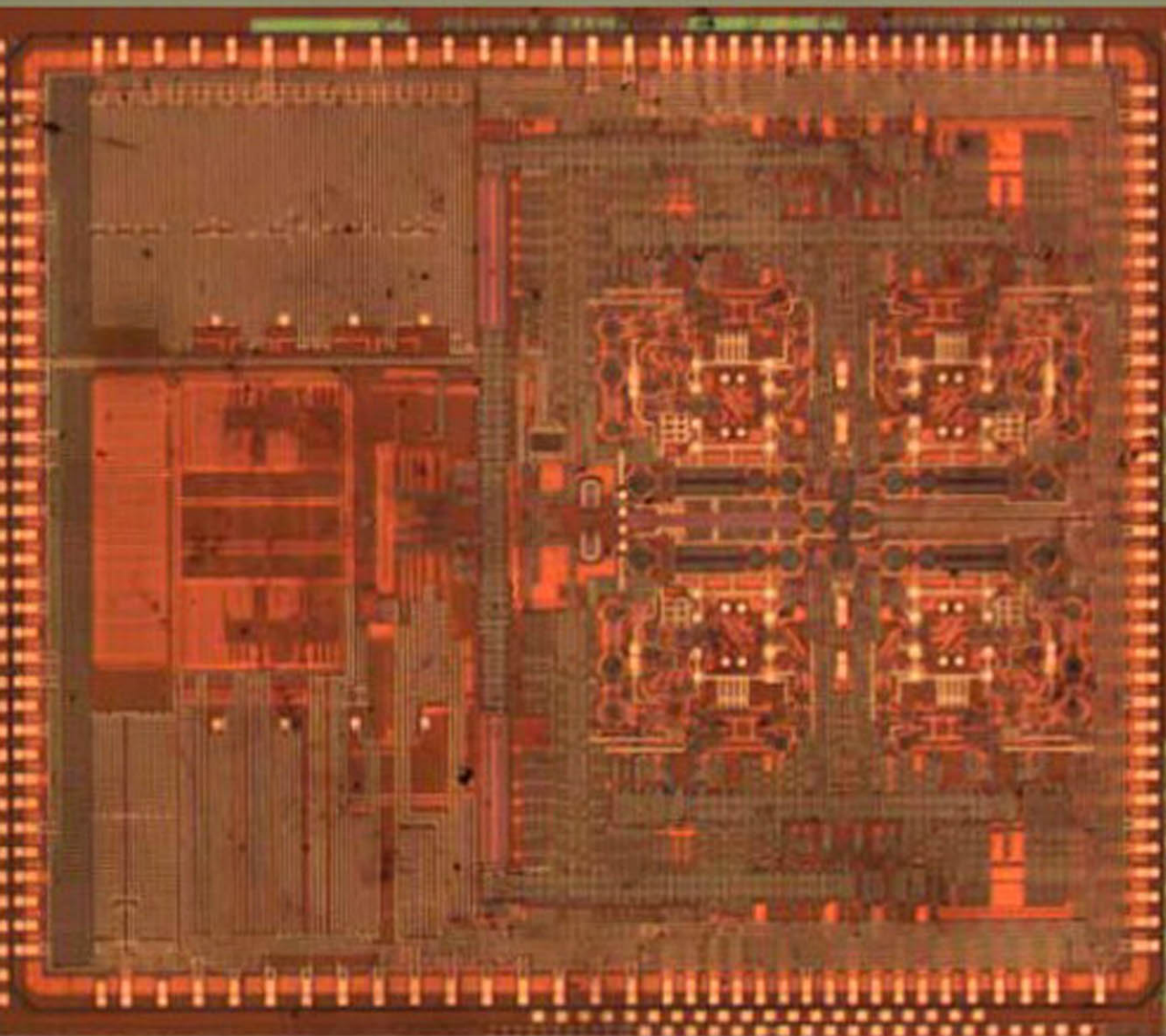


SOLID STATE ELECTRONIC DEVICES

Seventh Edition

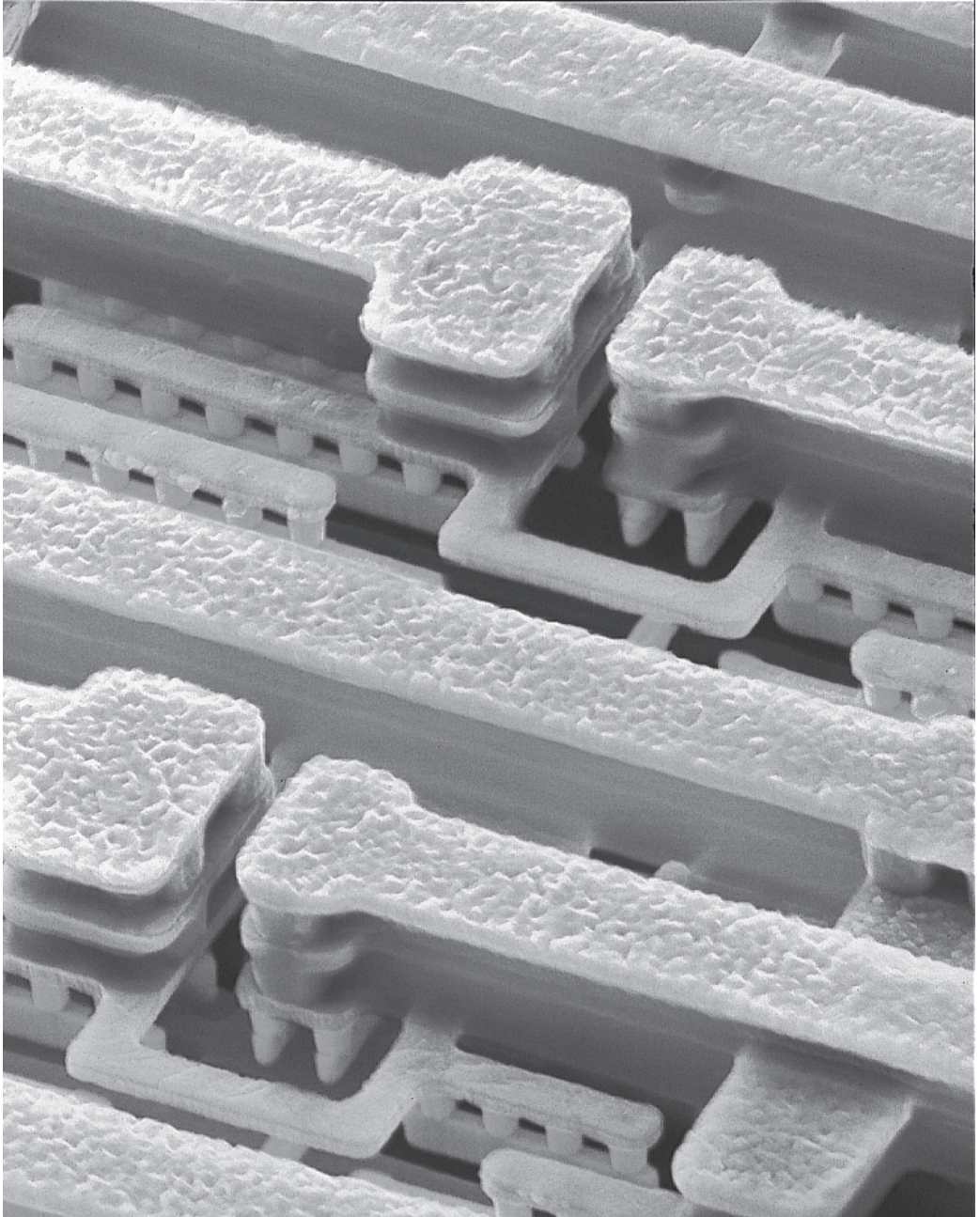


Ben G. Streetman



Sanjay K. Banerjee

Solid State Electronic Devices



Multilevel copper metallization of a complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) chip. This scanning electron micrograph (scale: 1 cm = 3.5 microns) of a CMOS integrated circuit shows six levels of copper metallization that are used to carry electrical signals on the chip. The inter-metal dielectric insulators have been chemically etched away here to reveal the copper interconnects. (Photograph courtesy of IBM.)

SEVENTH EDITION

Solid State Electronic Devices

BEN G. STREETMAN AND SANJAY KUMAR BANERJEE

*Microelectronics Research Center
Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering
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Boston Columbus Indianapolis New York San Francisco Upper Saddle River
Amsterdam Cape Town Dubai London Madrid Milan Munich Paris Montreal Toronto
Delhi Mexico City São Paulo Sydney Hong Kong Seoul Singapore Taipei Tokyo

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Streetman, Ben G.

Solid state electronic devices / Ben G. Streetman and Sanjay Kumar

Banerjee. — Seventh edition.

pages cm

ISBN-13: 978-0-13-335603-8

ISBN-10: 0-13-335603-5

1. Semiconductors. I. Banerjee, Sanjay. II. Title.

TK7871.85.S77 2015

621.3815'2—dc23

2013037102

Vice President and Editorial Director, ECS: *Marcia J. Horton*

Senior Editor: *Andrew Gilfillan*

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Cover Designer: *John Christiana*

Composition: *Jouve India*

Full-Service Project Management: *Shylaja Gattupalli/
Jouve India*

Printer/Binder: *Edwards Brothers Malloy*

Cover Printer: *Lehigh-Phoenix*

Typeface: *10/12 Times Ten LT Std Roman*

About the Cover: THZ radio chip courtesy of Texas Instruments. Photograph provided by Dr. Robert Doering.

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ISBN-13: 978-0-13-335603-8

ISBN-10: 0-13-335603-5

CONTENTS

PREFACE XIII

ABOUT THE AUTHORS XVII

1

CRYSTAL PROPERTIES AND GROWTH OF SEMICONDUCTORS 1

- 1.1 Semiconductor Materials 1
- 1.2 Crystal Lattices 3
 - 1.2.1 Periodic Structures 3
 - 1.2.2 Cubic Lattices 5
 - 1.2.3 Planes and Directions 7
 - 1.2.4 The Diamond Lattice 9
- 1.3 Bulk Crystal Growth 12
 - 1.3.1 Starting Materials 12
 - 1.3.2 Growth of Single-Crystal Ingots 13
