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III B.TECH - V SEMESTER (2025-26)

CSE-Artificial intelligence & Machine Learning Electronic Devices and Circuits (231EC5001)

Q.No	Question	Marks	CO No.	Taxonomy
UNIT-1 (Review of Semiconductor Physics and Junction Diode Characteristics)				
1	A) Explain about Hall effect. Derive an expression for Hall voltage. What are the applications of Hall effect?	8	CO1	Understand
	B) In a P-type semiconductor, the Fermi level is 0.3 eV above the valance band at a room temperature of 300 K. Determine the new position of the Fermi level for temperatures of a) 350K and b) 400 K.	7	CO1	Apply
2	A) Derive an expression for continuity equation and explain its importance.	8	CO1	Understand
	B) Interpret the expression for Fermi level in case of intrinsic semiconductor.	7	CO1	Apply
3	A) Draw the Energy band diagram of PN diode and also Explain	8	CO1	Understand
	B) What is transition capacitance of a semiconductor diode? Explain how it arises	7	CO1	Understand
4	A) Draw the V-I characteristics and explain about the effect of temperature on diode characteristics.	7	CO1	Understand
	B) Explain the diffusion capacitance of a semiconductor diode and derive the expression for it.	8	CO1	Understand
5	A) Explain PN diode characteristics in forward bias and reverse bias regions.	5	CO1	Understand
	B) Explain about the current components in PN junction diode.	5	CO1	Understand
UNIT-2 (Special Semiconductor Devices and Rectifiers and Filters)				
1	A) Explain construction and operation of a Half Wave rectifier and Find the PIV, RMS voltage ripple efficiency of Half Wave Rectifier.	8	CO2	Understand
	B) A sinusoidal voltage whose $V_m = 25V$ is applied to a half-wave rectifier. The diode may be considered to be ideal and $R_L = 1.5 K\Omega$ is connected as load. Determine the following: (i) Peak value of current (ii) RMS value of current (iii) Ripple factor	7	CO2	Apply
2	A) Explain construction and operation of full wave rectifier with Inductor filter?	7	CO2	Understand
	B) Explain the construction and operation of SCR with characteristics.	8	CO2	Understand
3	A) Interpret the construction and operation of a bridge rectifier and find PIV, RMS current, Rectifier efficiency & Ripple factor.	8	CO2	Understand
	B) With neat diagram explain about varactor diode.	7	CO2	Understand
4	A) Explain the construction and operation of UJT along with characteristics.	8	CO2	Understand
	B) Compare HWR with FWR interms of their parameters.	7	CO2	Analyze
5	A) Explain V-I characteristics of a Tunnel diode with the help of its Fermi level diagram.	7	CO1	Understand
	B) In a bridge rectifier, the transformer is connected to 200V, 60Hz mains and the turns ratio of the step down transformer is 11:1. Assume the diode is ideal, find i) d.c. Voltage ii) d.c. Current iii) PIV	8	CO2	Apply

EDC MID-1 ANSWERS

UNIT-1

1 A) Explain about Hall effect. Derive an expression for Hall voltage. What are the applications of Hall effect?

Q1(a) Hall Effect

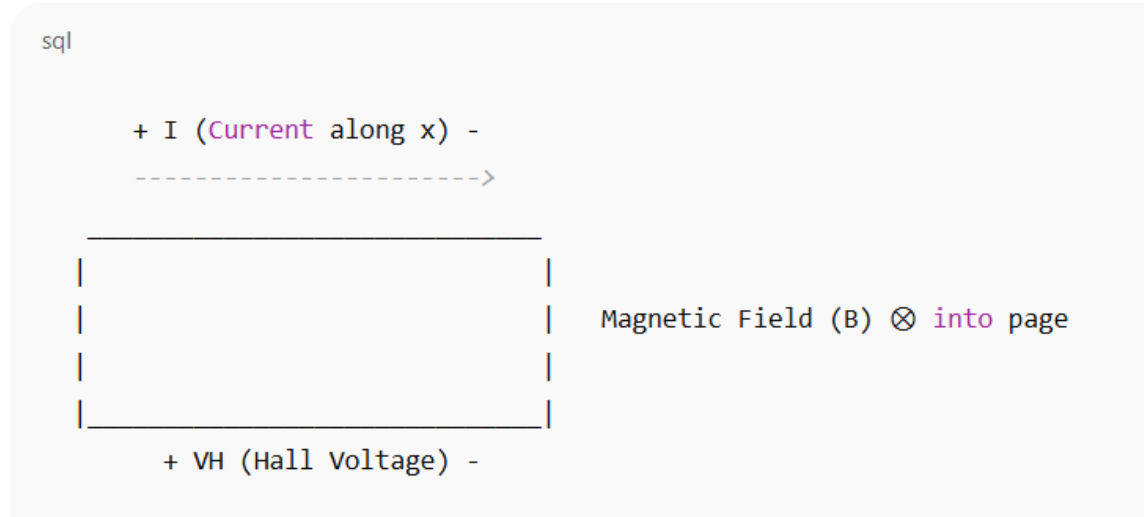
Definition

When a current flows through a semiconductor and a magnetic field is applied **perpendicular** to the current, a small voltage appears across the sides of the semiconductor.

This voltage is called the **Hall Voltage** and the effect is called the **Hall Effect**.

Explanation with Diagram

(You can draw this simple block diagram in the exam)



- Current flows through the block.
- Magnetic field is applied perpendicular (into the paper).
- Charge carriers are pushed to one side → a voltage appears across the sides (Hall Voltage).
- The polarity of this voltage shows whether the material is **n-type (negative carriers)** or **p-type (positive carriers)**.

Derivation of Hall Voltage

1. Current density:

$$J = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{I}{w \cdot t}$$

2. Drift velocity of carriers:

$$v_d = \frac{J}{nq} = \frac{I}{nq \cdot w \cdot t}$$

3. Magnetic force balances electric force:

$$qE_H = qv_d B \Rightarrow E_H = v_d B$$

4. Hall Voltage:

$$V_H = E_H \cdot w = \frac{IB}{nqt}$$

Hall Coefficient

$$R_H = \frac{1}{nq}$$

- Negative for **electrons (n-type)**.
- Positive for **holes (p-type)**.

Applications of Hall Effect

1. To find whether a semiconductor is **n-type or p-type**.
2. To measure **carrier concentration** in semiconductors.
3. To calculate **mobility of carriers**.
4. Used in **Hall probes** to measure magnetic field strength.
5. Used in **current sensors, speed sensors, and position sensors**.

Final Results (to box in exam)

$$V_H = \frac{IB}{nqt}, \quad R_H = \frac{1}{nq}$$

2) B) Interpret the expression for Fermi level in case of intrinsic semiconductor.

Q2(b) Fermi Level in Intrinsic Semiconductor

Definition of Fermi Level

The **Fermi level (E_F)** is the energy level at which the probability of finding an electron is **50%** at absolute zero temperature.

