anode or cathode is connected to the Port of the processor/controller in the order ‘A’ segment to the Least significant port Pin and DP segment to the most significant Port Pin.
- The current flow through each of the LED segments should be limited to the maximum value supported by the LED display unit

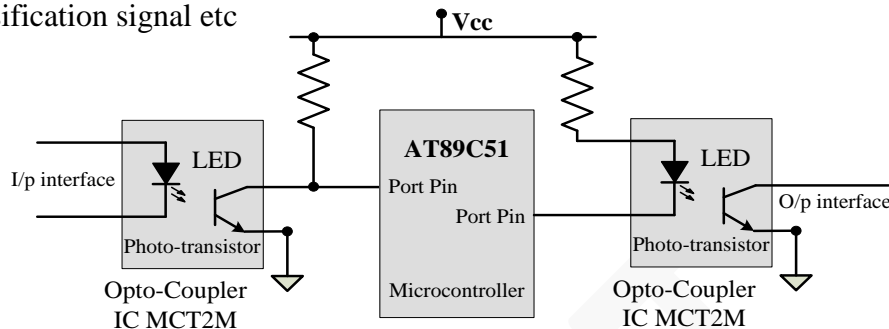


- The typical value for the current falls within the range of 20mA
- The current through each segment can be limited by connecting a current limiting resistor to the anode or cathode of each segment

3. I/O Devices – Optocoupler

- Optocoupler is a solid state device to isolate two parts of a circuit.
- Optocoupler combines an LED and a photo-transistor in a single housing (package)

- In electronic circuits, optocoupler is used for suppressing interference in data communication, circuit isolation, High voltage separation, simultaneous separation and intensification signal etc

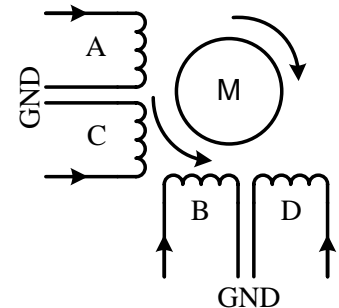


Optocoupler in input and output circuit

- Optocouplers can be used in either input circuits or in output circuits

4. I/O Devices – Stepper Motor:

- Stepper motor is an electro mechanical device which generates discrete displacement (motion) in response to dc electrical signals
- It differs from the normal dc motor in its operation. The dc motor produces continuous rotation on applying dc voltage whereas a stepper motor produces discrete rotation in response to the dc voltage applied to it
- Stepper motors are widely used in industrial embedded applications, consumer electronic products and robotics control systems
- The paper feed mechanism of a printer/fax makes use of stepper motors for its functioning.
- Based on the coil winding arrangements, a two phase stepper motor is classified into

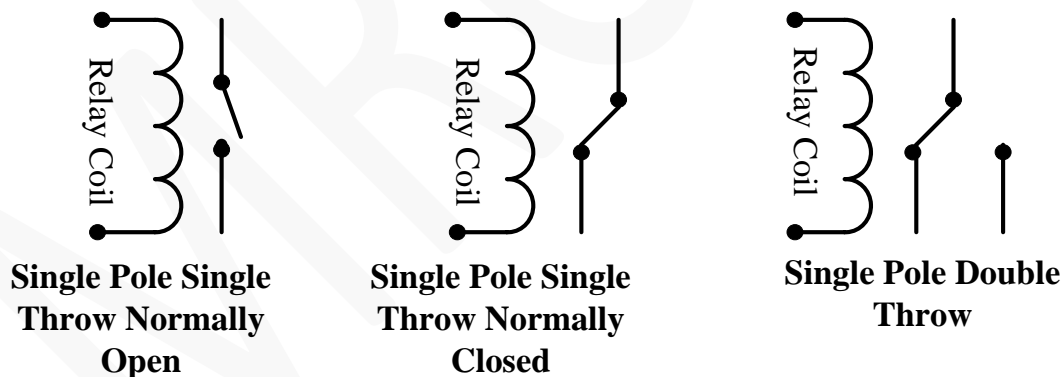


- ✓ Unipolar
- ✓ Bipolar

- ❖ **Unipolar:** A unipolar stepper motor contains two windings per phase. The direction of rotation (clockwise or anticlockwise) of a stepper motor is controlled by changing the direction of current flow. Current in one direction flows through one coil and in the opposite direction flows through the other coil. It is easy to shift the direction of rotation by just switching the terminals to which the coils are connected
- ❖ **Bipolar:** A bipolar stepper motor contains single winding per phase. For reversing the motor rotation the current flow through the windings is reversed dynamically. It requires complex circuitry for current flow reversal

5. The I/O Subsystem – I/O Devices – **Relay:**

- An electro mechanical device which acts as dynamic path selectors for signals and power.
- The 'Relay' unit contains a relay coil made up of insulated wire on a metal core and a metal armature with one or more contacts.
- 'Relay' works on electromagnetic principle.
- When a voltage is applied to the relay coil, current flows through the coil, which in turn generates a magnetic field.



- The magnetic field attracts the armature core and moves the contact point.
- The movement of the contact point changes the power/signal flow path.
- The Relay is normally controlled using a relay driver circuit connected to the port pin of the processor/controller
- A transistor can be used as the relay driver. The transistor can be selected depending on the relay driving current requirements.

