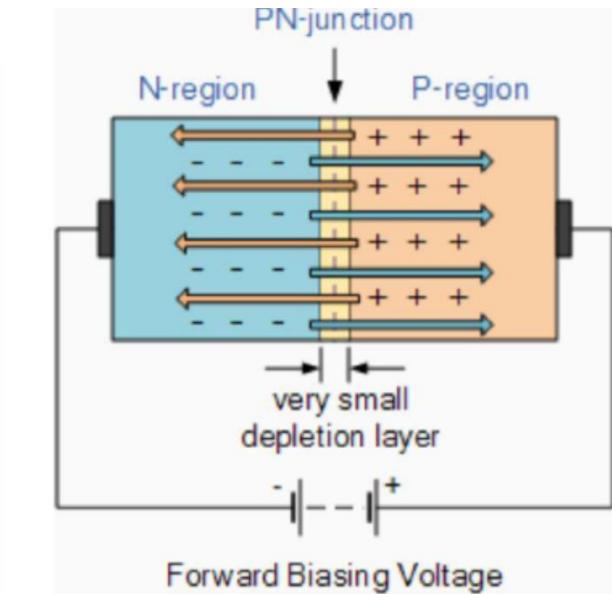
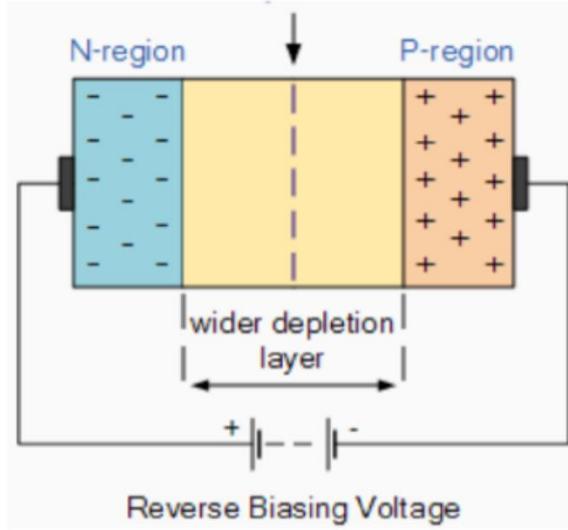
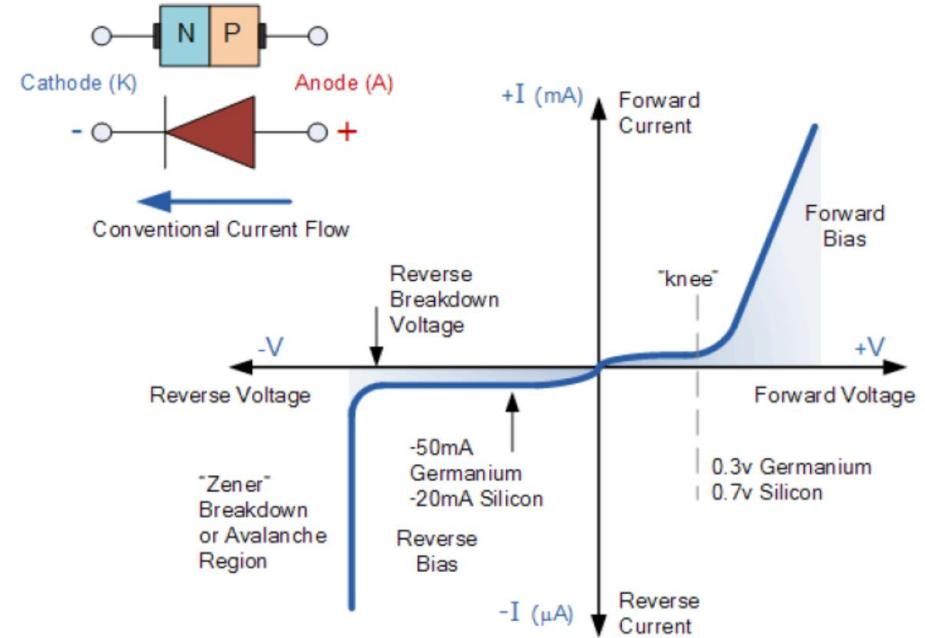


Diode



V-I Characteristics of PN Junction Diode

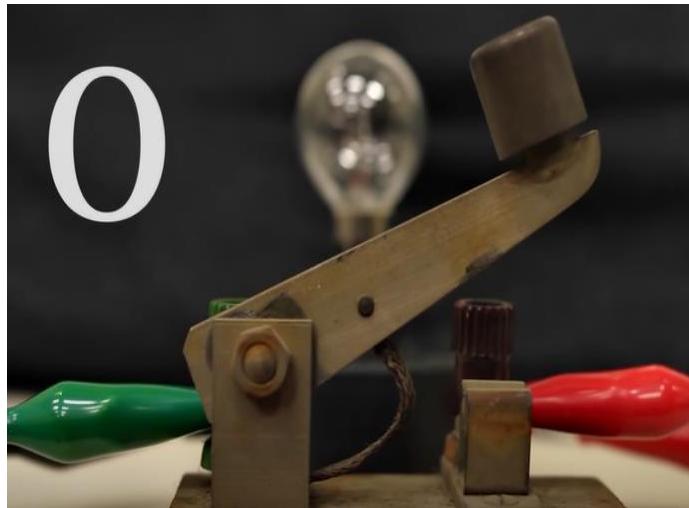


It allows the current in one direction cannot **control the current or carriers or amplify**

Applications

- Its act as rectifier (AC to DC)
- Voltage regulator
- LED, Photo diode, solar cell, etc.

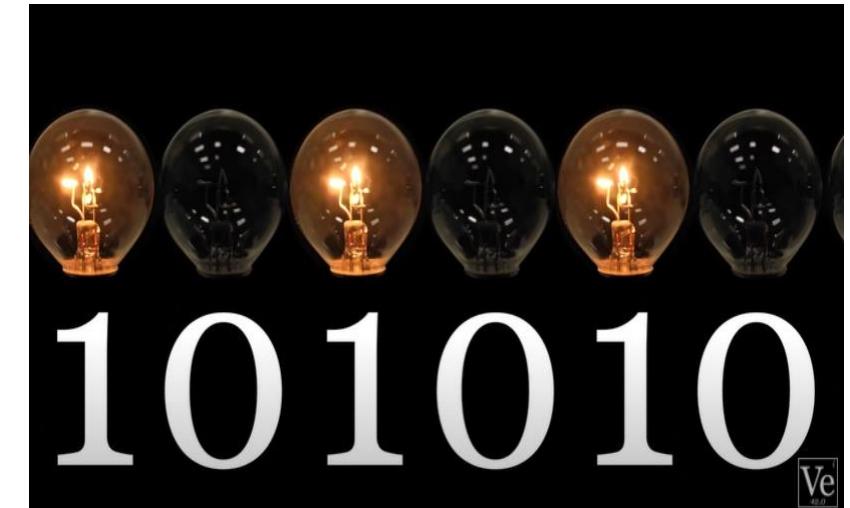
Transistor



0

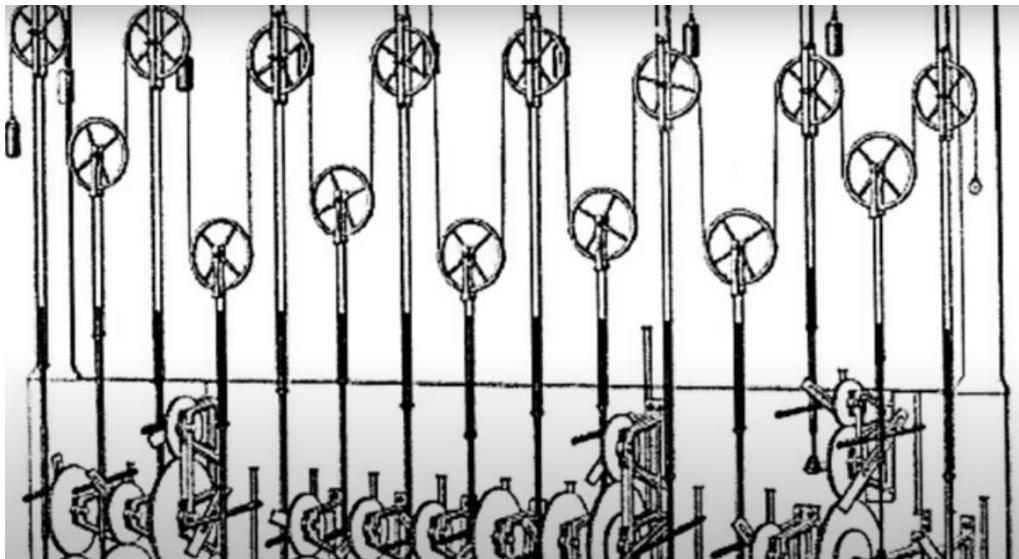
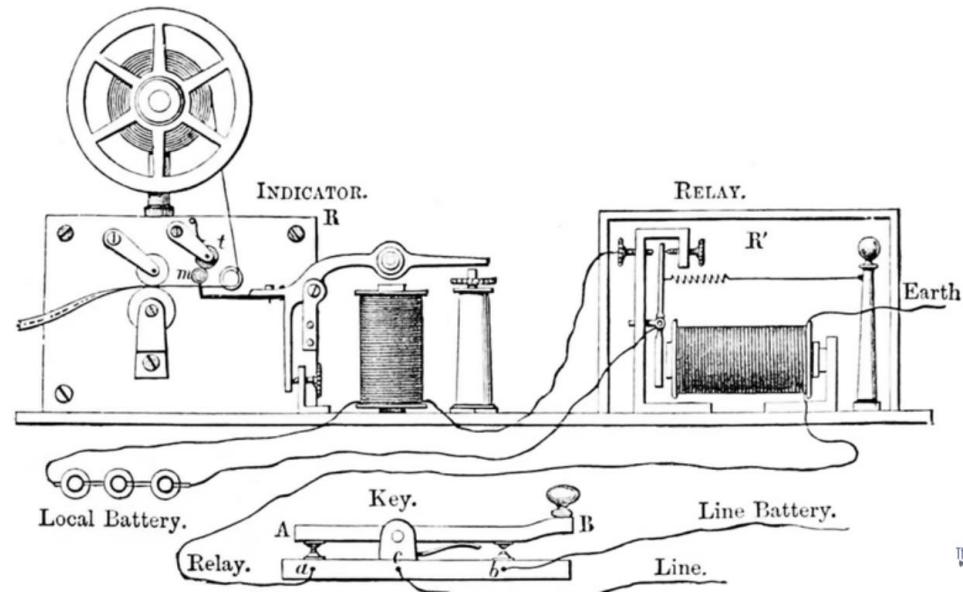


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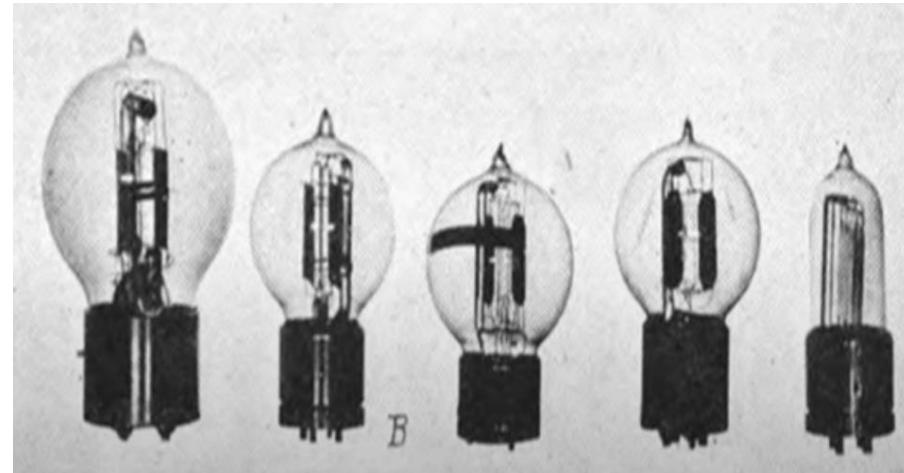
Controls the flow of Current

Transistor

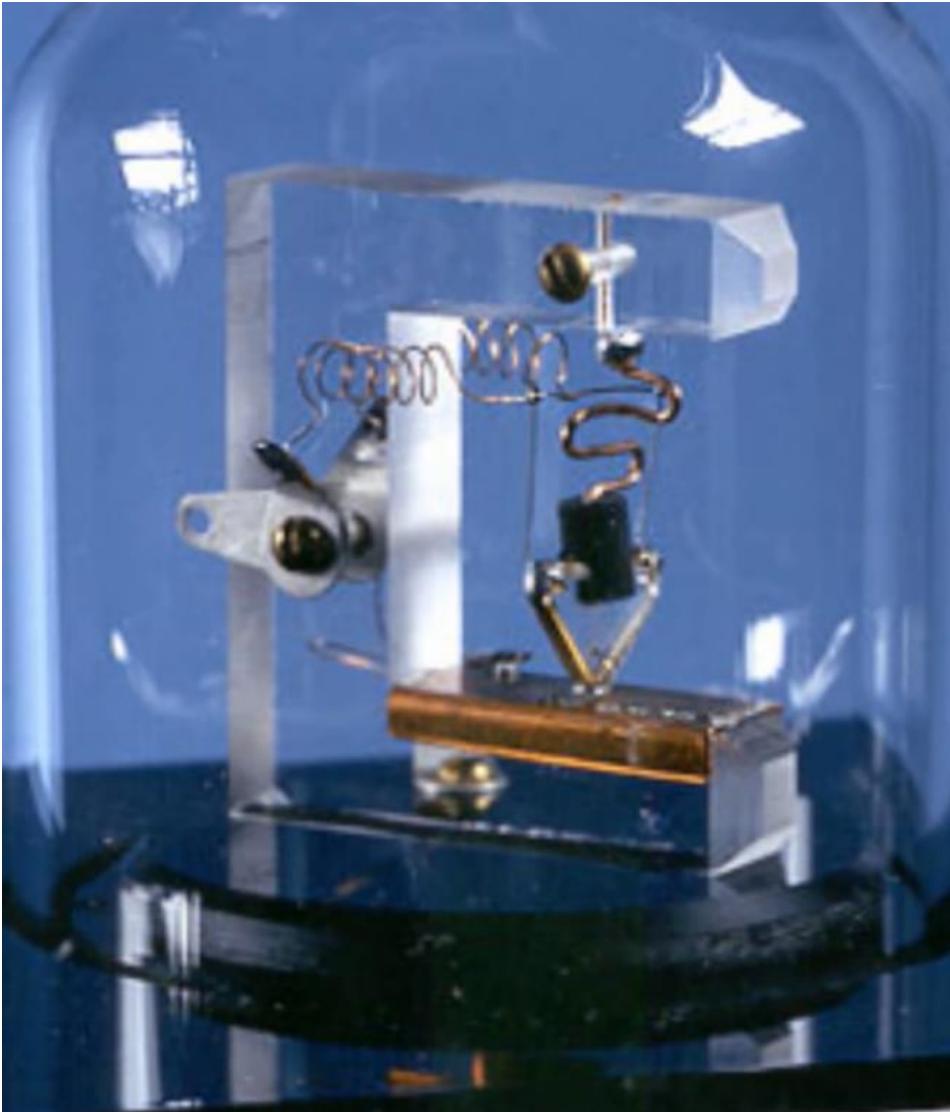


A • —
B — • • •
C — • — •
D — • •
E •
F • • — •

U • • —
V • • • —
W • — —
X — • • —
Y — • — —
Z — — • •

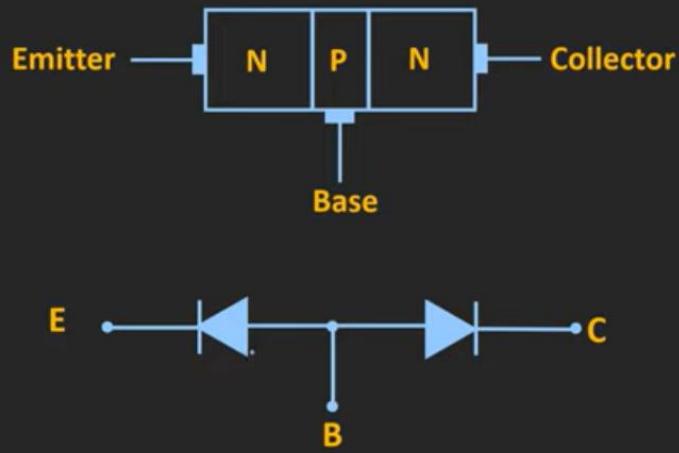


Transistor

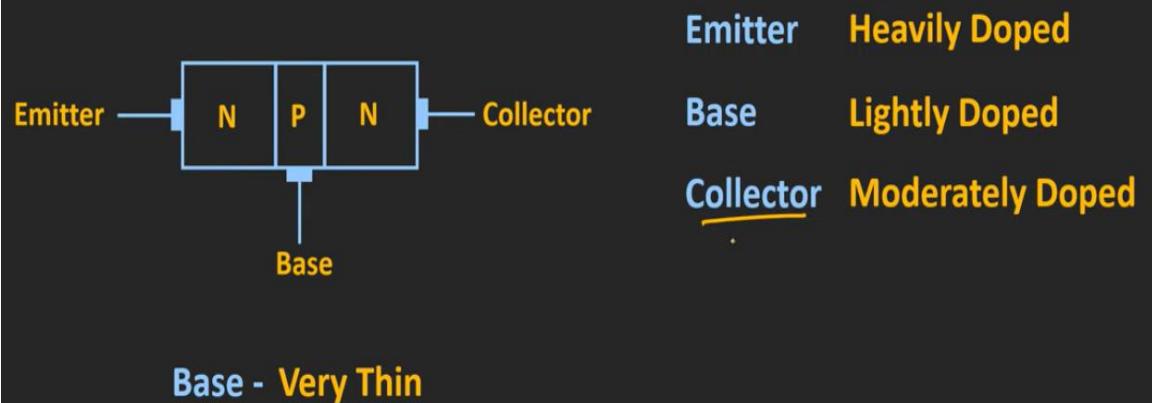


Transistor

Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

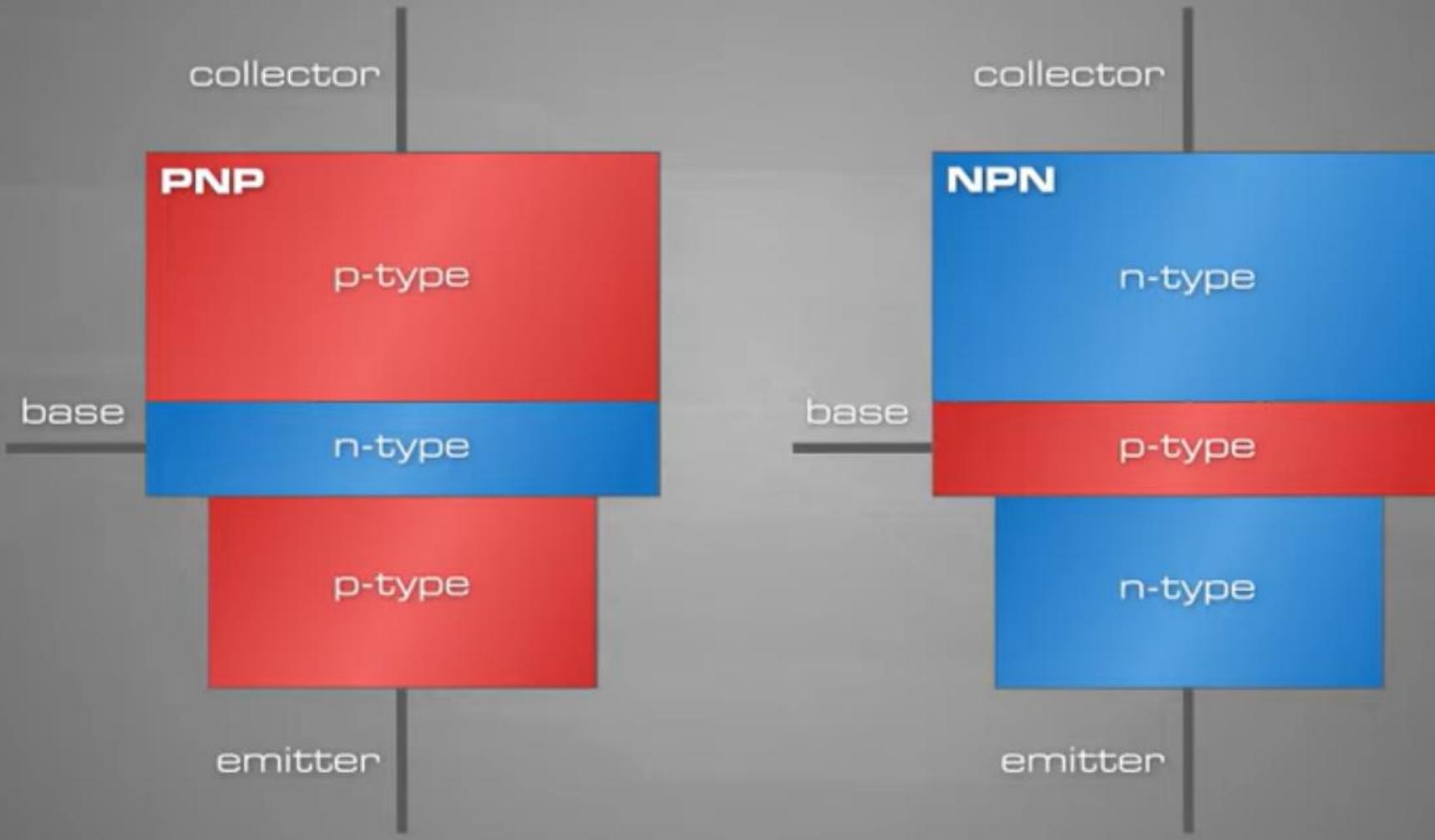


Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)



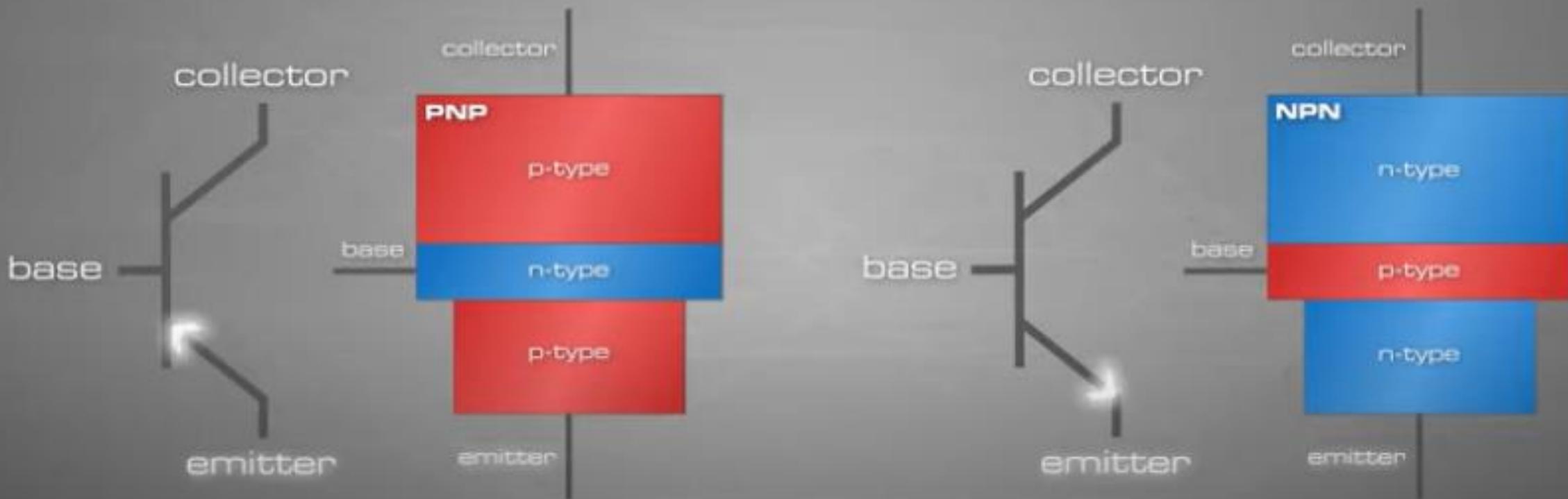
PNP/ NPN Transistor

Bipolar Junction Transistor (B.J.T.)



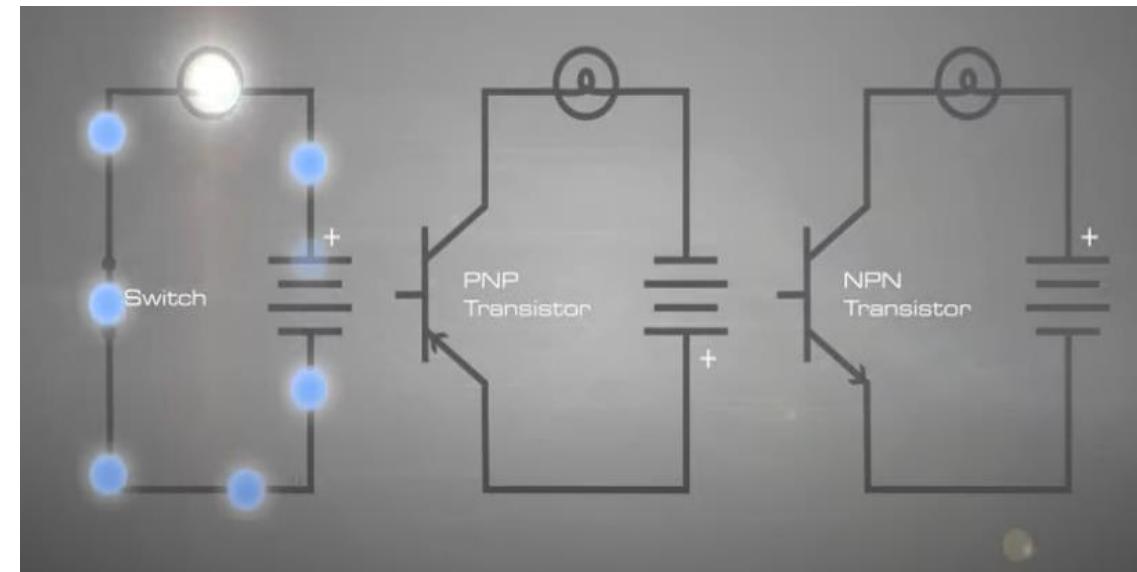
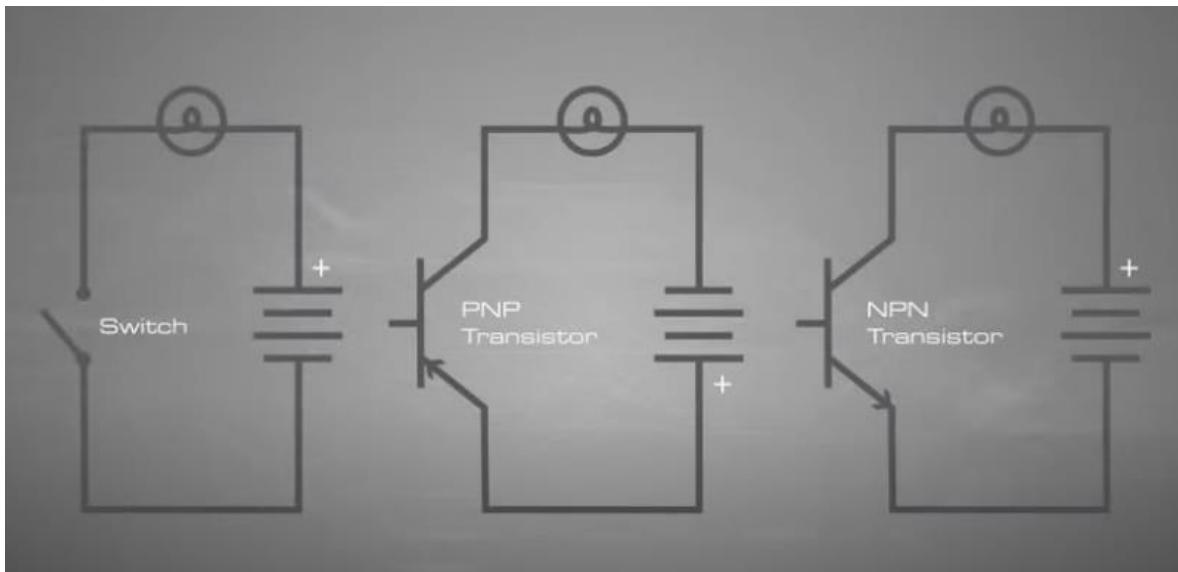
PNP/ NPN Transistor

Bipolar Junction Transistor (B.J.T.)



NPN = Not Pointed iN

PNP/ NPN Transistor



Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

Different Regions of Operation

Active Region

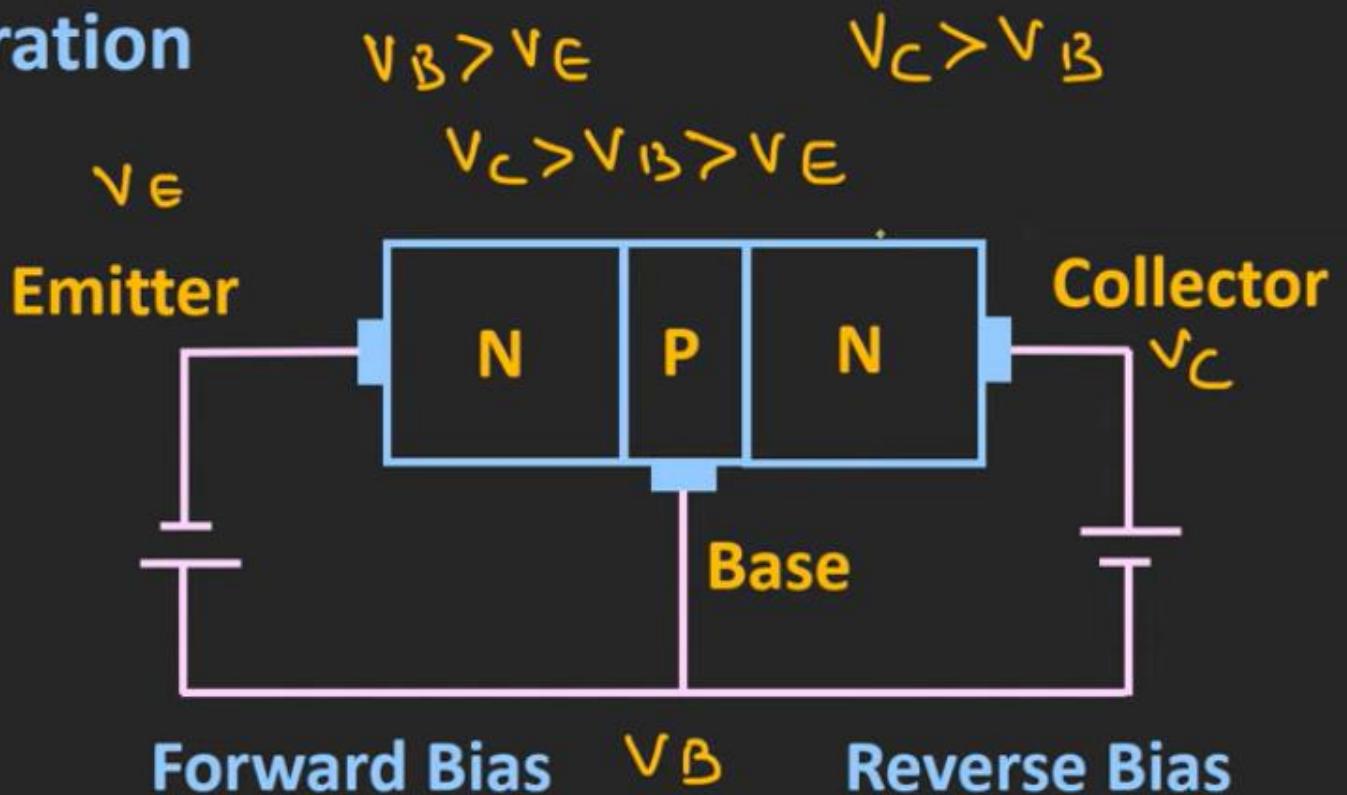
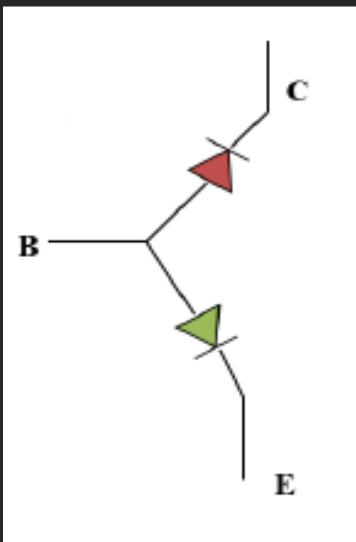
Cut-off Region

