



**JEPPIAAR INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY**

**“Self-Belief | Self Discipline | Self Respect”**



**DEPARTMENT  
OF  
ELECTRONICS AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING**

**LECTURE NOTES  
EC8351 – ELECTRONIC CIRCUITS 1  
(Regulation 2017)**

**Year/Semester: II/03  
2021 – 2022**

**Prepared by  
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## SYLLABUS

EC8351

ELECTRONIC CIRCUITS 1

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### OBJECTIVES:

- To understand the methods of biasing transistors
- To design and analyze single stage and multistage amplifier circuits
- To analyze the frequency response of small signal amplifiers
- To design and analyze the regulated DC power supplies.
- To troubleshoot and fault analysis of power supplies

### **UNIT I BIASING OF DISCRETE BJT, JFET AND MOSFET**

BJT– Need for biasing — DC Load Line and Bias Point — DC analysis of Transistor circuits — Various biasing methods of BJT — Bias Circuit Design — Thermal stability — Stability factors — Bias compensation techniques using Diode, thermistor and sensistor — Biasing BJT Switching Circuits- JFET — DC Load Line and Bias Point — Various biasing methods of JFET — JFET Bias Circuit Design — MOSFET Biasing — Biasing FET Switching Circuits.

### **UNIT II BJT AMPLIFIERS**

Small Signal Hybrid p equivalent circuit of BJT — Early effect — Analysis of CE, CC and CB amplifiers using Hybrid p equivalent circuits — AC Load Line Analysis- Darlington Amplifier — Bootstrap technique — Cascade, Cascode configurations — Differential amplifier, Basic BJT differential pair — Small signal analysis and CMRR.

### **UNIT III SINGLE STAGE FET, MOSFET AMPLIFIERS**

Small Signal Hybrid p equivalent circuit of FET and MOSFET — Analysis of CS, CD and CG amplifiers using Hybrid p equivalent circuits — Basic FET differential pair- BiCMOS circuits.

### **UNIT IV FREQUENCY RESPONSE OF AMPLIFIERS**

Amplifier frequency response — Frequency response of transistor amplifiers with circuit capacitors — BJT frequency response — short circuit current gain — cut off frequency —  $f_a$ ,  $f_\beta$  and unity gain bandwidth — Miller effect — frequency response of FET — High frequency analysis of CE and MOSFET CS amplifier — Transistor Switching Times.

### **UNIT V POWER SUPPLIES AND ELECTRONIC DEVICE TESTING**

Linear mode power supply — Rectifiers — Filters — Half-Wave Rectifier Power Supply — Full- Wave Rectifier Power Supply — Voltage regulators: Voltage regulation — Linear series, shunt and switching Voltage Regulators — Over voltage protection — BJT and MOSFET — Switched mode power supply (SMPS) — Power Supply Performance and Testing — Troubleshooting and Fault Analysis, Design of Regulated DC Power Supply.

**TOTAL: 45 PERIODS**

### **OUTCOMES:**

After studying this course, the student should be able to:

- Acquire knowledge of ♣ Working principles, characteristics and applications of BJT and FET ♣ Frequency response characteristics of BJT and FET amplifiers
- Analyze the performance of small signal BJT and FET amplifiers - single stage and multi stage amplifiers
- Apply the knowledge gained in the design of Electronic circuits

### **TEXT BOOKS:**

1. Donald. A. Neamen, Electronic Circuits Analysis and Design, 3rd Edition, Mc Graw Hill Education (India) Private Ltd., 2010. (Unit I-IV)
2. Robert L. Boylestad and Louis Nasheresky, —Electronic Devices and Circuit Theory, 11th Edition, Pearson Education, 2013. (Unit V)

### **REFERENCES**

1. Millman J, Halkias.C.and Sathyabrada Jit, Electronic Devices and Circuits, 4<sup>th</sup> Edition, Mc Graw Hill Education (India) Private Ltd., 2015.
2. Salivahanan and N. Suresh Kumar, Electronic Devices and Circuits, 4<sup>th</sup> Edition, , Mc Graw Hill Education (India) Private Ltd., 2017.
3. Floyd, Electronic Devices, Ninth Edition, Pearson Education, 2012.
4. David A. Bell, Electronic Devices & Circuits, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, Oxford University Press, 2008.
5. Anwar A. Khan and Kanchan K. Dey, A First Course on Electronics, PHI, 2006.
6. Rashid M, Microelectronics Circuits, Thomson Learning, 2007

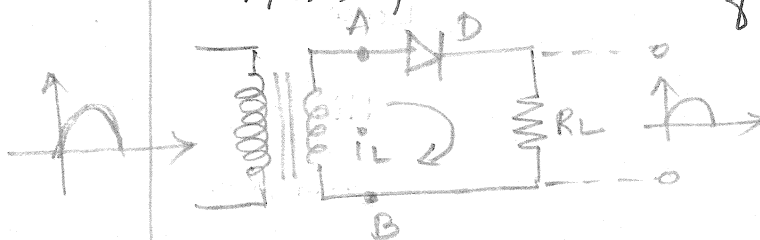
(i) Half Wave Rectifier! - ELECTRONIC DEVICE TESTING (3)

Introduction:- This Rectifier circuit consists of Resistive load, Rectifying element (i.e) P-N Junction diode and source of a.c Voltage, all connected in series. To obtain the desired d.c Voltage across the Load, a.c Voltage is applied to Rectifier circuit using suitable Step-up (or) Step-down Transformer.

$$e = E_{sm} \sin \omega t, \quad \omega = 2\pi f.$$

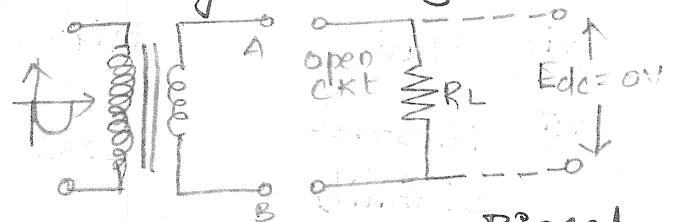
No. turns Ratio:-  $\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{E_{sm}}{E_{pm}}$

$E_{sm}, P_m \rightarrow$  Peak Value of Secondary & primary a.c Voltage.



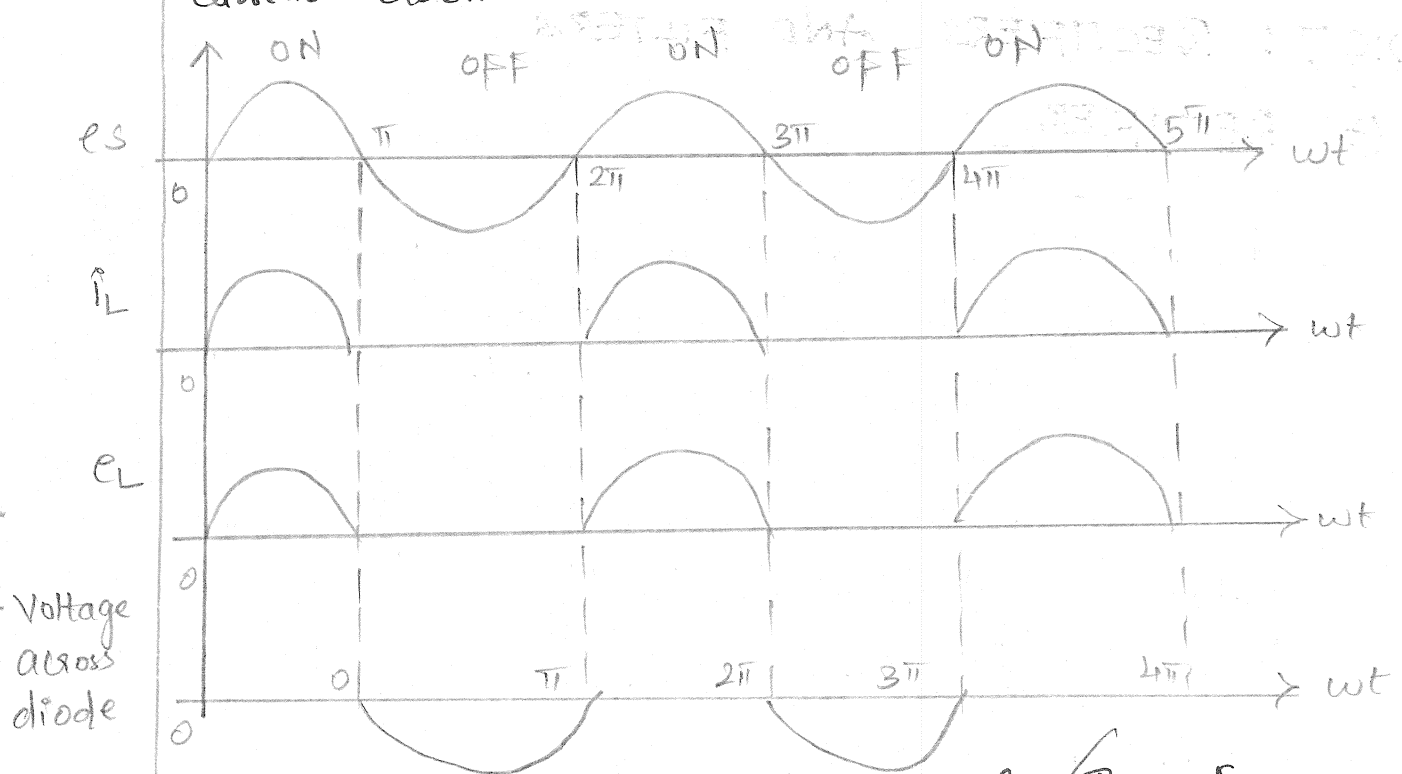
Fig(a): Forward Biased

Operation:- +ve Half cycle  
A becomes +ve with B  
Diode - Forward Biased  
Current - Clockwise direction



Fig(b): Reverse Biased.

-ve Half cycle.  
A is -ve with B  
Diode - Reverse Biased  
Current - No current flows.



Peak Value of Load current is given by,  $I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_L + R_s}$

$R_L \rightarrow$  Resistance of secondary winding of transformer  
 $R_f \rightarrow$  forward Resistance of diode

i) Average (or) d.c. Value of Load current ( $I_{DC}$ ):

$$i_L = I_m \sin \omega t, \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi,$$

$$i_L = 0, \quad \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi$$

$$I_{DC} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_L d(\omega t)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

As No current flows during -ve Half cycle (i.e)  $\omega t = \pi$  to  $2\pi$

$$I_{DC} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t \cdot d\omega t$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2\pi} [-\cos \omega t]_0^{\pi}$$

$$I_{DC} = \frac{I_m}{2\pi} [-(-1) - (-1)]$$

$$\therefore I_{DC} = \frac{I_m}{\pi}$$

ii) Average d.c. Load Voltage ( $E_{DC}$ ):

$$E_{DC} = I_{DC} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow \frac{I_m}{\pi} \cdot R_L$$

$$E_{DC} = \frac{E_{sm}}{(R_f + R_L + R_s)\pi} \cdot R_L$$

$$\therefore E_{DC} = \frac{E_{sm}}{\pi} \quad (R_s, R_f \rightarrow \text{Small Neglected})$$

iii) RMS Value of Load current ( $I_{RMS}$ ):

$$I_{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (I_m \sin \omega t)^2 d\omega t}$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \left( \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) d\omega t}$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{\omega t}{2} - \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{4} \right]_0^{\pi}}$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)} \Rightarrow \frac{I_m}{2} \dots \sin(2\pi)$$

$$= \sin(0) = 0$$

$$I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{2}, \quad E_L(RMS) = I_{RMS} \cdot R_L$$

$$E_L(RMS) = E_{sm}/2$$

iv) D.c. power output ( $P_{DC}$ ):

$$P_{DC} = E_{DC} \cdot I_{DC} \Rightarrow I_{DC}^2 R_L$$

$$P_{DC} = I_{DC}^2 R_L = \left[ \frac{I_m}{\pi} \right]^2 R_L$$

$$= \frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow \frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} \cdot R_L$$

$$P_{DC} = \frac{E_{sm}^2 R_L}{\pi^2 [R_f + R_L + R_s]^2}$$

v) A.c. power Input ( $P_{AC}$ ):

$$P_{AC} = I_{RMS}^2 [R_L + R_f + R_s]$$

$$I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{2}$$

$$P_{AC} = \frac{I_m^2}{4} [R_L + R_f + R_s]$$

vi) Rectifier Efficiency:

$$\eta = \frac{P_{DC}}{P_{AC}} \Rightarrow \frac{\text{D.c o/p Power}}{\text{A.c i/p power}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} R_L}{\frac{I_m^2}{4} [R_f + R_L + R_s]} \Rightarrow \left( \frac{4}{\pi^2} \right) \frac{R_L}{(R_f + R_L + R_s)}$$

$$\div R_L \Rightarrow \eta = \frac{0.406}{1 + \left( \frac{R_f + R_s}{R_L} \right)}$$

$$\% \eta_{max} = 0.406 \times 100 \Rightarrow 40.6\%$$

( $\because R_f + R_s \ll R_L$ )

vii) Ripple factor:

Output of halfwave rectifier is not pure d.c but pulsating d.c. The output contains pulsating components called ripples.

The Measure of ripples present in the output is with the help of a factor called ripple factor, denoted by  $\gamma$ .

Smaller the ripple factor closer is the output to a pure d.c.

Ripple factor - It is defined as the Ratio of R.M.S Value of the a.c Component in the output to the Average or d.c Component present in the output.

Ripple factor

$$\gamma = \frac{\text{R.M.S. Value of a.c Component of output}}{\text{Average (or) d.c Component of output}}$$

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{I_{ac}^2 + I_{dc}^2}$$

$$I_{ac} = \sqrt{I_{rms}^2 - I_{dc}^2}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}} \Rightarrow \frac{\sqrt{I_{rms}^2 - I_{dc}^2}}{I_{dc}}$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\left(\frac{I_m}{2}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{I_m}{\pi}\right)^2} - 1} \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{I_m^2}{4} - 1}$$

$\gamma$  is very High.

(viii) Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV)

It is the peak voltage across the diode in the reverse direction (ie) when the diode is reverse biased. This is called PIV rating of a diode.

PIV of diode =  $E_{sm}$  for Half wave rectifier

(ix) Voltage Regulation:-

$$\% \text{ Voltage Regulation} = \frac{(V_{dc})_{NL} - (V_{dc})_{FL}}{(V_{dc})_{FL}} \times 100.$$

$$(V_{dc})_{NL} = \frac{E_{sm}}{\pi}$$

$$(V_{dc})_{FL} = I_{DC} \cdot R_L = \frac{I_m}{\pi} \cdot R_L$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E_{sm}}{\pi [R_f + R_s + R_L]} \times R_L \quad (5)$$

$$\% R = \frac{\frac{E_{sm}}{\pi} - \frac{E_{sm}}{\pi} \cdot \frac{R_L}{(R_f + R_s + R_L)}}{\frac{E_{sm}}{\pi} \cdot \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_s + R_L}} \times 100$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_s + R_L} \times 100$$

$$\frac{R_L}{R_f + R_s + R_L}$$

$$\% R = \frac{R_f + R_s}{R_L} \times 100.$$

(x) Transformer Utilization factor (T.U.F) :-

T.U.F = D.c power delivered to the Load

A.c. Power rating of the transformer

$$P_{dc} = I_{DC}^2 R_L \Rightarrow \left(\frac{I_m}{\pi}\right)^2 R_L.$$

A.c power rating of transformer.

$$= E_{rms} \cdot I_{rms} \Rightarrow \frac{E_{sm}}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{E_{sm} I_m}{2}$$

$$T.U.F = \frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{R_L \cdot 2\sqrt{2}}{I_m^2 R_L} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\pi^2}$$

$$T.U.F = 0.287$$

(xi) Advantages:-

- a) only one diode is sufficient
- b) CKT is easy to design
- c) No centre tap on transformer is necessary.

