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EEE337 Semiconductor Electronics EEE348 Electronics and Devices

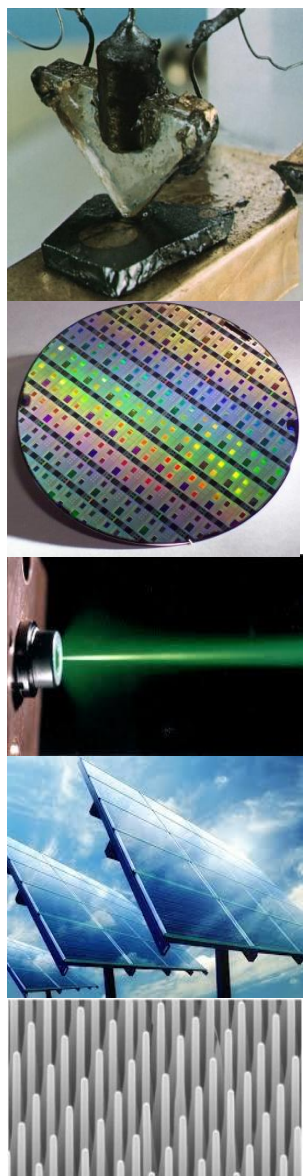
Professor Chee Hing Tan

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E151, Department of Electronic and Electrical Engineering,
The University of Sheffield, UK
Tel: 0114 2225144

Outline

- Module Background
- Why semiconductor?
- Energy levels in an isolated hydrogen atom
- Band structure



Lecture delivery plan

- Review semiconductor band structure, doping, conduction, junctions
 - Introduce the various electronic material systems (Si, Ge, III-V, SiC, GaN) and outline their electronic properties and principal applications
 - Heterojunctions
- Review Solar Cell developments
 - Introduce optical detector technologies and applications for different wavelength ranges
 - Demonstrate performance and functional improvements possible using heterojunctions
 - Explore heterostructure optoelectronic devices such as Lasers, LEDs
- Introduce the physics of high speed devices
 - Describe how tunneling, Gunn and impact ionisation effects leads to negative differential resistance



Module details

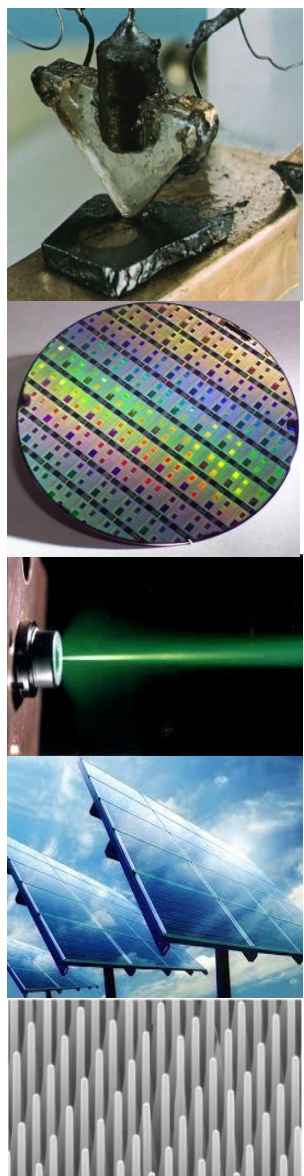
Time Allocation

24 lectures, 12 problem classes, 62 hours independent study.

Recommended Previous Courses
Knowledge equivalent to EEE118, EEE225.

Assessment

3 out of 4 questions on 2 hour examination.



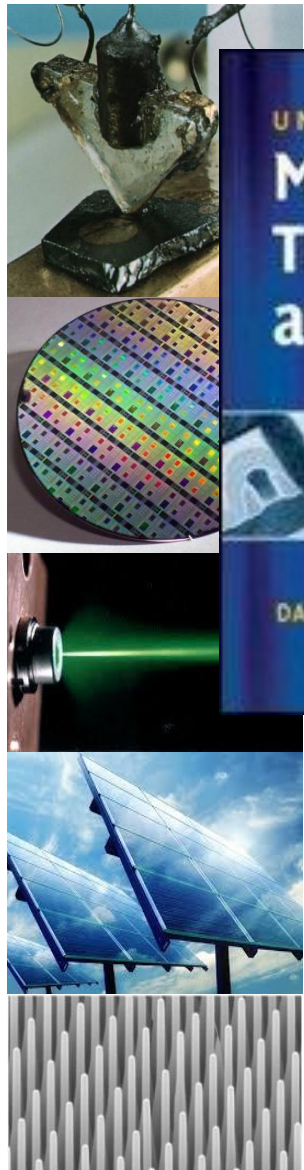
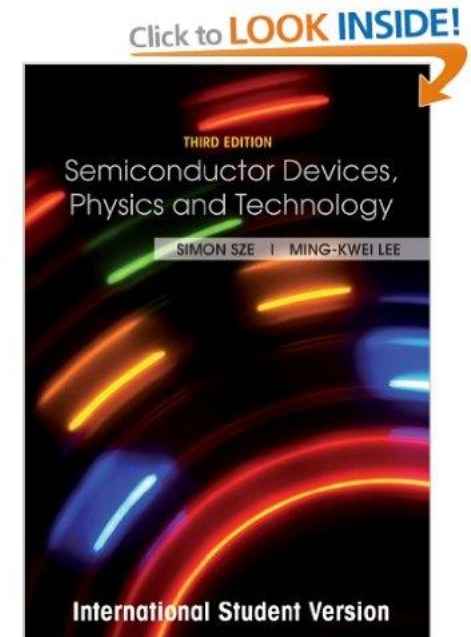
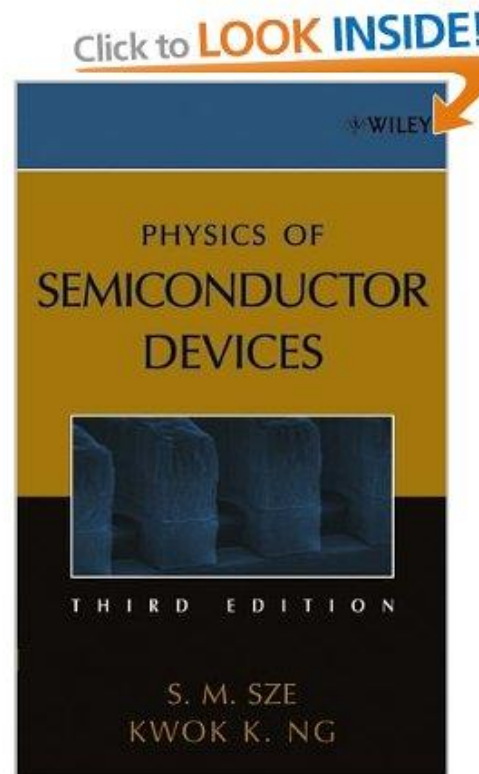
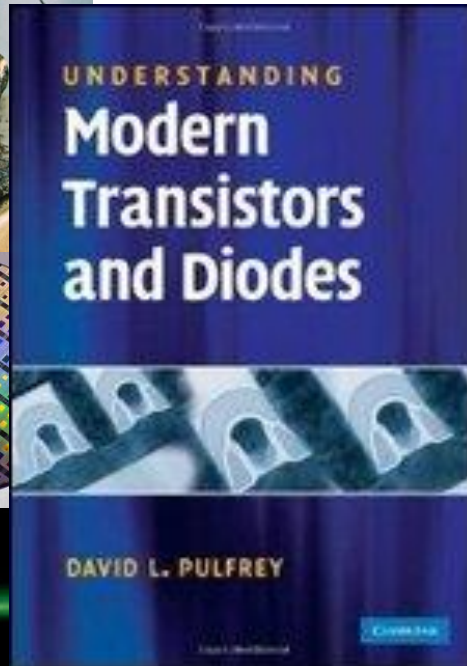


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Recommended Books

Ebook:

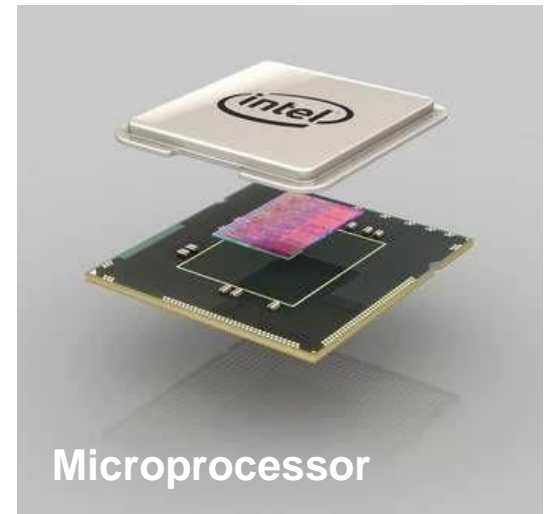
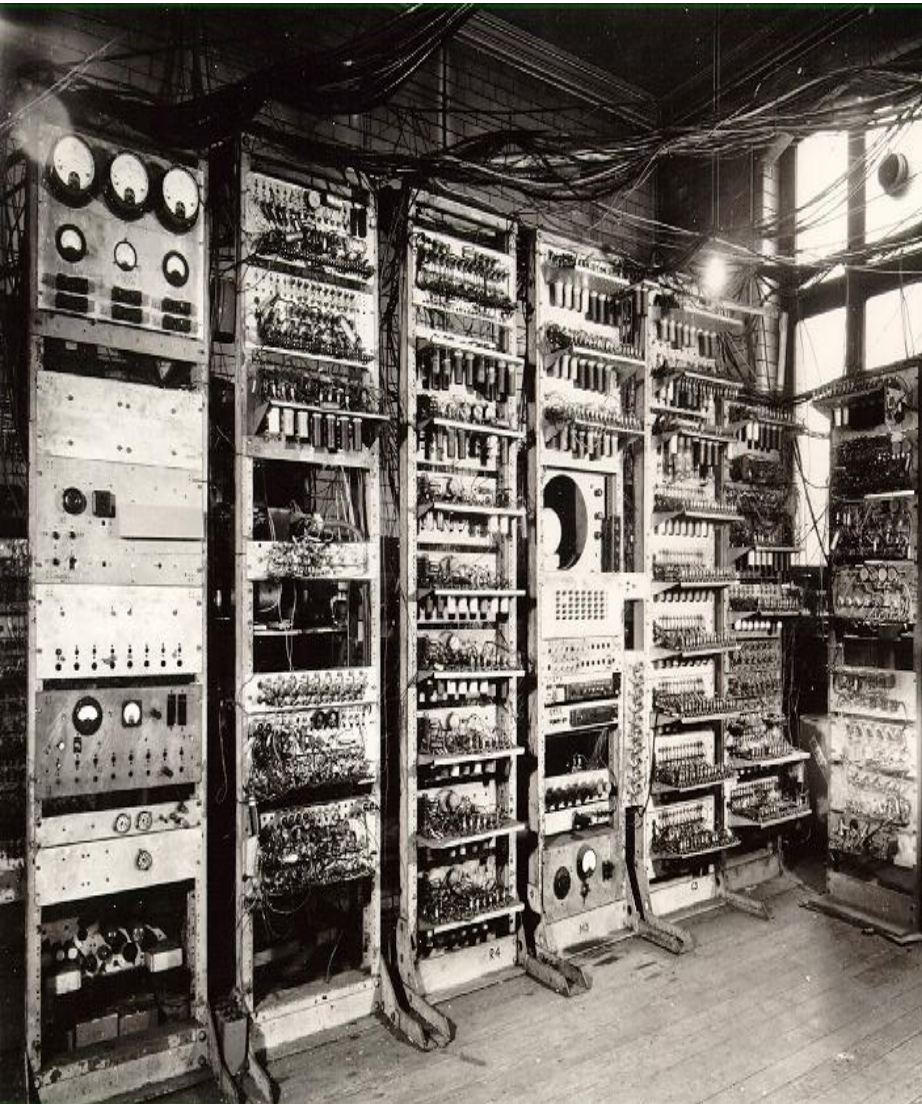
(Library-Electronic Resources-Ebooks-Ebook supplier information-Dawsonera)



1 μm



Why use semiconductor?

