

**Fundamentals of electronic materials, devices and fabrication**  
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**Assignment - 5**  
**pn junctions**

In today's assignment, we are going to look at p-n junctions. This is assignment 5. In assignment 4, we looked at metal semiconductor junctions. In assignment 5, we are going to look at junctions formed between p and n type.

So, usually the p and n are of the same material, in which case it is a homo junction. You also have seen hetero junctions, where the junction is formed between 2 different materials. In this assignment, we will focus fully on the homo junctions; we will do some calculations on the built-in potential. When a junction is formed the depletion widths, the total depletion widths and also the depletion width on the p and the n-side a p-n junction is essentially a diode, it is a rectifier, so that it conducts current in the forward bias and does not conduct in the reverse bias. So, we will also do some calculations of the forward bias current and the reverse saturation current.

Some of this will be similar to what we did in assignment 4, where we looked at the schottky junction, which is also a rectifier. Later, we can compare the properties of a p-n junction and that of a schottky junction.

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Assignment 5   pn junctions

(1)   n-region   p-region    $T = 300\text{ K}$   
 $N_D = 10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-3}$     $N_A = 2 \times 10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-3}$     $n_i = 10^{10}\text{ cm}^{-3}$   
 $\epsilon_r = 11.9$

$V_0 = \text{built in pot} = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2} = 0.852\text{ V}$

$\text{total depletion width} = \left[ \frac{2 \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r (N_A + N_D) V_0}{e N_A N_D} \right]^{1/2} = 1.3 \times 10^{-7}\text{ m (}\mu\text{V)}$   
 $\quad \quad \quad 130\text{ nm}$

$\frac{W_D}{W_A} = \frac{N_D}{N_A} \Rightarrow W_D N_A = W_A N_D$     $W = W_D + W_A$     $W_D = 43\text{ nm}$   
 $W_A = 87\text{ nm}$

Let me go to problem number 1, we have a silicon p-n junction which has an n-region with  $10^{17}$  donors  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  n-region. So,  $N_D$  is  $10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3}$  and there is a p-region with acceptor concentration of  $2 \times 10^{17} \text{cm}^{-3}$ ,  $N_A$  the material here is silicon and it is at room temperature. So, temperature T is 300 kelvin. The intrinsic carrier concentration we have seen this so many times in the past; is just  $10^{10} \text{cm}^{-3}$ . So, In part-a, we want to calculate the built-in potential of this junction. So,  $V_o$  is the built-in potential. So, It is the potential when the junction is equilibrium and this forms because we have electrons from the n-side moving into the p-side. This is diffusion current we have holes from the p-side moving to the n-side, these essentially meet each other and annihilate, so that you have a depletion region.

So, on one side of the depletion region you have a net positive charge this is the n-side, on the other side you have a net negative charge that is your p-side and there is a junction potential that develops. This built-in potential is nothing but  $\frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$ . So, This is just a direct substitution of the numbers  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  are given,  $n_i^2$  is also given, if  $n_i$  is not known you can always calculate  $n_i$  from the band gap and the effective density of states or the effective mass of the electrons and holes. So, you can just plug in the numbers and the answer is 0.852 volts.

In part 2, we want to calculate the total depletion width, let me call that W that is the total depletion width so, the depletion width again forms because you have electrons and holes moving across the junction and are recombining. So, We have seen this concept of depletion earlier when we look at the schottky diode or a schottky junction. In that case the depletion width is almost entirely on the semiconductor side. So, here the depletion width will be in both the p and the n-side. The total depletion width is again used given by a direct formula substitution. So,  $\left[ \frac{2\epsilon_0\epsilon_r(N_A+N_D)V_o}{eN_A N_D} \right]^{1/2}$  where  $V_o$  is your built-in potential. So,  $\epsilon_0$  is the permittivity of free space,  $\epsilon_r$  is the permittivity of silicon the relative permittivity and  $\epsilon_r$  is 11.9, so that is the known value for silicon. So, once again everything here is known we just calculated the built-in potential  $V_o$ . So, We can do the substitution and this works out to be  $1.3 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$  or if you want to write in nanometers 130 nanometers.

