

# RRRB - JE

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# ELECTRONICS

**Railway Recruitment Board**

**Volume - 9**

**Basic Electronics**



# SEMICONDUCTOR DIODES

## THEORY

### 1.1 SEMICONDUCTOR PHYSICS

#### 1.1.1 Energy Bands

In gaseous substances, the arrangement of molecules is not close. In liquids, the molecular arrangement is moderate. But, in solids, the molecules are so closely arranged, that the electrons in the atoms of molecules tend to move into the orbitals of neighbouring atoms. Hence the electron orbital's overlap when the atoms come together.

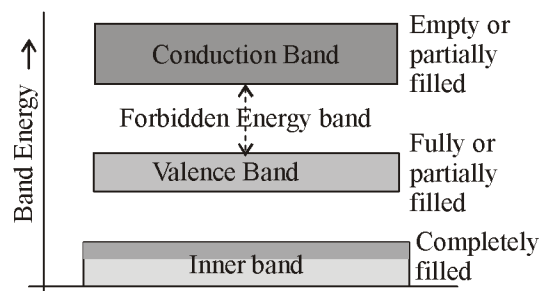
Due to the intermixing of atoms in solids, instead of single energy levels, there will be bands of energy levels formed. These set of energy levels, which are closely packed are called as Energy bands.

(i) **Valance Band:** The electrons move in the atoms in certain energy levels but the energy of the electrons in the innermost shell is higher than the outermost shell electrons. The electrons that are present in the outermost shell are called as valance electrons. These valance electrons, containing a series of energy levels, form an energy band which is called as valance band. The valance band is the band having the highest occupied energy.

(ii) **Conduction Band:** The valence electrons are so loosely attached to the nucleus that even at room temperature; few of the valence electrons leave the band to be free. These are called as free electrons as they tend to move towards the neighbouring atoms. These free electrons are the ones which conduct the current in a conductor and hence called as conduction electrons. The band which contains conduction electrons is called as conduction band. The conduction band is the band having the lowest occupied energy.

(iii) **Forbidden gap:** The gap between valence band and conduction band is called as forbidden energy gap. As the name implies, this band is the forbidden one without energy. Hence no electron stays in this band. The valence electrons, while going to the conduction band, pass through this.

The following figure shows the valance band, conduction band, and the forbidden gap.

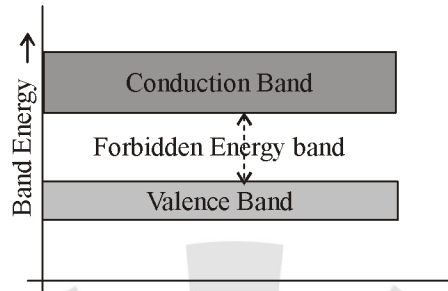


Depending upon the size of the forbidden gap, the Insulators, the Semiconductors and the Conductors are formed.

(a) **Insulators:** Insulators are such materials in which the conduction cannot take place, due to the large forbidden gap.

Ex. : Wood, Rubber.

The structure of energy bands in Insulators is as shown in the following figure.



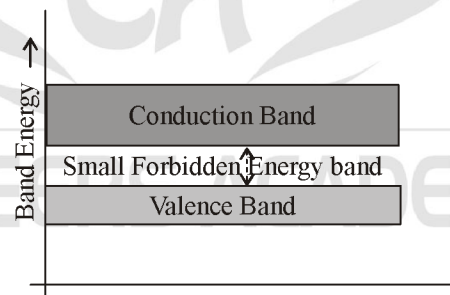
**Characteristics:** The following are the characteristics of Insulators.

- The Forbidden energy gap is very large.
- Valence band electrons are bound tightly to atoms.
- The value of forbidden energy gap for an insulator will be of 6 eV.
- For some insulators, as the temperature increases, they might show some conduction.
- The resistivity of an insulator will be in the order of  $10^7$  ohmmeter.

(b) **Semiconductors:** Semiconductors are such materials in which the forbidden energy gap is small and the conduction takes place if some external energy is applied.

Ex. : Silicon, Germanium.

The following figure shows the structure of energy bands in semiconductors.



**Characteristics:** The following are the characteristics of Semiconductors.

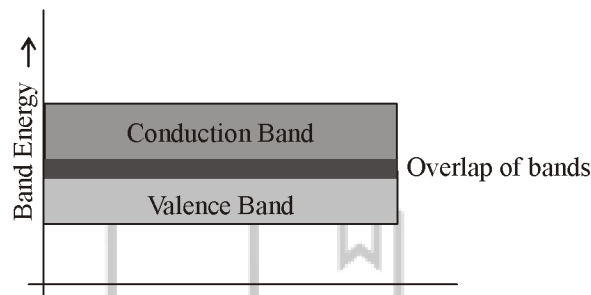
- The Forbidden energy gap is very small.
- The forbidden gap for Ge is 0.7eV whereas for Si is 1.1 eV.
- A Semiconductor actually is neither an insulator, nor a good conductor.
- As the temperature increases, the conductivity of a semiconductor increases.
- The conductivity of a semiconductor will be in the order of  $10^2$  mhometer.

Semiconductor	Band Gap (eV)
Silicon (Si)	1.1
Germanium (Ge)	0.66
Germanium Arsenide (GaAs)	1.41
Indium Phosphate (InP)	1.34
Zinc tellurite (Zn Te)	2.26
Cudmium Tellurite (CdTe)	1.43

(c) **Conductors** : Conductors are such materials in which the forbidden energy gap disappears as the valence band and conduction band become very close that they overlap.

Ex. : Copper, Aluminium.

The following figure shows the structure of energy bands in conductors.



**Characteristics** : The following are the characteristics of Conductors.

- There exists no forbidden gap in a conductor.
- The valance band and the conduction band gets overlapped.
- The free electrons available for conduction are plenty.
- A slight increase in voltage, increases the conduction.
- There is no concept of hole formation, as a continuous flow of electrons contribute the current.

### 1.1.2 Fermi Level

Fermi energy is expressed in eV. Fermi energy is defined as the maximum energy possessed by an electron at 0 K.

Fermi energy is defined as the maximum kinetic energy possessed by an electron at 0 K.

$$\text{Max. KE} = \frac{1}{2}mV_{\text{max}}^2$$

$$E_F = \frac{1}{2}mV_{\text{max}}^2$$

$$\text{Max. velocity of } e^- = V_{\text{max}} = \sqrt{\frac{2E_F}{m}} \text{ m/sec}$$

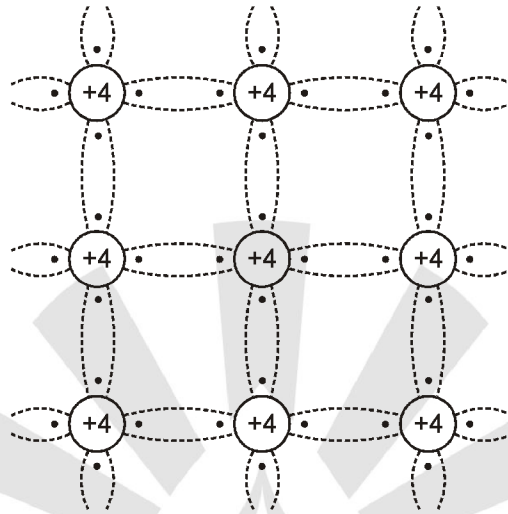
Fermi energy is also defined as the energy possessed by fastest moving  $e^-$  electron at 0 K.



### 1.1.3 Types of Semiconductors

**(i) Intrinsic Semiconductors :** Also called pure semiconductor (or) non-degenerative semiconductor (as basic properties are not changed). Degenerate means change of basic properties by adding impurity. Hence extrinsic semiconductor is known as degenerate semiconductor.

The properties of this pure semiconductor are as follows



Intrinsic SC at  $T = 0\text{ K}$

- The electrons and holes are solely created by thermal excitation.
- The number of free electrons is equal to the number of holes.
- The conduction capability is small at room temperature.
- Intrinsic semiconductor behaves as a perfect insulator at 0 K.
- The sharing of electrons with neighbouring atom is called covalent bonding.
- At 0 K all valence electrons are in perfect covalent bonding.
- Intrinsic semiconductor at 0 K is a perfect insulator.
- Fermi level is middle to valance band and conduction band.

In order to increase the conduction capability of intrinsic semiconductor, it is better to add some impurities. This process of adding impurities is called as Doping. Now, this doped intrinsic semiconductor is called as an Extrinsic Semiconductor.

**Doping :** The process of adding impurities to the semiconductor materials is termed as doping. The impurities added, are generally pentavalent and trivalent impurities.

**Pentavalent Impurities :** The pentavalent impurities are the ones which has five valence electrons in the outer most orbit.

**Ex. :** Bismuth, Antimony, Arsenic, Phosphorus

The pentavalent atom is called as a donor atom because it donates one electron to the conduction band of pure semiconductor atom.

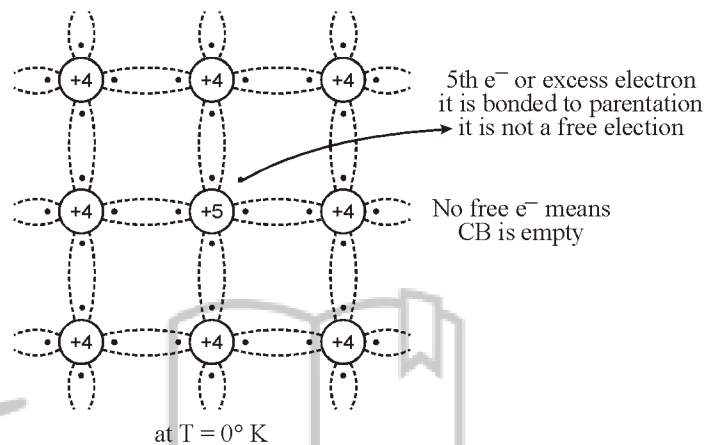
**Trivalent Impurities:** The trivalent impurities are the ones which has three valence electrons in the outer most orbit.

**Ex. :** Gallium, Indium, Aluminum, Boron

The trivalent atom is called as an acceptor atom because it accepts one electron from the semiconductor atom.

**(ii) Extrinsic Semiconductor :** An impure semiconductor, which is formed by doping a pure semiconductor is called as an extrinsic semiconductor. It is also called impurity semiconductor (or) doped semiconductors (or) artificial semiconductors (or) de-generate semiconductor or compensated semiconductor. There are two types of extrinsic semiconductors depending upon the type of impurity added. They are N-type extrinsic semiconductor and P-Type extrinsic semiconductor.

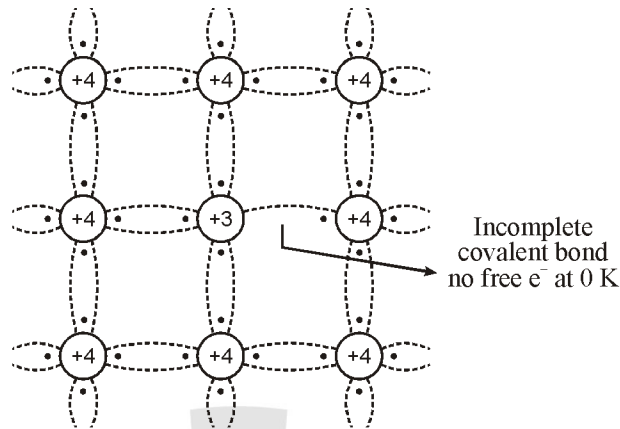
- (a) N-Type Extrinsic Semiconductor :** A small amount of pentavalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor to result in N-type extrinsic Semiconductor. The added impurity has 5 valence electrons. For example, if pentavalent atom is added to the semiconductor atom, four of the valence electrons get attached with the Ge atoms while one electron remains as a free electron. This is as shown in the following figure.



