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# LOW FREQUENCY NOISE MODELLING OF BIPOLAR JUNCTION TRANSISTORS FOR VLSI CIRCUITS

by

**Anthony Ng**

**B.A.Sc., Simon Fraser University, 1991**

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT  
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF  
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of

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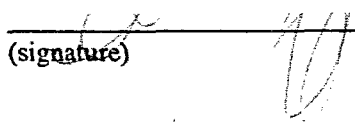
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# ABSTRACT

Bipolar junction transistors (BJTs) are widely used in a variety of digital and analog applications, and as an essential component in BiCMOS circuits. As the operating power and device geometry of bipolar junction transistors in VLSI technology are aggressively reduced to sub-micron dimensions, the effect of the device's noise becomes increasingly important to the overall performance of BJT-based circuits, particularly for communication applications.

In this thesis, a low frequency noise model for bipolar junction transistors that can predict their noise power under different operating conditions was developed. This model contains two low frequency noise sources: one due to diffusion noise which arises from mobility fluctuation, and the other due to GR noise which arises from the generation and recombination (GR) of carriers through trapping centers. Together with the current and emitter area dependence determined from the experiments, these two noise sources were combined into a single expression that gave good agreement with a wide range of low frequency noise data in BJTs as a function of frequency, temperature, base current and emitter area. This good agreement indicates that diffusion noise and GR noise are the dominant noise sources in the bipolar transistors studied, and a simple simulation model can be formulated using these two noise sources. A collector current fluctuation model due to fluctuating occupancy of the traps in the depletion region was also developed in this project in order to provide a physical explanation for the current and emitter area dependence observed. Based on this model, a simple way of measuring the trap activation energy from the noise data was discovered and verified.

For the experiments, seven bipolar transistors with emitter areas varying from  $1.6\mu\text{m}^2$  to  $144\mu\text{m}^2$  were used, and the noise measurements were performed at ten

temperatures between 283K to 373K with more than five biasing currents at each temperature, and at frequencies from 10Hz to 100kHz. The variation of the current noise power spectra  $S_{ib}(f)$  with the base current  $i_b$  shows that  $\frac{S_{ib}(f)}{i_b^\gamma}$  is approximately constant with  $\gamma \cong 2$ . Curve fitting the experimental carrier number fluctuation  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  using the GR noise model showed that  $S_{ib}(f)$  is proportional to the square of the collector current, and inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area. This experimental finding has a significant effect on the noise performance of small emitter area BJTs, for example, a reduction in area by results in almost an order of magnitude increase in the current noise power. A Fermi-level calculation indicates that the corresponding trap levels are close to 300 meV below the conduction band. Experimentally deduced relationships between the current noise power variation with emitter size and base current were in good agreement with predictions based on the collector current fluctuation model due to trapping centers in the depletion region developed for bipolar junction transistors in this research. Both the experimental results and theory developed add to present understanding, and to previously published information on low frequency noise in bipolar junction transistors.

In addition to the provision of a noise model that is simple enough to be used for simulation purposes, and detailed enough to describe the variation of flicker noise with frequency, temperature, base current and emitter area, the significance of this thesis work also includes the understanding of the noise characteristics of present and emerging bipolar transistors.

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# Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

Noise is some unpredictable and unwanted fluctuation that, when added to a signal, reduces the information content of that signal. The 'statics' heard in a radio, the 'snowy screen' of a television, and the fluctuation of a d.c. signal around its expected value are all examples of electronic noises. Noise in charge carriers defines the lowest limit of a signal that can be detected. Below this limit the signal would be 'drowned out' by the background noise. Electronics noise therefore directly affects the accuracy of measurements and the minimum power of a signal that can be used in a circuit to transmit information.

Since noise is random in nature, it is represented as a time varying random variable  $X(t)$  in noise theory. The mean value,  $\overline{X}$ , of  $X(t)$  and the variance of  $X(t)$  about its mean,  $\overline{\Delta X^2}$ , are two important parameters for characterizing the random variable  $X(t)$ . Another important characteristic of a random signal is its spectral density function (SDF). The spectrum density function of a signal describes how a signal distributes its power at different frequencies. From definition, SDF represents the time averaged noise power over a one Hertz bandwidth at any given frequency  $f$ . A white noise is a particular kind of noise which has a SDF that is constant for all frequencies. Thermal noise generated from a resistor and the shot noise generated in a current are white noises at low frequencies. In this thesis, the term 'noise power spectrum' would be used interchangeably with the term 'spectral density function'.

Noises always exist in electronic signals. A d.c. current  $I(t)$  or voltage  $V(t)$  is actually the summation of an ideal d.c. component and a fluctuating a.c. component.

The SDFs of a d.c. current  $I(t)$  and voltage  $V(t)$  are represented by  $S_I(f)$  and  $S_V(f)$  and abbreviated as their 'noise power spectra'. These noise spectra describe how their noise powers distribute at different frequencies. The noise voltage generator  $V_n(t) = \sqrt{S_V(f)}$  and noise current generator  $I_n(t) = \sqrt{S_I(f)}$  are defined such that the total noise power of a circuit can be evaluated by applying a.c. circuit theory to these quantities.

## 1.1 Noise in VLSI Bipolar Transistors

Bipolar transistors are widely used in a wide variety of analog applications and are now being considered as competitive candidates for some digital applications. Miniaturization through very large scale integration (VLSI) is a key method to increase the integrability and speed of these devices, and allows more devices to be packed together into a single circuit. For example, Intel's i486 microprocessor has more than 1.2 million transistors built into a single VLSI circuit with 50 times the performance of the original IBM PC. However, new problems are created in the process of miniaturization, among which the effect of "noisy" carriers is one of the most troublesome problems.

As charge carriers move through the miniaturized circuit, their interaction with objects inside the conduction channel create disruptions to the flow of the carriers similar to the way a rock creates 'rapids' inside a stream. The crystal lattice, space charges, impurities and lattice imperfection inside a conduction channel interact with the charge carriers and create fluctuations in both the number and the mobility of the carriers.

As the device size is being reduced aggressively, larger number of transistors are being packed into a single circuit to increase functionality and speed. The noise generated from these noisy carriers accumulate in the analog signals as these signals



propagate through each transistor in the circuit. As more and more transistors are packed together, the accumulated noise power eventually becomes comparable to the signal power and affects the performance of the overall circuit. This is why the noise effect of carriers can no longer be ignored and must be carefully considered in designing 'sensitive' circuits. Since many analog circuits also operate at low frequencies, and since VLSI technology will be used to implement high complexity analog circuits, the low frequency noise of bipolar transistor in VLSI technology must be studied in detail and reduced to a level that is low enough for the proper functioning of the current and future advanced circuits.

## **1.2 Noise Simulation**

Due to the long turn around time and the expensive cost of the actual fabrication of a VLSI circuit, noise simulation becomes a realistic alternative to determine whether the overall noise performance of a circuit would be good enough to allow a circuit function properly. In order to perform accurate noise simulation, a good noise model should be simple enough for large scale simulation and powerful enough to predict the variation of noise for a complete range of operating conditions such as different frequencies, temperatures, d.c. biases and device areas. The noise models currently implemented in HSPICE for bipolar transistor includes those of the flicker noise, shot noise and thermal noise. However, these models, only allows variations in the biasing level and frequency while other important factors like the device area and operating temperature have not been included. Without the ability to simulate the noise performance at different emitter areas and operating temperatures, devices of identical structure but with different device sizes must then be characterized separately for their noise model and each device has to be characterized at a range of operating temperatures. Furthermore, generation-recombination noise, which is a very important

type of noise that affects the noise performance of most modern transistors, is not included in these models.

### **1.3 Goal of the Project**

The primary goal of my M.A.Sc project is to investigate how the low frequency noise of some modern bipolar transistors varies with temperature, biasing conditions and their emitter areas, and to provide explanations for the variations observed. During my research, a one dimensional space-charge region carrier trapping model for bipolar transistors was developed to provide a physical explanation for the phenomena observed. This model takes into account the effects of the electrons trapped in the space-charge region on both the modification of the conduction channel resistance and the diffusion current.

Another goal my project is to develop a low frequency noise model for the bipolar transistors investigated. With suitable use of fitting parameters, the proposed model should be simple enough for simulation purposes and accurate enough to predict how the noise power varies at different frequencies, biasing conditions, temperatures and device sizes. Our noise model includes two noise mechanisms. One due to mobility fluctuation (diffusion noise), and the other is due to the generation and recombination of carriers through trapping centers (GR noise). Together with the current and emitter area dependence determined from the experiments, these two noise sources were combined into a single expression that gave good agreement with a wide range of flicker noise data in BJT's as a function of frequency, temperature, base current and emitter area. This good agreement indicates that diffusion and GR noise sources are the dominant ones in the bipolar transistors studied, and a simple simulation model can be formulated using these two noise sources.

For the experiments, seven bipolar transistors with emitter areas varying from  $1.6 \mu\text{m}^2$  to  $144\mu\text{m}^2$  were used, and the noise measurements were performed at ten temperatures between 283K to 373K with more than five biasing currents at each temperature, and at frequencies from 10Hz to 100kHz. The variation of the current noise power spectra  $S_{i_b}(f)$  with base current  $i_b$  show that  $S_{i_b}(f) / i_b^\gamma$  is approximately constant with  $\gamma \approx 2$ . The experimental results also show that the generation-recombination noise peaks at 303K and 355.5K. Curve fitting the experimental carrier number fluctuation  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  using the GR noise model shows that  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  is proportional to the square of the collector current, and is inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area. This experimental finding has a significant effect on the noise performance of small emitter area BJTs. For example, a reduction in area by results in almost an order of magnitude increase in the current noise power.

In summary, the significance of my thesis work is its contribution to the understanding of the noise characteristics of present and emerging bipolar transistors and the proposal of a simple yet accurate simulation model for these modern bipolar transistors.

## Chapter 2 Theoretical Background

### 2.1 Classification of Various Noise Sources in Bipolar Transistors

There are different kinds of noise sources in a bipolar transistor as shown in Figure 2.1. Flicker noise and generation recombination noise (GR noise) are low frequency noise because they have relatively higher noise power than other noise sources at low frequency.

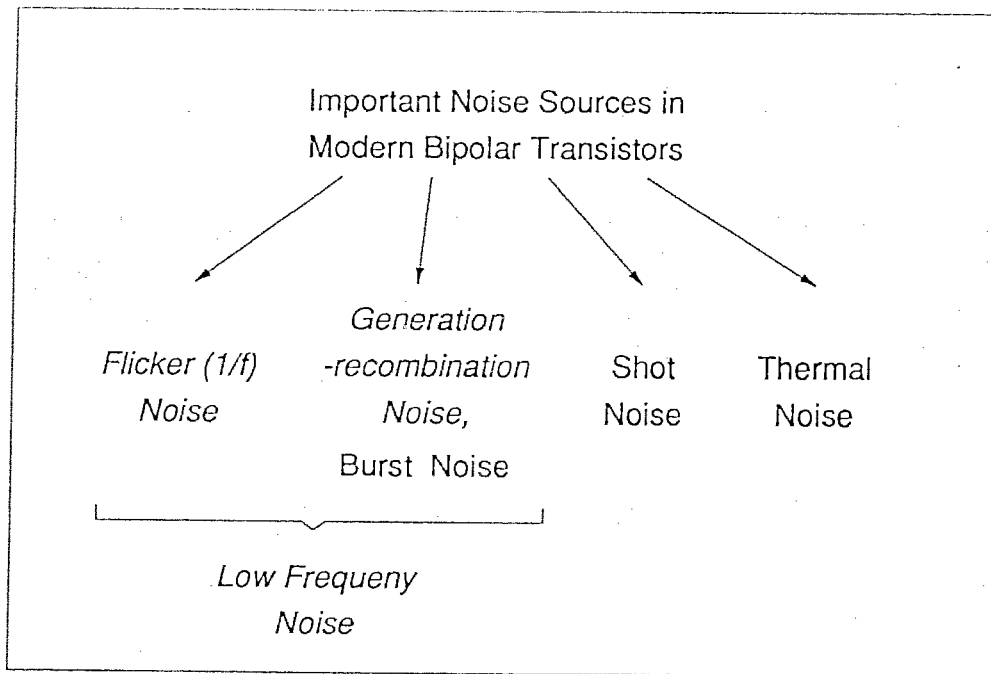


Figure 2.1 - Common noise sources in a bipolar transistor

Flicker noise is characterized by a  $\frac{1}{f^\gamma}$  spectrum with  $\gamma$  close to unity. This is also why the name  $1/f$  noise is also used to describe this kind of noise. This type of noise can be explained either by mobility fluctuation or number fluctuation. It is believed that mobility fluctuation is caused by the interaction of carriers with slowly fluctuating

longitudinal acoustical-phonon populations. Number fluctuation is caused by the fluctuation in the number of carriers across the conduction channel. Flicker noise due to mobility fluctuations is described by the following equation,

$$\frac{S_x(f)}{x^2} = \frac{\alpha}{N f} \quad (2.1)$$

where  $x$  is the quantity in which flicker noise is measured,  $\alpha$  is the Hooge's constant,  $N$  is the number of carriers and  $f$  is the frequency. The number of carriers can be expressed in other terms including the current, the saturation velocity and the length of the device [43 equation 4]. Since flicker noise is one of the noises being investigated in this project, it will be explained in detail in next section. Shot noise [1] is a result of the passage of discrete charge carriers across a barrier where the carriers pass independently of each other. In a semiconductor material, shot noise is modelled as a current source in parallel with the dynamic impedance of the noise generating barrier. Shot noise in bipolar transistor can be represented by two shot noise sources : one originating from the collector current that can be represented by

$$\overline{i_1^2} = 2 q I_c \Delta f \quad (2.2)$$

and the other originating from both the emitter and base current that is represented by

$$\overline{i_2^2} = 2 q ( I_E + I_{BE} ) \Delta f \quad (2.3)$$

Thermal noise [2] is caused by the random motion of the current carriers; it produces a fluctuating electromotive force across its terminals. The thermal voltage noise power in a semiconductor material can be represented by [1],

$$S_v(f) = 4 k T R \quad (2.4)$$

where  $R$  is the resistance of the conduction channel. Generation-recombination (GR) noise is caused by the trapping and detrapping of carriers by traps or dislocations inside a semiconductor material. Due to the random trapping and detrapping of carriers, the total number of carriers fluctuates and this in turn causes the resistance of the conduction channel to fluctuate. Similar to flicker noise, GR noise is the main topic being investigated in this thesis and will be discussed in detail in the next section. Burst noise<sup>1</sup> [3] is also a form of GR noise. It consists of random pulses of variable length and equal height. Sometimes the random pulses seem to be superimposed upon each other. A typical GR noise can be described by the following equation:

$$S_{GR}(f) = 4 \overline{\Delta N^2} \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \quad (2.5a)$$

where the trapping time constant  $\tau = \tau_0 \exp \frac{q(E_t - E_F)}{k T}$ , (2.5b)

$\omega$  is the frequency,  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  is the variance of the fluctuation of the number of carriers. At low frequencies, the power of flicker noise and GR noise are larger than the power of other noises and are critical to the low frequency performance of low frequency analog circuits.

### Fundamental Noise and Non-Fundamental noise

Noise source inside a semiconductor material can be classified as fundamental and non-fundamental depending on the nature of the noise source. A noise source is fundamental if it is related to the basic operation of a device and cannot be eliminated as far as the operation of the device is concerned. Non-fundamental noise are noise sources

---

<sup>1</sup> If dislocations are not present at the emitter edge, then the burst noise can be produced at the space charge region of the device if a trap is present.

that can be removed without affecting the operation of a device. In bipolar transistors, GR noise is non-fundamental noise because GR noise originates from 'avoidable' traps and can be reduced by reducing the number of traps or defects through improved fabrication technique. On the other hand, flicker noise originates from the 'unavoidable' crystal scattering and collision during the diffusion of charge carriers which is critical to the operation of a bipolar transistor. It is therefore fundamental to the operation of a bipolar junction transistor.

Van der Ziel explained in [4] that carrier trapping by and detrapping from traps results in non-fundamental noise sources. These traps may be in the device's conduction channel, in the oxide near the conducting channel interface, or in a space charge region, and they cause a Lorentzian or  $1/f$  type noise spectra. They are called non-fundamental because the magnitude of their spectra is proportional to the trap density. Their noise effect can thus be strongly reduced by eliminating most of the traps. On the other hand, there are other noise sources that are fundamental to the operation of the device and must exist as far as the operation of the device is concerned. For example, noise sources due to various scattering mechanisms in collision-dominated devices and the Bremsstrahlung  $1/f$  noise in collision-free devices are unavoidable in the operation of the device. They are therefore called fundamental noise sources.

## **2.2 Low Frequency Noises in Bipolar Transistors**

To date, most researchers agree that among the many types of low frequency noises in bipolar transistor, the dominant ones are diffusion noise and generation-recombination noise [4]. Diffusion noise in bipolar transistor is one kind of flicker noise and is fundamental to the operation of the transistor. Generation-recombination noise, as explained previously, exhibits Lorentzian or  $1/f^\beta$  type of spectrum and is non-

fundamental. Five major low frequency noise sources in a modern bipolar transistor are listed in Table 2.1. In addition to Table 2.1, Table 2.2 lists the two other low frequency noise sources that are inherit in a poly-emitter npn transistor which is the type of bipolar transistor being used in our research and under the measuring conditions used.

Location	Type of Low Frequency Noise	Source
E-B space charge region at the oxide's surface	GR (Number Fluctuation)	Fluctuating occupancy of holes in surface oxide traps [6-8]
E-B space charge region	GR (Number Fluctuation)	Fluctuating occupancy of holes at dislocations in the E-B space charge region [6-8]
E-B hole diffusion	Mobility Fluctuation	hole current injected from the base to the emitter
E-C electron diffusion	Mobility Fluctuation	electron diffuse from the emitter to the collector
base surface near the B-C junction [9]	Recombination noise	holes recombined in the base

**Table 2.1 The five major flicker noise sources in a bipolar transistor**

Location	Type of Low Frequency Noise	Source
Poly-silicon interface which control the base current [10]	Recombination noise	hole recombination at the poly / monosilicon interface and in the polysilicon itself [11-12]
non-ohmic metal to p-type polysilicon contact in the extrinsic base [13]	Recombination noise	hole recombination at the p-type polysilicon contact

**Table 2.2 Two additional noise sources in a poly-emitter transistor**

### 2.3 Noise Theory for our Measurements

As explained previously, our low frequency noise model contains fundamental noise (diffusion noise) and non-fundamental noise (GR noise) and it is formulated as

$$S_{\text{total}}(f) = S_d(f) + S_{\text{gr}}(f) \quad (2.6)$$



in which  $S_d(f)$  represents spectral density function of the fundamental diffusion noise and  $S_{gr}(f)$  represents the SDF of the non-fundamental GR noise.  $S_d(f)$  is modelled using both the classical Hooge's model due to Langevin's noise source [14-17,42] and Kleinpenning's mobility fluctuation theory for electron emitter-collector diffusion noise [6, 7]. The non-fundamental flicker noise  $S_{gr}(f)$  causes Lorentzian type of flicker noise spectrum and is modelled using McWhorter's model [20]. The origins of the two noise sources used in the model are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

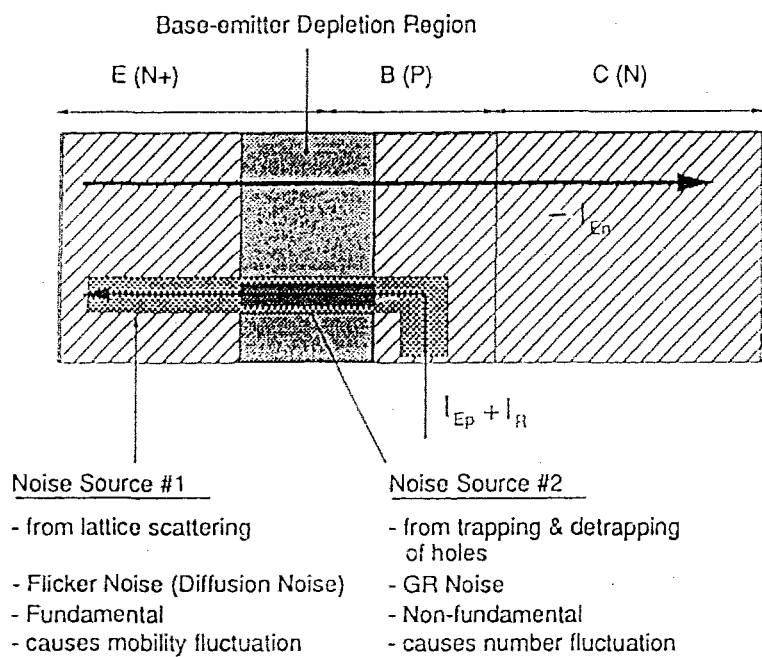


Figure 2.2 Origins of the two noise sources used in the model

### 2.3.1. Number-Fluctuation and Mobility-fluctuation

According to Van der Ziel [2], a semiconductor channel of length  $L$  with  $N$  electrons of mobility  $\mu$  has a channel resistance of

$$R = \frac{L^2}{q\mu N} \quad (2.7a)$$

From the above equation,

$$\frac{\delta R}{R} = -\frac{\delta N}{N} - \frac{\delta \mu}{\mu} \quad (2.7b)$$

From equation (2.7b), both the mobility and the number of carrier fluctuations lead to a fluctuation in the channel resistance and cause a fluctuation in the overall voltage and current. If the fluctuation in mobility and number are independent then

$$\frac{S_R(f)}{R^2} = \frac{S_N(f)}{N^2} + \frac{S_\mu(f)}{\mu^2} \quad (2.8)$$

where  $\bar{x}$  denotes the average value of the random variable  $x$ . Therefore noise in voltage and current is due to fluctuation in the conduction channel's resistance that originate from both the mobility fluctuation and number fluctuation. In our theory, we assume that the flicker noise (diffusion noise) contributes noise through mobility fluctuation while the non-fundamental GR noise contributes noise through number fluctuation. Besides the mobility and number fluctuations, there are other noise mechanisms that contribute to the total low frequency noise :

$$S_f(f) = \frac{S_\mu(f)}{\mu^2} + \frac{S_N(f)}{N^2} + \frac{S_c(f)}{c^2} + \frac{S_{cn}(f)}{cn^2} + \text{less significant terms} \quad (2.9)$$

in which  $\frac{S_\mu(f)}{\mu^2}$  is the mobility fluctuation which originates from the diffusion fluctuation through the Einstein equation  $Dq = kT\mu$ .  $\frac{S_N(f)}{N^2}$  is the fluctuation in the number of carriers.  $\frac{S_c(f)}{c^2}$  is the fluctuation in carriers which only happens in a relatively long  $n^+ - p$

diode since part of the injected carriers disappear by recombination.  $\frac{S_{cn}(f)}{cn^2}$  is the fluctuations in the contact recombination velocity  $S_{cn}$  at the ohmic contact ( $S_{cn} = 10^7$  cm  $s^{-1}$ ). In devices where the mobility fluctuation predominates, the mobility fluctuation term  $\frac{S_{\mu}(f)}{\mu^2}$  is much larger than other term and the total low frequency noise  $S_f(f)$  becomes  $\frac{S_{\mu}(f)}{\mu^2}$ . If both the number fluctuation and mobility fluctuation dominate, then  $S_f(f) \cong \frac{S_{\mu}(f)}{\mu^2} + \frac{S_N(f)}{N^2}$ .

### 2.3.2. Isolating the Noises in the Base-Emitter Region

In this section, we are going to discuss how different external circuit configuration would enhance the noise power of one or more of the noise sources inside a bipolar transistor. By adapting the results in [7] to our npn transistor in a common emitter configuration, we will show that the circuit configuration used in our experiments enhances the noise sources at the base-emitter junction. Figure 2.3 shows the main current flow and the biasing scheme in our npn transistors. We use a common emitter configuration because it employs the natural amplification of the device instead of using an external amplifier which might introduce unwanted noise to our results.

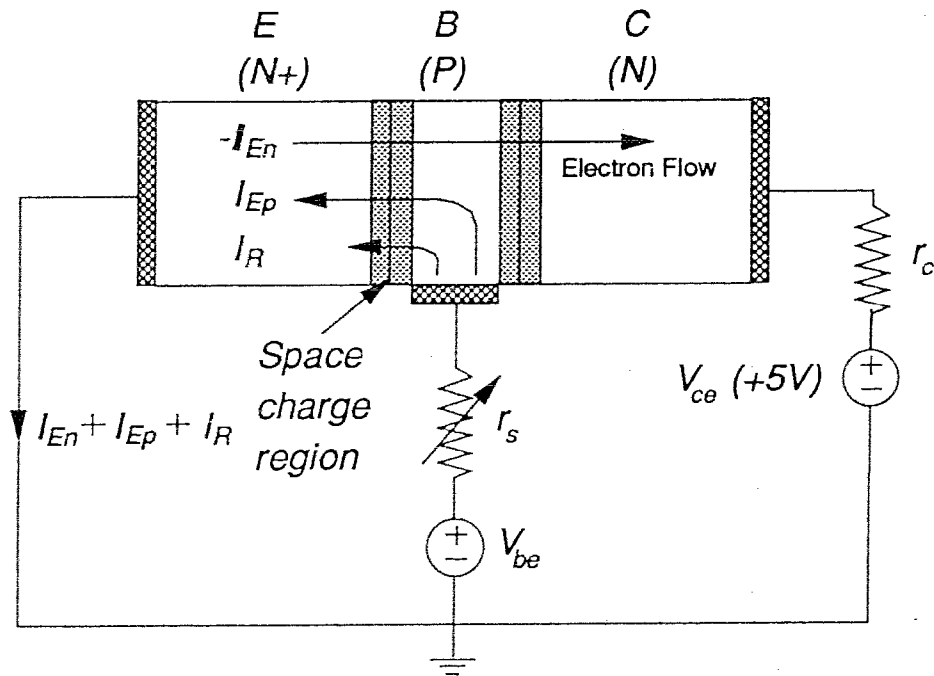


Figure 2.3 - Main current flows and the biasing scheme in our npn transistors

In Figure 2.3,  $r_s$  is the variable external source resistance and was set to  $10\text{k}\Omega$  in our measurements. The collector voltage  $V_{ce}$  was kept constant at  $5\text{V}$  while the base voltage  $V_b$  was kept constant at a level corresponding to the desired collector current.  $I_{En}$  is the electric current (from collector to emitter) due to the electron diffusion from the emitter to the collector.  $I_{Ep}$  is the current component due to the hole injected from the base into the emitter.  $I_R$  is the recombination current component in the emitter base space charge region. In a bipolar transistor, the three noise sources that generate most of the low frequency noises are

- 1) the fluctuating occupancy of holes or electrons by traps or dislocations in the base or emitter space charge region and in the oxide surface (the fluctuation in current due to this source is represented by  $\delta I_R$ ),
- 2) mobility fluctuations due to holes interacting with phonons cause  $1/f$  noise in the electron current  $I_{En}$  diffusing from the emitter to the collector (the fluctuation in

current due to this source is represented by  $\delta I_{En}$ ), and

3) mobility fluctuations due to the hole current  $I_{Ep}$  injected from the base into the emitter (the fluctuation in current due to this source is represented by  $\delta I_{Ep}$ ).

These three possible causes are represented as current sources  $\delta I_R$ ,  $\delta I_{Ep}$  and  $\delta I_{En}$  in an equivalent circuit first reported in [21]. This circuit is also modified and applied to our npn transistors, as shown in Figure 2.4.

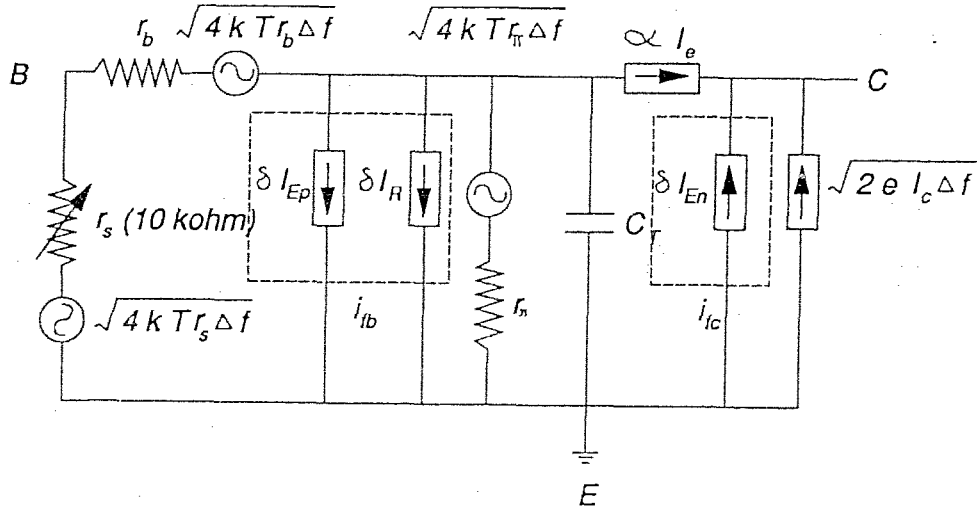


Figure 2.4 - Equivalent circuit for our npn transistors which is a modification of the one reported in [21]

The two base current sources are combined into an equivalent noise source,  $i_{fb} = \delta I_R + \delta I_{Ep}$  and the emitter collector current source is renamed as  $i_{fc} = \delta I_{En}$ . Current and voltage noise spectral contributors such as  $4kT r_b$ ,  $4kT r_s S_{if_b}$ ,  $2kT/g_m$  etc shown in

Figure 2.5 are obtained from squaring all the noise sources in Figure 2.4. Since all noise spectral contributors in Figure 2.5 are input referred, spectral contributors at the output side were divided by the transconductance of the transistor  $g_m^2$  to obtain the input

referred voltage spectral contributors. The overall natural amplification factor  $A_{\text{transistor}}$  that amplifies the input referred spectral contributors to the measurable voltage noise spectra is

$$A_{\text{transistor}}^2 = (R_L g_m)^2 = (\beta R_L / R_\pi)^2 \quad (2.10)$$

Since the collector shot noise power  $2 e I_c \Delta f$  ( $3 \times 10^{-21} \text{ A}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  or -205 dBA for the maximum  $I_c = 10 \text{ mA}$ ) is well below the amplified flicker noise and GR noise level ( $>10^{-17} \text{ A}/\sqrt{\text{Hz}}$  or -170 dBA), we did not consider shot noise in our calculation.

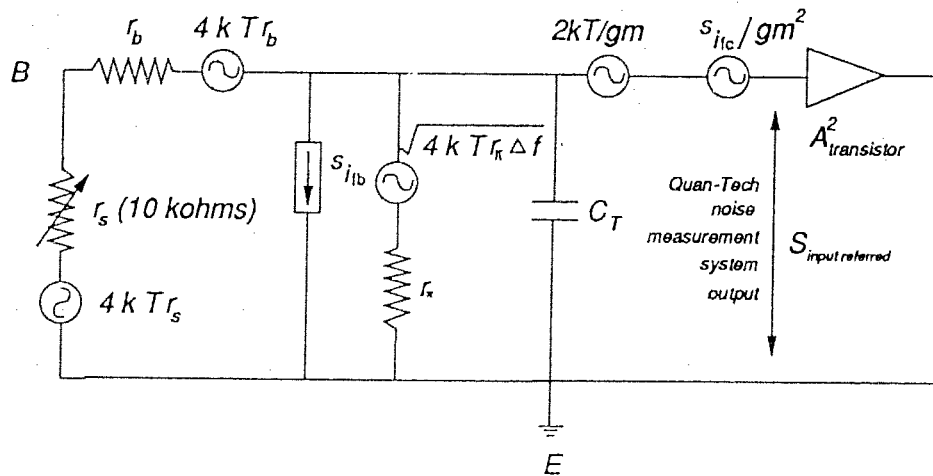


Figure 2.5 - Common emitter circuit with input referred voltage spectral contributors

From Figure 2.5, the voltage noise spectra measurable at the collector output is given by

$$S_{\text{meas}} = A^2 \left[ (S_{R_s} + S_{r_b}) \left( \frac{r_\pi}{R_s + r_b + r_\pi} \right)^2 + 2kTr_\pi \left( \frac{r_\pi}{R_s + r_b + r_\pi} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$+ A^2 \left[ S_{i_{fb}} \left( \frac{(R_s + r_b) r_{\pi}}{R_s + r_b + r_{\pi}} \right)^2 + \frac{2kT}{gm} + \frac{S_{i_{fc}}}{gm^2} \right]. \quad (2.11)$$

Using a high source resistance configuration ( $R_s = 10k\Omega \gg r_b = 100\Omega$ ), equation (2.11) reduces to

$$S_{meas} = \beta^2 R_L^2 \left[ 2 e I_B + S_{i_{fb}} + \frac{S_{i_{fc}}}{\beta^2} \right]. \quad (2.12)$$

The input referred current noise spectra would be the measured current voltage noise spectra divided by  $\beta^2 R_L^2$ :

$$S_{HRs,input\ referred} = \frac{S_{meas}}{\beta^2 R_L^2} = 2 e I_B + S_{i_{fb}} + \frac{S_{i_{fc}}}{\beta^2} \quad (2.13)$$

At low frequency ( $f < 100Hz$ ), the  $1/f$  portion of our spectra  $\left[ S_{i_{fb}} + \frac{S_{i_{fc}}}{\beta^2} \right]$  dominates and is above the shot noise ( $2 e I_B$ ) level:

$$S_{HRs,input\ referred} = S_{i_{fb}} + \frac{S_{i_{fc}}}{\beta^2} \cong S_{i_{fb}} \quad \text{since } \beta = 100 \quad (2.14)$$

Therefore, our high source resistance  $R_s$  configuration isolates  $S_{i_{fb}}$  at low frequencies. Since we defined  $I_{fb}$  as  $\delta I_R + \delta I_{Ep}$ , we get

$$S_{i_{fb}} = S_{I_R} + S_{I_{Ep}}. \quad (2.15)$$

Therefore, we are effectively measuring type 1 and 3 low frequency noises described previously in section 2.3.2. Therefore the fluctuating occupancy of holes or electrons by

traps or dislocations in the base or emitter space charge region or in the oxide surface, and mobility fluctuations due to the hole current  $I_{Ep}$  injected from the base into the emitter give rise to the measured noise power.

