

## Universal Gates:

- \* Analog ckt: refers to a continuously changing variable.
- \* Any adjacent point can be taken on the AC load line.
- \* A sinusoidal input <sup>(~)</sup> is the best example.
- \* Digital ckt: is a two-state operation i.e. high or low.
- \* Only specified points are taken on the ~~load~~ <sup>load</sup> line.
- \* A square wave (□) is the best input in it.

## Gate:

### Universal Gates.

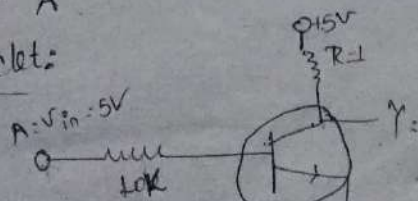
NOT gate, OR gate & AND gate (Basic Gates)

- \* Gates are the digital ckt having 1 or many inputs but only 1 output.
- \* Logic ckt are designed by the combination of different gates in different ways.
- \* The logic ckt are named so as they stimulate the mental process.

### Not NOT Gate:

Symbol:   $Y = \bar{A}$

Logic ckt:

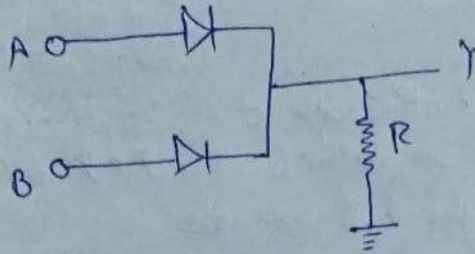


Truth Table:

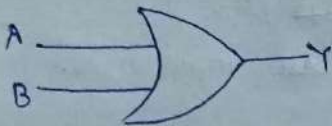
A	Y
0	1
1	0

OR gate:  
(Using diode):

Logic ckt



Logic symbol

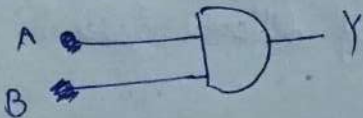


Truth table

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

AND gate:

Logic symbol

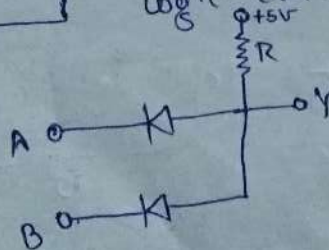


Truth table

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1




Logic ckt:



## Boolean Algebra

- \* De Morgan attempted to find a link between the logic and the mathematics but failed.
- \* George Boolean introduced the idea bet<sup>n</sup> the logic and the mathematics.
- \* Finally shanon used the logic telecommunication switching ccts.

## NOT gate

A  Y = NOT A

According to Boolean,  $Y = \overline{A}$   
 $= \overline{0} = 1$   
 $= \overline{1} = 0$

## OR gate

For A and B as inputs,  $Y = A \text{ OR } B$

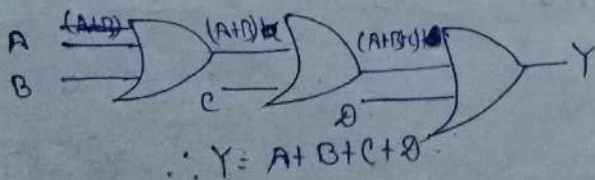
According to Boolean,  $Y = A + B$

## AND gate

$Y = A \text{ AND } B$

A/c to Boolean,  $Y = A \cdot B$

## Boolean Equations





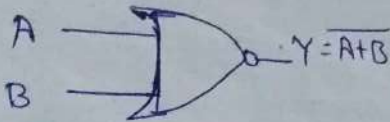
# Double Inversion

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A \Rightarrow \overline{0} = 1 ; \overline{1} = 0$$

## De Morgan's Theorem

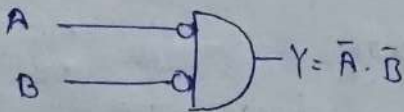
### First theorem

NOR gate ( $\overline{A+B}$ )



A	B	$Y = \overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

Bubbled AND gate ( $\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$ )

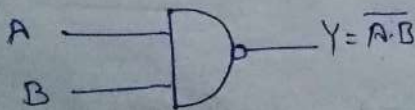


A	B	$Y = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

NOR gate is equivalent to a bubbled AND gate.

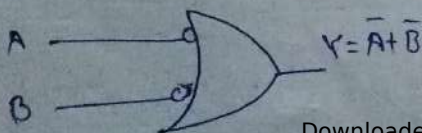
### Second Theorem

NAND gate ( $\overline{A \cdot B}$ )



A	B	$Y = \overline{A \cdot B}$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Bubbled OR gate



A	B	$Y = \overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

NAND gate is equivalent to bubbled OR gate.  
i.e.  $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$



## Boolean Laws and Theorems

1. Commutative Laws

$$A + B = B + A$$

$$A \cdot B = B \cdot A$$

2. Associative Law

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$$

$$A \cdot (B \cdot C) = (A \cdot B) \cdot C$$

3. Distributive Law

$$A(B + C) = AB + AC$$

$$A + BC = (A + B)(A + C)$$

4.  $A + 0 = A$

$$A + 1 = 1$$

$$A + A = A$$

$$A + \overline{A} = 1$$

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

$$A \cdot 1 = A$$

$$A \cdot 0 = 0$$

$$A \cdot A = A$$

$$A \cdot \overline{A} = 0$$

5.  $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

$$\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$$

## 6. Absorption Theorem

$$A + AB = A$$

$$A \cdot (A + B) = A$$

$$A + \bar{A}B = A + B$$

$$A \cdot (\bar{A} + B) = A \cdot B$$

## \* Duality theorem

a.  $OR \longleftrightarrow AND$

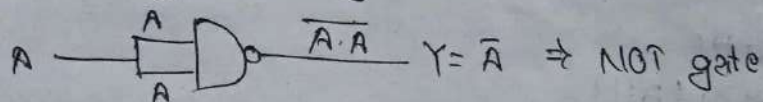
b.  $0 \longleftrightarrow 1$

## Universal Gates

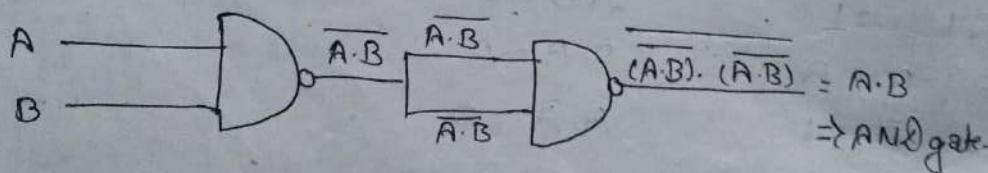
NAND and NOR gates are regarded as the universal gates. These are so called as the basic gates (NOT, OR & AND) are derived from.

