

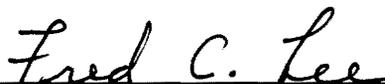
**An Improved Electronic Ballast for the Fluorescent  
Lamps**

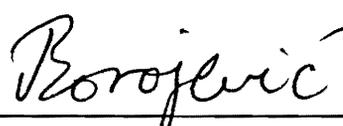
by

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IN  
ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

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# **AN IMPROVED ELECTRONIC BALLAST FOR THE FLUORESCENT LAMPS**

by

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Electrical Engineering

## **ABSTRACT**

The “charge pump” electronic ballast circuit, which employs a charging capacitor and a high frequency ac source to implement the power factor correction (PFC), has become an attractive topology for ballasting the fluorescent lamps because it eliminates the use of a bulky boost inductor. But the high voltage stress on the semiconductor devices at light load conditions, the high total harmonic distortion (THD) of the line current, and the poor crest factor (CF) of the lamp current in this circuit make it difficult to manufacture this circuit into a cost-effective ballast product. This thesis analyzes the problems associated with the “charge pump” electronic ballast, and proposes several innovative methods to solve the problems, resulting in a high performance and cost-effective technology.

## Acknowledgment

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## Chapter 1 Introduction

As the industry demand for the high frequency electronic ballast has grown rapidly in recent years, a number of innovative topologies have emerged. Among them, the "charge pump" electronic ballasts have gained popularity for the discharge lamp due to their simplicity and low cost [1-8].

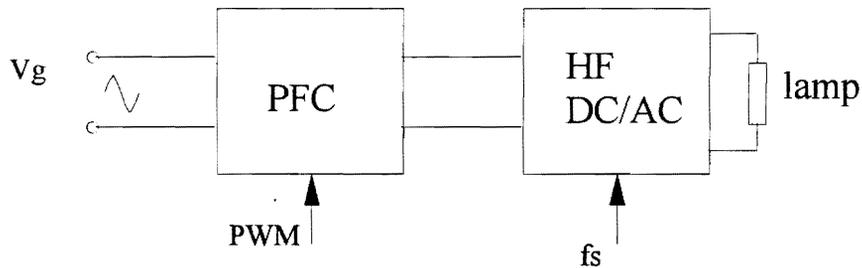


Fig. 1.1 Conventional two-stage configuration for electronic ballast

Since the electronic ballast is an ac/ac power processor, which converts the line frequency ac power into high frequency ac power to light the lamp, the ballast circuit consists of two stages: ac/dc rectification with PFC and dc/ac inversion ( as shown in Fig. 1). Figure 1.2 shows an example of the conventional electronic ballast: a PFC boost converter followed by a parallel resonant inverter. Since there are two controls available in this circuit, the good performance, such as good unity power factor, low crest factor of the lamp current<sup>1</sup>, and good dimming of the light, etc., can be easily obtained. However, the two-stage approach requires two sets of power stages and control circuits. The cost of this electronic ballast is high.

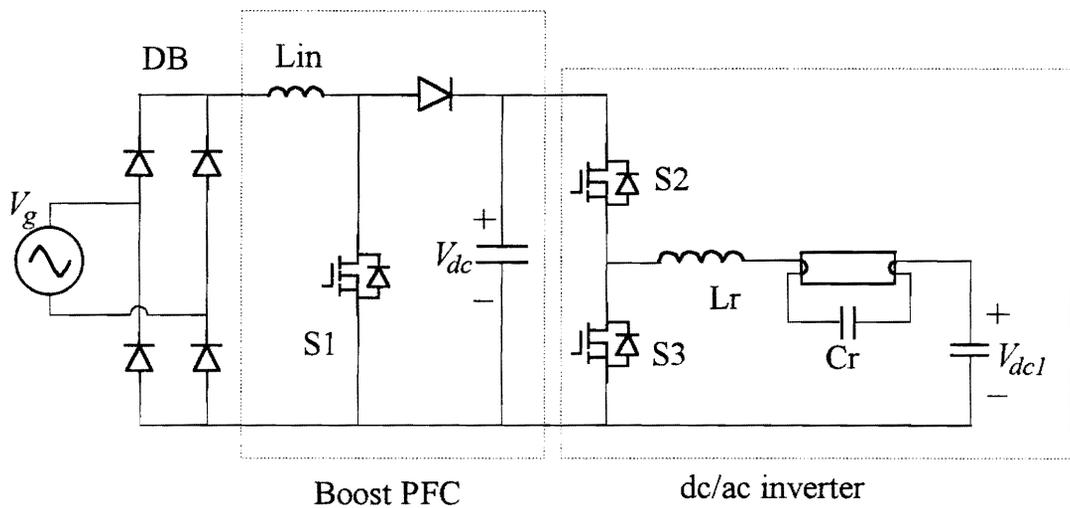


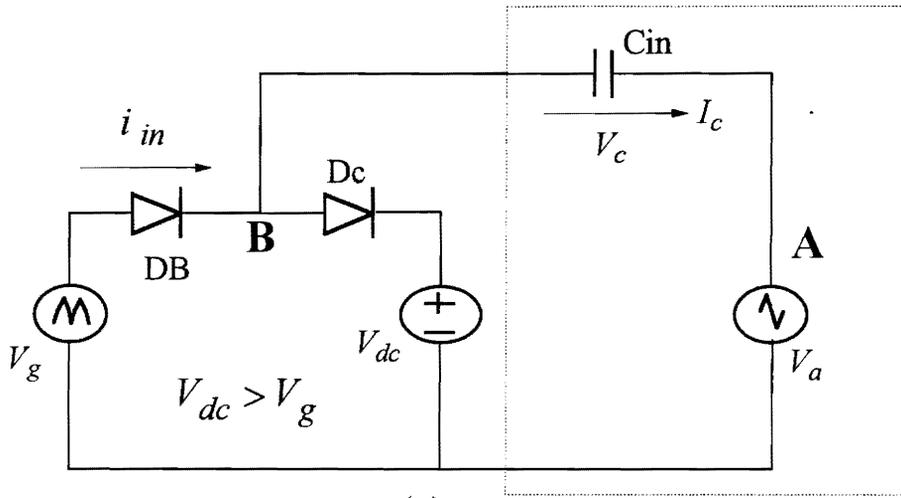
Fig. 1.2 An example of two-stage electronic ballast

<sup>1</sup> The crest factor of the lamp current is defined as:  $CF = \frac{I_{la,pk}}{I_{la,rms}}$ . The peak value  $I_{la,pk}$  and the rms value  $I_{la,rms}$  of the lamp current are measured on the basis of one line cycle.

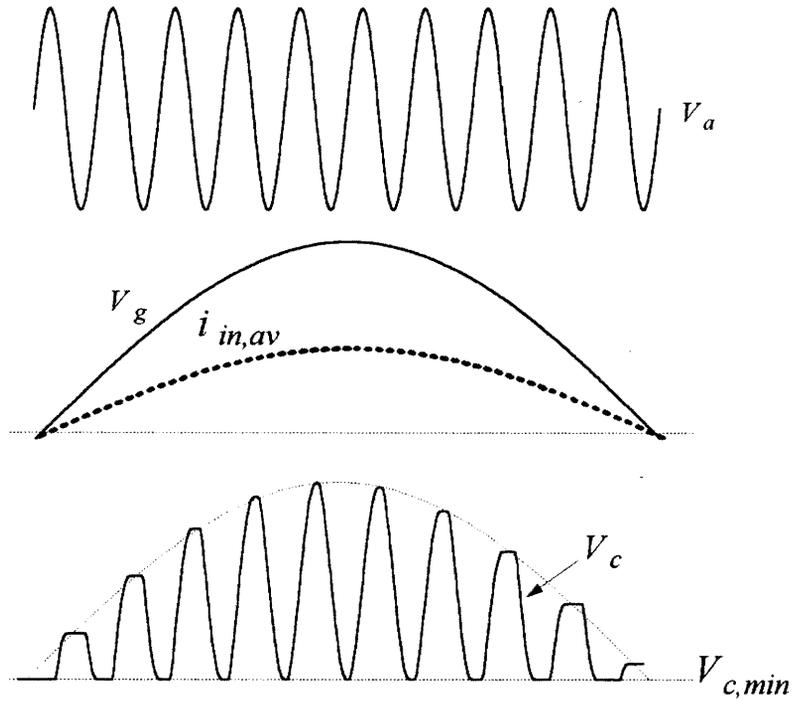


the resonant tank current is sensed in order to turn on the MOSFET switch only when its body diode conducts. Otherwise, the reverse recovery current of the body diode may kill the MOSFET device. Under frequency control, the dc bus voltage can increase significantly at light load operating conditions [10]. An additional protection circuit is needed to prevent the switches from suffering the overvoltage. The lower switch on the totem pole in this circuit usually has a much larger current stress than the upper switch, because it has to take the sum of the boost inductor current and the resonant inverter tank current. Consequently, the size of the lower switch is larger than that of the upper switch. In order to reduce the THD of the input current, the dc bus voltage should be high enough. The voltage stress of the semiconductor devices can be high.

Another type of electronic ballast circuit, employing a charging capacitor and the high frequency ac source (either voltage source or current source) to implement PFC, was proposed recently [1-8]. This type of ballast circuit is sometimes called "charge pump" circuit. Figure 1.4 describes the principle diagram which employs the charging capacitor  $C_{in}$  and the high frequency ac *voltage* source (HFVS). By designing the dc bus voltage,  $V_{dc}$ , higher than the input line voltage,  $V_g$ , the diodes Dc and DB will not conduct at the same time. Then the input current equals the positive charging current of  $C_{in}$  (the current direction shown in Fig. 1.4.a), which is regulated by  $V_a$ ,  $V_g$  and  $V_{dc}$ . If the charge variation of  $C_{in}$  (which is proportional to the variation of  $V_c$ , as shown in Fig. 1.4.b) follows the input voltage, the input average current will follow the input voltage. The good input power factor can be obtained.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 1.4 "Charge pump" circuit employing HFVS:

(a) principle schematics (b) typical waveforms

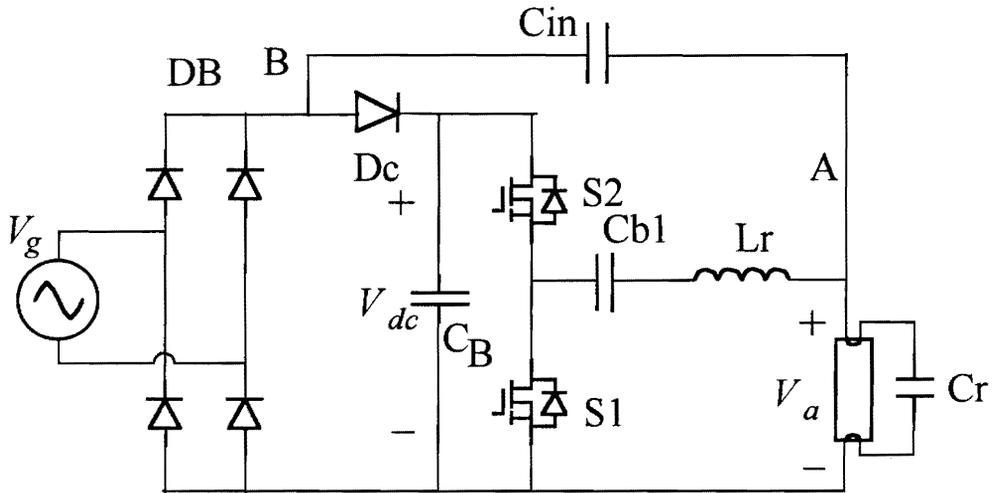


Fig. 1.5 An example of "charge pump" ballast employing HFVS

One example of the "charge pump" circuit is shown in Fig. 1.5. Compared to the boost integrated circuit shown in Fig. 1.3, this circuit replaces the boost inductor by a charging capacitor. It should be noted that the current stresses of two switches in this circuit are the same. Therefore, this type of circuit is potentially low-cost. However, the switches still suffer high voltage stress under light load conditions. Furthermore, due to the injection of the line ripple through  $C_{in}$ , the crest factor of the lamp current and the THD of the line current can be high.

In this thesis, the operation principles and the existing problems of the "charge pump" circuit employing HFVS (shown in Fig. 1.5) are analyzed (Ch.2). A class of novel methods of reducing the dc bus voltage at light loads are proposed (Ch. 3). The approach to improving the normal operation performances including the input power factor, the THD

of the input current and the crest factor of the lamp current is developed. Finally, the conclusions are drawn (Ch. 5).

## Chapter 2 Analysis of “charge pump” electronic ballast

Figure 2.1 shows the "charge pump" electronic ballast for the fluorescent lamp. This is the basic topology in this thesis. The isolation transformer serves two purposes: providing the required lamp voltage and preheating the lamp filaments.

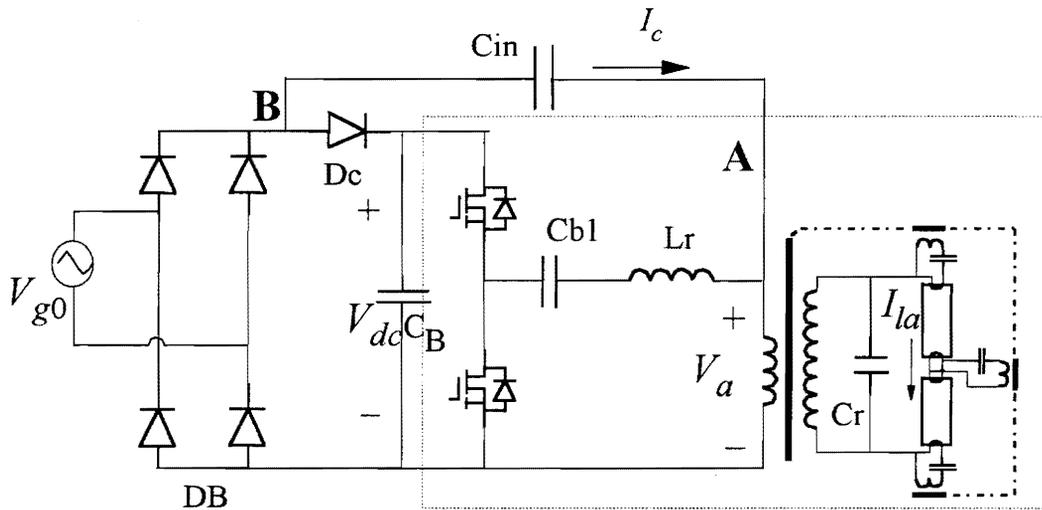


Fig. 2.1 Basic electronic ballast circuit for the fluorescent lamp

The circuit can be separated into two parts: PFC and dc/ac inversion. The equivalent circuit is shown in Fig. 2.2: DB stands for the rectifier diodes,  $V_g$  is the rectified input voltage. Through proper design, the lamp voltage amplitude can be roughly constant during the line cycle. Consequently,  $V_a$  is regarded as a constant amplitude high frequency ac source. In order to regulate the input current, Dc and DB should not be on at the same time. This implies that  $V_{dc}$ , the dc bus voltage, should be always higher than the line voltage. So it is requested that  $V_{dc}$  be larger than the line peak voltage,  $V_{gp}$ . Since the line

frequency is usually much lower than the switching frequency, the line voltage  $V_g$  is regarded to be constant in one switching cycle.

