

ECE 5205 Spring 2014

Secondary Effects in Si p-n Junctions

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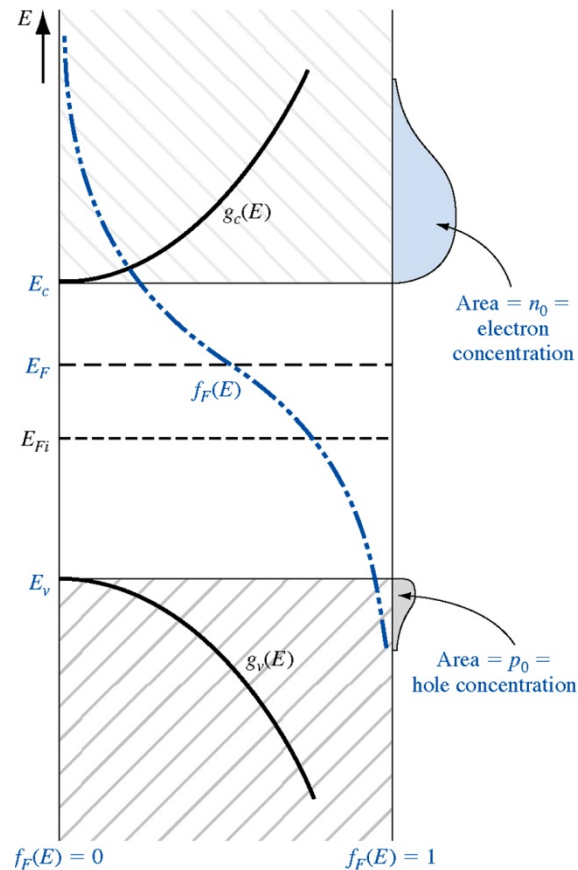
pn Junctions

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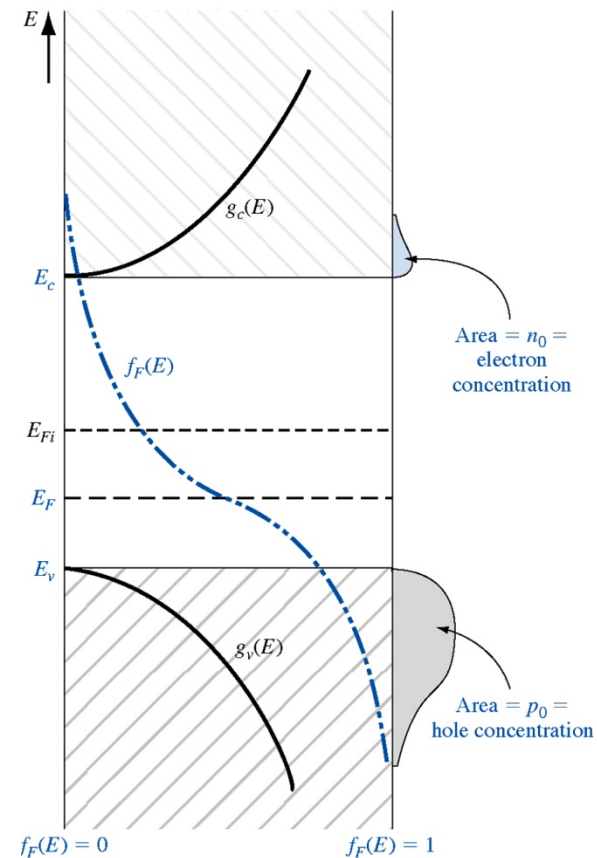
- pn junction and diode revisited
- pn junction diode - non-idealities
- junction breakdown
- impact ionization and avalanche and
- band-to-band tunneling
- back-to-back pn junctions

Extrinsic Semiconductor

Adding donor or acceptor impurity atoms will change the distribution of electrons and holes. Since the Fermi level is related to the distribution function of the carriers, the Fermi energy level will change as dopant atoms are added.



Distribution of electron and hole concentrations when E_F is above the midgap energy.



Distribution of electron and hole concentrations when E_F is below the midgap energy.

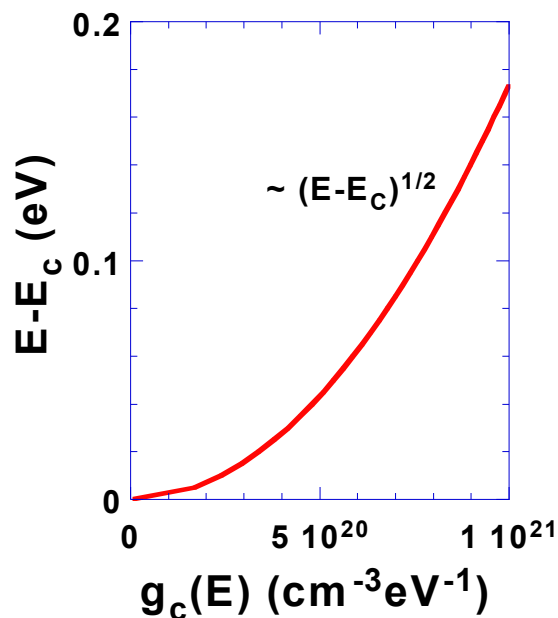
Carrier Densities

Electron Density

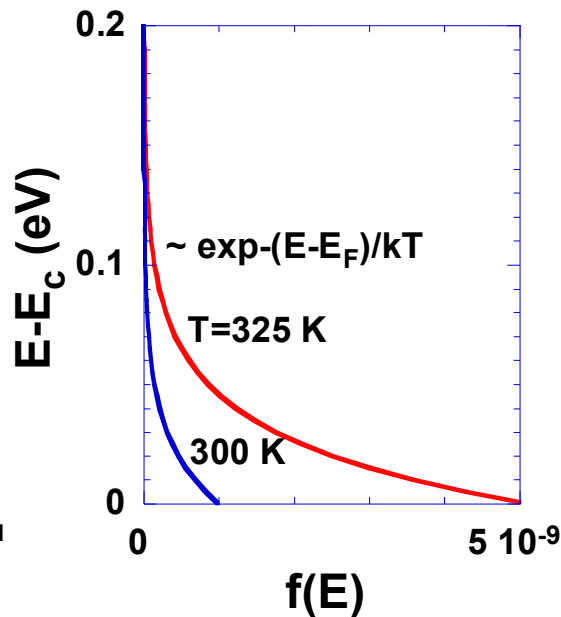
- The electron density depends on the density of states and on the probability of these states being occupied
- n is the area under the $(E - E_c)$ versus $g_c(E)f(E)$ curve

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{E_{top}} g_c(E) f(E) dE$$

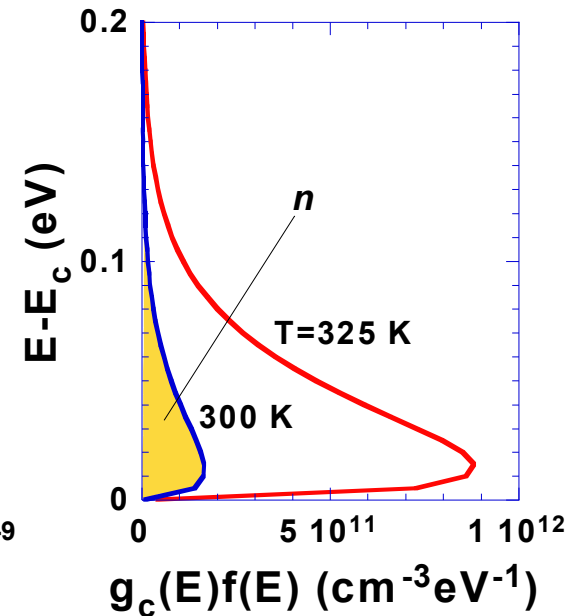
Fermi Integral



Density of states



probability of occupation



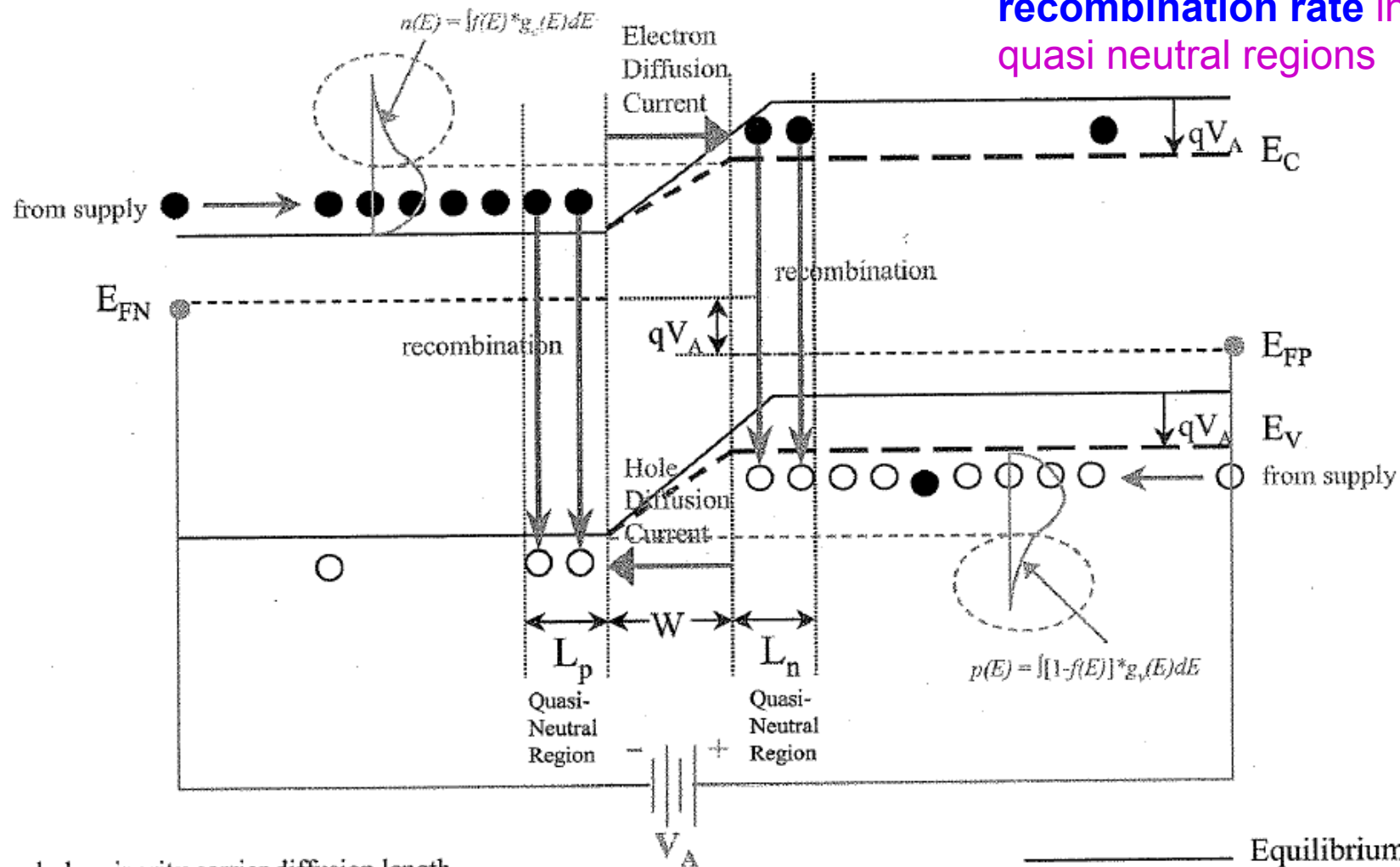
electron density

Forward Bias, A Closer Look . . .

Forward-bias tips the scales in favor of diffusion vs drift

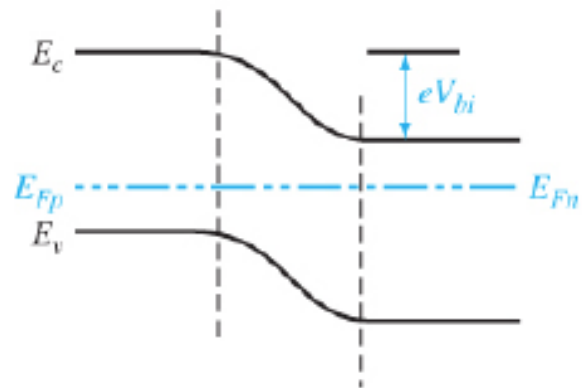
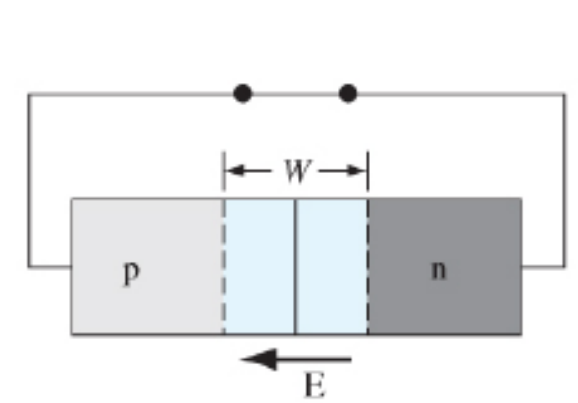
$$\text{Barrier} = q(V_{bi} - V_A)$$

Forward-bias diffusion current is determined by the **recombination rate** in the quasi neutral regions



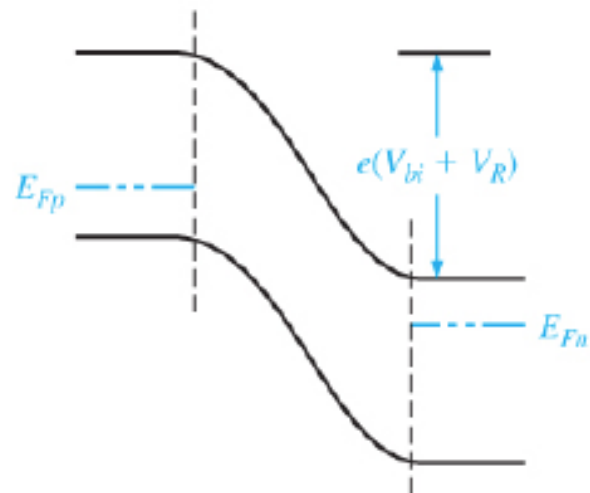
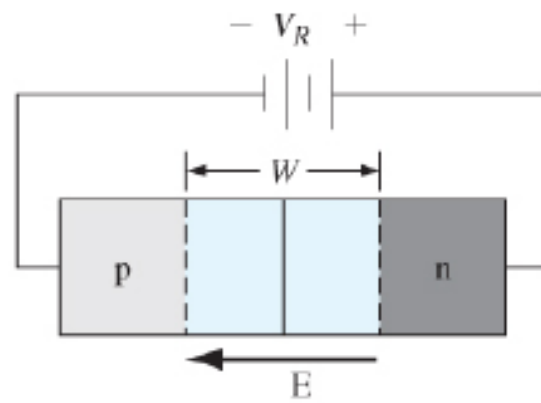
L_p = hole minority carrier diffusion length
 L_n = electron minority carrier diffusion length

————— Equilibrium ($V_A=0$)
 - - - - - Forward Biased



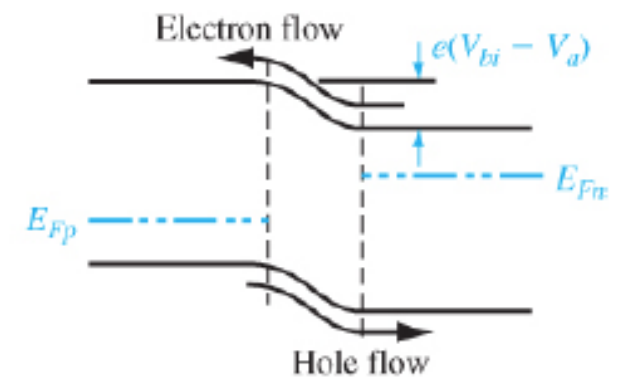
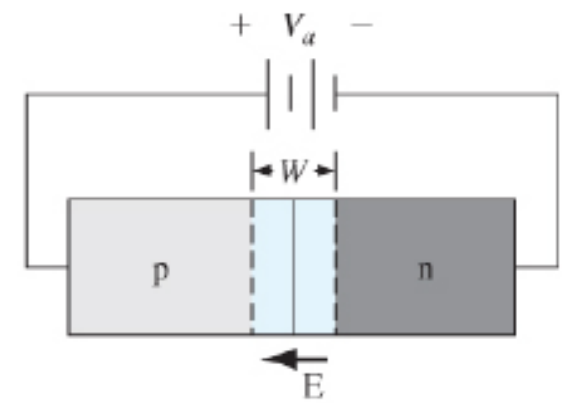
(a)

zero bias



(b)

reverse bias

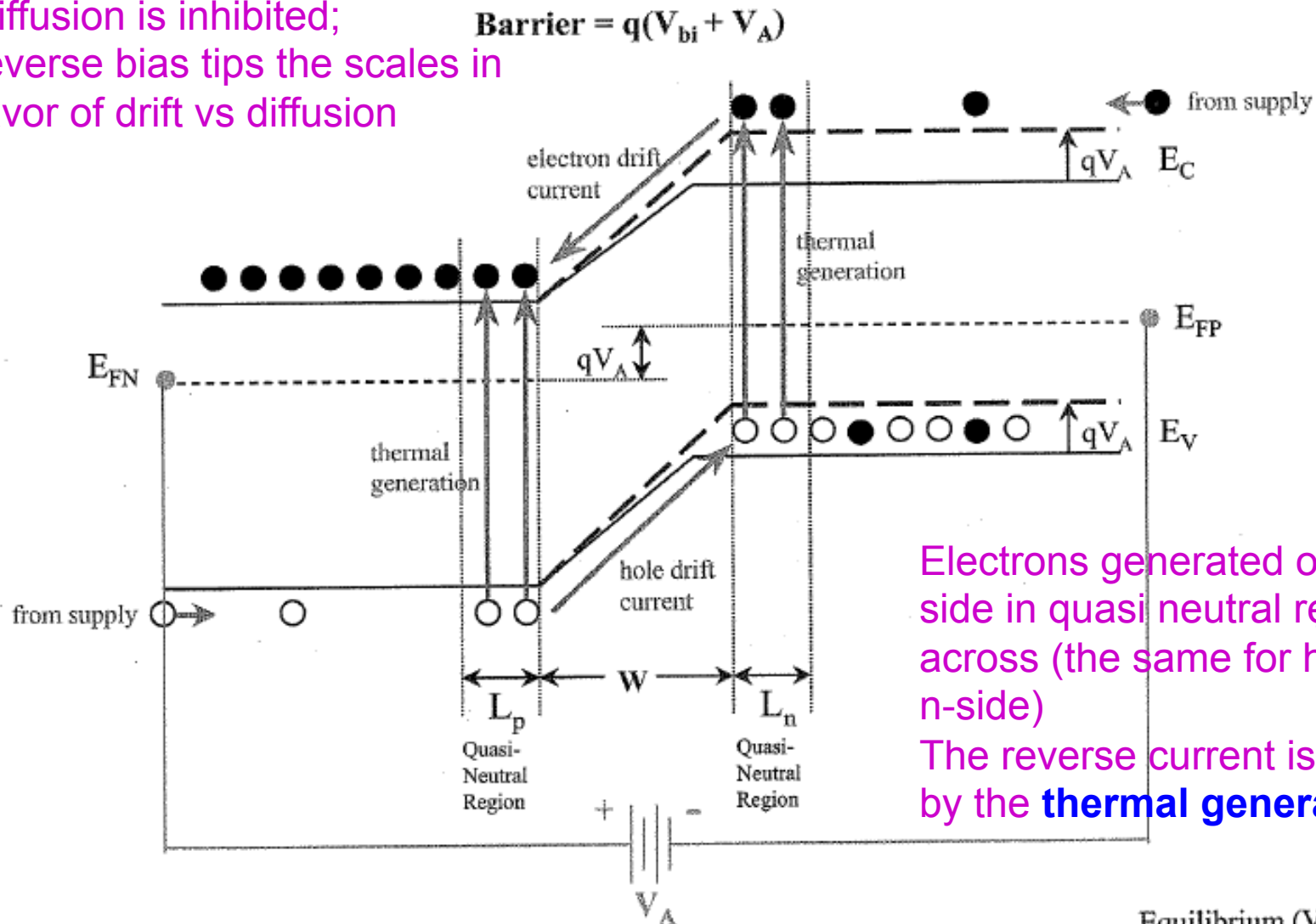


(c)

forward bias

Reverse Bias, A Closer Look . . .

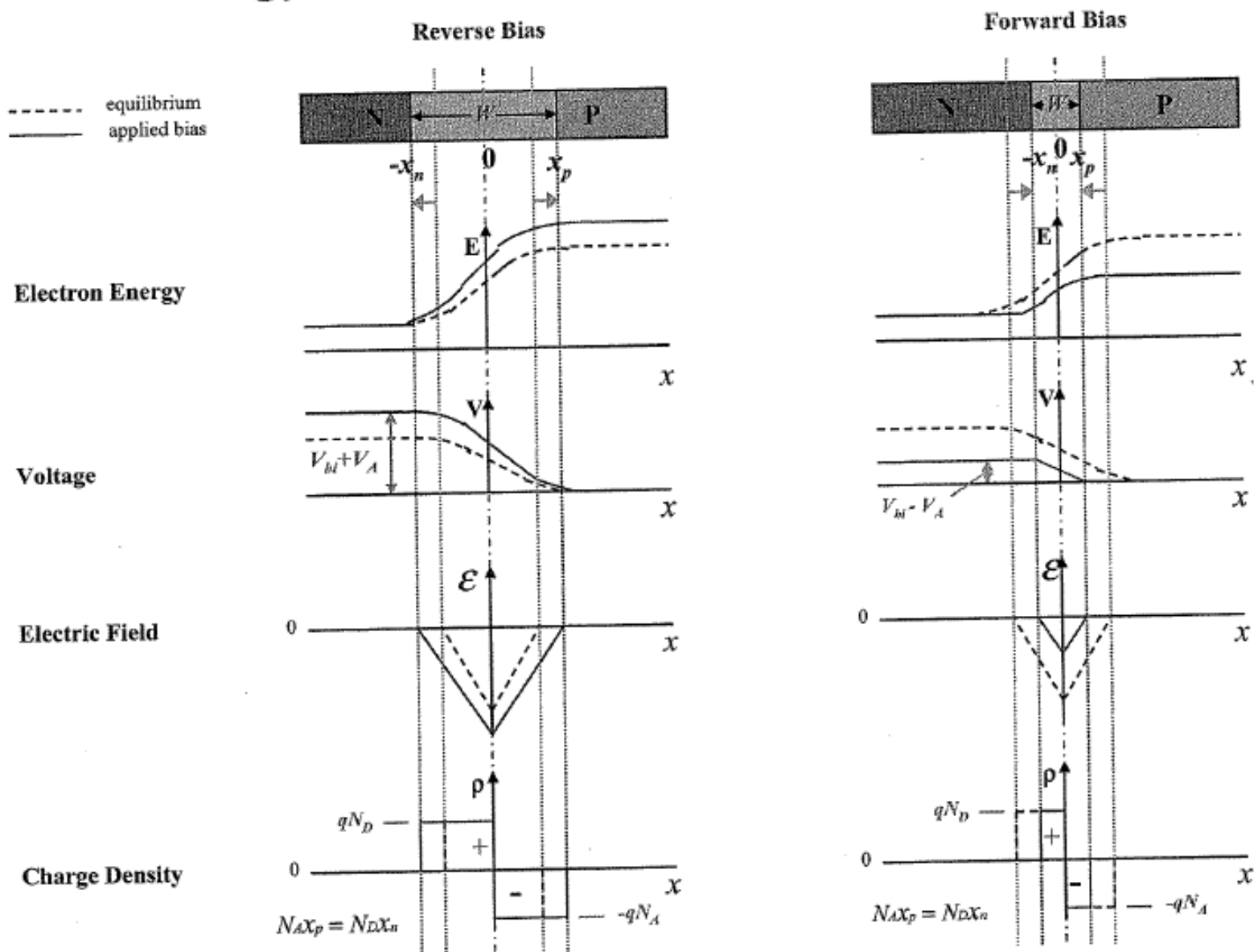
Diffusion is inhibited;
reverse bias tips the scales in
favor of drift vs diffusion



Electrons generated on the p-side in quasi neutral region drift across (the same for holes on the n-side)

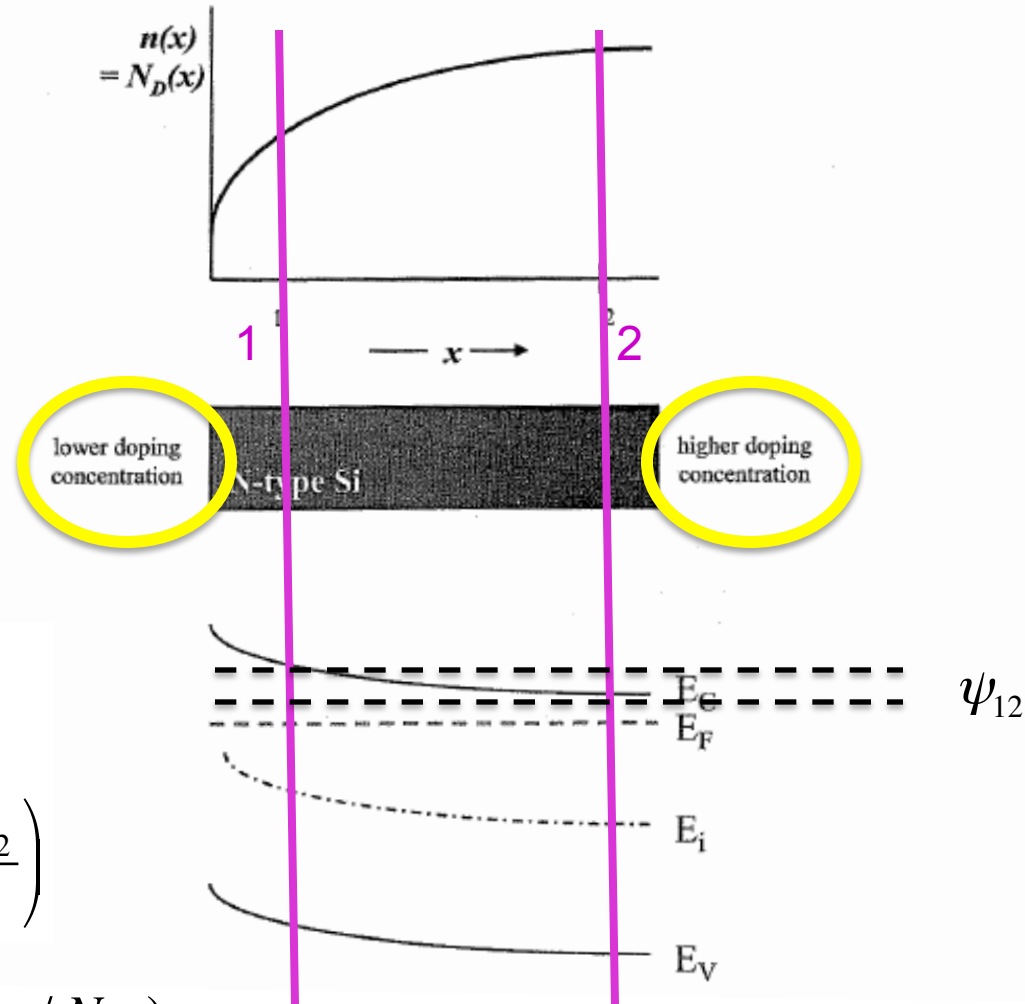
The reverse current is governed by the **thermal generation** term.

