Module 1: Introduction to Embedded Systems

I. What is an Embedded System?

 Definition: An embedded system is a computer system designed to perform specific functions within a larger mechanical or electrical system.

Key Characteristics:

- A combination of hardware and software designed to do a specific function or functions.
- Typically small, low-cost, and low-power.
- Used in real-time applications.

Comparison to General-Purpose Computing:

 Embedded systems are integrated into a larger device or product to control and monitor its operation.

II. Components of an Embedded System

- o Hardware (microcontroller/microprocessor, memory, I/O peripherals).
- Software (firmware).

• III. Microcontrollers vs. Microprocessors

Microcontroller:

- A small computer on a single integrated circuit (IC) designed to perform specific tasks and control electronic systems.
- Consists of a central processing unit (CPU), memory, and input/output peripherals, all integrated onto a single chip.
- Commonly used in embedded systems across various devices.

Microprocessor:

- A central processing unit (CPU) that requires external components such as memory and I/O devices to function.
- Key Difference: A microcontroller has all essential components on a single chip, while a microprocessor needs external components.

• IV. Applications of Embedded Systems

- Examples: Consumer electronics, automotive systems, medical devices, industrial control systems.
- Specific examples from the document: Digital Camera, Smart Phones, Smart Television, Washing Machine, Microwave Oven, Garmin GPS, Electrocardiogram (ECG) Monitor, Pacemakers

• V. History and Evolution

- Key milestones and developments in the history of embedded systems (covered briefly).
- Integration of Connectivity and Networking (2000s-Present): The emergence of protocols like Ethernet, Wi-Fi, and Bluetooth enabled seamless connectivity.
- Advancements in Processing Power and AI (2010s-Present): Embedded systems are incorporating multicore processors, GPUs, AI, and machine learning.

Module 2: Characteristics of Embedded Systems

- I. Characteristics of Embedded Systems (Part 1)
 - Task-Specific: Designed to perform a dedicated function. An mp3 player will function only as an mp3 player.
 - Real-Time Operation: Designed to perform the task within a certain time frame.
 - It must therefore perform fast enough.
 - A car's brake system, if exceeding the time limit, may cause accidents.

Reliability:

- MTBF stands for Mean Time Between Failures.
- It is a metric used to estimate the reliability of a system or a component.
- MTBF represents the average time that elapses between two consecutive failures of a system or a component during normal operation.

- It is often used in various industries to assess the reliability and availability of systems.
- It is typically measured in units of time, such as hours, days, or years.

Minimal or No User Interface (UI):

 A fully automatic washing machine works on its own after the program is set.

• II. Quality Attributes of Embedded Systems (Part 2)

- Reliability: The system must perform consistently over time without failures and should handle faults gracefully.
- Performance: This encompasses speed, responsiveness, and efficient use of resources such as CPU, memory, and power.
- Real-Time Operation: Many embedded systems are required to meet specific timing constraints, ensuring that they process inputs and produce outputs within defined time limits.
- Scalability: The system should be capable of adapting to increased loads and expanding in terms of functionality and performance.
- Safety: In critical applications, such as automotive or healthcare, the system must guarantee safe operation under all conditions.
- Security: Robust protection against unauthorized access and cyberattacks is essential, especially for systems connected to networks.
- Maintainability: The system should allow for easy updates, repairs, or modifications after deployment.
- Power Efficiency: For portable or battery-operated devices, minimizing power consumption is essential.
- Cost-Effectiveness: The overall cost of the system should be considered, including development and production expenses.
- User Experience: The system must offer a user-friendly interface and effectively meet user needs.

III. Advantages of Embedded Systems

Performance.

- Cost-effectiveness in mass production.
- Stability and reliability.
- Task-specific design.

IV. Disadvantages of Embedded Systems

- Limited flexibility.
- Maintenance challenges.
- Difficult troubleshooting.
- Limited hardware.