 - 1.3.3 Wafers 15
 - 1.3.4 Doping 16
- 1.4 Epitaxial Growth 17
 - 1.4.1 Lattice-Matching in Epitaxial Growth 18
 - 1.4.2 Vapor-Phase Epitaxy 20
 - 1.4.3 Molecular Beam Epitaxy 22
- 1.5 Wave Propagation in Discrete, Periodic Structures 24

2

ATOMS AND ELECTRONS 32

- 2.1 Introduction to Physical Models 33
- 2.2 Experimental Observations 34
 - 2.2.1 The Photoelectric Effect 34
 - 2.2.2 Atomic Spectra 36
- 2.3 The Bohr Model 37
- 2.4 Quantum Mechanics 41
 - 2.4.1 Probability and the Uncertainty Principle 41
 - 2.4.2 The Schrödinger Wave Equation 43
 - 2.4.3 Potential Well Problem 45
 - 2.4.4 Tunneling 48
- 2.5 Atomic Structure and the Periodic Table 49
 - 2.5.1 The Hydrogen Atom 50
 - 2.5.2 The Periodic Table 52

3

ENERGY BANDS AND CHARGE CARRIERS IN SEMICONDUCTORS 63

- 3.1 Bonding Forces and Energy Bands in Solids 63
 - 3.1.1 Bonding Forces in Solids 64
 - 3.1.2 Energy Bands 66
 - 3.1.3 Metals, Semiconductors, and Insulators 69
 - 3.1.4 Direct and Indirect Semiconductors 70
 - 3.1.5 Variation of Energy Bands with Alloy Composition 72
- 3.2 Charge Carriers in Semiconductors 74
 - 3.2.1 Electrons and Holes 74
 - 3.2.2 Effective Mass 79
 - 3.2.3 Intrinsic Material 83
 - 3.2.4 Extrinsic Material 84
 - 3.2.5 Electrons and Holes in Quantum Wells 87
- 3.3 Carrier Concentrations 89
 - 3.3.1 The Fermi Level 89
 - 3.3.2 Electron and Hole Concentrations at Equilibrium 92
 - 3.3.3 Temperature Dependence of Carrier Concentrations 97
 - 3.3.4 Compensation and Space Charge Neutrality 99
- 3.4 Drift of Carriers in Electric and Magnetic Fields 100
 - 3.4.1 Conductivity and Mobility 100
 - 3.4.2 Drift and Resistance 105
 - 3.4.3 Effects of Temperature and Doping on Mobility 106
 - 3.4.4 High-Field Effects 109
 - 3.4.5 The Hall Effect 109
- 3.5 Invariance of the Fermi Level at Equilibrium 111

4

EXCESS CARRIERS IN SEMICONDUCTORS 122

- 4.1 Optical Absorption 122
- 4.2 Luminescence 125
 - 4.2.1 Photoluminescence 126
 - 4.2.2 Electroluminescence 128
- 4.3 Carrier Lifetime and Photoconductivity 128
 - 4.3.1 Direct Recombination of Electrons and Holes 129
 - 4.3.2 Indirect Recombination; Trapping 131
 - 4.3.3 Steady State Carrier Generation; Quasi-Fermi Levels 134
 - 4.3.4 Photoconductive Devices 136
- 4.4 Diffusion of Carriers 137
 - 4.4.1 Diffusion Processes 138
 - 4.4.2 Diffusion and Drift of Carriers; Built-in Fields 140
 - 4.4.3 Diffusion and Recombination; The Continuity Equation 143