Energy, Voltage, Field, & Charge Revisited



Aside: Non-Uniformly Doped Silicon

Bands are bent at equilibrium, indicating that there is non-zero built-in potential (analogous to pn-junction)



$$n_1 = n_i \exp(E_F - E_{i1}) / kT$$

$$n_2 = n_i \exp(E_F - E_{i2}) / kT$$

$$\frac{n_2}{n_1} = \exp\left(\frac{E_{i1} - E_{i2}}{kT}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{q\psi_{12}}{kT}\right)$$

$$\psi_{12} = (E_{i1} - E_{i2}) / q = kT / q (\ln N_{d1} / N_{d2})$$

$$E = (kT / q) \frac{1}{N_d} \frac{dN_d}{dx}$$

EXAMPLE

Doping varies from 10^{18} to 10^{17} within $0.1\mu\text{m}$
 $E = 0.026 \times 1/10^{18} \times (10^{18} - 10^{17}/10^{-5}) = 2.6 \times 10^3 \text{ V/cm}$

Debye Length - reprised

1-30-2014

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon_s} (p - n + N_D - N_A)$$

$$n = n_i \exp\left(\frac{q\phi}{kT}\right)$$

$$N_D = n = n_i \exp\left(\frac{q\phi_n}{kT}\right)$$

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_s} \left(2n_i \sinh\left(\frac{q\phi}{kT}\right) + N_A - N_D\right)$$

$$N_A = p = n_i \exp\left(\frac{q\phi_p}{kT}\right)$$

Two special cases:

A) dopant concentration varies gradually with position (small gradient case)

This is the case of **quasi-neutrality**. The electric fields are of the order of 10^3 - 10^4 V/cm. In this case the electron concentration n can be approximated by N_D .

Electric field

$$E_x = -\frac{D_n}{\mu_n} \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dx} = -\frac{kT}{q} \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dx} \approx \frac{kT}{q} \frac{1}{N_D} \frac{dN_D}{dx}$$

Debye Length

Two special cases:

B) Step junction; we consider an analytical approximation for the potential **near the edges** of the space-charge region (i.e. near x_n or $-x_p$). We consider small variations of potential from ϕ_n near $x=x_n$. We rewrite Poisson equation by neglecting the minority-carrier concentration p and letting

$\varphi = \varphi_n - \varphi'$ be the deviation from φ_n

$$\frac{d^2 \varphi'}{dx^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_s} (N_D - n) = \frac{q}{\epsilon_s} [N_D - n_i \exp(\frac{q(\varphi_n - \varphi')}{kT})] =$$

$$= \frac{q}{\epsilon_s} N_D [1 - \exp(-\frac{\varphi'}{kT})]$$

Taylor expansion
for small ϕ'

$$\frac{d^2 \varphi'}{dx^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_s} N_D \frac{\varphi'}{kT} = \frac{\varphi'}{L_D^2}$$

$$L_D = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_s kT}{q^2 N_D}}$$

$$\varphi' \sim \exp(-x / L_D)$$

Debye length L_D is a characteristic length associated with spatial variations of potential or carrier distribution. We see that the potential does not drop abruptly but varies exponentially with distance near the edges of the space-charge region. The carrier concentration changes rapidly from that of the dopant concentration to essentially zero within a few Debye lengths, $\exp(-x/L_D)$.

Therefore, the depletion approximation is questionable only within a few extrinsic Debye lengths of the edges of space charge region near x_n or $-x_p$.

PN Junction - Useful Equations Revisited

The following equations are valid for an abrupt (step) junction with uniform doping on both sides.

Depletion Region Width

$$x_n = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(V_{bi} - V_A)}{q} \cdot \frac{N_A}{N_D(N_A + N_D)}}$$

$$x_p = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(V_{bi} - V_A)}{q} \cdot \frac{N_D}{N_A(N_A + N_D)}}$$

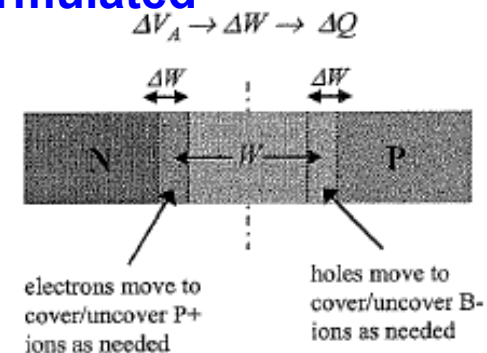
$$W = x_n + x_p = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(V_{bi} - V_A)(N_A + N_D)}{qN_A N_D}}$$

V_A = applied voltage (equilibrium $V_A=0$;
fwd bias $V_A>0$; rev bias $V_A<0$)

Junction Capacitance

Capacitance formula reformulated

$$C_j = \frac{\epsilon_s A}{W} = \frac{C_{j0}}{\left[1 + \frac{V_A}{V_{bi}}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}} \quad \text{where} \quad C_{j0} = \frac{\epsilon_s A}{\sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s V_{bi}(N_A + N_D)}{qN_A N_D}}}$$



PN Junction - Drift & Diffusion Currents

$$J = J_p + J_n$$

The total current through the junction is the sum of the electron current and hole current.

where:

$$J_n = J_n(\text{drift}) + J_n(\text{diff})$$

$$J_p = J_p(\text{drift}) + J_p(\text{diff})$$

The electron current, in turn, is made up of drift and diffusion current components. So is the hole current.

where:

$$J_n(\text{drift}) = \sigma \mathcal{E} = q \mu_n n \mathcal{E}$$

$$J_p(\text{drift}) = \sigma \mathcal{E} = q \mu_p p \mathcal{E}$$

The drift current is calculated from Ohm's Law.

q = elementary charge (magnitude) = 1.602×10^{-19} coul.

μ_n = electron mobility [= 1350 cm²/(V·s) for Si, room temp.]

μ_p = hole mobility [= 480 cm²/(V·s) for Si, room temp.]

and:

$$J_n(\text{diff}) = q D_n \frac{dn}{dx}$$

$$J_p(\text{diff}) = -q D_p \frac{dp}{dx}$$

The diffusion current is calculated from Fick's law.

D_n = electron diffusion coefficient [= 33.75 cm²/s for Si at 300 K]

D_p = hole diffusion coefficient [= 12.4 cm²/s for Si at 300 K]

$$J = qnv$$

$$v = \mu E$$

μ mobility

Ideal Diode - Current-Voltage Characteristic

Ideal diode assumptions: a) Low-level injection $n_p \ll p_p$ and $p_n \ll n_n$
 (b) No series resistance, voltage drop only across the depletion region
 (c) No generation/recombination in depletion region (only in quasi-neutral regions)

Ideal Diode: I-V Characteristic

$$I = I_0 \left[\exp\left(\frac{qV_A}{k_B T}\right) - 1 \right]$$

Ideal Diode: Reverse saturation/leakage current

$$I_0 = qA n_i^2 \left[\frac{D_n}{L_n N_A} + \frac{D_p}{L_p N_D} \right]$$

D_n = electron diffusion coefficient [= 33.75 cm²/s at 300 K]

D_p = hole diffusion coefficient [= 12.4 cm²/s at 300 K]

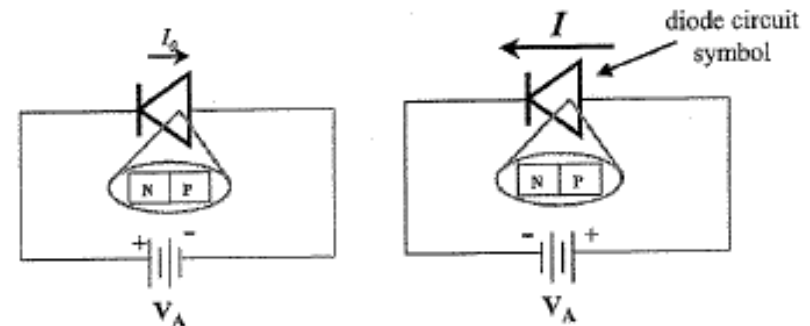
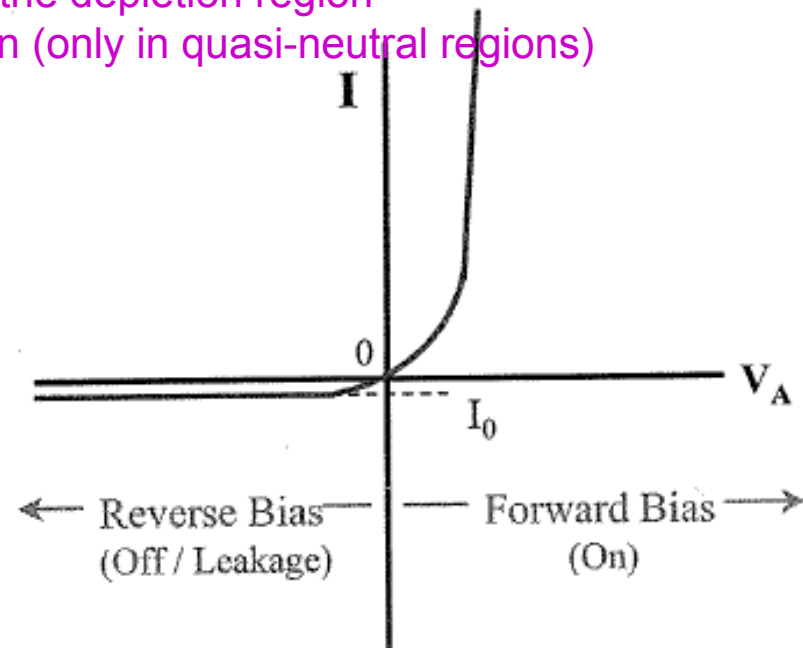
L_n = electron minority carrier diffusion length [~ 10 μm]

L_p = hole minority carrier diffusion length [~ 10 μm]

I_0 larger for semiconductor with smaller band gap (because larger n_i)

Diffusion coefficient can be calculated from mobility

$$\frac{D}{\mu} = \frac{k_B T}{q} \quad (\text{Einstein relationship})$$

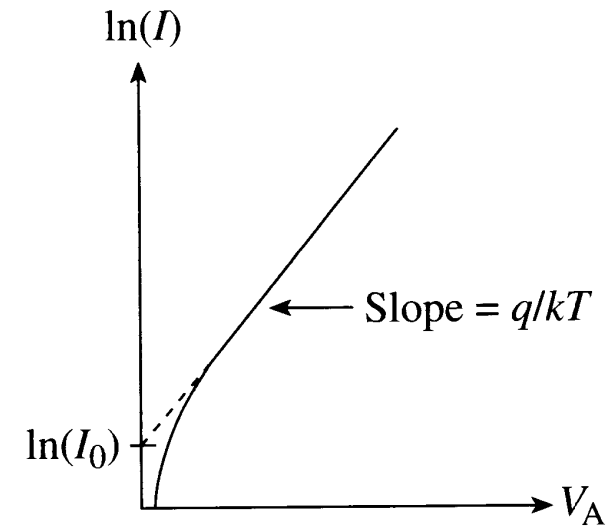
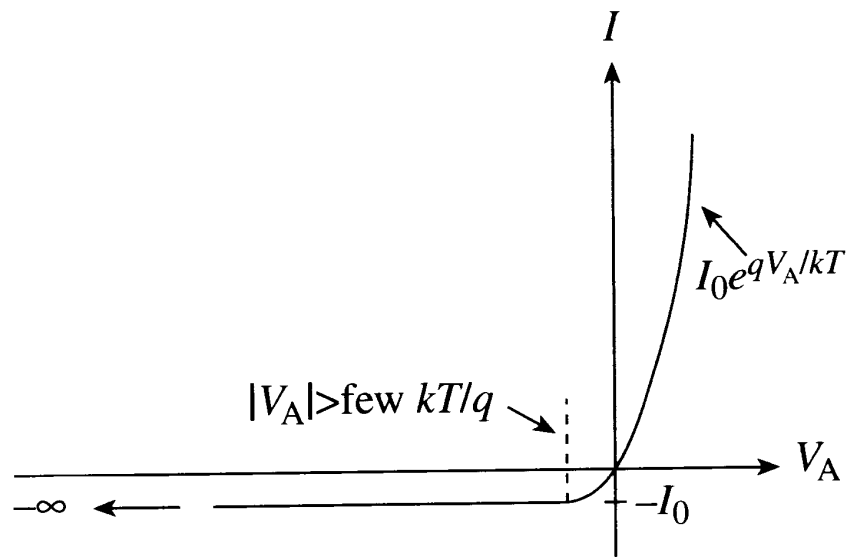


Reverse

Forward

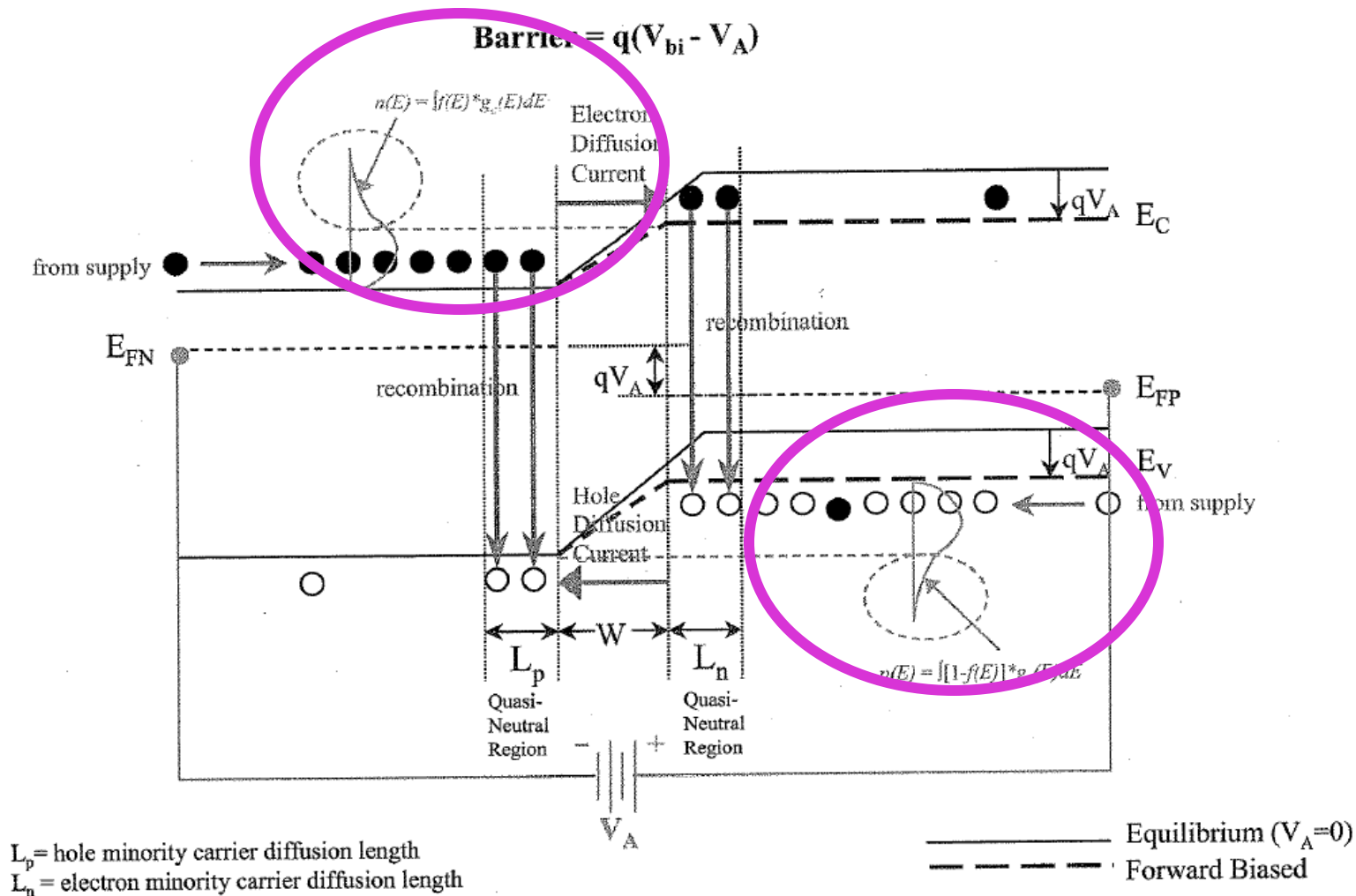
Exponential behavior on V_A : the barrier is lowered down the Fermi distribution tail

Ideal Diode I-V Characteristics



Intuitive picture of exponential behavior on forward V_A : the barrier is lowered down the Fermi distribution tail

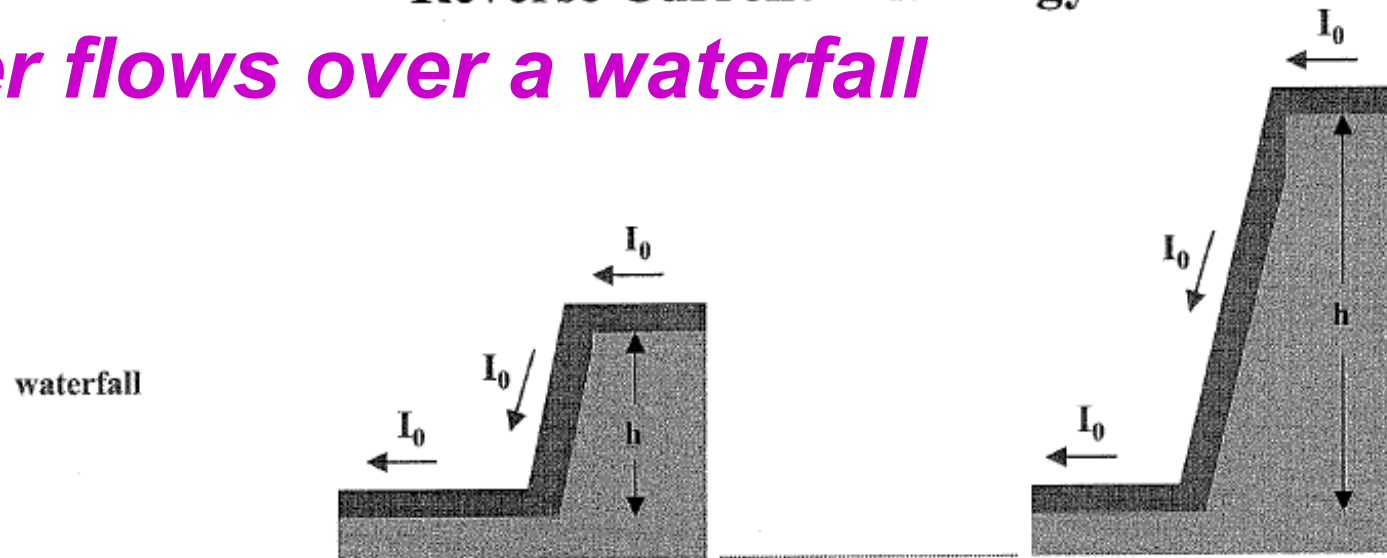
Forward Bias, A Closer Look . . .



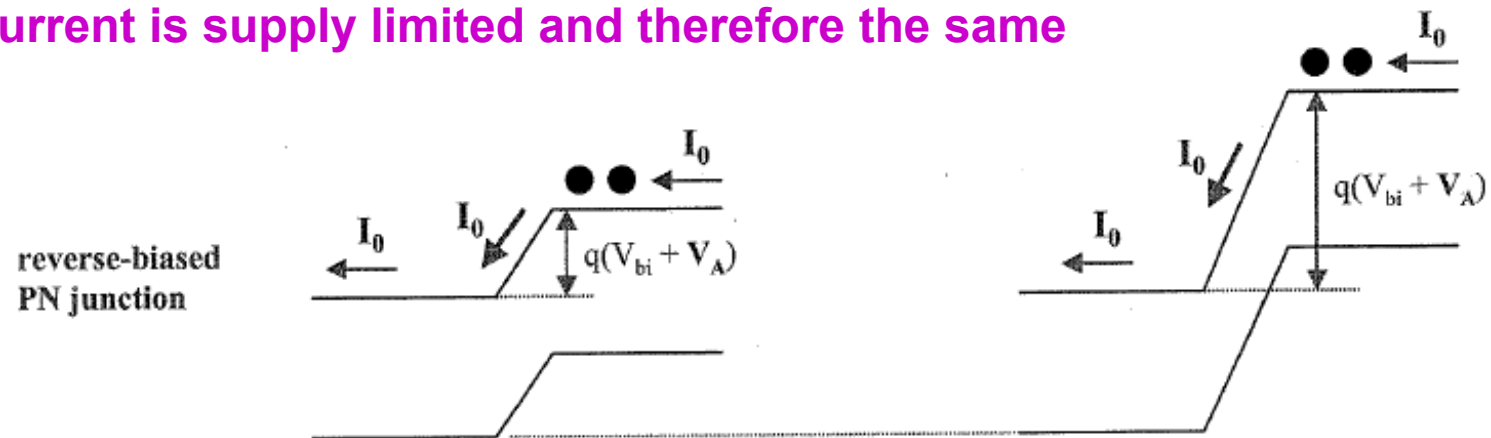
Intuitive Picture for reverse bias:

Reverse Current - Analogy

river flows over a waterfall



Current is supply limited and therefore the same

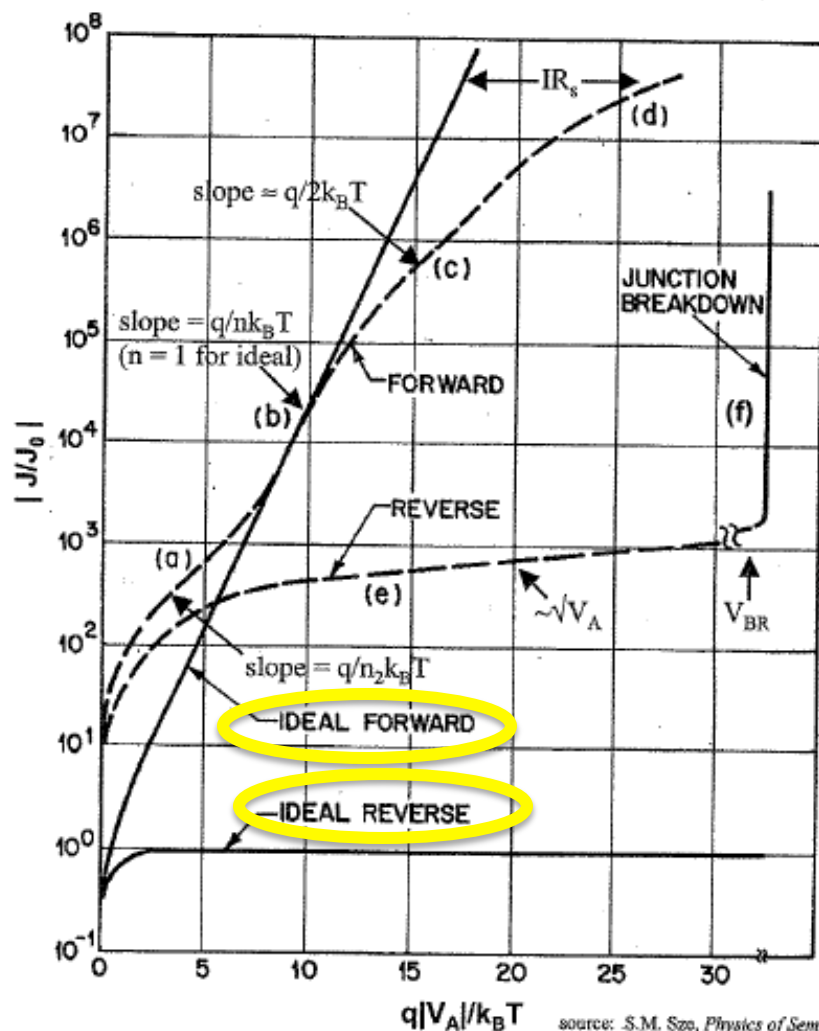


But kinetic energy of the falling water could matter !!!

Assumptions of the ideal diode equation

- Abrupt pn junction, uniformly and non-degenerately doped on both sides
- Low level injection ($n_p \ll p_p$ and $p_n \ll n_n$)
- No series resistance (no resistance in neutral and quasi-neutral regions)
- No generation/recombination in depletion region (only in quasi-neutral)
- No external sources of carriers

PN Junction Diode - Non-Idealities



Deviations from the ideal:

Generation / Recombination
in Depletion Region

$$I = I_0 \left[\exp \left(\frac{qV_A}{n k_B T} \right) - 1 \right] + \frac{q A n_i W}{2 \tau_0} \left[\exp \left(\frac{qV_A}{n_2 k_B T} \right) - 1 \right]$$

Ideality Factor

$$\text{where } \tau_0 = \frac{\tau_n + \tau_p}{2}$$

Forward bias ($V_A > 0$): Exponential increase in recombination current.
Reverse bias ($V_A < 0$): Increase in generation current goes as $W \sim \sqrt{V_A}$.

n = diode ideality factor [$n = 1$ for ideal diode, $n > 1$ for non-ideal]
 n_2 = a slope factor for the second term [$n_2 \rightarrow 2$ is typical]
 τ_n = electron minority carrier lifetime [$\sim 1 \mu s$ typical]
 τ_p = hole minority carrier lifetime [$\sim 1 \mu s$ typical]
 τ_0 = effective (average) minority carrier lifetime

$$\text{aside: } L_n \equiv \sqrt{D_n \tau_n}$$

$$L_p \equiv \sqrt{D_p \tau_p}$$

source: S.M. Sze, *Physics of Semiconductor Devices*, John Wiley & Sons, 1981, p. 91; and G.W. Pierret, *Modular Series on Solid State Devices*, vol. 2, Addison-Wesley Publishing, 1988, p. 83-85.

