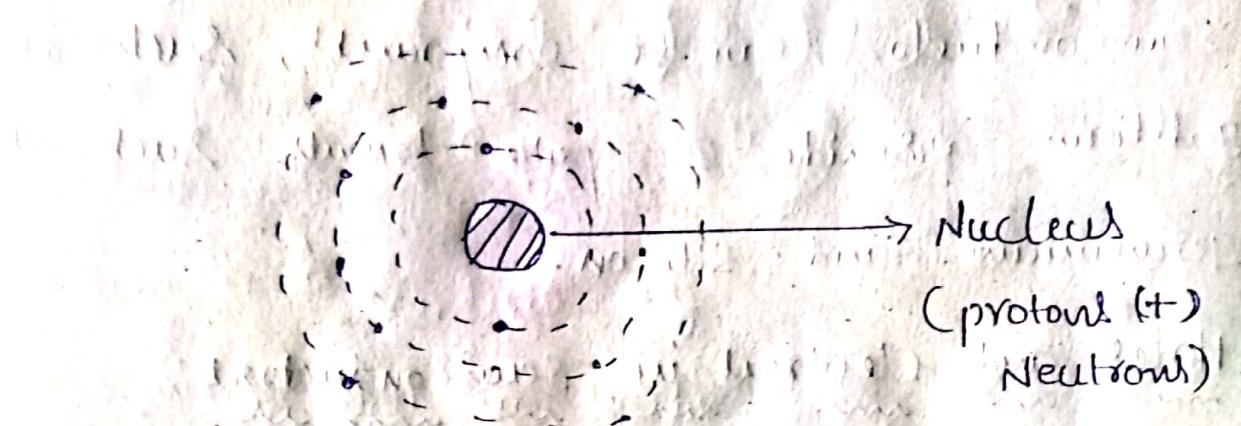


# Basic Electronics

Semiconductor Basics: Diffusion, Junction, Transistor

Atomic Structure: Protons (+), Neutrons (0), Electrons (-)



Silicon atomic structure in this structure have 14 electrons. Electrons have negative charges.

The orbit have  $2n^2$  formula it mean

$$2 \times 1^2 = 2$$

$$2 \times 2^2 = 8$$

$$2 \times 3^2 = 18$$

Semi conductor: Semiconductors are materials which have a "conductivity b/w conductors" (generally metals) and "Non Conductors" (generally ceramics) means insulators.

Semiconductors can be compound, such as gallium arsenide, or pure elements, such as germanium and silicon.)

Holes and electrons in Semiconductors:

Holes and electrons are the types of charge carriers accountable for the flow of current in semiconductors. Holes (valence electrons) are the positively charged electric charge carrier, whereas electrons are the negatively charged. Both electrons and holes are equal in magnitude but opposite in polarity.

Mobility of electrons and holes:

In a semiconductor, the mobility of electrons is higher than that of the holes.

It is mainly because of their different band structures and scattering mechanism. Electrons travel in the conduction band

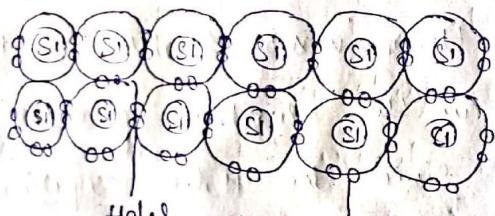
whereas holes travel in the valence band. When an electric field is applied, holes cannot move as freely as electrons due to their restricted movement. The elevation of electrons from their inner shells to higher shells results in the creation of holes in semiconductors. Since the holes experience stronger atomic force by the nucleus than electrons, holes have lower mobility.

The mobility of a particle in a semiconductor is more, if

- \* The effective mass of particle is less
  - \* The time b/w scattering event is more
- For intrinsic silicon at 300 K, the mobility of electrons is  $1500 \text{ cm}^2 (\text{V-s})^{-1}$ , and the mobility of holes is  $475 \text{ cm}^2 (\text{V-s})^{-1}$ .

The band model of electron in silicon of valency 4 is shown below. Here, when one of the free electrons (blue dot) leaves the lattice position, it creates a hole (grey dot). This hole that created takes the

opposite charge of the electron and can be imagined as positive charge carriers moving in the lattice.



Concept of electron and hole in  
semiconductor

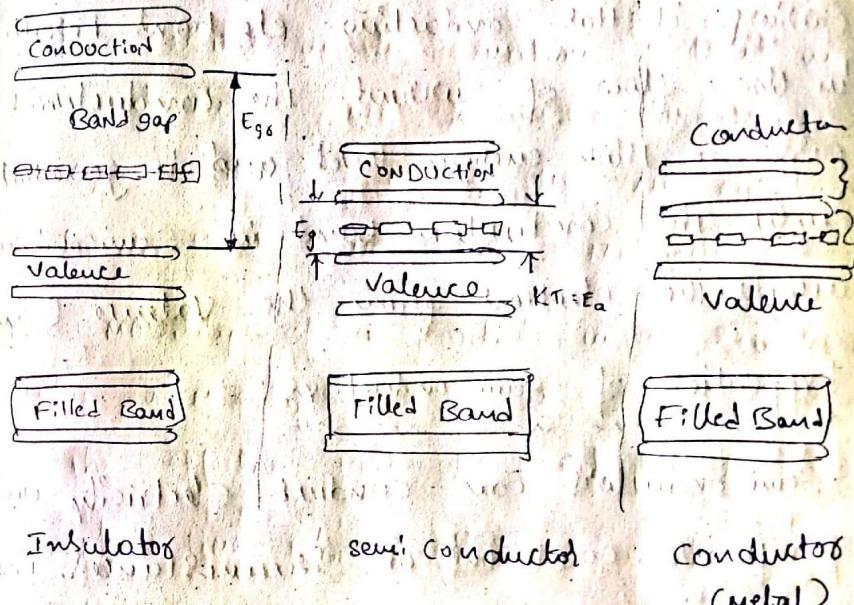
Band theory of semi-conductors:

The introduction of band theory happened during the quantum revolution in science. Walter Heitler and Fritz London discovered the energy bands.

We know that the electrons in an atom are present at different energy levels. When we try to assemble a lattice of a solid with  $N$  atoms, each level of an atom must split into  $N$  levels in the solid. This splitting of sharp and tightly packed energy levels

forms energy bands. The gap b/w adjacent bands representing a range of energies in which no electron is called a band gap.

Energy Band gap in materials



Insulator

semi-conductor

Conductor  
(metal)

Conduction Band and Valence Band

Valence band: The energy band involving the energy levels of valence electrons is known as the valence band. It is the higher occupied energy band. When compared with insulators, the band gap in semi-conductors is smaller. It allows the electrons in the valence band and to jump into the conduction

build on receiving any additional energy.

Conduction Band is the lowest, unoccupied band that includes the energy levels of positive (Hole) or negative (free electrons) charge carriers. It has conducting electrons resulting in the flow of current. The conduction band has a high energy level and is generally empty. The conduction band in Semiconductors accept the electron from the Valence band.

Properties of Semiconductors:

Semiconductors can conduct electricity under preferable conditions or circumstances. This unique property makes it an excellent material to conduct electricity in a controlled manner as required.

Unlike conductors, the charge carriers in semiconductors arise only because of external energy. It causes a certain no. of "valence electrons" to cross the energy gap and jump into the conduction band, leaving an equal

amount of 1) unoccupied energy states, i.e., holes. The conduction due to electrons and holes is equally important.

- \* Resistivity:  $10^{-5}$  to  $10^6 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$
- \* Conductivity:  $10^5$  to  $10^{16} \text{ S/m}$
- \* Temperature Coefficient of Resistance: -ve
- \* Current flow: due to electrons and holes.

Some important properties of semiconductors:

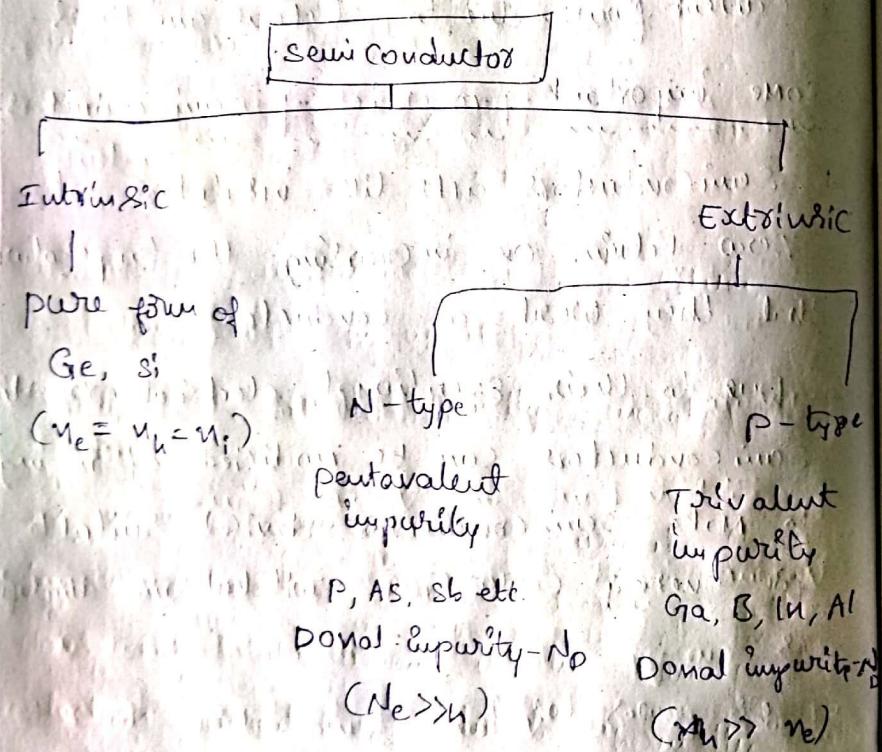
1. Semiconductors act like insulators at zero Kelvin. On increasing the temperature that they work as conductors.
2. Due to their exceptional electrical properties semiconductors can be modified by doping to make semiconductor device suitable for energy conversion, switch and amplification.
3. Less power losses.
4. Semiconductors are smaller in size and possess less weight.
5. Their Resistivity is higher than conductors but lesser than insulators.

