

ECE 205 “Electrical and Electronics Circuits”

Spring 2024 – LECTURE 22

MWF – 12:00pm

Prof. Umberto Ravaioli

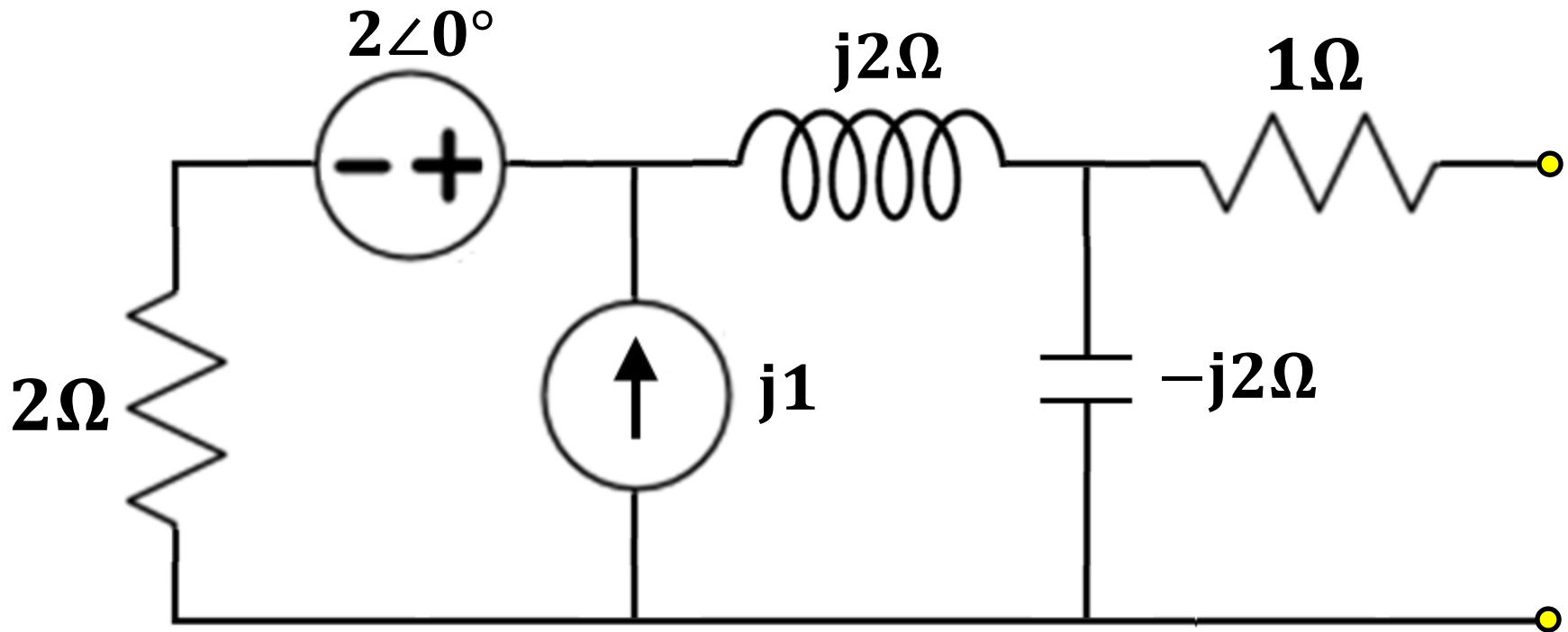
2062 ECE Building

Lecture 22 – Summary

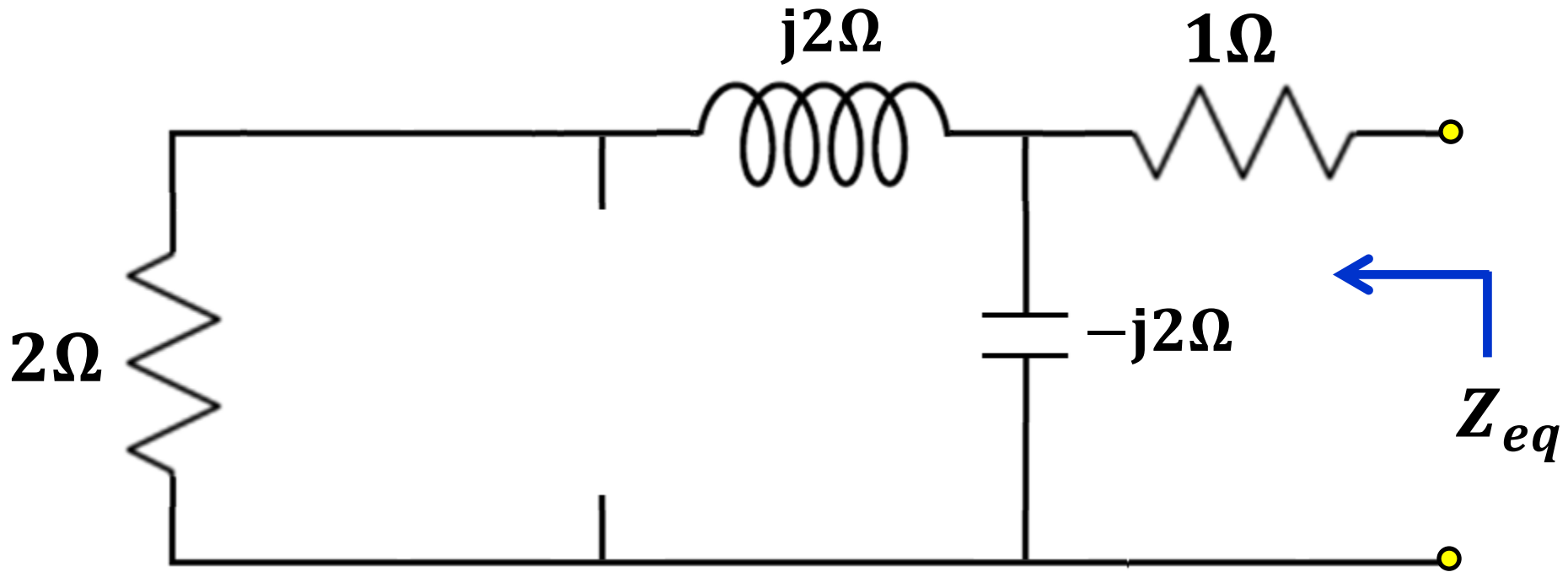
Learning Objectives

1. Introduction to semiconductor diodes
2. Qualitative theory of semiconductors
3. *p-n* junction

Find the Thevenin equivalent circuit



Equivalent impedance

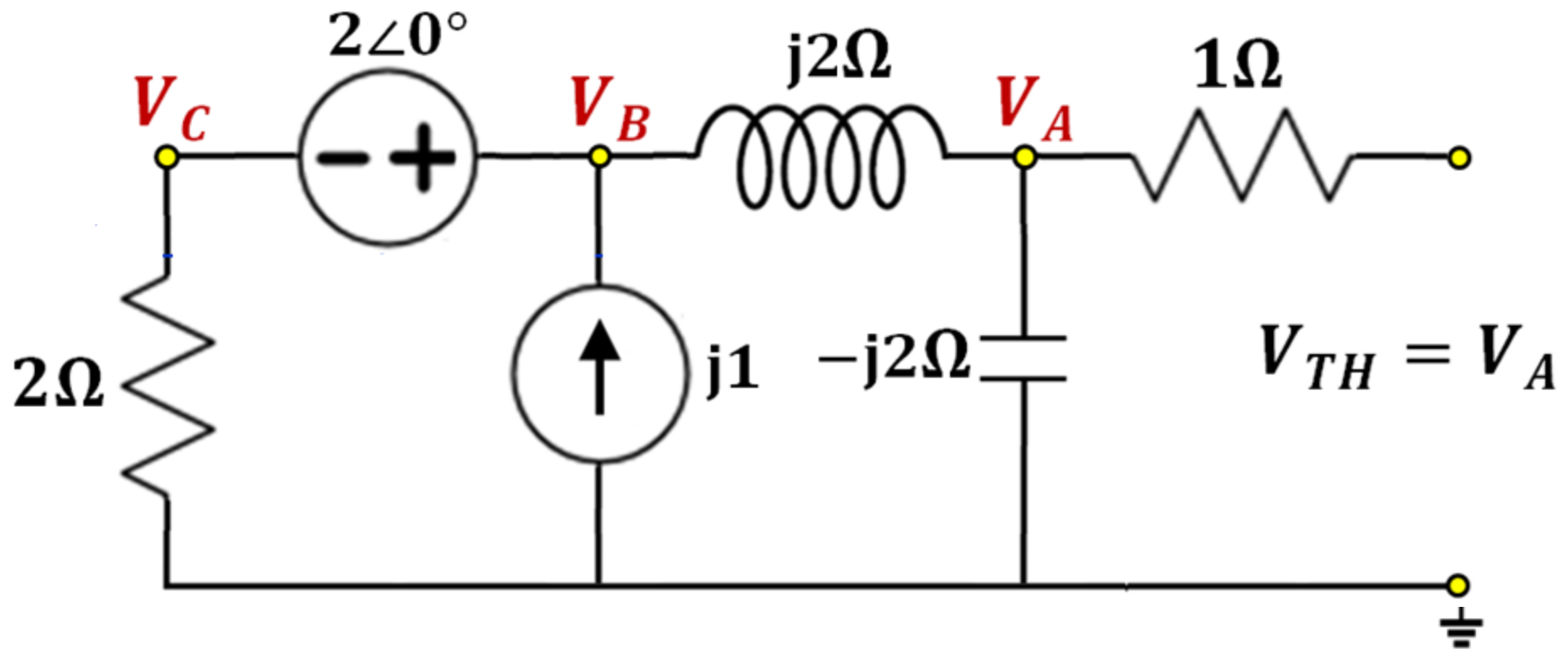


$$Z_{eq} = 1\Omega + (2\Omega + j2\Omega) // (-j2\Omega)$$

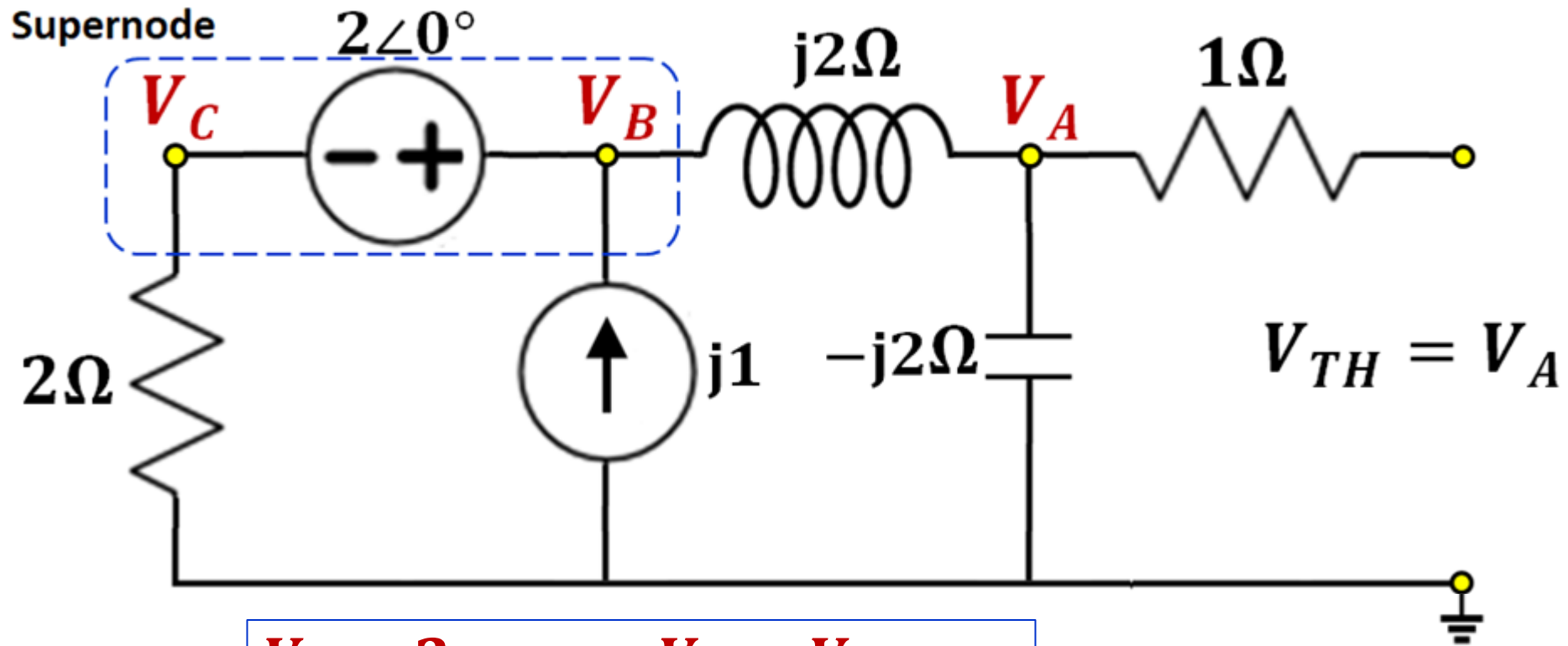
$$Z_{eq} = 1 + \left[\frac{1}{(2 + j2)} + \frac{1}{(-j2)} \right]^{-1} = 1 + \frac{(2 + j2)(-j2)}{2 + j2 - j2}$$

