

## BEC

### Unit 1

#### Introduction to Semiconductors

Semiconductor : whose conductivity lies b/w a conductor and an insulator.

Conductors



metals

resistance ↓

free flow of e<sup>-</sup>

Insulator



wood, rubber

(SK senday)

Semiconductor eg - Si, Ge

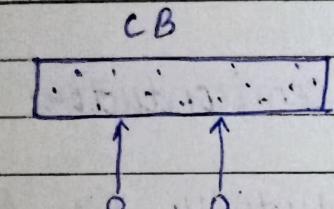
There are 2 types of semiconductors -

#### Intrinsic

- sc in its pure form
- its valence band is completely filled & conduction band is completely empty.
- when some heat energy is supplied to it, some of the valence electrons are shifted to valence band leaving behind holes in the valence band.

#### Extrinsic

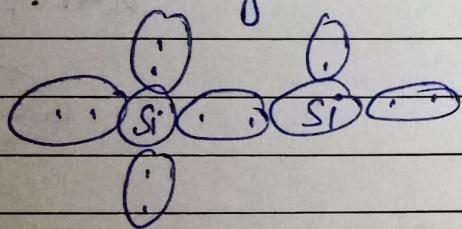
Impurity called dopant is added either as trivalent or pentavalent impurity to ↑ conductivity that's why we add dopant.



e-s free to move i.e. electricity is produced.

-ve coefficient of resistivity

↑ temp & resistivity or become like conductor.



→ Doping : The process by which an impurity is added to a semiconductor is called doping.

Depending on the type of impurity added, extrinsic semiconductors are classified as -

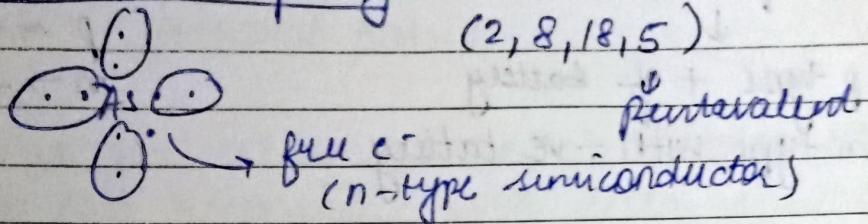
n-type

p-type

- If a pentavalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor, a large no. of free electrons will exist. This will result in n-type semiconductor.

If a trivalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor, large no. of holes will exist in semiconductor, resulting in p-type sc.

→ Pentavalent impurity: Arsenic (33)



→ Tervalent impurity: Gallium (31)

( $2, 8, 18, 3$ )

p-type semiconductor



junction

→ doesn't move  $e^-$ s from p to n or n to p.  $\rightarrow$   
because of high resistance and widened distance  
between them.

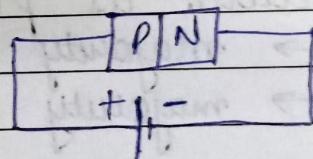
(n type to -ve end)  
(p type to +ve end)

Biassing

forward

reverse

providing voltage from battery

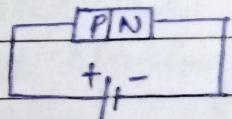


→ Diode Conduct

Biassing

→ forward biasing

→ reverse biasing



It conducts only in forward biasing not as much as in reverse biasing.

1 /

forward    reverse

↓

p type + of battery                              p → -  
 n type with -ve battery                            n → +

- Diode conduct when forward biased  
 $p \rightarrow n$  junction diode.

### Semiconductor Diode

Diode has 2 terminal and 1 junction.

→ [P | N] → 2 terminals.

transistor : has 3 terminal, 2 junction.  
 pnp    npn

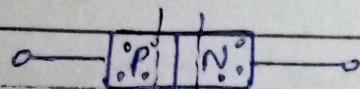
smartwatches — all made up of diode, transistor

• basic diode is pn junction.

$p \rightarrow$  majority  $e^-$  minority holes  
 $n \rightarrow$  majority holes minority  $e^-$

→ [P | N]

At room temp., holes will try to merge in  $e^-$  and  $e^-$  to merge in holes and after diffusion they create a potential barrier. But at some time only they can recombine so due to potential barrier now not able to recombine.



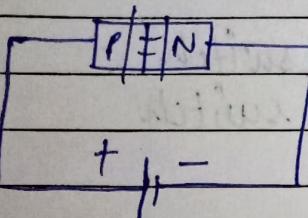
potential barrier

potential barrier : is voltage

so we give extra source of voltage so that they can recombine and extra source of voltage is called biasing.

forward biasing

reverse biasing



$0.3 \text{ V} \rightarrow \text{Ge}$

$0.7 \text{ V} \rightarrow \text{Si}$

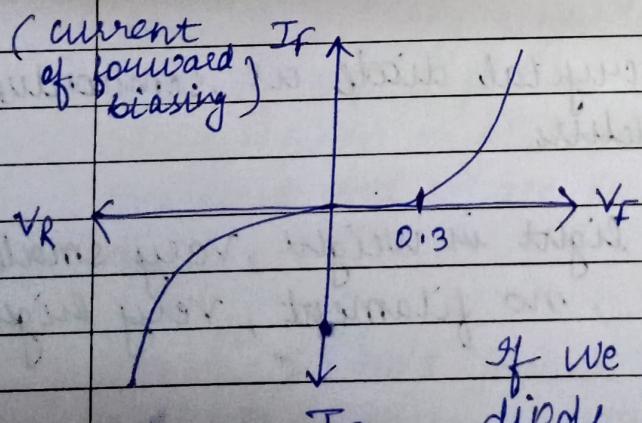
P  $\rightarrow -$

N  $\rightarrow +$

We need  $0.3$  on Ge  
then  $0.3 \text{ V}$  to cross  
the voltage is  
potential barrier.

so due to forward  
biasing, potential  
difference will be  
there and there will  
be a change of electrons

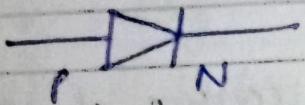
In this potential  
barrier will be  
more wide and  
no current flow.



