

Module 5

Basic Electronic Circuits and Instrumentation

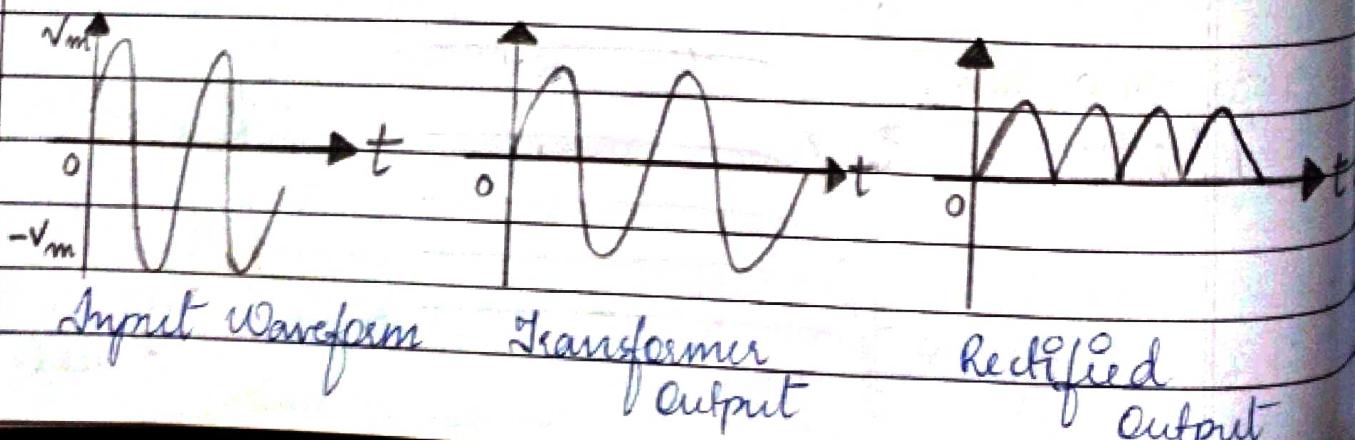
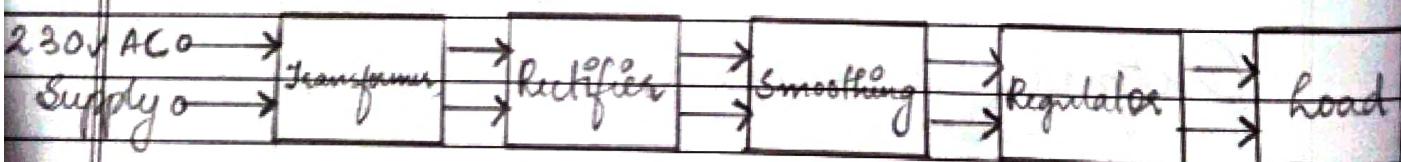
* Rectifiers:

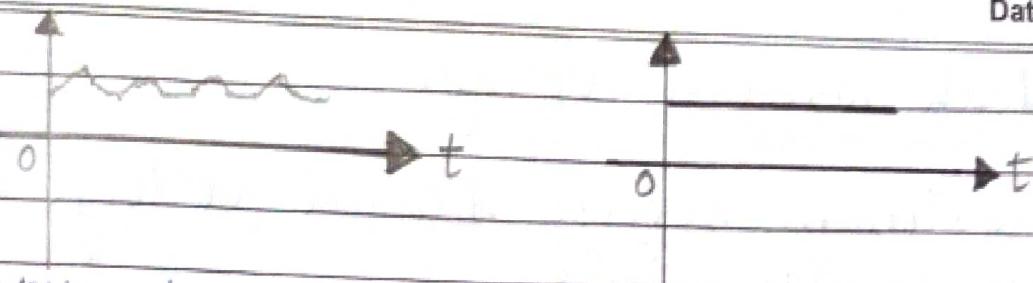
A rectifier is an electrical device that converts alternating current, which periodically reverses direction, to direct current, which flows in only one direction. The reverse operation is performed by the inverter. The process is known as rectification.

* Powers Supply

A power supply is an electrical device that supplies electric power to an electrical load.

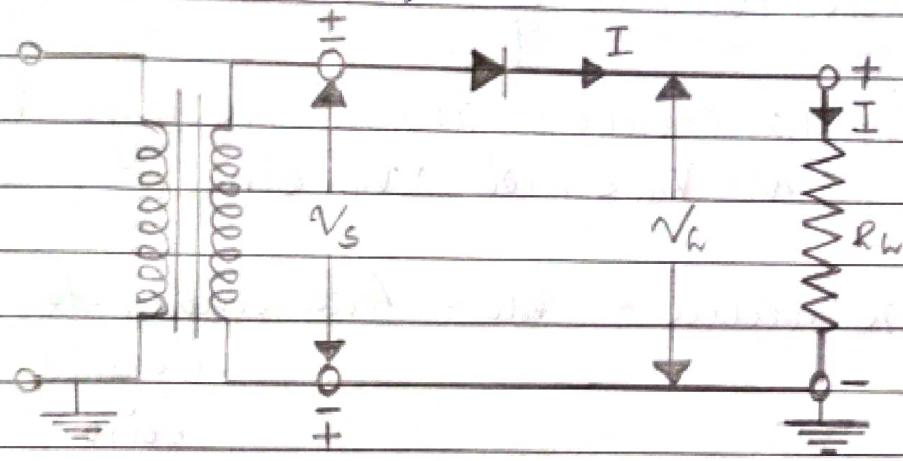
* Block Diagram of DC Power Supply



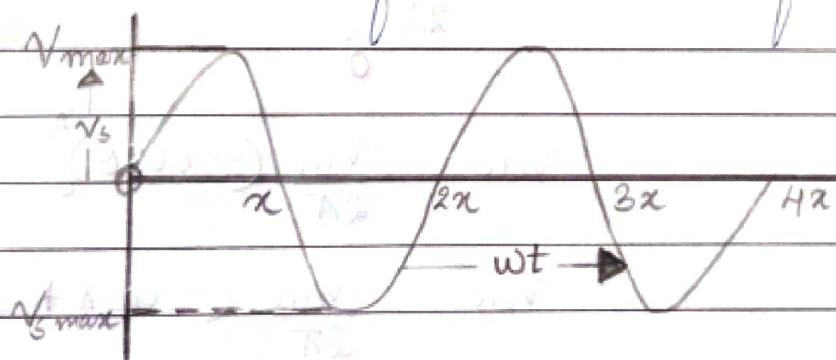


Filtered Output Pure dc output.

