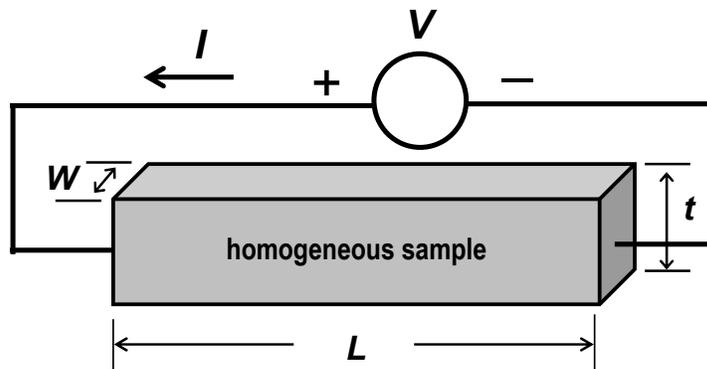


# Introduction to Semiconductor Devices and Circuit Model

Reading:  
Chapter 2 of Howe and Sodini

## Electrical Resistance



Resistance

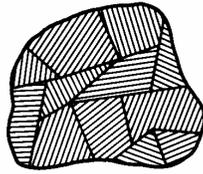
$$R \equiv \frac{V}{I} = \rho \frac{L}{Wt}$$

(Units:  $\Omega$ )

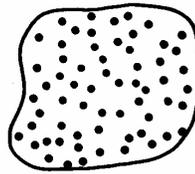
where  $\rho$  is the **resistivity** (Units:  $\Omega\text{-cm}$ )

# What is a Semiconductor?

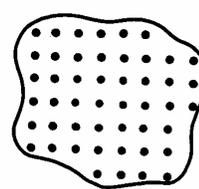
- Low resistivity => “conductor”
- High resistivity => “insulator”
- Intermediate resistivity => “semiconductor”
  - Generally, the semiconductor material used in integrated-circuit devices is crystalline
    - In recent years, however, non-crystalline semiconductors have become commercially very important



polycrystalline



amorphous



crystalline

# Semiconductor Materials

## Elemental:

## Compound:

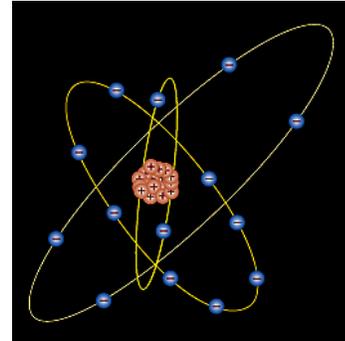
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
						2 He
	5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
	13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
112 Uub		114 Uuq		116 Uuh		118 Uuo
66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb		
98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No		

# The Silicon Atom

- 14 electrons occupying the 1st 3 energy levels:
  - 1s, 2s, 2p orbitals filled by 10 electrons
  - 3s, 3p orbitals filled by 4 electrons

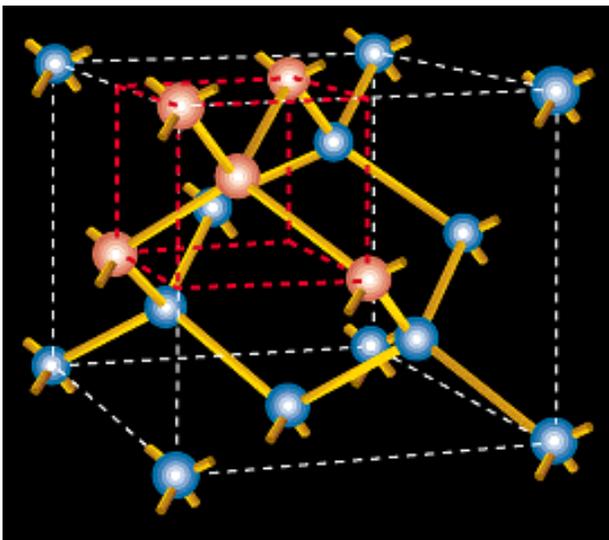
To minimize the overall energy, the 3s and 3p orbitals hybridize to form 4 tetrahedral 3sp orbitals

