

Introduction to PIC Programming

Baseline Architecture and Assembly Language

by David Meiklejohn, Gooligum Electronics

Lesson 5: Using Timer0

The lessons until now have covered the essentials of baseline PIC microcontroller operation: controlling digital outputs, timed via programmed delays, with program flow responding to digital inputs. That's all you really need to perform a great many tasks; such is the versatility of these devices. 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 [lesson 2](#), as an accurate way to measure elapsed time. But a timer will just keep counting, steadily, while your program responds to various inputs, performs calculations, or whatever.

As we'll see when we look at midrange PICs, timers are commonly used to drive *interrupts* (routines which interrupt the normal program flow) to allow regularly timed "background" tasks to run. The baseline architecture doesn't support interrupts, but, as we'll see, timers are nevertheless very useful.

This lesson covers:

- 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

The baseline PICs provide only a single timer, referred to these days as Timer0. It used to be called the Real Time Clock Counter (RTCC), and you will find it called RTCC in some older literature. When Microchip released more advanced PICs, with more than one timer, they started to refer to the RTCC as Timer0.

Timer0 is very simple. 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, and then continues to increment.

In the baseline architecture, there is no "overflow flag" to indicate that TMR0 has rolled over from 255 to 0; the only way to check the status of the timer is to read TMR0.

As mentioned above, TMR0 can be driven by either the instruction clock (FOSC/4) or an external signal.

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	GPWU	GPPU	T0CS	T0SE	PSA	PS2	PS1	PS0

The clock source is selected by the **T0CS** bit:

T0CS = 0 selects timer mode, where **TMR0** is incremented at a fixed rate by the instruction clock.

T0CS = 1 selects counter mode, where **TMR0** is incremented by an external signal, on the **T0CKI** pin. On the PIC12F508/9, this is physically the same pin as **GP2**.

*Note that if **T0CS** is set to ‘1’, it overrides the **TRIS** setting for **GP2**. That is, **GP2** cannot be used as an output until **T0CS** is cleared. All the **OPTION** bits are set to ‘1’ at power on, so you must remember to clear **T0CS** before using **GP2** as an output. Instances like this, where multiple functions are mapped to a single pin, can be a trap for beginners, so be careful! These “traps” are often highlighted in the data sheets, so read them carefully!*

T0CKI 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 **T0SE** bit selects whether Timer0 responds to rising or falling signals (“edges”) on **T0CKI**. Clearing **T0SE** to ‘0’ selects the rising edge; setting **T0SE** to ‘1’ selects the falling edge.

Prescaler

By default, the timer increments by one for every instruction cycle (in timer mode) or transition on **T0CKI** (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 µs. Thus, with a 4 MHz clock, the maximum period that Timer0 can measure directly, by default, is 255 µs.

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’.

[If **PSA** = 1, the prescaler is instead assigned to the watchdog timer – a topic covered in [lesson 7](#).]

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 µs.

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

Note that the prescaler can also be used in counter mode, in which case it divides the external signal on **T0CKI** by the prescale ratio.

If you don’t want to use the prescaler with Timer0, set **PSA** to ‘1’.

To make all this theory clearer (hopefully!), here are some practical examples...

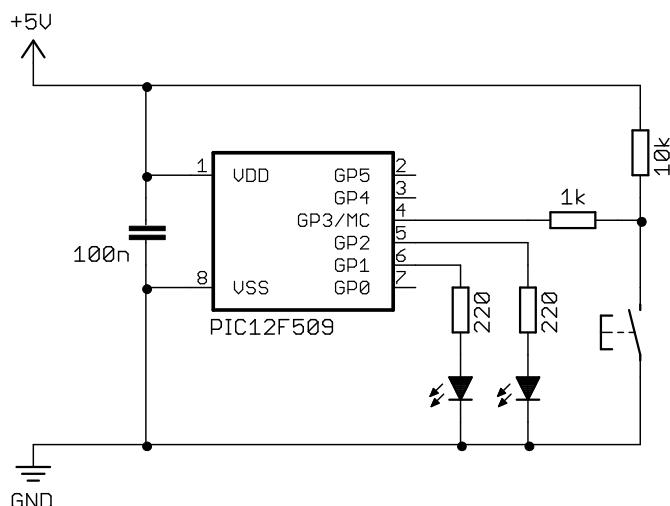
Timer Mode

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 a LED to the circuit used in [lesson 4](#). A second LED has been added to GP2, although any of the unused pins would have been suitable.

