

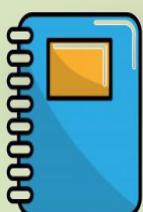


Instrumentation and Sensor Networks:

ENGT5105

**ARDUINO VS EMBEDDED SYSTEMS
IN INSTRUMENTATION WORLD**

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science and technology, China

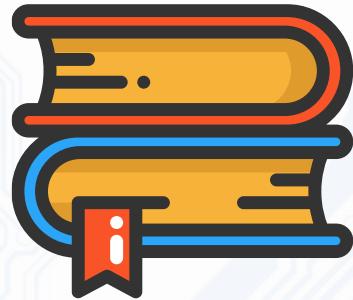
EMAIL: ajm@jxust.edu.cn

Autumn _2021



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Instrumentation and Sensor Networks:

ENGT5105

LECTURE 02: ARDUINO VS EMBEDDED SYSTEMS IN INSTRUMENTATION WORLD (2)

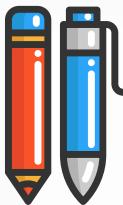


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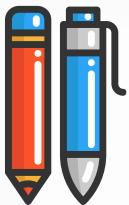


Agenda

18 OCT 2021

- Introduction to Arduino and Arduino types
- Fast review On C language and Arduino programming
- Which Arduino do you need for your project?
- Arduino - I/O Functions
- Introduction to tinker cad as Arduino simulator and some examples



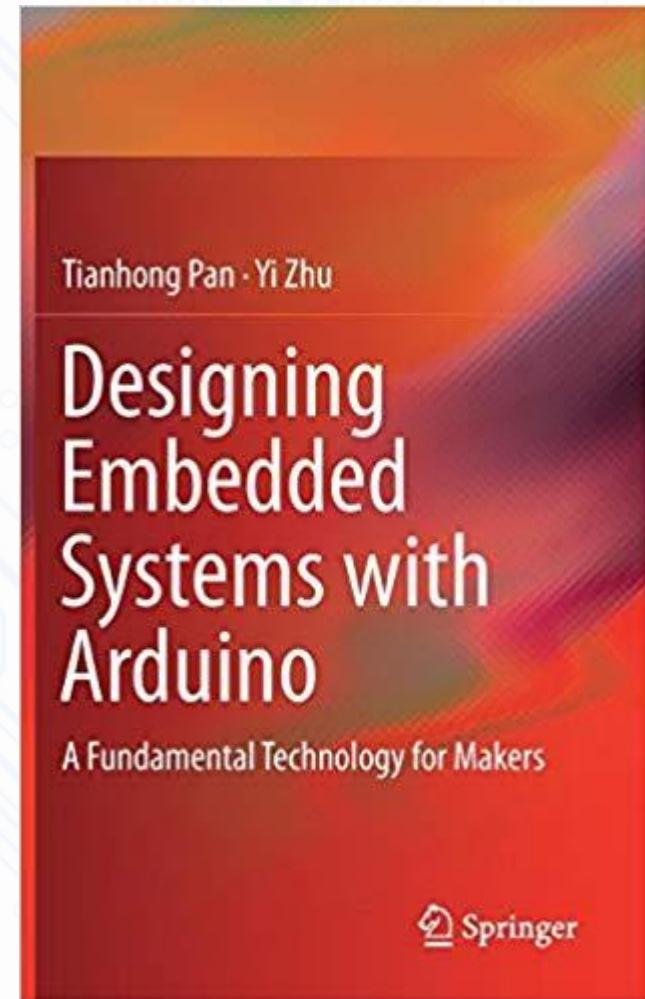


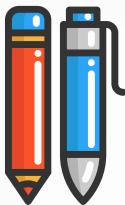
Reference book

Designing Embedded Systems with Arduino:
A Fundamental Technology for Makers

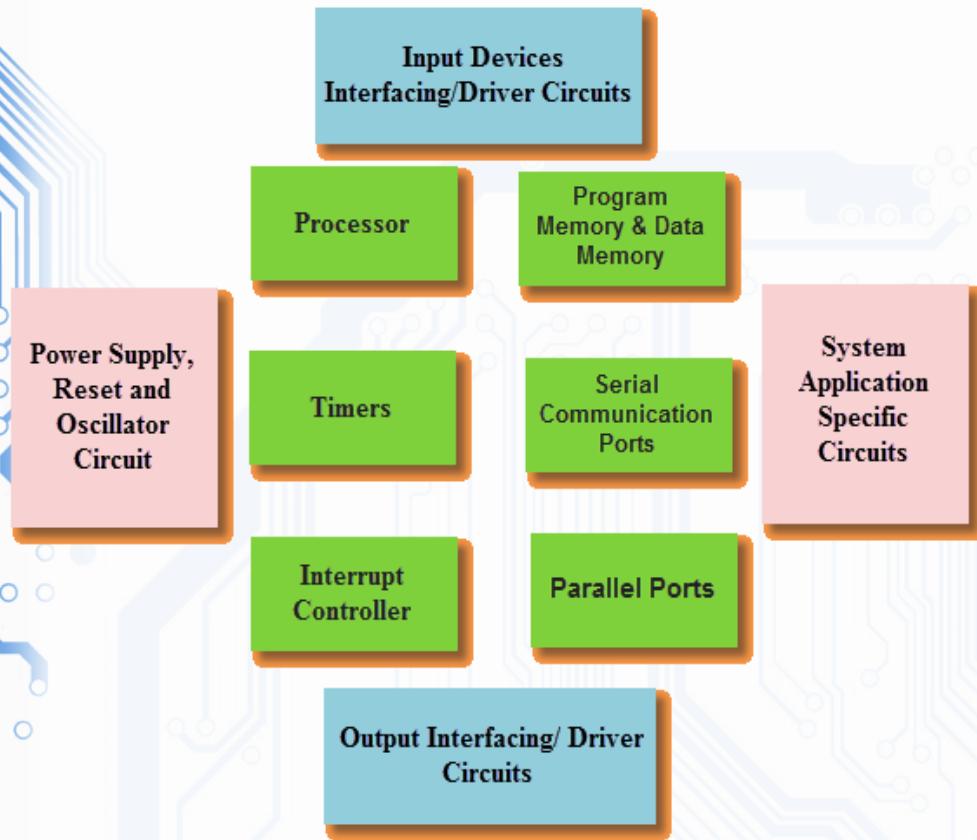
1st ed. 2018 Edition

by **Tianhong Pan , Yi Zhu**

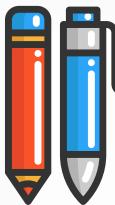




Review



Embedded system consists of computer hardware and software, and physical parts, designed to perform a specific task.

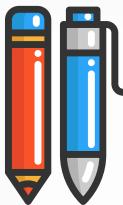


Internet of Things and Arduino

- Nowadays **Internet of Things (IoT)** :is a pervasive technology that is changing the way we live and how we interact with devices.
- In IoT project, all the physical objects (things) are connected together using internet infrastructure.**
- Arduino** board is one of the most important device that enables us to prototype projects. In this post, we will explore how to integrate **Android** with **Arduino** making the first step in **IoT**.

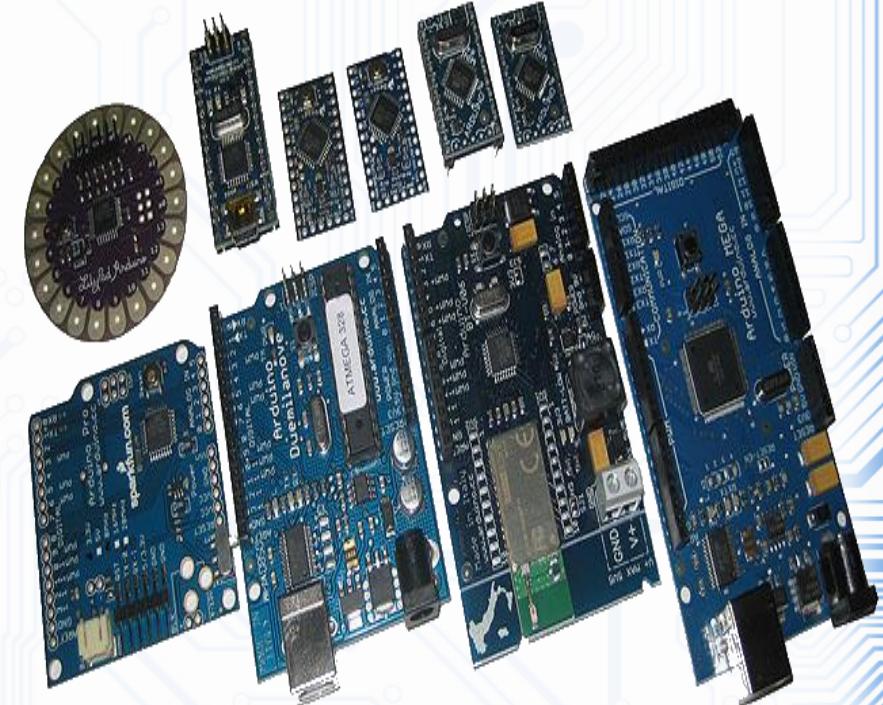
main objects involved in
the Arduino IoT project:





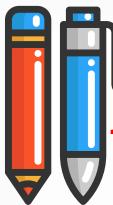
Arduino Types

- Many different versions
 - Number of input/output channels
 - Form factor
 - Processor
- Leonardo
- Due
- Micro
- LilyPad
- Esplora
- Uno



Arduino provides many alternative boards.

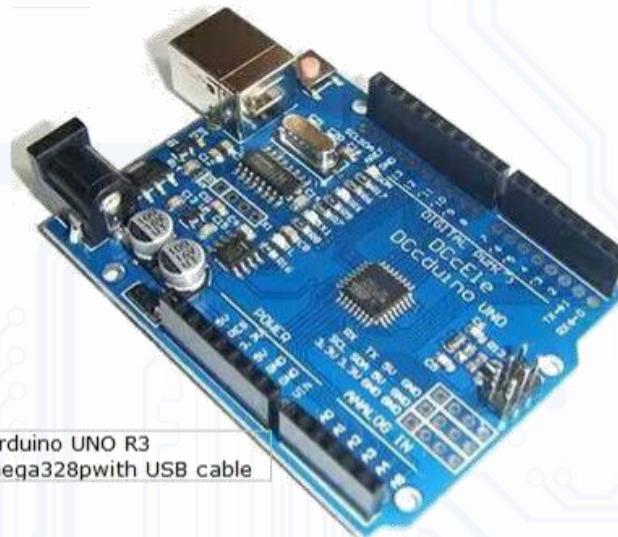
- These boards vary in the following aspects:
 - the microcontroller type,
 - The microcontroller speed (frequency)
 - the physical size
 - the number of input and output pins
 - the memory space for programs, and
 - the board price.



Arduino Types



Arduino Uno R3
atmega328pwith USB cable



Arduino Uno R3
mega328pwith USB cable



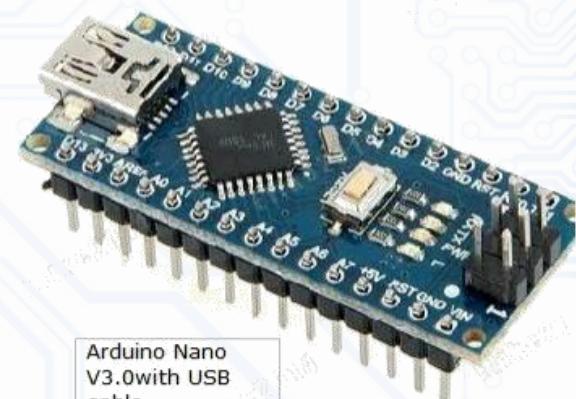
Arduino Pro Mini
atmega3285V/16M



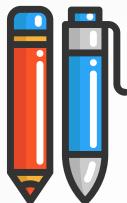
Arduino MEGA2560 R3
withUSB cable(With logo)



Arduino Leonardo
R3ATMEGA32U4
with USB cable



Arduino Nano
V3.0with USB
cable



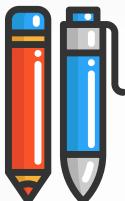
Arduino Types



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Arduino Types



Arduino RS232
(male pins)



Arduino
Diecimila



Arduino
Duemilanove
(rev 2009b)



Arduino Uno R2



Arduino Uno
SMD R3



Arduino Leonardo



Arduino
micro (AtMega
32U4)



Arduino pro micro
(AtMega32U4)



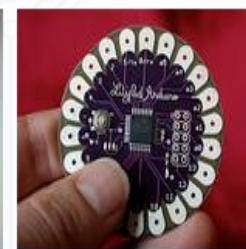
Arduino Pro
(No USB)



Arduino
Mega



Arduino
Nano
(DIP-30
footprint)



Arduino
LilyPad
00 (rev 2007)
(No USB)



Arduino Robot



Arduino Esplora



Arduino Ethernet
(AVR + W5100)



Arduino Yun
(AVR + AR9331)



Arduino Due
(ARM Cortex-M3 core)



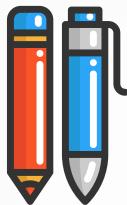
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8-Bit vs. 32-Bit War Continues which one we should select?

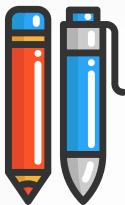
- **8-Bit vs. 32-Bit War Continues**

Unlike early video game consoles, picking a processor is not as simple as the bit number. In general, 8-bit processors offer basic capabilities while consuming lower power. The simpler architectures mean directly programming registers tend to be relatively easy.

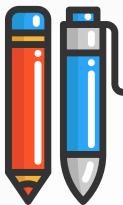
32-bit processors offer higher clock speeds along with more RAM, ROM, and serial peripherals. Their architectures could make programming more complicated. Fortunately, frameworks like the Arduino library and Circuit Python hide much of that complexity.

- Choosing a microprocessor just because it is 8-bit or 32-bit can be short-sighted. So it is essential to think about how you plan to use it.



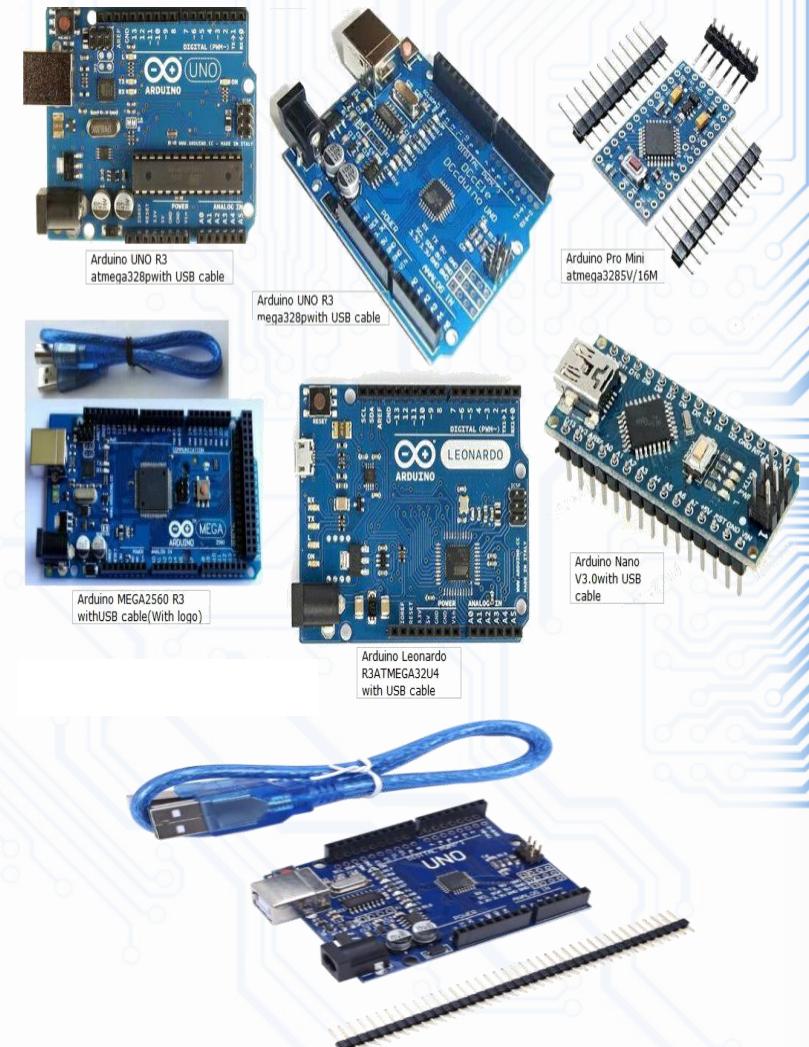


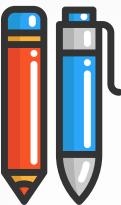
- Arduino board based on BIT(8 or 32)
 - **8-Bit: Uno, Nano, and Mega**
 - **USB with 32U4**



8-Bit: Uno, Nano, and Mega

- The [Uno](#) is the favored starting point for Arduino projects. It has a distinctive shape with a pseudo-standard header pinout.
- Its CPU is Microchip's [ATmega328P](#).
- This processor's most overlooked specification is the 2,048 bytes of RAM.
- The Uno is a lousy choice if you are thinking about sending, receiving, or processing strings.
- Outside of strings, you would be surprised what you can do with so little, especially given the number of GPIO available.

