## SEMICONDUCTOR DEVICES

### Introduction to Semiconductors



M.B.Patil
mbpatil@ee.iitb.ac.in
www.ee.iitb.ac.in/~sequel

Department of Electrical Engineering Indian Institute of Technology Bombay

\* highly specialised and sophisticated

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - $SiO_2$  is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - $\diamond$  for photolithography (making patterns)

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - to provide isolation between devices in an IC

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - ♦ to provide isolation between devices in an IC
- \* Other semiconductors (e.g., GaAs, InP, GaN, SiC) are used when silicon is not suitable. Examples include

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - to provide isolation between devices in an IC
- \* Other semiconductors (e.g., GaAs, InP, GaN, SiC) are used when silicon is not suitable. Examples include
  - optoelectronic devices (LEDs, lasers, optical modulators, etc.)

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - to provide isolation between devices in an IC
- \* Other semiconductors (e.g., GaAs, InP, GaN, SiC) are used when silicon is not suitable. Examples include
  - optoelectronic devices (LEDs, lasers, optical modulators, etc.)
  - high-voltage power devices

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- \* Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - ♦ to provide isolation between devices in an IC
- \* Other semiconductors (e.g., GaAs, InP, GaN, SiC) are used when silicon is not suitable. Examples include
  - optoelectronic devices (LEDs, lasers, optical modulators, etc.)
  - high-voltage power devices
  - high-frequency devices such as heterojunction biploar transistors and high electron mobility transistors

- \* highly specialised and sophisticated
- \* involves many branches of science and engineering
- Silicon is the most commonly used semiconductor for fabrication of devices and ICs
  - abundance in nature
  - fairly good material properties
  - can be easily doped (made *p* or *n*-type)
  - SiO<sub>2</sub> is easy to deposit or grow on silicon, and it is used
    - for photolithography (making patterns)
    - ♦ as part of the MOS devices
    - ♦ to provide isolation between devices in an IC
- \* Other semiconductors (e.g., GaAs, InP, GaN, SiC) are used when silicon is not suitable. Examples include
  - optoelectronic devices (LEDs, lasers, optical modulators, etc.)
  - high-voltage power devices
  - high-frequency devices such as heterojunction biploar transistors and high electron mobility transistors
  - high-efficiency solar cells

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \, \mu m$  to  $100 \, \mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
  - $6\,\mu m$  to  $8\,\mu m$ : size of a red blood cell

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
  - $6 \, \mu m$  to  $8 \, \mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
  - $0.2\,\mu m$  to  $2\,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \,\mu m$  to  $100 \,\mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
  - $6 \, \mu m$  to  $8 \, \mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
  - $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
  - $0.02\,\mu m$  to  $0.4\,\mu m$ : size of a virus

- $50 \,\mu m$  to  $100 \,\mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
- $6 \,\mu m$  to  $8 \,\mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
- $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
- $0.02\,\mu m$  to  $0.4\,\mu m$ : size of a virus
- $10 \,\mu m$ : minimum feature size in an IC in 1970

- $50 \,\mu m$  to  $100 \,\mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
- $6 \,\mu m$  to  $8 \,\mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
- $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
- $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
- 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
- $32 \, \text{nm} \, (0.032 \, \mu \text{m})$ : minimum feature size in an IC in 2010

- $50 \,\mu m$  to  $100 \,\mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
- $6 \, \mu m$  to  $8 \, \mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
- $0.2\,\mu m$  to  $2\,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
- $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
- 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
- 32 nm (0.032  $\mu$ m): minimum feature size in an IC in 2010
- $\sim 5\,\mbox{\normalfont\AA}$  (0.5 nm): interatomic distance in a silicon crystal

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
  - $6 \, \mu m$  to  $8 \, \mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
  - $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
  - $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
  - 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
  - 32 nm (0.032 μm): minimum feature size in an IC in 2010
  - $\sim 5\,\text{Å}$  (0.5 nm): interatomic distance in a silicon crystal
- \* Densities (Area)

- \* Dimensions
  - $50 \,\mu m$  to  $100 \,\mu m$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
  - $6\,\mu m$  to  $8\,\mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
  - $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
  - $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
  - 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
  - 32 nm (0.032  $\mu$ m): minimum feature size in an IC in 2010
  - $\sim 5 \, \text{Å} \, (0.5 \, \text{nm})$ : interatomic distance in a silicon crystal
- \* Densities (Area)
  - 350/cm<sup>2</sup>: hair density for a youngster

#### \* Dimensions

- $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
- $6 \,\mu m$  to  $8 \,\mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
- $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
- $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
- 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
- $32 \text{ nm} (0.032 \,\mu\text{m})$ : minimum feature size in an IC in 2010
- $\sim 5 \, \text{Å} \, (0.5 \, \text{nm})$ : interatomic distance in a silicon crystal

#### \* Densities (Area)

- 350/cm<sup>2</sup>: hair density for a youngster
- 1500/cm<sup>2</sup>: number of pixels in an LCD monitor

#### \* Dimensions

- $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  to  $100 \,\mu\text{m}$  (0.05 mm to 0.1 mm): diameter of human hair
- $6 \, \mu m$  to  $8 \, \mu m$ : size of a red blood cell
- $0.2 \,\mu m$  to  $2 \,\mu m$ : size of a bacterium
- $0.02 \,\mu m$  to  $0.4 \,\mu m$ : size of a virus
- 10 μm: minimum feature size in an IC in 1970
- 32 nm (0.032 μm): minimum feature size in an IC in 2010
- $\sim 5 \, \text{Å} \, (0.5 \, \text{nm})$ : interatomic distance in a silicon crystal

#### \* Densities (Area)

- 350/cm<sup>2</sup>: hair density for a youngster
- 1500/cm<sup>2</sup>: number of pixels in an LCD monitor
- 10<sup>7</sup>/cm<sup>2</sup>: number of MOS transistors in a modern processor chip

\* Electrical power

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens
  - 23 to 27 W: consumption of a compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) giving 1,600 lumens

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens
  - 23 to 27 W: consumption of a compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) giving 1.600 lumens
  - 15 to 22 W: consumption of LED lamp giving 1,600 lumens

