

University of California at Berkeley  
Dept. of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences

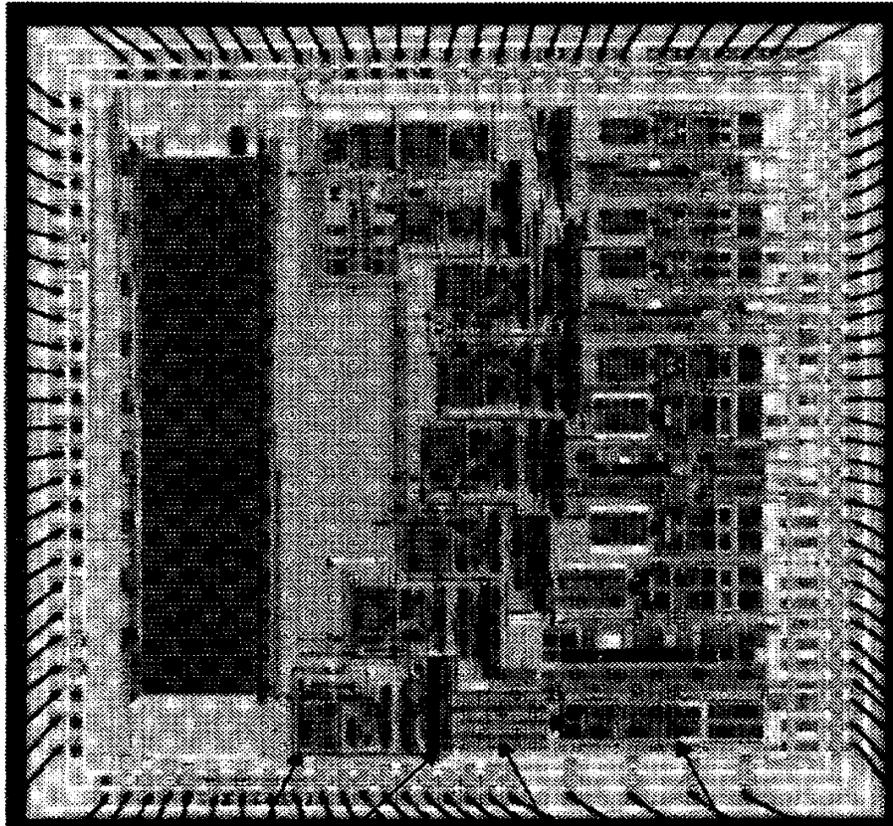
**EE 105:**  
**Microelectronic Devices and Circuits**

*Fall 2000*

*Costas J. Spanos*

## A Motivating Example

- \* An analog-to-digital converter for data transmission -- the analog voltage is converted into a 13 bit digital word at 5 Msamples /sec.



stage 0 comparators      stage 0 sampling capacitors      stage 0 opamp  
stage 0 sampling switches

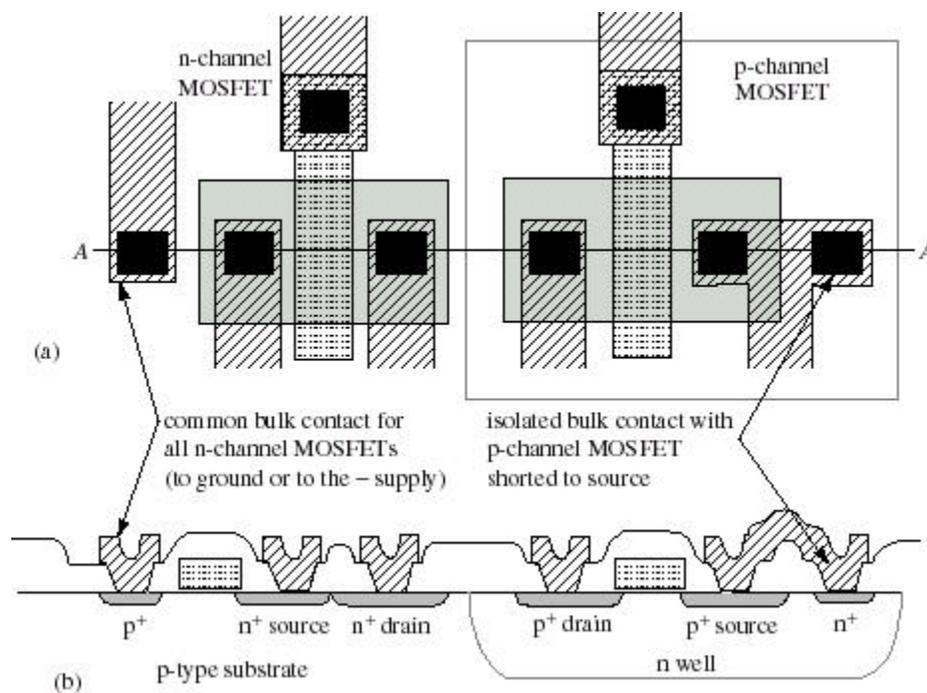
Fig. 7. Die photograph of the prototype ADC.

ref. D. W. Cline and P. R. Gray, *IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits*, **31**, March 1996, pp. 294-303. © 1996 IEEE. Used by permission.

# Course Goal: Build a Solid Foundation for Designing the Analog Subsystems in ICs

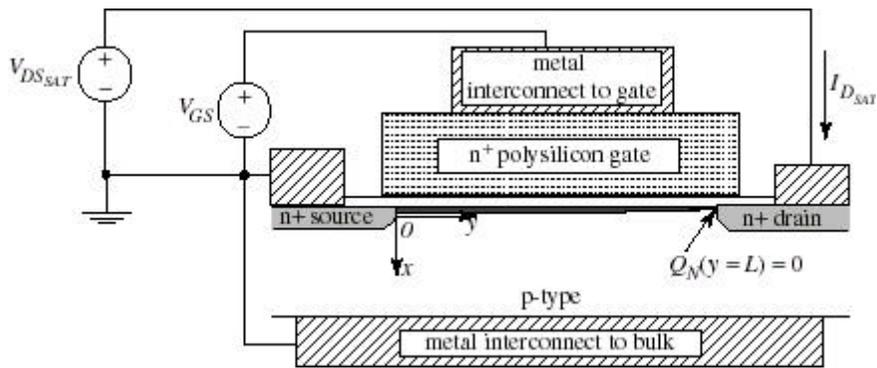
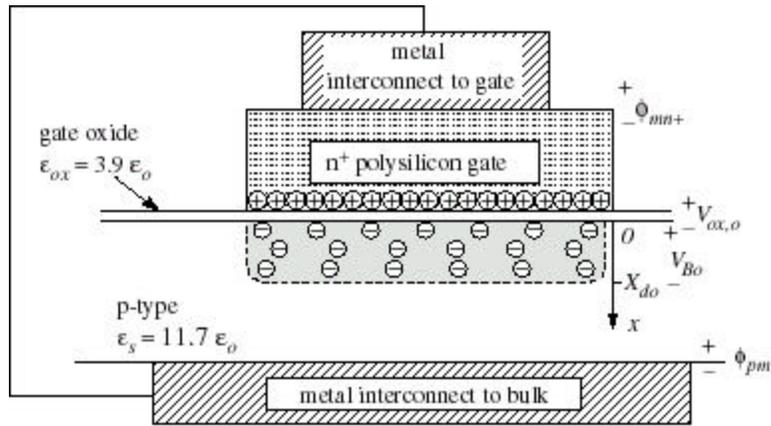
Major course sections

