



- During the negative half-cycle of the input voltage, thyristors  $T_3$  &  $T_4$  are forward biased.
- The turning on of thyristors  $T_3$  &  $T_4$  applies the supply voltage across thyristors  $T_1$  &  $T_2$  as reverse blocking voltage.
- $T_1$  &  $T_2$  are turned off due to **line or natural commutation** & the load current is transferred from  $T_1$  &  $T_2$  to  $T_3$  &  $T_4$ .
- Figure 10.1b shows the regions of converter operation.
- Figures 10.1c-f show the waveforms for input voltage, output voltage, & input and output currents.
- During the period from  $\alpha$  to  $\pi$ , the input voltage  $v_s$  & input current  $i_s$  are positive, & power flows from the supply to the load.
- The converter is said to be operated in **rectification** mode.
- During the period from  $\pi$  to  $\pi + \alpha$ , the input voltage  $v_s$  is negative & the input current  $i_s$  is positive.
- Hence, reverse power flows from the load to the supply.
- The converter is said to be operated in **inversion mode**.
- This converter is extensively used in industrial applications up to 15 kW.
- Depending on the value of  $\alpha$ , the average output voltage could be either positive or negative, & it provides 2-quadrant operation.

The average output voltage can be found from

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha}^{\pi+\alpha} V_m \sin \omega t d(\omega t) = \frac{2V_m}{2\pi} [-\cos \omega t]_{\alpha}^{\pi+\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \cos \alpha \quad (10.1)$$

and  $V_{dc}$  can be varied from  $2V_m/\pi$  to  $-2V_m/\pi$  by varying  $\alpha$  from 0 to  $\pi$ . The maximum average output voltage is  $V_{dm} = 2V_m/\pi$  and the normalized average output voltage is

$$V_n = \frac{V_{dc}}{V_{dm}} = \cos \alpha \quad (10.2)$$

The rms value of the output voltage is given by

$$V_{rms} = \left[ \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha}^{\pi+\alpha} V_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t d(\omega t) \right]^{1/2} = \left[ \frac{V_m^2}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha}^{\pi+\alpha} (1 - \cos 2\omega t) d(\omega t) \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = V_s \quad (10.3)$$

With a purely resistive load, thyristors  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  can conduct from  $\alpha$  to  $\pi$ , and thyristors  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  can conduct from  $\alpha + \pi$  to  $2\pi$ .

Circuit Figure & Waveforms = 5 Marks, Explanation & Equations = 5 marks.

- 2 With a neat diagram and waveforms, explain the principle of operation of dual converter, with and without circulating current.

Soln.

Circuit Figure & Waveforms = 5 Marks, Explanation & Equations = 5 marks.

10	CO5	L3

- Single-phase full converters with inductive loads allow only a two-quadrant operation.
- 2 of these full converters are connected back to back, as shown in Figure 10.2a.
- This enables both the output voltage and the load current flow to be reversed.
- Thus, the system provides a 4-quadrant operation & is called a **dual converter**.
- Dual converters are normally used in high-power variable-speed drives.
- If  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are the delay angles of converters 1 and 2, respectively, the corresponding average output voltages are  $V_{dc1}$  and  $V_{dc2}$ .
- The delay angles are controlled.
- This is done such that one converter operates as a rectifier & the other converter operates as an inverter.
- But, both converters produce the same average output voltage.
- Figures 10.2b-f show the output waveforms for 2 converters, where the 2 average output voltages are the same.
- Figure 10.2b shows the V-I characteristics of a dual converter.

From Eq. (10.1) the average output voltages are

$$V_{dc1} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \cos \alpha_1 \quad (10.11)$$

and

$$V_{dc2} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \cos \alpha_2 \quad (10.12)$$

Because one converter is rectifying and the other one is inverting,

$$V_{dc1} = -V_{dc2} \quad \text{or} \quad \cos \alpha_2 = -\cos \alpha_1 = \cos(\pi - \alpha_1)$$

Therefore,

$$\alpha_2 = \pi - \alpha_1 \quad (10.13)$$

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Because the instantaneous output voltages of the two converters are out of phase, there can be an instantaneous voltage difference and this can result in circulating current between the two converters. This circulating current cannot flow through the load and is normally limited by a *circulating current reactor*  $L_r$ , as shown in Figure 10.2a.

If  $v_{o1}$  and  $v_{o2}$  are the instantaneous output voltages of converters 1 and 2, respectively, the circulating current can be found by integrating the instantaneous voltage difference starting from  $\omega t = \pi - \alpha_1$ . Because the two average output voltages during the interval  $\omega t = \pi + \alpha_1$  to  $2\pi - \alpha_1$  are equal and opposite, their contributions to the instantaneous circulating current  $i_r$  is zero.

$$\begin{aligned}
 i_r &= \frac{1}{\omega L_r} \int_{\pi - \alpha_1}^{\omega t} v_r d(\omega t) = \frac{1}{\omega L_r} \int_{\pi - \alpha_1}^{\omega t} (v_{o1} + v_{o2}) d(\omega t) \\
 &= \frac{V_m}{\omega L_r} \left[ \int_{2\pi - \alpha_1}^{\omega t} \sin \omega t d(\omega t) - \int_{2\pi - \alpha_1}^{\omega t} -\sin \omega t d(\omega t) \right] \\
 &= \frac{2V_m}{\omega L_r} (\cos \alpha_1 - \cos \omega t) \quad i_r > 0 \quad \text{for } 0 \leq \alpha_1 < \frac{\pi}{2} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad i_r < 0 \quad \text{for } \frac{\pi}{2} < \alpha_1 \leq \pi
 \end{aligned} \tag{10.14}$$