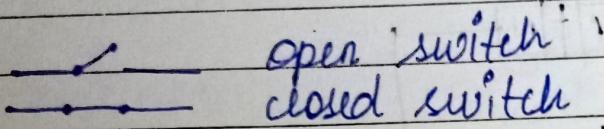
V-I characteristic  
of forward biasing

If we give max voltage to  
diode up to its breakdown  
potential, it will lead to  
breakdown voltage.

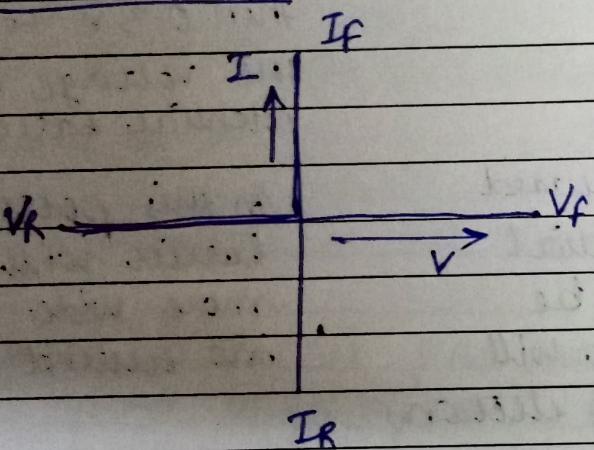
Symbol of diode -



- Ideal diode : means if forward bias so work as close switch means no current should go in reverse biasing.  
Ideal diode to work as close or open switch.



Characteristic



value of current in reverse should be 0 i.e. 0 reverse current means with very low voltage current shootup.

- Diode also called crystal diode as semiconductor have crystal structure.

Merits : compact, light in weight, very small, occupy less space, no filament, very high efficiency.

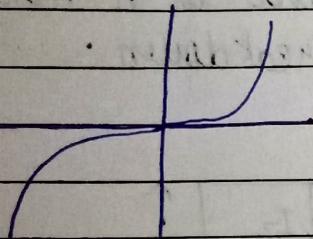
Demerits : can't stand with very high P-V. cannot be operated at very high temp.

# Zener Diode : (special diode)  
LED diode, photodiode.

Works in reverse breakdown feature (also in zero, forward bias).

It has sharp breakdown region. construction is such way that sharp breakdown in reverse region.

symbol :- 



Avalanche breakdown : Thicker junction when voltage is provided. chain process.  
minority add up with more minority carrier and shoot up.

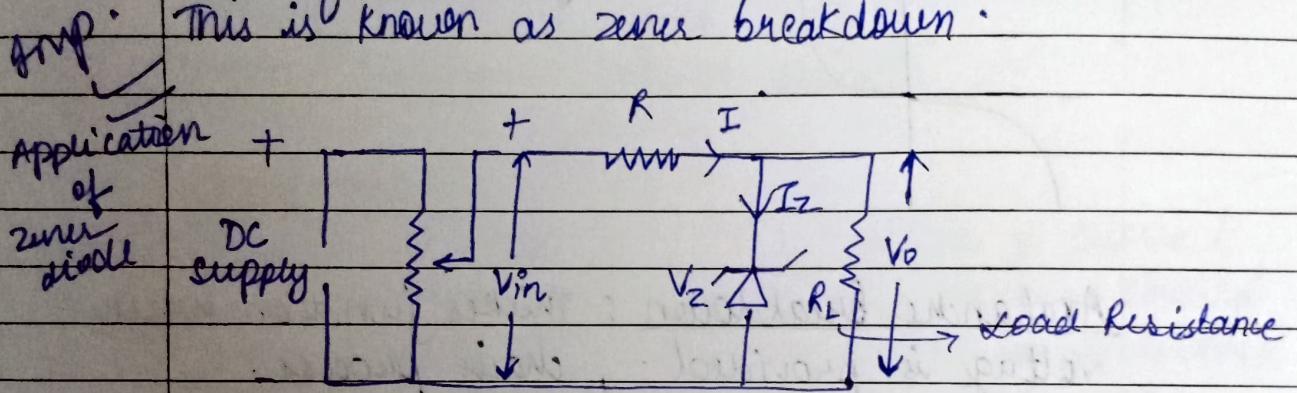
For thicker junctions the breakdown mechanism is by the process of avalanche breakdown when the electric field existing in the depletion layer is sufficiently high. The velocity of carrier crossing the depletion layer  $\uparrow$ . These carrier collide with crystal atoms. some collision are so violent that  $e^-$  are knocked off the crystal.

Creating  $e^-$ -hole pairs. These pair attain high velocities to cause further pair generation through more collisions. This is a cumulative process and as the breakdown voltage approaches the field becomes so large that the chain

of collisions can give rise to almost  $\propto$  current.  
This is known as avalanche breakdown.

