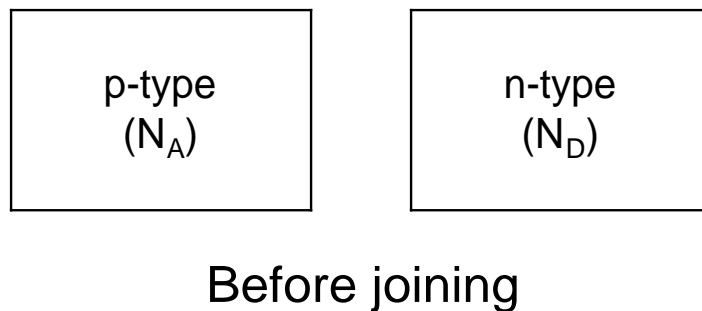


Diodes & Associated Circuits



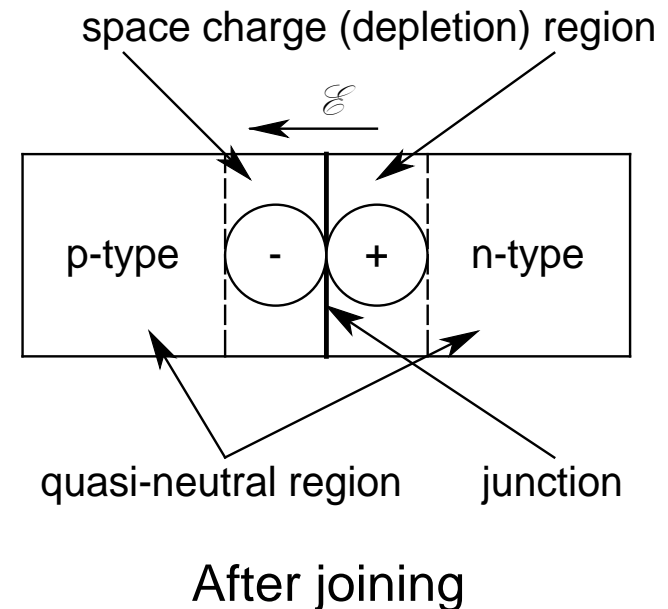
p-side: holes *majority carriers*

electrons *minority carriers*

n-side: electrons *majority carriers*

holes *minority carriers*

Treat holes as *antiparticle* of electrons



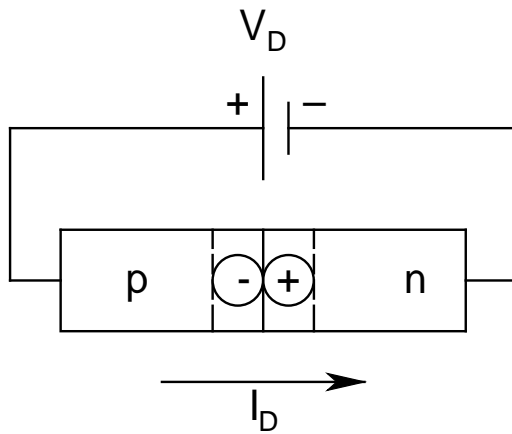
$$N_A \leftrightarrow N_A^- + \text{hole}$$

$$N_D \leftrightarrow N_D^+ + \text{electron}$$

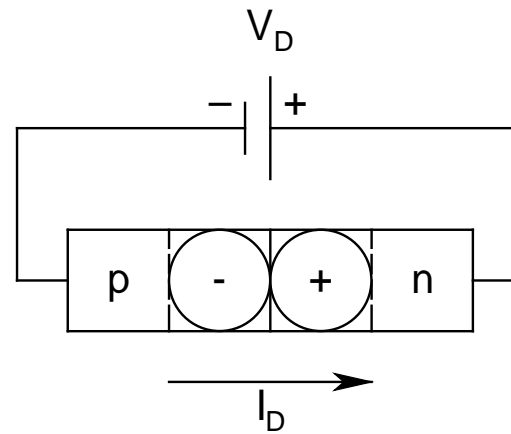
- * Upon joining, holes move from p-side to n-side, leaving *ionized acceptors* N_A^- there, and electrons move from n-side to p-side, leaving *ionized donors* N_D^+ there
- * This motion is purely due to *diffusion*, caused due to huge *concentration gradients* of carriers
- * Thus, a *charge dipole* starts to build up around the junction, with n-side *positive* with respect to the p-side \Rightarrow known as *depletion region*
- * An *electric field* is created across the junction, which tends to *oppose* the diffusive motion

- * This *electric field* causes an opposite carrier motion due to *drift*
- * Thus, a point will be reached when the *drift* flow will exactly *balance* the *diffusive* flow for *each type of carrier*
- * Under such a condition, the *net* holes and electrons (*individually*) crossing the junction will be *zero*, resulting in *zero net current*
⇒ Known as *equilibrium*
- * *Note*: Under *equilibrium*, the device does *not* carry any *net* current

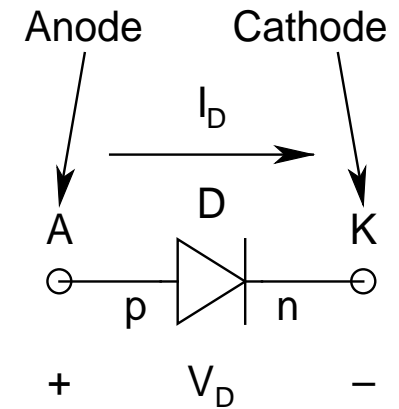
Forward & Reverse Bias:



Forward Bias:
p-side positive
w.r.t. n-side



Reverse Bias:
n-side positive
w.r.t. p-side



Symbol and
current-voltage
convention

* By definition:

- V_D is measured as the voltage *at the p-side with respect to that at the n-side*, with V_D *positive* implying that the diode is under *forward bias*, and V_D *negative* implying that the diode is under *reverse bias*
- I_D is *positive* when it flows from *p-side to n-side*, and *negative* when it flows from *n-side to p-side*

Forward Bias:

- * V_D **positive** – p-side more **positive** than n-side
- * Holes get **repelled** from the p-side to the n-side
- * Electrons get **repelled** from the n-side to the p-side
- * Known as the **carrier injection process**
- * Note that this process creates **flow of charge carriers**, and thus, **current**
- * Note also that both **hole and electron currents** are **in the same direction (p-side to n-side) \Rightarrow positive**
- * The **total current** I_D is the **sum** of these two currents
- * The **magnitude** of this current increases **exponentially** with the magnitude of the applied forward bias (V_D)

Reverse Bias:

- * V_D ***negative*** – n-side more ***positive*** than p-side
- * Holes get ***pulled*** from the p-side to the battery
- * Electrons get ***pulled*** from the n-side to the battery
- * Known as the ***carrier extraction process***
- * Note that both ***holes and electrons*** again ***flow in the same direction***, thus causing ***currents also in the same direction (n-side to p-side) \Rightarrow negative***
- * The ***total current*** I_D is the ***sum*** of these two currents
- * The ***magnitude*** of this current is ***independent*** of the ***magnitude*** of the applied reverse bias (V_D)

I-V Relation:

* $I_D = I_0 \left[\exp(V_D/V_T) - 1 \right]$

- I_0 : ***Reverse Saturation Current*** (typically of the order of ***nA-fA***)

- V_T : ***Thermal Voltage*** ($= kT/q$) (***26 mV at 300 K***)

* ***Note:*** For $V_D \geq 4V_T$ (~ 100 mV at room temperature):

- $I_D \simeq I_0 \exp(V_D/V_T)$ (***a true exponent***) (typically \sim mA)

- ***Flows from p to n***

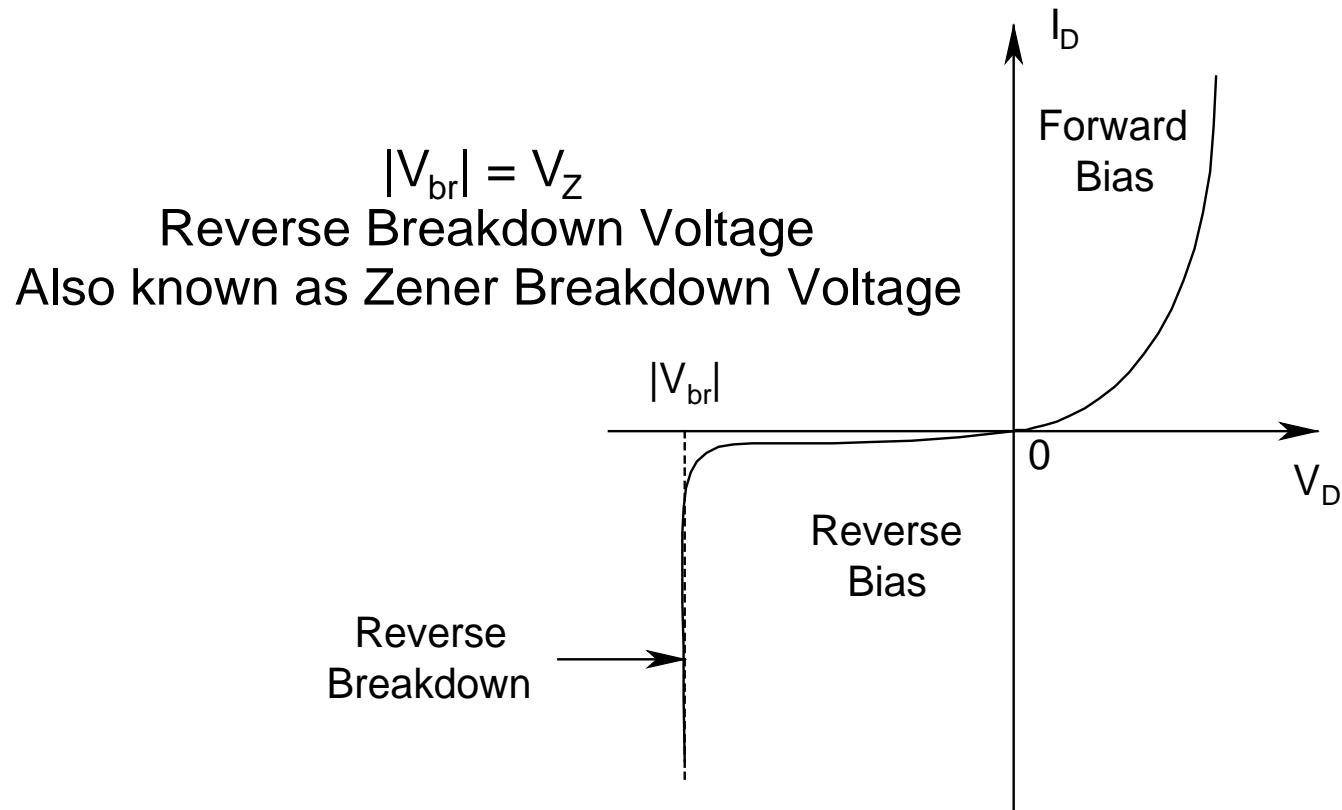
* For ***negative*** V_D and $|V_D| \geq 4V_T$:

- $I_D \simeq -I_0$ ($I_0 \sim$ ***nA-fA*** – ***extremely small***)

- ***Flows from n to p*** (note the ***negative sign***)

- * From the *I - V characteristic*, *rectification* property is clearly visible:
 - For *positive V_D* , *significant* current flows from *p -side to n -side*, which is an *exponential* function of the applied voltage
 - For *negative V_D* , *negligible* current flows from *n -side to p -side*, which is *independent* of the applied voltage
- * This property can be exploited in a variety of circuit applications

Complete I-V Characteristic:



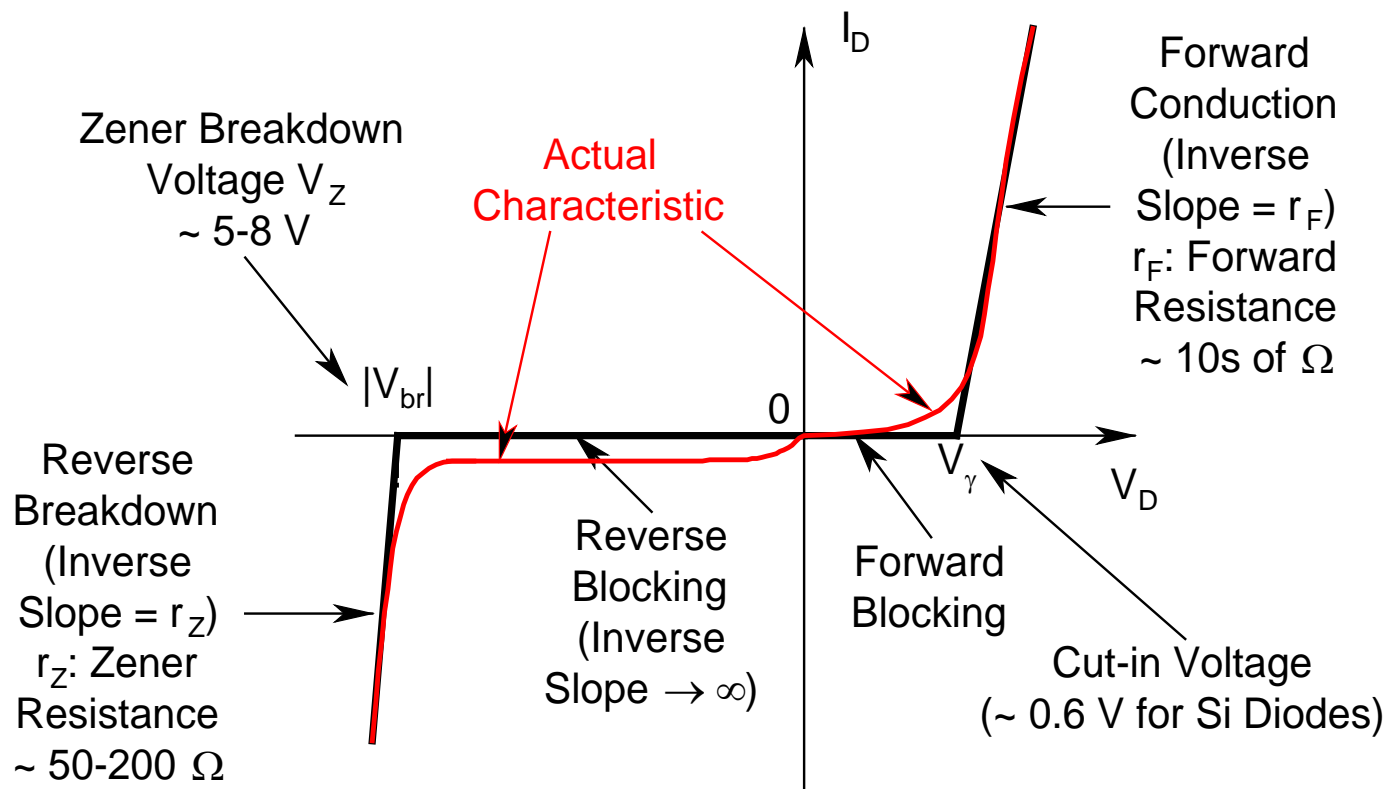
Note that the forward and reverse current scales are not same

Reverse Breakdown:

