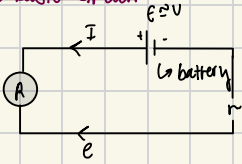


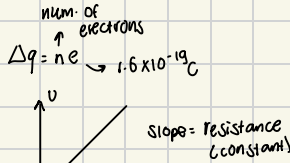
electronics

lecture one: classic electricity

① basic circuit:

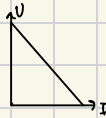


(current) $I = \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta t}$



② Ohm's law: $U_R = RI$

$U_{\text{battery}} = \mathcal{E} - I_r$
↑
constant



③ diode: (based on junction: 2 materials together)

④ all electronic devices are based on semiconductors

semiconductors: transfers electricity

- Insulators → low density of free electrons
- Conductors → high density of free electrons
- Semiconductors → medium density " " " with respect to the density of the atoms

in general, we compare the density of free electrons to the density of atoms (the concept of conductivity). when the rate is relatively high → it's a conductor, relatively low → insulator, and in the middle → semi-conductor

note: electrons are actually like waves in a cloud in the outer layer of an atom

⑤ electric field: difference in potential; effects the charges

relation that gives the density of free electrons in any

material:

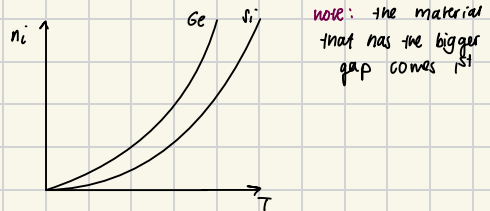
Intrinsic: pure materials without modification

density of free electrons per cm^3

$n_i \equiv n_i(T) = 5.2 \times 10^{15} T^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2kT}\right)$

temperature ↑
gap energy depends on the material itself (usually given in joules)
Boltzmann's constant = $1.38 \times 10^{-23} J/K$

convert from Celsius to Kelvin: $T_C + 273 = T_K$



example: at $300K$

$n_i (Si \text{ at } 300K) = 5.2 \times 10^{15} (300)^{3/2} e^{-\frac{1.12 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}{2 \times 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 300}}$

$E_g(Si) = 1.12 eV$
1 eV = $1.6 \times 10^{-19} J$

→ $n_i (Si \text{ at } 300K) \approx 10^{10} e/cm^3$
compared to $10^{20} \text{ atom}/cm^3$

note: in every atom → so they are neutral
e electrons (-) the hole that's left behind when the e jumps
O holes (+)

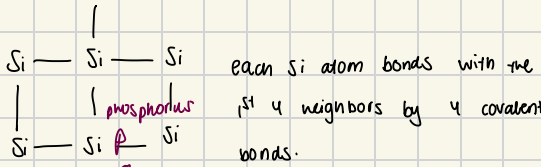
$n = p$ → density of holes } in intrinsic materials
density of free electrons

$n \times p = n_i^2$

• doping:

we need to increase the density of free electrons or holes by inserting an amount of other materials to the atoms, we drastically increase the density of charge carriers (either electrons or holes)

for Si or Ge (4th IE)



1) first type: n-type

n referring to electrons. we need to add atoms (ex: of group 5, phosphorus P)

n_d : density of added phosphorus or donor of electrons

→ n becomes $n_i + n_d$ (becomes the n_i)
 ↳ this is neglected ($10^{10} + 10^{19}$)

in consequence, the density of holes decreases drastically. according to the law $n \times p = n_i^2$

$$p(\text{minority}) = \frac{n_i^2}{n_d}$$

by symmetry or analogy: we can use the p-type dopage

2) 2nd type: p-type

p refers to holes. this is by adding an acceptor element (such as of group 3: B boron), we increase the density of holes.

n_a : density of added acceptors

$n_a \approx p(\text{majority carriers}) \rightarrow n$ drastically decreases.

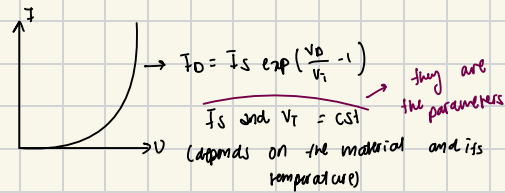
$$n = \frac{n_i^2}{n_a}$$

n-type p-type

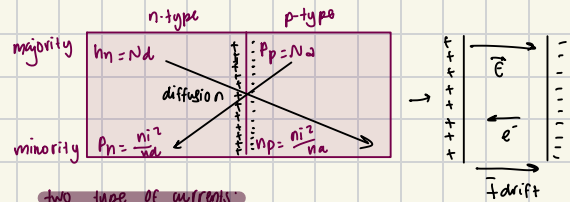
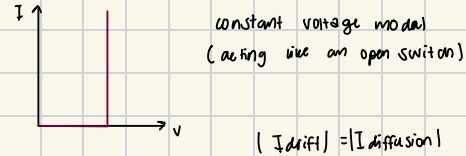
• junction:

a junction is made by adding 2 doped semi-conductors of, respectively, n-type and p-type. this new device is the basic element diode.

