



# **ELEN E3106/4106 Lecture 5**

## **Carriers: Temperature Dependence, Drift, Mobility, and Resistance Outline**

- Temperature effects
- Compensation
- Space charge neutrality
- Mobility & scattering
- Drift velocity & current
- Resistivity

### **Assignments:**

Reading: Streetman and Banerjee §3.3.3-3.3.4, 3.4  
Homework 2 due Friday Sept 19<sup>th</sup> by 5pm

# Recap of carrier concentrations

- Recall from Lecture 4, we learned how to get  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  concentrations at:
  - Any temperature
  - Any doping concentration
  - Any energy level
- We saw that in thermal equilibrium,  $np = \underline{n_i^2}$  \* subscript 0 denotes equilibrium
- And, and  $n_i^2 = n_0 p_0 = N_c N_v e^{-\frac{E_g}{kT}}$ , even when  $n_0 \neq p_0$  (doping)
- Given the density of states,

$$N_c = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_n^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad N_v = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_p^* kT}{h^2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

- And we can conveniently find the carrier concentrations,

$$n_0 = n_i e^{(E_F - E_i)/kT} \quad p_0 = n_i e^{-(E_i - E_F)/kT}$$

# Temperature Dependency of *Intrinsic* Carrier Concentrations

- At any given temperature,  $T$ :

$$n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} e^{-\frac{E_g}{2kT}} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

- But it can also be written,

$$n_i(T) = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} (m_n^* m_p^*)^{3/4} e^{-E_g/2kT}$$

- What does this tell us?

$n_i(T)$  exponentially increases with increasing  $T$

- $n_i$  is very temperature-sensitive! In silicon,
  - While  $T = 300 \rightarrow 330$  K (10% increase)
  - $n_i = \sim 10^{10} \rightarrow \sim 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (10x increase)

# Visualizing Intrinsic Carrier Concentrations

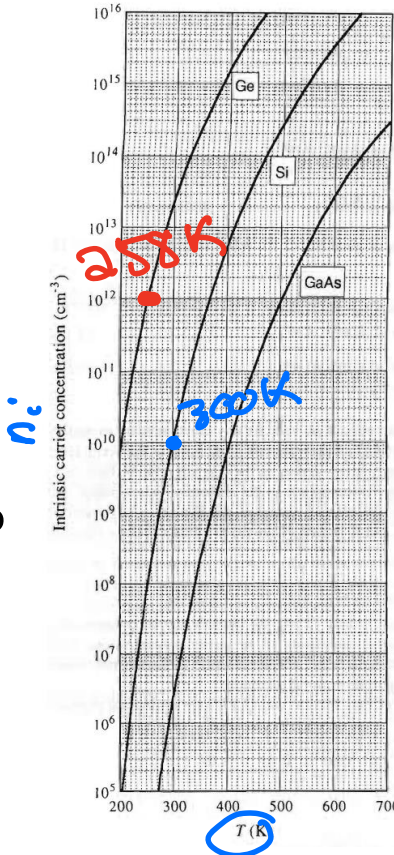
- Plot  $\log_{10}$  of  $n_i$  vs.  $T$

- What do we expect?

exponential increase

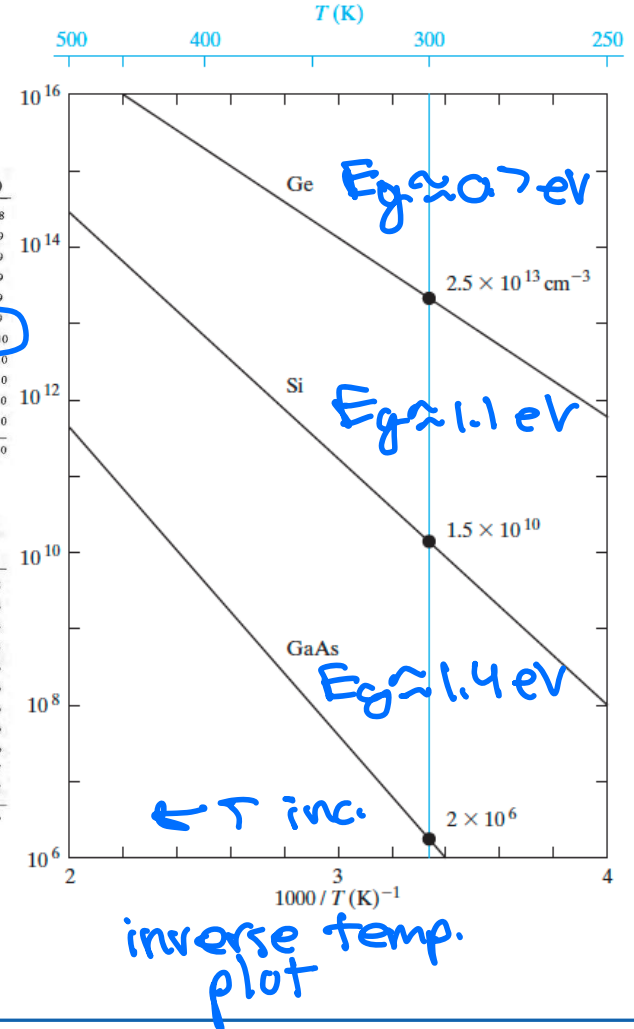
- What is this plot neglecting?