### 2.3.3. Theories for Generation-Recombination Noise

Generation-recombination (GR) noise in bipolar transistor is a non-fundamental low frequency noise which arises from the trapping and detrapping mechanism of traps or crystal dislocations which may be in a conducting channel, in a space-charge region, or in a surface oxide. Generation-recombination noise can be reduced through better fabrication techniques by which surface and bulk defects, including both the surface trapping centers and the bulk crystal structure dislocations, can be reduced. It has been suggested in [7] suggested that the fluctuating occupancy of carriers in oxide surface traps or in dislocations in the base or emitter space charge region modulates the surface recombination velocity and results in flicker noise. Using this idea, a mathematical model for this type of flicker noise is developed and it will be presented in next section.

GR noise can be caused by electron traps or hole traps. As explained in [2] for trapping centers in the forbidden gap, one distinguishes electron traps when the center interacts mainly with electron in the conduction band and hole traps when the center interacts mainly with holes in the valence band. In addition, recombination centers are distinguished by the fact that both of these processes occur, that is interaction with both electrons from the valence band and holes from the valence band. For electron or hole traps, there is one time constant per trap level, whereas for a recombination center, one has two time constant per type of center. Although there are two time constants per center for a recombination center, usually one of the two g-r spectra is much more pronounced than the other. As will be shown in the experiment section later, our



calculation for the trap level in our devices suggests that the traps that exist in our device should be electron traps rather than hole traps. GR noise,  $S_{gr}(f)$ , is modelled using the McWhorter's model [20] which is a summation of a group of Lorentzian-type of flicker noise spectrum and is

$$S_{gr}(f) = 4 \sum_{i=1}^N \overline{\Delta N_i^2} \frac{\tau_i}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_i^2} \quad (2.16a)$$

$$\text{where } \tau_i = \tau_{i0} \exp \frac{q(E_t - E_F)}{kT}, \quad (2.16b)$$

$\tau_{i0}$  is a constant,  $E_t$  is the energy level of the trap and  $E_F$  is the Fermi energy level. For the case of having only one trap, the above two equations are simplified to

$$S_{gr}(f) = 4 \overline{\Delta N^2} \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \quad (2.16c)$$

$$\text{where } \tau = \tau_0 \exp \frac{q(E_t - E_F)}{kT}, \quad (2.16d)$$

The derivation of equation (2.16) is given in Appendix II.

### 2.3.3.1. Noise Power and the Fermi Level

Using the quasi-equilibrium approximation discussed in [22], we assume that the quasi-Fermi levels remain flat throughout the depletion region of the p-n junction in a bipolar transistor. The band diagram with both the electron quasi-Fermi level ( $E_{Fn}$ ) and hole quasi-Fermi level ( $E_{Fp}$ ) for a actively-biased NPN transistor is shown in Figure 2.6.

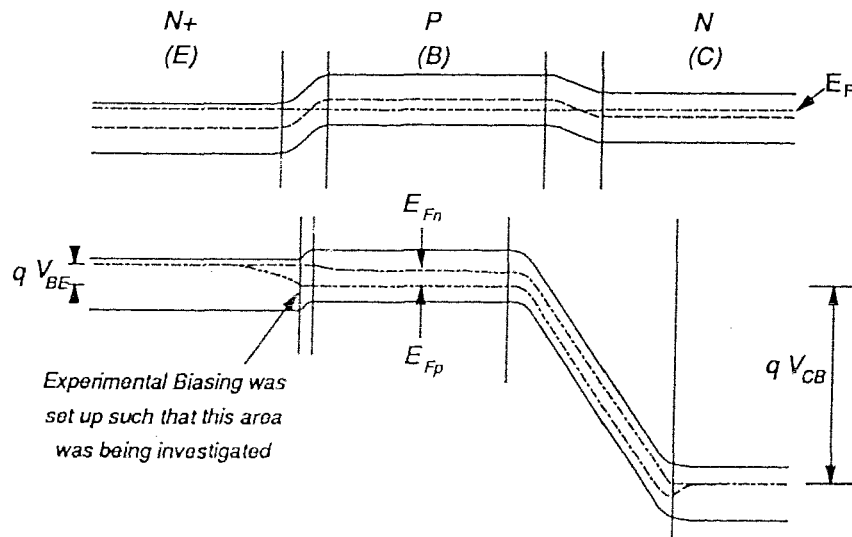


Figure 2.6 - Band diagram of a NPN transistor in thermal equilibrium (top figure) and under bias (bottom figure)

The total number of traps being occupied by carriers depends on both the Fermi-level and the temperature. The fractional occupancy of traps is obtained from Fermi-Dirac statistics and is

$$f_t = \frac{1}{1 + \exp \frac{q(E_t - E_F)}{kT}} \quad (2.17)$$

where  $E_t$  is the trap level and  $E_F$  is the Fermi-level of the carriers which can be calculated from the following six equations based on the Maxwell-Boltzmann approximation :

$$E_{Fp} = E_i - kT \ln \frac{p}{n_i} \quad (2.18a)$$

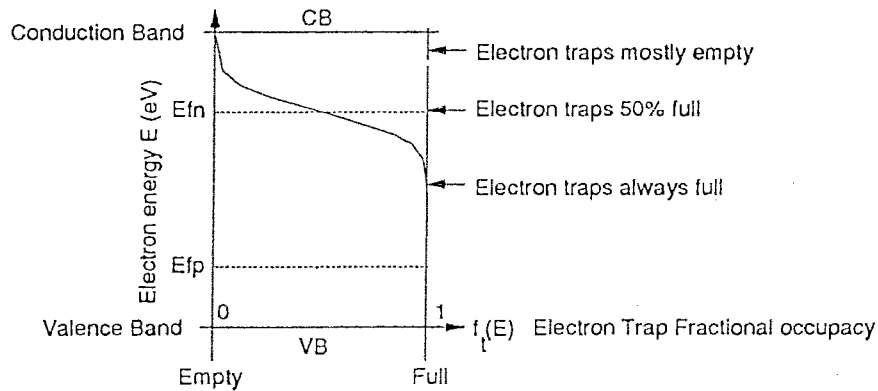
$$E_{Fn} = E_{Fi} + k T \ln \frac{n}{n_i} \quad (2.18b)$$

$$n_i = N_C \exp \left( \frac{E_{Fi} - E_C}{k T} \right) \quad (2.18c)$$

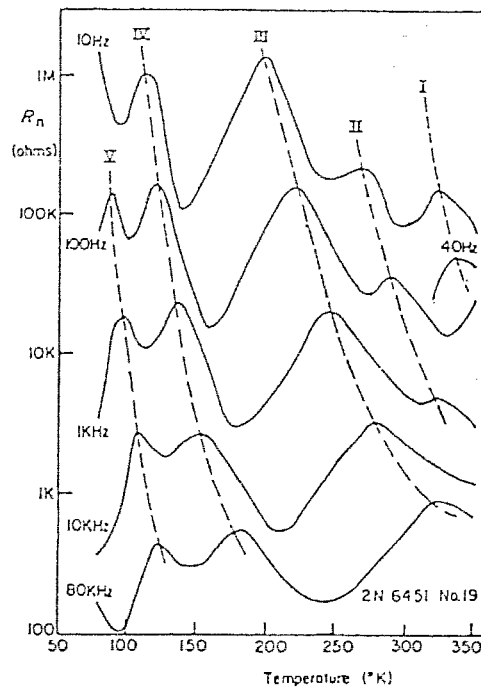
$$N_C = 2 \left( \frac{2 \pi m_e^* k T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \quad (2.18d)$$

$$E_F = 1.16 - \frac{7.02 \times 10^{-4} T^2}{T + 1108} \quad (2.18e)$$

These equations were used to determine the Fermi levels discussed later in Chapter 3. Since the Fermi level  $E_F$  varies with temperature, then  $f_t$  also varies with temperature, and, as shown in Figure 2.7,  $f_t = 0.5$  when  $E_F = E_t$ . In other words, the quasi-Fermi level in a p-n junction represents the energy state at which the probability of occupancy of a trap by a mobile carrier is exactly one-half, and therefore, a trap with  $E_t = E_F$  would be half of the time empty, and half of the time filled. The trapping and detrapping activities of a half filled trap is strongest and therefore results in the maximum noise power. The shape of the GR noise spectrum in the noise power versus temperature graph is that of a inverted valley. We simply refer this shape as 'hill' shape for simplicity. The "hilltop" (the maximum point) in a GR noise is reached when the Fermi-level crosses the trap level. Figure 2.8 shows the GR spectra corresponding to 5 different trap levels in a neutron-irradiated JFET that was reported in [23].



**Figure 2.7 - Since the quasi-Fermi level represents the energy state at which the probability of carrier occupancy is exactly one-half, traps with energy near the Fermi-level would have half of the time empty and half of the time filled**



**Figure 2.8 - Equivalent noise resistance versus temperature with frequency as a parameter in a neutron-irradiated JFET [K. K. Wang, A. Van der Ziel, and E. R. Chenette, IEEE Trans. Electron, Devices, ED-22, 591 (1975).]**

Using the fact that the quasi-Fermi level is a function of temperature, one can directly vary the Fermi-level by varying the temperature. Peaks of GR noise are then observed as Fermi-level crosses any trap energy level [2]. Since holes are injected from the base into the depletion region in our npn transistors, traps inside the depletion region with energies near the hole quasi-Fermi level would have the strongest trapping and detrapping activities and produce the highest GR noise power. At room temperature, hole traps with energy that are a few mV higher than the quasi-Fermi level would be very quiet, since these traps would be full all the time. Hole traps with energy few mV lower than the quasi-Fermi level would also be very quiet, since these traps would be empty all the time. An analogous situation applies to electron traps.

Since a large portion of a GR peak was observed in our experimental data, we should be able to determine the corresponding trap energy levels by calculating the quasi-Fermi levels. Since the high source resistance ( $R_s$ ) circuit configuration was used in our experiments, both the flicker noise and GR noise measured should originate from the base emitter region similar to that reported in [7]. Furthermore, whether the traps that generate the GR noise are hole traps or electron traps has to be determined from experimental results by calculating the value of the quasi-Fermi level for the experimental conditions used.

### **2.3.3.2. The Collector Current fluctuation Model based on Fluctuating Occupancy of Traps inside the Depletion Region**

From our experiment, we found that the fluctuation in the number of carriers  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  in expression (2.16) depends on both the emitter area and collector current. A one-dimensional collector current fluctuation model based on the fluctuating occupancy

of traps inside the depletion region for  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  was developed to provide a physical explanation for the experimental results obtained. This model provides a physical understanding of why the noise power is proportional to the square of the collector current and inversely proportional to the emitter area. It is one-dimensional because field variations in all directions except the one along the conduction channel are neglected. This model is based on the assumption that carrier fluctuation originates from generation-recombination centers in the space-charge region, and that the fluctuation in number of carriers modulates the diffusion current. The fluctuating occupancy of traps in the surface oxide was not included in this analysis because it is believed that the traps in the depletion region affect the collector current more directly than those in the surface oxide through the modulation of the depletion width. Traps in the depletion region of a bipolar transistor should therefore contribute more to the overall noise than those in the surface oxide. In some cases, surface traps can also generate noise with power comparable to that generated from the traps in the depletion region, any other motivation of analysis more than that of providing a physical explanation for the phenomena observed must take the effects of surface traps into consideration. Our theory was developed for the noise generated from the traps in the depletion region only. Van der Ziel has done a detailed derivation for a JFET, readers are suggested to refer to the Appendix A.2. of [2] for more information. For a planar NPN transistor as shown in Figure 2.9, let  $A$  be the effective emitter area of the transistor,  $n_t$  be the trap density per unit volume,  $\Delta V$  be an elementary volume element,  $\Delta N_t$  be the number of trapped electrons in  $\Delta V$ ,  $f_t$  be the fractional occupancy of the traps,  $\tau_t$  be the trapping time constant,  $N_D$  be the donor concentration in the emitter region of the npn transistor, and  $N_A$  be the acceptor concentration in the base region.

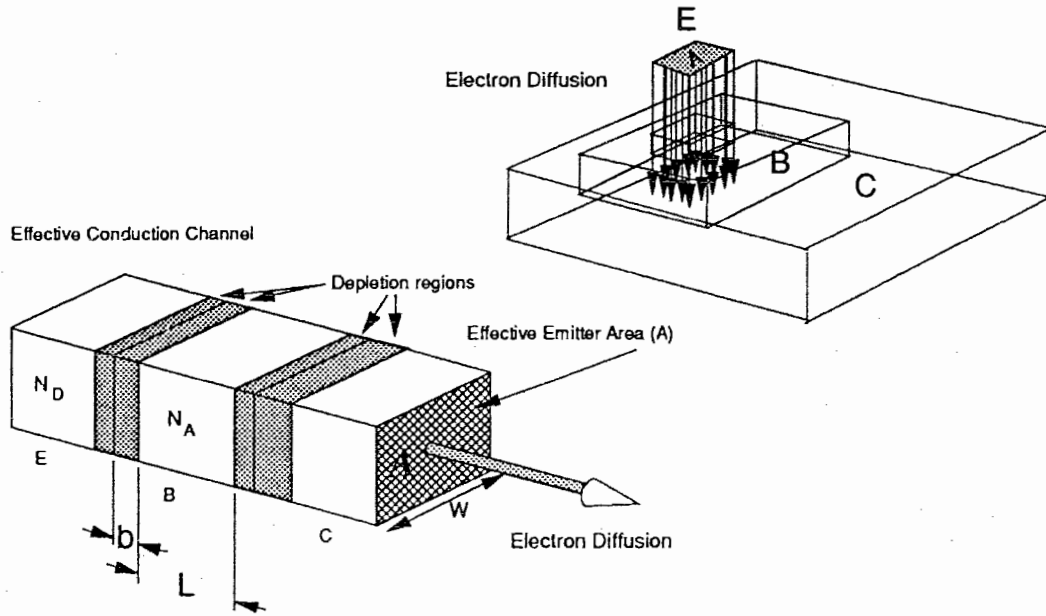


Figure 2.9 - The effective conduction channel in a NPN transistor

Since  $f_t$  is the fractional occupancy of the traps [2], then

$$\overline{\Delta N_t} = n_t f_t \Delta V \quad (2.19a)$$

$$\overline{\Delta N_t^2} = n_t f_t (1 - f_t) \Delta V \quad (2.19b)$$

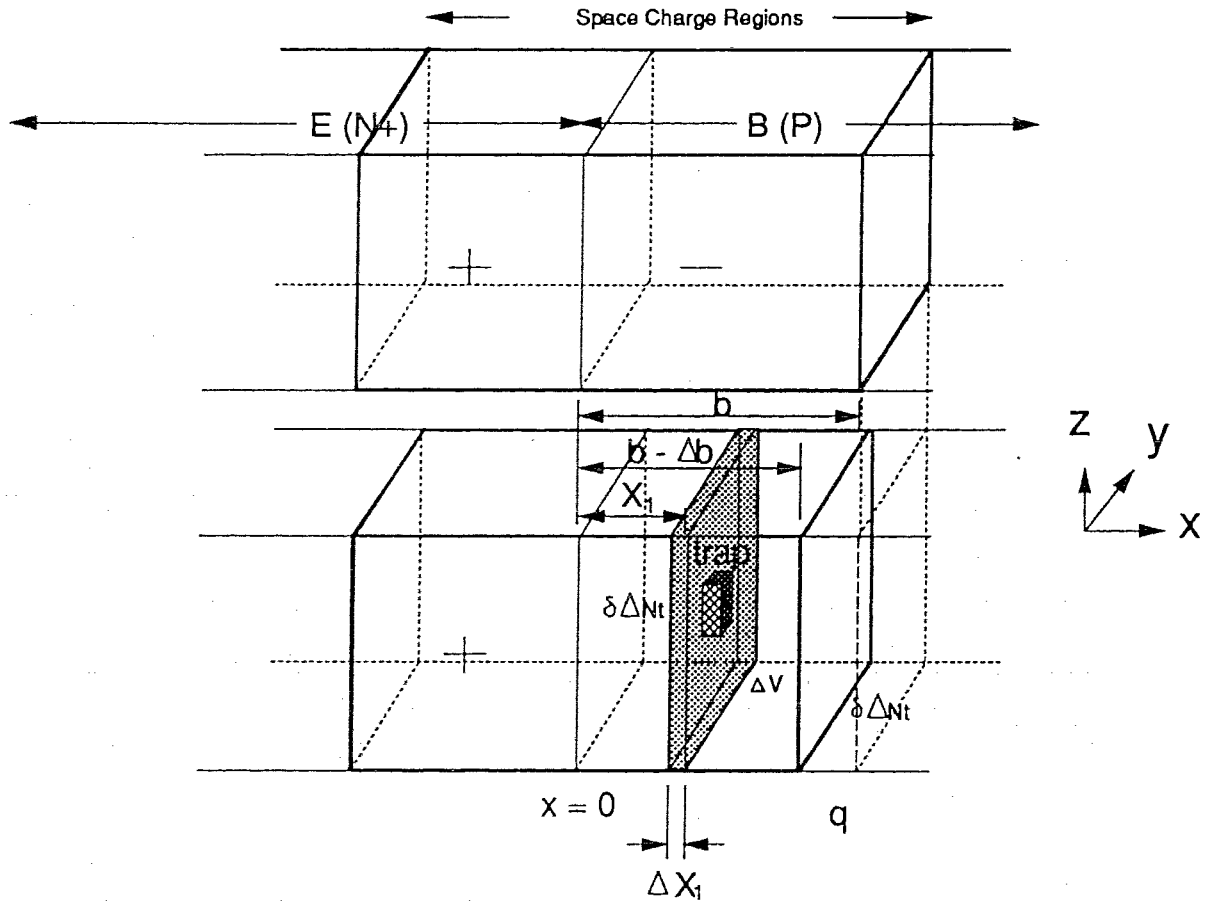
If  $\Delta N_t$  fluctuates by an amount of  $\delta \Delta N_t$  then

$$S_{\delta \Delta N_t}(f) = \overline{\Delta N_t^2} \frac{\tau_t}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_t^2} \quad (2.20)$$

$$\text{with } \overline{\Delta N_t^2} = 4 n_t f_t (1 - f_t) \Delta V. \quad (2.21)$$

Assuming that the trap fluctuation  $\delta \Delta N_t$  in an elementary volume  $\Delta V = \Delta x_1 A$  in the

base depletion region as shown in Figure 2.10, then this fluctuating occupancy of traps



**Figure 2.10 - A trap fluctuation  $\delta \Delta N_t$  in an elementary volume  $\Delta V = \Delta x_1 V$  in the base depletion region**

located in the space charge region would modulate the width of the depletion region by an amount of  $\Delta b$ , which affects the amount of diffusion current flowing through the depletion region and modifies the resistance of the conduction channel immediately adjacent to the depletion region. This depletion region width modulation is governed by Poisson's equation, as explained below. Applying Poisson equation to the base-emitter depletion region results in :



$$\nabla^2 \Psi = -\frac{q}{\epsilon \epsilon_0} \left[ N_A - \frac{\delta \Delta N_t}{\Delta V} f(x,y,z) \right] \quad (2.22)$$

where  $f(x,y,z)=1$  inside  $\Delta V$ , and  $f(x,y,z)=0$  otherwise. Directions  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  are defined as showing in Figure 2.10. The first term represents the space charges inside the depletion region and the second term represents the additional charge due to the fluctuating occupancy of traps. For a one-dimensional approximation, we ignore the field variations perpendicular to the collector current. In other words, we have

$$\frac{d^2 Y}{dx^2} \gg \frac{d^2 Y}{dy^2}, \quad \frac{d^2 Y}{dx^2} \gg \frac{d^2 \Psi}{dz^2}, \quad (2.23)$$

and

$$\frac{d\Psi}{dx} \gg \frac{d\Psi}{dy}, \quad \frac{d\Psi}{dx} \gg \frac{d\Psi}{dz}, \quad (2.24)$$

With the approximations, equation (2.22) becomes

$$\frac{d^2 \Psi}{dx^2} = -\frac{q}{\epsilon \epsilon_0} \left[ N_A - \frac{\delta \Delta N_t}{\Delta V} f(x) \right] \quad (2.25)$$

where  $f(x)=1$  for  $x_1 < x < x_1 + \Delta x_1$ , and  $f(x)=0$  otherwise. Let  $\Psi_1$  be the potential due to space charge only and  $\Psi_2$  be the potential due to the trap fluctuation only, then the charge density, electric field and potential of our one-dimensional model would be that shown in Figure 2.11 and

$$\nabla^2 \Psi = \frac{d^2 \Psi}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 \Psi_1}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 \Psi_2}{dx^2} \quad (2.26)$$

Original Space Charge (d.c.)

Trapped Charge (a.c.)

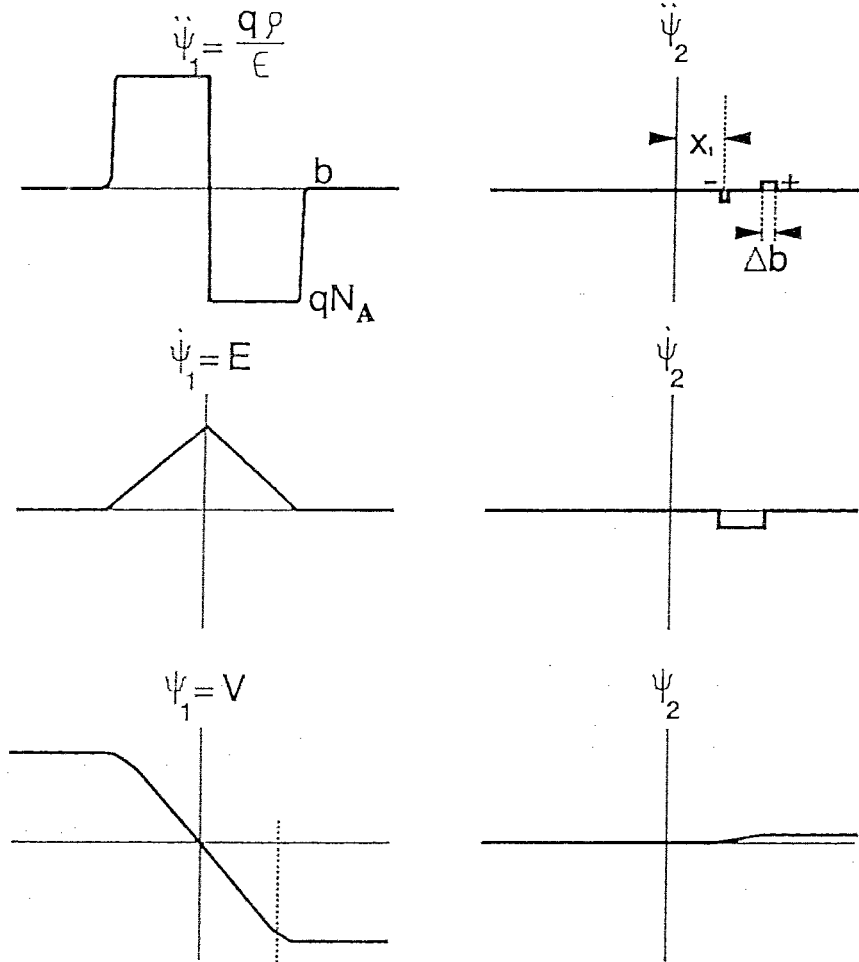


Figure 2.11 - The charge density, electric field and potential of our one-dimensional space-charge region trapping center model

Integrating from  $x=0$  to the end of the space charge region,  $x=b$ , and using the boundaries conditions deduced from Figure 2.11, that

$$\Psi_1 = 0 \text{ at } x = 0, \tag{2.27a}$$

$$\frac{d\Psi_1}{dx} = \frac{b q N_A}{\epsilon \epsilon_0} \text{ at } x = 0, \tag{2.27b}$$

$$\Psi_2 = \frac{\delta\Delta N_t}{\Delta x_1 A} (b - x_1) \Delta x_1 \text{ at } x = b, \quad (2.27c)$$

then we can solve for  $\Psi(x)$ , to get

$$\Psi(x) = -\frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} N_A \left( \frac{x^2}{2} - bx \right) + \frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} \frac{\delta\Delta N_t}{\Delta x_1 A} (b - x_1) \Delta x_1. \quad (2.28)$$

At the depletion boundary,  $x=b$ , we have

$$\Psi(b) = -\frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} N_A \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} \frac{\delta\Delta N_t}{A} (b - x_1) \quad (2.29)$$

For a first order approximation, we ignore the influence of the trap on the width of the depletion region at the other side of the junction. Taking the derivatives of  $\Psi(b, x_1)$  with respect to  $b$  and  $x_1$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta\Psi &= \delta b \frac{d\Psi}{dx} + \delta x_1 \frac{d\Psi}{dx_1} \\ &= -\frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} N_A b \delta b - \frac{q}{\epsilon\epsilon_0} \frac{\delta\Delta N_t}{A} \delta x_1. \end{aligned} \quad (2.30)$$

Assuming that the base voltage is held constant by an external voltage source ( $V_{be}$ ) and that the base resistance is zero, we set  $\Psi=0$  to obtain  $\delta b$  in terms of  $\delta\Delta N_t \Delta x_1$

$$\Delta b = -\frac{\delta\Delta N_t \Delta x_1}{N_A A b}. \quad (2.31)$$

Equation (2.31) indicates that a trap fluctuation  $\delta\Delta N_t$  produces a base-width modulation of  $\Delta b = -\frac{\delta\Delta N_t}{N_A A} \frac{\delta\Delta x_1}{b}$ . The negative sign indicates that the size of the depletion region

would decrease to compensate the extra charge trapped inside the depletion region. The modulation of the depletion region width directly affect the emitter collector diffusion

current which is related to the effective base length  $L_B$  by

$$I_c = I_s \exp\left(\frac{q V_{be}}{kT}\right) \left(1 + \frac{V_{ce}}{V_{af}}\right) \quad (2.32)$$

$$\text{where } I_s = \frac{A q D_n n_{op}}{L_B} \quad (2.33)$$

Taking the derivative of  $I_c$  with respect to  $L_B$  and noting that  $\delta L_B = \delta b$ , we get

$$\frac{\delta I_c}{\delta b} = \frac{-A q D_n n_{op}}{L_B^2} \exp\left(\frac{q V_{be}}{kT}\right) \left(1 + \frac{V_{ce}}{V_{af}}\right) = \frac{-I_c}{L_B} \quad (2.34)$$

Let  $\Delta I_c$  be the total change in collector current due to all traps, and  $\Delta b$  be the total change in base-width due to all traps. Then, the incremental change in  $\Delta I_c$  due to an incremental change in  $\Delta b$  is

$$\delta \Delta I_c = \delta \Delta b \frac{\delta I_c}{\delta b} = \frac{\delta x_1 \delta \Delta N_t}{b N_A A} \left(\frac{-I_c}{L_B}\right) \quad (2.35)$$

Using Fourier analysis and equation (2.20) and (2.21), we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta S_{I_c}(f) &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{T} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta \Delta I_c(u) \delta \Delta I_c(u+s) \exp(-j\omega s) ds \\ &= \frac{4 I_c^2 \Delta x_1^3}{b^2 L_B^2 N_A^2 A} n_t f_t (1 - f_t) \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \\ \therefore \Delta S_{I_c}(f) &= \frac{4 I_c^2 \Delta x_1^3}{b^2 L_B^2 N_A^2 A} n_t f_t (1 - f_t) \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \quad (2.36) \end{aligned}$$

Comparing (2.36) with (2.16), the variance of the fluctuation in the carrier number is

$$\overline{\Delta N^2} = \frac{4 I_c^2 \Delta x_1^3}{b^2 L_B^2 N_A^2 A} n_t f_t (1 - f_t). \quad (2.37)$$

The most important relationship obtained from this one-dimensional model is that, from this modulation mechanism, the model suggests that the collector current noise power should be proportional to the square of the collector current and inversely proportional to the emitter area. Experimental results indicate that there is a power relationship between  $\Delta S_{i_c}(f)$  and  $I_c^{\text{power}}$  with the power  $\cong 2$ . For the emitter area dependence, the experimental results were that  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  is inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area, instead of inversely proportional to the emitter area found from the theory. This discrepancy in the power of the emitter area is probably due to the first order approximation used in this model, the non-uniform current flow inside the conduction channel, the neglect of the surface oxide traps and the possibility of the effect of other second order noise mechanism that happen concurrently with the assumed mechanisms. The motivation in developing this model was to provide some physical explanation for the phenomena observed, rather than to provide a precise prediction of the noise level that requires more details than are available with a one-dimensional first order model.

### 2.3.3.2.1. Determining the Trap level energy from the experimental data using this model

Due to the limited temperature range in the experimental data, only part of the GR feature can be recognized. Curve fitting the experimental data to determine the peak of the GR noise spectra and then calculating the corresponding Fermi-level would give a comparatively large error. However, by differentiating equation (2.36) with respect to the reciprocal of temperature, the trap energy level can be determined from the rising edge of the GR spectrum. The use of the falling edge rather than the peak would allow

more data points to be used in the calculation, and the results will therefore be more accurate. First of all, we substitute the trap fractional occupancy in (2.17) into our noise model in (2.36) and let

$$K = \frac{4 I_c^2 \Delta x_1^3}{b^2 L_B^2 N_A^2 A} n_t \quad (2.38)$$

After simplification, we get

$$\Delta S_{Ic}(f) = \frac{q K \tau_0 \exp\left(\frac{2 q E_t}{k T}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{q E_F}{k T}\right) \left[1 + \exp\left(\frac{q (E_t - E_F)}{k T}\right)\right]^2 \left[1 + 4 \pi^2 f^2 \tau_0^2 \exp\left(\frac{2 q E_t}{k T}\right)\right]} \quad (2.39)$$

As explained earlier in section 2.3.3, the GR spectrum has the shape of an inverted valley, and the Fermi-level is equal to the trap energy level at the maximum point of a GR noise spectrum which has the factor  $\frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$  as the trap activation term.

Considering the denominator of the trap activation term at different temperatures, we have that,

$$\text{on the rising edge of the GR noise spectrum } (T \ll T_{\text{peak}}), \quad \omega^2 \tau^2 \gg 1, \quad (2.40a)$$

$$\text{on the falling edge of the GR noise spectrum } (T \gg T_{\text{peak}}), \quad \omega^2 \tau^2 \ll 1. \quad (2.40b)$$

A similar situation occurs in the denominator of the fractional trap occupancy factor

$$f_t = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{q (E_t - E_F)}{k T}\right)} \quad \text{where we get}$$

at the peak ( $T = T_{\text{peak}}$ ), 
$$\exp \frac{q (E_t - E_F)}{k T} = 1, \quad (2.41a)$$

on the rising edge ( $T \ll T_{\text{peak}}$ ), 
$$\exp \frac{q (E_t - E_F)}{k T} \gg 1, \quad (2.41b)$$

and on the falling edge ( $T \gg T_{\text{peak}}$ ), 
$$\exp \frac{q (E_t - E_F)}{k T} \ll 1. \quad (2.41c)$$

Now applying equations (2.40) and (2.41) to (2.39), we get that on the rising edge, equation (2.39) becomes

$$S_i = \frac{q K}{4 \pi^2 f^2 \tau_0^2 \exp \frac{q (2 E_t - E_F)}{k T}}$$

Taking natural log and differentiating with respect to  $1/T$ , we get

$$\frac{d (\ln S_i)}{d (1/T)} = - \frac{2 q E_t}{K} - \frac{q T}{k} \frac{d E_F}{d T} + E_F \frac{q}{k} \quad (2.42)$$

Rearrange this to get,

$E_t = - \frac{T}{2} \frac{d E_F}{d T} + \frac{E_F}{2} - \frac{k}{2 q} \frac{d (\ln S_i)}{d (1/T)} \quad (2.43)$
--

in which  $E_F$  can be calculated from equation (2.18), then  $\frac{d (\ln S_i)}{d (1/T)}$  can be measured from rising edge of a  $\ln (S_i)$  vs  $1/T$  curve. Therefore, by plotting the GR noise spectrum versus the reciprocal of temperature, one can determine the trap level energy. It will be shown in the experimental section that a trap-level energy that agrees with the quasi-Fermi level method was determined using equation (2.43). On the rising edge, equation (2.39) becomes

$$\ln(S_i) = \ln(K \tau_0) + \frac{q E_F(T)}{k T} \frac{1}{T}. \quad (2.44)$$

In the experiment section, the slope of  $\frac{q E_F(T)}{k T}$  is shown to closely follow the slope of the experimental data. Furthermore, since K contains the emitter area factor, a plot of the y-intercept in equation (2.44) versus the emitter area allows us to determine the dependence of GR spectrum on emitter area. It will be shown in the experiment section later that a straight line was observed in a log-log plot of GR noise power versus the emitter area, with the noise power being inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area.