- 4.4.4 Steady State Carrier Injection; Diffusion Length 145
- 4.4.5 The Haynes–Shockley Experiment 147
- 4.4.6 Gradients in the Quasi-Fermi Levels 150

5 JUNCTIONS 159

- 5.1 Fabrication of p-n Junctions 159
 - 5.1.1 Thermal Oxidation 160
 - 5.1.2 Diffusion 161
 - 5.1.3 Rapid Thermal Processing 163
 - 5.1.4 Ion Implantation 164
 - 5.1.5 Chemical Vapor Deposition (CVD) 167
 - 5.1.6 Photolithography 168
 - 5.1.7 Etching 171
 - 5.1.8 Metallization 173
- 5.2 Equilibrium Conditions 174
 - 5.2.1 The Contact Potential 175
 - 5.2.2 Equilibrium Fermi Levels 180
 - 5.2.3 Space Charge at a Junction 180
- 5.3 Forward- and Reverse-Biased Junctions; Steady State Conditions 185
 - 5.3.1 Qualitative Description of Current Flow at a Junction 185
 - 5.3.2 Carrier Injection 189
 - 5.3.3 Reverse Bias 198
- 5.4 Reverse-Bias Breakdown 200
 - 5.4.1 Zener Breakdown 201
 - 5.4.2 Avalanche Breakdown 202
 - 5.4.3 Rectifiers 205
 - 5.4.4 The Breakdown Diode 208
- 5.5 Transient and A-C Conditions 209
 - 5.5.1 Time Variation of Stored Charge 209
 - 5.5.2 Reverse Recovery Transient 212
 - 5.5.3 Switching Diodes 216
 - 5.5.4 Capacitance of p-n Junctions 216
 - 5.5.5 The Varactor Diode 221
- 5.6 Deviations from the Simple Theory 222
 - 5.6.1 Effects of Contact Potential on Carrier Injection 223
 - 5.6.2 Recombination and Generation in the Transition Region 225
 - 5.6.3 Ohmic Losses 227
 - 5.6.4 Graded Junctions 228
- 5.7 Metal–Semiconductor Junctions 231
 - 5.7.1 Schottky Barriers 231
 - 5.7.2 Rectifying Contacts 233

- 5.7.3 Ohmic Contacts 235
- 5.7.4 Typical Schottky Barriers 237
- 5.8 Heterojunctions 238

6

FIELD-EFFECT TRANSISTORS 257

- 6.1 Transistor Operation 258
 - 6.1.1 The Load Line 258
 - 6.1.2 Amplification and Switching 259
- 6.2 The Junction FET 260
 - 6.2.1 Pinch-off and Saturation 261
 - 6.2.2 Gate Control 263
 - 6.2.3 Current–Voltage Characteristics 265
- 6.3 The Metal–Semiconductor FET 267
 - 6.3.1 The GaAs MESFET 267
 - 6.3.2 The High Electron Mobility Transistor (HEMT) 268
 - 6.3.3 Short Channel Effects 270
- 6.4 The Metal–Insulator–Semiconductor FET 271
 - 6.4.1 Basic Operation and Fabrication 271
 - 6.4.2 The Ideal MOS Capacitor 275
 - 6.4.3 Effects of Real Surfaces 286
 - 6.4.4 Threshold Voltage 289
 - 6.4.5 MOS Capacitance–Voltage Analysis 291
 - 6.4.6 Time-Dependent Capacitance Measurements 295
 - 6.4.7 Current–Voltage Characteristics of MOS Gate Oxides 296
- 6.5 The MOS Field-Effect Transistor 299
 - 6.5.1 Output Characteristics 299
 - 6.5.2 Transfer Characteristics 302
 - 6.5.3 Mobility Models 305
 - 6.5.4 Short Channel MOSFET I – V Characteristics 307
 - 6.5.5 Control of Threshold Voltage 309
 - 6.5.6 Substrate Bias Effects—the “body” effect 312
 - 6.5.7 Subthreshold Characteristics 316
 - 6.5.8 Equivalent Circuit for the MOSFET 318
 - 6.5.9 MOSFET Scaling and Hot Electron Effects 321
 - 6.5.10 Drain-Induced Barrier Lowering 325
 - 6.5.11 Short Channel Effect and Narrow Width Effect 327
 - 6.5.12 Gate-Induced Drain Leakage 329
- 6.6 Advanced MOSFET Structures 330
 - 6.6.1 Metal Gate-High- k 330
 - 6.6.2 Enhanced Channel Mobility Materials and Strained Si FETs 331
 - 6.6.3 SOI MOSFETs and FinFETs 333

7

BIPOLAR JUNCTION TRANSISTORS 348

- 7.1 Fundamentals of BJT Operation 348
- 7.2 Amplification with BJTs 352
- 7.3 BJT Fabrication 355
- 7.4 Minority Carrier Distributions and Terminal Currents 358
 - 7.4.1 Solution of the Diffusion Equation in the Base Region 359
 - 7.4.2 Evaluation of the Terminal Currents 361
 - 7.4.3 Approximations of the Terminal Currents 364
 - 7.4.4 Current Transfer Ratio 366
- 7.5 Generalized Biasing 367
 - 7.5.1 The Coupled-Diode Model 368
 - 7.5.2 Charge Control Analysis 373
- 7.6 Switching 375
 - 7.6.1 Cutoff 376
 - 7.6.2 Saturation 377
 - 7.6.3 The Switching Cycle 378
 - 7.6.4 Specifications for Switching Transistors 379
- 7.7 Other Important Effects 380
 - 7.7.1 Drift in the Base Region 381
 - 7.7.2 Base Narrowing 382
 - 7.7.3 Avalanche Breakdown 383
 - 7.7.4 Injection Level; Thermal Effects 385
 - 7.7.5 Base Resistance and Emitter Crowding 386
 - 7.7.6 Gummel–Poon Model 388
 - 7.7.7 Kirk Effect 391
- 7.8 Frequency Limitations of Transistors 394
 - 7.8.1 Capacitance and Charging Times 394
 - 7.8.2 Transit Time Effects 397
 - 7.8.3 Webster Effect 398
 - 7.8.4 High-Frequency Transistors 398
- 7.9 Heterojunction Bipolar Transistors 400

