

PROJECT REPORT

SESSION:2021-2025

ELECTRIC TRANSFORMER

Prepared For
DIPLOMA STUDENT GROUP 3TH SEM

Project Guide by
SKMP PROJECT
MANAGEMENT TEAM
AND SUPERVISER
OFFICE

Through Balasore
School Of
Engineering
Computer Sc. &
Eng.DEPT

CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION OF MINI INVERTER

1. INTRODUCTION

In today's world, where portability, efficiency, and versatility are paramount, mini inverters stand out as indispensable devices. Whether you're on a camping trip, traveling in an RV, or facing a power outage at home, mini inverters provide a reliable solution to keep your essential electronics running smoothly..

A mini inverter is a compact power conversion device that converts direct current (DC) from a battery or solar panel into alternating current (AC) suitable for powering small appliances, electronics, and tools. Unlike larger inverters, which are designed for heavy-duty applications, mini inverters are specifically engineered for lightweight, on-the-go usage.

These pint-sized powerhouses come in various sizes and capacities, ranging from pocket-sized models capable of charging smartphones and laptops to slightly larger units that can run small household appliances like fans, lights, and televisions. Their compact design makes them easy to carry in backpacks, glove compartments, or emergency kits, ensuring you're always prepared for unexpected power disruptions or outdoor adventures.

Mini inverters typically feature multiple AC outlets and USB ports, allowing you to connect a variety of devices simultaneously. They also incorporate advanced safety features such as overload protection, short circuit protection, and thermal shutdown mechanisms to safeguard both the inverter and your connected devices.

CHAPTER - 2

BLOCK DIAGRAM OF MINI INVERTER

2.0 BLOCK DIAGRAM:

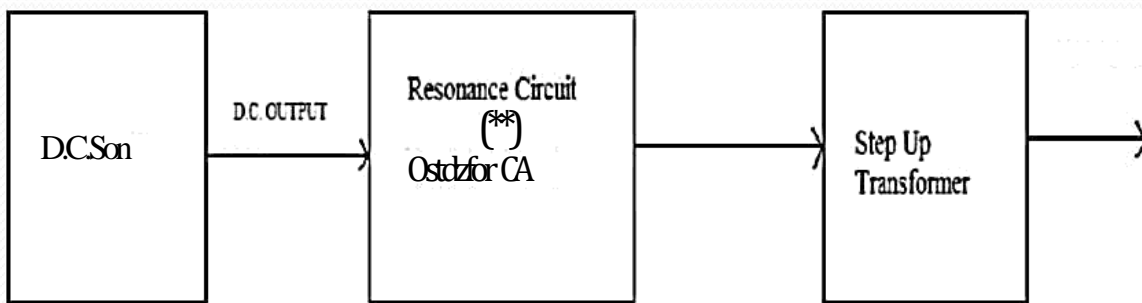


Fig: block Diagram of Mini Inverter.

Resonance circuit or the oscillator circuit is known as the tank circuit. It is built up by using suitable power transistor and a combination of inductor and capacitor with resistors of required value. The resistor, capacitor, inductor etc. Used for building up the oscillations are called the Resonant Element. The D.C. is fed to the oscillator from d.c. source. The oscillator builds up oscillation at the designed frequency at low voltage. The basic condition for producing damped oscillation by the tank circuit.

$$(R)^2 < [4L/C]$$

The low voltage a.c. output from the oscillator is then fed to a step up transformer for raising the output a.c. voltage at the required voltage. The explanation about the each part in the block diagram of mini inverter.

2.1 D.C SOURCE:

Direct current (DC) is the unidirectional flow of electric charge. Direct current is produced by sources such as batteries, power supplies, photocells, solar cells, or

dynamos. Direct current may flow in a conductor such as a wire, but can also flow through semiconductors, insulators, or even through a vacuum as in electron or ion beams. The electric current flows in a constant direction, distinguishing it from alternating current (AC). A term formerly used for this type of current was galvanic current."

The abbreviations *AC* and *DC* are often used to mean simply *alternating* and *direct*, as when they modify *current* or *voltage*."

Direct current may be obtained from an alternating current supply by use of a rectifier, which contains electronic elements (usually) or electromechanical elements (historically) that allow current to flow only in one direction. Direct current may be converted into alternating current with an inverter or a motor-generator set.

Direct current is used to charge batteries and as power supply for electronic systems. Very large quantities of direct-current power are used in production of aluminum and other electrochemical processes. It is also used for some railways, especially in urban areas. High-voltage direct current is used to transmit large amounts of power from remote generation sites or to interconnect alternating current power grids.

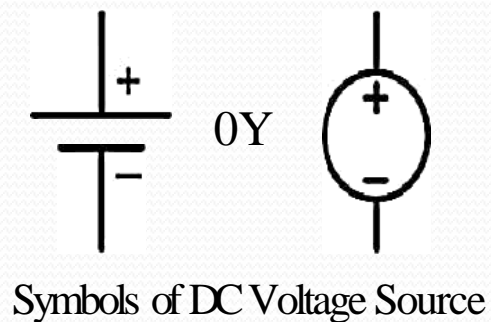
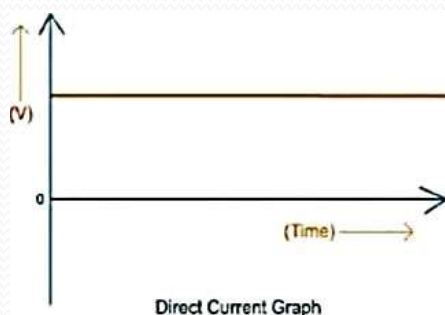


Fig: Current Graph & Symbols of DC Voltages Sources.

2.2 OSCILLATOR CIRCUIT:

An electronic circuit that generates a sine wave is called an oscillator. To oscillate means to move back and forth continuously between two points. A sine wave signal also

oscillates continuously between its maximum and minimum value. Oscillators designed to produce a high-power AC output from a DC supply are usually called Inverters.

An electronic oscillator is an electronic circuit that produces a periodic, oscillating electronic signal, often a sine wave or a square wave. Oscillators convert direct current (DC) from a power supply to an alternating current (AC) signal. They are widely used in many electronic devices. Common examples of signals generated by oscillators include signals broadcast by radio and television transmitters, clock signals that regulate computers and quartz clocks, and the sounds produced by electronic beepers and video games.

