

# Electronics Engineering

## Electronic Devices and Circuits

Comprehensive Theory

*with* Solved Examples and Practice Questions



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## **Electronic Devices and Circuits**

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# Contents

## Electronic Devices and Circuits

### Chapter 1

#### Semiconductor Physics ..... 1-40

- 1.1 The Nature of The Atom..... 1
- 1.2 Atomic Energy Levels..... 3
- 1.3 Electronic Structure of the Elements ..... 4
- 1.4 The Energy-Band Theory of Crystals ..... 5
- 1.5 Insulators, Semiconductors and Metals..... 6
- 1.6 Electrons & Holes in an Intrinsic Semiconductor.... 7
- 1.7 Conductivity of a Semiconductor ..... 9
- 1.8 Extrinsic Semiconductor:  
Donor and Acceptor Impurities ..... 11
- 1.9 The Mass-Action Law ..... 13
- 1.10 Carrier Concentrations ..... 15
- 1.11 Charge Neutrality ..... 22
- 1.12 Drift of Carriers in Electric & Magnetic Fields.... 25
- 1.13 Diffusion of Carriers..... 31
- 1.14 The Continuity Equation..... 34
- 1.15 Hall Effect ..... 36
- Student's Assignments* ..... 39

### Chapter 2

#### P-N Junction and Diodes..... 41-87

- 2.1 Basic Structure of the p-n Junction ..... 41
- 2.2 Equilibrium Conditions ..... 41
- 2.3 Forward and Reverse Biased  
Junctions-Steady State Conditions..... 52
- 2.4 Capacitive Effects in the p-n Junction ..... 65
- 2.5 Different Types of Junctions..... 71
- 2.6 Charge Storage and Diode Transients ..... 72
- 2.7 Reverse Bias-Breakdown..... 74
- 2.8 Some Special Diodes ..... 78
- 2.9 Metal-Semiconductor Junctions ..... 83
- Student's Assignments* ..... 86

### Chapter 3

#### Bipolar Junction Transistors ..... 88-105

- 3.1 Device Structure ..... 88
- 3.2 Transistor Action..... 90
- 3.3 Base Width Modulation..... 94
- 3.4 BJT Configuration..... 95
- 3.5 The Common Base Configuration..... 96
- 3.6 The Common-Emitter Configuration..... 99
- 3.7 The Common-Collector Configuration..... 103
- Student's Assignments* ..... 104

### Chapter 4

#### Field Effect Transistor (FET)..... 106-138

- 4.1 Construction of JFETs..... 107
- 4.2 Symbols ..... 107
- 4.3 FET Operation..... 108
- 4.4 The Pinch-off Voltage  $V_p$  ..... 108
- 4.5 The JFET Volt-Ampere Characteristics ..... 109
- 4.6 The Transfer Characteristic..... 111
- 4.7 Interpretation and Sketching  
of Transfer Characteristics Curve ..... 111
- 4.8 FET Parameters..... 113
- 4.9 MOSFET..... 116
- 4.10 Enhancement Type MOSFET ..... 120
- 4.11 Derivation of the  $I_D - V_{DS}$  Relationship ..... 123
- 4.12 Functional Analysis of Enhancement MOSFET... 128
- 4.13 Depletion Type MOSFET ..... 132
- Student's Assignments* ..... 137



# Semiconductor Physics

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## Introduction

Since this book is primarily an introduction to solid state devices, it would be preferable not to delay this discussion with subjects such as atomic theory, quantum mechanics, and electron models. However, the behaviour of solid state devices is directly related to these subjects. For example, it would be difficult to understand how an electron is transported through a semiconductor device without some knowledge of the electron and its interaction with the crystal lattice. Therefore, in this chapter we shall investigate some of the important properties of electrons, with special emphasis on two points: (1) the electronics structure of atoms, and (2) the interaction of atoms and electrons with excitation, such as the absorption and emission of light.

We begin with a review of the basic atomic properties of matter leading to discrete electronic energy levels in atom. We find that atomic energy levels are spread into energy bands in a crystal. This band structure allows us to distinguish between an insulator, a semiconductor, and a metal.