You may wish to make the two LEDs different colours, for example red on GP1 and green on GP2.



Example 1: Reaction Timer

To illustrate the use of Timer0 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 < 200ms
        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 ($250 \times 32 \mu\text{s}$) will have elapsed. If we then reset TMR0 and increment a counter variable, we've implemented a counter which increments every 8 ms. Since $25 \times 8 \text{ ms} = 200 \text{ ms}$, 200 ms will have elapsed when the counter reaches 25. Hence, any counter value > 25 means the allowed time has been exceeded. And since $125 \times 8 \text{ ms} = 1 \text{ s}$, one second will have elapsed when the counter reaches 125, 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 by:

```
movlw b'11010100'      ; configure Timer0:
; --0-----          timer mode (T0CS = 0)
; ----0---          prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
; -----100         prescale = 32 (PS = 100)
option                 ; -> increment every 32 us
```

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:

```
clrf TMR0
w_tmr0 movf TMR0,w      ; wait for 8ms (250x32us)
xorlw .250
btfs s STATUS,Z
goto w_tmr0
```

Note that XOR is used to test for equality ($TMR0 = 250$), as we did in [lesson 4](#).

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 [2](#) and [3](#).

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. But 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:

```
clrf TMR0
w_tmr0 btfs s GPIO,3      ; check for button press (GP3 low)
        goto btn_dn           ; if pressed, jump to button down routine
        movf TMR0,w
        xorlw .250             ; while waiting 8ms (250x32us)
        btfs s STATUS,Z
        goto w_tmr0
```

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:

```
banksel cnt8ms          ; clear 8ms counter
clrf cnt8ms
wait1s clrf TMR0         ; clear timer0
w_tmr0 btfs s GPIO,3     ; check for button press (GP3 low)
        goto btn_dn
        movf TMR0,w
        xorlw .250             ; wait for 8ms (250x32us)
        btfs s STATUS,Z
        goto w_tmr0
        incf cnt8ms,f          ; increment 8ms counter
        movlw .125              ; continue to wait for 1s (125x8ms)
```

```

xorwf  cnt8ms,w
btfss  STATUS,Z
goto   wait1s

```

The test at the end of the outer loop (`cnt8ms = 125`) ensures that the loop completes when 1 s has elapsed, if the button has not yet 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 $A \geq B$, $A - B$ is positive or zero and no borrow is needed.

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

The baseline PICs provide just a single instruction for subtraction: ‘`subwf f,d`’ – “subtract **W** from file register”, where ‘`f`’ is the register being subtracted from, and, ‘`d`’ is the destination; ‘`,f`’ to write the result back to the register, or ‘`,w`’ to place the result in **W**.

The result of the subtraction 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	GPWUF	-	PA0	TO	PD	Z	DC	C

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	C
$A > B$	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 (`cnt8ms < 25`) as follows:

```

; check elapsed time
btn_dn movlw .25           ; if time < 200ms (25x8ms)
        subwf cnt8ms,w
        btfss STATUS,C
        bsf    GPIO,1       ; turn on success LED

```

The subtraction being performed here is $\text{cnt8ms} - 25$, so **C** = 0 only if $\text{cnt8ms} < 25$ (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.

