



**GATE / PSU's**

**ELECTRONICS  
ENGINEERING-ECE**

**STUDY MATERIAL**

**SEMICONDUCTOR MATERIAL & DEVICES**



# **ELECTRONICS ENGINEERING**

## **GATE & PSUs**

### **STUDY MATERIAL**

#### **SEMICONDUCTOR MATERIAL & DEVICES**

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# CHAPTER-1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1) Thermal Voltage ( $V_T$ )

It represents “temperature in terms of voltage”.

$$V_T = \frac{\bar{K}T}{q} \text{ Volt} \quad \bar{K}, = \text{Boltzmann constant}$$

$$\bar{k} = kq$$

$$q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

$$K = 8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/}^\circ\text{K}$$

Boltzmann constant is ratio of universal gas constant to Avogadro's number

$$\therefore K = \frac{8.314}{6.022 \times 10^{23}} \text{ J/}^\circ\text{K} = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/}^\circ\text{K}$$

$$\therefore 1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J.} \quad \therefore K = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/}^\circ\text{K} = 8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/}^\circ\text{K}$$

$$V_T = KT = \frac{T}{11600} \text{ Volt.}$$

At room temperature  $T = 300 \text{ K}$

$$V_T \text{ at room temperature } V_T = \frac{300}{11600} = 0.256 \text{ Volt.}$$

$$V_T = 26 \text{ mV}$$

### 2) Standard Temperature

- (i) Absolute Temperature  $0^\circ \text{ K} = -273^\circ \text{ C}$
- (ii) Room Temperature  $300^\circ \text{ K} = 27^\circ \text{ C}$
- (iii) Ambient Temperature  $T_A 290^\circ \text{ K} = 17^\circ \text{ C}$

### Key Points :

- Temperature in  $^\circ\text{C} = \text{Temperature in } ^\circ\text{K} - 273$
- Temperature in  $^\circ\text{K} = \text{Temperature in } ^\circ\text{C} + 273$

### 3) Electron Voltage (Ev)

*Electron Volt: Unit of Energy*

For energies involved in electron devices, ‘joule’ is too large a unit. Such small energies are conveniently measured in electron volt, abbreviated as eV. The electron volt is the kinetic energy gained by an electron, initially at rest, in moving through a potential difference of 1 volt. Since  $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

1 eV is defined as the energy gain by the electron in moving through a potential difference of 1 volt. It is the unit of ‘Energy’

$$1 \text{ eV} = |q| \times p_d$$

$$= 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C} \times 1 \text{ volt} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{J}$$

#### 4) Leakage Current ( $I_0$ )

This current is generated only due to temperature variation.

$$I_{o(T_2)} = I_{o(T_1)} 2^{\left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{10}\right]}$$

It is also called minority carrier current or Reverse saturation current or thermally generated current.

**Advantages:** The Si has small leakage current *i.e.* Si has small  $I_0$

$$I_o = \eta_A^{Si, Ge} \mu_A$$

→  $I_0$  doubles for every  $10^\circ$  rise in temperature.

Alternatively, we can say that  $I_0$  increases by 7% for every  $1^\circ\text{C}$  (or  $1^\circ\text{K}$ ) rise in temperature.

#### 5) Current (I)

Rate of change of charge carriers.  $i = \frac{dq}{dt}$  Ampere.

→ In a Semiconductor current is carried by both  $e^-$  and holes.

→ In Semiconductor there are two types of current.

i) Drift Current                      ii) Diffusion Current

(i) **Drift Current:** The steady flow of  $e^-$  in one direction caused by applied electric field constitutes an electric current, called the 'Drift Current'.

**OR**

→ It is the current due to Potential Gradient.

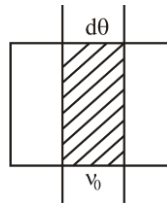
(ii) **Diffusion Current:** It is the current due to concentration gradient.

