

Chapter 05

semiconductors in semiconductors to obtain

Semiconductor:

A semiconductor is a substance which has resistivity (10^{-9} to $10^{16} \Omega \text{ m}$) in between conductors and insulators. (Ge, Si, C) + R

most bonds present are ionic bonded

Properties of semiconductor:

- i) resistivity in between conductors and insulators.
- ii) resistance $\propto \frac{1}{\text{Temperature}}$
- iii) can be converted into conductors by adding impurity.

most bonds are ionic bond

most bonds are ionic bond

Crystals & non-crystals

A substance in which molecules are orderly arranged

All semiconductors have crystalline structure.

Energy required to break co-valent bonds:

$$\text{Ge} \rightarrow 0.7 \text{ eV}$$

$$\text{Si} \rightarrow 1.1 \text{ eV}$$

20 वां सेक्षन

इ) Effects of temperature in semiconductor

: निम्नलिखित

निम्नलिखित विवरणों में से कौनसा विवरण सही है?

(i) At absolute zero: प्रतिक्रिया

At (zero degree. temp.) co-valent bonds are so strong and there are no free electrons.

विवरण (ii) का उत्तर निम्नलिखित है।

(ii) Above absolute zero प्रतिक्रिया

when the temperature is raised then the co-valent bonds become weak and there are some free electrons which allow flow of current through the semiconductor.

उत्तर (iii) का उत्तर निम्नलिखित है।

उत्तर (iv) का उत्तर निम्नलिखित है।

उत्तर (v) का उत्तर निम्नलिखित है।

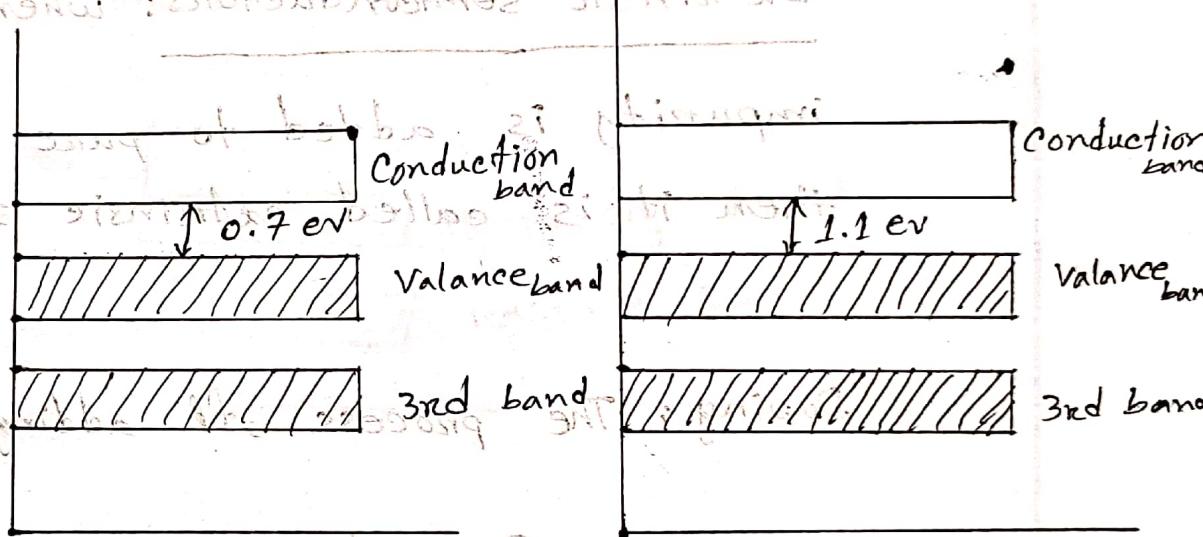
Vol. 8.0 → 30

Vol. 1.1 → 12

IV) Energy Band description of semiconductors :

A semiconductor is a substance which has resistivity in between conductors and insulators.

And diff. in Conductors and Semiconductors



Forbidden bands are very small in semiconductors.

B Types of semiconductors:

Intrinsic semiconductor: Pure semiconductors are known as intrinsic semiconductors.

Extrinsic semiconductors: when a little bit

impurity is added to pure semiconductor, then it is called extrinsic semiconductor.

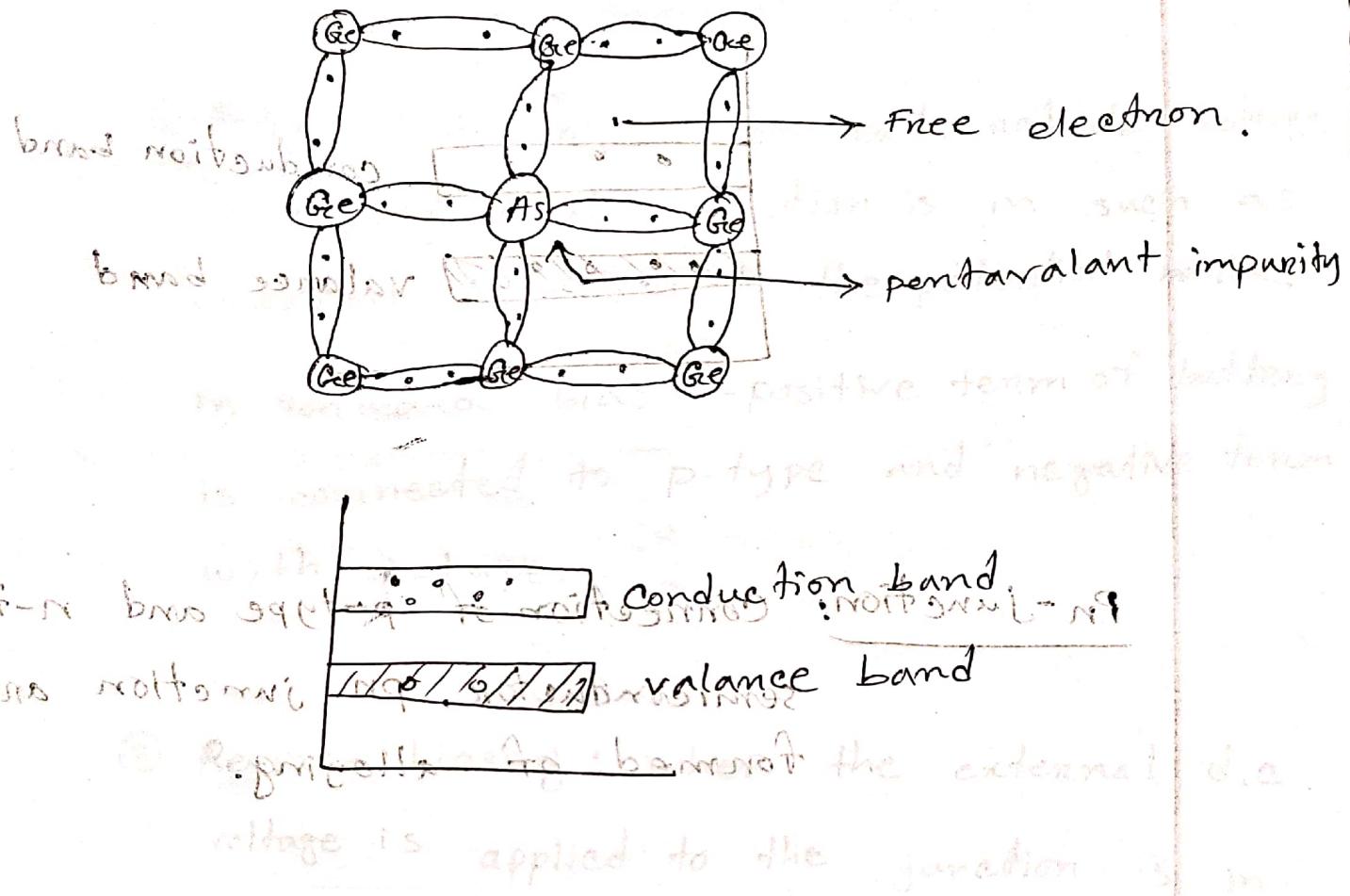
Doping: The process of adding impurity:

i) n-type

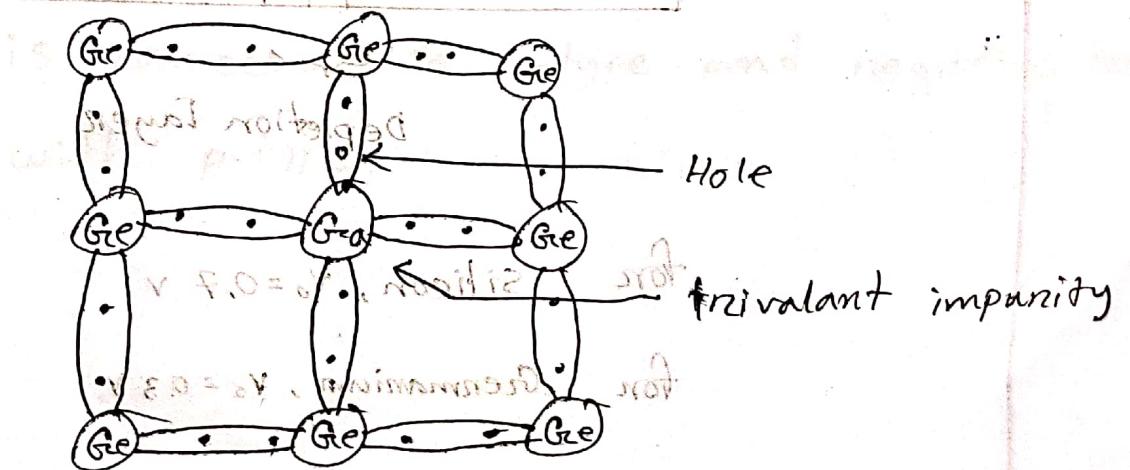
ii) p-type

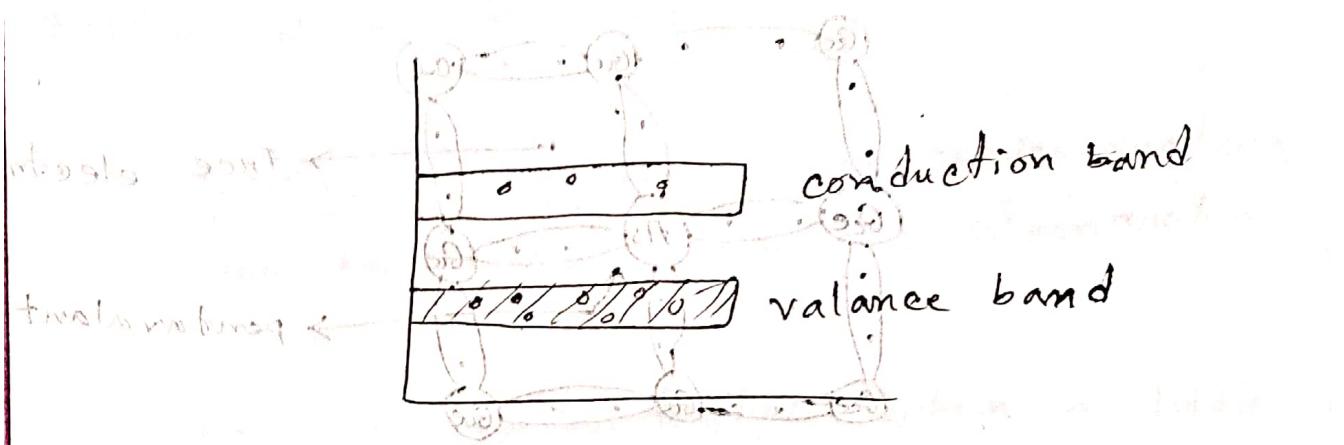
n-type semiconductor: when small amount of pentavalent is added to semiconductor.