Ideal vs Non-ideal Diode

$$I = I_o \left[\exp\left(\frac{qVA}{kT}\right) - 1 \right]$$

carrier generation term
in depleted region

$$I = I_o \left[\exp\left(\frac{qV_A}{nkT}\right) - 1 \right] + \frac{qAn_iW}{2\tau} \left[\exp\left(\frac{qV_A}{nkT}\right) - 1 \right]$$

n – non-ideality factor $1 < n < 2$
 τ – average electron/hole life time

- **Ideality factor n**

$n=1$ ideal diode, real diodes $1 < n < 2$

(grading of the junction {not really abrupt}
+ Recombination)

- **Second term added**

Generation and recombination in the depletion region (e,f regions)

- **Non-idealities - reverse bias**

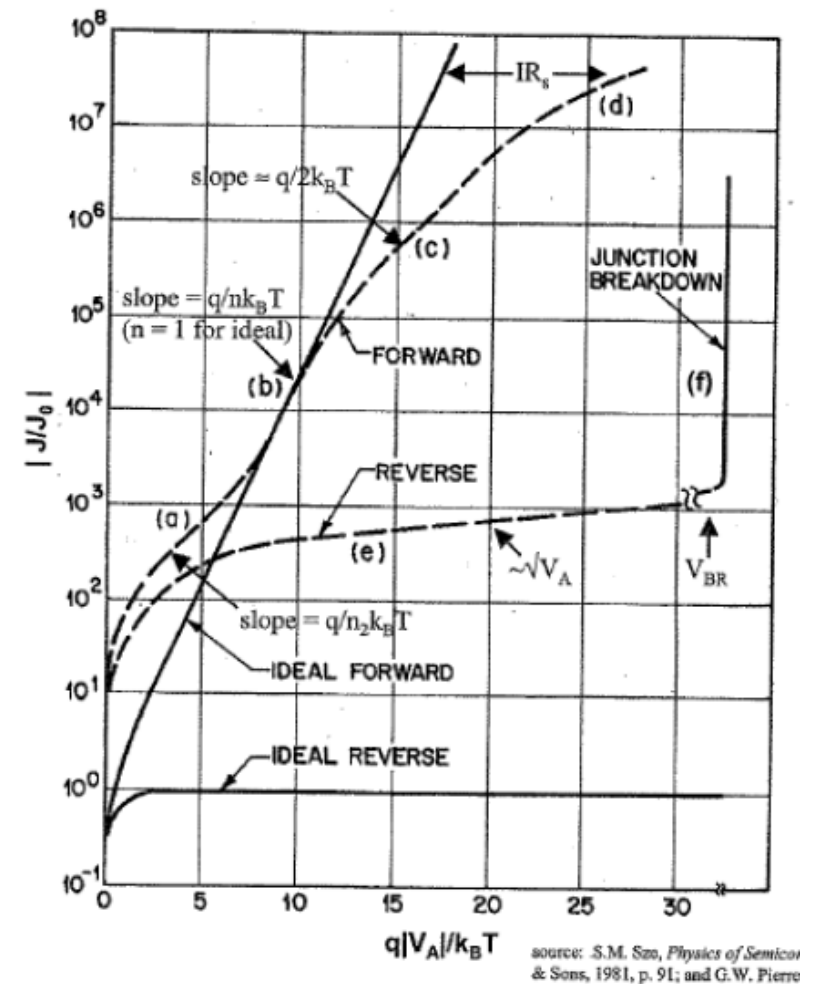
Generation and recombination in the Depletion region (region e)
Junction breakdown (region f)

- **Non-idealities – forward bias**

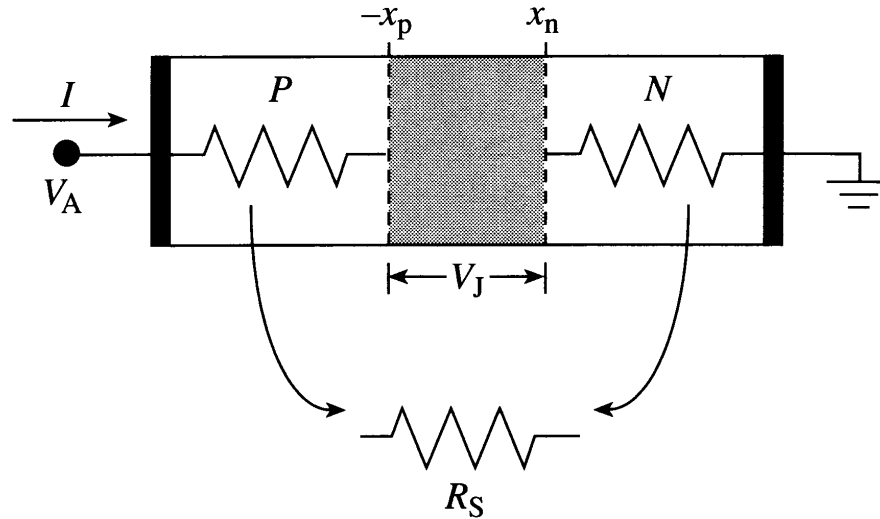
Recombination in the depletion region (comprehended in n factor) at low V_F (region a)
Ideal behavior in region b

High injection (region c). The low level injection assumption does not hold at high V_F .
High injection reduces the recombination efficiency, hence reducing the current vs ideal

Series resistance (region d): voltage drop across the neutral regions and contacts cannot be ignored \rightarrow resistance R_s (additional voltage drop $I \cdot R_s$).



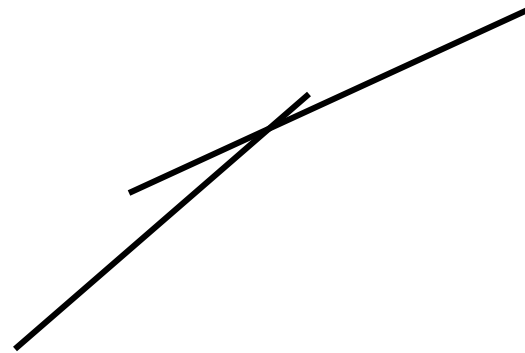
Forward Bias with High Currents: Series Resistance



$$I = I_0[e^{qV/kT} - 1]$$



$$I = I_0[e^{q(V - IR_S)/kT} - 1]$$



High Level Injection

High injection of carriers¹ causes to violate one of the approximations made in the derivation of the ideal diode characteristics, namely that the majority carrier density equals the thermal equilibrium value. Excess carriers will dominate the electron and hole concentration and can be expressed in the following way:

$$n_p p_p = n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right) = n_p (p_{p0} + n_p)$$

$$n_n p_n = n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right) = p_n (n_{n0} + p_n)$$

Solving the resulting quadratic equation yields:

$$n_p = \frac{N_a}{2} \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{4n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right)}{N_a^2}} - 1 \right) \cong n_i \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{2V_t}\right)$$

$$p_n = \frac{N_d}{2} \left(\sqrt{1 + \frac{4n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right)}{N_d^2}} - 1 \right) \cong n_i \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{2V_t}\right)$$

$$J_n + J_p = q \left(\frac{D_n}{L_n} + \frac{D_p}{L_p} \right) n_i \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{2V_t}\right)$$

This means that high injection in a p-n diode will reduce the slope on the current-voltage characteristic on a semi-logarithmic scale to 119mV/decade.

High Level Injection

$$np = n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right)$$

We have that $n = n_o + \delta n$ and $p = p_o + \delta p$, so that

$$(n_o + \delta n)(p_o + \delta p) = n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right)$$

Under high-level injection, we may have $\delta n > n_o$ and $\delta p > p_o$ so that Equation (8.60) becomes approximately

$$(\delta n)(\delta p) \cong n_i^2 \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{V_t}\right)$$

Since $\delta n = \delta p$, then

$$\delta n = \delta p \cong n_i \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{2V_t}\right)$$

The diode current is proportional to the excess carrier concentration so that, under high-level injection, we have

$$I \propto \exp\left(\frac{V_a}{2V_t}\right)$$

In the high-level injection region, it takes a larger increase in diode voltage to produce a given increase in diode current.

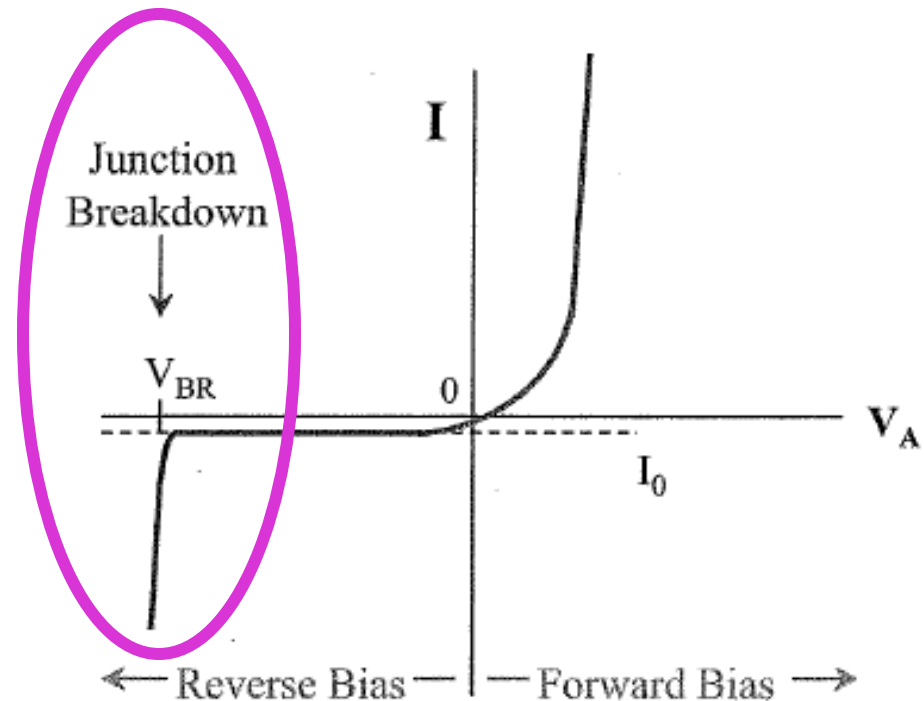
PN Junction Diode - Reverse Breakdown

Avalanche Breakdown Voltage

$$V_{BR} = \frac{\epsilon_s \mathcal{E}_{CR}^2}{2q} \frac{N_A + N_D}{N_A N_D}$$

\mathcal{E}_{CR} = critical field for impact ionization [= 4×10^5 V/cm for Si]

Increasing the doping on either or both sides of the junction decreases the breakdown voltage.

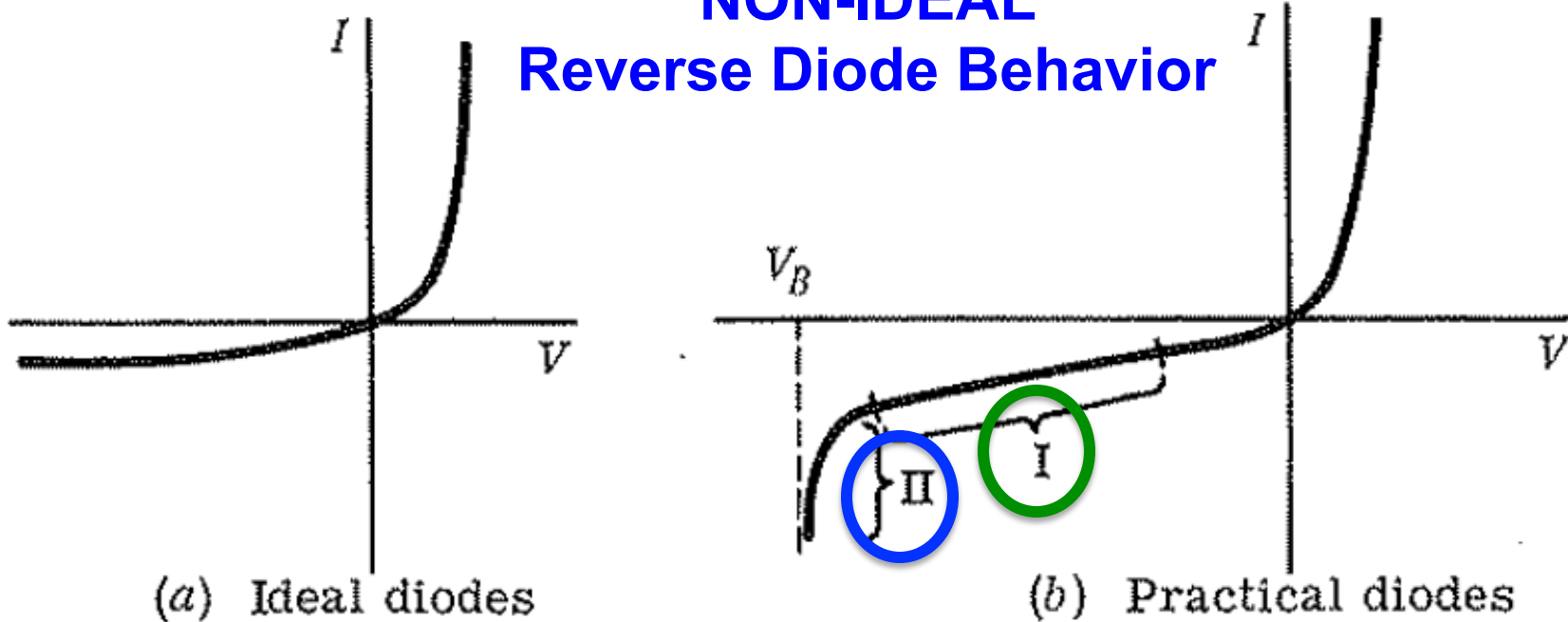


Two types of breakdown:

Avalanche Breakdown (or impact ionization) most common

Zener Breakdown (tunneling) if both sides are heavily doped

NON-IDEAL Reverse Diode Behavior

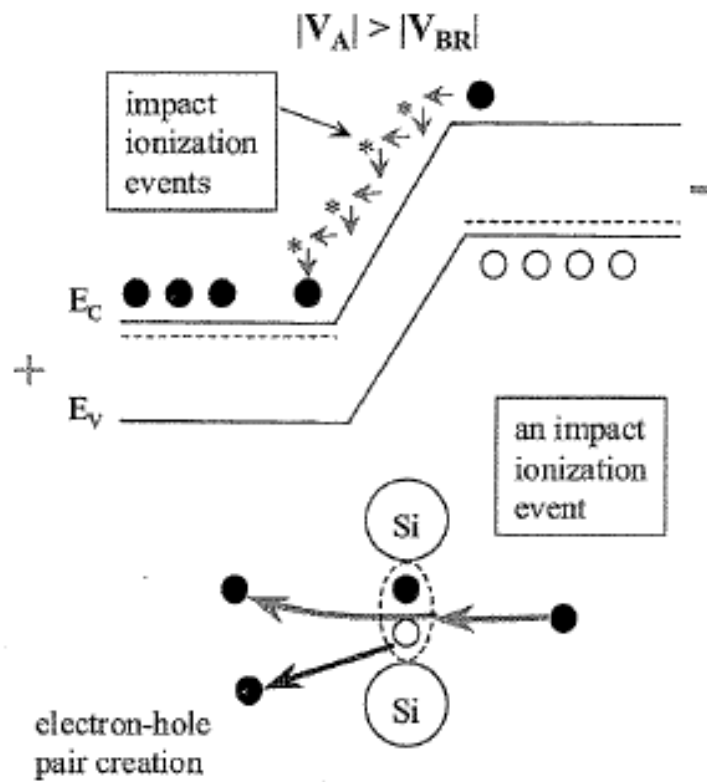


Region I : slow rise of current in region I is due to space charge region increase with increased reverse bias and hence raising the reverse saturation current.

Region II: rapid rise of current in region II is due to a phenomenon called breakdown; there are two mechanisms for the breakdown:

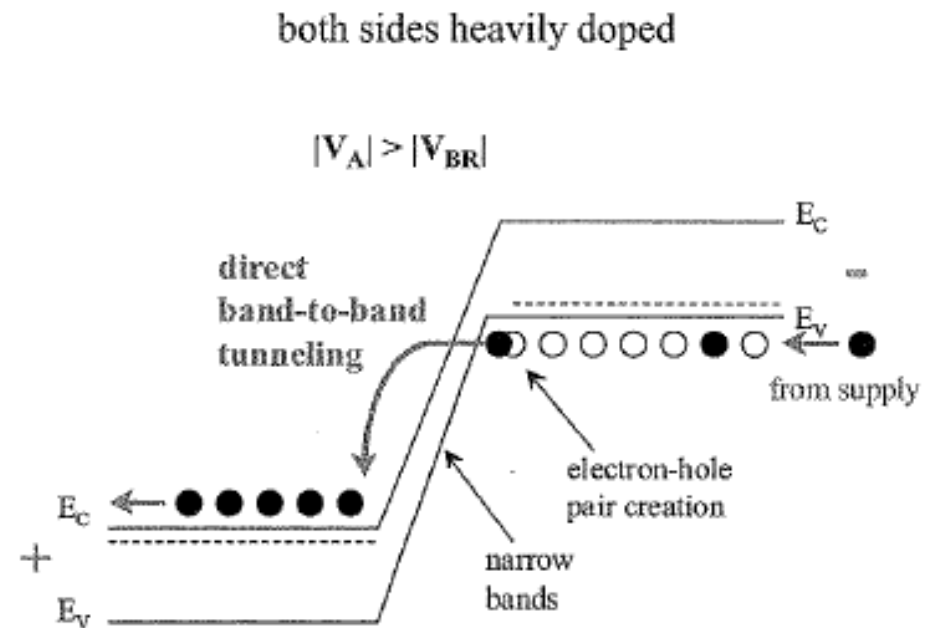
- Avalanche
- Tunneling

PN Junction Diode - Reverse Breakdown (cont.)



Hot electron collides with Si atom

Avalanche Breakdown



Barrier sufficiently thin for electron tunneling

Zener Breakdown

Break-down Voltage V_{BR}

Recall that for a step function for N⁺/P or P⁺/N junction we have

$$\frac{1}{2}W \cdot E_{\max} = (\phi_{bi} - V_a)$$

$$E_{\max} = \frac{2(\phi_{bi} - V_a)}{W}$$

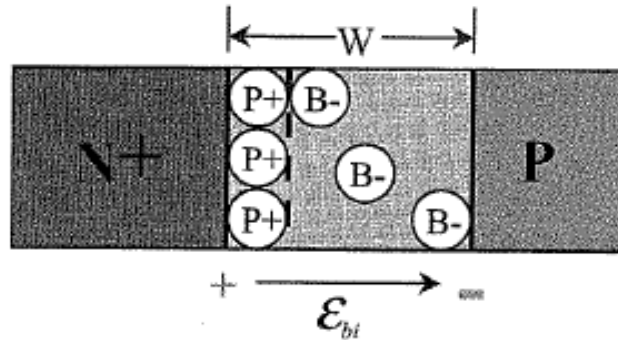
$$E_{\max} \approx \left(\frac{2qN_A |V_R|}{\epsilon_s} \right)^{1/2} \rightarrow E_{crit}$$

$$V_{BR} = \frac{\epsilon_s E_{crit}^2}{2qN_A}$$

PN Junction Diode - One-Sided Junction

Break down Voltage

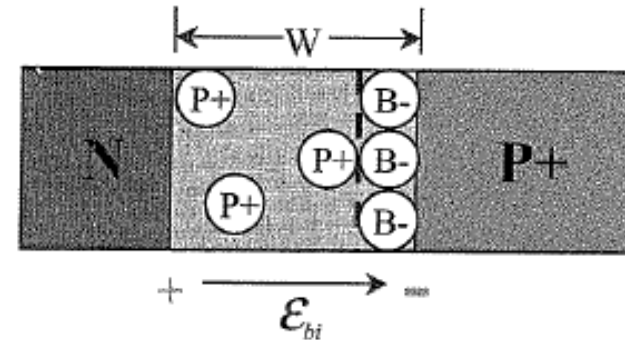
$$N_D \gg N_A$$



$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(V_{bi} - V_A)}{qN_A}}$$

$$V_{BR} = \frac{\epsilon_s \mathcal{E}_{CR}^2}{2qN_A}$$

$$N_A \gg N_D$$

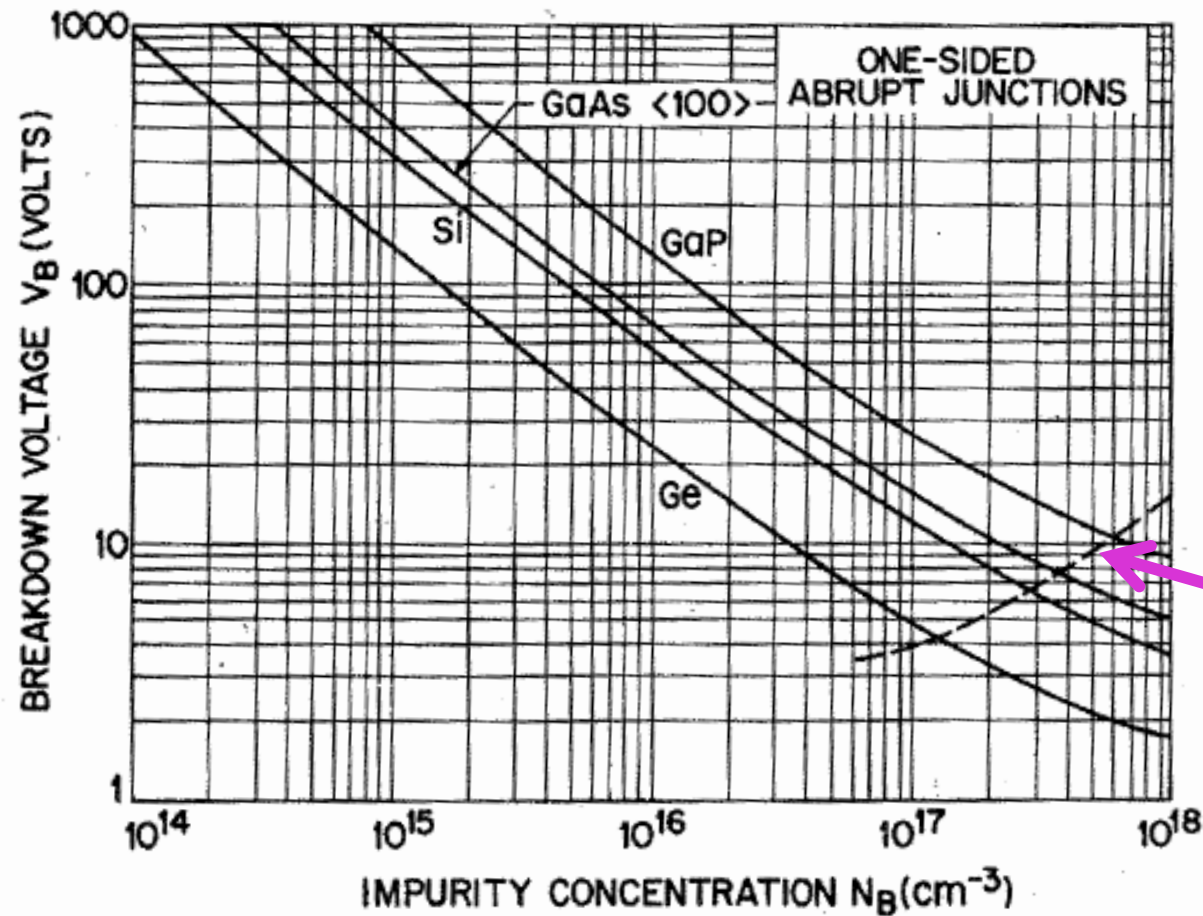


$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s(V_{bi} - V_A)}{qN_D}}$$

$$V_{BR} = \frac{\epsilon_s \mathcal{E}_{CR}^2}{2qN_D}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_{CR} > 2 \times 10^5 \text{ V/cm}$$

Breakdown Voltage vs. Dopant Concentration

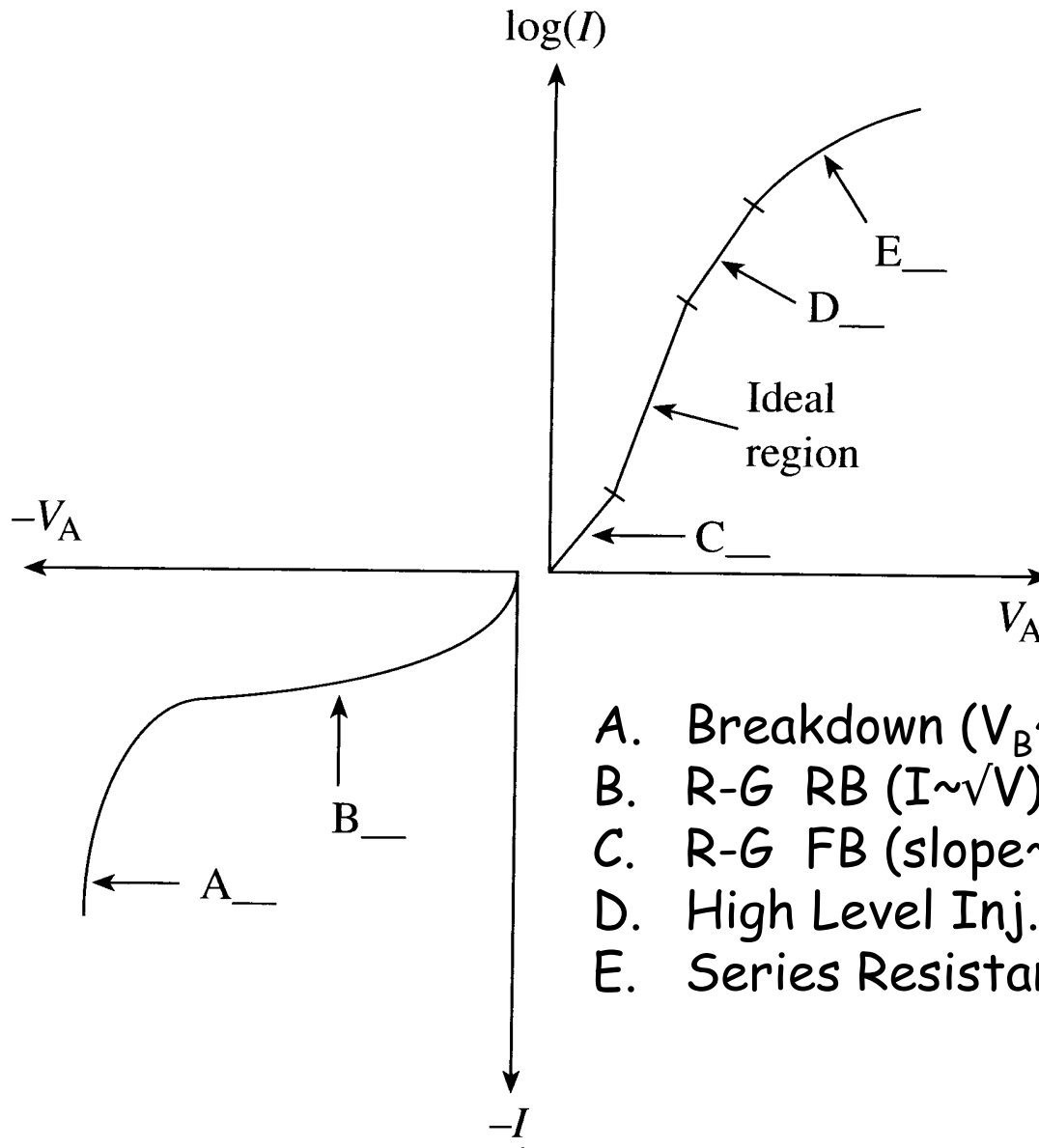


Doping levels beyond which Zener tunneling will dominate the breakdown characteristics

The doping on the lighter-doped side

source: S.M. Sze, *Physics of Semiconductor Devices*, John Wiley & Sons, 1981.

