

## **Power Electronics**

**Prof. B. G. Fernandes**

**Department of Electrical Engineering**

**Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay**

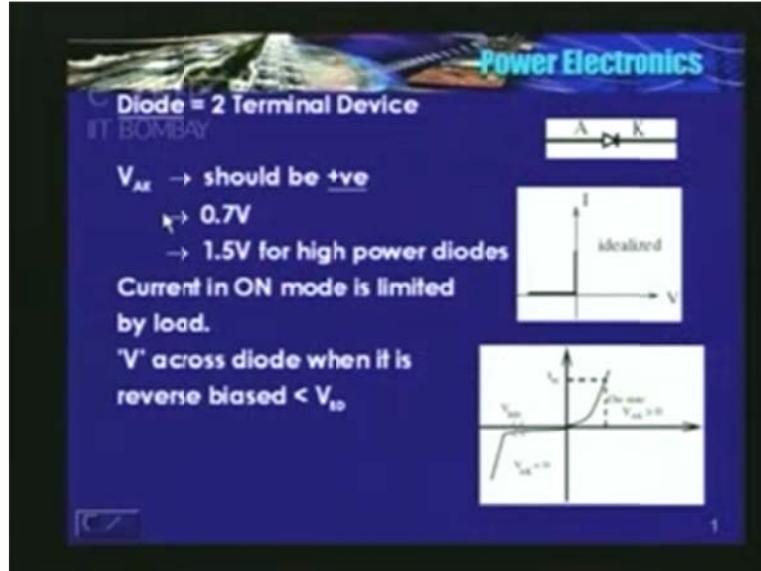
### **Lecture - 4**

Hello, in my last class I told you some of the very important applications of power electronics and some of the significant events in the history of power electronics till 1957, the year in which silicon controlled rectifier or thyristor was invented. As I go long, of course I will tell you the other significant events and we started discussing about the power semiconductor devices. I told you that power semiconductor devices are heart and soul of power electronic equipment. These are used as switches that means when they are on, we need to operate them in saturation and when they are off, we need to operate in: sorry, when they are off, they are in cut off region.

There are three types of switches. One is an uncontrolled switch, uncontrolled because whether a switch is on or off it depends on the circuit operating conditions. Say, diode for example and there is a semi controlled switch. A silicon controlled rectifier or thyristor is a semi controlled switch because it can be turned on by supplying some current to the gate or to the control terminal. But then, having turned on the device, you cannot turn it off using the gate.

Now, the SCR which is conducting, it turns off depending upon the circuit condition. If the current becomes zero in the circuit, thyristor will turn off and third one is a controlled switch. It can either turn it on or off using the control terminal. Say bipolar junction transistor, by supplying a base current, you can turn it on. You make  $i_b$  is equal to zero, base current zero, transistor turns off. Now we will study the various devices in detail.

(Refer Slide Time: 3:47)



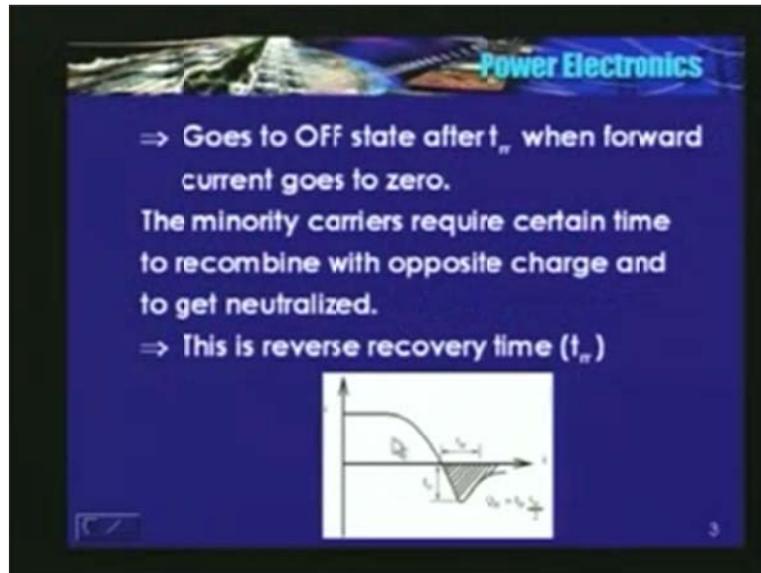
First one is diode, a two terminal device. All of us know, we have been studying may be since the class eleven, anode and cathode. So if  $V_{AK}$ , voltage across the diode  $V_{AK}$ , should be positive then it is said to be in forward bias mode and diode starts conducting. So for a silicon diode, a low power diode, it could be,  $V_{AK}$  could be of the order of 0.7 volts or so and this value increases as the power rating increases. Say, for a power diode it could be of the order of 1.5 volts or so and when the diode is on, all of us know that current in the circuit is limited by the load. See the ideal characteristics are along the y axis. That is, it can carry any current assuming which is less than the rated and it can block a negative voltage, it cannot a block positive voltage. These are the characteristics of a non ideal diode. May be, a cut in voltage somewhere at this point and this the current that is limited by the load. This is forward biased and this is during reverse biased mode,  $V_{AK}$  is negative.

