Diodes

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Diodes: A Semiconductor?

Conductors

 Such as copper, aluminium have a cloud of free electrons – weak bound valence electrons in the outermost orbit of their atoms. If an electric field is applied, current will flow.

Insulators

 Such as plastics, valence electrons are tightly bound to the nuclei of the atoms and few are able to break free to conduct a current. If an electric field is applied, current will not flow as there are no mobile charge carriers.

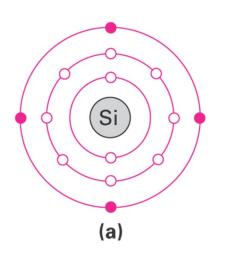
Diodes: A Semiconductor?

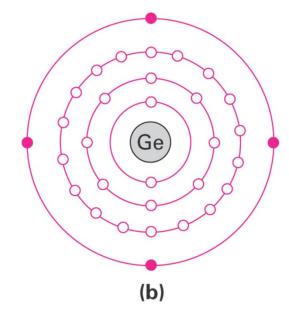
- Semiconductor (Semi-conductor!)
 - Such as silicon at low temperatures semiconductors have the properties of an insulator, but at higher temperatures some electrons are free to move and so it takes on the properties of a conductor. It isn't a very good conductor unless we dope the silicon (we will see this later)

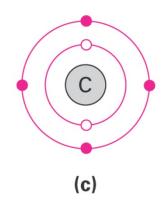


Diodes: Semiconductor atoms with their four valence shell electrons

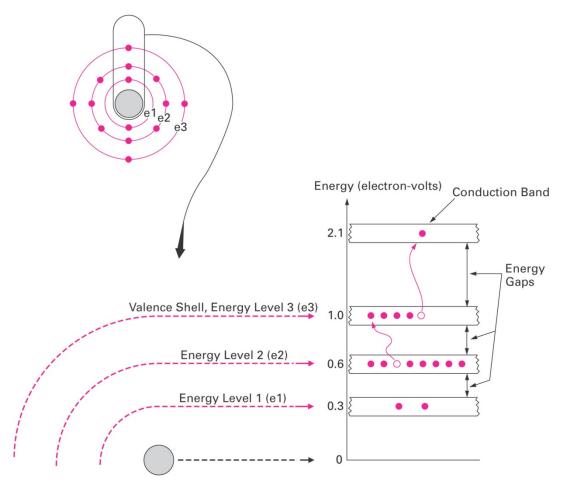
<u>Silicon Atom</u> Atomic Number 14 Electrons: K=2, L=8, M=4. <u>Germanium Atom</u> Atomic Number 32 Electrons: K=2, L=8, M=18, N=4. <u>Carbon Atom</u> Atomic Number 6 Electrons: K=2, L=4.



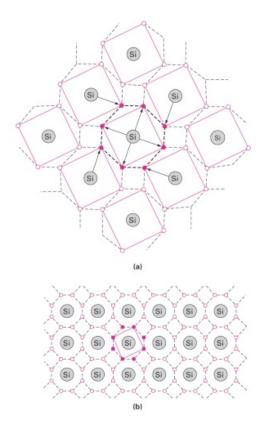




Diodes: An atom's orbital shell energy levels.



Diodes: Covalent bonding



Pure Silicon

 Silicon is a tetravalent (4 valence electrons) material. Outermost electron shell can accommodate 8 electrons and the atom is stable when it is in this form.

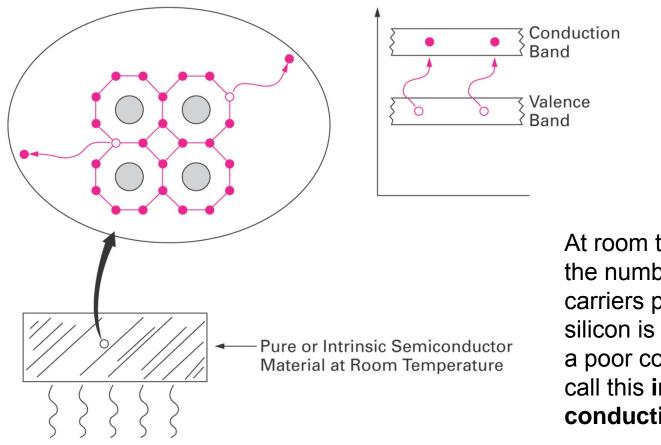
• At low Temperatures:

 Tight bonding means no electrons free to conduct current.

• At higher Temperatures:

 Thermal vibration of the crystal lattice results in some of the bonds being broken, generating free electrons and leaving behind holes.

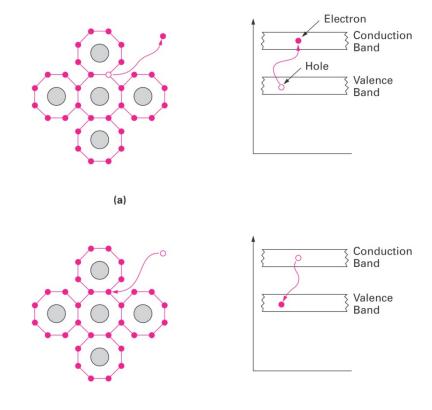
Diodes: Temperature effects on semiconductor materials



At room temperature the number of charge carriers present in pure silicon is small and it is a poor conductor – we call this **intrinsic conduction**.

Diodes: Pure Silicon Valence band and conduction band actions.

