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Rectification :-

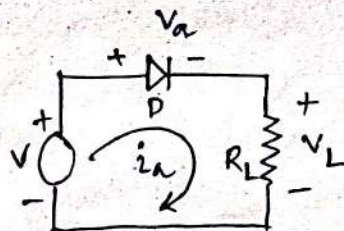
The process by which an alternating current (or voltage) is transformed into a direct current (or voltage) is called rectification.

⇒ An electrical device having a low resistance to current in one direction and a relatively high resistance to current in the reverse direction serves as a rectifier.

② Dynamic characteristic of a diode

→ Let a diode D be connected to the source of voltage V through a load resistance R_L . Due to the flow of the diode current i_a , a voltage drop $V_L = i_a R_L$ appears across R_L . If V_a is the voltage drop across the diode, we have by KVL

$$V_a + V_L = V \quad \text{--- (1)}$$



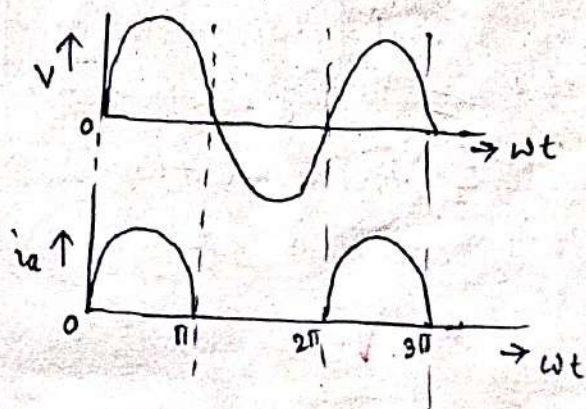
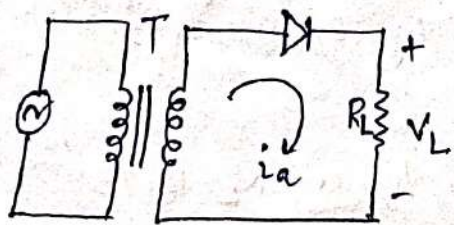
→ The static characteristic of the diode gives the variation of i_a with V_a . The dynamic characteristic of the diode which we shall immediately obtain, gives the variation of i_a with the supply voltage V .

→ Equation (1) shows that the plot of i_a against V_a is a straight line through the points $(i_a = 0, V_a = V)$ and $(i_a = V/R_L, V_a = 0)$.

→ Thus the intercept of the straight line on the voltage axis is V and then on the current axis is V/R_L . The slope of the straight line, called the load line, is $-1/R_L$, [study from book].

Half-Wave Rectifier

- Since the negative half cycles of the input voltage are cut off and are absent from the output load voltage in the circuit, which uses a single diode, the circuit is referred to as a half-wave rectifier.
- A practical half-wave rectifier circuit, shown in fig, uses a transformer T at the input.
- The purpose of the transformer is to step up or step down the ac mains voltage connected to its primary.
- If the ac mains voltage is $E_p \sin \omega t$, the rectifier input voltage is $e = E_s \sin \omega t = n E_p \sin \omega t$, where n is the transformer secondary-to-primary turns ratio, and E_p is the amplitude of the ac mains voltage.
- By adjusting n , the secondary voltage is made to suit the diode rating.
- The diode current i_a flows during the positive half cycles of the input voltage, as shown in fig.



Full wave rectifier

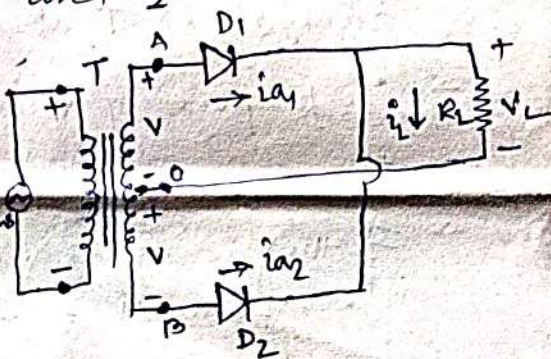
→ If two diodes are so connected that conduction occurs through one diode during one half of the input voltage cycle and through the other diode during the next half of the cycle, a unidirectional current can flow through the load resistance during the full cycle of the input voltage. Such a circuit is called a full-wave rectifier.