$$Z_{eq} = 1 + \frac{4 - j4}{2} = 3 - j2 \Omega$$

Find open circuit voltage V_{TH}



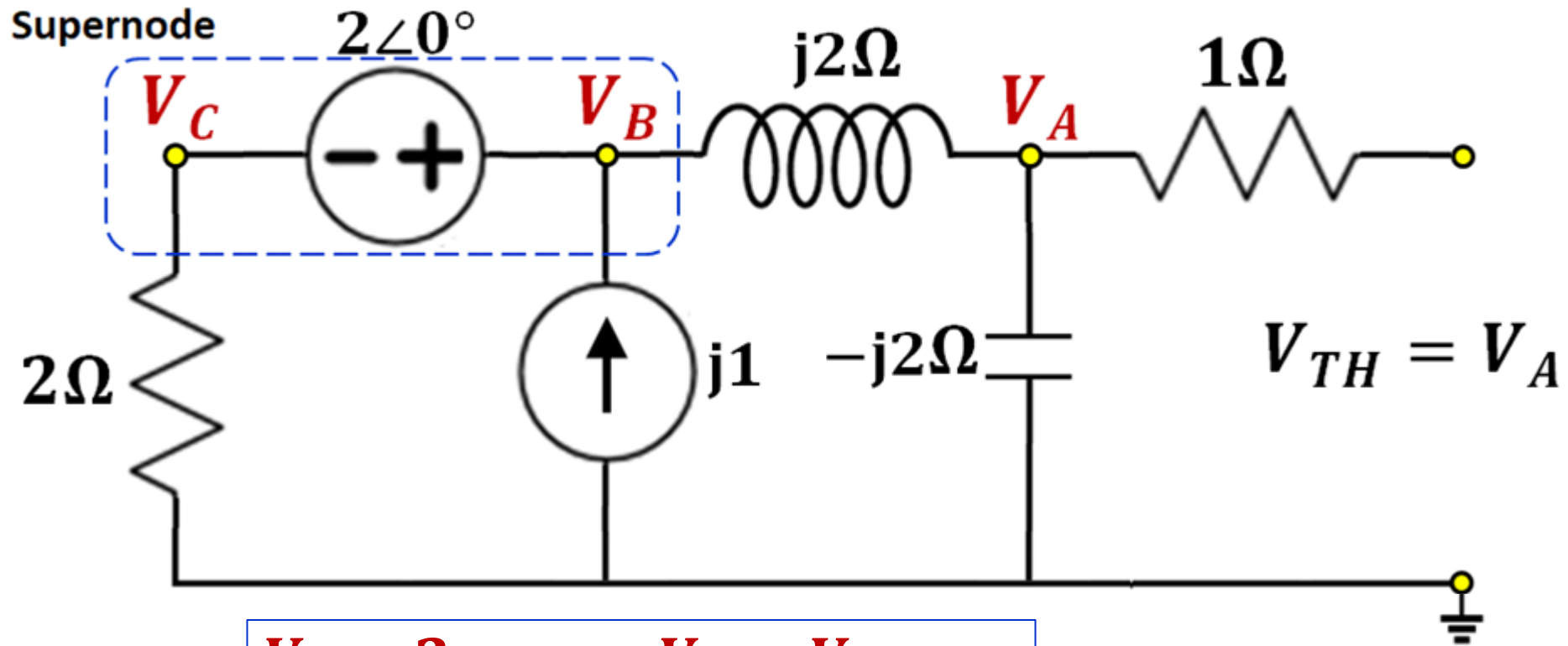
Find open circuit voltage V_{TH}



(Supernode)
$$\frac{V_B - 2}{2\Omega} - j1 + \frac{V_B - V_A}{j2\Omega} = 0$$

$$V_C = V_B - 2V$$

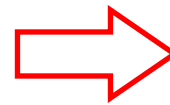
Find open circuit voltage V_{TH}



(Supernode)
$$\frac{V_B - 2}{2\Omega} - j1 + \frac{V_B - V_A}{j2\Omega} = 0$$

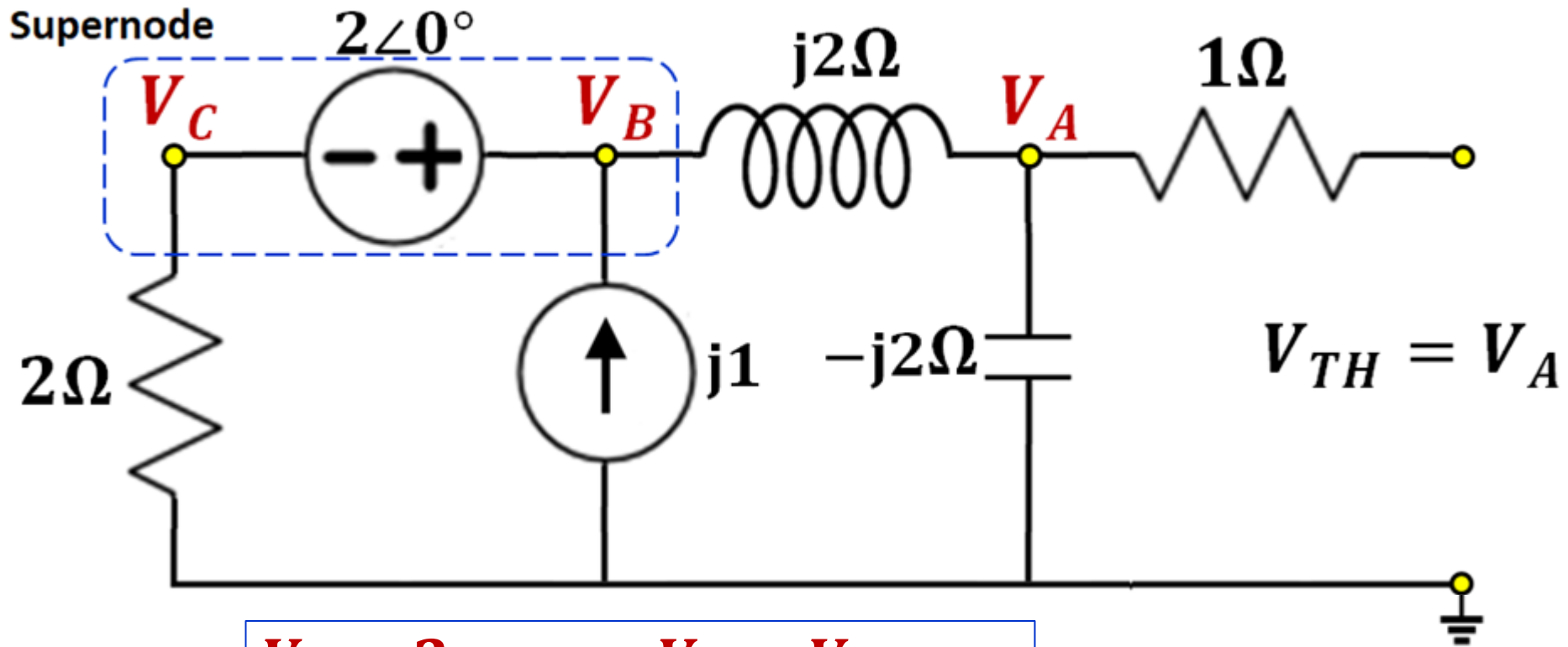
$$V_C = V_B - 2V$$

(Node A)
$$\frac{V_A - V_B}{j2\Omega} + \frac{V_A}{-j2\Omega} = 0$$



$$V_B = 0$$

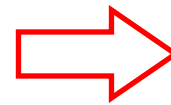
Find open circuit voltage V_{TH}



(Supernode)
$$\frac{V_B - 2}{2\Omega} - j1 + \frac{V_B - V_A}{j2\Omega} = 0$$

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(Node A)
$$\frac{V_A - V_B}{j2\Omega} + \frac{V_A}{-j2\Omega} = 0$$

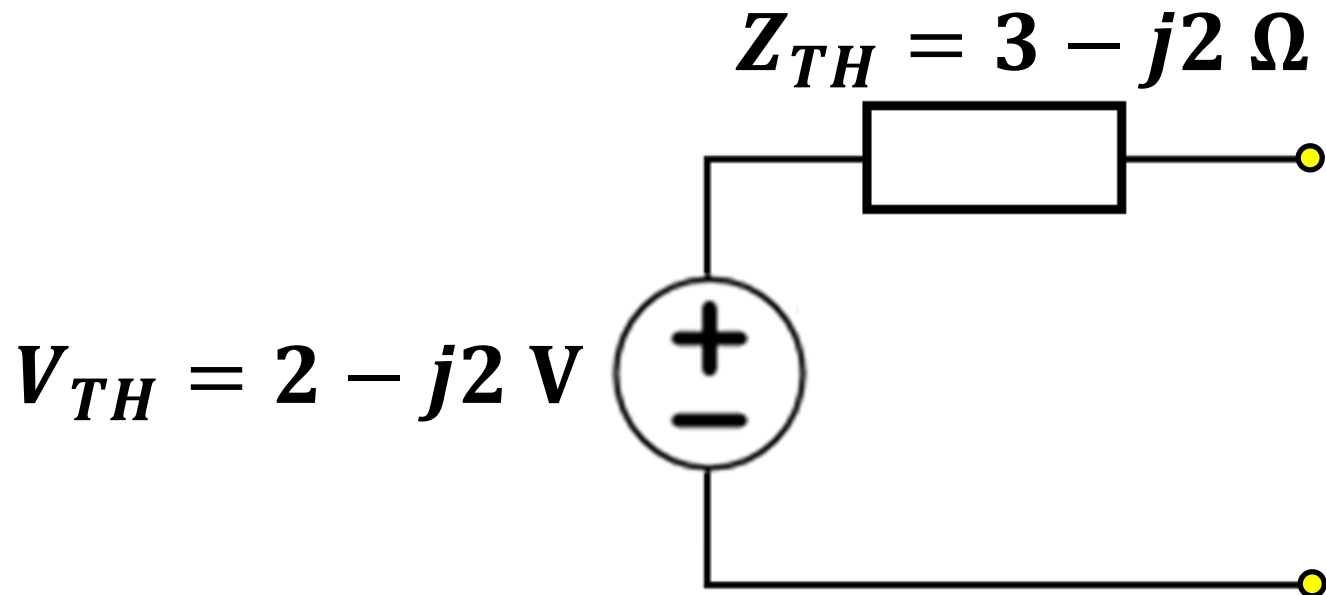
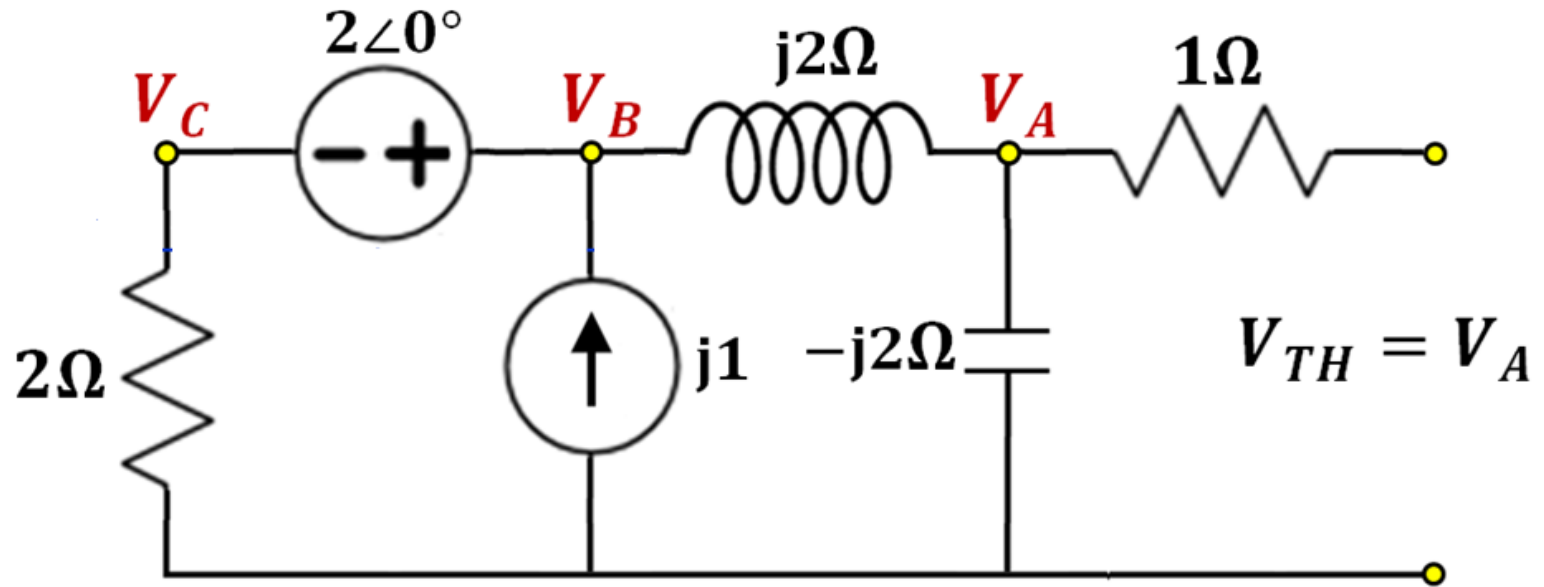


$$V_B = 0$$

Substituting $V_B = 0$ in Supernode KCL:

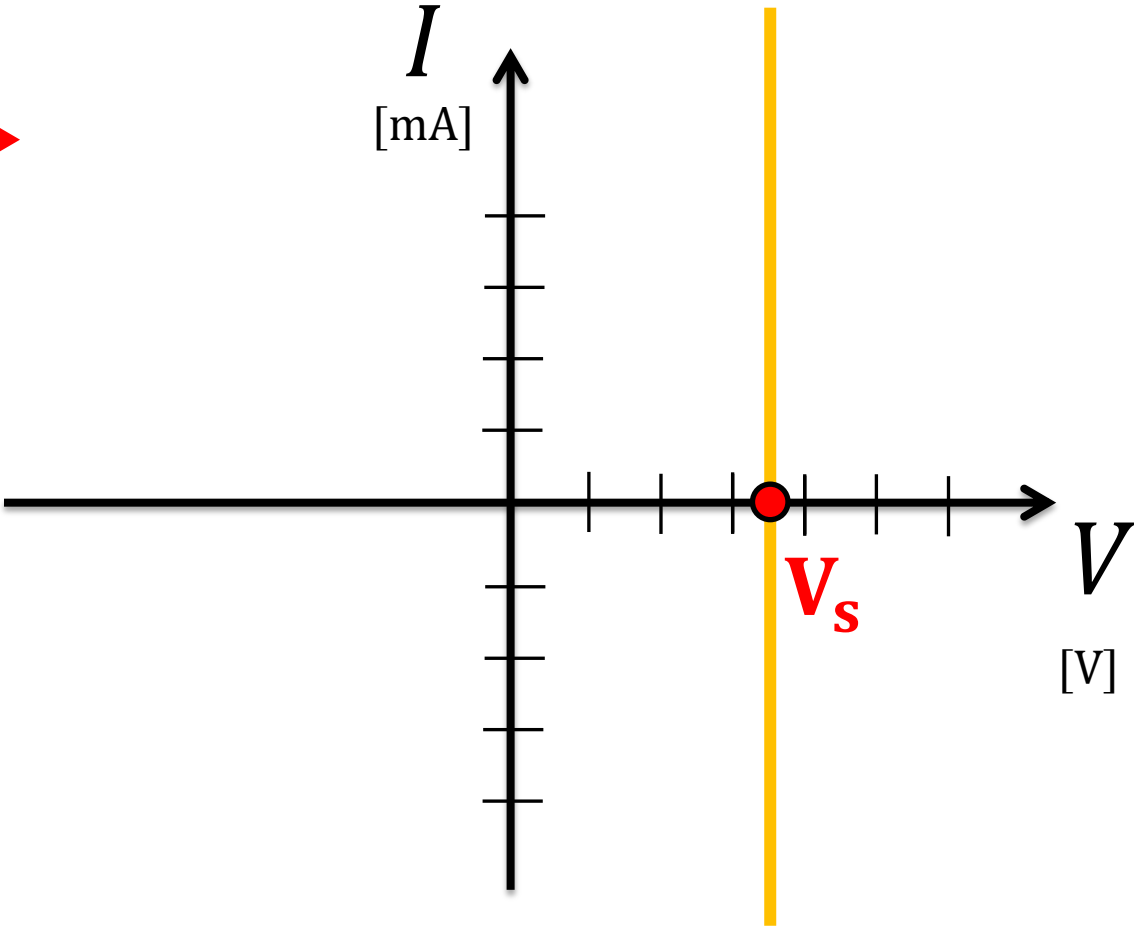
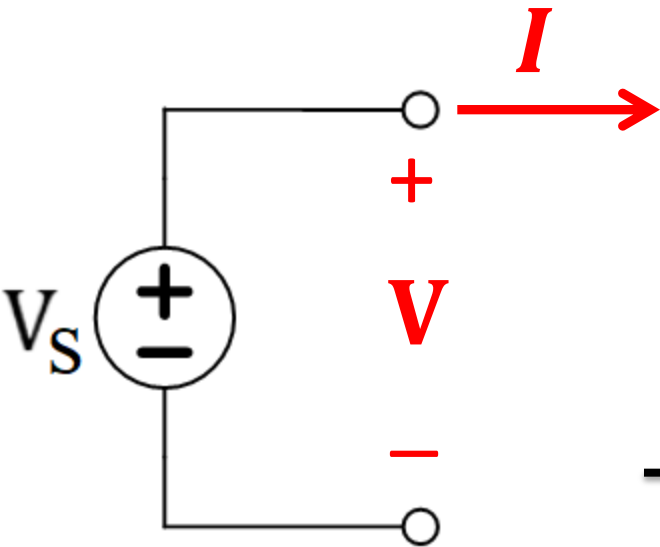
$$V_A = 2 - j2V$$