## 1.1 The Nature of The Atom

In order to explain many phenomena associated with conduction in gases, metals and semiconductors and the emission of electrons from the surface of a metal, it is necessary to assume that the atom has loosely bound electrons which can be torn away from it.

Rutherford found that the atom consists of a nucleus of positive charge that contains nearly all the mass of the atom and hence it will remain substantially immobile. Surrounding this central positive core are negatively charged electrons. As a specific illustration of this atomic model, consider the hydrogen atom. This atom consists of a positively charged nucleus (a proton) and a single electron. The force of attraction between the electron and the proton follows Coulomb's law. It can be shown from classical mechanics that the resultant closed path will be a circle or an ellipse under the action of such a force. This motion is exactly analogous to that of the planets about the sun, because in both cases the force varies inversely as the square of the distance between the particles.

Assume, therefore, that the orbit of the electron in this planetary model of the atom is a circle, the nucleus being supposed fixed in space. It is a simple matter to calculate its radius in terms of the total energy  $W$  of the electron. The force of attraction between the nucleus and the electron is  $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2$ , where the electronic charge  $e$  is in Coulombs, the separation  $r$  between the two particles is in meters, the force is in Newtons, and  $\epsilon_0$  is the permittivity of free space. By Newton's second law of motion, this must be set equal to the product of the electronic mass  $m$  in kilograms and the acceleration  $v^2/r$  toward the nucleus, where  $v$  is the speed of the electron in its circular path, in meters per second.

$$\text{Then } \frac{e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r^2} = \frac{mv^2}{r} \quad \dots(1.1)$$

Furthermore, the potential energy of the electron at a distance  $r$  from the nucleus is  $-e^2/4\pi \epsilon_0 r$ , and its kinetic energy is  $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ . Then, according to the conservation of energy,

$$W = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r} \quad \dots(1.2)$$

where the energy is in Joules. Combining equation (1.2) with equation (1.1) we get

$$W = -\frac{e^2}{8\pi \epsilon_0 r} \quad \dots(1.3)$$

which gives the desired relationship between the radius and the energy of the electron. This equation shows that the **total energy of the electron is always negative**. The negative sign arises because the potential energy has been chosen to be zero when  $r$  is infinite. This expression also shows that the energy of the electron becomes smaller (i.e., more negative) as it approaches closer to the nucleus.

However, an accelerated charge must radiate energy, in accordance with the classical laws of electromagnetism. If the charge is performing oscillations of a frequency  $f$ , the radiated energy will also be of this frequency. Hence, classically, it must be concluded that the frequency of the emitted radiation equals the frequency with which the electron is rotating in its circular orbit.

But if the electron is radiating energy, its total energy must decrease by the amount of this emitted energy. As a result the radius  $r$  of the orbit must decrease, in accordance with Equation (1.3). Consequently, as the atom radiates energy, the electron must move in smaller and smaller orbits, eventually falling into the nucleus. Since the frequency of oscillation depends upon the size of the circular orbit, the energy radiated would be of a gradually changing frequency. Such a conclusion, however, is incompatible with the sharply defined frequencies of spectral lines.

### 1.1.1 The Bohr Atom

Above difficulty was resolved by Bohr. He postulated the following three fundamental laws:

- (i) Not all energies as given by classical mechanics are possible, but the atom can possess only certain discrete energies. While in states corresponding to these discrete energies, the electron does not emit radiation, and the electron is said to be in stationary or non-radiating, state.
- (ii) In a transition from one stationary state corresponding to a definite energy  $W_2$  to another stationary state, with an associated energy  $W_1$ , radiation will be emitted. The frequency of this radiant energy is given by

$$f = \frac{W_2 - W_1}{h} \quad \dots(1.4)$$

where  $h$  is Planck's constant in Joule-seconds, the  $W$ 's are expressed in Joules, and  $f$  is in cycles per second, or Hertz.

