



ELC 1252 — Electronics

Lecture (3) Semiconductors and PN Junctions

Dr. Omar Bakry

omar.bakry.eece@cu.edu.eg

Department of Electronics and Electrical Communications

Faculty of Engineering

Cairo University

Spring 2024



Lecture Outline



• Introduction to Semiconductor

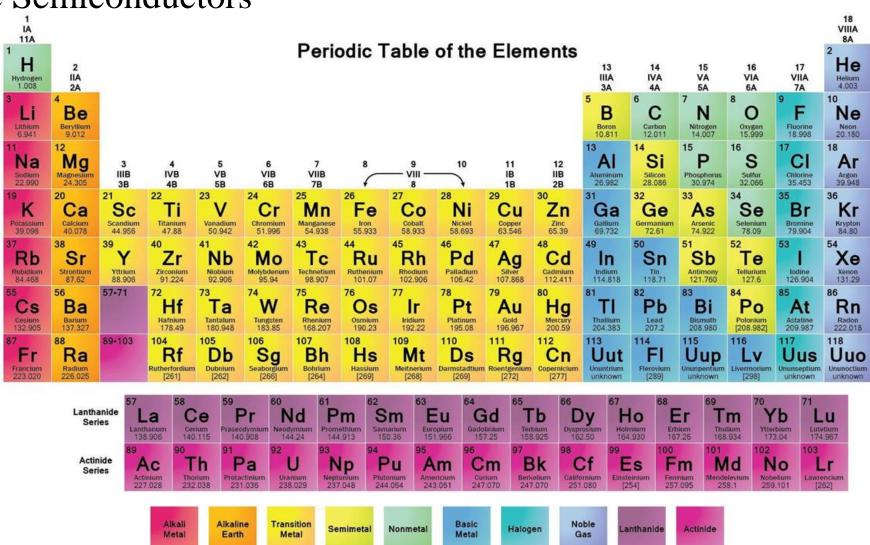
• PN junction

• Zener diode





• Intrinsic Semiconductors



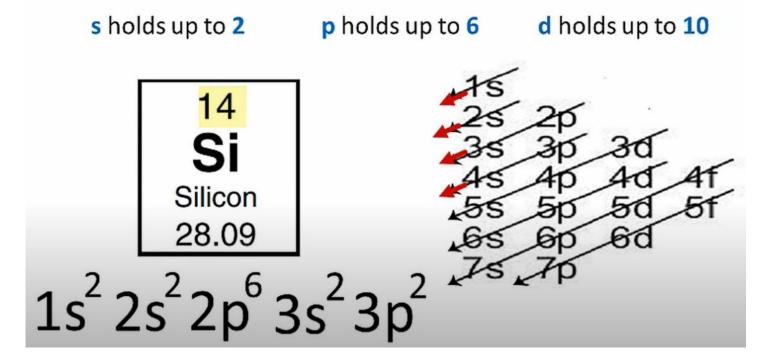


Silicon



- Silicon atomic number is 14 with the shown electron configuration chart
- The outer orbit (3s and 3p) can hold up to 8 electrons, but it only has 4.
- An intrinsic silicon is one which is made of the silicon material in its greatly pure form.

Electron Configuration Chart





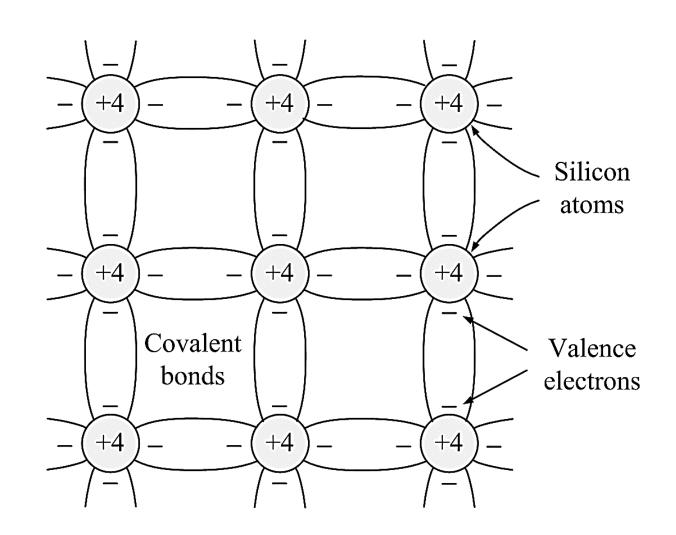


Intrinsic Semiconductors

• A silicon atom has four valence electrons.

• To complete its outermost shell, it shares one of its valence electrons with each of its four neighboring atoms.

• Each pair of shared electrons forms a **covalent bond**.



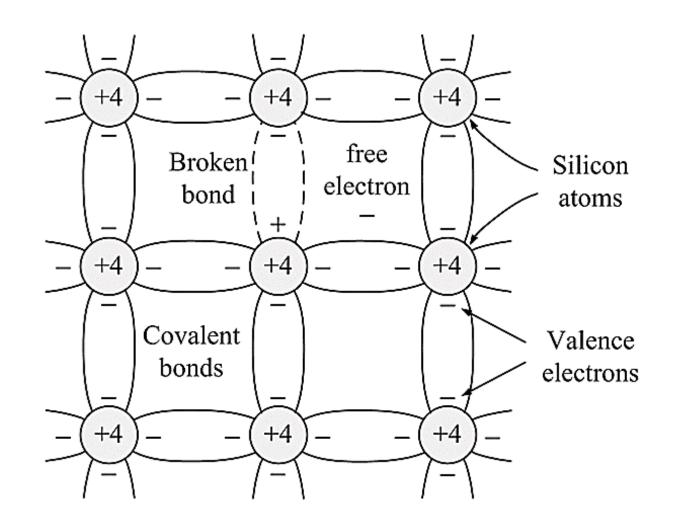




Intrinsic Semiconductors

• At room temperature, sufficient thermal energy exists to break some of the covalent bonds, this process is known as thermal generation.