Saturation Region

Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

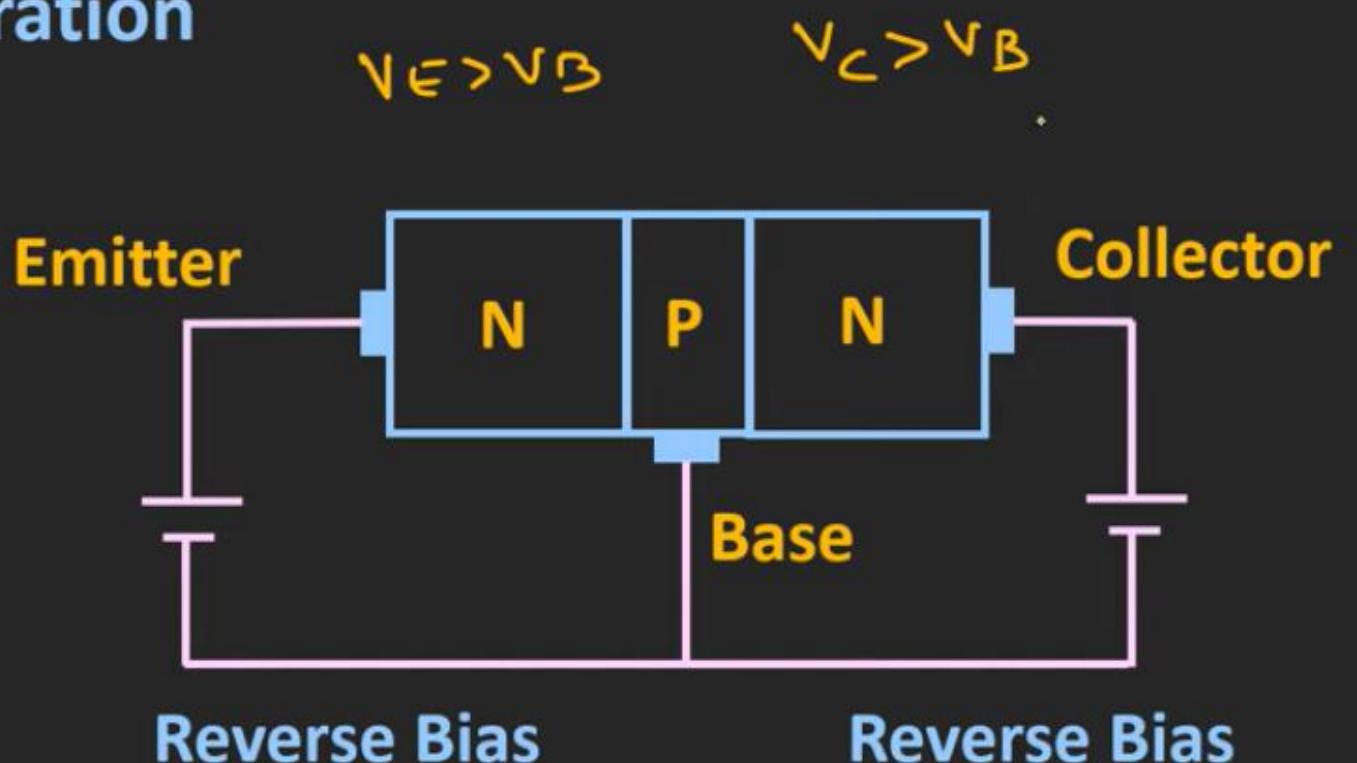
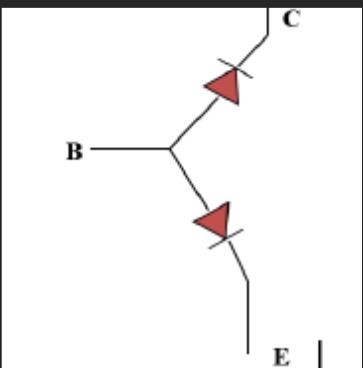
Different Regions of Operation

Active Region

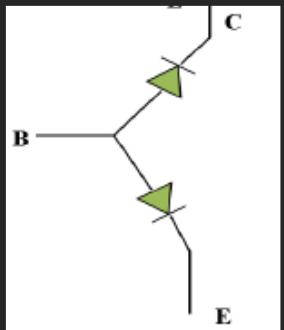


Different Regions of Operation

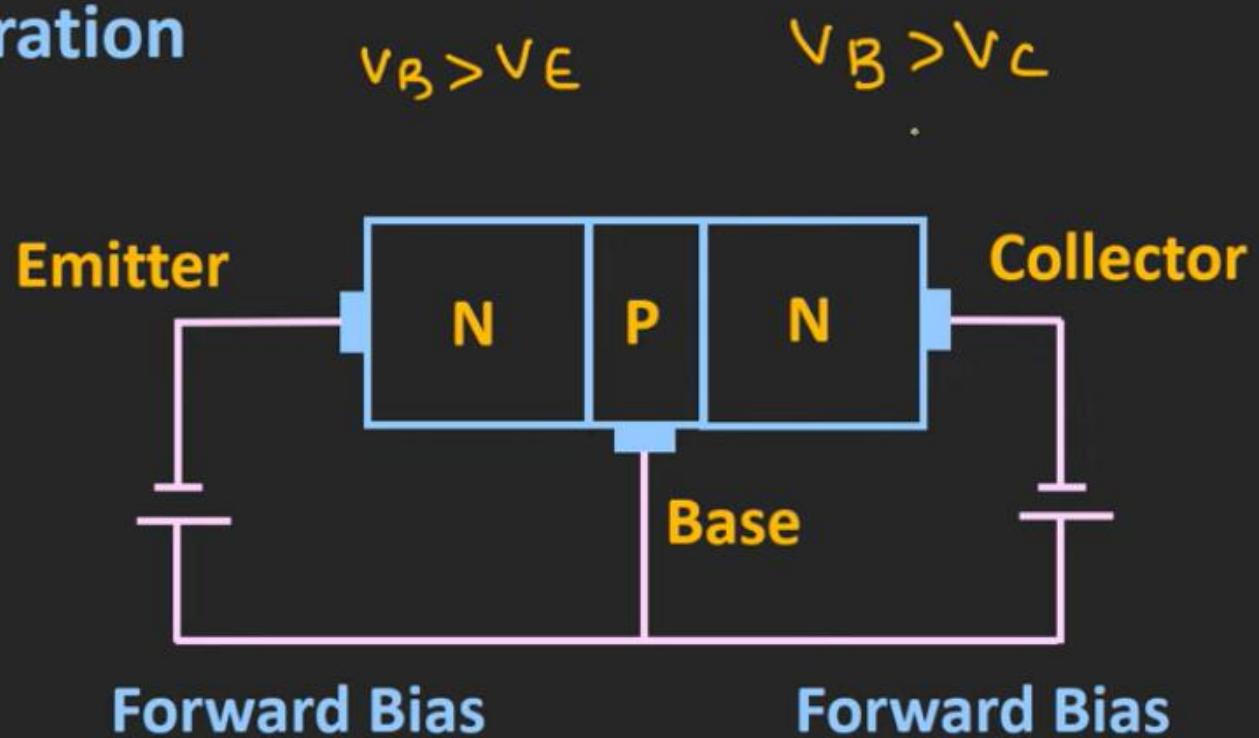
Cut-off Region



Different Regions of Operation

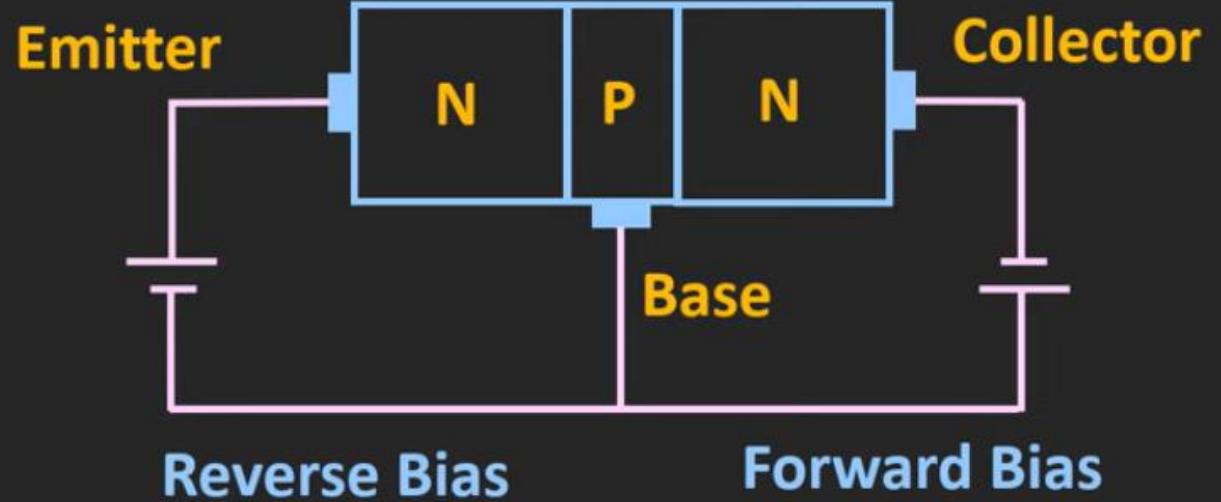


Saturation Region



Different Regions of Operation

Reverse Active Region

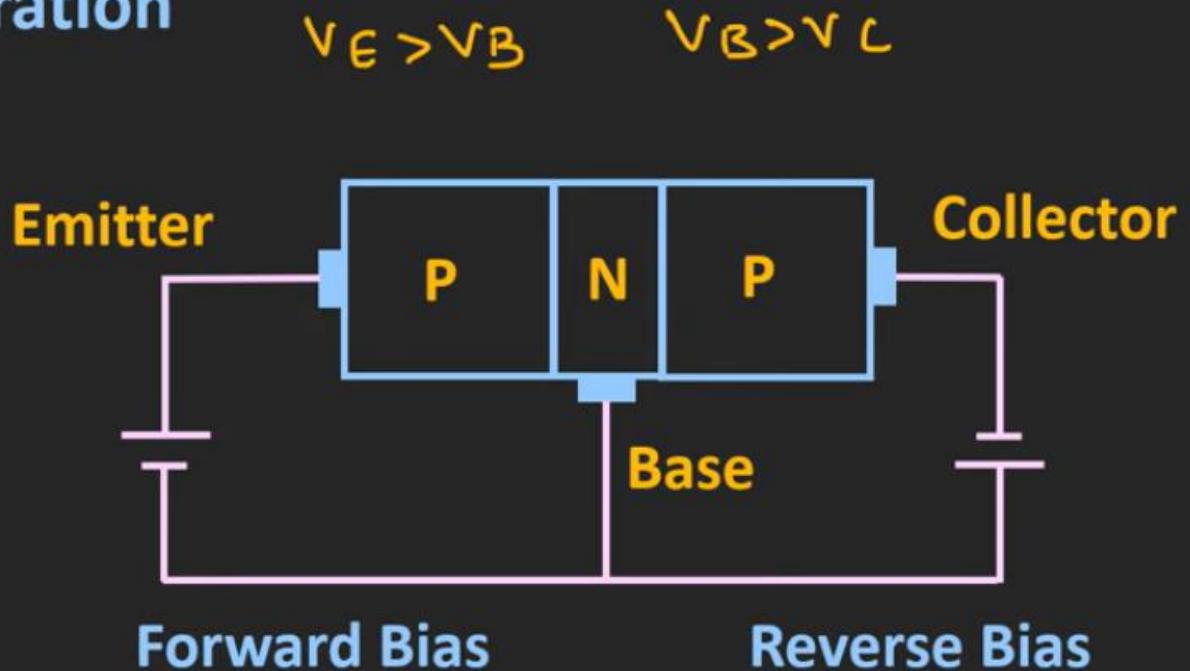


BJT

Different Regions of Operation

Active Region

$$V_E > V_B > V_C$$



Different Regions of Operation

Active Region

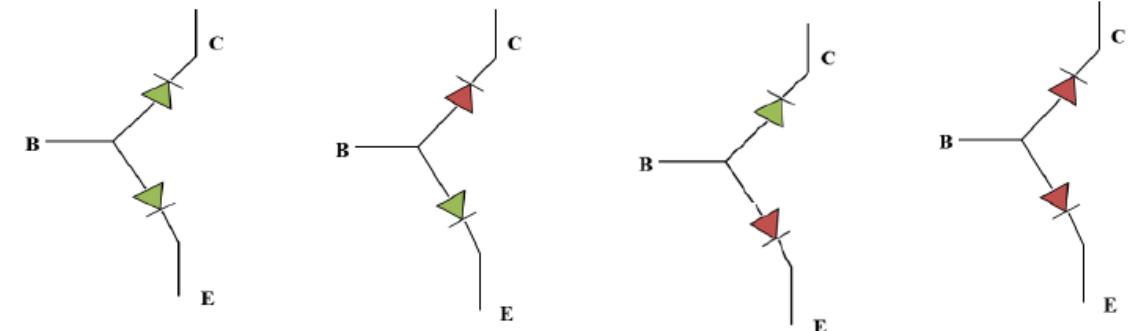
Amplification

Cut-off Region

Switching

Saturation Region

Bipolar Junction Transistors: Basics



<i>Bias Mode</i>	<i>E-B Junction</i>	<i>C-B Junction</i>
Saturation	Forward	Forward

Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

BJT Configuration

Common Emitter

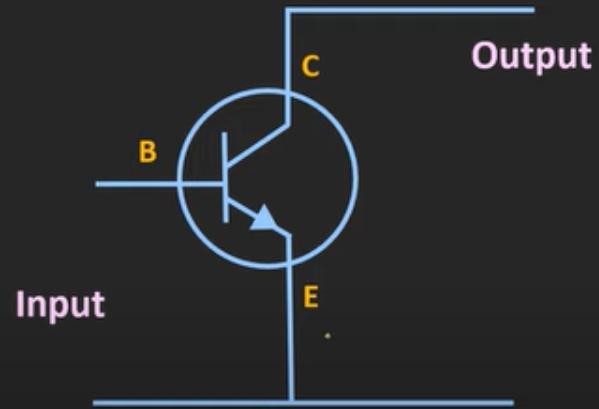
Common Base

Common Collector

Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT)

BJT Configuration

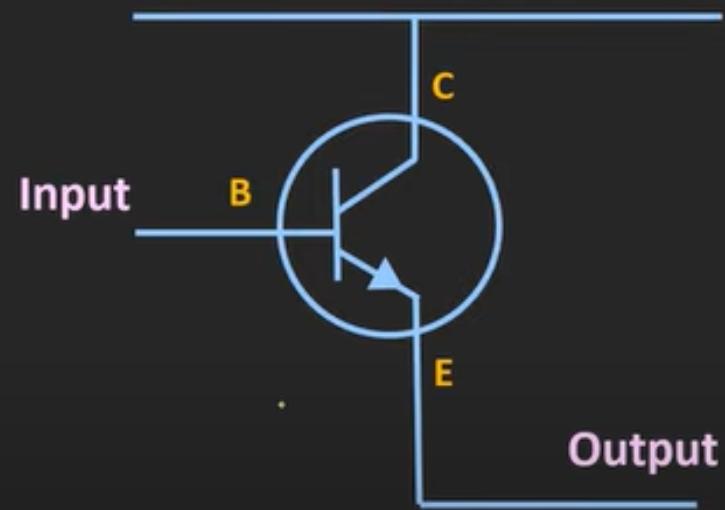
Common Emitter



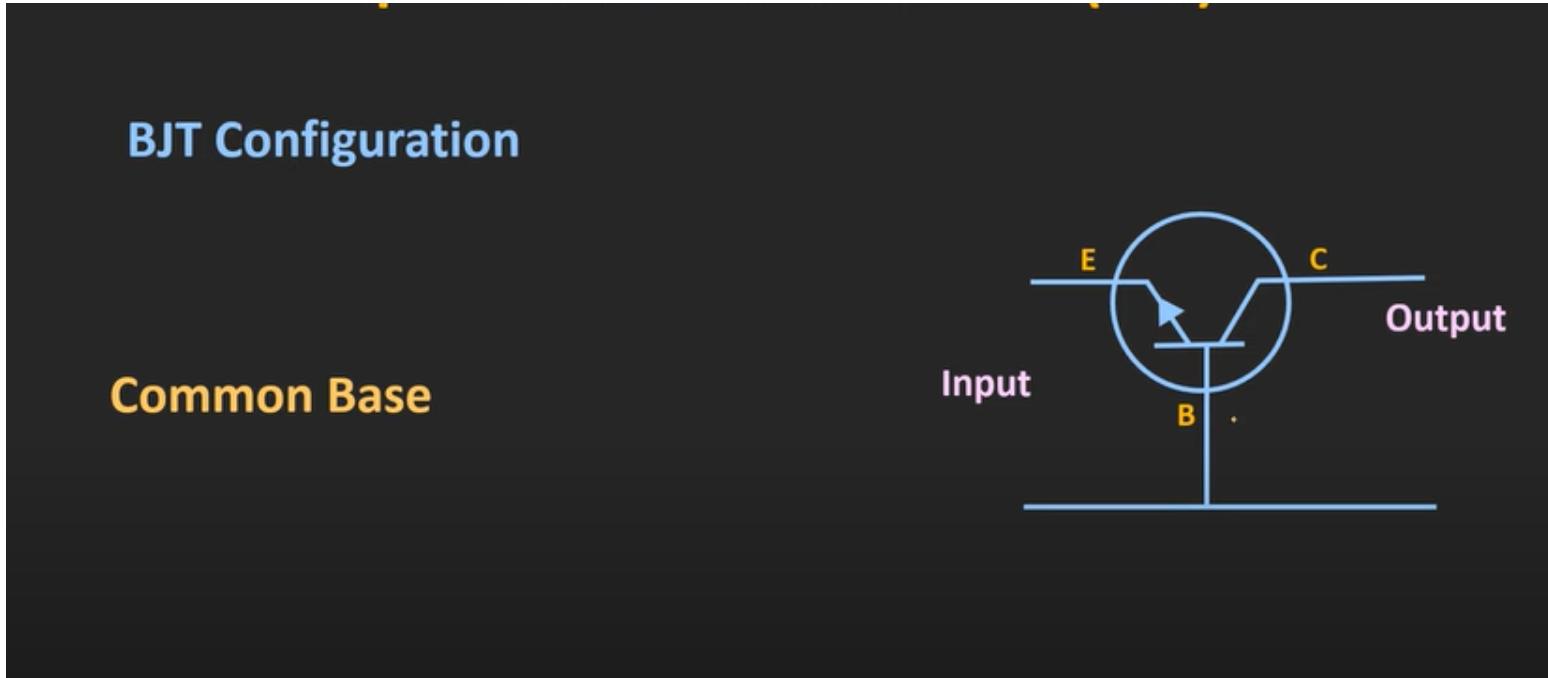
BJT

BJT Configuration

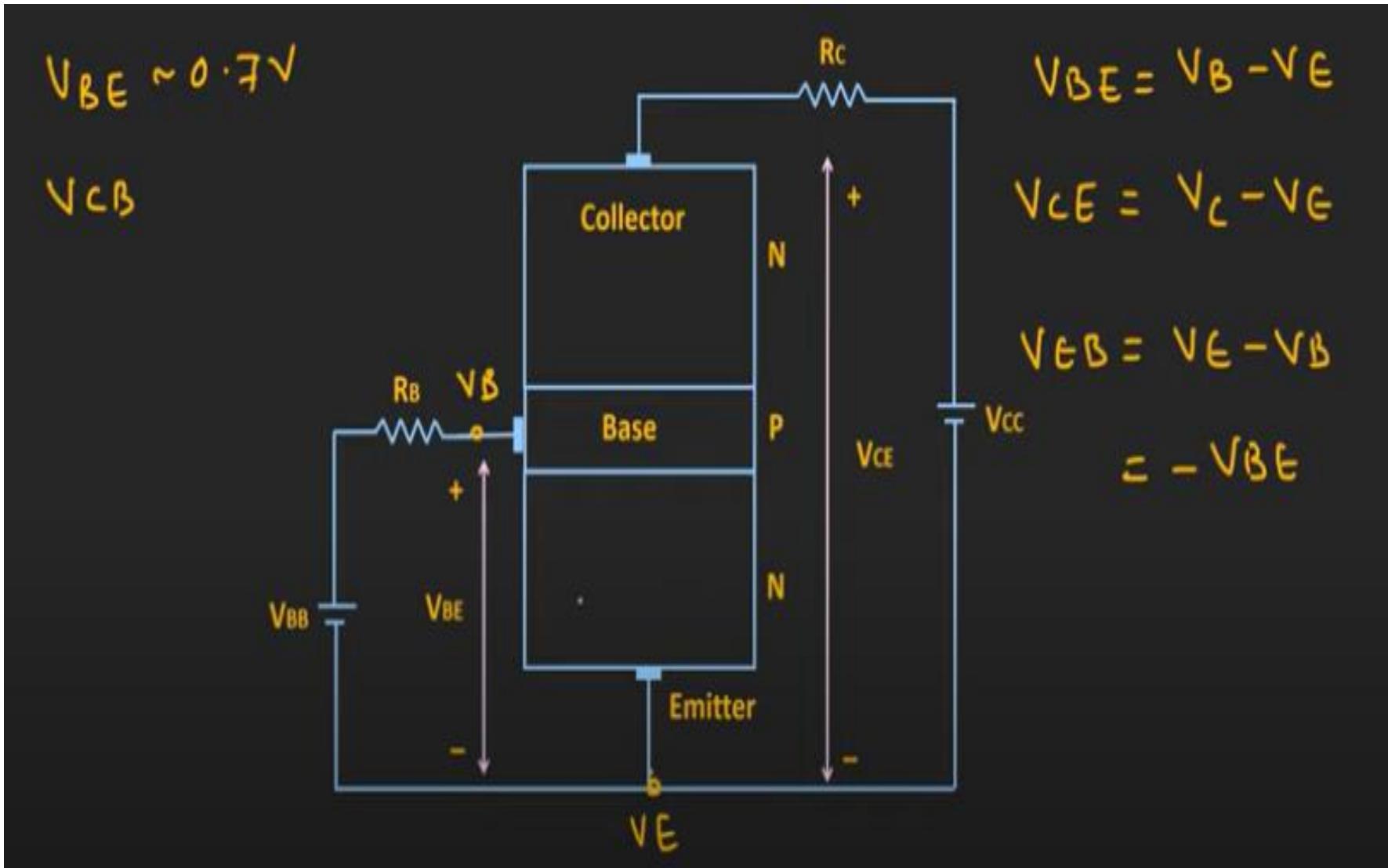
Common Collector



BJT

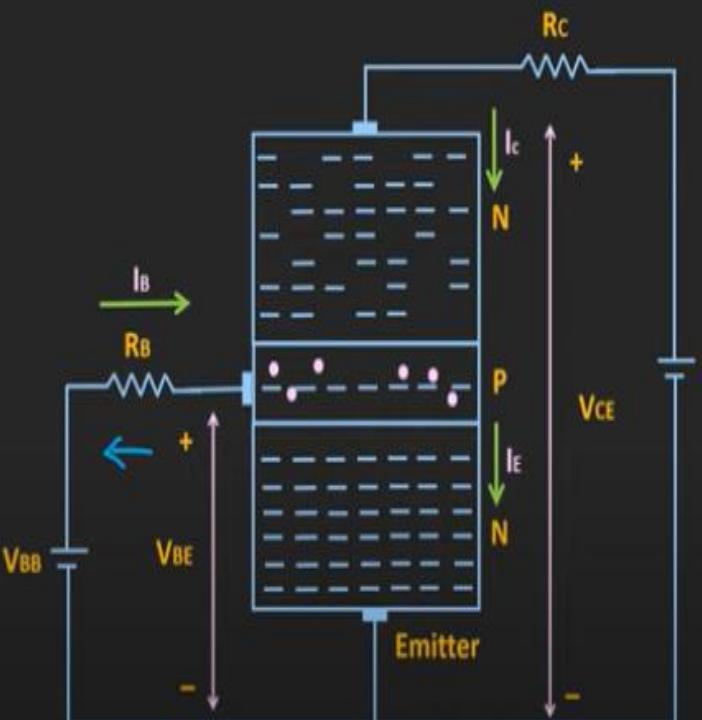
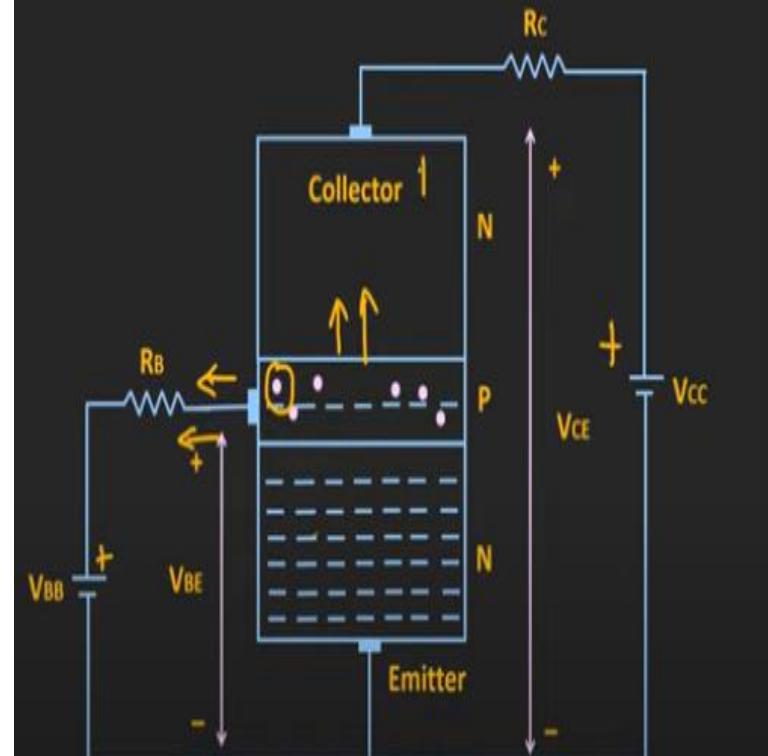


Working of BJT



Working of BJT

Current equations



$$I_B + I_C = I_E$$

$$I_C \approx I_E$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \alpha I_E$$

$$I_B + \alpha I_E = I_E$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = (1 - \alpha) I_E$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = (1 - \alpha) \times \frac{I_C}{\alpha}$$

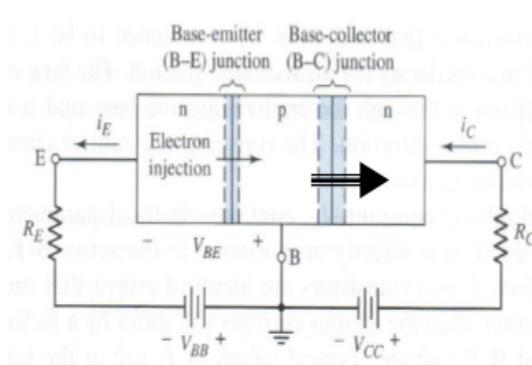
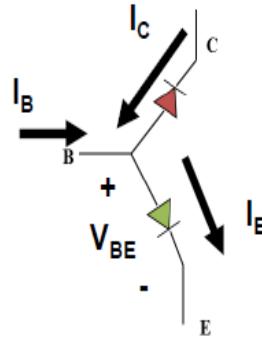
$$I_B = \frac{(1 - \alpha)}{\alpha} \times I_C$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} \times I_B$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \underline{\underline{\beta I_B}}$$

Working of BJT

Mathematical Expressions



$$I_E = I_S [e^{V_{BE}/VT} - 1] = I_S e^{V_{BE}/VT}$$

$$\text{Based on KCL: } I_E = I_C + I_B$$

No. of electrons crossing the base region and then directly into the collector region is a constant factor β of the no. of electrons exiting the base region

$$I_C = \beta I_B$$

No. of electrons reaching the collector region is directly proportional to the no. of electrons injected or crossing the base region.

$$I_C = \alpha I_E$$

Ideally $\alpha = 1$, but in reality it is between 0.9 and 0.998.

Mathematical Expressions

$$\text{Based on KCL: } I_E = I_C + I_B$$

$$I_C = \beta I_B$$

$$I_C = \alpha I_E$$

$$I_E = \beta I_B + I_B = I_B(\beta + 1) \implies I_E = I_B(\beta + 1)$$

$$\text{With } I_C = \beta I_B \rightarrow I_B = I_C / \beta$$

$$I_E = [I_C / \beta] (\beta + 1)$$

$$I_C = I_E [\beta / \beta + 1]$$

$$\text{Comparing with } I_C = \alpha I_E$$

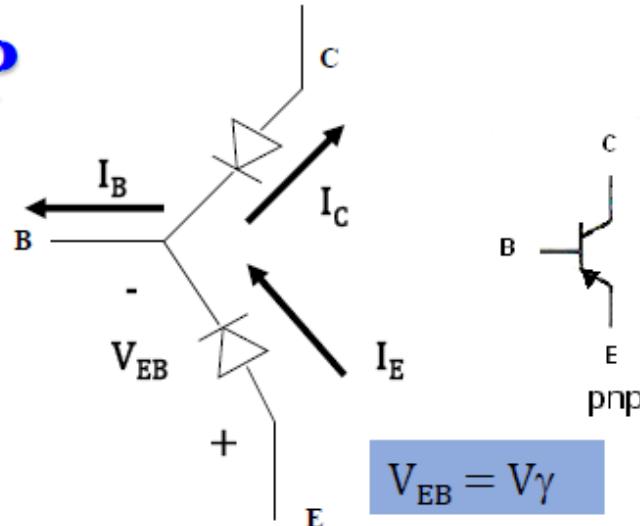


$$\alpha = [\beta / \beta + 1]$$

OPERATIONS - PNP

FORWARD ACTIVE MODE

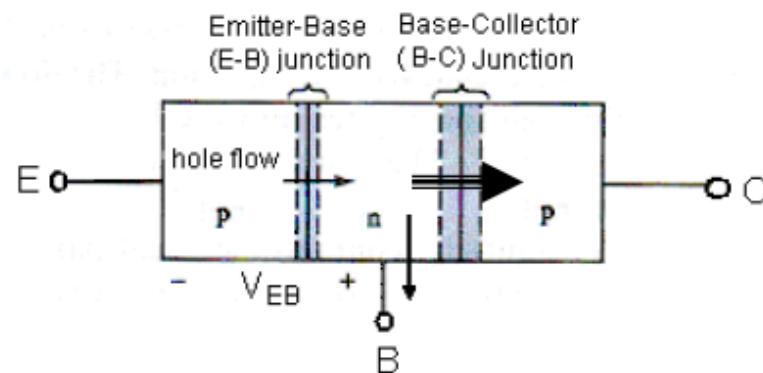
- The emitter – base (E- B) junction is forward biased and the base-collector (B- C) junction is reverse-biased.



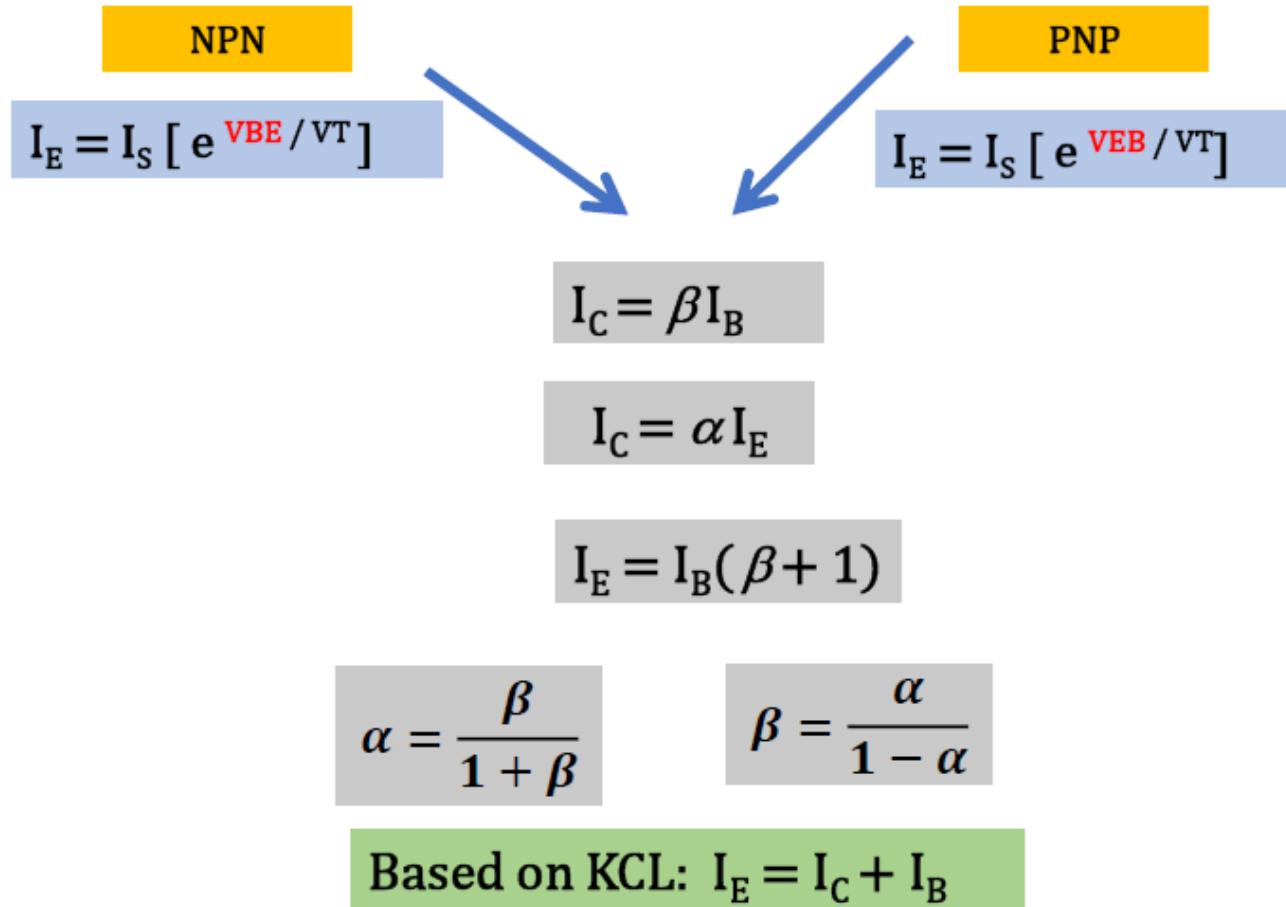
$$I_E = I_S [e^{V_{EB}/VT} - 1] = I_S e^{V_{EB}/VT}$$

**Notice that it is V_{EB}

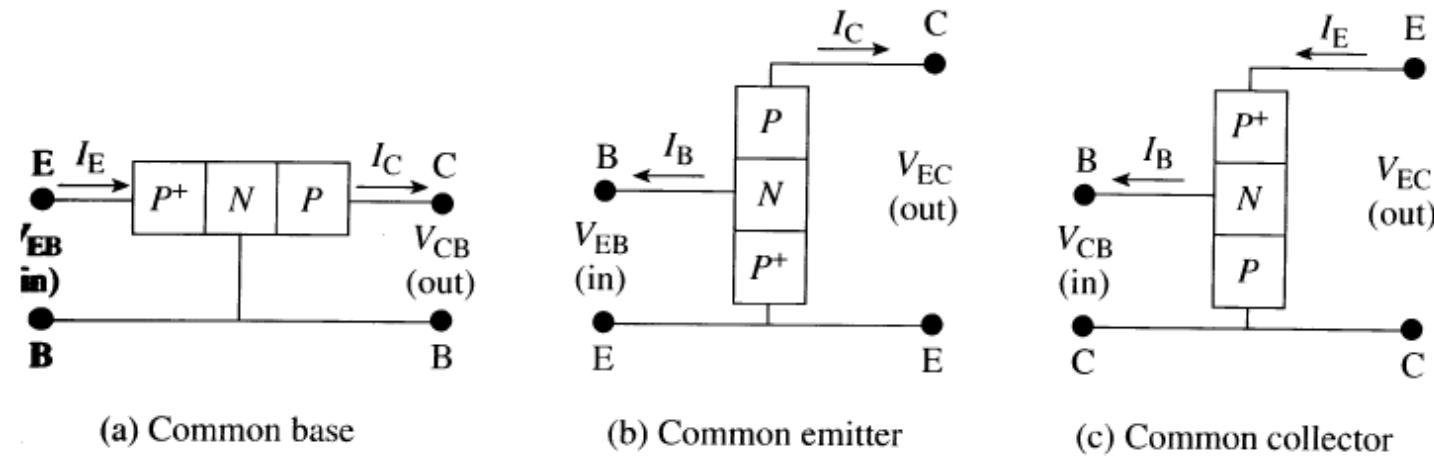
Based on KCL: $I_E = I_C + I_B$



BJT



BJT configurations



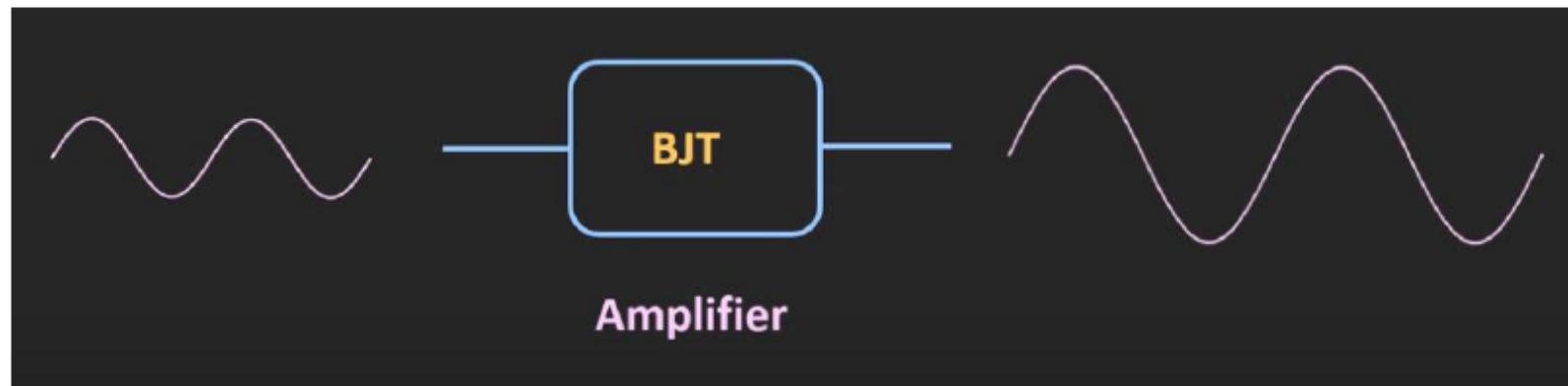
Common Base Configuration – has Voltage Gain but no Current Gain.

