

Lecture 10

Doping semiconductors

(1)

Consider silicon semiconductor with some Si atom replaced by the atoms of group V, like N, P, As, Sb. These atoms have five valent electrons $s^2 p^3$. Four of them will form bonds with four silicon neighbors and the fifth electron will go away.

Thus these atoms act as donors giving additional carriers (electrons) to semiconductor.

Analogously replacing Si atom by the atoms of group III, like B, Al, Ga, In will produce holes. These impurities are called acceptors since they accept electrons from the valence band to form the covalent bonds, leaving holes in the band. The deliberate addition of impurities to a semiconductor is called doping.

Consider donor impurity (like P in Si)

An additional electron leaves in the conduction band with a spectrum

$$E(k) = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m_c} + E_g.$$

For simplicity we consider a single isotropic band with effective mass m_c

With one electron left phosphorus (P) ion produces electric field that can trap electron

Schrödinger equation is

$$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2}{2m_c} - \frac{e^2}{\epsilon|r|} \right) \psi(r) = E \psi(r)$$

This is just the Schrödinger equation for the hydrogen like atom. The energy spectrum is

$$E_n - E_g = -\frac{m_c e^4}{2\epsilon^2 \hbar^2 n^2} = -\frac{m_c}{m_e} \frac{Ry}{n^2}$$

Similarly to excitons its energy is strongly reduced compared to the hydrogen atom

With $\epsilon \approx 12$ and $m_c \approx 0.2 m_e$ we get

$$E_1 \approx -20 \text{ meV.}$$

The effective radius of the state (analogy of Bohr radius) is

$$r_1 = \frac{\hbar^2 \epsilon}{m^* e^2} = \frac{\epsilon m}{m_c} a_0 \approx 30 \text{ \AA}$$

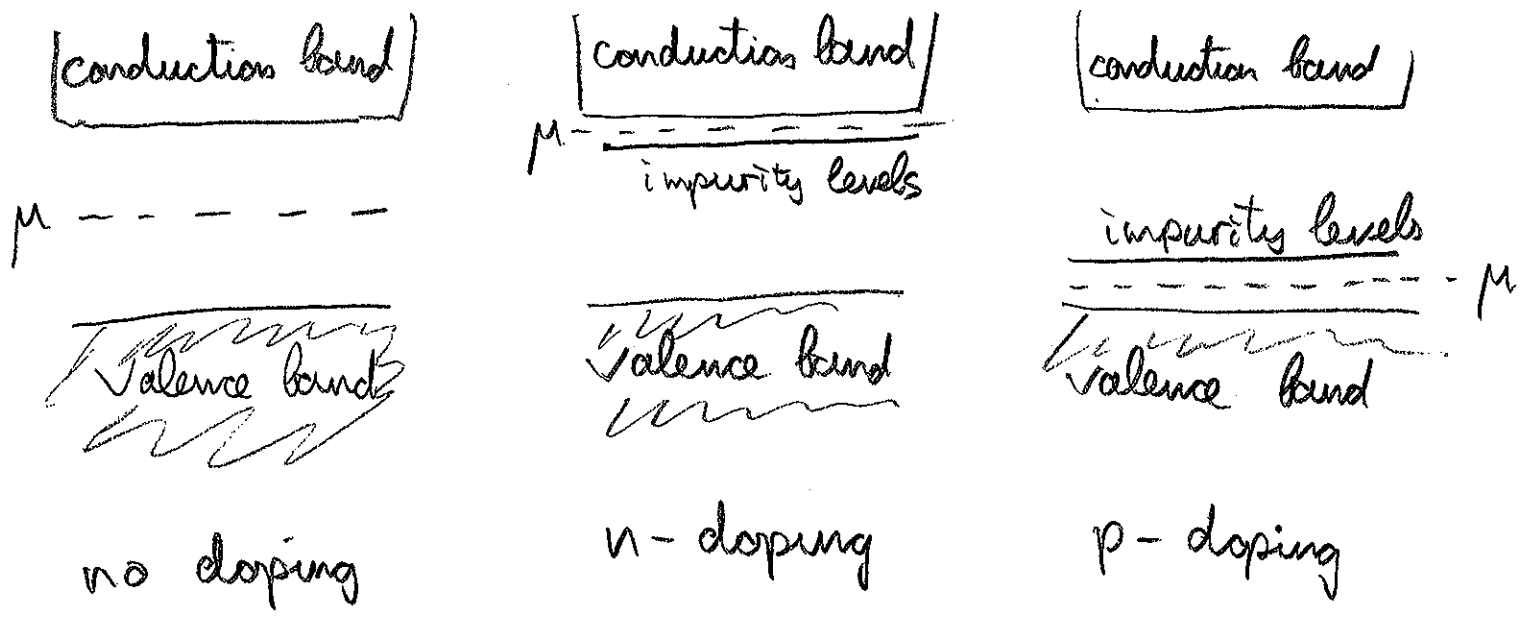
This radius strongly exceeds interatomic distance. Thus weakly bound electrons spreads far away from the P ion, thus certifying our use of band spectrum and ϵ to describe its behavior.