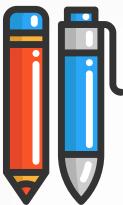




UNO

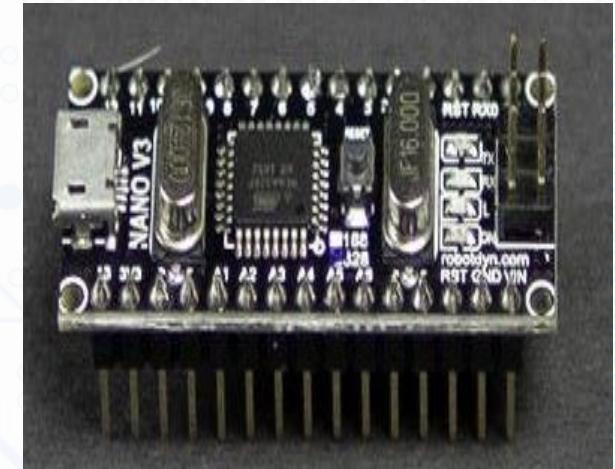
- The Uno is a great choice for your first Arduino. It's got everything you need to get started, and nothing you don't. It has 14 digital input/output pins (of which 6 can be used as PWM outputs), 6 analog inputs, a USB connection, a power jack, a reset button and more. It contains everything needed to support the microcontroller; simply connect it to a computer with a USB cable or power it with a AC-to-DC adapter or battery to get started.
- **The pins are in three groups:**
 - Invented in 2010
 - 14 digital pins
 - 6 analog pins
 - power

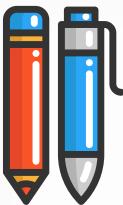




8-Bit: Uno, Nano, and Mega

- **Nano**
 - An Arduino Nano clone
 - If the Uno is too large, consider the Nano. It's the most copied, or cloned, Arduino variant.
 - It is the same processor as the Uno, but the board is a slimmed down form factor.
 - The direct software compatibility means you can prototype with an Uno and install a Nano in your final project.



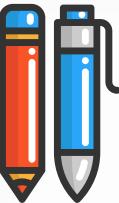


8-Bit: Uno, Nano, and Mega

Mega

- If the Uno (or Nano) do not offer enough I/O or RAM, boards based on the ATmega2560 are an option.
- The Mega-boards are exceptionally popular in motor control applications, like 3D printers.
- While their cores are common, compared to the ATmega328p, the ATmega2560 has more timers, a second ADC, additional hardware UARTs, and a ton more I/O pins.
- However, it is still an 8-bit processor like the Uno.



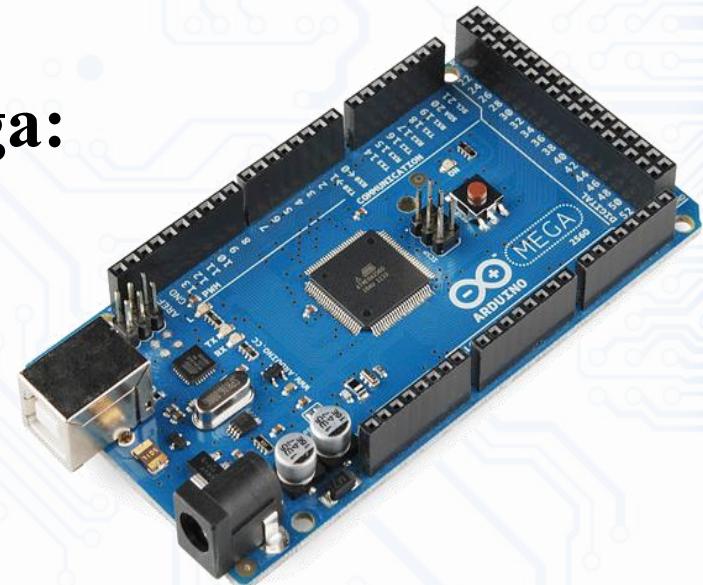


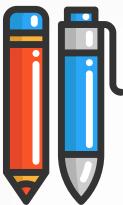
Mega

The Arduino Mega is like the UNO's big brother. It has lots (54!) of digital input/output pins (14 can be used as PWM outputs), 16 analog inputs, a USB connection, a power jack, and a reset button. It contains everything needed to support the microcontroller; simply connect it to a computer with a USB cable or power it with a AC-to-DC adapter or battery to get started. The large number of pins make this board very handy for projects that require a bunch of digital inputs or outputs (like lots of LEDs or buttons).

- **Compared to the Uno, the Mega:**

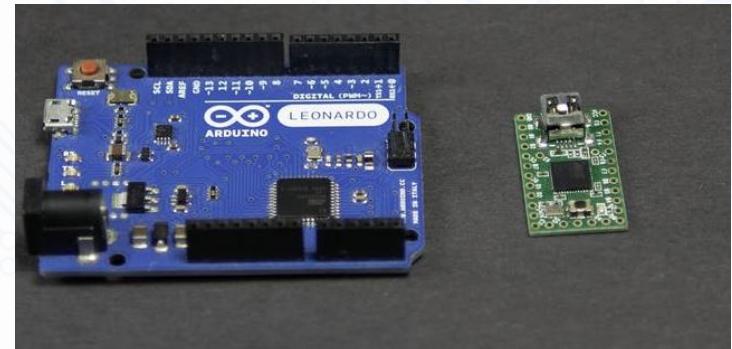
- Many more communication pins
- More memory
- Some interface hardware doesn't work

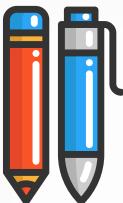




USB with 32U4

- Another variation of the Uno is the Leonardo or Micro. These boards use the ATmega32U4 chip. Unlike the other 8-bit boards mentioned here, the processor has a built-in USB interface.
- This feature makes it very simple to create USB keyboards, mice, and joysticks. A popular compatible board is the Teensy LC from PRJC.
- It is the same 32U4 but in a teensy-sized form factor.





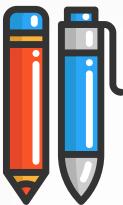
Leonardo

The Leonardo is Arduino's first development board to use one microcontroller with built-in USB. This means that it can be cheaper and simpler. Also, because the board is handling USB directly, code libraries are available which allow the board to emulate a computer keyboard, mouse, and more!

- **Compared to the Uno, a slight upgrade.**
- **Built in USB compatibility**
- **Bugs?**

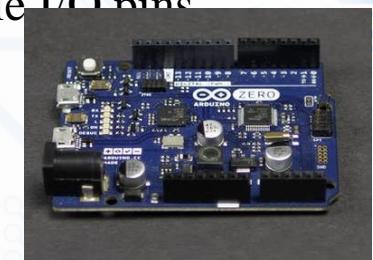
▶ Presents to PC as a mouse or keyboard





32-Bit

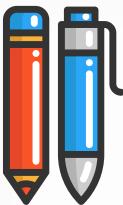
- **Arduino Zero**
- The Arduino Zero contains a 32-bit Microchip SAM D21, which is built around an Arm Cortex-M0+.
- The board shares the same pinout and form factor as the Uno, yet the processor is entirely different.
- In general, the 8-bit boards are based on a 5 volt rail while the 32-bit boards are based on a 3.3 volt rail. It is important to know that most 3.3 volt processors cannot tolerate 5 volt signals. So you may need to use level-shifters when interfacing between the two voltage levels.
- The most striking feature of the M0+ boards is the incredibly flexible serial interfaces. While the boards define I²C and SPI pins, the chip itself is highly configurable. It supports multiple types of serial interfaces on multiple I/O pins.
- Like its 8-bit cousin, the Zero comes in smaller form factors.



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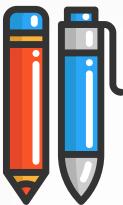


32-Bit_MKR Series

The **Arduino MKR series** includes boards such as the MKR ZERO, MKR GSM 1400, MKR FOX 1200, and the MKR WiFi 1010. The form factor of the boards in the MKR series is similar. Their I/O pins run down the sides, the form factor is slimmed down, and they all contain a LiPo battery connector with charger circuit. The **MKR Zero** includes the same processor as the Zero. In addition to the slimmer form factor and LiPo charger, the MKR Zero adds a MicroSD card slot

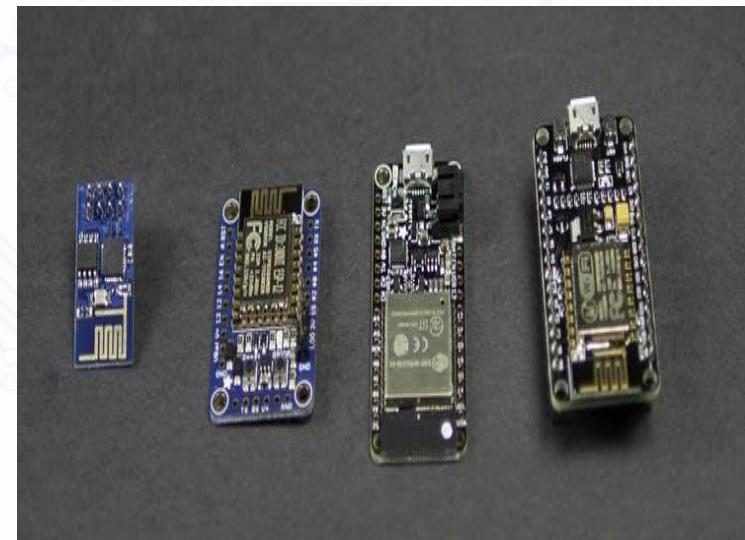
One other board to mention is the **MKR WiFi 1010**. This board is relatively new and contains a chip dedicated to crypto communication. The other exciting feature of the MKR1010 is its processor(s) choice. Onboard there is the same SAMD21 found on the Zero. However, the WiFi module from u-blox includes an ESP32. It is two processors in one. Lastly, there are shields designed for the MKR form factor. They add serial busses like RS-485 and CAN, among other features.

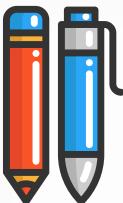




32-Bit_MKR Series

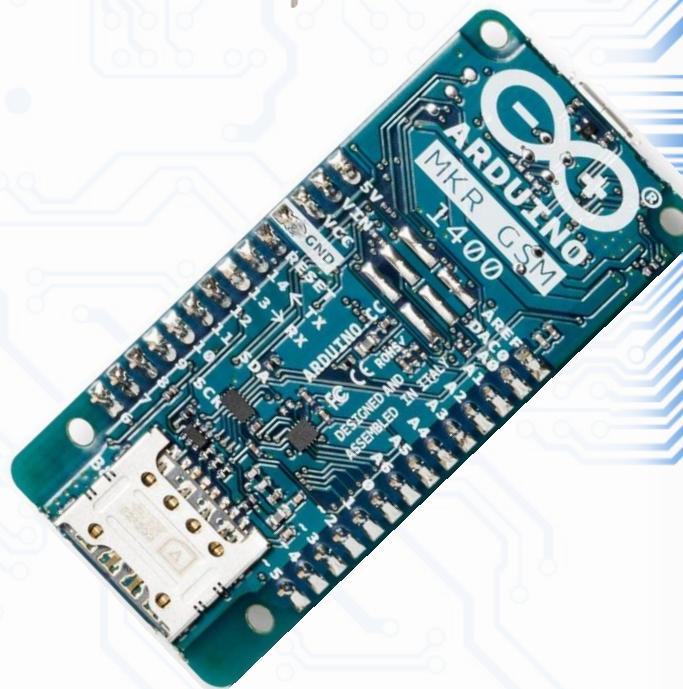
- **ESP8266 and ESP32** When the ESP8266 hit the market, it changed how projects incorporate WiFi. This system on a chip is a 32-bit microcontroller running at 80 MHz with a chip dedicated to WiFi operation. Which means, it runs the full TCP/IP stack separate from the microcontroller running your code.
- ESP modules contain a full microcontroller in their SoC package. The core Arduino library has been ported to the ESP12 and ESP32, meaning in some cases code for an Uno compiles for the ESP12 without any changes!
- The picture shows 4 different ESP options.
- A barebones ESP8266,
- Adafruit's Huzzah ESP8266, an Adafruit Feather ESP32, and a ESP8266 NodeMCU.
- The barebones board was popular because of cost, but it requires extra components to be useful. The Huzzah ESP8266 adds some of those parts and breaks out more of the I/O pins. However, it still requires a serial-to-USB adapter.

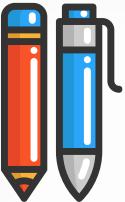




32-Bit_MKR Series

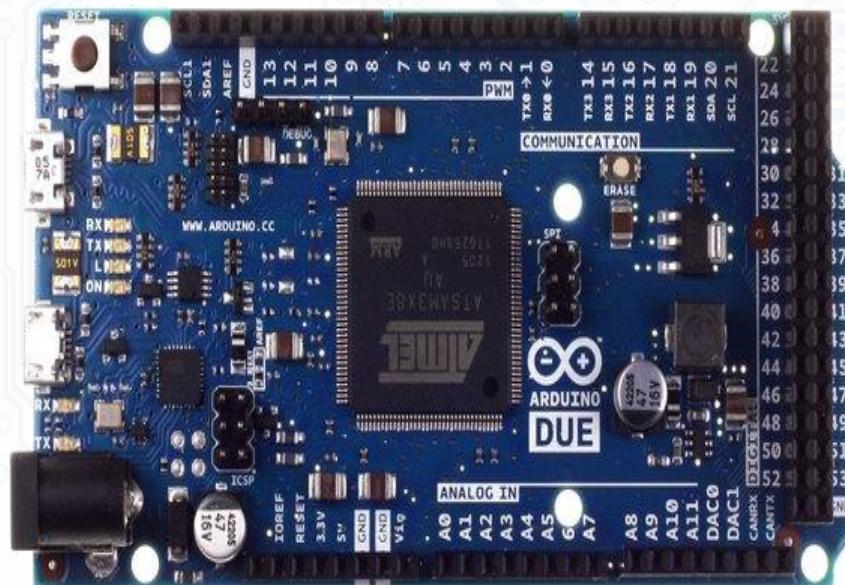
- Adafruit's Feather form factor adds serial-to-USB and a LiPo charger to the ESP8266 or ESP32. It makes working with the ESP very easy.
- You might notice the Feather looks like the MKR. Sadly, while they are visually similar, they are different sizes and do not have a common pinout.
- Lastly is the NodeMCU form factor which is not a form factor! NodeMCU is a firmware that runs a Lua script interpreter on the ESP8266.
- It can be replaced with an Arduino bootloader. Once replaced, you can program the board with the Arduino IDE.
- When you need to add WiFi to a project, ESP-based boards are an excellent starting point.

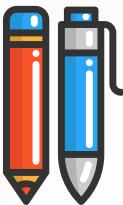




Due

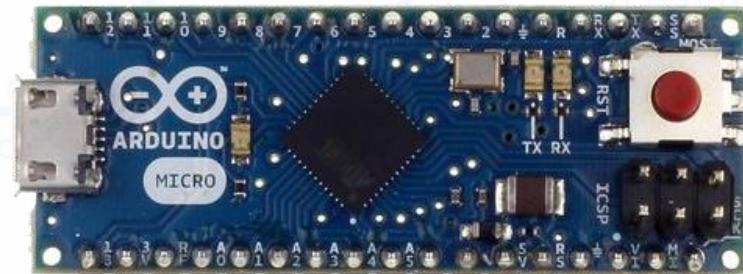
- Much faster processor, many more pins
- Operates on 3.3 volts
- Similar to the Mega

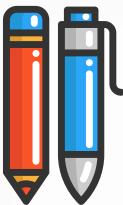




Micro

- When size matters: Micro, Nano, Mini
- Includes all functionality of the Leonardo
- Easily usable on a breadboard

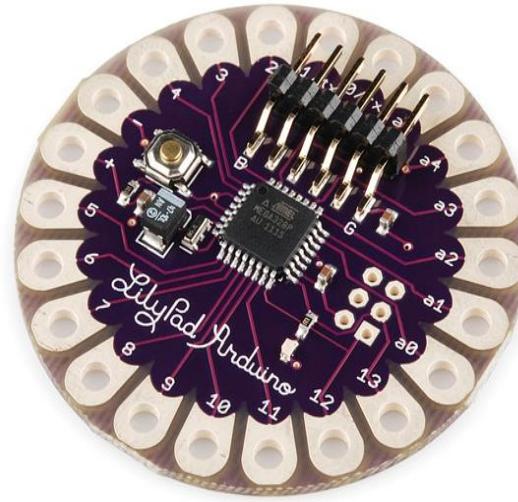




LilyPad

This is LilyPad Arduino main board! LilyPad is a wearable e-textile technology developed by Leah Buechley and cooperatively designed by Leah and SparkFun. Each LilyPad was creatively designed with large connecting pads and a flat back to allow them to be sewn into clothing with conductive thread. The LilyPad also has its own family of input, output, power, and sensor boards that are also built specifically for e-textiles. They're even washable!