1. Oscillators are often characterized by the frequency of their output signal:

- A low-frequency oscillator (LFO) is an electronic oscillator that generates a frequency below 20 Hz. This term is typically used in the field of audio synthesizers, to distinguish it from an audio frequency oscillator.
- An audio oscillator produces frequencies in the audio range, about 16 Hz to 20 kHz."
- An RF oscillator produces signals in the radio frequency (RF) range of about 100 kHz to 100 GHz.

1. There are two main types of electronic **oscillator**:

2.2.2.1 Linear or Harmonic Oscillator.

2.2.2.2 Nonlinear or Relaxation Oscillator.

2.2.2.1 Harmonic Oscillator:

The harmonic or linear oscillator produces a sinusoidal output.

There are two types:

1. Feedback oscillator:

The most common form of linear oscillator is an electronic amplifier such as a **amp op or transistor** connected in a feedback loop »•itli its output fed back into its input through a frequency selective electronic filter to provide positive feedback. \When the power supply to the amplifier is first switched on, electronic noise in ilie circuit provides a non-zero signal to get osci[lations started. The noise travels around the loop and is amplified and filtered until very quickly it converges on a sine wave at a single frequency.

Some of the many Feedback Oscillator circuits are listed below:

- UC oscillator circuit,
- LC oscillator circuit
- Crystal oscillator circuit

2. Negative resistance oscillator:

Negative resistance oscillators, a resonant circuit, such as an LC circuit, crystal, or cavity resonator, is connected across a device u-ith negative differential resistance, and a DC bias voltage is applied to supply energy. A resonant circuit by itself is "almost" an oscillator; it can store energy in the form of electronic oscillations if excited, but because it has electrical resistance and other losses the oscillations are damped and decay to zero. The negative resistance of the active device cancels ihe (positive) internal loss resistance in ihe resonator, in effect creatinp• a resonator with no damping, which generates spontaneous continuous oscillations at its resonant frequency.

Some of ihe many Negative Resistance Oscillator circuits are listed below:

- Annstrong oscillator
- Clapp oscillator
- Colpitts oscillator
- Cross-coupled oscillator
- Dynamos oscillator
- Hartley oscillator
- Meissner oscillator
- Opto-electronic oscillator

- Pierce oscillator
- Phase-shift oscillator
- Robinson oscillator
- Tri-tet oscillator
- **Vackar oscillator**
- Wien bridge oscillator

*2.2.2 Non-linear oscillator:

A non-linear or relaxation oscillator produces a non-sinusoidal output such as a square, sawtooth or triangle wave. It consists of an energy-storing element (a capacitor or, more rarely, an inductor) and a non-linear switching device (a latch, Schmitt trigger, or negative resistance element) connected in a feedback loop. The switching device periodically charges and discharges the energy stored in the storage element thus causing abrupt changes in the output waveform.

Some of the more common Relaxation Oscillator circuits are listed below:

- Multivibrator
- Pearson-Anson oscillator
- π network oscillator
- Delay line oscillator
- Royce oscillator

2.3 Transformer:

A transformer is an electrical device that transfers electrical energy between two or more circuits through electromagnetic induction. Electromagnetic induction produces an electromotive force within a conductor which is exposed to time varying magnetic fields. Transformers are used to increase or decrease the alternating voltages in electric power applications.

2.3.1 Step-Up Transformer:

A step-up transformer is the direct opposite of a step-down transformer. There are many turns or coils secondary winding than in the primary winding in the step-up transformers. Thus, the voltage supplied in the secondary transformer is greater than the one supplied across the primary winding. That means Step-up transformer convert 12V AC input into 230V AC output at 50Hz.

Because of the principle of conservation of energy, the transformer converts low voltage, high-current to high voltage-low current. In other words, the voltage has been stepped up.

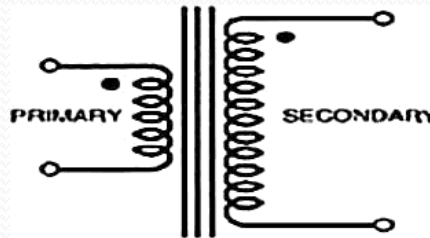


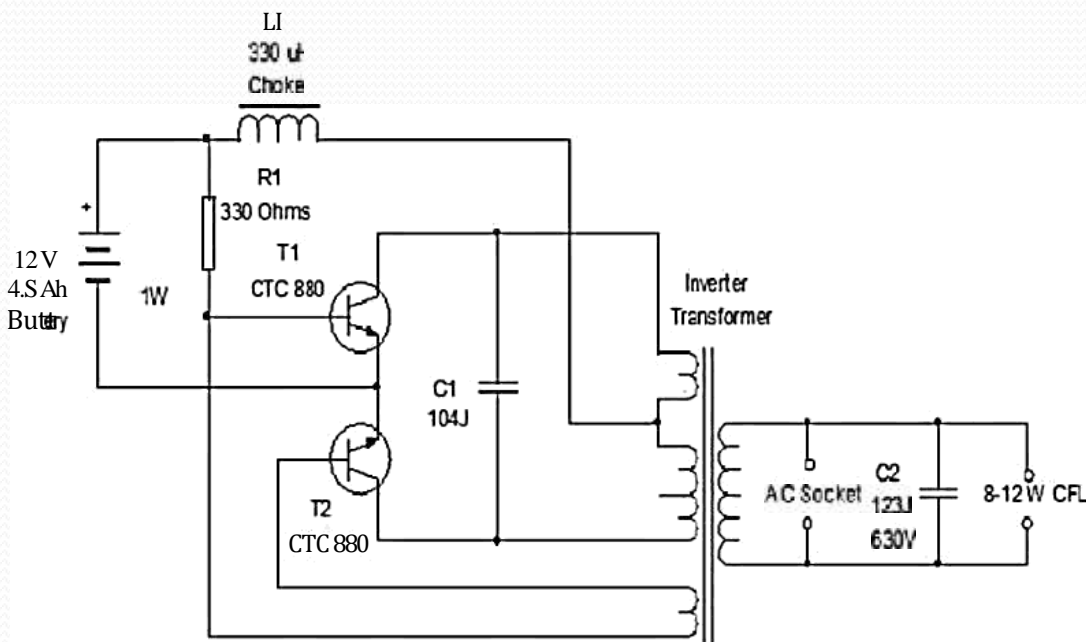
Fig. Step-up Transformer

You can find step-up transformers located near power plants that are designed to operate megawatts of power. Apart from the power plants, step-up transformers can also be used for local and smaller applications such as x-ray machine which requires about 50,000 volts to work. Even a microwave oven requires a small step-up transformer to operate.