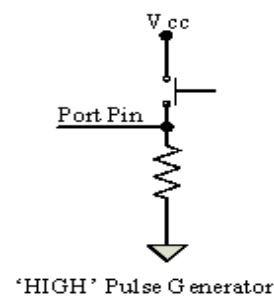
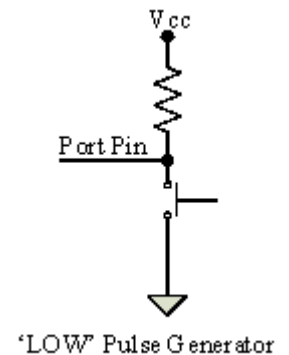
6. The I/O Subsystem – I/O Devices -Piezo Buzzer:

- It is a piezoelectric device for generating audio indications in embedded applications.
- A Piezo buzzer contains a piezoelectric diaphragm which produces audible sound in response to the voltage applied to it.
- Piezoelectric buzzers are available in two types
 1. Self-driving
 2. External driving
- Self-driving contains all the necessary components to generate sound at a predefined tone.
- External driving piezo Buzzers support the generation of different tones.
- The tone can be varied by applying a variable pulse train to the piezoelectric buzzer.
- A Piezo Buzzer can be directly interfaced to the port pin of the processor/Controller.



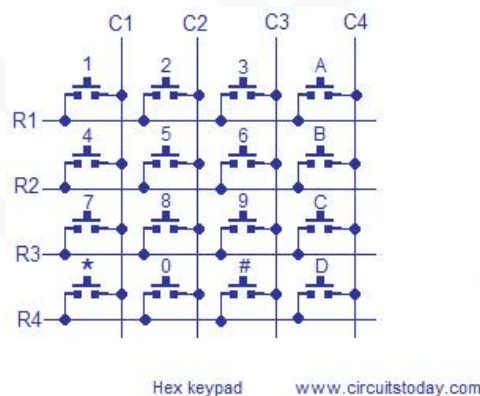
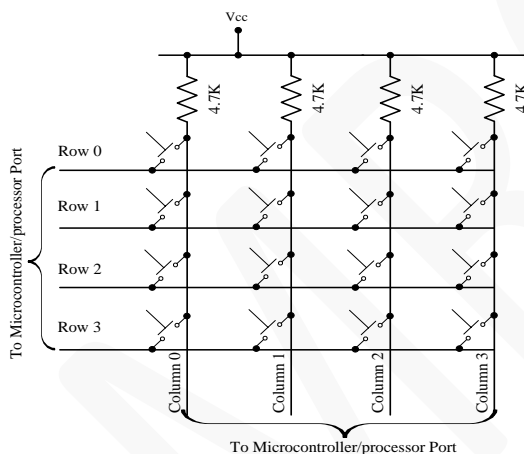
7. The I/O Subsystem – I/O Devices – Push button switch:

- Push Button switch is an input device.
- Push button switch comes in two configurations, namely 'Push to Make' and 'Push to Break'
- The switch is normally in the open state and it makes a circuit contact when it is pushed or pressed in the 'Push to Make' configuration.
- In the 'Push to Break' configuration, the switch is normally in the closed state and it breaks the circuit contact when it is pushed or pressed.
- The push button stays in the 'closed' (For Push to Make type) or 'open' (For Push to Break type) state as long as it is kept in the pushed state and it breaks/makes the circuit connection when it is released.
- Push button is used for generating a momentary pulse



8. The I/O Subsystem – I/O Devices – Keyboard:

- Keyboard is an input device for user interfacing
- If the number of keys required is very limited, push button switches can be used and they can be directly interfaced to the port pins for reading.
- Matrix keyboard is an optimum solution for handling large number of key requirements
- Matrix keyboard greatly reduces the number of interface connections.
- Matrix keyboard connects the keys in a row column fashion
- For example, for interfacing 16 keys, in the direct interfacing technique 16 port pins are required, where as in the matrix keyboard only 4 columns and 4 rows are required for interfacing 16 keys
- The key press in matrix keyboard is identified with row-column scanning technique



Communication Interface :

- Communication interface is essential for communicating with various subsystems of the embedded system and with the external world
- The communication interface can be viewed in two different perspectives; namely;

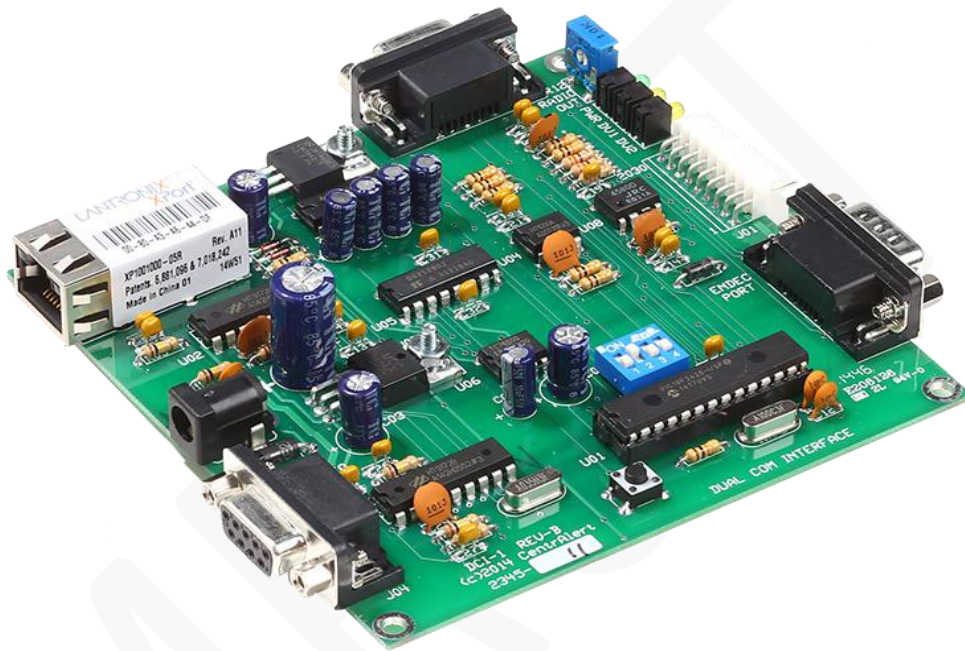
1. Device/board level communication interface (Onboard Communication Interface)

2. Product level communication interface (External Communication Interface)

1. Device/board level communication interface (Onboard Communication Interface):

The communication channel which interconnects the various components within an embedded product is referred as Device/board level communication interface (Onboard Communication Interface)

Examples: Serial interfaces like I2C, SPI, UART, 1-Wire etc and Parallel bus interface

**2. Product level communication interface (External Communication Interface):**

- The 'Product level communication interface' (External Communication Interface) is responsible for data transfer between the embedded system and other devices or modules
- The external communication interface can be either wired media or wireless media and it can be a serial or parallel interface.