### NAND gate:

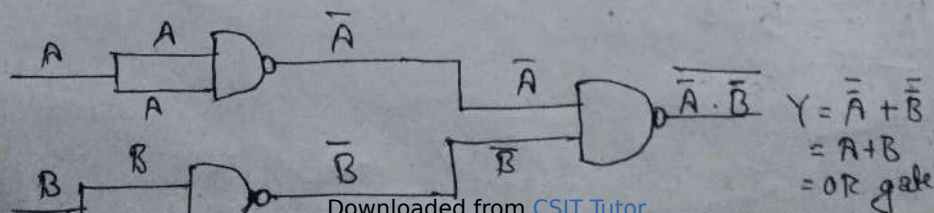
To get NOT gate:



To get AND gate:



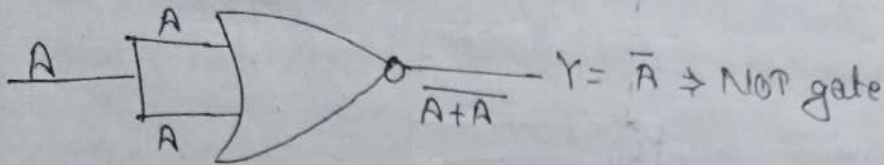
To get OR gate:



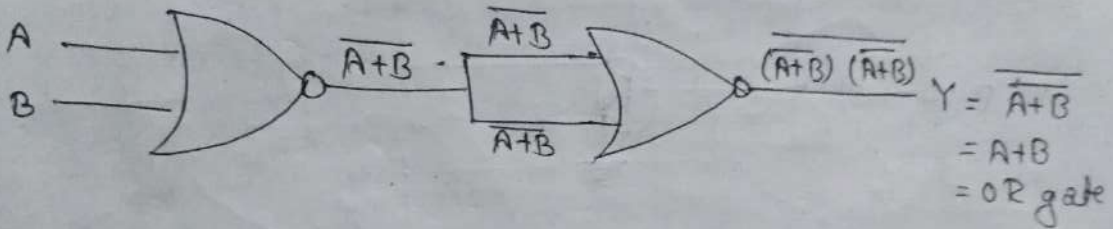


NOR gate:

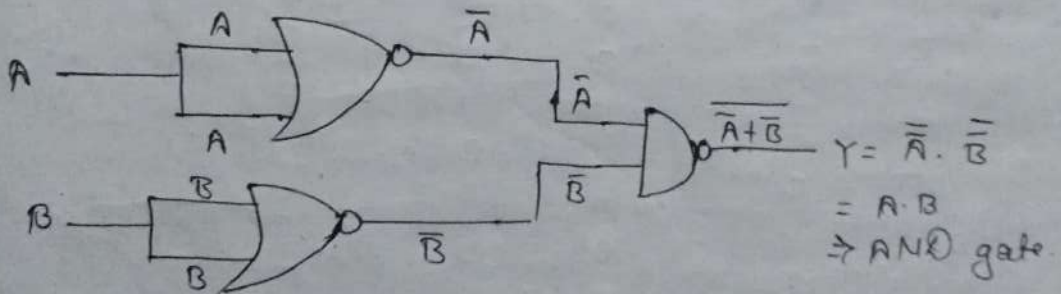
To gate NOT gate:



To gate NOR-OR gate:



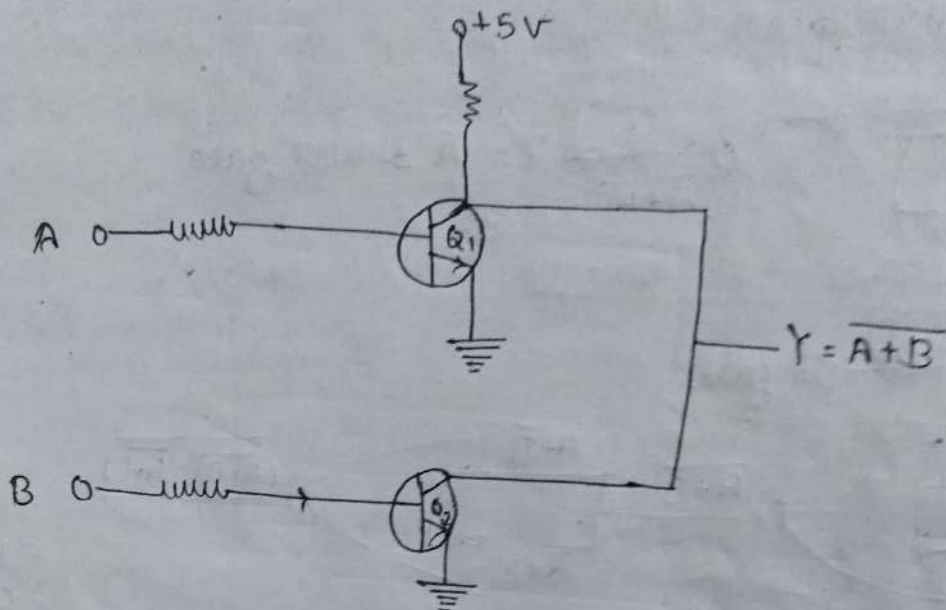
To get AND gate:



\* RTL Logic gate:

\*  $\rightarrow$  RTL refers to a resistor-transistor logic family of gates.  
A well known RTL logic ckt is outlined in the figure.

P.T.O.





## NOR gate:

The RTL logic circuit for NOR gate has been outlined in the figure. The resistor, transistor (coupling constitutes the RTL logic). The NOR gate output can be proved with the help of a truth table:

### First entry:

$$A=0, B=0.$$

When both entries are kept zero (i.e. grounded), there is no voltage drop across  $R_B$  and hence no current is constituted thereby keeping the transistors off. The supplied voltage across  $R_C$  appears now as an output i.e.  $Y=1$ .

### Second entry:

$$A=0, B=1$$

For  $A=0$ , the first transistor  $Q_1$  is no current remains off as there is no current flow on the base.

For  $B=1$ , there is base current on the second transistor  $Q_2$ , it becomes ON and the voltage drop across  $R_C$  goes to ground thereby giving  $Y=0$ .

### Third entry:

$$A=1, B=0.$$

For  $B=0$ ,  $Q_2$  remains off in the same way as in the 2nd entry.

For  $A=1$ , there is base current on the first transistor  $Q_1$ , it becomes on and the voltage drop across  $R_C$  goes to ground. Thereby giving  $Y=0$ .

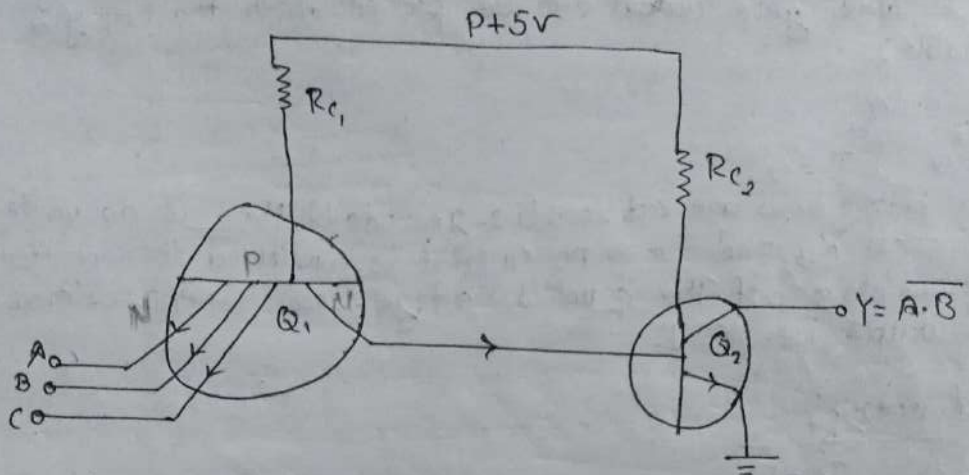
### Last entry:

$$A=1, B=1.$$

Both the transistors begin to conduct due to the flow of <sup>base</sup> current. Hence, supply voltage across  $R_C$  becomes grounded. Hence, output  $Y=0$ .

