

ANALELE UNIVERSITĂȚII "EFTIMIE MURGU" REȘIȚA ANUL XX, NR. 2, 2013, ISSN 1453 - 7397

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# **Development and Evaluation of a 2KVA Inverter**

A 2KV inverter was designed, developed and tested for household applications. It consists of a heavy duty (24 V, 80 AH), oscillator unit, PWM (Pulse-width modulation) controller unit, driver unit, amplifier unit, center-tap step up transformer and battery charger unit. The battery powered the circuitry and the oscillator section generates the drive signal that is amplified and set up the transformer to produce 240 V supply at the secondary winding connected to the output socket of inverter. The feedback control circuit uses discrete components such as: full wave rectifier, pulse width modulator (IC), diodes and other components to sense the output voltage (or load current). When the feedback senses that the load on the inverter output has increased, the inverter control circuitry acts by increasing the width of the switching pulse in the oscillator section which turn on the MOSFETS. MOSFETS turns on for longer time each cycle, automatically correcting the R.M.S value of the output to compensate for any drop in peak-peak output voltage as well as continuous charging of battery, consequently, maintaining a steady output voltage level in inverter irrespective of the load characteristics. The outputs of the tests carried on the unit shows that that instrument performs satisfactory well.

*Keywords*: Inverter, transformer, voltage, control circuit, current, output, MOSFETS, PWM

# 1. Introduction

The need for backup power system can never be over emphasized especially in this technological age (Bedford and Hoft, 1977). Everything will use today uses electrical energy, only differing in terms of volume of consumption and sensitivity. Most digitized equipment is considered sensitive because power failure of whatever duration could cause irreversible and undesirable consequences, hence the need for backup system is highly important (Theraja, 2002). It has been discovered that, more than 90% of the countries in the globe cannot boost their power supply at 45% power reliability. This in thus shows that inverters and other auxiliary power sources are very important for perfect power reliability (Daniels, 1982). An inverter is basically a device which converts D.C supply from a battery into A.C power supply required by most electrical equipment appliances and useful as electrical backups available today. Others are the rotating armature generator that uses fuel and the uninterruptible power supply (UPS).

In Nigeria, the standard A.C supply voltage is 240V, in the event of power failure or unavailability of public power supply, the inverter provides 240 A.C from a D.C battery whose voltage and current rating depends on the rating of the inverter and the load connected. The lead acid batteries used in automobiles are very good for inverters; they provide good quality power supply for a long duration and can be recharged once the power is restored. Modern inverters are extremely reliable. Inverters make life simpler and save money for the user, an inverterbattery system provides clean uninterruptible power supply (Gupta, 2005). Generator generates a lot of noise during operation and most of them do not have automatic start-stop in the event of power failure and restoration (Hughes, 1997). In addition, generator has many mechanical parts which require constant maintenance. On the other hand, the inverter works noiselessly, provides completely automatic switching operations, does not produce any harmful emissions and does not require any special maintenance apart from the battery used which requires routing service once in 15-20 days (John, 2000). Some studies have revealed that for a total load of 5KVA or less, the inverter has a comparative advantage over the generator but from above 5KVA the generator has an advantage over the inverter in terms of efficiency and reliability (Lionel, 1998).

They require highly inflammable product such as fuel which emits harmful emission such C0 which is considered to be environmentally harmful and dangerous to human health. Typical applications for an inverter include: Microwave ovens, television, video recorders, computers, and life-support machines in hospitals, air traffic control systems, military installation, power tools and monitoring communications equipment. Having considered the significance and economic importance of stable and uninterrupted power supply to the nation of ours, this research study is therefore aimed to enhance power supply to homes, office, banks and other industrial organizations.

### 2.1. Materials and methods

Inverter was designed and developed using various sensitive electrical and electronic components such as relay, capacitor, transistor (FET, JFET), Bi-stable multivibrators, monostable multivibrators, transformer e.t.c.