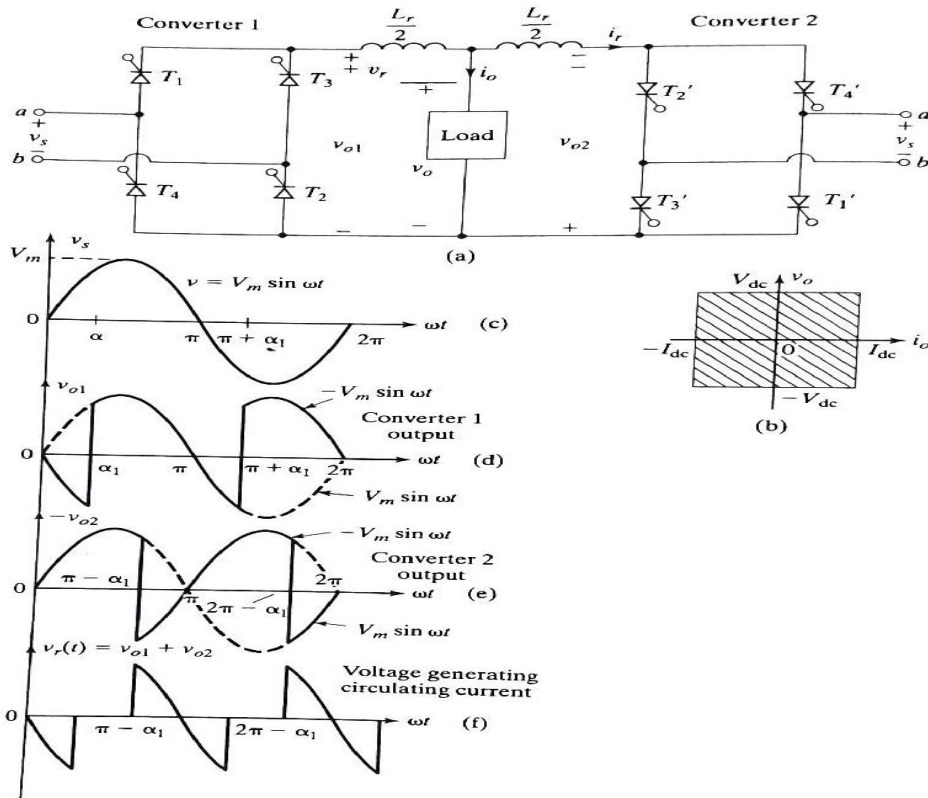


FIGURE 10.2 Single-phase dual converter. (a) Circuit, (b) Quadrant, (c) Input supply voltage, (d) Output voltage for converter 1, (e) Output voltage for converter 2, and (f) Circulating inductor voltage.

- For  $\alpha_1=0$ , only the converter 1 operates ; for  $\alpha_1=\pi$ , only the converter 2 operates.

- For  $0 \leq \alpha_1 < \pi/2$ , the converter 1 supplies a positive load current  $+i_o$ .
- Thus, the circulating current can only be positive.
- For  $\pi/2 < \alpha_1 \leq \pi$ , the converter 2 supplies a negative load current  $-i_o$ .
- Thus, only a negative circulating current can flow.
- At  $\alpha_1 = \pi/2$ , the converter 1 supplies positive circulating during the 1<sup>st</sup> half-cycle.
- Converter 2 supplies negative circulating during the second half-cycle.

The instantaneous circulating current depends on the delay angle. For  $\alpha_1 = 0$ , its magnitude becomes minimum when  $\omega t = n\pi, n = 0, 2, 4, \dots$ , and maximum when  $\omega t = n\pi, n = 1, 3, 5, \dots$ . If the peak load current is  $I_p$ , one of the converters that controls the power flow may carry a peak current of  $(I_p + 4V_m/\omega L_r)$ .

The dual converters can be operated with or without a circulating current. In case of operation without circulating current, only one converter operates at a time and carries the load current, and the other converter is completely blocked by inhibiting gate pulses. However, the operation with circulating current has the following advantages:

1. The circulating current maintains continuous conduction of both converters over the whole control range, independent of the load.
2. Because one converter always operates as a rectifier and the other converter operates as an inverter, the power flow in either direction at any time is possible.
3. Because both converters are in continuous conduction, the time response for changing from one quadrant operation to another is faster.

**Gating sequence.** The gating sequence is as follows:

1. Gate the positive converter with a delay angle of  $\alpha_1 = \alpha$ .
2. Gate the negative converter with a delay angle of  $\alpha_2 = \pi - \alpha$  through gate-isolating circuits.

- 3 Draw the circuit diagram of a single phase AC voltage controller and explain the principle of ON-OFF control, with the help of relevant waveforms. Derive the expression for rms output voltage in terms of rms supply voltage and duty cycle of the operation of the controller.

Soln.

Circuit Figure & Waveforms = 5 Marks, Explanation & Equations = 5 marks.

- If a thyristor switch is connected between ac supply & load, the power flow can be controlled.
- This is done by varying the rms value of ac voltage applied to the load.
- This type of power circuit is known as an **ac voltage controller**.
- The most common applications of ac voltage controllers are :
  - ✓ Industrial heating
  - ✓ On-load transformer connection changing
  - ✓ Light controls

10	CO5	L2





If  $v_s = \sqrt{2}V_s \sin \omega t$  is the input voltage, and the delay angles of thyristors  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are equal ( $\alpha_2 = \pi + \alpha_1$ ), the rms output voltage can be found from

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_o &= \left\{ \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha}^{\pi} 2V_s^2 \sin^2 \omega t d(\omega t) \right\}^{1/2} \\
 &= \left\{ \frac{4V_s^2}{4\pi} \int_{\alpha}^{\pi} (1 - \cos 2\omega t) d(\omega t) \right\}^{1/2} \\
 &= V_s \left[ \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \pi - \alpha + \frac{\sin 2\alpha}{2} \right) \right]^{1/2} \quad (11.1)
 \end{aligned}$$

By varying  $\alpha$  from 0 to  $\pi$ ,  $V_o$  can be varied from  $V_s$  to 0.

- 4 Draw a neat sketch of 1-  $\phi$  AC voltage full controller with R and RL load and explain its working.

Soln.

3 circuits & explanation with R load =  $3 \times 2 = 6$  marks, 1 circuit & explanation with RL Load = 4 marks.