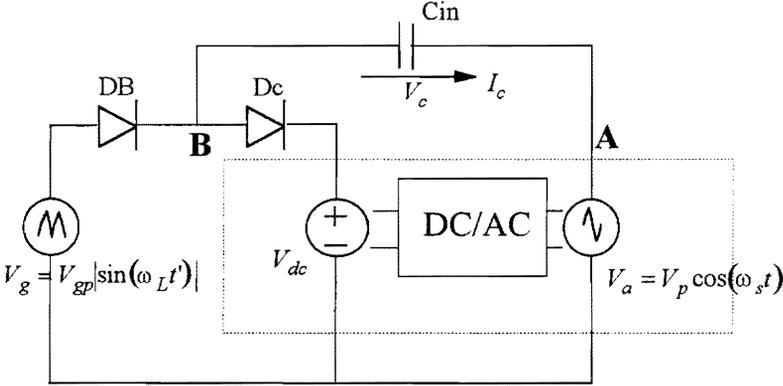


Fig. 2.2 The equivalent circuit consists of two parts:  
(1) PFC, (2)dc/ac inverter

**2.1 Principle of power factor correction (PFC)**

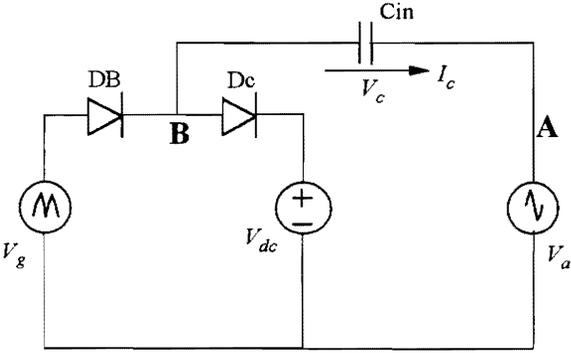


Fig. 2.3 The equivalent circuit of PFC

To facilitate the understanding of the PFC principle in a “charge pump” circuit, the equivalent circuit for PFC is introduced as shown in Fig. 2.3:  $V_a$  is treated as the independent high frequency ac source,  $V_{dc}$  and  $V_g$  are regarded as constant dc voltage

source in one switching cycle. Four power stages in one switching period are shown in Fig. 2.4, and the waveforms in Fig. 2.5. Based on the assumption of zero on-voltage-drop of diodes and switches, the operation in one switching cycle is analyzed as follows.

### 2.1.A Steady state operation

#### Stage 1 $[0, \alpha]$ : shown in Fig. 2.4 (a)

During this stage, since the voltage at node B,  $V_b$ , is lower than  $V_{dc}$ , and higher than  $V_g$ , both Dc and DB are off. So there is no current flowing through the input capacitor,  $C_{in}$ . As a result,  $V_c$ , the voltage across  $C_{in}$ , is unchanged.  $V_a$  keeps decreasing, pulling down  $V_b$ . This stage ends at  $\omega t = \alpha$ , when  $V_b$  becomes equal to  $V_g$ .

#### Stage 2 $[\alpha, \pi]$ : shown in Fig. 2.4 (b)

DB starts to conduct at  $\omega t = \alpha$ .  $V_b$  is clamped to  $V_g$ . To make  $V_b$  constant,  $V_c$  has to increase when  $V_a$  continues decreasing.  $C_{in}$  is thus charged by the rectified line current. At  $\omega t = \pi$ ,  $V_a$  decreases to the negative peak value, and  $V_c$  reaches its maximum point:

$$V_{c,\max} = V_p + V_g, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $V_p$  is the ac amplitude of  $V_a$ .

#### Stage 3 $[\pi, \pi + \beta]$ : shown in Fig. 2.4 (c)

After  $\omega t = \pi$ ,  $V_a$  increases from its negative peak value,  $-V_p$ .  $V_b$  becomes higher than  $V_g$ , forcing DB to be reversely biased. Since  $V_b$  is lower than  $V_{dc}$ , Dc still blocks. Similar to Stage I, there is no current flowing through the input capacitor,  $C_{in}$ .  $V_c$  remains unchanged.  $V_a$  keeps increasing, boosting  $V_b$  up. This stage ends at  $\omega t = \pi + \beta$ .

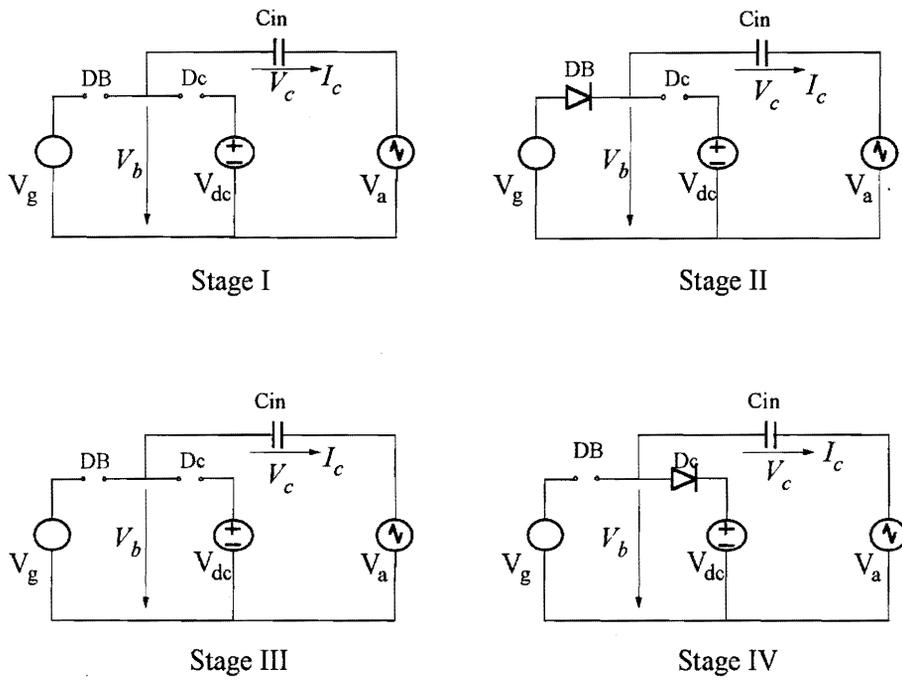


Fig. 2.4 Four power stages of PFC circuit

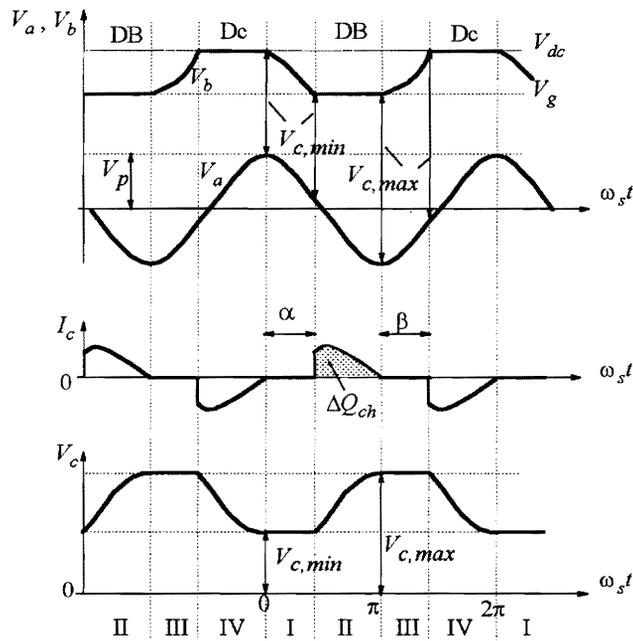


Fig. 2.5 Theoretical waveforms of four power stages

Stage 4 [ $\pi + \beta, 2\pi$ ] : shown in Fig. 2.4 (d)

At  $\omega t = \pi + \beta$ ,  $V_b$  becomes equal to  $V_{dc}$ . Dc starts to conduct. To keep  $V_b$  equal to  $V_{dc}$ ,  $V_c$  has to decrease when  $V_a$  continues increasing. The discharging current of  $C_{in}$  flows into  $V_{dc}$ .

At  $\omega t = 2\pi$ ,  $V_a$  increases to its positive peak value, and  $V_c$  reaches its minimum point:

$$V_{c,\min} = V_{dc} - V_p. \quad (2.2)$$

After  $\omega t = 2\pi$ , the circuit operation enters Stage I again. The next switching cycle will be repeated.

### *2.1.B Condition for unity input power factor*

From the above analysis, we can see that the line current only flows in during Stage II. Therefore, the input current in this circuit is discontinuous and is regulated by the charging and discharging of the capacitor  $C_{in}$ . A more detailed analysis of the charge variation of  $C_{in}$  reveals the operation condition for the unity input power factor.

During the charging stage, the charge variation of  $C_{in}$  is

$$\Delta Q_{ch} = C_{in}(V_{c,\max} - V_{c,\min}). \quad (2.3)$$

By substituting Eqs. (2.1) and (2.2) into Eq. (2.3), we can obtain

$$\Delta Q_{ch} = C_{in}(V_g + 2V_p - V_{dc}). \quad (2.4)$$

Since the rectifier diodes conduct only in the charging stage (Stage 2) over the whole switching cycle, the average input current in one switching cycle equals the average charging current of  $C_{in}$ , which is

$$i_{in,av} = I_{ch} = f_s \cdot \Delta Q_{ch} \quad (2.5)$$

or

$$i_{in,av} = f_s C_{in} (V_g + 2V_p - V_{dc}). \quad (2.6)$$

For a good power factor, we expect the input current to follow the input voltage, i.e.,

$$i_{in,av} \propto V_g. \quad (2.7)$$

If we design

$$V_{dc} = 2V_p, \quad (2.8)$$

we have

$$i_{in,av} = f_s C_{in} V_g \propto V_g. \quad (2.9)$$

This implies that the circuit has a good power factor if Eq. (2.8) is satisfied. Here, we assume that  $V_a$  is sinusoidal waveform. In fact,  $V_a$  can be any kind of waveform with a constant ac amplitude. As long as the ac peak-to-peak value of  $V_a$  equals  $V_{dc}$ , the good power factor will be guaranteed.

From Eq. (2.6), we can also see that  $V_p$ , the peak value of  $V_a$ , should be no smaller than half of  $V_{dc}$  in order to avoid line current distortion at zero-crossing of line voltage. If  $V_p$  is smaller than half of  $V_{dc}$ , the line current will become zero when  $V_g \leq |V_{dc} - 2V_p|$ .

### 2.1.C Input power estimation

Under the assumption of well designed input filter,  $V_{dc} \geq V_{gp}$ , and constant  $V_p$  with  $V_p \geq V_{dc}/2$ , we can derive the expression for the input power flowing through  $C_{in}$ ,  $P_{in}$ .

As we have

$$V_g = V_{gp} |\sin(\omega_L t)| \quad (2.10)$$

and

$$P_{in} = \frac{2}{T_L} \int_0^{T_L/2} V_g i_{in,av} dt, \quad (2.11)$$

by substituting Eqs. (2.6) and (2.10) into Eq. (2.11), we obtain

$$P_{in} = \frac{1}{2} f_s C_{in} \left[ V_{gp}^2 + \frac{4}{\pi} (2V_p - V_{dc}) V_{gp} \right]. \quad (2.12)$$

Under the condition PF=1, we have  $V_{dc} = 2V_p$ . Then Eq. (2.12) becomes

$$P_{in} = \frac{1}{2} f_s C_{in} V_{gp}^2. \quad (2.13)$$

Equation (2.13) is useful in the circuit design. If the line voltage, the input power, and the switching frequency are given,  $C_{in}$  can be chosen accordingly.

## 2.2 Analysis of inverter operation

The inverter is basically an LC parallel resonant circuit. Since the input capacitor,  $C_{in}$ , is switched into the resonant tank during Power Stages (II) and (IV) and is switched off in Power Stages (1) and (III), the voltage across the lamp,  $V_a$ , can vary very much in half line cycle.

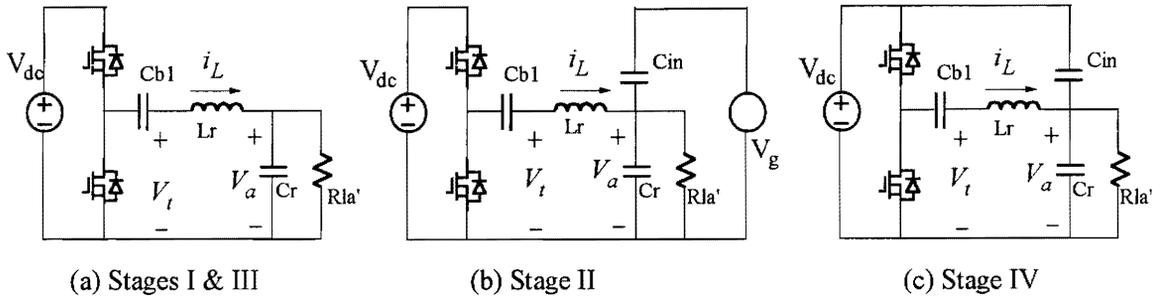


Fig. 2.6 Topological stages of resonant inverter

The inverter topologies of different power stages are shown in Fig. 2.6. The waveform is shown in Fig. 2.7. In each switching cycle,  $C_{in}$  is switched into the resonant tank for the angle interval,  $2(\pi-\alpha)$ , which is determined by the line voltage. When the line voltage is low, this angle is small; if the line voltage is high, the angle is large. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 2.6(b),  $V_g$  is connected to the resonant inverter during Power Stage (II). Therefore,  $V_a$  is affected by the line voltage.