8

OPTOELECTRONIC DEVICES 410

- 8.1 Photodiodes 410
 - 8.1.1 Current and Voltage in an Illuminated Junction 411
 - 8.1.2 Solar Cells 414
 - 8.1.3 Photodetectors 417
 - 8.1.4 Gain, Bandwidth, and Signal-to-Noise Ratio of Photodetectors 419

- 8.2 Light-Emitting Diodes 422
 - 8.2.1 Light-Emitting Materials 423
 - 8.2.2 Fiber-Optic Communications 427
- 8.3 Lasers 430
- 8.4 Semiconductor Lasers 434
 - 8.4.1 Population Inversion at a Junction 435
 - 8.4.2 Emission Spectra for p-n Junction Lasers 437
 - 8.4.3 The Basic Semiconductor Laser 438
 - 8.4.4 Heterojunction Lasers 439
 - 8.4.5 Materials for Semiconductor Lasers 442
 - 8.4.6 Quantum Cascade Lasers 444

9

INTEGRATED CIRCUITS 452

- 9.1 Background 453
 - 9.1.1 Advantages of Integration 453
 - 9.1.2 Types of Integrated Circuits 455
- 9.2 Evolution of Integrated Circuits 456
- 9.3 Monolithic Device Elements 459
 - 9.3.1 CMOS Process Integration 459
 - 9.3.2 Integration of Other Circuit Elements 474
- 9.4 Charge Transfer Devices 480
 - 9.4.1 Dynamic Effects in MOS Capacitors 481
 - 9.4.2 The Basic CCD 482
 - 9.4.3 Improvements on the Basic Structure 483
 - 9.4.4 Applications of CCDs 484
- 9.5 Ultra Large-Scale Integration (ULSI) 485
 - 9.5.1 Logic Devices 487
 - 9.5.2 Semiconductor Memories 497
- 9.6 Testing, Bonding, and Packaging 510
 - 9.6.1 Testing 511
 - 9.6.2 Wire Bonding 511
 - 9.6.3 Flip-Chip Techniques 515
 - 9.6.4 Packaging 515

10

HIGH-FREQUENCY, HIGH-POWER AND NANOELECTRONIC DEVICES 521

- 10.1 Tunnel Diodes 521
 - 10.1.1 Degenerate Semiconductors 521
- 10.2 The IMPATT Diode 525
- 10.3 The Gunn Diode 528
 - 10.3.1 The Transferred-Electron Mechanism 528
 - 10.3.2 Formation and Drift of Space Charge Domains 531

10.4 The p-n-p-n Diode	533
10.4.1 Basic Structure	533
10.4.2 The Two-Transistor Analogy	534
10.4.3 Variation of α with Injection	535
10.4.4 Forward-Blocking State	536
10.4.5 Conducting State	537
10.4.6 Triggering Mechanisms	538
10.5 The Semiconductor-Controlled Rectifier	539
10.5.1 Turning off the SCR	540
10.6 Insulated-Gate Bipolar Transistor	541
10.7 Nanoelectronic Devices	544
10.7.1 Zero-Dimensional Quantum Dots	544
10.7.2 One-Dimensional Quantum Wires	546
10.7.3 Two-Dimensional Layered Crystals	547
10.7.4 Spintronic Memory	548
10.7.5 Nanoelectronic Resistive Memory	550

APPENDICES

I. Definitions of Commonly Used Symbols	555
II. Physical Constants and Conversion Factors	559
III. Properties of Semiconductor Materials	560
IV. Derivation of the Density of States in the Conduction Band	561
V. Derivation of Fermi–Dirac Statistics	566
VI. Dry and Wet Thermal Oxide Thickness Grown on Si (100) as a Function of Time and Temperature	569
VII. Solid Solubilities of Impurities in Si	571
VIII. Diffusivities of Dopants in Si and SiO ₂	572
IX. Projected Range and Straggle as Function of Implant Energy in Si	574

ANSWERS TO SELECTED SELF QUIZ QUESTIONS 576

INDEX 580

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This book is an introduction to semiconductor devices for undergraduate electrical engineers, other interested students, and practicing engineers and scientists whose understanding of modern electronics needs updating. The book is organized to bring students with a background in sophomore physics to a level of understanding that will allow them to read much of the current literature on new devices and applications.

An undergraduate course in electronic devices has two basic purposes: (1) to provide students with a sound understanding of existing devices, so that their studies of electronic circuits and systems will be meaningful and (2) to develop the basic tools with which they can later learn about newly developed devices and applications. Perhaps the second of these objectives is the more important in the long run; it is clear that engineers and scientists who deal with electronics will continually be called upon to learn about new devices and processes in the future. For this reason, we have tried to incorporate the basics of semiconductor materials and conduction processes in solids, which arise repeatedly in the literature when new devices are explained. Some of these concepts are often omitted in introductory courses, with the view that they are unnecessary for understanding the fundamentals of junctions and transistors. We believe this view neglects the important goal of equipping students for the task of understanding a new device by reading the current literature. Therefore, in this text most of the commonly used semiconductor terms and concepts are introduced and related to a broad range of devices.

GOALS

- updated discussion of MOS devices, both in the underlying theory of ballistic FETs as well as discussion of advanced MOSFETs such as FinFETs, strained Si devices, metal gate/ high-k devices, III-V high channel mobility devices
- updated treatment of optoelectronic devices, including high bandgap nitride semiconductors and quantum cascade lasers
- brand new section on nanoelectronics to introduce students to exciting concepts such as 2D materials including graphene and topological insulators, 1D nanowires and nanotubes, and 0D quantum dots;
- discussion of spintronics, and novel resistive and phase change memories
- about 100 new problems, and current references which extend concepts in the text.

WHAT IS NEW IN THIS EDITION

READING LISTS As a further aid in developing techniques for independent study, the reading list at the end of each chapter includes a few articles which students can read comfortably as they study this book. We do not expect that students will read all articles recommended in the reading lists; nevertheless, some exposure to periodicals is useful in laying the foundation for a career of constant updating and self-education. We have also added a summary of the key concepts at the end of each chapter.

PROBLEMS One of the keys to success in understanding this material is to work problems that exercise the concepts. The problems at the end of each chapter are designed to facilitate learning the material. Very few are simple “plug-in” problems. Instead, they are chosen to reinforce or extend the material presented in the chapter. In addition, we have added “self quiz” problems that test the conceptual understanding on the part of the students.

UNITS In keeping with the goals described above, examples and problems are stated in terms of units commonly used in the semiconductor literature. The basic system of units is rationalized MKS, although cm is often used as a convenient unit of length. Similarly, electron volts (eV) are often used rather than joules (J) to measure the energy of electrons. Units for various quantities are given in Appendices I and II.

