#### ARM Microcontroller STM32F407VG6

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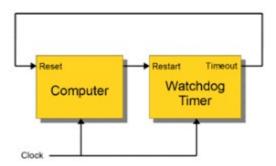
#### 3. Booting sequence

Now we understand the basic concepts, lets see how they work in booting time.

- 1. Power On Reset
- 2. Execute boot loader in boot ROM
- 3. Processor read BOOT pins to determine the booting mode. For example if BOOT0 is 0, Main Flash memory is mapped into Alias space from address 0x00000000
- 4. Next processor fetch the first word from memory space. As the beginning of the memory space contains the vector table, and the first word in the vector table is the initial value for the Main Stack Pointer (MSP). Processor set up the MSP after that.
- 5. Processor continues read the next word in vector table, now is reset vector, which contains the Reset\_Handler() function address.
- 6. Reset\_Handler() function address is moved into Program Counter (PC) and processor starts running Reset\_Handler()
- 7. Inside Reset\_Handler(), System\_Init() function will be run first, follow is our application (main())

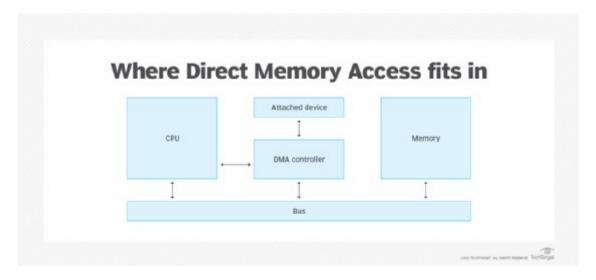
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A watchdog timer is a hardware or software mechanism designed to monitor the operation of a computer or embedded system. Its primary purpose is to detect and recover from system malfunctions or failures. The watchdog timer operates by setting a predefined time interval, and if the system does not periodically reset or "feed" the watchdog within that interval, it assumes that the system has malfunctioned, and it triggers a reset or takes corrective action.



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DMA stands for Direct Memory Access. It is a feature of computer systems that allows peripherals or devices to transfer data to and from the system's memory without the direct involvement of the central processing unit (CPU). DMA improves overall system performance by offloading data transfer tasks from the CPU, allowing it to focus on other processing tasks.



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GPIO stands for General-Purpose Input/Output, and it refers to a set of pins on microcontrollers or microprocessors that can be configured for both input and output operations. In the context of ARM processors, including ARM Cortex-M microcontrollers, GPIO pins are used for general-purpose digital input or output tasks.

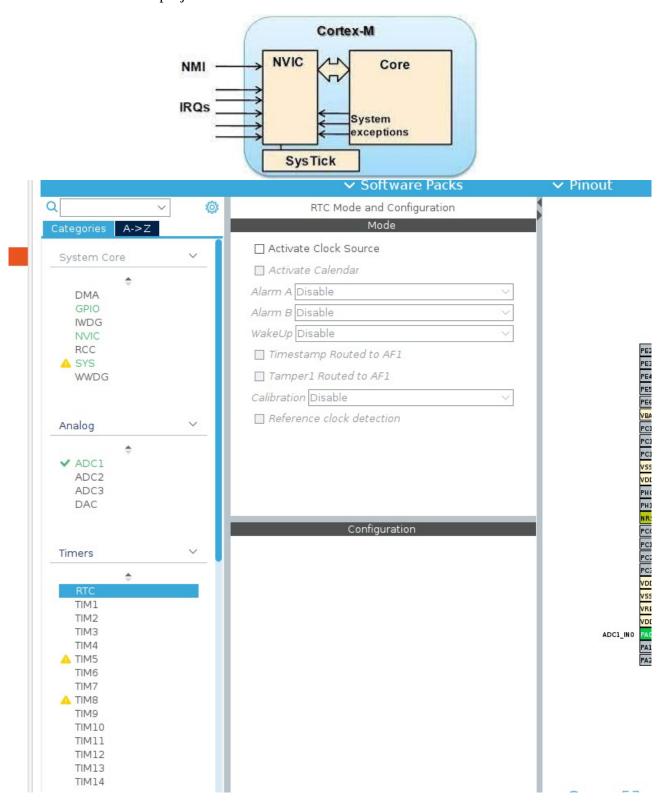
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NVIC stands for Nested Vectored Interrupt Controller. It is a component found in ARM Cortex-M microcontrollers that manages and controls interrupt handling. The NVIC is responsible for prioritizing interrupts and handling them in a nested and prioritized manner.