Complete program

Here’s the complete code for the reaction timer, so you can see how the above code fragments fit together:

```

*****
;
; Description:  Lesson 5, example 1
;                 Reaction Timer game.
;
; Demonstrates use of timer0 to time real-world events
*****
```



```

;***** Main loop
loop    clrf   GPIO           ; start with all LEDs off
        ; delay 2s
        movlw  .200
        pagesel delay10
        call   delay10
        pagesel $
        bsf    GPIO,2           ; turn on start LED
        ; wait for button press
        banksel cnt8ms         ; clear 8ms counter
        clrf   cnt8ms
wait1s  clrf   TMRO          ; clear timer0
w_tmr0  btfss  GPIO,3         ; check for button press (GP3 low)
        goto   btn_dn
        movf   TMRO,w
        xorlw  .250            ; wait for 8ms (250x32us)
        btfss  STATUS,Z
        goto   w_tmr0
        incf   cnt8ms,f         ; increment 8ms counter
        movlw  .125            ; continue to wait for 1s (125x8ms)
        xorwf  cnt8ms,w
        btfss  STATUS,Z
        goto   wait1s
        ; check elapsed time
btn_dn  movlw  .25             ; if time < 200ms (25x8ms)
        subwf  cnt8ms,w
        btfss  STATUS,C
        bsf    GPIO,1           ; turn on success LED
        ; delay 1s
        movlw  .100
        pagesel delay10
        call   delay10
        pagesel $

        ; repeat forever
        goto   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 [lesson 2](#)), while lighting the LED on GP1 whenever the pushbutton on GP3 is pressed (as was done in [lesson 4](#)). This example also shows how Timer0 can be used to provide a fixed delay.

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 be written in such a way that button scanning code can be added within it later. Calling a delay subroutine, as was done in [lesson 3](#), 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 s 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 $125 \times 125 \times 32 \mu\text{s} = 500 \text{ ms}$, a delay of exactly 500 ms can be generated by:

- Using a 4 MHz processor clock, providing 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 $125 \times 32 \mu\text{s} = 4 \text{ ms}$)
- Repeating 125 times, creating a delay of $125 \times 4 \text{ ms} = 500 \text{ ms}$.

The following code implements the above steps:

```
;***** Initialisation
    movlw  b'111001'          ; configure GP1 and GP2 as outputs
    tris   GPIO
    movlw  b'11010100'        ; configure Timer0:
                                ; --0----      timer mode (T0CS = 0)
                                ; ----0---      prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
                                ; -----100     prescale = 32 (PS = 100)
    option                         ; -> increment every 32 us

    clrf   GPIO                  ; start with all LEDs off
    clrf   sGPIO                 ; update shadow

;***** Main loop
start  ; delay 500ms
    banksel dlycnt
    movlw  .125                ; repeat 125 times
    movwf  dlycnt              ; -> 125 x 4ms = 500ms
dly500  clrf  TMR0            ; clear timer0
w_tmr0  movf  TMR0,w
    xorlw  .125                ; wait for 4ms (125x32us)
    btfss STATUS,Z
    goto  w_tmr0
    decfsz dlycnt,f           ; end 500ms delay loop
    goto  dly500

    ; toggle LED
    movf   sGPIO,w
    xorlw  b'000100'            ; toggle LED on GP2
    movwf  sGPIO                ; using shadow register
    movwf  GPIO

    ; repeat forever
    goto  start
```

Here's the code developed in [lesson 4](#), for turning on a LED when the pushbutton is pressed:

```
clrf   sGPIO                  ; assume button up -> LED off
btfss  GPIO,3                 ; if button pressed (GP3 low)
bsf   sGPIO,1                 ; turn on LED

    movf   sGPIO,w
    movwf  GPIO
```

It's quite straightforward to place some code similar to this (replacing the `clrf` with a `bcd` 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      ; check and respond to button press
    bcf      sGPIO,1          ; assume button up -> LED off
    btfss    GPIO,3          ; if button pressed (GP3 low)
    bsf      sGPIO,1          ; turn on LED

    movf      sGPIO,w          ; copy shadow to GPIO
    movwf    GPIO
    ; check timer0 until 4ms elapsed
    movf      TMR0,w
    xorlw    .125             ; (4ms = 125 x 32us)
    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 5, example 2
;
;   Demonstrates use of Timer0 to maintain timing of background actions
;   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
;
;*****
list      p=12F509
#include  <p12F509.inc>

        ; int reset, no code protect, no watchdog, 4MHz int clock
__CONFIG _MCLRE_OFF & _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _IntRC_OSC

;***** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
        UDATA_SHR
sGPIO  res 1          ; shadow copy of GPIO

        UDATA
dlycnt  res 1          ; delay counter

;*****
RESET  CODE  0x000      ; effective reset vector
        movwf OSCCAL           ; update OSCCAL with factory cal value
```

```

;***** MAIN PROGRAM

;***** Initialisation
start
    movlw b'111001'          ; configure GP1 and GP2 (only) as outputs
    tris   GPIO
    movlw b'11010100'        ; configure Timer0:
                            ; --0----      timer mode (T0CS = 0)
                            ; ----0---      prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
                            ; -----100     prescale = 32 (PS = 100)
    option           ; -> increment every 32 us

    clrf   GPIO          ; start with all LEDs off
    clrf   sGPIO         ; update shadow

;***** Main loop
loop   ; delay 500ms
    banksel dlycnt
    movlw .125            ; repeat 125 times
    movwf  dlycnt          ; -> 125 x 4ms = 500ms
dly500 ; (begin 500ms delay loop)
    clrf   TMRO          ; clear timer0
w_tmr0 ; check and respond to button press
    bcf    sGPIO,1          ; assume button up -> LED off
    btfss  GPIO,3          ; if button pressed (GP3 low)
    bsf    sGPIO,1          ; turn on LED

    movf   sGPIO,w          ; copy shadow to GPIO
    movwf  GPIO
    ; check timer0 until 4ms elapsed
    movf   TMRO,w
    xorlw .125              ; (4ms = 125 x 32us)
    btfss  STATUS,Z
    goto   w_tmr0
    ; (end 500ms delay loop)
    decfsz dlycnt,f
    goto   dly500

    ; toggle LED
    movf   sGPIO,w
    xorlw b'000100'          ; toggle LED on GP2
    movwf  sGPIO             ; using shadow register

    ; repeat forever
    goto   loop

END