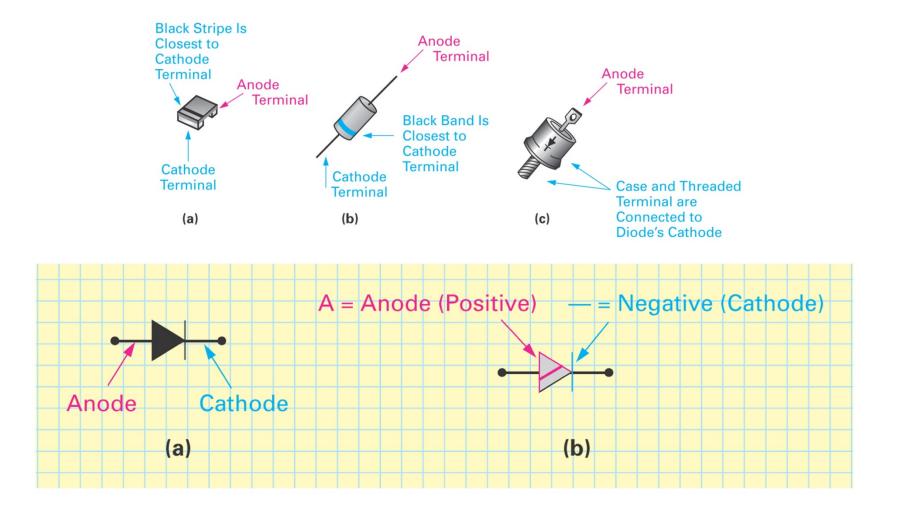
 Higher Temperatures: Generating an Electron-Hole Pair.



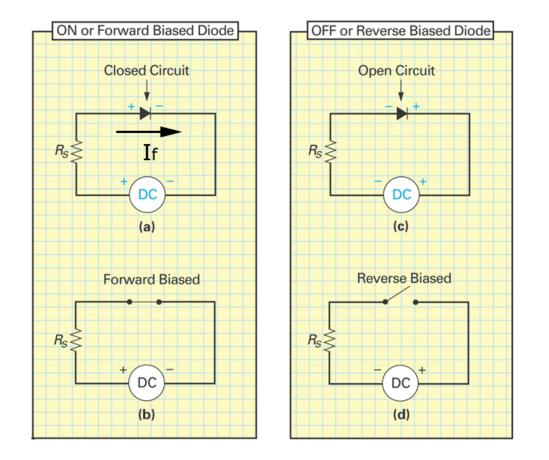
Cooling Temperature
 again: Recombination

(b)

Diodes: Packaging & Schematic



Diode: Operation

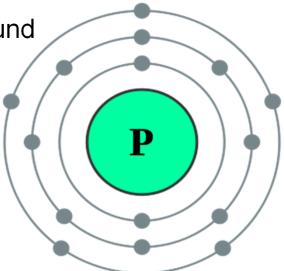


(a)(b) Forward Biased (ON) Diode. (c)(d) Reverse Biased (OFF) Diode

Diodes: Doping

- Adding small amounts of impurities to silicon
 - Can hugely affect its properties especially if it can fit within the crystal lattice but has a different number of valence electrons.
 For example: Phosphorus
 - Its fifth valence electron is very weakly bound
 - Has an excess of free electrons

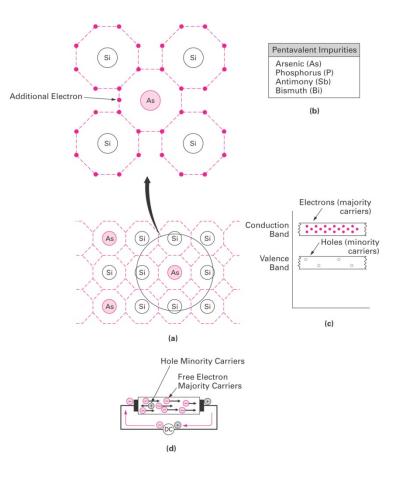




 Called n-type semiconductors as they have free negative charge carriers

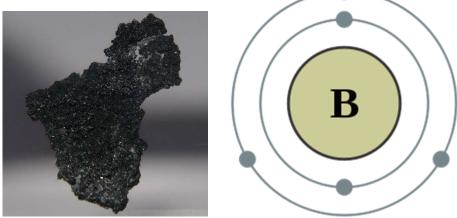
Diodes: An *n*-Type semiconductor material

- Negative Charge Carriers (n-Type)
- Adding pentavalent impurities to create an *n*-Type semiconductor material
- Has greater conductivity
 than pure silicon
- Majority charge carrier in n-type material is electrons



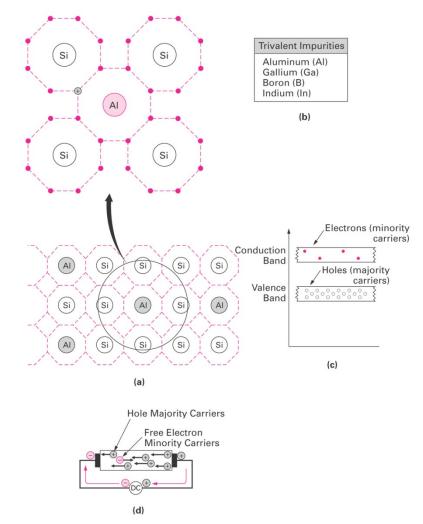
Diodes: p-Type Doping

- A 'hole' ?
 - If we add a trivalent doping such as Boron and it fits in the silicon lattice, then the absence of an electron in the outer shell leaves a 'hole'
 - This hole can move from atom to atom and acts like a positive charge carrier (just like an electron)
 - These are called **p-Type semiconductors** as they have free **positive charge carriers**



A *p*-Type semiconductor material

 Adding trivalent impurities to create a *p*-Type semiconductor material



Diode: Putting it together...