Zener Breakdown: Takes place in a thin junction when the electric field becomes high in the depletion layer with only a small applied reverse biased voltage. Therefore some electrons jump across the barrier from valence band in p-material to unfilled conduction band in n-material.

This is known as zener breakdown.



zener diode as voltage Regulator

$$V_{in} - V_Z = R$$

voltage drop across  $R$ .

This is also known as voltage stabilisation.

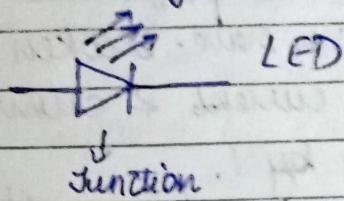
Let a variable voltage  $V_{in}$  be applied across load  $R_L$ .

(i) When  $V_{in} < V_Z$ , no current flows through it and the same voltage appears across the load.

(ii) When  $V_{in} > V_Z$ , this will cause the zener diode to conduct a large current  $I_Z$  consequently more current flows through

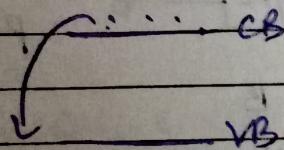
series resistor  $R$  which bears the voltage drop across it. Thus,  $V_{in}$  excess of  $V_2$  i.e.  $V_{in} - V_2$  is absorbed by the series resistor. Hence, a constant voltage  $V_0$  ( $= V_2$ ) is maintained across load  $R_L$ .

⇒ LED (Light Emitting Diode) : Special purpose diode because it emits light as normal p-n junction doesn't emit light. It emits different coloured light.

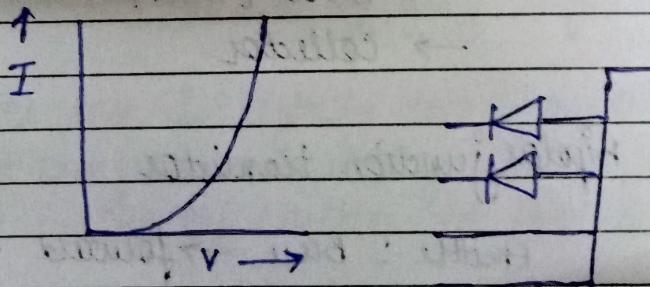


- emit photons because of which we can see light.
- lie in visible spectrum of EM waves.

It is made up of compound semiconductor due to which it emits light.

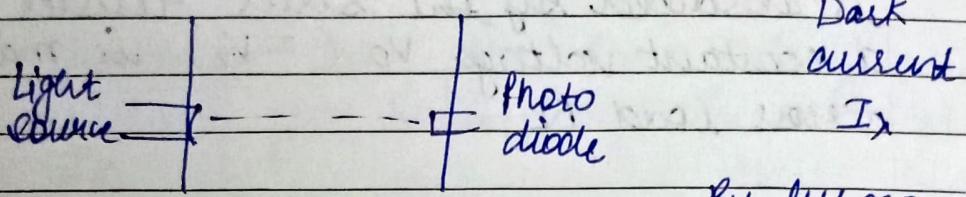


~~from~~ higher energy to lower energy that why releases energy and emits light.



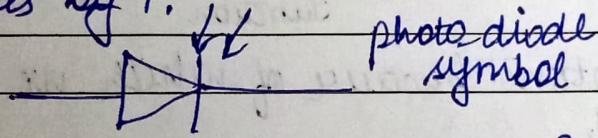
$$\frac{t}{c} \frac{d}{a} \frac{I^5}{e}$$

⇒ Photodiode : used for object identification and home security system.



In malls when we enter we see footfall & they have count of person - There photodiode is used. We have broken the flow of current & count increases by 1.

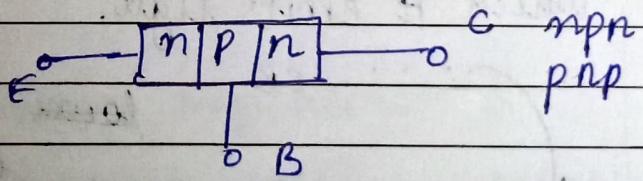
By less no. of minority carrier when current is generated it is called as dark current.



It is connected in reverse biased.

The dark current always works on reverse biasing.

⇒ Transistors



3 terminals → Emitter  
                  → Base (thin)  
                  → collector

BJT - Bipolar junction transistor

Emitter : Base → forward biased  
Base : Collector → reverse biased.

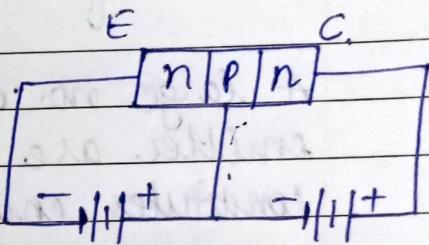
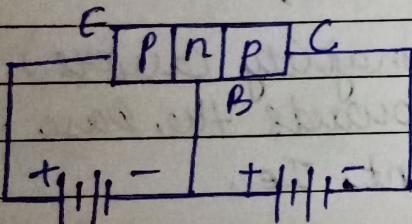
⇒ Emitter : Supplies large no. of majority carriers.

- It is always forward biased w.r.t base so as to supply large no. of majority carriers to its junction with the base.
- It is heavily doped but moderate in size.

⇒ Collector : It collects the major portion of the majority carriers supplied by the emitter.