It is the reference energy that tells us the distribution of electrons in the conduction band and holes in the valence band.

Intrinsic Semiconductor

- An **intrinsic semiconductor** is a pure semiconductor (like Si, Ge) without impurities.
 - The number of **electrons in conduction band** = number of **holes in valence band**.
 - Therefore, the Fermi level lies **exactly in the middle** of the band gap.
-

Mathematical Expression

For intrinsic semiconductors:

- Electron concentration in conduction band:

$$n = N_c e^{-\frac{E_c - E_F}{kT}}$$

- Hole concentration in valence band:

$$p = N_v e^{-\frac{E_F - E_v}{kT}}$$

Since in intrinsic semiconductors $n = p$, equating both:

$$N_c e^{-\frac{E_c - E_F}{kT}} = N_v e^{-\frac{E_F - E_v}{kT}}$$

Taking logarithm and rearranging:

$$E_F = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2} + \frac{kT}{2} \ln \left(\frac{N_v}{N_c} \right)$$

Interpretation

- If the **effective mass of electrons = effective mass of holes**, then $N_c = N_v$.

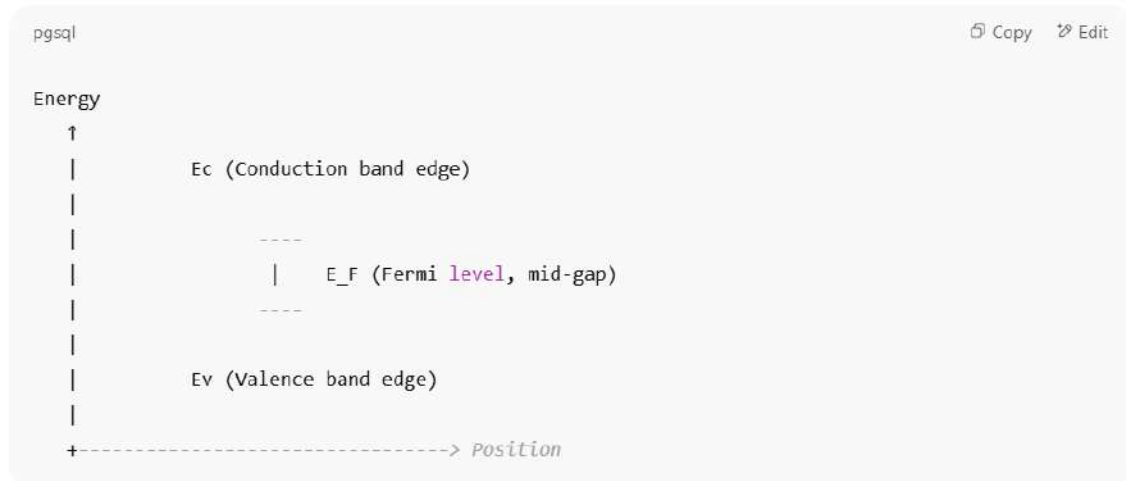
Hence the second term becomes zero, and:

$$E_F = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2}$$

→ Fermi level lies **exactly at the middle of the energy gap**.

- If the **effective masses are not equal**, the Fermi level shifts slightly toward the band with the **heavier effective mass**.
-

Diagram (easy to draw in exam)



- E_c = Conduction band edge
- E_v = Valence band edge
- E_F lies at the middle (for intrinsic case).

Applications / Importance (write 2–3 points for marks)

1. Helps in **understanding carrier concentration** in semiconductors.
 2. Explains the position of Fermi level for intrinsic materials.
 3. Acts as a **reference energy** for doping cases (n-type, p-type).
-

Final Result (box in exam)

$$E_F = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2} + \frac{kT}{2} \ln \left(\frac{N_v}{N_c} \right)$$

- For intrinsic semiconductor with equal masses:

$$E_F = \frac{E_c + E_v}{2}$$

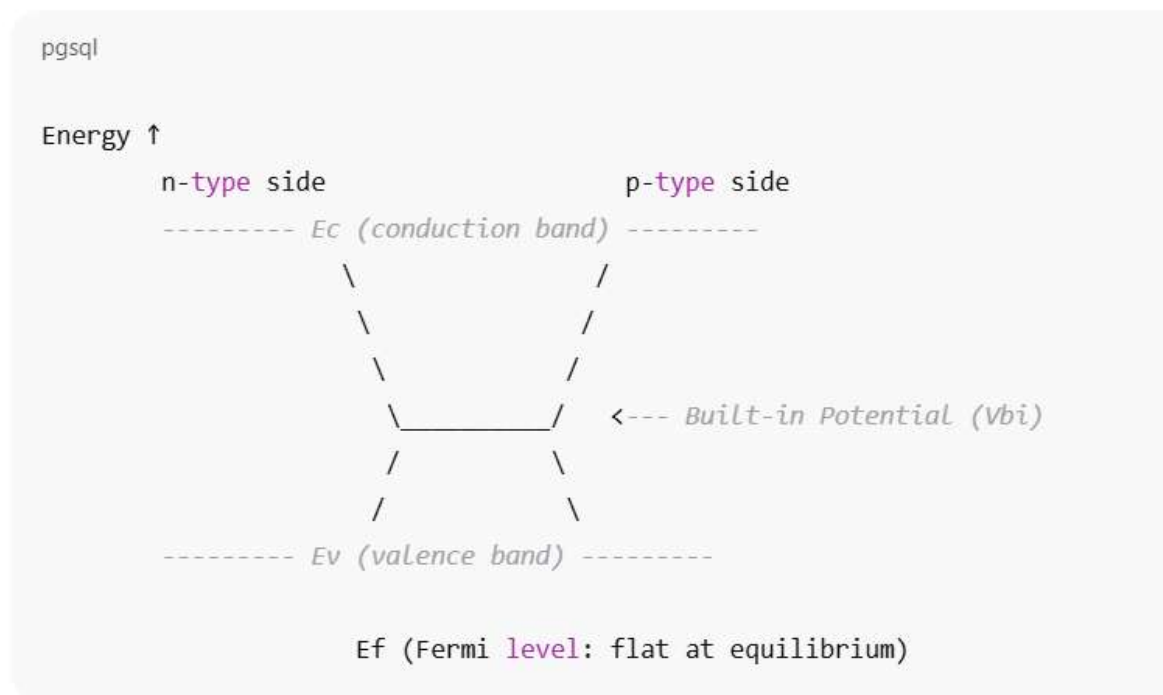
3) A) Draw the Energy band diagram of PN diode and also Explain.

