Chapter Four Diode Applications

4.1: Introduction (Overview)

In Chapter 3, you learned that a semiconductor diode is a device with a single *pn* junction. The importance of the diode in electronic circuits cannot be overemphasized. Its ability to conduct current in one direction while blocking current in the other direction is essential to the operation of many types of circuits. One circuit in particular is the *AC rectifier*, which will be covered in this chapter. Other important applications are circuits such as *Diode limiters*, *Diode clampers*, and *Diode voltage multipliers*.

Chapter Outline:

- Half-Wave Rectifiers
- Full-Wave Rectifiers
- Power Supply Filters and Regulators
- Diode Limiting and Clamping Circuits
- Voltage Multipliers
- System Application

4.2: Rectifier

- Rectifier is an electrical device that converts alternating current (AC) to direct current (DC), a process known as rectification.
- **Rectifiers** <u>have many uses</u> including as components of power supplies and as amplitude modulation detectors (envelope detectors) of radio signals.
- **Rectifiers** are most commonly <u>made using solid state diodes</u> but other types of components can be used when very high voltages or currents are involved.
- When only a single diode is used to rectify AC (by blocking the negative or positive portion of the waveform), the difference between the <u>term diode</u> and <u>the term rectifier</u> is simply one of usage.
- The term rectifier describes a diode that is being used to convert AC to DC. Most rectifier circuits contain a number of diodes in a specific arrangement to more efficiently convert AC power to DC power than is possible with only a single diode. This will be addressed next.

4.2.1: Half Wave Rectifier

<u>In half wave rectification</u>, either the positive or negative half of the AC wave is passed, while the other half is blocked.

Because only one-half of the input waveform reaches the output, it is only 50% efficient <u>if</u> used for power transfer. Half-wave rectification <u>can be achieved</u> with a single diode in a single-phase supply as shown in this figure.



Figure (1): Half wave rectification circuit.

NOTE:



Assuming the diode to have a small forward resistance (r), and infinite reverse resistance, the diode current or load current can be expressed as:

$$i = I_m \sin wt = \frac{V_m}{r + R_L} \sin wt \qquad 0 < wt < \pi \dots (1)$$

$$\pi < wt < 2\pi \dots (2)$$

Where I_m and V_m represent the maximum values of current and voltage respectively.

<u>Using a Fourier series expansion</u>, the current given by eq. (1) in the interval $(0 < wt < 2\pi)$ can be expressed as:

$$i = \frac{I_m}{\pi} + \frac{I_m}{2}\sin wt - \frac{2I_m}{3\pi}\cos 2wt - \frac{2I_m}{15\pi}\cos 4wt, \quad 0 < wt < 2\pi \quad \dots (3)$$

The term $\left(\frac{l_m}{\pi}\right)$ in eq. (3) represents the average or DC value of *i* in the interval $(0 < wt < 2\pi)$. Thus, we have:

$$I_{dc} = \frac{I_m}{\pi} = \frac{V_m}{\pi (r + R_L)} \dots (4)$$
Prove it! (Review in CH 4 at Advanced Electricity and Magnetism)

Apparently, the output current i is a mixture of a Dc component and AC components of various frequencies (harmonics). The DC component in series with R_L .

The corresponding **DC voltage or rectified output across** R_L is:

$$\boldsymbol{V_{dc}} = \boldsymbol{I_{dc}} \boldsymbol{R_L} = \frac{\boldsymbol{I_m}}{\pi} \boldsymbol{R_L} = \frac{\boldsymbol{V_m}}{\pi} \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{R_L}}{r + \boldsymbol{R_L}}\right) \quad \dots (5)$$

The **DC** power (P_{dc}) , delivered to the load is:

$$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L = \frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} R_L = \frac{V_m^2}{\pi^2 (r + R_L)^2} R_L \dots (6)$$

The second and higher order term in the series equation (3) cause dissipation of power in R_L , decrease the power efficiency and create a ripple in the output voltage.

To determine the power efficiency, we calculate the root mean square value (I_{rms}) of the total load current. From the definition of I_{rms} , we have:

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^{\pi} i^2 dwt}{2\pi - 0}} \dots (7)$$

Using eq. (1), it gives:

 $I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{2} \dots (8)$

Prove it! (Review in CH 4 at Advanced Electricity and Magnetism)

The **AC input power** is given by:

$$P_{ac} = I_{rms}^{2}(r + R_{L}) = \frac{I_{m}^{2}}{4}(r + R_{L}) \quad \dots (9)$$

The **power conversion efficiency** (η) is defined as:

$$= \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} \times 100\%$$
 ... (10)

$$\eta_{HW} = \frac{\frac{I_m^2}{\pi^2} R_L}{\frac{I_m^2}{4} (r + R_L)} \times 100\% \frac{4}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{R_L}{r + R_L}\right) 100\% = \left(\frac{40.6}{1 + \frac{r}{R_L}}\right)\% \dots (11)$$

For an ideal diode, r = 0:

<mark>η_{HW} = 40.6 %</mark>

This is the theoretical efficiency of a single-phase half-wave rectifier.

Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV):

Since the diode has very small forward resistance, the voltage appearing across the diode during the positive half-cycle of the AC input is very small. However, during the negative half-cycle, since the output voltage across load is negligible, almost whole of the secondary voltage appears across the diode in accordance with the Kirchoffs law. The maximum reverse voltage appearing across the diode is called the **peak inverse voltage** (**PIV**) and <u>may</u> produce **breakdown** in the diode. To avoid this, the PIV rating of the diode <u>must be greater than</u> the peak inverse voltage.

$$V_{m(out)} = V_{m(sec)} - V_B OR V_{m(sec)} = \left(\frac{N_2}{N_1}\right) \times V_{m(pri)} \dots (12)$$

$$PIV = V_{m(sec)} (V_{m(in)}) \dots (13)$$

NOTE:

- Whenever the AC input becomes negative at the diode's anode, the diode blocks current flow.
 → output voltage becomes zero.
- The Diode introduces a 0.7V **drop** so output peak is 0.7V smaller than the input peak; $V_{AVG} = \frac{V_{m(out)}}{\pi}$

Example 4.1: Draw the output voltages of each rectifier for the indicated input voltages, as shown in this Figure. The 1N4003 are specific rectifier diodes.