- (iii) A stationary state is determined by the condition that the angular momentum of the electron in this state is quantized and must be an integral multiple of  $h/2\pi$ . Thus

$$mvr = \frac{nh}{2\pi} \quad \dots(1.5)$$

where  $n$  is an integer.



**Example - 1.2**

The longest wavelength that can be absorbed by silicon, which has the bandgap of 1.12 eV, is 1.1  $\mu\text{m}$ . If the longest wavelength that can be absorbed by another material is 0.87  $\mu\text{m}$ , then the bandgap of this material is

- (a) 1.416 eV (b) 0.886 eV  
(c) 0.854 eV (d) 0.706 eV

**Solution : (a)**

$$E_G = \frac{1.24}{\lambda(\mu\text{m})} \text{eV} = \frac{1.24}{0.87\mu\text{m}} \text{eV} = 1.425 \text{eV}$$

### 1.2.1 The Photon Nature of Light

Assume that an atom has been raised from the ground state to an excited level by electron bombardment. The mean life of an excited state ranges from  $10^{-7}$  to  $10^{-10}$  s, the excited electron returning to its previous state after the lapse of this time. In this transition, the atom must lose an amount of energy equal to the difference in energy between the two states that it has successively occupied, this energy appearing in the form of radiation. According to the postulates of Bohr, this energy is emitted in the form of a photon of light, the frequency of this radiation being given by Eq. (1.4), or the wavelength by Eq. (1.7). The term photon denotes an amount of radiate energy equal to the constant  $h$  times of the frequency.

### 1.3 Electronic Structure of the Elements

The inner-shell electrons are very strongly bound to an atom, and cannot be easily removed. That is, the electrons closest to the nucleus are the most tightly bound, and so have the lowest energy. Also, atoms for which the electrons exist in closed shells form very stable configurations. For example, the inert gases *He, Ne, Ar, Kr* and *Xe* all have either completely filled shells or, at least, completely filled subshells.

Carbon, silicon, germanium, and tin have the electronic configurations indicated in Table (1.1). Note that each of these elements has completely filled subshells except for the outermost  $p$  shell, which contains only two of the six possible electrons. Despite this similarity, carbon in crystalline form (diamond) is an insulator, silicon and germanium solids are semiconductors, and tin is a metal.

Element	Atomic Number	Configuration
C	6	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$
Si	14	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^2$
Ge	32	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^2$
Sn	50	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 5s^2 5p^2$

**Table-1.1 :** Electronic configuration in Group IVA

**Example - 1.3**

Atomic number of silicon is

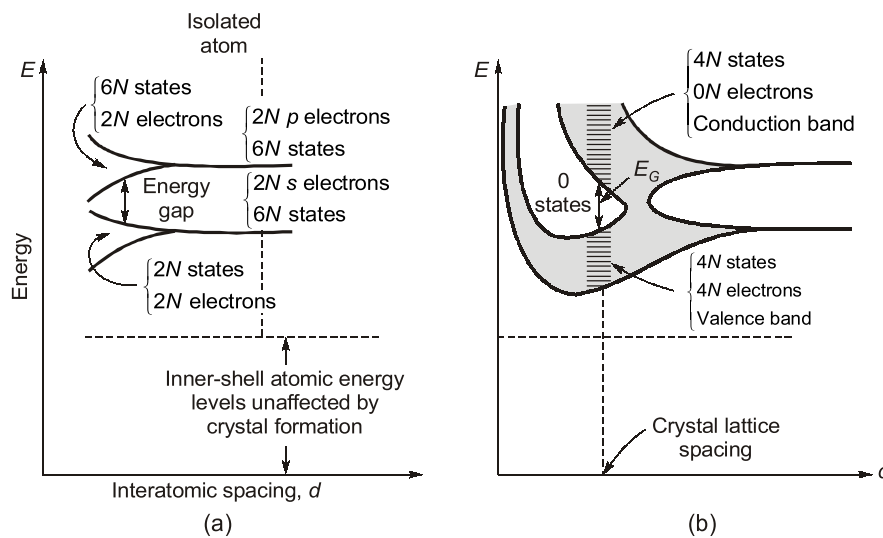
- (a) 12 (b) 13  
(c) 14 (d) 15

**Solution : (c)**

From Table-1.1 atomic number of Silicon is 14.