In part-c, we want to calculate the depletion width on the p and the n-side. So, the ratio



of the depletion widths  $\frac{W_p}{W_n}$  is inversely proportional to the concentration of your dopant, this is equal to  $\frac{N_D}{N_A}$  and other way of writing this of course, is a  $W_p N_A$  is  $W_D N_D$  and this comes from the charge neutrality, so that the total positive charge due to your positively charge donors on the n-side must be equal to the total negative charge due to the negatively charged acceptor ions on the p-side and those 2 essentially balanced. We also know the total width W is  $W_p + W_n$  and total width W has been calculated to be 130 nanometers. So, we have all the numbers. Again, in case of doing the substitution and the math, So, I will just write down the final values. So,  $W_p$  is 43 nanometers and  $W_n$  is 87 nanometers. The total width comes out to be 130 nanometers. The acceptor concentration on the p-side is higher so,  $2 \times 10^{17}$ . So, the depletion width on the p-side is smaller.

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**Problem #2**

A pn junction diode has a concentration of  $10^{16}$  acceptor atoms  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  on the p-side and  $10^{17}$  donor atoms  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  on the n side. What will be the built-in potential for the semiconducting materials Ge, Si, and GaAs?

Semiconductor	$E_g$ (eV)	$n_i$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )
Ge	0.7	$2.40 \times 10^{13}$
Si	1.1	$1.0 \times 10^{10}$
GaAs	1.4	$2.1 \times 10^6$


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So, Let us now go to problem 2, we have a p-n junction diode with a concentration of  $10^{16}$  acceptor atoms on the p-side and  $10^{17}$  donor atoms on the n-side.

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(2) p-Side n-Side  
 $N_A = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   $N_D = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
 $V_0 = \frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$   $n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} \exp\left(-\frac{E_g}{2kT}\right)$

$E_g (\text{eV})$	$n_i (\text{cm}^{-3})$	$V_0 (\text{built-in potential}) (\text{V})$
0.7	$2.4 \times 10^{13}$	0.372
1.1	$1 \times 10^{10}$	0.775
1.4	$2.1 \times 10^6$	1.213

So, once again you have p-side on the n-side. So,  $N_A$  is  $10^{16}$  and  $N_D$  is  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . So, We need to know the built-in potential, if the material of the semiconductor is different. So, In this particular case, we want the built-in potential for the semiconductor materials germanium, silicon and gallium arsenide. If you go back to the formula for the built-in potential  $\frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$ . So, if you change the material and if you keep the dopant concentrations the same when the temperature is also same, typically room temperature. The only thing we are changing is  $n_i$ . We have seen earlier that  $n_i$  depends upon the band gap  $\sqrt{N_c N_v} \exp\left(\frac{-E_g}{2kT}\right)$ . So, as the value of the band gap increases  $n_i$  essentially goes down because it has an exponential with a negative term. If the value of  $n_i$  goes down, then the built-in potential will essentially increase.

So, in this case we have 3 materials. So, I will write down the table that is given in the problem. We have germanium, silicon, gallium arsenide, the band gap values are given in  $E_g$  and these are mainly used just for comparison. We do not need the band gap values as far as this problem is concerned; germanium is 0.7, silicon is 1.1, gallium arsenide is 1.4. What we do need is the values of  $n_i$  and  $n_i$  is again given  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ . So, germanium is  $2.4 \times 10^{13}$ , silicon is  $1 \times 10^{10}$  and gallium arsenide is  $2.1 \times 10^6$ . So,  $n_i$  essentially decrease as the value of the band gap increases. So, We now need to calculate the built-in potential for these 3 materials. We can make use of this formula, just substitute  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  and then the values of  $n_i$  for the different materials. So, we can go through and work out the

math. I will just write down the final answer. So,  $V_o$  which is your built-in potential is nothing but 0.372 the units is volts for germanium, it is higher for silicon 0.775 and it is even higher for gallium arsenide 1.213. So, as the value of  $n_i$  goes down because you have a higher band gap the built-in potential at the junction essentially increases. This information is especially useful when you are trying to built devices with materials apart from silicon because once you know the built-in potential you are also know, what kind of current that it needs to be applied through the circuit for a particular kind of application.


Let us now go to problem 3.