Pentavalent impurity: arsenic, antimony, phosphorus

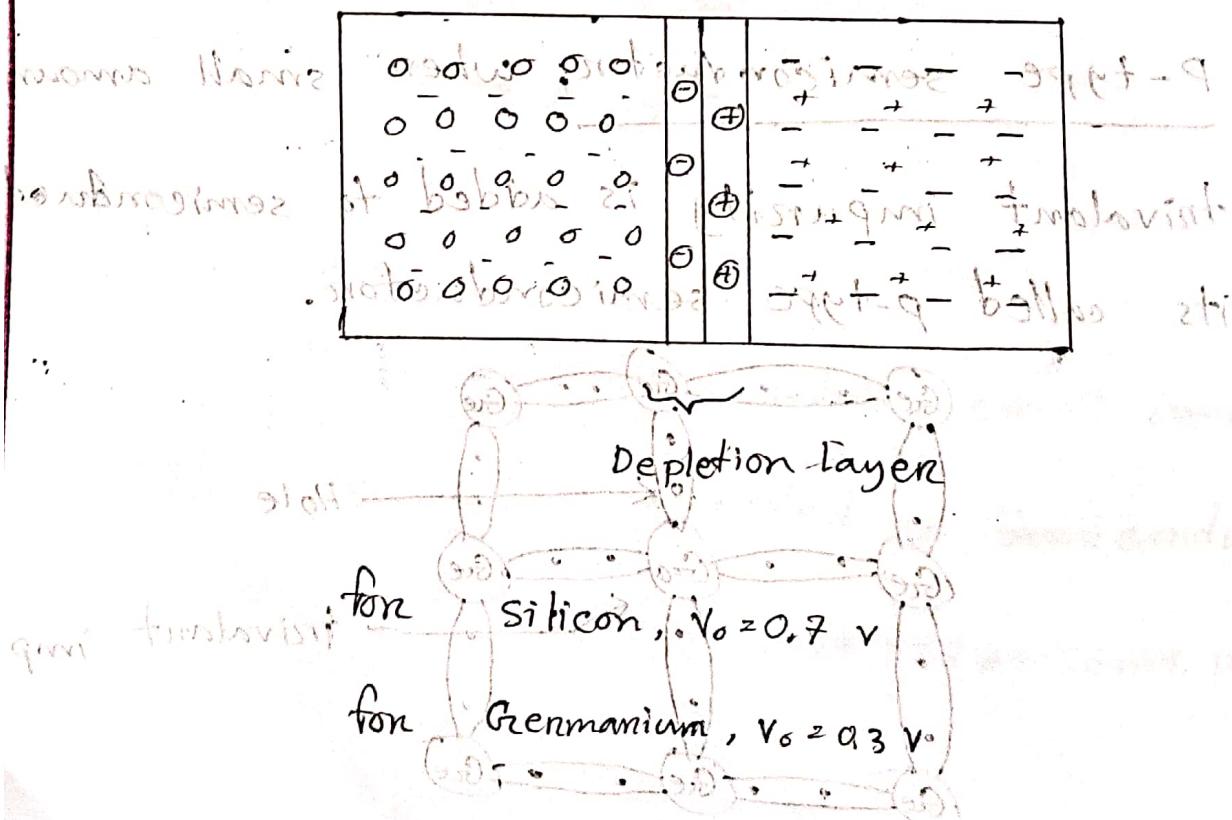


P-type semiconductor: when small amount of trivalent impurity is added to semiconductor then its called p-type semiconductor.





Pn-junction: Connection of p-type and n-type semiconductor. pn junction are formed of alloying.



Biasing :

: ~~forward biasing~~ ~~reverse biasing~~ ~~forward biasing~~ ~~reverse biasing~~

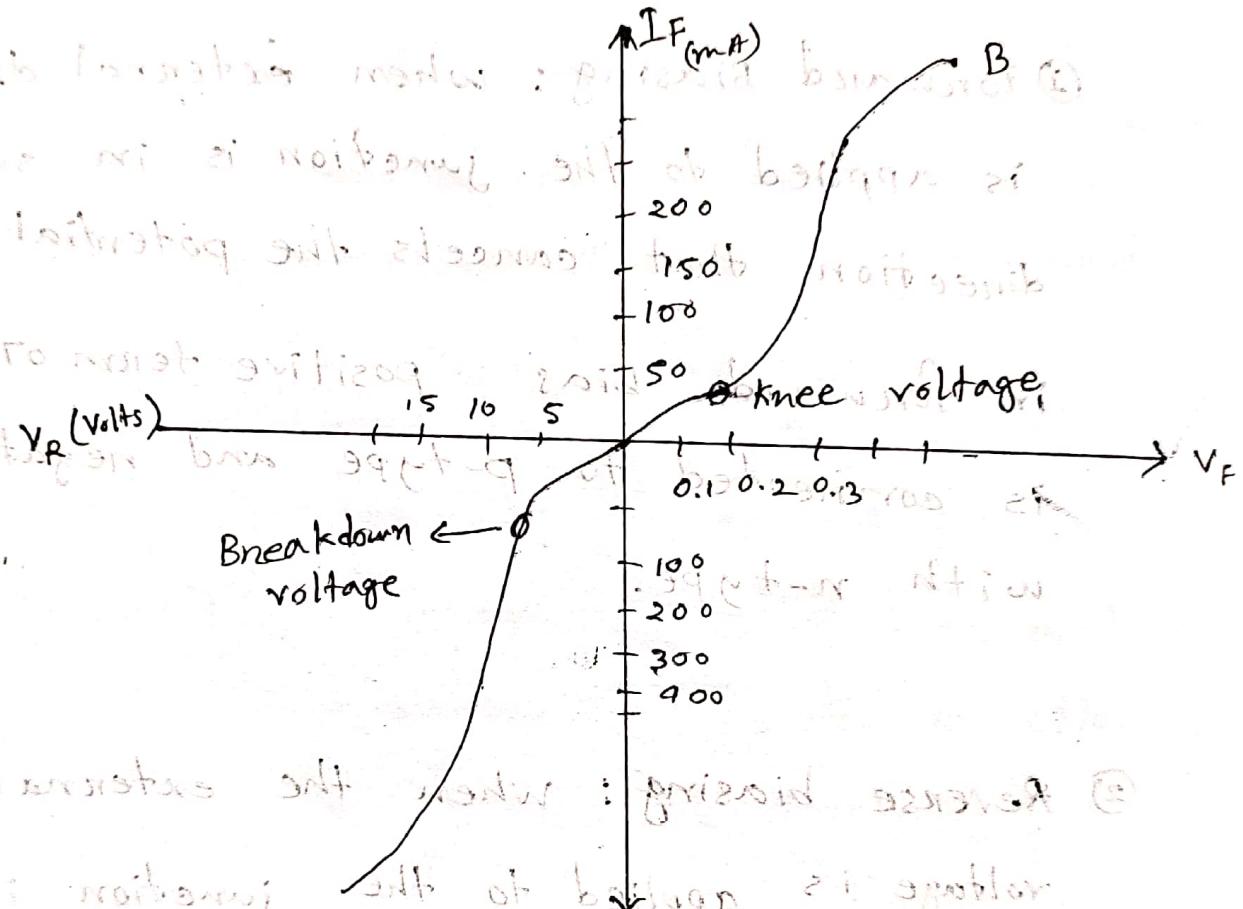
① Forward Biasing : when external dc voltage is applied to the junction in such a direction that connects the potential barrier.

in forward bias positive term of battery is connected to p-type and negative term with n-type.

② Reverse biasing : when the external d.c voltage is applied to the junction in such a direction that potential barrier is increased.

in reverse bias positive term of battery is connected to n-type and negative term with p-type.

V-I Characteristics :



a.b Transistor's Zener voltage : forward biased @

at no current limit of breakdown & if greater

negative voltage & with negative bias

breakdown can't sustain

negative no current limiting forward bias

no breakdown current of zener diode is

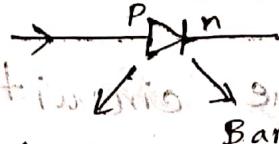
forward biasing current of zener diode is

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Diodes: Combinations of p-type and n-type

Two diodes in series with a battery

Forward biasing. Current flows in the diode



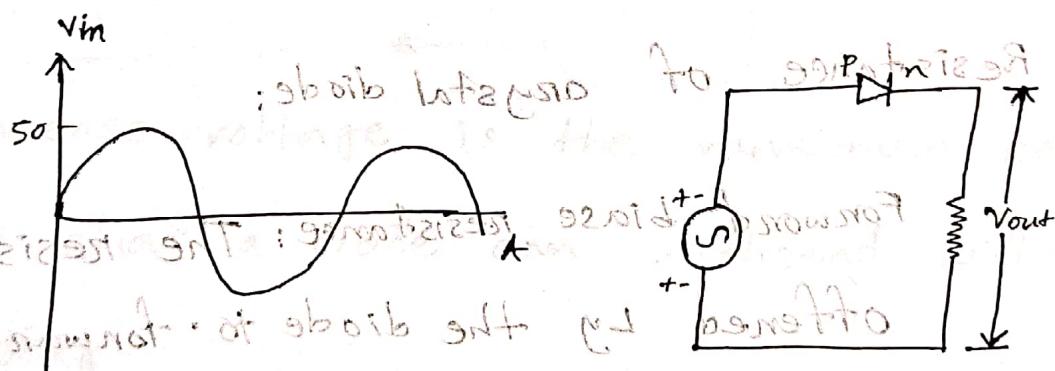
Reverse biasing. No current flows.

Current flows in the reverse direction.

Current flows in the forward direction.

Two diodes in parallel. The current is the sum of the currents through each diode.

Crystal Diode as a rectifier: AC \rightarrow DC



Series diode is reversed at

Forward current is the forward bias

Series diode is forward biased. Reverse bias is ob.

Forward bias of

Crystal diode rectifier. That forward bias

$$\frac{V_o}{V_s} = \frac{R_o}{R_s + R_o}$$

DC output

During the positive half cycle of ac input voltage the arrowhead become positive and diode is in forward biased. And it conducts current in the circuit.

This is how we get dc output from an ac input. Crystal diode works as a rectifier.

Resistance of crystal diode:

Forward bias resistance: The resistance offered by the diode to forward bias

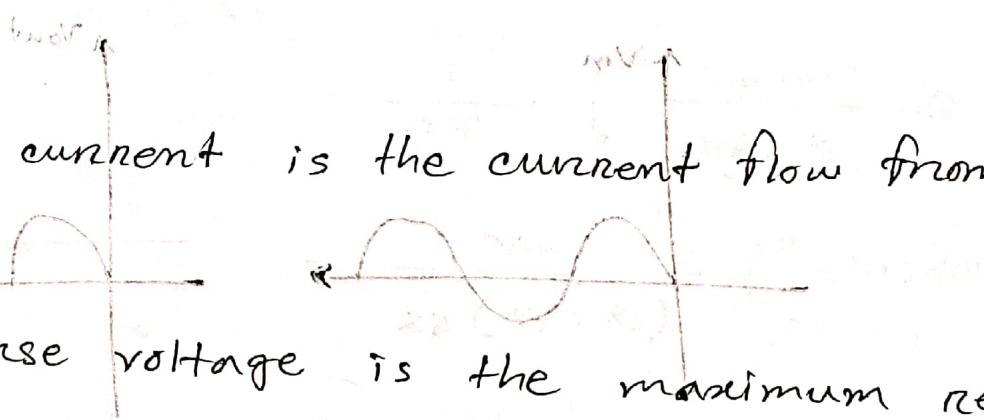
is known as forward resistance.

• DC forward resistance: $\frac{\text{forward voltage}}{\text{forward current}}$

$$= \frac{OA}{OB}$$

- AC forward resistance, $R_f = \frac{\text{changes in forward voltage}}{\text{changes in forward current}}$

should give increasing tanh θ without saturation
up to stage when voltage off
reverse resistance; The resistance offered by
the diode to the reverse bias is known as
reverse resistance.

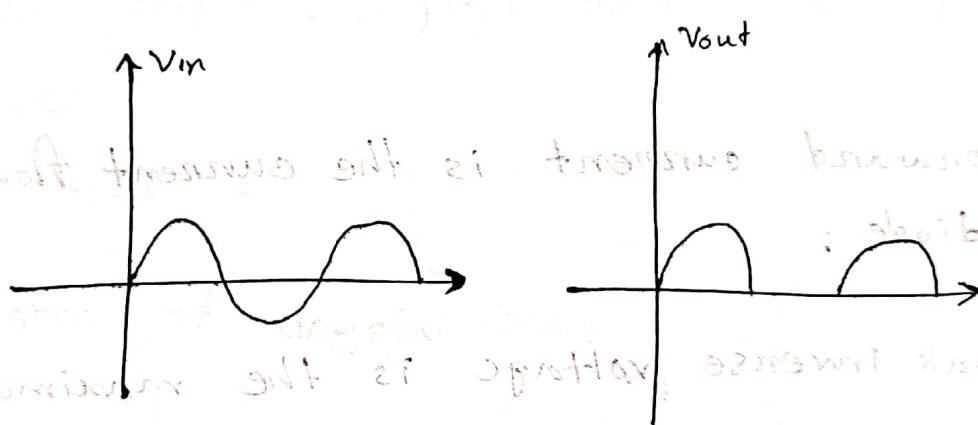


- Forward current is the current flow from forward diode:
- peak inverse voltage is the maximum reverse voltage that a diode can withstand without destroying.
- Reverse current is the current flow from reverse biased diode.
- Crystal diode rectifier that converts ac supply to dc supply.

• Half wave rectifier:

Forward bias on diode

- The rectifier conduct current only during the positive half cycle of input ac supply during negative half cycles no current is conducted.



Disadvantages:

- ① the pulsating current in the load contains alternating component whose basic frequency is equal to the supply.

- ② output is low.

