
Electronics B

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Outline

> Elements of circuit analysis

> Elements of semiconductor physics

- Semiconductor diodes and resistors
- The MOSFET and the MOSFET inverter/amplifier

> Op-amps



TODAY

Elements of semiconductor physics

- > Discrete molecules (e.g., hydrogen atom) have discrete energy levels that the electrons can occupy
 - Determined via quantum mechanics
- > Adding a *discrete* amount of energy to the electrons (via light, thermal energy, etc.) can excite an electron from its ground state to an excited state
- > Different atoms have different number of filled states
 - All the action typically happens at the highest unoccupied state
- > Two distinct molecules have identical and *independent* energy-level structures

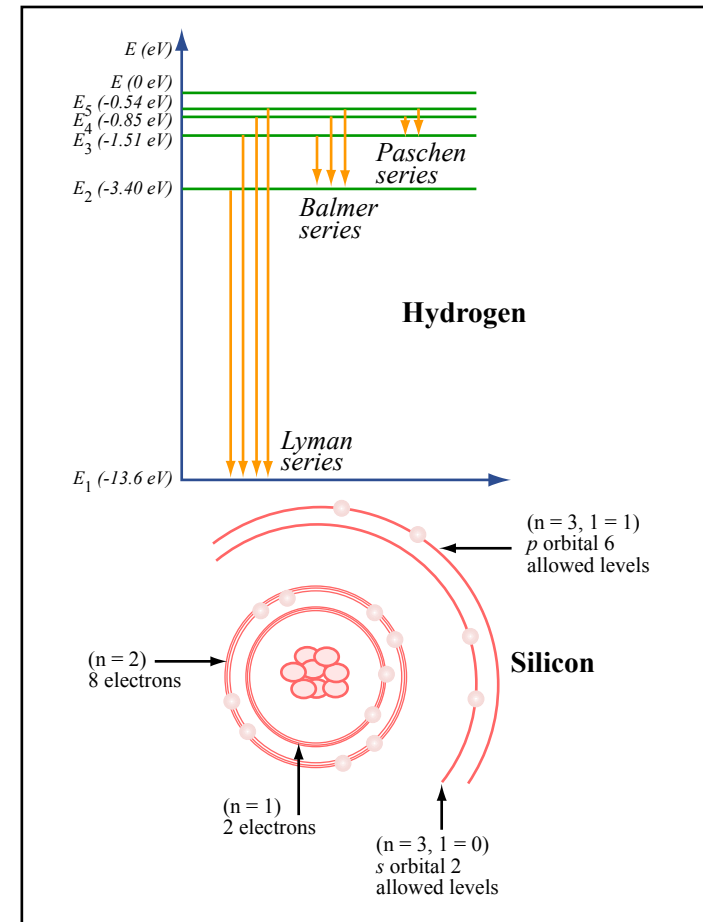


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Adapted from Figures 2.1 and 2.6 in Razeghi, M. *Fundamentals of Solid State Engineering*. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Springer, 2006, pp. 48 and 59. ISBN: 9780387281520.

Razeghi, *Fundamentals of Solid State Engineering*

Elements of semiconductor physics

- > Atoms packed into a lattice behave differently than discrete atoms
- > Their *discrete* energy levels coalesce into “continuous” energy *bands*
- > There may be many energy bands for the molecule
- > We don't care about the ones that are filled and inaccessible
- > We care about the highest one with electrons

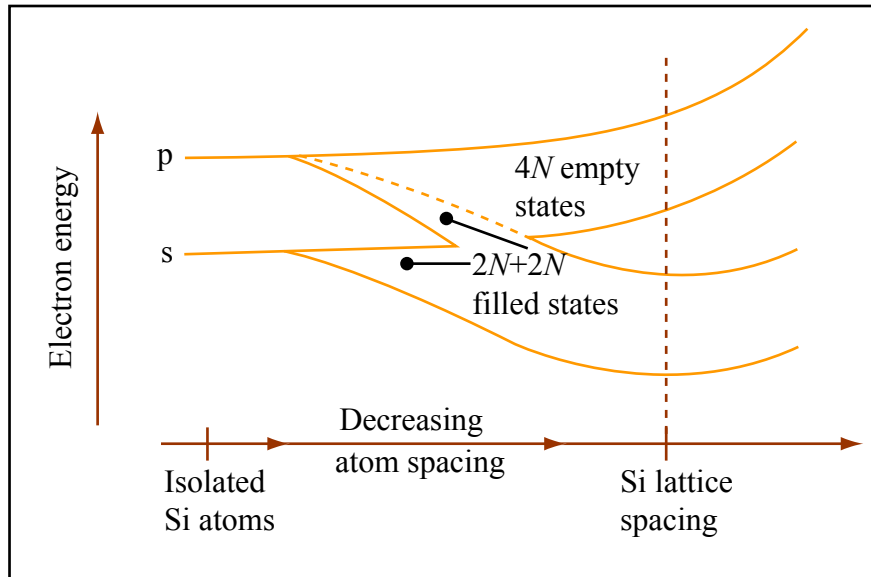


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Adapted from Figure 2.5 in: Pierret, Robert F. *Semiconductor Device Fundamentals*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996, p. 28. ISBN: 9780131784598.

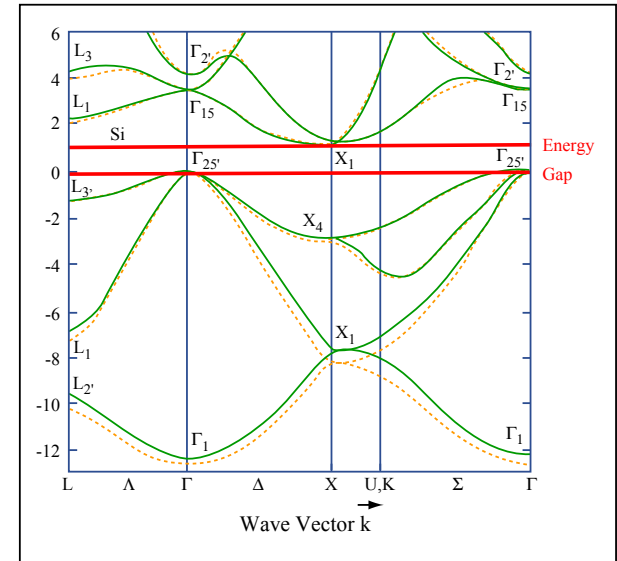


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Figure 1 on p. 559 in: Chelikowsky, J. R., and M. L. Cohen. "Nonlocal Pseudopotential Calculations for the Electronic Structure of Eleven Diamond and Zinc-blende Semiconductors." *Physical Review B* 14, no. 2 (July 1976): 556-582.

Razeghi, *Fundamentals of Solid State Engineering*

Elements of semiconductor physics

- > The highest normally filled set of electronic states is the valence band
- > The lowest normally empty set of electronic states is the conduction band
- > An energy gap separates these states
- > At $T=0$ K, all the valence band states are filled
- > A filled band cannot conduct electricity → This is an insulator

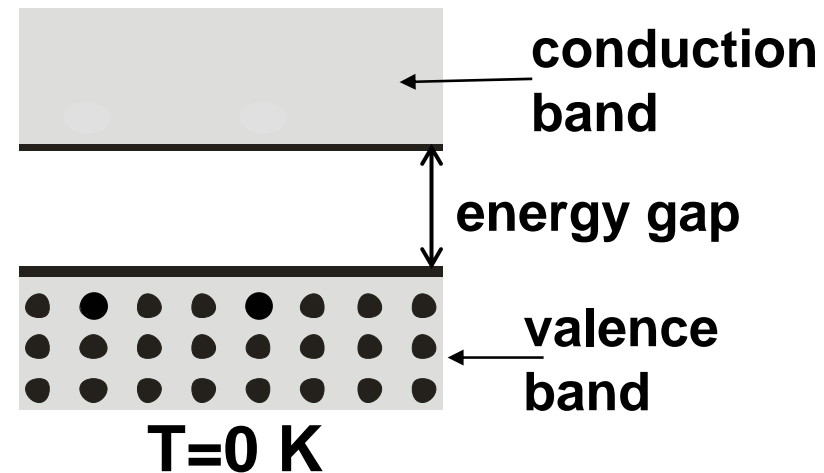
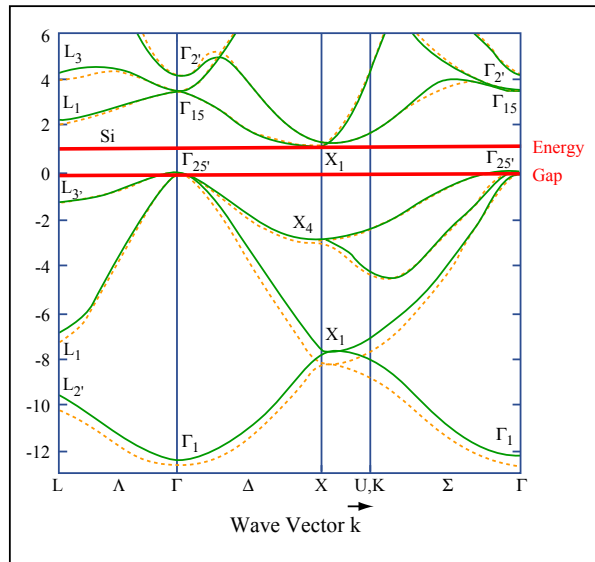