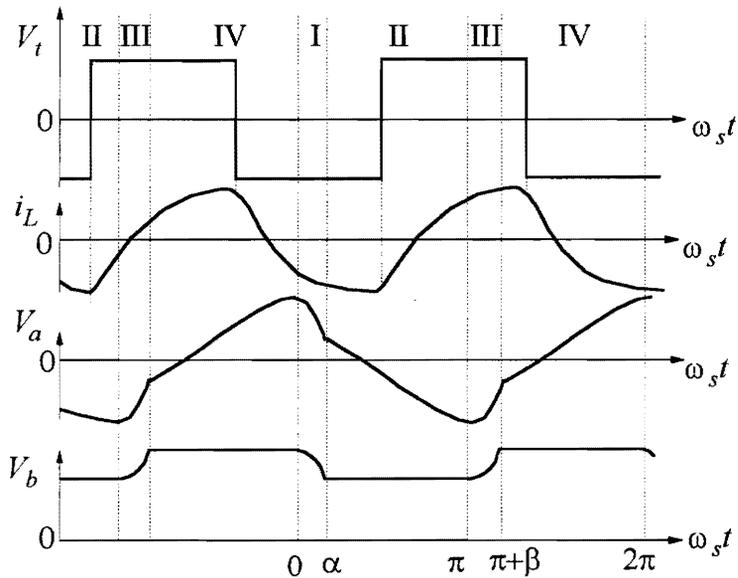


Fig. 2.7 Theoretical waveform of the resonant tank

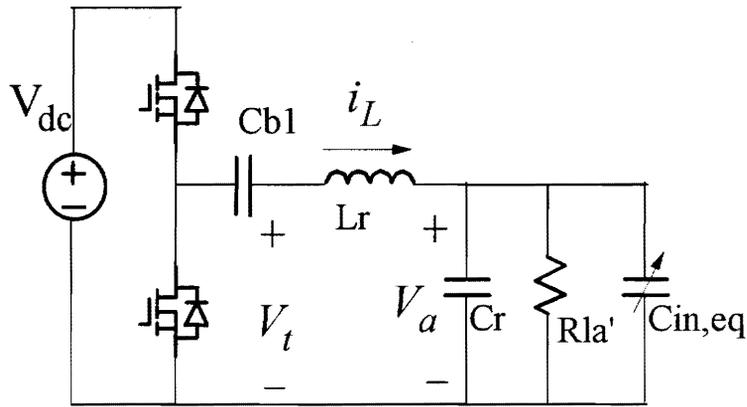


Fig. 2.8 The equivalent circuit of the inverter

The approximate equivalent circuit of the resonant inverter is shown in Fig. 2.8. The equivalent capacitance of  $C_{in}$  appears to be in parallel with  $C_r$ , and its value is a function of the line voltage. No strict mathematical expression is available. But generally speaking,  $C_{in,eq}$  is large when the line voltage is high, and small when the line voltage is low.  $C_{in,eq}$  reaches its maximum value,  $C_{in}$ , when the line voltage is the highest. Consequently, the approximate inverter voltage conversion gain curves under different line voltages are obtained as shown in Fig. 2.9. It is noted that when the line voltage is low, the resonant peak is at high frequency. So the circuit may run into the capacitive mode (like Curve A shown in Fig. 2.9.b), especially at light loads, resulting in the loss of zero-voltage-switching (ZVS) of the semiconductor switches. Due to the reverse recovery of the body diode of the MOSFET, the turn-on power loss of the switches can be substantially high. This should be taken care of during the design.

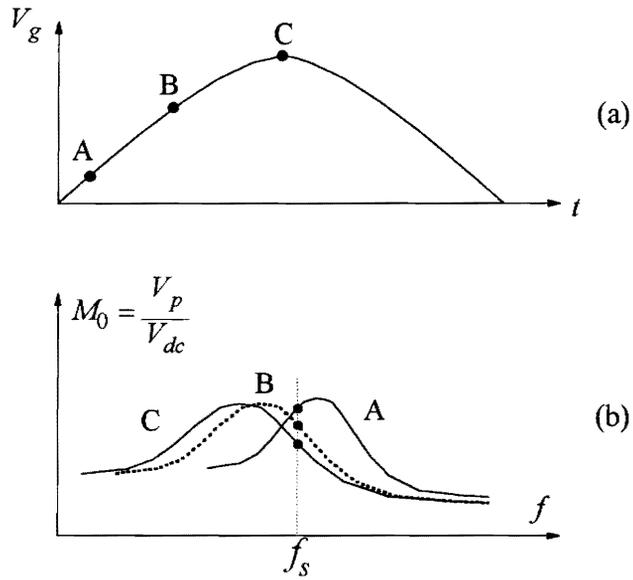


Fig. 2.9 The voltage conversion gains under different line voltages

### 2.3 Design issues

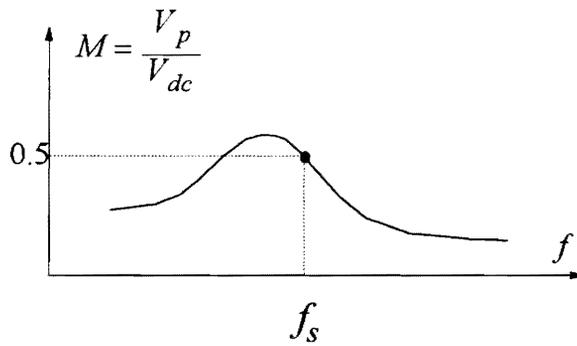


Fig. 2.10 The approximate voltage gain of the inverter

In practice, if we manage to group the inverter gain curves in Fig. 2.9(b) close enough, we may be able to obtain an approximate voltage gain curve of the inverter ( shown in Fig. 2.10). To achieve the unity input power factor, the voltage gain,  $M = V_p/V_{dc}$ , should equal

0.5. No strict design guideline for the resonant tank is available. But the following design procedure is preferred:

i) given  $P_{out}$ ,  $f_s$ ,  $V_{gp}$ , and efficiency specification  $\eta$ ,  $C_{in}$  is at first chosen according to Eq. (2.14):

$$C_{in} = \frac{2P_{out}}{\eta \cdot f_s \cdot V_{gp}^2}; \quad (2.14)$$

ii) given the output voltage peak value,  $V_{la,pk}$ , the transformer primary to secondary turns ratio is estimated as

$$N = \frac{V_p}{V_{la,pk}} = \frac{V_{dc}}{2 \cdot V_{la,pk}}, \quad (2.15)$$

where  $V_{dc}$  is usually chosen slightly higher than  $V_{gp}$ ;

iii) finally, based on the simulations or the experiments,  $L_r$  and  $C_r$  are chosen to yield  $M=0.5$  and  $V_p \cong \text{constant}$ .

## 2.4 Limitations of the “charge pump” electronic ballast circuit

There are several limitations in this circuit: high THD of the input current, high crest factor of the lamp current, and high dc bus voltage at light load operations.

### 2.4.A Reason for high THD and high crest factor

From Fig. 2.9(b), we can predict that  $V_p$  is variable over half line cycle. The direct penalty of this variation is the poor crest factor of the lamp current. Since the variation of  $V_{dc}$  is negligible, Eq. (2.8) cannot be always satisfied during the half line cycle. From Eq. (2.6),

we can see that the input current will not follow the input line voltage. The input power factor is degraded, and the THD of the line current increases.

As shown in Fig. 2.7, the lamp current waveform consists of two distinct parts. The wave shape of the lamp current is not purely sinusoidal. This is another reason for poor crest factor of the lamp current.

#### *2.4.B Reason for high dc bus voltage ( $V_{dc}$ ) at light load conditions*

The way to understand this problem is to examine Eq. (2.12) closely. We can see from this equation that the higher  $f_s$ ,  $C_{in}$ , or  $V_p$ , the higher the input power flowing through  $C_{in}$ ; the higher the  $V_{dc}$ , the lower the input power flowing through  $C_{in}$ . At the steady state operation, the input power flowing through  $C_{in}$  equals the output power if  $V_{dc} > V_{gp}$  is satisfied. At the light loads, the output power reduces, the parameters on the right hand side of Eq. (2.12) have to change to make both sides of Eq. (2.12) equal.

Usually, the operation of the electronic ballast for the fluorescent lamp includes three operation modes: preheat, start-up and normal lighting. The approximate voltage conversion gains of the inverter tank under different load conditions are shown in Fig. 2.11.

At the preheat mode of the lamp operation, the lamp voltage should be much smaller than the starting voltage. Because the lamp is not turned on, the circuit is operating under the light load conditions. The switching frequency for the preheat mode has to be much higher than that for the normal lighting. If the lamp voltage at the preheat mode is not low

enough,  $V_{dc}$  at light load has to increase in order to satisfy Eq. (2.12). This can be expressed as:

$$P_{in} \downarrow \text{ and } f_s \uparrow \Rightarrow V_{dc} \uparrow.$$

At the start-up mode operation, the lamp voltage is much higher than that at the normal lighting. Usually, the switching frequency at the start-up mode is very close to that at the normal lighting in order to obtain the sufficiently high ignition voltage. However, the output power at start-up mode is still much lower than that at normal lighting because the lamp is not ignited. According to Eq. (2.12), in order to decrease the input power to match the low output power,  $V_{dc}$  at start-up mode has to increase dramatically compared to that at normal lighting. This can be expressed as:

$$P_{in} \downarrow \text{ and } V_p \uparrow \Rightarrow V_{dc} \uparrow.$$

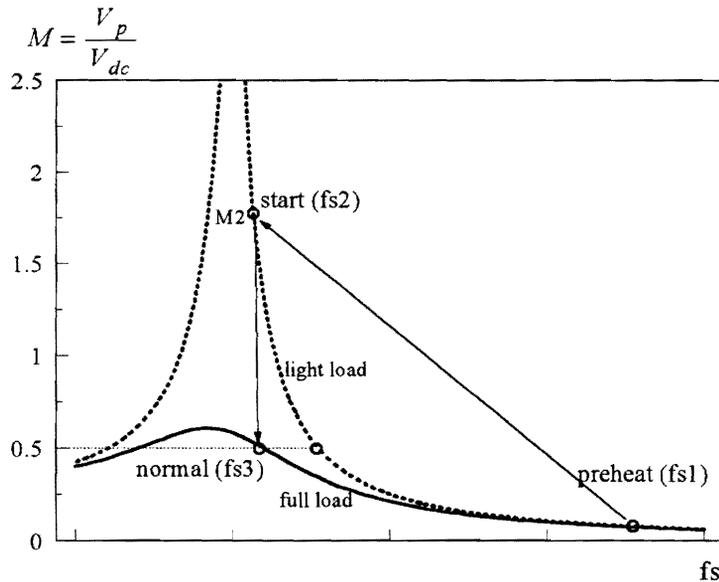


Fig. 2.11 The voltage conversion gain of the inverter under different loads

## **Chapter 3 Approaches to reducing dc bus voltage at light load conditions**

Light load conditions in a "charge pump" electronic ballast always cause high dc bus voltage ( $V_{dc}$ ) according to the analysis in Ch. 2. This chapter provides general principles of reducing  $V_{dc}$  at light loads. The proposed solutions of reducing  $V_{dc}$  for the fluorescent lamp ballast are addressed in this chapter. Experimental results are also provided for the verifications.

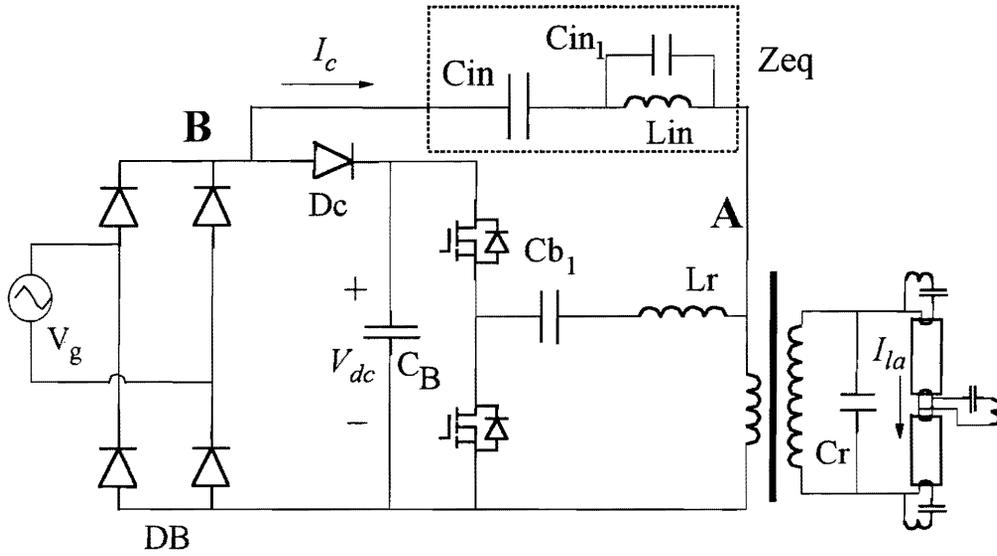
### **3.1 General principle of reducing dc bus voltage at light loads**

The solutions of reducing  $V_{dc}$  can be found from Eq. (2.12): if we are able to decrease the equivalent  $C_{in}$  or  $V_p$  (ac amplitude of  $V_a$ ) at light loads,  $V_{dc}$  can be reduced. The original resonant tank can be regarded as a first stage resonance. To obtain a decreased  $C_{in}$  or/and  $V_p$  at light loads, a second-stage resonance is introduced. The basic idea is to operate the circuit in different resonance domains to obtain different  $V_p$  or equivalent  $C_{in}$  under the different load conditions.

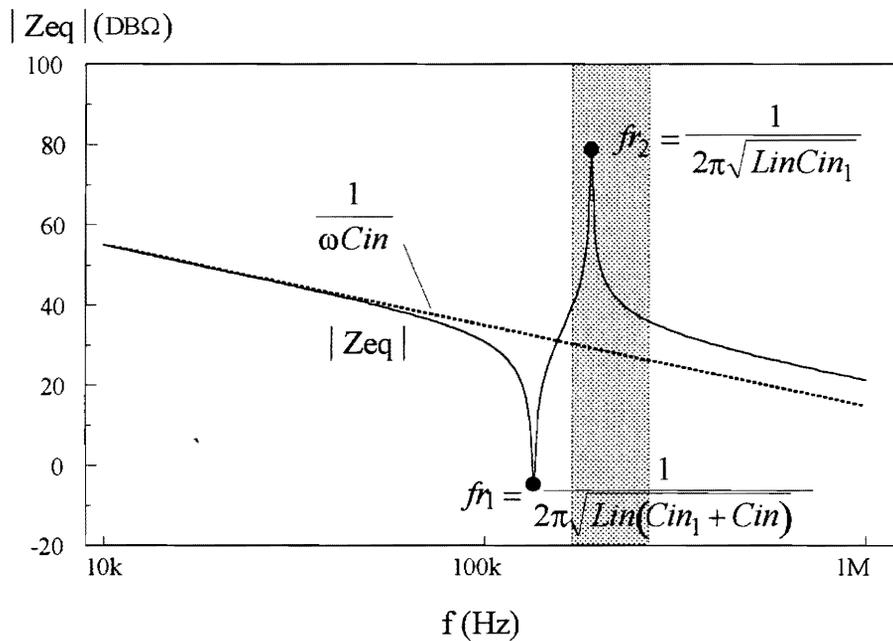
#### *3.1.A) Reducing $V_{dc}$ at light loads by decreasing $C_{in}$*

There are several ways to modulate the equivalent capacitance of  $C_{in}$ . Figure 3.1 shows one example by introducing a second-stage resonance in the  $C_{in}$  branch. At  $fr_2$ ,  $L_{in}$

resonates with  $C_{in1}$ , introducing an extremely high impedance. As a result, the equivalent capacitance of the  $C_{in}$  branch is reduced.