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9$  W (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens
  - 23 to 27 W: consumption of a compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) giving 1,600 lumens
  - 15 to 22 W: consumption of LED lamp giving 1,600 lumens
  - $\,\sim 1\,\text{W}\textsc{:}$  power consumption of a low-power triode

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9$  W (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\sim 2 \times 10^3 \, \text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens
  - 23 to 27 W: consumption of a compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) giving 1,600 lumens
  - 15 to 22 W: consumption of LED lamp giving 1,600 lumens
  - $\sim 1\,\mathrm{W}$ : power consumption of a low-power triode
  - $100\,\mu\text{W}$ : average power consumption per transistor in a MOS microprocessor IC in 1970

- \* Electrical power
  - $\sim 300 \times 10^9 \, \text{W}$  (300 GW): total installed electricity generation capacity in India as on May 2017
  - $\sim 3.3 \times 10^9$  W (3.3 GW or 3,300 MW): average electricity consumption of Mumbai as on May 2017
  - $\,\sim 2\times 10^3\,\text{W}$  (2 kW): power consumption of a 1.5 tonne air conditioner
  - 100 W: consumption of an incandescent bulb giving 1,600 lumens
  - 23 to 27 W: consumption of a compact fluorescent lamp (CFL) giving 1,600 lumens
  - 15 to 22 W: consumption of LED lamp giving 1,600 lumens
  - $\sim 1\,\mathrm{W}$ : power consumption of a low-power triode
  - 100  $\mu$ W: average power consumption per transistor in a MOS microprocessor IC in 1970
  - 20 nW: average power consumption per transistor in a MOS microprocessor IC in 2010

- \* Voltage
  - $\sim 100\,\text{kV}\textsc{:}\xspace$  voltage used in long-distance transmission

- \* Voltage
  - $\sim 100\,\mathrm{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
  - 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)

- \* Voltage
  - $\sim 100\,\mathrm{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
  - 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
  - 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India

- \* Voltage
  - $\sim 100\,\mathrm{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
  - 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
  - 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India
  - $\sim 100\,V\!\!:$  vacuum tube operating voltage for audio applications

- \* Voltage
  - $\sim 100\,\text{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
  - 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
  - 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India
  - $\sim 100\,\mathrm{V}$ : vacuum tube operating voltage for audio applications
  - 5 V to 15 V: operating voltage for modern electronics using semiconductor devices and ICs

- $\sim 100\,\text{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
- 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
- 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India
- $\sim 100\,\mathrm{V}$ : vacuum tube operating voltage for audio applications
- 5 V to 15 V: operating voltage for modern electronics using semiconductor devices and ICs
- 1.1 V: supply voltage in low-power CMOS ICs in 2010

- $\sim 100\,\mathrm{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
- 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
- 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India
- $\sim 100\,\mathrm{V}$ : vacuum tube operating voltage for audio applications
- 5 V to 15 V: operating voltage for modern electronics using semiconductor devices and ICs
- 1.1 V: supply voltage in low-power CMOS ICs in 2010
- $\sim 100\,\text{mV}$ : action potential (nerve impulse) in neurons which is responsible for cell-to-cell communication

- $\sim 100\,\mathrm{kV}$ : voltage used in long-distance transmission
- 25 kV (AC): voltage used for electric traction in India (long-distance trains)
- 230 V (AC): domestic supply voltage in India
- $\sim 100\,\mathrm{V}$ : vacuum tube operating voltage for audio applications
- 5 V to 15 V: operating voltage for modern electronics using semiconductor devices and ICs
- 1.1 V: supply voltage in low-power CMOS ICs in 2010
- $\sim 100\,\text{mV}$ : action potential (nerve impulse) in neurons which is responsible for cell-to-cell communication
- $\sim 1\,\mu\text{V}\textsc{:}$  signal received by a mobile phone

\* Current

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim 2000\,A$ : maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim 50\,\text{mA}$ : fatal current for the human body

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim 2000\,A$ : maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim 50\,\text{mA}$ : fatal current for the human body
  - $\sim$  20 mA: current required for an LED to glow brightly

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim 2000\,A$ : maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}:$  average transistor current in a modern processor IC

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $-\sim 50\,\mathrm{mA}$ : fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}$ : average transistor current in a modern processor IC
- \* Energy

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}:$  average transistor current in a modern processor IC
- \* Energy
  - 1.1 eV: band gap of silicon (1 eV = 1.6  $\times$  10<sup>-19</sup> J)

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}$ : average transistor current in a modern processor IC
- \* Energy
  - 1.1 eV: band gap of silicon (1 eV =  $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  J)
  - 1.65 eV to 3.27 eV: photon energy in the visible range

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}$ : average transistor current in a modern processor IC

#### \* Energy

- 1.1 eV: band gap of silicon  $(1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J})$
- 1.65 eV to 3.27 eV: photon energy in the visible range
- 13.6 eV: binding energy of an electron in the ground state of the hydrogen atom, i.e., energy required to set the electron free of the influence of the nucleus

- \* Current
  - 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
  - 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
  - $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
  - $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
  - $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
  - $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}:$  average transistor current in a modern processor IC

### \* Energy

- 1.1 eV: band gap of silicon  $(1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J})$
- 1.65 eV to 3.27 eV: photon energy in the visible range
- 13.6 eV: binding energy of an electron in the ground state of the hydrogen atom, i.e., energy required to set the electron free of the influence of the nucleus
- $\sim$  20 keV: energy of an electron striking the screen of a colour TV (CRT type)

#### \* Current

- 30 kA to 300 kA: current carried by a bolt of lightning
- 500 A to 1500 A: current carrying capacity of transmission lines
- $\sim$  2000 A: maximum current that can be carried by a power semiconductor device
- $\sim$  50 mA: fatal current for the human body
- $-\sim 20\,\mathrm{mA}$ : current required for an LED to glow brightly
- $\sim 1\,\mu\text{A}:$  average transistor current in a modern processor IC

### \* Energy

- 1.1 eV: band gap of silicon  $(1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J})$
- 1.65 eV to 3.27 eV: photon energy in the visible range
- 13.6 eV: binding energy of an electron in the ground state of the hydrogen atom, i.e., energy required to set the electron free of the influence of the nucleus
- $\sim$  20 keV: energy of an electron striking the screen of a colour TV (CRT type)
- $\sim 200\,\text{keV}\textsc{:}$  photon energy for X-rays used in medical diagnosis