Real Diode I-V curve summary

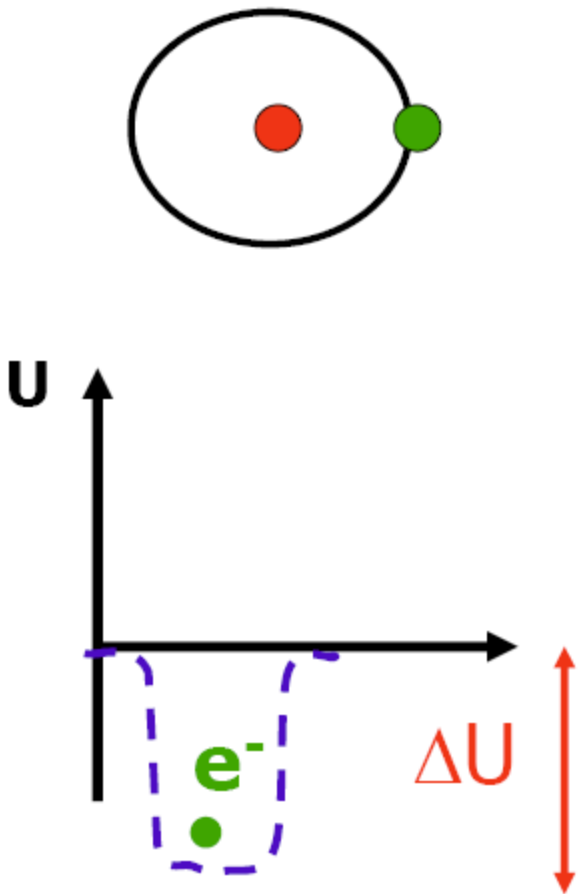


- A. Breakdown ($V_B \sim 1/N_B$)
- B. R-G RB ($I \sim \sqrt{V}$)
- C. R-G FB (slope $\sim q/2kT$)
- D. High Level Inj. (slope $\sim q/2kT$)
- E. Series Resistance - slope over

Impact Ionization and Avalanche

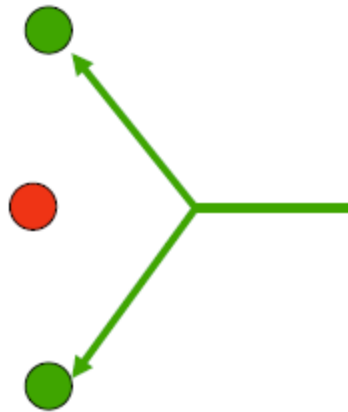
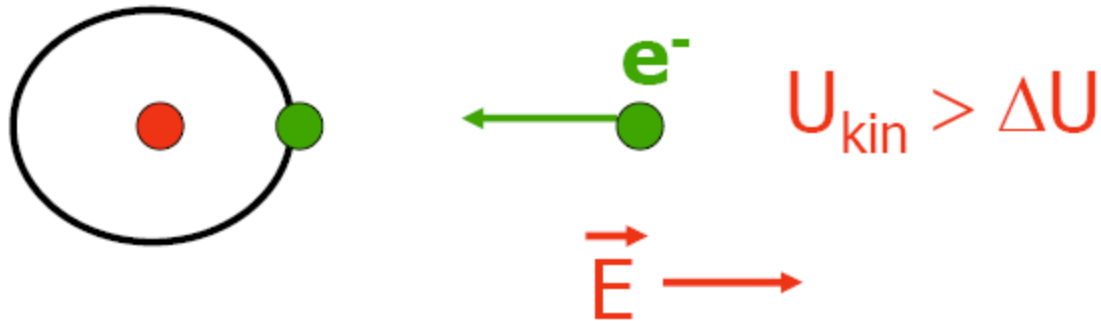
Precursor to avalanche:

Ionization In Gases



- Electrons and nucleus bound together
- Electrons stuck in potential well of nucleus
- Need energy ΔU to jump out of well
- How to provide this energy?

Impact Ionization In Gases



- Define $V_{ion} = \Delta U/q$
- Ionization potential
- One e^- in, two e^- out
- Avalanche?



$$E_{kin} = q \int_0^{\lambda} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{x}$$

e-h creation in a semiconductor

$$V_{ion} \cdot q \approx \frac{3}{2} E_g$$

Center of mass kinetic energy

$$K = K_1 + K_2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 \mathbf{v}_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 \mathbf{v}_2^2$$

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_{\text{CM}}$$

$$\mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_{\text{CM}}$$

$$M \mathbf{v}_{\text{CM}} = m_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + m_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{v}_{\text{CM}} = \frac{m_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + m_2 \mathbf{v}_2}{M}$$

$$K_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{2} M \mathbf{v}_{\text{CM}}^2$$

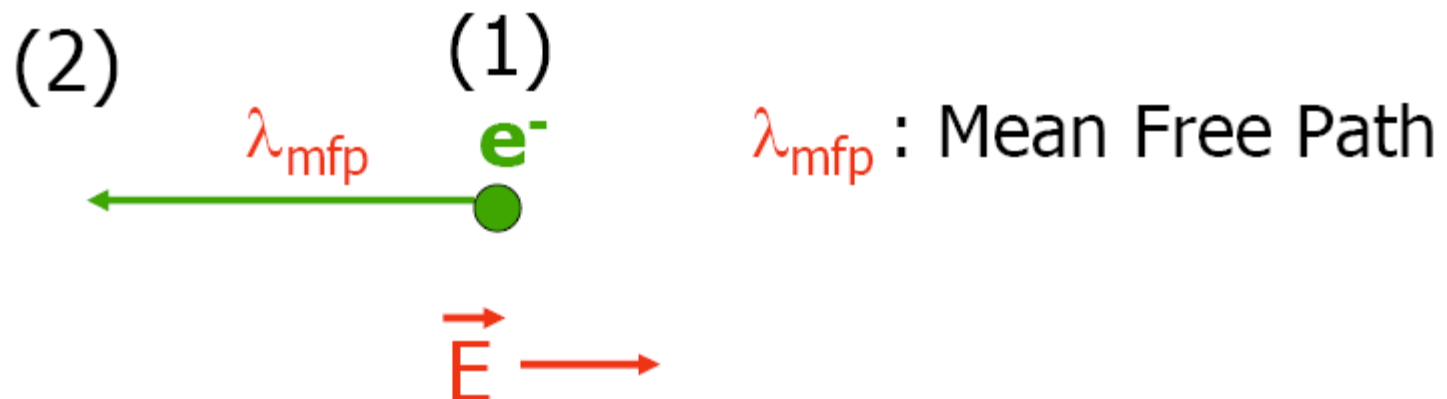
Note that because the total momentum of the system has to be conserved, the velocity, momentum, and kinetic energy of the centre of mass are conserved throughout the collision (this is true for any type of collision, including inelastic and reactive ones). Energy 'tied up' in the motion of the centre of mass is therefore not available for the collision. For a reactive collision, this energy does not help overcome any activation barrier that might be present.

$$K_{\text{rel}} = \frac{1}{2} \mu \mathbf{v}_{\text{rel}}^2$$

reduced mass of the two particles, $\mu = m_1 m_2 / M$

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{rel}} = \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_1$$

Impact Ionization In Gases



- To get avalanche we need:

ΔU_{kin} between collisions (1) and (2) $> V_{ion} * e$

- Acceleration in uniform Field

$\Delta U_{kin} = V_2 - V_1 = e E d_{12}$

- Avalanche condition then

$E > V_{ion} / \lambda_{mfp}$

Impact Ionization and Avalanche in Semiconductors

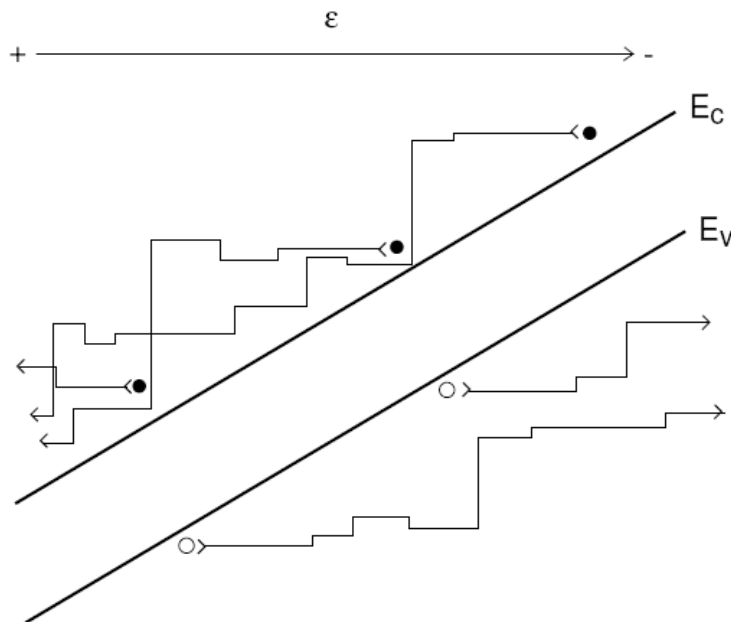
Lattice-scattering effects can result in the creation of e-h pairs if the carrier being scattered has sufficient energy. For example, if the electric field E is large, an electron entering from the p-side may be accelerated to high enough kinetic energy to cause an ionizing collision with the lattice. The carrier multiplication can become high **if carriers generated within the transition region also have ionizing collisions with the lattice. This is an avalanche process, since each incoming carrier can initiate the creation of a large number of new carriers.**

Impact Ionization and Avalanche in Semiconductors

Assume that a carrier has a probability P of having an ionizing collision while being accelerated over a distance λ . After first collision we have $n_{in}(1+P)$ carriers. Now the secondary carriers $n_{in}P$ might undergo a ionizing collision resulting in $n_{in}P \times P = n_{in}P^2$ of tertiary e-h pairs. Summing up the total number of electrons, we have

$$n_{out} = n_{in}(1 + P + P^2 + P^3 + \dots) = n_{in} / (1 - P).$$

We can define a multiplication factor according to: $M_n = \frac{n_{out}}{n_{in}} = \frac{1}{1 - P}$

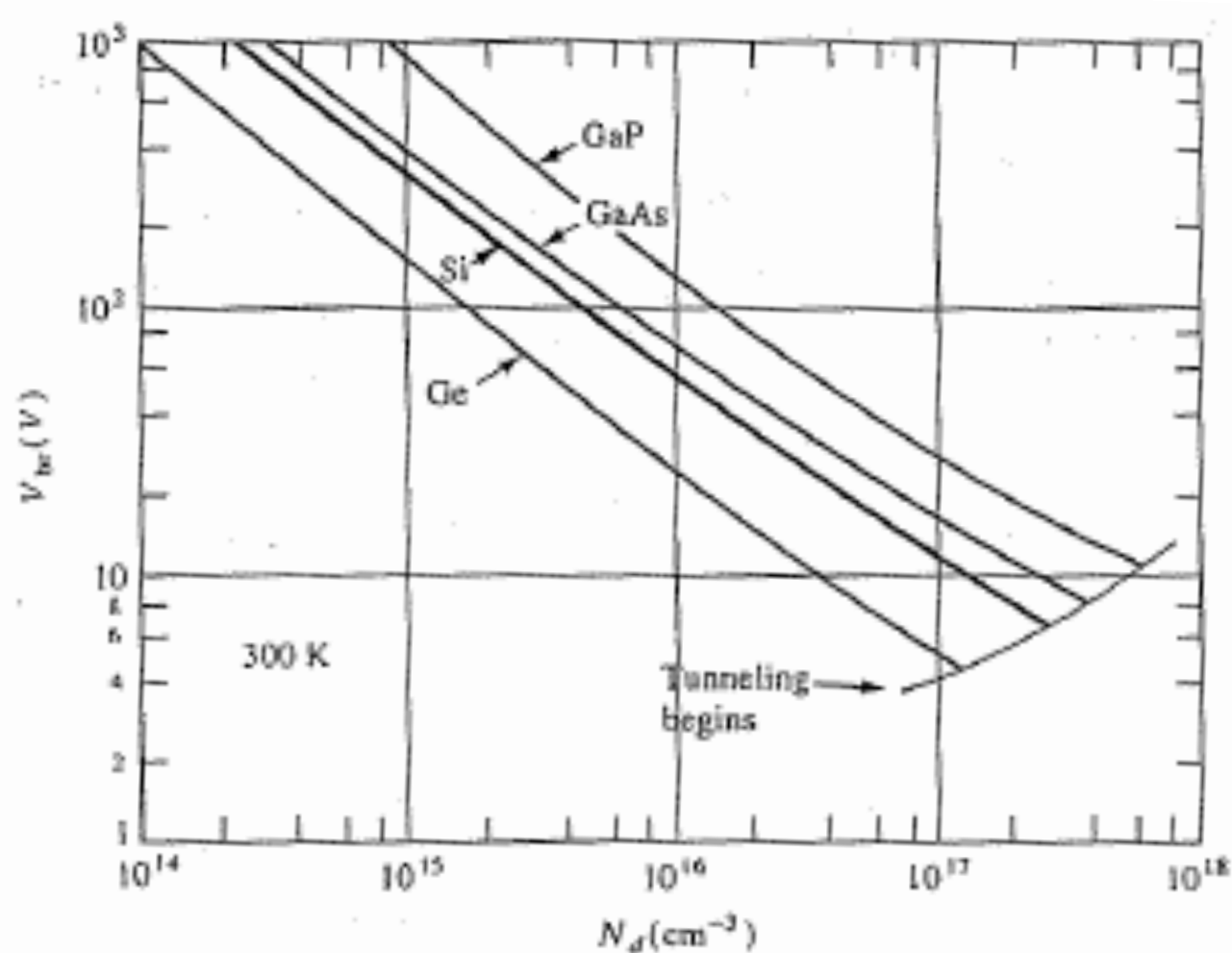


As the probability of ionization approaches unity the carrier multiplication increases without limit.

Empirically, one has found

$$M = \frac{1}{1 - (V / V_{BR})^n} \quad \text{where} \quad n = 3 - 6$$

Figure 5-19
Variation of
avalanche
breakdown voltage
in abrupt p^+-n
junctions, as a
function of donor
concentration on
the n side, for
several
semiconductors.
[After S. M. Sze and
G. Gibbons,
*Applied Physics
Letters*, vol. 8,
p. 111 (1966).]



Impact Ionization Coefficient

$$G_{II} = \alpha_n n v_n + \alpha_p p v_p \qquad \alpha = AE \exp\left(-\frac{B}{E}\right)$$

α_n is the electron ionization rate defined as the number of e-h pairs generated by an electron per unit distance traveled. α_p is the hole ionization rate, n and p are electron and hole concentrations and v_n and v_p are the thermal velocities for electrons and holes, respectively.

Derivation:

$$n^* = n \cdot \exp(-d / \lambda)$$

$$dn = C n^* \frac{dx}{d}$$

$$d = \Delta E_{\min} / (qE_{el})$$

$$dn = C n^* \frac{dx}{d} = \frac{C q E_{el}}{\Delta E_{\min}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta E_{\min}}{\lambda q E_{el}}\right) \cdot n \cdot dx$$

$$\alpha = A E_{el} \exp\left(-\frac{B}{E_{el}}\right)$$

n^* – density of ionizing collisions

$\exp(-d/\lambda)$ probability for no collision in a distance d

d – distance necessary to gain adequate energy

ΔE_{\min} minimum energy necessary for an ionizing collision

λ is the mean-free path

dx/d number of ionizing collisions in the distance d .

Derivation of the Impact Ionization Coefficient

n^* density of ionizing electrons is $n^*=n \times p(d)$ where n is the total density of electrons and $p(d)$ is the probability that electron traveling a distance d **has not suffered** a collision

$$p(d) = \exp\left(-\frac{d}{\lambda}\right)$$

where λ is the mean free path. In Si λ is about 100Å.

If $d=10\text{Å}$ then $p(10\text{Å})=0.9$, if $d=100\text{Å}$ then $p(100\text{Å})=0.37$; if $d=1000\text{Å}$ then $p(1000)=4.5\text{E-}4$.

The length d necessary to gain adequate energy to break the bond (cause e-h pair creation, can be found from the minimum ionization energy E_{\min} and the electric field E_{el} that accelerates the electron

Example: For $E_{el}=5 \times 10^5 \text{V/cm}$ and $E_{\min}=1.5 \times E_g$
We obtain $d=33 \text{ nm}$ and $p(33\text{nm})=0.037$

$$E_{\min} = q \cdot d \cdot E_{el} \quad \text{or} \quad d = \frac{E_{\min}}{qE_{el}}$$

Derivation of the Impact Ionization Coefficient

The number of ionizing collisions in the distance dx is proportional to dx/d if we assume that the electron collides immediately (or soon enough) after gaining sufficient energy to ionize an atom.

Then the number of electrons δn created in such collisions will be

$$\delta n \propto n^* \times \frac{dx}{d} \quad \text{or} \quad \delta n = A \times n^* \times \frac{dx}{d}$$

where A is a proportionality constant. Thus

$$n^* = n \times p(d) = n \times \exp\left(-\frac{d}{\lambda}\right) \quad d = \frac{E_{\min}}{qE_{el}}$$

And
$$\delta n = A \times n^* \times \frac{dx}{d} = A \times n \times \exp\left(-\frac{E_{\min}}{\lambda qE_{el}}\right) \times \frac{qE_{el}}{E_{\min}} dx$$

We can write

$$\delta n = \alpha \times n \times dx \quad \text{with} \quad \alpha = A \times \exp\left(-\frac{E_{\min}}{\lambda qE_{el}}\right) \times \frac{qE_{el}}{E_{\min}} \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha = K \times E_{el} \times \exp\left(-\frac{B}{E_{el}}\right)$$

Estimate of d

d-distance necessary to gain ionizing energy

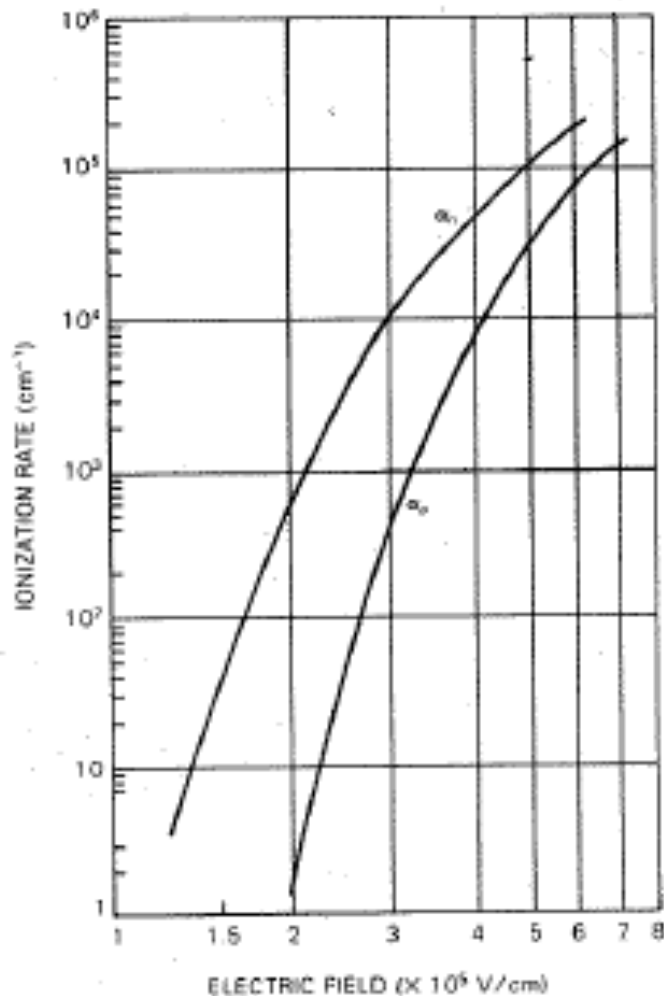
Let ΔE_{\min} be the minimum energy necessary for an ionizing collision and E_{el} be the average electric field that accelerates electron:

$$d = \Delta E_{\min} / (qE_{el})$$

Impact Ionization Coefficient

Small increase in field as the voltage approaches breakdown voltage causes sharp increase in current.

for silicon



$$\alpha_n = 3.8 \times 10^6 \exp(-1.75 \times 10^6 / E)$$

$$\alpha_p = 2.25 \times 10^7 \exp(-3.26 \times 10^6 / E)$$

The ionization rates are known to decrease as the temperature increases. (why?)

The ionization rate for electrons is higher than that for holes by one-to-two orders of magnitude.

Impact Ionization or Multiplication Coefficient

Since the maximum field in a pn^+ junction is approximately given by

$$E_{\max} = E_{crit} = \left(\frac{2qN_a |V_R|}{\epsilon_s} \right)^{1/2}$$

V_{BR} in equation

$$M = \frac{1}{1 - (V / V_{BR})^n} = \frac{1}{1 - \int_{x_a}^{x_c} \alpha \cdot dx}$$

One obtains approximately

$$V_{BR} = \frac{\epsilon_s E_{crit}^2}{2qN_a}$$

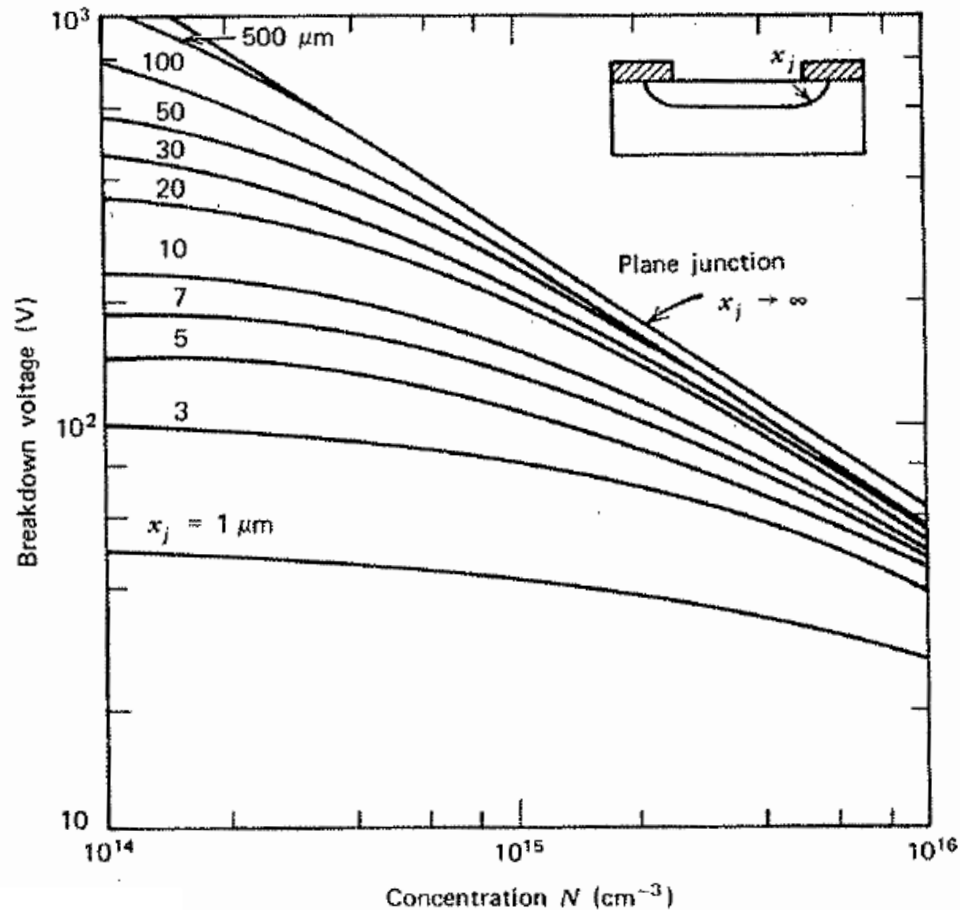
$$x_c - x_a = W$$

W is width of the depletion region

The last equation illustrates that the breakdown decreases for more heavily doped material.

Although the decrease is not quite as rapid as indicated in the equation above; one finds that V_{BR} varies with doping as $N_a^{-2/3}$. At higher N_a slightly higher critical field E_{crit} is needed.

Impact of Geometry on Avalanche



Breakdown voltage of one-sided, planar, silicon step junction showing the effect of junction curvature.^{4,5}

The field in the sharp corner regions can be markedly higher than in the rest of the junction, causing breakdown to occur there at unexpectedly low voltages.

The reduction in breakdown voltage is especially severe for a shallow junction with a small curvature radius. It becomes less serious as the junction depth increases.

Temperature Dependence of Avalanche

Impact ionization coefficient decreases with temperature because the free mean path λ decreases with increasing temperature (more scattering of carriers with the lattice).