Temp. dependency of  $N_C$ ,  $N_V$ , and  $E_g$



Si	
$T(^{\circ}\text{C})$	$n_i(\text{cm}^{-3})$
0	$8.86 \times 10^8$
5	$1.44 \times 10^9$
10	$2.30 \times 10^9$
15	$3.62 \times 10^9$
20	$5.62 \times 10^9$
25	$8.60 \times 10^9$
30	$1.30 \times 10^{10}$
35	$1.95 \times 10^{10}$
40	$2.85 \times 10^{10}$
45	$4.15 \times 10^{10}$
50	$5.97 \times 10^{10}$
300 K	$1.00 \times 10^{10}$

GaAs	
$T(^{\circ}\text{C})$	$n_i(\text{cm}^{-3})$
0	$1.02 \times 10^5$
5	$1.89 \times 10^5$
10	$3.45 \times 10^5$
15	$6.15 \times 10^5$
20	$1.08 \times 10^6$
25	$1.85 \times 10^6$
30	$3.13 \times 10^6$
35	$5.20 \times 10^6$
40	$8.51 \times 10^6$
45	$1.37 \times 10^7$
50	$2.18 \times 10^7$
300 K	$2.25 \times 10^6$



# Problem: Calculating Intrinsic Carrier Concentration

- If we know  $n_i$  and  $T$ , we have two unknowns:  $(E_F - E_i)$  <sup>n-type</sup> and the carrier concentration. If we know one of the two, we can solve for the other:

$$\begin{aligned} n_0 &= n_i e^{(E_F - E_i)/kT} \\ p_0 &= n_i e^{(E_i - E_F)/kT} \end{aligned}$$

$kT$  for  $T=300\text{ K}$   
 $\approx 26\text{ meV}$

- Calculate and show position of the Fermi level in doped Ge ( $10^{16}\text{ cm}^{-3}$  n-type) at  $-15^\circ\text{C}$ , using previous plot  $-15^\circ\text{C} + 273 = 258\text{ K}$

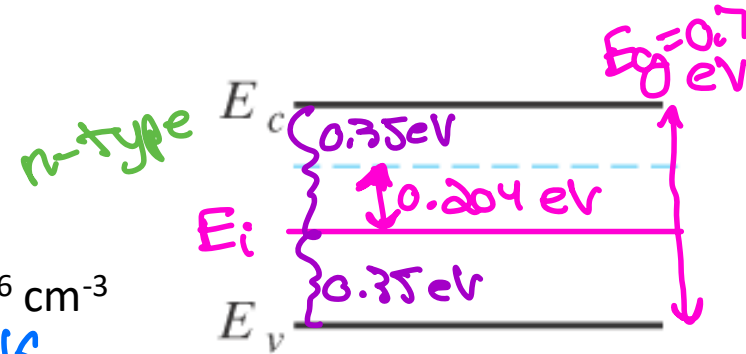
$n_i(258\text{ K}) \approx 10^{12}\text{ cm}^{-3}$

Assume full ionization ( $T > 50-100\text{ K}$ )