## 1.4 The Energy-Band Theory of Crystals

X-ray and other studies reveal that most metals and semiconductors are crystalline in structure. A crystal consists of a space array of atoms or molecules (strictly speaking, ions) built up by regular repetition in three dimensions of some fundamental structural unit. The electronic energy levels discussed for a single free atom (as in a gas, where the atoms are sufficiently far apart not to exert any influence on one another) do not apply to the same atom in a crystal. When atoms form crystals it is found that the energy levels of the inner-shell electrons are not affected appreciably by the presence of the neighbouring atoms. However, the levels of the outer-shell electrons are changed considerably, since these electrons are shared by more than one atom in the crystal. The new energy levels of the outer electrons can be determined by means of quantum mechanics, and it is found that coupling between the outer-shell electrons of the atoms results in a band of closely spaced energy states instead of the widely separated energy levels of the isolated atom [Fig. (1.2)]. A qualitative discussion of this energy-band structure follows.



**Figure-1.2:** Illustrating how the energy levels of isolated atoms are split into energy bands when these atoms are brought into close proximity to form a crystal

Consider a crystal consisting of  $N$  atoms of one of the elements in Table (1.1). Imagine that it is possible to vary the spacing between atoms without altering the type of fundamental crystal structure. If the atoms are so far apart that the interaction between them is negligible, the energy levels will coincide with those of the isolated atom. The outer two subshells for each element in Table (1.1) contain two  $s$  electrons and two  $p$  electrons. Hence, if we ignore the inner-shell levels, then, as indicated to the extreme right in Fig. 1.2 (a), there are  $2N$  electrons completely filling the  $2N$  possible  $s$  levels, all at the same energy. Since the  $p$  atomic subshell has six possible states, our imaginary crystal of widely spaced atoms has  $2N$  electrons, which fill only one-third of the  $6N$  possible  $p$  states, all at the same level.

If we now decrease the interatomic spacing of our imaginary crystal (moving from right to left in Fig. 1.2 (a)), an atom will exert an electric force on its neighbours. Because of this coupling between atoms, the atomic-wave functions overlap, and the crystal becomes an electronic system which must obey the Pauli exclusion principle. Hence the  $2N$  degenerate  $s$  states must spread out in energy. The separation between levels is small, but since  $N$  is very large ( $\sim 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), the total spread between the minimum and maximum energy may be several electron volts if the interatomic distance is decreased sufficiently. This large number of discrete but closely spaced energy levels is called an **energy band**, and is indicated schematically by the lower shaded region in Fig. 1.2 (a). The  $2N$  states in this band are completely filled with  $2N$  electrons. Similarly, the upper shaded region in Fig. 1.2 (a) is a band of  $6N$  states which has only  $2N$  of its levels occupied by electrons.



Note that there is an energy gap (a forbidden band) between the two bands discussed above and that this gap decreases as the atomic spacing decreases. For small enough distance (not indicated in Fig. 1.2 (a) but shown in Fig. 1.2 (b) these bands will overlap. Under such circumstances the  $6N$  upper states merge with the  $2N$  lower states, giving a total of  $8N$  levels, half of which are occupied by the  $2N + 2N = 4N$  available electrons. At this spacing each atom has given up four electrons to the band; these electrons can no longer be said to orbit in  $s$  or  $p$  subshells of an isolated atom, but rather they belong to the crystal as a whole. In this sense the elements in Table (1.1) are tetravalent, since they contribute four electrons each to the crystal. The band these electrons occupy is called the **valence band**.

If the spacing between atoms is decreased below the distance at which the bands overlap, the interaction between atoms is indeed large. The energy-band structure then depends upon the orientation of the atoms relative to one another in space (the crystal structure) and upon the atomic number, which determines the electrical constitution of each atom. Solutions of Schrodinger's equation are complicated, and have been obtained approximately for only relatively few crystals. These solutions lead us to expect an energy-band diagram somewhat as pictured<sup>4</sup> in Fig. 1.2 (b). At the crystal-lattice spacing (the dashed vertical line), we find the valence band **filled** with  $4N$  electrons separated by a forbidden band (no allowed energy states) of extent  $E_G$  from an **empty** band consisting of  $4N$  additional states. This upper vacant band is called the **conduction band**.

