

Week 1

Introduction to Computing and  
the 8051 Microcontrollers  
Chapters 0 and 1

# Binary and Hexadecimal Systems

## ❑ Conversion to decimal:

○  $110.101 \text{ b} = ?$

○  $6A.C \text{ h} = ?$

○  $110.101 \text{ b} = 6.625$

○  $6A.C \text{ h} = 106.75$

## ❑ Conversion from decimal

○ for a whole number: divide by the radix and save the remainder as the significant digits

○  $10 = ? \text{ B}$

○  $10 = ? \text{ }_8$

○  $10 = 1010 \text{ b}$

○  $10 = 12 \text{ }_8$

## ❑ Converting from a decimal fraction

○ multiply the decimal fraction by the radix

○ save the whole number part of the result

○ repeat above until fractional part of step 2 is 0

○  $0.125 = ? \text{ b}$

○  $0.046875 = ? \text{ h}$

○  $0.125 = 0.001 \text{ b}$

○  $0.046875 = 0.0C \text{ h}$

# Base 16 Number systems

Decimal	Binary	Hex
0	0000	0
1	0001	1
2	0010	2
3	0011	3
4	0100	4
5	0101	5
6	0110	6
7	0111	7
8	1000	8
9	1001	9
10	1010	A
11	1011	B
12	1100	C
13	1101	D
14	1110	E
15	1111	F

- Represent 100111110101b in hex

Group them

1001 1111 0101

9 F 5 hex

- Convert 1714d to binary

$$1714 = 16 * 107 + 2$$

$$107 = 16 * 6 + 11$$

$$1714 = 6B2 \text{ h}$$

$$= 0110 1011 0010 \text{ b}$$

# Two's Complement

- If the number is positive make no changes
- If the number is negative, complement all bits and add by 1
  - $-6 \Rightarrow \overline{0000\ 0110} + 1 = 1111\ 1001 + 1 = \text{FAh}$
- 8 bit signed numbers
  - 0 to 7Fh (+127) are positive numbers
  - 80h (-128) to FFh (-1) are negative numbers
- Conversion of signed binary numbers to their decimal equivalent
  - $\overline{1101\ 0001}$ 
    - $\overline{1101\ 0001} + 1 = 0010\ 1110 + 1 = 0010\ 1111 = 2\text{Fh} \Rightarrow -47$
  - $1000\ 1111\ 0101\ 1101$ 
    - $0111\ 0000\ 1010\ 0010 + 1 = 0111\ 0000\ 1010\ 0011 = 70\text{C3h} \Rightarrow -28835$
- Two's complement arithmetic
  - $+14 - 20$
  - $0000\ 1110 + \overline{0001\ 0100} + 1 = \text{FAh}$
- *Overflow*: Whenever two signed numbers are added or subtracted the possibility exists that the result may be too large for the number of bits allocated Ex:  $+64 + 96$  using 8-bit signed numbers

# Two's complement

Decimal	Binary	Hex
-128	1000 0000 b	80h
-127	1000 0001b	81h
-126	1000 0010b	82h
...		...
-2	1111 1110b	FEh
-1	1111 1111b	FFh
0	0000 0000b	00h
1	0000 0001b	01h
...		...
+127	0111 1111b	7Fh

Numbers in the range  $-2^n \dots 2^n - 1$   
are represented by 8 bit signed arithmetic

# ASCII

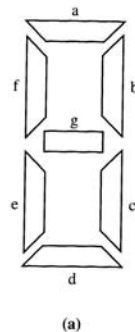
- ❑ The standard for text
- ❑ In this code each letter of the alphabet, punctuation mark, and decimal number is assigned a unique 7-bit code number
- ❑ With 7 bits, 128 unique symbols can be coded
- ❑ Often a zero is placed in the most significant bit position to make it an 8-bit code
  - e.g., Uppercase A 41h
- ❑ Digits 0 through 9 are represented by ASCII codes 30h to 39h

# ASCII - more

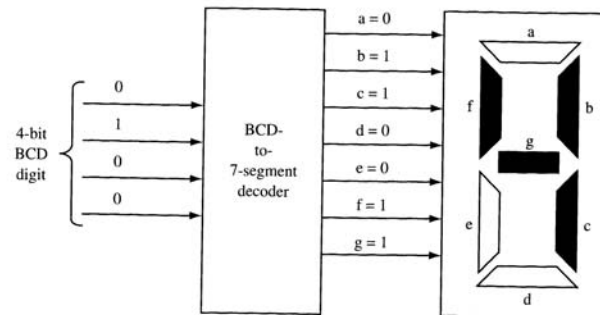
<i>Hex</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Hex</i>	<i>Symbol</i>
41	A	61	a
42	B	62	b
43	C	63	c
44	D	64	d
...	...	...	...
59	Y	79	y
5A	Z	7A	z

# BCD

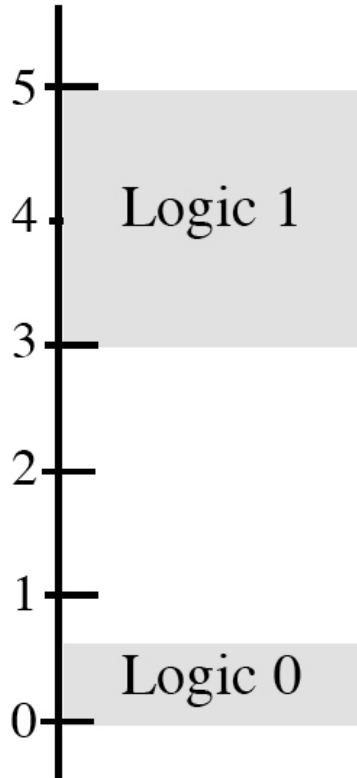
- BCD code provides a way for decimal numbers to be encoded in binary form that is easily converted back to decimal
  - 26  $\Rightarrow$  0010 0110 (BCD)  $\Rightarrow$  11010 (unsigned binary)
  - 243  $\Rightarrow$  0010 0100 0011 (BCD)  $\Rightarrow$  1111 0011 (unsigned binary)
- Used in seven segment displays



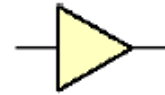
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9  
(b)



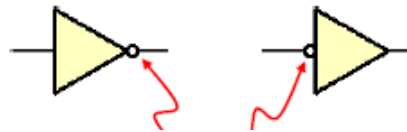
# Digital Primer



□ Buffer  
❖ Identity  $S=A$



□ Inverter  
❖ Negation  $S=\bar{A}$



Inversion

Truth table

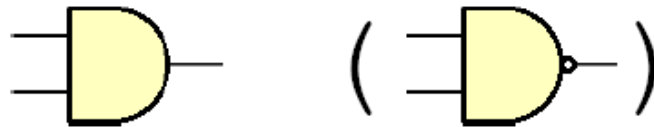
A	S
0	0
1	1

A	S
0	1
1	0

# AND and OR Gates

## □ AND (and NAND)

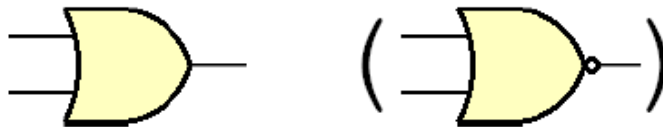
- ❖ Multiplication  $S=A \cdot B$
- ❖ Zero forces output to zero



A	B	S
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

## □ OR (and NOR)

- ❖ Addition  $S=A+B$
- ❖ One forces output to one

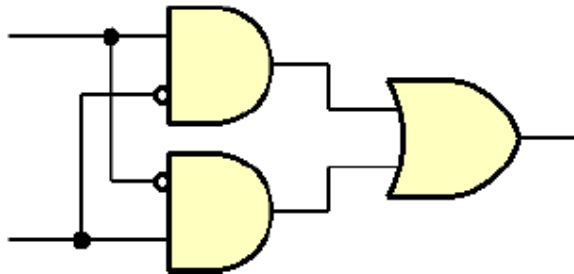
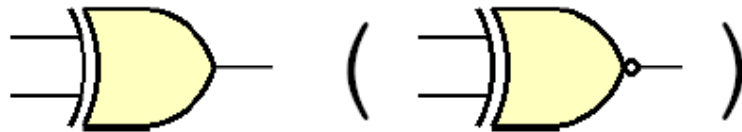