Q. The Resistivity of semiconductor materials decreases with an increase in temperature and vice-versa.

Type of Semiconductors:

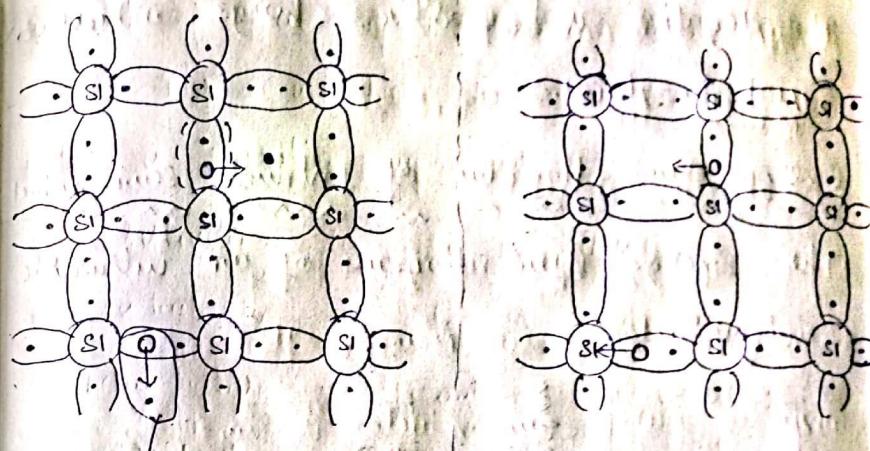
1. Intrinsic Semiconductor

2. Extrinsic Semiconductor.



1. Intrinsic Semiconductor

An intrinsic type of semiconductor material is made to be very pure chemically, it is made up of only a single type of element.



free electron and  
its corresponding  
Hole (a)

$O \rightarrow \text{Hole}$        $\rightarrow$  Direction of electron  
 $\bullet \rightarrow \text{electron}$        $\rightarrow$  Direction of hole

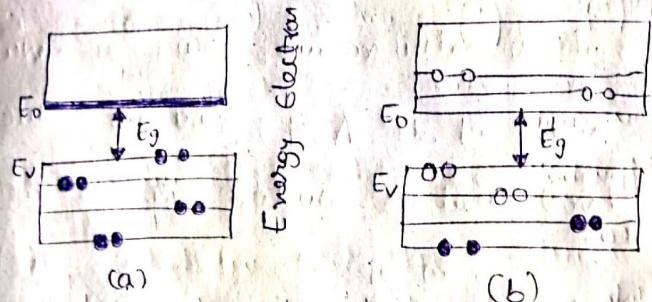
germanium (Ge) and silicon (Si) are the most common types of Intrinsic semiconductors. They have 4 valence electrons (tetravalent). They are bound to their atom by a covalent bond at absolute zero temperature.

When the temperature rises due to collision, few electrons are unbounded and become free to move through the lattice, thus leaving an absence in its original position (hole). These free electrons and holes contribute to the conduction of electricity in the semiconductor.

The negative and positive charge carriers are equal in number.

Energy band diagram of Intrinsic semi-conductor

The Energy Band diagram of an Intrinsic Semiconductor



(a) Intrinsic Semiconductor at  $T = 0$  Kelvin.  
Behave like an insulator.

(b) at  $T > 0$ , four thermally generated electron pairs.

In Intrinsic Semiconductors, current flows due to the motion of free electrons, as well as holes. The total current is the sum of the electron current ( $I_e$ ) due to thermally generated electrons and the hole current ( $I_h$ ).

$$\text{total current} = I_e + I_h$$

for an Intrinsic Semiconductor, at finite temperature, the probability of electrons

existing in a conduction band decreases exponentially with an increasing band gap ( $E_g$ ).

$$n = n_0 e^{-E_g / 2k_B T}$$

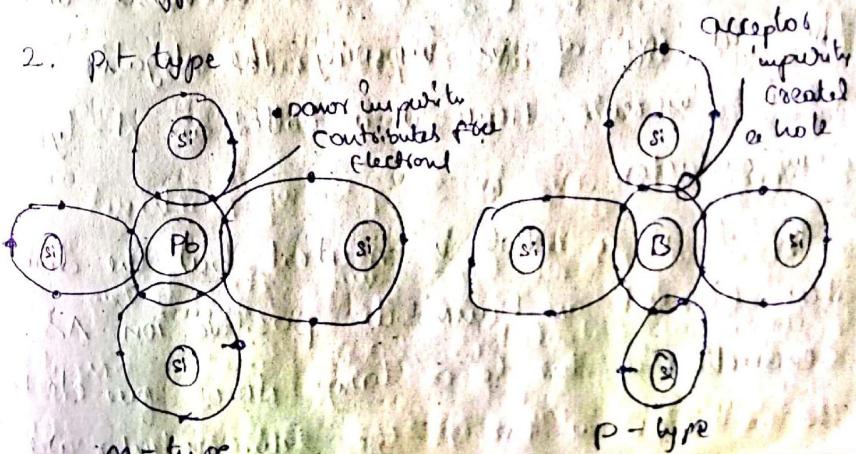
- $E_g$  = Energy band gap
- $k_B$  = Boltzmann's Constant

Extrinsic Semiconductor:

The Conductivity of semiconductors can be greatly improved by introducing a small no. of suitable replacement atoms called IMPURITIES. The process of adding impurities atom to the pure semiconductor is called "doping". Usually only one atom in  $10^7$  is replaced by a dopant atom in the doped semiconductor.

1. N-type

2. P-type



### N-type Semiconductor

- Mainly due to electrons

- entirely neutral

- $I = I_h$  and  $n_h \gg n_e$

- Majority - electrons, minority - holes

When a pure semiconductor is doped by "pentavalent" impurity (P, As, Sb, Bi), then four electrons out of five valence electrons bond with the four electrons of Ge or Si.

The fifth electron of the dopant is set to be free. Thus, the impurity atom donates a free electron for conduction in the lattice and is called a "Donor".

Since the No. of free electrons increased with the addition of an impurity, the negative charge carriers increase. Hence it is called an N-type Semiconductor.

Crystal as a whole is neutral, but the donor atom becomes an immobile positive ion. As conduction is due to a large No. of free electrons the electrons in the N-type Semiconductor are

the majority carriers, and holes are the minor

### P-type Semiconductor

- Mainly due to holes

- entirely neutral

- $I = I_h$  and  $n_h \gg n_e$

- Majority - holes, minority - electrons

When a pure semiconductor is doped with trivalent impurity (B, In, Ga) then the 3 valence electrons of the impurity bond with 3 of the five valence electrons of the semiconductor.

This leaves an absence of electrons (hole) in the impurity. These impurity atoms which are ready to accept bonded electrons are called "Acceptors".

With an increase in the No. of impurities, holes are increased. Hence, it is called P-type semiconductor.

Crystal as a whole, is neutral, but the acceptors become an immobile negative ion. As conduction is due to a large No. of holes, the holes in the P-type Semiconductor are majority carriers.

Difference b/w Intrinsic and Extrinsic Semi Conductors:

Intrinsic

1. pure Semiconductor
2. The density of electrons is equal to the density of holes.
3. Electrical conductivity is low.
4. Depends on temperature only.
5. No impurities.

Extrinsic

1. Impure Semiconductor
2. The density of electrons is not equal to the density of holes.
3. Electrical conductivity is high.
4. Depends on temperature as well as on the amount of impurity.
5. Trivalent, pentavalent impurities.

Use of Semiconductors:

1. Temperature Sensors are made with Semiconductors.
2. They are used in 3D printing machines.
3. Used in micro chips and self-driving cars.
4. Used in Calculators, Solar plates, computers.
5. Transistors and MOSFET used as a switch

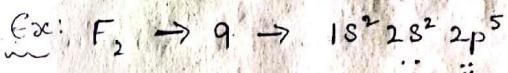
In electronic circuits are manufactured using Semiconductors.

Importance of Semiconductors:

1. Here, we have discussed some advantages of Semiconductors, which make them highly useful everywhere.
1. They are highly portable due to their small size.
2. They require less I/P power.
3. Semiconductor devices are shock proof.
4. They have long lifespan.
5. They are noise-free while operating.

Covalent Bond:

→ formed b/w 2 atoms by mutual sharing of electrons of Valence shell, so both atom attain octet in Valence shell.



Difference b/w Conductor, Semi-conductor,  
Insulator

parameters	<u>Conductor</u>	<u>Insulator</u>	<u>Semi-conductor</u>
Conductivity	High very	Very low	Moderate
Resistivity	Very low	Very low	Moderate
Forbidden gap	No gap	Very large (= 15 eV)	Very small (= 1 eV)
No. of electrons	Very high	Very low	Moderate
Temperature of co-efficient.	Positive	Negative	Negative
Effect of doping	Resistance increases	No change in resistance	Resistance decreases

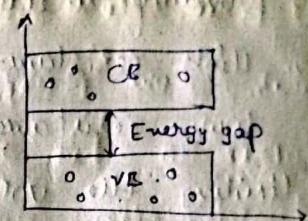
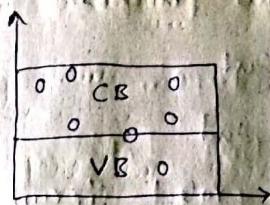
1. Conductor: The material in which current can flow easily called Conductor.  
Ex: Iron, copper

2. Insulator: The material in which current cannot flow, this is called insulator.

Ex: paper, wood

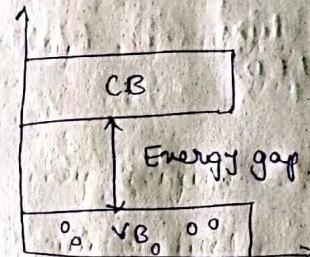
3. Semi-conductor: The material which having both behaviour of conductor and insulator are called semi-conductors.