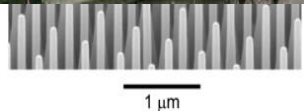


Microprocessor

iPad mini



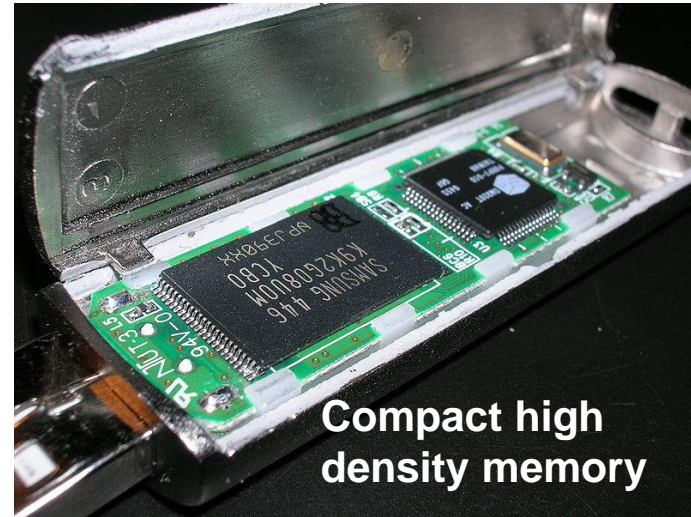
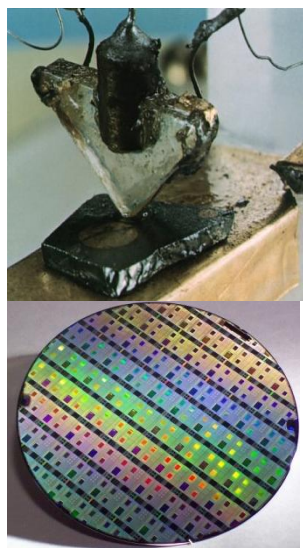
Transistors are used in logic circuits that are compact, low power consumption and affordable.





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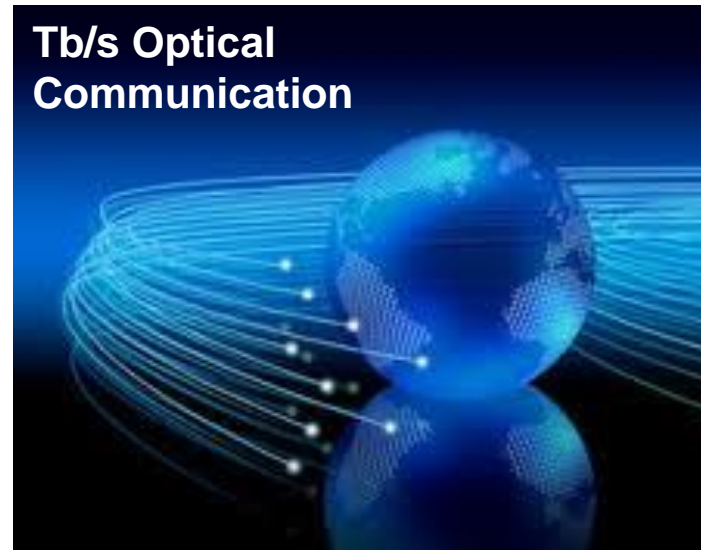
Why use semiconductor?



**Compact high
density memory**



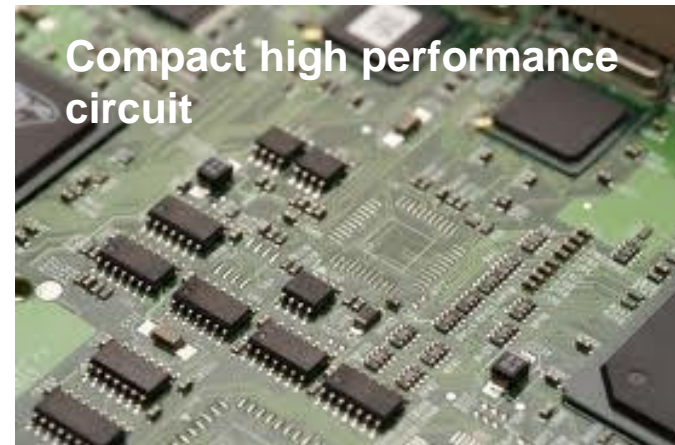
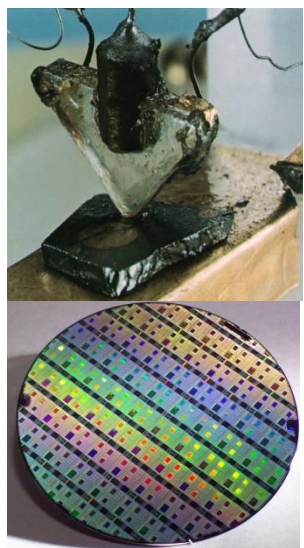
**Tb/s Optical
Communication**





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Why use semiconductor?



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Semiconductor is an important driver of many technologies



Flexible display is another exciting example of progress made in semiconductors

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sJehexDPEsE>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AxbHpXE4VM0>

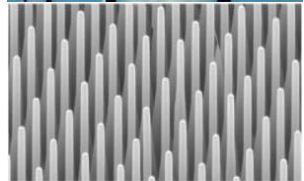
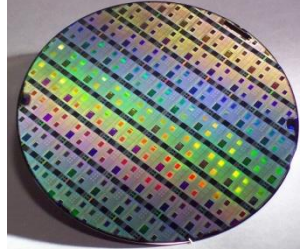


1 μ m



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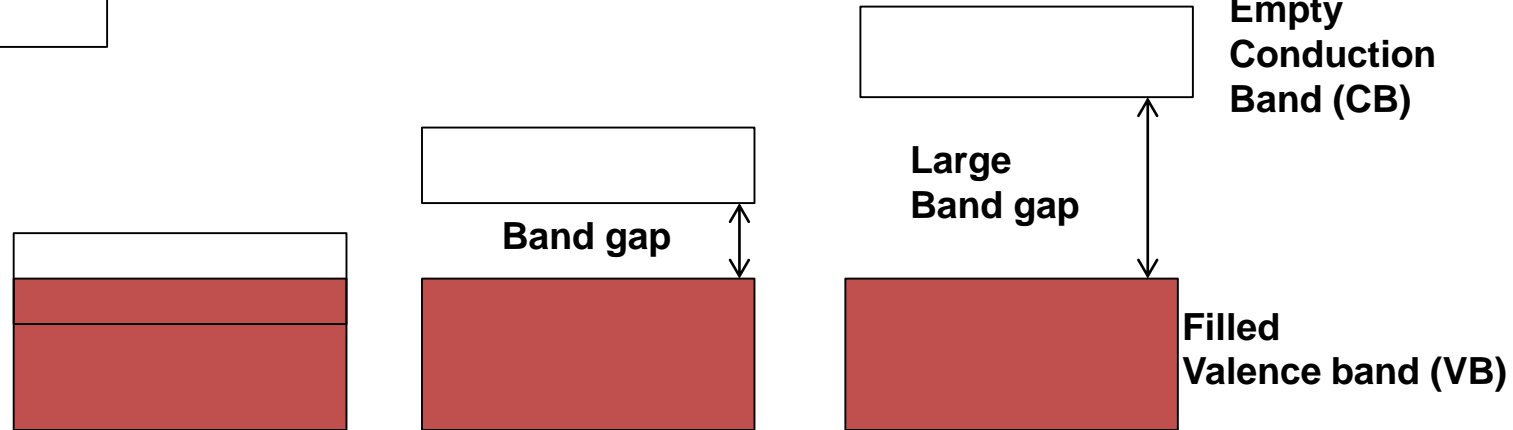
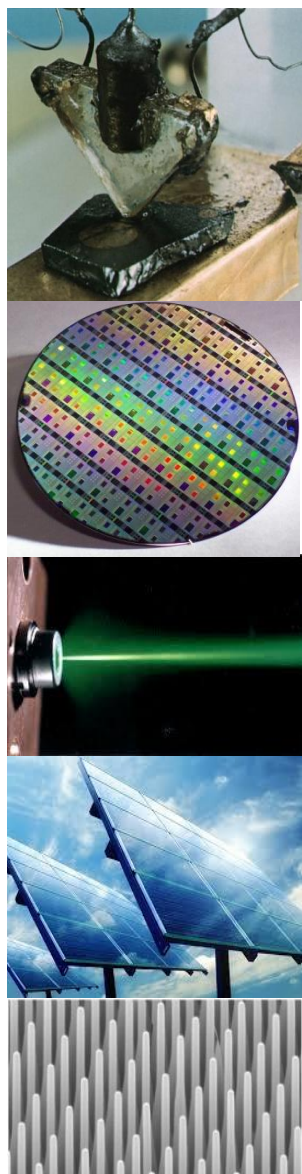
Revision: Basic properties of semiconductors



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Metal, Semiconductor and Insulator



Metal	Semiconductor	Insulator
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CB and VB overlap. • Electrons move freely under the influence of electric field because there are many available states in the CB. •Good electrical conductor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Band gap of meV to a few eV. •At $T=0$ K, no electron in the CB. •At 300 K, thermal energy $kT = 26$ meV which is a fraction of the band gap. • Appreciable number of electrons are thermally excited to become free electrons in CB. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Bandgap is large 9 eV (SiO_2). •Negligible electron in CB. •Cannot achieve good current conduction.



