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# Solid State Electronic Devices

SEVENTH EDITION

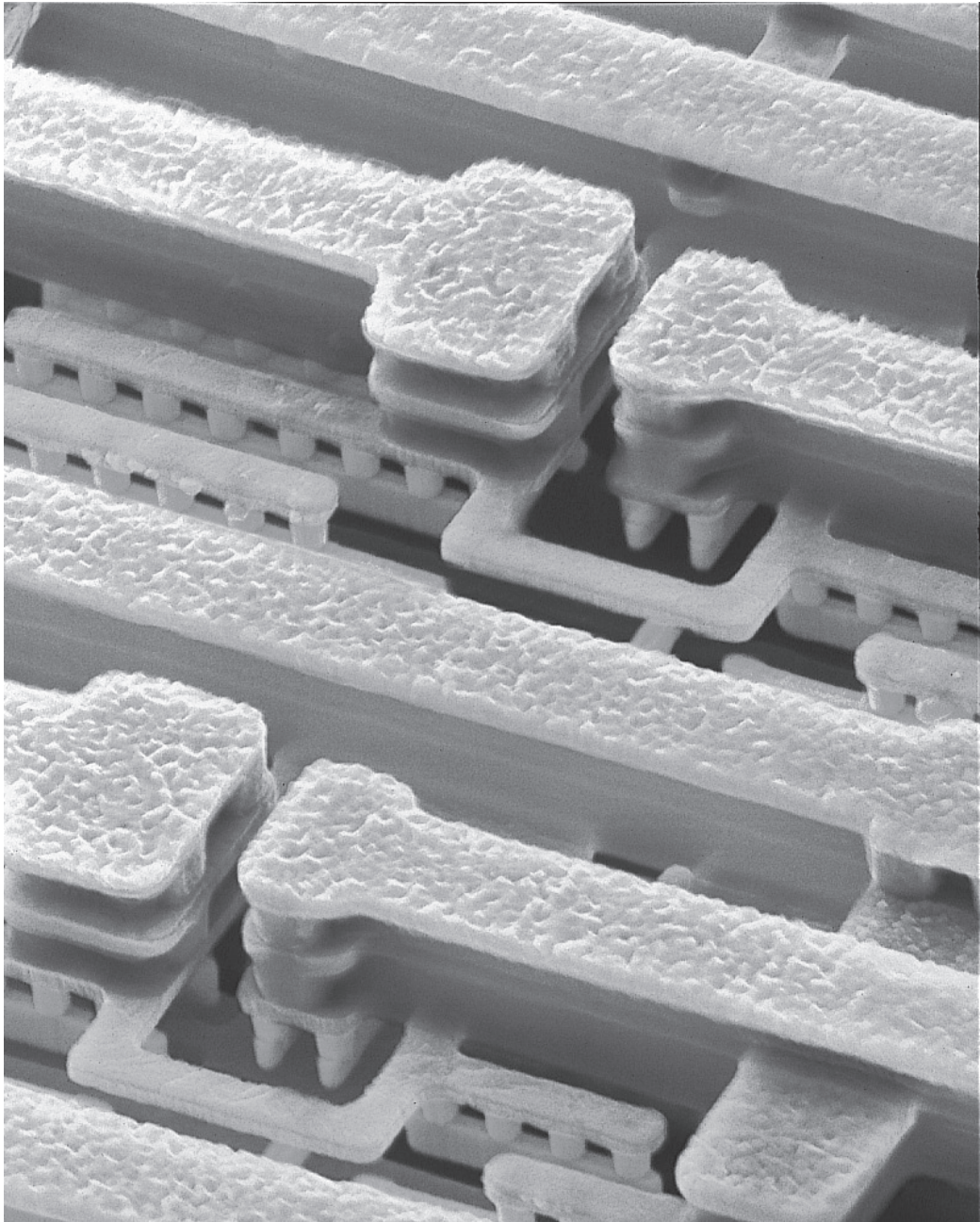
Ben G. Streetman • Sanjay Kumar Banerjee

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**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.)