Ex: Silicon, Germanium.



Conductor

Semi-conductor



Insulator

1. Diode:

Anode → cathode (K)  
(A) + V<sub>D</sub> -

→ Diodes are used to protect circuit by limiting the voltage and to also transform AC to DC. Semiconductors like silicon and germanium are used to make the most of the diodes. Even though they transmit current in a single direction, the way with which they transmit differs.

- Two terminal electronic component
- conduct electricity in one direction
- High resistance → one end  
low resistance → other end
- Limiting the voltage (to protect circuit)
- also transform AC to DC.

### Types of diodes:

1. light emitting diode (LED)
2. varactor diode
3. avalanche diode
4. Zener diode
5. photo diode
6. PN Junction diode

### Applications:

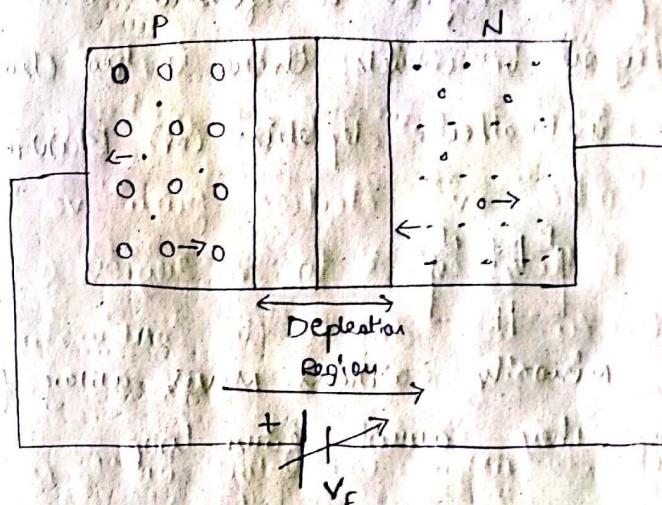
- \* A.C Rectifiers
- \* in a 'clipping' circuit
- \* clamping circuit
- \* logic gate

### Diode Biasing:

#### 1. Forward biasing

#### 2. Reverse biasing

#### 1. Forward biasing:



Biasing: In electronics, 'biasing' usually refers to a fixed DC voltage or current applied to a terminal of an electronic component, such as a diode or transistor.

### Forward Biasing:

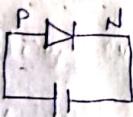
The layer which separates 'P & N' type material is called "junction".

Due to concentration gradient across the junction, the charged particles diffuse

from one region to another region i.e., electron from N-type to P-type and holes from P-type to N-type.

Due to this recombination took place and "depletion region" is formed.

The region in which there are no charged particles is called "depletion (or) Barrier".



All the minority carriers move away from junction. They cannot form loop.

$$I_{\text{minority}} = 0$$

All the majority carriers move towards junction.

At  $V_A \rightarrow$  Repulsion force to the majority

$\rightarrow$  Depletion region decreased.

at some particular voltage depletion region width reduces to zero then the charged particle starts crossing the junction.

The voltage at which charged particle starts crossing the junction is called "cut-in (or)

barrier (or) depletion region cut-off voltage".

$$V_B \text{ for Si} \approx 0.7 \text{ V}$$

$$V_B \text{ for Ge} \approx 0.2 \text{ V}$$



In forward biasing, forward voltage oppose the potential barrier  $V_B$ . So, potential barrier height is reduced and width of depletion region is decreased. The effective height of potential barrier in forward biasing is  $(V_B - V)$ .

The electrons (majority carriers) in the N-region are repelled with by -ve terminal of battery B, so these electrons move towards PN-junction. Similarly hole in P-region are repelled by +ve terminal of the battery B, towards the junction.

Positive potential of P-region attract the electrons from N-region & negative potential of N-region attract the hole from P-region. When electrons & hole cross the junction

They combine with each other.  
for each electron-hole combination  
a covalent bond is broken in p-region  
near the +ve terminal of battery. So  
liberated electron enters the +ve terminal  
of battery B. In this process a new hole is  
formed which moves toward the PN-junction.  
At the other end electron from -ve terminal  
of battery enters to n-region & replace  
the electron lost due to the combination near  
the JV.

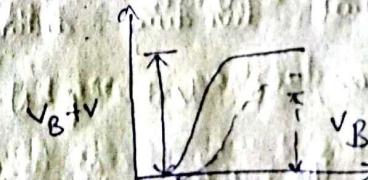
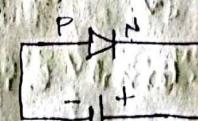
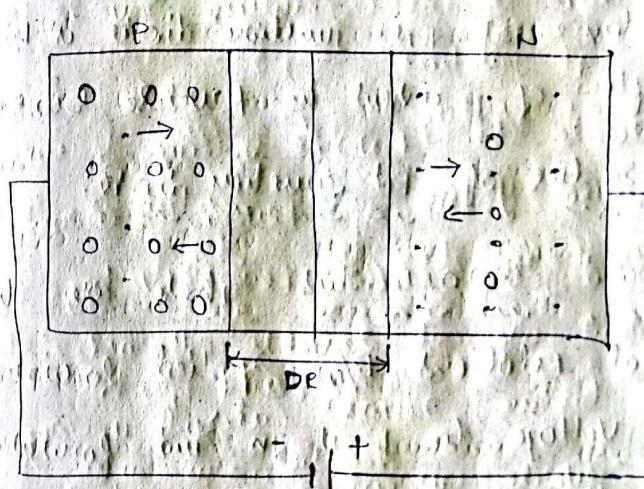
So, electric current will flow due to migration  
of majority carriers across the PN-junction.  
This current is called forward current. This  
forward current usually half ampere (mA)  
for small increase in forward voltage, there  
is large increase in forward current. So, in  
forward biasing resistance of a PN-junction  
is low for the flow of current.

## ② Reverse Biasing

A PN-junction is said to be reverse

biased if the positive terminal of battery  
B is connected to N-side & negative terminal  
of battery B is connected to P-side  
of PN-junction.

In reverse biasing direction of applied  
voltage is  $\theta$  and potential barrier is same.  
So, the Reverse bias Voltage supports the  
potential barrier so in reverse biasing effect  
-ve Barrier potential is  $(V_B + \theta)$ .



Reverse Biasing

In reverse biasing, there is no conduction across the junction due to majority carriers. But due to high reverse bias voltage, a few minority carriers of P-N junction diode cross the junction. They constitute a current that flows in the opposite direction. This current is called reverse current or leakage current.

for large increase in current reverse voltage there is very small increase in reverse current, so resistance of p-n junction diode is high to the flow of current in reverse biased.

Characteristics of PN-junction diode:

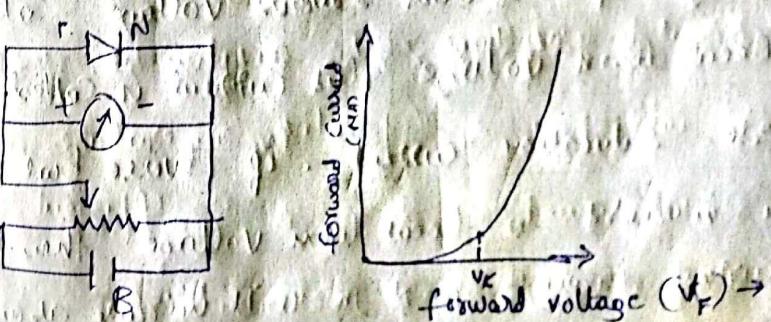
- ① forward characteristics: These are the graphical relations b/w applied forward biased voltage to P-N junction and forward current through p-n junction.

We connect the external battery with a potential dividing arrangement to the p-n junction, so that P-N junction is forward biased for the given forward bias voltage we

Note the corresponding forward current, forward voltage. It is increased slowly in steps & corresponding forward current is noted. Now we plot variation of forward current with forward voltage on graph. This is called forward characteristic.

Below a certain voltage (knee voltage) the forward current increases very slowly & non linearly with increase of forward voltage. But beyond the knee voltage ( $V_k$ ) conductivity is very high and current through it increases rapidly with voltage & shows linear variation.

Knee Voltage / threshold voltage / cut-in range is the forward voltage beyond which current through junction starts increasing rapidly & linearly.



① V-I graph for diode is not straight line so diode does not obey Ohm's law & are called Non-linear device.

② Below knee voltage, resistance across the Jn of diode is large & above the knee voltage resistance is low.

### (ii) Reverse characteristics

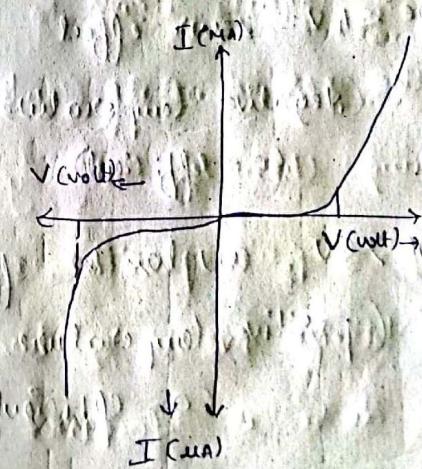
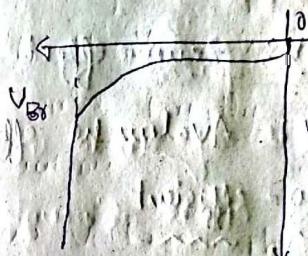
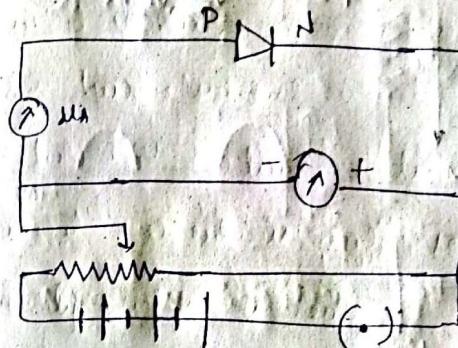
It is the graphical relation b/w the reverse bias voltage & corresponding reverse current through p-n junction.