Q3(a) Energy Band Diagram of PN Junction Diode

Introduction

- A **PN junction diode** is formed when a **p-type** semiconductor and an **n-type** semiconductor are joined together.
- At the junction, free electrons from the **n-side** diffuse into the **p-side**, and holes from the **p-side** diffuse into the **n-side**.
- This diffusion creates a **depletion region** with immobile ions, which produces a **built-in potential barrier**.
- The energy band diagram shows how the **conduction band (E_c)**, **valence band (E_v)**, and **Fermi level (E_F)** are aligned across the junction.

Energy Band Diagram (to draw in exam)



Explanation of diagram:

- On the **n-side**, the Fermi level is closer to the conduction band.
- On the **p-side**, the Fermi level is closer to the valence band.

- When they form a junction, the Fermi level becomes **constant throughout** at equilibrium.
 - This bending of energy bands at the junction represents the **potential barrier** and **depletion region**.
-

Explanation

1. Before joining (isolated p and n):

- n-type: Fermi level close to conduction band.
- p-type: Fermi level close to valence band.

2. After forming the junction (equilibrium):

- Electrons diffuse from $n \rightarrow p$ and holes diffuse from $p \rightarrow n$.
- This leaves behind charged ions, forming the **depletion region**.
- The energy bands bend, creating a **barrier potential (V_{bi})** that opposes further diffusion.

3. Fermi Level:

- At equilibrium, the Fermi level E_F becomes **flat and continuous** across the junction.
 - This indicates there is **no net current** flow when unbiased.
-

Key Points to Write

- **Depletion region** is shown by the band bending.
 - **Barrier potential (V_{bi})** is the energy difference created at the junction.
 - Fermi level is **constant at equilibrium**.
-

Applications / Importance (2–3 points)

1. Explains how current flows when diode is forward/reverse biased.

2. Helps to understand the role of **potential barrier**.
 3. Useful for analyzing diode characteristics (covered later in Unit-1).
-

Final Answer (Box this in exam)

- At equilibrium:

$$E_F = \text{constant across the junction}$$

- Energy bands bend to form a **potential barrier** at the depletion region.
- Conduction band E_c , valence band E_v , and Fermi level E_F must be shown in the diagram.

4) A) Draw the V-I characteristics and explain about the effect of temperature on diode characteristics.

Q4(a) V-I Characteristics of a Diode and Effect of Temperature

Introduction

A PN junction diode allows current to flow easily in one direction (forward bias) and blocks current in the opposite direction (reverse bias).

The relation between **voltage (V)** across the diode and **current (I)** through the diode is called the V-I characteristics.

The diode current is given by:

$$I = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

- I_s : Reverse saturation current
 - $V_T = \frac{kT}{q}$: Thermal voltage
 - η : Emission constant (1 for Ge, 2 for Si)
-

V-I Characteristics (to draw in exam)

perl

I ↑



- **Forward Bias:** After a certain threshold (cut-in voltage), current increases exponentially.
 - For **Silicon (Si)**: cut-in $\approx 0.7\text{ V}$
 - For **Germanium (Ge)**: cut-in $\approx 0.3\text{ V}$
- **Reverse Bias:** Very small reverse current flows (reverse saturation current I_s).
If reverse voltage is increased heavily, the diode breaks down.

Effect of Temperature

1. **Reverse Saturation Current (I_s)** increases rapidly with temperature.
 - For every 10°C rise, I_s roughly **doubles**.
2. **Forward Voltage (V_F)** decreases as temperature increases.
 - For Silicon, forward voltage drops by about $2\text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$.
3. **Overall effect:**
 - At higher temperature \rightarrow diode conducts **more current** at the same forward voltage.
 - Reverse leakage also increases, which can cause **thermal runaway** in power devices.

Explanation in Simple Steps

- At **room temperature**, Si diode needs **0.7 V** to conduct.
- If temperature rises, conduction starts at a slightly **lower voltage** (e.g., 0.68 V , 0.66 V , etc.).
- Reverse leakage current, normally very small, becomes **larger** at higher temperatures.

Applications of Temperature Effect

1. Important in designing **rectifiers and voltage regulators**.
 2. Used in **temperature sensors** (diode junction as a thermometer).
 3. Explains why **heat sinks** are required in power diodes/transistors.
-

Final Boxed Points

- Diode current equation:

$$I = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

- Cut-in voltages: 0.7 V (Si), 0.3 V (Ge)
- I_s doubles for every 10°C rise
- Forward voltage decreases by $\approx 2 \text{ mV/}^\circ\text{C}$

4) B) Explain the diffusion capacitance of a semiconductor diode and derive the expression for it.

Q4(b) Diffusion Capacitance of a Semiconductor Diode

Introduction

- A **semiconductor diode** behaves like a capacitor under certain conditions.
 - When the diode is **forward biased**, large numbers of electrons and holes are injected across the junction.
 - This storage of charge in the depletion region and neutral regions gives rise to **Diffusion Capacitance (C_d)**.
 - It is called diffusion capacitance because it is related to the **transport (diffusion) of carriers** across the junction.
-

Definition

Diffusion capacitance is the capacitance that appears in a diode under **forward bias**, due to the **storage of minority carriers** in the junction region.

Diagram (simple sketch for exam)

mathematica

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Forward biased PN junction:

P-side (+) |—|<—| N-side (-)

Stored charge across junction → behaves like a capacitor

(Just draw a forward biased diode with "+" on P and "-" on N, then mark "Stored charge" across junction, label it as "Diffusion capacitance".)

Derivation of Diffusion Capacitance

1. Stored Charge (Q):

In forward bias, charge stored in the junction is proportional to the diode current I and the carrier lifetime τ :

$$Q = I \cdot \tau$$

2. Capacitance definition:

Capacitance is defined as rate of change of charge with voltage:

$$C_d = \frac{dQ}{dV}$$

3. Substituting Q :

$$C_d = \frac{d(I \cdot \tau)}{dV} = \tau \cdot \frac{dI}{dV}$$

4. Using diode current equation:

$$I = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

Differentiating:

$$\frac{dI}{dV} = \frac{I}{\eta V_T}$$

5. Final Expression:

$$C_d = \frac{\tau I}{\eta V_T}$$

Interpretation

- Diffusion capacitance is **directly proportional** to the diode current I .
- It is significant **only in forward bias** (because large current flows).
- In reverse bias, diffusion capacitance is negligible; instead, **transition capacitance** dominates.

Key Points to Write

- Exists under **forward bias**.
- Due to **minority carrier storage**.
- Formula:

$$C_d = \frac{\tau I}{\eta V_T}$$

Applications

1. Important in **high-frequency diode circuits** (since stored charge slows down switching).
2. Used in understanding **switching time** of diodes and transistors.
3. Affects the performance of **rectifiers** and **clipping circuits**.

5 A) Explain PN diode characteristics in forward bias and reverse bias regions.

Q5(a) PN Diode Characteristics in Forward and Reverse Bias

Introduction

- A **PN junction diode** conducts current in one direction (forward bias) and blocks current in the opposite direction (reverse bias).
- Its behavior can be studied using **V-I characteristics**.