- Collector base junction is reverse biased.
- It is moderately doped but larger in size so that it can collect most of the majority carriers sent by supplied by emitter.

⇒ Base : The middle part is base. Base forms two circuits.



The base-emitter junction is forward biased providing low resistance and base-collector junction is reverse biased offering high resistance path.

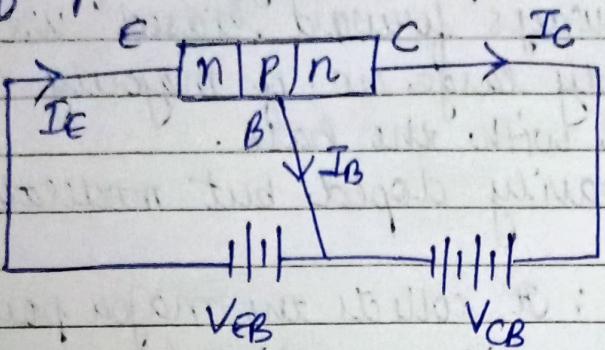
The base is lightly doped and very thin so that it can pass on most of the majority carriers supplied by emitter to the collector.

Configuration -

common base  
common emitter

common collector

## Working of npn transistor -



$I_E$  inwards then  
 $I_C$  and  $I_B$  outwards

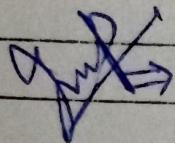
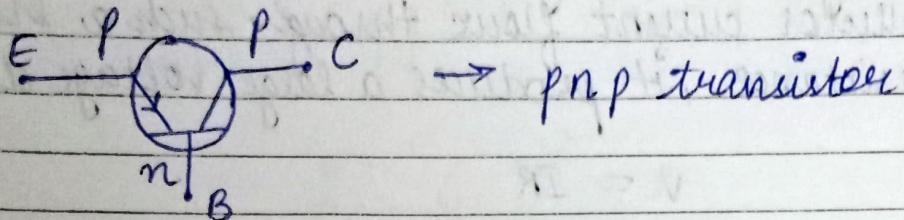
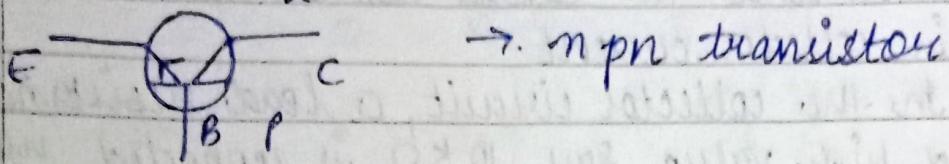
$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

The emitter-base junction is forward biased. The voltage,  $V_{EB}$  is quite small and reverse biased voltage  $V_{CB}$  is considerably high because of E-B junction is forward biased.

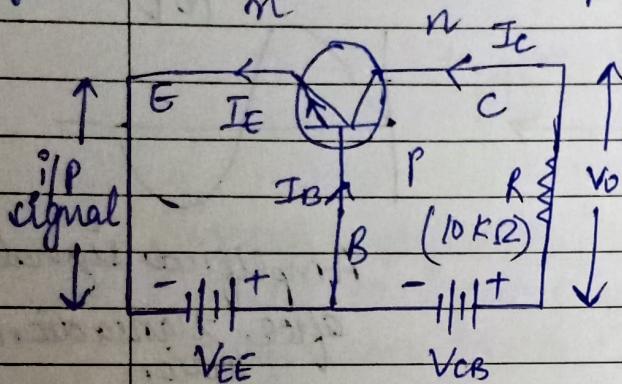
A large no. of e-s (majority carriers) in the emitter are pushed towards the base. This constitutes emitter current  $I_E$ .

When these e-s enter the base region, they combine with the holes. Since the base is lightly doped and is thin. Only a few e-s (less than 5%) combine with the holes and constitute base current  $I_B$ , the remaining e-s diffuse across the thin base region and reach under the collector, comes under the influence of fully biased n-region. Therefore, they are attracted towards the collector and constitute collector current  $I_C$ .

⇒ Symbols of transistors -



Transistor as an amplifier -



- A transistor is a device which raises the strength of a weak signal and thus acts as an amplifier.
- The input (weak signal) is applied across emitter-base and the output (amplified signal) is obtained across load resistance  $R$  connected in the collector circuit.
- When a weak signal is applied at the input, a small change in signal voltage causes an appreciable change in emitter current.

Eg - A change of  $0.1\text{ V}$  in signal voltage causes a change of  $1\text{ mA}$  in ammeter.

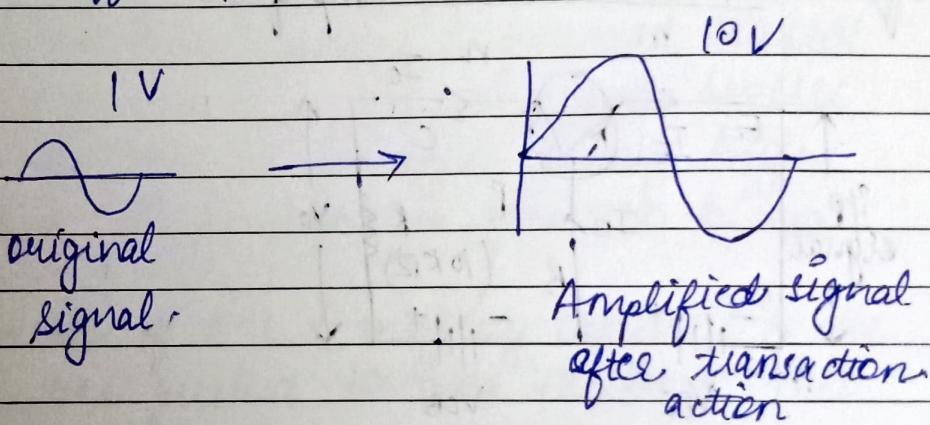
current as the input circuit has very low resistance. This causes almost the same change in collector current.