Thevenin equivalent circuit

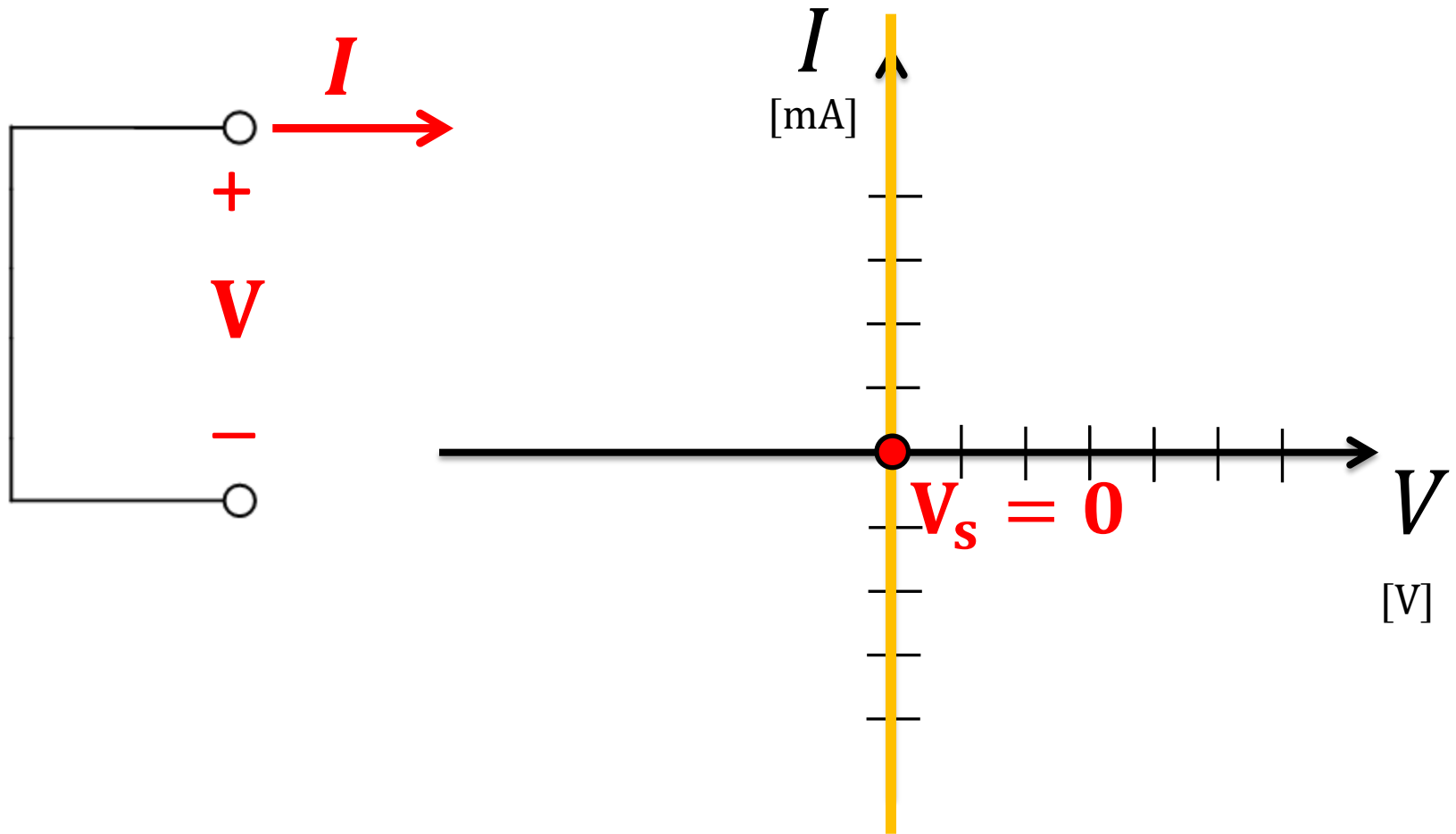


The Rectifying Diode

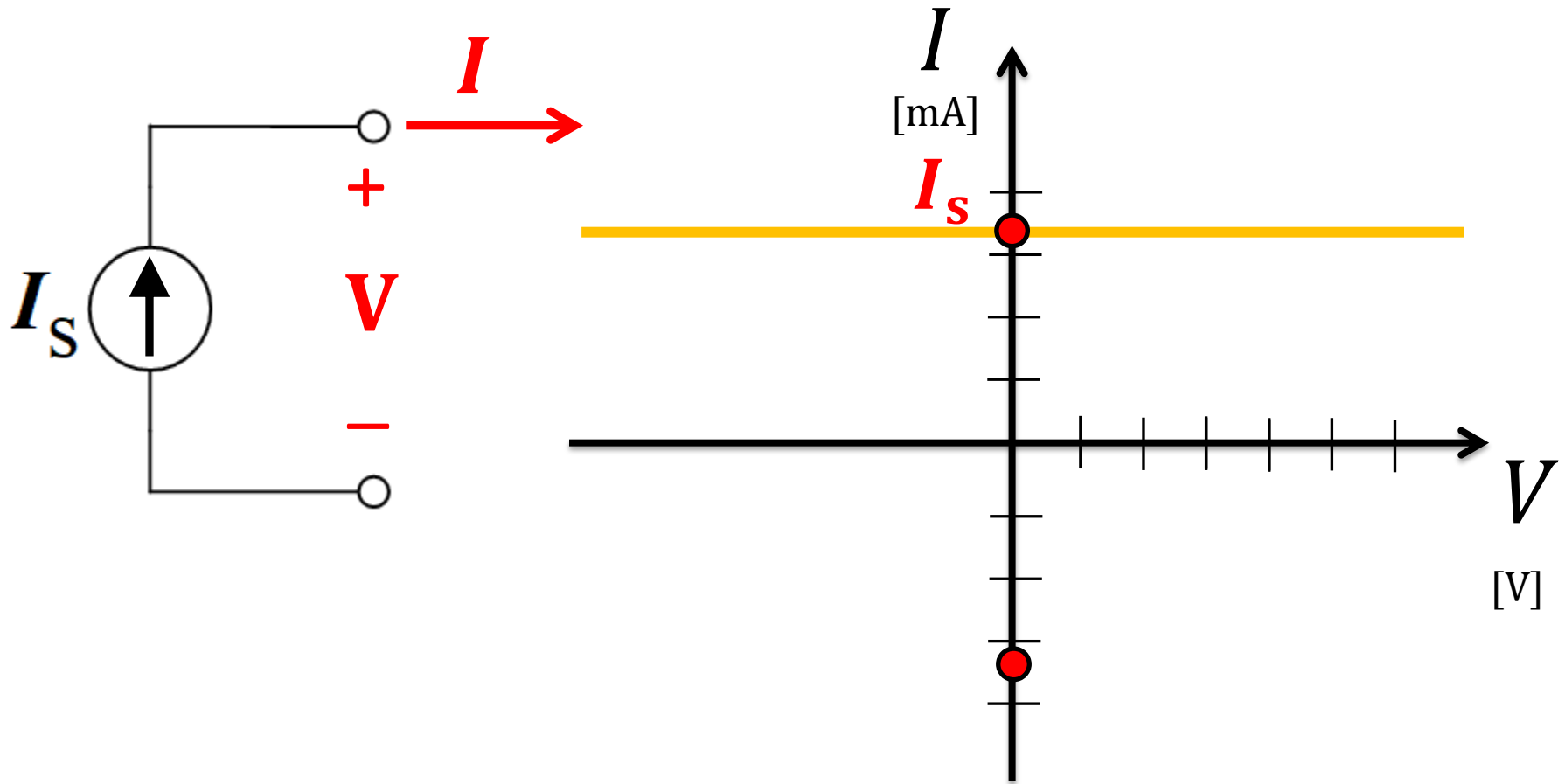
I-V Curve of ideal voltage sources



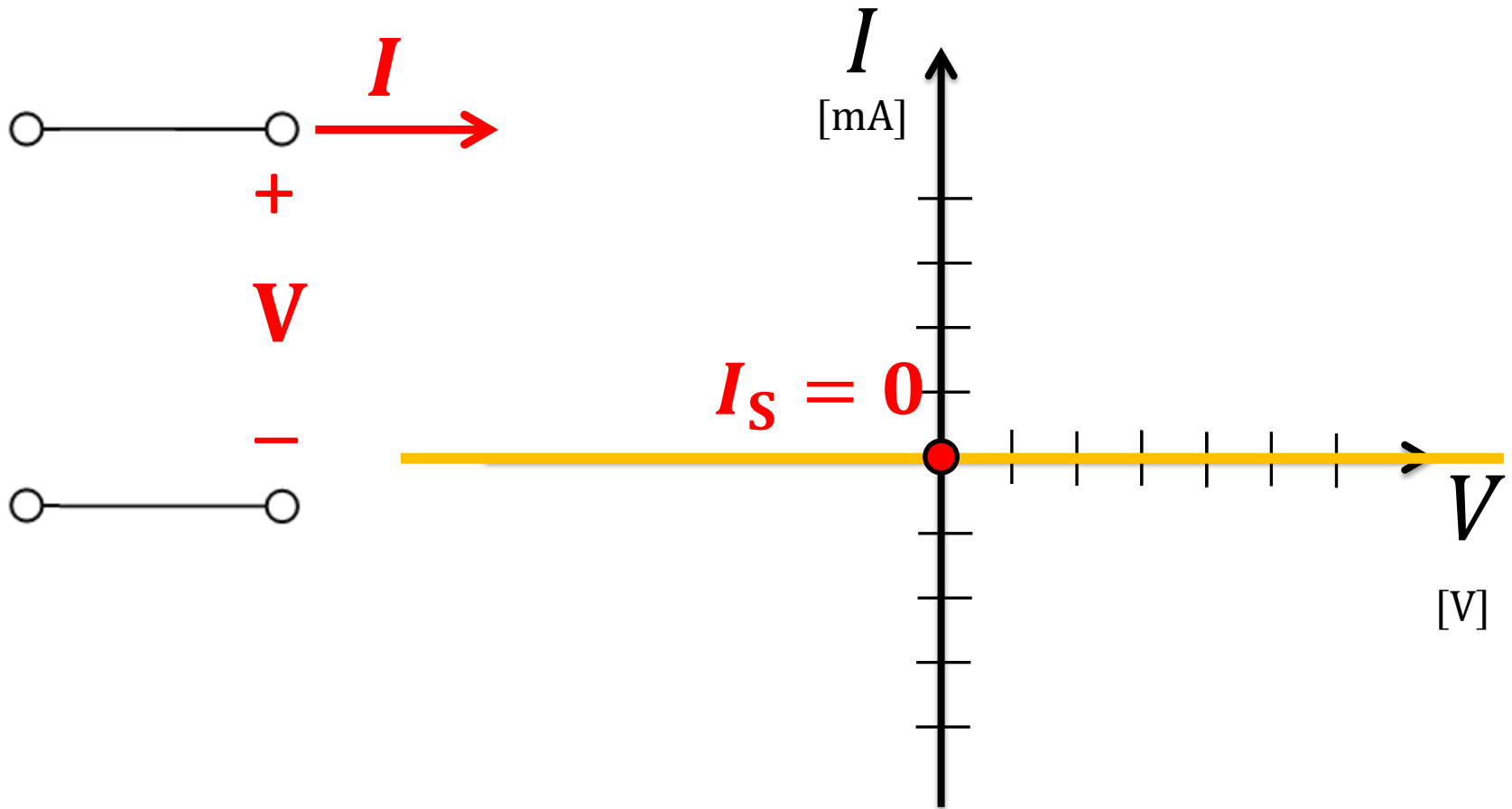
I-V Curve of a short circuit



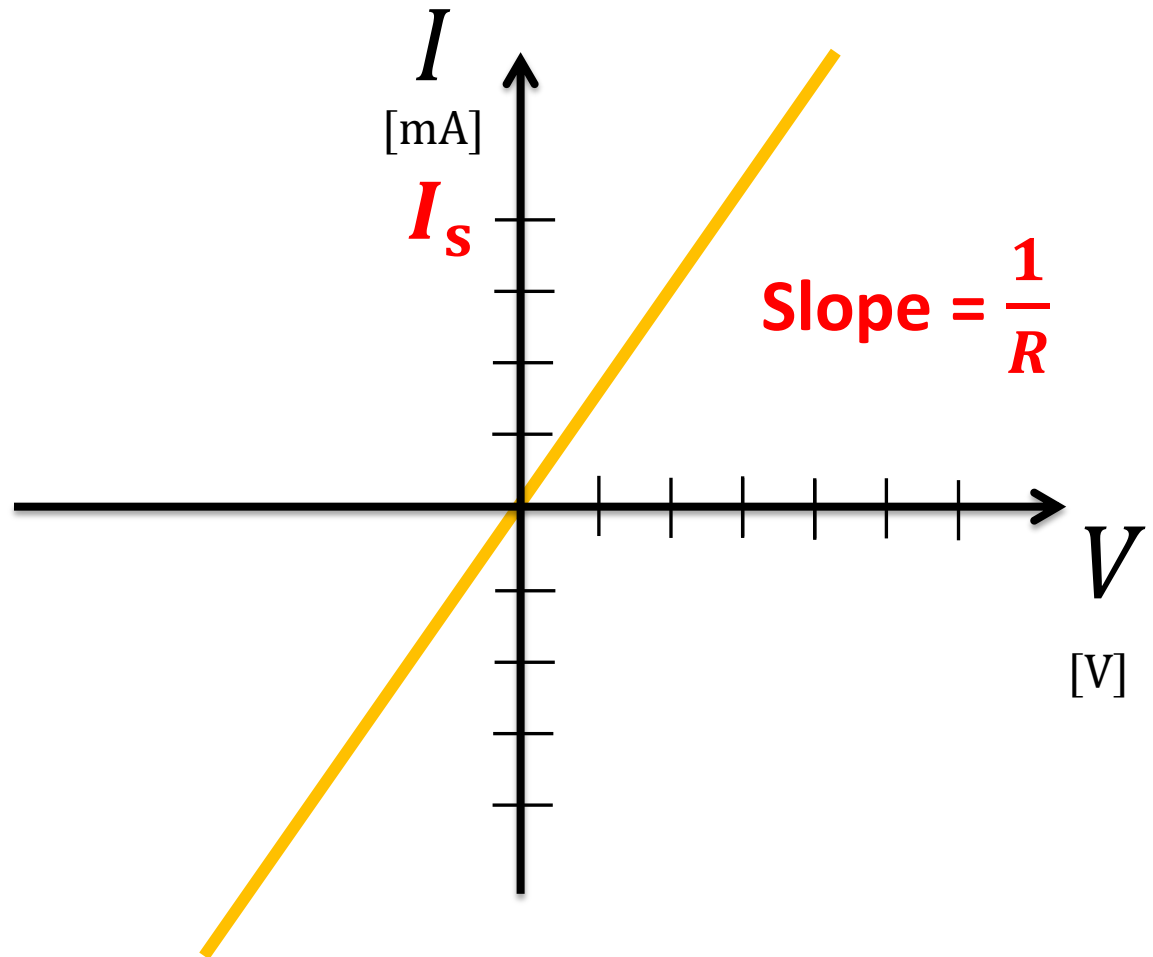
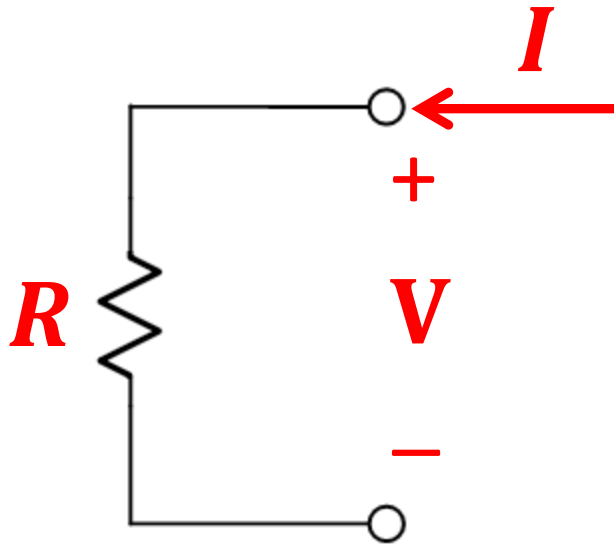
I-V Curve of ideal current sources



I-V Curve of an open circuit

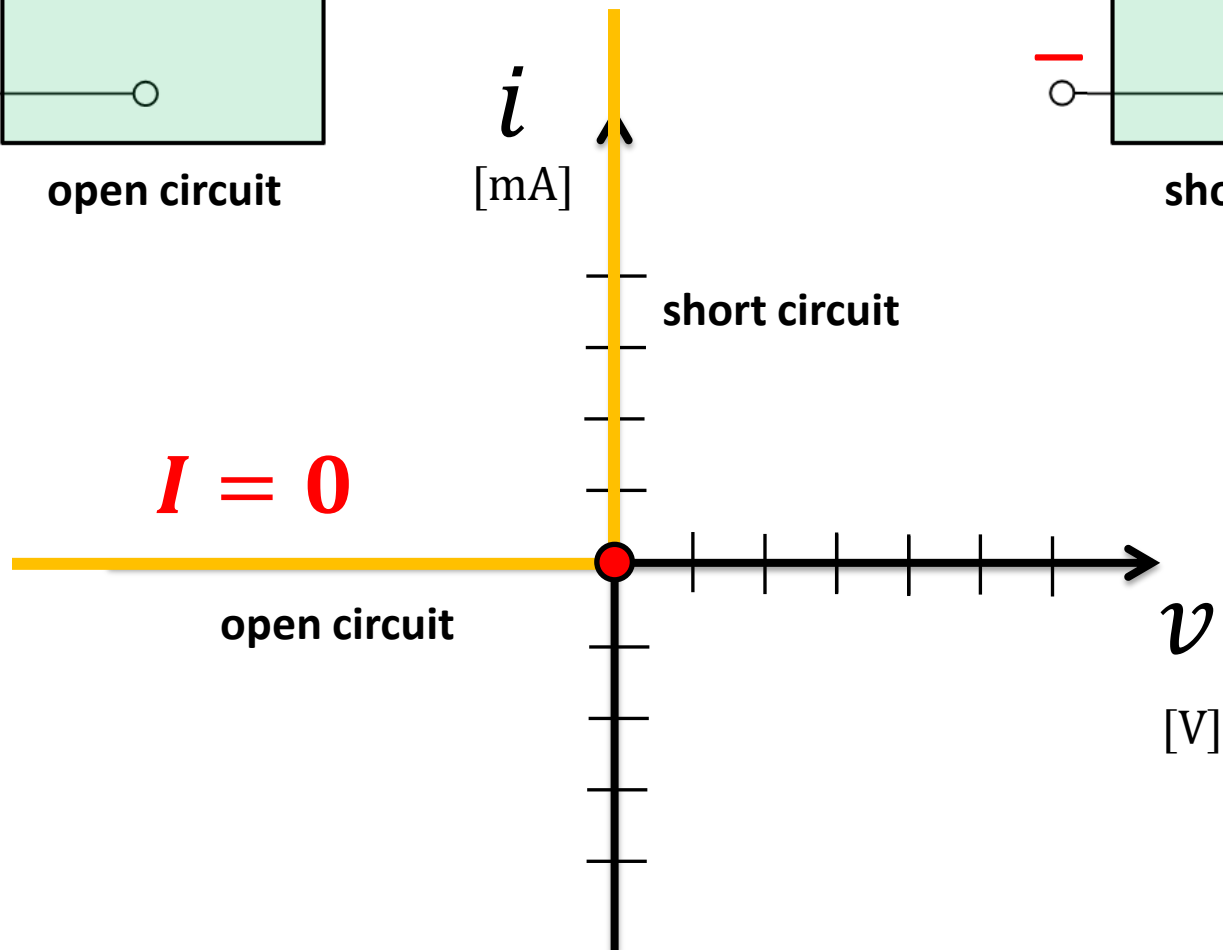
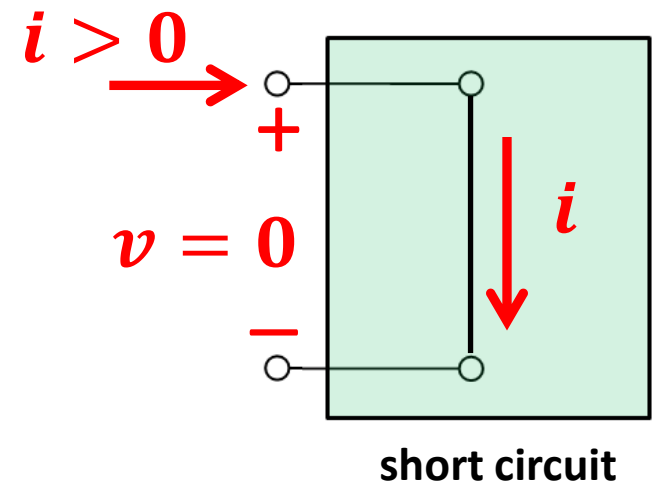
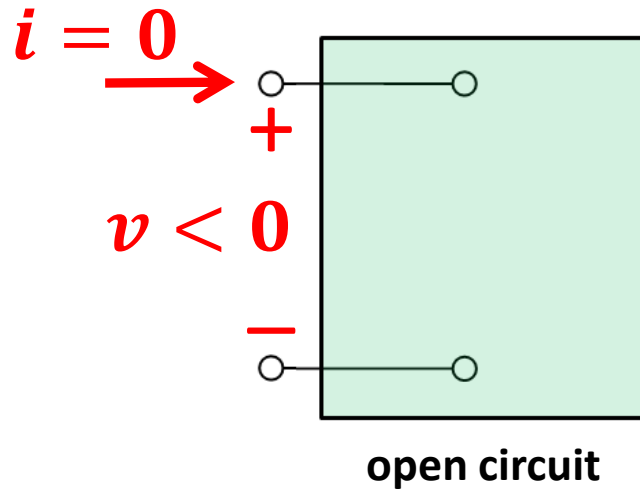


