Introduction

The continuing demand for more performance, complexity and cost reduction require the semiconductor industry to develop microcontrollers with both high density design technology and higher clock frequencies. This has intrinsically increased the noise emission and noise sensitivity. Application developers therefore, must now apply EMC “hardening” techniques in the design of firmware, PCB layout and at system level. This note aims to explain microcontroller EMC features and compliance standards to help application designers reach the optimum level of EMC performance.
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1 General information

This document supports Arm®-based devices.

2 EMC definitions

2.1 EMC

Electromagnetic compatibility (EMC) is the capability of a system to work properly, undisturbed by the electromagnetic phenomena present in its normal environment, and not to create electrical disturbances that would interfere with other equipment.

2.2 EMS

The electromagnetic susceptibility (EMS) level of a device is the resistance to electrical disturbances and conducted electrical noise. Electrostatic discharge (ESD) and fast transient burst (FTB) tests determine the reliability level of a device operating in an undesirable electromagnetic environment.

2.3 EMI

The electromagnetic interference (EMI) is the level of conducted or radiated electrical noise sourced by the equipment. Conducted emission propagates along a cable or any interconnection line. Radiated emission propagates through free space.

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3 EMC characterization of microcontrollers

3.1 Electromagnetic susceptibility (EMS)

Two different type of tests are performed:

- Tests with device power-supplied (functional EMS tests and latch-up): the device behavior is monitored during the stress.
- One test with device not powered supplied (absolute electrical sensitivity): the device functionality and integrity is checked on tester after stress.

3.1.1 Functional EMS test

Functional tests are performed to measure the robustness of microcontrollers running in an application. Based on a simple program (toggling 2 LEDs through I/O ports), the product is stressed by 2 different EMC events until a run-away condition (failure) occurs.

**Functional electrostatic discharge test (F_ESD test)**

This test is performed on any new microcontroller devices. Each pin is tested individually with a single positive or negative electrical discharge. This allows failures investigations inside the chip and further application recommendations to protect the concerned microcontroller sensitive pins against ESD.

High static voltage has both natural and man made origins. Some specific equipment can reproduce this phenomenon in order to test the device under real conditions. Equipment, test sequence and standards are described here below.

The microcontroller F_ESD qualification test uses standards given in Table 1 as reference.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European standard</th>
<th>International standard</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EN 61000-4-2</td>
<td>IEC 61000-4-2</td>
<td>Conducted ESD test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F_ESD tests uses a signal source and a power amplifier to generate a high level field into the microcontroller. The insulator is using a conical tip. This tip is placed on the Device or Equipment Under Test (DUT or EUT) and an electrostatic discharge is applied (see Figure 1).
The equipment used to perform F_ESD test is a NSG 435 generator (TESEQ) compliant with the IEC 61000-4-2 standard. The discharges are directly applied on each pin of the MCU.

Figure 2. Typical ESD current waveform in Contact-mode discharge
1. \( R_{ch} = 50 \, \Omega ; \, R_d = 330 \, \Omega \).

**Fast transient burst (FTB)**

More complex than functional ESD, this test which submits the device to a large quantity of emitted disturbances in a short time, is useful for detecting infrequent and unrecoverable (Class B or C) microcontroller states. FTB disturbances (see Figure 4) are applied to the microcontroller power lines through a capacitive coupling network.

The microcontroller FTB test correlates with the standards given in Table 2.

### Table 2. FTB standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>European standard</th>
<th>International standard</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EN61000-4-4</td>
<td>IEC 61000-4-4</td>
<td>Fast Transient Burst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4. FTB waveform diagram**

The spike frequency is 5 kHz. The generator produces bursts of spikes that last 15 ms every 300 ms (75 spikes).

The fast transients are coupled to the device DUT with capacitors \( C_c \) (see Figure 5).
Measurements are performed on a ground plane. The generator is connected to ground plane by a short wire. The supply wires are 10 cm from the ground plane. The DUT is on the insulator 10 cm from the ground plane. The FTB voltage level is increased until the device failure.

Severity Levels and Class help application designers to determine which microcontrollers are suitable for their target application, based on the susceptibility level (Severity level) and type of behavior (Class) indicated in the datasheet.

**ST severity level and behavior class**

The IEC 61000-4-2 and IEC 61000-4-4 standards do not refer specifically to semiconductor components such as microcontrollers. Usually electromagnetic stress is applied on other parts of the system such as connectors, mains, supplies. The energy level of the F_ESD and FTB test decreases before reaching the microcontroller, governed by the laws of physics. A large amount of statistical data collected by ST on the behavior of MCUs in various application environments has been used to develop a correlation chart between ST F_ESD or FTB test voltage and IEC 61000-4-2/61000-4-4 severity levels (see Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Severity level</th>
<th>ESD (IEC 61000-4-2) Equipment standard (kV)</th>
<th>FTB (IEC 61000-4-4) Equipment standard (kV)</th>
<th>ESD ST internal EMC test (kV)</th>
<th>FTB ST internal EMC test (kV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>≤ 0.5</td>
<td>≤ 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>≤ 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>≤ 1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;(1)&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>&gt;8</td>
<td>&gt;4</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>&gt; 2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The severity level 5 has been introduced on December 14, 2015. Older products might indicate level 4 even if level 5 might be passed.