\* Temperature

- \* Temperature
  - 0 °C to 70 °C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device

- \* Temperature
  - 0 °C to 70 °C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - $^ -55\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  to  $125\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device

- \* Temperature
  - 0 °C to 70 °C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - $^ -55\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  to  $125\,^\circ\mathrm{C}$  operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
  - 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology

- \* Temperature
  - $0\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $70\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
  - 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
  - $\,\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}\text{C}:$  melting point of silicon

- \* Temperature
  - $0\,^{\circ}$ C to  $70\,^{\circ}$ C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
  - 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
  - $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}$ C: melting point of silicon
- \* Frequency

- \* Temperature
  - $0\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $70\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
  - 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
  - $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}$ C: melting point of silicon
- \* Frequency
  - $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light

- \* Temperature
  - 0 °C to 70 °C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
  - =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
  - 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
  - $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}$ C: melting point of silicon
- \* Frequency
  - $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light
  - 20 Hz to 20 kHz: frequency range of hearing for humans

#### \* Temperature

- 0 °C to 70 °C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
- =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
- 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
- $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}\text{C}:$  melting point of silicon

- $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light
- 20 Hz to 20 kHz: frequency range of hearing for humans
- 70 Hz to 150 kHz: frequency range of hearing for whales and dolphins

#### \* Temperature

- $0\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $70\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
- =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
- 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
- $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}\text{C}:$  melting point of silicon

- $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light
- 20 Hz to 20 kHz: frequency range of hearing for humans
- 70 Hz to 150 kHz: frequency range of hearing for whales and dolphins
- 535 kHz to 1605 kHz: AM radio frequency range (Medium Wave)

#### \* Temperature

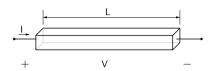
- $0\,^{\circ}$ C to  $70\,^{\circ}$ C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
- =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
- 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
- $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}\text{C}:$  melting point of silicon

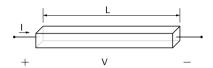
- $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light
- 20 Hz to 20 kHz: frequency range of hearing for humans
- 70 Hz to 150 kHz: frequency range of hearing for whales and dolphins
- 535 kHz to 1605 kHz: AM radio frequency range (Medium Wave)
- 88 MHz to 108 MHz: FM radio frequency range

#### \* Temperature

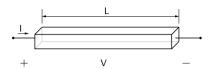
- = 0  $^{\circ}$ C to 70  $^{\circ}$ C: operating temperature range for a commercial-grade semiconductor device
- =  $-55\,^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $125\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ : operating temperature range for a military-grade semiconductor device
- 800 °C to 1000 °C: typical furnace temperatures used in IC technology
- $\sim$  1400  $^{\circ}\text{C}:$  melting point of silicon

- $4 \times 10^{14}$  Hz to  $8 \times 10^{14}$  Hz: frequency of visible light
- 20 Hz to 20 kHz: frequency range of hearing for humans
- 70 Hz to 150 kHz: frequency range of hearing for whales and dolphins
- 535 kHz to 1605 kHz: AM radio frequency range (Medium Wave)
- 88 MHz to 108 MHz: FM radio frequency range
- $\sim 900\,\mathrm{MHz}$ : frequency for mobile communication (GSM standard)



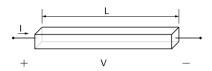


Electric field  $\mathcal{E} = \frac{V}{L}$  (assuming uniform current flow).



Electric field  $\mathcal{E} = \frac{V}{L}$  (assuming uniform current flow).

 $I = A \sigma \mathcal{E}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the conductivity in  $(\Omega\text{-cm})^{-1}$ .



Electric field  $\mathcal{E} = \frac{V}{L}$  (assuming uniform current flow).  $I = A \sigma \mathcal{E}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the conductivity in  $(\Omega\text{-cm})^{-1}$ .

Material	Туре	$\sigma(\Omega ext{-cm})^{-1}$
Copper Glass Silicon	conductor insulator semiconductor	$\sim 6 \times 10^5$ $10^{-17} \text{ to } 10^{-13}$ $\sim 10^{-5}$

#### Solids may be classified as

\* Crystalline: Atoms are arranged in a periodic manner.



Polycrystalline

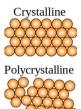


Amorphous



#### Solids may be classified as

- \* Crystalline: Atoms are arranged in a periodic manner.
- \* Polycrystalline: The solid contains many crystallites which vary in size and orientation.







#### Solids may be classified as

- \* Crystalline: Atoms are arranged in a periodic manner.
- \* Polycrystalline: The solid contains many crystallites which vary in size and orientation.
- \* Amorphous: There is no long-range order.



Polycrystalline



Amorphous



Solids may be classified as

- \* Crystalline: Atoms are arranged in a periodic manner.
- \* Polycrystalline: The solid contains many crystallites which vary in size and orientation.
- \* Amorphous: There is no long-range order.

Crylstalline semiconductors have superior material properties, leading to higher device performance.



Polycrystalline



Amorphous



Solids may be classified as

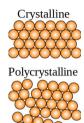
\* Crystalline: Atoms are arranged in a periodic manner.

\* Polycrystalline: The solid contains many crystallites which vary in size and orientation.

\* Amorphous: There is no long-range order.

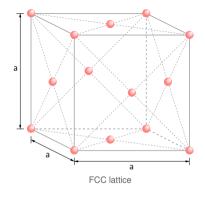
Crylstalline semiconductors have superior material properties, leading to higher device performance.

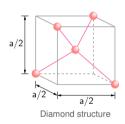
Polycrystalline and amorphous semiconductors have relatively poor properties, but the ease of manufacturing and low cost makes them attractive for certain applications. e.g., as solar cells, thin-film transistors for display devices.



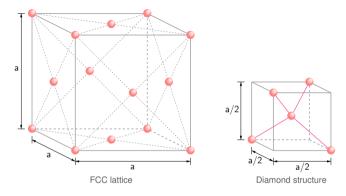




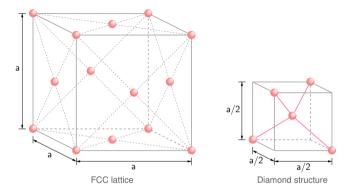




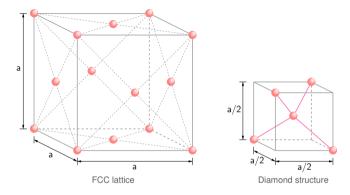
\* Si and GaAs have the diamond structure.



