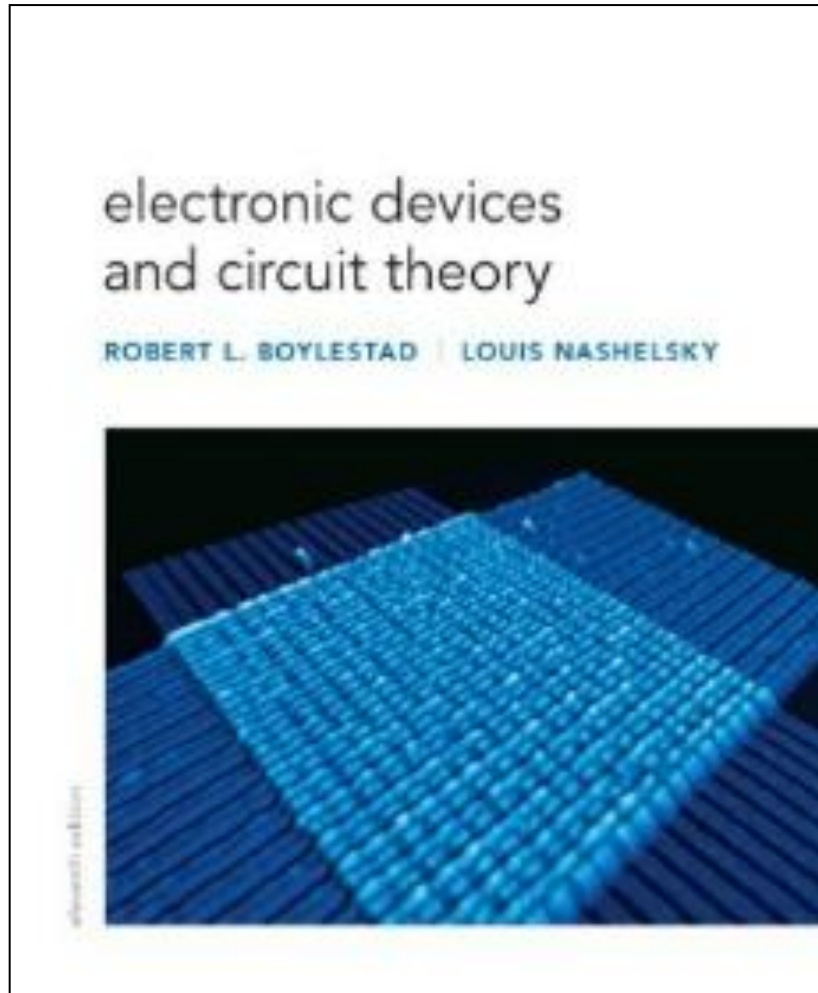


Referência Bibliográfica



Chapter 1 Semiconductor Diode

Comunicação Técnica USP - EESC - EEC 01-2016

<http://sistemas.sel.eesc.usp.br/comtec>



SEL
EESC - USP

09/2016

Introdução à Física dos Semicondutores para Engenheiros Parte I: Noções de Física Estatística

Emiliano R. Martins

Introduction

The first IC was developed by Jack Kilby while working at Texas Instruments in 1958.



Jack St. Clair Kilby

Jack St. Clair Kilby, inventor do circuito integrado e coinventor da calculadora eletrônica portátil. (Cortesia da Texas Instruments.)

Natural de Jefferson City, Missouri, 1923. MS, Universidade de Wisconsin. Diretor de Engenharia e Tecnologia da Divisão de Componentes da Texas Instruments. Parceiro do IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers). Detém mais de 60 patentes nos EUA.



O primeiro circuito integrado, um oscilador de deslocamento de fase, inventado por Jack S. Kilby em 1958. (Cortesia da Texas Instruments.)

The **miniaturization** that has occurred in recent years leaves us to wonder about its limits. Complete systems now appear on wafers thousands of times smaller than the single element of earlier networks.

Today the Intel core i7 Extreme edition processor has 731 million transistor in a package that is only slightly larger than 1.67 square inches.



1965

Dr. Gordon E Moore presented a paper predicting that the **transistor count in a single IC would double every two years**. Now we find that his prediction is amazingly accurate and expected to continue to the next few decades.

Semiconductor Materials

Ge, Si, GaAs

Ge O germânio tem produção limitada devido à sua sensibilidade à temperatura e à alta corrente de saturação reversa. Ainda está disponível comercialmente, mas limitado a algumas aplicações de alta velocidade (graças a um fator de mobilidade relativamente elevado) e a outras que usam sua sensibilidade à luz e ao calor, como fotodetectores e sistemas de segurança.

Si Sem dúvida, o semicondutor mais utilizado para toda a gama de dispositivos eletrônicos. Tem a vantagem da pronta disponibilidade a um baixo custo e de uma corrente de saturação reversa relativamente baixa, além de características de temperatura adequada e excelentes níveis de tensão de ruptura. Também se beneficia de décadas de enorme atenção à concepção de circuitos integrados de grande escala e de tecnologia de processamento.

GaAs

Desde o início da década de 90, o interesse em GaAs vem crescendo a passos largos e acabará abarcando uma boa parcela do desenvolvimento dedicado aos dispositivos de silício, especialmente em circuitos integrados de grande escala. Suas características de alta velocidade têm maior demanda a cada dia, sem falar nos recursos adicionais de baixas correntes de saturação reversa, excelente sensibilidade à temperatura e elevadas tensões de ruptura. Mais de 80% de suas aplicações concentram-se na optoeletrônica, com o desenvolvimento de diodos emissores de luz, células solares e outros dispositivos fotodetectores, mas isso provavelmente mudará drasticamente à medida que seus custos de fabricação caírem e sua utilização em projetos de circuito integrado continuar a crescer. Talvez seja o material semiconductor do futuro.



Semiconductors are a special class of elements having a conductivity between that of a good conductor and that of an insulator.

Single Crystal: they have a repetitive crystal structure.

Si
Ge

Compound: they are constructed of two or more semiconductor materials of different atomic structures

GaAs
CdS
GaN
GaAsP

1930

Diode discovery

1947

Transistor discovery

Ge

Relatively easy to refine and obtain very high levels of purity but suffered from low levels of reliability due to sensitivity to changes in temperature.

1954

1st Si transistor was introduced

Si

Less temperature sensitivity, very abundant on Earth and cheaper to manufacture.

1970

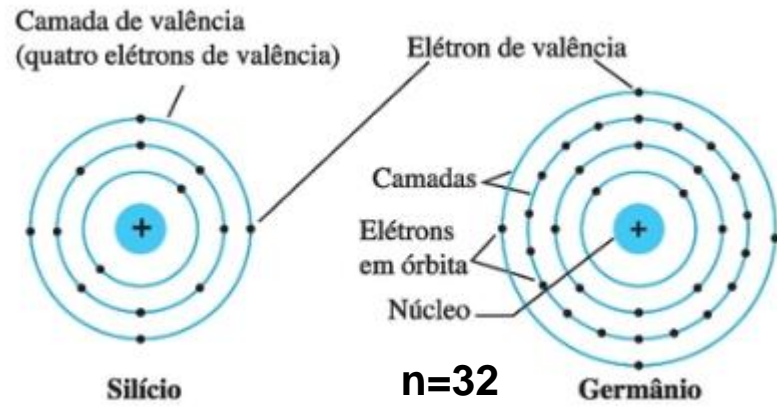
1st GaAs transistor was introduced

GaAs

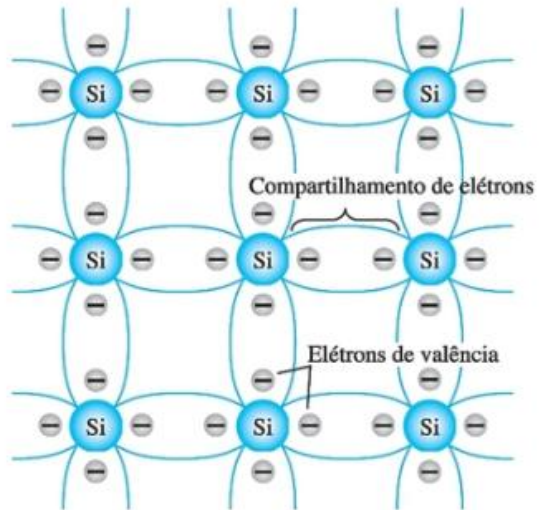
Up to five times the speed of operations with Si.

Si is still the fundamental building block for Intel's processors.

n=14



singular cristal

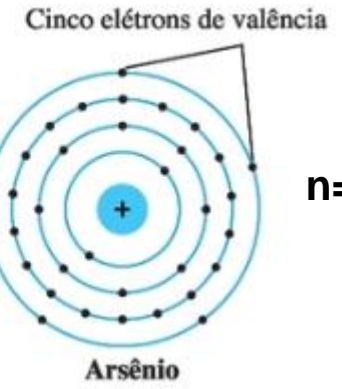


ligação covalente - Si

n=31



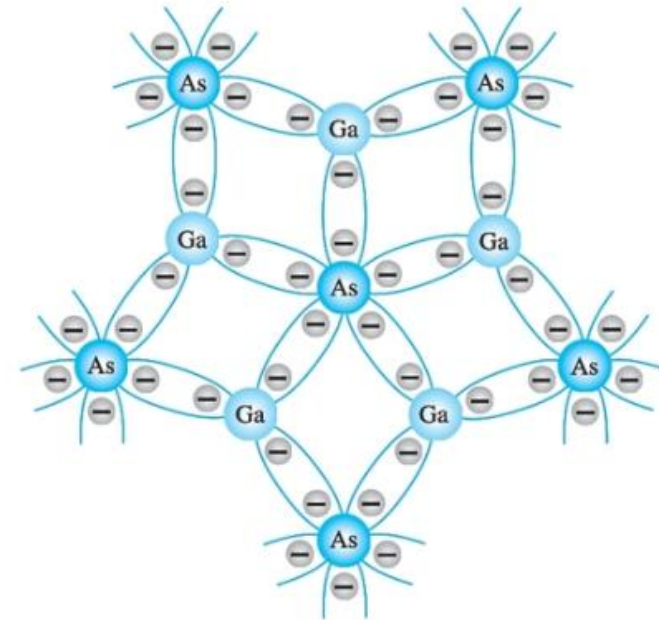
Gálio



n=33

Arsênio

cristal



ligação covalente - GaAs

■ **Although the covalent bond will result in a stronger bond between the valence electrons and their parent atom, its possible for the valence electron to absorb sufficient kinetic energy from external causes** (light energy in the form of photons and thermal energy (heat) to break the covalent bond and assume “free” state. The free electrons are very sensitive to any electric fields shuch as established by voltage sources .

■ At room temperature there are 15 billion electrons /cm³ in a silicon material.

**Intrinsic carriers n_i
(free e^- in the material)**

Semiconductor	Portadores intrínsecos (por cm^3)
GaAs	$1,7 \times 10^6$
Si	$1,5 \times 10^{10}$
Ge	$2,5 \times 10^{13}$

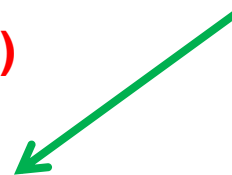
Intrinsic: means any semiconductor material that has been carefully refined to reduce the number of impurities to a very low level.

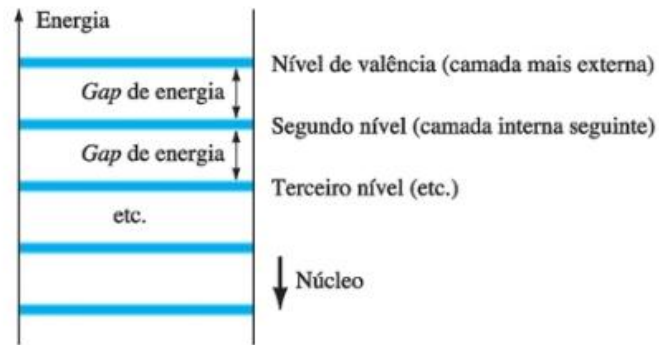
Note: impurity levels of 1 part in 10 billion are common today.

**Relative mobility factor μ_n ($\text{cm}^2/\text{V.s}$)
(free e^- in the material)**

Semiconductor	μ_n ($\text{cm}^2/\text{V.s}$)
Si	1500
Ge	3900
GaAs	8500

μ_n : ability of the free carriers to move throughout the material.

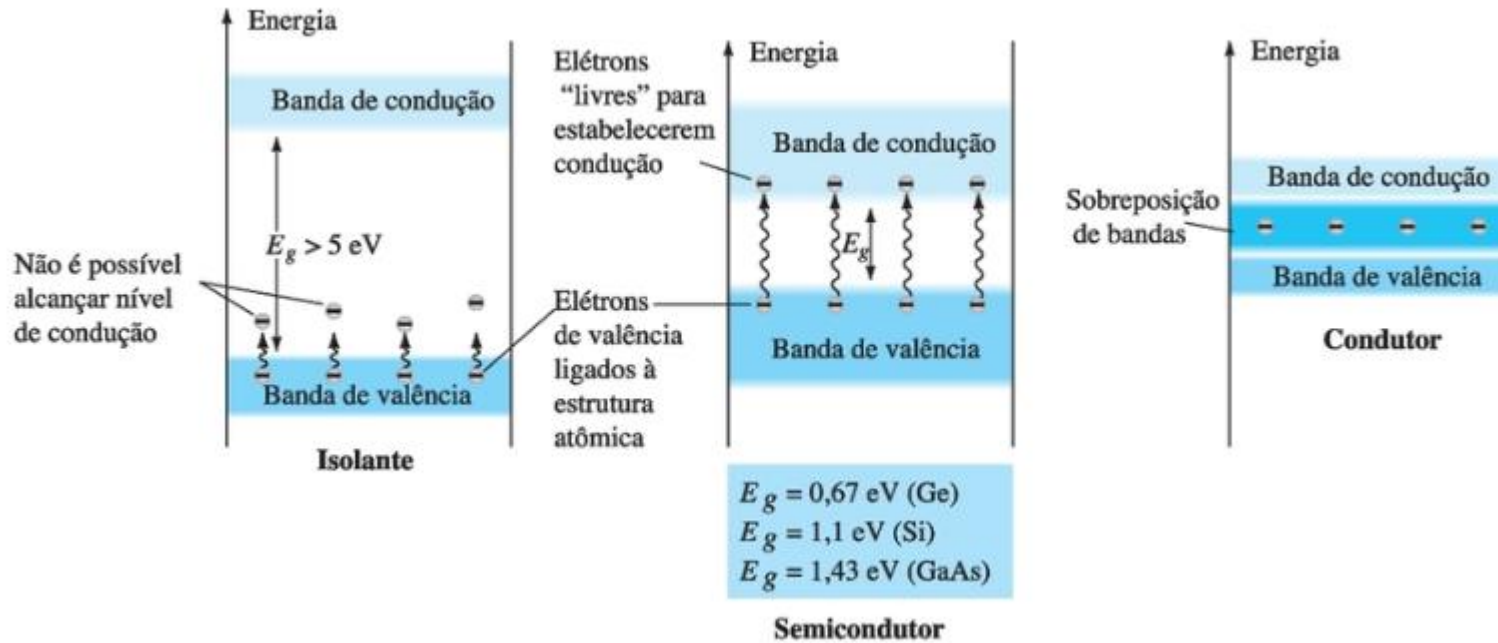




$$\begin{aligned}
 W &= QV \\
 &= (1,6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}) (1 \text{ V}) \\
 &= 1,6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}
 \end{aligned}$$

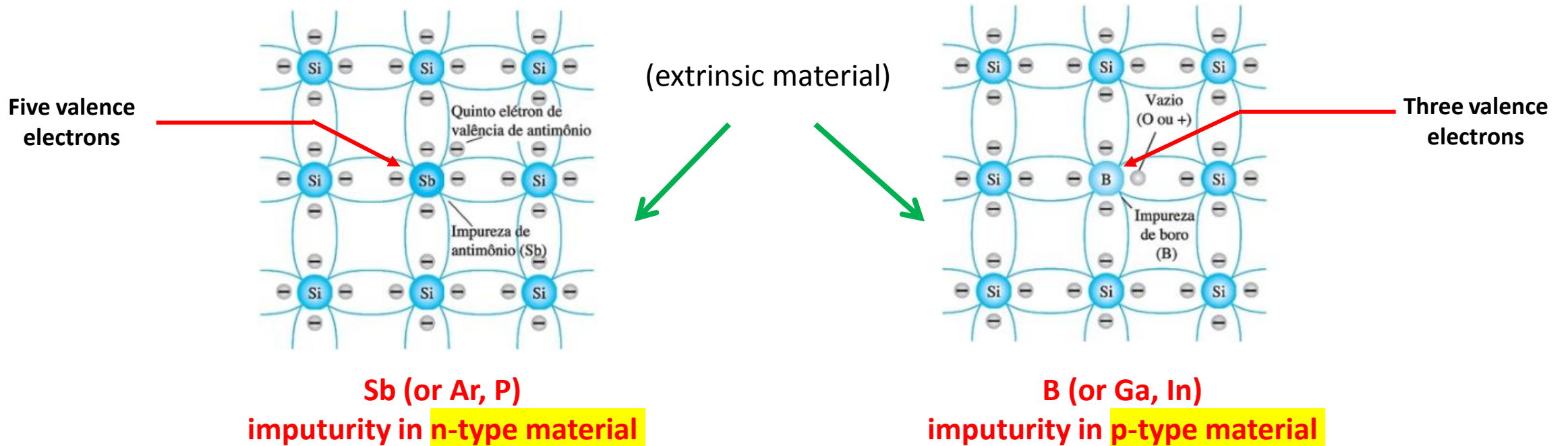
$1 \text{ eV} = 1,6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