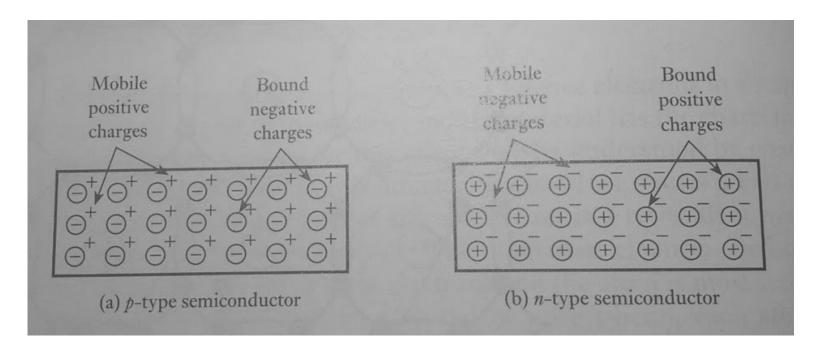
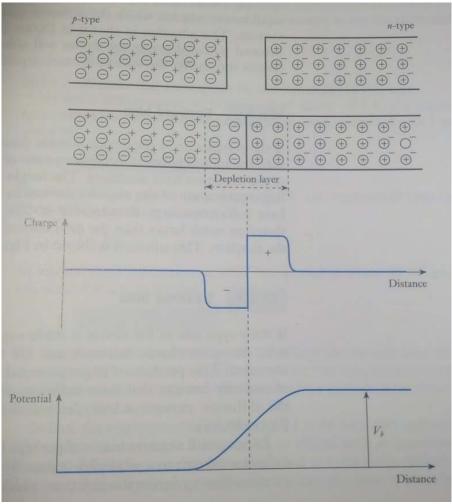


Figure directly from: "Electronics A Systems Approach", 4th edition, by Neil Storey, Pearson (Prentice Hall)

Doped silicon is also electrically neutral (like non-doped silicon) – each mobile charge carrier is matched by an equal number of bound charge carriers of the opposite polarity. The dominant charge carriers (electrons in n-type, holes in p-type) are called **majority charge carriers**.

Diode: Putting it together...

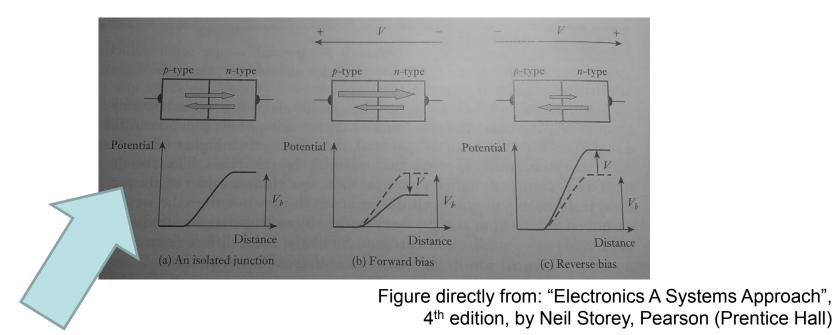


However, when we join p-type and n-type doped silicon to create a pn or np junction:

- n-type electrons diffuse across the joint and recombine with free holes
- p-type holes diffuse to the ntype side and combine with free electrons
- We end up with a **depletion layer**, where there are few mobile charge carriers
- We now have a **potential barrier** that charge carriers must overcome to cross the barrier!

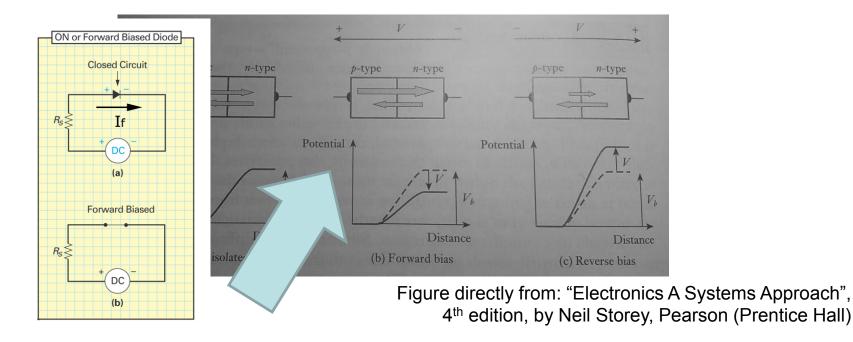
Figure directly from: "Electronics A Systems Approach", 4th edition, by Neil Storey, Pearson (Prentice Hall)

Diode: With No Applied Voltage...



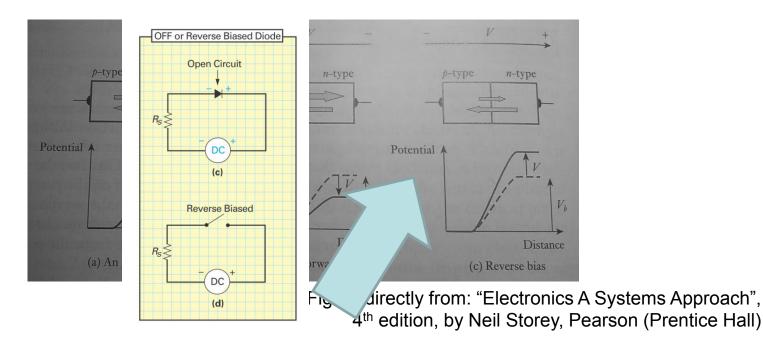
 In Isolation (no applied voltage), some majority charge carriers cross the depletion layer, creating a small diffusion current (moving from areas of high concentration to areas of low concentration without an electric field); however there is exactly equivalent movement of minority charge carriers in the opposite direction (a drift current). The drift current cancels out the diffusion current.

Diode: Forward Bias...