I-V Curve of a resistor

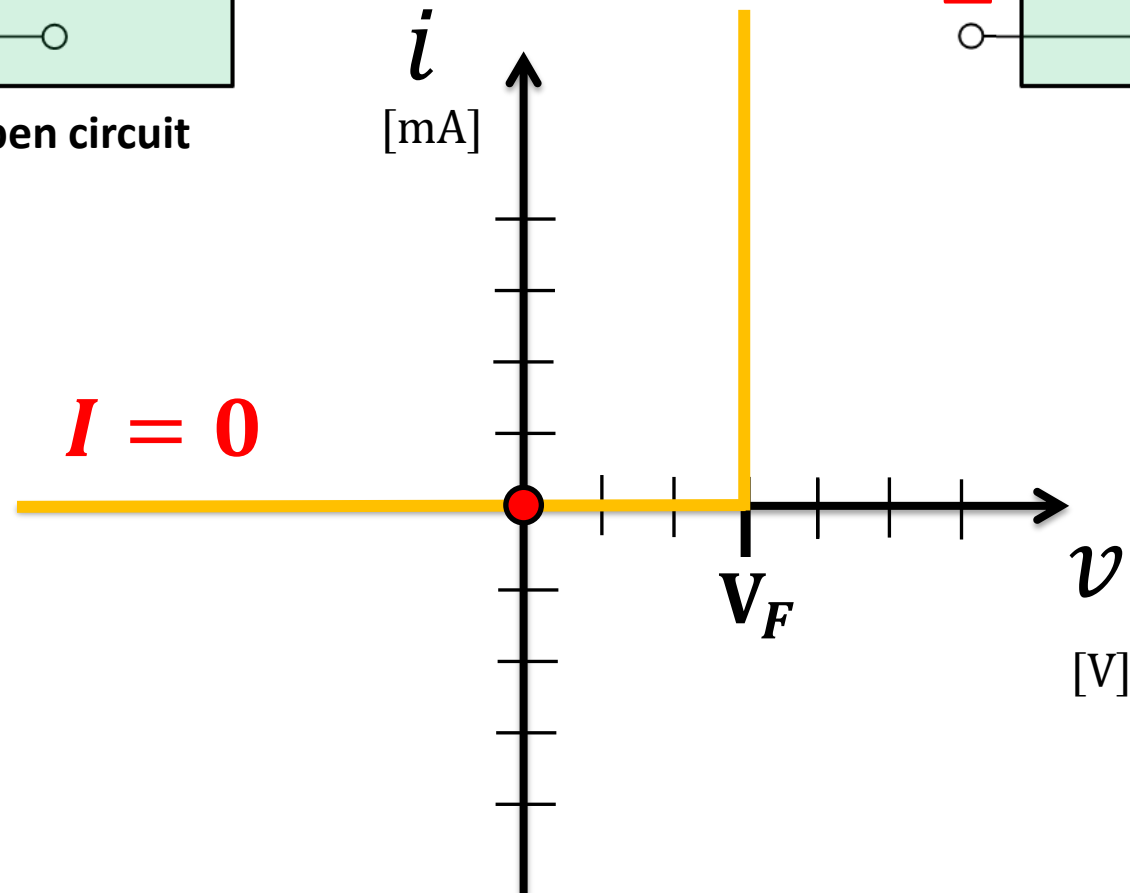
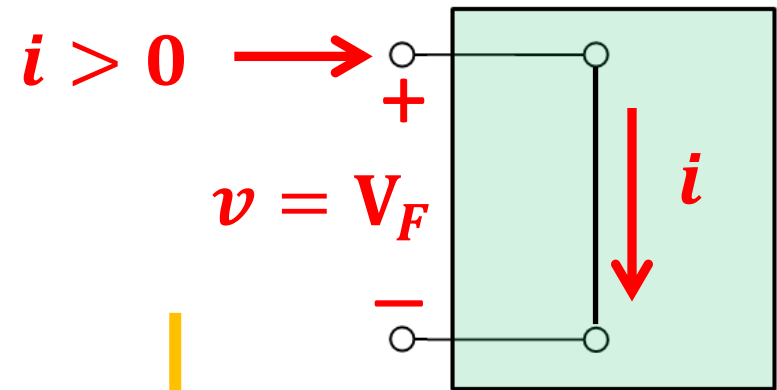
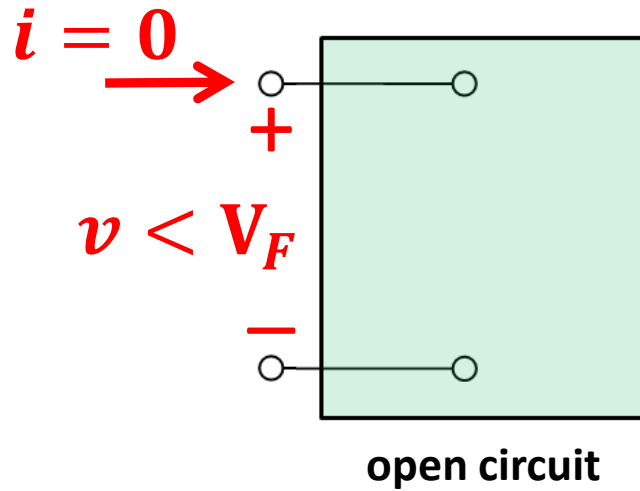


$$I = \frac{1}{R} V$$

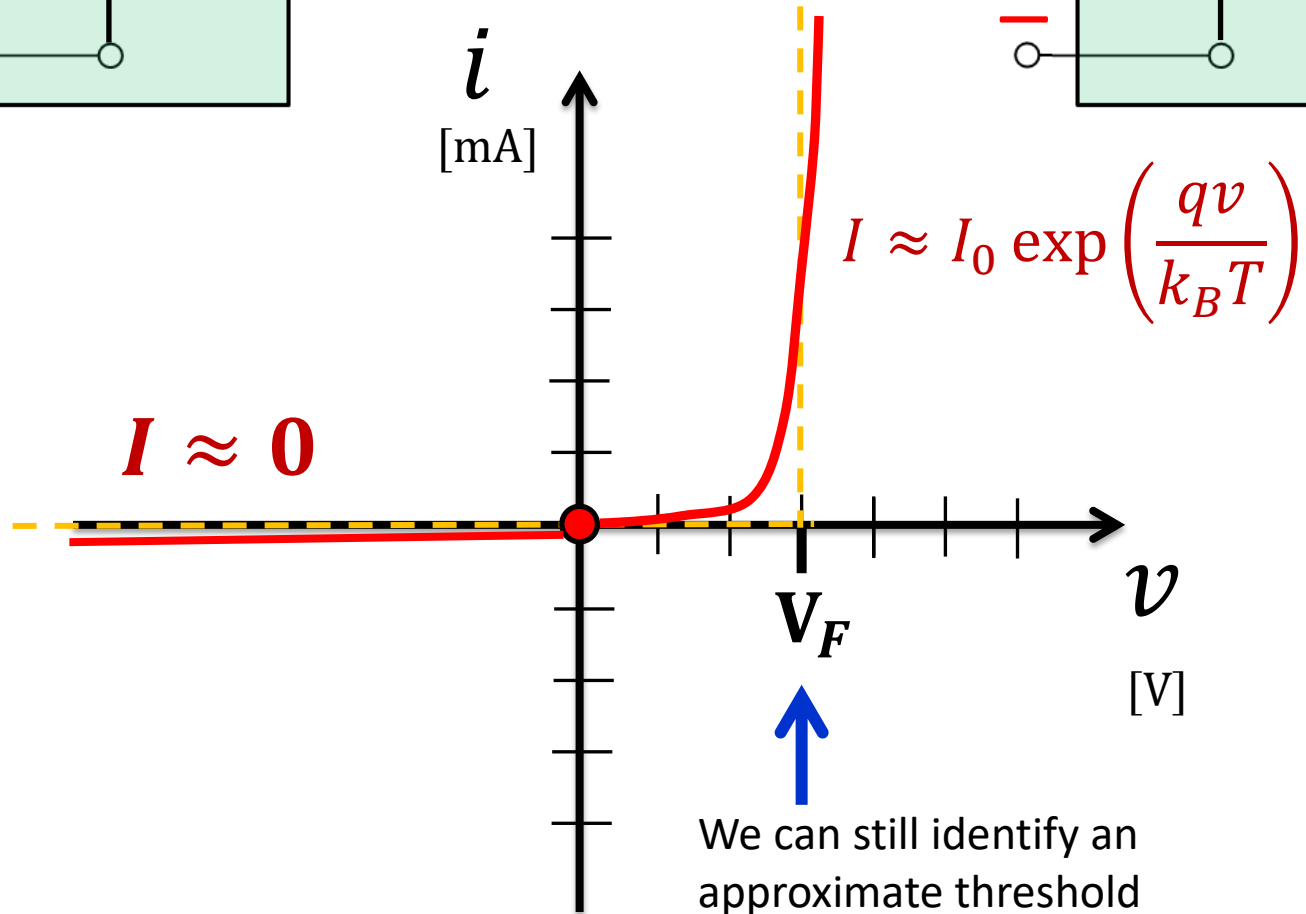
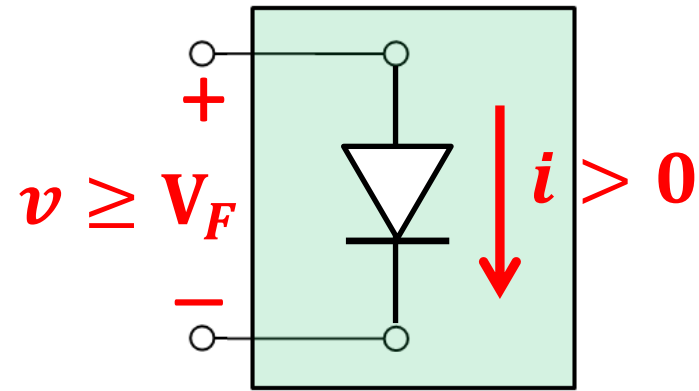
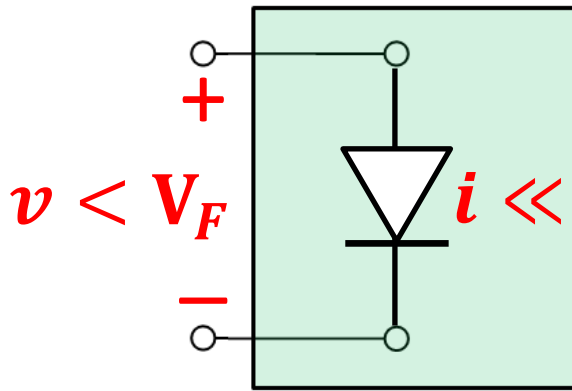
Ideal voltage-controlled valve



Voltage-controlled valve with threshold

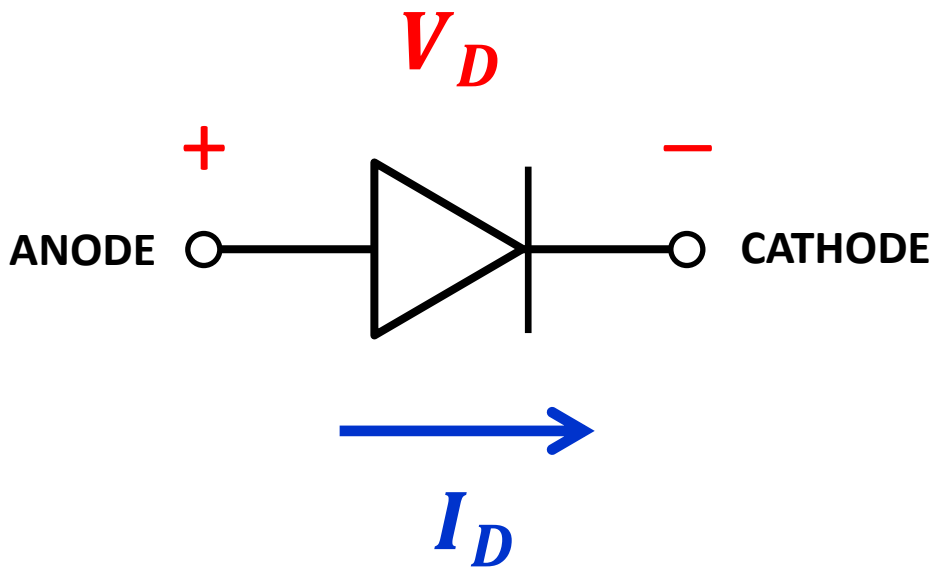


Realistic diode valve



Diode = a two-terminal semiconductor device which allows current to flow only in one direction

Circuit symbol of a Diode



Circuit model

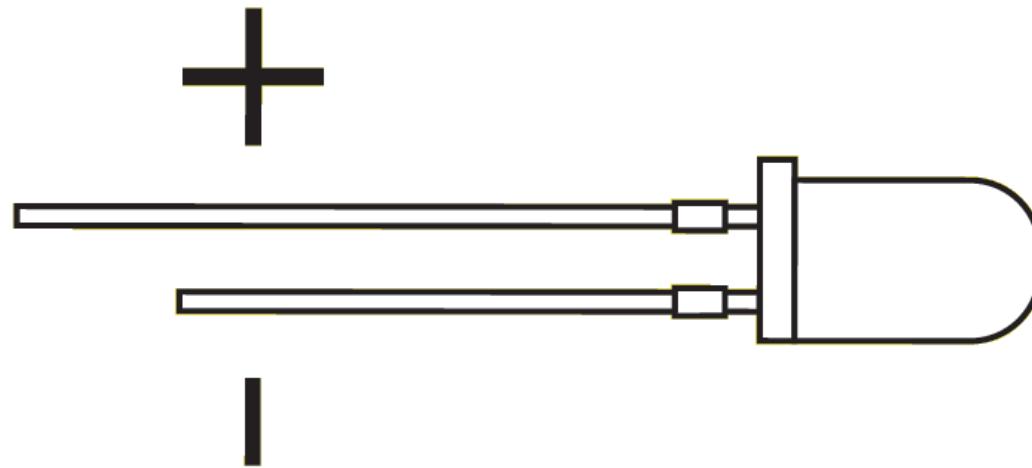
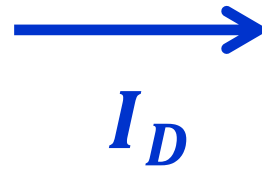
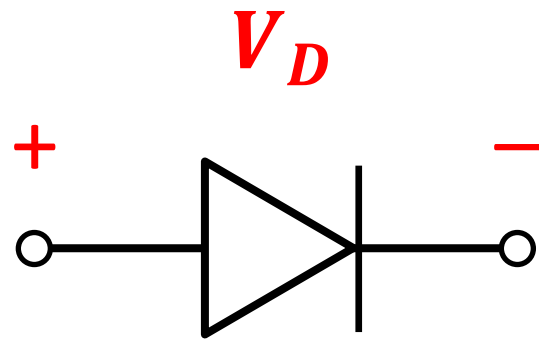
k_B = Boltzmann constant

T = temperature [K]

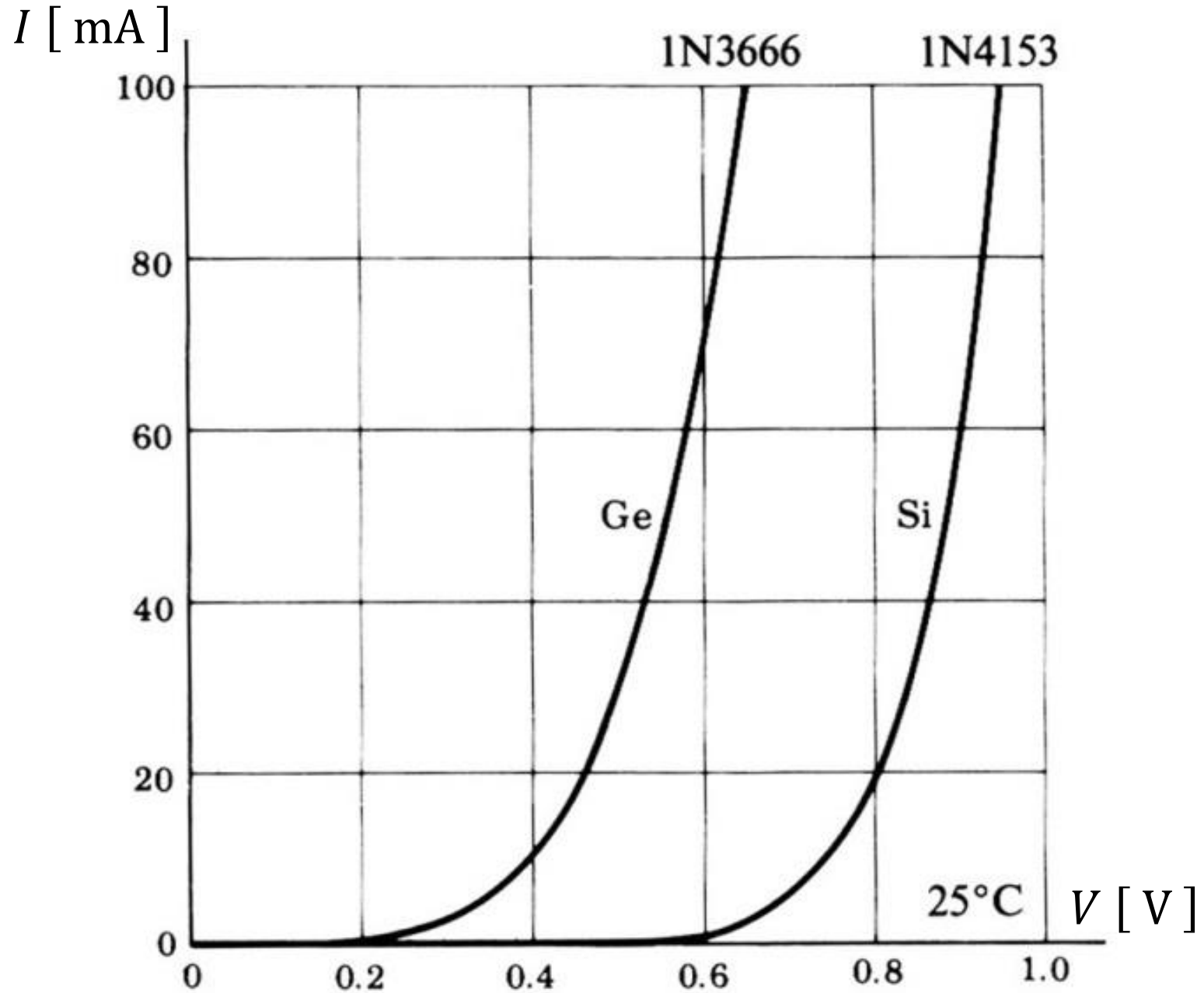
I_0 = reverse current

n = non-ideality factor
(experimental)