- **LilyPad is popular for clothing-based projects.**



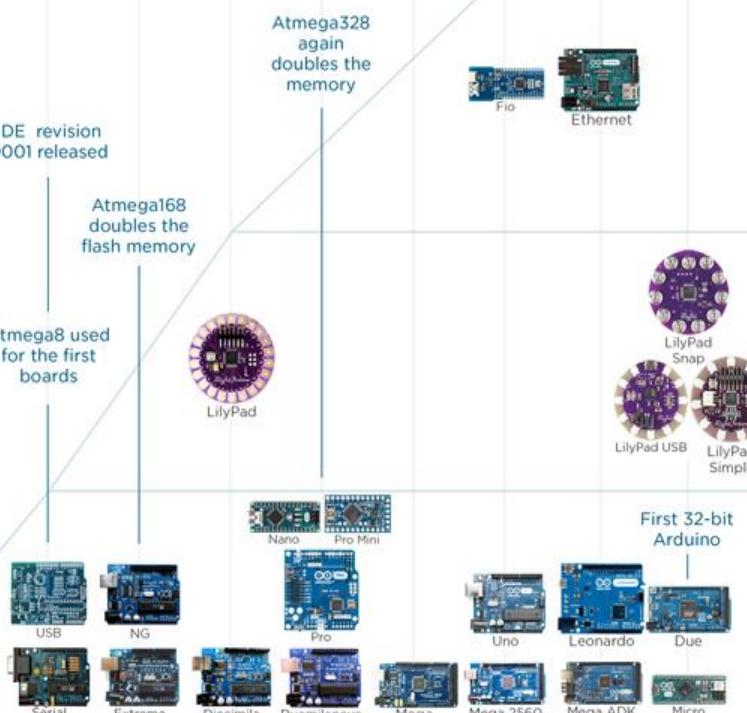
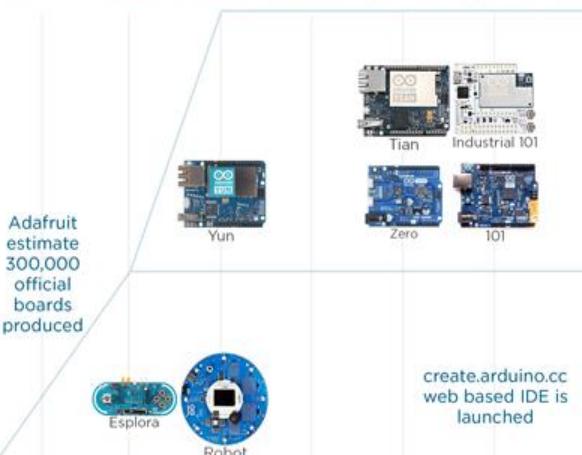
HISTORY OF ARDUINO

2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016 2017

Arduino was born out of the need for a low-cost microcontroller platform for Massimo Banzi's students at the **Interaction Design Institute Ivrea**.

It's named after a local pub:
Bar di Re Arduino.

The Arduino IDE (Integrated Development Environment) is built upon **Wiring** - a software project written by one of Banzi's students (**Hernando Barragán**). It provides easy-to-use libraries which hide some of the raw C++ going on behind the scenes.



ARDUINO TODAY

Industrial

- Yun/Yun Mini
- Zero
- M0/M0 Pro
- Tian
- 101/Industrial 101

Powerful, smart technology

Rapid prototyping

Easily integrated with other devices

Educational

- Esplora
- Robot

Classroom friendly

Modern, STEM learning

Hands-on and intuitive

IoT

- MKR1000
- MKRZero
- MKRFOX1200
- Uno Wi-Fi
- Ethernet
- Primo

Connectivity and communication

Low power consumption

Easy to prototype with

Wearables

- LilyPad
- LilyPad Simple
- LilyPad Snap
- LilyPad USB
- Primo Core

Thin, compact form factor

Battery powered

Easy to use with conductive material

Maker

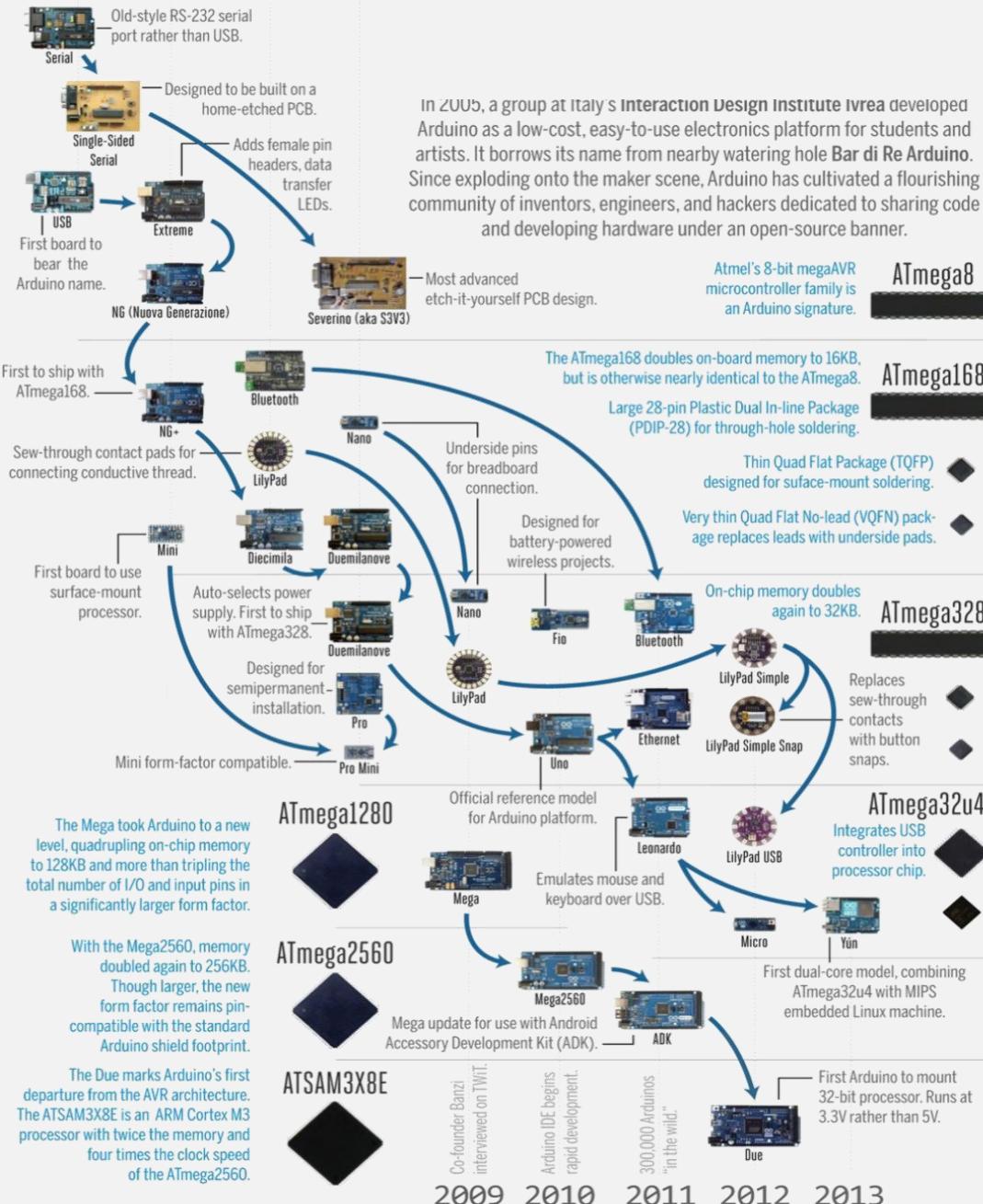
- Uno
- Leonardo
- Mini/Pro Mini
- Nano/Micro
- Mega2560/ADK
- Primo
- Due

Affordable

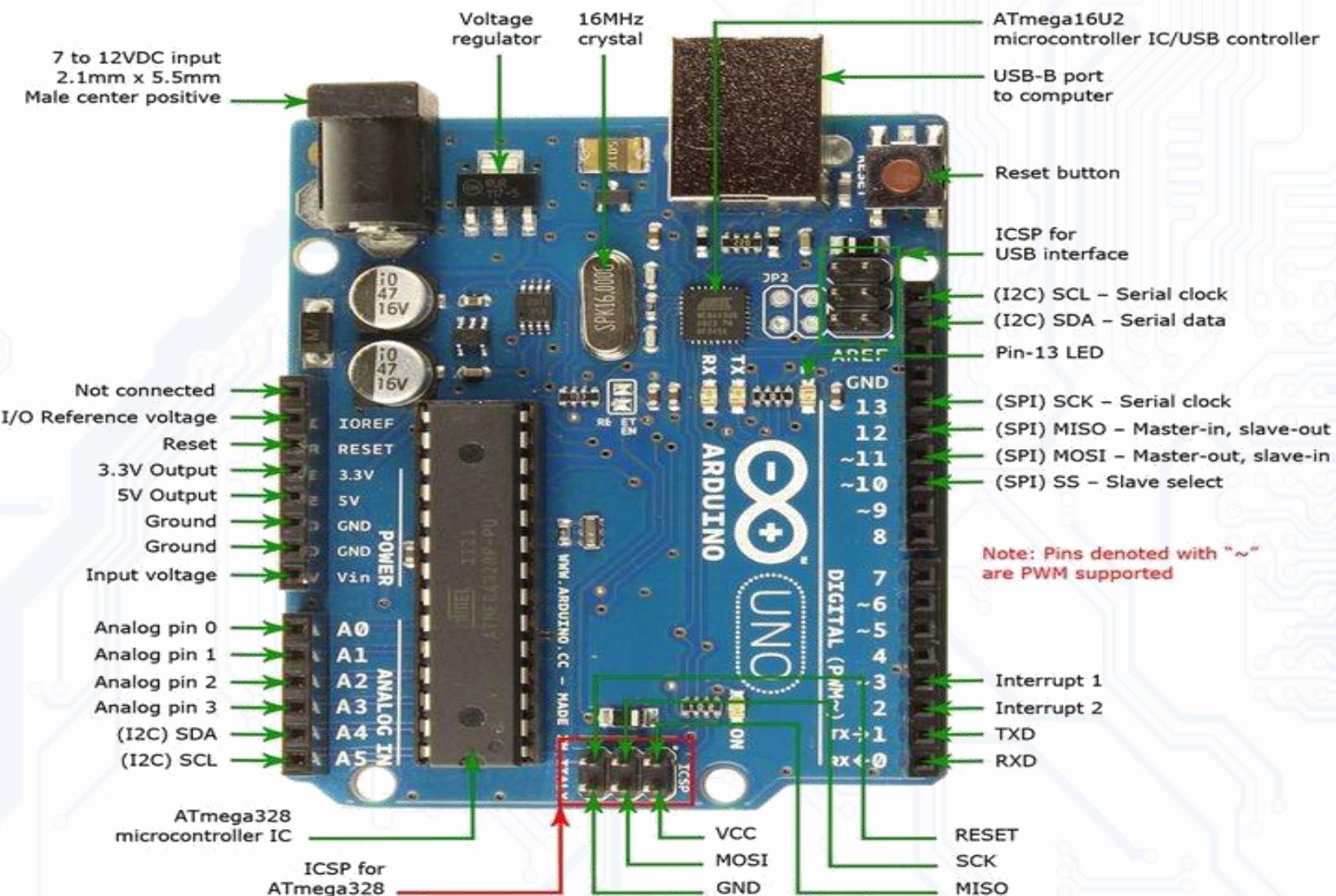
Community driven

Modular and adaptable

2005 2006 2007 2008



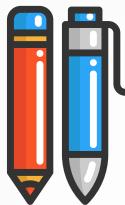
UNO



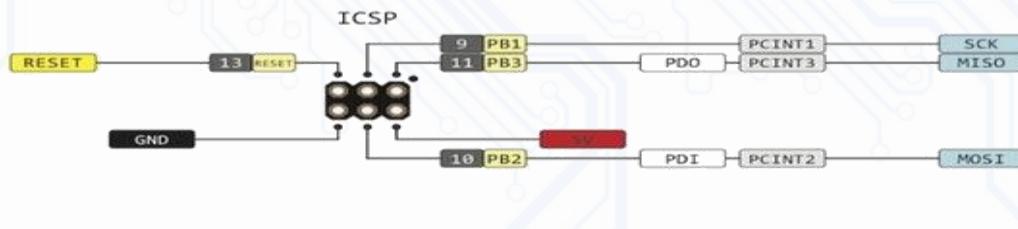
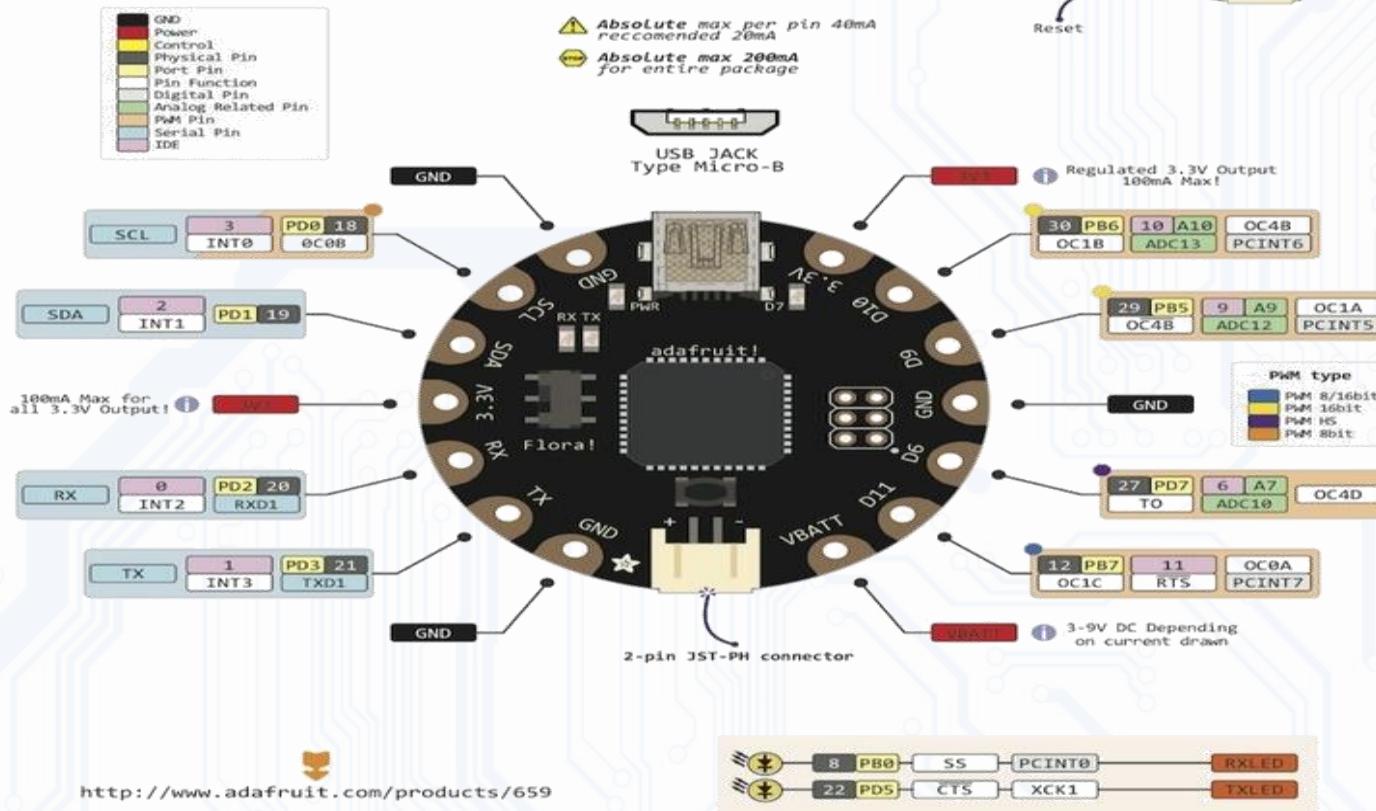
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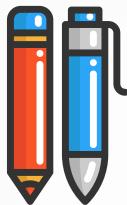