CHAPTER - IM

CIRCUIT DIAGRAM AND WORKING PRINCIPLE

3.1 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM:



3.2 WORKING PRINCIPLE:

This is a Mini Inverter that converts 12 volt DC in 230 volt AC. Two high power NPN transistors, T1 and T2, act as a simple oscillator to generate the frequency. The oscillating pulses are fed to the primary winding and from its secondary winding, AC will be available. The 12 volt DC from the battery first passes through the 330 uH choke that eliminates noise from the circuit during the switching of the inverter transformer. Resistor R1 biases T1 directly and T2 through the winding of transformer. So with C1, transistors T1 and T2 oscillate and the oscillations are fed to the winding of transformer with a center tap that

gets DC from the battery through the choke. So the oscillations of T1 and T2 induce AC current in the secondary of transformer which lights the CFL.

CHAPTER - IN

COMPONENTS DESCRIPTION OF MINI INVERTER

1. COMPONENTS USED IN MINI INVERTER:

1. Battery 12V DC.
2. Inductor 330 μ H.
3. Resistor 330 Ω .
4. Capacitors 100 μ F & 10 μ F.
5. Transistors BC107
6. Step-up Transformer.
7. CFL Bulb.

4.1.1 12V DC BATTERY:

A battery converts chemical energy to electrical energy. This conversion enables electrical power to be stored. An electric battery is a device consisting of one or more electrochemical cells with external connections provided to power electrical devices such as flashlights, smartphones, and electric cars. When a battery is supplying electric power, its positive terminal is the cathode and its negative terminal is the anode. The terminal marked negative is the source of electrons that when connected to an external circuit will flow and deliver energy to an external device. When a battery is connected to an external circuit, electrolytes are able to move as ions within, allowing the chemical reactions to be completed at the separate terminals and so deliver energy to the external circuit. It is the movement of those ions within the battery which allows current to flow out of the battery to perform work. Historically the term "battery" specifically referred to a device composed of multiple cells, however the usage has evolved to additionally include devices composed of a single cell.

Primary (single-use or "disposable") batteries are used once and discarded; the electrode materials are irreversibly changed during discharge. Common examples are the alkaline battery used for flashlights and a multitude of portable electronic devices. Secondary (rechargeable) batteries can be discharged and recharged multiple times using mains power

from a wall **socket**; the original composition of the electrodes can be restored by reverse current. Examples include the lead-acid batteries used in vehicles and lithium-ion batteries used for portable electronics such as laptops and smart phones.

Batteries come in many shapes and sizes, from miniature cells used to power hearing aids and wristwatches to small, thin cells used in smart phones, to large lead acid batteries used in cars and trucks, and at the largest extreme, huge battery banks the size of rooms that provide standby or emergency power for telephone exchanges and computer data centers.

4.1.1.1 Principle of Operation:

An electric battery is a device consisting of one or more electrochemical cells with external connections provided to power electrical devices such as flashlights, smartphones, and electric cars. When a battery is supplying electric power, its positive terminal is the cathode and its negative terminal is the anode. The terminal marked negative is the source of electrons that when connected to an external circuit will flow and deliver energy to an external device. When a battery is connected to an external circuit, electrolytes are able to move as ions within, allowing the chemical reactions to be completed at the separate terminals and so deliver energy to the external circuit. It is the movement of these ions within the battery which allows current to flow out of the battery to perform work. Historically the term "battery" specifically referred to a device composed of multiple cells, however the usage has evolved to additionally include devices composed of a single cell.

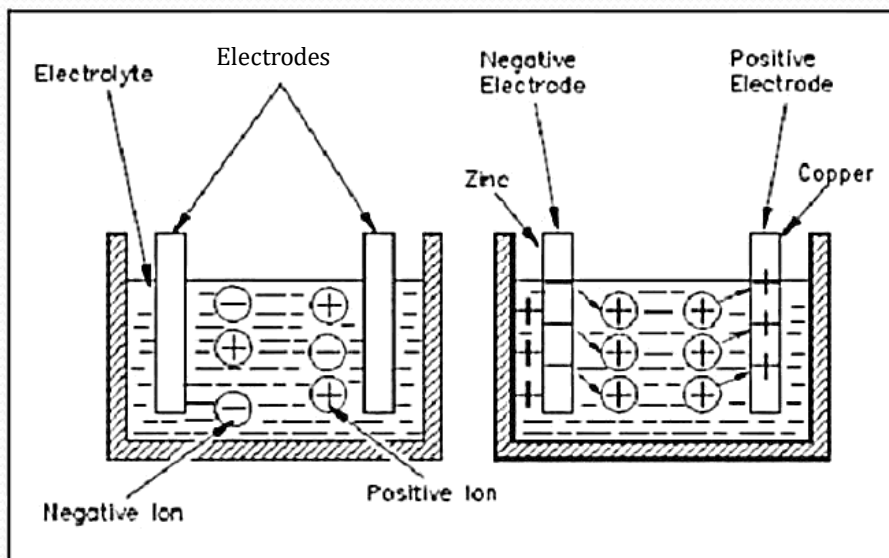


Fig.' Basic Chemical Production OFElectrical Power.

Primary (single-use or "disposable") batteries are used once and discarded; the electrode materials are irreversibly changed during discharge. Common examples are the alkaline battery used for flashlights and a multitude of portable electronic devices. Secondary (rechargeable) batteries can be discharged and recharged multiple times using mains power from a wall socket; the original composition of the electrodes can be restored by reverse current. Examples include the lead-acid batteries used in vehicles and lithium-ion batteries used for portable electronics such as laptops and smartphones.

Batteries come in many shapes and sizes, from minuscule cells used to power hearing aids and wristwatches to small, thin cells found in smartphones, to large lead acid batteries used in cars and trucks, and at the largest extreme, huge battery banks the size of rooms that provide standby or emergency power for telephone exchanges and computer data centers.

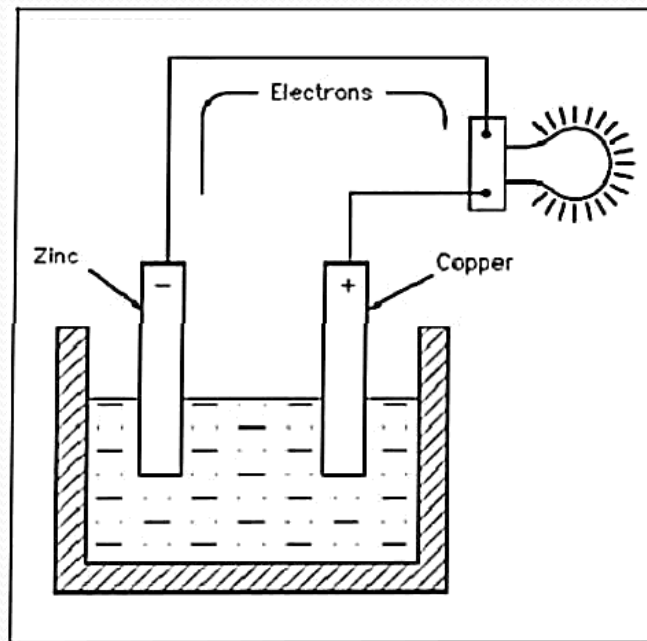


Fig. Electron Flow through a Battery.