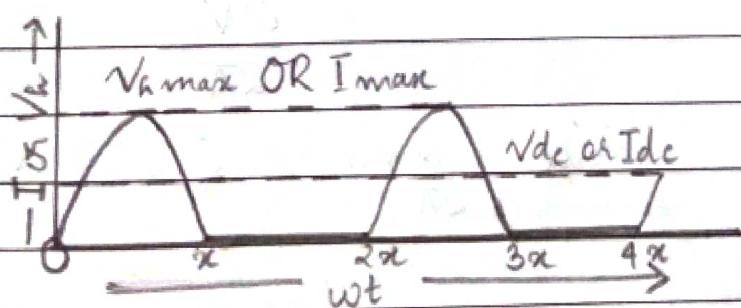
* Half wave Rectifier



Half-Wave Rectifier



Input Voltage Waveform



* Peak Inverse Voltage

- Maximum reverse biased voltage appears across the diode.
- Half wave rectifier, PIV = V_m .
- Average Values of Voltage & Current
- Let instantaneous input voltage be $v = V_m \sin \omega t = V_m \sin \theta$
- Average value = $V_{dc} = \text{Area under the wave in one cycle base}$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} V_m \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{2\pi} (-\cos \theta) \Big|_0^\pi$$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{2\pi} (-\cos \pi + \cos 0)$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{2\pi} (1+1)$$

$$= \frac{2V_m}{2\pi}$$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{2\pi} = 0.637 V_m = 0.316 V_m$$

Similarly,

$$I_{dc} = \frac{\alpha I_m}{2\pi} = 0.637 I_m = 0.316 I_m$$

$$I_m = \frac{N_m}{R_e}$$

RMS Values of Voltage & Current

$$\text{RMS value} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (I_m \sin \omega t)^2 d(\omega t) + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} 0^2 d(\omega t)}$$

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

$$= \sqrt{\frac{I_m^2}{4\pi} \int_0^{\pi} 2 \sin^2 \omega t d(\omega t)}$$

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

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

$$= \frac{I_m}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} [\pi - 0]}$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2} = 0.5 I_m$$

By $V_{rms} = V_m/2$

Ripple factor (r)

Ratio of rms value of ac component of load current to the average value of load current.

Ripple factor = $\frac{\text{a.m.s value of a.c. component}}{\text{value of d.c. component}}$

$$= \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}}$$

By definition, the effective or r.m.s value of total load current is given by:

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

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

Dividing throughout by I_{dc} , we get:

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

But $I_{\text{ac}}/I_{\text{dc}}$ is the ripple factor

$$\therefore \text{Ripple factor} = \frac{1}{I_{\text{dc}}} \sqrt{I_{\text{rms}}^2 - I_{\text{dc}}^2}$$

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

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

$$\text{Ripple factor} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_m \times \pi}{I_m \times 2}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 - 1}{4}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 - 4}{4}} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi^2 - 4}}{2}$$

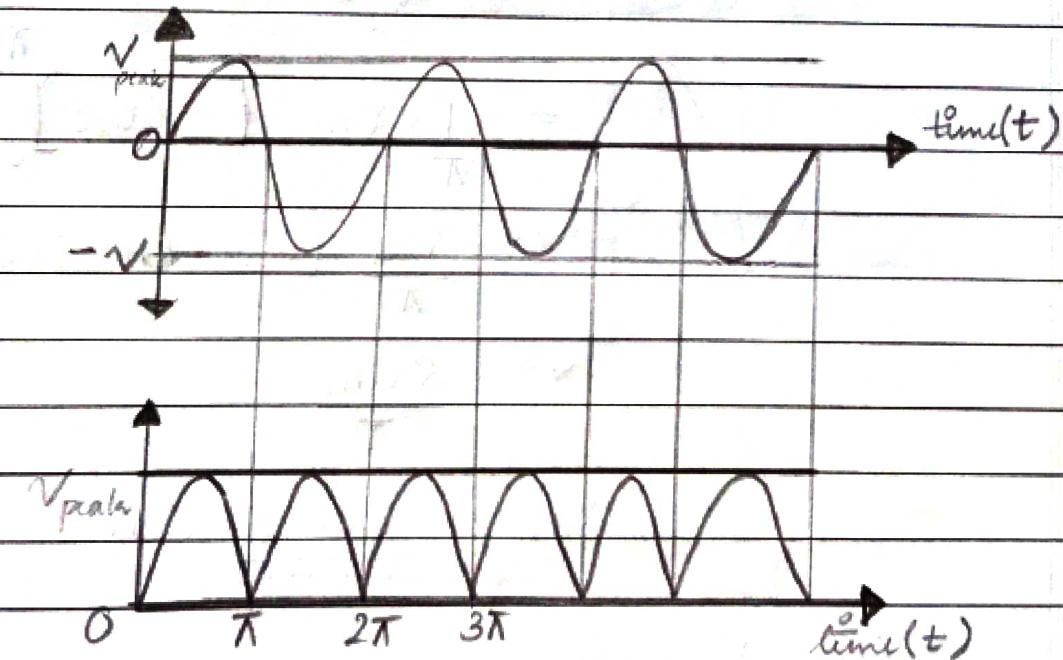
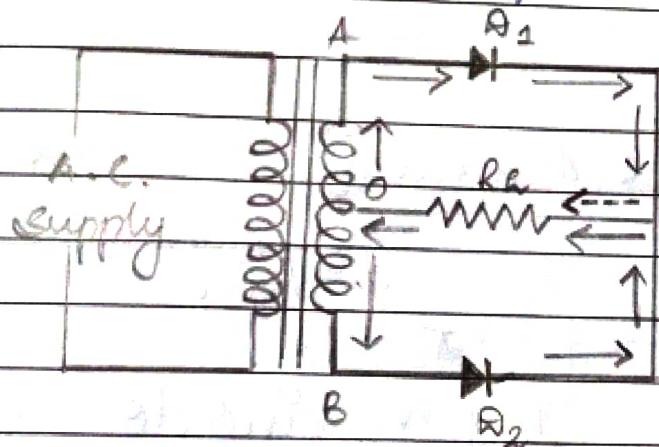
$$= \frac{\sqrt{9.8596 - 4}}{2} = \frac{2.42}{2} = 1.21$$

* Voltage regulation

Measure of variation of dc output voltage as a function of dc current.

$$\% \text{ regulation} = \frac{(V_{\text{no load}} - V_{\text{full load}}) \times 100}{V_{\text{full load}}}$$