A	B	S
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

# XOR Gate

## XOR (and XNOR)

- ❖ Modulo-2 addition  $S = A \oplus B$
- ❖ "One or the other but not both"
- ❖ Inequality (XNOR expresses equality)

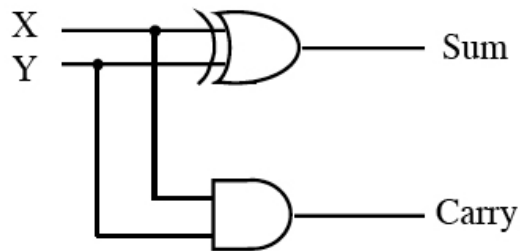
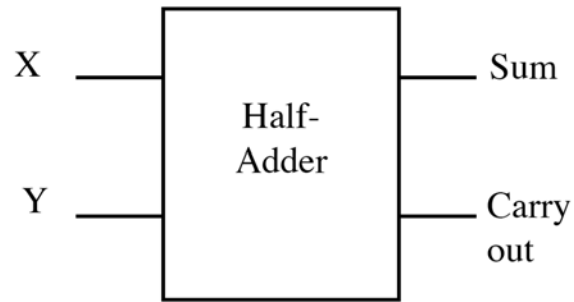


A	B	S
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

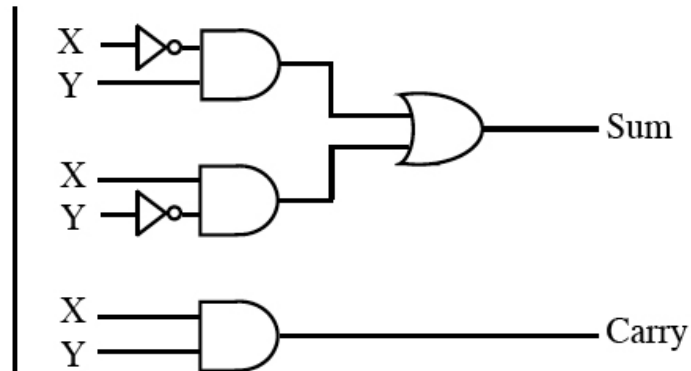
$$S = A \oplus B = A\bar{B} + \bar{A}B$$

# Logic Design using Gates

- Two implementations of a half-adder

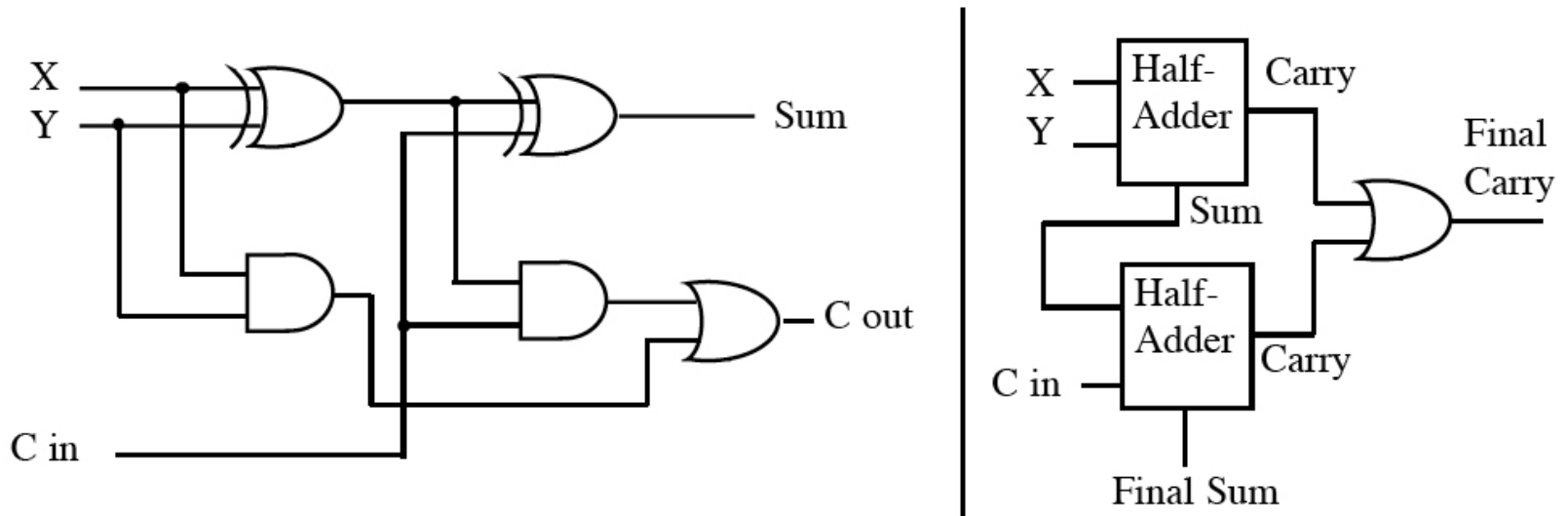


(a) Half-Adder Using XOR and AND

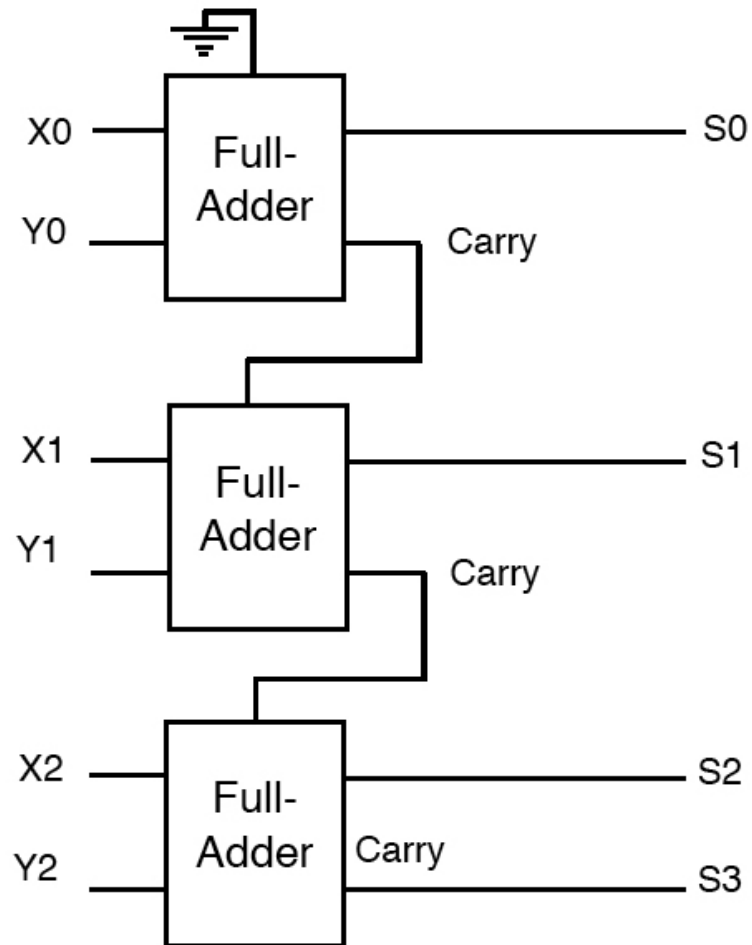


(a) Half-Adder Using AND, OR, Inverters

# Full adder using half adders



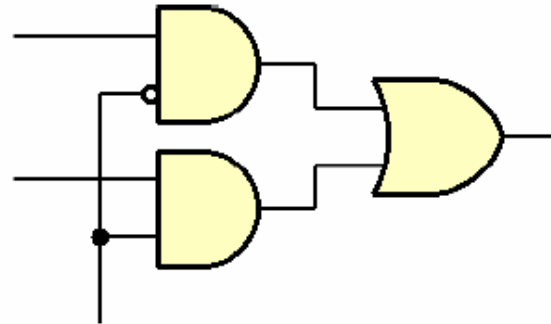
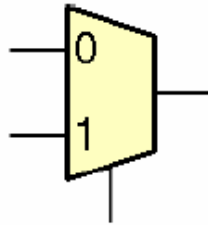
# 3-bit adder using 3 full-adders