### 2.3.4. Theories for Flicker Noise

#### 2.3.4.1. Fundamental Flicker Noise

Flicker noise in modern bipolar transistor is a fundamental low frequency noise which is mainly caused by the diffusion of carriers. Diffusion noise is the main flicker noise source because the major current component in bipolar transistor is the diffusion current. The collision and scattering between carriers and the lattice phonons during diffusion are the main mechanism that produces mobility fluctuation and the fundamental flicker noise. The diffusing carriers that generate noise could be those carriers diffusing from the emitter to the collector, or those carriers injected from the base into the emitter. There are different kinds of scattering and collision mechanisms in the diffusion process of a bipolar junction device, and each of these mechanisms can lead to a different expression for the diffusion type flicker noise. However, lattice scattering and ionized impurity scattering are the two most important scattering mechanisms in a bipolar transistor. The contribution of each of these mechanism at a given temperature



can be estimated by finding the mobility of the charge carriers. The mobility is material and temperature dependent, and is an important parameter for devices in which the main current is that due to drift. At low temperatures, carriers have low thermal kinetic energies and low thermal velocities and have long passage time through ionized impurities. With reduced phonon activities, lattice scattering is reduced relative to ionized impurities scattering. Therefore ionized impurity scattering mechanism is the dominant scattering mechanism in most semiconductor devices at low temperatures. On increasing temperature, the collisions due to ionized impurity scattering become relatively less important when compared to collisions with neutral atoms of the lattice because the lattice atoms vibrate about their mean position with an amplitude that increases with temperature. The higher the temperature, the larger the effective capture area of the lattice atoms. Thus lattice scattering is the key scattering mechanism at higher temperatures. Since the total mobility would be heavily affected by the scattering mechanism with the shortest scattering time, the total mobility would be that of ionized impurity scattering at lower temperatures, and dominated by that due to lattice scattering at higher temperatures. Equations that give a good fit to the experimental data for the mobility of electrons ( $\mu_e$ ) and holes ( $\mu_h$ ) in silicon have been presented in [22] and are described by equations (2.45a) and (2.45b) below

$$\mu_e = 88 T_n^{-0.57} + \frac{7.4 \times 10^8 \times T^{-2.33}}{1 + [N/1.26 \times 10^{17} T_n^{2.4}] 0.88 \times T_n^{-0.146}} \quad (2.45a)$$

$$\mu_h = 54.3 T_n^{-0.57} + \frac{1.36 \times 10^8 \times T^{-2.23}}{1 + [N/2.35 \times 10^{17} T_n^{2.4}] 0.88 \times T_n^{-0.146}} \quad (2.45b)$$

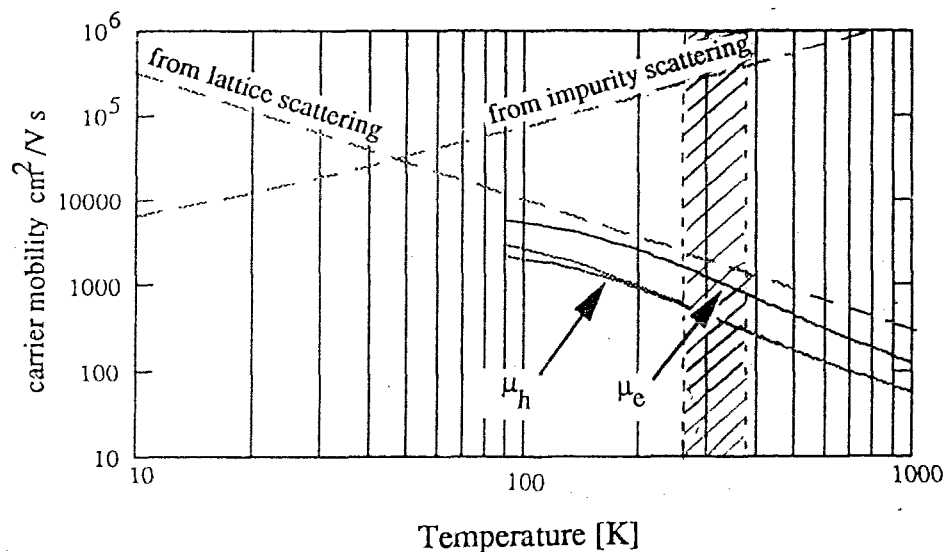
where  $T_n = T/300$ . In Figure 2.12, the three solid lines represent the electron and hole mobility calculated from these equations using the doping levels for our transistors. The

solid line at the top represents the mobility of the majority electrons diffusing from the emitter to the collector. The other two solid line at the bottom represent the upper bound and low bound of the mobility of the minority hole injected from the base into the collector. The upper bound and lower bound were calculated using the highest and lowest doping concentration in the base respectively. The rising dashed line is the physical models [24] for mobility due to ionized impurity scattering ( $\mu_i$ ) as given in equation (2.46) and is proportional to  $T^{3/2}$  while that due to lattice scattering ( $\mu_l$ ) is given by equation (2.47) and is proportional to  $T^{-3/2}$ .

$$\mu_i = \frac{1.65 \times 10^{19}}{N_i \ln [ 1 + (3 \times 10^{11}/N_i)^{2/3} (T\epsilon/300\epsilon_0)^2 ]} \left( \frac{T}{300} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \left( \frac{m_0}{m^*} \right)^{1/2} \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s} \quad (2.46)$$

$$\mu_l = \frac{2 \sqrt{2\pi} e h^4 \rho v_s^2 m_e^{*-5/2} (kT)^{-3/2}}{2 E_{1c}^2} \text{ m}^2/\text{V-s}. \quad (2.47)$$

Here  $E_{1c}$  is a proportionality constant commonly referred as the deformation potential,  $\rho$  is the mass density,  $v_s$  is the sound velocity in the semiconductor with  $v_s^2 = c/\rho$  and  $c$  is the elastic constant. The range of temperature for our measurements is between 273K and 373K as indicated by the region bounded with the two vertical dash lines in the figure. Since the calculated electron and hole mobilities lie within the lattice scattering region (the  $T^{-3/2}$  falling portion), our calculation indicates that lattice scattering rather than ionized impurity scattering dominates the scattering process in our device. This is an important conclusion that will be used in formulation of our noise model later.



**Figure 2.12 - The electron and hole mobility calculated for our devices indicate that lattice scattering rather than ionized impurity scattering dominates**

Besides ionized impurity scattering and lattice scattering, there are other high energy collisions that could occur in our devices, but to a smaller extent at room temperature than at higher temperatures. Umklapp process is one of these high energy processes in which an electron gives up a momentum  $\frac{h}{a}$  to the lattice or accepts a momentum  $\frac{h}{a}$  from the lattice (where  $a$  is the lattice spacing and  $h$  is the Planck's constant), and is scattered into the next Brillouin zone. Since momentum is not conserved, the collision is inelastic. This inelastic collision is also an integral part of our noise model.

#### 2.3.4.2. Mobility Fluctuation Theory for Diffusion noise

Using the theory developed in [25], the hole current noise spectrum in a short p+n diode due to mobility fluctuations, which is the current noise spectrum due to the emitter-collector diffusion current  $I_{Ep}$  in a p+n-p transistor could be written as

$$S_{I_{Ep}}(f) = 2q I_{Ep} \frac{\alpha_p}{4f\tau_{dp}} \ln \frac{P(0)}{P(w_B)} \quad (2.48)$$

where  $\alpha_p$  is the Hooge's constant [14] for holes,  $\tau_{dp} = w^2/2 D_p$  is the diffusion time constant for holes through the base region,  $w_B$  is the base width and  $P(0)$  and  $P(w_B)$  are the hole concentrations per unit length at the emitter side and the collector side of the base, respectively, and  $D_p = k T \mu_p$  is the diffusion constant for holes. Similarly, the current noise spectrum due to electrons injected from the base into the emitter is

$$S_{I_{En}}(f) = 2q I_{En} \frac{\alpha_n}{4f\tau_{dn}} \ln \frac{N(0)}{N(w_E)} \quad (2.49)$$

where  $\alpha_n$  is the Hooge's constant for electrons,  $\tau_{dn} = w^2/2 D_n$  is the diffusion time constant for electrons through the emitter region,  $w_E$  is the emitter width and  $N(0)$  and  $N(w_E)$  are the electron concentrations per unit length at the base side and the metal contact side of the emitter, respectively. The diffusion time constant  $\tau_{dn}$  is related to the cutoff frequency of the transistor by

$$f_T = \frac{1}{2\tau_{dn}} \quad (2.50)$$

Assuming  $I_{Ep} \gg I_R$ , then  $\frac{I_c}{\beta} = I_b = I_{Ep}$ . Using equation (2.50) and modifying (2.49) for our npn transistor, we obtain the equation for the diffusion noise due to mobility fluctuation occurring in the holes injected from the base into the emitter as

$$S_{I_b}(f) = \frac{\pi f_T q I_c \alpha_p}{f \beta} \ln \frac{P(0)}{P(w_E)} \quad (2.51)$$

$I_b$  in the original equation is replaced by  $I_c$  because the collector current is measured by our system directly. To estimate the ratio  $\frac{P(0)}{P(w_E)}$ , we follow the method in [14, equation A7] which gives

$$\frac{P(0)}{P(w_E)} < \frac{w_E v_s}{D_p} \quad (2.52)$$

where  $v_s$  is the saturated drift velocity and, for silicon, is equal to

$$v_s = \frac{2.4 \times 10^5}{1 + 0.8 \exp\left(\frac{T}{600}\right)} \quad (2.53)$$

Using (2.52) in equation (2.53), we can now calculate a minimum value for the Hooge's parameter for holes as

$$\alpha_p > \frac{\beta D_p S_{I_b}(f) f}{\pi f_T q I_c w_E v_s} \quad (2.54a)$$

or

$$\alpha_{p,\min} = \frac{\beta D_p S_{I_b}(f) f}{\pi f_T q I_c w_E v_s} \quad (2.54a)$$

where the subscript min denotes minimum. By measuring the base current noise  $S_{I_b}(f)$ , collector current  $I_c$ , and knowing the device parameters of the bipolar transistors including the current gain  $\beta$ , the cutoff frequency  $f_T$ , the emitter width  $w_E$ , then equation (2.54) allows us to calculate the minimum Hooge's parameter for holes. As shown in the experiment section, the Hooge's parameter for holes determined from our experiments has a value between  $3 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $5 \times 10^{-9}$ , and lies in the range of Hooge's parameter reported by other researchers, as illustrated in next section. Equation (2.54) is valid only when the diffusion noise arising from the base emitter hole diffusion current is the

dominant noise source in the base emitter region. We will show later from our experiments that the dominant noise in our transistor is GR noise in base-emitter region. Although the diffusion noise is not the dominant noise source, it still plays an important part in fitting our model with the experimental data.

#### **2.3.4.3. The Hooge's parameter used in the Diffusion Noise Model**

The Hooge's parameter appears in equation (2.51) and (2.54) has been proposed by Hooge [26]. Based on data obtained for many different materials, he postulated that

$$\frac{S_I(f)}{I^2} = \frac{\alpha}{N f} \quad (2.55)$$

where  $N$  is the effective number of carriers,  $\alpha$  is a universal dimensionless constant of about  $2 \times 10^{-3}$  that is only weakly dependent on temperature. However, it is now believed that the Hooge's parameter is not a universal constant and is several orders of magnitude smaller than the proposed value for some devices. As we will show later shown in the experiment section, the Hooge's parameter for holes determined from our experiments has values which range from  $3 \times 10^{-6}$  for small devices with an emitter area of  $1.6\mu\text{m}^2$  at low temperatures to a value of  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  for large devices with an emitter area of  $144\mu\text{m}^2$  at high temperatures, and these values agree closely with the Hooge's parameter values reported by other researchers. Different expressions for Hooge's parameter have been reported for different flicker noise mechanisms and depending on the nature of the noise source, the effective Hooge's parameter could be a combination of one or more Hooge's expression given below :

$$\frac{4\alpha_0 \Delta v^2}{3\pi c^2} \text{ for collision-free device operation, [27,28]}$$

$$\frac{4\alpha_0}{3\pi} \frac{6kT}{m^*c^2} \text{ for normal collision process}^2, [14]$$

$$\alpha_H = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{4\alpha_0}{3\pi} \left( \frac{h}{mac} \right)^2 \text{ for Umklapp collision process}^3, [14, 29-31] \\ \frac{4\alpha_0}{3\pi} \frac{2}{3} \text{ for coherent state flicker noise source, [32-33]} \\ \frac{4\alpha_0}{3\pi} \frac{2E}{m c^2} \text{ for fluctuation in carrier injection across junction barrier [34-36]} \\ \frac{4\alpha_0 (2e(V_{dif} - V) + 6kT)}{3\pi ((m_n^*)^{1/2} + (m_p^*)^{1/2})^{1/2}} \text{ for fluctuation across junction barrier, [34-35]} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\frac{4\alpha_0}{3\pi} (E_{go} - |E_g|) \frac{2}{m^*} \text{ for recombination of electron in the p-region contacts. [37]}$$

(2.56a) to (2.56g)

The way to combine the above Hooge's expression is to multiply each expression by an probability factor which is equal to

$$P_i(T) = \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_i} \tag{2.57}$$

<sup>2</sup> Normal collisions are elastic collisions with a Maxwellian velocity distribution.

<sup>3</sup> In an Umklapp process, an electron can give up a momentum  $h/a$  to the lattice or accept a momentum  $h/a$  from the lattice, while being scattered into the next Brillouin zone.

where  $\mu_i^2$  is the carrier mobility due to a particular type of scattering mechanism. The effective Hooge's parameter  $\alpha_H$  can be calculated from the Hooge's parameter for different scattering processes using the following equation,

$$\alpha_H = \sum_i \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_i} \alpha_{H_i} \quad (2.58)$$

A derivation for this expression using Mathiesen's rule is shown in Appendix I. Based on the experiments in [38-40], two probability factors were introduced in [14] for elastic collision process and non-elastic collision process :

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T})) & \quad \text{for elastic process (normal collision process) and} \\ \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T}) & \quad \text{for non-elastic (Umklapp collision process)} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\theta$  is the Debye temperature. Since good fitting to the experimental data using Umklapp collision (non-elastic collision) and normal collision (elastic collision) were obtained in [14], these results will be used in our model, as given by equation (2.58b) below.

$$\alpha_p = \alpha_{\text{elastic}} \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_{\text{elastic}}} + \alpha_{\text{non-elastic}} \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_{\text{non-elastic}}} \quad (2.59a)$$

$$= \alpha_{\text{elastic}} (1 - \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T})) + \alpha_{\text{non-elastic}} \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T}) \quad (2.59b)$$

Using (2.56b) for normal collision process and (2.56c) for Umklapp collision process and the two probability factors, the expression for the effective Hooge's parameter becomes



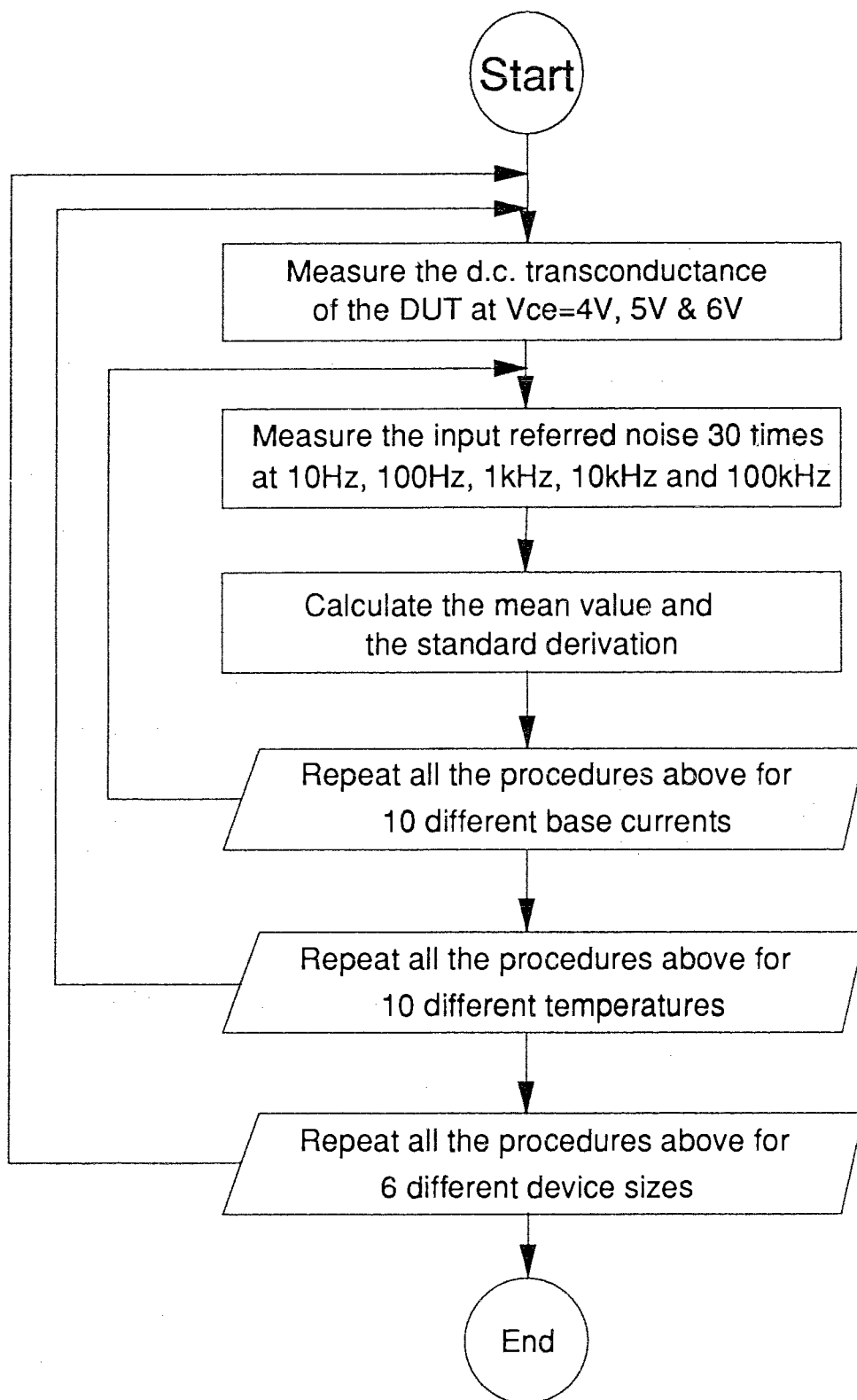
$$\alpha_p = \frac{4 \alpha_0}{3 \pi} \frac{6 k T}{m^* c^2} (1 - \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T})) + \frac{4 \alpha_0}{3 \pi} \left( \frac{h}{m^* a c} \right)^2 \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T}) \quad (2.60)$$

where  $\theta$  is the Debye temperature and is equal to 645K for both p-type and n-type silicon and 350K for GaAs.

## Chapter 3 Experiment

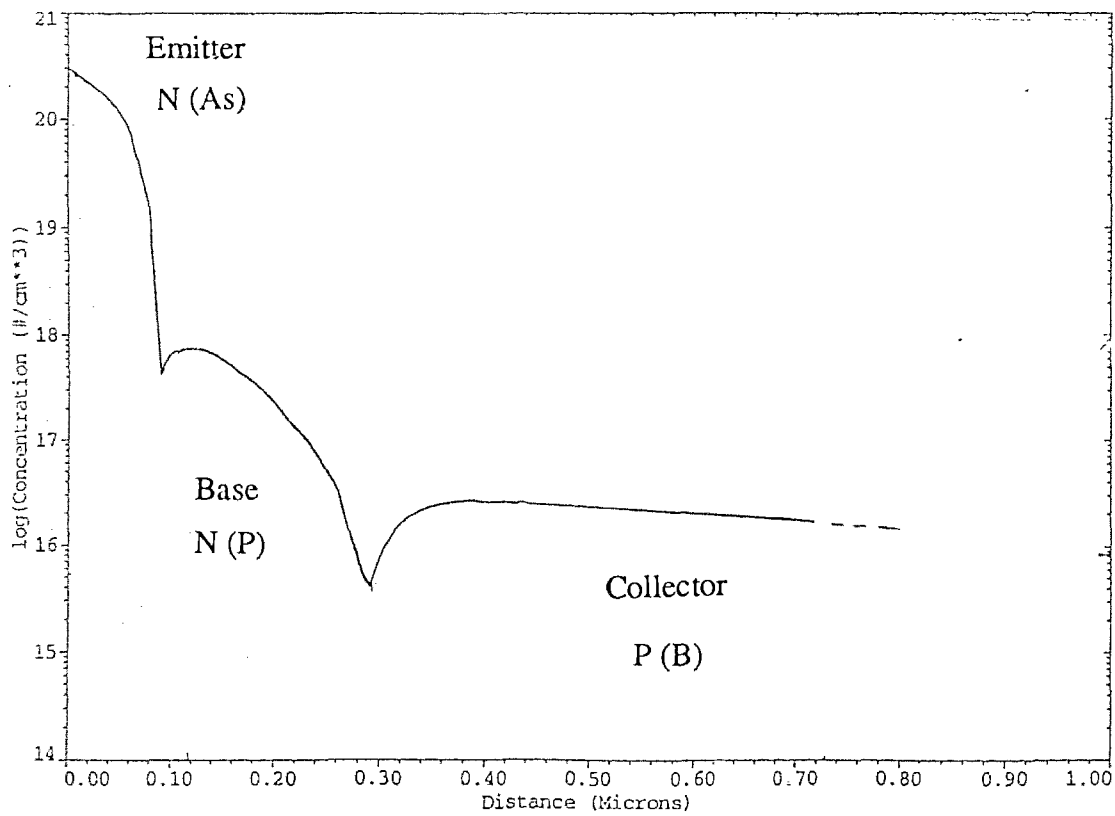
### 3.1 Devices Under Test (DUT)

For the experiments, seven bipolar transistors with emitter areas varying from  $0.5 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$  to  $14.4 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$  were used, and the noise measurements were performed at ten temperatures between 283K to 373K with more than five biasing currents at each temperature, and at frequencies from 10Hz to 100kHz. Each noise measurement was repeated at least 30 times. Figure 3.1 summarizes our measurement procedures for noise measurement with different frequencies, biasing currents, temperatures and device sizes.



**Figure 3.1 - A summary on our measurement procedures for noise measurement with different frequency, biasing current, temperature and device size**

The chemical doping profile of the device used is shown in Figure 3.2. The transistors used in the experiment have an Arsenic doped emitter, a Boron-doped p type base and a Phosphorous doped n-type collector. D.C. characteristic measurements including the measurement of the forward and reverse current gains, base, collector and emitter internal resistances were performed on the HP 4145B Semiconductor Parameter Analyzer.



**Figure 3.2 - The chemical doping profile of typical npn transistors used in the experiment**

### 3.2 The Noise Measurement System

A block diagram of the measurement system is shown in Figure 3.3. The equipment used to measure input referred noise of the transistors is the Quan-Tech Semiconductor Noise Analyzer model 5173 which biases the device's collector voltage to 5V and a constant collector current level as shown in Figure 3.4. Input referred noise power were measured at five frequencies (10Hz, 100Hz, 1kHz, 10kHz and 100kHz) simultaneously using five bandpassed noise measuring units.

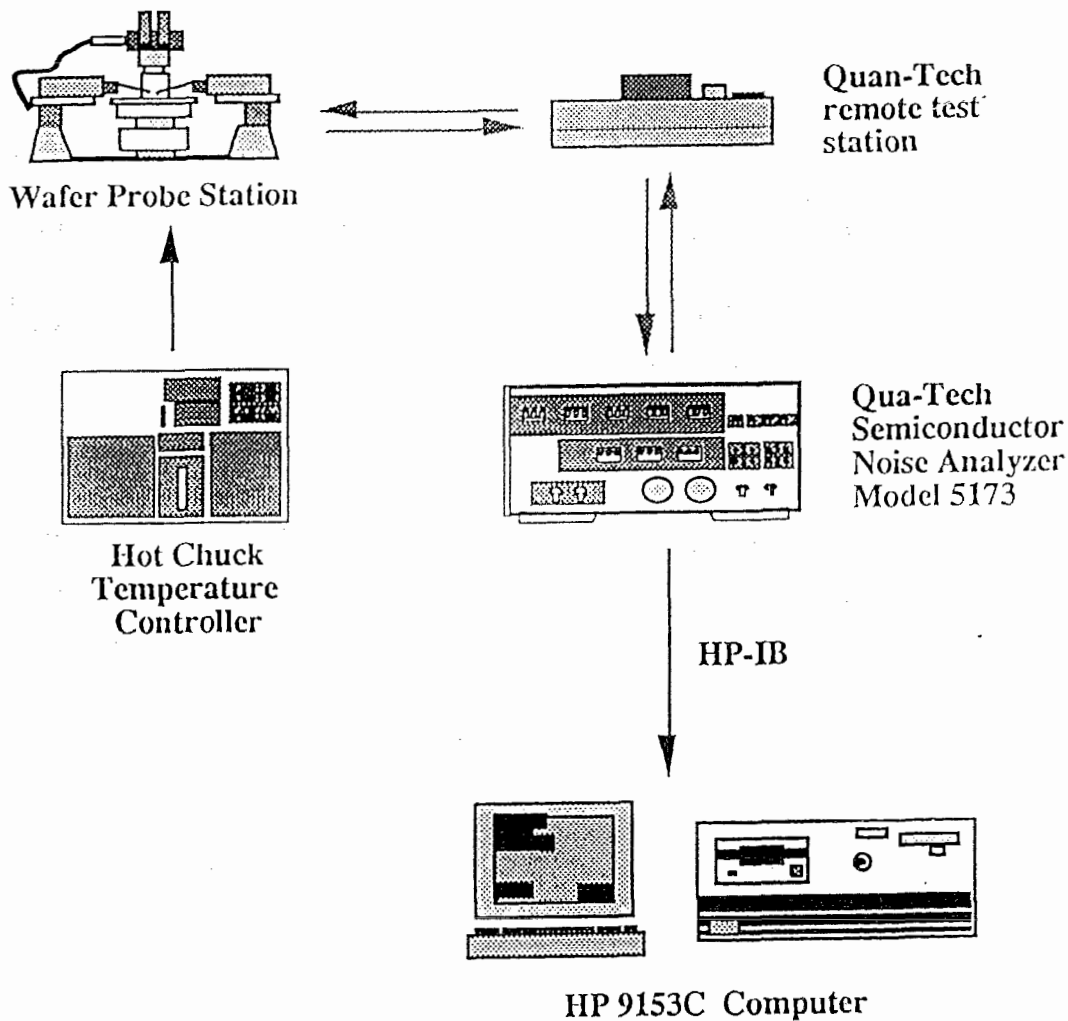


Figure 3.3 - Block diagram of the noise measurement system

The bipolar junction transistors being measured were placed in the prober station illustrated in Figure 3.3 which is connected to the Quan-Tech remote test station and the hot chuck temperature controller. The hot chuck temperature controller heats the hot chuck using d.c. current. The measured noise data were collected and statistically analyzed with an HP computer. Due to the high sensitivity of the Quan-Tech measurement system, each measurement required a period of at least 50 seconds to stabilize the noise readings. External interference including the effect of someone walking by the equipment would affect the measurements results. The system's transient response and the effect of external interference were investigated and the results were summarized in Figure 3.5.

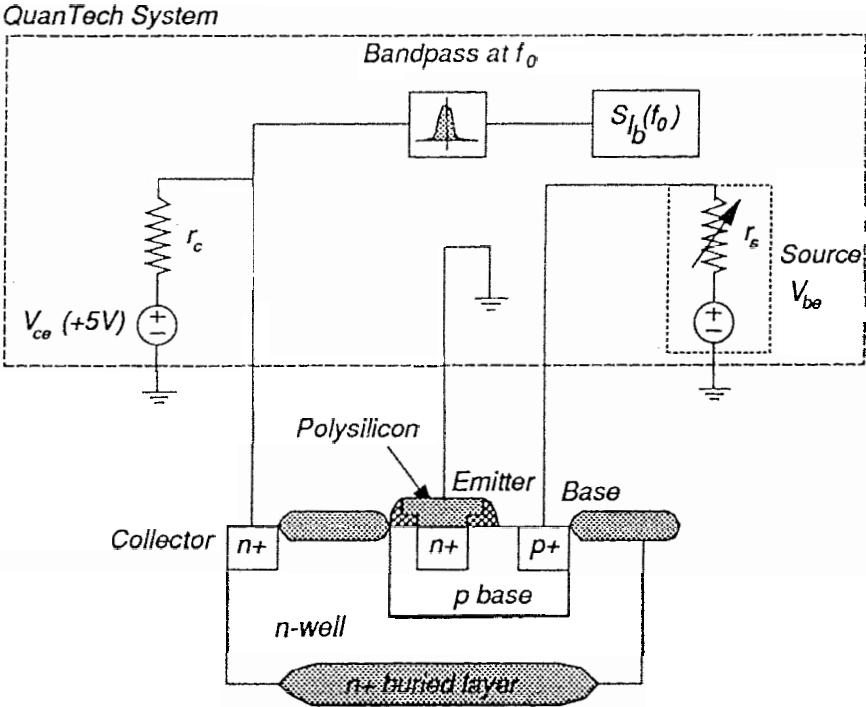


Figure 3.4 - The biasing scheme and circuit configuration of the noise measurement

Transient Responses of the QuanTech System for Batch 46 Wafer 01 Die C2 NPN 45 at  $V_{be}=0.83V$   $V_c=5.0V$   $I_c=3.9$  mA

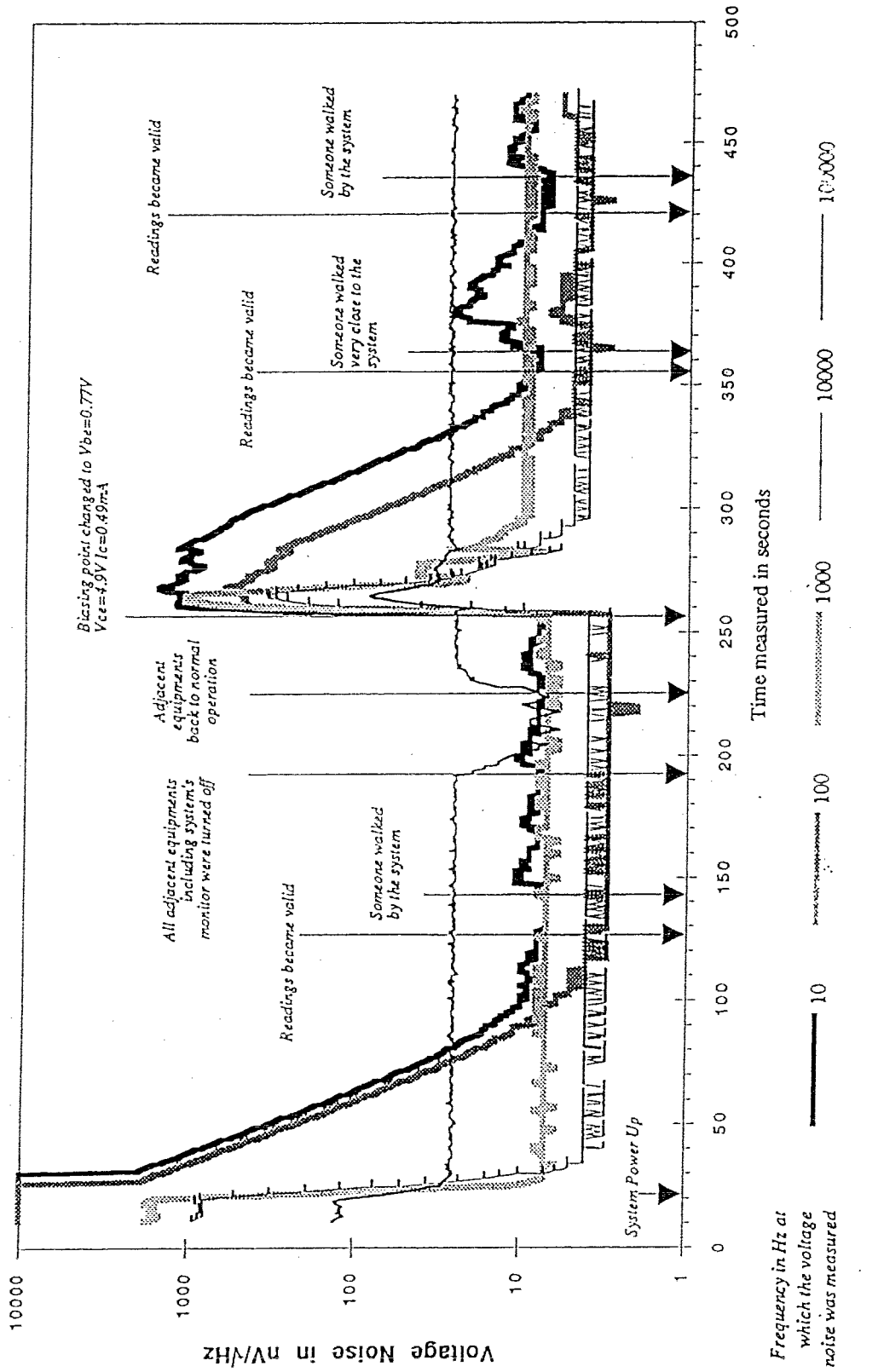


Figure 3.5 - The QuanTech system's transient response and the effect of external interference.