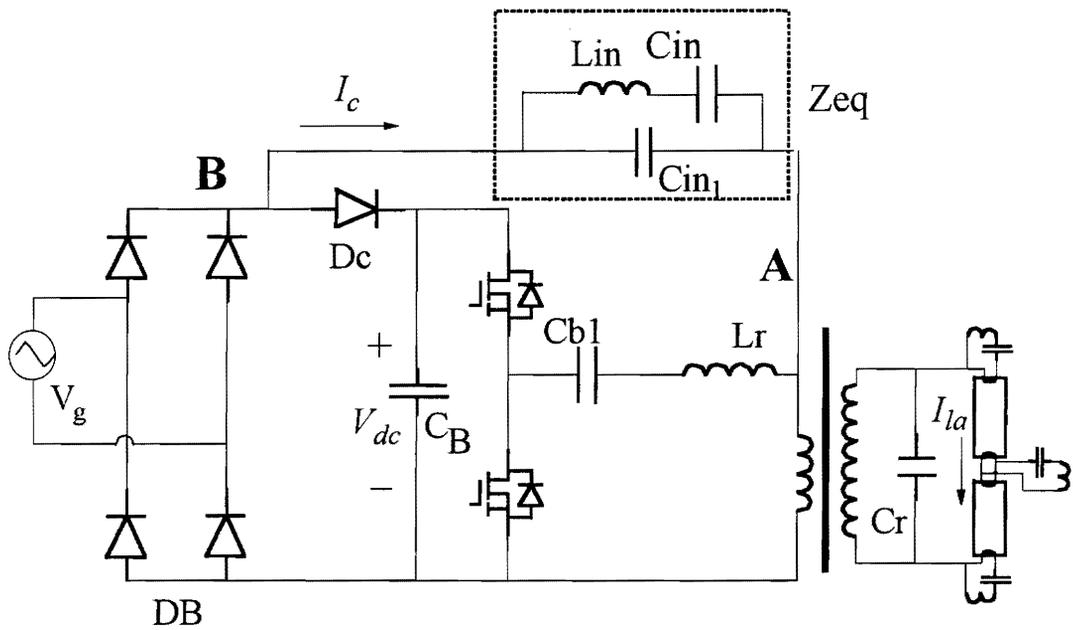


(a)

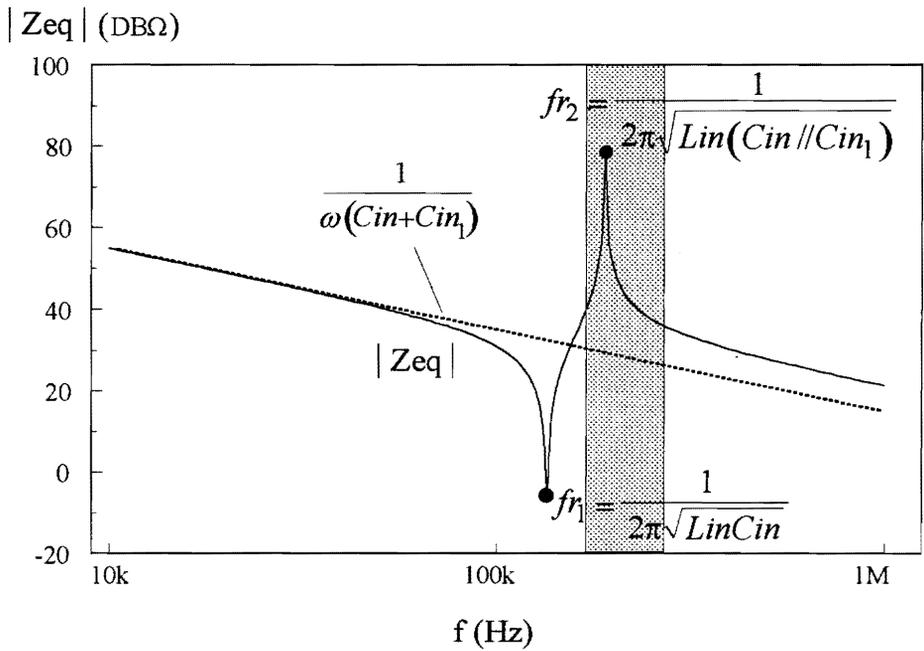


(b)

Fig. 3.1 One example of changing  $C_{in}$  by using a parallel resonant tank  
(a) schematic diagram, (b) the equivalent impedance



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.2 Second example of changing  $C_{in}$  by using a resonant tank

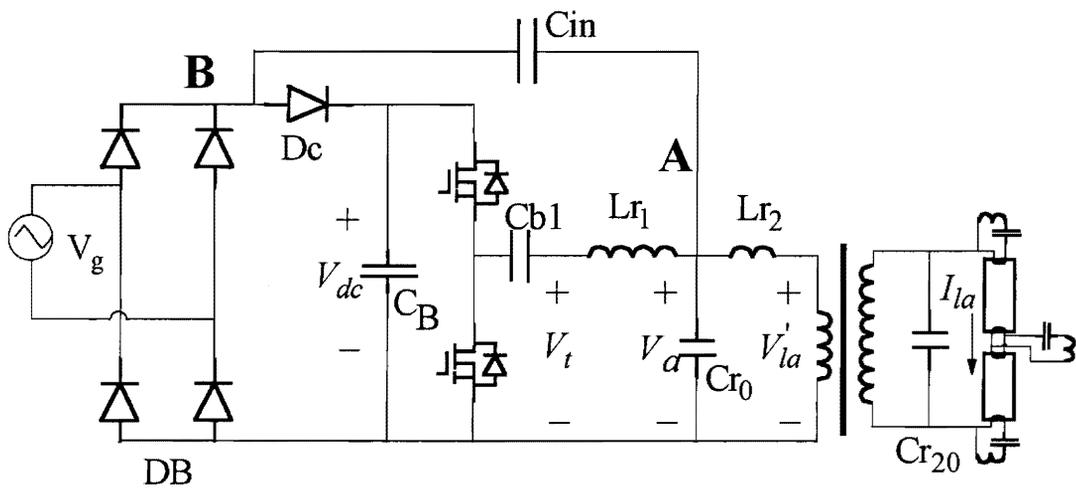
If we set the light load operating frequency around  $f_{r_2}$ , we can limit the input current flowing through  $C_{in}$  (according to Eq. 2.6), and the input power is reduced automatically. Accordingly,  $V_{dc}$  can be low. The practical light load frequency is set inside the shaded area shown in Fig. 3.1(b). Since  $Z_{eq}$ , the equivalent impedance of the  $C_{in}$  branch, is infinitely large at  $f_{r_2}$ , it has little effect on the inverter resonant tank. Therefore, the resonant peak of the inverter tank can be determined from  $L_r$  and  $C_r$  directly. The high lamp voltage for the light loads (e.g. lamp preheat, start-up, etc.) can be easily obtained. Figure 3.2 shows another example of modulating  $C_{in}$  at light load frequency. The principle is similar to that shown in Fig. 3.1.

### 3.1.B) Reducing $V_{dc}$ at light loads by decreasing $V_p$

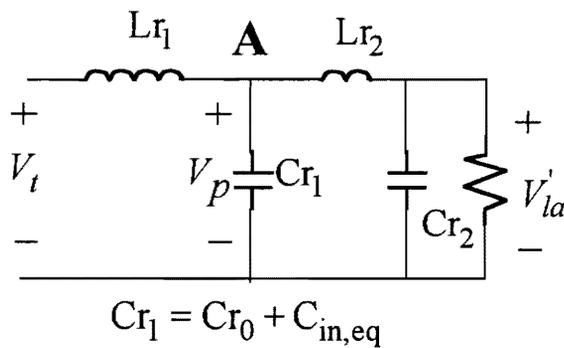
As predicted by Eq. (2.12), the input power flowing through  $C_{in}$  can be reduced if  $V_p$  is reduced. Consequently,  $V_{dc}$  at light loads can be reduced. However, the lamp voltage at light load is usually higher than that at full load. To reconcile these two contradictory requirements, an inductor  $L_{r_2}$  has to be inserted between Terminal A and the transformer primary side (Fig. 3.3.a).

Figure 3.3 (b) shows the approximate ac equivalent circuit for the inverter tank:  $C_{r_1}$  is the equivalent capacitance across point A;  $C_{r_2}$  and  $R_{la}'$  are the reflected  $C_{r_{20}}$  and the lamp resistance respectively. The normalized voltages  $V_p$  and  $V_{la}'$  (the transformer primary voltage) at light load and full load are plotted in Fig. 3.4 (the reference for the normalization is  $V_t$ ).

Under light load conditions,  $L_{r2}$  resonates with  $C_{r2}$  at  $f_{r2}$ .  $V_p$ , the ac amplitude of  $V_a$ , can be close to zero ( as shown in Fig. 3.4.a ). The input power flowing through  $C_{in}$  is reduced greatly. Therefore, the dc bus voltage at light loads can be low. The primary voltage  $V_{la}'$  can still be relatively large due to the resonance between  $L_{r2}$  and  $C_{r2}$  (as shown in Fig. 3.5) compared to  $V_p$ .



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.3 Reducing  $V_p$  at light loads:  
 (a) circuit diagram, (b) approximate ac equivalent circuit for inverter tank

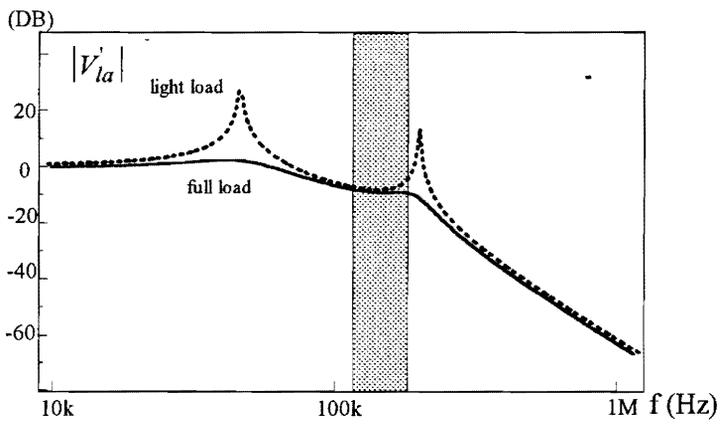
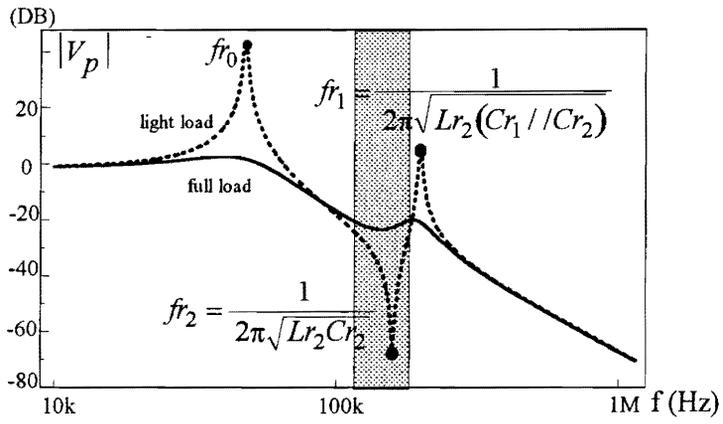


Fig. 3.4 Bode plots of normalized  $V_p$  and  $V'_{la}$  at light load and full load

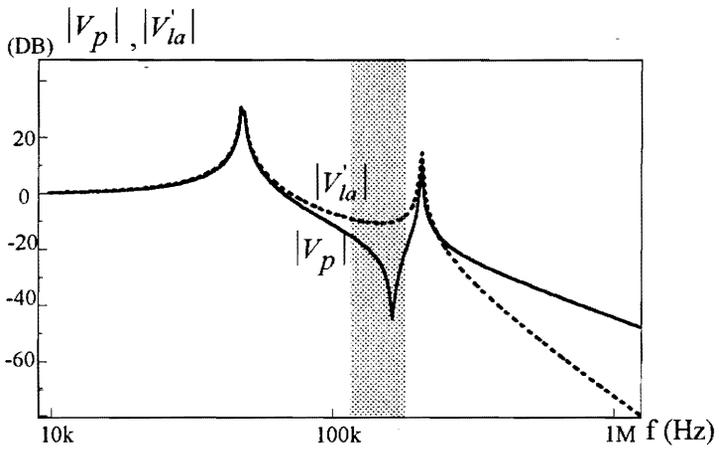


Fig. 3.5 Comparisons of  $V_p$  and  $V'_{la}$  at light load

Combining Methods 3.1.a and 3.1.b is also feasible. Two additional inductors ( $L_{1n}$  and  $L_{r2}$ ) introducing the second-stage resonance can be coupled into one. However, the design becomes complicated.

## **3.2 Design strategies of reducing $V_{dc}$ at light loads in the fluorescent lamp ballast**

### *3.2.A) Strategy I: high frequency second-stage resonance (HFSSR) technique with instant start-up*

The basic idea of this strategy is to provide sufficient preheating for the lamp filaments. At the same time, the dc bus voltage at the preheat mode is limited to a low level by applying the second-stage resonance technique. As shown by the experiments, the voltage and the time required for the lamp ignition can be greatly reduced if the filaments are sufficiently preheated. In this case, if we instantly sweep the frequency to the ignition point  $f_{s2}$  (see Fig. 2.11) at the end of the preheat mode, it is very possible to ignite the lamp in a few switching cycles. Therefore,  $V_{dc}$  can be far below its steady state value when the lamp is lit on. Since the lamp characteristics vary according to the temperature, aging, gas pressure etc., the lamp may not be turned on under certain circumstances when  $V_{dc}$  reaches the limit. So the restart and protection circuit is necessary. The technique can be further implemented in the following manner.

### 3.2.A.i) Reducing $V_{dc}$ at the preheat mode by employing the high frequency second-stage resonance (HFSR)

The preheating of the filaments is very important to the fluorescent lamp. Insufficient preheating will require higher voltage to ignite the lamp, and may cause improper start-up of the fluorescent lamp which shortens the lamp life.

Usually, the lamp voltage at the preheat mode in a ballast circuit shown in Fig. 2.1 should be large enough to provide the sufficient preheating current. According to the analysis in Ch.2, however, low  $V_p$  is required in order to maintain low  $V_{dc}$  at the preheat mode.

To reconcile these two contradictory requirements, the second-stage resonance technique introduced in the previous section (Sect. 3.2) can be applied. The preheating frequency is set close to the second-stage frequency  $fr_2$ . Since the preheating frequency can be much higher than the normal operating frequency, the size of the additional resonant components required for the second-stage resonance is small. This technique will be referred to as high frequency second-stage resonance (HFSR) in the later discussion.