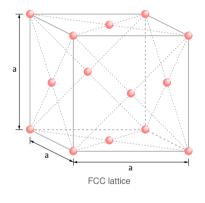
- \* Si and GaAs have the diamond structure.
- \* There are two identical FCC lattices, with lattice 2 displaced with respect to lattice 1 by one-fourth of the body diagonal.

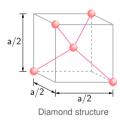


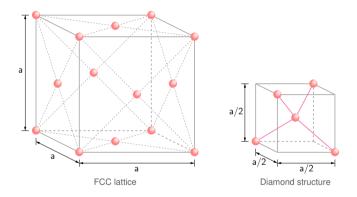
- \* Si and GaAs have the diamond structure.
- \* There are two identical FCC lattices, with lattice 2 displaced with respect to lattice 1 by one-fourth of the body diagonal.
- \* Each silicon atom has four nearest neighbours, and it is bonded to the neighbours by strong covalent bonds.



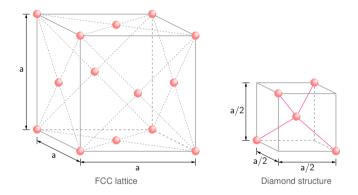
- \* Si and GaAs have the diamond structure.
- \* There are two identical FCC lattices, with lattice 2 displaced with respect to lattice 1 by one-fourth of the body diagonal.
- \* Each silicon atom has four nearest neighbours, and it is bonded to the neighbours by strong covalent bonds.
- \* The structure of GaAs is similar. Each Ga atom has four As neighbours, and vice versa.



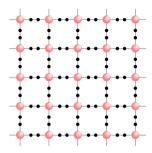




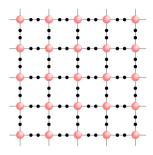
\* In silicon, the distance between neighbouring atoms is  $\sqrt{3} \, a/4$ , with  $a = 5.43 \, \text{Å}$ .



- \* In silicon, the distance between neighbouring atoms is  $\sqrt{3} \, a/4$ , with  $a = 5.43 \, \text{Å}$ .
- \* There are  $5 \times 10^{22}$  atoms per cm<sup>3</sup>.

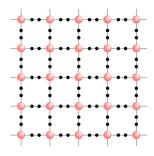


2-D representation of silicon lattice



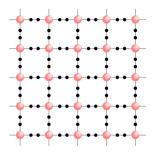
2-D representation of silicon lattice

 ${\bf *}\;$  Each silicon atom has a "core" part (nucleus + core electrons), and four "valence" electrons.



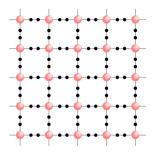
2-D representation of silicon lattice

- \* Each silicon atom has a "core" part (nucleus + core electrons), and four "valence" electrons.
- \* Core electrons are tightly bound to the nucleus and do not participate in conduction.



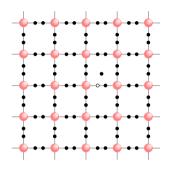
2-D representation of silicon lattice

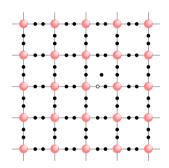
- \* Each silicon atom has a "core" part (nucleus + core electrons), and four "valence" electrons.
- \* Core electrons are tightly bound to the nucleus and do not participate in conduction.
- \* Valence electrons, which are in the outermost orbit, are available for bonding with other atoms.



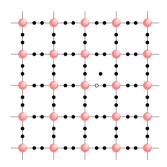
2-D representation of silicon lattice

- \* Each silicon atom has a "core" part (nucleus + core electrons), and four "valence" electrons.
- \* Core electrons are tightly bound to the nucleus and do not participate in conduction.
- \* Valence electrons, which are in the outermost orbit, are available for bonding with other atoms.
- \* At 0 K, all valence electrons are held by the covalent bonds, no electrons are available for conduction, and the material behaves like an insulator.

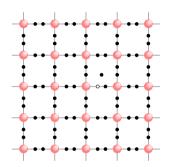




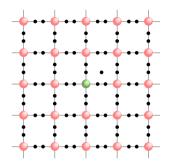
\* A small fraction of the valence electrons (about  $10^{10}\,\text{cm}^{-3}$  or one per  $5\times10^{12}$  atoms at 300 K) have enough energy to break free from the bonds.

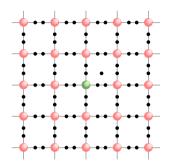


- \* A small fraction of the valence electrons (about  $10^{10}\,\mathrm{cm^{-3}}$  or one per  $5\times10^{12}$  atoms at 300 K) have enough energy to break free from the bonds.
- \* When a valence electron breaks free, it leaves behind a vacancy or a "hole."



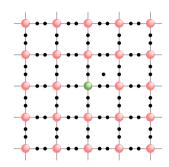
- \* A small fraction of the valence electrons (about  $10^{10}\,\mathrm{cm^{-3}}$  or one per  $5\times10^{12}$  atoms at 300 K) have enough energy to break free from the bonds.
- \* When a valence electron breaks free, it leaves behind a vacancy or a "hole."
- \* These free electrons and holes are available for conduction.



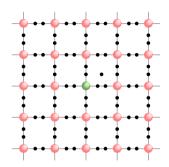


Suppose one of the silicon atoms is replaced with a group V atom (e.g., P or As).

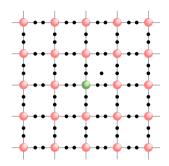
 $\boldsymbol{*}$  The group V "impurity" atom has five valence electrons.



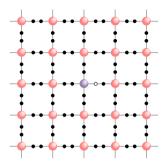
- \* The group V "impurity" atom has five valence electrons.
- \* Four of these are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.

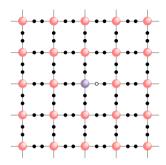


- \* The group V "impurity" atom has five valence electrons.
- \* Four of these are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.
- \* The fifth electron is relatively loosely bound to the impurity atom, and at room temperature, it can become free of the influence of the impurity atom.