Each has one electron and is capable of forming a bond with a neighboring atom



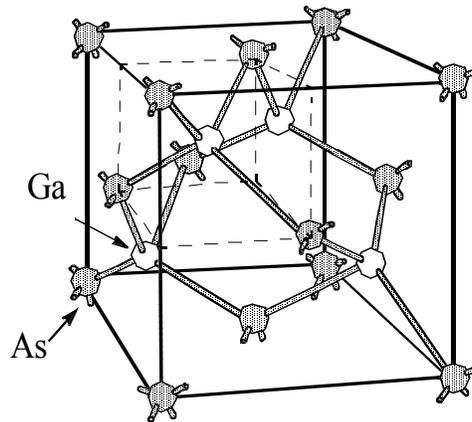
# The Si Crystal

“diamond cubic” lattice



- Each Si atom has 4 nearest neighbors
- lattice constant = 5.431Å

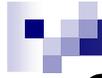
# Compound Semiconductors



- “zinc blende” structure
- III-V compound semiconductors: GaAs, GaP, GaN, *etc.*
  - ✓ important for optoelectronics and high-speed ICs

# Electronic Properties of Si

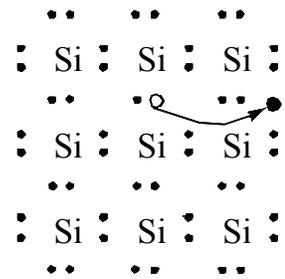
- **Silicon is a semiconductor material.**
  - Pure Si has relatively high resistivity at room temperature.
- **There are 2 types of mobile charge-carriers in Si:**
  - Conduction electrons** are negatively charged.
  - Holes** are positively charged. They are an “absence of electrons”.
- **The concentration of conduction electrons & holes in a semiconductor can be affected in several ways:**
  1. **by adding special impurity atoms (*dopants*)**
  2. **by applying an electric field**
  3. **by changing the temperature**
  4. **by irradiation**



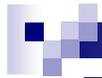
# Conduction Electrons and Holes

## 2-D representation

When an electron breaks loose and becomes a **conduction electron**, a **hole** is also created.



Note: A hole (along with its associated positive charge) is mobile!



# Definition of Parameters

$n$  = number of mobile electrons per  $\text{cm}^3$

$p$  = number of holes per  $\text{cm}^3$

$n_i$  = intrinsic carrier concentration ( $\#/\text{cm}^3$ )

In a pure semiconductor,

$$n = p = n_i$$

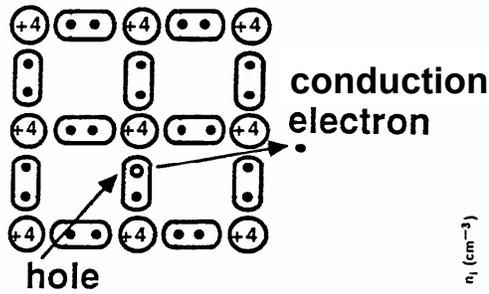
## Generation

- We have seen that conduction (mobile) electrons and holes can be created in pure (intrinsic) silicon by **thermal generation**.
  - Thermal generation rate increases exponentially with temperature  $T$
- Another type of generation process which can occur is **optical generation**
  - The energy absorbed from a photon frees an electron from covalent bond
    - In Si, the minimum energy required is **1.1eV**, which corresponds to  $\sim 1$   $\mu\text{m}$  wavelength (infrared region). 1 eV = energy gained by an electron falling through 1 V potential =  $q_e V = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C} \times 1 \text{ V} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ .
- Note that conduction electrons and holes are continuously generated, if  $T > 0$

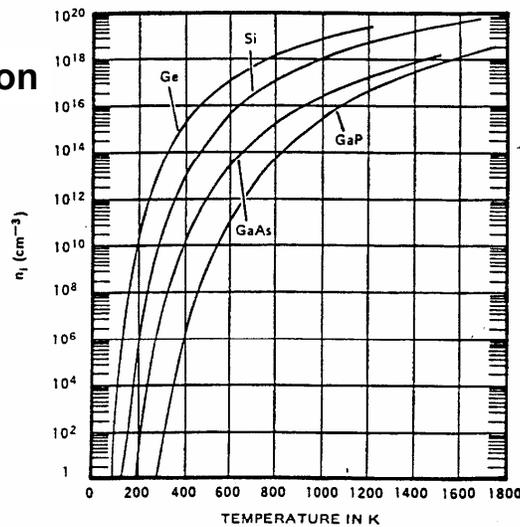
## Recombination

- When a conduction electron and hole meet, each one is eliminated, a process called “recombination”. The energy lost by the conduction electron (when it “falls” back into the covalent bond) can be released in two ways:
  1. to the semiconductor lattice (vibrations)  
“thermal recombination”  $\rightarrow$  semiconductor is heated
  2. to photon emission  
“optical recombination”  $\rightarrow$  light is emitted
    - Optical recombination is negligible in Si. It is significant in compound semiconductor materials, and is the basis for light-emitting diodes and laser diodes.