→ This is an improvement over a half-wave rectifier where the output current flows only for the positive half cycles of the input voltage.

→ A full-wave rectifier circuit is shown in fig.

→ T is a centre-tapped transformer, and D_1 and D_2 are two identical diodes.

→ As each half of the transformer secondary has equal number of turns, the voltage induced in each half of the secondary is equal in magnitude but opposite in phase.



→ Let at any instant of the input half cycle, the point A have a positive voltage with respect to the centre point O. The point B has an equal magnitude of negative voltage with respect to O. So, the diode D_1 conducts and D_2 does not during this half cycle.

→ In the following half cycle, D_2 conducts and D_1 remains off.

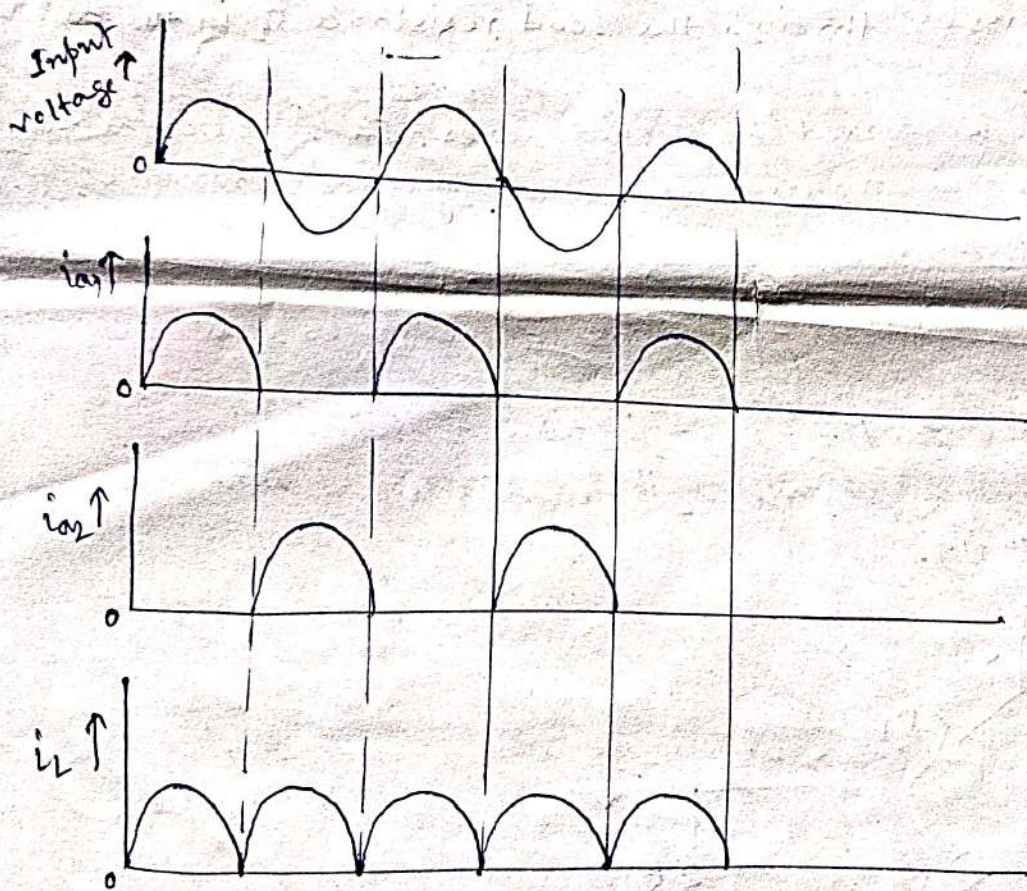
→ The diode currents i_{a1} and i_{a2} carried by D_1 and D_2 respectively, are depicted by in fig.

→ The current i_L through the load resistance R_L is the sum of i_{a1} and i_{a2} , and is exhibited in fig.

The load current i_L is thus unidirectional in each half cycle and is shared alternately by the two diodes.