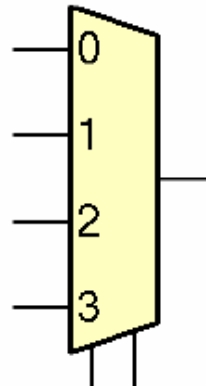
# Multiplexer

Multiplexer ("mux")

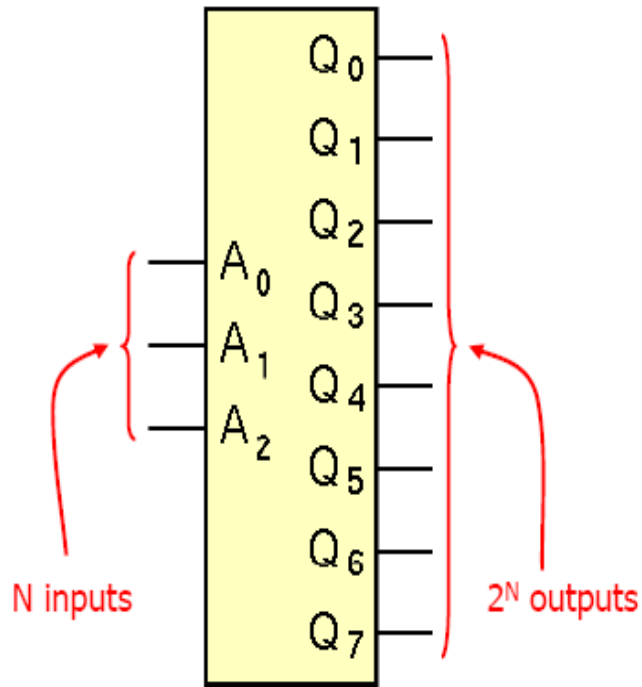
❖ If  $S=0 \rightarrow Z=A$  else  $Z=B$



n-input Multiplexer



# N to $2^N$ Decoder

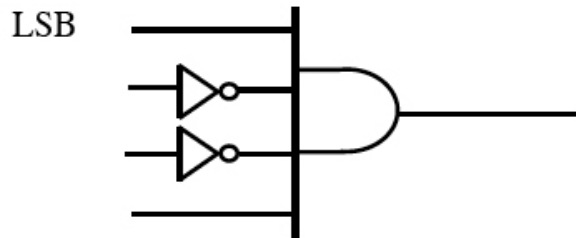


$A_2$	$A_1$	$A_0$	$Q_7$	$Q_6$	$Q_5$	$Q_4$	$Q_3$	$Q_2$	$Q_1$	$Q_0$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

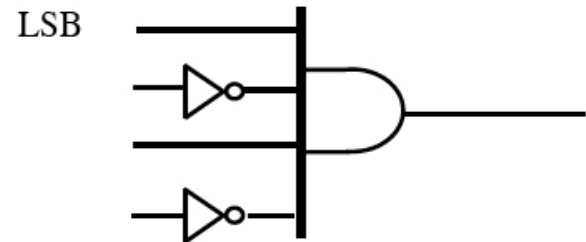
Binary representation of a number

"One hot"

# Address decoders



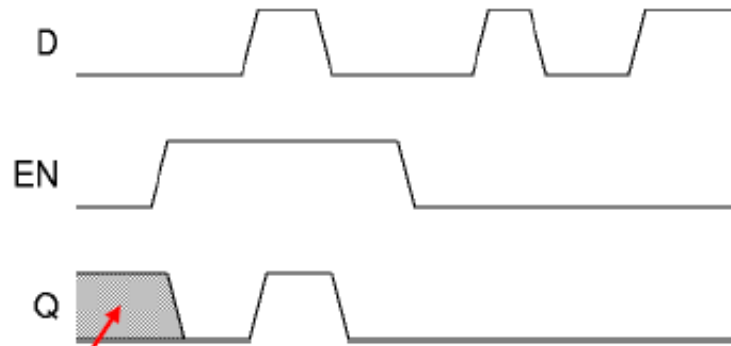
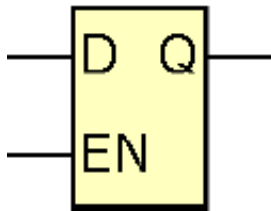
(a) Address decoder for 9 (binary 1001)  
The output of the AND gate will be 1  
if and only if the input is binary 1001.



(b) Address decoder for 5 (binary 0101)  
The output of the AND gate will be 1  
if and only if the input is binary 0101.

# Latch

- The simplest memory element
- **Level-sensitive:** it memorizes the input data when there is a given level on the control input



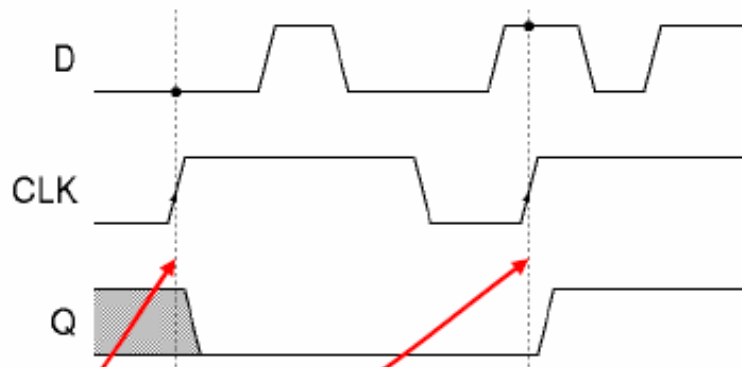
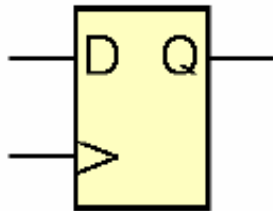
Undetermined output:  
it depends from past history  
that we don't know

The latch is  
"transparent"

The latch holds the last  
value appeared on D  
while "transparent"

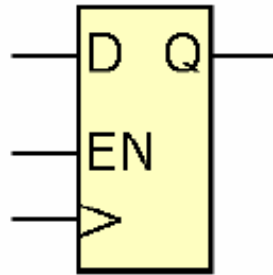
# D type flip flop (DFF)

- The only Flip-Flop we use (forget SR, JK, etc.)
- The most used memory element
- **Edge-sensitive**: it memorizes the input data when there is a specific transition (e.g.,  $0 \rightarrow 1$ ) on the control input



Q can change **exclusively**  
when there are transitions on CLK

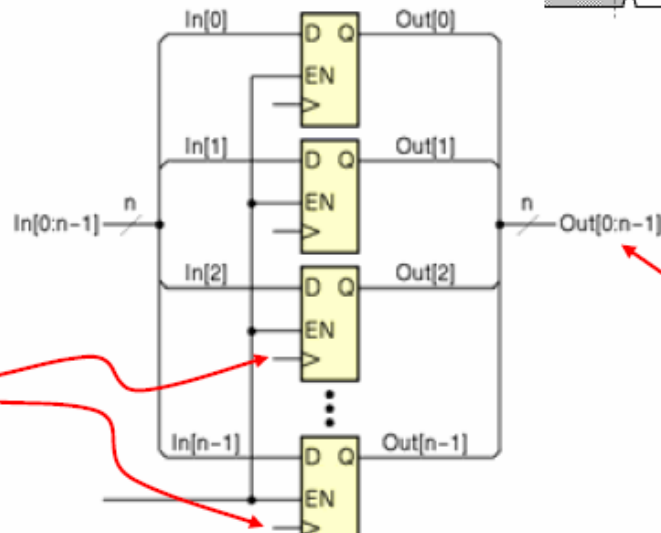
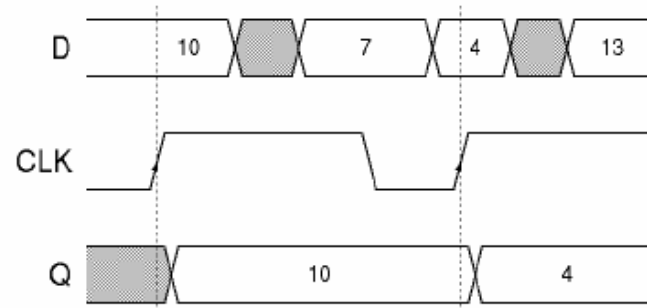
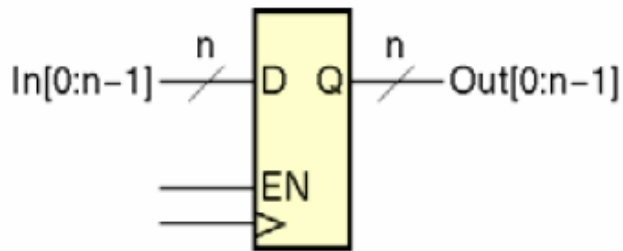
# DFF with Enable



- If  $EN = 0$  when there is an edge, the edge is ignored;
- If  $EN = 1$ , normal behaviour

# Registers

- Just several DFF, usually with Enable, in parallel



CLK inputs are all in parallel too, but we don't always indicate it...