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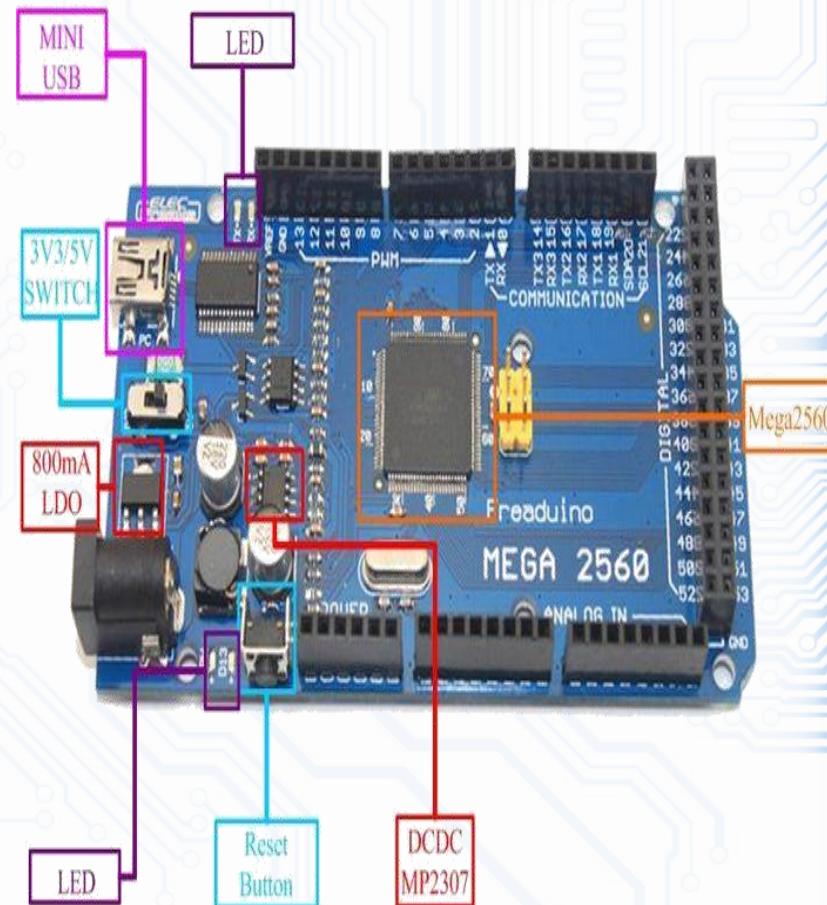
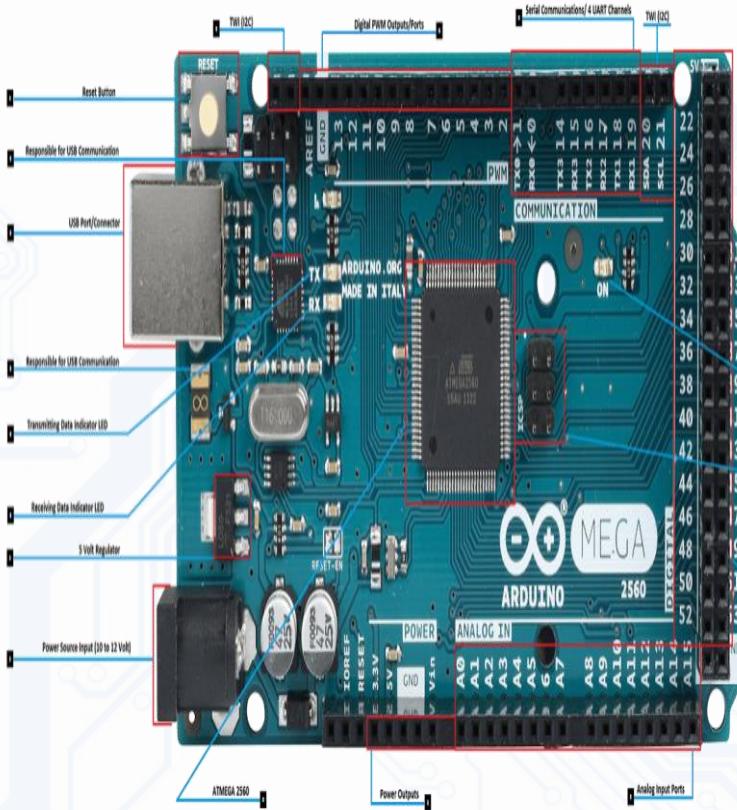


Arduino LilyPad





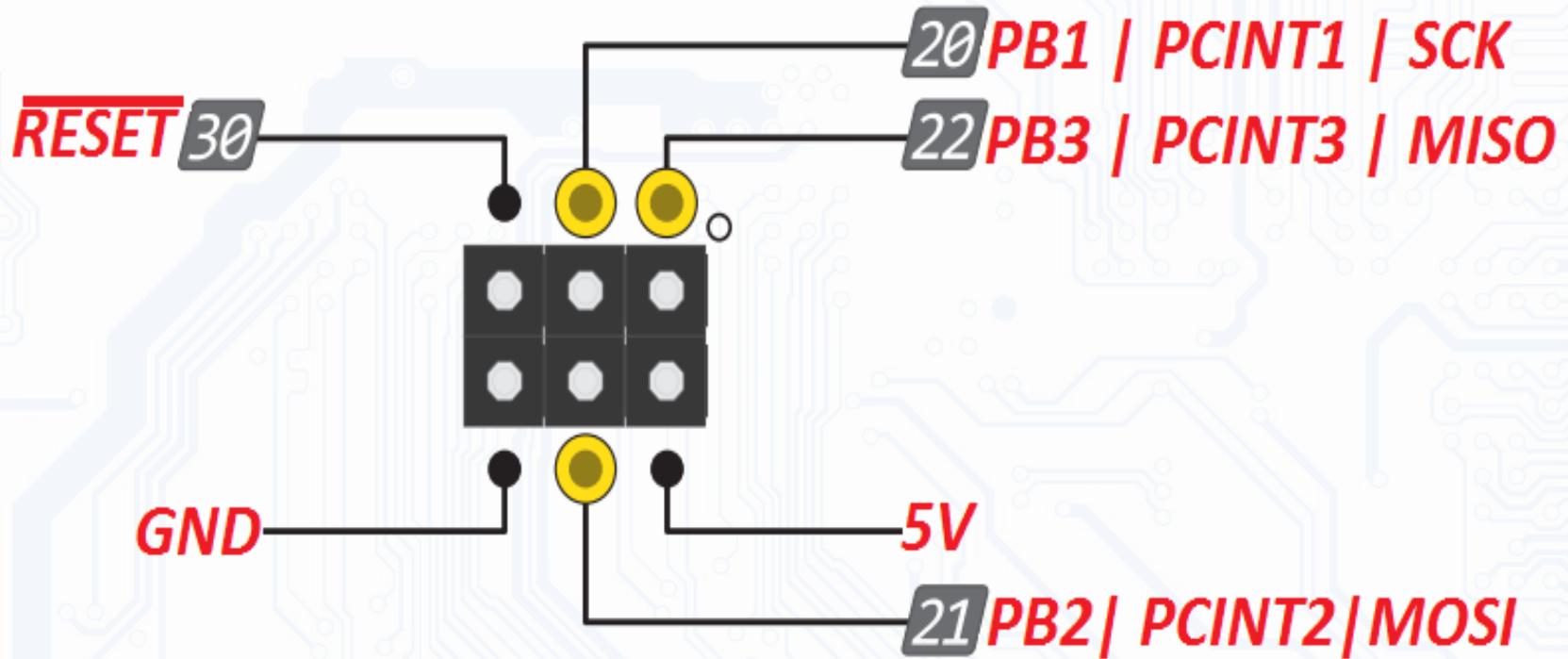
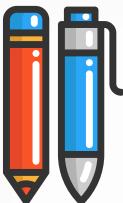
Arduino Mega Pinout



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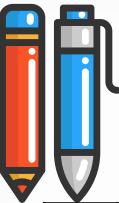


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In Circuit Serial Programming Pinout (ICSP)

www.CircuitsToday.com



Arduino Types

NO	Board name	PROCESSOR	Voltage	Crystal
1	Arduino Uno	ATmega328	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
2	Due	AT91SAM3X8E	3.3 V/7-12 V	84 MHz
3	Leonardo	ATmega32u4	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
4	Mega 2560	ATmega2560	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
5	Mega ADK	ATmega2560	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
6	Micro	ATmega32u4	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
7	Mini	ATmega328	5 V/7-9 V	16MHz
8	Nano	ATmega168 ATmega328	5 V/7-9 V	16MHz
9	Ethernet	ATmega328	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
10	Esplora	ATmega32u4	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
11	ArduinoBT	ATmega328	5 V/2.5-12 V	16MHz
12	Fio	ATmega328P	3.3 V/3.7-7 V	8MHz
13	Pro (168)	ATmega168	3.3 V/3.35-12 V	8MHz
14	Pro (328)	ATmega328	5 V/7-12 V	16MHz
15	Pro Mini	ATmega168	3.3 V/3.35-12 V 5 V/5-12 V	8MHz 16MHz
16	LilyPad	ATmega168V ATmega328V	2.7-5.5 V/2.7-5.5 V	8MHz
17	LilyPad USB	ATmega32u4	3.3 V/3.8-5V	8MHz
18	LilyPad Simple	ATmega328	2.7-5.5 V/2.7-5.5 V	8MHz
19	LilyPad SimpleSnap	ATmega328	2.7-5.5 V/2.7-5.5 V	8MHz
20	Yun	ATmega32u4	5 V	16MHz

Arduino Programming Cheat Sheet

Primary source: Arduino Language Reference
<http://arduino.cc/en/Reference/>

Structure & Flow

Basic Program Structure

```
void setup() {
  // runs once when sketch starts
}

void loop() {
  // runs repeatedly
}
```

Control Structures

```
if (x < 5) { ... } else { ... }
while (x < 5) { ... }
do { ... } while (x < 5);
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) { ... }
break; // exit a loop immediately
continue; // go to next iteration
switch (myVar) {
  case 1:
    ...
    break;
  case 2:
    ...
    break;
  default:
    ...
}
return x; // just return; for voids
```

Variables, Arrays, and Data

Data types

```
void
boolean (0, 1, true, false)
char (e.g. 'a' -128 to 127)
int (-32768 to 32767)
long (-2147483648 to 2147483647)
unsigned char (0 to 255)
byte (0 to 255)
unsigned int (0 to 65535)
word (0 to 65535)
unsigned long (0 to 4294967295)
float (-3.4028e+38 to 3.4028e+38)
double (currently same as float)
```

Qualifiers

```
static (persists between calls)
volatile (in RAM (nice for ISR))
const (make read only)
PROGMEM (in flash)
```

Arrays

```
int myInts[6]; // array of 6 ints
int myPins[]={2, 4, 8, 3, 6};
int mySensVals[6]={2, 4, -8, 3, 2};
myInts[0]=42; // assigning first
// index of myints
myInts[6]=12; // ERROR! Indexes
// are 0 though 5
char S1[8] =
{'A','r','d','u','i','n','o'};
// unterminated string; may crash
char S2[8] =
{'A','r','d','u','i','n','o','\0'};
// includes \0 null termination
char S3[]="Arduino";
char S4[8]="Arduino";
```

Operators

General Operators

```
= (assignment operator)
+ (add) - (subtract)
* (multiply) / (divide)
% (modulo)
== (equal to) != (not equal to)
< (less than) > (greater than)
<= (less than or equal to)
>= (greater than or equal to)
&& (and) || (or) ! (not)
```

Compound Operators

```
++ (increment)
-- (decrement)
+= (compound addition)
-= (compound subtraction)
*= (compound multiplication)
/= (compound division)
&= (compound bitwise and)
|= (compound bitwise or)
```

Bitwise Operators

```
& (bitwise and) | (bitwise or)
^ (bitwise xor) ~ (bitwise not)
<< (shift left) >> (shift right)
```

Constants

```
HIGH | LOW
INPUT | OUTPUT
true | false
143 (Decimal)
0173 (Octal - base 8)
0b11011111 (Binary)
0x7B (Hexadecimal - base 16)
7U (force unsigned)
10L (force long)
15UL (force long unsigned)
10.0 (force Floating point)
2.4e5 (2.4*105 = 240000)
```

Pointer Access

```
& (reference: get a pointer)
* (dereference: follow a pointer)
```

Strings

```
char S1[8] =
{'A','r','d','u','i','n','o'};
// unterminated string; may crash
char S2[8] =
{'A','r','d','u','i','n','o','\0'};
// includes \0 null termination
char S3[]="Arduino";
char S4[8]="Arduino";
```

Built-in Functions

Pin Input/Output

```
Digital I/O (pins: 0-13 A0-A5)
pinMode(pin, [INPUT, OUTPUT])
int digitalRead(pin)
digitalWrite(pin, value)
  // Write HIGH to an input to
  // enable pull-up resistors
Analog In (pins: 0-5)
int analogRead(pin)
analogReference(
  [DEFAULT, INTERNAL, EXTERNAL])
PWM Out (pins: 3 5 6 9 10 11)
analogWrite(pin, value)
```

Advanced I/O

```
tone(pin, freqhz)
tone(pin, freqhz, duration_ms)
noTone(pin)
shiftOut(dataPin, clockPin,
  [MSBFIRST, LSBFIRST], value)
unsigned long pulseIn(pin,
  [HIGH,LOW])
```

Time

```
unsigned long millis()
  // overflows at 50 days
unsigned long micros()
  // overflows at 70 minutes
delay(ms)
delayMicroseconds(usec)
```

Math

```
min(x, y) max(x, y) abs(x)
sin(rad) cos(rad) tan(rad)
sqrt(x) pow(base, exponent)
constrain(x, minval, maxval)
map(val, fromL, fromH, toL, toH)
```

Random Numbers

```
randomSeed(seed) // long or int
long random(max)
long random(min, max)
```

Bits and Bytes

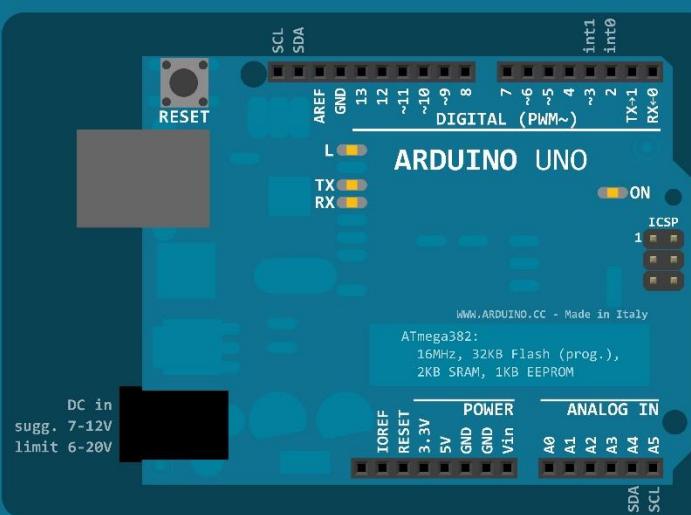
```
lowByte(x) highByte(x)
bitRead(x, bitn)
bitWrite(x, bitn, bit)
bitSet(x, bitn)
bitClear(x, bitn)
bit(bitn) // bitn: 0=LSB 7=MSB
```

Type Conversions

```
char() byte()
int() word()
long() float()
```

External Interrupts

```
attachInterrupt(interrupt, func,
  [LOW, CHANGE, RISING, FALLING])
detachInterrupt(interrupt)
interrupts()
noInterrupts()
```



Libraries

Serial

```
(communicate with PC or via RX/TX)
begin(long Speed) // up to 115200
end()
int available() // #bytes available
byte read() // -1 if none available
byte peek()
flush()
print(myData)
println(myData)
write(myBytes)
SerialEvent() // called if data ready
```

SoftwareSerial

```
(serial comm. on any pins)
(#include <SoftwareSerial.h>)
SoftwareSerial(rxPin, txPin)
begin(long Speed) // up to 115200
listen() // Only 1 can listen
isListening() // at a time.
read(), peek(), print(), println(), write
  // all like in Serial library
```

EEPROM

```
(#include <EEPROM.h>)
byte read(intAddr)
write(intAddr, myByte)
```

Servo

```
(#include <Servo.h>)
attach(pin, [min_us, max_us])
write(angle) // 0 to 180
writeMicroseconds(us)
  // 1000-2000; 1500 is midpoint
int read() // 0 to 180
bool attached()
detach()
```

Wire

```
(I2C comm.) (#include <Wire.h>)
begin() // join a master
begin(addr) // join slave @ addr
requestFrom(address, count)
beginTransmission(addr) // Step 1
send(myByte) // Step 2
send(char * myString)
send(byte * data, size)
endTransmission() // Step 3
int available() // #bytes available
byte receive() // get next byte
onReceive(handler)
onRequest(handler)
```



by Mark Liffiton

Adapted from:

- Original by Gavin Smith
- SVG version by Frederic Dufour
- Arduino board drawing original by Fritzing.org

ARDUINO CHEAT SHEET

Content for this Cheat Sheet provided by Gavin from Robots and Dinosaurs.
For more information visit: <http://arduino.cc/en/Reference/Extended>



Structure

```
void setup() void loop()
```

Control Structures

```
if (x<5) { } else {}  
switch (myvar) {  
    case 1:  
        break;  
    case 2:  
        break;  
    default:  
}  
  
for (int i=0; i <= 255; i++) {}  
while (x<5){}  
do {} while (x<5);  
continue; // Go to next in  
do/for/while loop  
return x; // Or 'return;' for voids.  
goto // considered harmful :-)
```

Further Syntax

```
// (single line comment)  
/* (multi-line comment) */  
#define DOZEN 12 //Not baker's!  
#include <avr/pgmspace.h>
```

General Operators

```
= (assignment operator)  
+ (addition) - (subtraction)  
* (multiplication) / (division)  
% (modulo)  
== (equal to) != (not equal to)  
< (less than) > (greater than)  
<= (less than or equal to)  
>= (greater than or equal to)  
&& (and) || (or) ! (not)
```

Pointer Access

```
& reference operator  
* dereference operator
```

Bitwise Operators

```
& (bitwise and) | (bitwise or)  
^ (bitwise xor) ~ (bitwise not)  
<< (bitshift left) >> (bitshift right)
```

Compound Operators

```
++ (increment) -- (decrement)  
+= (compound addition)  
-= (compound subtraction)  
*= (compound multiplication)  
/= (compound division)  
&= (compound bitwise and)  
!= (compound bitwise or)
```

Constants

```
HIGH | LOW  
INPUT | OUTPUT  
true | false  
143 // Decimal number  
0173 // Octal number  
0b11011111 //Binary  
0x7B // Hex number  
7U // Force unsigned  
10L // Force long  
15UL // Force long unsigned  
10.0 // Forces floating point  
2.4e5 // 240000
```