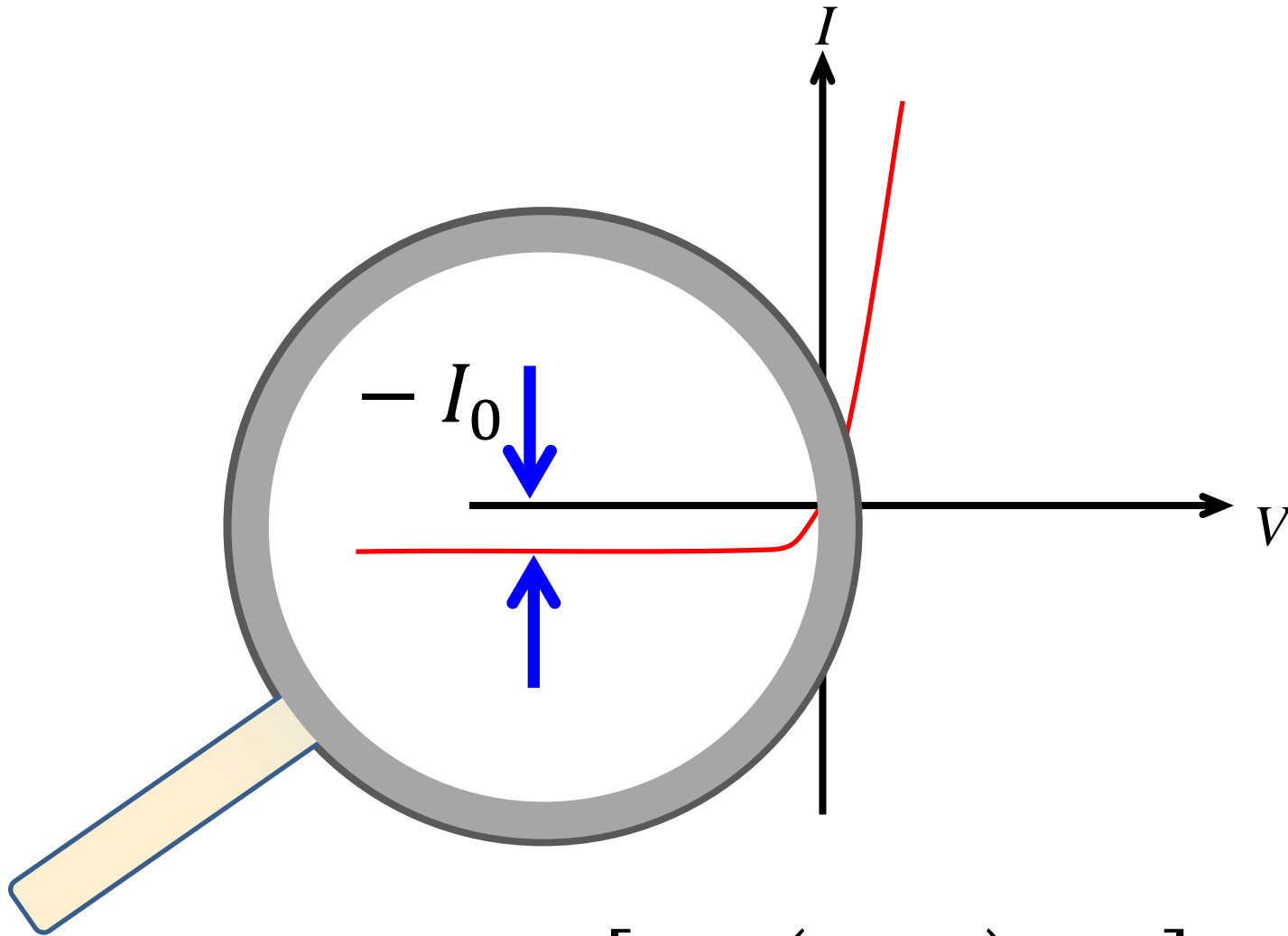
$$I = I_0 \left[\exp \left(\frac{qv}{nk_B T} \right) - 1 \right]$$



Different semiconductor materials have different thresholds



I_0 is the reverse saturation current and it is very small

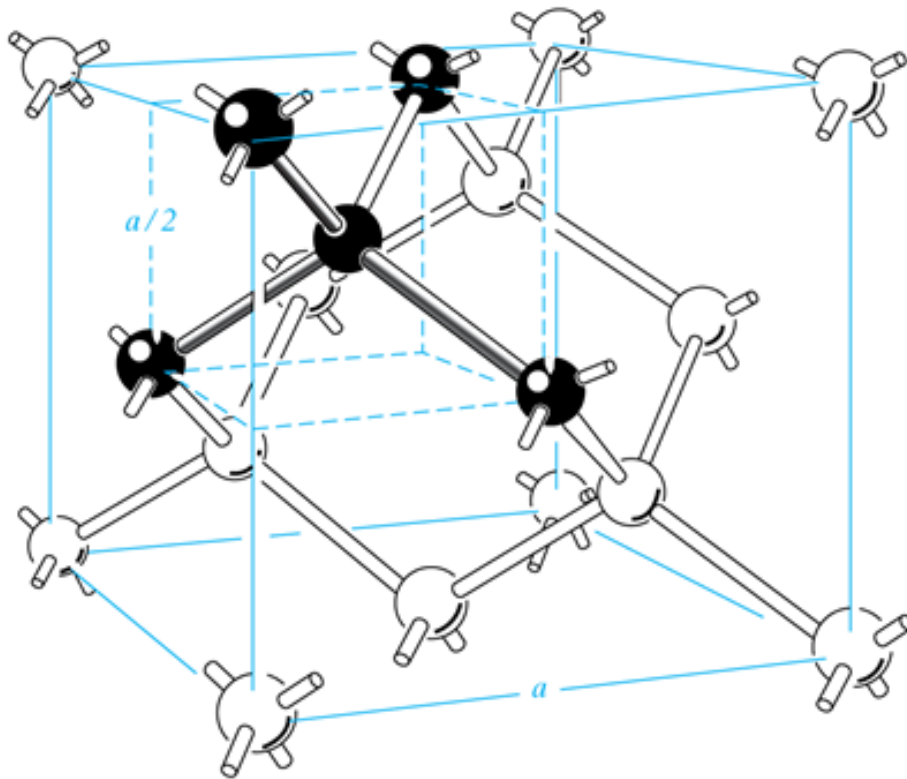


$$v \ll 0$$

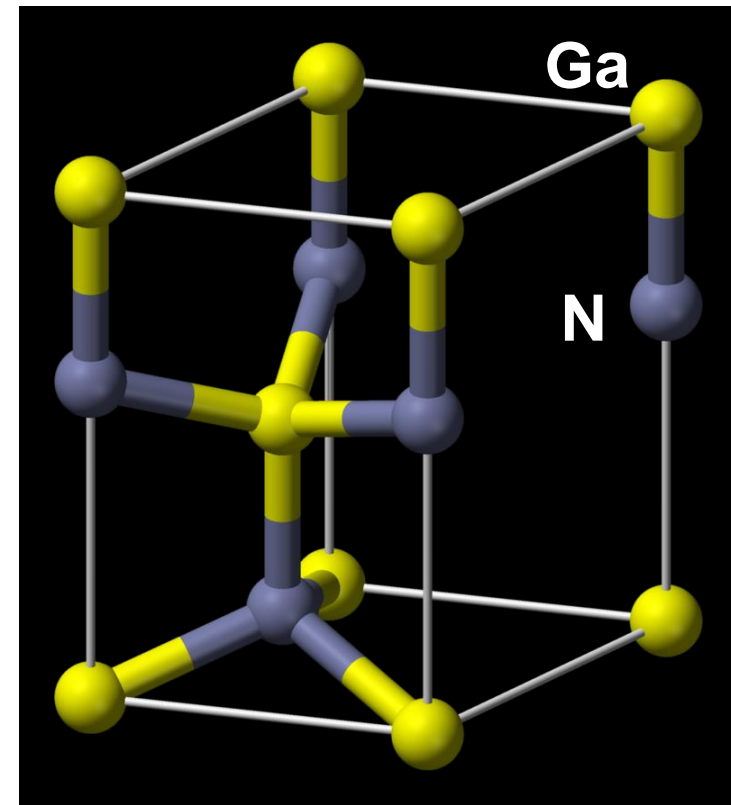
$$I = I_0 \left[\exp \left(\frac{qv}{nk_B T} \right) - 1 \right] \approx -I_0$$

Brief introduction to semiconductors

Semiconductors are materials with regular periodic crystalline structure, more commonly the so-called diamond structure for elements in column IV of the periodic table (e.g., Si, Ge) or pairs of elements in columns III and V (or II and VI) of the table, in the similar Zinc-blende structure (e.g., GaAs, InP). Another important crystal structure is Wurtzite (e.g., GaN)



Crystal model for diamond or Zinc-blende



Crystal model for Wurtzite

Periodic Table of Elements

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	III	IV	V	VI	17	18	
1	H Hydrogen 1.00794	Atomic # Symbol Name Atomic Mass																2	He Helium 4.002602
2	Li Lithium 6.941	Be Beryllium 9.012182	Metals										Nonmetals				10	Ne Neon 20.1797	
3	Na Sodium 22.98976928	Mg Magnesium 24.3050	C Solid	Alkali earth metals		Lanthanoids	Transition metals	Poor metals	Other nonmetals	Noble gases		B Boron 10.811	C Carbon 12.0107	N Nitrogen 14.0067	O Oxygen 15.9994	F Fluorine 18.9984032	Ar Argon 39.948		
4	K Potassium 39.0983	Ca Calcium 40.078	Sc Scandium 44.955912	Ti Titanium 47.867	V Vanadium 50.9415	Cr Chromium 51.9961	Mn Manganese 54.938045	Fe Iron 55.845	Co Cobalt 58.933195	Ni Nickel 58.6934	Cu Copper 63.546	Zn Zinc 65.38	Ga Gallium 69.723	Ge Germanium 72.64	As Arsenic 74.92160	Se Selenium 78.96	Br Bromine 79.904	Kr Krypton 83.798	
5	Rb Rubidium 85.4678	Sr Strontium 87.62	Y Yttrium 88.90585	Zr Zirconium 91.224	Nb Niobium 92.90638	Mo Molybdenum 95.96	Tc Technetium (97.9072)	Ru Ruthenium 101.07	Rh Rhodium 102.90550	Pd Palladium 106.42	Ag Silver 107.8682	Cd Cadmium 112.411	In Indium 114.818	Sn Tin 118.710	Sb Antimony 121.760	Te Tellurium 127.60	I Iodine 126.90447	Xe Xenon 131.293	
6	Cs Caesium 132.9054519	Ba Barium 137.327	57-71	Hf Hafnium 178.49	Ta Tantalum 180.94788	W Tungsten 183.84	Re Rhenium 186.207	Os Osmium 190.23	Ir Iridium 192.217	Pt Platinum 195.084	Au Gold 196.966569	Hg Mercury 200.59	Tl Thallium 204.3833	Pb Lead 207.2	Bi Bismuth 208.98040	Po Polonium (208.9824)	At Astatine (209.9871)	Rn Radon (222.0176)	
7	Fr Francium (223)	Ra Radium (226)	89-103	Rf Rutherfordium (261)	Db Dubnium (262)	Sg Seaborgium (268)	Bh Bohrium (264)	Hs Hassium (277)	Mt Meitnerium (268)	Ds Darmstadtium (271)	Rg Roentgenium (272)	Uub Ununbium (285)	Uut Ununtrium (284)	Uuq Ununquadium (289)	Uup Ununpentium (288)	Uuh Ununhexium (292)	Uus Ununseptium (294)	Uuo Ununoctium (294)	

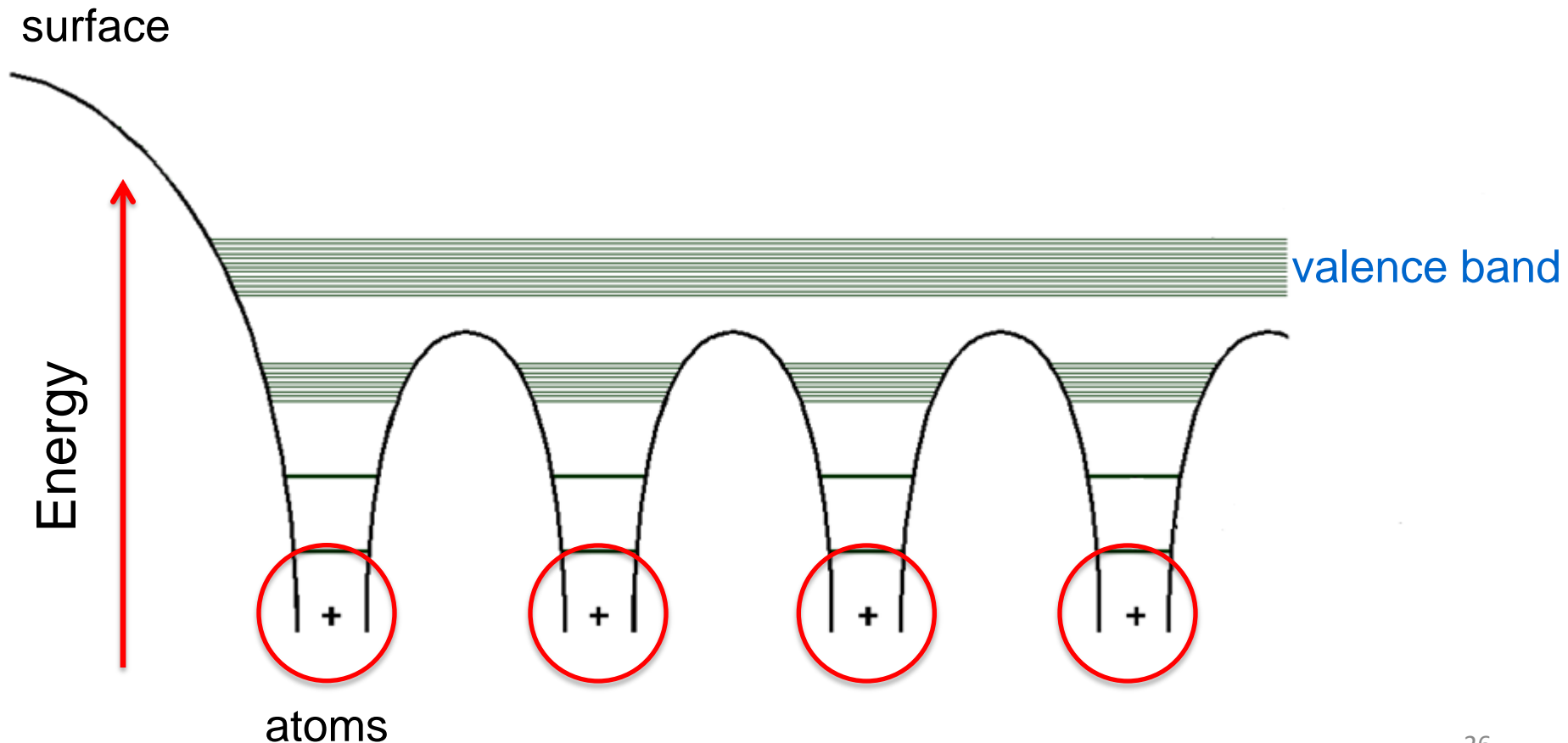
For elements with no stable isotopes, the mass number of the isotope with the longest half-life is in parentheses.

