Introduction to PIC Programming Mid-Range Architecture and Assembly Language

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Lesson 4: Using Timer0

The lessons until now have covered the essentials of mid-range PIC microcontroller operation: controlling digital outputs, timed via programmed delays, with program flow responding to digital inputs. That's enough to allow you to perform a great many tasks. But PICs (and most other microcontrollers) offer a number of additional features that make many tasks much easier. Possibly the most useful of all are *timers*; so useful that at least one is included in every current 8-bit PIC.

A timer is simply a counter, which increments automatically. It can be driven by the processor's instruction clock, in which case it is referred to as a *timer*, incrementing at some predefined, steady rate. Or it can be driven by an external signal, where it acts as a *counter*, counting transitions on an input pin. Either way, the timer continues to count, independently, while the PIC performs other tasks.

And that is why timers are so very useful. Most programs need to perform a number of concurrent tasks; even something as simple as monitoring a switch while flashing an LED. The execution path taken within a program will generally depend on real-world inputs. So it is very difficult in practice to use programmed delay loops, as in <u>lesson 1</u>, to accurately measure elapsed time. But a timer will keep counting, steadily, while your program responds to inputs, performs calculations, or whatever.

As we'll see in <u>lesson 6</u>, timers are commonly used to drive *interrupts* (routines which interrupt the normal program flow) to allow regularly timed "background" tasks to run. However, before moving on to timerbased interrupts, it's important to understand how timers operate. And, as this lesson will demonstrate, timers can be very useful, even when not used with interrupts.

This lesson revisits the material in <u>baseline lesson 5</u>, covering:

- Introduction to the Timer0 module
- Creating delays with Timer0
- Debouncing via Timer0
- Using Timer0 counter mode with an external clock (demonstrating the use of a crystal oscillator as a time reference)

Timer0 Module

Mid-range PICs can have up to three timers; the simplest of these is referred to as Timer0. The visible part is a single 8-bit register, TMR0, which holds the current value of the timer. It is readable and writeable. If you write a value to it, the timer is reset to that value and then starts incrementing from there.

When it has reached 255, it rolls over to 0, sets an "overflow flag" (the TOIF bit in the INTCON register, triggering an interrupt if Timer0 interrupts are enabled) to indicate that the rollover happened, and then continues to increment.

Note that this is different from the Timer0 module in the baseline architecture, which does not have an overflow flag.

The configuration of Timer0 is set by a number of bits in the OPTION register:

_	Bit 7	Bit 6	Bit 5	Bit 4	Bit 3	Bit 2	Bit 1	Bit 0
OPTION_REG	GPPU	INTEDG	T0CS	T0SE	PSA	PS2	PS1	PS0

The clock source is selected by the TOCS bit:

TOCS = 0 selects timer mode, where TMR0 is incremented at a fixed rate by the instruction clock.

TOCS = 1 selects counter mode, where TMR0 is incremented by an external signal, on the TOCKI pin. On the PIC12F629, this is physically the same pin as GP2.

TOCKI is a Schmitt Trigger input, meaning that it can be driven by and will respond cleanly to a smoothly varying input voltage (e.g. a sine wave), even with a low level of superimposed noise; it doesn't have to be a sharply defined TTL-level signal, as required by the GP inputs.

In counter mode, the TOSE bit selects whether Timer0 responds to rising or falling signals ("edges") on TOCKI. Clearing TOSE to '0' selects the rising edge; setting TOSE to '1' selects the falling edge.

Prescaler

By default, the timer increments by one for every instruction cycle (in timer mode) or transition on TOCKI (in counter mode). If timer mode is selected, and the processor is clocked at 4 MHz, the timer will increment at the instruction cycle rate of 1 MHz. That is, TMR0 will increment every 1 μ s. Thus, with a 4 MHz clock, the maximum period that Timer0 can measure directly, by default, is 255 μ s.

To measure longer periods, we need to use the prescaler.

The prescaler sits between the clock source and the timer. It is used to reduce the clock rate seen by the timer, by dividing it by a power of two: 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128 or 256.

To use the prescaler with Timer0, clear the PSA bit to '0'.

When assigned to Timer0, the prescale ratio is set by the PS<2:0> bits, as shown in the following table:

PS<2:0> bit value	Timer0 prescale ratio		
000	1:2		
001	1:4		
010	1:8		
011	1:16		
100	1:32		
101	1:64		
110	1:128		
111	1:256		

If PSA = 0 (assigning the prescaler to Timer0) and PS<2:0> = '111' (selecting a ratio of 1:256), TMR0 will increment every 256 instruction cycles in timer mode. Given a 1 MHz instruction cycle rate, the timer would increment every 256 μ s.

Thus, when using the prescaler with a 4 MHz processor clock, the maximum period that Timer0 can measure directly is $255 \times 256~\mu s = 65.28 ms$.

Note that the prescaler can also be used in counter mode, in which case it divides the external signal on TOCKI by the prescale ratio.

If you don't want to use the prescaler with Timer0, for a 1:1 "prescale ratio", set PSA to '1'.

Mid-range PIC Assembler, Lesson 4: Using Timer0

¹ If PSA = 1, the prescaler is assigned to the watchdog timer – a topic covered in <u>lesson 7</u>.