Efficiency of half wave rectifier

$$(\alpha + \frac{1}{2}) \times \frac{V_m^2}{2} = \eta = \frac{\text{dc power output}}{\text{Input ac power}}$$

$\frac{V_m^2}{2}$ is input ac power

$$v = V_m \sin \omega t$$

R_f = diode resistance

R_L = Load resistance

$$\text{dc power} = (\alpha + \frac{1}{2}) \times \left(\frac{V_m^2}{2} \right) = \eta V_m^2$$

$$I_{av} = I_{dc} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi i d\theta$$

neglecting diode drop

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \frac{V_m \sin \theta}{R_f + R_L} d\theta$$

$$\propto \left(\frac{V_m^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{(\alpha + \frac{1}{2}) \times \left(\frac{V_m^2}{2} \right)} = \frac{V_m}{2\pi (R_f + R_L)} \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$\frac{iR_{load}}{R_f + R_L} = \frac{V_m}{2\pi (R_f + R_L)} [-\cos \theta]_0^\pi$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{2\pi^2 (R_f + R_L)} \times \frac{2}{\pi}$$

$$\therefore \text{DOP} = \frac{I_m}{\pi R_{load}}$$

$$\therefore \text{dc power, } P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 \times R_L$$

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

Input ac power:

Actual ac power will be consumed

$$\text{The ac power input} = P_{ac} = I_{Rms}^2 \times (r_f + R_L)$$

$$\text{for a half wave rectifier, } I_{Rms} = \frac{I_m}{2}$$

$$\therefore P_{ac} = \left(\frac{I_m}{2}\right)^2 (r_f + R_L)$$

$$\therefore \text{efficiency} = \frac{\text{dc power output}}{\text{ac input power}}$$

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

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{I_m}{2}\right)^2 \times R_L}{\left(\frac{I_m}{2}\right) \times (r_f + R_L)}$$

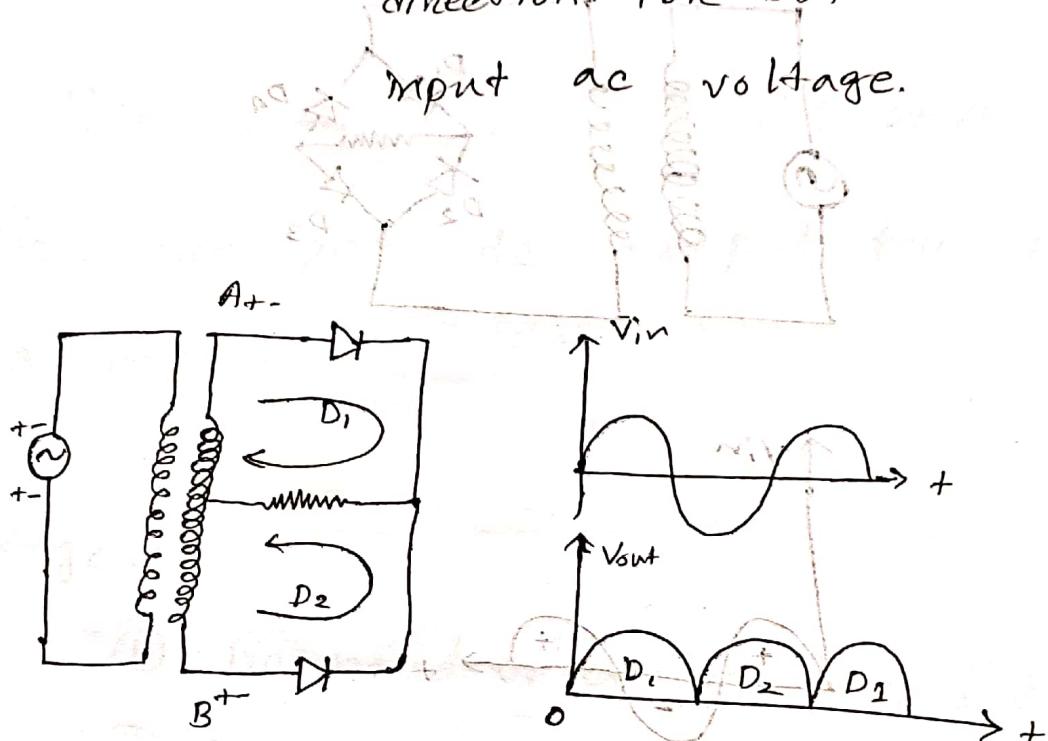
$$= \frac{0.906 R_L}{r_f + R_L}$$

The efficiency is maximum if r_f is negligible

$$\therefore \text{Maximum efficiency} = 90.6\%$$

$$= 90.6\%$$

Full wave rectifier: In full wave rectification, current flows through the load in the same direction for both half cycle of input ac voltage.

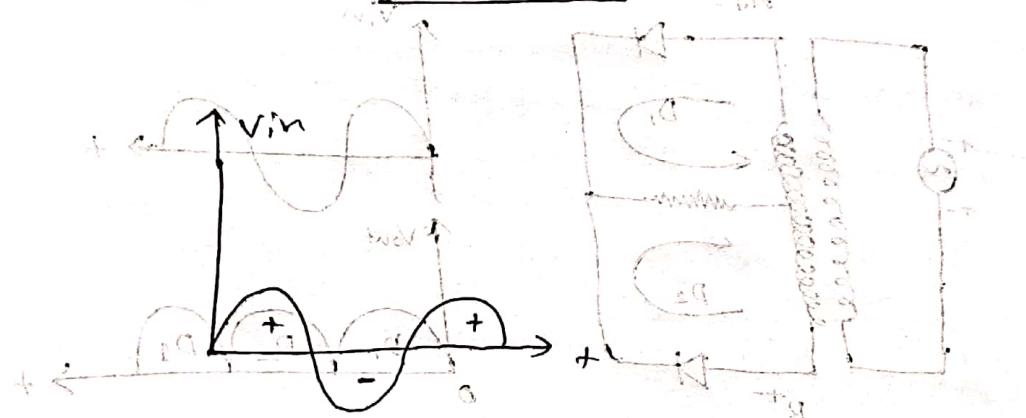
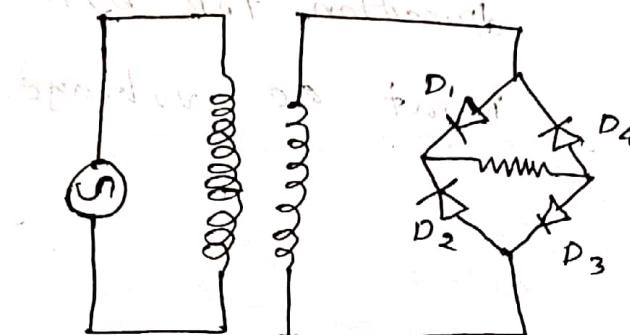


During the positive half cycle A is positive and this B is negative. makes D₁ forward biased and D₂ reverse biased. So D₁ allows current but D₂ does not. During the negative half cycle B is positive and A is negative. D₂ is reverse and D₁ is forward. This is how in full wave rectifier the both ac input gives dc output.

Full-wave bridge rectifier:

Half wave rectifier with diode

Full wave rectifier with four diodes



Advantages of bridge rectifier:

1. It requires only four diodes instead of six diodes required in a full-wave rectifier.

2. The need for a centre-tapped power transformer is eliminated in the bridge rectifier. During

the positive half-cycle, D_1 and D_3 becomes positive forward biased and current

flows and during the negative half cycles
D₂ and D₄ becomes forward biased and
current flows.

with this way from a full wave bridge
rectifier we get dc output for both cycles
of ac input.

Advantages:

(i) No need of centre tapped transformer

(ii) Less p.v.

Disadvantages:

(i) Requires 4 diodes

(ii) Voltage drop is twice.

Efficiency of full wave rectifier:

$$V_o = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$\text{and } i = \frac{V}{R_f + R_L} = \frac{V_m \sin \omega t}{R_f + R_L}$$

dc power output:

$$I_{dc} = \frac{4 I_m}{\pi}$$

$$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 \times R_L$$

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

ac power input:

$$P_{ac} = I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L)$$

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

$$\therefore P_{ac} = \left(\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 (R_f + R_L)$$

$$\therefore \text{Max } n = 81.2\%$$

Now, when efficiency is maximum
 $\frac{dE}{dR} = 0$

the efficiency will be maximum if its

$$\frac{\frac{dE}{dR}}{0.812R} =$$

$$\frac{\frac{dE}{dR}}{0.812R} =$$

$$\frac{(e^{\frac{R_f}{2T_m}})^2 \times R_f}{(e^{\frac{R_f}{2T_m}})^2 \times R_f} =$$

$$\frac{f_{dc}}{f_{ac}} = \text{efficiency: } n$$

Ripple factor: The output of a rectifier consists of a dc component and an ac component. This ac component is known as Ripple.

The ratio of rms value and dc component is called ripple factor.

$$\text{Ripple factor} = \frac{\text{rms value of ac component}}{\text{value of dc component}}$$

$$\text{half wave ripple factor} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{\text{rms}}}{I_{\text{dc}}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

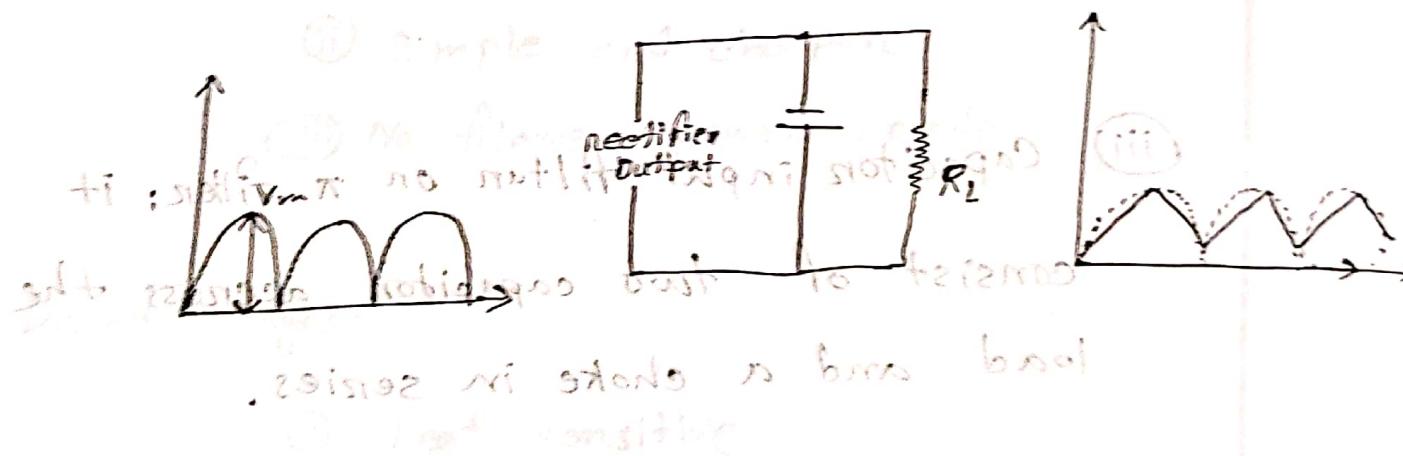
$$= 1.21$$

$$\text{full wave ripple factor} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{\text{rms}}}{2I_{\text{dc}}}\right)^2 - 1}$$
$$= 0.48$$

Filter circuit: A filter circuit is a device that removes the ac components of rectification.

There are three types of rectification:

i) Capacitor filter: It consists of a capacitor placed across the rectifier.



ii) Choke input filter: It consists of a choke (inductor coil) L connected in series with the rectifier and a capacitor C across the load.

Divided into two types

Without AC component

With AC component



With AC component

Without AC component

Options

To remove AC component

With AC component

Without AC component

Options

To remove AC component

With AC component

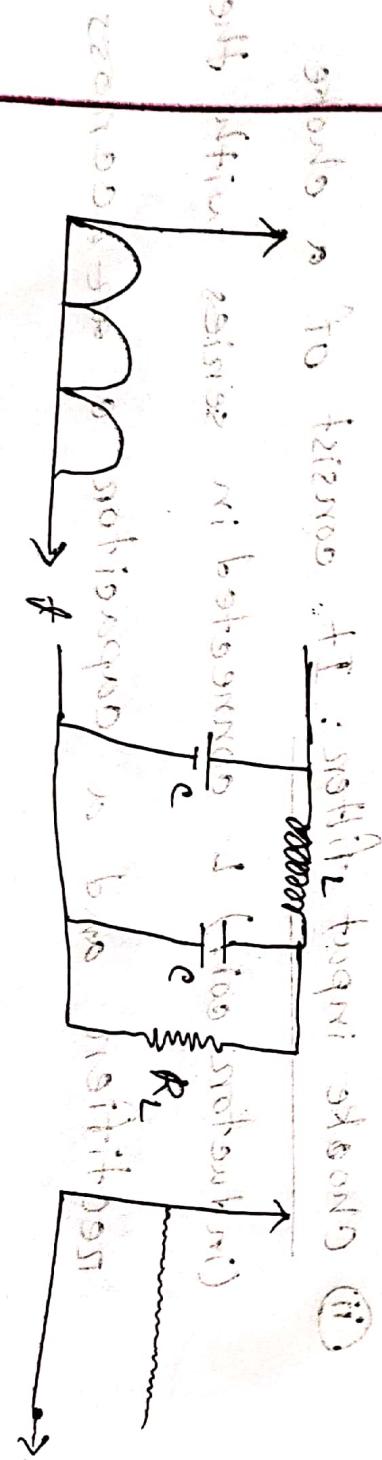
Without AC component

iii

Capacitor input filter or π -filter:

It consists of two capacitors across the

load and a choke in series.



Options

To remove AC component

With AC component

Without AC component

With AC component

Without AC component

- Crystal Diodes vs vacuum Diodes:

Semiconductor diodes have a number of advantages as compared to their electron tube counterparts (vacuum diodes)

Advantages:

- ① smaller, rugged and longer life.
- ② simple and cheaper
- ③ No filament power needed.

