

ELE538 Microprocessor Systems

Lab 3: Battery and Bumper Displays

Peter Hiscocks
Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering
Ryerson Polytechnic University
phiscock@ee.ryerson.ca
August 24, 2002

Contents

1 Overview	1
2 Calculating and Displaying Battery Voltage	2
3 The Analog to Digital Converter	2
3.1 Using the A/D Converter	3
3.2 An A/D Conversion Routine	4
3.3 Testing A/D Conversion Routine	5
4 Some Math Required	5
4.1 Scaling The Equation	6
5 Writing Battery Voltage to the Display	7
6 Displaying Bumper Status	7
6.1 Reading the Bumper Switches	7
6.2 Display Architecture	9
6.3 Display Mechanics	10
7 Assignment Summary	10
8 Binary 16 to BCD Conversion Routine	11
9 BCD to ASCII Conversion Routine: Version 1	13
10 BCD to ASCII Conversion Routine: Version 2	14
11 References	16

1 Overview

The objective of this exercise is to develop software that can read an analog quantity (such as the power supply voltage) and display it on the LCD. This includes the following steps:

- Read the A/D Converter
- Do a fixed point calculation, including scaling
- Display a binary number on the LCD using binary-BCD and BCD-ASCII conversion routines

2 Calculating and Displaying Battery Voltage

The *eebot* is operated from a 9.6 volt NiCad battery when it is operating autonomously (on its own). It is important to monitor this voltage in order to ensure that the robot is operating correctly. The motors each draw a variable current of about 300mA, and this also tends to pull down the supply voltage. So the power supply voltage fluctuates according to load. When the supply voltage falls below about 7 volts, the 5 volt logic supplies will degrade and eventually the microprocessor will stop functioning.

In this exercise, we will construct the software to read and display battery voltage.

There are three stages to this:

- Read the A/D converter channel 0 voltage.
- Process it through the equation relating battery voltage to A/D reading
- Convert this reading to an ASCII string and write it to the display.

For debugging the software, we have available a potentiometer (the *frob knob*) that can be adjusted to generate a variable voltage.

3 The Analog to Digital Converter

There are many applications where it is useful for the microcomputer to be able to read an analogue voltage. For example, many sensors output a continuously variable signal and this must be converted into a binary number for use by the microcomputer. In the case of the *eebot*, there is a manual potentiometer that generates a variable voltage, and 6 illumination sensors in the line follower circuitry that generate voltages in the range of 1 to 4 volts.

The A/D converter of the 68HC11 reads voltages between zero and 5 volts, and generates a binary number proportional to the input voltage.

In formula form,

$$N_{AD} = \frac{V_{in}}{V_{ref}} N_{max}$$

where N_{AD} is the value produced by the A/D converter, V_{in} is the input voltage, V_{ref} the reference voltage (in this case, the 5 volt logic supply), and N_{max} the maximum value contained in 8 bits (255).

For example, a 5 volt input will produce an output of 255 and a 2.5 volt input would produce 127. Notice as well that each *step* in the A/D converter output is equivalent to $5V/255 = 0.0196$ volts (approximately 20mV.)

The A/D of the 68HC11 is preceded by an 8 channel analog multiplexer, so that one of 8 possible analog inputs can be selected for conversion.

3.1 Using the A/D Converter

Any computer program using the A/D converter must do certain initialization tasks. In our case, where we are operating under control of the Buffalo monitor, some of the initialization is taken place in the monitor. However, a stand-alone program would have to contain these instructions.

For the record, these initializations take place in the OPTION register (see section 1.2 . 2 . 2 in the Pink Book). The ADPU should be set to 1 to power up the A/D converter and the CSEL bit should be set to zero so that the A/D is synchronized to the processor E clock. The monitor takes care of this.

Other initializations are in the hands of the programmer. The important register in this regard is the A/D Control Register, shown in figure 1.