Solution:



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Solution:

Primary to secondary turns is $N_1/N_2 = 10$ rms of the primary voltage: $V_{(pri)} = 230$ V

: Max primary voltage: $V_{m(pri)} = \sqrt{2}V_{(pri)} = \sqrt{2} \times 230 = 325.3 \text{ V}$

 $\therefore \text{ Max secondary voltage: } V_{m(sec)} = V_{m(pri)} \times (N_2/N_1) = 325.3 \times \frac{1}{10} = 32.53 \text{ V}$ (i) the output *dc* voltage:

$$\boldsymbol{V_{dc}} = \boldsymbol{I_{dc}} \, \boldsymbol{R_L} = \frac{\boldsymbol{I_m}}{\pi} R_L = \frac{V_{m(sec)}}{\pi} \left(\frac{R_L}{r + R_L}\right) = \frac{32.53}{\pi} \left(\frac{R_L}{0 + R_L}\right) = 10.36 \, V$$

(ii) the peak inverse voltage:

$$PIV = V_{m(sec)} = 32.53 \text{ V}$$

Example 4.3: A half-wave rectifier is used to supply 50V dc to a resistive load of 800 Ω . The diode has a resistance of 25 Ω . Calculate *ac* voltage required. **Solution:**

Output dc voltage,
$$V_{dc} = 50 V$$
, Load resistance, $R_L = 800 \Omega$, Diode resistance, $r = 25 \Omega$
 $V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L = \frac{I_m}{\pi} R_L = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{V_m}{r + R_L} \right) R_L$
 $50 = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{V_m}{25 + 800} \right) \times 800 \rightarrow V_m = \frac{50\pi \times 825}{800} = 162 V$
 $V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{2} = \frac{162}{2} = 81 V$



4.2.2: Full Wave Rectifier

Although half-wave rectifiers have some applications, the full-wave rectifier is the <u>most</u> commonly used type in DC power supplies. Here, you will use what you learned about half-wave rectification and expand it to full-wave rectifiers. You will learn about <u>two types of</u> full-wave rectifiers which are:

- Center-tapped, and
- Bridge.

A full-wave rectifier <u>allows</u> unidirectional (one-way) current through the load during the entire 360° of the input cycle, <u>whereas</u> a half-wave rectifier <u>allows</u> current through the load only during **one-half** of the cycle. The result of full-wave rectification is an **output voltage** with a frequency twice the input frequency and that pulsates every half-cycle of the input, as shown in Figure below.

$$_{0V}$$
 $_{v_{in}}$ $_{v_{in}}$ Full-wave rectifier $_{v_{out}}$ $_{0V}$ $_{out}$ $_{0V}$

The output frequency is twice the input frequency.

The number of positive alternations that make up the full-wave rectified voltage is twice that of the half-wave voltage for the same time interval. The average value, which is the value measured on a *dc* voltmeter, for a full-wave rectified sinusoidal voltage is twice that of the half-wave, as shown in the following formula: $V_{AVG} = \frac{2 V_{m(out)}}{\pi} = 0.637 V_m$ V_{AVG} is approximately 63.7% of V_p for a full-wave rectified voltage.

4.2.2.1: The Center-Tapped Full Wave Rectifiers

A Center-tap full-wave rectifier <u>does not block</u> negative cycle in the input voltage, rather it transforms them into positive cycle at the output.

A center-tapped transformer is used with two diodes that conduct on alternating half-cycles.



The Center-Tapped Full Wave Rectifiers Calculation:

In the full wave rectifier circuit, the **diode** D_1 conducts during the **positive half cycle** of the AC signal and the **diode** D_2 conducts during the **negative half**. The output current through the load <u>always</u> flows in the same direction <u>but</u> is pulsating. The wave forms of the individual diode currents and the total output current through load are shown before.

Assuming each diode to have small forward resistance and infinite reverse resistance, the currents i_1 and i_2 can be expressed as:

$$i_{1} = I_{m} \sin wt = \frac{V_{m}}{r + R_{L}} \sin wt, i_{2} = 0 \qquad 0 < wt < \pi \dots (14)$$
$$i_{1} = 0, i_{2} = -I_{m} \sin wt = \frac{V_{m}}{r + R_{L}} \sin wt \qquad \pi < wt < 2\pi \dots (15)$$

Note that the current i_1 and i_2 , in fact, flow in <u>opposite directions</u>, <u>but</u> the load is so connected that each pass through it in the same direction.

Using the Fourier series expansion as given by equation (3), the total current resulting from the expressions (14) and (15) can be:

$$i = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} - \frac{4I_m}{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{3}\cos 2wt + \frac{1}{15}\cos 4wt + \frac{1}{35}\cos 6wt + \cdots\right) \dots (16)$$

The lowest frequency AC component has a frequency twice the input signal frequency. The average or DC value of the current is:

 $I_{dc} = \frac{2 I_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 V_m}{\pi (r + R_L)} \dots (17)$ Prove it! (Review in CH 4 at Advanced **Electricity and Magnetism)** The desired rectifier is thus:

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L = \frac{2 I_m}{\pi} R_L = \frac{2 V_m}{\pi} \left(\frac{R_L}{r + R_L} \right) \dots (18)$$

Which is **twice** the output of the half wave rectifier see equation (5). And the **power output across the load** (P_{dc}) is:

$$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L = \frac{4 I_m^2}{\pi^2} R_L = \frac{4 V_m^2}{\pi^2 (r + R_L)^2} R_L \dots (19)$$

The *I_{rms}* value of the total load current is calculated as:

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\int_{0}^{2\pi} i^{2} dwt}{2\pi - 0}} = \sqrt{\frac{\int_{0}^{\pi} I_{m}^{2} \sin^{2} wt \, dwt + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} I_{m}^{2} \sin^{2} wt \, dwt}{2\pi - 0}} = \frac{I_{m}}{\sqrt{2}} \dots (20)$$

Prove it! (Review in CH 4 at Advanced **Electricity and Magnetism)**

The **AC input power** is given by:

$$P_{ac} = I_{rms}^{2}(r + R_{L}) = \frac{I_{m}^{2}}{2}(r + R_{L}) \quad \dots (21)$$

Thus, the **power rectification efficiency** (η) becomes:

$$\eta_{FW} = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} \times 100 \% = \frac{\frac{4I_m^2}{\pi^2} R_L}{\frac{I_m^2}{2} (r + R_L)} \times 100\% \frac{8}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{R_L}{r + R_L}\right) 100\% = \left(\frac{81.2}{1 + \frac{r}{R_L}}\right) \% \quad \dots (22)$$

For an ideal diode, r = 0:

 $\eta_{FW} = 81.2\%$

This is the theoretical maximum efficiency of a single-phase full wave rectifier. It is double the efficiency of a half wave rectifier

Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV):

In a full wave rectifier, when one of the diodes is conducting, the other one is nonconducting. Consider the case when the voltage between either end of the secondary and the central point is maximum, i.e. V_m , and D₁ is conducting. Neglecting the forward resistance of the diode, the voltage appearing across R_L is V_m . the voltage across D₂ is, therefore, 2 V_m irrespective of the nature of the load. Hence the PIV across each diode is twice the maximum secondary voltage measured from either end to the central point.

$$V_{(out)} = \frac{V_{(sec)}}{2} - V_b; V_{m(sec)} = 2V_{m(out)} + 2V_b \dots (23)$$

PIV = $2V_{m(out)} + V_b = V_{m(sec)} - V_b \dots (24)$

4.2.2.2: Full Wave Bridge Rectifier

The Bridge Full-Wave rectifier <u>uses four diodes</u> connected across the entire secondary as shown.

