

# **PHYS3080 – Part II**

## **Semiconductors 4**

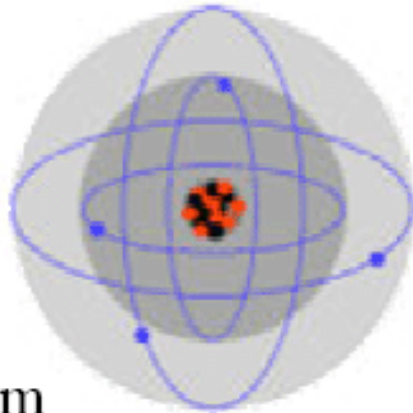
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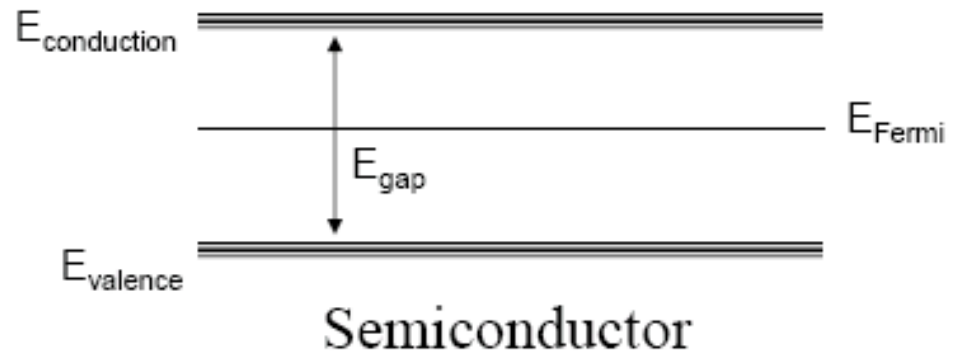
**Office: HP Invent Centre, 1<sup>st</sup> floor, Newton building**

**Contact times:**      **6-7pm Wednesday**  
                                 **9-10am Thursday**

# Electrons in solids



Atom

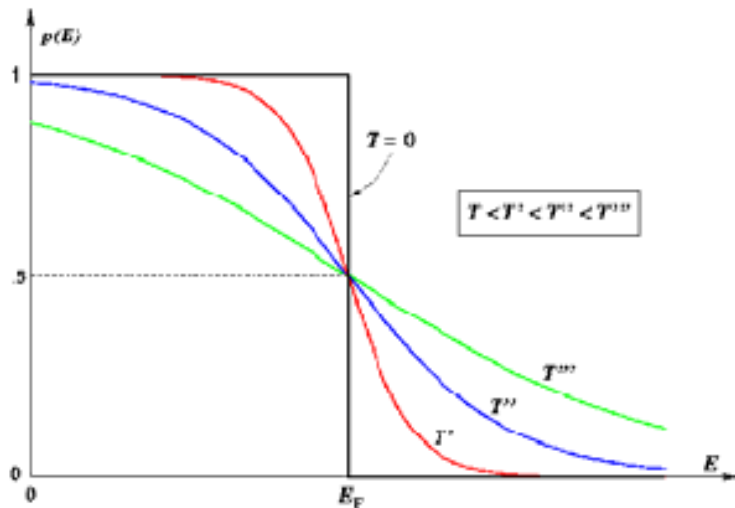


- In an atom, electrons orbit in their shell, at a given energy.
- In a crystal, **many electrons** occupy a small **energy band**. There is a width to the energy band, which is why Pauli Exclusion is not violated.
- Within the band, electrons can move easily if there are available states, because the difference in energy is tiny.
- Between bands, electrons must get energy from another source, because the band gap can be significant.

# Fermi energy

- The **highest energy** an electron reached if you were to fill the solid with the intrinsic number of electrons at absolute zero. (No added thermal energy)
- Meaningful! There is a **sea of electrons** sitting beneath this energy.
  - If you bring two solids together with different Fermi energies, the electrons will move around to reach an equilibrium.  
e.g. pn junction
  - If you try to put a lower energy electron into a solid (at absolute zero) with a higher Fermi energy, it won't fit. It cannot be done due to Pauli Exclusion.
- If the highest energy electron exactly fills a band, the Fermi Energy is near the center of the bands.