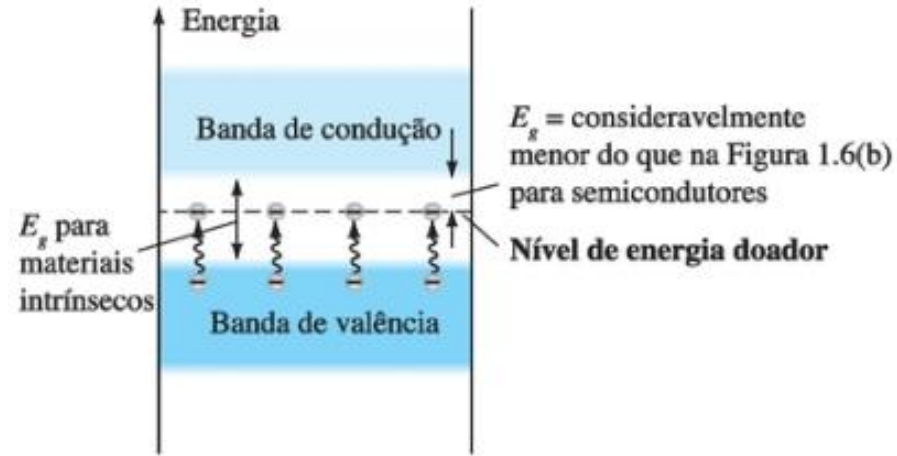
níveis específicos discretos de energia



Bandas de valência e de condução de um isolante, um semicondutor e um condutor

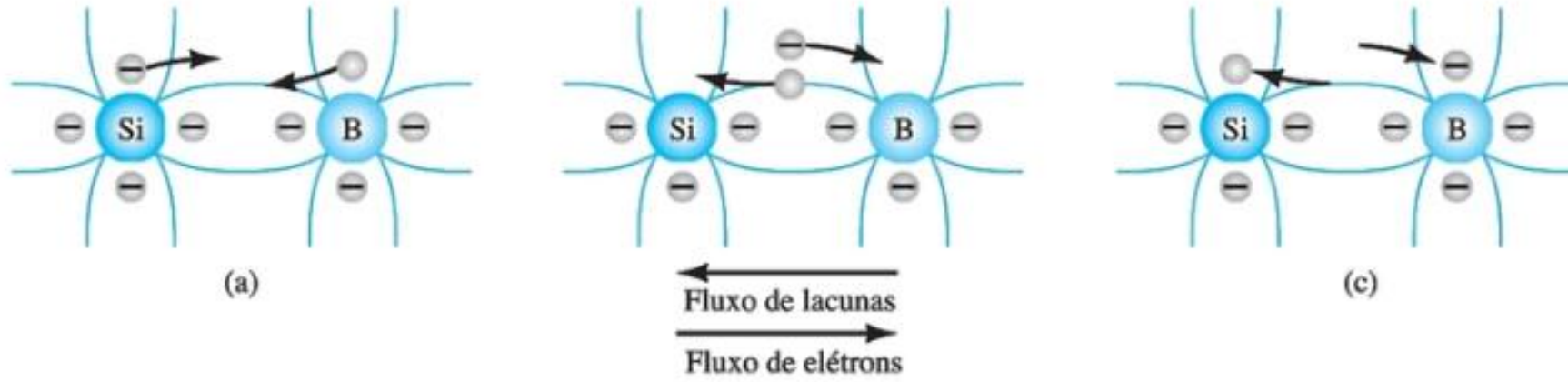
Impurity: At room temperature in an intrinsic Si there is about one free electron for every 10^{12} atoms. The dosage level is 1 part in 10^7 and so the ratio $10^{12} / 10^7 = 10^5$ indicates that in a n-type material the **carrier concentration** has increased by a ratio 100.000:1.



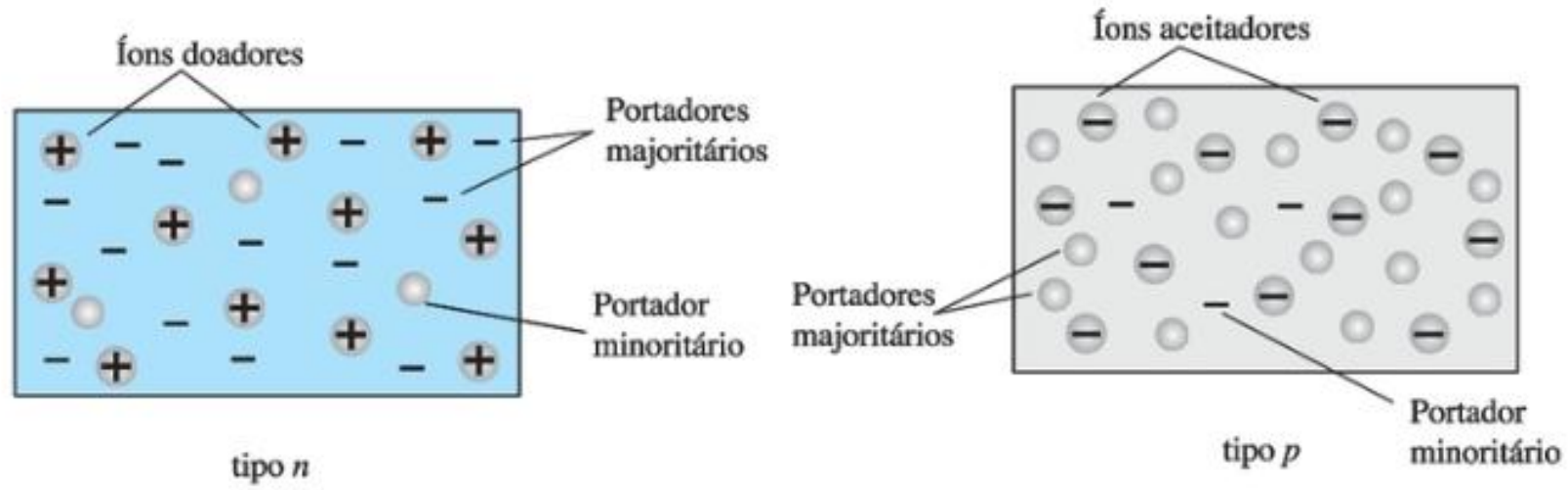


A discrete energy level (donor level) appears in the forbidden band with an E_g significantly less than that of the intrinsic material. The result is that at room temperature, there are a large number of carriers (electrons) in the conduction level, and the conductivity of the material is increased significantly.

Electrons X hole flow



Building blocks of semiconductor devices

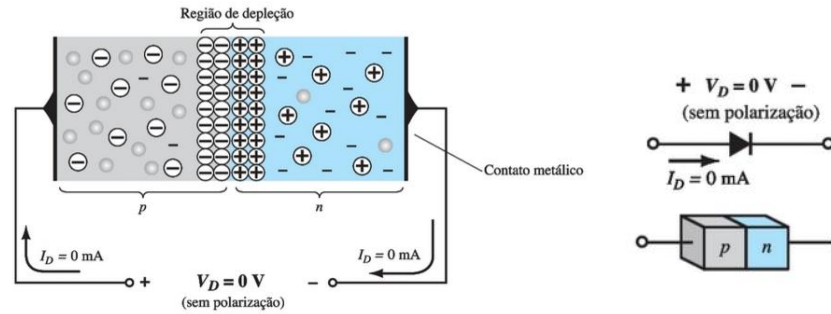


Diode

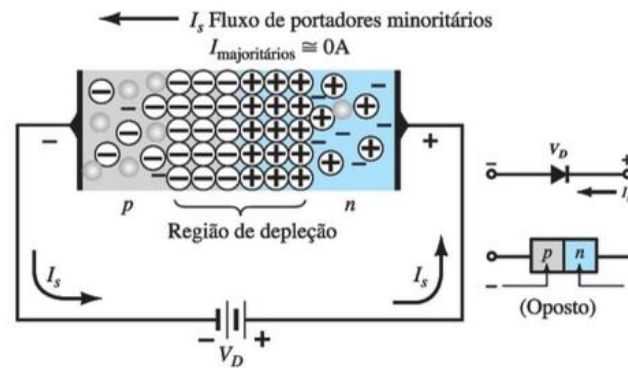
- **Junção** é o contato íntimo entre dois materiais que possuem estruturas energéticas internas diferentes.
- Podem ser executadas entre **dois metais**, entre um **metal e um semicondutor**, entre **dois semicondutores** ou através do **contato íntimo entre dois cristais dopados com impurezas de polaridades opostas, embora pertencentes ao mesmo semicondutor intrínseco**. Neste último caso o dispositivo é chamado de **junção pn**, parte básica da eletrônica moderna de estado sólido.
- **Junções pn** formam um componente eletrônico denominado **diodo**.

A diode has three operating conditions:

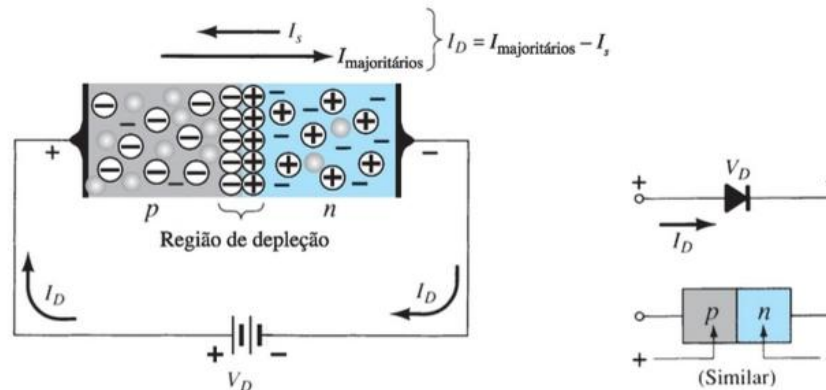
No Applied Bias ($V_D=0$)



Reverse-Bias ($V_D < 0$)

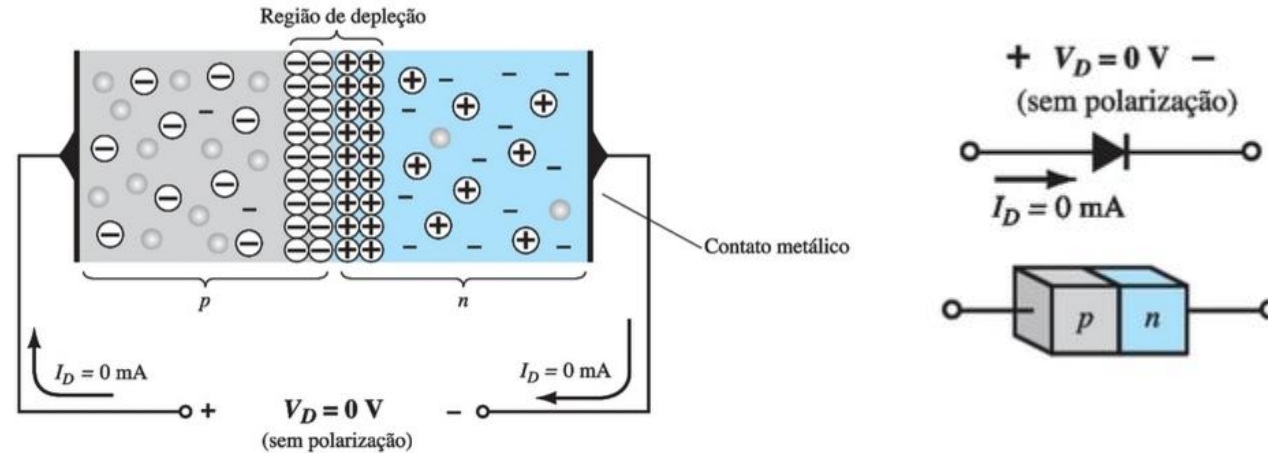


Forward-Bias ($V_D > 0$)



No Applied Bias ($V=0$)

Bias: refers to the application of an external voltage across the two terminals of the device to extract a response.



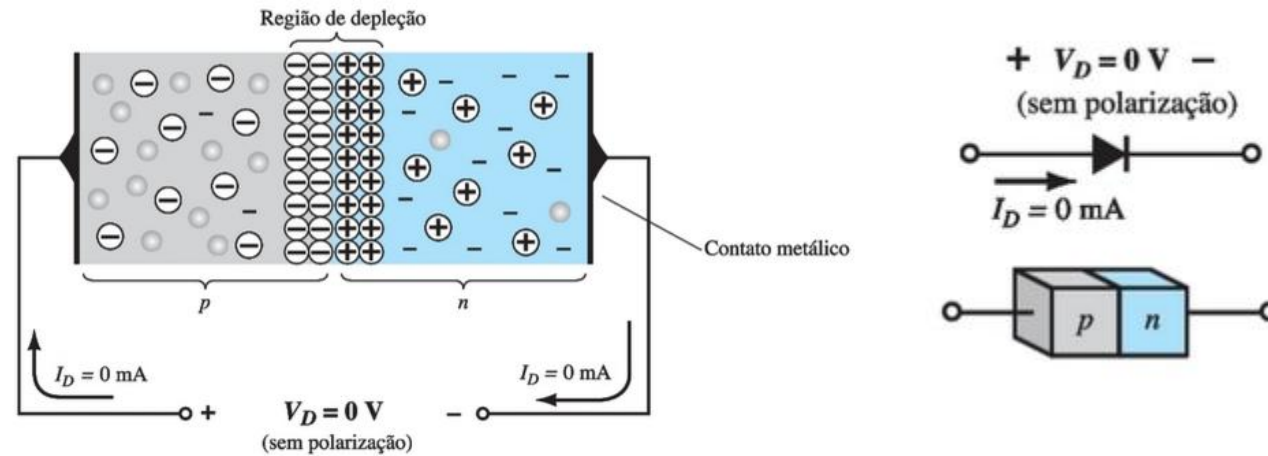
Any minority carrier (holes) in the n-type material within the depletion region will pass quickly into the p-type material.

The closer the hole is to the junction, the greater is the attraction for the layer of negative ions and the less is the opposition offered by the positive ions in the depletion region of the n-type material.

The same will happen with the minority carrier (electrons) in the p-type material.

The electrons and holes in the region of the junction will combine resulting in a lack of free carriers in the region near the junction.

No Applied Bias ($V=0$)

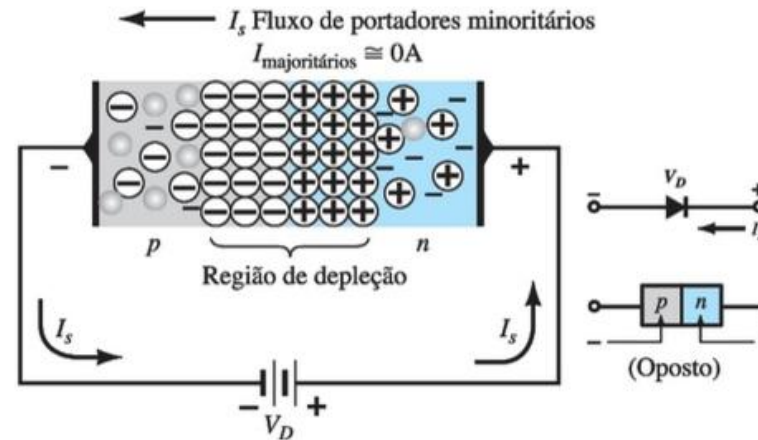


The majority carriers (electrons) of the n-type material must overcome the attractive forces of the layer of positive ion in the n-type material and the shield of negative ions in the p-type material to migrate into the área beyond the depletion region of the p-type material.

The number of majority carriers is so large in the n-type material that there will invariably be a small number of with suficiente kinetic energy to pass through the depletion region into the p-type material.

The electrons and holes in the region of the junction will combine resulting in a lack of free carriers in the region near the junction.

Reverse-Bias ($V_D < 0$)

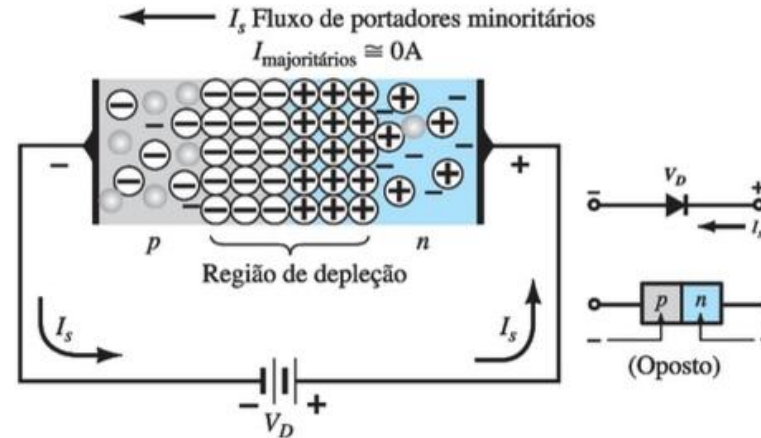


The number of positive ions in the depletion region of the n-type material will increase due to the large numbers of free electrons drawn to the positive potential of the applied voltage.

For similar reasons, the number of negative ions will increase in the p-type material

The net effect, therefore, is a widening of the depletion region.

Reverse-Bias ($V_D < 0$)



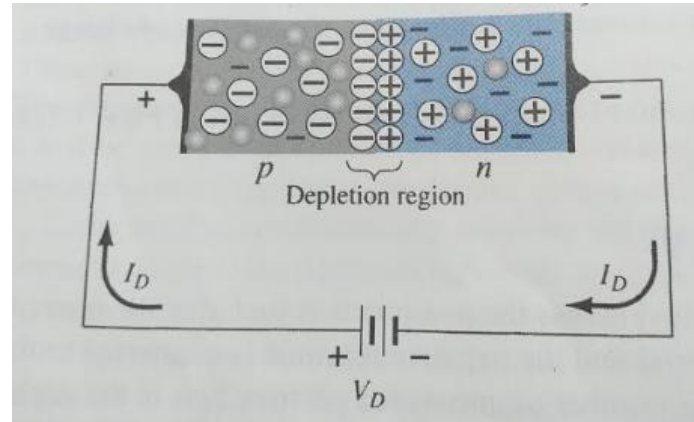
This widening of the depletion region will establish a barrier for the majority carriers to overcome, effectively reducing the majority carrier flow to zero.