We will increase the reverse voltage & note the corresponding value of reverse current. On plotting a graph b/w reverse voltage & reverse current we get reverse characteristics.

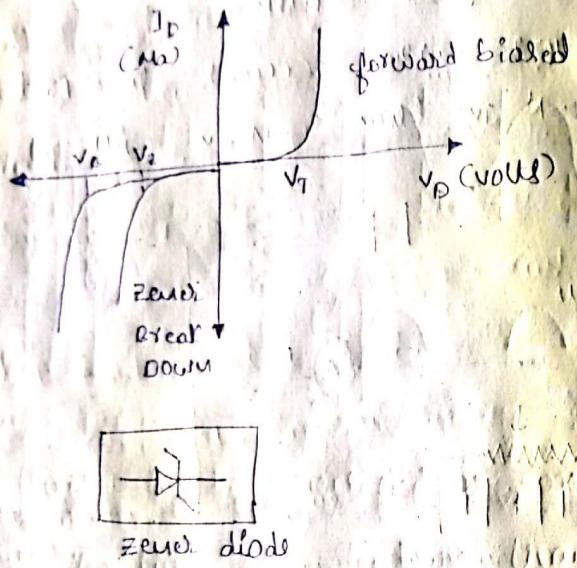
In reverse biasing, reverse current is very small ( $\approx \text{mA}$ ). reverse current is independent of voltage upto certain reverse voltage, called "Breakdown" voltage. This current is called "reverse saturation current". If reverse bias voltage is increased to breakdown voltage, then reverse current through p-n Jn will increase sharply.

due to breaking down of large no. of covalent bonds in P & N region.

If reverse current exceed the rated value of p-n Jn, then p-n Jn will get damaged.



Avalanche and Zener Breakdown



Breakdown voltage  $< 4V$ : Zener effect

Breakdown voltage  $> 6V$ : Avalanche effect

Temperature Co-efficient

Breakdown voltage  $< 4V$ : zener effect

(negative temperature  
Co-efficient)

Breakdown voltage  $> 6V$ : avalanche effect

(positive temperature  
Co-efficient)

Avalanche Breakdown  
occurs in lightly doped  
diodes

occurs due to impact  
ionization

The effect is seen at

Higher breakdown  
voltages ( $> 6V$ )

With temperature, break  
down voltage increases

Rectifier: It is a device which is used  
to convert alternating current/voltage into  
Direct current/voltage.

1. Half wave Rectifier:

Principle: Working of a rectifier is based  
on the fact that resistance of PN-Junction  
becomes low when it is forward biased  
and resistance becomes high in reverse

Zener breakdown

occurs in heavily  
doped diodes

occurs due to strong  
electric effect

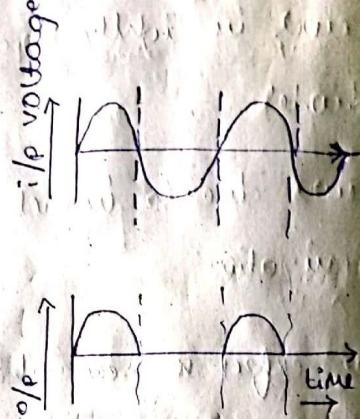
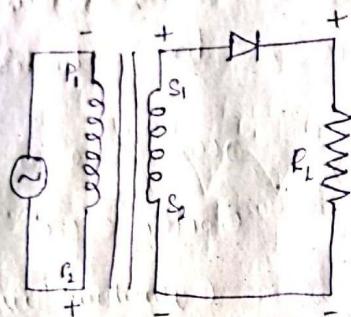
Quantum tunnelling

The effect is seen  
at lower breakdown  
voltages ( $< 4V$ )

With temperature,  
breakdown voltage  
reduced.

Biasing.

Circuit diagram:



A.C. voltage to be rectified is connected to primary  $P_1, P_2$  of stepdown transformer  $S_1, S_2$  is secondary coil of same transformer

$S_1$  is connected to P-side of diode &  $S_2$  is connected to N-side of diode, through a resistance  $R$ . O/P is taken across  $R$ .

Working: During the positive Half Cycle of i/p A.C. let during the +ve Half Cycle of AC,  $P_1$  is Negative &  $P_2$  is Positive. Due to the inductances  $S_1$  become +ve &  $S_2$  become -ve.

So PN-Junction diode is forward biased.

In forward biasing polarization of diode

become low & forward current flow in direction shown by arrow head. So, we get O/p across load.

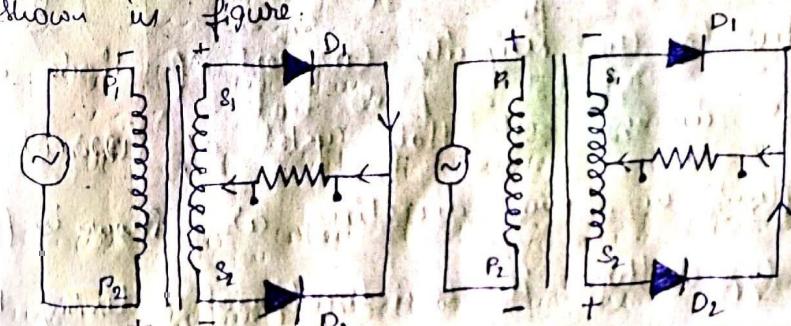
During Negative Half Cycle of i/p A.C -  $P_1$  is positive &  $P_2$  is negative. Due to the mutual induction,  $S_1$  become negative &  $S_2$  become positive so PN Junction is reverse biased. Due to high resistances, no current flow & No o/p is obtained across load.

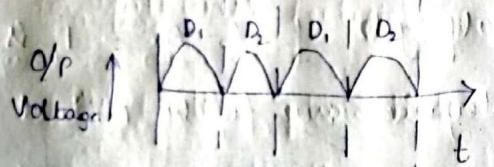
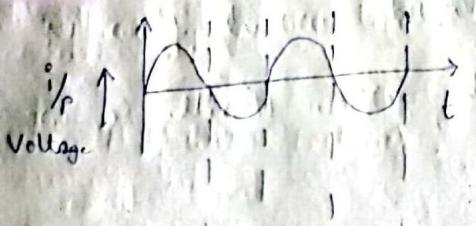
Note: Half wave rectification has not much use. O/p signal is not continuous.

## 2. Full-wave Rectifier:

Circuit diagram: In full wave Rectifier

two diodes  $D_1$  &  $D_2$  are used. arrangement is shown in figure.





Working during the positive half cycle of 1/p A.C. P<sub>1</sub> is +ve & P<sub>2</sub> is -ve. So by mutual induction S<sub>1</sub> → +ve & S<sub>2</sub> → -ve.

So diode D<sub>1</sub> is forward biased & D<sub>2</sub> is reverse biased. So forward current flows due to majority carriers of diode D<sub>1</sub>.

During the negative half cycle of input A.C. diodes D<sub>1</sub> is reverse biased & D<sub>2</sub> is forward biased. So forward current flows due to the majority carriers of diode D<sub>2</sub>.

So, during both half cycles o/p current flows in same direction as shown in fig.

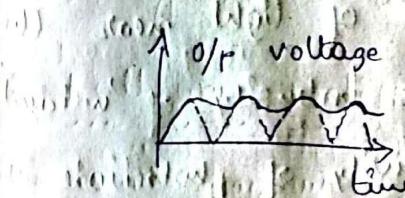
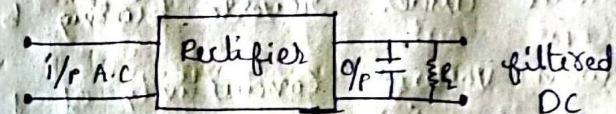
O/P Voltage is unidirectional having D.C.

component & A.C. component of voltage.

D.C. voltage can be obtained by filtering it through filter circuit.

Capacitors offer low impedance to A.C. component ( $\propto \frac{1}{f}$ ) & it offers infinite impedance to DC component.

So A.C. components are filtered out with the help of capacitors. So we get O/P DC voltage.



$$\text{Ripple factor of Rectifier} = \frac{\text{Value of AC component}}{\text{Value of DC component}}$$

$$= \frac{I_{AC}}{I_{DC}} = \frac{E_{AC}}{E_{DC}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{r.m.s.}}{I_{DC}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

Ripple factor for half wave rectifier is

1.21 and for full wave rectifier is 0.4

$$\text{Efficiency of Rectified, } \eta = \frac{\text{O/p DC power}}{\text{I/p AC power}} \times 100$$

for Half wave Rectified ;  $\eta = 40.6\%$

for full wave Rectified  $\eta = 81.2\%$

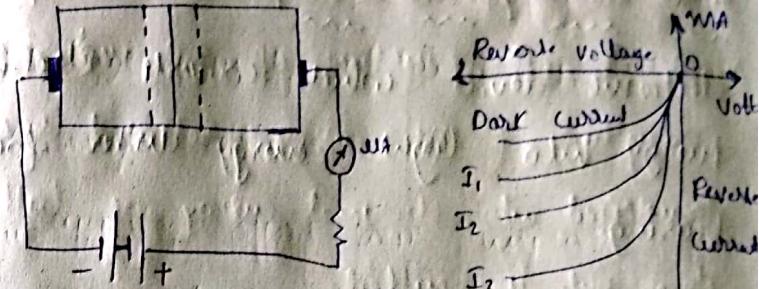
photo Diode: photo diode is a pn junction

which is an optoelectronic device in which current carriers are generated by photons through photo conduction by light.