Common Emitter Configuration – has both Current and Voltage Gain.

Common Collector Configuration – has Current Gain but no Voltage Gain.

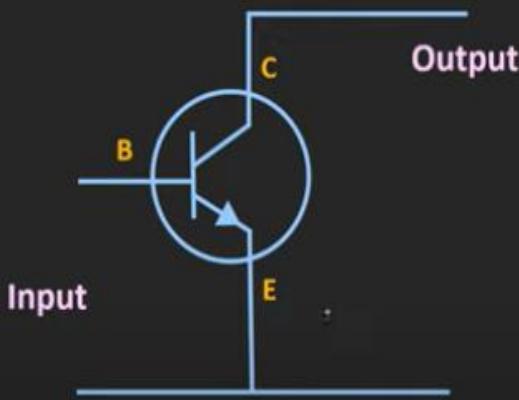
BJT

Amplifier

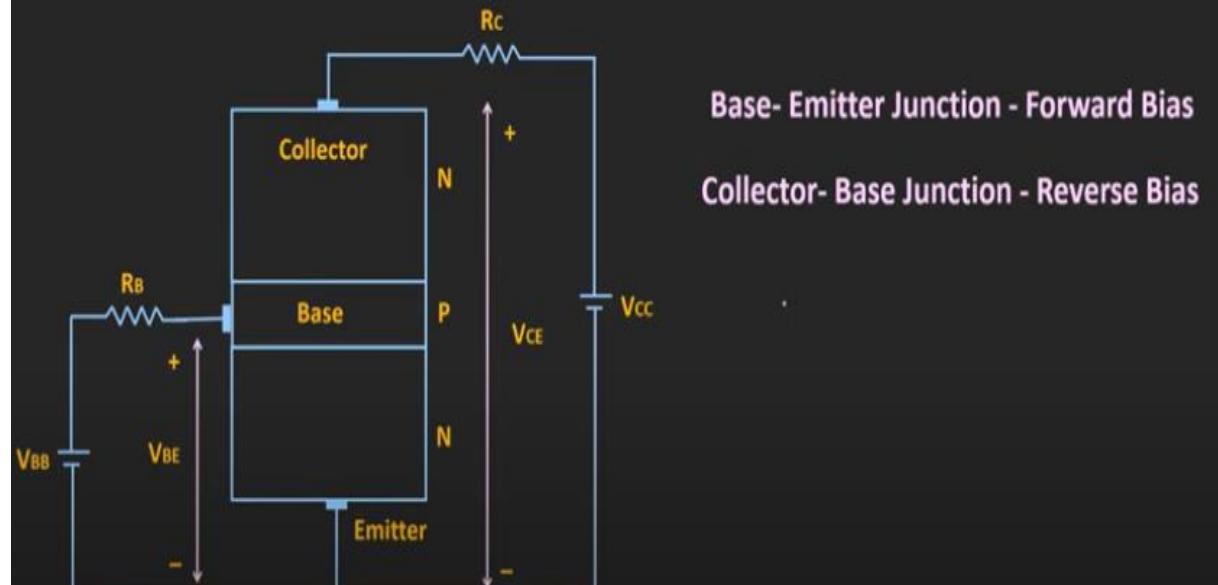


CE BJT

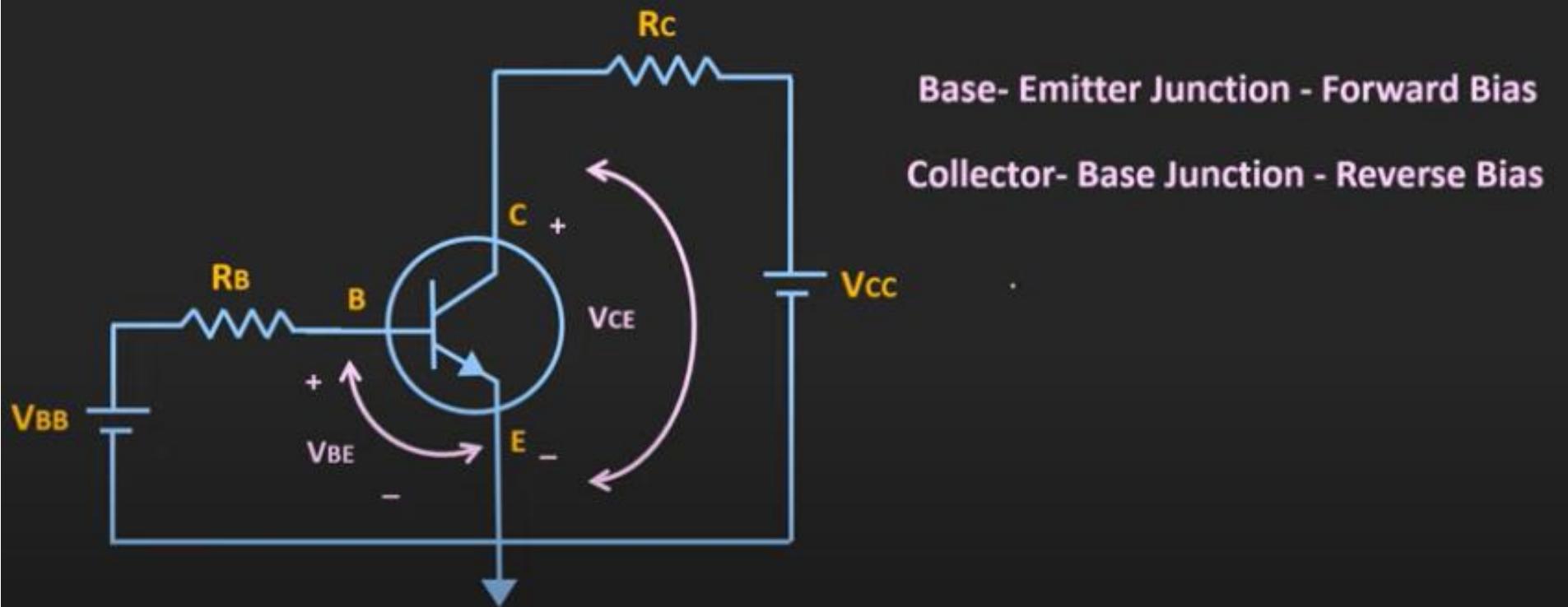
Common Emitter (CE) Configuration



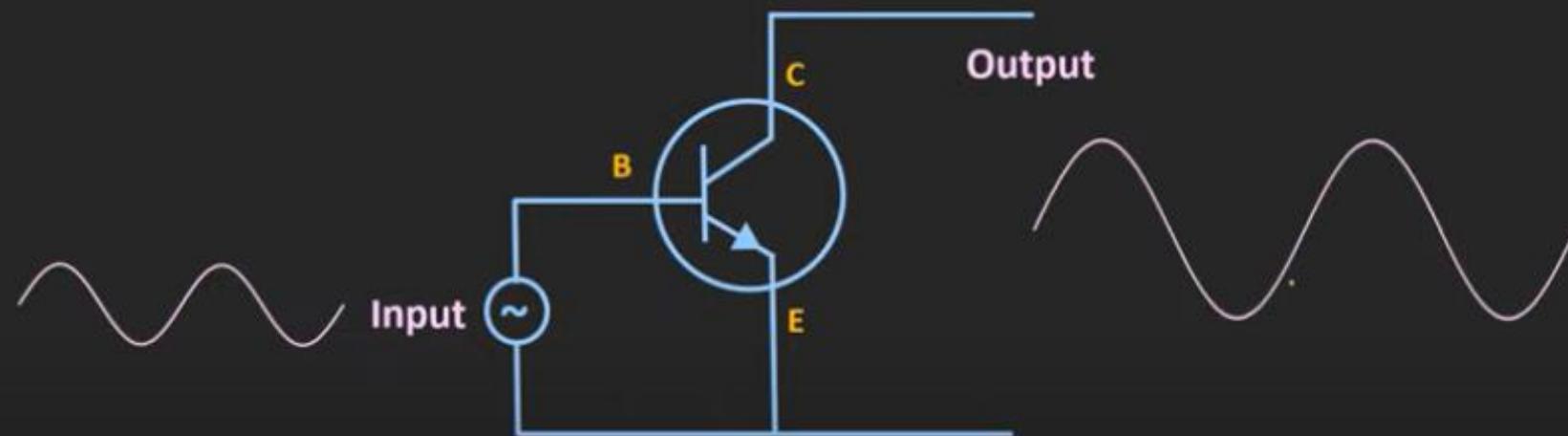
Common Emitter (CE) Configuration



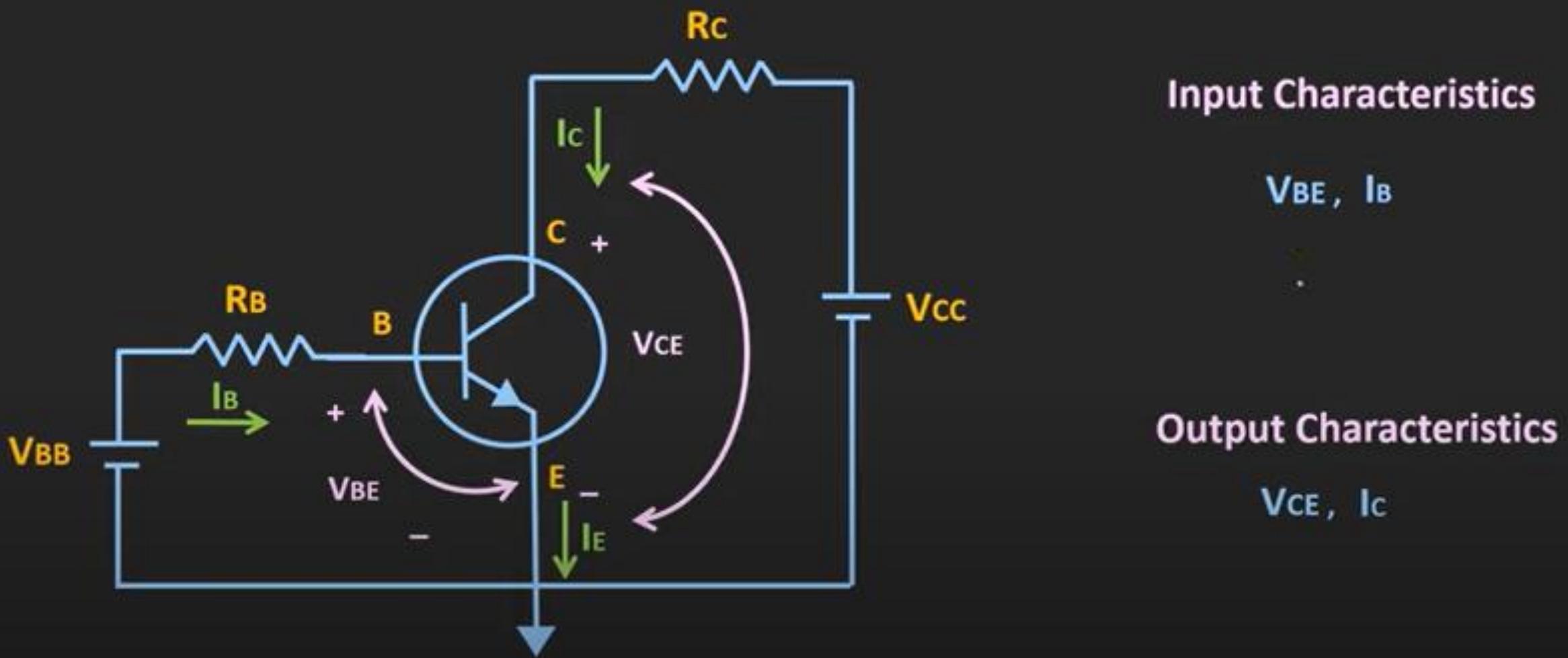
Common Emitter (CE) Configuration



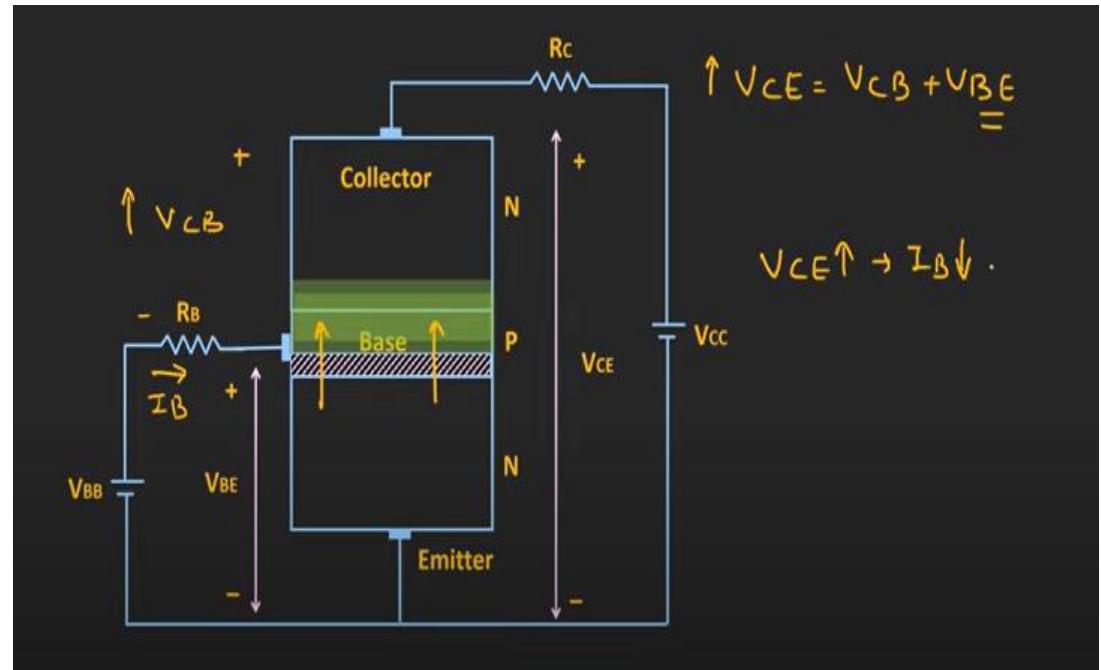
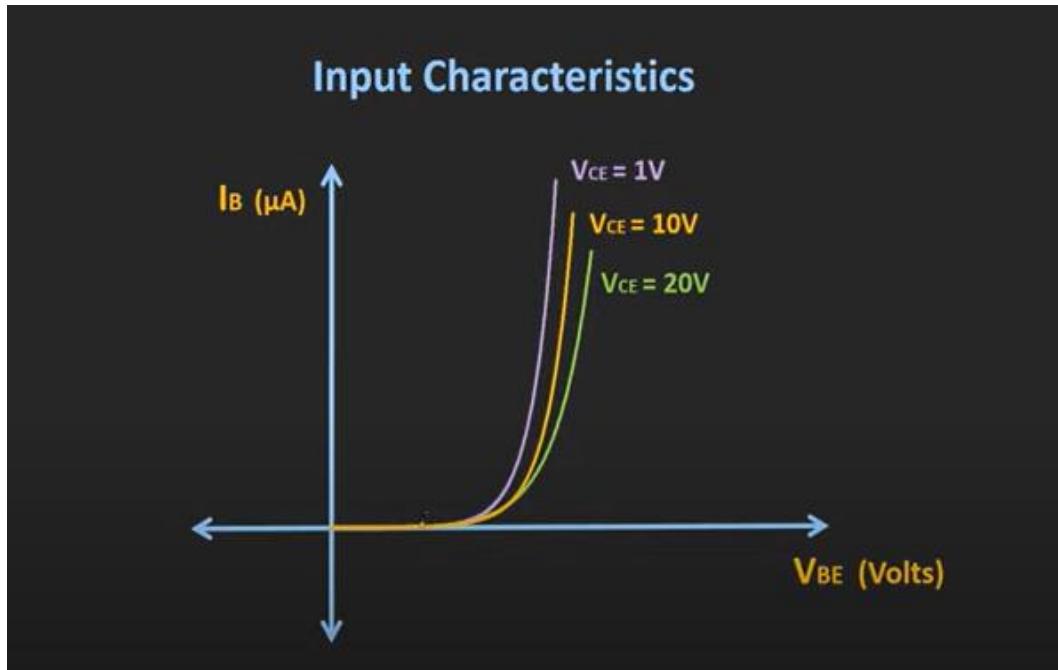
Common Emitter (CE) Configuration



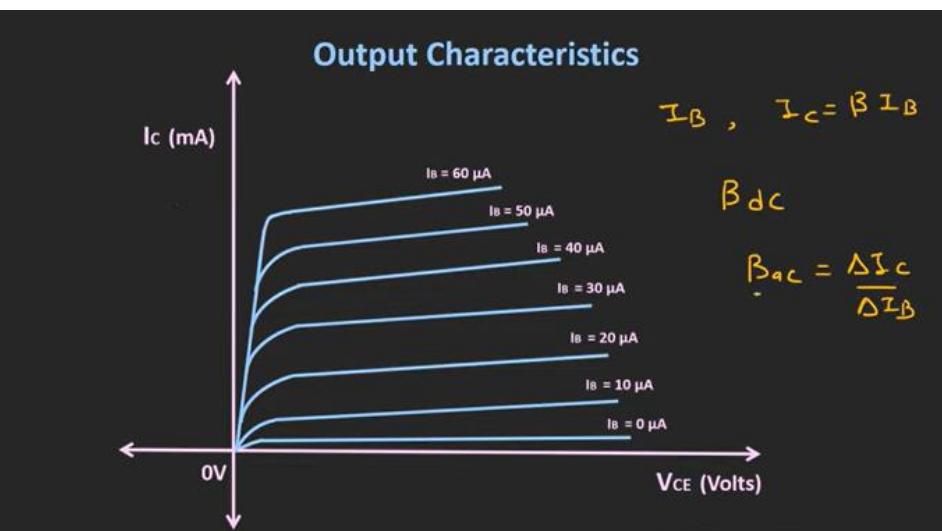
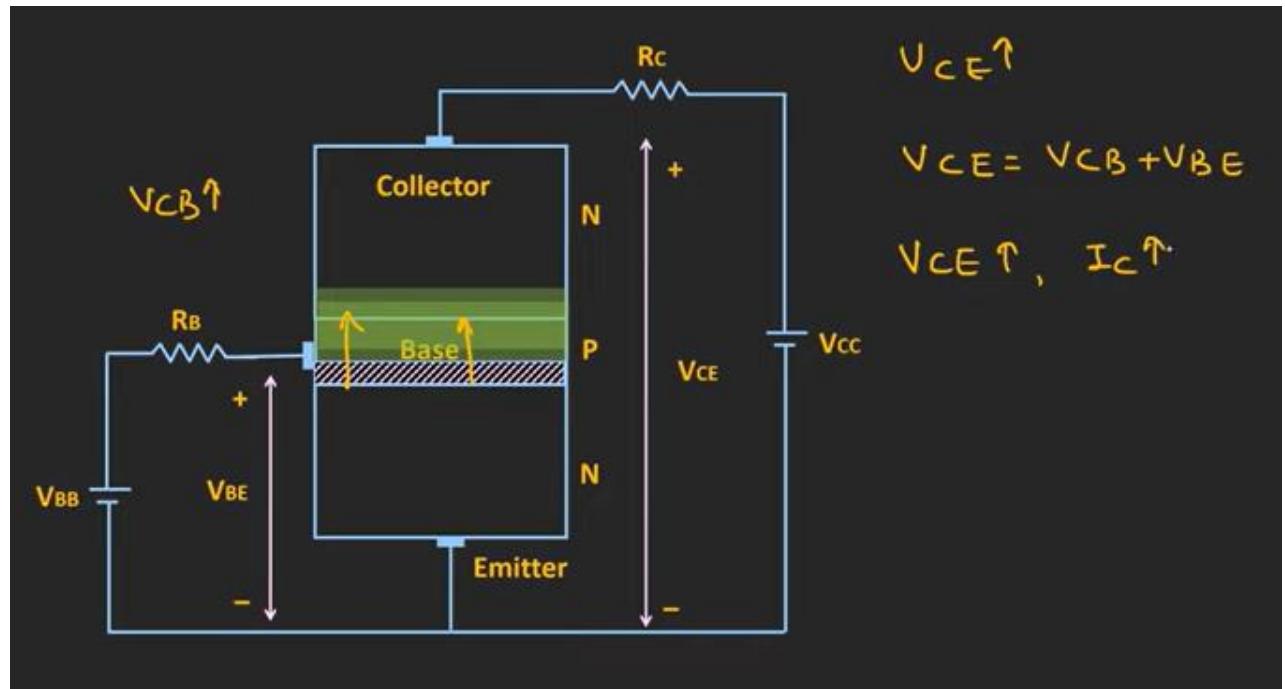
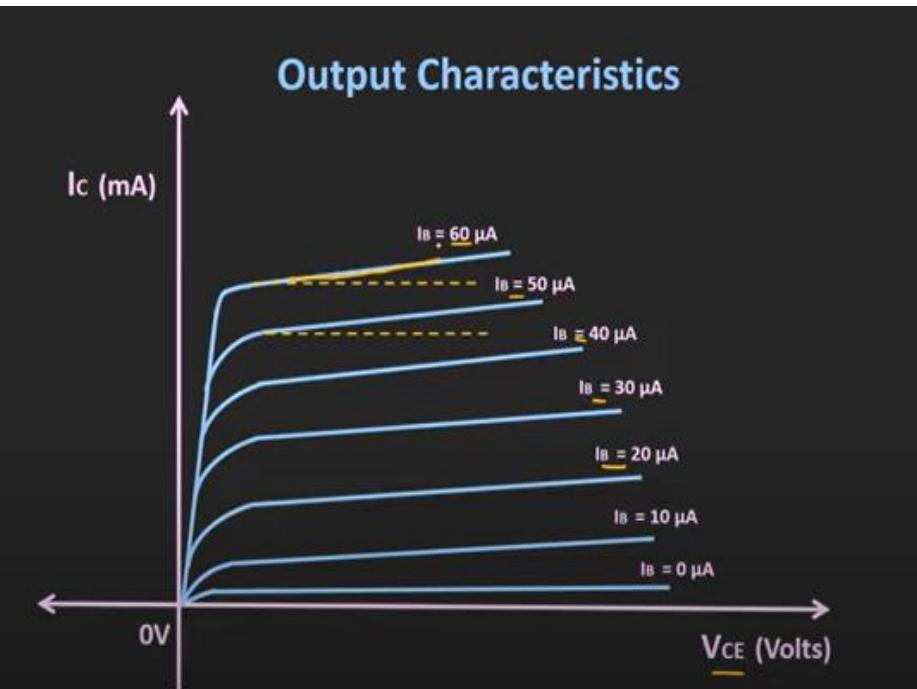
CE BJT



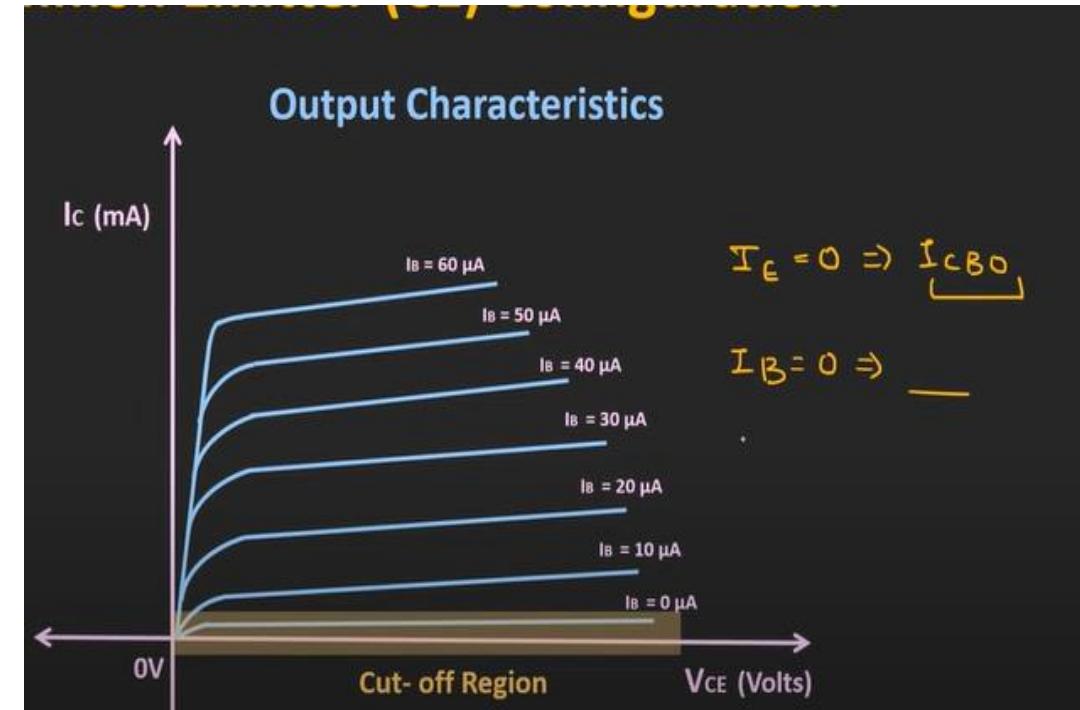
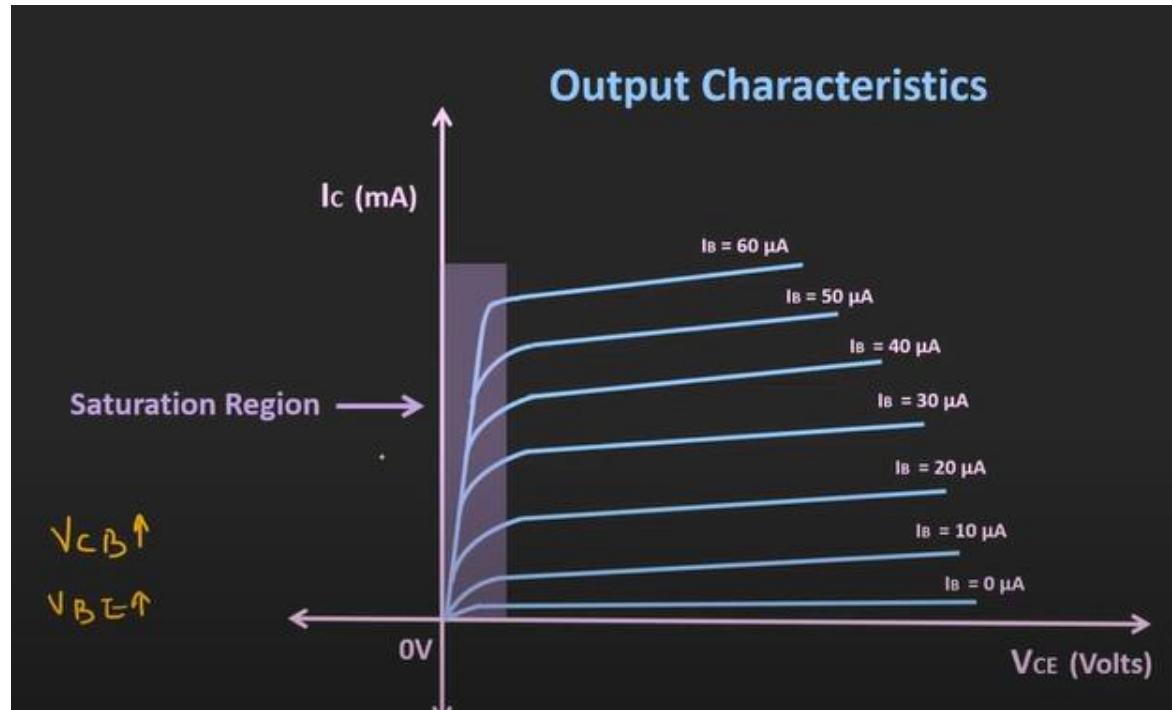
CE BJT