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**Problem #3**

A Si abrupt junction in equilibrium at  $T = 300$  K is doped such that  $E_c - E_F = 0.21$  eV in the n region and  $E_F - E_v = 0.18$  eV in the p region. Take  $n_i = 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $E_g = 1.10$  eV, and  $E_{Fi} = 0.55$  eV.

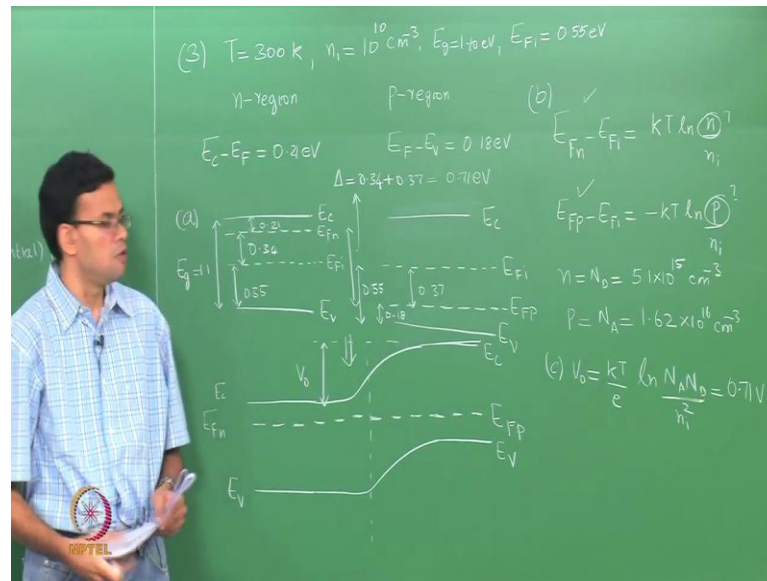
- a) Draw the energy band diagram of the junction.
- b) Determine the impurity doping concentrations in each region.
- c) Determine the built-in potential.

  
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In problem 3, we have a Silicon abrupt junction which is in thermal equilibrium at room temperature.

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So, temperature  $T$  is 300 kelvin, it is doped in such a way such that  $E_c - E_F$  is 0.21 electron volts in the n-region. So, you have an n-region and you have a p-region. So, In this question, the doping concentrations are not given, but the position of the Fermi level is. Here,  $E_c - E_F$  is 0.21 electron volts and  $E_F - E_v$  is 0.18 electron volts the material is silicon. So, you have somehow with the parameters of silicon  $n_i$  which is  $10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . The band gap of silicon  $E_g$  is 1.10 electron volts the position of the intrinsic Fermi level  $E_{Fi}$  it is not exactly at the center, but it is very close to the center, we can take this 0.55 electron volts. These are some of the parameters of intrinsic silicon that we can use. So, The first part of the question says; draw the energy band diagram for the p-n junction. So, before we do that let me first draw the energy band diagram for the 2 regions separately and then we can put them together to draw the energy band diagram for the junction.

So, on the n-side this is my conduction band, this is my valence band, this gap is nothing but  $E_g$  which is 1.1  $E_{Fi}$  is at the center of the gap so that is 0.55 and  $E_g$  is 1.1. This question says  $E_c - E_F$  is 0.21. So, the Fermi level on the n-side  $E_{Fn}$  is 0.21 electron volts. So, This height which is nothing but  $0.55 - 0.21$  is 0.34, So, all the energy are in electron volts. I am just not writing the units, but everything is in eV, we can now do the same for the p-region. So, the material is the same. The band gap is the same you just draw this slightly better, So, it is the same silicon. So,  $E_c$  and  $E_v$  are located in the same place,  $E_{Fi}$  will also be located in the center.  $E_{Fi}$  in this particular problem  $E_F - E_v$  is given to be 0.18 electron volts. So,  $E_{Fp}$ , this is 0.18. So,  $E_{Fi}$  to  $E_v$  is 0.55, so that this height is nothing, but