Because of the large radii the donor orbits overlap at relatively low donor concentration thus forming "impurity band". The semiconductor can conduct in the impurity band by electron hopping from donor to donor

Because of the low binding energy these states can be easily ionized to the conduction band at room temperature.

One speaks about an n-doped semiconductor (n = negative charge). In the same way group III impurities like Al produce weakly bound holes. This case is called p-doping (p = positive charge).

In both cases the chemical potential is attached to the dopant levels (it lies between the dopant level and ^{the} conduction band for n-doping and between the dopant level and the valence band for p-doping)



In the Lecture 9 we derived the electron density $n_e = e^{\frac{\mu - E_0}{T}} \left(\frac{2\pi m_e T}{4\pi^3} \right)^{3/2}$

and the hole density

$$n_h = e^{-\frac{\mu}{T}} \left(\frac{2\pi m_v T}{4\pi^3} \right)^{3/2}$$

Their product does not depend on position of chemical potential

$$n_e n_h = n_0^2 \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right)^3 e^{-\frac{E_g}{T}} = n^2(T)$$

For intrinsic Si semiconductor we have

$$n_e = n_h \approx 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ at room temperature}$$

For n-doped Si with a typical donor

concentration $n_d \approx 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ assuming

that most of the donors are ionized we

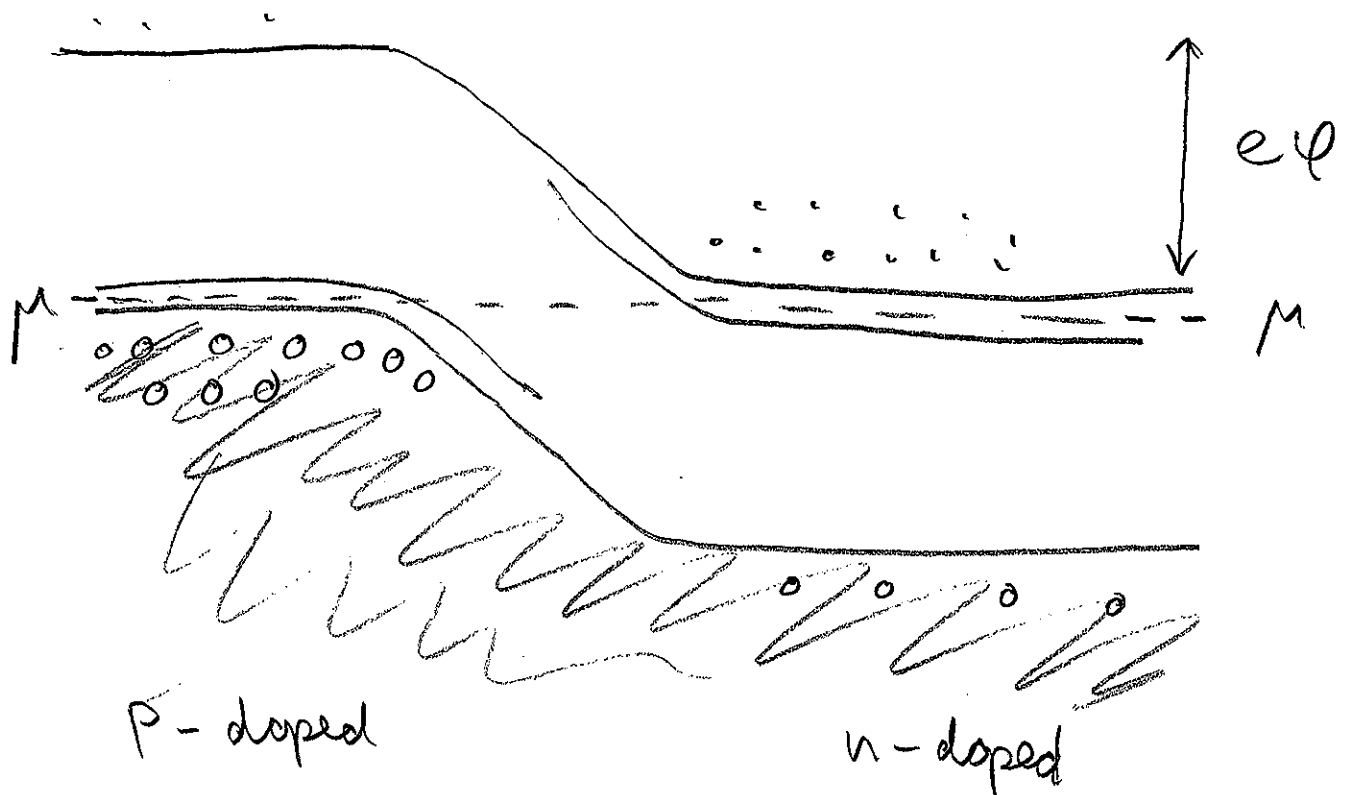
will get $n_e \approx n_d \approx 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and