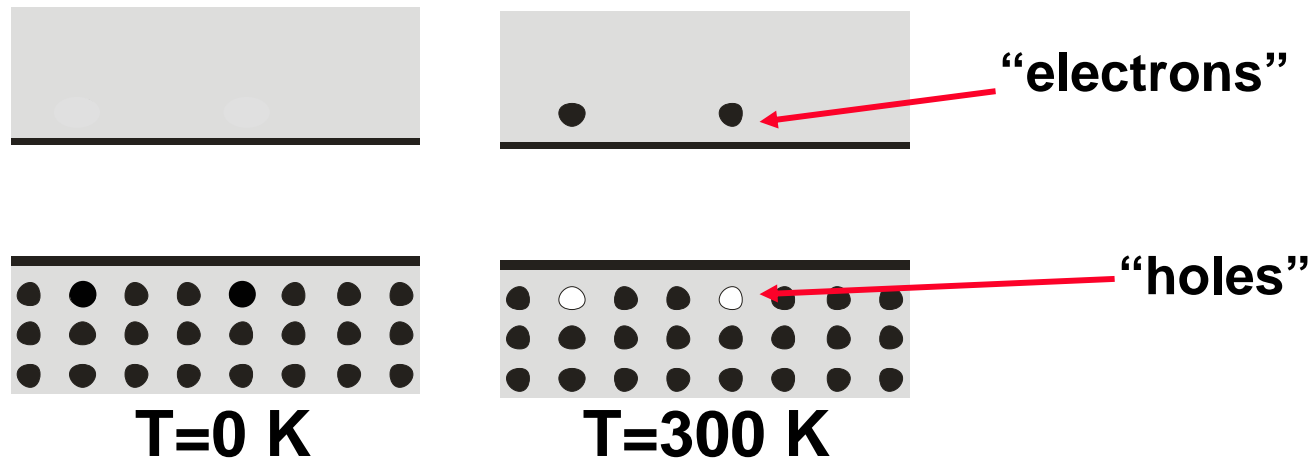
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Razeghi, *Fundamentals of Solid State Engineering*


Elements of semiconductor physics


- > $T > 0$ K, electrons have thermal energy ($\sim kT$)
- > At equilibrium, the only way for an electron to cross the energy barrier is to be thermally excited
- > The number of electrons that can do this is
 - increases with thermal energy (and thus T)
 - decreases with larger bandgap
- > The thermally excited electrons give rise to “electrons”
- > The resulting empty states in the valence band give rise to “holes”
 - Behave similar to “electrons” but with opposite charge and different mass



Key terminology

- > Energy gap E_G (1.1 eV in silicon at RT)
- > Si atom concentration = $5 \times 10^{22} / \text{cm}^3$
- > The number of carriers in intrinsic Si is related to
 - Probability distribution function of energies
 - » This obeys Fermi-Dirac statistics
 - Allowable states
- > $\sim 10^{-9}$ (prob of being filled) x $\sim 10^{19}$ (density of states) = $\sim 10^{10}$ (carriers)
- > n_i is the intrinsic carrier concentration
 - the equilibrium concentration of holes and electrons in the absence of dopants
 - $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ at RT
 - This is a material property
- > n is the concentration [$\#/\text{cm}^3$] of electrons
- > p is the concentration [$\#/\text{cm}^3$] of holes

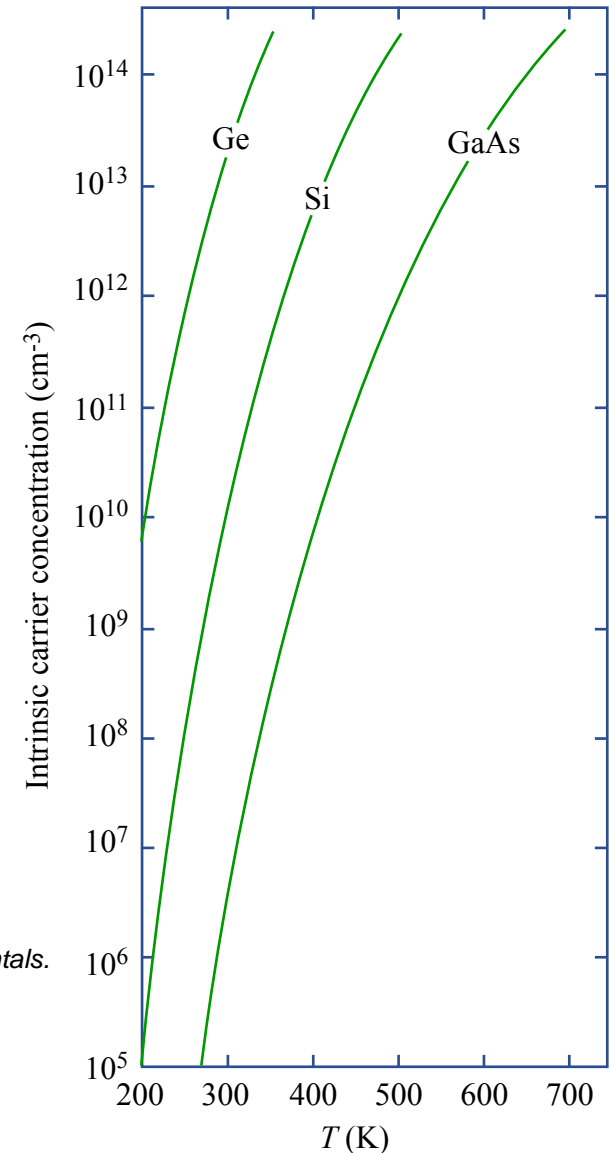

$$n_i \propto e^{-\frac{E_G}{2k_B T}}$$
$$n_i = p_i$$



Every thermally generated electron leaves behind a hole

Key terminology

> Intrinsic carrier concentration of Si, Ge, and GaAs



Adapted from Figure 2.20 in: Pierret, Robert F. *Semiconductor Device Fundamentals*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996, p. 54. ISBN: 9780131784598.

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Doped semiconductors

> Energy to ionize $\ll kT$ (at RT)

> We assume all dopants are ionized at RT

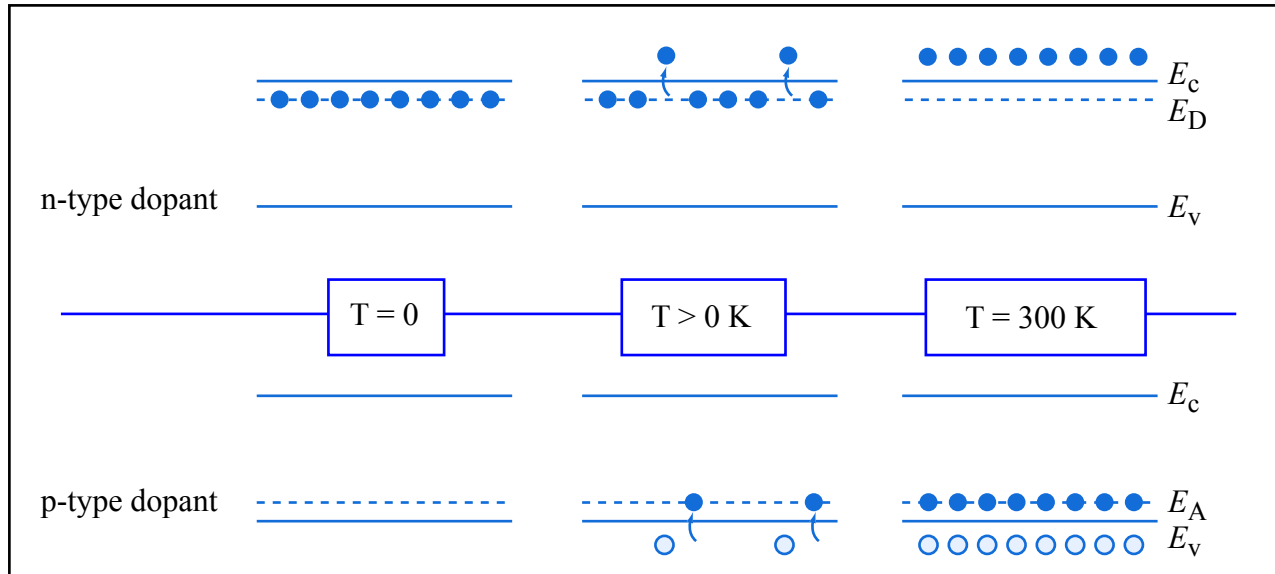
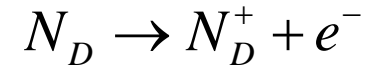


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Adapted from Figure 2.13 in: Pierret, Robert F. *Semiconductor Device Fundamentals*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996, p. 38. ISBN: 9780131784598.