```

Example 3: Switch debouncing

[Lesson 4](#) 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
```

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:

```
reset timer
while timer < debounce time
    if input ≠ required_state
        reset timer
end
```

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 $10\text{ ms} \div 64\text{ }\mu\text{s} = 156.3$; taking the next highest integer gives 157.

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

```
wait_dn clrf    TMRO          ; reset timer
chk_dn btfsc   GPIO,3        ; check for button press (GP3 low)
                    goto wait_dn ; continue to reset timer until button down
                    movf TMRO,w      ; has 10ms debounce time elapsed?
                    xorlw .157        ; (157=10ms/64us)
                    btfss STATUS,Z    ; if not, continue checking button
                    goto chk_dn
```

That’s shorter than the equivalent routine presented in [lesson 4](#), and it avoids the need to use two data registers as counters. But – it uses Timer0, and on baseline PICs, there is only one timer. It’s a scarce resource! If you’re using it to time a regular background process, as we did in example 2, you won’t be able to use it for debouncing. 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 program, the way they use or setup Timer0 doesn’t clash.

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

Complete program

The following program is equivalent to that presented in lesson 4, except that internal pull-ups are not enabled (if you want to enable them, simply load OPTION with ‘10010101’ instead of ‘11010101’).

By using Timer0 for debouncing, it’s shorter and uses less data memory:

```
;***** Description: Lesson 5, example 3 *****
; Demonstrates use of Timer0 to implement debounce counting algorithm *
; Toggles LED on GP1 *
; when pushbutton on GP3 is pressed (low) then released (high) *
```

```

;***** Pin assignments: *****
;
;    GP1 - indicator LED
;    GP3 - pushbutton
;

list      p=12F509
#include  <p12F509.inc>

        ; int reset, no code protect, no watchdog, 4MHz int clock
__CONFIG _MCLRE_OFF & _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _IntRC_OSC

;***** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
UDATA_SHR
sGPIO    res 1           ; shadow copy of GPIO

;***** RESET CODE
RESET   CODE    0x000          ; effective reset vector
        movwf  OSCCAL          ; update OSCCAL with factory cal value

;***** MAIN PROGRAM

;***** Initialisation
start
        movlw  b'111101'        ; configure GP1 (only) as an output
        tris   GPIO
        movlw  b'11010101'       ; configure Timer0:
        ; --0----          timer mode (T0CS = 0)
        ; ----0---          prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
        ; -----101         prescale = 64 (PS = 101)
        option            ; -> increment every 64 us

        clrf   GPIO           ; start with LED off
        clrf   sGPIO           ; update shadow

;***** Main loop
loop
        ; wait until button pressed, debounce using timer0:
wait_dn clrf   TMRO          ; reset timer
chk_dn  btfsc  GPIO,3        ; check for button press (GP3 low)
        goto   wait_dn         ; continue to reset timer until button down
        movf   TMRO,w          ; has 10ms debounce time elapsed?
        xorlw  .157             ; (157=10ms/64us)
        btfss  STATUS,Z        ; if not, continue checking button
        goto   chk_dn

