## **Electronic Circuits**

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## **Diodes** The diode is a 2-terminal device. A diode ideally conducts in

## **Diode Characteristics**



## **Semiconductor Materials**

Materials commonly used in the development of semiconductor devices:

- · Silicon (Si)
- Germanium (Ge)
   Gallium Arsenide (GaAs)

## **Doping**

The electrical characteristics of silicon and germanium are improved by adding materials in a process called doping.

There are just two types of doped semiconductor materials:

n-type p-type

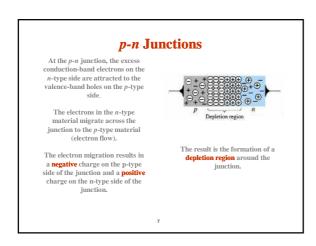
- n-type materials contain an excess of conduction band electrons.
  - p-type materials contain an excess of valence band holes.

## *p-n* Junctions

One end of a silicon or germanium crystal can be doped as a ptype material and the other end as an n-type material.

The result is a p-n junction



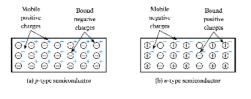


## **Doping of semiconductors**

- · Doping
  - the addition of small amounts of impurities drastically affects its properties
  - some materials form an excess of *electrons* and produce an *n*-type semiconductor
  - some materials form an excess of *holes* and produce a *p*-type semiconductor
  - both *n*-type and *p*-type materials have much greater conductivity than pure semiconductors
  - this is extrinsic conduction.

## **Doping of semiconductors (contd.)**

- The dominant charge carriers in a doped semiconductor (e.g. electrons in n-type material) are called majority charge carriers. The other type are minority charge carriers.
- The overall doped material is electrically neutral.



## pn Junctions

- When p-type and n-type materials are joined, this forms a pn junction
  - the majority charge carriers on each side diffuse across the junction where they combine with (and remove) the charge carriers of the opposite polarity.
  - hence, around the junction there are few free charge carriers and we have a depletion layer (also called a space-charge layer).

# pn Junctions (contd.) • The diffusion of positive charge in one direction and negative charge in the other produces a charge imbalance - this results in a potential barrier across the junction.

## pn Junctions (contd.)

- Potential barrier
  - the barrier opposes the flow of *majority* charge carriers and only a small number have enough energy to surmount it.
    - This generates a small diffusion current.
  - the barrier encourages the flow of *minority* carriers and any that come close to it will be swept over
    - This generates a small drift current.
  - for an isolated junction these two currents must balance each other and the net current is zero.

## pn Junctions (contd.)

- Forward bias
  - if the *p*-type side is made *positive* with respect to the *n*-type side the height of the barrier is reduced
  - more majority charge carriers have sufficient energy to surmount it
  - the diffusion current therefore increases while the drift current remains the same
  - there is thus a net current flow across the junction which increases with the applied voltage.

## pn Junctions (contd.)

- · Reverse bias
  - if the *p*-type side is made *negative* with respect to the *n*-type side the height of the barrier is increased
  - the number of majority charge carriers that have sufficient energy to surmount it rapidly decreases
  - the diffusion current therefore vanishes while the drift current remains the same
  - thus the only current is a small leakage current caused by the (approximately constant) drift current
  - $-\,$  the leakage current is usually negligible (a few nA).

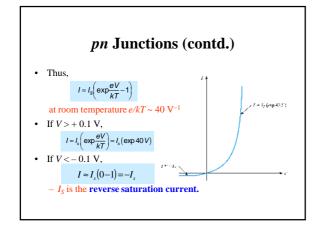
# Potential Potential

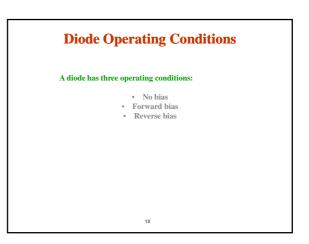
## pn Junctions (contd.)

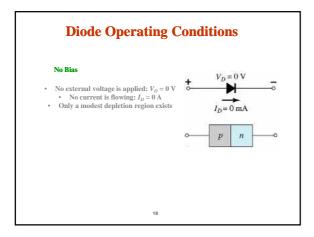
- · Forward and reverse currents
  - pn junction current is given approximately by

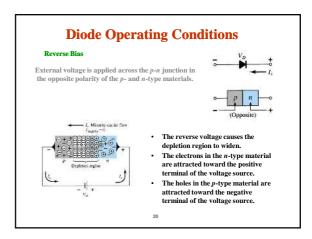
$$I = I_{s} \left( \exp \frac{eV}{\eta kT} - 1 \right)$$

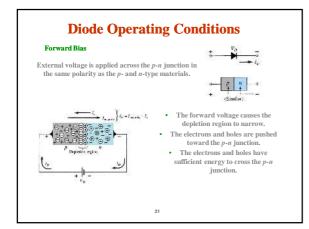
- where I is the current, e is the electronic charge, V is the applied voltage, k is Boltzmann's constant, T is the absolute temperature and  $\eta$  (Greek letter eta) is a constant in the range 1 to 2 determined by the junction material
- for most purposes we can assume  $\eta = 1$ .