Common Semiconductors

hydrogen 1 H 1.0079																		helium 2 He 4.0026																			
lithium 3 Li 6.941		beryllium 4 Be 9.0122																																			
sodium 11 Na 22.990		magnesium 12 Mg 24.305																																			
potassium 19 K 39.098		calcium 20 Ca 40.078																																			
rubidium 37 Rb 85.468		strontium 38 Sr 87.62																																			
caesium 55 Cs 132.91		barium 56 Ba 137.33		57-70 *																																	
francium 87 Fr [223]		radium 88 Ra [226]		89-102 **																																	
						scandium 21 Sc 44.956		titanium 22 Ti 47.867		vanadium 23 V 50.942		chromium 24 Cr 51.996		manganese 25 Mn 54.938		iron 26 Fe 55.845		cobalt 27 Co 58.933		nickel 28 Ni 58.693		copper 29 Cu 63.546		zinc 30 Zn 65.39		gallium 31 Ga 69.723		germanium 32 Ge 72.61		arsenic 33 As 74.922		selenium 34 Se 78.96		bromine 35 Br 79.904		krypton 36 Kr 83.80	
						yttrium 39 Y 88.906		zirconium 40 Zr 91.224		niobium 41 Nb 92.906		molybdenum 42 Mo 95.94		technetium 43 Tc [98]		ruthenium 44 Ru 101.07		rhodium 45 Rh 102.91		palladium 46 Pd 106.42		silver 47 Ag 107.87		cadmium 48 Cd 112.41		indium 49 In 114.82		tin 50 Sn 118.71		antimony 51 Sb 121.76		tellurium 52 Te 127.60		iodine 53 I 126.90		xenon 54 Xe 131.29	
						lutetium 71 Lu 174.97		hafnium 72 Hf 178.49		tantalum 73 Ta 180.95		tungsten 74 W 183.84		rhenium 75 Re 186.21		osmium 76 Os 190.23		iridium 77 Ir 192.22		platinum 78 Pt 195.08		gold 79 Au 196.97		mercury 80 Hg 200.59		thallium 81 Tl 204.38		lead 82 Pb 207.2		bismuth 83 Bi 208.98		polonium 84 Po [209]		astatine 85 At [210]		radon 86 Rn [222]	
						lawrencium 103 Lr [262]		rutherfordium 104 Rf [261]		dubnium 105 Db [262]		seaborgium 106 Sg [266]		bohrium 107 Bh [264]		hassium 108 Hs [269]		meitnerium 109 Mt [268]		ununnillium 110 Uun [271]		unununium 111 Uuu [272]		ununbium 112 Uub [277]				ununquadium 114 Uuq [289]									

Key:

element name
atomic number
symbol
atomic weight (mean relative mass)

III IV V VI

II

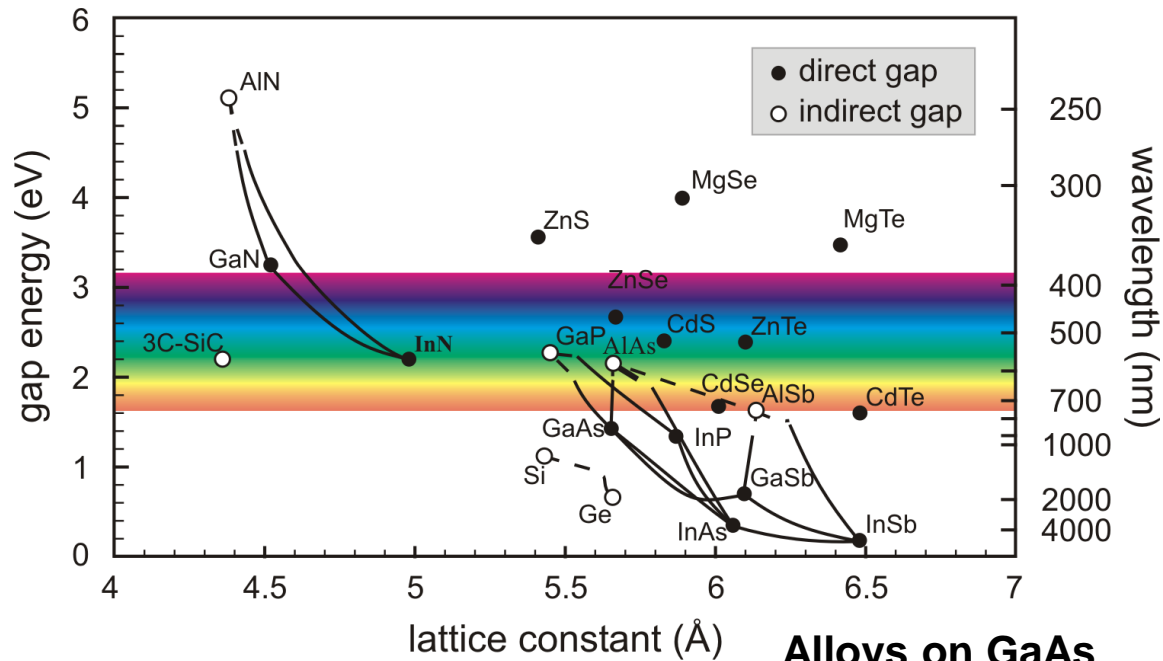
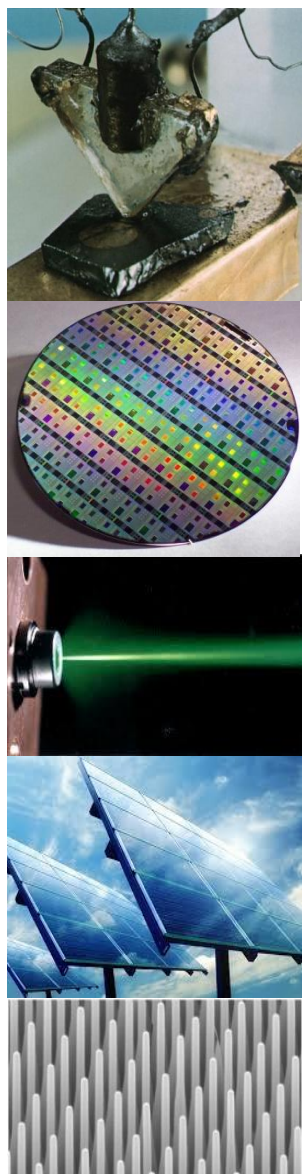
*lanthanoids

**actinoids

Group IV: Si and Ge
Group III-V: GaAs, InP, GaP, InAs, InSb
Group II-VI: HgCdTe, CdZnTe



Semiconductor Alloys



Widely available substrates

IV
Si
Ge
SiC

III-V
GaAs
InP
InSb
GaSb
InAs

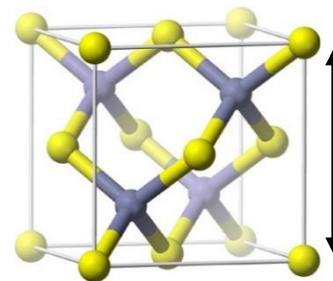
II-VI
CdTe
CdSe
ZnSe
ZnTe

Alloys on GaAs

AlGaAs
InGaP
AlInP

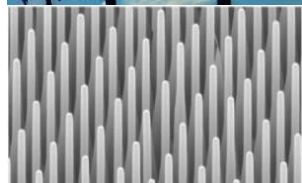
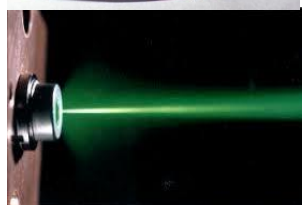
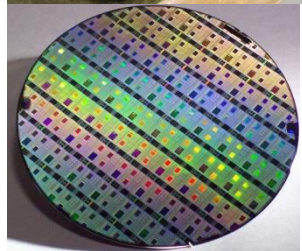
Alloys on InP

InGaAs
InAlAs
GaAsSb
AlAsSb
InGaAsP
InAlGaAs

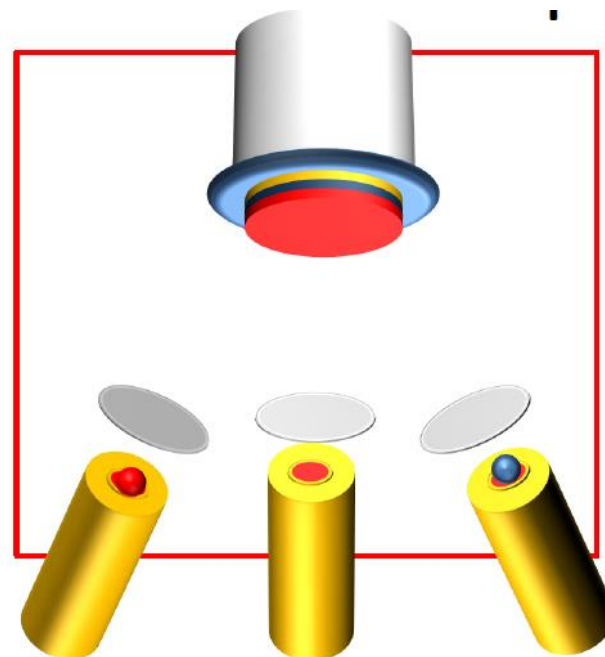
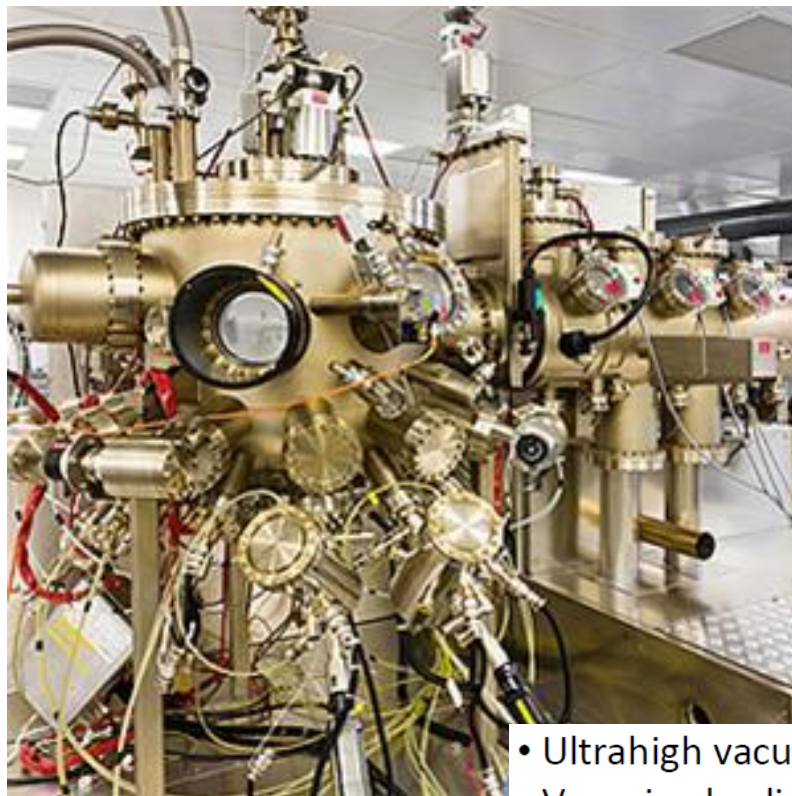