PRESENTATION In presenting this material at the undergraduate level, one must anticipate a few instances which call for a phrase such as “It can be shown . . .” This is always disappointing; on the other hand, the alternative is to delay study of solid state devices until the graduate level, where statistical mechanics, quantum theory, and other advanced background can be freely invoked. Such a delay would result in a more elegant treatment of certain subjects, but it would prevent undergraduate students from enjoying the study of some very exciting devices.

The discussion includes both silicon and compound semiconductors, to reflect the continuing growth in importance for compounds in optoelectronic and high-speed device applications. Topics such as heterojunctions, lattice-matching using ternary and quaternary alloys, variation of band gap with alloy composition, and properties of quantum wells add to the breadth of the discussion. Not to be outdone by the compounds, silicon-based devices have continued their dramatic record of advancement. The discussion of FET structures and Si integrated circuits reflects these advancements. Our objective is not to cover all the latest devices, which can only be done in the journal and conference literature. Instead, we have chosen devices to discuss which are broadly illustrative of important principles.

The first four chapters of the book provide background on the nature of semiconductors and conduction processes in solids (Chapters 3, 4). Included is a brief introduction to quantum concepts (Chapter 2) for those students who do not already have this background from other courses. Chapter 5 describes the p-n junction and some of its applications. Chapters 6 and 7 deal with the principles of transistor operation. Chapter 8 covers optoelectronics, and Chapter 9 discusses integrated circuits. Chapter 10 applies the theory of junctions and conduction processes to microwave and power devices. A completely new section on nanoelectronics has been added. All of the devices covered are important in today's electronics; furthermore, learning about these devices should be an enjoyable and rewarding experience. We hope this book provides that kind of experience for its readers.

The seventh edition benefits greatly from comments and suggestions provided by students and teachers of the first six editions. The book's readers have generously provided comments which have been invaluable in developing the present version. We remain indebted to those persons mentioned in the Preface of the first six editions, who contributed so much to the development of the book. In particular, Nick Holonyak has been a source of continuing information and inspiration for all seven editions. Additional thanks go to our colleagues at UT–Austin who have provided special assistance, particularly Leonard Frank Register, Emanuel Tutuc, Ray Chen, Ananth Dodabalapur, Seth Bank, Misha Belkin, Zheng Wang, Neal Hall, Deji Akinwande, Jack Lee, and Dean Neikirk. Hema Movva provided useful assistance with the typing of the homework solutions. We thank the many companies and organizations cited in the figure captions for generously providing photographs and illustrations of devices and fabrication processes. Bob Doering at TI, Mark Bohr at Intel, Chandra Mouli at Micron, Babu Chalamala at MEMC and Kevin Lally at TEL deserve special mention for the new pictures in this edition. Finally, we recall with gratitude many years of association with Joe Campbell, Karl Hess, and the late Al Tasch, valued colleagues and friends.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

*Ben G. Streetman
Sanjay Kumar Banerjee*

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Solid State Electronic Devices

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Chapter 1

Crystal Properties and Growth of Semiconductors

OBJECTIVES

1. Describe what a semiconductor is
2. Perform simple calculations about crystals
3. Understand what is involved in bulk Czochralski and thin-film epitaxial crystal growth
4. Learn about crystal defects

In studying solid state electronic devices we are interested primarily in the electrical behavior of solids. However, we shall see in later chapters that the transport of charge through a metal or a semiconductor depends not only on the properties of the electron but also on the arrangement of atoms in the solid. In this chapter we shall discuss some of the physical properties of semiconductors compared with other solids, the atomic arrangements of various materials, and some methods of growing semiconductor crystals. Topics such as crystal structure and crystal growth technology are often the subjects of books rather than introductory chapters; thus we shall consider only a few of the more important and fundamental ideas that form the basis for understanding electronic properties of semiconductors and device fabrication.

Semiconductors are a group of materials having electrical conductivities intermediate between metals and insulators. It is significant that the conductivity of these materials can be varied over orders of magnitude by changes in temperature, optical excitation, and impurity content. This variability of electrical properties makes the semiconductor materials natural choices for electronic device investigations.

Semiconductor materials are found in column IV and neighboring columns of the periodic table (Table 1–1). The column IV semiconductors, silicon and germanium, are called *elemental* semiconductors because they are composed of single species of atoms. In addition to the elemental materials, compounds of column III and column V atoms, as well as certain combinations from II and VI, and from IV, make up the *compound* semiconductors.

1.1 SEMICONDUCTOR MATERIALS

As Table 1–1 indicates, there are numerous semiconductor materials. As we shall see, the wide variety of electronic and optical properties of these semiconductors provides the device engineer with great flexibility in the design of electronic and optoelectronic functions. The elemental semiconductor Ge was widely used in the early days of semiconductor development for transistors and diodes. Silicon is now used for the majority of rectifiers, transistors, and integrated circuits (ICs). However, the compounds are widely used in high-speed devices and devices requiring the emission or absorption of light. The two-element (*binary*) III–V compounds such as GaN, GaP, and GaAs are common in light-emitting diodes (LEDs). As discussed in Section 1.2.4, three-element (*ternary*) compounds such as GaAsP and four-element (*quaternary*) compounds such as InGaAsP can be grown to provide added flexibility in choosing materials properties.

Fluorescent materials such as those used in television screens usually are II–VI compound semiconductors such as ZnS. Light detectors are commonly made with InSb, CdSe, or other compounds such as PbTe and HgCdTe. Si and Ge are also widely used as infrared and nuclear radiation detectors. Light-emitting diodes are made using GaN and other III–V compounds. Semiconductor lasers are made using GaAs, AlGaAs, and other ternary and quaternary compounds.

One of the most important characteristics of a semiconductor, which distinguishes it from metals and insulators, is its *energy band gap*. This property, which we will discuss in detail in Chapter 3, determines among other things the wavelengths of light that can be absorbed or emitted by the semiconductor. For example, the band gap of GaAs is about 1.43 electron volts (eV), which

Table 1–1 Common semiconductor materials: (a) the portion of the periodic table where semiconductors occur; (b) elemental and compound semiconductors.

(a)	II	III	IV	V	VI
		B	C	N	
		Al	Si	P	S
	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se
	Cd	In		Sb	Te
(b)	Elemental	IV compounds	Binary III–V compounds	Binary II–VI compounds	
	Si	SiC	AlP	ZnS	
	Ge	SiGe	AlAs	ZnSe	
			AlSb	ZnTe	
			GaN	CdS	
			GaP	CdSe	
			GaAs	CdTe	
			GaSb		
			InP		
			InAs		
			InSb		

corresponds to light wavelengths in the near infrared. In contrast, GaP has a band gap of about 2.3 eV, corresponding to wavelengths in the green portion of the spectrum.¹ The band gap E_g for various semiconductor materials is listed along with other properties in Appendix III. As a result of the wide variety of semiconductor band gaps, LEDs and lasers can be constructed with wavelengths over a broad range of the infrared and visible portions of the spectrum.