Timer Mode

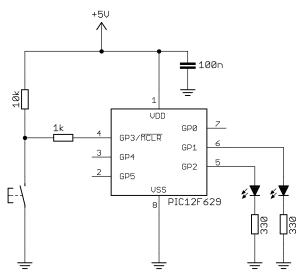
The examples in this section demonstrate the use of Timer0 in timer mode, to:

- Measure elapsed time
- Perform a regular task while responding to user input
- Debounce a switch

For each of these, we'll use the circuit shown on the right, which adds an LED to the circuit used in <u>lesson 3</u>. A second LED has been added to GP2, although any of the unused pins would have been suitable.

If you have the <u>Gooligum training board</u>, connect jumpers JP3, JP12 and JP13 to enable the pull-up resistor on GP3 and the LEDs on GP1 and GP2.

If you are using Microchip's Low Pin Count Demo Board, you will need to connect LEDs to GP1 and GP2, as described in baseline lesson 1.



Example 1: Reaction Timer

To illustrate how Timer0 can be used to measure elapsed time, we'll implement a very simple reaction time "game": light a LED to indicate 'start', and then if the button is pressed within a predefined time (say 200 ms) light the other LED to indicate 'success'. If the user is too slow, leave the 'success' LED unlit. Then reset and repeat.

There are many enhancements we could add, to make this a better game. For example, success/fail could be indicated by a bi-colour red/green LED. The delay prior to the 'start' indication should be random, so that it's difficult to cheat by predicting when it's going to turn on. The difficulty level could be made adjustable, and the measured reaction time in milliseconds could be displayed, using 7-segment displays. You can probably think of more – but the intent of here is to keep it as simple as possible, while providing a real-world example of using Timer0 to measure elapsed time.

We'll use the LED on GP2 as the 'start' signal and the LED on GP1 to indicate 'success'.

The program flow can be illustrated in pseudo-code as:

```
do forever
    clear both LEDs
    delay 2 sec
    indicate start
    clear timer
    wait up to 1 sec for button press
    if button pressed and elapsed time < 200 ms
        indicate success
    delay 1 sec
end
```

A problem is immediately apparent: even with maximum prescaling, Timer0 can only measure up to 65 ms. To overcome this, we need to extend the range of the timer by adding a counter variable, which is incremented when the timer overflows. That means monitoring the value in TMR0 and incrementing the counter variable when TMR0 reaches a certain value.

This example utilises the (nominally) 4 MHz internal RC clock, giving an instruction cycle time of (approximately) 1 μ s. Using the prescaler, with a ratio of 1:32, means that the timer increments every 32 μ s. If we clear TMR0 and then wait until TMR0 = 250, 8 ms (250 × 32 μ s) will have elapsed. If we then reset TMR0 and increment a counter variable, we've implemented a counter which increments every 8 ms. Since 25 × 8 ms = 200 ms, when the counter reaches 25, 200 ms will have elapsed; any counter value > 25 means that the allowed time has been exceeded. And since 125×8 ms = 1 s, when the counter reaches 125, one second will have elapsed and we can stop waiting for the button press.

The following code sets Timer0 to timer mode (internal clock, freeing GP2 to be used as an output), with the prescaler assigned to Timer0, with a 1:32 prescale ratio:

This code is setting bits 6 and 7 of OPTION_REG, even though these bits (GPPU and INTEDG) are not related to Timer0. In the baseline architecture, there is no choice but to load the whole of the OPTION register at once, but for mid-range PICs it is possible to use bit set/clear instructions to modify individual bits in OPTION_REG, or to use logical *masking* operations to update only some bit fields, leaving other bits unchanged.

For example, to preserve the contents of OPTION_REG<6:7>, you could write:

The 'andlw' and 'iorlw' instructions respectively perform "logical and" and "inclusive-or" operations on the W register with the given literal (constant) value, placing the result in W – "and literal with W" and "inclusive-or literal with W".

However, given that, by default (after a power-on reset), every bit in OPTION_REG is set to '1', there is no real need to go to the trouble to use masks to preserve bits 6 and 7; we know that they were already set to '1'. Nevertheless, in some cases you will want to update only part of a register, so it's worth taking the time to understand how these masking operations work. There will be more examples in later lessons.

Assuming a 4 MHz clock, such as the internal RC oscillator, TMR0 will begin incrementing every 32 µs.

To generate an 8 ms delay, we can clear TMR0 and then wait until it reaches 250, as follows:

Note that XOR is used to test for equality (TMR0 = 250), as we did in lesson 3.

In itself, that's an elegant way to create a delay; it's much shorter and simpler than "busy loops", such as the delay routines from lessons 1 and 2.

But the real advantage of using a timer is that it keeps ticking over, at the same rate, while other instructions are executed. That means that additional instructions can be inserted into this "timer wait" loop, without affecting the timing – within reason; if this extra code takes too long to run, the timer may increment more than once before it is checked at the end of the loop, and the loop may not finish when intended.

However long the additional code is, it takes some time to run, so the timer increment will not be detected immediately. This means that the overall delay will be a little longer than intended. For that reason (and others), it is usually better to use timer-driven interrupts for tasks like this, as we will see in lesson 6.