CE BJT



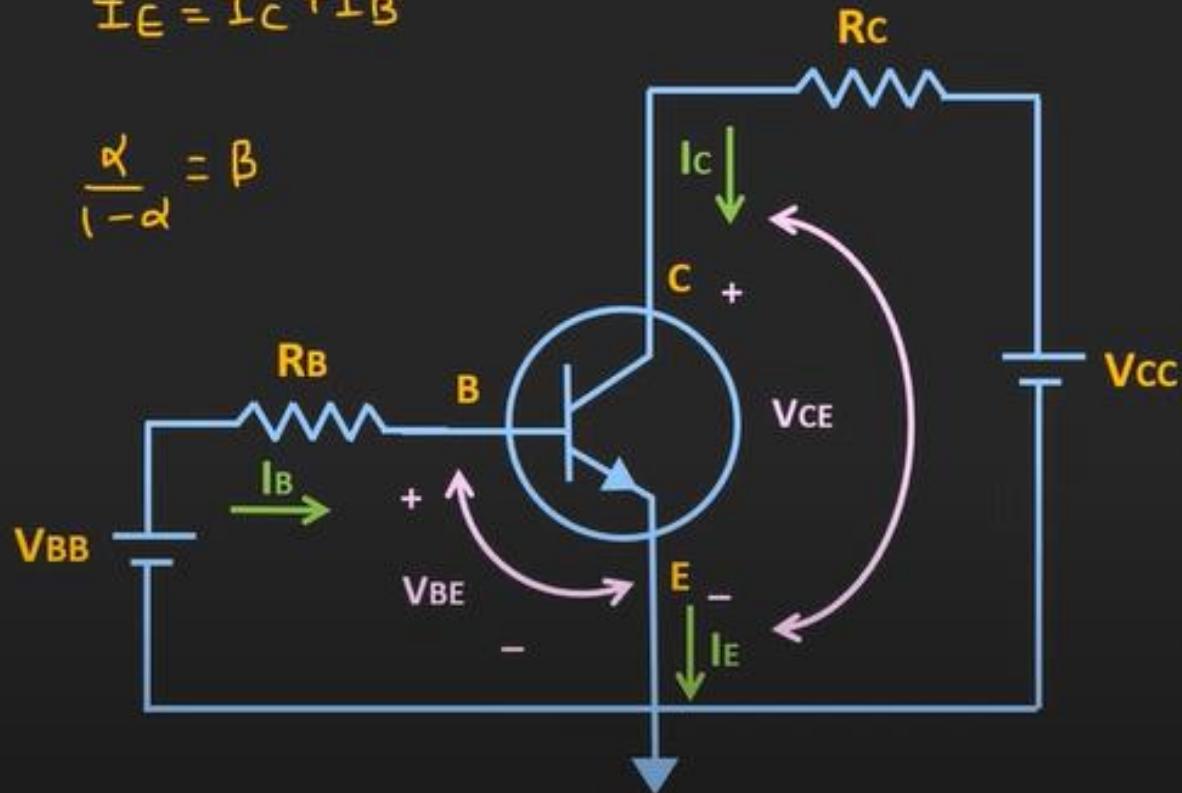
CE BJT



CE BJT

$$I_E = I_C + I_B$$

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



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

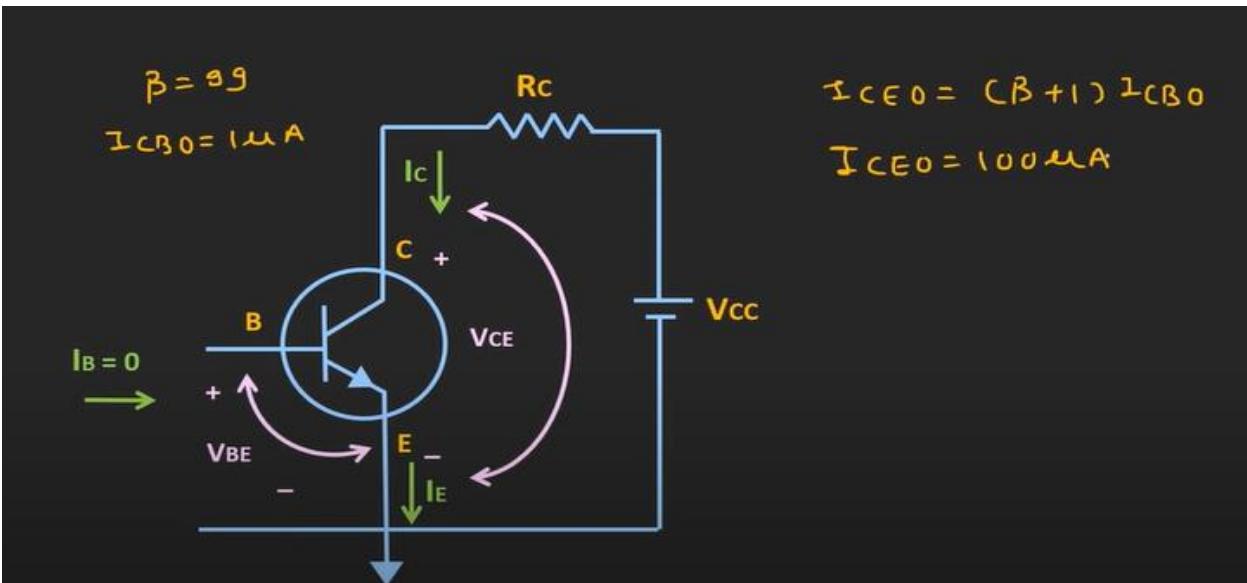
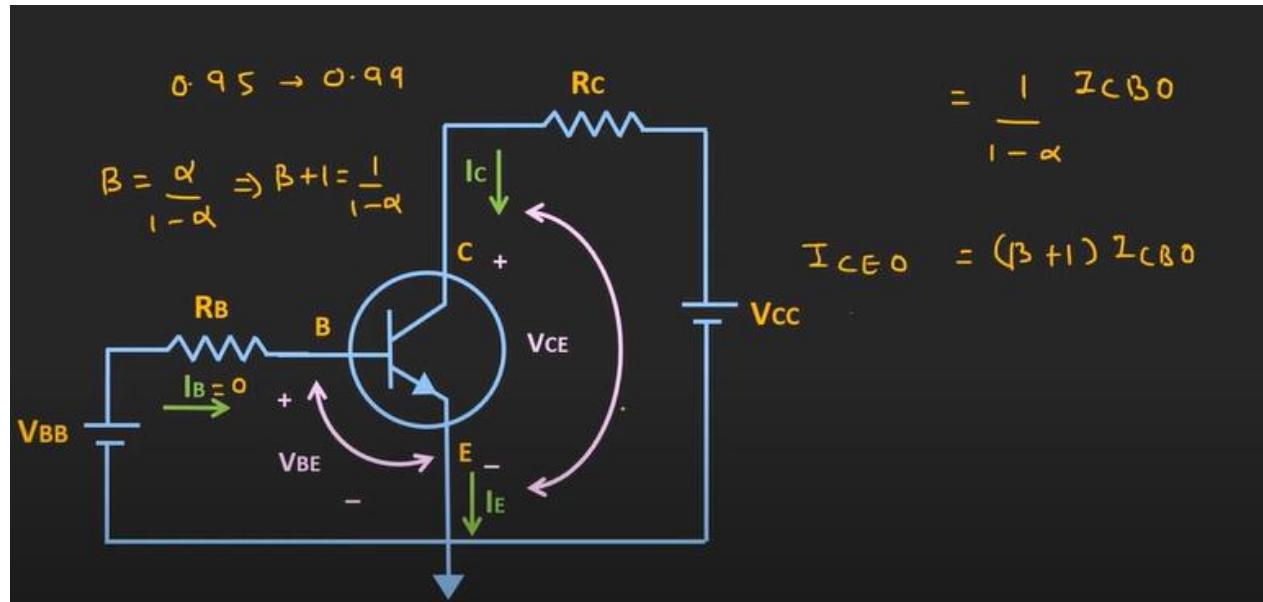
$$\Rightarrow I_C = \alpha (I_C + I_B) + I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - \alpha) I_C = \alpha I_B + I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} I_B + \frac{1}{1-\alpha} I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \beta I_B + \frac{1}{1-\alpha} I_{CBO}$$

CE BJT



Moderate Current Gain

Moderate Voltage Gain

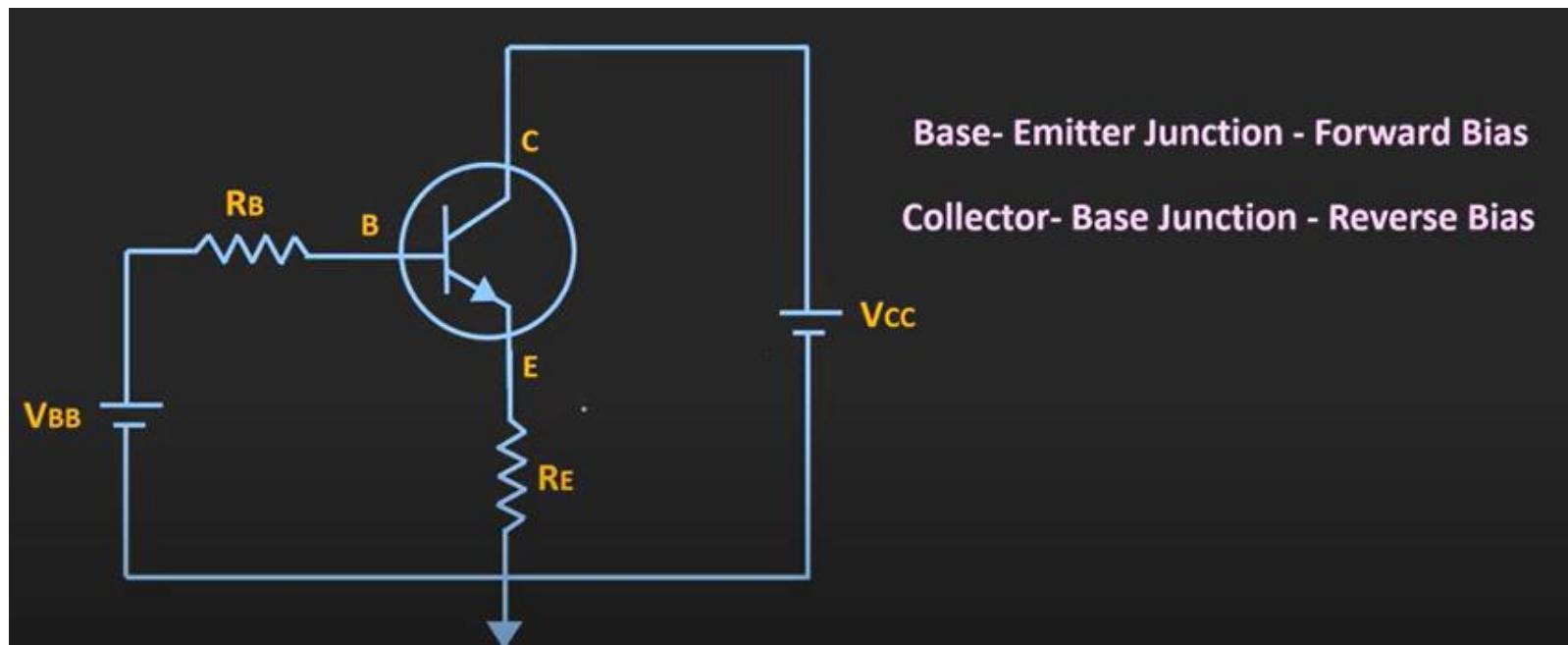
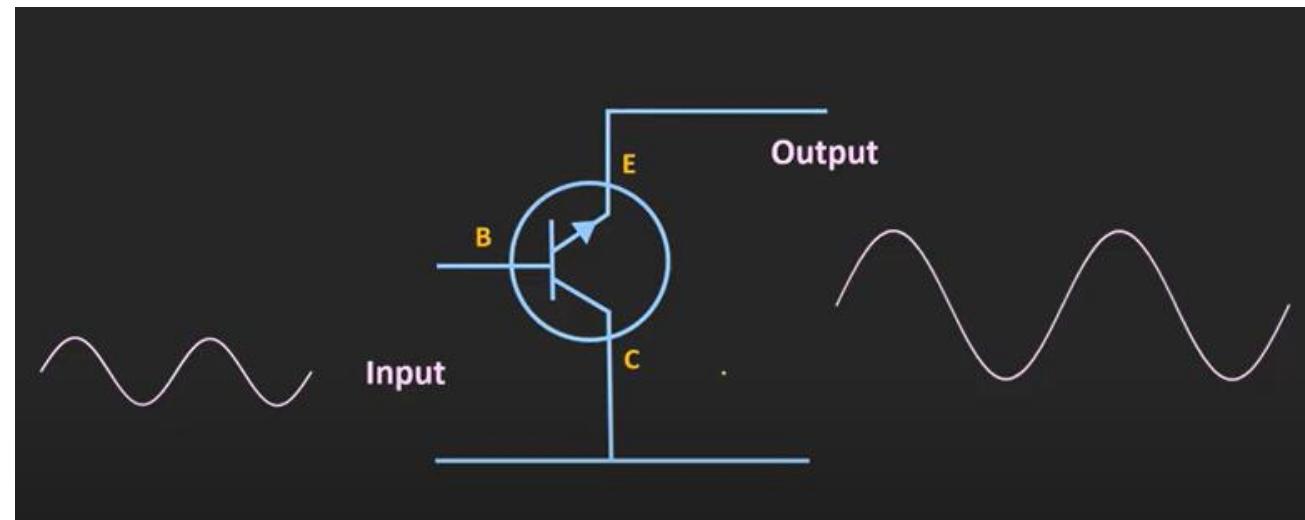
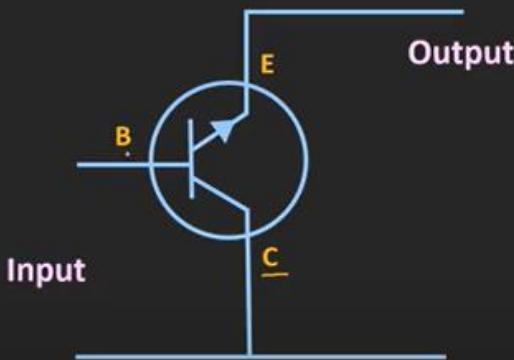
High Power Gain

Moderate Input Impedance

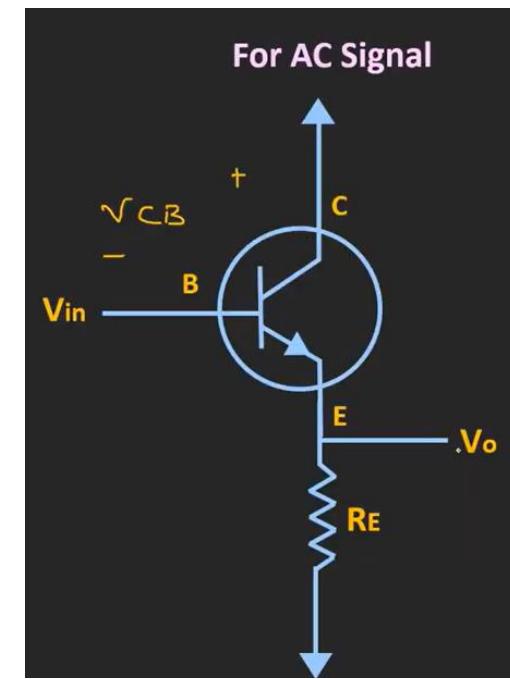
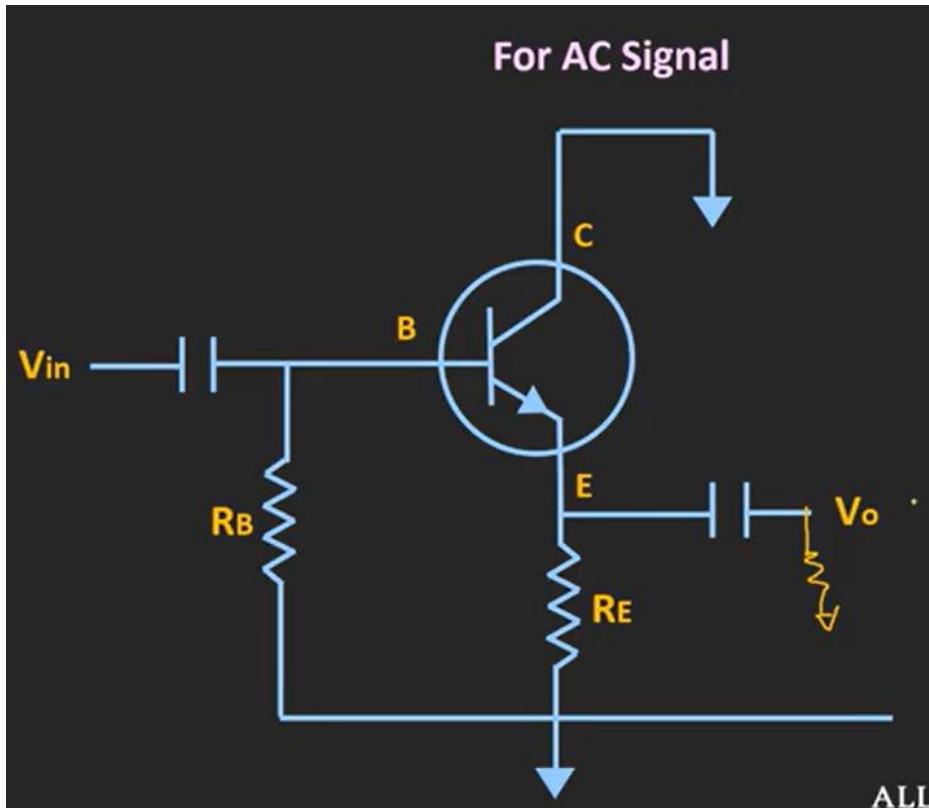
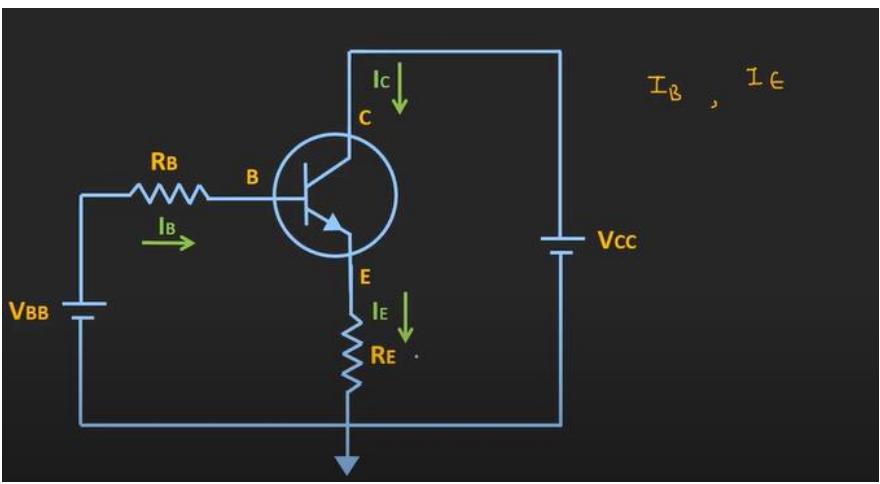
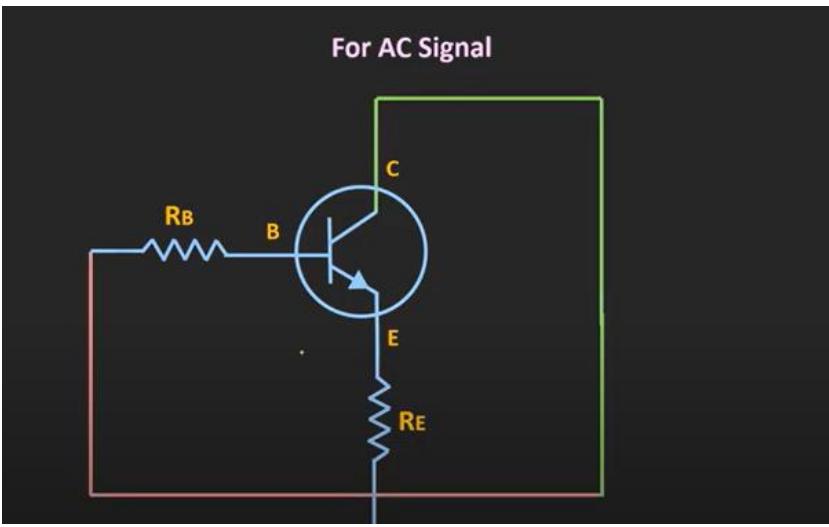
Moderate Output Impedance

CC BJT

Common Collector (CC) Configuration

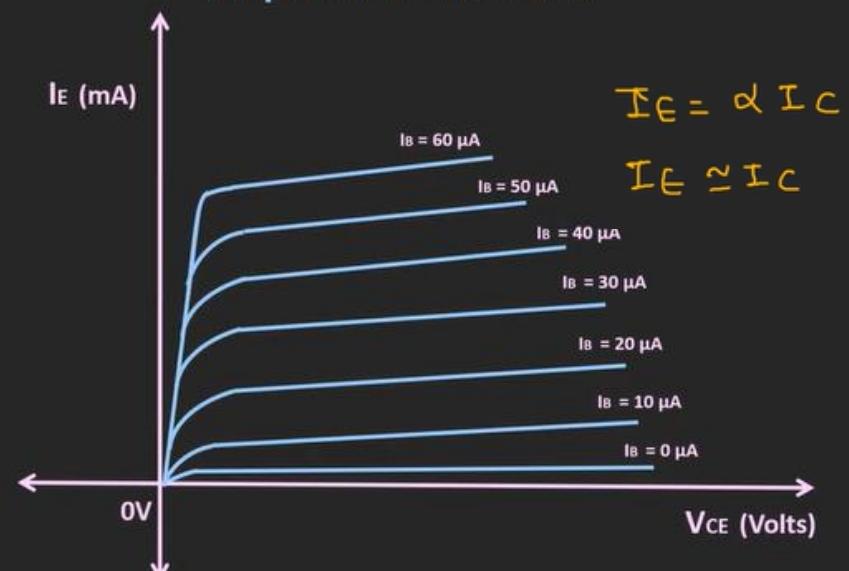


CE BJT

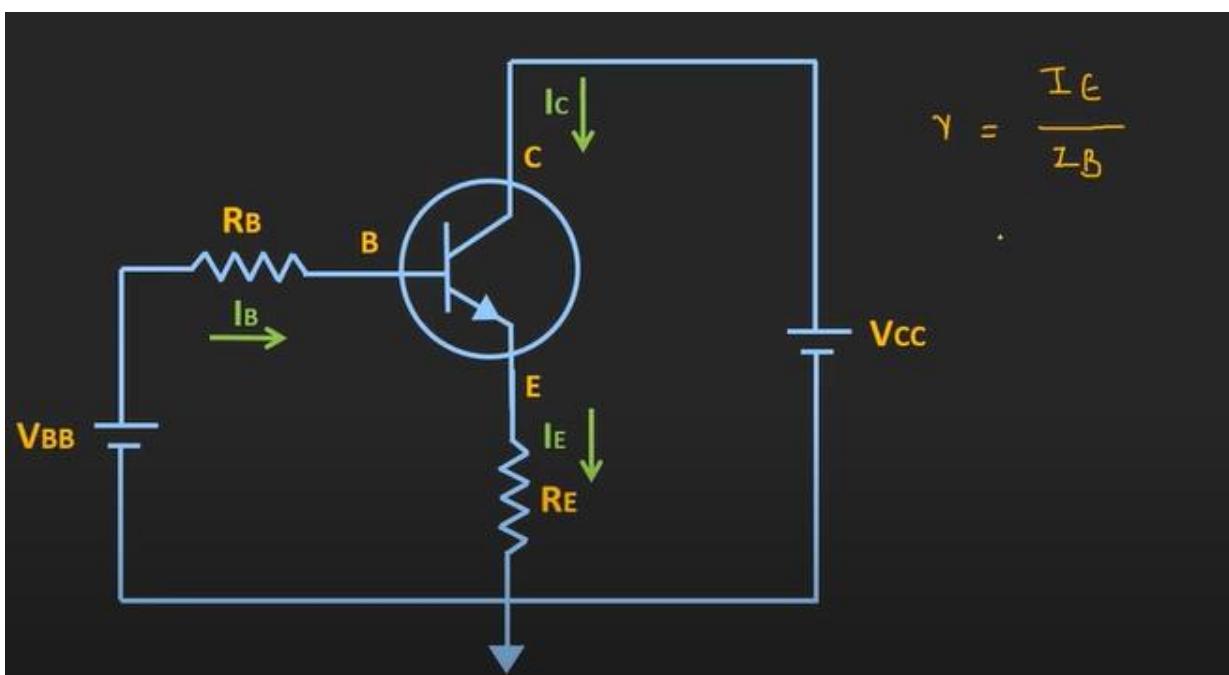
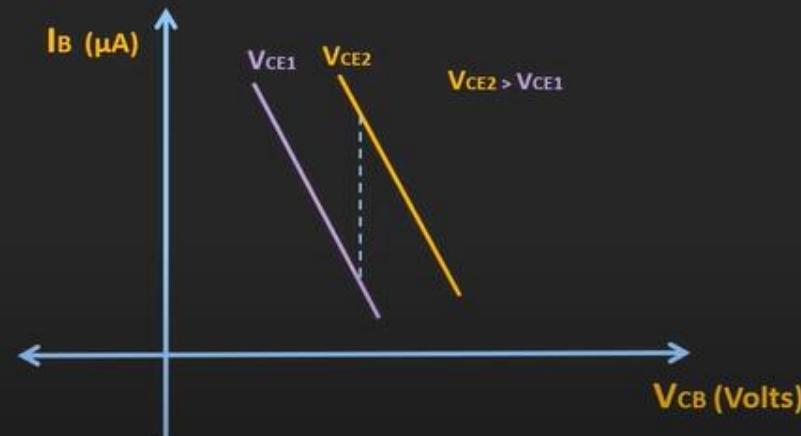


CC BJT

Output Characteristics



Input Characteristics



Alpha (α):

- It is a large signal current gain in common base configuration.
- It is the ratio of collector current (output current) to the emitter current (input current).

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

- It indicates that the amount of emitter current reaching to collector.
- Its value is unity ideally and practically less than unity.

Beta (β):

- It is a current gain factor in the common emitter configuration. It is the ratio of collector current (output current) to base current (output current).

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

- Normally Its value is greater than 100.

Gama (γ):

- It is a current gain in common collector configuration and it is the ration of emitter current (output current) to base current (input current).

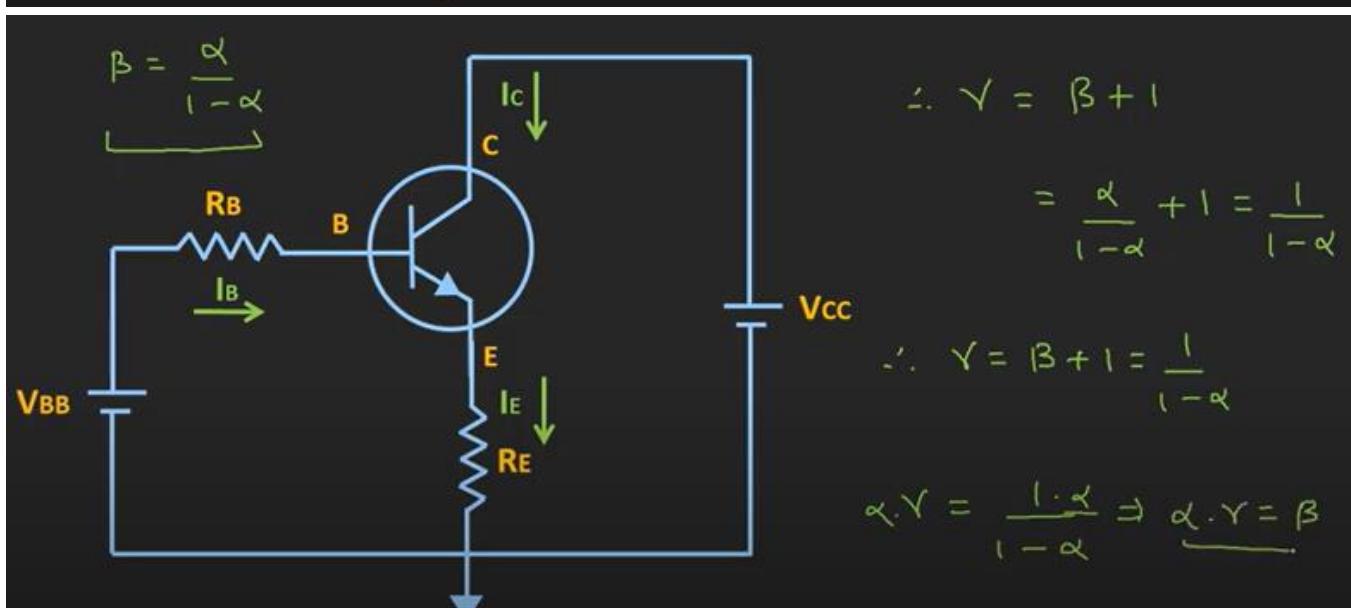
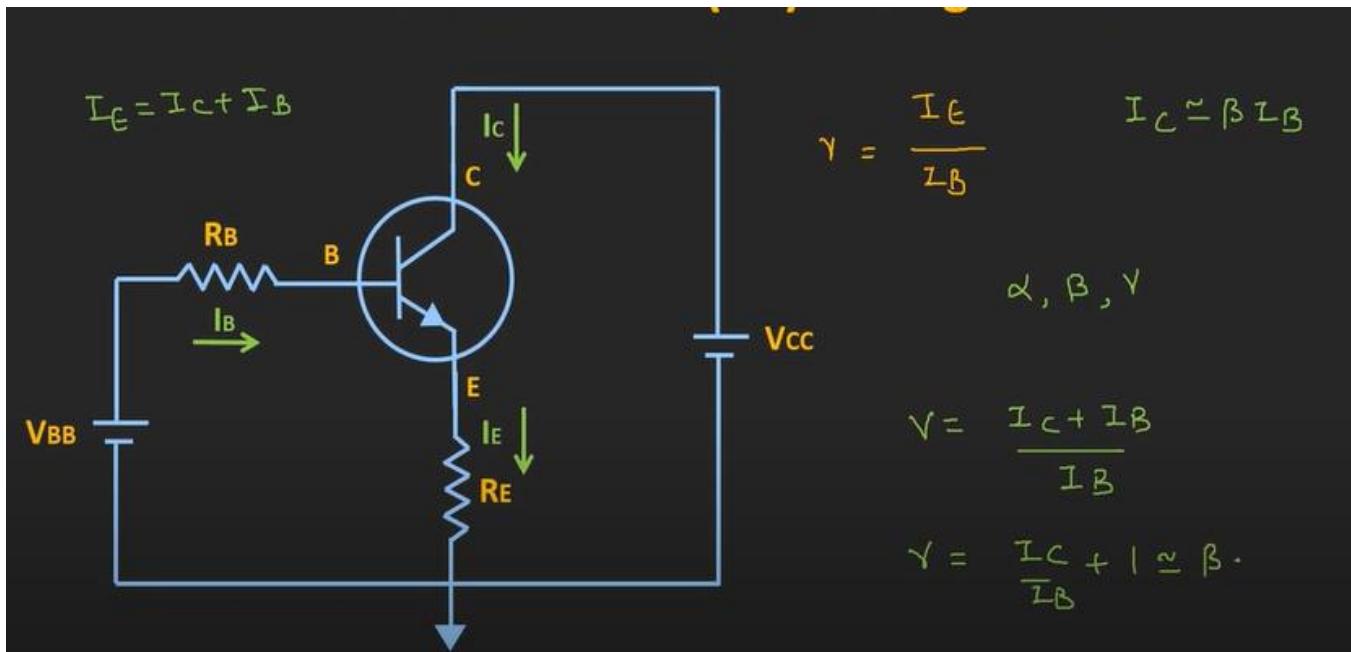
$$\gamma = \frac{I_E}{I_B}$$

- It is also called emitter efficiency that how much current is injected from the emitter to base after recombination of minority charge carriers in base.
- Its value is high compared to α , β
- Relation between α , β and γ

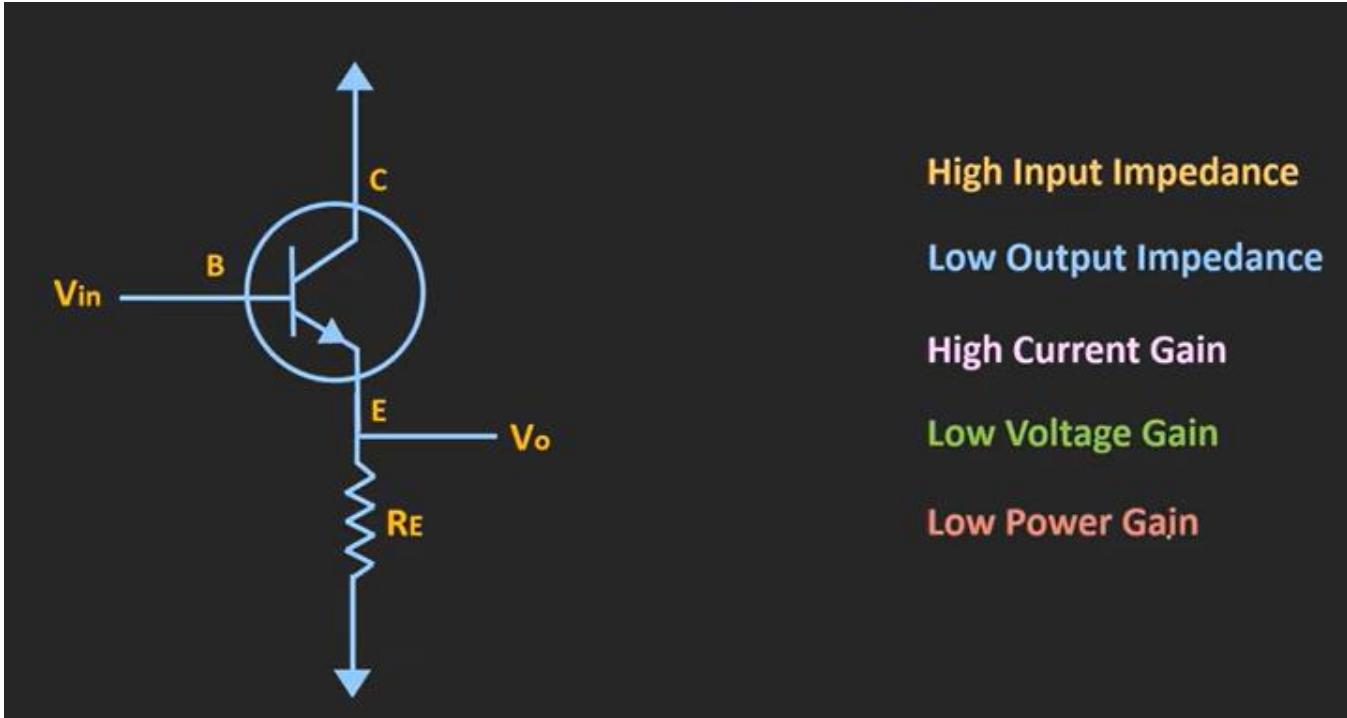
$$\gamma = \beta + 1 = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha}$$

$$\alpha \gamma = \beta$$

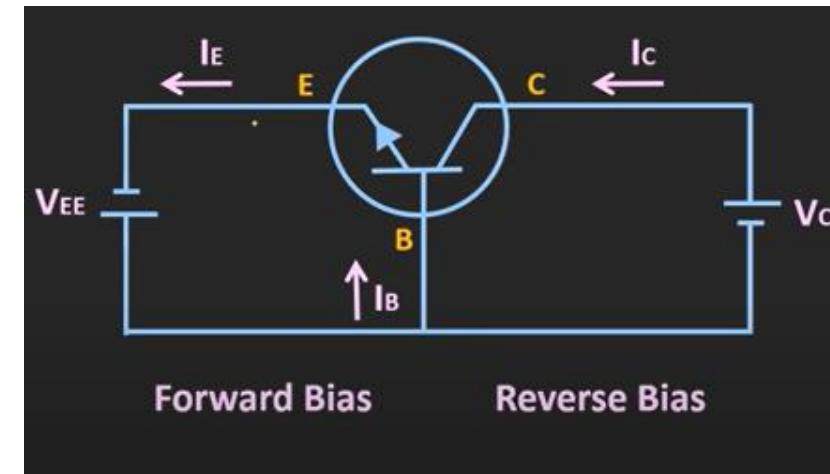
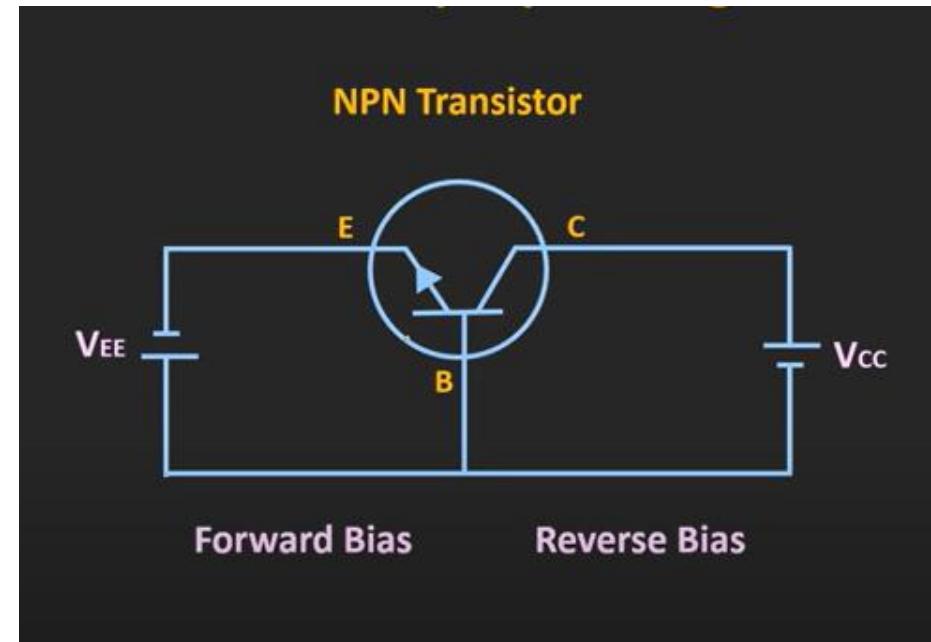
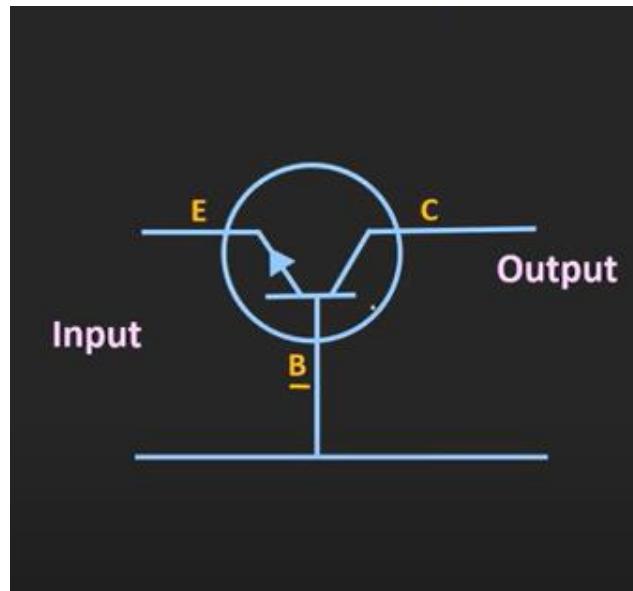
CC BJT