(xii) Disadvantages:-

- a) Ripple factor of HWR CKT is 1.21, which is high
- b) Max. rectification efficiency is 40%, which is low
- c) T.U.F is low showing that transformer is not fully utilise

(ii)

## FULL WAVE RECTIFIER:-

Introduction:- It conducts during both positive and negative half cycles of input a.c. input, two diodes are used in this circuit.

The diodes feed a common load  $R_L$  with the help of a centre tap transformer. The a.c. voltage is applied through a suitable power transformer with proper turns ratio.

Operation:- (+ve) Half cycle

A is +ve w. B is -ve.

(Conduct) Diode  $D_1 \rightarrow$  forward biased

(Not conduct) Diode  $D_2 \rightarrow$  Reverse Biased

open ckt.

(-ve) Half cycle.

A is -ve w. B is +ve.

(Conduct) Diode  $D_2 \rightarrow$  forward Biased

(Not conduct) Diode  $D_1 \rightarrow$  Reverse Biased

"Load current flows in both the half cycles of ac voltage and in the same direction through the Load resistance".

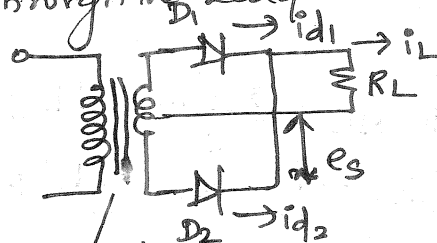
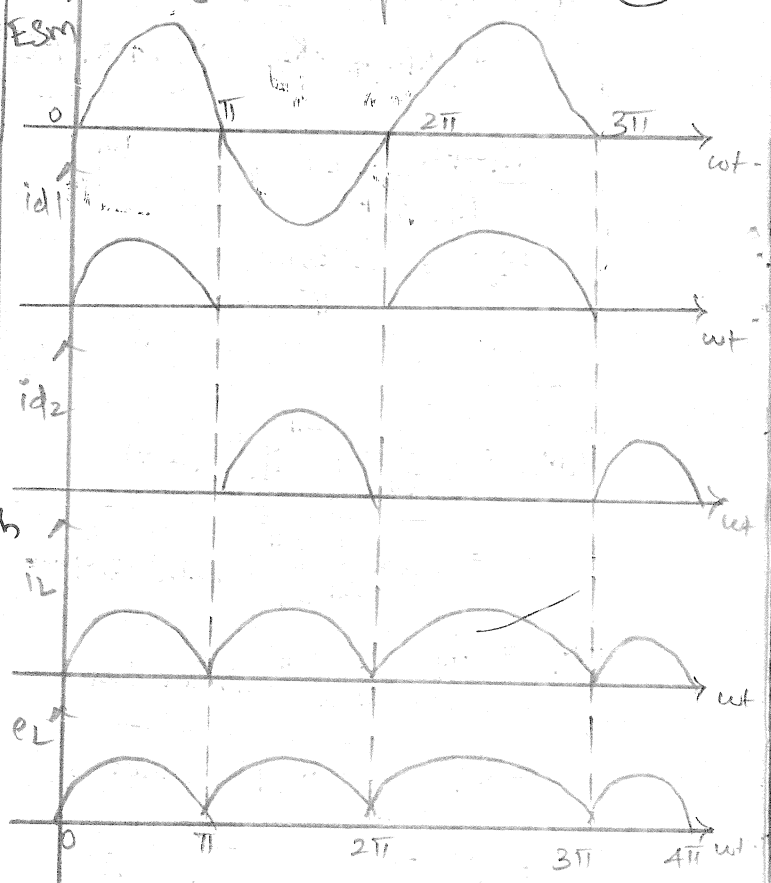


Fig (Full wave Rectifier).  
Centre tap transformer

The output load current is still pulsating d.c and not pure d.c.

Fig: Waveforms



(i) Maximum Load current:-

$$I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_s + R_f + R_L}$$

$R_f \rightarrow$  Forward Resistance

$R_s \rightarrow$  Winding Resistance

$I_m \rightarrow$  Maximum Load current

$E_{sm} \rightarrow$  Max. Value of a.c i/p Voltage of Secondary

(ii) D.C. Load current:-

$$i_L = I_m \sin \omega t, \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$$

$$I_{AV} = I_{DC} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} i_L d(\omega t) \Rightarrow$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t d\omega t$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\pi} [-\cos \omega t]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\pi} [1 - (-1)] \Rightarrow \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$$

(iii) Average DC Load Voltage ( $E_{DC}$ ):-

$$E_{DC} = I_{DC} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow \frac{2 \cdot I_m R_L}{\pi}$$

$$E_{dc} = \frac{2 E_{sm} R_L}{\pi [R_f + R_s + R_L]} = \frac{2 E_{sm}}{\pi \left[ 1 + \frac{R_f + R_s}{R_L} \right]}$$

$$\frac{R_f + R_s}{R_L} \ll 1$$

$$E_{dc} = \frac{2 E_{sm}}{\pi}$$

(vi) RMS Load current ( $I_{RMS}$ ):

$$I_{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_L^2 d(\omega t)}$$

$$= \sqrt{2 \times \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin(\omega t)^2 d\omega t}$$

$$I_{RMS} = I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 \omega t d\omega t}$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \left( \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) d\omega t}$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} \right]} \Rightarrow \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$E_L(RMS) = I_{RMS} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow \frac{I_m \cdot R_L}{\sqrt{2}}$$

(v) DC power output ( $P_{dc}$ ):

$$P_{dc} = \left( \frac{2 I_m}{\pi} \right)^2 R_L \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{4}{\pi^2} \frac{E_{sm}^2}{(R_s + R_f + R_L)} \times R_L$$

$$P_{dc} = \frac{4}{\pi^2} I_m^2 R_L$$

(v) Ac power Input ( $P_{ac}$ ):

$$P_{ac} = I_{RMS}^2 [R_f + R_s + R_L]$$

$$\left( \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 (R_f + R_s + R_L) \Rightarrow I_m^2 \frac{(R_f + R_s + R_L)}{2}$$

$$\therefore P_{ac} = \frac{E_{sm}^2}{(R_f + R_s + R_L)^2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times (R_f + R_s + R_L)$$

$$P_{ac} = \frac{E_{sm}^2}{2 (R_f + R_s + R_L)}$$

(vi) Rectifier Efficiency ( $\eta$ ):

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc} \text{ output}}{P_{ac} \text{ input}} = \frac{4 I_m^2 R_L}{\pi^2 I_m^2 (R_f + R_s + R_L)}$$

$$\eta = \frac{8 R_L}{\pi^2 [R_f + R_s + R_L]}, \quad R_f + R_s \ll R_L$$

$$\eta = \frac{8 R_L}{\pi^2 (R_L)} \Rightarrow \frac{8}{\pi^2} \times 100 = 81.2\%$$

(vii) Ripple factor:

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\left( \frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}} \right)^2 - 1}$$

$$I_{rms} = I_m / \sqrt{2}, \quad I_{dc} = 2 I_m / \pi$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\left( \frac{I_m / \sqrt{2}}{2 I_m / \pi} \right)^2 - 1} \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2}{8} - 1}$$

$$\gamma = 0.48$$

(viii) Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV):

$$PIV \text{ of diode} = 2 E_{sm}$$

(ix) Ripple frequency:

$$i_L = i_{d1} + i_{d2}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_m \left[ \frac{2}{\pi} - \frac{4}{3\pi} \cos 2\omega t - \frac{4}{15\pi} \cos 4\omega t \right]$$

Ripple freq in FWR is  $2f$  Hz.

(x) Voltage Regulation:

$$(V_{dc})_{NL} = \frac{2 E_{sm}}{\pi}, \quad (V_{dc})_{FL} = I_{dc} \cdot R_L$$

$$\% R = \frac{(V_{dc})_{NL} - (V_{dc})_{FL}}{(V_{dc})_{FL}} \times 100$$

$$\% R = \frac{2 E_{sm} - I_{dc} R_L}{I_{dc} R_L} \times 100$$

$$I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_s + R_L}$$

$$E_{sm} = I_m [R_f + R_s + R_L]$$

$$I_{dc} = \frac{2 I_m}{\pi}$$



$$\% R = \frac{\frac{2I_m}{\pi} [R_F + R_L + R_S] - \frac{2I_m R_L \times 100}{\pi}}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{2I_m}{\pi} R_L}{R_F + R_L + R_S - R_L} \times 100$$

$$\% R = \frac{R_F + R_S}{R_L} \times 100$$

$$\% R = \frac{R_F}{R_L} \times 100 \quad (\because R_S \text{ is small Neglect})$$

(xi) Transformer Utilization factor

(T.U.F):-

$$\text{Secondary T.U.F} = \frac{\text{D.C power to the load}}{\text{A.C. power Rating of Secondary}}$$

$$= \frac{I_{DC}^2 R_L}{E_{RMS} I_{RMS}} \Rightarrow \frac{\left(\frac{2}{\pi} I_m\right)^2 R_L}{\frac{E_{sm}}{\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}}$$

$$E_{sm} = I_m R_L$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\frac{4}{\pi^2} \times I_m^2 R_L}{\frac{I_m^2 R_L}{2}} \Rightarrow \frac{8}{\pi^2} = 0.812$$

T.U.F of Hw circuit to be equals 0.287.

T.U.F of primary winding = 2 x T.U.F of Hw ckt

$$\Rightarrow 2 \times 0.287 \Rightarrow 0.574$$

AVG T.U.F = T.U.F of primary + T.U.F of Secondary

$$= \frac{0.574 + 0.812}{2} = 0.693$$

(xii) Advantages:-

- D.C Load Voltage and current are more than Hw.
- No D.C current through transformer windings
- T.U.F is better as transformer losses are less.
- Efficiency is higher
- Ripple factor is less
- D.C power output

(xiii) Disadvantages:-

- Cost of centre tap transformer is higher.
- Higher PIV diodes are larger in size and costlier
- PIV rating of diode is higher.

(iii) Bridge Rectifier:-

It is essentially a full-wave rectifier circuit using four diodes forming the four arms of an electrical bridge.

→ To one diagonal of the bridge, the ac voltage is applied through a transformer if necessary, and the rectified dc voltage is taken from the other diagonal of the bridge.

→ Main Advantage of this ckt is that it does not require a centre tap on secondary winding of the transformer.

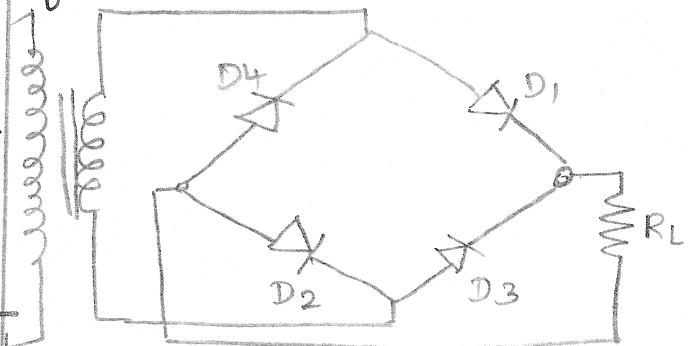


Fig:- Bridge Rectifier.

Operation:- +ve Half of a.c input voltage, A → +ve.

Diode D1 & D2 → forward biased

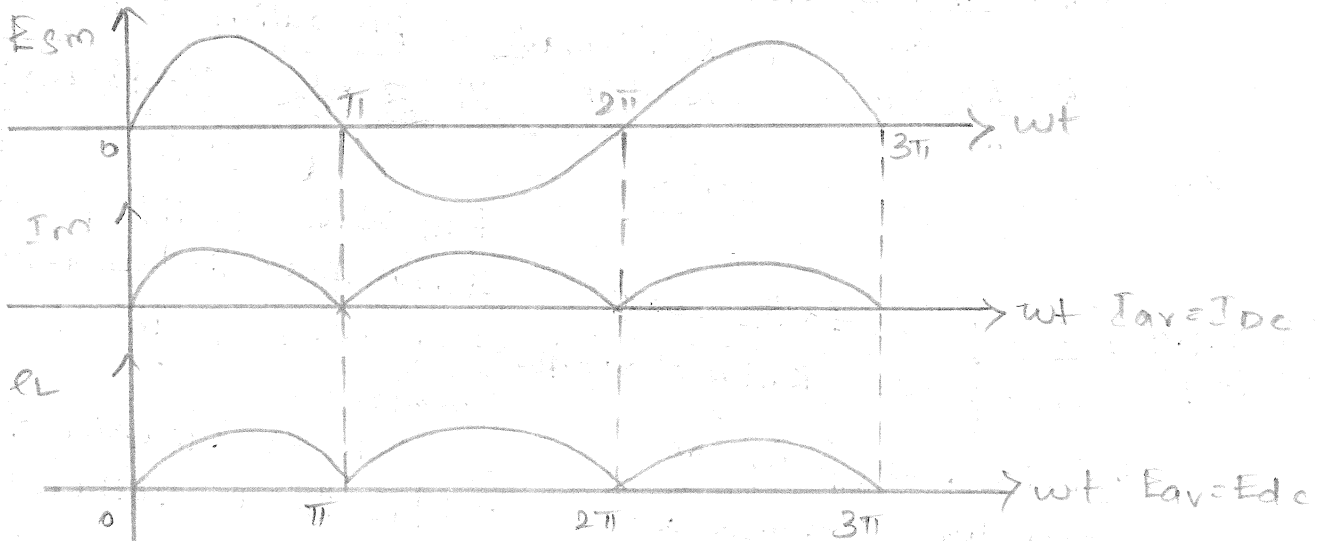
Diode D3 & D4 → Reverse biased

D1 & D2 → EASY ENGINEERING SERIES With Load & Current

In Negative Half cycle,

$B \rightarrow +ve$ ,  $D_3$  &  $D_4$  Diode - forward biased  
 $D_1$  &  $D_2$  Diode - Reverse biased.

Diode  $D_3$  &  $D_4$  conduct in series with Load & current.