→ It is operable under reverse biasing, below the Breakdown voltage. Conductivity of photo diode depends on absorption of light near the depletion layer. As the intensity of incident light increases, conductivity of photo diode also increases.



Symbol of photo diode



Experimental arrangement

for the study of V-I

characteristic of photodiode

$I_3 > I_2 > I_1$ , mA

V-I characteris.  
tic.

When the photodiode is reverse biased with a voltage less than its breakdown voltage & no light is incident on it. Generally then the reverse current is very small. This current is called dark current.

When the energy of incident light is more than forbidden energy gap ( $h\nu > E_g$ ) & diode is reverse biased then electron-hole pairs are created in depletion region layer. These charge carriers will be separated by field. So charge carriers will flow across the junction & create reverse current.

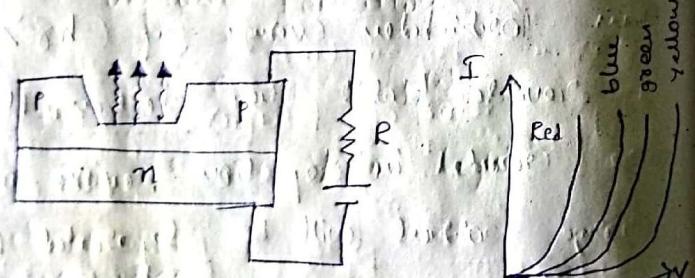
Light Emitting Diode (LED): It is a photo electronic device which converts electrical energy into light energy under forward biasing.

Construction:

- it is a heavily doped PN-Ty diode which under forward biasing emits spontaneous radiation. The diode is covered with a transparent cover so that the emitted light can come out.



Symbol of LED



LED circuit diagram

stet.

→ In an LED upper layer of p-type semi conductor is deposited by diffusion on

N-type layer of semiconductor. The metallic contacts are provided to apply the forward bias voltage to the diode from battery B through resistance R which controls the brightness of light emitted.

WORKING OF LED:

When a pn-Ty is forward biased the size of depletion region layer decreases. The movement of majority carriers takes place across the Junction. The electron moves from N-side of Junction to P-side of Junction. The hole moves from P-side to N-side through Junction. Due to this movement concentration of the minority carriers increases rapidly on the two sides of pn-Ty boundary. These excess of minority carriers recombine with majority carriers. Due to the electron-hole recombination, a photon is released whose energy is nearly equal to energy gap ( $E_g$ )

$$E_g = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g}$$

wave length of emitted photon

- \* for a pn-junction of Ge and Si, large percentage of this energy released is mainly transferred into thermal energy of lattice. So no light is emitted.

- \* in some pn-Ju diode like GaAs, GaP & GaAsP, large percentage of released energy is mainly in the form of visible light so the Ju become light source.

- \* The color of light emitted by LED depends upon the type of material used used to make LED & its energy band gap

1. GaAs - infrared Radiation

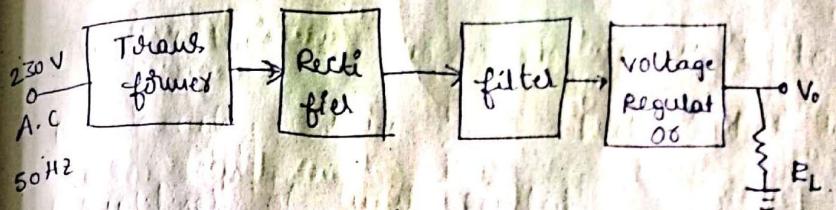
2. GaP - red or green light

3. GaAsP - Red or Yellow light

Advantages of LED:

- 1. It has less power & low operating voltage.
- 2. LED has fast action
- 3. It is cheap & ready to handle.

Voltage Regulator:



→ Step up  $\Rightarrow$  AC increased

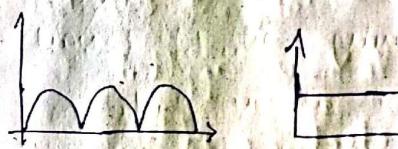
→ Step down  $\Rightarrow$  AC decreased.

Rectifier: To convert AC to pulsating DC

1. Half wave      2. Centre tapped full wave

3. Bridge Rectifier

Filter: To convert pulsating DC to pure DC



Regulator: To maintain constant o/p Voltage

In 2 conditions

1. change in i/p

2. load changed

SPECIAL PURPOSE DIODESZener Diodes:

→ Zener diodes are designed to operate in reverse breakdown.

1. Avalanche

2. Zener

→ Avalanche Breakdown occurs in both normal and zener diode at a sufficiently high Reverse Voltage.

→ Zener Breakdown occurs in a zener diode at low reverse voltages.

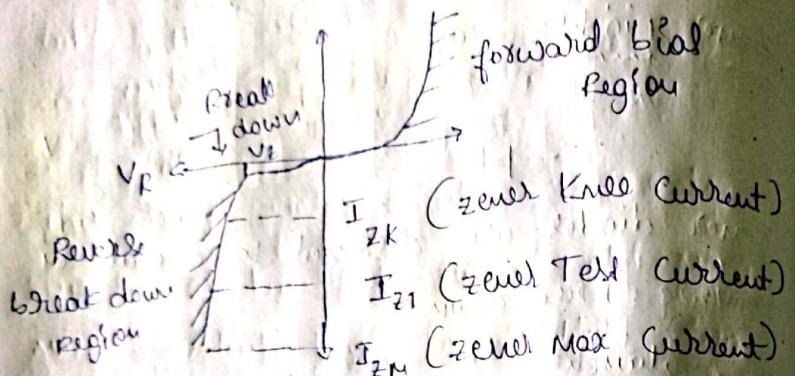
\* Zener diode heavily doped to reduce the Breakdown voltage. This causes a very depletion Region.

$10^6$

\* The zener diode breakdown characteristics are determined by the doping profile.

\* Zener diodes commercially available with Voltage 1.8V to 200V.

## WORKING OF ZENER:



### Zener Breakdown:

Less width of depletion region will cause high intensity of electric field to develop in the depletion region at low voltages.

Let's say the width of depletion region is  $200\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  (very small). If a reverse bias voltage of just  $4\text{ V}$  is applied to the diode, then the electric field intensity in the depletion region will be

$$E = \frac{V}{d} = \frac{4}{200 \times 10^{-6}} = 2 \times 10^8 \text{ V/m}$$

This electric field is sufficient to rupture bonds and separate the valence electrons

large no. of electrons get separated from their atoms, resistivity is sudden increase in the value of reverse current.

### C.E. Zener

\* Zener effect predominates in diodes whose Breakdown voltage is below  $6\text{ V}$ .

### Avalanche Breakdown:

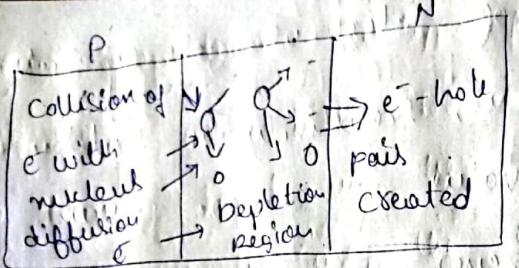
\* The width of depletion region is large when impurities concentration is less

\* When a reverse bias voltage is applied across the terminals of diode

\* the electrons from p-type and holes from n-type accelerated through the depletion region.

\* This results in collision of intrinsic particles ( $e^-$  and holes) with the bound  $e^-$  in the depletion region.

→ with enough energy to break its covalent bond and create the electron-hole pairs.



→ This Newly created  $e^-$  also gets accelerated due to electric field and breaks many more covalent bond to further create more  $e^- - hole$  pairs. This process keeps on repeating and it is called carrier multiplication.

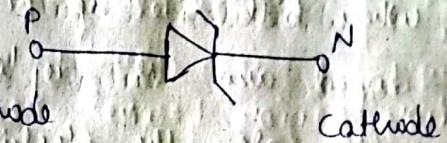
This process of carrier multiplication is  
quite and in very large numbers that there  
is apparently an avalanche of charge  
carriers thus the breakdown is called  
avalanche breakdown

Zener diode:

Zener diode is a reverse biased heavily doped silicon p-n junction diode which is operated in the breakdown region.

Due to higher temperature and current capability, Silicon is better than germanium

The symbol of zero node is



Zener diode allows electric current in forward direction like a normal diode but also allows electric current in the reverse direction. Because it is specially designed to work in a reverse direction.

The Zener diode was named after the American physicist "Clarence Melvin Zener."

## Voltage Current Characteristics of Zener diode:

- \* There are 2 types of reverse breakdown regions in a zener diode.

- ## 1. Avalanche 2. zeuer

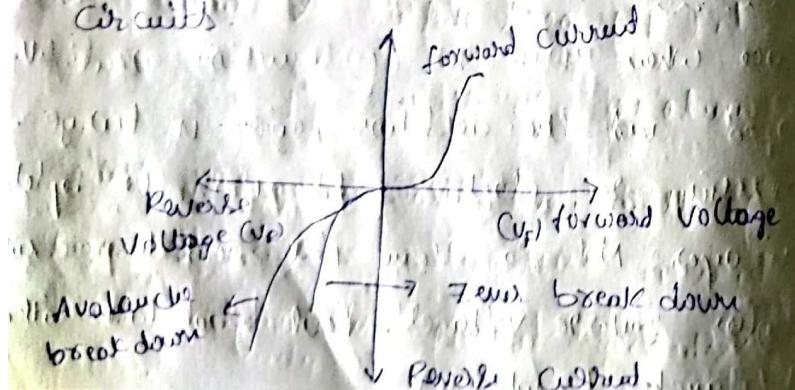
1. Avalanche: This type of breakdown takes place when both sides of junction are lightly doped and the depletion region is large. In this case, electric field across the depletion layer not so strong. This breakdown occurs

at higher reverse voltages. That breakdown called Avalanche breakdown.

