Position of the Fermi Level in Doped Semiconductors

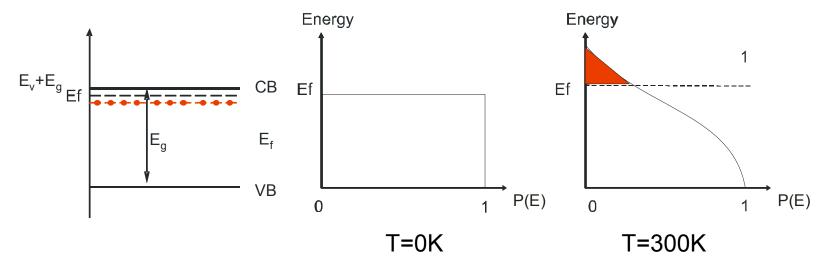
Intrinsic semiconductor E_f is mid-gap, Eg/2 because n=p=n_i

n-type material is characterised by

$$n(C.B.) >> p(V.B.)$$

 $n=10^{22} \text{ m-3}$ $p=10^{10} \text{m-3}$

Some CB states are full, only a few VB states are empty. Since E_f is the probability of occupation this is accounted for by E_f moving up to bottom of C.B.

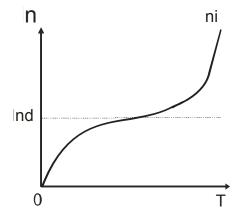


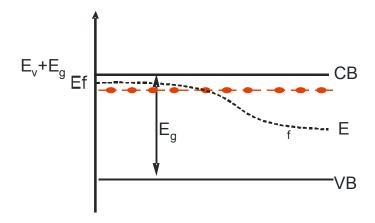
At T=0K, possibility of V.B. electron crossing Eg is negligible. As T \uparrow from 0K, first electrons to reach C.B. come from donor levels, - so behaves like intrinsic semiconductor with gap reduced to Ei and E_f located at the middle of this gap.



At high T (>300°C), intrinsic carriers come in to play. Then $n = N_d + \text{intrinsic'}$ electrons. This is significant when kT>> E_g

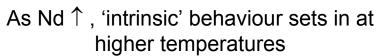
Intrinsic carriers become more dominant, as $T \uparrow E_f$ moves to mid-gap.

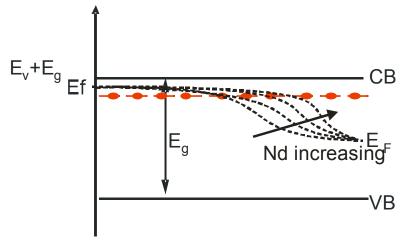




Precise position of E_f is by calculation.

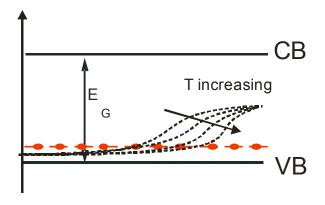
 σ_i can be higher than σ_n at very high temperatures, so not true extrinsic behaviour.



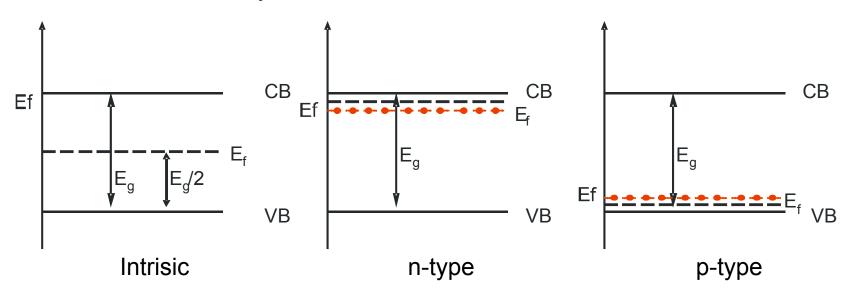


P-type

By similar arguments, EF well below mid-gap and near V.B., only moving towards E_g/2 at very high temperature.



Summary

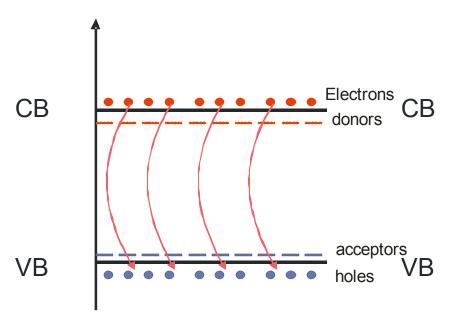




Compensation Doping

Occurs when semiconductor is doped with both acceptors and donors

Compensation occurs when the extra electrons provided by donors fall into vacancies (or holes) created by acceptors, so if we put N_d donors= N_a acceptors into the silicon, no extra electrons or holes are produced



Why is this important?