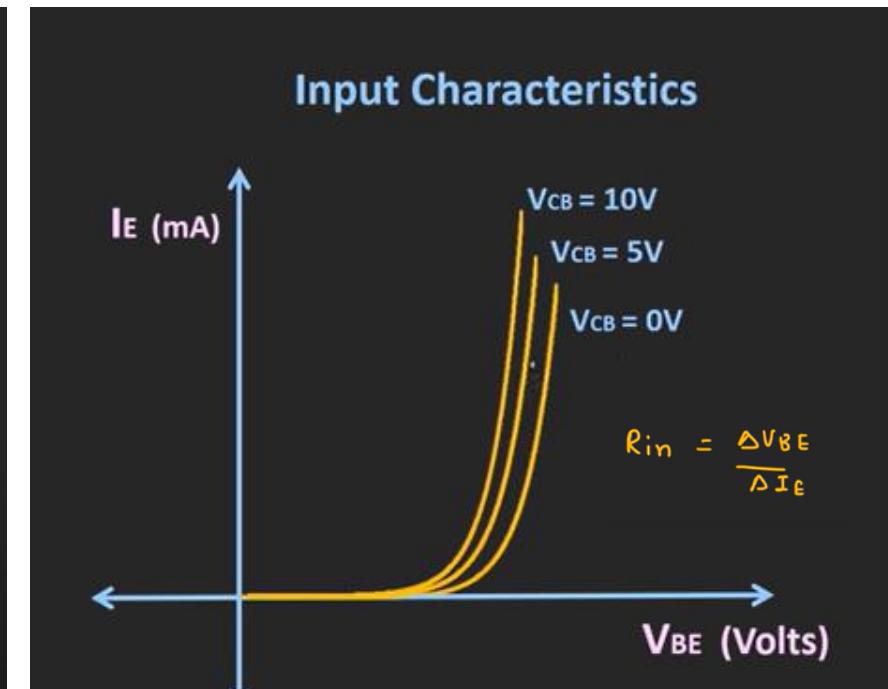
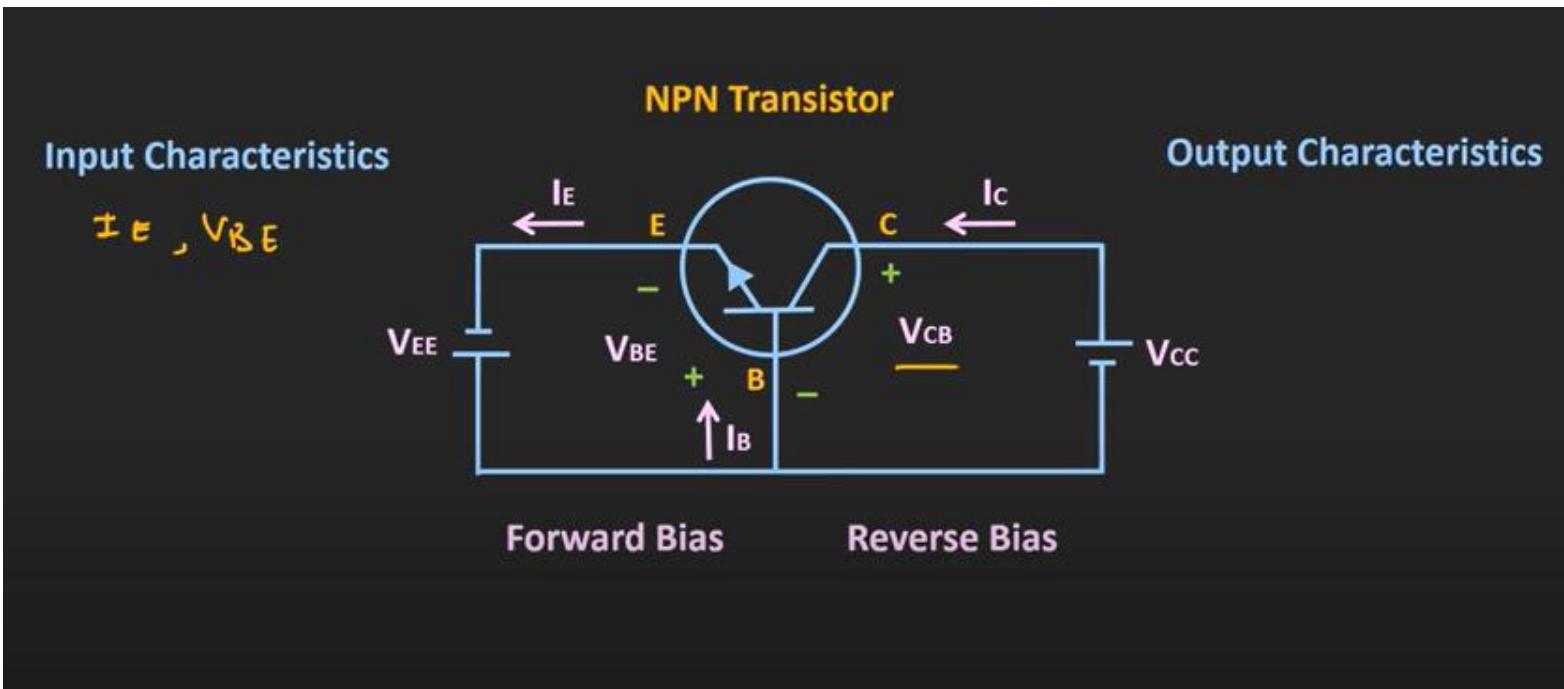
CC BJT



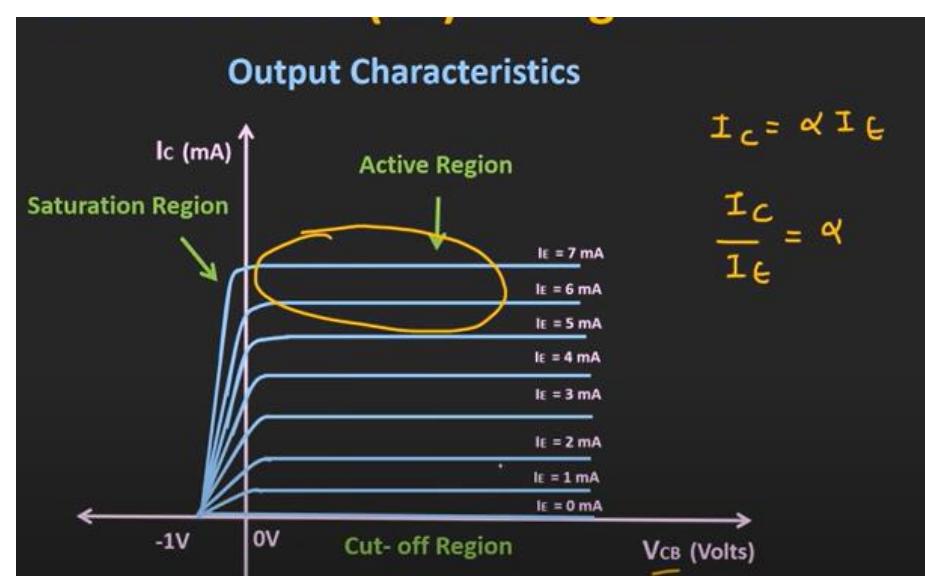
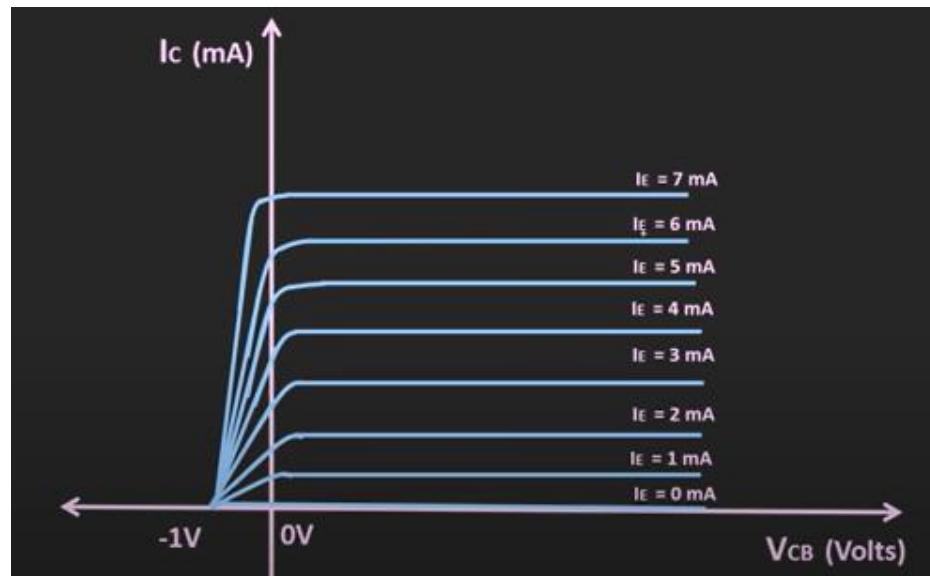
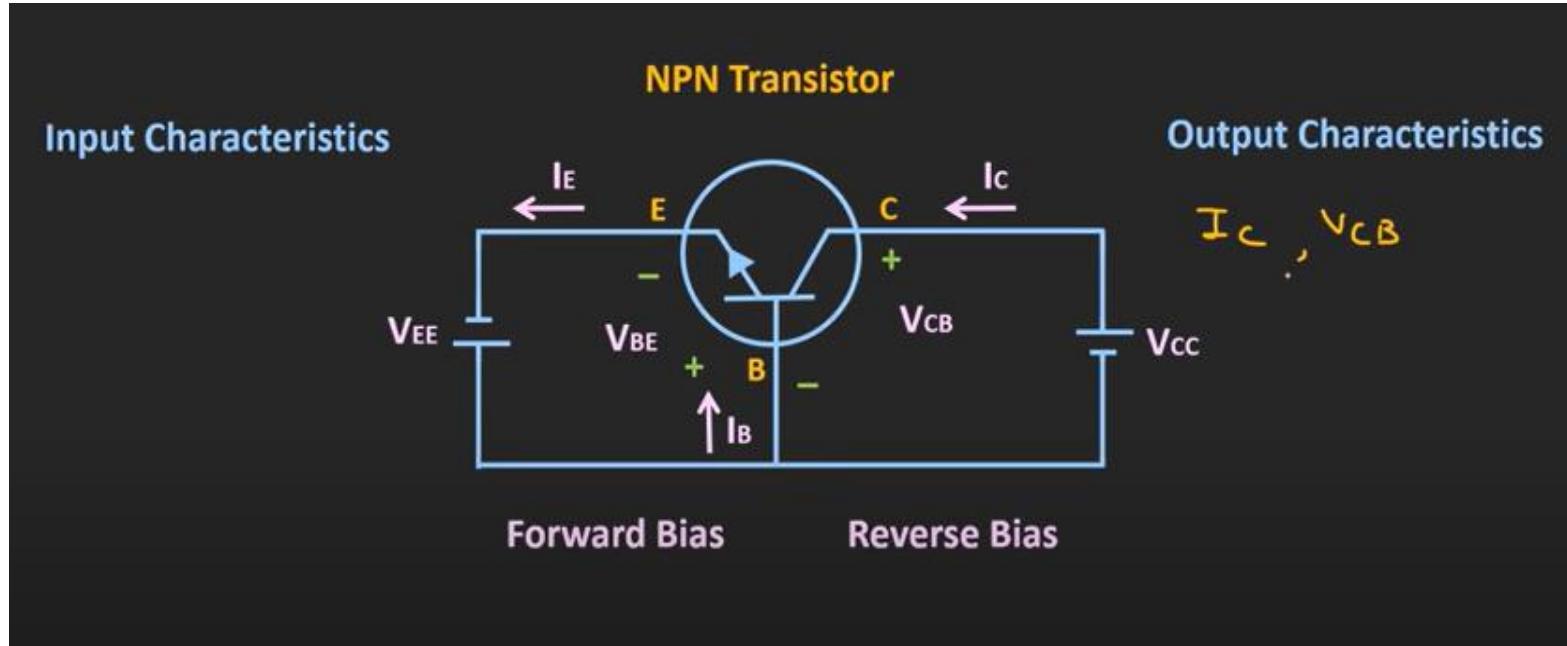
CB BJT



CB BJT



CB BJT



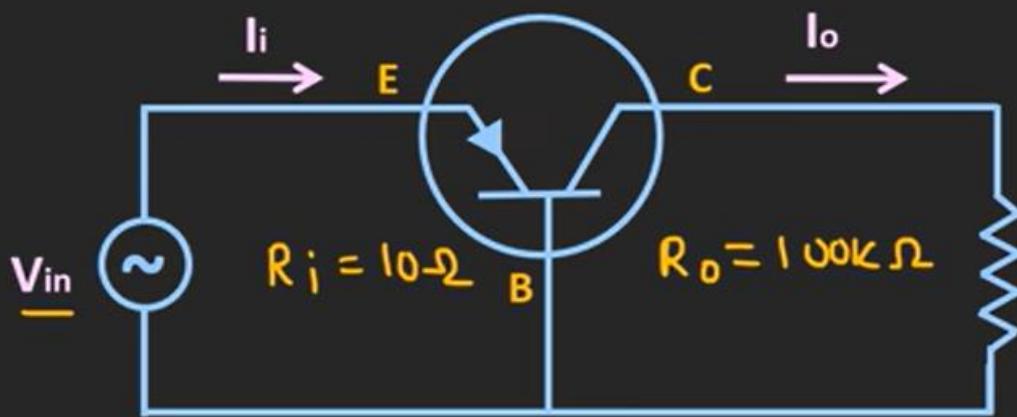
CB BJT

$$\frac{I_C}{I_E} < 1$$

$$= \frac{100}{1}$$

$$= 5mV$$

Voltage Amplification



$$\alpha = 1$$

$$I_0 = I_i$$

$$I_C = \alpha I_E$$

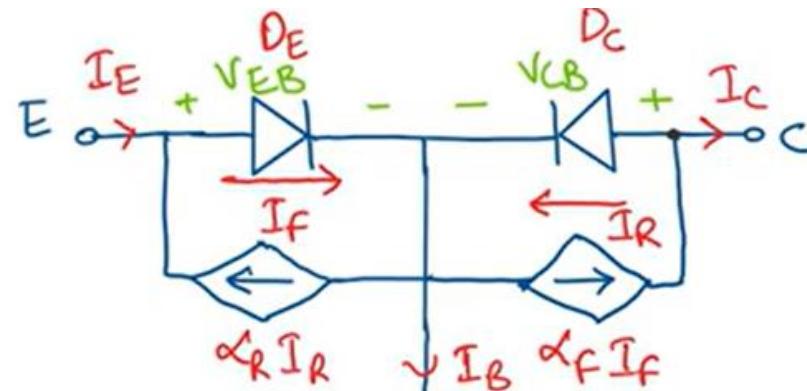
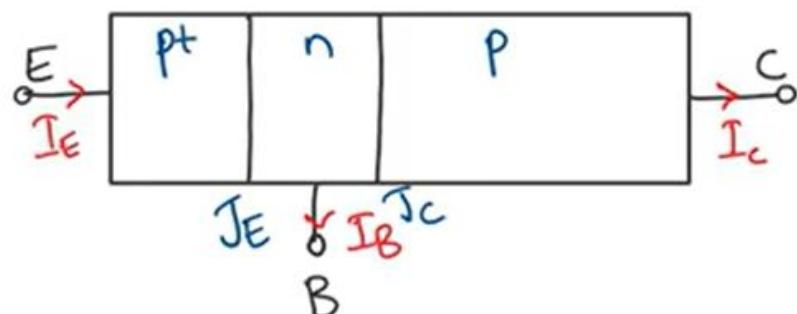
$$R_L = \frac{1}{1k\Omega} = 1k\Omega$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_o &= I_0 R_L \\ &= 0.5mA \times 1k\Omega \\ &= 0.5V = 500mV \end{aligned}$$

$$I_i = \frac{5mV}{10\Omega} = 0.5mA$$

$$= \frac{50-300}{10} .$$

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT



All modes of operations.

$$I_B = I_f + I_R - \alpha_f I_f - \alpha_R I_R$$

$$I_E = I_f - \alpha_R I_R = I_{E0} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) - \alpha_R I_{C0} (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T}} - 1)$$

$$I_c = \alpha_f I_f - I_R = \alpha_f I_{E0} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) - I_{C0} (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T}} - 1) = (I_f - \alpha_R I_R) - (\alpha_f I_f - I_R)$$

Active Mode :- I_E is F.B V_{EB} is +ve, I_c is R.B V_{CB} is -ve

$$I_E = I_{E0} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) + \alpha_R I_{C0}$$

$$I_c = \alpha_f I_{E0} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) + I_{C0}$$

$$I_B = I_E - I_c$$

$$I_E = I_{E0} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) + \frac{AqD_pP_{no}}{W}$$

$$I_c = \frac{AqD_pP_{no}}{W} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T}} - 1) + I_{C0}$$

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

$$\alpha_F I_{EO} = \alpha_R I_{CO} = I_S$$

$$I_{EO} = \frac{I_S}{\alpha_F} \quad I_{CO} = \frac{I_S}{\alpha_R}$$

$$I_E = \frac{I_S}{\alpha_F} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1}) - I_S (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1})$$

$$I_C = I_S (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1}) - \frac{I_S}{\alpha_R} (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1})$$

$$I_B = I_E - I_C$$

$$\alpha_F = \frac{\beta_F}{1 + \beta_F}$$

$$\alpha_R = \frac{\beta_R}{1 + \beta_R}$$

$$I_E = I_S \left[(e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1} - e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1}) + \frac{1}{\beta_F} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1}) \right]$$

$$I_C = I_S \left[(e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1} - e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1}) - \frac{1}{\beta_R} (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1}) \right]$$

$$I_B = I_S \left[\frac{1}{\beta_F} (e^{\frac{V_{EB}}{V_T} - 1}) - \frac{1}{\beta_R} (e^{\frac{V_{CB}}{V_T} - 1}) \right]$$

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

2.3 Modes of Operation

The Ebers-Moll BJT Model is a good large-signal, steady-state model of the transistor and allows the state of conduction of the device to be easily determined for different modes of operation of the device. The different modes of operation are determined by the manner in which the junctions are biased. The charge profiles for each mode are shown in Fig. 2.4.

(a) Forward Active Mode

B-E forward-biased, V_{BE} positive

B-C reverse biased, V_{BC} negative

$$e^{V_{BE}/V_T} \gg 1$$

$$e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \ll 1$$

Then from the model,

$$I_E \approx I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} \quad \text{relatively large}$$

$$I_C \approx \alpha_F I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} = \alpha_F I_E \quad \text{relatively large}$$

$$I_B \approx (1 - \alpha_F) I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} = (1 - \alpha_F) I_E \quad \text{small}$$

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

(b) Reverse Active Mode

B-E reverse biased, V_{BE} negative

B-C forward biased, V_{BC} positive

$$e^{V_{BE}/V_T} \ll 1,$$

$$e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \gg 1$$

Essentially the transistor conducts in the opposite direction.

From the model,

$$I_E \approx -\alpha_R I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \quad \text{moderately high}$$

$$I_C \approx -I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \quad \text{moderate}$$

$$I_B \approx (1 - \alpha_R) I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \quad \text{as high as } 0.5 |I_C|$$

This mode does not provide useful amplification but is used, mainly, for current steering in switching circuits, e.g. TTL.

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

(c) Cut-Off Mode

B-E unbiased, $V_{BE} = 0V$

$$e^{V_{BE}/V_T} = 1,$$

B-C reverse biased, V_{BC} negative

$$e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \ll 1.$$

Then,

$$I_E \approx \alpha_R I_{CS}$$

leakage current nA

$$I_C \approx I_{CS}$$

leakage current nA

$$I_B \approx -(1 - \alpha_R) I_{CS}$$

This is equivalent to a very low conductance between collector and emitter as shown in Fig. 2.5, i.e. an open switch.

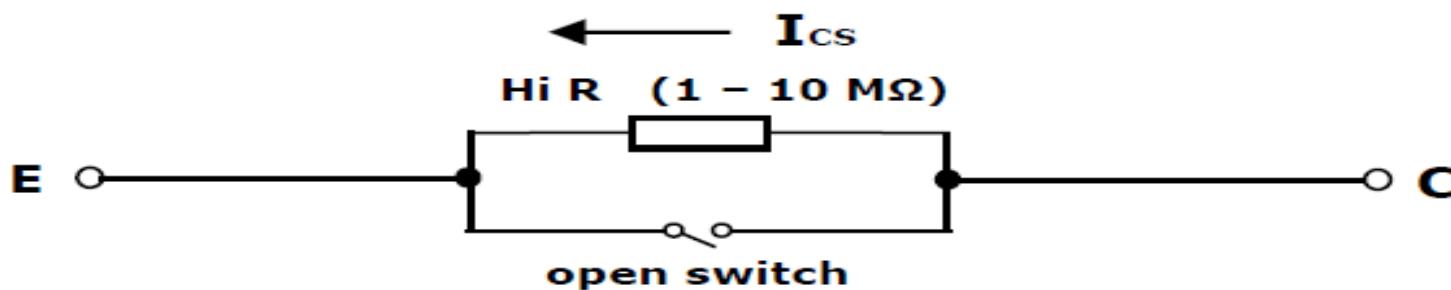


Fig. 2.5 The Cut-Off Mode of Operation as Equivalent to a Leaky Switch

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

(d) The Saturation Mode

B-E forward biased, V_{BE} positive
positive

B-C forward biased, V_{BC}

$$e^{V_{BE}/V_T} \gg 1$$

$$e^{V_{BC}/V_T} \gg 1$$

Note: both junctions are forward biased

Then,

$$I_E \approx I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} - \alpha_R I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T}$$

$$I_C \approx \alpha_F I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} - I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T}$$

$$I_B \approx (1 - \alpha_F) I_{ES} e^{V_{BE}/V_T} + (1 - \alpha_R) I_{CS} e^{V_{BC}/V_T}$$

Ebers-Moll Model of BJT

In this case, with both junctions forward biased

$$V_{BE} \approx 0.8V$$

$$V_{BC} \approx 0.7V$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{BE} - V_{BC} = 0.1V$$

There is a 0.1V drop across the transistor from collector to emitter which is quite low while a substantial current flows through the device. In this mode it can be considered as having a very high conductivity and acts as a closed switch with a finite resistance or conductivity.

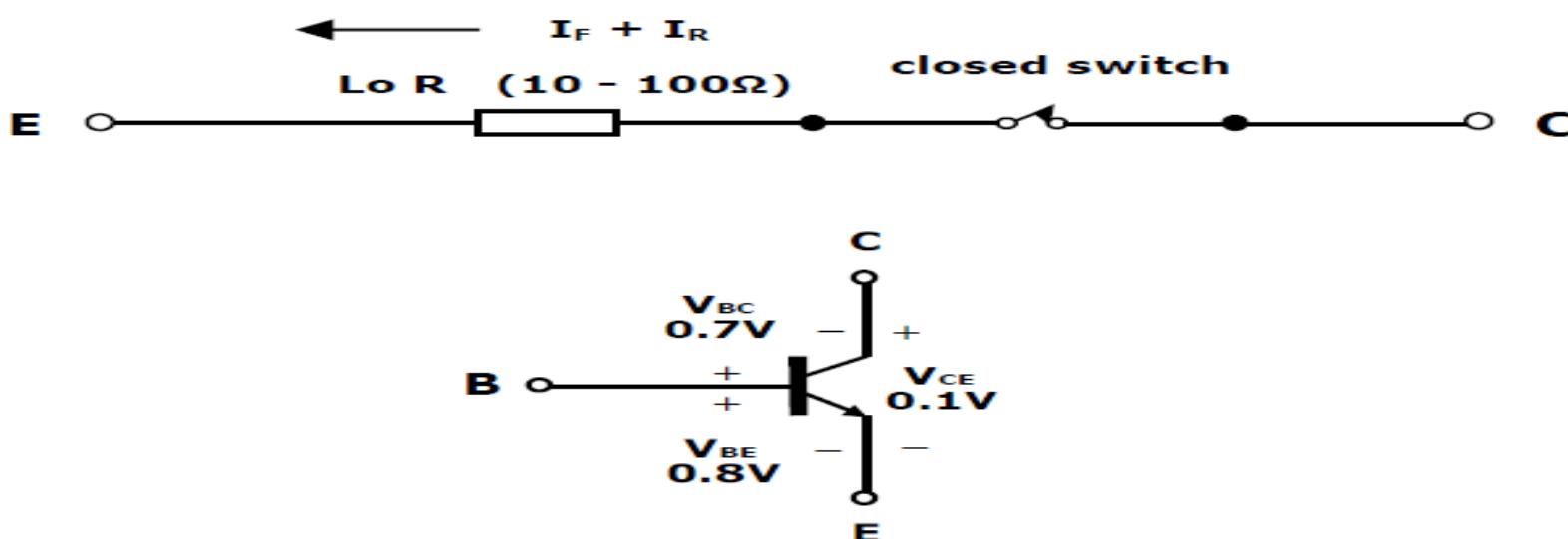


Fig. 2.6 Saturation Mode of Operation Equivalent to a Closed Switch

Negative Resistance

Negative Resistance

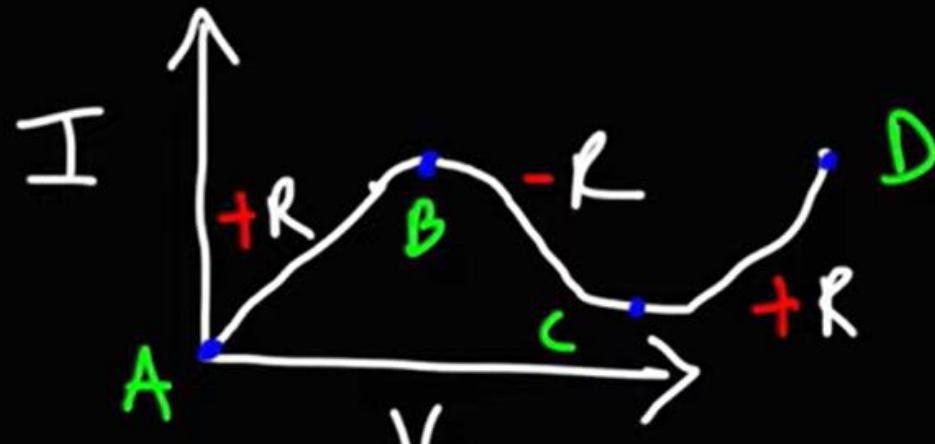
$$V = IR$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

+R

$V \uparrow I \uparrow$

$V \downarrow I \downarrow$



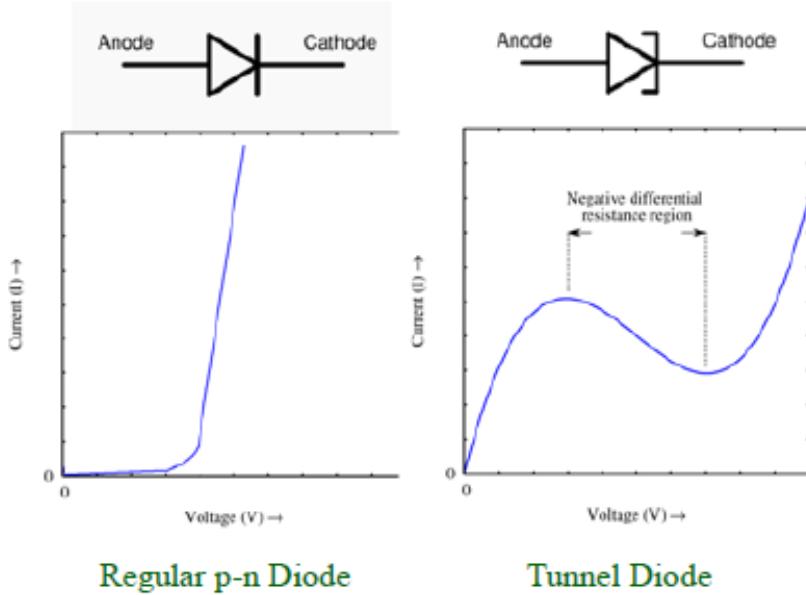
$-R$

$V \uparrow I \downarrow$

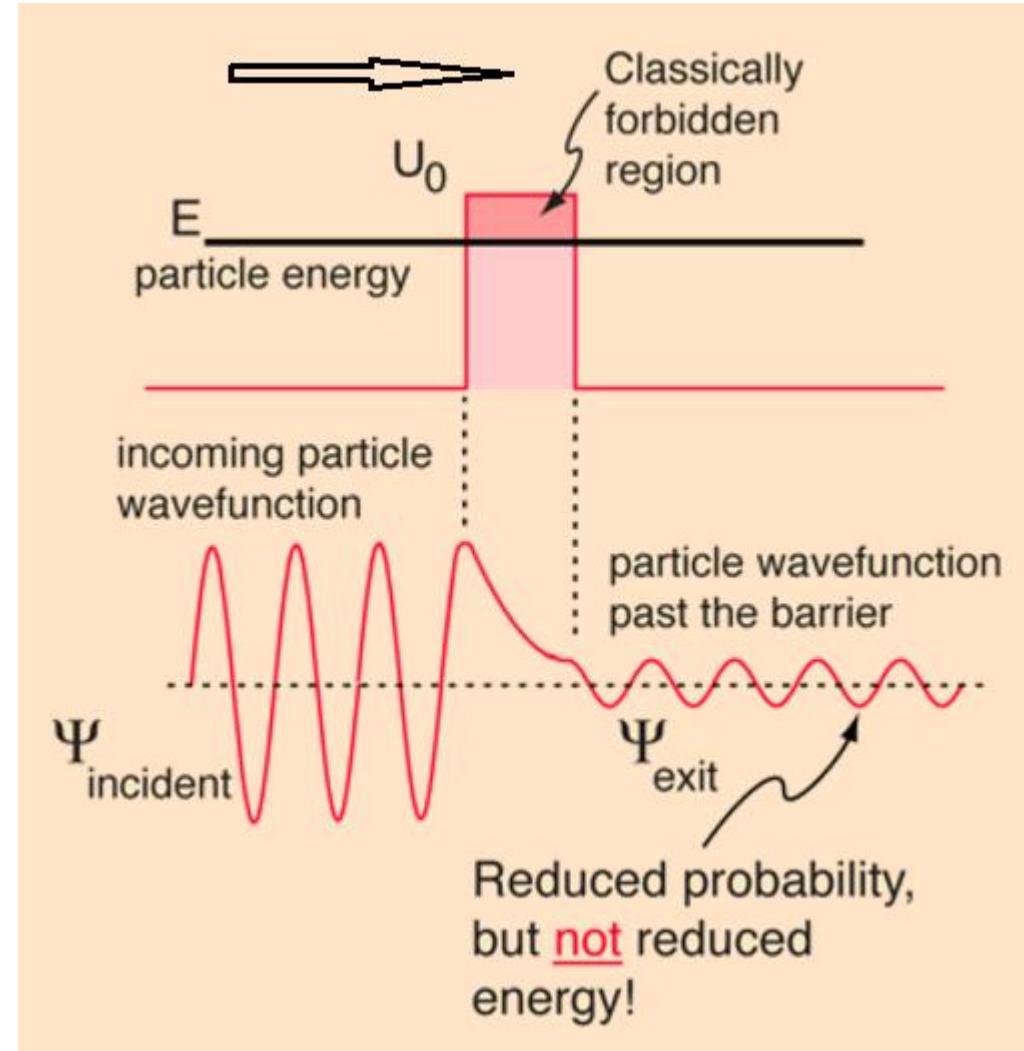
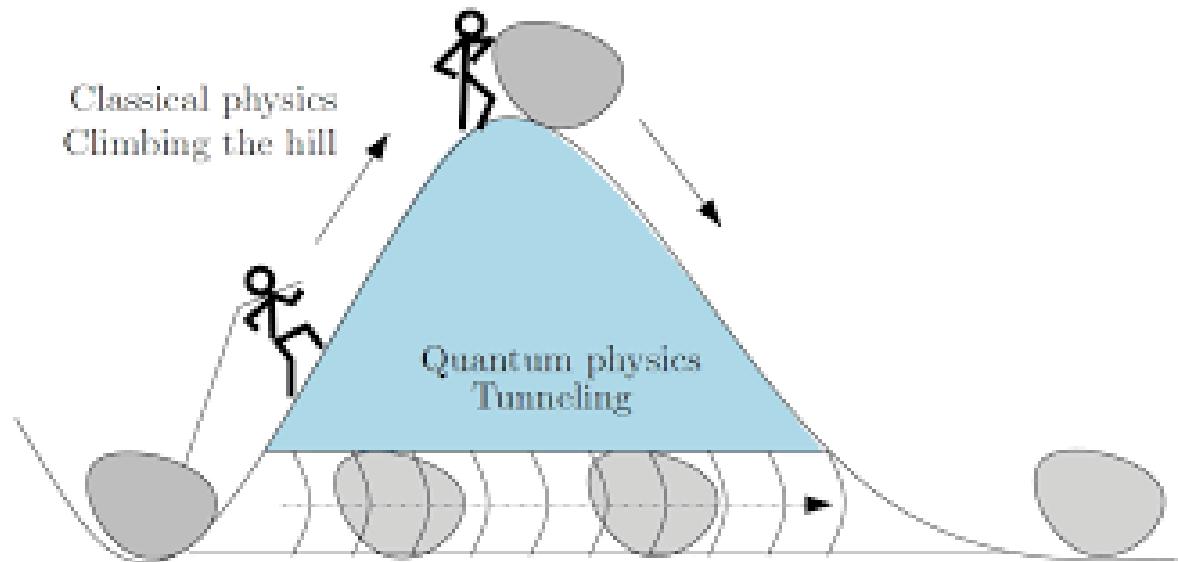
$V \downarrow I \uparrow$