Here are some key aspects of the NVIC in ARM Cortex-M microcontrollers:

- 1. **Interrupt Handling:** NVIC is designed to efficiently manage and handle interrupts in ARM Cortex-M processors. Interrupts are events that can interrupt the normal flow of program execution to handle time-sensitive or critical tasks.
- 2. **Vectored Interrupts:** In a vectored interrupt system, each interrupt has a specific address, known as a vector, where the processor jumps to execute the corresponding interrupt service routine (ISR). The NVIC handles the assignment of these vectors for different interrupt sources.
- 3. **Priority Levels:** NVIC supports multiple priority levels for interrupts. The priority levels are used to determine the order in which interrupts are serviced when multiple interrupts occur simultaneously or in rapid succession. Lower numeric values represent higher priority.
- 4. **Nested Interrupts:** The term "nested" in NVIC refers to the ability to handle interrupts while already processing another interrupt. If a higher-priority interrupt occurs while a lower-priority interrupt is being serviced, the NVIC can suspend the lower-priority interrupt temporarily, handle the higher-priority interrupt, and then resume the lower-priority interrupt.
- 5. **Interrupt Control and Configuration:** NVIC provides control and configuration registers that allow the software to enable or disable specific interrupts, set their priority levels, and configure other aspects of the interrupt handling process.

6. **System Initialization:** During system startup, the NVIC needs to be configured to set up the interrupt vector table and other parameters. This is typically done in the startup code of a microcontroller project.



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RCC typically stands for "Reset and Clock Control" in the context of ARM Cortex-M microcontrollers. The RCC module is responsible for managing system-level configurations related to clock sources, clock distribution, and system resets. The specific implementation details can vary among different microcontroller manufacturers, as they may use their own terminology or provide additional features in the RCC module.

Here's a general overview of what RCC might include:

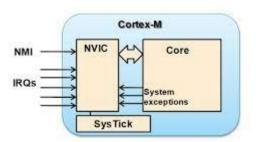
1. **Clock Sources:** RCC allows you to select and configure the clock sources for the microcontroller, such as the main oscillator, internal oscillators, or external clock inputs.

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In ARM-based microcontroller and microprocessor systems, "SYS" typically refers to the System Control Space, a region of memory or a set of registers that control various aspects of the system's operation. The specific usage and functionalities associated with the "SYS" designation can vary between different ARM architectures and implementations.

Here are some common elements that might be included in the ARM SYS space:

- 1. **System Control Registers:** These registers control fundamental aspects of the processor and system, including clock configuration, power management, and system reset.
- 2. **System Control Space in Memory:** Some ARM architectures may reserve a portion of the memory address space for system control purposes. This space may contain configuration registers and memory-mapped peripherals related to system-level functions.
- 3. **Configuration and Status Registers:** SYS registers often include configuration and status information for various system components, such as the processor, memory, and peripherals.
- 4. **Clock and Power Management:** System control may involve the configuration of clock sources and frequencies, as well as power management settings to optimize energy consumption.
- 5. **Reset and Boot Configuration:** SYS registers may be responsible for controlling system reset behavior and configuring the boot process.



IWDG (Independent Watchdog) and WWDG (Window Watchdog) are two different types of watchdog timers commonly found in microcontrollers, including those based on ARM architectures. Both watchdog timers serve the common purpose of monitoring the system and initiating a reset if a fault or malfunction is detected, but they differ in their operation and use cases.