- \* Semiconductor physics and integrated-circuit fabrication (Weeks ~1-2)

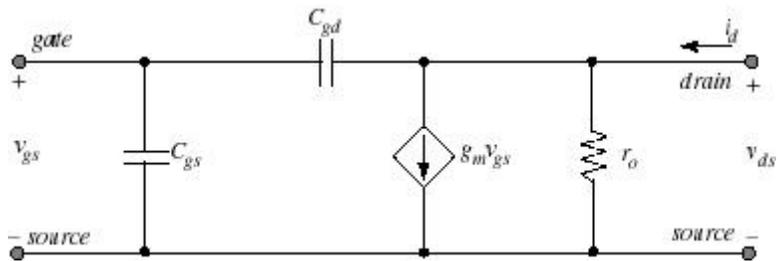
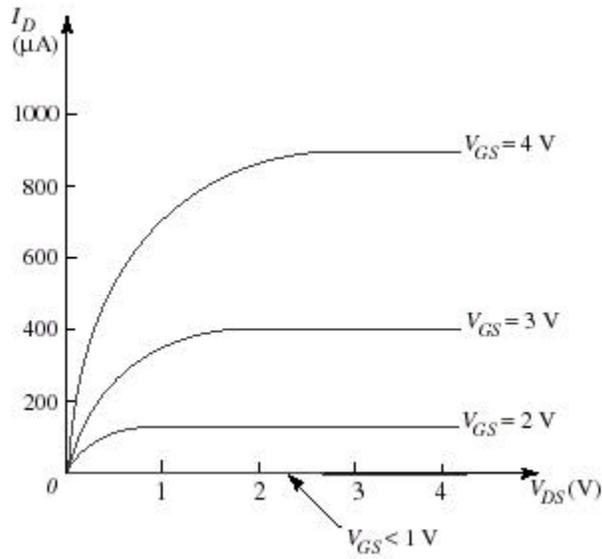


# Course Overview

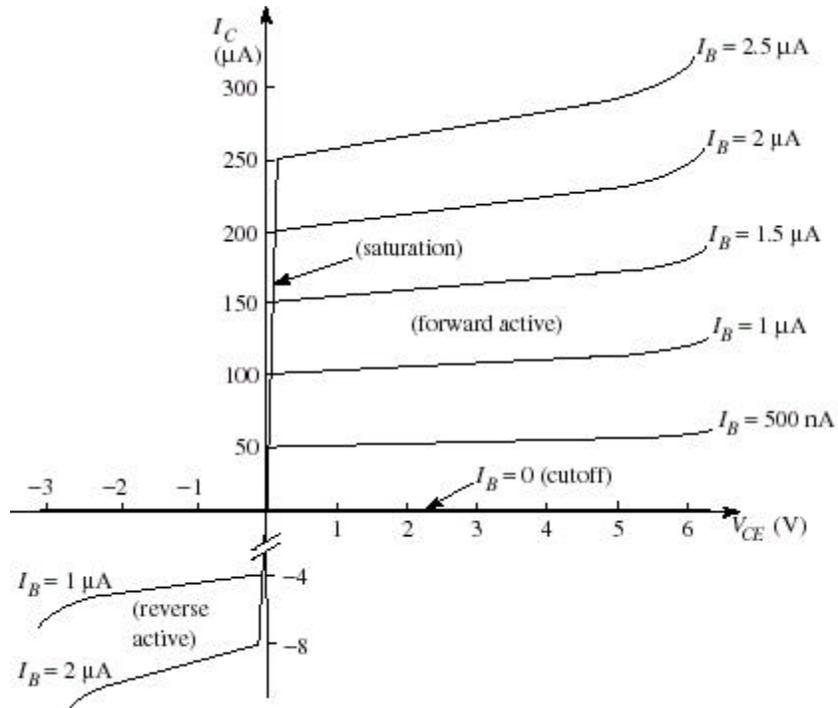
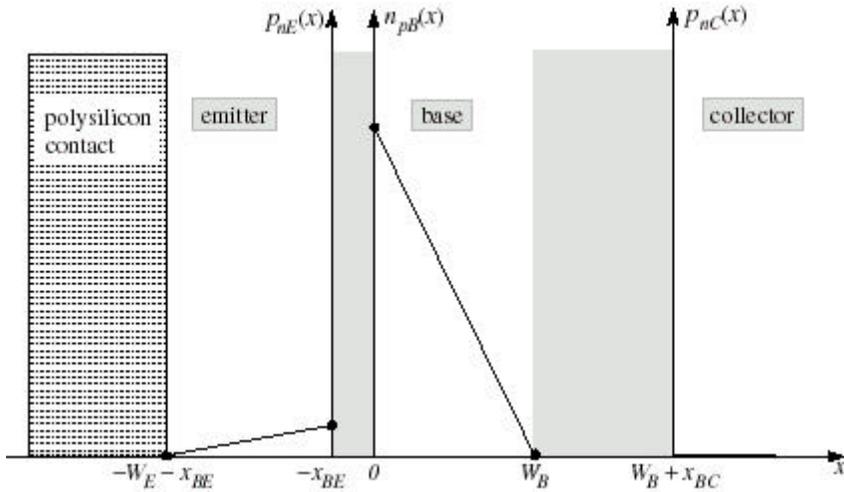
- \* Device physics for analog circuit design (Weeks ~3-7)



