

## Fundamentals of Microelectronics

- CH1 Why Microelectronics?
- CH2 Basic Physics of Semiconductors
- CH3 Diode Circuits
- CH4 Physics of Bipolar Transistors
- CH5 Bipolar Amplifiers
- CH6 Physics of MOS Transistors
- CH7 CMOS Amplifiers
- CH8 Operational Amplifier As A Black Box

1

## Chapter 2 Basic Physics of Semiconductors

- 2.1 Semiconductor materials and their properties
- 2.2 PN-junction diodes
- 2.3 Reverse Breakdown

2

## Semiconductor Physics

<p style="text-align: center; border-bottom: 1px solid black; margin-bottom: 10px;"><u>Semiconductors</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Charge Carriers</li> <li>• Doping</li> <li>• Transport of Carriers</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center; border-bottom: 1px solid black; margin-bottom: 10px;"><u>PN Junction</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structure</li> <li>• Reverse and Forward Bias Conditions</li> <li>• I/V Characteristics</li> <li>• Circuit Models</li> </ul>
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➤ **Semiconductor devices serve as heart of microelectronics.**

➤ **PN junction is the most fundamental semiconductor device.**

CH2 Basic Physics of Semiconductors 3

## Charge Carriers in Semiconductor

<p style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; margin-bottom: 5px;"><u>Charge Carriers in Solids</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Crystal Structure</li> <li>• Bandgap Energy</li> <li>• Holes</li> </ul>	<p>⇒</p>	<p style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; margin-bottom: 5px;"><u>Modification of Carrier Densities</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intrinsic Semiconductors</li> <li>• Extrinsic Semiconductors</li> <li>• Doping</li> </ul>	<p>⇒</p>	<p style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; margin-bottom: 5px;"><u>Transport of Carriers</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Diffusion</li> <li>• Drift</li> </ul>
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➤ **To understand PN junction's IV characteristics, it is important to understand charge carriers' behavior in solids, how to modify carrier densities, and different mechanisms of charge flow.**

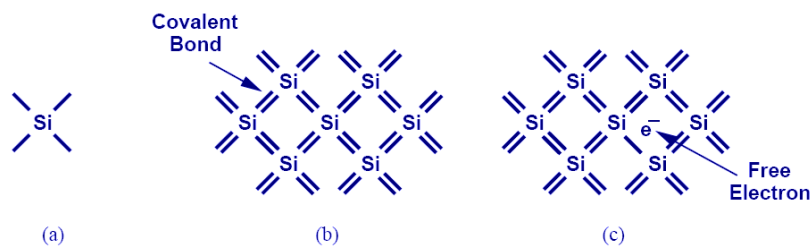
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## Periodic Table

	III	IV	V	
	Boron (B)	Carbon (C)		
• • •	Aluminum (Al)	Silicon (Si)	Phosphorous (P)	• • •
	Galium (Al)	Germanium (Ge)	Arsenic (As)	
		• • •		

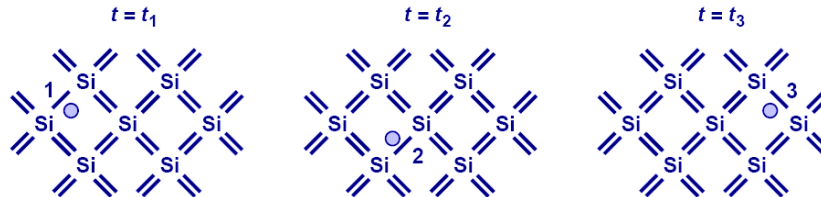
- This abridged table contains elements with three to five valence electrons, with Si being the most important.

## Silicon



- Si has four valence electrons. Therefore, it can form covalent bonds with four of its neighbors.
- When temperature goes up, electrons in the covalent bond can become free.

## Electron-Hole Pair Interaction



- With free electrons breaking off covalent bonds, holes are generated.
- Holes can be filled by absorbing other free electrons, so effectively there is a flow of charge carriers.