The diode current equation is:

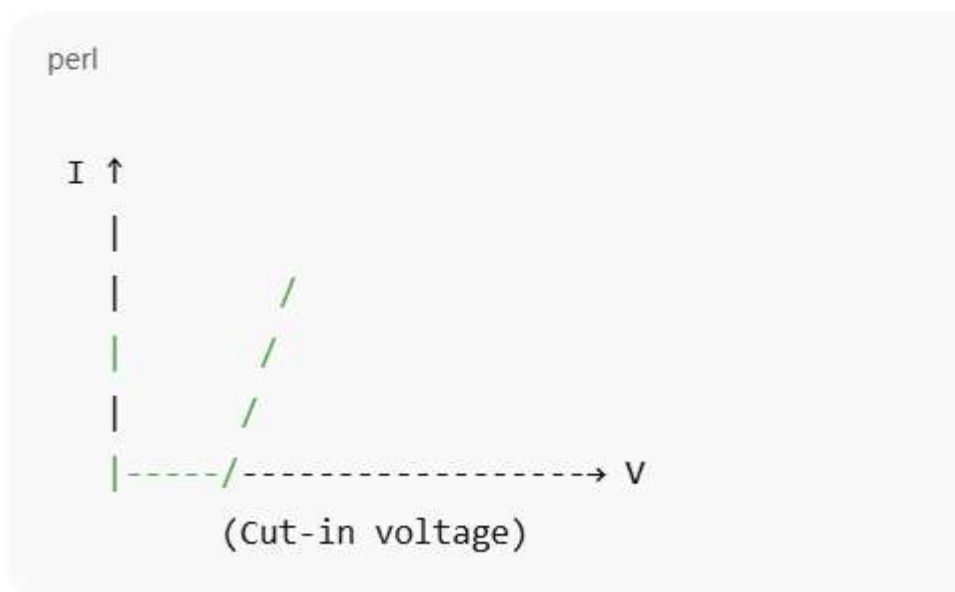
$$I = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

- I_s : Reverse saturation current
 - $V_T = \frac{kT}{q}$: Thermal voltage
 - η : Emission coefficient
-

1. Forward Bias Characteristics

- **Condition:** P-side connected to +ve of battery, N-side to -ve.
- The applied voltage reduces the **barrier potential**.
- When applied voltage > **cut-in voltage**:
 - Silicon (Si): $\approx 0.7 \text{ V}$
 - Germanium (Ge): $\approx 0.3 \text{ V}$
- After this, diode current rises **exponentially** with voltage.

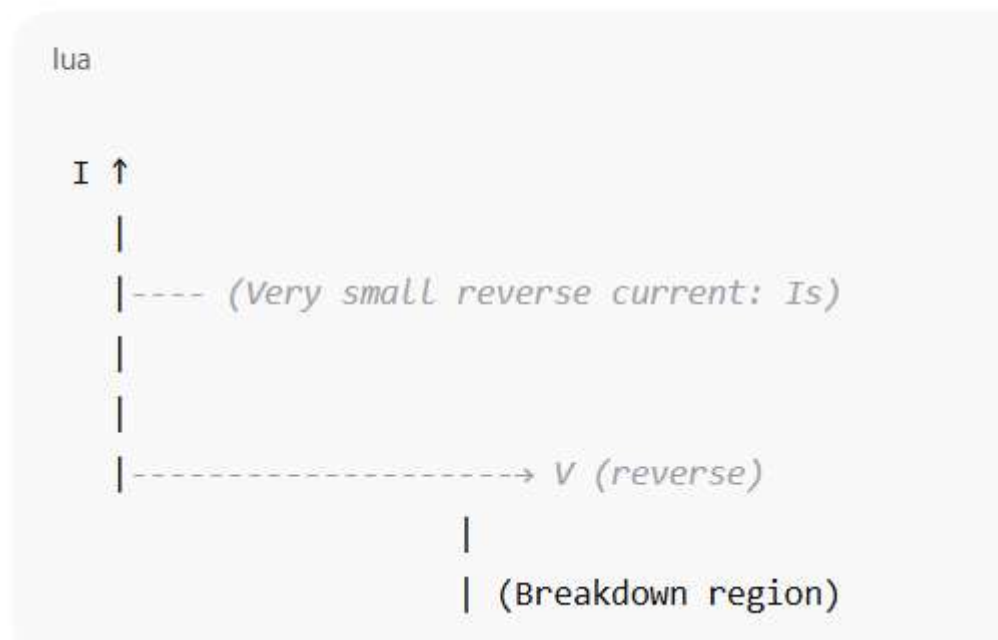
Diagram (Forward Bias V-I curve):



2. Reverse Bias Characteristics

- **Condition:** P-side connected to –ve, N-side to +ve.
- Barrier potential increases → junction widens → very little current flows.
- Only a very small **reverse saturation current (I_s)** flows (due to minority carriers).
- If reverse voltage increases too much, **breakdown** occurs → large current suddenly flows (can damage the diode if not controlled).

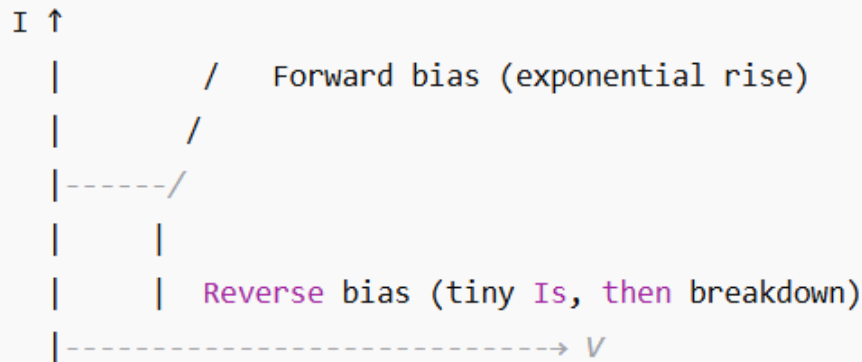
Diagram (Reverse Bias V–I curve):



Combined Forward & Reverse Bias V-I Characteristics

(Exam diagram should show both regions on one graph)

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Effect of Temperature (write 2 points for full marks)

- Forward voltage decreases by about **2 mV/°C**.
- Reverse current doubles for every **10°C rise**.

Applications of Characteristics

1. Used in **rectifiers** (converts AC to DC).
2. Used in **clipping and clamping circuits**.
3. Reverse breakdown principle used in **Zener diodes for voltage regulation**.

Final Boxed Points

- Cut-in voltages: **0.7 V (Si), 0.3 V (Ge)**.
- Forward bias → exponential increase in current.
- Reverse bias → only small I_s until breakdown.

5) B) Explain about the current components in PN junction diode.