In addition to this severity level, MCU behavior under ESD stress can be grouped into different behavior classes (see Table 4) according to EN 50082-2 standard:
Any microcontroller under the “acceptance limits” is rejected as a fail. The “target level” is the level used by ST to define good EMS performance.

**Class B** could be caused by:
- a parasitic reset correctly managed by the firmware (preferable case).
- deprogramming of a peripheral register or memory recovered by the application.
- a blocked status, recovered by a Watchdog or other firmware implementation.

**Class C** could be caused by:
- deprogramming of a peripheral register or memory not recovered by the application.
- a blocked application status requiring an external user action.

*Table 5* shows ST target and acceptance limits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Ratings</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Severity/Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{F_{ESD}}$</td>
<td>Voltage limits to be applied on any I/O pin to induce a functional disturbance</td>
<td>$T_{A}=+25$ °C</td>
<td>2/A, 3/B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{FTB}$</td>
<td>Fast transient voltage burst limits to be applied through 100pF on VSS and VDD pins to induce a functional disturbance</td>
<td>$T_{A}=+25$ °C</td>
<td>3/B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Between “Acceptance limit” and “Target Level”, the device is relatively susceptible to noise. Special care during system design should be taken to avoid susceptibility issues.

*Table 6* shows how $F_{ESD}$ / $FTB$ test results are presented in ST datasheets.

**3.1.2 Latch-up (LU)**

**Static latch-up (LU) test**

The latch-up is a phenomenon which is defined by a high current consumption resulting from an overstress that triggers a parasitic thyristor structure and need a disconnection of the power supply to recover the initial state.
The overstress can be a voltage or current surge, an excessive rate of change of current or voltage, or any other abnormal condition that causes the parasitic thyristor structure to become self-sustaining.

The latch-up will not damage the device if the current through the low-impedance path is sufficiently limited in magnitude or duration.

This test conforms to the EIA/JESD 78 IC latch-up standard.

True LU is self-sustaining and once triggered, the high current condition will remain until the power supply voltage is removed from the device. A temporary LU condition is considered to have been induced if the high current condition stops when only the trigger voltage is removed.

Two complementary static tests are required on 10 parts to assess the latch-up performance:

- **Power supply overvoltage** (applied to each power supply pin) simulates a user induced situation where a transient over-voltage is applied on the power supply.
- **Current injection** (applied to each input, output and configurable I/O pin) simulates an application induced situation where the applied voltage to a pin is greater than the maximum rated conditions, such as severe overshoot above VDD or undershoot below ground on an input due to ringing.

Table 7 shows how LU test result is presented in ST datasheets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Conditions</th>
<th>Class&lt;sup&gt;(1)&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LU</td>
<td>Static latch-up class</td>
<td>T&lt;sub&gt;α&lt;/sub&gt;=+125°C conforming to JESD78A</td>
<td>II level A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Class description: “A” class is an internal specification. All its limits are higher than the JEDEC specifications, that means when a device belongs to Class A it exceeds the JEDEC standard. “B” Class strictly covers all the JEDEC criteria (international standard).

**Dynamic latch-up (DLU) test**

The product is evaluated for its LU susceptibility to ESD discharges when the microcontroller is “running.”

Increasing electrostatic discharges are supplied to every pin of the component until a latch-up occurs. Result is the maximum tolerated voltage without latch-up.

DLU test methodology and characterization: Electrostatic discharges (one positive then one negative test) are applied to each pin of 3 samples when the microcontroller is running to assess the latch-up performance in dynamic mode. Power supplies are set to the typical values, the oscillator is connected as near as possible to the pins of the microcontroller and the component is put in reset mode.

LU/DLU test equipment is same as the one used for the functional EMS (see Figure 1).

**3.1.3 Absolute electrical sensitivity**

This test is performed to assess the components immunity against destruction caused by ESD.

Any devices that fails this electrical test program is classified as a failure.
Using automatic ESD tester, electrostatic discharges (a positive then a negative pulse separated by 1 second) are applied to the pins of each sample according to each pin combination. The sample size depends of the number of supply pins of the device (3parts*(n+1), where n = supply pins).

Two models are usually simulated: human body model (HBM) and the charge device model (CDM). All parts are re-tested on the production tester to verify the static and dynamic parameters still comply with the device datasheet (see Figure 6).

For both models, parts are not powered during the ESD stress.