# Course Overview



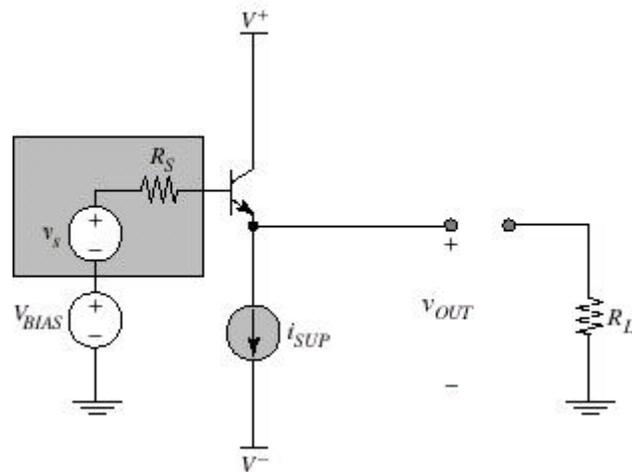
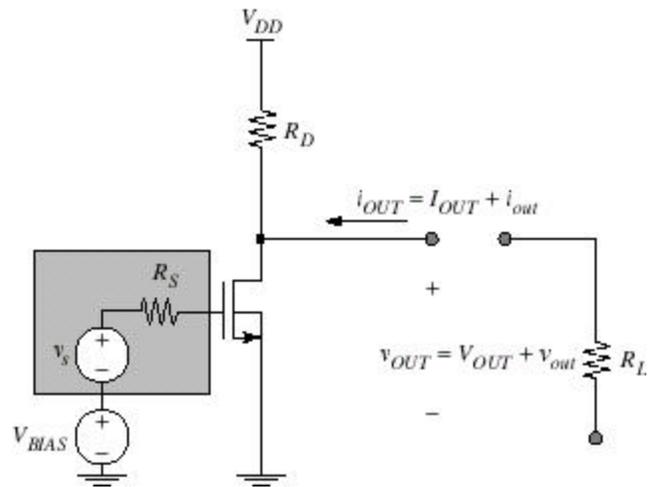
# Course Overview



(b)

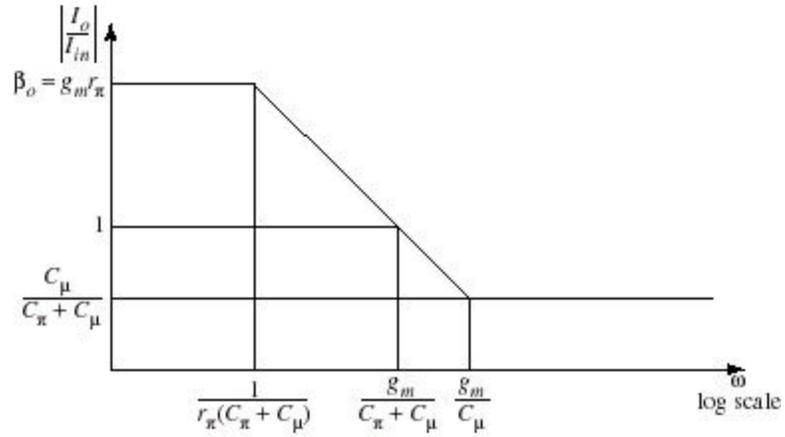
# Course Overview

Weeks ~8-10 small-signal amplifiers

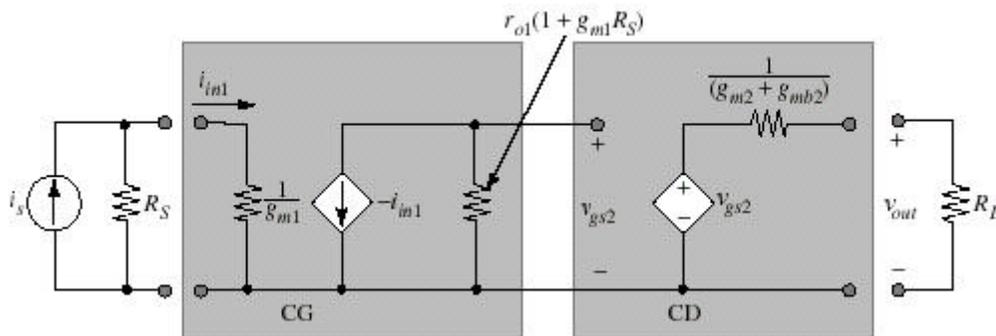


# Course Overview

Weeks ~10-11, phasor analysis and frequency response



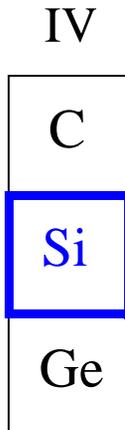
Weeks ~11-15, multistage amplifiers





# Silicon: *The Element for Microelectronics*

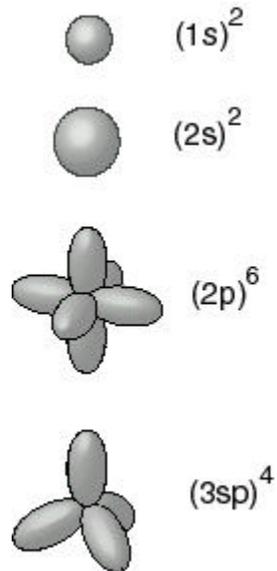
\* Group IV of the periodic table:



very desirable properties:

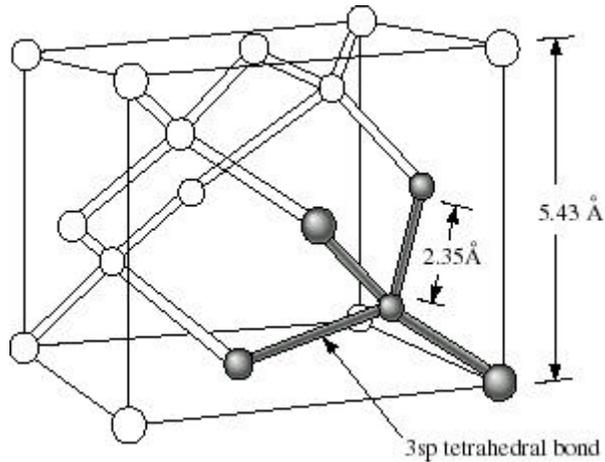
- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

\* electronic structure: four bonding (valence) electrons



# Silicon Crystal Structure

- \* Diamond lattice: defined by covalent bonds between tetrahedral hybrid orbitals