0.37. So, this is 0.55, this is 0.18, this is 0.37.

So, We have the energy band diagrams of the n and the p-region separately, we can put them together and draw the energy band diagram of the p-n junction, but before we do that I will like to calculate the concentration of electrons and holes on the n and the p-side, so that we can do a basically using the formula  $E_{Fn} - E_{Fi}$  is  $kT \ln \frac{n}{n_i}$  ( $E_{Fp} - E_{Fi}$ ) =  $kT \ln \frac{p}{n_i}$ . So, The position of the Fermi level is related to the concentration of the majority carriers on the n-side, it is your donors on the p-side it is the acceptors. So, Here this term is known and this is the unknown, same way here this is known and this is the unknown. So,  $E_{Fn} - E_{Fi}$  is 0.34 and  $E_{Fp} - E_{Fi}$  is -0.37. So, we can substitute in the values, so that we get  $n = N_D$  just equal to  $5.1 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  p is nothing but  $N_A$  is slightly higher  $1.62 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . So, even without doing the numbers we could have predicted that  $N_A$  will be higher than  $N_D$  simply because the Fermi level on the p-side is located much is closer to the valence band it is only 0.18 compare to the Fermi level on the n-side which is 0.21 electron volts below the conduction band.

So, you have drawn the energy band diagrams separately. We also have the concentration of the electrons and holes. So, Let me draw the energy band diagram, when the junction is formed to do that we know that the Fermi levels must essentially line up at equilibrium. So, this is  $E_{Fn}$  this is  $E_{Fp}$  far away from the junction you still have an n-type semiconductor and you still have a p-type semiconductor. Let me just arbitrarily mark and interface between these 2 and we can show the bands bending, so that these 2 join. This is  $E_v$ , this is  $E_c$ , this is  $E_c$  this is  $E_v$ . So, you have the Fermi levels lining up, and there is a built-in potential. This is a straight line and there is a built-in potential  $V_o$  formed at the junction.

So, part-b we need to determine the concentration of the impurities, we actually just did that. So, This is essentially part-b just by looking at the shift in the Fermi levels we can calculate the concentration of the impurities. Part-c, we want to calculate the built-in potential. So,  $V_o$  is nothing, but  $\frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$ , we can do all the substitution and the numbers. This works out to be 0.71 volts. We can also calculate the built-in potential by looking at the energy band diagram. So, In this particular case, the distance between  $E_{Fn}$  and  $E_{Fp}$  is essentially  $0.34 + 0.37$ . So, this distance delta is  $0.34 + 0.37$  which is 0.71 electron volts. So, When the junction is formed, we know that the Fermi levels have to




line up. So, we can think of as either the n-side shifting completely by 0.71 or the p-side shifting up by the same 0.71, so that they line up. So, the built-in potential or the built-in voltage is nothing, but the difference between the Fermi level positions. So, This is 0.71 electron volts; if you divide by  $e$ , it is 0.71 volts. So, instead of using the formula you can also calculate the built-in potential by just looking at the energy band diagram.


So, let us now go to problem 4.

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**Problem #4**

An abrupt  $np^+$  junction diode has a cross sectional area of  $1 \text{ mm}^2$ , an acceptor concentration of  $5 \times 10^{18}$  boron atoms  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  on the p-side and a donor concentration of  $10^{16}$  arsenic atoms  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  on the n-side. The lifetime of holes in the n-region is 417 ns, whereas that of electrons in the p-region is only 5 ns. Mean thermal generation lifetime is  $1 \text{ } \mu\text{s}$ .  $\mu_e = 120 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\mu_h = 44 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $E_g = 1.1 \text{ eV}$ .

  
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So, In problems 1, 2, 3 we looked at the p-n junction in equilibrium, so that there was external potential applied and no current was flowing through the junction. In problem 4, which is slightly a long problem, we are going to look at a p-n junction and this essentially biased. And we are going to calculate some values for the current in the forward and the reverse bias. So, problem 4 you have an abrupt  $pn^+$  junction.