- * As the *reverse bias* voltage across the diode *increases*, the *depletion region* also starts to *widen*, thus *accommodating more charges*
- * The *dipole strength* starts to *increase* along with the *electric field* across the junction, which is directed from *n to p*
- * When this field *increases* beyond a *critical field*, then *electrons* start to get *detached* from *atoms* (*field ionization*), which may *knock* other electrons off from other atoms (*impact ionization*)
 \Rightarrow *avalanche breakdown*

- * There is another *breakdown process*, known as *Zener breakdown*, which occurs for diodes having *both sides very heavily doped*
- * This results in a *very thin depletion region* across the junction, and electrons can *tunnel* through this barrier (*quantum mechanically*)
- * *Zener breakdown voltage* $\leq 3 \text{ V}$
- * *Avalanche breakdown voltage* $\geq 5 \text{ V}$
- * Diodes having breakdown voltage *in the range of 3 V to 5 V*, break down by a *combination* of both these mechanisms

Piecewise Linear Model:



Note: The forward and reverse current scales are not same

Regions:

* $0 \leq V_D \leq V_\gamma$: **Forward Blocking**

- V_γ : **Cut-in Voltage** ($\sim 0.6\text{ V}$ for *Si diodes*)
- $I_D = 0$

* $V_D \geq V_\gamma$: **Forward Conduction**

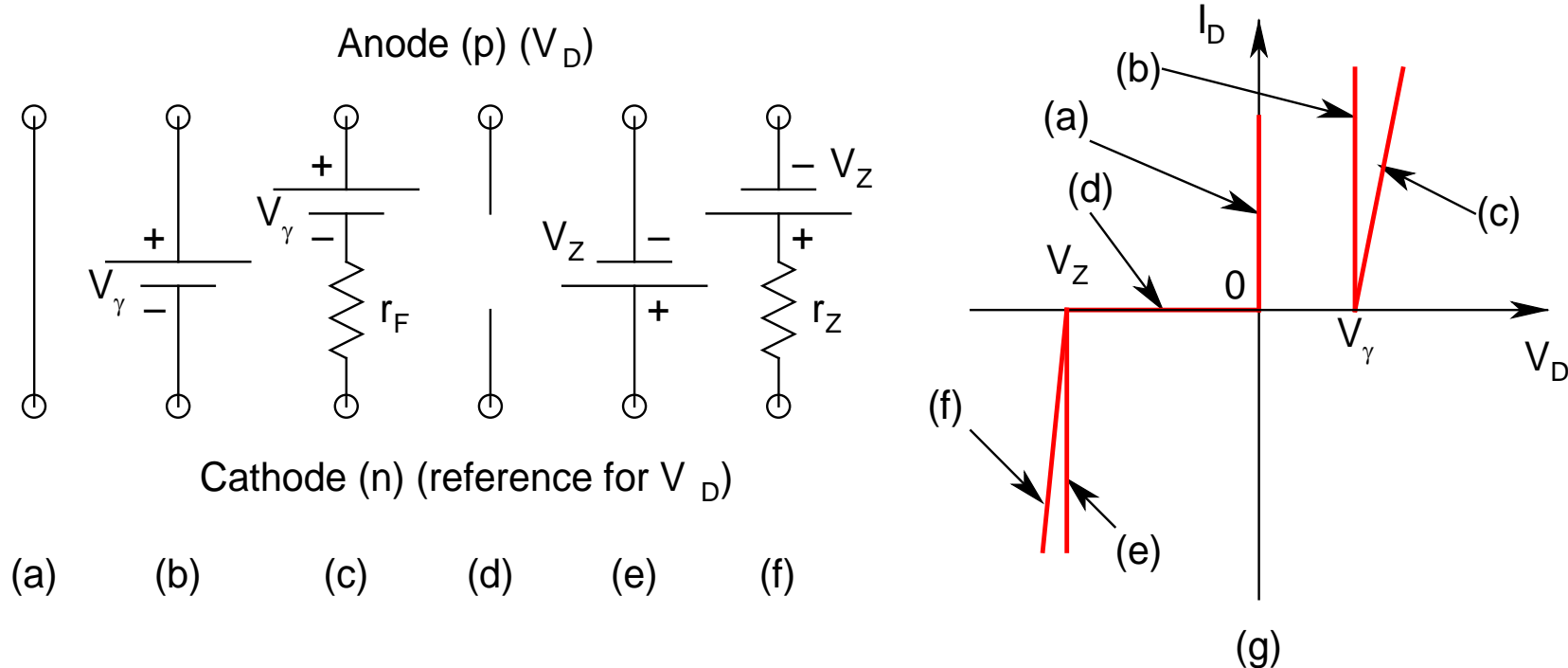
- I_D increases **linearly** with V_D with an **inverse slope** of r_F
- r_F : **Diode Forward Resistance** ($\sim 10\text{s of } \Omega$)

$$= \left[dI_D / dV_D \right]^{-1}$$

* Diodes under **forward bias** and for V_D **beyond** V_γ ,
offers **small resistance** (results from the **exponential**
I-V characteristic)

- * V_D **negative** and $0 \leq |V_D| \leq |V_{br}|$: **Reverse Blocking**
 - $I_D = 0$
- * V_D negative and $|V_D| \geq |V_{br}|$: **Reverse Breakdown**
 - $|I_D|$ increases **linearly** with $|V_D|$ with an **inverse slope** of r_Z
 - r_Z : **Zener Resistance** ($\sim 50\text{-}200\ \Omega$) = $\left[d|I_D|/d|V_D| \right]^{-1}$
- * Diodes under **reverse bias**, with $|V_D| > |V_{br}|$, offers **small resistance**
- * Thus, if current is **not** controlled by some **external means**, then it may **damage** the device

Circuit Models:



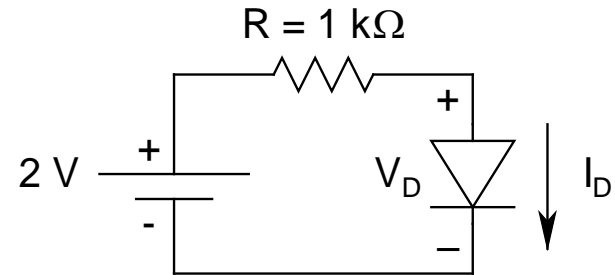
Forward Bias: V_D positive: (a) 0th order model, (b) 1st order model, (c) 2nd order model,
Reverse Bias: V_D negative: (d) 0th order model, (e) 1st order model, (f) 2nd order model.
 (g) Corresponding piecewise linear models

Example: Find I_D and V_D , using i) 0th order, ii) 1st order, and iii) 2nd order diode models. [$V_\gamma = 0.6$ V, $r_F = 50$ Ω]

i) ***0th order model:***

$$I_D = 2 / (1 \text{ k}) = 2 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_D = 0 \text{ V}$$



ii) ***1st order model:***

$$I_D = (2 - 0.6) / (1 \text{ k}) = 1.4 \text{ mA and } V_D = 0.6 \text{ V}$$

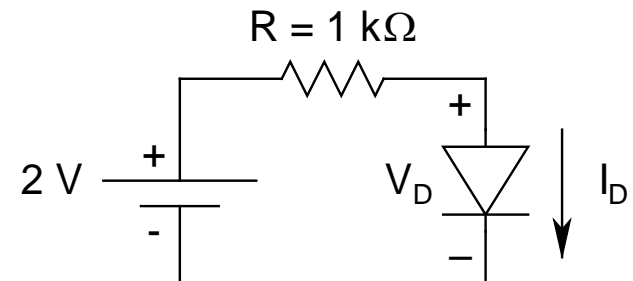
iii) ***2nd order model:***

$$I_D = (2 - 0.6) / (1 \text{ k} + 50) = 1.33 \text{ mA}$$

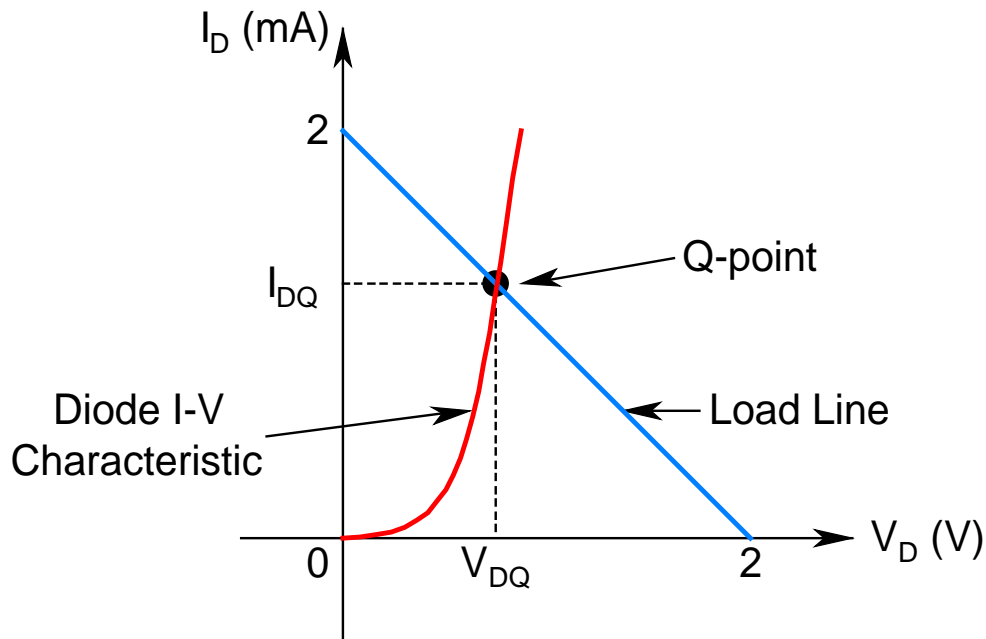
$$V_D = V_\gamma + I_D r_F = 0.667 \text{ V}$$

Exact Analysis: Concept of Load Line:

- * To find the *exact* values of I_D and V_D (*need I_0*)
- * **Diode I - V Relation:** $I_D = I_0 \exp(V_D/V_T)$
 - Neglected the -1 term, since $V_D \gg V_T$
- * **Load Line Equation:** $I_D = (2 - V_D)/(1 \text{ k})$
- * The *intersection point* of these two characteristics is known as the *quiescent operating point*, or the ***Q-point***
- * **Two solution techniques:**
 - **Graphical Method**
 - **Iterative Method**



Graphical Method:



V_{DQ} , I_{DQ} : Quiescent
values of V_D , I_D
 $= 0.7$ V, 1.3 mA
(obtained from iterative
method using $I_0 = 3$ fA)

DC Quiescent
Power Dissipation
 $= V_{DQ} \times I_{DQ} = 0.9$ mW

The two *end points* of the *load line*:

1. $V_D = 0$: $I_D = 2/(1 \text{ k}) = 2$ mA
2. $I_D = 0$: $V_D = 2$ V

Iterative Method:

- * Note that ***simultaneous analytical solution*** of the two equations is ***impossible***, since they form a set of ***transcendental*** equations
- * Hence, ***numerical*** or ***iterative*** solution is needed
- * **Procedure:**
 - Start with an ***initial guess*** of V_D (~ 0.6 V)
 - Find I_D from the ***load line equation***
 - Use this I_D to find corresponding V_D from the ***diode I - V relation***
 - Repeat till ***convergence*** is attained

Analysis of Circuits Having Diodes:

*** Procedure:**

- Assume that the diode is *on* and choose *model order*
- Perform *circuit analysis* and find the *current* flowing through the diode
- If the current is in the *forward direction* through the diode, then the assumption was *correct*
- However, if the current is in the *reverse direction* and *significant*, then the initial assumption that the diode is on was *wrong*
- Then, *rework* the problem, with the diode being *off*

Example:

Assume that D is **on**, and use the **0th order** diode model

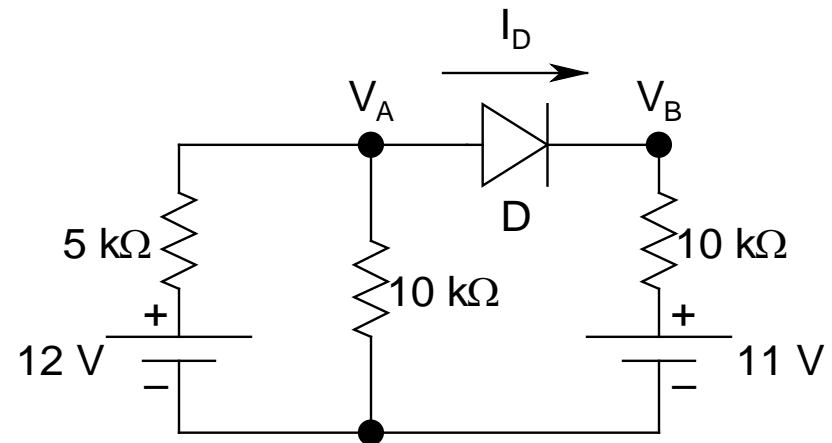
Thus, $V_A = V_B$

Node equation at V_A :

$$\frac{12 - V_A}{5 \text{ k}} = \frac{V_A}{10 \text{ k}} + \frac{V_A - 11}{10 \text{ k}}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_A = 8.75 \text{ V} = V_B$$

Thus, the 11 V battery would supply $(11 - 8.75)/10 \text{ k} = 0.225 \text{ mA}$ through the diode in the **reverse** direction, which is **impossible**



Thus, our initial assumption that the diode was *on* is *wrong*, since it cannot carry such a *large* current in the *reverse* direction

Hence, the diode is actually *off*, and $V_A \neq V_B$

Thus, *disconnecting* the diode from the circuit (since it is *open-circuit* under the *0th order* model)