1. Independent Watchdog (IWDG):

- **Operation:** The IWDG operates independently of the system's main processor. It has its own clock source and timer, and it does not require continuous interaction with the main program.
- **Use Cases:** The IWDG is often used for general system monitoring. It is suitable for scenarios where a periodic reset is necessary to prevent the system from getting stuck or malfunctioning. The IWDG is relatively straightforward to use and is typically configured with a timeout period, after which it triggers a reset if not refreshed.

# 2. Window Watchdog (WWDG):

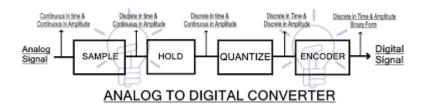
- **Operation:** The WWDG also monitors the system but with an additional concept known as a "window." The window is a specific time frame during which the WWDG must be refreshed. If the WWDG is not refreshed within this window, or if it's refreshed too early, it triggers a reset.
- **Use Cases:** The WWDG is suitable for applications where not only periodic resets are required but also an additional level of control over the timing of the resets. It ensures that the system is active and responsive within a specific time frame. This can be useful in safety-critical systems where the timing of operations is crucial.

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n the context of ARM microcontrollers or processors, an ADC (Analog-to-Digital Converter) plays a crucial role in converting analog signals into digital data. ARM-based systems are commonly used in a variety of applications where both analog and digital signals are involved. The ADC in an ARM-based system helps interface with the analog world by converting physical quantities, such as voltage or current, into digital values that can be processed by the digital components of the system.

Here's a breakdown of the work of an ADC in an ARM-based system:

- 1. **Interface with Analog Sensors:** Many real-world sensors, such as temperature sensors, light sensors, and pressure sensors, generate analog signals. The ADC allows the ARM processor to interface with these sensors by converting their analog outputs into digital values.
- 2. **Data Acquisition:** The ADC samples the analog signal at specific intervals, creating a discrete representation of the continuous analog signal. The resulting digital values can be processed, stored, or transmitted as needed.
- 3. **Precision and Resolution:** ADCs come with different levels of precision and resolution. Precision refers to the ability of the ADC to provide accurate measurements, while resolution is the number of bits in the digital output. Higher precision and resolution are important in applications where accurate representation of analog signals is crucial.



The process of ADC (Analog-to-Digital Converter) conversion involves several steps to transform an analog signal into a digital representation. The steps typically include the following:

#### 1. Sampling:

- The ADC samples the continuous analog signal at specific intervals, capturing discrete data points.
- The sampling rate determines how often the ADC takes a sample. Higher sampling rates allow for more accurate representation of rapidly changing analog signals.

#### 2. Quantization:

- Once sampled, the analog signal is quantized, meaning each sample is assigned a digital value.
- The resolution of the ADC determines the number of bits in the digital output. For example, an 8-bit ADC can represent the analog signal with 2<sup>8</sup> (256) discrete levels.

# 3. **Encoding:**

- The quantized value is encoded into a digital format.
- This typically involves representing the analog signal's amplitude using binary code. For instance, a 3.3V analog signal might be represented as '11111111' in an 8-bit system.

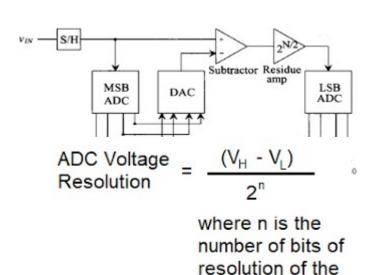
#### 4. Conversion:

- The encoded digital value is then processed by the ADC to produce the final digital output.
- Depending on the type of ADC, this conversion process may involve successive approximation, delta-sigma modulation, or other techniques.

# 5. **Output:**

• The digital output, now representing the original analog signal in discrete form, is made available for further processing by the digital components of the system, such as a microcontroller or processor.