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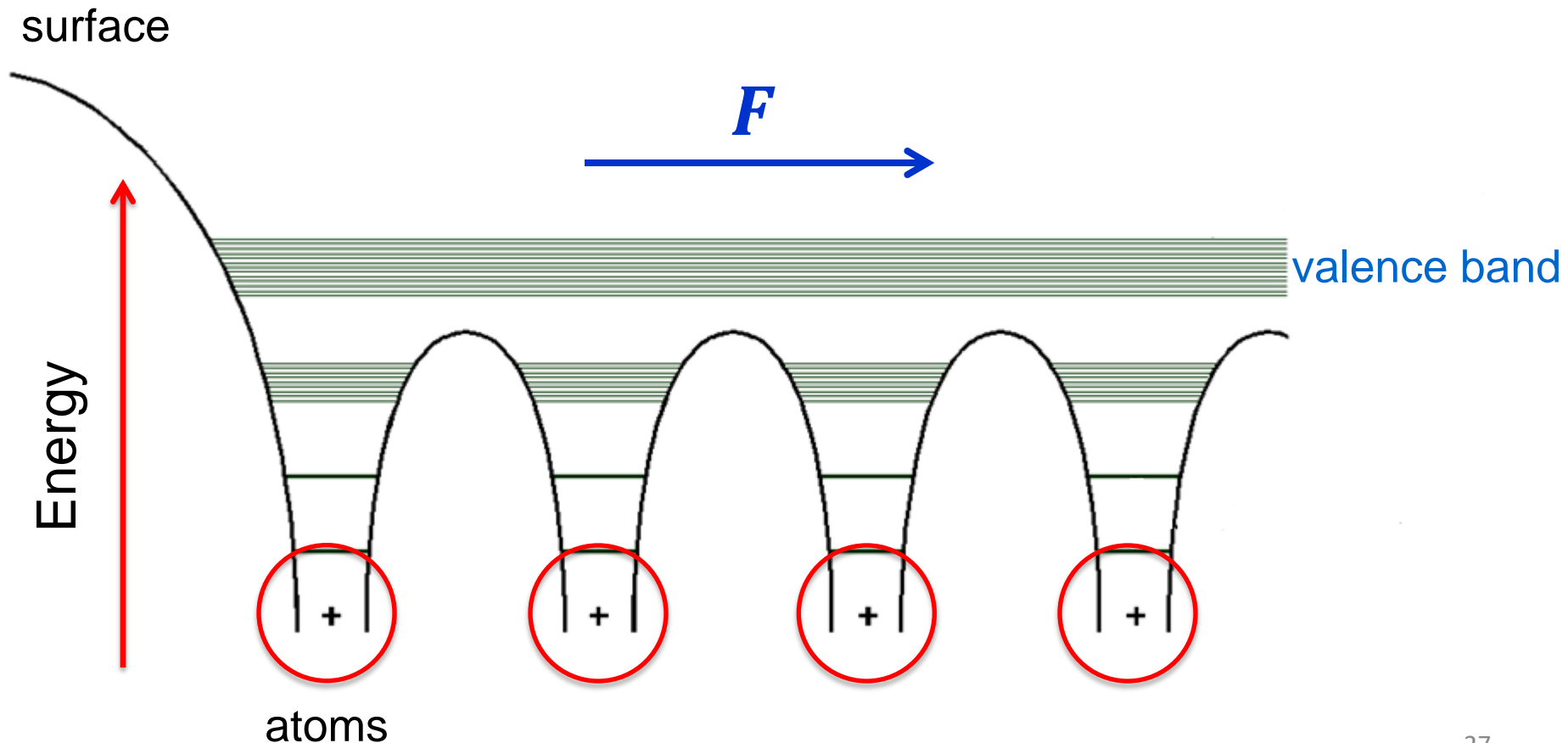


57 La Lanthanum 138.90547	58 Ce Cerium 140.116	59 Pr Praseodymium 140.90765	60 Nd Neodymium 144.242	61 Pm Promethium (145)	62 Sm Samarium 150.36	63 Eu Europium 151.964	64 Gd Gadolinium 157.25	65 Tb Terbium 158.92535	66 Dy Dysprosium 162.500	67 Ho Holmium 164.93032	68 Er Erbium 167.259	69 Tm Thulium 168.93421	70 Yb Ytterbium 173.054	71 Lu Lutetium 174.9668
89 Ac Actinium (227)	90 Th Thorium 232.03806	91 Pa Protactinium 231.03588	92 U Uranium 238.02891	93 Np Neptunium (237)	94 Pu Plutonium (244)	95 Am Americium (243)	96 Cm Curium (247)	97 Bk Berkelium (247)	98 Cf Californium (251)	99 Es Einsteinium (252)	100 Fm Fermium (257)	101 Md Mendelevium (258)	102 No Nobelium (259)	103 Lr Lawrencium (260)

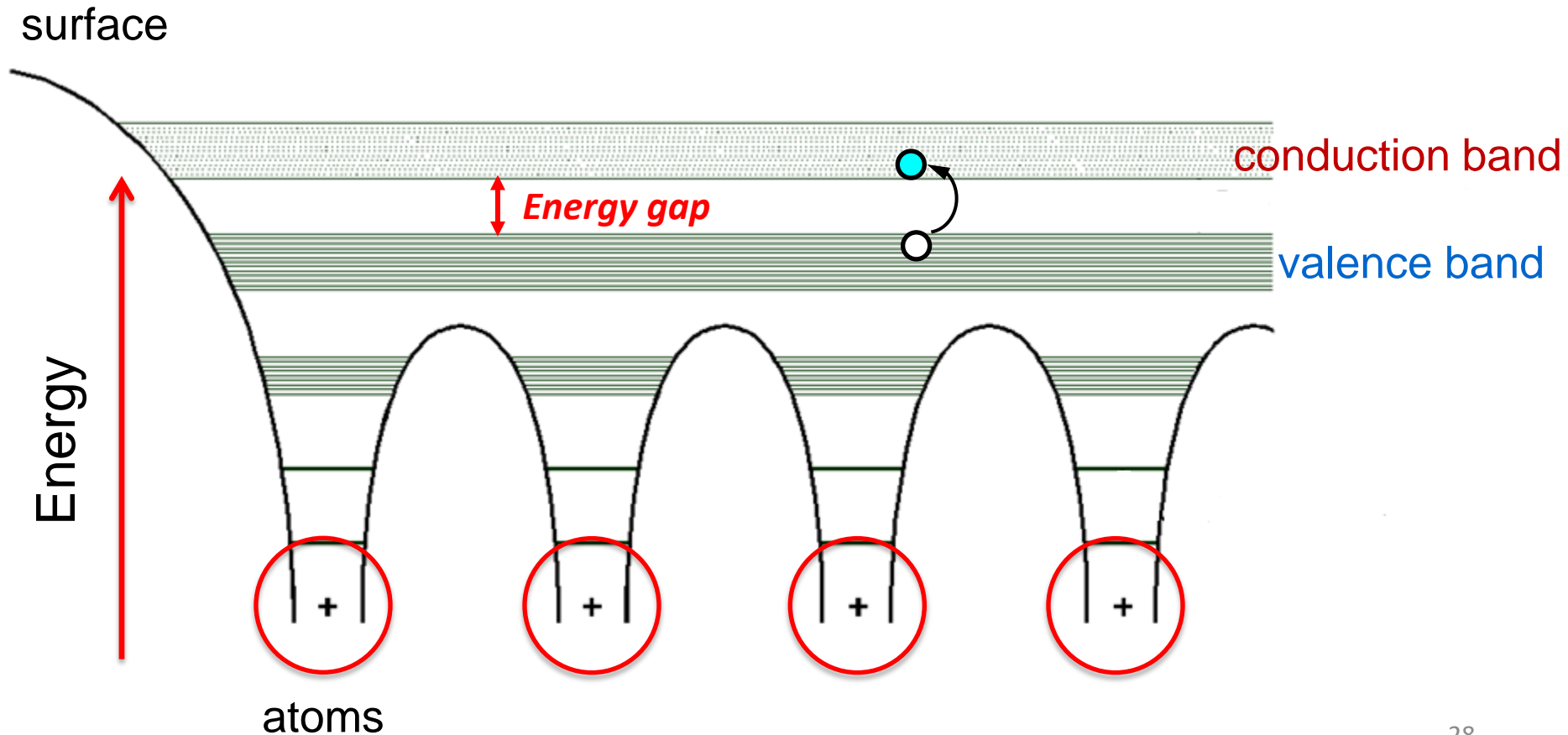
In these crystals, bonding is very strong and it is due to electron orbitals in the higher atomic states, which are shared by neighboring atoms. These states form an “energy band” called the *valence band*, which extends to the whole crystal structure.



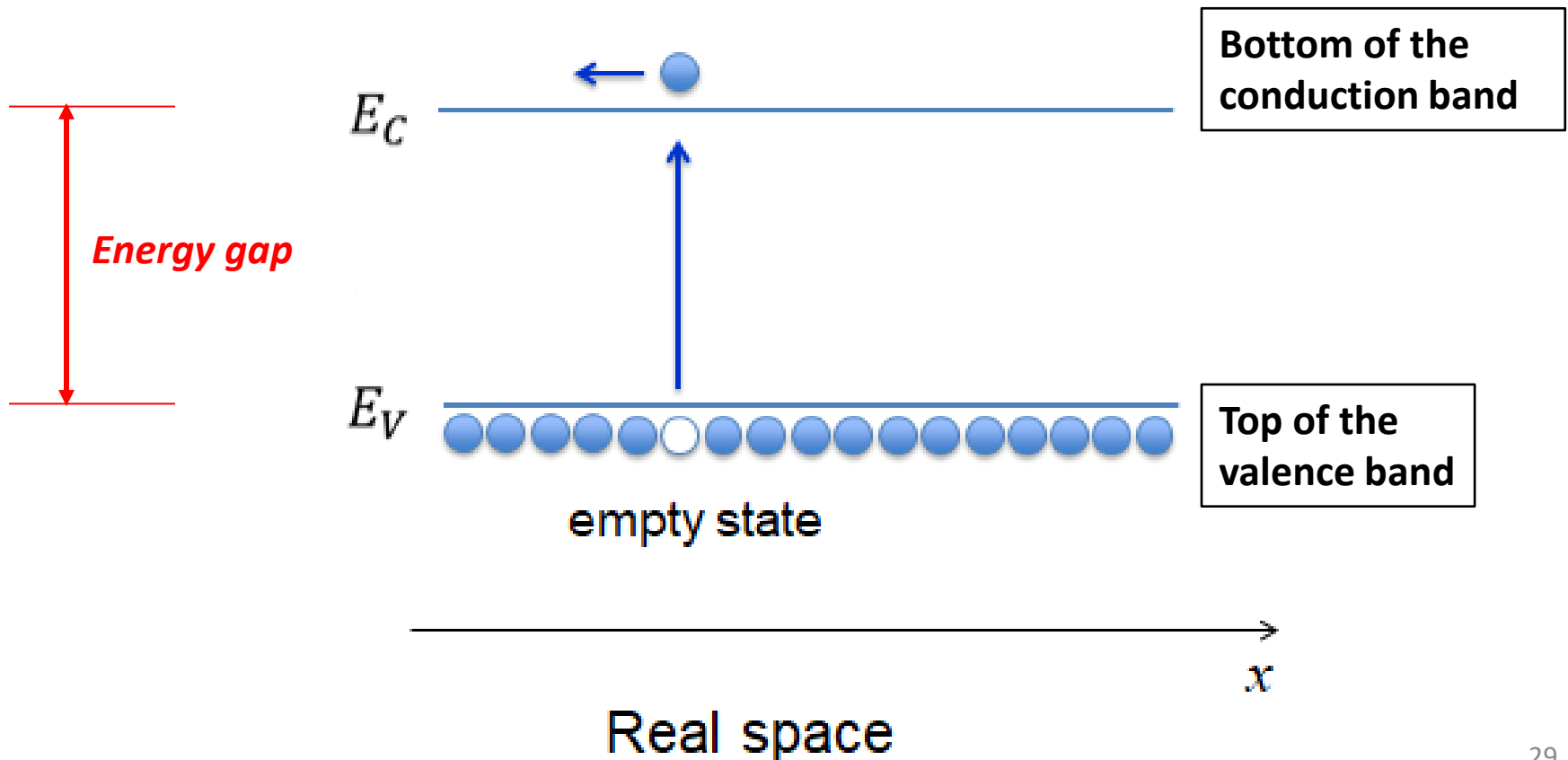
Electrons may exchange places freely in the valence band, but if all energy/momentum states are occupied, no net current can flow if an electric field is applied: **for any electron with an allowed momentum (velocity) state, in a full band there is always another electron with opposite momentum.**



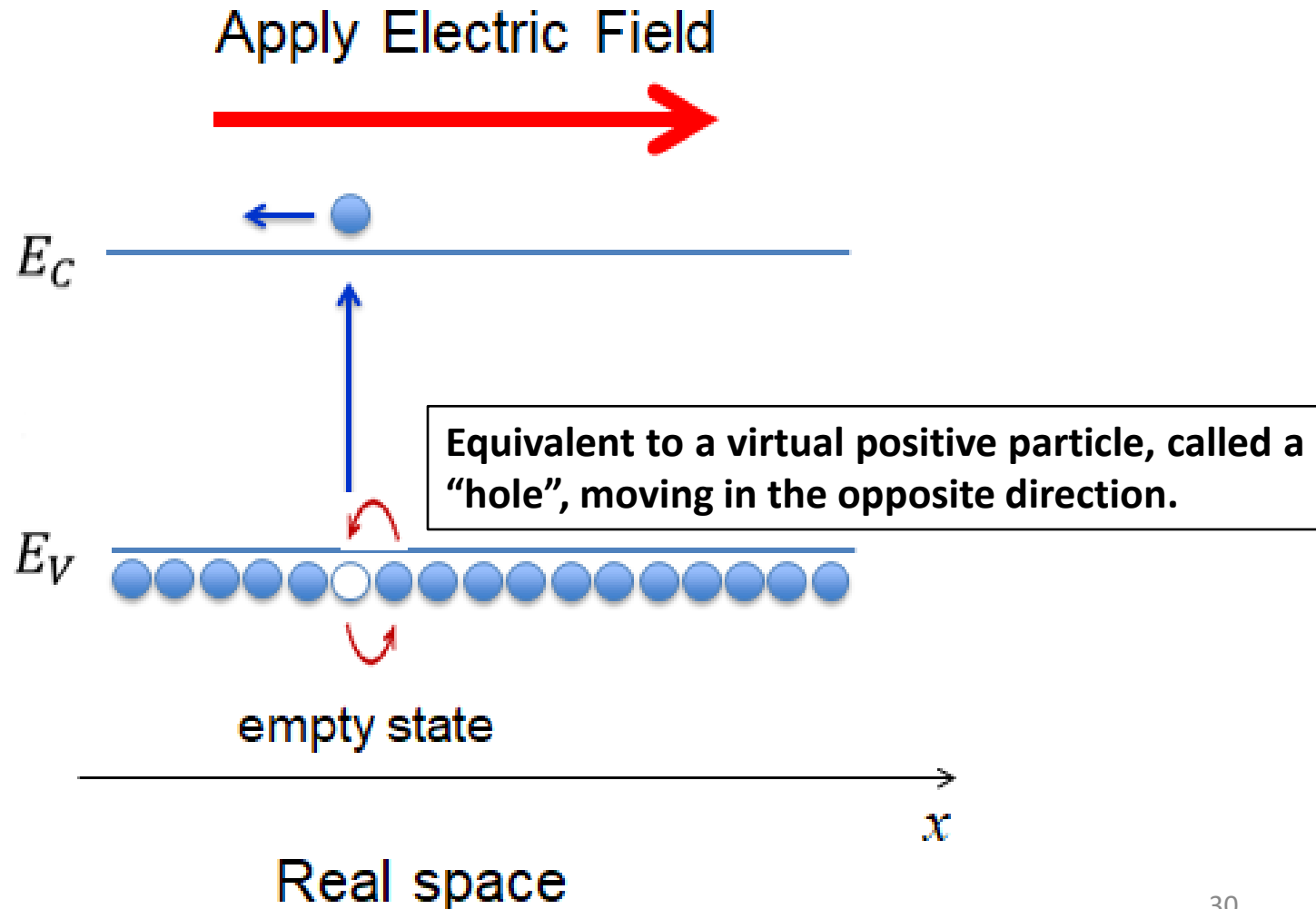
The atomic excited states also form an extended energy band, called the **conduction band**. Electrons may “jump” to the conduction band from the valence band, if they collect sufficient thermal energy to overcome the energy gap.