The electronic and optical properties of semiconductor materials are strongly affected by impurities, which may be added in precisely controlled amounts. Such impurities are used to vary the conductivities of semiconductors over wide ranges and even to alter the nature of the conduction processes from conduction by negative charge carriers to positive charge carriers. For example, an impurity concentration of one part per million can change a sample of Si from a poor conductor to a good conductor of electric current. This process of controlled addition of impurities, called *doping*, will be discussed in detail in subsequent chapters.

To investigate these useful properties of semiconductors, it is necessary to understand the atomic arrangements in the materials. Obviously, if slight alterations in purity of the original material can produce such dramatic changes in electrical properties, then the nature and specific arrangement of atoms in each semiconductor must be of critical importance. Therefore, we begin our study of semiconductors with a brief introduction to crystal structure.

In this section we discuss the arrangements of atoms in various solids. We shall distinguish between single crystals and other forms of materials and then investigate the periodicity of crystal lattices. Certain important crystallographic terms will be defined and illustrated in reference to crystals having a basic cubic structure. These definitions will allow us to refer to certain planes and directions within a lattice. Finally, we shall investigate the diamond lattice; this structure, with some variations, is typical of most of the semiconductor materials used in electronic devices.

1.2 CRYSTAL LATTICES

1.2.1 Periodic Structures

A crystalline solid is distinguished by the fact that the atoms making up the crystal are arranged in a periodic fashion. That is, there is some basic arrangement of atoms that is repeated throughout the entire solid. Thus the crystal appears exactly the same at one point as it does at a series of other equivalent points, once the basic periodicity is discovered. However, not all solids are crystals (Fig. 1–1); some have no periodic structure at all (*amorphous* solids), and others are composed of many small regions of single-crystal material (*polycrystalline* solids). The high-resolution micrograph shown in Fig. 6–33 illustrates the periodic array of atoms in the single-crystal silicon of a transistor channel compared with the amorphous SiO_2 (glass) of the oxide layer.

¹The conversion between the energy E of a photon of light (eV) and its wavelength λ (μm) is $\lambda = 1.24/E$. For GaAs, $\lambda = 1.24/1.43 = 0.87 \mu\text{m}$.

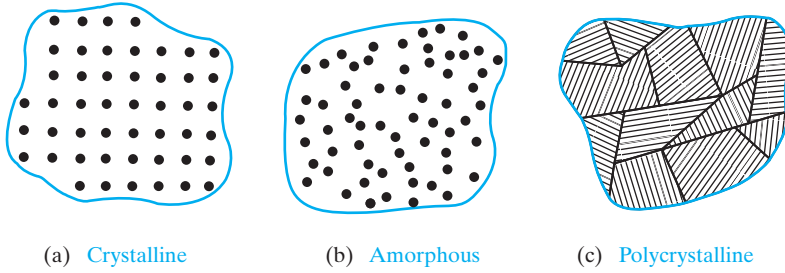


Figure 1-1

Three types of solids, classified according to atomic arrangement: (a) crystalline and (b) amorphous materials are illustrated by microscopic views of the atoms, whereas (c) polycrystalline structure is illustrated by a more macroscopic view of adjacent single-crystalline regions, such as (a).

The periodicity in a crystal is defined in terms of a symmetric array of points in space called the *lattice*. We can add atoms at each lattice point in an arrangement called a *basis*, which can be one atom or a group of atoms having the same spatial arrangement, to get a *crystal*. In every case, the lattice contains a volume or *cell* that represents the entire lattice and is regularly repeated throughout the crystal. As an example of such a lattice, Fig. 1-2 shows a two-dimensional arrangement of atoms called a rhombic lattice, with a *primitive cell* ODEF, which is the smallest such cell. Notice that we can define vectors **a** and **b** such that if the primitive cell is translated by integral multiples of these vectors, a new primitive cell identical to the original is found (e.g., O'D'E'F'). These vectors, **a** and **b** (and **c** if the lattice is three dimensional), are called the *primitive vectors* for the lattice. Points within the lattice are indistinguishable if the vector between the points is

$$\mathbf{r} = p\mathbf{a} + q\mathbf{b} + s\mathbf{c} \quad (1-1)$$

where p , q , and s are integers. The primitive cell shown has lattice points *only* at the corners of the cell. The primitive cell is not unique, but it must cover

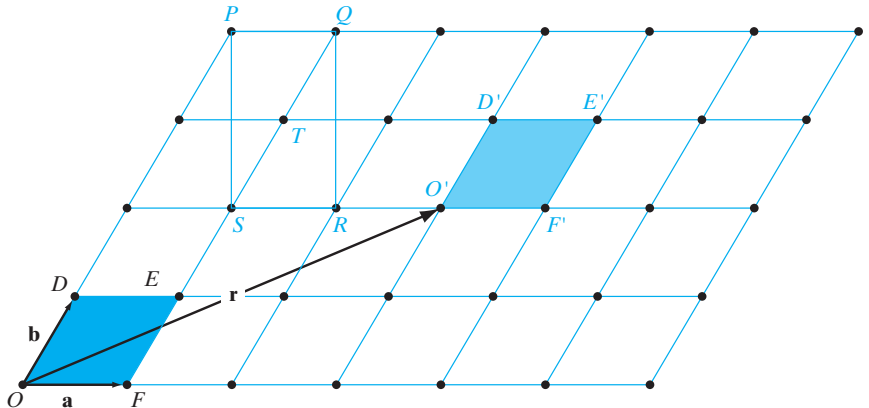


Figure 1-2
A two-dimensional lattice showing translation of a unit cell by $\mathbf{r} = 3\mathbf{a} + 2\mathbf{b}$.

the entire volume of the crystal (without missing or extra bits) by translations by integer numbers of primitive vectors, and it can have *only* one lattice point per cell. The convention is to choose the smallest primitive vectors. Note that, in the primitive cell shown in Fig. 1–2, the lattice points at the corners are shared with adjacent cells; thus, the *effective* number of lattice points belonging to the primitive cell is unity. Since there are many different ways of placing atoms in a volume, the distances and orientation between atoms can take many forms, leading to different lattice and crystal structures. It is important to remember that the *symmetry* determines the lattice, not the magnitudes of the distances between the lattice points.