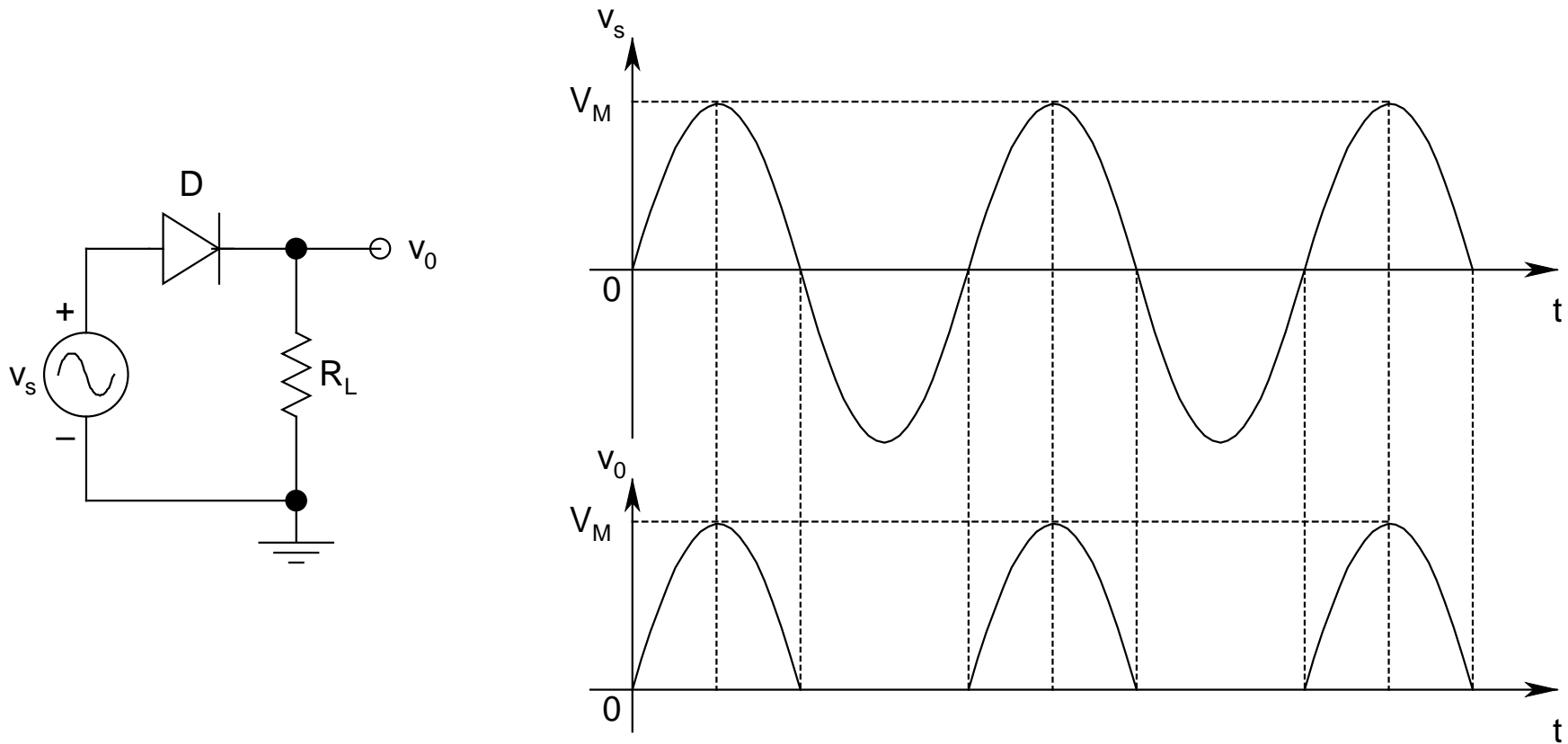
$$V_A = \frac{10}{10+5} \times 12 = 8 \text{ V}, \text{ and } V_B = 11 \text{ V}$$

Hence, the diode is under a *reverse bias* of 3 V, or under a *bias of -3 V*

Ex: Rework the problem using 2nd order diode model

- ***Diode Applications:***
 - **Rectification (*conversion of AC to DC*)**
 - *Half-wave*
 - *Full-Wave*
 - *Bridge*
 - **Clamping**
 - **Clipping**
 - **Wave-shaping**
 - **Peak Detection**
 - **Peak-to-Peak Detection**

Half-Wave Rectifier (HWR):



Using 0th Order Diode Model

- * **Note:** The diode D acts as a *gate* and *passes* signal through it only when it is *forward biased*, while *blocking* it completely when it is *reverse biased*
- * For *ideal* diodes, $v_0 = v_s$ for *positive* v_s , and $v_0 = 0$ for *negative* v_s
- * Thus, only the *positive* half-cycle of the input signal is *passed* on to the output, while the *negative* half-cycle is completely *blocked*
 \Rightarrow *Half-Wave Rectification*
- * The circuit is known as *Half-Wave Rectifier (HWR)*

- * Actual scenario is little *different*
- * Using *2nd order* diode model, having V_γ and r_F :

$$\bullet v_0 = \frac{R_L (v_s - V_\gamma)}{R_L + r_F} \quad v_s \geq V_\gamma$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{otherwise}$$

- * Thus, v_0 remains zero till v_s becomes equal to V_γ , which is $\sim 0.6 V$ for Si diodes
- * Also, the *peak* value of v_0 will be *less* than V_M
- * The result is a *distorted sinusoid* at the output
- * For $V_M \gg V_\gamma$, the distortion would be *less*

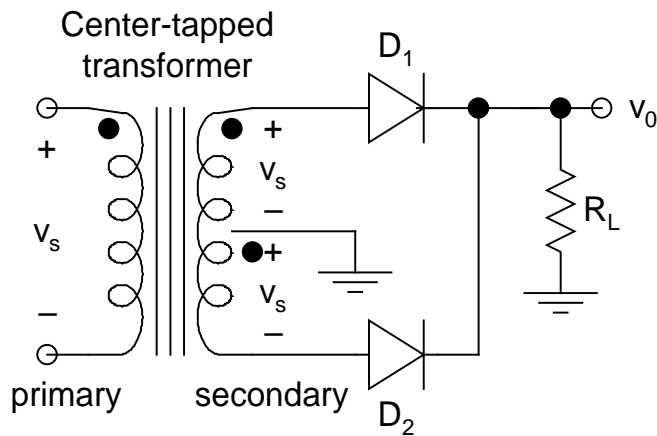
- * Note that for *negative* cycle of v_s , D is under *reverse bias*
- * It has to be ensured that even for the *maximum* reverse bias, it does not undergo *reverse breakdown*
- * Defined by a *parameter* known as *peak inverse voltage (PIV)*
- * For the circuit considered, PIV is obviously *equal* to V_M
- * The *breakdown voltage* of D should be chosen to be at least equal to $2V_M$, where 2 is known as the *safety factor* (or *factor of safety*)

Full-Wave Rectifier (FWR):

- * The ***disadvantage*** of HWR is obvious, since it ***passes only*** the ***positive*** half cycle, while ***blocking*** the ***negative*** half cycle
- * Thus, the output ***appears only*** during the ***positive*** half cycle, while it is ***zero*** during the ***negative*** half cycle
- * It would be much more useful if ***both*** positive and negative half cycles of the input signal can be ***rectified*** to produce a ***unidirectional*** (or ***DC***) ***output***
- * 2 ways: ***Center-Tapped Transformer & Bridge Rectifier***

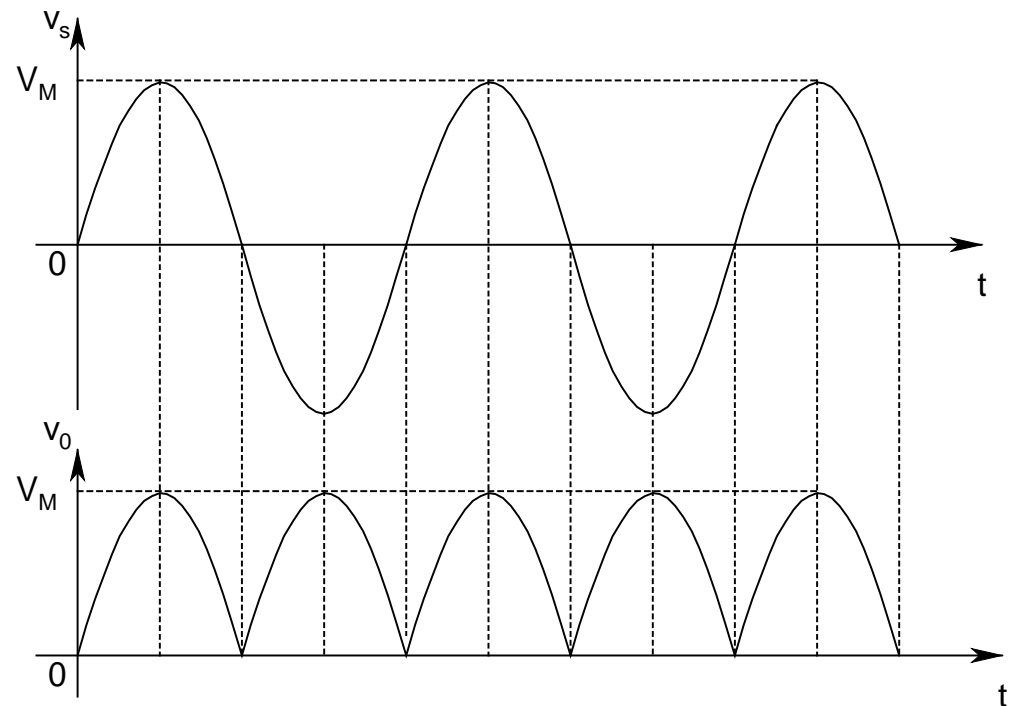
FWR Using Center-Tapped Transformer:

Transformer Secondary
Center Point Grounded



Turns Ratio 1:2

- Convention: The potentials at these ends are either all positive or all negative with respect to the other end at any given instant of time



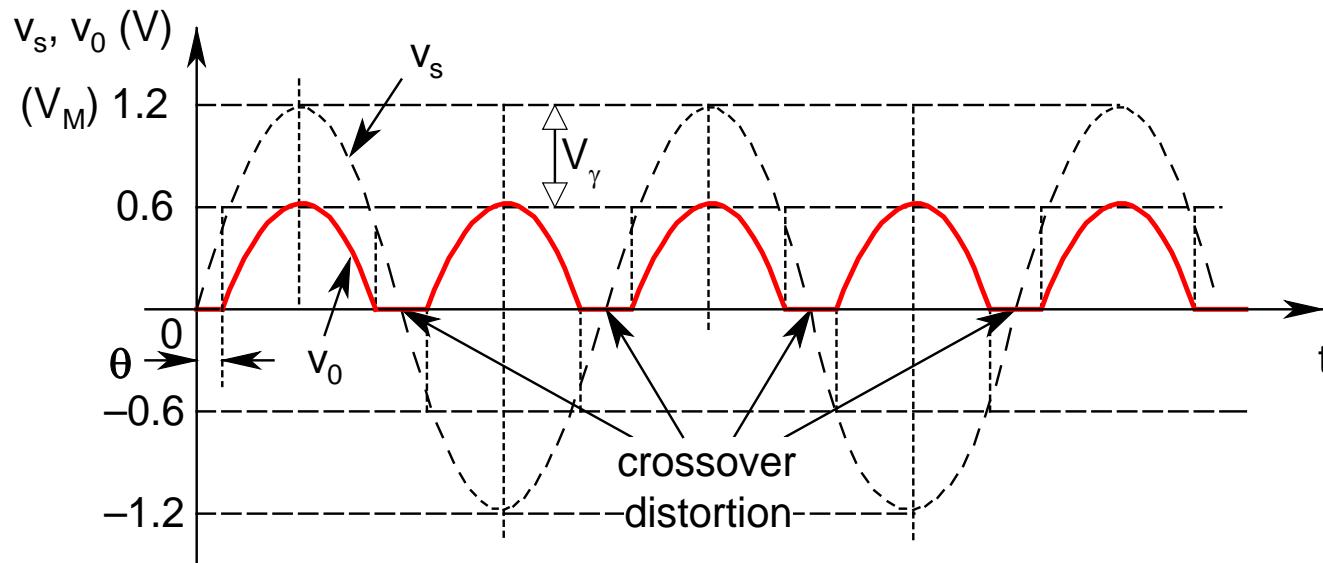
Using 0th Order Diode Model

- * For *positive* v_s , D_1 gets *forward* biased and v_o *follows* v_s
- * Note under this condition, D_2 remains *reverse* biased, since its anode is at a *lower* voltage than its cathode
- * Similarly, for *negative* v_s , D_2 becomes *forward* biased and D_1 becomes *reverse* biased, and again v_o *follows* v_s
- * Note that under *both* these conditions, the *current* flowing through R_L is *unidirectional*
 \Rightarrow *Full-wave rectification*

Crossover Distortion:

- * Note that for actual diodes, even if the 1st order model is used, then they ***cannot conduct*** until the forward bias across them is ***at least equal to V_γ***
- * This creates a ***deadband*** of around $2V_\gamma$ around all the ***crossover points*** (i.e., points where the input signal ***crosses zero*** in the time axis)
- * This problem becomes ***more acute*** if V_M is ***not much larger*** than V_γ
- * For $V_M \sim V_\gamma$, this ***crossover distortion*** may completely overwhelm the output

$\theta = \sin^{-1}(V_\gamma/V_M) = \text{Angle of Crossover Distortion}$
 Appears 4 times in a complete cycle
 Total Crossover Distortion (TCD) = $(2\theta/\pi) \times 100\%$



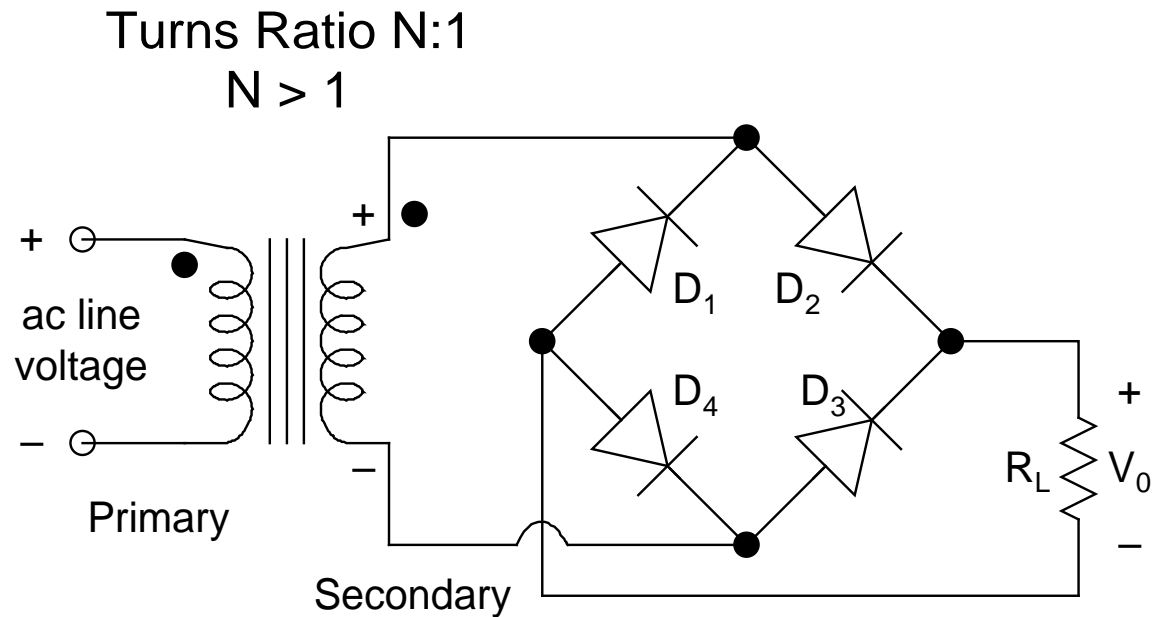
Using 1st Order Diode Model

Regarding PIV:

- * Consider *positive* half cycle, with D_1 *forward* biased and D_2 *reverse* biased
- * When $v_0 = V_M$, the cathode of D_2 is at V_M
- * The center point of the transformer is grounded
- * Hence, the lowest point of the transformer secondary is at $-V_M$, which is also the anode voltage of D_2
- * Thus, $PIV = 2V_M$, and *rated breakdown voltage* $= 4V_M$ (taking *2 as the safety factor*)

Bridge Rectifier (BR):

- * Widely used and highly popular
- * All small electrical appliances that work using *line voltage* has this circuit built-in within PCB
- * Does not need center-tapped transformer, and *normal* transformer can be used
- * The transformer is *step-down*, having a *turns ratio* of N:1, which typically steps down the line voltage (*230 V rms*) to about *3-12 V (DC)*
- * *Uses 4 diodes* \Rightarrow *slightly more expensive*