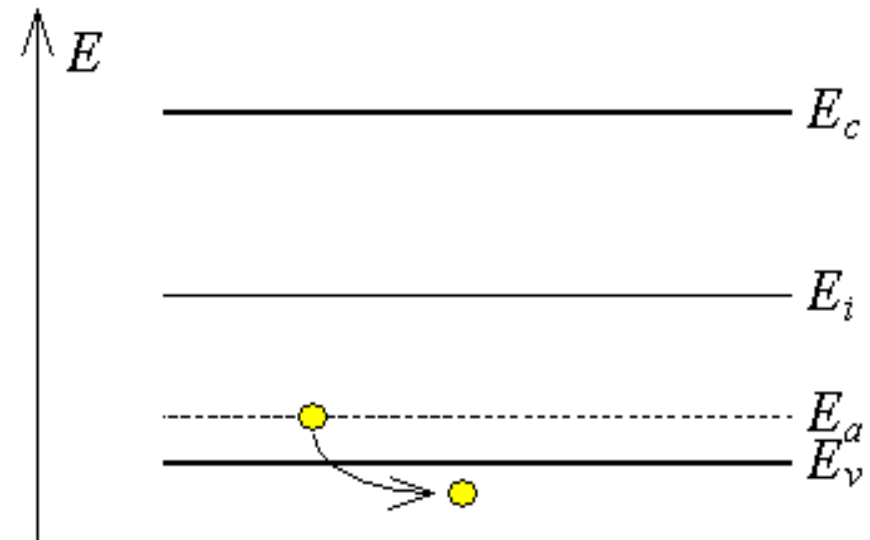
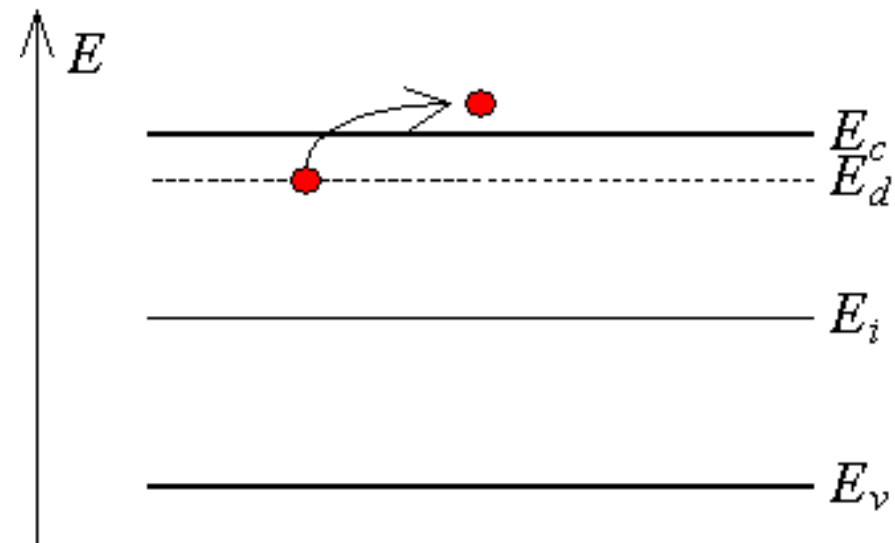
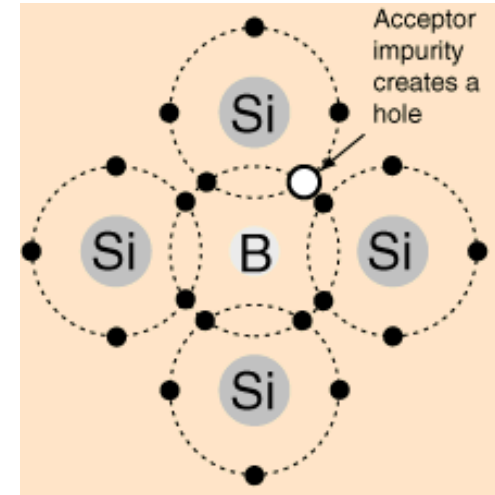
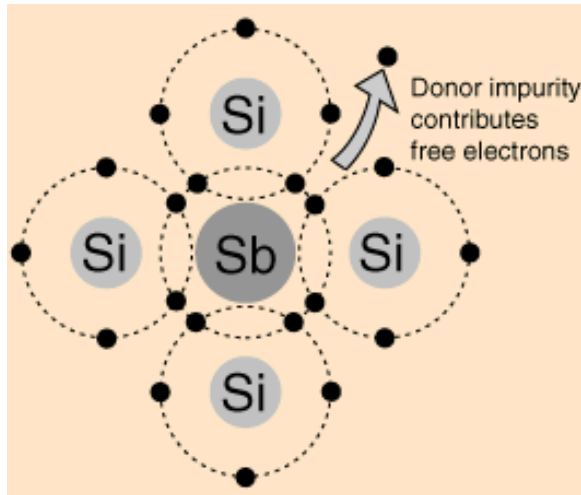
# Above 0 K: Fermi-Dirac statistics



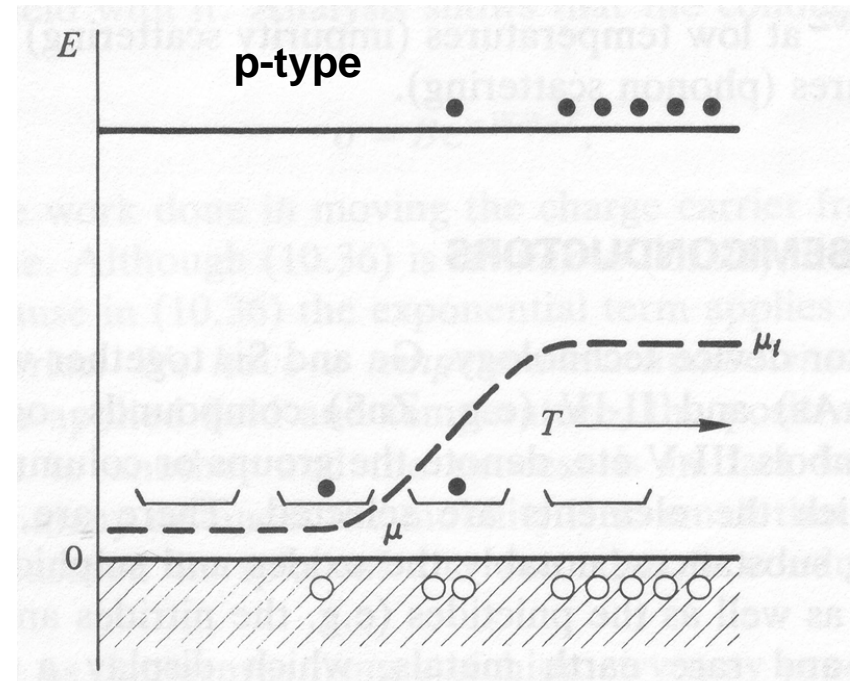