#### 6) Current Density (J)

Current density is a measure of the density of an electric current flowing through a solid per unit area.

Current density is a vector which points in the direction of current flow.

$$\vec{J} \Rightarrow |\vec{J}| = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{\text{Current}}{\text{Area}} \left( \frac{\text{A}}{\text{m}^2} \right) = \frac{d\theta}{dt \times A}$$



$\frac{d\theta}{dt}$  = Number of charge carrier flow in 1 second at a point.

$$d\theta = \rho \times A \times V_d$$

Let the energy above the Fermi energy  $E_F$

be  $E_1$  Then  $\Delta E = E_1$

$\Delta E_F$ , and the probability of occupancy  $f(E_1)$  of the level  $E_1$

is given by the FD distribution function, i.e.

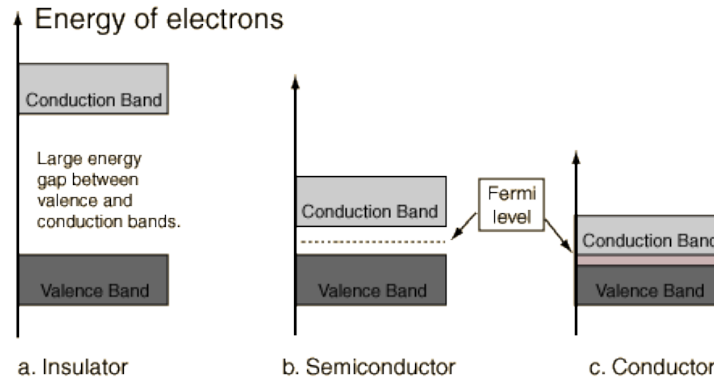
$$J = nq V_d = nq \mu_E$$

$$\underbrace{J = \sigma E}_{\text{Ohm's law in Point form}} \quad \text{Where } \sigma = nq \mu$$

Ohm's law in Point form.

Where  $\sigma$  = Conductivity

## 7) Energy Band in Solid



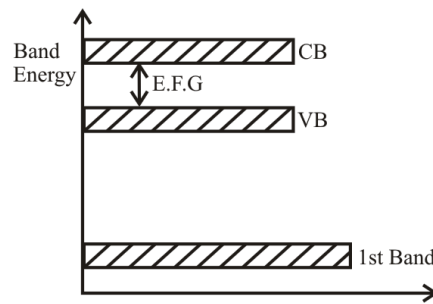
The range of energies possessed by an  $e^-$  in a solid is known as “Energy Band”

1) **Valence Band:** The range of energy possessed by in band  $e^-$  is known as “Valence Band”.

They are not free to conduct, thus, no contribution to conduction.

2) **Conduction Band:** In certain material the valence  $e^-$  are loosely attached to the nucleus some valence electron may get detached to become free  $e^-$  which are responsible for the conduction of current in a conductor, they are called conduction  $e^-$ . The range of energies possessed by conduction  $e^-$  is known as conduction band. The  $e^-$  in the conduction band are free  $e^-$ .

**3) Forbidden Energy Gap:** The difference in energy between C.B. and V.B. in the energy band diagram is known as F.E.G.



→ No electron can stay in the forbidden energy gap.

Typical values of the energy gap:

	0K	300K
Ge	0.785 ev	0.72 ev
Si	1.21 ev	1.1 ev

Energy gap decreases linearly with temperature

$$E_g(T) \cong E_g(T) - 3.46 \times 10^{-4} T$$

**Key Point:** Free  $e^-$  exist only in conduction band and holes exist only in V.B.

**Effect of Temperature:** Due to thermal energy electron jumps from V.B. to C.B. and gets free.

→ When temperature increases then carrier concentration also increase and both  $\bar{e}$  & holes (C.B.) decrease.