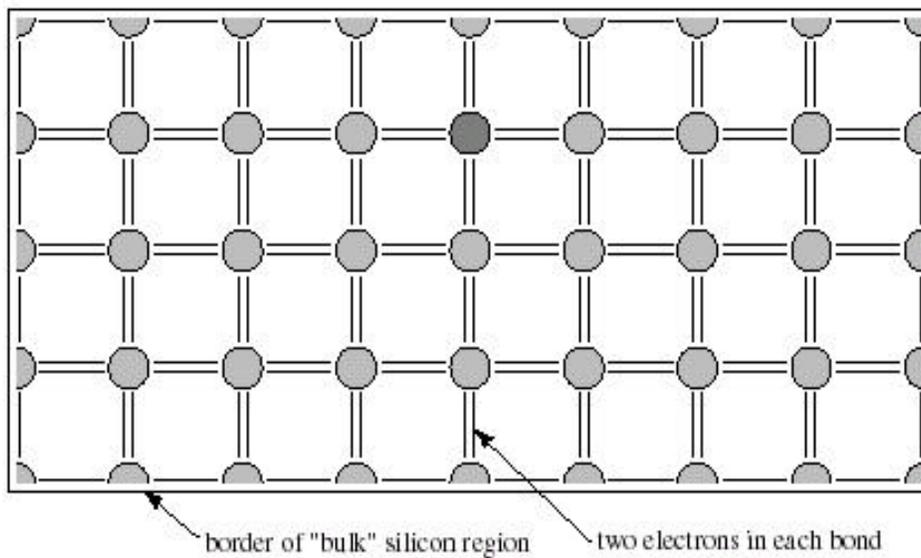
How many silicon atoms  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ?

# atoms per unit cell =

$$\# \text{ unit cells } \text{cm}^{-3} = 1 / (5.43 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm})^3$$

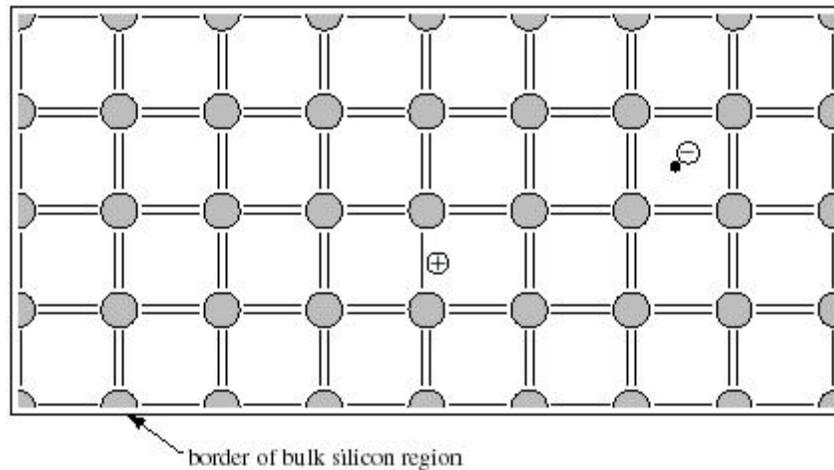
## Picturing the Valence Electrons: The Bond Model

- \* A silicon crystal has a network of single bonds (one electron from each Si atom)
- \* How to depict the electrons in a silicon crystal?



## “Intrinsic” Silicon ( $T > 0 \text{ K}$ )

A few broken bonds due to thermal agitation



Unit of charge:  $q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  Coulombs [C]

\* *electron*: mobile negative unit charge, concentration  $n$  ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )

no surprise ... but crystal causes a change in effective mass

\* *hole*: mobile positive unit charge, concentration  $p$  ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )

surprise: holes move through silicon crystal almost as well as electrons

Thermal velocity

# Thermal Equilibrium

Concept: balance between internal processes with no external stimulus

Electron and hole *generation rate*:  $G$  units:  $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$  (thermal, optical processes)

Electron and hole *recombination rate*:  $R \propto n \cdot p$

$n$  = electron concentration  $\text{cm}^{-3}$        $p$  = hole concentration  $\text{cm}^{-3}$

In thermal equilibrium, we add “*o*” as a subscript and we must have a balance

$$G_o = R_o$$

$$n_o p_o = \text{constant} = n_i^2 = 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ at room temperature (approx.)}$$

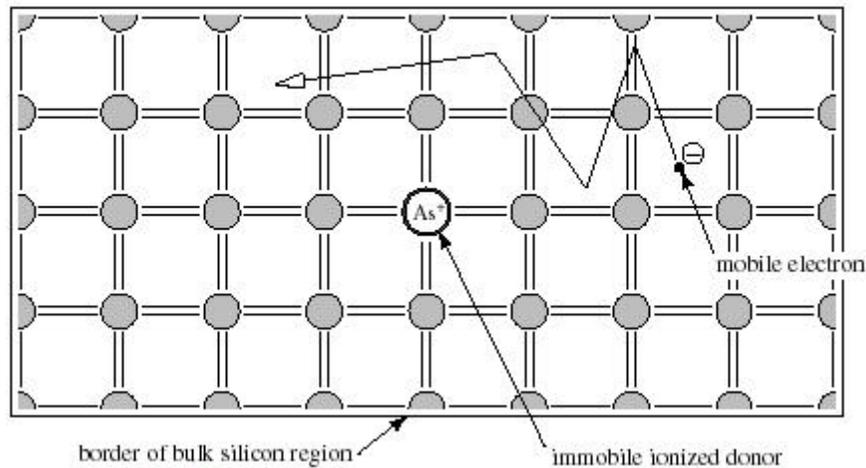
$$\text{(more exactly, } \sim 2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}\text{)}$$

Since holes and electrons are created *together* in intrinsic silicon,

$$n_o = p_o$$

# Doping

Donors (group V) *donate* their 5<sup>th</sup> valence electron and become fixed positive charges in the lattice. Examples: Arsenic, Phosphorus.



At room temperature, the very weak bond between the 5<sup>th</sup> valence electron and the arsenic breaks and the electron can “roam around”

Key idea: we can introduce electrons *selectively* and change  $n_o$

## Electron Concentration in Donor-Doped Silicon

How are the equilibrium electron and hole concentrations changed by donor doping?

*Key idea:*

interior region of the silicon crystal was electrically neutral before arsenic donated its electron and must be neutral afterwards

charge density  $\rho$  [C/cm<sup>3</sup>] in the region is *zero*, before and after doping:

three components to charge density:

1. ionized donors (positive charge, immobile)  $\rho_1 = +q N_d$

(donor concentration is  $N_d$  [cm<sup>-3</sup>])

2. electrons (negative charge, mobile)  $\rho_2 = -q n_o$

3. holes (positive charge, mobile)  $\rho_3 = +q p_o$

$$\rho = 0 = +qN_d - qn_o + qp_o$$

Substitute the hole concentration  $p_o$  in terms of the electron concentration  $n_o$

$$p_o = n_i^2 / n_o$$

$$0 = +qN_d - qn_o + q(n_i^2 / n_o)$$

## Electron Concentration (cont.)

Quadratic formula

$$n_o = \frac{N_d + \sqrt{N_d^2 + 4n_i^2}}{2} = \frac{N_d}{2} + \frac{N_d}{2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{4n_i^2}{N_d^2}}$$

We *always* dope the crystal some, so that  $N_d \gg n_i$  ... ( $N_d = 10^{13} - 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), so the square root reduces to 1:

$$n_o = N_d$$

“one electron per donor” is a way to remember the electron concentration in silicon doped with donors.