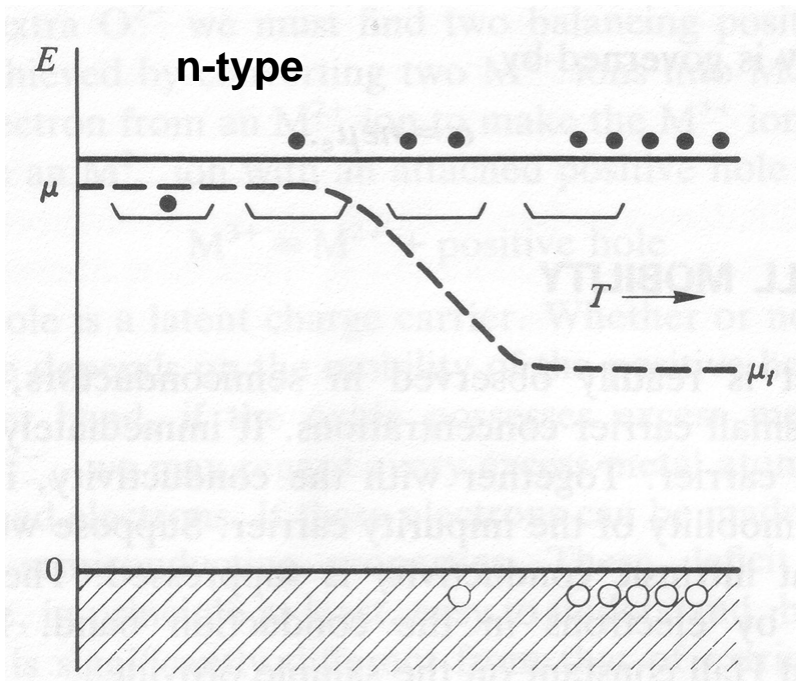
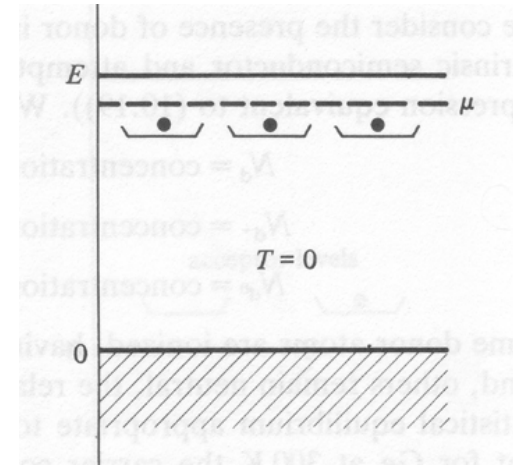
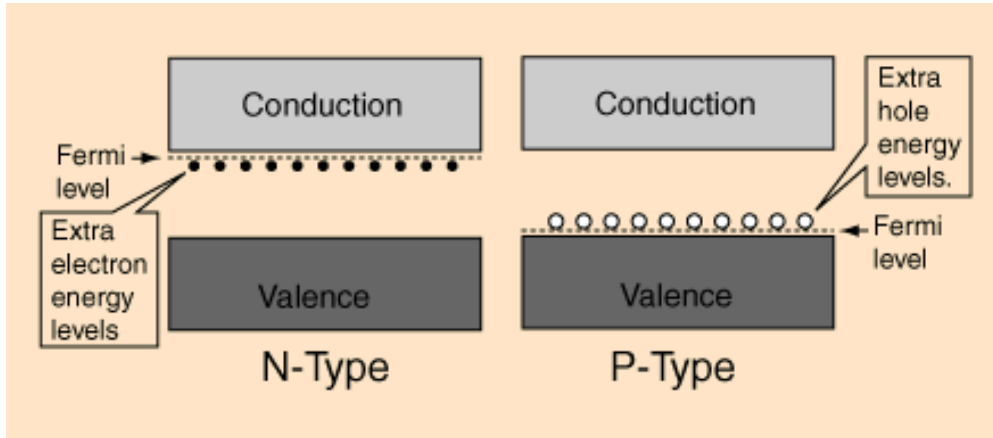
$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{E - E_F}{kT}}}$$