# Pure Si



Covalent (shared  $e^-$ ) bonds exist between Si atoms in a crystal. Since the  $e^-$  are loosely bound, some will be free at any  $T$ , creating hole electron pairs.



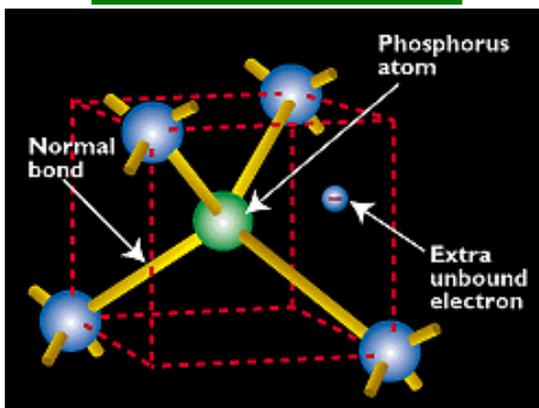
$$n_i = 3.9 \times 10^{16} T^{3/2} e^{-\frac{0.605\text{eV}}{kT}} / \text{cm}^3$$

$$n_i \approx 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ at room temperature}$$

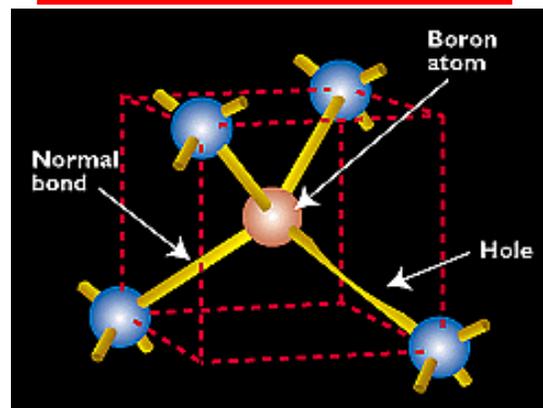
# Doping

By substituting a Si atom with a special impurity atom (Column V or Column III element), a conduction electron or hole is created.

**Donors: P, As, Sb**



**Acceptors: B, Al, Ga, In**



Dopant concentrations typically range from  $10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

# Charge-Carrier Concentrations

$N_D$ : ionized donor concentration ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )

$N_A$ : ionized acceptor concentration ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )

Charge neutrality condition:  $N_D + p = N_A + n$

At thermal equilibrium,  $np = n_i^2$  (“Law of Mass Action”)

$$n = \frac{N_D - N_A}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{N_D - N_A}{2}\right)^2 + n_i^2}$$

**Note:** Carrier concentrations depend on net dopant concentration ( $N_D - N_A$ )!

$$p = \frac{N_A - N_D}{2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{N_A - N_D}{2}\right)^2 + n_i^2}$$

# N-type and P-type Material

If  $N_D \gg N_A$  (so that  $N_D - N_A \gg n_i$ ):

$$n \cong N_D - N_A \quad \text{and} \quad p \cong \frac{n_i^2}{N_D - N_A}$$

$n \gg p \rightarrow$  material is “n-type”

If  $N_A \gg N_D$  (so that  $N_A - N_D \gg n_i$ ):

$$p \cong N_A - N_D \quad \text{and} \quad n \cong \frac{n_i^2}{N_A - N_D}$$

$p \gg n \rightarrow$  material is “p-type”

# Terminology

**intrinsic** semiconductor: “undoped” semiconductor  
electrical properties are native to the material

**extrinsic** semiconductor: doped semiconductor  
electrical properties are controlled by the added impurity atoms

**donor**: impurity atom that increases the electron concentration  
group V elements (P, As)

**acceptor**: impurity atom that increases the hole concentration  
group III elements (B, In)

**n-type** material: semiconductor containing more electrons than holes

**p-type** material: semiconductor containing more holes than electrons

**majority carrier**: the most abundant carrier in a semiconductor sample

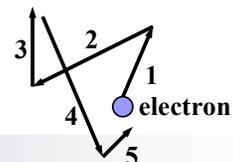
**minority carrier**: the least abundant carrier in a semiconductor sample

# Carrier Scattering

■ Mobile electrons and atoms in the Si lattice are always in random thermal motion.