(i) Maximum Load current:

$$I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_s + 2R_f + R_L}$$

$$E_{dc} = I_{dc} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow \frac{2E_{sm}}{\pi}$$

$$E_{rms} = \frac{I_m R_L}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow \frac{E_{sm}}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot R_L$$

$$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L \Rightarrow \frac{4}{\pi^2} I_m^2 R_L$$

$$P_{ac} = I_{rms}^2 [R_s + 2R_f + R_L] \\ = I_m^2 \left[ \frac{2R_f + R_s + R_L}{2} \right]$$

$$\eta = \frac{8R_L}{\pi^2 [R_s + 2R_f + R_L]}$$

$$\% \eta_{max} = 81.2 \%$$

$$\gamma = 0.48 \quad T.U.F = 0.812$$

(ii) Advantages:-

- No centre tap is required in the transformer secondary.
- Transformer gets utilized effectively.
- As 2 diodes conduct in series in each half cycle, inverse voltage appearing across diode get shared. Ekt for High Voltage application.
- current in both primary & secondary of power transformer flows for entire cycle & hence for a given power output, power transformer of small size & less cost.

(iii) Applications:- In power supply circuits, In Rectifier type Meter to convert a.c voltage to be measured to d.c, used as rectifier in power circuits to convert a.c to d.c.

Ques:- (x) Explain the Working of Bridge Rectifier. Derive the expression for R.M.S. Current, Pwr, Ripple factor. EASYLEARNING.NE (16m)

- (\*) What are the Adv & Dis Adv of Bridge Rectifier. (6m)
- (\*) Derive the expression for the Rectification efficiency, Ripple factor, Transformer Utilization factor, Form factor and peak factor of Halfwave Rectifier. (8m)
- (\*) Draw and explain the working of Halfwave Rectifier (6m)
- (\*) Draw and explain the working of Full wave Rectifier & derive all the parameters. (6+10m).

Ans: [Above].  
[May-10, Dec-11, Dec-02, Dec-06, May-12, May-14]

S.No	Parameter	Half wave	Full wave	Bridge Rectifier
1.	No. of diodes	1	2	4
2.	Ripple frequency	50 Hz	100 Hz	100 Hz
3.	PIV rating of diode	$E_{sm}$	$2 E_{sm}$	$E_{sm}$
4.	Avg D.C current ( $I_{dc}$ )	$\frac{I_m}{\pi}$	$\frac{2 I_m}{\pi}$	$\frac{2 I_m}{\pi}$
5.	Avg D.C Voltage ( $E_{dc}$ )	$\frac{E_{sm}}{\pi}$	$\frac{2 E_{sm}}{\pi}$	$\frac{2 E_{sm}}{\pi}$
6.	R.M.S current ( $I_{rms}$ )	$\frac{I_m}{2}$	$\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$
7.	D.C power output ( $P_{dc}$ )	$\frac{I_m^2 R_L}{\pi^2}$	$\frac{4}{\pi^2} I_m^2 R_L$	$\frac{4}{\pi^2} I_m^2 R_L$
8.	T.U.F	0.287	0.693	0.812
9.	A.C power output $P_{ac}$	$\frac{I_m^2 (R_L + R_S + R_F)}{4}$	$\frac{I_m^2 (R_L + R_S + R_L)}{2}$	$\frac{I_m^2 (R_L + R_S + R_L)}{2}$
10.	Maximum rectifier efficiency ( $\eta$ )	40.6%	81.2%	81.2%
11.	Maximum Load current ( $I_m$ )	$\frac{E_{sm}}{R_S + R_F + R_L}$	$\frac{E_{sm}}{R_S + R_F + R_L}$	$\frac{E_{sm}}{R_S + 2R_F + R_L}$
12.	Ripple factor ( $\gamma$ )	1.21	0.482	0.482

Qun:- Compare all the parameters with the Bridge, Full Wave, Half wave Rectifier. (6m)

Ans: [Above].

## Problems [Rectifier]

(70) A  $5k\Omega$  load is fed from a Bridge Rectifier connected across a transformer secondary supply. The ratio of No. of primary turns to secondary turns is 2:1. Calculate d.c. load current, d.c. load voltage, ripple voltage and P.I.V. rating of diode.

Given:  $R_L = 5k\Omega$ ,  $N_1:N_2 = 2:1$ ,  $E_p = 460$

i)  $E_s$ :-  $\frac{E_s}{E_p} = \frac{N_2}{N_1} \Rightarrow E_s = 230V$

ii)  $E_{sm}$ :-  $E_{sm} = \sqrt{2} \times E_s = 325.269V$

iii)  $I_{DC}$ :-  $I_{DC} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$ ,  $I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_L}$   
 $\therefore I_{DC} = 41.41mA$

iv)  $E_{DC}$ :-  $E_{DC} = I_{DC} \times R_L \Rightarrow 207.07V$

v) Ripple factor:-  $r_p \times V_{DC} \Rightarrow 0.482 \times V_{DC}$   
 $\Rightarrow 99.8V$

vi) P.I.V.:-  $P.I.V. = E_{sm}$  of Bridge  
 $= 325.25V$

(71) A Bridge Rectifier is applied with input from a step down transformer having turns ratio 8:1 and input 230V, 50Hz. If the  $R_f = 1\Omega$ ,  $R_s = 10\Omega$  and  $R_L = 2k\Omega$ . find

- (1) DC power output
- (2) P.I.V across each diode
- (3) % efficiency
- (4) % regulation at full load.

Solo:-  $E_p(rms) = 230V$ ,  $\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{1}{8}$ ,  $R_f = 1\Omega$ ,  
 $R_s = 10\Omega$ ,  $R_L = 2k\Omega$ .

i)  $\frac{E_p(rms)}{E_s(rms)} = \frac{8}{1} \Rightarrow E_s(rms) = 28.7V$

ii)  $E_{sm} = \sqrt{2} E_s(rms) = 40.6586V$

iii)  $I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{2R_f + R_s + R_L} = \frac{40.6586}{2 \times 1 + 10 + 2 \times 10^3}$

iv)  $I_{DC} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = 12.859mA$

(1)  $P_{DC} = I_{DC}^2 R_L \Rightarrow (12.859 \times 10^{-3})^2 \times 2 \times 10^3 \Rightarrow 0.3307W$

(2)  $P.I.V. = E_{sm} = 40.6586V$

(3)  $P_{AC} = (I_{rms})^2 (2R_f + R_s + R_L)$   
 $= \left(\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 (2R_f + R_s + R_L)$   
 $= \left(\frac{20.2 \times 10^{-3}}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 (2012) \Rightarrow 0.410W$

(4)  $\% \eta = \frac{P_{DC} \times 100}{P_{AC}} \Rightarrow 80.56\%$

(5)  $V_{DC}$  on No Load =  $\frac{2E_{sm}}{\pi} = 25.8846V$

$V_{DC}$  on full load =  $I_{DC} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow 25.718V$

% Regulation =  $\frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100$   
 $= 0.645\%$

(72) A Full Wave Rectifier is fed from a transformer having a centre tapped secondary winding. The rms. voltage from either end of secondary to centre tap is 20V. If the diode forward resistance is  $3\Omega$  and that of half secondary is  $5\Omega$ , for a load of  $1k\Omega$ . Calculate -  $R_L = 1k\Omega$

Solo:-  $E_s = 20V$ ,  $R_f = 3\Omega$ ,  $R_s = 5\Omega$

i)  $E_{sm} = E_s \times \sqrt{2} = 20\sqrt{2} = 28.2843V$

ii)  $I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_s + R_L} = \frac{28.2843}{3 + 5 + 1000} = 28.06 \text{ mA}$

iii)  $I_{DC} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 28.06}{\pi} = 17.8634 \text{ mA}$

(i) Power delivered on Load:-  
 $= I_{DC}^2 R_L \Rightarrow [17.8634 \times 10^{-3}]^2 \times 100$   
 $= 0.3191W$

(ii) % Regulation at full load:-  
 $V_{NL} = \frac{2}{\pi} E_{sm} \Rightarrow \frac{2}{\pi} \times 28.2843 = 18V$

$V_{FL} = I_{DC} R_L \Rightarrow 17.8634 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000$   
 $= 17.8634V$

% Regulation =  $\frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100$   
 $= \frac{18 - 17.8634}{17.8634} \times 100 \Rightarrow 0.8\%$

(iii) Efficiency EASYLEARNING

$$\% \eta = \frac{D.C. \text{ o/p}}{A.C. \text{ i/p}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{8}{\pi^2} \times \frac{1}{1 + \frac{R_f + R_s}{R_L}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{8}{\pi^2} \times \frac{1}{1 + \frac{(3+5)}{1 \times 10^3}} \times 100 = 80.413\%$$

(iv) TUF of Secondary :-

$$= E_{rms} \cdot I_{rms} \Rightarrow 20 \times \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{20 \times 28.06 \times 10^{-3}}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.3968W$$

$$\therefore TUF = \frac{DC \text{ power o/p}}{A.C. \text{ Rating}} = \frac{0.3191}{0.3968} = 0.8041$$

$$I_{DC} = \frac{I_m}{\pi} = \frac{0.1525}{\pi} = 48.54A$$

$$E_{DC} = I_{DC} \times R_L \text{ on full load} \quad (20)$$

$$= 0.04854 \times 1000 \Rightarrow 58.54V.$$

$$\eta = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \times \frac{1}{\left[1 + \frac{R_f}{R_L}\right]} = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \times \frac{1}{\left(1 + \frac{20}{1000}\right)}$$

$$\eta = 0.3973 \Rightarrow 39.73\%$$

(i) Ripple Factor :- = 1.21 as HWR.

(ii) % Regulation from No Load to full Load :-

No Load d.c. Voltage,  $(E_{DC})_{NL} = \frac{E_{sm}}{\pi}$

$$= \frac{155.563}{\pi} = 49.5172V$$

$$\therefore \text{Voltage Regulation} = \frac{(E_{DC})_{NL} - (E_{DC})_{FL}}{(E_{DC})_{FL}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{49.5172 - 48.54}{48.54} \times 100 = 2.013\%$$

(73) In a full wave rectifier a signal of 300V at 50Hz is applied at the input. Each diode has an internal resistance of 800Ω. If the load is 2000Ω. Calculate

Soln:-  
Assume entire tap IR.

(i)  $E_{sm} = \sqrt{2} E_s(RMS) = 300\sqrt{2} V$

$$I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_L} = \frac{300\sqrt{2}}{800 + 2000} = 0.1515A$$

(ii)  $I_{DC} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 0.1515}{\pi} = 96.46 \text{ mA}$

(iii)  $P_{DC} = I_{DC}^2 R_L \Rightarrow [96.46 \times 10^{-3}]^2 \times 2000$

$$= 18.61W.$$

$$I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{0.1515}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.10712A$$

$$P_{AC} = I_{RMS}^2 (R_f + R_L)$$

$$= (0.10712)^2 \times 2800 = 32.13W$$

$$\% \eta = \frac{P_{DC}}{P_{AC}} \times 100 = \frac{18.61}{32.13} \times 100$$

$$\% \eta = 57.9152\%$$

(75) A step down transformer having turns ratio 10:1 and input 230V, 50Hz is used in a half-wave rectifier. The diode forward resistance is 150ohms. and resistance of secondary winding is 10ohms. for a load resistance of 4kohms, calculate avg and rms value of load current and voltage, rectification efficiency and ripple factor.

Soln:-  $N_1 : N_2 = 10 : 1$   $R_f = 15\Omega$ ,  $R_s = 10\Omega$

$$R_L = 4K\Omega$$

$$E_p(RMS) = 230V.$$

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{E_p(RMS)}{E_s(RMS)} \text{ (i.e.) } \frac{10}{1} = \frac{230}{E_s(RMS)}$$

$$\therefore E_{sm} = E_s(RMS) \times \sqrt{2} = 23 \times \sqrt{2}$$

$$= 32.5269V$$

$$\therefore I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_s + R_L} = \frac{32.5269}{15 + 10 + 4 \times 10^3} = 8.0812 \text{ mA}$$

$$\therefore I_{AV} = I_{DC} = \frac{I_m}{\pi} = \frac{8.0812}{\pi} = 2.5723 \text{ mA}$$

$$\therefore I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{2} \text{ (Half wave)} = \frac{8.0812}{2} = 4.0406 \text{ mA}$$

$$\therefore E_{DC} = I_{DC} \cdot R_L = 2.5723 \times 10^{-3} \times 4 \times 10^3$$

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$$E_{RMS} = R.M.S. \text{ Value of o/p Voltage}$$

$$\gamma = 1.21 = I_{RMS} \cdot R_L \Rightarrow 16.1621V$$

(74) A Diode has an internal resistance is 20Ω load from a 110V r.m.s source of supply calculate

Soln:-  
Assume internal R.

(i) Efficiency of rectification:-

$$E_{sm} = \sqrt{2} \times (E_s)_{rms} = \sqrt{2} \times 110 = 155.563V$$

$$I_m = \frac{E_{sm}}{R_f + R_L} = \frac{155.563}{20 + 1000} = 0.1525A$$

HALFWAVE RECTIFIER POWER SUPPLY :

(i) CAPACITOR FILTER CIRCUIT :

→ When a sinusoidal alternating voltage is rectified, the resulting waveform is a series of positive or negative half cycles of the input waveform, it is not direct voltage. To convert to direct voltage, a smoothing circuit or filter is needed.

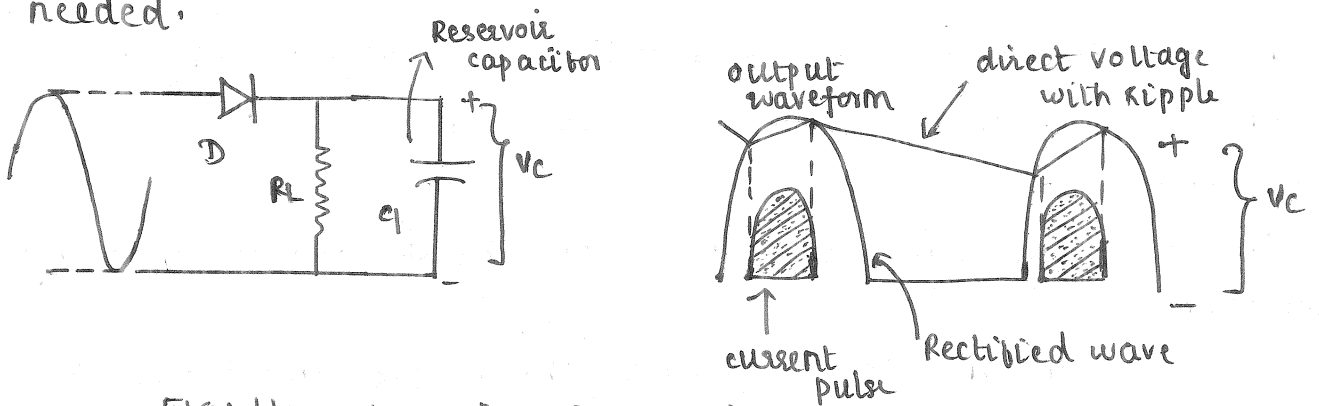


FIG. 1 HALF WAVE RECTIFIER WITH OUTPUT WAVEFORM

Fig. consists of a single capacitor filter ( $C_1$ ) and a load resistor ( $R_L$ ). The capacitor termed as a reservoir capacitor is charged almost to the peak level of the circuit input voltage when the diode is forward biased. This occurs at  $V_{pi}$  as shown in below Fig.