Examples for wireless communication interface: Infrared (IR), Bluetooth (BT), Wireless LAN (Wi-Fi), Radio Frequency waves (RF), GPRS etc.

Examples for wired interfaces: RS-232C/RS-422/RS 485, USB, Ethernet (TCP-IP), IEEE 1394 port, Parallel port etc.



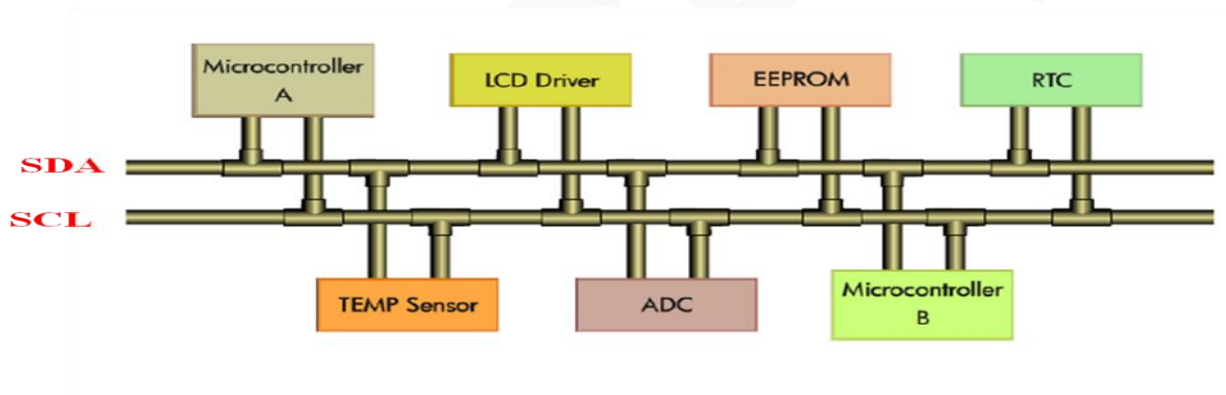
1. Device/board level or On board communication interface: The communication channel which interconnects the various components within an embedded product is referred as Device/board level communication interface (Onboard Communication Interface)

These are classified into

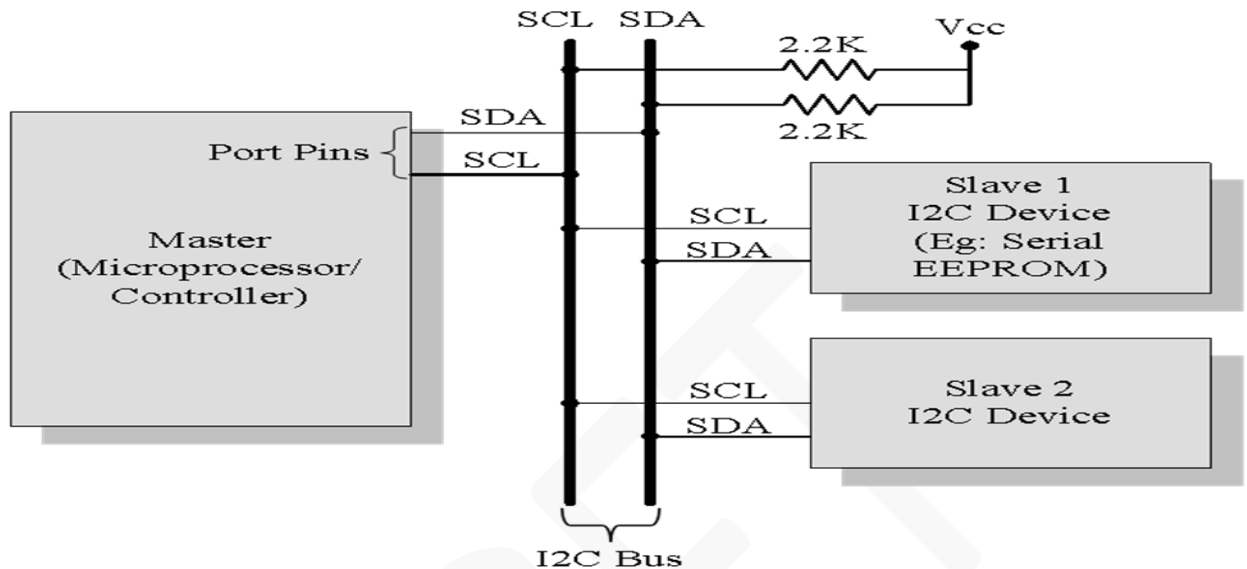
- 1.1 I2C (Inter Integrated Circuit) Bus
- 1.2 SPI(Serial Peripheral Interface) Bus
- 1.3 UART(Universal Asynchronous Receiver Transmitter)
- 1.4 1-Wire Interface
- 1.5 Parallel Interface

1.1 I2C (Inter Integrated Circuit)Bus :

- Inter Integrated Circuit Bus (I2C - Pronounced 'I square C') is a synchronous bi-directional half duplex (one-directional communication at a given point of time) two wire serial interface bus.
- The concept of I2C bus was developed by 'Philips Semiconductors' in the early 1980's.
- The original intention of I2C was to provide an easy way of connection between a microprocessor/microcontroller system and the peripheral chips in Television sets.
- The I2C bus is comprised of two bus lines, namely; Serial Clock – SCL and Serial Data – SDA.