Zener Breakdown or Band-to-Band-Tunneling

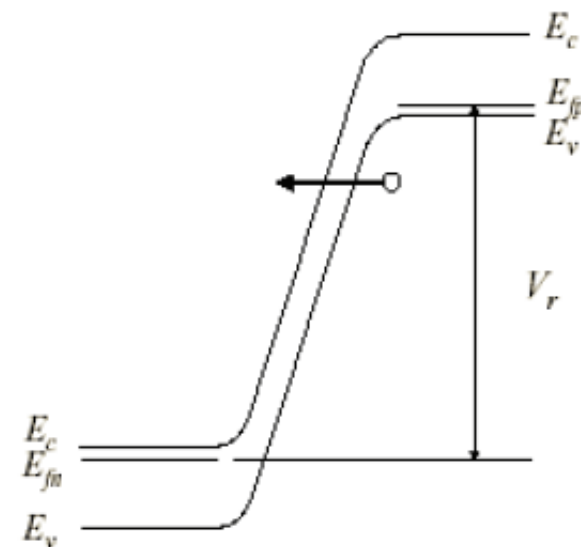
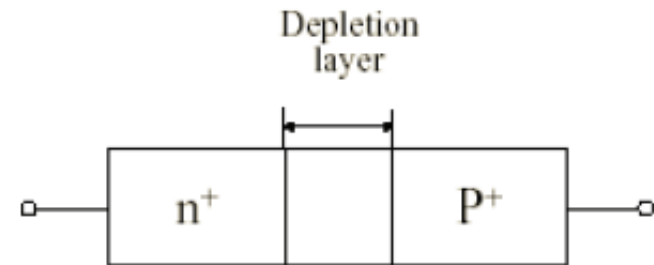
Two pictures:

- 1) Electric field high enough to free (rip off) a (covalently) bound electron from the atom without interaction of any other particle.
- 2) Electron makes a tunneling transition from a valence band to conduction band if the tunneling barrier is thin enough (requires high electric fields)

Both pictures are equivalent !!

Zener breakdown

- Band to band (quantum-mechanical tunneling) occurs when valence electrons in p side pass through the depletion layer and reach the n-side conduction band.
- This mechanism is possible if the depletion layer is **very thin** and the electric field is **high**.
- High impurity concentration on both the p and n sides ($> 5 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$).
- Zener Breakdown field is about 10^6 V/cm .
- The depletion layer is thin and the breakdown field is reached approximately with a reverse bias less than $4E_g/q$ ($\approx 6\text{V}$).

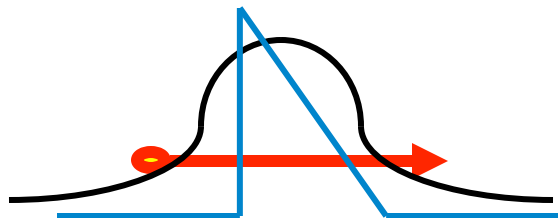


Band-To-Band Tunneling

- Tunneling is a quantum mechanical phenomenon with no analog in classical physics
- Occurs when an electron passes through a potential barrier without having enough energy to do so



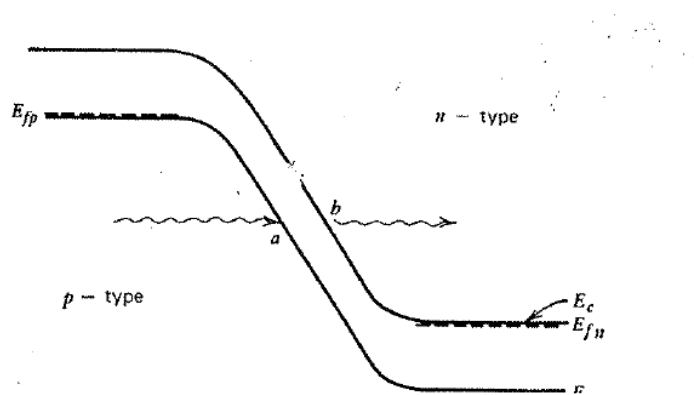
Golf ball “tunnels” through the mound.



Triangular barrier

Band-To-Band Tunneling

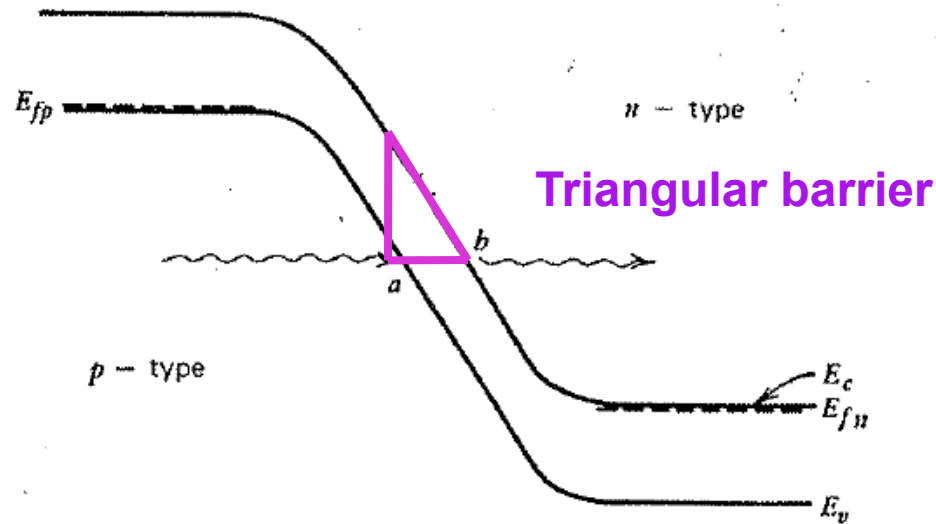
Zener breakdown occurs when the force exerted by the electric field is strong enough to rip an electron from its covalent bond to create electron-hole pair.



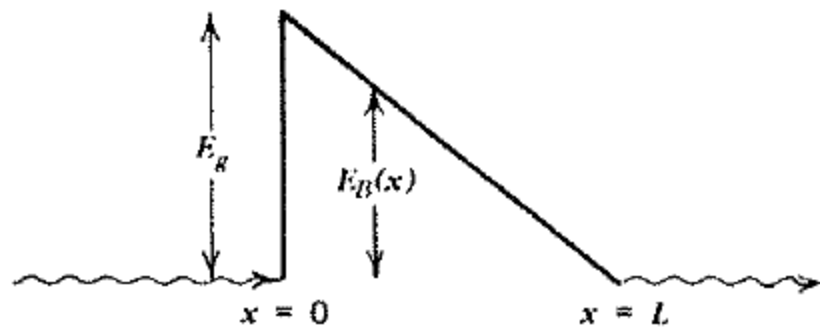
A large number of valence electrons in the p-region are separated by a narrow depletion region from empty allowed states at the same energy in the conduction band of the n-type side.

At a given reverse bias the energy bands in the depletion region are bent steeply downward. **Because of the wave nature of the electron, there is a probability that the valence electron of the p-material can tunnel through the forbidden region and appear at the same energy in the conduction band of the n-material.**

BTBT - Q.M. Treatment



Energy-band diagram of a reverse-biased junction that has a high dopant concentration on both sides. Tunneling or Zener breakdown is likely in this type of junction.



The height of the energy barrier E_g decreases linearly from E_g at $x=0$ to zero at $x=L$, and the average field is $E_{el}=E_g/qL$.

The probability of tunneling across the junction may be approximated by considering tunneling through a triangular barrier.

Derivation of the Band-to-Band Tunneling

We derive of the tunnel probability from the time independent Schrödinger equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} \frac{d^2\Psi}{dx^2} + V(x)\Psi = E\Psi$$

which can be rewritten as

$$\frac{d^2\Psi}{dx^2} = \frac{2m^* (V - E)}{\hbar^2} \Psi$$

Assuming that $V(x)-E$ is independent of position (**i.e. slow varying**) in a section between x and $x+dx$ this equation can be solved yielding:

$$\Psi(x + dx) = \Psi(x) \exp(-k dx) \text{ with } k = \frac{\sqrt{2m^*[V(x) - E]}}{\hbar}$$

The minus sign is chosen since we assume the particle to move from left to right. For a slowly varying potential the amplitude of the wave function at $x = L$ can be related to the wave function at $x = 0$:

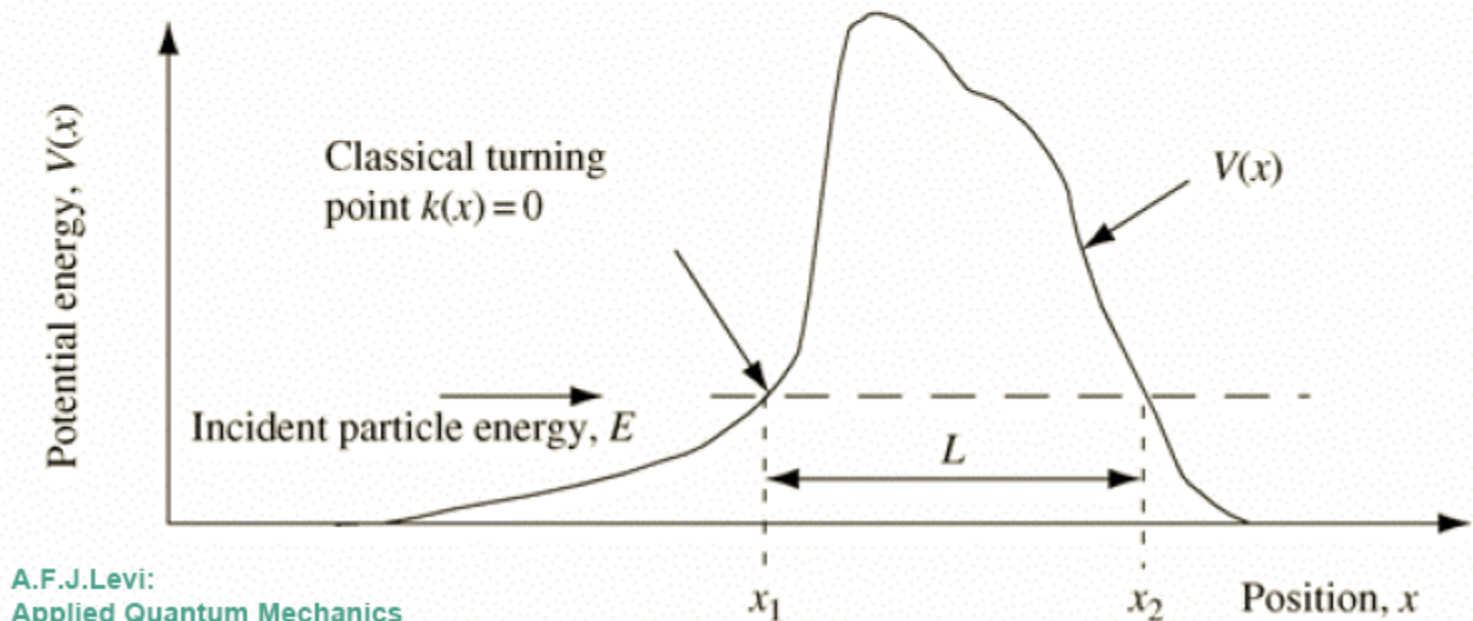
$$\Psi(L) = \Psi(0) \exp\left(-\int_0^L \frac{\sqrt{2m^*[V(x) - E]}}{\hbar} dx\right)$$

This equation is referred to as the WKB (Wigner, Kramers, Brillouin) approximation.

Tunneling Probability for a barrier with arbitrary shape

$$\Theta = \frac{\Psi(L)\Psi^*(L)}{\Psi(0)\Psi^*(0)} \cong \exp\left(-2\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \sqrt{\frac{2m(V(x)-E)}{\hbar^2}} dx\right)$$

known as Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin (WKB) approximation



WKB valid for potential that vary slowly on a scale of the wavelength

Derivation of the Band-to-Band Tunneling

From the wavefunction the tunneling probability, Θ , can be calculated for a triangular barrier for which $V(x)-E = q\phi_B (1-x/L)$ the tunneling probability then becomes:

$$\Theta = \frac{\Psi(L)\Psi^*(L)}{\Psi(0)\Psi^*(0)} = \exp\left(-2 \frac{\sqrt{2m^*}}{h/2\pi} \int_0^L \sqrt{qE_g(1-\frac{x}{L})} dx\right) \quad \Theta = \exp\left(-\frac{4}{3} \frac{q\sqrt{2m^*} \cdot E_g^{3/2}}{\hbar \cdot E_{el}}\right)$$

The tunneling current is obtained from the product of the carrier charge, velocity and density. The velocity equals the Richardson velocity, the velocity with which on average the carriers approach the barrier while the carrier density equals the density of available electrons multiplied with the tunneling probability, yielding: (since $E_{el}=E_g/qL$)

$$\Theta = \exp\left(-\frac{4}{3} \frac{q\sqrt{2m^*} \cdot E_g^{3/2}}{\hbar \cdot E_{el}}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{4}{3} \frac{\sqrt{2m^*} \cdot E_g^{1/2} \cdot L}{\hbar}\right)$$

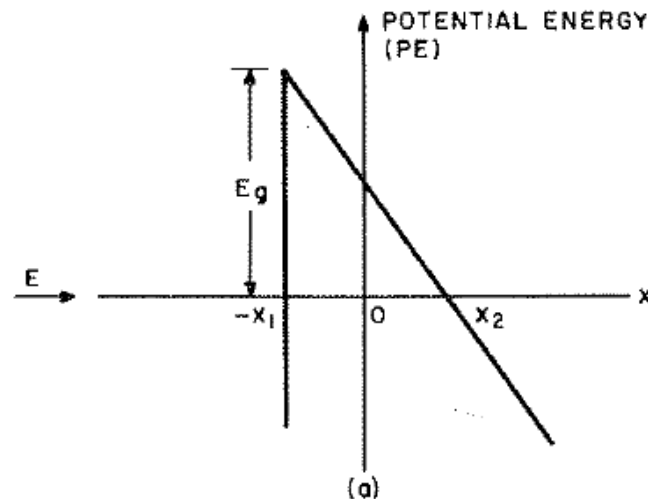
$$E_{el} = E_g / (L \cdot q)$$

The current is the product of the area, the electron charge, the number of valence-band electrons N_v in the p-region arriving per second at the barrier to “see” empty states across the barrier in the conduction band of the n-material, and the probability that each electron tunnels through the barrier.

$$I_{BTBT} = q \cdot A \cdot N_v \cdot v_{therm} \cdot \Theta$$

Exercise for $E_g(\text{Si, Ge, GaAs})$

$I_{BTBT}=10\text{mA}$ across a junction of 10^{-5} cm^2 , $N_v(\text{Si})=10^{22}\text{ cm}^{-3}$, $v_{therm}(\text{Si})=10^7\text{ cm/sec}$. What is the tunneling probability Θ , the tunnel thickness L , and electric field E_{el} ?



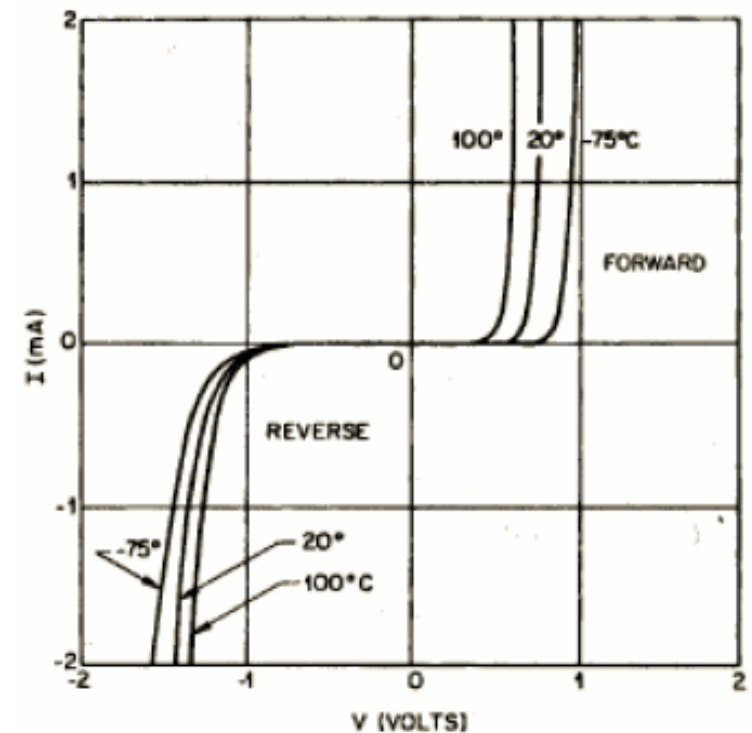
Zener Breakdown – Temperature Dependence

The tunneling current density can be expressed as :

$$J_T = \frac{\sqrt{2m^*} q^3 EV}{4\pi^2 \hbar^2 E_g^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{4\sqrt{2m^*} E_g^{3/2}}{3\hbar Eq}\right)$$

Where E is the electric field at the junction and V is the applied voltage

- Since the energy bandgap E_g *decreases* with *increasing* temperature, the Zener breakdown voltage *decreases* with *increasing* temperature.

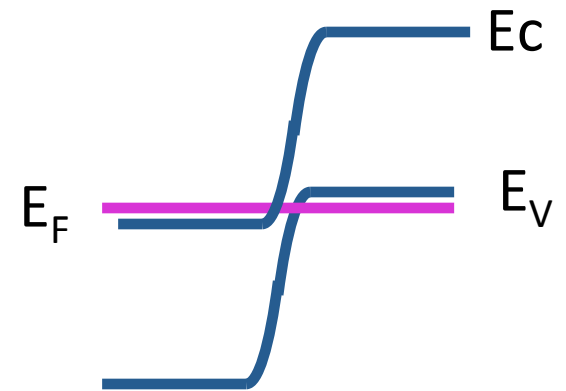


Opposite temperature effect to the impact ionization effect.

Measurements at different temperatures can reveal which mechanism is at work!

(Esaki 1958) Tunnel Diodes (TD)

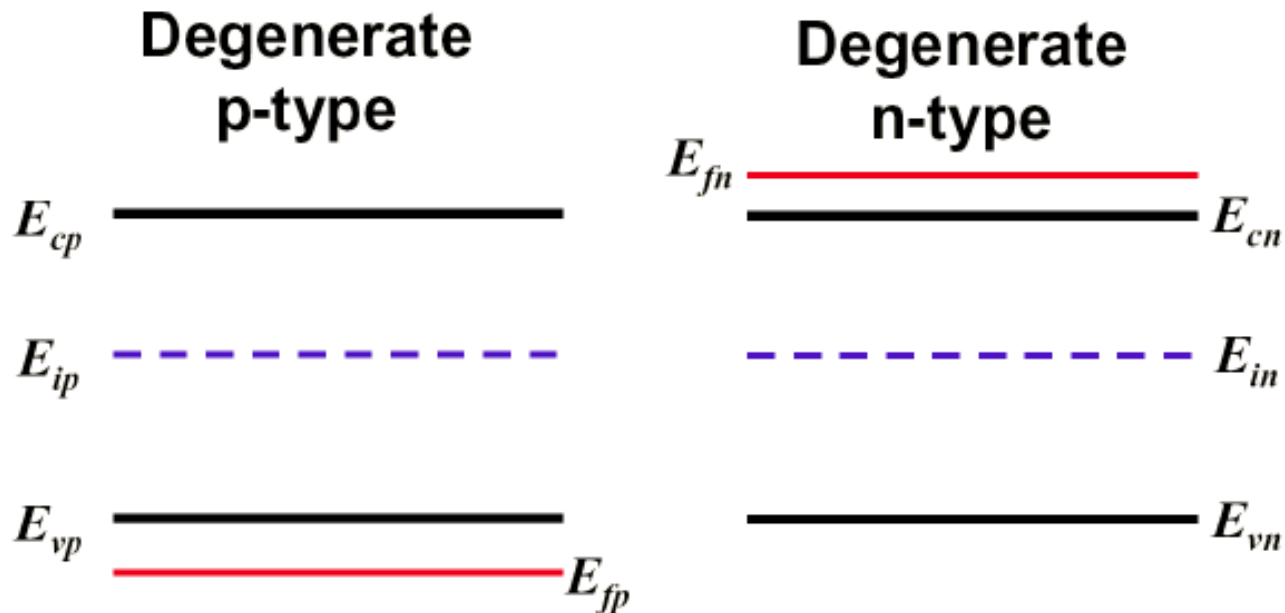
Nobel prize



- Simplest tunneling device
- Heavily-doped pn junction
 - Leads to overlap of conduction and valence bands
- Carriers are able to tunnel band to band
- Tunneling goes exponentially with tunneling distance
 - Requires junction to be abrupt to assure a thin enough tunneling barrier

tunnel diode

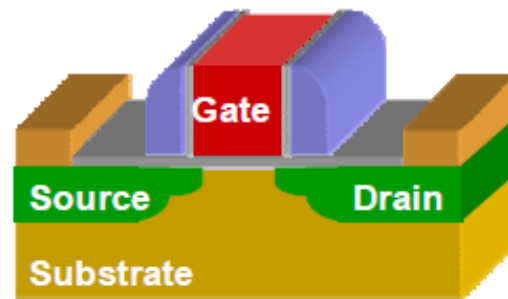
- pn-diode with very high (degeneration) donor and acceptor concentrations
- very sharp transition in metallic junction
- very thin depletion region (5-10 nm), which allows tunneling between conduction band of n-type and valence band of p-type semiconductor



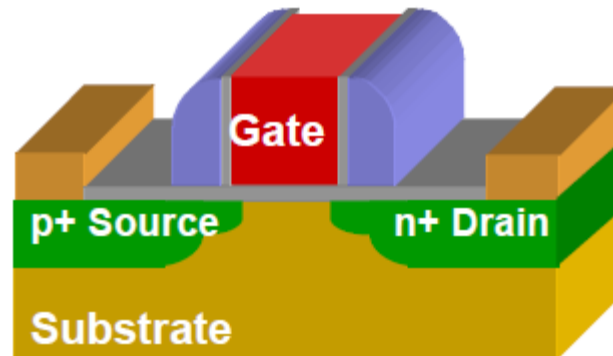
Amount of degeneracy is typically a few kT; depletion layer less than 100Å

**Replacement of the
Conventional MOSFET by a
Tunneling MOSFET
or TFET**

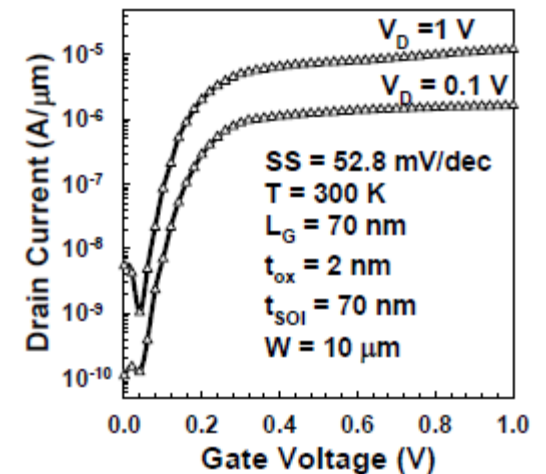
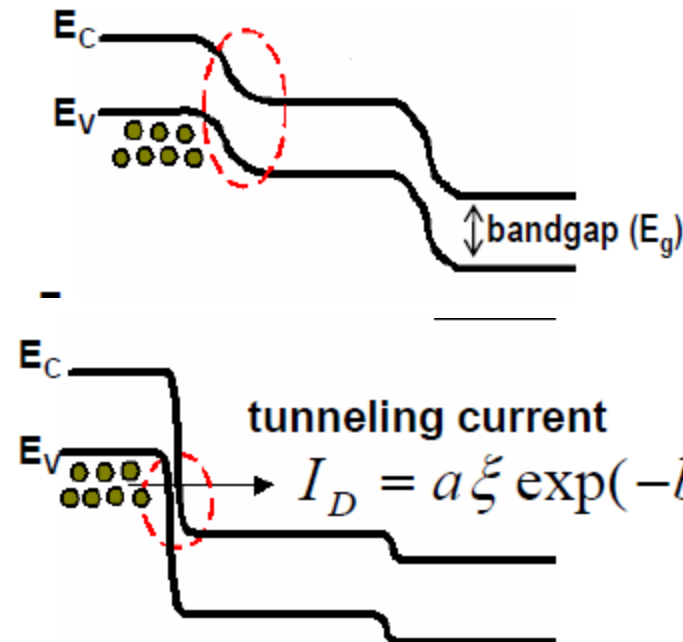
MOSFET



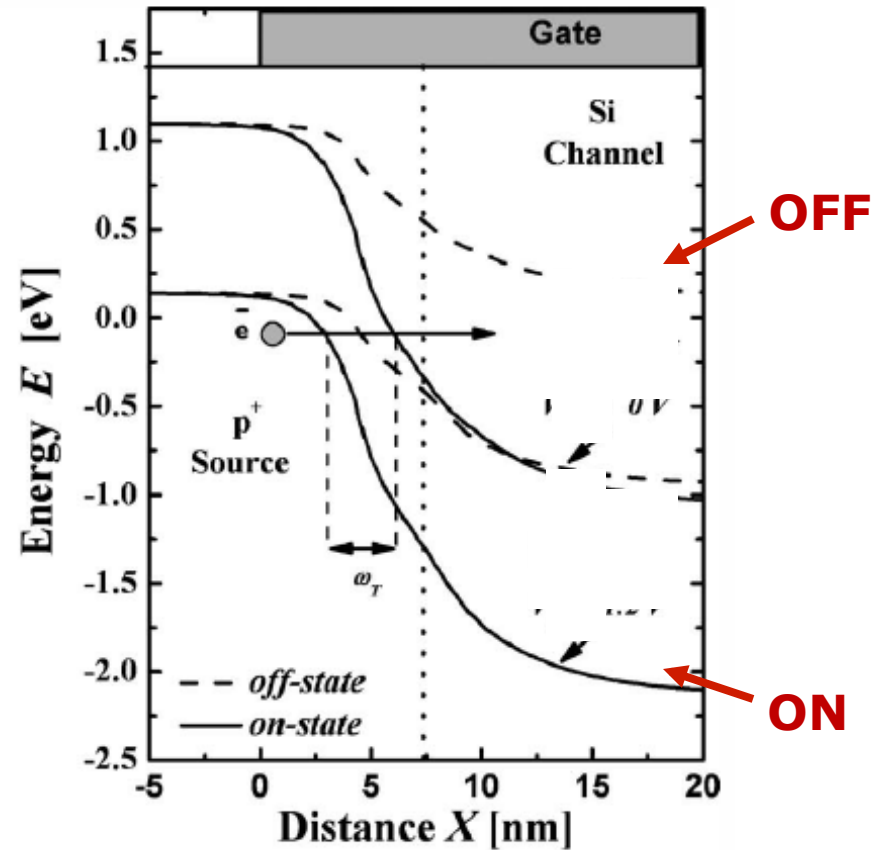
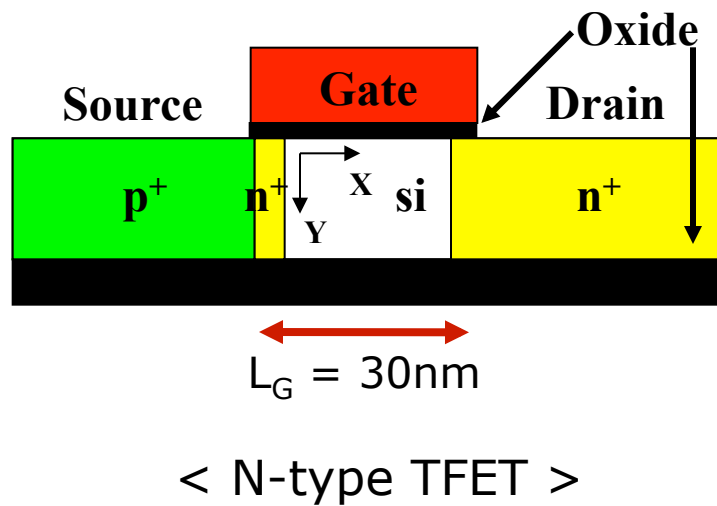
Tunnel FET