Disadvantages:

- ① heat sensitive
- ② handle small currents
- ③ can not stand on overload

Chapter 7

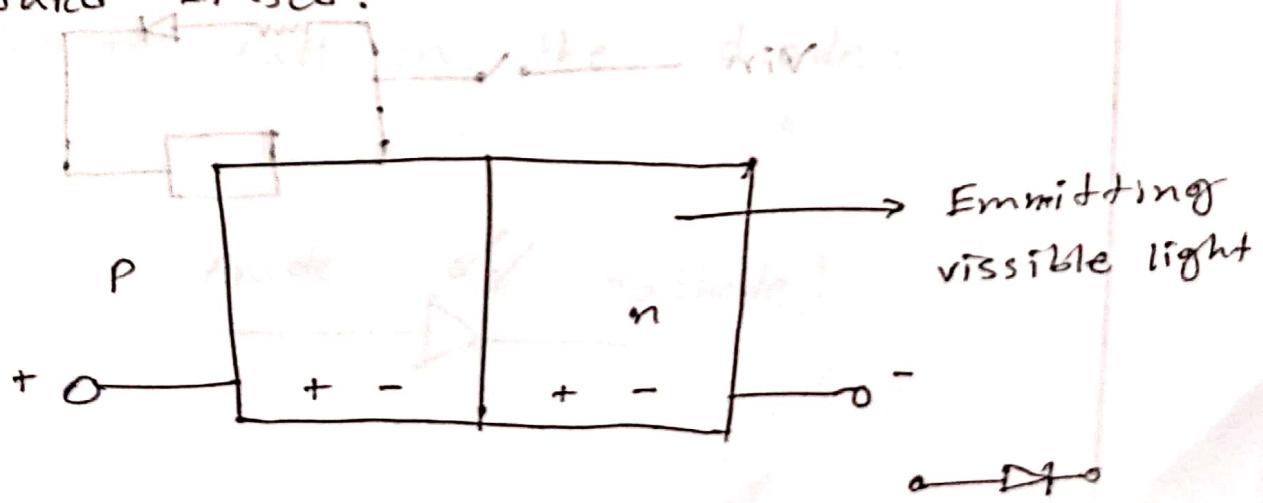
Special purpose of Diodes

Zener Diode :

A properly dopped crystal diode has a sharp breakdown voltage known as zener diode.

LED: The notation is an acronym of LED

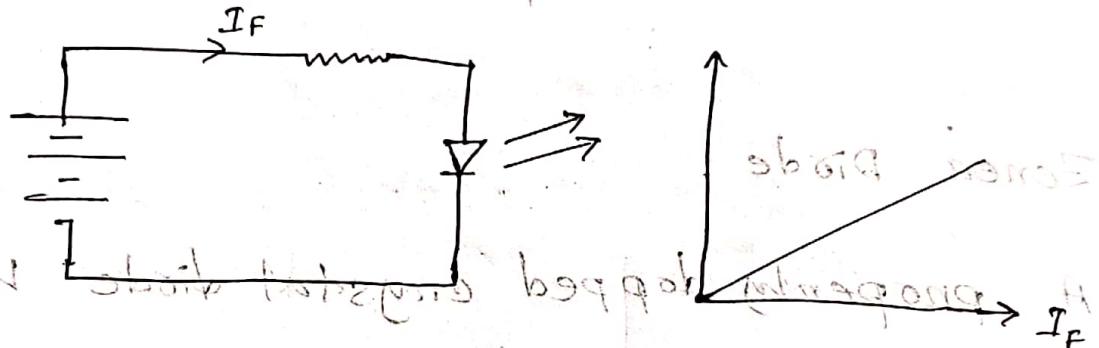
A light emitting diode is a diode that gives off visible light when forward biased.



F' system D

Led voltage and current:

is proportional to square of current

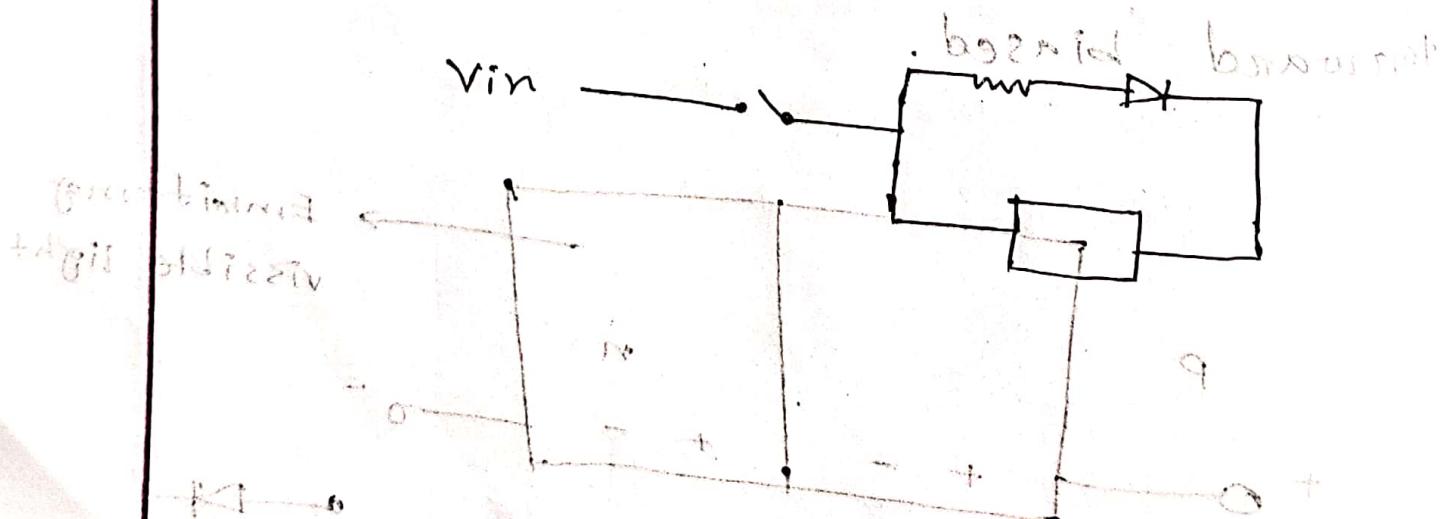


means as current increases resistance goes down

Application of Led:

Led is useful as an indicator but not good for illumination

① As a power indicator



(ii) Seven-segment display:

LEDs are often grouped to form a seven segment display.

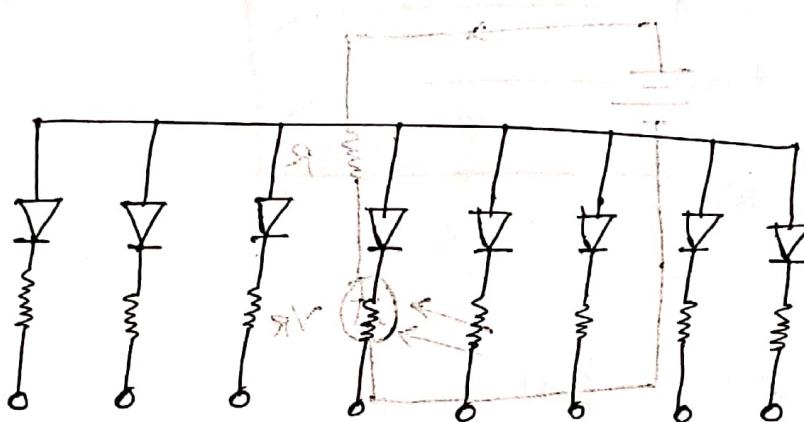
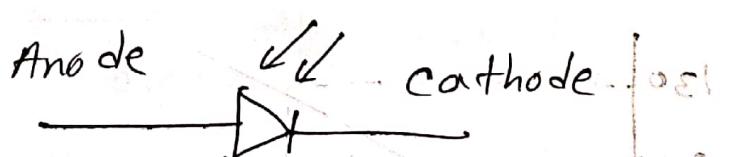


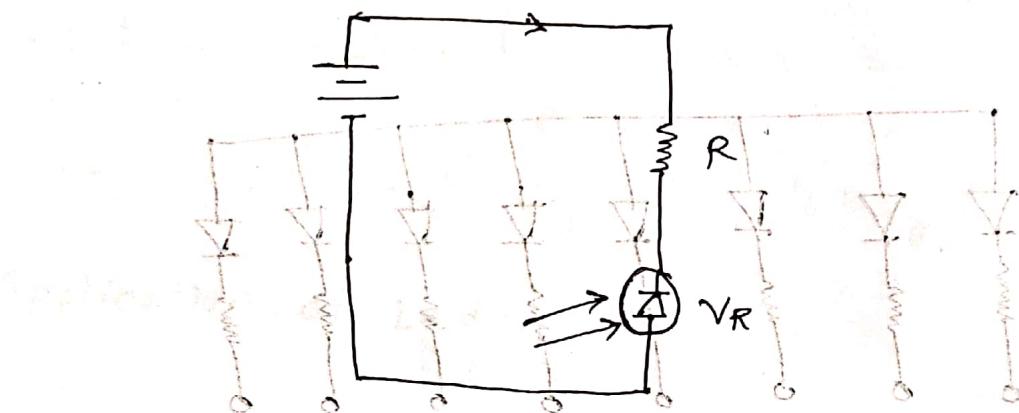
Photo diode:

a special purpose pn junction diode fabricated with a transparent window to allow light to fall on the diode.

Seven-segment display



* Transform energy incident to atoms
 photo diode operation:

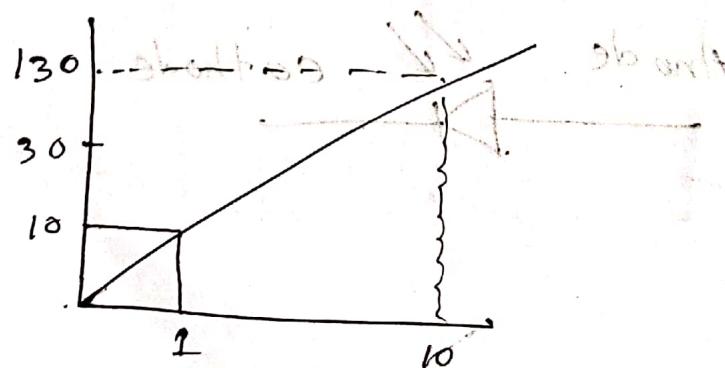


$$R_p = \frac{V_R}{I} \quad ; \text{absorb abord}$$

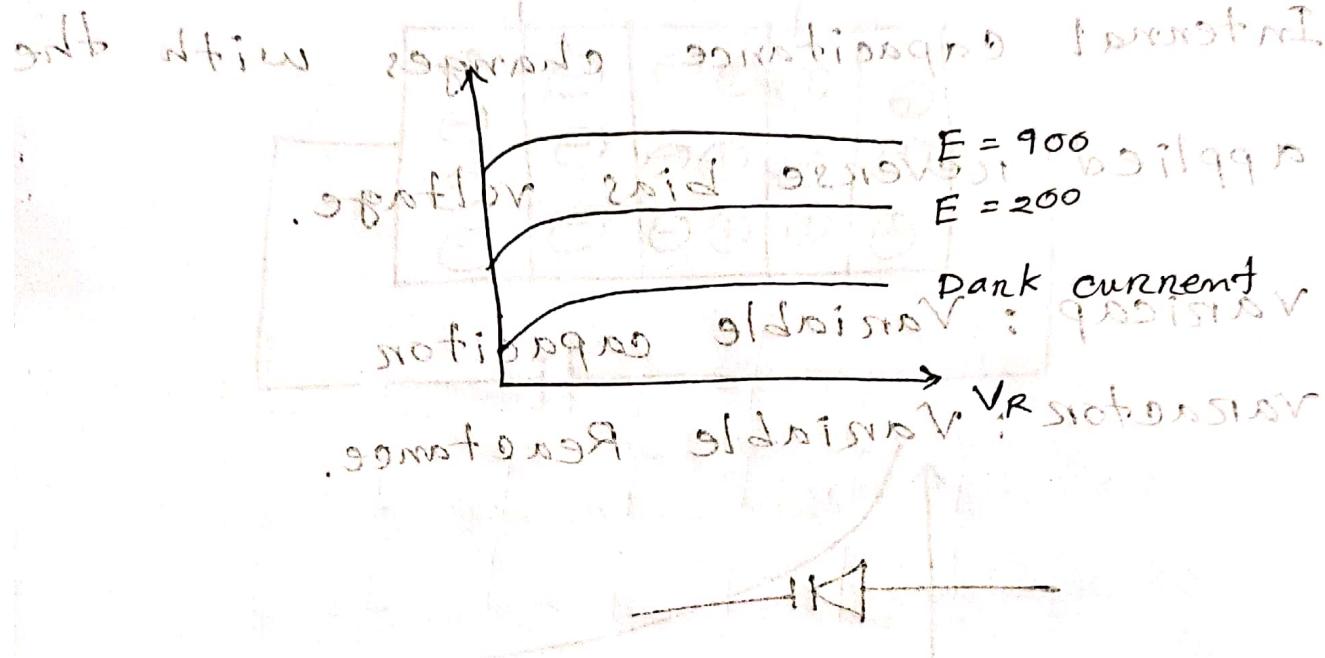
Dark current

Characteristics of photo diode:

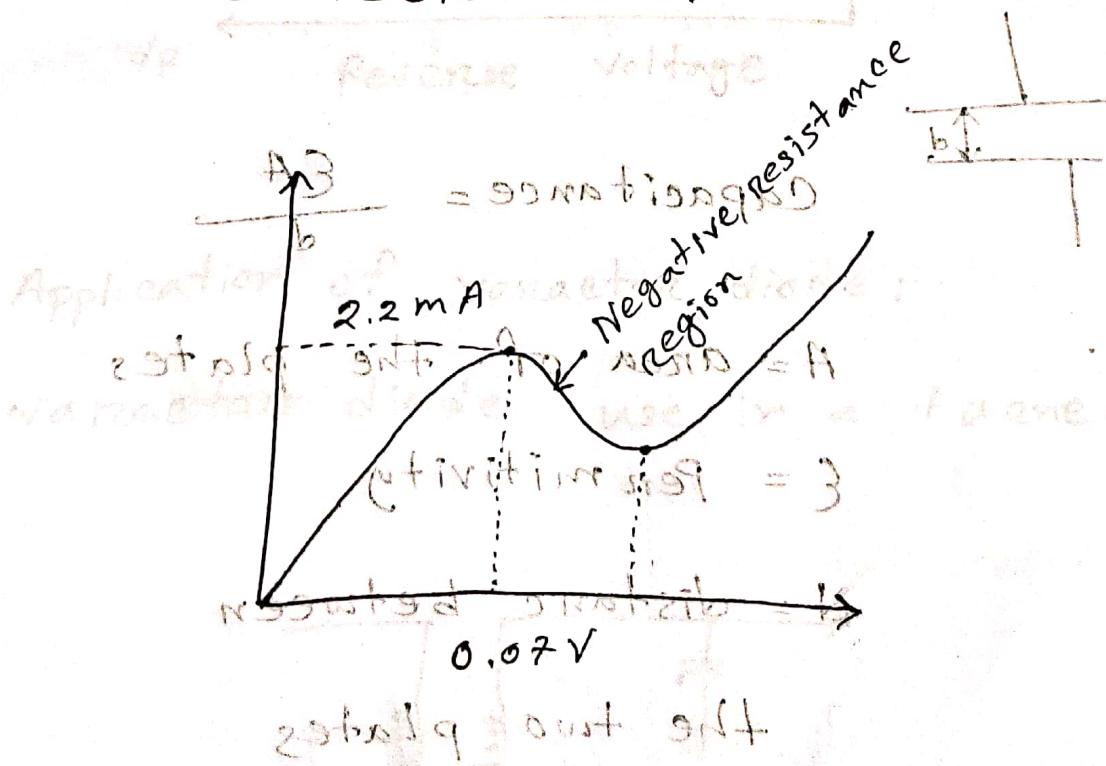
i) Reverse current - Illumination curve



(ii) Reverse voltage-current curve:



V-I characteristics:

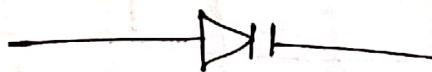


Varactor Diode:

Internal capacitance changes with the applied reverse bias voltage.

Varicap: Variable capacitor

Varactor: Variable Reactance.



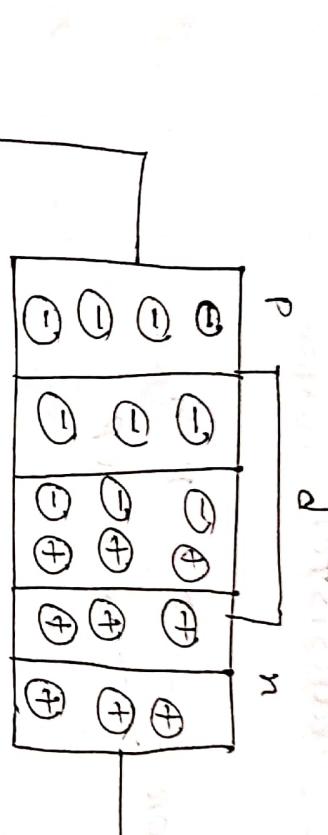
: Zener箝位反向電壓 I-V

$$\text{Capacitance} = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

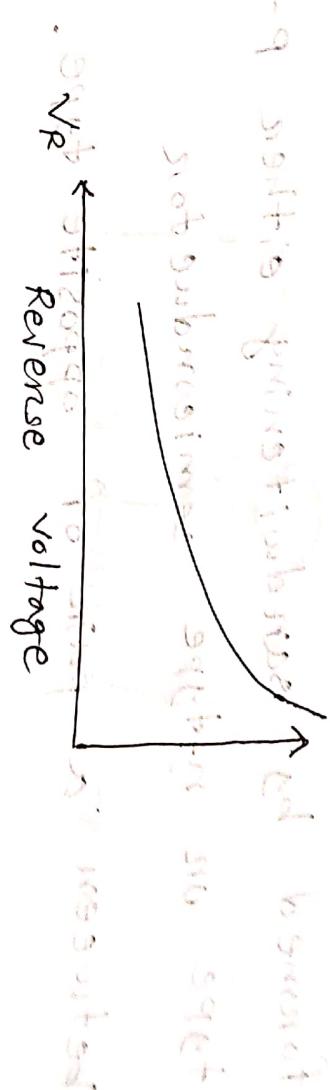
A = area of the plates

① Reverse μ = Permittivity

d = distance between
the two plates



Position of charge carriers in diode



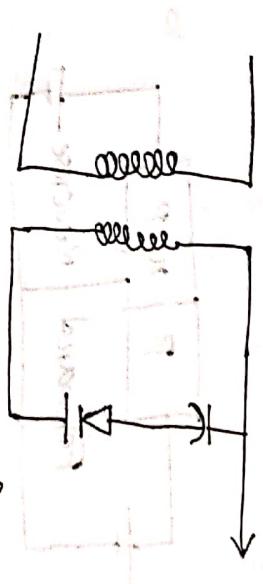
→ Resulting tunability can be given

↓ Not decreasing voltage in series



Application of varactor diode:

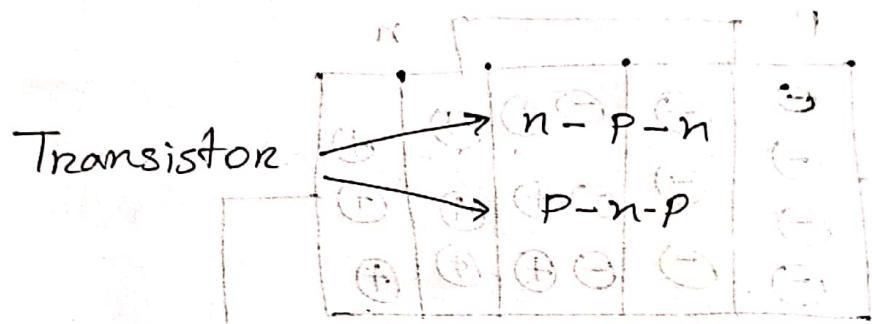
Varactor diode use in a tuned circuit.



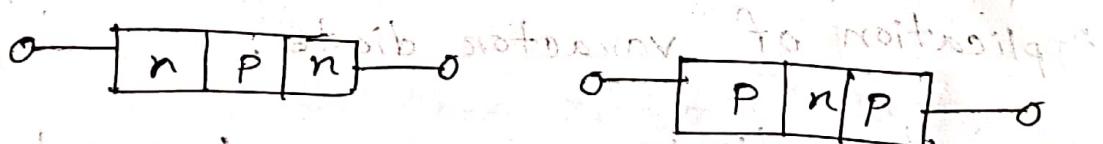
$$f_R = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

Chapter - 8

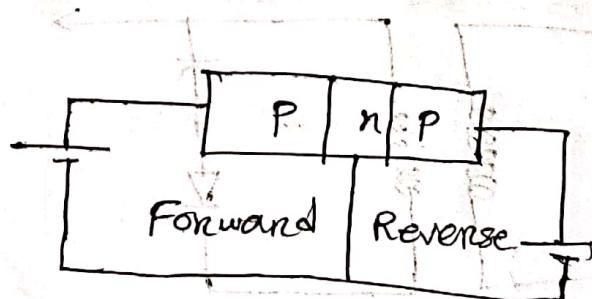
Transistor



A transistor consists of two pn junction formed by sandwiching either p-type or n-type semiconductor between a pair of opposite type.

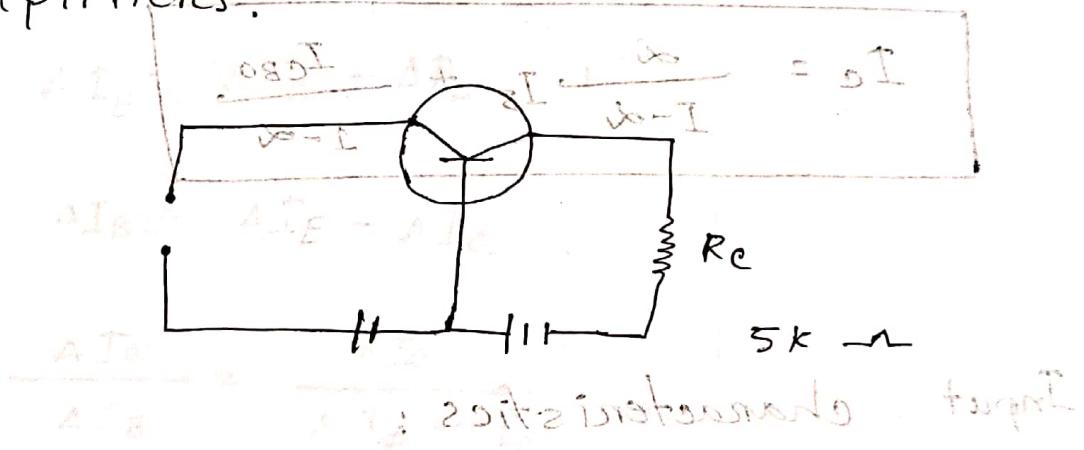


Transistor Terminals :



Transistor circuit as nano amplifiers

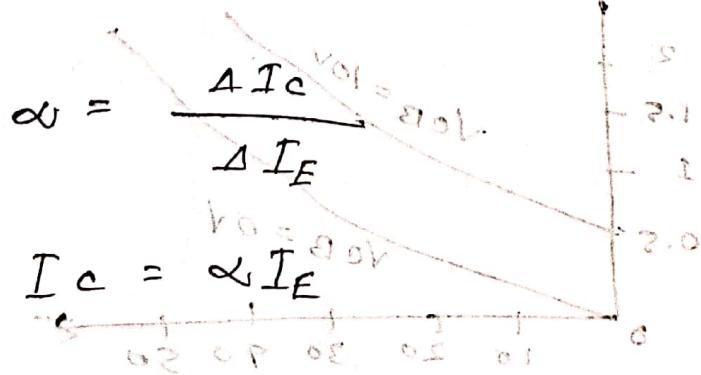
Transistor pair (raises) the strength of a weak signal and than acts as amplifiers.



Setting the current amplification factor (α)

$I_E \rightarrow$ Input current

$I_C \rightarrow$ Collector current



Total collector current, $I_C = \alpha I_B$

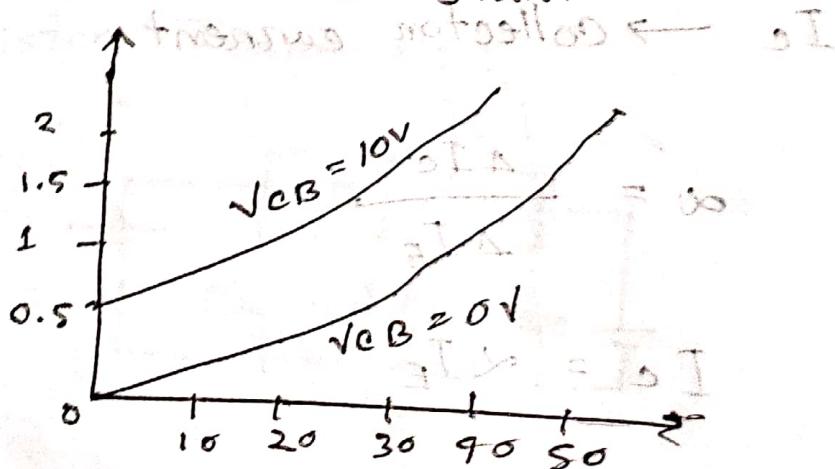
or, $I_C = \alpha(I_B + I_{CBO})$ not account

or, $I_C = \alpha I_B + \alpha I_{CBO}$ now

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

Input characteristics:

graph between current I_E and emitter-base voltage V_{EB} . When collector-base voltage V_{CB} is constant



Relation between β and α :

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_E} ; \quad \beta = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_B}$$