- In the collector circuit, a load resistance  $R$  of high value say  $10\text{ k}\Omega$  is connected when collector current flows through such a high resistance, it produces a large voltage drop

$$V = IR$$

$$V_L = 10\text{ k}\Omega \times 1\text{ mA}$$

$$V_L = 10\text{ V}$$



5. Configurations of a transistor

There are 3 basic configurations in which a transistor can work i.e -

Common base (CB)

Common emitter (CE)

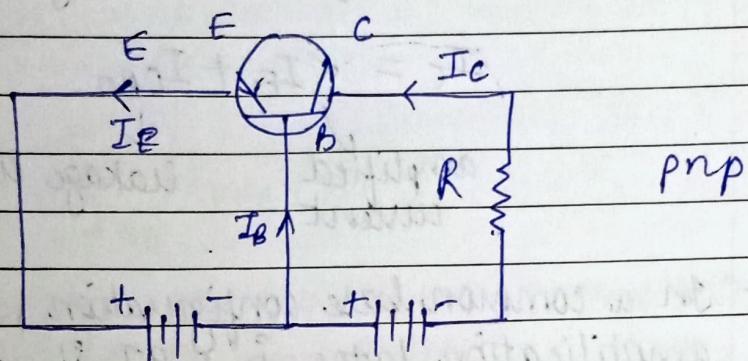
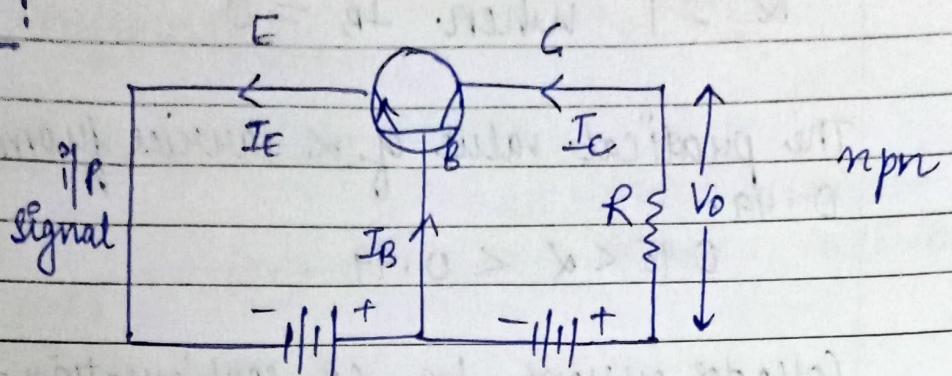
Common collector (CC)

(In actual we have 4 terminals but to make it 3 we take any one as common)

CE is most used for amplification.

• CB:

• CB:



Current amplification factor ( $\alpha$ ): The ratio of output current to input current is known as current amplification factor.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_E} \\ &= \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_B + \Delta I_E} \end{aligned}$$

( $\because I_E = I_B + I_c$ )

$$I_E = I_B + I_c$$

$$\Delta I_E = \Delta I_B + \Delta I_c$$

$$\frac{\Delta I_E}{\Delta I_E} = \frac{\Delta I_B}{\Delta I_E} + \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_E}$$

$$1 = \alpha + \frac{\Delta I_B}{\Delta I_E}$$

$$\boxed{\alpha = 1 - \frac{\Delta I_B}{\Delta I_E}} \text{ for C.B}$$

$\Rightarrow \alpha < 1$ ; the value of  $\alpha$  is less than 1.

$$\alpha = 1 \text{ when } I_B = 0$$

The practical value of  $\alpha$  varies from 0.95 to 0.99.

$$0.95 < \alpha < 0.99$$

Collector current for CB configuration -

$$I_C = \alpha I_E + I_{CBO}$$

amplified      ↓  
current      leakage current

Q - In a common-base configuration, the current amplification factor is 0.97 if the emitter current is 1 mA. Determine the value of base current.