## TTL NAND Gate:

- \* Developed by the Texas company at around 1964.
- \* Easier to use, cheap, small size & modern circuiting.



A	B	C
0	0	0
0	0	1
0	1	0
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	1

The TTL NAND Gate has been shown in the fig. The transistor  $Q_1$  is a multiemitter transistor having three emitters with inputs A, B & C separately.

The functioning of the NAND gate can be described as in the following entries.

Let one of the inputs is <sup>low</sup> high (say  $A = +5V$ ), the base emitter junction of  $Q_1$  is forward biased and the supply voltage across  $R_c$  goes to the ground & hence base collector junction becomes reversed biased. As a result, the second transistor  $Q_2$  remains off. Hence voltage drop across  $R_c$  appears in the output yielding High i.e.,  $Y = 1$ .

The same situation appears when any two of the inputs are grounded or all the three inputs are grounded.

When all the inputs are kept high, ( $A=B=C=+5V$ ), the base emitter junction is now reversed biased, only the base collector junction of  $Q_1$  becomes forward biased. Thereby making  $Q_2$  transistor ON.

Hence, voltage drop of the supply across  $R_c$  goes to the ground yielding Y output low i.e.,  $Y=0$  and we write;

$$Y = \overline{ABC}$$

## Memory Circuits

Under memory circuits, here we focus <sup>attention on</sup> our flip-flop ckt.

A flip-flop is a bistable electronic ckt that has two stable states i.e. 0 & 1. (eg 0V & 5V).

It is called a memory device because the output once ~~saved~~ set remain same unless something is done after it.

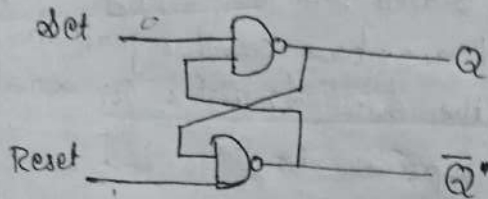


Flip-flops are of two types (here)

① Reset - set flipflop (RS Flip Flop) or Latch.

② Data Flipflop (or D flipflop)

RS Flip-Flop.



The RS flip-flop ckt is shown in the fig. The memory function of such a device to store information has been described with the help of the following entries:

Let  $S=1, R=1$ . The case is forbidden (ambiguous).

Let  $S=0$ , the output yields  $Q=1, \bar{Q}=0$ .

Here,  $Q=1$  is the information saved.

The information has been saved as  $Q=1$ .

To delete the data, we can't use (change).

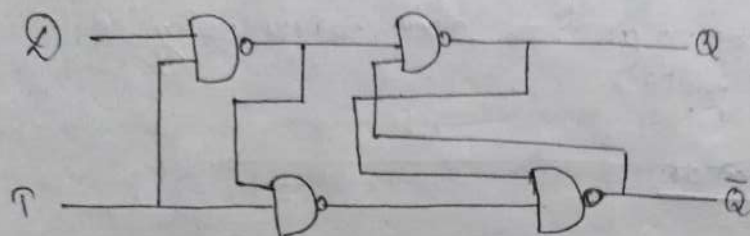
Now, to change the data saved, we keep  $R=0$ .

$\therefore Q=0, \bar{Q}=1$ .

This data has been reset that can't be altered using  $R$ .

To change the value to the new one, again, we use set functions. Hence, it works.

## The Data Flip-Flop (D-Flip Flop)



The D-Flip Flop ckt using the NAND gate is shown in the figure. The last section is the latch studied earlier. Here, D is the information fed to the ckt & T is the controller that controls the response to the ckt on the data fed.

If  $T=1$ , there is data yielding in the output.

If  $T=0$ , it can't do anything and the data remains in the previous stage.

Let  $D=1, T=1$ . The output  $Q=1, \bar{Q}=0$ . Describe yourself!

The data fed has been saved in the output.

If  $T=0$ , it remains unchanged and stays in previous case.

To change the data,  $D=0, T=1 \rightarrow Q=0, \bar{Q}=1$

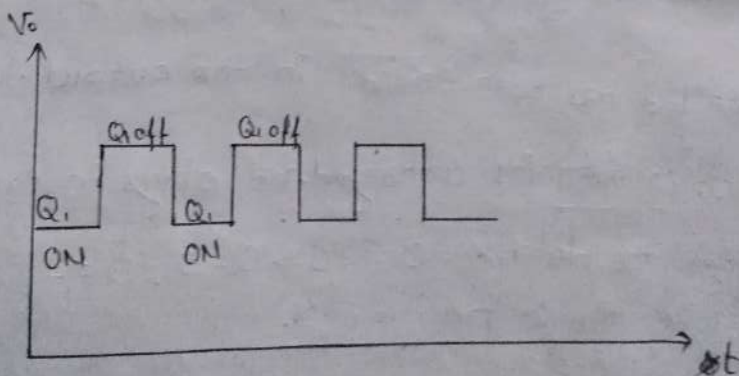
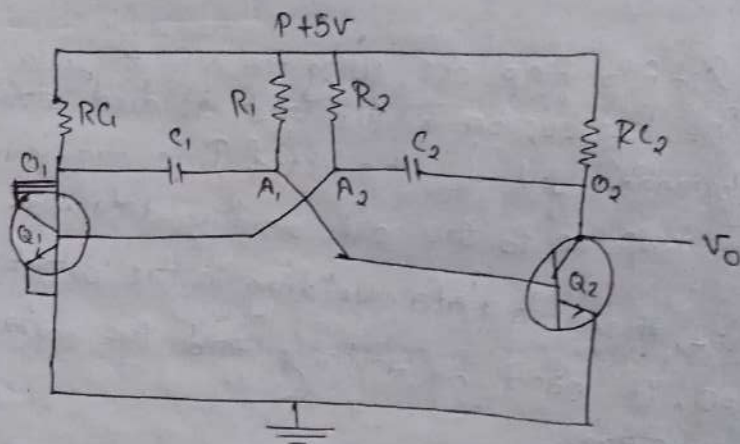
If  $T=0$ , it remains in previous case.

## Clock circuits

\* Clock circuits are used to run the computer clock in digital devices.

\* Multivibrators are used to generate clock waves using the principle of negative feedback.

## Astable multivibrators





The astable multivibrator to generate a clock wave is shown in the fig. Though the two transistors  $Q_1$  and  $Q_2$  have the same parameters in the respect, there is some unbalance and one of the two becomes active first.