- In Forward Bias the p-type side is made positive with respect to the ntype side and the depletion layer shrinks. The height of the potential barrier decreases and majority carriers can now cross the barrier.
- **Diffusion current > Drift current** and there is a net current flow.

Diode: Reverse Bias...



- In Reverse Bias the p-type side is made negative with respect to the ntype side and the **depletion layer expands**. The height of the potential barrier increases and this reduces the number of majority charge carriers that can cross the junction.
- Diffusion current < Drift current and the drift current dominates; however, drift current is determined by the rate of thermal generation of minority carriers and at room temperature this is only a few nano-Amps (in small devices)

Forward Biasing a PN-Junction

Passing current through in a forward direction

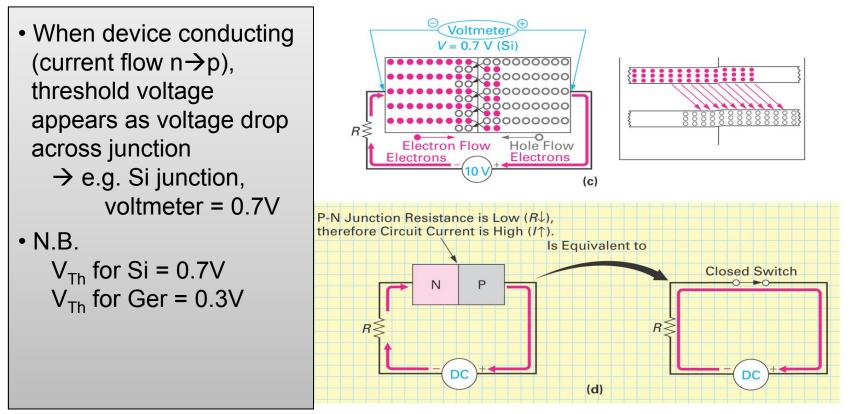


Fig (d)

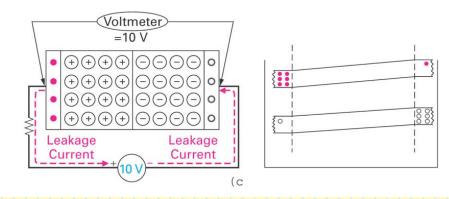
Forward-biased PN junction → acts as closed switch with small resistance
 → Switch opens again, when applied voltage drops < V_{Th} needed for n→p

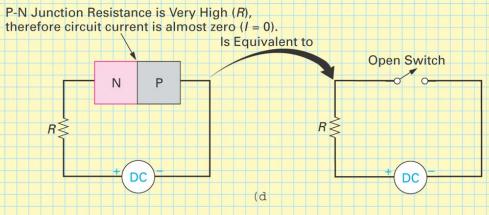
Reverse Biasing a P-N Junction

p-side made more negative with respect to the n-side

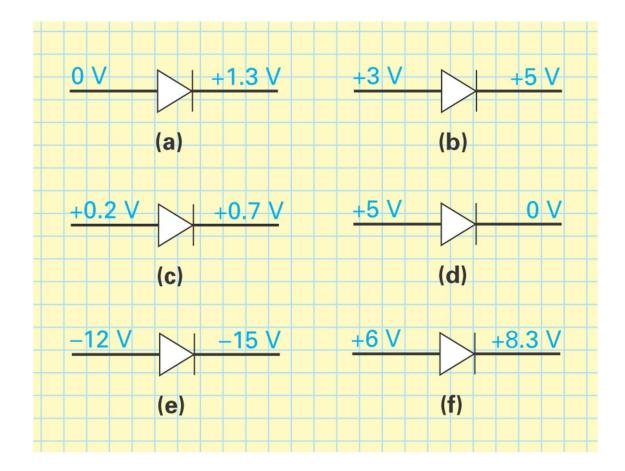
Reverse-biased PN Junction

- High resistance
- No current flow (leakage)
 => no voltage drop
 (e.g. voltmeter=10V)
- Essentially open switch

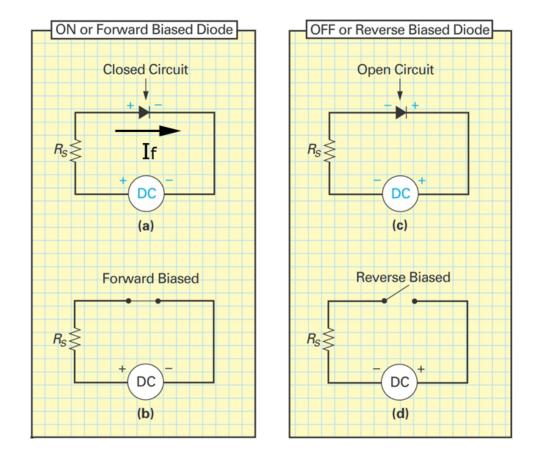




Biased pn-junctions – How biased?