## 1.5 Insulators, Semiconductors and Metals

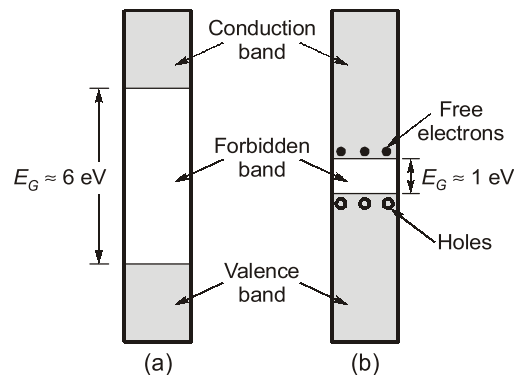


Figure-1.3: Simplified energy band diagrams of (a) insulator (b) semiconductor (c) conductor

### 1.5.1 Insulators

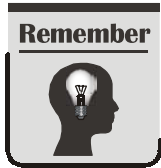
- An insulating material has an energy band diagram as shown in Fig. 1.3 (a).
- It has a very wide forbidden-energy gap ( $\approx 6 \text{ eV}$ ) separating the filled valence band from the vacant conduction band. Because of this, it is practically impossible for an electron in the valence band to jump the gap, reach the conduction band.
- At room temperature, an insulator does not conduct. However it may conduct if its temperature is very high or if a high voltage is applied across it. This is termed as the **breakdown of the insulator**.
- **Example:** diamond.

### 1.5.2 Semiconductors

- A semiconductor has an energy-band gap as shown in Fig. 1.3 (b).
- At  $0^\circ\text{K}$  semiconductor materials have the same structure as insulators except the difference in the size of the band gap  $E_G$ , which is much smaller in semiconductors ( $E_G \approx 1 \text{ eV}$ ) than in insulators.
- The relatively small band gaps of semiconductors allow for excitation of electrons from the lower (valence) band to the upper (conduction) band by reasonable amount of thermal or optical energy.
- The difference between semiconductors and insulators is that the conductivity of semiconductors can increase greatly by thermal or optical energy.
- **Example:** Ge and Si.

### 1.5.3 Metals

- There is no forbidden energy gap between the valence and conduction bands. The two bands actually overlap as shown in Fig. 1.3 (c).
- Without supplying any additional energy such as heat or light, a metal already contains a large number of free electrons and that is why it works as a good conductor.
- **Example:** Al, Cu etc.



Conduction band electrons can move along sea of atoms present in the specimen under consideration while the valence band electrons (restrained electrons) are bound to parent atom. These conduction band electrons are known as **free electrons**.



Since the band-gap energy of a crystal is a function of interatomic spacing, it is not surprising that  $E_G$  depends somewhat on temperature. It has been determined experimentally that  $E_G$  for silicon decrease with temperature at the rate of  $3.60 \times 10^{-4}$  eV/°K. Hence, for silicon,  $E_G(T) = 1.21 - 3.60 \times 10^{-4} T$  ... (1.8) and at room temperature (300°K),  $E_G = 1.1$  eV ... (1.9) Similarly, for germanium,  $E_G(T) = 0.785 - 2.23 \times 10^{-4} T$  and at room temperature,  $E_G = 0.72$  eV

**Example - 1.4**

The bandgap of Silicon at room temperature is

- (a) 1.3 eV (b) 0.7 eV  
(c) 1.1 eV (d) 1.4 eV

**Solution : (c)**

$$E_G(T) = 1.21 - 3.60 \times 10^{-4} T$$

At  $T = 300$  °K,  $E_G = 1.1$  eV

**Example - 1.5**

Which one of the following statements is correct in respect of the use of Direct Gap (DG) and Indirect Gap (IG) semiconductors in fabrication of Light Emitting diode?

