# Lecture 4: Intrinsic semiconductors

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## 1 Introduction

Semiconductors can be divided into two categories.

- 1. Intrinsic semiconductors
- 2. Extrinsic semiconductors

This classification is related to the purity of the semiconductors. *Intrinsic or pure semiconductors* are those that are ideal, with no defects, and no external impurities. The conductivity is temperature dependent. As opposed to intrinsic semiconductors, *extrinsic semiconductors* have some impurities added to modify the concentration of charge carriers and hence the conductivity. Extrinsic semiconductors are used extensively due to the ability to precisely tailor their conductivity by adding the impurities. Intrinsic semiconductors (especially Si and Ge) are used as optical and x-ray detectors (at low T) where a low concentration of charge carriers is required.

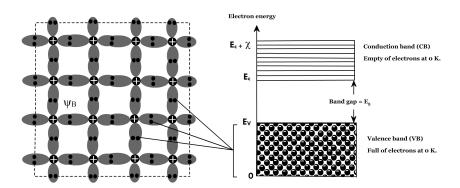


Figure 1: Hybrid orbitals in Si that forms a valence and conduction band with a band gap. Adapted from *Principles of Electronic Materials - S.O. Kasap*.

### 2 Intrinsic Si

Si is a semiconductor material with 4 electrons in the outer shell. These 4 electrons occupy  $4 sp^3$  hybrid orbitals with a tetrahedral arrangement. This gives rise to a full valence band (VB) and an empty conduction band (CB) at absolute zero with an energy gap of 1.17 eV between the two. This energy gap is called the *band gap*. This information is summarized in figure 1.

The reference is the bottom of the valence band.  $E_v$  and  $E_c$  represent the top of the valence band and the bottom of the conduction band. So that the energy distance between them is the band gap  $(E_g)$ . The top of the conduction band is the vacuum level and is usually  $E_c + \chi$  above the conduction band where  $\chi$  is the electron affinity of Si. For Si, the electron affinity is 4.05 eV. The band gap at 0 K is 1.17 eV, while at room temperature the value is slightly lower, around 1.10 eV.

At any temperature, thermal excitation will always cause electrons to move from the valence band to the conduction band. These electrons in the conduction band are delocalized and can move in the solid by applying an electric field. Electrons in the conduction band leave behind holes in the valence band. These holes are also 'delocalized' and move in the direction opposite to the electrons. These electrons and holes are responsible for conduction. Electron-hole pairs in Si can also be generated by using electromagnetic radiation. The minimum energy of the radiation required is equal to the band gap. If the energy is less than  $E_g$  electron excitation does not occur since there are no states in the band gap. The relation between  $E_q$  and the maximum

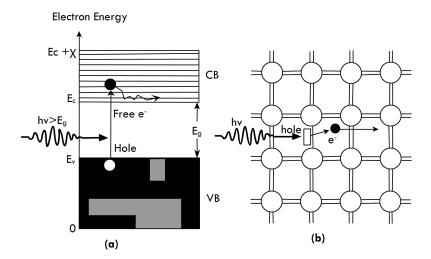


Figure 2: Electron-hole formation in Si due to absorption of light. Adapted from *Principles of Electronic Materials - S.O. Kasap.* 

wavelength of excitation  $(\lambda)$  is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g} \tag{1}$$

For Si, the wavelength is approximately 1060 nm and it lies in the IR region. This is the reason why Si is opaque since visible radiation (400 - 700 nm) will be absorbed by Si forming electron-hole pairs. Glass (SiO<sub>2</sub>) on the other hand has a band gap of approximately 10~eV and hence the maximum wavelength is  $100~\rm nm$  (in the UV region). Absorption of light by Si is shown in figure 2.

## 3 Conductivity equation

Conductivity in a semiconductor is due to movement of electrons in the CB and holes in the VB in an applied electric field. This is shown schematically in figure 3. These move in opposite directions since hole motion in the VB is due to electron motion in the opposite direction. Figure 5 shows the hole motion in the VB due to electron tunneling from one bond to the next. Ultimately the hole recombines with the electron and gets annihilated. Thus formation of electron and holes and their recombination is a *dynamic process*. This

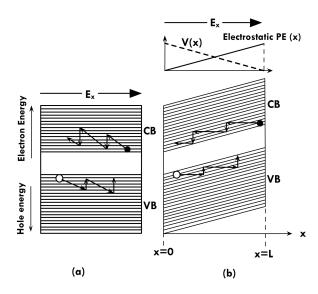


Figure 3: Conduction in a semiconductor. Adapted from *Principles of Electronic Materials - S.O. Kasap.* 