That's not a problem in this example, where exact timing is not important, so with 32 instruction cycles per timer increment, it's safe to insert a short piece of code to check whether the pushbutton has been checked.

For example:

```
banksel TMR0
                                 ; clear Timer0
        clrf TMR0
                                      repeat for 8 ms:
w tmr0
        banksel GPIO
        btfss GPIO,GP3
                                 ;
                                        if button pressed (GP3 low)
        goto btn dn
                                          finish delay loop immediately
        banksel TMR0
        movf
               TMR0,w
                                 ;
        xorlw .250
                                      (250 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 8 \text{ ms})
        btfss
                STATUS, Z
                w tmr0
        goto
```

This timer loop code can then be embedded into an outer loop which increments a variable used to count the number of 8 ms periods, as follows:

```
clrf
               cnt 8ms
                                ; clear timer (8 ms counter)
wait1s
                                ; repeat for 1 sec:
       banksel TMR0
               TMR0
                                    clear Timer0
       clrf
                                ;
                                    repeat for 8 ms:
w tmr0
                                ;
       banksel GPIO
       btfss GPIO, 3
                                      if button pressed (GP3 low)
        goto btn dn
                                        finish delay loop immediately
       banksel TMR0
       movf
               TMR0,w
       xorlw .250
                                    (250 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 8 \text{ ms})
       btfss
               STATUS, Z
        goto
               w tmr0
        incf cnt 8ms,f
                                    increment 8 ms counter
        movlw .125
                                ; (125 x 8 ms = 1 sec)
               cnt 8ms, w
        xorwf
        btfss STATUS, Z
                wait1s
        goto
```

The test at the end of the outer loop ($cnt_8ms = 125$) ensures that the loop completes when 1 s has elapsed, in case the button has not been pressed.

Finally, we need to check whether the user has pressed the button quickly enough (if at all). That means comparing the elapsed time, as measured by the 8 ms counter, with some threshold value – in this case 25, corresponding to a reaction time of 200 ms. The user has been successful if the 8 ms count is less than 25.

The easiest way to compare the magnitude of two values (is one larger or smaller than the other?) is to subtract them, and see if a *borrow* results.

```
If A \ge B, A - B is positive or zero and no borrow is needed.
```

If A < B, A - B is negative, requiring a borrow.

Mid-range PICs have two subtraction instructions:

```
'subwf f, d'-"subtract W from file register", where 'f' is the register and, 'd' is the destination;

', f' to write the result back to the register: f = f - W

', w' to place the result in W: W = f - W
```

and:

'sublw k' - "subtract **W** from literal", where 'k' is the literal value to subtract W from; the result is placed in W: W = k - W

Note that there is no instruction which subtracts a literal from W. Or is there?

Recall that the expression 'W – k' is equivalent to 'W + (-k)', i.e. adding a negative value is equivalent to subtracting a positive value.

We saw in <u>baseline lesson 11</u> that when negative values are represented in *two's complement* format, the normal binary integer addition and subtraction operations continue to work, in a consistent way, with both positive and negative numbers.

The 'addlw' instruction is used to add a literal to W.

The '-' operator is used by the MPASM assembler to specify a two's complement value, so to subtract a literal from W, we can simply write:

```
'addlw -k', which performs the operation: W = W - k
```

Whichever way the subtraction is performed, the result is reflected in the Z (zero) and C (carry) bits in the STATUS register:

	Bit 7	Bit 6	Bit 5	Bit 4	Bit 3	Bit 2	Bit 1	Bit 0	_
STATUS	IRP	RP1	RP0	TO	PD	Z	DC	O	

The Z bit is set if and only if the result is zero (so subtraction is another way to test for equality).

Although the C bit is called "carry", in a subtraction it acts as a "not borrow". That is, it is set to '1' only if a borrow did *not* occur.

The table at the right shows the possible status flag outcomes from the subtraction A – B:

	Z	С
A > B	0	1
A = B	1	1
A < B	0	0

We can make use of this to test whether the elapsed time is less than 200 ms (cnt_8ms < 25) as follows:

The subtraction performed here is cnt 8ms - 25, so C = 0 only if cnt 8ms < 25 (see the table above).

If C = 1, the elapsed time must be greater than the allowed 200 ms, and the instruction to turn on the success LED is skipped.

Note that the 'banksel GPIO' directive is placed above the 'btfss' instruction. This is important. If we had instead written this as:

```
btfss STATUS,C
banksel GPIO
bsf GPIO,GP1 ; turn on success LED
```

the instruction generated by banksel² is skipped if C is set, instead of the bcf instruction.

That is not at all what was intended; keep in mind that the 'banksel' directive generates instructions which are inserted into your code, so sometimes (as in this example) you need to be careful where you place it, to avoid unexpected side-effects.

Note also that there is never any need to use banksel before accessing the STATUS register, because it is mapped into the same address in every bank.

Alternatively, we could use the sublw instruction to perform the comparison:

Note that the sense of the subtraction performed here $(24 - cnt_8ms)$ is reversed from the one above. According to the truth table on the previous page, we now have to test for C = 1 instead of C = 0 and the comparison becomes ' \leq ' instead of ' \leq ', meaning that the comparison has to be with 24 instead of 25.