Let us have  $Q_1$  transistor is ON first due to the full charge on  $C_2$ . The  $O_1$  point now becomes virtual ground point and hence point  $A_1$  is -ve w.r.to the point  $O_1$ . Hence, the PN junction of  $Q_2$  is reverse biased and remains OFF, with zero output,  $V_{C_1}$ .

At the same time,  $C_1$  is charged due to the potential drop at  $R_1$ . and when it is fully charged, the output  $V_{C_1}$  now becomes high. Eventually,  $Q_2$  is forward biased; becomes ON and  $O_2$  is found to have in virtual ground.  $A_2$  hence is -ve w.r.to the point  $O_2$  and hence  $Q_1$  being reverse biased becomes off with zero output in  $V_{C_2}$ . Again,  $C_2$  goes on charging by the voltage drop at  $R_2$ , becomes fully charged with  $V_{C_2}$  high eventually  $Q_1$  becomes ON and similar process is carried out onwards. Finally, a clock ~~wave~~ wave hence is generated.

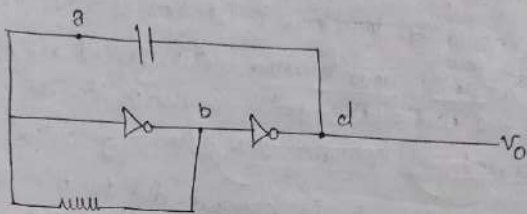
Here,  
charging time  $t_1 = 0.69 R_1 C_1$   
and  $t_2 = 0.69 R_2 C_2$

$$\therefore \text{Total time, } T = t_1 + t_2 \\ = 0.69 R_1 C_1 + 0.69 R_2 C_2$$

$$\text{For } R_1 = R_2 = R, C_1 = C_2 = C; \\ T = 1.38 RC$$

Hence,  $f = \frac{1}{T}$  is the duty cycle.

## IC free Running Clock wave:



Let initially, point 'a' is charged and kept at zero potential  
i.e.,  $V_a = 0V$

By the action of an inverter, a point 'b' is at high potential  
i.e.,  $V_b = 5V$

And thereby  $V_d = V_o = 0V$ . The capacitor as shown in the first  
net work goes on charging becomes fully charged with  $V_a = 5V$ .

Now, by the action of inverter,

$$V_b = 0V \text{ \& } V_d = V_o = 5V$$

It is because the capacitor discharges yielding high output.  
Hence, the generation of the clock wave.

27.1. Make the appropriate ~~truth~~ truth tables to prove the following distributive law of boolean algebra.

$$A(B+C) = AB+AC$$

→ sol<sup>n</sup>,

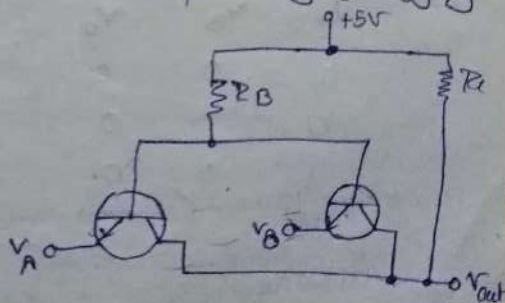
Truth table:

A	B	C	(B+C)	AB	AC	AB+AC	A(B+C)
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

27.6 Analyze the circuit shown in fig. Determine the logic function performed by the circuit by making justifying the appropriate truth table.

→

$V_A$	$V_B$	$V_o$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

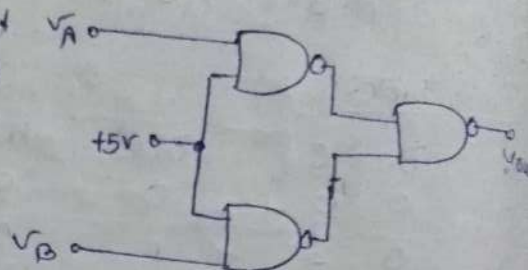


AND gate



27.9

- (a) Find the truth table for the circuit shown in fig. What logic function does the circuit perform?
- (b) What logic function will the circuit perform if the constant +5V input to the first two gates is changed to ground potential?



$V_A$	$V_B$	$V_O$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

(a) OR gate

$V_A$	$V_B$	$V_O$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

(b) None

27.10  
KW

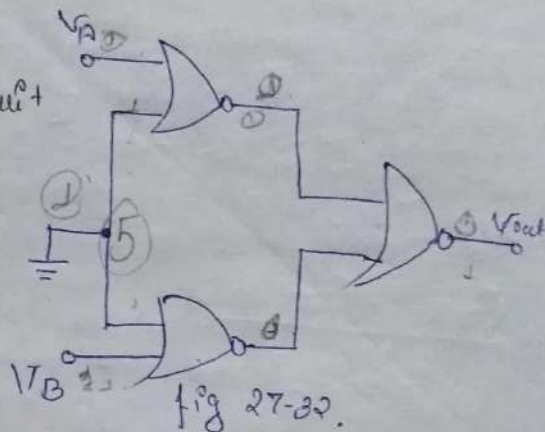
27.10

(a) Find the truth table for the circuit of fig. 27-32. What logic function does the circuit perform? (b) What logic function will the circuit perform if the common grounded input to the first two NOR gates is changed to +5V?

→ Soln,

The truth table for given circuit diagram is;

$V_A$	$V_B$	$V_o$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1



This truth table also satisfies the ~~2~~ logic gate for AND gate.

a) ∴ The logic circuit perform the AND function.

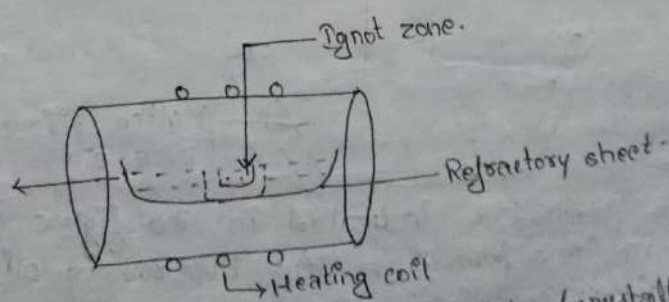
b) :

$V_A$	$V_B$	$V_o$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

⇒ None

## Silicon Purification (Zone Refining):

- \* Si is the fundamental basis for the microelectronics devices that is easily available in the nature.
- \*  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{SiHCl}_3$  &  $\text{SiCl}_4$  are the forms of silicon.
- \* Using chemical decompositions, one gets Si from these compounds mentioned.
- \* The Si obtained hence has impurities concentrated as one atom per million atoms.
- \* The molten form of Si obtained hence is solidified called ingot. An ingot is polycrystalline in nature and has crystals with different orientations.
- \* The removal of the impurity present hence is the method of zone refining.
- \* The final pure form is termed as seed crystal.



The zone refining is based on the principle of crystallization of NaCl sol<sup>n</sup> in water. The solubility of impurity atoms has higher value.