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ADC

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The process of DAC (Digital-to-Analog Converter) conversion involves transforming a digital signal into its corresponding analog representation. Here are the basic steps of a DAC conversion:

#### 1. Input Digital Data:

• The digital data to be converted is provided as input to the DAC. This digital data could originate from various sources, such as a microcontroller, memory, or a communication interface.

# 2. Quantization:

 The digital data is often quantized, meaning it is represented with a finite number of bits. The number of bits in the digital data determines the resolution of the DAC.
 Higher resolution allows for a more accurate representation of the original analog signal.

#### 3. Encoding:

• The digital value is encoded in binary form, representing the amplitude of the signal. For example, an 8-bit digital value might be '11010101.'

#### 4. Conversion:

- The encoded digital value is processed by the DAC to produce an analog output voltage or current.
- Different types of DACs exist, such as resistor ladder DACs, binary-weighted DACs, and sigma-delta DACs, each with its own conversion method.

#### 5. Output Analog Signal:

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In the context of ARM (Advanced RISC Machines) microcontrollers and processors, RTC typically stands for Real-Time Clock. An RTC is a crucial component that provides the system with an accurate representation of the current time and date. Unlike a timer, which may be used for measuring intervals, an RTC is specifically designed to keep track of the actual time, making it essential for applications that require real-time functionality.

Here are key features and functions of an RTC in ARM-based systems:

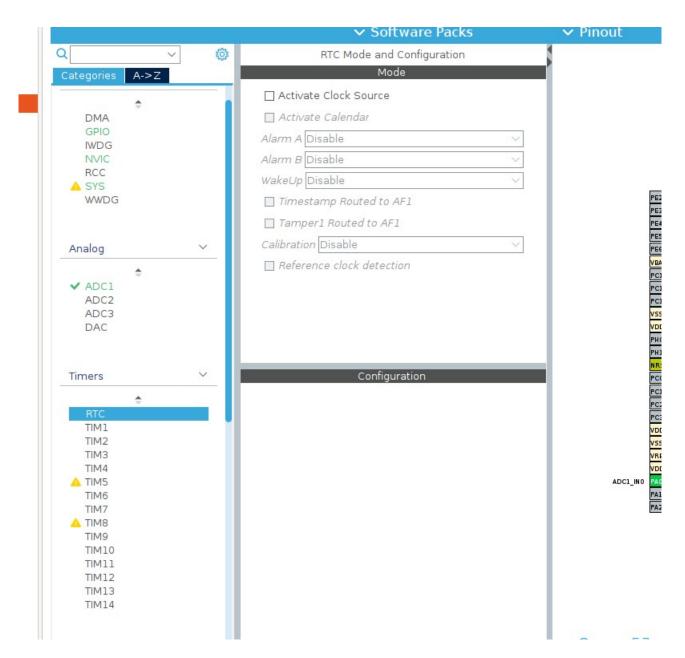
# 1. Timekeeping:

• The primary function of an RTC is to keep track of the current time, including hours, minutes, seconds, and often sub-seconds.

• The RTC maintains the time even when the main processor or the rest of the system is in a low-power or sleep mode.

# 2. Datekeeping:

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In ARM microcontrollers or processors, a Timer is a peripheral that provides timing and counting functionality. Timers are essential components in embedded systems and are widely used for various purposes, including generating precise time delays, measuring time intervals, and triggering events at specific time intervals. ARM-based microcontrollers typically include one or more timers as part of their peripheral set.

Here are some key aspects of timers in ARM-based systems:

#### 1. Timer Modes:

- Timers in ARM microcontrollers often support different operating modes, such as Timer mode, Counter mode, and PWM (Pulse Width Modulation) mode.
- In Timer mode, the timer counts up or down based on a clock source, generating interrupts or triggering events when a specific count value is reached.
- In Counter mode, the timer can be used to count external events, such as pulses or edges on an input pin.

#### 2. Time Measurement:

- Timers are frequently used for time measurement applications, such as measuring the duration of an event or generating accurate time delays.
- The timer's count value can be read to determine the elapsed time.