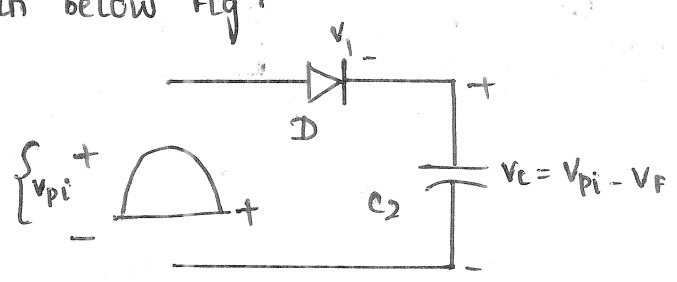


Fig.  $C_1$  charged to  $V_{pi} - V_f$

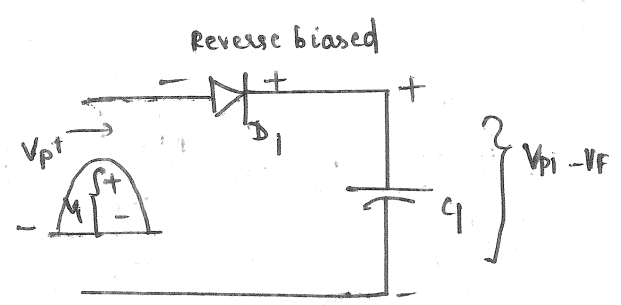


Fig.  $D_1$  is reverse biased when  $V_i$  falls below  $V_{pi}$

→ The peak capacitor voltage

$$V_c = V_{pi} - V_f$$

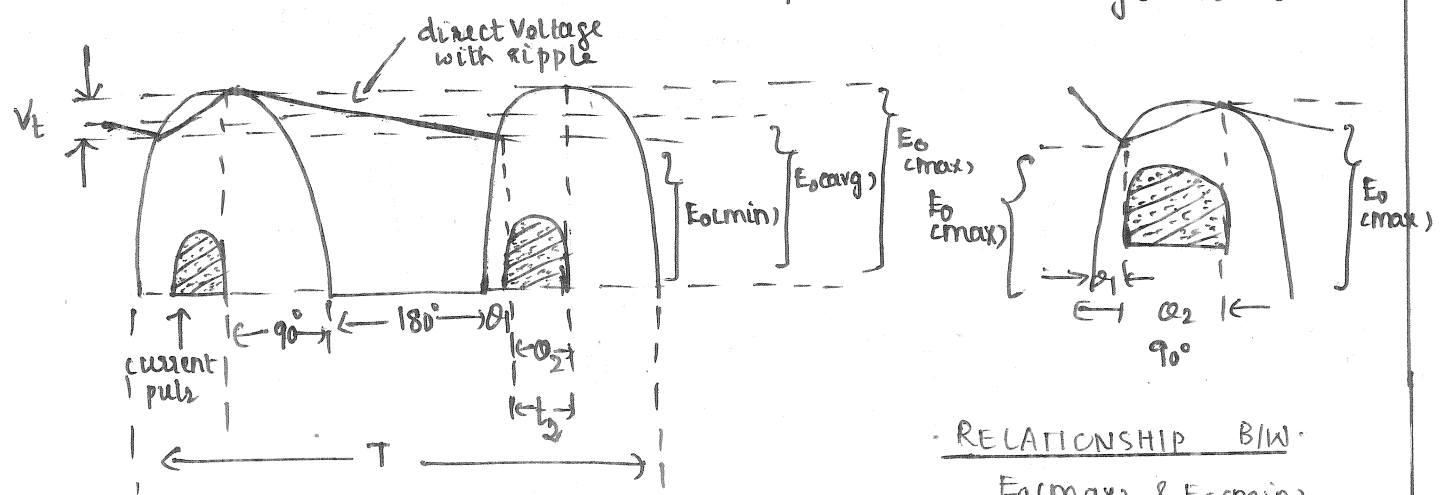
→ When the instantaneous level of the input falls below  $V_{pi}$  the diode becomes reverse biased.

→ The capacitor begins to discharge through the load resistor ( $R_L$ ) when the diode is reverse biased. So  $V_c$  falls slowly as shown by the capacitor voltage in the Fig. 1.

- The diode remains reverse biased throughout the rest of the positive half cycle,
- CURRENT flows through the diode to recharge the capacitor at this point, causing the capacitor to reach  $(V_{pi} - V_f)$ .
- The circuit output is then a direct voltage with a small ripple waveform superimposed.

RIPPLE AMPLITUDE AND CAPACITANCE:

- The amplitude of the ripple voltage is affected by three parameters. such as reservoir capacitor value, load current and capacitor discharge time.
- The discharge time depends upon the frequency of ripple waveform.
- with a constant load current, the ripple amplitude is inversely proportional to the capacitance.
- The reservoir capacitor value can be calculated from load current ripple amplitude and the capacitor discharge time.



CAPACITOR WAVEFORM AMPLITUDES  
ANGLES & TIMES

RELATIONSHIP B/W  
 $E_{oc(max)}$  &  $E_{oc(min)}$

The waveform parameters are :

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| a) $E_{ave}$ = average dc o/p voltage      | f) $t_1$ - capacitor discharge time                                    |
| b) $E_{oc(max)}$ - maximum o/p voltage     | g) $t_2$ - capacitor charge time                                       |
| c) $E_{oc(min)}$ - minimum o/p voltage     | h) $\alpha_1$ - phase angle of i/p from 0 to $E_{oc(min)}$             |
| d) $T$ - time period of ac i/p waveform    | i) $\alpha_2$ - Phase angle of i/p from $E_{oc(min)}$ to $E_{oc(max)}$ |
| e) $V_r$ - Ripple voltage p-to-p amplitude |  |

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  $E_o(max)$  and  $E_o(min)$ :

Since the input wave is sinusoidal,

$$E_o(min) = E_o(max) \sin \theta_1$$

which gives  $\theta_1 = \sin^{-1} \frac{E_o(min)}{E_o(max)}$

$$\theta_2 = 90^\circ - \theta_1$$

Time period,  $T = \frac{1}{f}$  where  $f$  = frequency of ac input waveform

$$t \text{ in degree} \Rightarrow t/degree = \frac{T}{360^\circ}$$

$$t_2 = \frac{\theta_2 T}{360^\circ}$$

$$\text{and } t_1 = T - t_2$$

Taking current as constant,

$$C = \frac{I_1 t_1}{V_1}$$

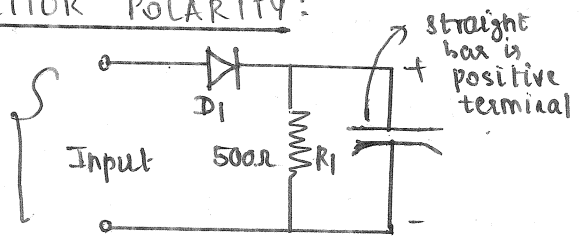
CAPACITOR SELECTION:

→ Large standard value capacitor is always selected in case of a reservoir capacitor.

→ The standard value capacitors are available with  $\pm 20\%$  tolerance. capacitors of more than 10pF, the tolerance is  $-10\%$  to  $+50\%$ .

→ The dc working voltages can be quite small, for large value capacitors. Else capacitor dielectric may breakdown.

CAPACITOR POLARITY:



If the capacitors are incorrectly connected, polarized capacitors explode. This has tragic consequences for the eyes of an experimenter.

The positive terminal is represented by straight bar on the component graphic symbol. This should be connected to the positive point in the circuit.



APPROXIMATE CALCULATION:

APPROXIMATION 1:

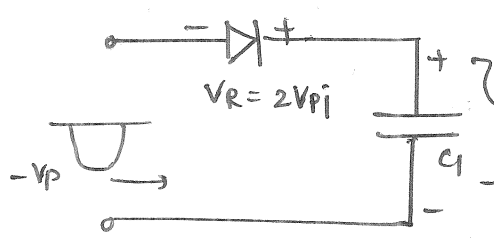
- i) Assume the load current is constant.
- ii) Normally, the load current changes by small that it has no significant effect on the calculation.

APPROXIMATION 2:

Discharge time ( $t_1$ ) is approximately equal to the input waveform time period ( $T$ )  $t_1 = T$

DIODE SPECIFICATION:

The selected diodes must be able to survive higher levels.



The diode has  $-V_p$  at anode and  $+V_p$  at cathode, so diode peak reverse voltage is  $V_R \approx 2V_p$

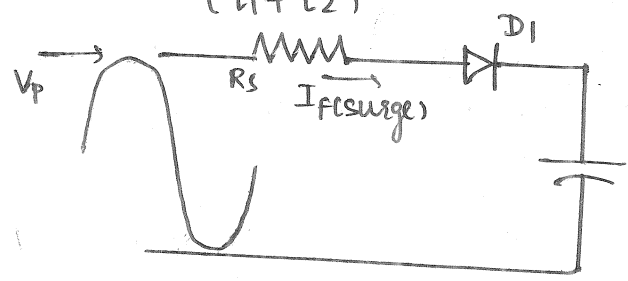
The average forward current that a diode pass is equal to the dc output current.

$$I_{F(av)} = I_L$$

The diode of a half wave rectifier with a reservoir capacitor does not conduct continuously but repeatedly passes pulses of current to recharge the capacitor. Each time the diode becomes forward biased. So the current pulse is known as repetitive surge current and is designated as  $I_{FRM}$ .

$I_{FRM}$  over time period  $T$  must be equal to  $I_L$ .

$$I_L = \frac{I_{FRM} \times t_2}{(t_1 + t_2)} \Rightarrow I_{FRM} = \frac{I_L (t_1 + t_2)}{t_2}$$



The purpose of a low resistance surge limiting resistor ( $R_s$ ) connected in series with the diode  $D_1$  is to limit the level of any surge current that might pass through the diode. If switch-on occurs, the ac current is,

$$I_f(\text{surge}) = \frac{V_p}{R_s}$$

$\Rightarrow$   $R_s = \frac{V_p}{I_{FSM}}$  when  $I_f(\text{surge})$  is maximum ( $I_{FSM}$ )

TRANSFORMER SELECTION:

A power supply transformer is normally defined in terms of rms input and output voltage and current. The input is usually 115V, 60Hz supply and the transformer peak output voltage is calculated by adding the rectifier voltage drop to the power supply peak output.

The peak voltage is converted into rms to give the secondary value.

$$V_s(\text{rms}) = 0.707 (E_o(\text{max}) + V_f)$$

for a HWR with resistive load,  $I_{rms} = 2.2 I_{Ldc}$

for a HWR with capacitive filter,  $I_{Ldc} = 0.28 I_{s(\text{rms})}$

$$\Rightarrow I_{s(\text{rms})} = 3.6 I_{Ldc}$$

The transformer primary current is

$$I_{p(\text{rms})} = \frac{V_s(\text{rms}) \times I_{s(\text{rms})}}{V_p(\text{rms})}$$



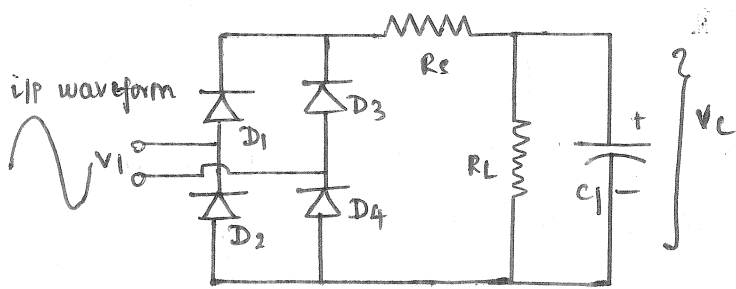
Qn: Give a detailed account on half wave rectifier power supply with necessary specifications and selections.

\* FULL WAVE RECTIFIER POWER SUPPLY: (Q. No) (X) (18)

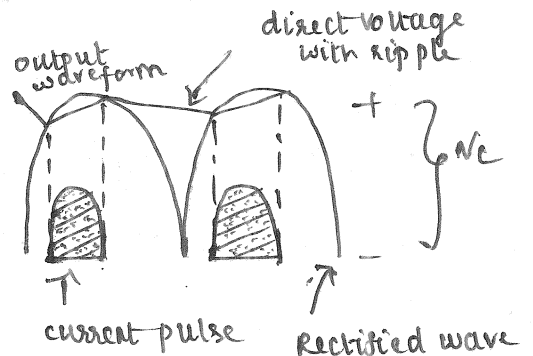
Qn: Explain in detail about the full wave rectifier power supply with necessary waveforms and diagrams.

→ Full wave rectifiers require filter circuits to convert the output waveform to direct voltage.

→ It also consists of a reservoir capacitor and a surge limiting resistor which operates exactly similar to half wave rectifier circuit with few important exceptions.



RECTIFIER WITH RESERVOIR CAPACITOR



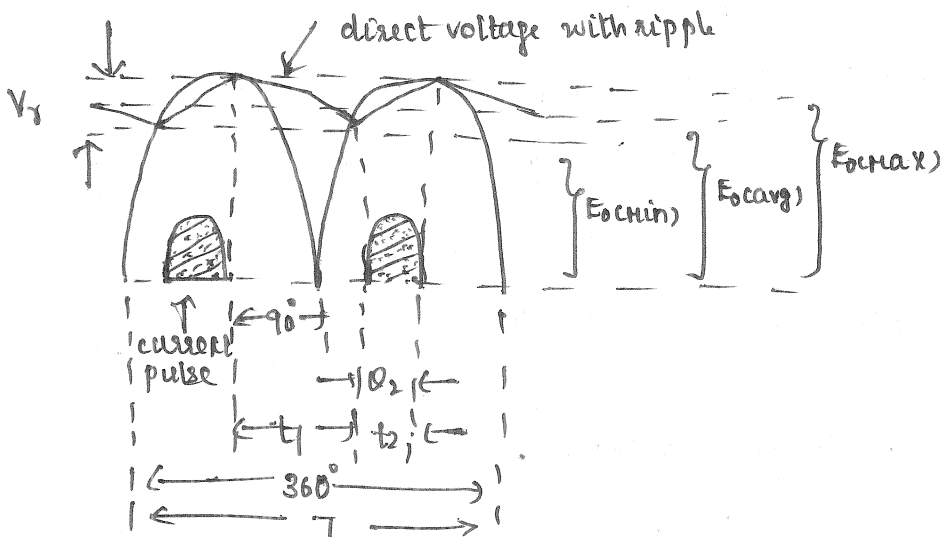
WAVEFORMS

$$\theta_1 = \sin^{-1} \frac{E_{oc(\min)}}{E_{oc(\max)}}$$

$$\theta_2 = 90^\circ - \theta_1$$

} similar to HWR

and time  $t_2 = \frac{\theta_2 T}{360^\circ}$



WAVEFORM FOR ANGLES & TIMES

It is seen that the capacitor discharge time for a HWR, is equal to the waveform time period (\$T\$), whereas for a FWR, it equals \$T/2\$

$$t_1 = T/2 - t_2$$

Using the correct value of a reservoir capacitance for a full wave rectifier can be calculated from (19)

$$C = \frac{I_L t_1}{V_T}$$

Similarly, the repetitive current  $I_{FRM}$  can be determined as

$$I_{FRM} = \frac{I_L (t_1 + t_2)}{t_2}$$

The diode average current is equal to the half the load current.

$$I_{f \text{ (ave)}} = \frac{I_L}{2}$$

Another difference between FWR and HWR power supply circuits concerns the reverse voltage applied to the diode. When the instantaneous input voltage is  $+V_p$ , the reverse biased voltage across  $D_3$  is

$$V_R = V_p - V_F$$

$$\text{or } V_R \approx V_p$$

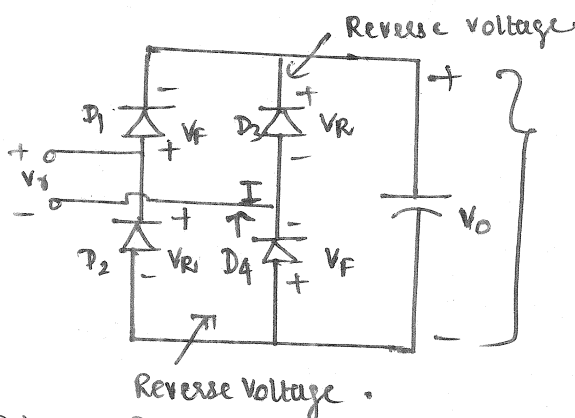


Fig.: DIODE REVERSE VOLTAGE FWR CIRCUIT

### TRANSFORMER SELECTION:

The transformer specification for a FWR is similar to the HWR. Two diode voltage drops involved in calculating the secondary rms voltage.

$$V_s(\text{rms}) = 0.707 (E_o(\text{max}) + 2V_F)$$

For a FWR with capacitive filter,  $I_L(\text{dc}) = 0.62 I_s(\text{rms})$

As with all transformers, the primary current is

$$I_p(\text{rms}) = \frac{V_s(\text{rms}) \times I_s(\text{rms})}{V_p(\text{rms})}$$

# \* VOLTAGE REGULATORS:

(20)

→ A rectifier with appropriate filter requires a good dc power supply. The main disadvantage is that the dc output voltage changes with change in the input voltage or load current. Since the dc output voltage is not constant, this type of power supply is called unregulated power supply.