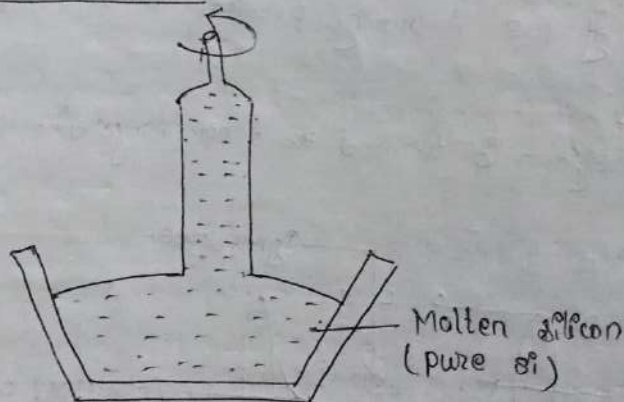
The ingot is kept inside a cylindrical furnace in a crucible. The furnace is set up using the heating coils as shown in the fig. The molten state is slowly cooled out so that it begins to solidify leaving behind the impurity in the other end.

On repeating for several times the same process, finally we get pure form of solidified silicon. by removing the molten part. such part is termed as seed crystal.

### Crystal Growth:

Following are the methods:

#### 1. Czochralski method:



The method is indicated in the figure. The seed crystal in the form of a long thin rod is dipped inside a crucible containing pure & molten silicon.

The rod is taken slowly and out rounding it in anticlockwise direction as shown.

The emerging seed crystal becomes large in size that goes on solidifying. The rate of rotation and

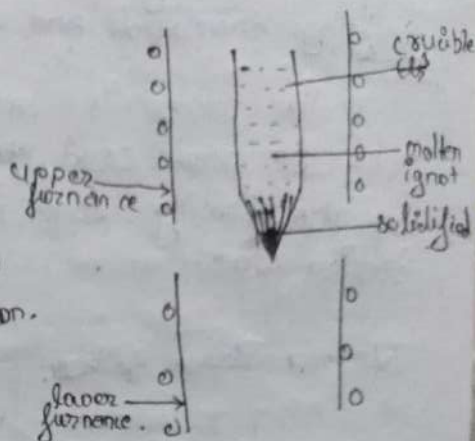
its upwards motion is determined using Hit & Trial method.

## (ii) The Bridgman - Stockbarger method:

The detailed description is outlined in the fig. The upper furnace is kept at slightly above the temperature of the melting point of the silicon while the lower furnace is kept slightly below the temperature of melting point of silicon.

The ignot now is kept in the crucible of conical shape. Inside the upper furnace, it is in the molten state & on falling towards the lower furnace goes on solidifying from the conical tip filtering the impurities above in the molten part.

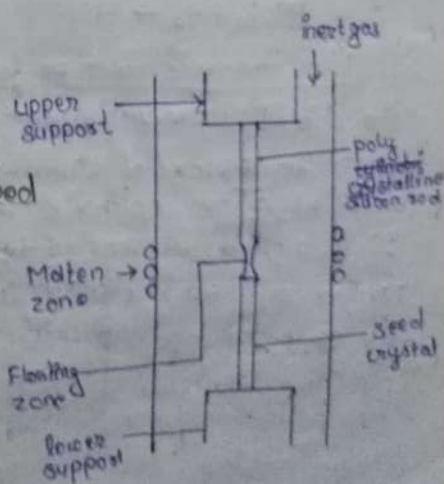
Finally cutting down the upper suspended part one gets pure form in the shape of conical tip.



## (iii) Floating-zone method:

The description is outlined in the fig. The upper rod is supported with the upper supporter while the lower seed crystal is supported by the lower supporter.

The inactive arrangement is made in an inert gas environment. Hence, it removes the difficulty of mixing up of Si in the wall of crucible as in the above two





methods as the crucible is made up of  $\text{SiO}_2$ .  
The heating coil melts the material in the middle zone that goes on shifting downwards and solidifying in pure form.

The process is carried out for sometimes so that one gets the pure seed crystal. The two rods are balanced by the floating zone according to the principle of surface tension force.

### Vapour Phase Epitaxy.

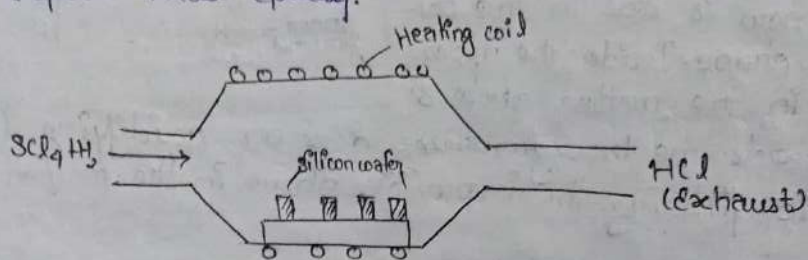
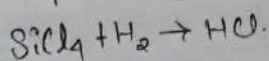


fig: Arrangement for growing Si layers on silicon wafers by epitaxial growth.



It is the another type for the crystal growth needed for the chip (IC) production commercially.

An approx. of  $10\mu\text{m}$  -  $24\mu\text{m}$  of thickness can be deposited as silicon epitaxial layer on a substrate (wafer). The Si is melted at around  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  to  $1200^\circ\text{C}$  using the heating coil as indicated in the fig. The vapour is coated on the Si wafer and the unwanted material as exhaust is thrown out (here HCl).

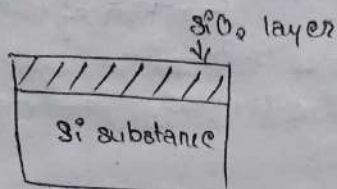


# Process of IC Production:

Following are the methods generally employed during the manufacture of IC:

They are epitaxial growth, oxidation, oxide removal, pattern definition, etching and interjunction connection.

## 1. Oxidation



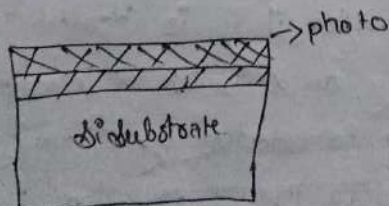
① formation of SiO<sub>2</sub>

A definite thickness of the SiO<sub>2</sub> layer is constructed at the top of the Si substance. It is done by heating the substance at high temperature (1000°C - 1200°C) in presence of oxygen or vapour. The formation of layer of SiO<sub>2</sub> depends upon time of heating, composition and of the constituent gases in the environment.

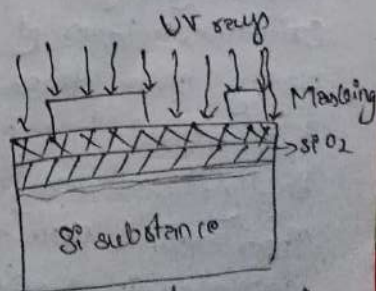
The main reason of SiO<sub>2</sub> deposition is:-

- I. It acts as an open windows for the impurities on silicon.
- II. It saves the P-N material from contamination.
- III. ~~It~~ The dopant can't easily penetrate through SiO<sub>2</sub> as compared to silicon.