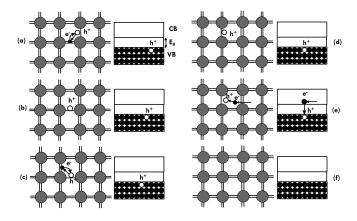


Figure 4: Hole motion and finally annihilation in a semiconductor. Adapted from *Principles of Electronic Materials - S.O. Kasap.* 

depends on the temperature of the sample (for an intrinsic semiconductor) so that there is an equilibrium concentration at a given temperature. Conductivity in a semiconductor depends on two factors

- 1. Concentration of electrons and holes. Denoted as n and p and is temperature dependent.
- 2. Ability of the electron and holes to travel in the lattice without scattering.

Electrons and holes are said to drift in the lattice. This is because they undergo multiple scatterings with the atoms. For semiconductors concentration of electrons and holes are small so that electron-electron scattering can be ignored. Define a quantity called **mobility**, denoted by the symbol  $\mu$ . Mobility refers to the ability of the carriers to move in the lattice. Mobility is related to the effective mass of the carrier  $(m_e^* \text{ or } m_h^*)$  and the time between two scattering events  $(\tau_e \text{ or } \tau_h)$ . The relation is

$$\mu_e = \frac{e\tau_e}{m_e^*}$$

$$\mu_h = \frac{e\tau_h}{m_h^*}$$
(2)

The effective mass term takes into account the effect of the lattice arrangement on the movement of the carriers. Using the carrier concentration and the concept of mobility it is possible to write a general equation for conductivity  $(\sigma)$  given by

$$\sigma = ne\mu_e + pe\mu_h$$
 (3)

According to equation 3 higher the carrier concentration (n or p) higher the mobility. Also, higher the mobility, higher the conductivity. Since mobility is related to the time between 2 scattering events, by equation 2, more the time between 2 scattering events greater is the conductivity.

#### 3.1 Electron mobility in Si

Consider the case of Si, where the electron mobility  $(\mu_e)$  is  $1350 \ cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1}$  and  $\mu_h$  is  $450 \ cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1}$ . The effective masses are  $m_e^*$  is  $0.26 m_e$  and  $m_h^*$  is  $0.38 m_e$ . Using equation 2 it is possible to find the scattering time for electrons and holes. Consider electrons,  $\tau_e$  is calculated to be  $2 \times 10^{-13}$  s or  $0.2 \ ps$  (pico seconds). This time, between 2 scattering events, is extremely short. The thermal energy of electrons is given by  $\frac{3}{2}k_BT$ . For an electron

in the CB the potential can be approximated to be uniform and hence the thermal energy is equal to the kinetic energy  $(\frac{1}{2}m_ev_{th}^2)$ . Equating the two, it is possible to find the thermal velocity of electrons at room temperature and the value is  $1.16 \times 10^5 \ ms^{-1}$ . From the thermal velocity and the scattering time it is possible to find the distance traveled between 2 scattering events. This distance is approximately 23 nm. In terms of number of unit cells this is approximately 43 unit cells (Si lattice constant is 0.53 nm).

Thus, a typical electron in the CB of Si travels approximately 43 unit cells between 2 scattering events. This is a large distance traveled in a short time of 0.2~ps. Mobility is temperature dependent. It also depends on the type of semiconductor and the presence of impurities. Mobility usually decreases with increasing impurity concentration since there are more scattering centers in the material.

Ge has a higher mobility than Si.  $\mu_e$  for Ge is 3900  $cm^2V^{-1}s^{-1}$ .  $mu_e$  for GaAs is even higher, 8500  $cm^2V^{-1}s^{-1}$ . Thus, based on mobility, GaAs would be the material with the highest conductivity. But conductivity also depends on the carrier concentration. The dominating term, in equation 3, would determine the conductivity.

## 4 Carrier concentration in semiconductors

The carrier concentration in an energy band is related to the density of available states, g(E), and the probability of occupation, f(E). This is given by

$$n = \int_{band} g(E)f(E)dE \tag{4}$$

where the integration is over the entire band. f(E) represents the Fermi function and for energy much greater than  $k_BT$  it can be approximated by the Boltzmann function.