Each half-cell has an electromotive force (or emf), determined by its ability to drive electric current from the interior to the exterior of the cell. The net emf of the cell is the difference between the emfs of its half-cells. " That is, if the electrodes have emfs E_1 and E_2 , then the net emf is $E_2 - E_1$. In other words, the net emf is the difference between the reduction potentials of the half-reactions.

4.1.1.2 Battery Testing:

Battery testing can be done in more than one way. The most accurate method is measurement of specific gravity and battery voltage. To measure specific gravity buy a temperature compensating hydrometer, to measure voltage use a digital D.C. Voltmeter. A quality load tester may be a good purchase if you need to test settled batteries.

State of Charge	Specific Gravity	Voltage	
		12V	0V
100%	1.265	12.7	6.3
75%	1.225	12.4	6.2
50%	1.190	12.2	6.1
25%	1.155	12.0	6.0
Discharged	1.120	11.9	6.0



For any of these methods, you must first fully charge the battery and then remove the surface charge. If the battery has been sitting at least several hours (I prefer at least 12 hours) you may begin testing.

4.1.2 INDUCTOR:

An inductor, also called a coil or reactor, is a passive two-terminal electrical component which opposes changes in electric current passing through it. It consists of a conductor such as a wire, usually wound into a coil. Energy is stored in a magnetic field in the coil as long as current flows. When the current flowing through an inductor changes, the time-varying magnetic field induces a voltage in the conductor, according to Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction. According to Lenz's law the direction of induced electromotive force (or "e.m.f.") is always such that it opposes the change in current that created it. As a result, inductors always oppose a change in current in the same way that a flywheel opposes a change in rotational velocity. Care should be taken not to confuse this with the resistance provided by a resistor.

An inductor is characterized by its inductance. The ratio of the voltage to the rate of change of current, which has units of henries (H). Inductors have values that typically range from 1 pH (10⁻¹² H) to 1 H. Many inductors have a magnetic core made of iron or ferrite inside the coil, which serves to increase the magnetic field and thus the inductance. Along with capacitors and resistors, inductors are one of the three passive linear circuit elements that make up electric circuits. Inductors are widely used in alternating current (AC) electronic

equipment, particularly in radio equipment. They are used to block AC while allowing DC to pass; inductors designed for this purpose are called chokes. They are also used in electronic filters to separate signals of different frequencies, and in combination with capacitors to make tuned circuits, used to tune radio and TV receivers.



Fig: a 330uH Inductor.

4.1N RESISTOR:

A resistor is a passive two-terminal electrical component that implements electrical resistance as a circuit element. In electronic circuits, resistors are used to reduce current flow, adjust signal levels, to divide voltages, bias active elements, and terminate transmission lines, among other uses. High-power resistors that can dissipate many watts of electrical power as heat may be used as part of motor controls, in power distribution systems, or as test loads for generators. Fixed resistors have resistances that only change slightly with temperature, time or operating voltage. Variable resistors can be used to adjust circuit elements (such as a volume control or a lamp dimmer), or as sensing devices for heat, light, humidity, force, or chemical activity.

Resistors are common elements of electrical networks and electronic circuits and are ubiquitous in electronic equipment. Physical resistors as discrete components can be composed of various compounds and forms. Resistors are also implemented within circuits. The electrical function of a resistor is specified by its resistance: common commercial

The value of the resistance falls within the manufacturing tolerance, indicated on the component.

4.3.1 The operation of a resistor:

The behavior of an ideal resistor is defined by the relationship specified by Ohm's law:

$$V = IR$$

Ohm's law states that the voltage (V) across a resistor is proportional to the current (I), where the constant of proportionality is the resistance (R). A 300 ohm resistor is connected across the terminals of a 12 volt battery, then a current of $12 / 300 = 0.04$ amperes flows through that resistor.

Physical resistors also have some internal capacitance which affects the relationship between voltage and current in AC circuits.

The ohm (symbol: Ω) is the SI unit of electrical resistance, named after Georg Simon Ohm. An ohm is equivalent to one volt per ampere. Since resistors are specified and manufactured over a very large range, the units of ohms (Ω), kilohm ($k\Omega$), and megohm ($M\Omega$) are also in common use.

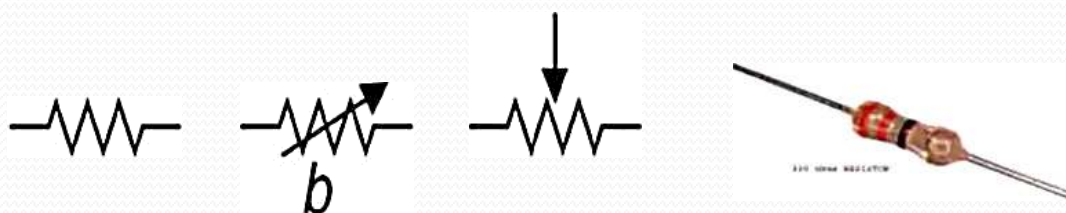


Fig: different types of resistors. & 330 ohm resistor.

4.1.4 CAPACITOR:

A capacitor (originally known as a condenser) is a passive two-terminal electrical component used to store electrical energy in an electric field. The forms of practical capacitors vary widely, but most contain at least two electrical conductors (plates) separated by a dielectric (i.e. an insulator that can store energy by becoming polarized). The conductors can be thin films, foils or sintered beads of metal or conductive electrolyte, etc. The non-conducting dielectric acts to increase the capacitor's charge capacity. Materials commonly used as dielectrics include glass, ceramic, plastic film, paper, mica, and oxide layers. Capacitors are widely used as parts of electrical circuits in many common electrical devices. Unlike a resistor, an ideal capacitor does not dissipate energy. Instead, a capacitor stores energy in the form of an electrostatic field between its plates.

When there is a potential difference across the conductors (e.g., when a capacitor is attached across a battery), an electric field develops across the dielectric, causing positive charge $+Q$ to collect on one plate and negative charge $-Q$ to collect on the other plate. If a battery has been attached to a capacitor for a sufficient amount of time, no current can flow through the capacitor. However, if a time-varying voltage is applied across the leads of the capacitor, a displacement current can flow.