### 3.3 The Analysis Procedures

Figure 3.6 illustrates the analysis procedures for our noise data. Input referred current noise collected at the five measurement frequencies was plotted in a graph of noise power versus frequency as shown in graph A. Assuming our noise data are  $1/f^\beta$  type with  $\beta = 1$ ,

$$S_x(f) = \frac{\alpha}{f^\beta N} \quad (3.1a)$$

then

$$\frac{\alpha}{N} = f_0 S_x(f_0) \quad (3.1b)$$

Since  $f_0$  can be any frequency, by setting  $f_0 = 1$ , then

$$\frac{\alpha}{N} = f_0 S_x(f_0) = f_1 S_x(f_1) = \dots = S_x(1\text{Hz}) \quad (3.1c)$$

Equation (3.1c) indicates that multiplying all noise data by their measuring frequencies is the same as normalizing all noise data to 1Hz. This idea allows us to draw conclusion from data measured at different frequencies. By repeating the measurement in graph A at ten different base currents, and normalizing all noise data to 1Hz, the dependence of the input referred noise power on base current was determined as shown in graph B. The y-intercept (KF) in this log-log graph is actually the noise power normalized to a base current of 1A because the base current is 1A at the y-intercept. Since KF is the noise normalized to 1Hz and a base current of 1A, KF is used to compare the noise level of different devices. The slope of the line (AF) indicates the exponential dependence of the



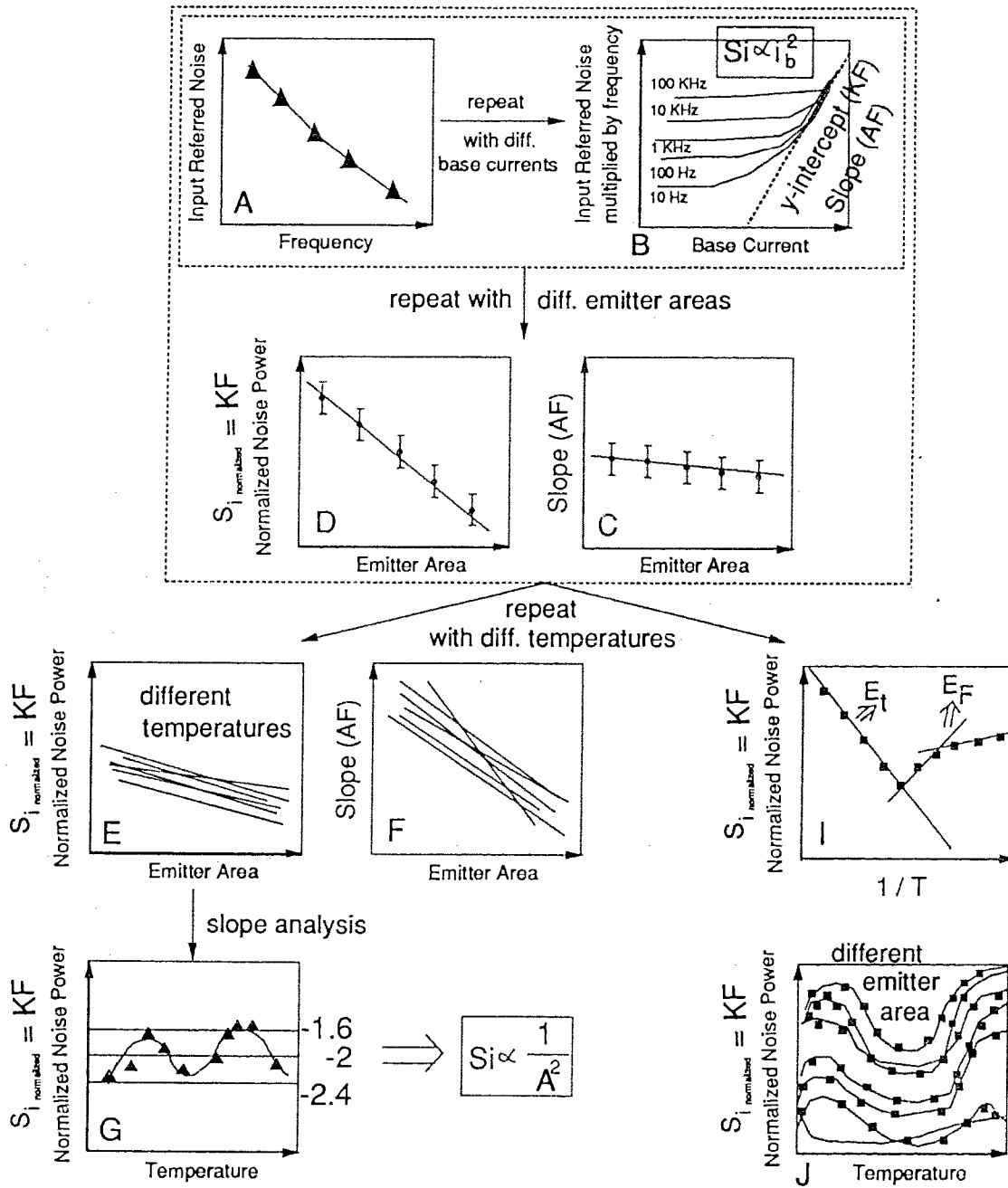


Figure 3.6 - Analysis procedures for the measured noise data

noise power on the base current. By repeating the above procedures for seven different

emitter areas, the variation of the y-intercept (KF) and the slope (AF) can be found as shown in graphs C and D. It will be shown in the result section that AF is found to be varying slightly with the emitter area and has an average value of approximately 2. The measured noise power is therefore closely proportional to the square of the base current for all emitter areas. All the above procedures were repeated for 10 different temperatures between 273K and 373K, as shown in graphs E and F. By analyzing the variation of the slope of each line in these graphs, the variation of the slope of the lines in these graphs can be plotted as a function of temperature as shown in graph G. Furthermore, the normalized current noise KF is found to be inversely proportional to the square of emitter area from graph G. Using the model developed in this research, the trap activation energy can also be found by plotting the normalized noise data versus the reciprocal temperature as shown in graph I. A GR noise profile can also be observed for different emitter areas by plotting the normalized noise data versus temperature as shown in graph J. Finally, improvements of the noise model were made based on the results in graph B and C, and this improved noise model was used to fit experimental results shown in graph A (variation with frequency), graph I (variation with temperature) and graph J (variation with both emitter area and temperature).

## Chapter 4 Results and Discussion

### 4.1 D.C Characteristics

The d.c. and noise measurement results are presented in this chapter, and comments will be made and conclusions will be drawn. A typical  $i_c$ - $V_{be}$  characteristic and forward beta plot of one of the transistor used in this research were shown in Figure 4.1 and 4.2 respectively. Noise measurement were made only in the linear region of the  $i_c$ - $V_{be}$  characteristic before the onset of high level injection and after the region where the recombination current dominates.

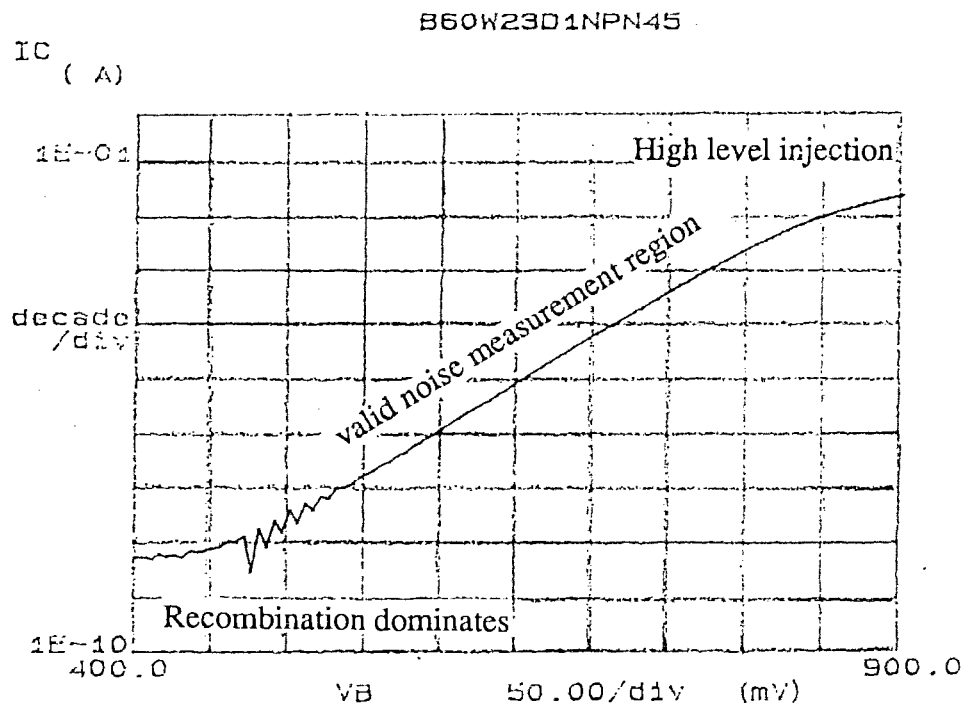


Figure 4.1 - A typical  $i_c$ - $V_{be}$  characteristic of the transistors used

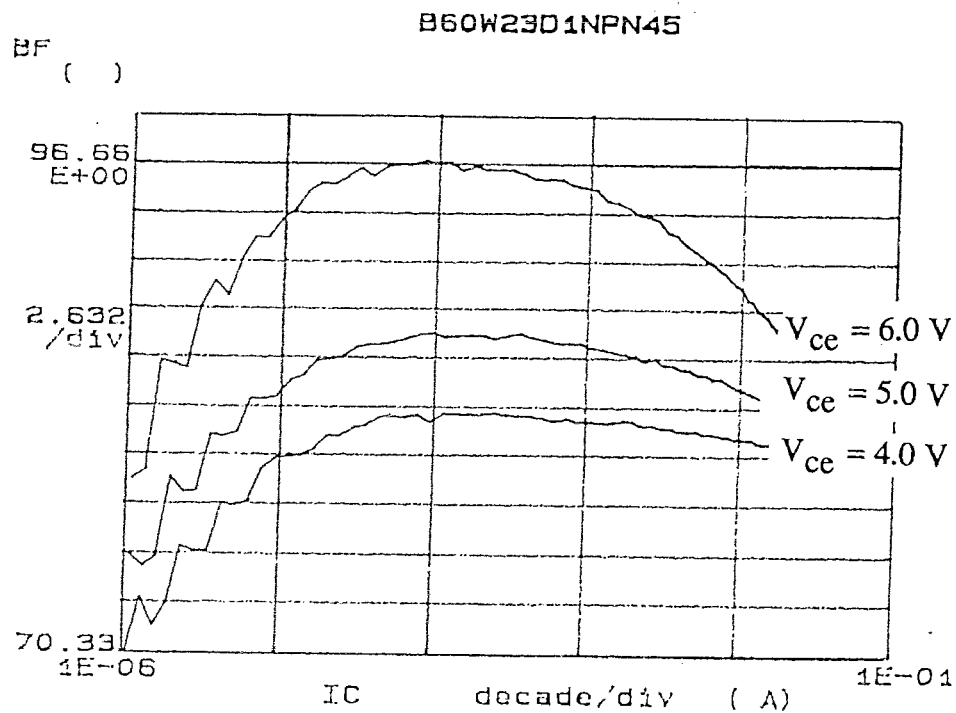


Figure 4.2 - A typical plot of forward current gain  $\beta$  versus  $I_c$  characteristic of the transistors used

## 4.2 Variation with Collector Current

An example of the input referred noise spectra measured at different collector currents is shown in Figure 4.3. The low frequency noise spectra were found to have a  $1/f^\beta$  dependence with  $\beta \cong 0.8$ . The noise spectrum decreases as the collector current decreases, following the trend of the flicker noise model. The flicker noise in our measurements is much higher than the white noise and the corner frequency is beyond the measurable frequency range of 100kHz.

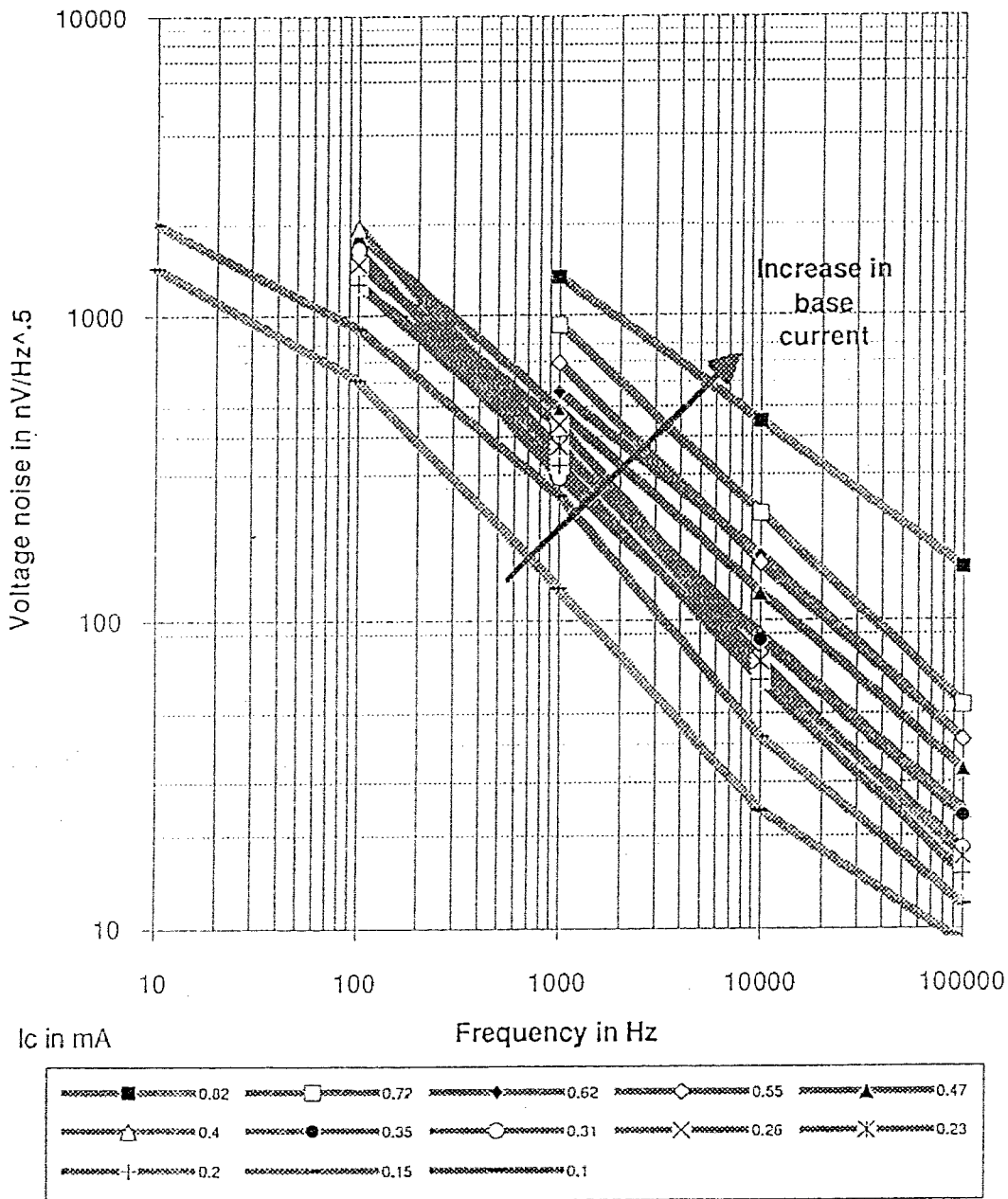


Figure 4.3 - Typical input referred voltage noise spectra measured at different collector currents

Using the external base resistance and the forward beta measured for each collector current, the measured voltage noise and collector current were converted into current noise and base current respectively. Then by normalizing the noise data at different

frequencies to 1 Hz, the data was plotted in a graph of log (normalized current noise) vs. log (base current). Figure 4.4 is a typical log-log graph of normalized current noise vs. base current. There are two separate regions in this graph :

- 1) the white noise region where the flicker noise is drowned out by the white noise and,
- 2) the flicker noise region where the flicker noise dominates.

In this region, the current noises of different frequencies overlap with each other since they are all normalized to 1Hz. Due to the nature of the flicker noise, the noise levels at high frequencies are lower than those at lower frequencies. When the base current decreases, the current noise at 100 kHz levels off into the white noise region faster than those at lower frequencies.

Batch 60 Wafer 23 Die B7 Device Z11 NPN30 Temp=70C

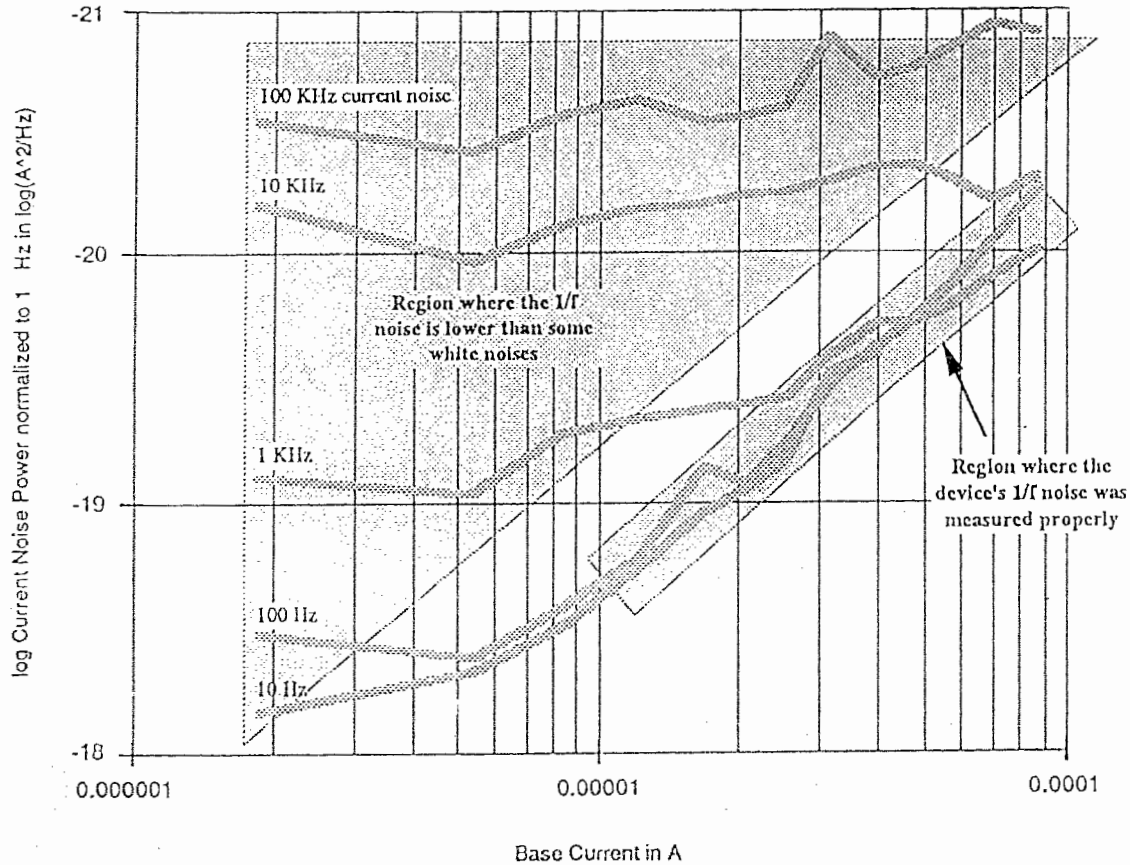


Figure 4.4 - A typical graph of log input referred current noise normalized to 1 Hz vs log base current.

The flicker noise region where noise curves of different frequencies overlapped is the region where  $AF$  (the slope of the flicker noise region) and  $KF$  (the y-intercept of the flicker noise region) should be calculated. These flicker noise parameters relate to the flicker noise power by

$$S_i(1\text{Hz}) = KF \frac{i_b^{AF}}{f^\gamma} \quad \text{where } \gamma \cong 1 \text{ and } AF \cong 2 \quad (4.1)$$

A possible dependence between the noise power and the base current is

$$S_i \propto i_b^2 \quad (4.2)$$

Figure 4.5 illustrates how AF and KF are extracted from the noise data by performing a linear fit on the data points in the  $1/f$  noise region. AF was determined from the slope of the best fit line and was found to be 1.36 [ $\log A / \log (A^2/\text{Hz})$ ] for a device with an emitter area of  $96 \mu\text{m}^2$  measured at 70C. KF was determined from the y-intercept and was found to be  $2.987\text{E-}14 \text{ A}^2/\text{Hz}$ . As shown in Figure (3.5), within one standard deviation of the current noise data, AF should lie within 1.05 to 1.40. The noise data at 100 Hz was used to determine AF and KF for most devices. Figure 4.5 illustrates how AF and KF are extracted from the noise data by performing a linear fit on the data points in the  $1/f$  noise region.



Batch 60 Wafer 23 Die B7 Device Z11 NPN30 Temp=70C

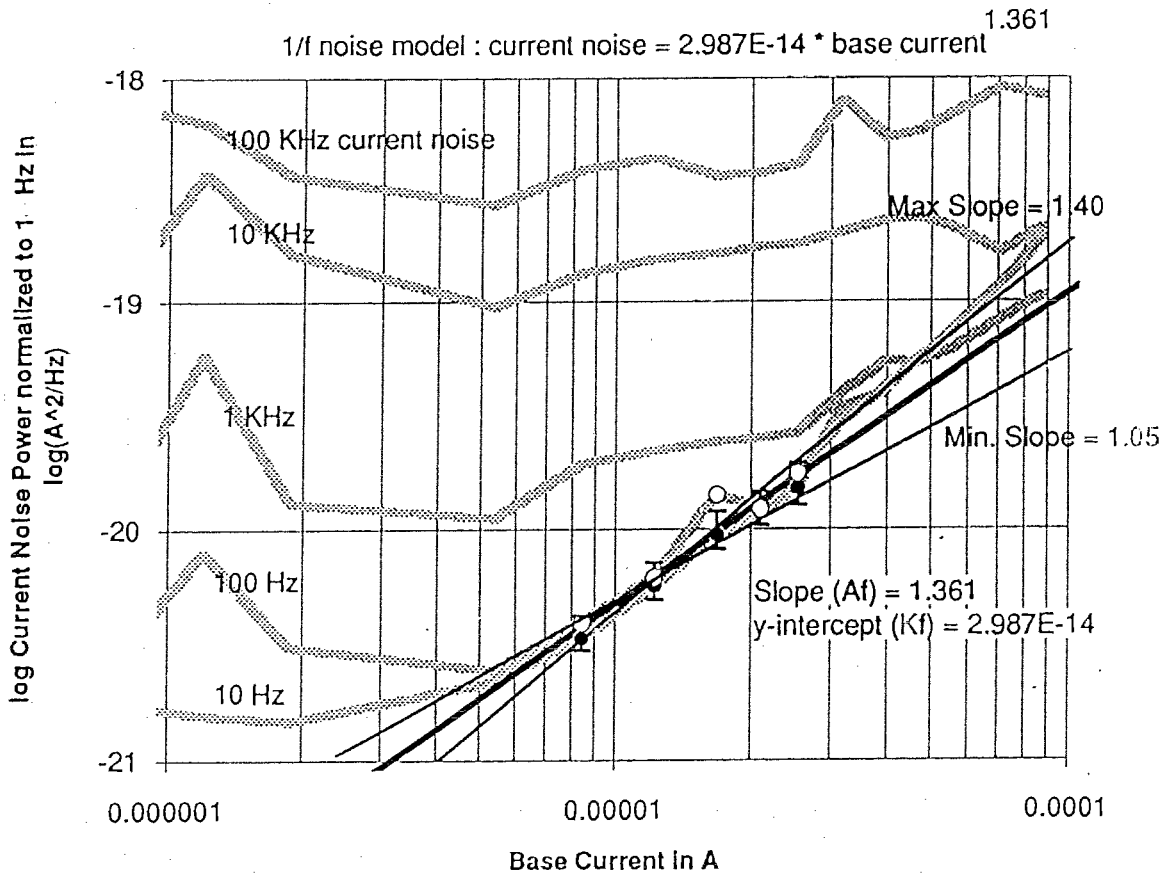
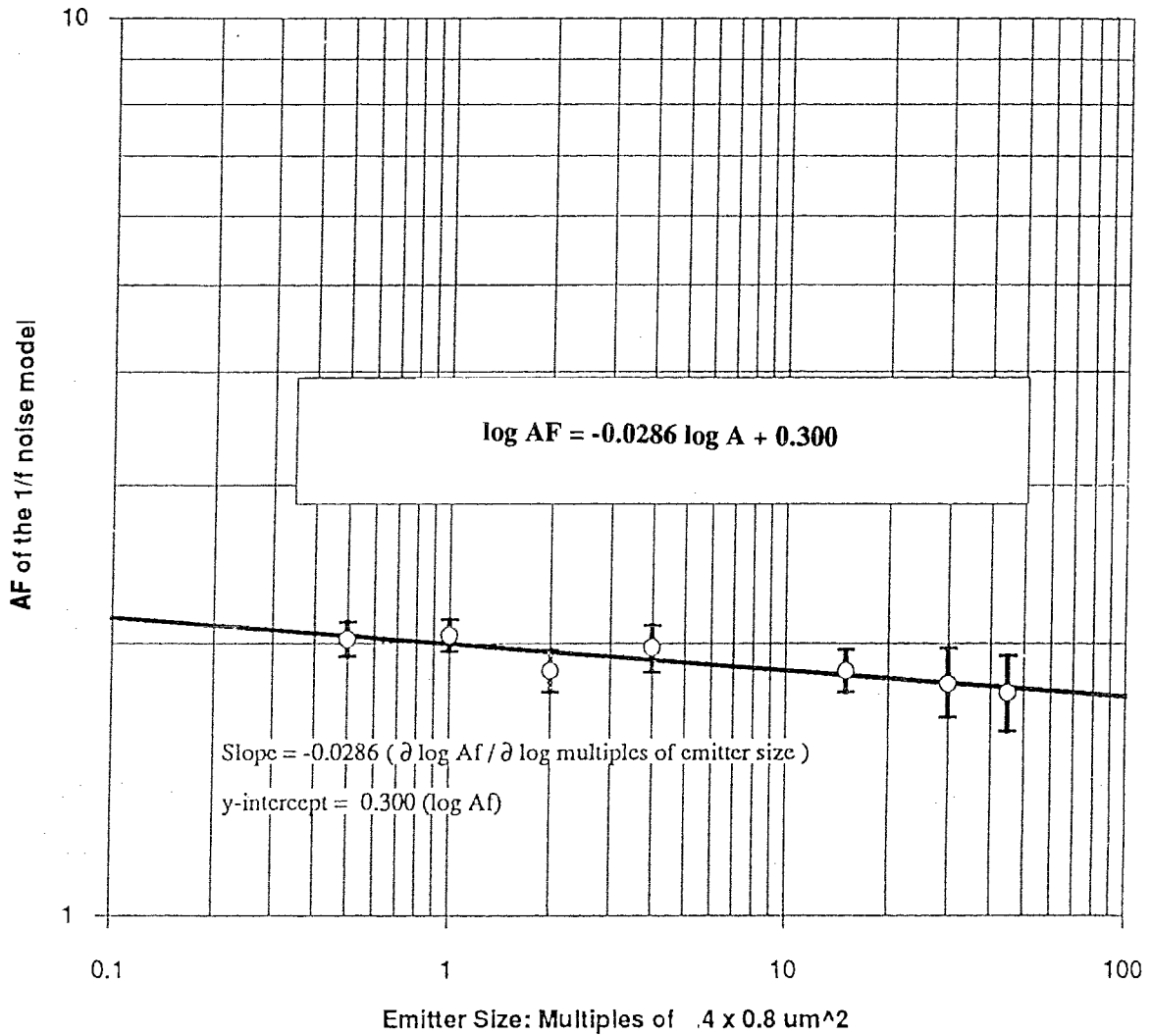


Figure 4.5 - AF and KF were extracted from the noise data by performing a linear fit on the data points in the 1/f noise region

### 4.3 Variation with Emitter Area

The above measurement and analysis procedure were applied to devices with different emitter areas. AF's measured from different device sizes were then plotted vs device size as shown in Figure 4.6a. A linear relationship was observed in the graph of log AF vs log device size. A least square line fitting process was then applied to this graph to determine the relationship between AF and the device size.



**Figure 4.6** AFs measured from different device sizes were then plotted vs device size to determine how AF varies with the device size. A linear relationship was observed in the graph. A weak emitter area dependence was observed in the AF measured.

Based on these data, the relationship of AF with device size was

$$\log AF = -0.029 \log A + 0.30 \tag{4.3}$$

where A is the device size in multiples of  $(3.2 \mu\text{m}^2)$ . It can be concluded from this graph that AF, which is the exponential dependence of the noise power with the base current, only weakly depends on the emitter area. Similarly, as shown in Figure 4.7, KF's determined were plotted on a graph of  $\log Kf$  vs  $\log$  device size in which a linear relationship was observed. Based on these data, the relationship of KF with device

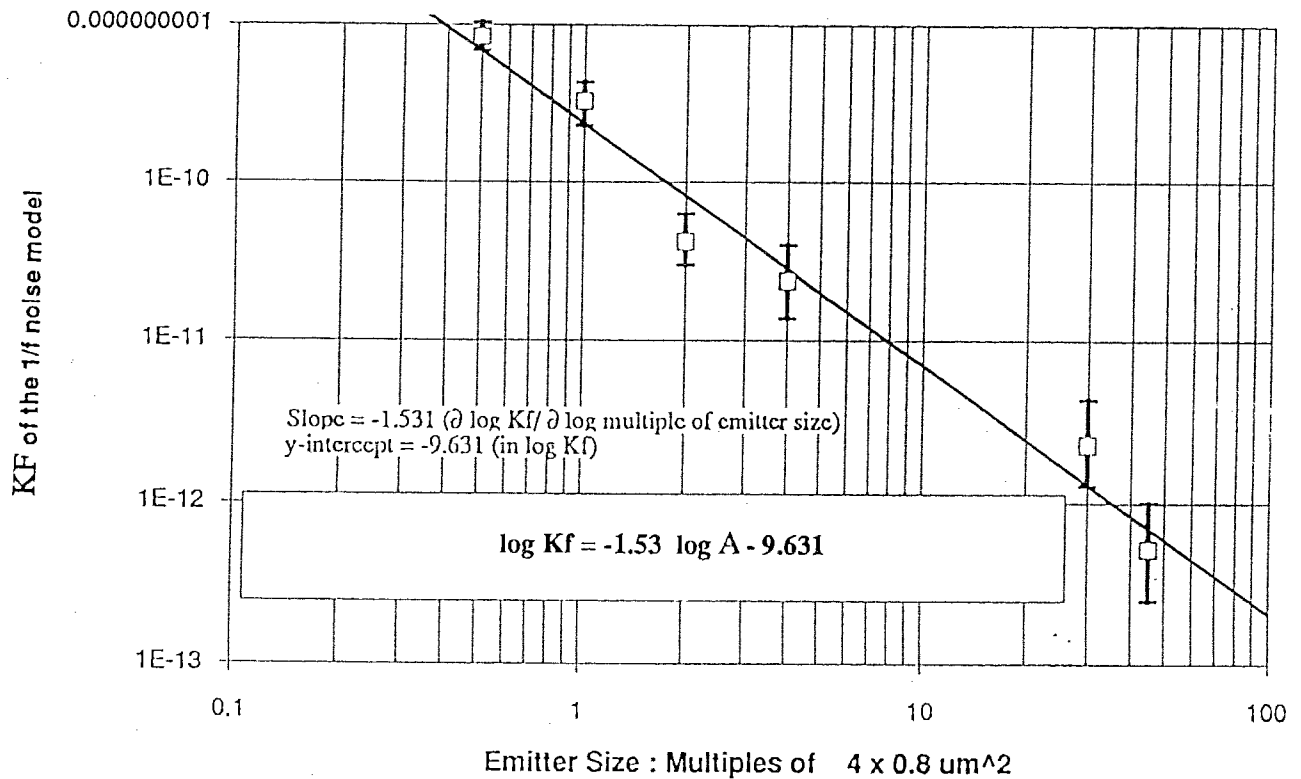


Figure 4.7 KFs measured from different device sizes were then plotted vs device size to determine how AF varies with the device size. A linear relationship was observed in the graph. A weak emitter area dependence was observed in the AF measured.

emitter size was found to be

$$\log KF = -1.53 \log A - 9.63 \quad (4.4)$$

where A is a multiple of  $3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$ . Notice that KF, the noise power normalized to 1Hz and 1A, is strongly dependent on the emitter area.