All of these free electrons constitute electron current. Hence, the impurity when added to pure semiconductor, provides electrons for conduction.

- In N-type extrinsic semiconductor, as the conduction takes place through electrons, the electrons are majority carriers and the holes are minority carriers.
- As there is no addition of positive or negative charges, the electrons are electrically neutral.
- When an electric field is applied to an N-type semiconductor, to which a pentavalent impurity is added, the free electrons travel towards positive electrode. This is called as negative or N-type conductivity.
- The minimum energy required to conduction in N-Type Ge is 0.01 eV.
- The minimum energy required to conduction in N-Type Si is 0.05 eV.
- N-Type semiconductor at 0 K is a perfect insulator.
- Fermi level is near to conduction band.

- (b) P-Type Extrinsic Semiconductor :** A small amount of trivalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor to result in P-type extrinsic semiconductor. The added impurity has 3 valence electrons. For example, if trivalent atom is added to the semiconductor atom, three of the valence electrons get attached with the semiconductor atoms, to form three covalent bonds. But, one more electron in semiconductor remains without forming any bond. As there is no electron in trivalent atom remaining to form a covalent bond, the space is treated as a hole. This is as shown in the following figure.



The boron impurity when added in a small amount, provides a number of holes which helps in the conduction. All of these holes constitute hole current.

- In P-type extrinsic semiconductor, as the conduction takes place through holes, the holes are majority carriers while the electrons are minority carriers.
- The impurity added here provides holes which are called as acceptors, because they accept electrons from the germanium atoms.
- As the number of mobile holes remains equal to the number of acceptors, the P-type semiconductor remains electrically neutral.
- When an electric field is applied to a P-type semiconductor, to which a trivalent impurity is added, the holes travel towards negative electrode, but with a slow pace than electrons. This is called as P-type conductivity. In this P-type conductivity, the valence electrons move from one covalent bond to another, unlike N-type.
- The minimum energy required to conduction in P-Type Ge is 0.01 eV.
- The minimum energy required to conduction in P-Type Si is 0.05 eV.
- P-Type semiconductor at 0 K is a perfect insulator.
- Fermi level is near to valance band.

**Note:**

**Why Silicon is Preferred in Semiconductors?**

Among the semiconductor materials like germanium and silicon, the extensively used material for manufacturing various electronic components is Silicon. Silicon is preferred over germanium for many reasons such as

- The energy band gap is 0.7 eV, whereas it is 0.2 eV for germanium.
- The thermal pair generation is smaller.
- The formation of  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer is easy for silicon, which helps in the manufacture of many components along with integration technology.
- Si is easily found in nature than Ge.
- Noise is less in components made up of Si than in Ge.

### 1.1.4 Mass-Action Law

In a semiconductor (intrinsic and extrinsic) under thermal equilibrium the product of  $e^-$  holes is always a constant and is equal to the square of intrinsic concentration.

$$n \cdot p = n_i^2$$

where  $n$  = concentration of  $e^-$   
 $p$  = concentration of holes  
 $n_i$  = intrinsic concentration

#### (i) For N-type semiconductor

Mass-action law is given by

$$n_n p_n = n_i^2$$

where  $n_n$  = concentration of  $e^-$   
 $p_n$  = concentration of holes

For n-type materials concentration of  $e^-$  is almost equal to the donor concentration.

$$\therefore n_n \approx N_D$$

$$N_D p_n = n_i^2$$

$$p_n = \frac{n_i^2}{N_D}$$

#### (ii) For p-type semiconductor

Mass action law is given by

$$n_p p_p = n_i^2$$

where  $n_p$  = concentration of  $e^-$   
 $p_p$  = concentration of holes

For p-type materials concentration of  $e^-$  is almost equal to the acceptor concentration

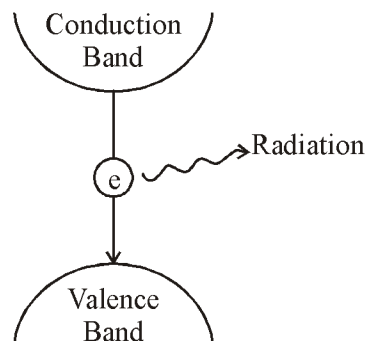
$$n_p \approx n_A$$

$$N_p \cdot N_A = n_i^2$$

$$N_p = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A}$$

### 1.1.5 Direct and Indirect Band gap semiconductors

(i) **Direct Band-Gap semiconductor** : In this type of semiconductor electrons from excited state in conduction band jump directly to valence band.



While jumping from conduction band to valence band the electron loses an energy, equal to the band gap in the form of radiation.

$$h\nu = E_G$$

where  $h = \text{plank constant} = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ JS}$   
 $\nu = \text{frequency of radiation}$

$$\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

where  $c = \text{velocity of light} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$   
 $\lambda = \text{wave length}$

$$\frac{hc}{\lambda} = E_G$$

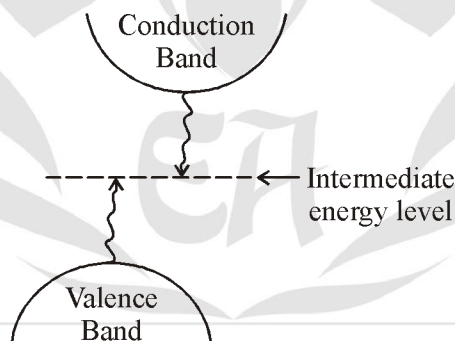
$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_G} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1.24}{E_G} \mu\text{m}$$

where  $\lambda$  in  $\mu\text{m}$  and  $E_G$  in eV.

**Ex. : GaAs**

**Note :** In this most of the falling  $e^-$  from conduction band to valence band will be directly releasing energy in form of light (99%) and very few  $e^-$  while falling from conduction band to valence band will collide with the crystal of atoms and these crystal will be absorbing the energy from the falling electrons and gets heated up and they will release energy in form of heat (1%).

**(ii) Indirect Band-Gap :** The semiconductor in which electrons from conduction band do not jump directly to valence band rather first jump from conduction band to some intermediate energy level called defect level and then from intermediate energy level to valence band are called indirect band gap.



**Ex. : Ge and Si**

**Note :** In Indirect Band Gap semiconductor most of the falling electrons from conduction band to valence band will collide with the crystal of the atom and these crystal will be absorbing the energy from the falling electron and gets heated up and they will release energy in the form of heat (99%) and very few electrons falling on conduction band to valence band will directly falling and they will release energy in form of light (1%).

### 1.1.6 Einstein's Equation

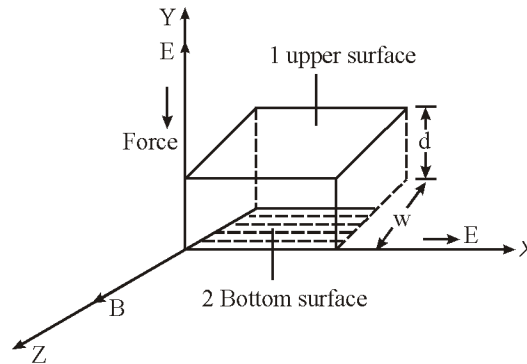
It gives the relation between diffusion constant, mobility and thermal voltage.

$$\frac{D_n}{\mu_n} = \frac{D_p}{\mu_p} = \frac{KT}{q} = V_T = \frac{T}{11600}$$

Thermal voltage  $V_T = \frac{KT}{q}$

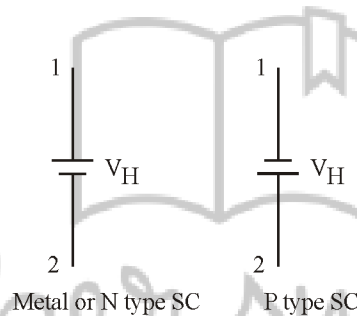
### 1.1.7 Hall Effect

**Hall effect states that :** “If a specimen (metal or semiconductor) carrying the current  $I$  is placed in transverse magnetic field  $B$ , an electric field intensity  $E$  is induced in a direction perpendicular to both  $I$  and  $B$ ”.



Where  $w$  is the width of specimen  $d$  is the height or thickness of the specimen (or) spacing between bottom surface and upper surface of specimen.

Representation of Hall voltage

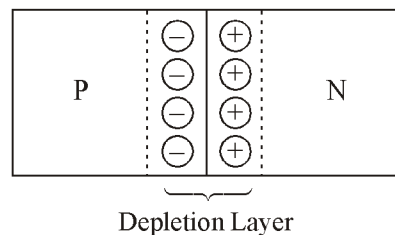


Hall effect can be used to determine :

- Whether the given specimen is a metal or semiconductor.
- The concentration of charge carrier in the specimen.
- Mobility of charge carrier.
- To measure the signal power in EM wave.
- In designing of hall effect transducer.

## 1.2 PN-JUNCTION

If we join a piece of P-type semiconductor to a piece of N-type semiconductor such that the crystal structure remains continuous at boundary. PN junction or diode as shown in figure.



P-type region doped with acceptor type impurity have holes in majority and N-type region doped with donor type impurity have electrons in majority. When P-type and N-type piece are combined, electrons from N-side and holes from P-side diffused towards junction and disappear in the form of heat after neutralizing each other. In this process electrons from N-side and holes from P-side leaves the immobile positive and negative ions respectively. The region from where mobile charges have been depleted is called 'Depletion region'. Depletion region contains fixed rows of oppositely charged ions (immobile charge) on its two sides. These immobile opposite charges due to ions develops an electric potential. This potential is called barrier or junction potential  $V_B$ . Barrier potential is given by the relation :

$$V_B = V_T \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$$

Where  $V_T = \frac{T}{11600}$  (volt equivalent of temperature)

$N_A$  = concentration of acceptors ( $/\text{cm}^3$ ) on P-side

$N_D$  = concentration of donors ( $/\text{cm}^3$ ) on N-side

$n_i$  = Intrinsic concentration ( $/\text{cm}^3$ ) at given temperature

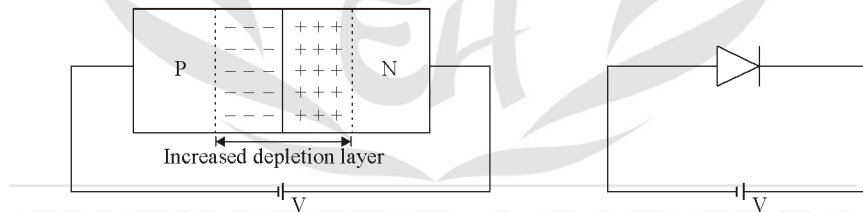
$V_B = 0.3\text{V}$  for Ge }  
 $V_B = 0.7\text{V}$  for Si } at room temperature

Built in potential in diode is given by :

$$V_B = V_T \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$$

**Applying voltage across a PN junction :** The potential difference across a PN junction can be applied in two ways i.e. Reverse biasing and Forward biasing.

- (i) **Reverse Biasing :** In reverse biasing, P-side is connected to negative terminal of the battery and N-side is connected to positive terminal of the battery. This type of biasing increases the depletion width



Only very small reverse saturation current flows which is truly temperature dependent. It does not depend on the amplitude of applied voltage.

Reverse saturation current or leakage current

$$I_0 = qA \left( \frac{D_P}{L_P N_D} + \frac{D_N}{L_P N_N} \right) n_i^2$$

$$I_0 \propto A$$

where,  $A$  = area of cross section

$D_P, D_N$  = diffusion constant of holes and electrons respectively

$L_P, L_N$  = diffusion length of holes and electrons respectively

Hence reverse saturation current is proportional to the area of junction.