- **Fermi Energy**: The energy state whose probability of being occupied is exactly 1/2 .
- Electrons obey **Fermi-Dirac statistics**, which describe the probability of an electron being present in an allowed energy state.
- Note that if there are no states at a given energy (i.e., in the band gap) there will be no electrons, even if there is finite probability.

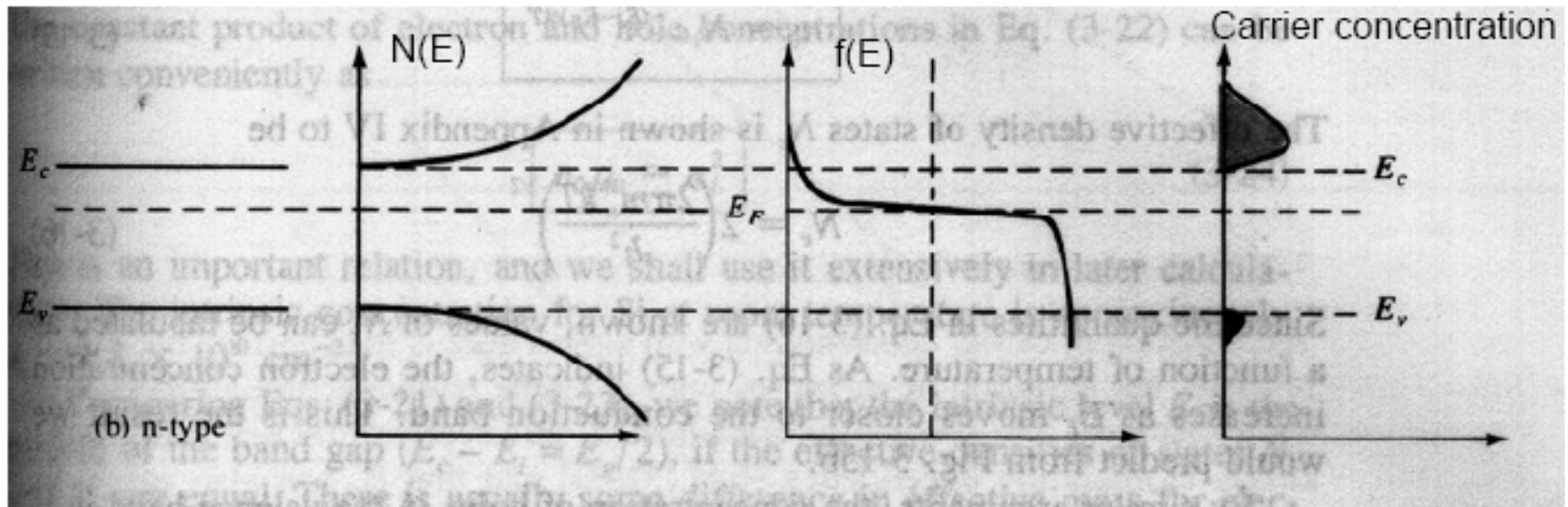
# Doped (extrinsic) semiconductors



# Fermi level positions



# Equilibrium concentration: electrons



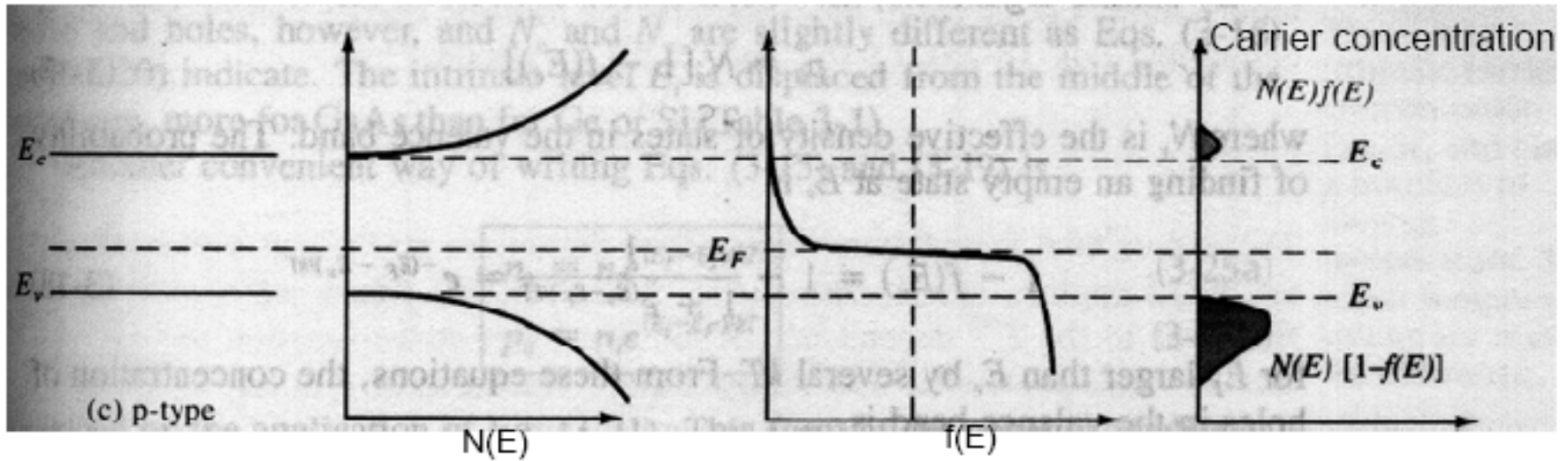
$$n_0 = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} f(E) N(E) dE = N_c f(E_c) = \frac{N_c}{1 + e^{(E_c - E_F)/kT}} \approx N_c e^{-(E_c - E_F)/kT}$$

$n_0$  = equilibrium electron carrier concentration

$N(E)$  = density of states

$N_c = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_n^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$  = effective density of states

# Equilibrium concentration: holes



$$p_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{E_v} (1 - f(E)) N(E) dE = N_v (1 - f(E_c)) = \frac{N_v}{1 + e^{(E_F - E_v)/kT}} \approx N_v e^{-(E_F - E_v)/kT}$$

$p_0$  = equilibrium hole carrier concentration

$N(E)$  = density of states

$N_v = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_p^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$  = effective density of states



# Intrinsic semiconductors

- In intrinsic semiconductors (no doping) the electron and hole concentrations are equal because carriers are created in pairs

$$n_i = N_c e^{-(E_c - E_i)/kT} = p_i = N_v e^{-(E_i - E_v)/kT}$$

$$n_0 p_0 = \left( N_c e^{-(E_c - E_F)/kT} \right) \left( N_v e^{-(E_F - E_v)/kT} \right)$$

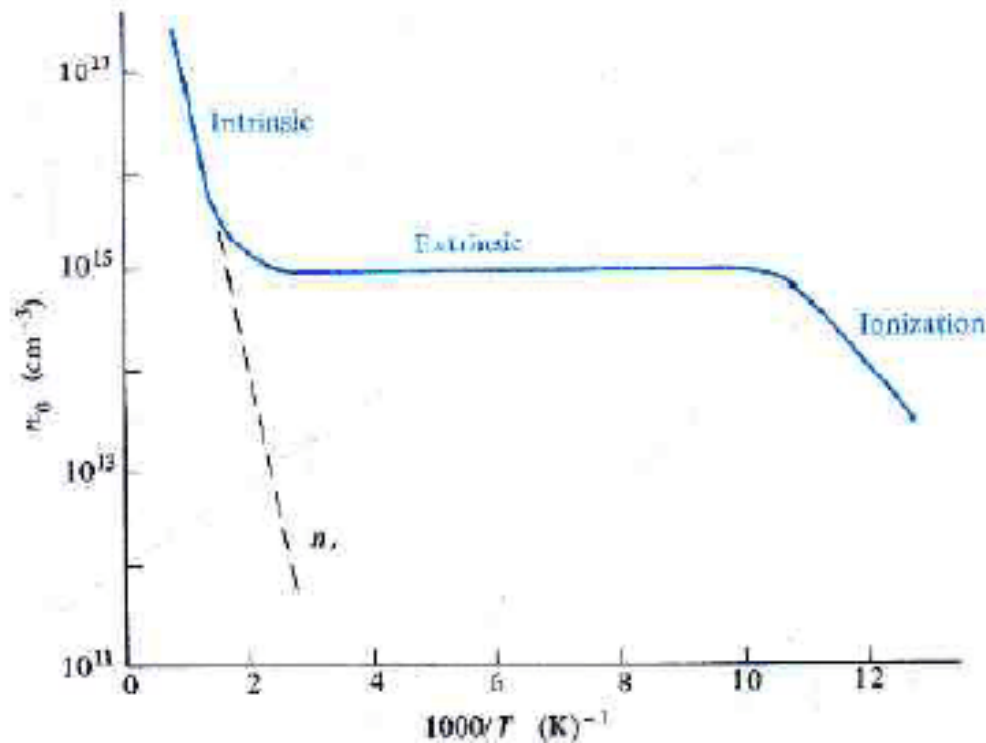
$$= N_c N_v e^{-(E_c - E_v)/kT} = N_c N_v e^{-E_g/kT} = n_i p_i = n_i^2$$

- This allows us to write

$$n_0 = n_i e^{(E_F - E_i)/kT} \quad p_0 = n_i e^{(E_i - E_F)/kT}$$

- As the Fermi level moves closer to the conduction [valence] band, the  $n_0$  [ $p_0$ ] increases exponentially

# Temperature dependence of carrier concentrations



$$n_0 = \left[ 2 \left( \frac{2\pi kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_n^* m_p^*)^{3/4} e^{-E_g/2kT} \right] e^{(E_F - E_i)/kT}$$

- The intrinsic concentration depends exponentially on temperature. The  $T^3$  dependence is negligible.
- Ionization: only a few donors [acceptors] are ionized.
- Extrinsic: All donors [acceptors] are ionized
- Intrinsic: As the temperature increases past the point where it is high enough to excite carriers across the full band gap, intrinsic carriers eventually contribute more.
- At room temp (300K), the intrinsic carrier concentration of silicon is:

$$n_i = 1.5 \times 10^{10} / \text{cm}^3$$

# Current flow

- There are two mechanisms by which mobile carriers move in semiconductors – resulting in current flow
  - Drift
    - Carrier movement is induced by a force of some type
  - Diffusion
    - Carriers move (diffuse) from a place of higher concentration to a place of lower concentration

$$J_n(x) = \underbrace{qn\mu_n\mathcal{E}}_{\text{drift}} + \underbrace{qD_n\frac{dn(x)}{dx}}_{\text{diffusion}}$$