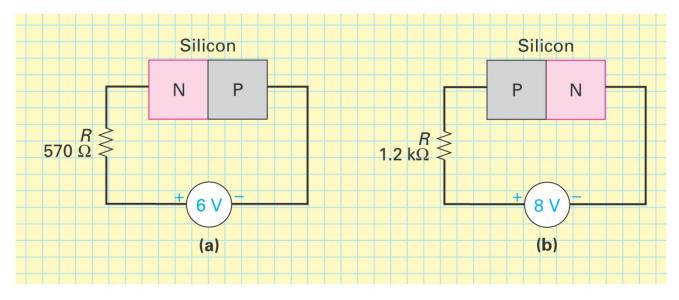


Diode: Operation Summary



(a)(b) Forward Biased (ON) Diode. (c)(d) Reverse Biased (OFF) Diode

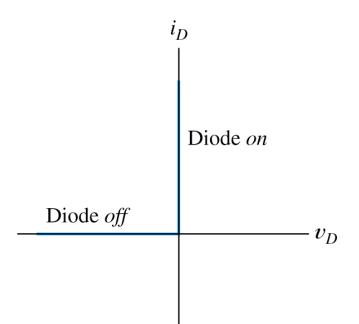
Diode: Worked Examples

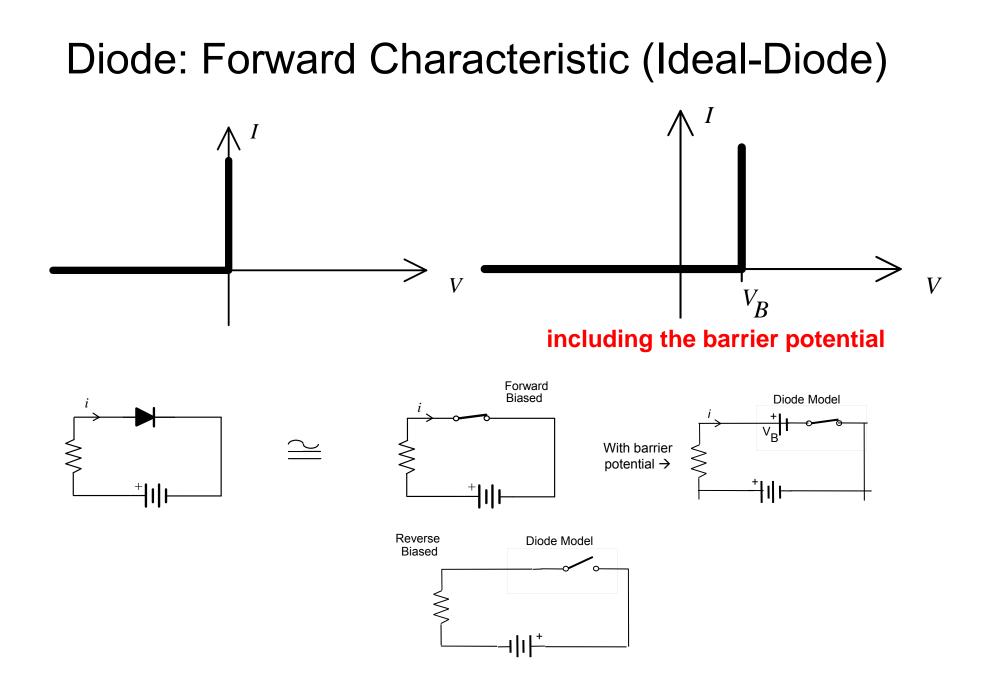


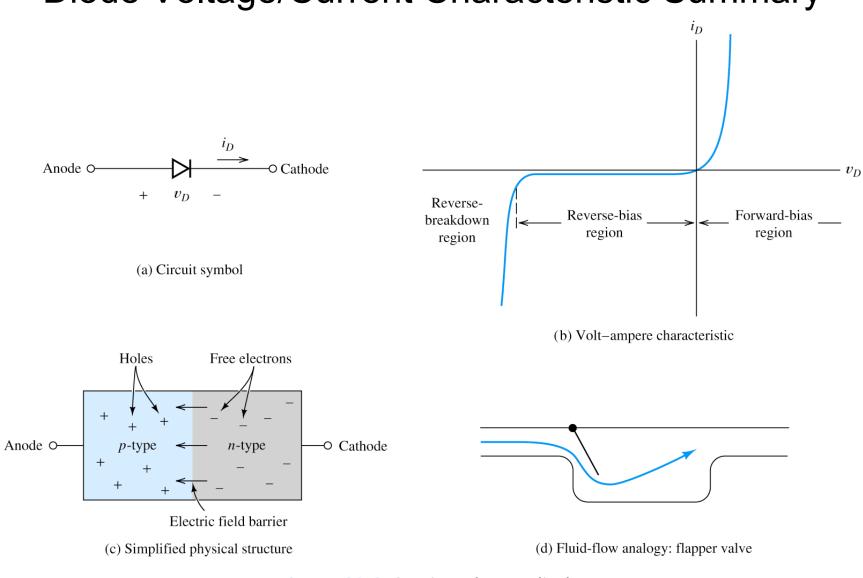
- Solution of (a) I=0mA and V=6V
- Solution of (b) I=(Vs-Vpn)/R
 I=6.08mA (i.e. V_R = 7.3V, taking Vpn=0.7V)

Diode: Simple Ideal-Diode Model

The ideal diode acts as a short circuit for forward currents and as an open circuit with reverse voltage applied.







Diode Voltage/Current Characteristic Summary



From: "Electrical Engineering: Principles and Applications, 3rd Ed. Allan R. Hambley, 2005 Pearson Education, Inc.