Or, we could even use addlw for the subtraction (comparison):

```
movf cnt_8ms,w ; if time < 200 ms (25 x 8 ms)
addlw -.25 ; (cnt_8ms < 25)
banksel GPIO
btfss STATUS,C
bsf GPIO,GP1 ; turn on success LED</pre>
```

Complete program

Here's the complete code for the reaction timer, using the 'subwf'-based comparison routine:

```
Lesson 4, example 1a
   Description:
;
                 Reaction Timer game.
;
;
   Demonstrates use of timer0 to time real-world events
;
   User must attempt to press button within 200 ms of "start" LED
;
   lighting. If and only if successful, "success" LED is lit.
;
;
       Starts with both LEDs unlit.
;
       2 sec delay before lighting "start"
;
       Waits up to 1 sec for button press
;
       (only) on button press, lights "success"
;
       1 sec delay before repeating from start
;
;
   (version using subwf instruction in comparison routine)
;
```

² On mid-range PICs with four register banks, banksel generates two instructions; only the first will be skipped.

```
Pin assignments:
;
      GP1 = success LED
;
       GP2 = start LED
;
       GP3 = pushbutton switch (active low)
p=12F629
              <p12F629.inc>
   #include
   errorlevel -302; no "register not in bank 0" warnings errorlevel -312; no "page or bank selection not needed" messages
   EXTERN
             delay10 ; W x 10 ms delay
; **** CONFIGURATION
              ; int reset, no code or data protect, no brownout detect,
               ; no watchdog, power-up timer, 4Mhz int clock
              _MCLRE_OFF & _CP_OFF & _CPD_OFF & _BODEN_OFF & _WDT_OFF &
     CONFIG
PWRTE ON & INTRC OSC NOCLKOUT
; **** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
      UDATA SHR
cnt 8ms res 1
                         ; counter: increments every 8 ms
RESET CODE 0x0000 ; processor reset vector
       ; calibrate internal RC oscillator
       call 0x03FF ; retrieve factory calibration value
       banksel OSCCAL
                             ; (stored at 0x3FF as a retlw k)
       movwf OSCCAL ; (stored at Ux3ff as then update OSCCAL
;**** MAIN PROGRAM ************************
;***** Initialisation
start
       ; configure port
       movlw \sim (1 < \text{GP1} | 1 < \text{GP2}); configure GP1 and GP2 (only) as outputs
       banksel TRISIO
       movwf TRISIO
       ; configure timer
             b'11000100' ; configure Timer0:
; --0---- timer mode (TOCS)
; ---0--- prescaler assign
       ; --0---- timer mode (TOCS = 0)
; -----100 prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
prescale = 32 (PS = 100)
banksel OPTION_REG
movwf OPTION_REG; ; -> increment TMR0 every 32 us
;**** Main loop
main loop
       ; turn off both LEDs
       banksel GPIO
       clrf GPIO
```

```
; delay 2 sec
       movlw
               .200
                              ; 200 x 10 ms = 2 sec
       pagesel delay10
       call delay10
       pagesel $
       ; indicate start
       banksel GPIO
       bsf
              GPIO, GP2
                          ; turn on start LED
       ; wait up to 1 sec for button press
       clrf cnt_8ms ; clear timer (8 ms counter)
wait1s
                              ; repeat for 1 sec:
       banksel TMR0
                           ;
       clrf TMR0
                                 clear Timer0
w tmr0
                              ; repeat for 8 ms:
       banksel GPIO
       btfss GPIO,3 ; if button pressed (GP3 low)
goto btn_dn ; finish delay loop immedia
                                     finish delay loop immediately
       banksel TMR0
                           ;
       movf TMR0,w
       xorlw .250
                              ; (250 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 8 \text{ ms})
       btfss STATUS, Z
       goto w_tmr0
       incf cnt_8ms,f
movlw .125
                             ; increment 8 ms counter
                              ; (125 x 8 ms = 1 sec)
       xorwf cnt 8ms,w
       btfss STATUS, Z
       goto wait1s
       ; indicate success if elapsed time < 200 ms
btn_dn movlw .25 ; if time < 200 ms (25 x 8 ms)
       subwf cnt_8ms,w ; (cnt_8ms < 25)</pre>
       banksel GPIO
       btfss STATUS, C
                          ; turn on success LED
       bsf GPIO, GP1
       ; delay 1 sec
                              ; 100 \times 10 \text{ ms} = 1 \text{ sec}
       movlw .100
       pagesel delay10
       call delay10
       pagesel $
       ; repeat forever
       goto main loop
       END
```

Example 2: Flash LED while responding to input

As discussed above, timers can be used to maintain the accurate timing of regular ("background") events, while performing other actions in response to input signals. To illustrate this, we'll flash the LED on GP2 at 1 Hz (similar to the second example in <u>lesson 1</u>), while lighting the LED on GP1 whenever the pushbutton on GP3 is pressed (as was done in <u>lesson 3</u>).

We'll see in <u>lesson 6</u> that timer-driven interrupts are ideally suited to performing regular background tasks. This example is only included here for completeness; it's not how you would implement this, on a mid-range PIC, in practice.