$n_0 \approx N_d = 10^{16}\text{ cm}^{-3}$

$$E_F - E_i = kT \ln\left(\frac{n_0}{n_i}\right) = (8.62 \times 10^{-5}\text{ eV/K})(258\text{ K}) \ln\left(\frac{10^{16}\text{ cm}^{-3}}{10^{12}\text{ cm}^{-3}}\right)$$

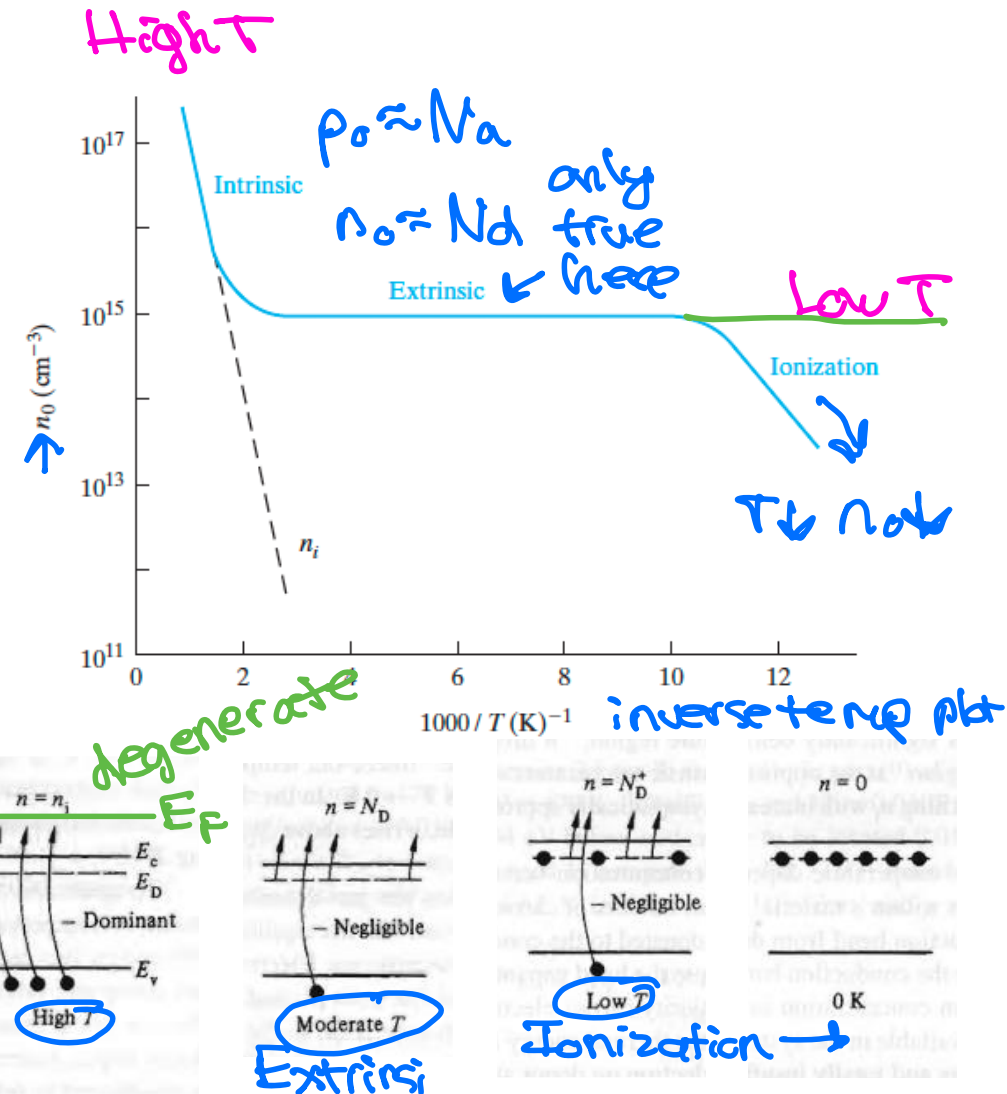
$[E_F - E_i = 0.204\text{ eV}]$



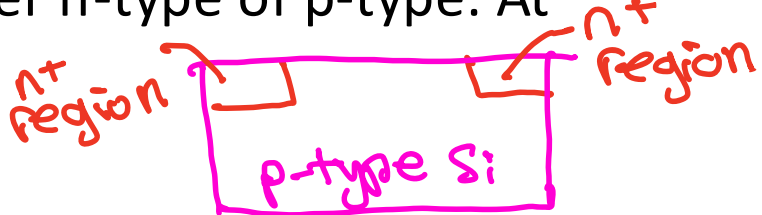
(b) n-type

# Intrinsic Carrier Concentration: Temperature Regions

- Ionization Region: At Low T's, some donors are ionized. By ~100 K all are ionized.
- Extrinsic Region: At Moderate T's,  $n_0 \approx N_d$  since all donors are ionized and one  $e^-$  obtained for each donor atom
- Intrinsic Region: At High T's, # of intrinsic carriers is very high and exceeds  $N_d$