$$\alpha = 0.97$$

$$I_E = 1 \text{ mA}$$

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{\Delta I_B}{\Delta I_E}$$

$$0.97 = 1 - \Delta I_B$$

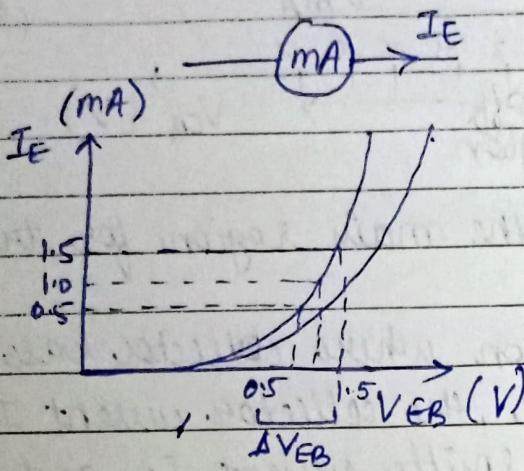
$$\Delta I_B = 1 - 0.97$$

$$\Delta I_B = 0.03 \text{ mA}$$

→ CB Configuration -

→ CB configuration

input characteristics



Input : Emitter  
Output : Collector

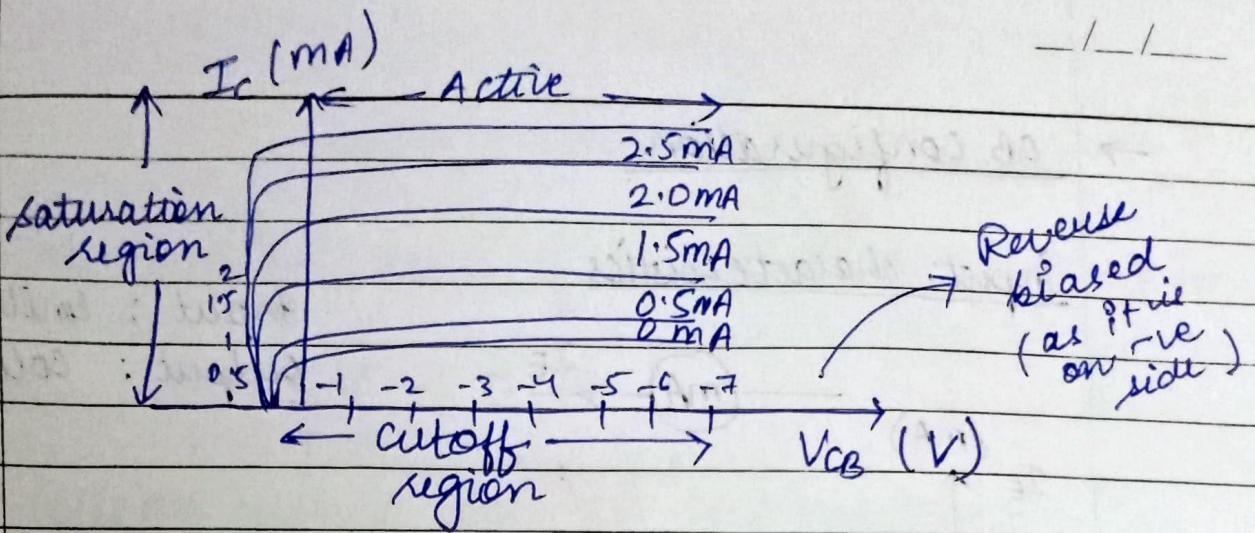
In CB configuration, the curve plotted between emitter current  $I_E$  and emitter base voltage  $V_{EB}$  at constant collector base voltage  $V_{CB}$  is called input characteristics.

- For a particular value of  $V_{CB}$ , the curve is just like diode characteristic in the forward region.
- When  $V_{CB}$  is increased, the value  $I_E$  increases slightly for the given value of  $V_{EB}$ . Hence, the junction becomes better diode.

$$\text{Input resistance } r_i = \frac{\Delta V_{EB}}{\Delta I_E} \quad \text{at constant } V_{CB}.$$

output characteristics

In CB configuration; the curve plotted between collector current  $I_C$  and collector base voltage  $V_{CB}$  at constant emitter current  $I_E$  is called output characteristics.



Active region is the main region for transistors.

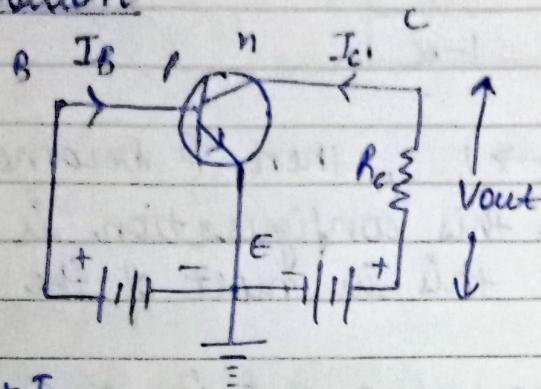
- In the active region where collector base junc. is reverse biased, the collector current  $I_c$  is almost equal to emitter current  $I_e$  and the transistor is always operated in this region.
- When  $V_{cb}$  becomes positive i.e. C B junction is forward biased the collector current  $I_c$  decreases abruptly, this region is known as saturation region. Here  $I_c$  does not depend on  $I_e$ .
- When  $I_e = 0$ , collector current  $I_c \neq 0$ . Although its value is very small. In fact this is the reverse leakage current ( $I_{CBO}$ ) that flows in the collector circuit.

Output resistance

$$r_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CB}}{\Delta I_C} \quad \text{at constant } I_e$$

most imp.

→ CE Configuration -



$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

Base current amplification factor ( $\beta$ ): The ratio of change in collector current to the change in base current is known as base current amplification factor.

$$\boxed{\beta = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_B}}$$

Relation b/w  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  -

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

$$\beta = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_B} \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$I_E = I_B + I_C \quad \cancel{\text{with}}$$

$$\Delta I_E = \Delta I_B + \Delta I_C \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

$$\Delta I_B = \Delta I_E - \Delta I_C \quad \rightarrow \text{Substituting in eq (i)}$$

$$\beta = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E - \Delta I_C} \quad \text{--- (iv)}$$

Dividing (iv) by  $\Delta I_E$

$$\beta = \frac{\Delta I_C / \Delta I_E}{\Delta I_E / \Delta I_E} \quad (\text{from eq. (iii)})$$

$$\frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E} - \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_C}$$

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}$$

If  $\alpha \rightarrow 1$ , then,  $\beta$  becomes infinite so, gain of this configuration is higher than why we use this in most of the configurations.