10	CO5	L3

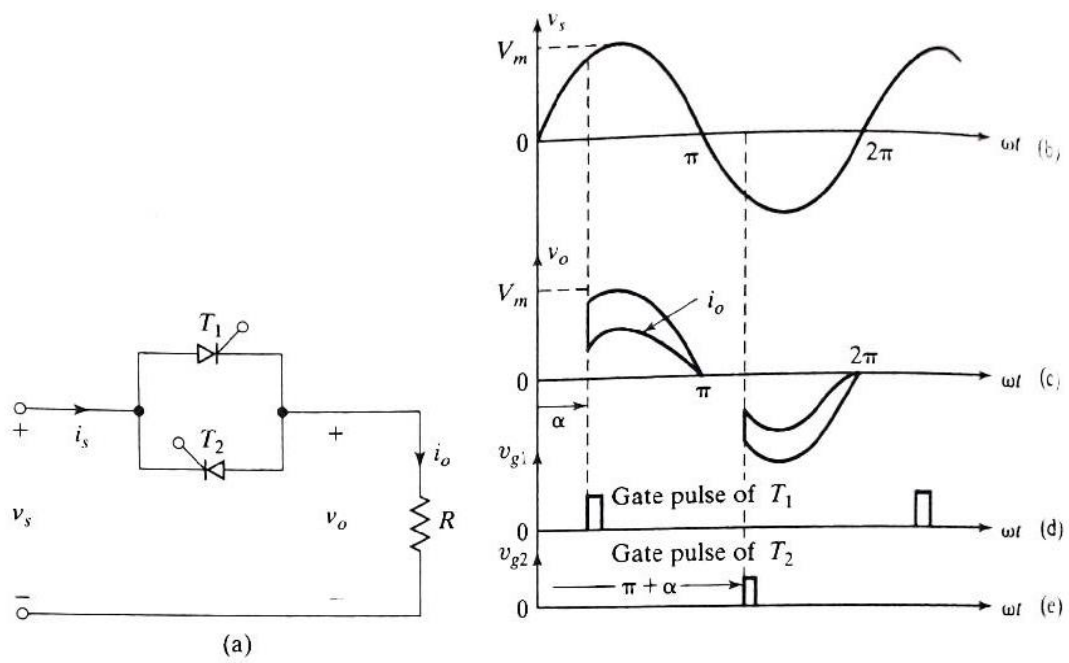


FIGURE 11.2

Single-phase full-wave controller. (a) Circuit, (b) Input supply voltage, (c) Output voltage, (d) Gate pulse for  $T_1$ , and (e) Gate pulse for  $T_2$ .

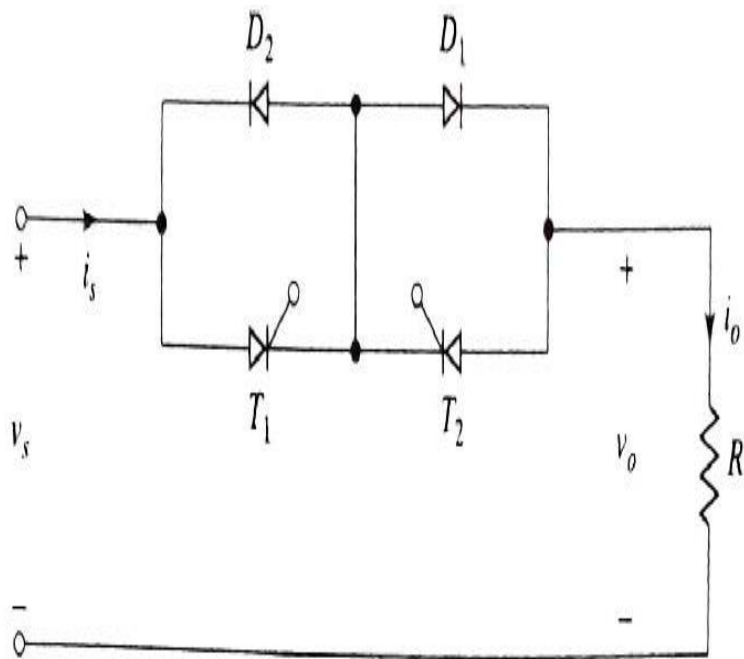


FIGURE 11.3

Single-phase full-wave controller with common cathode.

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**Gating sequence.** The gating sequence is as follows:

1. Generate a pulse signal at the positive zero crossing of the supply voltage  $v_s$ .
2. Delay the pulse by the desired angle  $\alpha$  for gating  $T_1$  through a gate-isolating circuit.
3. Generate another pulse of delay angle  $\alpha + \pi$  for gating  $T_2$ .

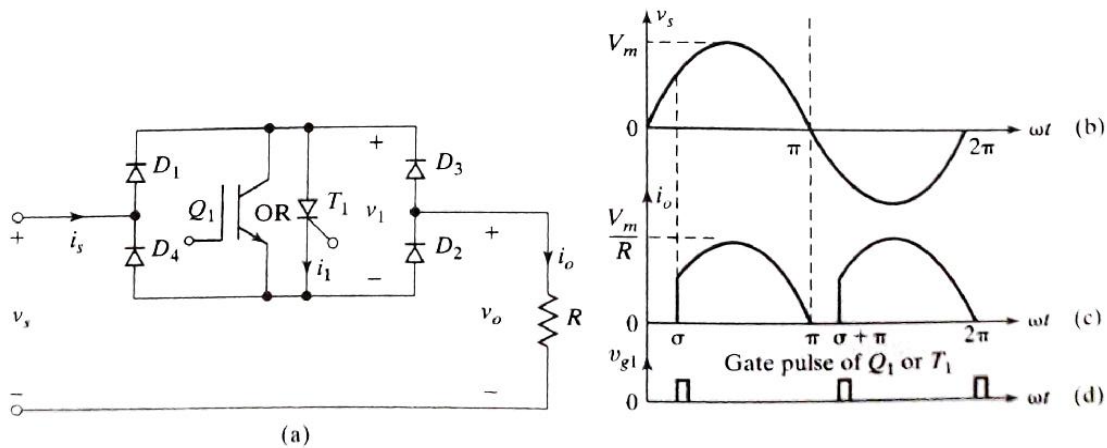


FIGURE 11.4

Single-phase full-wave controller with one thyristor. (a) Circuit, (b) Input supply voltage, (c) Output current, and (d) Gate pulse for  $T_1$ .