## 2.1.1. Astable Multivibrator

The astable multivibrator has no stable state for this reason; it is often referred to as oscillator. The diagram of the astable multivibrator is shown in Fig. 1 Below



Fig ure 1. Astable Multivibrator

It consists of two similar transistors as the active devices. The transistors are driven either to saturation (ON) or cut- off (OFF). The transistor Q1 is forward biased by  $V_{cc}$  and the biasing resistor  $R_1$  while  $Q_2$  is forward biased by  $V_{cc}$  and biasing resistor R<sub>2</sub>. The biasing resistors are equal. The collector emitter voltage at Q<sub>1</sub> and Q<sub>2</sub> are determined respectively by load resistor RL<sub>1</sub> and RL<sub>2</sub> together with  $V_{cc}$ . The load resistors are equal. When  $V_{CC}$  is applied one of the transistors will start conducting before the other does or (slightly faster than the other). It is calibrated characteristics of no two transistors (hfe  $\beta$  V<sub>be</sub>) are exactly alike. Suppose that Q<sub>1</sub> draws more current than Q<sub>2</sub>, this produces a large voltage drop across RL<sub>1</sub>, thus creating a fall or (negative) in potential at the collector of Q<sub>1</sub>. The fall in potential is transmitted through C<sub>2</sub> to the base of Q<sub>2</sub> where it tends to cut off  $Q_2$  creating a rise in potential at the collector of  $Q_2$  Rise in potential is transmitted through C<sub>1</sub> to the base of Q<sub>1</sub> therefore becomes more forward biased. Decrease in the potential at the collector of  $Q_{1}$ , therefore becomes more forward biased. This series of actions is repeated until the circuit drives Q<sub>1</sub> to saturation (ON state) and completely cutting off  $Q_2$  (OFF state).

Since  $Q_1$  is in saturation, the whole of  $V_{CC}$  drops across  $RL_1$  hence  $V_{CI} = 0$  and the voltage at the collector of  $Q_1$  is at zero potential since  $Q_2$  is in off (i.e it conducts no current) there is no drop across  $RL_2$ . Hence the collector of  $Q_2$  is at  $V_{cc}$ . The collector of  $Q_1$  is at OV,  $C_2$  starts to charge through  $R_2$  toward  $V_{cc}$ . When the voltage across  $C_2$  raises sufficiently it biases  $Q_2$  in the forward direction so that it starts conducting and  $V_{C2}$  decreases. The potential at the collector of  $Q_2$ decreases from  $V_{cc}$ . This fall in the potential is applied to the base of  $Q_1$  through  $C_2$ ; hence the base of  $Q_1$  is reverse biased. This rising voltage at the collector of  $Q_1$ is transmitted. Through  $C_2$  to the biases of  $Q_2$  driving it quickly to saturation and completely cutting off  $Q_1$ . Since the collector of  $Q_2$  is at OV, starts charging through R<sub>1</sub> towards the target voltage V<sub>cc</sub>. When the voltage of C<sub>1</sub> increases sufficiently, Q<sub>1</sub> becomes forwards biased and start conducting. In this way the cycle is repeated. It is seen from the above that the circuit alternates between a state in which Q<sub>1</sub> is ON and Q<sub>2</sub> is OFF and a state in which Q<sub>1</sub> is OFF and Q<sub>2</sub> is ON. The time in each state depends on the CR values. Since each transistor is driven alternatively into saturation and cu-off, the wave form at either collector is essentially a square waveform with peak amplitude equal to V<sub>cc</sub>.

### 2.1.2. Transformer

A transformer is a static piece of electrical apparatus by which electric power in one circuit is transformed into electric power in another circuit at the same frequency. It can raise or lower the voltage in circuit with a corresponding decrease or increases in current. The physical basis of a transformer is mutual induction between two circuits linked by a common magnetic flux (Say, 1978). In its simplest form, it consists of two inductive coils which are electrically separated but magnetically linked through a path of low reluctance as shown in plate 1.





The two coils possess high inductance. Induced e.m.f is produced.(Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction).

$$e = m \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial T}$$
(1)

Where m = Mutual inductance  $\Phi = Flux \ linkage$ 

 $E_1$  is proportional to the number of turns in the primary  $N_1$  and also to the rate at which the flux linking the coil is changing. Thus, there are two important relationships as expressed as follows:

$$V_1 = E_1 \tag{2}$$

$$\mathsf{E}_1 = \mathsf{N}_1 \left( \Phi/\mathsf{t} \right) \tag{3}$$

At the same time that flux is changing within the primary coil, it also changes within the secondary coil, since both coils are wound on the same magnetic core.