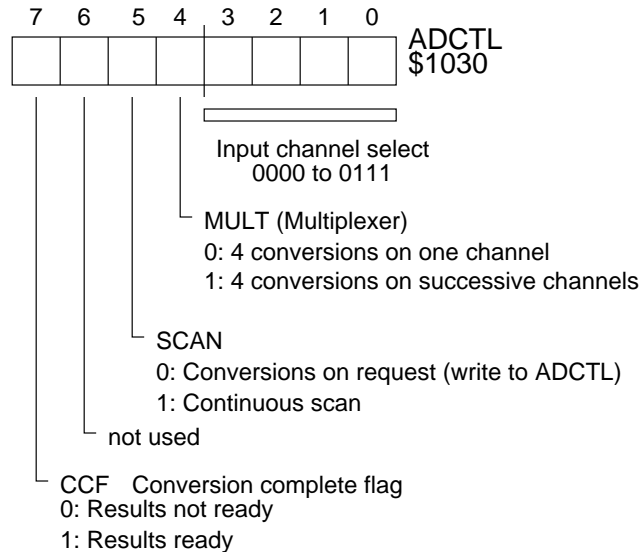


Figure 1: A/D Control Register

This register

- selects which one (or group of 4) of the 8 possible input channels will be converted.
- selects whether the A/D will read one input or 4 successive inputs
- selects whether the A/D takes a reading on request or continuously on its own
- indicates when a conversion is complete

For our purposes, we will read the 8 input channels in 2 groups of 4 and take readings on request. Notice that a new request is initiated by writing (anything) to the ADCTL, so no explicit request is required.

When a group of 4 readings is requested, they are put in the A/D Result registers, which are called ADR1 through ADR3 and are located at \$1031 through \$1034.

3.2 An A/D Conversion Routine

Now we need to give some thought to the form of the A/D conversion software.

First, we need to decide how the A/D routine will pass its results (the 8 input channel readings) back to the calling routine. To keep things simple, as part of the subroutine we'll define 8 RAM memory registers to contain the result. Now we can begin to sketch out a data structure for containing the results, and a procedure for reading the A/D. The data structure can be an 8 byte block of RAM:

```
ADDATA      RMB 8 ; Storage for A/D converter results
```

You can access the information in this block of memory with commands like

```
LDAA ADDATA+3
```

which would load the accumulator with the data from channel 4 of the A/D.

Now we can sketch out an algorithm. First, read input channels 0 through 3:

- Initialize ADCTL bit 4 to 1 so conversions take place on 4 successive channels.
- Initialise ACDTL bit 5 to 0 so that each group of conversions happens on request.
- Select the lower group of four channels by setting bits 3 through 0 of ADCTL to 0000.
- Read the ADCTL CCF bit 7. When we want to examine bit 7 of the ADCTL, we can mask off all the other bits and then test for zero using a conditional branch:

```
LDAA ADCTL
ANDAA #%10000000    ; Mask off all bits except 7
BEQ NOT_SET
ITS_SET (continue here) ; The flag is set
        (this code handles the flag set condition)
BRA CONTINUE
NOT_SET (continue here) ; The flag is not set
        (this code handles the flag not set condition)
CONTINUE (program continues here)
```

The effect of the mask operation is to reduce all the bits except bit 7 to zero. If bit 7 is also zero, the whole byte is then zero. If bit is not zero, then the whole byte is not zero. Consequently, the condition of bit 7 may be tested by testing the whole byte for zero, using a BEQ (Branch if Equal to zero) conditional branch instruction.

Notice how the *Unconditional Branch* instruction BRA is used to branch around the NOT_SET code.

- When it is set, the conversion is complete so read ADR1 through ADR3 into memory registers ADDATA through ADDATA+3

Now read input channels 4 through 7:

- Select the upper group of four channels by setting bits 3 through 0 of ADCTL to 0100. Writing to the ADCTL initiates a new conversion.
- Read the ADCTL CCF bit 7.

- When it is set, read ADR1 through ADR3 into memory registers ADDATA+4 through ADDATA+7.

At this point, all 8 analog input channels have been converted and stored in RAM locations ADDATA through ADDATA+7.