When creating an application which performs a number of tasks, it is best, if practical, to implement and test each of those tasks separately. In other words, build the application a piece at a time, adding each new part to base that is known to be working. So we'll start by simply flashing the LED.

The delay needs to written in such a way that button scanning code can be added within it later. Calling a delay subroutine, as was done in <u>lesson 2</u>, wouldn't be appropriate; if the button press was only checked at the start and/or end of the delay, the button would seem unresponsive (a 0.5 sec delay is very noticeable).

Since the maximum delay that Timer0 can produce directly from a 1 MHz instruction clock is 65 ms, we have to extend the timer by adding a counter variable, as was done in example 1.

To produce a given delay, various combinations of prescaler value, maximum timer count and number of repetitions will be possible. But noting that $125 \times 125 \times 32 \ \mu s = 500 \ ms$, a delay of exactly 500 ms can be generated by:

- Using a 4 MHz processor clock, giving a 1 MHz instruction clock and a 1 µs instruction cycle
- Assigning a 1:32 prescaler to the instruction clock, incrementing Timer0 every 32 µs
- Resetting Timer0 to zero, as soon as it reaches 125 (i.e. every $125 \times 32 \,\mu s = 4 \,ms$)
- Repeating 125 times, creating a delay of $125 \times 4 \text{ ms} = 500 \text{ ms}$.

The following code implements the above steps:

```
;***** Initialisation
start
         ; configure port
        banksel GPIO
        clrf GPIO ; start with all proposed ; update shadow movlw ~(1<<GP1)1<<GP2) ; configure GP1 and GP2 (only) as outputs ; (GP3 is an input)
        movwf
                 TRISIO
        ; configure timer
        movlw b'11000100'
; --0---
; ----0--
                                      ; configure Timer0:
                                           timer mode (TOCS = 0)
                                           prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
                                    prescale = 32 (PS = 100)
; -> increment TMR0 every 32 us
                 ; ----100
        banksel OPTION_REG
        movwf OPTION REG
;**** Main loop
main loop
        ; delay 500 ms
        movlw .125
                                  ; repeat 125 times (125 \times 4 \text{ ms} = 500 \text{ ms})
        movwf dly_cnt
dly500
        banksel TMR0
                                  ; clear timer0
        clrf TMR0
w tmr0 movf TMR0,w
                                 ; wait for 4 ms
        xorlw .125
                                         (125 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 4 \text{ ms})
                                  ;
        btfss STATUS, Z
        goto w tmr0
        decfsz dly_cnt,f ; end 500 ms delay loop
        goto dly500
         ; toggle flashing LED
        movf sGPIO, w
```

```
xorlw 1<<GP2 ; toggle LED on GP2
movwf sGPIO ; using shadow register
banksel GPIO
movwf GPIO
; repeat forever
goto main loop</pre>
```

Note that, strictly speaking, the 'banksel' directives within the main loop are not needed, because the only registers accessed within the loop, TMRO and GPIO, are in the same bank. Nevertheless, it's good practice to include these directives, as shown, in case you later insert some code which changes the bank selection. That's not difficult to deal with, but it's easy to miss a situation where banksel is needed, ending up with a difficult-to-find bug. If you use banksel liberally, even when not strictly needed, your code will be a little longer, but much more easily maintained.

Here's the code developed in <u>lesson 3</u>, for turning on an LED when the pushbutton is pressed:

```
clrf sGPIO     ; assume button up -> LED off
btfss GPIO,GP3     ; if button pressed (GP3 low)
bsf sGPIO,GP1     ; turn on LED

movf sGPIO,w     ; copy shadow to GPIO
movwf GPIO
```

It's quite straightforward to place some code similar to this (replacing the clrf with a bof instruction, to avoid affecting any other bits in the shadow register) within the timer wait loop – since the timer increments every 32 instructions, there are plenty of cycles available to accommodate these additional instructions, without risk that the "TMR0 = 125" condition will be skipped (see discussion in example 1).

Here's how:

```
w tmr0
                                               repeat for 4 ms:
                                          ;
          banksel GPIO
                                               check and respond to button press
                                          ;
                                         ; assume button up -> indicator LED off
; if button pressed (GP3 low)
; turn on indicator LED
; update port (copy shadow to GPIO)
          bcf sGPIO, GP1
          btfss GPIO,GP3
          bsf sGPIO,GP1 movf sGPIO,w
          movwf GPIO
          banksel TMR0
          movf TMR0, w
          xorlw
                    .125
                                             (125 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 4 \text{ ms})
          btfss
                    STATUS, Z
          goto
                    w_tmr0
```

Complete program

Here's the complete code for the flash + pushbutton demo.