Since it is exactly the same flux, the rate of changing of flux linking the secondary is identical with the rate of change of flux linking the primary coil. Induced e.m.f ( $E_2$ ) is proportional to the number of turns in the secondary winding  $N_2$ 

$$E_2 = N_2 \frac{\phi}{t}$$

$$E_2 = V_2$$

$$E_1/E_2 = N_1/N_2$$
(4)

Let:  $N_1 = No of turns in primary$ 

 $N_2 = No of turns in secondary$ 

## 2.1.3. Transformer Design

The specifications and parameters for the design are as follows:

2000VA
240V
24V
50HZ
Shell
Natural Air (NA)
1

## (a) Volt per Turn; Et.

When an alternating voltage is applied to the terminals of the windings of a transformer with N number of turns. A current I flows in the windings. The resulting mmf (NI) set up will produce a flux  $\Phi$  in the core given by:

$$\Phi = \Phi_{m}$$
sinwt

Where  $w = 2\pi f$  and  $\Phi_m$  is the maximum value of the flux produced in the core. The flux linkage is given by the expression.

$$\lambda = N\Phi \tag{6}$$

(5)

Due to the flux linkage, an e.m.f will be induced in the windings given by;

$$e = \frac{d\lambda}{dt} = \frac{Nd\phi}{dt}$$
(7)

$$e = \frac{Nd(\phi_m \sin \omega t)}{dt}$$
  

$$e = N\Phi_m \ \omega \cos \omega t$$
  

$$e = 2\pi f N\Phi_m \cos 2\pi ft$$
(8)

The peak value of this sinusoidal varying emf is given by; Ep = $2\pi f N\Phi_m$ 

Hence, the expression of the r.m.s value, E is given by;

$$E = \frac{Ep}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{2\pi f N \phi_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$
  
Where  $\frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2}} = 4.44$ 

$$\mathsf{E} = 4.44 \mathsf{f} \mathsf{N} \Phi_{\mathsf{m}} \tag{10}$$

(9)

But E/N = Volts per turn =  $E_t$  $\therefore$  Et = 4.44f $\Phi_m$ (11)

Taking a factor r such that  $r = \frac{\phi_m}{IN}$ 

Then

$$IN = \frac{\phi_m}{r}$$
(12)

$$Et = K \times \sqrt{KVA}$$
(14)

K is a factor depending on r.

Single phase shell type transformer, the value of K varies between 1.01 and 1.25, in this design, K is 1.01

Turns per volt = 
$$\frac{1}{Et}$$
 (15)

## (c) Core Design

(i) Cross-sectional area A<sub>i</sub>

Φ<sub>m</sub> =  $B_m A_i$ (16)

Where  $B_m$  = maximum flux density For a single phase shell type transformer,

$$B_m = 1.5T$$
 (17)

$$\Phi_{\rm m} = 6.441 \text{mwb} \tag{18}$$

## (i) Window Area A<sub>w</sub>

The windings must be accommodated in the window area A<sub>w</sub>. Insulation and clearance reduce the available area for the actual conductor cross section to  $K_{w}A_{w}$  where  $K_w$  is the window space factor.  $K_w$  may be quite small if the working voltage is high (Theraja, 2005).

For a single phase transformer

$$K_w A_w = a_1 N_1 + a_2 N_2$$
 (19)

KwAw = 
$$\frac{I_1N_1}{J} + \frac{I_2N_2}{J}$$
 (20)

IN = 
$$(I_1N_1+I_2N_2) = K_wA_wJ$$
 (21)  
KVA = 4.44f $\Phi_m$  KwJ x 10<sup>3</sup>

$$Aw = \frac{KVA}{4.44xf\phi_m KwJx10^3}$$
(22)

Window space factor K<sub>w</sub> is expressed as follows:

$$K_{w} = 0.1 + 0.08 \log_{10} \frac{[KVA]}{0.1} - 0.2 \log_{10} KV$$
(23)

In most design work, kw is usually taken as a constant value of 0.36. The current density  $\mathcal{J}$  is a constant and is taken as 3.2A/mm<sup>2</sup> for a shell type transformer. Substituting the value of  $\Phi_m$ , K<sub>w</sub>  $\mathcal{J}$  into equation 4.19,

$$A_{w} = 4.44x50, \overline{x \ 6.441x10^{-3} \ x \ 0.3280 \ x \ 3.2x \ 10^{-3}} = 1,333 \ x \ 10^{-3}m^{2} = 1333mm^{2}$$

#### (iii) Window Dimensions

Let  $W_H$  = Window Height and  $W_w$  = Window Width;

But  $3 \times 10^{-10}$  k width of window = Height of window

If width of window is L, then height of window = 3L

$$A_{\rm w} = \frac{3L^2}{\sqrt{4}}$$
(24)

$$L = \sqrt{\frac{A_w}{3}}$$
(25)