- the idea of the junction is to have a new (I, V) characteristic which is completely different from the resistor behaviour



often, we will use a simplified version:



two type of currents

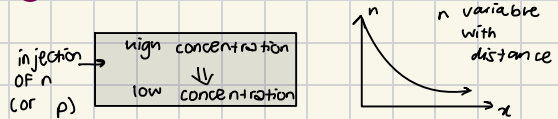
1) drift current

when a potential difference or electric field is created in a conductor. electrons are flowing and a current is drifting (it is generated)

$$J = \frac{I_{\text{drift}}}{S} = |q| n \mu_n + |q| p \mu_p \times E \times q$$

J : current density
 $|q|$: electric charge
 n, p : carrier density
 μ_n, μ_p : mobility of electrons and holes
 E : electric field

2) diffusion current



diffusion of n (electrons) from high to low concentration levels \rightarrow diffusion current is generated (without applying an electric field)

$$J_{\text{diffusion}} = \frac{I_{\text{diffusion}}}{S} = \left(D_n \frac{dn}{dx} - D_p \frac{dp}{dx} \right) \times q$$

D_n, D_p : diffusivity of n(electrons) and p(holes)
 $\frac{dn}{dx}, \frac{dp}{dx}$: variation of n/p

$$\rightarrow 26 \times \ln\left(\frac{10^{16} \times 10^{16}}{10^{10}}\right) = 26 \times \ln(10^{12})$$

$$= 718.4 \approx 720 \text{ mV}$$

$$V_{\text{thermal}} \approx 720 \text{ mV}$$

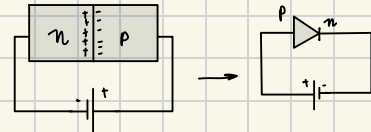
battery in intrinsic has voltage \rightarrow logically

$$I_D = I_S \exp\left(\frac{V_D}{V_{\text{thermal}}} - 1\right)$$

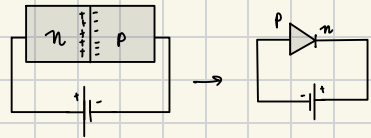
diode \downarrow constant given in question



diode:

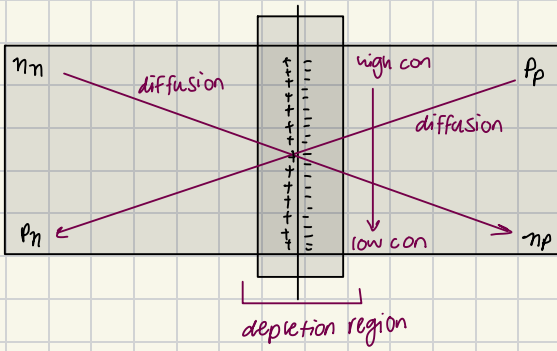


forward bias:

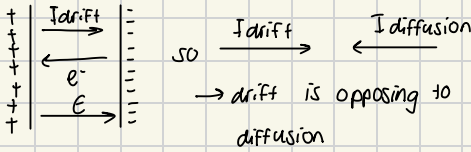


reverse bias:

\rightarrow junction doesn't work but acts as an open switch (diode)



in depletion region (zoomed):



\rightarrow potential difference / electric field region

At equilibrium:

$$I_{\text{drift}} = I_{\text{diffusion}}$$

$$\Gamma_p p q E = D_p \frac{dp}{dx} q$$

$$\frac{dp}{p} = \frac{\Gamma_p}{D_p} E dx$$

$$\begin{aligned} p_p = N_A & \quad p_n = \frac{n_i^2}{N_D} \\ \ln p_p - \ln p_n &= \frac{\Gamma_p}{D_p} \int_{n_i^2}^{N_A} E dx \\ &= \frac{\Gamma_p}{D_p} \int_{n_i^2}^{N_A} \frac{n_i^2}{x^2} dx \\ &= V_2 - V_1 = V_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma_p}{D_p} = \frac{q}{kT}$$

$$V_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_A \times N_D}{n_i^2}\right)$$

(just know what the formula means)

at equilibrium:

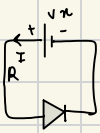
$$V_{\text{thermal}} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{N_A \times N_D}{n_i^2}\right)$$

$$\text{at } T = 300\text{K} \rightarrow \frac{kT}{q} = 26 \text{ mV}$$

for silicon (Si): $n_i = 10^{10}$

$$\rightarrow N_A = N_D \approx 10^{16}$$

Week 8:

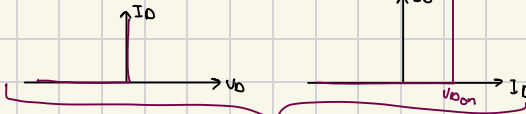


Circuit's law: the summation of all the voltages equals to zero

$$-V_x + IR + V_D = 0$$

$$-V_x + IR + \ln\left(\frac{I}{I_s}\right) \times V_T = 0$$

ideal diode:



both are simplified versions of constant voltage model

objective: we will try to familiarize using a diode

in simple circuits in order to:

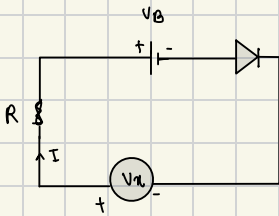
- ① find at which critical voltage (point) (V_{x1}) the diode will be in the "on mode"
- ② we have to draw the characteristics (I, V_x) ; (V_D, V_x) ; ...

I vs V_x

important V_D vs V_x

* In a general way, to find the critical point (V_{x1}) we consider the case where the current is flowing, we write its expression of I in terms of V_x (we consider I to be positive), then we find V_{x1} .

example one:



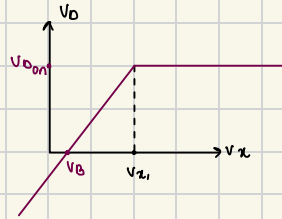
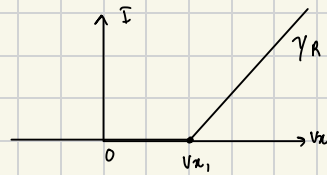
using the constant voltage model where the diode has V_{Don} (V_D and V_{Diode} are not variables but we don't know their values)

- ① assume that the current is flowing

$$V_x - V_{Don} - V_D - IR = 0 \quad (\text{we decided to read it counter clockwise})$$

$$I = \frac{V_x - V_{Don} - V_D}{R}$$

for $V_x \geq \boxed{V_{Don} + V_D}$, I exists, the diode is on



to find how V_D varies with V_x before V_{x1} :

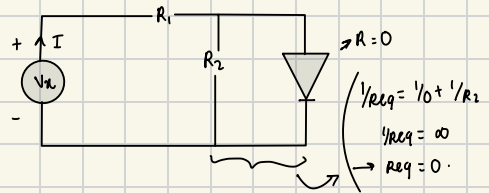
for $V_x < V_{x1}$

$$V_x = V_D + V_D$$

so it's a straight line

$$\rightarrow V_D = V_x - V_D$$

example two: ideal diode ($V_{Don} = 0$)

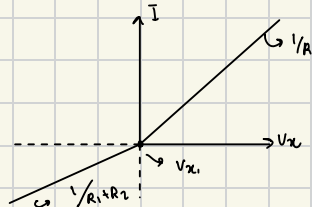


assumption 1: the diode is in the "on mode"

the diode acts as a conducting wire

$$\rightarrow V_x = IR_1 \quad (-V_x + IR)$$

$$I = \frac{V_x}{R_1}$$



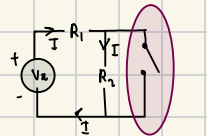
for $V_x < 0 \rightarrow$ the diode has no current (open switch),

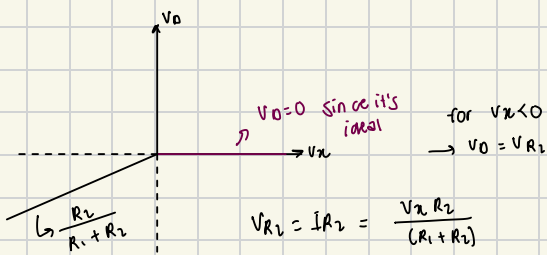
but the rest has current passing through them

$$-V_x + IR_1 + IR_2 = 0$$

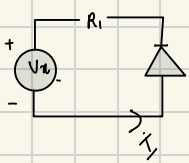
$$-V_x + I(R_1 + R_2) = 0$$

$$\rightarrow I = \frac{V_x}{(R_1 + R_2)}$$





Example 3:



- ① find V_X
- ② find (I, V_X)
- ③ find (V_O, V_X)

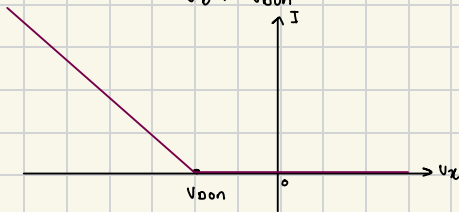
$$V_X + V_{D0n} + R I = 0$$

$$I = \frac{-V_X - V_{D0n}}{R}$$

$$-V_X - V_{D0n} > 0$$

$$-V_X > V_{D0n}$$

$$V_X < -V_{D0n}$$



if there's no current:

$$V_O = V_X$$