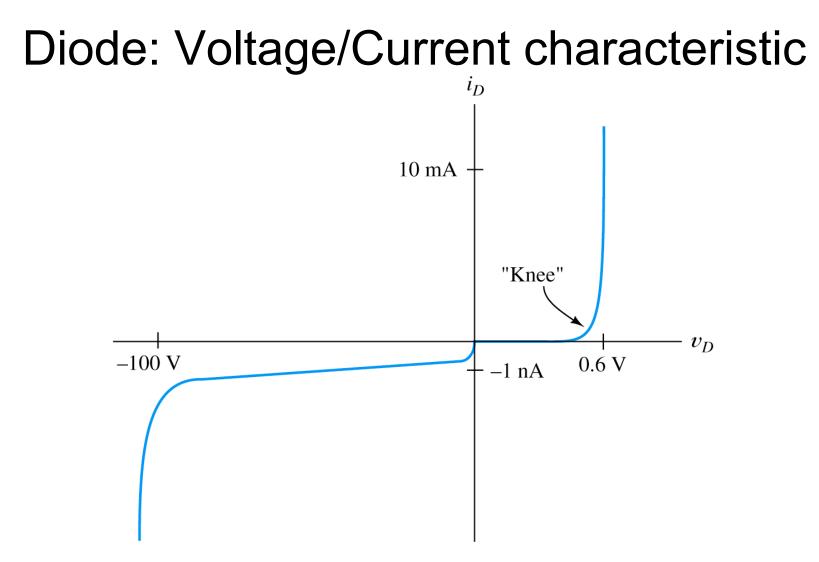
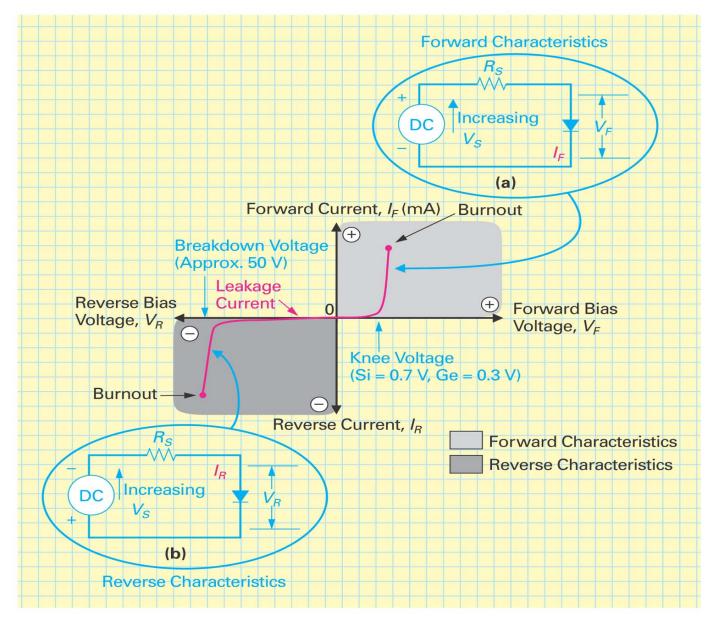


Figure 10.2 Volt–ampere characteristic for a typical small-signal silicon diode at a temperature of 300 K. Notice the change of scale for negative current and voltage.

From: "Electrical Engineering: Principles and Applications, 3rd Ed. Allan R. Hambley, 2005 Pearson Education, Inc.

Diode Voltage/Current characteristic



Diode: Forward/Reverse Current

We can approximately model current through a pn junction as:

$$I = I_s (e^{eV/\eta kT} - 1)$$

This is known as the Shockley Equation, where,

I is the current through the junction

 $I_{\rm s}$ is a constant called the reverse saturation current

e is the electronic charge

V is the applied voltage

 Π (eta) is a constant in the range of 1-2 (for example: 1 for germanium and 1.3 for silicon)

k is Boltzmann's constant (1.38 × 10^{-23} J/K)

T is the absolute temperature

If we assume that $\Pi = 1$, then $I = I_s (e^{eV/kT} - 1)$

In Reverse bias: At room temperatures if *V* is less than -0.1 then the exponential is very small, so: $I = I_s(0-1) \Rightarrow I = -I_s$

In Forward bias: At room temperatures if *V* is greater than +0.1 then the exponential is large compared to -1, so: $I = I_s(e^{eV/kT})$ At room temperatures e/kT = 40V⁻¹ so we can say: $I = I_s(e^{40V})$

Figure From: "Electrical Engineering: Principles and Applications, 3rd Ed. Allan R. Hambley, 2005 Pearson Education, Inc.

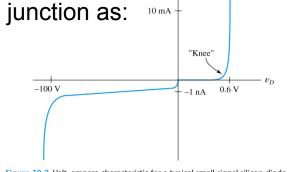


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Diode Application: Half-Wave Rectifier

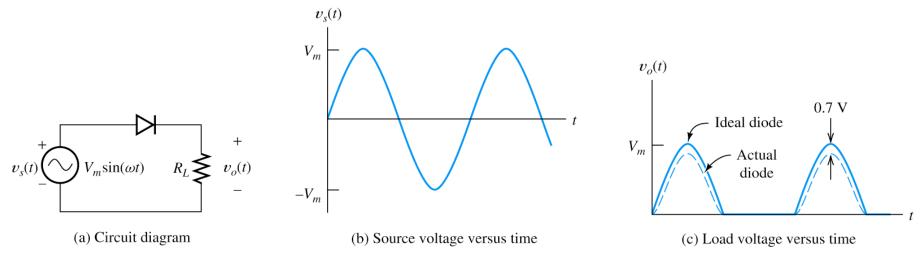


Figure 10.24 Half-wave rectifier with resistive load.

Diode Application: Half-Wave Rectifier (with smoothing)

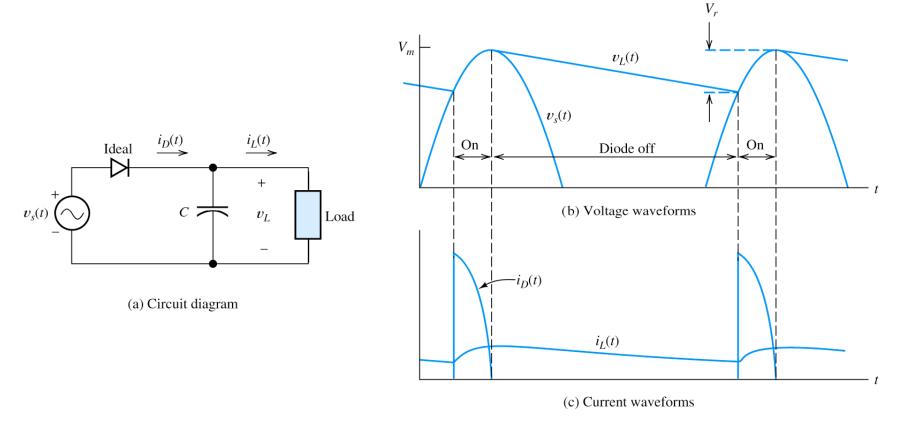


Figure 10.26 Half-wave rectifier with smoothing capacitor.