Main results

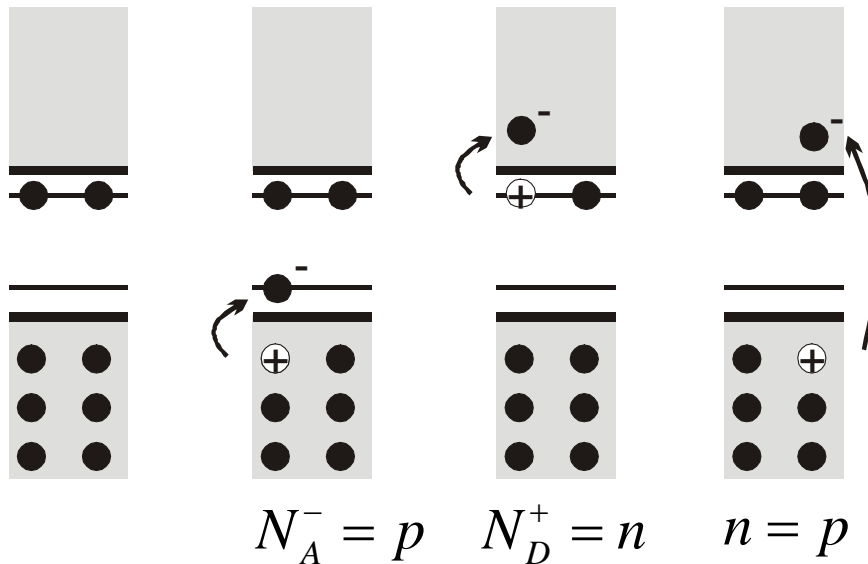
- > Donors or acceptors are fully ionized
- > Define n_0 and p_0 as the electron and hole concentrations at equilibrium
- > n_0 and p_0 follow a mass-action law



$$N_D \approx N_D^+$$

$$N_A \approx N_A^-$$

$$n_0 p_0 = n_i^2$$



Main results

> Overall, silicon is neutral

- Can use to determine n_0 and p_0

> Carrier concentrations typically vary over many orders of magnitude

- Can use this to simplify

> Ex:

- $n_i \sim 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- $N_A, N_D \sim 10^{16}\text{-}10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

> In a given material at equilibrium

- $N_A > 100N_D$ (p-type)
- $N_D > 100N_A$ (n-type)

Charge neutrality requires:

$$N_A^- + n_0 = N_D^+ + p_0$$

$$N_A + n_0 \approx N_D + p_0$$

For p-type material:

$$p_0 \approx N_A$$
$$n_0 = \frac{n_i^2}{p_0} = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A}$$

Main results

> Therefore, the equilibrium *majority* carrier concentration is determined by the net doping and the *minority* carrier concentration is determined by the $n_0 p_0$ product.

> For typical numbers, minority carrier concentration is *much less* majority carrier concentration

p-type

$$p_0 = N_A$$
$$n_0 = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A}$$

n-type

$$n_0 = N_D$$
$$p_0 = \frac{n_i^2}{N_D}$$

$$N_A \sim 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$p_0 = N_A = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$n_0 = \frac{n_i^2}{N_A} = \frac{(10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3})^2}{10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}} = 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Excess carriers

> We can do various things to create *excess carriers*

- Shine light
- Apply electric fields

> Excess carriers (n' , p') represent a departure from equilibrium

> Excess holes and electrons are created in pairs

> Excess carriers recombine exponentially in pairs, governed by lifetime

- The *minority* carrier lifetime

$$n' = n - n_0 \quad p' = p - p_0$$

Generally, $n' = p'$

Electron-hole pair (EHP)

Recombination rate

$$\frac{dn'}{dt} \propto -\frac{n'}{\tau_m}$$

$$n'(t) \sim n'(0)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_m}}$$

Excess carriers

- > GaAs w/ $N_A = p_0 = 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- > GaAs $n_i = 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- > Therefore, $n_0 = 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-3}$
- > Create 10^{14} EHP/cm^3 and calculate carrier concentrations over time

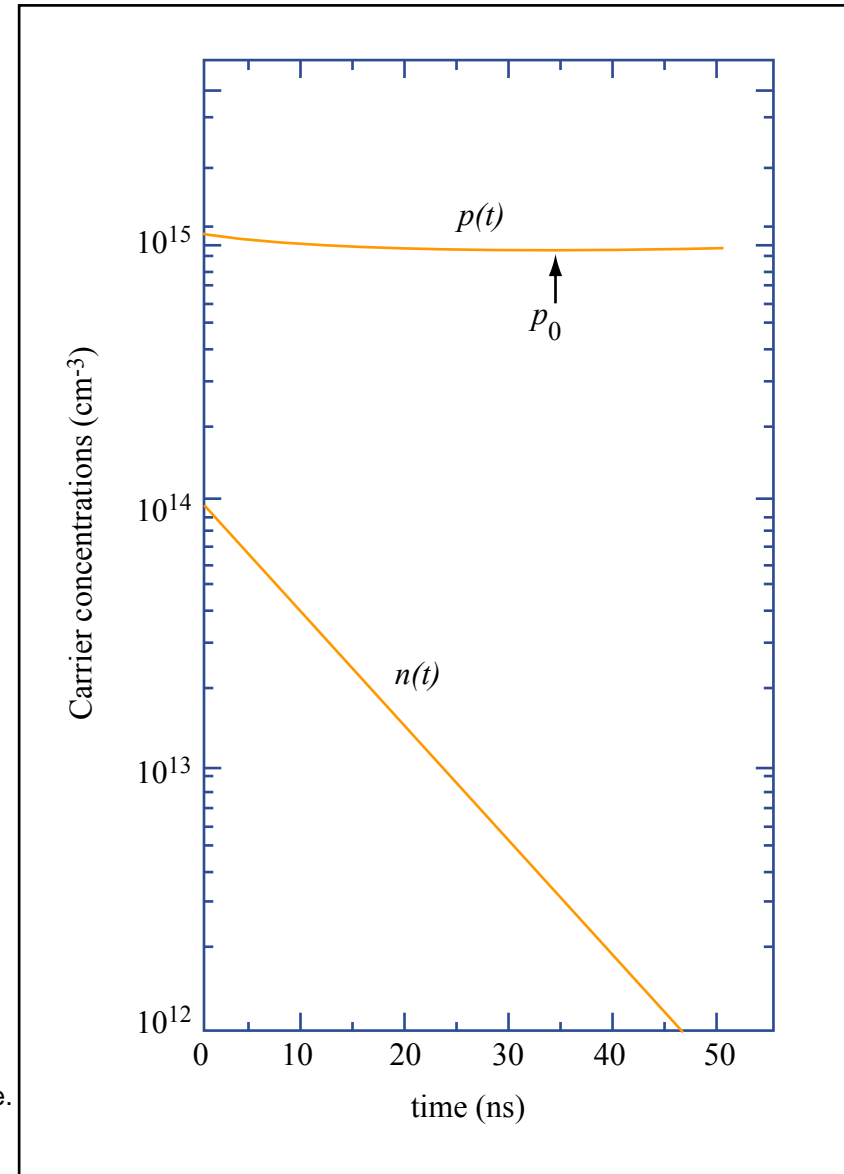


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Adapted from Figure 4.7 in: Streetman, Ben G., and Sanjay Kumar Banerjee.
Solid State Electronic Devices. 6th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson
Prentice Hall, 2006, p. 127. ISBN: 9780131497269.

Drift and diffusion of carriers

- > Carriers in semiconductors obey a drift/diffusion flux relation
- > Drift: carriers move in an electric field
- > Diffusion: carriers move in a concentration gradient
- > For p-type material
 - n is small \rightarrow drift current is small
 - ∇n can be big \rightarrow diffusion current dominates

$$\mathbf{J}_n = q_e \left(\mu_n n \mathbf{E} + D_n \nabla n \right)$$

Electric field [V/cm] \swarrow

drift \searrow diffusion

Mobility [$\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$] \swarrow Diffusivity [cm^2/s]

Carrier concentration [cm^{-3}] \swarrow

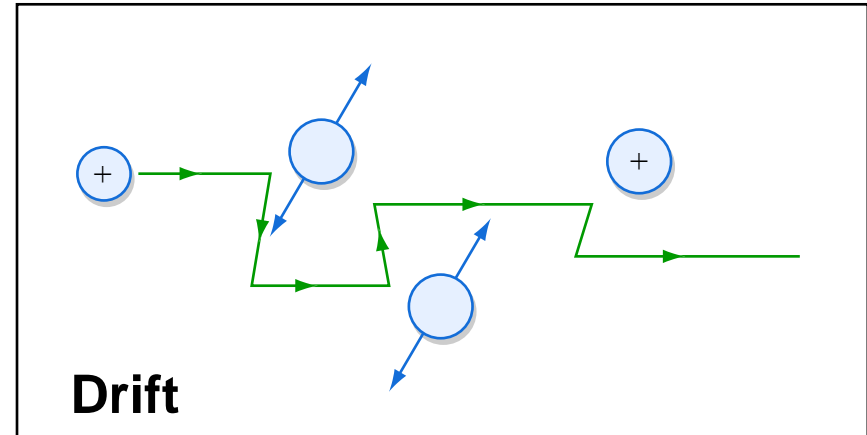


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Figure 3.1b) in: Pierret, Robert F. *Semiconductor Device Fundamentals*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996, p. 76. ISBN: 9780131784598.