This test conforms to the JESD22-A114A/A115A standard. See Figure 6 and the following test sequences.

**Figure 6. Absolute electrical sensitivity test models**

**Human body model test sequence**

The HBM ESD pulse simulates the direct transfer of electrostatic charge, from the human body, to a test device. A 100 pF capacitor is discharged through a switching component and a 1.5 KΩ series resistor. This is currently the most requested industry model, for classifying device sensitivity to ESD.

- C_L is loaded through S1 by the HV pulse generator.
- S1 switches position from generator to R.
- A discharge from C_L through R (body resistance) to the microcontroller occurs.
- S2 must be closed 10 to 100ms after the pulse delivery period to ensure the microcontroller is not left in charge state. S2 must be opened at least 10ms prior to the delivery of the next pulse.

**Charge device model (CDM)**

Refer to application note *Electrostatic discharge sensitivity measurement* (AN1181) for a detailed description of CDM.

Since 2018 the MCU are characterised for CDM ESD sensitivity following a standard JEDEC ANSI/ESDA/JEDEC JS-002-2014 which is replacing ANSI/ESD STM5.3.1 standard see the Table 9 for comparison of the device classification levels.
3.2 Electromagnetic interference (EMI)

3.2.1 EMI radiated test

This test correlates with the IEC 61967-2 standard. It gives a good evaluation of the contribution of the microcontroller to radiated noise in an application environment. It takes into account the MCU chip as well as the package, which has a major influence on the noise radiated by the device.

In general, the smaller the package belonging a given package family, the lower the noise generated.

Below the package EMI contribution from the highest to the lowest:

- SOP
- QFP
- TQFP
- FBGA
- CSP

---

Table 8. CDM ESDS component classification levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Voltage range (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>&lt; 125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>125 to &lt; 250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>250 to &lt; 500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>500 to &lt; 1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>1000 to &lt; 1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>1500 to &lt; 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>≥ 2000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. CDM ESDS device classification levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification level</th>
<th>Classification test condition (V)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C0a</td>
<td>&lt; 125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C0b</td>
<td>125 to &lt; 250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>250 to &lt; 500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2a</td>
<td>500 to &lt; 750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2b</td>
<td>750 to &lt; 1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>≥ 1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The test is performed in a transverse electromagnetic mode cell (TEMCELL or GTEM) which allows radiated noise measurement in two directions, rotating the test board by 90°.

**Note:** Since December 14, 2015, the upper limit of the emission measurement frequency range has been extended from 1 GHz to 2 GHz with different settings. The reasons and modalities of these changes are described in Appendix A: EMI classification before December 14 2015, as well as the classification method to be used for 100 kHz-1 GHz measurement data.

**Test description**

The firmware running is based on a simple application, toggling 2 LEDs through the I/O ports.

The main directives of IEC61967 standard related to test hardware are the following (see *Figure 8*):
- 100 x 100 mm square board
- At least 2-layer board (ideally 4-layer).
- 5 mm conductive edges on both sides connected to ground for contact with TEMCELL.

*Figure 7* shows a typical example of an MCU EMC test board schematics.
Figure 7. Example of test board schematics for STM32
Figure 8. Test printed circuit board specification according IEC 61967-2 standard
Spectrum analyzer settings

The IEC61967-1 standard describes the spectrum analyzer hardware and software settings. In spite of these directives, the resolution bandwidth must be chosen according to the measured signal type: narrowband or broadband. Table 10 defines resolution bandwidth (RBW) versus emission measurement frequency range.

Table 10. Spectrum analyzer resolution bandwidth versus frequency range (broadband EMI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Freq. Range (MHz)</th>
<th>Resolution Bandwidth (RBW)</th>
<th>Detector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1 - 1</td>
<td>10 kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 10</td>
<td>10 kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 100</td>
<td>10 kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 - 1000</td>
<td>100 kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 - 2000</td>
<td>1 MHz</td>
<td>Peak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2 EMI level classification

The EMI classifications are based on IEC61967-2 international standard – Annex D-3 (see Figure 9).

The characterization level diagram described by this standard provides a synthesis and a classification of EMI spectrum using a combination of 2 letters plus 1 number. Using this method, 4 typical spectrum patterns (see Figure 9) have been extracted from this diagram to estimate the EMI risk for each microcontroller measurement. Figure 11 describes these 4 classification patterns.
Figure 9. IEC61967-2 classification chart

Figure 10. ST internal EMI level classification

Note: To comply with level 2: no peak detection above 1 GHz.
To comply with level 1: no peak detection above 500 MHz.
Based on ST experience, the potential risk associated to each EMI level have been defined:

- **Level higher than 4**: high risk due to EMI level
- **Level 4**: may require cost for EMI compliance
- **Level 3**: moderate EMI risk
- **Level 2**: minimal EMI risk
- **Level 1**: very low EMI risk

*Table 11* shows how EMI test results are presented in the datasheets.