# Compensation

- So far, we have assumed material is doped either n-type or p-type. At moderate temperatures: *(extrinsic region)*
  - $n_0 \approx N_d$
  - $p_0 \approx N_a$
- Sometimes we dope semiconductors with both donors and acceptors. This I called compensation.
- You can even start with p-type material and convert a portion of it n-type by adding enough donors
- This is a technique frequently employed to make complex devices.
- Essentially, an acceptor can effectively negate the effect of a donor!

# Charge Neutrality

- What if we introduce  $N_d = N_a$ ?
  - The material once again becomes intrinsic and  $n_0 \approx p_0 \approx \underline{n_i}$ .
- So far we have seen four types of charged species in a semiconductor:
  - Electrons (-)
  - Holes (+)
  - Positive donor ions  $N_D^+ \rightarrow$  given up an  $e^-$
  - Negative acceptor ions  $N_A^- \rightarrow$  accepted an  $e^-$
- In general, this is because we must have charge neutrality in the material
- Any semiconductor material is electrostatically neutral
  - Positive charge = negative charge

$$\begin{matrix} (-) & (+) \\ n + N_a = p + N_d \end{matrix}$$



# Carrier Concentrations in Compensated Semiconductors

- The more detailed equations for finding the carrier concentrations given values for  $N_a$ ,  $N_d$ :

$$n = \frac{N_d - N_a}{2} + \left[ \left( \frac{N_d - N_a}{2} \right)^2 + n_i^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

$$p = \frac{N_a - N_d}{2} + \left[ \left( \frac{N_a - N_d}{2} \right)^2 + n_i^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

- How do these simplify when  $N_d \gg N_a$ ?

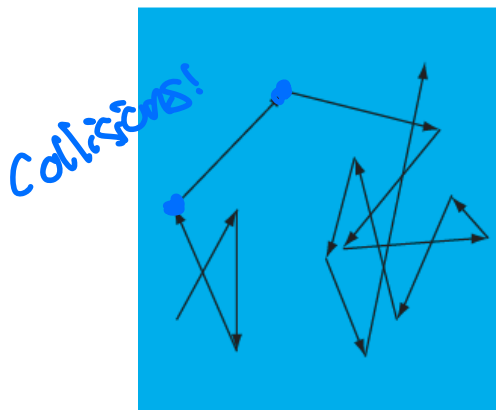
$$n = N_d \quad \text{and} \quad p = n_i^2 / N_d$$

- When is the  $\gg$  approximation valid?

At least 1 order of magnitude difference between  $N_d$  and  $N_a$

## Carrier Movement: No E-field

- So far, we've examined the effect of doping and temperature on carrier concentrations. We have assumed there is no E-field
- We know carriers are 'free' to move around. Charge carriers are in constant motion. What does this look like? Random (Brownian) motion
- Instantaneous velocity is given by thermal energy:
$$v_{th} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m^*}}$$
- What is the *net* motion of carriers? 0
- There is no preferred direction of motion for a group of carriers and no net current flow.
- Mean free time between collisions ~ 0.1 ps. Mean free distance a few tens of nm's  
1 nm = 10<sup>-9</sup> m