- SCL line is responsible for generating synchronization clock pulses and SDA is responsible for transmitting the serial data across devices.
- I2C bus is a shared bus system to which many number of I2C devices can be connected.
- Devices connected to the I2C bus can act as either 'Master' device or 'Slave' device

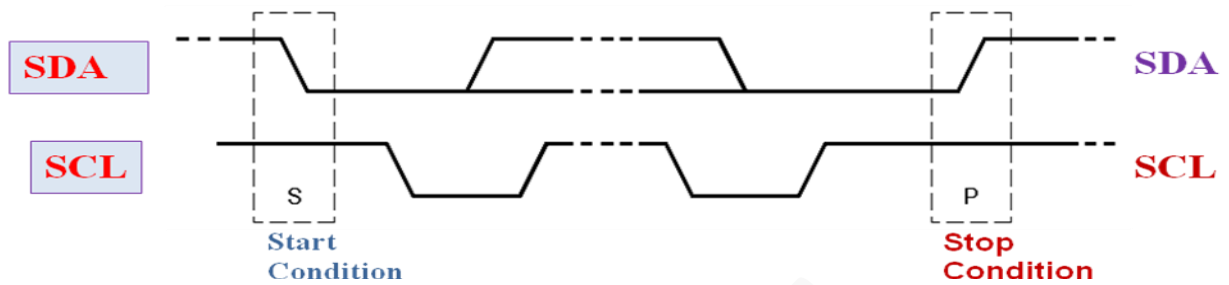


I2C Bus Interfacing

- The 'Master' device is responsible for controlling the communication by initiating/terminating data transfer, sending data and generating necessary synchronization clock pulses.
- 'Slave' devices wait for the commands from the master and respond upon receiving the commands.
- 'Master' and 'Slave' devices can act as either transmitter or receiver.
- Regardless whether a master is acting as transmitter or receiver, the synchronization clock signal is generated by the 'Master' device only.
- I2C supports multi masters on the same bus.

The sequence of operation for communicating with an I2C slave device is:

1. Master device pulls the clock line (SCL) of the bus to 'HIGH'
2. Master device pulls the data line (SDA) 'LOW', when the SCL line is at logic 'HIGH'
(This is the 'Start' condition for data transfer)



- Master sends the address (7 bit or 10 bit wide) of the 'Slave' device to which it wants to communicate, over the SDA line.



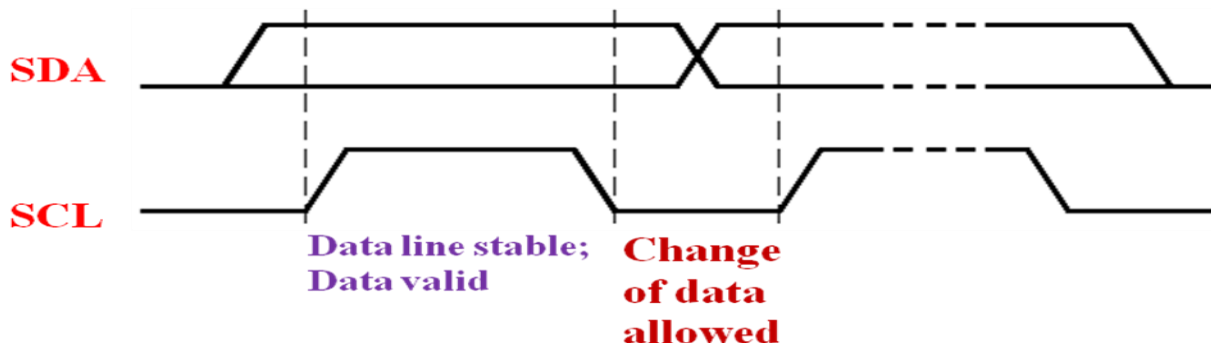
R/Wr

0 – Master writes to the slave

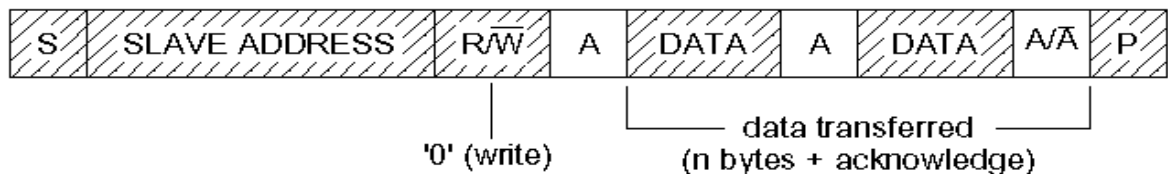
1 – Master read from slave


ACK – Generated by the slave whose address has been output.

- Clock pulses are generated at the SCL line for synchronizing the bit reception by the slave device.
- The MSB of the data is always transmitted first.
- The data in the bus is valid during the 'HIGH' period of the clock signal
- In normal data transfer, the data line only changes state when the clock is low .



8. Master waits for the acknowledgement bit from the slave device whose address is sent on the bus along with the Read/Write operation command.
9. Slave devices connected to the bus compares the address received with the address assigned to them
10. The Slave device with the address requested by the master device responds by sending an acknowledge bit (Bit value =1) over the SDA line
11. Upon receiving the acknowledge bit, master sends the 8bit data to the slave device over SDA line, if the requested operation is 'Write to device'.



 from master to slave

 from slave to master

MBC605

A = acknowledge (SDA LOW)

\bar{A} = not acknowledge (SDA HIGH)

S = START condition

P = STOP condition

Figure: Master writing to a Slave.