**Table 11. Example of EMI results on STM32**

| Symbol | Parameter | Conditions | Monitored frequency band | Max vs. $\frac{|V_{osc}|}{|V_{CPU}|}$ | Unit |
|--------|-----------|------------|--------------------------|------------------------------------|------|
| $S_{EMI}$ | Peak level | $V_{DD}=3.6\,V, T_{A}=+25\,^\circ C$, BGA216 package, conforming to IEC61967-2 | 0.1 MHz to 30 MHz | 3 | dBµV |
| | | | 30 MHz to 130 MHz | 10 |  |
| | | | 130 MHz to 1 GHz | 12 |  |
| | | | 1 GHz to 2 GHz | 7 |  |
| | | | EMI Level | 3 |  |
4 MCU design strategy and EMC specific feature

At the initial specification of a new product, EMC dedicated features are implemented after an identification of EMC constraints imposed by the MCU target applications. You should refer to the specific product datasheet to know which of these feature described here are embedded.

Figure 11. Overview of specific features embedded in microcontrollers

4.1 Susceptibility

4.1.1 Brownout reset (BOR)

The purpose of the BOR is to ensure that the microcontroller will always work in its safe operating area (see Figure 13). In terms of EMS, the presence of the BOR makes the MCU more robust, ensuring that if any outside disturbance affects the power supply, the application can recover safely.

When $V_{DD}$ is below the « minimum working $V_{DD}$ » the behavior of the microcontroller is no longer guaranteed. There is not enough power to decode/execute the instructions and/or read the memory. When $V_{DD}$ is below the BOR level the microcontroller enters in reset state (internal reset High) in order to prevent unpredictable behavior. There are several levels with hysteresis in order to avoid oscillating when the micro restarts. When a BOR occurs, a bit is set by hardware. This bit can be used to recover an application.

The brownout reset function generates a static reset when the $V_{DD}$ supply voltage is below a $V_{IT^-}$ reference value. This means that it secures the power-up as well as the power-down, keeping the microcontroller in reset (see Figure 12).

The $V_{IT^-}$ reference value for a voltage drop is lower than the $V_{IT^+}$ reference value for power-on in order to avoid a parasitic reset when the MCU starts running and sinks current on the supply (hysteresis).
The BOR circuitry generates a reset when $V_{DD}$ is below:

- $V_{IT+}$ when $V_{DD}$ is rising
- $V_{IT-}$ when $V_{DD}$ is falling

The BOR function is illustrated in Figure 12.

The voltage threshold can be configured by option byte to be low, medium or high.

Provided the minimum $V_{DD}$ value (guaranteed for the oscillator frequency) is above $V_{IT-}$, the MCU can only be in two modes:

- under full software control
- in static safe reset

In these conditions, secure operation is always ensured for the application without the need for external reset hardware.

During a brownout reset, the NRST pin is held low, thus permitting the MCU to reset other devices.

**Note:** The BOR allows the device to be used without any external reset circuitry.

The BOR is an optional function which can be selected by option byte. Refer to product specification.

**Figure 12. Brownout reset vs reset**

4.1.2 Programmable voltage detector (PVD)

Like the BOR, this feature improves EMS performance by ensuring that the microcontroller behaves safely when the power supply is disturbed by external noise.

The PVD has also different levels (around 200 mV above BOR levels), enabling a early warning before the reset caused by the BOR. Then, when PVD threshold is crossed, an interrupt is generated, requesting for example some user action or preparing the application to shut down in the interrupt routine until the power supply returns to the correct level for the device (refer to the product datasheet).

**Example**

If $f_{CPU}$ is between 8 MHZ and 16 MHZ the minimum working level is 3.5 V.

The Voltage detector function (PVD) is based on an analog comparison between a $V_{IT-}$ and $V_{IT+}$ reference value and the $V_{DD}$ main supply. The $V_{IT-}$ reference value for falling voltage is
lower than the $V_{IT^+}$ reference value for rising voltage in order to avoid parasitic detection (hysteresis).

The output of the PVD comparator is directly readable by the application software through a real time status bit (PVDO). This bit is read only.

The PVD voltage threshold value is relative to the selected BOR threshold configured by option byte (refer to the corresponding product datasheet).

If the PVD interrupt is enabled, an interrupt is generated when the voltage crosses the $V_{IT^+(PVD)}$ or $V_{IT^-(PVD)}$ threshold (PVDO bit toggles).

In the case of a drop in voltage, the PVD interrupt acts as an early warning, allowing software to shut down safely before the BOR resets the microcontroller. (see Figure 13).

The interrupt on the rising edge is used to inform the application that the $V_{DD}$ warning state is over.