A bus, that is many signals handled together

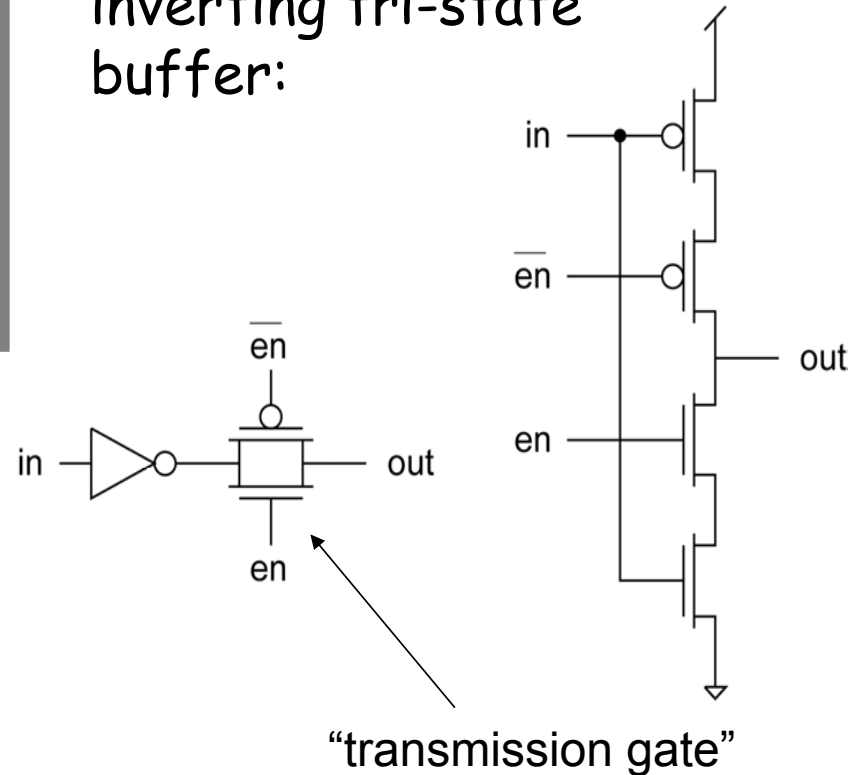
# Tri-state Buffers

## □ Tri-state

OE	IN	OUT
0	0	Z
0	1	Z
1	0	0
1	1	1

“high impedance”  
(output disconnected)

## □ Transistor circuit for inverting tri-state buffer:



## □ Variations

OE	IN	OUT
0	-	Z
1	0	1
1	1	0

Inverting buffer

OE	IN	OUT
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	-	Z

Inverted enable

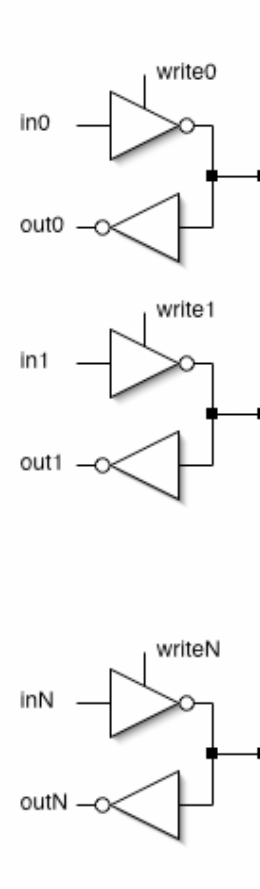
# Tri-state Buffers

*Tri-state buffers are used when multiple circuits all connect to a common bus. Only one circuit at a time is allowed to drive the bus. All others "disconnect".*

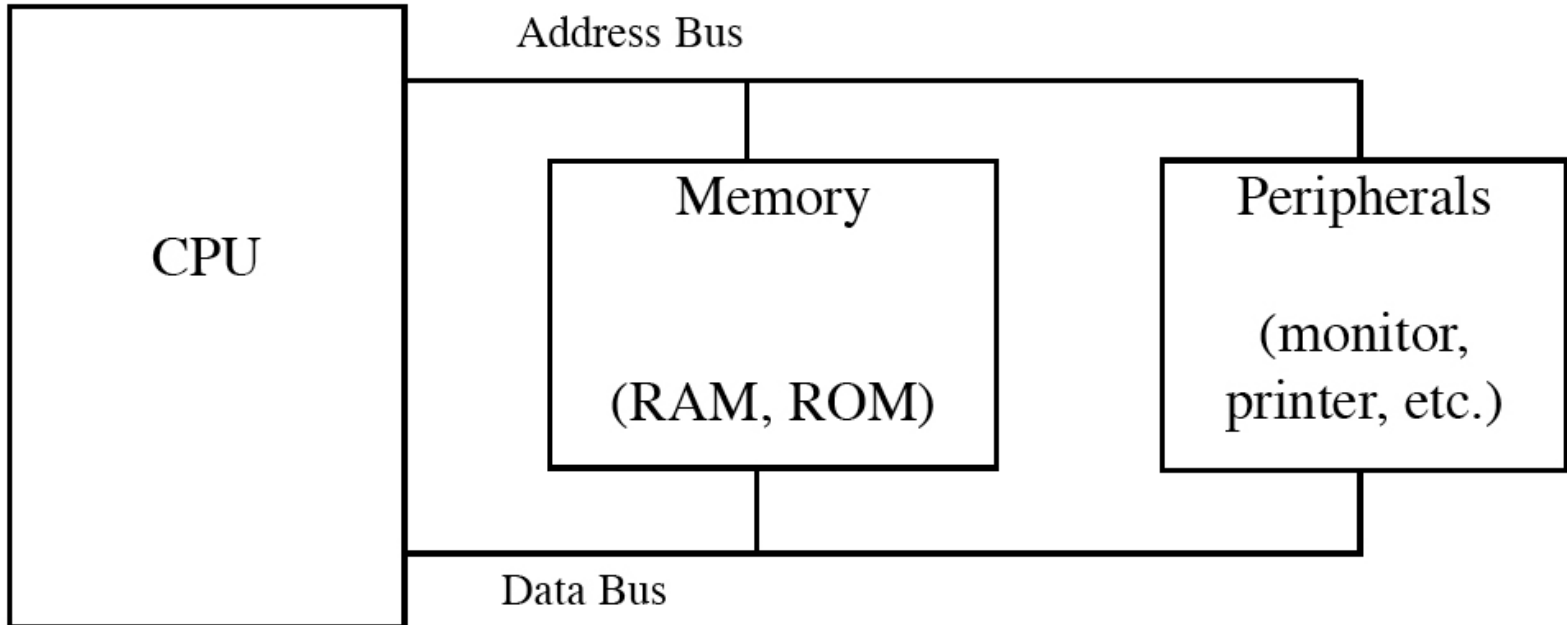
- Bidirectional connections:



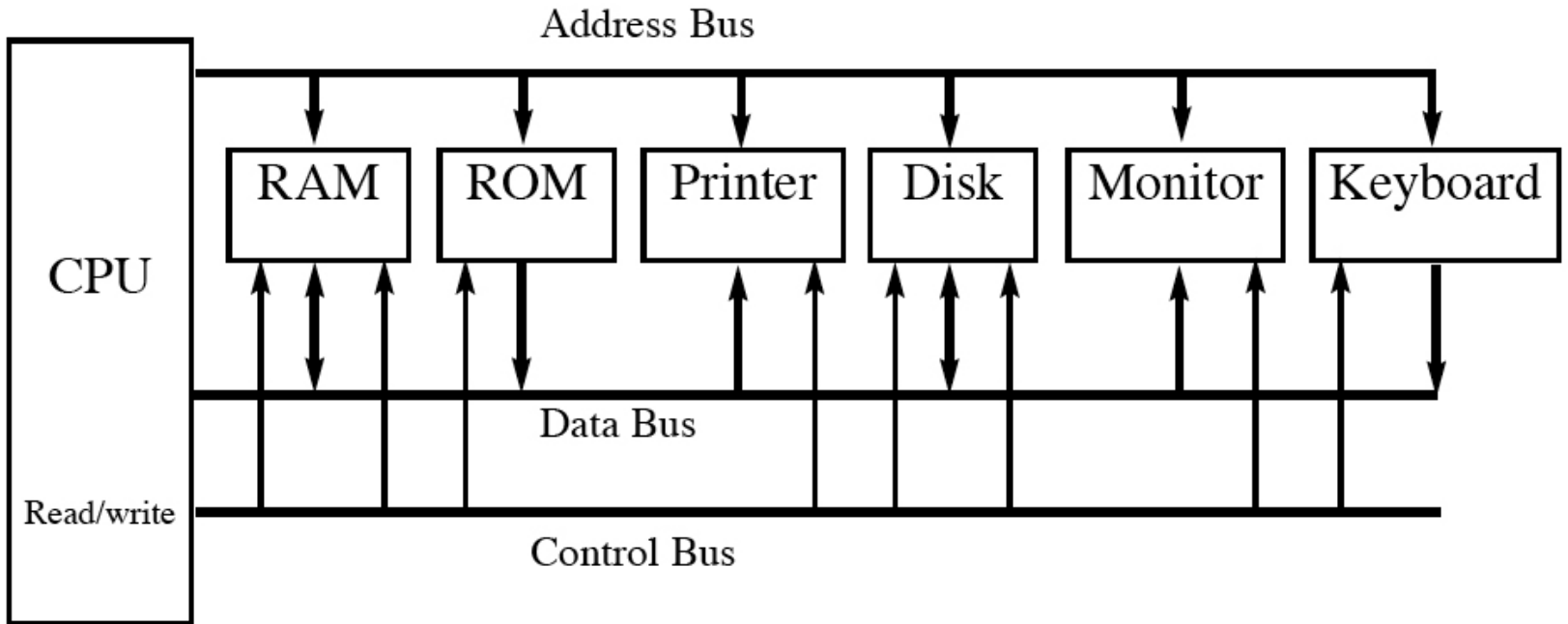
- Busses:



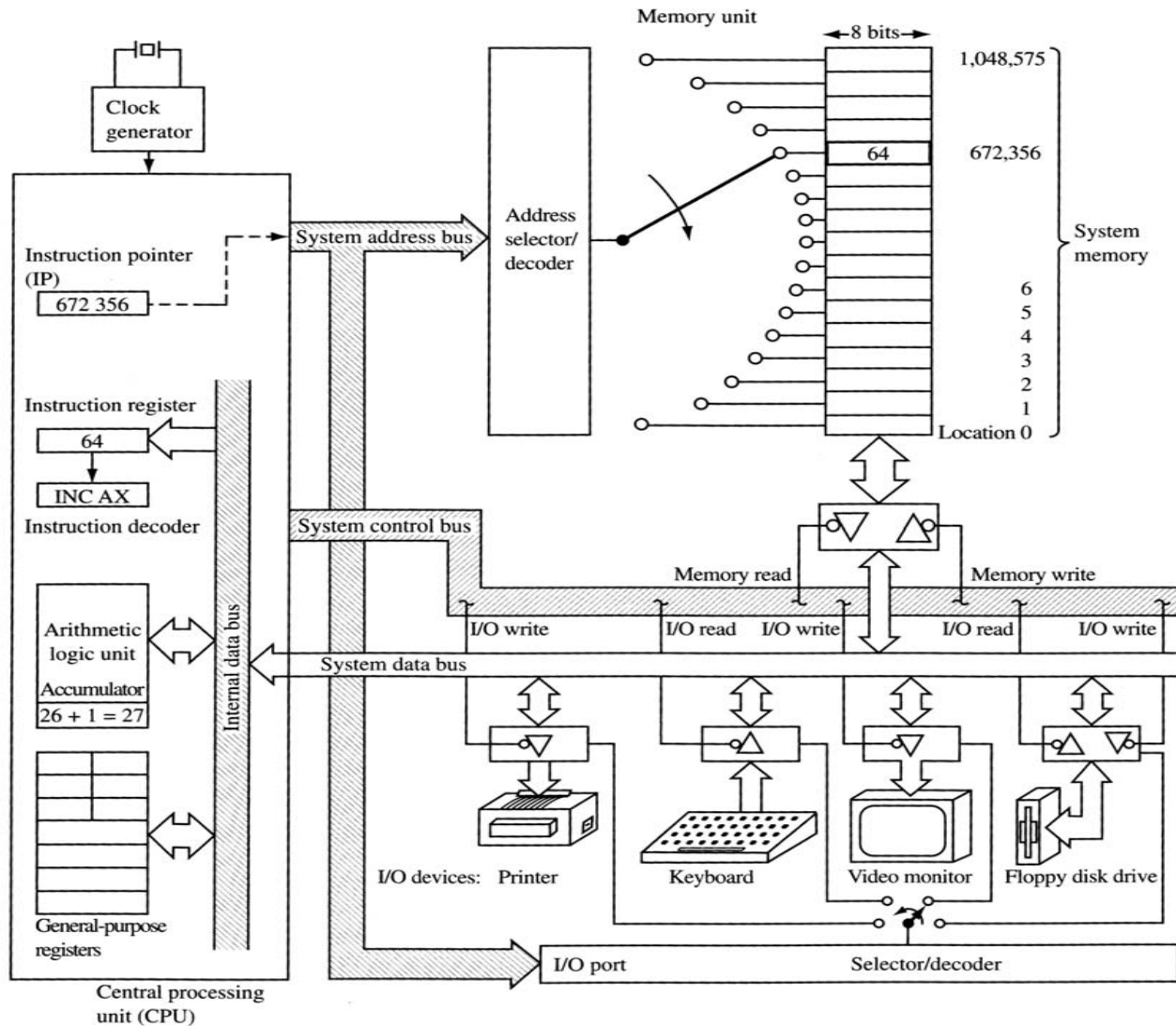
# Inside the Computer



# Inside the Computer - More



# Stored Program concept



# Stored Program Concept

- There are three major parts
  - The CPU (Central Processing Unit) which acts as the brain coordinating all activities within the computer
  - The memory unit where the program instructions and data are temporarily stored
  - The I/O (Input/Output) devices which allow the computer to input information for processing and then output the result
- Today the CPU circuitry has been reduced to *ICs* called the *microprocessor*, the entire computer with the three parts is called a *microcomputer*

# Stored Program Concept - more

- ❑ Several registers (e.g., flip-flops wired in series with each other)
  - Some are general purpose, the accumulator for example is reserved for performing complex mathematical operations like multiply and divide, and all I/O data has to go thru the accumulator
- ❑ The basic timing of the computer is controlled by a square wave oscillator or a *clock* generator circuit.
  - Synchronization
  - Determines how fast the program can be fetched from memory and executed
- ❑ Memory Read or Fetch Cycle
  - IP: Instruction Pointer

# Stored Program Concept

- Memory unit consists of a large number of storage locations each with its own address
  - RAM (Random Access Memory) and its volatility
    - Typically each memory location is 8 bits wide (byte accessible memory)
  - ROM (Read Only Memory)
- The memory unit's address selector/decoder circuit examines the binary number on the address line and selects the proper memory location to be accessed.