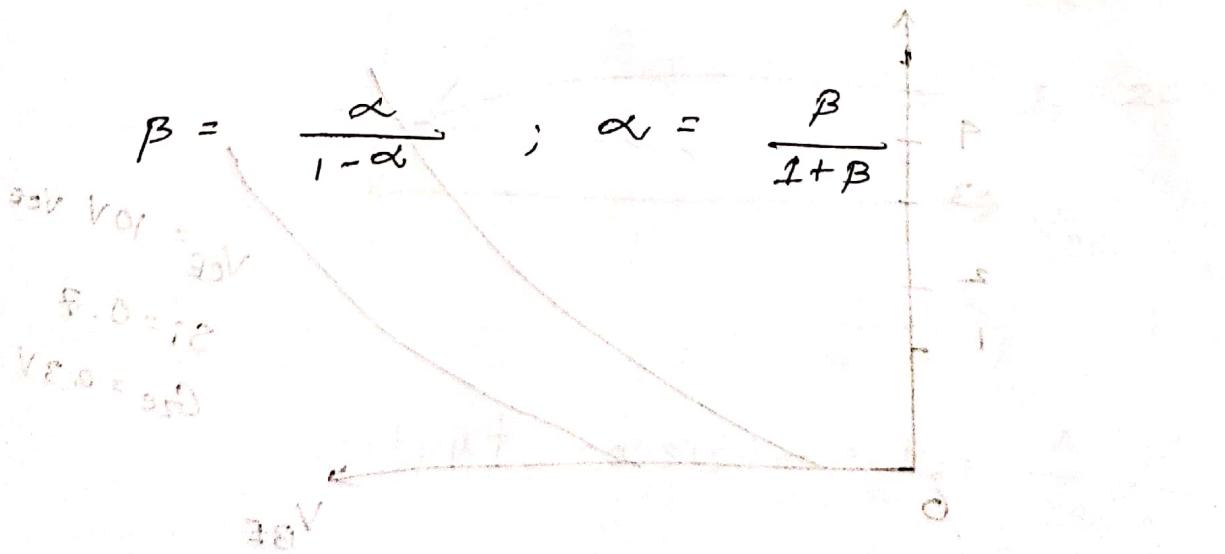
Now $I_E = I_C + I_B$ (at given setting - second)

$\therefore \Delta I_E = \Delta I_C + \Delta I_B$ (at given setting - second)

$\therefore \Delta I_B = \Delta I_E - \Delta I_C$ (at given setting - second)

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

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} ; \quad \alpha = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta}$$



Characteristics of common Emitter

Connection:

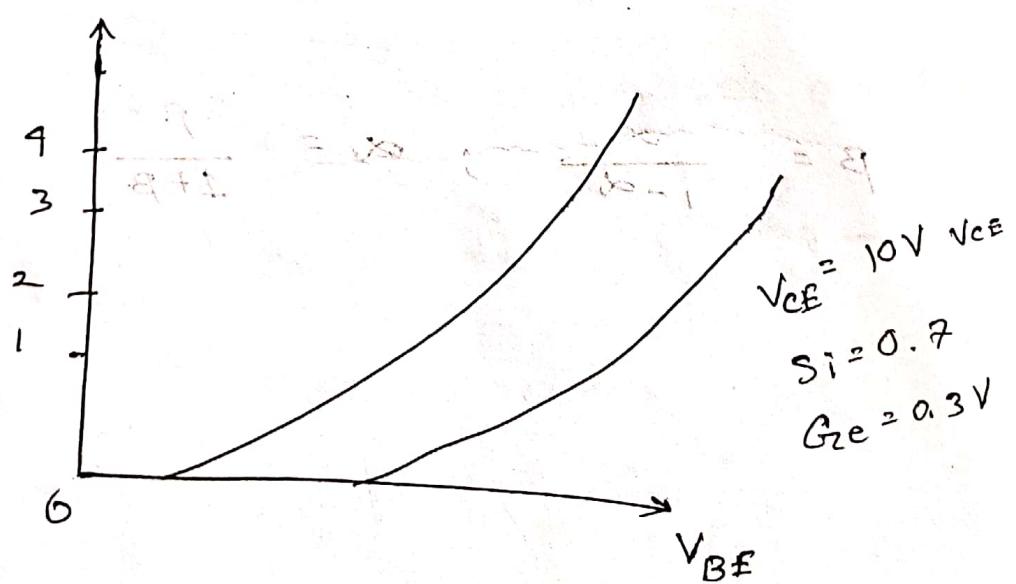
Input characteristics:

Curve between base current I_B and

base-emitter voltage V_{BE} at

constant at constant collector \neq

emitter voltage V_{CE}



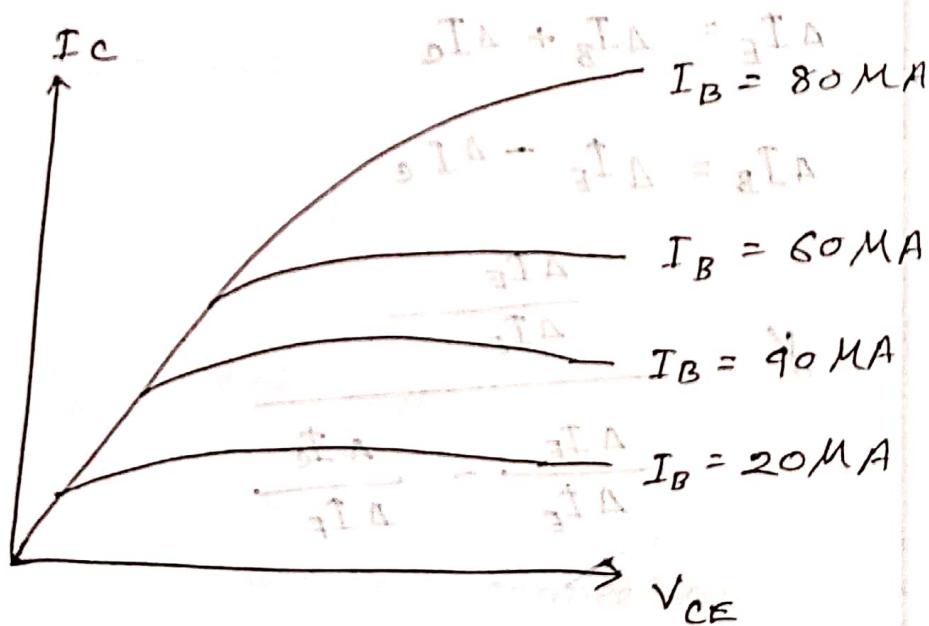
Output characteristics: ~~assumed neutral~~
~~constant component~~

Curve between collector current I_C and collector-emitter voltage V_{CE}

I_C and collector-emitter voltage V_{CE}

V_{CE} at constant base current I_B

$$g_T + g_L = \beta$$



$$\frac{1}{r_o} = g_T + g_L = \beta$$

$$\text{output resistance } R_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CE}}{\Delta I_C}$$

$$\frac{\alpha - \gamma}{\gamma} = \delta$$

$$A.M.Q.E = \frac{\Delta I_f^e}{\Delta I_e} - \frac{\Delta I_f^e}{\Delta I_a}$$

$$A.M.Q.F = \frac{\Delta I_f^e}{\Delta I_e} - \frac{\Delta I_f^e}{\Delta I_a} - 1^3 = 0.1$$

$$\Delta I_f^B = A_I^f - A_I^e$$

$$\Delta I_f^E = \Delta I^B + \Delta I^a$$

$$E = I^B + I^a$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\Delta I_e}{A_I^e}$$

$$\delta = \frac{\Delta I^B}{\Delta I^E}$$

Relation between δ and α :

Expression of collector current:

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

$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

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

$$I_E (\beta - \alpha) = I_B + I_{CBO}$$

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

$$I_E = (\beta + 1) I_B + (\beta + 1) I_{CBO}$$

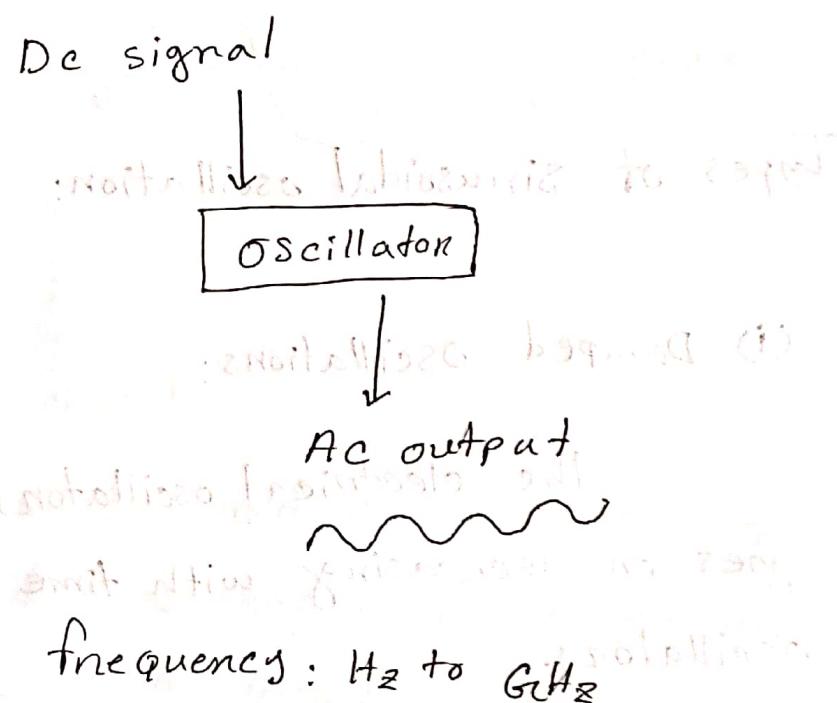
Comparison of transistor connection:

Transistor vs vacuum tube:

- ① High voltage gain
- ② lower supply voltage
- ③ No heating.

Sinusoidal Oscillator

An electric device that generates sinusoidal oscillation of desired frequency is known as a sinusoidal oscillator.



Oscillator is non-rotating electronic device.

Advantage:

- ① No sound production.
- ② No rotating parts.

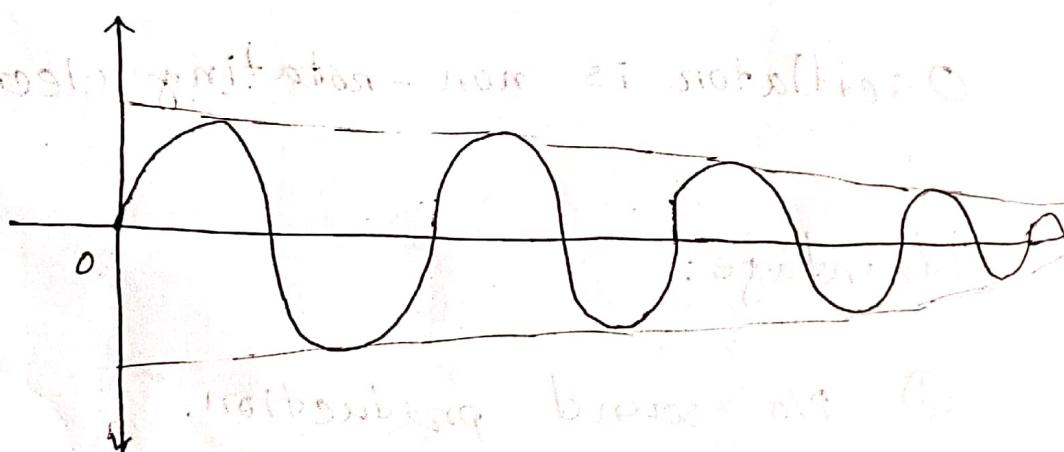
stabilized oscillation

- ③ Low and High frequency output.
- ④ Frequency can be changed as desired.
- ⑤ good frequency stability.
- ⑥ very high efficiency.

Types of sinusoidal oscillation:

(i) Damped oscillations:

The electrical oscillations whose amplitude goes on decreasing with time are called damped oscillators.



frequency unchanged

(II) Undamped oscillations:

The electrical oscillators whose amplitude remains constant with time are called undamped oscillators.

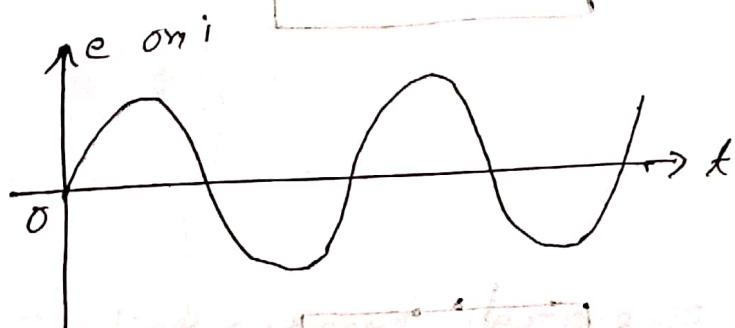


Diagram of an undamped oscillating circuit: A capacitor and an inductor are connected in series. The current in the circuit is sinusoidally varying.

A circuit which produces electrical oscillations of any desired frequency is known as an oscillatory circuit or tank circuit.