From: "Electrical Engineering: Principles and Applications, 3rd Ed. Allan R. Hambley, 2005 Pearson Education, Inc.

Diode Application: Full-Wave Rectifier

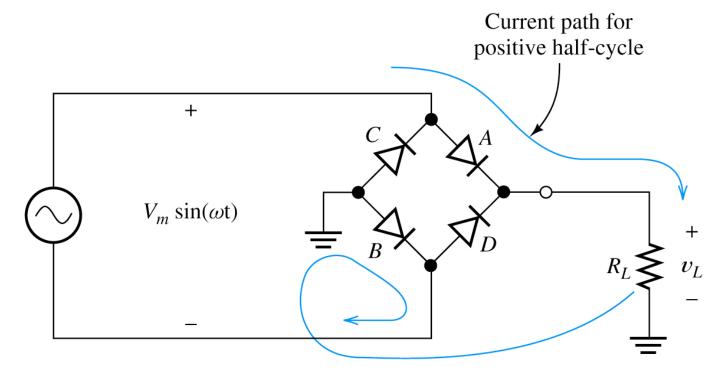


Figure 10.28 Diode-bridge full-wave rectifier.

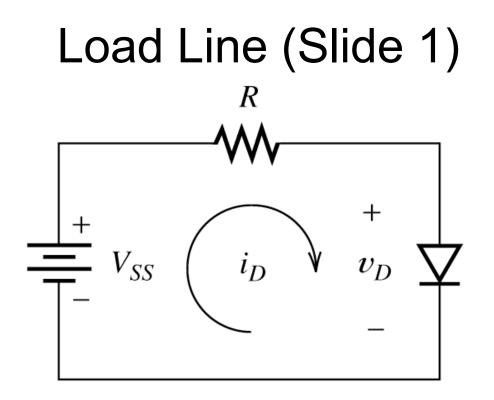


Figure 10.5 Circuit for load-line analysis.

$$V_{SS} = R.i_D + v_D$$

We know *R* and V_{SS} . What are i_D and v_D ?

Load Line (Slide 2)

•
$$V_{SS} = R.i_D + v_D.$$

- Need a second equation to solve for both i_D and v_D .
- Can use Shockley equation for this, or draw both on a graph.

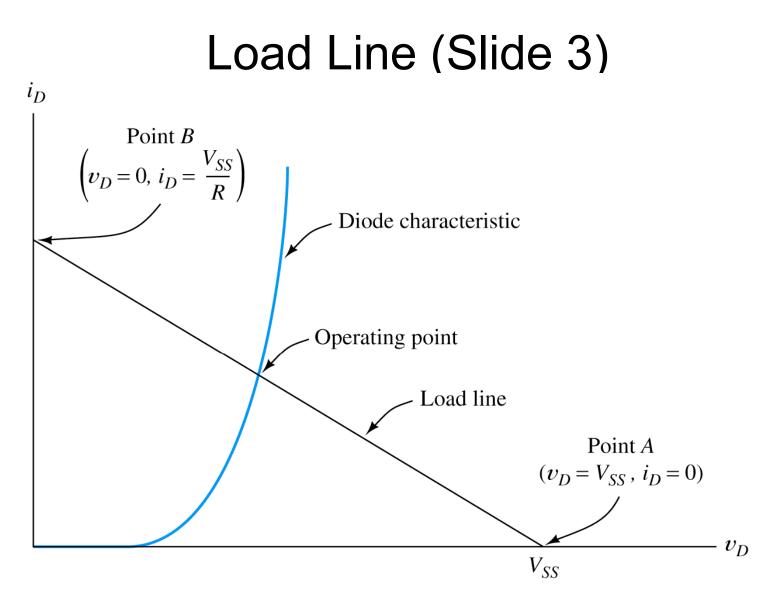


Figure 10.6 Load-line analysis of the circuit of Figure 10.5.

Load Line (Slide 4)

Example 10.1 $V_{SS} = 2V, R = 1k\Omega$. Find i_D and v_D . Find intercepts of load line with axes: $V_{SS} = R.i_{D} + V_{D}$ SO $V_D = 0$ $\rightarrow i_D = V_{SS}/R = 2mA.$ Similarly $i_D = 0 \rightarrow V_D = 2V$.