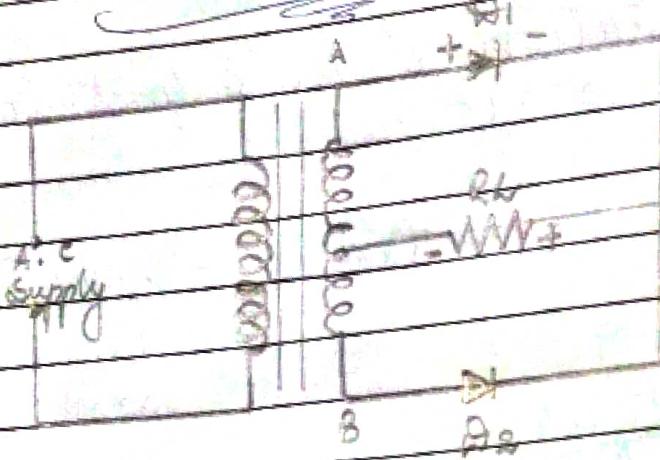
* Full Wave Rectifier



Average value

$V_{avg} = \frac{\text{Area under the wave in one cycle}}{\text{base}}$

* Peak Anode Voltage



Applying KVL

$$-V_m - V_m - V_{D\alpha} = 0$$

$$N_{D\alpha} = 2V_m$$

$$PIV = 2V_m$$

* Average value

$V_{avg} = V_{dc}$ = Area under the wave in one cycle base

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} N_m \sin \theta \, d\theta \quad \{ V = V_m \sin \theta \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \times V_m \left[-\cos \theta \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{\pi} \left[-\cos \pi + \cos 0 \right]$$

$$= \frac{2V_m}{\pi}$$

$$\underline{V_{dc} = 0.637 V_m}$$

∴ Similarly,

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

$$= 0.637 I_m$$

* RMS value of voltage & current

$$\text{RMS value} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (I_m \sin \omega t)^2 dt + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_o^2 dt}$$

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

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

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

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

$$= \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \times [\pi - 0]}$$

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

Similarly,

$$V_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

* Ripple factor

$$R.F. = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{\text{rms}}}{I_{\text{dc}}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

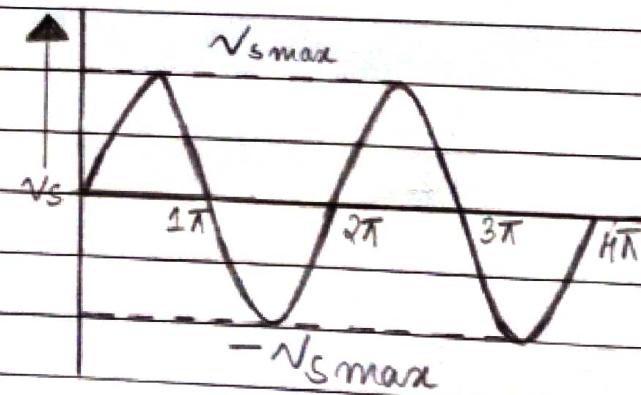
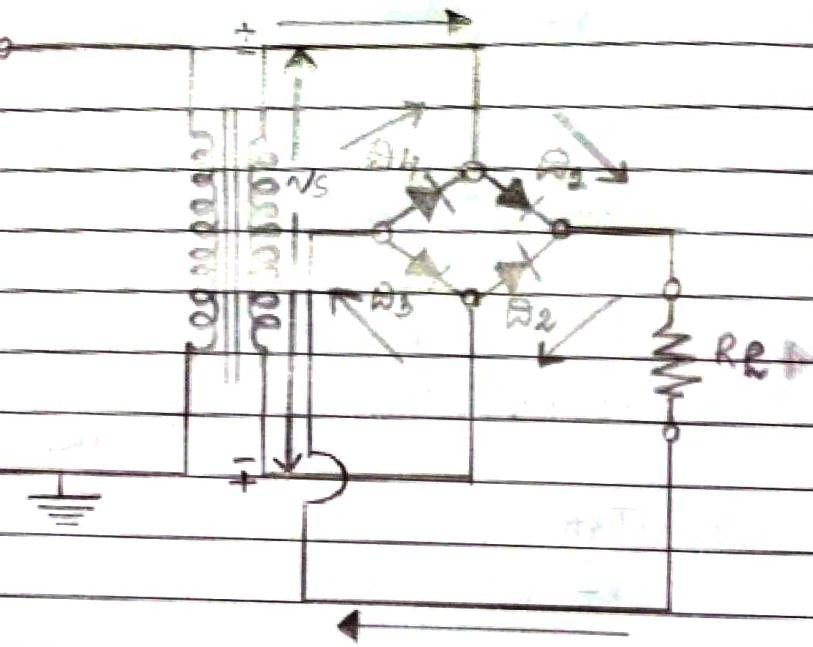
$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \pi\right)^2 - 1}$$

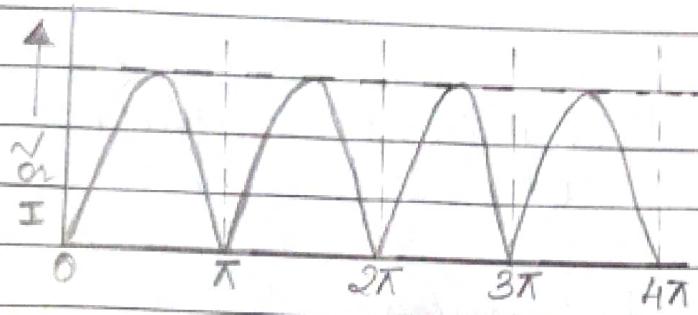
$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 - 8}{8}} = \frac{1.363}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