Outline

- > Elements of circuit analysis
- > Elements of semiconductor physics
- > **Semiconductor diodes and resistors**
- > **The MOSFET and the MOSFET inverter/amplifier**
- > **Op-amps**

The semiconductor diode

- > A p-n junction has very different concentrations of carriers in the two regions, creating a diffusive driving force
- > At equilibrium diffusive driving force = electric field in the vicinity of the junction
- > In order to set up this electric field, the ionized donors and acceptors are relatively depleted of mobile carriers near the junction – the space-charge layer (SCL) or depletion region

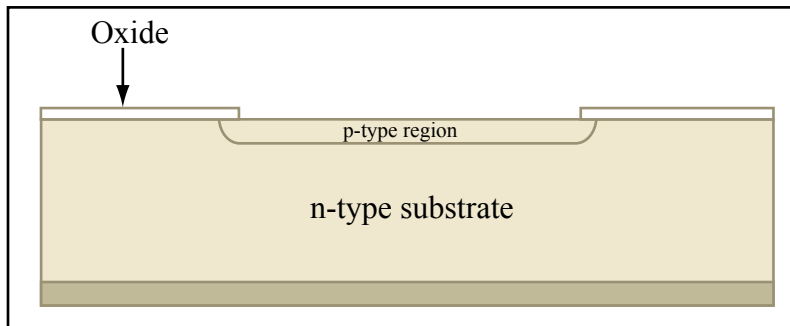
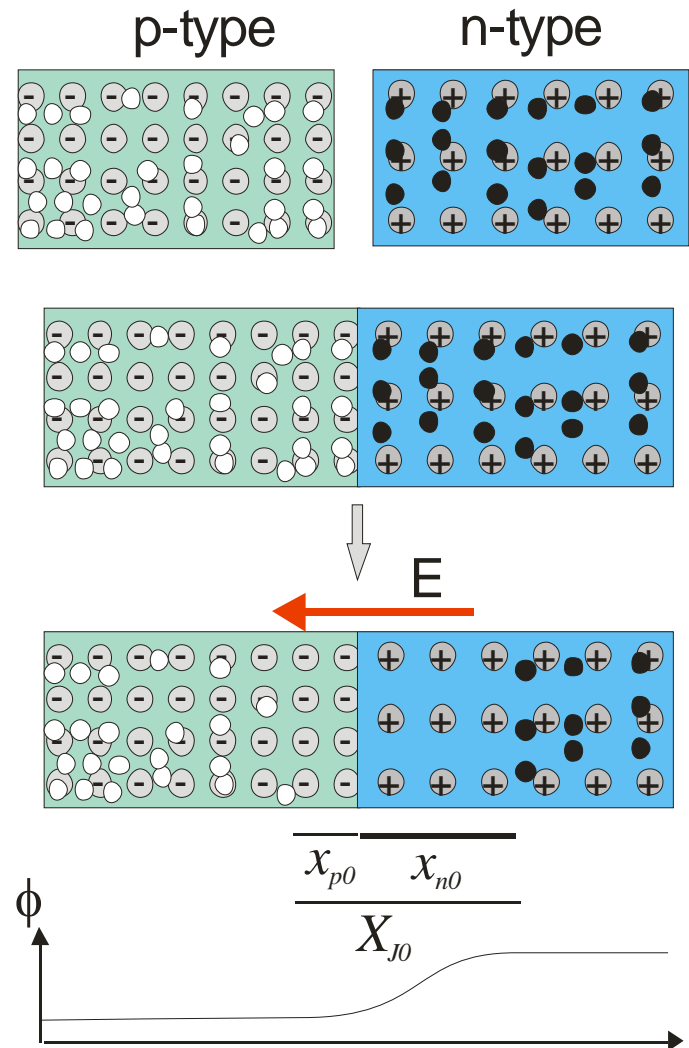


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Adapted from Figure 14.1 in: Senturia Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 357. ISBN: 9780792372462.

The exponential diode

- > An external voltage modifies the net potential drop across the space charge layer
- > Forward bias reduces the barrier to diffusion, leading to an increase in current
- > Reverse bias increases the barrier, so only current is due to minority carriers generated in or near the space-charge layer

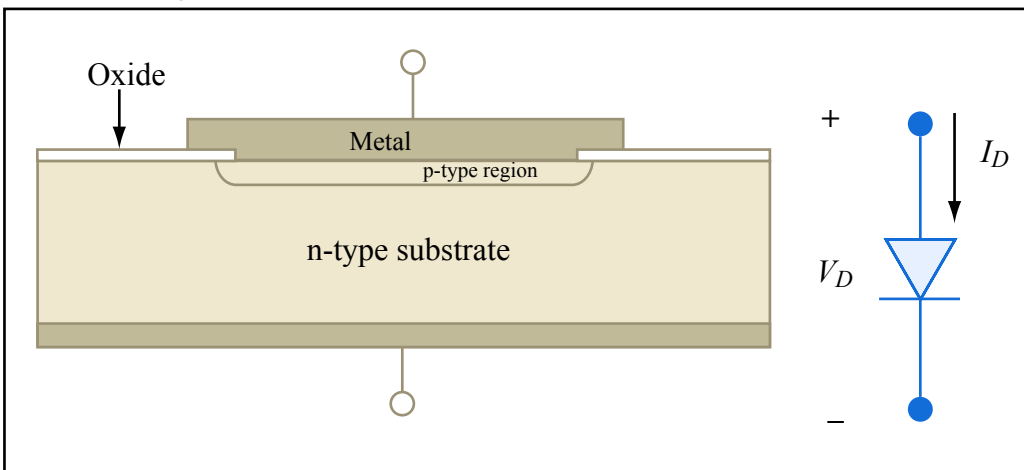


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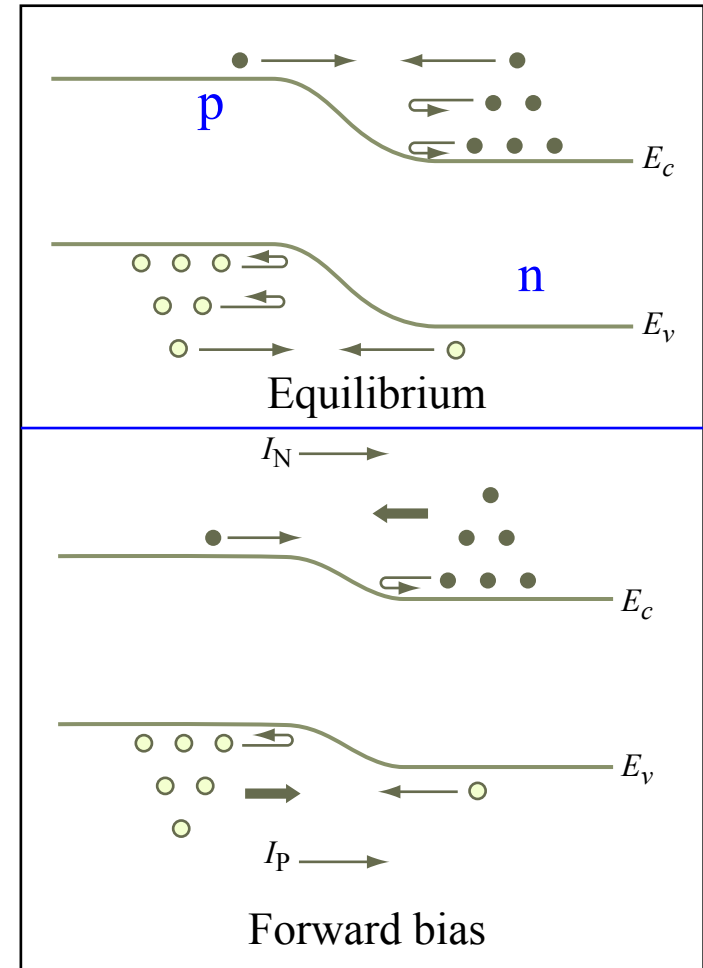


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Adapted from Figure 6.1 in: Pierret, Robert F. *Semiconductor Device Fundamentals*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996, p. 236. ISBN: 9780131784598.