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$N_A = 5 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   
 $N_D = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (As) → Long diode  
 $\tau_h$  (n-region) = 417 ns     $\tau_e$  (p-region) = 5 ns     $\tau_g = 1 \mu\text{s}$  (thermal generation)  
 $\mu_e = 120 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$      $\mu_h = 440 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$      $E_g = 1.1 \text{ eV}$   
 p-region width = 5  $\mu\text{m}$     n-region width = 100  $\mu\text{m}$   
 (i) Minority diffusion lengths  
 $L_e = \sqrt{D_e \tau_e} = 1.2 \mu\text{m} < 5 \mu\text{m}$      $D_e = \frac{kT \mu_e}{e}$   
 $L_h = \sqrt{D_h \tau_h} = 21.8 \mu\text{m} < 100 \mu\text{m}$      $D_h = \frac{kT \mu_h}{h}$   
 $= 3.10 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$      $= 11.39 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$

When we say a  $\text{pn}^+$  or  $\text{np}^+$ , the plus essentially denotes that this is heavily doped. So, when one of the carriers or when one of the sides of a p-n junction is heavily doped then the depletion region lies almost entirely on the other side. So, one way to see that is to go back to this equation. So,  $N_A W_p = N_D W_n$ . So, when  $N_D$  is much greater than  $N_A$ , this implies  $W_n$  is much smaller than  $W_p$ , so that the depletion width is almost entirely on the p-side. I will also just write the reverse, when  $N_A$  is much greater than  $N_D$  then you have  $W_p$  much smaller than  $W_n$  and the depletion is almost entirely on the n-side. So, We have an abrupt p-n junction, the cross sectional area  $A$  is  $1 \text{ mm}^2$ , we will use the cross sectional area to calculate the current the acceptor concentration of  $5 \times 10^{18}$  boron atoms on the p-side. So,  $N_A$  is  $5 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and there is a donor concern. This is boron, there is a donor concentration  $N_D$  is  $10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and this is arsenic.

In this problem  $N_A$  is much higher than  $N_D$ . So, this should actually read  $\text{p}^+\text{n}$  not p and + it is my mistake because  $N_A$  is much greater than  $N_D$ . So, we have  $5 \times 10^{18}$  boron and  $10^{16}$  arsenic atoms on the n-side the whole life time values are also given. So, the life time of the whole  $\tau_h$  in the n-region. So, These are your minority carriers; this is equal to 417 nanoseconds. Similarly, the life time of the electrons in the p-region is only 5 nanoseconds and this difference is because of the difference in concentration of the dopants, the thermal generation life time is also given. So,  $\tau_g$  is 1 micro second. Some other values are also given for this problem,  $\mu_e$  which is the mobility of the electrons. So,  $120 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$   $\mu_h$  is  $440 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $E_g$  is 1.1 ev. The length of the p and n-regions

are also given. So, you have a p-region with is 5 micro meters and the n-region with this 100 micro meters. These are a whole set of data there is given about the silicon p-n junction.

So, the first thing we need to calculate is the minority diffusion length and to determine what type of diode this is. So, We want to calculate the minority diffusion lengths. So, In the case of a p-n junction under equilibrium we have a dynamic equilibrium, so that electrons and holes are moving across the junction and constantly get annihilated, when we apply a forward bias the p-side is connected to the positive the n-side is connected to the negative the Fermi levels no longer line up, but essentially get shifted and when this happens the barrier comes down. So,  $V_{naught}$  is the built-in potential or the barrier during equilibrium when you apply an external potential the barrier is  $V_o - V_{external}$  when the barrier goes down it basically have minority carriers moving across the junction. So, we have electrons from the n-side moving to the p-side where they are minority carriers. We also have holes from the p-side moving to the n-side and there they are the minority carriers.

So, It is this minority carrier diffusion that essentially causes current to flow in a p-n junction. So, the first thing you want to calculate is the diffusion lengths to know the diffusion lengths we need to know the diffusion coefficients. So,  $D_e$  which is the diffusion coefficient of electrons is nothing, but  $\frac{kT\mu_e}{h}$ . So, it depends upon the mobility and  $D_h$  is  $\frac{kT\mu_h}{h}$ . So, the values of  $\mu_e$  are given  $\mu_h$  is given everything else is a constant. So, we can plug it in, so that  $D_e$  is  $3.10 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $D_h$  is  $11.39 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . So,  $D_h$  is higher than  $D_e$  because  $\mu_h$  is higher than  $\mu_e$  and this is because the holes are diffusing on the n-side and the concentration on the n-side is two orders of magnitude less than the p-side. So, because you have less concentration of your dopants the diffusion coefficients are higher from the diffusion coefficients we can calculate the length. So,  $l$  is nothing but  $\sqrt{D\tau}$ . So,  $L_e$  is  $D_e \tau_e$   $L_h$  is  $D_h$  and  $\tau_h$ . So, once again  $D_e$  and  $D_h$  we have calculated  $\tau_e$  and  $\tau_h$  are given. So, we can substitute the numbers. So,  $L_e$  works out to be 1.2 micro meters, I am not doing the math so, all your units are in centimeters. So, your answer will also be in centimeters, you can just convert them into micro meters. So,  $L_e$  is 1.2 and  $L_h$  is larger it is 21.8 micro meters.