An ideal capacitor is characterized by a single constant value, its capacitance. Capacitance is defined as the ratio of the electric charge Q on each conductor to the potential difference V between them. The SI unit of capacitance is the farad (F), which is equal to one coulomb per volt (1 C/V). Typical capacitance values range from about 1 pF (10⁻¹² F) to about 1 mF (10⁻³ F).

The larger the surface area of the "plates" (conductors) and the narrower the gap between them, the greater the capacitance is. In practice, the dielectric between the plates passes a small amount of current and also has an electric field strength limit, known as the breakdown voltage. The conductors and leads introduce an undesired inductance and resistance.

Capacitors are widely used in electronic circuits for blocking direct current while allowing alternating current to pass. In analog filter networks, they smooth the output of power supplies. In resonant circuits they tune radios to particular frequencies. In electric power transmission systems, they stabilize voltage and power flow,

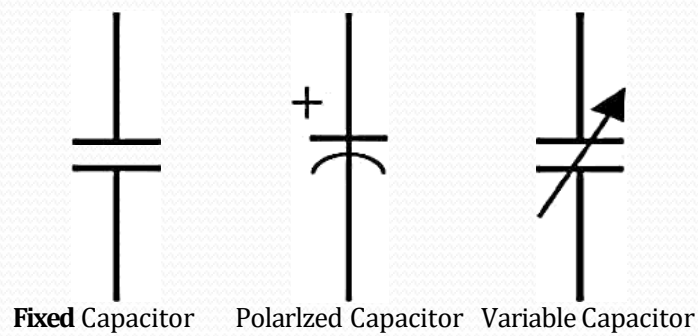


Fig. Symbols of Different Capacitors.



Fig: 123J & 104J Capacitors.

The value *123J* indicates the value 12 with 3 zeros added after it. This means that the value is *12 000 pF*. and *104J* indicates the value 10 with 3 zeros added after it. This means that value is *10 000 pF*. The letter "J" following indicates the tolerance of the part (5% in this case).

4.1.5 TRANSISTOR:

A transistor is a semiconductor device used to amplify or switch electronic signals and electrical power. It is composed of semiconductor material usually with at least three terminals for connection to an external circuit. A voltage or current applied to one pair of the transistor's terminals changes the current through another pair of terminals. Because the controlled (output) power can be higher than the controlling (input) power, a transistor can

amplify a signal. Today, some transistors are packaged individually, but many more are found embedded in integrated circuits.

4.1.5.1 Bipolar Junction Transistor:

A bipolar junction transistor (bipolar transistor or BJT) is a type of transistor that uses both electron and hole charge carriers. In contrast, unipolar transistors, such as field-effect transistors, only use one kind of charge carrier. For their operation, BJTs use two junctions between two semiconductor types, n-type and p-type.

BJTs are manufactured in two types, NPN and PNP, and are available as individual components, or fabricated in integrated circuits, often in large numbers. The basic function of a BJT is to amplify current. This allows BJTs to be used as amplifiers or switches, giving them wide applicability in electronic equipment, including computers, televisions, mobile phones, audio amplifiers, industrial control, and radio transmitters.

4.1.5.2 Working:

BJTs come in two types, or polarities, known as PNP and NPN based on the doping types of the three main terminal regions. An NPN transistor comprises two semiconductor junctions that share a thin p-doped anode region and a PNP transistor comprises two semiconductor junctions that share a thin n-doped cathode region.

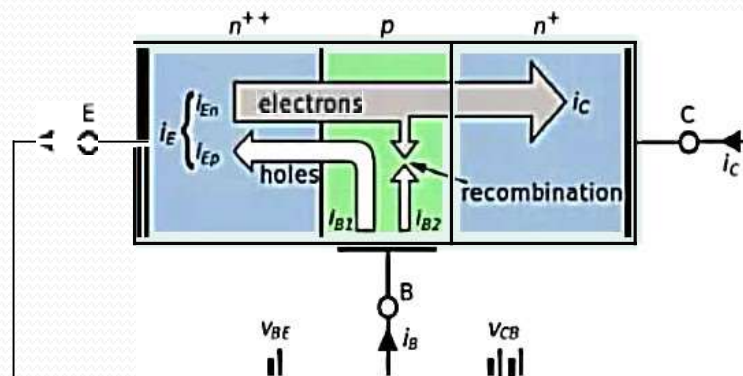


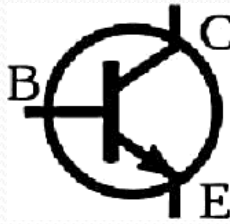
Fig. NPN BIT with forward-biased E–B junction and reverse-biased B–C junction.

Charge flow in a BIT is due to diffusion of charge carriers across a junction between two regions of different charge concentrations. The regions of a BJT are called emitter, collector, and base. A discrete transistor has three leads for connection to these regions. Typically, the emitter region is heavily doped compared to the other two layers, whereas the majority charge carrier concentrations in base and collector layers are about the same. By design most of the BIT collector current is due to the flow of charges injected from a high-concentration emitter into the base where they are minority carriers that diffuse toward the collector, and so BJTs are classified as minority-carrier devices.

In typical operation, the base–emitter junction is forward biased, which means that the p-doped side of the junction is at a more positive potential than the n-doped side, and the base–collector junction is reverse biased. In an NPN transistor, when positive bias is applied to the base–emitter junction, the equilibrium is disturbed between the thermally generated carriers and the repelling electric field of the n-doped emitter depletion region. This allows thermally excited electrons to inject from the emitter into the base region. These electrons diffuse through the base from the region of high concentration near the emitter towards the region of low concentration near the collector. The electrons in the base are called minority carriers because the base is doped p-type, which makes holes the majority carrier in the base.

To minimize the percentage of carriers that recombine before reaching the collector–base junction, the transistor's base region must be thin enough that carriers can diffuse across it in much less time than the semiconductor's minority carrier lifetime. In particular, the thickness of the base must be much less than the diffusion length of the electrons. The collector–base junction is reverse-biased, and so little electron injection occurs from the collector to the base, but electrons that diffuse through the base towards the collector are swept into the collector by the electric field in the depletion region of the collector–base junction. The thin shared base and asymmetric collector–emitter doping are what differentiates a bipolar transistor from two separate and oppositely biased diodes connected in series.

4.1.5d NPN Transistor:



Fin. The symbol ufan Nf'N BJT.