By applying the technique introduced in Section 3.1.a (Figs. 3.1 and 3.2), the equivalent  $C_{in}$  at the preheat mode is reduced, and the input power flowing through the  $C_{in}$  branch can be small even if  $V_p$  is large. As a result,  $V_{dc}$  is low. Since the  $C_{in}$  branch at the preheat mode has little effect on the resonant tank, high lamp voltage can be easily obtained by adjusting  $L_r$  or  $C_r$ . Due to the modulation of  $L_{in}$ , the equivalent capacitance of the  $C_{in}$  branch at a normal operating frequency is higher than the pure capacitor (as shown in Figs. 3.1(b) and 3.2(b)). Consequently, a smaller input capacitor can be used. The efficiency at

full load can be improved. However,  $L_{in}$  also distorts the input current shape. Too large magnitude for  $L_{in}$  is not desired.

If we apply the technique introduced in Section 3.1.b (Figs. 3.3), low  $V_{dc}$  and relatively high lamp voltage can be obtained at the same time. Due to the high  $fr_2$ , the value of  $Lr_2$  is usually small.  $Lr_2$  can be integrated into the leakage inductance of the isolation transformer. The magnetic component number in the circuit does not increase. The additional cost is negligible.

### 3.2.A.ii) Restart and protection scheme

As mentioned before, under sufficient preheating, instant start can ignite the lamp before  $V_{dc}$  rises high. However, under some circumstances such as low temperature, end of lamp life, etc., a higher lamp voltage and longer time are required to ignite the lamp. It is possible that the lamp is not ignited when  $V_{dc}$  reaches the limit. So the restart scheme is necessary. Besides, when the lamp fails (e.g., evacuated or operated with emitter-less), the circuit will operate at extremely light load conditions. Since the ignition frequency and the normal operating frequency are much lower than  $fr_2$ , the HFSR technique does not protect the semiconductor devices from suffering high voltage stress under these circumstances. So the protection circuit is needed. The protection circuit, the restart scheme, and the principle waveforms are shown in Figs. 3.6 and 3.7.

The basic idea of the protection and restart scheme is to sense the dc bus voltage. Once the circuit detects the  $V_{dc}$  level to be higher than the maximum allowable level, say, 450 V, the timing resistor of the control circuit is reduced. Therefore, the frequency is pushed to

the preheating frequency  $fs_1$ .  $V_{dc}$  will drop down gradually. Once  $V_{dc}$  drops below a certain value, say, 410 V, we can restart the lamp by sweeping the switching frequency from  $fs_1$  to  $fs_2$  very quickly, just like in the normal starting procedure. The hysteresis,  $\Delta V_{dc}$ , is determined by the  $R2/R1$  in Fig. 3.6. If the lamps cannot be ignited for a certain number of times of the start-up attempts, we can shut down the circuit.

Since the voltage determining the ignition of the lamp is the peak value instead of the rms value, the spikes on the lamp voltage (shown in Fig. 3.7.b) will help in starting the lamps. This is similar to the lamp waveform in the low frequency ballast which uses the saturation transformer to help ignite the lamp.

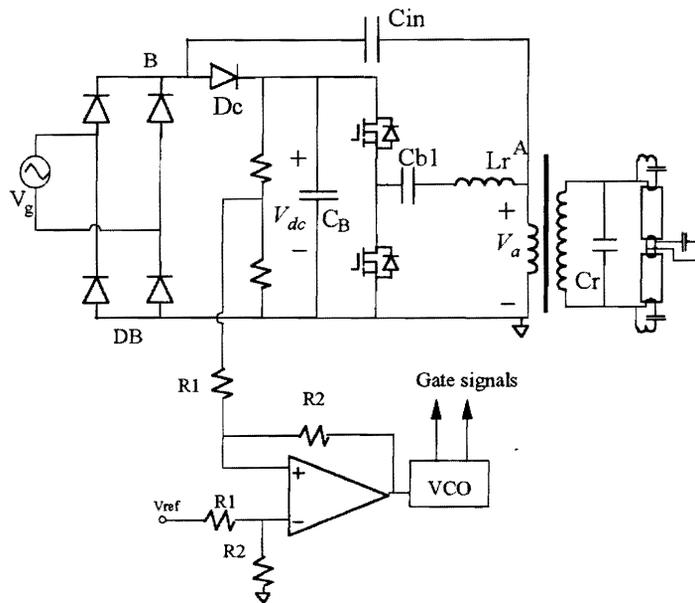
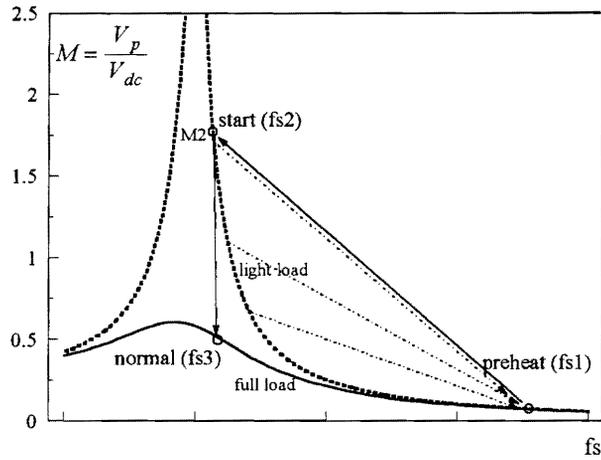
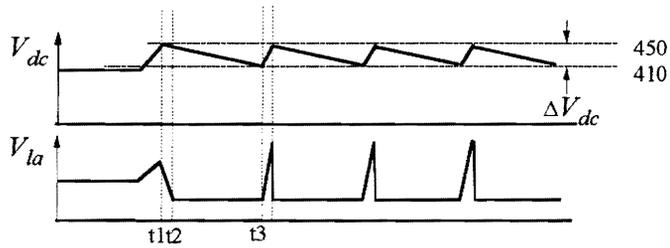


Fig. 3.6 Diagram of protection circuit



(a)



(b)

Fig. 3.7 Schemes and principle waveforms of restart and protection

3.2.B) Strategy II: “low” frequency second-stage resonance (LFSR) technique

With the HFSR techniques, the second-stage resonance frequency  $fr_2$  is much higher than the first-stage resonance frequency,  $fr_0$ , the voltage gain around  $fr_2$  is not high enough to ignite the lamp and to maintain the lamp lighting. So the start-up frequency has to be much lower than  $fr_2$ . Therefore, the HFSR technique cannot lower the steady state dc bus

voltage at the start-up mode, an alternative is to consider moving the *second-stage* resonance peak close to *the first-stage* resonant peak,  $f_{r0}$ . This technique is referred to as "low" frequency second-stage resonance (LFSR) in the following discussion.

Figure 3.8 shows the circuit diagrams. The approximate ac equivalent circuit consists of two LC resonant stages. The blocking capacitor,  $C_s$ , moves the lamp side to reduce its conduction loss and to reduce the maximum voltage across the input capacitor,  $C_{in}$ .  $L_{r2}$  and  $C_{r2}$  form a parallel resonant tank. Through proper design,  $L_{r2}$  and  $C_{r2}$  can provide the desired lamp voltage. Meanwhile,  $V_p$ , the ac amplitude of  $V_a$ , can still remain roughly half of  $V_{dc}$  to obtain the good input power factor. Therefore, the transformer can be eliminated if the isolation is not required. In addition, the filament windings can be coupled to  $L_{r2}$ . The reason for doing so will be explained later. Since the LFSR technique requires a large additional inductor ( $L_{in}$  or  $L_{r2}$ ), the technique designed to reduce  $C_{in}$  (Section 3.1.a) becomes impractical because a large magnitude for  $L_{in}$  usually causes the distortion of the line current. Therefore, the technique of reducing  $V_p$  (Section 3.1.b) is the only candidate for the LFSR technique.

Figure 3.9 shows the bode plots of the normalized voltages under light load and full load. It is preferable to operate the circuit at the frequency inside the shaded areas in Fig. 3.9. It should be noted that  $V_p$  at light load is always lower than that at full load inside the shaded area. Through proper design, low  $V_{dc}$  at light loads can be achieved. In addition,  $V_{la}$  at light load is always higher than that at full load; the high lamp voltage required for a low output power operation is also obtained.

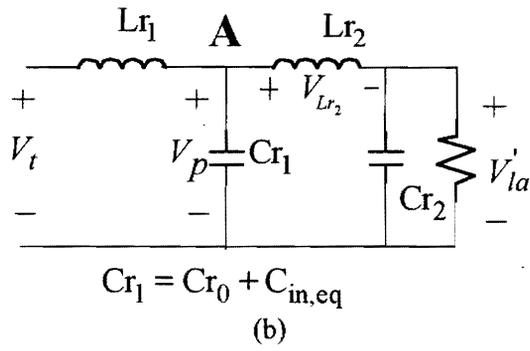
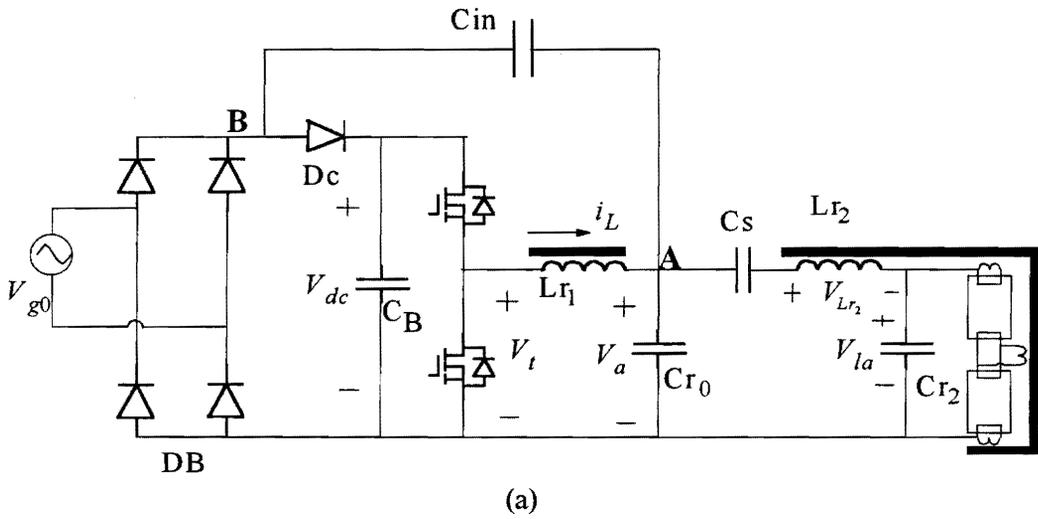


Fig. 3.8 LFSR technique:  
 (a) circuit diagram, (b) approximate ac equivalent circuit for the resonant tank

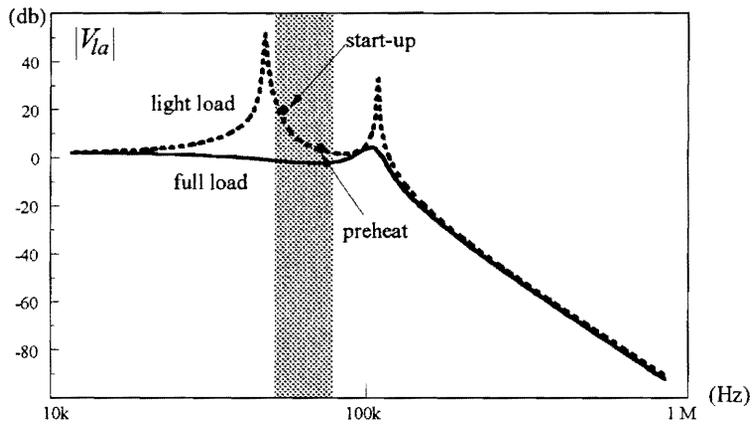
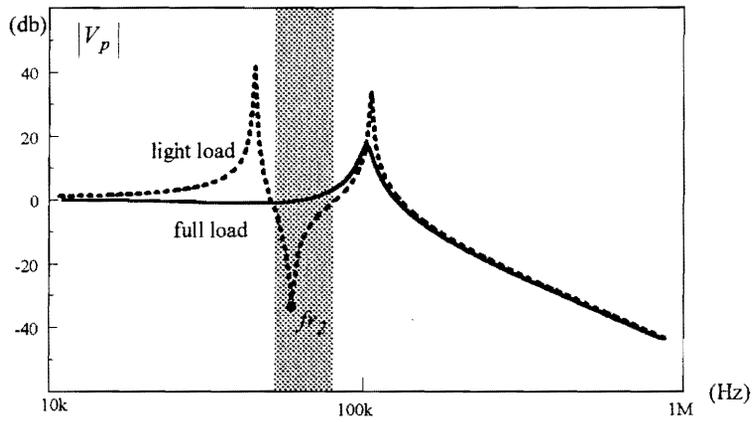


Fig. 3.9 Normalized  $V_p$  and  $V_{la}$

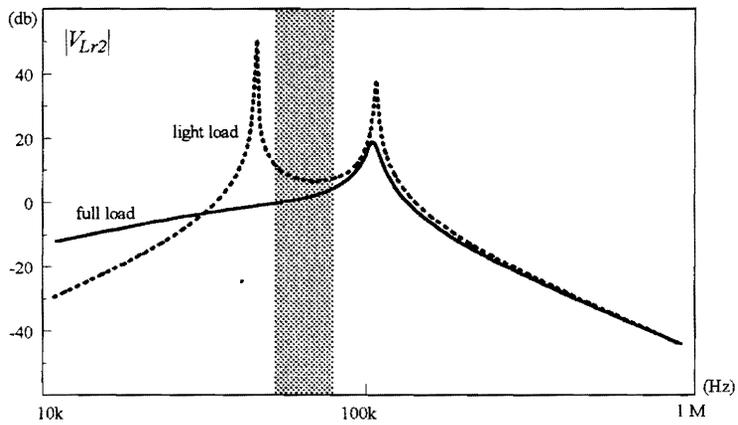


Fig. 3.10 Normalized  $V_{Lr2}$

The filament windings in this circuit are coupled to  $L_{r2}$  (Fig. 3.8). The purpose is to reduce the filament power loss at full load. As shown in Fig. 3.10, inside the shaded area,  $V_{Lr2}$  at light load is larger than that at full load. Therefore, the filament current at full load can be reduced.

Although the LFSR technique increases the size of  $L_{r2}$ , it can greatly reduce the size of  $L_{r1}$ . The reason is that  $V_p$  at the startup mode is much smaller than that with high frequency second-stage resonance technique. The volt-seconds applied on  $L_{r1}$  at the startup mode are reduced dramatically. Therefore, the maximum inductor current decreases significantly. The size of  $L_{r1}$  can be much smaller.