- (a) Both DG and IG semiconductors are suitable  
(b) Only DG semiconductor is suitable  
(c) DG semiconductor is suitable and some IG materials having proper dopants are also used  
(d) only IG semiconductors are suitable

**Solution : (b)**

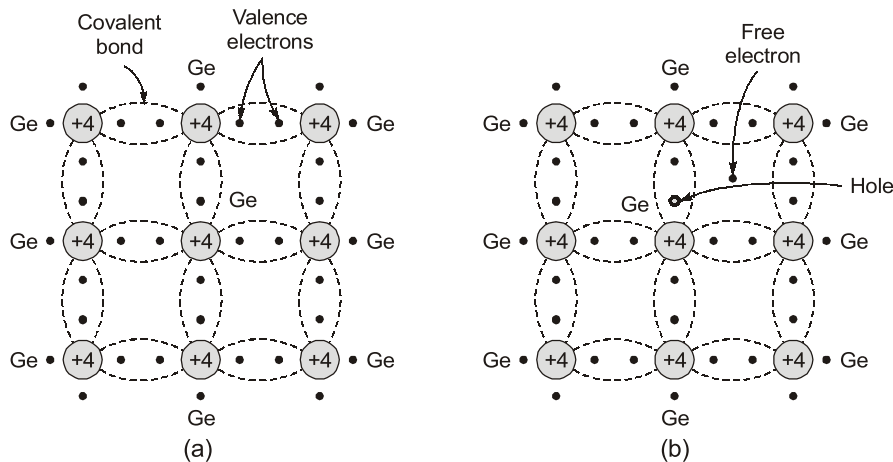
Since the direct gap semiconductor gives the energy difference as a photon of light, it is suitable in the fabrication of LED.

## 1.6 Electrons and Holes in an Intrinsic Semiconductor

Germanium and silicon are the two most important semiconductors used in electronic devices. The crystal structure of these materials consists of a regular repetition in three dimensions of a unit cell having the form of a tetrahedron with an atom at each vertex. This structure is illustrated symbolically in two dimensions in Fig. 1.4 (a). Germanium has a total of 32 electrons in its atomic structure, arranged in shells as indicated in Table (1.1). Each atom in a germanium crystal contributes four valence electrons, so that the atom is tetravalent.

The inert ionic core of the germanium atom carries a positive charge of +4 measured in units of the electronic charge. The binding forces between neighbouring atoms result from the fact that each of the valence electrons of a germanium atom is shared by one of its four nearest neighbors. The electron pair or covalent bond is represented in Fig. 1.4 (a) by two dashed lines which join each atom to each of its neighbours. The fact that the valence electrons serve to bind one atom to the next also results in the valence electron being tightly bound to the nucleus. Hence, in spite of the availability of four valence electrons, the crystal has a low conductivity.

At a very low temperature (say 0°K) the ideal structure of Fig. (1.4) is approached, and the crystal behaves as an insulator, since no free carriers of electricity are available. However, at room temperature, some of the covalent bonds will be broken because of the thermal energy supplied to the crystal, and conduction is made possible. This situation is illustrated in Fig. 1.4 (b). Here an electron, which for the far greater period of time forms part of a covalent bond, is pictured as being dislodged and therefore free to wander in a random fashion throughout the crystal. The energy  $E_G$  required to break such a covalent bond is about 0.72 eV for germanium and 1.1 eV for silicon at room temperature. The absence of the electron in the covalent bond is represented by the small circle in Fig. 1.4 (b), and such an incomplete covalent bond is called a **hole**. The importance of the hole is that it may serve as a carrier of electricity comparable in effectiveness to the free electron.