• If an electric field is applied to the crystal, the free electron will move, and a current will follow.



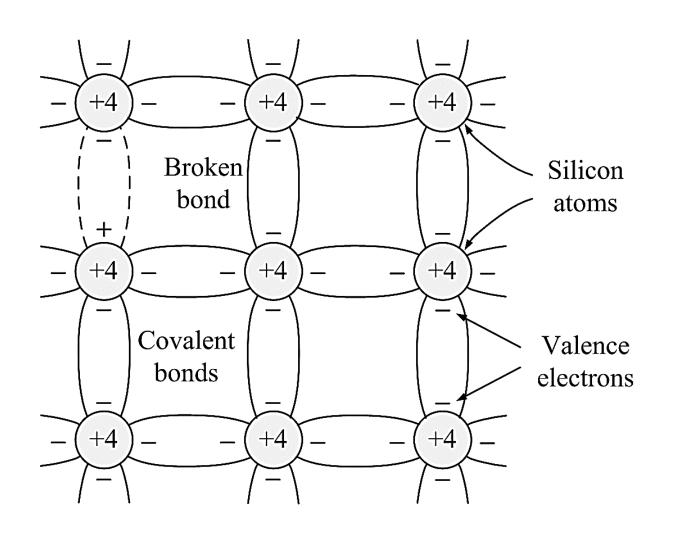




Intrinsic Semiconductors

• The positive charge attracts an electron from a neighboring atom.

• This process repeats itself, and results in a moving positively charged through the silicon crystal structure.

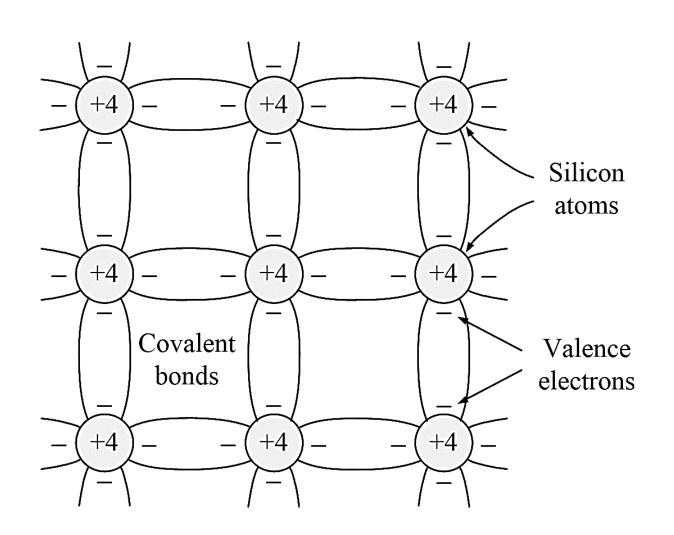






Intrinsic Semiconductors

- The free electrons and holes move randomly through the silicon crystal structure, and in the process some electrons may fill some of the holes. This process, called **recombination**.
- In thermal equilibrium, the recombination rate is equal to the generation rate.

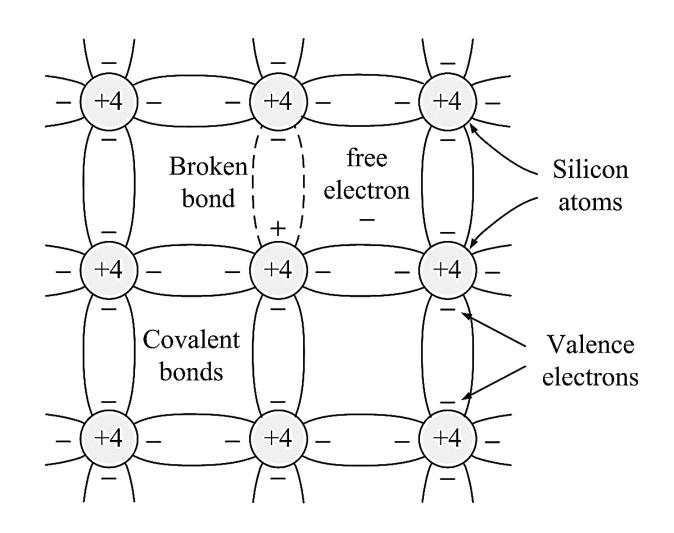






Intrinsic Semiconductors

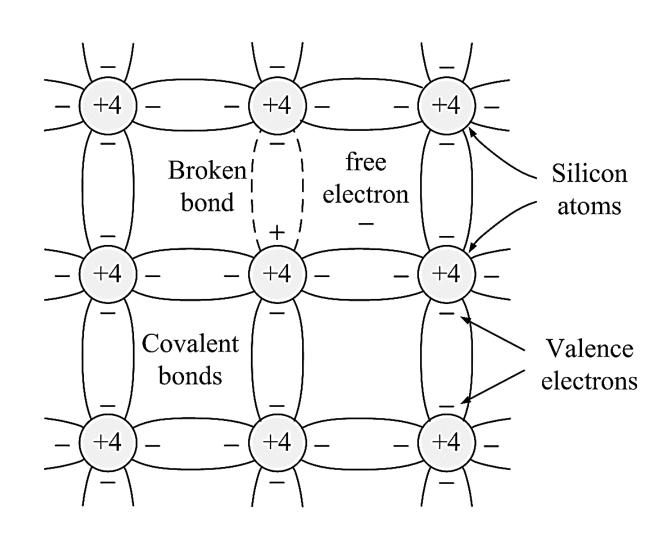
- The concentrations of the free electrons and holes are far too small for silicon to conduct appreciable current at room temperature.
- The carrier concentration are strong function of the temperature, this is not a desirable property in an electronic device.