Suitable for **applications** where <u>large powers (voltages)</u> are required.



• It is a full wave rectifier that employs <u>four identical diodes</u> forming a **bridge-type** arrangement as shown before.

- During the <u>positive half of the *AC* cycle</u>, D_1 and D_2 are forward-biased and conduct, <u>while</u> diodes D_3 and D_4 are reverse-biased and do not conduct. The direction of the current is indicated by solid arrows.
- During the <u>negative half cycle</u>, the **diodes D**₃ **and D**₄ **conduct** and the current flows in a direction indicated by dotted arrows. Thus, <u>in both half cycles</u>, the **current flows through the load**.
- The bridge rectifier <u>needs</u> a **smaller transformer** <u>compared</u> with the center tap rectifier for the same DC output. This is <u>because</u> in the bridge rectifier the full secondary voltage is used for rectification in both the input half cycles.
- The transformer with center taping <u>is not needed</u>. However, the current rating of the bridge secondary should be about <u>40 percent greater than</u> that for the center tap secondary.

Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV):

- $V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} 2V_b$ (If these diode drops are taken into account)
- $V_{m(out)} = V_{m(sec)} 2V_b \ (= V_{m(sec)}) \dots (25)$
- $PIV = V_{m(out)} + V_b (= V_{m(out)}) \dots (26)$

Summary of Rectifier Circuits

Rectifier	Ideal V _{DC}	Realistic V _{DC}
Half Wave Rectifier	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.318 V_m$	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.318 V_m - 0.7$
Bridge Rectifier	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.636 V_m$	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.636 V_m - 2(0.7 {\rm V})$
Center-Tapped Transformer Rectifier	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.636 V_m$	$V_{\rm DC} = 0.636 V_m - 0.7 {\rm V}$

 V_m = peak of the AC voltage.

Example 4.4: A full-wave rectifier uses two diodes; the internal resistance of each diode may be assumed constant at 20 Ω . The transformer rms secondary voltage from center tap to each end of secondary is 50 V and load resistance is 980 Ω . Find: (i) the average load current, (ii) the rms value of load current.

Solution:

Max. ac voltage: $V_m = V_{rms} \times \sqrt{2} = 50 \times \sqrt{2} = 70.7 V$ Max. load current: $I_m = \frac{V_m}{r+R_L} = \frac{70.7}{20+980} = 70.7 mA$ (i) average load current: $I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 70.7}{\pi} = 45 mA$ (ii) RMS value of load current is: $I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{70.7}{\sqrt{2}} = 50 mA$

Example 4.5: In the center-tap circuit shown, the diodes are assumed to be ideal i.e., having zero internal resistance. Find: (i) dc output voltage (ii) peak inverse voltage.



Solution:

- Primary to secondary turns is $N_1/N_2 = 5$
- rms of the primary voltage: $V_{(pri)} = 230$ V
- \therefore Max primary voltage: $V_{m(pri)} = \sqrt{2}V_{(pri)} = \sqrt{2} \times 230 = 325.3 \text{ V}$
- \therefore Max secondary voltage: $V_{m(sec)} = V_{m(pri)} \times (N_2/N_1) = 325.3 \times \frac{1}{5} = 65 \text{ V}$
- rms of the secondary voltage; $V_{(sec)} = \frac{V_{m(sec)}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{65}{\sqrt{2}} = 46 V$
- Maximum voltage across <u>half</u> secondary winding is: $V_{m(out)} = \frac{V_{m(sec)}}{2} = \frac{65}{2} = 32.5 V$
- Average output voltage: $V_{AVG} = \frac{2 V_{m(out)}}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 32.5}{\pi} = 20.7 V$
- (i) dc output voltage: $V_{dc} = V_{AVG} = 20.7 V$
- (ii) peak inverse voltage: $PIV = V_{p(sec)} = 2V_{p(out)} = 65 V$



- Primary to secondary turns is $N_1/N_2 = 4$
- rms of the primary voltage: $V_{(pri)} = 230 \text{ V}$
- \therefore Max primary voltage: $V_{m(pri)} = \sqrt{2}V_{(pri)} = \sqrt{2} \times 230 = 325.3 \text{ V}$
- \therefore Max secondary voltage: $V_{m(sec)} = V_{m(pri)} \times (N_2/N_1) = 325.3 \times \frac{1}{4} = 81.3 \text{ V} = V_{m(out)}$
- rms of the secondary voltage; $V_{(sec)} = \frac{V_{m(sec)}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{81.3}{\sqrt{2}} = 57.5 V$
- Average output voltage; $V_{AVG} = \frac{2 V_{m(sec)}}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 81.3}{\pi} = 52 V$

Average current; $I_{dc} = \frac{2V_{m(out)}}{\pi R_L} = 0.26A$ (i) *dc* output voltage: $V_{dc} = V_{AVG} = 52 V$ (ii) peak inverse voltage: $PIV = V_{m(out)} = 81.3 V$ (iii) output frequency:

$$f_{out} = 2 f_{in} = 2 \times 50 = 100 Hz$$

Example 4.7: Determine the peak output voltage and current in the 3.3 KW load resistor if $V_{sec} = 24 V_{rms}$. Use the practical diode model.



Solution:

The peak output voltage is:
$$V_{m(sec)} = \sqrt{2} V_{rms} = \sqrt{2} \times 24 = 33.9 V$$

 $PIV = V_{p \ (out)} = V_{m(sec)} - 2V_{b} = 33.9 - 2(0.7) = 32.5 V$
Applying Ohm's law; $I_{p \ (out)} = \frac{V_{p \ (out)}}{R_{l}} = \frac{32.5}{3.3 \times 10^{3}} = 9.8 mA.$



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Example 4.8: A full wave rectifier uses an applied voltage of 200 sin (314t) to center tap with a load of $1k\Omega$. The forward resistance of each diode is 100Ω . Find I_{dc} , I_{rms} in the load, and total load power P_{ac} , DC power delivered to the load P_{dc} .

Solution:

- $V_i = 200 \, si \, n(314t) \rightarrow V_m = 200 \, V$
- $I_m = \frac{V_m}{r_f + R_L} = \frac{200}{100 + 1000} = 181.8 \ mA$
- $I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 181.8}{\pi} = 115.7 \ mA$
- $I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{181.8}{\sqrt{2}} = 128.6 \ mA$
- $P_{ac} = I_{rms}^2 R_L = 16.5 w$
- $P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L = 13.4 w$ IF $\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} = \frac{13.4}{16.5} = 0.812$

Example 4.8: Determine the peak output voltage for the bridge rectifier in this Figure. Assuming the practical model, what PIV rating is required for the diodes? The transformer is specified to have a 12 V rms secondary voltage for the standard 120 V across the primary.