If you looked at the length of the diodes on the p and the n-side on the n-side the diode

length is 100 on the p-side the diode length is 5 micro meters. So,  $L_e$  is smaller than the 5 micro meters which is the length on the p-side.  $L_h$  is smaller than 100 micro meters which is the length on the n-side, so that this is essentially a long diode. So, a long diode is 1 in which the diffusion lengths are smaller than the physical lengths of the p and n-region. So, This is part-a, now let us go to part-b.

In part b, we want to calculate the built-in potential across the junction. This is the potential when the junction is in equilibrium.

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(c) Forward biased  $V = 0.6V$

$$J = J_{s0} \left[ \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right) - 1 \right] \approx J_{s0} \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right) \rightarrow \text{dominate}$$

$$J_{s0} = \text{reverse saturation current} = n_i^2 e \left[ \frac{D_h}{L_h N_D} + \frac{D_e}{L_e N_A} \right]$$

$$I_{s0} = J_{s0} A = 8.36 \times 10^{-14} \text{ A}$$

$$I = J A = J_{s0} A \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right) = 0.96 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A (or) } 0.96 \text{ mA}$$

This is fairly straight forward. So, just  $\frac{kT}{e} \ln \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2}$ . So, we have all the numbers we just need to substitute that this works out to be 0.877 volts. So, this particular problem does not ask you to calculate the depletion widths, but you can go ahead and do the calculation and you will find that the depletion width is almost entirely on the n-side and that there is a very small depletion width on the p-side.

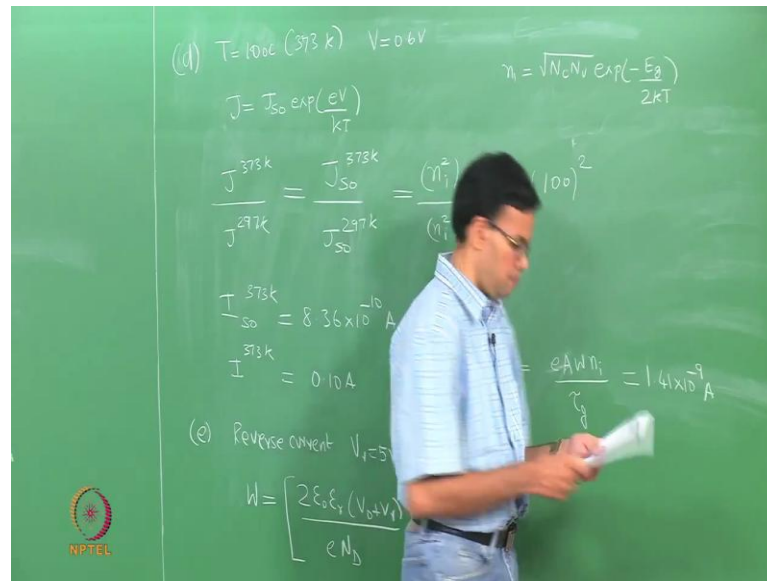
Part-c, what is the current when there is a forward biased of 0.6 volts across the diode. So, Now, you have the diode to be forward biased the external potential  $V$  is 0.6 volts. So, when we apply an external potential the barrier height is lowered. So, that there is an increase in current due to the minority carriers diffusing across the junction in this particular case the current density is given by a constant  $J_{s0} \exp\left[\frac{eV}{kT} - 1\right]$  usually the exponential term is much higher than 1, so that this can be return has  $J_{s0} \exp\left[\frac{eV}{kT}\right]$ .  $J_{s0}$  is

your reverse saturation current and this is given by  $n_i^2 e \left[ \frac{D_h}{L_h N_D} + \frac{D_e}{L_e N_A} \right]$ .