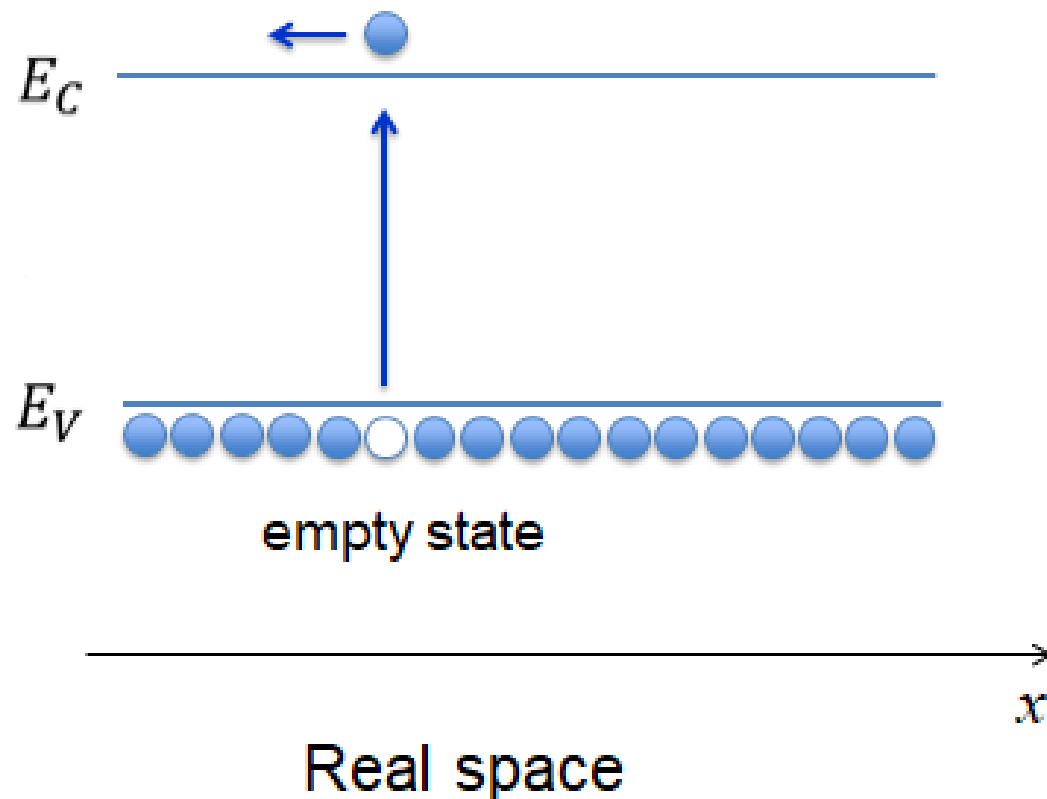
An electron jumping to the conduction band leaves behind an empty energy/momentum state in the valence band



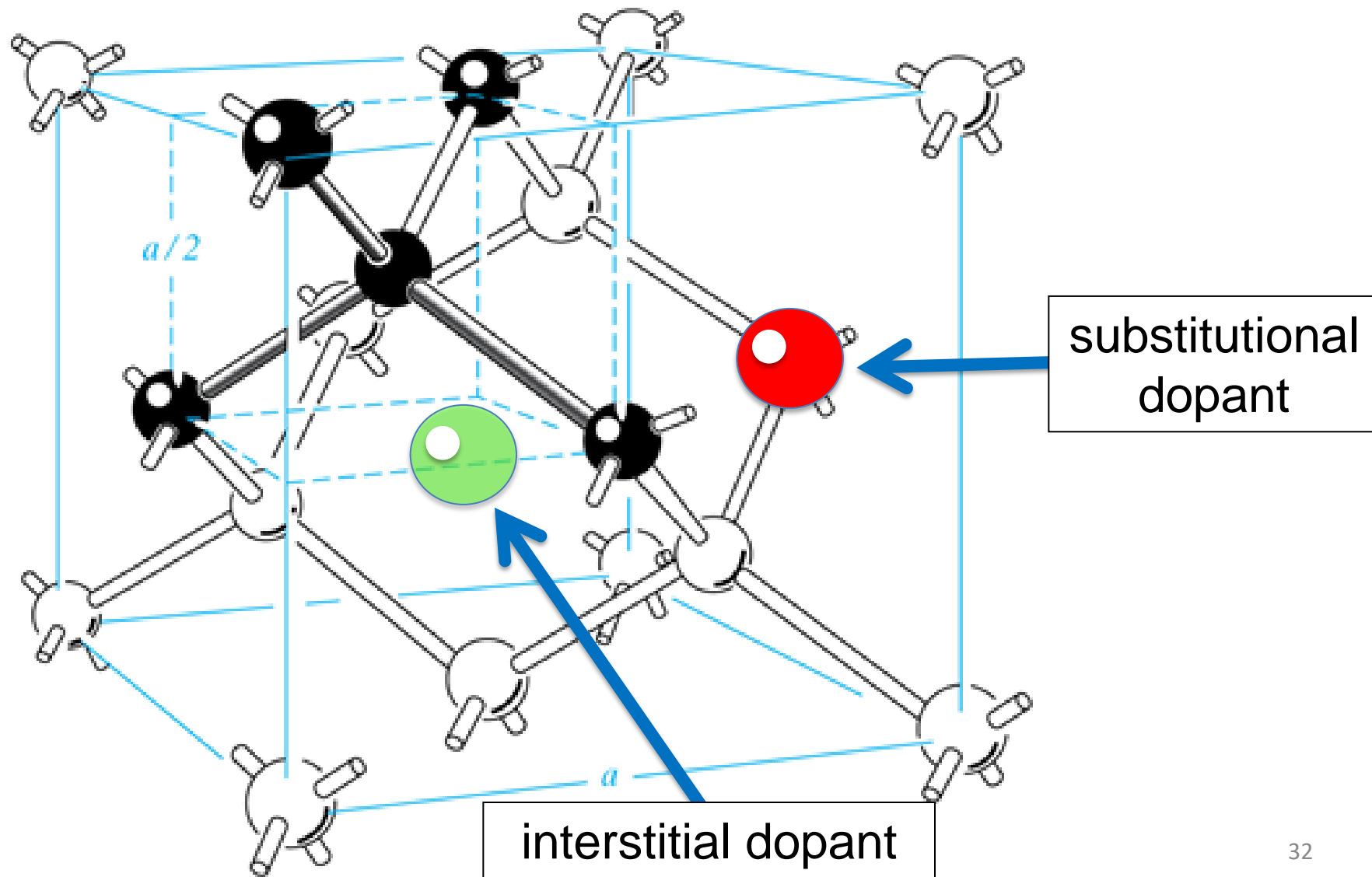
Electrons in the conduction band can move if an electric field is applied. An electron in the valence band may occupy the empty space leaving an empty space behind. Both mechanisms contribute to current.



A **pure** semiconductor is called ***intrinsic***. There are always as many electrons in the conduction band as holes in the valence band. Concentrations of mobile carriers are low and possible currents are quite small.

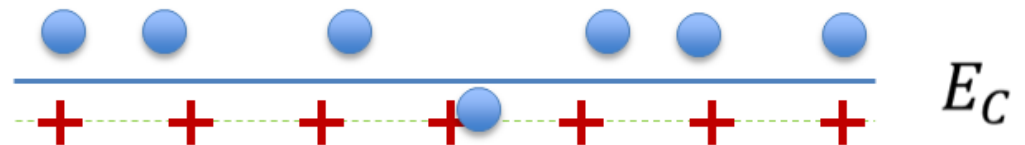


We can modify artificially the concentrations and the relative quantities of electrons and holes by introducing special atomic impurities, called dopants (**extrinsic** semiconductor)



A donor atomic impurity has an extra electron and it introduces an energy level just below the bottom of the conduction band. A small thermal energy is needed for the extra electron to jump into the conduction band, leaving behind a positive fixed charge.

A semiconductor with predominantly donor impurities is called *n-type* with a large number of free electrons and very few holes.



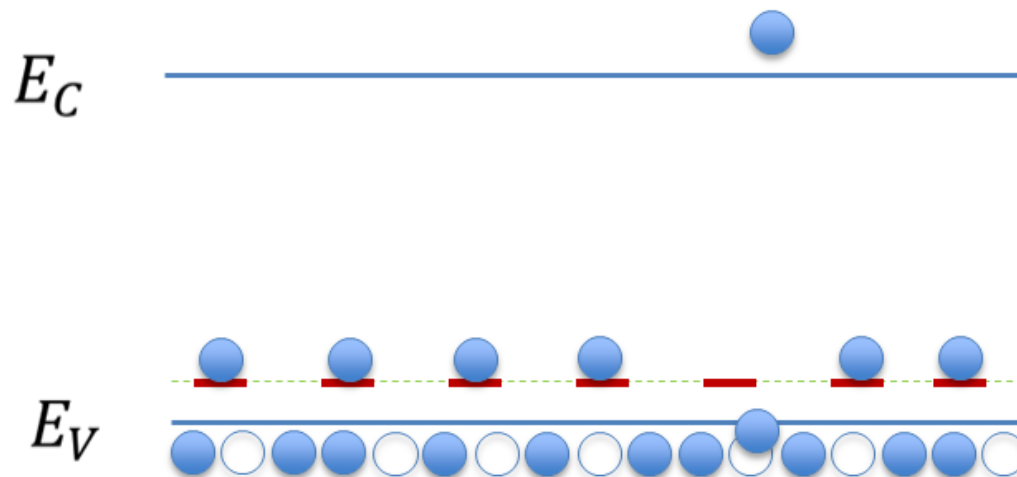
In silicon, a phosphorous (P) atom acts as donor



n-type

An acceptor atomic impurity has one less electron and it introduces an energy level just above the top of the valence band. A small thermal energy is needed for a valence band electron to jump into the acceptor site (which becomes negatively charged) leaving behind a mobile positive hole.

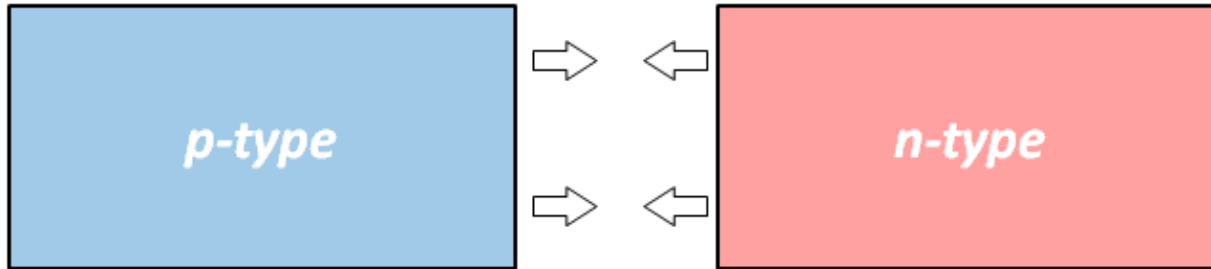
A semiconductor with predominantly acceptor impurities is called *p-type* with a large number free holes and very few conduction band electrons.



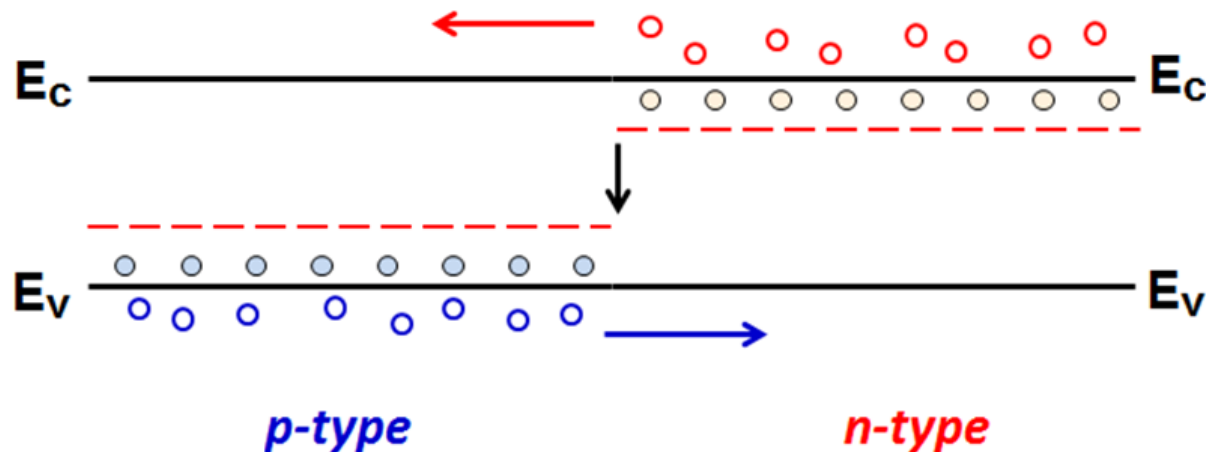
In silicon, a Boron (B) atom acts as acceptor

p-type

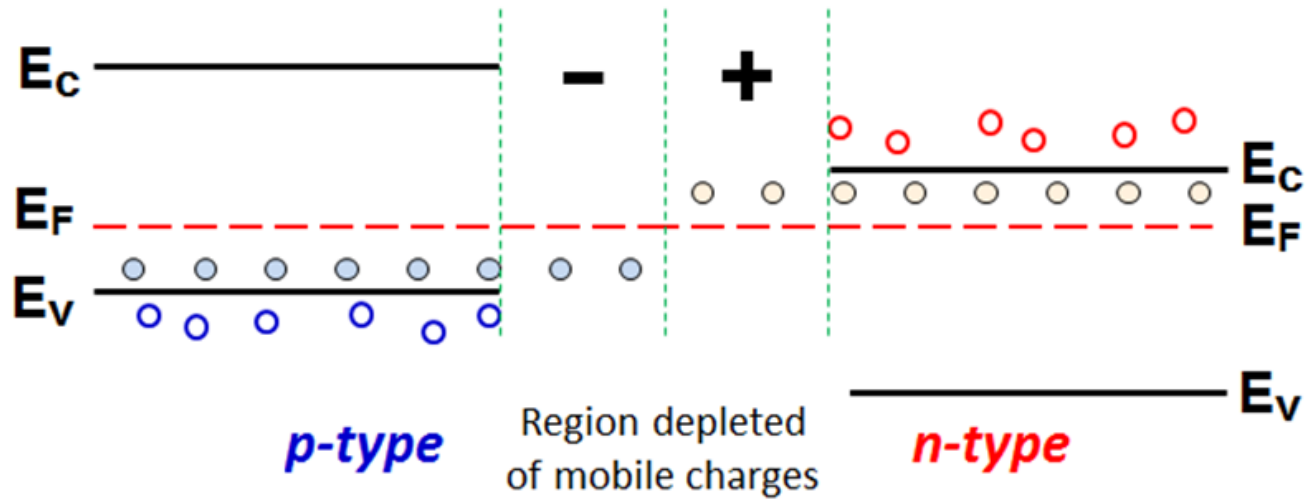
A *p-n* junction is obtained when two regions of semiconductor with different type of dopants are in contact



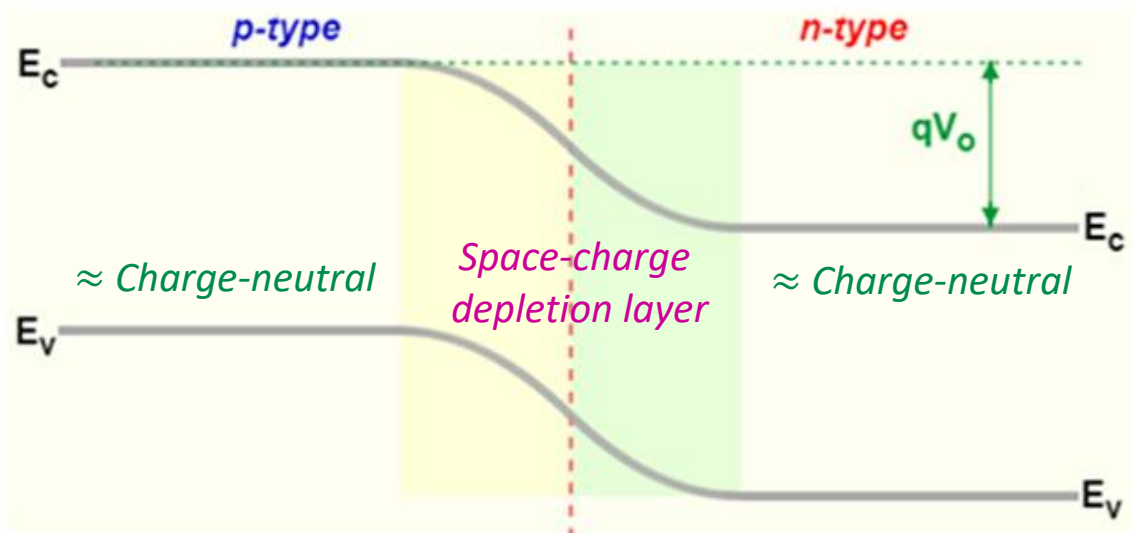
The two sides have different electrochemical potential due to the different doping and equilibrium is reached when a certain region about the junction is depleted of holes on the p-side and of electrons on the n-side.



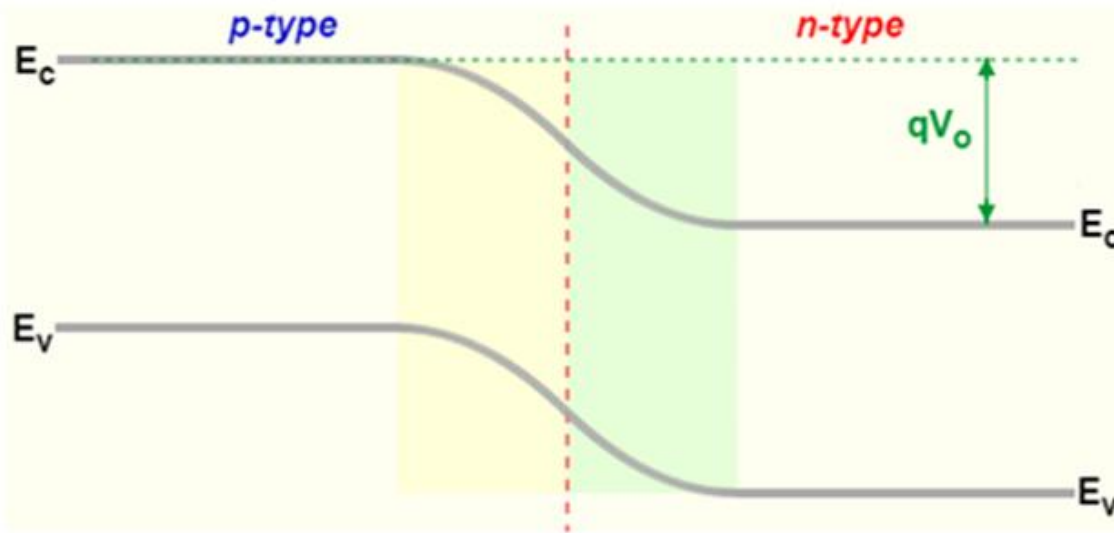
The fixed charge dipole creates a potential barrier preventing further movement of electrons and holes across the junction