The major advantage of this strategy is that high voltage can be continuously impressed on the lamp during the lamp start-up mode without facing the possibility of the running away of  $V_{dc}$ . In case of the lamp failure, the light load characteristics automatically prevent  $V_{dc}$  from rising high. The reliability of the electronic ballast improves. In the contrast, the HFSR technique has to rely on the protection circuit when the lamp fails. Moreover, the proper ignition of the lamp very much depends on the control circuit parameters and the lamp characteristics. In practice, since these component parameters are discrete, the ignition time varies from lamp to lamp. It may become an annoying experience if it takes dozens of restart attempts (usually it takes several hundred milliseconds for one restart attempt) to turn on a lamp. Unsynchronized ignitions of the different lamps in a large room can also become a mental nuisance.

### 3.3 Experimental results:

The experiments were carried out to verify the proposed strategies of reducing the dc bus voltage at light loads. Two FHF32 lamps (manufactured by Matsushita) were used. This type of lamp requires 0.4 Arms preheating current (for 1 second preheat time) and 400 Vrms per lamp ignition voltage (107 Vrms per lamp for 45-W output power). The input line voltage is 277 Vrms or 392  $V_{\text{peak}}$ . The goal was to limit the maximum  $V_{\text{dc}}$  at startup instant to be less than 450 V.

#### 3.3.A) *Experimental results of Strategy I: HFSR with instant startup*

Both second-stage resonance techniques were carried out. Under room temperature, both methods achieve the desired low  $V_{\text{dc}}$  at start-up instant.

##### 3.3.A.i) Reducing $C_{\text{in}}$ at the preheat mode

Figure 3.11 shows the experimental result of the circuit shown in Fig. 3.1(a). The components were chosen as:  $C_{\text{in}}=20.6$  nF,  $L_{\text{in}}=100$  uH,  $C_{\text{in}1}=10$  nF,  $L_r=520$  uH,  $C_r=1$  nF, the transformer turns ratio=1:1.8. Due to the modulation of  $L_{\text{in}}$ , the equivalent  $C_{\text{in}}$  is larger than its real value at the normal operating frequency(see Fig. 3.1.a). So  $C_{\text{in}}$  is smaller than that calculated by Eq. (2.14). The preheating current of more than 600 mA was achieved at a frequency of about 120 kHz. The steady-state  $V_{\text{dc}}$  at the preheat mode was about 385 V.

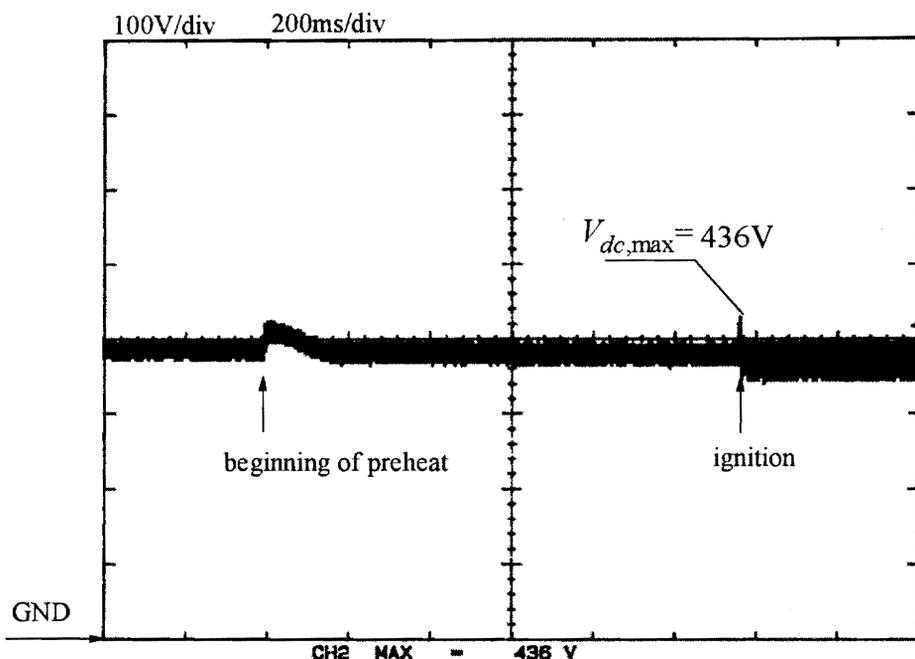


Fig. 3.11 Experimental results of Strategy I by reducing  $C_{in}$

The bump of  $V_{dc}$  shown in Fig. 3.11 at the beginning of the preheat mode can be reduced by “soft-start”: the frequency is set to a frequency higher than  $f_{r2}$ , e.g., 200 kHz, in the beginning of preheating, and then swept to  $f_{r2}$ , e.g., 120 kHz, gradually. As shown in Fig. 3.11, the maximum  $V_{dc}$  at the preheat and start-up modes is only about 436 V.

### 3.3.A.ii) Reducing $V_p$ at the preheat mode

The circuit shown in Fig. 3.3(a) was implemented to reduce  $V_p$  at the preheat mode. Figure 3.12 shows the experimental result. In this experiment, the components were:  $L_{r1}=500 \mu\text{H}$ ,  $C_{r0}=3.3 \text{ nF}$ ,  $C_{in}=28 \text{ nF}$ ,  $L_{r2}=100 \mu\text{H}$ ,  $C_b=47 \mu\text{F}$  (450 V),  $C_{r2}=1.5 \text{ nF}$ , the transformer turns ratio=1:1.82. The preheating current of about 480 mA was achieved at

the frequency of about 150 kHz. The steady state  $V_{dc}$  at the preheat mode was about 405 V. Under instant start-up, the maximum  $V_{dc}$  at ignition instant was about 424 V.

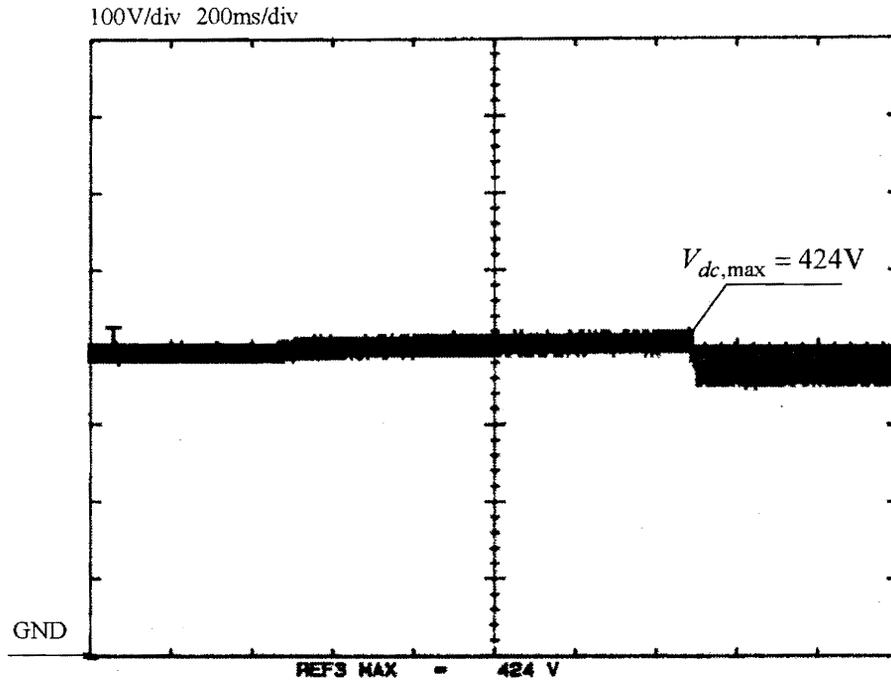


Fig. 3.12 Experimental results of Strategy I obtained by reducing  $V_p$

### 3.3.B) Strategy II: LFSR technique

The circuit shown in Fig. 3.8(a) was carried out. Figure 3.13 shows the experimental result. The components were chosen as:  $L_{r1}=520 \mu\text{H}$ ,  $C_{r0}=10 \text{ nF}$ ,  $L_{r2}=710 \mu\text{H}$ ,  $C_{r2}=12 \text{ nF}$  and  $C_{in}=36 \text{ nF}$ . The preheating frequency was 55 kHz, the ignition frequency was 47 kHz. Steady-state  $V_{dc}$  was 385 V at preheat mode and 450 V at the startup mode. The preheating filament current was about 480 mA. From Fig. 3.13, we can see that the maximum  $V_{dc}$  at startup instant is only about 420 V.

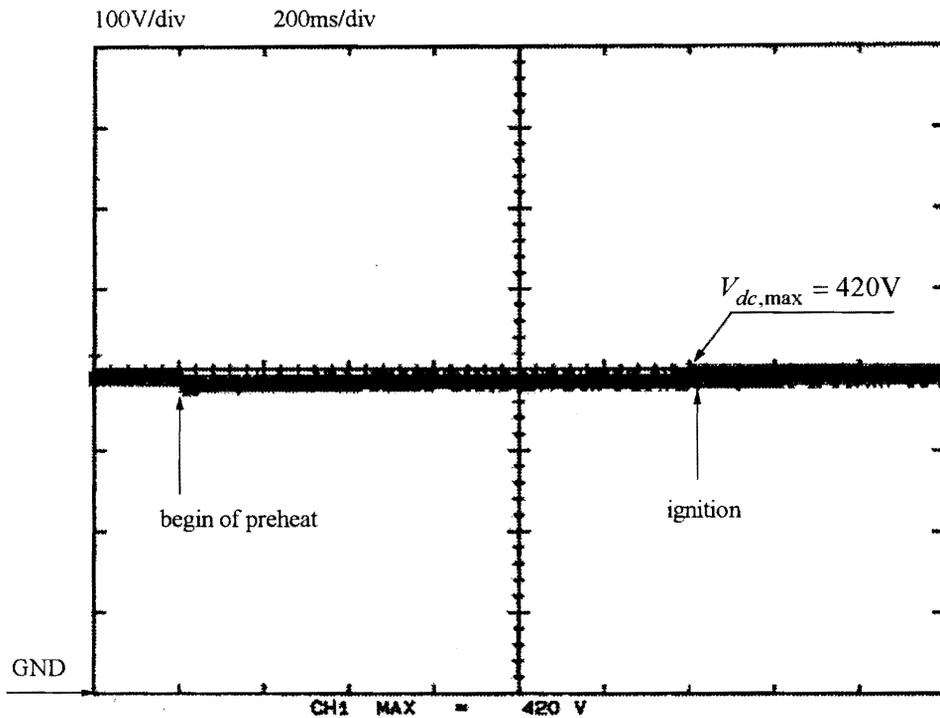


Fig. 3.13 Experimental result of Strategy II

### 3.4 Summary

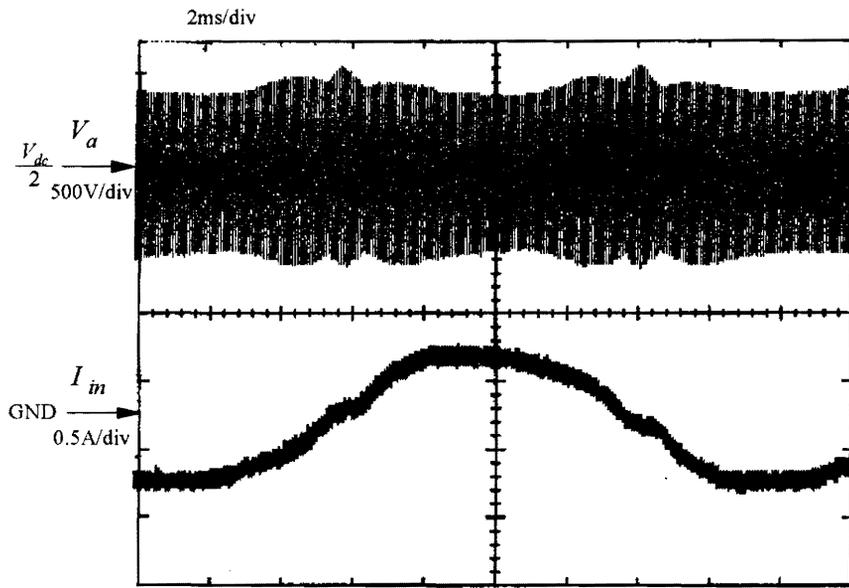
In this chapter, the second-stage resonance techniques were proposed to reduce the dc bus voltage ( $V_{dc}$ ) at light loads operation. Two strategies of reducing  $V_{dc}$  at light loads were developed for the electronic ballast operation. Strategy I, which applies the HFSR technique to reducing  $V_{dc}$  at the preheat mode and adopts the instant start-up to limit the maximum  $V_{dc}$ , proves to be effective in the lab. But this strategy might not be viable in practice. On the contrary, the LFSR technique can limit  $V_{dc}$  under any load conditions through proper design. The reliability of the circuit improves. If the isolation is not required, the number of magnetic components does not increase. Furthermore, the size of the original inductor  $L_{r1}$  is greatly reduced. The total cost can be reduced.

## Chapter 4 Approach to reducing the THD of the input current and the crest factor of lamp current

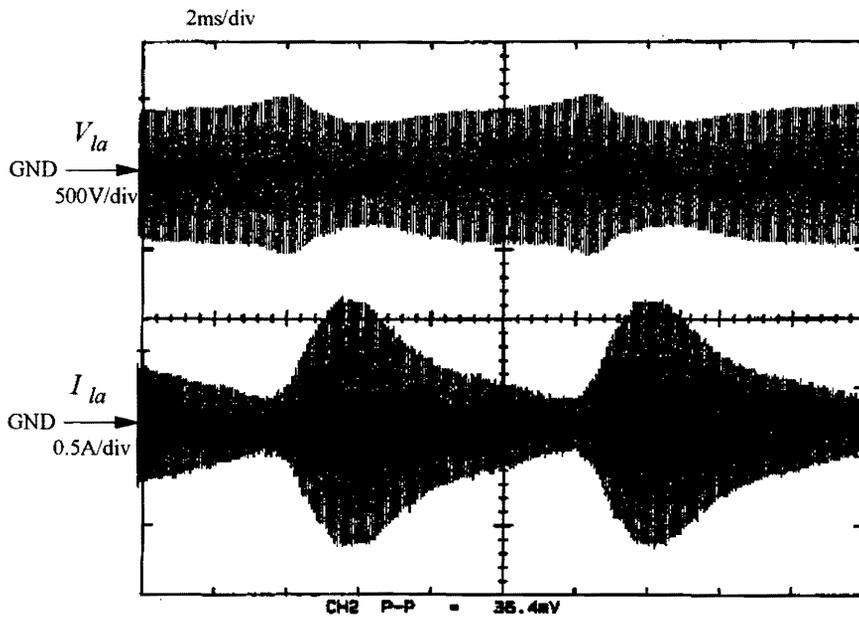
Because of the existence of  $C_{in}$ ,  $V_a$  is affected by the line voltage (Section 2.2). The 120-Hz ripple is imposed on the envelope of  $V_a$ . Thus the crest factor of the lamp current is high. In addition, the condition for the unity power factor,  $2V_p=V_{dc}$ , cannot be satisfied all the time in a complete line cycle. As a result, the input current is not purely sinusoidal. The THD of the input current increases.