## Carrier Movement: With E-field

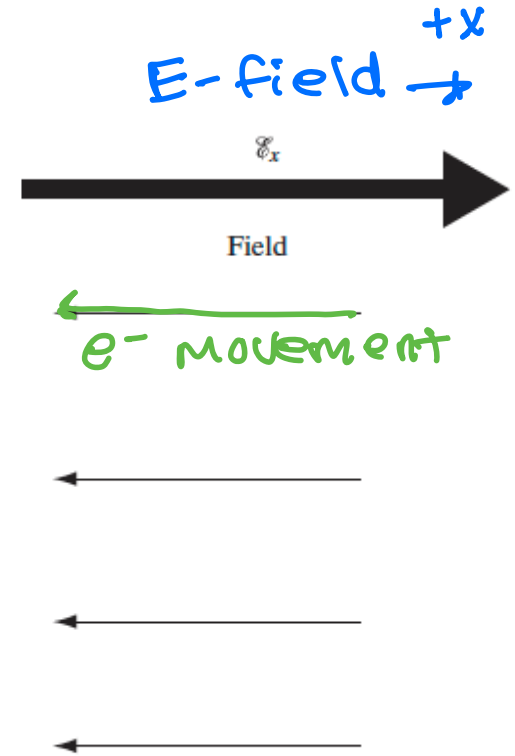
- Typically, we need an E-field to make use of semiconductors in devices
- Let's imagine we apply an E-field in the +x-direction

- What force do  $e^-$  experience?

$$F = \underline{-qE}$$

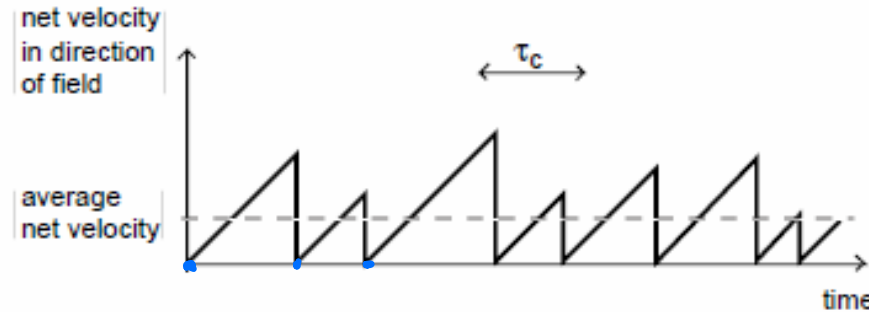
- Is there net motion of  $e^-$ ?

Yes, (-)x-direction



# Drift

- Drift is the motion of charge carriers caused by an E-field
- Individual  $e^-$  velocity is randomized, but the average velocity is non-zero



- We can assume a mean free time between collisions,  $\tau_c$ , and that each  $e^-$  loses its entire drift momentum,  $p$ , after each collision:

$$p = m_n^* v_n = -qE\tau_c$$
$$v_n = -\frac{qE\tau_c}{m_n^*}$$

# Drift Velocity and Mobility

- The drift velocity is usually written with a proportionality constant,

$$v_n = -\mu_n E$$

- And for holes,

$$v_p = \mu_p E$$

- We call this proportionality constant the mobility,  $\mu$

$$\mu_n = -\frac{q\tau_c}{m_n^*}$$

$$\mu_p = \frac{q\tau_c}{m_p^*}$$

- Describes the ease with which carrier drift in a semiconductor.
- Very important quantity!
- Units?  $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$

# Mobility

- What are the roles of  $\tau_c$  and  $m^*$ ?
  - If  $m \downarrow$  “lighter” particle means  $\mu \dots$  goes up
  - If  $\tau_c \uparrow$  means longer time between collisions, so  $\mu \dots$  goes up
- Mobilities at room temperature in lightly doped semiconductors:

TABLE 2-1 • Electron and hole mobilities at room temperature of selected lightly doped semiconductors.

	Si	Ge	GaAs	InAs
$\mu_n$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /V·s)	1400	3900	8500	30,000 * Ideal
$\mu_p$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /V·s)	470	1900	400	500

- High mobility is desired in devices --> translates to higher speed (frequencies)

## Problem

$$v_{th} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m^*}} = 2.2 \times 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$$

Check if  $v_{th} > v_{drift}$   
It is!