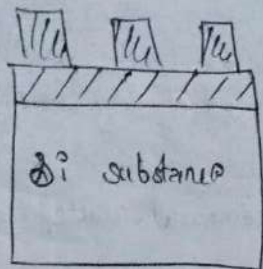
## 2. Photolithography (Photoresist):



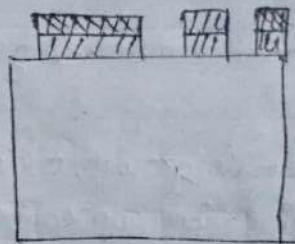
② Photoresist



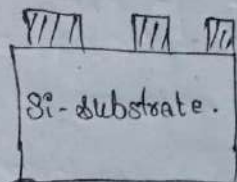
③ Expose of UV rays



(M) selected photoresist removed



(N) treating with HF resulting in formation of windows in  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer.



(U) Ready to dop by washing photoresist.

(O) Oxidation

A thin layer of  $\text{SiO}_2$

(W) Pattern definition

It is the process of locating the exact point on which doping of impurities is to be made. A technique of photolithography (or masking) is done during the process. After oxidation, a layer of photoresist is deposited on it. It is done by placing some drops of photoresist chemicals on  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer and it is rotated in a high speed. After it, it is heated so that finally it adheres permanently on  $\text{SiO}_2$  as photoresist layer. Then desired place of doping is selected by masking as indicated in the fig. on exposing the UV-radiation, the chemical



structure of the exposed and unexposed parts after alter separately, using some suitable chemicals, the photoresist under masking is removed due to its separate chemicals composition on UV-ray. The  $\text{SiO}_2$  layer on the unexposed parts (masking) is now removed on treating it with HF solution finally, the remaining photoresist on the exposed parts (unmasked) is washed away.

The resulting form is ready for doping with impurities.

### Doping:

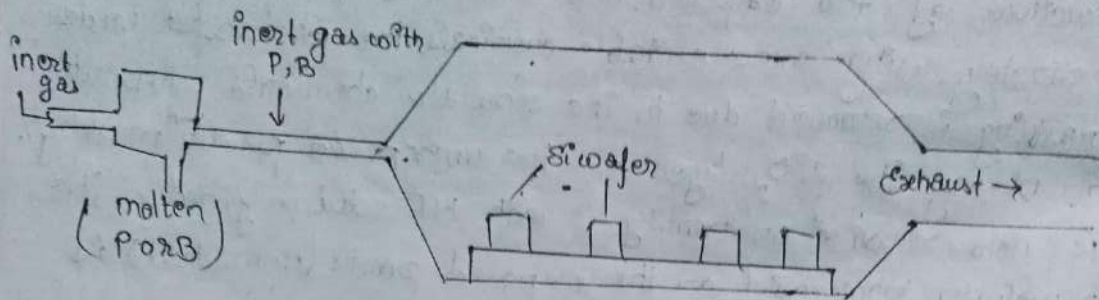
It is the process of injecting the impurities (pentavalent or trivalent atoms) on the fabricated semiconductor after the pattern is defined.

It consists of a two methods;

#### (1) Diffusion:

The silicon is heated around  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ . The atoms (a few) vacate leaving behind the lattice points as vacant sites. The impurities (P or B) to be injected in the form of gas with inert gas environment is diffused into the silicon material. Such impurities go and attach at the lattice sites and finally spread over the bulk of the silicon material. It is found at  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 hour time, the impurities level increases by  $1\mu\text{m}$  thickness.

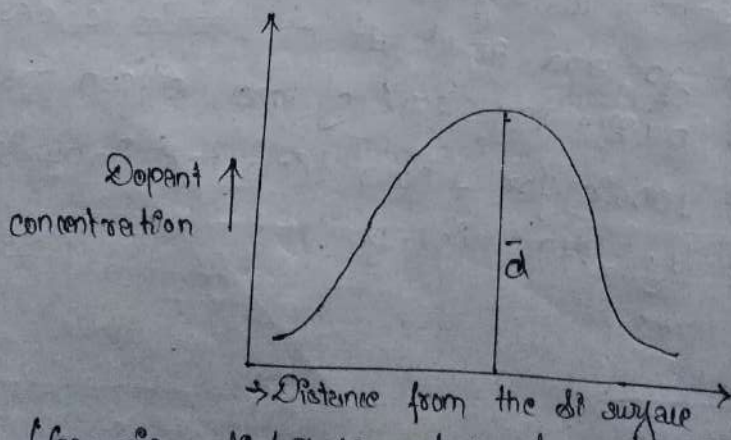
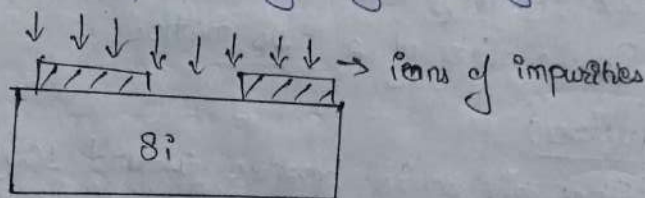




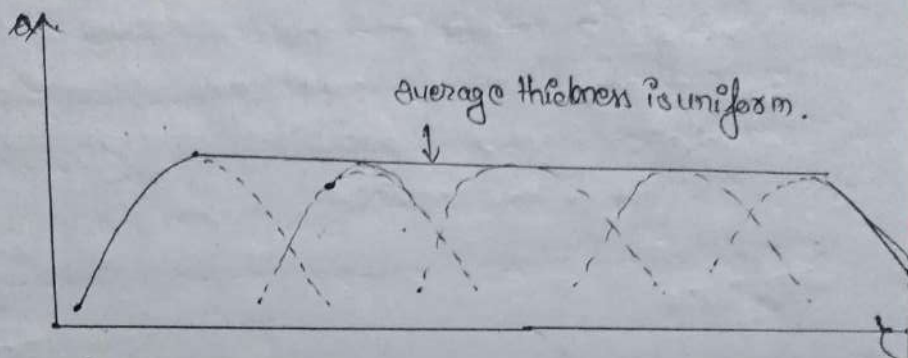
The case of gaseous impurities such as diborane ( $B_2H_6$ ) and phosphorus trifluoride ( $PF_3$ ), inert gas is not required.

## (ii) Ion implantation:

The ions of the impurities are accelerated over the silicon material in the presence of high voltage.



(Gaussian distribution of dopants on Si)



The distribution of the impurities on Si is not uniform and is Gaussian in nature. On repeating over several times, we find almost a thick line on the peaks that indicates an approximate of uniformity on the Gaussian distribution.

\* Since ions are accelerated at high voltage, it constitutes a current that can be controlled. It is the advantage over diffusion.

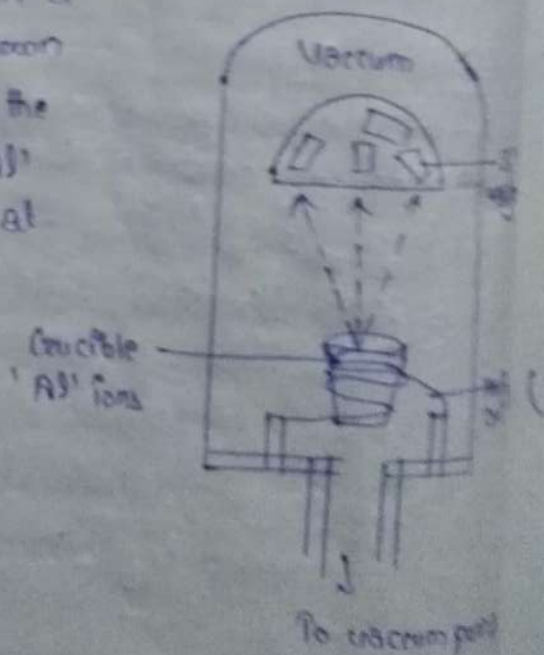
\* Another advantage over diffusion is that it doesn't collapse the internal configuration of the silicon species.