Solution:

The peak output voltage (taking into account the two diode drops) is:

$$V_{m(sec)} = \sqrt{2} V_{rms} = 1.414 \times 12 = 17 V$$

 $V_{m(out)} = V_{m(sec)} - 1.4 = 17 - 1.4 = 15.6 V$

The PIV rating for each diode is:

$$PIV = V_{m(out)} + 0.7 = 15.6 + 0.7 = 16.3 V$$

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Solution:

(a) The transformer turns ratio
$$n = \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$
.

The total peak secondary voltage is:

$$V_{m(sec)} = n V_{m(pri)} = 0.5 \times 100 = 50 V$$

There is a 25 V peak across each half of the secondary with respect to ground. The output load voltage has a peak value of 25 V, less the 0.7 V drop across the diode. The waveforms are shown in Figure below.

$$V_{m(\text{out})} = \frac{V_{m(\text{sec})}}{2} - 0.7 = \frac{50}{2} - 0.7 = 25 - 0.7 = 24.3 V$$

(b) Each diode must have a minimum PIV rating of:

$$PIV = 2 V_{m(out)} + 0.7 = 2 \times 24.3 + 0.7 = 49.3 V$$

$$\frac{V_{sec}}{2} 0$$

$$-25 V - -$$

$$+24.3 V - ----$$

$$V_{out} 0$$

H.W: Q1: Calculate the current through 48Ω resistor in circuit below. Assuming the diodes to be Si and forward resistance of each diode is 1Ω .



Solution:



H.W: Q2: What is the average value of the half-wave rectified voltage in this Figure?

$$\int_{0V}^{50V} = \frac{V_m}{\pi} = \frac{50}{\pi} = 15.9 V.$$

H.W: Q3: Find the average value of the full-wave rectified voltage in this Figure?

Solution:
$$V_{AVG} = \frac{2 V_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 15}{\pi} = 9.55 V.$$

Comparison of Rectifiers:



4.3: Filter Circuits

As described earlier, the output of a rectifier <u>contains</u> a number of ac components in addition to the dc component.



Figure: Power supply filtering.

To <u>remove</u> the A.C components (To <u>minimize</u> ripple in the rectifier output) or filter them out in a rectifier circuit, a filter circuit is used. A **filter circuit is a device to remove the A.C components of the rectified output, but allows the D.C components to reach the load**.

A filter circuit is in general a <u>combination</u> of inductor (L) and Capacitor (C) called LC filter circuit.

A capacitor <u>allows</u> A.C only and **inductor** <u>allows</u> D.C only to pass.

So, a suitable L and C network can effectively filter out the A.C component from rectified wave.

A filter circuit <u>consists of</u> passive circuit elements i.e., **inductors**, **capacitors**, **resistors** and **their combination**.

The filter action <u>depends upon</u> the electrical properties of passive circuit elements. For example, an **inductor** <u>allows</u> the D.C to pass through it. But it <u>blocks</u> A.C. On the other hand, a **capacitor** <u>allows</u> the A.C to pass through it. But it <u>blocks</u> the D.C.

Some of the important filters are given below.

1. Capacitor Filter, 2. Inductor Filter, 3. LC Filter, and 4. π or CLC Filter

NOTE:

The **ac components** produce ripple in the rectifier output which is **unwanted**, and <u>must be</u> <u>removed or minimized</u> **before** connecting the rectifier to a load.

4.3.1: Capacitor Filter Circuits

A power supply filter ideally <u>eliminates the fluctuations</u> in the output voltage of a half-wave or full-wave rectifier and produces a constant-level *dc* voltage.



<u>At point A</u> the **capacitor is charged** to the peak value V_m . (See 3rd Fig.)

The rectifier voltage (V_m) starts to decrease. At this occurs, the **capacitor discharges** through the R_L , and the voltage across it decreases as shown by line AB (3rd Fig.).

The voltage will decrease slightly <u>because immediately the next voltage peak comes and</u> recharges the capacitor.

This process is repeated and the output voltage waveform becomes ABCDEFG.

The **capacitor filter circuit** is **popular (famous)** <u>because</u> of its low cost, small size, little weight, and good characteristics.

<u>Useful</u> for load up to 50mA as in transistor radio battery eliminators.

A half wave rectifier with capacitor filter is shown in the below figure.



(b) The capacitor discharges through R_L after peak of positive alternation when the diode is reverse-biased. This discharging occurs during the portion of the input voltage indicated by the solid dark blue curve.



(c) The capacitor charges back to peak of input when the diode becomes forward-biased. This charging occurs during the portion of the input voltage indicated by the solid dark blue curve.

Figure: Operation of a half-wave rectifier with a capacitor-input filter. The current indicates charging or discharging of the capacitor.

NOTE:

- An AC/DC power supply is built using a **transformer** and a **half** or **full-wave** rectifier.
- The **transformer** <u>is used</u> to step down the voltage input.
- The **rectifier** <u>converts</u> AC to pulsed DC.
- A filter **capacitor** <u>is used</u> to smooth out the pulses.
- The capacitor <u>must be large enough</u> to store sufficient charge so as to provide a steady current supply to the load: $R_L C >> \frac{1}{f}$, where f is rectified signal's frequency.

4.3.2: Inductor Filter Circuits

This type of filter is also called **choke filter**. The **Inductor Filter** consists of the **self-inductance** L which is <u>inserted between</u> the **rectifier** and the **load resistance** R_L .

The rectifier contains A.C components as well as D.C components.

When the output passes through the inductor, it offers a <u>high resistance to the A.C component</u> and <u>no resistance to D.C components</u>. Therefore, **A.C components** of the rectified output <u>is</u> <u>blocked</u> (is reduced <u>after</u> passing through an inductor or choke filter) and **only D.C components** <u>reached</u> at the load.



The reactance of an inductor (X_L) with is given by $X_L = wL = 2\pi fL$ where w is the angular frequency of the current.

4.3.3: LC Filter (LC-Section) Circuits

<u>In inductor filter</u>, the **ripple factor** is directly proportional to the **load resistance** $(\gamma \propto R_L)$. <u>In a capacitor filter</u>, the **ripple factor** is varying inversely with the **load resistance** $(\gamma \propto \frac{1}{R_L})$.

Hence if we <u>combine</u> the inductor filter with the capacitor the **ripple factor** <u>will become</u> <u>almost independent of</u> the **load filter**. It is also known as **inductor input filter**, **choke input filter**, **L input** or **LC-section**.

In this circuit a choke is <u>connected in series</u> with the load. It offers **high resistances to the AC components** and **allows DC component to flow through the load**. The capacitor across the load is <u>connected in parallel</u> which filter out any **AC component flowing through the choke.**

In this way the <u>reppls are rectified</u> and <u>a smooth DC is provided through the load</u>.