Note that, because GPIO is being updated from the shadow copy, every "spin" of the timer wait loop, there is no need to update GPIO when the LED on GP2 is toggled; the change will be picked up next time through the loop.

```
;****************************
;
  Description: Lesson 4 example 2
;
; Demonstrates use of Timer0 to maintain timing of background tasks
; while performing other actions in response to changing inputs
**
```

```
One LED simply flashes at 1 Hz (50% duty cycle).
;
   The other LED is only lit when the pushbutton is pressed
Pin assignments:
;
      GP1 = "button pressed" indicator LED
;
;
       GP2 = flashing LED
       GP3 = pushbutton switch (active low)
;
p=12F629
   list
   #include
              <p12F629.inc>
   errorlevel -302
                             ; no "register not in bank 0" warnings
; **** CONFIGURATION
              ; int reset, no code or data protect, no brownout detect,
              ; no watchdog, power-up timer, 4Mhz int clock
     _CONFIG __MCLRE_OFF & _CP_OFF & _CPD_OFF & _BODEN_OFF & _WDT_OFF &
PWRTE ON & INTRC OSC NOCLKOUT
; **** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
      UDATA SHR
sGPIO res 1
                             ; shadow copy of GPIO
dly_cnt res 1
                             ; delay counter
;**** RESET VECTOR *******************************
RESET CODE 0x0000 ; processor reset vector
       ; calibrate internal RC oscillator
       call 0x03FF; retrieve factory calibration value
                             ; (stored at 0x3FF as a retlw k)
       banksel OSCCAL
       movwf OSCCAL ; (Stored at 0x3FF as
;**** MAIN PROGRAM ************************
;***** Initialisation
start
       ; configure port
       banksel GPIO
       clrf GPIO ; start with all LEDs off
clrf sGPIO ; update shadow
movlw ~(1<<GP1) ; configure GP1 (only) as output
banksel TRISIO ; (GP3 is an input)
       movwf TRISIO
       ; configure timer
       movlw b'11000100' ; configure Timer0:

; --0---- timer mode (TOCS = 0)

; -----100 prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)

prescale = 32 (PS = 100)

banksel OPTION_REG ; -> increment TMR0 every 32 us
       movwf OPTION REG
;**** Main loop
```

```
main loop
      ; delay 500 ms while responding to button press
     movlw .125 ; repeat 125 times (125 x 4 ms = 500 ms)
     movwf dly cnt
dly500
     banksel TMR0
                           clear timer0
      clrf TMR0
     w tmr0
     banksel TMR0
     movf TMR0,w
     xorlw .125
                         (125 \text{ ticks x } 32 \text{ us/tick} = 4 \text{ ms})
     btfss STATUS, Z
     goto w_tmr0
      decfsz dly_cnt,f ; end 500 ms delay loop
      goto dly500
      ; toggle flashing LED
     movf sGPIO, w
     banksel GPIO
     movwf GPIO
      ; repeat forever
      goto main loop
      END
```

Example 3: Switch debouncing

<u>Lesson 3</u> explored the topic of switch bounce, and described a counting algorithm to address it, which was expressed as:

```
count = 0
while count < max_samples
    delay sample_time
    if input = required_state
        count = count + 1
    else
        count = 0
end</pre>
```

The switch is deemed to have changed when it has been continuously in the new state for some minimum period, for example 10 ms. This is determined by continuing to increment a count while checking the state of the switch. "Continuing to increment a count" while something else occurs, such as checking a switch, is exactly what a timer does. Since a timer increments automatically, using a timer can simplify the logic, as follows:

On completion, the input will have been in the required state (changed) for the minimum debounce time.

Assuming a 1 MHz instruction clock and a 1:64 prescaler, a 10 ms debounce time will be reached when the timer reaches 10 ms \div 64 μ s = 156.3; taking the next highest integer gives 157.

The following code demonstrates how Timer0 can be used to debounce a "button down" event:

That's shorter than the equivalent routine presented in <u>lesson 3</u>, and it avoids the need to use two data registers as counters. But – it uses Timer0. Although mid-range PICs have more than one timer, they are still a scarce resource. You must be careful, as you build a library of routines that use Timer0, that if you use more than one routine which uses Timer0 in a single program, that the way they use or setup Timer0 doesn't clash. As we'll see in <u>lesson 6</u>, it can be better to use a regular timer-driven interrupt for switch debouncing, allowing a single timer (driving the interrupt) to be used for a number of tasks.

But if you're not using Timer0 for anything else, using it for switch debouncing is perfectly reasonable.

Complete program

The following program is equivalent to that presented in lesson 3:

```
;
  Description: Lesson 4, example 3
;
;
  Demonstrates use of Timer0 to implement debounce counting algorithm *
  Toggles LED when pushbutton is pressed then released
Pin assignments:
     GP1 = LED
     GP3 = pushbutton switch (active low)
p=12F629
  list
  #include
          <p12F629.inc>
                      ; no "register not in bank 0" warnings
  errorlevel -302
;**** CONFIGURATION
           ; int reset, no code or data protect, no brownout detect,
           ; no watchdog, power-up timer, 4Mhz int clock
           MCLRE OFF & CP OFF & CPD OFF & BODEN OFF & WDT OFF &
PWRTE ON & INTRC OSC NOCLKOUT
; **** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
     UDATA SHR
sGPIO res 1
                      ; shadow copy of GPIO
```

```
;**** RESET VECTOR ********************************
    CODE 0x0000
                   ; processor reset vector
    ; calibrate internal RC oscillator
    ;**** MAIN PROGRAM ************************
;**** Initialisation
start
    ; configure port
    banksel GPIO
    movwf TRISIO
    ; configure timer
    prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
    movwf OPTION REG
;**** Main loop
main loop
     ; wait for button press, debounce using timer0:
    banksel TMR0
btfss STATUS, Z ; if not, continue checking button
    goto chk dn
    ; toggle LED on GP1
    banksel GPIO
    movf sGPIO, w
    xorlw 1<<GP1 ; toggle shadow register</pre>
    movwf sGPIO
    movwf GPIO
                   ; write to port
     ; wait for button release, debounce using timer0:
; repeat forever
     goto main loop
     END
```