Then the conductivity  $\uparrow$  and Band gap  $\downarrow$

## 8) Classification of Solids According to the BAND GAP

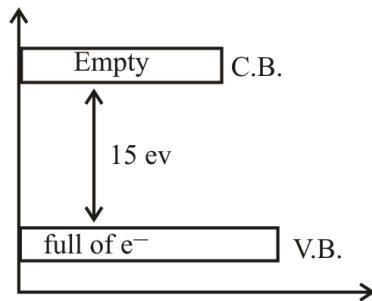
### i) Insulator :

*An insulator, also called a dielectric or non-conductor, is a material that resists the flow of electric current.*

An electrical insulator is a material whose internal electric charges do not flow freely, and which therefore does not conduct an electric current, under the influence of an electric field. A perfect insulator does not exist, but some materials such as glass, paper and Teflon, which have high resistivity, are very good electrical insulators. Examples include rubber-like polymers and most plastics.

*An insulating material used in bulk to wrap electrical cables or other equipment is called insulation.*

The valance band is full of  $e^-$  while the conduction band is empty and the energy gap between V.B. and C.B is very large i.e. 15 ev.



**For Insulator:** Temperature (Increases)  $\rightarrow$  Resistance (Decreases) : Negative temperature of resistance coefficient.

At room temperature it behaves as a perfect insulator. The resistance of the insulator decrease with increase in temperature so insulators have negative temperature Co-efficient of resistance.

#### Some insulating / non-conducting materials

- Plastics and solidified resins
- Rubber and Silicones
- Glass and ceramics
- Most metal oxides
- Most minerals and crystals
- cold, un-ionized gases (including Air)
- Oil
- Vacuum
- Water, if purified and de-ionized
- The depletion zone within a semiconductor
- asphalt
- fiberglass
- porcelain
- ceramic
- quartz
- (dry) cotton
- (dry) paper
- (dry) wood
- plastic
- diamond

#### Application :

- Insulators are commonly used as a flexible coating on electric wire and cable. Since air is a non-conductor, no other substance is needed to "keep the electricity within the wires".





**9) DOPING :**

It is the process of adding impurity to the pure semiconductors according to our requirements.

Impurities change the conductivity of the material so that it can be fabricated into a device.

- Group V impurities are called **Donors**, since they “donate” electrons into the Conduction Band.
  - *Semiconductors doped by donors are called n-type semiconductors.*
- **Acceptor energy levels**
  - Ge: 10 meV
  - Si: 45 – 160 meV
  - GaAs: 25 – 30 meV
  - ZnSe: 80 – 114 meV
  - GaN: 200 – 400 meV
- Acceptor and donor impurity levels are often called **ionization energies** or **activation energies**

**If both types of impurities are present :**

If the total concentration of donors ( $N_D$ ) is larger than the total concentration of acceptors ( $N_A$ ) have an **n-type semiconductor**, in the opposite case we have a **p-type semiconductor**

There are two types of Dopants.

i) **Trivalent impurities:** It is also called acceptor type impurities.

**Example:** Boron, Aluminum, Gallium, Indium, Telenium for P type.

ii) **Pentavalent impurities:** It is also called Donor type impurities.

**Example:** Bismuth, Phosphor, Arsenic, Antimony for N type.

**Charge Neutrality Equation :**

To calculate the charge concentration, the charge neutrality condition is used, since the net charge in a uniformly doped semiconductor is zero

Otherwise, there will be a net flow of charge from one point to another resulting in current flow.