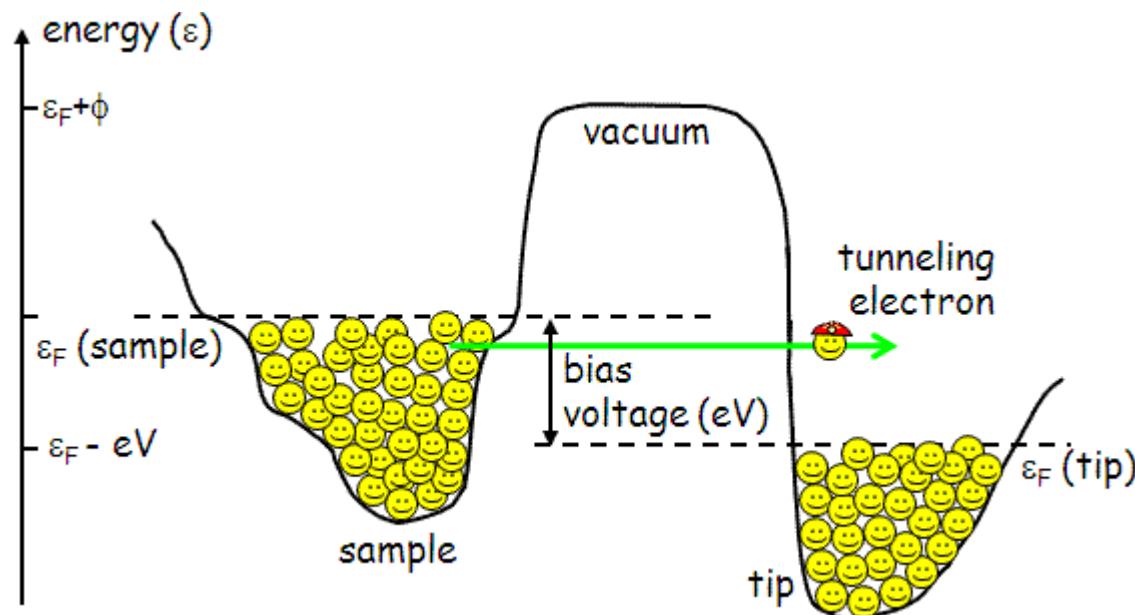
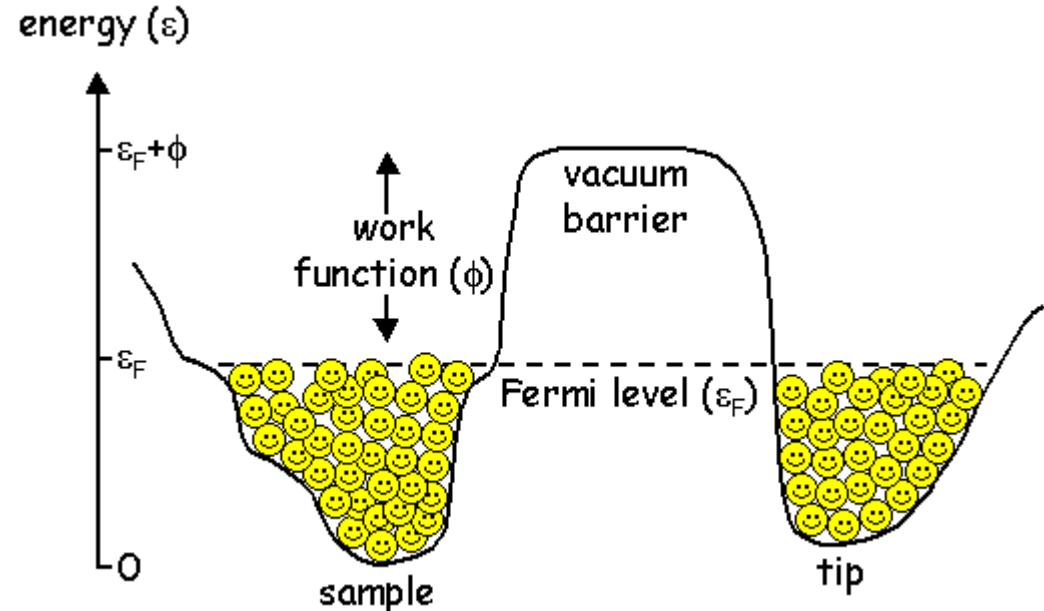
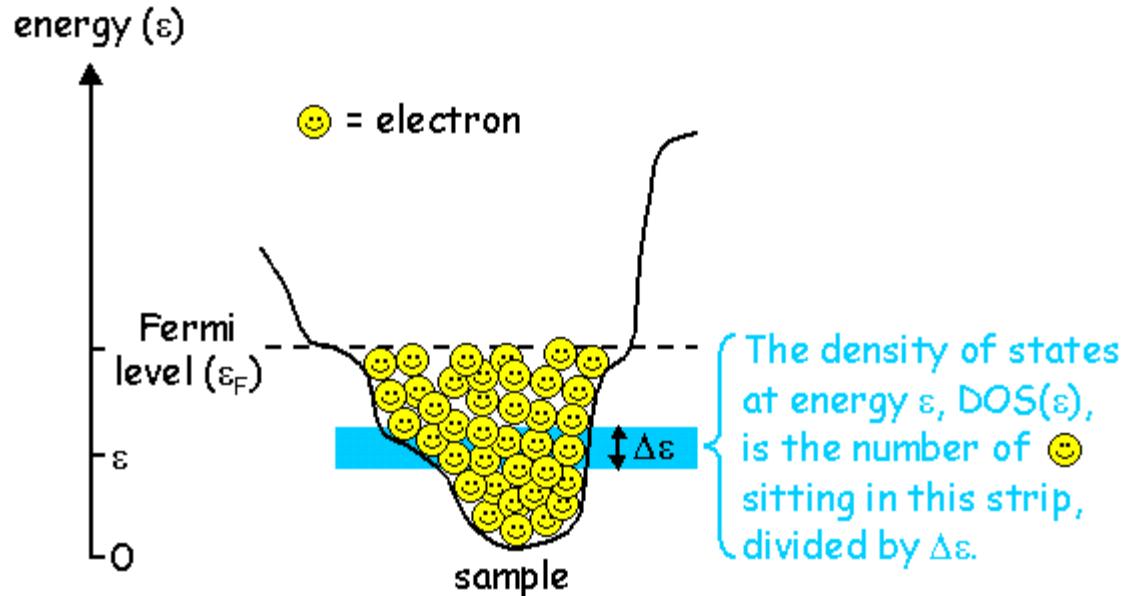
Tunnel Diodes (Esaki Diode)

Tunnel diode is the p-n junction device that exhibits **negative resistance**. That means when the voltage is increased the current through it decreases.



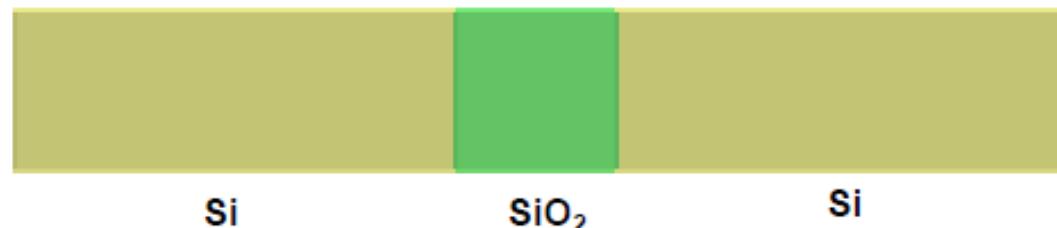
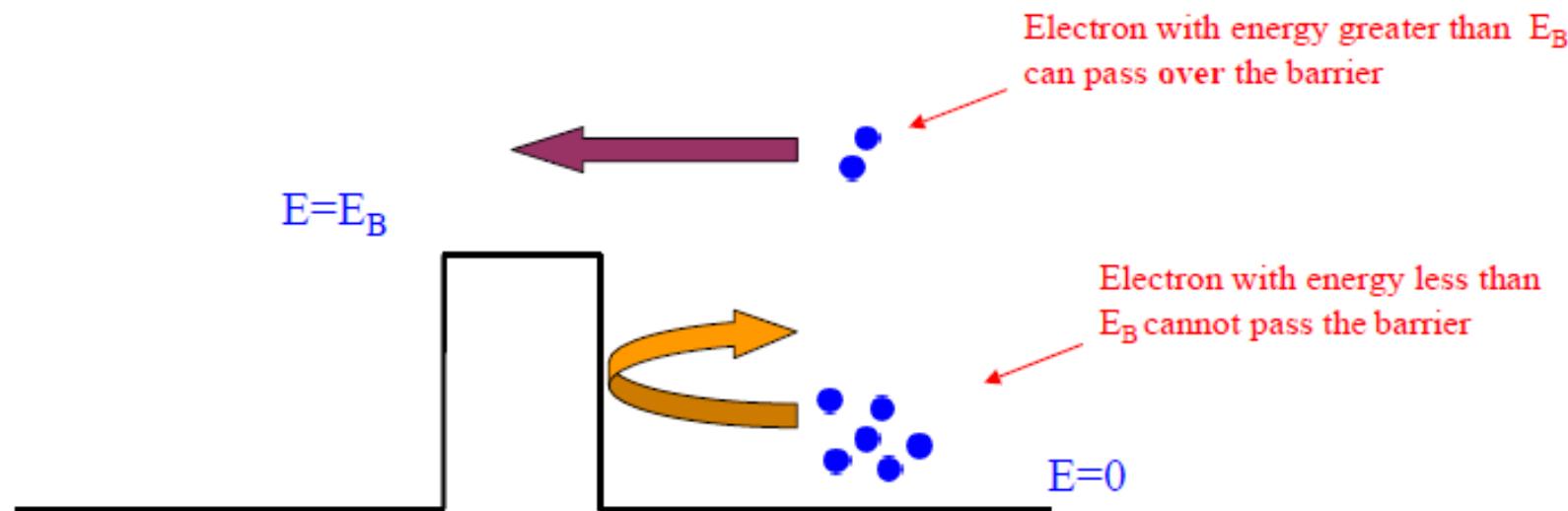
Tunneling effect





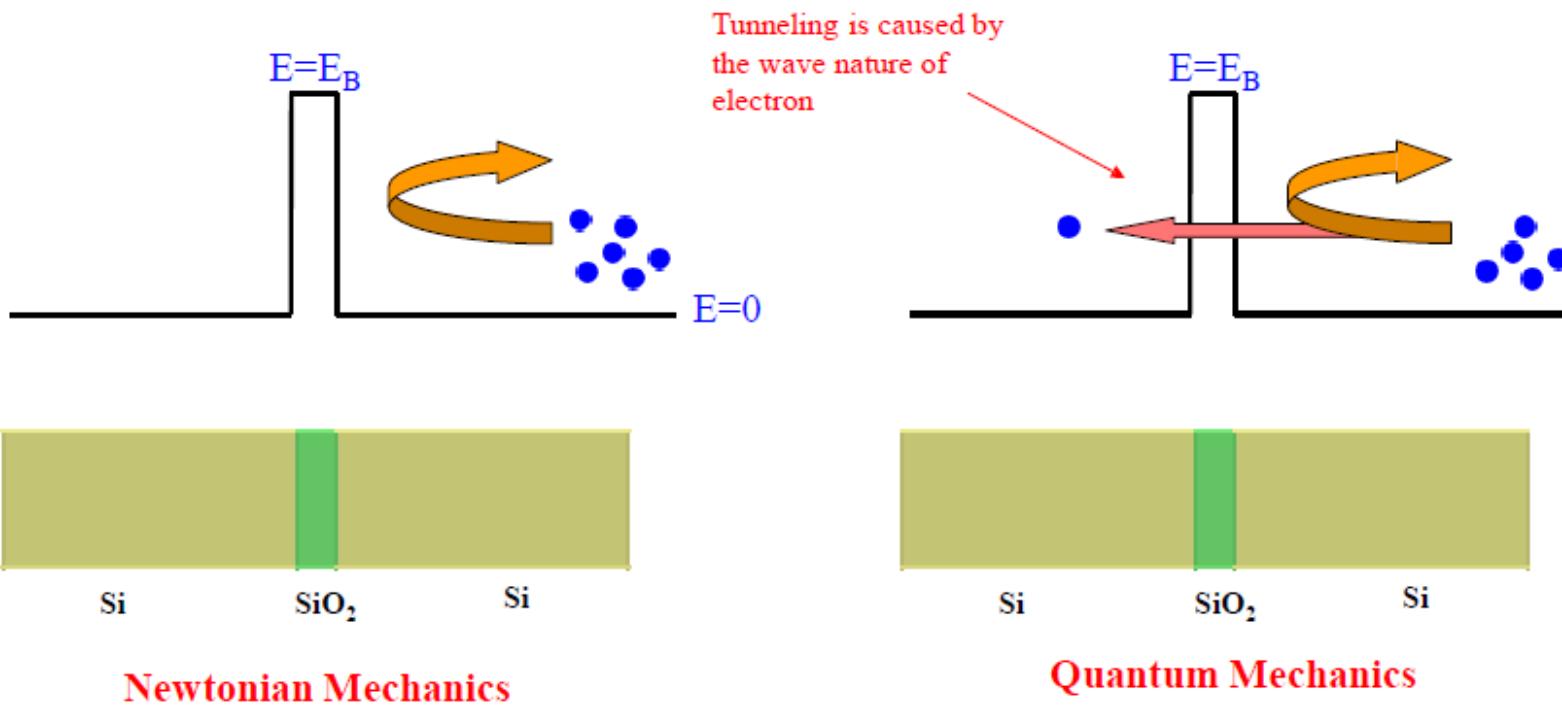
Electron Tunneling

- For **thick barrier**, both **Newtonian** and **Quantum** mechanics say that the electrons **cannot** cross the barrier.
- It can only pass the barrier if it has **more energy** than the barrier height.



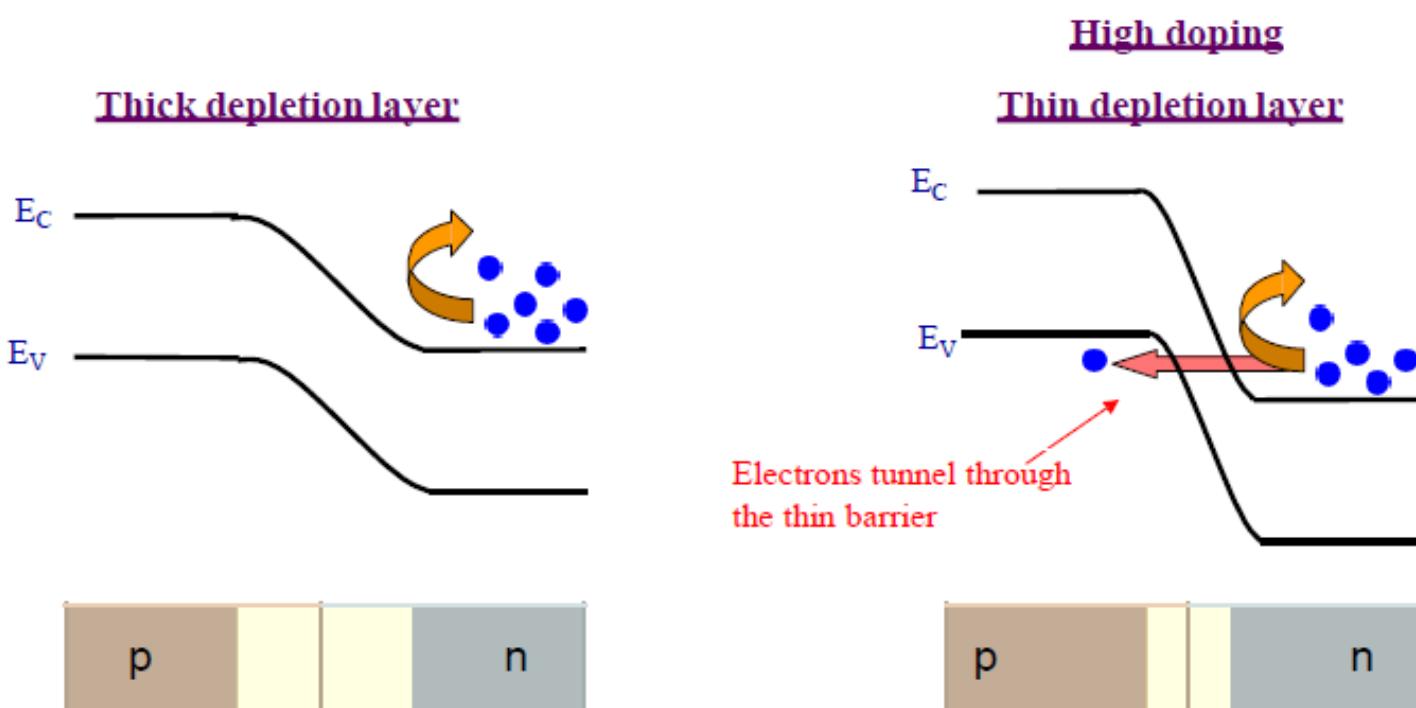
Electron Tunneling

- For **thin barrier**, **Newtonian** mechanics still says that the electrons **cannot** cross the barrier.
- However, **Quantum** mechanics says that the electron wave nature will allow it to **tunnel** through the barrier.



Electron Tunneling in p-n junction

- When the p and n region are **highly doped**, the depletion region becomes **very thin** ($\sim 10\text{nm}$).
- In such case, there is a **finite probability** that electrons can **tunnel** from the conduction band of n-region to the valence band of p-region
- During the tunneling the particle **Energy Does Not Change**

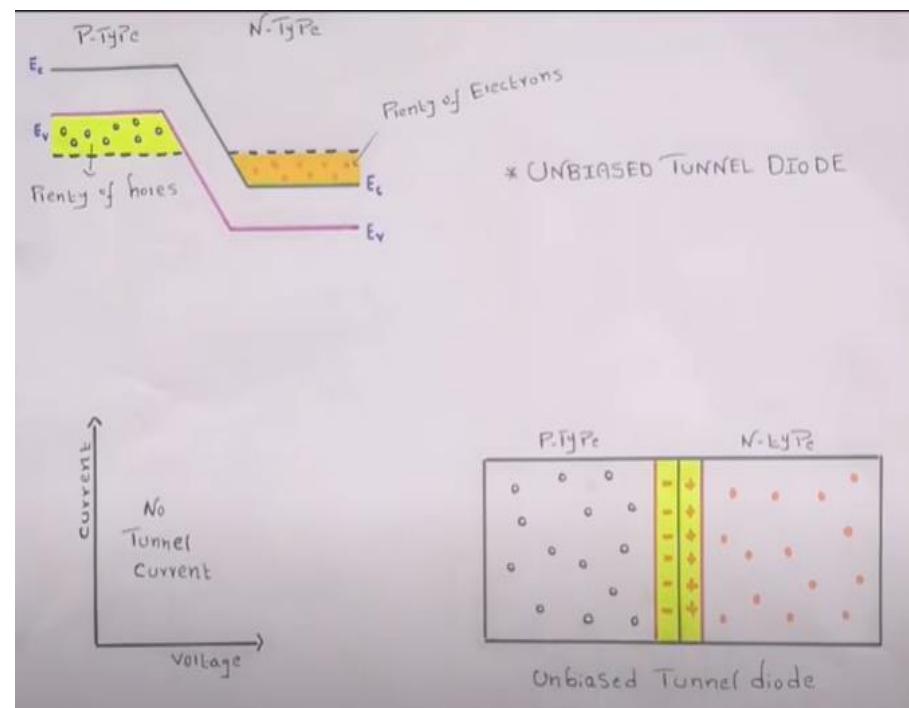
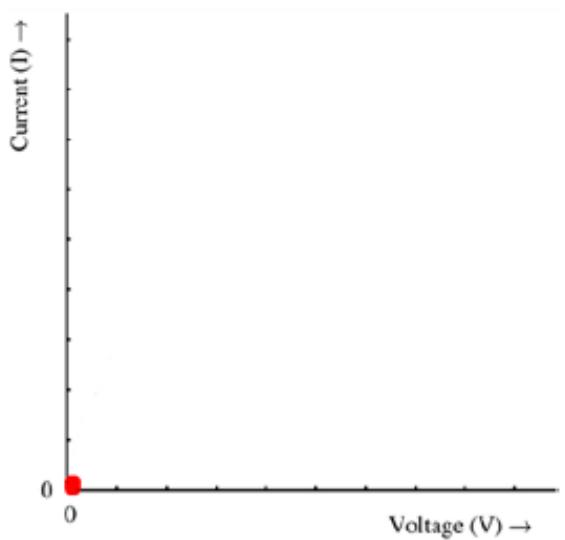
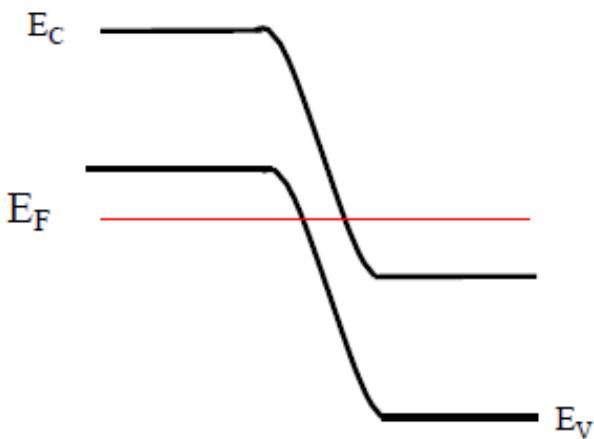


Tunnel Diode Operation

When the semiconductor is **very highly doped** the Fermi level goes **above** the conduction band for n-type and **below** valence band for p-type material. These are called **degenerate materials**.

Under Forward Bias:

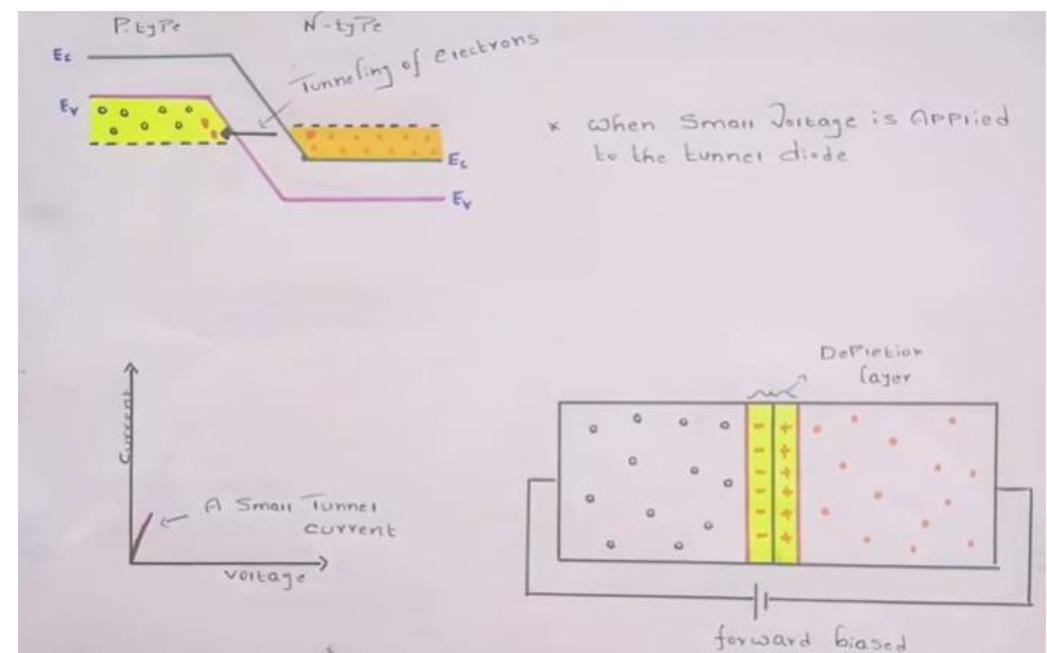
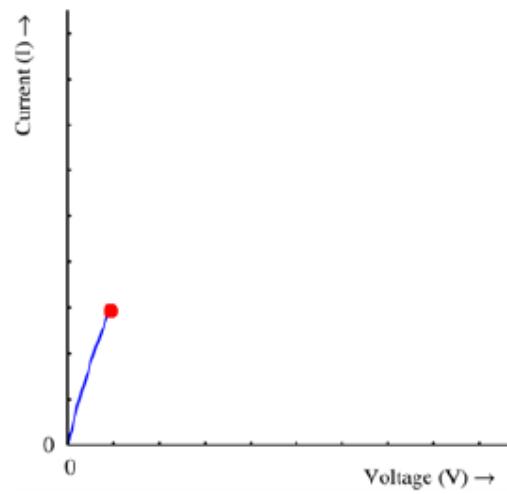
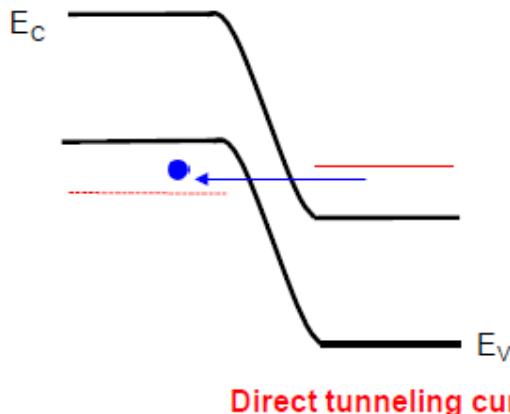
Step 1: At zero bias there is no current flow



Tunnel Diode Operation

Step 2:

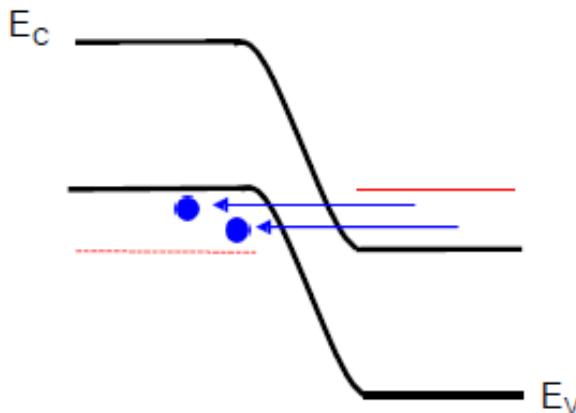
- A small forward bias is applied. Potential barrier is **still very high – no noticeable injection.**
- However, electrons in the conduction band of the n-region will **tunnel to the empty states** of the valence band in p-region. This will create a forward bias tunnel current



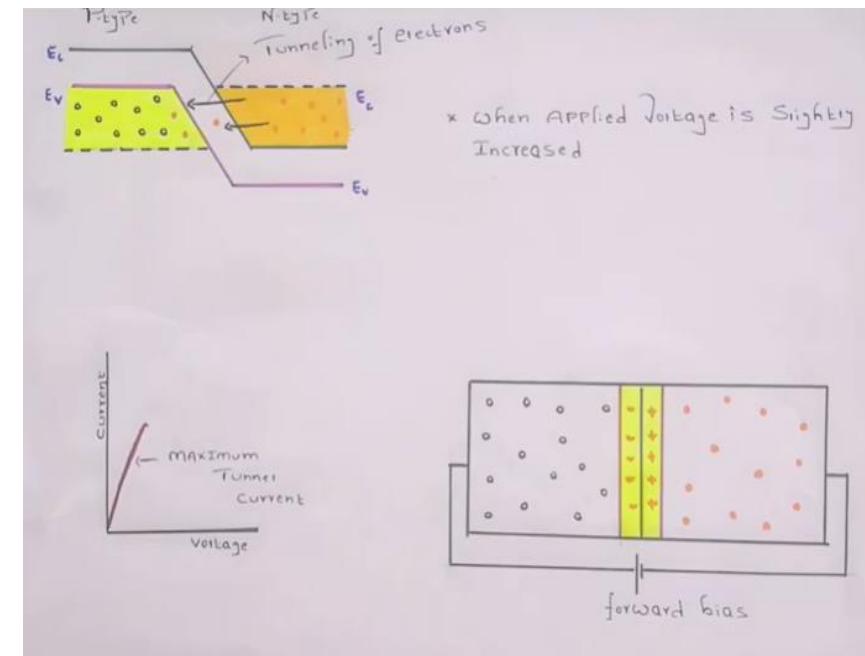
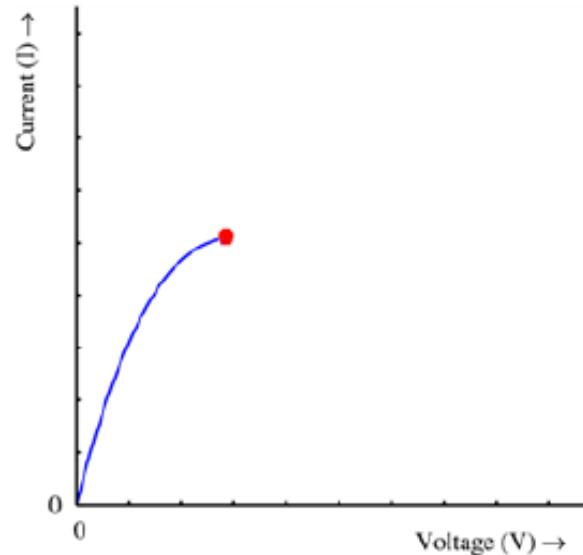
Tunnel Diode Operation

Step 3:

- With a **larger voltage** the energy of the majority of electrons in the n-region is equal to that of the empty states (holes) in the valence band of p-region; this will produce maximum tunneling current



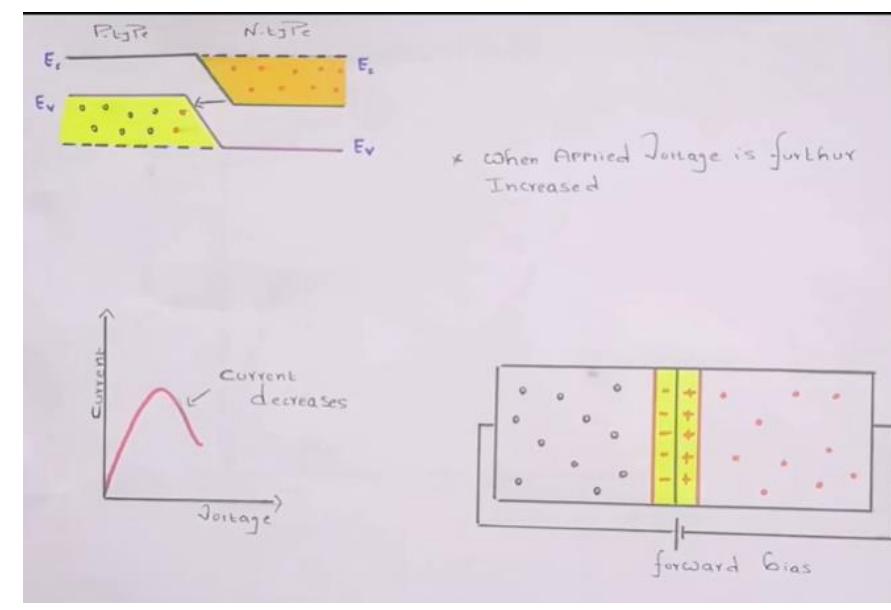
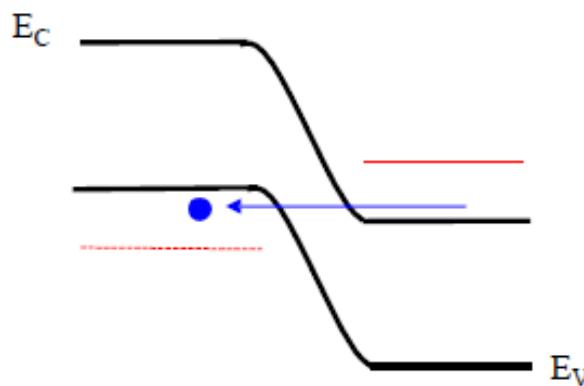
Maximum Direct tunneling current



Tunnel Diode Operation

Step 4:

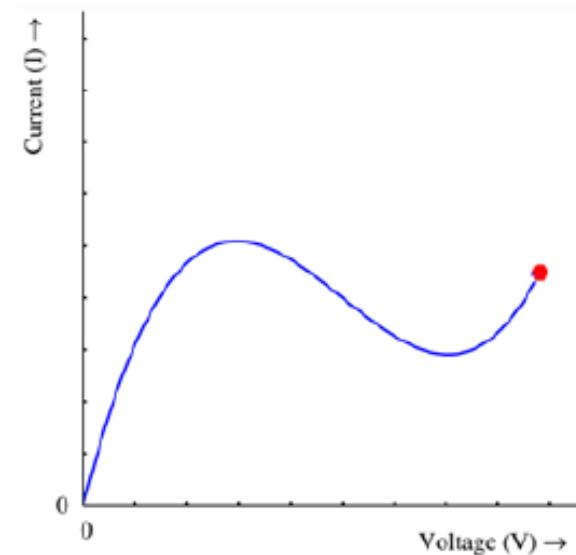
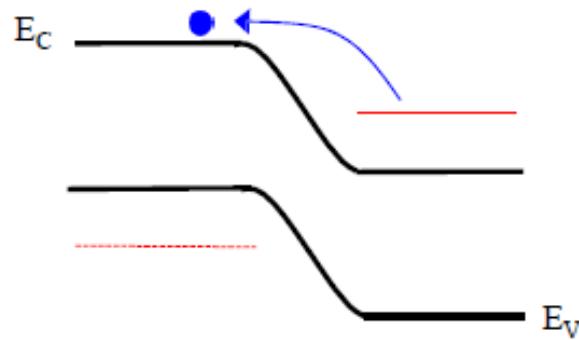
- As the forward bias **continues to increase**, the number of electrons in the n-side that are directly opposite to the empty states in the valence band (in terms of their energy) decrease. Therefore decrease in the tunneling current will start.