12. If the requested operation is 'Read from device', the slave device sends data to the master over the SDA line.

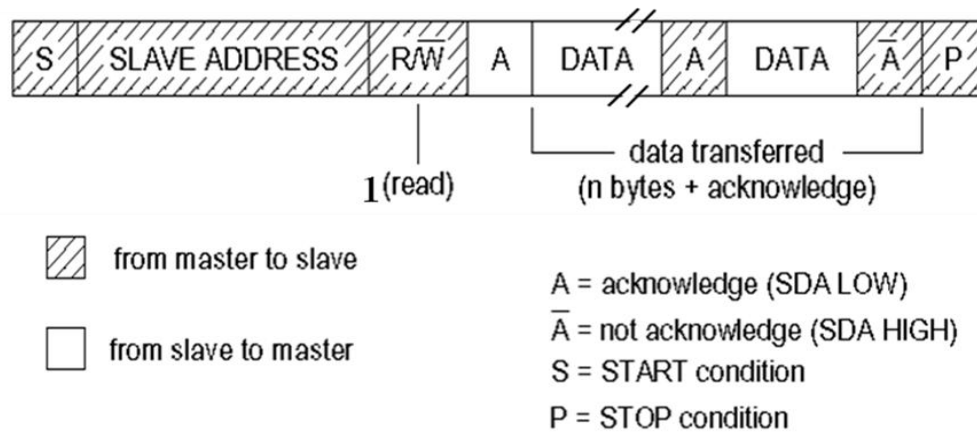


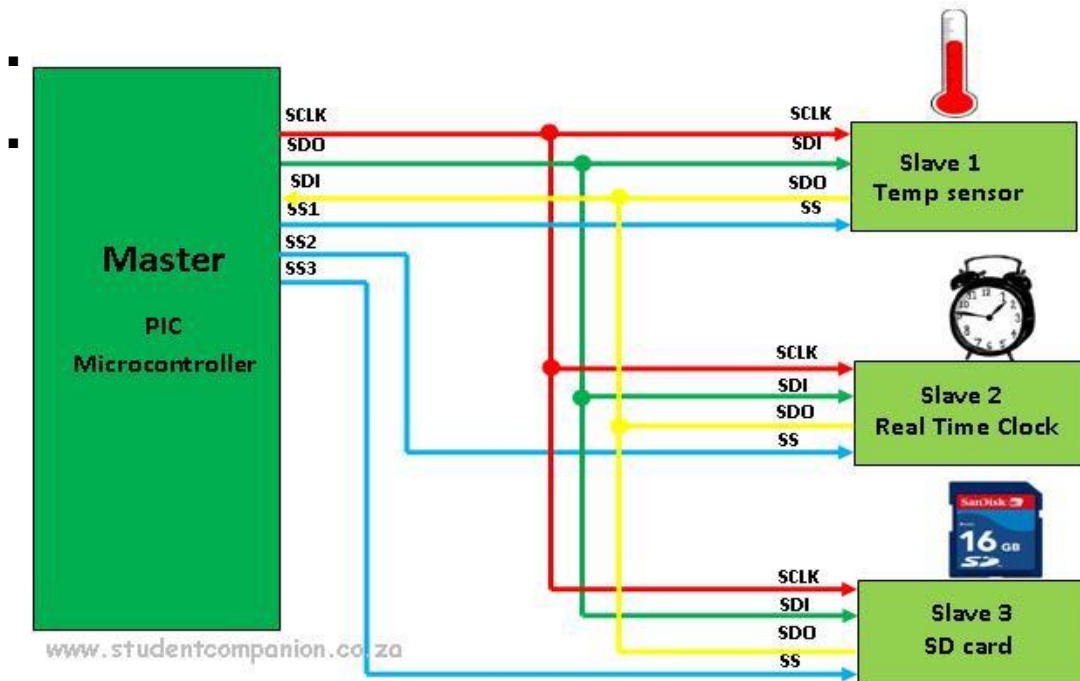
Figure: Master reading from a Slave

13. Master waits for the acknowledgement bit from the device upon byte transfer complete for a write operation and sends an acknowledge bit to the slave device for a read operation
14. Master terminates the transfer by pulling the SDA line 'HIGH' when the clock line SCL is at logic 'HIGH' (Indicating the 'STOP' condition).

1.2 Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI) Bus:

- The Serial Peripheral Interface Bus (SPI) is a synchronous bi-directional full duplex four wire serial interface bus.
- The concept of SPI is introduced by Motorola.
- SPI is a single master multi-slave system.
- It is possible to have a system where more than one SPI device can be master, provided the condition only one master device is active at any given point of time, is satisfied.

- SPI is used to send data between Microcontrollers and small peripherals such as shift registers, sensors, and SD cards.



- SPI requires four signal lines for communication. They are:

Master Out Slave In (MOSI): Signal line carrying the data from master to slave device. It is also known as Slave Input/Slave Data In (SI/SDI)

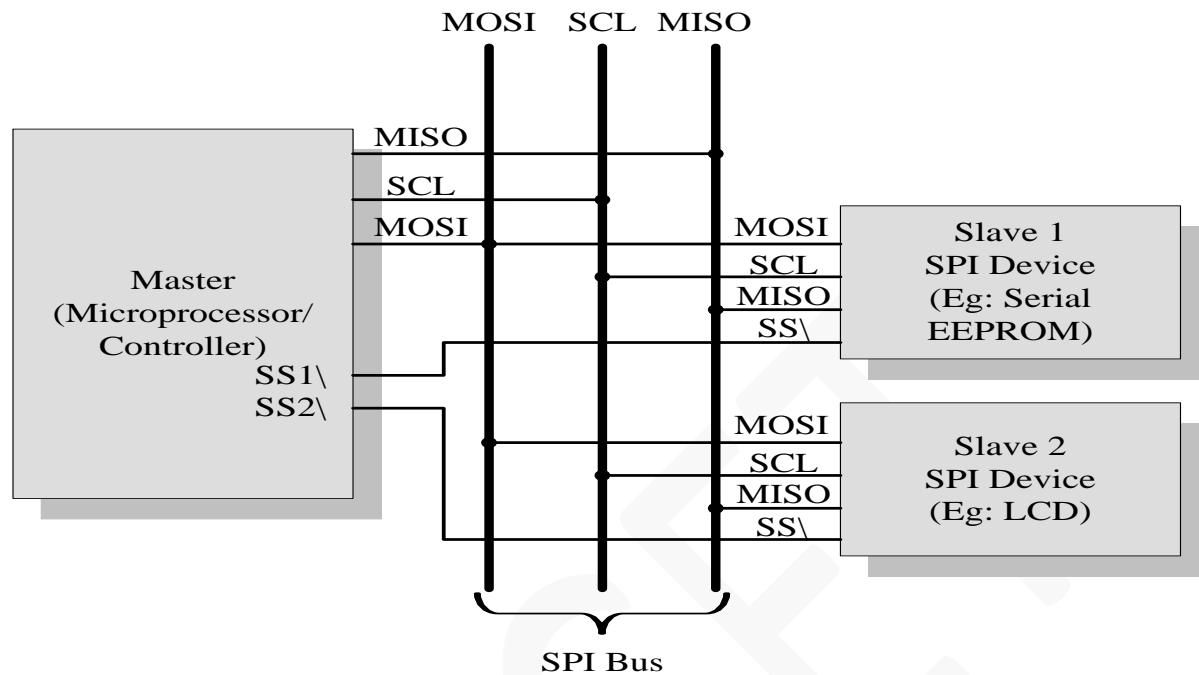
Master In Slave Out (MISO): Signal line carrying the data from slave to master device. It is also known as Slave Output (SO/SDO)