Q5(b) Current Components in a PN Junction Diode

Introduction

- A **PN junction diode** conducts current due to the movement of **charge carriers** (electrons and holes).
- The total diode current has **two main components**:
 1. **Electron current** from **n-side** → **p-side**
 2. **Hole current** from **p-side** → **n-side**

Thus, the diode current is the sum of **electron diffusion current** and **hole diffusion current**.

Current Components Explanation

1. Electron Diffusion Current (I_n):

- Electrons from the **n-side conduction band** diffuse into the p-side.
- These electrons become **minority carriers** in the p-region.
- They recombine with holes, producing electron current.

2. Hole Diffusion Current (I_p):

- Holes from the **p-side valence band** diffuse into the n-side.
- These holes act as **minority carriers** in the n-region.
- They recombine with electrons, producing hole current.

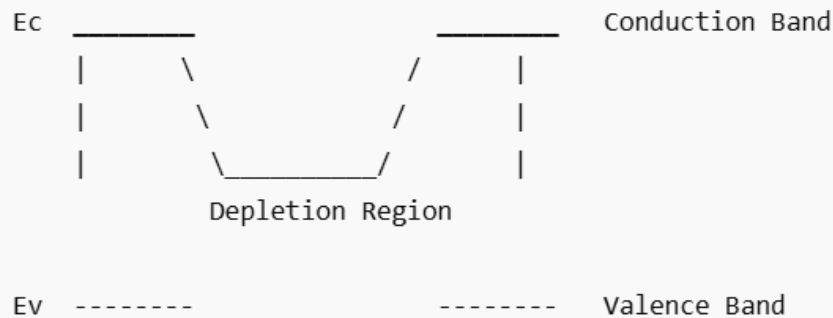
3. Reverse Saturation Current (I_s):

- Even under reverse bias, a small **minority carrier current** flows.
 - This current is almost constant and depends strongly on **temperature**.
-

Diagram (to draw in exam)

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Energy Band Diagram of PN Junction



- Electron diffusion: $n \rightarrow p$
- Hole diffusion: $p \rightarrow n$

- Show **electron current (I_n)** from n to p.
- Show **hole current (I_p)** from p to n.
- Label "Depletion Region" at the junction.

Mathematical Representation

The total diode current is:

$$I = I_n + I_p$$

Using diode current equation:

$$I = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

where

- $I_s = I_{n0} + I_{p0}$ = total reverse saturation current
 - I_{n0} : electron component of saturation current
 - I_{p0} : hole component of saturation current
-

Interpretation

- In **forward bias**: both I_n and I_p increase exponentially.
- In **reverse bias**: only a small I_s flows (due to minority carriers).

•

Applications / Importance

1. Helps to understand **diode V-I characteristics**.
2. Useful in analyzing **switching time** of diodes.
3. Explains why reverse saturation current depends on **minority carriers**.

Final Boxed Points

- Total diode current = **Electron current + Hole current**

$$I = I_n + I_p = I_s \left(e^{\frac{V}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right)$$

- **Forward bias** → diffusion currents dominate.
- **Reverse bias** → only small saturation current flows.

UNIT-2

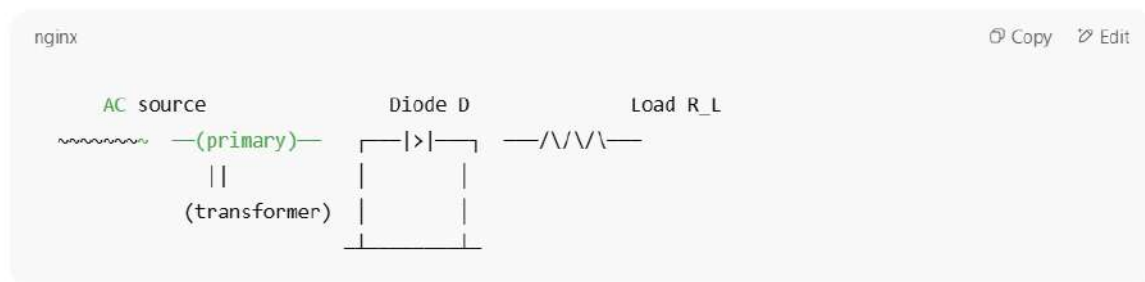
1 A) Explain construction and operation of a Half Wave rectifier and Find the PIV, RMS voltage ripple efficiency of Half Wave Rectifier.

Got it — here's a **correct, clean, exam-ready 10-mark answer** for the Half-Wave Rectifier, written in **simple, easy English**, with a neat diagram, correct derivations, and all final boxed results you can copy in the exam.

1A) Half-Wave Rectifier — Construction, Operation, PIV, V_{rms} , Ripple & Efficiency (10 marks)

Construction (draw this in the exam) — (2 marks)

Single diode rectifier with an AC source and a load R_L . A step-down transformer is optional.



Label: input $v_s = V_m \sin \omega t$, diode D, output v_o across R_L .

Operation (simple words) — (2 marks)

- **Positive half-cycle** ($v_s > 0$): Diode is **forward biased** → conducts → output follows the positive half sine across R_L .
- **Negative half-cycle** ($v_s < 0$): Diode is **reverse biased** → blocks → output is **zero**.

So output is a series of positive half-sine pulses.

(Quick sketch of waveforms is useful.)

Let input $v_s = V_m \sin \theta$ where $\theta = \omega t$. Assume ideal diode and no losses.

Only 0 to π contributes:

2. RMS output voltage

AC component RMS is $V_{ac,rms} = \sqrt{V_{rms}^2 - V_{dc}^2}$. So

(If a transformer secondary is used, V_m refers to the secondary peak.)

Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV) — (1 mark)

For a single-diode half-wave rectifier the diode must withstand the peak of the input when it is reverse biased:

$$\text{PIV} = V_m$$

(If a transformer secondary is used, V_m refers to the secondary peak.)

Final boxed results (copy these) — (1 mark)

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi}, \quad V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{2}$$

$$r = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1} \approx 1.21, \quad \eta = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \approx 40.5\%$$

$$\text{PIV} = V_m$$

Short pros / cons (optional lines for full clarity)

- **Pros:** Very simple and cheap (one diode).
- **Cons:** Low efficiency, large ripple — usually requires a filter capacitor to get usable DC.

1)B) A sinusoidal voltage whose $V_m = 25V$ is applied to a half-wave rectifier. The diode may be considered to be ideal and $R_L = 1.5 K\Omega$ is connected as load. Determine the following: (i) Peak value of current (ii) RMS value of current (iii) Ripple factor

1(b) — Half-wave rectifier numerical

Given: Peak input voltage $V_m = 25\text{ V}$.

Load $R_L = 1.5\text{ k}\Omega = 1500\text{ }\Omega$.

Ideal diode, half-wave rectifier.