Positive Half Cycle: Path: D_2 - R_L - D_4 (D_1 and D_3 Reverse Biased)
Negative Half Cycle: Path: D_3 - R_L - D_1 (D_2 and D_4 Reverse Biased)
 Current through R_L : Unidirectional for both cycles (V_0 always positive)

Regarding Crossover Distortion:

- * Note that for positive (as well as negative half cycles), **two** diodes come in **series**, each having a cut-in voltage of V_γ , producing a total drop of $2V_\gamma$
 \Rightarrow **Higher crossover distortion** and **lower peak value of the output**

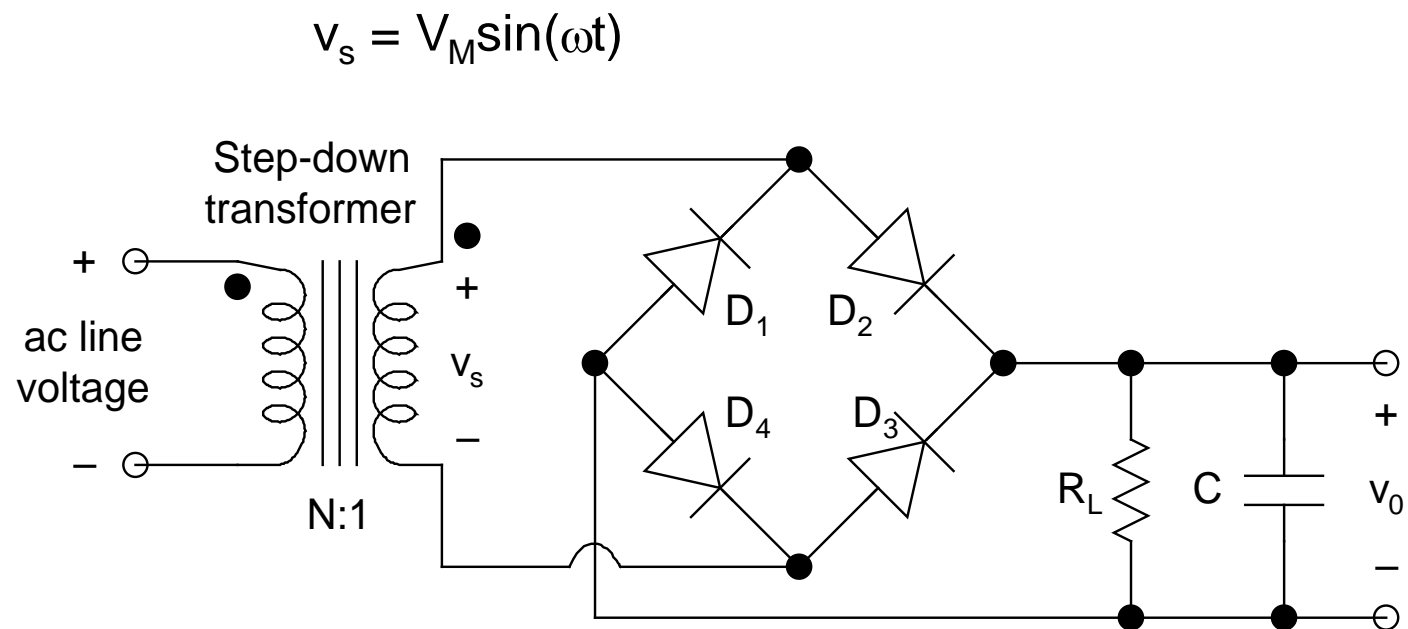
Regarding PIV:

- * Note that when $v_0 = V_M$, the cathode of D_3 is at V_M , however, its anode is at ground
- * Thus, **$PIV = V_M$** and **rated breakdown voltage = $2V_M$ (using a safety factor of 2)**

Observation:

- * Note that even though both FWR and BR produce ***unidirectional*** output, by no stretch of imagination, they can be treated as ***DC*** signals, since they are function of time, and vary widely from 0 to V_M
- * Thus, it is not of much use, unless it can be made more or less ***constant***, i.e., ***independent of time***
- * Gave rise to another very important analog building block: ***Unregulated DC Power Supply***

- ***DC Unregulated Power Supply***
 - Main goal is to obtain a more or less ***constant*** output, which can be treated as close to ***DC***
 - The simplest way to achieve this is to connect a ***capacitor C*** in ***parallel*** to the ***load resistance*** R_L in both implementations of the FWR (using ***center-tapped transformer*** or ***bridge rectifier***)
 - For a ***bridge rectifier***, during both positive and negative half cycles, a set of ***two diodes*** will conduct and C will charge up to the ***maximum*** voltage V_M (using 0th order diode model)

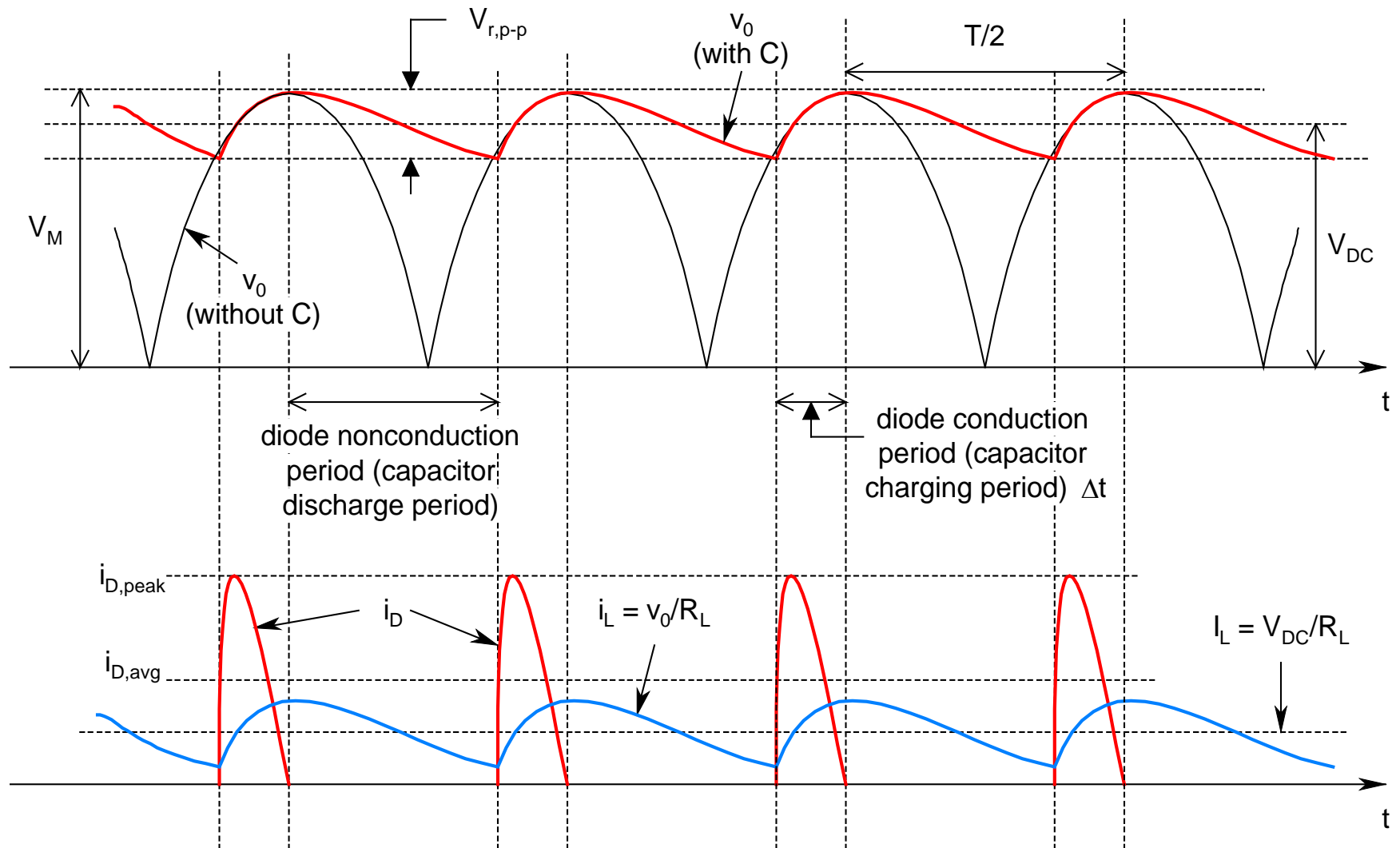


DC Unregulated Power Supply

- As soon as the input starts to fall, the diode will get *reverse* biased, and C will start to *discharge* through R_L with a *time constant* τ ($= R_L C$)
- If this time constant is made *much larger* as compared to the *half period* of the input signal, then there will be *very little drop* of the output voltage (*almost linearly*) during this time
- This process would *repeat* for each cycle, and an almost *constant* output will be produced
- This is, in essence, the working principle of an *unregulated DC voltage regulator*

Using 0th order diode model

$$\text{percent ripple} = (V_{r,p-p}/V_{DC}) \times 100$$



$V_{r,p-p}$: peak-to-peak ripple voltage; i_D : diode current; i_L : load current; V_{DC} : DC output voltage

* **Note:** v_0 oscillates between V_M and $(V_M - V_{r,p-p})$

\Rightarrow For a proper DC output, $V_{r,p-p}$ should be as small as possible (*ideally zero*)

$$\Rightarrow V_{DC} \simeq V_M$$

* To achieve this, the discharge time constant τ ($= R_L C$) should be *much larger* than $T/2$ ($T =$ *time period* of the input signal)

$\Rightarrow C$ should be *as large as possible*

\Rightarrow Discharge profile would almost be a *straight line*, and $V_{DC} \simeq V_M - V_{r,p-p}/2$

- * Diode *conducts* only for a brief period, known as the *diode conduction period* (Δt), during which the *charge lost* by C during the *discharge period* gets *replenished*
 - \Rightarrow Known as *capacitor charging period* (Δt)
- * The diode remains *off* for the rest of the time
 - \Rightarrow Known as the *non-conduction period* (or *capacitor discharge period*)
- * Load current $i_L = v_0 / R_L$, thus, it follows the v_0 waveform *exactly*

- * Diode current $i_D = i_L + i_C$, where

$$i_C = C \frac{dv_0}{dt}$$

is the *capacitor charging current*

Note that this current flows *only* during Δt

- * The profile of i_D is like a *skewed hillock*, with the skew towards the *left* (almost a *triangle*)
- * The *peak* and *average* diode currents are denoted by $i_{D,peak}$ and $i_{D,avg}$, respectively
- * The average or *DC load current* is given by

$$I_L = V_{DC} / R_L$$

Analysis:

- * During ***capacitor discharge period*** [which actually extends for a time interval $(T/2 - \Delta t)$]:

$$v_0 = V_M \exp(-t/\tau)$$

- * Now, in general, $\Delta t \ll T/2$

\Rightarrow At the ***end*** of discharge period:

$$v_0 = V_M - V_{r,p-p} \simeq V_M \exp[-T/(2\tau)]$$

- * Also, $T/(2\tau) \ll 1$

$$\Rightarrow \exp[-T/(2\tau)] \simeq [1 - T/(2\tau)]$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{r,p-p} = V_M \frac{T}{2\tau} = V_M \frac{T}{2R_L C}$$

Observations:

* For *small* $V_{r,p-p}$:

- *C should be large* – has a negative effect
- *R_L should be large* – lesser load current
- *T should be small* – less time to discharge

* For very small $V_{r,p-p}$, $V_{DC} \simeq V_M$, and $I_L \simeq V_M/R_L$

* **Note:** Under this condition: $V_{r,p-p} \simeq I_L/(2fC)$

$f = \text{cycle frequency} = 1/T$

* **Caution:** This expression is valid only if $V_{r,p-p} \ll V_{DC}$,
however, can be used with acceptable error for less
than 10% ripple

Diode Conduction Period:

- * Starts as soon as it gets *forward* biased, and continues till v_s reaches V_M

$$\Rightarrow V_M \cos[\omega(\Delta t)] = V_M - V_{r,p-p}$$

Time $t = 0$ at the instant when $v_s = V_M$

$$\omega = 2\pi f \text{ (with } f = 1/T\text{)}$$

- * Note: $\Delta t \ll T/2$, and using the identity

$$\cos(2\theta) \simeq 1 - 2\theta^2 \text{ (for small } \theta\text{):}$$

$$V_M \left[1 - 2 \left\{ \omega(\Delta t)/2 \right\}^2 \right] \simeq V_M - V_{r,p-p}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta t \simeq \frac{1}{\omega} \sqrt{\frac{2V_{r,p-p}}{V_M}}$$

- * ***Caution:*** This expression is only valid for $\Delta t \ll T/2$
- * For large $V_{r,p-p}$ (particularly for *more than 10% ripple*), this expression *should not be used*
- * The *inverse* dependence of Δt on ω is *misleading* (actually the product $\omega(\Delta t)$ should be *small*)
- * Therefore, this expression just gives an *estimate* and is by no means accurate

Average and Peak Diode Currents:

- * Can be found by *equating* the charges that are *supplied* to the capacitor during the *charging period*, with the one that is *lost* during the *discharge period*
- * Charge *lost* by the capacitor during the *discharge period* = $CV_{r,p-p}$
- * Charge *supplied* to it during the *charging period* = $i_{C,avg}\Delta t$, where $i_{C,avg}$ is an *average charging current* of the capacitor during the time interval Δt

- * $i_{C,avg} = i_{D,avg} - i_{L,avg}$, where $i_{D,avg}$ is the *average diode current* during the *charging period* and $i_{L,avg}$ is the *average load current*
- * If $V_{r,p-p}$ is *small*, then $i_{L,avg} \simeq I_L \simeq V_M / R_L$
- * Thus, the *charge balance equation*:

$$(i_{D,avg} - I_L) \Delta t = C V_{r,p-p}$$

$$\Rightarrow i_{D,avg} = I_L \left(1 + \pi \sqrt{\frac{V_M}{2V_{r,p-p}}} \right)$$

$$\textbf{Recall: } V_{r,p-p} \simeq \frac{I_L}{2fC} \text{ and } \Delta t \simeq \frac{1}{\omega} \sqrt{\frac{2V_{r,p-p}}{V_M}}$$

- * The ***peak*** value of the ***diode current*** occurs as soon as the diode gets ***forward biased***, i.e., at $t = -\Delta t$
- * Using KCL at the output node at $t = -\Delta t$:

$$i_{D,\text{peak}} = C \left. \frac{dv_s}{dt} \right|_{t=-\Delta t} + i_L$$

- * ***Recall***: $v_s = V_M \cos(\omega t)$, with t measured from the peak of the signal, and $i_L \simeq I_L$

$$\Rightarrow i_{D,\text{peak}} = I_L \left(1 + \pi \sqrt{\frac{2V_M}{V_{r,p-p}}} \right)$$

Observations:

* **Note:** $i_{D,avg} \simeq i_{D,peak} / 2$, since $V_{r,p-p} \ll V_M$

\Rightarrow the **diode current** waveform is close to being a **right-angled triangle**

\Rightarrow **Both $i_{D,avg}$ and $i_{D,peak}$ are $\gg I_L$**

* Should be intuitively obvious, since C **discharges** for a **much longer time** interval with an **almost constant** DC current I_L , whereas it is **charged** for a **very short duration** (Δt)

\Rightarrow Thus, from **charge balance**, the **charging current should be much larger than the DC load current**

- * Both $i_{D,avg}$ and $i_{D,peak}$ are *inverse* function of $V_{r,p-p}$
- * **Recall:** $V_{r,p-p}$ is an *inverse* function of C
- * Thus, *high value of C reduces $V_{r,p-p}$ but increases $i_{D,avg}$ and $i_{D,peak}$*
- * Diodes have *peak and impulse current ratings*
- * **Peak Current Rating:** The *maximum* current that the diode can *safely carry* under *normal operating condition* (i.e., the current is *sustained*)
- * **Impulse Current Rating:** The *maximum* current that the diode can *safely carry* for a *very short period of time*

- * The *impulse current rating* along with the *permissible time* are specified in the *data sheet* of the diode
- * If the current flowing through the diode *exceeds* these current ratings, then it would cause *destructive breakdown* of the diode due to *excessive heating* caused by *large power dissipation*
- * Thus, *indiscriminately increasing the value of the filter capacitor C to smooth out the output voltage waveform is, in general, not a good practice*

Example: Transformer secondary output = 15 V (rms), 50 Hz. Maximum permissible drop in v_0 from no load (i.e., $R_L \rightarrow \infty$, open-circuit) to full load (corresponding to $R_L = 100 \Omega$) not to exceed 1 V. To find C; and $i_{D,avg}$, $i_{D,peak}$, and Δt at full load.

