

Introduction to Design (2)
Microcontroller Systems and Interfacing

Week 04
LEDs, duty cycle, and PWM

this week

passive components

- diodes
- light-emitting diodes

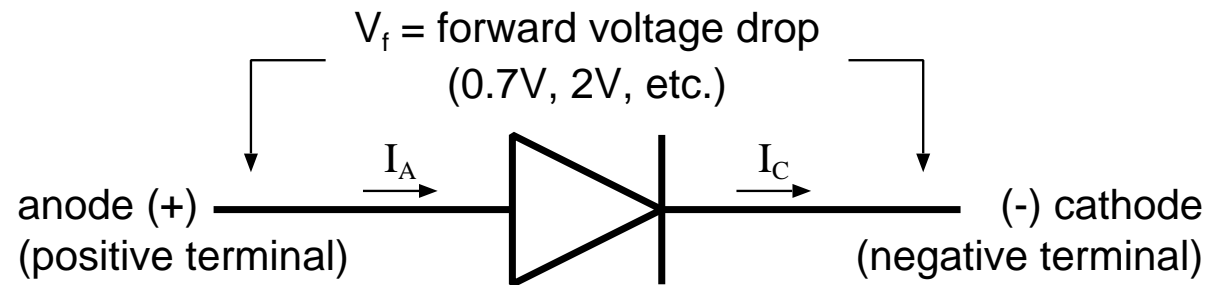
digital signals

- pulses, duty cycle, modulation

a diode conducts in only one direction

a diode

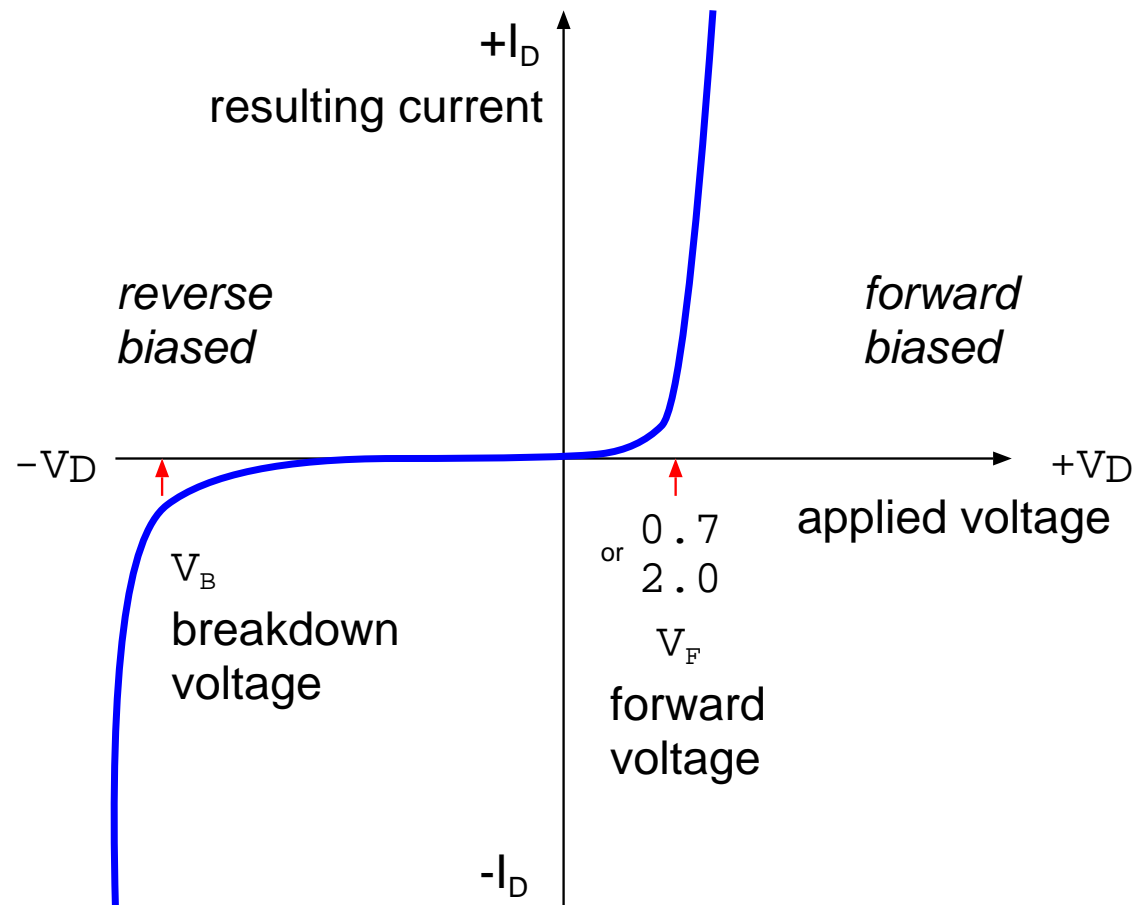
- has two terminals, the *anode* and the *cathode*
- conducts electricity in only one direction
 - when the **anode is more positive than the cathode** (*forward biased*)
- has very little (effectively zero) resistance when conducting