Ideal Exponential Diode Analysis

- > **Linear** changes in voltage lead to **exponential** changes in carrier concentrations

The total current is

$$I_D = I_0 \left(e^{\frac{q_e V_D}{k_B T}} - 1 \right)$$

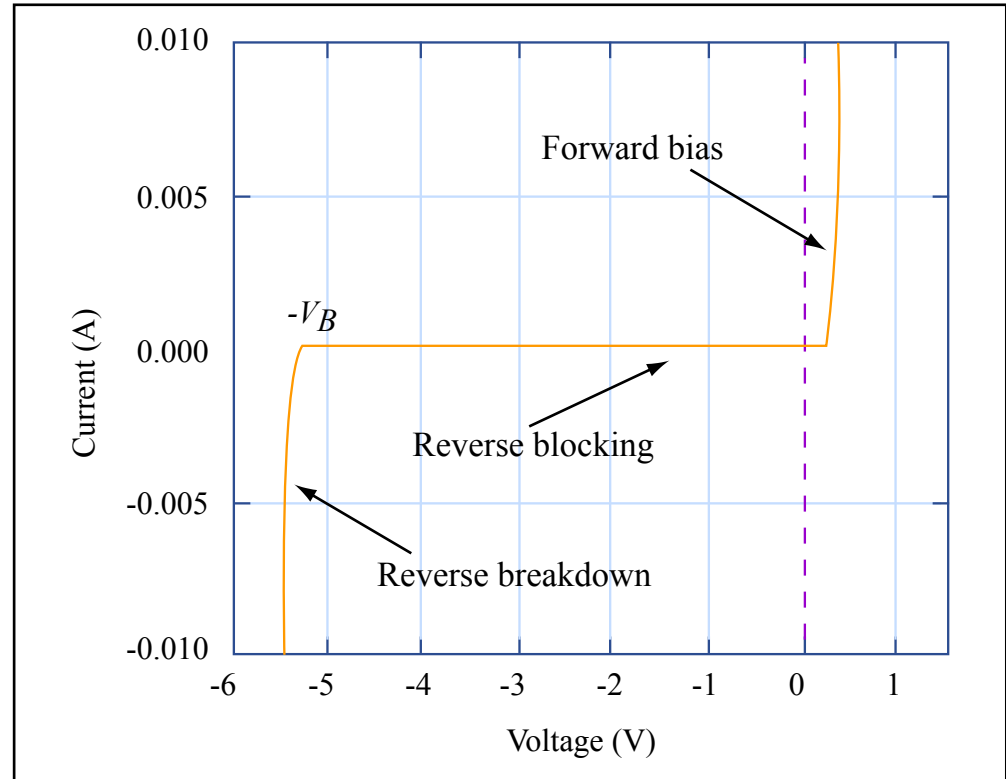


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Adapted from Figure 14.3 in: Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 360. ISBN: 9780792372462.

The Junction-Isolated Diffused Resistor

- > The structure is a diode, but with two contacts
- > The diode action prevents currents into the substrate provided the diode is always reverse biased
- > The conductivity is controlled by doping
- > The resistor value is determined by geometry

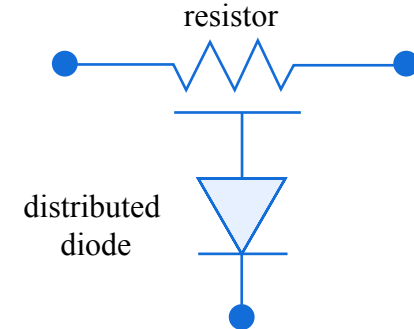
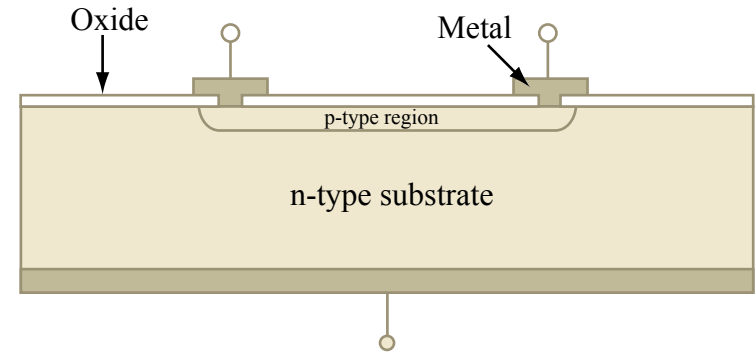
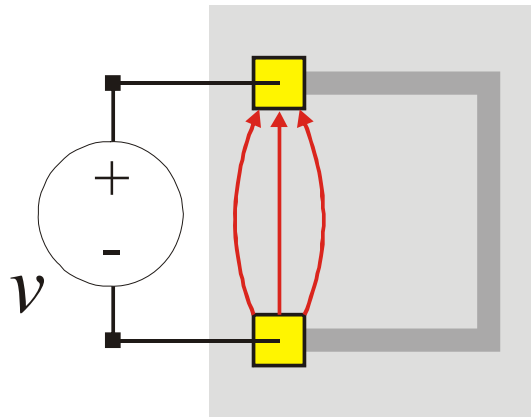
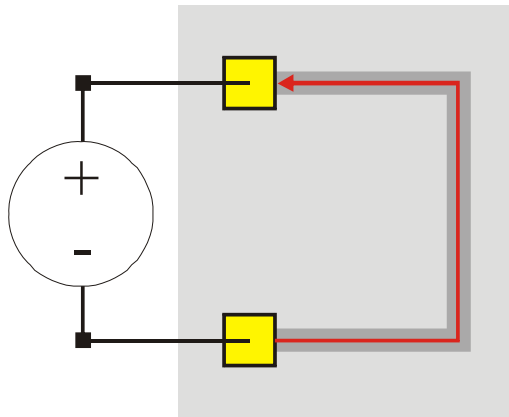


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Adapted from Figure 14.7 in: Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 363. ISBN: 9780792372462.

desired

undesired



Outline

- > Elements of circuit analysis
- > Elements of semiconductor physics
- > Semiconductor diodes and resistors
- > **The MOSFET and the MOSFET inverter/amplifier**
- > Op-amps

MOSFET Structure

- > The MOSFET exploits the concept of a field-induced junction
- > The electric field between the gate and the channel region of the substrate can either increase the surface concentration (accumulation) or deplete the surface and eventually invert the surface

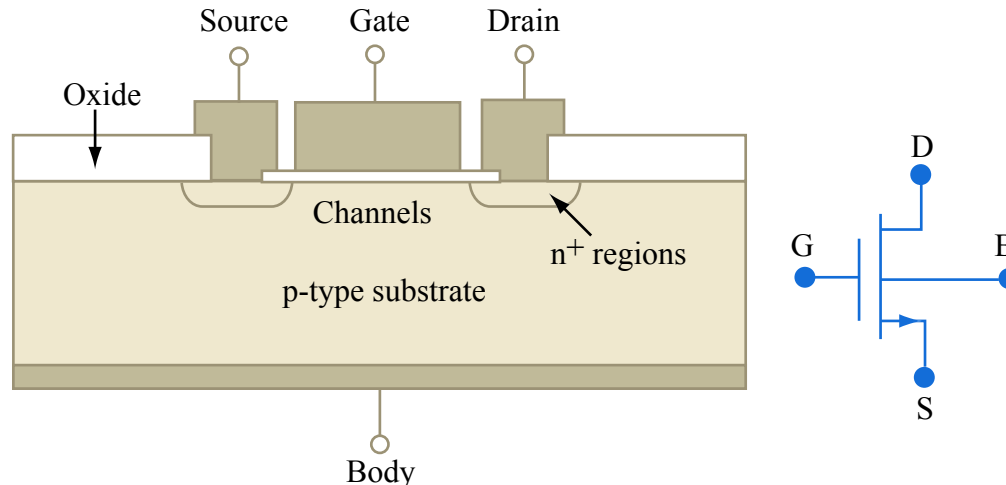
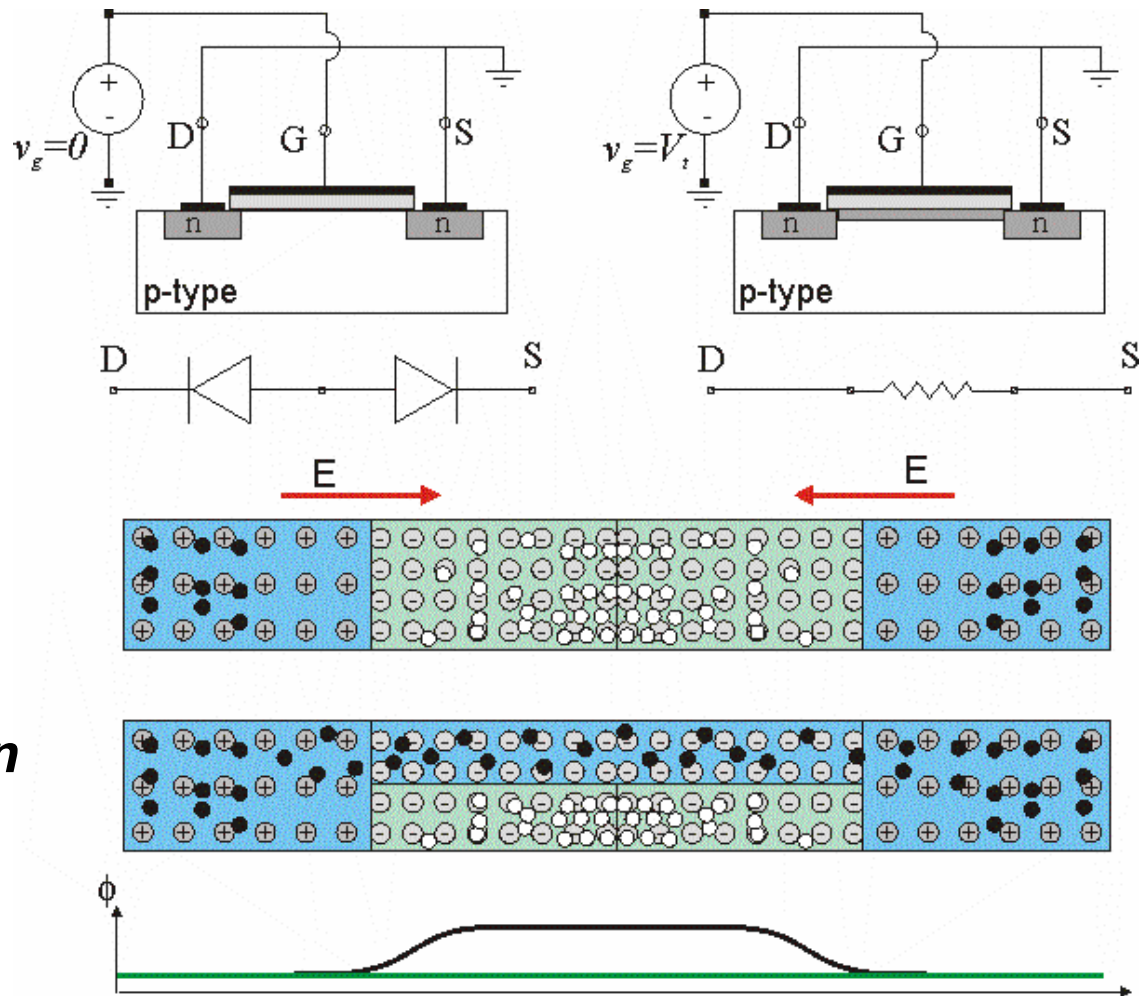