Now as long as the applied voltage is less than  $V_{BD}$ , see  $V_{BD}$  is this point, break down, junction break down, diode will block that voltage. In other words, the maxim reverse voltage that is applied across the diode should be less than  $V_{BD}$ , we need to ensure that. Say, the input voltage is 230 volts, so negative peak is going to be 230 into root 2. So, the voltage rating of the diode should be higher than 230 into root 2, if you are using in a single phase circuit assuming that load is a passive one.

But then, if the applied voltage is higher than  $V_{BD}$  and if you are not able to control the current that is flowing, then the device will get damaged. Remember, if the applied voltage is higher than  $V_{BD}$  and you are not able to control the current that is flowing through the diode, it is going to be destructive. It is going to be destructive. So, during on state, there is a finite voltage drop across the diode. I will call it as  $V_f$  and  $I_a$  is the current that is flowing through the diode. So, on state loss or the conduction loss is given by  $V_f$  into  $I_a$  that depending upon  $V_f$  and  $I_a$ . The magnitude of  $V_f$  and  $I_a$  say, if it is higher than a certain value, you need to go in for or you need to mount the diode on a heat sink. Invariably power diodes are mounted on a heat sink. A small signal diode, it would not need to or generally is not mounted on a heat sink.

Now, all of us know the on state behavior of the diode. Now, in the power electronics circuit, in the off state, the diode, the way it turns off is a bit important. Why so, I will tell you.

(Refer Slide Time: 8:25)



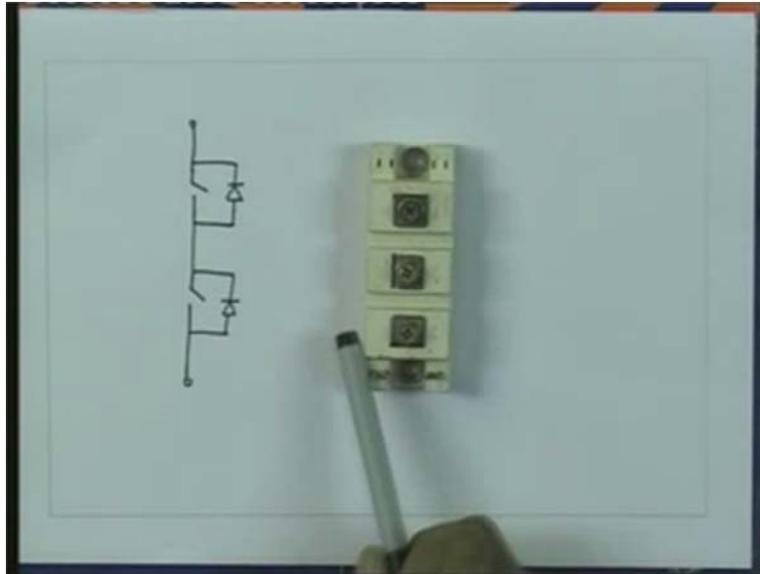
See, when the current in the circuit, of course this is the current that is flowing in the circuit depending upon the input voltage or so current starts following. At this point, current becomes zero but the diode continues to conduct. A reverse current starts flowing till, say  $t_{rr}$ , that is because the minority carriers they require a certain time to recombine with the opposite charge and to get neutralized. I will repeat, the minority carriers which are there they require a certain time to recombine and that takes place in the time  $t_{rr}$ .  $t_{rr}$  is the reverse recovery time. It is a time from this point, the first zero crossing to say 25% of the maximum value of the current that is flowing in the reverse direction. So, the maximum value of current in the reverse direction is  $i_{rr}$ .

So,  $t_{rr}$  is the time from this point to say 0.25 of  $i_{rr}$ . I am assuming that this point is 0.25 of  $i_{rr}$  and this current is the leakage current which is very small and this is the charge, reverse recovery charge. Now, what is the reverse recovery charge? It is the area of this plot. I am assuming that this is a linear one. I am just determining the area of the triangle to find out the reverse recovery charge. The area of this shaded part is nothing but  $Q_{rr}$ , is a peak into  $t_{rr}$  divided by 2. I am assuming this to be a triangle one, area of the triangle. So, reverse recovery time and reverse recovery charge, they are very important, two important parameters. Why are they important?