**Reverse Bias Diode has**

- (i) High resistance
  - (ii) Very small reverse saturation current
  - (iii) Large depletion width.
- (ii) **Forward Biasing :** In forward biasing, P-side is connected to positive terminal of the battery and N-side connected to negative terminal of battery. The current through the diode is given by the relation.

$$I_D = I_0 \left( e^{\frac{V_D}{\eta V_T}} - 1 \right) \quad \dots(i)$$

Where,

- $\eta = 1$  for Ge
- $\eta = 2$  for Si for low current
- $\eta = 1$  for Si for high current
- $V_D =$  Voltage across diode

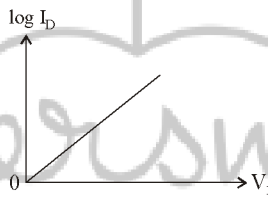
Equation (i) may also be written as :

$$\log I_D = \frac{I_0}{\eta} \times \frac{V_D}{V_T}$$

or

$$\log I_D \propto V_D$$

The characteristic between  $\log I_D$  and voltage  $V_D$  has linear variation. This is shown in figure below :



**Characteristics of Forward Bias :**

- (i) Very high current.
- (ii) Low resistance.
- (iii) Reduced depletion width.

**Temperature dependency of  $I_0$  and  $V_D$  :**

- (i) The temperature and diode current in a PN junction diodes is related by the following relation:

$$I_{0(T_2)} = I_{0(T_1)} \times 2^{\frac{(T_2 - T_1)}{10}}$$

- where,
- $I_{0(T_2)}$  = Reverse saturation current at temperature  $T_2$
  - $I_{0(T_1)}$  = Reverse saturation current at temperature  $T_1$
  - here  $T_2 > T_1$

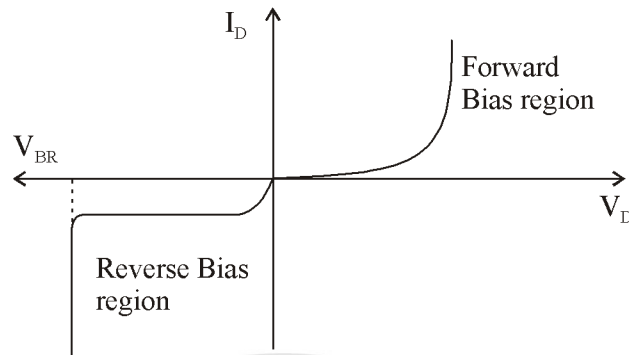
- (ii) Reverse saturation current doubles for each  $10^\circ\text{C}$  rise in temperature

$$\frac{dV_D}{dt} = -2.5 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$$

- (iii) Voltage across diode reduces by 25 mV for each  $10^\circ\text{C}$  increase in temperature.



**V-I Characteristic :** Volt-ampere characteristic of a diode is the curve between voltage across the junction and current through the circuit. V-I characteristic of a PN junction diode is shown below :



**Breakdown voltage ( $V_{BR}$ ) :** It is the reverse voltage at which PN Junction breaks down with sudden rise in reverse current.

**Knee voltage :** It is the forward voltage at which the current through the junction starts to increase rapidly.

**Capacitance of diode :** In a PN junction semiconductor diode, there exists two capacitance effects. They are :

- Space charge or transition capacitance (in reverse bias region)
- Diffusion capacitance (in forward bias region)

**Space charge or Transition Capacitance ( $C_T$ ) :** In the reverse bias region, we have the space charge capacitance,  $C_T$  is defined as :

$$C_T = \left| \frac{dQ}{dV} \right|$$

where  $dQ$  is the increase in charge caused by a change  $dV$  in voltage. The thickness of space charge layer at the junction increases with reverse voltage.

The capacitance  $C_T$  depend on the magnitude of the reverse voltage.

Transition capacitance dominant in reverse bias, it is due to uncovered charge gone,

$$C_T = \frac{\epsilon A}{w}$$

Where ,  $\epsilon$  = permittivity,  $A$  = area

$w$  = width of depletion layer

$$V_j = \frac{qN_A w^2}{2\epsilon} \text{ for step or abrupt junction}$$

When  $N_D \gg N_A$

$$V_j = \frac{qN_A w^3}{2\epsilon} \text{ for linearly graded junction}$$

Where,  $V_j$  = junction voltage under reverse bias

Hence

$$C_T \propto V_j^{-1/2} \text{ (for step graded)}$$

$$C_T \propto V_j^{-1/3} \text{ (for linearly graded)}$$

**Diffusion Capacitance :** When diode is connected in forward bias the capacitance observed is called Diffusion Capacitance. It can be divided in two categories.

- (a) **Static Diffusion Capacitance** : It is the diffusion capacitance when diode is connected with DC voltage and it is due to storage of charge in the junction under forward bias.

The static diffusion capacitance is given by :

$$C_D = \frac{dQ}{dV} = \tau \frac{dI}{dV} = \tau g = \frac{\tau}{r_d} \quad \left[ \because g = \frac{1}{r_d} \right]$$

Where,

$$r_d = \frac{\eta V_T}{I} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau = \frac{L^2}{D}$$

L = diffusion length

D = diffusion constant

$\tau$  = lifetime of electrons and holes

$$\therefore C_D = \frac{\tau}{\eta r_d}$$

Where diode resistance  $r_d = \frac{V_D}{I_D}$

- (b) **Dynamic diffusion capacitance**

It is the capacitance when AC signal is applied at the input of the diode.

Dynamic capacitance for sinusoidal input is given by :

$$C'_D = \frac{1}{2} \tau g, \text{ if } \omega \tau \ll 1 \text{ for small frequency}$$

$$C'_D = \left( \frac{\tau}{2\omega} \right)^{1/2} g, \text{ if } \omega \tau \ll 1 \text{ for higher frequency}$$

**Note :**

- The characteristic between  $\log_e I_D$  and  $V_D$  is a straight line.
- In forward biased, diffusion capacitance is higher than transition capacitance.
- In reverse biased, transition capacitance is higher than diffusion capacitance.

**Type of Breakdown** : There are two types of breakdown :

- (a) **Zener breakdown** : Heavily doped junction has narrow depletion layer therefore when reverse voltage increase, the strong electric field may cause rupture of covalent bond structure as a result of which very large current flows through the junction. For heavily doped, zener breakdown occurs at electric field of  $2 \times 10^7$  V/m approximately. This value of electric field is reached at voltages below about 6V for heavily doped diodes. The temperature coefficient in Zener diode is negative.

Zener breakdown occurs at a junction voltage of :

$$V_j = \frac{qw^2 N_d}{2\epsilon}$$

i.e. 
$$w \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_D}}$$

It means doping is inversely proportional to the width of the depletion layer.

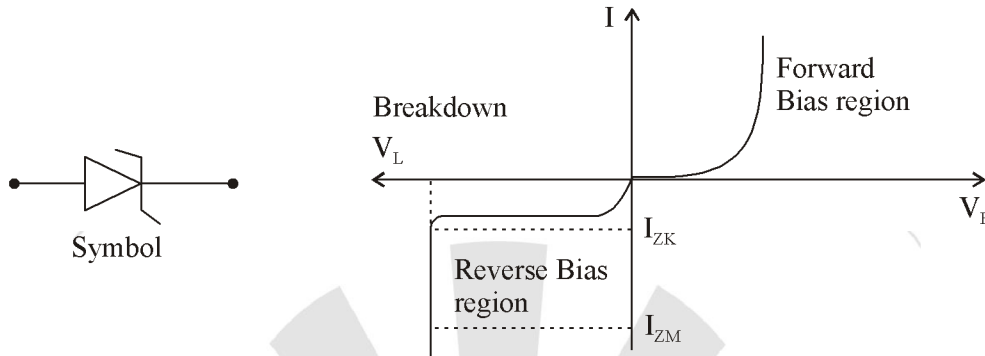
- (b) **Avalanche breakdown** : For lightly doped diodes, breakdown of diode is due to Avalanche i.e. rupture of covalent bond due to collision with high speed carriers. When electric field in depletion layer is very high it results in a very high velocity of minority carriers. Therefore, this phenomenon is observed at high voltage.

Avalanche breakdown is possible only above 6V. The temperature coefficient of Avalanche diode is positive.

## 1.3 SPECIAL DIODES

### 1.3.1 Zener Diode

This is similar to PN junction diode except that it is used in reverse bias only, because it has sharp breakdown at reverse bias as shown below :



The breakdown voltage of a zener diode is carefully controlled by doping level during manufacturing. Forward characteristic of zener diode is exactly similar to PN junction but there is some interesting point in reverse bias as clear from V-I characteristic. These points are :

(i) **Breakdown voltage  $V_Z$**  : If the reverse voltage is applied then the voltage beyond which the current increases abruptly is called breakdown voltage. This is the voltage at which regulation is achieved when the diode is being used as a regulator.

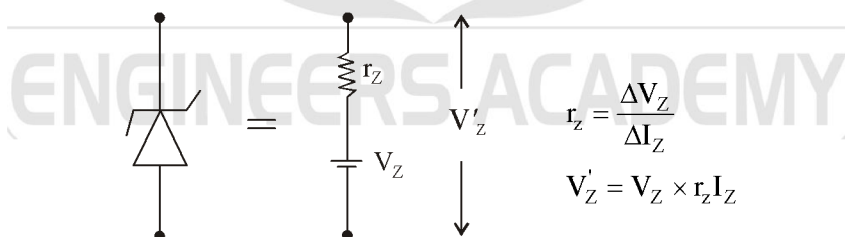
(ii)  **$I_{ZK}$**  : This is the minimum value of current in reverse biased condition in order to keep the diode in reverse bias region.

(iii)  **$I_{ZM}$**  : Maximum value of zener reverse current above which diode may be damaged.

**Zener Diode Specification** : Power dissipation  $P_Z = V_Z \times I_Z$

$$\text{Power rating of zener diode} = P_{ZM} \quad \text{and} \quad I_{ZM} = \frac{P_{ZM}}{V_Z}$$

**Zener Diode Equivalent Circuit**

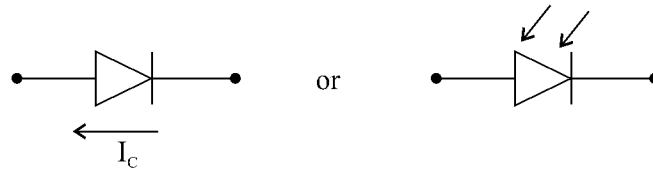


**Application**

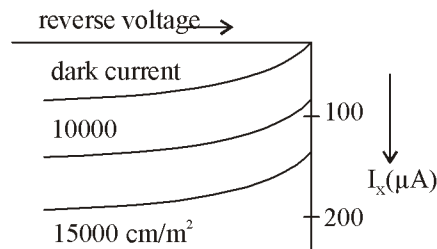
- (i) As a voltage regulator.
- (ii) As a fixed reference voltage in transistor biasing.
- (iii) As a limiter in wave shaping circuits.
- (iv) For a meter protection.
- (v) The electron hole pair generates which increases the free electron to take part in conduction.

### 1.3.2 Photo Diode

Photo diode is a two terminal device which operates on reverse bias. Principle of operation is photo conductive effect. It has a small transparent window, which allows light to strike the PN junction. When there is dark current it means no radiations.



In reverse bias condition in the absence of light the reverse current through diode is very small like ordinary diode. But as soon as light is made to fall on the junction a large amount of current flows and the diode is forward biased.



It is noticed from the characteristic above that the variation in resistance can be achieved with variation in light intensity to fall on diode.