OFF STATE:



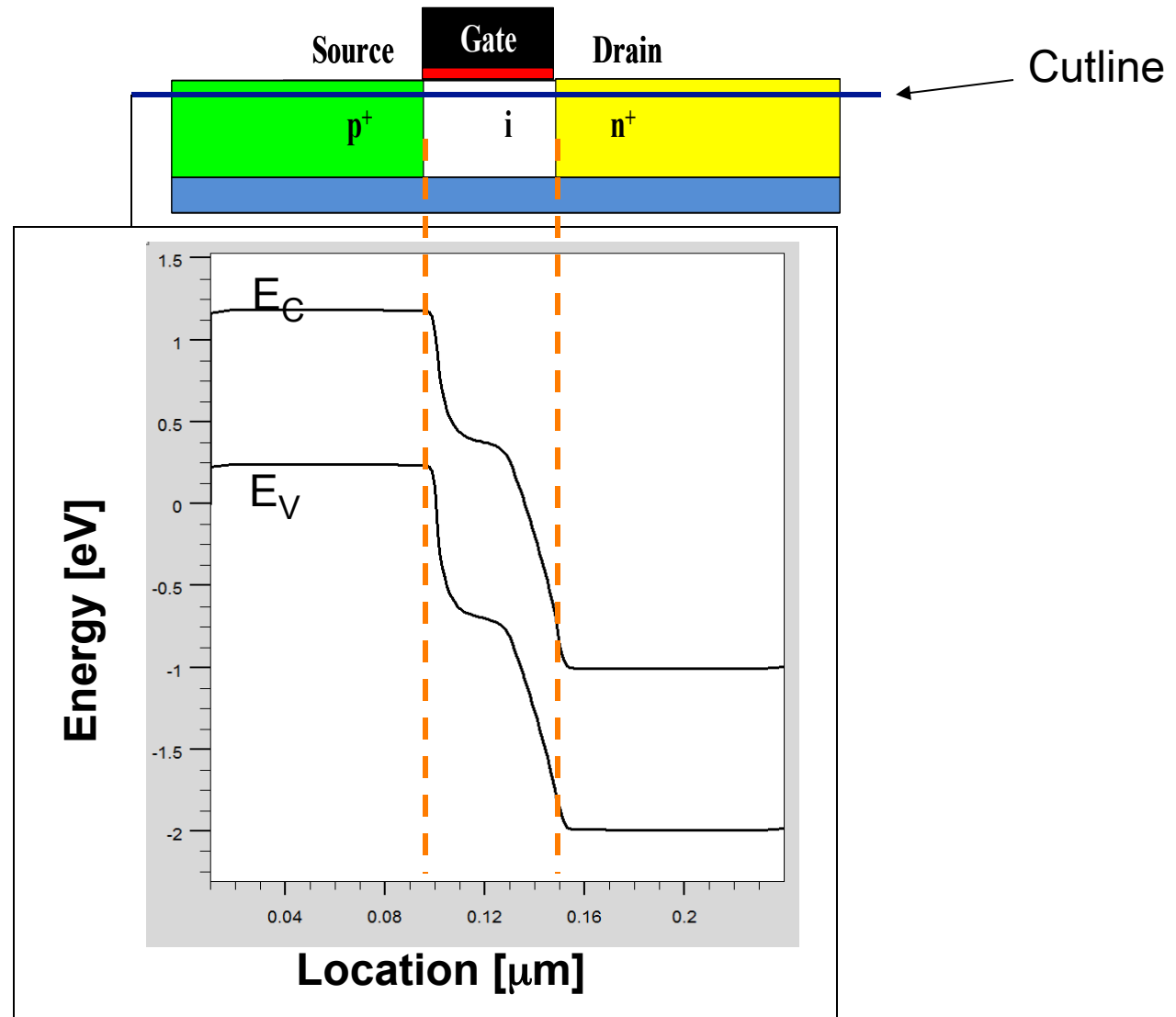
Lateral SOI TFET



< Band-to-band tunneling >

TFET – the operation principle

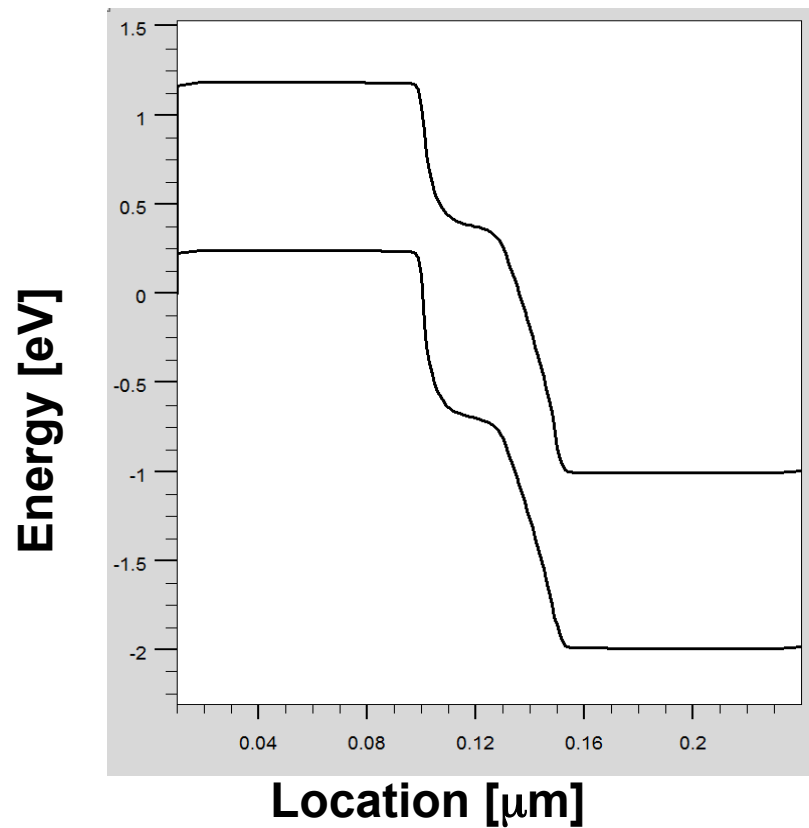
$$V_G = 0V$$
$$V_D = 1V$$



TFET – the operation principle

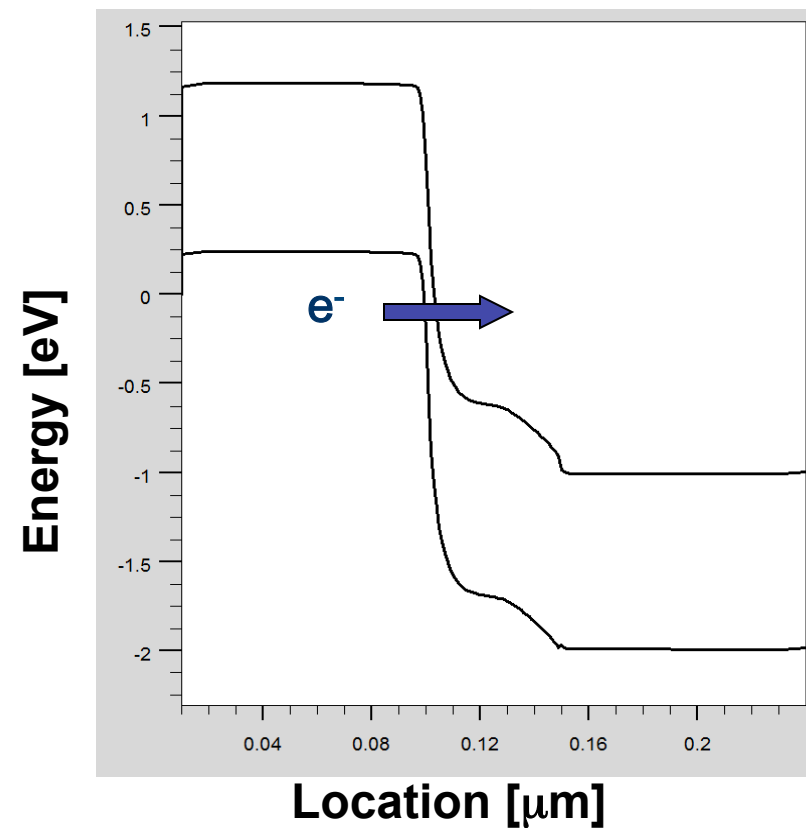
TFET
OFF state

$$V_G = 0V$$
$$V_D = 1V$$



TFET
ON state

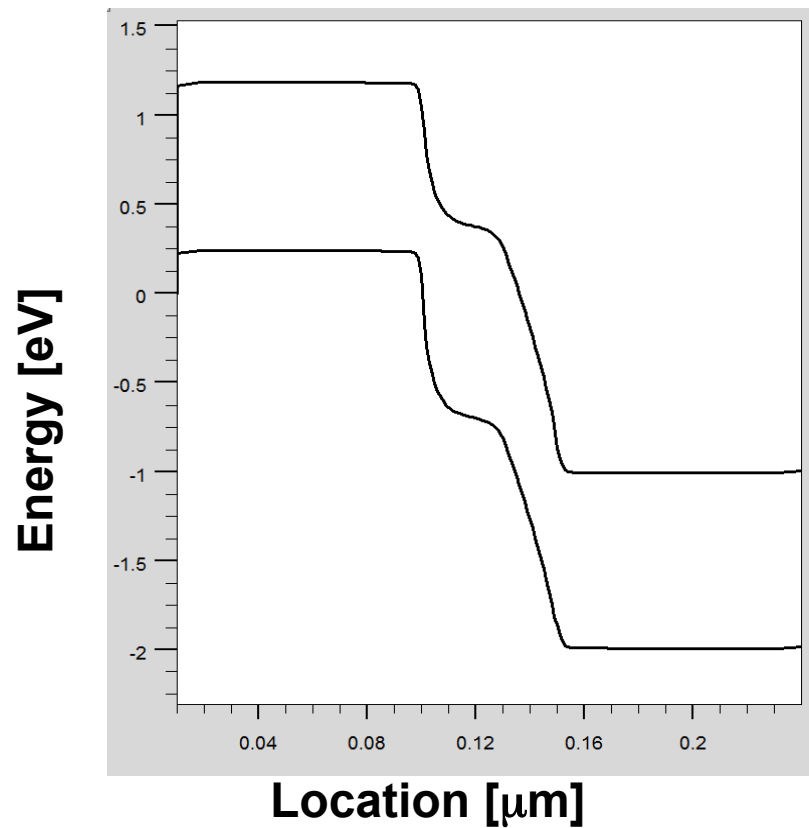
$$V_G = 1V$$
$$V_D = 1V$$



TFET – the operation principle

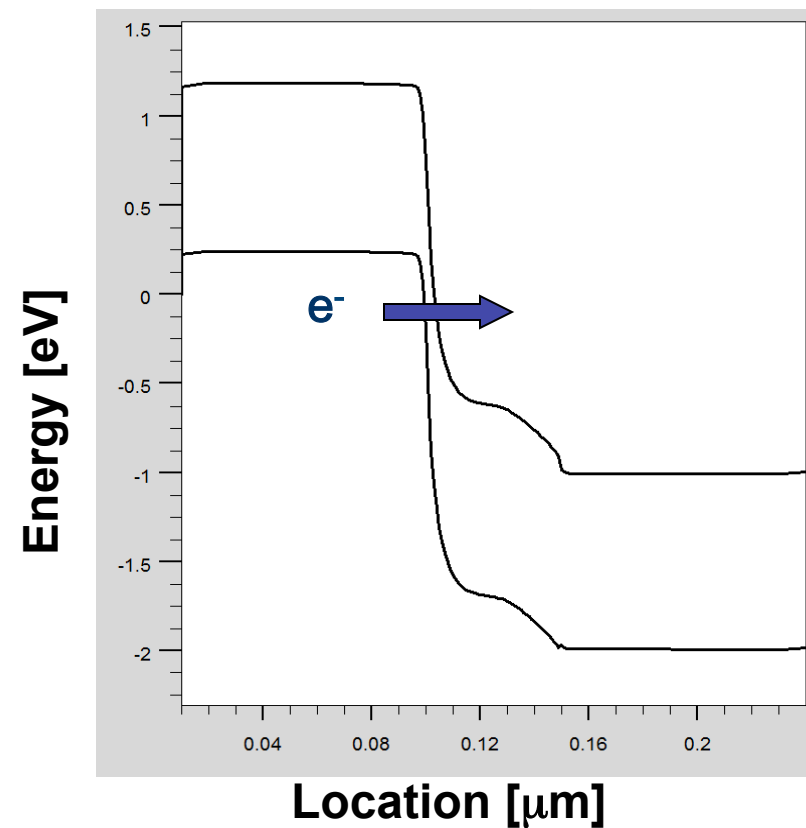
TFET
OFF state

$$V_G = 0V$$
$$V_D = 1V$$



TFET
ON state

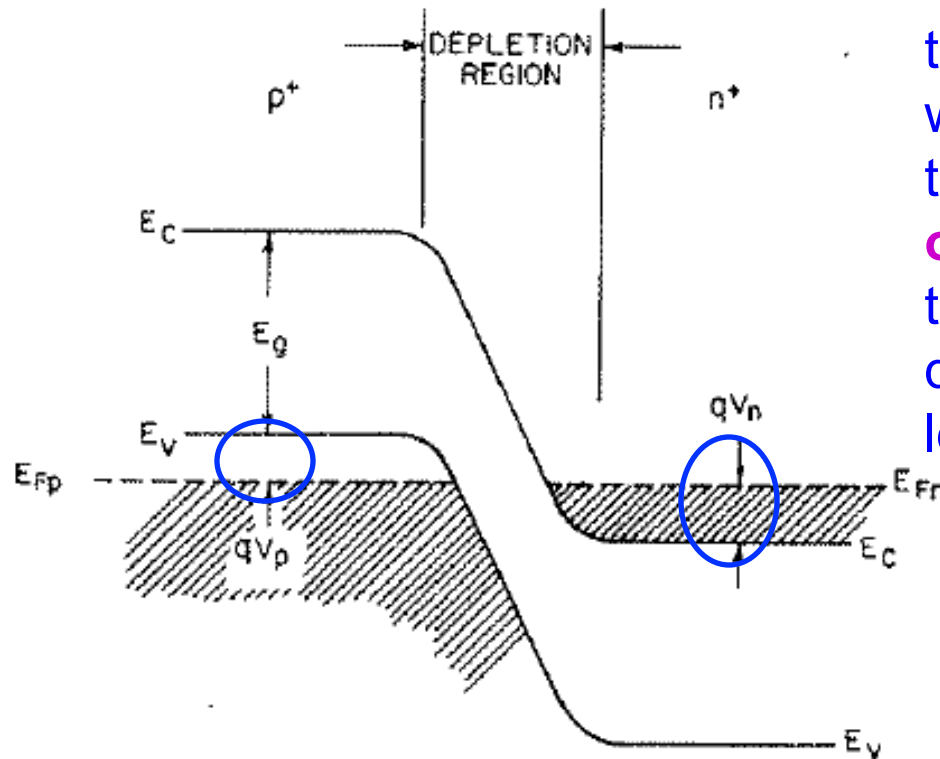
$$V_G = 1V$$
$$V_D = 1V$$



Back to Esaki Tunnel Diode

p and n-side are degenerate (very highly doped);

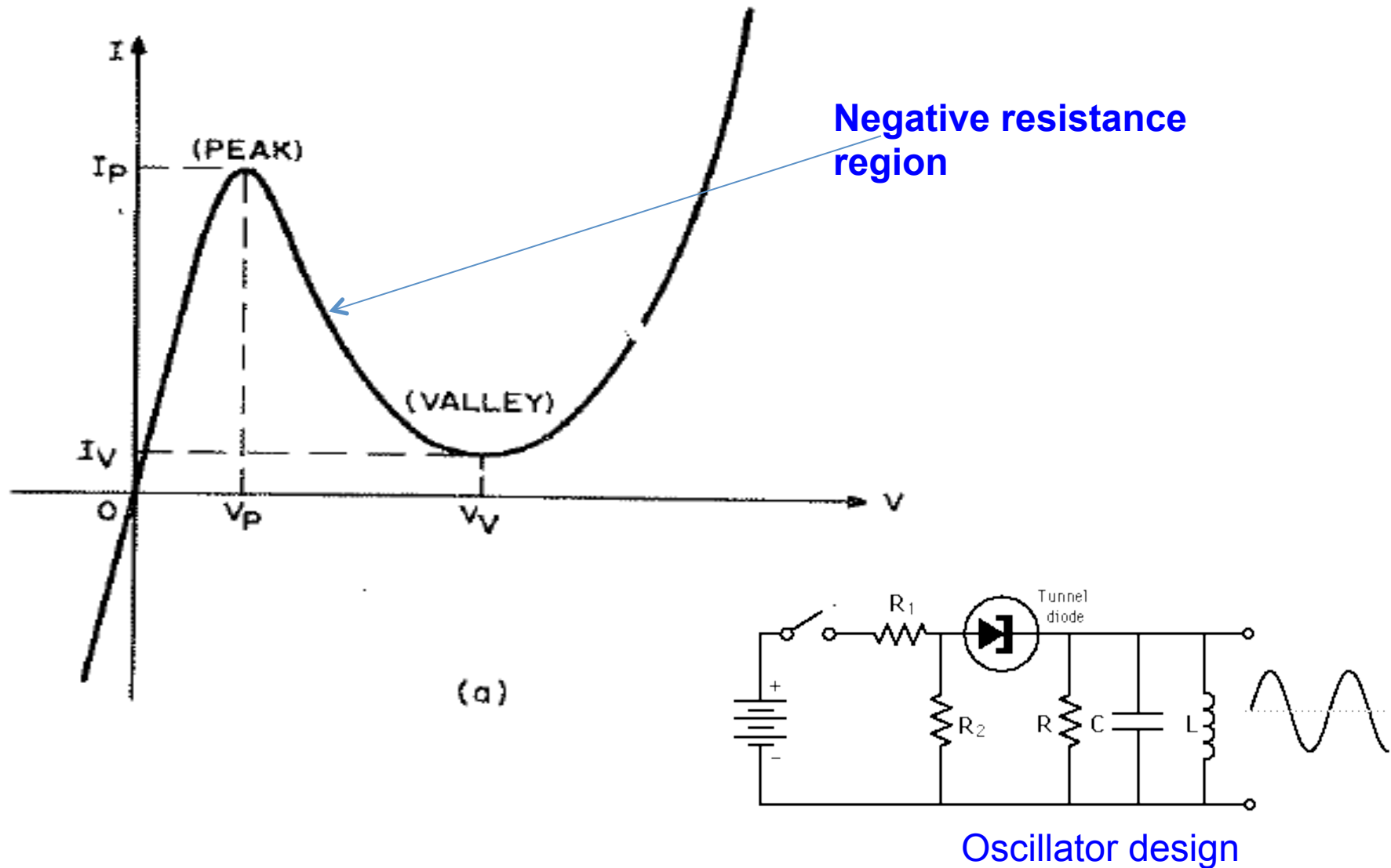
therefore E_F is located within the allowed bands themselves; the **measure of degeneracy** V_p and V_n is typically a few kT . The depletion width is 100 Å or less.



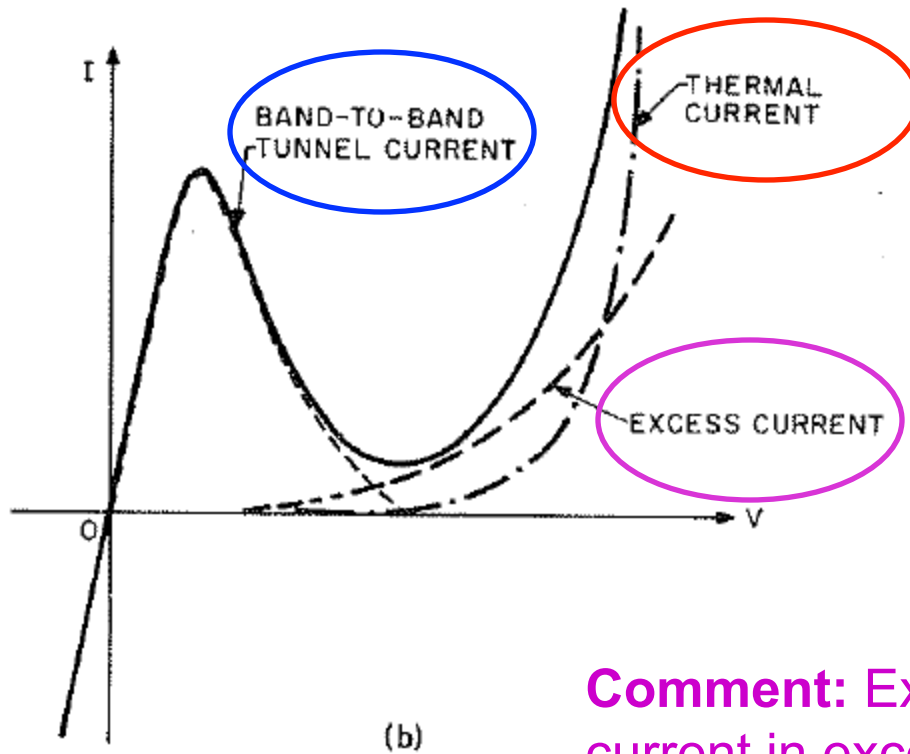
Energy-band diagram of a tunnel diode in thermal equilibrium. V_p and V_n are the degeneracies on the p-side and n-side, respectively.

Measure of degeneracy V_p and V_n

I-V Characteristics of a Tunnel Diode



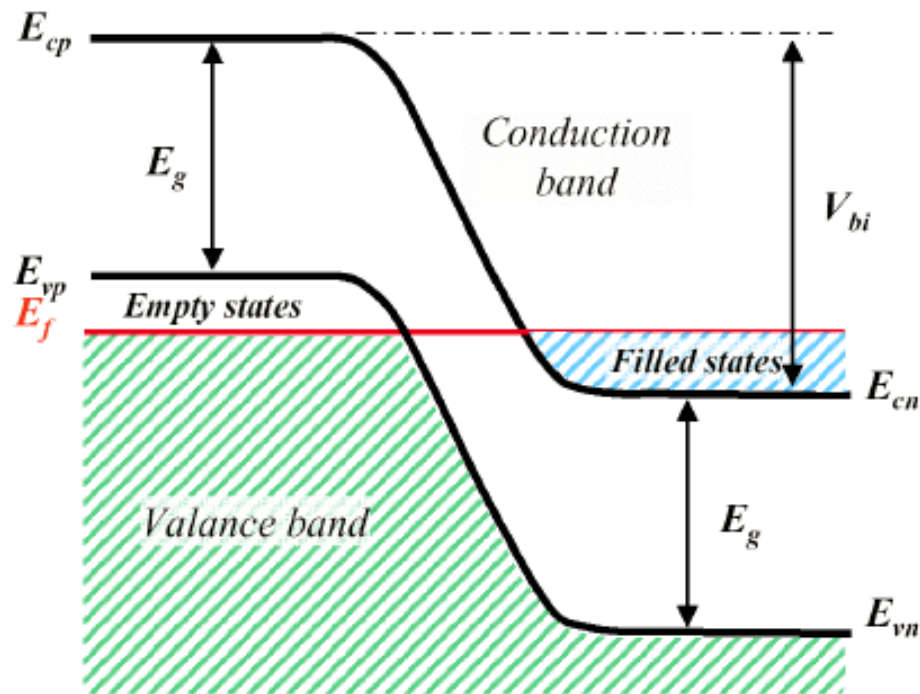
Three current components:



- BTBT current
- excess current
- thermal current

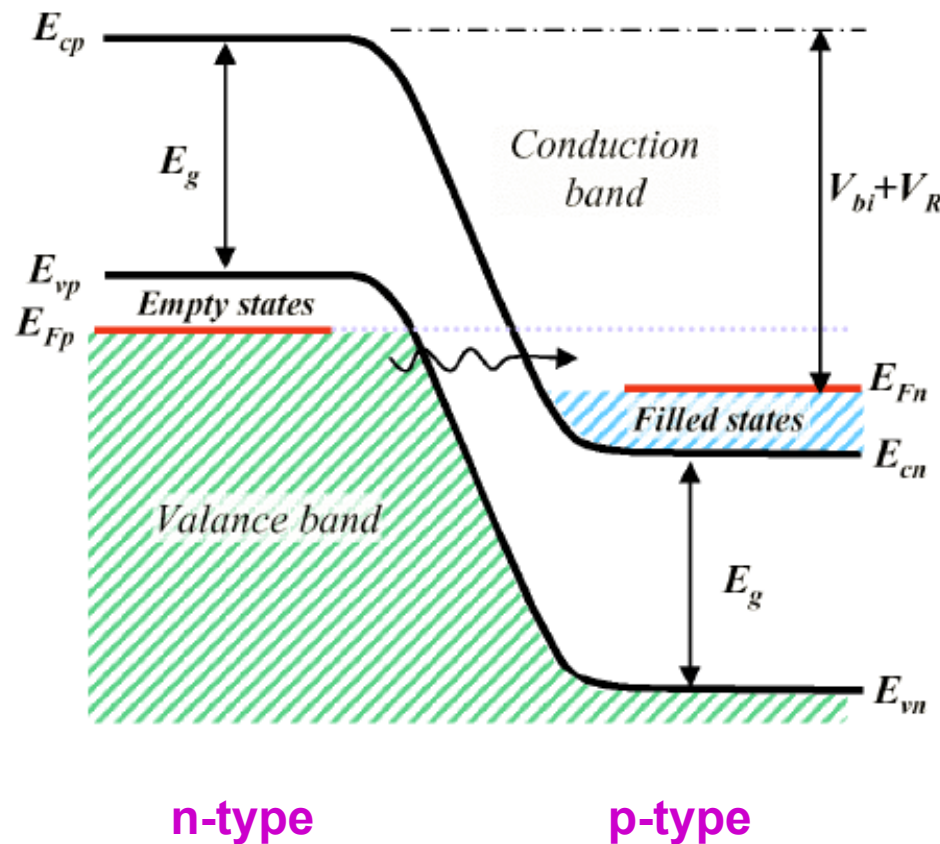
Comment: Excess current is if you will a parasitic current in excess of the normal diode current. The excess current is mainly due to carrier tunneling by way of defects (energy states within the forbidden energy gap E_g).