#### 4.4 Variation with Temperature

The same procedures for finding the AF and KF with varying device size was then repeated at 10 different temperatures: 10C, 20C, 30C, 40C, 50C, 70C, 85C, 86C, 92.5C and 100C. Figure 4.8 and Figure 4.9 show the best fit models for both AFs and KFs measured with respect to device size at different temperatures. For clarity purposes, only those that 0C, 50C and 100C are shown in the figures.

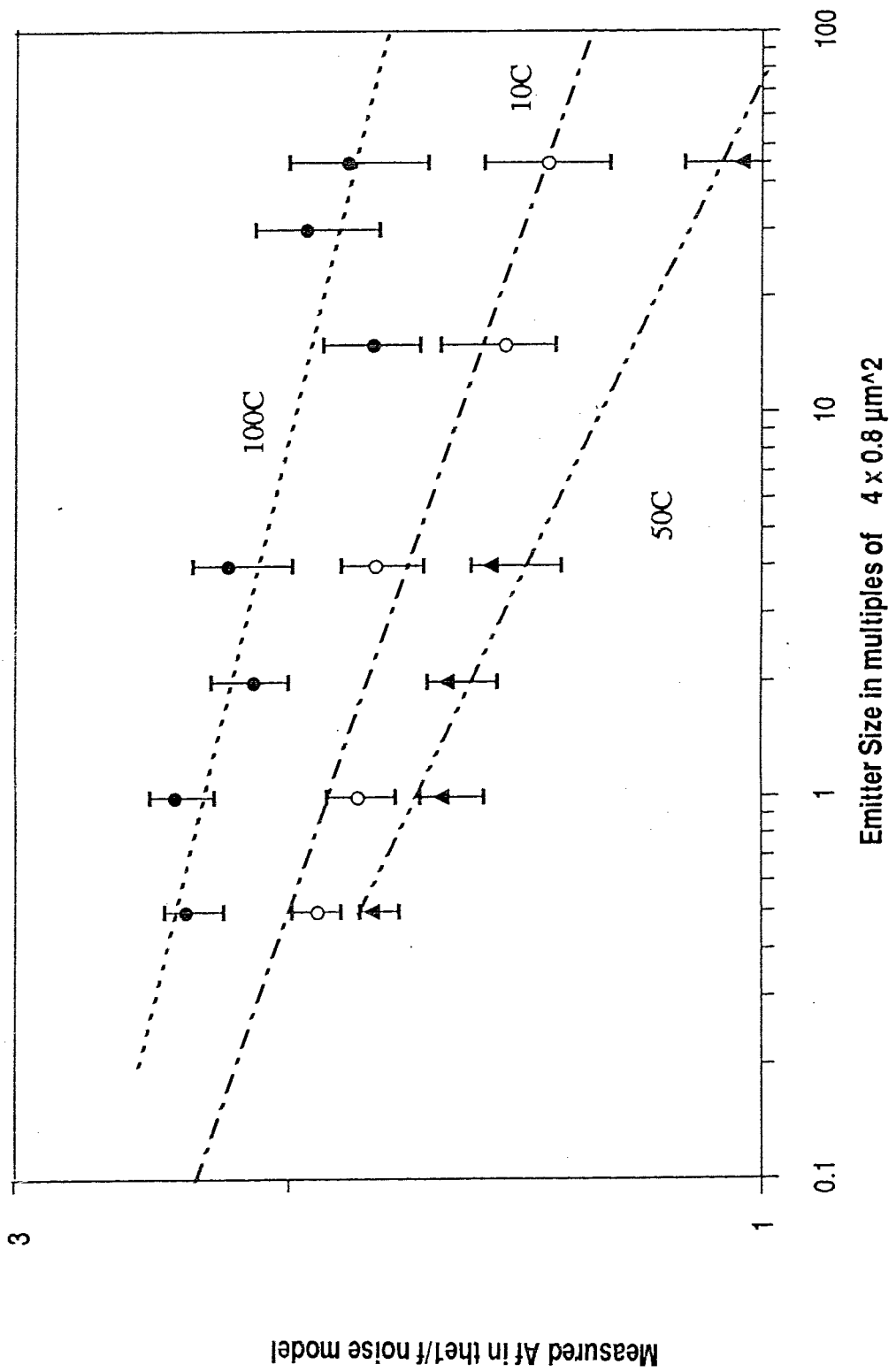


Figure 4.8 Best fit models for AFs measured for different device sizes at 0C, 50C and 100C.

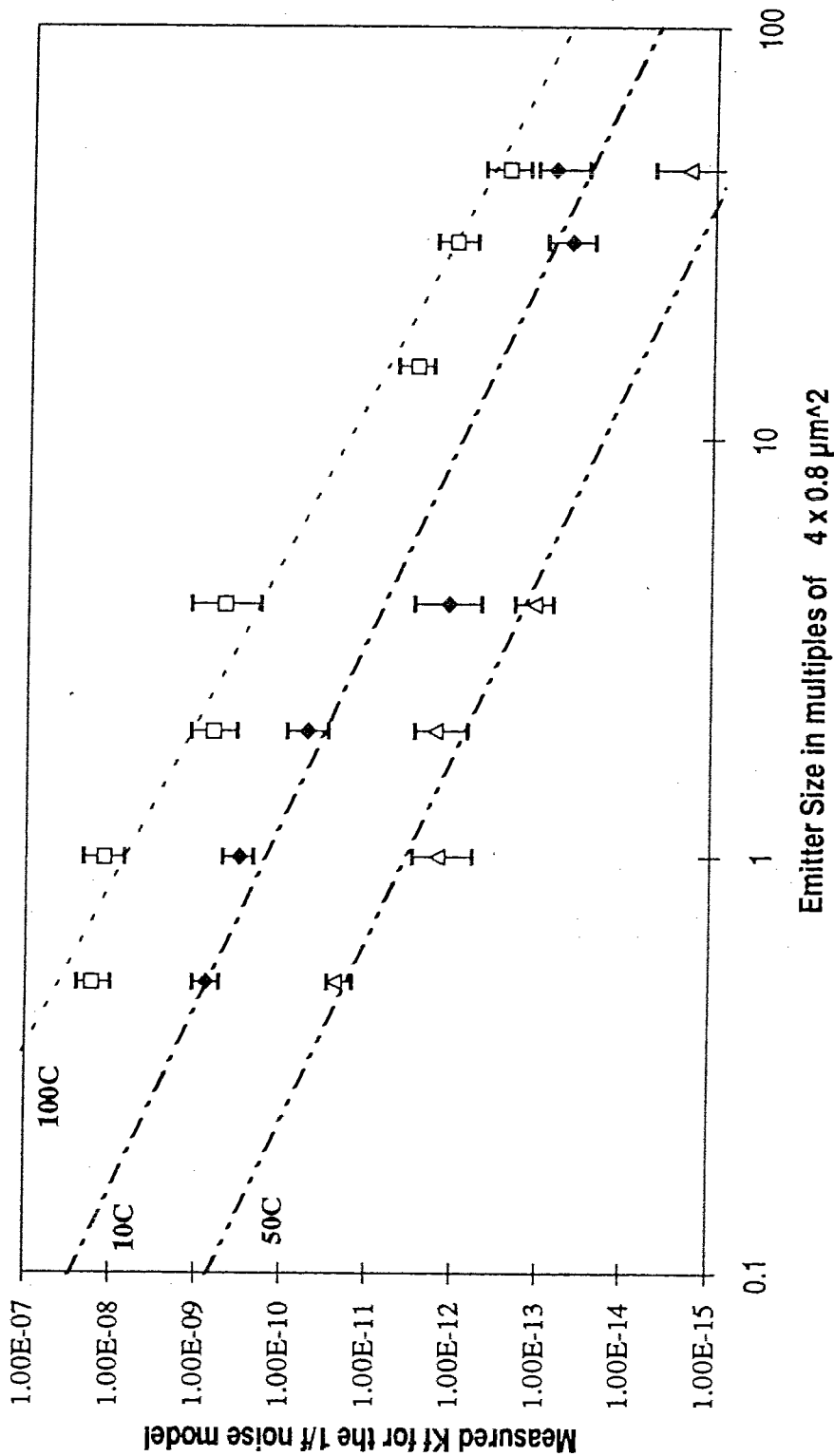


Figure 4.9 Best fit models for KFs measured for different device sizes at 0C, 50C and 100C.

Table 4.1 summarizes the least square slopes and the error ranges measured for KFs at different temperatures. Figure 4.10 shows the distribution of these values at different temperatures. An average slope of -2 indicates that the noise power is inversely

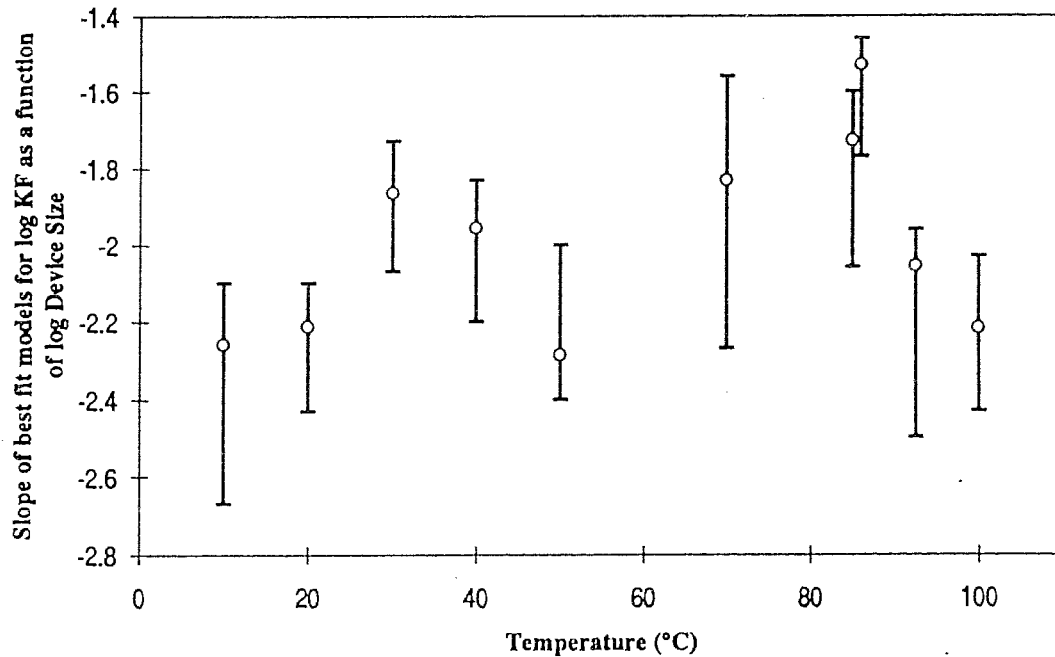
proportional to the square of the emitter area.

$$S_i \propto \frac{1}{A^2} \quad (4.5)$$

This experimental finding has a significant effect on the noise performance of small emitter area BJTs, for example, a reduction in area by results in almost an order of magnitude increase in the current noise power. This results will be used in the development of a noise model for our npn transistors. Note that the magnitudes of the least square slopes reach a minimum at 30C and 86C.

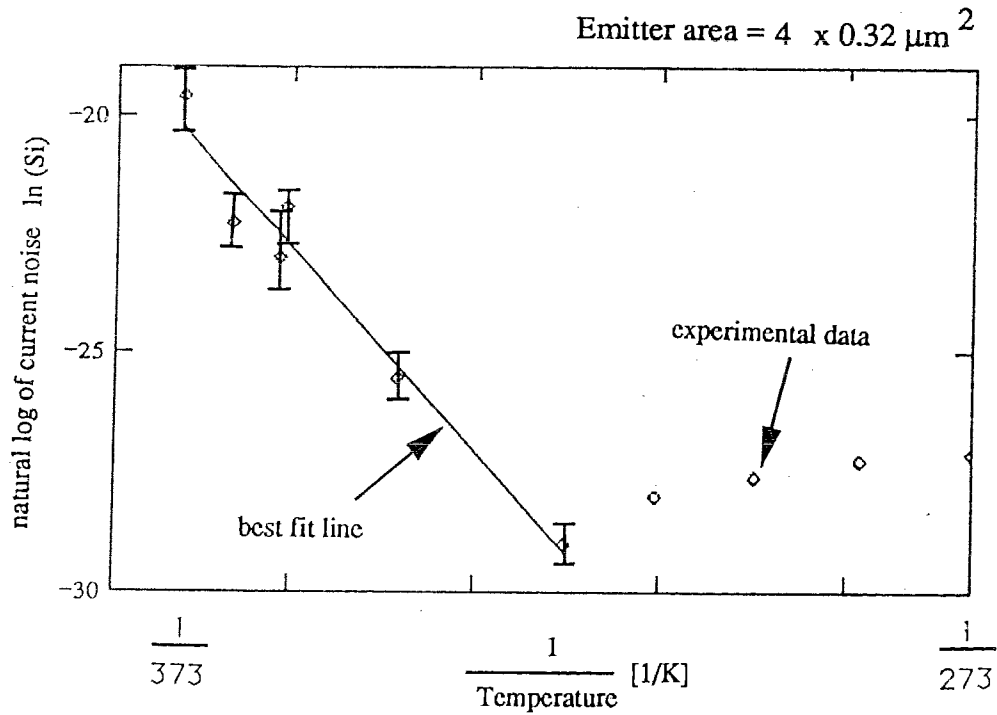
Temperature	Least Square Slope	Max. Slope	Min. Slope
10 C	-2.33	-2.10	-2.67
20 C	-2.21	-2.10	-2.43
30 C	-1.95	-1.73	-2.07
40 C	-1.96	-1.83	-2.43
50 C	-2.29	-2.00	-2.4
70 C	-1.83	-1.56	-2.27
85 C	-1.73	-1.60	-2.06
86 C	-1.53	-1.46	-1.77
92.5 C	-2.06	-1.96	-2.5
100 C	-2.21	-2.03	-2.43

**Table 4.1** The least square slopes and the error ranges measured for KFs at different temperatures.



**Figure 4.10** The slopes of the best fit models for KFs vary with temperature. KF is the noise power normalized to 1Hz and 1A, the slope value shown here represents the exponential dependence between the noise and the emitter area. A average slope of -2 indicates that the noise power is inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area.

According to our theory, a plot of the noise spectrum versus the reciprocal temperature would give the trap level energy on the falling linear portion and the quasi-fermi level at the rising curve. Figure 4.11 shows a typical example of this kind of plot in which the straight line on the left side corresponding to the rising edge of a GR noise peak and the curve on right side corresponding to the falling edge of a GR noise peak. Fitting a straight line into the data points on the left side in Figure 4.11 and using equation (2.43), an trap energy of 0.837 eV was determined.



**Figure 4.11** In a plot of the noise spectrum for a npn transistor with an emitter area of  $12.8 \mu\text{m}^2$  versus the reciprocal of the temperature, an trap level energy of 837 meV above the valence band was determined.

The activation energies determined from similar line fitting for all transistors with different emitter areas as listed in Table 4.1 below



Emitter Area [ $\mu\text{m}^2$ ]	T rap Energy [meV]
0.5 x 3.2	822 $\pm$ 7.2
1 x 3.2	912 $\pm$ 12.3
2 x 3.2	810 $\pm$ 14.6
4 x 3.2	837 $\pm$ 6.3
15 x 3.2	801 $\pm$ 16.4
30 x 3.2	781 $\pm$ 13.2
45 x 3.2	785 $\pm$ 6.1
Average :	821 $\pm$ 5.4

**Table 4.2 The activation energies transistors with different emitter areas**

Using  $N_A = 7 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for the base and  $N_D = 1 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for the emitter. and assuming complete ionization of the dopants at temperature higher than 50C, the Fermi level for hole and electron are calculated as 121 meV and 943 meV above the valence band. According to our theory, the slope of the right side of Figure 4.11 should be equal to  $\frac{q}{kT} E_f(T)$ . In order to verify our theory, we plot the function  $\frac{q}{kT} E_f(T) + C$ , where C is a constant for vertical offset, on the same graph with our experimental data . The theory is verified if we find the slope of  $\frac{q}{kT} E_f(T) + C$  matches with the experimental data. Figure 4.13 compares the experimental data with our theory. The solid line is  $\frac{q}{kT} E_f(T)$  using Fermi-Dirac approximation for calculating  $E_f(T)$  for intermediate temperatures. The dashed line is  $\frac{q}{kT} E_f(T) + C$  using the function for  $E_f(T)$  for low temperatures. These results indicate that our theory and the experimental data are in good agreement.

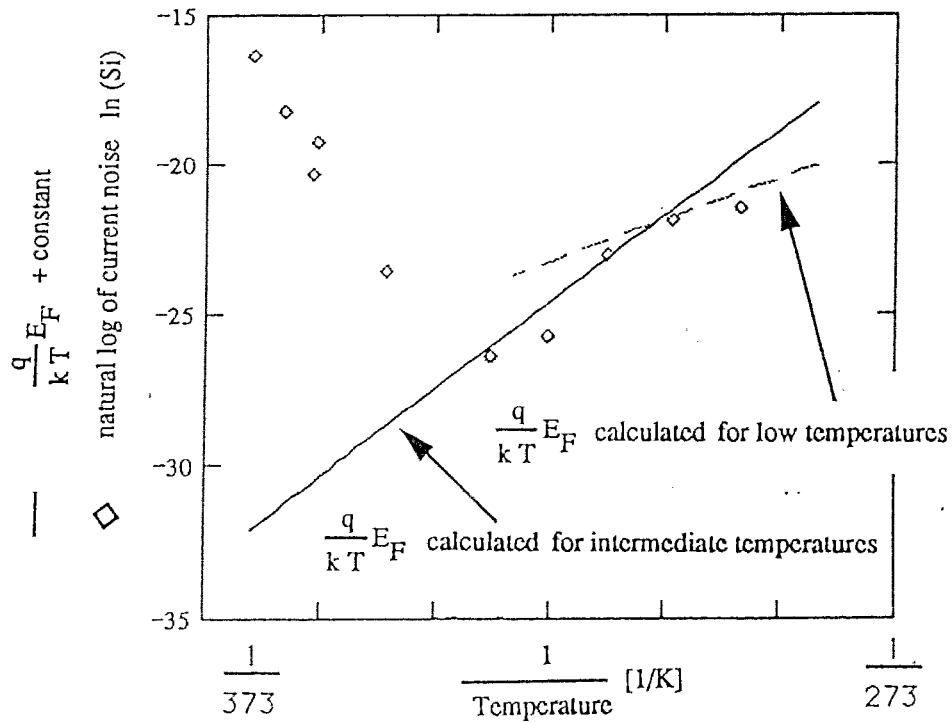


Figure 4.12 Compare the function  $\frac{q}{kT} E_F(T) + C$  predicted from our theory with the actual experimental data. The dark line is  $\frac{q}{kT} E_F(T) + C$  using Fermi-Dirac approximation for calculating  $E_F(T)$  for intermediate temperatures. The dash line is  $\frac{q}{kT} E_F(T) + C$  using the function for  $E_F(T)$  for low temperatures.

Using the trap energy of 821 meV above the conduction band determined from experiment and an appropriately selected time constant in our noise model which is discussed in detail in next chapter, good agreement between the original data and model results as shown in Figure 4.13 are obtained. In this figure, we can only model one of the two GR noise peaks because the falling edge of the other GR noise does not contain information on the trap level energy .

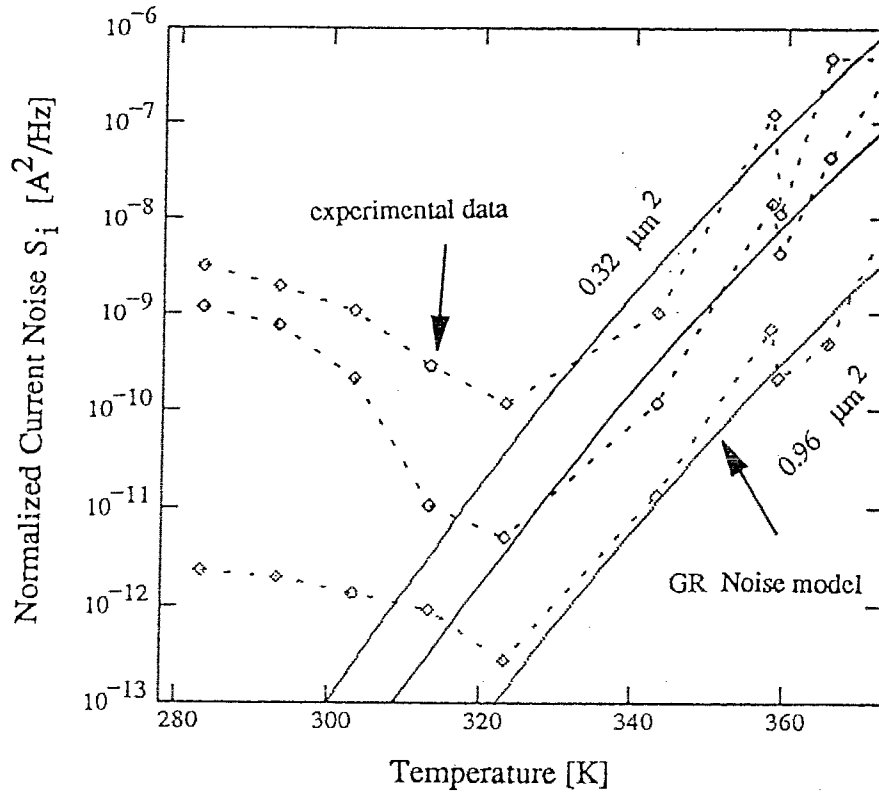


Figure 4.13 Using the trap activation energy of 0.88 eV determined from experiment, a good agreement between the original data and model results are observed

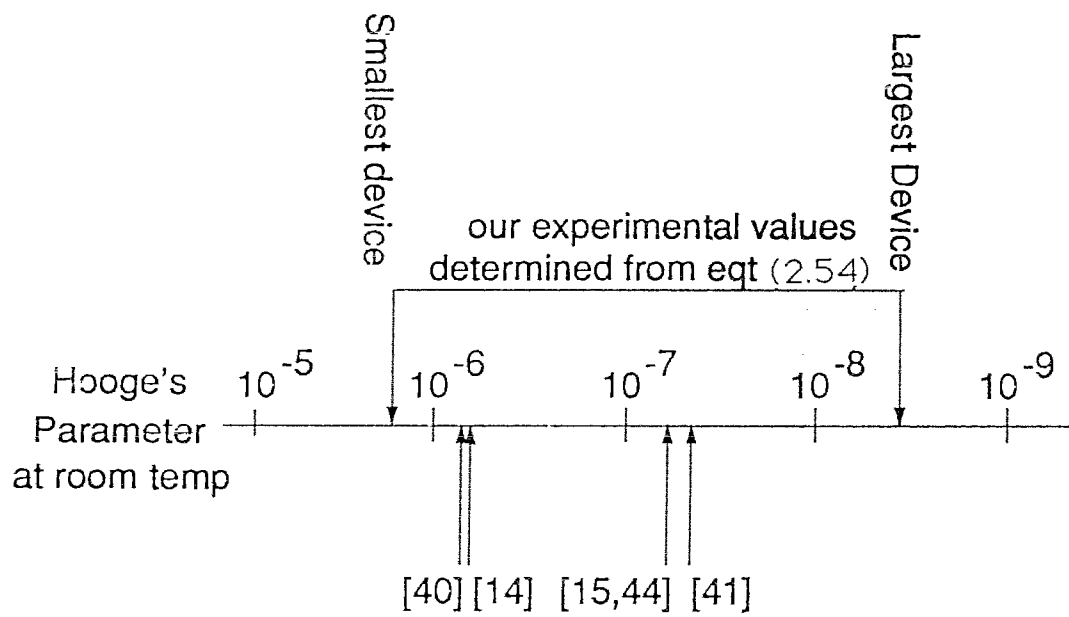
#### 4.5 Hooge's Parameter for Holes

Using equation (2.54), the minimum values of the Hooge's parameter for holes for different device sizes and temperatures are calculated and summarized in Table 4.3.

$\alpha_p$	1.6 $\mu\text{m}^2$	3.2 $\mu\text{m}^2$	6.4 $\mu\text{m}^2$	12.8 $\mu\text{m}^2$	48 $\mu\text{m}^2$	96 $\mu\text{m}^2$	144 $\mu\text{m}^2$
283 K	3.37E-06	2.49E-06	7.85E-07	3.02E-08		2.83E-09	4.94E-09
293 K	2.73E-06	2.21E-06	6.11E-07	3.49E-08	5.34E-09	1.66E-09	
303 K	1.51E-06	5.37E-07	3.35E-07		1E-08	1.24E-09	3.95E-09
313 K	6.21E-07	6.39E-08	1.42E-07	6.65E-09	2.21E-09	4.46E-10	1.14E-09
323 K	3.43E-07	4.74E-08	5.43E-08	6.05E-09			7.87E-10
343 K	9.2E-07	2.27E-07		3.99E-08	3.06E-09		5.65E-10
358 K	1.11E-05	2.5E-06	8.28E-07	8.54E-07	4.16E-08	8.01E-09	3.4E-09
359 K	3.85E-06	1.37E-06	3.78E-07	1.3E-07	2.05E-08	6.09E-09	3.12E-09
365.5 K	3.39E-05	4.74E-06	6.12E-07	1.94E-07	3.04E-08	1.04E-08	3.48E-09
373 K	1.97E-05	1.22E-05	2.1E-06	1.11E-06	4.31E-08	6.8E-09	2.81E-09

**Table 4.3** The minimum values of the Hooge's parameter for holes for different device sizes and temperatures

The Hooge's parameters summarized above are in good agreement with the values reported by other researchers:  $8.5 \times 10^{-7}$  for n-type silicon at 300K in [14],  $9 \times 10^{-7}$  for n-channel MOSFET in [40],  $9.3 \times 10^{-8}$  for the base region of pnp BJT in [41] and  $7.1 \times 10^{-8}$  for n-channel JFETs in [15,44]. A comparison of our Hooge's parameters determined from experiment with the values reported by other researchers is shown in Figure 4.14.



**Figure 4.14** A comparison of our Hooge's parameters determined from experiment with the values reported by other researchers

## **Chapter 5      Noise Model and Modelling Results**

### **5.1 Nature of the Model**

Our flicker noise model for bipolar transistor is a semi-empirical noise model which is consisted of two parts :

- 1) the fundamental noise part for flicker noise mobility fluctuations and
- 2) the non-fundamental part for GR noise.

A precise physical noise model is difficult to obtain because the theoretical model in [25] only provides a lower limit for the Hooge's parameter. However, as will be demonstrated in the next section, the combination of fundamental flicker noise and a number of non-fundamental GR noise produces good fitting to a large number of experimental data. Once the fitting parameters are determined, this simulation model can closely fit noise data with different frequency, biasing current, temperature and emitter area. The first two independent variables are supported by the simulation model developed here, while the latter two are made possible after this research work. The fundamental part of our noise model is a term that increase slowly with temperature while the non-fundamental part depends heavily on temperature.

### **5.2 Physical and Fitting Parameters for the Model**

Before the noise model can be used for the noise simulation of a given bipolar transistor, the device parameters for the device must be extracted and the fitting parameters have to be determined. The meanings of the inputs parameters for both the flicker noise model and the GR noise model are given in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 respectively.

Fundamental Flicker Noise (Diffusion Noise)		
Device Parameters	$T_F$	Transit time = $\tau_e$ (electron life time) / $\beta_{dc}$
	$W_E, W_B$	Emitter and base width
	$N_D, N_A$	Donor and acceptor concentration
	$A_E$	Emitter area
	$C_f$	Fitting parameter for fundamental flicker noise ( $\leq$ Emitter Area <sup>2</sup> ). Account for the area dependence constant and the fact that our physical model give only an lower bound for the Hooge's parameter rather than the exact value

Table 5.1 Meaning of the inputs to the flicker noise model

Non-fundamental GR Noise (for each trap)		
Device Parameters	$\tau_0$	pre-exponential time constant
	$E_t$	trap energy level
	$A_E$	Emitter area
	$C_{nf}$	Fitting parameter for non-fundamental flicker noise power (independent of $f, T, I_c$ )

Table 5.2 Meanings of the inputs to the GR noise model

### 5.3 Definition of the Noise Model

As described in last section, the actual model is a summation of the fundamental flicker noise model and a non-fundamental GR noise models and the noise power is

$$S(f, I_b, T, A_E) = S_d(f, I_b, T, A_E) + \sum_{i=1}^n S_{gr_i}(f, I_b, T, A_E) \quad (5.1)$$

where  $n$  is the number of traps involved. The definition of the two models are defined in Table 5.3 and 5.4 below.

### Flicker Noise Model Definition

$$S_d = \frac{\pi f_T q I_B \ln \frac{P(0)}{P(W_E)} \alpha_p C_f}{f A_E^2}$$

where

$\alpha_p = \alpha_{\text{elastic}} (1 - \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T})) + \alpha_{\text{non-elastic}} \exp(\frac{-\theta}{2T})$  is the Hooge's parameter,

$\alpha_{\text{elastic}} = \alpha_{\text{normal}} = \frac{4 \alpha_0}{3 \pi} \frac{6 k T}{m^* c^2}$  is the Hooge's parameter for elastic collision,

$\alpha_{\text{non-elastic}} = \alpha_{\text{umklapp}} = \frac{4 \alpha_0}{3 \pi} \left( \frac{h}{m^* a c} \right)^2$  is that for non-elastic collision,

$f_T = \frac{g_m}{2 \pi C_{be}}$  is the cutoff frequency,

$g_m = \frac{q I_c}{k T}$  is the transconductance of the transistor,

$C_{be} = \frac{q I_c T_F}{k T}$  is the junction capacitance of the transistor

$\frac{P(0)}{P(W_E)} = \frac{D_h}{W_E V_s}$  is the hole concentration ratio at the emitter boundaries,

$D_h = \frac{kT}{q} \mu_h$  is the diffusion constant for holes,

$\mu_h = 543 T_n^{-0.57} + \frac{407 T^{-2.23}}{1 + \left[ \frac{N_d}{235 \times 10^{17} T_n^{24}} 0.88 T_n^{-0.146} \right]}$  is the hole mobility

with  $T_n = T/300$  and  $V_s = \frac{2.4 \times 10^5}{1 + 0.8 \exp(\frac{T}{600})}$  is the saturation velocity.

Table 5.3 Definition of the Flicker Noise Model for Bipolar Junction Transistors



**GR Noise Model Definition**  
(for Bipolar Junction Transistors)

$$S_{gr_i} = \frac{C_{nf} I_C^m}{A_E^n} \frac{\tau_i}{1 + (2\pi f \tau_i)^2} f_{t_i} (1 - f_{t_i})$$

where

$$f_{t_i} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp \frac{q(E_{t_i} - E_F)}{kT}}$$

is the trap fractional occupancy,

$$\tau_i = \tau_{0_i} \exp \left( \frac{q E_{a_i}}{kT} \right)$$

is the trapping time constant

$E_{a_i} = (E_C - E_{t_i})$  for electron trap and  $(E_{t_i} - E_V)$  for hole trap,

m and n are device dependent constants and are determined to be 2 for our devices.

Table 5.4a Definition of the GR noise model for Bipolar Junction Transistors

**GR Noise Model Definition**  
(for Junction Field Effect Transistors)

$$S_{gr_i} = C_{nf} \frac{\tau_i}{1 + (2\pi f \tau_i)^2}$$

where

$$\tau_i = \tau_{0_i} \exp \left( \frac{q E_a}{kT} \right)$$

is the trapping time constant,

$E_a = (E_C - E_t)$  for electron trap and  $(E_t - E_V)$  for hole trap,

$C_{nf}$  is a constant independent of temperature.

Table 5.4b Definition of the GR noise model for JFETs

The GR noise model for JFETs in Table 5.4b is different from that of a BJT in Table 5.4a since the trap occupancy factor  $f_t (1 - f_t)$  in a JFET is treated as a temperature independent constant as shown in [45] and [46]. The differences in the treatment of  $f_t (1 - f_t)$  comes from the structural and operational difference of the two devices.