Given  $\mu_p = 470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s}$  for Si, what is the hole drift velocity at  $E = 10^3 \text{ V/cm}$ ? What is  $\tau_c$  and what is the average distance traveled between collisions, i.e., the **mean free path**? Assume 300 K in the dark.

$$v_p = \mu_p E = (470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s})(10^3 \text{ V/cm}) = 4.7 \times 10^5 \text{ cm/s}$$

$$\tau_c = \frac{m_p m_0^*}{q} = \frac{(470 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V} \cdot \text{s})(0.39)(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})}{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}} = 0.1 \text{ ps}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mean free path: } \tau_c v_{th} &= (10^{-13} \text{ s})(2.2 \times 10^7 \text{ cm/s}) \\ &= 2.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm} \\ &= 22 \text{ nm} \end{aligned}$$

## Mobility and Scattering

Duplicate slide?

see 14

- What are the roles of  $\tau_c$  and  $m^*$ ?
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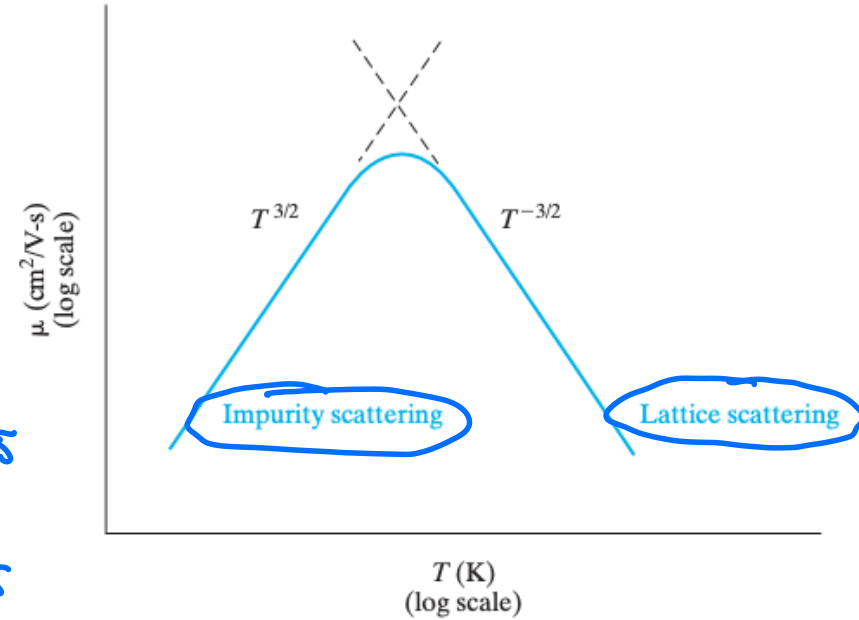
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# Effects of Temperature on Mobility