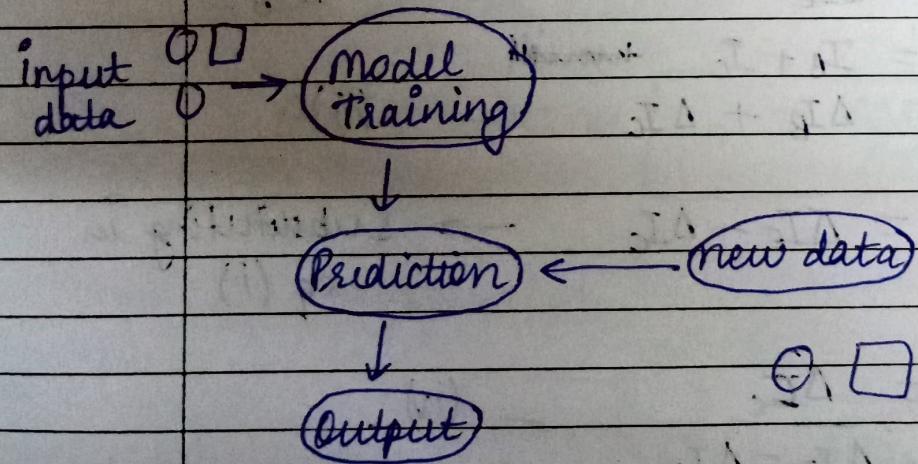
Q- Find the value of  $\beta$  if  $\alpha = 0.9$ ,  $\alpha = 0.94$   
 $\alpha = 0.98$

$$\therefore \beta = \frac{0.9}{1-0.9} \Rightarrow \frac{0.9}{0.1} = 9$$

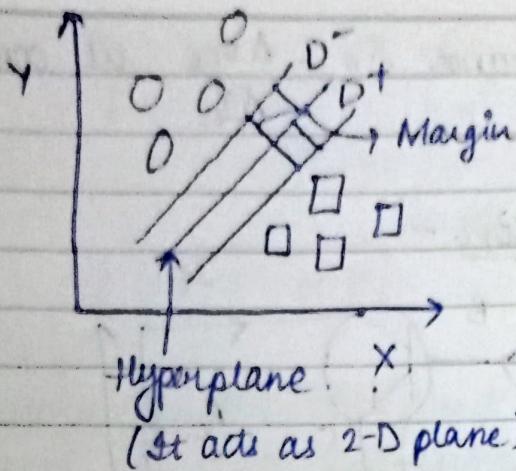
$$\beta = \frac{0.94}{1-0.94} = \frac{0.94}{0.06} = \frac{94}{6} = 15.66$$

$$\beta = \frac{0.98}{1-0.98} = \frac{0.98}{0.02} = 49$$

### → Support Vector Regression (SVR)



non. linearly

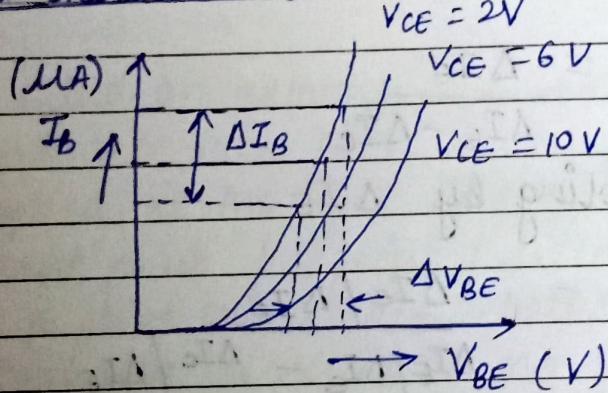


Distance b/w line touching circle and hyperplane is  $D^-$ .

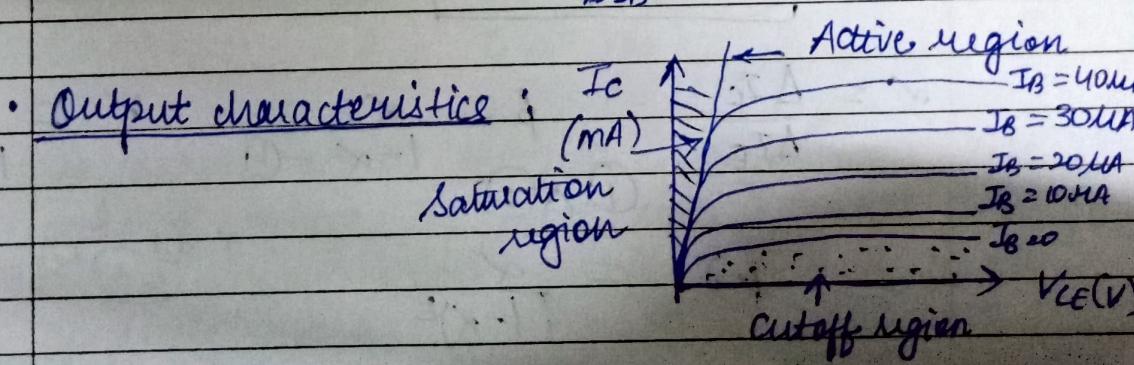
Distance b/w line touching square and hyperplane is  $D^+$ .