from anode to cathode there is a (fixed) voltage drop

- called the *forward voltage*, V_f , of the diode
- the cathode voltage V_C is V_f volts below the anode voltage V_A ; $V_C = V_A - V_f$
- V_f depends on the type of diode
 - simple diodes, $V_f \approx 0.7 \text{ V}$

characteristic voltage/current curve for diodes

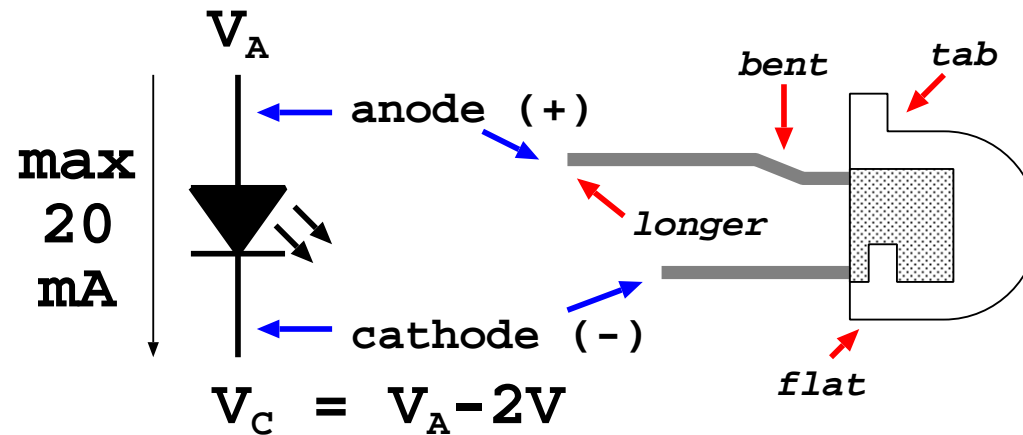


from this we see that

- the sudden conduction above V_f causes the constant forward voltage drop
- too much reverse bias causes 'breakdown' conduction (usually avoided)

light-emitting diodes

LEDs are diodes that emit light when forward biased



LED emits light when *forward biased* (anode positive, cathode negative)

- they have a higher forward voltage than other diodes: $V_f \approx 2V$
- they have a specified maximum safe current
 - too much current ($> 20\text{ mA}$) will damage the LED
 - giving them about 10 mA is perfectly safe

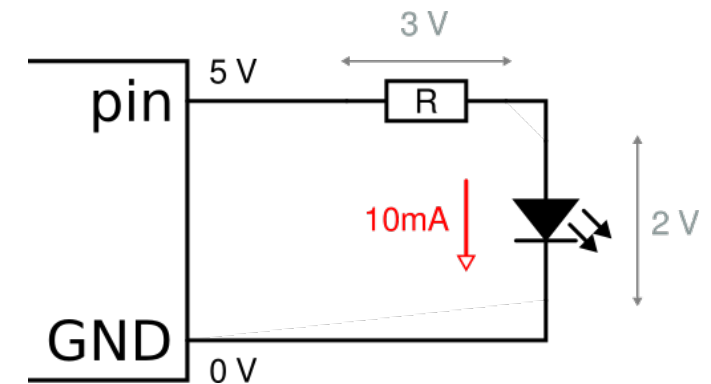
how can we prevent more than 10 mA flowing through an LED?

adding LEDs to digital outputs

as with a loudspeaker, use a *current-limiting resistor* when the LED is on

- the digital pin is at 5 V, GND is at 0 V
- 2 V is dropped across the diode (necessary for the diode to conduct)
- 3 V therefore remains to be dropped across the resistor R
- the diode has effectively zero resistance
- the total resistance of the circuit is therefore equal to R

the resistor value R can be chosen so that exactly 10 mA flows around the circuit



$$\begin{aligned}
 R &= V/I \\
 &= 3/0.01 \\
 &= 300 \Omega
 \end{aligned}$$

the next higher standard value is 330 Ω

adding LEDs to digital outputs

Arduino has one programmable LED on the board

- digital output 13

adding more LEDs is often useful

- to display more than one information (or debugging) signal
- many interesting *emission* displays are based on LEDs