See, even the current has become zero it continues to conduct for or goes to offset only after  $t_{rr}$ . So if the circuit in which the frequency of operation is very high, this  $t_{rr}$  will play an important role or in other words  $t_{rr}$  will determine the upper frequency of operation and this  $Q_{rr}$  or the reverse recovery current, it is flowing in the opposite direction, it is flowing from cathode to anode. See this current is flowing from cathode to anode so either it has to flow to the source or it may have to flow through other switches. Those switches have their own current carrying

capacity. So, in addition to the load current, that device may have to carry this reverse recovery current.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:12:34 min)



See, yesterday I showed you this power module. I said, there are two control switches. The name of the switches, I will tell you sometime later and in parallel there are two diodes. These are the two diodes, this module has. The current rating of this, each diode is 75 amperes and it can block 1200 volts.

The reverse recovery time of this diode is of the order, say 0.2 micro second. That is what the specifications, the data sheet says. It could be of the order of 0.2micro second and depending upon the junction temperature,  $q_{rr}$  the reverse recovery charge is of the order of 1 micro Coulombs. This is all given in the data sheets. So, what about the other ratings? important ratings of the diode. What are the other important specifications of the diode?

(Refer Slide Time: 13:56)

**Power Electronics**

Important specification: –

- 1) Average forward current  
(to assess suitability with a power circuit)
- 2) Reverse blocking voltage (-----do-----)
- 3) ON state voltage  $\Rightarrow$  to determine conduction loss
- 4)  $t_{rr}$   $\Rightarrow$  to assess high frequency switching capability
- 5) Surge current rating:
- 6)  $I^2t$  rating  $\Rightarrow$  short time surge energy that the diode can withstand.

5

They are; one is average forward current, see here, it is required to assess the suitability with the power circuit, so depending upon the input voltage, the load and the duty cycle. So average current can be determined, I am saying duty cycle because diode may not conduct for the entire cycle. The second point, reverse blocking voltage, the reverse voltage that is appearing across the diode should be less than the break down voltage. Third, on state voltage drop, it is required to determine the conduction loss and therefore the heat sink size or the cooling requirement. The fourth one,  $t_{rr}$  reverse recovery time of the diode is another very important factor in the diode used in high switching applications or it is required to assess the high frequency switching capability.

The fifth one is the surge current rating. To explain this, consider this circuit. What I have done is there is an ac sinusoidal source, diode. I am connecting a switch and a capacitor, the remaining part I have not drawn. Usually that capacitor is completely discharged and I close the switch at  $\omega t$  is equal to  $\pi/2$ . At  $\omega t$  is equal to  $\pi/2$ , input voltage set the positive peak. Capacitor voltage is zero and it cannot change instantaneously. So what happens when I close the switch? There is going to be a large inrush current. Why? Input is at the positive peak and the output voltage is zero and that large inrush current has to flow through the diode and it has to withstand that current and let me tell you that this surge current is much much higher compared to the average forward current.

Maybe sometime later, I will show you a data sheet wherein as a average forward current, RMS current and surge current ratings are given. Next one is  $I^2t$  rating, current squared time rating. It is an indication of or it is the short time surge energy that the diode can withstand. This is required to choose a suitable fuse in the diode circuit. When this is important? So take this example, I have a input AC source, a diode and a capacitor. Now I have not drawn the remaining part of the circuit and I have a switch here. Something may be a main switch or so.

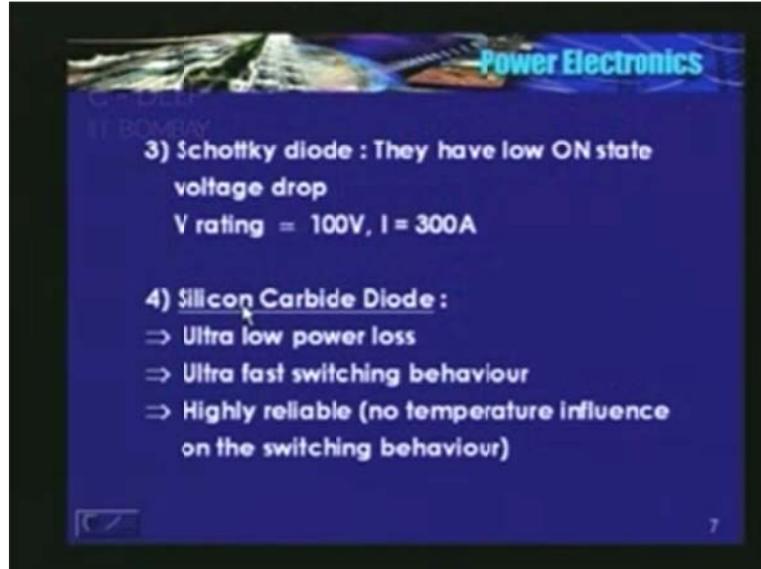
Assume that I am closing the switch at  $\omega t$  is equal to  $\pi/2$  or in the positive peak. Capacitor is totally discharged, in other words there is a short circuit here. Capacitor voltage cannot change instantaneously. Voltage at this point is instantaneous value is at the peak and we have closed the switch at that time. What happens? A large surge current will flow because voltage across the capacitor cannot change instantaneously. It was zero just prior to closing the switch. This is at the peak, you have closed the switch. A large surge current will flow and diode should be able to withstand this surge current which is higher than the average current rating. So that is about the diodes, the so called uncontrolled switch.