• V. Types of Embedded Systems

- Classification based on microcontroller performance:
 - Small-Scale Embedded Systems:
 - Normally designed and created using an 8-bit microcontroller.
 - This microcontroller can be battery activated.
 - Medium-Scale Embedded Systems:
 - Uses a single 16-bit or 32-bit microcontroller or multiple microcontrollers linked together.
 - These systems have a lot of hardware and software complexities.
 - Sophisticated Embedded Systems:
 - Often function on multiple algorithms that result in complexities in both hardware and software.
 - They often need a processor that is configurable and logic array that can be programmed.

Module 3: ASICs, PLDs, COTS

- I. ASICs (Application-Specific Integrated Circuits)
 - Definition: Integrated circuits designed for a specific application or purpose, rather than for general-purpose use. They are custom-built chips optimized for a particular task or function.

 Applications: Telecommunications, Consumer Electronics, Automotive Applications, Digital Signal Processing (DSP), Medical Devices, Industrial Automation, Data Centers, Wearable Technology

Advantages:

- Specific Application Design: ASICs are created for a particular task or application.
- Optimization: ASICs are tailored for specific functions and can be optimized for maximum performance.
- Reduced Overhead: ASICs eliminate the overhead of general-purpose architectures.
- Higher Speeds and Throughput: ASICs can achieve much higher operational speeds and data processing rates compared to CPUs and FPGAs.

• II. PLDs (Programmable Logic Devices)

- o **Definition:** Programmable logic devices.
- o Types: SPLDs, CPLDs, FPGAs.

• III. COTS (Commercial Off-The-Shelf)

- Definition: Commercial off-the-shelf components.
- Examples: Industrial networking equipment, motion control components, sensors.
- Advantages: Cost-effective.
- Common COTS used in industrial automation: Programmable Logic Controllers (PLCs), Human-Machine Interfaces (HMIs), Industrial Computers and Embedded Systems, Industrial Networking Equipment, Sensors and Instrumentation, Motion Control Components

• IV. Comparison

Factors: Cost, flexibility, time-to-market, performance.

Module 4: Memory

I. Types of Memory

- ROM (Read-Only Memory): A non-volatile type of memory commonly used in embedded systems.
 - The data stored in ROM cannot be modified or erased once it is programmed during manufacturing.
 - ROM retains its contents even when the power is turned off.
 - Used to store firmware, boot loaders, and system configuration data.
 - Types of ROM:
 - Mask ROM: Manufactured with a fixed pattern during the chip fabrication process. The data is permanently embedded and cannot be changed.
 - PROM (Programmable Read-Only Memory): Allows users to program the memory once. Once programmed, the data becomes permanent.
 - EPROM (Erasable Programmable ROM): Can be erased and reprogrammed using ultraviolet light exposure.
 - EEPROM (Electrically Erasable Programmable ROM): Can be electrically erased and reprogrammed.
 - Flash Memory: A type of EEPROM that allows multiple-byte erasure and is widely used in embedded systems.
 - Arduino Uno Examples:
 - Mask ROM: Contains low-level instructions and initialization code.
 - PROM: Could be used to store custom bootloaders.
 - EPROM: Can be used for custom bootloaders or firmware that may require updates.
 - EEPROM: Commonly used for storing user preferences or configuration settings.
- o RAM (Random Access Memory): Volatile memory.
- Memory Based on Interface
- Memory Shadowing

• II. Memory Selection Criteria

- Factors: Cost, speed, volatility, power consumption, capacity, reliability, interface, data retention, size, availability.
- Additional Factors for Embedded Systems:
 - Access Speed and Throughput: Consider the memory's access speed and data throughput required for the application, especially for realtime processing.
 - Capacity Needs: Determine the required memory size for current and future data storage, taking into account firmware and data logging.
 - Power Consumption: Evaluate energy efficiency, especially for battery-operated devices.
 - Reliability and Durability: Consider endurance (write/erase cycles) and error correction capabilities.
 - Interface Compatibility: Ensure the selected memory is compatible with the microcontroller or processor's bus architecture.
 - Data Retention: Assess how long the data must be retained without power.
 - Size and Form Factor: Consider the physical size of the memory chip.
 - Availability and Support: Ensure the selected memory is readily available and supported for long-term projects.