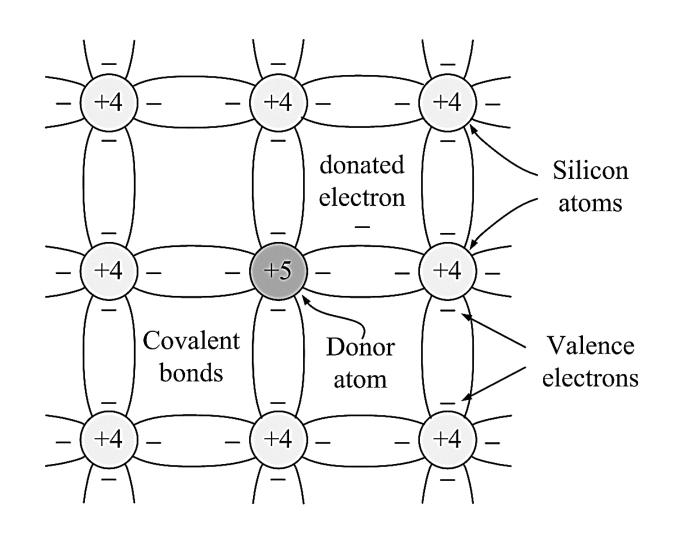
- Doping means introducing impurity atoms into the silicon crystal in sufficient numbers.
- The goal is to substantially increase the concentration of either free electrons or holes.
- The structure of the crystal needs to be kept the same.







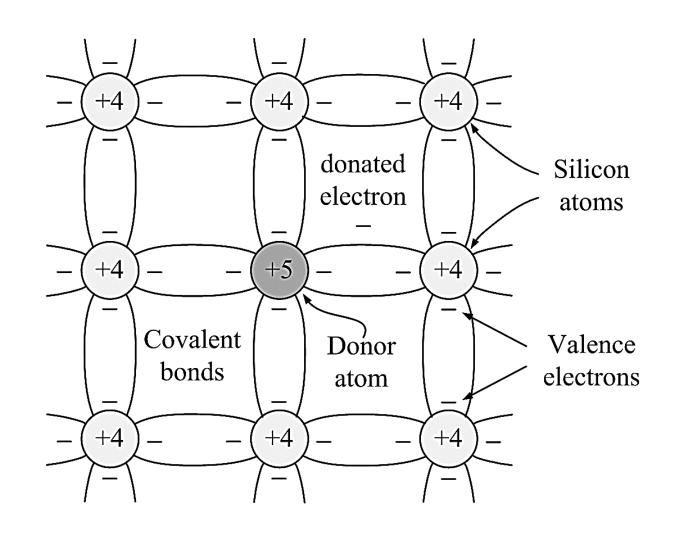
- The concentration of free electrons silicon is increased by doped the silicon with an element with a **valence of 5**, such as phosphorus.
- The fifth electron becomes a free electron.
- The resulting doped silicon is then said to be of **n-type**.







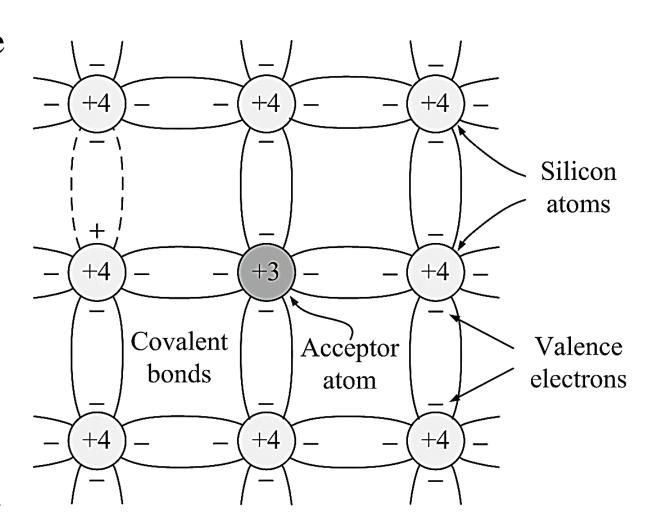
- In n-type silicon, electrons are said to be the majority carriers and holes are the minority carriers.
- The **n-type** silicon is electrically neutral because the total negative charge is equal to the total positive charge.







- The concentration of holes in the silicon is increased by doping the silicon with an element having a **valence of 3**, such as boron.
- The resulting doped silicon is said to be of **p-type**.
- In p-type silicon, holes are said to be the majority carriers and electrons are the minority carriers.

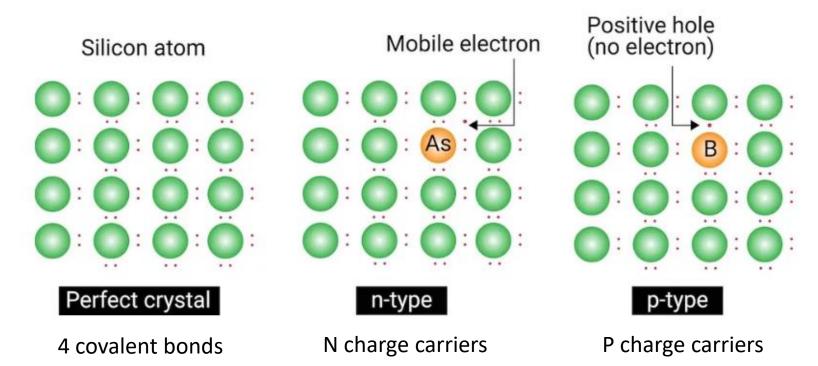




P-Type versus N-Type Silicon Substrate



- An extrinsic silicon is doped by a specific impurity which is able to modify its electrical properties.
- The N-type silicon: a type of extrinsic silicon doped with a pentavalent (having five valence electrons) impurity element such as Phosphorus, Arsenic and Antimony. The dopant elements are added in the N-type silicon so as to increase the number of free electrons for conduction.
- The P-type Silicon: formed when a trivalent (having three valence electrons) impurity such as Gallium and Indium is added to a pure silicon in a small amount, and as a result, a large number of holes are created in it.