3.3 Testing A/D Conversion Routine

Hardware

A first step is to ensure that the A/D hardware is working correctly.

Use the MM command to modify location \$1030 to F0. (Ef Zero). This puts the A/D in continuous scan mode and starts it scanning the first 4 A/D channels.

Now use the command MD 1030 1030 to display one line of memory data starting at location 1030.

Every time you press the `⏎` key, the last command (MD) will repeat.

Put the potentiometer on A/D channel 1 to its minimum setting and the A/D should read close to zero. Put the pot to its maximum setting and the A/D should read FF (or close to it). Put the pot about mid-point, and the A/D should read something about halfway between 00 and FF. (Ideally, 7F).

You can even hold down the `<return>` key and watch location 1031 change as you vary the pot voltage.

Software

When the hardware is working as expected, you can test your A/D software as follows:

Using the algorithm of section 3.2 as a guide, write an A/D conversion routine that reads the 8 input channels into 8 RAM locations. The routine should be structured as a subroutine, ie, it should be callable from different locations with a JSR (*Jump To Subroutine*) instruction. The last instruction in the routine must be RTS (Return from Subroutine).

Like all software developed for this course, the subroutine must contain descriptive header documentation.

To test the routine, assemble it with a *stub* test routine. This is a one line driver that calls the routine under test. It will be something like

```
START   JSR  AD CONVERT      ; Read 8 A/D channels into RAM
        SWI                      ; Break to Monitor
```

The subroutine code will follow the stub in the listing.

Assemble and test the routine. Using the potentiometer on A/D channel 1, vary its input voltage. Use the monitor Memory Dump instruction to see if the channel 1 reading changes as the pot is rotated.

When the routine works correctly, add it to your subroutine library directory, (`~/ele538/library`).

4 Some Math Required

On the *eebot*, the A/D channel PE0 reads the voltage at the centre of an equal resistor voltage divider. The top end of this voltage divider is connected via one diode drop to the battery voltage. (When the bot is operated from a bench supply, the divider is connected to the bench supply voltage minus one diode drop.)

The voltage divider is required because the A/D converter can only cope with voltages up to 5 volts, and the battery supply is nearly double the maximum. The voltage divider effectively divides the `battery_voltage - 0.6 volts` by two.

So the formula relating the A/D voltage to the battery voltage is:

$$V_{in} = (V_{batt} - 0.6)/2$$

Recapitulating, the A/D converter of the 68HC11 reads voltages between zero and 5 volts, and generates a binary number proportional to the input voltage. In formula form, this relationship is expressed as

$$N_{AD} = \frac{V_{in}}{V_{ref}} N_{max}$$

where N_{AD} is the value produced by the A/D converter, V_{in} is the input voltage, V_{ref} the reference voltage (in this case, the 5 volt logic supply), and N_{max} the maximum value contained in 8 bits (255).

For example, a 5 volt input will produce an output of 255 and a 2.5 volt input would produce 127. Notice as well that each *step* in the A/D converter output is equivalent to $5V/255 = 0.0196$ volts (approximately 20mV.)

Combining the previous two equations to solve for battery voltage in terms of the A/D reading N_{AD} , we have¹:

$$V_{batt} = 0.039N_{AD} + 0.6$$

For example, an A/D reading of $\$7F$ (127_{10}) would correspond to a battery voltage of 5.6 volts²

4.1 Scaling The Equation

The next challenge is this: we need some way of representing the constants 0.0392 and 0.6. We could, for example, include a *floating point math package* and then use the routines in that package to do the math. A floating point package³ can deal directly with such numbers as 0.0392.

However, this is overkill for our application, so we'll use a different trick. The HC11 can work quite easily with binary integers, so if we can convert the equation to integer numbers, we can use the math routines directly. Multiplying both sides of the previous equation by 1000 will do this for us:

$$\begin{aligned} 1000V_{batt} &= 1000(0.039N_{AD} + 0.6) \\ &= 39N_{AD} + 600 \end{aligned}$$

This process of *multiplying by 1000* is known as *scaling the equation*, and is often necessary to map a mathematical equation to some piece of analogue or digital hardware.