Solution: $V_M = 15 \times \sqrt{2} = 21.2 \text{ V}$

With no load, $I_L = 0$ and $V_{DC} = V_M$

Under full load, $V_{DC} = V_M - V_{r,p-p}/2$

\therefore Maximum drop allowed is 1 V,

$\therefore V_{r,p-p} = 2 \text{ V}$

$$\Rightarrow C = V_M / (2fR_L V_{r,p-p}) = 1006 \mu F$$

Note how large the required value of C is!

Note: The analysis done so far is pretty accurate if $V_{r,p-p}$ is less than 10% of V_{DC}

The analysis results can still be used even if $V_{r,p-p}$ is more than 10% of V_{DC} , however, obviously, the result will be less accurate

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Average DC Output Voltage } V_{DC} &= V_M - V_{r,p-p} / 2 \\ &= 20.2 \text{ V} \end{aligned}$$

Note that $V_{r,p-p}$ is just less than 10% of V_{DC}

\Rightarrow Average full load current $I_L = V_{DC}/R_L = 202 \text{ mA}$

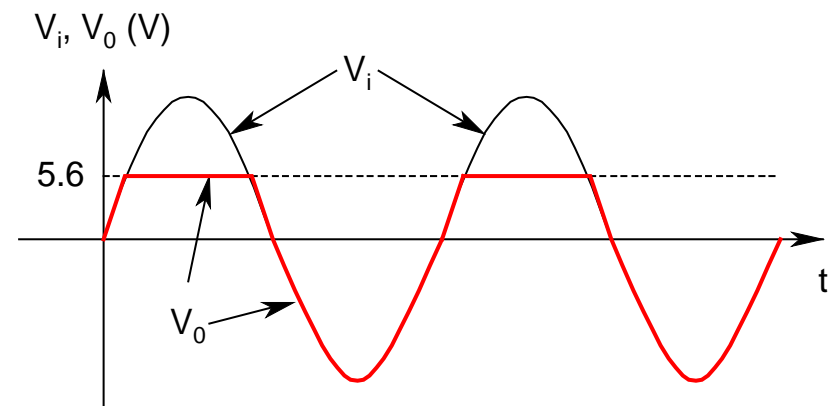
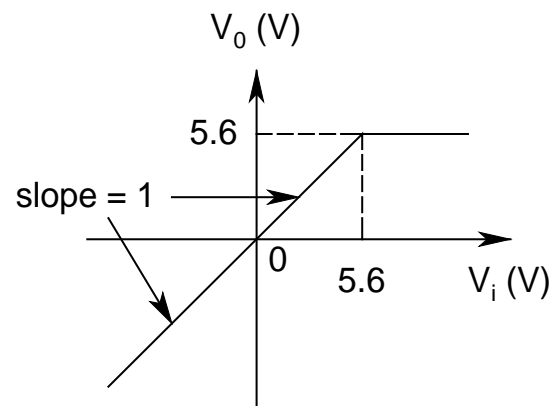
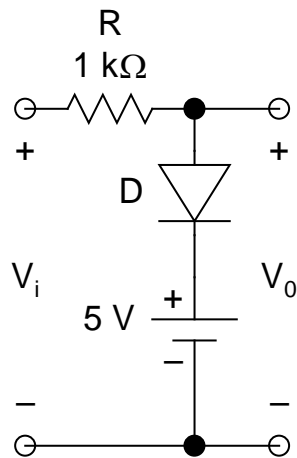
$$i_{D,avg} = I_L \left(1 + \pi \sqrt{\frac{V_M}{2V_{r,p-p}}} \right) = 1.66 \text{ A}$$

$$i_{D,peak} = I_L \left(1 + \pi \sqrt{\frac{2V_M}{V_{r,p-p}}} \right) = 3.12 \text{ A}$$

Note: $i_{D,peak}$ is about twice that of $i_{D,avg}$, and both are much larger than I_L (15 and 8 times, respectively)

$$\Delta t \simeq \frac{1}{\omega} \sqrt{\frac{2V_{r,p-p}}{V_M}} = 1.4 \text{ ms} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{note : } T/2 = 10 \text{ ms} \\ \Delta t \text{ is more than } 10\% \end{array} \right)$$

Diode Clamping Circuit:



Voltage Transfer
Characteristic (VTC)
using 1st order diode
model with $V_\gamma = 0.6\text{ V}$

* Cathode of D at constant 5 V DC

⇒ It cannot conduct until its anode reaches 5.6 V

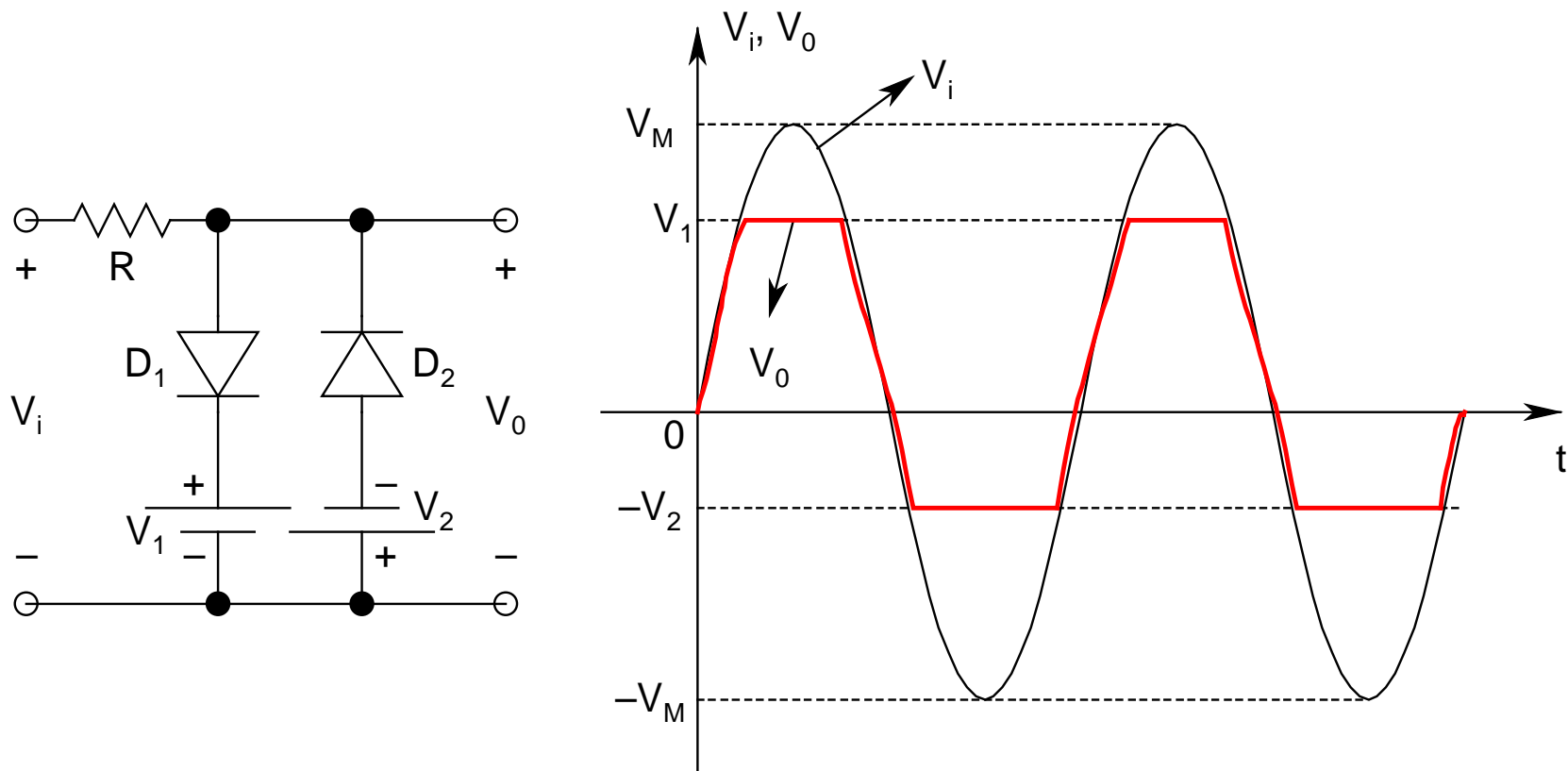
⇒ For all negative values of V_i , as well as for positive values less than 5.6 V, D remains *off*, and V_o *follows* V_i

⇒ For $V_i \geq 5.6$ V, the diode branch turns *on* and V_o gets *clamped/clipped* at 5.6 V

⇒ *Diode clamping/clipping circuit*

* *Exercise*: Use 2nd order diode model with $V_\gamma = 0.6$ V and $r_F = 50 \Omega$, and rework the problem

Dual Clipper:



Using 0th order diode model

- * Provides for *clipping* of input waveforms in both *positive* and *negative* half cycles
- * Cathode of D_1 sitting at $+V_1$ and anode of D_2 sitting at $-V_2$
 - \Rightarrow Using 0th order diode model, for all values of V_i from $-V_2$ to $+V_1$, both diodes would be *off*, and *V_o would follow V_i*
- * For D_1 to conduct, its anode voltage must be $\geq V_1$, and for D_2 to conduct its cathode voltage must be $\leq -V_2$

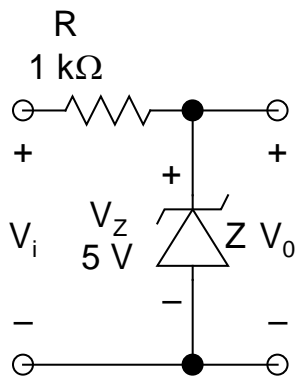
- * Thus, for $V_i \geq V_1$, D_1 *conducts*, D_2 remains *off*, and V_0 gets *clamped/clipped* at V_1
- * Similarly, for $V_i \leq -V_2$, D_2 *conducts*, D_1 remains *off*, and V_0 gets *clamped/clipped* at $-V_2$
- * Note: If $V_1 = |V_2|$, then the clipping will be *perfectly symmetric* for both positive and negative half cycles
- * ***Exercise:*** Rework the problem using 2nd order diode model with $V_\gamma = 0.6 \text{ V}$ and $r_F = 50 \Omega$

Zener Diode:

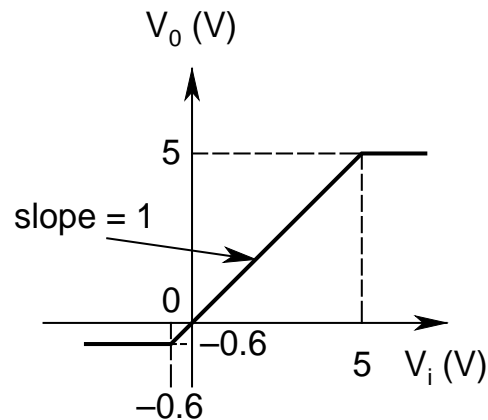
- * Normal diodes have *breakdown voltage in excess of 50 V* (in general)
- * **Zener diodes**, on the other hand, have *breakdown voltage* typically in the range of **3-8 V**
- * Under *forward bias*, there is absolutely *no difference* between a normal diode and a Zener diode
- * Zener diodes, under breakdown, *clamps* the voltage across it at the *breakdown voltage*
- * Zener diodes, operated in the breakdown mode, have some important circuit applications

Zener Diode Clamping Circuit:

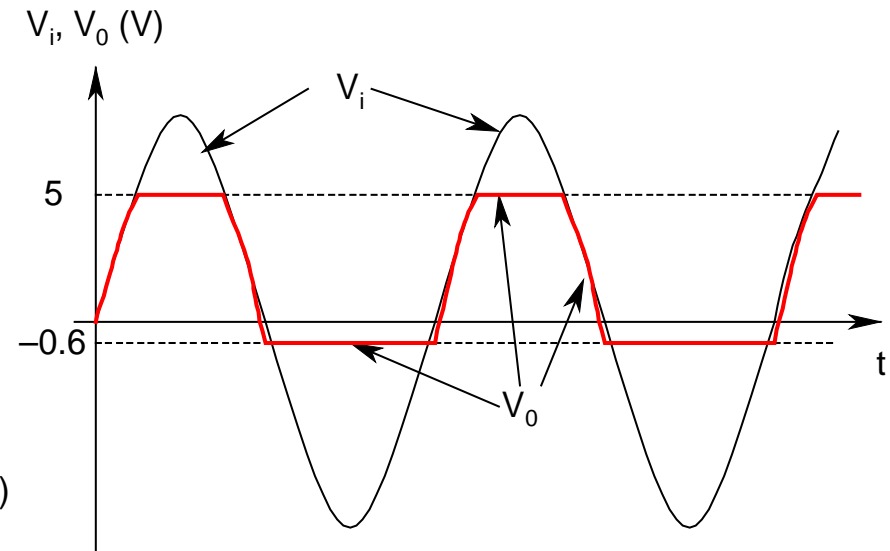
Note the symbol of a Zener diode



V_Z : Zener Breakdown Voltage (actually negative, but defined as a positive number)



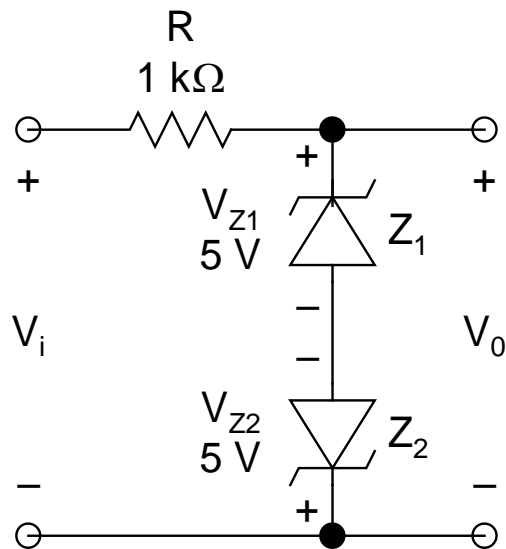
Voltage Transfer Characteristic (VTC) using 1st order diode model with $V_\gamma = 0.6 \text{ V}$ and $V_Z = 5 \text{ V}$