Lattice
constant

Ultra high vacuum molecular beam epitaxy



1 μm



- Ultrahigh vacuum conditions (base pressure $\sim 10^{-10}$ mbar)
- Vaporised solid ultrapure elemental sources
 - Group III: In, Ga, Al
 - Group V: (N), P, As, Sb, Bi
 - Dopants: Si and Be
- Condense onto a heated, rotated substrate

<http://www.epsrciii-vcentre.com/working-us/facilities/>

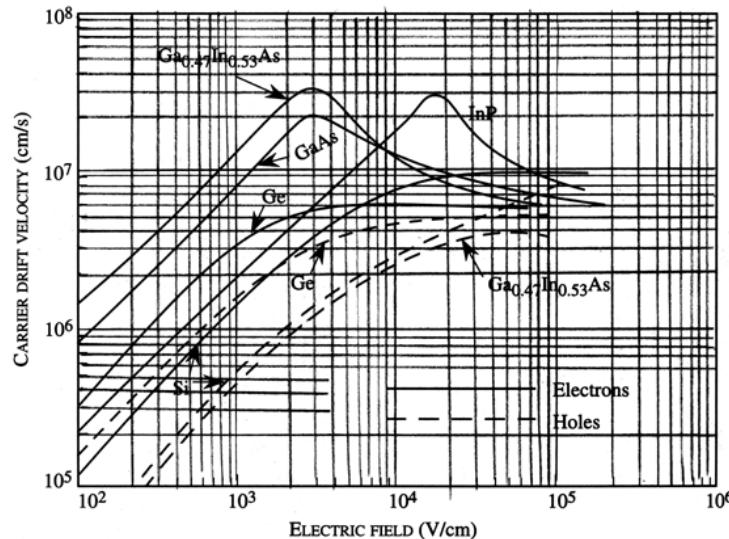
Table 1. Some physical properties of important semiconductor materials

Type of material	Material	Width of energy gap electron volts		Carrier mobility at 300°K (cm²/volt-sec)		Crystal-structure type	Lattice constant (angstrom units)	Melting point (°c)	Vapor pressure at melting point (atmospheres)
		At 300°K	At 0°K	Electrons	Holes				
Element	C (diamond)	5.47	5.51	1,800	1,600	Diamond	3.56679	4027	10 ⁻⁹
	Ge	0.803	0.89	3,900	1,900	Diamond	5.65748	937	
	Si	1.12	1.16	1,500	600	Diamond	5.43086	1420	10 ⁻⁶
	a-Sn		−0.08			Diamond	6.4892		
A ^{IV} B ^{IV} compound	a-SiC	3	3.1	400	50	Zinc blende	4.358	3100	
A ^{III} B ^V compound	AlSb	1.63	1.75	200	420	Zinc blende	6.1355	1050	<0.02
	BP	6				Zinc blende	4.538	>1300	>24
	GaN	3.5				Wurtzite	3.186 (a=axis)	>1700	>200
							5.176 (c=axis)		
	GaSb	0.67	0.80	4,000	1,400	Zinc blende	6.0955	706	<4 ×10 ⁻⁴
	GaAs	1.43	1.52	8,500	400	Zinc blende	5.6534	1239	1
	GaP	2.24	2.40	110	75	Zinc blende	5.4505	1467	35
	InSb	0.16	0.26	78,000	750	Zinc blende	6.4788	525	<10 ⁻⁵
	InAs	0.33	0.46	33,000	460	Zinc blende	6.0585	943	0.33
	InP	1.29	1.34	4,600	150	Zinc blende	5.8688	1060	25
A ^{II} B ^{VI} compound	CdS	2.42	2.56	300	50	Wurtzite	4.16 (a=axis)	1750	
							6.756 (c=axis)		
	CdSe	1.7	1.85	800		Zinc blende	6.05	1258	
	ZnO	3.2		200		Cubic	4.58	1975	
	ZnS	3.6	3.7	165		Wurtzite	3.82 (a=axis)	1700	
							6.26 (c=axis)		
	PbS	0.41	0.34	600	700	Cubic	5.935	1103	
compound	PbTe	0.32	0.24	6,000	4,000	Cubic	6.460	917	

Carrier mobility

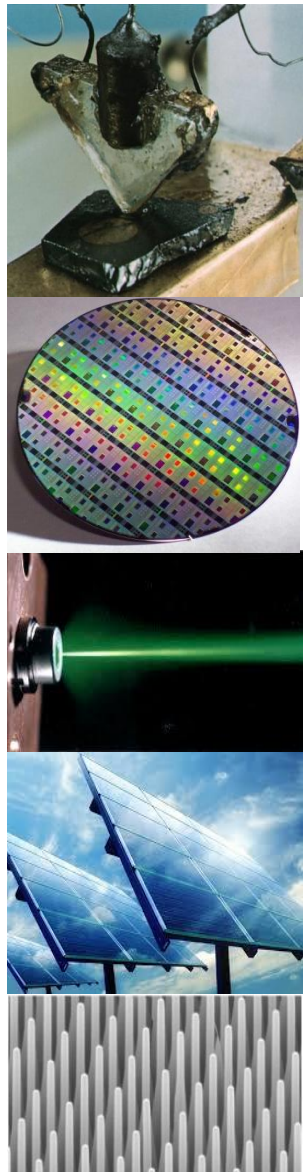
- Why is carrier mobility an important parameter?

High mobility increases carrier drift velocity



$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \sigma = q(\mu_n n + \mu_p p)$$

High mobility increases conductivity (reduces resistivity)



Speed of semiconductor devices

The speed of a semiconductor device fundamentally depends on the carrier transport. Carrier velocity and device size/geometry are the major factors

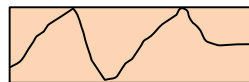
Carrier velocity $v = \mu E$ (μ = mobility, E = electric field)

$$\mu = \frac{e\tau}{m}$$

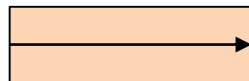
- μ is a material dependent parameter.
- m can be for electrons or holes, which have very different mass and $m \rightarrow m^*$, called the 'effective mass' which is material dependent
- τ = carrier lifetime between scattering events (due to imperfections in the semiconductor crystal)
- To increase the speed of devices and logic circuits, we need to increase the carrier mobility.



High scattering

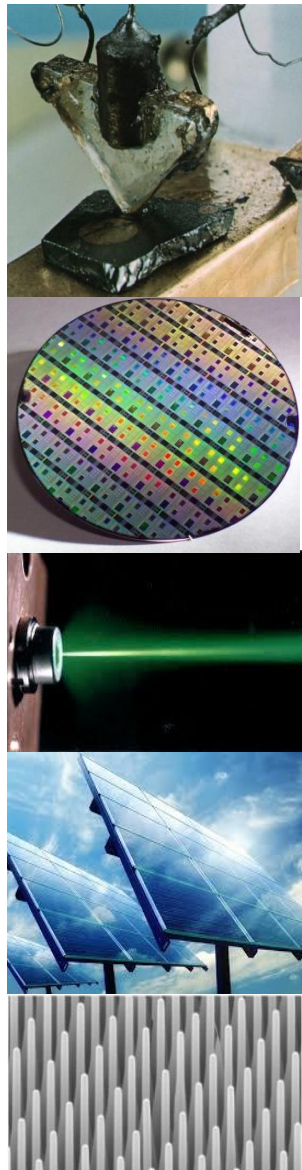


Quasi-ballistic



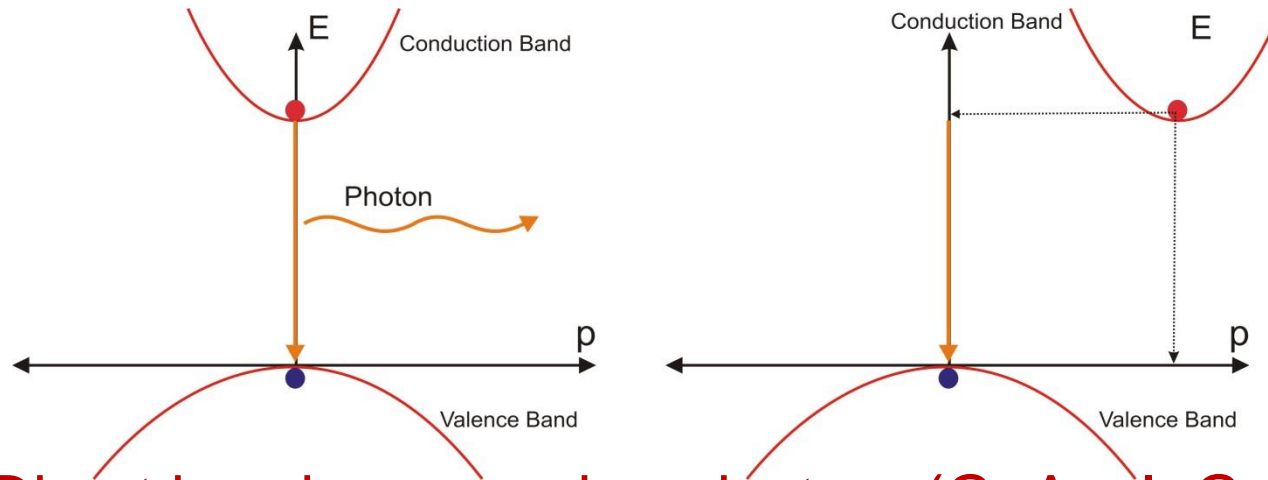
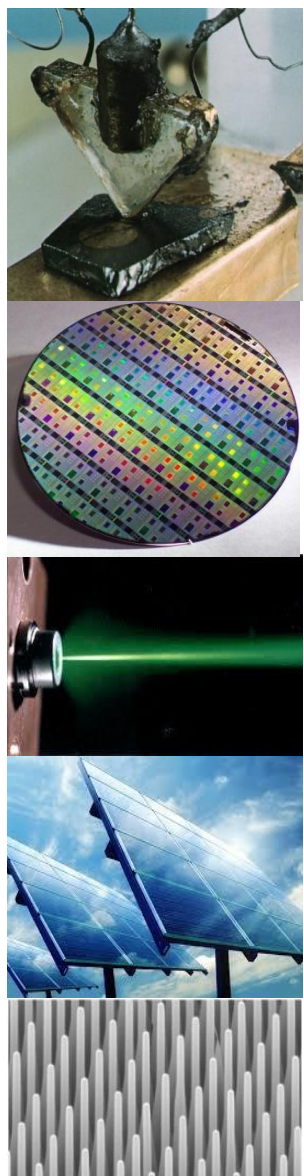
Ballistic