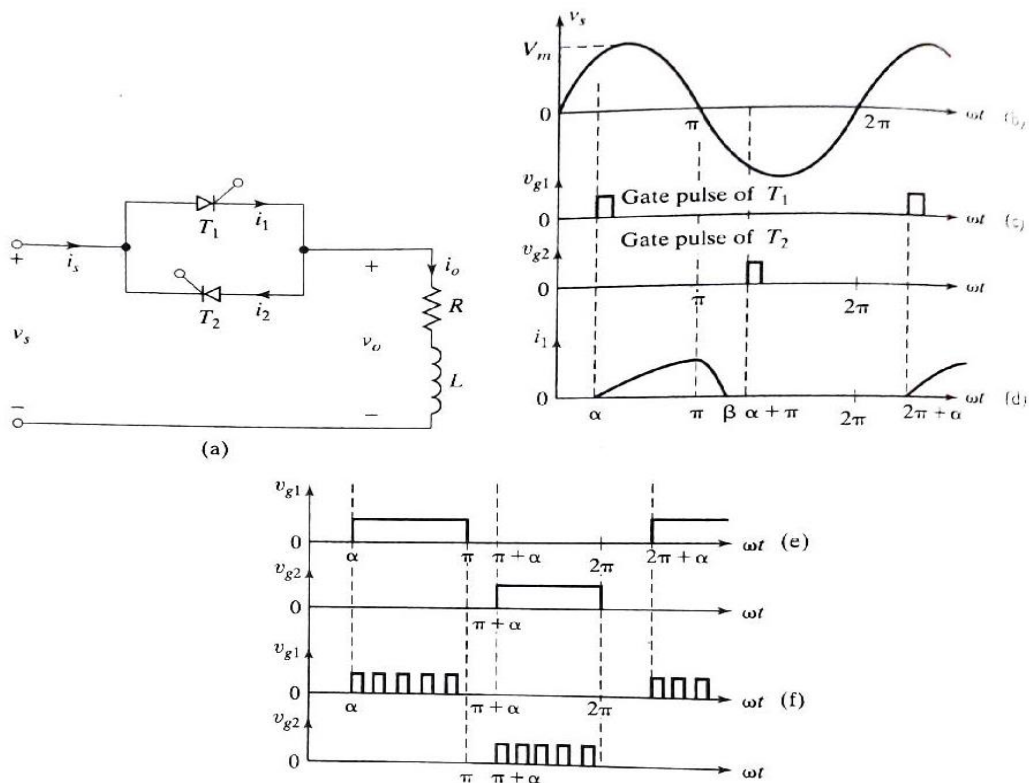


FIGURE 11.5

Single-phase full-wave controller with  $RL$  load. (a) Circuit, (b) Input supply voltage, (c) Gate pulses for  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , (d) Current through thyristor  $T_1$ , (e) Continuous gate pulses for  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , and (f) Train of gate pulses for  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .

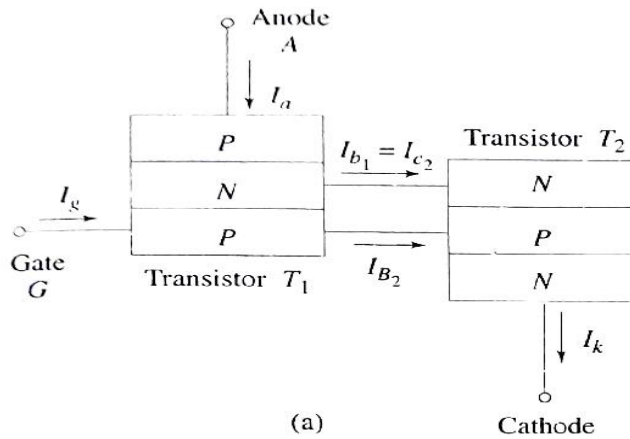
5 Using the two transistor model, explain how a small gate current can turn on an SCR.

10 CO2 L1

Soln.

Circuit Diagram= 4 marks, Explanation & Eqns.= 6 marks.

- The operation of an SCR can be also explained in a very simple way by considering it in terms of 2 transistors.
- This is known as the 2 transistor analogy of the SCR.
- The SCR can be considered as an **nnp** & a **pnnp** transistor, where the collector of one transistor is attached to the base of the other & **vice-versa**, as shown in Fig.1.4.
- The model is obtained by splitting the 2 middle layers of the SCR into 2 separate parts.



- $I_a$  — Anode current
- $I_k$  — Cathode current
- $I_g$  — Gate current
- $I_{e1}$  — Emitter current of transistor  $T_1$  (*pnp*)
- $I_{b1}$  — Base current of transistor  $T_1$
- $I_{c1}$  — Collector current of transistor  $T_1$
- $I_{e2}$  — Emitter-current of transistor  $T_2$
- $I_{b2}$  — Base-current of transistor  $T_2$
- $I_{c2}$  — Collector-current of transistor  $T_2$
- $\alpha_1$  — Current-gain of transistor  $T_1$
- $\alpha_2$  — Current-gain of transistor  $T_2$ .