Quick diagram / waveform (draw in exam)

Input: $v_s = V_m \sin \omega t$

Output: only positive half sinusoidal pulses (zero for negative half)

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v_s : ~    (full sine)
 v_o :  0  0 (only positive halves)

(i) Peak value of current I_m

Peak current flows at peak voltage V_m :

$$I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_L} = \frac{25}{1500}\text{ A} = 0.016666\ldots\text{ A} = 16.667\text{ mA}.$$

Answer (i): $I_m = 16.667\text{ mA}$.

(ii) RMS value of current I_{rms}

For an ideal half-wave rectifier:

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{2} \Rightarrow I_{rms} = \frac{V_{rms}}{R_L} = \frac{V_m}{2R_L}.$$

So

$$I_{rms} = \frac{25}{2 \times 1500} = \frac{25}{3000} = 0.008333\ldots\text{ A} = 8.333\text{ mA}.$$

(You can also note $I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{2}$.)

Answer (ii): $I_{rms} = 8.333\text{ mA}$.



(iii) Ripple factor r

For an ideal half-wave rectifier the ripple factor is a constant (derived from $V_{dc} = V_m/\pi$ and $V_{rms} = V_m/2$):

$$r = \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_{rms}}{V_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 1} \approx 1.21.$$

Answer (iii): $r \approx 1.21$.

Final boxed summary (copy for answer sheet)

- $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_L} = \frac{25}{1500} = 16.667 \text{ mA}.$
- $I_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{2R_L} = \frac{25}{3000} = 8.333 \text{ mA}.$
- Ripple factor $r \approx 1.21.$

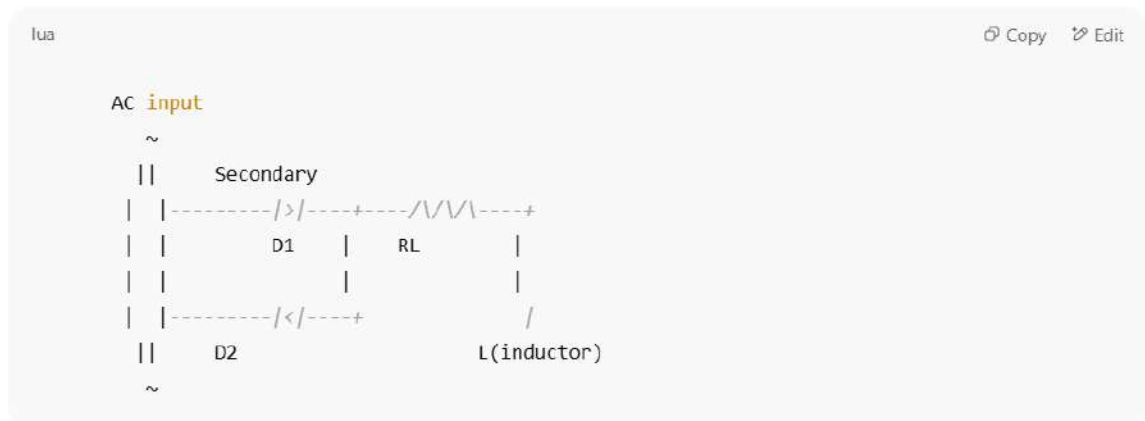
2 A) Explain construction and operation of full wave rectifier with Inductor filter?

Q2(a) Full-Wave Rectifier with Inductor Filter

1. Construction (2 Marks)

- A **full-wave rectifier** uses either:
 - **Center-tapped transformer with 2 diodes, OR**
 - **Bridge rectifier with 4 diodes.**
- An **inductor (choke)** is connected **in series** with the load resistance R_L .
- The purpose of the inductor is to **oppose changes in current** and thus reduce the AC ripple.

Circuit (center-tap version, exam sketch):



- D1 conducts on +ve half cycle, D2 on -ve half cycle → load always gets positive half-sine.
- Inductor L in series with load RL → smoothes the current.

2. Operation (3 Marks)

1. Without filter:

- Both halves of the AC input are rectified → pulsating DC at the output.
- Frequency of ripple is **twice** the input supply frequency (2f).


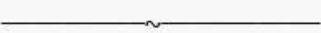
2. With inductor filter:

- The inductor opposes sudden changes in current (property of inductance).
 - During rising parts of waveform → inductor resists increase in current.
 - During falling parts → inductor releases stored energy, maintaining current.
 - As a result, output current becomes **smoother**, ripple is reduced.
-

3. Waveforms (sketch in exam) (2 Marks)

- **Before filter:** pulsating DC with gaps.
- **After inductor filter:** nearly flat DC current with small ripple.

sql

Without filter: 
With L filter:  (smoothed)

4. Expressions (2 Marks)

1. DC Output Voltage:

For a full-wave rectifier (ideal):

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi}$$

2. RMS Value:

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

3. Ripple Factor with Inductor Filter:

Ripple factor reduces as $\frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}fL/R_L}$.

$$r \approx \frac{R_L}{4\sqrt{3}fL}$$

- Larger L → smaller ripple.
- At higher frequency → smaller ripple.



5. Advantages of Inductor Filter (0.5 Mark)

- Gives good smoothing for **large DC currents**.
- Ripple factor decreases as inductance increases.

6. Disadvantages (0.5 Mark)

- Inductors are **bulky and costly**.
 - Poor filtering at **light loads** (small current).
-

Final Boxed Points for Exam

- Rectifier converts both half-cycles into DC.
- With inductor filter:

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi}, \quad r \approx \frac{R_L}{4\sqrt{3}fL}$$

- Output DC is smoother, ripple reduced, efficiency improved.

2) B) Explain the construction and operation of SCR with characteristics.

Q2(b) Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR)

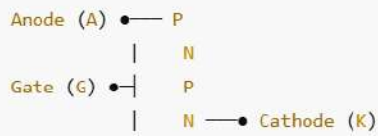
1. Construction (2 Marks)

- An **SCR** is a **4-layer, 3-junction, PNPN device**.
- Terminals:
 1. **Anode (A)**: Connected to outer p-layer.
 2. **Cathode (K)**: Connected to outer n-layer.
 3. **Gate (G)**: Connected to inner p-layer, used to trigger conduction.

Exam sketch:

mathematica

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2. Operation (3 Marks)

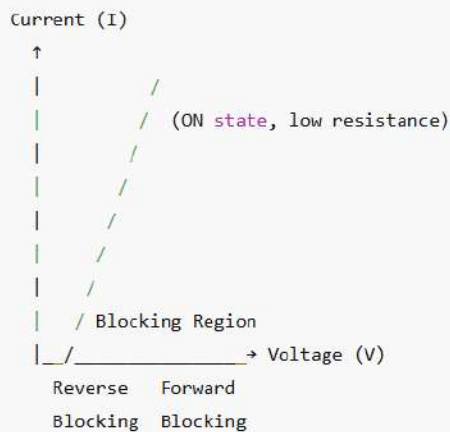
- **Reverse bias (Anode negative wrt Cathode):**
 - J1 and J3 reverse biased → SCR blocks → small leakage current flows.
- **Forward bias without gate (Anode +, Cathode -):**
 - J1 & J3 forward biased, J2 reverse biased → SCR still in **forward blocking state** (no conduction).
- **Forward bias with gate pulse:**
 - When a small positive voltage is applied at the **Gate (G)**, J2 gets forward biased.
 - SCR turns **ON**, and large current flows from **Anode → Cathode**.
 - Once ON, gate loses control; current continues until anode current falls below **holding current** (I_H).