If the voltage rise time $t_{rv}$ is less than 256 or 4096 CPU cycles (depending on the reset delay of the microcontroller), no PVD interrupt will be generated when $V_{IT^+(PVD)}$ is reached.

If $t_{rv}$ is greater than 256 or 4096 cycles then:

- If the PVD interrupt is enabled before the $V_{IT^+(PVD)}$ threshold is reached, then 2 PVD interrupts will be received: the first when the PVDE bit is set, and the second when the threshold is reached.
- If the PVD interrupt is enabled after the $V_{IT^+(PVD)}$ threshold is reached then only one PVD interrupt will occur.

**Figure 13. Using the PVD to monitor $V_{DD}$**

![Diagram showing the PVD voltage levels and interrupt process](MSv40316V1)
4.1.3 I/O features and properties

Although integrated circuit data sheets provide the user with conservative limits and conditions in order to prevent damage, sometimes it is useful for the hardware system designer to know the internal failure mechanisms: the risk of exposure to illegal voltages and conditions can be reduced by smart protection design.

It is not possible to classify and to predict all the possible damage resulting from violating maximum ratings and conditions, due to the large number of variables that come into play in defining the failures: in fact, when an overvoltage condition is applied, the effects on the device can vary significantly depending on lot-to-lot process variations, operating temperature, external interfacing of the microcontroller with other devices, etc.

In the following sections, background technical information is given in order to help system designers to reduce risk of damage to the microcontroller device.

Electrostatic discharge and latch-up

CMOS integrated circuits are generally sensitive to exposure to high voltage static electricity, which can induce permanent damage to the device: a typical failure is the breakdown of thin oxides, which causes high leakage current and sometimes shorts.

The latch-up is another typical phenomenon occurring in integrated circuits: unwanted turning on of parasitic bipolar structures, or silicon-controlled rectifiers (SCR), may overheat and rapidly destroy the device. These unintentional structures are composed of P and N regions which work as emitters, bases and collectors of parasitic bipolar transistors: the bulk resistance of the silicon in the wells and substrate act as resistors on the SCR structure. Applying voltages below $V_{SS}$ or above $V_{DD}$, and when the level of current is able to generate a voltage drop across the SCR parasitic resistor, the SCR may be turned on; to turn off the SCR it is necessary to remove the power supply from the device.

The microcontroller design implements layout and process solutions to decrease the effects of electrostatic discharges (ESD) and latch-up. Of course it is not possible to test all devices, due to the destructive nature of the mechanism; in order to guarantee product reliability, destructive tests are carried out on groups of devices, according to internal Quality Assurance standards and recommendations (see Section 3.1.2: Latch-up (LU)).

Protective interface

Although microcontroller input/output circuitry has been designed taking ESD and latch-up problems into account, for those applications and systems where the microcontroller pins are exposed to illegal voltages and high current injections, the user is strongly recommended to implement hardware solutions which reduce the risk of damage: low-pass filters and clamp diodes are usually sufficient in preventing stress conditions.

The risk of having out-of-range voltages and currents is greater for those signals coming from outside the system, where noise effect or uncontrolled spikes could occur with higher probability than for the internal signals; it must be underlined that in some cases, adoption of filters or other dedicated interface circuitries might affect global microcontroller performance, inducing undesired timing delays, and impacting the global system speed.
Internal circuitry: Digital I/O pin

Figure 14 shows a schematic representation of an microcontroller pin able to operate either as an input or as an output is shown. The circuitry implements a standard input buffer and a push-pull configuration for the output buffer. It is evident that although it is possible to disable the output buffer when the input section is used, the MOS transistors of the buffer itself can still affect the behavior of the pin when exposed to illegal conditions. In fact, the P-channel transistor of the output buffer implements a direct diode to $V_{DD}$ (P-diffusion of the drain connected to the pin and N-well connected to $V_{DD}$), while the N-channel of the output buffer implements a diode to $V_{SS}$ (P-substrate connected to $VSS$ and N-diffusion of the drain connected to the pin). In parallel to these diodes, dedicated circuitry is implemented to protect the logic from ESD events (MOS, diodes and input series resistor).

The most important characteristic of these extra devices is that they must not disturb normal operating modes, while acting during exposure to over limit conditions, avoiding permanent damage to the logic circuitry.

According to the MCU used, some I/O pins can be programmed to work also as open-drain outputs, by simply writing in the corresponding register of the I/O Port. The gate of the P-channel of the output buffer is disabled: it is important to highlight that physically the P-channel transistor is still present, so the diode to $V_{DD}$ works. In some applications it can occur that the voltage applied to the pin is higher than the $V_{DD}$ value (supposing the external line is kept high, while the microcontroller power supply is turned off): this condition will inject current through the diode, risking permanent damages to the device.
In any case, programming I/O pins as open-drain can help when several pins in the system are tied to the same point: of course software must pay attention to program only one of them as output at any time, to avoid output driver contentions; it is advisable to configure these pins as output open-drain in order to reduce the risk of current contentions.