Module 5: Onboard and External Communication

• I. Onboard Communication Interfaces

 Definition: Onboard communication refers to the data exchange that occurs within an embedded system, typically between the microcontroller and its internal components (such as sensors, actuators, and memory).

Key Features:

- Scope: Short-range communication, typically within the printed circuit board (PCB).
- Communication within the same device.

Examples:

- GPIO (General-Purpose Input/Output).
- I2C (Inter-Integrated Circuit).
- SPI (Serial Peripheral Interface).
- UART (Universal Asynchronous Receiver/Transmitter).

• II. Onboard Communication Interfaces Details

GPIO (General-Purpose Input/Output):

- GPIO pins are the simplest form of communication in embedded systems.
- They can be configured as either input or output, allowing for digital signal transmission.
- Applications:
 - Used for controlling LEDs, reading button states, and interfacing with simple sensors.
- Pros and Cons:
 - Advantages: Easy to implement; low power consumption; minimal hardware requirements.
 - Disadvantages: Limited in complexity; not suitable for highspeed data transfer.
- Use Case: LEDs, push buttons, simple sensors.

I2C (Inter-Integrated Circuit):

- Synchronous, half-duplex communication protocol.
- I2C is a multi-master, multi-slave protocol that allows multiple devices to communicate over two wires: SDA (data line) and SCL (clock line).
- Applications:
 - Commonly used in sensor networks, EEPROMs, and RTCs (Real-Time Clocks).

Pros and Cons:

- Advantages: Simple wiring; allows multiple devices on the same bus; supports different data rates (standard mode up to 100 kbps, fast mode up to 400 kbps).
- Disadvantages: Slower than SPI; limited to short distances (typically less than 1 meter); requires pull-up resistors.
- Use Case: Temperature sensors, EEPROMs, RTCs (Real-Time Clocks).

SPI (Serial Peripheral Interface):

- Asynchronous, full-duplex communication protocol.
- SPI is a high-speed synchronous protocol that uses four lines: MOSI, MISO, SCK, and SS.
- It is designed for short-distance communication between a master and one or more slave devices.
- Applications:
 - Used in applications requiring high data rates, such as SD cards, LCD displays, and sensors.

Pros and Cons:

- Advantages: Fast data transfer rates (up to several Mbps); fullduplex communication; simple protocol.
- Disadvantages: More complex wiring; requires more pins compared to I2C; no standard addressing scheme.
- Use Case: Debugging, GPS modules, Bluetooth.
- SPI Signal Lines:
 - MOSI (Master Out, Slave In): Data line for sending data from the master to the slave.
 - MISO (Master In, Slave Out): Data line for sending data from the slave to the master.
 - SCK (Serial Clock): Clock signal generated by the master to synchronize data transfer.

• III. External Communication Interfaces

- Definition: External communication involves data exchange between the embedded system and external devices or networks.
- Allows the embedded system to interact with the outside world, enabling functionalities such as remote monitoring, control, and data sharing.

Key Features:

Scope: Communication with devices outside the embedded system.

Examples:

- USB (Universal Serial Bus).
- Ethernet.
- Wi-Fi.
- Bluetooth.

• IV. Considerations for Selecting Communication Interfaces

Power Consumption:

- Power efficiency is crucial, especially in battery-operated devices.
- Low-power interfaces like Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) or I2C are often preferred for such applications.

Data Rate Requirements:

- The choice of interface heavily depends on the required data transfer rates.
- For high-speed applications, SPI or USB may be more appropriate, while I2C or UART may suffice for lower data rates.

Distance:

- The physical distance between components influences the selection of communication interfaces.
- For example, I2C is suitable for short distances, whereas Ethernet or Wi-Fi is better for longer distances.

Complexity and Cost:

- Simpler interfaces like GPIO or UART may be more cost-effective for basic applications.
- More complex interfaces like USB or Ethernet may add to the system's cost and complexity.

Module 5 (Part 2): Asynchronous and Synchronous Serial Communication

I. Objectives

- Highlight asynchronous and synchronous types of serial communication.
- Describe the difference between asynchronous and synchronous types of communication.