So, we saw the derivation for this during the course notes, but this is your reverse saturation current and this is something with plugs in here. If you remember the assignment from the schottky junctions, the metal semiconductor junctions we had a similar expression to this except that the constant out front had a different value which depended upon the thermionic emission, but now here we have a p-n junction. So, the constant here is your reverse saturation current. In this particular problem  $N_A$  is much higher than  $N_D$  and since they are in the denominator this term will essentially dominate over the other term. So, This is the reverse saturation current density, to calculate the current we just need to multiply this by the area. So, all the numbers are here we calculated  $D_h$  and  $L_h$ . In part-a  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  are known  $n_i$  is also known, so that  $J_{so}$ , instead of  $J_{so}$ , I will directly write  $I_{so}$  which is  $J_{so}$  times the area. So, this is  $8.36 \times 10^{-14}$  A. So, the reverse saturation current is essentially a really small value. Once you know  $I_{so}$  or  $J_{so}$  can calculate the current during forward bias. So, I is nothing but J times which is  $J_{so} A \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right)$ , V is 0.6 that is given. So, the current works out to be  $0.96 \times 10^{-3}$  A or 0.96 milli amperes. So in the current in the forward biased is 0.96 milli amperes, so that is nearly  $10^{11}$  orders of magnitude or  $10^{10}$  orders of magnitude higher than the reverse saturation current. This is why we essentially call a p-n junction to be a rectifier because it conducts very well during forward bias and the reverse biased current is very small.

So, let us now go to part-d. In part-d, we want to estimate the forward current at 100 degrees. So, the temperature is now increased.

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You can write this in Kelvin, so that is 373 kelvin the voltage is the same. So,  $V$  is 0.6 volts, the question also says that assume the temperature dependence of  $n_i$  dominates over everything else. So, over the diffusion lengths the diffusion coefficients itself also the mobilities, if only take  $n_i$  into consideration. So, we can see that the current or if you write this down  $J$  is  $J_{so} \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right)$ . So, the ratio of  $J$  at 373 kelvin to that a 273 or 293 kelvin, this should be 373. So, 373 by 293 kelvin or 297 kelvin which is room temperature.

Let me just draw this right, this is 297 is nothing but  $J'_{so}$  or  $J_{so}$  at 373 kelvin divided by  $J_{so}$  297 kelvin. So, the potential is the same. So, the ratio of the currents or the ratio of the current densities is nothing but the ratio of the reverse saturation currents this is directly proportional to  $n_i^2$ , so that this is  $n_i^2$  at 373 kelvin divided by  $n_i^2$  297 kelvin  $n_i^2$  is nothing or  $n_i \sqrt{N_c N_v} \exp\left(\frac{-E_g}{2kT}\right)$ . So, for this problem we can take  $N_c$  and  $N_v$  to be independent of temperature. So, the ratio of  $n_i$  is just given by the exponential term. So, if you do this ratio works out to be approximately 100 so that the reverse saturation current is increased by 100, when we go from room temperature to  $100^\circ\text{C}$ . So, The new values of  $I_{so}$  100 square so, the new values of  $I_{so}$  at 373 kelvin. Just write down the final answer is  $8.36 \times 10^{-10}$  and current  $I$  at 373 kelvin 0.10 amps. So, that the current essentially increases by 4 orders of magnitude.



In part-e, we want to calculate the reverse current when you have a voltage of 5 volts.

So, we want to know the reverse current, when  $V_r$  is 5 volts. To calculate the reverse current, we first need to calculate the new width when you apply a reverse bias. So, the width  $W$  is  $2\epsilon_0\epsilon_r (V_o + V_r)$  and we said that the depletion region lies almost entirely on the n-side. So, I only have  $N_D$  whole to the half. So, This formula is something we used before to calculate the width of the depletion region. When you have a p-n junction under equilibrium, So, you only modified it to add the reverse biased voltage and we also removed the contribution due to  $N_A$  because  $N_D$  is much smaller than  $N_A$ . So, we can plug in the numbers; the new depletion width comes out to be 0.88 micro meters and most of this is in the n-side. When you have a reverse biased, you have thermal generation of carriers within this depletion region and this thermal generation of carriers is responsible for your reverse current. So,  $I_{gen}$  which is the current due to thermal generation of carriers is  $e$  times the cross sectional area times the depletion width times  $\frac{n_i}{\tau_g}$  where  $\tau_g$  is the thermal lifetime of the carriers in that value is also given. So, everything here is known, we can substitute the numbers and  $I_{gen}$  works out to be  $1.41 \times 10^{-9}$  A. This number is again much smaller than your forward biased current which is of the order of milli amps. So, once again even if you take thermal generation of carriers into account, we essentially have a rectifying action in a p-n junction. So, Let us now look in the last question.