→ In order to ensure a constant voltage supply regardless of the variations in input voltage or current, a voltage stabilisation device called voltage regulators are used.

→ The voltage regulator circuit keeps the output voltage constant inspite of the changes in load current or input voltage.

(I)

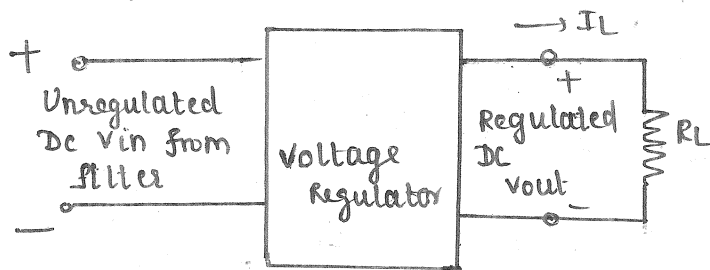
Qn: Define Voltage Regulator (2M) (X)

A voltage regulator is a device designed to keep the output voltage of a power supply as nearly as constant as possible.

(I)

## BLOCK SCHEMATIC OF REGULATED POWER SUPPLY.

Qn: Sketch and explain the block schematic of regulated power supply (X) (6M)



The input to a voltage regulator is an unregulated dc supply while the output is regulated dc output voltage  $v_{out}$  which is almost constant.

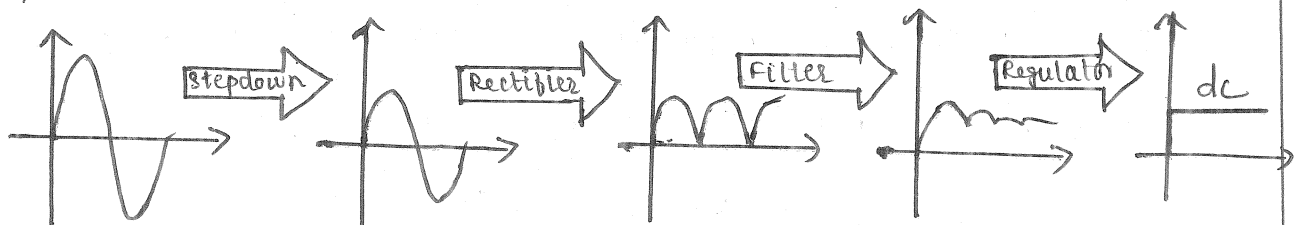
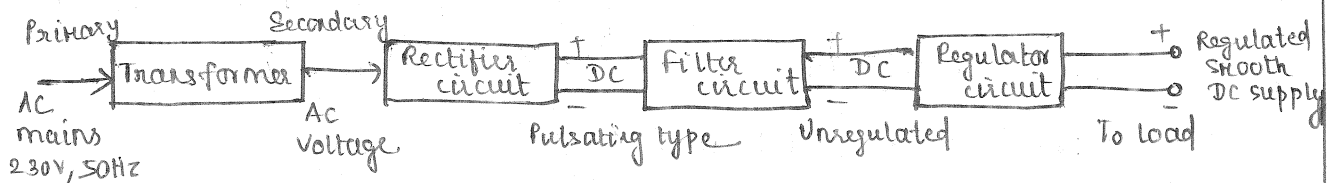


Fig. BLOCK SCHEMATIC OF RPS WITH WAVEFORMS

- The transformer steps down the ac voltage inputs, (21) to the level required for the desired dc output.
- The rectifier converts this ac voltage into a pulsating dc voltage containing ripples in it.
- Then the filter circuit reduces the ripple content and tries to make it smoother.
- still then the filter o/p contains some ripple. called unregulated dc voltage.
- Then the regulator circuit is used to make the output dc voltage constant. The output is called dc voltage to which the load can be connected.

## (ii) POWER SUPPLY PERFORMANCE PARAMETERS / CHARACTERISTICS OF VOLTAGE REGULATORS :

Q: Explain the significance of power supply performance of a dc series regulator (bri) or (FTU).

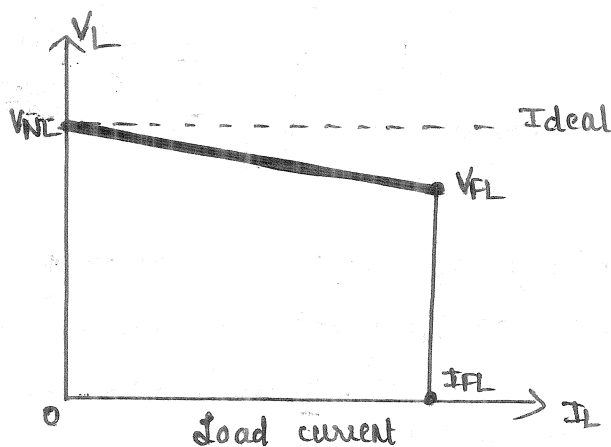
### in LOAD REGULATION :

The load regulation can be defined as the change in the regulated output voltage when the load current changes from minimum to maximum.

$$\text{Load regulation} = V_{NL} - V_{FL}$$

$V_{NL}$  - No load voltage &  $V_{FL}$  - Full load voltage

$$\% \text{ Load regulation} = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100$$



(ii) LINE REGULATION (SOURCE REGULATION) :

(22)

The line regulation can be defined as the change in regulated load voltage for a specified range of line voltage.

$$\text{Line Regulation} = V_{HL} - V_{LL}$$

$V_{HL}$  - High Line load voltage     $V_{LL}$  - Low Line load voltage

$$\% \text{ Line Regulation} = \frac{V_{HL} - V_{LL}}{V_{\text{nominal}}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\Delta V_{\text{out}}}{\Delta V_{\text{in}}} \times 100\%$$

(iii) OUTPUT RESISTANCE :

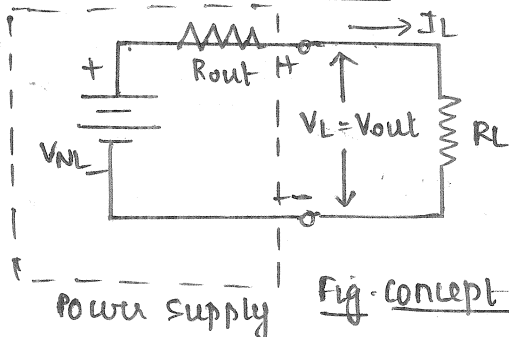


Fig. Concept of  $R_{\text{out}}$

When no load is connected to output terminal, the current  $I_L$  is zero. Hence  $V_L = V_{NL}$ .

When load  $R_L$  is connected,

$$V_L = V_{\text{out}} = V_{NL} - I_L R_{\text{out}}$$

Practically,  $R_{\text{out}}$  is very small in the range of milliohms.

The value of  $R_{\text{out}}$  is obtained from the slope of load regulation characteristics. (Refer Load Regulation topic graph).

$$R_{\text{out}} = \frac{\Delta V_{\text{out}}}{\Delta V_L} \Big|_{V_{\text{in}} \text{ and Temperature constant}}$$

(iv) VOLTAGE STABILITY FACTOR (SV) :

$S_V$  is the percentage change in the output voltage which occurs per volt change in the input line voltage with load current and temperature as constant. Smaller the  $S_V$ , better

$$S_V = \frac{\Delta V_{\text{out}}}{\Delta V_{\text{in}}} \Big|_{I_L \text{ and Temperature constant}}$$

the performance of power supply.

(v) TEMPERATURE STABILITY FACTOR (ST) :

The temperature stability of a power supply will be determined by temperature coefficients of various semiconductor devices.

$$S_T = \frac{\Delta V_{\text{out}}}{\Delta T} \Big|_{V_{\text{in}} \text{ \& } I_L \text{ constant}}$$

This should be as small as possible EASYENGINEERING.NET

### (vi) RIPPLE REJECTION:

(23)

The output of a rectifier consists of ripples. So ripple rejection is a factor which indicates how effectively the regulator circuit rejects the ripples and attenuates it from input to output. If  $V_R$  is the ripple voltage then  $RR$  is given by

$$RR = \frac{\text{Ripple in output}}{\text{Ripple in input}} = \frac{V_{R(\text{out})}}{V_{R(\text{in})}}$$

In decibels,  $RR' = 20 \log_{10} RR \text{ dB}$

As  $V_{R(\text{out})}$  is always less than  $V_{R(\text{in})}$ ,  $RR'$  i.e.  $RR$  in dB is always negative when defined as  $V_{R(\text{out})}/V_{R(\text{in})}$ .

### (vii) TOTAL CHANGE IN OUTPUT VOLTAGE:

If input voltage, load current and temperature are affecting the regulator output voltage, then the total change in output voltage is

$$\Delta V_o = S_v \Delta V_{in} + R_o \Delta I_L + S_T \Delta T$$

### (iii) LINEAR / BASIC VOLTAGE REGULATOR:

The basic voltage regulator consists of:

- (i) Voltage reference,  $V_R$
- (ii) Error amplifier
- (iii) Feedback network
- (iv) Active series (or) shunt control element

→ The voltage reference generates a voltage level which is applied to the comparator circuit, which is generally an error amplifier.

→ The second input to the error amplifier is from the feedback network.

→ The error amplifier converts the difference between the output voltage and the reference voltage into the error signal.

→ This error signal then converts the active element of the regulator circuit, in order to compensate the change in output voltage.

→ Transistor is used as an active element. Thus the output voltage is maintained constant.



# TYPES OF VOLTAGE REGULATORS :

Qn: Explain with the block diagrams, the basic types of voltage regulator circuits (8M) (or) (13M) (X)

There are two types of voltage regulators available, namely,

- (i) series voltage Regulator
- (ii) shunt voltage Regulator

## (i) SERIES VOLTAGE REGULATOR:

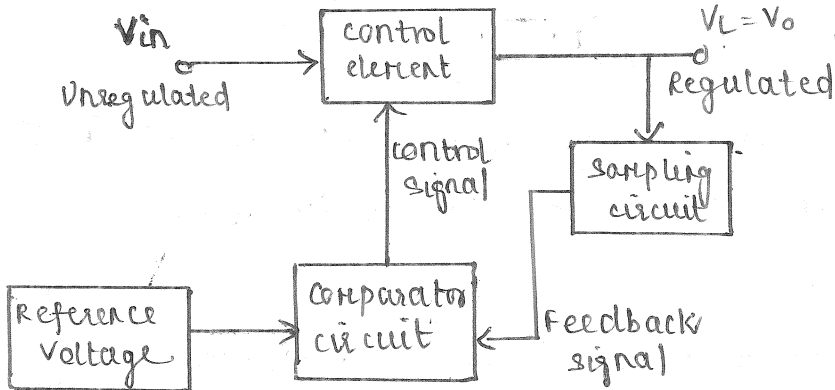


Fig: BLOCK DIAGRAM OF SERIES VOLTAGE REGULATOR

→ If in a voltage regulator circuit, the control element is connected in series with the load, the circuit is called series voltage regulator circuit.

→ The unregulated dc voltage is the input to the circuit. The control element controls the amount of input voltage, then gets to the outputs.

→ The sampling circuit provides the necessary feedback signal.

→ The comparator circuit, compares the feedback with the reference voltage to generate the appropriate control signal.

→ If  $V_o$  decreases due to increased load, then error detector, produces an output that causes the control element to increase  $V_o$ .

→ Similarly, any tendency of  $V_o$  to increase, results in a signal that causes the control element to reduce  $V_o$ .

TRANSISTOR SERIES REGULATOR (OR) EMITTER FOLLOWER SERIES VOLTAGE

REGULATOR:

(6M) (X)

Qn: Draw a neat circuit diagram of an emitter follower series voltage regulator circuit.

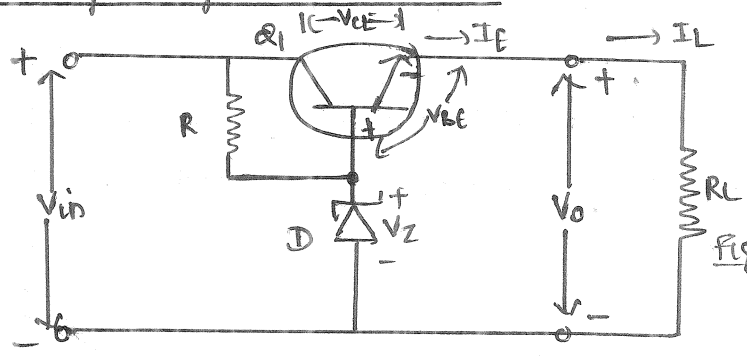


FIG. EMITTER FOLLOWER SERIES VOLTAGE REGULATOR

→ The basic series voltage regulator is called emitter follower series voltage regulator. This is employed to overcome the limitation of shunt regulator (Next topics).

→ The transistor Q1 is the series control element while the Zener diode D is the reference voltage provider.

→ The Zener diode is reverse biased, so that it works in the breakdown region. Zener is connected in the base of Q1 while the emitter of Q1. The base emitter junction is always forward biased.