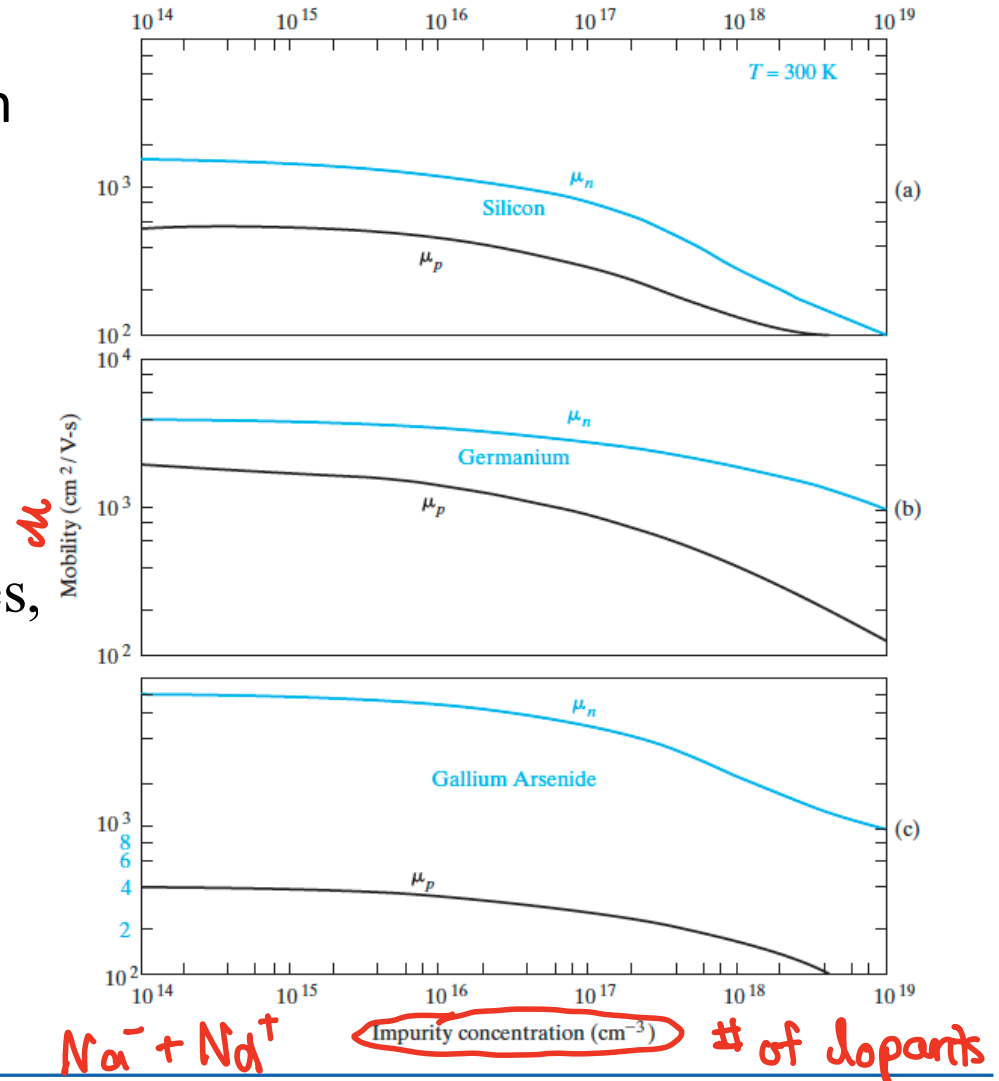
- What does  $\mu$  (through  $\tau_c$ ) depend on?
  - Phonon /lattice scattering (host lattice, like Si)
  - Ionized impurities (dopant atom) scattering
- How is scattering effected by temperature?
  - Lattice scattering increases with increased temperature, and mobility decrease  $\propto T^{-1.5}$
  - Impurity scattering decrease with increased temperature, and mobility increases  $\propto T^{+1.5}$
- Strongest scattering (e.g. lowest mobility) dominates total mobility:

$$\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{\mu_I} + \frac{1}{\mu_L} + \dots$$



# Effects of Doping on Mobility

- We expect the mobility to decrease with total impurities ( $N_a^- + N_d^+$ )
- Why? Increased ionized impurity scattering!
- As the concentration of dopants increases, the effects of impurity scattering are felt at higher temperatures
- In reality, mobility also depends on type of dopant



# Drift Current Components

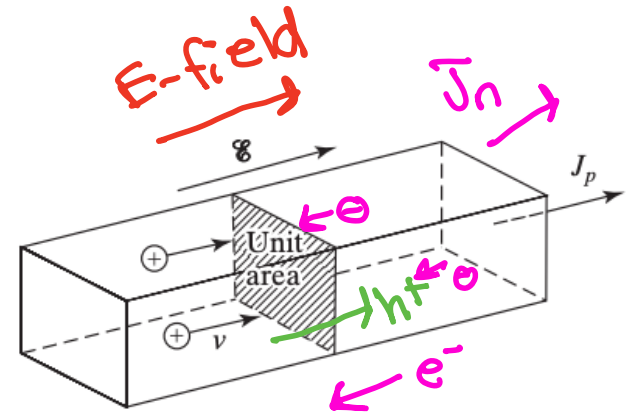
- Recall: we have a net drift velocity of carriers.
- This is electric current! Now, we can calculate current density,  $J$ , for devices!

$$J_n^{drift} = -qn v_{dn} = qn \mu_n E$$

$$J_p^{drift} = +qp v_{dp} = qp \mu_p E$$

- So what is drift current density proportional to?
  - Carrier concentration
  - Carrier drift velocity
  - Carrier charge
- Current density,  $J$ , is the charge per second crossing a unit area plane normal to the direction of current flow ( $A/cm^2$ )

★ Current  $I$ : A



A p-type semiconductor bar demonstrating the concept of current density.