Tunnel Diode Operation

Step 5:

As more forward voltage is applied, the tunneling current drops to **zero**. But the regular diode forward current due to electron – hole injection increases due to **lower potential barrier**.

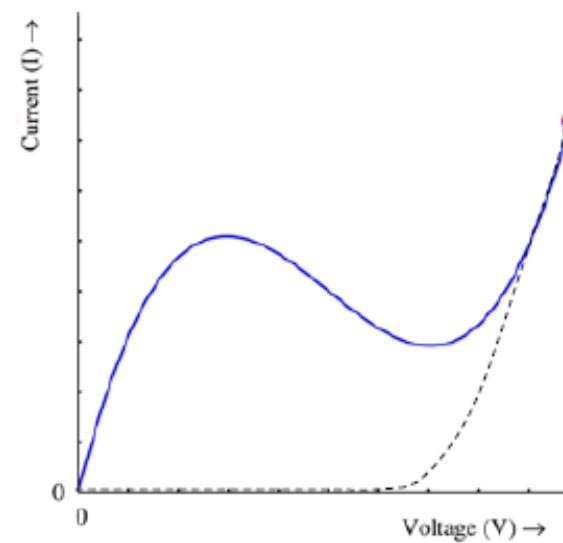
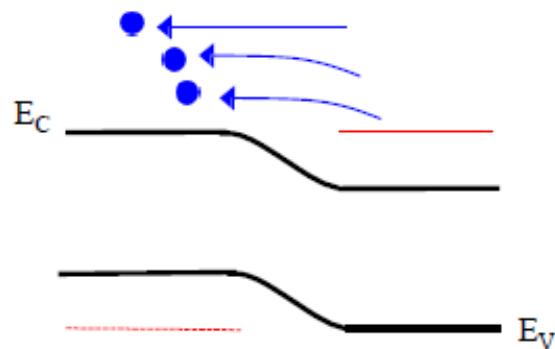


No tunneling current; diffusion current starts growing

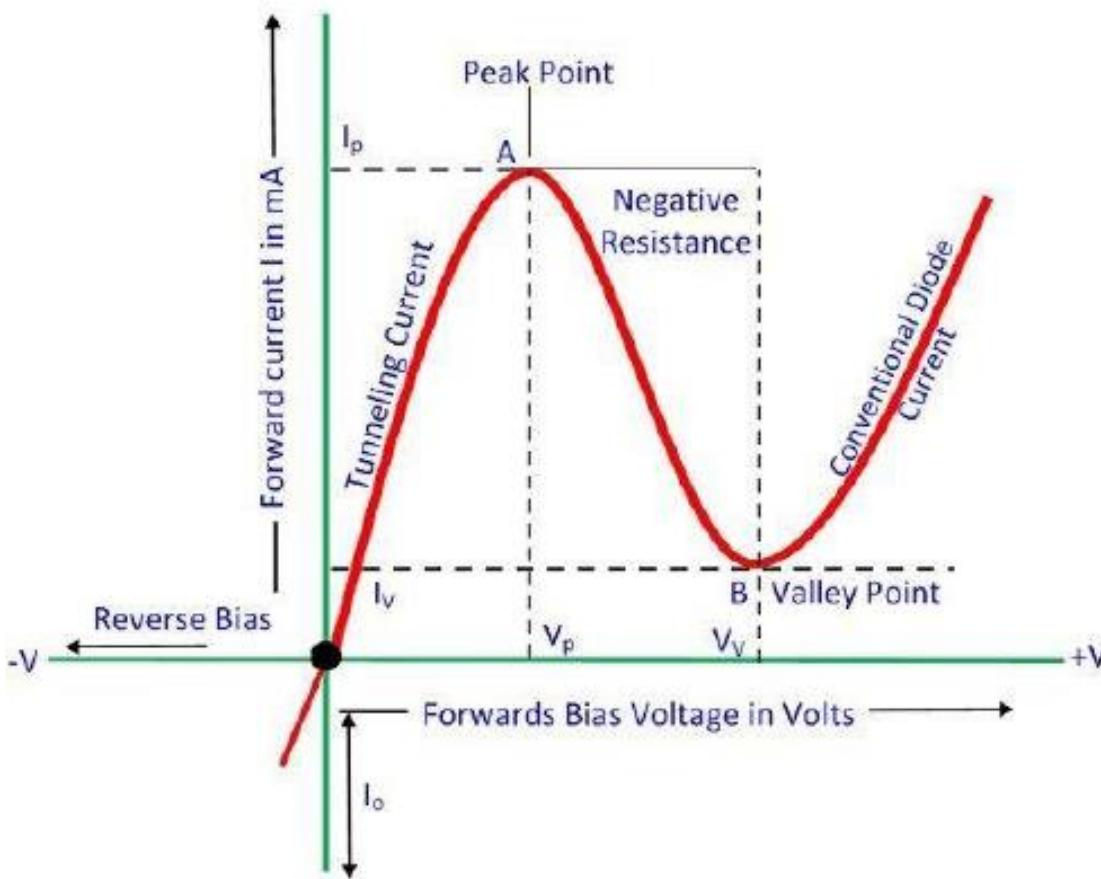
Tunnel Diode Operation

Step 6:

- With further voltage increase, the tunnel diode I-V characteristic is similar to that of a regular p-n diode.

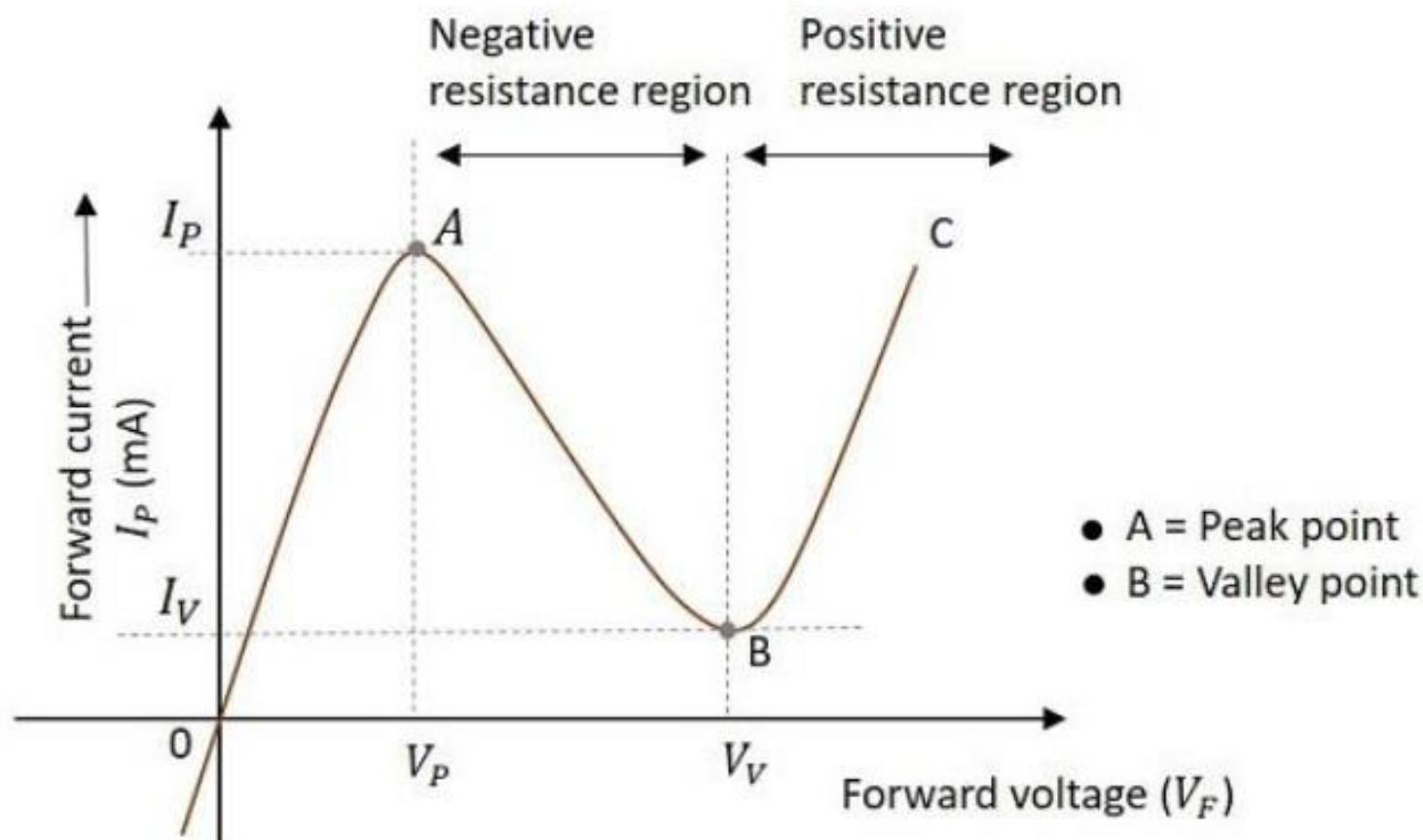


V-I Characteristics of Tunnel Diode



- The small minimal value of current is I_v . It is seen that from point A to B current reduces when voltage increases. That is the negative resistance region of diode.
- In this region, tunnel diode produces power instead of absorbing it.

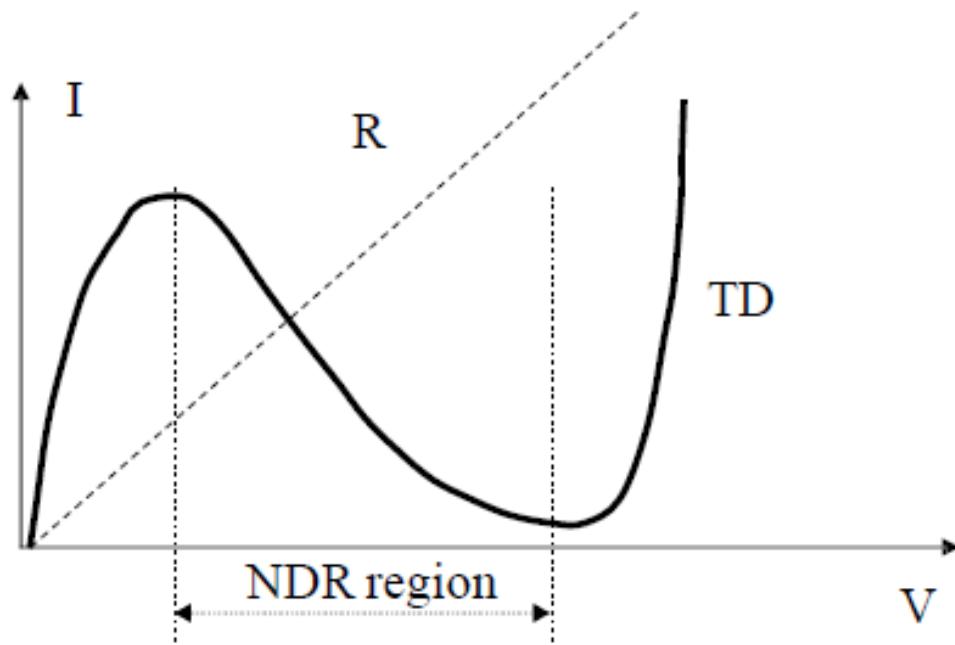
V-I Characteristics of Tunnel Diode



Applications of Tunnel Diode

- Tunnel diode can be used as a switch, amplifier, and oscillator.
- Since it shows a fast response, it is used as high frequency component.
- Tunnel diode acts as logic memory storage device.
- They are used in oscillator circuits, and in FM receivers.
- Since it is a low current device, it is not used more.

Circuits with the Tunnel Diodes



- Typical Tunnel Diode (TD) I-V characteristic has two distinct features: it is **Strongly non-linear** (compare to the resistor I-V).
- Current - Voltage relationships for TDs cannot be described using the Ohm's law
- it has a *negative differential resistance* (NDR) region.

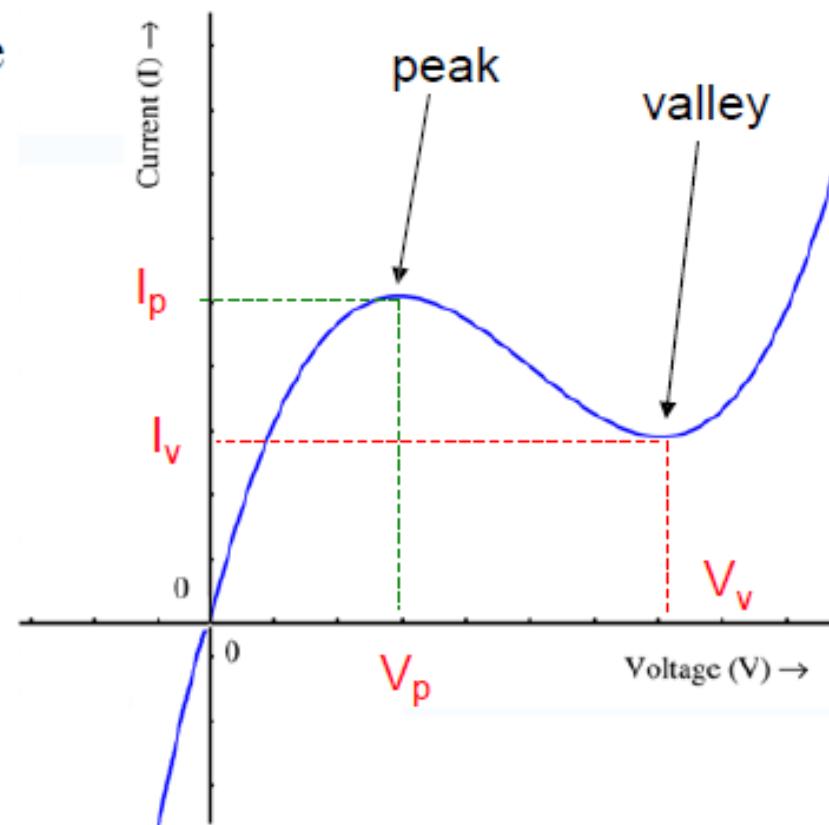
Tunnel Diode I-V

The total current I in a tunnel diode is given by

$$I = I_{tun} + I_{Diode} + I_{excess}$$

The p-n junction current,

$$I = I_0 [e^{V/\eta V_T} - 1]$$



Tunnel Diode I-V

The tunnel current,

$$I_{tune} = \frac{V}{R_0} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^m \right]$$

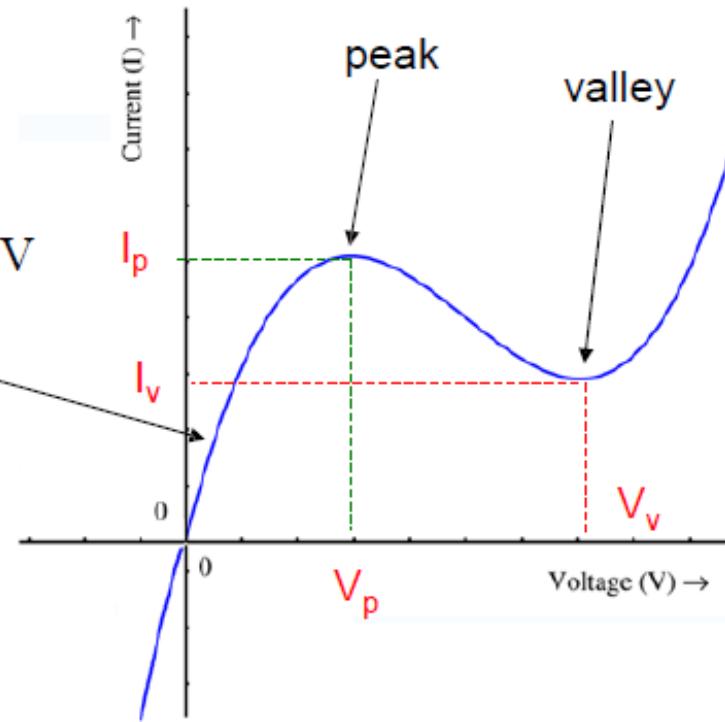
- Typically, $m = 1 \dots 3$; $V_0 = 0.1 \dots 0.5$ V
- R_0 is the TD resistance in the ohmic region

The maximum |NDR| can be found as

$$|R_{D Max}| = R_0 \frac{\exp \left(\frac{1+m}{m} \right)}{m}$$

The peak voltage V_p :

$$V_p = \left(\frac{1}{m} \right)^{1/m} V_0$$



I_{do} – Reverse saturation current

V_t – Voltage equivalent of temperature

V – Voltage across the diode

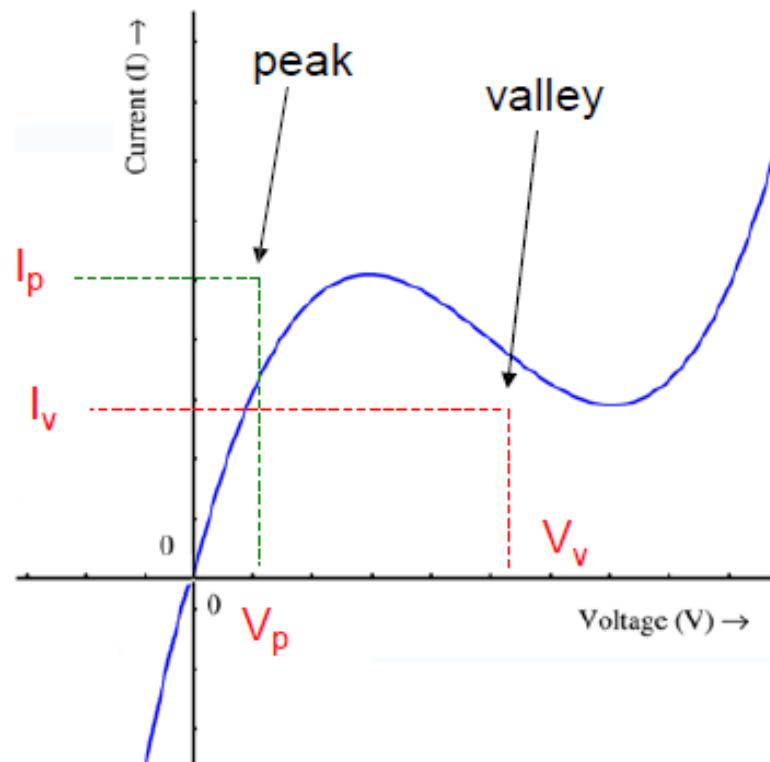
η – Correction factor 1 for Ge and 2 for Si

Tunnel Diode I-V

The excess current,

$$I_{excess} = \frac{V}{R_V} \exp \left[\left(\frac{V - V_V}{V_{ex}} \right) \right]$$

- I_{excess} is an additional tunneling current related to parasitic tunneling via impurities.
- This current usually determines the minimum (valley) current, I_v
- R_v and V_{ex} are the empirical parameters; in high-quality diodes, $R_v \gg R_0$, $V_{ex} = 1 \dots 5V$



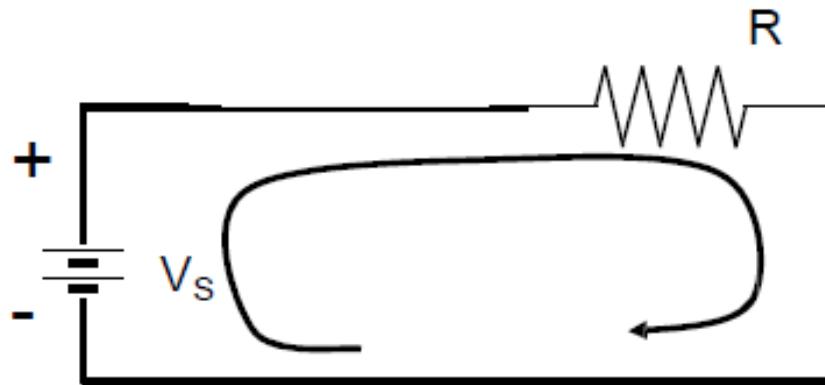
Tunnel diode current

The total current I in a tunnel diode is given by

$$I = I_{tun} + I_{Diode} + I_{excess}$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R_0} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^m \right] + I_o [e^{V/\eta V_T} - 1] + \frac{V}{R_V} \exp \left[\left(\frac{V-V_V}{V_{ex}} \right) \right]$$

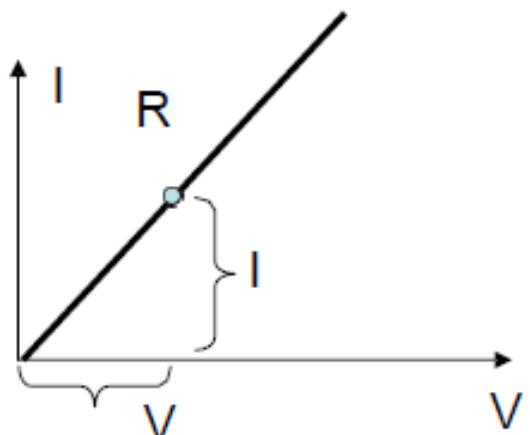
Energy dissipation in resistors and Energy generation in Negative Resistors



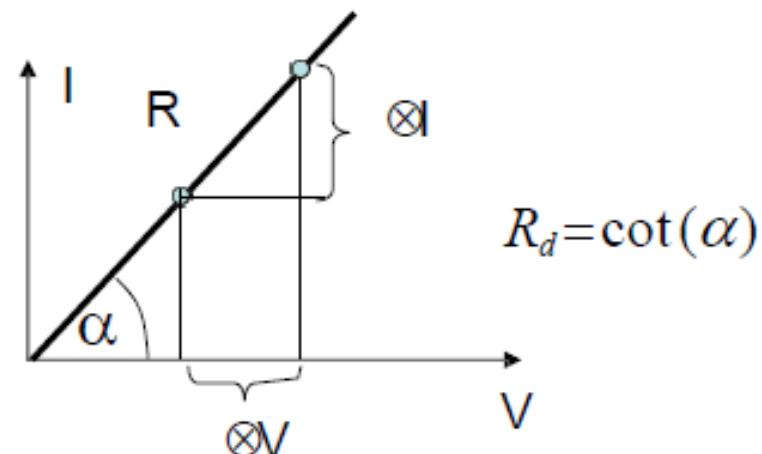
- Power = Voltage x Current = $I^2 R$
- Positive power means energy **DISSIPATION** (e.g. conversion into the Joule heat)
- Negative power corresponds to the power **GENERATION** (Energy supply);

Differential resistance and negative differential resistance

Static resistance: $R = V/I$

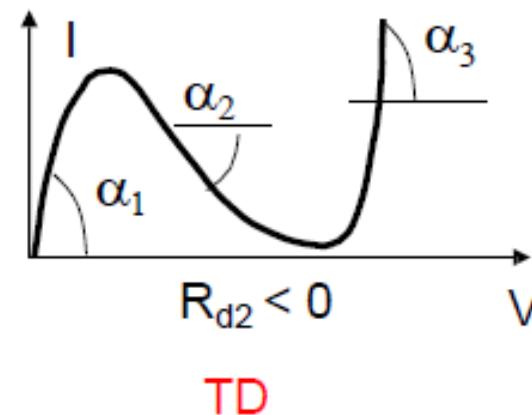
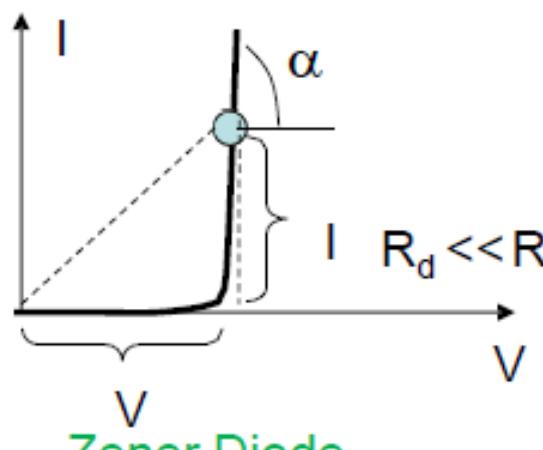
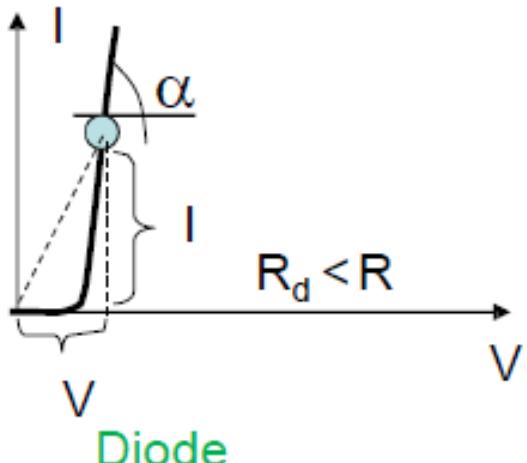


Differential resistance: $R_d = \frac{\partial V}{\partial I} \approx \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta I}$



For linear ("Ohmic") components, $R = R_d$.

For many semiconductor devices, $R \neq R_d$:



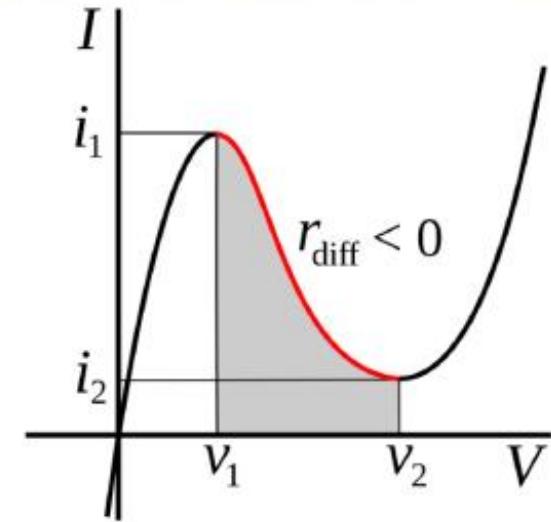
Negative differential resistances

- Voltage controlled negative resistance (VCNR, short-circuit stable, or "N" type)
- Current controlled negative resistance (CCNR, open-circuit stable, or "S" type)

Voltage controlled negative resistance

- VCNR, short-circuit stable, or "N" type:
 - The current is a single valued,
 - Continuous function of the voltage,
 - The voltage is a multivalued function of the current.
- In the most common type there is only one negative resistance region,
- The graph is a curve shaped generally like the letter "N".

Voltage controlled negative resistance



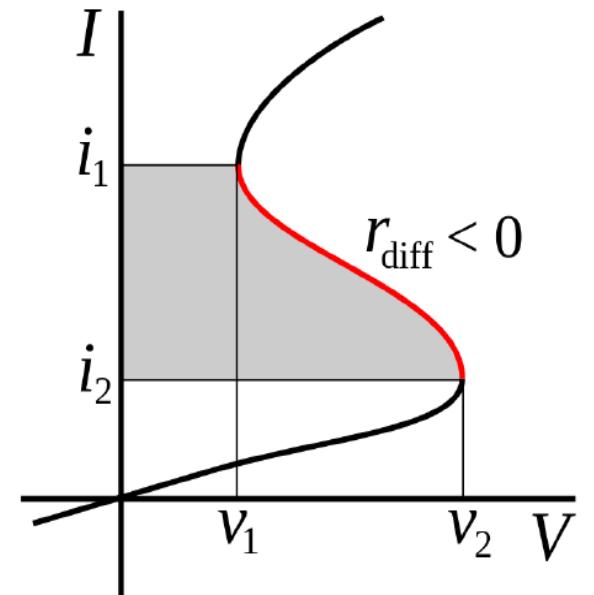
Voltage controlled negative resistance

- As the voltage is increased, the current increases (positive resistance) until it reaches a maximum (i_1),
- then decreases in the region of negative resistance to a minimum (i_2), then increases again.
- Devices with this type of negative resistance include
 - the tunnel diode,
 - resonant tunneling diode,
 - lambda diode,
 - Gunn diode,
 - and dynatron oscillators.

Current controlled negative resistance

- CCNR, open-circuit stable, or "S" type:
 - The dual of the VCNR,
 - The voltage is a single valued function of the current,
 - The current is a multivalued function of the voltage.
- In the most common type, with one negative resistance region.
- The graph is a curve shaped like the letter "S".

Current controlled negative resistance



Current controlled negative resistance

- Devices with this type of negative resistance include
 - IMPATT diode,
 - UJT,
 - SCRs
 - Thyristors,
 - electric arc, and gas discharge tubes.
- Most devices have a single negative resistance region.
- However devices with multiple separate negative resistance regions can also be fabricated.
- These can have more than two stable states, and are of interest for use in digital circuits to implement multivalued logic.

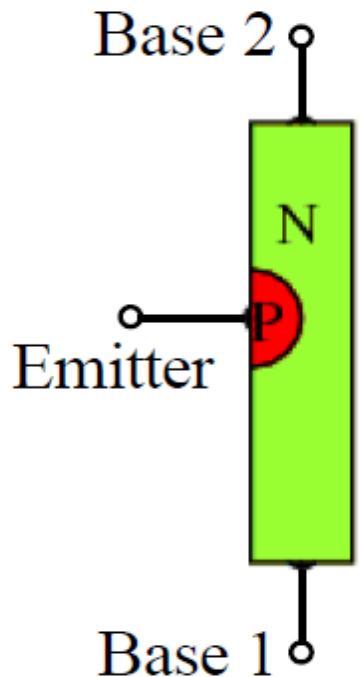
VCNR Vs CCNR

- VCNRs require a low impedance bias ($R < r$), such as a voltage source.
- CCNRs require a high impedance bias ($R > r$) such as a current source, or voltage source in series with a high resistance.
- VCNRs are stable when ($R < r$)
- CCNRs are stable when ($R > r$)
- VCNRs can be bistable when ($R > r$)
- CCNRs can be bistable when ($R < r$)
- Unstable point: When ($R = r$)

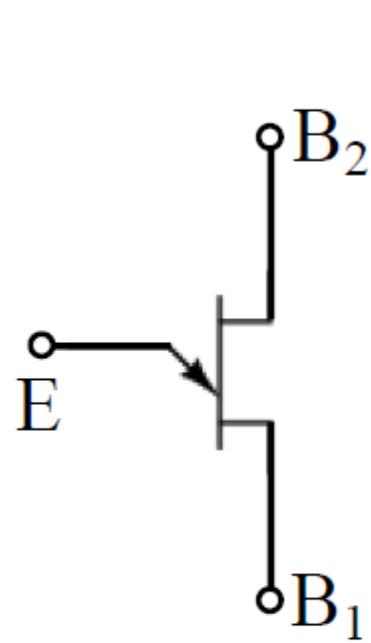
Unijunction Transistor (UJT)

Unijunction Transistor (UJT)

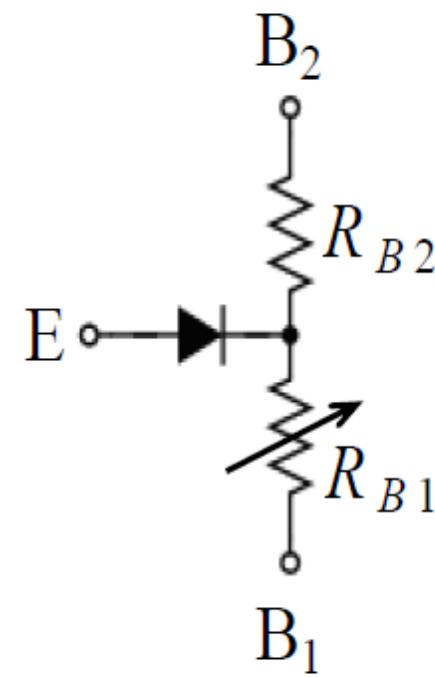
- The uni-junction transistor is a three-terminal single-junction device.
- The switching voltage of the UJT can be easily varied.



Basic Structure



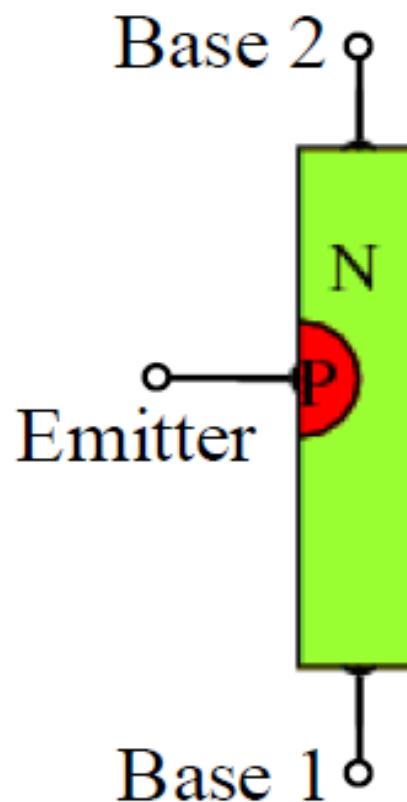
Schematic Symbol



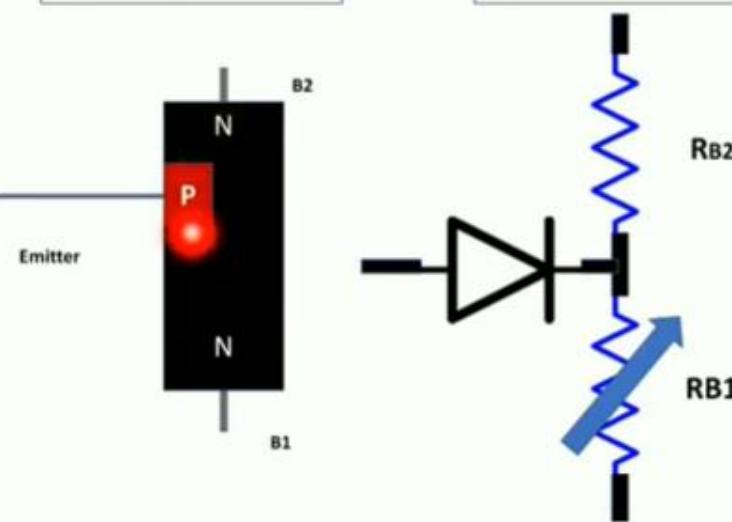
Equivalent Circuit

Unijunction Transistor (UJT)

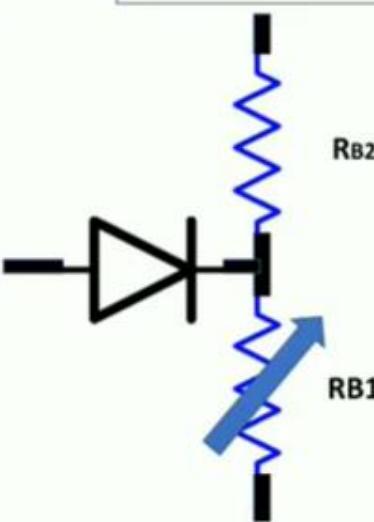
- The UJT structure consists of a **lightly doped n-type silicon** bar provided with **ohmic contacts** on either side.
- The two end connections are called **base B1 and base B2**.
- A small **heavily doped p-region** is alloyed into one side of the bar.
- This p-region is the UJT emitter (E) that forms a p–n junction with the bar.