Data Types

```
void  
boolean (0, 1, false, true)  
char (e.g. 'a' -128 to 127)  
unsigned char (0 to 255)  
byte (0 to 255)  
int (-32,768 to 32,767)  
unsigned int (0 to 65535)  
word (0 to 655word (0 to 65535)  
long (-2,147,483,648 to  
2,147,483,647)  
unsigned long (0 to 4,294,967,295)  
float (-3.4028235E+38 to  
3.4028235E+38)  
double (currently same as float)  
sizeof(myint) // returns 2 bytes
```

Strings

```
char S1[15];  
char S2[8] = {'a','r','d','u','i','n','o'};  
char S3[8] = {'a','r','d','u','i','n','o','\0'};  
//Included \0 null termination  
char S4[] = "arduino";  
char S5[8] = "arduino";  
char S6[15] = "arduino";
```

Arrays

```
int myInts[6];  
int myPins[] = {2, 4, 8, 3, 6};  
int mySensVals[6] = {2, 4, -8, 3, 2};
```

Conversion

```
char() byte()  
int() word()  
long() float()  
  
lowByte()  
highByte()  
bitRead(x,bitn)  
bitWrite(x,bitn,bit)  
bitSet(x,bitn)  
bitClear(x,bitn)  
bit(bitn) //bitn: 0-LSB 7-MSB
```

Qualifiers

```
static // persists between calls  
volatile // use RAM (nice for ISR)  
const // make read-only  
PROGMEM // use flash
```

Digital I/O

```
pinMode(pin, [INPUT,OUTPUT])  
digitalWrite(pin, value)  
int digitalRead(pin)  
//Write High to inputs to use pull-up res
```

Analog I/O

```
analogReference([DEFAULT,  
INTERNAL,EXTERNAL])  
int analogRead(pin) //Call twice if  
switching pins from high Z source.  
analogWrite(pin, value) // PWM
```

Advanced I/O

```
tone(pin, freqhz)  
tone(pin, freqhz ,duration_ms)  
noTone(pin)  
shiftOut(dataPin, clockPin,  
[MSBFIRST,LSBFIRST], value)  
unsigned long pulseIn(pin,[HIGH,LOW])
```

Time

```
unsigned long millis() // 50 days overflow.  
unsigned long micros() // 70 min overflow  
delay(ms)  
delayMicroseconds(us)
```

Math

```
min(x, y) max(x, y) abs(x)  
constrain(x, minval, maxval)  
map(val, fromL, fromH, toL, toH)  
pow(base, exponent) sqrt(x)  
sin(rad) cos(rad) tan(rad)
```

Random Numbers

```
randomSeed(seed) // Long or int  
long random(max)  
long random(min, max)
```

Bits and Bytes

```
lowByte()  
highByte()  
bitRead(x,bitn)  
bitWrite(x,bitn,bit)  
bitSet(x,bitn)  
bitClear(x,bitn)  
bit(bitn) //bitn: 0-LSB 7-MSB
```

External Interrupts

```
attachInterrupt(interrupt, function,  
[LOW,CHANGE,RISING,FALLING])  
detachInterrupt(interrupt)  
interrupts()  
noInterrupts()
```

Libraries:

Serial.

```
begin([300, 1200, 2400, 4800,  
9600,14400, 19200, 28800, 38400,  
57600,115200])  
end()  
int available()  
int read()  
flush()  
print()  
println()  
write()
```

```
EEPROM (#include <EEPROM.h>)  
byte read(intAddr)  
write(intAddr,myByte)
```

Servo (#include <Servo.h>)

```
attach(pin , [min_uS, max_uS])  
write(angle) // 0-180  
writeMicroseconds(uS) //1000-  
2000,1500 is midpoint  
read() // 0-180  
attached() //Returns boolean  
detach()
```

SoftwareSerial(RxPin,TxPin)

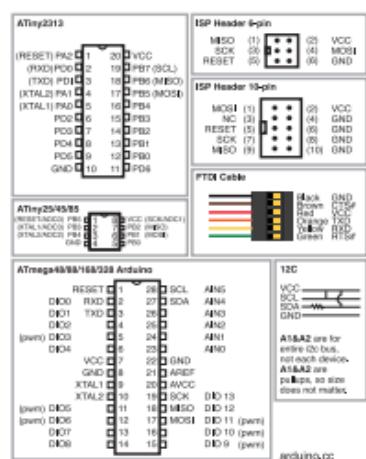
```
// #include<SoftwareSerial.h>  
begin(longSpeed) // up to 9600  
char read() // blocks till data  
print(myData) or println(myData)
```

Wire (#include <Wire.h>) // For I2C

```
begin() // Join as master  
begin(addr) // Join as slave @ addr  
requestFrom(address, count)  
beginTransmission(addr) // Step 1  
send(mybyte) // Step 2  
send(char * mystring)  
send(byte * data, size)  
endTransmission() // Step 3  
byte available() // Num of bytes  
byte receive() //Return next byte  
onReceive(handler)  
onRequest(handler)
```

	ATMega168	ATMega328	ATMega1280
Flash (2k for bootloader)	16kB	32kB	128kB
SRAM	1kB	2kB	8kB
EEPROM	512B	1kB	4kB

	Duemilanove/ Nano/ Pro/ ProMini	Mega
# of IO	14 + 6 analog (Nano has 14 + 8)	54 + 16 analog
Serial Pins	0 - RX 1 - TX	0 - RX1 1 - TX1 19 - RX2 18 - TX2 17 - RX3 16 - TX3 15 - RX4 14 - TX4
Ext Interrupts	2 - (Int 0) 1 - (Int 1)	2,21,20,19,18 (IRQ0 - IRQ5)
PWM Pins	5,6 - Timer 0 9,10 - Timer 1 3,11 - Timer 2	0 - 13
SPI	10 - SS 11 - MOSI 12 - MISO 13 - SCK	53 - SS 51 - MOSI 50 - MISO 52 - SCK
I2C	Analog4 - SDA Analog5 - SCK	20 - SDA 21 - SCL





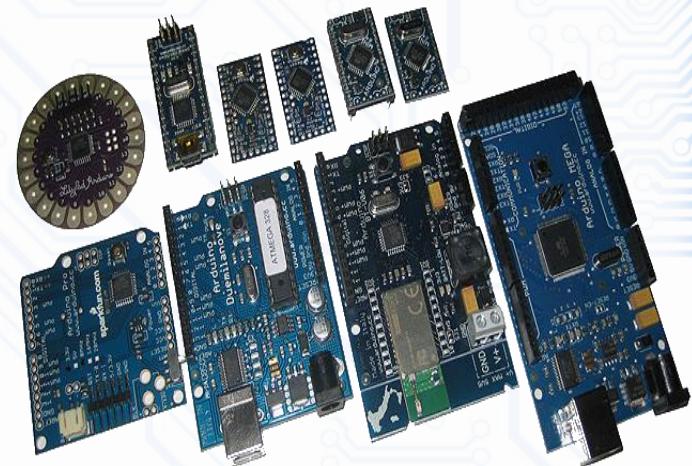
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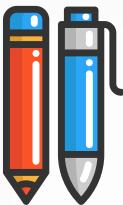
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Fast Review On C Language



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Arduino Code Basics

- Arduino programs run on two basic sections:

Setup

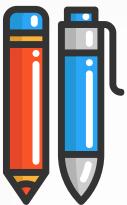
```
void setup() {  
    //setup motors, sensors etc  
}  
  
void loop() {  
    // get information from sensors  
    // send commands to motors  
}
```

```
void setup() {  
    pinMode(9, OUTPUT);  
}  
  
    port #  
    Input or Output
```

► SETUP

- The setup section is used for assigning input and outputs (Examples: motors, LED's, sensors etc) to ports on the Arduino
- It also specifies whether the device is **OUTPUT** or **INPUT**
- To do this we use the command “pinMode”





Arduino Code Basics

```
void setup() {  
    //setup motors, sensors etc  
}  
  
void loop() {  
    // get information from sensors  
    // send commands to motors  
}
```

LOOP

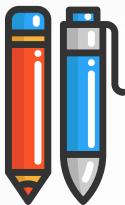
```
void loop() {
```

```
    digitalWrite(9, HIGH);  
    delay(1000);  
    digitalWrite(9, LOW);  
    delay(1000);
```

Port # from setup

Turn the LED on or off

Wait for 1 second or 1000 milliseconds



Variables in C

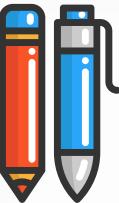
- An important aspect of the C language is how it stores data.
- Here we will discuss:
 - Data types
 - Declarations
 - Assignments
 - Data type ranges
 - Type conversions



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Variables in C

- The following table shows the meaning of the basic data types and type modifiers:

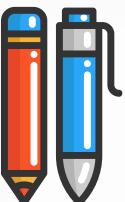
Type	Meaning	Modifier
Character	Character data	char
Integer	Signed whole numbers	int
Float	Floating point numbers	float
Double	Double precision floating point numbers	double
Signed	Positive and negative numbers	signed
Unsigned	Positive only numbers	unsigned
Long	Double the length of a number	long
Short	Halves the length of a number	short

C represents all negative numbers in the 2's complement format. For example to convert the signed number 29 into 2's complement:

00011101 = 29
11100010 invert all bits
1 add 1
11100011 = -29

2
0000 0010
1111 1101 +
1

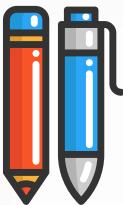
1111 1110
-2 == FE



Data types

Type	Bit width	Description	Range
bit	1	To define a bit of data	0 - 1
Char	8	Character or small integer.	signed: -128 to 127 unsigned: 0 to 255
Short Int	16	Used to define integer numbers	signed: -32768 to 32767 unsigned: 0 to 65535
Long int	32	Used to define integer numbers	signed: -2147483648 to 2147483647 unsigned: 0 to 4294967295
Float	32	Define floating point number	1.175e-38 to 3.40e+38
Double	32	Used to define largest integer numbers	1.175e-38 to 3.40e+38 Note: in other C ref 64 bit
bool	8	Boolean value.	true or false
* (pointer)	width of memory	Use for addressing memory	Range of memory

For more details refer to “C Language Compiler User Guide”



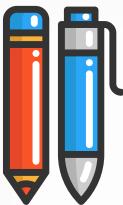
Variable Declaration

- Variables can be declared inside a function or outside of all functions.
- Variables are declared as following:
- Where type is one of C's valid data types and variable_name is the name of the variable.

`type variable_name;`

Ex: float price;

- Global variables are declared outside functions and are visible from the end of declaration to the end of the file.
- Local variables are declared inside a function and is visible only from the end of declaration to the end of the function.



Variable Assignment

- Assignment of values to variables is simple:

`variable_name = value ;`

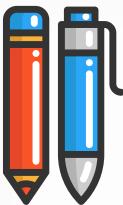
- Since a variable assignment is a statement, we have to include the semicolon at the end.

```
typedef signed char      smallint;

main()
{
    smallint i;
    /* any data */
}
```

`typedef old_name new_name`

- typedef: used to create a new name for an existing type.



Variable Assignment

- `typedef` are typically used for two reasons:
 - To create portable programs. (to make program works on Different µP data width bus)

```
typedef short int myint;           // int 8-bit for 8-bit processor
```

```
typedef int myint;                // int 16-bit for 16-bit processor
```

- help to document your code.

(If your code contains many variables used to hold a count of some sort)

```
typedef int counter;
```

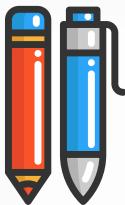
- Someone reading your code would recognize that any variable declared as `counter` is used as a counter in the program.



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Type conversions (casting/parsing)

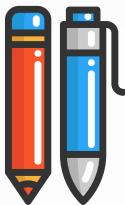
- To convert from long to int the programmer has to manually type cast the value

(type) value

- To do type casting, the value to cast has to be preceded by the target type enclosed in parentheses

```
int Val16bit;  
long Val32bit;  
Val16bit = (int) Val32bit;  
  
// short integer (16 bits)  
// long integer (32 bits)  
// type casting  
// the higher 16 bits are lost
```

- Information may be lost by type casting
- The range of a value should be checked before doing manual type casting



Variable Storage Class

- **auto**

- The auto specifier indicates that the memory location of a variable is **temporary**.
- auto is the default for function/block variables
 - auto int a is the same as int a because it is the **default**, it is almost never used

- **extern**

- Declares a variable that is defined somewhere else.
- Useful when splitting software in multiple files.

- In *declare.c*:

```
int farvar;
```

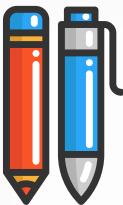
- In *use.c*:

```
{  
    extern int farvar;  
    int a;  
    a = farvar * 2;  
}
```

```
{  char c;  
    int a, b, e;  
}
```

is the same as

```
{  autocharc;  
    autoint a, b, e;  
}
```

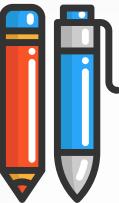


Variable Storage Class

- **static**
 - Variable stored in static memory.
 - **It retain their previous value on re-entry to a block of code. So it eat up your memory.**
 - In the example the variable count is initialized once and thereafter increment every time the function test is called.
- **register**
 - used to define local variables that should be stored in a register instead of RAM (variable should be stored in a processor register).
 - Register should only be used for variables that require quick access

The storage class is optional
– if not specified the compiler uses a default storage class.

```
void test()  
{  
    char x,y,z;  
    static int count = 0;  
    printf("count = %d\n",++count);  
}
```



Operators

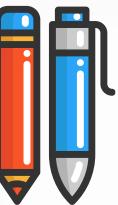
- An operator is a symbol that tells the compiler to perform specific mathematical or logical functions. C language is rich in built-in operators and provides the following types of operators
 - Arithmetic Operators
 - Comparison Operators
 - Boolean Operators
 - Bitwise Operators
 - Compound Operators



Operators

Operator name	Operator simple	Description	Example
assignment operator	=	Stores the value to the right of the equal sign in the variable to the left of the equal sign.	A = B
addition	+	Adds two operands	A + B will give 30
subtraction	-	Subtracts second operand from the first	A - B will give -10
multiplication	*	Multiply both operands	A * B will give 200
division	/	Divide numerator by denominator	B / A will give 2
modulo	%	Modulus Operator and remainder of after an integer division	B % A will give 0

```
void loop () {  
    int a = 9,b = 4,c;  
    c = a + b;  
    c = a - b;  
    c = a * b;  
    c = a / b;  
    c = a % b; }
```



Operators

- **Arithmetic Operators:**

- Assume variable A holds 10 and variable B holds 20 then:

Operator	Description	Example
+	Adds two operands	A + B will give 30
-	Subtracts second operand from the first	A - B will give -10
*	Multiply both operands	A * B will give 200
/	Divide numerator by denominator	B / A will give 2
%	Modulus Operator and remainder of after an integer division	B % A will give 0
++	Increment operator, increases integer value by one	A++ will give 11
--	Decrement operator, decreases integer value by one	A-- will give 9



Arduino - Comparison Operators

Operator name	Operat or simple	Description	Example
equal to	<code>==</code>	Checks if the value of two operands is equal or not, if yes then condition becomes true.	(A == B) is not true
not equal to	<code>!=</code>	Checks if the value of two operands is equal or not, if values are not equal then condition becomes true.	(A != B) is true
less than	<code><</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	(A < B) is true
greater than	<code>></code>	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	(A > B) is not true
less than or equal to	<code><=</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	(A <= B) is true
greater than or equal to	<code>>=</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	(A >= B) is not true

```
void loop () {
    int a = 9,b = 4
    bool c = false;
    if(a == b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

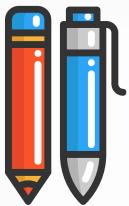
    if(a != b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

    if(a < b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

    if(a > b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

    if(a <= b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

    if(a >= b)
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;
}
```



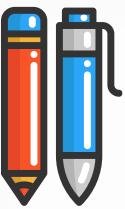
Arduino - Boolean Operators

Operator name	Operator simple	Description	Example
and	&&	Called Logical AND operator. If both the operands are non-zero then then condition becomes true.	(A && B) is true
or		Called Logical OR Operator. If any of the two operands is non-zero then then condition becomes true.	(A B) is true
not	!	Called Logical NOT Operator. Use to reverses the logical state of its operand. If a condition is true then Logical NOT operator will make false.	!(A && B) is false

```
void loop () {
    int a = 9, b = 4
    bool c = false;
    if((a > b)&& (b < a))
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

    if((a == b) || (b < a))
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;

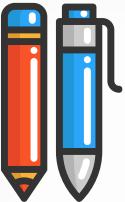
    if( !(a == b)&& (b < a))
        c = true;
    else
        c = false;
}
```



Operators

- **Logical (or Relational) Operators:**
 - Assume variable A holds 10 and variable B holds 20 then

Operator	Description	Example
<code>==</code>	Checks if the value of two operands is equal or not, if yes then condition becomes true.	$(A == B)$ is not true.
<code>!=</code>	Checks if the value of two operands is equal or not, if values are not equal then condition becomes true.	$(A != B)$ is true.
<code>></code>	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	$(A > B)$ is not true.
<code><</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is less than the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	$(A < B)$ is true.
<code>>=</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is greater than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	$(A >= B)$ is not true.
<code><=</code>	Checks if the value of left operand is less than or equal to the value of right operand, if yes then condition becomes true.	$(A <= B)$ is true.
<code>&&</code>	Called Logical AND operator. If both the operands are non zero then then condition becomes true.	$(A \&\& B)$ is true.
<code> </code>	Called Logical OR Operator. If any of the two operands is non zero then then condition becomes true.	$(A B)$ is true.
<code>!</code>	Called Logical NOT Operator. Use to reverses the logical state of its operand. If a condition is true then Logical NOT operator will make false.	$!(A \&\& B)$ is false.