NPN is one of the two types of bipolar transistors, consisting of: a layer of P-type semiconductor (Ilic "base") between two N-type layers. A small current entering the base is amplified to produce a large collector and emitter current. That is, when there is a positive voltage applied to the base relative to the emitter) as it causes electrons to flow from the base to the collector. The transistor becomes active. In this "on" state, charge flows between the collector and emitter of the transistor. Most of the current is carried by electrons moving from emitter to collector via minority carriers in the P-type base region. To allow for efficient carrier injection, most II-VI semiconductors used today have NPN because electron mobility is higher than hole mobility.

A mnemonic device for the NPN transistor symbol is "not pointing in". based on the arrows in llic symbol and the letters in the name.

4.1.5.4 Active-mode NPN transistor:

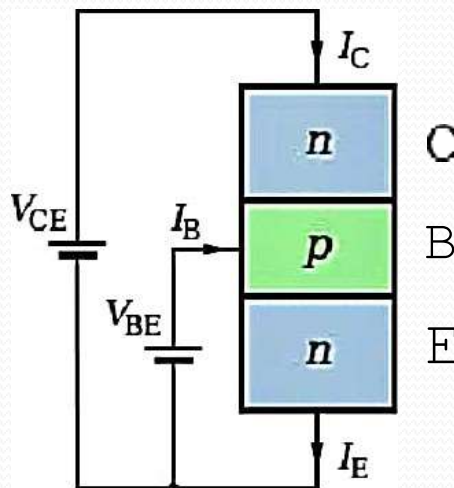


Fig: Structure and bias of NPN transistor.

The diagram shows a schematic representation of an NPN transistor connected to two voltage sources. To make the transistor conduct appreciable current (on the order of 1 mA) from C to E, V_{BE} must be above a minimum value sometimes referred to as the cut-in voltage. The cut-in voltage is usually about 650 mV for silicon BJTs at room temperature but can be different depending on the type of transistor and its biasing. This applied voltage causes the

lower P-N junction to 'turn on', allowing a flow of electrons from the emitter into the base. In active mode, the electric field existing between base and collector (caused by V_{CE}) will cause the majority of these electrons to cross the upper P-N junction into the collector to form the collector current I_C . The remainder of the electrons recombine with holes, the majority carriers in the base, making a current through the base connection to form the base current, I_B . As shown in the diagram, the emitter current, I_E , is the total transistor current, which is the sum of the other terminal currents. (i.e., $I_E = I_C + I_B$).

In the diagram the arrows representing current point in the direction of conventional current — the flow of electrons is in the opposite direction of the arrows because electrons carry negative electric charge. In active mode, the ratio of the collector current to the base

current is called the DC current gain. This gain is usually 100 or more, but robust circuit designs do not depend on the exact value (for example see op-amp).

The value of this gain for DC signals is referred to as β_{DC} and the value of this gain for small signals is referred to as β_{AC} . That is, when a small change in the currents occurs, and a sufficient time has passed for the circuit to reach its steady state, the ratio of the change in collector current to the change in base current. The symbol β is used for both β_{DC} and β_{AC} . The emitter current is related to I_C exponentially. At room temperature, an increase in V_{BE} by approximately 60 mV increases the emitter current by a factor of 10. Because the base current is approximately proportional to the collector and emitter currents, they vary in the same way.

CTC 880 NPN Transistor is used Mini Inverter. The Pin diagram of CTC 880 as shown below figure.

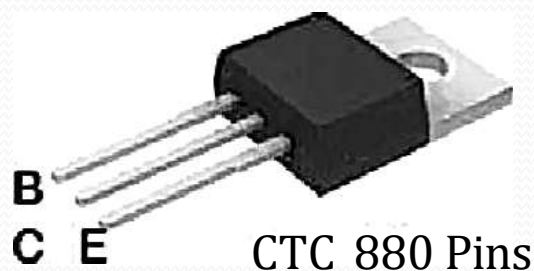


Fig: pins of CTC 880 Transistor.

4.1.ii STEP-UP TRANSFORMER:

A transformer is an electrical device that transfers electrical energy between two or more circuits through electromagnetic induction. Electromagnetic induction produces an electromotive force in a conductor which is exposed to time varying magnetic fields. Transformers are used to increase or decrease the alternating voltages in electric power applications.

On a step-up transformer there are more turns on the secondary coil than the primary coil. The induced voltage across the secondary coil is greater than the applied voltage across the primary coil or in other words the voltage has been “stepped-up”.

A step-up transformer is the direct opposite of a step-down transformer. There are many turns on the secondary winding than in the primary winding in the step-up transformers. Thus, the voltage supplied in the secondary winding is greater than the one supplied across the primary winding. Because of the principle of conservation of energy, the transformer converts low voltage, high-current to high voltage-low current. In other words, the voltage has been stepped up.

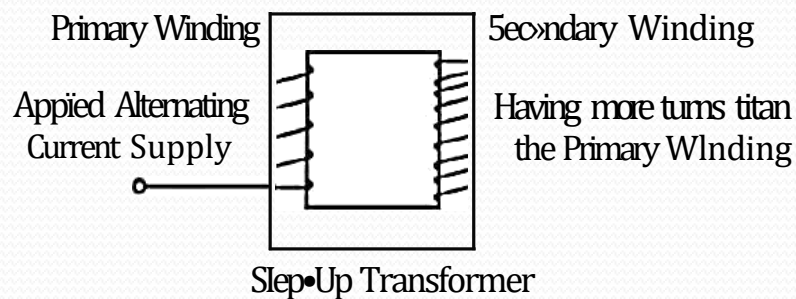


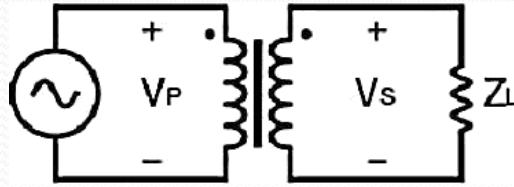
Fig. 1 Step-up transformer.

You can find step-up transformers located near power plants that are designed to operate megawatts of power. Apart from the power plants, step-up transformers can also be used for local and smaller applications such as x-ray machines which require about 50,000 volts to work. Even in micro-ivac oven requires a small step-up transformer to operate.

4.1.1 Basic Principle:

For simplification or approximation purposes, it is very common to analyze the transformer as an ideal transformer model as presented in the two figures. An ideal transformer is a theoretical, linear transformer that is lossless and perfectly coupled; that is, there are no energy losses and flux is completely confined within the magnetic core. Perfect coupling implies infinitely high core magnetic permeability and infinitely large cross-section zero net magnetomotive force.

$$\frac{a:1}{N_o:N_s}$$



Ideal transformer connected with source V_p on primary and load impedance Z_L on secondary, where $0 < Z_L^*$.