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7

## Free Electron Density at a Given Temperature

$$n_i = 5.2 \times 10^{15} T^{3/2} \exp \frac{-E_g}{2kT} \text{ electrons / cm}^3$$

$$n_i(T = 300^0 K) = 1.08 \times 10^{10} \text{ electrons / cm}^3$$

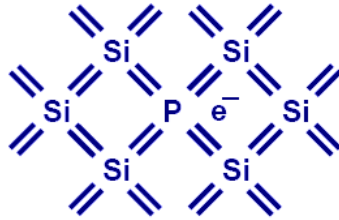
$$n_i(T = 600^0 K) = 1.54 \times 10^{15} \text{ electrons / cm}^3$$

- $E_g$ , or bandgap energy determines how much effort is needed to break off an electron from its covalent bond.
- There exists an exponential relationship between the free-electron density and bandgap energy.

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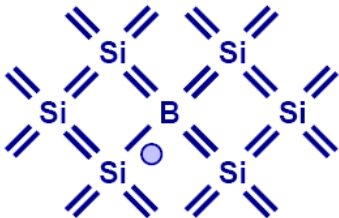
8

### Doping (N type)



- Pure Si can be doped with other elements to change its electrical properties.
- For example, if Si is doped with P (phosphorous), then it has more electrons, or becomes type N (electron).

### Doping (P type)



- If Si is doped with B (boron), then it has more holes, or becomes type P.

### Summary of Charge Carriers

Intrinsic Semiconductor

Extrinsic Semiconductor

Silicon Crystal  
 $N_D$  Donors/cm<sup>3</sup>

n-Type Dopant (Donor)  
Free Majority Carrier

Silicon Crystal  
 $N_A$  Acceptors/cm<sup>3</sup>

Free Majority Carrier  
p-Type Dopant (Acceptor)

CH2 Basic Physics of Semiconductors 11

### Electron and Hole Densities

$np = n_i^2$

Majority Carriers :  $p \approx N_A$

Minority Carriers :  $n \approx \frac{n_i^2}{N_A}$

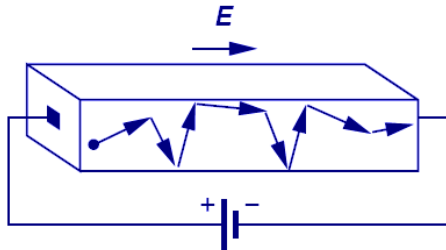
Majority Carriers :  $n \approx N_D$

Minority Carriers :  $p \approx \frac{n_i^2}{N_D}$

➤ **The product of electron and hole densities is ALWAYS equal to the square of intrinsic electron density regardless of doping levels.**

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### First Charge Transportation Mechanism: Drift

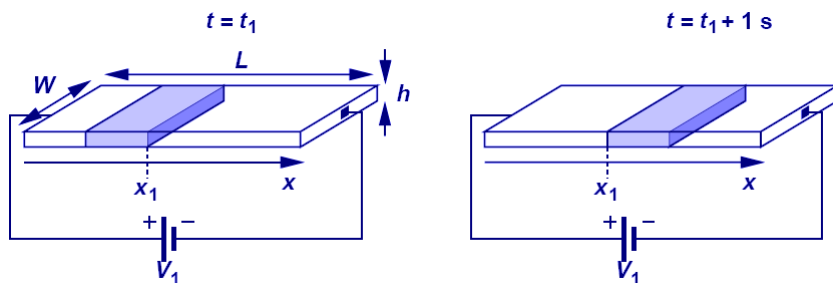


$$\vec{v}_h = \mu_p \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{v}_e = -\mu_n \vec{E}$$

- The process in which charge particles move because of an electric field is called drift.
- Charge particles will move at a velocity that is proportional to the electric field.

### Current Flow: General Case



$$I = -v \cdot W \cdot h \cdot n \cdot q$$

- Electric current is calculated as the amount of charge in  $v$  meters that passes thru a cross-section if the charge travel with a velocity of  $v$  m/s.

## Current Flow: Drift

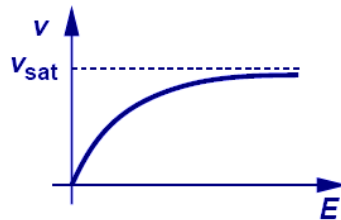
$$J_n = \mu_n E \cdot n \cdot q$$

$$J_{tot} = \mu_n E \cdot n \cdot q + \mu_p E \cdot p \cdot q$$

$$= q(\mu_n n + \mu_p p)E$$

- Since velocity is equal to  $\mu E$ , drift characteristic is obtained by substituting  $V$  with  $\mu E$  in the general current equation.
- The total current density consists of both electrons and holes.