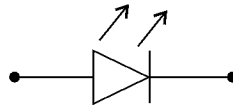
#### Application

- (i) Photo detection
- (ii) Demodulation
- (iii) Logic circuits
- (iv) Switching
- (v) Optical Communication system
- (vi) Character recognition etc.

*Note* : Photovoltaic cell is a special application of Photo Diode.

### 1.3.3 LED (Light Emitting Diode)

PN junction which emits light when forward biased are called light emitting diode. It work on the principle of electro- luminescence.



Only difference between LED and PN junction diode is of the material used for manufacturing LEDs.

	Material	Light emitted
(i)	Gallium Arsenide (GaAs)	Infrared radiation
(ii)	Gallium arsenide phosphide (GaAsP)	Red or yellow
(iii)	Gallium phosphide (GaP)	Red or green
(iv)	Gallium nitride	Blue light

**Application**

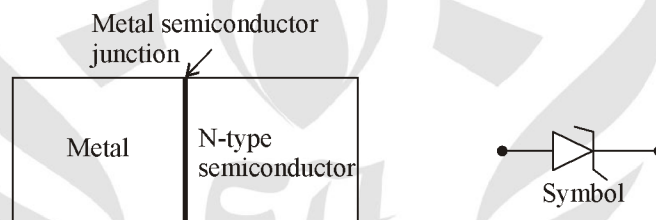
- (i) In 7 or 16 segment display.
- (ii) Indicating ON/OFF condition in power switch or stereo amplifiers.
- (iii) In optical switching applications.
- (iv) In the field of optical communication to transfer energy from one circuit to another circuit.
- (v) For image sensing circuits.
- (vi) Infra red LEDs has application in burglar alarm system.

**Advantages**

- (i) LEDs are of small size.
- (ii) Light output is function of current through it, so the intensity can be easily controlled.
- (iii) LEDs are highly efficient EM radiator.
- (iv) LED are very very fast device, switching time is less than 1n sec.
- (v) Low power requirement.

**1.3.4 Schottky Diode**

It is formed by joining a doped semiconductor region with a metal such as gold, silver or platinum.

**Few Important points about Schottky diode :**

- (i) Schottky diode is a metal to semiconductor junction.
- (ii) Schottky diode only operates with majority carrier.
- (iii) Semiconductor used is usually N-type.
- (iv) It does not have any charge storage, therefore it is very fast.
- (v) Semiconductor region is lightly doped.

**Applications**

- (i) To rectify very high frequency.
- (ii) As a switching device in digital computers.
- (iii) In clipping and clamping circuits.
- (iv) Low power Schottky transistor transistor logic.
- (v) In low voltage power supply circuit.

### 1.3.5 Characteristic of Different Diodes

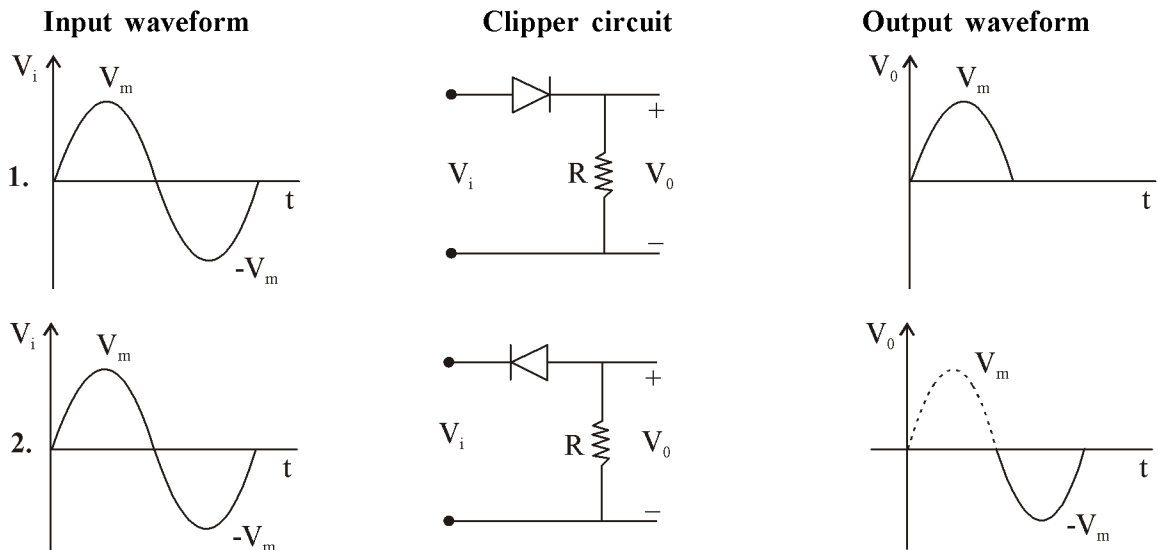
Device	Principal	Biasing	Application
Zener diode	Operates in breakdown region	Reverse bias	Voltage regulator
LED	Emits non coherent light	Forward bias	DC or AC indicators
Photodiode	Light produces minority carriers	Reverse bias	Light detectors
Optocoupler	Combines LED and photodiode	-	Input/output isolators
Laser diode	Emits coherent light	-	CD players, broadband communication
Schottky diode	Has no charge storage	-	High-frequency rectifiers (300 MHz)
Varactor diode	Acts like variable capacitance	Reverse bias	TV and receiver tuners
Varistor	Breaks down both ways	-	Line spike protectors
Step recovery diode	Snaps off during reverse conduction	-	Frequency multiplier
Back diode	Conducts better in reverse	-	Weak signal rectifiers
Tunnel diode	Has a negative resistance region	Forward bias	High frequency oscillators

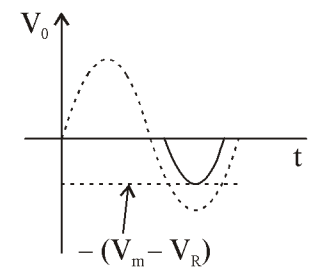
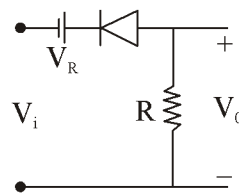
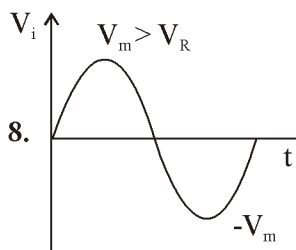
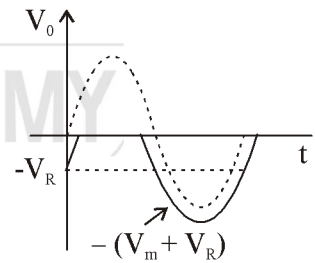
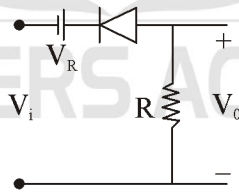
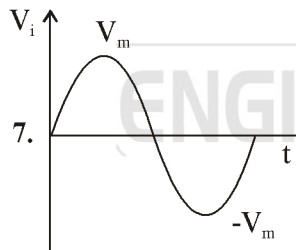
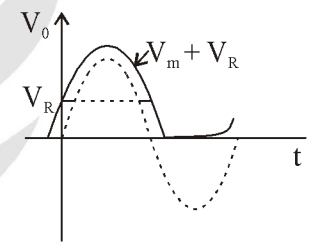
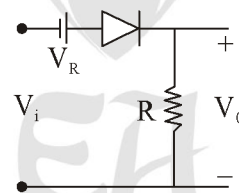
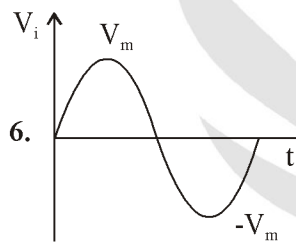
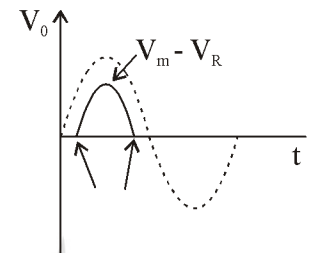
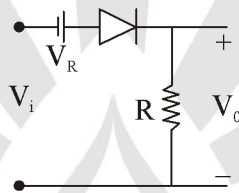
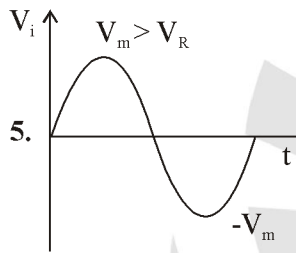
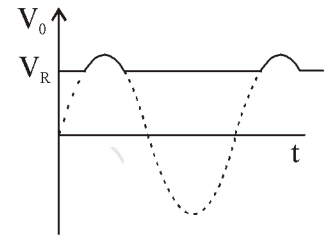
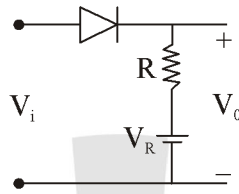
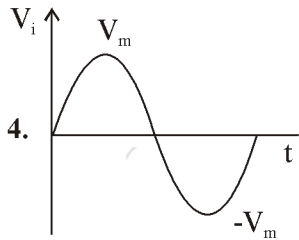
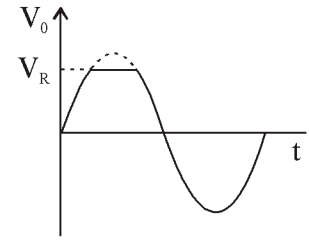
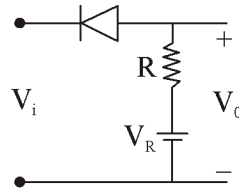
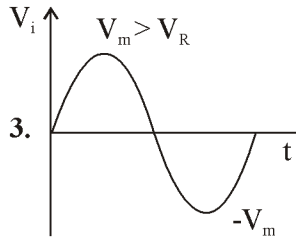
## 1.4 CLIPPERS

Clipper is a special network of diodes, which clip-off a portion of the input signal without disturbing the unclipped part of the signal. Clippers can be divided in two categories as Series clippers and Shunt or parallel clippers.