4.3.4: CLC Or Pie Filter Circuits

It consists of one inductor and two capacitors connected across its each end.

The three components are arranged in shape of Greek letter **Pi**. It is also called **capacitor input Pi filter**.

The input capacitor C_1 is selected to offer very low reactance to the repel frequency <u>hence</u> major parts of filtering is done by C_1 . Most of the <u>remaining repels are removed</u> by the combining action of L and C_2 .

This circuit gives much **better filter** then LC filter. However, C_1 is still directly connected across the supply and would need high pulse of current <u>if</u> load current is large.

This filter <u>is used</u> for the low current equipment's.



4.4: Ripple Factor

The ratio of rms value of ac compound to the *dc* compound in the rectifier output is known as ripple factor (γ), i.e.:

 $\gamma = \frac{\hat{I}_{rms} \ (effective \ or \ rms \ value \ of \ ac \ compound \ of \ the \ load \ current)}{I_{dc} \ (average \ or \ dc \ value \ of \ the \ load \ current)} \quad or \quad \gamma = \frac{\hat{V}_{rms}}{V_{dc}} \quad \dots (27)$

The relationship between rms value of the total load current I_{rms} , and the rms value of the AC components I_{rms} , is given by:

$$I^{2}_{rms} = I^{2}_{dc} + \hat{I}^{2}_{rms} \rightarrow \hat{I}_{rms} = \sqrt{I^{2}_{rms} - I^{2}_{dc}}$$
$$\gamma = \frac{\hat{I}_{rms}}{I_{dc}} = \frac{\sqrt{I^{2}_{rms} - I^{2}_{dc}}}{\sqrt{I^{2}_{dc}}} =$$
$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{I^{2}_{rms}}{I^{2}_{dc}} - 1} OR \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{V^{2}_{rms}}{V^{2}_{dc}} - 1} \dots (28)$$

4.4.1: Ripple Factor of the Half-Wave Rectifier

The ripple factor of the half wave rectifier as given by equation (28) is:

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\underline{I}_m}{\underline{2}}\right)^2 - 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1} = 1.21$$

This shows that the AC component outweighs the DC component in the output which means <u>poor rectification</u>. Thus a half wave rectifier is not suitable for AC to DC conversion. The circuit, however, acts as a basic building block to construct more complex and efficient circuits.

4.4.2: Ripple Factor of the Full-Wave Rectifier

The ripple factor of the full wave rectifier as given by equation (28) is:

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{I^2_{rms}}{I^2_{dc}} - 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}}{\frac{2I_m}{\pi}}\right)^2 - 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 - 1} = 0.48$$

This is considerably <u>less than</u> the corresponding value for half wave rectifier. However, it is still too large to be fed to the electronic devices which require; $\gamma \le 0.005$

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4.4.3: Ripple Voltage

The variation in the capacitor voltage due to the charging and discharging is called the ripple voltage. Generally, ripple is undesirable; thus, the smaller the ripple, the better the filtering action, as illustrated in this Figure.



Figure: Half-wave ripple voltage.

For a given input frequency, the output frequency of a full-wave rectifier is twice that of a half-wave rectifier, as illustrated in this Figure.



Figure: The **period** of a full-wave rectified voltage is <u>half</u> that of a half-wave rectified voltage. The **output frequency** of a full-wave rectifier is <u>twice</u> that of a half-wave rectifier.

This makes a full-wave rectifier <u>easier</u> to filter <u>because of the shorter time between peaks</u>. <u>When filtered</u>, the full-wave rectified voltage <u>has a smaller ripple than does</u> a half-wave voltage for the <u>same</u> load resistance and capacitor values. The capacitor **discharges less** during the shorter interval between full-wave pulses, as shown in this Figure.



Figure: Comparison of ripple voltages for half-wave and full-wave rectified voltages with the same filter capacitor and load and derived from the same sinusoidal input voltage.

4.4.4: Ripple Factor with Capacitor Filter

The **ripple factor** (γ) is an indication of the effectiveness of the filter and is defined as:

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma} = \frac{\boldsymbol{V}_{r\,(\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{p})}}{\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{p}\boldsymbol{C}}} \dots (29)$$

where $V_{r(pp)}$ is the peak-to-peak ripple voltage and V_{DC} is the *dc* (average) value of the filter's output voltage, as illustrated in this Figure.



Figure: V_r and V_{DC} Determine the Ripple Factor.

The <u>lower</u> the ripple factor, the <u>better</u> the filter. The ripple factor <u>can be lowered</u> by **increasing the value of the filter capacitor** or **increasing the load resistance**.

For a full-wave rectifier with a capacitor-input filter, approximations for the **peak-to-peak** ripple voltage $(V_{r(pp)})$, and the *dc* value of the filter output voltage (V_{DC}) are given in the following equations:

$$V_{r(pp)} \cong \left(\frac{1}{fR_LC}\right) V_{p(rect)} \dots (30)$$
$$V_{DC} \cong \left(1 - \frac{1}{2fR_LC}\right) V_{p(rect)} = V_{p(rect)} - \frac{V_{r(pp)}}{2} \dots (31)$$

The variable $V_{p(rect)}$ is the unfiltered peak rectified voltage.

Notice that if R_L or C increases, the <u>ripple voltage decreases</u> and <u>the dc voltage increases</u>.

Note:

$$\gamma = \frac{\dot{V}_{rms}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{I_{dc}(2\pi - w(t_2 - t_1))}{2\sqrt{3}wC}}{I_{dc}R_L} = \frac{2\pi - w(t_2 - t_1)}{2\sqrt{3}wCR_L} \dots (32) \text{ For HWR}$$

If $(t_2 - t_1) << \frac{2\pi}{w}$, $w(t_2 - t_1)$ is neglected. Then we obtain:
$$\gamma = \frac{2\pi}{2\sqrt{3}wCR_L} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}fCR_L} \dots (33) \text{ For HWR}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{\dot{V}_{rms}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{I_{dc}(\pi - w(t_2 - t_1))}{2\sqrt{3}wC}}{I_{dc}R_L} = \frac{\pi - w(t_2 - t_1)}{2\sqrt{3}wCR_L} \dots (34) \text{ For FWR}$$

If $(t_2 - t_1) << \frac{\pi}{w}$, $w(t_2 - t_1)$ is neglected. Then we obtain:
$$\gamma = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{3}wCR_L} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}fCR_L} \dots (35) \text{ For FWR}$$

4.4.5: Ripple Factor with Inductor Filter

From equation (27), we have: $\gamma = \frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{4V_m}{3\pi\sqrt{2}\sqrt{R_L^2 + 4w^2L^2}}}{\frac{2V_m}{\pi R_L}} = \frac{2R_L}{3\sqrt{2}\sqrt{R_L^2 + 4w^2L^2}} = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{2}\sqrt{1 + \frac{4w^2L^2}{R_L^2}}} \dots (36)$ For $\frac{4w^2L^2}{R_L^2} >> 1$; $\gamma = \frac{R_L}{3\sqrt{2}wL} \dots (37)$

4.4.6: Ripple Factor with LC Filter

$$\gamma = \frac{\dot{V}_{rms}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{V_2}{V_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{V_m}{3\pi\sqrt{2} w^2 LC}}{\frac{2V_m}{\pi}} = \frac{1}{6\sqrt{2} w^2 LC} \dots (38)$$

At 50 Hz, we obtain;

$$\gamma = \frac{1.19}{LC} \dots (39)$$

Where C is in microfarad and L is in henry.