In many lattices, however, the primitive cell is not the most convenient to work with. For example, in Fig. 1–2, we see that the rhombic arrangement of the lattice points is such that it can also be considered to be rectangular (PQRS) with a lattice point in the center at T (a so-called *centered rectangular* lattice). (Note that this is not true of all rhombic lattices!) Clearly, it is simpler to deal with a rectangle rather than a rhombus. So, in this case we can choose to work with a larger rectangular *unit* cell, PQRS, rather than the smallest primitive cell, ODEF. A unit cell allows lattice points not only at the corners but also at the face center (and body center in 3-D) if necessary. It is sometimes used instead of the primitive cell if it can represent the symmetry of the lattice better (in this example “centered rectangular” two-dimensional lattice). It replicates the lattice by integer translations of *basis* vectors.

The importance of the unit cell lies in the fact that we can analyze the crystal as a whole by investigating a representative volume. For example, from the unit cell we can find the distances between nearest atoms and next nearest atoms for calculation of the forces holding the lattice together; we can look at the fraction of the unit cell volume filled by atoms and relate the density of the solid to the atomic arrangement. But even more important for our interest in electronic devices, the properties of the periodic crystal lattice determine the allowed energies of electrons that participate in the conduction process. Thus the lattice determines not only the mechanical properties of the crystal but also its electrical properties.

1.2.2 Cubic Lattices

The simplest three-dimensional lattice is one in which the unit cell is a cubic volume, such as the three cells shown in Fig. 1–3. The *simple cubic* structure (abbreviated *sc*) has an atom located at each corner of the unit cell. The

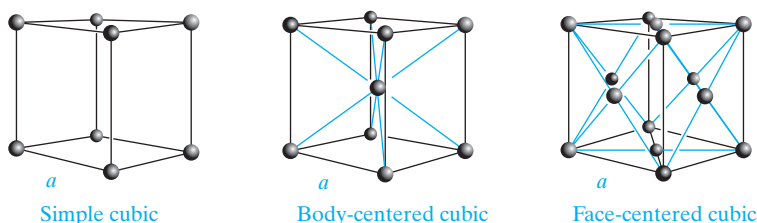
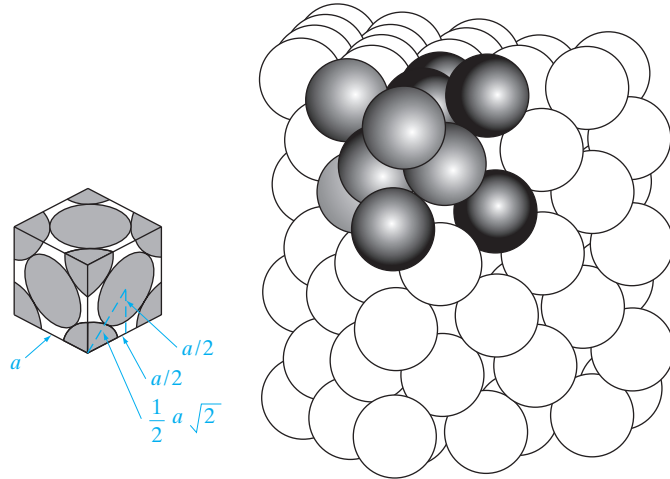


Figure 1–3
Unit cells for three types of cubic lattice structures.

Figure 1-4
Packing of hard
spheres in an fcc
lattice.



body-centered cubic (bcc) lattice has an additional atom at the center of the cube, and the *face-centered cubic (fcc)* unit cell has atoms at the eight corners and centered on the six faces. All three structures have different primitive cells, but the same cubic unit cell. We will generally work with unit cells.

As atoms are packed into the lattice in any of these arrangements, the distances between neighboring atoms will be determined by a balance between the forces that attract them together and other forces that hold them apart. We shall discuss the nature of these forces for particular solids in Section 3.1.1. For now, we can calculate the maximum fraction of the lattice volume that can be filled with atoms by approximating the atoms as hard spheres. For example, Fig. 1-4 illustrates the packing of spheres in a fcc cell of side a , such that the nearest neighbors touch. The dimension a for a cubic unit cell is called the *lattice constant*. For the fcc lattice the nearest neighbor distance is one-half the diagonal of a face, or $\frac{1}{2}(a\sqrt{2})$. Therefore, for the atom centered on the face to just touch the atoms at each corner of the face, the radius of the sphere must be one-half the nearest neighbor distance, or $\frac{1}{4}(a\sqrt{2})$.

EXAMPLE 1-1 Find the fraction of the fcc unit cell volume filled with hard spheres.

SOLUTION

$$\text{Nearest atom separation} = \frac{5\sqrt{2}}{2} \text{ \AA} = 3.54 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\text{Tetrahedral radius} = 1.77 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\text{Volume of each atom} = 23.14 \text{ \AA}^3$$

$$\text{Number of atoms per cube} = 6 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 8 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = 4 \text{ atoms}$$

$$\text{Packing fraction} = \frac{23.1 \text{ \AA}^3 \cdot 4}{(5 \text{ \AA})^3} = 0.74 = 74\%$$

1.2.3 Planes and Directions

In discussing crystals it is very helpful to be able to refer to planes and directions within the lattice. The notation system generally adopted uses a set of three integers to describe the position of a plane or the direction of a vector within the lattice. We first set up an xyz coordinate system with the origin at any lattice point (it does not matter which one because they are all equivalent!), and the axes are lined up with the edges of the cubic unit cell. The three integers describing a particular plane are found in the following way:

1. Find the intercepts of the plane with the crystal axes and express these intercepts as integral multiples of the basis vectors (the plane can be moved in and out from the origin, retaining its orientation, until such an integral intercept is discovered on each axis).
2. Take the reciprocals of the three integers found in step 1 and reduce these to the smallest set of integers h , k , and l , which have the same relationship to each other as the three reciprocals.
3. Label the plane (hkl) .

The plane illustrated in Fig. 1–5 has intercepts at $2a$, $4b$, and $1c$ along the three crystal axes. Taking the reciprocals of these intercepts, we get $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and 1. These three fractions have the same relationship to each other as the integers 2, 1, and 4 (obtained by multiplying each fraction by 4). Thus the plane can be referred to as a (214) plane. The only exception is if the intercept is a fraction of the lattice constant a . In that case, we do not reduce it to the lowest set of integers. For example, in Fig. 1–3, planes parallel to the cube faces, but going through the body center atoms in the bcc lattice, would be (200) and not (100) .

EXAMPLE 1–2

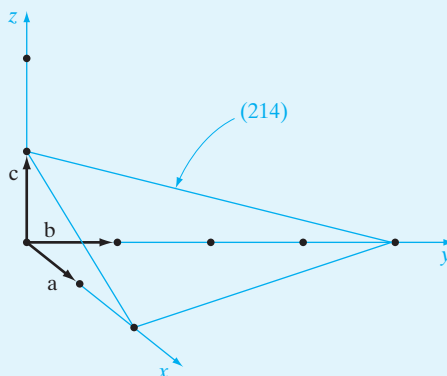


Figure 1–5
A (214) crystal plane.