Serial Clock (SCLK): Signal line carrying the clock signals

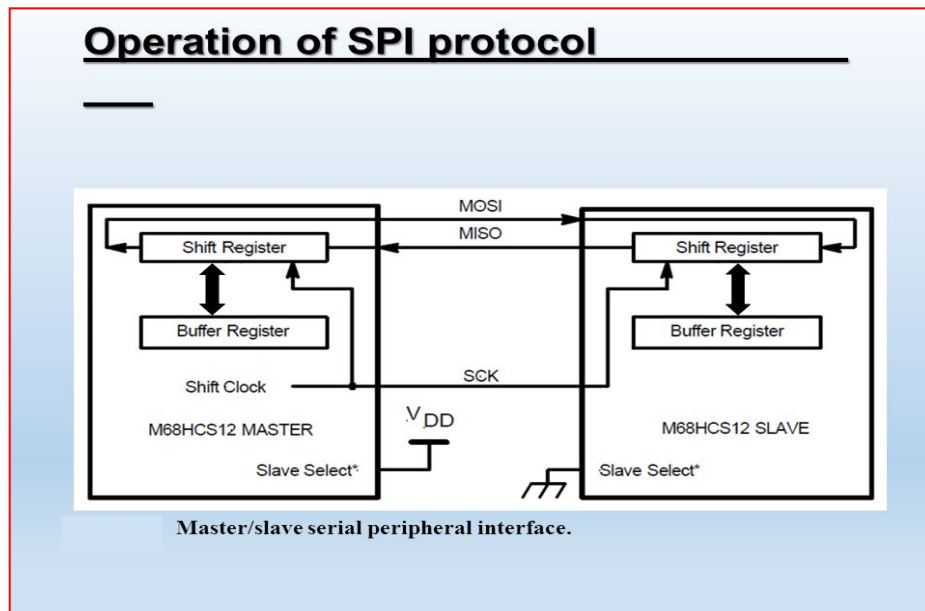
Slave Select (SS): Signal line for slave device select. It is an active low signal.

- The master device is responsible for generating the clock signal.
- Master device selects the required slave device by asserting the corresponding slave device's slave select signal 'LOW'.

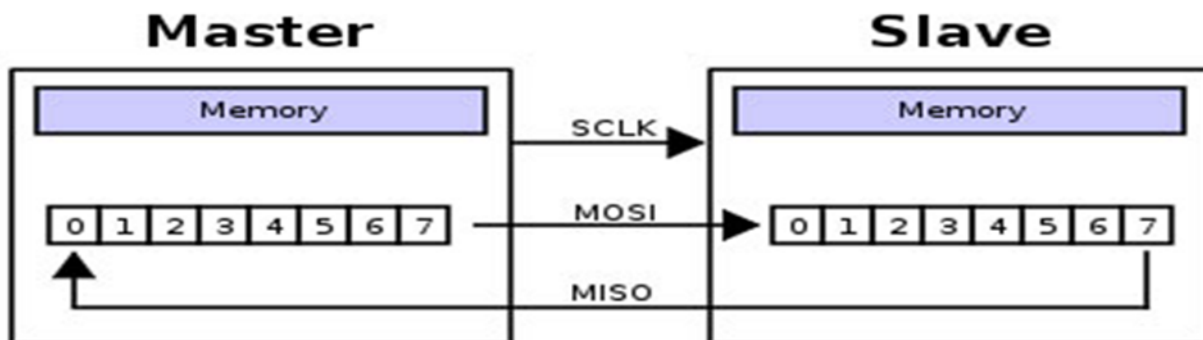
SPI interfacing



- The data out line (MISO) of all the slave devices when not selected floats at high impedance state
- The serial data transmission through SPI Bus is fully configurable.
- SPI devices contain certain set of registers for holding these configurations.
- The Serial Peripheral Control Register holds the various configuration parameters like master/slave selection for the device, baudrate selection for communication, clock signal control etc.
- The status register holds the status of various conditions for transmission and reception.
- SPI works on the principle of 'Shift Register'.
- The master and slave devices contain a special shift register for the data to transmit or receive.
- The size of the shift register is device dependent.
- Normally it is a multiple of 8.