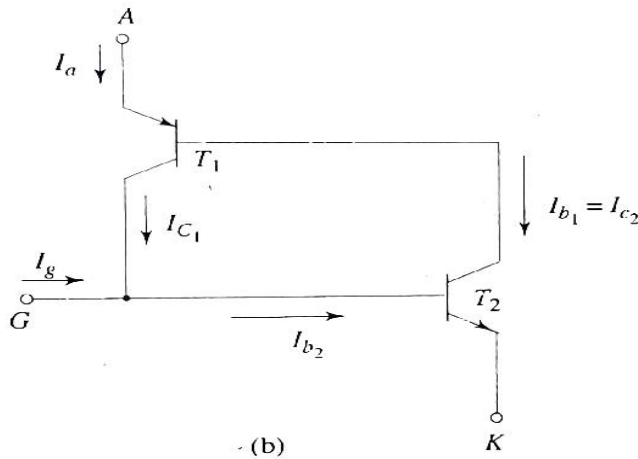


Fig. 1.4 Two transistor analogy of SCR

It is observed from the figure that the collector current of transistor  $T_1$  becomes the base current of transistor  $T_2$  and *vice versa*.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad I_{c_1} &= I_{b_2} \quad \text{and} \quad I_{b_1} = I_{c_2} \\ \text{Also,} \quad I_k &= I_a + I_g \end{aligned} \quad (1.1)$$

Now, we have the relation from transistor analysis,

$$I_{b_1} = I_{e_1} - I_{c_1} \quad (1.2)$$

$$\text{Also,} \quad I_{c_1} = \alpha_1 I_{e_1} + I_{co_1} \quad (1.3)$$

where  $I_{co_1}$  is the reverse leakage current of the reverse biased junction  $J_2$  when the two outer layers are not present.

Substituting Eq. (1.3) in Eq. (1.2) we get

$$\begin{aligned} I_{b_1} &= I_{e_1} - \alpha_1 I_{e_1} - I_{co_1} \\ I_{b_1} &= (1 - \alpha_1) I_{e_1} - I_{co_1} \end{aligned}$$

From Fig. 1.4, it is evident that the anode current of the device becomes the emitter current of transistor  $T_1$  that is

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad I_a &= I_{e_1} \\ I_{b_1} &= (1 - \alpha_1) I_a - I_{co_1} \end{aligned} \quad (1.4)$$

Also,

$$I_{c_2} = \alpha_2 I_{e_2} + I_{co_2}$$

From the Fig. 1.4, it is also observed that the cathode current of the SCR becomes the emitter-current of transistor  $T_2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad I_k &= I_{e_2} \\ \therefore \quad I_{c_2} &= \alpha_2 I_k + I_{co_2} \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

But

$$I_{b_1} = I_{c_2} \quad (1.6)$$

Substituting Eqs (1.4) and (1.5) in Eq. (1.6), we get

$$(1 - \alpha_1) I_a - I_{co_1} = \alpha_2 I_k + I_{co_2} \quad (1.7)$$

Substituting Eq. (1.1) in Eq. (1.7), we get

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - \alpha_1) I_a - I_{co_1} &= \alpha_2 (I_a + I_g) + I_{co_2} \\ (1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2) I_a &= \alpha_2 I_g + I_{co_2} + I_{co_1} \\ [1 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)] I_a &= \alpha_2 I_g + I_{co_1} + I_{co_2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \quad I_a = \frac{\alpha_2 I_g + I_{co_1} + I_{co_2}}{[1 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)]} \quad (1.8)$$

Assuming the leakage current of transistor  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  to be negligible small, we have

$$I_a = \frac{\alpha_2 I_g}{1 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)} \quad (1.9)$$

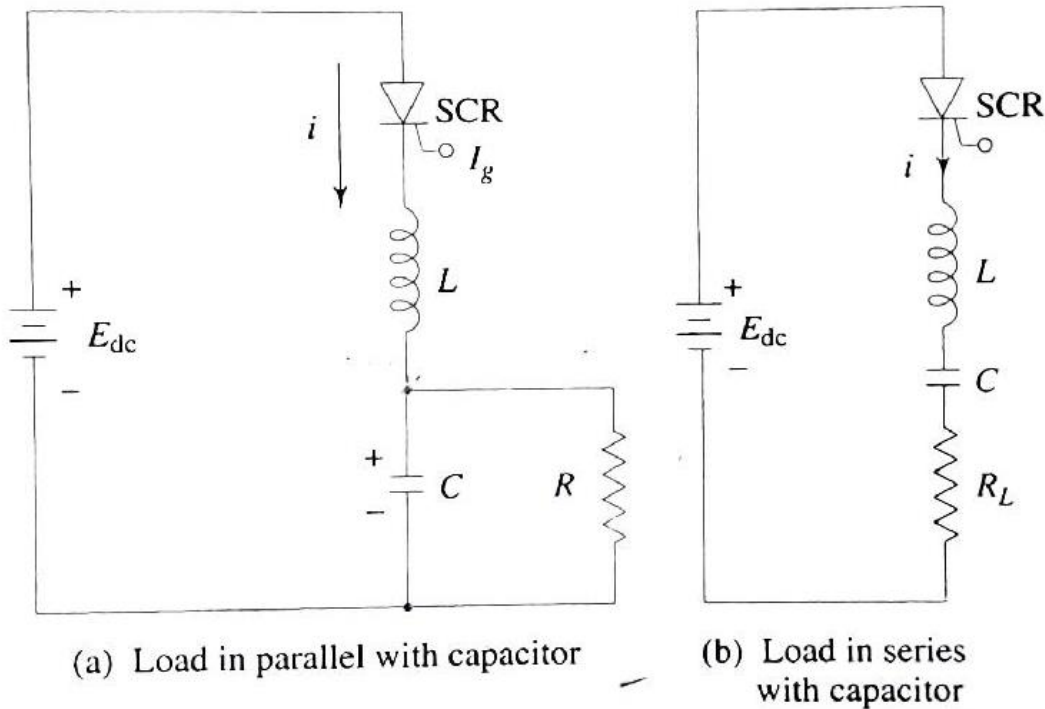
6 With a neat circuit diagram and wave forms explain the working of class A commutation.