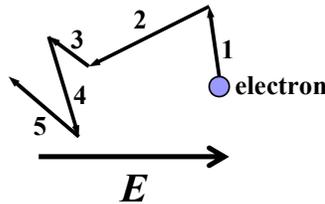
- Average velocity of thermal motion for electrons in Si:  
~ $10^7$  cm/s @ 300K
- Electrons make frequent “collisions” with the vibrating atoms
  - “lattice scattering” or “phonon scattering”
- Other scattering mechanisms:
  - deflection by ionized impurity atoms
  - deflection due to Coulombic force between carriers

■ The average current in any direction is zero, if no electric field is applied.



# Carrier Drift

- When an electric field (e.g., due to an externally applied voltage) is applied to a semiconductor, mobile charge-carriers will be accelerated by the electrostatic force. This force superimposes on the random motion of electrons:



- **Electrons drift in the direction opposite to the  $E$ -field**  
→ **Current flows**
- ❖ Because of scattering, electrons in a semiconductor do not achieve constant acceleration. However, they can be viewed as classical particles moving at a constant average *drift velocity*.

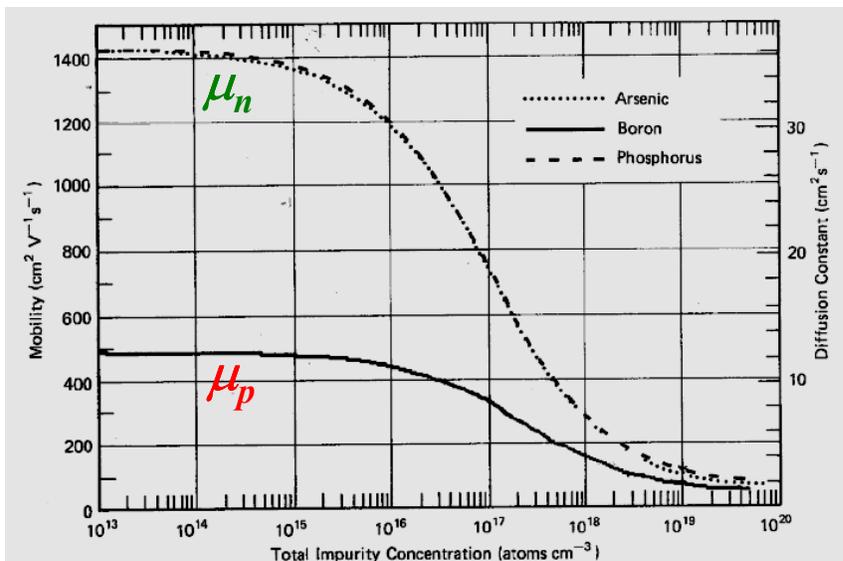
# Drift Velocity and Carrier Mobility

Mobile charge-carrier drift velocity is proportional to applied  $E$ -field:

$$|v| = \mu E$$

$\mu$  is the *mobility*

(Units:  $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ )

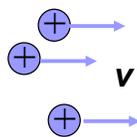


**Note: Carrier mobility depends on total dopant concentration ( $N_D + N_A$ ) !**

## Current Density

The current density  $\mathbf{J}$  is the current per unit area ( $\mathbf{J} = I / \mathbf{A}$ ;  $\mathbf{A}$  is the cross-sectional area of the conductor)

If we have  $N$  positive charges per unit volume moving with average speed  $\mathbf{v}$  in the  $+x$  direction, then the current density in the  $+x$  direction is just  $\mathbf{J} = qN\mathbf{v}$

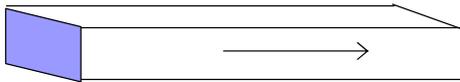


Example:

$2 \times 10^{16}$  holes/cm<sup>3</sup> moving to the right at  $2 \times 10^4$  cm/sec

$$\mathbf{J} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 2 \times 10^{16} \times 2 \times 10^4 = 64 \text{ A/cm}^2$$

Suppose this occurs in a conductor  $2 \mu\text{m}$  wide and  $1 \mu\text{m}$  thick:



$$I = \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{A} = 64 \times (2 \times 10^{-4} \times 1 \times 10^{-4}) \\ = 1.28 \mu\text{A}$$