The number of minority carriers, however, entering the depletion region will not change.

The current that exists under reverse-bias conditions is called **reverse saturation curve** (I_s)

The I_s is **seldom more than a few μA and typically nA**. The term saturation comes from the fact that it reaches its maximum level quickly and does not change significantly with increases in the reverse bias potential.

Forward-Bias ($V_D > 0$)



The application of a forward-bias will “pressure” **electrons in the n-type material and holes in the p-type material to recombine with the ions near the boundary and reduce the width of the depletion region.**

A electron of the n-type material now “sees” a reduced barrier at the junction due to reduced depletion region and a strong attraction for the positive potential applied to the p-type material.

As the applied bias increases, the depletion region will continue to decrease in width until a flood of electrons can pass through the junction, **resulting in an exponential rise in current.**

Resumo

Doping

The electrical characteristics of silicon and germanium are improved by adding materials in a process called *doping*.

There are just two types of doped semiconductor materials:

***n*-type**

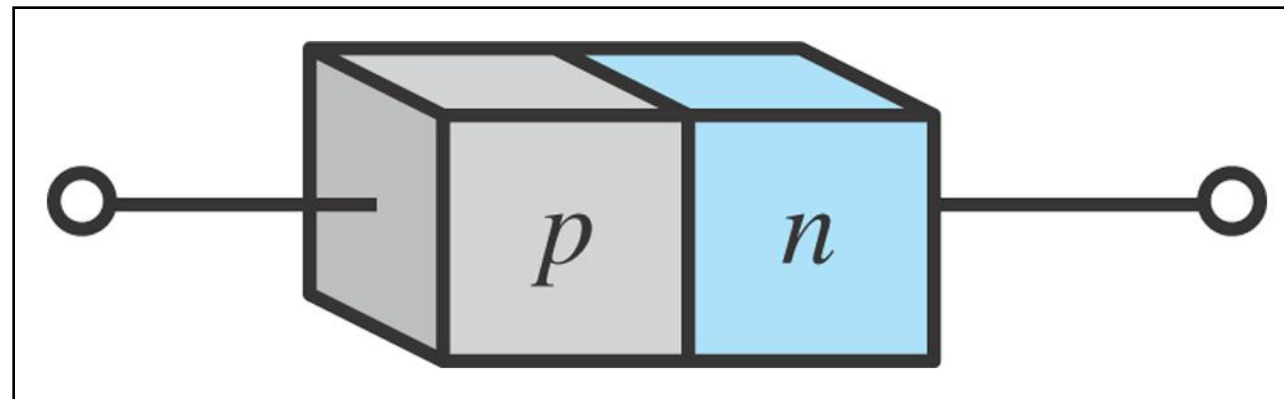
***n*-type** materials contain an excess of conduction band electrons.

***p*-type**

***p*-type** materials contain an excess of valence band holes.

p-n Junctions

One end of a silicon or germanium crystal can be doped as a *p*-type material and the other end as an *n*-type material.



The result is a *p-n* junction

Majority and Minority Carriers

Two currents through a diode:

Majority Carriers

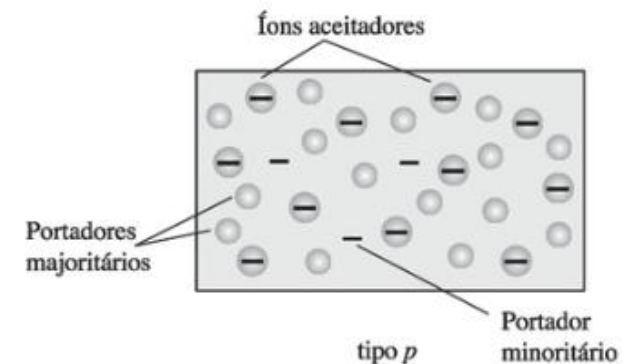
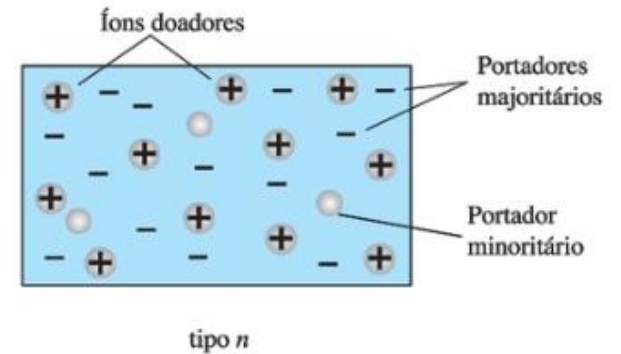
The majority carriers in ***n-type*** materials are electrons.

The majority carriers in ***p-type*** materials are holes.

Minority Carriers

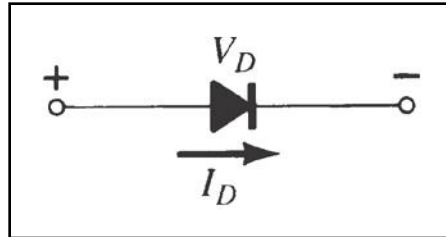
The minority carriers in ***n-type*** materials are holes.

The minority carriers in ***p-type*** materials are electrons.

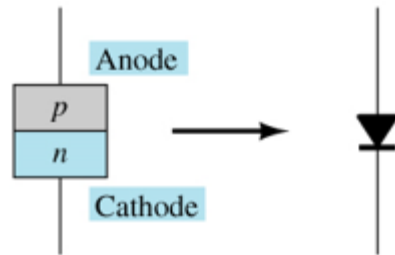


Diodes

The diode is a 2-terminal device.

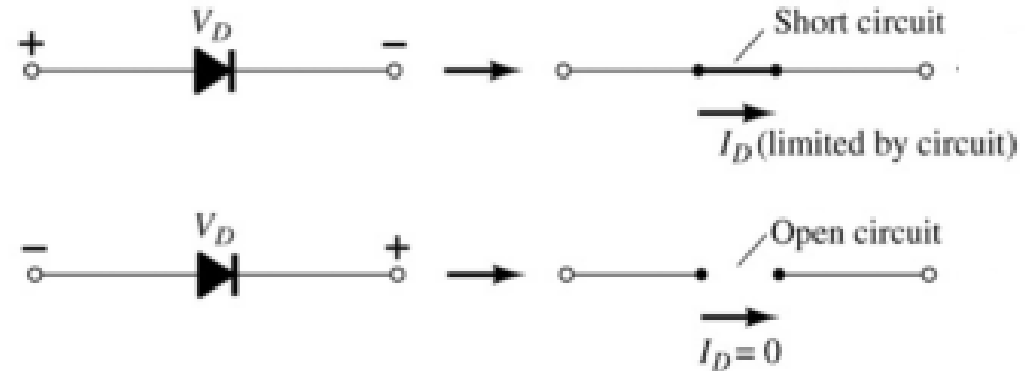


A diode ideally conducts in only one direction.



The anode is abbreviated A

The cathode is abbreviated K



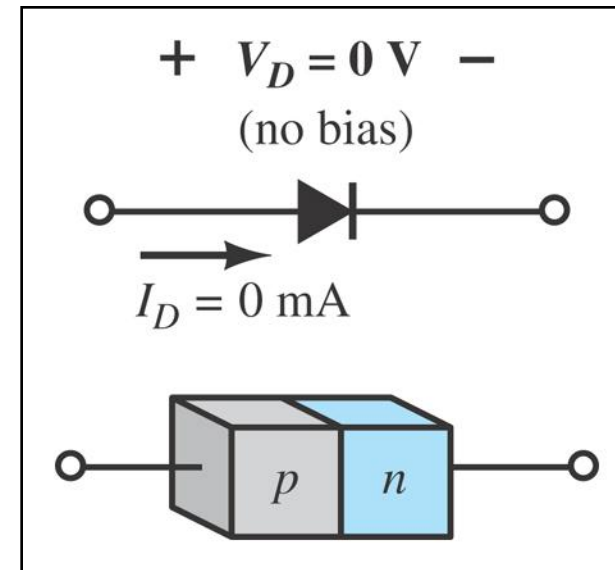
Diode Operating Conditions

No Bias

No external voltage is applied: $V_D = 0 \text{ V}$

There is no diode current: $I_D = 0 \text{ A}$

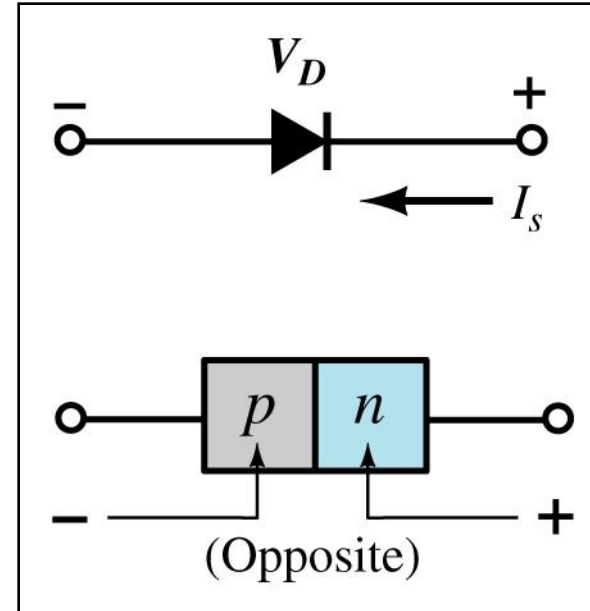
Only a modest depletion region exists



Diode Operating Conditions

Reverse Bias

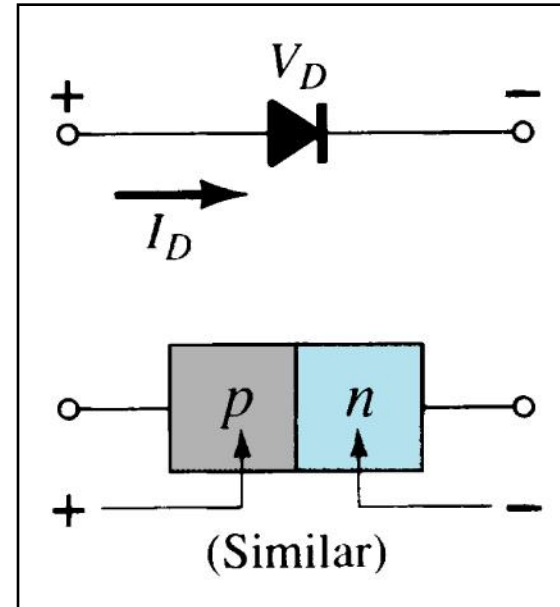
External voltage is applied across the p - n junction in the opposite polarity of the p - and n -type materials.



Diode Operating Conditions

Forward Bias

External voltage is applied across the p - n junction in the same polarity as the p - and n -type materials.



Equação de Schokley

(polarização direta)

$$I_D = I_s(e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1) \quad (\text{A})$$

$$V_T = \frac{kT_K}{q} \quad (\text{V})$$

(thermal voltage)

k é a constante de Boltzmann = $1,38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K

T_K é a temperatura absoluta em Kelvin = 273 +
temperatura em °C

q é a magnitude da carga eletrônica = $1,6 \times 10^{-19}$ C

$1 < n < 2$ is an ideally factor which a function of the operating conditions and physical construction

(Thermal Voltage)

$$V_T = \frac{kT_K}{q} \quad (\text{V})$$

$$\begin{aligned} T &= 273 + ^\circ\text{C} = 273 + 27 = 300 \text{ K} \\ V_T &= \frac{kT_K}{q} = \frac{(1,38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})(30 \text{ K})}{1,6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}} \\ &= 25,875 \text{ mV} \cong 26 \text{ mV} \end{aligned}$$

k é a constante de Boltzmann = $1,38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$

T_K é a temperatura absoluta em Kelvin = $273 +$
temperatura em $^\circ\text{C}$

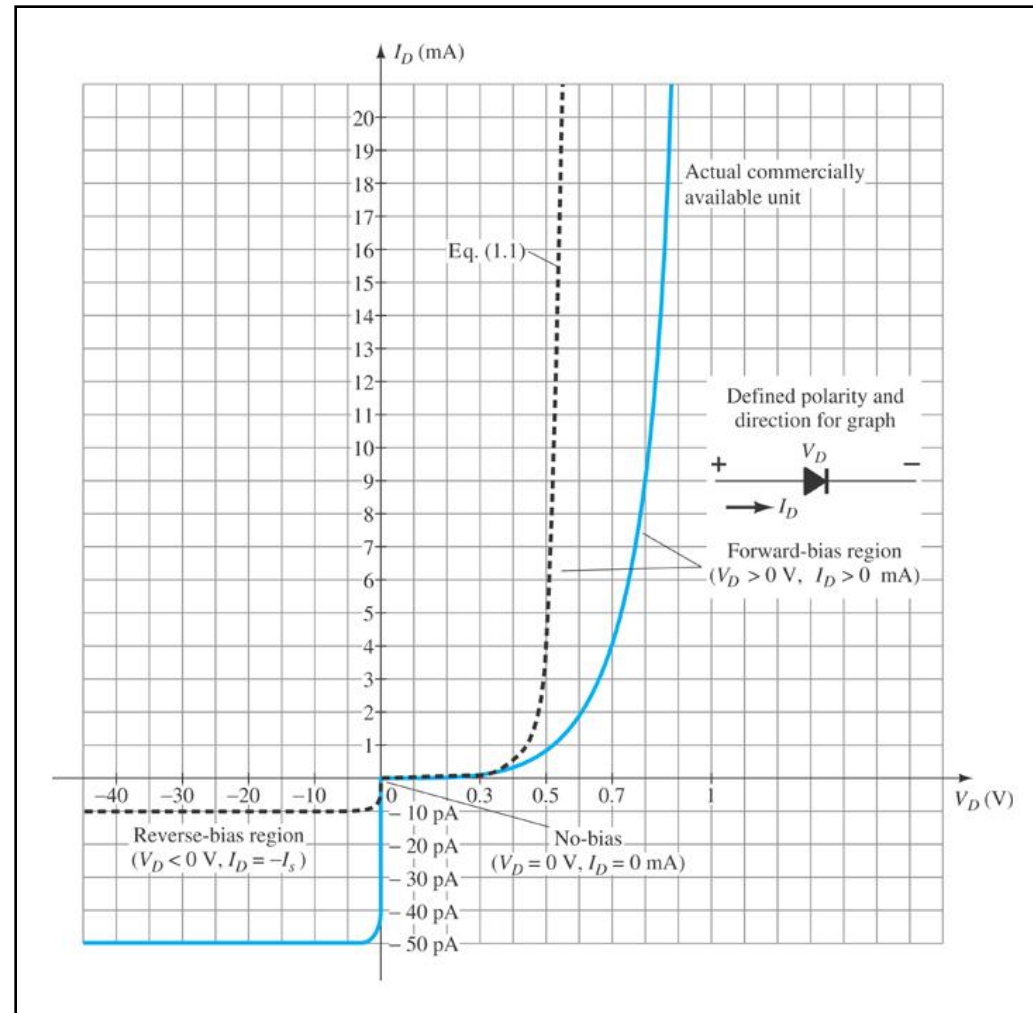
q é a magnitude da carga eletrônica = $1,6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

$n=1$ is na idelly factor which a function of the operating conditions and physical construction

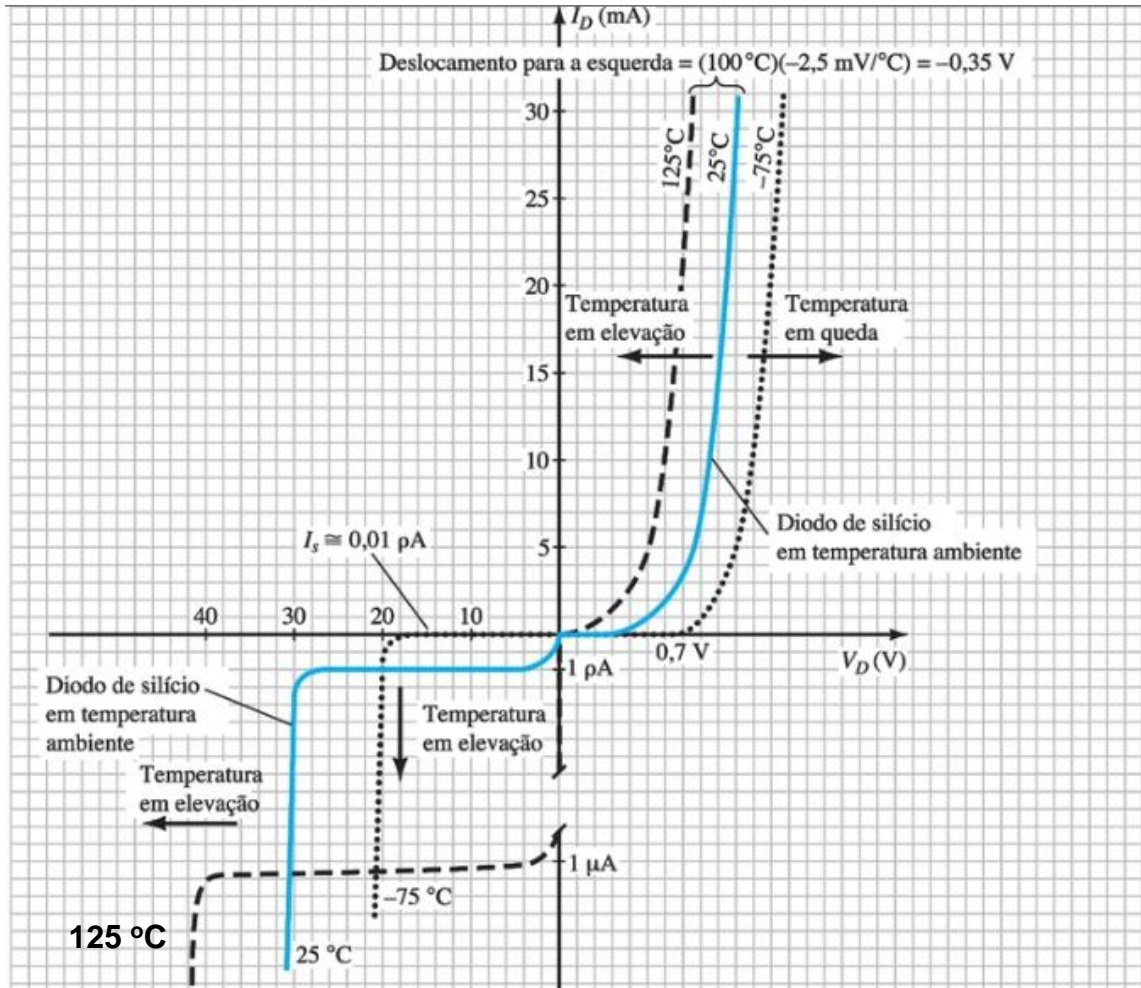
Actual Diode Characteristics

Note the regions for no bias, reverse bias, and forward bias conditions.