## (iv) Stack Height S<sub>H</sub>

Net core area  $A_i = K_s \times A_g$  (26)

Where  $K_s$  is the stacking factor,  $A_g$  is the gross core area, for a square sectional core area  $K_s$  = 0.95

But  $S_H X$  Width of central width  $W_c$ :4

$$S_{H} = \frac{A_{g}}{W_{c}}$$
(27)

#### (v) Number of Laminations

Number of laminations = 
$$\frac{\text{Stack Height}}{\text{The lamination}}$$

Thickness of laminations (28)

#### (vi) Approximate Mass of Iron Core

Mass = Density X Volume (29)

But volume of the core is given by

Volume = 
$$2L_m X \frac{(A_i)}{2}$$
  
Volume =  $L_m X A_i$  (30)

Where  $L_m$  is the mean length of the flux represented by the broken line in fig 2(a) above.

Lm = 2[(W<sub>H</sub> + W<sub>L</sub>) + (W<sub>w</sub> + W<sub>L</sub>] (31) = 2(W<sub>H</sub> + W<sub>w</sub> + 2W<sub>L</sub>) = 2(63 + 21 + 42) = 252mm Volume = 252x 4294 = 10.82 x10<sup>5</sup>mm<sup>3</sup> = 1.082 x10<sup>6</sup>mm<sup>3</sup> = 1.082 x 10<sup>3</sup>m<sup>3</sup> But density of steel = 7800kg From equation (29), 1.082 x 10<sup>3</sup> x 7800 = 8.439kg≈ 8.4kg Approximate Mass of Iron Core will be 8kg



WH = Window Height, Ww = Window width, WL = Window length

#### (d) Copper Winding Design

(i) Number of Turns for Primary Windings

Number of turns = Input Voltage x Turns per volt

(32)

Number of turns  $24 \ge 0.70 = 16.8 \approx$ 17turns(ii) Number of turns for secondary winding

240 x 0.70 =170 turns

Turn ratio = 
$$\frac{17}{170} = \frac{1}{10}$$
  
(iii) Current rating and diameter of conductor  
Maximum current = KVA  
Minimum input voltage (33)

Transformer losses and efficiency is calculated as follows

Efficiency = 
$$\frac{Power Input - Losses}{Power Input}$$
 (34)  
= 1 - Loss

As shown in the fig.2 below, flux increases from its zero value to maximum value  $\Phi$ m in one quarter of the cycle i.e 1/4f second. Therefore average rate of change of flux is expressed as follows:



Figure 3. Transformer waveform for a full cycle

Now the rate of change of flux per turn means e.m.f/ turns =  $4f\Phi m$  volts. If the flux varies sinusoidally, then r.m.s (root mean square) value of the induced e.m.f in the whole primary winding = (induced e.m.f/turn) X No of primary turns. R.M.S value of e.m.f/turn =  $1.11x4f\Phi m$  (37)

### 2.1.4. Opto-Coupler Feedback

The optocoupler used in the design is the 4N35. The chip transfer electrical signals by utilizing light waves to provide coupling with electrical isolation between

its input and output, thereby preventing high voltages or rapidly changing voltages on one side of the circuit from damaging components or distorting transmissions on the other side. It contains a source(emitter) of light, almost always a near infrared light-emitting diode(LED),that converts electrical input signal into light, a closed optical channel (also called dielectrical channel) and a photosensor, which detects incoming light and either generates electric energy directly, or modulates electric current flowing from an external power supply. The sensor could be a photoresistor, a photodiode, a phototransistor, a silicon-controlled rectifier (SCR) or a triac. The phototransistor type was use in this research study. The LED has a forward current of 5mA and the photo transistor has a maximum current of 200mA. Conducting current of 1mA, V =220, the limiting resistor is expressed as follows:

$$R = \frac{V_s - V_f}{I_f} \text{ for } V_s = 220, V_f = 2V, I_f = 1mA$$

$$= \frac{220 - 2}{1X10^{-3}} = 218000\Omega$$
(38)

# 3.1 Results and Discussion

#### 3.1.1. Transformer testing

The tests carried out on the transformer are;

- (i) Open circuit test
- (ii) short circuit test
- (iii) continuity test
- (iv) insulation resistance test

# (a) Transformer No – load (Open circuit) test

The transformer was connected as shown in fig 4. The low voltage winding was connected to the supply. The ratio of the voltmeter reading,  $^{V1}/_{V2}$  gives the turns ratio of the transformer. Table 1 shows the reading from the experimentation.