Now, what are the various types of diodes? The first one is a rectifier diode or a slow diode. They are suitable for line frequency application, so you want to rectify the input AC which is 50 hertz. So you can use the conventional slow diodes or rectifier diodes. The reverse recovery time is generally is not specified, they are basically slow diodes. So, the maximum rating is of order of 6kV, the diode can block as high as 6kV and current rating is of the order of 4500 amperes are available. I will repeat, diode which can carry say, 4500 amperes of current and can block 6kV, they are available. These are conventional rectifier diodes or slow diodes.

There is second type the one known as the fast recovery diodes. Fast recovery diodes, these are generally used in high frequency application. Sometime later in the course, we will find that fast recovery diode should be used in the circuit. You cannot use the conventional rectifier diodes. So, the rating is of the order of say 6kV and current of the order of 1.1 kilo ampere. They are available in the market, 6kV it can block and current ratings, 1.1 kilo amperes and the reverse recovery time could be of the order of say, 0.1micro second, could be. I am not saying that 6kV 1.1 kilo diode, has a reverse recovery time of 1.1micro second, no. The reverse recovery time of a fast recovery diode could be of the order of say, 0.1micro second. Just now, example which I showed you is of the order of 0.2micro seconds.

The third one is the Schottky diodes. What are the features? They have a very low on state voltage drop basically these are only majority carriers. Current only due to majority carriers but then the voltage rating is low. Maximum voltage rating is of the order of 100 volts or so and current is of the order of 300 amperes and the last one, the fourth one is what is known as the silicon carbide diode.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:22:53 min)



They have ultra low power loss. See, Schottky diode has a very low on state voltage drop. That is what I told you. Therefore on state power loss also is low but silicon carbide diode, it has an ultra low power loss, ultra fast switching behavior, very fast diodes, highly reliable, no temperature influence on the switching behavior, looks like we are etching almost everything in silicon carbide diode. Ultra low power loss, ultra fast switching behavior, highly reliable and what is the problem? Why are they not very popular? You find only silicon diodes not silicon carbide diodes. The limitation is they are very expensive. The process is also very expensive, that summarizes.

Just coming to the second type of switches, semi controlled switch, a thyristor or a silicon controlled rectifier. The moment I said semi controlled device, it has to be a three element device; anode, cathode and gate. Anode and cathode, they form the power circuit terminal, they are connected in series in the power circuit and the gate current is supplied with respect to or gate signal is applied with respect to the cathode, say something like this.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:09)

**Power Electronics**

**Thyristor or Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR)**

- ⇒ Three element device
- ⇒ Anode (A), Cathode (K) & Gate (G)
- ⇒ A & K ⇒ power circuit terminals
- control signal is applied to the Gate w.r.t K.
- ⇒ 4 layers

Our source, as I have shown you, a AC source, a load and a thyristor. So, this is the symbol of a thyristor diode with a small gate line here, anode, cathode and gate and can be controlled or can be turned on using positive gate current  $I_G$  or control signal is applied with respect to the cathode. There are 4 layers say, P N P N and therefore there are three junctions  $J_1, J_2, J_3$ . P N P N; first P is anode, N is cathode and the gate is connected to this P. This is the gate.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:36)

**Power Electronics**

- $N_2$  → Layer is very thin & highly doped
- $P_2$  → Layer is thicker & less highly doped
- $N_1$  → (Blocking layer) is thickest & less doped
- $P_1$  → is similar to  $P_2$
- Junction  $J_3$  has low breakdown V in either direction

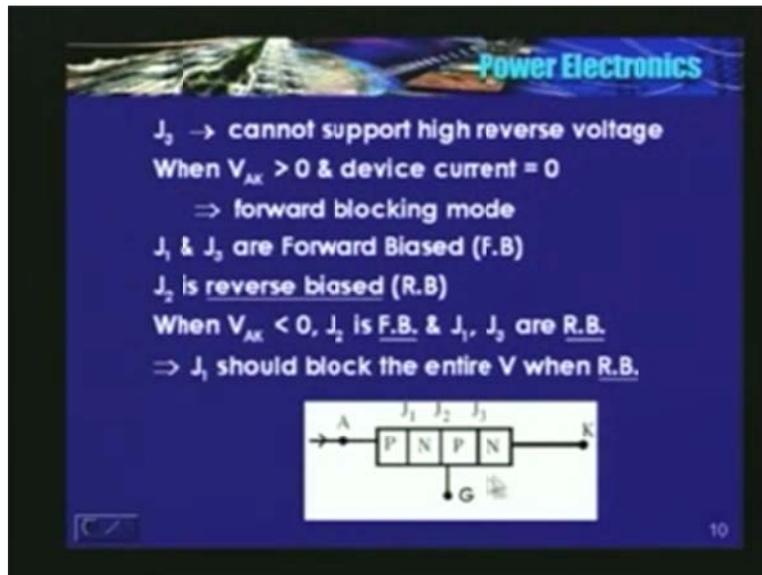
$N_2$  or this layer is very thin and it is highly doped. This N layer is very thin and it is highly doped. I will call this as  $P_2$ , this layer is thicker than this or thicker than N and it is less highly doped.  $N_1$  is the thickest of all, this N is a thickest of all and it is less doped. Highly doped, less