# Drude model of conductivity

- Electrons are assumed to move in a direct path, free of interactions with the lattice or other electrons, until it collides.
- This collision abruptly alters its velocity and momentum.
- The probability of a collision occurring in time  $dt$  is simply  $dt/\tau$ , where  $\tau$  is the mean free time.  $\tau$  is the average amount of time it takes for an electron to collide.

$$J = -qn v_{avg} = qn \mu_n \mathcal{E}$$

- The current is the charge\*number of electrons\*area\*velocity in a unit of time. For  $j$  = **current density**, divide by the area. The **drift velocity** ( $v_d$ ) is a function of charge mobility ( $\mu_n$ ) and electric field ( $E$ ).
- At equilibrium, there is no net motion of charge,  $v_{avg} = 0$ .
- With an applied electric field, there is a net drift of electrons [holes] against [with] the electric field resulting in an average velocity.
- This model allows us to apply Newton's equations, but with an effective mass. The effective mass takes the interactions with the rest of the solid into account.

# Drude model of conductivity

$$v = v_0 + at \quad F = qE = ma \quad a = \frac{qE}{m}$$

- Consider an electron just after a collision. The velocity it acquires before the next collision will be acceleration\*time

$$v_{avg} = -\frac{qE\tau}{m^*} \quad J = \sigma E = \left( \frac{nq^2\tau}{m^*} \right) E \quad \sigma = \frac{nq^2\tau}{m^*}$$

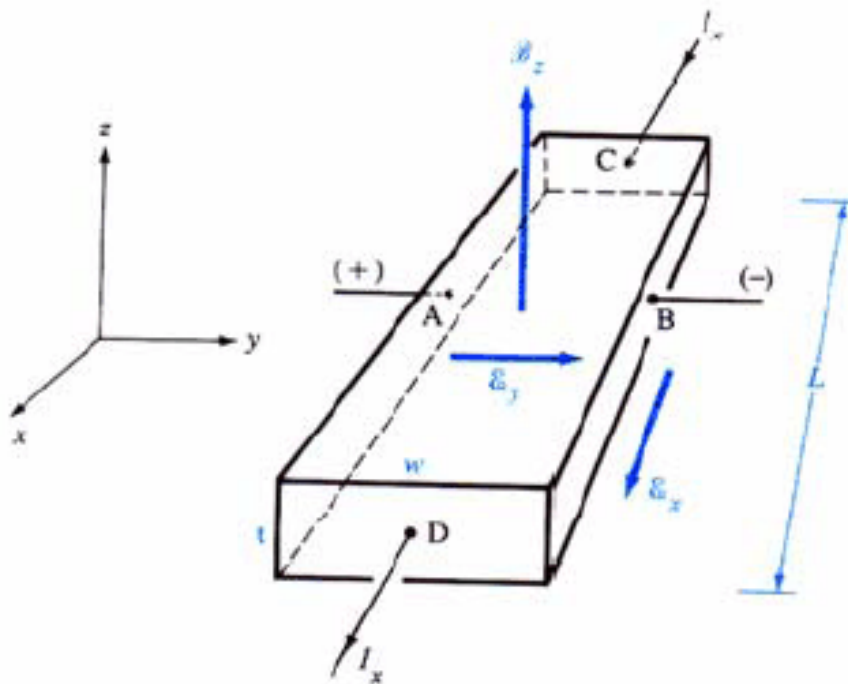
- We want the average velocity of all the electrons, which can be obtained by simply averaging the time, which we already know is  $\tau$ .
- We can also write this in terms of mobility:

$$\sigma = qn\mu \quad \mu = \frac{qt}{m^*} = -\frac{v_{avg}}{E}$$

- Taking both holes and electrons into account, we end up with the following formula for current density due to **drift**.

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

# Hall effect



- Moving electrons experience a force due to a perpendicular B field

$$F = q(\mathcal{E} + v \times B)$$

- An electric field develops in response to this force.
- The sign of this field perpendicular to the flow of current determines the carrier type.
- Density and mobility can also be calculated.

$$E_y = \frac{J_x B_z}{qn} \quad \mu = \frac{1}{qn\rho}$$

$\rho =$  resistivity

# Diffusion

- Diffusion results in a net flux of particles from the region of higher concentration to the region of lower concentration
  - This flux leads to current (movement of charged particles)
  - Magnitude of current depends on the gradient of concentration

$$J_{n,\text{diffusion}}(x) = qD_n \frac{dn(x)}{dx}$$

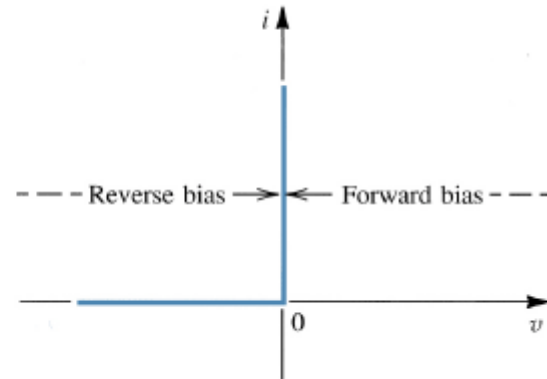
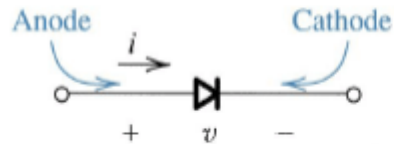
- $D_n$  is the diffusivity coefficient
- Diffusivity is related to mobility by Einstein's relationship

$$\frac{D_n}{\mu_n} = \frac{D_p}{\mu_p} = \frac{kT}{q}$$

- Typical values for Si at room temp
    - $D_n = 34 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$  and  $D_p = 13 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$