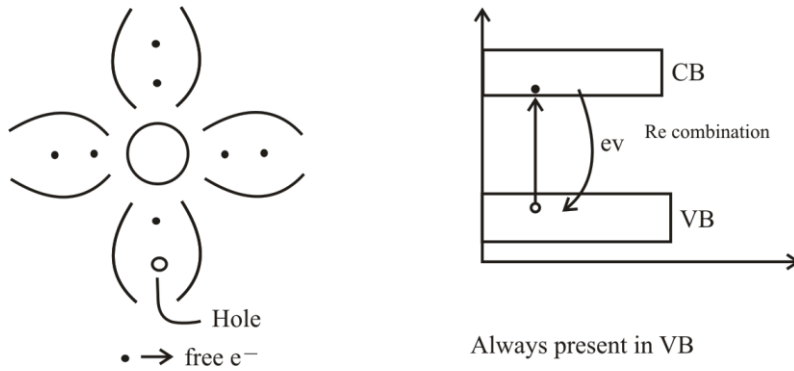
$$p + N_D^+ = n + N_A^-$$

- $p$  is the concentration of holes in the valence band.
- $n$  is the electron concentration.
- $N_D^+$  is the ionized donor concentration.
- $N_A^-$  is the ionized acceptor concentration.

**10) Type of Semiconductor**

- i) Intrinsic Semiconductor
- ii) Extrinsic Semiconductor

i) **Intrinsic Semiconductor:** There are pure Semiconductor's in which no impurity is added. At 0°K it behaves a perfect insulator.



In intrinsic Semiconductor numbers of  $e^- = \text{no. of holes} = \eta_i$

Where  $\eta_i$  — intrinsic concentration.

$e^-$  and holes always moves in opposite direction but they contributes current in the same direction. So the direction of current is opposite to the flow of  $e^-$  but in the same direction of flow of holes. Hole is the charge carrier having  $q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ .

Conductivity:  $\sigma = \eta q \mu$  ( $\sigma = \text{conductor}$ )

For Semiconductor:  $\sigma = nq\mu_e + pq\mu_h$

$\sigma_i = n_i q (\mu_e + \mu_h) \text{ mho/cm}$

$n = \text{no. of } e^-$        $p = \text{no. of holes}$        $q = \text{charge}$

$\mu_e, \mu_h = \text{mobility of } e^- \text{ \& holes}$

Where mobility is defined as the ratio of drift velocity to the applied electric field.

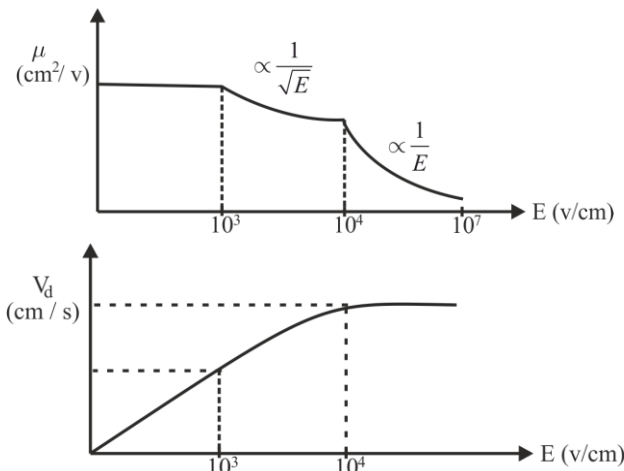
Mobility varies inversely with the temperature as  $\mu \propto T^{-m}$ , where “m” is an empirical constant.