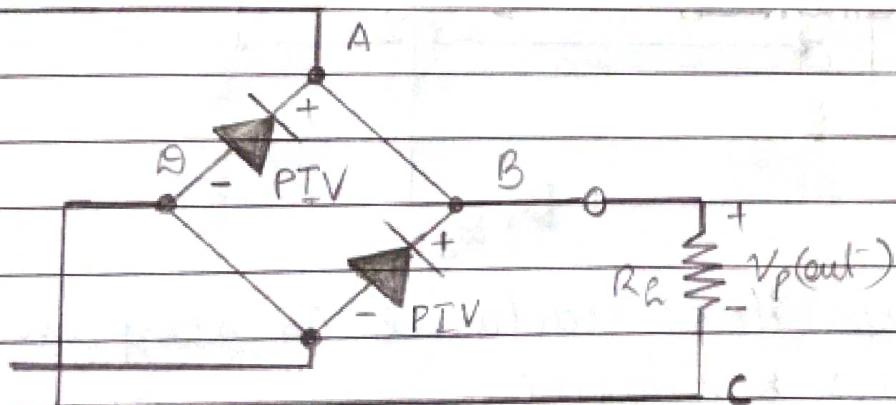
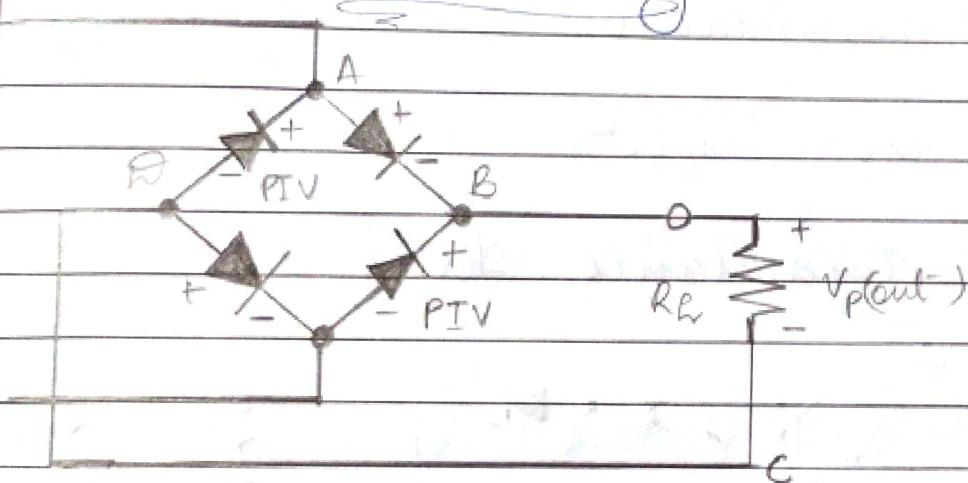
$$= 0.482$$