Tunnel Diode $V=0$



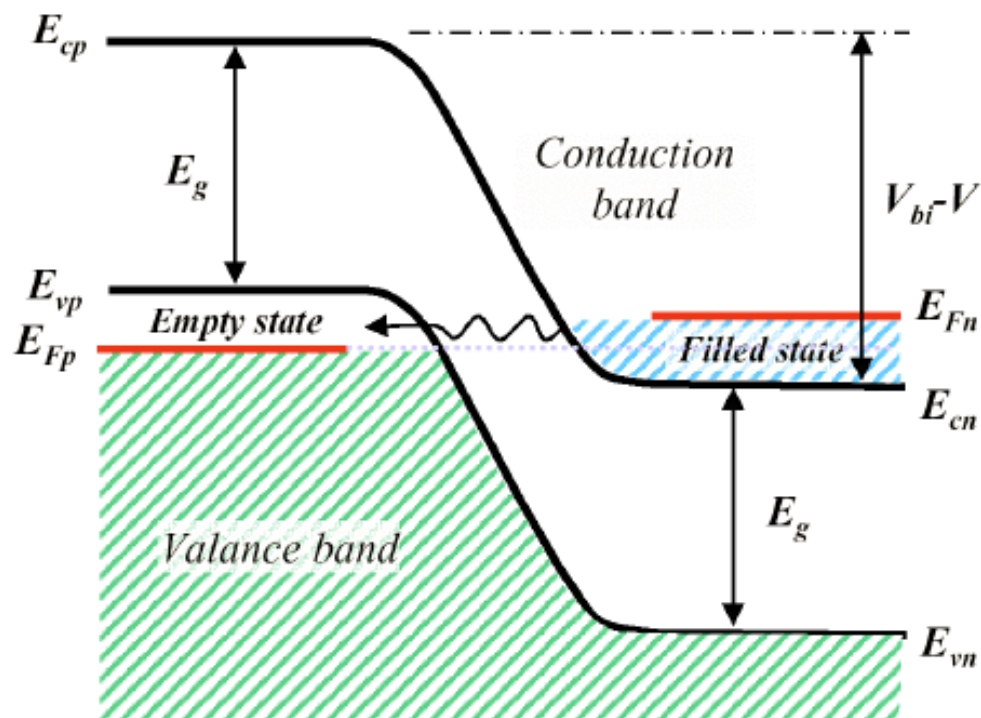
- no external voltage applied to the junction
- Fermi levels in p and n type semiconductor are on the same level
- the tunnel currents from p to n and from n to p are equal

tunnel diode: reverse polarized



- reverse voltage V_R applied
- Fermi level in p-type semiconductor higher than in n-type one
- tunneling of electrons from the p-type semiconductor valence band to the n-type semiconductor conduction band
- EVB-tunneling
- current increases with increasing voltage

tunnel diode: forward polarized

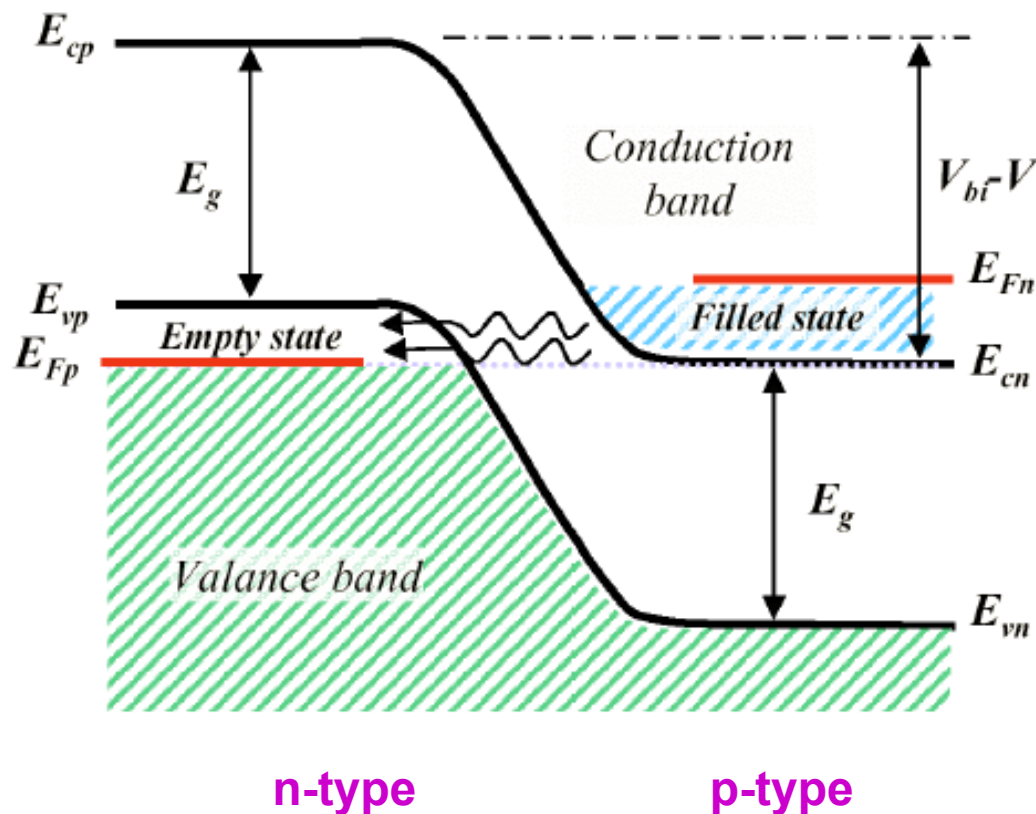


n-type

p-type

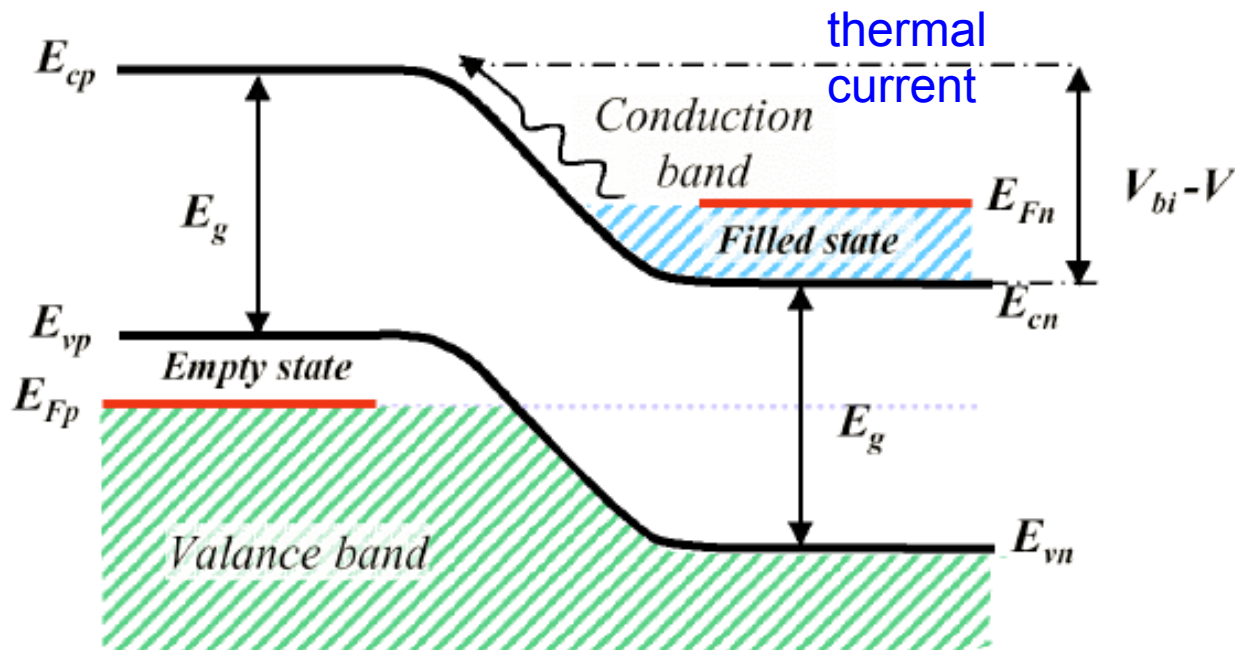
- forward voltage V_F is applied
- Fermi level in p-type semiconductor is below the Fermi level in n-type one
- tunneling of electrons from the n-type semiconductor conduction band to the p-type semiconductor valence band
- ECB-tunneling
- current increases with increasing voltage

tunnel diode: maximum



- increasing the forward voltage V_F the maximum current I_p is reached for V_p
- Fermi level in p-type semiconductor is on the same level with the conduction band edge of the n-type material
- continuing the voltage increases over this value causes reduction of the current because the overlap of the p-type valence band and n-type conduction band decreases

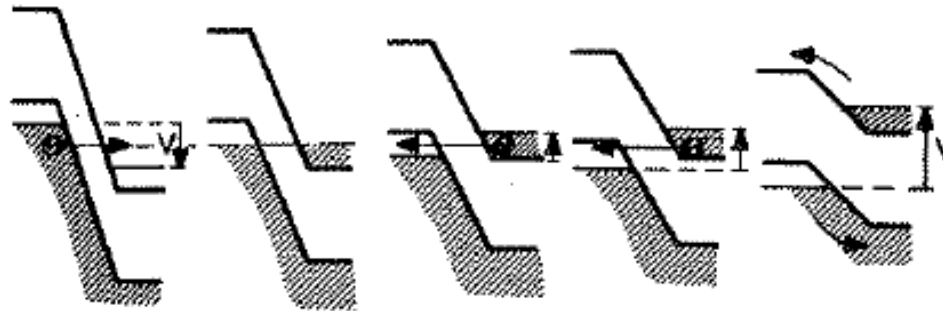
tunnel diode: forward without tunneling



- forward voltage V_F is further increased
- valence band of p-type semiconductor doesn't overlap with conduction band of the n-type semiconductor: no direct tunneling current
- small current flows due to trap mechanism tunneling
- at sufficient voltage value the classical forward current starts to flow and is equal to the tunnel current for V_V

Tunneling conditions:

- (1) occupied energy states exist on the side from which the electron tunnels
- (2) unoccupied energy states exist at the same energy level as in (1) on the side to which the electron tunnels
- (3) The tunneling potential barrier height is low and the barrier width is small enough
- (4) the momentum is conserved in the tunneling process

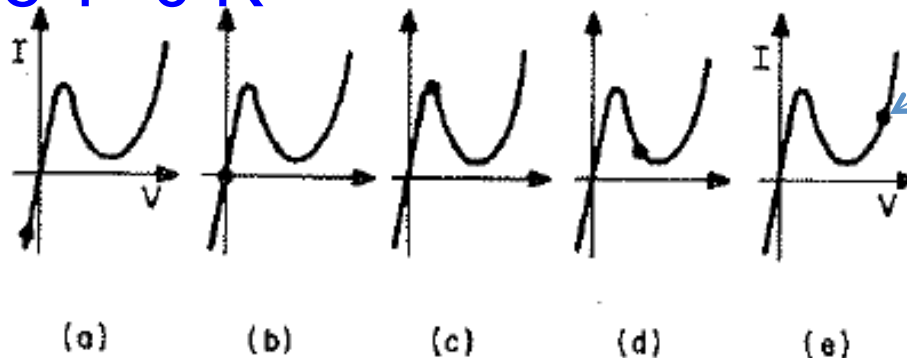


$$V_n = (E_{Fn} - E_c) / q$$

$$V_p = (E_v - E_{Fp}) / q$$

Degeneracy

Assume $T=0$ K



$$V = V_n + V_p$$

Fig. 3 Simplified energy-band diagrams of tunnel diode at (a) reverse bias; (b) thermal equilibrium, zero bias; (c) forward bias such that peak current is obtained; (d) forward bias such that valley current is approached; and (e) forward bias with thermal current flowing. (After Hall, Ref. 3.)

Comment: Excess current

For larger forward biases we would have the normal diode forward currents caused by forward injection of minority carriers. In practice, the actual current is considerable and in excess of the normal diode current (hence excess current).

The excess current is mainly due to carrier tunneling by way of energy states within the forbidden gap.

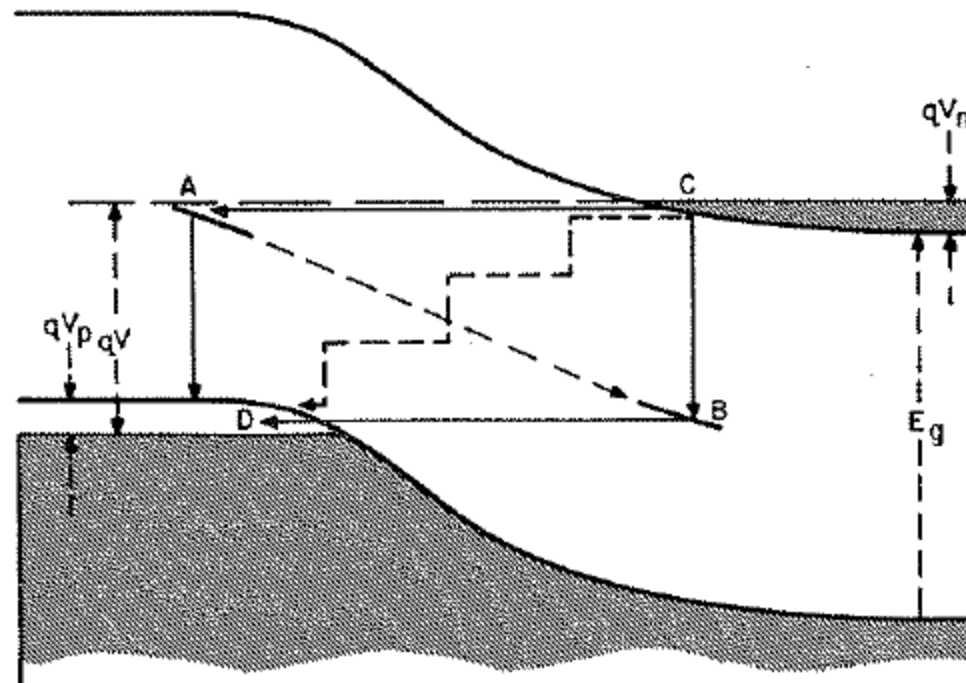


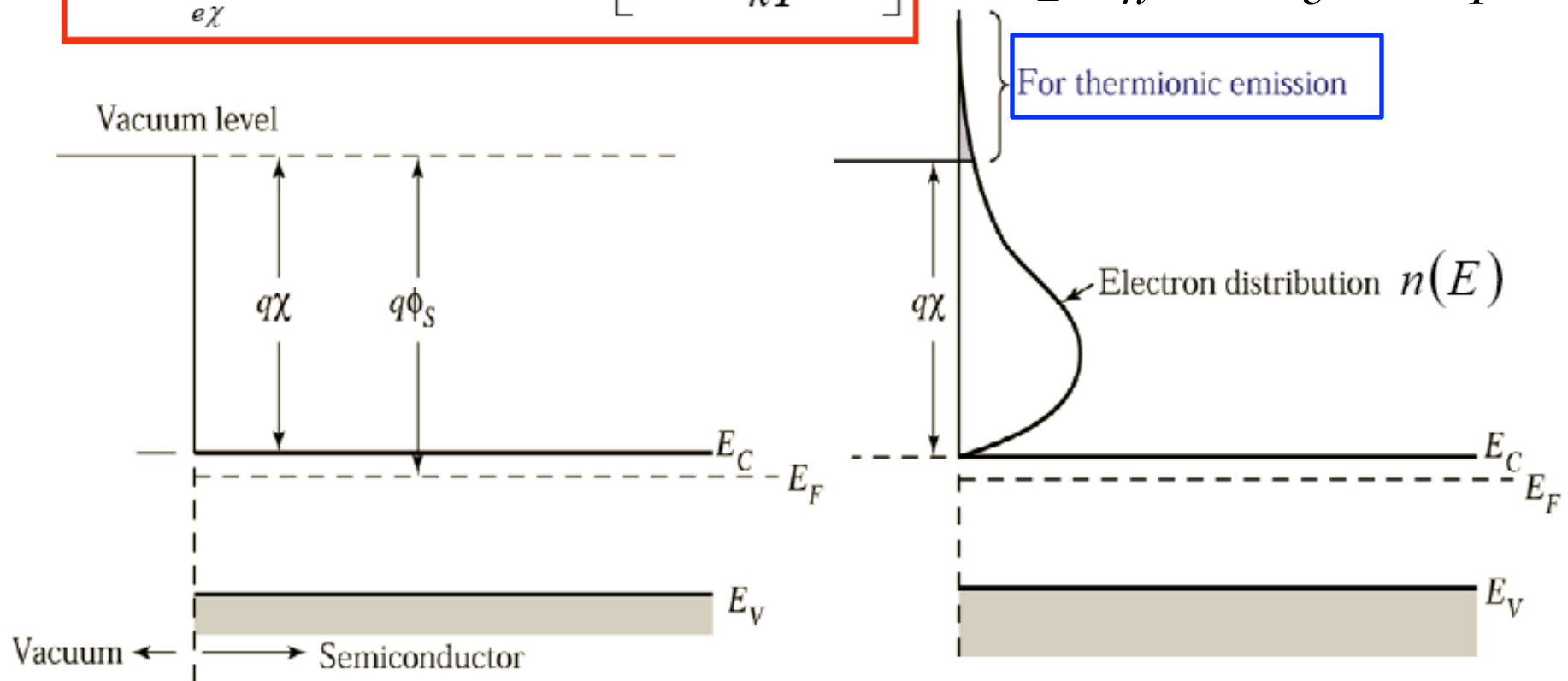
Fig. 9 Band diagram illustrating mechanisms of tunneling via states in the forbidden gap for the excess current flow. (After Chynoweth, Feldmann, and Logan, Ref. 13.)

Comment: Thermionic current

thermionic emission from semiconductor

$$n_{th} = \int_{e\chi}^{\infty} n(E) dE = N_C \exp\left[-\frac{e(\chi - V_n)}{kT}\right]$$

$$qV_n = E_c - E_F$$

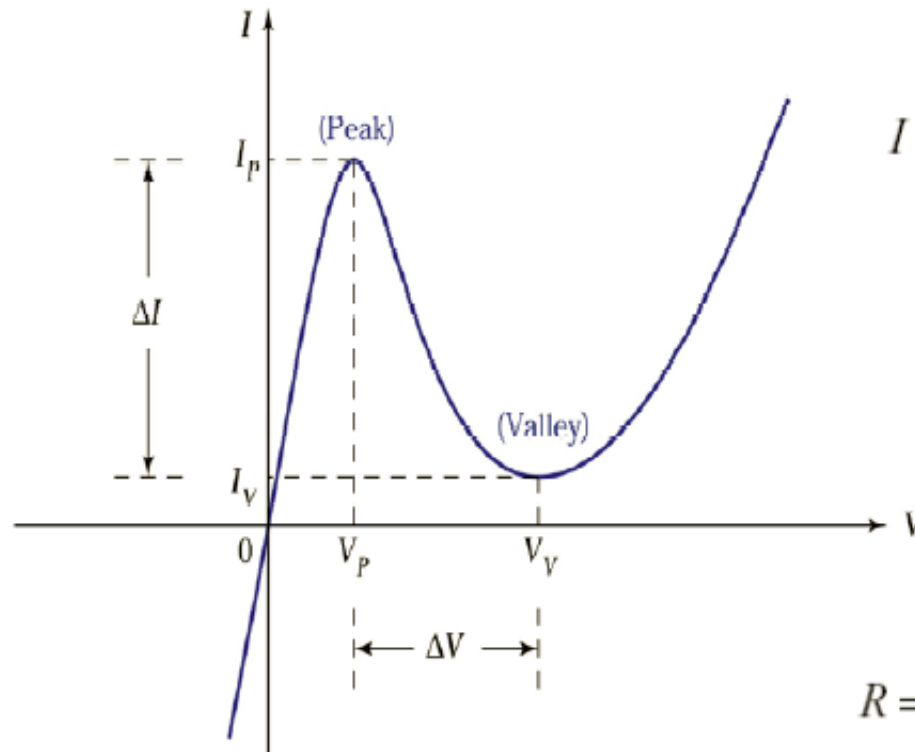


Comment: Thermionic current

The thermal current is the familiar minority-carrier injection current in pn junctions:

$$J_{th} = J_0 (\exp(qV / kT) - 1)$$

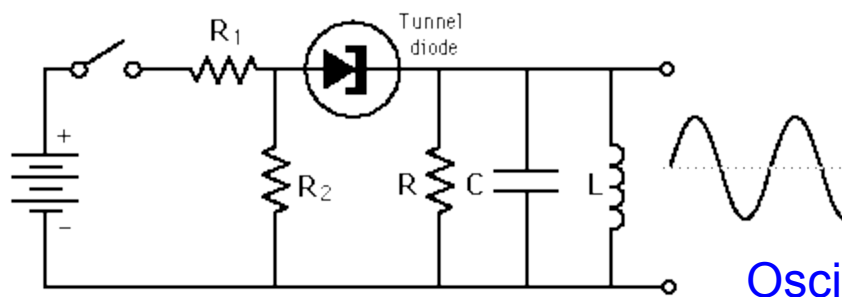
Useful Analytic Expression for tunnel diode: I-V characteristics



$$I = \underbrace{I_p \left(\frac{V}{V_p} \right) \exp \left(1 - \frac{V}{V_p} \right)}_{\text{Tunneling current}} + \underbrace{I_o \exp \left(\frac{qV}{kT} \right)}_{\text{injection current}}$$

Resistance

$$R = \left(\frac{dI}{dV} \right)^{-1} = - \left[\left(\frac{V}{V_p} - 1 \right) \frac{I_p}{V_p} \exp \left(1 - \frac{V}{V_p} \right) \right]^{-1}$$



Oscillator design

Comment: Tunneling time (a research topic)

For a classical particle with a velocity v it takes t to traverse a distance W :

$$\tau = W / v$$

Tunneling phenomenon is not governed by this classical rule. Q.M. tunneling time depends rather on the quantum transition probability Θ per unit time and is proportional to:

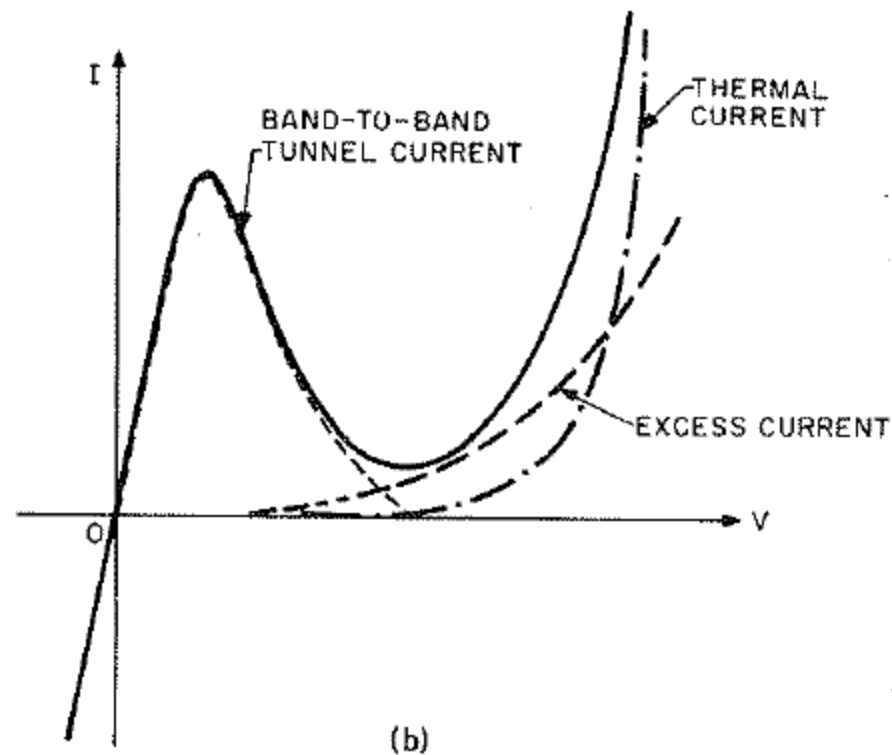
$$\Theta \propto \exp(-2k_{av}(0)W)$$

Where $k_{av}(0)$ is the average value of the momentum along the tunneling path.
The transit time τ is then by reciprocation:

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\Theta} \propto \exp(2k_{av}(0)W)$$

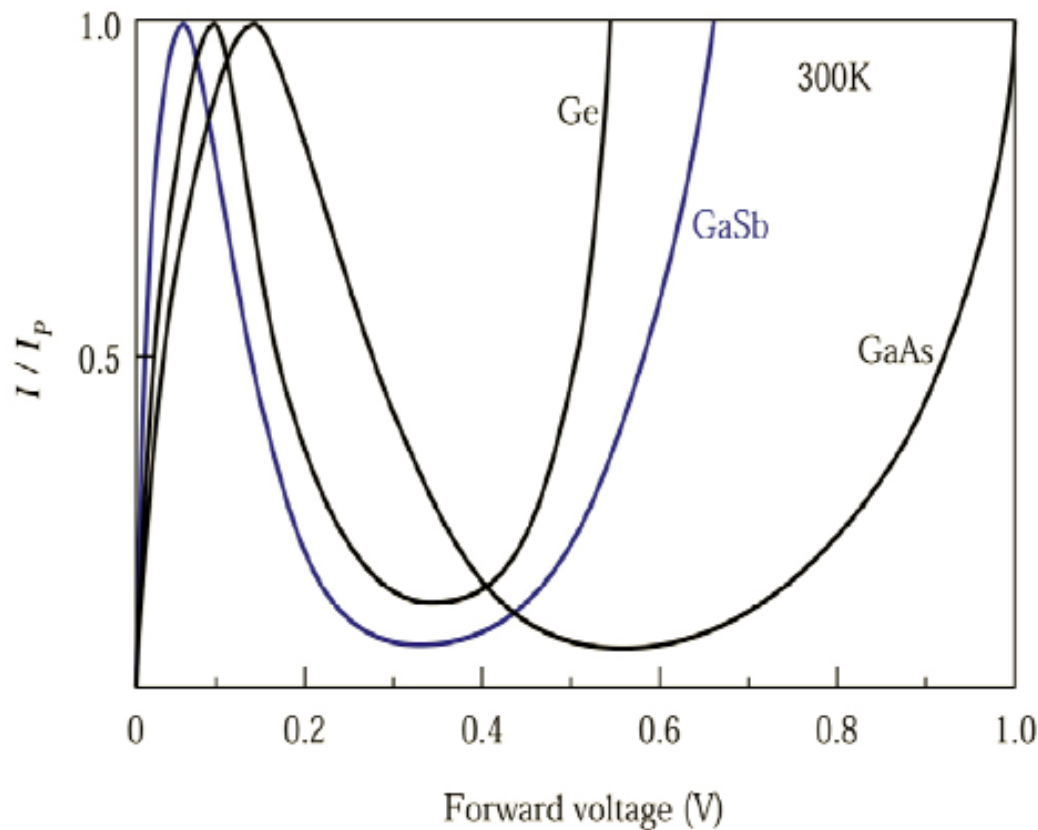
This tunneling time is very short, allowing high frequency applications of the tunneling diodes.