The nice thing about the constant 1000 is that it can be removed very simply by shifting the decimal place 3 places to the left, which we can do during the display routine by careful placement of the decimal point. For example, for N_{AD} equal to $\$7F$ (127_{10}), the value of $1000V_{batt}$ is 5553, or $V_{batt} = 5.553$ volts. We'd round this off to one decimal place, or 5.5 volts.

This approach to calculation is called *fixed point mathematics* in contrast to *floating point math*, which uses exponents to place the decimal point.

One potentially fatal problem with this approach is the problem of *overflow*. We must make sure that the maximum expected number does not exceed the capacity of the computer registers to represent it. The maximum value of an 8 bit register is 255, and of a 16 bit register 65535.

¹Make sure you too can do this derivation.

²It has been suggested that this equation implies that if the A/D reading N_{AD} is zero, the battery voltage is then 0.6 volts. To be pedantically correct about it, a zero A/D reading implies that the voltage is 0.6 volts or less. In practice, even a fully discharged 9.6 volt nicad battery has a residual voltage of several volts (and a very high internal resistance).

³In fact, a floating point math package is programmed into the same EPROM as the Buffalo Monitor. If you take the ELE744 Instrumentation Course in fourth year, you'll use it extensively.

The maximum possible number computed by this routine occurs when N_{AD} is 255, in which case $1000V_{batt}$ would be 10545 (10.545 volts). Since this is well below 65535, a dual byte register will be sufficient and overflow should never occur⁴.

When you construct this routine, it should be passed the value of N_{AD} in one of the 8 bit accumulators and return the value of $1000V_{batt}$ in the D accumulator.

Before going any further, you should test this routine with various inputs and verify that it works. When it is complete, add it to your library.

5 Writing Battery Voltage to the Display

Now we need to convert the format of the previous answer into a form that can be written to the display. This is a three-step process:

- Convert the 16 bit ' $1000 \times V_{batt}$ ' value, which is in binary, into BCD digits
- Convert the BCD digits into ASCII
- Write the ASCII value to the display, formatting so that the decimal place occurs in the correct location. You will need to use the control instructions of the LCD to position the cursor, which determines where each character is written. (The LCD control codes were given in Lab 1).

The two conversion routines are rather lengthy so they are appended to these lab directions. The *16 bit binary to BCD* routine is in section 8. There are two *BCD to ASCII* routines in section 9 and section 10. They illustrate different styles of writing software, and you can choose according to your preference. These three routines are also available in the `~courses/ele538/labs/library` directory in electronic form so you don't need to type them in.

You must *attribute* the routines, ie, identify that they came from source other than your own work and identify that source.

While you are using these routines, reflect on how much more difficult it would be to use these routines if they were not documented properly. You are also welcome to identify any documentation shortcomings and suggest them to the author.

When the program is completed, demonstrate its operation using the potentiometer on the lab microcomputer.

6 Displaying Bumper Status

In this section, we'll develop code for displaying the status of the two bumper switches.

6.1 Reading the Bumper Switches

The bumpers may be used to signal the computer program for various purposes. For example, the operator may trigger the bow bumper switch when the motors are to start. Or, when the robot bumps into some object, it may be programmed to stop.

⁴A point about precision and accuracy: Our original measurement had an accuracy and precision of 8 bits, or one part in 256. Then we multiply this reading by another 8 bit value and get a 16 bit result. The precision of this answer is 16 bits or 1 part in 65535, but the lower 8 bits are meaningless, since the accuracy has not improved and is still 8 bit accuracy.

Two bumper switches, one at the bow and one at the stern, generate signals for this purpose. When a bumper switch is actuated, the corresponding LED on the back deck will illuminate.

The bumper signals also feed into 2 channels of the A/D converter so that the microprocessor can detect when a collision has occurred. The equivalent circuit for bumper switches and General Purpose Knob is shown in figure 2.