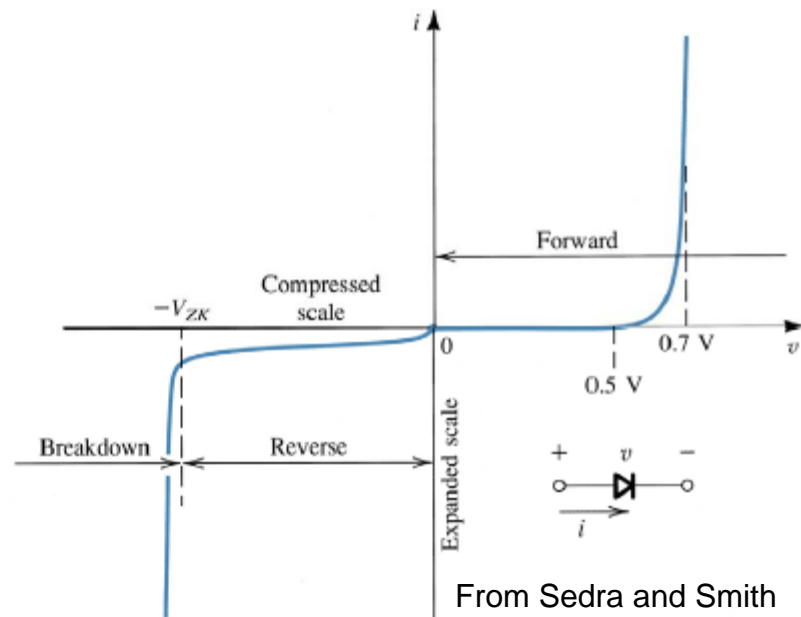
# pn junction diodes

## Ideal diode



## Characteristics of pn junction diode

- Given a semiconductor PN junction we get a diode with the following current-voltage (IV) characteristics.
- “Turn on” voltage based on the “built-in” potential of the PN junction
  - Reverse bias breakdown voltage due to avalanche breakdown (on the order of several volts)



From Sedra and Smith



# Current equations

- The forward bias current is closely approximated by

$$i = I_s \left( e^{v/nV_T} - 1 \right) \text{ where } V_T = kT/q$$

where  $V_T$  is the thermal voltage ( $\sim 25\text{mV}$  at room temp)

$k$  = Boltzman's constant =  $1.38 \times 10^{-23}$  joules/kelvin

$T$  = absolute temperature

$q$  = electron charge =  $1.602 \times 10^{-19}$  coulombs

$n$  = constant dependent on material, between 1 and 2 (we will assume  $n = 1$ )

$I_s$  = scaled current for saturation current that is set by dimensions

- Notice there is a strong dependence on temperature
- We can approximate the diode equation for  $i \gg I_s$

$$i \cong I_s e^{v/nV_T}$$

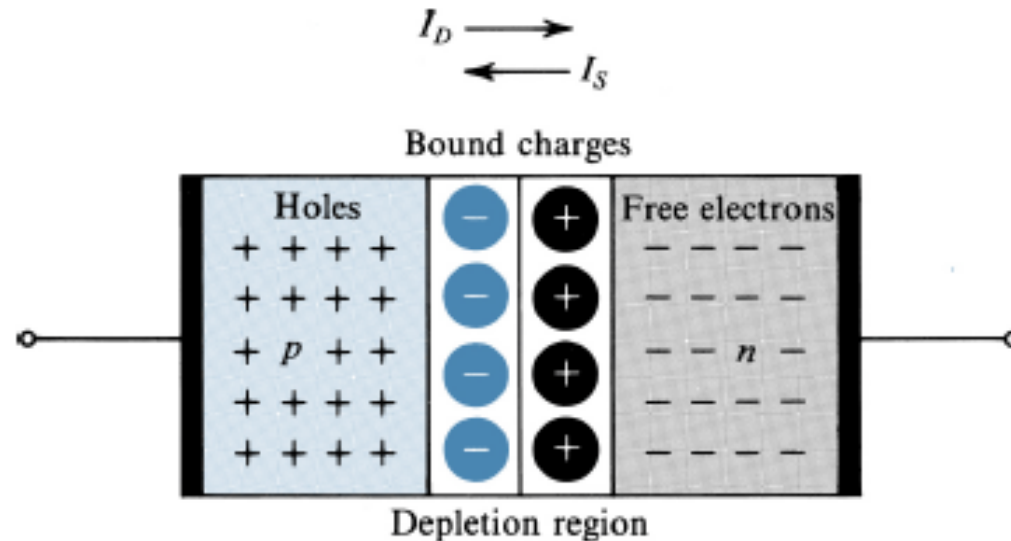
- In reverse bias (when  $v \ll 0$  by at least  $V_T$ ), then

$$i \cong -I_s$$

- In breakdown, reverse current increases rapidly... a vertical line

# Mobile carriers

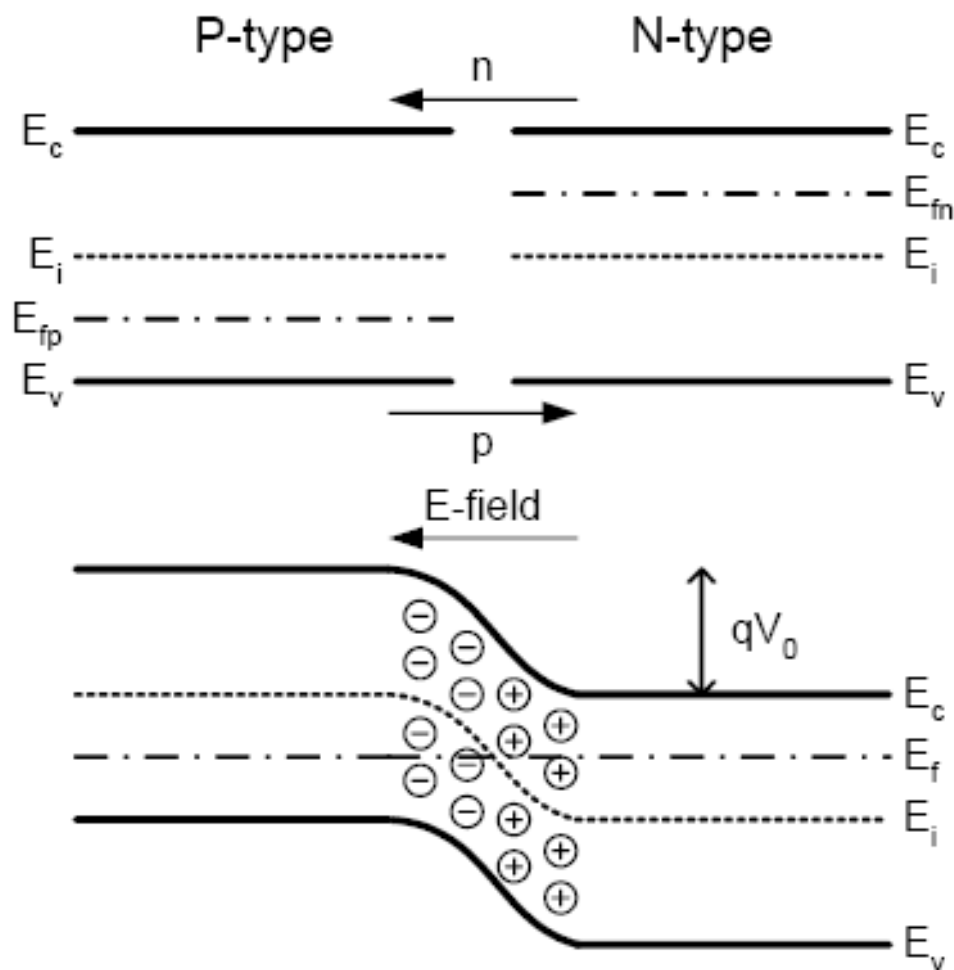
- Now let's look at physical mechanisms from which the current equations come.
  - We've seen that holes and electrons move through a semiconductor by two mechanisms – drift and diffusion



- In equilibrium, diffusion current ( $I_D$ ) is balanced by drift current ( $I_S$ ). So, there is no net current flow. Drift current comes from (thermal) generation of hole-electron pairs (EHP).