#### 3. **Interrupts:**

- Timers often support interrupts, allowing the processor to be notified when a specific count is reached.
- Interrupts enable the processor to perform other tasks while waiting for the timer event, enhancing the overall efficiency of the system.

#### 4. PWM Generation:

- Some timers in ARM-based systems can be configured for PWM mode to generate pulse-width-modulated signals.
- PWM signals are commonly used for tasks like controlling the speed of motors or the brightness of LEDs.

# 5. **Real-Time Clock (RTC):**

- In some cases, a dedicated RTC (Real-Time Clock) module may be present in ARM microcontrollers.
- RTCs provide accurate timekeeping capabilities and are often used in applications where maintaining an accurate real-time clock is crucial, such as in time-sensitive systems or devices

I2S, which stands for Inter-IC Sound, is a serial communication protocol used for transmitting digital audio data between integrated circuits (ICs) in audio equipment. It's commonly employed in microcontrollers, microprocessors, and digital signal processors (DSPs) for audio applications. While I2S itself is not exclusive to ARM architecture, many ARM-based microcontrollers and processors integrate I2S peripherals for audio processing.

"USB\_OTG\_HS" in the context of ARM typically refers to USB (Universal Serial Bus) On-The-Go (OTG) High-Speed. This term is often associated with ARM microcontrollers or processors that include USB OTG functionality, specifically supporting high-speed data transfer.

Here's a breakdown of the components:

# 1. USB (Universal Serial Bus):

- USB is a standardized communication protocol widely used for connecting various devices to a computer or other host systems.
- It allows for the transfer of data and power between devices, supporting multiple device types such as keyboards, mice, printers, storage devices, and more.

#### 2. OTG (On-The-Go):

- USB On-The-Go is a specification that extends the USB protocol to allow for direct communication between two USB devices without the need for a host computer.
- OTG-enabled devices can act as both USB hosts and USB peripherals, enabling more flexible and dynamic connections between devices.

## 3. HS (High-Speed):

- High-Speed USB refers to the USB 2.0 specification or later, offering faster data transfer rates compared to the original USB 1.1 standard.
- USB 2.0 supports data rates of up to 480 Mbps, making it suitable for applications that require higher bandwidth, such as external storage devices and high-speed data transfers.

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Configuring the clock in an ARM-based system is a crucial aspect of setting up the microcontroller or microprocessor. The clock configuration determines the speed at which the CPU and other peripherals operate. I'll provide a general overview of clock configuration on ARM-based systems. Note that specific details can vary depending on the ARM architecture and the microcontroller or processor you are using.

#### 1. System Clock (SYSCLK):

- The SYSCLK is the main clock signal that drives the CPU and most of the system.
- It is often derived from an external crystal oscillator or an internal oscillator circuit.
- You need to configure the clock source and frequency to ensure proper system operation.

# 2. Peripheral Clocks:

- Many ARM-based systems have various peripherals (UART, SPI, I2C, etc.), and each peripheral might have its own clock.
- Configure the clock for each peripheral based on the requirements of your application.

# 3. PLL (Phase-Locked Loop):

- PLLs are commonly used to generate a stable and controllable clock frequency.
- They take an input frequency and multiply it to generate a higher-frequency output.
- PLL parameters include the multiplication factor, input source, and output frequency.

#### 4. Clock Dividers:

- Some microcontrollers provide dividers to derive slower clock frequencies from the main clock.
- These dividers are useful for controlling the speed of peripherals or reducing power consumption.

# 5. Power Management:

• Some ARM-based systems offer power management features that allow you to dynamically adjust the clock frequencies to save power when the system is idle.

#### 6. Configuration Registers:

- ARM-based microcontrollers typically have registers or configuration bits in the microcontroller's control registers that allow you to configure the clock settings.
- Read the technical reference manual or datasheet of your specific microcontroller to identify the relevant register

In ARM Cortex programming, terms like "moder," "offset," "ODR" (Output Data Register), and "IDR" (Input Data Register) are often associated with microcontroller peripherals, particularly in the context of GPIO (General Purpose Input/Output) pins. Let's break down the meanings of these terms:

MODER (Mode Register): MODER is a register used to configure the mode of operation for a GPIO pin. In ARM Cortex microcontrollers, GPIO pins can have different modes, such as input, output, alternate function, or analog. The MODER register allows you to set these modes for individual pins.