highly doped, less doped. Doping level is very low in this and a very thick layer and this P is same as this P, slightly thicker and less highly doped. So, therefore  $J_3$ , see N is very highly doped and a very thin layer, this P is relatively highly doped and slightly thicker. So, junction  $J_3$  has a very low breakdown voltage in either direction, something similar to base emitter junction in a transistor.

Base emitter junction in a transistor is lightly low, very highly doped. So, it cannot block a voltage in either direction, in the sense it can block a very low voltage. In the class, may be small signal diode, you need to apply a 0.7volts to the base to turn it on and reverse voltage it can block is very low, very small. It cannot block a very high voltage. So, therefore  $J_3$  cannot support high reverse voltage, cannot support a very high reverse voltage.

Now what are the various characteristics when  $V_{AK}$  is positive? In other words, the device is forward biased and the current is zero, the device current or the current that is flowing from anode to cathode is very small, the device is said to be in forward blocking mode. I will repeat, device should be forward biased,  $V_{AK}$  is positive, a very small current equal to the leakage current will flow through the device. So, this mode is known as forward blocking mode. Now, what happens in forward blocking mode? There are three junctions  $J_1 J_2 J_3$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 30:40)



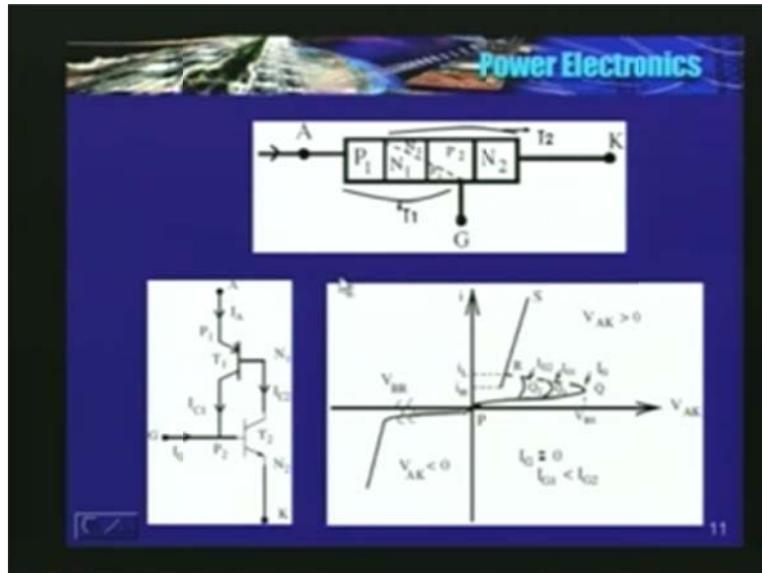
I said  $V_{AK}$  is positive, see look here,  $V_{AK}$  is positive. So P is connected to, as said, positive of the battery. N is negative, so definitely  $J_1$  is forward biased and  $J_3$  is forward biased. Junction  $J_1$  is forward biased,  $J_3$  is forward biased and  $J_2$  is reverse biased. So, in the forward blocking mode, junction  $J_2$  is reverse biased. So the entire voltage appears across  $J_2$ .

Now, what happens when the devices in reverse biased mode? When the junction is, when the  $V_{AK}$  is negative, something similar to the diode,  $V_{AK}$  is negative, at that time  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are reverse biased. See, when  $V_{AK}$  is positive,  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are forward bias and  $J_2$  is reverse biased and when  $V_{AK}$  is negative,  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are reverse biased and  $J_2$  is forward biased.

In the forward blocking mode, since  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are forward biased, the entire voltage appears across  $J_2$  or  $J_2$  should block the voltage in the forward blocking mode, remember.