## 5.4 Definition of parameters used in the Models

The meanings the symbols used in the model definitions are given in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5 :

Constants and variables used in the Fundamental Flicker Noise Models		
Symbol	Type	Meaning and value
$f$	variable	frequency [Hz]
$T$	variable	temperature [K]
$I_B$	variable	base current [A]
$A_E$	variable	emitter area [m <sup>2</sup> ]
$C_f$	fitting parameter	noise power offset from theoretical minimum
$N_d$	device parameter	emitter donor concentration at the base-emitter junction
$W_E$	device parameter	effective emitter width
$T_F$	device parameter	transit time in SPICE = $1.6 \times 10^{-11}$ s
$q$	constant	electron charge = $1.60210 \times 10^{-19}$ C
$\theta$	constant	Debye temperature = 645 K (Si)
$\alpha_0$	constant	fine structure constant = 1/137 (Si)
$k$	constant	Boltzmann constant = $6.6256 \times 10^{-34}$ J/K
$h$	constant	Planck constant = $1.38054 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K
$m^*$	constant	effective mass = $0.946 \times 9.1091 \times 10^{-31}$ kg
$c$	constant	speed of light in vacuum = $2.997925 \times 10^{-8}$ m/s

Table 5.5a Constants and variables used in the fundamental flicker noise model

Constants and variables used in the Non-fundamental GR Noise Models (for each trap)		
Symbol	Type	Meaning and value
f	variable	frequency [Hz]
T	variable	temperature [K]
I <sub>c</sub>	variable	collector current [A]
A <sub>E</sub>	variable	emitter area [m <sup>2</sup> ]
C <sub>nf</sub>	fitting parameter	noise power offset
τ <sub>0</sub>	device parameter	pre-exponential time constant [s]
E <sub>t</sub>	device parameter	trap energy level [eV]
E <sub>c</sub>	device parameter	conduction band energy level [eV]
E <sub>v</sub>	constant	valence band energy level = 0 eV
q	constant	electron charge = 1.60210 x 10 <sup>-19</sup> C
k	constant	Boltzmann constant = 6.6256 x 10 <sup>-34</sup> J/K

Table 5.5b Constants and variables used in the non-fundamental GR noise model for JFET

## 5.5 Applying the Models to Noise Data

Figure 5.1 illustrates the idea of using both the GR noise and the flicker noise spectrum to construct a noise model for our experimental data. The symbols in this figure are the trend of our experimental results obtained from a 4<sup>th</sup> degree polynomial curve fitting. Figure 5.2 shows our actual experimental data measured from a device of emitter area 3.2 μm<sup>2</sup> and the modelling results using parameters shown in Figure 5.2b. The GR noise model in Figure 5.2 uses the activation energy (820eV) determined previously in the experimental section. As seen in these figures, the fundamental flicker noise is a weak temperature-dependent function while the GR noises depend heavily on temperature and appear as 'hills'.

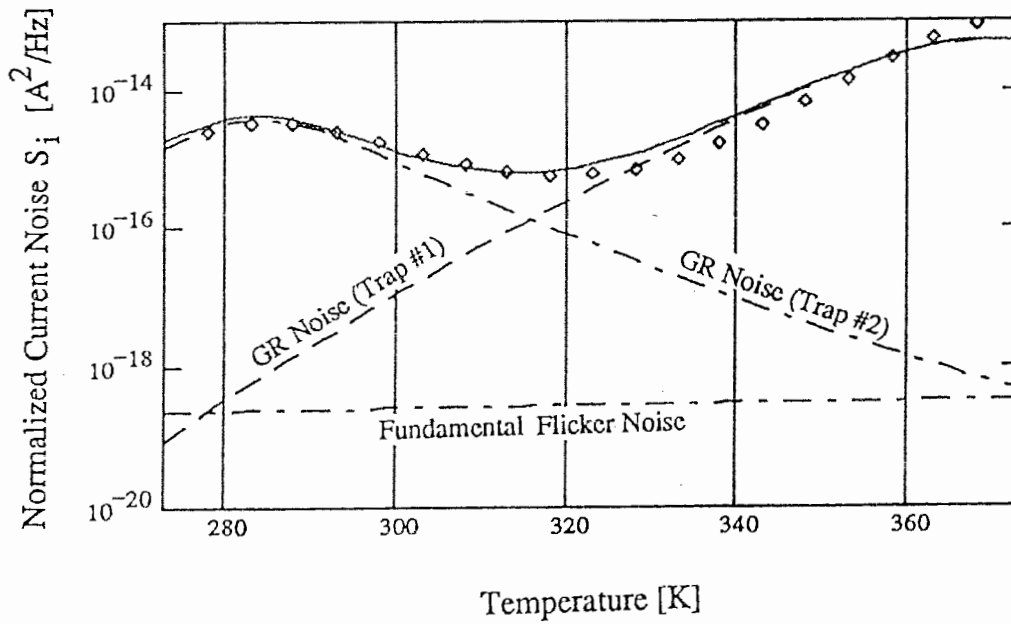


Figure 5.1a - Two GR noise spectra were used together with the fundamental flicker noise to fit the experimental data

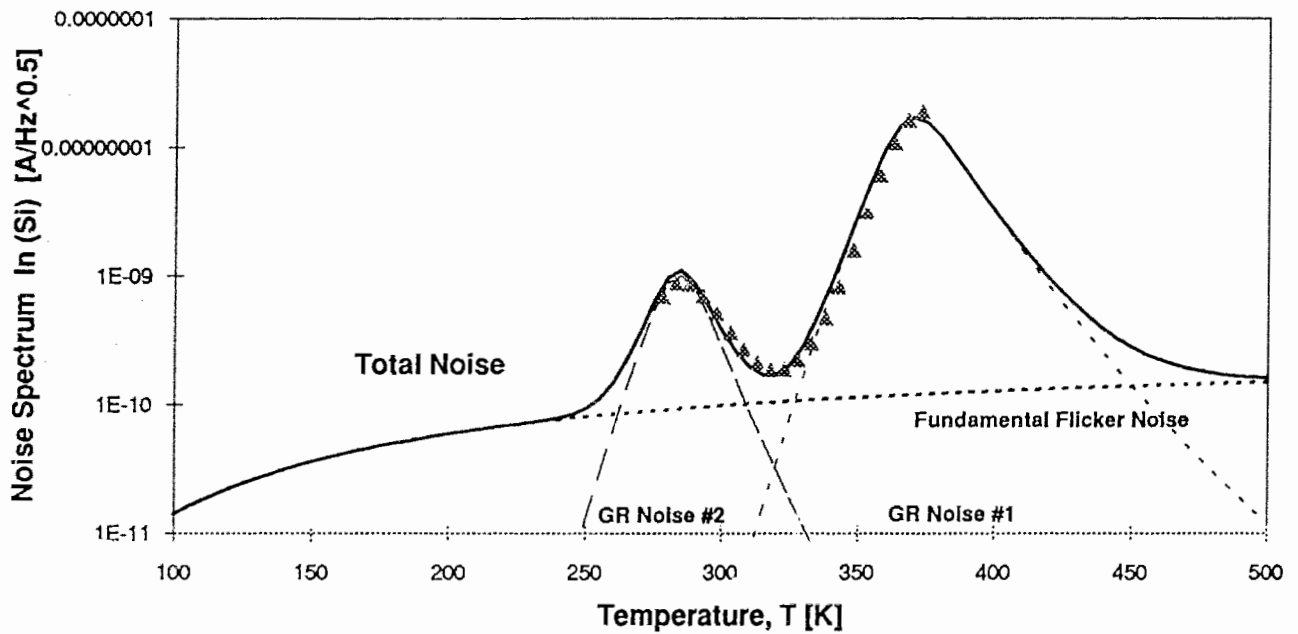


Figure 5.1b - A plot identical to Figure 5.1a except for a wider temperature range being used

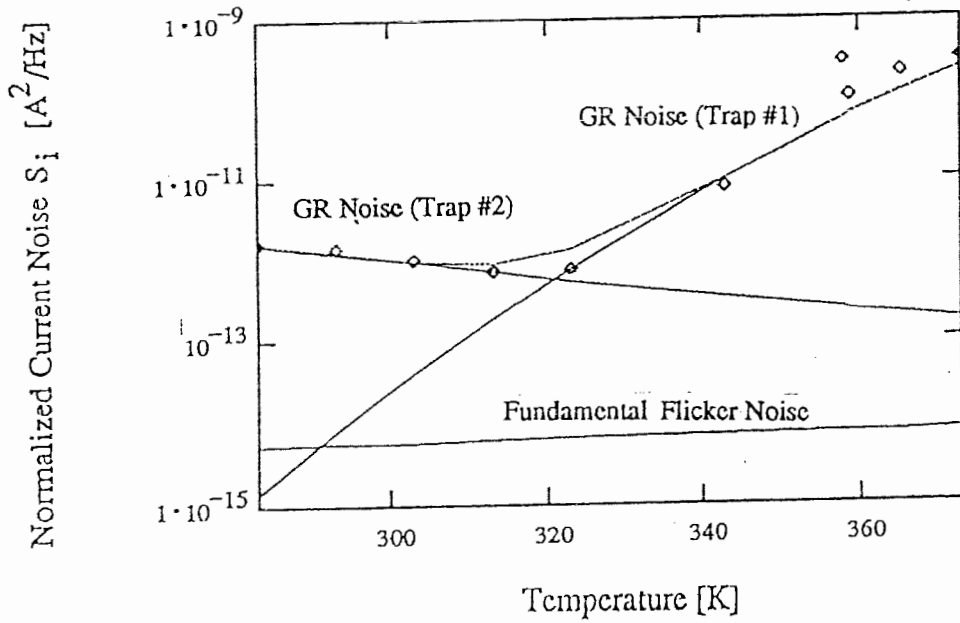


Figure 5.2a An GR noise spectra with  $E_t = 880$  meV was used together with another GR noise spectra and the fundamental flicker noise to fit the experimental data

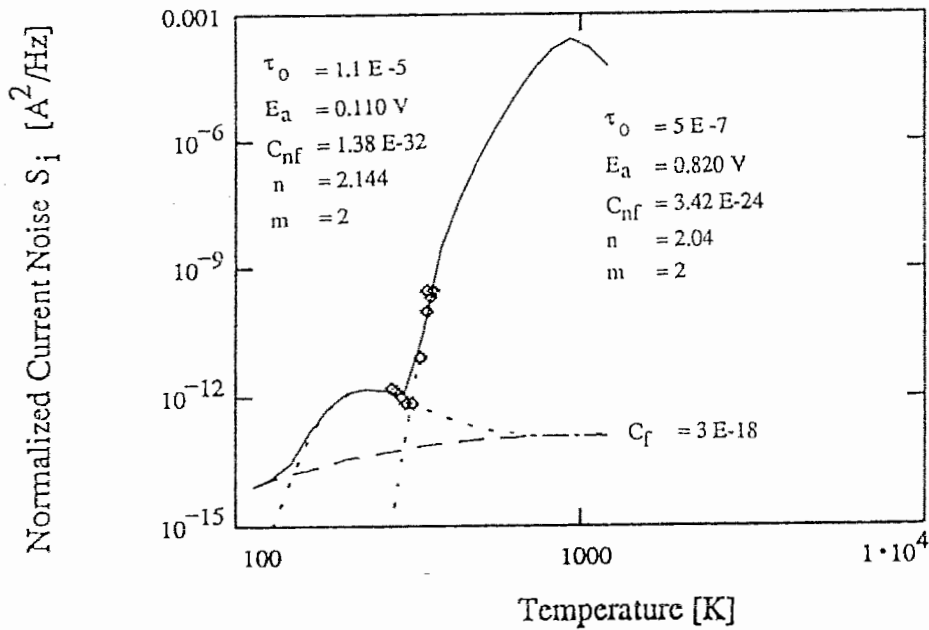


Figure 5.2b - A plot identical to Figure 5.2a except for a wider temperature range being used

The corresponding noise spectrum was shown in Figure 5.3 in which the triangles are the experimental data. It can be seen in this graph that the two GR noises have Lorentzian shape and add two 'bumps' to the 1/f noise spectrum.

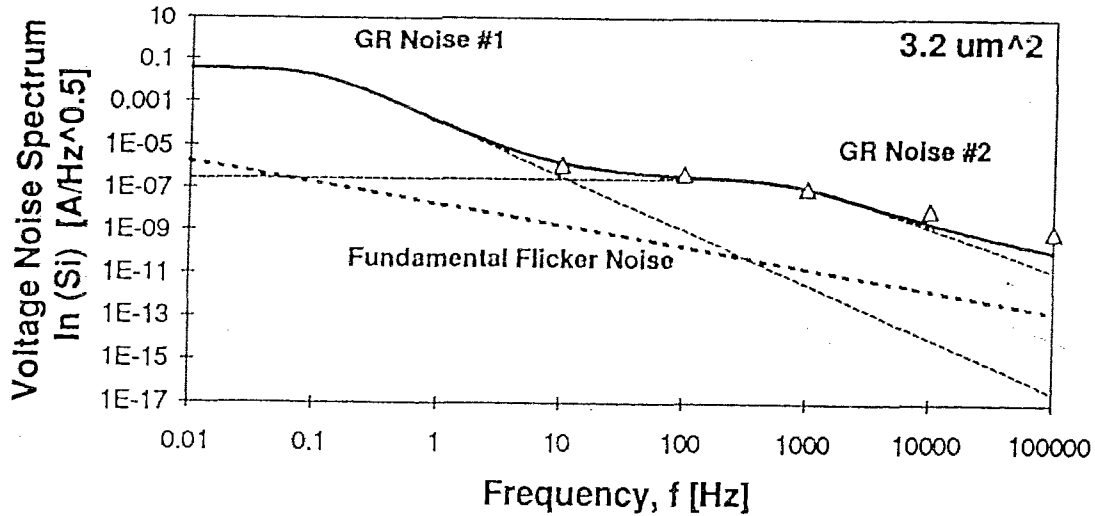


Figure 5.3 - Simulated and experimental noise spectrum corresponding to the data in previous figure.

Figure 5.4 show the variation of the noise spectrum with the emitter area. Solid lines in this figure are simulation results obtained by setting the emitter area variable in the model used in Figure 5.1 to  $0.5 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$ ,  $2 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$ ,  $4 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$  and  $30 \times 3.2 \mu\text{m}^2$ . The measured noise data are represented by the symbols in the figure.

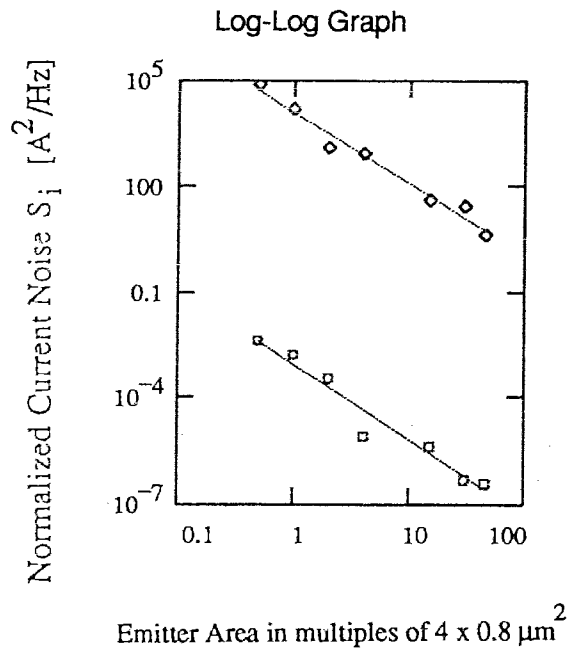


Figure 5.4 - Variation of the noise spectrum with the emitter area.

Using the experimental data for a neutron-irradiated JFET in [23], we tested the agreement between published data and the results generated from our noise model. Figure 5.5 shows the five GR noise spectra obtained from our noise model using the five trap activation energy obtained in [23]. The fundamental flicker noise was also used since mobility fluctuations due to lattice scattering occurs in a JFET as the electrons move from the source to the drain. Similar scattering mechanism implies similar temperature dependence. In this figure, the dash line with crosses are our model without using fundamental flicker while the solid line is our model with both the GR noise and the flicker noise. From the fitting results, the normalized current noise power is found to be proportional to  $A^m$  where  $m = -2.04$ . The values of  $C_{nf}$  was determined to be  $1.39 \times 10^{-32}$  for the first trap and  $3.42 \times 10^{-24}$ .

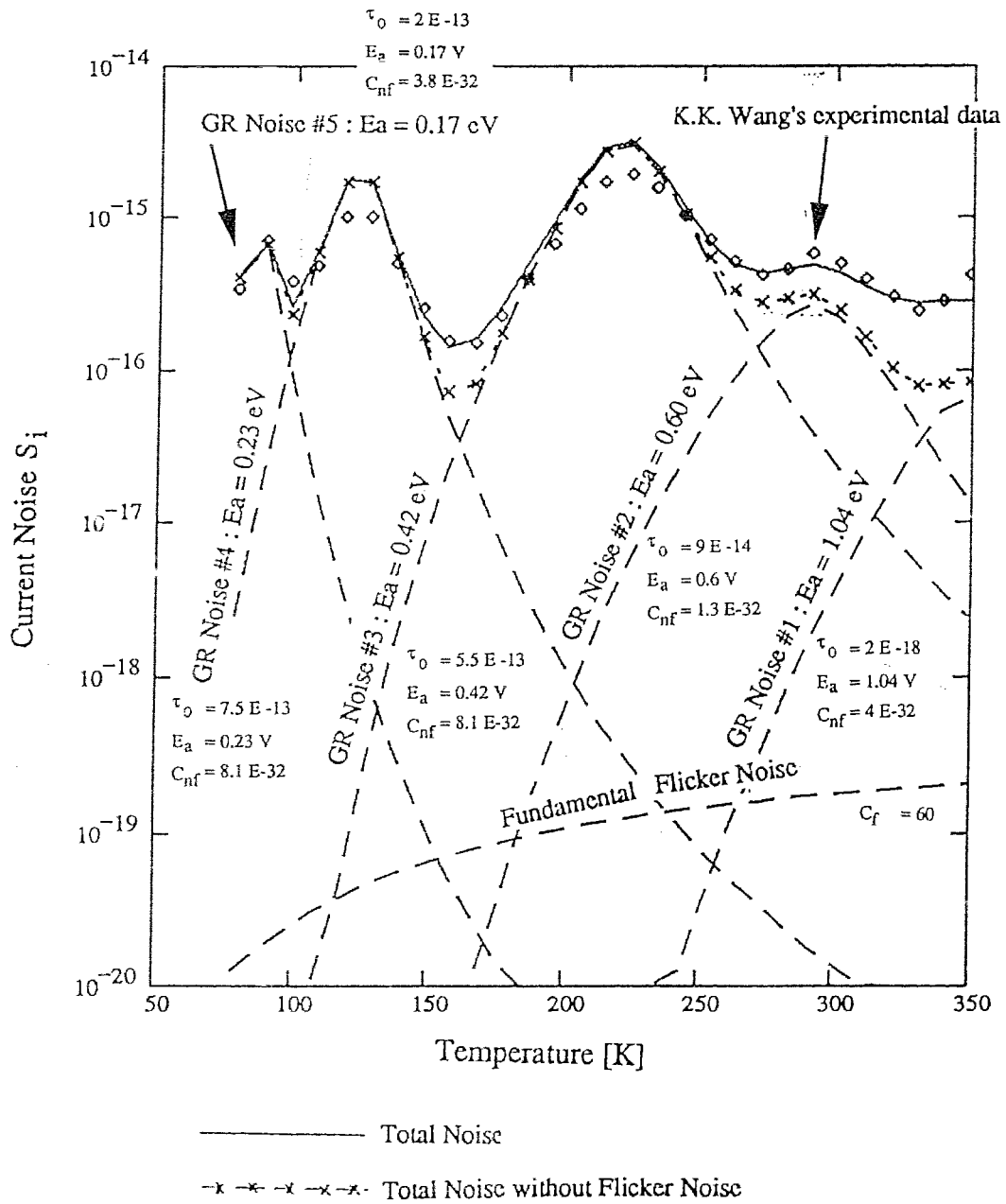


Figure 5.5 - K. K. Wang's experimental data for a neutron-irradiated JFET [23] was used to test the noise model's ability to fit other GR noise data.

In Figure 5.6, the lines shows the simulation results obtained from the same model by setting the frequency variable to 10Hz, 100 Hz, 1kHz, 10kHz and 100kHz. The symbols shown in the figure are experimental data from [23]. The values of  $C_{nf}$  used in the model range from  $1 \times 10^{-13}$  to  $2 \times 10^{-12}$ .



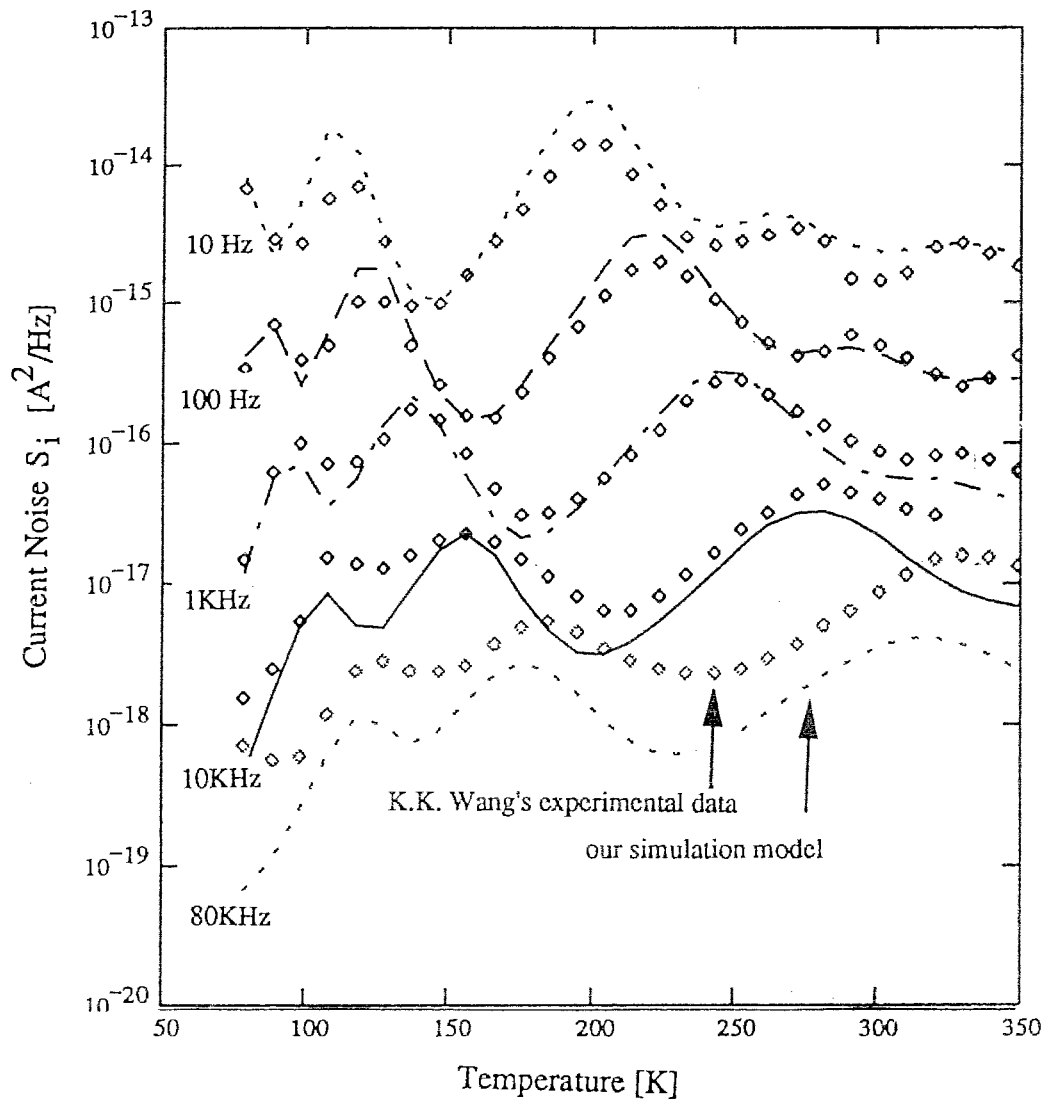
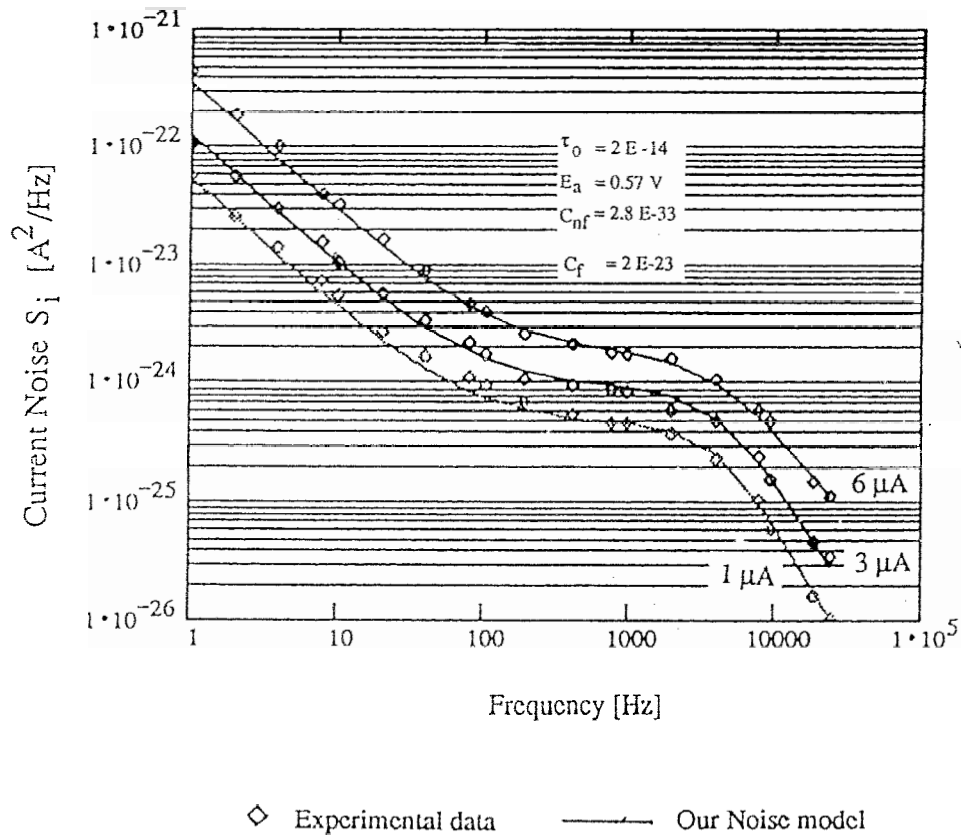


Figure 5.6 - Complete experimental data in [23] for a neutron-irradiated JFET was used to test the noise model's ability to fit other GR noise data with respect to the noise variation with frequency.

Furthermore, the experimental data reported in [41] was used to test the base current dependence of our noise model. The simulation result represents by the top solid line as shown in Figure 5.7 was constructed by adding one GR noise spectrum to the flicker noise spectrum. The other two spectra were obtained by setting the variable  $I_b$  in the noise model to  $3 \mu\text{A}$  and  $1 \mu\text{A}$ . From this comparison, one can see the agreement

between the experimental noise results from [41] and the noise model's prediction is extremely good.



**Figure 5.7 - Experimental data reported in [41] was used to test the base current dependence of our noise model.**

Based on above fitting examples, one can see that the noise model presented in this chapter is capable of fitting a wide range of data and produce a good prediction of the noise power with varying frequency, temperature, emitter area and biasing current levels.

## Chapter 6 CONCLUSIONS

In this thesis, a low frequency noise model for bipolar junction transistors that can predict the variation of the noise power with different operating conditions was developed. This model consists of a fundamental flicker noise and a non-fundamental GR noise. Together with the current and emitter area dependence determined from the experiments, these two noise sources were combined into a single expression that gave good agreement with a wide range of low frequency noise data in BJTs as a function of frequency, temperature, base current and emitter area.

From the experiments, the variation of the current noise power spectra  $S_{i_b}(f)$  with the base current  $i_b$  shows that  $S_{i_b}(f)$  is proportional to  $i_b^\gamma$  with  $\gamma$  close to 2. Curve fitting the experimental carrier number fluctuation  $\overline{\Delta N^2}$  using the GR noise model showed that  $S_{i_b}(f)$  is proportional to the square of the collector current, and inversely proportional to the square of the emitter area. This experimental finding indicates that in smaller emitter area BJTs a reduction in area by 3 results in almost an order of magnitude increase in the current noise power.

A collector current fluctuation model due to fluctuating occupancy of the traps in the depletion region was developed in this research in order to provide an physical explanation for the current and emitter area dependence observed. Predictions based on this model were in good agreement with experimentally deduced relationships between the current noise power variation with emitter size and base current. A simple way of measuring the trap level energy from the noise data was derived from this model and was experimentally verified.

In summary, this research work improved the understanding of the noise characteristics of bipolar transistor studied and provides a noise model that is simple enough to be used for simulation purposes, and detailed enough to describe the variation of low frequency noise with frequency, temperature, base current and emitter area

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## Appendix I - Derivation of the Effective Hooge's parameter

Assuming all momentum gain by the carrier in the electric field  $\xi$  is lost in the lattice during a collision, then

$$q t_{\text{col}} \xi (-\bar{x}) = m_n^* V_d \bar{x} \quad (\text{A1.1})$$

where  $\bar{x}$  is the direction of current flows. Equivalently,

$$V_d \bar{x} = \mu \xi \bar{x} \quad (\text{A1.2})$$

$$\text{where } \mu = \frac{q t_{\text{col}}}{m_n^*} \quad (\text{A1.3})$$

Matthiesen's rule states that the frequency of collision is given by the sum of frequencies of each individual scattering mechanism and

$$f_{\text{col}} = f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_N, \quad (\text{A1.1})$$

therefore,

$$\frac{1}{t_{\text{col}}} = \frac{1}{t_1} + \frac{1}{t_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{t_N} \quad (\text{A1.2})$$

multiplying each side by  $\frac{q t_{\text{col}}}{m_n^*}$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{\mu_{\text{col}}} = \frac{1}{\mu_1} + \frac{1}{\mu_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{\mu_N} \quad (\text{A1.3})$$

Taking the derivative of the above equation, we get

$$\frac{\delta \mu}{\mu_{\text{col}}^2} = \frac{\delta \mu}{\mu_1^2} + \frac{\delta \mu}{\mu_2^2} + \dots + \frac{\delta \mu}{\mu_N^2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \mu}{\mu_{\text{col}}^2} = \sum_i \frac{\Delta \mu_i}{\mu_i^2}$$



$$\Delta\mu = \sum_i \frac{\mu_{col}^2}{\mu_i} \Delta\mu_i \quad (A1.5)$$

$$\frac{S_{\Delta\mu}(f)}{\mu^2} = \sum_i \frac{\mu_{col}^2}{\mu_i} \frac{S_{\Delta\mu_i}(f)}{\mu_i^2} \quad (A1.6)$$

From Hooge's equation,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_H &= \frac{S_{\Delta\mu}(f)}{\mu^2} f N \\ &= \sum_i \frac{\mu_{col}^2}{\mu_i} \frac{S_{\Delta\mu_i}(f)}{\mu_i^2} f N. \end{aligned} \quad (A1.6)$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_H &= \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_1} \alpha_{H1} + \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_2} \alpha_{H2} + \dots + \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_2} \alpha_{HN} \\ &= \sum_i \frac{\mu^2}{\mu_i} \alpha_{Hi} \end{aligned} \quad (A1.7)$$

Since the factor  $\frac{\mu^2}{\mu_i}$  indicates how much a certain flicker noise source in average

contributes to the overall flicker noise, it is actually a probability factor that depends on temperature.

## Appendix II - Derivation of McWhorter's model for GR noise

### The Derivation of McWhorter's model [7]

Non-fundamental flicker noise arises from traps, crystal defects, dislocations etc. The emission and capture of carriers by the processes of generation and recombination is described by the following differential equation

$$\frac{d \Delta N}{dt} + \frac{\Delta N}{\tau} = H(t) \quad (\text{A2.1})$$

where  $\Delta N$  is the fluctuation of the number of carriers,  $\tau$  is the lifetime of the captured carriers,  $H(t)$  is a random number fluctuation and therefore a white noise. Expanding the terms into Fourier series, we have

$$H(t) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{-\infty} \alpha_n \exp(j\omega_n t), \quad (\text{A2.2})$$

$$\Delta N(t) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{-\infty} \beta_n \exp(j\omega_n t), \quad (\text{A2.3})$$

where  $\omega_n = \frac{2\pi n}{T}$  and  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ . Substitute equation (A2.2) and (A2.3) into (A2.1) and since  $\frac{d}{dt} = j\omega_n$  for a harmonic wave, we have

$$j\omega_n \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-\infty} \beta_n \exp(j\omega_n t) + \frac{1}{\tau} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-\infty} \beta_n \exp(j\omega_n t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-\infty} \alpha_n \exp(j\omega_n t), \quad (\text{A2.4a})$$

$$\text{where } \beta_n = \frac{\alpha_n}{j\omega_n + \frac{1}{\tau}}. \quad (\text{A2.4b})$$

For any signal  $E(t)$  which has a Fourier series of  $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{-\infty} \gamma_n \exp(j\omega_n t)$ , the power spectrum of

$$E(t), S_E(f) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{T} \overline{\gamma_n \gamma_n^*}. \text{ Therefore we have } S_H(f) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{T} \overline{\alpha_n \alpha_n^*} \text{ and}$$

$S_i(f) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} 2 T \overline{\beta_n \beta_n^*}$ . Using equation (A2.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} 2 T \overline{\beta_n \beta_n^*} &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} 2 T \overline{\left[ \frac{\alpha_n}{j\omega n + \frac{1}{\tau}} - \frac{\alpha_n^*}{-j\omega n + \frac{1}{\tau}} \right]} \\ &= 2 T \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \overline{\alpha_n \alpha_n^*} \frac{\tau^2}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A2.5})$$

From (A2.5), we have,

$$S_N(f) = S_H(f) \frac{\tau^2}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \quad (\text{A2.6})$$

Since in our case, as illustrated from our experiment, the driving force  $h(t)$ , which is the random fluctuation in the number of carriers, is area and current dependent, the spectrum of the driving force  $H(t)$ . For  $f=0$ , since  $H(t)$  is a white noise, in the case of BJT,  $S_H(f) = S_H(0)$ . Using this

$$\begin{aligned} S_{\Delta N^2}(f) &= \int_0^{\infty} S_H(f) df \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} S_H(0) \frac{\tau^2}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} df \\ &= S_H(0) \tau \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} df \\ &= \frac{S_H(0) \tau}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $S_{gr}(f) = 4 \overline{\Delta N_i^2} \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$ . For  $n$  trap centers, we simply add their powers

together and obtain the McWhorter model of  $S_{gr}(f) = 4 \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{\Delta N_i^2} \frac{\tau_i}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_i^2}$ .