OPERATION:

From the fig,  $V_o = V_z - V_{BE}$

Apply KVL to the input side,

$$V_{in} = V_{CE} + V_o$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{in} - V_o$$

For transistor Q1,  $I_E = I_B + I_C$

∴  $I_B$  is very small,  $I_E \approx I_C$ .

$$I_E \approx I_C \approx I_L$$

$$\text{Now } I_B = \frac{I_C}{\beta} = \frac{I_L}{\beta}$$

where  $I_z$  = Zener current &  $I_R$  = current through R.

$$I_z = I_R - I_B$$

The load current,  $I_L = V_o / R_L$

## EXPRESSION FOR VOLTAGE STABILITY FACTOR ( $S_v$ ):

(26)

The voltage stability factor for emitter follower series regulator is given by

$$S_v = \frac{R_z}{R + R_z}$$

where  $R_z$  = ac resistance or dynamic resistance

The value of  $R_z$  is very small and by selecting the large value of resistance  $R$ ,  $S_v$  can be reduced. Its ideal value is zero (0).

## EXPRESSION FOR OUTPUT RESISTANCE:

The output voltage  $R_o$  can be defined as the ratio of applied voltage  $V$  to current  $I$ . For emitter follower SVR,

$$R_o = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{R_z + h_{ie}}{1 + h_{fe}}$$

It can be reduced by selecting a transistor with high value of  $h_{fe}$ .

## DISADVANTAGES OF EMITTER FOLLOWER SERIES VOLTAGE REGULATOR:

- i) The changes in  $V_{BE}$  and  $V_z$  due to changes in temperature appear at the output.
- ii) Due to large power dissipation, heat sink is necessary which makes the circuit bulky.

## (b) OP-AMP BASED VOLTAGE SERIES REGULATOR:

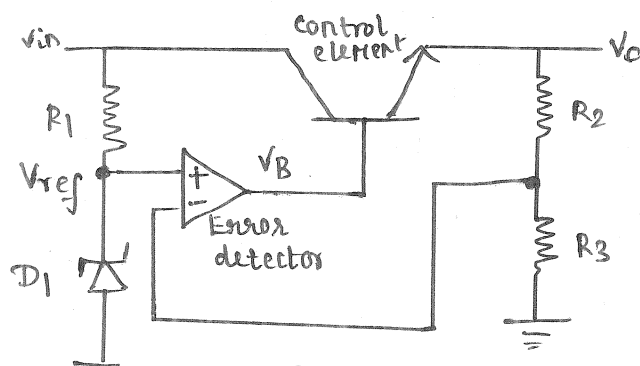


Fig. BASIC OPAMP SERIES VOLTAGE REGULATOR

### REGULATING ACTION:

→ The resistive voltage divider formed by  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  senses any change in the output voltage.

→ When the output tries to decrease, due to increase in (27) load current  $I_L$  caused by a decrease in  $R_L$ , a proportioned voltage decrease is applied to the op-amp's inverting input by the voltage divider.

→ The small difference voltage (error voltage) is developed across the opamp's input.

→ This difference voltage is amplified, and the opamp's output voltage  $V_B$  increases.

→ This causes  $V_{out}$  to increase until the voltage to the input again equal to the reference voltage.

The closed loop gain  $A_{CL} = 1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1}$

### (iii) SHUNT VOLTAGE REGULATOR:

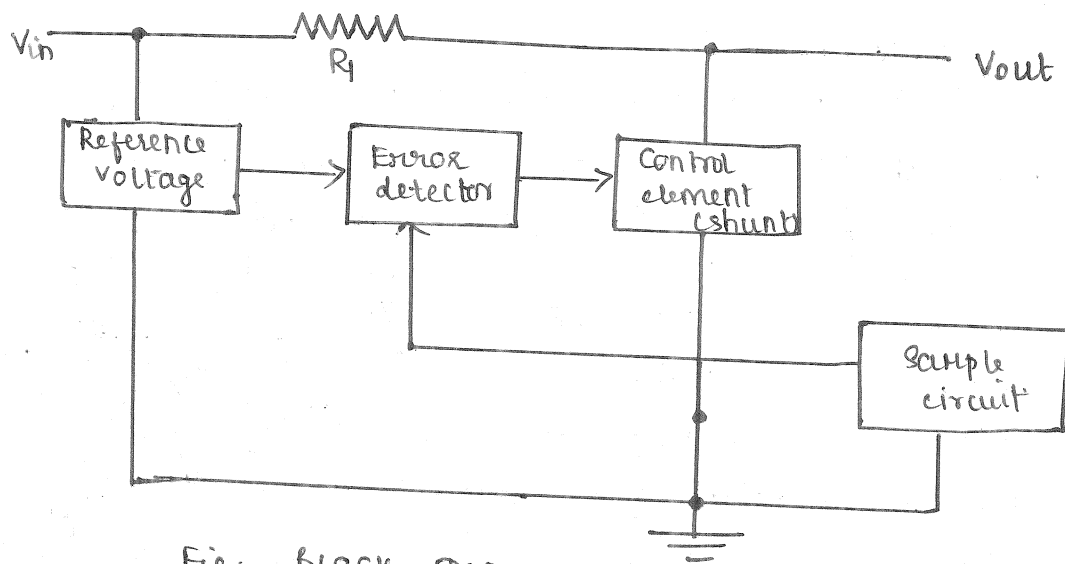


Fig. BLOCK DIAGRAM OF SHUNT REGULATOR.

→ If the control element is connected in parallel with the load, then the regulator circuit is called shunt voltage regulator.

→ The operation of the circuit is similar to that of series regulator, except that regulation is achieved by controlling the current through parallel transistor  $Q_1$ .

## (a) TRANSISTOR SHUNT REGULATOR:

(6M) (4)

28

Qn: Draw and explain transistor shunt regulator.

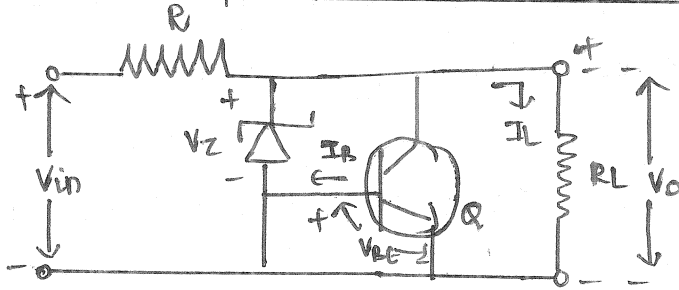


Fig: TRANSISTOR SHUNT REGULATOR

→ A transistor is used as a control element and is being connected in shunt or parallel with the load.

→ The output or load voltage is equal to the sum of zener voltage  $V_Z$  and the base emitter voltage  $V_{BE}$  of the transistor.

$$V_O = V_Z + V_{BE}$$

### REGULATING ACTION:

→ Assume that the unregulated input voltage increases. Due to this, the load voltage  $V_L$  also increases.

→ As a result collector current of the transistor  $I_C$  also increases.

→ This causes the input current  $I_i$  to increase, which in turn increases the voltage drop across the series resistance  $R$ . Consequently, load voltage decreases.

→ It is valid because of the voltage drop across series resistance  $V_R$  and the load voltage is equal to the input voltage at all times.

$$V_i = V_R + V_L$$

Flow diagram:

$$V_i \uparrow \rightarrow V_L \uparrow \rightarrow V_{BE} \uparrow \rightarrow I_B \uparrow I_C \uparrow \rightarrow V_R \uparrow V_L \downarrow$$

## Switching Regulator:

The operating principle of switching regulator is completely different than that of linear regulator. Switching regulator requires an external transistor and a choke. The series pass transistor in such a regulator is used as a controlled switch and is operated in cut-off region (or) saturation region. Hence the power transmitted across such a transistor is in the form of discrete pulses rather than a steady flow of current.

When the transistor is operated in the cut-off region there is no current and dissipated no power. While when it is operated in the saturation region a negligible voltage drop appears across it and hence dissipated very small power. provided max current to load.

Therefore switching regulators use the fact that if duty cycle of the pulse waveform is varied, the average value of the voltage also changes proportionally.

$$\text{Duty cycle } \delta = \frac{t_{on}}{t_{on} + t_{off}} = \frac{t_{on}}{T} = t_{on} f$$

$t_{on}$  - On time of pulse ;  $t_{off}$  - off time of pulse.

The basic switching regulator consists of four major components

- Voltage source
- Switching transistor
- Pulse generator
- Filter.

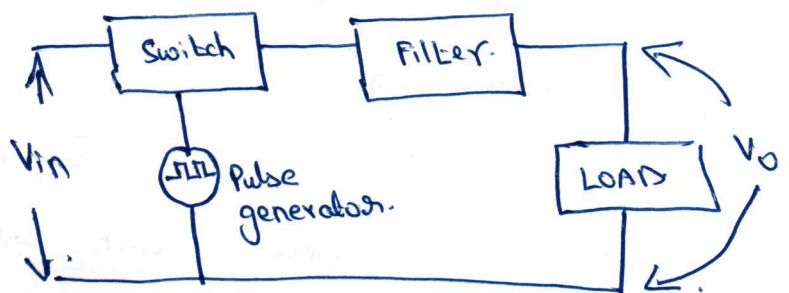


Fig. Basic Switching Regulator

## Switched Mode Power Supply :- (SMPS)

A power supply is an important element of any type of electronic circuit. It provides the supply for the proper operation of circuit. The successful operation of the circuit depends on the proper functioning of the power supply. Most of the electronic circuits requires a smooth dc voltage as that of batteries. The power supply in a circuit tries to provide such a constant voltage.

The regulator in a power supply is an important unit which keeps the output dc voltage constant under the variable load and variable input condition.

## Need of Switched mode power supply :-

A linear <sup>regulator</sup> power supply has following limitations

- The required input step down transformer is bulky and expensive.
- Due to low line frequency, large values of filter capacitors are required.
- The efficiency is very low.
- As large is the difference between input and output voltage more is the power dissipation in the series pass transistor.
- The need for dual supply is not economical and feasible to achieve with the help of linear regulators.

To overcome all these limitations SMPS are <sup>EASYENGINEERING.NET</sup> needed.

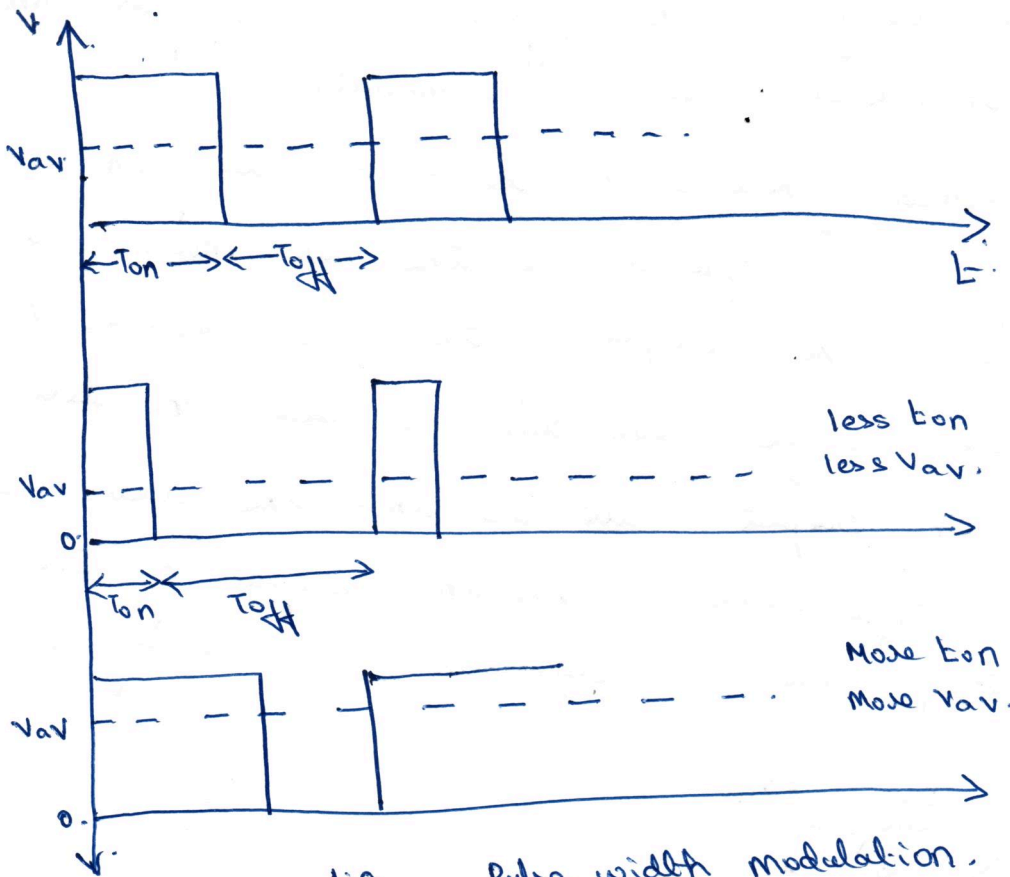


Fig. Pulse width modulation.

The switch is generally a transistor. The pulse generator output makes it ON or OFF. The pulse generator produces a square pulse waveform. The most effective range of pulse waveform frequency is 20 kHz. and the most commonly used filter is RLC.

### Switching Voltage Regulator :-

The block diagram of basic switching voltage regulator which uses transistor as a switch is shown in next page.

### Working :-

The part  $R_2/R_1 + R_2$  of the output is fed back to the inverting input of error amplifier. It comp



with the reference voltage. The difference is amplified and given to the Comparator inverting terminal.

The Oscillator generates a triangular waveform at a fixed frequency. It is applied to the non-inverting terminal of the Comparator. The output of the Comparator is high when the triangular voltage waveform is above the level of the error amplifier output. Due to this the transistor Q remains in cutoff state. Thus the output of the Comparator is nothing but a sequenced pulse waveform.