10 CO2 L1

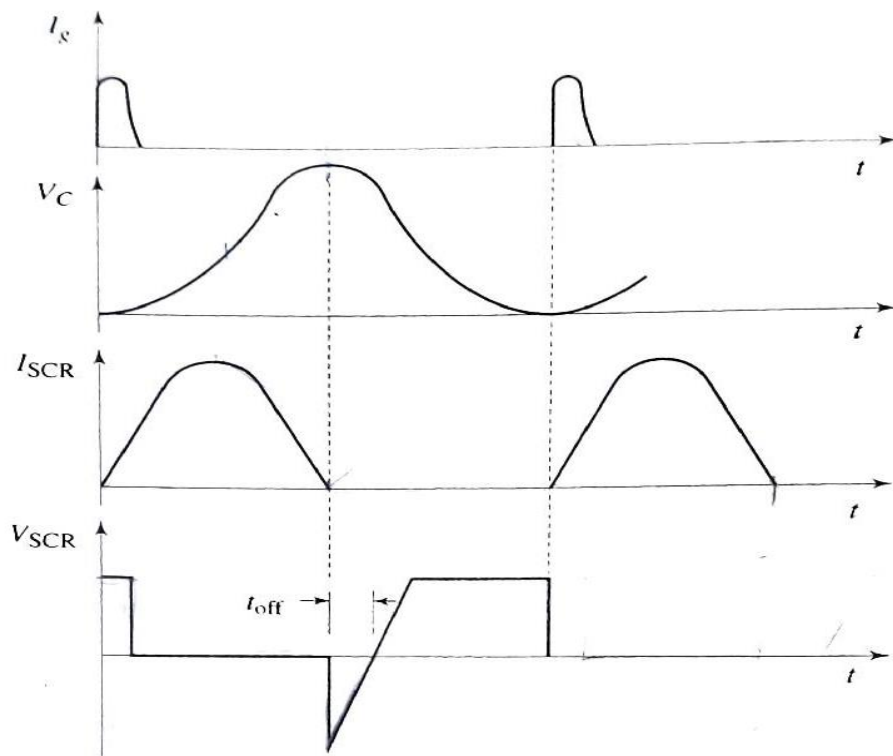
Soln.

Diagram & Waveforms= 5 marks, Explanation= 5 marks.

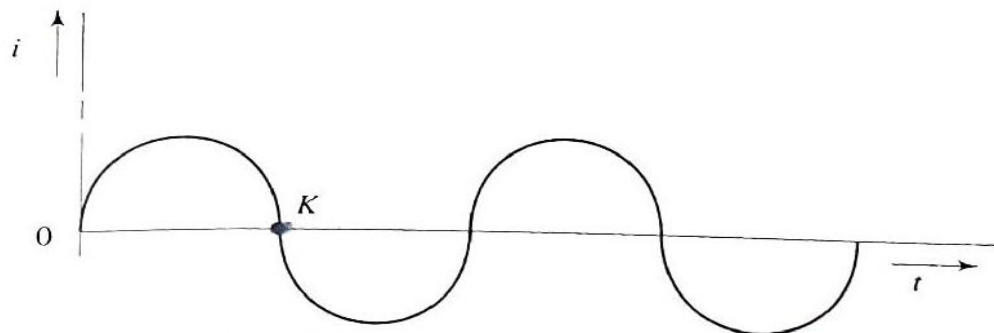
- This is also known as resonant commutation.
- This type of commutation circuit using L-C components-in-series-with the load are shown in Fig.1.12.
- In Fig.1.12(a), load  $R_L$  is in parallel with the capacitor & in Fig.1.12(b), load  $R_L$  is in series with the L-C circuit.
- In this process of commutation, the forward current passing through the device is reduced.
- It is reduced to less than the level of holding current of the device.
- Hence, this method is also known as the current commutation method.
- The waveforms of the thyristor voltage, current & capacitor voltages are shown in Fig.1.13.



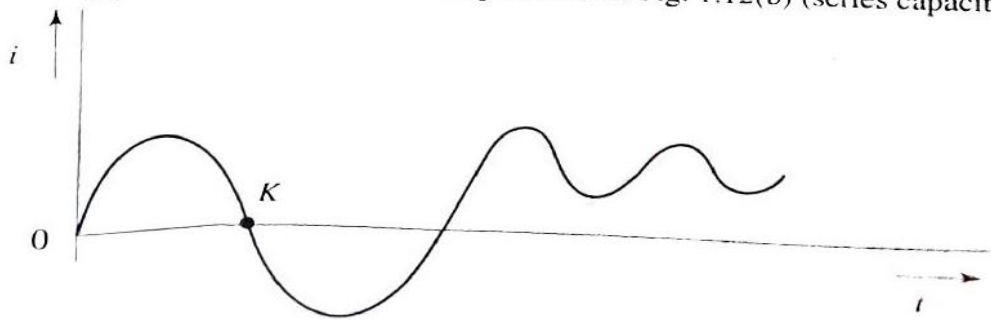
**Fig. 1.12 Class A commutation circuit**



**Fig. 1.13** Voltages and currents in Class A (load is parallel with capacitor)



(a) Waveforms of the current produced in Fig. 1.12(b) (series capacitor)



(b) Waveforms of the current produced in Fig. 1.12(a) (parallel capacitor)

**Fig. 1.14**

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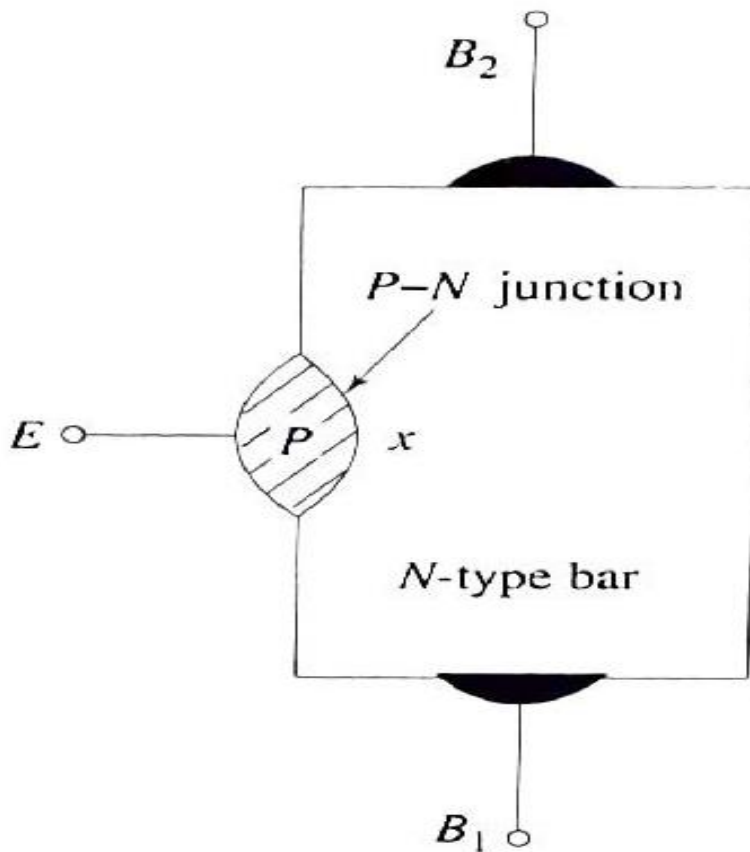
7 With a neat circuit diagram and wave forms explain the working of UJT triggering.