# Band diagrams

- When the P-type material is contacted with the N-type material, the Fermi levels **must** be at equilibrium.
- Band bending: The conduction and valence bands “bend” to align the Fermi levels.
- Electrons diffuse from the N-side to the P-side and recombine with holes at the boundary. Holes diffuse from the P-side to the N-side and recombine with electrons at the boundary. There is a region at the boundary of charged atoms – called the space-charge region (also called the depletion region b/c no mobile carriers in this region)
- An electric field is created which results in a voltage drop across the region – called the barrier voltage or built-in potential



# What happens when n-type meets p-type?

- Holes diffuse from the p-type into the n-type, electrons diffuse from the n-type into the p-type, creating a **diffusion current**. The diffusion equation is given by

$$J_n = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad \text{where } D_n \text{ is the diffusion constant}$$

- Once the holes [electrons] cross into the n-type [p-type] region, they **recombine** with the electrons [holes].
- This recombination “strips” the n-type [p-type] of its electrons near the boundary, creating an electric field due to the positive and negative bound charges.
- The region “stripped” of carriers is called the space-charge region, or depletion region.
- $V_0$  is the contact potential that exists due to the electric field.

$$E(x) = -\frac{dV}{dx}$$

- Some carriers are **generated** (thermally) and make their way into the depletion region where they are whisked away by the electric field, creating a **drift current**.

# Equilibrium motion of carriers

- In equilibrium, diffusion current is balanced by drift current. Moreover, the built-in potential (electric field) stops the diffusion by imposing a larger barrier to holes and electrons.
- The diffusion current is determined by the # of carriers able to overcome the potential barrier. The drift current is determined by the generation of minority carriers (in the depletion region) which then move due to the E-field. This generation is determined by the temperature.

$$J_n(x) = q\mu_n n(x)E(x) + qD_n \frac{dn(x)}{dx}$$

$$J_p(x) = \underbrace{q\mu_p p(x)E(x)}_{\text{drift}} + \underbrace{qD_p \frac{dp(x)}{dx}}_{\text{diffusion}}$$

- At equilibrium, the two components are equal...

$$\frac{D}{\mu} = \frac{kT}{q} \quad \text{Einstein's relationship}$$

# E-field and 'built-in' potential

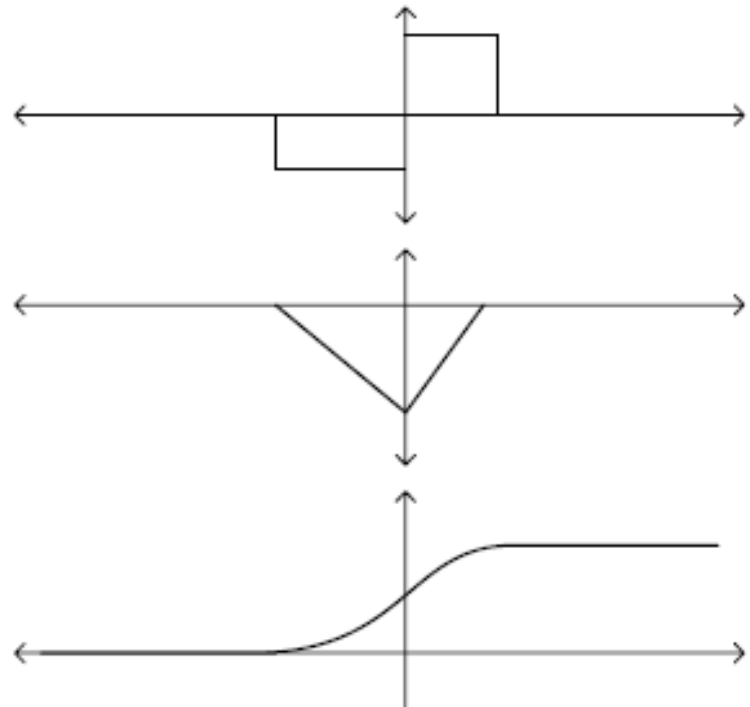
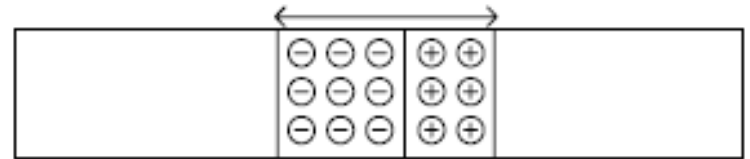
- Diffusion is balanced by drift due to bound charges at the junction that induce an E-field.
- Integrating the bound charge density gives us the E-field

$$\mathcal{E}(x) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0} \int_{-\infty}^x \rho(x) dx$$

- Integrating the E-field gives the potential gradient

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

$$V(x) = - \int_{-\infty}^x \mathcal{E}(x) dx$$



# Junction built-in voltage

- With no external biasing, the voltage across the depletion region is:

$$V_0 = V_T \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$$

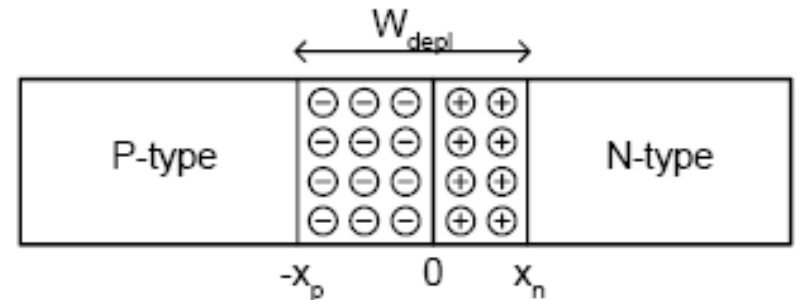
- Typically, at room temp,  $V_0$  is 0.6~0.8V
  - How does  $V_0$  change as temperature increases?
- Interesting to note that when you try to measure the potential across the  $pn$  junction terminals, the voltage measured will be 0. In other words,  $V_0$  across the depletion region does not appear across the diode terminals. This is b/c the metal-semiconductor junction at the terminals counteract and balance  $V_0$ . Otherwise, we would be able to draw energy from an isolated  $pn$  junction, which violates conservation of energy.