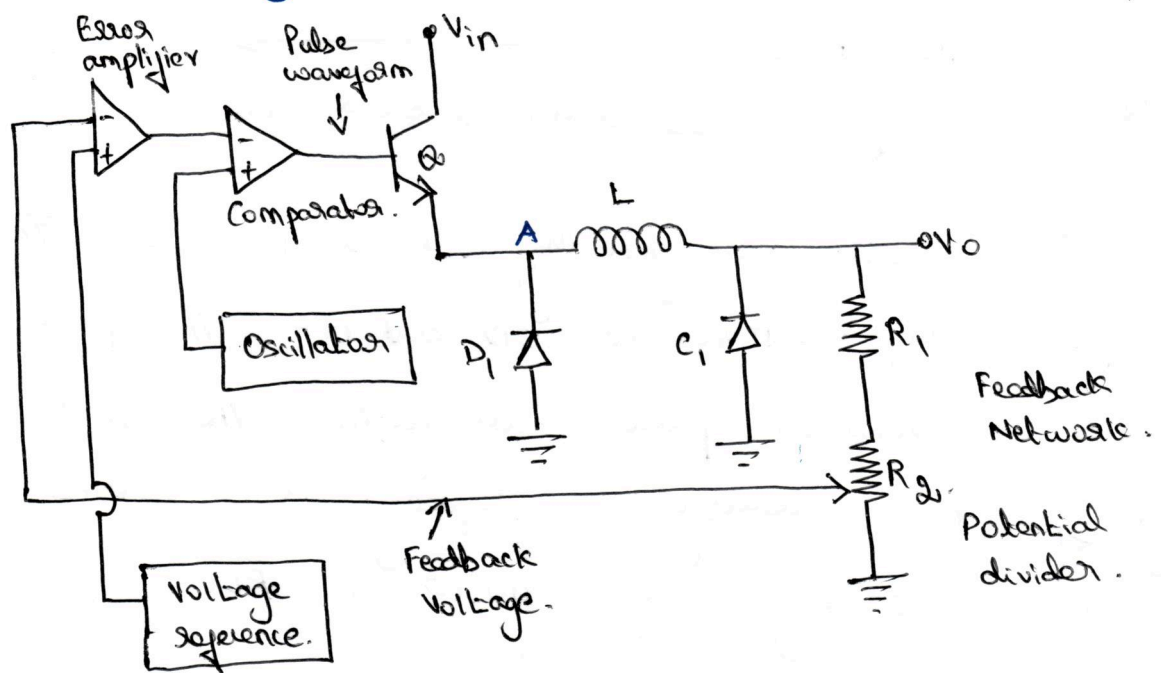


Fig. Block diagram of switching regulator.

The period of the pulse waveform is same as that of oscillator output say  $T$ . The duty cycle is denoted as  $\delta = t_{on} / T$ . This duty cycle is controlled by difference between the feedback voltage and reference voltage.

When Q is on in saturation state, the entire input voltage  $V_{in}$  appears at point A. EASYLEARNING.COM

inductor.

when  $Q$  is off,  $L$  still continue to supply current through itself to the load. The diode  $D$  provide the return path for the current. The capacitor  $C$  act to smooth out the voltage and the voltage at the output is almost dc in nature. The output voltage  $V_o$  expressed mathematically as

$$V_o = \frac{t_{on}}{T} V_{in} = D V_{in}$$

The range of operating frequency to get max efficiency is 10 to 50 kHz.

Types of Switching Regulators:

The switch mode regulators use an inductor and there is no input to output isolation. On the other hand other side converters use transformers and may provide input to output isolation.

There are three basic configurations of switching regulators.

1. step down (or) Buck switching regulator
2. step up (or) Boost switching regulator
3. Inverting type switching regulator.

1. Step down switching regulator :- (Buck)

It consists of inductor  $L$  and series transistor  $Q$  which act as a switch. The reference for error amplifier is provided by zener voltage  $V_z$ . The output is fed back to error amplifier through potential divider. The pulse width oscillator controls the operation of  $Q$  as

ON or OFF depending on the load requirement.

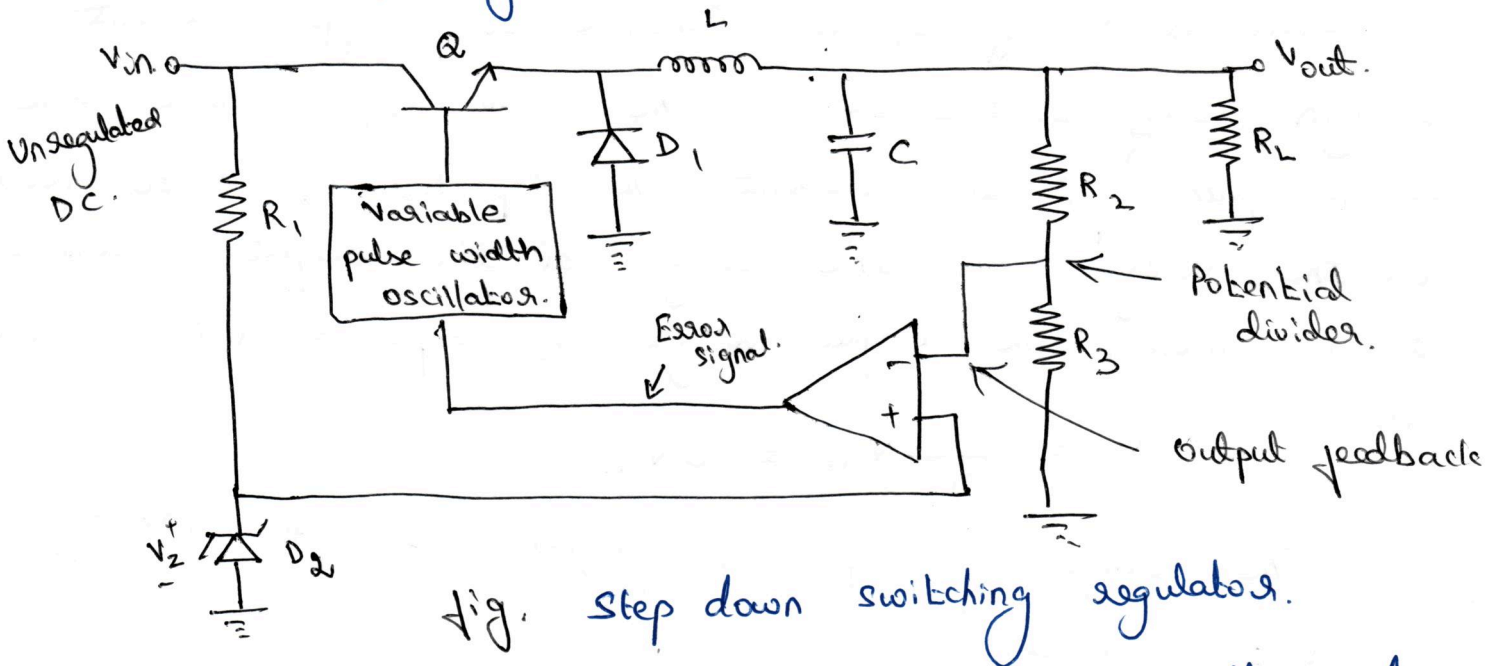


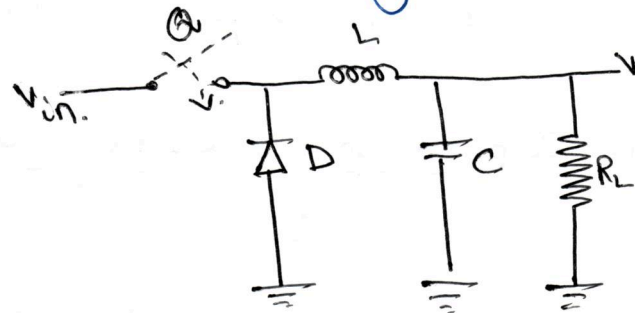
Fig. Step down switching regulator.

The transistor Q is used for switching the input voltage for the required period of time, which is dependent on load current requirement. The L-C filter averages the switched voltage.

Working:-

The variable pulse width oscillator controls ON/OFF periods of Q, when ON time is more compared to OFF time the capacitor charges more increasing the output voltage. On the other hand when OFF time is more compared to ON time the capacitor discharge more, reducing output voltage. Thus adjusting the duty cycle  $\delta$  of transistor the output voltage can be regulated.

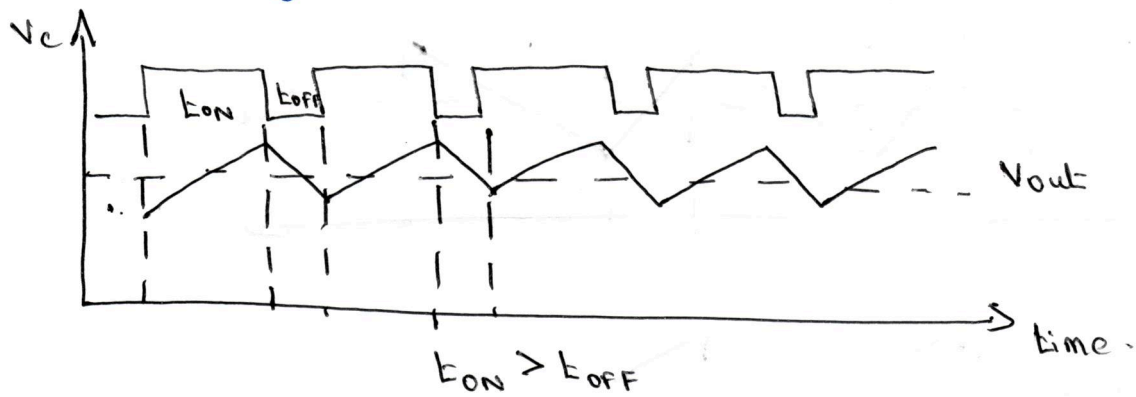
$$\delta = \frac{t_{ON}}{t_{ON} + t_{OFF}} = \frac{t_{ON}}{T}$$



Equivalent circuit.

a) If output voltage decreases:

The voltage across  $R_3$  decreases. The reference  $V_z$  is fixed. Thus error at input of error amplifier is more. This produces pulse of higher width as the output of the variable pulse width oscillator. As pulse width is high  $t_{ON}$  is higher for  $\odot$ . This increases the charging of the capacitor  $C$  producing more output voltage. Thus decrease output voltage get compensated.



b) When output voltage increases:-

The voltage across  $R_3$  increases. The reference  $V_z$  is fixed. The error at the input of error amplifier decreases. The output of the error amplifier controls the output of variable pulse width oscillator. It produces pulse of smaller width which reduces  $t_{ON}$  for  $\odot$ . This makes the capacitor  $C$  to discharge more to offset any attempt of increase in output voltage.

$\therefore$  The output voltage is

$$V_{out} = \delta V_{in}$$

$$\text{where } \delta = t_{ON} f$$

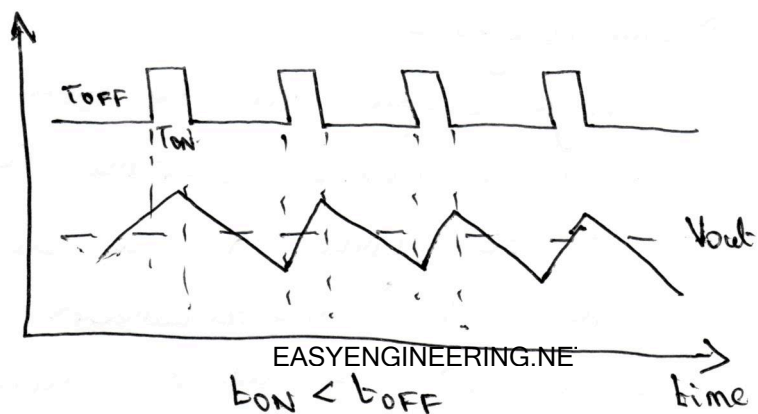
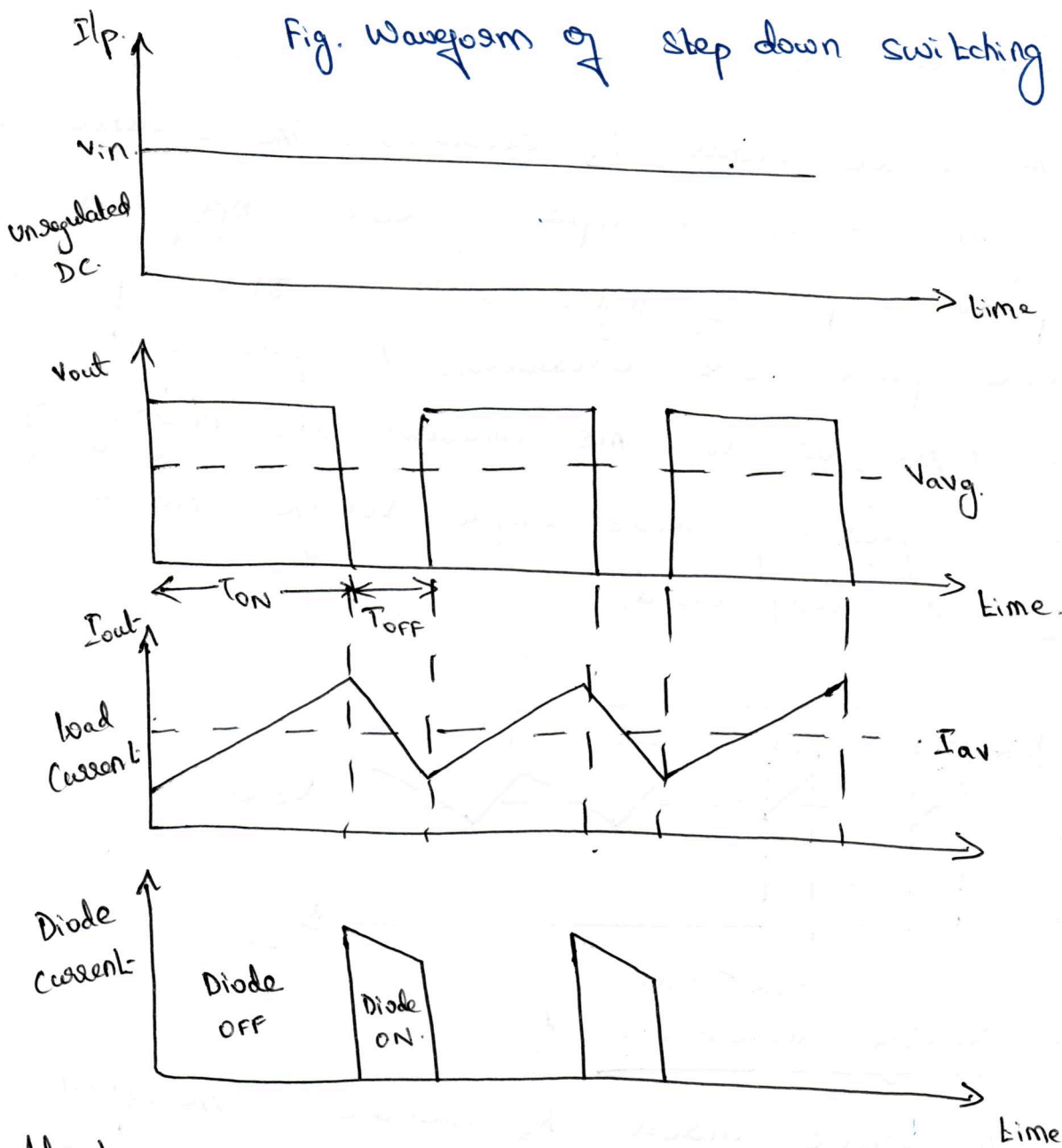


Fig. Waveform of step down switching regulator.