### 1.4.1 Series Clippers :

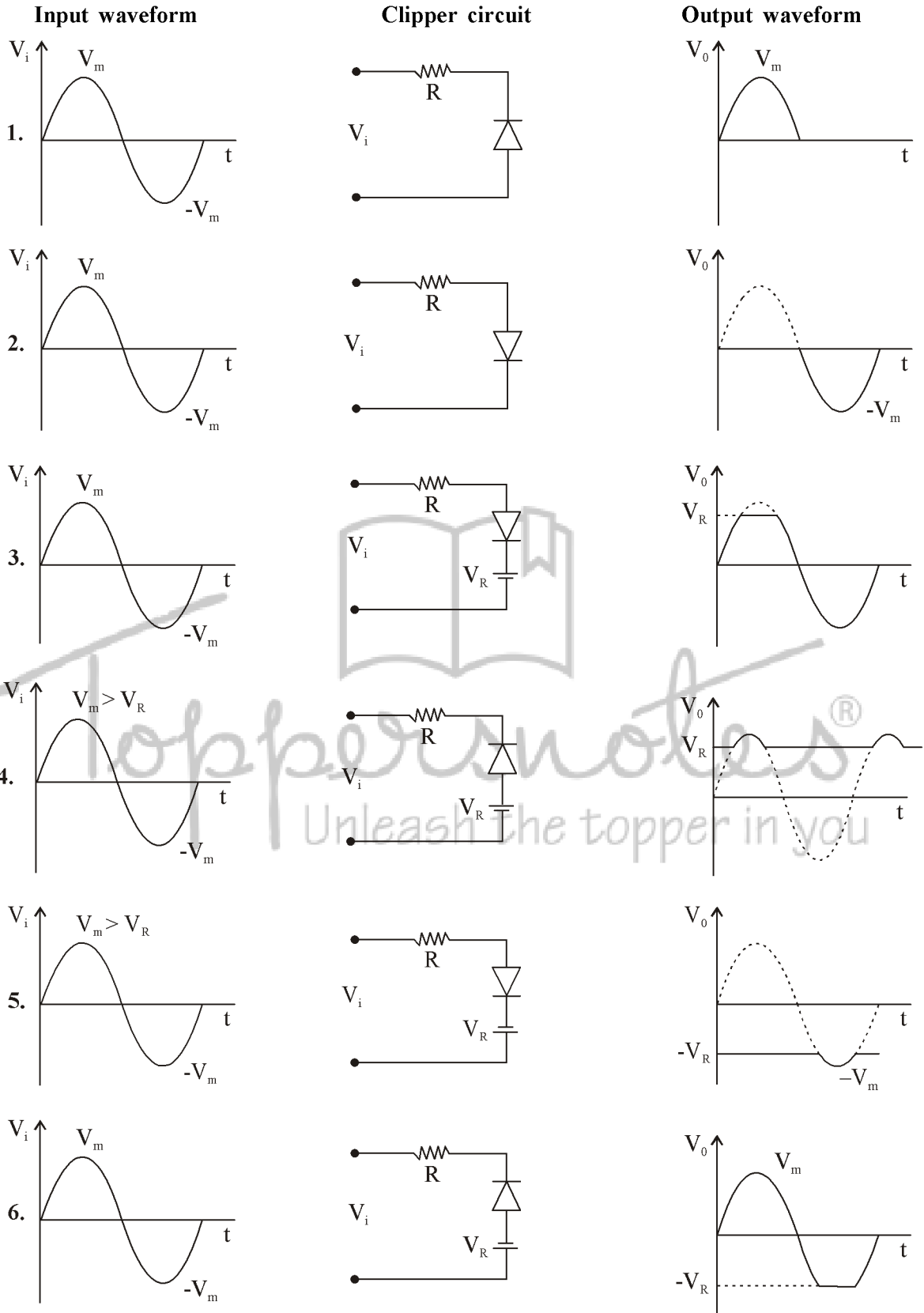
A vast variety of series clipper exist. Some of them are following :





**1.4.1 Shunt or Parallel Clippers :**

A vast variety of shunt clipper exist. Some of them are as follows :



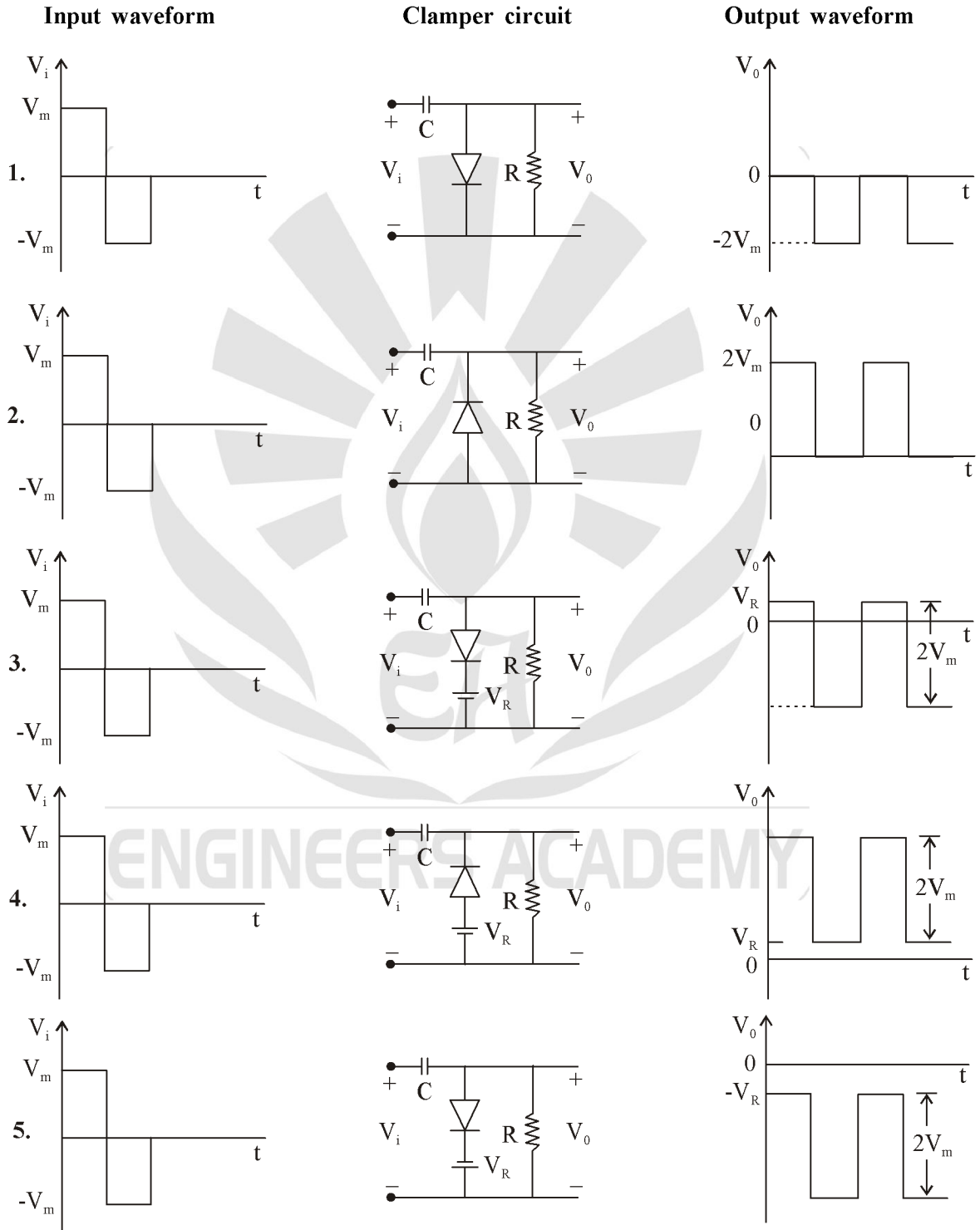


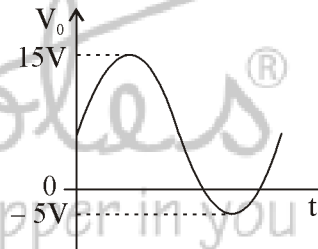
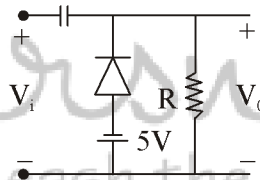
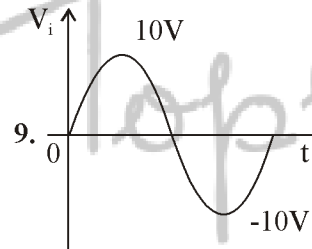
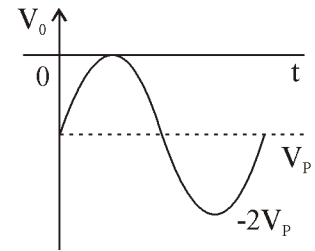
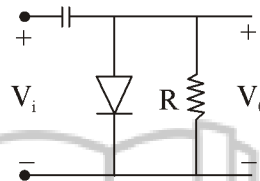
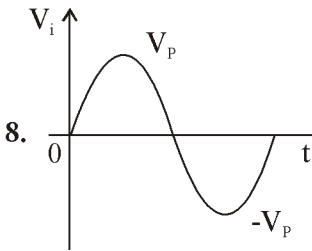
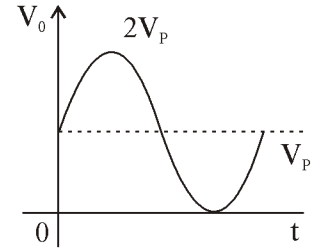
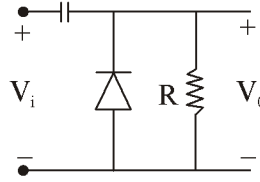
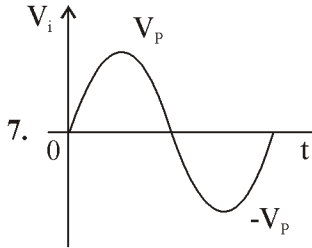
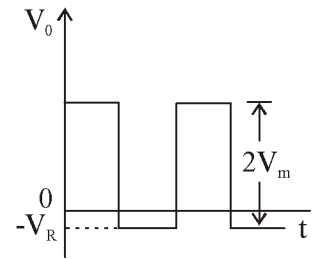
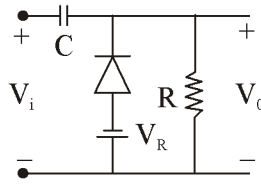
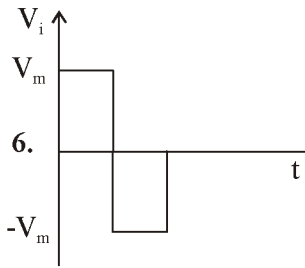
**1.5 CLAMPERS**

Clamping network consists of diode, capacitor and resistor and is used to shift the DC level of input signal. It must be noted that :

- (i) The total swing at the output of clamping network is equal to the total swing of the input signal.
- (ii) Analysis of clamper is started for that part of input signal for which diode is forward biased.

A vast variety of clamper circuits exists. Some of the them are as follows :



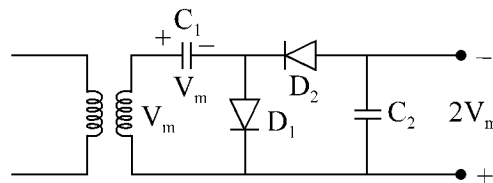


## 1.6 VOLTAGE MULTIPLIERS

Voltage multiplier circuits are used to find the multiple of magnitude of input sine wave. Few voltage multiplier circuit are as follows :

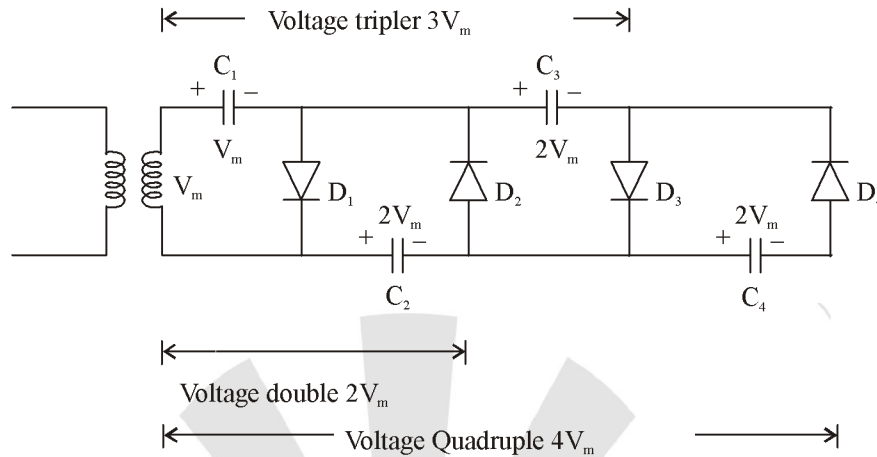
### 1.6.1 Half Wave Voltage Doubler

During the positive half cycle at input diode  $D_1$  in the secondary winding of transformer conducts and capacitor is charged upto  $V_m$  and diode  $D_2$  is off. During negative half cycle  $D_1$  is off and diode  $D_2$  conducts and capacitor  $C_2$  is charged by  $2V_m$ . The output is taken across  $C_2$  i.e.  $2V_m$ .