Illustrative Semiconductor Animation



- Intrinsic Semiconductor:
 - YouTube Link:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gRV-KDy4sHQ&ab_channel=7activestudio

- Extrinsic Semiconductors:
 - YouTube Link:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s6rQI7t9XM4&ab_channel=7activestudio

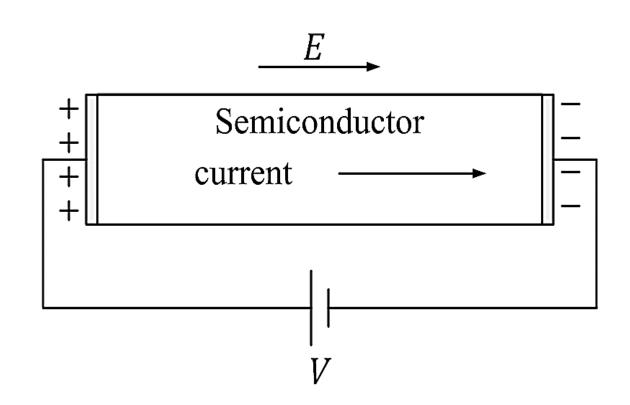


Current Flow in Semiconductors



Drift Current

- The mobility represents the degree of ease by which the carrier (electron/hole) moves through the silicon crystal in response to the electrical field *E*.
- μ_p : the holes mobility
- μ_n : the electrons mobility
- μ_n is found to be $\sim 2.5 \times \mu_p$



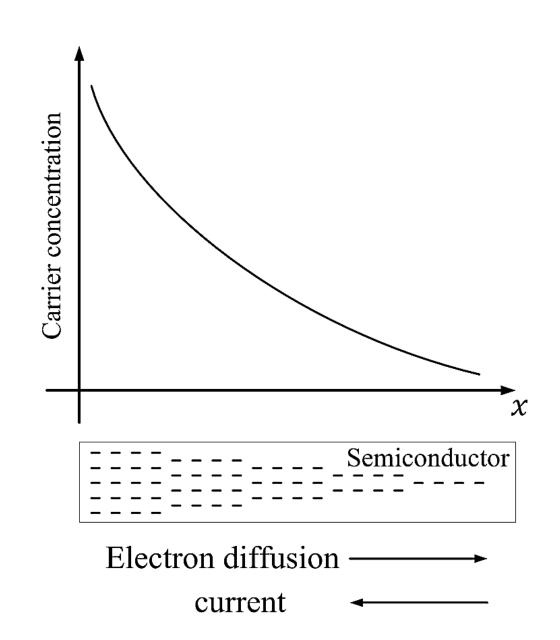


Current Flow in Semiconductors



Diffusion Current

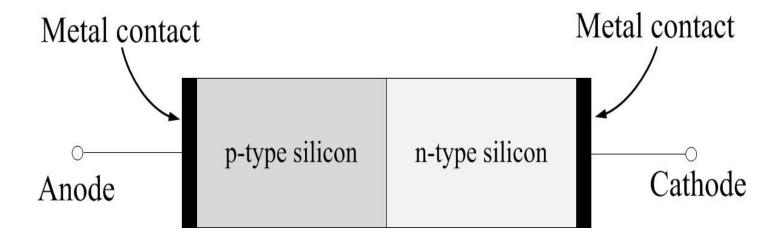
- When the density of charge carriers in a piece of semiconductor is not uniform, carrier diffusion occurs.
- The magnitude of the current at any point is proportional to the slope of the concentration curve at that point.







Physical Structure



- The pn junction consists of a p-type semiconductor brought into close contact with an n-type semiconductor.
- In actual practice, the *pn* junction is formed within a single silicon crystal by creating regions of different doping.



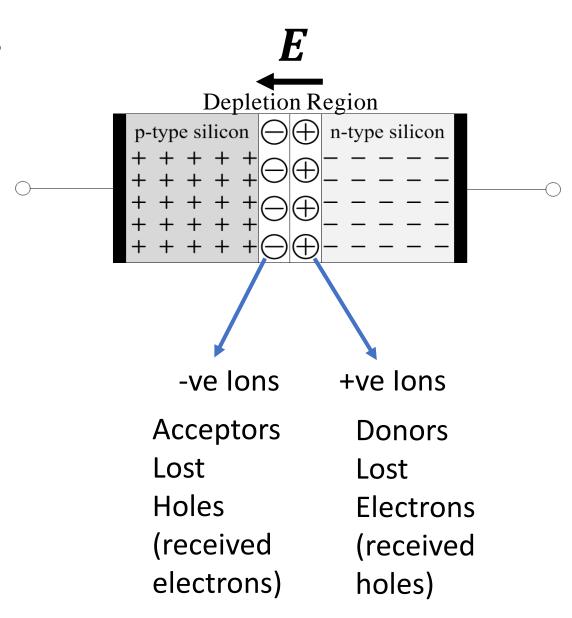


Operation with Open-Circuit Terminals

- The Diffusion of Carriers
- In the *n* region, the concentration of electrons is higher than that in the *p* region.