- During transmission from the master to slave, the data in the master's shift register is shifted out to the MOSI pin and it enters the shift register of the slave device through the MOSI pin of the slave device.
- At the same time the shifted out data bit from the slave device's shift register enters the shift register of the master device through MISO pin



Master shifts out data to Slave, and shift in data from Slave

2. Product level communication interface (External Communication Interface): The Product level communication interface' (External Communication Interface) is responsible for data transfer between the embedded system and other devices or modules

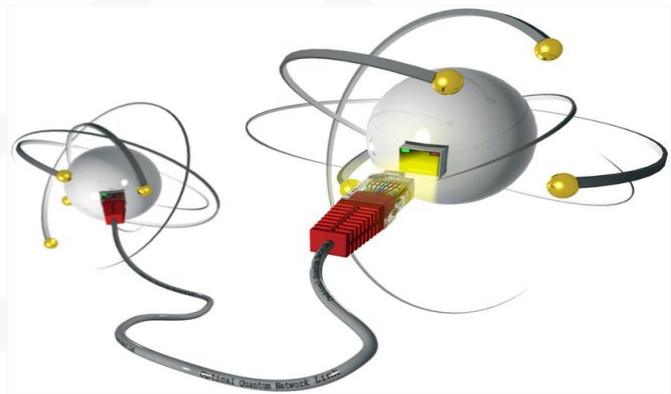
It is classified into two types

1. Wired communication interface
2. Wireless communication interface:

1. Wired communication interface: Wired communication interface is an interface used to transfer information over a wired network.

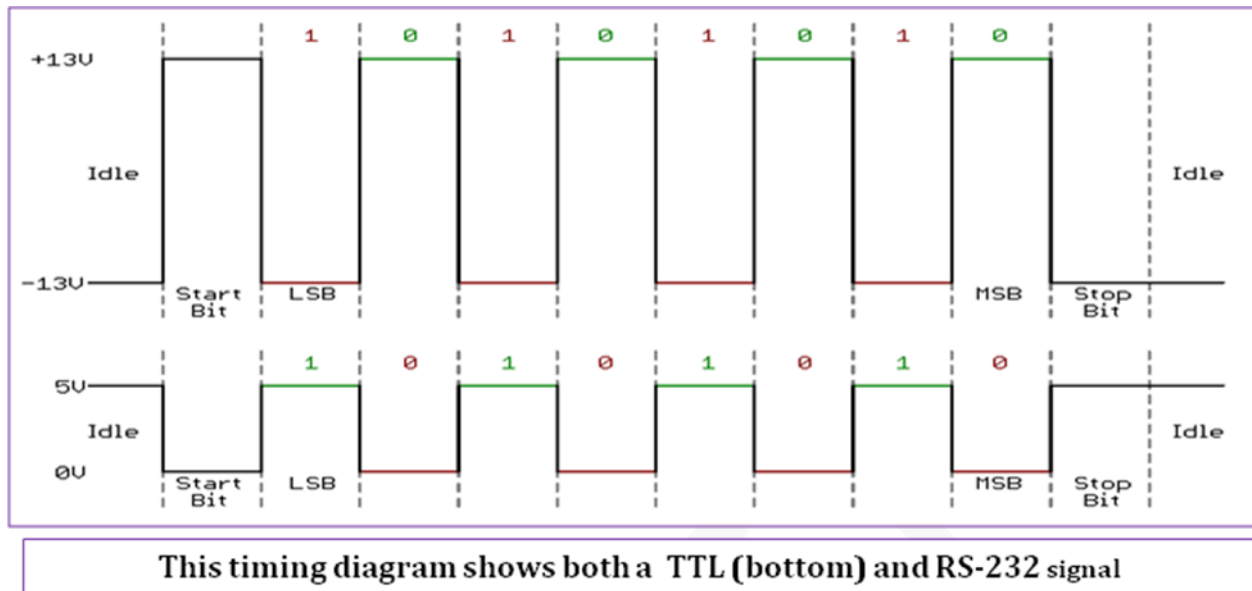
It is classified into following types.

1. **RS-232C/RS-422/RS 485**
2. **USB**
3. **IEEE 1394 port**

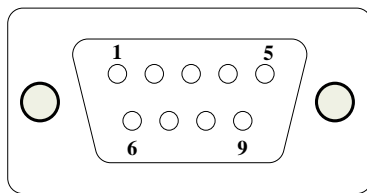


1. RS-232C:

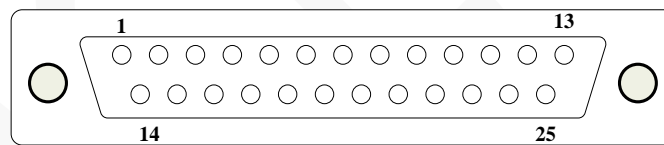
- RS-232 C (Recommended Standard number 232, revision C from the Electronic Industry Association) is a legacy, full duplex, wired, asynchronous serial communication interface
- RS-232 extends the UART communication signals for external data communication.
- UART uses the standard TTL/CMOS logic (Logic 'High' corresponds to bit value 1 and Logic 'LOW' corresponds to bit value 0) for bit transmission whereas RS232 use the EIA standard for bit transmission.
- As per EIA standard, a logic '0' is represented with voltage between +3 and +25V and a logic '1' is represented with voltage between -3 and -25V.
- In EIA standard, logic '0' is known as 'Space' and logic '1' as 'Mark'.
- The RS232 interface define various handshaking and control signals for communication apart from the 'Transmit' and 'Receive' signal lines for data communication



RS-232 supports two different types of connectors, namely; DB-9: 9-Pin connector and DB-25: 25-Pin connector.