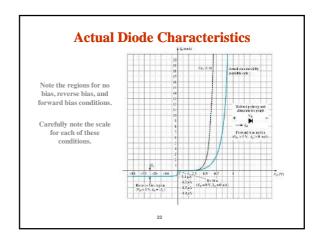




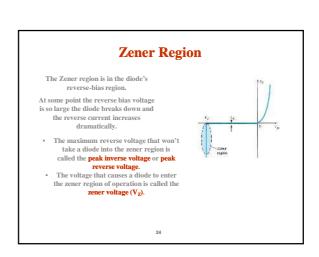








# Majority and Minority Carriers Two currents through a diode: Majority Carriers The majority carriers in n-type materials are electrons. The majority carriers in p-type materials are holes. Minority Carriers The minority carriers in n-type materials are holes. The minority carriers in p-type materials are electrons.



## **Forward Bias Voltage**

The point at which the diode changes from no-bias condition to forward-bias condition occurs when the electrons and holes are given sufficient energy to cross the p-n junction. This energy comes from the external voltage applied across the diode.

The forward bias voltage required for a:

- gallium arsenide diode  $\cong 1.2~V$  silicon diode  $\cong 0.7~V$ 

  - germanium diode  $\approx 0.3 \text{ V}$

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## **Temperature Effects**

As temperature increases it adds energy to the diode.

- · It reduces the required forward bias voltage for forwardbias conduction.
- · It increases the amount of reverse current in the reversebias condition.

Germanium diodes are more sensitive to temperature variations than silicon or gallium arsenide diodes.

## **Resistance Levels**

Semiconductors react differently to DC and AC currents.

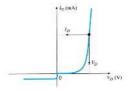
There are three types of resistance:

- DC (static) resistance
- AC (dynamic) resistance
- Average AC resistance

## **DC** (Static) Resistance

For a specific applied DC voltage  $V_D$ , the diode has a specific current  $I_D$ , and a specific resistance  $R_D$ .

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D}$$



## **AC (Dynamic) Resistance**

In the forward bias region:

$$r_d' = \frac{26\text{mV}}{I_D} + r_B$$

- The resistance depends on the amount of current  $({\cal I}_D)$  in the diode.
- The voltage across the diode is fairly constant (26 mV for 25°C).
- \*  $r_B$  ranges from a typical 0.1  $\Omega$  for high power devices to 2  $\Omega$  for low power, general purpose diodes. In some cases  $r_B$  can be ignored.

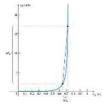
In the reverse bias region:

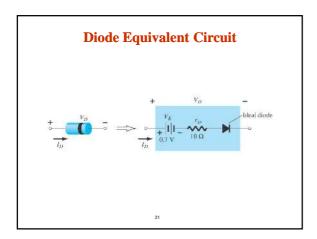
The resistance is effectively infinite. The diode acts like an open.

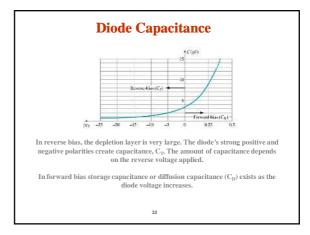
## **Average AC Resistance**

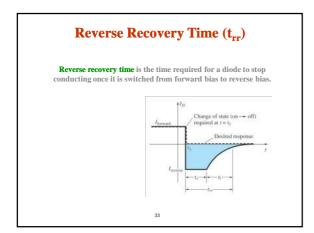
$$r_{av} = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} \mid \text{pt. to pt.}$$

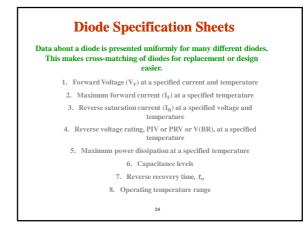
AC resistance can be calculated using the current and voltage values for two points on the diode

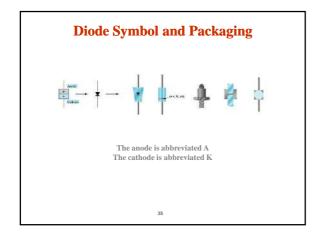


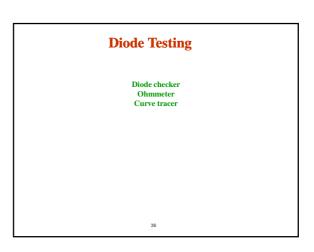












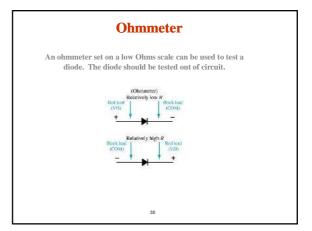
## **Diode Checker**

Many digital multimeters have a diode checking function. The diode should be tested out of circuit.

A normal diode exhibits its forward voltage:

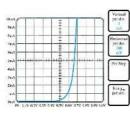
- $\begin{tabular}{ll} \bullet & Gallium \ arsenide $\cong 1.2 \ V$ \\ \bullet & Silicon \ diode $\cong 0.7 \ V$ \\ \bullet & Germanium \ diode $\cong 0.3 \ V$ \\ \end{tabular}$

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## **Curve Tracer**

A curve tracer displays the characteristic curve of a diode in the test circuit. This curve can be compared to the specifications of the diode from a data sheet.



## **Other Types of Diodes**

Zener diode Light-emitting diode Diode arrays

## **Zener Diode**

A Zener is a diode operated in reverse bias at the Zener voltage (Vz).

Common Zener voltages are between 1.8 V and 200 V



## **Light-Emitting Diode (LED)**

An LED emits photons when it is forward biased. These can be in the infrared or visible spectrum.

The forward bias voltage is usually in the range of 2 V to 3 V.