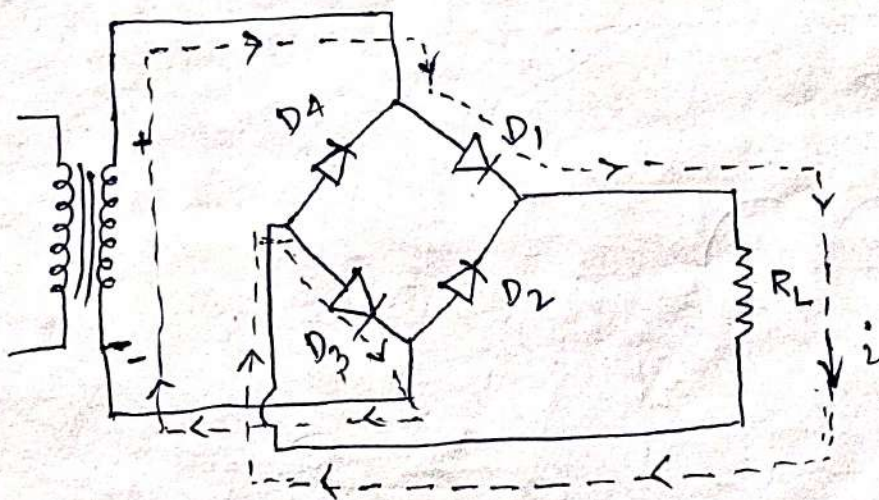
→ The output voltage $v_L (= i_L R_L)$ has the same waveform as the load current i_L .

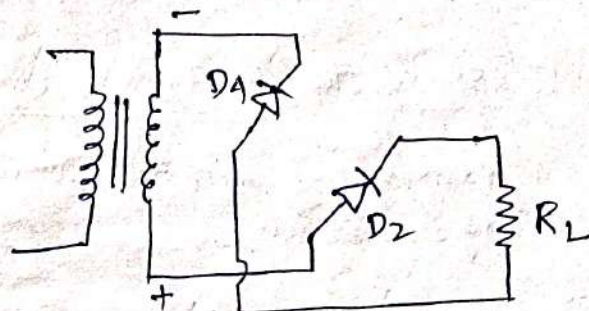
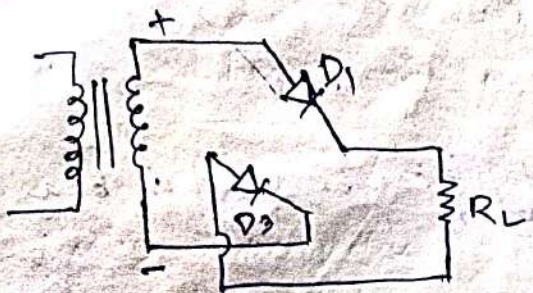
→ Since the diodes D_1 and D_2 are identical, the average value of i_L of a full-wave rectifier is double that of a half-wave rectifier using a similar diode.



Bridge Rectifier

- Full wave rectification is also achieved with the aid of a bridge circuit employing four diodes.
- In the circuit, only two diodes in the opposite arms of the bridge conduct simultaneously while the other two diodes remain off.
- For the instantaneous polarity of the transformer secondary voltage shown in fig, the diodes D_1 and D_3 conduct, but the diodes D_2 and D_4 do not.
- A current i thus passes through the load resistance R_L in the direction of the arrowhead.
- The conduction path is marked by dashed lines. In the next half cycle, the polarity of the transformer secondary voltage reverses.
- Now D_2 and D_4 conduct, and D_1 and D_3 are off.
- But the load current flows in the same direction as that preceding half cycle.
- For the full cycle, the load current is thus unidirectional. Consequently, the output voltage V_L is unidirectional with the polarity as marked in fig.





Peak Inverse Voltage.

- The peak inverse voltage (abbreviated PIV) is the maximum reverse voltage to which the diode is subjected when it is nonconducting.
- The rated PIV is specified by the diode manufacturer.
- The maximum rated PIV of a silicon diode is greater than that of a Ge diode.
- To avoid a possible damage, the diode must not be subjected to a PIV exceeding its rated value.
- In a half-wave rectifier, the PIV is the maximum voltage appearing across the transformer secondary.
- Neglecting the small voltage drop across the conducting diode in a full wave rectifier, the PIV for each diode is found to be twice the maximum voltage between the centre tap and either end of the secondary of the transformer.