* Bridge Rectifiers





* Peak Inverse Voltage



• Applying kVL

$$Nd - Vp = 0$$

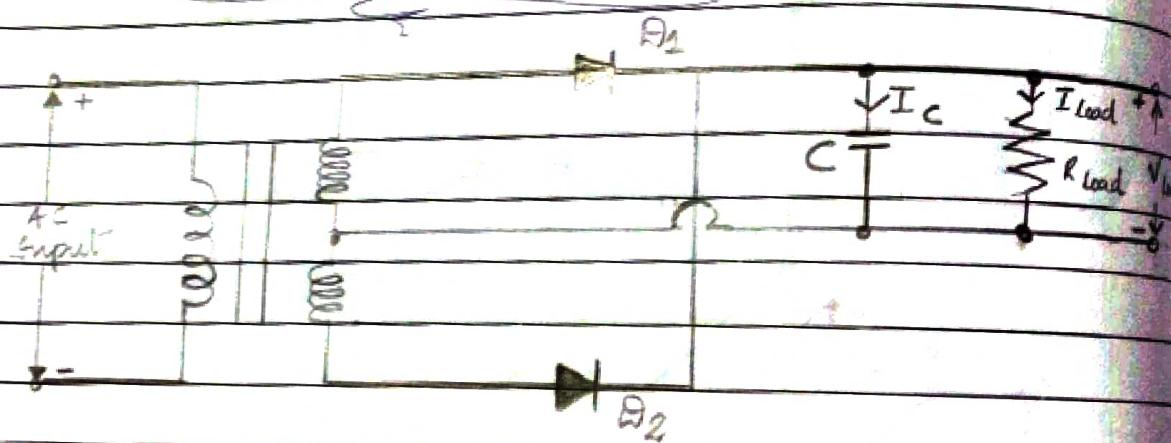
$$Nd = Vp$$

$$Vdm = Vpm$$

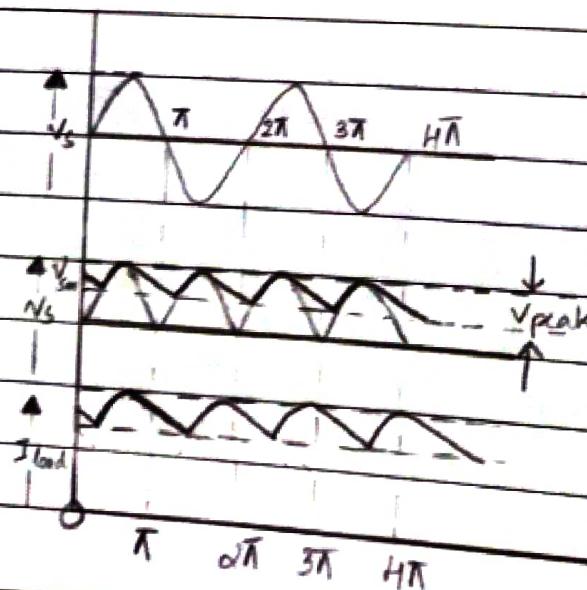
$$PIV = Vpm$$

Filters

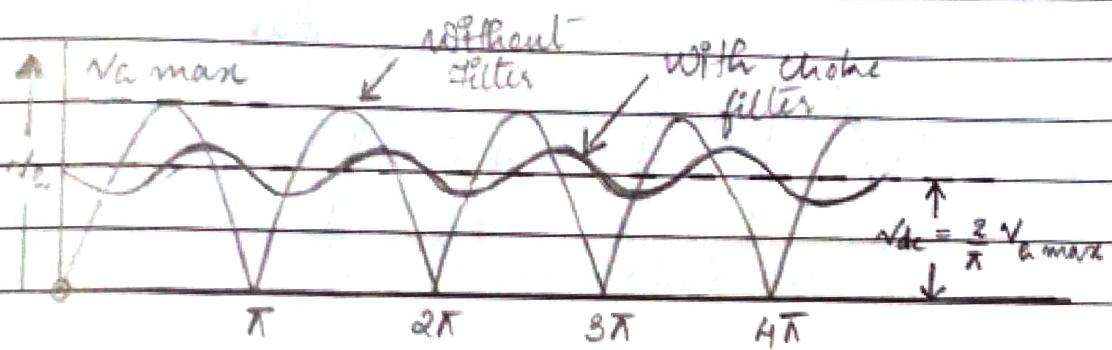
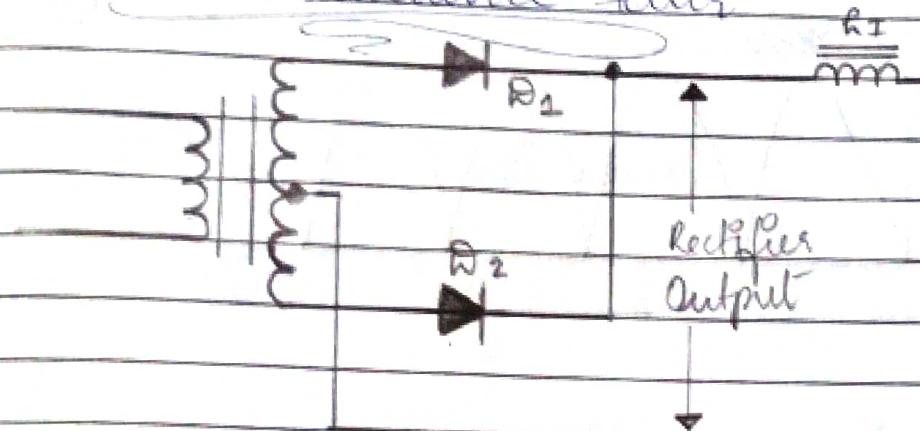
- Presents of AC component - is the cause of fluctuation - ripple
- A circuit which removes the ripple from the output without affecting DC value
- Shunt capacitance
- Series inductance
- Shunt capacitance filter



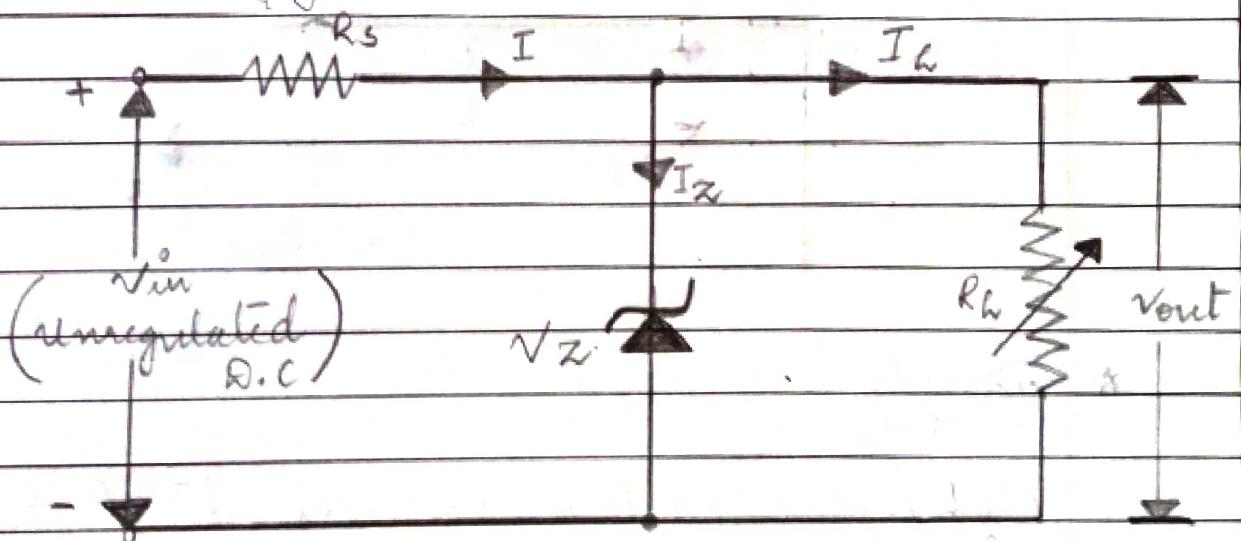
- Shunt capacitor reactance is very small than load resistance.

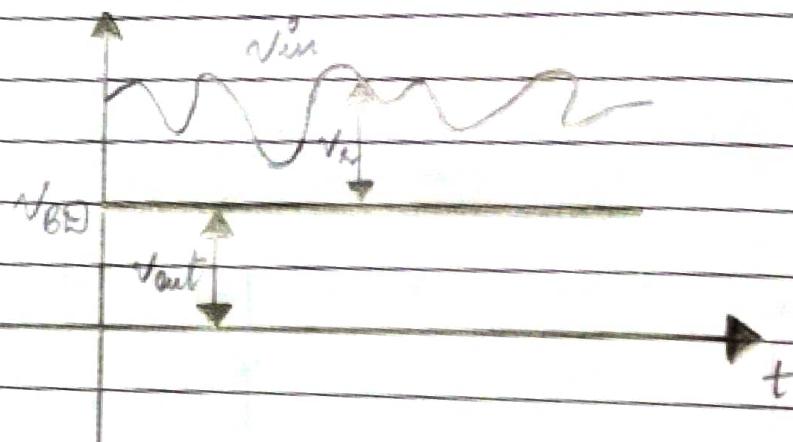
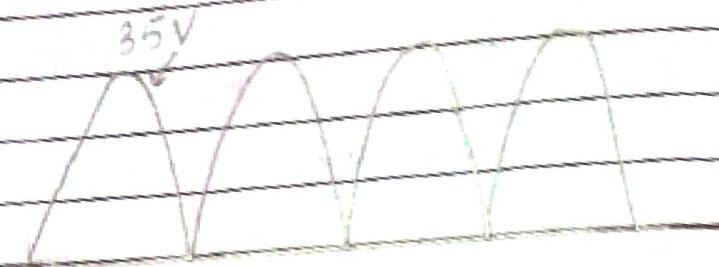


* Series Inductance Filter



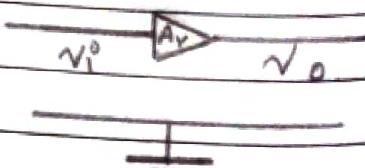
* Zener Voltage Regulator

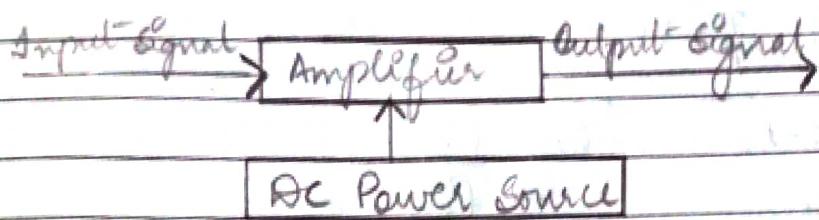




* Amplifiers

- Make the voltage or current of input signal large without changing the shape of signal.
- Output signal must be an exact replica of input signal.
- Earth point -





