

## Lecture #13

### ANNOUNCEMENTS

- Reader with reference material from Howe&Sodini and from Rabaey et al available at Copy Central on Hearst Ave.

### OUTLINE

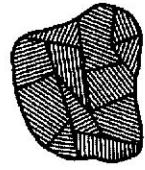
- Semiconductor materials
- Properties of silicon
- Doping

### Reading

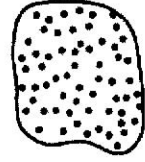
Howe&Sodini: Ch. 2.1-2.4.1

## What is a Semiconductor?

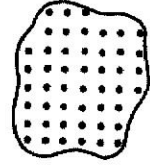
- Low resistivity => "conductor"
- High resistivity => "insulator"
- Intermediate resistivity => "semiconductor"
  - Generally, the semiconductor material used in integrated-circuit devices is crystalline
  - In recent years, however, non-crystalline semiconductors have become commercially very important



polycrystalline

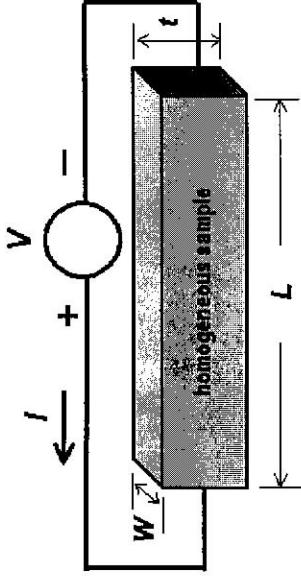


amorphous



crystalline

## Electrical Resistance



**Resistance**  $R \equiv \frac{V}{I} = \rho \frac{L}{Wt}$  (Units:  $\Omega$ )

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

## Semiconductor Materials

### Elemental:

12	13	14	15	16	17	18
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
B	C	N	O	F	Ne	
13	14	15	16	17	18	
Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar	
30	31	32	33	34	35	36
Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
48	49	50	51	52	53	54
Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
80	81	82	83	84	85	86
Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
112	113	114	115	116	117	118
Uub	Uuq	Uuq	Uuh	Uuo		
66	67	68	69	70		
Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb		
98	99	100	101	102		
Cf	Es	Fm	Md	Nd		

### Compound:

## The Silicon Atom

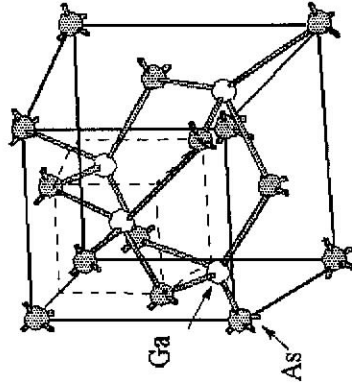
- 14 electrons occupying the 1st 3 energy levels:
  - 1s, 2s, 2p orbitals filled by 10 electrons
  - 3s, 3p orbitals filled by 4 electrons

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



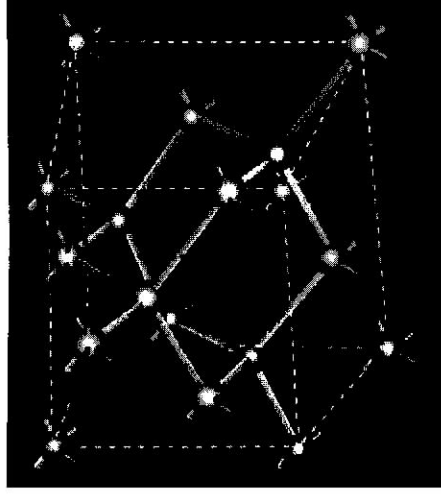
## Compound Semiconductors



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

## The Si Crystal

“diamond cubic” lattice



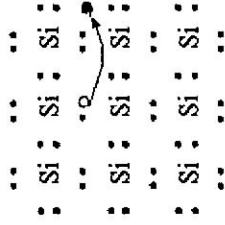
- Each Si atom has 4 nearest neighbors
- lattice constant = 5.431Å

## 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.
- **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 1.1 eV, which corresponds to  $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$  wavelength (infrared region)
- Note that conduction electrons and holes are continuously generated, if  $T > 0$

## Recombination

- When a conduction electron and hole meet, each one is eliminated. The energy lost by the conduction electron (when it “falls” back into the covalent bond) can be released in 2 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.

## Generation and Recombination Rates

- The generation rate is dependent on temperature  $T$ , but it is independent of  $n$  and  $p$ :  $G = G_{thermal}(T) + G_{optical}$
- The recombination rate is proportional to both  $n$  and  $p$ :

$$R \propto np$$

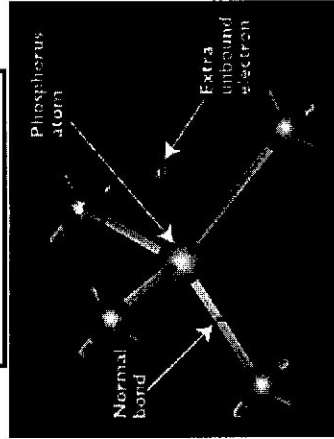
- In steady state, a balance exists between the generation and recombination rates.
- A special case of the steady-state condition is **thermal equilibrium**: no optical or electrical sources