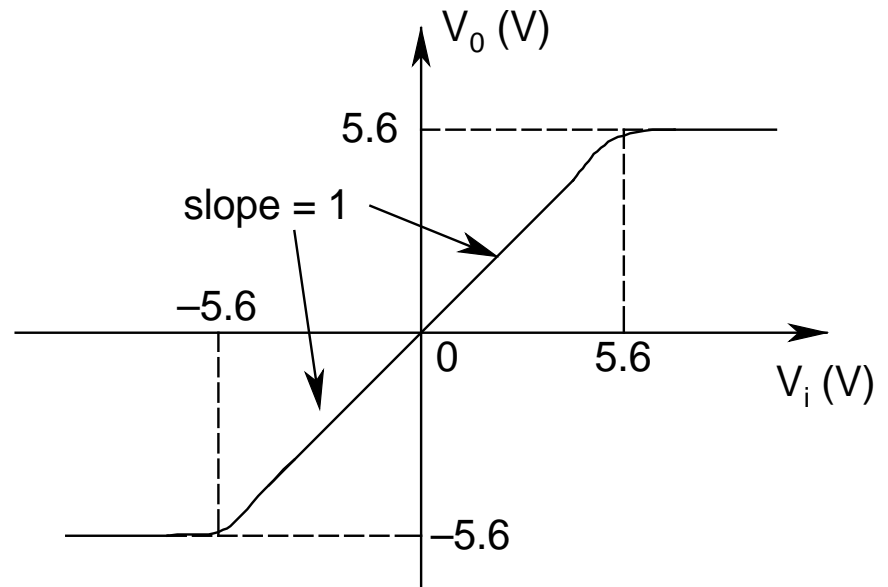
Using 1st order diode model

- * For *negative* V_i , Z will be *forward biased*, and would *clamp* V_0 at $-V_\gamma$ ($= -0.6$ V) for all values of $V_i \leq -0.6$ V
- * For $V_i \geq V_Z$ ($= 5$ V), Z will *break down* and *clamp* the voltage across it at V_Z
- * For V_i ranging between -0.6 V and 5 V, Z will be *off*, and V_0 would *follow* V_i
- * **Exercise:** Rework the problem using 2nd order Zener diode model with $r_Z = 100 \Omega$
 r_Z : Zener resistance under breakdown mode

Dual Clipper Using Zener Diodes:



We have chosen $V_{Z1} = V_{Z2}$,
however, it need not be so.
But $V_{\gamma 1} = V_{\gamma 2} = V_{\gamma} = 0.6\text{ V}$.

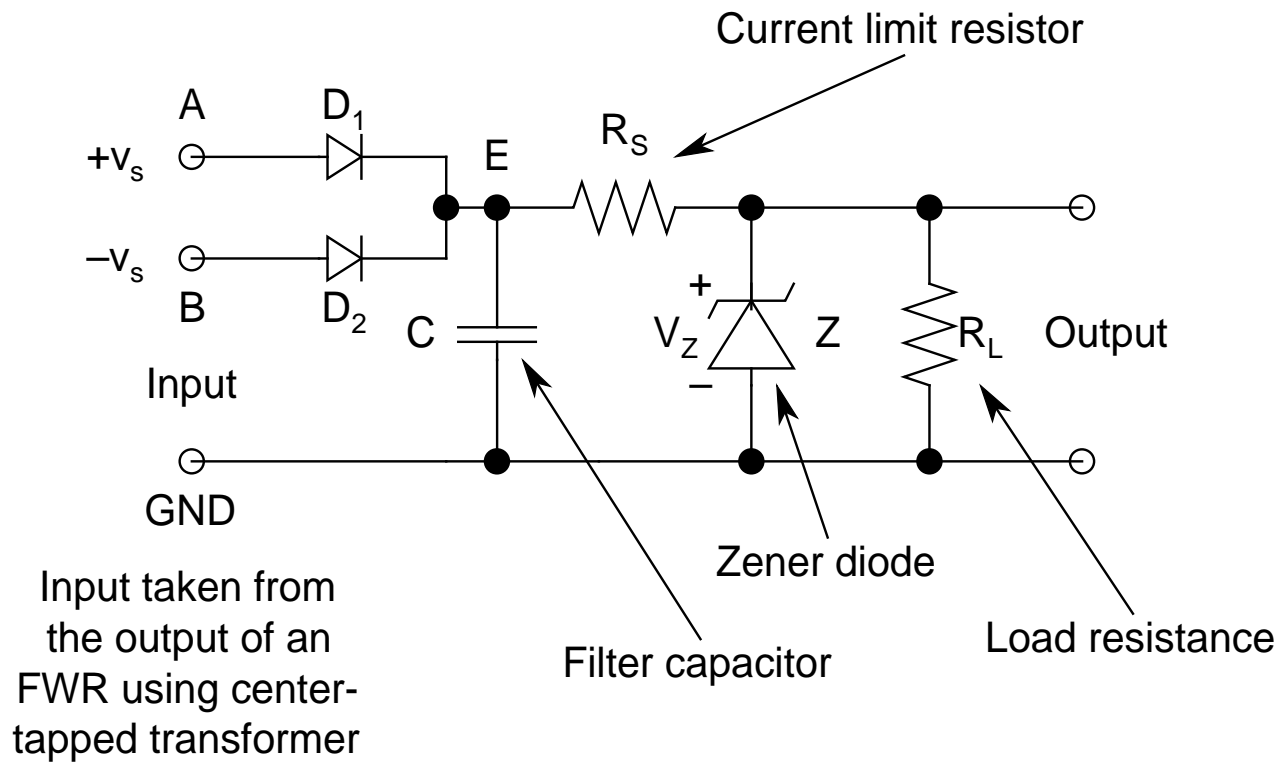


VTC using 1st order diode model

- * Note the ***back-to-back*** connection of Z_1 and Z_2
 \Rightarrow Known as ***double-anode Zener***
- * For $V_i > (V_{Z1} + V_\gamma)$, Z_1 will operate under ***breakdown mode*** and Z_2 will operate under ***forward bias***
 $\Rightarrow V_0$ will get ***clamped*** at $(V_{Z1} + V_\gamma)$
- * For $V_i < -(V_{Z2} + V_\gamma)$, Z_2 will operate under ***breakdown mode*** and Z_1 will operate under ***forward bias***
 $\Rightarrow V_0$ will get ***clamped*** at $[-(V_{Z2} + V_\gamma)]$
- * In between these two values of V_i , either of Z_1 or Z_2 will be ***off*** and V_0 would ***follow*** V_i

Regulated DC Power Supply:

- * Immensely useful module to convert ***ac input*** to ***DC output***, with almost ***no ripple*** present at the output, as well as the output being ***independent*** of the value of the ***load resistance***
- * It's a ***series*** combination of an ***FWR*** circuit (either using a ***center-tapped transformer*** or a ***bridge rectifier***), a ***capacitive filter*** circuit, and a ***Zener diode clamping*** circuit



Regulated DC Power Supply
(*Zener Voltage Regulator*)

- * The voltage at point E is almost a *sawtooth* waveform, varying between V_M and $(V_M - V_{r,p-p})$
 V_M : peak value of input, $V_{r,p-p}$: peak-to-peak ripple
- * If these values lie *below* the breakdown voltage V_Z of the Zener diode, then the latter would have *no role* to play in the operation of the circuit, and the output will simply be given by the *voltage division* between R_L and R_S
- * However, if these voltages are *greater* than V_Z , then the Zener diode would operate in the *breakdown mode*, and the output would get *clamped* at V_Z

- * Thus, the output would have ***no ripple*** present in it, and would be completely ***independent*** of the value of the ***load resistance*** R_L
- * However, the actual picture is not that perfect!

Actual Scenario:

- * A practical Zener diode, operating in the ***breakdown mode***, need a ***minimum current*** ($I_{Z,min}$) to flow through it to ***sustain*** the breakdown mode
- * Also, a practical Zener diode has a limit on the ***maximum current*** ($I_{Z,max}$) that it can safely ***sink***

- * $I_{Z,\max}$ is dictated by the *maximum allowed power dissipation* in a Zener diode, $P_{Z,\max}$, given by

$$P_{Z,\max} = V_Z \times I_{Z,\max}$$

- * Added to that is the *Zener resistance* r_Z in the breakdown mode, typically ranging about 50-100 Ω
- * In the presence of this r_Z , the actual output across the Zener diode *will not be constant*, but would keep on *changing with changing input voltage*
 \Rightarrow *ripples would start to show up at the output*,
depending on the variations present in the voltage at point E

* r_Z also dictates the *maximum current* that the Zener can safely carry for a given $P_{Z,\max}$

* In presence of r_Z :

$$P_{Z,\max} = (V_Z + I_{Z,\max} r_Z) \times I_{Z,\max} = V_Z I_{Z,\max} + I_{Z,\max}^2 r_Z$$

* For a given V_Z , $P_{Z,\max}$, and r_Z , the maximum allowable Zener current $I_{Z,\max}$ is obtained from the solution of this *quadratic equation*

* Generally, in actual operation, the *maximum* current through the Zener diode is *not allowed to exceed* $I_{Z,\max} / 2$ (using *factor of safety* = 2)

Role of R_S :

- * It is a *current limit resistor*, and its role is immense
- * It *limits the maximum current* that can flow through the Zener diode
 - \Rightarrow Protects it from *excessive power dissipation* and consequent *overheating*
 - \Rightarrow Also, acts as a *current limit* for *accidental short-circuit* situation (i.e., $R_L = 0$)
- * There are *lower and upper limits* of the values of R_S , denoted by $R_{S,min}$ and $R_{S,max}$, respectively

- * $R_{S,min}$ is dictated by the *open-circuit condition* (i.e., $R_L \rightarrow \infty$) under the *maximum possible voltage* at point E, since under such a condition, the Zener diode would carry the *maximum amount of current*
- * $R_{S,max}$ is governed by the condition that the circuit should be able to deliver the *required load current* as well as the *minimum Zener current* (thus, sustaining its breakdown mode) for the *lowest possible voltage* at point E
- * *Note: $R_{S,max}$ is a function of R_L*

- * For a given value of R_S , there is a corresponding *range* of values of R_L , beyond which the circuit operation is *unsafe*
- * Also, a practical Zener Voltage Regulator would have *short-circuit protection*, to safeguard it from *accidental short-circuits*

Example: V_E varies between 10 V and 15 V, $V_Z = 5$ V, $I_{Z,\min} = 1$ mA, $P_{Z,\max} = 1$ W, $R_L = 100\ \Omega$, neglect r_Z , and factor of safety = 2. Find $R_{S,\min}$ and $R_{S,\max}$.

$$I_{Z,\max} = P_{Z,\max} / V_Z = (1\text{ W}) / (5\text{ V}) = 200\text{ mA}$$

Using factor of safety 2, permissible $I_{Z,\max} = 100$ mA

$$\text{Load current } I_L = V_Z / R_L = (5\text{ V} / 100\ \Omega) = 50\text{ mA}$$

$$I_L + I_{Z,\min} = 51\text{ mA}, \text{ and } V_{E,\min} = 10\text{ V}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{S,\max} = (V_{E,\min} - V_Z) / (51\text{ mA}) = 98\ \Omega$$

Note: If R_S is greater than this value, then the Zener will starve for current, and proper circuit operation will be lost

$$I_L + I_{Z,\max} = 150 \text{ mA}, \text{ and } V_{E,\max} = 15 \text{ V}$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{S,\min} = (V_{E,\max} - V_Z) / (150 \text{ mA}) = 67 \Omega$$

Note: If R_S is lower than this value, then the Zener current will exceed the maximum permitted value
Thus, the allowed value of R_S ranges between 67Ω and 98Ω

Exercise: Use any value of R_S outside this range, and show that either the Zener would starve for current or the current through the Zener would exceed its maximum permissible limit

Example: All data same as previous example, but now

$R_S = 80 \, \Omega$ (fixed). Find the allowed range of R_L .

The minimum value of current that can flow through

$$R_S = (V_{E,\min} - V_Z) / R_S = 62.5 \, \text{mA}$$

This current should be able to supply at least $I_{Z,\min}$,

as well as $I_{L,\max}$

$$\Rightarrow R_{L,\min} = V_Z / (62.5 \, \text{mA} - I_{Z,\min}) = 81 \, \Omega$$

Similarly, the maximum current that can flow

$$\text{through } R_S = (V_{E,\max} - V_Z) / R_S = 125 \, \text{mA}$$

This current should supply $I_{L,\min}$, as well as $I_{Z,\max}$

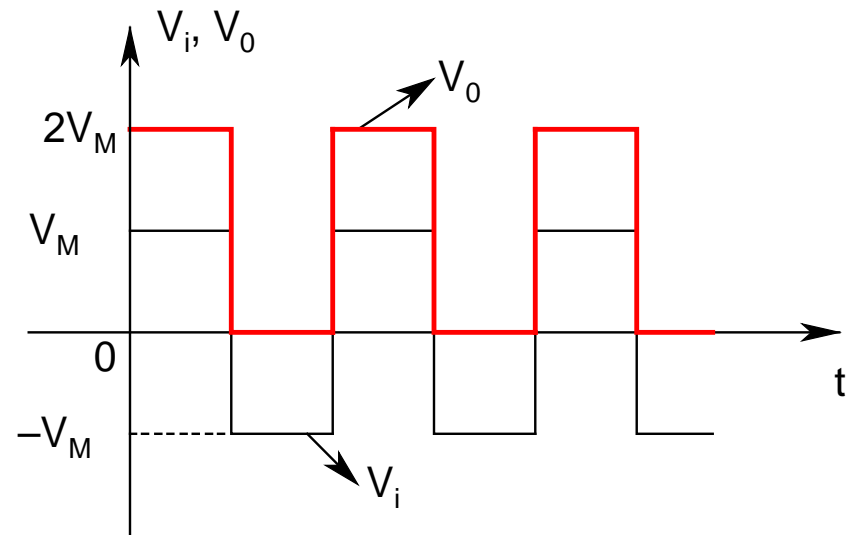
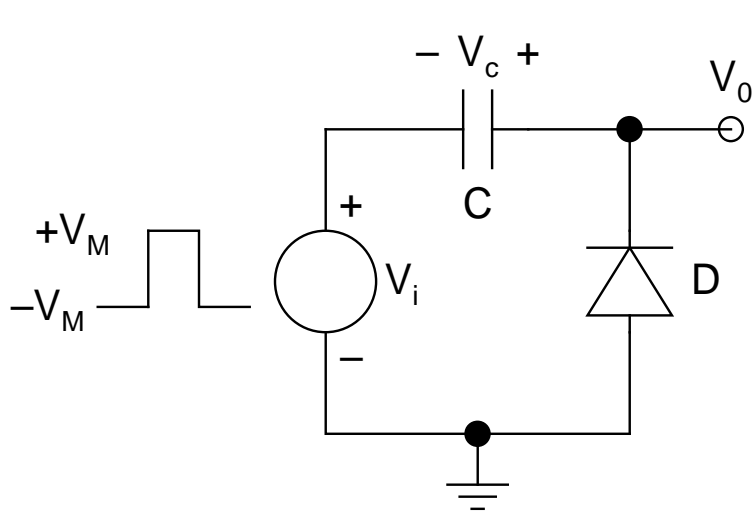
$$\Rightarrow R_{L,\max} = V_Z / (125 \text{ mA} - I_{Z,\max}) = 200 \, \Omega$$