$$n_h = \frac{n^2(T)}{n_e} \approx 10^3 \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

Semiconductor devices

Pn-junctions are made by bringing in contact a p-doped and n-doped version of the same semiconductor.

The chemical potential is pinned to the impurity levels. In equilibrium the chemical potential is constant across the sample. Then we have a "band bending"



Between the p and n-doped parts there is an electrostatic potential drop, and depletion layer with low carrier density

There is larger number of electrons on the n-side
 They are diffusing to the p-side producing
 diffusion current. The same happens with
 holes that diffuse in the opposite direction
 Since electrons and holes have opposite charge
 these currents add up. This diffusion of
 carriers produce dipole layer at the interface
 In equilibrium the drift current produced
 by this dipole field is compensated by
 the diffusion current due to the gradient of
 carrier concentration.

Applying voltage that reduces this dipole field
 will enhance ^{the} diffusion current without changing
 the drift current



Then we have current flowing through the junction. Applying the opposite voltage will only change the width of the depletion layer without producing significant current.

To get an IV curve we note that in equilibrium both drift and diffusion currents are $\propto e^{-\frac{E_g}{T}}$. For the drift current this exponent comes from the low carrier concentration in the depletion layer.

For the diffusion current the same exponent describes the thermal activation over the dipole barrier that strongly depends on the applied voltage

$$j_{\text{diff}} = C e^{-\frac{(E_g - eV)}{T}}$$

The drift current is unchanged

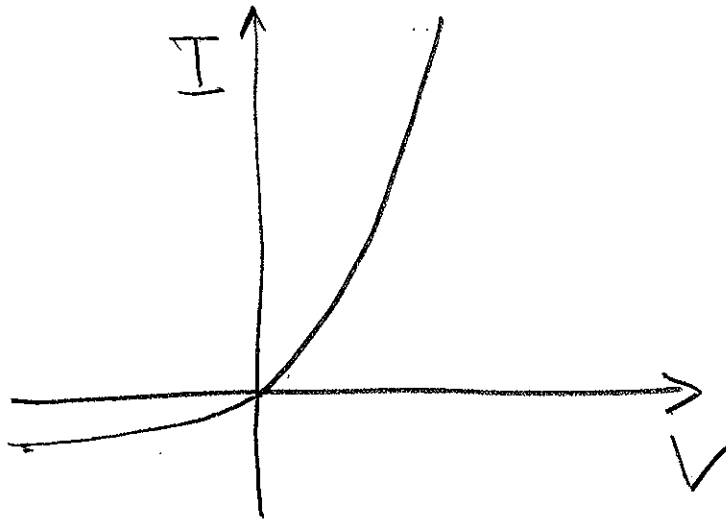
$$j_{\text{drift}} = -C e^{-\frac{E_g}{T}}$$