## Appendix III - Derivation of Equation (2.19)

### The Derivation of Equation (2.19) (from [2])

Let  $n_T$  be the number of surface traps,  $n$  be the number of trapped electrons,  $n_0$  be the number of trapped electrons at equilibrium,  $a$  be the generation rate constant and  $b$  be the recombination rate constant.  $(n_T - n)$  is the number of empty traps. Then the generation rate (trapping rate) is proportional to the number of empty traps and the recombination rate (release rate) is proportional to the number of trapped electrons,

$$g(n) = a (n_T - n) \text{ and} \tag{A3.1}$$

$$r(n) = b n. \tag{A3.2}$$

At equilibrium,

$$g(n) = r(n),$$

$$n_0 = \frac{a}{a + b} n_T = \frac{1}{1 + (n_T - n_0)/n_0} = f_T n_T. \tag{A3.3}$$

This gives equation (2.19a). From (A2.1),

$$\tau = \frac{1}{a + b}. \tag{A3.4}$$

Furthermore, using (A3.3)

$$\overline{\Delta N_t^2} = \frac{b}{a + b} n_0 = \frac{a b}{(a + b)^2} n_T = n_T f_T (1 - f_T) \tag{A3.4}$$

This gives equation (2.19b).

## APPENDIX A4 NOISE MODELLING USING MATHCAD

\*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* Noise Modelling using MATHCAD 3.0 in Microsoft Windows \*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* Author : Anthony Ng Date Written : May-01-92 \*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* Semiconductor Device Research Group \*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* Engineering Science Department, Simon Fraser University, B.C. \*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* All rights reserved \*\*\*\*\*  
 \*\*\*\*\* MATH CAD is a registered trademark of MathSoft, Inc. \*\*\*\*\*  
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### ===== A4.1 DEFINE CONSTANT =====

Electron charge:  $q := 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$   
 Fine structure constant:  $\alpha_0 := \frac{1}{137}$   
 Planck's constant :  $h := 6.632 \cdot 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}$   
 Boltzmann's constant :  $k := 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K}}$   
 Speed of light :  $c := 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m/s}$   
 Effective mass of carrier:  $m := 1.00 \cdot 9.1 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ Kg}$   
 Lattice spacing:  $a := 6.20 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

===== A4.2 Calculate the factor  $G(T) = \frac{\beta \cdot D_p}{\pi \cdot f_T \cdot q \cdot w_E \cdot v_s}$  required in =====  
 ===== the calculation of  $\alpha_p$  which is described in equation (2.54) =====

Define d.c. Current Gain  $\beta(T)$

$$A := \begin{bmatrix} \ln(100) & 1 \\ \ln(300) & 1 \end{bmatrix} B := \begin{bmatrix} \ln(6) \\ \ln(70) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ c \end{bmatrix} := A^{-1} \cdot B \quad m = 2.236$$

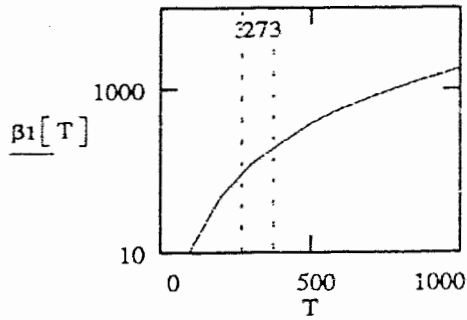
$$T := 100, 200 .. 1000$$

$$\beta_{1\_25} := 120 \quad c1 := \ln(\beta_{1\_25}) - m \cdot \ln(300) \quad \beta_1(T) := \exp(m \cdot \ln(T) + c1) \quad \alpha_1(T) := \frac{\beta_1(T)}{1 + \beta_1(T)}$$

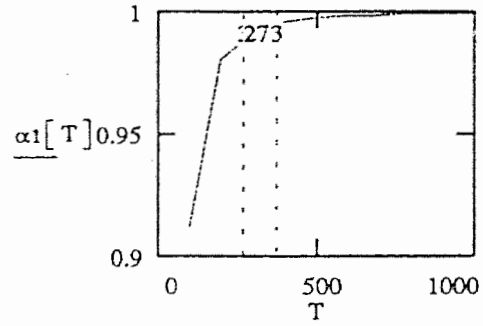
$$\alpha(T) := \alpha_1(T) \quad \beta(T) := \beta_1(T)$$

Notice: almost all results come from B7, not A1. Betas are 118,116,143,124,126, 119 from 45 to 0.5

Graph of current gain Beta vs. Temp



Graph of Common Base Current Gain Factor vs. Temp



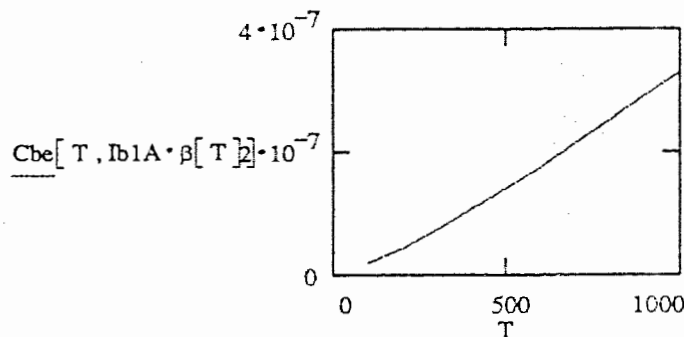
Define the Base-Emitter Capacitance Cbe :

$$q := 1.60210 \cdot 10^{-19} \quad k := 1.38054 \cdot 10^{-23} \quad TF1 := 1.6 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ s} \quad IS1 := 2.657 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ A}$$

$$Ib1A := 1 \quad Ic1A(T) := Ib1A \cdot \beta(T) \quad \text{since } Ib \text{ is normalized to 1A in our calculation.}$$

$$Cbe(T, Ic) := \frac{q}{(k \cdot T)} \cdot TF1 \cdot Ic \text{ (F)} \quad \text{Assume device operating under normal active mode, thus } Cbe \gg Cbc$$

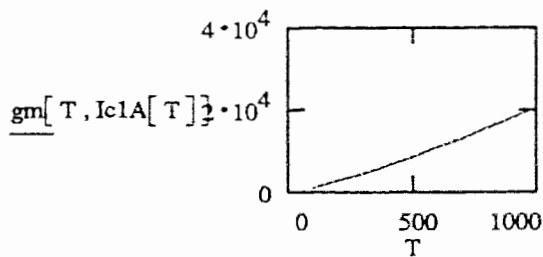
Graph of Base-Emitter Capacitance vs. Temperature



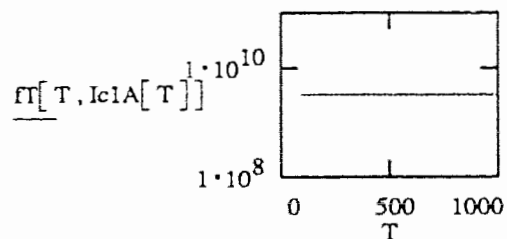
Define the Transconductance gm and the Transistor Cutoff Frequency fT

$$gm(T, IC) := \frac{q}{(k \cdot T)} \cdot IC \left[ \frac{\text{A}}{\text{V}} \right] \quad fT(T, IC) := \frac{gm(T, IC)}{[2 \cdot \pi \cdot Cbe(T, IC)]} \text{ (Hz)}$$

Graph of Transconductance vs. Temperature



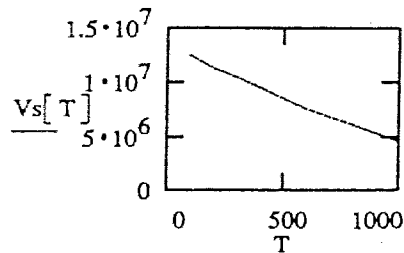
Graph of Transistor Cutoff Frequency vs. Temperature



Define Carrier Saturation Velocity  $V_s$  for Silicon :

$$V_s(T) := \frac{2.4 \cdot 10^7}{\left[ 1 + 0.8 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{T}{600}\right] \right]} \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{s}}$$

Graph of Carrier Saturation Velocity  $V_s$  vs Temperature



Define the Electron Diffusion Constant  $D_n(T)$  :

$$D_n(T) := \frac{T}{300}$$

$$\text{Total Impurity concentration} = N_d := 7 \cdot 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad N_a := 1 \cdot 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Calculate the Quasi-electron Fermi Level

$$m_0 := 9.1091 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ kg} \quad m_{e\_eff} := 1.38 \cdot m_0 \quad \text{for electron in Si} \quad m_{h\_eff} := 0.946 \cdot m_0$$

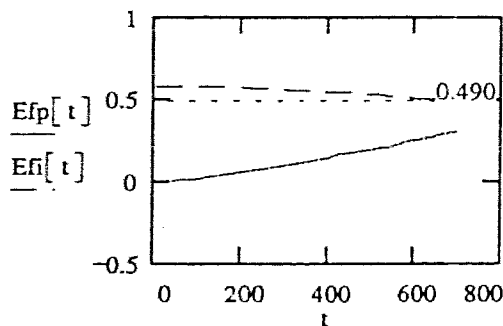
$$E_g(T) := 1.16 - \frac{[7.02 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot T^2]}{(T + 1108)} \text{ cm}^{-3} \quad N_c(T) := 2 \cdot \frac{[2 \cdot \pi \cdot m_{e\_eff} \cdot k \cdot T]^{1.5}}{h^2} \cdot 10^6$$

$$n_i(T) := N_c(T) \cdot \exp\left[\frac{\left[\frac{-E_g(T)}{2}\right] \cdot q}{k \cdot T}\right] \quad E_{fi}(T) := \frac{E_g(T)}{2} + \frac{3 \cdot k \cdot T}{4} \cdot \ln\left[\frac{m_{h\_eff}}{m_{e\_eff}}\right]$$

$$E_{fp}(T) := E_{fi}(T) - \frac{k \cdot T}{q} \cdot \ln\left[\frac{N_a}{n_i(T)}\right] \quad E_{fn}(T) := E_{fi}(T) + \frac{k \cdot T}{q} \cdot \ln\left[\frac{N_d}{n_i(T)}\right]$$

$$t := 10, 40 \dots 700$$

Graph of the Intrinsic Fermi Level and the Hole Fermi Level vs. Temperature



Calculate the Impurity Scattering and Lattice Scattering factors

$$\epsilon_0 := 8.8542 \cdot 10^{-12} \quad \epsilon := 16 \cdot \epsilon_0$$

$$ui(T, Ni) := \frac{10.65 \cdot 10^{19}}{\left[ Ni \cdot \ln \left[ 1 + \frac{3 \cdot 10^{11}}{Ni^3} \cdot \left[ \frac{T \cdot \epsilon}{300 \cdot \epsilon_0} \right] \right] \right]^2} \cdot \left[ \frac{T}{300} \right]^{\frac{3}{2}} \cdot \left[ \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right]^2 \cdot \left[ \frac{m_0}{me\_eff} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where Ni is the  
ionized impurity  
conc in cm<sup>-3</sup>

$$\rho := 2.33 \cdot 10^6 \quad c := 2.997925 \cdot 10^8 \quad vs := \frac{c}{\sqrt{\rho}}$$

$$ul(T, Elc) := \frac{2 \cdot \sqrt{2 \cdot \pi} \cdot q \cdot \left[ \frac{h}{2 \cdot \pi} \right]^4 \cdot \rho \cdot vs^2}{Elc^2} \cdot me\_eff^{\frac{-5}{2}} \cdot (k \cdot T)^{\frac{-3}{2}}$$

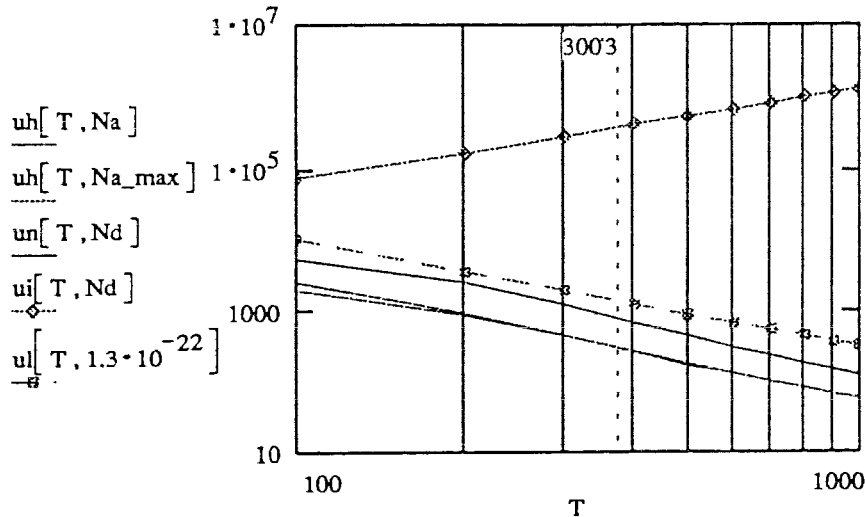
Calculate the Electron and Hole Mobilities Na := 1.5 · 10<sup>16</sup> Na\_max := 2.5 · 10<sup>16</sup> Nd := 2 · 10<sup>16</sup>

$$un(T, Nd) := \left[ 88 \cdot Tn(T)^{-0.57} + \frac{7.4 \cdot 10^8 \cdot T^{-2.33}}{1 + \left[ \frac{Nd}{1.26 \cdot 10^{17} \cdot Tn(T)^{2.4}} \right] \cdot 0.88 \cdot Tn(T)^{-0.146}} \right]$$

$$uh(T, Na) := 54.3 \cdot Tn(T)^{-0.57} + \frac{1.36 \cdot 10^8 \cdot T^{-2.23}}{1 + \left[ \frac{Na}{2.35 \cdot 10^{17} \cdot Tn(T)^{2.4}} \right] \cdot 0.88 \cdot Tn(T)^{-0.146}}$$

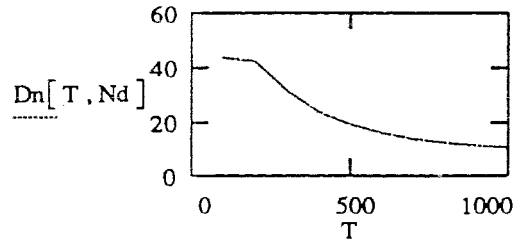
$$Dh(T, Na) := \frac{k \cdot T}{q} \cdot uh(T, Na) \quad Dn(T, Nd) := \frac{k \cdot T}{q} \cdot un(T, Nd)$$

Graph of Electron Mobility (un), Hole Mobility (uh), Mobility due to Lattice Scattering (ul) and Mobility due to Impurity Scattering (ui) vs. Temperature





Graph of Electron Diffusion Coefficient vs. Temperature

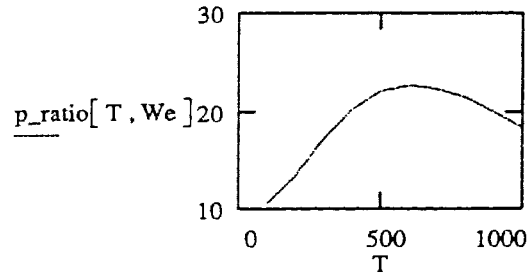


Define the minimum value of hole conc. at the two ends of the emitter ( $p\_ratio = \ln \left[ \frac{P(0)}{P(N)} \right]$ )

Emitter Width :  $We := 1.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$  cm

$$p\_ratio(T, We) := \frac{We \cdot Vs(T)}{Dh(T, Na)}$$

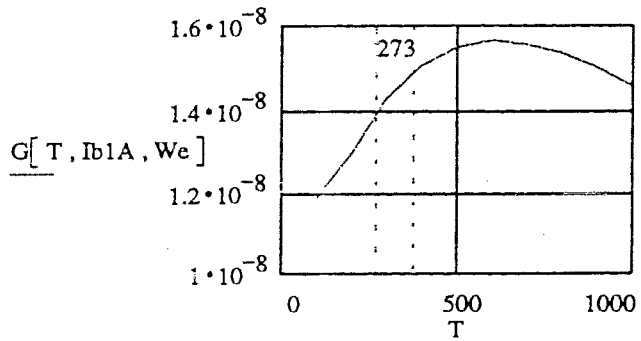
Graph of the minimum ratio of hole conc at the two ends of emitter vs. Temperature



Calculate  $G(T) = \frac{\beta \cdot D_p}{\left[ \pi \cdot f_T \cdot q \cdot w_E \cdot v_s \right]}$

$$G(T, IEp, WE) := \pi \cdot f_T [T, IEp \cdot \beta(T)] \cdot q \cdot \ln(p\_ratio(T, WE))$$

Graph of G(T) used in the Calculation of the Hooge's Parameters vs. Temp



$Ef(T) :=$

===== A4.3 GR NOISE MODELLING =====

Complete GR Noise Model (for each trap in BJT)

All energy level refers to valence band

$$\tau[\tau_0, E_a, T] := \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot E_a)}{k \cdot T}\right]$$

$$\Delta E_1(E_t, T) := E_g(T) - E_t = E_c - E_t$$

$$f_t(E_t, T) := \frac{1}{\left[1 + \left[\exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot (E_t - E_f(T)))}{k \cdot T}\right]\right]\right]}$$

For Electron Trap :

$$SGR1[Cnf, \tau_0, E_t, T, f, \eta] := Cnf \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, \Delta E_1(E_t, T), T]}{\left[1 + \left[\left[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f\right] \cdot \tau[\tau_0, \Delta E_1(E_t, T), T]\right]^2\right]} \cdot f_t(E_t, T) \cdot (1 - f_t(E_t, T))$$

For Hole Trap :

$$SGR2[Cnf, \tau_0, E_t, T, f, \eta] := Cnf \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, E_t, T]}{\left[1 + \left[\left[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f\right] \cdot \tau[\tau_0, E_t, T]\right]^2\right]} \cdot f_t(E_t, T) \cdot (1 - f_t(E_t, T))$$

A4.3.1 Verifying Mohammed I. Abdala et al's Method ("The Excess Noise in GaAs MESFET", Noise in Physical Systems and 1/f Fluctuation ICNF 1991, pp 187)

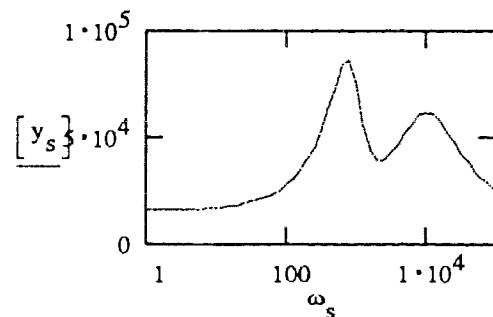
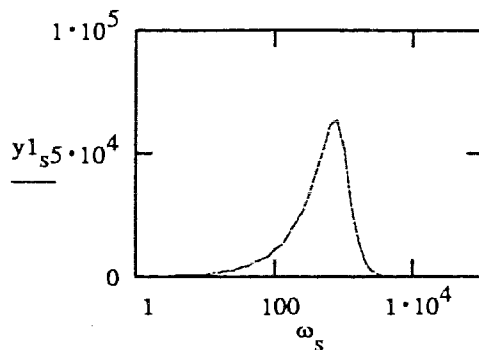
The Si \* f method

$$s := 0, 1 \dots 50 \quad \omega_s := 10^{\frac{s}{10}}$$

$$a_1 := 105863 \quad \tau_1 := \frac{1029}{1000000} \quad B := 16002$$

$$a_2 := 91468 \quad \tau_2 := \frac{98}{1000000}$$

$$y1_s := \frac{[a_1 \cdot [\tau_1] \cdot \omega_s]}{[1 + [[\omega_s \cdot \tau_1]]^5]} \quad y2_s := \frac{[a_2 \cdot [\tau_2] \cdot \omega_s]}{[1 + [\omega_s]^2 \cdot [\tau_2]^2]} \quad y_s := y1_s + y2_s + B$$

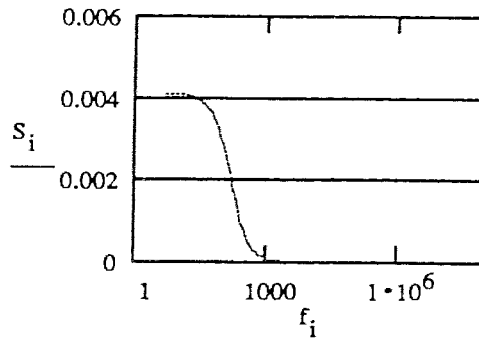


The g-r noise spectrum

$$\text{max\_i} := 100 \quad \text{i} := 10, 11 \dots 100 \quad \tau := \frac{1029}{1000000}$$

$$f_i := 10^{\left[ i \cdot \frac{\log[10^7] - \log[10^0]}{\text{max\_i}} + \log[1] \right]} \quad \omega_i := 2 \cdot \pi \cdot f_i \quad A := 1$$

$$\text{SN}(\omega, \tau) := 4 \cdot A \cdot \frac{\tau}{1 + (\omega \cdot \tau)^2} \quad S_i := \text{SN}[\omega_i, \tau]$$



#### A4.3.2 Using Noise Model in Section 5.3 to Fit Experimental Data Measured for our Bipolar Transistors

Emitter Area :

$$A := (0.5 \ 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 15 \ 30 \ 45)^T \cdot 3.2 \cdot [10^{-6}]^2$$

Parameters of the two traps for all six sizes :

$$\tau_0 := \begin{bmatrix} 8 \cdot 10^{-16} \\ 2.3 \cdot 10^{-3} \end{bmatrix} \quad E_a := \begin{bmatrix} 0.88 \\ 0.110 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Gamma_0 := 1000 \quad I_c := \beta(300) \quad x := 0$$

$$\text{Cnf} := \begin{bmatrix} 6.4 \cdot 10^{-18} & 3.41 \cdot 10^{-18} & 1.37 \cdot 10^{-18} & 2.73 \cdot 10^{-18} & 7.68 \cdot 10^{-18} & 1.54 \cdot 10^{-18} & 1.73 \cdot 10^{-18} \\ 2.13 \cdot 10^{-31} & 8.53 \cdot 10^{-31} & 3.41 \cdot 10^{-31} & 9.56 \cdot 10^{-31} & 3.84 \cdot 10^{-31} & 7.68 \cdot 10^{-31} & 3.46 \cdot 10^{-31} \end{bmatrix}$$

Read in Experimental Results Noise versus Temperature

$$j := 0, 1 \dots 9 \quad N := \text{READPRN}(\text{SI\_T2}) \quad T_j := [N^{<0>}]_j + 273 \quad \text{TT}_j := T_j$$

.....

*GR Noise Definition for Model for BJT*

$$\tau[\tau_0, E_a, T] := \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot E_a)}{k \cdot T}\right]$$

$$ft(E_t, T) := \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left[\frac{(E_{fp}(T) - E_t) \cdot q}{(k \cdot T)}\right]}$$

$$SGR[Cnf, \tau_0, E_a, T, f, I_c, A] := Cnf \cdot \frac{I_c^2}{A^2} \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, E_a, T]}{1 + [[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f] \cdot \tau[\tau_0, E_a, T]]^2} \cdot ft(E_a, T) \cdot (1 - ft(E_a, T))$$

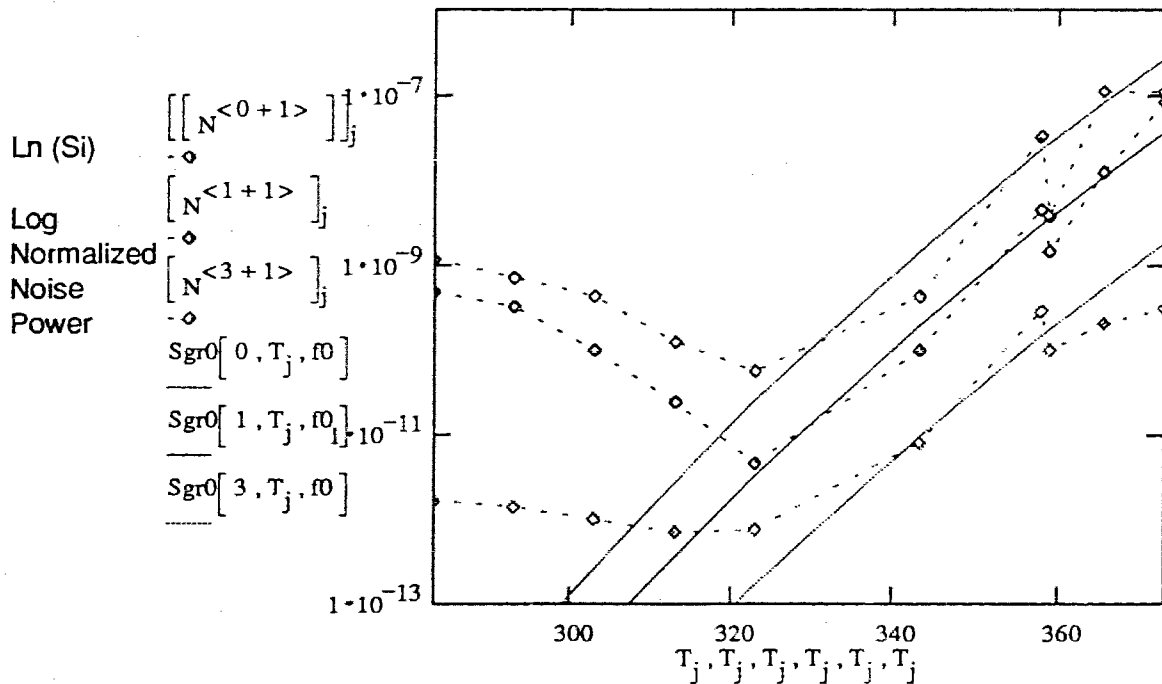
.....

Define two frequency normalized g-r noises :

$I_c(T) := 1 \cdot \beta(T)$  All data were normalized to  $I_b = 1A$ , therefore  $I_c = 1 \beta$

$$Sgr0(x, T, f) := \frac{SGR[Cnf_{[0, x]}, \tau_{00}, E_{a0}, T, f, I_c(T), A_x]}{f}$$

SIMULATION RESULTS FOR X=0,1,3  
GRAPH OF Ln (Si) vs Temp



**A4.3.3 Using newly derived Method to calculate the Activation Energy Et from the Rising Slope**

$$T \ll T_{pk}, 1/T \gg 1/T_{pk} : d \ln Si / d 1/T = -2 q E_t / k + q / kT \cdot d E_f / d T \ln T + E_f q / k$$

$$r := \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 5 & 5 & 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 8 & 8 & 9 & 8 & 9 & 9 & 9 \end{bmatrix}^T \quad x := 6 \quad \text{start} := r[x, 0] \quad \text{end} := r[x, 1] \quad j := 0, 1 \dots (\text{end} - \text{start})$$

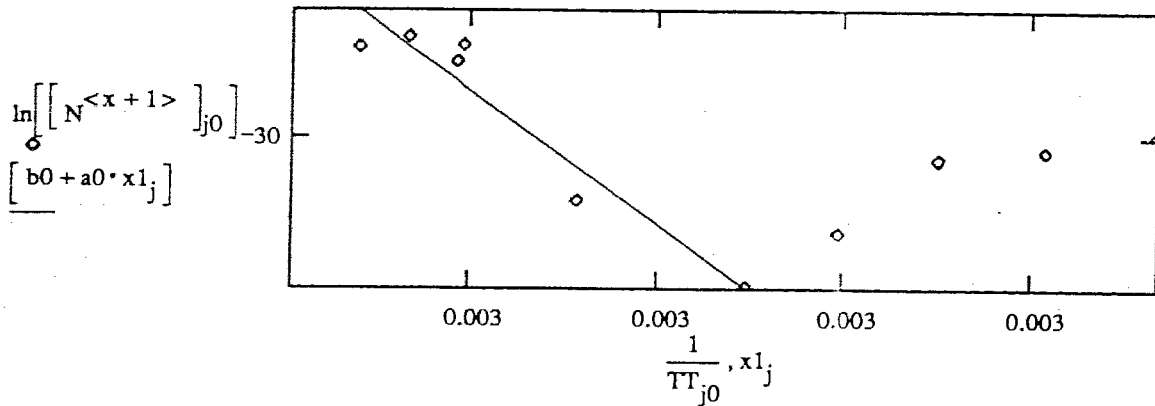
$$j0 := 0, 1 \dots 9 \quad x1_j := \frac{1}{TT_{j+\text{start}}} \quad z1_j := \ln \left[ \left[ N^{<x+1>} \right]_{j+\text{start}} \right]$$

$$a0 := \text{slope}(x1, z1) \quad b0 := \text{intercept}(x1, z1) \quad c0 := \text{corr}(x1, z1)$$

$$a0 = -1.892 \cdot 10^4 \quad b0 = 24.286 \quad c0 = -0.957$$

*Graph of Normalized Noise versus Reciprocal Temperature  
Determine the Trap Energy Level*

*(Ec - Et) for electron trap and (Et - Ev) for hole trap*

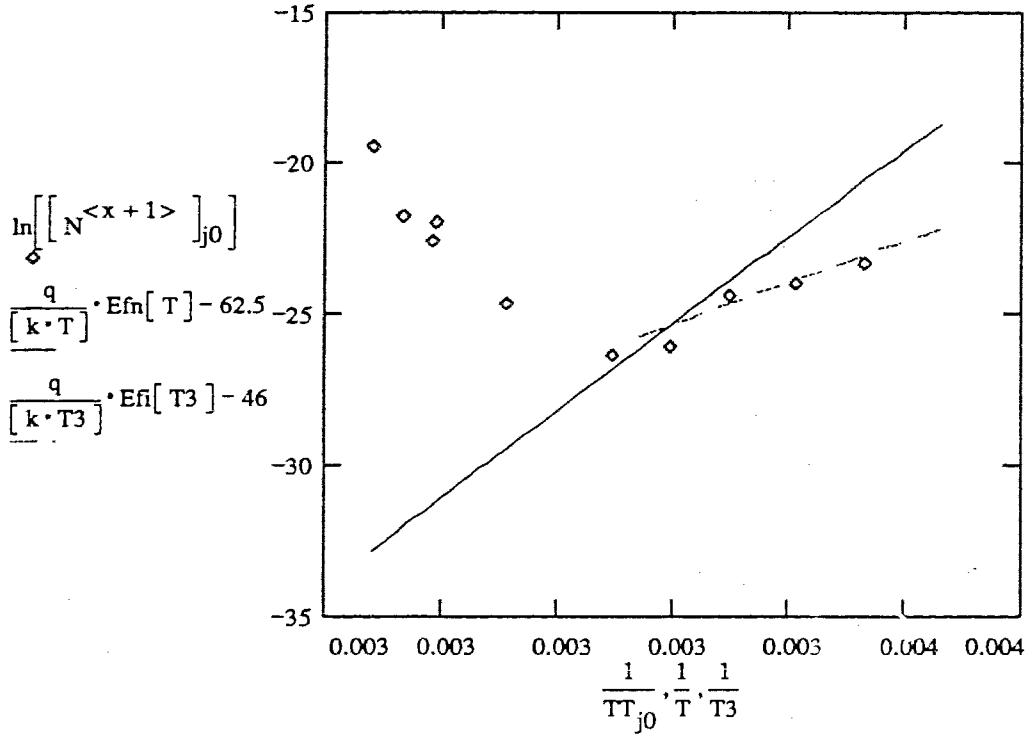


$$E_t(T) := \frac{-T}{2} \cdot \left[ \frac{d}{dT} E_{fp}(T) \right] + \frac{E_{fp}(T)}{2} - \frac{k}{(2 \cdot q)} \cdot a0 \quad E_t[TT_{\text{start}}] = 0.794 \quad E_t[TT_{\text{end}}] = 0.791$$

**A4.3.4 Verify the Fermi Level Dependence on the other Side :**

$x := 2$   $T := 273, 275 .. 373$   $T3 := 273, 275 .. 320$

*Graph of Normalized Noise versus Reciprocal Temperature  
To Verify the Fermi-Level Dependence on the Rising Slope*



**A4.3.5 Determin from experimental data, A's power in the graph of log normalized lb versus area  $\ln(Si/lc^2) = \ln c \tau_0 - m \ln A$**

$jT := 6$   $TT_{jT} - 273 = 85$   $Size := (.5 \ 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 15 \ 30 \ 45)^T$