Equilibrium potential barrier – No current flows

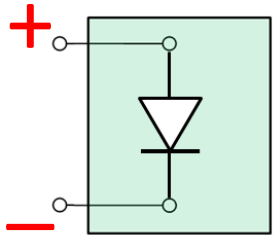


Equilibrium potential barrier – No current flows

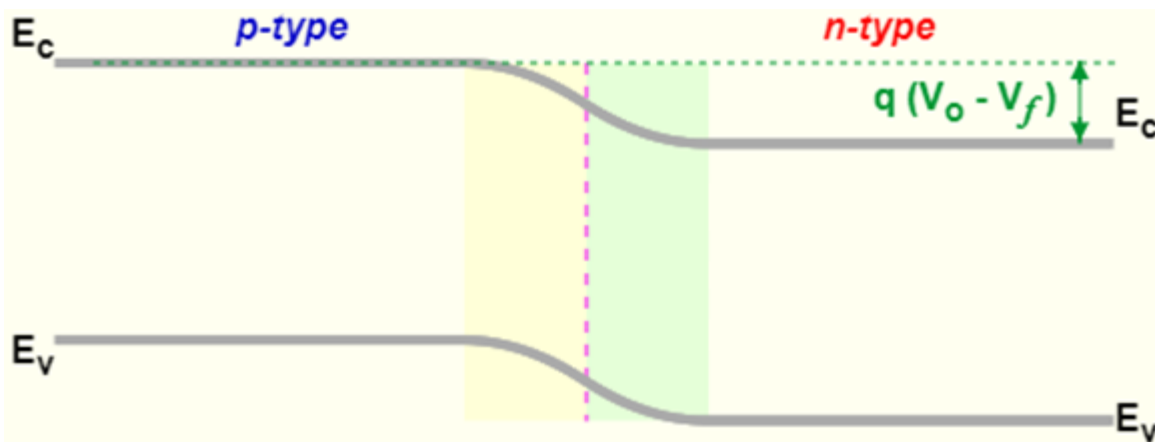


No potential applied

Barrier is lowered – electrons and hole can diffuse across junction

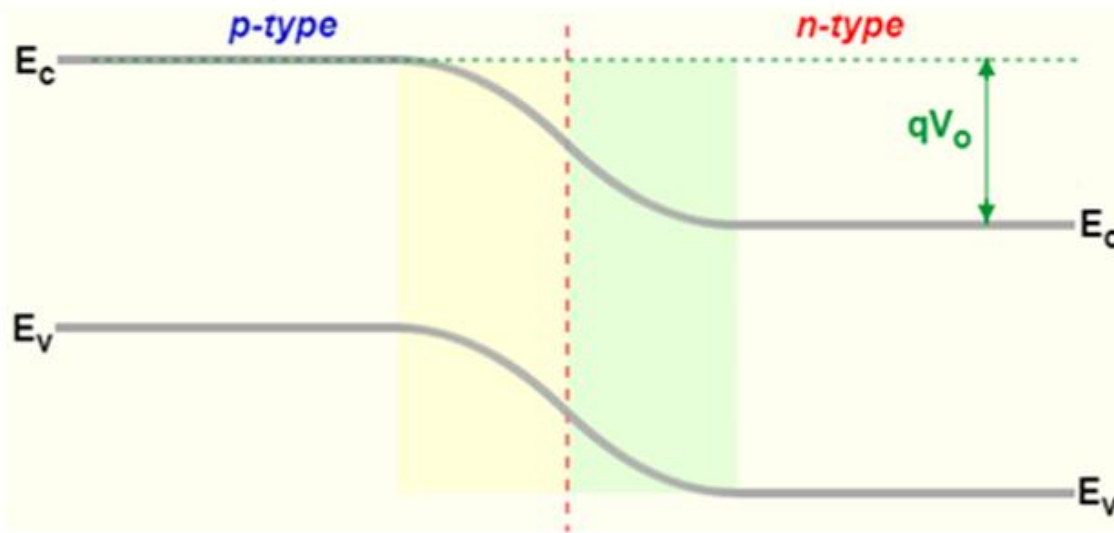


Forward potential applied

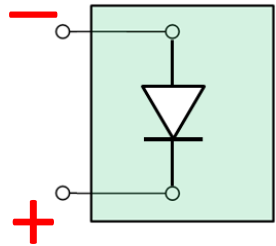


The depletion layer shrinks

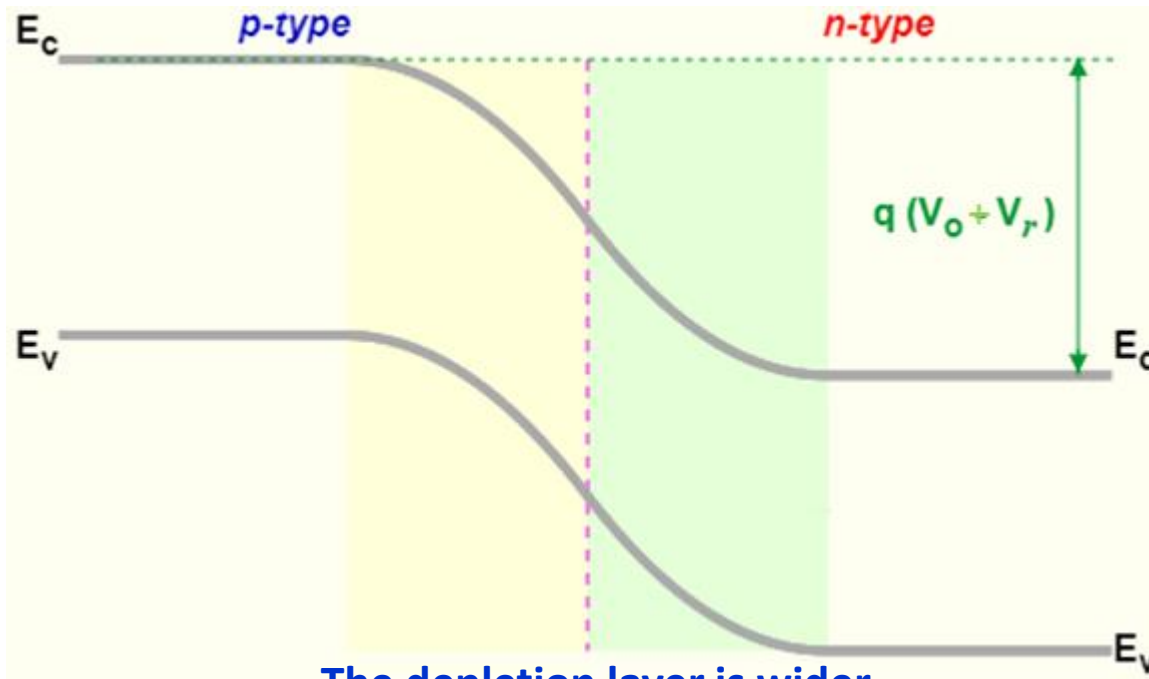
Equilibrium potential barrier – No current flow



Barrier is higher – Electrons and holes cannot diffuse across junction



Reverse potential applied



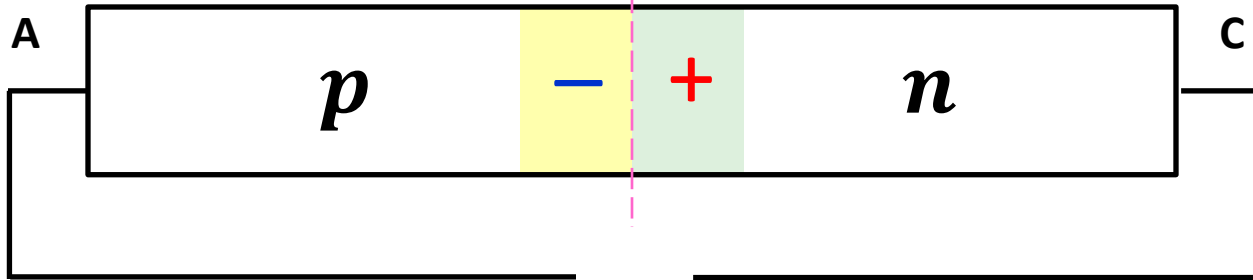
Equilibrium

\approx Charge-neutral

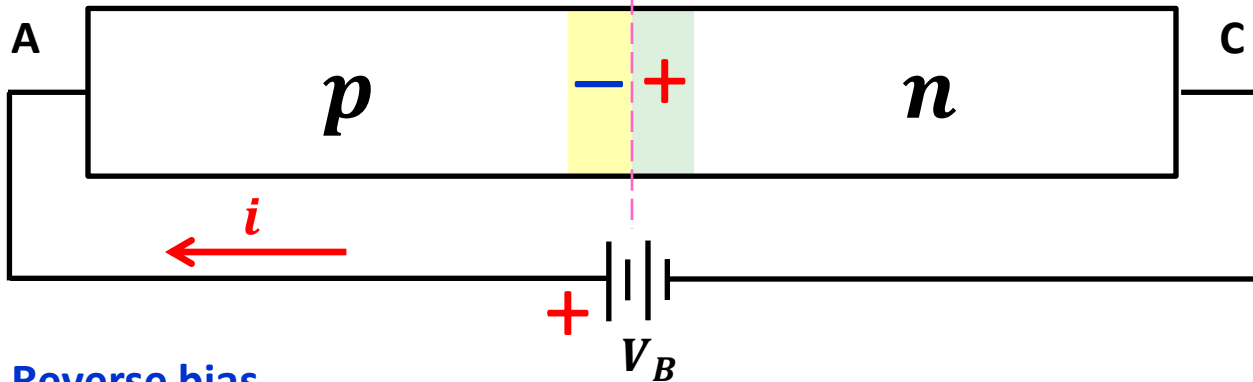
Space-charge depletion layer

\approx Charge-neutral

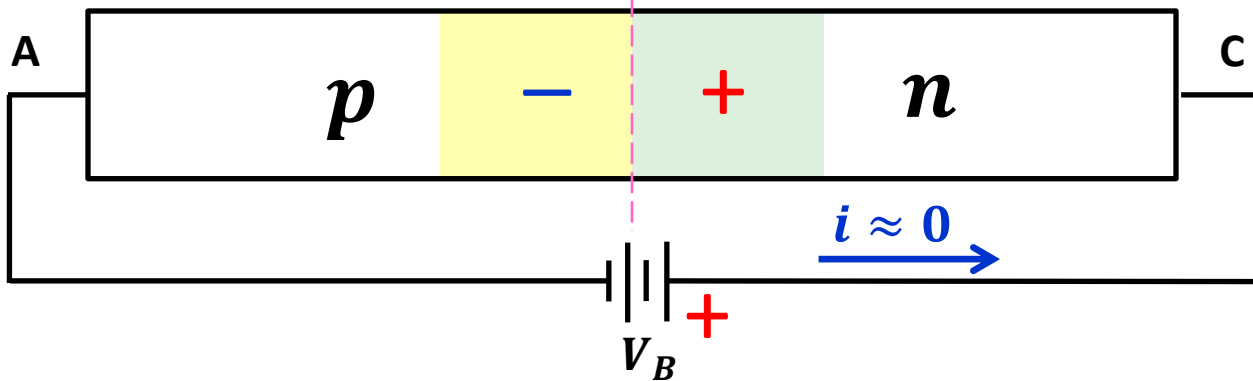
No potential applied



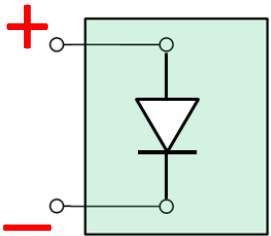
Forward bias



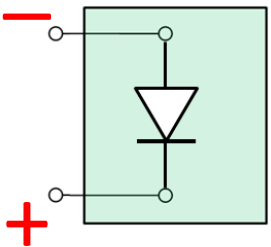
Reverse bias



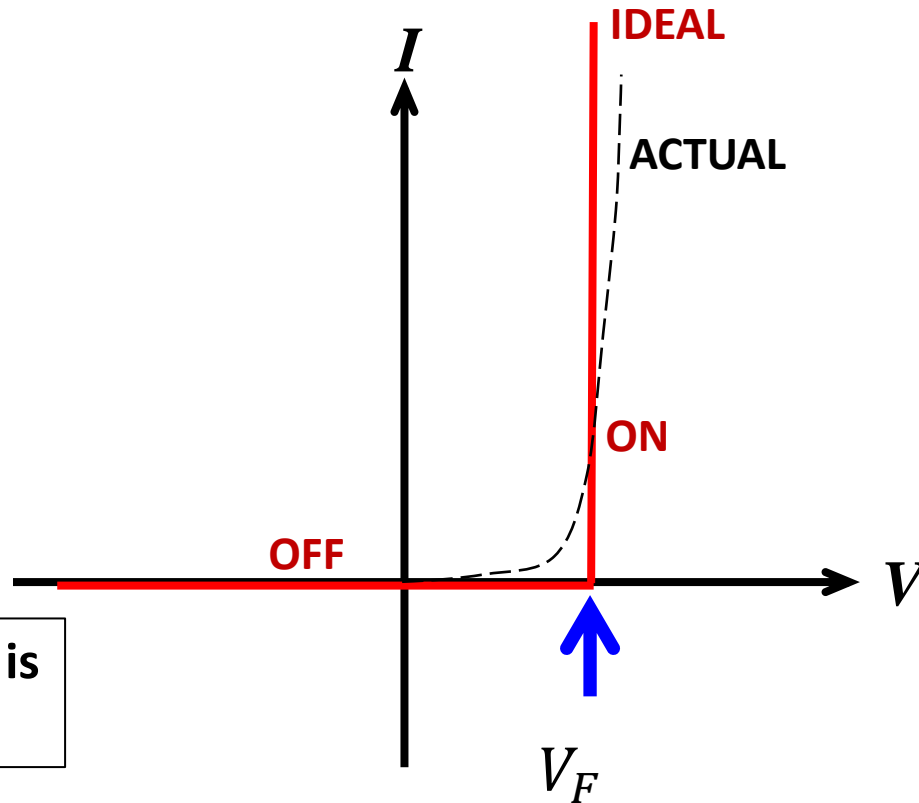
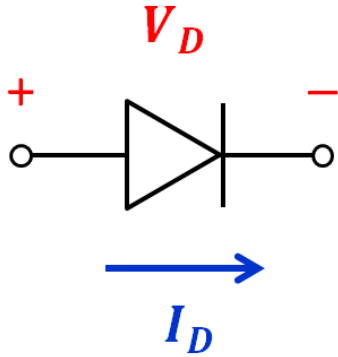
$$V_A > V_C$$



$$V_A < V_C$$



Ideal diode model for circuit analysis



Typical value for Si diodes is
 $V_F = 0.7 \text{ V}$

$$V_D < V_F$$

Diode is OFF

$$V_D = V_F$$

Diode is ON

Diode circuit analysis

Diodes are non-linear devices, and we cannot state *a priori* whether a diode is ON or OFF. Therefore, we can start a problem by making an assumption.

Diode circuit analysis

Diodes are non-linear devices, and we cannot state *a priori* whether a diode is ON or OFF. Therefore, we can start a problem by making an assumption.

If we assume that a diode is conducting (ON), the voltage from anode to cathode is “pinned” to the threshold voltage V_F and we solve the circuit with KVL and KCL linear equations, by imposing that voltage. If the result is *physical*, we accept it.

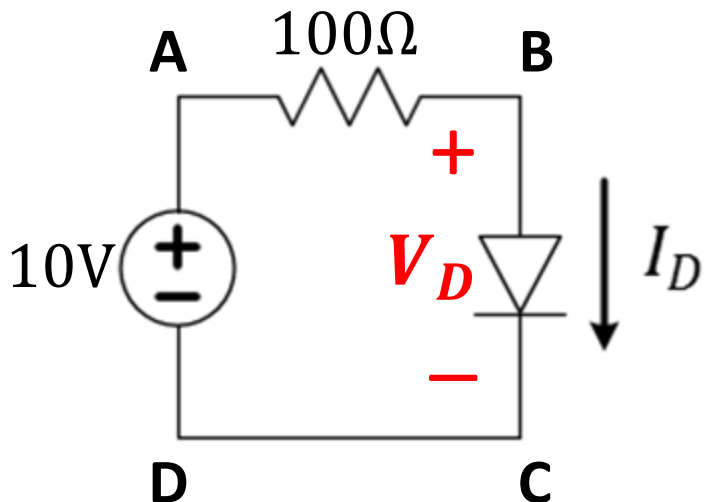
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If instead the assumption has generated *unphysical* results, there is a contradiction and we solve the problem again, imposing that the diode is equivalent to an open circuit (OFF).

Example 1A – Solve for I_D



Assume $V_F = 0.7 \text{ V}$

Assume that the diode is conducting (there must be 0.7V across the diode)

KVL $V_{AB} + V_{BC} + V_{CD} + V_{DA} = 0$

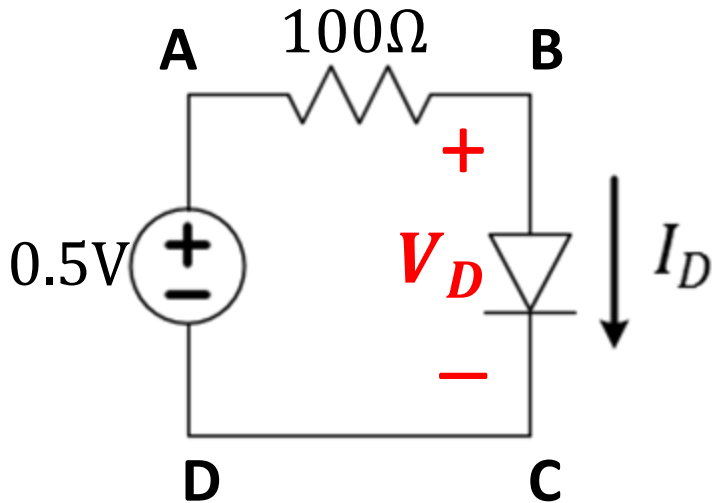
$$100I_D + 0.7 - 10 = 0$$

$$I_D = 9.3\text{V}/100\ \Omega = 93\text{mA}$$

CHECK: $I_D > 0$ and it flows from Anode to Cathode

Results follow expected physics and there is no contradiction. OK

Example 1B – Solve for I_D



Assume $V_F = 0.7 \text{ V}$

Assume that the diode is conducting (there must be 0.7V across the diode)

KVL $V_{AB} + V_{BC} + V_{CD} + V_{DA} = 0$

$$100I_D + 0.7 - 0.5 = 0$$

$$I_D = (0.5\text{V} - 0.7\text{V})/100 \Omega = -2\text{mA}$$

CHECK: $I_D < 0$ and it flows from Cathode to Anode

Physics is incorrect. Also, DIODE cannot provide power. There is contradiction.

Conclusion: Diode is OFF and $I_D = 0\text{V}$