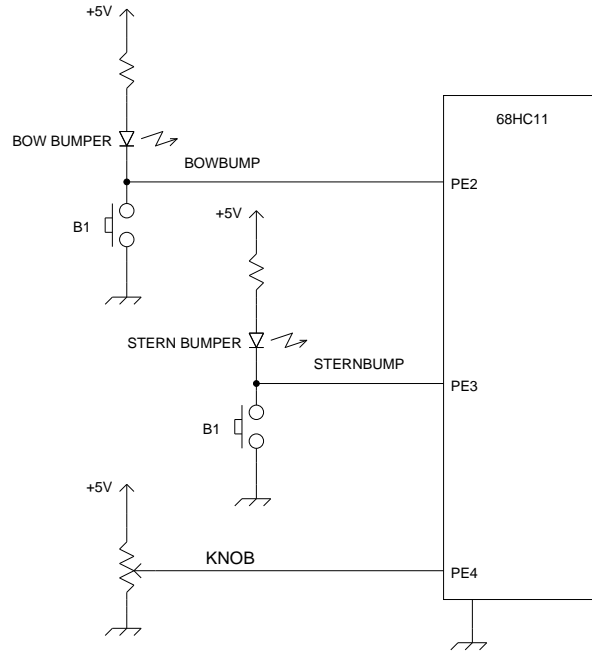


Figure 2: Bumper Switches and Frob Knob

- When a bumper switch is open (no bump), there will be no current through the resistor and LED. The LED has a fixed voltage drop of about 1.5 volts, so the input voltage to the A/D converter channel will be about 3.5 volts.
- When the switch is closed (bump), the input voltage will be zero volts.
- The general purpose knob (aka *frob* knob) produces an input between zero and 5 volts, which will read between \$00 and \$FF at the A/D input channel PE4. (On the MPPV1 bench systems, the knob is connected to input PE1).

In designing the routine to signal a bow or stern bump, we should first decide how we want to record the result. We suggest that you create two RAM variables named BUMPER_BOW and BUMPER_STERN. If a bumper is activated, its register LSbit is SET; otherwise its LSbit is CLEARED. (You could also use two bits in one RAM variable, but the activation and reading of the bits is a little more tricky.)

As one alternative for testing the bumper registers, you can AND a bumper register with the mask %00000001 to strip out any other bits than the one of interest and then use a BNE or BEQ conditional branch instruction to determine if the LSbit is set or cleared.

With this data structure in mind, our routine to test the bumpers includes the following steps:

- Read the 8 inputs of the A/D converter into RAM registers. (You developed a subroutine to do this earlier in the lab.)
- Check the level of the PE2 input. If it is above the bumper threshold, set the bow bumper bit. Otherwise, clear the bow bumper bit⁵.
- Check the level of the PE3 input. If it is above the bumper threshold, set the stern bumper bit. Otherwise, clear the stern bumper bit.
- Return

When this routine is completed, you should have a routine that can be called as a subroutine and will refresh the information in the two bumper registers.

Now we will give some thought to indicating the state of the bumpers on the display.

6.2 Display Architecture

In the final analysis, we will have a number of things to write to the LCD. This is a good time to give some thought to the overall architecture of the program and the methods it writes to the display.

The obvious method of writing to the LCD is very simple: any routine that needs to put something on the display simply writes it there. We'll refer to this as a *generator-centred* design, because the routine that generates the information puts it on the display. There are at least two problems with this approach:

- direct writing to the LCD by various routines requires that each one of these routines 'understand' where its information should go on the LCD. If the layout of the display changes, then all these routines must be modified, which is very cumbersome and prone to error.
- There is no easy way to control the update rate of the display, since each routine writes to the display whenever it's in the mood.
- There is no centralized control to determine what gets written to the display. If this requirement changes with time (the operator wishes to see different information, for example) there is no easy way to switch the display generators on and off.