10	CO2	L2
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Soln.

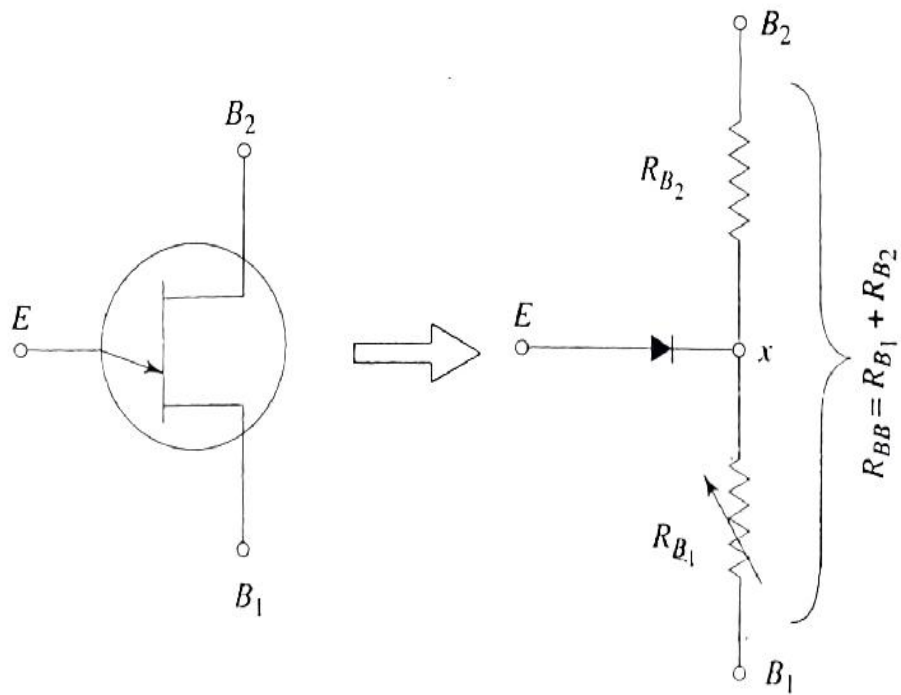
Circuit diagram & waveforms= 5 marks, Explanation= 5 marks.

- The unijunction transistor, abbreviated UJT, is a three-terminal, single-junction device.
- The basic UJT & its variations are essentially latching switches.
- Their operation is similar to the 4-layer diode.
- The most significant difference being that the UJT's switching voltage can be easily varied by the circuit designer.
- Like the 4-layer diode, the UJT is always operated as a switch.
- It has applications in oscillators, timing circuits & SCR/TRIAC trigger circuits.



**Fig. 2.14** Basic UJT structure



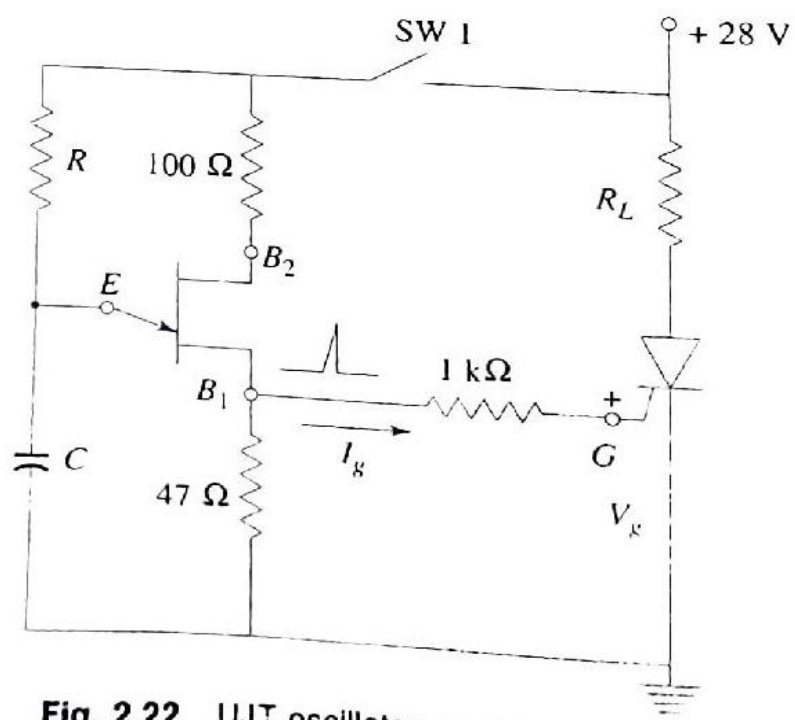


**Fig. 2.15** UJT symbol and equivalent circuit

- The basic circuit is shown in Fig.2.22.
- The  $B_1$  pulse output is used to trigger the SCR, a predetermined time after the switch is closed.
- Thus, the 1<sup>st</sup>  $B_1$  pulse occurs T seconds after the 28 V is supplied to the UJT circuit.
- After the SCR has been triggered “on”, subsequent pulses at its gate have no effect.
- An important design consideration in this type of circuit concerns the premature triggering of the SCR.
- The voltage at  $B_1$  when the UJT is “off”, must be smaller than the voltage needed to trigger the SCR.
- Otherwise, the SCR will be triggered immediately upon switch closure.
- Thus, we have the requirement as follows:


...we have the requirement

$$V_{B_1(\text{off})} < (I_g \times 1 \text{ k}\Omega + V_g) \quad (2.18)$$



**Fig. 2.22** UJT oscillator as gate trigger source

8 Explain different turn ON methods & turn off mechanism of SCR.

10	CO2	L2
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Soln.

5 turn on methods & explanation= 1.5 \* 5= 7.5 marks, turn off mechanism = 2.5 marks.