**Figure-1.4:** (a) Crystal structure of germanium, illustrated symbolically in two dimensions  
(b) Germanium crystal with a broken covalent bond

The mechanism by which a hole contributes to the conductivity is qualitatively as follows: When a bond is incomplete so that a hole exists, it is relatively easy for a valence electron in a neighboring atom to leave its covalent bond to fill this hole. An electron moving from a bond to fill a hole leaves a hole in its initial position. Hence the hole effectively moves in the direction opposite to that of the electron. This hole, in its new position, may now be filled by an electron from another covalent bond, and the hole will correspondingly move one more step in the direction opposite to the motion of the electron. Here we have a mechanism for the conduction of electricity which does not involve **free electrons**. This phenomenon is illustrated schematically in Fig. (1.5), where a circle with a dot in it represents a completed bond, and an empty circle designates a hole. Fig. 1.5 (a) shows a row of 10 ions, with a broken bond, or hole, at ion 6. Now imagine that an electron from ion 7 moves into the hole at ion 6, so that configuration of Fig. 1.5 (b) results. If we compare this Fig. with Fig. 1.5 (a), it looks as if the hole in (a) has moved toward the right in (b) (from ion 6 to ion 7). This discussion indicates that the motion of the hole in one direction actually means the transport of a negative charge an equal distance in the opposite direction. So far as the flow of electric current is concerned, the hole behaves like a positive charge equal in magnitude to the electronic charge. We can consider that the holes are physical entities whose movement constitutes a flow of current.



- So with increasing temperature,  $n_i$  increases and correspondingly, the conductivity increases.
- Conductivity is the reciprocal of resistivity i.e.

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho} \quad \text{where, } \rho = \frac{RA}{l}$$

Here,  $\rho$  = Resistivity of the material  
 $A$  = Cross-sectional area of the material  
 $l$  = Length of the material

The constants  $E_{G0}$ ,  $\mu_n$ ,  $\mu_p$  and many other important physical quantities for germanium and silicon are given in Table (1.2).

Property	Ge	Si
Atomic number	32	14
Atomic weight	72.6	28.1
Density, g/cm <sup>3</sup>	5.32	2.33
Dielectric constant (relative)	16	12
Atoms/cm <sup>3</sup>	$4.4 \times 10^{22}$	$5.0 \times 10^{22}$
$E_{G0}$ , eV, at 0°K	0.785	1.21
$E_G$ , eV, at 300°K	0.72	1.1
$n_i$ at 300°K, cm <sup>-3</sup>	$2.5 \times 10^{13}$	$1.5 \times 10^{10}$
Intrinsic resistivity at 300° K, $\Omega$ -cm	45	230,000
$\mu_n$ , cm <sup>2</sup> /V-sec	3,800	1,300
$\mu_p$ , cm <sup>2</sup> /V-sec	1,800	500
$D_n$ , cm <sup>2</sup> /sec = $\mu_n V_T$	99	34
$D_p$ , cm <sup>2</sup> /sec = $\mu_p V_T$	47	13

Table-1.2 : Properties of germanium and silicon

#### Example - 1.7

Calculate the value of intrinsic concentration in a silicon sample which is kept at 550°K.

(Assuming  $N_c = 2.8 \times 10^{19}/\text{cm}^3$ ,  $N_v = 1.04 \times 10^{19}/\text{cm}^3$  and  $E_g = 1.12$  eV at 300°K)

#### Solution:

At  $T = 550$  K, the intrinsic carrier concentration is found from equation as

$$\begin{aligned} n_i^2 &= N_c N_v \exp\left(\frac{-E_g}{kT}\right) \\ &= (2.8 \times 10^{19})(1.04 \times 10^{19}) \left(\frac{550}{300}\right)^3 \exp\left[\frac{-1.12}{0.0259} \left(\frac{300}{550}\right)\right] \end{aligned}$$