4.4.7: Ripple Factor with Pie Filter

$$\gamma = \frac{\dot{V}_{rms}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{V_2}{V_{dc}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{2}I_{dc}X_cX_{c1}}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}X_cX_{c1}}{R_LX_{L1}} \dots (40)$$

For the harmonic,

$$X_c = \frac{1}{2wc}, X_{c1} = \frac{1}{2wc_1}, X_{L1} = 2wL_1$$

Therefore, equation (40) becomes:

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}w^3CC_1L_1R_L}\dots(41)$$

At 50 Hz, we obtain;

$$\gamma = \frac{5700}{CC_1L_1R_L}\dots(42)$$

Where C and C_1 are in microfarads, L_1 is in henrys and R_L in ohms.

This expression shows that the ripple factor increases with decrease in load resistance. If a π -section filter is followed by an LC-section filter with inductance L_2 and capacitance C_2 , equation (40) may be extended to obtain the ripple. Thus we get:

$$\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{2X_c}}{R_L} \frac{X_{c1}}{X_{L1}} \frac{X_{c2}}{X_{L2}} \dots (43)$$

Example 4.10: Determine the ripple factor for the filtered bridge rectifier with a load as indicated in this Figure.



Solution:

The transformer turns ratio is $n = \frac{N_2}{N_1} = 0.1$. The peak primary voltage is: $V_{m(pri)} = \sqrt{2} V_{rms} = \sqrt{2} \times 120 = 170 V$ The peak secondary voltage is: $V_{m(sec)} = n V_{m(pri)} = 0.1 \times 170 = 17 V$ The unfiltered peak full-wave rectified voltage is:

$$V_{p(rect)} = V_{m(sec)} - 2V_b = 17 - 1.4 = 15.6 V_b$$

The frequency of a full-wave rectified voltage is 120 Hz.

The approximate peak-to-peak ripple voltage at the output:

$$V_{r(pp)} \cong \left(\frac{1}{fR_LC}\right) V_{p(rect)} = \frac{1}{120 \times 220 \times 10^{-3}} \times 15.6 = 0.591 V$$

The approximate dc value of the output voltage is determined as follows:

$$V_{dc} \cong \left(1 - \frac{1}{2fR_LC}\right) V_{p(rect)} = V_{p(rect)} - \frac{V_{r(pp)}}{2} = 15.6 - 0.3 = 15.3 V$$

The resulting ripple factor is:

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{r\,(pp)}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{0.591}{15.3} = 0.039$$

The percent ripple is 3.9%.

4.5: Regulation

The change in DC output with DC load current is termed **regulation**. It is given by:

$$Line Regulation = \frac{\Delta V_{OUT}}{\Delta V_{IN}} \times 100\% \quad ... (44)$$
$$Load Regulation = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100\% \quad ... (45)$$

Where V_{NL} is the output voltage at no load or the minimum load and V_{FL} is the voltage at full load. For an ideal power supply, the output voltage does not vary with load (or DC load current) and regulation is zero.

4.5.1: Regulation of the Half-Wave Rectifier

The *dc* output voltage across load is given by: $V_{dc} = I_{dc}R_L \rightarrow R_L = \frac{V_{dc}}{I_{dc}}$

Substituting the value of R_L into equation (4), we obtain:

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi} - I_{dc} r$$
 or $V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi} - V_b \dots (46)$

This equation shows that I_{dc} equals zero (no load), the *dc* output voltage is maximum and is equal to $V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi}$. Also, V_{dc} decreases linearly with increase in I_{dc} or load.

The <u>larger</u> value of the diode forward resistance (r), <u>decreases the *dc* output</u> for a given load. Strictly speaking, the **resistance of transformer secondary** <u>should also be added to *r*</u> while computing the regulation.

4.5.2: Regulation of the Full-Wave Rectifier

The *dc* output voltage across load is given by: $V_{dc} = I_{dc}R_L \rightarrow R_L = \frac{V_{dc}}{I_{dc}}$

Substituting the value of R_L into equation (20), we obtain:

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} - I_{dc}r$$
 or $V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} - V_b$ or $V_{dc} = 0.9 V_{rms} \dots (47)$

As in the case of half wave rectifier, the *DC* voltage output decreases with increases in load or the forward resistance of either diode.

H.W: Q4: A certain 7805 regulator has a measured no-load output voltage of 5.18 V and a full-load output of 5.15 V. What is the load regulation expressed as a percentage.

Solution: Load regulation =
$$\frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100\% = \frac{5.18 - 5.15}{5.15} \times 100\% = 0.58\%$$
.

4.6: Diode Limiters (Clipper)

A clipper is a type of diode network that has the ability to "clip off" a portion of the input signal without distorting the remaining part of the alternating waveform.

The half-wave rectifier is an example of the <u>simplest</u> form of a diode clipper — <u>one resistor and a diode</u>. Depending on the <u>orientation (direction) of the diode</u>, the **positive or negative region of the input signal is "clipped" off**.



(a) Limiting of the positive alternation. The diode is forward-biased during the positive alternation (above 0.7 V) and reverse-biased during the negative alternation.

Figure (a) shows a diode limiter (also called clipper) that limits or clips the positive part of the input voltage. As the input voltage goes positive, the diode becomes forward biased and conducts current. Because the cathode is at ground potential (0 V), the anode cannot exceed 0.7V (assuming silicon). So, point A is limited to +0.7V when the input voltage exceeds this value. When the input voltage goes back below 0.7 V, the diode is reverse biased and appears as an open.



(b) Limiting of the negative alternation. The diode is forward-biased during the negative alternation (below -0.7 V) and reverse-biased during the positive alternation.

If the diode is turned around, as in Figure (b), the negative part of the input voltage is clipped off. When the diode is forward-biased during the negative part of the input voltage, point A is held at -0.7 V by the diode drop. When the input voltage goes above -0.7 V, the diode is no longer forward-biased, and a voltage appears across R_L proportional to the input voltage.

The magnitude of output voltage by the voltage divider formed by R_1 and the load resistor R_L , as follows:

$$V_{out} = V_{in} \left(\frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} \right)$$

If R_1 is small compared to R_L then $V_{out} = V_{in}$.