→ In bridge circuit, each nonconducting diode is subjected to the transformer secondary voltage; so the PIV is the maximum voltage of the transformer secondary.

① Advantage of the bridge rectifier

1. A transformer without a centre tap can be used in a bridge circuit.
2. Since both the primary and the secondary currents in the transformer are sinusoidal, the bridge circuit required a smaller transformer than that needed by a full-wave rectifier giving the same dc output voltage.
3. The PIV rating of a diode in a bridge rectifier is half that for a full wave circuit yielding the same dc output voltage.

② Disadvantage of bridge rectifier

1. A full-wave rectifier uses two diodes whereas a bridge rectifier employs four diodes.
2. Since the current flows through two diodes in series in a bridge circuit, a large power is dissipated in the diodes. Hence, the bridge circuit is not efficient for low voltages.

① Factors determining rectifier performance.

a) Average or DC value of the load current

- The load current of a rectifier is unidirectional but fluctuating.
- Since it is a periodic function of time, by Fourier's theorem, it can be thought to have an average value superimposed on which are sinusoidal currents having harmonically related frequencies.
- The average or the dc value of the load current is

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

Here, i_L is the instantaneous load current at time t and ω is the angular frequency of the input sinusoidal voltage.

b) Ripple factor

- Periodically fluctuating components - the ripples - are superimposed on I_{dc} to give the actual load current.
- Due to these fluctuating components, the conversion of ac to dc by a rectifier is not perfect.
- The ripple factor, denoted by γ , gives a measure of this imperfection or of the fluctuating components.

→ The ripple factor is defined by

$$\gamma = \frac{\text{rms value of the alternating components of the load currents (or voltage)}}{\text{average value of the load current (or voltage)}}$$

$$= \frac{I'_{rms}}{I_{dc}} = \frac{V'_{rms}}{V_{dc}}$$

where, I'_{rms} and V'_{rms} are, respectively, the rms values of the alternating components of the load current and the load voltage. V_{dc} is the average or the dc load voltage. If R_L is the load resistance, we obtain, $V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L$ and $V'_{rms} = I'_{rms} R_L$

The instantaneous ac component of the load current is

$$i' = i_L - I_{dc}$$

$i_L \rightarrow$ is the instantaneous total load current.

The rms value of the ~~alter~~ alternating component of the load current (or the ripple current) is

$$\begin{aligned} I'_{rms} &= \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (i_L - I_{dc})^2 d(\omega t) \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (i_L^2 - 2i_L I_{dc} + I_{dc}^2) d(\omega t) \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

If I_{rms} is the rms or the effective value of the total load current, we have

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

$$\begin{aligned} I_{rms}^2 &= (I_{rms}^2 - 2I_{dc}^2 + I_{dc}^2)^{1/2} \\ &= (I_{rms}^2 - I_{dc}^2)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

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



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$$\delta = \frac{(I_{rms} - I_{dc})^2}{I_{dc}} = \frac{(V_{rms} - V_{dc})^2}{V_{dc}}$$

Where, $V_{rms} (= R_L I_{rms})$ denotes the rms value of the total load voltage. A small value of δ is desirable for good rectification.

Rectification Efficiency

→ The efficiency of rectification is defined to be the ratio of the dc output power (P_{dc}) to the ac input power (P_i) of the rectifier.

It is denoted by η and is usually expressed as a percentage. Thus

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_i} \times 100 \text{ percent.}$$

The quantity η is also referred to as the theoretical efficiency or the conversion efficiency of the rectifier.

We have

$$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L$$

and

$$P_i = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} v \cdot i_L d(\omega t)$$

where v is the instantaneous input voltage at time t . If R_f is the forward resistance of the diode, KVL gives

$$v = i_L (R_f + R_L)$$

If R_s is assumed to be a constant,

$$P_i = \frac{R_f + R_L}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_L^2 d(\omega t) \\ = (R_f + R_L) I_{rms}^2.$$

Therefore, $\eta = \frac{I_{dc}^2 R_L}{I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L)} \times 100$

$$= \left(\frac{I_{dc}}{I_{rms}} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{1 + R_s/R_L} \times 100 \text{ percent.}$$

η has a high value for a good rectifier.