or

$$n_i^2 = 1.02 \times 10^{29}$$

So that,

$$n_i = 3.20 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

- Q.3** The magnitude of diffusion constant for a n type Germanium bar of 1 mm thickness and 3 mm width with  $B_z = 0.1 \text{ Wb/m}^2$ ,  $I_x = 10 \text{ mA}$ ,  $V_H = 50 \text{ mV}$  and  $\rho = 20,0000 \text{ } \Omega\text{-cm}$  is approximately  
 (a)  $1.94 \times 10^{-3}/\text{m}^2$  (b)  $7.5 \times 10^{-3}/\text{m}^2$   
 (c)  $2.5 \times 10^{-3}/\text{m}^2$  (d)  $5 \times 10^{-3}/\text{m}^2$
- Q.4** Consider a Silicon p-n junction with  $N_A \ll N_D$ . The resistivity of p-side is  $3.5 \text{ } \Omega\text{-cm}$ , the internal contact potential is  $0.35 \text{ V}$  and applied reverse bias is  $5 \text{ V}$ . If the junction has circular cross-section with diameter  $500 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ , then the junction capacitance is  
 (Assume  $\mu_p = 500 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-sec}$ ,  $\mu_n = 1300 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-sec}$ ,  $n_i = 1.5 \times 10^{10}/\text{cm}^3$ ,  $\epsilon_r = 11.7$  for Si)  
 (a)  $14 \text{ pF}$  (b)  $2 \text{ pF}$   
 (c)  $16 \text{ pF}$  (d)  $32 \text{ pF}$
- Q.5** A sample of Germanium is doped to the extent of  $10^{14}$  donor atoms/cm<sup>3</sup> and  $5 \times 10^{13}$  acceptor atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>. At  $300^\circ \text{ K}$  the resistivity of the intrinsic Germanium is  $60 \text{ } \Omega\text{-cm}$ . The applied electric field is  $2 \text{ V/cm}$ ,  $\mu_p/\mu_n = 1/2$  and  $n_i = 2.5 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$ . The concentration of electron is  
 (a)  $6.03 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$  (b)  $4.05 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$   
 (c)  $3 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$  (d)  $1.05 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$
- Q.6** For Silicon semiconductor,  $\mu_n = 1500 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-sec}$ ,  $\mu_p = 750 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-sec}$  and  $n_i = 1.8 \times 10^{11}/\text{cm}^3$ . The maximum resistivity will be  
 (a)  $8.18 \text{ k}\Omega\text{-cm}$  (b)  $16.36 \text{ k}\Omega\text{-cm}$   
 (c)  $12.26 \text{ k}\Omega\text{-cm}$  (d) None of these
- Q.7** In a certain copper conductor, if the current density is  $2.4 \text{ A/mm}^2$  and the electron density is  $5 \times 10^{28}$  electrons/m<sup>3</sup>, then the drift velocity of copper is  
 (a)  $0.3 \text{ mm/sec}$  (b)  $0.6 \text{ mm/sec}$   
 (c)  $0.9 \text{ mm/sec}$  (d)  $0.4 \text{ mm/sec}$
- Q.8** A Hall effect transducer can be used to measure  
 (a) displacement, temperature and magnetic flux  
 (b) displacement, position and velocity  
 (c) position, magnetic flux and pressure  
 (d) displacement, position and magnetic flux
- Q.9** Given:  
 $N(E)$  : Density of states  
 $f(E)$  : Probability that a quantum state with energy E is occupied by an electron.  
 $E_c$  : Energy level of conduction band.  
 The expression  $\int_{E_c}^{\infty} N(E)f(E)dE$  gives  
 (a) minimum number of electrons in conduction band  
 (b) concentration of electrons in conduction band  
 (c) energy of electron concentration in conduction band  
 (d) conductivity of electrons in conduction band
- Q.10** Silicon is doped with boron to a concentration of  $4 \times 10^{17}$  atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>. Assume the intrinsic carrier concentration of Silicon to be  $1.5 \times 10^{10}/\text{cm}^3$  and the value of  $kT/q$  to be  $25 \text{ mV}$  at  $300^\circ\text{K}$ . Compared to undoped Silicon, the Fermi level of doped Silicon  
 (a) goes down by  $0.13 \text{ eV}$   
 (b) goes up by  $0.13 \text{ eV}$   
 (c) goes down by  $0.427 \text{ eV}$   
 (d) goes up by  $0.427 \text{ eV}$
- Answer Key:**  
 1. (b) 2. (b) 3. (a) 4. (a) 5. (a)  
 6. (d) 7. (a) 8. (a) 9. (b) 10. (c)
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