• Thus, the electrons diffuse from the *n* region to the *p* region.

• Similarly, the holes diffuse from the *p* region to the *n* region.

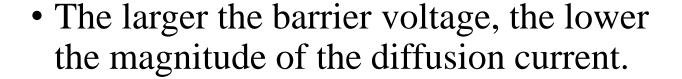




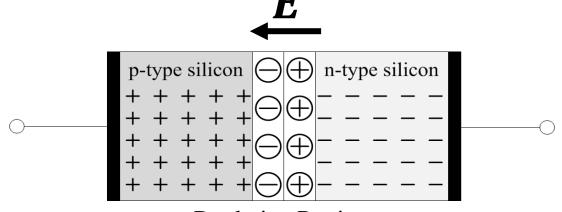


Operation with Open-Circuit Terminals

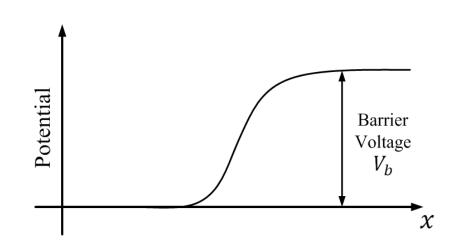
- The Diffusion of Carriers
- The resulting electric field opposes the diffusion of holes into the *n* region and electrons into the *p* region.



• Typically, $V_b = 0.7V$



Depletion Region



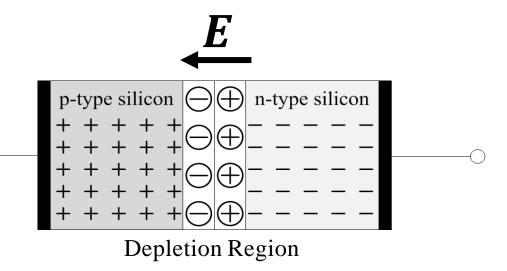




Operation with Open-Circuit Terminals

• In Equilibrium:

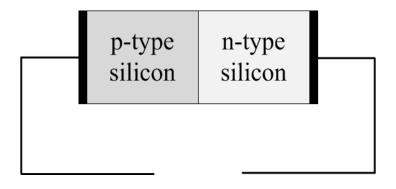
The diffusion current I_D resulting from the diffusion of majority carriers is equal to the drift current I_S resulting from the drift of the minority carriers across the junction.



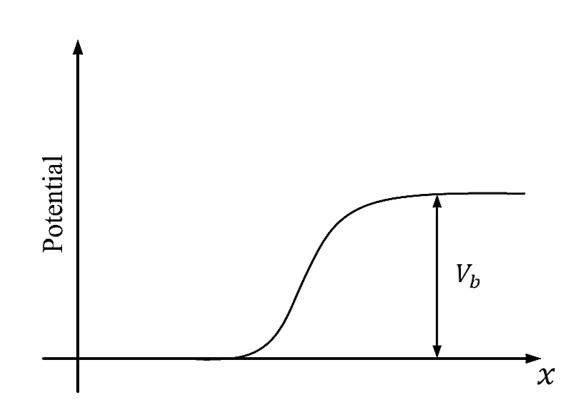




Operation with Open-Circuit Terminals



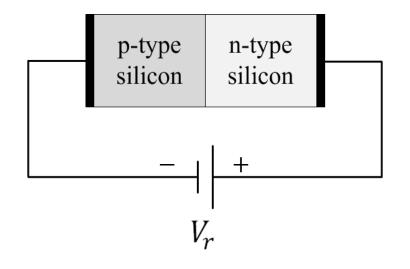
- $I_D = I_S$ I = 0





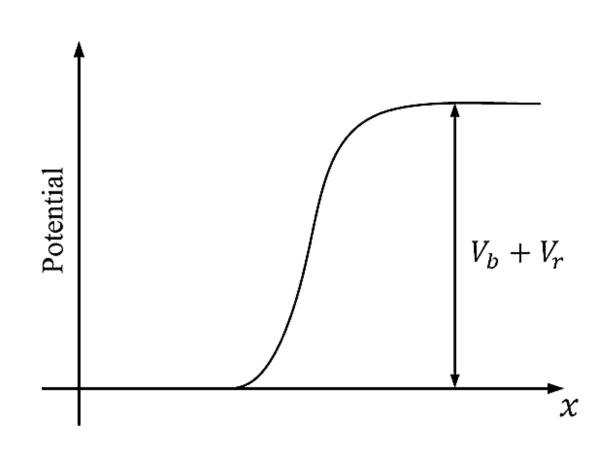


The PN Junction with an Applied Voltage



Reverse Biasing:

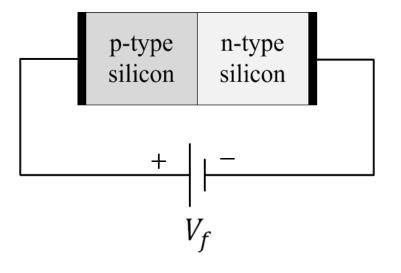
- $I_D = 0$.
- I_S depends on the minority carriers.
- It is very small and can be neglected.
- Thus I = 0.