2. Zener break down: This type of breakdown takes place when both sides of p-n-junction are heavily doped and the depletion layer is narrow. In this case, the electric field across the depletion layer is so strong. That breakdown is called zener breakdown.

Applications of Zener diode:

1. It is normally used as voltage reference.
2. Zener diodes are used in voltage stabilizers or, Shunt regulators.
3. Zener diodes are used in switching devices.
4. Zener diodes are used in clamping and clapping circuits.
5. Zener diodes are used in various protection circuits.



Varactor Diode:

- Varactor means variable capacitor.
  - Simply we defined varactor diode as it acts like a variable capacitor under reverse bias condition.
  - It also refers @ varicap diode
  - ④ Tuning diode
  - ④ Variable Resistance diode
  - ④ Variable Capacitance diode
- The schematic symbol of varactor diode



- \* It is similar to the normal p-n junction diode.
- \* Two parallel lines at the cathode side represents two conductive plate and space b/w them.
- \* It shows better transition capacitance property than the ordinary diode.

Working:

- It is operated in the reverse bias.



- The depletion Region becomes negligible in the forward bias so the current flows through diode.
- Varactor diode is designed to store electric charge not to conduct electric current.
- When a reverse bias voltage is applied, the electrons from N-type and holes from P-type move away from the junction.
- \* Then depletion region is created and the capacitance decreases.
- Very low reverse bias voltage is applied then capacitance is very large.

Capacitance  $\propto$  Surface Area of P & N region

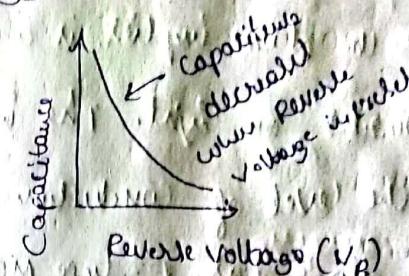
Width of depletion region

- Reverse voltage is increased then width of depletion region increases.

∴ Capacitance further decreases.

→ In Varactor diode, the capacitance is varied when the voltage is varied so it is known as "variable capacitor".

Characteristics:



Applications:

1. Used in frequency multipliers.
2. in parametric amplifiers.
3. in voltage-controlled oscillators.

Optical diodes:

(i) These are the diodes which operate on light. The word "opto" means "light" there are types of conduction depending upon the light intensity and other types whose conduction delivers some light. Each type has got applications of their own.

(ii) Sound diodes conduct according to the

Intensity of light falls on PN junction. There are 2 main types of among them one is in the category. They are photo diode and LED solar cells.

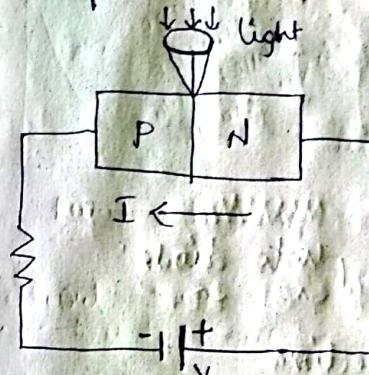
1. photo diode: As the name implies, is a PN junction which works on light. The intensity of light affects the level of conduction in the diode. The photo diode has P-type material and N-type material with an intrinsic material or a depletion region in B/W.

The diode is generally operated in reverse bias condition. The light when focused on the depletion region, electron-hole pairs are formed and flow of electrons occurs. The conduction of electrons depends upon the intensity of light focused.



When diode is connected to Reverse bias, a small possible saturation current flows due to thermally generated electron-hole pairs.

As the current in Reverse bias flow due to minority carriers, The o/p voltage depends upon this Reverse current. As the light intensity focused on the junction increases, the current flow due to minority carriers increases.



The photo diode is encapsulated in a glass package to allow the light to fall onto it. In order to fall the light exactly on the depletion region of the diode, a lens is placed above the junction. even when there is no light, small amount of current flows which is termed as a "Dark current." By changing the illumination level, Reverse current can be changed.

A disadvantage of photo diode:

low noise

2. High gain

3. High speed operation

4. High sensitivity to light

5. Low cost

6. Small size

7. Long life

Applications of photo diode

1. character detection

2. objects can be detected

3. used in circuits that require high stability and speed.

4. used in demodulation

5. used in switching circuits

6. used in encoders

7. used in optical communication equipment.

LED (Light Emitting Diode):

This one is the most popular diodes used in our daily life. This is also a normal

PN-junction diode except that instead of silicon and germanium, the materials like gallium arsenide, gallium arsenide phosphide are used in this construction.

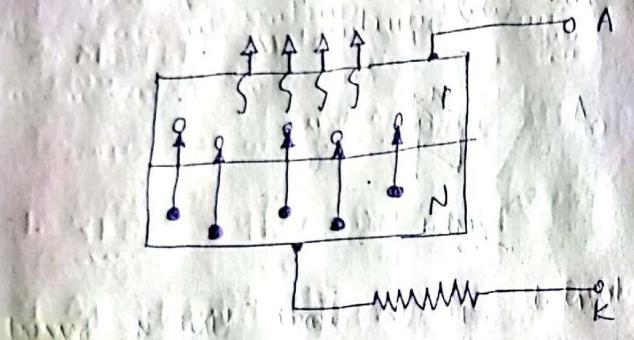


Symbol

Like a normal PN-junction diode this is connected in forward bias condition so that the diode conducts. The conduction takes place in LED when the free electron in the conduction band combine with the hole in the valence band. This process of recombination emits light. This process is also called as "electroluminescence". The color of the light emitted depends upon the gap b/w the energy bands.

The materials used also the colors like, gallium arsenide, phosphide emit either red or yellow, gallium phosphide emit red or green, gallium nitrate emit blue - white

Gallium arsenide emits infrared light. The LEDs for non-visible infrared light are used mostly in remote control.



### Basic Structure of LED

### Advantages of LED:

1. High efficiency
2. High Speed
3. High Reliability
4. Low Heat dissipation
5. Longer life span
6. Low Cost
7. No UV Radiation

### IV - UNIT

### FIELD-EFFECT TRANSISTORS

The field effect transistor is a unipolar transistor in which current is controlled by the variation of electric field.

→ It have three terminals

1. Source
  2. Gate
  3. Drain
1. Source: It is the first terminal of the FET through which charge carriers are enter into the bar.
  2. Gate: it is the second terminal of the FET through which charge carrier are move source to drain
  3. Drain: it is the third terminal of the FET through which charge carriers have the load.

Types of FET: There are 2 types of FET

1. JFET (Junction field effect transistor)

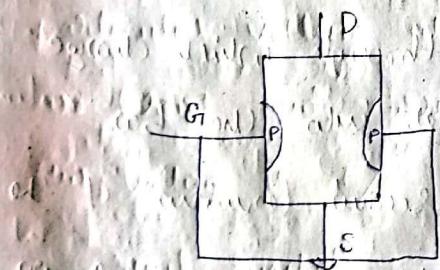
2. MOSFET (Metal Oxide Semiconductor effect transistor)

1. JFET: There are 2 types of JFET

i) n-channel JFET

ii) p-channel JFET

i) N-channel JFET:

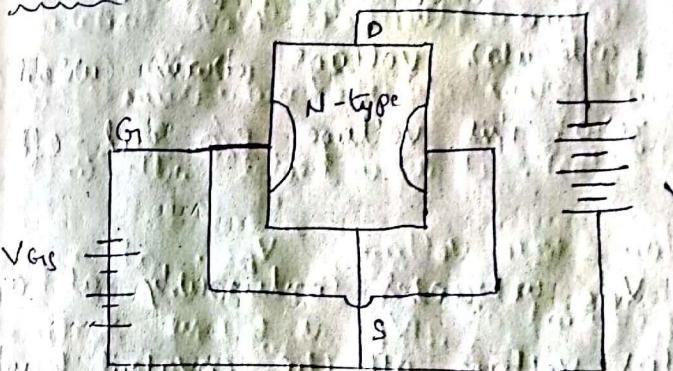


The n-channel JFET consist by n-type lightly doped semiconductor I/O channel and a p-type material are diffused on the both side of channels which are internally connected with a terminal

P/O gate, do the both side of channel conducting material are attached known as source and drain.

Note: source and drain, both are interchanged.

Working:



Circuit Diagram

The circuit diagram of n-channel JFET, in which gate terminal connect in the reverse biased with respect to source and source is connect in the forward biasing with respect to drain.

when no any potential is applied across the gate terminal the electron moves toward the drain from the source and drain current

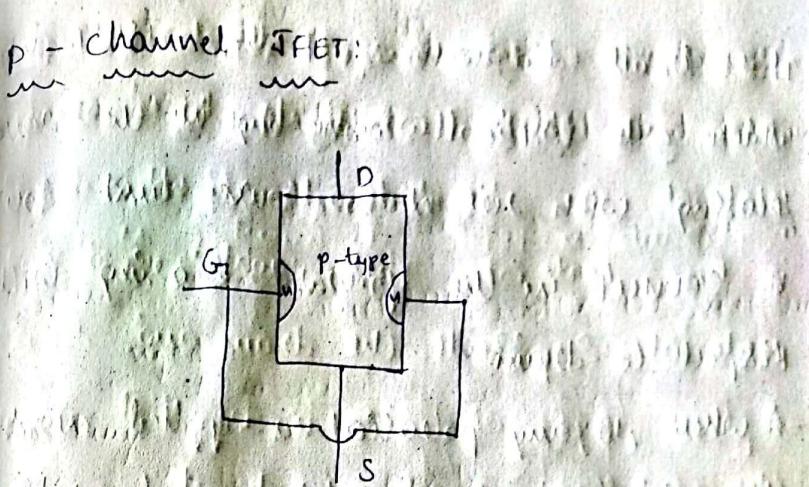
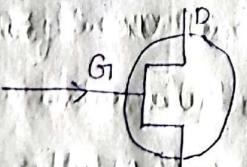
start to flow, it is increased when increasing the drain source voltage ( $V_{DS}$ ), at a particular potential of  $V_{DS}$  it becomes saturable. But

when reverse biasing applying across gate terminal is increased, the width of the depletion layer is increased. Therefore  $I_D$  decreases.