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\frac{E - E_F}{k_B T})} \simeq \exp(-\frac{E - E_F}{k_B T})$$
 (5)

To find the number of electrons in the conduction band (n) then equation 4 can be written as

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{E_c + \chi} g_{CB}(E) f(E) dE \tag{6}$$

where the simplified Fermi function is used. The actual density of states function in the CB depends on the semiconductor material but an approximation of a 3D solid with an uniform potential can be used. In this case  $g_{CB}(E)$  turns out to be

$$g_{CB}(E) = \frac{8\pi\sqrt{2}}{h^3} (m_e^*)^{\frac{3}{2}} (E - E_c)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (7)

Since the density of states function is with respect to the bottom of the CB E is replaced by  $(E - E_c)$ . To further simplify the integral the limits can be changed from  $E_c$  to  $\infty$  instead of  $E_c + \chi$ . This is because most of the electrons in the CB are close to the bottom and  $\chi$  is usually much larger than  $k_BT$ . Hence making the substitutions in equation 6 and doing the integration the electron concentration in the conduction band is given by

$$n = N_c \exp\left[-\frac{(E_c - E_F)}{k_B T}\right]$$

$$N_c = 2\left(\frac{2\pi m_e^* k_B T}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$
(8)

where  $N_c$  is a temperature dependent constant called the *effective density* of states at the conduction band edge. It gives the total number of available states per unit volume at the bottom of the conduction band for electrons to occupy.  $E_c$  is the bottom of the conduction band and  $E_F$  is the position of the Fermi level.

A similar equation can be written for holes

$$p = N_v \exp\left[-\frac{(E_F - E_v)}{k_B T}\right]$$

$$N_v = 2\left(\frac{2\pi m_h^* k_B T}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$
(9)

where  $N_v$  is the effective density of states at the valence band edge. Equations 8 and 9 give the electron and hole concentrations in semiconductors (intrinsic or extrinsic). The concentrations depend on the position of the Fermi level. The calculations are summarized in figure 5. This plots the DOS function in the CB and VB and the variation in the Fermi function in these bands. The Fermi level is usually far away from the band edges so that it can be approximated by the Boltzmann function. The electron and hole concentration is got by multiplying both and these are located close to the edge of the band.

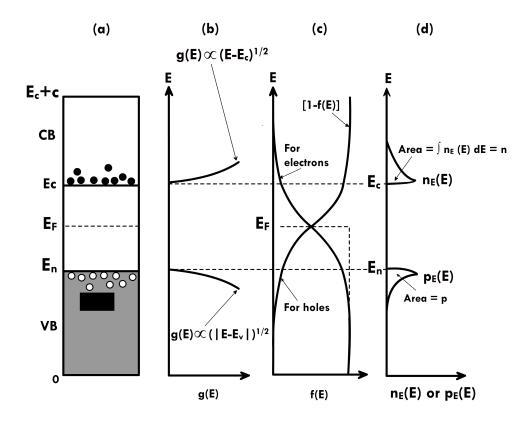


Figure 5: (a) Band picture of Si (b) DOS in CB and VB (c) Fermi function for electron and holes (d) Electron concentration in CB and hole concentration in VB. Adapted from *Principles of Electronic Materials - S.O. Kasap.* 

#### 5 Intrinsic carrier concentration

To eliminate  $E_F$  consider multiplying n and p in equations 8 and 9. This gives

$$np = N_c N_v \exp[-\frac{(E_c - E_v)}{k_B T}]$$
 (10)

From figure 1 it can be seen that this is nothing but the band gap so that equation 10 becomes

$$np = N_c N_v \exp\left[-\frac{E_g}{k_B T}\right] \tag{11}$$

Thus, the product of electron and hole concentration is independent of the Fermi level position but only on the band gap and temperature, apart from  $N_c$  and  $N_v$ . In an intrinsic semiconductor n=p since electron and holes are created in pairs (hole is the absence of electron). This is called  $n_i$  the intrinsic carrier concentration. Substituting in equation 11 the intrinsic carrier concentration can be calculated.

$$\left| n_i = \sqrt{N_c N_v} \exp(-\frac{E_g}{k_B T}) \right| \tag{12}$$

Thus, the intrinsic carrier concentration is a semiconductor is dependent only on the band gap  $(E_g)$ .  $n_i$  is a material property (at a given temperature). Equation 11 can now be rewritten as

$$\boxed{np = n_i^2} \tag{13}$$

This equation is called **law of mass action** and it valid for any semiconductor at equilibrium. For an intrinsic semiconductor equation 13 is trivial since  $n = p = n_i$  but even when n and p are not equal to product should still yield  $n_i^2$ . This has important implications for extrinsic semiconductors. The conductivity equation 3 can now we rewritten for intrinsic semiconductors as

$$\sigma_i = n_i e(\mu_e + \mu_h) \tag{14}$$