Note the scale for each of these conditions.

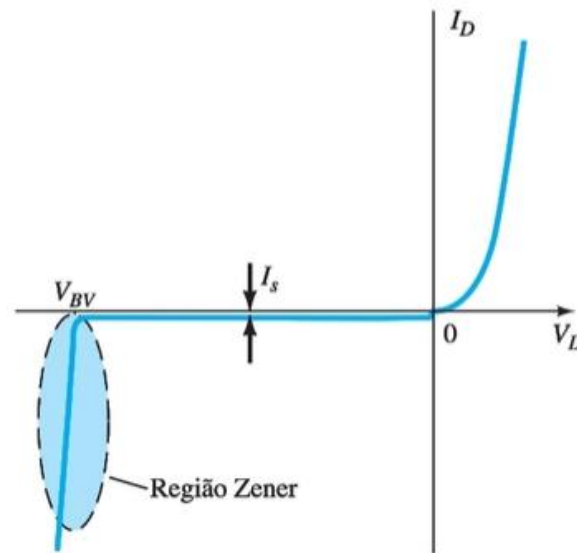


Temperature Effects



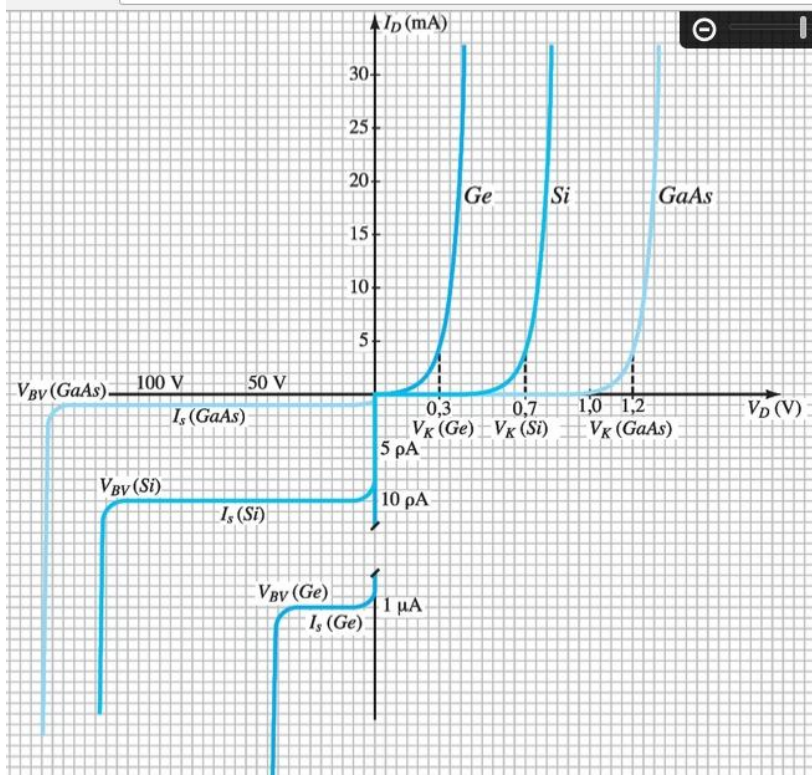
Germanium diodes are more sensitive to temperature variations than silicon or gallium arsenide diodes.

Breakdown Voltage (B_V)



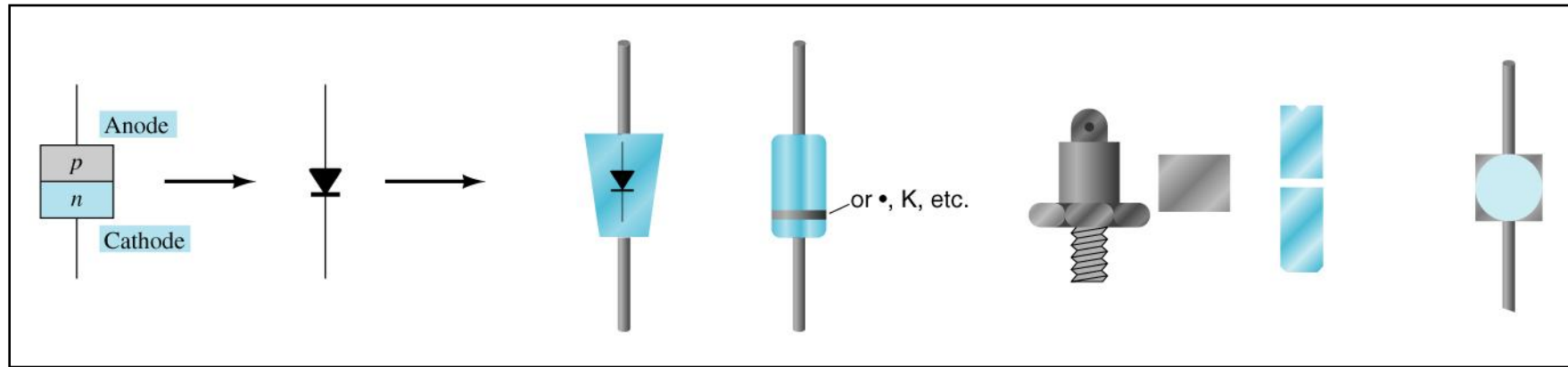
As the voltage across the diode increases in the reverse-bias region, the velocity of the minority carriers responsible for the reverse saturation current (I_s) will also increase. Eventually their velocity and associated kinetic energy will be sufficient to release additional carriers through collisions with otherwise stable atomic structures. That is, **an ionization process will result** whereby valence electrons absorb sufficient energy to leave the parent atom. The additional carriers can then aid the ionization process to the point where a high avalanche current is established and the avalanche breakdown region determined.

Breakdown Voltage (B_V)



- GaAs typically has maximum B_V levels that exceed those of Si of the same power level by about 10%. Both have $50V < B_V < 1KV$.
- There are Si power diodes with breakdown voltages as high as 20KV.
- Ge typically has breakdown voltage of less than 100V with maximum around 400V.

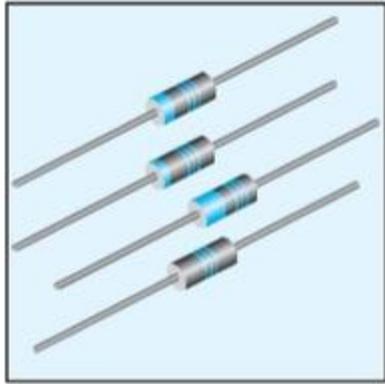
Diode Symbol and Packaging



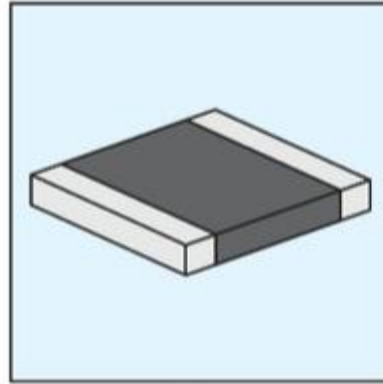
The anode is abbreviated A

The cathode is abbreviated K

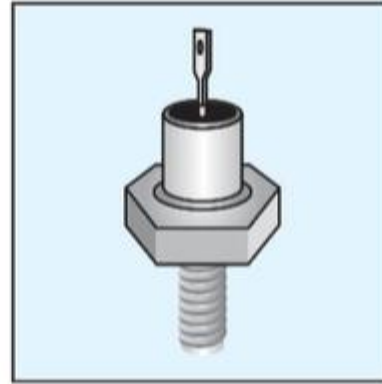
Types of Diodes



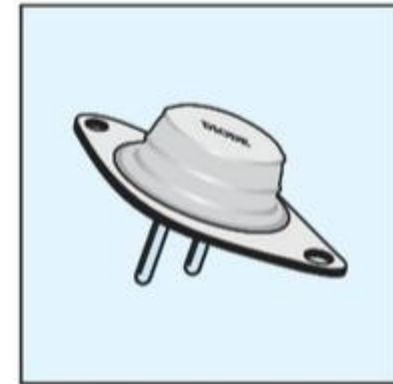
Diodo de uso geral



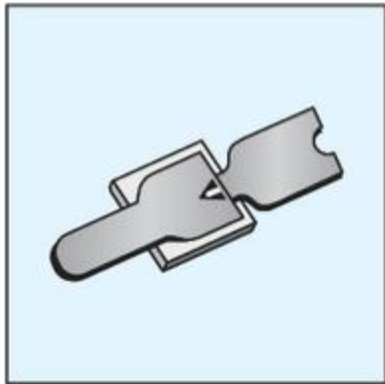
Diodo PIN de alta potência para montagem em superfície



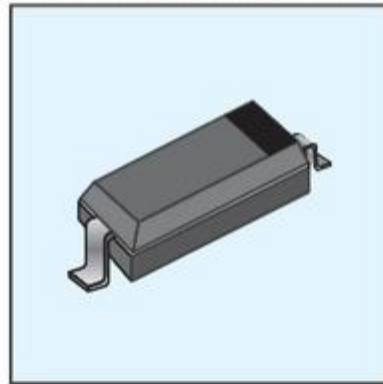
Diodo de potência (com rosca)



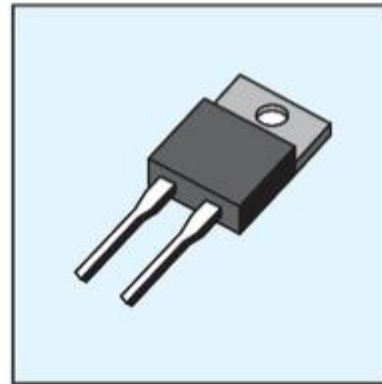
Diodo de potência (com tecnologia planar)



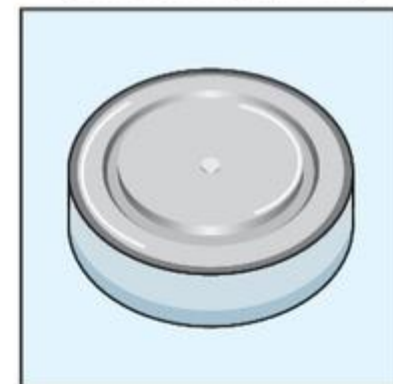
Diodo PIN (beam lead)



Diodo chip para montagem em superfície



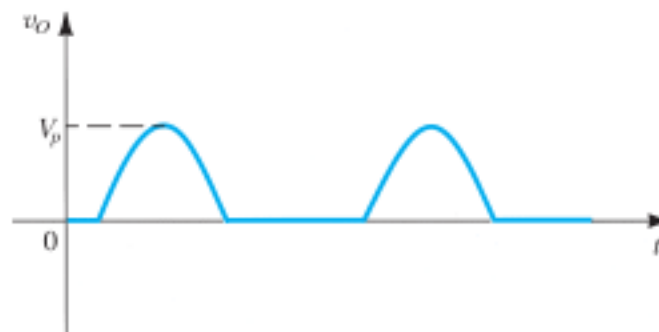
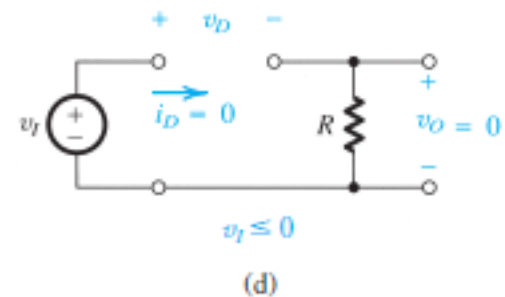
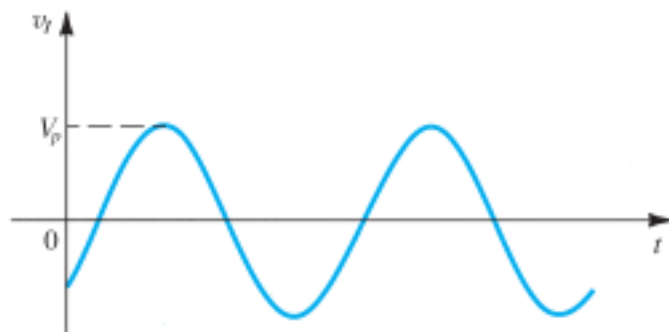
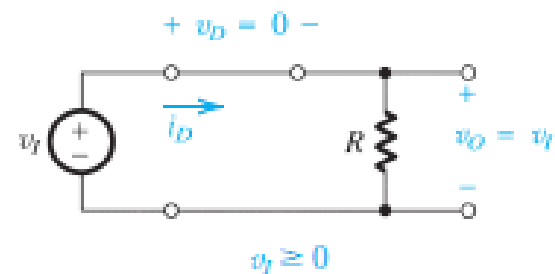
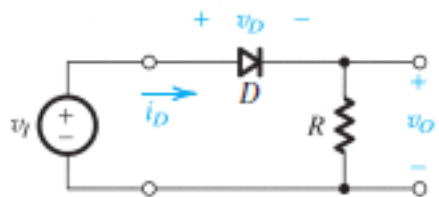
Diodo de potência



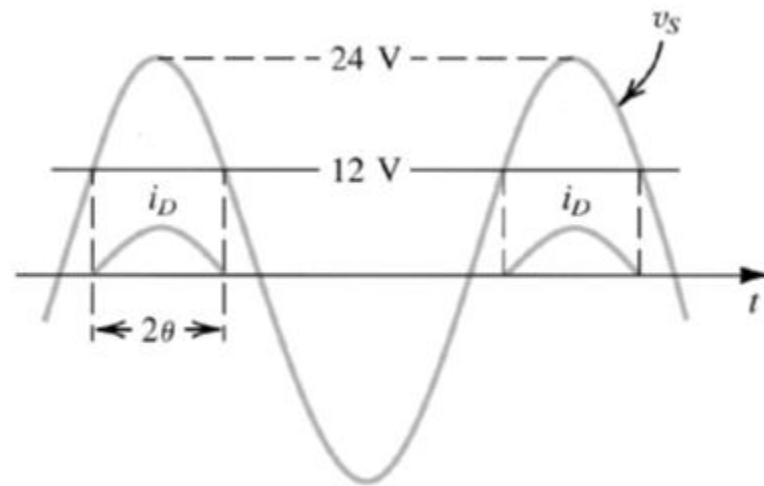
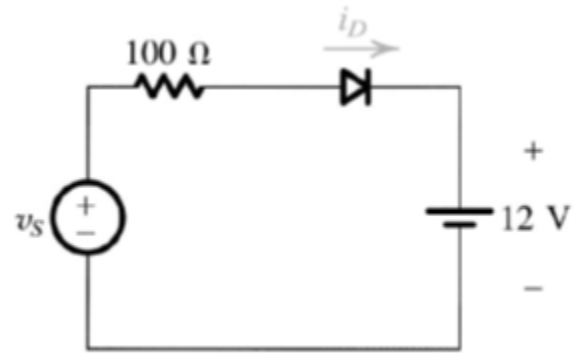
Diodo de potência (tipo disco)