By applying LFSR technique (Section 3.3.b), the waveform of the lamp current can be near sinusoidal because of the second filter stage:  $L_{r2}$  and  $C_{r2}$ . But there is still the 120-Hz ripple on the envelope of  $V_a$ . The input current waveform is still distorted. Since this 120-Hz ripple is amplified by the second LC stage, the crest factor of the lamp current can be very poor.

Figure 4.1 shows the experimental waveforms of the input current, lamp voltage and lamp current. The power factor was measured to be 0.98, the THD was 10.4% and the crest factor of the lamp current was about 2.4. The components were:  $C_{in}=36$  nF,  $C_{r0}=10$  nF,  $L_{r1}=420$  uH,  $C_{r2}=12$  nF and  $L_{r2}=710$  uH. The preheating frequency was 55 kHz. The steady state  $V_{dc}$  is 387 V. The ignition frequency was designed to be 47 kHz, and the corresponding steady state  $V_{dc}$  was 450 V. The normal operating frequency was 40 kHz, and the lamp output power was about 80 W.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4.1 Experimental waveforms of LFSR technique:  
 (a) input current and  $V_a$ , (b) lamp voltage and lamp current

Since the reason for the high THD of the input current is the 120-Hz ripple on the envelope of  $V_a$ , the input current waveform can be improved if the envelope of  $V_a$  is smoothed out. If the circuit shown in Fig. 3.8.(a) is designed so that the envelope of  $V_a$  is

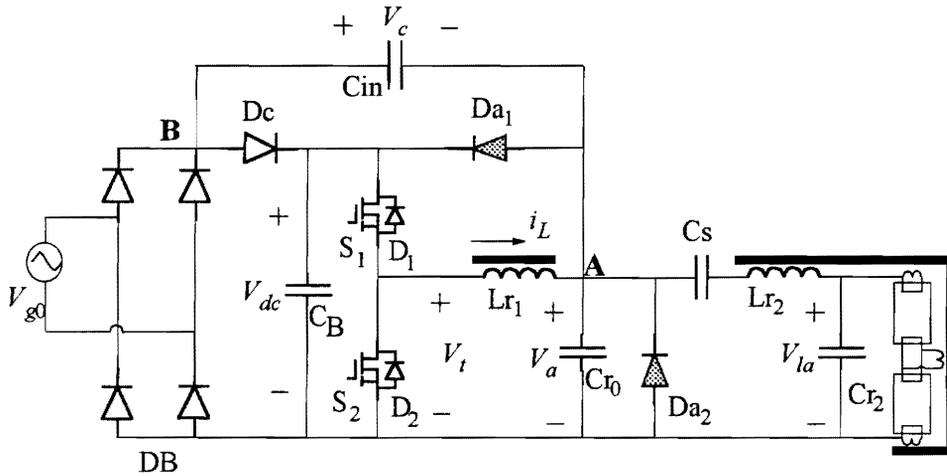


Fig. 4.2 The modified circuit with LFSR

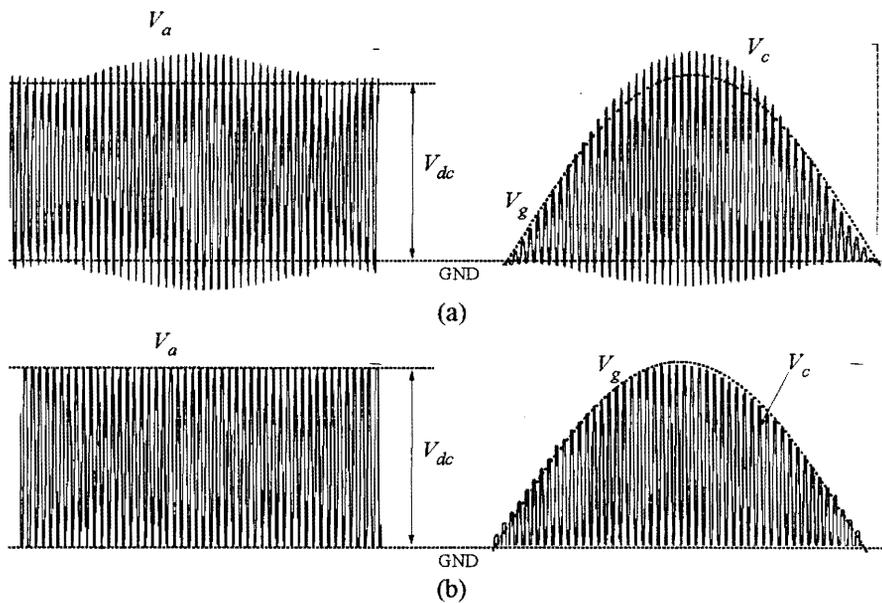


Fig. 4.3 Waveforms of  $V_a$  and  $V_c$ : (a) without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ , (b) with  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$

always larger than the dc bus, i.e.,  $2V_p > V_{dc}$ , the simple diode clamping technique can be applied. The proposed circuit is shown in Fig. 4.2. Compared to the circuit shown in Fig. 3.8(a), two extra diodes,  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ , are added to clamp the envelope of  $V_a$ .

#### 4.1 Analysis of the operation principle of the proposed circuit

The key waveforms of this circuit are described in Fig. 4.3. Without the diodes  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ , the circuit is designed so that the peak-to-peak value of  $V_a$ ,  $2V_p$  (or  $V_{a,pp}$ ), is never smaller than  $V_{dc}$ . The waveforms  $V_a$  and  $V_c$  are depicted in Fig. 4.3(a). Under this condition, the input current will not follow the input voltage according to Eq. (2.6). After adding diodes  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ ,  $V_{a,min}=0$  and  $V_{a,max}=V_{dc}$  result (see Fig. 4.3.b). Correspondingly, we can have  $V_{c,max}=V_g$  and  $V_{c,min}=0$ . Then the input average current becomes

$$i_{in,av} = f_s C_{in} (V_{c,max} - V_{c,min}) = f_s C_{in} V_g \propto V_g. \quad (4.1)$$

Therefore, the good input power factor is automatically obtained without any additional control.

The steady state operation in one switching cycle includes six types of operation modes in one switching cycle, as shown in Fig. 4.4.  $Z_A$  stands for the impedance seen from point A.

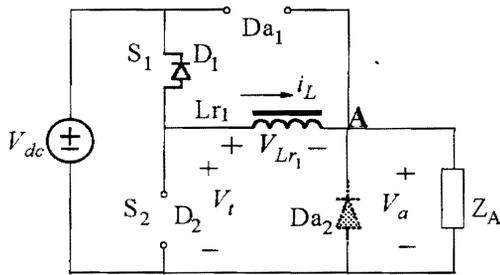
The six operation modes are explained as follows.

##### Mode 1:

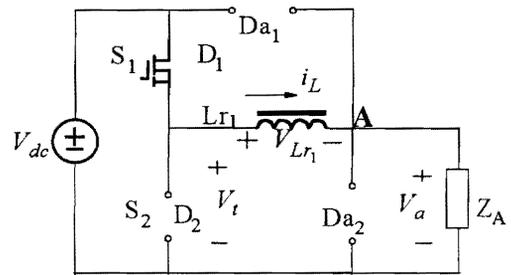
$S_2$  is off. The negative inductor current flows through  $D_1$ .  $S_1$  can be turned on with ZVS. In this mode,  $V_a$  is less than  $V_{dc}$ .  $V_{Lr1}$  is always positive. Consequently, the magnitude of the inductor current  $i_L$  decreases. This mode ends when  $i_L$  decreases to zero.

Mode 2:

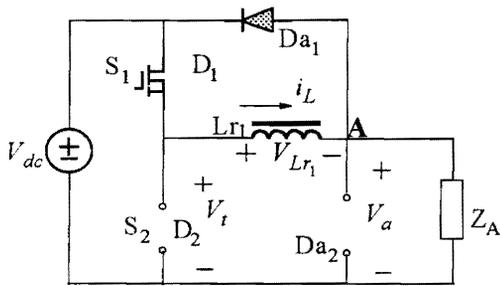
$S_1$  conducts. Since  $V_a$  is between 0 and  $V_{dc}$ , both  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$  are off. The positive inductor current  $i_{Lr1}$  keeps increasing due to the polarity of the inductor voltage. The operation mode ends when  $V_a$  reaches  $V_{dc}$ , or when  $S_1$  turns off.



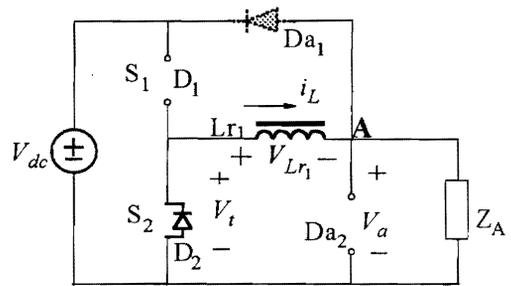
MODE 1:  $i_L < 0$  &  $0 \leq V_a < V_{dc}$



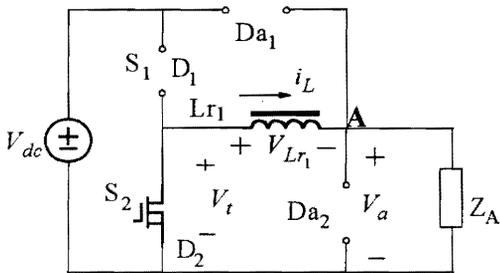
MODE 2:  $i_L > 0$  &  $0 < V_a < V_{dc}$



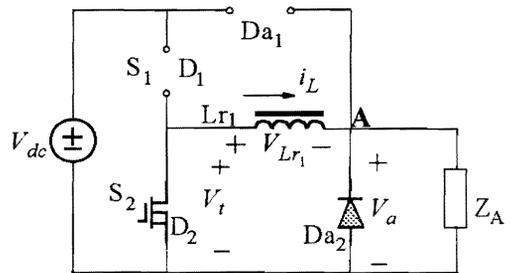
MODE 3:  $i_L > 0$  &  $V_a = V_{dc}$



MODE 4:  $i_L > 0$  &  $0 < V_a \leq V_{dc}$



MODE 5:  $i_L < 0$  &  $0 < V_a < V_{dc}$



MODE 6:  $i_L < 0$  &  $V_a = 0$

Fig. 4.4 Six operation modes in the proposed circuit

Mode 3 (clamping mode):

$Da_1$  and  $S_1$  conducts,  $V_a$  is clamped to  $V_{dc}$ .  $V_{Lr1}$  is zero; therefore,  $i_{Lr1}$  remains constant.

This mode ends when  $V_a$  becomes less than  $V_{dc}$ , or when  $S_1$  turns off.

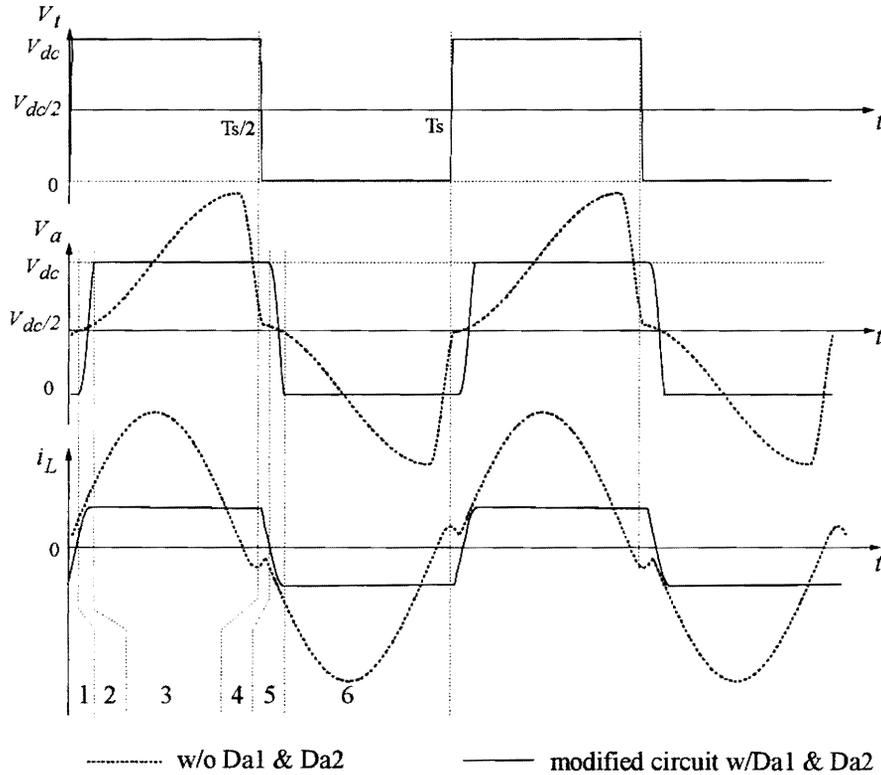


Fig. 4.5 Simulation waveforms of the inverter tank with and without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$

Mode 4:

$S_1$  is off, forcing the positive inductor current to flow through  $D_2$ . Consequently, ZVS turn-on of  $S_2$  is obtained. In this operation mode,  $V_a$  is always positive. Consequently, the inductor voltage  $V_{Lr1}$  is always negative. The inductor current decreases. This mode ends when the inductor current becomes zero.

#### Mode 5:

$S_2$  is on. Neither  $Da_1$  nor  $Da_2$  conducts.  $V_a$  is between  $V_{dc}$  and zero. The voltage applied on  $Lr_1$  is negative. Therefore, the inductor current keeps increasing in the opposite direction as shown in Fig. 4.4. This mode ends when  $V_a$  decreases to zero, or when  $S_2$  turns off.

#### Mode 6 (clamping mode):

$V_a$  is clamped to zero. The inductor current freewheels through  $Da_2$  and  $S_2$ . This mode ends when  $V_a$  becomes larger than zero, or when  $S_2$  turns off.

There are many kinds of operation sequences in one switching cycle. The most common one is : Mode 1→2→3→4→5→6.

## **4.2 Merits of the proposed circuit**

Through the proper design,  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$  conduct exactly once in each switching throughout the entire line cycle. The peak to peak value of  $V_a$  ( $2V_p$ ) is then clamped to  $V_{dc}$  during the whole line cycle. The proposed circuit will have a near unity power factor, a reduced THD and an improved crest factor. Moreover, ZVS is always ensured even if the original resonant tank (without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ ) is operated in the capacitive mode.