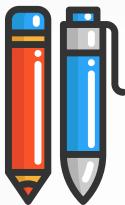
Operators

- **Bitwise Operators:**

- Bitwise Operators: Bitwise operator works on bits and perform bit by bit operation.
- Assume if $A = 60$; and $B = 13$; Now in binary format they will be as follows:

$$A = 0011\ 1100 \quad , \quad B = 0000\ 1101$$

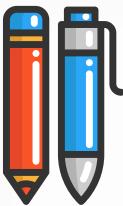
Operator	Description	Example
&	Binary AND Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands.	$(A \& B)$ will give 12 which is 0000 1100
	Binary OR Operator copies a bit if it exists in either operand.	$(A B)$ will give 61 which is 0011 1101
^	Binary XOR Operator copies the bit if it is set in one operand but not both.	$(A ^ B)$ will give 49 which is 0011 0001
~	Binary Ones Complement Operator is unary and has the effect of 'flipping' bits.	$(\sim A)$ will give -60 which is 1100 0011
<<	Binary Left Shift Operator. The left operand's value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	$A << 2$ will give 240 which is 1111 0000
>>	Binary Right Shift Operator. The left operand's value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	$A >> 2$ will give 15 which is 0000 1111



Arduino - Bitwise Operators

Operator name	Operator simple	Description	Example
and	&	Binary AND Operator copies a bit to the result if it exists in both operands.	(A & B) will give 12 which is 0000 1100
or		Binary OR Operator copies a bit if it exists in either operand	(A B) will give 61 which is 0011 1101
xor	^	Binary XOR Operator copies the bit if it is set in one operand but not both.	(A ^ B) will give 49 which is 0011 0001
not	~	Binary Ones Complement Operator is unary and has the effect of 'flipping' bits.	(~A) will give -60 which is 1100 0011
shift left	<<	Binary Left Shift Operator. The left operands value is moved left by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	A << 2 will give 240 which is 1111 0000
shift right	>>	Binary Right Shift Operator. The left operands value is moved right by the number of bits specified by the right operand.	A >> 2 will give 15 which is 0000 1111

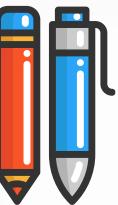
```
void loop () {  
    int a = 10, b = 20;  
    int c = 0;  
    c = a & b;  
    c = a | b;  
    c = a ^ b;  
    c = ~a;  
    c = a << b;  
    c = a >> b;  
}
```



Arduino - Compound Operators

Operator name	Operator simple	Description	Example
increment	<code>++</code>	Increment operator, increases integer value by one	<code>A++</code> will give 11
decrement	<code>--</code>	Decrement operator, decreases integer value by one	<code>A--</code> will give 9
compound addition	<code>+=</code>	Add AND assignment operator. It adds right operand to the left operand and assign the result to left operand	<code>B += A</code> is equivalent to <code>B = B + A</code>
compound subtraction	<code>-=</code>	Subtract AND assignment operator. It subtracts right operand from the left operand and assign the result to left operand	<code>B -= A</code> is equivalent to <code>B = B - A</code>
compound multiplication	<code>*=</code>	Multiply AND assignment operator. It multiplies right operand with the left operand and assign the result to left operand	<code>B *= A</code> is equivalent to <code>B = B * A</code>
compound division	<code>/=</code>	Divide AND assignment operator. It divides left operand with the right operand and assign the result to left operand	<code>B /= A</code> is equivalent to <code>B = B / A</code>
compound modulo	<code>%=</code>	Modulus AND assignment operator. It takes modulus using two operands and assign the result to left operand	<code>B %= A</code> is equivalent to <code>B = B % A</code>
compound bitwise or	<code> =</code>	bitwise inclusive OR and assignment operator	<code>A = 2</code> is same as <code>A = A 2</code>
compound bitwise and	<code>&=</code>	Bitwise AND assignment operator	<code>A &= 2</code> is same as <code>A = A & 2</code>

```
void loop () {  
    int a = 10, b = 20  
    int c = 0;  
  
    a++;  
    a--;  
    b += a;  
    b -= a;  
    b *= a;  
    b /= a;  
    a %= b;  
    a |= b;  
    a |= b;  
}
```



Operators

- Assignment Operators

Operator	Description	Example
=	Simple assignment operator, Assigns values from right side operands to left side operand	$C = A + B$ will assigne value of $A + B$ into C
+=	Add AND assignment operator, It adds right operand to the left operand and assign the result to left operand	$C += A$ is equivalent to $C = C + A$
-=	Subtract AND assignment operator, It subtracts right operand from the left operand and assign the result to left operand	$C -= A$ is equivalent to $C = C - A$
*=	Multiply AND assignment operator, It multiplies right operand with the left operand and assign the result to left operand	$C *= A$ is equivalent to $C = C * A$
/=	Divide AND assignment operator, It divides left operand with the right operand and assign the result to left operand	$C /= A$ is equivalent to $C = C / A$
%=	Modulus AND assignment operator, It takes modulus using two operands and assign the result to left operand	$C %= A$ is equivalent to $C = C \% A$
<=>	Left shift AND assignment operator	$C <<= 2$ is same as $C = C << 2$
>=>	Right shift AND assignment operator	$C >>= 2$ is same as $C = C >> 2$
&=	Bitwise AND assignment operator	$C &= 2$ is same as $C = C \& 2$
^=	bitwise exclusive OR and assignment operator	$C ^= 2$ is same as $C = C ^ 2$
=	bitwise inclusive OR and assignment operator	$C = 2$ is same as $C = C 2$



Variables

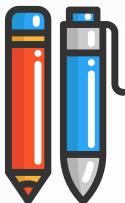
DECLARING A VARIABLE

- A variable is like “bucket”
- It holds numbers or other values temporarily



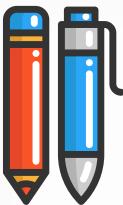
```
int val = 5;  
      ↑   ↑   ↑  
      Type variable name value  
           assignment  
           “becomes”
```

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USING VARIABLES

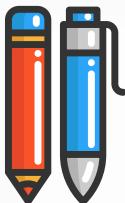
```
int delayTime = 2000;           ← Declare delay  
int greenLED = 9;              Time  
void setup() {                  Variable  
    pinMode(greenLED, OUTPUT);  
}  
  
void loop() {  
    digitalWrite(greenLED, HIGH);  
    delay(delayTime);           ← Use delay Time  
    digitalWrite(greenLED, LOW);  
    delay(delayTime);           Variable  
}
```



Using Variables

```
int delayTime = 2000;  
int greenLED = 9;  
  
void setup() {  
    pinMode(greenLED, OUTPUT);  
}  
void loop() {  
    digitalWrite(greenLED, HIGH);  
    delay(delayTime);  
    digitalWrite(greenLED, LOW);  
    delayTime = delayTime - 100;  
    delay(delayTime);  
}
```

subtract 100 from
delayTime to gradually
increase LED's blinking speed



VALUE COMPARISONS

GREATER THAN

$$a > b$$

LESS

$$a < b$$

EQUAL

$$a == b$$

GREATER THAN OR EQUAL

$$a \geq b$$

LESS THAN OR EQUAL

$$a \leq b$$

NOT EQUAL

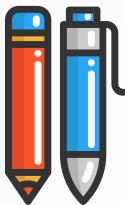
$$a \neq b$$



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Flow of Control, Conditional Constructs, Loops

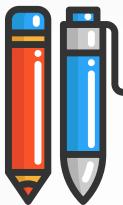
- This session will make you advance to control your code so control your world.
- The goal is to take you from the basic to learn more about Conditional Constructs and loops.



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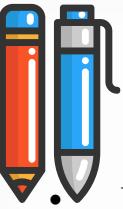
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C - Flow Control Statements

- Flow Control – Making the program behave in a particular manner depending on the input given to the program
- Why do we need flow control?
 - Not all program parts are executed all of the time(i.e. we want the program to intelligently choose what to do).
- Topics will discussed here are:
 - If
 - If-else
 - For
 - While
 - Do-while
 - Nesting loops
 - Switch



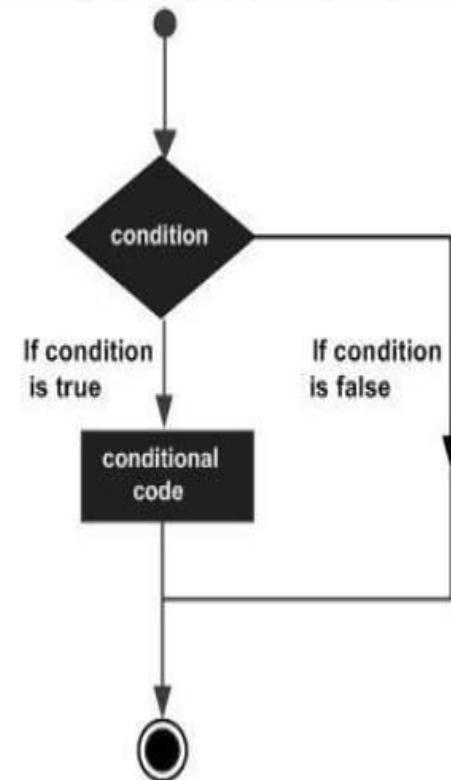


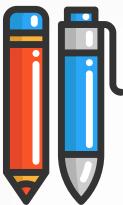
Arduino - Control Statements

Decision making structures require that the programmer specify one or more conditions to be evaluated or tested by the program. It should be along with a statement or statements to be executed if the condition is determined to be true, and optionally, other statements to be executed if the condition is determined to be false.

- Following is the general form of a typical decision making structure found in most of the programming languages

S.NO	Control Statement & Description
1	If statement It takes an expression in parenthesis and a statement or block of statements. If the expression is true then the statement or block of statements gets executed otherwise these statements are skipped.
2	If ...else statement An if statement can be followed by an optional else statement, which executes when the expression is false.
3	If...else if ...else statement The if statement can be followed by an optional else if...else statement, which is very useful to test various conditions using single if...else if statement.
4	switch case statement Similar to the if statements, switch...case controls the flow of programs by allowing the programmers to specify different codes that should be executed in various conditions.
5	Conditional Operator ? : The conditional operator ? : is the only ternary operator in C.



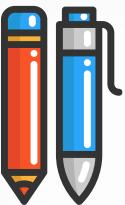


Conditions

- To make decisions in Arduino code we use an ‘if’ statement
- ‘If’ statements are based on a TRUE or FALSE question

```
if (true)
{
    "perform some action"
}
```



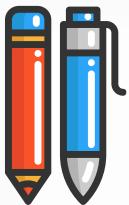


IF statement

- The if else statement decides on an action based on if being true
- The form of the statements is

```
- IF (condition1)
{
    Statements1;
}
Else if (condition2)
{
    Statements2;
}
Else
{
    Statements3;
}
```

```
if (PRT2DR & 0x01) {
    PRT1DR &= ~0x02;
    PRT1DR |= 0x04;
}
else {
    PRT1DR &= ~0x04;
    PRT1DR |= 0x02;
}
```



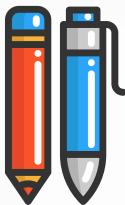
IF Example

```
int counter = 0;

void setup() {
    Serial.begin(9600);
}

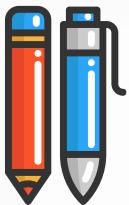
void loop() {

    if(counter < 10)
    {
        Serial.println(counter)
        ;
    }
    counter = counter + 1;
}
```



IF - ELSE Condition

```
if ( "answer is true")  
{  
    "perform some action"  
}  
else  
{  
    "perform some other action"  
}
```



IF - ELSE Example

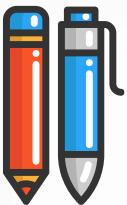
```
int counter = 0;
void setup() {
    Serial.begin(9600);
}
void loop() {
    if(counter < 10)
    {
        Serial.println("less than 10");
    }
    else
    {
        Serial.println("greater than or equal to 10");
        Serial.end();
    }
    counter = counter + 1;
}
```



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IF - ELSE IF Condition

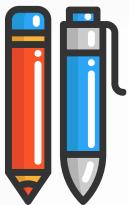
```
if( "answer is true")
{
    "perform some action"
}
else if( "answer is true")
{
    "perform some other action"
}
```



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IF - ELSE Example

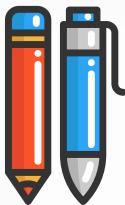
```
int counter = 0;
void setup() {
    Serial.begin(9600);
}
void loop() {
    if(counter < 10)
    {
        Serial.println("less than 10");
    }
    else if (counter == 10)
    {
        Serial.println("equal to 10");
    }
    else
    {
        Serial.println("greater than 10");
        Serial.end();
    }
    counter = counter + 1;
}
```



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BOOLEAN OPERATORS - AND

- If we want all of the conditions to be true we need to use ‘AND’ logic (AND gate)
- We use the symbols **&&**
 - Example

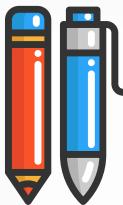
```
if ( val > 10 && val < 20)
```



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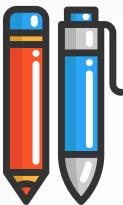


BOOLEAN OPERATORS - OR

- If we want either of the conditions to be true we need to use ‘OR’ logic (OR gate)
- We use the symbols ||
 - Example

```
if ( val < 10 || val > 20)
```

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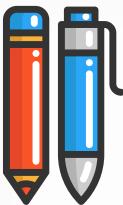


SWITCH statement

- The **switch case** statement Compares a single variable to several possible constants
- The form of the statements is
 - Switch (variable)

```
    {  
        Case value1:  
        Statements1;  
        Break;  
        Case value2:  
        Statements2;  
        Break;  
        Default:  
        Statements3;  
        Break;  
    }
```

```
switch (x) {  
    case 1:  
        PRT1DR |= 0x04;  
    break;  
    case 2:  
        PRT1DR |= 0x02;  
    break;  
}
```



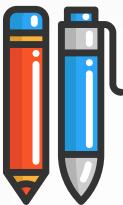
WHILE statement

- The **while** statement tests a certain condition and repeats a set of statements until the condition is false
- The for of the statement
 - While(condition)

```
{  
    statements;  
}
```

```
while (1) {  
    if (PRT2DR & 0x01) {  
        PRT1DR &= ~0x02;  
        PRT1DR |= 0x04;  
    }  
    else {  
        PRT1DR &= ~0x04;  
        PRT1DR |= 0x02;  
    }  
}
```



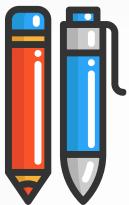


DO statement

- The **Do while** statement is same as **while**, except the test runs after execution of a statement, not before
- The form of the statement

– Do
{
statements
}
while(condition)

```
do {  
PRT1DR |= 0x04;  
} while (PRT2DR & 0x01);
```

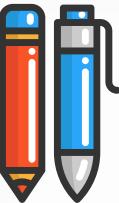


FOR statement

- The **For** statement Executes a limited loop.
- The form of the statement
 - For(initial value ; condition ; change)

```
{  
    Statements;  
}
```

```
for ( n=0; n < 100 ; n++ )  
{  
    // whatever here...  
}
```



Functions

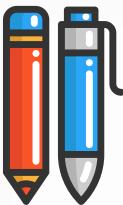
- Using functions we can structure our programs in a more modular way.
- A function is a group of statements that is executed when it is called from some point of the program. The following is its format:
 - type name (parameter1, parameter2, ...) { statements }

```
// function example
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

int addition (int a, int b)
{
    int r;
    r=a+b;
    return (r);
}

int main ()
{
    int z;
    z = addition (5,3);
    cout << "The result is " << z;
    return 0;
}
```

The result is 8



Functions

- Segmenting code into functions allows a programmer to create modular pieces of code that perform a defined task and then return to the area of code from which the function was "called". The typical case for creating a function is when one needs to perform the same action multiple times in a program.
- For programmers accustomed to using BASIC, functions in Arduino provide (and extend) the utility of using subroutines (GOSUB in BASIC).
- Standardizing code fragments into functions has several advantages:
 - Functions help the programmer stay organized. Often this helps to conceptualize the program.
 - Functions codify one action in one place so that the function only has to be thought out and debugged once.
 - This also reduces chances for errors in modification, if the code needs to be changed.
 - Functions make the whole sketch smaller and more compact because sections of code are reused many times.
 - They make it easier to reuse code in other programs by making it more modular, and as a nice side effect, using functions also often makes the code more readable.
 - There are two required functions in an Arduino sketch, `setup()` and `loop()`. Other functions must be created outside the brackets of those two functions. As an example, we will create a simple function to multiply two numbers.





Functions

Anatomy of a C function

Datatype of data returned,
any C datatype.