Materials from Si to graphene have been developed into high speed transistors. Mobility of $15,000 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ demonstrated in graphene (however the theoretical value is $200,000 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$)





Bandgap



Direct band gap semiconductors (GaAs, InGaAs) are much more efficient light emitter than indirect band gap semiconductors (Si, Ge)

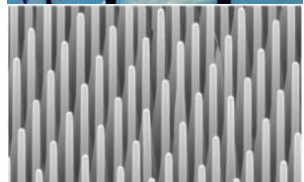
Band gap and recombination process determine the efficiency of optoelectronic devices. The emission and absorption wavelengths are also determined by the band gap.

Band gap also controls the carrier concentration (hence current) in electronic devices



How do we design and optimise electronic and optoelectronic devices?

We need the knowledge of band structure and properties of semiconductor.

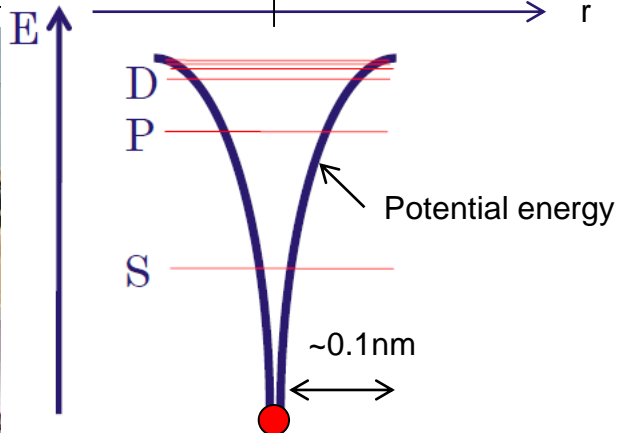


1 μm



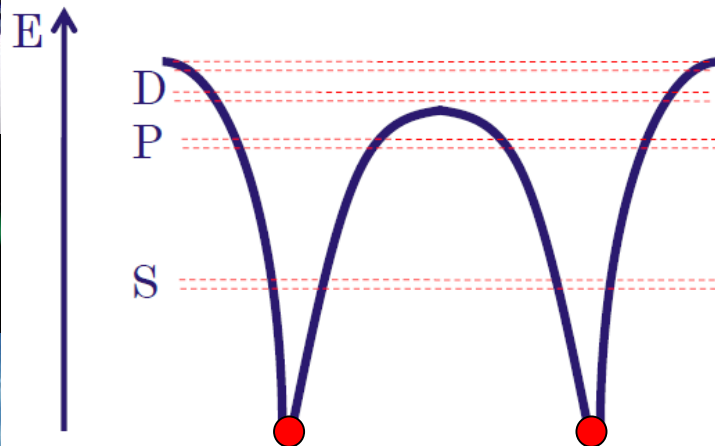
Quantised energy level

In an isolated hydrogen atom $E_H = -13.6/n^2$ eV



Fixed energy levels (quantum mechanics).
Potential energy barrier bind electrons to the nucleus.

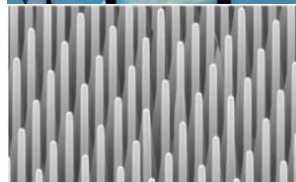
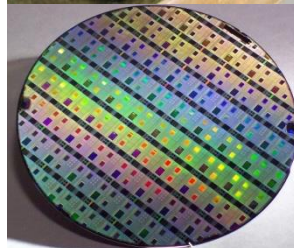
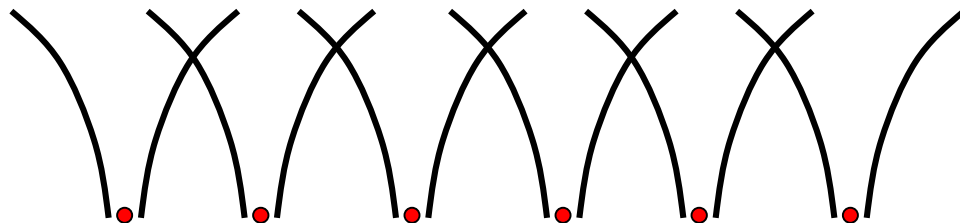
Electrons in upper states are more weakly bounded to the nucleus.



Quantum mechanics
(Pauli exclusion principle)
does not allow identical
states

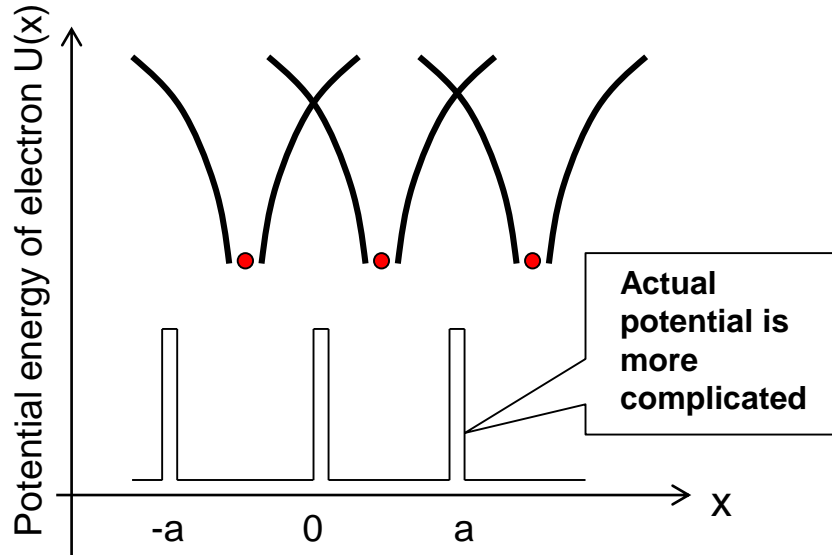
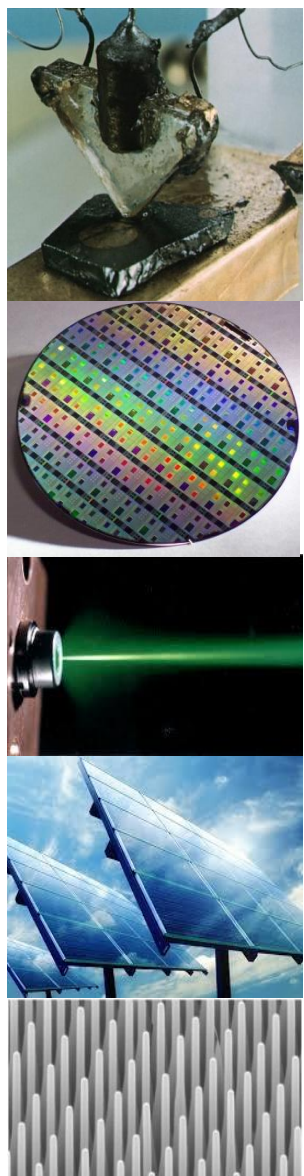
→ the two states split

How about in a crystal?



1 μ m

Band structure



Presence of other electrons, different atoms, and different spacing in different directions will influence the potential energy. However the important fact is the periodicity of the potential energy.

To find the allowed energy states, in the crystal we need to treat electron as wave. The equation that produces solutions which are consistent with experiment is the time independent Schrodinger equation.

What is Schrodinger equation?

The total energy (E) is given by the sum of kinetic energy (K) and potential energy (U). So we have $K+U=E$. From this we can derive a wave equation as