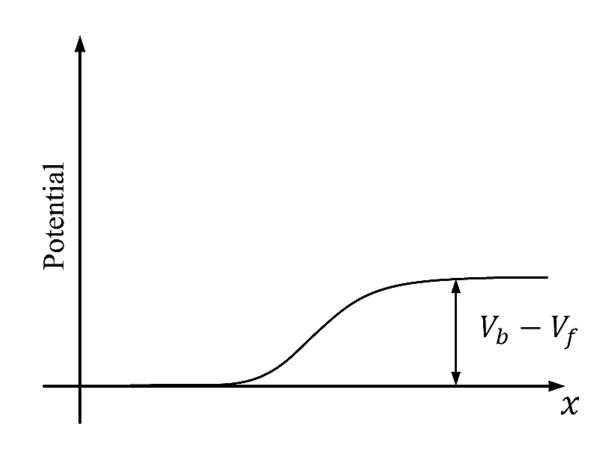


The PN Junction with an Applied Voltage



Forward Biasing:

- I_D increases as V_f increases.
- Thus $I = I_D$. (neglecting I_S)





Diode DC Large Signal Model

$$\bullet I_D = I_S (e^{V_D/V_T} - 1)$$

•
$$V_T = \frac{KT}{q} = 25mV$$

•
$$K = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} JK$$

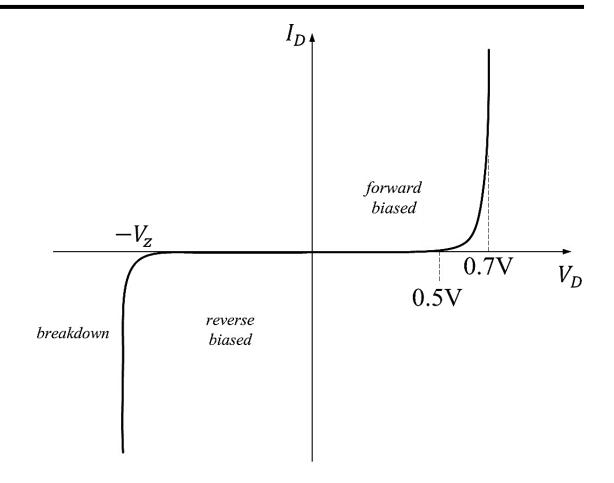
- Boltzmann constant
- $T = 300^{\circ} K$
 - Absolute room temperature

•
$$q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} C$$

- Electron charge
- Forward Bias:

•
$$I_D \approx I_S e^{V_D/V_T}$$

- Reverse Bias:
 - $I_D \approx -I_S$



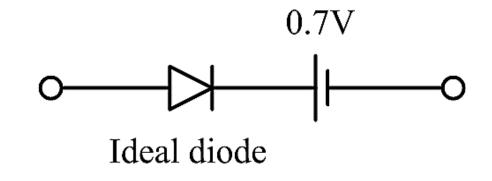
Note: The thermal voltage of a diode is a key parameter that characterizes the voltage across a diode related to its temperature. It's defined as the voltage required to increase the current flowing through the diode by a factor of "e" (the base of natural logarithms, approximately equal to 2.71828) under constant temperature and is directly proportional to the absolute temperature of the diode.

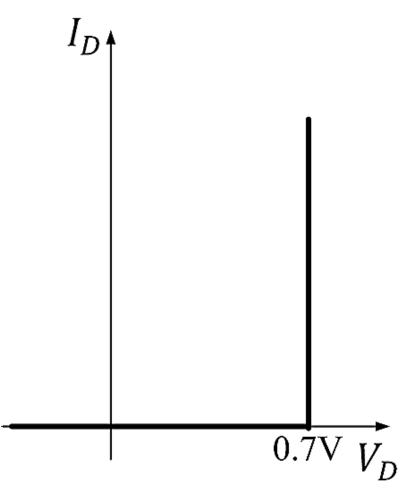




The Constant-Voltage-Drop (Linear) Model

- This model is based on the observation that a forward conducting diode has a voltage drop that varies in a relatively narrow range between 0.6 0.8V
- The model assumes this voltage to be constant at a value of 0.7V.



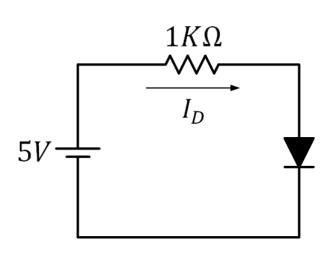


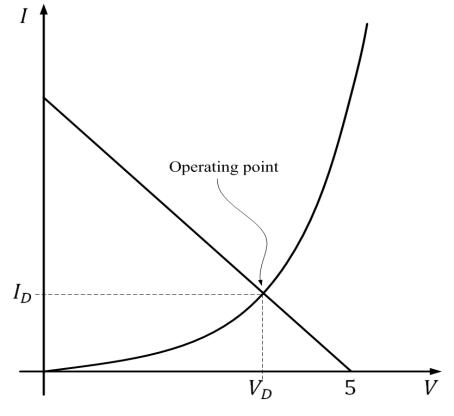




The Constant-Voltage-Drop (Linear) Model

• Example: Determine the current I_D for the shown circuit.





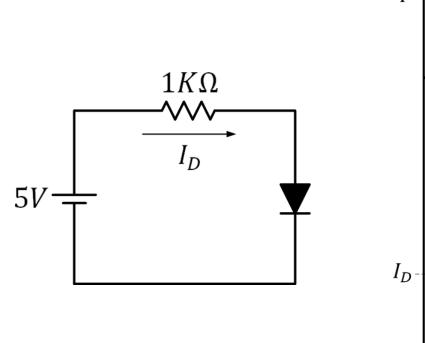
$$I_D=4.262mA$$

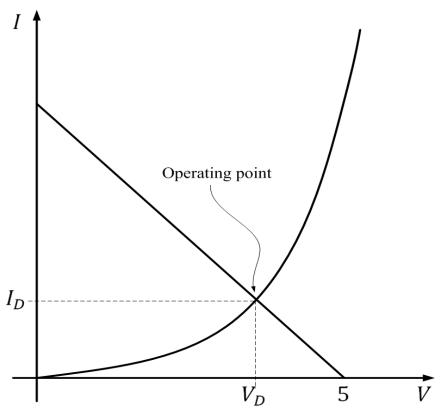




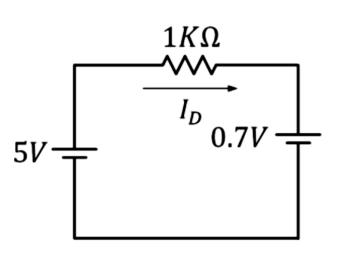
The Constant-Voltage-Drop (Linear) Model