3. V-I Characteristics (with labeled regions) (3 Marks)

Diagram to draw (VI curve):

perl

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4. Applications (1 Mark)

- Controlled rectifiers (AC to DC converters).
- Motor speed control.
- Lamp dimmers.

- Over-voltage protection circuits.
-

5. Final Boxed Points (copy in exam)

- SCR is a **4-layer PNPN, 3-terminal device (A, K, G)**.
- **OFF:** Reverse bias or forward bias without gate.
- **ON:** Gate pulse applied → conduction starts, continues till current I_H .
- **V-I characteristics:** Shows reverse blocking, forward blocking, and conduction regions.

3) B) With neat diagram explain about varactor diode.

Q3(b) Varactor Diode

1. Definition (1 Mark)

- A Varactor diode (also called Varicap diode) is a special PN junction diode that is always operated in reverse bias.
 - Its junction capacitance changes with applied reverse voltage.
-

2. Construction (2 Marks)

- Similar to an ordinary PN junction diode, but optimized for capacitance variation.
- Lightly doped depletion region is designed to act as the dielectric of a capacitor.
- Terminals: Anode (P-region) and Cathode (N-region).

Symbol (exam sketch):

vbnet

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```
----|>|---- (like diode symbol, but with 2 parallel plates on cathode side)
      | |
      | | (represents capacitance)
```

3. Operation (2 Marks)

- Reverse bias applied:
 - Depletion region width increases with reverse voltage.
 - Wider depletion → **capacitance decreases**.
 - Smaller reverse voltage → narrower depletion → **capacitance increases**.
- So, capacitance is **inversely proportional** to reverse voltage.

Equation:

$$C_j = \frac{\epsilon A}{W} \quad \text{where } W \propto \sqrt{V_R}$$
$$C_j \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{V_R}}$$

4. VI Characteristics & C–V Characteristics (2 Marks)

- **V–I curve:** Same as a diode in reverse bias (no conduction until breakdown).
- **C–V curve:** Shows junction capacitance decreases non-linearly with increase in reverse bias.

(Exam sketch: curve falling as reverse voltage increases.)

5. Applications (2 Marks)

- Used in tuning circuits of radio, TV, and mobile phones.
 - Frequency modulation (FM) circuits.
 - Automatic frequency control (AFC).
 - Voltage Controlled Oscillators (VCOs).
-

6. Final Boxed Points (copy in exam)

- Operated only in reverse bias.
- Junction capacitance decreases with increasing reverse voltage.
- Symbol: diode + capacitor plates.
- Applications: tuning, VCO, frequency modulation.

4) B) Compare HWR with FWR in terms of their parameters.

Q4(b) Comparison of Half-Wave and Full-Wave Rectifiers

1. Basic Circuits (Exam Diagrams – 2 Marks)

Half-Wave Rectifier (HWR)

nginx

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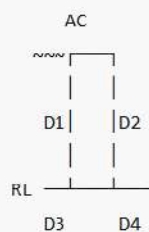
AC in ~~~~>|~~~ RL

- Only one diode.
- Uses only one half-cycle of input.

Full-Wave Rectifier (FWR) – Bridge

markdown

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- Uses 4 diodes (or 2 with center-tap).
- Both half-cycles are rectified.



2. Comparison Table (5 Marks)

Parameter	Half-Wave Rectifier (HWR)	Full-Wave Rectifier (FWR)
No. of Diodes	1	2 (center tap) or 4 (bridge)
Output Frequency	Same as input frequency (f)	Double the input frequency (2f)
DC Output Voltage	$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi}$	$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi}$
RMS Output Voltage	$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{2}$	$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$
Ripple Factor (r)	1.21 (high ripple)	0.482 (low ripple)
Rectification Efficiency	40.6%	81.2%
PIV (Peak Inverse Voltage)	V_m	$2V_m$ (center-tap), V_m (bridge)
Transformer Use	Not compulsory	Usually required (step-down + CT in 2-diode type)
Output Quality	Poor, discontinuous DC	Better, smoother DC
Applications	Low-power, simple circuits	Power supplies, battery chargers

3. Explanation (2 Marks)

- HWR wastes half the AC input → low efficiency & high ripple.
- FWR uses both half-cycles → higher efficiency, lower ripple, better for practical DC supplies.
- Thus, **FWR is preferred** in almost all applications where DC power is required.

4. Final Boxed Results (1 Mark)

- $V_{dc} \rightarrow$ HWR: $\frac{V_m}{\pi}$, FWR: $\frac{2V_m}{\pi}$
- Efficiency → HWR: **40.6%**, FWR: **81.2%**
- Ripple factor → HWR: **1.21**, FWR: **0.482**

5) B) In a bridge rectifier, the transformer is connected to 200V, 60Hz mains and the turns ratio of the step down transformer is 11:1. Assume the diode is ideal, find i) d.c. Voltage ii) d.c. Current iii) PIV

5(B) Bridge Rectifier — V_{dc} , I_{dc} , and PIV

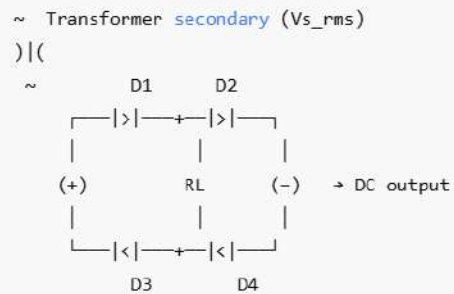
Given

- Mains = 200 V, 60 Hz (RMS at primary)
- Step-down transformer **turns ratio** = 11:1 (primary : secondary)
- **Ideal diodes** (no drop)
- Load R_L : **not specified** → we'll give I_{dc} **numerically** if R_L is **given** and otherwise as a formula.

Circuit (exam sketch)

java

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- Each half-cycle: **two diodes** conduct in series; with **ideal** diodes, drop = 0.
- Output is **full-wave rectified** (ripples at $2f = 120$ Hz).

Step-1: Secondary RMS and Peak

Turns ratio = 11:1 (step-down), so

$$V_{s, rms} = \frac{200}{11} = 18.1818 \text{ V (RMS)}$$
$$V_m = \sqrt{2} V_{s, rms} = 1.4142 \times 18.1818 \approx \boxed{25.74 \text{ V (peak)}}$$

Step-2: DC (average) Output Voltage V_{dc}