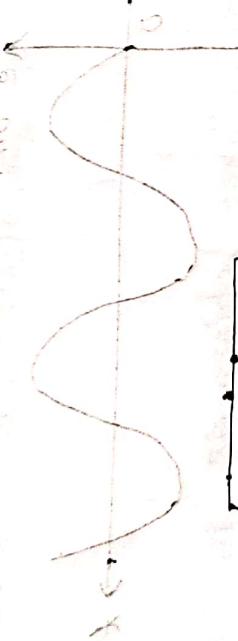
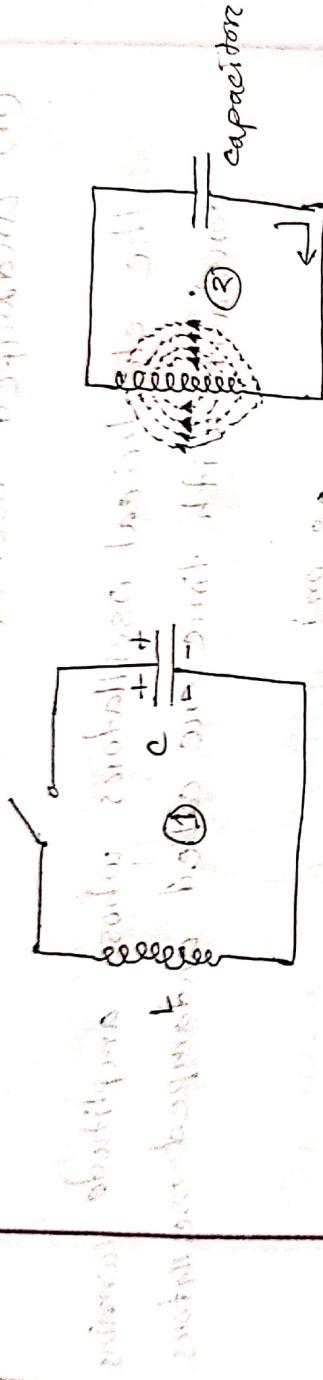
→ Circuits consists of a capacitor (C) and inductance coil (L) in parallel.

Frequency of oscillation is given by

$f = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$ where L is in henrys and C is in farads.

Q factor of a tank circuit is given by $Q = \frac{1}{2R}\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$

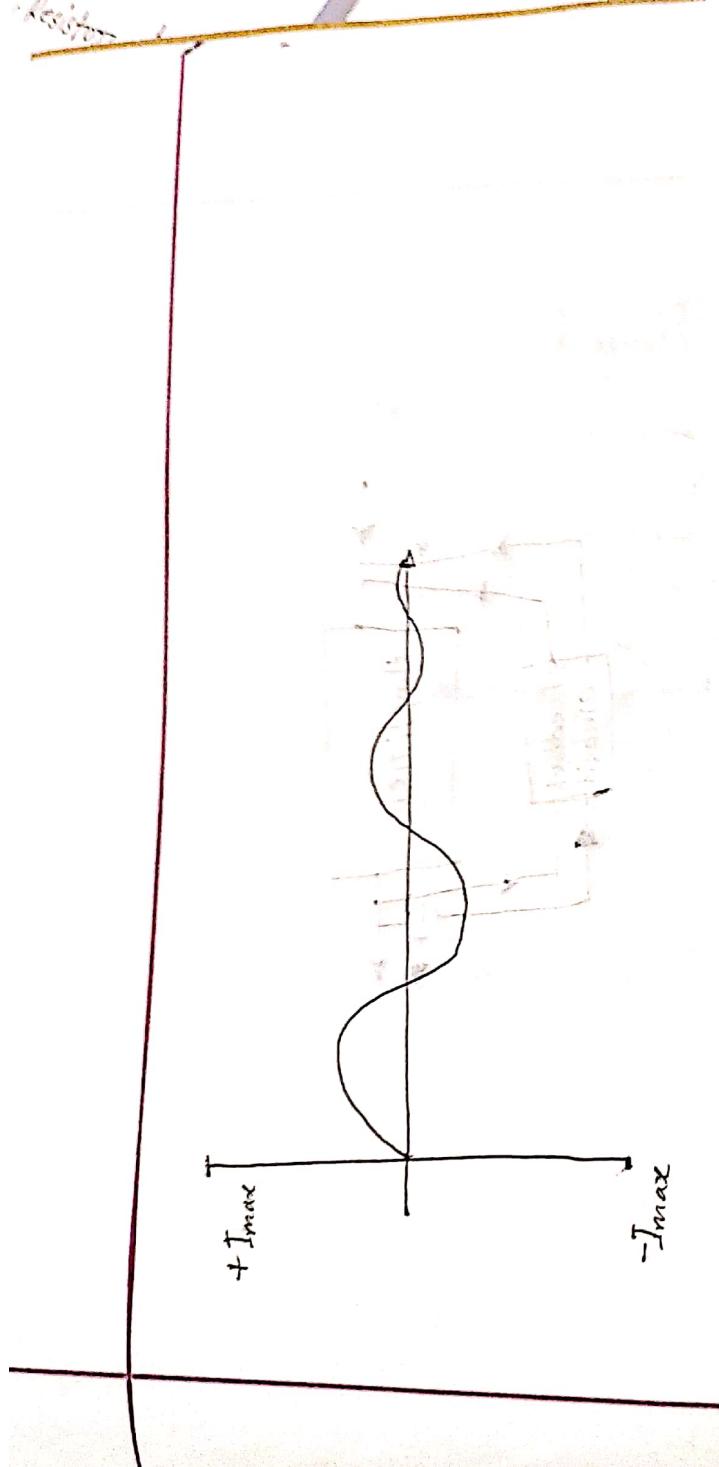
oscillating capacitor (1)



the sequence of events is as follows: initially there is no current in the circuit. When the switch is closed, electrons start moving from the negative terminal of the battery through the resistor and the capacitor. This causes a charge to build up on the capacitor plates.

As electrons move towards the positive terminal of the battery, they encounter the capacitor. The capacitor opposes this flow of electrons, causing the current to decrease. Eventually, all the electrons have moved to the positive terminal of the battery, and the current becomes zero. At this point, the capacitor has a full positive charge on one plate and a full negative charge on the other. The switch is then opened, which breaks the circuit. The capacitor begins to discharge through the resistor. Electrons move from the positive terminal of the battery back through the resistor and the capacitor. This causes a current to flow in the opposite direction. As the electrons move away from the positive terminal, the charge on the capacitor decreases. Eventually, all the electrons have moved back to the negative terminal of the battery, and the current becomes zero again. This completes one cycle of oscillation.

frequency: number of waves in a fixed time.

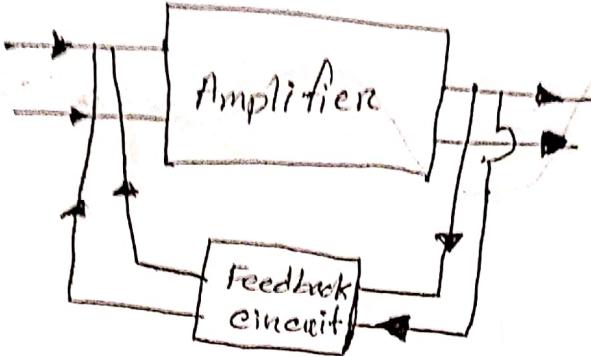


Amplitude of oscillating current decreases gradually and eventually it becomes zero when all the energy is consumed as losses. Therefore, the tank circuit by itself will produce damped oscillations.

frequency of oscillations:

$$f_n = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

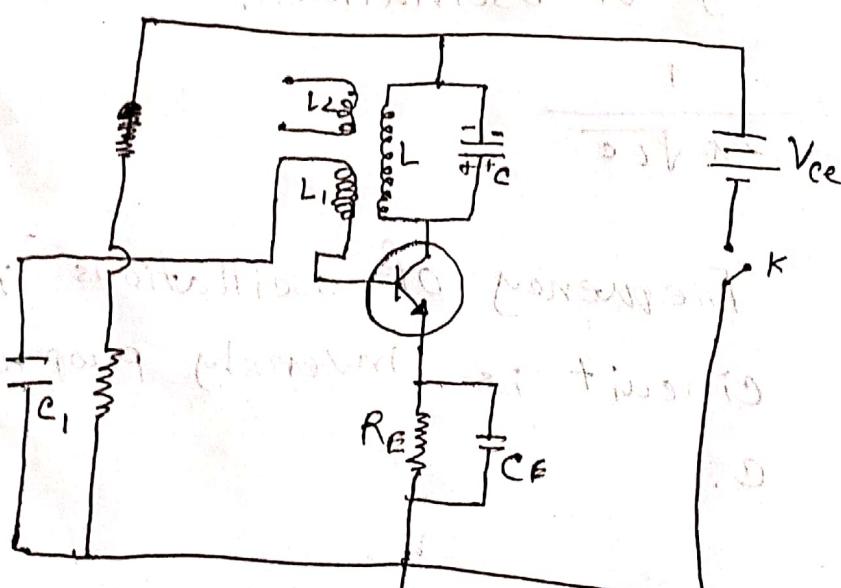
frequency of oscillations in the tank circuit is inversely proportional to \sqrt{L} and C .



Essential components of Transistor Oscillator:

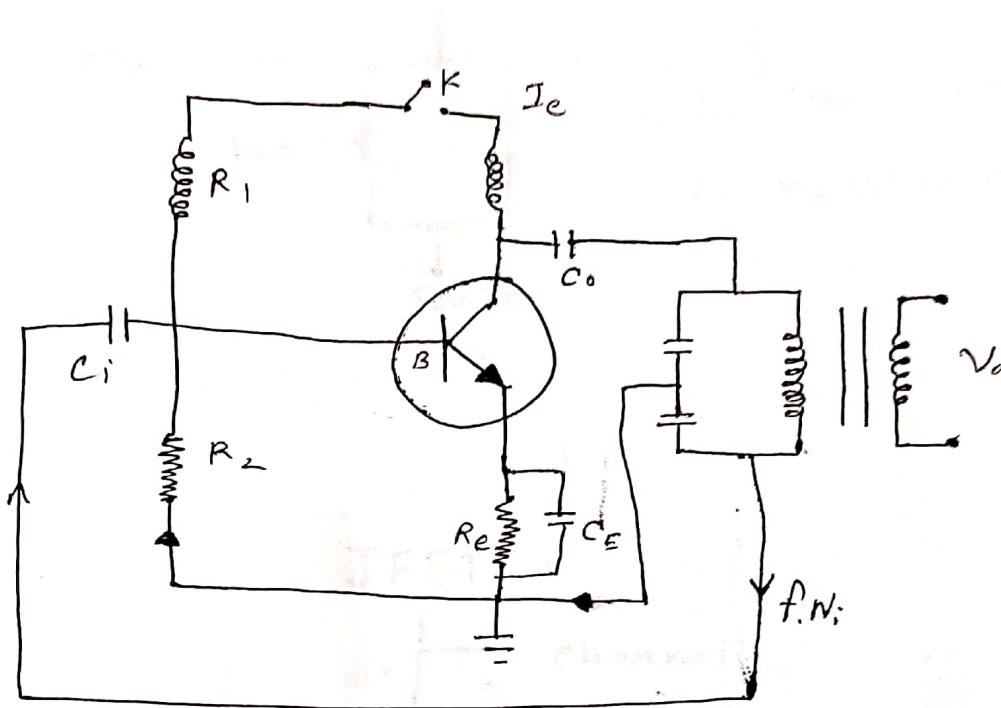
- Tank circuit
- Transistor Amplifier
- Feedback circuit

Tuned collector oscillator:

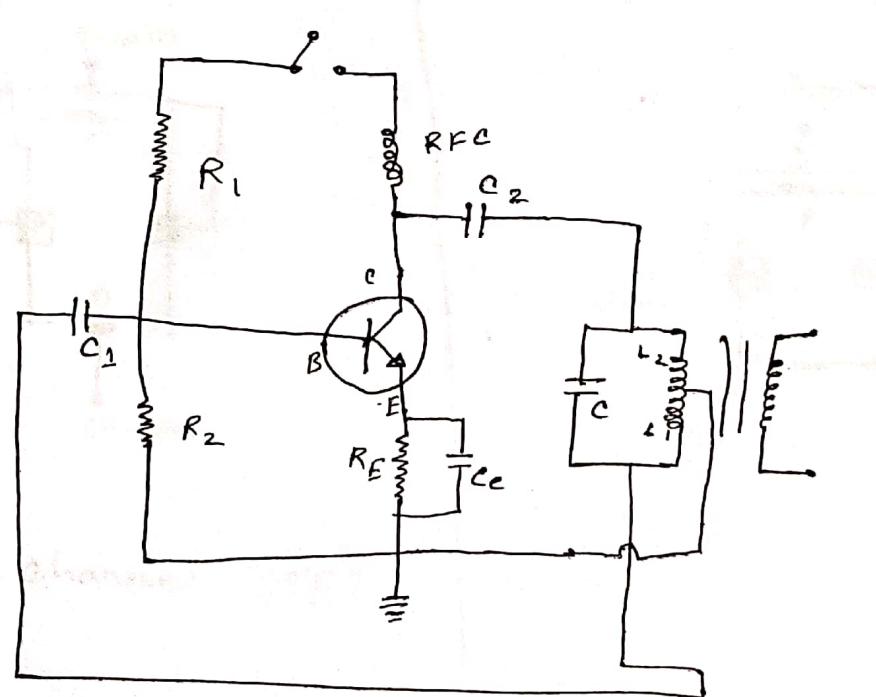


$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{Lc}}$$

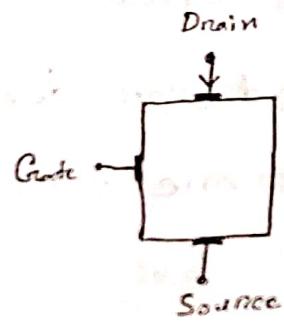
Colpitt's oscillator



Hartley oscillator:



Junction Field effect Transistor (JFET)