**Figure 15. Digital input/output - true open drain output**

In *Figure 15* a true open-drain pin schematic is shown. In this case all paths to $V_{DD}$ are removed (P-channel driver, ESD protection diode, internal weak pull-up) in order to allow the system to turn off the power supply of the microcontroller and keep the voltage level at the pin high without injecting current in the device. This is a typical condition which can occur when several devices interface a serial bus: if one device is not involved in the communication, it can be disabled by turning off its power supply to reduce the system current consumption.

When an illegal negative voltage level is applied to the microcontroller I/O pins (both versions, push-pull and true open-drain output) the clamp diode is always present and active (see ESD protection circuitry and N-channel driver).

**Internal circuitry: Analog input pin**

*Figure 16* shows the internal circuitry used for analog input. It is primarily a digital I/O with an added analog multiplexer for the selection of the input channel of the Analog to Digital Converter (ADC).

The presence of the multiplexer P-channel and N-channel can affect the behavior of the pin when exposed to illegal voltage conditions. These transistors are controlled by a low noise logic, biased through $AV_{DD}$ and $AV_{SS}$ including P-channel N-well: it is important to always verify the input voltage value with respect to both analog power supply and digital power.
supply, in order to avoid unintentional current injections which (if not limited) could destroy the device.

Figure 16. Digital input/output - push-pull output - analog multiplexer input

4.2 Emission

4.2.1 Internal PLL

Some microcontrollers have an embedded programmable PLL Clock Generator allowing the usage of standard 3 to 25 MHz crystals to obtain a large range of internal frequencies (up to a few hundred MHz). By these means, the microcontroller can operate with cheaper, medium frequency crystals, while still providing a high frequency internal clock for maximum system performance. The high clock frequency source is contained inside the chip and does not go through the PCB (Printed Circuit Board) tracks and external components. This reduces the potential noise emission of the application.

The use of PLL network also filters CPU clock against external sporadic disturbances (glitches).
## 4.2.2 Clock sources

### Low-powered oscillator

The oscillator is an major source of noise. To reduce this noise emission, the current driven by the oscillator is limited.

The main clock of some of microcontrollers can be generated by four different source types coming from the multi-oscillator block (MO). This allows the designer to easily select the best trade-off in terms of cost, performance and noise emission. The clock sources are listed below in order from the most noisy to the least noisy:

- an external source
- crystal or ceramic resonator oscillators
- an internal high frequency RC oscillator

Each oscillator is optimized for a given frequency range in terms of consumption and is selectable through the option byte. The associated hardware configurations are shown in Figure 17. Refer to the electrical characteristics section of the datasheet for more details in each case.

### External Clock source

In external clock mode, a clock signal (square, sinus or triangle) with ~50% duty cycle has to drive the OSC_IN or OSC32_OUTpins while the OSC_OUT respect to OSC32_OUTpin is tied to ground, left unconnected or used as standard GPIO, see product reference manual for recommended configuration.

### Crystal/ceramic oscillators

This family of oscillators has the advantage of producing a very accurate rate on the main clock of the microcontroller. The selection within a list of 5 oscillators with different frequency ranges has to be done by option byte in order to reduce consumption (refer to the microcontroller datasheet for more details on the frequency ranges). In this mode of the multi-oscillator, the resonator and the load capacitors have to be placed as close as possible to the oscillator pins in order to minimize output distortion and start-up stabilization time. The loading capacitance values must be adjusted according to the selected oscillator.

These oscillators are not stopped during the RESET phase to avoid the delay needed for the oscillator start-up.

### Internal RC oscillator

The internal RC oscillator is the most cost effective solution, with the drawback of lower frequency accuracy. Its frequency is in the low single digit MHz range. In this mode, the two oscillator pins can be used as standard GPIO, left unconnected or tied to ground, see product documentation for more details.

Process variations will also bring some differences from lots to lots (20 to 60%).

Some microcontrollers (refer to product specification) embed a process compensation. This feature is called “trimmable internal RC”. A procedure during test operation analyzes the process variation and calibrate the internal oscillator accordingly. This brings the internal RC accuracy to 1%. This procedure can be also performed by the user:
The multi-oscillator system is designed for flexibility and to allow the system designer to find the best compromise between emission, accuracy and cost criteria.

**Internal voltage regulators (for MCUs with low-power core)**

An internal voltage regulator is used to power some microcontrollers cores starting from the external power supply.

The Voltage regulator reduces EMI due to the MCU core with 2 effects:
- Lower CPU supply voltage
- Isolate CPU supply from external MCU supplies.

For information on how to use the oscillator, refer to application note "Oscillator design guide for STM8S, STM8A and STM32 microcontrollers" (AN2867).