• Example: Determine the current I_D for the shown circuit.





$$I_D=4.262mA$$



$$I_D = \frac{5 - 0.7}{1000} = 4.3 mA$$

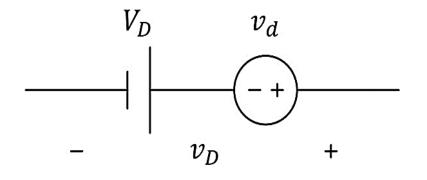


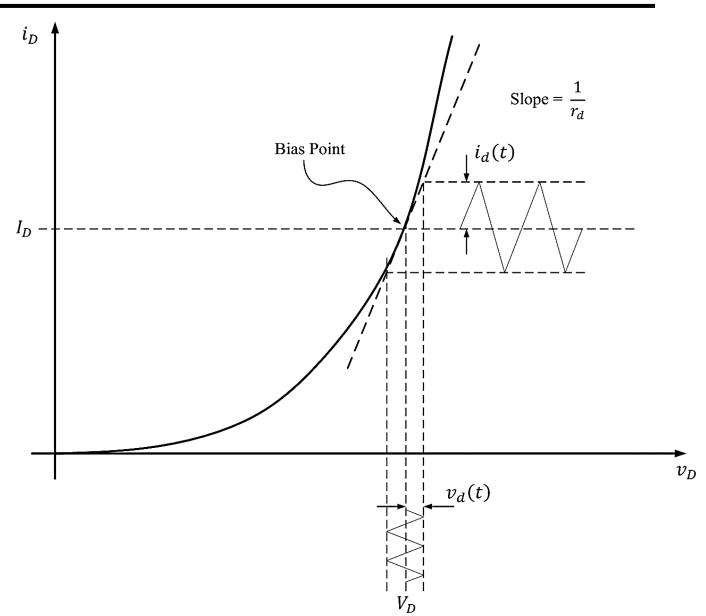


The Small-Signal Model

$$egin{aligned} V_D &\equiv DC \ Voltage \ v_d &\equiv AC \ Voltage \ v_D &\equiv Total \ Voltage \end{aligned}$$

$$v_D = V_D + v_d$$









The Small-Signal Model

$$i_D = I_S e^{v_D/V_T}$$
 $v_D = V_D + v_d$
 $i_D = I_S e^{(V_D + v_d)/V_T}$
 $i_D = I_S e^{V_D/V_T} \times e^{v_d/V_T}$
 $i_D = I_D \times e^{v_d/V_T}$
 $i_D = I_D \left(1 + \frac{v_d}{V_T}\right)$

$$i_D = I_D + I_D \frac{v_d}{V_T} = I_D + i_d$$

$$i_d = I_D \frac{v_d}{V_T} = \frac{v_d}{r_d}$$

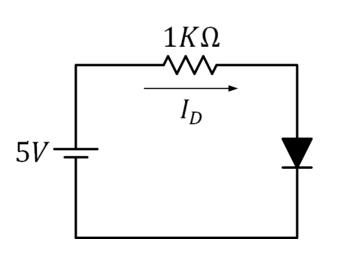
$$r_d = \frac{V_T}{I_D}$$



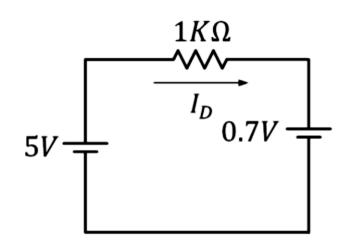


The Small-Signal Model

• Example: determine the AC small signal resistance (r_d) of the following circuit.

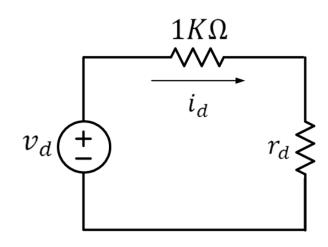


DC / Large Signal Model



$$I_D = \frac{5 - 0.7}{1000} = 4.3 mA$$

AC / Small Signal Model



$$r_d = \frac{V_T}{I_D} = \frac{25mV}{4.3mA} = 5.81\Omega$$

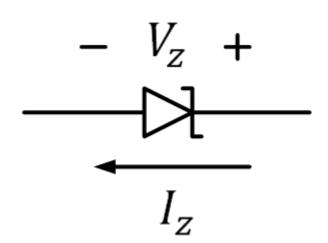




Reverse Breakdown Region (Zener Diodes)

• Zener diodes are manufactured to operate specifically in the breakdown region. Sometimes, we call it breakdown diodes.

• In normal applications of Zener diodes, current flows into the cathode, and the cathode is positive with respect to the anode.



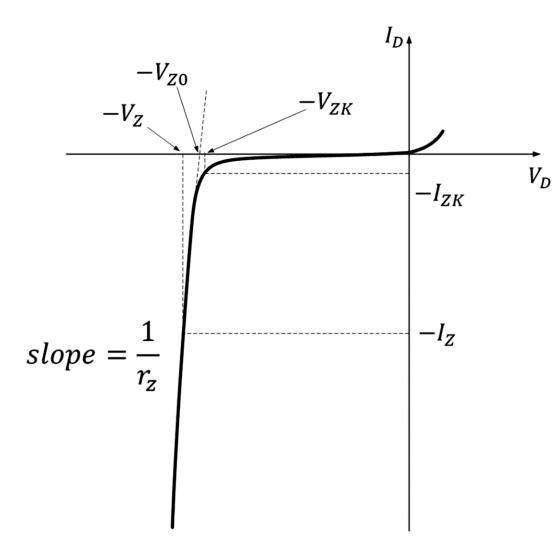




Reverse Breakdown Region (Zener Diodes)

• For current greater than the **knee current** (I_{ZK}) , the I/V characteristic is almost a straight line.