At a particular voltage drain current ( $I_D$ ) becomes zero. This voltage is R/o cut-off voltage.

when  $V_{DS}$  increases continuously at a particular voltage all the covalent bonds are break and current increases majorly this voltage is R/o breakdown voltage.

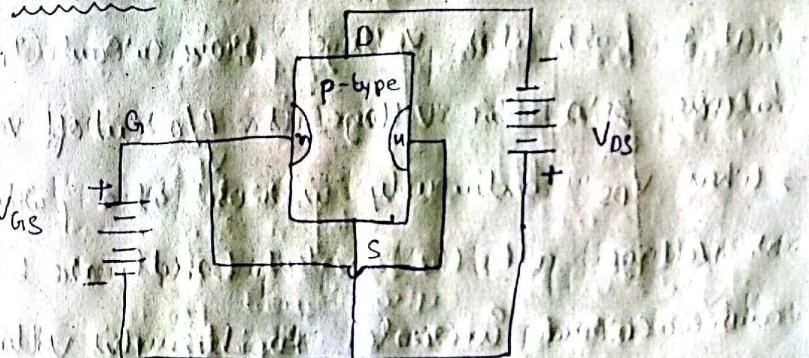
Circuit symbol:



The p-channel JFET carried by p-type lightly doped semiconductor R/o channel and a N-type material are diffused on the both side of channel which are internally connected with a terminal R/o gate.

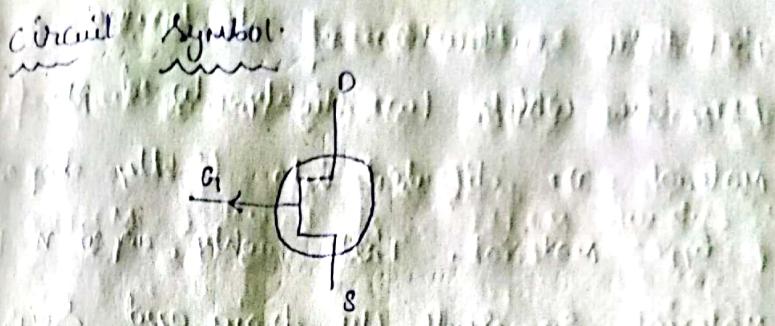
On the both side of channel two conducting material are attached R/o source and drain

WORKING:

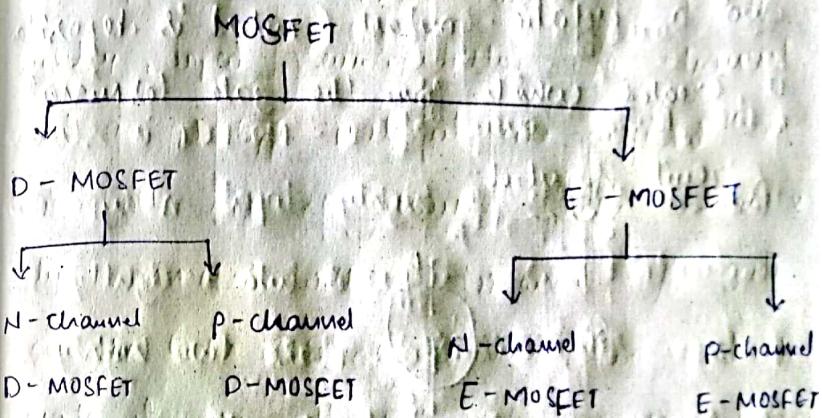


The circuit diagram of p-type TFT is which gate terminal connecting to the drain biasing with respect to source and source is connect in the forward biasing with respect to drain.

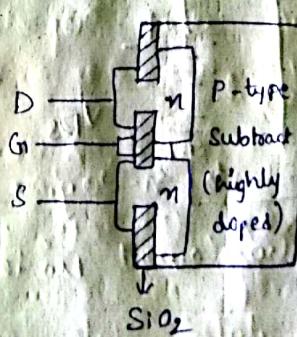
- When no any potential is applied across the gate terminal the holes move towards the drain from source and drain current start to flow. It is increased with increasing the drain source voltage ( $V_{DS}$ ). At a particular potential of  $V_{DS}$  it become saturation.
- But, when reverse biasing applying across gate terminal is increased. The width of depletion region is created. Therefore,  $I_D$  decreases.
- At a particular voltage drain current ( $I_D$ ) becomes zero this voltage is R/O cut-off voltage.
- When  $V_{DS}$  continuously increased at a particular voltage all the equivalent bonds are break and current increases rapidly. This voltage is R/O breakdown voltage.



MOSFET (Metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistor)



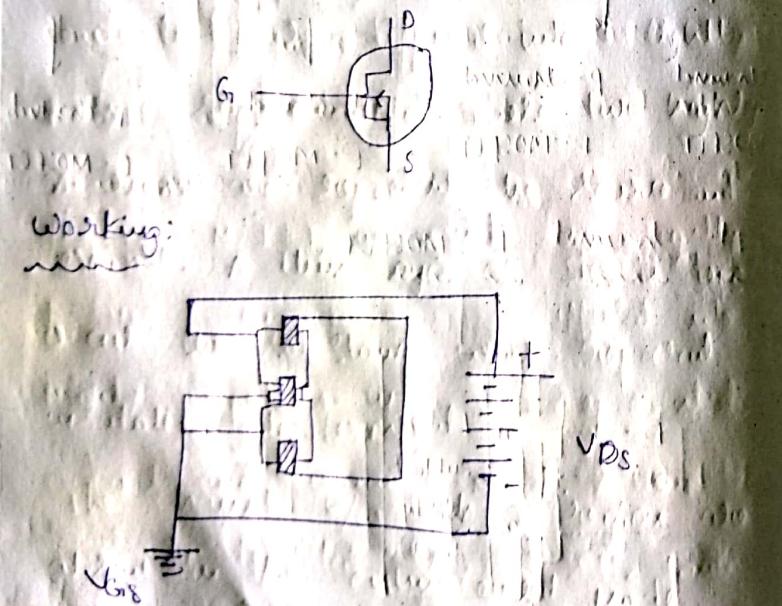
① N-channel D-MOSFET:



The basic construction of N-channel D-MOSFET is which two highly doped P-type FETs, in which two highly doped P-type material are diffused into lightly doped N-type material. These highly doped N-type material represent the drain and source. A thin layer of  $\text{SiO}_2$  is deposited over the substrate (P-type substrate).

and a metallic contact (metal is deposited) is created which form the gate terminal.

Circuit symbol:



Working:

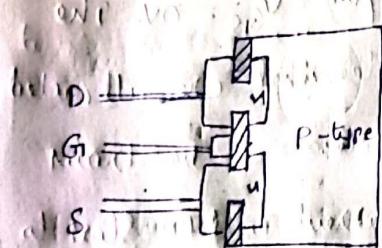
The circuit diagram of N-channel D-MOSFET is which gate and source terminal are connect to the -ve pole of the battery and drain is connect with the +ve pole of the battery. when  $V_{DS}$  is created keeping  $V_{GS} = 0V$ . The free electron of source terminal are attracted toward the positive terminal of the drain terminal and drain current will be start to flow.

→ if negative potential applied on the gate terminal is increased the gate terminal repell the conduction electron of the channel and attract holes from P-type substrate and recombination takes place at the junction. Therefore the no. of free electron at the junction is reduced therefore current is also reduced.

Note: if positive potential is applied across the gate terminal then the gate terminal attracted an additional electron from the substrate and

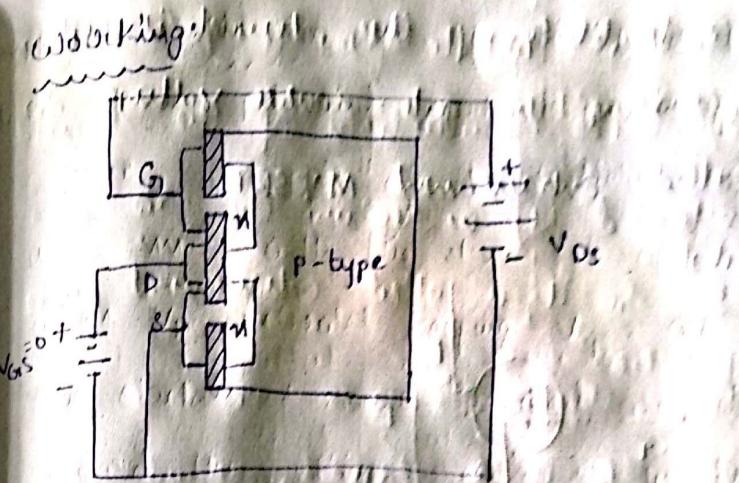
Conductivity of the channel is increased here  
ID-MOSFET behave like an enhanced MOSFET

2. Enhance MOSFET - (N-channel E-MOSFET):



→ The basic concept of E-MOSFET is shown in fig. in which 2 highly doped n-type semi conductors are diffused into a lightly doped p-type semiconductor. These two highly doped n-regions are separated the source and drain terminal. A thin layer of  $\text{SiO}_2$  is deposited over the substrate with depositant, the insulated gate terminal.