        ; toggle LED on GP1
        movf   sGPIO,w          ; toggle shadow register
        xorlw  b'000010'         ; toggle shadow register
        movwf  sGPIO
        movwf  GPIO              ; write to port

        ; wait until button released, debounce using timer0:
wait_up clrf   TMRO          ; reset timer

```

```

chk_up    btfss    GPIO,3          ; check for button release (GP3 high)
goto      wait_up
movf     TMR0,w           ; continue to reset timer until button up
xorlw    .157            ; has 10ms debounce time elapsed?
btfss    STATUS,z         ; (157=10ms/64us)
goto      chk_up          ; if not, continue checking button

; repeat forever
goto      loop

END

```

Counter Mode

As discussed above, Timer0 can also be used to count external events, consisting of a transition (rising or falling) on the T0CKI input.

This is useful in a number of ways, such as performing an action after some number of input transitions, 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 1 s.

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.

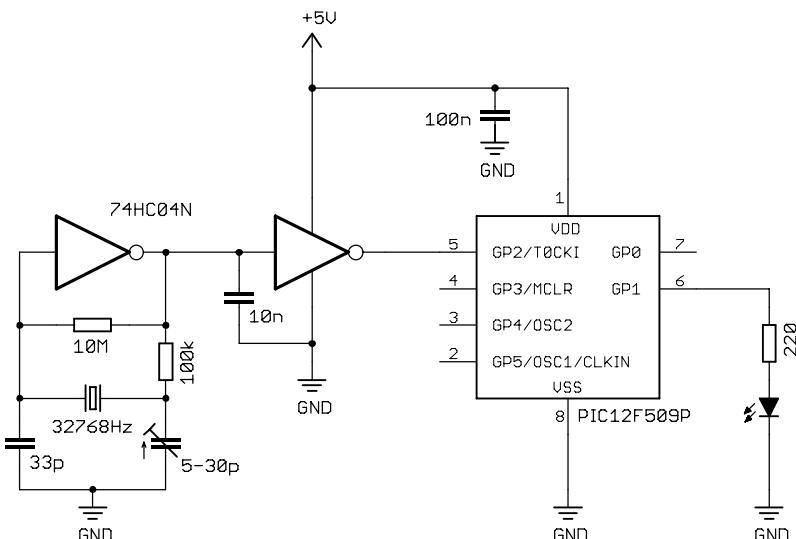
The circuit used for this is as shown on the right.

A 32.768 kHz “watch crystal” is used with a CMOS inverter to generate a 32.768 kHz clock signal.

In theory, the crystal should be loaded by 12.5 pF, equivalent to two 25 pF capacitors in series. Typically, in published circuits you'll see a pair of 22 pF capacitors between each side of the crystal and ground, since 22 pF is a close enough “standard value” and the circuit wiring will probably add a few picofarads of stray capacitance in any case.

But crystal oscillators are notoriously fiddly things, and can be something of a “black art” to get right. You'll find a number of detailed discussions of their ins and outs in applications notes on the Microchip web site. So to get a prototype working, it's a good idea to use a variable capacitor, as shown above, and then use an oscilloscope to monitor the output while adjusting the capacitance until the output (at the output of the inverter) is stable. If you don't own an oscilloscope (you should! They're invaluable!), you can use a multimeter if it has a frequency range. If it reports close to 32.768 kHz, the oscillator is running ok.

The second inverter in the circuit above, between the oscillator and the PIC, shouldn't be necessary. I included it in the prototype because, to avoid the stray capacitance problems inherent in breadboard, I built the clock module on a prototyping PCB, as shown in the photograph below. My intention was to build a stand-alone module, providing a 32.768 kHz signal, able to drive a wide range of circuits. The second