Since we are in thermal equilibrium,  $n_o p_o = n_i^2$  (not changed by doping)

The equilibrium hole concentration is:

$$p_o = n_i^2 / N_d$$

## Numerical Example

Donor concentration:  $N_d = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Thermal equilibrium electron concentration:

$$n_o \approx N_d = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Thermal equilibrium hole concentration:

$$p_o = n_i^2 / n_o \approx n_i^2 / N_d = (10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3})^2 / 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} = 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Silicon doped with donors is called **n-type** and electrons are the **majority carriers**.

Holes are the (nearly negligible) **minority carriers**.

## An Analogy from Chemistry 1A

H<sub>2</sub>O is the product of a reaction of hydrogen ions (H<sup>+</sup>) and hydroxyl ions (OH<sup>-</sup>)

In thermal equilibrium, the product of the concentration of hydrogen ions [H<sup>+</sup>] and the concentration of hydroxyl ions [OH<sup>-</sup>] is a constant at a given temperature

$$[H^+][OH^-] = K_{eq}$$

In an acid, the hydrogen ion concentration dominates, implying that [OH<sup>-</sup>] is much lower

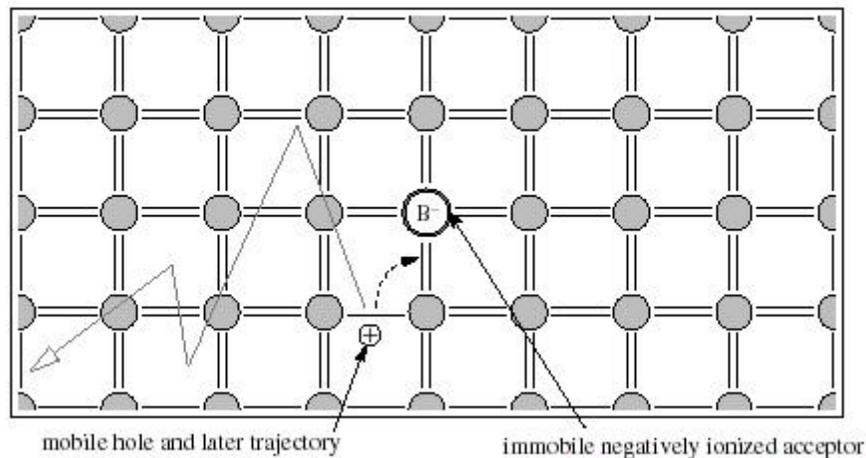
$$[OH^-] = \frac{K_{eq}}{[H^+]}$$

The chemists (for reasons known only to themselves) call this type of expression

“the mass action law”

## Doping with Acceptors

Acceptors (group III) are deficient one electron compared to Si, but they can *accept* an electron from the lattice to fill the incomplete fourth covalent bond and thereby create a mobile hole and become fixed negative charges. Example: Boron.



Acceptor concentration is  $N_a$  ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ), we have  $N_a \gg n_i$  typically and so:

one hole is added per acceptor:

$$p_o = N_a$$

equilibrium electron concentration is::

$$n_o = n_i^2 / N_a$$

Example:  $N_a = (10^{16}/\text{cm}^3) \rightarrow p_o \approx 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3, n_o \approx 10^4/\text{cm}^3$

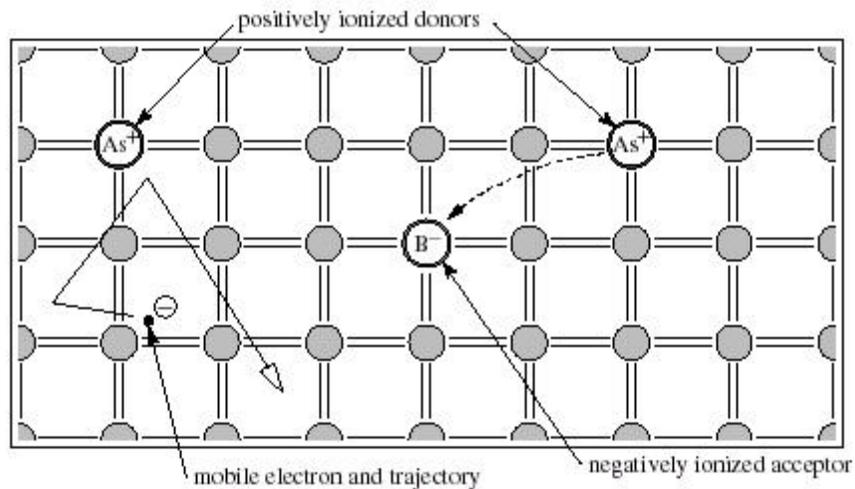
## Doping with both Donors and Acceptors: Compensation

What happens if both donors and acceptors are present?

whichever is more numerous determines the type

Example: twice as many donors (As) as acceptors (B)

1. the first  $N_a$  of donated electrons get accepted by the boron ions, leaving
2.  $N_d - N_a$  leftover as mobile electrons



Typically,  $|N_d - N_a| \gg n_i$

## Carrier Concentrations in Compensated Silicon

For the case where  $N_d > N_a$ , the electron and hole concentrations are:

$$n_o \cong N_d - N_a \quad \text{and} \quad p_o \cong \frac{n_i^2}{N_d - N_a}$$

For the case where  $N_a > N_d$ , the hole and electron concentrations are:

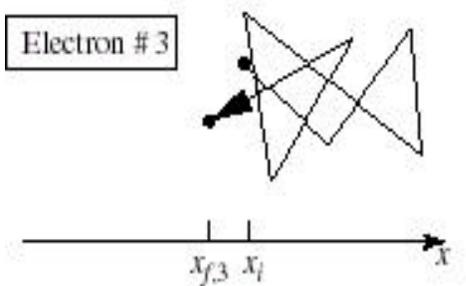
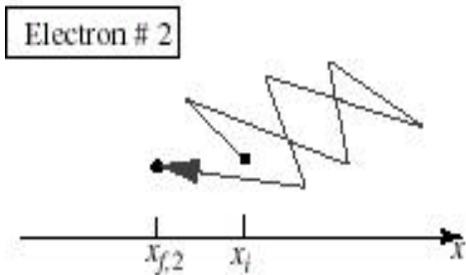
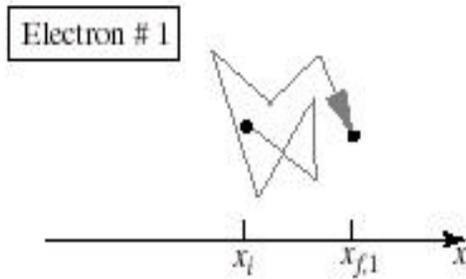
$$p_o \cong N_a - N_d \quad \text{and} \quad n_o \cong \frac{n_i^2}{N_a - N_d}$$

Note that these approximations assume that  $|N_d - N_a| \gg n_i$ , which is nearly always true.