Combining both we obtain the Shockley diode equation

$$J_{\text{tot}} = C e^{-\frac{E_g}{T}} \left(e^{\frac{eV}{T}} - 1 \right)$$

Reversing voltage we reduce diffusion current without changing the drift current that will dominate in this case

$$J_{\text{tot}} = -c e^{-\frac{E_g}{T}} \left(e^{-\frac{eV}{T}} - 1 \right)$$



Thus we have diode that can rectify the alternating current

Light emitting diodes

The recombination of electrons and holes can lead to the emission of photons with the frequency. Eg. An excess of electron-hole pairs can be produced in pn-diodes by applying current. Using different semiconductor with different gaps allows to tune the color of the emitted light.

	wave length	
GaAs	940 nm	infrared
GaAs _{0.6} P _{0.4}	660 nm	red
GaAs _{0.4} P _{0.6}	620 nm	yellow
GaP	550 nm	green
GaN	340	blue

Solar cell

The charge carriers can be induced by the light absorption. If the n-side of a diode is exposed to irradiation this will create hole carriers. These holes will diffuse to the pn interface and produce the current $-J_L$. Then the total current

$$J = J_{pn} - J_L = J_0 \left(e^{\frac{eV}{T}} - 1 \right) - J_L$$

For $J = 0$ we have voltage drop

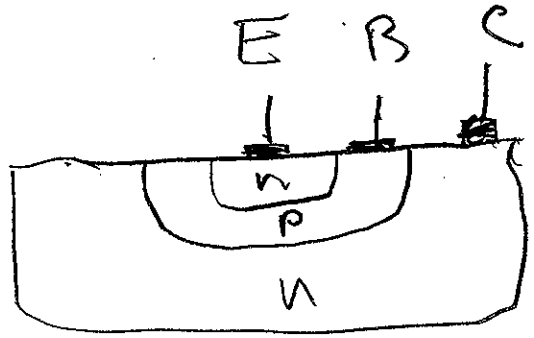
$$V_L = \frac{T}{e} \ln \left(\frac{J_L}{J_0} + 1 \right)$$

Transistors

Bipolar junction transistor

Shockley 1948

n p n or p n p junctions

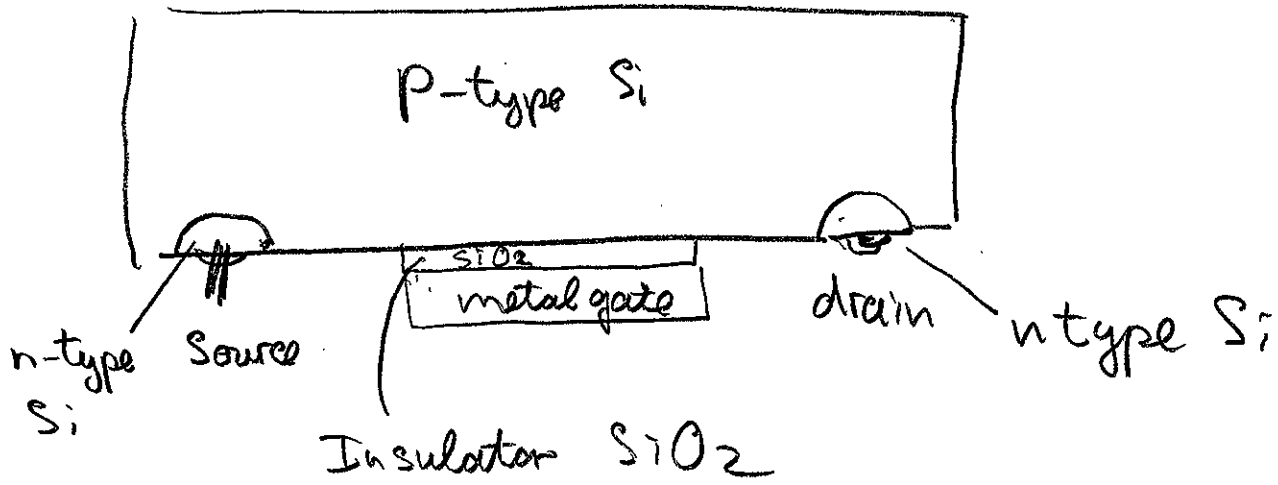


P electrode is the Base between emitter and collector.