"void" if nothing is returned.

Parameters passed to
function, any C datatype.

```
Function name  
int myMultiplyFunction(int x, int y){  
    int result;  
    result = x * y;  
    return result;  
}
```

Return statement,
datatype matches
declaration.

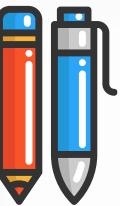
Curly braces required.



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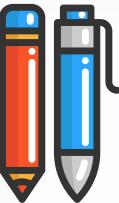
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Functions

- To "call" our simple multiply function, we pass it parameters of the datatype that it is expecting:

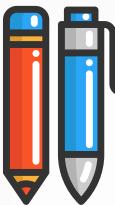
```
void loop()
{
    int i = 2;
    int j = 3;
    int k;
    k = myMultiplyFunction(i, j); // k now contains 6
}
```



Functions

- Our function needs to be *declared* outside any other function, so "myMultiplyFunction()" can go either above or below the "loop()" function.
- The entire sketch would then look like this:

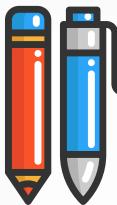
```
void setup(){
    Serial.begin(9600);
}
void loop() {
    int i = 2;
    int j = 3;
    int k;
    k = myMultiplyFunction(i, j); // k now contains 6
    Serial.println(k);
    delay(500);
}
int myMultiplyFunction(int x, int y){
    int result;
    result = x * y;
    return result;
}
```



Functions: Another example

- This function will read a sensor five times with `analogRead()` and calculate the average of five readings. It then scales the data to 8 bits (0-255), and inverts it, returning the inverted result.

```
int ReadSens_and_Condition(){  
    int i;  
    int sval = 0;  
  
    for (i = 0; i < 5; i++){  
        sval = sval + analogRead(0); // sensor on analog pin  
0  
    }  
  
    sval = sval / 5; // average  
    sval = sval / 4; // scale to 8 bits (0 - 255)  
    sval = 255 - sval; // invert output  
    return sval;  
}
```

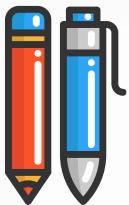


Functions: Another example

- To call our function we just assign it to a variable.

```
int sens;  
  
sens = ReadSens_and_Condition();
```

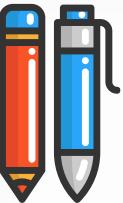
As you can see, even if a function does not have parameters and no returns is expected "(" and ")" brackets plus ";" must be given.



Arrays

Description

- An array is a collection of variables that are accessed with an index number.
- Arrays in the C++ programming language Arduino sketches are written in can be complicated, but using simple arrays is relatively straightforward.

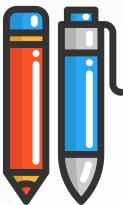


Arrays

Creating (Declaring) an Array

```
int myInts[6]; int myPins[] = {2, 4, 8, 3, 6};  
int mySensVals[6] = {2, 4, -8, 3, 2};  
char message[6] = "hello";
```

- You can declare an array without initializing it as in myInts.
- In myPins we declare an array without explicitly choosing a size.
- The compiler counts the elements and creates an array of the appropriate size.
- Finally you can both initialize and size your array, as in mySensVals.
- Note that when declaring an array of type char, one more element than your initialization is required, to hold the required null character.



Accessing an Array

- Arrays are zero indexed, that is, referring to the array initialization above, the first element of the array is at index 0, hence

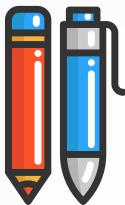
mySensVals[0] == 2, mySensVals[1] == 4, and so forth.

It also means that in an array with ten elements, index nine is the last element. Hence:

```
int myArray[10]={9, 3, 2, 4, 3, 2, 7, 8, 9, 11}; // myArray[9] contains 11
```

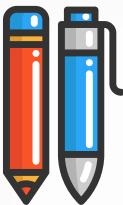
```
// myArray[10] is invalid and contains random information (other memory address)
```

For this reason you should be careful in accessing arrays. Accessing past the end of an array (using an index number greater than your declared array size - 1) is reading from memory that is in use for other purposes. Reading from these locations is probably not going to do much except yield invalid data.



Accessing an Array

- Writing to random memory locations is definitely a bad idea and can often lead to unhappy results such as crashes or program malfunction. This can also be a difficult bug to track down.
- Unlike BASIC or JAVA, the C++ compiler does no checking to see if array access is within legal bounds of the array size that you have declared.



Accessing an Array

To assign a value to an array:

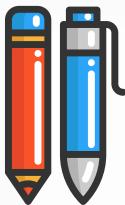
To retrieve a value from an array:

mySensVals[0] = 10;
x = mySensVals[4];

Arrays and FOR Loops:

- Arrays are often manipulated inside for loops, where the loop counter is used as the index for each array element.
- For example, to print the elements of an array over the serial port, you could do something like this:

```
for (byte i = 0; i < 5; i = i + 1) {  
    Serial.println(myPins[i]); }
```

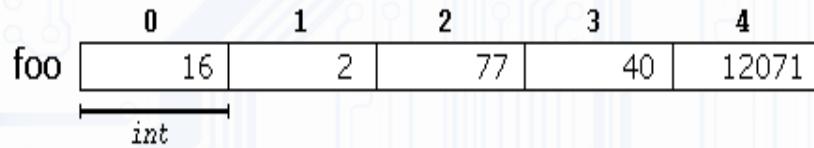


Arrays

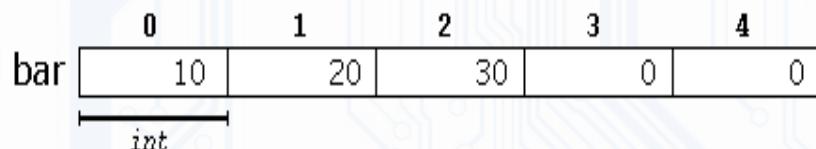
- An array is a series of elements of the same type placed in contiguous memory locations that can be individually referenced by adding an index to a unique identifier.



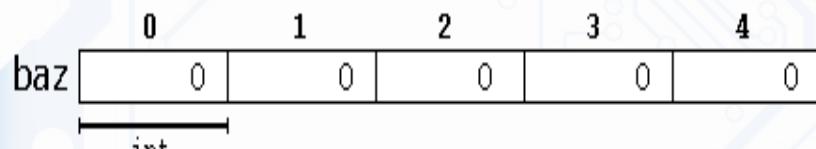
```
int foo [5] = { 16, 2, 77, 40, 12071 };
```

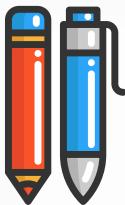


```
int bar [5] = { 10, 20, 30 };
```



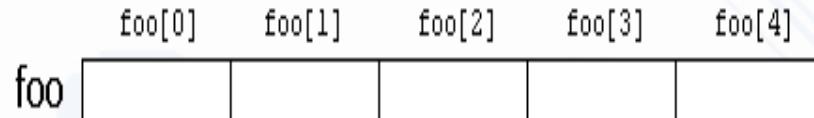
```
int baz [5] = {};
```





Arrays

- Accessing the values of an array



foo [2] = 75;

x = foo[2]

```
1 int foo[5]; // declaration of a new array  
2 foo[2] = 75; // access to an element of the array.
```

Some other valid operations with a

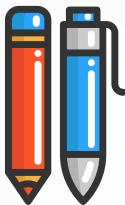
```
1 foo[0] = a;  
2 foo[a] = 75;  
3 b = foo [a+2];  
4 foo[foo[a]] = foo[2] + 5;
```

For example:

```
1 // arrays example  
2 #include <iostream>  
3 using namespace std;  
4  
5 int foo [] = {16, 2, 77, 40, 12071};  
6 int n, result=0;  
7  
8 int main ()  
9 {  
10    for ( n=0 ; n<5 ; ++n )  
11    {  
12        result += foo[n];  
13    }  
14    cout << result;  
15    return 0;  
16 }
```

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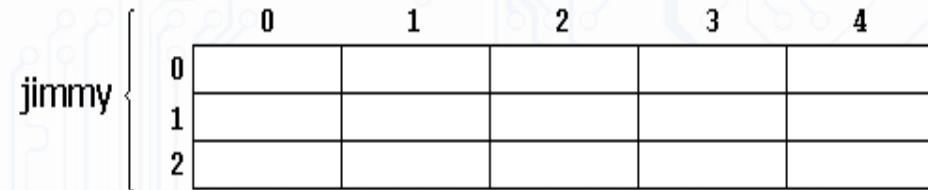




Multidimensional arrays

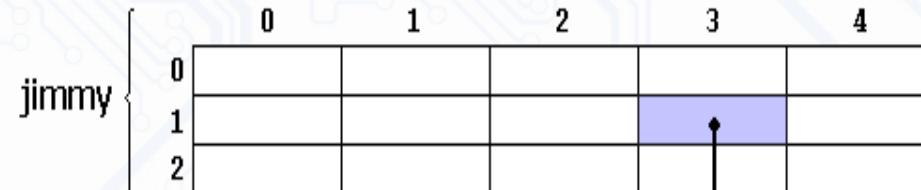
- Multidimensional arrays can be described as "arrays of arrays".
- Think of it as [row][col]
- Example:

```
int jimmy [3][5];
```



The way to reference the second element vertically and fourth horizontally in an expression would be:

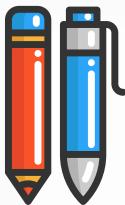
```
jimmy[1][3]
```



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Initializing Arrays

Can initialize an array just like a normal variable

Example:

- **String**

```
char szTemp[] = "Some string";
```

- **Values**

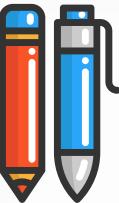
```
int nTemp[] = {5,15,20,25};
```

- **Letters**

```
char szTemp[] = {'A','B','C','D'};
```

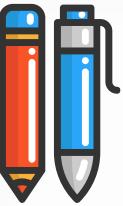
- **Double Dimensioned**

```
char szTemp[2][] = { {'A','B','C','D','E'},  
                      {'U','V','X','Y','Z'} };
```



Pointers

- Variables have been explained as locations in the memory which can be accessed by their identifier (their name).
 - This way, the program does not need to care about the physical address of the data in memory.
- The memory is like a succession of memory cells, each one byte in size, and each with a unique address.
 - These single-byte memory cells are ordered in a way that allows data representations larger than one byte to occupy memory cells that have consecutive addresses.
 - Each cell can be easily located in the memory by means of its unique address.
- When a variable is declared, the memory needed to store its value is assigned a specific location in memory (its memory address).
- Generally, C++ programs do not actively decide the exact memory addresses where its variables are stored.



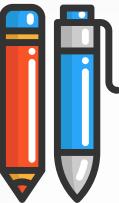
Pointers

- **Address-of operator (&)**

- The address of a variable can be obtained by preceding the name of a variable with an ampersand sign (&), known as *address-of operator*. For example:

```
foo = &myvar;
```

- This would assign the address of variable myvar to foo; by preceding the name of the variable myvar with the *address-of operator* (&), we are no longer assigning the content of the variable itself to foo, but its address.
- The actual address of a variable in memory cannot be known before runtime.



Pointers

- let's assume, in order to help clarify some concepts, that myvar is placed during runtime in the memory address 1776.

In this case, consider the following code fragment:

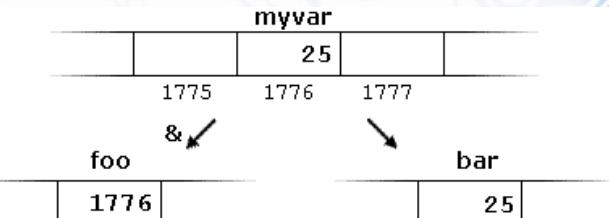
```
myvar = 25;  
foo = &myvar;  
bar = myvar;
```

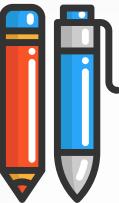
- The values contained in each variable after the execution of this are shown in the following diagram:

First, we have assigned the value 25 to myvar (a variable whose address in memory we assumed to be 1776).

The second statement assigns foo the address of myvar, which we have assumed to be 1776.

Finally, the third statement, assigns the value contained in myvar to bar.



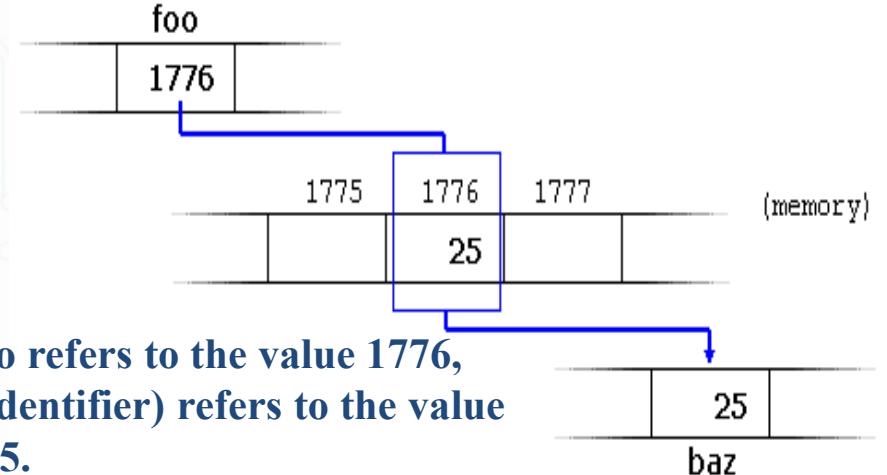


Pointers

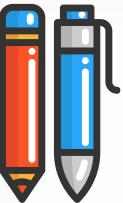
- Dereference operator (*)

- As just seen, a variable which stores the address of another variable is called a *pointer*. Pointers are said to "point to" the variable whose address they store.
- An interesting property of pointers is that they can be used to access the variable they point to directly. This is done by preceding the pointer name with the *dereference operator* (*).
- **The operator itself can be read as "value pointed to by".**
- **Therefore, following with the values of the previous example, the following statement:**
- **This could be read as: "baz equal to value pointed to by foo", and the statement would actually assign the value 25 to baz, since foo is 1776, and the value pointed to by 1776 (following the example above) would be 25.**

`baz = *foo;`



It is important to clearly differentiate that `foo` refers to the value `1776`, while `*foo` (with an asterisk * preceding the identifier) refers to the value stored at address `1776`, which in this case is `25`.

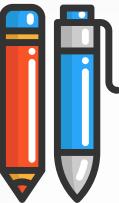


Pointers

- Notice the difference of including or not including the *dereference operator*

```
baz = foo; // baz equal to foo (1776)
baz = *foo; // baz equal to value pointed to by foo (25)
```

- The reference and dereference operators are thus complementary:
 - & is the *address-of operator*, and can be read simply as "address of"
 - * is the *dereference operator*, and can be read as "value pointed to by"



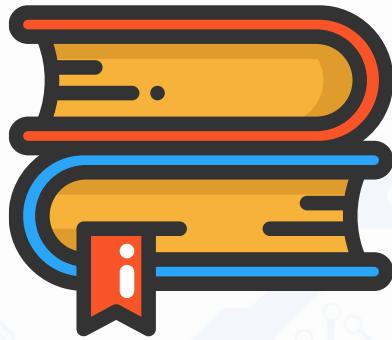
Pointers

- **Declaring pointers**

- Due to the ability of a pointer to directly refer to the value that it points to, a pointer has different properties when it points to a char than when it points to an int or a float.
- Once dereferenced, the type needs to be known. And for that, the declaration of a pointer needs to include the data type the pointer is going to point to.
- The declaration of pointers follows this syntax: **type * name;**

where type is the data type pointed to by the pointer. This type is not the type of the pointer itself, but the type of the data the pointer points to. For example:

```
int * number;  
char * character;  
double * decimals;
```



嵌入式系统

EMBEDDED SYSTEMS

LECTURE 08:

Introduction To Arduino I/O

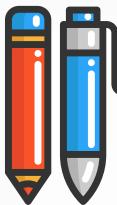
Arduino - I/O Functions



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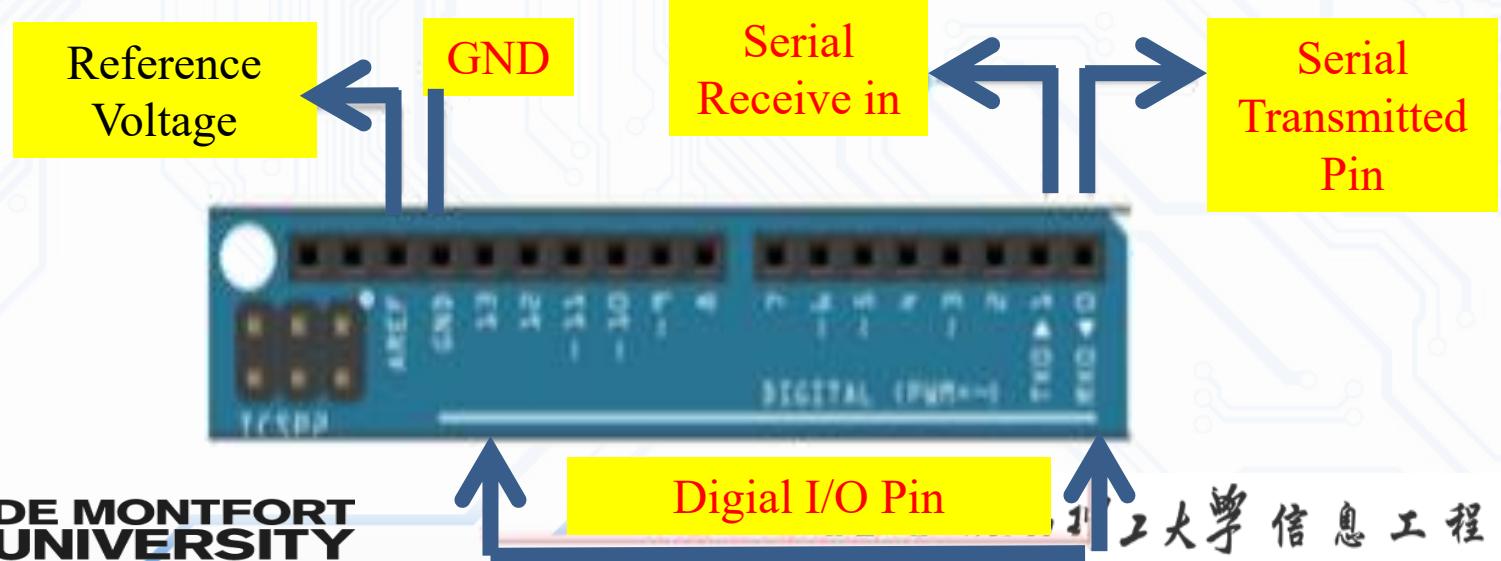


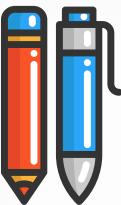
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Arduino - I/O Functions

- General-Purpose Input Output (GPIO) is a digital pin of an IC. It can be used as input or output for interfacing devices.
- If we want to read switch's state, sensor data, etc then we need to configure it as input. And if we want to control the LED brightness, motor rotation, show text on display, etc then we need to configure it as output.
- The pins on the Arduino board can be configured as either inputs or outputs.
- It is important to note that a majority of Arduino analog pins, may be configured, and used, in exactly the same manner as digital pins.