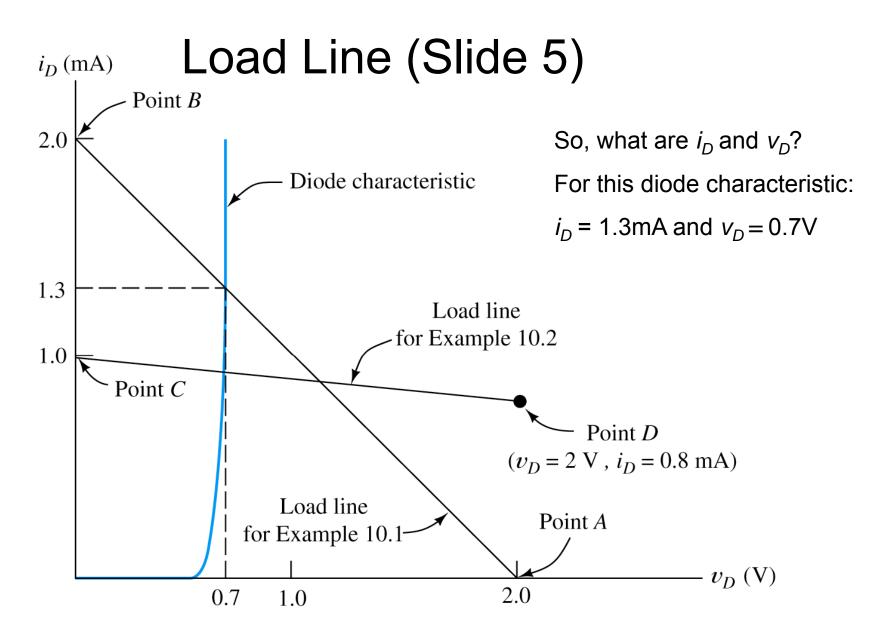


Figure 10.7 Load-line analysis for Examples 10.1 and 10.2.

Load Line (Slide 6)

Example 10.2 $V_{SS} = 10V, R = 10k\Omega$. Find i_D and V_D . Find intercepts of load line with axes: $V_{SS} = R.i_{D} + V_{D}$ so $v_D = 0$, and $i_D = V_{SS}/R = 1$ mA. $i_{D} = 0 \rightarrow V_{D} = 10V$ (off the page!) so try $v_D = 2$, which gives $i_D = 0.8$ mA.

Diodes that are intended to operate in the breakdown region are called **Zener diodes**.

Zener diode

Recall for a regular diode:

- Reverse biased diode: No Current flow
 → Unless V_{RB} > V_{breakdown} (50V)
- Reverse breakdown
 - \rightarrow Large reverse current
 - \rightarrow If not limited, diode burnout!

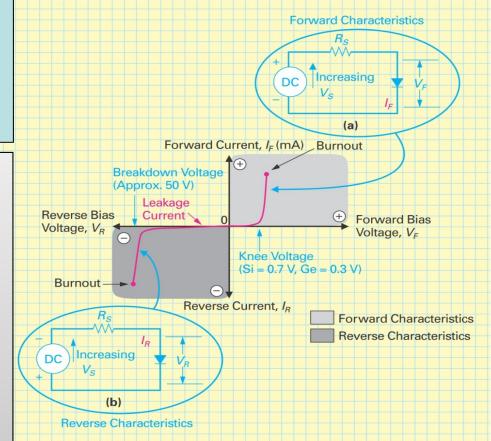
Now: A Zener Diode

- Same as regular Diode
- But designed to allow <u>controlled</u> reverse Current flow with reduced breakdown voltage ('Zener Voltage' - V_{ZK}) → E.g. V_{ZK} = 10V



- Reverse conducting mode
 - → V_{ZK} appears across device (remember V_{Th} appearing across forward conducting diode)
 - → Exploit constant voltage, e.g. voltage regulation

Regular Diode Voltage/Current Transfer Characteristic



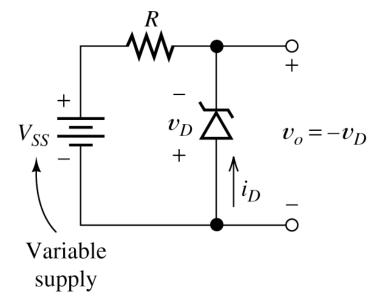


Figure 10.9 A simple regulator circuit that provides a nearly constant output voltage v_o from a variable supply voltage.

- V_{SS} + R.i_D + v_D = 0 (note that i_D is in anode-cathode direction.) If we change V_{SS}, v_D remains nearly constant.
- Acts as "voltage regulator".

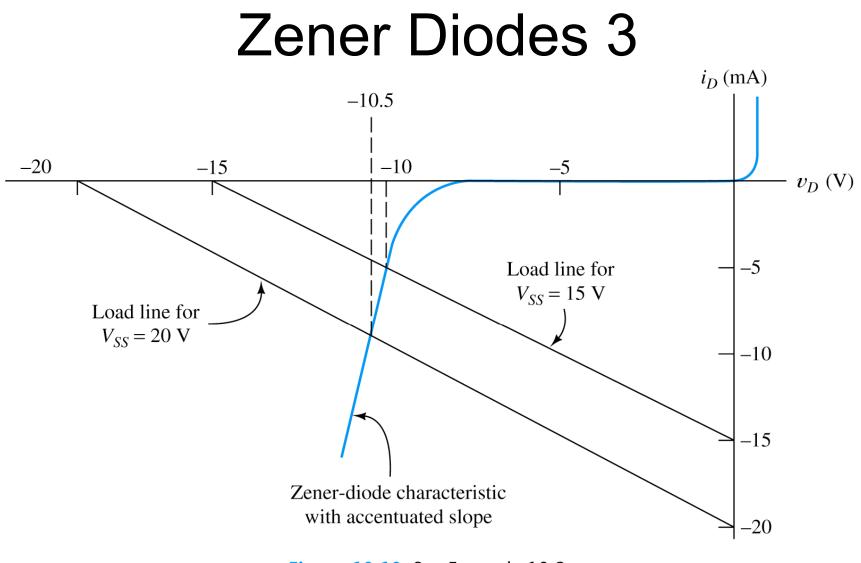


Figure 10.10 See Example 10.3.

Example 10.3 $R = 1k\Omega$; find v_D for $V_{SS} = 15V$ and for $V_{SS} = 20V$.

Although V_{SS} changes by 5V, v_D changes by only 0.5V;

this is called **regulation**.