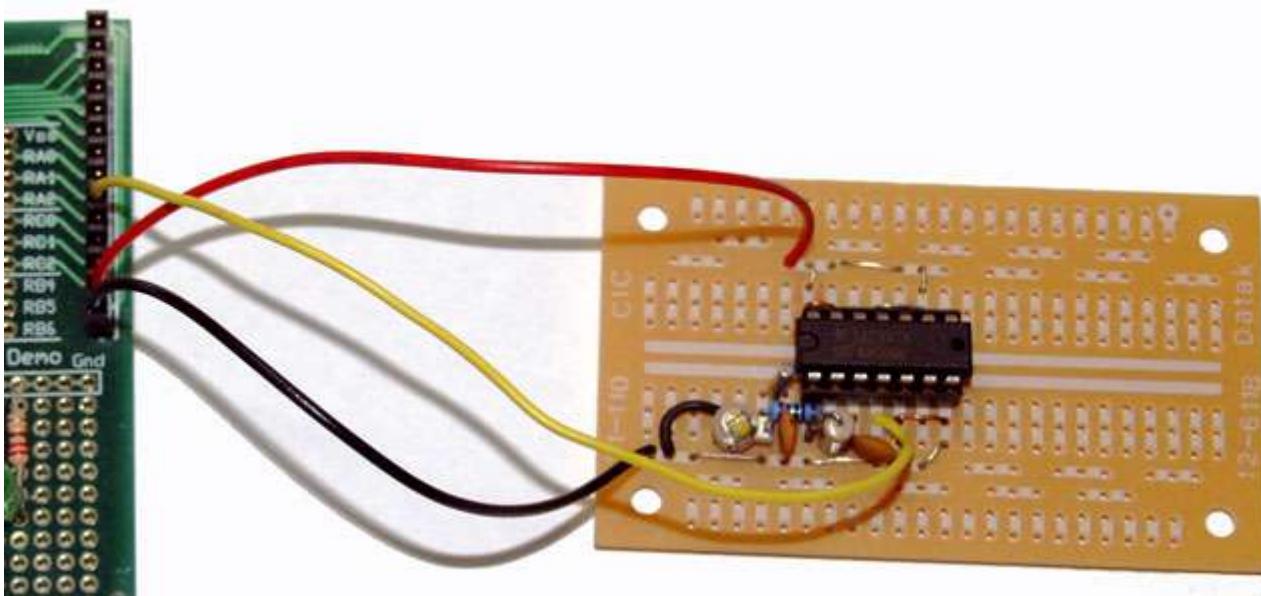
inverter acts as a buffer, isolating the oscillator stage from whatever circuitry it is attached to, to avoid overloading the oscillator, which would stop it oscillating.

Here's where the "black art" aspect appears. When I first built the prototype, I hadn't connected the second inverter stage, and an oscilloscope connected to the output of the first inverter showed correct oscillation. Simply connecting a buffer to this should not stop the oscillator from working. And yet, when the second stage was connected, the output of the second inverter showed no oscillation. Odd! But it gets stranger. Checking the input to the second inverter showed a nicely defined waveform, so why nothing at the output? A dead inverter perhaps? I replaced it with another 74HC04 chip, but the behaviour was the same. No output from the second inverter, but the input to it, from the first inverter, was ok. Two chips with inverter 1 working and inverter 2 not, would be too much coincidence! Then I happened to check the output of the second inverter again, and found a nice 32.768 kHz waveform.

To cut the story short, it turned out that the oscillator stage wasn't starting, until touched at its output by the oscilloscope probe! No oscillation was occurring, until the junction between the two inverters was probed... Stranger still was that it was not necessary for the oscilloscope probe to be in place, for the oscillation to continue correctly. It only needed to be there for start-up.

And that, finally, is why there is a 10 nF capacitor loading the input to the buffer stage. It adds the capacitance which appears to be necessary for the crystal oscillator to start up. 10 nF is of course greater than the capacitative load the oscillator probe would have presented, but I have found that this value provides for reliable oscillator start-up and continued operation.

The output signal from the buffer is fed directly to the T0CKI (GP2) input on the PIC. If using the Low Pin Count Demo Board, this can be done by connecting the 32.768 kHz clock module to the 14-pin header on the demo board (GP2 is brought out as pin 9 on the header, while power and ground are pins 13 and 14), as illustrated in the photograph on the next page:



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 32768Hz input down to 1 Hz.

Since $32768 = 128 \times 256$, if we apply a 1:128 prescale ratio to the 32768 Hz signal on T0CKI, TMR0 will be incremented 256 times per second. The most significant bit of TMR0 (TMR0<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 T0CKI) with a 1:128 prescale ratio, set the T0CS bit to ‘1’, PSA to ‘0’ and PS<2:0> to ‘110’:

```
movlw b'11110110'      ; configure Timer0:  
; --1----  
; ----0---  
; -----110  
option                 ;      prescale = 128 (PS = 110)  
                        ; -> increment at 256 Hz with 32.768 kHz input
```

Note that the value of T0SE bit is irrelevant; we don’t care if the counter increments on the rising or falling edge of the signal on T0CKI – 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 of TMR0<7>.

Unfortunately, there is no simple “copy a single bit” instruction in baseline PIC assembler!

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

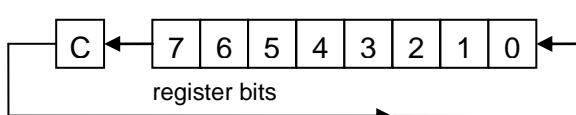
```
start ; transfer TMR0<7> to GP1  
btfsc TMR0,7          ; if TMR0<7>=1  
bsf   GPIO,1           ; set GP1  
btfss TMR0,7          ; if TMR0<7>=0  
bcf   GPIO,1           ; clear GP1  
  
; repeat forever  
goto start
```

As described in [lesson 4](#), if you are using a shadow register (as previously discussed, it’s generally a good idea to do so, to avoid potential, and difficult to debug, problems), this can be implemented as:

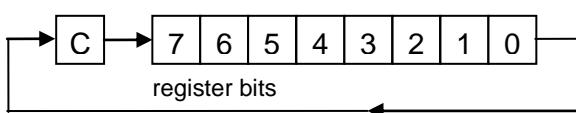
```
start ; transfer TMR0<7> to GP1  
clrf sGPIO             ; assume TMR0<7>=0 -> LED off  
btfsc TMR0,7          ; if TMR0<7>=1  
bsf   sGPIO,1           ; turn on LED  
  
movf sGPIO,w           ; copy shadow to GPIO  
movwf GPIO  
  
; repeat forever  
goto start
```

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

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:



‘rlf f, d’ – “rotate left file register through carry”



‘rrf f, d’ – “rotate right file register through carry”

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**.

There are no instructions for rotating **W**, only the addressable special-function and general purpose registers. That’s a pity, since such an instruction would be useful here. Instead, we’ll need to rotate the bit copied from **TMR0<7>** into bit 0 of a temporary register, then rotate again 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
clrfs 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 only **GP1** is being used as an output, it doesn’t actually 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 anyway, 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 a LED at 1 Hz using a crystal oscillator” program, using the “copy a bit via rotation” method:

```
;*****
;
; Description:      Lesson 5, example 4b
;
; Demonstrates use of Timer0 in counter mode and rotate instructions
;
; LED flashes at 1Hz (50% duty cycle),
; with timing derived from 32.768kHz input on TOCKI
;
; Uses rotate instructions to copy MSB from Timer0 to GP1
;
;*****
;
; Pin assignments:
;     GP1 - flashing LED
;     TOCKI - 32.768kHz signal
;
;*****
list      p=12F509
#include  <p12F509.inc>

        ; ext reset, no code protect, no watchdog, 4MHz int clock
__CONFIG _MCLRE_ON & _CP_OFF & _WDT_OFF & _IntRC_OSC

;***** VARIABLE DEFINITIONS
        UDATA_SHR
temp    res 1                  ; temp register used for rotates
```

```

;***** RESET CODE 0x000 ; effective reset vector
RESET    CODE      0x000
        movwf    OSCCAL ; update OSCCAL with factory cal value

;***** MAIN PROGRAM

;***** Initialisation
start
        movlw    b'111101'      ; configure GP1 (only) as output
        tris     GPIO
        movlw    b'11110110'    ; configure Timer0:
        ; --1---- counter mode (T0CS = 1)
        ; ----0--- prescaler assigned to Timer0 (PSA = 0)
        ; -----110 prescale = 128 (PS = 110)
        option   ; -> increment at 256 Hz with 32.768 kHz input

;***** Main loop
loop    ; TMR0<7> cycles at 1Hz
        ; so continually copy to GP1
        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>)

        ; repeat forever
        goto    loop

END

```

Hopefully the examples in this lesson have given you an idea of the flexibility and usefulness of the Timer0 peripheral. We'll revisit it later, and introduce other timers when we move onto the midrange architecture, but in the [next lesson](#) we'll take a quick look at how some of the MPASM assembler directives can be used to make our code easier to read and maintain.