OFFSET: In the context of programming, an offset typically refers to the distance or position of a particular register or memory location from a base address. When accessing registers in ARM Cortex programming, you often use base addresses and offsets to navigate through the memory map.

ODR (Output Data Register): ODR is a register associated with GPIO pins used for output. It holds the data that is output on the corresponding pin when the pin is configured as an output. Writing to the ODR register allows you to control the logic level (high or low) of an output pin.

IDR (Input Data Register): IDR is a register associated with GPIO pins used for input. It holds the data read from the corresponding input pin when the pin is configured as an input. Reading from the IDR register allows you to check the logic level (high or low) of an input pin.

Here's a basic example in C-like pseudocode to illustrate how these registers might be used:

```
// Assume GPIO_BASE is the base address of the GPIO peripheral
// Assume PIN_NUMBER is the specific GPIO pin number

// Set the pin mode to output
GPIO_BASE->MODER |= (1 << (2 * PIN_NUMBER));

// Write a high level to the output pin
GPIO_BASE->ODR |= (1 << PIN_NUMBER);

// Read the input level from the input pin
uint8_t inputLevel = (GPIO_BASE->IDR >> PIN_NUMBER) & 0x01;
```

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In this example, MODER is used to set the pin mode, ODR is used to write a high level to an output pin, and IDR is used to read the input level from an input pin. The use of offsets is implicit in the bit manipulation operations, as the specific bit position corresponds to the configuration or data for the individual pin.

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Booting a Cortex-M4 microcontroller involves several steps, and the exact process can vary depending on the specific microcontroller and the system configuration. However, I'll provide a general overview of the typical booting steps for a Cortex-M4 based microcontroller:

#### 1. Reset Vector:

- When the microcontroller is powered on or reset, the program counter (PC) is set to the address of the reset vector.
- The reset vector is a specific address in the microcontroller's memory where the initial program execution begins.

# 2. Boot ROM (Optional):

- Some microcontrollers have built-in boot ROM (Read-Only Memory) that contains a default bootloader.
- If present, the bootloader in the boot ROM may perform initial hardware configuration and then load and execute the main application from a specified location (e.g., from external flash memory).

# 3. Initialization of System Control Block (SCB):

- The Cortex-M4 core has a System Control Block (SCB) that plays a crucial role in system initialization.
- The SCB is responsible for configuring the system control and configuration registers.

#### 4. Stack Pointer and Link Register Setup:

- Set up the stack pointer (SP) to point to the initial top of the stack.
- Set up the link register (LR) with a known value, often pointing to a default handler or the main application entry point.

#### 5. Configuration of Clocks and Peripherals:

 Configure system clocks and set up peripheral devices based on the application's requirements.

#### 6. Memory Initialization:

 Initialize memory regions, such as the data and BSS (Block Started by Symbol) sections.

#### 7. Call the Main Application:

- Transfer control to the main application by branching to its entry point.
- The main application may be stored in internal or external memory, depending on the system design.

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s of my last knowledge update in January 2022, the ESP32 is a popular microcontroller and system-on-chip (SoC) designed by Espressif Systems. It's widely used in various IoT (Internet of Things) applications and projects. Please note that specifications may be subject to change, and it's always a good idea to check the official Espressif documentation for the most up-to-date information.