⑧ I_{dc} , δ and η for a half-wave rectifier

In the half-wave rectifier circuit, the load current is given by

$$i_L = I_m \sin \omega t, \quad \text{if } 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$$

$$\text{and, } = 0 \quad \text{if } \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi$$

where I_m is the amplitude or the peak value of the diode current.

If V_s is the amplitude of the transformer secondary voltage, we have

$$I_m = \frac{V_s}{R_f + R_L}$$

The effective resistance of the transformer secondary, if not negligible, will have to be added to $(R_f + R_L)$.

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

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

The upper limit of the integral is π instead of 2π since $i_L = 0$ in the interval from π to 2π .

We obtain

$$\tilde{I}_{rms} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) = \frac{I_m}{4}$$

and $I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{2}$

Therefore, $\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}} = \pi/2 = 1.57$

and, $\delta = \left[\left(\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}} \right)^2 - 1 \right]^{1/2} = 1.21$

and

$$\eta = \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{1}{1 + R_f/R_L} \times 100 \text{ percent}$$

$$= \frac{40.6}{1 + R_f/R_L} \text{ percent.}$$

⑧ I_{dc} , δ and η for a full-wave rectifier

$$I_{dc} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} (-I_m \sin \omega t) \, d(\omega t) \right] = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$$

where, $I_m = \frac{V_s}{R_f + R_L}$ with V_s as the maximum voltage between the centre tap and either end of the ~~load~~ transformer secondary.

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} I_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t \, d(\omega t) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} I_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t \, d(\omega t) \right]}$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Thus, $\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}} = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}} = 1.11$

The ripple factor is $\gamma = \left[(1.11)^2 - 1 \right]^{1/2} = 0.482$

and the conversion efficiency is

$$\eta = \frac{81.2}{1 + R_f/R_L} \text{ percent.}$$

- We find that I_{dc} and η of a full-wave rectifier are two times those of a half-wave rectifier.
- Also, the ripple factor of a full-wave rectifier is smaller by a factor of 2.5 than that for a half-wave circuit.
- Therefore, a full-wave circuit performs better than a half-wave rectifier.
- If a bridge rectifier is used, R_f is replaced by $2R_f$, since two diodes in series conduct simultaneously.
- The ripple factor for a bridge rectifier is 0.482, the same as that for a full-wave rectifier.

regulation

$$I_{dc} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) = \frac{I_m}{\pi} \quad \text{for half-wave rectifier.}$$

$$I_{dc} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} \quad \text{for Full-wave rectifier.}$$

and

$$I_m = \frac{V_s}{R_f + R_L}$$

From the above eqⁿs, we infer that the average load current can, in general, be written as

$$I_{dc} = k I_m = \frac{k V_s}{n R_f + R_L}$$

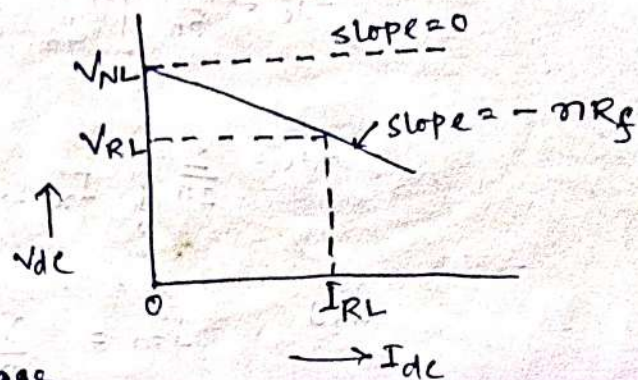
where $k = \frac{1}{\pi}$ for a half wave rectifier and $k = \frac{2}{\pi}$ for a full-wave rectifier or bridge rectifier.

$n = 1$ for half-wave and full wave rectifier, and $n = 2$ for a bridge rectifier. The dc load voltage is

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L = k V_s - I_{dc} \cdot n R_f$$

A plot of V_{dc} against I_{dc} given in fig, shows that V_{dc} decreases linearly with increasing I_{dc} . The slope of the straight line is $-n R_f$ and its intercept on the V_{dc} axis is $k V_s$ which is the open-circuit or no-load output voltage, denoted by V_{NL} .