$$(K + U)\Psi(x) = E\Psi(x)$$

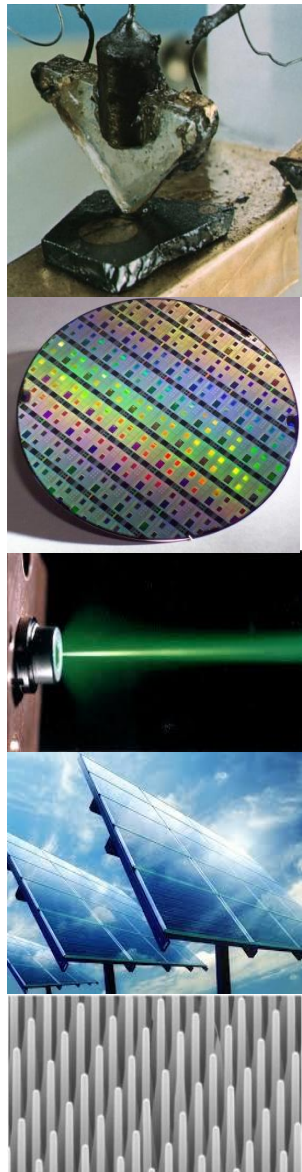
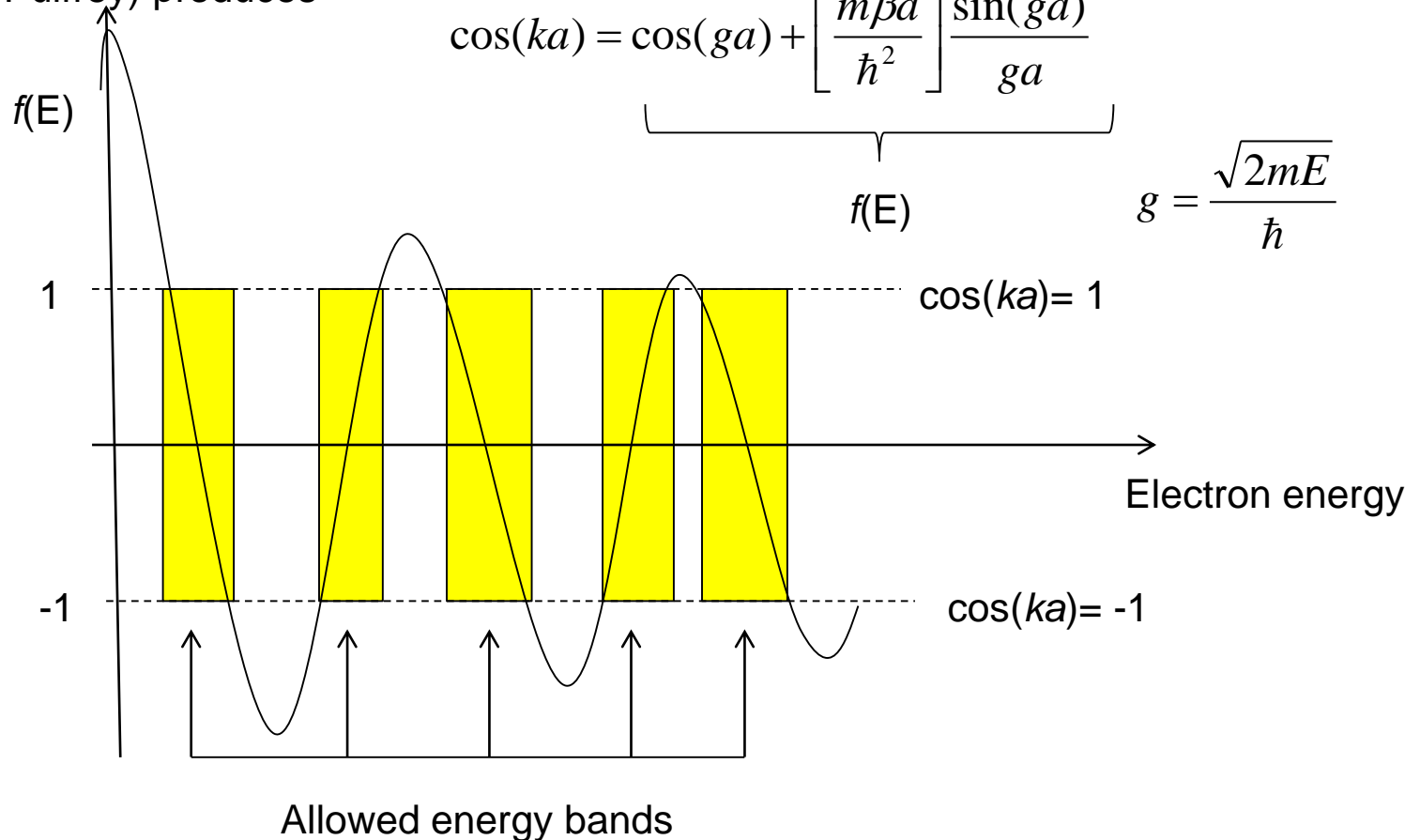
$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\Psi(x)}{dx^2} + U(x)\Psi(x) = E\Psi(x)$$

Band structure

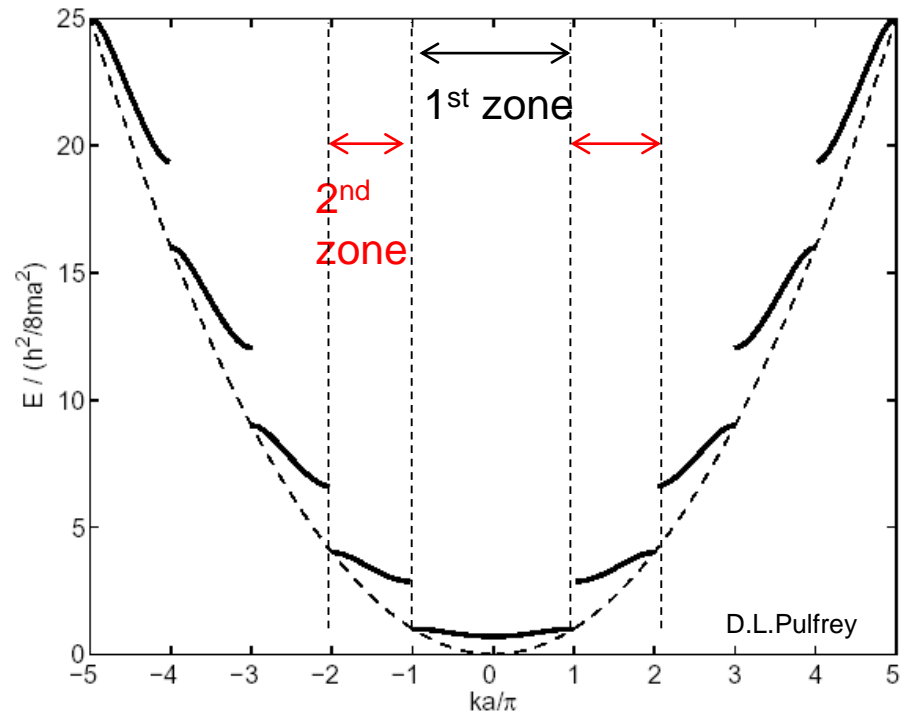
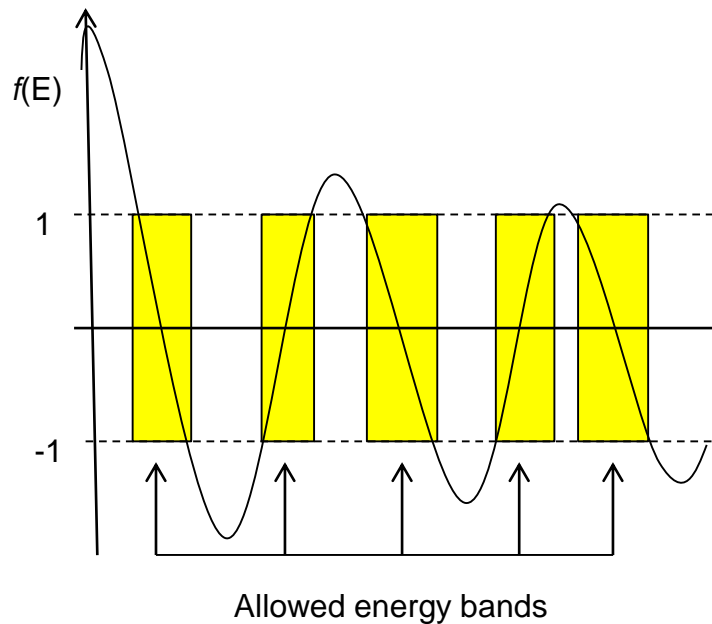
Consider a free electron with $U(x) = 0$ gives $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\Psi(x)}{dx^2} = E\Psi(x)$

Solving this equation with appropriate boundary conditions (see p.7-9, Pulfrey) produces

$$\cos(ka) = \cos(ga) + \underbrace{\left[\frac{m\beta a}{\hbar^2} \right] \frac{\sin(ga)}{ga}}_{f(E)} \quad g = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$$



Band structure

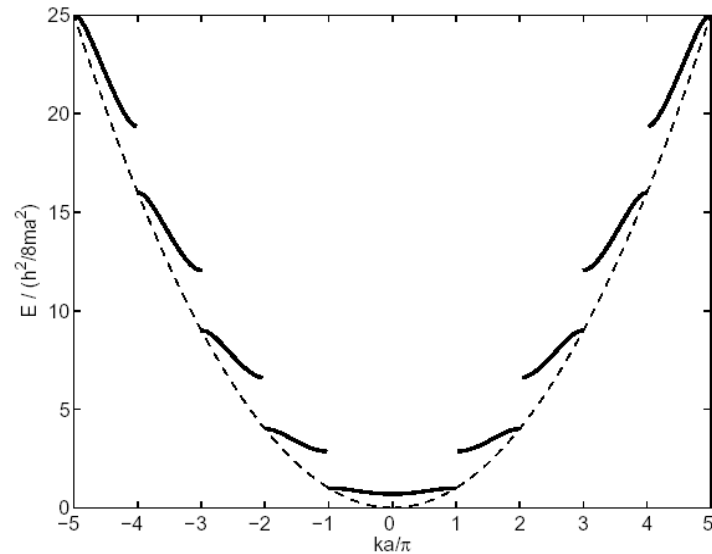


The allowed energy is usually plotted as a function of wavevector k in the extended-zone plot. This can be compressed into a reduced zone plot.

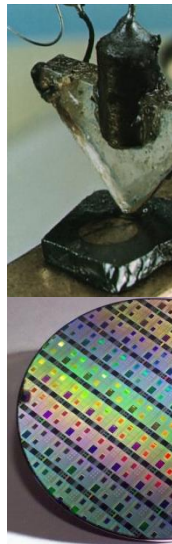




Band structure

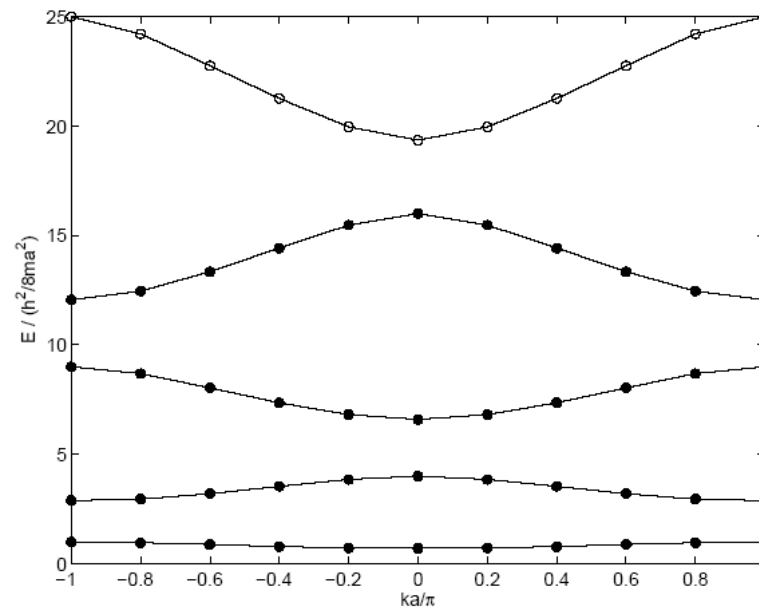


The extended zone is transformed to a reduced-zone called the Brillouin zone. Depending on the number of valence electrons present, the lower bands will be filled with electrons. In the case of Si the first 4 bands are filled with electrons. Hence the bandgap is the energy separation between the 4th and 5th bands.