Semiconductor wafers are normally doped one type. How to make a device?



Consider two of the simplest types of device: planar diode, planar transistor

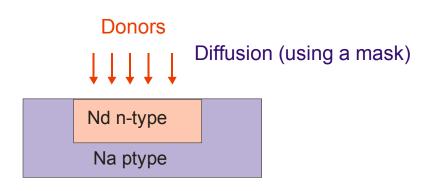
Starting point is a piece of p-type Silicon

These are semiconductors containing N_d and N_a – need to know σ for device design.

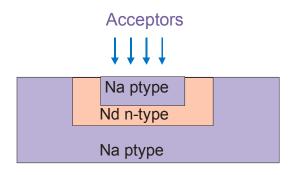
e.g. Si doped with 10^{21} m⁻³ acceptors (N_a) Then doped with 10^{22} m⁻³ donors (N_d).

All the initial 10²¹ holes from acceptors **recombine** with 10²¹ electrons from donors, leaving the material

n-type 10^{22} - 10^{21} = 9x 10^{21} m⁻³ – still a high concentration.



Planar diode



P-n-p transistor

Net density $n(9. 10^{21}) < Nd (10^{22})$ because of the presence of acceptors – called compensation.

Therefore magnitude of | Nd-Na | determines net carrier density and the sign (+ or -) gives the majority carrier type.

$$N_d > N_a - n$$
-type

$$N_a > N_d - p$$
-type

General Case

acceptors electrons

$$egin{array}{lll} N_a & N_d \\ n & p \end{array}$$

donors holes

For electrical neutrality, assuming that T is such that dopants are completely ionised: negative charge = positive charge

$$n + Na = p + Nd$$

(4)

$$np = ni^2$$

Using (3) in (4)
$$n + (N_a - N_d) = ni^2/n$$

$$n^2 + (N_a - N_d)n - ni^2 = 0$$

$$n = \frac{(N_d - N_a) \pm \sqrt{(N_d - N_a)^2 + 4n_i^2}}{2}$$

$$n = \frac{(N_d - N_a) \pm \sqrt{(N_d - N_a)^2 + 4n_i^2}}{2}$$

$$n = \frac{(N_d - N_a) + \frac{(N_d - N_a)\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2n_i}{(N_d - N_a)}\right)^2}}{2}}{2}$$

carriers from dopants

intrinsic carriers

For p-type level, use eqn. (4)

$$p = n_i^2/n$$

can always use this relationship – especially when $n_i \sim (N_d - N_a)$

Case 1: Extrinsic (doped) material

$$(N_d-N_a) >> n_i$$

$$(N_d-N_a) >> n_i$$
 e.g. $10^{22} - 10^{21} >> 10^{16} \text{m}^{-3}$

2nd term under $\sqrt{} \rightarrow 1$, and

$$n \approx \frac{\left(N_d - N_a\right)}{2} + \frac{\left(N_d - N_a\right)\sqrt{1}}{2} = N_d - N_a$$

$$p = \frac{n_i^2}{n} = \frac{n_i^2}{N_d - N_a}$$

e.g. n=9.
$$10^{21} \text{ m}^{-3}$$
, $p \approx 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$

If $N_a > N_d$,

$$p = N_a - N_d \text{ AND} \qquad n = \frac{n_i^2}{N_a - N_d}$$

Case 2: Near Intrinsic Semiconductor

made by doping extrinsic material with <u>just sufficient</u> opposite type dopant to fully compensate and hence produce a net carrier concentration.

Nearly zero e &h from dopants of near zero — carriers then nearly all come from e-h pairs from intrinsic process.

i.e.
$$n_i \gg |N_d - N_a|$$

'1' is negligible in 2nd term under $\sqrt{}$

$$n \approx \frac{\left(N_d - N_a\right)}{2} + \frac{\left(N_d - N_a\right)\sqrt{\left(\frac{2n_i}{\left(N_d - N_a\right)}\right)^2}}{2}$$

$$n \approx \frac{\left(N_d - N_a\right)}{2} + n_i \approx n_i = p$$

Practically it is difficult to get the dopants to cancel exactly to get this condition e.g. if 10^{22}m^{-3} donors and want to make it intrinsic (~ $10^{16}\text{m}-3$), we need to add acceptors of 1.000001 x 10^{22}m^{-3} – nearly impossible to control to this accuracy!