- In practice, the resistance R_s of the transformer secondary should be added to nR_f since it is in series with the diode.
- The diode resistance can be experimentally determined from the plot given in fig.

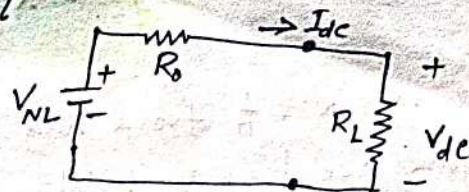


- The output voltage V_{RL} for a normal or rated load current I_{RL} is less than V_{NL} by an amount increasing with the diode resistance.

- For an ideal diode, $R_f = 0$ whence the slope of the V_{dc} versus I_{dc} straight line is zero.

- The thevenin equivalent circuit of a rectifier is depicted in fig. This equivalent circuit follows from eqⁿ.

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L = KV_s - I_{dc} nR_f$$



- The rectifier behaves as a voltage source having a generated voltage V_{NL} and an internal resistance (the output resistance) R_0 .
- For a full-wave or a half wave rectifier $R_0 = R_f$, and for a bridge rectifier $R_0 = 2R_f$.
- The variation of V_{dc} with I_{dc} is called regulation, and the plot of V_{dc} versus I_{dc} is referred to as the voltage regulation characteristic of the rectifier.
- In the ideal rectifier, V_{dc} is independent of I_{dc} so that the voltage regulation characteristic is parallel to the I_{dc} axis.
- In practice, the departure of the behaviour of an actual rectifier from that of an ideal rectifier is expressed by percentage voltage regulation.

It is defined as

$$\text{Percentage voltage regulation} = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{RL}}{V_{RL}} \times 100\%$$

$$= \frac{I_{dc} n R_f}{I_{dc} R_L} \times 100\%$$

$$= \frac{n R_f}{R_L} \times 100\%$$

→ In the ideal situation, the percentage regulation is zero.



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TUR (Transformer Utilization Factor)

→ This is defined as the ratio of the power delivered to the load (P_{dc}) and ac rating of the transformer secondary ($P_{ac(rated)}$)

$$TUR = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac(rated)}}$$

Now, $P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L$

and $P_{ac} = V_{rms} \times I_{rms}$

For a half-wave rectifier, the rated secondary voltage is

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ and } I_{dc} = \frac{I_m}{\pi}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{rms} &= I_{rms} \cdot R_L = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \\ I_{rms} &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) \\ I_{dc} &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi I_m \sin \omega t \, d(\omega t) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{for half wave rectifier } TUF &= \frac{\left(\frac{I_m}{\pi}\right)^2 \cdot R_L}{\left(\frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \left(\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{I_m}{\pi}\right)^2 \cdot R_L}{I_m^2 \cdot \frac{(R_f + R_L)}{(2\sqrt{2})}} \\ &= \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{R_f}{R_L}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left[\because I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \right]$$

for a diode circuit usually, $R_f \ll R_L$, then $TUF = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\pi^2} \approx 0.287$

→ For a full-wave rectifier average TUF is found out by considering primary and secondary windings separately. In a centre-tap rectifier the dc currents in the two halves of the transformer secondary flow in opposite directions.

$$\text{TUF of primary} = \frac{I_{dc}^2 R_L}{V_{rms} I_{rms}} = \frac{\left(\frac{2I_m}{\pi}\right)^2 \cdot R_L}{\frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}}$$

$$\text{using } I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}, I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}, V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore \text{TUF (of primary)} = \frac{8}{\pi^2} \times \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}$$

$$\text{for } R_f \ll R_L$$

$$\text{TUF for primary} = \frac{8}{\pi^2} = 0.812$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, TUF for secondary} &= 2 \times \text{TUF of half-wave} \\ &= 2 \times 0.286 \\ &= 0.572 \end{aligned}$$

[As transformer secondary for centre-tap can be considered as equivalent to two half-wave rectifier circuit.]

$$\therefore (\text{TUF})_{av} = \frac{0.812 + 0.572}{2} = 0.692$$

→ For bridge rectifier the current flow through both of primary and secondary are sinusoidal and there is no centre-tap at secondary. Hence TUF for both primary and secondary are 0.812 and average TUF is 0.812.