The channels (i.e. both n-regions) are connected in the common source mode. But for VGS > 0, the junction between the two



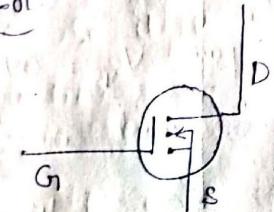
→ The circuit diagram of E-MOSFET is shown in the fig. in which a positive volt-ge 'U' applied across the gate terminal when the voltage applied across gate source terminals not 'U' zero, no current will flow due to the absence of channel.

→ When  $V_{GS}$  is increased in the positive direction the no. of electron near the  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer is increased and at a particular voltage a measurable current will be flow to the formation of channel.

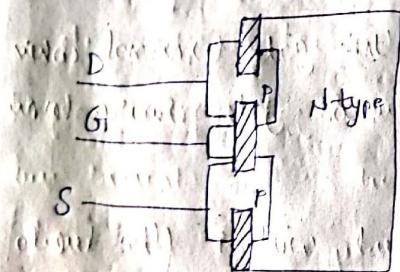
→ The voltage at which measurable current is start to flow is R/o Threshold voltage.

The conductivity of the channel is enhanced by increasing the gate-source voltage to it is called Enhanced MOSFET.

Symbol:



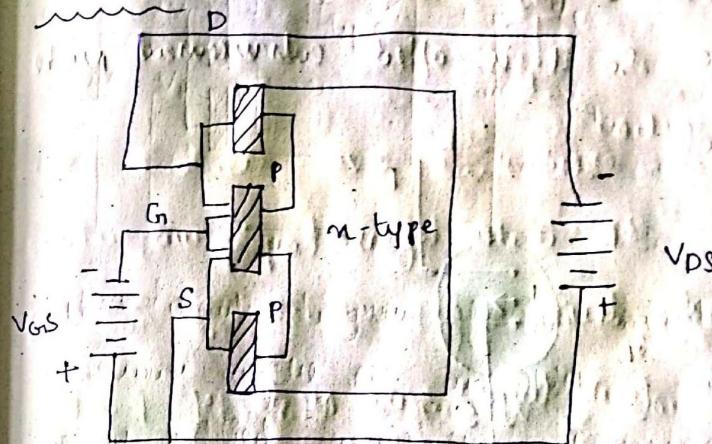
P+ channel IIE MOSFET



The E-MOSFET in which two lightly doped P-type semiconductors are diffused into a highly doped n-type are represented the source and drain terminal. A thin layer of  $\text{SiO}_2$  is deposited over the substrate which represents the insulated gate terminal.

The channel b/w both p-regions are absent in the enhancement mode.

Working:

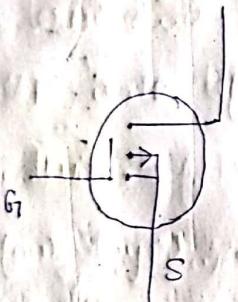


The circuit diagram of p-channel E-mosfet is shown in the figure. In which a negative voltage is applied across the gate terminal when the voltage applied gate-source terminal is zero i.e.  $V_{GS} = 0$ .

→ No current will be flow due to the absence of channel. When  $V_{GS}$  is increased in the direction the no. of holes near the  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer is increased and at a particular voltage a measurable current will be flow.

due to it starts to flow in enhancement mode. The conductivity of the channel is enhanced by increasing the gate + source voltage so it is called enhancement mode.

Symbol:



## UNIT - 5

### Thyristor

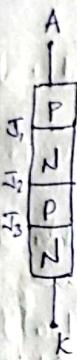
#### Silicon Controlled Rectifier

##### SCR:

- \* SCR is the most important and mostly used member of the thyristor family.
- \* Like a diode, SCR is unidirectional device that allows the current in one direction and opposes in other directions.
- \* SCR has three terminal device 1. Anode  
2. Cathode 3. Gate.
- \* SCR has built-in feature to turn on & off and its switching is controlled by biasing conditions and gate i/p terminal.
- \* SCR can handle several thousands of voltages and currents.

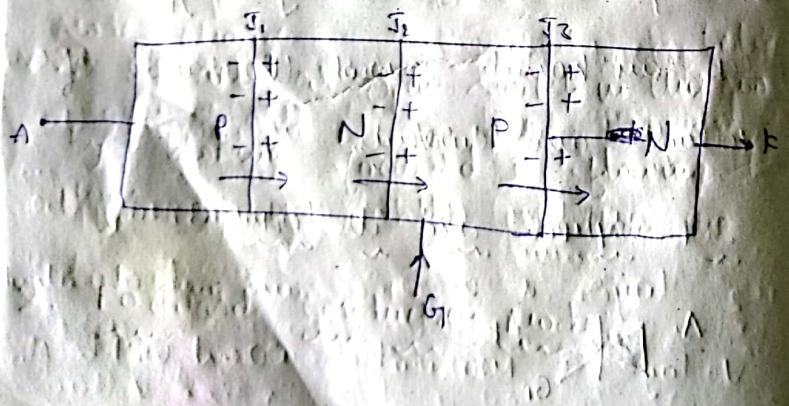
##### SCR symbol and its terminals:





Construction of SCR:

- \* The SCR is a four layer and three terminal device.
- \* The four layers are made of P & N layers, are arranged alternatively such that they form three junctions  $J_1, J_2, J_3$ .
- \* These junctions are either alloyed or diffused based on the type of construction.



- \* The outer p and n layers are heavily doped whereas middle p and n layers lightly doped.
- \* The gate terminal is taken at the middle p-layer. Anode is from outer p-layer & cathode is from outer n-layer.
- \* SCR is made up of silicon because as compared to germanium leakage current in silicon is very low.
- \* This connection is highly used for high power silicon controlled rectifier.
- \* To provide high mechanical strength SCR is braced with plates made of molybdenum or tungsten. And one of these plate is soldered to a copper stud which is further threaded to connect heat sink.

Working or Model of operation of SCR:

The operation of SCR is divided into three modes. They are:

1. Forward blocking mode

2. Forward conduction mode

3. Reverse blocking mode

1. Forward blocking mode:

\* anode terminal is (+ve) w.r.t. cathode while the gate terminal kept open.

\*  $I_g$ ,  $I_2$  are forward biased and the junction  $J_2$  is reverse biased.

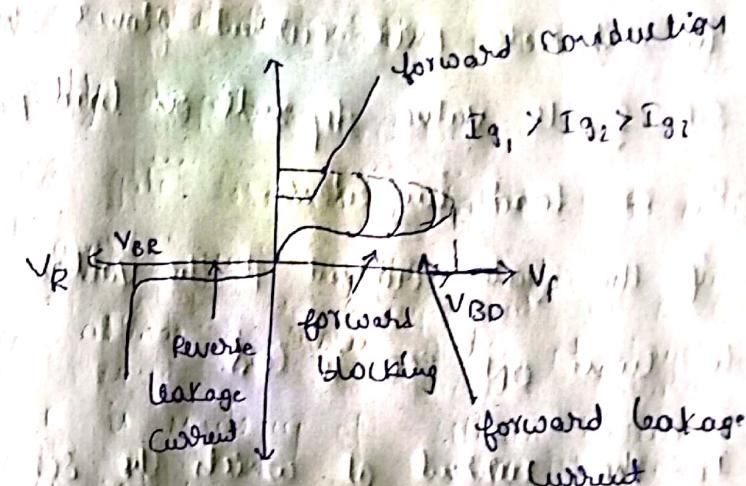
\* due to this a small leakage current flows through the SCR.

\* until the voltage applied across the SCR is  $V_{BR}$  than the breakover voltage SCR offers a resistance to current flow.

\* acts as open switch in this mode by blocking forward I flowing through the SCR.

2. Forward conduction mode:

V-I characteristic:



\* In this mode SCR comes into the conduction mode from blocking mode it can do in two ways

- ① applying the forward  $V_F$
- ② beyond the breakover  $V_{BR}$

any one of these methods is applied the avalanche breakdown occurs at  $I_2$ .

\* SCR turns to conduction mode & acts as closed switch current starts flowing.

\* if the gate current value is  $I_g$  the time will be the time to come in conduction

Mode at  $T_g > T_{g2} \approx T_{g1}$

- \* In this mode, max current flows through SCR & its value depends on load resistor - $R_L$  or load impedance.
- \* if the gate current & the voltage required to turn ON SCR is less than  $V_{BR}$ .

$I_L$ : The current at which the SCR turns into conduction mode from blocking mode.

Note: It is called as Latching Current.

\*  $I_H$ : forward current reaches to level at which SCR returns to blocking state is called Holding Current.

\* At this Holding Current level, where no mode change present depletion

Region starts to develop around  $T_2$ . Here,  $I_H$  is slightly less than the latching current because number of carriers in the

reverse blocking mode:

- \* Cathode +ve w.r.t anode (-ve).
- \*  $T_1$  and  $T_3$  reverse bias,  $T_2$  forward bias.

\* This reverse voltage drives SCR into reverse blocking mode which results a small flow of leakage current through it and acts as open switch.

\* until applied voltage is less than  $V_{BR}$  (Reverse breakdown voltage) the device offers  $\uparrow$  impedance.

\* if reverse applied vkg  $\uparrow$  than  $V_{BR}$  the avalanche breakdown occurs at  $T_1$  &  $T_3$  which results to  $\uparrow$  reverse  $I$  flow through SCR.

\* This reverse current causes  $\uparrow$  loss & even to  $\uparrow$  heat of it.

\* So, there will be considerable damage to SCR when the reverse vkg  $\uparrow$  than  $V_{BR}$ .