Now, when at the device in reverse bias mode,  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are reversed biased. But I told you that  $J_3$  cannot support a high reverse voltage because  $N_2$  is very thin and it is highly doped. So, therefore when it is reverse biased, entire voltage should be blocked by  $J_1$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 33:10)



Now I will show you the characteristics. Before that maybe, I will try to show you the two transistor analogy. See, I told you there are 4 layers,  $P_1 N_1 P_2 N_2$ . Now, what I will do is, I will cut this and this. Say,  $N_1, N_1, P_2, P_2$ . Now, what is this? Say, here  $P_1, N_1$  and  $P_2$ . Now this forms a PNP transistor. See here,  $P_1, N_1$  and  $P_2$ . This is  $P_2$ , a PNP transistor and again here I have  $N_1, P_2, N_2$ . It forms a NPN transistor. See here, NPN transistor.

Now how do I interconnect  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ? Base of PNP transistor, say, base of  $T_1$  is same as collector of  $T_2$ , NPN. Base of  $T_1$  is same as collector of  $T_2$  and collector of  $T_1$  is same as the base of  $T_2$  and this is the gate terminal. So, there is a PNP transistor, PNP, NPN transistor, NPN transistor inter connect them. Base of PNP is same as the collector of NPN, collector of PNP is same as base of NPN. So, this is anode, this is cathode, this is gate and here are the SCR characteristics, I will explain to you now. In the reverse bias mode, characteristics are almost similar to that of a diode, almost similar.  $V_{BR}$ , reverse break over voltage, so you should ensure that applied voltage is less than  $V_{BR}$ . Same thing, for diode I called as  $V_{BD}$  and here I am calling as  $V_{BR}$ .

In the forward bias mode, if the current is very small that is equal to the leakage current, I told you the device is in forward blocking mode, again it is stable that corresponds to P to Q or P to  $Q_1$  or P to  $Q_2$ . Assume that you are not supplying any gate current, as of now the gate is open and the device is forward biased. When the device is forward biased  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are also forward biased. Junction  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are forward biased and  $J_2$  is reverse biased. So, when it is in forward biased

mode the entire voltage  $V_{BO}$  blocks and in case the applied voltage is higher than the break down voltage of the junction  $J_2$ , device goes into conduction mode.

I will repeat, I assume that gate current is 0 and if the applied voltage is higher than  $V_{BO}$ , see here  $V_{BO}$  with  $I_G$  is equal to 0.  $V_{BO}$  that is break over, forward break over, what happens? Device goes into conduction mode. But then how does it go? In what is the path that does it takes? I told you that just prior to device goes into conduction mode, the voltage is may be, approximately equal to  $V_{BO}$ . It is high the moment the device goes into conduction mode. The voltage will drop to a very low value. It could be of the order of say 1.5 volts or so 1.5 to 1, 2 volts. Till 0 to  $V_{BO}$ , current that is flowing is very small. It is equal to the forward leakage current.

Once the device is in conduction mode, current is limited by the load. Now, what path does it takes? It was blocking a relatively higher voltage, the moment it goes to conduction mode voltage drops to a very low value, the paths taken by this is this. I have shown this is to be dotted one. Why did I show this to be a dotted? Why it is not firm like P to Q? Why it is not firm? This is because this region is an unstable region. Why it is unstable? because it is a negative resistance region.

See, voltage is falling, current is increasing, the slope of this line is negative resistance region. So, it is unstable and it goes to, see, RS is the forward conduction mode, current, the operating point here depends only on the load and now see, there is a third element what is known as a gate and therefore by supplying the gate current it should be able to trigger the device. So, definitely with the finite gate current, the voltage at which it goes to conduction mode should reduce. So see, as the gate current increases, the voltage at which device goes into conduction mode also drops.

$I_{G0}$ , so voltage applied should be higher than  $V_{BO}$  forward break over,  $V_{BO}$  is forward break over. So, with the finite  $I_{G1}$ , device goes into conduction mode at a relatively lower voltage and if I increase  $I_G$  further, it goes to conduction mode somewhere at this point, say PQ for 0  $I_G$ ,  $P_1Q_1$  for some  $I_{G1}$  which is less than  $I_{G2}$  and for that the path is  $PQ_2$  and once the device current is higher than the latching current, gate has no control. So I will repeat, by supplying a positive gate current, device goes into a conduction mode and by supplying a gate current the voltage at which device goes into conduction mode also reduces.

But then, the gate signal should be present till the current through the device is higher than the latching current. The device should be able to latch, till then gate signal should be present and having gone into conduction mode, the gate has no control. You can withdraw or you can make  $I_G$  is equal to 0. In fact, it is advantageous to make  $I_G$  is equal to 0. Why? Gate has no control, if there is a constant  $I_G$  flowing, definitely there is going to be a dissipation in that junction. So, in a way, it is an advantageous to make  $I_G$  is equal to 0. Once the current through the device is higher than the latching, because having gone into conduction mode if the current is higher than the latching, gate has no control and you can withdraw the gate signal.