A varying current in the transformer's primary winding creates a varying magnetic flux in the core and a varying magnetic field impinging on the secondary winding. This varying magnetic field at the secondary induces a varying electromotive force (EMF) or voltage in the secondary winding. The primary and secondary windings are wrapped around a core of infinitely high magnetic permeability so that all of the magnetic flux passes through both the primary and secondary windings. With a voltage source connected to the primary winding and load impedance connected to the secondary winding, the transformer currents flow in the indicated directions. (See also Polarity.)

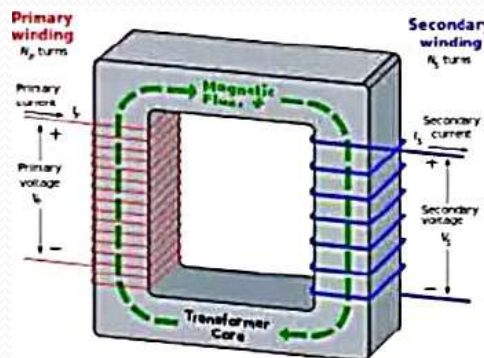


Fig: an Ideal transformer and induction law.

According to Faraday's Law, since the same magnetic flux passes through both the primary and secondary windings in an ideal transformer, a voltage is induced in each winding, according to eq. (1) in the secondary winding case, according to eq. (2) in the primary winding case." The primary EMF is sometimes termed counter EMF. This is in

accordance with Lenz's law, which states that induction of EMF always opposes development of any such change in magnetic field.

The transformer winding voltage ratio is shown to be directly proportional to the winding turns ratio according to eq. (3). According to the law of conservation of energy, any load impedance connected to the ideal transformer's secondary winding results in conservation of apparent, real and reactive power consistent with eq. (4).

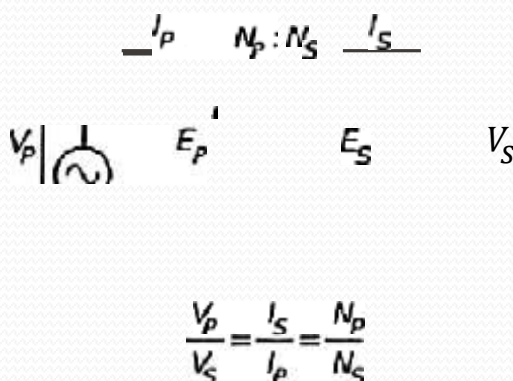
The ideal transformer identity shown in eq. (5) is a reasonable approximation for the typical commercial transformer, with voltage ratio and winding turns ratio both being inversely proportional to the corresponding current ratio.

By Ohm's law and the ideal transformer identity:

- The secondary circuit load impedance can be expressed as eq. (6)
- The apparent load impedance referred to the primary circuit is derived in eq. (7) to be

4.1.1.2 Relationship between voltage and Current:

The relationship between voltage, currents and number of turns is shown in the following figure for an ideal transformer with N_P turns in the primary winding and N_S turns in the secondary winding. V_P and V_S are respectively the primary and secondary voltages.



N_P/N_S is the turns ratio or transformer ratio.

Ideal transformer equation based on Faraday's law of induction

$$V_S = -N_S \frac{d\Phi}{dt} \dots (1)$$

$$V_P = -N_P \frac{d\Phi}{dt} \dots (2)$$

Combining ratio of (1) & (2)

$$\text{Turns ratio} = \frac{V_P}{V_S} = \frac{-N_P}{-N_S} = a \dots (3)$$

Where

for step-down transformers, $a > 1$
for step-up transformers, $a < 1$

By conservation of energy, apparent, real and reactive power are each conserved in the input and output

$$S = I_P V_P = I_S V_S \dots (4)$$

Combining (3) & (4) with the transformer identity yields the ideal transformer identity

$$\frac{V_S}{V_P} = \frac{I_P}{I_S} = \frac{N_P}{N_S} = \sqrt{\frac{L_P}{L_S}}$$

By Ohm's law an ideal transformer identity

$$Z_L = \frac{V_S}{I_S} \dots (5)$$

Apparent load impedance Z_L' referred to the primary

$$Z_L' = \frac{V_P}{I_P} = \frac{a V_S}{I_S / a} = a^2 \frac{V_S}{I_S} = a^2 Z_L \dots (7)$$

The voltage ratio is directly proportional to the turns ratio, but the current ratio is inversely proportional to the turns ratio. The secondary voltage is given by:

$$V_s = \frac{N_s}{N_p} V_p$$

In a step-up transformer the secondary voltage V_s is higher than the primary voltage V_p . This is achieved by using a secondary winding with more turns than the primary winding. The voltage increase is determined by the turns ratio.

In a step-down transformer the secondary voltage V_s is smaller than the primary voltage V_p . The secondary winding has fewer turns than the primary winding. The voltage decrease is determined by the turns ratio.

In an ideal transformer the input and output powers are the same:

$$P = V_p I_p = V_s I_s$$

4.1.6J Applications of Transformer:

Transformers are used to increase (or step-up) voltage before transmitting electrical energy over long distances through wires. Wires have resistance which loses energy through joule heating at a rate corresponding to square of the current. By transforming power to a higher voltage transformers enable economical transmission and distribution. Consequently, transformers have shaped the electricity supply industry, permitting generation to be located remotely from points of demand. All but a tiny fraction of the world's electrical power has passed through a series of transformers by the time it reaches the consumer.

Since the high voltages carried in the wires are significantly greater than what is needed in-home, transformers are also used extensively in electronic products to decrease (or step-down) the supply voltage to a level suitable for the low voltage circuits they contain. The transformer also electrically isolates the end user from contact with the supply voltage. Signal and audio transformers are used to couple stages of amplifiers and to match devices such as microphones and record players to the input of amplifiers. Audio transformers allowed telephone circuits to carry on a two-way conversation over a single pair of wires.

A balun transformer converts a signal that is referenced to ground to a signal that has balanced voltages to ground, such as between external cables and internal circuits.

Transformers made of iron-core are used in power supply units to isolate the primary from the secondary. They are also used in electronic equipment, such as in the power supply of electronic equipment, and in other electrical applications.



Figure 4.1.7: A transformer.