# Stored Program Concept

- ❑ In this example, CPU is reading from memory, it activates its MEMORY READ control signal
  - This causes the selected data byte in memory to be placed onto the data lines and routed to the instruction register in the CPU
- ❑ Once in the CPU, the instruction is decoded and executed
  - In this example, instruction has the decimal code 64 which for a 8086 microprocessor is decoded to be INC AX
  - The ALU (Arithmetic Logic Unit) is instructed to add 1 to the contents of the AX
- ❑ The cycle repeats itself

# Stored Program Concept

- ❑ Memory unit consists of a large number of storage locations each with its own address.
- ❑ RAM (Random Access Memory): also called read/write memory
  - used for temporary storage of programs
  - typically 8 bits wide
  - data is lost when the power is turned off (volatile)
- ❑ ROM (Read Only Memory)
  - The information in ROM is permanent
  - Non-volatile memory

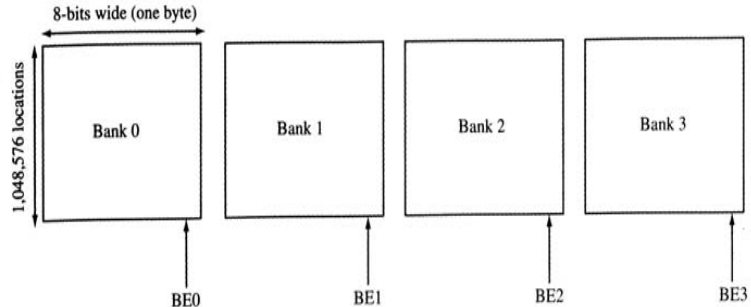
# Three Bus System Architecture

- ❑ A collection of electronic signals all dedicated to particular task is called a *bus*
  - *address bus*
  - *data bus*
  - *control bus*
- ❑ Data Bus
  - The width of the data bus determines how much data the processor can read or write in one memory or I/O cycle
  - 8-bit microprocessor has an 8-bit data bus
  - 80386SX 32-bit internal data bus, 16-bit external data bus
  - 80386 32-bit internal and external data buses
- ❑ How can a 64-bit (or 16 bit) microprocessor access an 8-bit memory?
  - The trick is to divide the memory into banks
  - 64-bit Pentium requires eight banks of memory with each bank set up to be one-byte wide
  - Bank enable signals are then output by the microprocessor to specify which bank to access

# Address Bus

## □ Address Bus

- The address bus is used to identify the memory location or I/O device (also called port) the processor intends to communicate with
- 20 bits for the 8086 and 8088
- 32 bits for the 80386/80486 and the Pentium
- 36 bits for the Pentium II and III
- The total number of memory locations addressable by a given CPU is always equal to  $2^x$  where  $x$  is the number of address bits, regardless of the data bus.



Total amount  
of memory is 4Mbytes

8086 has a 20-bit address bus and therefore addresses all combinations of addresses from all 0s to all 1s. This corresponds to  $2^{20}$  addresses or 1M (1 Meg) addresses or memory locations.

Pentium: 4Gbyte main memory

# Control Bus

- ❑ How can we tell the address is a memory address or an I/O port address
  - Memory Read
  - Memory Write
  - I/O Read
  - I/O Write
- ❑ When Memory Read or I/O Read are active, data is *input* to the processor.
- ❑ When Memory Write or I/O Write are active, data is *output* from the processor.
- ❑ The control bus signals are defined from the processor's point of view.
- ❑ Control and address lines are output lines only but the data bus is bidirectional

# Some Important Terminology

- ❑ Bit is a binary digit that can have the value 0 or 1
- ❑ A byte is defined as 8 bits
- ❑ A nibble is half a byte
- ❑ A word is two bytes
- ❑ A double word is four bytes
- ❑ A kilobyte is  $2^{10}$  bytes (1024 bytes), The abbreviation K is most often used
  - Example: A floppy disk holding 356Kbytes of data
- ❑ A megabyte or meg is  $2^{20}$  bytes, it is exactly 1,048,576 bytes
- ❑ A gigabyte is  $2^{30}$  bytes

# Internal Working of Computers

- ❑ Assume that an imaginary CPU has registers called A,B,C, D.
- ❑ It has an 8-bit data bus and a 16-bit address bus.
- ❑ Therefore the CPU can access memory from addresses 0000h to FFFFh for a total of  $2^{16}$  locations
- ❑ The action to be performed by the CPU is to put a hexadecimal value 21 into register A, and add to register A values 42h and 12h.
- ❑ Assume that the code for the CPU to move a value to register A is 1011 0000b (B0h) and the code for adding a value to register A is 0000 0100b (04h)

Action	Code	Data
Move 21h to A	B0h	21h
Add 42h to A	04h	42h
Add 12h to A	04h	12h

## Example Continued

Memory Address	Content of memory
1400h	B0h
1401h	21h
1402h	04h
1403h	42h
1404h	04h
1405h	12h
1406h	F4h (the code for halt)

- Assume program is stored at memory locations starting at 1400h

# Internal Working Of Computers

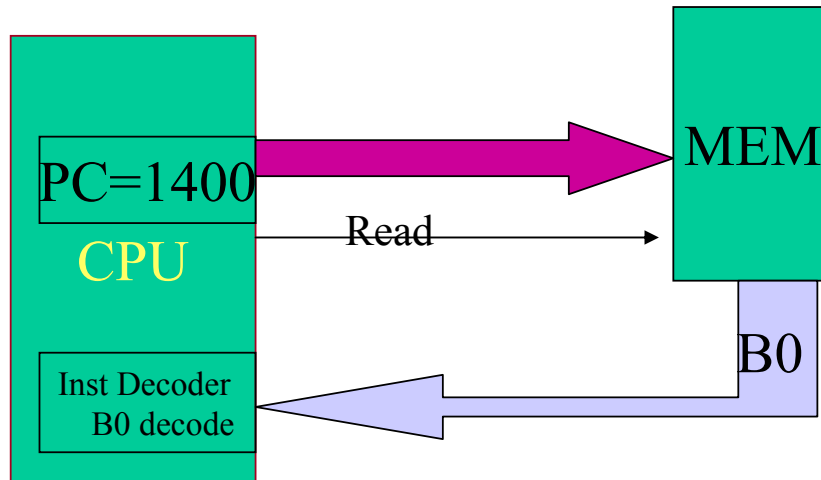
<u>ACTION</u>	<u>Code</u>	<u>Data</u>
Move value 21 into register A	B0H	21H
Add value 42H to register A	04H	42H
Add value 12H to register A	04H	12H

<u>Memory Address</u>	<u>Contents of memory address</u>
1400	(B0) the code for move to A
1401	(21) the value for A
1402	(04) the code for adding a value to A
1403	(42) the value to be added
1404	(04) the code for adding a value to A
1405	(12) the value to be added
1406	(F4) the code for halt

# Internal Working Of Computers

1- the CPU program counter can have any value between 0000 → FFFF H. This one is set to start with 1400

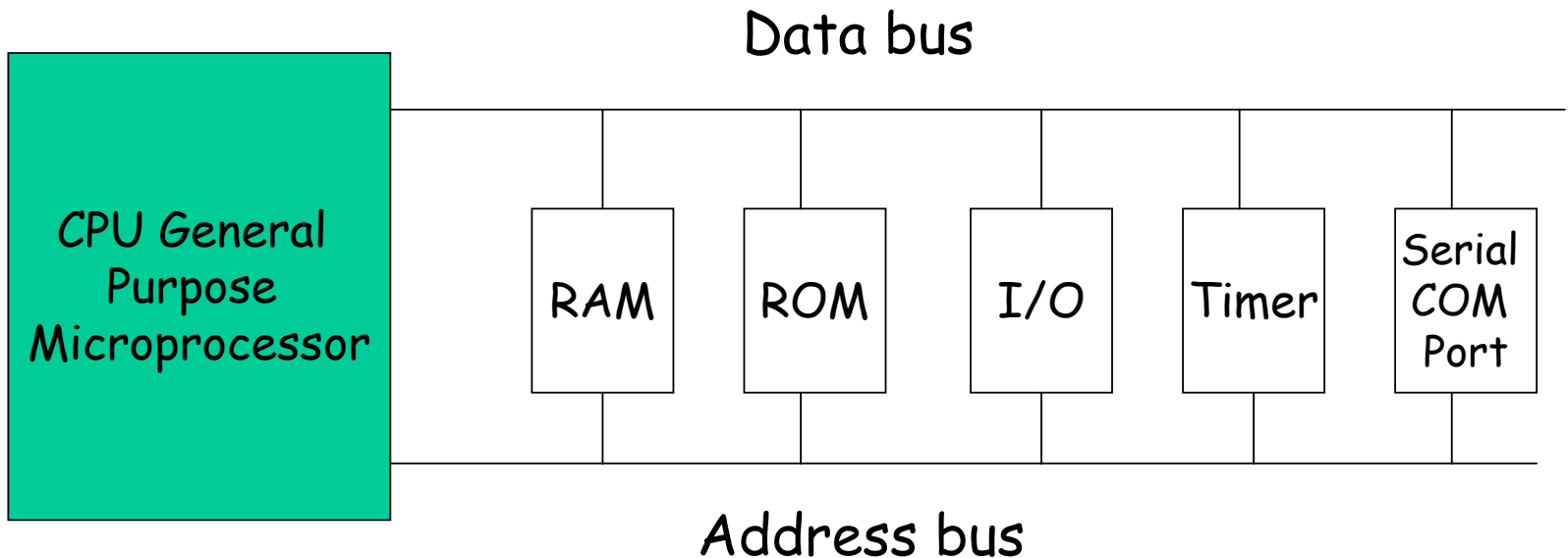
2- the CPU puts out 1400. The memory circuitry finds the location. Activates the read signal, indicating the memory location 1400. B0 is put on the bus and brought to the CPU