* Characteristics of amplifiers

- Input resistance : Effective resistance appears across input terminals.
- Output resistance : Effective resistance appears across output terminals.
- Voltage gain : $A_v = V_o/V_i^o$

Voltage gain = $\frac{\text{Output voltage}}{\text{Input voltage}}$

$$A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_i^o}$$

- Current gain :

$$A_i = \frac{I_o}{I_i^o}$$

- Power gain :

$$A_p = \frac{P_o}{P_i^o}$$

- Decibels

- unit of gain

- No of decibels = $20 \log_{10} \frac{P_o}{P_i}$

- No of Decibels = $10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P_o}{P_i} \right)$

- * Decibel power gain

$$A_p (\text{dB}) = 10 \log_{10} \frac{P_o}{P_i}$$

- * Decibel voltage gain

$$A_v (\text{dB}) = 20 \log_{10} \frac{V_o}{V_i}$$

- * Decibel current gain

$$A_i (\text{dB}) = 20 \log_{10} \frac{I_o}{I_i}$$

- * Ideal amplifier

- The amplifiers gain, (A) should remain constant for varying values of input signal.
- Gain is not affected by frequency. Signals of all frequencies must be amplified by exactly the same amount.

- The amplifiers gain must add noise to the output signal. It should remove any noise that already exists in

the input signal.

- The amplifier's gain should not be affected by changes in temperature giving good thermal stability.
- The gain of the amplifier must remain stable over long period of time.

* Classification of amplifiers

• Based on inputs

• Small signal amplifiers

These are designed to amplify very small signal voltage levels of only a few micro-volts (uv) from sensors or audio signals.

• Large signal amplifiers (audio power amplifiers or power switching amplifiers).

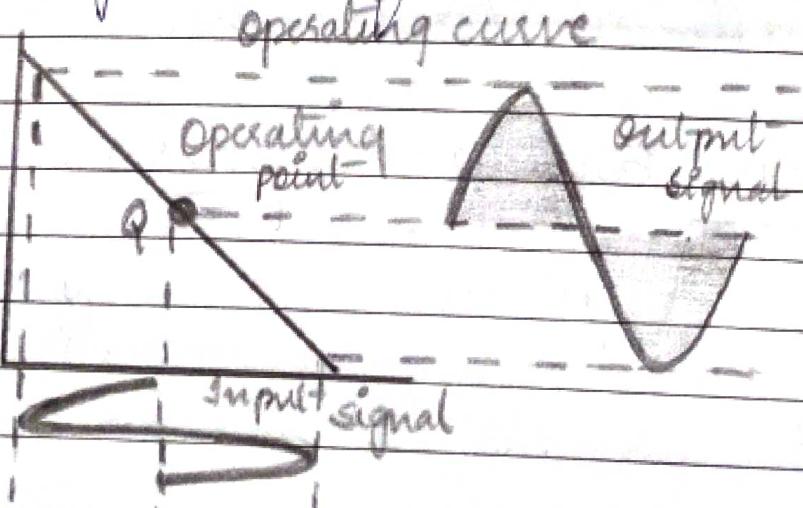
Large signal amplifiers are designed to amplify large input voltage signals or circuit heavy load currents as you would find driving loudspeakers.

• Based on biasing condition

• Class A

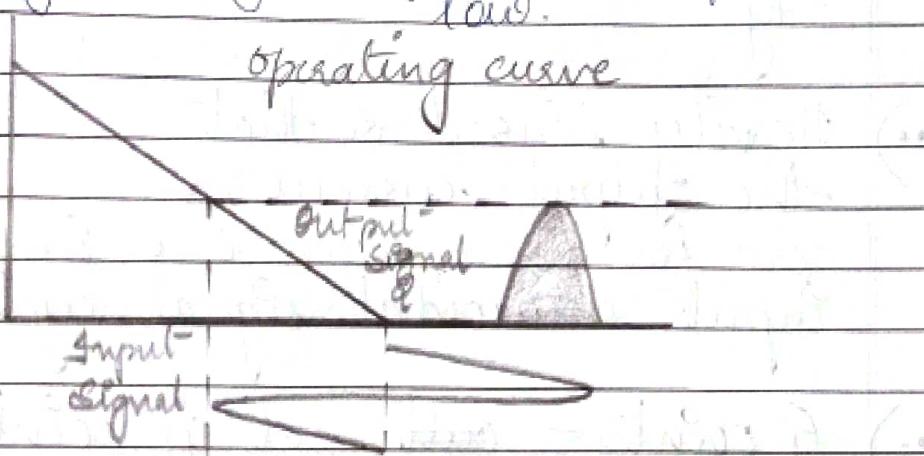
• Class B

- > Class AB
- > Class C.
- > Class A
- ..) The most commonly used type of power amplifier configuration is the class A amplifier.
- ..) The class A amplifier is the simplest form of power amplifier that uses a single switching transistor in the standard common emitter circuit configuration as seen previously to produce an inverted output.
- ..) The transistor is always biased "ON" so that it conducts during one complete cycle of the input signal waveform producing minimum distortion and maximum amplitude of the output signal.
- ..) Operates over a linear portion of characteristics - Q point at the centre of linear portion of characteristics.



.) Class B

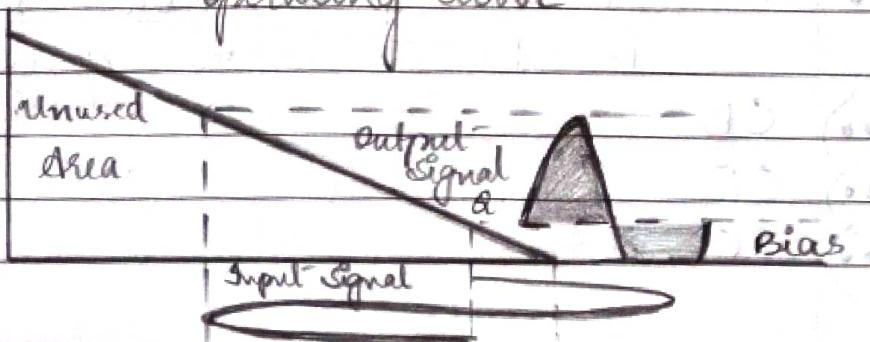
- ..) Q point is in cut-off region.
- ..) Output current is only for half cycle.
- ..) Efficiency is high - power dissipation is low.