S/N	V <sub>1</sub> (volts)	V <sub>2</sub> (volts)	I <sub>o</sub> (amps)	W watts
1	50	5.3	0.092	3.6
2	80	8.5	0.124	7.6
3	110	11.7	0.156	12.0
4	140	15.0	0.195	18.0
5	170	18.1	0.251	27.6

Table 1. Open Circuit Test Result

Source: Lab. Experimentation, 2011

I<sub>o</sub> = no-load current

# (b) Short Circuit Test (Load Test)

As it is observed in Fig 5, the low voltage winding was short circuited through an ammeter  $A_2$  and a low voltage was applied to the high voltage winding. The variac was adjusted to give a voltage that circulated full load currents in the windings. The result is shown in table 2.

		Table 2. Short Circuit Test Result		
S/N	V	$I_{sc}$	W <sub>2</sub>	
1	10	20.2	20	
2	20	68.9	80	
3	30	98.0	130	
4	40	114.0	420	

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Source: Lab. Experimentation, 2011



Figure 4. Open Circuit Test



Figure 5. Open Circuit Test

# (d) Load test

The result of load test is shown in table 3.

	Table 3. Load Test Result Table			
S/N	LOAD	OUTPUT VOLTAGE	OUTPUT	
		(Volts)	CURRENT (Amp)	
1	O Watt (No load)	230	0.047	
2	200 Watt Bulb	220	0.56	
3	1000 watt electric	210	4.8	
	cooker			
4	1TV + 2 FAN + LAPTOP	215	1.5	

# **3.1.2.** Determination of the equivalent circuit parameters and efficiency of the transformer from the test results

 $Cos\Phi = \underbrace{P_0}_{V_1I_0}$ Open circuit power factor, (40) Where  $P_0$  = wattmeter reading on open circuit  $V_1$  = open circuit primary voltage  $I_0$  = open circuit current (No load current) From Table 1  $\cos \Phi_0 = 3.6 = 0.782$ 50 x 0.092  $\therefore \Phi = \cos^{-1} 0.7826 = 38.49$ = 38.50 Core loss component,  $I_C = I_0 \cos \Phi_0$ (41) = 0.92 x 0.782 = 0.071944A = 0.072A  $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Magnetizing component; } I_m = I_0 Sin \Phi_0 \\ = 0.092 \ x \ Sin \ 38 \ .50^0 \end{array}$ (42) = 0.057A  $R_0 = \frac{V}{Ic}$ (43)  $X_0 = \frac{V_1}{1m}$ (44)

Where  $R_0$  and  $X_0$  are the branch resistance and reactance respectively.

$$R_0 = \frac{50}{0.072} = 0.694 k\Omega \qquad X_0 = \frac{50}{0.057} = 0.877 K\Omega$$

The equivalent circuit diagram of the transformer is shown in fig 6. For the purpose of simplicity, the transformer was considered with all parameters referred to the primary winding.

$$Z_{01} = \frac{Vsc}{Isc} = \frac{10}{20.2} = 0.495\Omega$$
(45)

Equivalent resistance referred to primary

$$R_{01} = \frac{W^2}{I_{sc}^2} = \frac{20}{20.2^2}$$
(46)  
= 0.0490 \Omega

Equivalent reactance referred to primary  $XO_1 = \sqrt{(Z_{01})^2 - (R_{01})^2}$  (47)

$$X_{01} = \left( 0.495^2 - 0.0490^2 \right) = 0.4925\Omega$$
  
Efficiency  $\eta = \frac{KVACos\phi}{KVACos\phi + losses}$  (48)

Where  $\cos \Phi$  is the load power factor But total losses = copper loss + iron loss (49) From table 1: Iron loss = 3.6w = 0.0036kwAlso from table 2: Copper loss = 20w = 0.02kwTotal loss = 0.0036 + 0.02 = 0.0236kwFrom equation  $\eta = \frac{2.0 \times 0.8}{2.0 \times 0.8}$  \*100 = 98.5 (99%) 2.0x0.8+0.0236



**Figure 6.**Transformer Equivalent circuit from test result all parameter refer to the primary winding.

## 4. Conclusion

Alternative power supply source is very important for home and industrial application due to erratic and unrealistic power supply system in Nigeria. This research study is holistically focused on the development of 2KVA which in turns be used for minimization of power surge, reduction in incurred cost for generator fuelling and periodic maintenance. In addition, the inverter is environmentally friendly, easier to operate and optimal functional efficiency could be obtained.

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