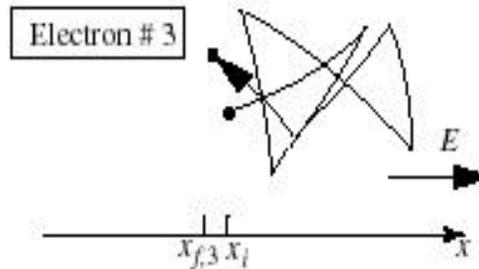
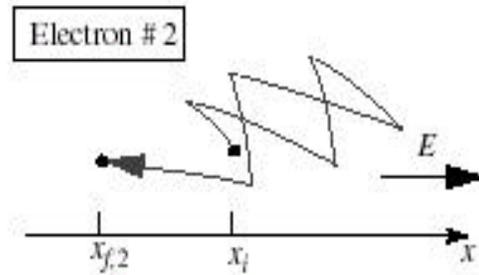
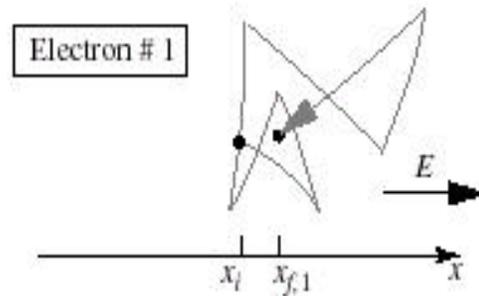
# Carrier Transport: Drift

- \* If an electric field is applied to silicon, the holes and the electrons “feel” an electrostatic force  $F_e = (+q \text{ or } -q)E$ .
- \* Picture of effect of electric field on representative electrons: moving at the thermal velocity =  $10^7$  cm/s ... *very fast*, but colliding every  $0.1 \text{ ps} = 10^{-13}$  s. Distance between collisions =  $10^7 \text{ cm/s} \times 10^{-13} \text{ s} = 0.01 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$

(a) Thermal Equilibrium,  $E = 0$



(b) Electric Field  $E > 0$



\*  $x_i$  = initial position    \*  $x_{f, n}$  = final position of electron  $n$  after 7 collisions

## Drift Velocity and Mobility

- \* Experiment shows that the drift velocity is proportional to the electric field for electrons (but they move, of course, in the opposite direction)

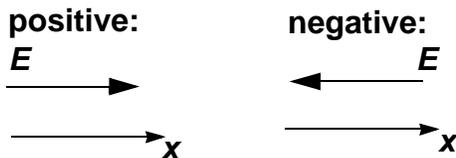
$$v_{dn} = -\mu_n E,$$

with the constant  $\mu_n$  defined as the *electron mobility*.

- \* Holes drift in the direction of the applied electric field, with the constant  $\mu_p$  defined as the *hole mobility*.

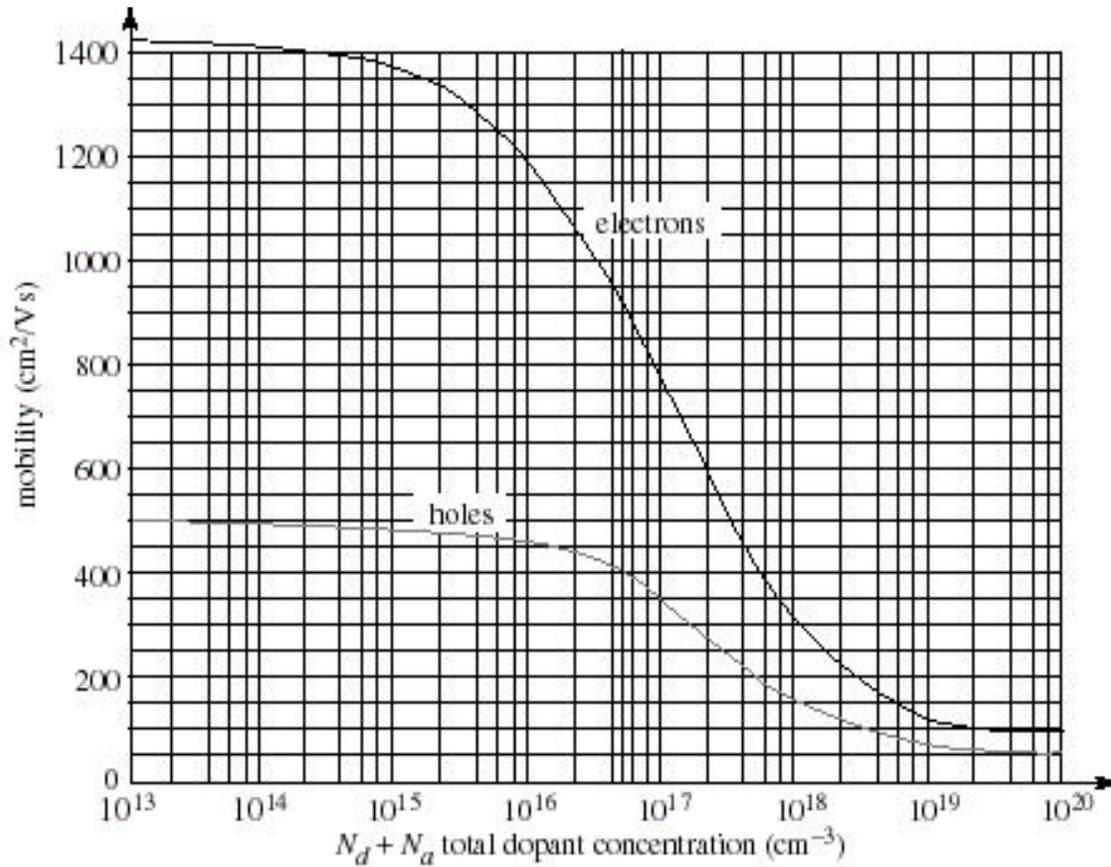
$$v_{dp} = \mu_p E$$

How do we know what's positive and what's negative?