3- B0 is decoded internally it now knows it needs to fetch the next byte!. It brings 21h from 1401. The program counter automatically increments itself to the next location to fetch the next data/instruction.

# General Purpose Microprocessors

Microprocessors lead to versatile products



- These general microprocessors contain no RAM, ROM, or I/O ports on the chip itself
- Ex. Intel's x86 family (8088, 8086, 80386, 80386, 80486, Pentium)
- Motorola's 680x0 family (68000, 68010, 68020, etc)

# Microcontrollers

CPU	RAM	ROM
I/O	TIMER	Serial Com Port

- Examples
- Motorola's 6811, Intel's 8051, Zilog's Z8 and PIC 16X

- A microcontroller has a CPU in addition to a fixed amount of RAM, ROM, I/O ports on one single chip; this makes them ideal for applications in which cost and space are critical
- Example: a TV remote control does not need the computing power of a 486

# Microprocessor vs microcontroller

## **Microprocessor**

- ❑ CPU is stand-alone, RAM, ROM, I/O, timer are separate
- ❑ Designer can decide on the amount of ROM, RAM and I/O ports.
- ❑ General-purpose
- ❑ Expensive

## **Microcontroller**

- ❑ CPU, RAM, ROM, I/O and timer are all on a single chip
- ❑ Fix amount of on-chip ROM, RAM, I/O ports
- ❑ Single-purpose
- ❑ Inexpensive
- ❑ For applications in which cost, power and space are critical

# Embedded Systems

- ❑ Embedded system means the processor is **embedded into** that application.
- ❑ An embedded product uses a microprocessor or microcontroller to **do one task** only.
- ❑ In an embedded system, there is only one application software that is typically **burned into ROM**.
- ❑ Table 1-1, some embedded products using microcontrollers. Examples: printer, keyboard, video game player, door opener, copier, ABS, fax machine, camera, cellular phone, keyless entry, microwave...

# Embedded Systems

- ❑ Although microcontrollers are the preferred choice for embedded systems, there are times that the microcontroller is inadequate for the task
- ❑ Intel, Motorola, AMD, Cyrix have also targeted the embedded market with their general purpose microprocessors
- ❑ For example, Power PC microprocessors (IBM Motorola joint venture) are used in PCs and routers/switches today
- ❑ Microcontrollers differ in terms of their RAM,ROM, I/O sizes and type.
  - ROM: One time-programmable, UV-ROM, flash memory

# Embedded Systems - more

- ❑ Which is your choice for an embedded product?
- ❑ microcontroller
  - cost down
  - embedded processor or microcontroller
- ❑ microprocessor
  - In future, an entire computer on a chip
  - high-end embedded systems use microprocessors
  - Advantage: rapid software development, all (appliances) in one.

# How to choose a microcontroller

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

# Intel 8051

- 1981, Intel MCS-51
- The 8051 became popular after Intel allowed other manufacturers to make and market a flavor of the 8051.
  - different speed, amount of on-chip ROM
  - code-compatible with the original 8051
  - form a 8051 family

# 8051 Features

<b>Feature</b>	<b>Quantity</b>	<b>Notes</b>
ROM	4K bytes	a fixed program
RAM	128 bytes	temporary data
Timers 0,1	2	Timer/counter
I/O pins	32	P0,P1,P2,P3
Serial port	1	TxD, RxD
Interrupt sources	6	

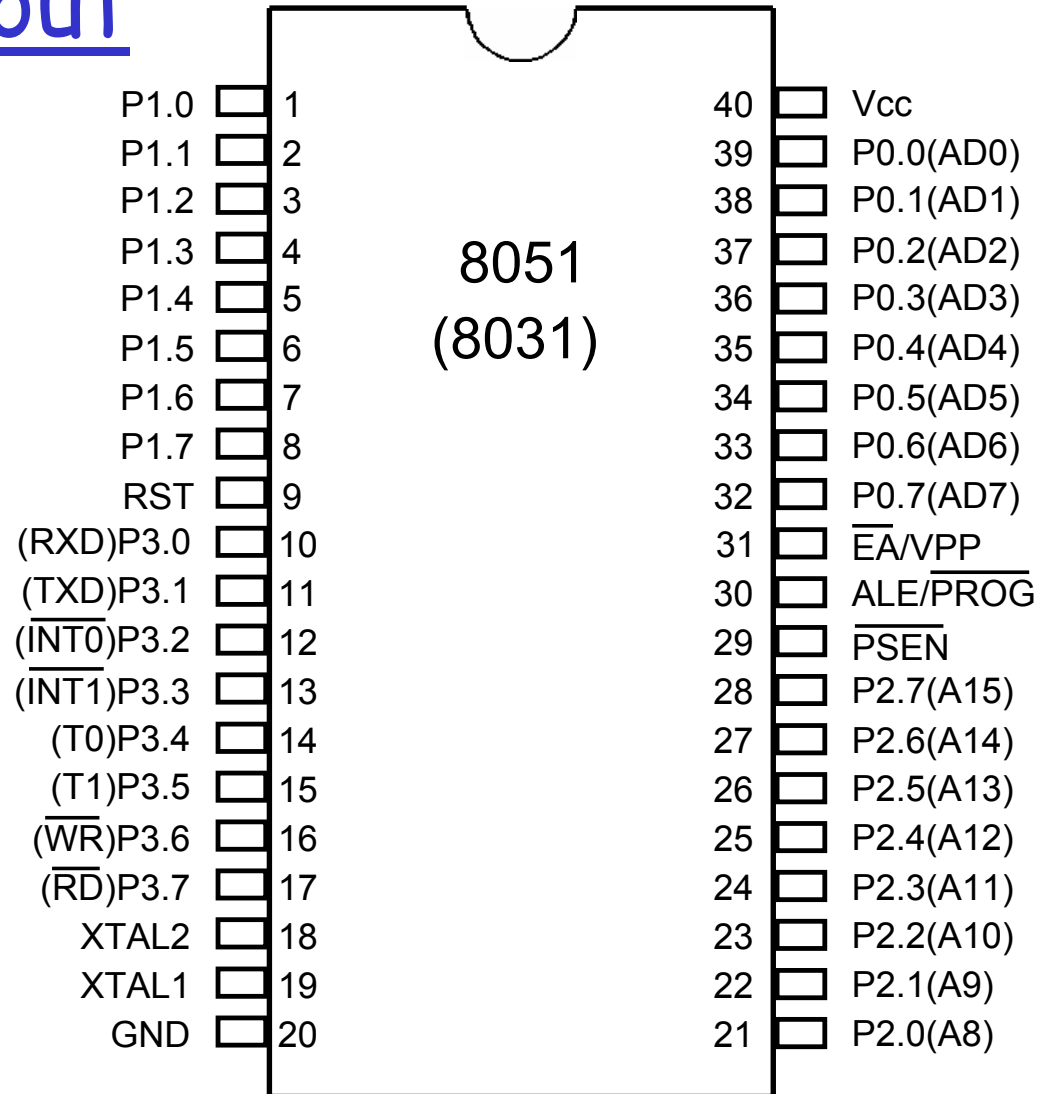
# Comparison of 8051 Members

Table 1-4 Comparison of the 8051 Family Members

<b>Feature</b>	<b>8051</b>	<b>8052</b>	<b>8031</b>
ROM (program space in bytes)	4K	8K	0
RAM (bytes)	128	256	128
Timers	2	3	2
I/O pins	32	32	32
Serial port	1	1	1
Interrupt sources	6	8	6