## Velocity Saturation



$$\mu = \frac{\mu_0}{1 + bE}$$

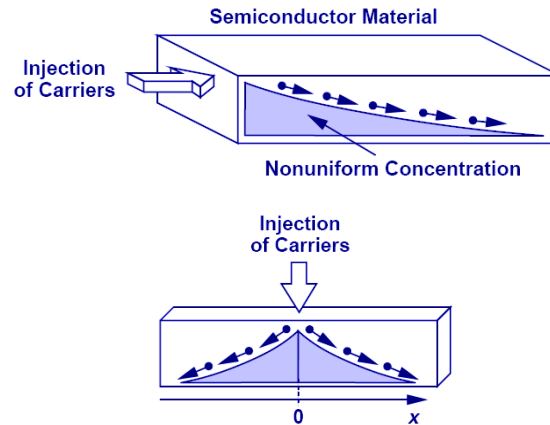
$$v_{sat} = \frac{\mu_0}{b}$$

$$v = \frac{\mu_0}{1 + \frac{\mu_0 E}{v_{sat}}} E$$

- A topic treated in more advanced courses is velocity saturation.
- In reality, velocity does not increase linearly with electric field. It will eventually saturate to a critical value.



## Second Charge Transportation Mechanism: Diffusion



- Charge particles move from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration. It is analogous to an every day example of an ink droplet in water.

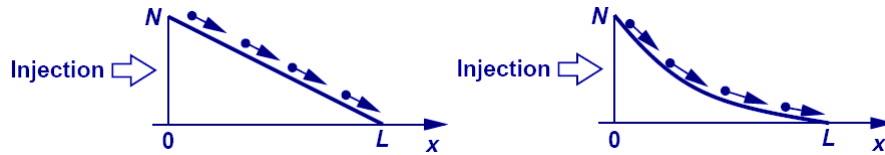
## Current Flow: Diffusion

$$I = AqD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad J_p = -qD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

$$J_n = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad J_{tot} = q(D_n \frac{dn}{dx} - D_p \frac{dp}{dx})$$

- Diffusion current is proportional to the gradient of charge ( $dn/dx$ ) along the direction of current flow.
- Its total current density consists of both electrons and holes.

### Example: Linear vs. Nonlinear Charge Density Profile



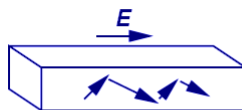
$$J_n = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx} = -qD_n \cdot \frac{N}{L}$$

$$J_n = qD \frac{dn}{dx} = \frac{-qD_n N}{L_d} \exp\left(-\frac{x}{L_d}\right)$$

➤ Linear charge density profile means constant diffusion current, whereas nonlinear charge density profile means varying diffusion current.

### Einstein's Relation

Drift Current



$$J_n = q \mu_n E$$

$$J_p = q \mu_p E$$

Diffusion Current



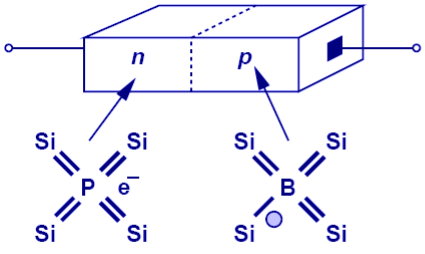
$$J_n = q D_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$J_p = -q D_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

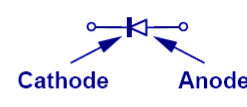
$$\frac{D}{\mu} = \frac{kT}{q}$$

➤ While the underlying physics behind drift and diffusion currents are totally different, Einstein's relation provides a mysterious link between the two.

### PN Junction (Diode)



(a)



(b)

➤ When N-type and P-type dopants are introduced side-by-side in a semiconductor, a PN junction or a diode is formed.

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21

### Diode's Three Operation Regions

PN Junction  
in Equilibrium

- Depletion Region
- Built-in Potential

➡

PN Junction  
Under Reverse Bias

- Junction Capacitance

➡

PN Junction  
Under Forward Bias

- I/V Characteristics

➤ In order to understand the operation of a diode, it is necessary to study its three operation regions: equilibrium, reverse bias, and forward bias.