• r_Z is the incremental resistance of the Zener diode. It is also known as the dynamic resistance of the Zener diode.



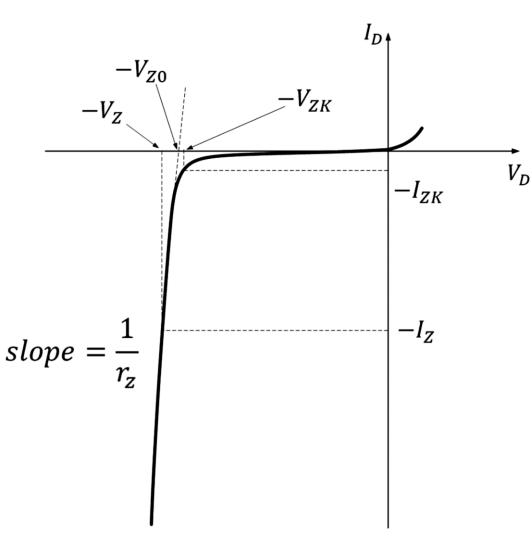




Reverse Breakdown Region (Zener Diodes)

• r_Z is typically small, this means that as the current through the Zener diode deviates from I_{ZK} , the voltage across it will change slightly.

• The lower the value of r_Z is, the more constant the Zener voltage remains as the current varies, and thus the more ideal its performance becomes in the design of voltage regulators.

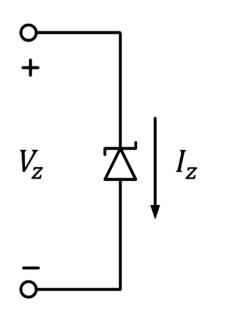


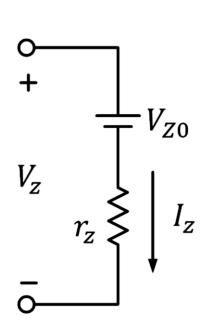


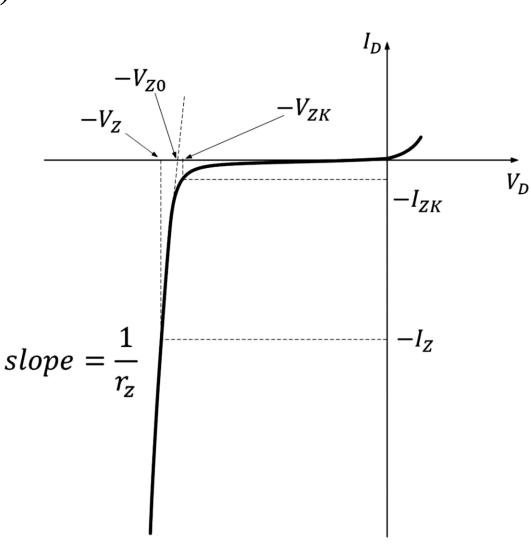


Reverse Breakdown Region (Zener Diodes)

- V_{Z0} denotes the point at which the straight line of slope intersects the voltage (x) axis.
- $V_Z = V_{Z0} + r_z I_Z$









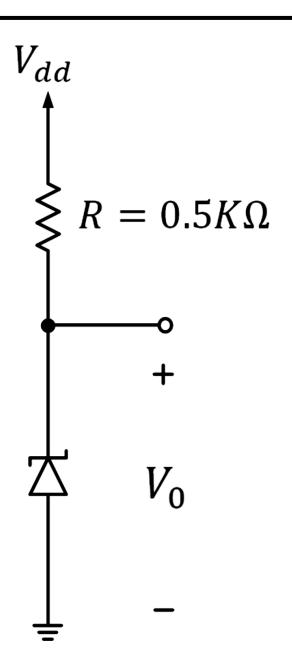


Zener-Diode as a Voltage Regulator

• Example:

A 6.8-V Zener Diode is used in the shown circuit. The specs of the Zener diode is $V_Z = 6.8V$ at $I_Z = 5mA$, $r_z = 20\Omega$, and $I_{ZK} = 0.2mA$. The supply voltage V_{dd} is nominally 10V but can vary by $\pm 1V$.

Find the value of Vo corresponding to V_{dd} .







Zener-Diode as a Voltage Regulator

- Solution:
 - $V_Z = V_{Z0} + r_z I_z$
 - $6.8 = V_{Z0} + 20 \times 5m \rightarrow V_{Z0} = 6.7V$
 - $I_Z = I = \frac{V_{dd} V_{Z0}}{R + r_Z} = \frac{10 6.7}{500 + 20} = 6.35 mA$
 - $V_0 = V_{Z0} + r_z I_z = 6.7 + 20 \times 6.35m = 6.83V$

For a change $\pm 1V$ in V_{dd}

•
$$V_o = V_{Z0} + r_z I_z = V_{Z0} + r_z \frac{V_{dd} - V_{Z0}}{R + r_z}$$

•
$$\Delta V_o = \Delta V_{dd} \frac{r_z}{R + r_z} = \pm 1 \times \frac{20}{500 + 20} = \pm 38.5 mV$$

• This indicates that $\pm 10\%$ change in $V_{dd} \rightarrow \pm 0.56\%$ change in V_0 .