Can we engineer the tunnel diode characteristics?



By using different materials:
Ge, GaSb, GaAs

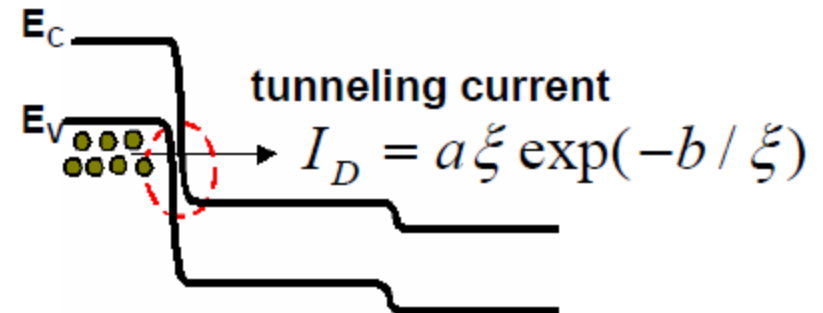
tunnel diode: applications



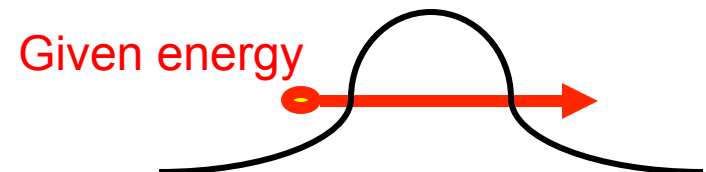
- can be applied in THz range, because the tunneling processes are very fast
- negative dynamic resistance makes tunnel diode useful for oscillators

Tunneling: direct and indirect tunneling

During tunneling energy is conserved



But momentum of the system has also to be conserved.

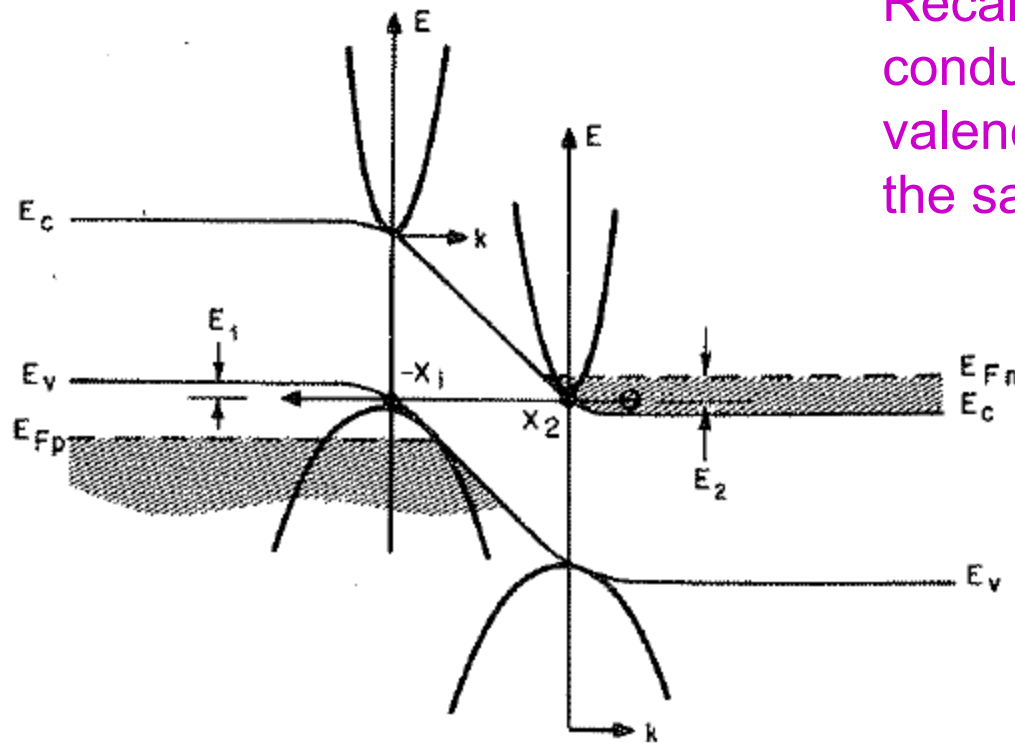


In solids (and semiconductors) the band diagram
Shows that electrons at the same energy may have different
wave vectors k ($p = \hbar k$).

This means that if an electron tunnels from one state $E(k)$ to another state $E'(k')$
Both energy and momentum have to be conserved.

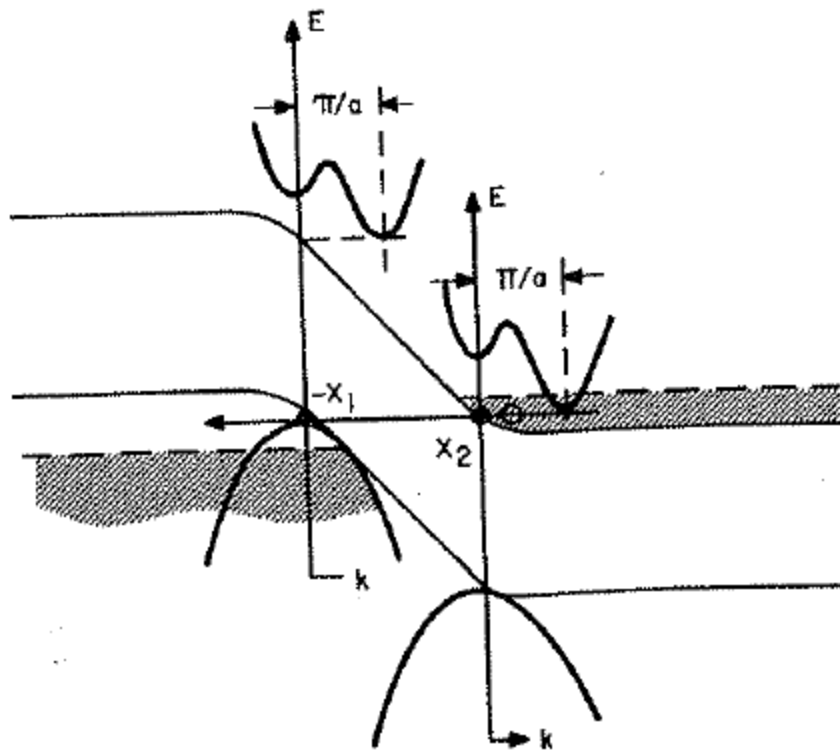
Direct Tunneling Process: GaAs and GaSb

Recall for direct tunneling the conduction-band minimum and the valence-band maximum must have the same momentum.



E-k relation and E-x superimposed

Indirect Tunneling Process: Si and Ge



E-k relation and E-x superimposed

Here $k_{\min} \neq k_{\max}$

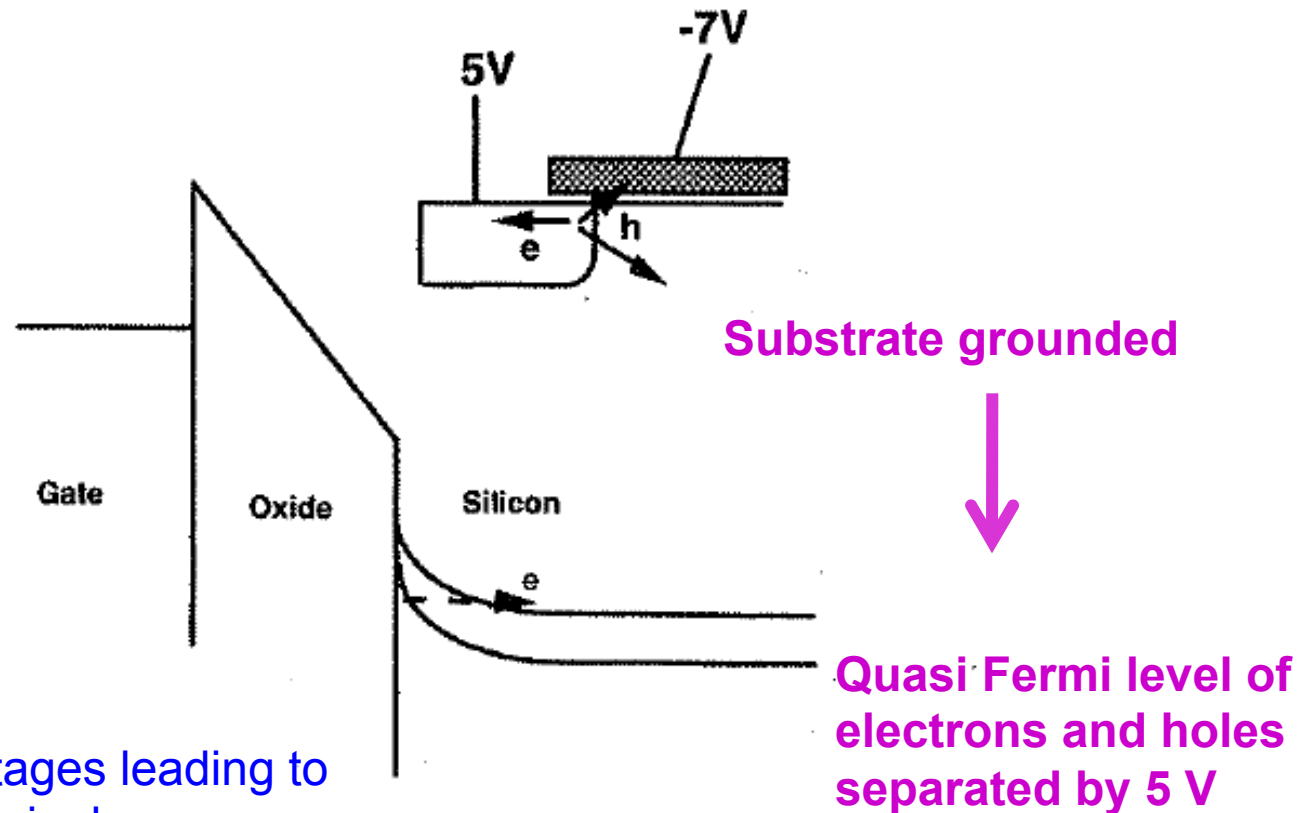
To conserve momentum, the difference between the conduction-band minimum and the valence-band maximum must be supplied by a scattering agents such as phonons or impurities

(phonon-assisted tunneling).

In general, probability for indirect tunneling is much lower than the probability for direct tunneling.

Gated Diode

(a pn junction with a gate electrode above the metallurgical junction)



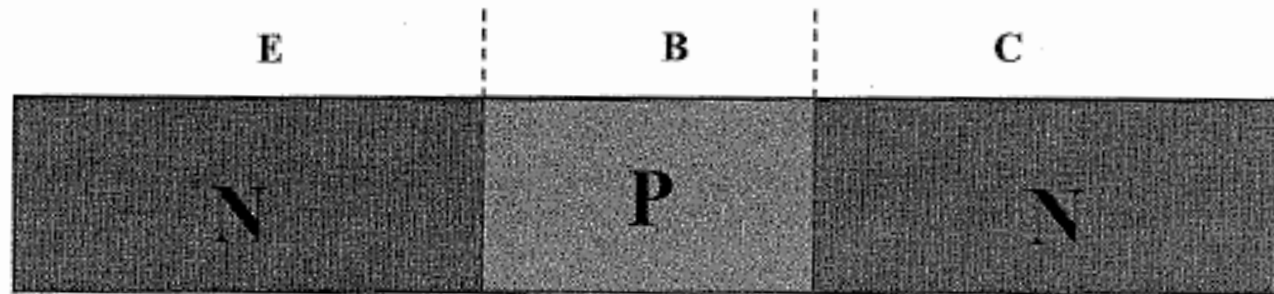
Gate and drain voltages leading to generation of e-h pairs by

band-to-band tunneling

No avalanche

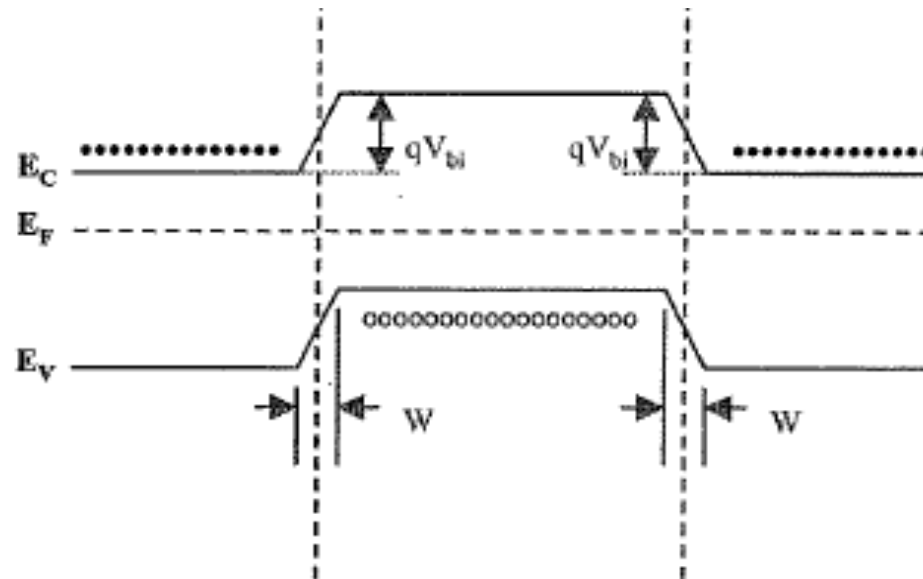
Construction of a MOSFET

Exercise: Back-to-Back PN Junctions

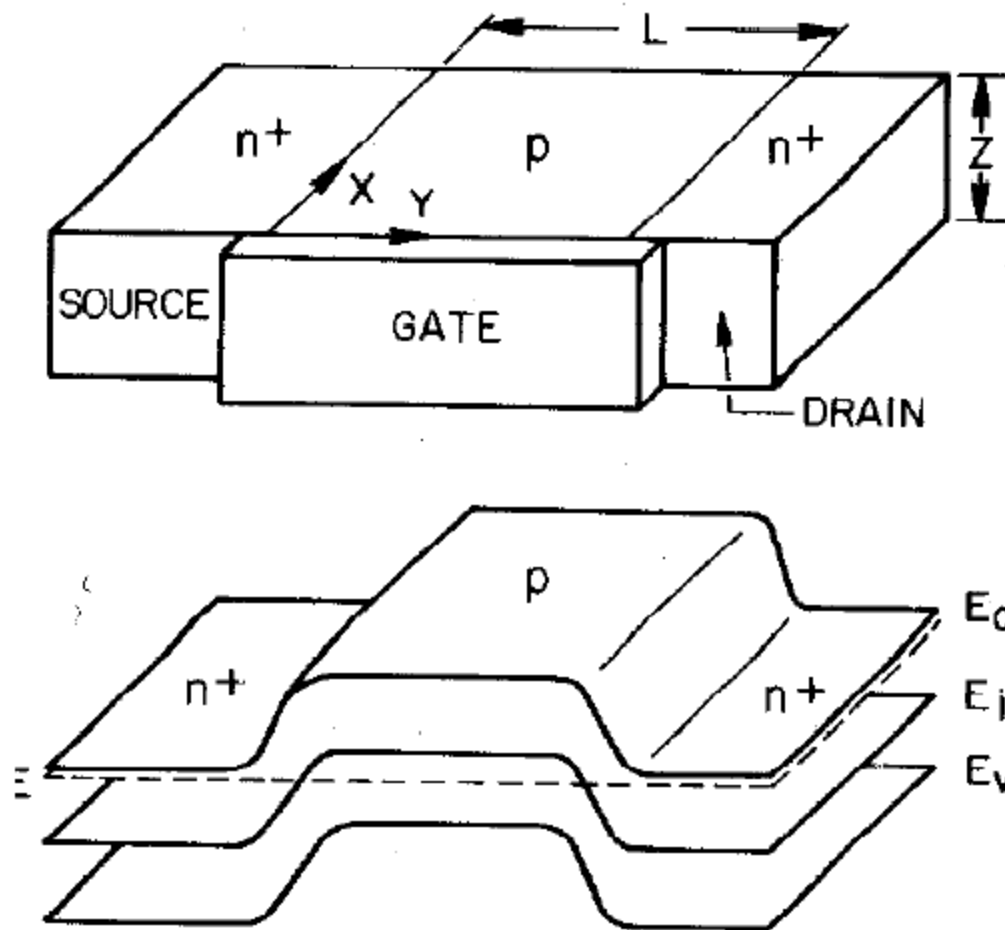


In the space below, draw the band diagram for this structure at equilibrium.

Equilibrium

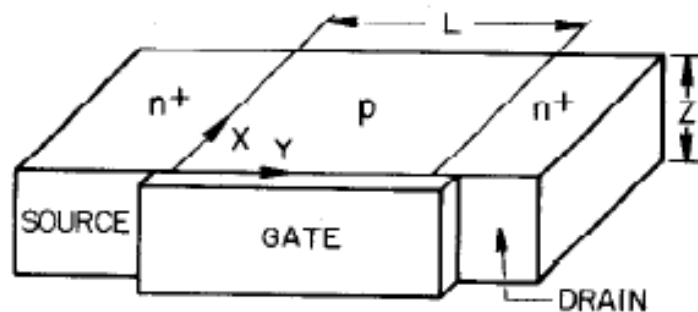


Back-to-back pn-junction + MOS Capacitor = MOSFET

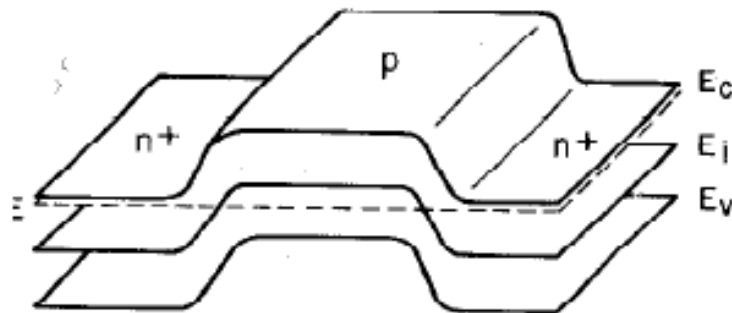


$$V_G = V_D = 0$$

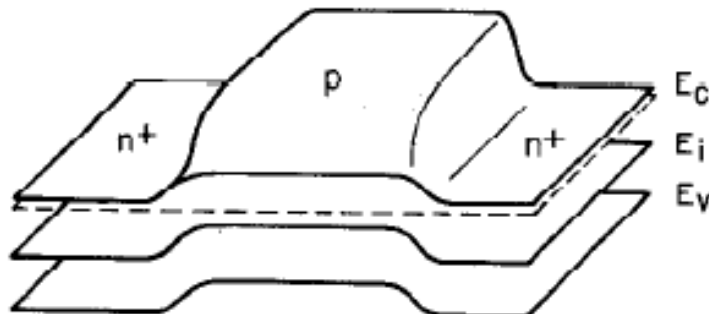
MOSFET Band Diagram with Gate in inversion condition



MOS Capacitor will be addressed in the next Chapter.



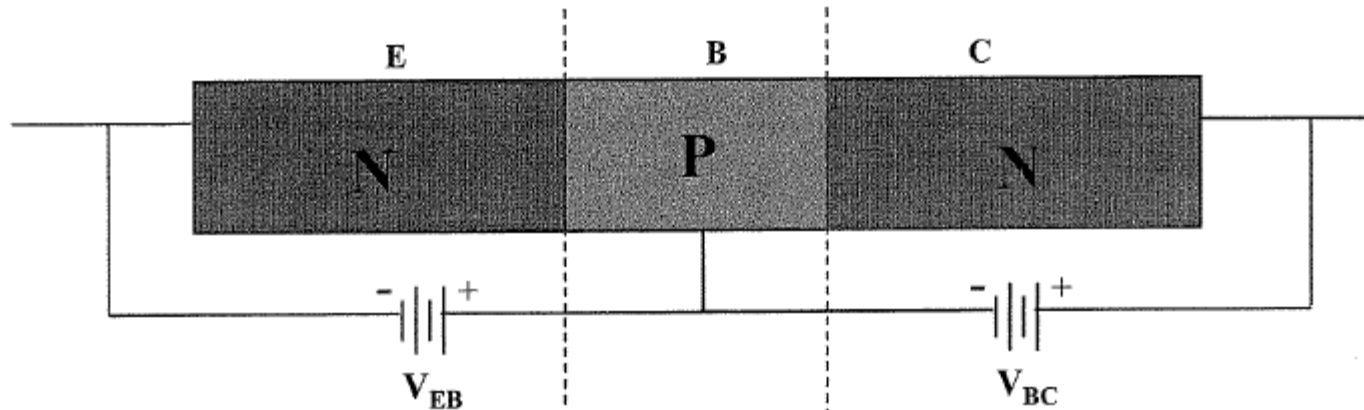
$$V_G = V_D = 0$$



$$\begin{matrix} V_G > 0 \\ V_D = 0 \end{matrix}$$

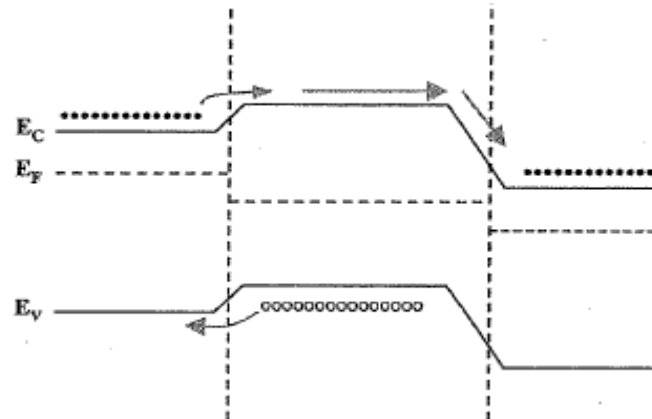
Apply Collector or Drain Bias

Back-to-Back PN Junctions

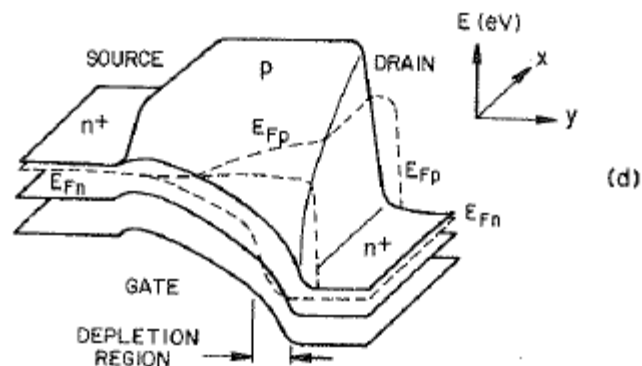
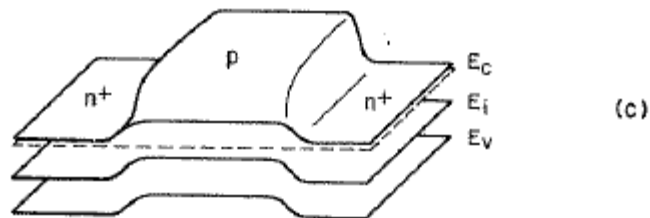
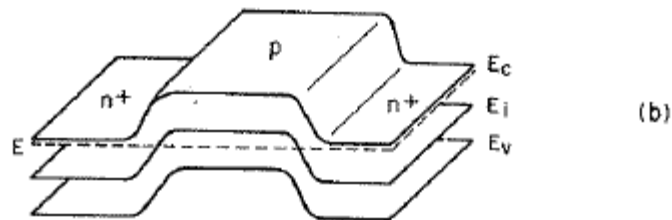
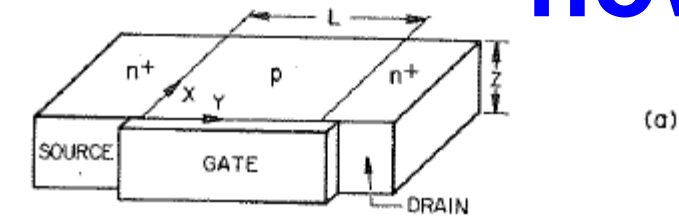


Draw the band diagram for this structure (*E-B junction forward biased and B-C junction reverse biased*).

Applied Voltages



Gate in inversion condition: now Apply Drain Bias



Energy bands on
the drain side are
pulled down

Concepts learned:

- ☐ pn-junction revisited
- ☐ Debye length
- ☐ Ideal pn junction diode
- ☐ Non-idealities of pn junction diode
- ☐ Reverse break-down
- ☐ Impact ionization and avalanche
- ☐ Zener breakdown
- ☐ Band-to-band tunneling
- ☐ Tunnel diode
- ☐ Back-to-back pn junction