4.7: Biased Limiters

The level to which an <u>ac voltage</u> is limited can be adjusted by adding a bias voltage, V_{BIAS} , in <u>series with the diode</u>, as shown in Figure (a). The voltage at point A must equal $V_{BIAS} + 0.7 V$ before the diode will become forward-biased and conduct. Once the diode begins to conduct, the voltage at point A is limited to $V_{BIAS} + 0.7 V$ so that all input voltage above this level is clipped off.



To limit a voltage to a specified negative level, the diode and bias voltage must be connected as in Figure (c). In this case, the voltage at point A must go below $-V_{BIAS} - 0.7 V$ V to forward-bias the diode and initiate limiting action as shown.



By turning the diode around, the positive limiter can be modified to limit the output voltage to the portion of the input voltage waveform above $V_{BIAS} - 0.7 V$ as shown by the output waveform in Figure (b). Similarly, the negative limiter can be modified to limit the output voltage to the portion of the input voltage waveform below $-V_{BIAS} + 0.7 V$, as shown by the output waveform in Figure (d).

NOTE: What was the first sign? Therefore, you will be putting the same sign.

Example 4.11: What would you expect to see on an oscilloscope connected across R_L in the limiter circuit shown below.



Solution:

The diode is forward-biased and conducts when the input voltage goes below -0.7 V. For the negative limiter, the peak output voltage across R_L by the following equation:

$$V_{out} = V_{in} \left(\frac{R_L}{R_L + R_1} \right) = 10 \left(\frac{1000}{1000 + 100} \right) = 9.09 V$$

Example 4.12: Figure shown below shows a circuit combining a positive limiter with a negative limiter Determine the output voltage waveform.



Solution:

When the voltage at point A reaches $V_{BIAS} + 0.7 = 5 + 0.7 = 5.7 V$. diode D₁ conducts and limits the waveform to +5.7 V.

Diode D2 does not conduct until the voltage reaches $-V_{BIAS} - 0.7 = -5 - 0.7 = -5.7 V$. Therefore, positive voltages above +5.7 V and negative voltages below -5.7 V are clipped off.



4.8: Diode Clampers (DC Restorers)

Clampers are sometimes known as DC restorers.

A **clamper** is a network constructed of a diode, a resistor, and a capacitor that shifts a waveform to a different DC level <u>without changing</u> the appearance of the applied signal.

Operation at forward biased, the diode is short circuited (i.e., "on" state). The voltage will be $V_o = 0$ since the current is shorted thru diode and the capacitor is charged up to a voltage V.



The voltage will be $V_0 = 0$ since the current is shorted thru diode. The voltage across R will be: $V_{dc} + V_c = -V + (-V) = -2V$ VIA V_M VOL 0 4 $-2 V_M$ Input signal Positive Load source clamper 20V Input signal Negative Load source clamper

OR A clamper adds a dc level to an ac voltage.

Figures (a) and (b) show a diode clamper that inserts a **positive dc level** in the output waveform. The operation of this circuit can be seen by considering the first negative half-cycle of the input voltage.

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When the input voltage initially goes negative, the diode is forward biased, <u>allowing</u> the capacitor to charge to near the peak of the input $+(V_{p(in)} - 0.7V)$, as shown in Figure (a). Just after the negative peak, the diode is reverse-biased.

This is because the cathode is <u>held</u> near $V_{p(in)} - 0.7 V$ by the charge on the capacitor.

The capacitor <u>can only discharge</u> through the high resistance of R_L . So, <u>from the peak of</u> <u>one negative half-cycle to the next</u>, the capacitor discharges very little.

The amount that is discharged, of course, <u>depends on</u> the value of R_L .

<u>For good clamping action</u>, the time constant ($\tau = \text{RC} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_c}$) (where f_c is the cutoff frequency) should be at least ten times the period of the input frequency.



The net effect of the clamping action is that the capacitor retains a charge approximately equal to the peak value of the input less the diode drops $(V_{DC} = +(V_{p(in)} - 0.7))$. The capacitor voltage acts essentially as a battery in <u>series</u> with the input voltage. The **dc voltage** of the capacitor <u>adds</u> to the input voltage by superposition, as in Figure (b).



If the diode is turned around. A negative dc voltage is <u>added</u> to the input voltage to produce the output voltage as shown in Figure (c). $V_{DC} = -(V_{p(in)} - 0.7)$



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Clamper Application:

A clamping circuit is often used in television receivers as a dc restorer. The incoming composite video signal is normally processed through capacitively coupled amplifiers that eliminate the dc component. Thus, losing the black and white reference levels and the blanking level. Before being applied to the picture tube. These reference levels must be restored.

Example 4.13: What is the output voltage that you would expect to observe across R_L in the clamping circuit of the circuit below. Assume that *RC* is large enough to prevent significant capacitor discharge.



Solution: Ideally. a negative dc value equal

to the input peak less the diode drop is inserted by the clamping circuit.

$$V_{DC} = -(V_{p(in)} - 0.7) = -(24 - 0.7) = -23.3 V$$

Actually, the capacitor will discharge slightly between peaks, and, as a result, the output voltage will have an average value of slightly less than that calculated above. The output waveform goes to approximately +0.7 V.



H.W: Q5: What is the output voltage that you would observe across R_L in Figure for $C = 22\mu f$ and $R_L = 18 k\Omega$?



4.9: Voltage Multipliers

Voltage multipliers use clamping action to increase peak rectified voltages without the necessity of increasing the transformer's voltage rating.

Multiplication factors of two, three, and four are common.

Voltage multipliers are used in high-voltage, low-current applications such as TV receivers.

4.9.1: Voltage Doubler

A voltage Doubler is a voltage multiplier with a multiplication factor of two.

Half-Wave Voltage Doubler:

A half-wave voltage Doubler is shown in this Figure.

<u>During the positive half-cycle</u> of the secondary voltage, diode \underline{D}_1 is forward-biased and \underline{D}_2 is reverse-biased.

Capacitor C_1 is charged to the peak of the secondary voltage $(\underline{V_p})$ less the diode drops with the polarity shown in part (a).

<u>During the negative half-cycle</u>, diode D_2 is forward-biased and D_1 is reverse-biased, as shown in part (b).

Since $\underline{C_1}$ can't discharge, the peak voltage on C_1 adds to the secondary voltage to charge C_2 to approximately $\underline{2V_p}$.

Applying Kirchhoff's law around the loop as shown in part (b), the voltage across C₂ is:

$$V_{C1} - V_{C2} + V_p = 0$$

 $V_{C2} = V_{C1} + V_p$

Neglecting the diode drop of D_2 ; $V_{C1} = V_p$.



Half-wave voltage doubler operation. V_p is the peak secondary voltage.