A better approach is change the point of control to a *display-centred* architecture. In this arrangement, there is one *display driver* routine that is responsible for gathering the display information together and then putting it on the display. The display driver must know where to get the various pieces of information and how to format them before putting them on the display. But if the layout of the display changes, only the display driver routine needs to be modified. If the display rate is changed, then the display driver routine is simply called more or less frequently. The display driver can choose some data and skip other data according to various and changing requirements.

⁵A single *bumper threshold* can be set half way between the maximum value – about 3.5 volts – and the minimum value, 0 volts. In this particular case, the switching action of the hardware switch is very definite, so one threshold is sufficient. However, a more rigorous approach would use an upper and a lower threshold, set at about 1/3 and 2/3 of the expected input range. If the signal is above the upper threshold, then the switch is considered to be open. If it is below the lower threshold, it is considered to be closed. Readings between the two thresholds are ignored – this is the forbidden zone of digital logic. If noise happens to cause a transition on the bumper signal line, then it has to cross through the forbidden zone to be detected. So the forbidden zone provides some noise immunity. Incidentally, in this simplified approach, notice that we are totally ignoring the issue of switch bounce.

Like many issues in the architecture of software, when the program is small and simple it's not immediately obvious that you should take a particular approach. Almost anything will work. However, when you get a dozen different elements being written to the display and the display rate must be adjustable, the advantages of the display driver technique become clear.

6.3 Display Mechanics

When the display driver routine gets called, how exactly should it write to the display?

One simple strategy is *wipe and write*: clear the entire display and rewrite it. Unfortunately, this results in a very ugly display. At high update rates the display appears to have various artifacts travelling through it. At low update rates it flashes intermittently. Either way, it's very unpleasant to look at.

A better strategy is *selective replace*. Recall that the display cursor specifies where the next character will be written on the display. Happily, the LCD control codes include commands to position, hide or show the cursor. Thus, to rewrite some part of the display, ensure that the cursor is hidden, position it where the replacement is to occur, and write the new information over the old information. This requires that the new information completely overwrite the old or some garbage may be left behind. So it may be necessary for the display driver to pad the new information with leading or trailing blanks.

An even more intelligent display driver will check to see if information has changed. If it has, it will do a selective replace. Otherwise, it's left alone. This wastes less time and results in a better looking display. (The information generator sets a flag⁶ every time the information has changed. The display driver tests the flag to see if it should rewrite the information and then clears the flag every time it updates the screen.)

7 Assignment Summary

On the due date for lab3, you are required to demonstrate a program that reads the potentiometer and shows the equivalent battery voltage reading on the LCD. The same program should read the bumper switches and put symbols on the LCD to indicate whether the bumper switches are open or closed. For example, you might show a blank character if the switch is open and a letter (B for Bow, S for Stern for example) when the switch is closed.

The structure of the program should include a display driver routine that coordinates the writing of the battery voltage and bumper switch status displays. The display of battery voltage should include only one digit to the right of the decimal point.

⁶A flag is simply a memory location that contains a binary 1 or 0.