$$np = n_i^2(T)$$

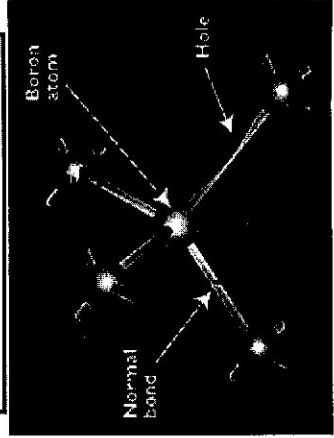
## Doping

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

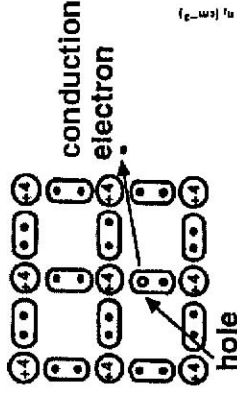
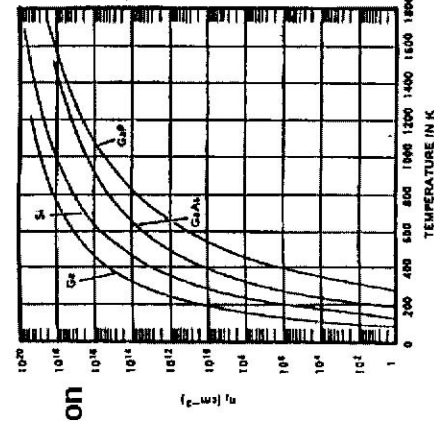


**Acceptors:** B, Al, Ga, In



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

## 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.

Si:

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

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

## 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")

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

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

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

## 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"

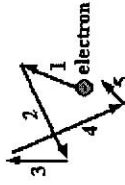
If  $N_A \gg N_D$  (so that  $N_A - N_D \gg n_i$ ):

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

$p \gg n \rightarrow$  material is "p-type"

## 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:  $\sim 10^7$  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.

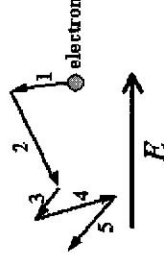


## Terminology

- 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 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  
 $\rightarrow$  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.

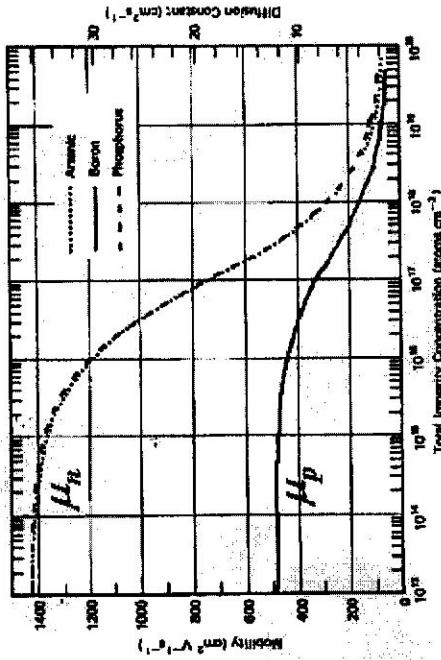
## Drift Velocity and Carrier Mobility

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 ( $N_D + N_A$ )!

## Electrical Conductivity $\sigma$

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

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

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

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

$$J = \sigma E$$

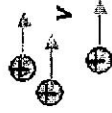
$$\text{conductivity } \sigma \equiv qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p$$

## Current Density

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

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

Example:



$2 \times 10^{16}$  holes/ $\text{cm}^3$  moving to the right at  $2 \times 10^4$  cm/sec  
 $J = 1.6 \times 10^{19} \times 2 \times 10^{16} \times 2 \times 10^4 = 64 \text{ A/cm}^2$

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



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

## Electrical Resistivity $\rho$

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

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

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

(Units: ohm-cm)

## Example

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

Answer:

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

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

$$\rho = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p} \cong \frac{1}{qp\mu_p} = \left[ (1.6 \times 10^{-19}) (10^{16}) (450) \right]^{-1} = 1.4 \Omega\text{-cm}$$

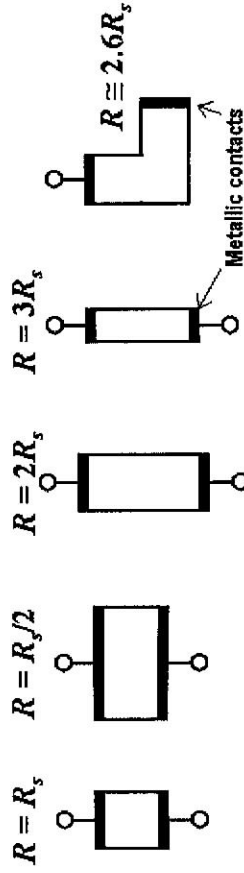
From  $\mu$  vs.  $(N_A + N_D)$  plot

## Sheet Resistance $R_s$

$$R = \rho \frac{L}{Wt} = R_s \frac{L}{W} \Rightarrow R_s \equiv \frac{\rho}{t}$$

$R_s$  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



## Example (cont'd)

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

Answer:

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

$$\rightarrow n \approx 9 \times 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3 \text{ and } p \approx 1.1 \times 10^{13}/\text{cm}^3$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p} \cong \frac{1}{qn\mu_n} = \left[ (1.6 \times 10^{-19}) (9 \times 10^{16}) (700) \right]^{-1} = 0.10 \Omega\text{-cm}$$

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

## 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  $R$

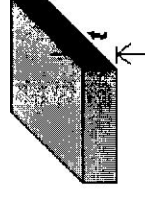
$$R = R_s \underbrace{\left( \frac{L}{W} \right)}_{\text{fixed designable}}$$

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



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## Summary

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- **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*