## Electrical Conductivity $\sigma$

When an electric field is applied, current flows due to drift of mobile electrons and holes:

electron current density:  $J_n = (-q)nv_n = qn\mu_n E$

hole current density:  $J_p = (+q)pv_p = qp\mu_p E$

total current density:  $J = J_n + J_p = (qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p)E$

$$J = \sigma E$$

conductivity  $\sigma \equiv qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p$  (Units:  $\Omega\text{-cm}^{-1}$ )

## Electrical Resistivity $\rho$

$$\rho \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p}$$

$$\rho \cong \frac{1}{qn\mu_n} \quad \text{for n-type mat'l}$$

$$\rho \cong \frac{1}{qp\mu_p} \quad \text{for p-type mat'l}$$

(Units: ohm-cm)

## Example

Consider a Si sample doped with  $10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$  Boron.  
What is its resistivity?

Answer:

$$N_A = 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3, N_D = 0 \quad (N_A \gg N_D \rightarrow \text{p-type})$$

$$\rightarrow p \approx 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3 \quad \text{and} \quad n \approx 10^4/\text{cm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p} \cong \frac{1}{qp\mu_p}$$

$$= \left[ (1.6 \times 10^{-19})(10^{16})(450) \right]^{-1} = 1.4 \, \Omega\text{-cm}$$

From  $\mu$  vs.  $(N_A + N_D)$  plot 

## Example (cont'd)

Consider the same Si sample, doped *additionally* with  $10^{17}/\text{cm}^3$  Arsenic. What is its resistivity?

Answer:

$$N_A = 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3, N_D = 10^{17}/\text{cm}^3 \quad (N_D \gg N_A \rightarrow \text{n-type})$$

$$\rightarrow n \approx 9 \times 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3 \quad \text{and} \quad p \approx 1.1 \times 10^3/\text{cm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p} \cong \frac{1}{qn\mu_n}$$

$$= \left[ (1.6 \times 10^{-19})(9 \times 10^{16})(700) \right]^{-1} = 0.10 \Omega\text{-cm}$$

The sample is converted to n-type material by adding more donors than acceptors, and is said to be "compensated".

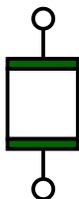
## Sheet Resistance $R_s$

$$R = \rho \frac{L}{Wt} = R_s \frac{L}{W} \quad \Rightarrow \quad R_s \equiv \frac{\rho}{t} \quad (\text{Unit: ohms/square})$$

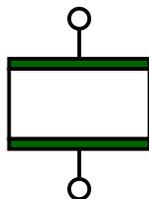
(L, W, t = length, width, thickness)  $R_s$  is the resistance when  $W = L$

- The  $R_s$  value for a given layer in an IC technology is used
  - for design and layout of resistors
  - for estimating values of parasitic resistance in a circuit

$$R = R_s$$



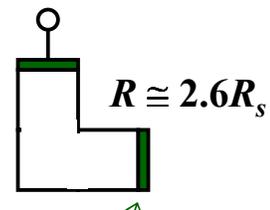
$$R = R_s/2$$



$$R = 2R_s$$



$$R = 3R_s$$

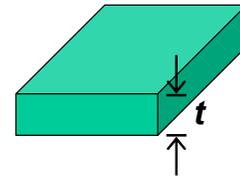


Metallic contacts

# Integrated-Circuit Resistors

The resistivity  $\rho$  and thickness  $t$  are fixed for each layer in a given manufacturing process

A circuit designer specifies the length  $L$  and width  $W$ , to achieve a desired resistance  $R$



$$R = R_s \left( \frac{L}{W} \right)$$

fixed    designable

Example: Suppose we want to design a 5 k $\Omega$  resistor using a layer of material with  $R_s = 200 \Omega/\square$

Resistor layout (top view)



Space-efficient layout



# Summary

## ■ Crystalline Si:

- 4 valence electrons per atom
- diamond lattice: each atom has 4 nearest neighbors
- $5 \times 10^{22}$  atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>

## ■ In a pure Si crystal, conduction electrons and holes are formed in pairs.

- Holes can be considered as positively charged mobile particles which exist inside a semiconductor.
- Both holes and electrons can conduct current.

## ■ Dopants in Si:

- Reside on lattice sites (substituting for Si)
- Group V elements contribute conduction electrons, and are called **donors**
- Group III elements contribute holes, and are called **acceptors**