- ❑ 8031 is referred as ROM-less 8051
- ❑ To use ROM you must add external ROM to it but you lose two ports

# 8051 Layout



# 8051 Block Diagram

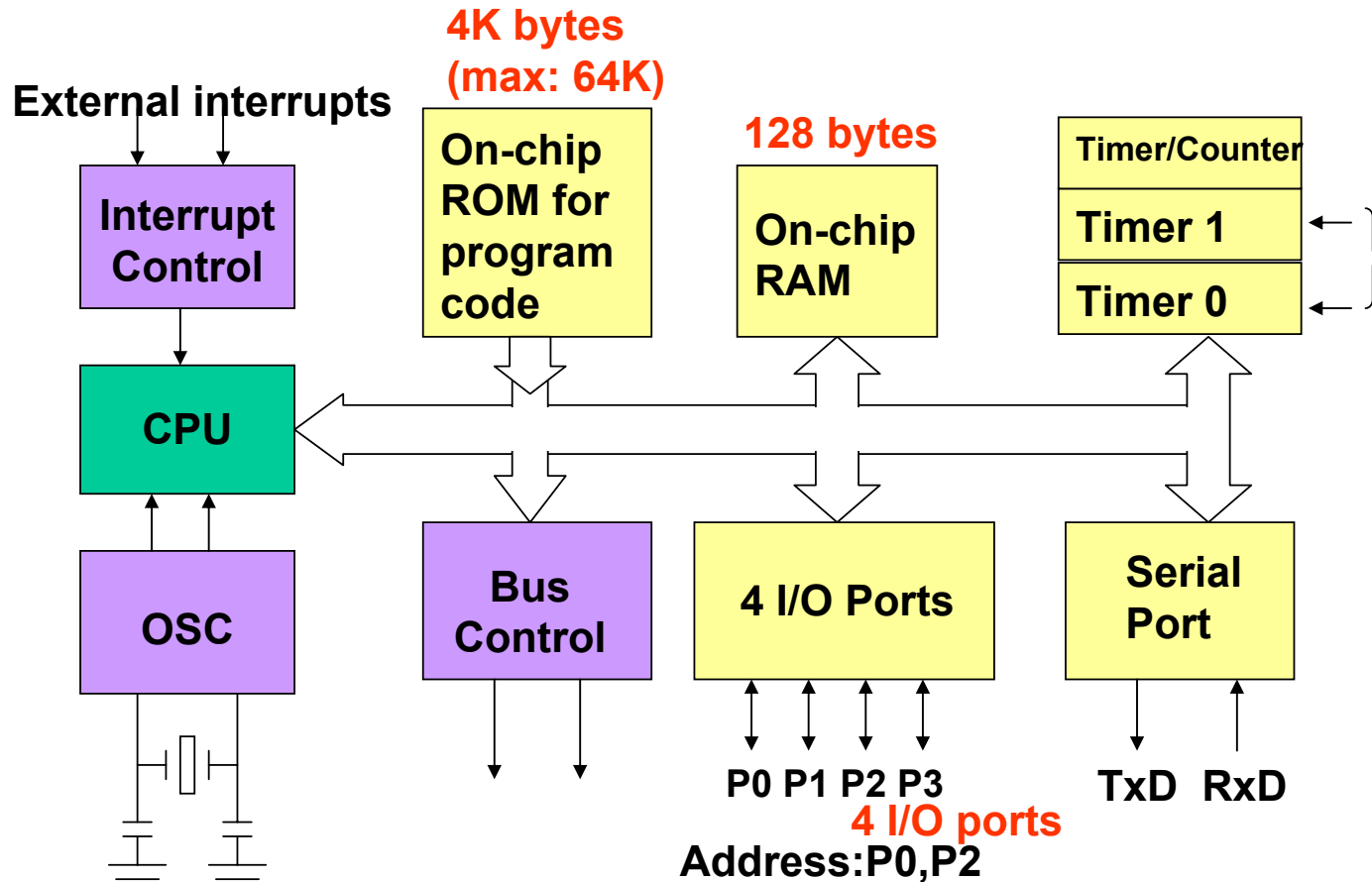


Figure 1-2. Inside the 8051 Microcontroller Block Diagram

<i>Type</i>	<i>Volatile?</i>	<i>Writeable?</i>	<i>Erase Size</i>	<i>Max Erase Cycles</i>	<i>Cost (per Byte)</i>	<i>Speed</i>
<b>SRAM</b>	Yes	Yes	Byte	Unlimited	Expensive	Fast
<b>DRAM</b>	Yes	Yes	Byte	Unlimited	Moderate	Moderate
<b>Masked ROM</b>	No	No	n/a	n/a	Inexpensive	Fast
<b>PROM</b>	No	Once, with a device programmer	n/a	n/a	Moderate	Fast
<b>EPROM</b>	No	Yes, with a device programmer	Entire Chip	Limited (consult datasheet)	Moderate	Fast
<b>EEPROM</b>	No	Yes	Byte	Limited (consult datasheet)	Expensive	Fast to read, slow to erase/write
<b>Flash</b>	No	Yes	Sector	Limited (consult datasheet)	Moderate	Fast to read, slow to erase/write
<b>NVRAM</b>	No	Yes	Byte	Unlimited	Expensive (SRAM + battery)	Fast

# Different 8051 Products

- ❑ Distinguish by types of ROM:
- ❑ 8751 microcontroller      4k bytes UV-EPROM, PROM burner, UV-EPROM eraser
- ❑ AT89C51 from Atmel Corporation      flash memory, PROM burner only
- ❑ DS89C4x0 from Dallas Semiconductor      flash memory, r/w from/to COM port
- ❑ DS5000 from Dallas Semiconductor      NV-RAM, r/w from/to PC serial port
- ❑ OTP (one-time-programmable) version of the 8051      for large market
- ❑ 8051 family from Philips
- ❑ Note
  - Memory is the biggest difference between them; see Chapters 14 and Chapter 15.

# DS89C420/430/...

Part Number	ROM	RAM	I/O pins	Timers	Interrupts	V <sub>CC</sub>
DS89C420/30	16K (Flash)	256	32	3	6	5V
DS89C440	32K (Flash)	256	32	3	6	5V
DS89C450	64K (Flash)	256	32	3	6	5V
DS5000	8K (NVRAM)	128	32	2	6	5V
DS80C320	0 K	256	32	3	6	5V
DS87520	16K (UVROM)	256	32	3	6	5V

Source: [www.maxim-ic.com/products/microcontrollers/8051\\_drop\\_in.cfm](http://www.maxim-ic.com/products/microcontrollers/8051_drop_in.cfm)

In the lab experiments, we'll use the MDE8051 trainer which uses the Dallas (now part of Maxim) DS89C420/430.

# Atmel's products

<b>Part Number</b>	<b>ROM</b>	<b>RAM</b>	<b>I/O pins</b>	<b>Timer</b>	<b>Interrupt</b>	<b>V<sub>CC</sub></b>	<b>Packaging</b>
AT89C51	4K	128	32	2	6	5V	40
AT89LV51	4K	128	32	2	6	3V	40
AT89C1051	1K	64	15	1	3	3V	20
AT89C2051	2K	128	15	2	6	3V	20
AT89C52	8K	128	32	3	8	5V	40
AT89LV52	8K	128	32	3	8	3V	40

*Note:* "C" in the part number indicates CMOS.

<b>Part Number</b>	<b>Speed</b>	<b>Pins</b>	<b>Packaging</b>	<b>Use</b>
AT89C51-12PC	12 MHz	40	DIP plastic	commercial
AT89C51-16PC	16 MHz	40	DIP plastic	commercial
AT89C51-20PC	20 MHz	40	DIP plastic	commercial