Applications

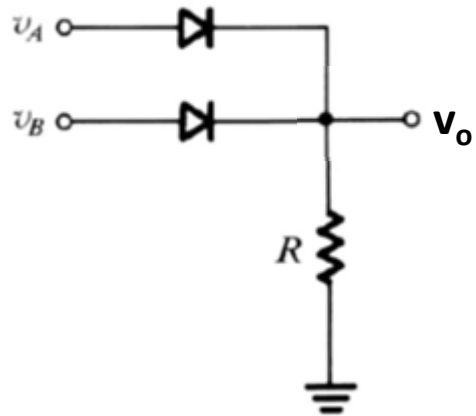
Retificador de 1/2 onda



Carregador de Bateria

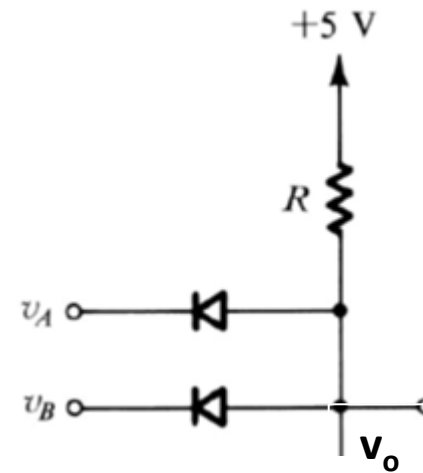


Porta OR



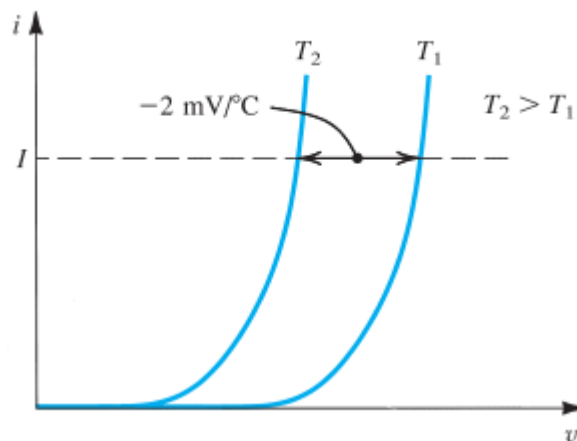
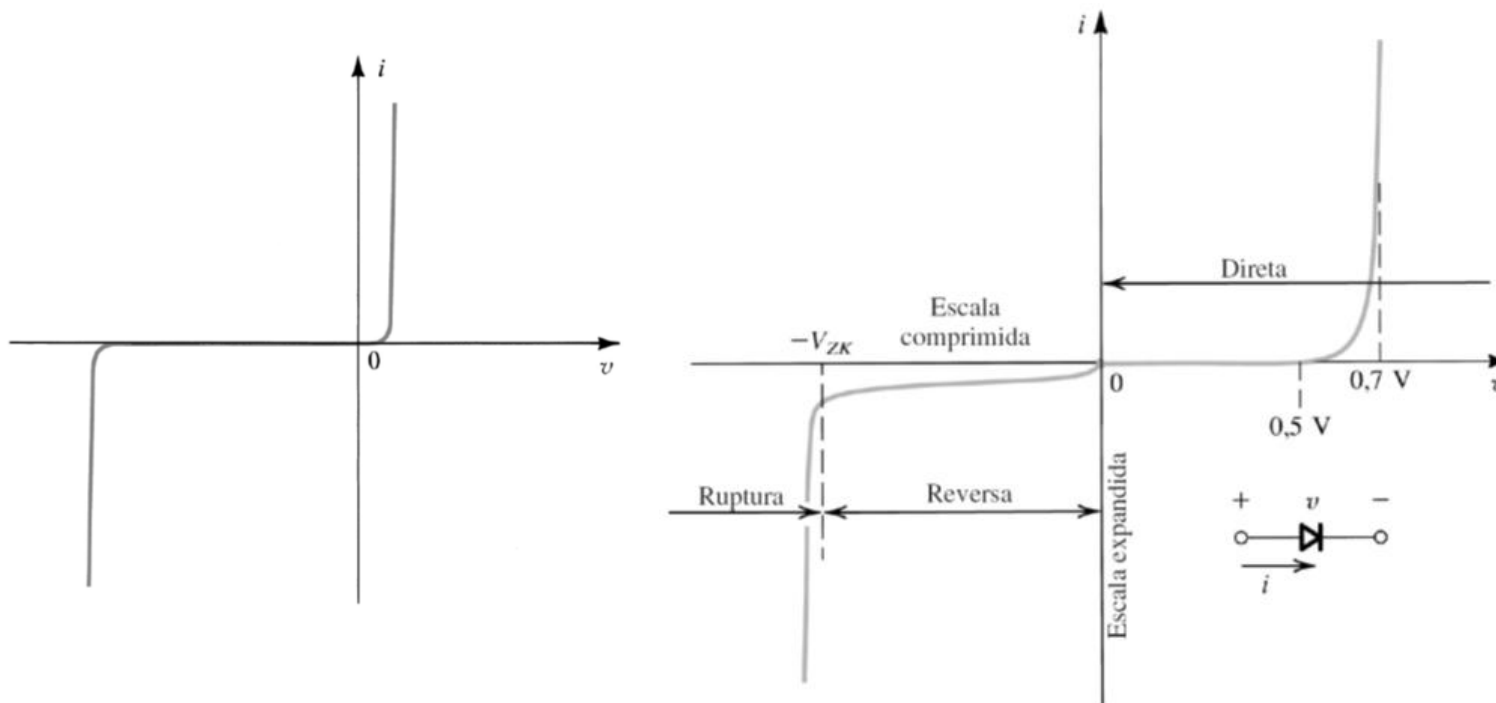
v_A (V)	v_B (V)	v_O (V)
0	0	
0	5	
5	0	
5	5	

Porta AND



v_A (V)	v_B (V)	v_O (V)
0	0	
0	5	
5	0	
5	5	

Características Corrente - Tensão



Temperature dependence of the diode forward characteristic. At a constant current, the voltage drop decreases by approximately 2 mV for every 1°C increase in temperature.

Características Corrente - Tensão



$$i = I_s (e^{v/nv_T} - 1)$$
$$V_T = \frac{kT}{q}$$

k = Boltzmann's constant = 8.62×10^{-5} eV/K = 1.38×10^{-23} joules/kelvin

T = the absolute temperature in kelvins = 273 + temperature in °C

q = the magnitude of electronic charge = 1.60×10^{-19} coulomb

$n = 1$ - integrated circuits diode

$n = 2$ - discrete diodes



$$V_T = \frac{kT}{q} \quad \longrightarrow \quad V_T = 0.0862T, \text{ mV}$$

$$\text{at } 27^\circ \text{C} \quad \longrightarrow \quad V_T = 25,875 \text{ mV}$$

Características Corrente - Tensão

■ $i = I_S (e^{v/nv_T} - 1)$

Se $i \gg I_S$ e $n=1$:

$$i = I_S e^{v/V_T} \longrightarrow v = V_T \ln \frac{i}{I_S}$$

Exercício:

A silicon diode said to be a 1-mA device displays a forward voltage of 0.7 V at a current of 1 mA. Evaluate the junction scaling constant I_S .

$$i = I_S e^{v/nV_T} \quad \longrightarrow \quad I_S = i e^{-v/nV_T}$$

$$\text{Se } n=1: \quad \longrightarrow \quad I_S = 6,9 \times 10^{-16} \approx 10^{-15} \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Se } n=2: \quad \longrightarrow \quad I_S = 8,3 \times 10^{-10} \approx 10^{-9} \text{ A}$$

Resistance Levels

Semiconductors react differently to DC and AC currents.

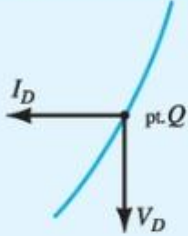
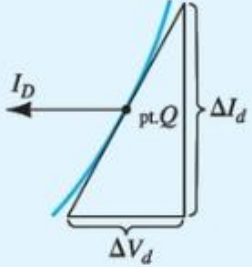
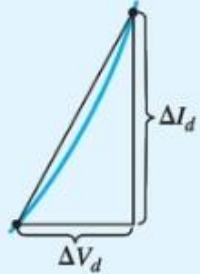
There are three types of resistance:

DC (static) resistance

AC (dynamic) resistance

Average AC resistance

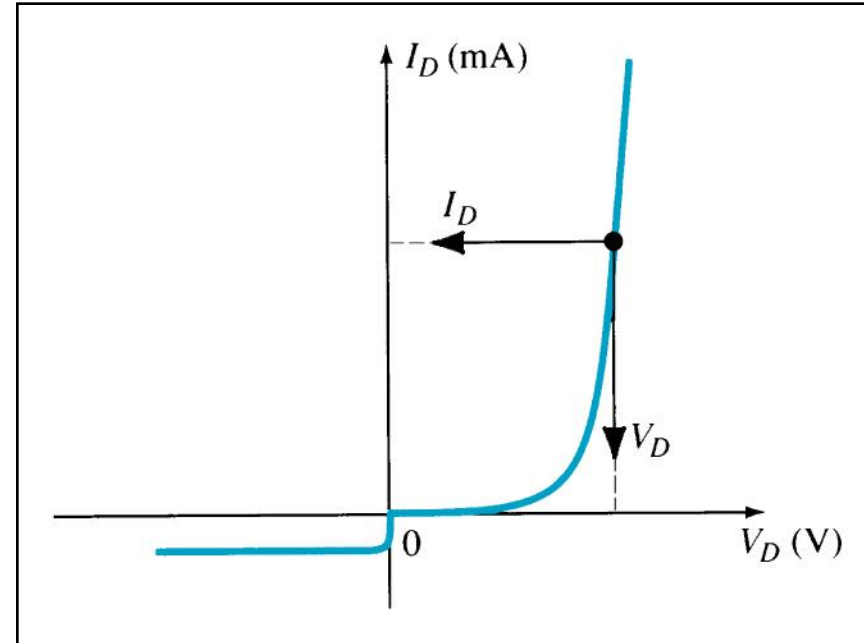
Resistance Levels

Tipo	Equação	Características especiais	Representação gráfica
CC ou estática	$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D}$	Definida como um ponto na curva característica	 <p>A graph with a blue curve. A point labeled 'pt. Q' is marked on the curve. A horizontal arrow labeled I_D points to the left from the point, and a vertical arrow labeled V_D points downwards from the point.</p>
CA ou dinâmica	$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D}$	Definida por uma linha tangente no ponto Q	 <p>A graph with a blue curve. A point labeled 'pt. Q' is marked on the curve. A blue tangent line is drawn at this point. A horizontal bracket labeled ΔV_d is shown below the tangent line, and a vertical bracket labeled ΔI_d is shown to the right of the tangent line.</p>
CA média	$r_{av} = \left. \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} \right _{\text{pt. a pt.}}$	Definida por uma linha reta entre os limites de operação	 <p>A graph with a blue curve. Two points are marked on the curve. A blue secant line connects these two points. A horizontal bracket labeled ΔV_d is shown below the secant line, and a vertical bracket labeled ΔI_d is shown to the right of the secant line.</p>

DC (Static) Resistance

For a specific applied DC voltage (V_D) the diode has a specific current (I_D) and a specific resistance (R_D).

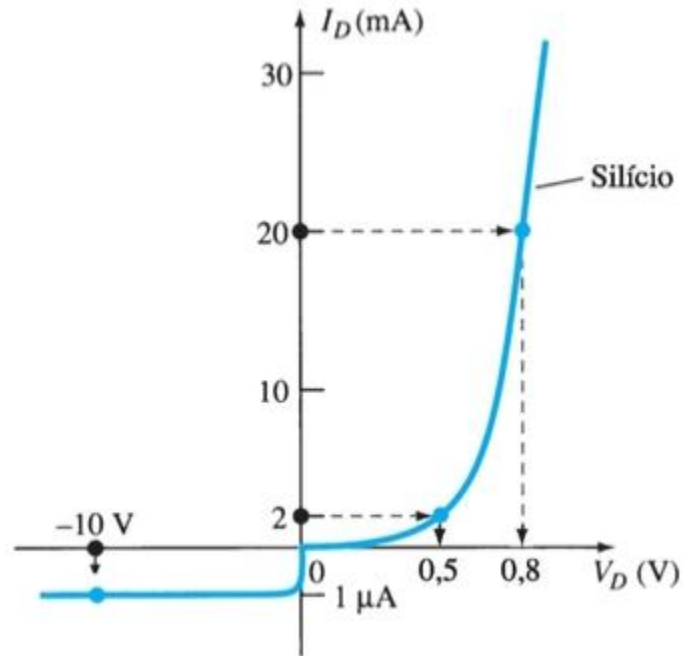
$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D}$$



Exemplo:

Determine os níveis de resistência CC do diodo da Figura 1.24 em

- a) $I_D = 2 \text{ mA}$ (nível baixo)
- b) $I_D = 20 \text{ mA}$ (nível alto)
- c) $V_D = -10 \text{ V}$ (polarização reversa)



- a) Em $I_D = 2 \text{ mA}$, $V_D = 0,5 \text{ V}$ (da curva) e

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D} = \frac{0,5 \text{ V}}{2 \text{ mA}} = \mathbf{250 \Omega}$$

- b) Em $I_D = 20 \text{ mA}$, $V_D = 0,8 \text{ V}$ (da curva) e

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D} = \frac{0,8 \text{ V}}{20 \text{ mA}} = \mathbf{40 \Omega}$$

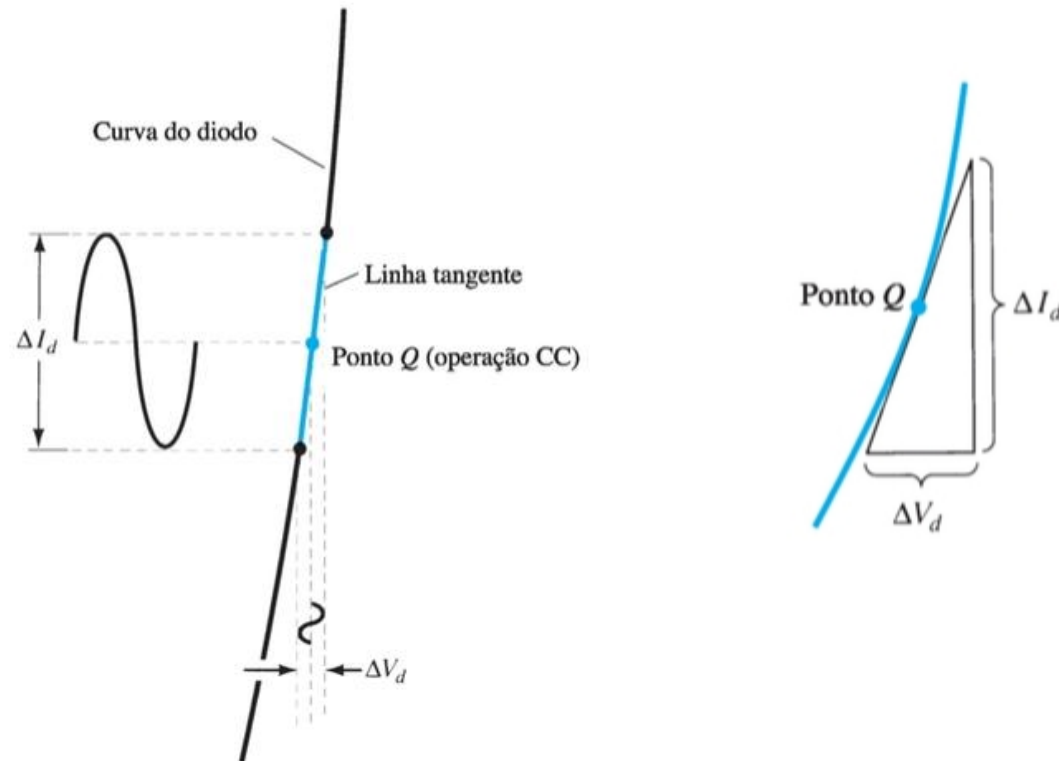
- c) Em $V_D = -10 \text{ V}$, $I_D = -I_S = -1 \mu\text{A}$ (da curva) e

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D} = \frac{10 \text{ V}}{1 \mu\text{A}} = \mathbf{10 \text{ M}\Omega}$$

AC (Dynamic) Resistance

A straight line drawn tangent to the curve through the Q-point will define a particular change in voltage and current that can be used to determine the ac or dynamic resistance for this section of the diode characteristic.

An effort should be made to keep the change in voltage and current as small as possible and equidistant to either side of the Q-point.



Exemplo:

Para a curva característica da Figura 1.27:

- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 2$ mA.
- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 25$ mA.
- Compare os resultados das partes (a) e (b) para as resistências CC em cada nível de corrente.

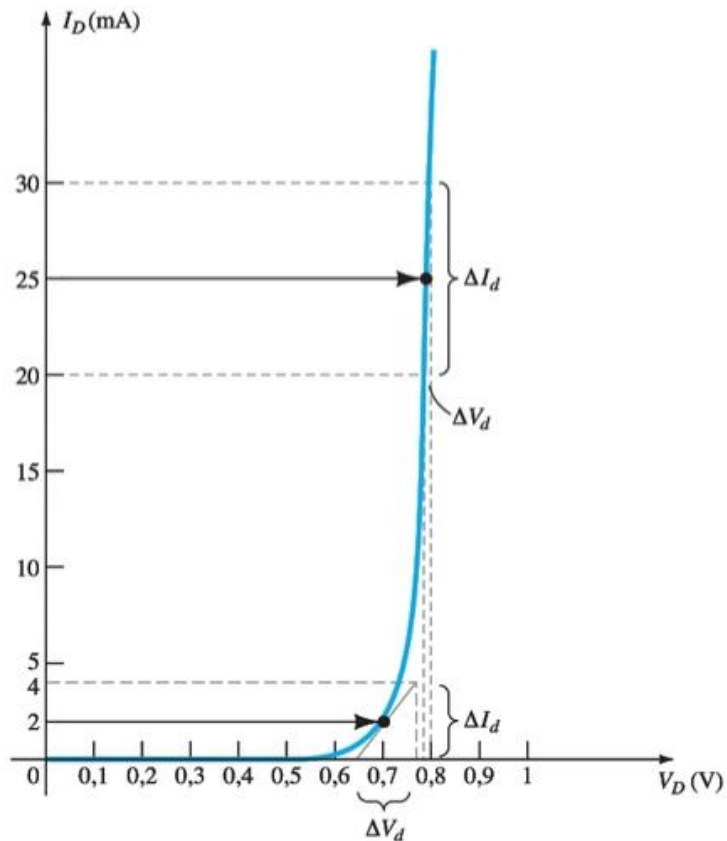


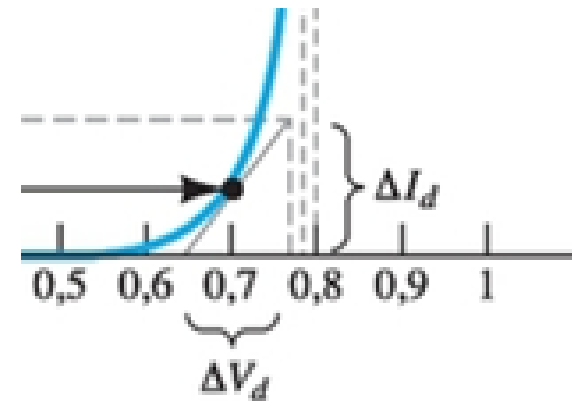
Fig. 27

- a) Para $I_D = 2$ mA, a linha tangente em $I_D = 2$ mA foi traçada como mostrado na Figura 1.27 e foi escolhida uma amplitude de 2 mA acima e abaixo da corrente do diodo especificada. Em $I_D = 4$ mA, $V_D = 0,76$ V; em $I_D = 0$ mA, $V_D = 0,65$ V. As variações resultantes em corrente e tensão são, respectivamente,

$$\Delta I_d = 4 \text{ mA} - 0 \text{ mA} = 4 \text{ mA}$$

e

$$\Delta V_d = 0,76 \text{ V} - 0,65 \text{ V} = 0,11 \text{ V}$$



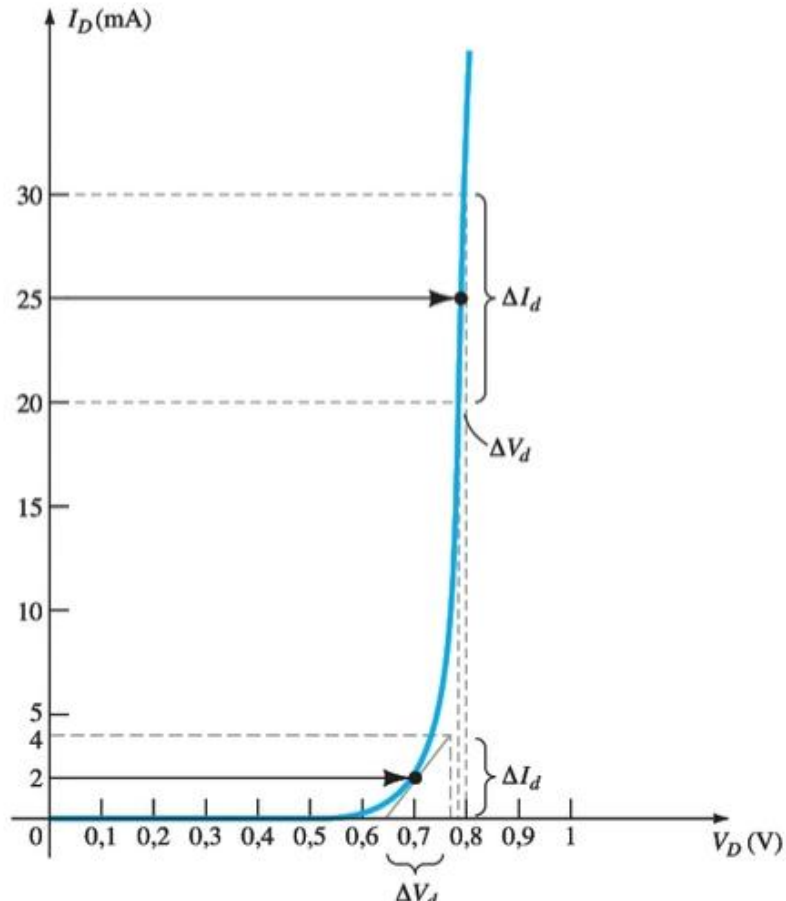
e a resistência CA é

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} = \frac{0,11 \text{ V}}{4 \text{ mA}} = 27,5 \Omega$$