.) Class AB

- ..) Combination of the "class A" and the "class B" type amplifiers.
- ..) The AB classification of amplifier is currently one of the most common used types of audio power amplifier design.
- ..) Conduction angle of a class AB amplifier is somewhere between 180° and 360° depending upon the chosen bias point.

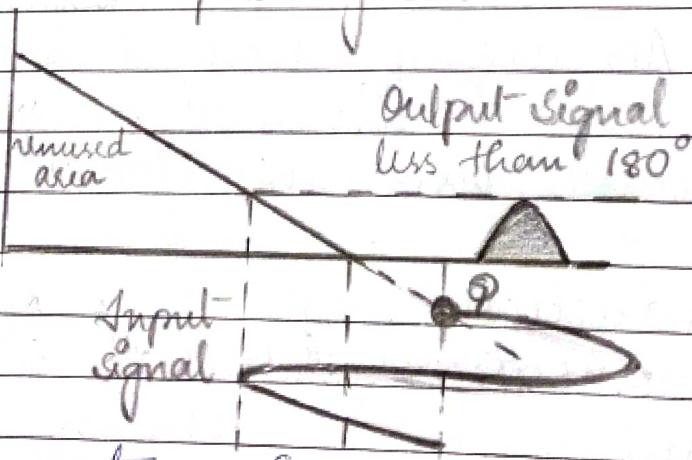
Operating curve



Class C

- ..) Current flow as short pulses.
- ..) The greatest efficiency but the poorest linearity.
- ..) Heavily biased so that the output current is zero for more than one half cycle of an input sinusoidal signal cycle.
- ..) Q point - cut off point
- ..) Conduction angle for the transistor is significantly less than 180 degrees.

Operating curve



- Based on transistor configuration
 - ..) CB
 - ..) CE
 - ..) CC

• Based on coupling

..) Resistance - Capacitance coupling

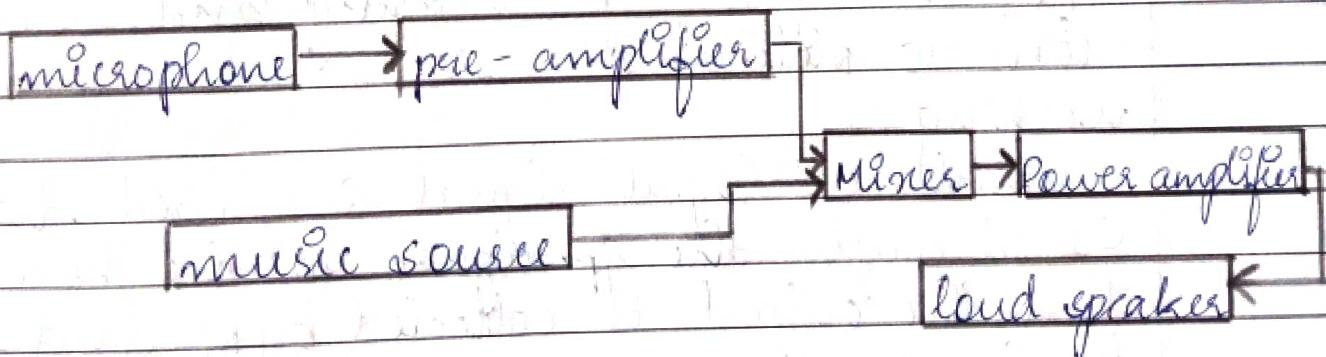
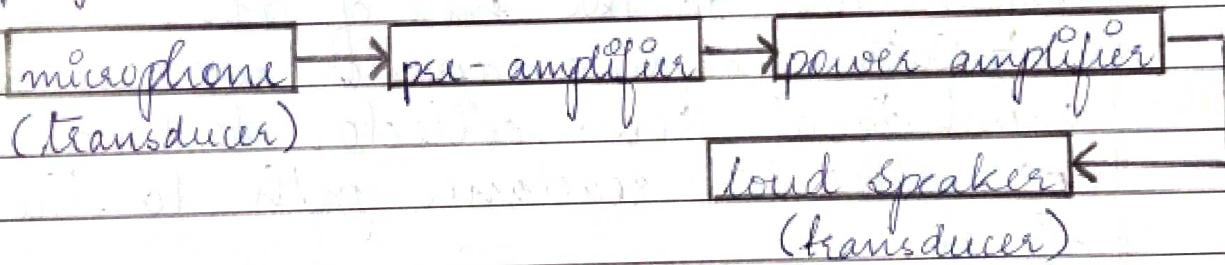
Individual stages of the amplifier are connected together using a resistor-capacitor combination.

..) Transformer coupling - impedance matching

..) Direct coupling

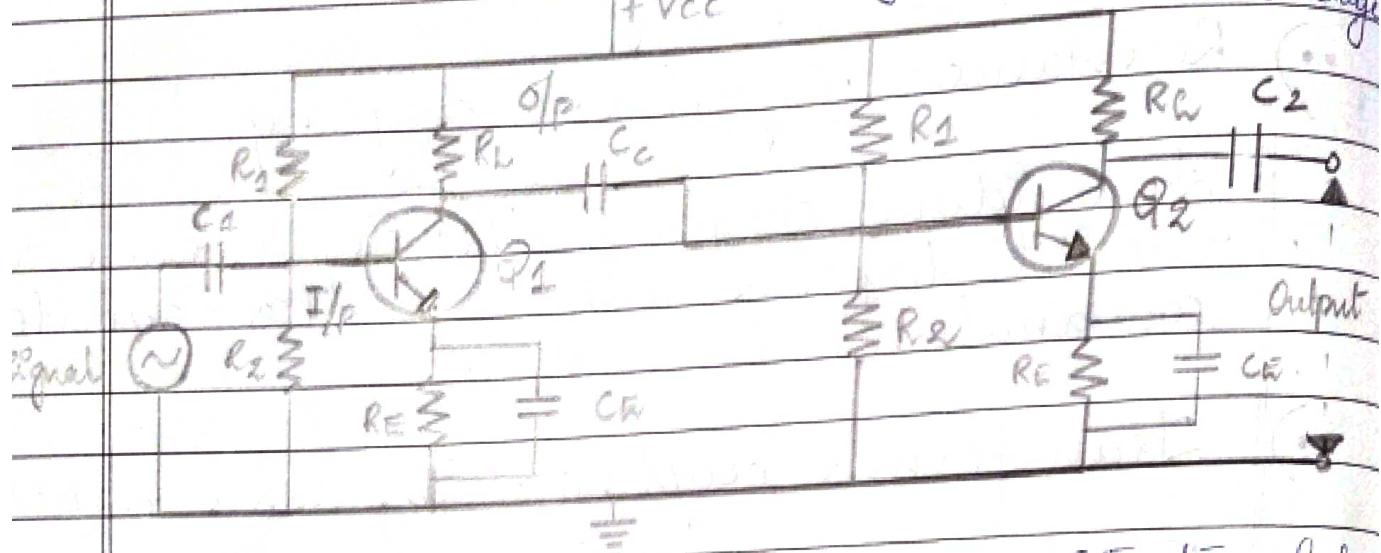
• Public Address System

System that amplifies sound, so more people can hear it.