Empty
states

Filled with
electrons



Conduction
band

Valence
band

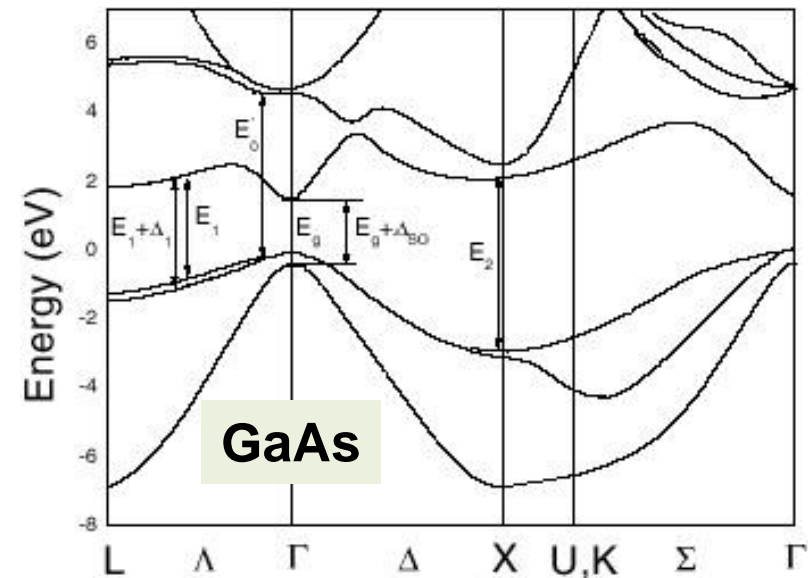
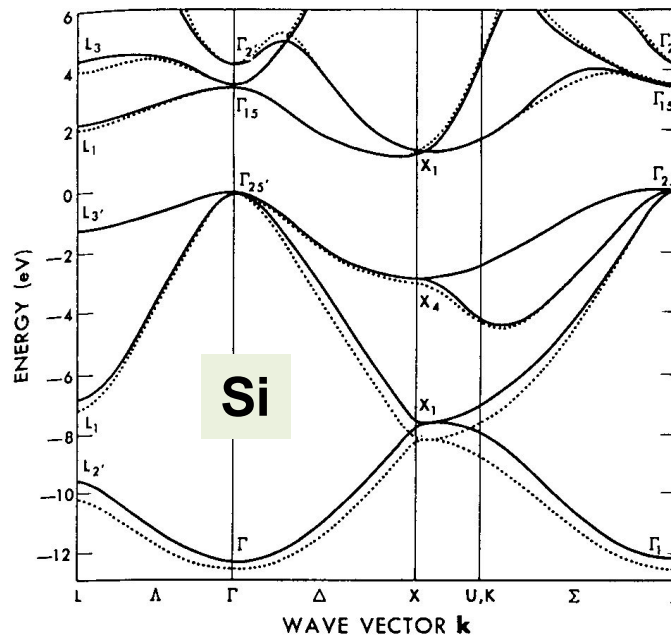
D.L.Pulfrey

C H Tan



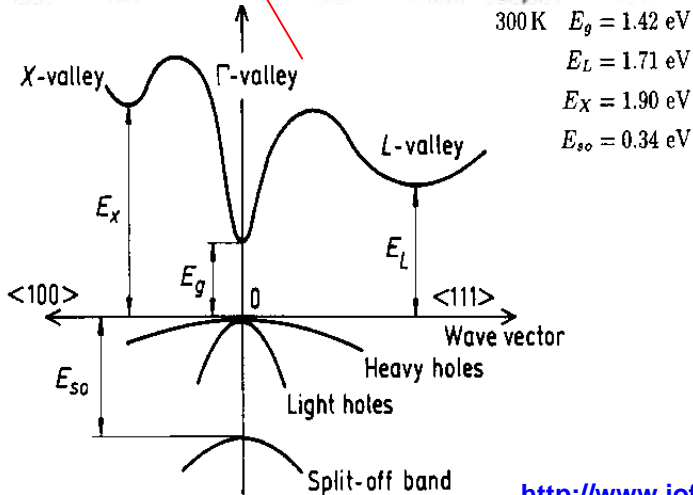
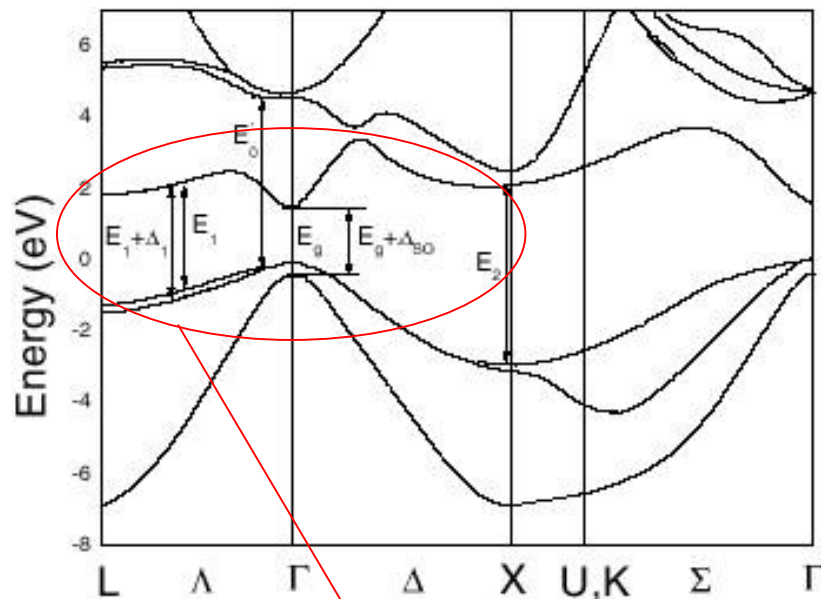
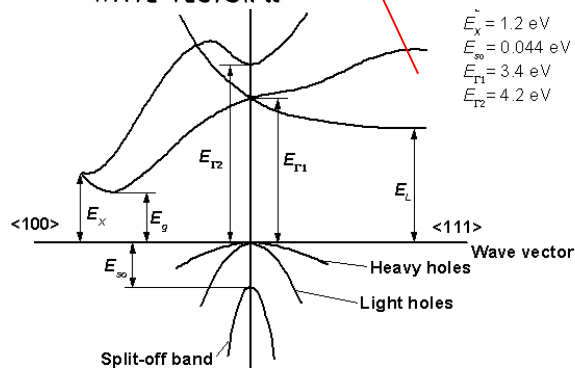
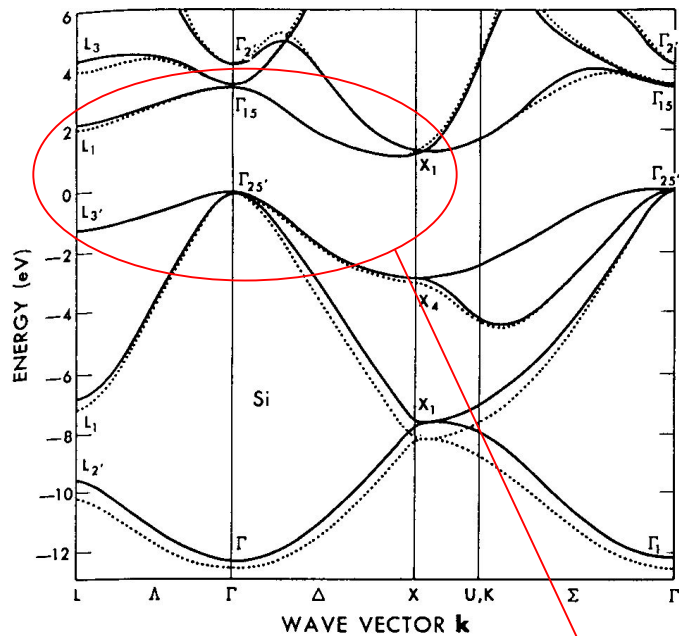
Band structure

The simple 1-D example provides a conceptual illustration of how band structure is computed. In a 3-D case the potential energy is much more complicated and usually a numerical calculation is required to compute the energy versus momentum (E vs. k) band diagram.



The valence bands are relatively similar they are related to the similar bonding coordination of diamond and zinc blende. The conduction bands are more different as the electrons are “freer” than the valence electrons.