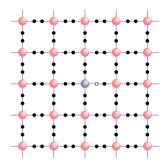
- \* The group V "impurity" atom has five valence electrons.
- \* Four of these are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.
- \* The fifth electron is relatively loosely bound to the impurity atom, and at room temperature, it can become free of the influence of the impurity atom.
- \* We say that the group V atom has "donated" a free electron to the lattice which is available for conduction.



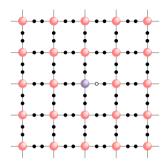


Suppose one of the silicon atoms is replaced with a group III atom (e.g., B).

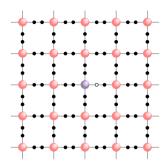
 $\boldsymbol{*}$  The group III "impurity" atom has three valence electrons.



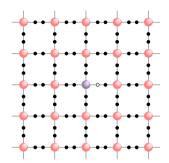
- \* The group III "impurity" atom has three valence electrons.
- \* These electrons are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.



- \* The group III "impurity" atom has three valence electrons.
- \* These electrons are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.
- \* One of the bonds remains unfulfilled, i.e., it has a vacancy (hole).



- \* The group III "impurity" atom has three valence electrons.
- \* These electrons are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.
- \* One of the bonds remains unfulfilled, i.e., it has a vacancy (hole).
- \* At room temperature, an electron from a neighbouring bond can occupy this hole (vacancy), thus giving rise to conduction.



- \* The group III "impurity" atom has three valence electrons.
- \* These electrons are shared with the neighbouring silicon atoms.
- \* One of the bonds remains unfulfilled, i.e., it has a vacancy (hole).
- \* At room temperature, an electron from a neighbouring bond can occupy this hole (vacancy), thus giving rise to conduction.
- \* We say that the group III atom has "accepted" an electron from a Si-Si bond, which is equivalent to transferring the vacancy (hole) to that bond.

The bond picture of a semiconductor gives us some insight, but it leaves several questions unanswered.

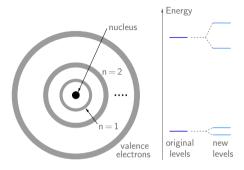
\* What makes a crystalline material a semiconductor (and not a metal or an insulator)?

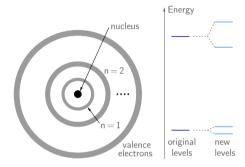
- \* What makes a crystalline material a semiconductor (and not a metal or an insulator)?
- \* How can we calculate the carrier (electron or hole) density?

- \* What makes a crystalline material a semiconductor (and not a metal or an insulator)?
- \* How can we calculate the carrier (electron or hole) density?
- \* How does the carrier density vary with temperature?

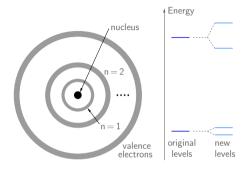
- \* What makes a crystalline material a semiconductor (and not a metal or an insulator)?
- \* How can we calculate the carrier (electron or hole) density?
- \* How does the carrier density vary with temperature?
- \* How are the carriers distributed in energy?

- \* What makes a crystalline material a semiconductor (and not a metal or an insulator)?
- \* How can we calculate the carrier (electron or hole) density?
- \* How does the carrier density vary with temperature?
- \* How are the carriers distributed in energy?
- \* Can any group V atom serve as a donor in silicon?

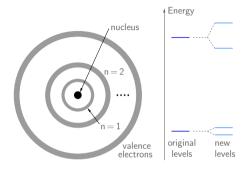




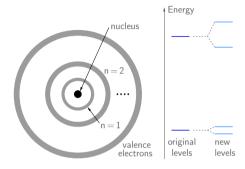
\* For an isolated atom, the wave functions and energy levels for the electrons can be obtained from the Schrödinger equation.



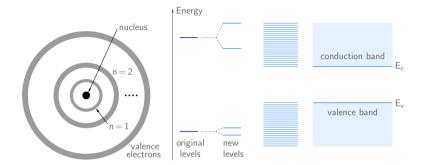
- \* For an isolated atom, the wave functions and energy levels for the electrons can be obtained from the Schrödinger equation.
- \* An electron can only occupy one of these wave functions ("orbit" or "state").

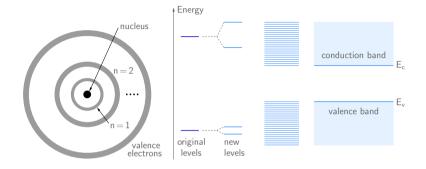


- \* For an isolated atom, the wave functions and energy levels for the electrons can be obtained from the Schrödinger equation.
- \* An electron can only occupy one of these wave functions ("orbit" or "state").
- \* If two atoms are close to each other such that their wave functions overlap the Schrödinger equation must be solved for the combined system to obtain the new wave functions and energy levels.

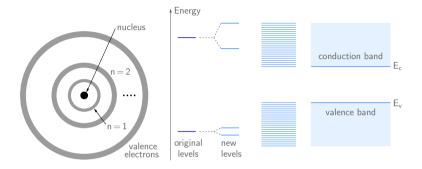


- \* For an isolated atom, the wave functions and energy levels for the electrons can be obtained from the Schrödinger equation.
- \* An electron can only occupy one of these wave functions ("orbit" or "state").
- \* If two atoms are close to each other such that their wave functions overlap the Schrödinger equation must be solved for the combined system to obtain the new wave functions and energy levels.
- \* Each of the energy level splits into two levels (states).

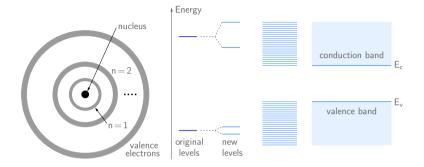




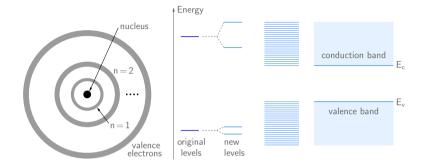
\* In a crystal, the problem is much more complex since the wave functions of several atoms overlap.



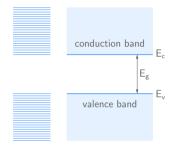
- \* In a crystal, the problem is much more complex since the wave functions of several atoms overlap.
- \* The original energy levels split into a large number of levels.