→ CE configuration -

• Input characteristics :



$$\text{Input resistance } r_i = \frac{\Delta V_{BE}}{\Delta I_B} \text{ at constant } V_{CE}$$

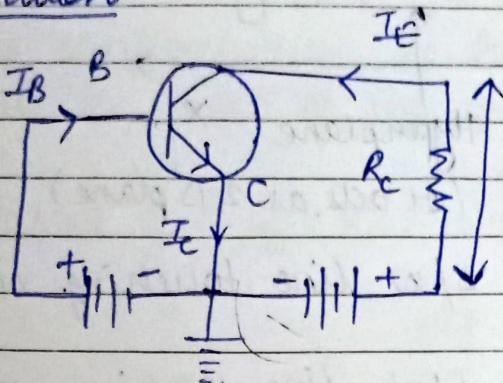


current is always in p to n direction



Output resistance  $r_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CE}}{\Delta I_C}$  at constant  $I_B$ .

## # CC configuration -



$$\gamma = \frac{\Delta I_E}{\Delta I_B} \quad (i)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E} \quad (ii)$$

$$I_E = I_C + I_B$$

$$\Delta I_E = \Delta I_C + \Delta I_B$$

$$\Delta I_B = \Delta I_E - \Delta I_C$$

$$\gamma = \frac{\Delta I_E}{\Delta I_E - \Delta I_C}$$

Dividing by  $\Delta I_E$

$$\gamma = \frac{\Delta I_E / \Delta I_E}{\Delta I_E / \Delta I_E - \Delta I_C / \Delta I_E}$$

$$\boxed{\gamma = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E}$$

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} - ①$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \quad ②$$

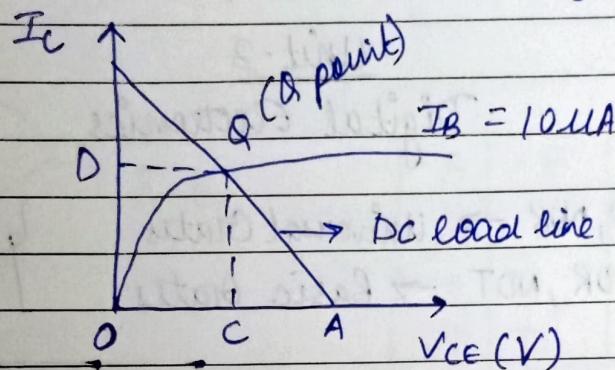
$$\beta \gamma = \frac{\alpha}{(1-\alpha)^2}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{(1-\alpha)^2}{1-\alpha}$$

$$\frac{B}{\gamma} = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}$$

$$B = \alpha \gamma$$

→ Operating point : The point obtained by the value of  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  when no signal is applied at the input is known as operating point.



It is called an operating point since variation of  $I_C$  and  $V_{CE}$  takes place at this point when signal is applied at the input. This point is also called quiescent point / Q point / silent point because it is a point on  $I_C - V_{CE}$  characteristics when the transistor is silent i.e. no signal is applied at the input. The Q point can be determined by DC load line when

$$OA = V_{CC} = V_{CE}$$

$$OB = I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_E}$$

is drawn on the output characteristics. The point Q where DC load line intersects the output characteristics of  $I_B = 10mA$  is the operating point.

→ Assignment (next Friday)

- 1) How can Zener diode be used for regulation of voltage?
- 2) Can photodiode work as photovoltaic and photoconductive device? List applications.
- 3) Explain common emitter configuration in detail and highlight the applications of transistors. Also compare the 3 configurations of transistors.

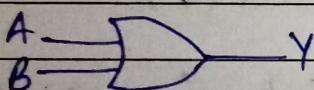
### Unit-3

### Digital Electronics

NAND, NOR → Universal Gates

AND, OR, NOT → Basic Gates.

} Logic Gates



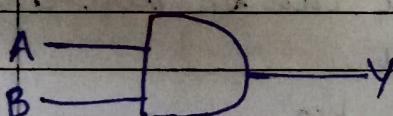
OR Gate

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

For n inputs, we have

$2^n$  outputs

$$Y = A + B$$

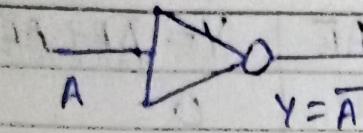


$$Y = A \cdot B$$

AND Gate

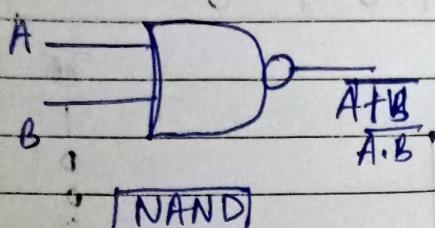
A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

$$Y = A \cdot B$$



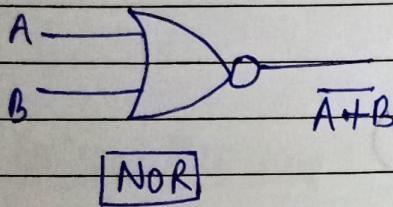
**NOT**

A	$H = \bar{A}$
0	1
1	0



**NAND**

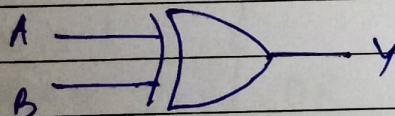
A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



**NOR**

A	B	Y
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

→ Exclusive-OR (EXOR) XOR



$$Y = AB + \bar{A}\bar{B}$$