Exemplo:

Para a curva característica da Figura 1.27:

- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 2$ mA.
- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 25$ mA.
- Compare os resultados das partes (a) e (b) para as resistências CC em cada nível de corrente.



- b) Para $I_D = 25$ mA, a linha tangente em $I_D = 25$ mA foi traçada como mostrado na Figura 1.27 e foi escolhida uma amplitude de 5 mA acima e abaixo da corrente de diodo especificada. Em $I_D = 30$ mA, $V_D = 0,8$ V; em $I_D = 20$ mA, $V_D = 0,78$ V. As variações resultantes em corrente e tensão são, respectivamente,

$$\Delta I_d = 30 \text{ mA} - 20 \text{ mA} = 10 \text{ mA}$$

e

$$\Delta V_d = 0,8 \text{ V} - 0,78 \text{ V} = 0,02 \text{ V}$$

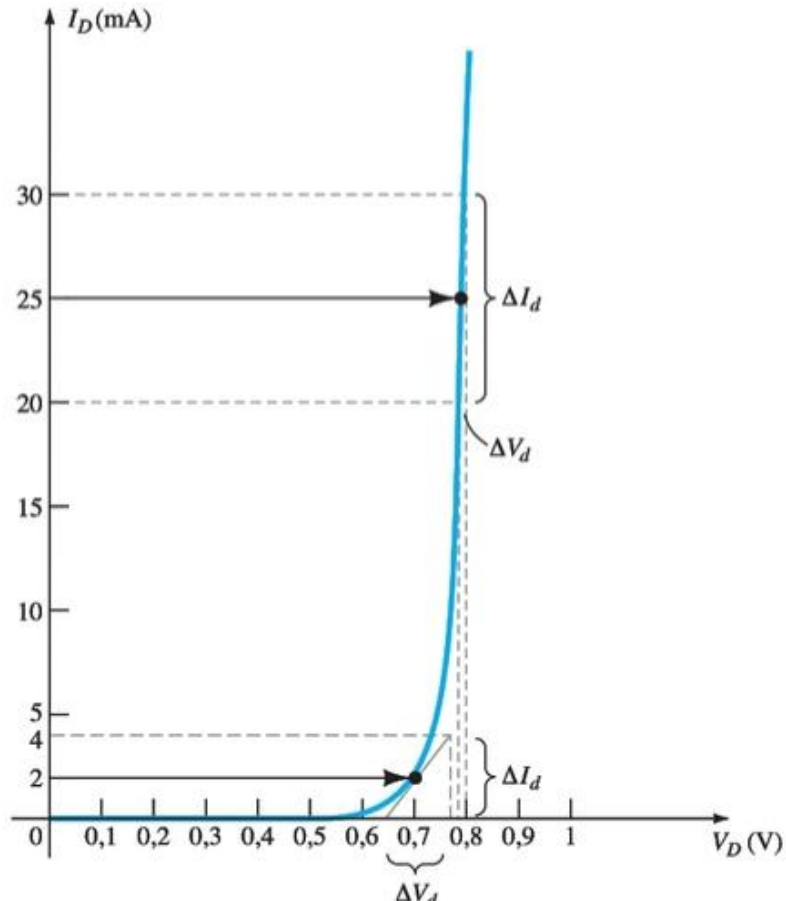
e a resistência CA é

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} = \frac{0,02 \text{ V}}{10 \text{ mA}} = 2 \Omega$$

Exemplo:

Para a curva característica da Figura 1.27:

- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 2 \text{ mA}$.
- Determine a resistência CA em $I_D = 25 \text{ mA}$.
- Compare os resultados das partes (a) e (b) para as resistências CC em cada nível de corrente.



Para $I_D = 2 \text{ mA}$, $V_D = 0,7 \text{ V}$ e

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D} = \frac{0,7 \text{ V}}{2 \text{ mA}} = 350 \Omega$$

o que excede em muito o r_d de 27,5 Ω .

Para $I_D = 25 \text{ mA}$, $V_D = 0,79 \text{ V}$ e

$$R_D = \frac{V_D}{I_D} = \frac{0,79 \text{ V}}{25 \text{ mA}} = 31,62 \Omega$$

o que excede em muito o r_d de 2 Ω .

AC (Dynamic) Resistance

$$I_D = I_s(e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1) \quad (\text{A})$$

$$V_T = \frac{kT_K}{q} \quad (\text{V})$$

k é a constante de Boltzmann = $1,38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K
 T_K é a temperatura absoluta em Kelvin = 273 +
 temperatura em °C
 q é a magnitude da carga eletrônica = $1,6 \times 10^{-19}$ C

$$\frac{d}{dV_D}(I_D) = \frac{d}{dV_D}[I_s(e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1)] \rightarrow \frac{dI_D}{dV_D} = \frac{1}{nV_T}(I_D + I_s) \xrightarrow{I_D \gg I_s} \frac{dI_D}{dV_D} \cong \frac{I_D}{nV_T}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{dI_D}{dV_D} \cong \frac{I_D}{nV_T} \rightarrow \frac{dV_D}{dI_D} = r_d = \frac{nV_T}{I_D} \xrightarrow{n=1 \text{ e } V_T \cong 26 \text{ mV}} \boxed{r_d = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D}}$$

(due to pn junction)

$$\rightarrow \boxed{r'_d = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D} + r_B} \text{ ohms}$$

r_B is the resistance of the semiconductor material itself
 (**body resistance**) + the resistance introduced by the
 connection between the semiconductor material and
 the external metallic conductor (**contact resistance**)

AC (Dynamic) Resistance

In the forward bias region:

$$r'_d = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D} + r_B$$

The resistance depends on the amount of current (I_D) in the diode.

The voltage across the diode is fairly constant (26 mV for 25°C).

r_B ranges from a typical 0.1 Ω for high power devices to 2 Ω for low power, general purpose diodes. In some cases r_B can be ignored.

In the reverse bias region:

$$r'_d = \infty$$

The resistance is effectively infinite. The diode acts like an open circuit.

AC (Dynamic) Resistance

There is no need to worry about sketching tangente lines as defined for AC resistance.. It is important to keep in mind, however, that the equation of r_d is accurate only for values of I_D in the vertical-rise section of the curve.

For lesser values of I_D , the value of r_d obtained must be multiplied by a fator of 2 (Si). For small values of I_D below the knee of the curve, the equation of r_d becomes inappropriate.

Exemplo

In the example saw the ac resistance at 25 mA was calculated to be 2Ω. Using the r_d equation:

$$r_d = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D} = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{25 \text{ mA}} = 1,04 \Omega$$

The difference of about 1Ω could be treated as the contribution of r_B .

AC (Dynamic) Resistance

Exemplo

In the example saw the ac resistance at 2 mA was calculated to be 27.5Ω. Using the r_d equation but multiplying by a factor of 2 for this region (knee):

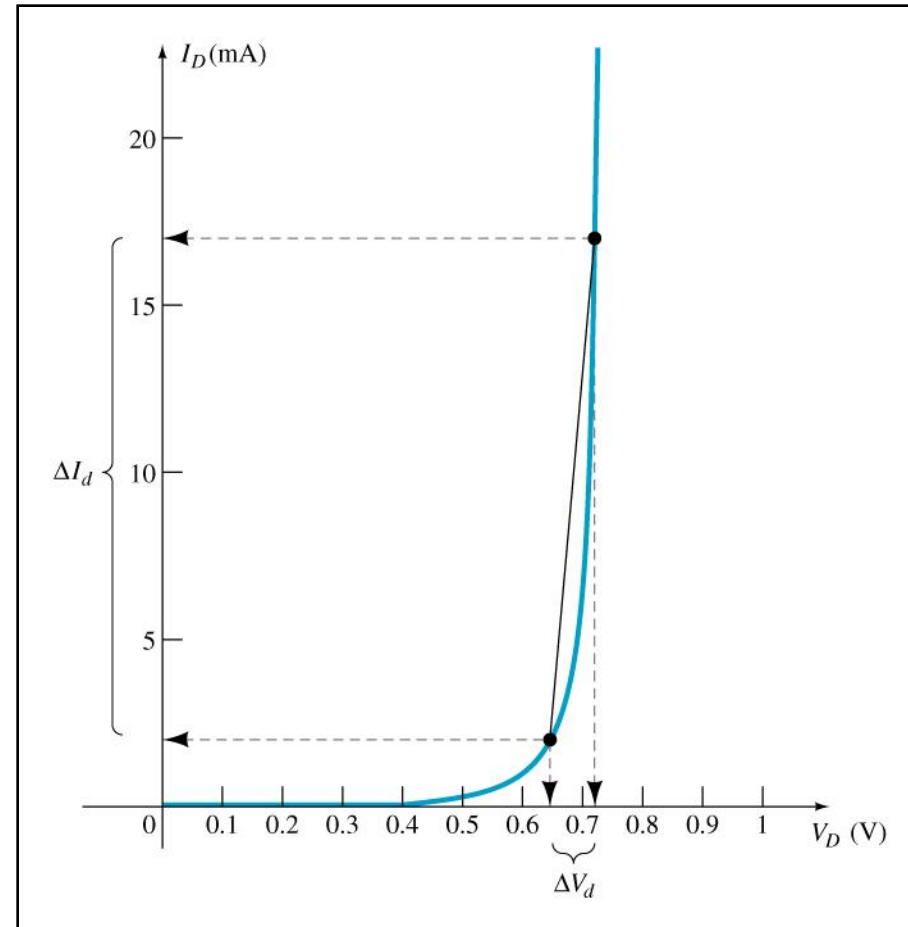
$$r_d = 2\left(\frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_D}\right) = 2\left(\frac{26 \text{ mV}}{2 \text{ mA}}\right) = 2(13 \Omega) = 26 \Omega$$

The difference of about 1.5Ω could be treated as the contribution of r_B .

Average AC Resistance

$$r_{av} = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} \quad | \quad \textit{pt. to pt.}$$

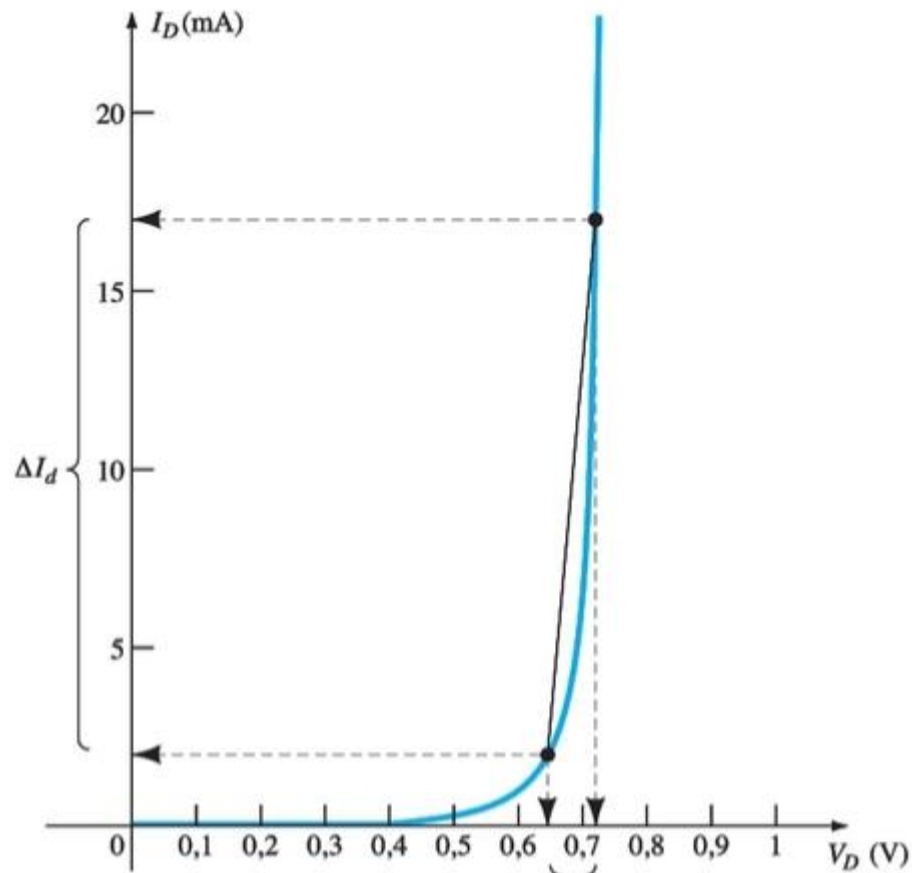
If the input signal is sufficiently large to produce a broad swing the resistance for this region is called **Average AC resistance**.



Average AC Resistance

Exemplo:

For the situation shown in the curve below calculate r_{av} .

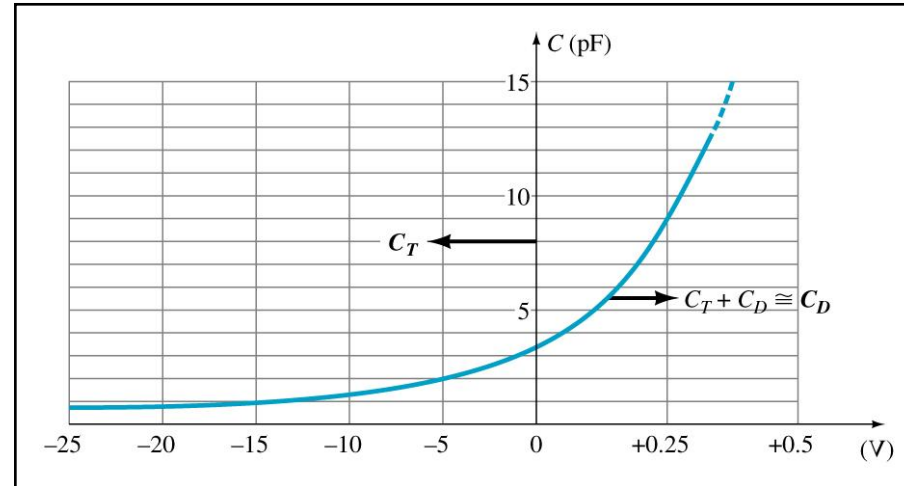


$$\Delta I_d = 17 \text{ mA} - 2 \text{ mA} = 15 \text{ mA}$$

$$e \quad \Delta V_d = 0,725 \text{ V} - 0,65 \text{ V} = 0,075 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{com} \quad r_{av} = \frac{\Delta V_d}{\Delta I_d} = \frac{0,075 \text{ V}}{15 \text{ mA}} = 5 \Omega$$

Diode Capacitance



When **reverse biased** the depletion layer is very large. The diode's strong positive and negative polarities create capacitance (**C_T** , **transition capacitance**). The amount of capacitance depends on the reverse voltage applied.

$$C_T = \frac{C(0)}{(1 + |V_R/V_K|)^n}$$

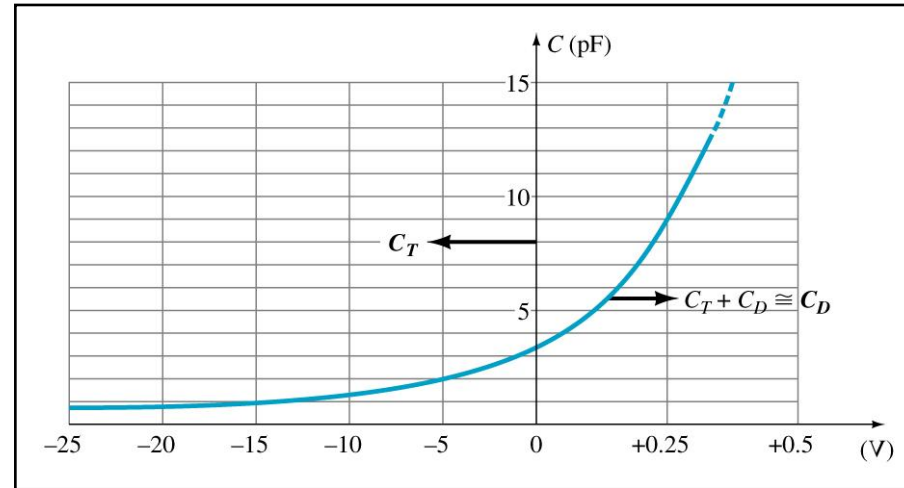
$C(0)$ is the capacitance under no-bias conditions.