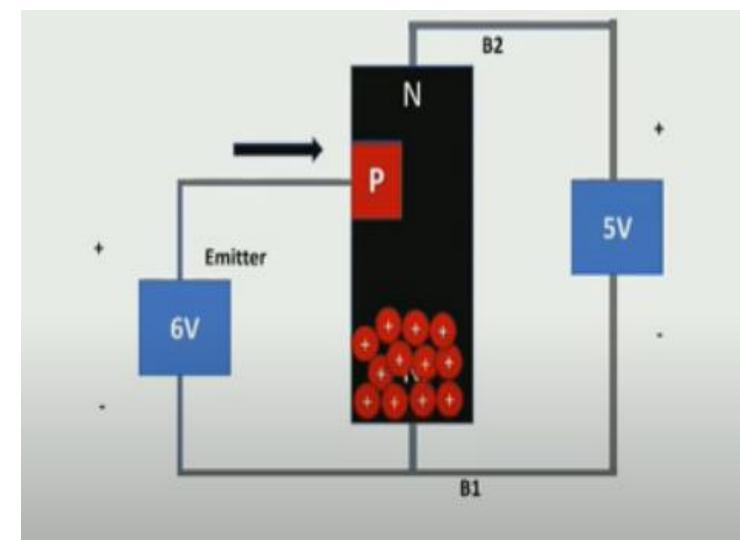
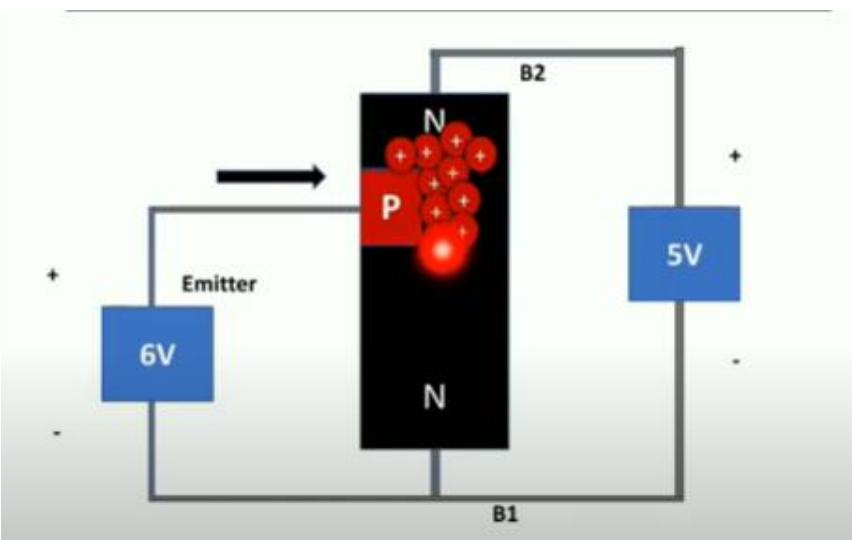
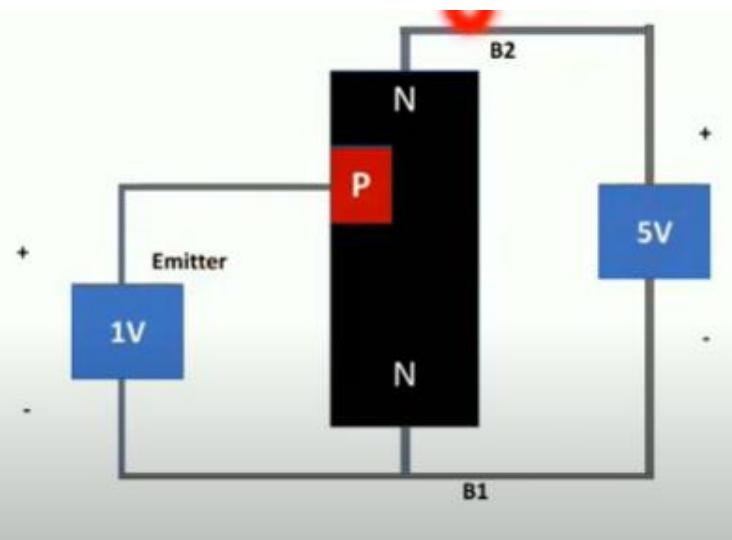
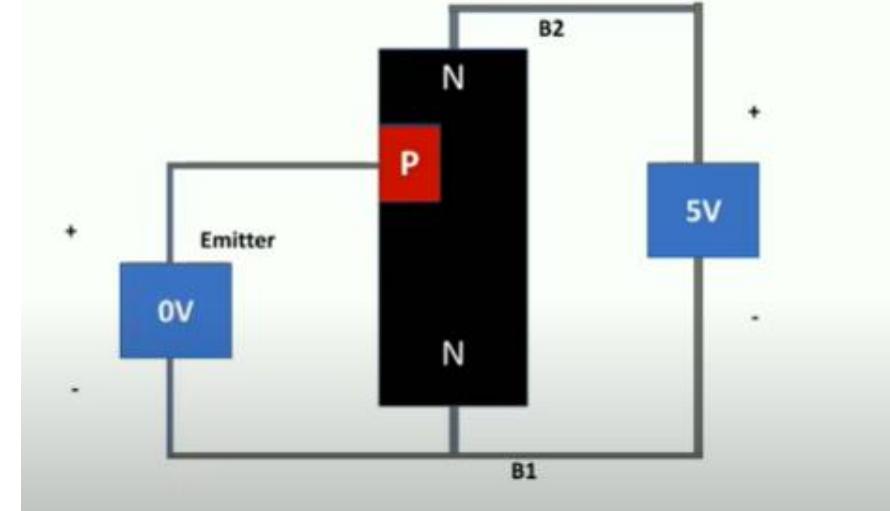
Structure

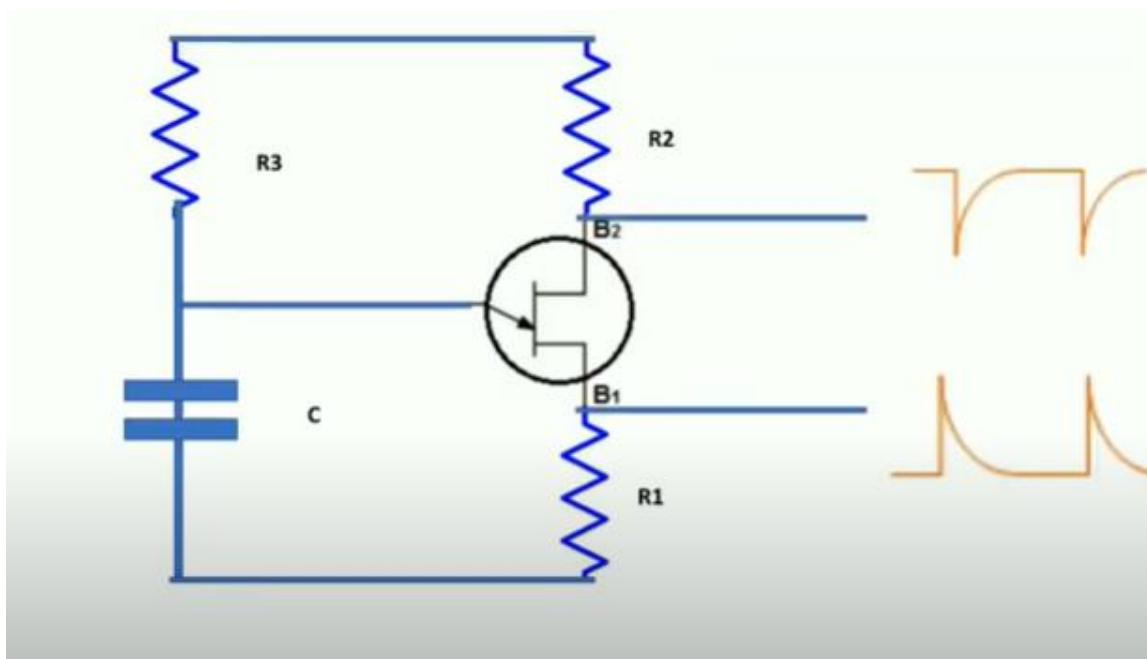
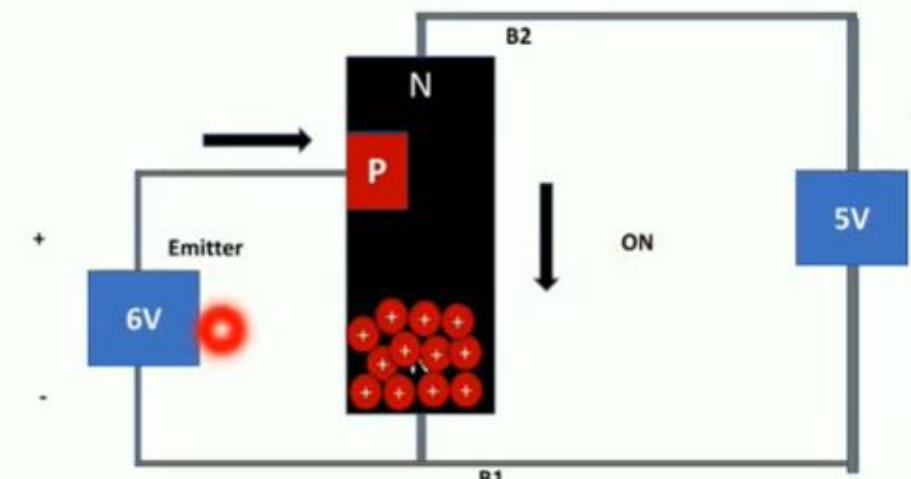


Equivalent circuit

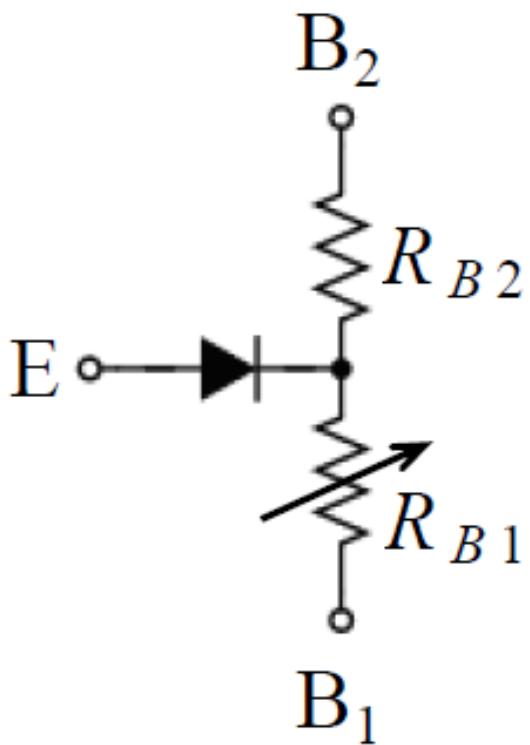


Package





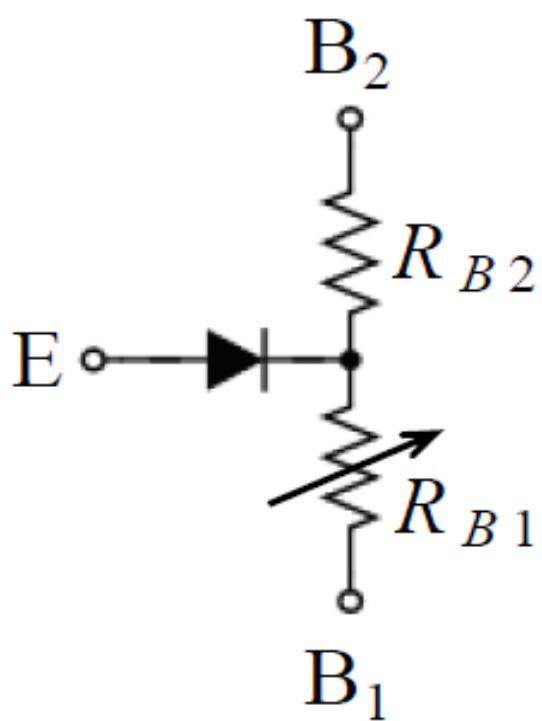
Unijunction Transistor (UJT)



- R_{B1} = dynamic resistance of the silicon bar between the emitter and base 1.
- R_{B1} varies inversely with emitter current I_E , and therefore it is shown as a variable resistor.
- Range of R_{B1} : several thousand ohms down to tens of ohms

Equivalent Circuit

Unijunction Transistor (UJT)



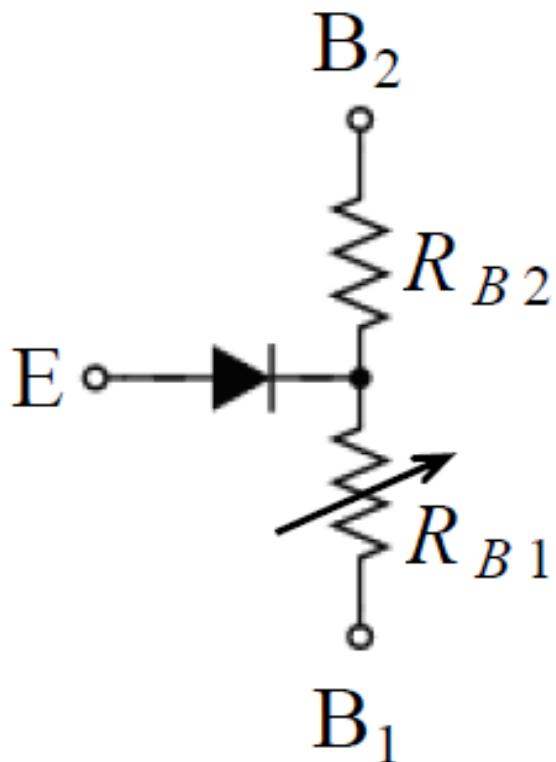
R_{B2} = dynamic resistance between the emitter and base 2

The total resistance between the base terminals is known as **inter-base resistance R_{BBO}**

$$R_{BBO} = R_{B1} + R_{B2}$$

Equivalent Circuit

Unijunction Transistor (UJT)



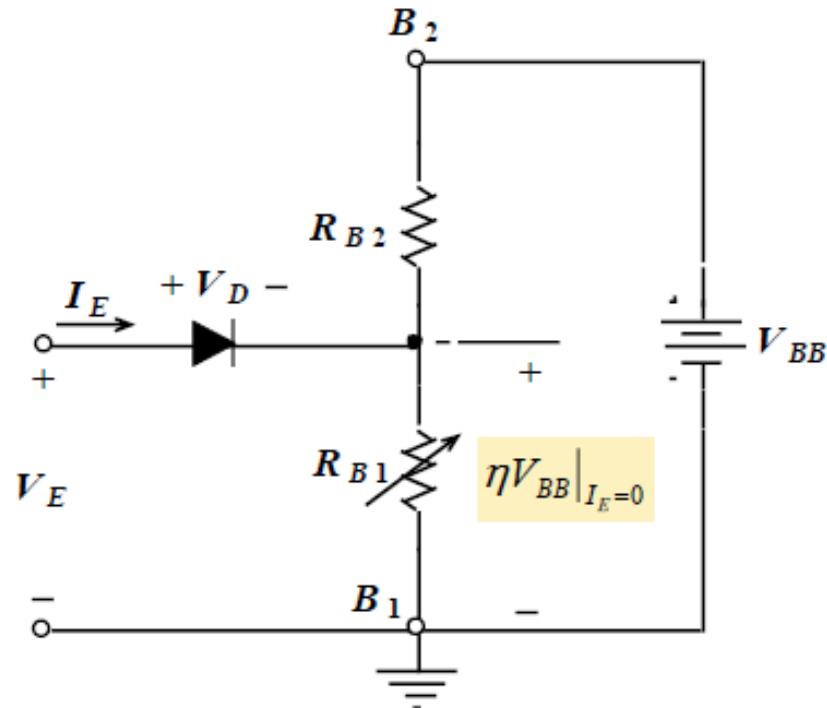
The ratio of R_{B1} to the inter-base resistance is called the **standoff ratio**, η .

$$\eta = \frac{R_{B1}}{R_{B1} + R_{B2}} = \frac{R_{B1}}{R_{BBO}}$$

Equivalent Circuit

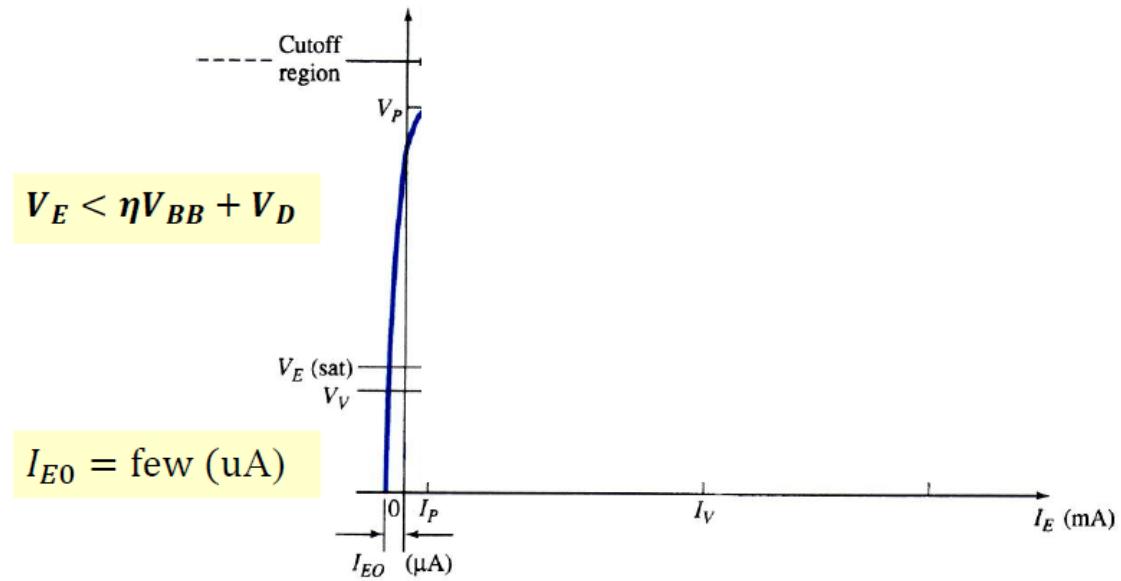
Equivalent circuit for UJT

- The V_{BB} source is generally fixed and provides a constant voltage from B_2 to B_1 .
- The UJT is normally operated with both B_2 and V_E positive biased relative to B_1 .
- B_1 is always the UJT reference terminal and all voltages are measured relative to B_1 .
- V_{EE} is a variable voltage source.



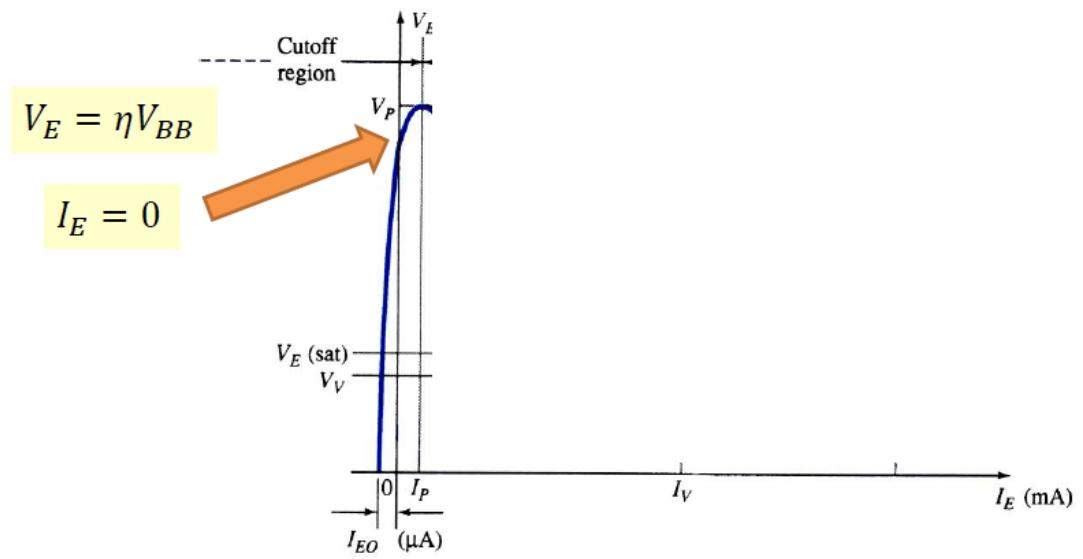
Step 1:

- As long as V_E is less than $\eta V_{BB} + V_D$, there is no emitter current (except a very small leakage current in μA known as I_{EO}) because the pn junction is not forward-biased.



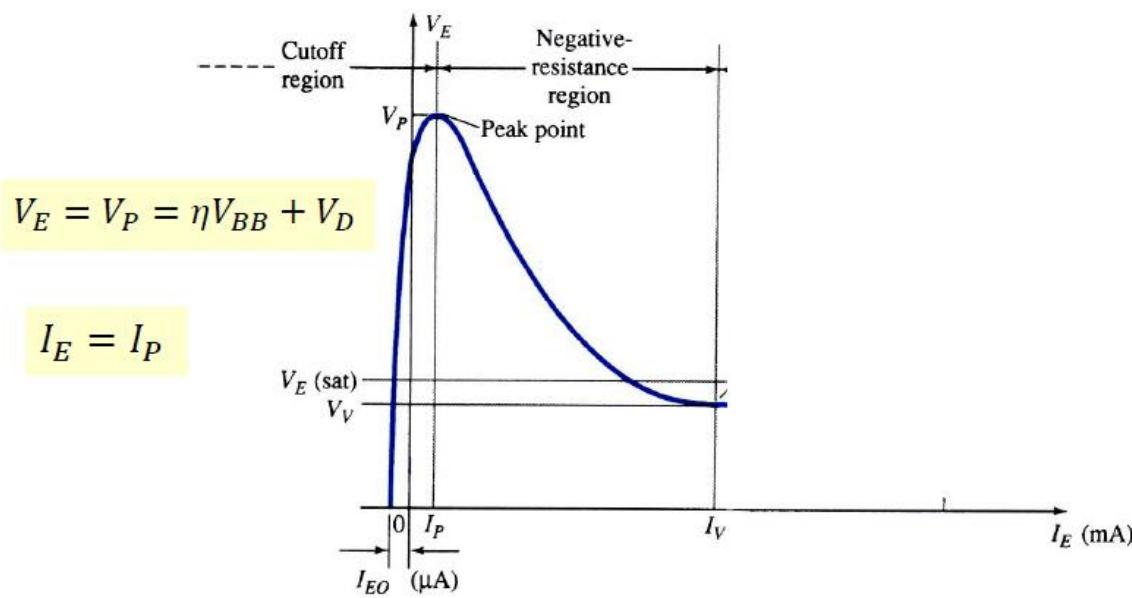
Step 2:

- The level of emitter voltage that causes the pn junction to become forward-biased is called V_P (peak-point-voltage)



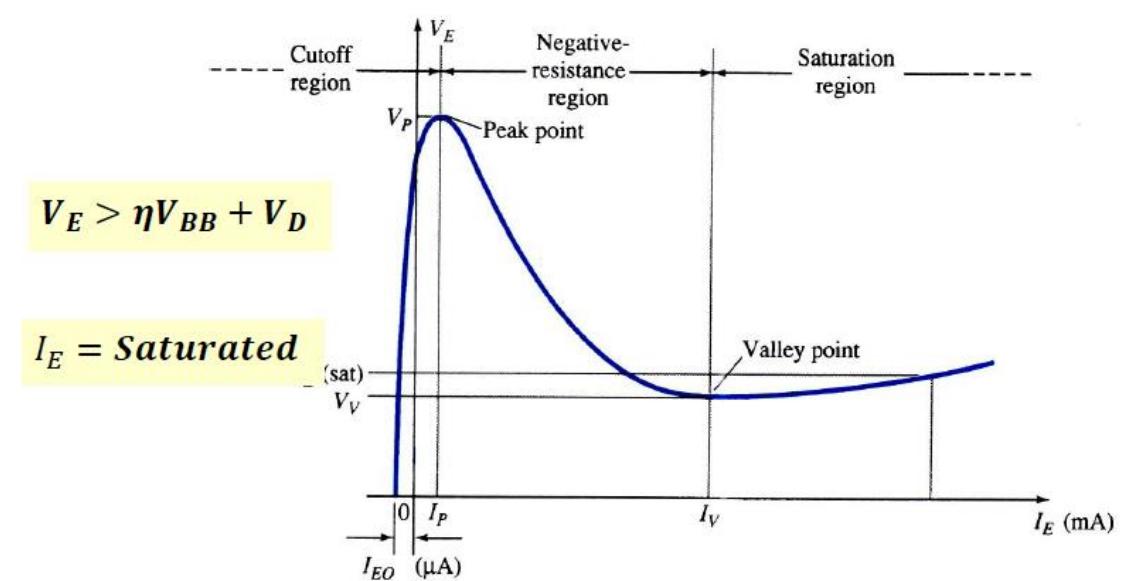
Step 3:

- Once V_E reaches V_P , I_E begins to flow (UJT turns on) – conductivity increases and R_{B1} decreases.
- After turn-on, the UJT operates in a negative resistance region (V_E decreases as I_E increases) up to a certain level of I_E .



Step 4:

- Beyond this level, V_E begin to increase again. The minimum level of V_E is known as valley point (V_V , I_V). Beyond this point, the device enters its saturation region.



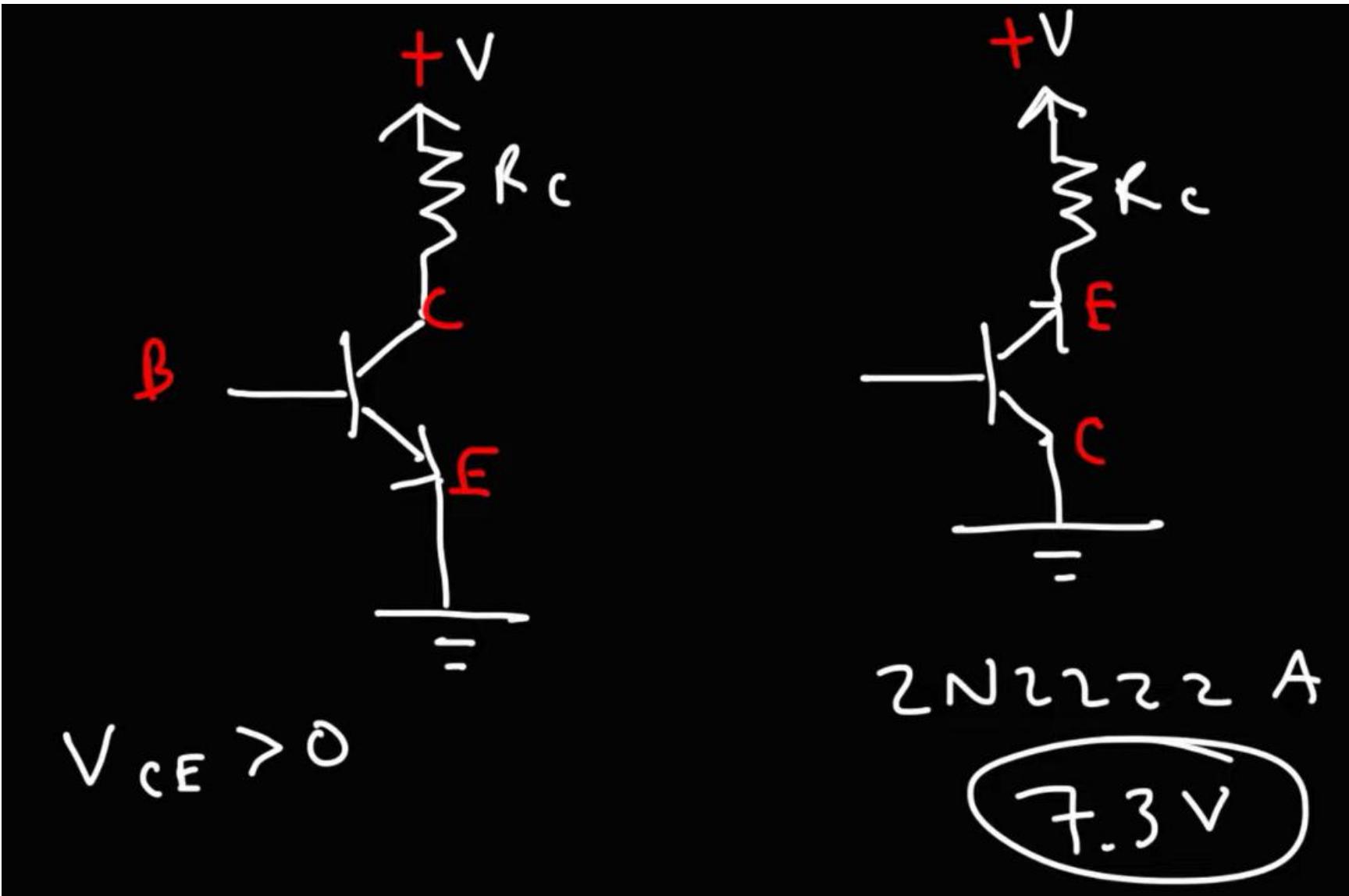
UJT Ratings

- Maximum peak emitter current: This represents the maximum allowable value of a pulse of emitter current.
- Maximum reverse emitter voltage: This is the maximum reverse-bias that the emitter base junction $B2$ can tolerate before breakdown occurs.
- Maximum inter base voltage: This limit is caused by the maximum power that the *n-type base bar* can safely dissipate.
- Emitter leakage current: This is the emitter current which flows when VE is less than Vp and the UJT is in the OFF state.

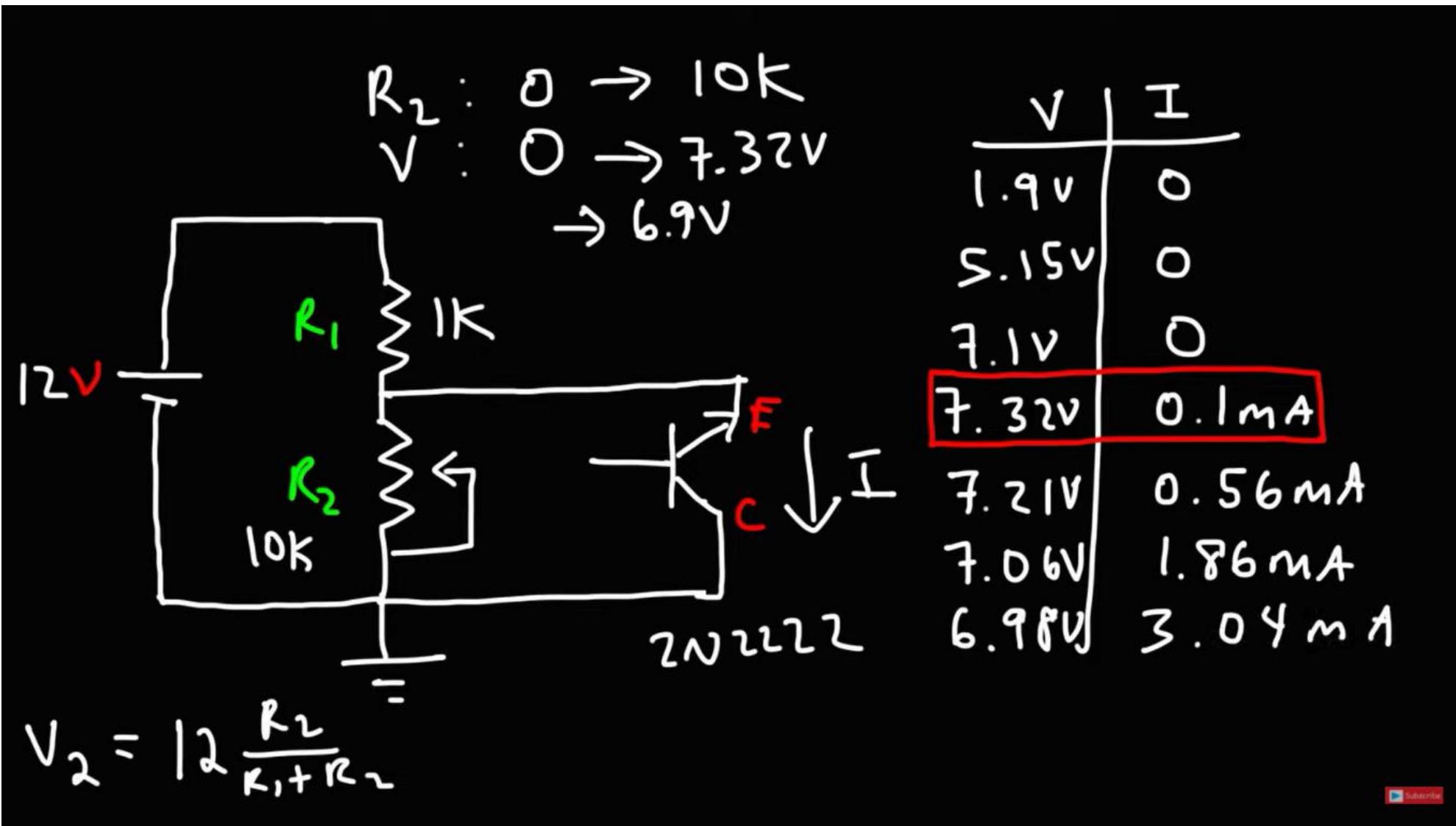
Applications

- The UJT is very popular today mainly due to its high switching speed.
- A few select applications of the UJT are as follows:
 - (i) It is used to trigger SCRs and TRIACs
 - (ii) It is used in non-sinusoidal oscillators
 - (iii) It is used in phase control and timing circuits
 - (iv) It is used in saw tooth generators
 - (v) It is used in oscillator circuit design

Negative Resistance



Negative Resistance



Negative Resistance