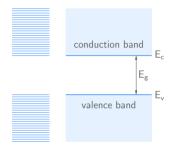


- \* In a crystal, the problem is much more complex since the wave functions of several atoms overlap.
- \* The original energy levels split into a large number of levels.
- \* The number of levels is so large that we can treat them as a *continuum* or "band" of levels (states).

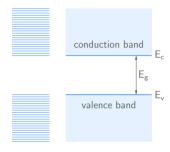


- In a crystal, the problem is much more complex since the wave functions of several atoms overlap.
- \* The original energy levels split into a large number of levels.
- \* The number of levels is so large that we can treat them as a *continuum* or "band" of levels (states).
- \* For semiconductors, the states get bunched such that, in a certain energy range,  $E_{\rm v} < E < E_{\rm c}$ , there are no states at all.

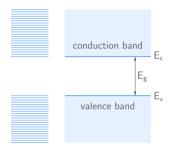




\* The bottom edge of the conduction band is denoted by  $E_c$ , and the top edge of the valence band by  $E_v$ .

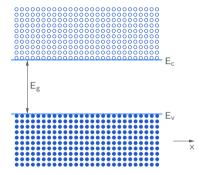


- \* The bottom edge of the conduction band is denoted by  $E_c$ , and the top edge of the valence band by  $E_v$ .
- \* The difference  $E_c E_v$  is called the "energy gap"  $(E_g)$ , and it plays a fundamental role in the electrical and optical properties of a semiconductor.

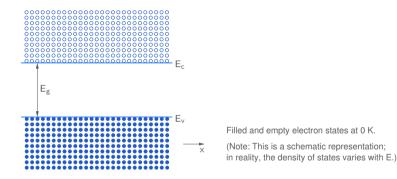


Semiconductor	$E_g$ (eV)
Ge	0.67
Si	1.1
GaAs	1.43
GaP	2.26
GaN	3.4

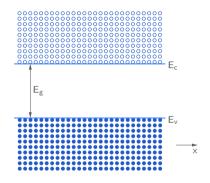
- \* The bottom edge of the conduction band is denoted by  $E_c$ , and the top edge of the valence band by  $E_v$ .
- \* The difference  $E_c E_v$  is called the "energy gap"  $(E_g)$ , and it plays a fundamental role in the electrical and optical properties of a semiconductor.



Filled and empty electron states at 0 K.

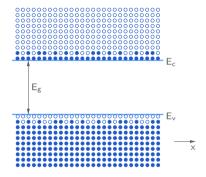


 At T = 0 K, the valence band is completely full of electrons, and the conduction band is completely empty.

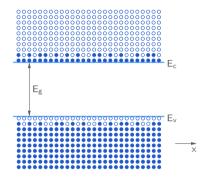


Filled and empty electron states at 0 K.

- \* At T = 0 K, the valence band is completely full of electrons, and the conduction band is completely empty.
- \* There is no possibility of conduction.



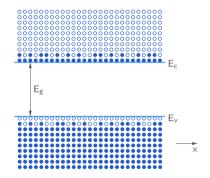
Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.



Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.

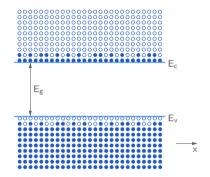
(Note: This is a schematic representation; in reality, the density of states varies with  ${\sf E.}$ )

\* As the lattice temperature is increased, the probability of occupation of conduction band states by electrons increases.



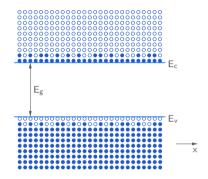
Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.

- \* As the lattice temperature is increased, the probability of occupation of conduction band states by electrons increases.
- \* In a pure or "intrinsic" semiconductor, the number of electrons in the conduction band must be equal to the number of vacancies (holes) in the valence band.

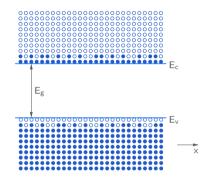


Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.

- \* As the lattice temperature is increased, the probability of occupation of conduction band states by electrons increases.
- \* In a pure or "intrinsic" semiconductor, the number of electrons in the conduction band must be equal to the number of vacancies (holes) in the valence band.
- \* The density of electrons (or holes) in the above situation is denoted by  $n_i$ , the "intrinsic carrier concentration," and it is about  $10^{10}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> for Si at T = 300 K. (Note that it is much smaller than the density of silicon atoms in the crystal, i.e.,  $5 \times 10^{22}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>).



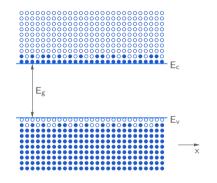
Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.



Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.

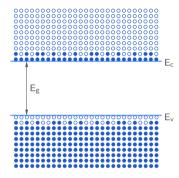
(Note: This is a schematic representation; in reality, the density of states varies with E.)

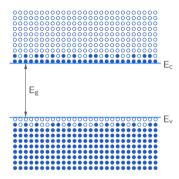
\* An electron in the conduction band can move to one of the large number of empty states in the conduction band and contribute to a current.



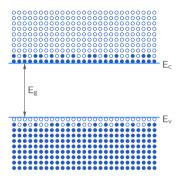
Filled and empty electron states at 300 K.

- \* An electron in the conduction band can move to one of the large number of empty states in the conduction band and contribute to a current.
- \* Similarly, a hole in the valence band can move to one of the large number of filled states in the valence band and contribute to a current.

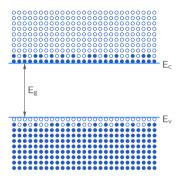




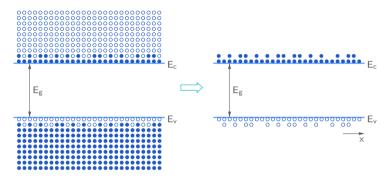
\* Filled states in the conduction band (the mobile electrons or simply "electrons") and empty states in the valence band (the mobile vacancies or "holes") are confined to a narrow energy range near  $E_c$  and  $E_v$ , respectively ( $\sim 100 \text{ meV}$  at 300 K).