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22

### Current Flow Across Junction: Diffusion

$n_n$  : Concentration of electrons on n side  
 $p_n$  : Concentration of holes on n side  
 $p_p$  : Concentration of holes on p side  
 $n_p$  : Concentration of electrons on p side

➤ Because each side of the junction contains an excess of holes or electrons compared to the other side, there exists a large concentration gradient. Therefore, a diffusion current flows across the junction from each side.

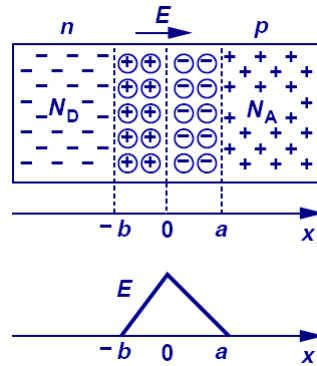
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### Depletion Region

➤ As free electrons and holes diffuse across the junction, a region of fixed ions is left behind. This region is known as the “depletion region.”

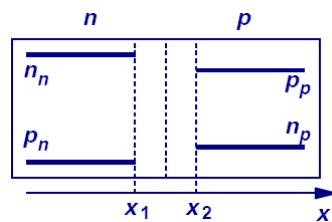
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### Current Flow Across Junction: Drift



- The fixed ions in depletion region create an electric field that results in a drift current.

### Current Flow Across Junction: Equilibrium



$$I_{drift,p} = I_{diff,p}$$

$$I_{drift,n} = I_{diff,n}$$

- At equilibrium, the drift current flowing in one direction cancels out the diffusion current flowing in the opposite direction, creating a net current of zero.
- The figure shows the charge profile of the PN junction.

### Built-in Potential

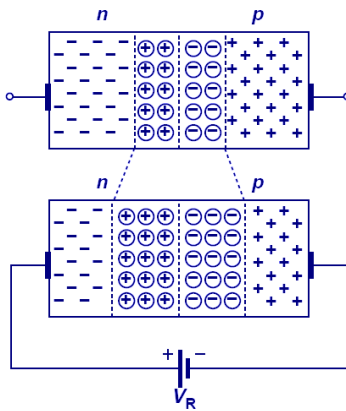
$$q\mu_p pE = -qD_p \frac{dp}{dx} \quad -\mu_p p \frac{dV}{dx} = -D_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

$$\mu_p \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dV = D_p \int_{p_p}^{p_n} \frac{dp}{p} \quad V(x_2) - V(x_1) = \frac{D_p}{\mu_p} \ln \frac{p_p}{p_n}$$

$$V_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{p_p}{p_n}, V_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$$

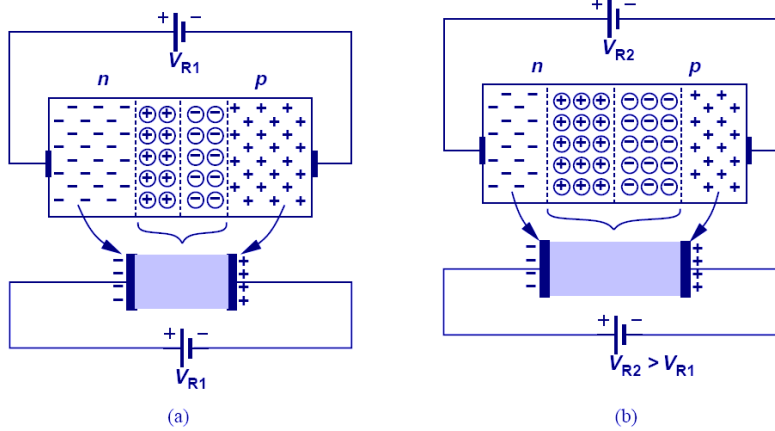
➤ Because of the electric field across the junction, there exists a built-in potential. Its derivation is shown above.

### Diode in Reverse Bias



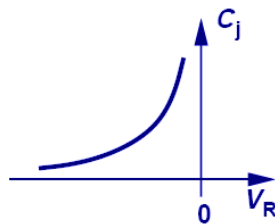
➤ When the N-type region of a diode is connected to a higher potential than the P-type region, the diode is under reverse bias, which results in wider depletion region and larger built-in electric field across the junction.