# Electron and Hole Mobilities

Mobilities vary with doping level: plot is for 300 K



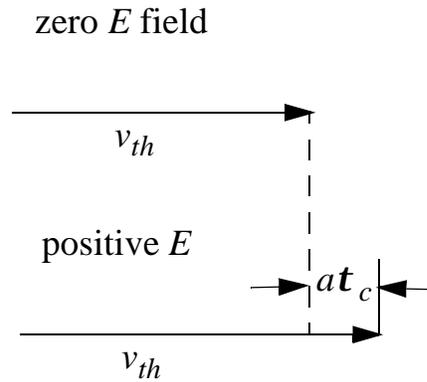
\* “typical values” for bulk silicon - assuming around  $5 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  doping

$$\mu_n = 1000 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{Vs})$$

$$\mu_p = 400 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{Vs})$$

# Mobility and Drift Velocity

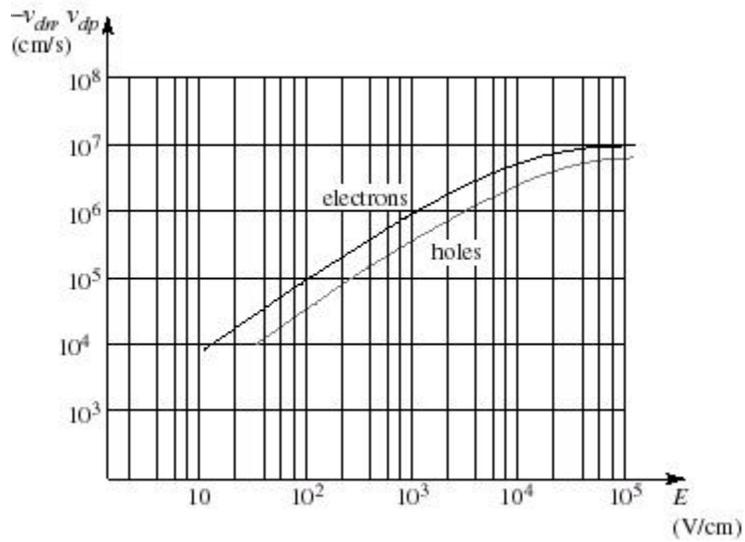
Carrier is accelerated by electric field in between collisions



$$v_{dr} = a \cdot \tau_c = \left( \frac{F_e}{m_n} \right) \tau_c = \left( \frac{qE}{m_n} \right) \tau_c = \left( \frac{q\tau_c}{m_n} \right) E$$

# Velocity Saturation

- \* “linear relationship must end at some point”
- \* at electric fields greater than around  $10^4$  V/cm, the drift velocities max. out at around  $10^7$  cm/s.



Electric fields can be huge with small voltage drops:

## Carrier Transport: Drift Current Density

Electrons drifting opposite to the electric field are carrying negative charge; therefore, the *drift current density* is:

$$J_n^{dr} = (-q) n v_{dn} \quad \text{units: } \text{Ccm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} = \text{Acm}^{-2}$$

$$J_n^{dr} = (-q) n (-\mu_n E) = q n \mu_n E$$

Note that  $J_n^{dr}$  is in the *same* direction as the electric field.

For holes, the mobility is  $\mu_p$  and the drift velocity is in the same direction as the electric field:  $v_{dp} = \mu_p E$

The hole drift current density is:

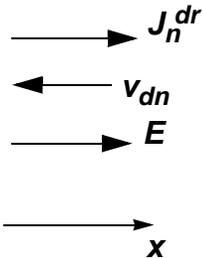
$$J_p^{dr} = (+q) p v_{dp}$$

$$J_p^{dr} = q p \mu_p E$$

## Drift Current Directions and Signs

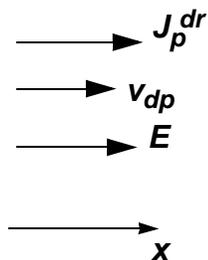
- \* For electrons, an electric field in the  $+x$  direction will lead to a drift velocity in the  $-x$  direction ( $v_{dn} < 0$ ) and a drift current density in the  $+x$  direction ( $J_n^{dr} > 0$ ).

**electron drift  
current density**



- \* For holes, an electric field in the  $+x$  direction will lead to a drift velocity in the  $+x$  direction ( $v_{dp} > 0$ ) and a drift current density in the  $+x$  direction ( $J_p^{dr} > 0$ ).

**hole drift  
current density**



# Ohm's Law for Silicon

*Bulk silicon:* uniform doping concentration, away from surfaces

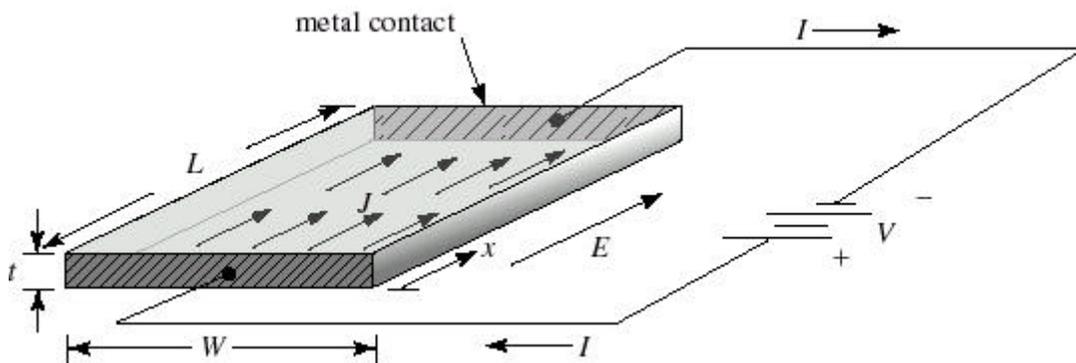
n-type example: in equilibrium,  $n_o = N_d$ .

When we apply an electric field,  $n = N_d$ .

$$J_n = \quad \equiv \sigma_n E$$

where  $\sigma_n$  is the *conductivity* [Units: S/cm = 1 / ( $\Omega$  cm)]

note: holes contribute almost nothing to the conductivity of n-type silicon.