### 1.6.1 Full Wave Voltage Doubler

The circuit diagram given below represents a Full Wave Voltage Multiplier in which the voltage across different capacitor have different multiple of the magnitude of input voltage.

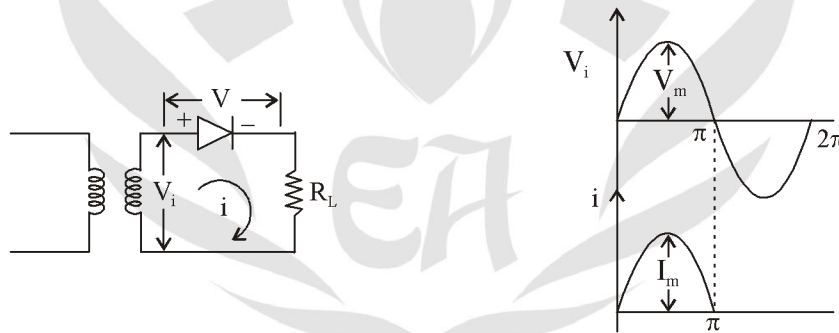


## 1.7 RECTIFIER CIRCUIT

Rectifier circuit is used to convert an AC voltage into a DC voltage. Following rectifier circuits are used :

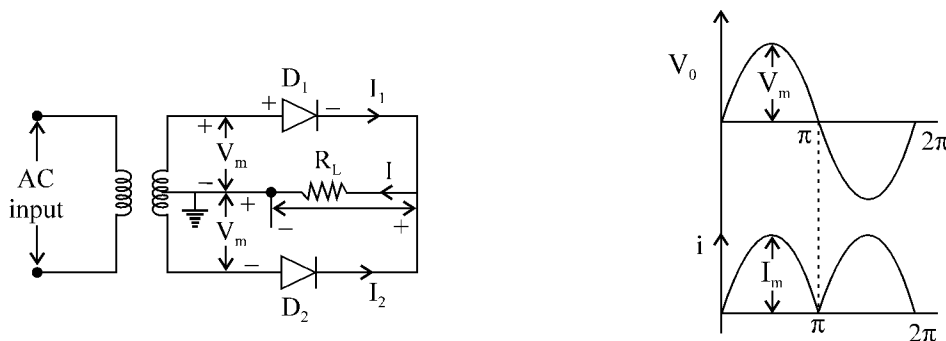
### 1.7.1 Half Wave Rectifier

In half wave rectification, the rectifier conducts current only during the positive half cycle of input ac supply. Therefore, current flows in one direction in each cycle. The circuit diagram of a half wave rectifier and its waveform is shown in figure below :



### 1.7.2 Full Wave Rectifier

In full wave rectification current flows through the load in the same direction for both half cycles of input AC voltage. This is done by two diodes working alternately. The circuit diagram and waveform of full wave rectifier is shown below :

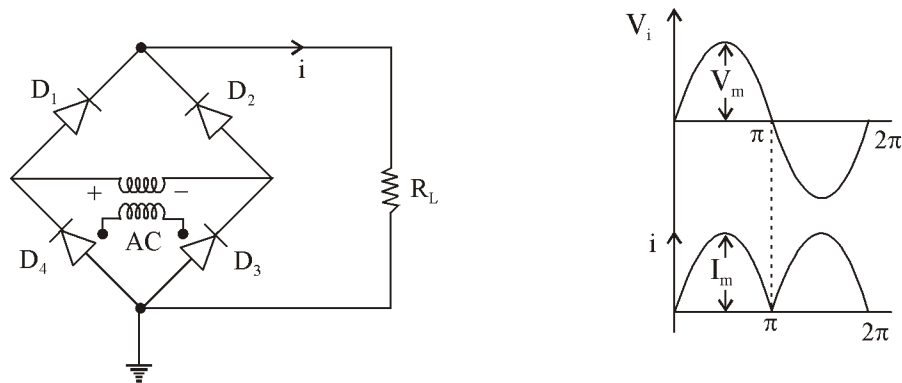


**Disadvantage :**

- (i) It is difficult to locate center tap on transformer.
- (ii) The diode used must have high PIV.

### 1.7.3 Bridge Rectifier

The need for center tapped transformer is eliminated in the bridge rectifier as shown below :



### 1.7.4 Comparison Between Rectifiers

Particulars	Half Wave	Center Tap	Bridge Type
Number of diodes	1	2	4
Maximum Efficiency	40.6%	81.2%	81.2%
Average value of current	$\frac{I_m}{\pi}$	$\frac{2I_m}{\pi}$	$\frac{2I_m}{\pi}$
rms value of current	$\frac{I_m}{2}$	$\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$
Form factor	$\pi/2$	1.11	1.11
Ripple Factor	1.21	0.481	0.481
PIV rating	$V_m$	$2V_m$	$V_m$
Transformer Utilization factor (TUF)	0.287	0.693	0.693
Output frequency	$f_m$	$2f_{in}$	$2f_{in}$

**Key Points :**

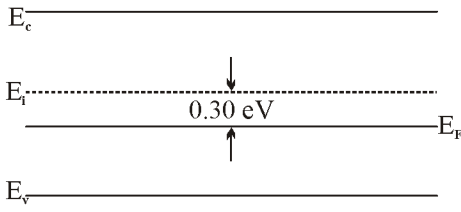
- A reverse bias diode has high resistance and large depletion layer width.
- A forward bias diode has low resistance and reduced depletion layer width.
- When diode is connected in reverse bias, then capacitance observed is Transition capacitance.
- When diode is connected in forward bias, then capacitance observed is Diffusion capacitance.
- Temperature coefficient of resistance of Zener diode is negative.

- Temperature coefficient of resistance of Avalanche diode is positive.
- Zener diode is used in reverse bias only.
- PIN diode works as a normal diode upto a frequency of 100 MHz.
- Above 100 MHz PIN diode is used as a switch or resistance.
- Tunnel diode has zero breakdown voltage, because in Tunnel diode, doping is very high (about 1000 times) of normal diode.
- In reverse bias, a tunnel diode behaves as a good conductor.
- Varactor diode operates in reverse bias and behaves as a variable capacitance.
- Step recovery diode is used to generate harmonics.
- A diode is a non-linear device.
- A clamper circuit is also known as DC voltage restorers.
- In Schottky barrier diode, conduction is entirely by electrons.
- Avalanche photodiode has higher sensitivity than PIN diodes.
- Silicon transistor is most widely used because of its high voltage rating, high current rating and greater temperature sensitivity.
- In a transistor the resistance of emitter junction is very small whereas the resistance of collector junction is very large.
- In a PN junction, depletion layer penetrates more in a lightly doped layer.

○○○

# PRACTICE SHEET

## OBJECTIVE QUESTIONS

1. The energy band diagram for a uniformly doped Si sample maintained at  $T = 300$  K is shown in figure,  
 $n_i = 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- 
- Semiconductor is
- lightly doped n type
  - heavily doped n type
  - lightly doped p type
  - heavily doped p type
2. Pick the correct relation
- $n_i = A T^3 e^{-EG/KT}$
  - $n_i^2 = A T^3 e^{-EG/KT}$
  - $n_i = A T^{3/2} e^{-EG/KT}$
  - $n_i^2 = A^2 T^{3/2} e^{-EG/KT}$
3. Diffusion is associated with random motion of electrons or holes due to
- External applied electric field
  - Concentration gradient of electrons or holes
  - Thermal agitation
  - (b) and (c) both
4. Electrons or holes are drifted in one direction due to
- External applied electric field
  - Concentration gradient of electrons or holes
  - Thermal agitation
  - (b) and (c) both
5. The Hall angle  $\theta$  of a metal sample is
- Independent of the magnetic flux density  $B$
  - Independent of the carrier mobility
  - Independent of the density of free carriers
  - Dependent on magnetic flux density, carrier mobility and density of free carriers
6. The hall effect voltage in intrinsic silicon is
- positive
  - zero
  - negative
  - change sign on application of magnetic field
7. If the lattice temperature is increased, the Hall coefficient of a semiconductor will
- Decrease
  - increases
  - First increase to a peak and then decrease
  - Remain constant
8. Graphite is a
- Conductor
  - Insulator
  - Semiconductor
  - None of these
9. Doping is a process of
- purifying semiconductor material
  - increasing impurity percentage
  - removal of foreign atoms
  - increasing the bias potential
10. .... is an example of acceptor material.
- Gallium
  - Arsenide
  - Bismuth
  - Antimony
11. Recombination of electrons and holes takes place when
- an electron falls into a hole
  - a positive ion and a negative ion bond together
  - avalanche electron becomes a conduction electron
  - an atom is formed

12. The atomic number of silicon is  
(a) 14 (b) 16  
(c) 18 (d) 12
13. In a semiconductor, the total current is equal to  
(a) sum of electron and hole currents flow in same direction  
(b) sum of electron and hole currents flow in opposite directions  
(c) electron current only  
(d) hole current only
14. Germanium and silicon are  
(a) trivalent (b) tetravalent  
(c) pentavalent (d) covalent
15. The volume charge density of mobile carriers is expressed in  
(a) coulombs / cubic meters  
(b) coulombs / meters  
(c) coulombs / seconds  
(d) coulombs / volts
16. In a Silicon crystal, the number of covalent bonds a single atom can form is  
(a) 2 (b) 4  
(c) 6 (d) 8
17. The atomic number of germanium is  
(a) 24 (b) 26  
(c) 28 (d) 32
18. Which electron in an element is responsible for chemical & electrical properties ?  
(a) valence electrons (b) revolving electrons  
(c) active electrons (d) passive electrons
19. What does a Hall Effect sensor sense ?  
(a) Temperature (b) Moisture  
(c) Magnetic fields (d) Pressure
20. Which of the following doesn't have forbidden energy gap between valence band and conductor band ?  
(a) conductor (b) insulator  
(c) semiconductor (d) none of the above
21. While plotting the VI characteristics of semiconductor diode, the voltage is plotted along horizontal axis and the current along the vertical axis because  
(a) The voltage and currents are independent variables  
(b) The voltage and currents are dependent variable  
(c) The voltage is dependent and the current is independent variable  
(d) The voltage and the current are dependent variables
22. In a semiconductor diode, the time constant equals to  
(a) Value of majority carrier lifetime  
(b) Value of minority carrier lifetime  
(c) Diffusion capacitance time constant  
(d) Zero
23. As the temperature increases in a semiconductor, the densities of the electrons and holes  
(a) Increase (b) Decrease  
(c) Become equal (d) Can't be defined
24. Drift current in the semiconductors depends upon  
(a) only the electric field  
(b) only the carrier concentration gradient  
(c) both the electric field and the carrier concentration  
(d) both the electric field and the carrier concentration gradient
25. The conductivity of the intrinsic semiconductor at absolute temperature is  
(a) 1.1 eV (b) 0.63 eV  
(c) Zero (d) infinity
26. Diamond is a  
(a) Conductor (b) Insulator  
(c) Semiconductor (d) None of these
27. The Hall coefficient of an intrinsic semiconductor is  
(a) Positive under all conditions  
(b) Negative under all conditions  
(c) Zero under all conditions  
(d) Zero at 0°K