**Reverse Biased Diode's Application: Voltage-Dependent Capacitor**



➤ The PN junction can be viewed as a capacitor. By varying  $V_R$ , the depletion width changes, changing its capacitance value; therefore, the PN junction is actually a voltage-dependent capacitor.

**Voltage-Dependent Capacitance**

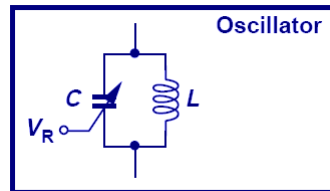


$$C_j = \frac{C_{j0}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{V_R}{V_0}}}$$

$$C_{j0} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_{si} q}{2} \frac{N_A N_D}{N_A + N_D} \frac{1}{V_0}}$$

➤ The equations that describe the voltage-dependent capacitance are shown above.

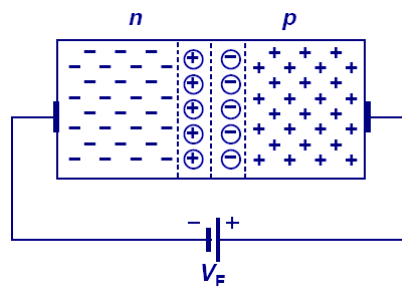
## Voltage-Controlled Oscillator



$$f_{res} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

- A very important application of a reverse-biased PN junction is VCO, in which an LC tank is used in an oscillator. By changing  $V_R$ , we can change  $C$ , which also changes the oscillation frequency.

## Diode in Forward Bias



- When the N-type region of a diode is at a lower potential than the P-type region, the diode is in forward bias.
- The depletion width is shortened and the built-in electric field decreased.



### Minority Carrier Profile in Forward Bias

$$p_{n,e} = \frac{p_{p,e}}{\exp \frac{V_0}{V_T}}$$

(a)

(b)

$$p_{n,f} = \frac{p_{p,f}}{\exp \frac{V_0 - V_F}{V_T}}$$

➤ Under forward bias, minority carriers in each region increase due to the lowering of built-in field/potential. Therefore, diffusion currents increase to supply these minority carriers.

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33

### Diffusion Current in Forward Bias

$$\Delta n_p \approx \frac{N_D}{\exp \frac{V_0}{V_T}} (\exp \frac{V_F}{V_T} - 1) \quad \Delta p_n \approx \frac{N_A}{\exp \frac{V_0}{V_T}} (\exp \frac{V_F}{V_T} - 1)$$

$$I_{tot} \propto \frac{N_A}{\exp \frac{V_0}{V_T}} (\exp \frac{V_F}{V_T} - 1) + \frac{N_D}{\exp \frac{V_0}{V_T}} (\exp \frac{V_F}{V_T} - 1)$$

$$I_{tot} = I_s (\exp \frac{V_F}{V_T} - 1) \quad I_s = Aqn_i^2 \left( \frac{D_n}{N_A L_n} + \frac{D_p}{N_D L_p} \right)$$

➤ Diffusion current will increase in order to supply the increase in minority carriers. The mathematics are shown above.

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34

### Minority Charge Gradient

(a)

(b)

- **Minority charge profile should not be constant along the x-axis; otherwise, there is no concentration gradient and no diffusion current.**
- **Recombination of the minority carriers with the majority carriers accounts for the dropping of minority carriers as they go deep into the P or N region.**

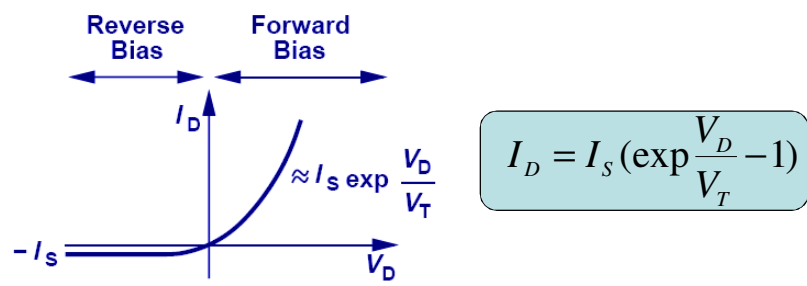
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35

### Forward Bias Condition: Summary

- **In forward bias, there are large diffusion currents of minority carriers through the junction. However, as we go deep into the P and N regions, recombination currents from the majority carriers dominate. These two currents add up to a constant value.**