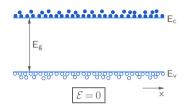
- \* Filled states in the conduction band (the mobile electrons or simply "electrons") and empty states in the valence band (the mobile vacancies or "holes") are confined to a narrow energy range near  $E_c$  and  $E_v$ , respectively ( $\sim 100 \, \text{meV}$  at  $300 \, \text{K}$ ).
- \* The actual extent of the conduction or valence band does not affect the electron or hole statistics, and it is a common practice to show the conduction band extending to  $+\infty$  and the valence band to  $-\infty$ .

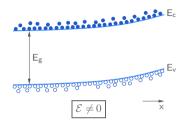


- \* Filled states in the conduction band (the mobile electrons or simply "electrons") and empty states in the valence band (the mobile vacancies or "holes") are confined to a narrow energy range near  $E_c$  and  $E_v$ , respectively ( $\sim 100 \text{ meV}$  at 300 K).
- \* The actual extent of the conduction or valence band does not affect the electron or hole statistics, and it is a common practice to show the conduction band extending to  $+\infty$  and the valence band to  $-\infty$ .
- \* For simplicity, we will not show vacant states in the conduction band, and filled states in the valence band.

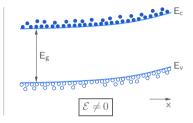


- \* Filled states in the conduction band (the mobile electrons or simply "electrons") and empty states in the valence band (the mobile vacancies or "holes") are confined to a narrow energy range near  $E_c$  and  $E_v$ , respectively ( $\sim 100 \text{ meV}$  at 300 K).
- \* The actual extent of the conduction or valence band does not affect the electron or hole statistics, and it is a common practice to show the conduction band extending to  $+\infty$  and the valence band to  $-\infty$ .
- \* For simplicity, we will not show vacant states in the conduction band, and filled states in the valence band.

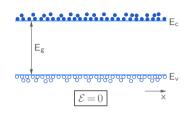


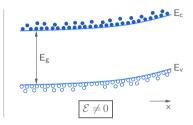






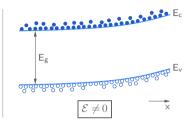
\* If the electrostatic potential varies with space, it causes "band bending."





- \* If the electrostatic potential varies with space, it causes "band bending."
- \* Since  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  refer to energy of an electron with a negative charge -q,  $E_c(x) = -q \, \psi(x) + \text{constant}$ ,  $E_v(x) = E_c(x) E_g$ .

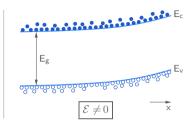




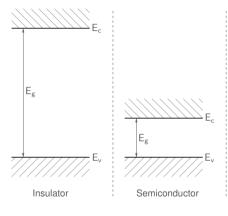
- \* If the electrostatic potential varies with space, it causes "band bending."
- \* Since  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  refer to energy of an electron with a negative charge -q,  $E_c(x) = -q \, \psi(x) + \text{constant}, \quad E_v(x) = E_c(x) E_g$ .
- \* The electric field and potential are related by  $\mathcal{E}=-\frac{d\psi}{dx}$ .

$$ightarrow \mathcal{E} = rac{1}{q} \, rac{dE_c}{dx} = rac{1}{q} \, rac{dE_v}{dx}$$

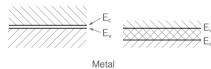


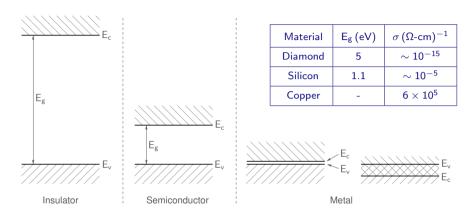


- \* If the electrostatic potential varies with space, it causes "band bending."
- \* Since  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  refer to energy of an electron with a negative charge -q,  $E_c(x) = -q \, \psi(x) + \text{constant}, \quad E_v(x) = E_c(x) E_g$ .
- \* The electric field and potential are related by  $\mathcal{E}=-\frac{d\psi}{dx}$ .  $\rightarrow \mathcal{E}=\frac{1}{a}\frac{dE_c}{dx}=\frac{1}{a}\frac{dE_v}{dx}$
- \* The constant in the above equation is irrelevant because only differences such as  $(E_c(x_1) E_c(x_2))$  are important, and the constant drops out.

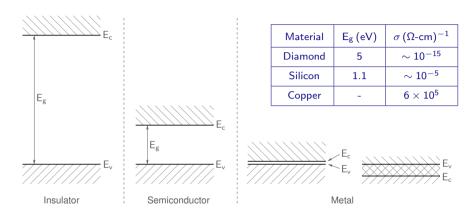


Material	E <sub>g</sub> (eV)	$\sigma  (\Omega ext{-cm})^{-1}$
Diamond	5	$\sim 10^{-15}$
Silicon	1.1	$\sim 10^{-5}$
Copper	-	$6  imes 10^5$

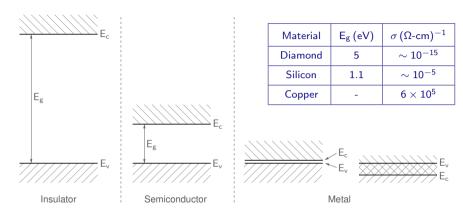




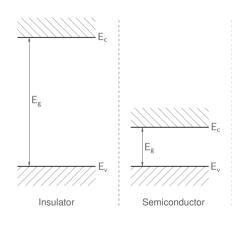
\* The electrical conductivity of a crystalline material depends on its energy gap  $E_g$ .



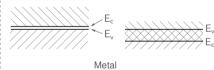
- \* The electrical conductivity of a crystalline material depends on its energy gap  $E_g$ .
- \* In an insulator,  $E_g$  is so large that there are no electrons (in the conduction band) or holes (in the valence band) at room temperature  $\rightarrow$  low conductivity.

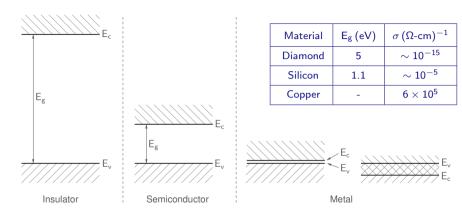


- \* The electrical conductivity of a crystalline material depends on its energy gap  $E_g$ .
- In an insulator, E<sub>g</sub> is so large that there are no electrons (in the conduction band) or holes (in the valence band) at room temperature → low conductivity.
- \* In a metal,  $E_g$  is either very small or non-existent. As a result, electrons in the filled states can move to one of the large number of vacant states  $\rightarrow$  high conductivity.