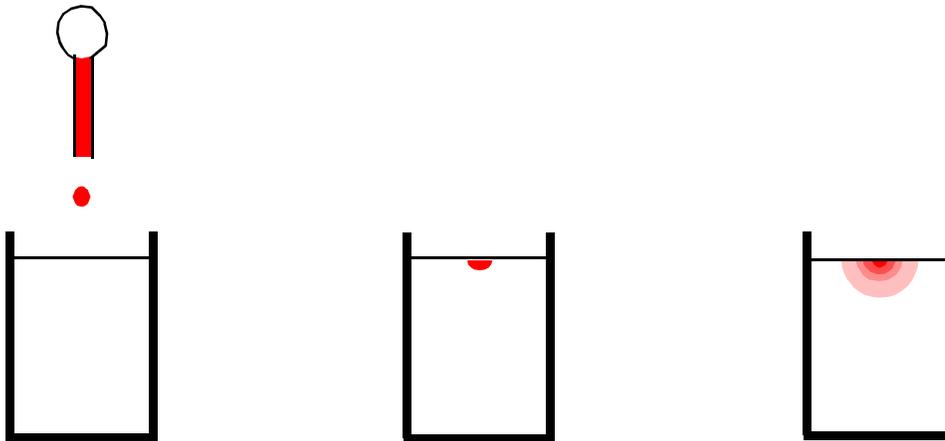


$J_n$  is the current density, uniform over the area  $t \times W$

$E$  is electric field, here  $V/L$

## Carrier Transport: Diffusion

*Diffusion* is a transport process driven by *gradients* in the concentration of particles in random motion and undergoing frequent collisions -- such as ink molecules in water ... or holes and electrons in silicon.



Mathematical analysis:

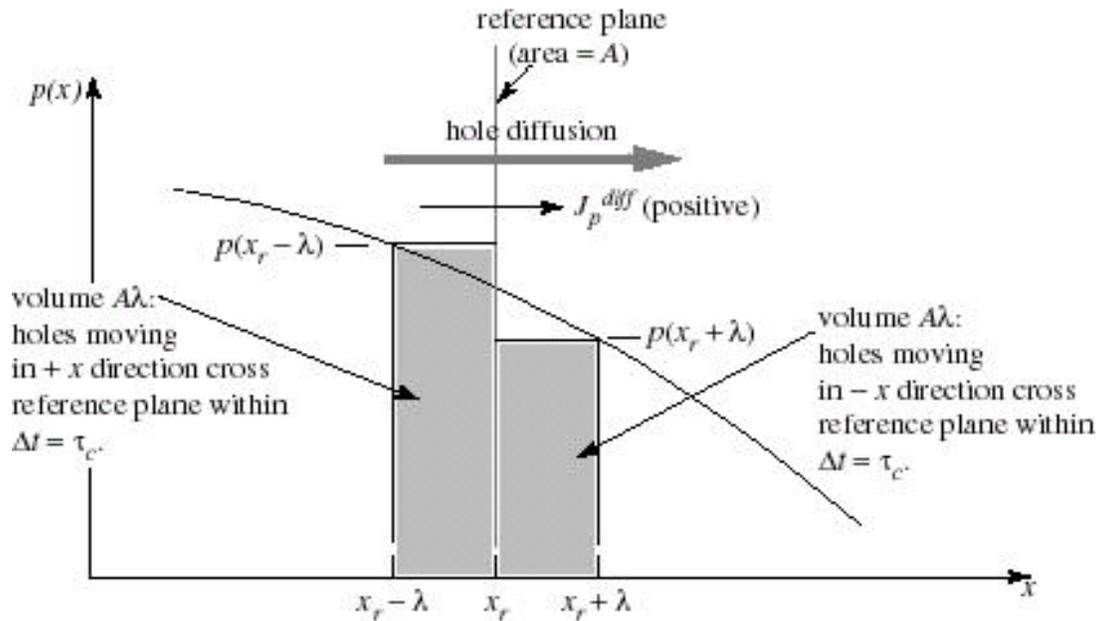
Some numbers: average carrier velocity =  $v_{th} = 10^7$  cm/s

average interval between collisions =  $\tau_c = 10^{-13}$  s = 0.1 picoseconds

define  $\lambda$ : the *mean free path* =  $v_{th} \tau_c$

mean free path =  $\lambda = v_{th} \tau_c = 10^{-6}$  cm = 0.01  $\mu\text{m}$  ... not that small

## Diffusion of Holes in One Dimension



- \* half of the carriers in each volume will pass through the plane before their next collision, since their 1-D motion is random
- \* The *flux*  $F$  of holes is the number passing the unit-area reference plane per collision time
  
- \* The concentrations at  $x_r \pm \lambda$  can be found by a first-order Taylor expansion, if  $\lambda$  is small

## Hole Diffusion Current Density

Current density  $J = (\text{charge}) \times (\text{Flux}) = (\text{charge}) \times (\# \text{ carriers per area per second})$

$$J_p^{diff} = -qD_p \frac{dp}{dx}, \quad \text{where } D_p \text{ is the diffusion coefficient}$$

The diffusion coefficient is related to the mean free path and the collision time by

$$D_p = \frac{\lambda^2}{\tau_c} = v_{th} \lambda$$

## Mobility and the Diffusion Coefficient

The ratio of mobility to the diffusion coefficient is:

$$\frac{D}{\mu} = \frac{(\lambda^2/\tau_c)}{(q\tau_c)/m} = \left(\frac{\lambda^2}{\tau_c^2}\right)\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) = v_{th}^2\left(\frac{m}{q}\right)$$

The thermal velocity is a function of the temperature and the mass (Lecture 2)

$$\frac{1}{2}mv_{th}^2 = \frac{1}{2}kT \quad \text{so} \quad v_{th}^2 = (kT)/m$$

$$\boxed{\frac{D}{\mu} = \left(\frac{kT}{m}\right)\left(\frac{m}{q}\right) = \frac{kT}{q}}$$

\* The quantity  $kT/q$  has units of volts and is called the *thermal voltage*,  $V_{th}$ :

$$V_{th} = \frac{kT}{q} = 25 - 26 \text{ mV},$$

at “room temperature,” with 25 mV for a cool room (62 °F) and 26 mV for a warm room (83 °F).

## Total Current Densities

Electron diffusion current density: same approach, sign is different

$$J_n^{diff} = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx},$$

where  $D_n$  is the electron diffusion coefficient (units:  $\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$ )

\* Add drift and diffusion components for electrons and for holes --

$$J_n = J_n^{dr} + J_n^{diff} = qn\mu_n E + qD_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$J_p = J_p^{dr} + J_p^{diff} = qp\mu_p E - qD_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

\* Fortunately, we will be able to eliminate one or the other component of the electron or the hole current in our analysis of semiconductor devices.