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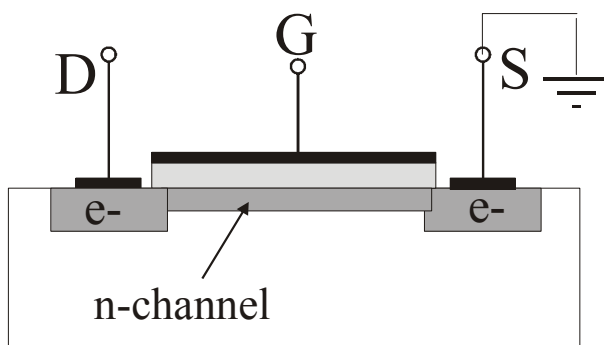
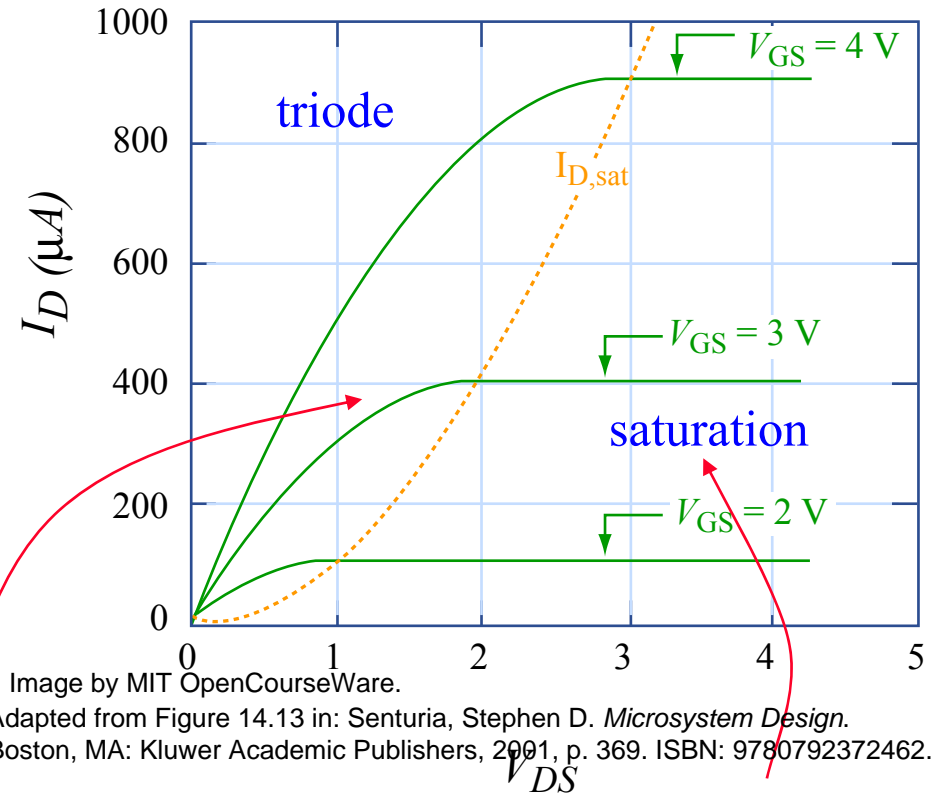
MOSFET qualitative operation

- > With D & S grounded, back-to-back diodes prevent current flow between D & S
- > To reduce barrier, apply positive voltage to G (w.r.t. D & S)
- > At some *threshold voltage*, this will form an *n-channel inversion layer* that will connect D & S

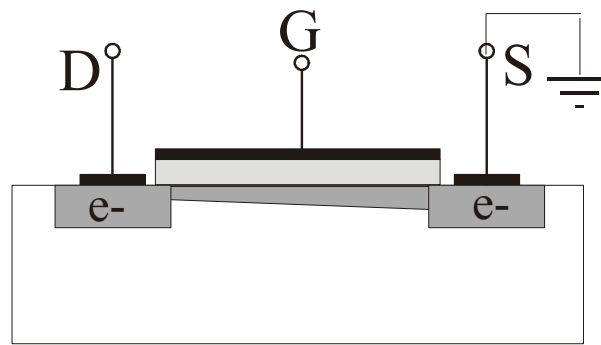


MOSFET Characteristics

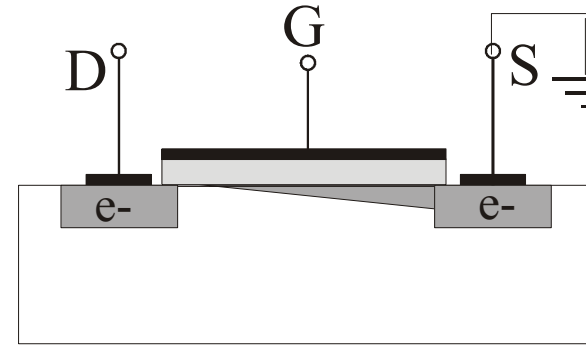
- > Need $V_{GS} > V_T$ for device to turn on
- > As V_{DS} increases, current will flow between D & S
- > As V_{DS} increases, voltage between G and D decreases
- > When V_{DS} gets too big, one side of channel *pinches off*, preventing further increases in current



$$V_{DS} = 0$$



$$V_{DS} > 0$$



$$V_{DS} > V_{GS} - V_T$$

Different kinds of MOSFETs

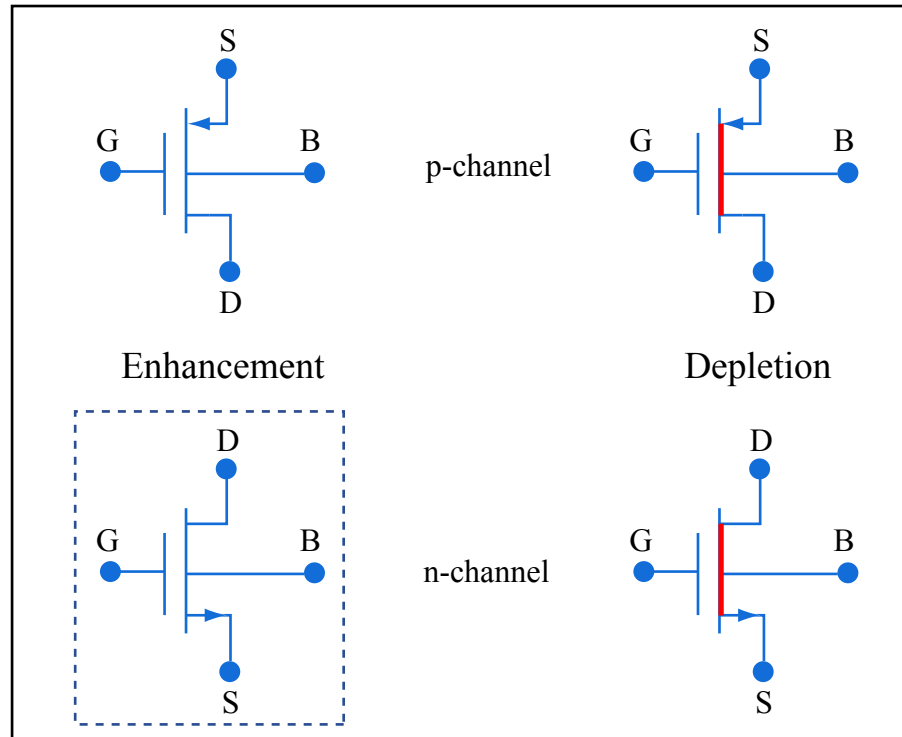
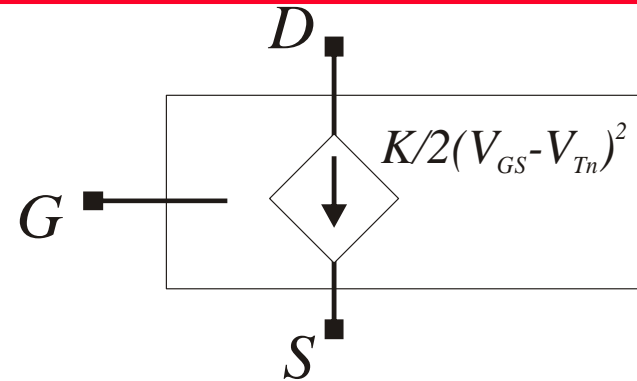