Counter Mode

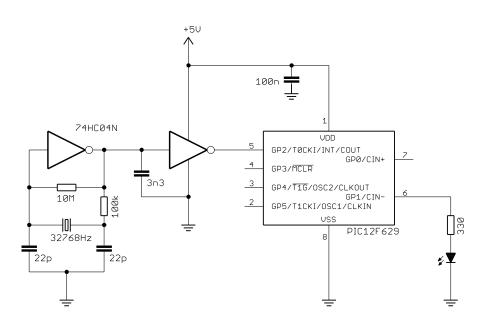
As mentioned above, Timer0 can also be used to count transitions (rising or falling) on the TOCKI input.

This is useful in a number of ways, such as performing an action after some number of events, or measuring the frequency of an input signal, for example from a sensor triggered by the rotation of an axle. The frequency in Hertz of the signal is simply the number of transitions counted in one second.

However, it's not really practical to build a frequency counter, using only the techniques (and microcontrollers) we've covered so far!

To illustrate the use of Timer0 as a counter, we'll go back to LED flashing, but driving the counter with a crystal-based external clock, providing a much more accurate time base.

The circuit used for this is shown below (with the reset switch and pull-up omitted for clarity).



An oscillator based on a 32.768 kHz "watch crystal" and a CMOS inverter was presented in baseline lesson 5. It is used again here to generate a 32.768 kHz clock signal, which drives the 12F629's TOCKI input, via an inverting buffer.

The Gooligum training board already has this oscillator circuit in place (in the upper right of the board) – close jumper JP22 to connect the 32 kHz clock signal to TOCKI. And, as before, close

jumpers JP3 and JP12 to enable the external MCLR pull-up resistor (not shown here) and the LED on GP1.

If you have Microchip's Low Pin Count Demo Board, you will need to build the oscillator circuit separately and connect it to the 14-pin header on the demo board (GP2/T0CKI is brought out as pin 9 on the header, while power and ground are pins 13 and 14), as shown in <u>baseline lesson 5</u>.

We'll use this clock input to generate the timing needed to flash the LED on GP1 at almost exactly 1 Hz (the accuracy being set by the accuracy of the crystal oscillator, which can be expected to be much better than that of the PIC's internal RC oscillator).

Those familiar with binary numbers will have noticed that $32768 = 2^{15}$, making it very straightforward to divide the 32768 Hz input down to 1 Hz.

Since $32768 = 128 \times 256$, if we apply a 1:128 prescale ratio to the 32768 Hz signal on TOCKI, TMRO will be incremented 256 times per second. The most significant bit of TMRO (TMRO<7>) will therefore be cycling at a rate of exactly 1 Hz; it will be '0' for 0.5 s, followed by '1' for 0.5 s.

So if we clock TMR0 with the 32768 Hz signal on T0CKI, prescaled by 128, the task is simply to light the LED (GP1 high) when TMR0<7> = 1, and turn off the LED (GP1 low) when TMR0<7> = 0.

To configure Timer0 for counter mode (external clock on TOCKI) with a 1:128 prescale ratio, set the TOCS bit to '1', PSA to '0' and PS<2:0> to '110':

```
movlw b'11110110'
    ; configure Timer0:
    ; --1----
    ; counter mode (TOCS = 1)
    prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
    prescale = 128 (PS = 110)
banksel OPTION_REG
    ; -> increment at 256 Hz with 32.768 kHz input
```

Note that the value of TOSE bit is irrelevant; we don't care if the counter increments on the rising or falling edge of the signal on TOCKI – only the frequency is important. Either edge will do.

Next we need to continually set GP1 high whenever TMR0<7> = 1, and low whenever TMR0<7> = 0.

In other words, continually update GP1 with the current value or TMR0<7>.

Unfortunately, there is no simple "copy a single bit" instruction in mid-range PIC assembler!

If you're not using a shadow register for GPIO, the following "direct approach" is effective, if a little inelegant:

```
loop ; transfer TMR0<7> to GP1
banksel TMR0
btfsc TMR0,7 ; if TMR0<7>=1
bsf GPIO,GP1 ; set GP1
btfss TMR0,7 ; if TMR0<7>=0
bcf GPIO,GP1 ; clear GP1
; repeat forever
goto loop
```

As we saw in <u>lesson 3</u>, if you are using a shadow register (generally a good idea...), this can be implemented as:

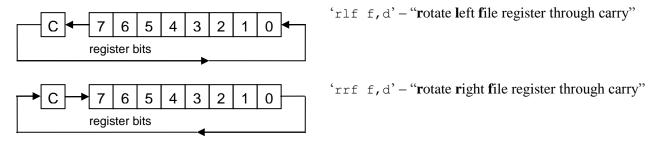
```
loop
       ; transfer TMR0<7> to GP1
                           ; assume TMR0<7>=0 -> LED off
       clrf sGPIO
      banksel TMR0
      btfsc TMR0,7
                           ; if TMR0<7>=1
            sGPIO,GP1
                           ; turn on LED
      movf sGPIO, w
                        ; copy shadow to GPIO
      banksel GPIO
      movwf GPIO
       ; repeat forever
       aoto
             loop
```

But since this is actually an instruction longer, it's only really simpler if you were going to use a shadow register anyway.