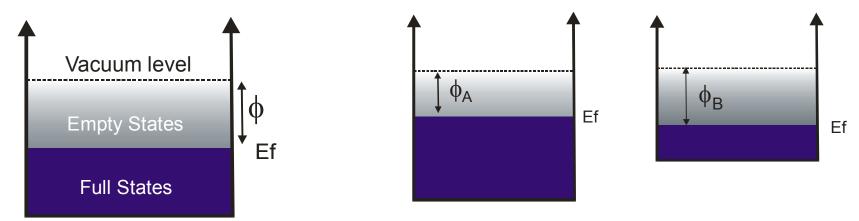
The simplest semiconductor device (but also the basis for the transistor)

Consider the junction in equilibrium (no bias).

In classical electrostatics, 2 bodies in equilibrium have *same* potential – **NOT** true for semiconductor junctions.

For electronic equilibrium, no net current flows – this requires a contact potential to exist between the 2 parts. e.g. p-n junction, V_o

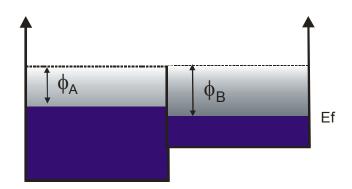
Consider joining two different pieces of material.



Φ= work function –height of the potential energy barrier at material surface.



immediately after contact



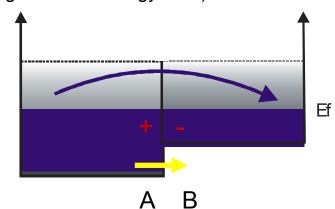
electron flow from material A (higher Fermi energy level) to material B

In equilibrium

No current will flow since the probability of electrons having a particular energy is the same on each side (E_F and T same on each side)

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right)}$$

 $\mathsf{E_F}$ is continuous and aligned across the junction. But a <u>contact</u> or <u>built-in</u> potential, $\mathsf{V_o}$, exists to ensure no net flow of electrons.



E-field from built-in potential.



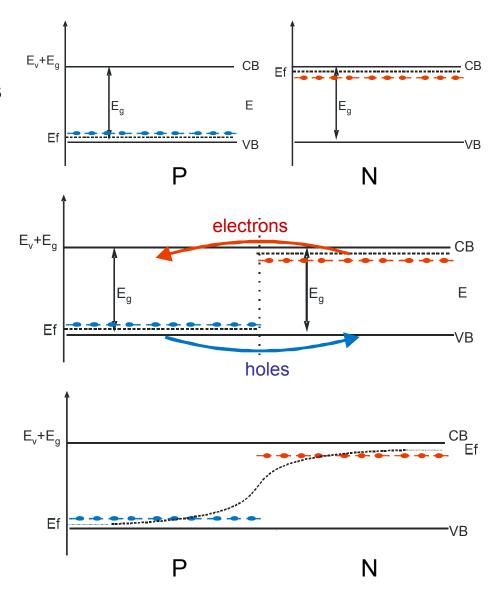
P-N Junction in Equilibrium

Bring 'p' and 'n' semiconductors together to form a junction

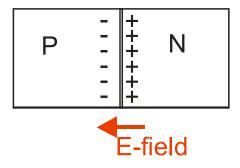
At the point of contact

Majority carriers flow across the junction into empty states opposite (diffusion).

After contact



As carriers diffuse across, an electric field is created across the junction which eventually balances the flow of carriers. A built in potential, Vo, appears across the junction



In equilibrium

At equilibrium net current = 0. Hence drift current flow due to the electric field opposes diffusion current flow.

i.e. diffusion current = drift current.