But then to turn the device off, current through the device should fall to a value which is less than the holding current. Somewhere here, see here,  $I_H$  is the holding current. So, to turn off the device, I will repeat, the current that is flowing through the device should fall to a value which is

less than the holding current. How does it happen? We will see, whether it happens naturally or do we need to do something different to reduce this current. We will study during appropriate time. So, that is about the SCR characteristics. This is all the explanation that I have given.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:36)

Power Electronics

PQ (or PQ<sub>1</sub> or PQ<sub>2</sub>) → forward blocking mode.  
 $I_A = 0$  (mA) Forward leakage I  
 QR (or QR<sub>1</sub> or QR<sub>2</sub>) → negative resistance region  
 → unstable  
 RS → forward conduction mode.  
 When F.B., SCR goes into conduction mode  
 when  $V_{\text{applied}} > V_{BO}$  if  $I_G = 0$ .  
 $V_{BO}$  → forward breakover voltage  
 → forward blocking voltage  
 capacity is determined by  $J_2$

12

See,  $V_{BO}$  is the forward break over voltage and this voltage is determined by,  $V_{BO}$  is determined by  $J_2$  because  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  are  $J_1$  and  $J_3$  are, they are forward biased. So,  $V_{BO}$  is completely blocked by  $J_2$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 46:17)

Power Electronics

1) If  $I_G > 0$ ,  $V$  at which device goes into conduction mode ↓.  
 ( $I_G$  reduces the depletion layer around  $J_2$ )

The slide contains a circuit diagram on the left showing an SCR connected to a load and a variable voltage source  $V$ . The gate terminal is connected to a gate current source  $I_G$ . The anode is labeled 'A' and the cathode is labeled 'K'. On the right, a graph plots the forward blocking voltage  $V_{BO}$  on the y-axis against the anode current  $I_A$  on the x-axis. The graph shows a constant  $V_{BO}$  up to a critical current  $I_{C1}$ , followed by a linear decrease through a negative resistance region between  $I_{C1}$  and  $I_{C2}$ , and finally a constant conduction voltage  $V_{T1}$  for  $I_A > I_{C2}$ .

13

Now here, I have just shown you the plot of the variation of  $V_{BO}$  with  $I_G$ . So, here is a simple circuit, I am just closing the switch till the device goes into conduction motor or till the current through the device, this load current higher than the latching, then I can open the switch and I am varying in this resistor to vary the current that is flowing through the gate circuit.

So, as  $I_G$  increases, the voltage at  $V_{BO}$  with very low value of  $I_G$  is almost the same. This is the voltage, this voltage is determined by junction  $J_2$  itself. Above a certain value, this  $V_{BO}$  the voltage at which device goes into conduction mode reduces. So, it goes on reducing, why? It is because  $I_G$ , the gate current reduces the depletion layer around  $J_2$ . I will repeat, the gate current it reduces the depletion layer around the junction  $J_2$ .

Now how do we analyze the process by which the device goes into conduction mode using 2 transistor analogy? I just showed you PNP is equivalent to 2 transistors, there is a PNP transistor and there is an NPN transistor and they are interconnected. Now, using this transistor analogy, can we find out or can we or is it possible to understand the turn on process of the thyristor? Answer is yes, I will explain to you now.

(Refer Slide Time: 00:48:38 min)

The slide contains the following text and diagram:

For any transistor  
 $I_C = \alpha I_E + I_{CBO}$   
 $\alpha \rightarrow$  common base current gain  
 $= \frac{I_C}{I_E}$   
 $I_{CBO} \rightarrow$  leakage current of the C-B junction.

$\therefore$  for  $T_1, I_E = I_A \quad I_{C1} = \alpha_1 I_A + I_{C1O1}$   
for  $T_2, I_E = I_K \quad \therefore I_{C2} = \alpha_2 I_K + I_{C1O2}$

The diagram shows a thyristor structure with layers P, N, P, N, P. It is modeled as two transistors:  $T_1$  (PNP) and  $T_2$  (NPN). The anode current  $I_A$  is the emitter current of  $T_1$ , and the cathode current  $I_K$  is the emitter current of  $T_2$ . The collector current of  $T_1$  is  $I_{C1}$ , and the collector current of  $T_2$  is  $I_{C2}$ . The base of  $T_1$  is connected to the emitter of  $T_2$ , and the base of  $T_2$  is connected to the emitter of  $T_1$ .

See, for any transistor collector current  $I_C$  is given by alpha into  $I_E$  plus  $I_{CBO}$ . Collector current  $I_C$ ,  $I_E$  is the emitter current, alpha is the common base current gain, it is approximately equal to  $I_C$  divided by  $I_E$  and what is  $I_{CBO}$ ? It is the leakage current of the collector base junction. So, this is a common equation  $I_C$  is equal to alpha into  $I_E$  plus  $I_{CBO}$ .