$start := 0$   $end := 6$   $x := 0, 1 .. (end - start)$   $x0 := 0, 1 .. 6$

$S(x, jT) := [N^{<x+1>}]_{jT}$

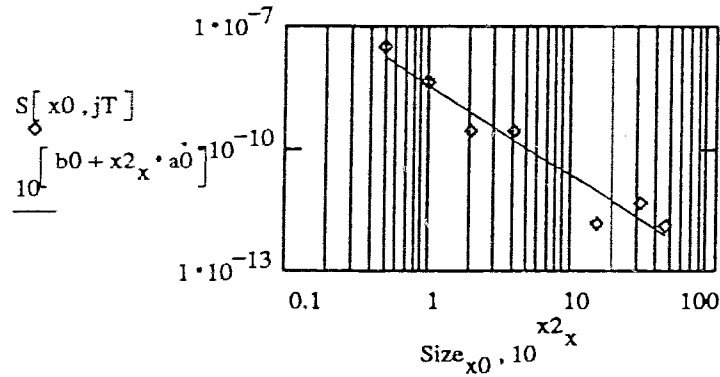
$x2_x := \log[Size_{x + start}]$   $z2_x := \log(S(x + start, jT))$

$a0 := \text{slope}(x2, z2)$   $b0 := \text{intercept}(x2, z2)$   $c0 := \text{corr}(x2, z2)$   $start := 0$

$a0 = -2.238$   $b0 = -8.435$   $c0 = -0.968$

Graph of Normalized Noise Power measured for Experiments vs. Temperature

Slope = a0 = -2.238



**A4.3.6 Determine how the Number Fluctuation  $\Delta N^2$  varies with the Emitter Area**  
 (Pasted directly from file Sf\_Snf6.mcd)

Calculate the Quasi-electron Fermi Level

$$m0 := 9.1091 \cdot 10^{-31} \quad m_{e\_eff} := 1.38 \cdot m0 \quad \text{for electron in Si } m_{h\_eff} := 0.946 \cdot m0 \quad p := 1.2 \cdot 10^{16}$$

$$N_c(T) := 2 \cdot \frac{\left[ \frac{2 \cdot \pi \cdot m_{e\_eff} \cdot k \cdot T}{h^2} \right]^{1.5}}{10^6} \quad E_g(T) := 1.16 - \frac{7.02 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot T^2}{(T + 1108)}$$

$$E_i(T) := \frac{E_g(T)}{2} + \frac{3 \cdot k \cdot T}{4} \cdot \ln \left[ \frac{m_{h\_eff}}{m_{e\_eff}} \right] \quad n_i(T) := N_c(T) \cdot \exp \left[ \frac{\left[ \frac{-E_g(T)}{2} \right] \cdot q}{k \cdot T} \right]$$

$$E_f(T) := E_i(T) - \frac{k \cdot T}{q} \cdot \ln \left[ \frac{p}{n_i(T)} \right]$$

Read in raw results  $i := 0, 1 \dots 9$   $N := \text{READPRN}(SI\_T_i) := [N^{<0>}]_i + 273$

**GR Noise Model for BJT**

Goal : Find Cnf and m in A^m  
 Define R as Cnf / A^m, which can be determined by fitting  
 the model to the experimental data. Then by plotting R vs.A,  
 both Cnf and m can be determined.

$$\tau[\tau_0, Ea, T] := \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot Ea)}{k \cdot T}\right]$$

$$\Delta E1(Et, T) := Eg(T) - Et$$

$$ft(Et, T) := \frac{1}{\left[1 + \left[\exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot ((Et - Ef(T))))}{k \cdot T}\right]\right]\right]}$$

$$SGR1[R, \tau_0, Et, T, f, Ic] := R \cdot Ic^2 \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, \Delta E1(Et, T), T]}{\left[1 + \left[\left[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f\right] \cdot \tau[\tau_0, \Delta E1(Et, T), T]\right]^2\right]} \cdot ft(Et, T) \cdot (1 - ft(Et, T))$$

$$SGR2[R, \tau_0, Et, T, f, Ic] := R \cdot Ic^2 \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, Et, T]}{\left[1 + \left[\left[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f\right] \cdot \tau[\tau_0, Et, T]\right]^2\right]} \cdot ft(Et, T) \cdot (1 - ft(Et, T))$$

Ic(T) := 1 · β(T) Since noise data were normalized to Ib = 1A

$$\tau_0 := \begin{bmatrix} 1.1 \cdot 10^{-5} \\ 5 \cdot 10^{-7} \end{bmatrix} \quad Ea := \begin{bmatrix} 0.11 \\ 0.82 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R := \begin{bmatrix} 1 \cdot 10^{-3} & 4 \cdot 10^{-4} & 8 \cdot 10^{-5} & 2 \cdot 10^{-6} & 1 \cdot 10^{-6} & 1.2 \cdot 10^{-7} & 9.99 \cdot 10^{-8} \\ 2 \cdot 10^4 & 4 \cdot 10^3 & 3 \cdot 10^2 & 2 \cdot 10^2 & 1 \cdot 10^1 & 7 \cdot 10^0 & 1 \cdot 10^0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \frac{4}{\beta(300)^2}$$

Define two g-r noise x := 3

$$Sgr0(x, T, f) := SGR2[R_{[0, x]}, \tau_{00}, Ea_0, T, f, Ic(T)] \cdot \frac{1}{f}$$

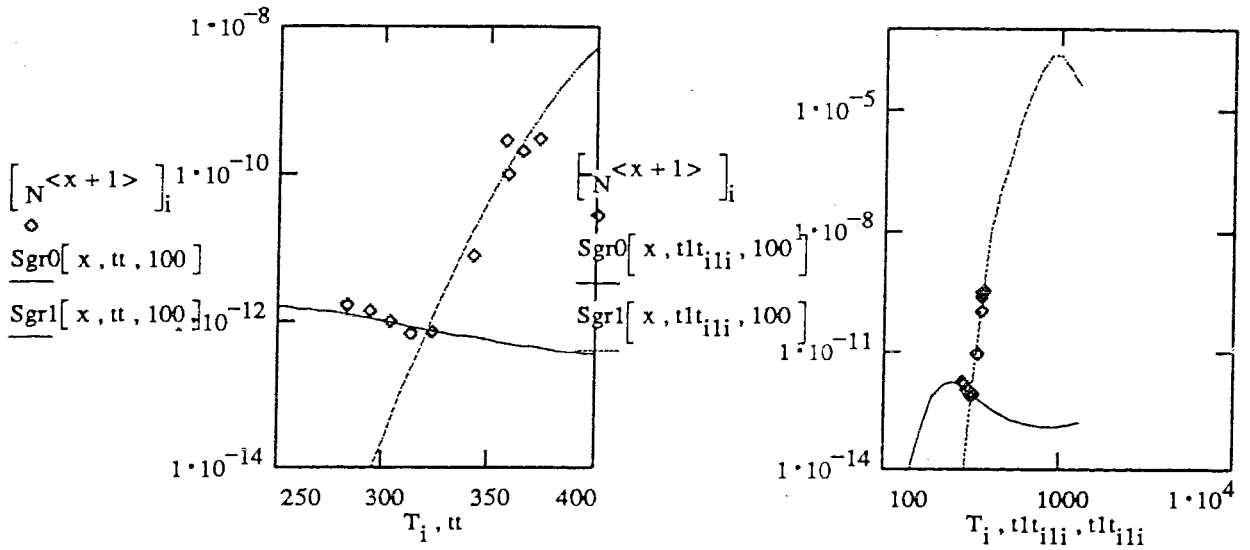
$$Sgr1(x, T, f) := SGR1[R_{[1, x]}, \tau_{01}, Ea_1, T, f, Ic(T)] \cdot \frac{1}{f}$$

ii := 273, 278 .. 373    iii := 100, 105 .. 600    iii := 250, 255 .. 400

$$iii := 1, 2 .. 20 \quad tlt_{iii} := 10^{-\left[\frac{[\log[1300] - \log[100]]}{20} \cdot iii + \log[100]\right]}$$



Graphs of Noise Data and Noise Model vs. Temperature



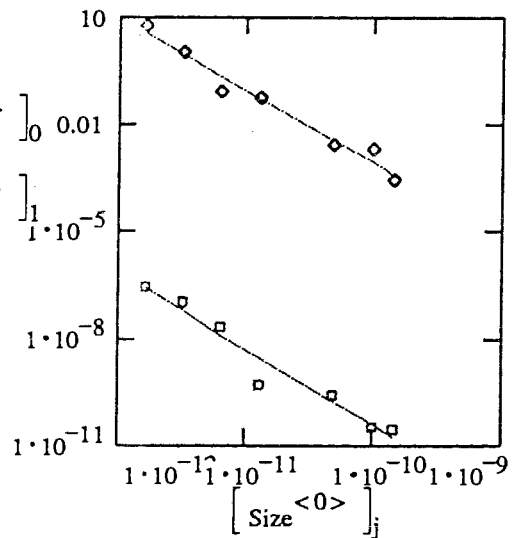
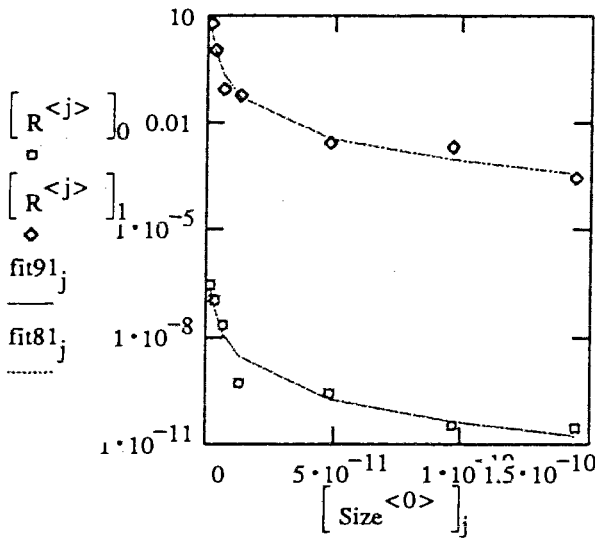
Determine Cnf and m in  $A^m$  by plotting  $R = Cnf / A^m$  versus emitter area in a log-log graph

$j := 0, 1..6$      $Size := (.5 \ 1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 15 \ 30 \ 45) \cdot 3.2 \cdot [10^{-6}]^2$   
 $x9_j := \log[Size_j]$      $y9_j := \log[[R^{<j>}]_0]$      $fit91_j := 10^{[slope[x9, y9] \cdot x9_j + intercept[x9, y9]]}$   
 $x8_j := \log[Size_j]$      $y8_j := \log[[R^{<j>}]_1]$      $fit81_j := 10^{[slope[x8, y8] \cdot x8_j + intercept[x8, y8]]}$

Graphs of Cnf ( $= \overline{\Delta N^2}$ ) versus Emitter Area

Semi-Log Graph

Log-Log Graph



**m**

$slope(x9, y9) = -2.144$

$slope(x8, y8) = -2.037$

**Cnf**

$10^{intercept[x9, y9]} = 1.389 \cdot 10^{-32}$

$10^{intercept[x8, y8]} = 3.418 \cdot 10^{-24}$

\*\*\*\*\*A4.4 FLICKER NOISE MODELLING\*\*\*\*\*

Lattice Constant  $a := 5.43 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

Speed of light in vac  $c := 3 \cdot 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

$m := 1.00 \cdot 9.1 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ Kg}$

$\alpha$  for Umklapp Process:  $m \quad \alpha_1 := \frac{[4 \cdot \alpha_0]}{[3 \cdot \pi]} \cdot \left[ \frac{h}{(m \cdot a \cdot c)} \right]^2 \quad \alpha_1 = 6.201 \cdot 10^{-8}$

$a$  for Normal Collision Process:  $\alpha_2(T) := \frac{[4 \cdot \alpha_0]}{[3 \cdot \pi]} \cdot \left[ \frac{(6 \cdot k \cdot T)}{[m \cdot c^2]} \right]$

Debye Temperature for Si:  $\theta := 645 \text{ K}$

Probability factors:  $P_1(T) := \exp\left[\frac{-\theta}{(2 \cdot T)}\right] \quad P_2(T) := \left[1 - \exp\left[\frac{-\theta}{(2 \cdot T)}\right]\right]$

Composite Hooge's parameter:  $\alpha_H(T) := \alpha_1 \cdot P_1(T) + \alpha_2(T) \cdot P_2(T)$

Convert x to actual area  $x = \{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$  Area =  $0.32 \cdot 10^{-32} \cdot \{0.5,1,2,15,30,45\}$

$E(x) := A_x$

.....  
Fundamental Flicker Noise Model

$$\alpha_H(CH, Ae, T) := \left[ \alpha_1 \cdot P_1(T) + \alpha_2(T) \cdot P_2(T) \right] \cdot \frac{CH}{Ae^2}$$

$$G(T, IEp, WE) := \pi \cdot fT \left[ T, IEp \cdot \beta(T) \right] \cdot q \cdot \ln(p\_ratio(T, WE))$$

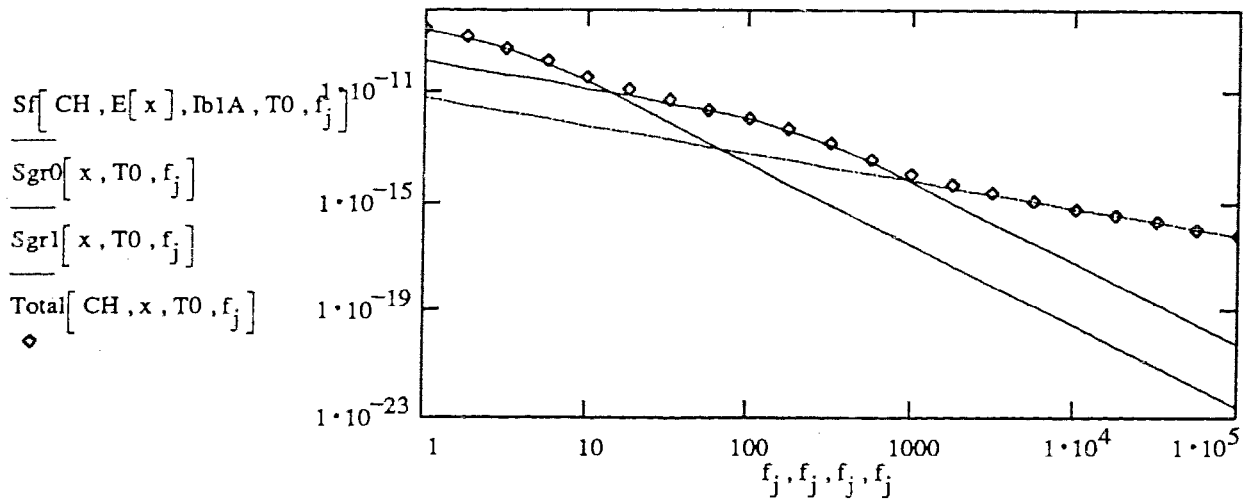
$$Sf(CH, Ae, IEp, T, f) := \frac{G(T, IEp, WE) \cdot \alpha_H(CH, Ae, T)}{f} \cdot IEp$$

.....  
Plot of both noise vs frequency  $max\_j := 20 \quad j := 0, 1 .. max\_j \quad f_j := 10^{\left[ j \cdot \frac{[\log[10^5] - \log[10^0]]}{max\_j} + \log[1] \right]}$

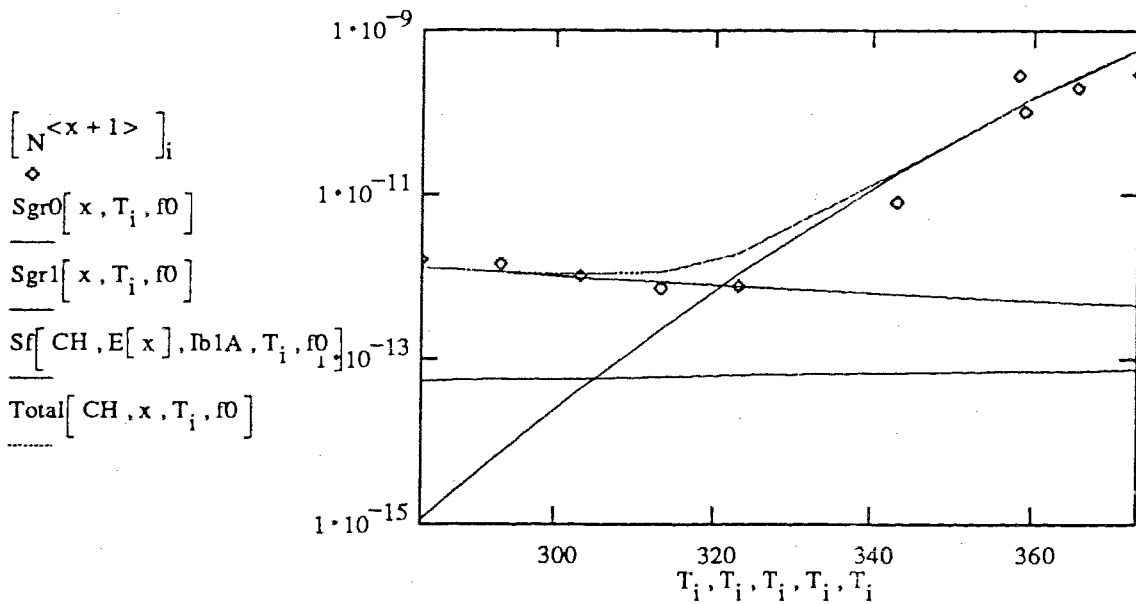
$T0 := 300 \text{ K} \quad := 100 \quad Total(CH, x, T, f) := Sf(CH, E(x), Ib1A, T, f) + Sgr0(x, T, f) + Sgr1(x, T, f)$

$CH := 3 \cdot 10^{-18} \quad x := 3 \quad fHz := 1$

Graph of Total Noise, GR Noise #1, GR Noise #2 and Flicker Noise  
Derived from Model versus Frequency

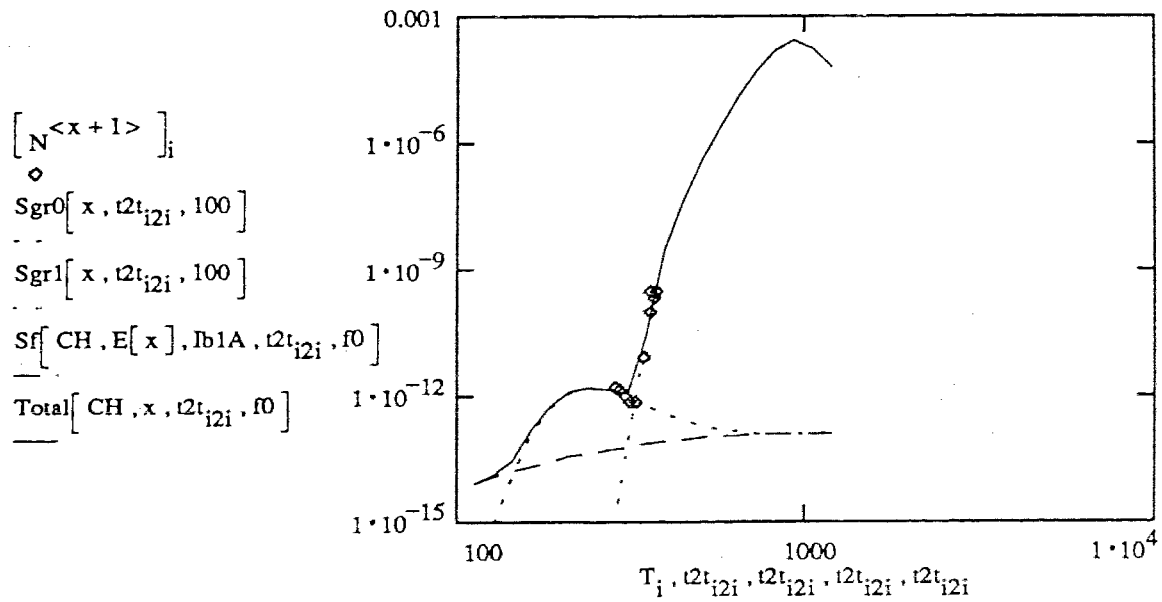


Graph of Total Noise, GR Noise #1, GR Noise #2,  
Flicker Noise and Experimental Data  
vs Temperature



$$i_{2i} := 1, 2 \dots 20 \quad t_{i2i} := 10^{\left[ \frac{[\log[1200] - \log[100]]}{20} \cdot i_{2i} + \log[100] \right]}$$

Graph Identical to the Previous One except with a Wider Temperature Range



$$i2i := 1, 2 \dots 20 \quad t2t_{i2i} := 10^{\left[ \frac{[\log[9000] - \log[60]]}{20} \cdot i2i + \log[60] \right]}$$

===== A4.5 OTHER EXPERIMENTAL DATA =====

A4.5.1 Modelling J.Kilmer et al, "Mobility Fluctuation 1/f Noise in Silicon p+-n-p Transistor," Solid State Electronics, Vol-28, (3), pp 287-288 (1985)

Read in actual results max\_i := 19 i := 1, 2 .. max\_iM2 := READPRN(KILMER)

GR Noise Model (for BJT., ft is temperature dependent)

$$\tau[\tau_0, Ea, T] := \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot Ea)}{k \cdot T}\right]$$

$$\Delta E(Et, T) := Eg(T) - Et$$

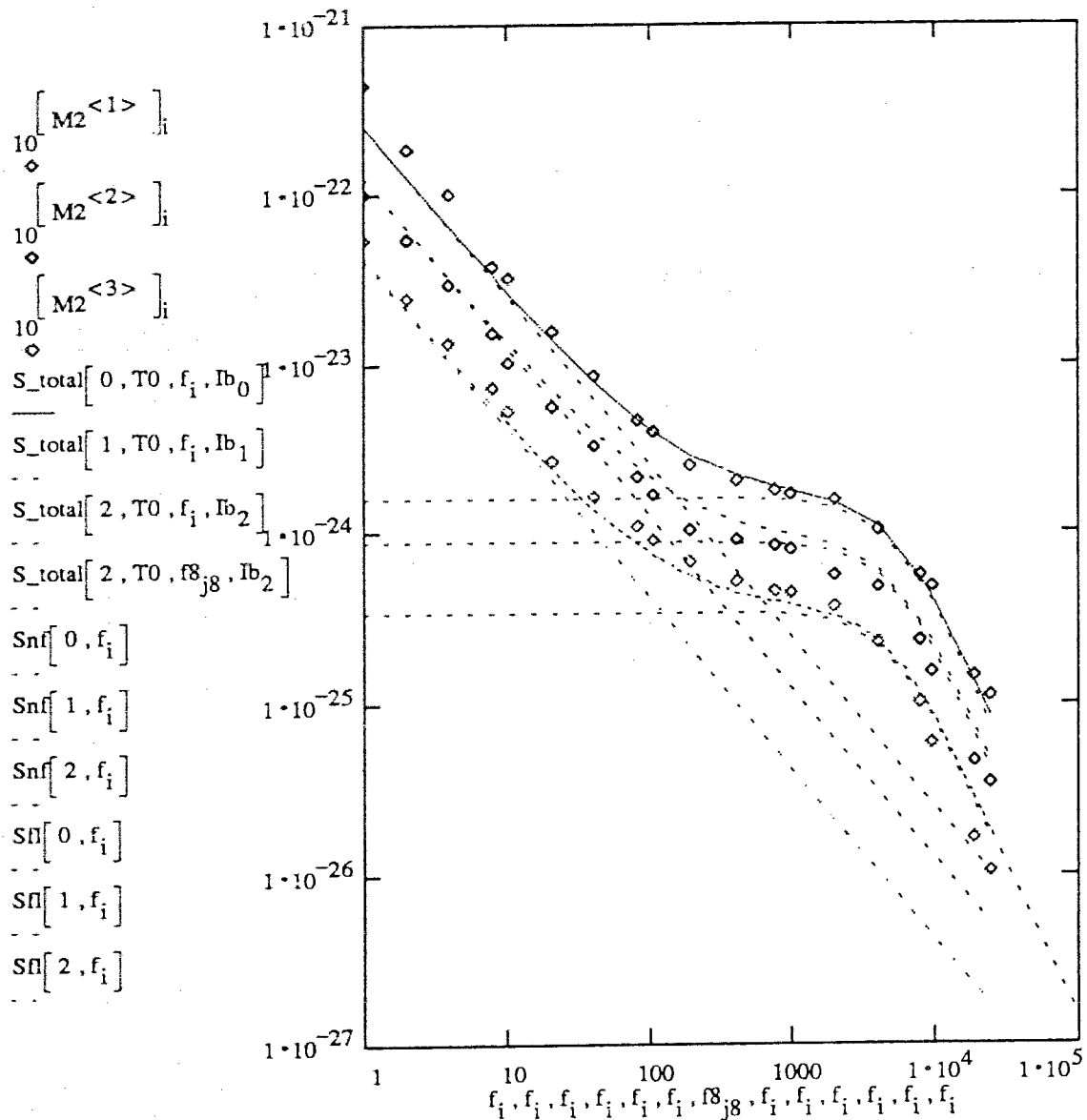
$$ft(Et, T) := \frac{1}{1 + \left[ \exp\left[ \frac{(q \cdot ((Et - Ef(T))))}{k \cdot T} \right] \right] \right]}$$

$$SGR[Cnf, \tau_0, Et, T, f, Ib, m, A] := \frac{[Ib \cdot \beta(T)]^m \cdot Cnf}{A^2} \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, \Delta E(Et, T), T]}{1 + [2 \cdot \pi \cdot f \cdot \tau[\tau_0, \Delta E(Et, T), T]]^2} \cdot ft(Et, T) \cdot (1 - ft(Et, T))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
T0 &:= 300 & f_i &:= [M2^{<0>}]_i & I_b &:= [6 \cdot 10^{-6} \quad 3 \cdot 10^{-6} \quad 1 \cdot 10^{-6}]^T & m0 &:= 0.85 \\
\tau0 &:= 2 \cdot 10^{-14} & Ea0 &:= .570 & \tau[\tau0, Ea0, 300] &:= 7.532 \cdot 10^{-5} & Cnf0 &:= 2.833 \cdot 10^{-33} & Cf &:= 2.2 \cdot [10^{-23}] \\
S_{total}(k, T, f, I_b) &:= SGR[Cnf0, \tau0, Ea0, T, f, I_b, m0, 10 \cdot [10^{-6}]^2] + Sf(Cf, E(3), I_b, T, f) \\
S_{nf}(k, f) &:= SGR[Cnf0, \tau0, Ea0, T0, f, I_{b_k}, m0, 10 \cdot [10^{-6}]^2] \\
S_{\Pi}(k, f) &:= Sf[Cf, E(3), I_{b_k}, T0, f] \\
max\_j8 &:= 20 & j8 &:= 0, 1 .. max\_j8 & f8\_j8 &:= 10^{-\frac{j8 \cdot [\log[10^5] - \log[10^1]]}{max\_j8} + \log[10^1]} & m &:= 0
\end{aligned}$$

**GRAPH OF CURRENT NOISE VS. FREQUENCY**

Y axis : ln (Si) [A<sup>2</sup>/Hz] X axis : Frequency [Hz]



GR Noise Definitions (for JFET, ft is treated as temperature independent)

$$\tau[\tau_0, Ea, T] := \tau_0 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{(q \cdot Ea)}{k \cdot T}\right]$$

$$SGR[Cnf, \tau_0, Ea, T, f, \eta, A, Id] := Cnf \cdot \frac{Id^2}{A^2} \cdot \frac{\tau[\tau_0, Ea, T]}{1 + [(2 \cdot \pi \cdot f) \cdot \tau[\tau_0, Ea, T]]^{\eta}}$$

A4.5.2 Modelling K.K.Wang, A. Van der Ziel, and E.R.Chenette's Experimental Result  
 [K.K. Wang, "Fundamental of Semiconductor Theory and Device Physics", Prentice Hall, New Jersey, pp 215, (1989)]

$$\max_i := 28 \quad i := 0, 1 \dots maM2 := READPRN(KKWANG) \quad T_i := [M2^{<0>}]_i$$

$$K_{Ea} := (0.17 \quad 0.23 \quad 0.42 \quad 0.6 \quad 1.04)^T \quad f_0 := 100 \text{ Hz}$$

$$Cnf := [3.84 \cdot 10^{-32} \quad 8.08 \cdot 10^{-32} \quad 8.08 \cdot 10^{-32} \quad 1.28 \cdot 10^{-32} \quad 4 \cdot 10^{-32}]^T \quad Cf := 6 \cdot 10^1$$

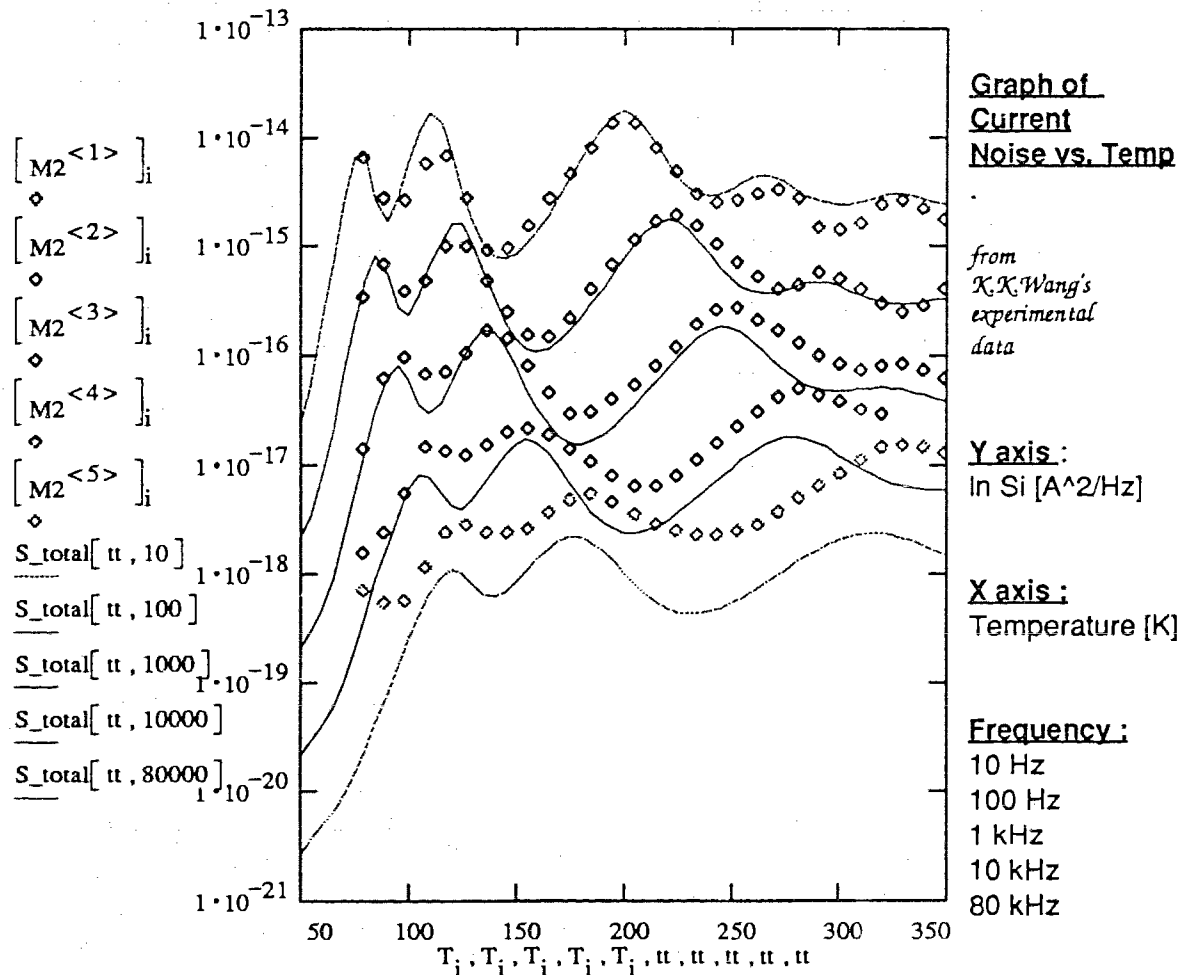
$$K_{\tau_0} := [2 \cdot 10^{-13} \quad 7.5 \cdot 10^{-13} \quad 5.5 \cdot 10^{-13} \quad 9 \cdot 10^{-14} \quad 2 \cdot 10^{-18}]^T$$

$$S(j, T, f) := SGR[Cnf_j, K_{\tau_0_j}, K_{Ea_j}, T, f, 1.6, 10 \cdot [10^{-6}]^2, 0.050] + 10^{-25}$$

$$S_{total}(T, f) := S(0, T, f) + S(1, T, f) + S(2, T, f) + S(3, T, f) + S(4, T, f) + S(Cf, 1, 1, T, f)$$

$$S_{total0}(T, f) := S(0, T, f) + S(1, T, f) + S(2, T, f) + S(3, T, f) + S(4, T, f) \quad 50, 55 \dots 350$$

Graph of K. K. Wang's Noise Data and Our Noise Model vs. Temperature



fover\_3(x) := if(x = 10000, 4, 5)

fover\_2(x) := if(x = 1000, 3, fover\_3(x))    fover\_1(x) := if(x = 100, 2, fover\_2(f0))

Get\_f(x) := if(x = 10, 1, fover\_1(x))    f\_2\_i(x) := Get\_f(x)    f\_2\_i(f0) = 2

m := 10<sup>-18</sup>

*Graph of K. K. Wang's Experimental Data, Total Noise from Noise Model, Total Noise less flicker Noise, the Five GR Noises and the Flicker Noise vs. Temperature*