• II. Pre-Test Questions

- What does synchronous transmission require to synchronize the sender and receiver? (Answer: Clock signal)
- What does asynchronous transmission add to signal the message? (Answer: Start and stop bits)
- o In synchronous transmission, data is sent in the form of: (Answer: Blocks)
- The data transfer rate of asynchronous transmission is: (Answer: Lower)

• III. Serial Communication in Embedded Systems

 Serial communication in embedded systems refers to the process of transmitting and receiving data between an embedded system (such as a microcontroller) and other devices one bit at a time over a single communication channel.

• IV. Asynchronous Transmission

- In asynchronous transmission, data is transmitted one character or byte at a time.
- Synchronization between the sender and receiver is achieved through the use of start and stop bits.
- A start bit marks the beginning of a data byte, and a stop bit indicates the end.
- There may be idle time between the transmission of characters.

 Asynchronous transmission is commonly used for low-speed communication where precise timing is not critical.

• V. Synchronous Transmission

- In synchronous transmission, data is transmitted in continuous blocks or frames.
- Synchronization between the sender and receiver is achieved through a shared clock signal.
- Synchronous transmission is suitable for high-speed communication where timing is critical, such as in telecommunications and data networks.

• VI. Differences Between Asynchronous and Synchronous Transmission

Synchronization:

- Asynchronous: Uses start and stop bits for synchronization.
- Synchronous: Uses a clock signal for synchronization.

Data Transfer:

- Asynchronous: Data is transmitted one character or byte at a time.
- Synchronous: Data is transmitted in blocks or frames.

Timing:

- Asynchronous: Timing is less critical; there may be idle time between characters.
- Synchronous: Timing is critical; data is transmitted continuously.

Speed:

- Asynchronous: Generally used for lower-speed communication.
- Synchronous: Suitable for high-speed communication.

Complexity:

- Asynchronous: Simpler to implement.
- Synchronous: More complex to implement due to the need for clock synchronization.

Module 1: Introduction to Embedded Systems

• **CPU:** Central Processing Unit

• IC: Integrated Circuit

• I/O: Input/Output

• **IoT:** Internet of Things

• **GPU:** Graphics Processing Unit

• Al: Artificial Intelligence

• ML: Machine Learning

Module 2: Characteristics of Embedded Systems

• MTBF: Mean Time Between Failures

• **UI:** User Interface

Module 3: ASICs, PLDs, COTS

• ASIC: Application-Specific Integrated Circuit

• **PLD:** Programmable Logic Device

• SPLD: Simple Programmable Logic Device

• CPLD: Complex Programmable Logic Device

• **FPGA:** Field-Programmable Gate Array¹

• COTS: Commercial Off-The-Shelf

• **DSP:** Digital Signal Processing

• **PLC:** Programmable Logic Controller

• HMI: Human-Machine Interface

• **ROI:** Return on Investment

Module 4: Memory

• ROM: Read-Only Memory

• **PROM:** Programmable Read-Only Memory

• **EPROM:** Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory

- **EEPROM:** Electrically Erasable Programmable Read-Only Memory²
- RAM: Random Access Memory³
- **SRAM:** Static Random Access Memory
- **DRAM:** Dynamic Random Access Memory
- **ESP32:** Espressif Systems ESP32 Microcontroller
- Arduino: Arduino Microcontroller Platform

Module 5: Onboard and External Communication

- **GPIO:** General-Purpose Input/Output
- **I2C:** Inter-Integrated Circuit
- **SPI:** Serial Peripheral Interface
- UART: Universal Asynchronous Receiver/Transmitter⁴
- **USB:** Universal Serial⁵ Bus
- **BLE:** Bluetooth Low Energy
- PCB: Printed Circuit Board
- SDA: Serial Data Line
- SCL: Serial Clock Line
- MOSI: Master Out Slave In
- MISO: Master In Slave Out
- SCK: Serial Clock
- **SS:** Slave Select
- RTC: Real-Time Clock