28. Consider the following statements regarding a semiconductor :
1. Acceptor level lies close to valence band.
  2. Donor level lies close to valence band.
  3. N-type semiconductor behaves as a conductor at  $0^\circ\text{K}$ .
  4. P-type semiconductor behaves as an insulator at  $0^\circ\text{K}$ .
- (a) 1 & 2 are correct (b) 1 & 3 are correct  
(c) 1 & 4 are correct (d) 2 & 3 are correct
29. Semiconductor materials are made up of
- (a) Metallic bond (b) Ionic bond  
(c) Unshared bond (d) Covalent bond
30. At absolute zero temperature, an intrinsic semiconductor behaves like a
- (a) Conductor (b) Insulator  
(c) Semiconductor (d) Other metals
31. A semiconductor has a resistivity which
- (a) Is smaller than  $10^2 \Omega\text{cm}$   
(b) Is larger than  $10^2 \Omega\text{cm}$   
(c) Varies between  $10^2 \Omega\text{cm}$  and  $10^9 \Omega\text{cm}$   
(d) None of the above
32. The addition of a very small quantity of aluminium to a silicon or germanium crystal makes it
- (a) A good conductor  
(b) A good insulator  
(c) P-type semiconductor  
(d) N-type semiconductor
33. An intrinsic semiconductor at the absolute zero of temperature
- (a) Behaves like a semiconductor  
(b) Behaves like an insulator  
(c) Has a few free electrons and same number of holes  
(d) Has a large number of holes and a few electrons
34. The majority carriers of electricity in a p-type semiconductor are
- (a) Free electrons  
(b) Holes  
(c) Both electrons and holes  
(d) Free ions
35. N-type semiconductor is obtained when silicon or germanium is doped by
- (a) Phosphorus (b) Boron  
(c) Aluminium (d) Gallium
36. A p-type semiconductor is
1. A silicon crystal doped with arsenic impurity.
  2. A silicon crystal doped with aluminium impurity.
  3. A germanium crystal doped with boron impurity.
  4. A germanium crystal doped with phosphorus impurity.
- (a) 1, 3 are correct (b) 1, 4 are correct  
(c) 2, 3 are correct (d) 2, 4 are correct
37. Certain substances lose their electrical resistance completely at finite low temperature. Such substances are called :
- (a) Semiconductors  
(b) A good insulator  
(c) P-type semiconductor  
(d) N-type semiconductor
38. An intrinsic semiconductor has
- (a) Zero resistance at  $0^\circ\text{C}$   
(b) An infinite resistance at  $0^\circ\text{C}$   
(c) A finite resistance which decreases with increases in temperature  
(d) A finite resistance which increases with increases in temperature
39. The addition of pentavalent impurity to a semiconductor creates more
- (a) Free electrons (b) Holes  
(c) Positrons (d) Free electrons and holes
40. If a small amount of phosphorus is added to silicon
- (a) The conductivity decreases  
(b) The silicon will be a p-type semiconductor  
(c) The phosphorus becomes an acceptor impurity  
(d) There will be more free electrons than holes in the semiconductor



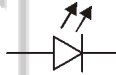


41. The electrical resistivity of
- Intrinsic semiconductor decreases with decreases of temperature
  - Intrinsic semiconductor decreases with increases of temperature
  - Metals is independent of temperature at high temperature
  - Metals decreases with increasing temperature
42. A piece of silicon or germanium at  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  is
- An insulator
  - A semiconductor
  - A conductor
  - A superconductor
43. A piece of copper and another of germanium are cooled from room temperature to  $80\text{ K}$ . The resistance of
- Each of them increases
  - Each of them decreases
  - Copper increases and germanium decreases
  - Copper increases and germanium increase
44. The electrical conductivity of a pure silicon or germanium sample can be increased by
- Increasing the temperature Doping it with acceptor impurity
  - Doping it with acceptor impurity
  - Doping it with donor impurity
  - Shining ultraviolet light on it
45. The majority carriers of electricity in a N-type semiconductor are
- Free electrons
  - Holes
  - Both electrons and holes
  - Free ions
46. In an intrinsic semiconductor
- Only electrons carry current
  - Only holes carry current
  - Both electrons and holes carry current
  - Both electrons and holes carry current with holes being the minority carriers
47. A substance has an electron concentration of  $8 \times 10^6$  per  $\text{m}^3$  and a hole concentration of  $2 \times 10^{12}$  per  $\text{m}^3$ . The substance is
- An intrinsic semiconductor
  - A n-type semiconductor
  - A p-type semiconductor
  - An insulator
48. When the conductivity of semiconductor is only due to the breaking of the covalent bands, the semiconductor is
- An intrinsic semiconductor
  - A p-type semiconductor
  - A n-type semiconductor
  - an extrinsic semiconductor
49. In Intrinsic semi conductor the valence and conduction bands
- Overlap with each other
  - Are separated by an energy gap of about  $1\text{ eV}$
  - Are separated by an energy gap of about  $10\text{ eV}$
  - Are separated by an energy gap about  $0.001\text{ eV}$
50. The energy band gap of silicon is
- $0.72\text{ eV}$
  - $1.1\text{ eV}$
  - $6\text{ eV}$
  - $0.3\text{ eV}$
51. Which of the following is not a semiconductor
- Silicon
  - Germanium
  - Arsenic
  - Selenium
52. A Silicon crystal becomes p-type when
- Code to very low temperature
  - Alloyed with germanium
  - Doped with boron atoms
  - Doped with arsenic atom
53. Carbon is said to be semiconductor. But
- Graphite and diamond are good conductor
  - Graphite and diamond are also semiconductor
  - Graphite is good conductor but diamond is bad conductor
  - Graphite is bad conductor but diamond is good conductor
54. In case of semiconductors the width of forbidden gap is about
- $0.01\text{ eV}$
  - $10\text{ eV}$
  - $100\text{ eV}$
  - $1\text{ eV}$
55. Arrange different materials in ascending order of their resistivity
- Insulators - Semiconductors - Metals
  - Semiconductors - insulators - metals
  - Metals - semiconductors - insulators
  - Insulators - Metals - semiconductors

56. The typical example of semiconductor is  
(a) Platinum (b) Quartz  
(c) Germanium (d) Mica
57. The width of forbidden gap for insulators (P), semiconductor (Q) and metals (R) are such that  
(a) Width in (P) is low, (Q) is high and (R) is overlapped  
(b) Width in (P) is high, (Q) is small and (R) is very - very small  
(c) Width in (P) is wide, (Q) is relatively small and (R) is overlapped  
(d) None of the above
58. An intrinsic semiconductor has  
(a) A finite resistance, independent of temperature change  
(b) A finite resistance which decreases with temperature  
(c) A finite resistance which increases with temperature  
(d) None of the above
59. The conductivity of semiconductor  
(a) Is independent of temperature  
(b) Varies inversely as temperature  
(c) Increases with increase in temperature  
(d) May increase or many decrease with rise in temperature
60. In a silicon diode the reverse current is usually  
(a) Very small  
(b) Very large  
(c) Zero  
(d) In the breakdown region
61. Surface-leakage current is part of the  
(a) Forward current  
(b) Forward breakdown  
(c) Reverse current  
(d) Reverse breakdown
62. The voltage where avalanche occurs is called the  
(a) Barrier potential (b) Depletion layer  
(c) Knee voltage (d) Breakdown voltage
63. Diffusion of free electrons across the junction of an unbiased diode produces  
(a) Forward bias (b) Reverse bias  
(c) Breakdown (d) The depletion layer
64. When the reverse voltage increases from 5 to 10V, the depletion layer  
(a) Becomes smaller  
(b) Becomes larger  
(c) Is unaffected  
(d) Breaks down
65. When a diode is forward-biased, the recombination of free electrons and holes may produce  
(a) Heat (b) Light  
(c) Radiation (d) All of the above
66. The depletion region of a PN junction is one, that is depleted of  
(a) Atoms  
(b) Mobiles charges  
(c) Immobile charges  
(d) None of these
67. In a pn diode, hole diffuse from p-region to n-region because  
(a) There is higher concentration of holes in the p-region  
(b) Holes are positively charged  
(c) Holes are urged to move by the barrier potential  
(d) The free-electron in the n-region attract the holes
68. In an unbiased pn junction, zero current implies that  
(a) The potential barrier has disappeared  
(b) Number of holes diffusing from p-side to n-side equals the number of electrons diffusing from n-side to p-side  
(c) No carriers cross the junction  
(d) Total current crossing the junction from p-side to n-side equals the total current crossing the junction from n-side to p-side
69. The potential energy barrier in joules developed across an open circuited pn junction equals  
(a)  $V_0$  (b)  $eV_0$   
(c)  $\frac{V_0}{p}$  (d)  $-V_0$

70. In a pn diode, with the increase of reverse bias, the reverse current
- increases
  - decreases
  - remains constant
  - may increase or decrease depending on the doping
71. A reverse biased pn junction has
- net hole current
  - net electron current
  - extremely small constant reverse current
  - very large current
72. The knee voltage of a diode is approximately equal to the
- Applied voltage
  - Barrier potential
  - Breakdown voltage
  - Forward voltage
73. In a pn diode, for constant value of current at room temperature  $dV/dT$  varies approximately at the rate of
- $-2.5 \text{ mV/deg C}$
  - $-25 \text{ mV/deg C}$
  - $+25 \text{ mV/deg C}$
  - $+2.5 \text{ mV/deg C}$
74. In a step graded reverse biased junction, the width  $W$  of the depletion layer varies as
- $\sqrt{V_j}$
  - $V_j$
  - $V_j^2$
  - $\frac{1}{V_j}$
75. The resistance of a diode is equal to
- Ohmic resistance of the P and N-type semiconductors
  - Junction resistance
  - Reverse resistance
  - Algebraic sum of (a) and (b) above
76. In a forward biased pn diode, the diffusion capacitance  $C_D$  is proportional to (where  $I$  is the diode current)
- $I$
  - $I^2$
  - $\sqrt{I}$
  - $\frac{1}{I}$
77. What is true about the breakdown voltage in zener diode ?
- It decreases when current increases
  - It destroys the diode
  - It equals the current times the resistance
  - It is approximately constant
78. Which of these is the best description of a zener diode ?
- It is a rectifier diode
  - It is a constant - voltage device
  - It is a constant - current device
  - It works in the forward region
79. The voltage across the zener resistance is usually
- Small
  - Large
  - Measured in volts
  - Subtracted from the breakdown voltage
80. If the load resistance decreases in a zener regulator the zener current
- Decreases
  - Stays the same
  - Increases
  - Equals the source voltage divided by the series resistance
81. If the load resistance decreases in a zener regulator the series current
- Decreases
  - Stays the same
  - Increases
  - Equals the source voltage divided by the series resistance
82. Breakdown does not destroy a zener diode, provided the zener current is less than the
- Breakdown voltage
  - Zener test current
  - Maximum zener current rating
  - Barrier potential

83. A zener diode  
 (a) Has a high forward-voltage rating  
 (b) Has a sharp breakdown at low reverse voltage  
 (c) It is useful as an amplifier  
 (d) Has a negative resistance
84. The light-emitting diode (LED)  
 (a) It usually made from silicon  
 (b) Uses a reverse-biased junction  
 (c) Gives a light output which increases with the increase in temperature  
 (d) Depends on the recombination of holes and electrons
85. A photodiode is normally  
 (a) Forward - biased  
 (b) Reverse - biased  
 (c) Neither forward - nor reverse biased  
 (d) Emitting light
86. The device associated with voltage controlled capacitance is a  
 (a) Light-emitting diode  
 (b) Photodiode  
 (c) Varactor diode  
 (d) Zener diode
87. When the reverse voltage increases, the capacitance  
 (a) Decreases  
 (b) Stays the same  
 (c) Increases  
 (d) Has more bandwidth
88. The operating state that distinguishes a SCR from a diode is  
 (a) Forward conduction state  
 (b) Forward blocking state  
 (c) Reverse conduction state  
 (d) Reverse blocking state
89. Zener breakdown voltage  
 (a) Increases with temperature  
 (b) Decreases with temperature  
 (c) Is independent of temperature  
 (d) Is independent of temperature and reverse bias