V_R is the applied reverse bias potential

V_K is the junction potential with no bias

n is 1/2 or 1/3 depending on the manufacturing process.

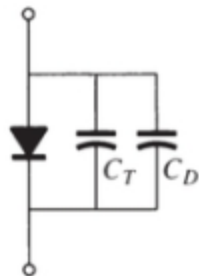
Diode Capacitance



When **forward biased** storage capacitance or diffusion capacitance (C_D) exists as the diode voltage increases.

$$C_D = \left(\frac{\tau_r}{V_K} \right) I_D$$

τ_r is the minority carrier life time. For example, the time for a minority carrier such as a hole to recombine with an electron in the n-type material



For low or mid-frequency applications (except in the power area), however, the capacitor is normally not included in the diode symbol.

Reverse Recovery Time (t_{rr})

In the **forward-bias state** it was shown earlier that there are a large number of electrons from the n-type material progressing through the p-type material and a large numbers of holes in the n-type material – **a requirement for conduction**.

The electrons in the p-type material and holes progressing through the n-type material establish a large number o minority carriers in each material In each material.

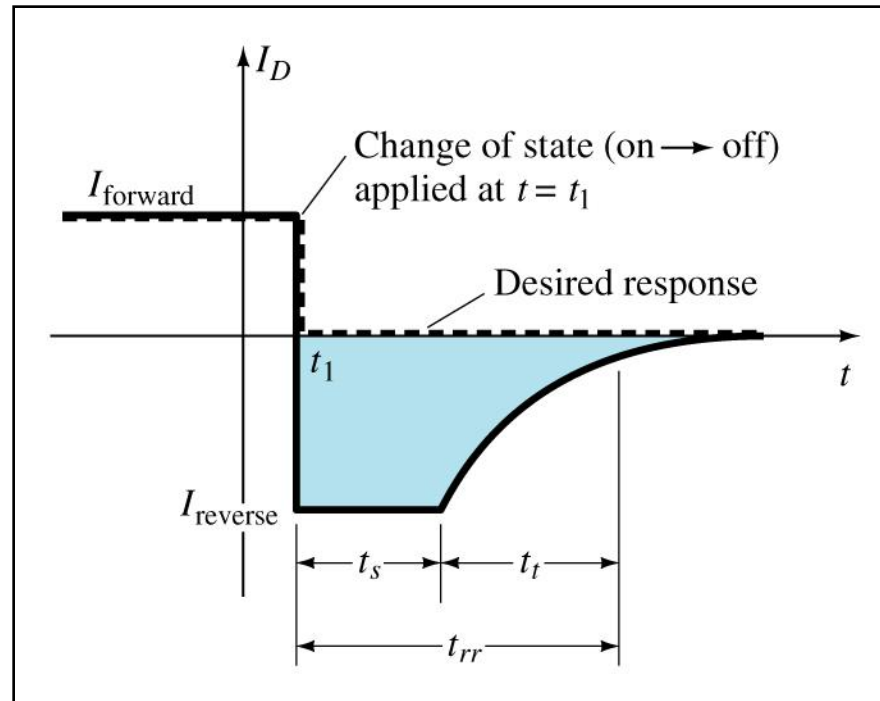
If the applied voltage should be reversed to establish a reverse bias situation, we would ideally like to see the diode change instantaneously frm the conduction state to the nonconduction state.

However because of the large number of minority carriers in each material, the diode current will simply reverse as shown in the figure and stay at this measurable level for the period of time **t_s (storage time)** required for the minority carriers to return to their majority-carrier state in the opposite material.

Eventually, when this storage phase has passed, the current will be reduced in leve to that associated with the nonconduction state. This second period of time is the **t_t (transition time)**. The **$(t_{rr}) = t_s + t_t$** .

Reverse Recovery Time (t_{rr})

Reverse recovery time is the time required for a diode to stop conducting when switched from forward bias to reverse bias.



Diode Specification Sheets

DIODO DE SILÍCIO POR DIFUSÃO COM TECNOLOGIA PLANAR

• BV ... 125 V (MÍN) @ 100 μ A (BAY73)

ESPECIFICAÇÕES ABSOLUTAS MÁXIMAS (Nota 1)

Temperaturas

Faixa de temperatura de armazenamento	-65° até +200°C
Máxima temperatura de operação da junção	+175°C
Temperatura dos terminais	+260°C

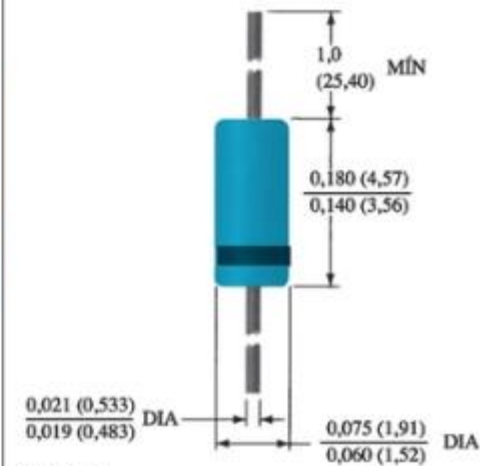
Dissipação de potência (Nota 2)

Máxima dissipação de potência total à temperatura ambiente de 25°C	500 mW
Fator linear de redução de potência (de 25°C)	-3,33 mW/°C

Correntes e tensão máximas

WIV	Tensão Reversa de Trabalho BAY73	100 V
I_O	Corrente retificada média	200 mA
I_P	Corrente direta contínua	500 mA
i_f	Corrente direta repetitiva de pico	600 mA
$i_{f(\text{surto})}$	Corrente direta de surto de pico	
	Largura de pulso = 1 s	1,0 A
	Largura de pulso = 1 μ s	4,0 A

Encapsulamento DO-35



NOTAS:

Terminais de aço revestidos com cobre estanhado.
Terminais revestidos com ouro disponíveis.
Encapsulamento de vidro hermeticamente fechado.
O peso do encapsulamento é 0,14 grama.

Diode Specification Sheets

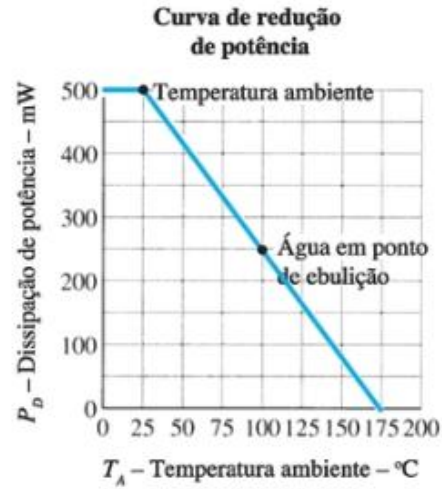
CARACTERÍSTICAS ELÉTRICAS (temperatura ambiente de 25 °C, a menos que indicado de outro modo)

	SÍMBOLO	CARACTERÍSTICA	BAY73		UNIDADES	CONDIÇÕES DE TESTE
			MÍN	MÁX		
E	V_F	Tensão direta	0,85	1,00	V	$I_F = 200 \text{ mA}$
			0,81	0,94	V	$I_F = 100 \text{ mA}$
			0,78	0,88	V	$I_F = 50 \text{ mA}$
			0,69	0,80	V	$I_F = 10 \text{ mA}$
			0,67	0,75	V	$I_F = 5,0 \text{ mA}$
			0,60	0,68	V	$I_F = 1,0 \text{ mA}$
F	I_R	Corrente reversa		500	nA	$V_R = 20 \text{ V}, T_A = 125^\circ\text{C}$
				1,0	μA	$V_R = 100 \text{ V}, T_A = 125^\circ\text{C}$
				0,2	nA	$V_R = 20\text{V}, T_A = 25^\circ\text{C}$
				0,5	nA	$V_R = 100\text{V}, T_A = 25^\circ\text{C}$
	BV	Tensão de ruptura	125		V	$I_R = 100 \mu\text{A}$
G	C	Capacitância		5,0	pF	$V_R = 0, f = 1,0 \text{ MHz}$
H	t_r	Tempo de recuperação reversa		3,0	μs	$I_F = 10 \text{ mA}, V_R = 35 \text{ V}$ $R_L = 1,0 \text{ a } 100 \text{ k}\Omega$ $C_L = 10 \text{ pF}, \text{JAN } 256$

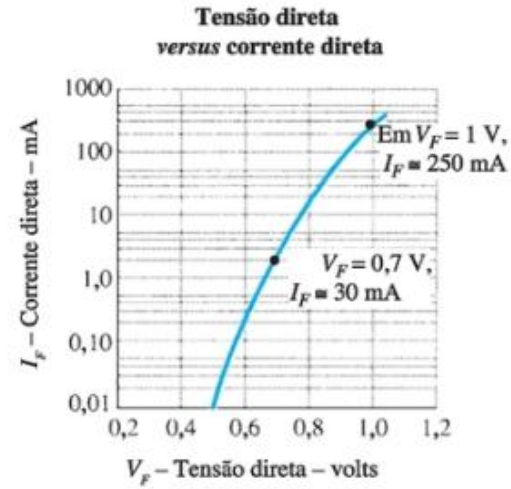
Notas:

- Essas especificações são valores limitantes acima dos quais a utilidade do diodo pode ser prejudicada.
- Esses são limites para regime permanente. O fabricante deve ser consultado no caso de aplicações que envolvam pulso ou ciclos de trabalho baixos.

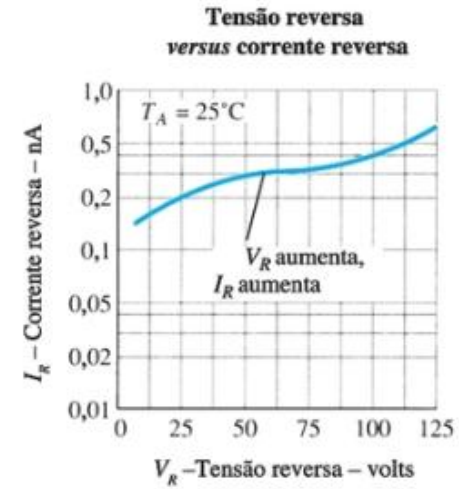
Diode Specification Sheets



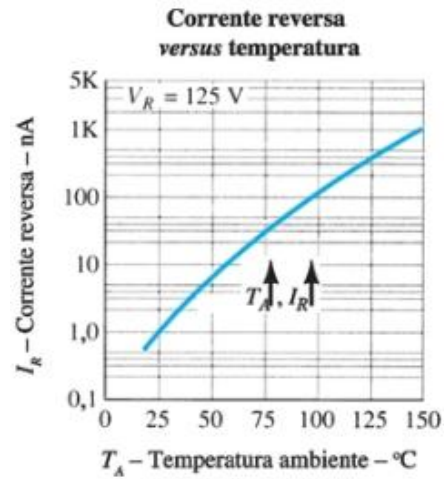
(a)



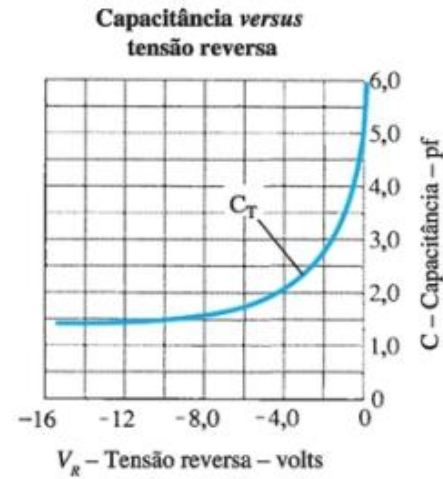
(b)



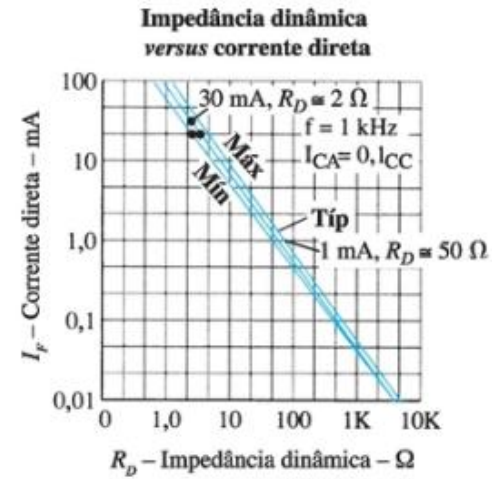
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Diode Specification Sheets

Diode data sheets contain standard information, making cross-matching of diodes for replacement or design easier.

1. Forward Voltage (V_F) at a specified current and temperature
2. Maximum forward current (I_F) at a specified temperature
3. Reverse saturation current (I_R) at a specified voltage and temperature
4. Reverse voltage rating, PIV or PRV or $V_{(BR)}$, at a specified temperature
5. Maximum power dissipation at a specified temperature
6. Capacitance levels
7. Reverse recovery time, t_{rr}
8. Operating temperature range

Diode Specification Sheets

A

A folha de dados realça o fato de que o diodo de alta tensão de silício possui uma tensão de polarização reversa *mínima* de 125 V a uma corrente de polarização reversa específica.

B

Observe a ampla faixa de temperatura de operação. Certifique-se de que as folhas de dados usem normalmente a escala Celsius, sendo que $200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} = 392\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$ e $-65\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} = -85\text{ }^{\circ}\text{F}$.

B

O nível máximo de dissipação de potência é dado por $P_D = V_D I_D = 500\text{ mW} = 0,5\text{ W}$. O efeito do fator linear de redução de potência de $3,33\text{ mW}/^{\circ}\text{C}$ é demonstrado na Figura 1.37(a). Quando a temperatura excede $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, a potência máxima nominal cai $3,33\text{ mW}$ para cada aumento de $1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ na temperatura. A $100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, o ponto de ebulição da água, a potência máxima nominal cai à metade de seu valor original. Uma temperatura inicial de $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ é normal em um gabinete com equipamento eletrônico funcionando em situação de baixa potência.

Diode Specification Sheets

D

A máxima corrente direta contínua é 500 mA. O gráfico da Figura 1.37(b) revela que a corrente direta em 0,5 V é de, aproximadamente, 0,01 mA, mas salta para 1 mA (100 vezes mais) perto de 0,65 V. Em 0,8 V, a corrente é superior a 10 mA e, um pouco acima de 0,9 V, chega perto de 100 mA. A curva da Figura 1.37(b) certamente não se parece em nada com as curvas características das últimas seções. Isso se deve à utilização de uma escala logarítmica para a corrente e a uma escala linear para a tensão.

Se uma escala linear fosse usada para a corrente, seria impossível mostrar um intervalo de valores entre 0,01 a 1.000 mA. Se as divisões verticais estivessem em incrementos de 0,01 mA, seriam necessários 100 mil intervalos iguais sobre o eixo vertical para atingir 1.000 mA. Por ora, vamos admitir que o valor da tensão em determinados níveis de corrente possa ser encontrado por meio da interseção com a curva. Para valores verticais acima de um nível como 1,0 mA, o próximo nível será 2 mA, seguido por 3, 4 e 5 mA. Os níveis de 6 a 10 mA podem ser determinados apenas dividindo a distância em

intervalos iguais (não a real distribuição, mas próxima o suficiente para os gráficos fornecidos). Para o próximo nível, teríamos 10 mA, 20 mA, 30 mA e assim por diante. O gráfico da Figura 1.37(b) é chamado de *diagrama semilog*, referindo-se ao fato de que apenas um eixo utiliza escala logarítmica.

E

Os dados fornecem uma faixa de valores de V_F (tensões de polarização direta) para cada nível de corrente. Quanto mais alta a corrente direta, maior a polarização direta aplicada. Em 1 mA, constatamos que V_F pode variar de 0,6 V a 0,68 V, mas, em 200 mA, pode chegar a ser de 0,85 V a 1,00 V. Para toda a faixa de valores de corrente desde 0,6 V em 1 mA até 0,85 V em 200 mA, certamente é uma aproximação razoável usar 0,7 V como o valor médio.

F

Os dados fornecidos revelam claramente como a corrente de saturação reversa aumenta com a polarização reversa aplicada a uma temperatura fixa. A 25 °C, a corrente máxima de polarização reversa sobe de 0,2 nA para 0,5 nA devido a um aumento na tensão de polarização reversa pelo mesmo fator de 2,5. A 125 °C, ela salta de um fator de 2 para o nível elevado de 1 μ A. Note a mudança extrema na corrente de saturação reversa em função da temperatura na medida em que a corrente máxima salta de 0,2 nA a 25 °C para 500 nA a 125 °C (a uma tensão de polarização reversa fixa de 20 V). Um aumento

semelhante ocorre a um potencial de polarização reversa de 100 V. Os diagramas semilog das figuras 1.37(c) e (d) fornecem uma indicação de como a corrente de saturação reversa muda conforme as alterações na tensão reversa e na temperatura. À primeira vista, a Figura 1.37(c) poderia sugerir que a corrente de saturação reversa é bastante estável para variações na tensão reversa. No entanto, em alguns casos, isso pode ser o efeito da utilização de uma escala logarítmica para o eixo vertical. Na realidade, a corrente passou de um valor de 0,2 nA a um de 0,7 nA para a faixa de tensões que representa uma mudança de cerca de 6 para 1. O efeito drástico da temperatura sobre a corrente de saturação reversa é claramente mostrado na Figura 1.37(d). Em uma tensão de polarização reversa de 125 V, a corrente de polarização reversa aumenta de um nível de cerca de 1 nA a 25 °C para cerca de 1 μ A a 150 °C, um aumento de fator 1.000 em relação ao valor inicial.