Thus, the allowed range of values of R_L should be between $81 \, \Omega$ and $200 \, \Omega$

Exercise: Use any value of R_L outside this range, and show that either the Zener would starve for current or the current through the Zener would exceed its maximum permissible limit

DC Restorator:

- * This circuit is also known as **DC Level Shifter** or **Diode Clamp**
- * Used to add a certain amount of **DC offset** (either *positive* or *negative*) to the input signal



Using 0th order model

- * Assume *ideal* diode, and initially capacitor C was completely *discharged* (i.e., $V_c = 0$)
- * V_i is a *square wave* having amplitude $\pm V_M$ and *zero DC offset*
- * For $V_i = -V_M$, D becomes *forward biased* and *clamps* V_o to zero volts (using *0th order model*)
- * *Note*: Under this condition, $V_c = +V_M$
- * For $V_i = +V_M$, D *cuts off* and V_c *adds to* V_i to produce $V_o = 2V_M$
- * The circuit effectively *doubles* the input voltage amplitude \Rightarrow also known as *Voltage Doubler*

Observations:

* **Note:** The circuit actually *does not* double the input voltage, rather it adds a **DC offset** equal to the *amplitude* of the input signal

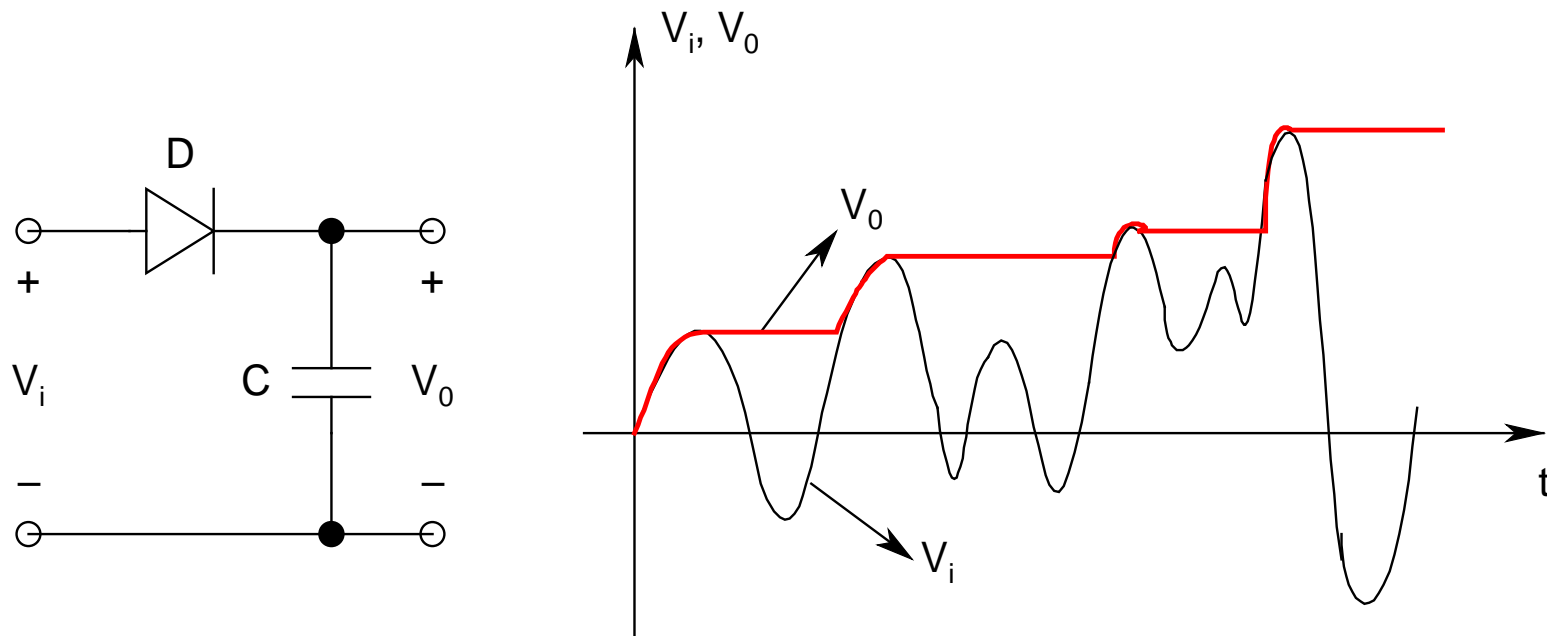
⇒ The *peak-to-peak* value of V_0 remains the *same* as that of V_i

* V_i *need not be symmetric*

* **D can be reversed**

⇒ V_0 would have *positive peak* clamped at 0 , while the *negative peak* would be at $-2V_M$ with a **DC offset of $-V_M$**

Peak (or Envelope) Detector:

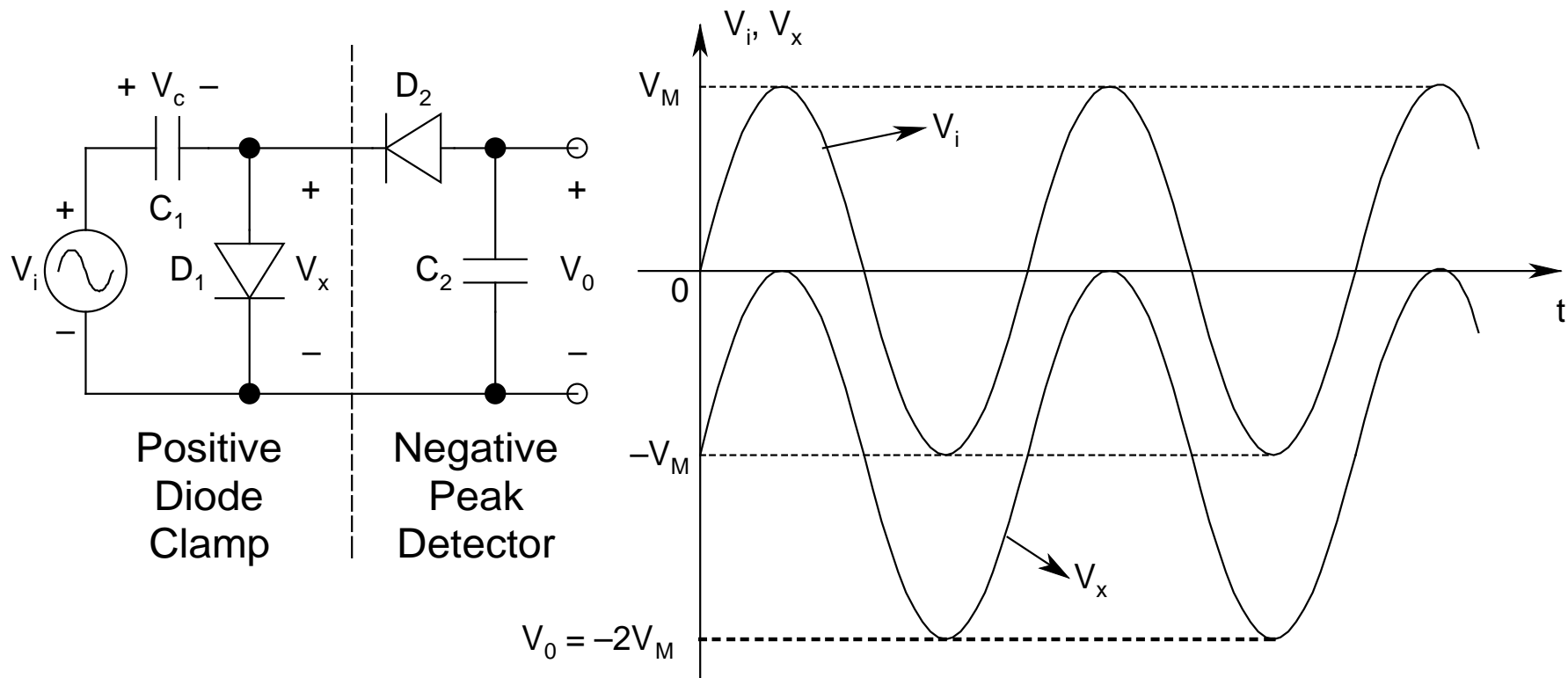


Using 0th order diode model

Also known as ***Sample and Hold Circuit***

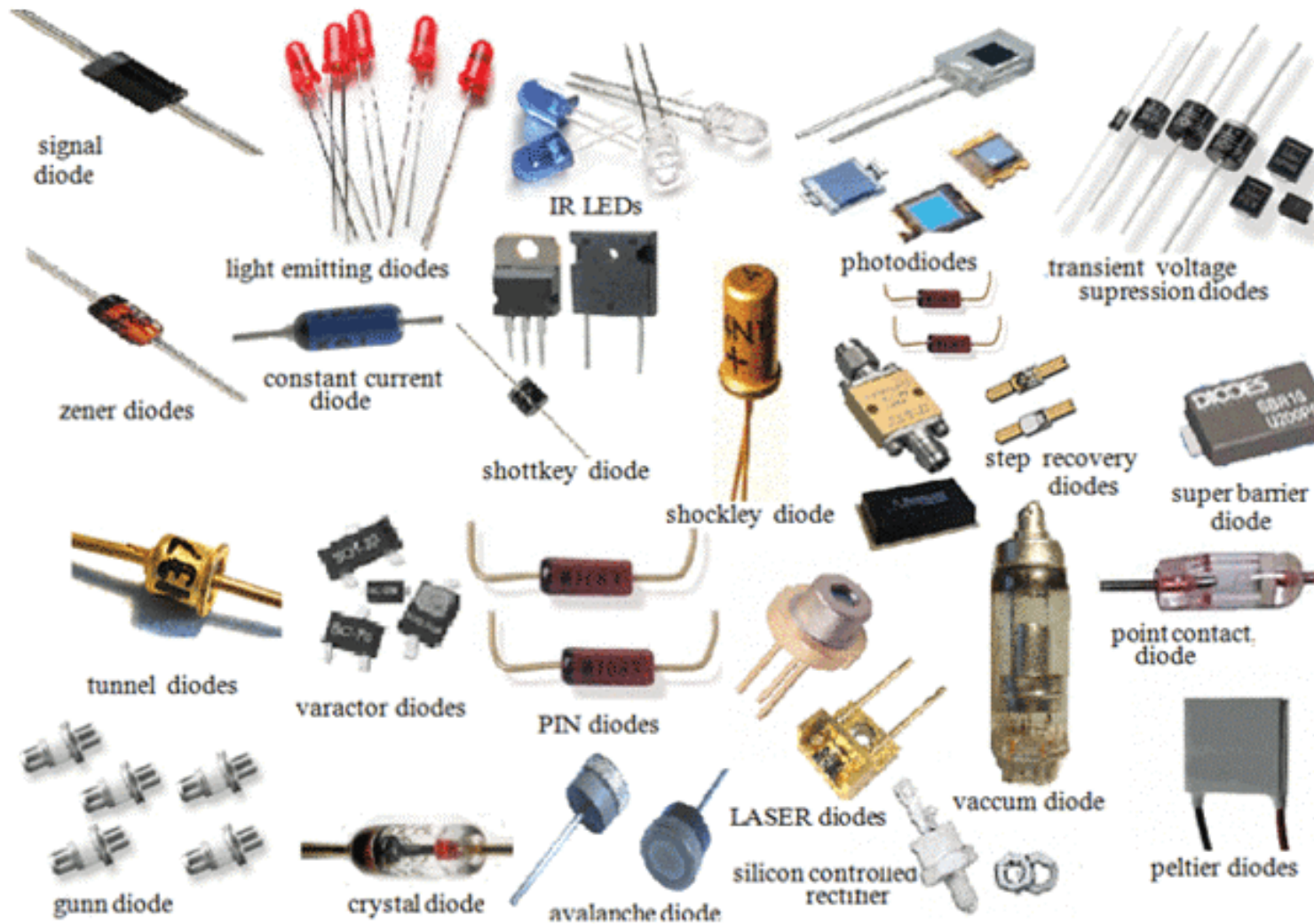
- * Similar to an *HWR with a filter capacitor* (C)
- * Assuming that C is initially completely *discharged*, V_0 will *follow* V_i whenever D is *forward biased* (assuming *ideal* diode)
- * However, as soon as V_i starts to *decrease* beyond its *maximum* value, D immediately gets *reverse biased*, and C *stores* the charge corresponding to the *last peak value* of V_i
- * Very popular circuit earlier, however, is rarely used nowadays due to the availability of much better options

Peak-to-Peak Detector:



- * Measures the *peak-to-peak* value of the input signal and *holds* (or *clamps*) that value at the output
- * Consists of *two* blocks:
 - A *positive diode clamp* (C_1 - D_1), and
 - A *negative peak detector* (C_2 - D_2)
- * For *positive* V_i , D_1 gets *forward biased*, *clamps* V_x at 0 V , and C_1 gets *charged to* V_M (i.e., $V_c = V_M$, *carefully note the polarity*)
- * Note that $V_x = -(V_c - V_i)$

- * V_c *remains clamped at V_M* , whereas the *maximum* and *minimum* values of V_i are $+V_M$ and $-V_M$ respectively
 - $\Rightarrow V_x$ *swings between 0 and $-2V_M$*
 - $\Rightarrow V_o$ *gets clamped at $-2V_M$*
- * Quite useful circuit to detect the *peak-to-peak* value of any input waveform
- * *Note that the input need not be symmetric*