90. Silicon and germanium are called ..... band gap semiconductors whereas GaAs is called ..... band gap semiconductors  
 (a) direct, indirect (b) indirect, direct  
 (c) direct, direct (d) indirect, indirect
91. The colour of light emitted from the LED like GaAsP depends on  
 (a) forward bias alone  
 (b) forward bias and current  
 (c)  $\lambda$  of light focused on the diode  
 (d) reverse breakdown voltage
92. The reverse saturation current doubles when the junction temperature increases  
 (a) 1°C (b) 2°C  
 (c) 4°C (d) 10°C
93. Which List-I (circuit symbols) with List-II (devices) and select the correct answer using the codes given below the Lists

	List-I	List-II
A.		1. Light emitting diode
B.		2. Tunnel diode
C.		3. Varactor diode
<b>Codes :</b>	<b>A</b> <b>B</b> <b>C</b>	
(a)	1      3      2	
(b)	2      3      1	
(c)	2      1      3	
(d)	3      2      1	

94. Which List-I (p-n junction devices) with List-II (Application) and select the correct answer using the codes given below the Lists

	List-I	List-II
A.	Zener Diode	1. Fast switching circuits
B.	Pin Diode	2. Microwave switches
C.	Tunnel	3. Local oscillators for radars
D.	Varactor diode	4. Frequency converters
		5. Voltage regulators

<b>Codes :</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
(a)	5	2	1	4
(b)	1	2	5	4
(c)	5	3	1	2
(d)	1	3	5	2

95. Which of the following are the effects of increasing the reverse bias voltage across a pn-junctions ?

1. Decrease in junction capacitance of the diode
2. Increase in carrier generation current
3. Increase in carrier recombination in the depletion layer

Selection the correct answer using the codes given below

- |             |                |
|-------------|----------------|
| (a) 1 alone | (b) 2 and 3    |
| (c) 1 and 2 | (d) 1, 2 and 3 |

96. In a forward biased photo diode, an increase in incident light intensity causes the diode current to

- (a) increase
- (b) remain constant
- (c) decrease
- (d) remain constant while the voltage drop across the diode increases

97. In a uniformly doped abrupt p-n junction, the doping level of the n-side is four (4) times the doping level of the p-side. The ratio of the depletion layer width is

- |          |         |
|----------|---------|
| (a) 0.25 | (b) 0.5 |
| (c) 1.0  | (d) 2.0 |

98. The depletion capacitance,  $C_j$ , of an abrupt P-N junction with constant doping on either side varies with reverse bias  $V_R$ , as

- |                                      |                                      |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (a) $C_j \propto V_R$                | (b) $R$                              |
| (c) $C_j \propto V_R^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ | (d) $C_j \propto V_R^{-\frac{1}{3}}$ |

99. In switching devices, gold doping is used to

- (a) improve bonding
- (b) reduce storage time
- (c) increase the mobility of the carrier
- (d) protect the terminals against corrosion

100. If  $V_r$  is the reverse voltage across a graded p-n junction, then the junction capacitance  $C_j$  is proportional to

- |                  |                           |
|------------------|---------------------------|
| (a) $(V_r)^2$    | (b) $(V_r)^n$             |
| (c) $(V_r)^{-n}$ | (d) $(V_r)^{\frac{3}{2}}$ |

101. Which List-I (Device) with List-II (Biasing mode) and select the correct answer using the codes given below the Lists

List-I	List-II
A. LED	1. Forward bias
B. Zener	2. Reverse bias
C. Varactor	
D. SCR	

**Codes :**

A	B	C	D
(a) 1	1	2	2
(b) 1	2	1	2
(c) 1	2	2	1
(d) 2	2	1	1

102. The ripple factor of a power supply is given by (symbols have the usual meaning)

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| (a) $\frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}}$                            | (b) $\sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1}$ |
| (c) $\sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{dc}}{I_{rms}}\right)^2 - 1}$ | (d) $\frac{I_{dc}}{I_{rms}}$                           |

103. A Schottky diode clamp is used along with a switching BJT for

- (a) reducing the power dissipation
- (b) reducing the switching time
- (c) increasing the value of  $\beta$
- (d) reducing the base current

104. Consider the following statements  
A clamper circuit
1. adds or subtracts a dc voltage to or from a waveform
  2. does not change the shape of the waveform
  3. amplifies the waveform
- Of these statements
- (a) 1 and 2 are correct
  - (b) 1 and 3 are correct
  - (c) 2 and 3 are correct
  - (d) 1, 2 and 3 are correct
105. Which phenomenon is used in photo diode
- (a) photo-emissive effect
  - (b) photo voltatic effect
  - (c) photo conductive effect
  - (d) photo electric effect
106. LED radiate visible light from
- (a) depletion region
  - (b) p region alone
  - (c) n region alone
  - (d) both p and n region
107. Avalanche breakdown results basically due to
- (a) impact ionisation
  - (b) strong electric field across the junction
  - (c) emission of electrons
  - (d) rise in temperature
108. Zener breakdown results basically due to
- (a) impact ionisation
  - (b) strong electric field across the junction
  - (c) emission of electrons
  - (d) high thermal energy of the electrons
109. Zener breakdown diodes have breakdown voltage which
- (a) has positive temperature coefficient
  - (b) has negative temperature coefficient
  - (c) is independent of temperature
  - (d) none of these
110. Avalanche breakdown diodes have breakdown voltage which
- (a) has positive temperature coefficient
  - (b) has negative temperature coefficient
  - (c) is independent of temperature
  - (d) none of these
111. Silicon diodes are preferred to germanium diodes for high temperature operation because
- (a) doping of silicon is a simple process
  - (b) rate of increase of reverse saturation current with temperature is more in the case of silicon
  - (c) the reverse saturation current of silicon diodes is smaller than that of germanium
  - (d) silicon diodes can be used to rectify even very small voltages

## ANSWER AND EXPLANATIONS

1. *Ans. (c)*  
Semiconductor is lightly doped p type semiconductor because Fermi level is between intrinsic level and valence band.
2. *Ans. (b)*
3. *Ans. (d)*
4. *Ans. (a)*
5. *Ans. (d)*  
Hall field  $E_H = R_H JB$   
$$E_H = R_H \sigma EB \Rightarrow \frac{E_H}{E} = R_H \sigma B$$
  
Hall angle is  $\theta$ ,  $\tan \theta = \frac{E_H}{e} = R_H \sigma B$
6. *Ans. (c)*  
$$R_H = \frac{p\mu_p^2 - n\mu_n^2}{q(p\mu_p + n\mu_n)^2}$$
  
For intrinsic semiconductor  $p = n = n_i$   
and  $\mu_n > \mu_p$ , hence  $R_H$  is negative.
7. *Ans. (a)*  
Hall coefficient for n-type semiconductor is  
 $R_H = -\frac{1}{nq}$  for p-type semiconductor,  $R_H = \frac{1}{pq}$   
If temperature increases free electron in n-type and free hole in p-type semiconductor increase, so Hall coefficient decreases.
8. *Ans. (a)*
9. *Ans. (b)*
10. *Ans. (a)*
11. *Ans. (a)*
12. *Ans. (a)*
13. *Ans. (b)*
14. *Ans. (b)*
15. *Ans. (a)*
16. *Ans. (b)*
17. *Ans. (d)*
18. *Ans. (a)*
19. *Ans. (d)*
20. *Ans. (a)*
21. *Ans. (b)*
22. *Ans. (d)*
23. *Ans. (a)*
24. *Ans. (c)*
25. *Ans. (c)*
26. *Ans. (b)*
27. *Ans. (d)*
28. *Ans. (c)*
29. *Ans. (d)*
30. *Ans. (b)*
31. *Ans. (c)*
32. *Ans. (c)*
33. *Ans. (b)*
34. *Ans. (b)*
35. *Ans. (a)*
36. *Ans. (c)*
37. *Ans. (d)*
38. *Ans. (c)*
39. *Ans. (a)*
40. *Ans. (d)*
41. *Ans. (a)*
42. *Ans. (a)*
43. *Ans. (d)*
44. *Ans. (b)*
45. *Ans. (a)*
46. *Ans. (c)*
47. *Ans. (b)*
48. *Ans. (a)*
49. *Ans. (b)*
50. *Ans. (b)*
51. *Ans. (c)*
52. *Ans. (c)*
53. *Ans. (c)*
54. *Ans. (d)*
55. *Ans. (c)*
56. *Ans. (b)*

57. *Ans. (c)*  
 58. *Ans. (c)*  
 59. *Ans. (b)*  
 60. *Ans. (a)*  
 61. *Ans. (c)*  
 62. *Ans. (d)*  
 63. *Ans. (d)*  
 64. *Ans. (b)*  
 65. *Ans. (d)*  
 66. *Ans. (b)*  
 67. *Ans. (a)*  
 68. *Ans. (d)*  
 69. *Ans. (b)*  
 70. *Ans. (c)*  
 71. *Ans. (c)*  
 72. *Ans. (b)*  
 73. *Ans. (a)*  
 74. *Ans. (a)*  
 75. *Ans. (d)*  
 76. *Ans. (a)*  
 77. *Ans. (d)*  
 78. *Ans. (b)*  
 79. *Ans. (b)*  
 80. *Ans. (a)*  
 81. *Ans. (c)*  
 82. *Ans. (c)*  
 83. *Ans. (b)*  
 84. *Ans. (d)*  
 85. *Ans. (b)*  
 86. *Ans. (c)*  
 87. *Ans. (a)*  
 88. *Ans. (b)*  
 89. *Ans. (b)*  
 90. *Ans. (b)*  
 91. *Ans. (b)*  
 92. *Ans. (d)*  
 93. *Ans. (a)*  
 94. *Ans. (a)*  
 95. *Ans. (a)*

$$C_T = \frac{\epsilon A}{W}$$

W (width) of depletion region increases with

voltage therefore  $C_T$  will decrease.

96. *Ans. (b)*  
 97. *Ans. (a)*

Width of depletion layer is inversely proportional to doping concentration.

98. *Ans. (c)*

$$C_j = \frac{C_0}{\left[1 + \frac{V_r}{V_T}\right]^n}$$

Here

$C_0 = \text{constant}$

$n = 1/2$  for abrupt junction or step graded junction.

$n = 1/3$  for linear junction

99. *Ans. (b)*

Gold is used as a recombination agent, speeds up the process of recombination, therefore storage time will reduce.

100. *Ans. (c)*

$$C_j = \frac{C_{j0}}{\left(1 + \frac{V_r}{V_T}\right)^n}$$

81. *Ans. (c)*  
 82. *Ans. (c)*  
 83. *Ans. (b)*  
 84. *Ans. (d)*  
 85. *Ans. (b)*  
 86. *Ans. (c)*  
 87. *Ans. (a)*  
 88. *Ans. (b)*  
 89. *Ans. (b)*  
 90. *Ans. (b)*  
 91. *Ans. (b)*  
 92. *Ans. (d)*  
 93. *Ans. (a)*  
 94. *Ans. (a)*  
 95. *Ans. (a)*

101. *Ans. (c)*

102. *Ans. (b)*

$$FF = \text{Form factor} = \frac{\text{r.m.s. value}}{\text{average value}}$$

$$\text{Ripple factor} = \sqrt{(FF)^2 - 1}$$

103. *Ans. (b)*

104. *Ans. (a)*

Clamper cannot amplify the signal.

105. *Ans. (c)*

106. *Ans. (a)*

107. *Ans. (a)*

108. *Ans. (b)*

109. *Ans. (b)*

110. *Ans. (a)*

111. *Ans. (c)*