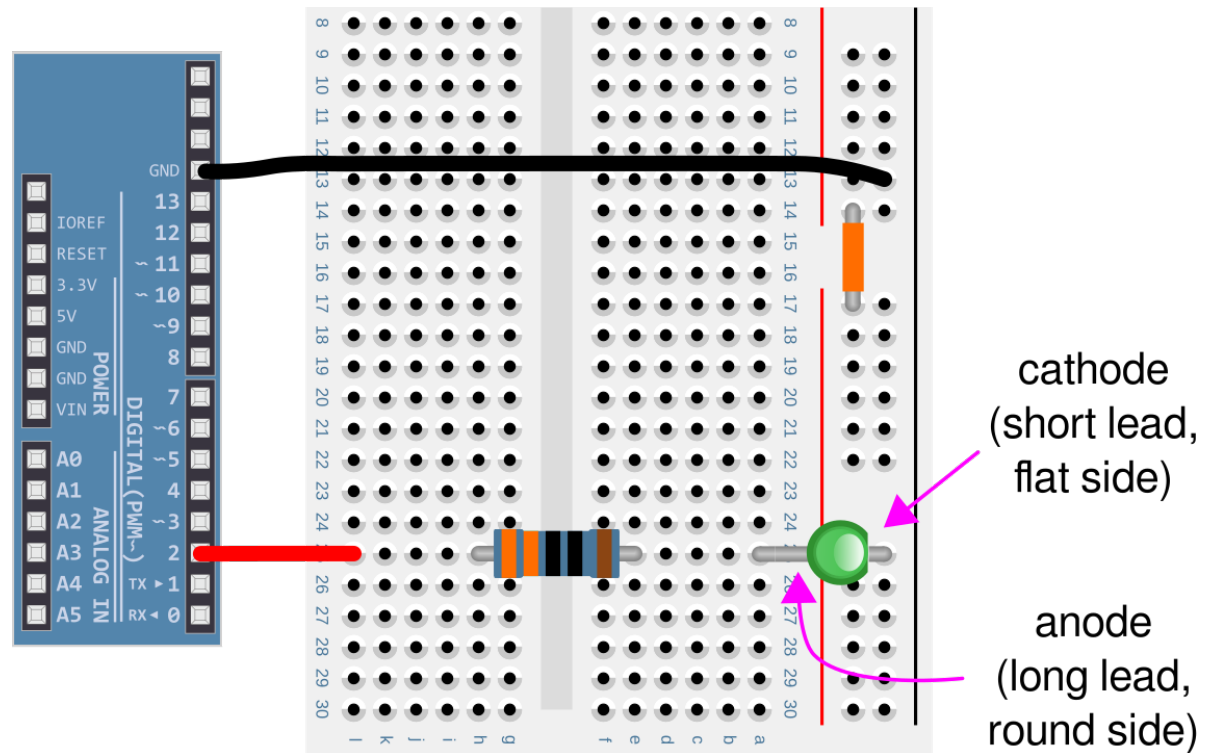
most LED applications require each LED to be connected independently

- each LED has its own digital output
- each LED has its own current-limiting resistor

we will connect LEDs starting from digital output 2

- outputs 0 and 1 are used for serial communication

one LED per digital output



```
void setup() {
  pinMode(2, OUTPUT); // not pin 13!
}
```

```
void loop() {
  digitalWrite(2, HIGH); delay(500);
  digitalWrite(2, LOW); delay(500);
}
```