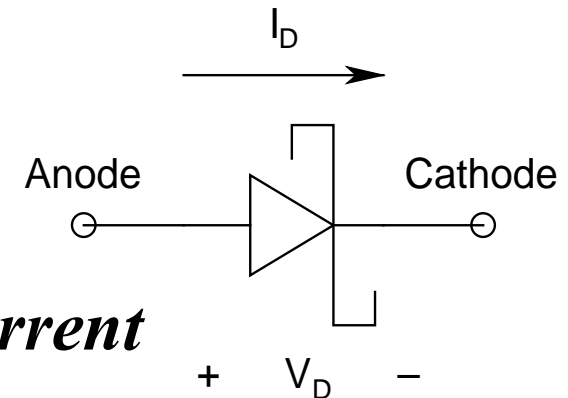


Types of Diode

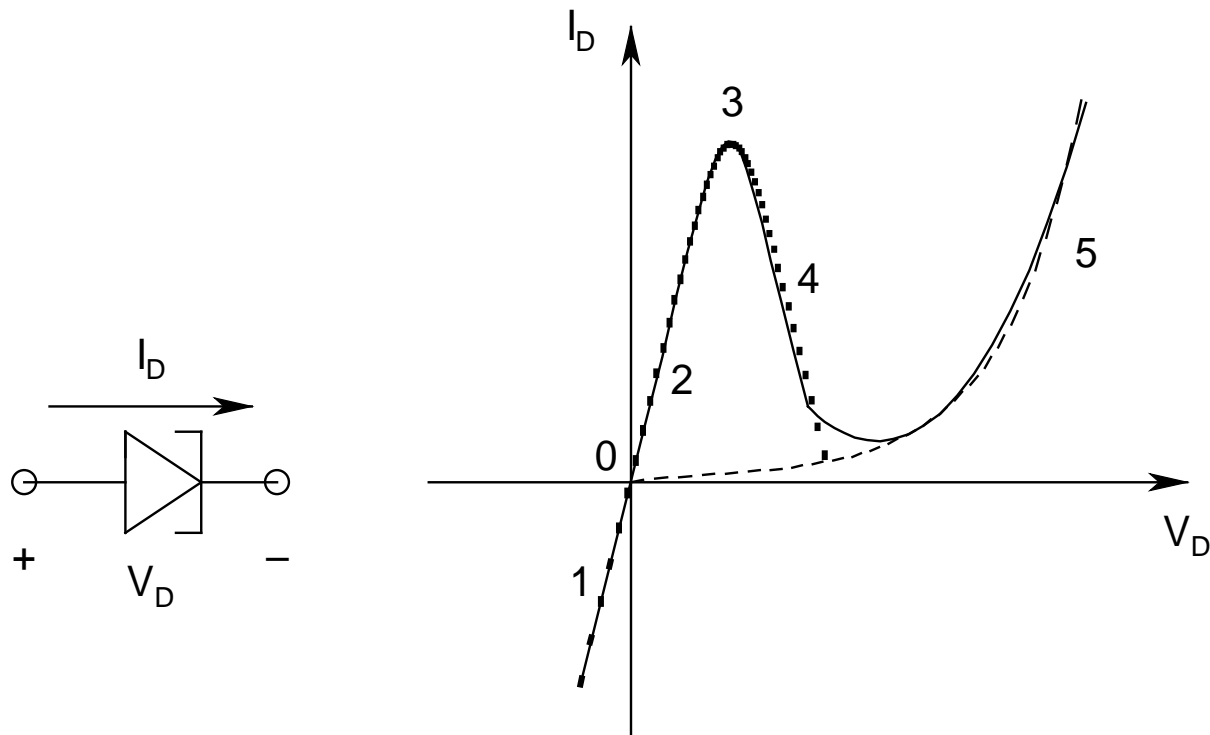
- ***Some Special Diodes:***
 - **Schottky Diode**
 - **Tunnel Diode**
 - **Varactor Diode**
 - **Light Emitting Diode (*LED*)**
 - **LASER Diode**
 - **Photodetector [*Photodiode (PD)*]**
 - **Solar Cell**

Schottky Diode:

- * *Metal-semiconductor junction*
- * *Low cut-in voltage* ($V_\gamma \approx 0.1\text{-}0.2\text{ V}$)
- * *High reverse leakage current*
- * *Can carry large amount of forward current*
- * *Low reverse breakdown voltage*
- * *Exhibits low capacitance (majority carrier device)*
- * *Excellent frequency response* characteristic with *very high cutoff frequency*
- * *Used in RF applications*



Tunnel Diode:

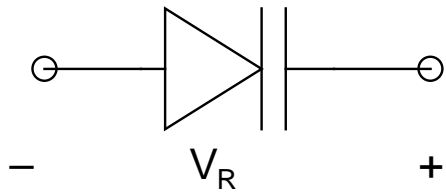


Note the negative resistance region (4),
as well as the reverse characteristic (1)

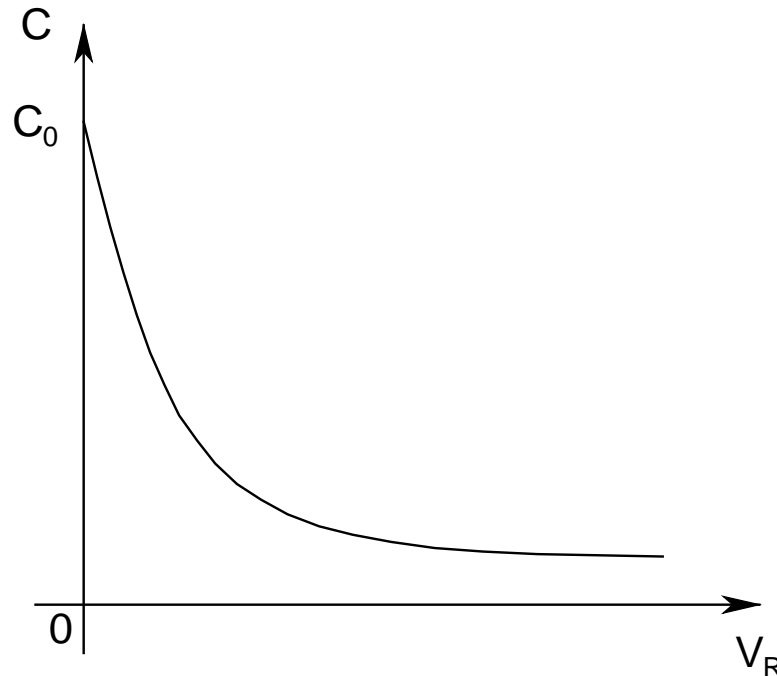
- * Also known as *Esaki diode*, named after its inventor Leo Esaki in 1957
- * pn junction diode, with both sides *very heavily doped*, with a *very thin junction depletion region*
- * Shows peculiar *negative resistance* region in the current-voltage characteristic
- * For both forward and reverse bias near zero, carriers *tunnel* freely across the junction, thus producing an almost *linear (resistive)* characteristic (1 and 2)

- * Eventually, the current reaches a *peak* (3) and then starts to *drop* (4), yielding a *negative resistance* region!
- * In the background, normal *injection* current of the diode flows, and finally takes over the characteristic (5)
- * The *reverse current never saturates!* (Thought to have *zero reverse breakdown voltage*)
- * Extremely *fast* device, with *cutoff frequency* as high as *300 GHz*
- * **Usage: High-speed switching circuits, RF oscillators**

Varactor Diode:



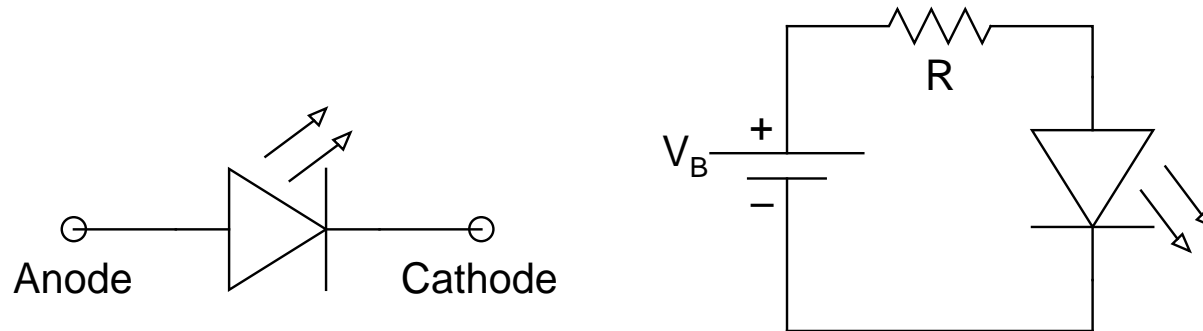
Note the polarity
of the applied voltage



- * Varactor \rightarrow *Variable Reactor*
- * Also known as *varicap diode*, *variable capacitance diode*, *variable reactance diode*, and *tuning diode*

- * Operated in *reverse bias* mode, with *negligible current* flowing through the device
- * There is a *capacitance* around the junction, which *decreases* with an *increase* in the applied *reverse bias*, following the relation $C \propto V_R^{-n}$, where n is either 1/2 or 1/3, depending on the *type of junction*
- * **Usage: Tuning circuits, Voltage-Controlled Oscillators**
- * Using special technology, $n = 2$ can be achieved
 - \Rightarrow *Resonance frequency* $\omega_0 = 1/\sqrt{LC} \propto V_R$
 - \Rightarrow A highly *linear* response can be obtained

Light Emitting Diode (LED):



- * ***pn junction diode***, operated under ***forward bias***
 \Rightarrow Significant amount of ***carrier injection/recombination***
- * Energy lost due to recombination = ***Bandgap Energy*** (E_g)
 \Rightarrow Carried away by ***photons (quanta of light)***
- * Known as ***electroluminescence***

$$* E_g = h\nu = hc/\lambda \Rightarrow \lambda = hc/E_g = 1.24/E_g$$

λ in μm , E_g in eV

* λ for *visible range* $\sim 400\text{ nm to }760\text{ nm}$

\Rightarrow Corresponds to E_g of *1.63 to 3.1 eV*

* *Color* (λ in nm, material): *Violet (400-450, InGaN), Blue (450-500, ZnSe), Green (500-570, GaP), Yellow (570-590, GaAsP), Orange (590-610, AlGaInP), Red (610-760, AlGaAs)*

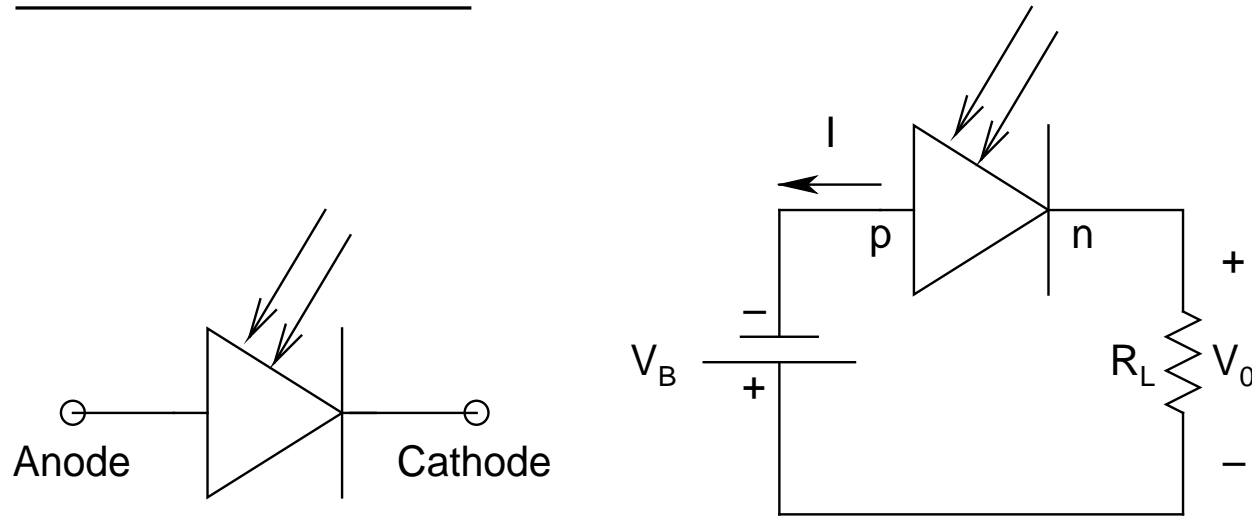
* Active device is coated with a *transparent material* (typically *glass*) with *anti-reflection coating*

LASER Diode:

- * **LASER: *Light Amplification by Stimulated Emission of Radiation***
- * Symbol same as that of an LED
- * The light emitted by LEDs is *noncoherent* (i.e., *not in phase*) and *nonmonochromatic* (i.e., *not having a single wavelength*)
- * **Usage: Fiber Optic Communication, laser printer, laser pointer, barcode reader, CD/DVD reader, etc.**

- * In LASERs, the light emitted by the active device is made to go through *repeated reflections* through the use of *two mirrors* (called *Bragg reflectors*) at the two ends of the *optical cavity* (creates a *standing wave* for the light), and eventually taken out through a *Brewster mirror* (a mirror tilted at *Brewster angle*, which passes light only of a *particular polarization*)
 \Rightarrow *intense coherent monochromatic light*
- * ***Laser Power: 10s of mW to 100s of mW***

Photodetector:

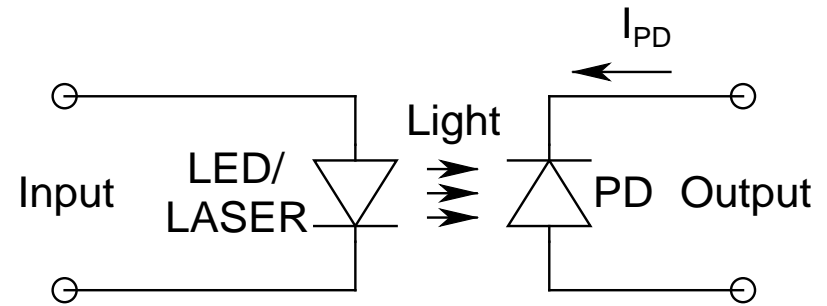


- * Also known as *photodiode (PD)*
- * Operation just *opposite* of LED: while **LED** produces *light* under *forward bias*, **PD** (under *reverse bias*) produces *current* when *illuminated (photovoltaic effect)*

- * *Magnitude* of this current *proportional* to the *intensity* of the incident light
- * Light breaks *covalent bonds* and create *electron-hole pairs (EHPs)*, with *electrons* moving from *p to n*, and *holes* moving from *n to p*, due to the *large electric field* (created by *reverse bias*) across the junction (recall that it points from *n to p*)
- * **Usage: Burglar alarm, moving object counter, automatic street lights, fire and smoke detector, etc.**

An Interesting Application : Opto-Isolator:

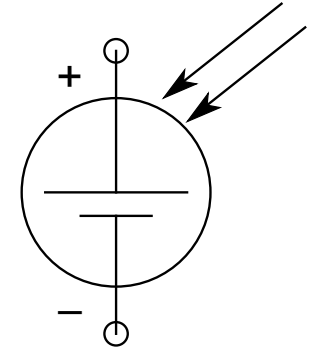
- * Also known as *opto-coupler*
- * **No** electrical connection between input and output
 \Rightarrow *Total electrical isolation*



- * The LED/LASER emits light, which is detected by the PD, and current (I_{PD}) *proportional* to the input light flows in the output circuit
- * If due to some *obstruction* in the light path, the light gets *blocked*, then I_{PD} *dips*, and activates a *relay*
 \Rightarrow *Perfect security system (Burglar Alarm)*

Solar Cell:

- * Normal Si *pn* junction diode
- * Operates under the principle of *photovoltaic effect* \Rightarrow converts *optical energy* to *electrical energy*
- * Very similar to PD, however, while PDs are *reverse biased*, the solar cell act as a *source of power*
- * Incident light breaks *covalent bonds* and create *EHPs*, which are *separated* by the *junction electric field*, and gets *collected* by external contacts, creating a *current*



- * The current can either be made to *flow through a load*, or be used to *charge a battery*
- * *Open-circuit voltage* of an individual cell is small $\sim 0.65\text{-}0.7\text{ V}$
- * A large number of them are arranged in a *series-parallel combination* \Rightarrow *solar panel*
- * *Low efficiency* (best reported so far $\sim 30\%$)
- * *High cost*, but *coming down exponentially*
- * *An extremely hot thrust area of research and development in renewable energy sources*