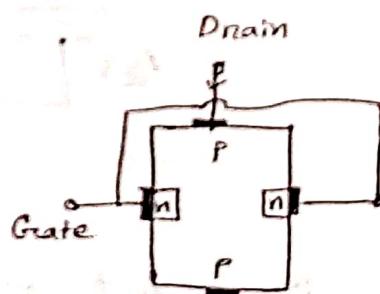
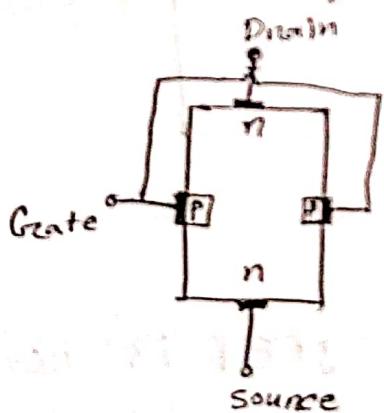


I_D = Drain current

$I_D \propto V_{GS}$ എന്ന നിംഫമാൻ

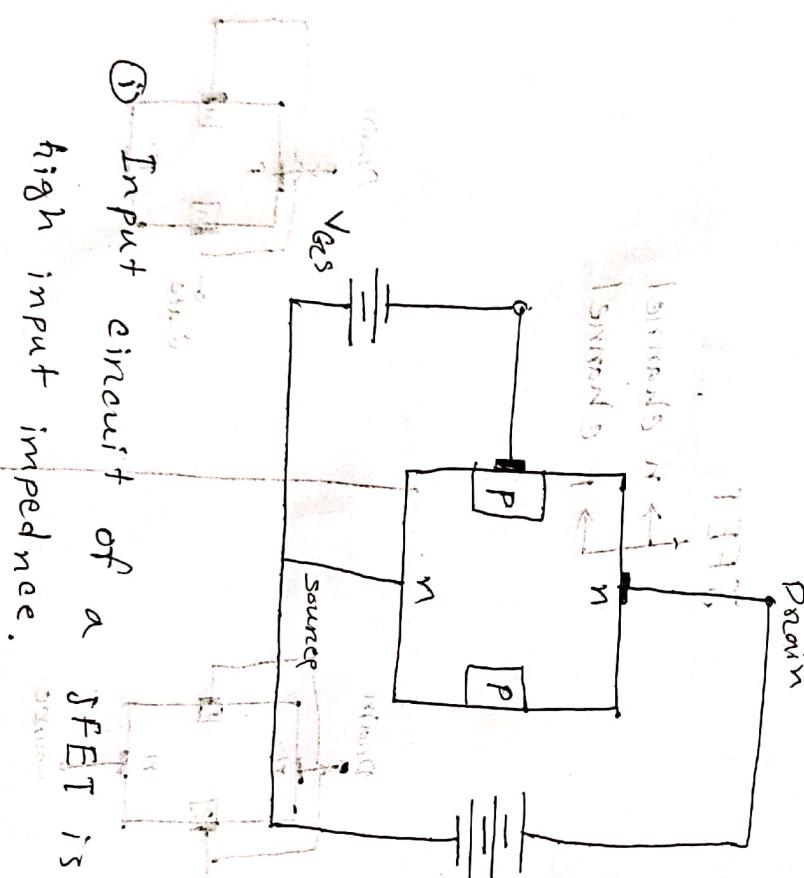
JFET

→ n channel
→ p channel



n-channel JFET

A junction field effect transistor is a three terminal semiconductor device in which current conduction is by one type of carrier.



- i) Input circuit of a JFET is reversed biased.
- ii) drain is so biased w.r.t. source that I_D flows from the source to drain.
- iii) In all JFET, $I_S = I_D$

Working procedure: Two pn junction from two depletion layers. Current conduct through the channel between two depletion layer. width & resistance controlled by changing the input voltage V_{GS} .

The greater the reverse voltage V_{DS} , the wider will be the depletion layer and narrower will be the conduction channel. So greater resistance and source to drain current decrease.

Magnitude of drain current (I_D) can be changed by alternating V_{GS} .

BJT

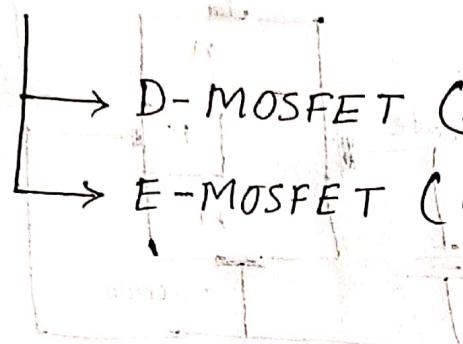
JFET

- | | |
|---|--|
| ① BJT has 3 terminals base, collector emitter | ① JFET has 3 terminals, gate, source and drain |
| ② It is a bipolar device | ② It is a unipolar device |
| ③ electron and holes carries current | ③ either electron or holes carries current. |

Metal oxide semiconductor FET (MOSFET)

(Bridged to notes on time)

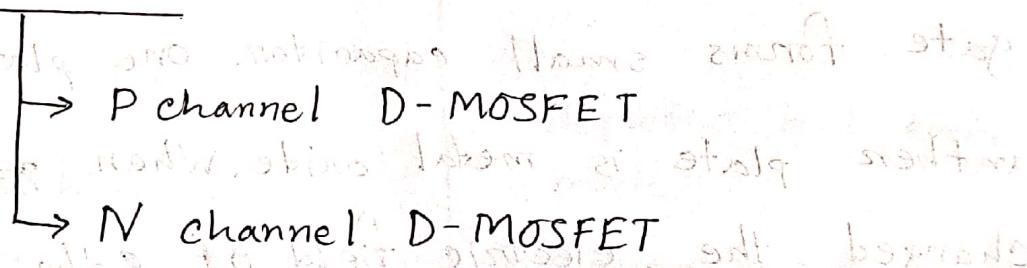
MOSFET



→ D-MOSFET (depletion mode & enhanced mode)

→ E-MOSFET (enhanced mode)

D - MOSFET

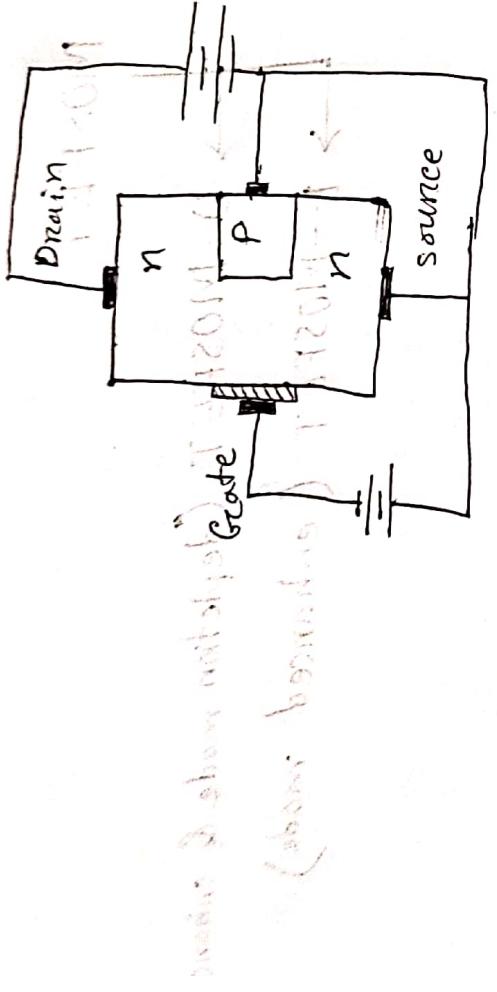


A Field effect Transistor (FET) that can be operated in the enhanced mode is called MOSFET.

Capacitor

one plate is gate metal
other plate is SiO_2

Circuit operation of D-MOSFET



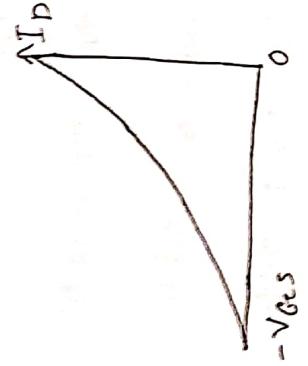
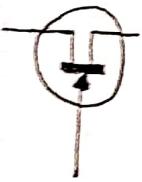
Trapping - A

gate forms small capacitor. One plate is gate & another plate is metal oxide. When gate voltage is changed the electric field of the capacitor changes which in turn changes the resistance of the n-channel. The gate is insulated from the channel we can apply either negative or positive voltage to the gate.

► Negative gate operation is called depletion mode.

► Positive gate operation is known as enhance mode.

JFET



- Depletion only
- extremely high input impedance.

- Depletion and enhancement mode
- Higher input impedance than a comparable JFET

disadvantage.

→ Bias in stability

→ Can be operated in the depletion mode

→ Create bias
self bias

Voltage - Divider bias

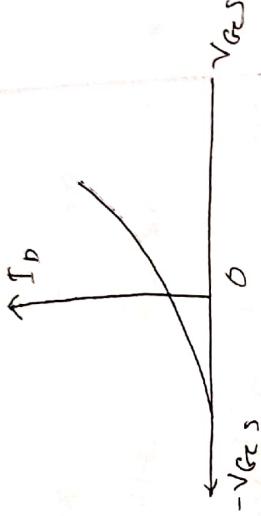
disadvantage

• Bias instability

• more sensitive to changes
to changes in temperature
than JFET

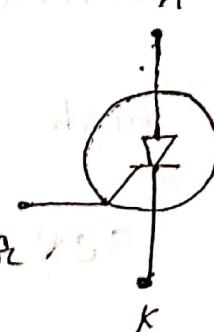
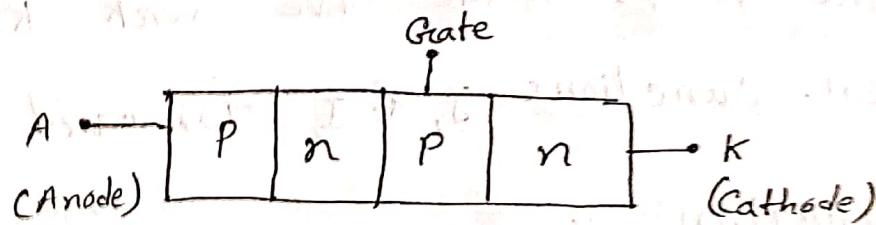
→ Create bias,
self bias,
Voltage divider bias, zero bias.

DMOSFET



SCR

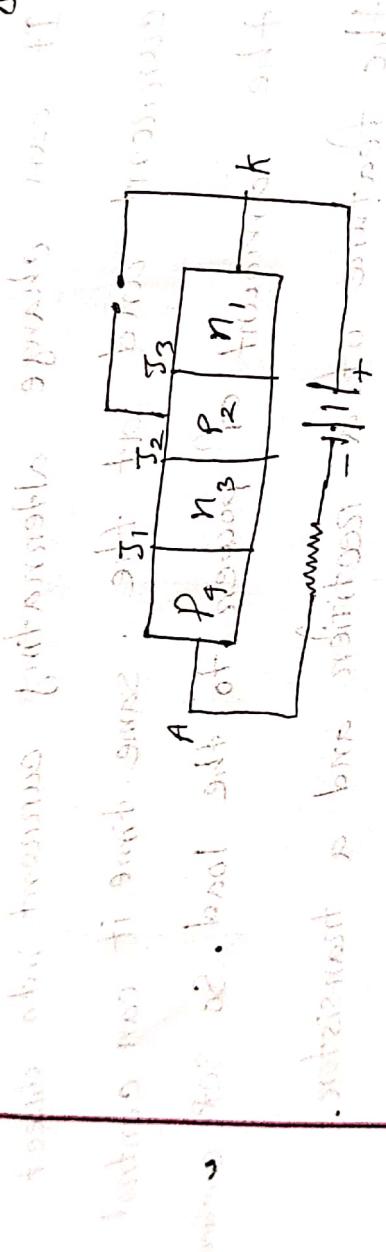
- A silicon controlled rectifier is a semiconductor device that acts as a true electronic switch. It can change alternating current into direct current and at the same time it can control the amount of power to the load. So SCR contains the feature of a rectifier and a transistor.



SCR

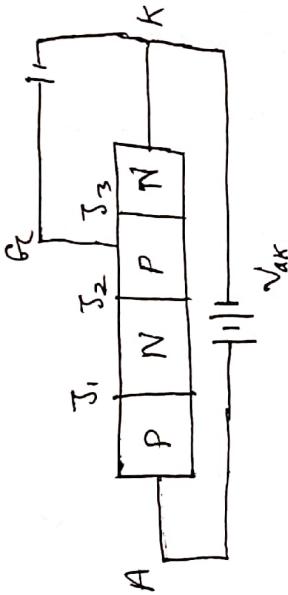
Working of SCR

(i) When gate is open : (Forward blocking model)



Hence A is made +ve wrk K while Gc is kept open. Junctions J_1 & J_3 forward biased while the junction J_2 is reverse biased. Due to this small leakage current flows through the SCR. SCR offers high impedance to the current in this mode.

ii) switch ON:



By applying +ve voltage to G terminal avalanche breakdown occurs at J₂. & current starts flowing through the SCR. So SCR act as a closed switch.

More is the gate current, the minimum will be the time to come in conduction mode.