And note that the use of a single 'banksel' directive at the start of the first routine³, but two 'banksel's in the second. This is because, in a real program, where a shadow register is being used, it is likely to be updated a number of times before being copied to GPIO at the end of the loop; additional code within the loop may alter the bank selection.

³ We can get away with this because TMR0 and GPIO are in the same bank, and it's very unlikely that we'd want to insert additional code into this small routine in future – so having selected the correct bank for TMR0, we can safely access GPIO within the same routine.

Another approach is to use the PIC's rotate instructions. These instructions move every bit in a register to the left or right, as illustrated:



In both cases, the bit being rotated out of bit 7 (for rlf) or bit 0 (for rrf) is copied into the carry bit in the STATUS register, and the previous value of carry is rotated into bit 0 (for rlf) or bit 7 (for rrf).

As usual, 'f' is the register being rotated, and 'd' is the destination: ', f' to write the result back to the register, or ', w' to place the result in W.

The ability to place the result in W is useful, since it means that we can "left rotate" TMR0, to copy the current value to TMR0<7> into C, without affecting the value in TMR0.

In the mid-range architecture, only the special-function and general purpose registers can be rotated; there are no instructions for rotating W. That's a pity, since such an instruction would be useful here.

Instead, we must rotate the bit copied from TMR0<7> into bit 0 of a temporary register, then another rotate to move the copied bit into bit 1, and then copy the result to GPIO, as follows:

```
rlf TMR0,w ; copy TMR0<7> to C
clrf temp
rlf temp,f ; rotate C into temp
rlf temp,w ; rotate once more into W (-> W<1> = TMR0<7>)
movwf GPIO ; update GPIO with result (-> GP1 = TMR0<7>)
```

Note that 'temp' is cleared before being used. That's not strictly necessary in this example; since the only output is GP1, it doesn't matter what the other bits in GPIO are set to.

Of course, if any other bits in GPIO were being used as outputs, you couldn't use this method, since this code will clear every bit other than GP1! In that case, you're better off using the bit test and set/clear instructions, which are generally the most practical way to "copy a bit". But it's worth remembering that the rotate instructions are also available, and using them may lead to shorter code.

Complete program

Here's the complete "flash an LED at 1 Hz using a crystal oscillator" program, using the "copy a bit via rotation" method:

```
p=12F629
    list
    #include
               <p12F629.inc>
    errorlevel -302
                               ; no "register not in bank 0" warnings
; **** CONFIGURATION
               ; ext reset, no code or data protect, no brownout detect,
               ; no watchdog, power-up timer, 4Mhz int clock
                _MCLRE_ON & _CP_OFF & _CPD_OFF & _BODEN_OFF & _WDT_OFF &
PWRTE_ON & _INTRC_OSC_NOCLKOUT
; **** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
      UDATA SHR
temp res 1
                               ; temp register used for rotates
RESET CODE 0x0000 ; processor reset vector
       ; calibrate internal RC oscillator
       call 0x03FF ; retrieve factory calibration value
       banksel OSCCAL
                               ; (stored at 0x3FF as a retlw k)
       movwf OSCCAL
                               ; then update OSCCAL
;**** MAIN PROGRAM ************************
;***** Initialisation
start
        ; configure port
       movlw \sim (1 << GP1); configure GP1 (only) as an output
       banksel TRISIO
       movwf TRISIO
        ; configure timer
       movlw b'11110110'; configure Timer0:
; --1----
; counter mode (TOCS = 1)
prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
prescale = 128 (PS = 110)

banksel OPTION_REG; -> increment at 256 Hz with 32.768 kHz input
       movwf OPTION REG
;**** Main loop
main loop
        ; TMRO<7> cycles at 1 Hz, so continually copy to LED (GP1)
       banksel TMR0
                         ; copy TMR0<7> to C
       rlf
              TMR0,w
              temp
       clrf
                           ; rotate C into temp
; rotate once more into W (-> W<1> = TMR0<7>)
; update GPIO with result (-> GP1 = TMR0<7>)
       rlf temp,f
rlf temp,w
       movwf GPIO
        ; repeat forever
        goto main loop
       END
```

Conclusion

Hopefully the examples in this lesson have given you an idea of the flexibility and usefulness of the Timer0 peripheral.

With it, we were able to:

- Time an event
- Perform a periodic action while responding to input
- Debounce a switch
- Count external pulses

However, as mentioned a few times now, one of the most useful applications of timers is to drive interrupts, which are arguably the most significant enhancement in the mid-range architecture, and the topic of <u>lesson 6</u>.

But first, in the <u>next lesson</u> we'll take a quick look at some of the features of the MPASM assembler, which can make your code easier to maintain.