**Mobility v/s applied electric field:**

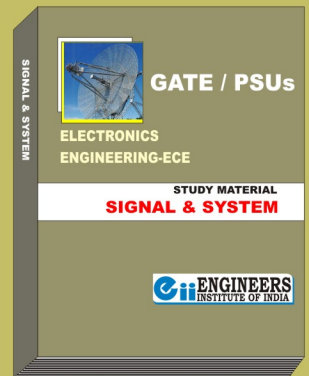
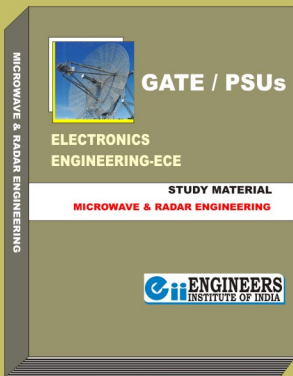
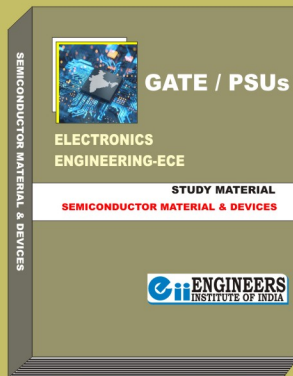
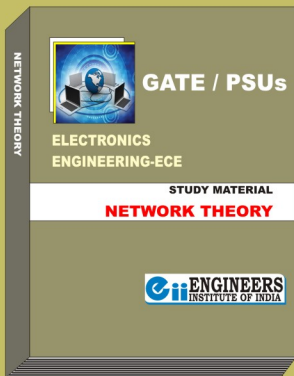
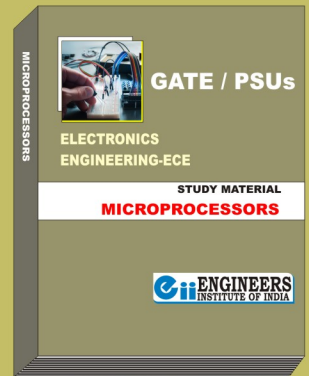
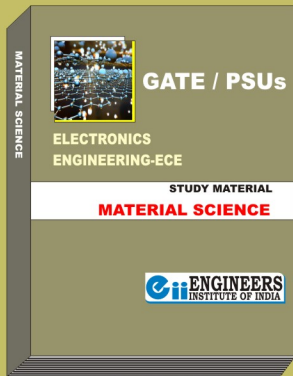
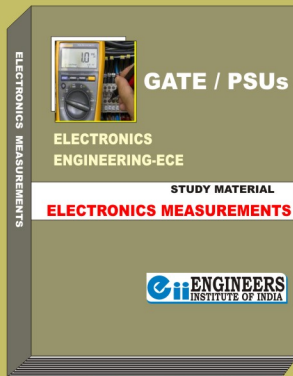
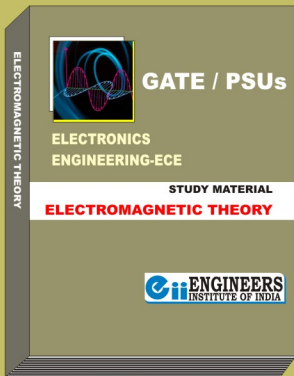
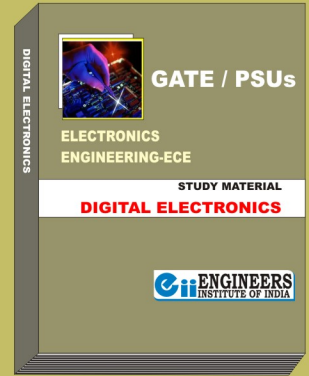
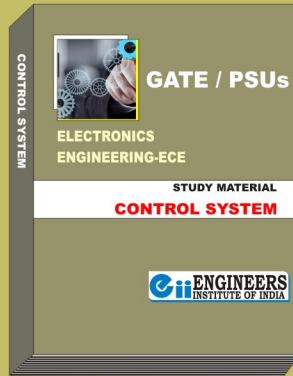
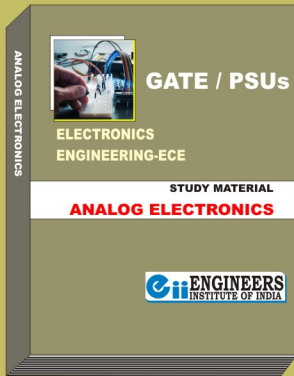
$\therefore \mu = \frac{V_d}{E}$

$\therefore V_d \text{ v/s } E \text{ groups will be :}$

The drift velocity first increases linearly, and then sub-linearly and finally becomes saturated with respect to the applied electric field.



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