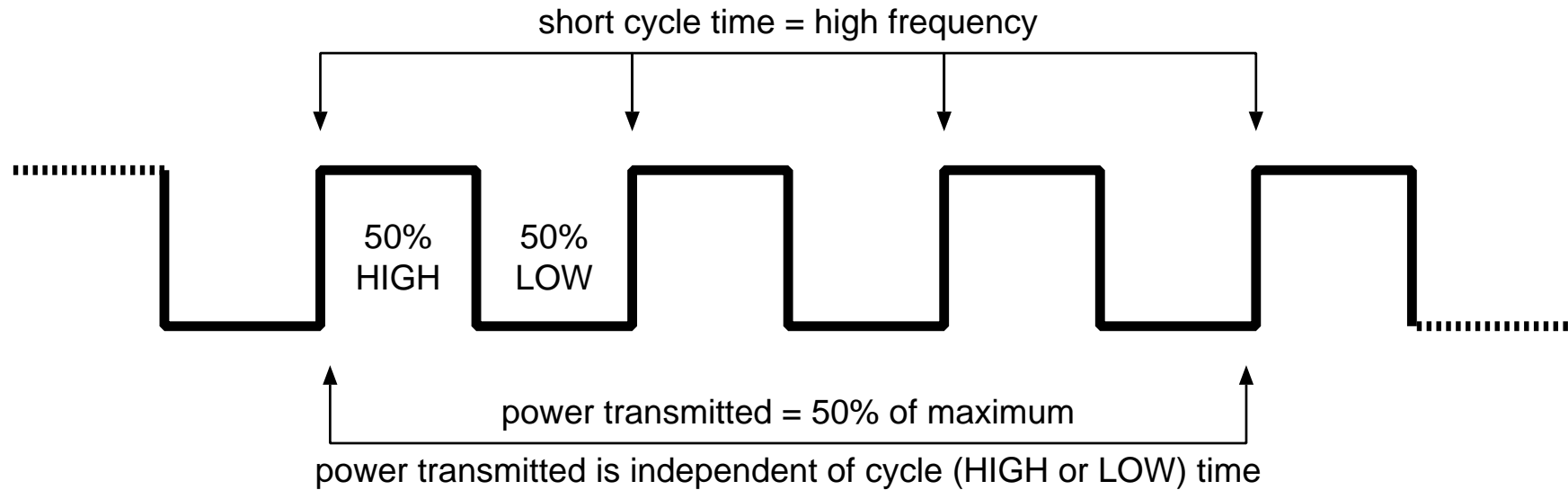
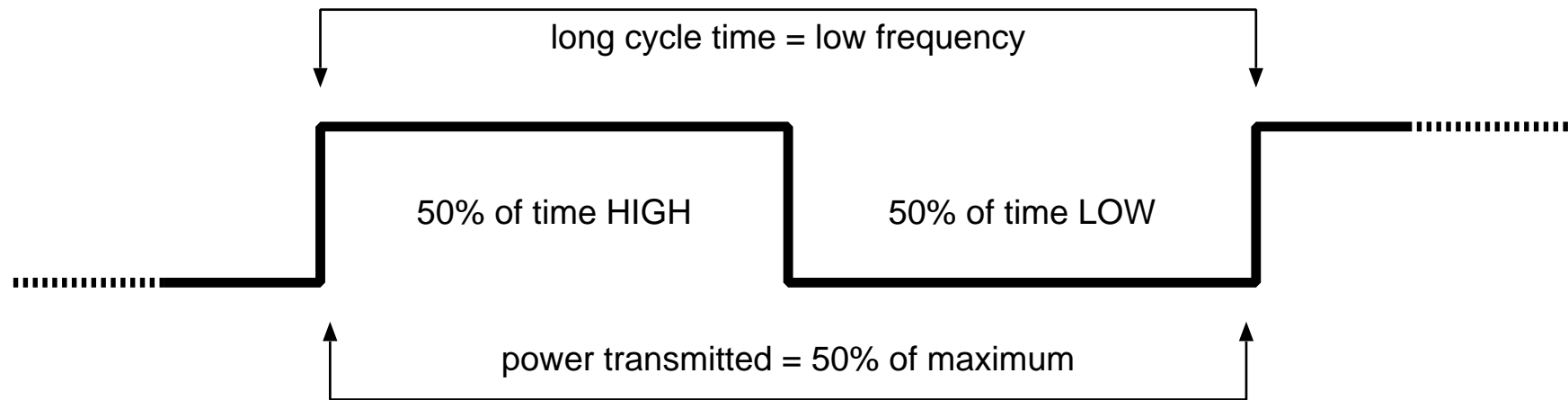

experiments

recommendation

to maximise your discovery and fun:

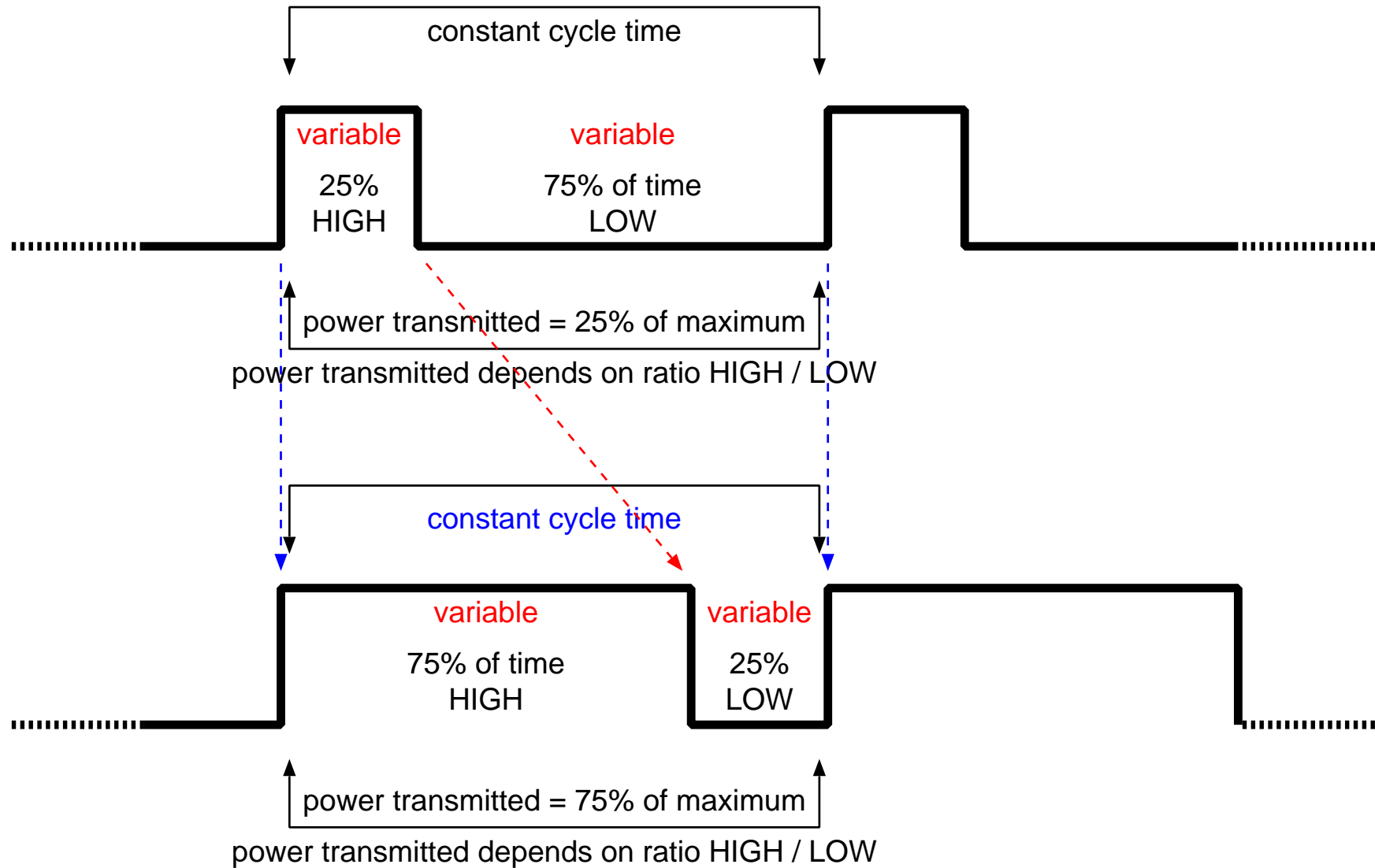
please complete as many of the lab experiments as possible
before reading the remainder of the slides

frequency depends on cycle time



power transmitted is constant, always 50% of maximum

high and low half cycles can vary from 0% to 100%



$$t_{LOW} = t_{cycle} - t_{HIGH}$$

power transmitted: 0% ($t_{HIGH} = 0, t_{LOW} = t_{cyc}$) to 100% ($t_{HIGH} = t_{cyc}, t_{LOW} = 0$)

pulse width modulation (PWM)

unequal HIGH and LOW times produce an asymmetrical signal

- the ratio $t_{\text{HIGH}}/t_{\text{cycle}}$ determines the amount of power in the signal
 - low power \Rightarrow low volume, low brightness, etc.
- expressed as a percentage, this ratio is called the *duty* of the signal

```
void loop() {
  digitalWrite(pin, HIGH);
  delayMicroseconds(highTime);
  digitalWrite(pin, LOW);
  delayMicroseconds(cycleTime - highTime);
}
```

when one signal A controls another signal B

- A modulates B

if A is desired change in power delivered by B

- A must change the duty cycle of B
- A modulates the width of the pulses in signal B
- hence *pulse width modulation*

