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(04 Marks)

- Explain the Fundamental issues in Hardware Software Co design. $(06 Marks)$ Explain the Assembly language based Embedded firmware development with a diagram. $\boldsymbol{8}$ \overline{a} $(06 Marks)$ $$
	- c. With a neat block diagram, how source file to object file translation takes place in High level language based firmware development.

Module-5

 $(08 Marks)$ a. With a neat diagram, explain Operating System Architecture. $\overline{9}$ $(06 Marks)$ b. Explain Multithreading. $(06 Marks)$ c. Explain the concept of Binary Semaphore.

OR

- Explain the role of Integrated Development Environment (IDE) for Embedded Software $10 a$. development. $(08 Marks)$
	- Write a note on Message passing. b .
	- c. Explain the concept of deadlock with a neat diagram.

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CLASSIFICATION OF EMBEDDED SYSTEMS

It is possible to have a multitude of classifications for embedded systems. based on different criteria. Some of the criteria used in the classification of embedded systems are as follows:

- (1) Based on generation
- (2) Complexity and performance requirements
- (3) Based on deterministic behaviour
- (4) Based on triggering.

The classification based on deterministic system behaviour is applicable for 'Real Time' systems. The application/task execution behaviour for an embedded system can be either deterministic or non-deterministic. Based on the execution behaviour, Real Time embedded systems are classified into Hard and Soft. We will discuss about hard and soft real time systems in a later chapter. Embedded Systems which are 'Reactive' in nature (Like process control systems in industrial control applications) can be classified based on the trigger. Reactive systems can be either event triggered or time triggered.

1.4.1 Classification Based on Generation

This classification is based on the order in which the embedded processing systems evolved from the first version to where they are today. As per this criterion, embedded systems can be classified into the following:

1.4.1.1 First Generation The early embedded systems were built around 8bit microprocessors like 8085 and Z80, and 4bit microcontrollers. Simple in hardware circuits with firmware developed in Assembly code. Digital telephone keypads, stepper motor control units etc. are examples of this.

1.4.1.2 Second Generation These are embedded systems built around 16bit microprocessors and 8 or 16 bit microcontrollers, following the first generation embedded systems. The instruction set for the second generation processors/controllers were much more complex and powerful than the first generation processors/ controllers. Some of the second generation embedded systems contained embedded operating systems for their operation. Data Acquisition Systems, SCADA systems, etc. are examples of second generation embedded systems.

1.4.1.3 Third Generation With advances in processor technology, embedded system developers started making use of powerful 32bit processors and 16bit microcontrollers for their design. A new concept of

application and domain specific processors/controllers like Digital Signal Processors (DSP) and Application Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs) came into the picture. The instruction set of processors became more complex and powerful and the concept of instruction pipelining also evolved. The processor market was flooded with different types of processors from different vendors. Processors like Intel Pentium, Motorola 68K, etc. gained attention in high performance embedded requirements. Dedicated embedded real time and general purpose operating systems entered into the embedded market. Embedded systems spread its ground to areas like robotics, media, industrial process control, networking, etc.

1.4.1.4 Fourth Generation The advent of System on Chips (SoC), reconfigurable processors and multicore processors are bringing high performance, tight integration and miniaturisation into the embedded device market. The SoC technique implements a total system on a chip by integrating different functionalities with a processor core on an integrated circuit. We will discuss about SoCs in a later chapter. The fourth generation embedded systems are making use of high performance real time embedded operating systems for their functioning. Smart phone devices, mobile internet devices (MIDs), etc. are examples of fourth generation embedded systems.

1.4.1.5 What Next? The processor and embedded market is highly dynamic and demanding. So 'what will be the next smart move in the next embedded generation?' Let's wait and see.