### 4.2.3 Output I/O current limitation and edge timing control

Output buffers are embedded in microcontrollers, their switching speed is controlled in order to avoid parasitic oscillations when they are switched. The MCU design makes a trade-off between noise and speed.
5 EMC guidelines for MCU based applications

The following guidelines result from experience gained in a wide variety of applications.

5.1 Hardware

The major noise receptors and generators are the tracks and wiring on the printed circuit board (PCB), especially those near the MCU. The first actions to prevent noise problems thus concern the PCB layout and the design of the power supply.

In general, the smaller the number of components surrounding the MCU, the better the immunity versus noise. A ROMless solution, for instance, is typically more sensitive to and a bigger generator of noise than an embedded memory circuit.

5.1.1 Optimized PCB layout

Noise is basically received and transmitted through tracks and components which, once excited, act as antennas. Each loop and track includes parasitic inductance and capacitance which radiate and absorb energy once submitted to a variation of current, voltage or electromagnetic flux.

An MCU chip itself presents high immunity to and low generation of EMI since its dimensions are small versus the wave lengths of EMI signals (typically mm versus 10's of cm for EMI signals in the GHz range). So a single chip solution with small loops and short wires reduces noise problems.

The initial action at the PCB level is to reduce the number of possible antennas. The loops and wires connected to the MCU such as supply, oscillator and I/O should be considered with a special attention. The oscillator loop has to be especially small since it operates at high frequency Figure 18.

A reduction of both the inductance and the capacitance of a track is generally difficult. Practical experience suggests that in most cases the inductance is the first parameter to be minimized.

Figure 18. PCB Board oscillator layout examples
The reduction of inductance can be obtained by making the lengths and surfaces of the track smaller. This can be obtained by placing the track loops closer on the same PCB layer or on top of one another (Figure 19). The resulting loop area is small and the electromagnetic fields reduce one another.

The ratio in order of magnitude relating to the inductance value and the area defined by the wire loop is around \(10 \text{ nH/cm}^2\). Typical examples of low inductivity wires are coaxial, twisted pair cables or multiple layer PCBs with one ground and one supply layers. The current density in the track can also be smaller due to track enlargement or the paralleling of several small capacitances mounted in the current flow.

In critical cases, the distance between the MCU and the PCB, and therefore the surfaces of the loops between an MCU and its environment, has also to be minimized. This can be achieved by removing any socket between the MCU package and the PCB, by replacing a ceramic MCU package by a plastic one or by using Surface Mounting instead of Dual In Line packages.

Note: Board vias are inductances. Try to avoid them. If needed, use multi vias.

![Figure 19. Reduction of PCB tracks loop surfaces](image)

Note: This test is done with a double sided PCB. Insulator thickness is 1.5 mm, copper thickness is 0.13 mm. The overall board size is 65 x 200 mm.

### 5.1.2 Power supply filtering

The power supply is used by all parts of the circuit, so it has to be considered with special attention. The supply loops have to be decoupled to make sure that signal levels and power currents do not interfere. These loops can be separated using star wiring with one node designated as common for the circuit (Figure 20).

The decoupling capacitance should be placed very close to the MCU supply pins to minimize the resultant loop. It should be also large enough to absorb, without significant voltage increase, parasitic currents coming from the MCU via the input protection diodes. The decoupling of the board can be done with electrolytic capacitors (typically 10 \(\mu\)F to 100 \(\mu\)F) since the dielectric used in such capacitors provides a high volumic capacitance. However these capacitors behave like inductances at high frequency (typically above 10 MHz) while ceramic or plastic capacitors keep a capacitive behavior at higher frequency.
A ceramic capacitance of, for instance, 0.1 \( \mu \text{F} \) to 1 \( \mu \text{F} \) should be used as high frequency supply decoupling for critical chips operating at high frequency.

**Figure 20. Power supply layout examples**

5.1.3 **Ground connections**

It is recommended to connect all VSS pins together by the shortest possible path to reduce the risk of creating voltage difference between the VSS pins above the absolute maximum ratings stated in the device datasheet, due to the current induced by external disturbance and to reduce the impedance of ground return path.

The best practice is to connect the VSS lines to the ground plane thru the vias placed as close as possible to the device VSS pins. The ground plane should be solid without a slots or holes which may cause an increase of the ground plane impedance. Split analog and digital ground is not recommended. While it may have a questionable impact on noise distribution from digital to analog domain it shows always worse EMC performance.

5.1.4 **I/O configuration**

An open (floating) pin is a potential hazard to the circuit.

I/O pins which are not used in the application should be preferably configured in output low state. This will also minimize the current consumption.

A major source of emission in microcontroller based applications can be due to high speed digital I/O and communication interfaces such as SPI, I2C clocks, USB or PWM. The Rise/Fall times are critical. Typical designs add RC low pass filters.

