## Lecture #18

## **OUTLINE**

- Generation and recombination
- Charge-carrier transport in silicon
- Resistivity as a function of doping

### Reference Texts on reserve in Engr. Library

Howe & Sodini

Chapter 2.1: Pure semiconductors

Chapter 2.2: Generation, recombination, thermal equilibrium

Chapter 2.3: Doping

Chapter 2.4: Carrier Transport

Chapter 2.6: IC Resistors

Schwarz and Oldham

Chapter 13: Semiconductor Devices

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## 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  $\mu$ m wavelength (infrared region)
- Note that conduction electrons and holes are continuously generated, if T > 0

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## 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:
  - to the semiconductor lattice (vibrations)
     "thermal recombination" → semiconductor is heated
  - 2. to photon emission

"optical recombination" → 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.

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## **Generation and Recombination Rates**

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

$$G = R \implies np = f(T)$$

 A special case of the steady-state condition is thermal equilibrium: no optical or electrical sources

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

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# **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:
    - ~107 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.

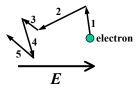
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## **Carrier Drift**

 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.

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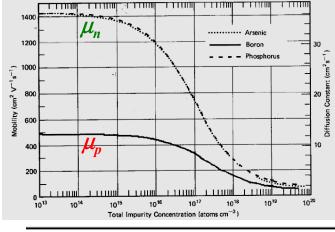
# **Drift Velocity and Carrier Mobility**

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

$$|v| = \mu E$$

 $\mu$  is the *mobility* 

(Units: cm<sup>2</sup>/V•s)



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

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# **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

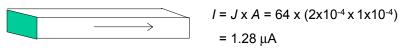


#### Example:

 $2 \times 10^{16} \, holes/cm^3$  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 μm wide and 1 μm thick:



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# 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:  $J = J_{\scriptscriptstyle n} + J_{\scriptscriptstyle p} = (qn\mu_{\scriptscriptstyle n} + qp\mu_{\scriptscriptstyle p})E$ 

 $J = \sigma E$ 

conductivity  $\sigma \equiv qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p$ 

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# Electrical Resistivity $\rho$

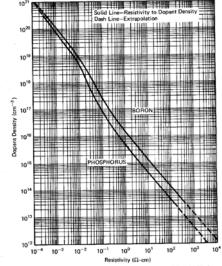


Figure 1.14 Dopant density versus resistivity at 23°C (296 K) for silicon doped with phosphorus and with boron. The curves can be used with little error to represent conditions at 300 K. [W. R.

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

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

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

(Units: ohm-cm)

Note: This plot does not apply for compensated material (doped with both donors and acceptors)

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## **Example**

Consider a Si sample doped with 10<sup>16</sup>/cm<sup>3</sup> Boron. What is its resistivity?

## Answer:

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

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# Example (cont'd)

Consider the same Si sample, doped *additionally* with 10<sup>17</sup>/cm<sup>3</sup> Arsenic. What is its resistivity?

## Answer:

$$N_A = 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$$
,  $N_D = 10^{17}/\text{cm}^3$   $(N_D >> N_A \rightarrow \text{n-type})$   
 $\rightarrow n \approx 9 \times 10^{16}/\text{cm}^3$  and  $p \approx 1.1 \times 10^3/\text{cm}^3$   
 $\rho = \frac{1}{qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p} \cong \frac{1}{qn\mu_n}$   
 $= [(1.6 \times 10^{-19})(9 \times 10^{16})(700)]^{-1} = 0.10 \Omega - \text{cm}$ 

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

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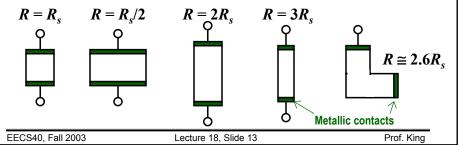
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# Sheet Resistance R<sub>s</sub>

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

 $R_s$  is the resistance when W = L

- The R<sub>s</sub> 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



# **Velocity Saturation**

At *high electric fields*, the average velocity of carriers is NOT proportional to the field; it saturates at  $\sim 10^7$  cm/sec for both electrons and holes:

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