4.1.7 CFL BULB:

A compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) is a small, energy-saving light, and compact fluorescent tube, is a fluorescent lamp designed to replace an incandescent lamp; some types fit into light fixtures normally used for incandescent lamps. The tube is curved or folded to fit into the shape of an incandescent bulb, and the compact fluorescent bulb is a small, energy-saving light.

Compared to general-service incandescent lamps giving the same amount of visible light, CFLs use up to 80% less electricity, and last up to 10 times longer. A CFL has a higher purchase price than an incandescent lamp, but can save over five times its purchase price in electricity costs over the lamp's lifetime. "Like the fluorescent lamp, CFLs contain toxic materials" which complicates their disposal. In many countries, governments

have banned the disposal of CFLs together with regular garbage. These countries have established special collection systems for CFLs and other hazardous waste.



Fig. a CFL bulb

The principle of operation in a CFL bulb remains the same as in other fluorescent lighting: electrons that are bound to mercury atoms are excited to states where they will radiate ultraviolet light as they return to a lower energy level; this emitted ultraviolet light is then converted into visible light as it strikes the fluorescent coatings on the bulb (as well as into heat when absorbed by other materials such as glass).

CFLs radiate a spectral power distribution that is different from that of incandescent lamps. Improved phosphor formulations have improved the perceived color of the light emitted by CFLs, such that some sources rate the best "soft white" CFLs as subjectively similar in color to standard incandescent lamps. White LED lamps now compete with CFLs for high-efficiency house lighting.

4.1.7.1 Energy Efficiency:

Because the eye's sensitivity changes with the wavelength, the output of lamps is commonly measured in lumens, a measure of the power of light as perceived by the human eye. The luminous efficacy of lamps is the number of lumens produced for each watt of electrical power used. The luminous efficacy of a typical CFL is 50-70 lumens per watt (lm/W) and that of a typical incandescent lamp is 10-17 lm/W. Compared to a theoretical

100%-efficient lamp (680 lm/W), CFL lamps have lighting efficiency ranges of 7–10%, versus 1.5-2.5% for incandescents.

Because of their higher efficacy, CFLs use between one-seventh and one-third of the power of equivalent incandescent lamps. Fifty to seventy percent of the world's total lighting market sales were incandescent in 2010. Replacing all inefficient lighting with CFLs would save 409 terawatt-hours (1.47 exajoules) per year, 2.5% of the world's electricity consumption. In the US, it is estimated that replacing all the incandescent would save 80 TWh yearly. Since CFLs use much less energy than incandescent lamps (ILs), a phase-out of ILs would result in less carbon dioxide (CO₂) being emitted into the atmosphere. Exchanging ILs for efficient CFLs on a global scale would achieve annual CO₂ reductions of 230 MI (million tons), more than the combined yearly CO₂ emissions of the Netherlands and Portugal.

Electrical power equivalents for differing lamps

Incandescent	Electrical power consumption (watt)		
	Incandescent	Cool-white CFL	MD
40	40	9-11	6-8
60	60	13-15	9-12
75	75	16-20	13-16
100	100	25-28	15-22
150	150	34-42	24-28
200	200	49-75	30
300	300	75-100	N/A

CHAPTER - V

APPLICATIONS OF MINI INVERTER

5.0 APPLICATIONS:

- » Inverter designed to provide 230V AC from the 12V DC source provided in an automobile. The unit shown provides up to 3 amperes of alternating current, or just enough to power Eighteen (18) watt light bulbs.
- » This circuit can be used in cars and other vehicles to charge small batteries.
- This circuit can be used to drive low power AC motors
- It can be used in solar power system.

- * An inverter converts the DC electricity from sources such as batteries, solar panels, or fuel cells to AC electricity. The electricity can be at any required voltage in particular it can operate AC equipment designed for mains operation, or rectified to produce DC at any desired voltage.

- * Micro-inverters convert direct current from individual solar panels into alternating current for the electric grid.

1. UNINTERRUPTIBLE POWER SUPPLIES (UPS):

- An uninterruptible power supply (UPS) uses batteries and an inverter to supply AC power when main power is not available. When main power is restored, a rectifier is used to supply DC power to recharge the batteries.

5.0.2 INDUCTION HEATING:

- Inverters convert low frequency main AC power to a higher frequency for used in induction heating. To do this, AC power is first rectified to provide DC power. The inverter then changes the DC power to high frequency AC power.

5.0.3 HVDC POWER TRANSMISSION:

- With HVDC power transmission, AC power is rectified and high voltage DC power is transmitted to another location. At the receiving location an inverter in a static inverter plant converts the power back to AC.

5.0.4 VARIABLE-FREQUENCY DRIVES:

- A variable-frequency drive controls the operating speed of an AC motor by controlling the frequency and voltage of the power supplied to the motor. An inverter provides the controlled power.
- In most cases, the variable-frequency drive includes a rectifier so that DC power for the inverter can be provided from main AC power. Since an inverter is the key component, variable-frequency drives are sometimes called inverter drives or just inverters.

5.0.5 ELECTRIC VEHICLE DRIVES:

- Adjustable speed motor control inverters are currently used to power the traction motors in some electric and diesel-electric rail vehicles as well as some battery electric vehicles and plug-in electric hybrid vehicles such as the Toyota Prius. Various improvements in inverter technology are being developed specifically for electric vehicle applications. In vehicles with regenerative braking, the inverter also takes power from the motor (now acting as a generator) and stores it in the batteries.

1. LIMITATIONS:

- If there is no power supply at all in an area, if the power in the battery is drained, then the Inverter will be of no use. Inverter can be used only for a few hours as otherwise the battery will be drained out.
- Battery maintenance is required. Some electronic goods like computer will get reset even if on an inverter, because there is a small disruption in power supply.
- Not applicable for above 20 \Vatt load
- It is damage if given above the 12Volt input power supply

CHPATSR - M

CONCLUSION

6.0 CONCLUSION:

I think we're uncomfortable when problems don't have neat solutions. \When the real world frustrates us, we make assumptions and propose simple models that iiiay or may not capture the ture behavior \Vitli all the work done so far, I believe some progress has been made in settlin₅ the problem with systems addressed in the introduction.

The simple circuit topology supports a low cost and high efficiency power converter.

The proposed ins•erter circuitry has a low component count »•ith only Evo transistors, resistors, inductors, capacitors and step-up transformer.

An inverter is used to produce an tin-interrupted 220V AC (depending on the line voltage of the particular country) supply to the device connected as the load at the output socket. The inverter gives constant AC voltage at its output socket when the AC mains power supply is not as•ailable. The 18 \Vatt inverter applicable for MOBILE CHARGING and LIGHT LOAD.