5.1.5 **Shielding**

Shielding can help in reducing noise sensitivity and emission, but its success depends directly on the material chosen as shield (high permeability, low resistivity) and on its
connection to a stable voltage source including a decoupling capacitance via a low serial impedance (low inductance, low resistance).

If the generator of major disturbances is near to the MCU board and can be identified as a strong dV/dt generator (i.e. a transformer or Klystron), the noise is carried mainly by the electrostatic field. The critical coupling between the noise generator and the control board is capacitive. A highly conductive shield (i.e. copper) creating a Faraday cage around the control board may strongly increase the immunity.

If the strongest source of perturbations is a dI/dt generator (i.e. a relay), it is a high source of electromagnetic fields. Therefore, the permeability of the shielding material (i.e. alloy) is crucial to increase the immunity of the board. In addition, the number and size of the holes on the shield should be reduced as much as possible to increase its efficiency.

In critical cases, the implantation of a ground plane below the MCU and the removal of sockets between the device and the PCB can reduce the MCU noise sensitivity. Indeed, both actions lead to a reduction of the apparent surface of loops between the MCU, its supply, its I/O and the PCB.

5.2 Handling precautions for ESD protection

Refer to Application note “Electrostatic discharge sensitivity measurement” (AN1181) for a detailed description of the procedure for determining the susceptibility of microcontroller devices to ESD damage.

5.3 Firmware

This part is Treated by a dedicated application note (AN1015) available on www.st.com.

5.4 Web links to EMC related organization

- EIA: Electronic industries alliance - http://www.eia.org/
- IEC: The international electrotechnical commission -http://www.iec.ch
- CENELEC: European committee for electrotechnical standardization - http://ww.cenelec.be
- JEDEC: Joint electron device engineering council - http://www.jedec.org
6 Conclusion

For any microcontroller application, EMC requirements must be considered at the very beginning of the development project. Standards, features and parameters given in microcontroller datasheets will help the system designer to determine the most suitable component for a given application. Hardware and firmware precautions have to be taken to optimize EMC and system stability.
Appendix A  EMI classification before December 14 2015

This information complements Section 3.2.1: EMI radiated test.

Since December 14 2015, the upper limit of the emission measurement frequency range has been extended from 1 GHz to 2 GHz, thus increasing the resolution bandwidth (RBW). This change is due to the evolution of microcontrollers, which embed higher frequency internal clocks, sometimes above 200 MHz, with higher PLL multiplication factors. This leads to higher frequency broadband harmonics emissions.

As a result, ST internal EMI level classification patterns were updated and adjusted to the new spectrum analyzer settings.

For data related to measurements performed before December 14 2015 in the 100 kHz-1 GHz frequency range, refer to Figure 21 and Table 12.

Figure 21. ST internal EMI level classification before December 14 2015

According to ST experience, the potential risk associated with each EMI level have been defined:

- **Level higher than 4**: high risk due to EMI level.
- **Level 4**: may require cost for EMI compliance.
- **Level 3**: moderate EMI risk.
- **Level 2**: minimal EMI risk.
- **Level 1**: very low EMI risk
Table 12. Spectrum analyzer resolution bandwidth versus frequency range
(narrowband EMI)

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<th>Freq. Range (MHz)</th>
<th>Resolution Bandwidth</th>
<th>Detector</th>
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<td>0.1 - 1</td>
<td>1 kHz</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - 10</td>
<td>1 kHz</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 100</td>
<td>1 kHz</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>100 - 1000</td>
<td>9 kHz</td>
<td>Peak</td>
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## Revision history

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<td>03-Feb-2016</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Changed IEC 1000 standard into IEC 61000.</td>
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<td>Changed NSG 435 provider in Section 3.1.1: Functional EMS test. Updated Table 3: ST ESD severity levels.</td>
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<td>Changed static latch-up example to STM32L062K8 in Modified Table 7.</td>
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<td>Removed Table Example of DLU test result on ST72F521 from Section 3.1.2: Latch-up (LU).</td>
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<td>Section 3.1.3: Absolute electrical sensitivity:</td>
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<td>– Added the fact that parts are not powered during the ESD stress.</td>
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<td>– Removed machine model.</td>
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<td>– Added Section: Charge device model (CDM).</td>
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<td>Updated Section 3.2: Electromagnetic interference (EMI).</td>
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<td>Section 4.1: Susceptibility:</td>
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<td>– Replaced low-voltage detector (LVD) by brownout reset (BOR).</td>
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<td>– Replaced RESET by NRST.</td>
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<td>– Replaced Auxiliary voltage detector (AVD) by Programmable voltage detector (PVD).</td>
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<td>Updated Section: Internal RC oscillator and Section: Internal voltage regulators (for MCUs with low-power core).</td>
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<td>Added Table 8: CDM ESDS component classification levels, Table 9: CDM ESDS device classification levels, Section 5.1.3: Ground connections</td>
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