Under a no-load condition, C_2 remains charged to approximately $2V_p$ If a load resistance is connected across the output, C_2 discharges slightly through the load on the next positive half-cycle and is again recharged to $2V_p$ on the following negative half-cycle.

The resulting output is a half-wave, capacitor-filtered voltage.

The peak inverse voltage (**PIV**) across each diode is <u>2V_p</u>.

If the diode were reversed, the output voltage across C_2 would have the opposite polarity.

Full-Wave Voltage Doubler:

A full-wave Doubler is shown in this Figure.

When the secondary voltage is positive, D_1 is forward-biased and C_1 charges to approximately $\underline{V_p}$, as shown in part (a).

During the negative half-cycle, D_2 is forward-biased and C_2 charges to approximately $\underline{V_p}$, as shown in part (b).

The output voltage $(\underline{2V_p})$, is taken across the two capacitors in series.



Full-wave voltage doubler operation.

4.9.2: Voltage Tripler

The <u>addition</u> of another diode-capacitor section to the half-wave voltage Doubler <u>creates</u> a **voltage Tripler**, as shown in this Figure.

The operation is as follows: On the positive half-cycle of the secondary voltage, C_1 charges to $\frac{V_p}{D_p}$ through D₁. During the negative half-cycle, C_2 charges to $\frac{2V_p}{D_p}$ through D₂, as described for the Doubler. During the next positive half-cycle, C₃ charges to $\frac{2V_p}{D_p}$ through D₃.

The Tripler output is taken across C_1 and C_3 , as shown in the figure.



4.9.2: Voltage Quadrupler

The <u>addition</u> of still another diode-capacitor section, as shown in this Figure, <u>produces an</u> <u>output four times the peak secondary voltage</u>.

 C_4 charges to $\underline{2V_p}$ through D_4 on a negative half-cycle. The $\underline{4V_p}$ output is taken across C_2 and C_4 , as shown.

In <u>both</u> the Tripler and Quadrupler circuits, the **PIV of each diode is 2V_p**.



9.10: Testing a Diode

A <u>multimeter can be used</u> as a fast and simple way to check a diode out of the circuit.

A good diode will show an extremely high resistance (ideally an open) with reverse bias and a very low resistance with forward bias. A defective open diode will show an extremely high resistance (or open) for both forward and reverse bias. A defective shorted or resistive diode will show zero or a low resistance for both forward and reverse bias. An open diode is the most common type of failure.



Testing a diode out-of-circuit with a DMM.

NOTE:

You must see on pages from 78 to 84 in Electronic Devices Conventional (9th Edition-Floyd).

H.W: Q6: Answers can be found at https://quizlet.com/429026817/thomas-floyd-mcq-flash-cards/

1. The average value of a half-wave rectified voltage with a peak value of 200 V is (b) 127.2 V (c) 141 V (d) 0 V(a) 63.7 V 2. When a 60 Hz sinusoidal voltage is applied to the input of a half-wave rectifier, the output frequency is (a) 120 Hz (b) 30 Hz (c) 60 Hz (d) 0 Hz3. The peak value of the input to a half-wave rectifier is 10 V. The approximate peak value of the output is (b) 3.18 V (a) 10 V (c) 10.7 V (d) 9.3 V 4. The peak value of the input to a half-wave rectifier is 10 V, the diode must be able to withstand a reverse voltage of (a) 10 V (b) 5 V (c) 20 V (d) 3.18 V 5. The average value of a full-wave rectified voltage with a peak value of 75 V is (a) 53 V (b) 47.8 V (c) 37.5 V (d) 23.9 V 6. When a 60 Hz sinusoidal voltage is applied to the input of a full-wave rectifier, the output frequency is (a) 120 Hz (b) 60 Hz (c) 240 Hz (d) 0 Hz7. The total secondary voltage in a center-tapped full-wave rectifier is 125 V rms. Neglecting the diode drop, the rms output voltage is (a) 125 V (b) 177 V (c) 100 V (d) 62.5 V 8. When the peak output voltage is 100 V, the PIV for each diode in a center-tapped fullwave rectifier is (neglecting the diode drop) (a) 100 V (b) 200 V (c) 141 V (d) 50 V 9. When the rms output voltage of a bridge full-wave rectifier is 20 V, the peak inverse voltage across the diodes is (neglecting the diode drop) (a) 20 V (b) 40 V (c) 28.3 V (d) 56.6 V 10. The ideal dc output voltage of a capacitor-input filter is equal to (a) the peak value of the rectified voltage (b) the average value of the rectified voltage (c) the rms value of the rectified voltage 11. A certain power-supply filter produces an output with a ripple of 100 mV peak-to-peak and a dc value of 20 V. The ripple factor is (b) 0.005 (c) 0.00005(a) 0.05 (d) 0.02

12. A 60 V peak full-wave rectified voltage is applied to a capacitor-input filter. If f = 120 Hz, $R_L = 10 k\Omega$, and $C = 10 \mu F$, the ripple voltage is (a) 0.6 V (b) 6 mV (c) 5.0 V (d) 2.88 V 13. If the load resistance of a capacitor-filtered full-wave rectifier is reduced, the ripple voltage (c) is not affected (d) has a different frequency (a) increases (b) decreases 14. Line regulation is determined by (a) load current (b) Zener current and load current (c) changes in load resistance and output voltage (d) changes in output voltage and input voltage 15. Load regulation is determined by (a) changes in load current and input voltage (b) changes in load current and output voltage (c) changes in load resistance and input voltage (d) changes in Zener current and load current 16. A 10 V peak-to-peak sinusoidal voltage is applied across a silicon diode and series resistor. The maximum voltage across the diode is (a) 9.3 V (b) 5 V (c) 0.7 V(d) 10 V (e) 4.3 V 17. In a certain biased limiter, the bias voltage is 5 V and the input is a 10 V peak sine wave. If the positive terminal of the bias voltage is connected to the cathode of the diode, the maximum voltage at the anode is (a) 10 V (b) 5 V (c) 5.7 V (d) 0.7 V 18. In a certain positive clamper circuit, a 120 V rms sine wave is applied to the input. The dc value of the output is (a) 119.3 V (b) 169 V (c) 60 V(d) 75.6 V 19. The input of a voltage Doubler is 120 V rms. The peak-to-peak output is approximately (a) 240 V (b) 60 V (c) 167 V (d) 339 V 20. If the input voltage to a voltage Tripler has a rms value of 12 V, the dc output voltage is approximately (b) 50.9 V (a) 36 V (c) 33.9 V (d) 32.4 V 21. When a silicon diode is working properly in forward bias, a DMM in the diode test position will indicate (a) 0 V (b) OL (c) approximately 0.7 V(d) approximately 0.3 V22. When a silicon diode is open, a DMM will generally indicate (c) approximately 0.7 V(d) approximately 0.3 V(a) 0 V (b) OL