1.4.2 Classification Based on Complexity and Performance

This classification is based on the complexity and system performance requirements. According to this classification, embedded systems can be grouped into the following:

1.4.2.1 Small-Scale Embedded Systems Embedded systems which are simple in application needs and where the performance requirements are not time critical fall under this category. An electronic toy is a typical example of a small-scale embedded system. Small-scale embedded systems are usually built around low performance and low cost 8 or 16 bit microprocessors/microcontrollers. A small-scale embedded system may or may not contain an operating system for its functioning.

1.4.2.2 Medium-Scale Embedded Systems Embedded systems which are slightly complex in hardware and firmware (software) requirements fall under this category. Medium-scale embedded systems are usually built around medium performance, low cost 16 or 32 bit microprocessors/microcontrollers or digital signal processors. They usually contain an embedded operating system (either general purpose or real time operating system) for functioning.

1.4.2.3 Large-Scale Embedded Systems/Complex Systems Embedded systems which involve highly complex hardware and firmware requirements fall under this category. They are employed in mission critical applications demanding high performance. Such systems are commonly built around high performance 32 or 64 bit RISC processors/controllers or Reconfigurable System on Chip (RSoC) or multi-core processors and programmable logic devices. They may contain multiple processors/controllers and co-units/hardware accelerators for offloading the processing requirements from the main processor of the system. Decoding/ encoding of media, cryptographic function implementation, etc. are examples for processing requirements which can be implemented using a co-processor/hardware accelerator. Complex embedded systems usually contain a high performance Real Time Operating System (RTOS) for task scheduling, prioritisation, and management.

$\mathbf b$. Explain the following: i) I2C Bus ii) SPI Bus iii) Reset Circuit iv) 1-Wire Interface **Solution:**

Inter Integrated Circuit (12C) Bus The Inter Integrated Circuit Bus (12C-Pronounced 'I square C') is a synchronous bi-directional half duplex (one-directional communication at a given point of time) two wire serial interface bus. The concept of I2C bus was developed by 'Philips semiconductors' in the early 1980s. The original intention of I2C was to provide an easy way of connection between a microprocessor/ microcontroller system and the peripheral chips in television sets. The I2C bus comprise of two bus lines, namely; Serial Clock-SCL and Serial Data-SDA. SCL line is responsible for generating synchronisation clock pulses and SDA is responsible for transmitting the serial data across devices. I2C bus is a shared bus system to which many number of I2C devices can be connected. Devices connected to the I2C bus can act as either 'Master' device or 'Slave' device. The 'Master' device is responsible for controlling the communication by initiating/terminating data transfer, sending data and generating necessary synchronisation clock pulses. 'Slave' devices wait for the commands from the master and respond upon receiving the commands. 'Master' and 'Slave' devices can act as either transmitter or receiver. Regardless whether a master is acting as transmitter or receiver, the synchronisation clock signal is generated by the 'Master' device only. I2C supports multi

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masters on the same bus. The following bus interface diagram shown in Fig. 2.26 illustrates the connection of master and slave devices on the I2C bus.

Fig. 2.26 12C Bus Interfacing

The I2C bus interface is built around an input buffer and an open drain or collector transistor. When the bus is in the idle state, the open drain/collector transistor will be in the floating state and the output lines (SDA and SCL) switch to the 'High Impedance' state. For proper operation of the bus, both the bus lines should be pulled to the supply voltage (+5V for TTL family and +3.3V for CMOS family devices) using pull-up resistors. The typical value of resistors used in pull-up is 2.2K. With pull-up resistors, the output lines of the bus in the idle state will be 'HIGH'.