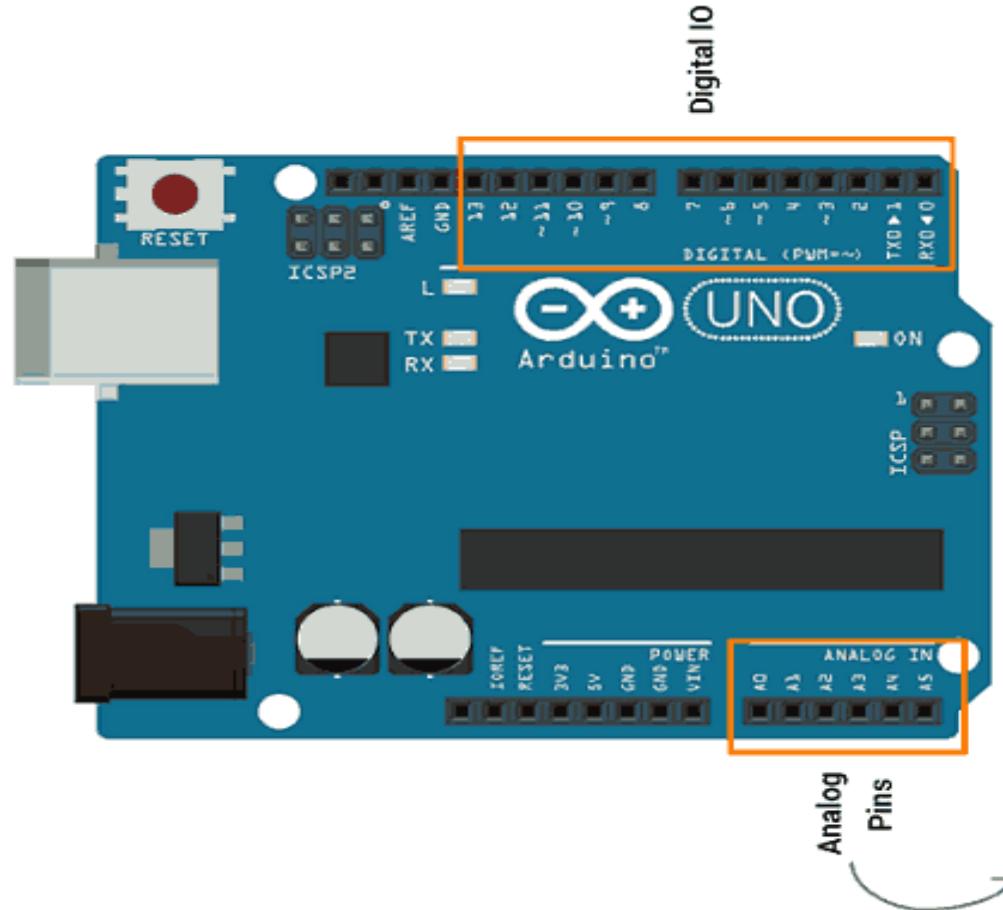




Pins Configured

Pin defines the Arduino pin number used.

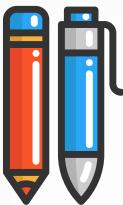
- There are three types of modes that can be assigned to pins of Arduino, which are:
 - OUTPUT
 - INPUT
 - INPUT_PULLUP



analog pins can also be used as Digital IO



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Pins Configured

pinMode(pin no, Mode)

This function is used to configure GPIO pin as input or output.

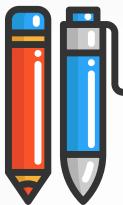
pin no number of pin whose mode we want to set.

- Mode INPUT, OUTPUT or INPUT_PULLUP

E.g. pinMode (3, OUTPUT) //set pin 3 as output

These Arduino (ATmega) pins can source or sink current up to 40 mA which is sufficient to drive led, LCD display but not sufficient for motors, relays, etc.

Note: While connecting devices to Arduino output pins use resistor. If any connected device to Arduino withdraw current more than 40 mA from the Arduino then it will damage the Arduino pin or IC.

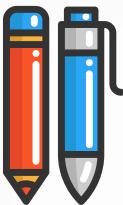


Pins Configured as INPUT

Pins configured as `pinMode(pin, INPUT)` with nothing connected to them, or with wires connected to them that are not connected to other circuits, report seemingly random changes in pin state, picking up electrical noise from the environment, or capacitively coupling the state of a nearby pin.

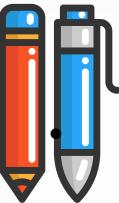
Example

```
pinMode(3,INPUT) ; // set pin to input without using built in pull up resistor
```



Pull-up Resistors

- Pull-up resistors are often useful to steer an input pin to a known state if no input is present. This can be done by adding a pull-up resistor (to +5V), or a pull-down resistor (resistor to ground) on the input. A 10K resistor is a good value for a pull-up or pull-down resistor.
- Using Built-in Pull-up Resistor with Pins Configured as Input. There are 20,000 pull-up resistors built into the Atmega chip that can be accessed from software. These built-in pull-up resistors are accessed by setting the `pinMode()` as `INPUT_PULLUP`.
- This effectively inverts the behavior of the INPUT mode, where HIGH means the sensor is OFF and LOW means the sensor is ON.



Pull-up Resistors

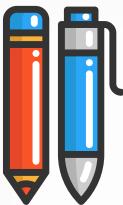
The value of this pull-up depends on the microcontroller used. On most AVR-based boards, the value is guaranteed to be between $20\text{k}\Omega$ and $50\text{k}\Omega$. On the Arduino Due, it is between $50\text{k}\Omega$ and $150\text{k}\Omega$. For the exact value, consult the datasheet of the microcontroller on your board.

- When connecting a sensor to a pin configured with INPUT_PULLUP, the other end should be connected to the ground. In case of a simple switch, this causes the pin to read HIGH when the switch is open and LOW when the switch is pressed. The pull-up resistors provide enough current to light an LED dimly connected to a pin configured as an input.
- If LEDs in a project seem to be working, but very dimly, this is likely what is going on.
- Same registers (internal chip memory locations) that control whether a pin is HIGH or LOW control the pull-up resistors.
- Consequently, a pin that is configured to have pull-up resistors turned on when the pin is in INPUTmode, will have the pin configured as HIGH if the pin is then switched to an OUTPUT mode with pinMode().
- This works in the other direction as well, and an output pin that is left in a HIGH state will have the pull-up resistor set if switched to an input with pinMode().

Example

```
pinMode(3,INPUT) ; // set pin to input without using built in pull up resistor  
pinMode(5,INPUT_PULLUP) ; // set pin to input using built in pull up resistor
```





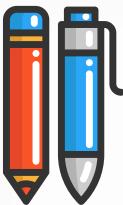
Pins Configured as OUTPUT

- Pins configured as OUTPUT with `pinMode()` are said to be in a low-impedance state.

`pinMode(3, OUTPUT) ; // set pin to OUTPUT`

This means that they can provide a substantial amount of current to other circuits.

- Atmega pins can source (provide positive current) or sink (provide negative current) up to 40 mA (milliamps) of current to other devices/circuits. This is enough current to brightly light up an LED (do not forget the series resistor), or run many sensors but not enough current to run relays, solenoids, or motors.
- Attempting to run high current devices from the output pins, can damage or destroy the output transistors in the pin, or damage the entire Atmega chip. Often, this results in a "dead" pin in the microcontroller but the remaining chips still function adequately.
- For this reason, it is a good idea to connect the OUTPUT pins to other devices through 470Ω or $1k$ resistors, unless maximum current drawn from the pins is required for a particular application.



digitalWrite() Function

digitalWrite Arduino Command is used to write the status of digital Pins, and can make them either HIGH or LOW. The Pin needs to be an OUTPUT Pin.

The **digitalWrite()** function is used to write a HIGH or a LOW value to a digital pin. If the pin has been configured as an OUTPUT with [pinMode\(\)](#), its voltage will be set to the corresponding value: 5V (or 3.3V on 3.3V boards) for HIGH, 0V (ground) for LOW. If the pin is configured as an INPUT, digitalWrite() will enable (HIGH) or disable (LOW) the internal pullup on the input pin.

It is recommended to set the [pinMode\(\)](#) to INPUT_PULLUP to enable the internal pull-up resistor.

If you do not set the pinMode() to OUTPUT, and connect an LED to a pin, when calling digitalWrite(HIGH), the LED may appear dim. Without explicitly setting pinMode(), digitalWrite() will have enabled the internal pull-up resistor, which acts like a large current-limiting resistor.

digitalWrite() Function Syntax

```
Void loop() {  
    digitalWrite (pin ,value);  
}
```

pin – the number of the pin whose mode you wish to set
value – HIGH, or LOW.

The “pin” defines the Arduino pin number used. It has to be an OUTPUT Pin. And “value” defines if the pin will be HIGH or LOW.

For example:

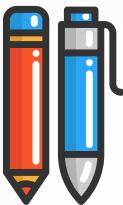
digitalWrite(8, HIGH);



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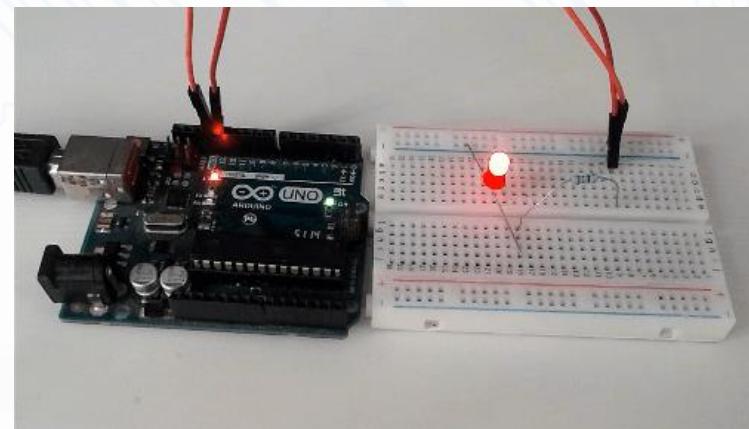


Example: Sketch for LED Blinking using Arduino

Let's write a program for led blinking using Arduino Uno. Here, we will blink on-board LED of Arduino Uno which is connected to digital pin 13.

```
// the setup function runs once when you press reset or power the board
void setup() {
    // initialize digital pin LED_BUILTIN as an output.
    pinMode(LED_BUILTIN, OUTPUT);
}

// the loop function runs over and over again forever
void loop() {
    digitalWrite(LED_BUILTIN, HIGH); // turn the LED on (HIGH is the voltage level)
    delay(1000);                  // wait for a second
    digitalWrite(LED_BUILTIN, LOW); // turn the LED off by making the voltage LOW
    delay(1000);                  // wait for a second
}
```



Thank You FOR LISTENING

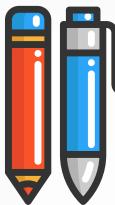


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Where you can find all my lectures

Embedded Systems Lecture 01 | Introduction to ES | Dr AJM | JXUST

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bcCCPqDKr9Y&list=PLqipy5sqhIACnJodz3zB8gUuOosku6yYP>

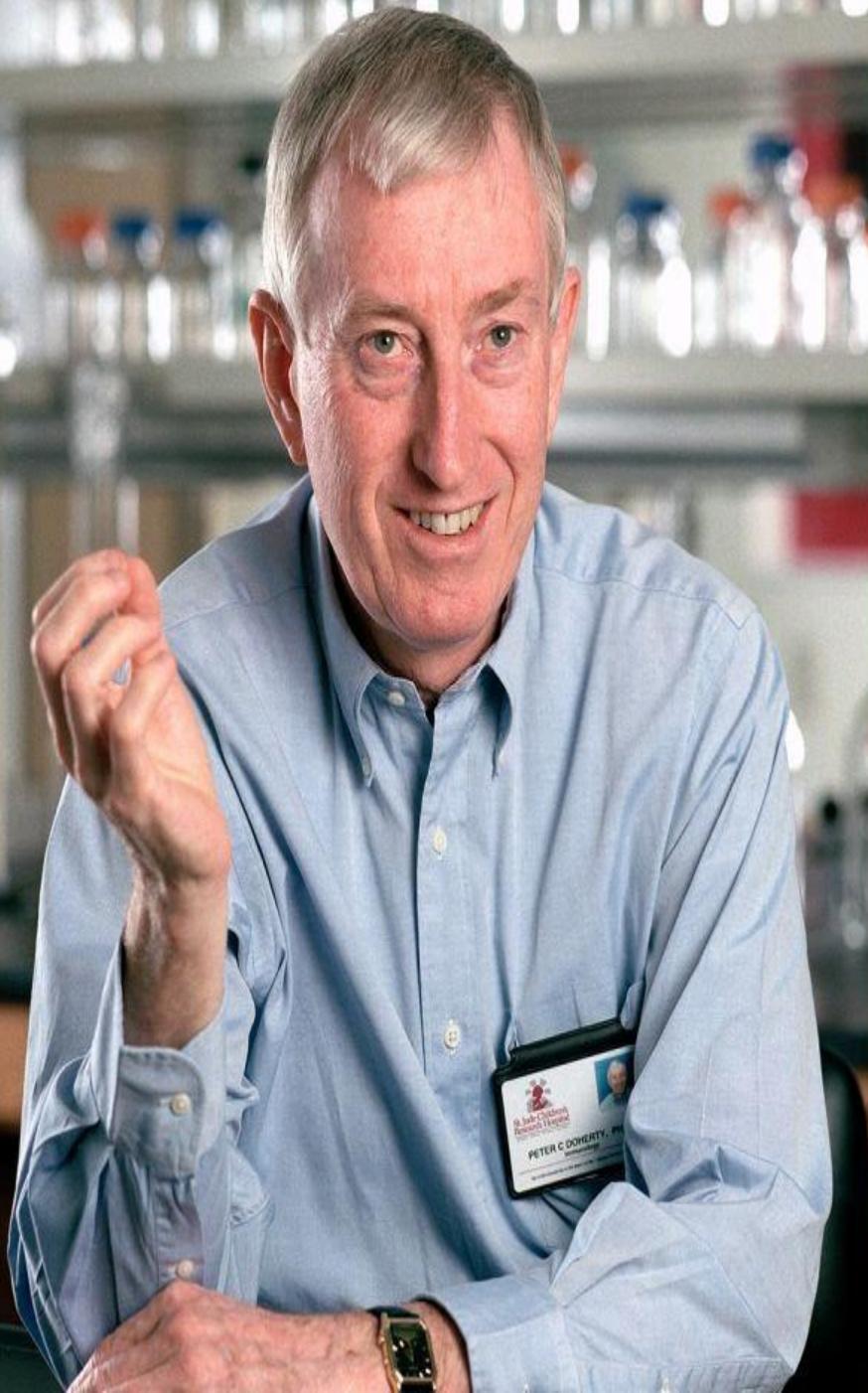


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“Good scientists
are perpetual
adolescents.
They never grow
up.”

PETER DOHERTY
Nobel Prize in Physiology or
Medicine 1996

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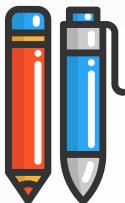
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THANK YOU





**"BE HUMBLE. BE HUNGRY.
AND ALWAYS BE THE
HARDEST WORKER
IN THE ROOM."**



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