For an ideal bridge full-wave rectifier (no diode drops):

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 25.74}{\pi} \approx \boxed{16.38 \text{ V}}$$

Step-3: DC Load Current I_{dc}

$$I_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}}{R_L}$$

- If R_L is provided, plug it in; otherwise leave as **formula**.
- Example (only if R_L were, say, 1 k Ω): $I_{dc} = 16.38/1000 = 16.38 \text{ mA}$.

Step-4: Peak Inverse Voltage (PIV) per diode

For a bridge rectifier, each diode must withstand the **peak of the secondary**:

$$\boxed{\text{PIV} = V_m \approx 25.74 \text{ V}}$$

Final boxed answers

- $V_{dc} \approx 16.38 \text{ V}$
 - $I_{dc} = \frac{16.38}{R_L} \text{ A}$ (use your R_L to get the numeric value)
 - $\text{PIV} \approx 25.74 \text{ V}$
-

Notes (write if space allows)

- Ripple frequency = $2f = 120 \text{ Hz}$.
- If diode drops were included ($\approx 2 \times 0.7 \text{ V}$ per conduction path), V_{dc} would reduce slightly; **not needed here** (ideal diode).

UNIT-2

- A sinusoidal voltage whose $V_m = 250\text{ V}$ is applied to a half wave rectifier. The diode may be considered to be ideal and $R_L = 1.5\text{ k}\Omega$ is connected to the load.

Determine the following

- 1) Peak value of current
- 2) RMS value of current
- 3) Ripple factor

Given data

$$V_m = 25\text{ V}$$

$$R_L = 1.5\text{ k}\Omega \\ = 1500\Omega$$

Diode is ideal.

- 1) Peak value of current I_m .

$$I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_L} \\ = \frac{25}{1500} = 0.0167\text{ A}$$

$$I_m = 0.0167\text{ A} \\ = 16.7\text{ mA}$$

- 2) RMS value of current I_{rms} is

$$I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{2}$$

$$= \frac{0.0167}{2}$$

$$= 0.0083\text{ A}$$

$$= 8.33\text{ mA}$$

$$\left(\frac{I_m}{2}\right) \times \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\text{Ripple factor} = \sqrt{\frac{E_{rms}^2}{E_{dc}^2} - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{(8.33)^2}{E_{dc}^2} - 1}$$

$$E_{dc} = \frac{E_m}{\pi} = \frac{16.7 \text{ mA}}{\pi}, \quad 5.31 \text{ mA}$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{(8.33)^2}{(5.31)^2} - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{69.39}{28.19} - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{1.46}$$

$$\gamma = 1.21$$

68) In a bridge rectifier, the transformer is connected to 200V, 60Hz mains and the turns ratio of the step down transformer is 11:1. Assume the diode is ideal, find

i) dc voltage ii) dc current iii) PIV.

Given data

Mains voltage $V_{\text{primary}} = 200\text{V}$.

Frequency $f = 60\text{Hz}$

Transformer turns ratio $= 11:1$

Diodes are ideal.

→ Secondary voltage of transformer.

$$V_{\text{secondary}} = \frac{V_{\text{primary rms}}}{11}$$
$$= \frac{200}{11} = 18.18\text{V}.$$

→ Peak secondary voltage $= V_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$V_m = V_{\text{rms}} \times \sqrt{2}$$
$$= 18.18 \times \sqrt{2}$$
$$= 25.7\text{V}.$$

→ output voltage (dc) $V_{\text{dc}} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 25.7}{\pi}$

$$= 16.37\text{V}.$$

→ Dc output current $I_{\text{dc}} = \frac{V_{\text{dc}}}{R_L} = \frac{16.37}{R_L}\text{A}.$

→ Peak inverse voltage PIV $= V_m$

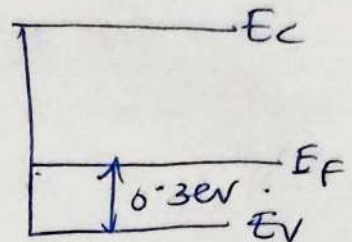
$$= 25.7\text{V}$$

- (1) In a p-type semiconductor - the fermi level is 0.3 eV above the valence band at a room temp 300K. Determine the new position of the fermi level for temp of a) 350K b) 400K

Sol: In a p-type semiconductor

$$E_F - E_V = 0.3 \text{ eV}$$

$$T = 300 \text{ K}$$



Fermi level in a p-type semiconductor

$$N_A = N_V e^{\frac{-(E_F - E_V)}{kT}}$$

$$N_A = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_p kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \cdot e^{\frac{-(E_F - E_V)}{kT}}$$

As doping concentration is constant $N_A = P$ (constant).

$$N_V(T_2) e^{\frac{-(E_{F2} - E_{V2})}{kT_2}} = N_V(T_1) e^{\frac{-(E_{F1} - E_{V1})}{kT_1}}$$

$$\cancel{2} \left(\frac{2\pi m_p kT_2}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\frac{-(E_{F2} - E_{V2})}{kT_2}} = \cancel{2} \left(\frac{2\pi m_p kT_1}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\frac{-(E_{F1} - E_{V1})}{kT_1}}$$

$$\left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{3/2} \cdot e^{\frac{-(E_{F2} - E_{V2})}{kT_2}} = e^{\frac{-(E_{F1} - E_{V1})}{kT_1}}$$

$$\ln \left[\left(\frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)^{3/2} \right] + \ln \left[e^{\frac{-(E_{F2} - E_{V2})}{kT_2}} \right] = \ln \left[e^{\frac{-(E_{F1} - E_{V1})}{kT_1}} \right]$$

$$\frac{3}{2} \ln\left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right) + \left(\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{kT_2}\right) = -\frac{(E_{F1} - E_{F1})}{kT_1}$$

At 300 K

$$\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{k(350)} = \frac{3}{2} \ln\left(\frac{350}{300}\right) + \frac{0.3}{k(300)}$$

$$\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{8.617 \times 10^{-5} \times 350} = 0.231 + \frac{0.3}{(8.617 \times 10^{-5}) 300}$$

$$\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{0.0301} = 0.231 + 11.61$$

$$E_{F2} - E_{F1} = 11.841 \times 0.0301$$

$$\boxed{E_{F2} - E_{F1} = 0.357 \text{ eV}}$$

At 400 K

$$\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{k(400)} = \frac{3}{2} \ln\left(\frac{350}{300}\right) + \frac{0.3}{k(300)}$$

$$\frac{E_{F2} - E_{F1}}{8.617 \times 10^{-5} \times 400} = 0.231 + 11.61$$

$$E_{F2} - E_{F1} = 11.841 \times 0.0344$$

$$E_{F2} - E_{F1} = 0.415 \text{ eV}$$