* RC Coupled Transistor Amplifiers

Q_1 gives 180° phase shift to the 2nd stage.



Construction of Single stage CE transistor amplifier.

Specification:

CE amplifier: invert amplifier

C_c (coupling capacitor): connects 1st and 2nd stage.

C_1 : input coupling capacitor used to couple input signal to the base of Q_1 .

C_2 : Output coupling capacitor used to couple output signal from collector to load.

C_E : gives load resistance path to the emitter signal.

R_1, R_2, R_E : give proper biasing and stabilization to network.

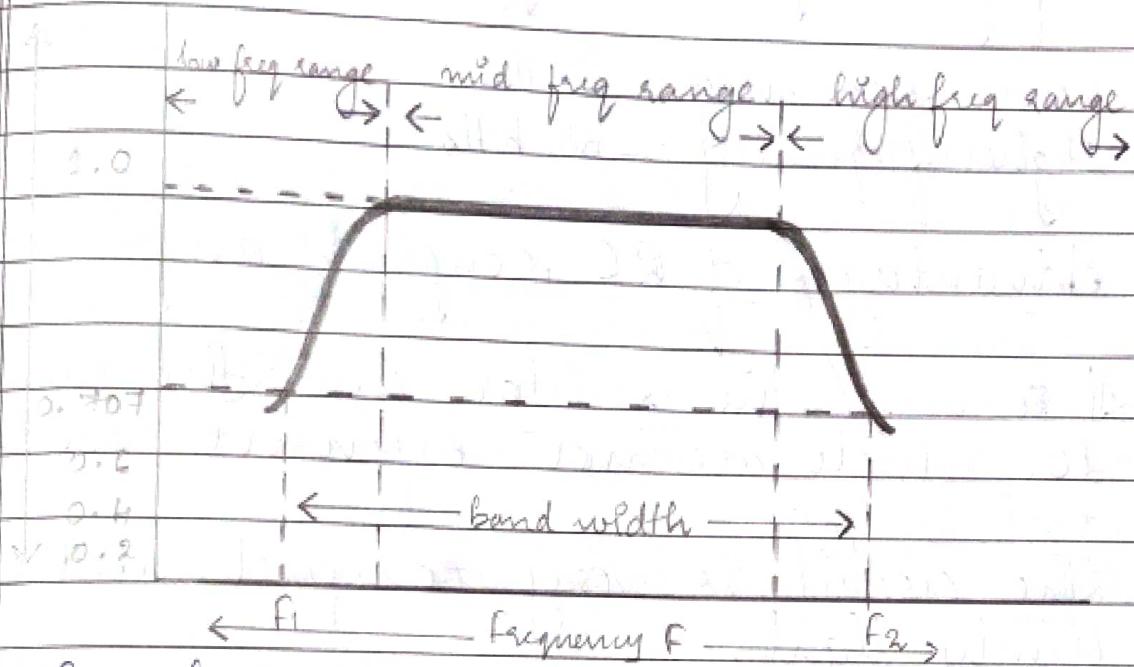
Working:

When an input signal is passed through C_1 it couples the i/p signal to the base Q_1 .

Then the output is collected by R_E and given to the coupling capacitor (C_c). This is then converted to the input signal of the 2nd stage.

Hence the output output received at R_E is passed through the C_2 , which couples the o/p from collector to the load.

Frequency Response of RC coupled amplifier



Low frequency region : low gain

- * C_c in series; Impedance is considered

$$X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi f C}$$

$$\{\omega = 2\pi f\}$$

- * As f increases gain increases.

High Frequency Region : high gain

- * Impedance low
- * Capacitor acts as a short circuit
- * Output voltage uses gain increases

- * Cut off frequency is used to choose the band width.

lower frequency : F_1

higher frequency : F_2

* band width: $f_2 - f_1$

* half power point: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = 3 \text{ dB point}$

lower frequency = 50 Hz

Higher frequency = 20 KHz

Advantages of RC coupled amplifier

- * It uses the resistor and the capacitor which are not expensive so the cost is low.
- * The circuit is very compact and extremely light.
- * The frequency response of RC coupled amplifier is excellent.
- * It offers a constant gain over a wide frequency band.

Disadvantages of RC coupled amplifier

- * It has low voltage and power gain.
- * It is unsuitable for low frequency application.
- * It has poor impedance matching because its output impedance is several times larger than the device, at its end terminals.
- * It has the tendency to become noisy with time.
- * It has narrow bandwidth.

Transistor Biasing

- DC biasing is a static operation.
- Bias establishes the DC operating point for proper operation of an amplifier.

Mode	E-B J	C-B J	Applications
Cutoff	Reverse	Reverse	Switching applications in digital circuits
Saturation	Forward	Forward	
Active	Forward	Reverse	Amplifiers
Reverse active	Reverse	Forward	Performance degradation.

Voltage Dividers Biasing

- The operating point Q is independent of beta - load stabilization.
- Beta depends on doping concentration.

Electronic Instrumentation System

* Measurement

The process of determining the amount, degree or capacity by comparison with the accepted standards of the system units being used.

* Electronic Instrument

It is a device for determining the value or magnitude of a quantity or variable such as voltage, current or resistance.

Performance Parameters

Accuracy

It is the degree of closeness with which the instrument reading approaches the true value of the quantity to be measured.

Precision

It is a measure of consistency or repeatability of measurement. This means when a quantity is measured repeatedly, the instrument should give the same value i.e., successive readings do not differ.

Resolution

The smallest change in a measurement variable to which an instrument will respond.

Sensitivity

It is the ratio of change in the output (response) of the instrument to a change of input or measured variable.

Expected Value

It is the desired value of measured quantity or the most probable value that is expected to obtain.

Error

It is the deviation of the true value from the desired value.

Electronic Instrumentation System