### *4.2.A Ensured ZVS operation:*

Because of the polarity of the voltage applied on  $Lr_1$ , the magnitude of the inductor current  $i_L$  always increases in Modes 2 and 5, and remains constant during Modes 3 and 6. The inductor current is thus always positive at the turn-off of  $S_1$  (the end of Mode 2 or 3 ) and negative at the turn-off of  $S_2$  (the end of Mode 5 or 6). Therefore, ZVS turn on of  $S_2$

(in Mode 4) and ZVS turn-on of  $S_1$  (in Mode 1) are always ensured regardless whether the original resonant tank (without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ ) operates in the capacitive mode or in the inductive mode. This is a big improvement upon the original circuit in Fig. 2.1.

As shown in Fig. 4.5, the original resonant tank (without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ ) is operated in the capacitive mode ( $i_L$  leads  $V_t$ ). The dotted trace stands for the waveforms in the circuit without  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ : the inductor current  $i_L$  leads the tank voltage  $V_t$ , resulting in the loss of ZVS. With the diodes  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ , the inductor current always lags the tank voltage. ZVS is therefore maintained.

#### *4.2.B Improved power factor and reduced THD of input current:*

Since the positive and negative peaks of  $V_a$  are clamped to  $V_{dc}$  and zero respectively, the peak-to-peak value of  $V_a$  always equals to  $V_{dc}$ . From the previous discussion, the good input power factor is always guaranteed. The THD of the input current is very small. This is one major merit of the proposed circuit shown in Fig. 4.2.

#### *4.2.C Improved crest factor*

Another major merit of this proposed circuit is the improvement of the crest factor of the lamp current. Since the 120-Hz ripple of  $V_{dc}$  is negligible, the ac amplitude of  $V_a$  can be considered constant over half line cycle. After being filtered out by  $Lr_2$  and  $Cr_2$ , the lamp voltage can be a very good sinusoidal waveform with the roughly constant amplitude. The crest factor of the lamp current is thus reduced.

### 4.3 Design considerations:

Design of the proposed circuit shown in Fig. 4.2 is outlined as follows:

- i) by choosing  $V_{dc}$  to be slightly higher than  $V_{gp}$ , and assuming that the peak-to-peak value of  $V_a$  is  $V_{dc}$ , i.e.,  $2V_p=V_{dc}$ ,  $C_{in}$  is chosen according to Eq. (2.14);
- ii)  $L_{r2}$  and  $C_{r2}$  are designed at first to provide the desirable second-stage resonant frequency (refer to Section 3.2.b) and the required lamp voltage;
- iii) assuming the nonexistence of  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$ ,  $L_{r1}$  and  $C_{r1}$  can be chosen to obtain  $2V_p > V_{dc}$  all over the half line cycle (it should be noticed that  $V_p$  need not be constant as in Step iii in Section 2.3).

After that,  $Da_1$  and  $Da_2$  are added.

### 4.4 Experimental Results

Figure 4.6 shows the experimental waveforms of input current,  $V_a$ , lamp voltage and lamp current. The components were chosen as:  $L_{r1}=400$   $\mu$ H,  $C_{r1}=1.2$  nF,  $C_{in}=30$  nF,  $L_{r2}=820$   $\mu$ H and  $C_{r2}=10$  nF. The input line voltage was 277 Vrms,  $V_{dc}$  was 397V at the normal operating frequency of 48 kHz. Output power was measured to be 94 W. It can be seen from Fig. 4.6(a) that the envelope of  $V_a$  is flat over the line cycle and the input current is very close to a sine wave. From Fig. 4.6(b), we can see that the lamp voltage envelope is also flat over line cycle. Consequently, the lamp current amplitude variation is much smaller than that shown in Fig. 4.1(b). The power factor was measured to be 0.995, and

THD was 4.3%. The crest factor of the lamp current was greatly reduced.  $CF=1.62$  was measured.

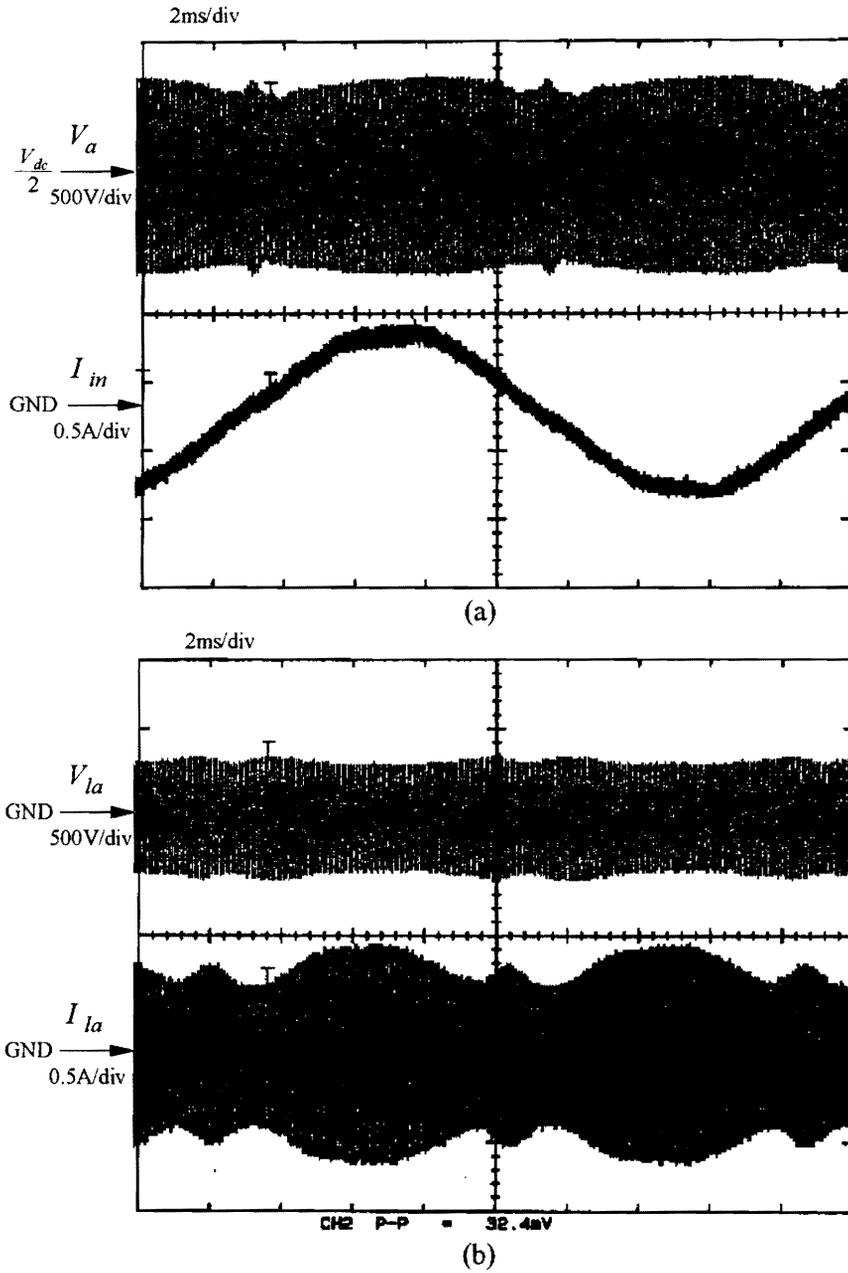


Fig. 4.6 The experimental results of proposed circuit:  
(a) input current and  $V_a$ , (b) lamp voltage and lamp current

Figure 4.7 shows the experimental waveform of  $V_{dc}$ . The steady state  $V_{dc}$  for the preheat mode was 392 V at the frequency of 55 kHz, and 420 V at the ignition frequency of 48 kHz. The maximum  $V_{dc}$  at the ignition instant was measured to be about 416 V.

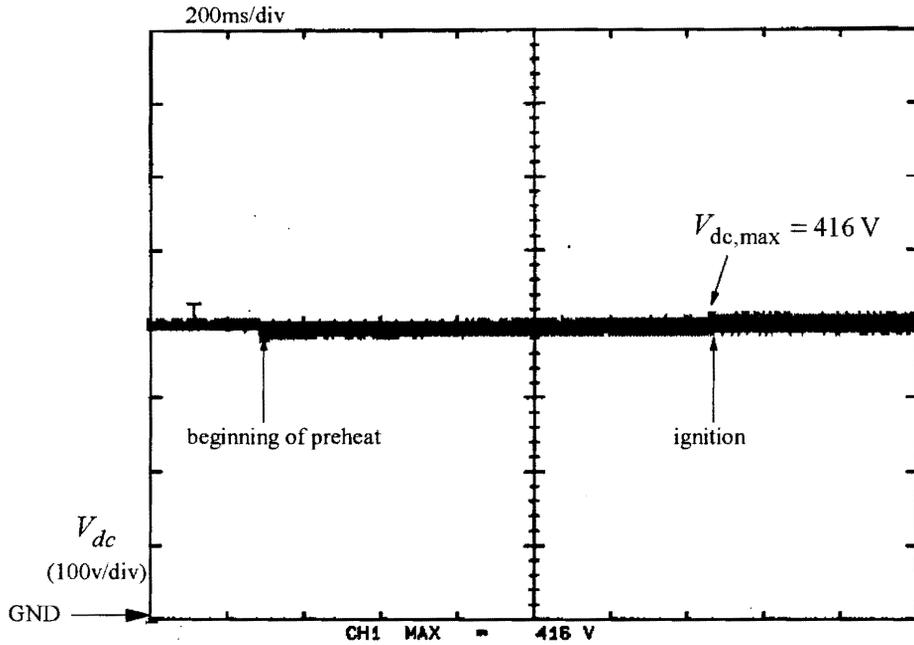


Fig. 4.7  $V_{dc}$  in the proposed circuit

## 4.5 Summary

By applying the LFSR technique, the proposed circuit reduces the steady state dc bus voltage at light loads including the startup operation mode. With the employment of two clamping diodes, this ballast has a near unity power factor, and a small THD without any additional control. Moreover, the crest factor of the lamp current is reduced to about 1.6. Due to the freewheeling stage introduced by the clamping diodes, the circulating energy in this circuit increases. The efficiency may suffer slightly.

## Chapter 5 Conclusion

The “charge pump” electronic ballast has become an attractive ballast topology for the discharge lamps because it eliminates the need of the bulky boost inductor. However, the devices in this circuit suffers the high voltage stress under light load conditions; the THD of the input current and the crest factor of the lamp current are high because of the existence of the charging capacitor. To solve these problems, the novel techniques of reducing the dc bus voltage at light loads have been proposed; the diode clamping technique has been employed to reduce the THD of the input current and the crest factor of the lamp current.

The general principle of reducing the dc bus voltage at light loads is to employ the second-stage resonance to reduce  $V_p$  or equivalent  $C_{in}$ . The HFSR technique can provide sufficient preheating at low  $V_{dc}$ . Combined with the instant startup and the proper restart scheme, this technique can greatly reduce the maximum  $V_{dc}$  at the ignition instant. Experiments showed that the HFSR technique can limit the maximum  $V_{dc}$  to less than 450 volts with 277 Vrms input line voltage while  $V_{dc}$  at full load is about 400 volts. However, this circuit cannot reduce the steady state  $V_{dc}$  at the startup mode. When the high voltage continuously impresses on the lamp without igniting it,  $V_{dc}$  invariably ramps up. The protection and restart circuit has to be activated. Due to the discrete characteristics of the lamps and the ballasts, the lamps in one room may not be turned on at the same time by adopting this kind of technique. It has become a big concern for the ballast product.

The LFSR technique can reduce the steady state  $V_{dc}$  at light loads including the start-up mode. So the high ignition voltage can be continuously impressed on the lamp without increasing  $V_{dc}$ . The experiments showed that the steady-state dc bus voltage at the start-up mode can be below 450 V (with 277 Vrms input). Although an additional inductor is needed, the size of the original resonant inductor ( $L_{r1}$ ) is reduced greatly. The transformer can be eliminated if the isolation is not required.

Due to the influence of the charging capacitor  $C_{in}$ , there exists 120-Hz ripple on the envelope of  $V_a$  ( the high frequency ac voltage source). By adding two clamping diodes, the envelope of  $V_a$  is smoothed out. The experimental results showed that the near unity input power factor( $> 0.99$ ) , the low THD of input current ( $< 10\%$ ), and the low crest factor of the lamp current( $< 1.7$ ) can be achieved with the open-loop control.

Table 5.1 Performance comparison

	original circuit (Fig. 2.1)	HFSR w/instant start (Figs. 3.1, 3.2, 3.3)	LFSR w/diode clamp (Fig. 4.2)
power factor	0.925	0.93	0.993
THD	9.5%	10.5%	4-8%
crest factor	1.9-2.1	1.9-2.1	1.5-1.7
max. $V_{dc}$ at startup instant	$> 900$ V	$< 450$ V	$< 450$ V
steady-state $V_{dc}$ at start-up mode	$> 900$ V	$> 900$ V	$< 450$ V

Table 5.2 Non-magnetic component comparison

	original circuit (Fig. 2.1)	HFSR w/instant start (Figs. 3.1, 3.2, 3.3)	LFSR w/diode clamp (Fig. 4.2)
bridge diodes	1000 V	500 V	500 V
fast diodes	2 of 1000 V	2 of 500 V	4 of 500 V
MOSFETs	2 of 1000 V	2 of 500 V	2 of 500 V
bulk cap	1000 V	450 V	450 V
high frequency cap	3 of 1000 V	4 of 500 V	4 of 500 V

Table 5.3 Comparison of the magnetic components' volume ( unit: cm<sup>3</sup>)

	original circuit (Fig. 2.1)	HFSR w/instant start (Figs. 3.1, 3.2, 3.3)	LFSR w/diode clamp (Fig. 4.2)
L <sub>r1</sub>	35.3	35.3	21
L <sub>r2</sub> or L <sub>in</sub>	0	1.9	21
transformer	26.8	26.8	0
total	62.1	64	42

Table 5.1-3 list the performance and components comparison among the original circuit (shown in Fig. 2.1), the circuits using HFSR techniques (shown in Figs 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3) and the circuit using the LFSR and the diode clamp techniques (shown in Fig. 4.2). As can be seen from Table 5.1-3, by employing the LFSR and the diode clamping techniques, the circuit performance is improved dramatically; the voltage stresses of all the semiconductor

components and capacitors are reduced by half, and the number of the magnetic components remains the same while the size is reduced if the isolation is not required. Therefore, the cost of the proposed circuit shown in Fig. 4.2 is reduced dramatically. In conclusion, from the points of both of the performance and the cost, the improved circuit (shown in Fig. 4.2) is a promising topology for the fluorescent lamp ballast.

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## Vita

The author was born in Fuzhou, China, on July 10, 1970. He received the Bachelor of Science degree in Electrical Engineering from Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, China, in June, 1992. From 1992 to 1993, he was in the Masters of Science (M. S.) program at the same university. Since 1993, he has been with Virginia Power Electronics Center at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia, working toward his M. S. Degree. His research interest includes the high frequency dc/dc power converter, high frequency ac distributed power system, and high frequency electronic ballast.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Wei Chen". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style with a long horizontal tail stroke.