The three integers h , k , and l are called the *Miller indices*; these three numbers define a set of parallel planes in the lattice. One advantage of taking the reciprocals of the intercepts is avoidance of infinities in the notation. One

intercept is infinity for a plane parallel to an axis; however, the reciprocal of such an intercept is taken as zero. If a plane contains one of the axes, it is parallel to that axis and has a zero reciprocal intercept. If a plane passes through the origin, it can be translated to a parallel position for calculation of the Miller indices. If an intercept occurs on the negative branch of an axis, the minus sign is placed above the Miller index for convenience, such as $(h\bar{k}l)$.

From a crystallographic point of view, many planes in a lattice are equivalent; that is, a plane with given Miller indices can be shifted about in the lattice simply by choice of the position and orientation of the unit cell. The indices of such equivalent planes are enclosed in braces $\{ \}$ instead of parentheses. For example, in the cubic lattice of Fig. 1–6, all the cube faces are crystallographically equivalent in that the unit cell can be rotated in various directions and still appear the same. The six equivalent faces are collectively designated as $\{100\}$.

A direction in a lattice is expressed as a set of three integers with the same relationship as the components of a vector in that direction. The three vector components are expressed in multiples of the basis vectors, and the three integers are reduced to their smallest values while retaining the relationship among them. For example, the body diagonal in the cubic lattice (Fig. 1–7a) is composed of the components $1\mathbf{a}$, $1\mathbf{b}$, and $1\mathbf{c}$; therefore, this diagonal is the $[111]$ direction. (Brackets are used for direction indices.) As in the case of planes, many directions in a lattice are equivalent, depending only on the arbitrary choice of orientation for the axes. Such equivalent direction indices are placed in angular brackets $\langle \rangle$. For example, the crystal axes in the cubic lattice $[100]$, $[010]$, and $[001]$ are all equivalent and are called $\langle 100 \rangle$ directions (Fig. 1–7b).

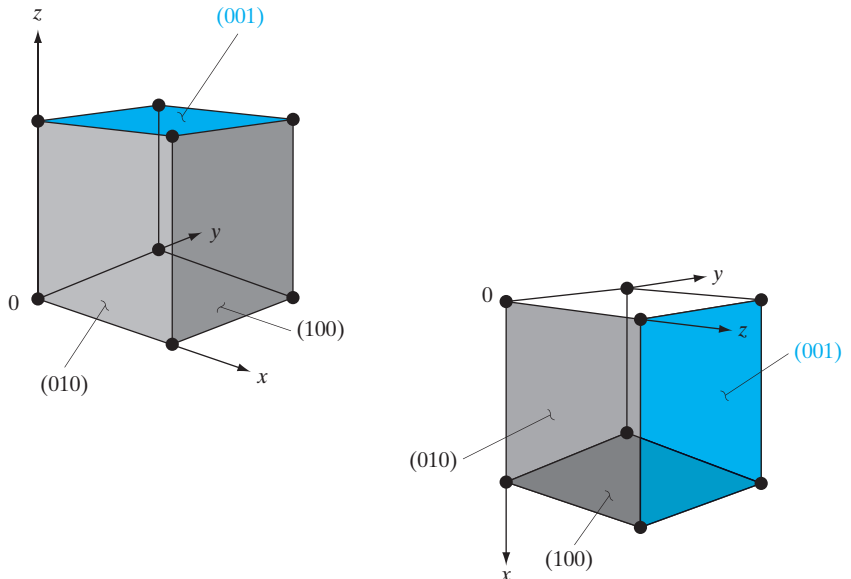


Figure 1–6
Equivalence of
the cube faces
($\{100\}$ planes)
by rotation of the
unit cell within the
cubic lattice.

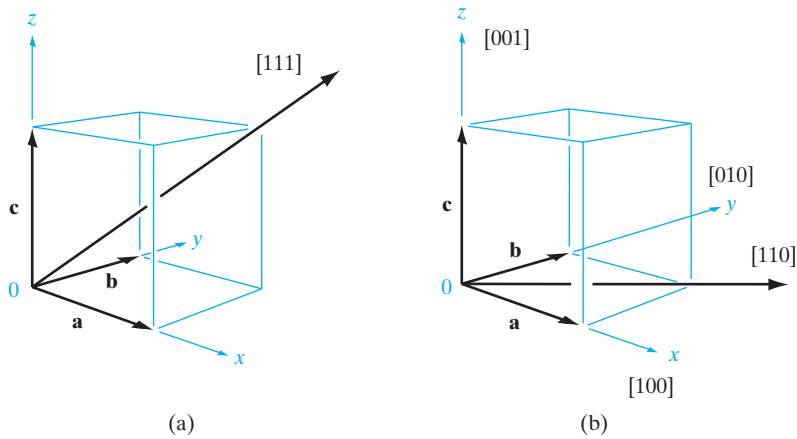


Figure 1-7
Crystal directions
in the cubic
lattice.

Two useful relationships in terms of Miller indices describe the distance between planes and angles between directions. The distance d between two adjacent planes labeled (hkl) is given in terms of the lattice constant, a , as

$$d = a/(h^2 + k^2 + l^2)^{1/2} \quad (1-2a)$$

The angle θ between two different Miller index directions is given by

$$\cos \theta = \{h_1h_2 + k_1k_2 + l_1l_2\} \{ (h_1^2 + k_1^2 + l_1^2)^{1/2} (h_2^2 + k_2^2 + l_2^2)^{1/2} \} \quad (1-2b)$$

Comparing Figs. 1-6 and 1-7, we notice that in cubic lattices a direction $[hkl]$ is perpendicular to the plane (hkl) . This is convenient in analyzing lattices with cubic unit cells, but it should be remembered that it is not necessarily true in noncubic systems.

1.2.4 The Diamond Lattice

The basic crystal structure for many important semiconductors is the fcc lattice with a basis of two atoms, giving rise to the *diamond* structure, characteristic of Si, Ge, and C in the diamond form. In many compound semiconductors, atoms are arranged in a basic diamond structure, but are different on alternating sites. This is called a *zinc blende* structure and is typical of the III-V compounds. One of the simplest ways of stating the construction of the diamond structure is the following:

The diamond structure can be thought of as an fcc lattice with an extra atom placed at $\mathbf{a}/4 + \mathbf{b}/4 + \mathbf{c}/4$ from each of the fcc atoms.

Figure 1-8a illustrates the construction of a diamond lattice from an fcc unit cell. We notice that when the vectors are drawn with components one-fourth of the cube edge in each direction, only four additional points within the same unit cell are reached. Vectors drawn from any of the other fcc atoms simply determine corresponding points in adjacent unit cells. This method of