Advantages:

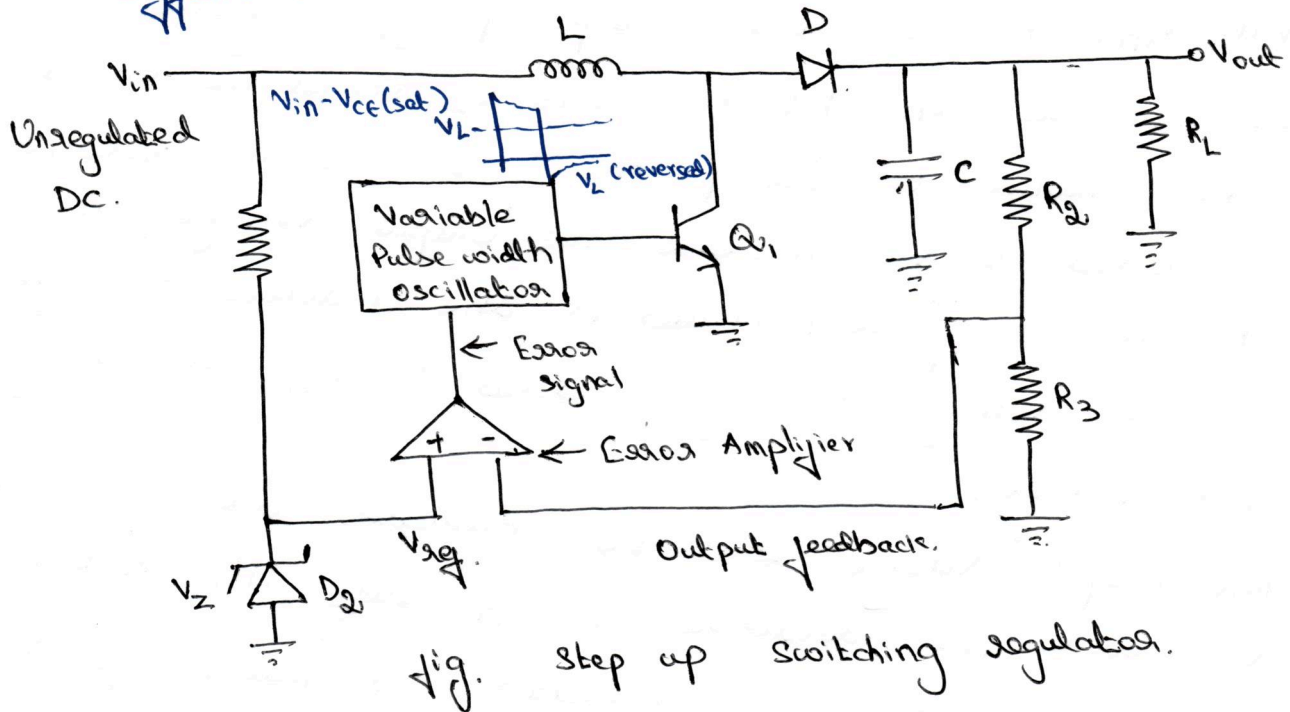
1. Higher efficiency
2. Simple to design.
3. low ripple content
4. Small output filter
5. large tolerance of line voltage regulation.

Disadvantages:-

1. Single output and no isolation between input and output.
2. slow transient response compared to linear regulator.
3. Due to finite reverse recovery time of communicating diode the instantaneous short circuit occur across the source due to which active switches may fail.

## Step up Switching Regulator :- (Boost)

The basic elements used in this type are identical to those used in step down type but their arrangement is different.



Working :-

Case (1) :- when  $Q_1$  is ON,  $V_{ce}$  is denoted as  $V_{ce(sat)}$  and the voltage across  $L$  suddenly become  $[V_{in} - V_{ce(sat)}]$  as shown in fig. This expands the magnetic field around the inductor very quickly. This voltage across  $L$  can be obtained by applying KVL to  $V_{in}$ . During ON time of  $Q_1$  the voltage across inductor start decreasing exponentially from its initial max value  $[V_{in} - V_{ce(sat)}]$

Case (2) :- when  $Q_1$  is OFF the magnetic field of the inductor  $L$  collapses and its polarity get reversed. This is because an inductor current can not change instantly. This value of  $V_L$  attained after exponential decrease when  $Q_1$  is ON now get reversed as shown in the fig. Due to reversal of polarity

It gets added to  $V_{in}$ .

The diode  $D_1$  is forward biased due to reversed  $V_L$  and capacitor  $C$  now charge to  $V_{in} + V_L$ . The output voltage is voltage across capacitor  $C$ , which is  $V_{in} + V_L$ , which is more than  $V_{in}$ . Thus it acts as step up type regulator.

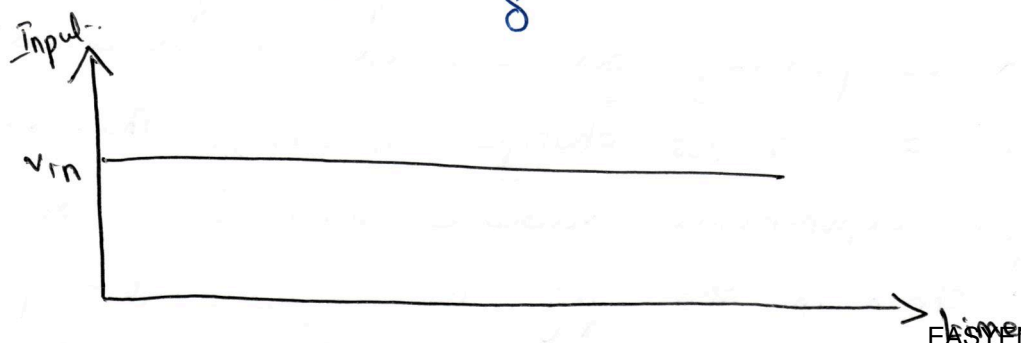
It can be seen that how much  $V_L$  should be added to  $V_{in}$ . The shorter the on period of  $Q_1$ , greater voltage will get added to  $V_{in}$  increase the output voltage. The longer the on time of  $Q_1$ , smaller is the inductor voltage  $V_L$  and less voltage will get added to  $V_{in}$ , decreasing the output voltage.

When output voltage tries to decrease due to increase in load current (or) decrease in  $V_{in}$  itself then on time of  $Q_1$  get reduced thus  $V_{in}$  increases compensating for the decrease in it.

When output voltage tries to increase then on time of  $Q_1$  get increased. This reduces voltage across the inductor. Thus the less voltage gets added to  $V_{in}$ , reduces its value. This compensates for the attempted increase in output voltage.

Expression for the output voltage.

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{in}}{\delta}$$



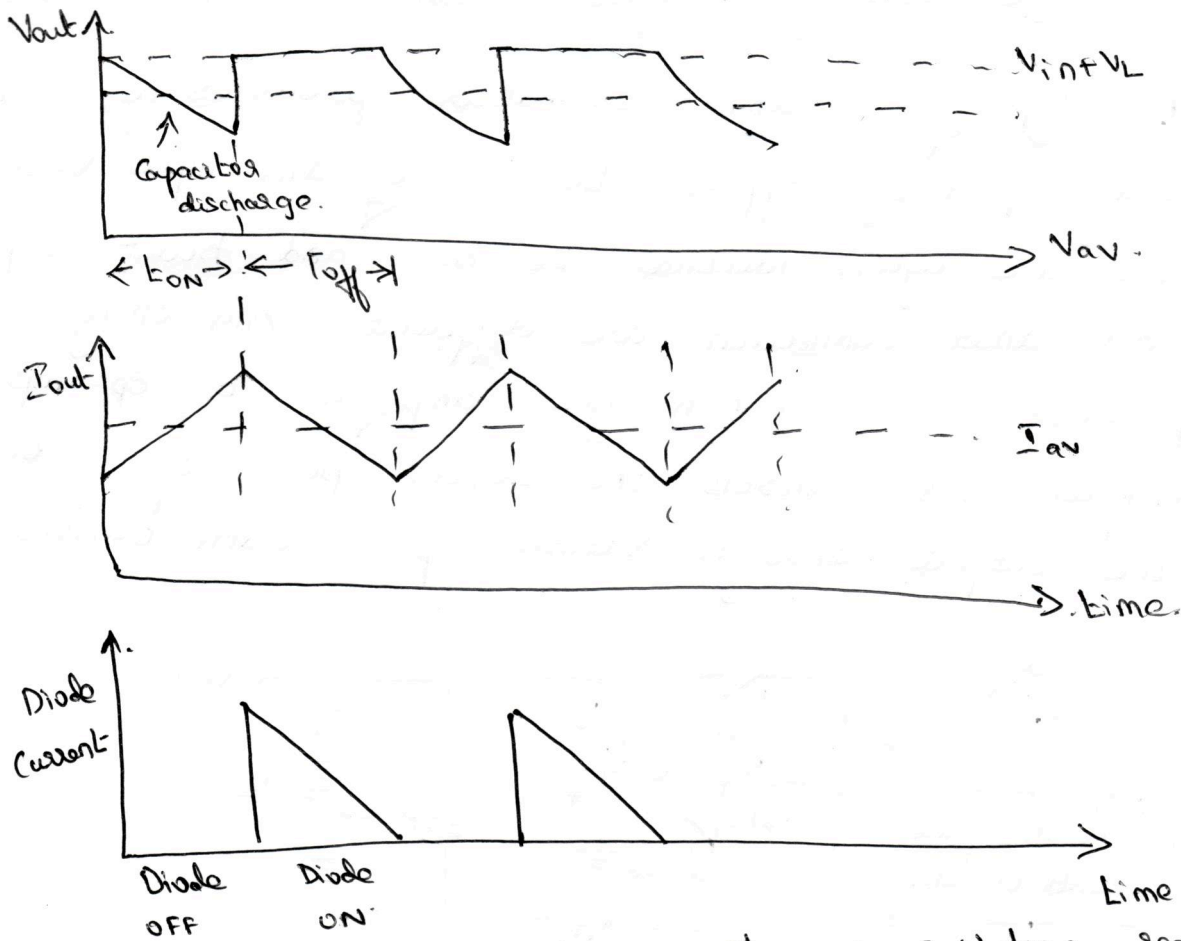


Fig. waveform for step up switching regulator.

### Advantages:

- 1) The output voltage is higher than input voltage.
- 2) Efficiency is high greater than 90%.
- 3) low input ripple current.

### Disadvantages:

- 1) The duty cycle is limited to 50% to avoid the continuous current mode if regulator enters the continuous current mode, it stops regulating the output. Thus for a minimum input voltage range max duty cycle is limited.
2. Due to restricted duty cycle the peak collector current is very high. This limits its output power rating.



## Voltage Inverter Type Switching Regulator (Buck-Boost)

This type of switching regulator produces an output voltage having polarity opposite to that of the input voltage. The elements are again identical to buck and boost type regulator but their connection are different. Any change in output produces error which gets amplified by op-amp error amplifier. This controls the ON/OFF period of Q to regulate the output through variable pulse width oscillator.

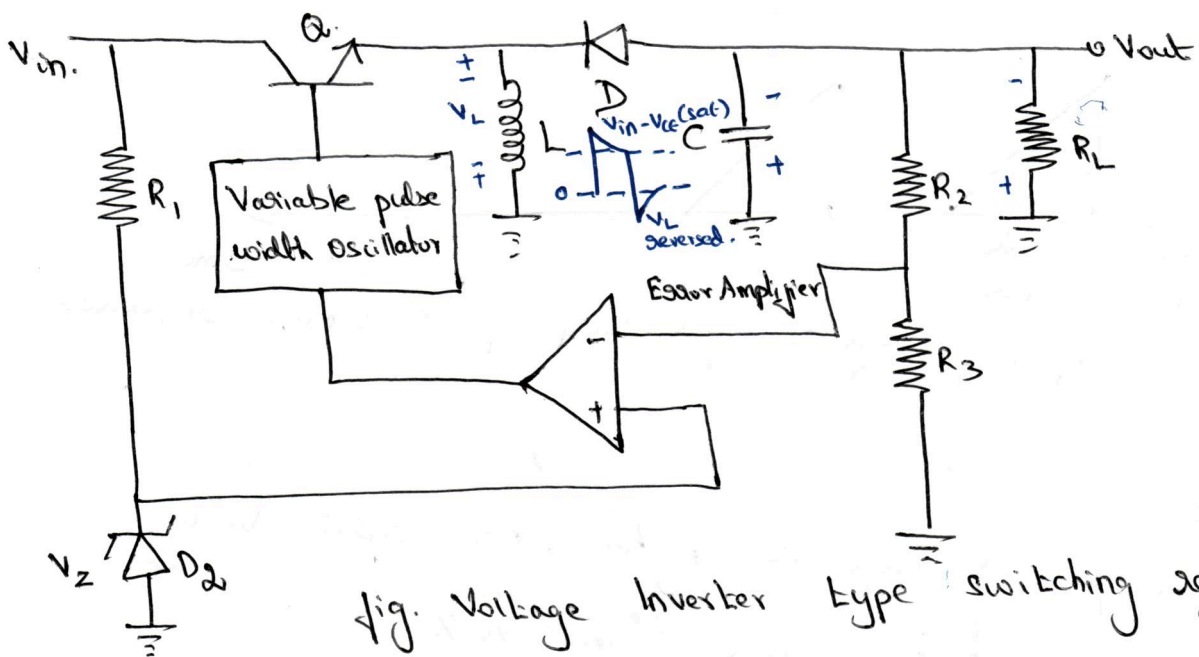


Fig. Voltage Inverter Type switching regulator.

Working: -

Case 1: - The Q goes into saturation and the voltage across it drops to  $V_{CE(sat)}$  which is about 0.3V. Due to this voltage across inductor suddenly rises to  $[V_{in} - V_{CE(sat)}]$  and magnetic field around it suddenly expands. Due to connection of diode  $D_1$  in this situation it is reverse biased. The inductor voltage starts exponentially decreasing from the initial value  $[V_{in} - V_{CE(sat)}]$ .

Case 2: Now if  $Q_1$  is turned off, the magnetic field across  $L$  get collapsed but inductor current can not change instantaneously. Thus voltage across inductor  $V_L$  reverse its polarity.

Due to reversed  $V_L$ , the diode  $D_1$  is now forward biased. The capacitor charges through  $D_1$  producing output voltage of opposite polarity to that of  $V_{in}$ . Hence the regulator is called voltage inverter type.

The repetitive on-off action of  $Q_1$  produces a repetitive charging and discharging of the capacitor  $C$  which is smoothed by the LC filter action. The less period  $Q_1$  is ON, higher is the output voltage, the greater time  $Q_1$  is ON, smaller is the output voltage.

### Power Supply performance and testing:-

The power supply is the heart of any electronic equipment. Hence for the high quality and reliable operation it is necessary to verify the power supply performance by conducting the tests. The test specification must include all the safe operating limits such as temperature, line condition, regulation values etc. The various test equipment required to test a power supply are.

- (i) DC power supply which is capable of supplying voltage and current for the test.
- (ii) Electronic (or) dynamic load which is capable of handling various system requirements.

- iii) Accurate voltmeter, wattmeter and Ammeter
- iv) An oscilloscope with bandwidth of 500 MHz or more for measurement of noise.
- v) Network analyzer (or) frequency response analyzer for stability measurement.

### Testing Procedure and Specifications:

The various test used to check the performance of a power supply are discussed below.

- (i) First switch ON
- (ii) Inrush current test
- (iii) Transient recovery time test
- (iv) static load regulation test
- (v) line regulation test.
- (vi) Periodic and Random deviation test (PARD)
- (vii) Efficiency test
- (viii) Power factor.
- (ix) start up time
- (x) short circuit output current
- (xi) over voltage shutdown
- (xii) leakage current
- (xiii) Hold up time.