DB-9

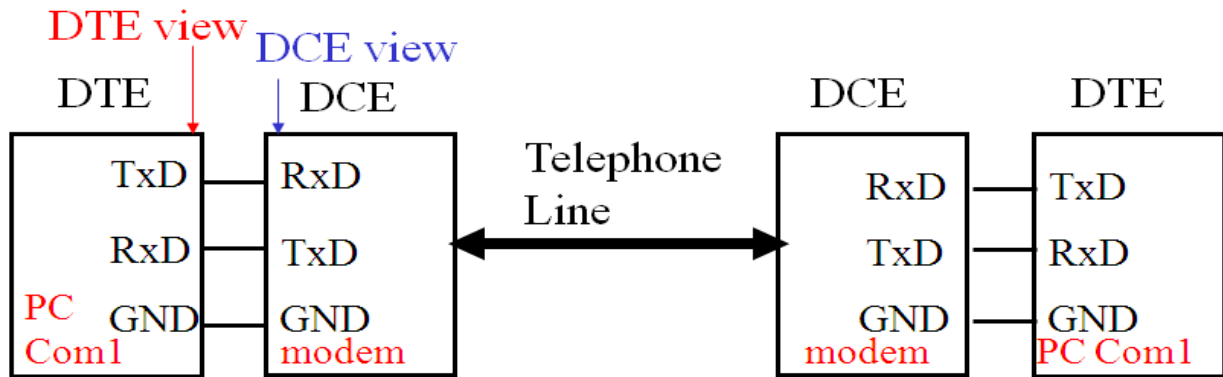


DB-25

Pin Name	Pin No:(For DB-9)	Description
TXD	3	Transmit Pin. Used for Transmitting Serial Data
RXD	2	Receive Pin. Used for Receiving serial Data
RTS	7	Request to send.
CTS	8	Clear To Send
DSR	6	Data Set ready
GND	5	Signal Ground
DCD	1	Data Carrier Detect
DTR	4	Data Terminal Ready
RI	9	Ring Indicator

- RS-232 is a point-to-point communication interface and the devices involved in RS-232 communication are called 'Data Terminal Equipment (DTE)' and 'Data Communication Equipment (DCE)'

- If no data flow control is required, only TXD and RXD signal lines and ground line (GND) are required for data transmission and reception.
- The RXD pin of DCE should be connected to the TXD pin of DTE and vice versa for proper data transmission.



- If hardware data flow control is required for serial transmission, various control signal lines of the RS-232 connection are used appropriately.
- The control signals are implemented mainly for modem communication and some of them may be irrelevant for other type of devices
- The Request To Send (RTS) and Clear To Send (CTS) signals co-ordinate the communication between DTE and DCE.
- Whenever the DTE has a data to send, it activates the RTS line and if the DCE is ready to accept the data, it activates the CTS line
- The Data Terminal Ready (DTR) signal is activated by DTE when it is ready to accept data.
- The Data Set Ready (DSR) is activated by DCE when it is ready for establishing a communication link.
- DTR should be in the activated state before the activation of DSR
- The Data Carrier Detect (DCD) is used by the DCE to indicate the DTE that a good signal is being received
- Ring Indicator (RI) is a modem specific signal line for indicating an incoming call on the telephone line.
- As per the EIA standard RS-232 C supports baudrates up to 20Kbps (Upper limit 19.2Kbps)

- The commonly used baudrates by devices are 300bps, 1200bps, 2400bps, 9600bps, 11.52Kbps and 19.2Kbps
- The maximum operating distance supported in RS-232 communication is 50 feet at the highest supported baudrate.
- Embedded devices contain a UART for serial communication and they generate signal levels conforming to TTL/CMOS logic.
- A level translator IC like MAX 232 from Maxim Dallas semiconductor is used for converting the signal lines from the UART to RS-232 signal lines for communication.
- On the receiving side the received data is converted back to digital logic level by a converter IC.
- Converter chips contain converters for both transmitter and receiver
- RS-232 uses single ended data transfer and supports only point-to-point communication and not suitable for multi-drop communication

2. Wireless communication interface : Wireless communication interface is an interface used to transmission of information over a distance without help of wires, cables or any other forms of electrical conductors.

They are basically classified into following types

1. IrDA

2. Bluetooth

3. Wi-Fi

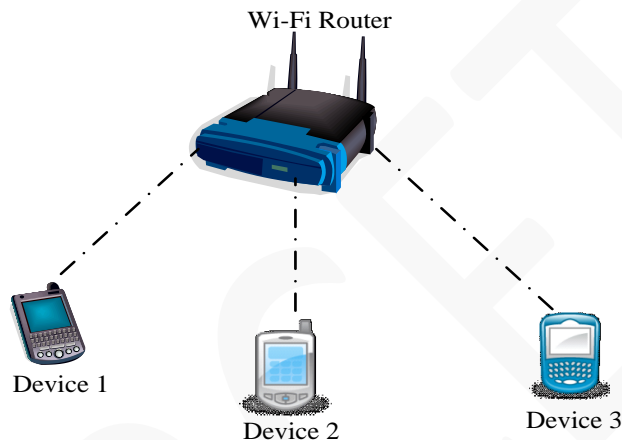
4. Zigbee

5. GPRS

Wi-Fi:

- Wi-Fi is the name of a popular wireless networking technology that uses radio waves to provide wireless high-speed Internet and network connections
- Wi-Fi follows the IEEE 802.11 standard

- Wi-Fi is intended for network communication and it supports Internet Protocol (IP) based communication.
- Wi-Fi based communications require an intermediate agent called Wi-Fi router/Wireless Access point to manage the communications.
- The Wi-Fi router is responsible for restricting the access to a network, assigning IP address to devices on the network, routing data packets to the intended devices on the network



- Wi-Fi enabled devices contain a wireless adaptor for transmitting and receiving data in the form of radio signals through an antenna.
- Wi-Fi operates at 2.4GHZ or 5GHZ of radio spectrum and they co-exist with other ISM band devices like Bluetooth.
- A Wi-Fi network is identified with a Service Set Identifier (SSID). A Wi-Fi device can connect to a network by selecting the SSID of the network and by providing the credentials if the network is security enabled
- Wi-Fi networks implements different security mechanisms for authentication and data transfer.
- Wireless Equivalency Protocol (WEP), Wireless Protected Access (WPA) etc are some of the security mechanisms supported by Wi-Fi networks in data communication.

Text Book:-

1. Introduction to Embedded Systems – Shibu K.V Mc Graw Hill