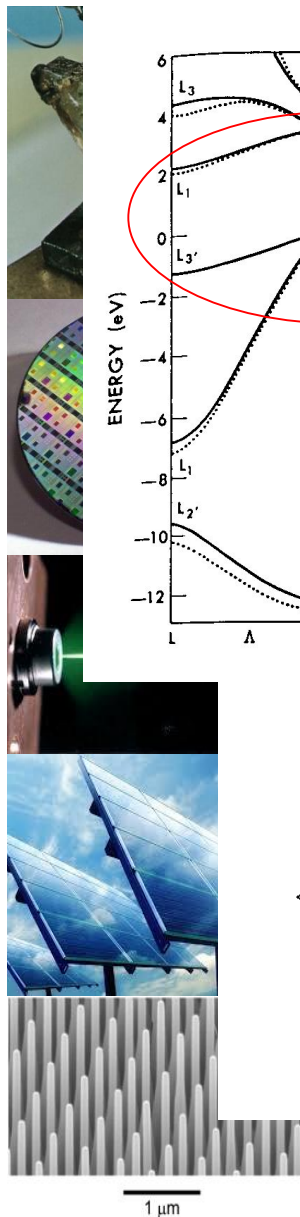
Band structure



<http://www.ioffe.ru/SVA/NSM/>

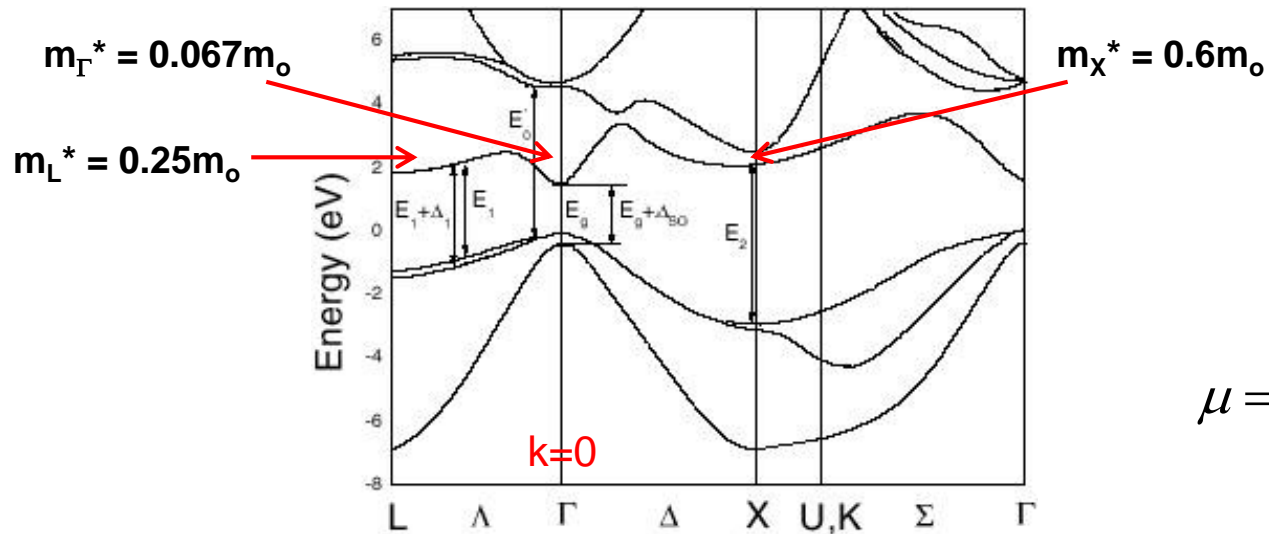
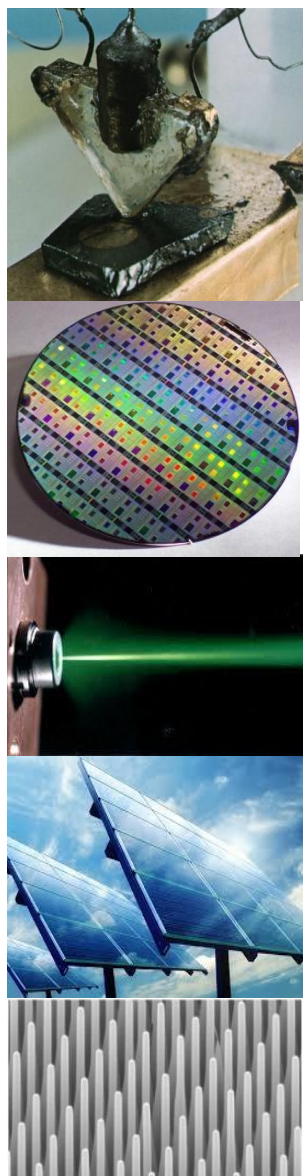
These look very different to the two band schematic earlier

CH Tan



1 μm

Band structure



$$\mu = \frac{e\tau}{m}$$

At $k = 0$ (Γ valley), the band structure can be described by

$$E(k) = E_C + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*} \quad \text{or} \quad E(k) = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*} \quad \text{relative to } E_C$$

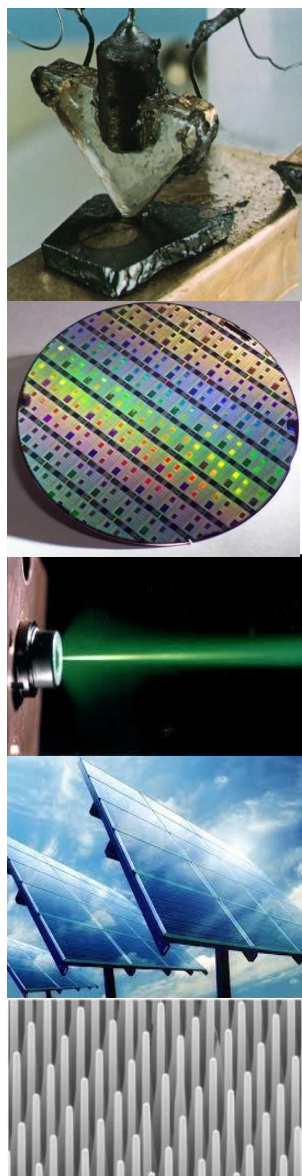
Note that the effective mass m^* replaces the free electron mass m_0 . For GaAs $m^* = 0.067 m_0$. A more accurate relationship is given by

$$E(k)[1 + \alpha_p E(k)] = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}$$

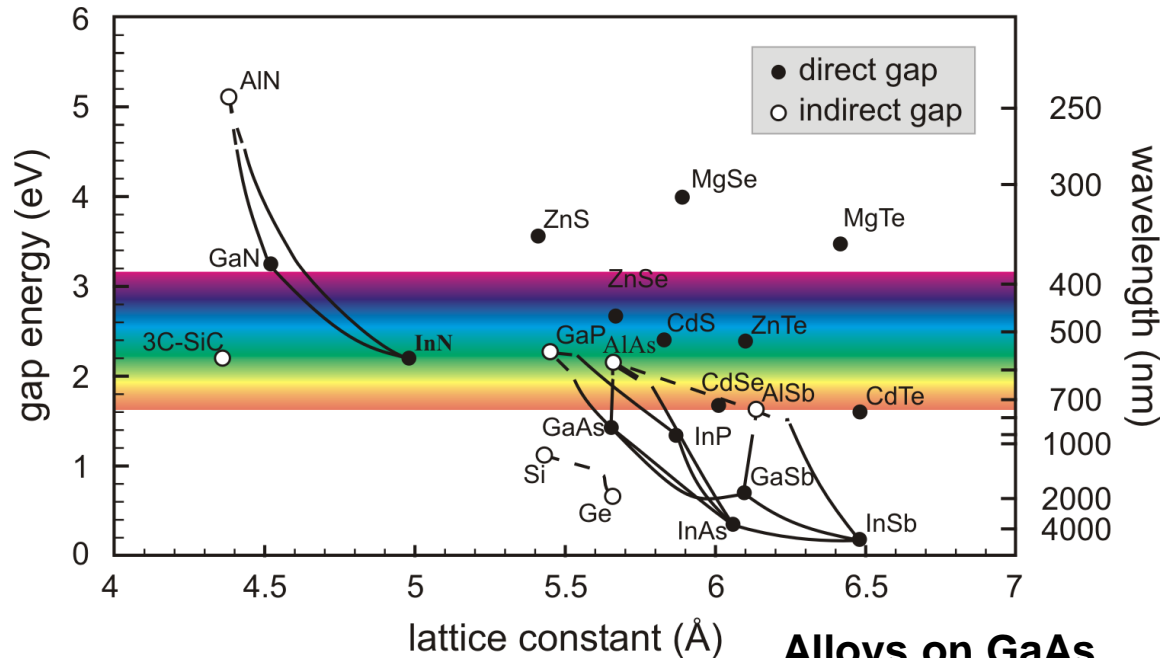
where α_p describes the non-parabolicity of the band structure. For GaAs it has a value of 0.67 eV^{-1} .



Semiconductor Alloys



1 μm



Widely available substrates

IV

Si

Ge

SiC

III-V

GaAs

InP

InSb

GaSb

InAs

II-VI

CdTe

CdSe

ZnSe

ZnTe

Alloys on GaAs

AlGaAs

InGaP

AlInP

Alloys on InP

InGaAs

InAlAs

GaAsSb

AlAsSb

InGaAsP

InAlGaAs

Lattice matched semiconductors form heterostructures that can be used in many electronic devices

Semiconductor alloys

To a first order approximation the alloy properties can be determined from the properties of the two materials (semiconductor A and B) combined.

$$E_{\text{alloy}}(k) = xE_A(k) + (1-x)E_B(k) \quad \text{Band structure}$$

$$a_{\text{alloy}} = xa_A + (1-x)a_B \quad \text{Lattice constant}$$

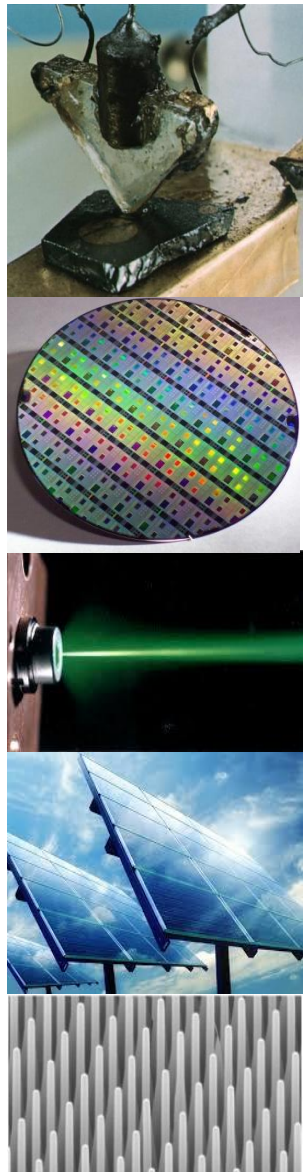
$$\frac{1}{m_{\text{alloy}}^*} = \frac{x}{m_A^*} + \frac{(1-x)}{m_B^*} \quad \text{Effective mass}$$

There is a wide range of semiconductor materials that can be used in designing electronic and optoelectronic devices. Band gap, mobility, resistivity, breakdown voltage, emission (and detection) wavelength, mechanical hardness and thermal conductivity are some of the properties that can be optimised by carefully selecting the semiconductor used.

Bandgap

$$\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{As} (1.424+1.247x)$$

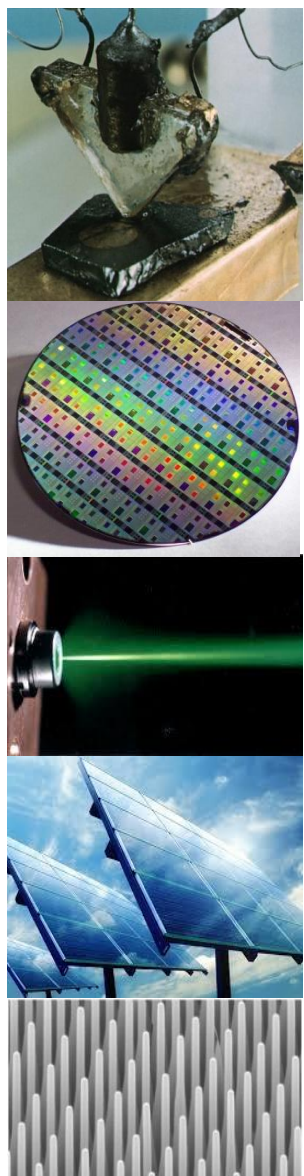
$$\text{In}_{1-x}\text{Ga}_x\text{As} (0.36+0.63x+0.43x^2)$$



Semiconductor properties

In addition to this **BULK** semiconductors, many properties can be modified using heterostructures and nanotechnology (quantum well, quantum dot, nanowire) as well as external force such as pressure, temperature, electric and magnetic fields.

Some of the most important heterostructures are Si/SiGe, AlGaAs/GaAs and InP/InGaAs. These are used to form the heterojunction in transistors (HBTs), lasers, photodetectors and optical modulators. They are also used to form quantum well devices.



1 μm