In the active mode E B n p junction is open and p n - BC junction is closed in this way one gets maximum amplification of the base current

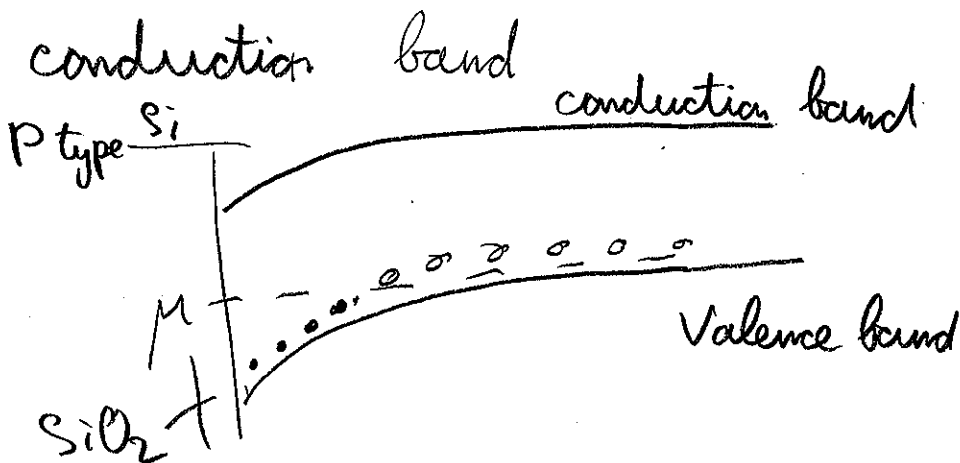
MOSFET

Metal - Oxide - Semiconductor - Field - Effect - Transistor

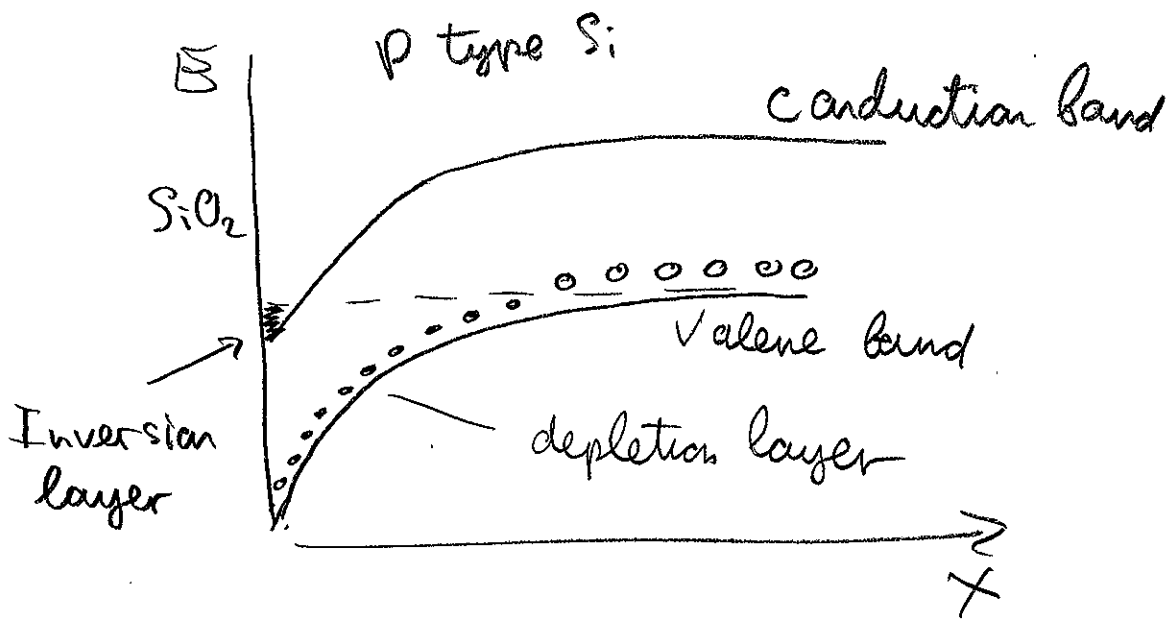


One applies gate voltage to the metal gate that is separated from the p-type Si by insulating SiO_2 . Insulator is needed to have no current from the gate to semiconductor

Applying gate voltage bends down the conduction band



For sufficiently large voltage $eV_g > E_g$
inversion layer is created



In this inversion layer conduction band
is bent below the valence band. The electrons
in the inversion layer provide carriers
that connect n-type source and the drain
electrons producing large current