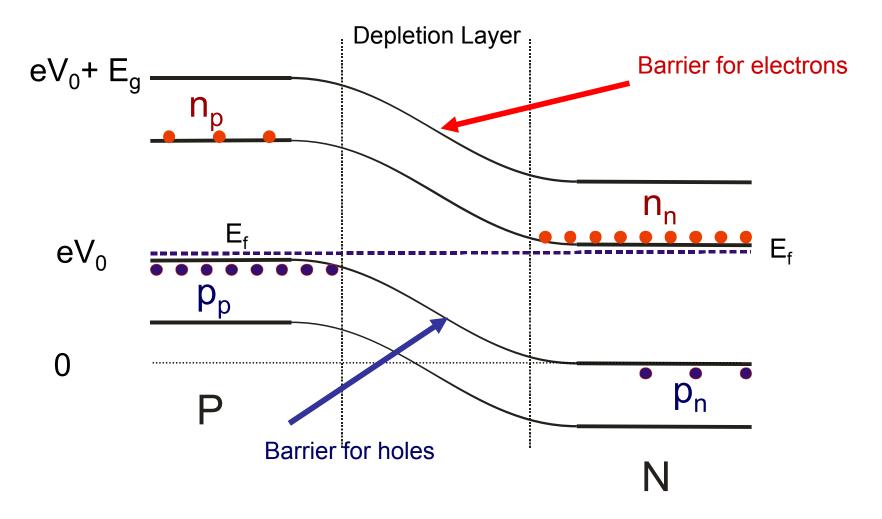
E builds up until net current is zero at equilibrium.

$$E = - \frac{dV}{dx}$$

Holes have left the p-region leaving behind fixed negative acceptor charge – **p-levels rise.**

Electrons have left n-region leaving behind fixed positive donor charge – **n levels fall.**

But C.B., V.B.& E_F are fixed, so alignment only possible if all levels in p-type move relative to those in n-type. Each side of junction takes up a different potential, V_o .



The flow of carriers into the opposite side of the junction leaves a charge behind. This so called space charge (fixed charge) produces the electric field.

A barrier of height eV_o forms due to this electric field which brings the junction into equilibrium and prevents further current flow.

Number of electrons in CB of n-region, $n \propto P(E_q)$

$$n_{p} \propto \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_{g} + eV_{o} - E_{F}}{kT}\right)} \propto \exp\left(-\frac{E_{g} + eV_{o} - E_{F}}{kT}\right)$$

Number of the electrons in CB of p-region, $n_p \propto (E_g + eV_o)$

$$n_n \propto \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_g - E_F}{kT}\right)} \propto \exp\left(-\frac{E_g - E_F}{kT}\right)$$

Divide the two expressions:

$$\frac{n_n}{n_p} = \exp \left(\frac{eV_o}{kT}\right)$$

$$V_o = \frac{kT}{e} \log_e \left(\frac{n_n}{n_p} \right)$$

Remember that np = n_i^2 , and therefore $p_p n_p = p_n n_n = n_i^2$

$$n_{p} = \frac{n_{i}^{2}}{p_{p}}$$

If all carriers are ionized $n_n \approx N_d$ and $p_p \approx N_a$, so by substitution

$$V_{o} = \frac{kT}{e} \log_{e} \left(\frac{N_{d} N_{a}}{n_{i}^{2}} \right)$$

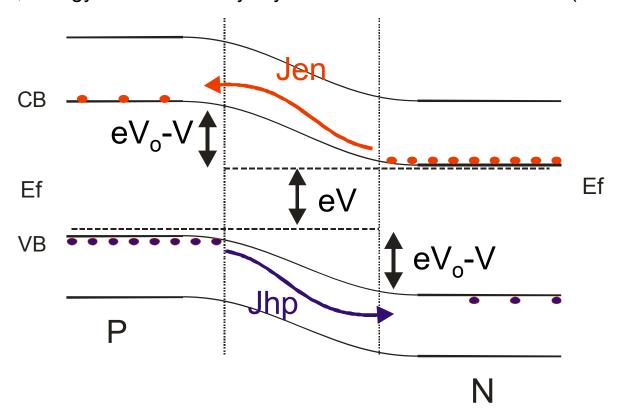


p-n with different bias conditions

No bias, I=0 due to potential barrier (in equilibrium)

Forward bias

With forward bias, V, the barrier height is efficiently reduced to $e(V_o - V)$. Immediately after bias is applied, energy bands tilt – majority carriers diffuse- current flows (diffusion \neq drift)