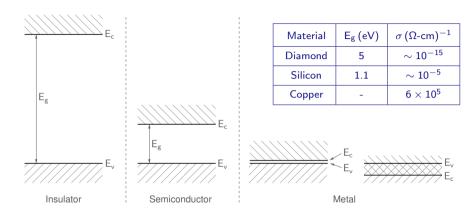


Material	E <sub>g</sub> (eV)	$\sigma  (\Omega$ -cm) $^{-1}$
Diamond	5	$\sim 10^{-15}$
Silicon	1.1	$\sim 10^{-5}$
Copper	-	$6  imes 10^5$

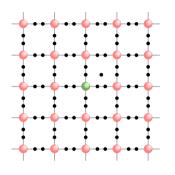


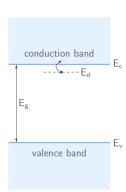


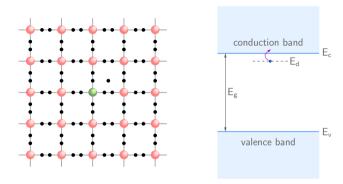
 $\mbox{*}$  For a semiconductor, the situation is between these two extremes  $\rightarrow$  moderate conductivity.



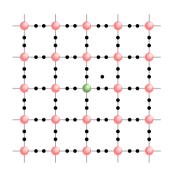
- st For a semiconductor, the situation is between these two extremes ightarrow moderate conductivity.
- \* Note that we have only looked at an "intrinsic" semiconductor. With addition of appropriate impurity (donor or acceptor) atoms, the conductivity of a semiconductor can be changed very significantly.

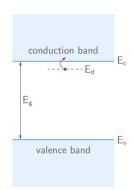




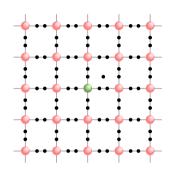


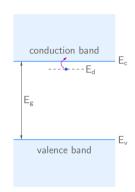
\* When a silicon atom is replaced with a donor (group V) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_c$ .



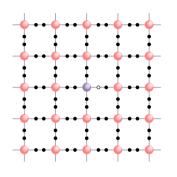


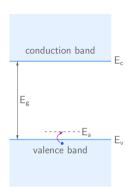
- \* When a silicon atom is replaced with a donor (group V) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_c$ .
- \* At low temperatures, the donor state is occupied, i.e., the electron is bound to the donor atom.

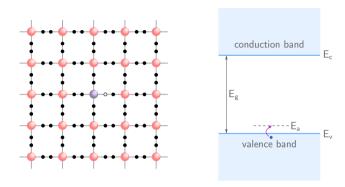




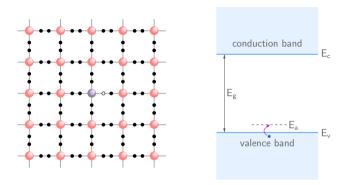
- \* When a silicon atom is replaced with a donor (group V) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_c$ .
- \* At low temperatures, the donor state is occupied, i.e., the electron is bound to the donor atom.
- \* At high temperatures, the electron can cross the energy barrier  $(E_c E_d)$  and enter the conduction band.



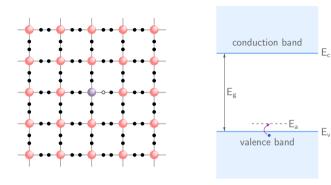




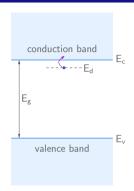
\* When a silicon atom is replaced with an acceptor (group III) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_v$ .

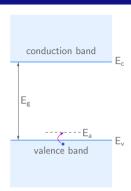


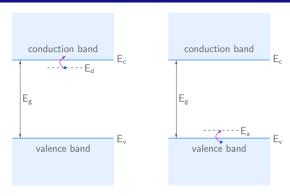
- \* When a silicon atom is replaced with an acceptor (group III) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_V$ .
- \* At low temperatures, the acceptor state is empty, i.e., there is a vacancy around the acceptor atom.



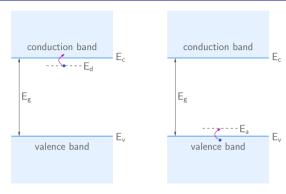
- \* When a silicon atom is replaced with an acceptor (group III) atom, it introduces an energy level (state) in the forbidden gap, which is close to  $E_V$ .
- \* At low temperatures, the acceptor state is empty, i.e., there is a vacancy around the acceptor atom.
- \* At high temperatures, an electron from the valence band can cross the energy barrier  $(E_a E_v)$ , leaving a hole in the valence band.



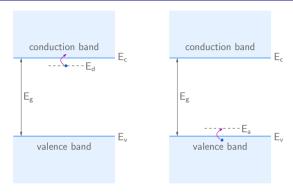




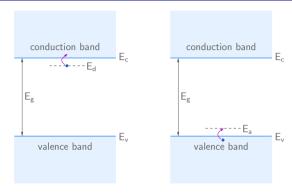
\* The effectiveness of a donor atom to contribute an electron depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_c - E_d$ .



- \* The effectiveness of a donor atom to contribute an electron depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_C E_d$ .
- \* For a "shallow" donor, this energy is typically a few tens of meV (45 meV for P and 54 meV for As in silicon).



- \* The effectiveness of a donor atom to contribute an electron depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_C E_d$ .
- \* For a "shallow" donor, this energy is typically a few tens of meV (45 meV for P and 54 meV for As in silicon).
- \* Similarly, the effectiveness of an acceptor atom to contribute a hole depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_a E_v$ .



- \* The effectiveness of a donor atom to contribute an electron depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_C E_d$ .
- \* For a "shallow" donor, this energy is typically a few tens of meV (45 meV for P and 54 meV for As in silicon).
- \* Similarly, the effectiveness of an acceptor atom to contribute a hole depends on the binding energy  $E_B = E_a E_v$ .
- For a "shallow" acceptor, this energy is typically a few tens of meV (45 meV for B in silicon).