# Total Drift Current and Conductivity

- The total drift current density is the sum of the  $e^-$  and  $h^+$  components:

$$J_{\text{drift}} = J_{n,\text{drift}} + J_{p,\text{drift}} = \underbrace{(qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p)}_{\text{conductivity}} \mathcal{E} \quad \text{Electric field}$$

- Note: This assumes **low E-fields** (typically  $< \underline{10^4}$  V/cm in Si)

- The quantity in parenthesis is called the conductivity,

$$\sigma = qn\mu_n + qp\mu_p$$

- Recall: large ratio between majority and minority carriers

- Usually only one term in  $\sigma$

$$\text{Ex. } N_d = n \approx 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

$$p \approx 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

# Resistivity

- Drift current density can therefore be written,

$$J = \sigma E = \frac{E}{\rho}$$

Ohm's law: current density is directly proportional to electric field!

- $\rho$  is the resistivity (i.e. the inverse of conductivity),

$$\rho = \frac{1}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{q(n\mu_n + p\mu_p)}$$

Units:  $\Omega\text{-cm}$

- What about when  $n \gg p$ ? (n-type doped sample)
- What about when  $n \ll p$ ? (p-type doped sample)

*See previous slide! Ignore minority carrier term*

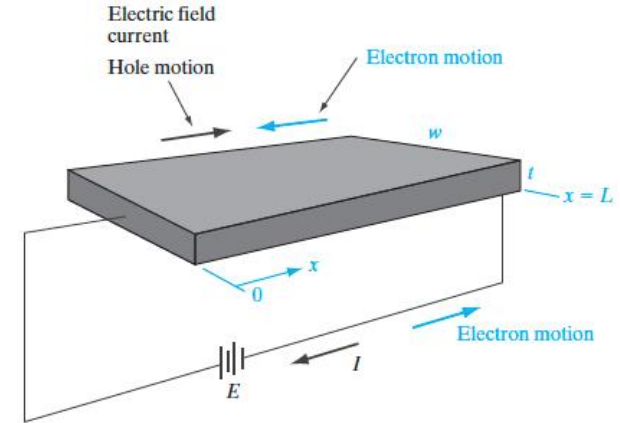
- We can find the total resistance ( $\Omega$ ) of a bar of semiconductor with a given width, length and thickness (~~width~~):

$L$

$t$

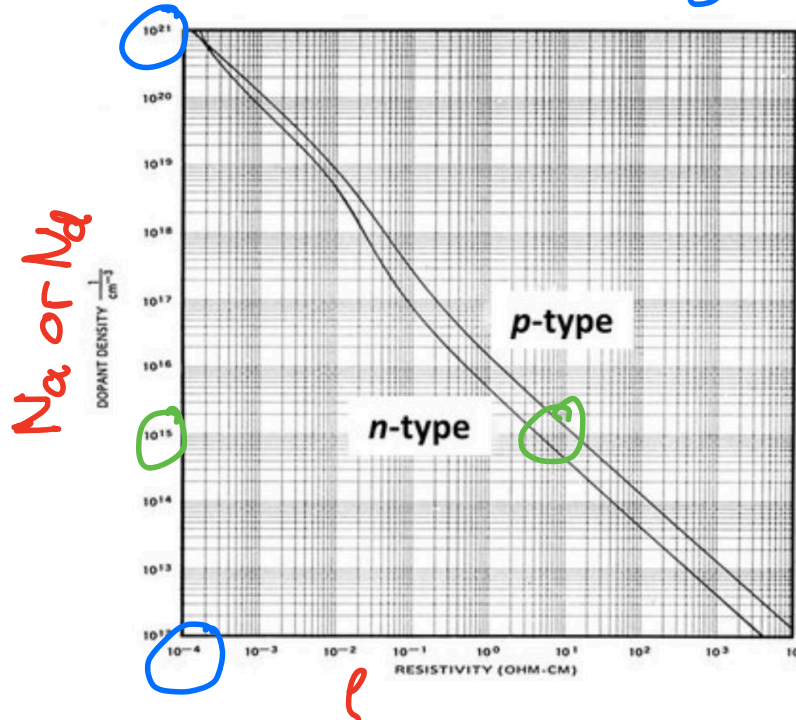
$$R = \frac{\rho L}{wt} = \frac{L}{wt} \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

$\sim$   
 $A$



# Resistivity Dependence on Doping

- Experimentally, for Si at room temperature we get the plot below
- We have control over resistivity through doping!



For n-type material:

$$\rho \cong \frac{1}{qn\mu_n}$$

For p-type material:

$$\rho \cong \frac{1}{qp\mu_p}$$

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