Sometimes when current increases, we apply the process of annealing to save the silicon.

## Electronic Component Connection in a Chip:

The ionised aluminium in a crucible is heated using coil as shown in the figure. The vapour from the aluminium is used to produce 'Al' ions-metals connection on the wafer at planetary.

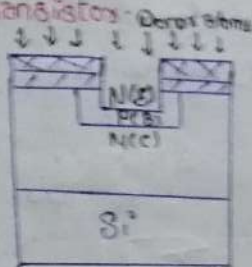
This entire apparatus is enclosed in an evacuated chamber to avoid from the possible explosion & combination of  $O_2$  gas.



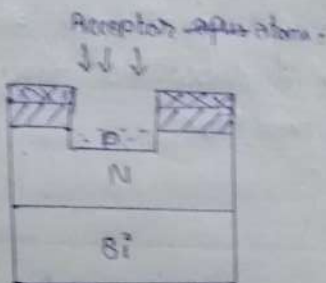


## Electronic Component Doping as a chip:

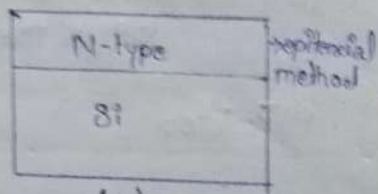
(i) Transistors



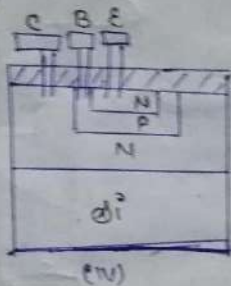
(iii)



(ii)



(i)



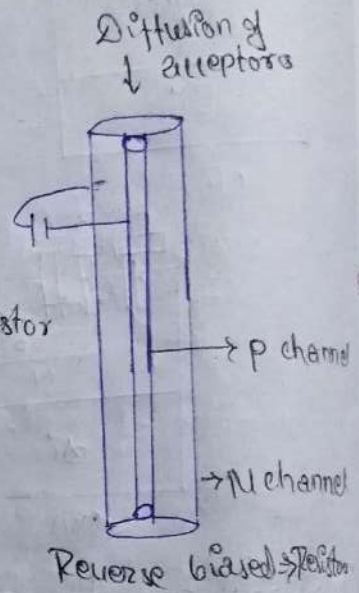
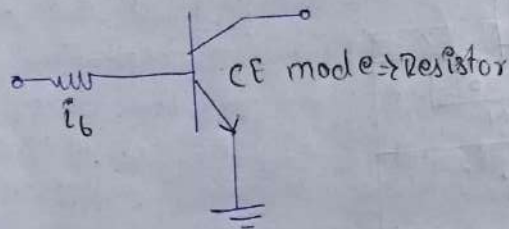
(iv)

Following are the methods employed:

- (i) An N-type epitaxial layer is made on Silicon substrate (fig i).
- (ii) Photolithography is made (coating of  $SiO_2$ , deposition of photoresist, UV exposure after masking and opening of the windows) and finally the pattern is obtained (fig ii). Then the acceptor atoms are diffused on the pattern selected on the N layer. It is the P region.
- (iii) Again the technique of photolithography is made on the top and finally a small pattern to dop donor atoms is selected out. The donor atoms are now diffused. It acts as N layer and acts as the emitter for the transistor. The P region acts as the base and the initial N layer acts as the collector.

(iv) For the electronic component connection, again the photolithography is made and three windows on N, P & N regions are created. Then as mentioned above already, the aluminium vapour is deposited through the windows. Hence, the transistor

## ii) Resistor



A shallow diffusion of p-type of materials through an n-channel is made. The resulting channel is reverse biased so that there is small current flow thereby forming a resistor.

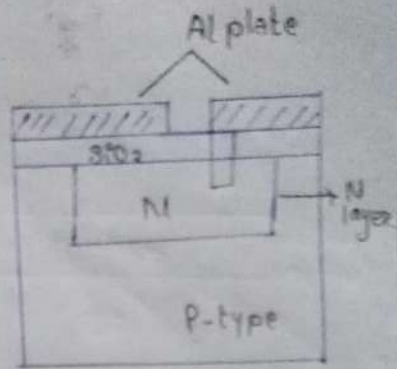
The resistance designed hence depends on the channel length, its cross-sectional area and its doping concentration.

Since the size of the IC itself is small, we can't design a high resistance value in the manner like this. In such a case, a transistor in the CE mode is constructed and the resistance is measured on the basis of base current flow.

## > Capacitors:

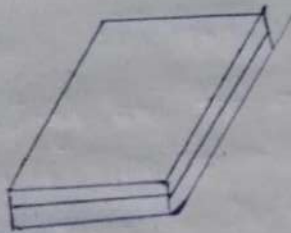
A capacitor consists of two metal plates separated by an insulating medium.

Here, inside the chip, N<sup>+</sup> epi layer acts as one metal plate connected with the aluminium plate. The oxide layer ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) acts as the insulating medium and wide aluminium next layer on the top acts for the second metal plate.

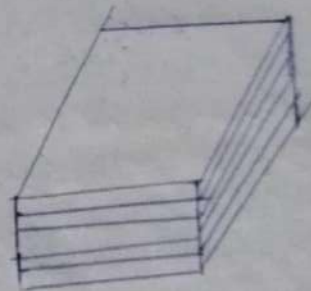


## > Fabrication of IC:

The detailed description of the IC fabrication method is outlined in the fig.

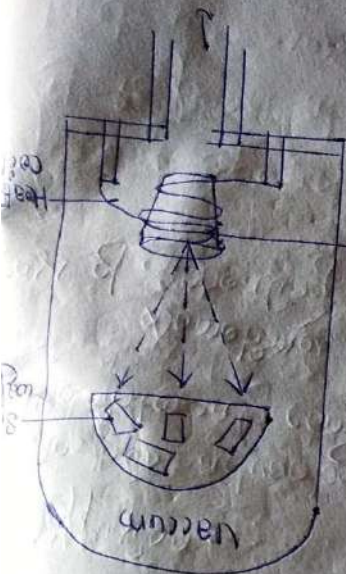


a, b, c.





To vacuum pump



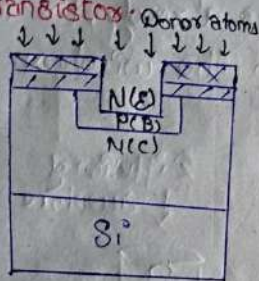
This entered apparatus is enclosed in an evacuated chamber to avoid from the possible oxidation & combination of  $O_2$  gas.