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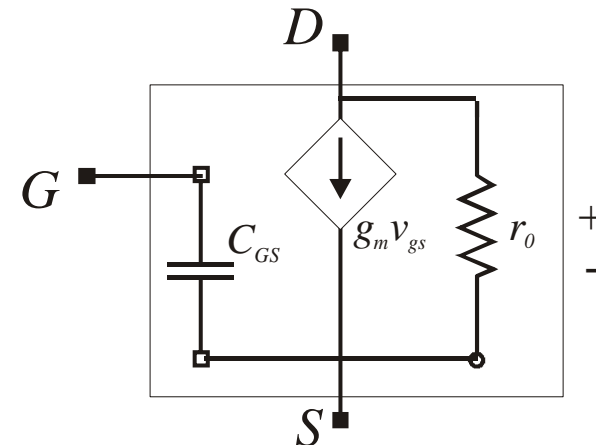
Adapted from Figure 14.11 in: Senturia, Sephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 367. ISBN: 9780792372462.

Large-signal and small-signal MOSFET models

- > Electrical engineers use circuit models to analyze circuits involving MOSFETS
- > Can use either full nonlinear characteristics
- > Or linearized small-signal model
 - Different models include different components



Simple large-signal model, in saturation



Simple small-signal model, in saturation

Outline

> Elements of circuit analysis

> Elements of semiconductor physics

- Semiconductor diodes and resistors
- The MOSFET and the MOSFET inverter/amplifier

> Op-amps

Operational Amplifiers – op-amps

- > Let someone else design a high-performance amplifier
- > Basic structure and transfer characteristic

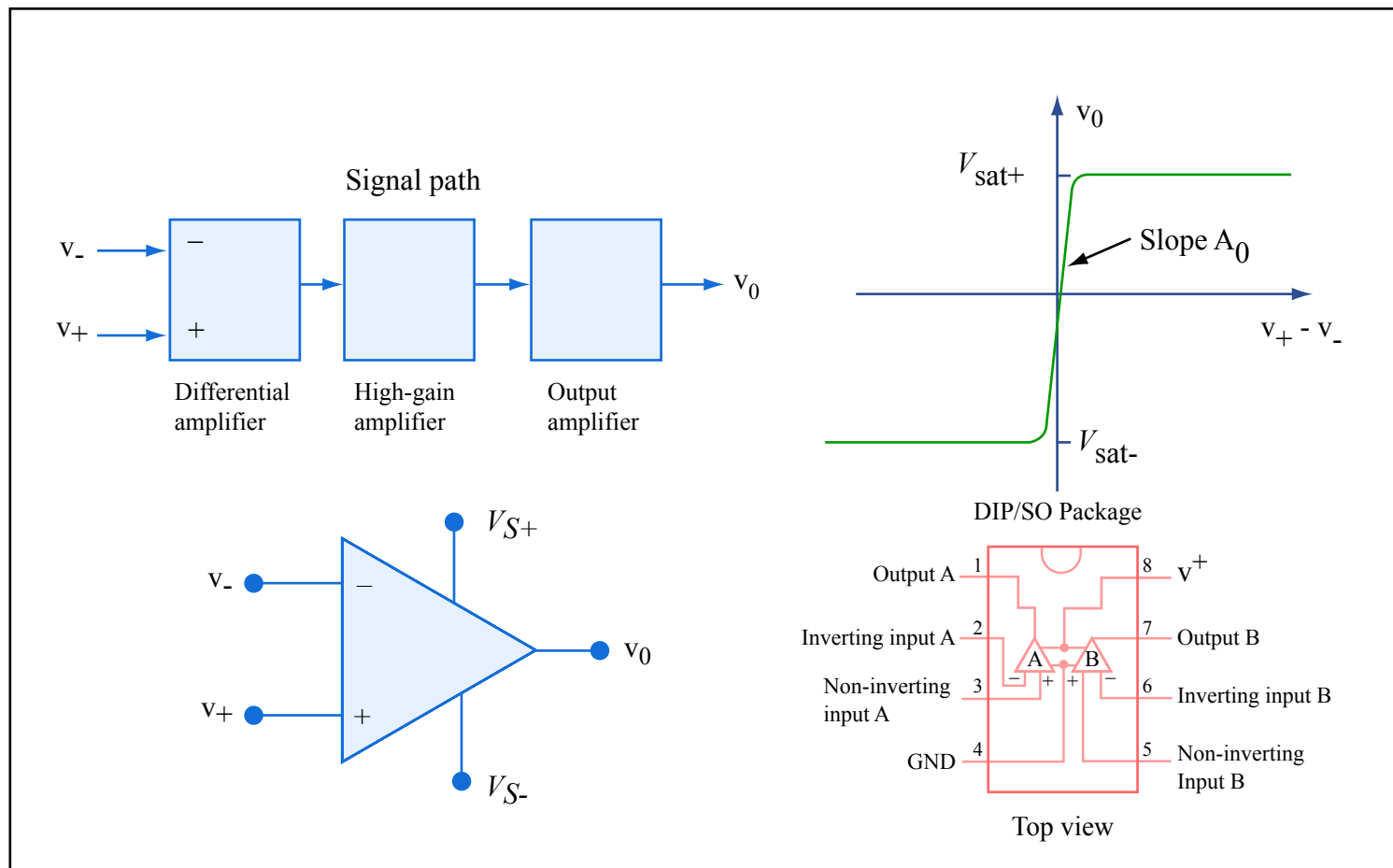


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Adapted from Figures 14.23 and 14.24 in Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 382. ISBN: 9780792372462.

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Ideal and non-ideal behavior

- > We do first analysis using ideal linear model
- > Op-amp data sheets have pages and pages of limitations
- > A sampling
 - Input offset voltage v_{off} : zero volts at input gives non-zero output
 - Frequency limitations: op-amps can only amplify up to a maximum frequency

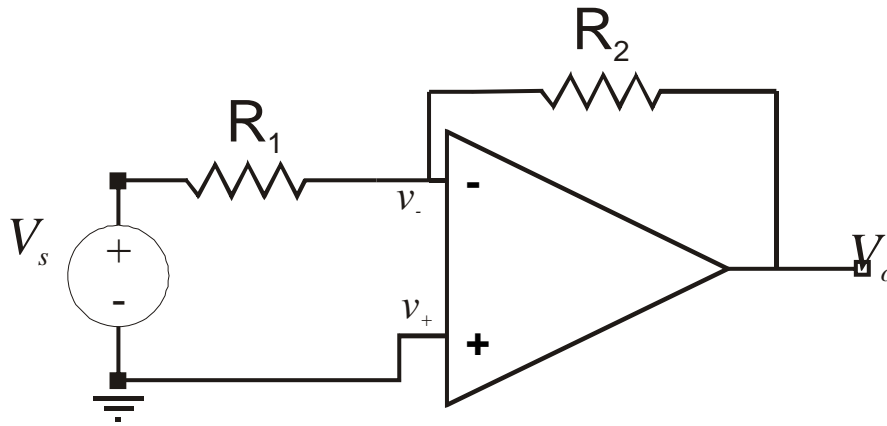
$$v_0(s) = A(s)(v_+(s) - v_-(s))$$

where

$$A(s) = \frac{A_0 s_0}{s + s_0}$$

The Inverting Amplifier

Assume op-amp draws no current



Use Nodal analysis:

$$\text{KCL: } \frac{V_s - v_-}{R_1} = \frac{v_- - V_o}{R_2}$$

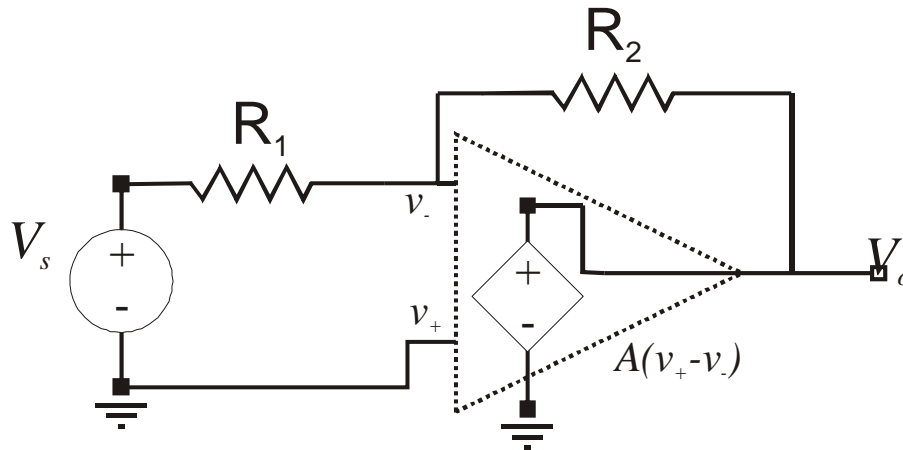
$$\Downarrow V_o = A(0 - v_-)$$

\Downarrow

$$\frac{V_o}{V_s} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1} \left[\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{A} \left(1 + \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)} \right]$$

$$\Downarrow A \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\boxed{\frac{V_o}{V_s} = -\frac{R_2}{R_1}}$$