8 Binary 16 to BCD Conversion Routine

```
* file ref bl6todec.asm
*
*****
BCD_BUFFER      EQU *   The following registers are the BCD buffer area
TEN_THOUS      RMB 1    10,000 digit
THOUSANDS      RMB 1     1,000 digit
HUNDREDS      RMB 1      100 digit
TENS          RMB 1       10 digit
UNITS         RMB 1        1 digit
BCD_SPARE      RMB 10   Extra space for decimal point and string terminator
NO_BLANK      RMB 1   Used in 'leading zero' blanking by BCD2ASC
*****
*
*           Integer to BCD Conversion Routine
* This routine converts a 16 bit binary number in .D into
* BCD digits in BCD_BUFFER.
* Peter Hiscocks
* Algorithm:
* Because the IDIV (Integer Division) instruction is available on
* the 68HC11, we can determine the decimal digits by repeatedly
* dividing the binary number by ten: the remainder each time is
* a decimal digit. Conceptually, what we are doing is shifting
* the decimal number one place to the right past the decimal
* point with each divide operation. The remainder must be
* a decimal digit between 0 and 9, because we divided by 10.
* The algorithm terminates when the quotient has become zero.
* Bug note: XGDX does not set any condition codes, so test for
* quotient zero must be done explicitly with CPX.
* Data structure:
* BCD_BUFFER      EQU *   The following registers are the BCD buffer area
* TEN_THOUS      RMB 1    10,000 digit, max size for 16 bit binary
* THOUSANDS      RMB 1     1,000 digit
* HUNDREDS      RMB 1      100 digit
* TENS          RMB 1       10 digit
* UNITS         RMB 1        1 digit
* BCD_SPARE      RMB 2   Extra space for decimal point and string terminator
INT2BCD  XGDX      Save the binary number into .X
        LDAA #0    Clear the BCD_BUFFER
        STAA TEN_THOUS
        STAA THOUSANDS
        STAA HUNDREDS
        STAA TENS
        STAA UNITS
        STAA BCD_SPARE
        STAA BCD_SPARE+1
```

```

*
    CPX #0          Check for a zero input
    BEQ CON_EXIT    and if so, exit
*
    XGDX            Not zero, get the binary number back to .D as dividend
    LDX #10         Setup 10 (Decimal!) as the divisor
    IDIV            Divide: Quotient is now in .X, remainder in .D
    ANDB #$0F       Clear high nibble of remainder
    STAB UNITS      and store it.
    CPX #0          If quotient is zero,
    BEQ CON_EXIT    then exit
*
    XGDX            else swap first quotient back into .D
    LDX #10         and setup for another divide by 10
    IDIV
    ANDB #$0F
    STAB TENS
    CPX #0
    BEQ CON_EXIT
*
    XGDX            Swap quotient back into .D
    LDX #10         and setup for another divide by 10
    IDIV
    ANDB #$0F
    STAB HUNDREDS
    CPX #0
    BEQ CON_EXIT
*
    XGDX            Swap quotient back into .D
    LDX #10         and setup for another divide by 10
    IDIV
    ANDB #$0F
    STAB THOUSANDS
    CPX #0
    BEQ CON_EXIT
*
    XGDX            Swap quotient back into .D
    LDX #10         and setup for another divide by 10
    IDIV
    ANDB #$0F
    STAB TEN_THOUS
*
CON_EXIT RTS      We're done the conversion

```

9 BCD to ASCII Conversion Routine: Version 1

Note: If you use this version, you will also need the *strrev.asm* routine which should be in the *strings.asm* file in the course \library directory.

```
* file ref: bcdtoasc.asm

;; @name itoa_ul6
;; Converts an unsigned 16-bit number to a decimal string.
;;
;; @param AccD 16-bit unsigned number to convert
;; @param IX Starting address of string.
;; @return Nothing
;; @side CC modified
;; @author K.Clowses

itoa_ul6::
    psha
    pshb
    pshy
    pshx
    pshx
    puly

    ; zero is a special case
    cmpd #0
    bne ul6_cont
    ldaa #'0
    staa 0,x
    clr 1,x
    pulx
    bra ul6_ret ;We're outa-here!

    ; it's not zero
ul6_cont:
    ldx #10
    idiv ; AccB is remainder, IX is quotient
    addb #'0 ; Convert remainder to ASCII
    stab 0,y
    iny
    cmpx #0
    beq ul6_done
    xgdx
    bra ul6_cont

ul6_done:
```

```

    clr 0,y ; ensure generated string is null-terminated
    pulx
    jsr strrev ; string is in reverse order-->reverse it!
ul6_ret:
    puly ; restore original registers
    pulb
    pula
    rts