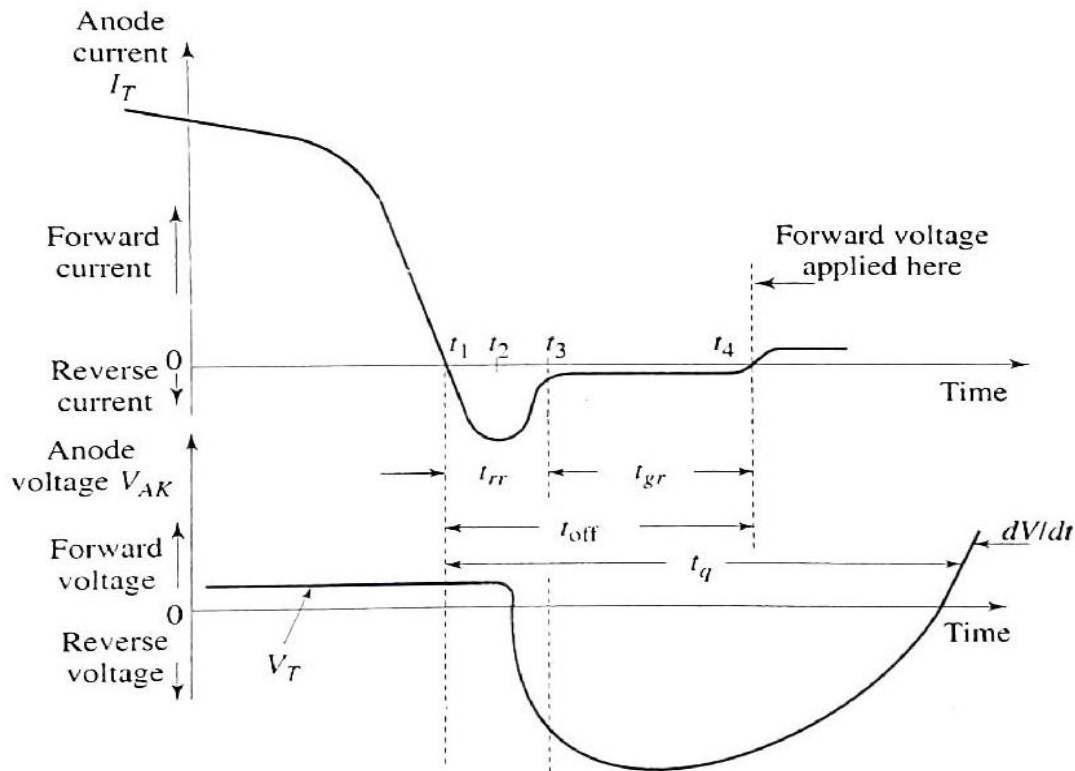
Turn on methods –

- Forward Voltage Triggering
- Thermal Triggering
- Radiation Triggering
- dv/dt Triggering
- Gate Triggering

Turn off mechanism –

- Once the SCR starts conducting an appreciable forward current, the gate has no control on it.
- The device can be brought back to the blocking state only by reducing the forward current to a level below that of the holding current.
- The process of turn-off is also called as **commutation**.
- If a forward voltage is applied immediately after reducing the anode current to zero, it will not block the forward voltage.
- It will instead start conducting again, although it is not triggered by a gate pulse.
- Hence, it is necessary to keep the device reverse biased for a finite period before applying a forward anode voltage again.

- The turn-off time of the thyristor is defined as the minimum time interval between the 2 instants.
- The 1<sup>st</sup> instant is that at which the anode current becomes zero.
- The 2<sup>nd</sup> instant is that at which the device is capable of blocking the forward voltage.
- The turn-off time is illustrated by the waveforms shown in Fig.1.11.
- The total turn-off time  $t_{off}$  is divided into 2 time intervals – the reverse recovery time  $t_{rr}$  & the gate recovery time  $t_{gr}$  .



**Fig. 1.11** Waveforms during SCR turn-off

- At the instant  $t_1$ , the anode forward current becomes zero.
- During the reverse recovery time,  $t_1$  to  $t_3$ , the anode current flows in the reverse direction.
- At the instant  $t_2$ , a reverse anode voltage is developed & the reverse recovery current continues to decrease.
- At  $t_3$ , junctions  $J_1$  &  $J_3$  are able to block a reverse voltage.
- But, the thyristor is not yet able to block a forward voltage.
- This is because carriers, called **trapped charges**, are still present at the junction  $J_2$ .
- During the interval,  $t_3$  to  $t_4$ , these carriers recombine.
- At  $t_4$ , the recombination is complete & hence, a forward voltage can be reapplied at this instant.
- The SCR turn-off time is the interval between  $t_4$  &  $t_1$ .
- In an SCR, this time varies in the range 10 to 100  $\mu s$ .
- Thus, the total turn-off time ( $t_{off}$ ) required for the device is the sum of the 2 durations.
- The 1<sup>st</sup> duration is that for which the reverse recovery current flows after the application of reverse

voltage.

- The 2<sup>nd</sup> duration is the time required for the recombination of all excess carriers in the inner 2 layers of the device.
- In practical applications, the turn-off time required to the SCR by the circuit, called the circuit turn-off time  $t_q$ , must be greater than the device turn-off time  $t_{off}$  by a suitably safe margin.
- Otherwise, the device will turn-on at an undesired instant, a process known as **commutation failure**.
- Thyristors having large turn-off time (50-100  $\mu$ s) are called as slow switching or phase control type thyristors (or converter grade thyristors).
- Those having low turn-off time (10-50  $\mu$ s) are called fast switching or inverter type thyristors.
- In high frequency applications, the required circuit turn-off time consumes an appreciable portion of the total cycle time.
- Hence, for these applications, inverter grade thyristors must be used.

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**ALL THE BEST**