Short method for analyzing op-amps

- > Assume linear region operation**
 - This implies that the two inputs are essentially at the same voltage (but never exactly equal)
- > Assume zero currents at both inputs**
- > Analyze the external circuit with these constraints**
- > Check to verify that the output is not at either saturation limit ($\pm V_S$)**

More op-amp configurations

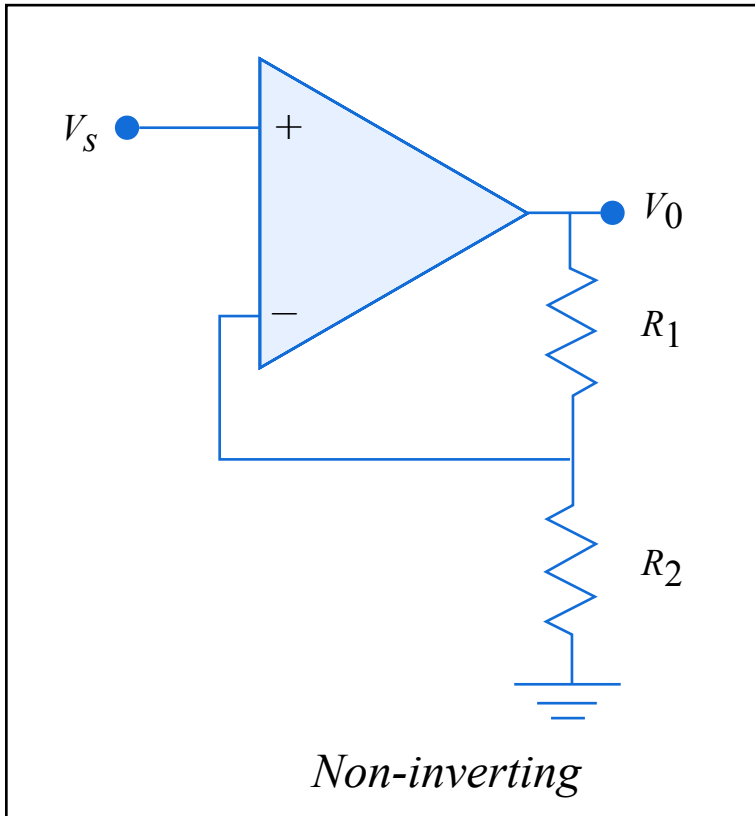


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Adapted from Figure 14.28 in Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*.
Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 388. ISBN: 9780792372462.

$$v_- = v_+ = V_S$$

$$V_S = V_0 \frac{R_2}{R_2 + R_1}$$

$$\frac{V_0}{V_S} = 1 + \frac{R_1}{R_2}$$

More op-amp configurations

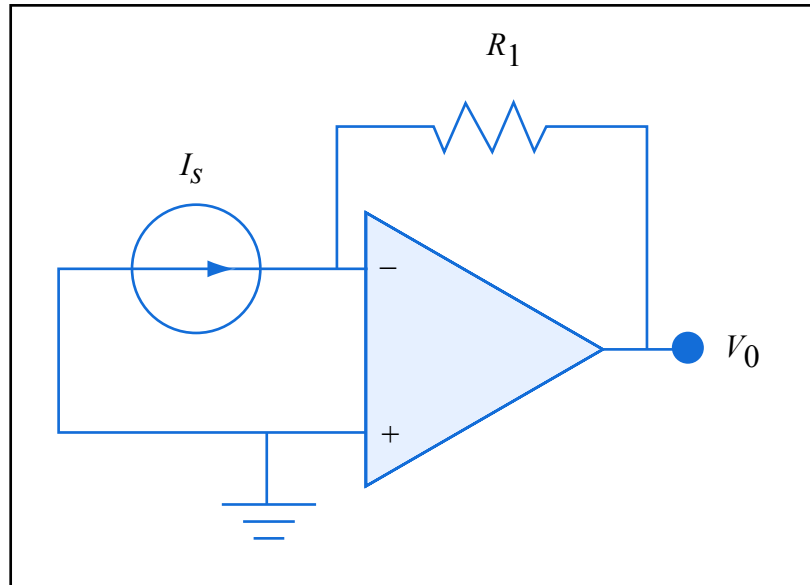


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Adapted from Figure 14.29 in Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*.
Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 389. ISBN: 9780792372462.

Transimpedance amplifier

$$V_0 = -R_1 I_S$$

Integrator

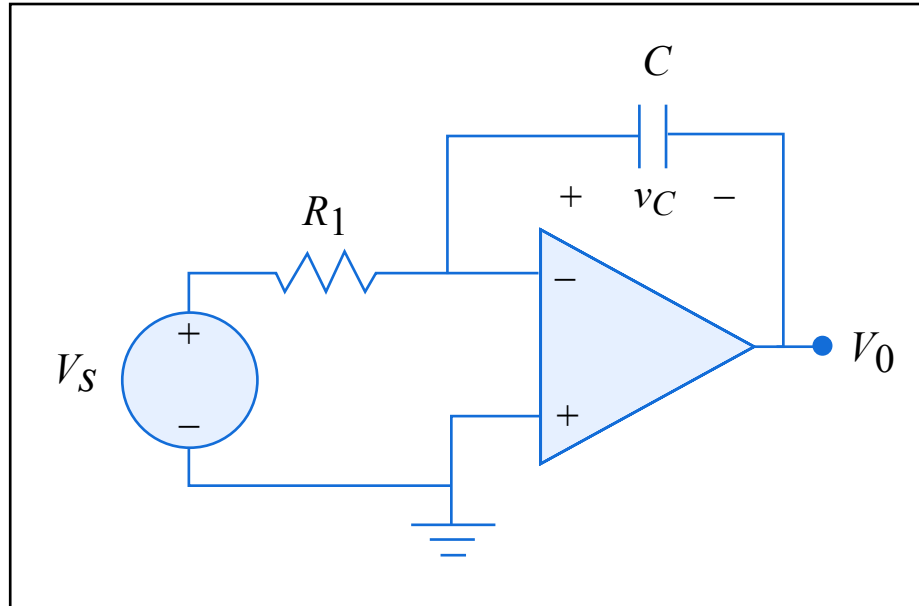


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Adapted from Figure 14.30 in Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 389. ISBN: 9780792372462.

$$V_0 = -\frac{1}{R_1 C} \int V_s(t) dt$$

Differentiator

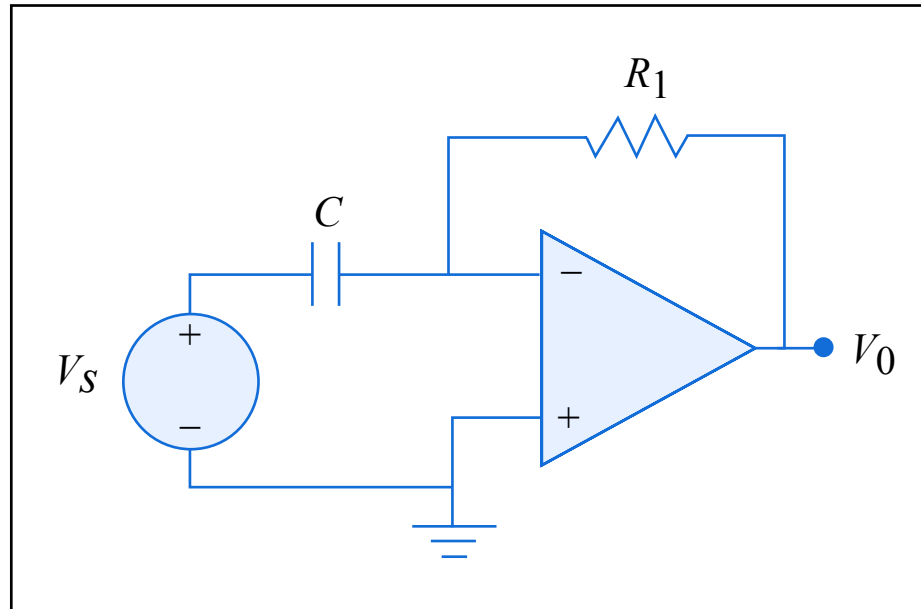


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Adapted from Figure 14.31 in Senturia, Stephen D. *Microsystem Design*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2001, p. 390. ISBN: 9780792372462.

The differentiator is less "ideal"

$$\frac{V_s}{1/sC} = \frac{0 - V_0}{R_1}$$
$$\frac{V_0}{V_s} = -sR_1C$$