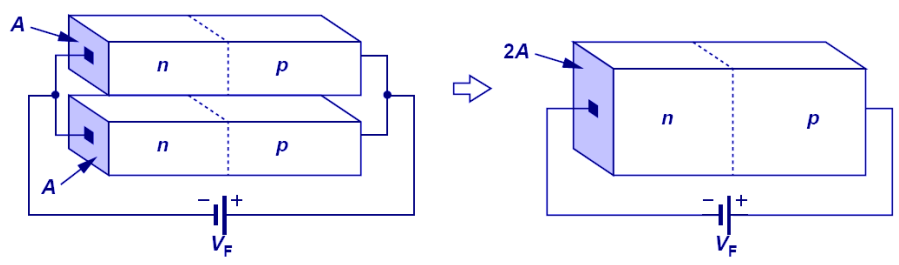
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36

### IV Characteristic of PN Junction



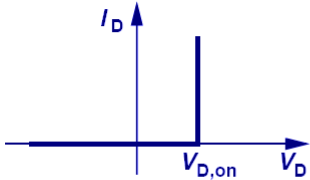
➤ The current and voltage relationship of a PN junction is exponential in forward bias region, and relatively constant in reverse bias region.

### Parallel PN Junctions




➤ Since junction currents are proportional to the junction's cross-section area. Two PN junctions put in parallel are effectively one PN junction with twice the cross-section area, and hence twice the current.

### Constant-Voltage Diode Model




(a)

$V_D < V_{D,on}$



$V_D > V_{D,on}$

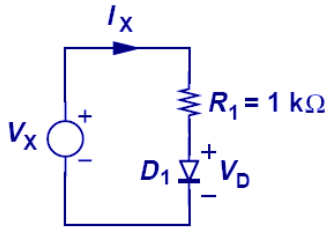


(b)

➤ Diode operates as an open circuit if  $V_D < V_{D,on}$  and a constant voltage source of  $V_{D,on}$  if  $V_D$  tends to exceed  $V_{D,on}$ .

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### Example: Diode Calculations



$$V_x = I_x R_1 + V_D = I_x R_1 + V_T \ln \frac{I_x}{I_s}$$

$I_x = 2.2\text{mA}$  for  $V_x = 3\text{V}$

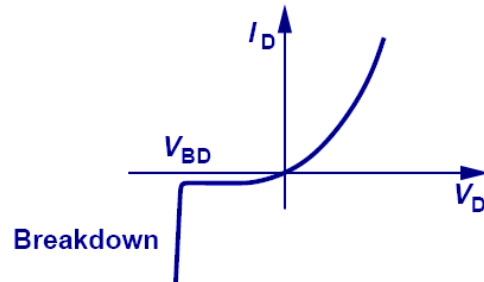
$I_x = 0.2\text{mA}$  for  $V_x = 1\text{V}$

➤ This example shows the simplicity provided by a constant-voltage model over an exponential model.

➤ For an exponential model, iterative method is needed to solve for current, whereas constant-voltage model requires only linear equations.

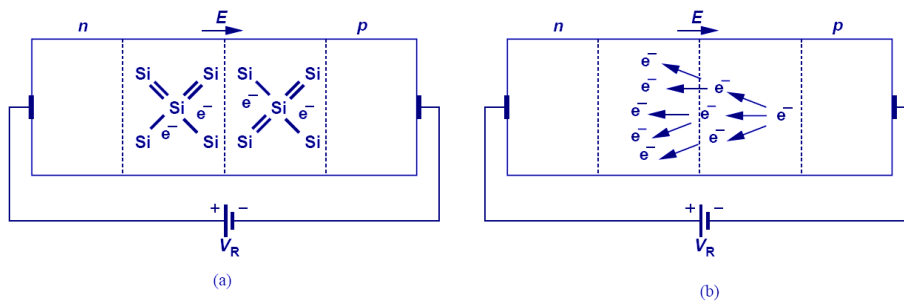
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## Reverse Breakdown



- When a large reverse bias voltage is applied, breakdown occurs and an enormous current flows through the diode.

## Zener vs. Avalanche Breakdown



- Zener breakdown is a result of the large electric field inside the depletion region that breaks electrons or holes off their covalent bonds.
- Avalanche breakdown is a result of electrons or holes colliding with the fixed ions inside the depletion region.