```

10 BCD to ASCII Conversion Routine: Version 2

```

* file ref: bcdtoasc.asm
*
*****
BCD_BUFFER      EQU *   The following registers are the BCD buffer area
TEN_THOUS        RMB 1   10,000 digit
THOUSANDS        RMB 1   1,000 digit
HUNDREDS         RMB 1   100 digit
TENS             RMB 1   10 digit
UNITS            RMB 1   1 digit
BCD_SPARE        RMB 10  Extra space for decimal point and string terminator
NO_BLANK         RMB 1   Used in 'leading zero' blanking by BCD2ASC
*****
*
*           BCD to ASCII Conversion Routine
* This routine converts the BCD number in the BCD_BUFFER
* into ascii format, with leading zero suppression.
* Leading zeros are converted into space characters.
* The flag 'NO_BLANK' starts cleared and is set once a non-zero
* digit has been detected.
* The 'units' digit is never blanked, even if it and all the
* preceding digits are zero.
* Peter Hiscocks

BCD2ASC  LDAA #0           Initialize the blanking flag
        STAA NO_BLANK
*
C_TTHOU  LDAA TEN_THOUS    Check the 'ten_thousands' digit
        ANDA #$0F         Clear the high nibble
        ORAA NO_BLANK
        BNE NOT_BLANK1
*
ISBLANK1 LDAA #' '        It's blank
        STAA TEN_THOUS    so store a space
        BRA C_THOU        and check the 'thousands' digit

```

```

*
NOT_BLANK1 LDAA TEN_THOUS Get the 'ten_thousands' digit
            ORAA #$30      Convert to ascii
            STAA TEN_THOUS
            LDAA #$1       Signal that we have seen a 'non-blank' digit
            STAA NO_BLANK

*
C_THOU     LDAA THOUSANDS Check the thousands digit for blankness
            ANDA #$0F      Clear the high nibble
            ORAA NO_BLANK  If it's blank and 'no-blank' is still zero
            BNE NOT_BLANK2

*
ISBLANK2   LDAA #' '      Thousands digit is blank
            STAA THOUSANDS so store a space
            BRA C_HUNS     and check the hundreds digit

*
NOT_BLANK2 LDAA THOUSANDS (similar to 'ten_thousands case)
            ORAA #$30
            STAA THOUSANDS
            LDAA #$1
            STAA NO_BLANK

*
C_HUNS     LDAA HUNDREDS Check the hundreds digit for blankness
            ANDA #$0F      Clear the high nibble
            ORAA NO_BLANK  If it's blank and 'no-blank' is still zero
            BNE NOT_BLANK3

*
ISBLANK3   LDAA #' '      Hundreds digit is blank
            STAA HUNDREDS  so store a space
            BRA C_TENS     and check the tens digit

*
NOT_BLANK3 LDAA HUNDREDS (similar to 'ten_thousands case)
            ORAA #$30
            STAA HUNDREDS
            LDAA #$1
            STAA NO_BLANK

*
C_TENS     LDAA TENS      Check the tens digit for blankness
            ANDA #$0F      Clear the high nibble
            ORAA NO_BLANK  If it's blank and 'no-blank' is still zero
            BNE NOT_BLANK4

*
ISBLANK4   LDAA #' '      Tens digit is blank
            STAA TENS      so store a space
            BRA C_UNITS    and check the units digit

*

```

```

NOT_BLANK4 LDAA TENS      (similar to 'ten_thousands case)
           ORAA #$30
           STAA TENS
           LDAA #$1
           STAA NO_BLANK
*
C_UNITS    LDAA UNITS     No blank check necessary, convert to ascii.
           ANDA #$0F
           ORAA #$30
           STAA UNITS
*
           RTS            We're done

```

11 References

M68HC11 Reference Manual

Motorola Document M68HC11RM/AD REV 3, 1991

The authoritative source of information about the 68HC11 microprocessor.

Available from Motorola on request.

68HC11 Microcontroller, Construction and Technical Manual

Peter Hiscocks, 2001

Technical information on the MPP Board, 68HC11 Microprocessor Development System

Information on programming and interfacing the MPP Board used at Ryerson
and elsewhere.

Available from Active Electronics, at the Victoria Park-Gordon Baker store in Toronto.

M68HC11: An Introduction, Software and Hardware Interfacing

Han-Way Huang

Delmar Thompson, 2001

A basic text on the 68HC11 microprocessor.

Microcomputer Technology: The 68HC11

Second Edition

Peter Spasov

Prentice Hall, 1996