The ionised aluminium in a crucible is heated using coil as shown in the figure. The vapour from the aluminium is used to produce  $Al$  ions. Metals connection on all wafers at planetary.

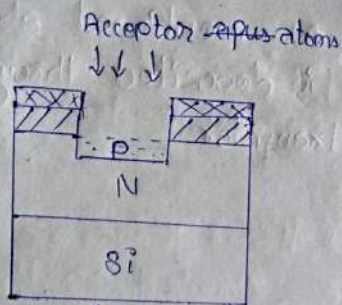
## Electronic Component connection in a chip

## Electronic Component Dopping as a chip:

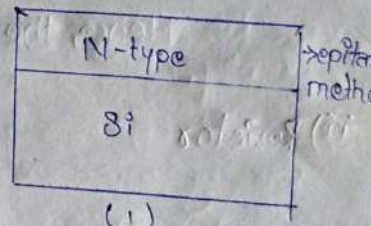
### (i) Transistor:



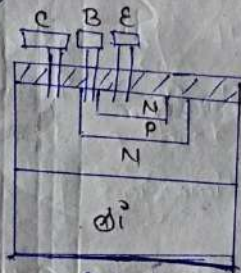
(iii)



(ii)



(i)



(iv)

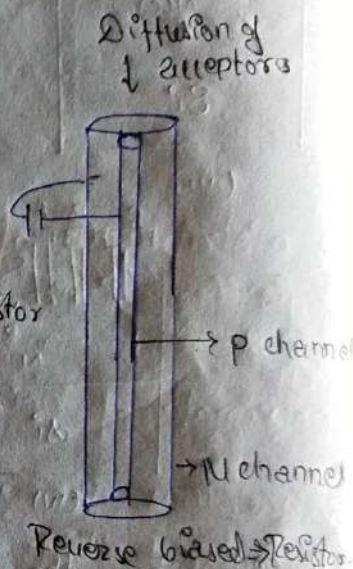
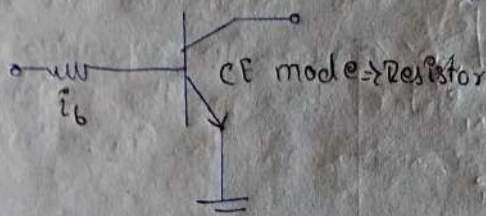
Following are the methods employed:

- (i) An N-type epitaxial layer is made on silicon substrate (fig i).
- (ii) Photolithography is made (coating of  $SiO_2$ , deposition of photoresist, UV expose after masking and opening of the windows) and finally the pattern is obtained (fig ii). Then the acceptor atoms are diffused on the pattern selected on the N layer. It is the P region.
- (iii) Again the technique of photolithography is made on the top and finally a small pattern to dop donor atoms is selected out. The donor atoms are now diffused. It acts as N layer and acts as the emitter for the transistor. The P region acts as the base and the initial N layer acts as the collector.



(iv) For the electronic component connection, again the photolithography is made and three windows on N, P & N regions are created. Then as mentioned above already, the ionized aluminium vapour is deposited through the windows. Hence, the transistor

## ii) Resistor



A shallow diffusion of p-type of materials through an N-channel is made. The resulting channel is reverse biased so that there is small current flow thereby forming a resistor.

The resistance designed hence depends on the channel length, its cross-sectional area and its doping concentration.

Since the size of the IC itself is small, we can't design a high resistance value in the manner like this. In such a case, a transistor in the CE mode is constructed and the resistance is measured on the basis of base current flow.



Therefore,

$$N_e = (N_e N_h)^{1/2} = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{-E_g/2kT} \quad (*)$$

Hence, the result doesn't show the presence of  $E_F$ .

Evaluation of Fermi Energy Level ( $E_F$ ):

The fermi energy is the demarcation line that separates the filled and the unfilled energy states. The probability of the electron in it is  $1/2$ .

To find the fermi energy, let us equate the eqn (\*) and (\*\*). we get,

$$\text{i.e. } 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_e^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} e^{\frac{E_F - E_g}{kT}} = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{\frac{E_F - E_g}{kT}} = \frac{m_e^*^{3/4} (m_h^*)^{3/4}}{m_e^*^{3/2}} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{E_F/kT} = \left( \frac{m_h^*}{m_e^*} \right)^{3/4} e^{\frac{E_g}{2kT}}$$

Taking,  $\log_e(\ln)$  on both sides,

$$\frac{E_F}{kT} = \frac{3}{4} \ln \left( \frac{m_h^*}{m_e^*} \right) + \frac{E_g}{2kT}$$

$$\therefore E_F = \frac{E_g}{2} + \frac{3}{4} kT \ln \left( \frac{m_h^*}{m_e^*} \right)$$

At  $T=0K$ ,  $E_F = E_g/2$

At  $T > 0K$ , and  $m_h^* = m_e^*$  in intrinsic semiconductor,

$$E_F = \frac{E_g}{2} \quad \text{because } \ln 1 = 0$$

At ordinary temperature,

$$E_F = \frac{E_g}{2} \quad ; \text{ if } m_h^* \times m_e^* \text{ fairly differ.}$$

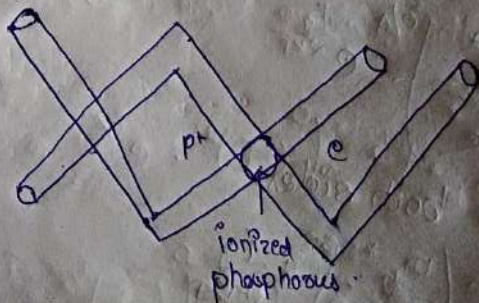
It is because  $\ln x$  is a slowly varying function.

### Extrinsic Semiconductors

#### N-type semiconductor

Pentavalent atoms such as phosphorus is doped. The surplus of extra fifth electron is loosely bound that require a little energy.

The required energy is found either by Bohr's hydrogen atom model by free electron model of quantum theory.



$$\text{i.e. the necessary energy} = \frac{e^2 m}{8 \epsilon_0 h^2} = 13.6 \text{ eV}$$



For silicon,  $m_e^* = 0.31 m_e$ .

$$E_0 \rightarrow E = 12 E_0$$

$$\therefore \frac{e^4 m_e^*}{8(12) \cdot E_0^2 h^2} = 0.029 \text{ eV}$$

At absolute 0K temperature, the energy level occupied by such electrons obtained from the donor ~~electron~~ atoms is the donor energy level ( $E_D$ ). It is  $10^{-12}$  eV below the bottom of the conduction band.

Hence a slight rise of temperature above the 0K temperature is sufficient to raise these electrons to the conduction band and hence increase the conductivity of the N-type semiconductors.

### P-type semiconductors -

Trivalent atoms such as aluminium is doped. There is lack of a single electron to form the four covalent bonds with the semiconducting material. This shortage of electron acts as a strong centre of attraction for the hole and is regarded as the hole.

The hole hence accepts the electron from the nearby semiconducting atom and hence the trivalent atoms are regarded as the acceptor atoms. At absolute 0K temperature the energy level occupied by such atoms (or electrons) is called the acceptor energy level,  $E_A$ .