The address of a I2C device is assigned by hardwiring the address lines of the device to the desired logic level. The address to various I2C devices in an embedded device is assigned and hardwired at the time of designing the embedded hardware. The sequence of operations for communicating with an I2C slave device is listed below:

- 1. The master device pulls the clock line (SCL) of the bus to 'HIGH'
- 2. The master device pulls the data line (SDA) 'LOW', when the SCL line is at logic 'HIGH' (This is the 'Start' condition for data transfer)
- 3. The master device sends the address (7 bit or 10 bit wide) of the 'slave' device to which it wants to communicate, over the SDA line. Clock pulses are generated at the SCL line for synchronising the bit reception by the slave device. The MSB of the data is always transmitted first. The data in the bus is valid during the 'HIGH' period of the clock signal
- 4. The master device sends the Read or Write bit (Bit value $= 1$ Read operation; Bit value $= 0$ Write operation) according to the requirement
- 5. The master device waits for the acknowledgement bit from the slave device whose address is sent on the bus along with the Read/Write operation command. Slave devices connected to the bus compares the address received with the address assigned to them

6. The slave device with the address requested by the master device responds by sending an acknowledge bit (Bit value = 1) over the SDA line 7. Upon receiving the acknowledge bit, the Master device sends the 8bit data to the slave device over SDA line, if the requested operation is 'Write to device'. If the requested operation is 'Read from device', the slave device sends data to the master over the SDA line 8. The master device waits for the acknowledgement bit from the device upon byte transfer complete for a write operation and sends an acknowledge bit to the Slave device for a read operation 9. The master device terminates the transfer by pulling the SDA line 'HIGH' when the clock line SCL is at logic 'HIGH' (Indicating the 'STOP' condition) The first generation I2C devices were designed to support data rates only up to 100kbps. Over time there have been several additions to the specification so that there are now five operating speed categories; Namely, Standard mode (Sm - Data rate up to 100kbit/sec), Fast mode (Fm - Data rate up to 400kbit/sec), Fast mode Plus (Fm+ - Data rate up to 1Mbit/sec), and High-speed mode (Hs-mode - Data rate up to 3.4Mbit/sec) and an Ultra Fast-mode (UFm), with a bit rate up to 5 Mbit/s for unidirectional I2C bus. 2.4.1.2 Serial Peripheral Interface (SPI) Bus The Serial Peripheral Interface Bus (SPI) is a synchronous bi-directional full duplex four-wire serial interface bus. The concept of SPI was introduced by Motorola. SPI is a single master multi-slave system. It is possible to have a system where more than one SPI device can be master, provided the condition only one master device is active at any given point of time, is satisfied. SPI requires four signal lines for communication. They are: **Master Out Slave In (MOSI):** Signal line carrying the data from master to slave device. It is also known as Slave Input/Slave Data In (SI/SDI) **Master In Slave Out (MISO):** Signal line carrying the data from slave to master device. It is also known as Slave Output (SO/SDO) **Serial Clock (SCLK):** Signal line carrying the clock signals **Slave Select (SS):** Signal line for slave device select. It is an active low signal The bus interface diagram shown in Fig. 2.27 illustrates the connection of master and slave devices on the SPI bus. The master device is responsible for generating the clock signal. It selects the required slave device by asserting the corresponding slave device's slave select signal 'LOW'. The data out line (MISO) of all the slave devices when not selected floats at high impedance state. The serial data transmission through SPI bus is fully configurable. SPI devices contain a certain set of registers for holding these configurations. The serial peripheral control register holds the various configuration parameters like master/slave selection for the device, baudrate selection for communication, clock signal control, etc. The status register holds the status of various conditions for transmission and reception. SPI works on the principle of 'Shift Register'. The master and slave devices contain a special shift register for the data to transmit or receive. The size of the shift register is device dependent. Normally it is a multiple of 8. During transmission from the master to slave, the data in the master's shift register is shifted out to the MOSI pin and it enters the shift register of the slave device through the MOSI pin of the slave device. At the same time the shifted out data bit from the slave device's shift register enters the shift register of the master device through MISO pin. In summary, the shift registers of 'master' and 'slave' devices form a circular buffer. For some devices, the decision on whether the LS/MS bit of data needs to be sent out first is configurable through configuration register (e.g. LSBF bit of the SPI control register for Motorola's 68HC12 controller). When compared to I2C, SPI bus is most suitable for applications requiring transfer of data in 'streams'.