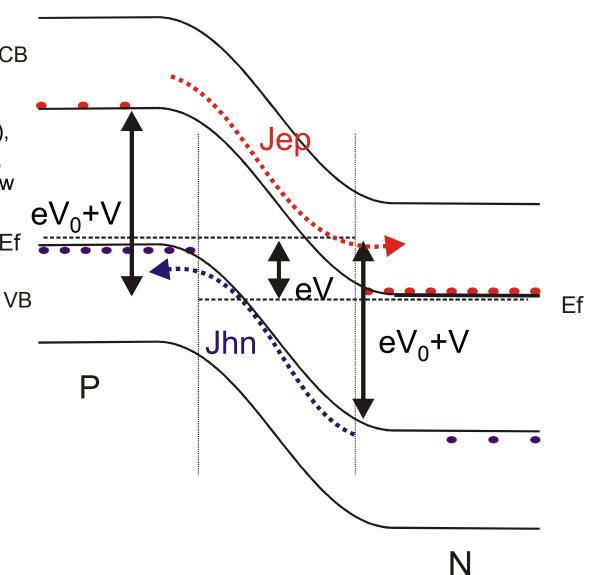




In steady state, carriers flow from the contacts (external circuit) to restore equilibrium CB away from junction. V appears across depletion layer (fewer carriers so lowers conductivity), lowering barrier height to e((V_o – V). Large majority current flow

Reverse bias

In steady state, barrier height is increased, e(Vo + V). No majority carriers flow because of increased barrier height (i.e. diffusion → zero).



Very small electron current flows from $p \to n$ due to minority electrons, which are swept across by E-field (i.e. fall down potential hill). Similarly for minority holes flow. The small saturation current which does flow is lo which is independent of V – it depends primarily on temperature.

This leads to the diode (rectifier) equation: I = I

$$I = I_o \left[\exp \left(\frac{eV}{kT} \right) - 1 \right]$$

4 components of current flow in a p-n semiconductor junction.

Majority hole current from p, Jhp. Minority hole current from n, Jhn

Minority electron current from p, Jep. Majority electron current from n, Jen

Reverse bias —majority current cannot flow - get minority Jep and Jhn as shown — they arise from thermal generation of e-h pairs in or near the depletion region. — depends on temperature.

Zero bias -

When V=0, $J_{hp} = J_{hn}$ and $J_{ep} = J_{en}$, i.e. no current

Forward bias with V>0,

$$J_{hp} = J_{hn} \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right)$$
 (hole flow) $J_{en} = J_{ep} \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right)$ (electron flow)

Net hole current,
$$J_h = J_{hp} - J_{hn} = J_{hn} \left[exp \left(\frac{eV}{kT} \right) - 1 \right]$$

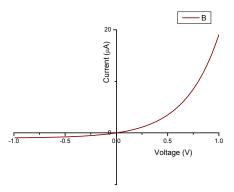
Net electron current,
$$J_e = J_{en} - J_{ep} = J_{ep} \left[exp \left(\frac{eV}{kT} \right) - 1 \right]$$

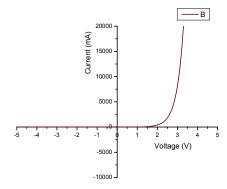
Total diode current is

$$J = J_h + J_e = J_o \left[\exp \left(\frac{eV}{kT} \right) - 1 \right]$$

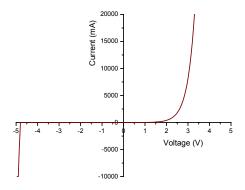
Ideal Diode Equation

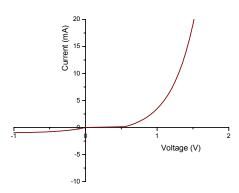
$$J = J_o \left[\exp \left(\frac{eV}{kT} \right) - 1 \right]$$





Deviation from Ideality





Reverse (avalanche) breakdown

Offset (or turn-on) voltage



Avalanche Breakdown

Avalanche breakdown is a current multiplication process that occurs only in strong electric fields. Under high reverse bias voltage the electric field across the narrow junction region can become large enough to ionise (strip electrons) from semicondcutor atoms. Field strengths used in semiconductor devices that exploit the avalanche effect are often in the 20–40 MV/m range. In devices that exploit the avalanche effect, the electric field is normally kept just below the threshold at which avalanche breakdown is possible, resulting in a current that is highly dependent on the generation of free electrons. In avalanche photodiodes, for example, incoming light is used to generate these free electrons.

Voltage drop (Turn-on voltage)

Regions of the p-n diode which are not part of the junction can add resistance and cause a voltage drop. Therefore the diode is not seen to 'turn-on' until a certain voltage is reached. Values can range from 0.8V for Si up to 2-3V for a GaN LED.