G

Como mostram os dados listados na Figura 1.37(e), a capacitância de transição em uma tensão de polarização reversa de 0 V é igual a 5 pF em uma frequência de ensaio de 1 MHz. Note a forte mudança no valor da capacitância à medida que a tensão de polarização reversa aumenta. Como mencionado anteriormente, essa região sensível pode ser bem aproveitada no projeto de um dispositivo (Varactor; Capítulo 16) cuja capacitância terminal seja sensível à tensão aplicada.

H

O tempo de recuperação reversa é de 3 μ s para as condições de ensaio indicadas. Não é um tempo rápido para muitos dos sistemas de alto desempenho em uso nos dias de hoje. No entanto, é aceitável para uma variedade de aplicações de baixa e média frequências.

As curvas da Figura 1.37(f) fornecem uma indicação da magnitude da resistência CA do diodo em relação à corrente direta. A Seção 1.8 demonstrou claramente que a resistência dinâmica de um diodo diminui com o aumento da corrente. Ao subirmos pelo eixo da corrente na Figura 1.37(f), fica evidente que, se seguirmos a curva, a resistência dinâmica diminuirá. Em 0,1 mA, ela é próxima de 1 k Ω ; em 10 mA, 10 Ω ; e, em 100 mA, apenas 1 Ω ; isso claramente sustenta a discussão anterior. A menos que se tenha experiência em leitura de escalas logarítmicas, será desafiador interpretar a curva para os valores indicados, pois trata-se de um *diagrama dilog*. Tanto o eixo vertical quanto o horizontal empregam uma escala logarítmica.

Quanto mais se tem contato com as folhas de dados, mais “familiares” elas se tornam, em especial quando se compreende claramente o efeito de cada parâmetro para a aplicação analisada.

Diode Testing

Diodes are commonly tested using one of these types of equipment:

Diode checker

Ohmmeter

Curve tracer

Diode Checker

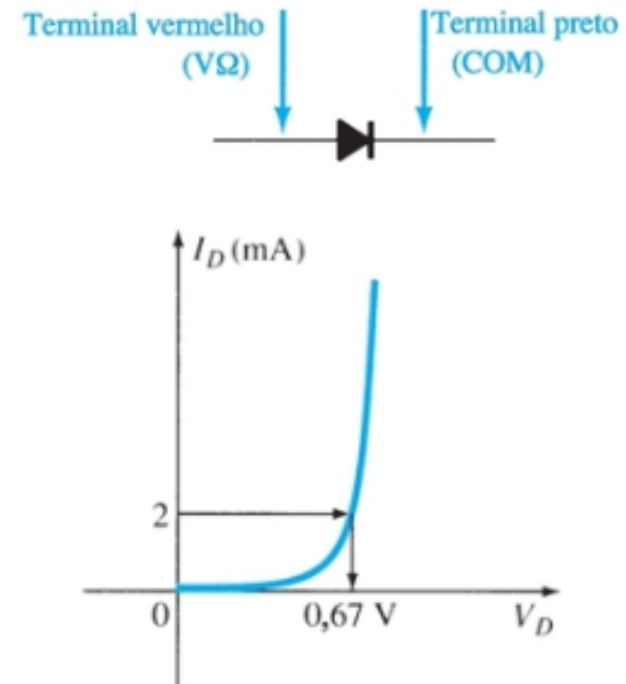
Many digital multimeters have a diode checking function. The diode should be tested out of circuit.

A normal diode exhibits its forward voltage:

Gallium arsenide $\cong 1.2$ V

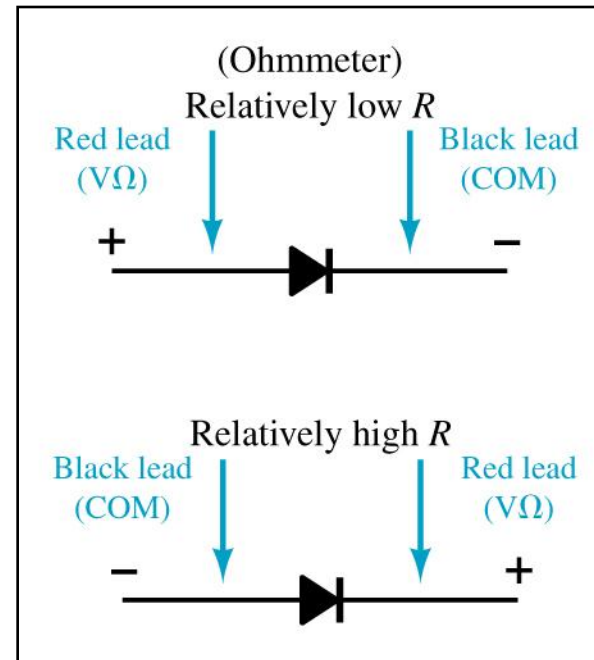
Silicon diode $\cong 0.7$ V

Germanium diode $\cong 0.3$ V



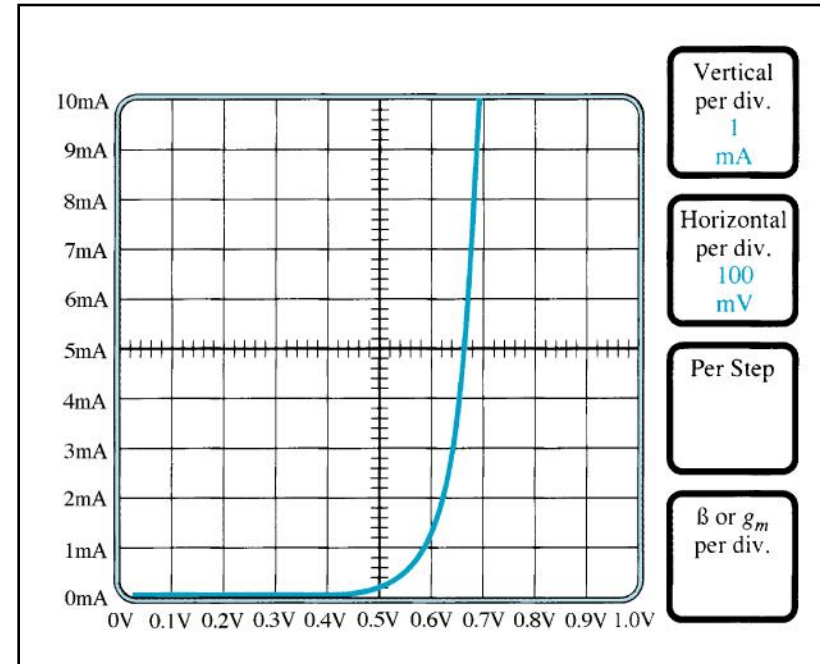
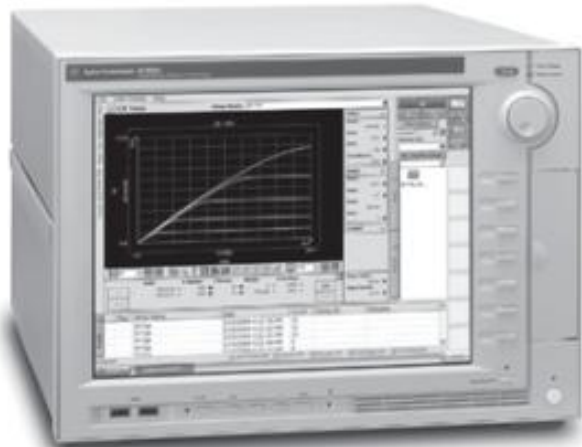
Ohmmeter

An ohmmeter set on a low Ohms scale can be used to test a diode. The diode should be tested out of circuit.



Curve Tracer

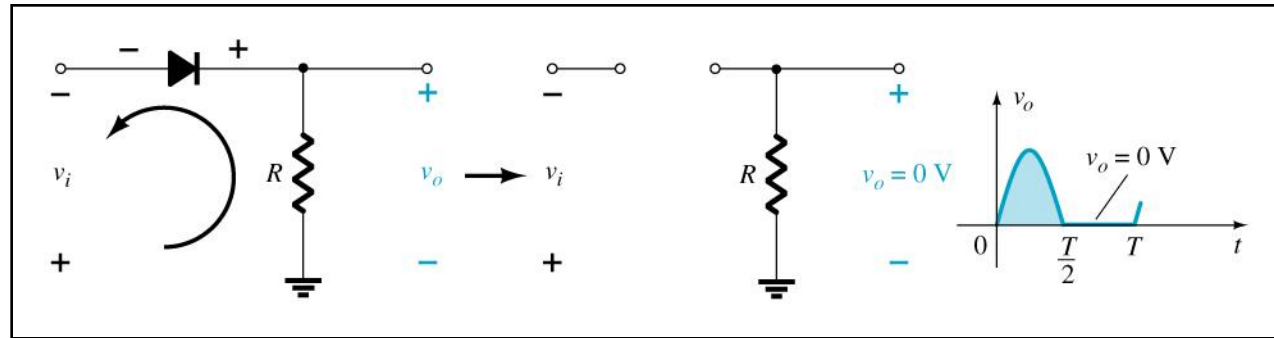
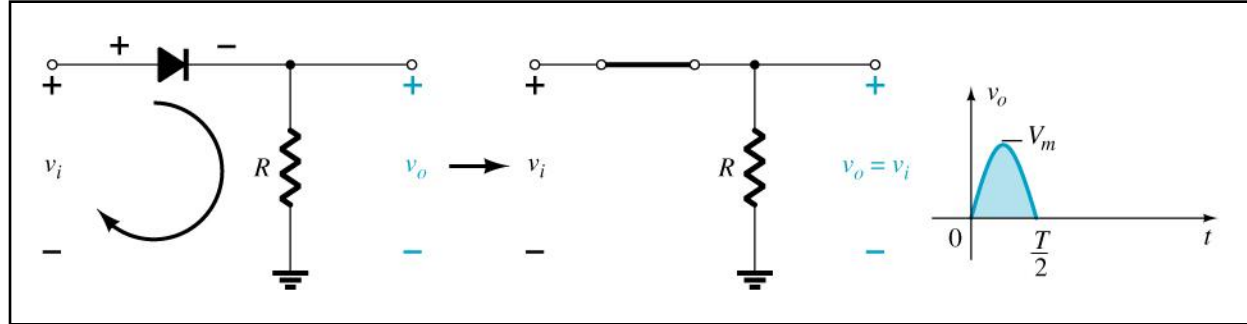
A curve tracer displays the characteristic curve of a diode in the test circuit. This curve can be compared to the specifications of the diode from a data sheet.



Rectifier Circuits

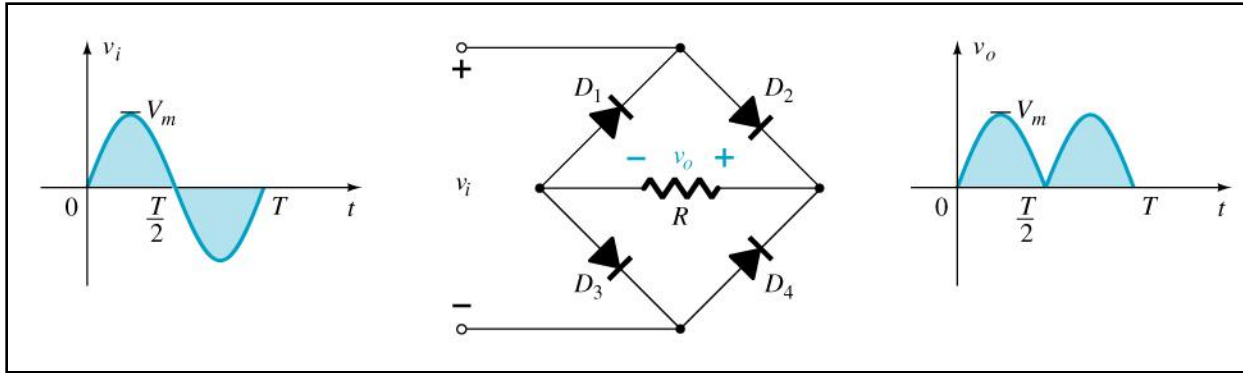
Half-Wave Rectification

The diode conducts only when it is forward biased, therefore only half of the AC cycle passes through the diode to the output.



Half-wave: $V_{dc} = 0.318 V_m$

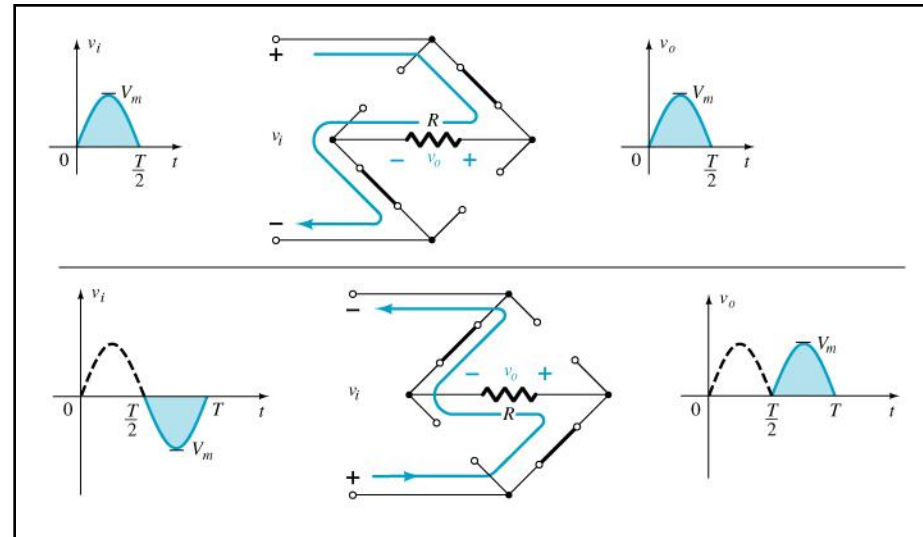
Full-Wave Rectification



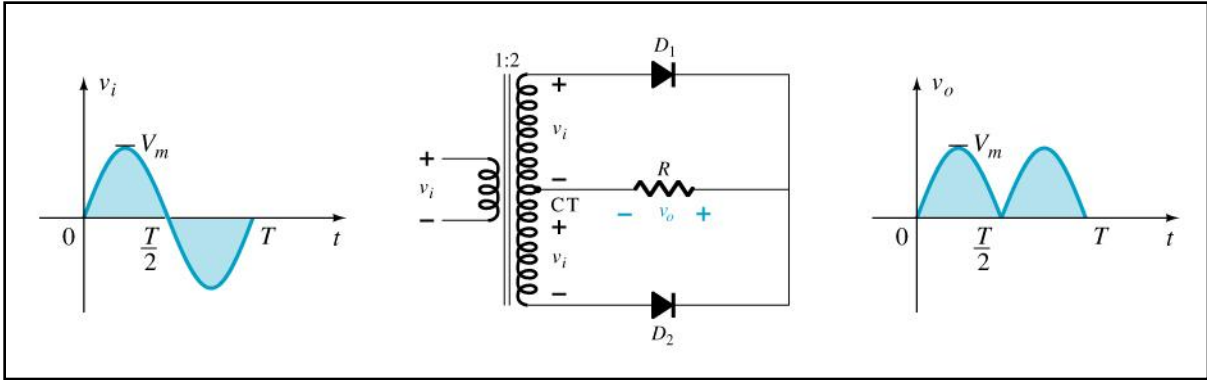
Bridge Rectifier

A full-wave rectifier with four diodes that are connected in a bridge configuration

$$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m$$



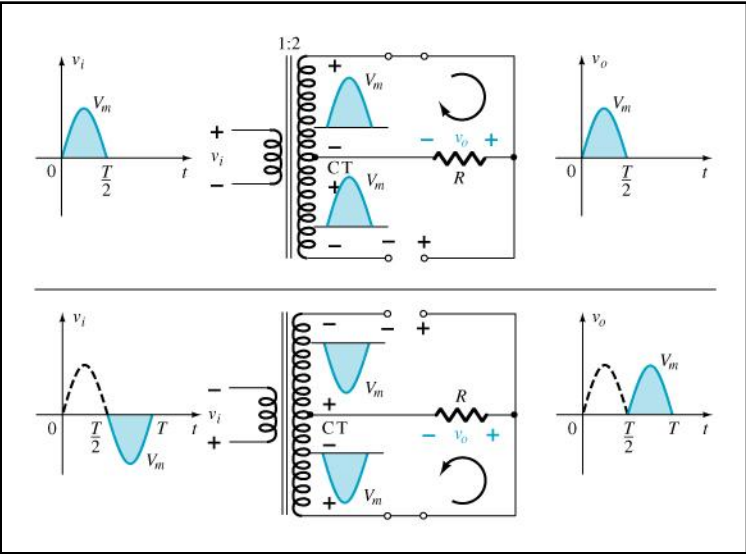
Center-Tapped Rectification



Center-Tapped
Transformer Rectifier

Requires two diodes and a center-tapped transformer

$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m$



Summary of Rectifier Circuits

In the center tapped transformer rectifier circuit, the peak AC voltage is the transformer secondary voltage to the tap.

Rectifier	Ideal V_{DC}	Realistic V_{DC}
Half Wave Rectifier	$V_{DC} = 0.318 V_m$	$V_{DC} = 0.318 V_m - 0.7$
Bridge Rectifier	$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m$	$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m - 2(0.7 \text{ V})$
Center-Tapped Transformer Rectifier	$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m$	$V_{DC} = 0.636 V_m - 0.7 \text{ V}$

V_m = the peak AC voltage

Conversores AC - DC