Here are some key specifications of the ESP32:

#### 1. Processor:

- Dual-core Tensilica LX6 microprocessor
- Clock frequency: Up to 240 MHz

# 2. Wireless Connectivity:

- Wi-Fi:
  - 802.11 b/g/n/e/i
  - Supports WPA/WPA2/WPA3
- Bluetooth:
  - Bluetooth v4.2 BR/EDR and BLE (Bluetooth Low Energy)

#### 3. **Memory:**

Internal RAM: Up to 520 KBExternal RAM: Up to 16 MB

#### 4. Storage:

- Built-in Flash: Up to 16 MB
- External storage options through SPI Flash or microSD card

#### 5. **GPIO** (General Purpose Input/Output):

• Numerous GPIO pins for interfacing with external devices and sensors

# 6. Peripherals:

- UART, SPI, I2C, I2S, PWM, ADC, DAC
- Touch sensor inputs

#### 7. Power:

- Operating Voltage: 2.2V to 3.6V
- Low-power modes for energy-efficient applications

# 8. **Operating Temperature:**

• Recommended operating temperature: -40°C to +125°C

#### 9. **Security:**

- Hardware-accelerated encryption (AES, SHA-2, RSA, ECC, etc.)
- Secure boot

#### 10.Integrated Modules:

- Temperature sensor
- Hall sensor
- Ultra-low power co-processor

# 11. Development Environment:

- Programmable using the Arduino IDE, PlatformIO, and other development environments
- Support for Espressif's ESP-IDF (IoT Development Framework)

#### 12.Form Factor:

• Various module shapes and sizes, including compact surface-mount modules

## 13. **Community Support:**

• Large and active community contributing to open-source projects

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# **Von Neumann Architecture:**

#### • Memory:

- Single unified memory space for both data and instructions.
- Instructions and data are stored in the same memory, fetched sequentially.

#### • Data Path:

• Data and instructions travel along the same bus.

# Program and Data Storage:

• Stored in the same memory unit.

## Example:

 Traditional computers, including most general-purpose computers and microcontrollers, follow the Von Neumann architecture.

#### 2. Harvard Architecture:

#### • Memory:

- Separate memory spaces for data and instructions.
- Allows simultaneous access to both data and instructions.

#### • Data Path:

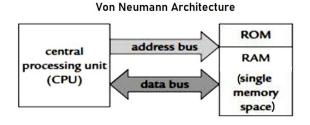
• Different buses for data and instructions, enabling parallel fetching.

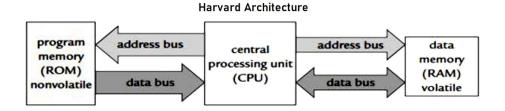
#### • Program and Data Storage:

Stored in distinct memory units.

#### Example:

• Many microcontrollers and embedded systems use Harvard architecture.





Microprocessor	Micro Controller
Read-Only Memory (ROM)  Microprocessor  System Bus  Timer  I/O Port	Microcontroller Read-Only Read-Write Memory Memory
	Timer I/O Port Serial Interface
Microprocessor is heart of Computer system.	Micro Controller is a heart of embedded system.
It is just a processor. Memory and I/O components have to be connected externally	Micro controller has external processor along with internal memory and i/O components
Since memory and I/O has to be connected externally, the circuit becomes large.	Since memory and I/O are present internally, the circuit is small.
Cannot be used in compact systems and hence inefficient	Can be used in compact systems and hence it is an efficient technique
Cost of the entire system increases	Cost of the entire system is low
Due to external components, the entire power consumption is high. Hence it is not suitable to used with devices running on stored power like batteries.	Since external components are low, total power consumption is less and can be used with devices running on stored power like batteries.
Most of the microprocessors do not have power saving features.	Most of the micro controllers have power saving modes like idle mode and power saving mode. This helps to reduce power consumption even further.
Since memory and I/O components are all external, each instruction will need external operation, hence it is relatively slower.	Since components are internal, most of the operations are internal instruction, hence speed is fast.
Microprocessor have less number of registers, hence more operations are memory based.	Micro controller have more number of registers, hence the programs are easier to write.
Microprocessors are based on von Neumann model/architecture where program and data are stored in same memory module	Micro controllers are based on Harvard architecture where program memory and Data memory are separate
Mainly used in personal computers	Used mainly in washing machine, MP3 players