Now, for this transistor  $T_1$  transistor, what is  $I_E$  emitter current? Emitter current is nothing but the anode current  $I_A$ . So, therefore  $I_{C1}$  is equal to alpha into  $I_A$  because  $I_E$  is equal to  $I_A$ , plus  $I_{CBO1}$ . I am calling  $I_{CBO1}$  is the leakage current of collector to base junction of transistor  $T_1$ . Now, how about for  $T_2$ ? Now, for  $T_2$ ,  $I_E$ ,  $T_2$  is a NPN transistor whereas  $T_1$  is a PNP transistor.  $I_E$  is equal to  $I_K$ , the cathode current  $I_K$ . So, therefore  $I_{C2}$  is equal to alpha two, the gain of common base current, gain of  $T_2$  into  $I_K$  plus  $I_{CBO2}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 51:06)

Now,  $I_E = I_C + I_B$   
 $I_{E1} = I_A$  and  $I_{E2} = I_{C1}$   
 $\therefore I_{C1} + I_{C2} = I_A = \alpha_1 I_A + I_{CBO1} + \alpha_2 I_K + I_{CBO2}$   
 $I_E = I_{E2} + I_{C2}$   
 for finite  $I_G$ ,  
 $I_E = I_{C1} + I_G + I_{C2}$   
 $= I_A + I_G$   
 $\therefore I_A = \frac{\alpha_2 I_G + I_{CBO1} + I_{CBO2}}{1 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}$   
 $\alpha \uparrow$  with  $I_E$

Now, we all know that  $I_E$ , emitter current is collector current plus  $I_B$ , base current. Now, what is  $I_{E1}$ ?  $I_{E1}$  is equal to  $I_A$  itself, anode current. Emitter current of  $T_1$  is anode current and what is  $I_{B1}$ , base current of transistor  $T_1$ ? Base current of transistor  $T_1$  is same as collector current of  $T_2$ ,  $I_{C2}$ . I showed you in the beginning, base of  $T_1$  and collector of  $T_2$ , they are same, they are tied together. So, I will add up those 2 equations. Which are the 2 equations? These are the two equations, I will add them up. What do I get?  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  is equal to  $\alpha_1 I_A$  plus  $\alpha_2 I_K$  plus  $I_{CBO1}$  plus  $I_{CBO2}$ .

(Refer Slide Time: 52:34)

Now,  $I_E = I_C + I_B$   
 $I_{E1} = I_A$  and  $I_{E2} = I_{C1}$   
 $\therefore I_{C1} + I_{C2} = I_A = \alpha_1 I_A + I_{CBO1} + \alpha_2 I_K + I_{CBO2}$   
 $I_E = I_{E2} + I_{C2}$   
 for finite  $I_G$ ,  
 $I_E = I_{C1} + I_G + I_{C2}$   
 $= I_A + I_G$   
 $\therefore I_A = \frac{\alpha_2 I_G + I_{CBO1} + I_{CBO2}}{1 - (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)}$   
 $\alpha \uparrow$  with  $I_E$

So, here is the equation I have written, as simple as  $I_{C2}$ . Now, substitute here,  $I_C$  here is  $I_{C1}$  itself for transistor  $T_1$ ,  $I_B$  is  $I_B$  for  $T_1$  is  $I_{C2}$ . So,  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  is equal to  $I_A$ . So, these are the 2 current  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  should be equal to  $I_A$ , a PNP transistor that is equal to alpha one into  $I_A$  plus whatever that equation we are adding to.

What about for transistor  $T_2$ ? Listen to me carefully, here what is  $I_E$ ? That is  $I_K$  itself. It is  $I_{B2}$ , base current plus  $I_{C2}$ . This current,  $I_{B2}$  plus  $I_{C2}$ . Now, if there is finite  $I_G$ , what is base current? Base current is  $I_G$  plus  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  is equal to I emitter,  $I_{E2}$  that is equal to  $I_K$ . See, I will repeat, emitter current of  $T_2$  is this current, base current plus collector current. Now what is base current? You apply KCL at this point for finite  $I_G$ ,  $I_{B2}$  is equal to  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_G$ . So, therefore cathode current is  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_G$  plus  $I_{C2}$ .

Now we all ready found that  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  is equal to  $I_A$  for this transistor.  $I_{C1}$  plus  $I_{C2}$  is equal to  $I_A$ . So, therefore  $I_K$  is equal to  $I_A$  plus  $I_G$ . Now, you substitute this value in this equation,  $I_A$  is equal to alpha one into  $I_{A1}$  plus  $C_{BO1}$  plus this equation and what do I get? I get this equation,  $I_A$  is equal to alpha two into  $I_G$  plus  $I_{CBO1}$  plus  $I_{CBO2}$  divided by  $1 - \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$ . So, I have an expression here for anode current in terms of gate current, the leakage current of collector to base junction and common base current. Now using this expression, how to understand the turn on process of the thyristor? We will do it in our next class.

Thank you.