# Width of the depletion layer

- The depletion region exists on both sides of the junction. The widths in each side is a function of the respective doping levels. Charge-equality gives:

$$qx_pAN_A = qx_nAN_D$$

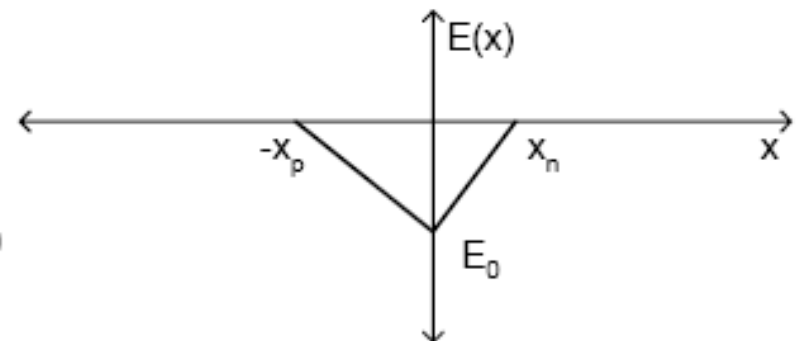
$$\frac{x_n}{x_p} = \frac{N_A}{N_D}$$



- The width of the depletion region can be found as a function of doping and the built-in voltage...

$$W_{depl} = x_n + x_p = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s}{q} \left( \frac{1}{N_A} + \frac{1}{N_D} \right) V_0}$$

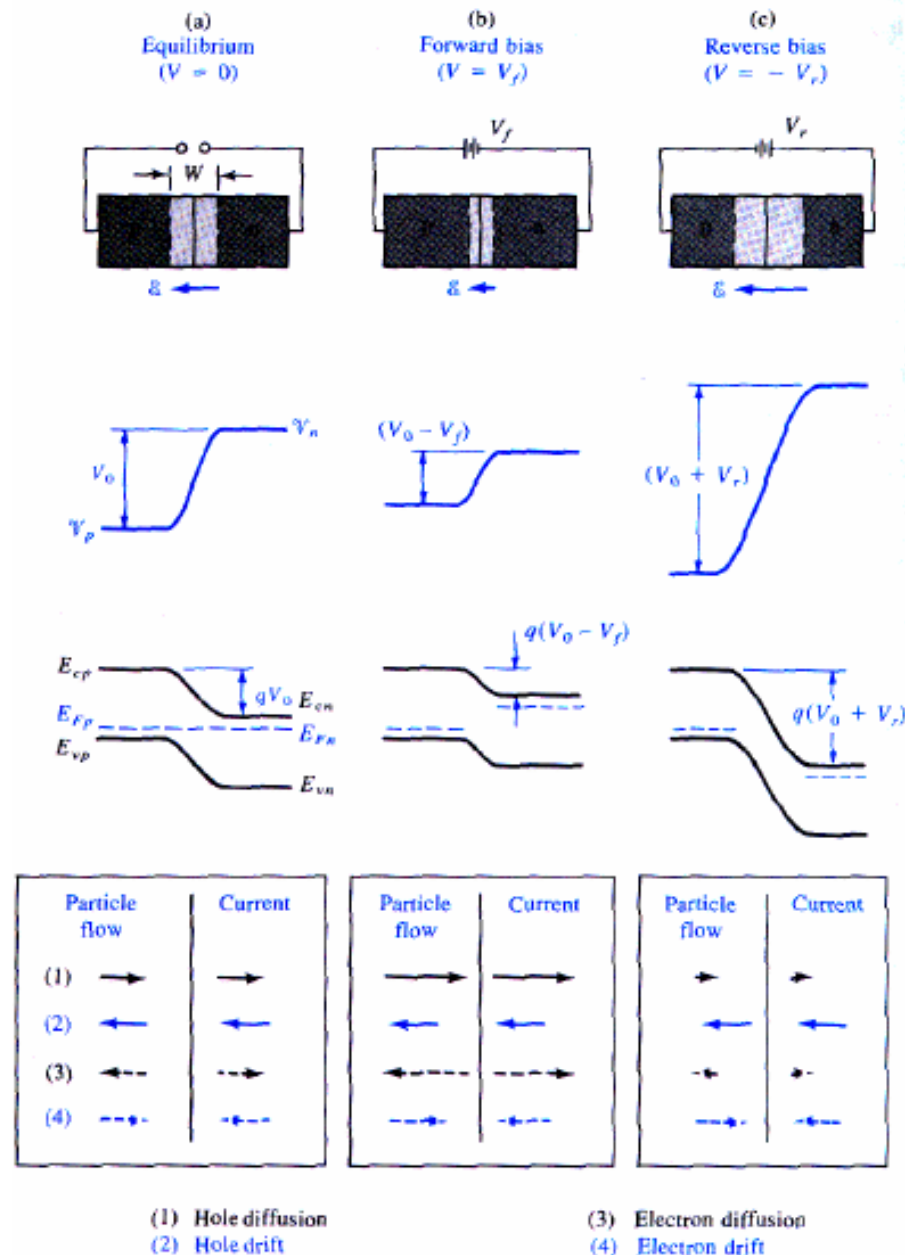
$\epsilon_s$  is the electrical permittivity of silicon =  $11.7\epsilon_0$   
(units in F/cm)





# Band Diagram under Bias

- Applying a bias adds or subtracts to the built-in potential.
- This changes the diffusion current, making it harder or easier for the carriers to diffuse across.
- The drift current is essentially constant, as it is dependent on temperature.



# PN Devices: LED and Solar Cell

- Light-emitting diode (LED)
  - Converts electrical input to light output: electron in → photon out
  - Light source with long life, low power, compact design.
  - Applications: traffic and car lights, large displays.
- Solar Cell
  - Converts light input to electrical output: photon in → electron out (generated electrons are “swept away” by E field of pn junction)
  - Renewable energy source!