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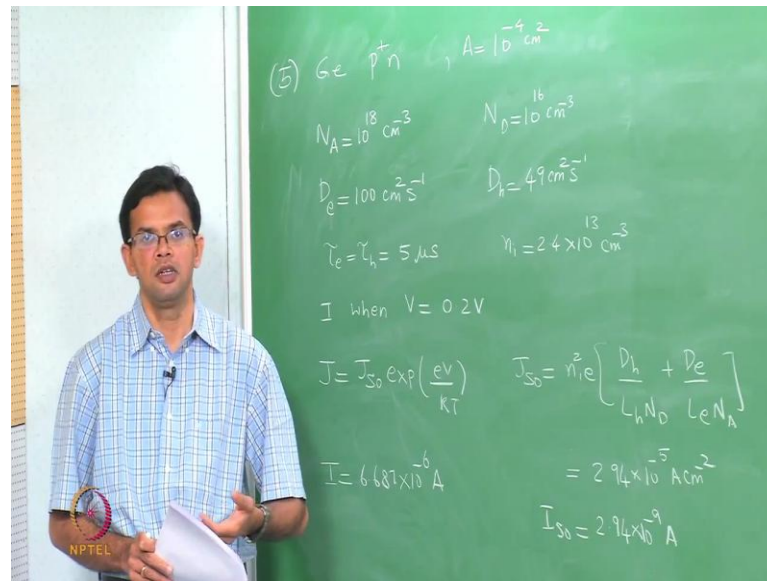
**Problem #5**

A Ge p<sup>+</sup>n diode at  $T = 300$  K has the following parameters:  $N_A = 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $N_D = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $D_h = 49 \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $D_e = 100 \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ ,  $\tau_h = \tau_e = 5 \text{ }\mu\text{s}$ , and  $A = 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2$ . Determine the diode current for a forward bias voltage of 0.2 V. Take  $n_i = 2.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .


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So, problem 5 you have a germanium p-n junction diode.

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So, it is germanium  $p^+n$  the values are given. So,  $N_A$  is  $10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$   $N_D$  is  $10^{16}$   $D_h$ . So,  $D_h$ ; I will write on this side. So,  $D_h$  is  $49 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$   $D_e$  because we are look at minority carriers is  $100 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ;  $\tau_e = \tau_h$  which is equal to 5 microseconds in the cross sectional area is  $10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2$ . So, we want to calculate the diode current, we want to calculate I when we have a forward bias V of 0.2 volts  $n_i$  is  $2.4 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ .

This is very similar to the previous question, so, J is  $J_{so} \exp\left(\frac{eV}{kT}\right)$  and then  $J_{so}$  is  $n_i^2 e \left[ \frac{D_h}{L_h N_D} + \frac{D_e}{L_e N_A} \right]$ . So, all the numbers are given. So,  $J_{so}$ ; I will just substitute and write the final answer, but you can directly do the substitution  $J_{so}$  is  $2.94 \times 10^{-5} \text{ A cm}^{-2}$ . So, the current  $I_{so}$  is  $2.94 \times 10^{-11.9} \text{ A}$ . Once you know  $I_{so}$ , we can substitute here and we can get the current the current I is nothing but  $6.687 \times 10^{-6}$ .

So, In this particular case, the difference between the current and  $I_{so}$  is not as high as in the case of silicon. One particular reason is because your applied voltage is very small, it is only 0.2 volts and another difference is that the material is germanium, so that the band gap is smaller. The built-in potential is also smaller at the same time  $n_i$  is larger, so that  $J_{so}$  is also larger. So, these are some of the factors you have to take into account and choosing materials performing p-n junction.