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SEVENTH EDITION GLOBAL EDITION

# Solid State Electronic Devices

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PREFACE 13

ABOUT THE AUTHORS 17

## 1

### CRYSTAL PROPERTIES AND GROWTH OF SEMICONDUCTORS 21

- 1.1 Semiconductor Materials 21
- 1.2 Crystal Lattices 23
  - 1.2.1 Periodic Structures 23
  - 1.2.2 Cubic Lattices 25
  - 1.2.3 Planes and Directions 27
  - 1.2.4 The Diamond Lattice 29
- 1.3 Bulk Crystal Growth 32
  - 1.3.1 Starting Materials 32
  - 1.3.2 Growth of Single-Crystal Ingots 33
  - 1.3.3 Wafers 35
  - 1.3.4 Doping 36
- 1.4 Epitaxial Growth 37
  - 1.4.1 Lattice-Matching in Epitaxial Growth 38
  - 1.4.2 Vapor-Phase Epitaxy 40
  - 1.4.3 Molecular Beam Epitaxy 42
- 1.5 Wave Propagation in Discrete, Periodic Structures 44

## 2

### ATOMS AND ELECTRONS 52

- 2.1 Introduction to Physical Models 53
- 2.2 Experimental Observations 54
  - 2.2.1 The Photoelectric Effect 54
  - 2.2.2 Atomic Spectra 56
- 2.3 The Bohr Model 57
- 2.4 Quantum Mechanics 61
  - 2.4.1 Probability and the Uncertainty Principle 61
  - 2.4.2 The Schrödinger Wave Equation 63
  - 2.4.3 Potential Well Problem 65
  - 2.4.4 Tunneling 68
- 2.5 Atomic Structure and the Periodic Table 69
  - 2.5.1 The Hydrogen Atom 70
  - 2.5.2 The Periodic Table 72

## 3

**ENERGY BANDS AND CHARGE CARRIERS IN SEMICONDUCTORS 83**

- 3.1 Bonding Forces and Energy Bands in Solids 83
  - 3.1.1 Bonding Forces in Solids 84
  - 3.1.2 Energy Bands 86
  - 3.1.3 Metals, Semiconductors, and Insulators 89
  - 3.1.4 Direct and Indirect Semiconductors 90
  - 3.1.5 Variation of Energy Bands with Alloy Composition 92
- 3.2 Charge Carriers in Semiconductors 94
  - 3.2.1 Electrons and Holes 94
  - 3.2.2 Effective Mass 99
  - 3.2.3 Intrinsic Material 103
  - 3.2.4 Extrinsic Material 104
  - 3.2.5 Electrons and Holes in Quantum Wells 107
- 3.3 Carrier Concentrations 109
  - 3.3.1 The Fermi Level 109
  - 3.3.2 Electron and Hole Concentrations at Equilibrium 112
  - 3.3.3 Temperature Dependence of Carrier Concentrations 117
  - 3.3.4 Compensation and Space Charge Neutrality 119
- 3.4 Drift of Carriers in Electric and Magnetic Fields 120
  - 3.4.1 Conductivity and Mobility 120
  - 3.4.2 Drift and Resistance 125
  - 3.4.3 Effects of Temperature and Doping on Mobility 126
  - 3.4.4 High-Field Effects 129
  - 3.4.5 The Hall Effect 129
- 3.5 Invariance of the Fermi Level at Equilibrium 131

## 4

**EXCESS CARRIERS IN SEMICONDUCTORS 142**

- 4.1 Optical Absorption 142
- 4.2 Luminescence 145
  - 4.2.1 Photoluminescence 146
  - 4.2.2 Electroluminescence 148
- 4.3 Carrier Lifetime and Photoconductivity 148
  - 4.3.1 Direct Recombination of Electrons and Holes 149
  - 4.3.2 Indirect Recombination; Trapping 151
  - 4.3.3 Steady State Carrier Generation; Quasi-Fermi Levels 154
  - 4.3.4 Photoconductive Devices 156
- 4.4 Diffusion of Carriers 157
  - 4.4.1 Diffusion Processes 158
  - 4.4.2 Diffusion and Drift of Carriers; Built-in Fields 160
  - 4.4.3 Diffusion and Recombination; The Continuity Equation 163

- 4.4.4 Steady State Carrier Injection; Diffusion Length 165
- 4.4.5 The Haynes–Shockley Experiment 167
- 4.4.6 Gradients in the Quasi-Fermi Levels 170

## 5 JUNCTIONS 179

- 5.1 Fabrication of p-n Junctions 179
  - 5.1.1 Thermal Oxidation 180
  - 5.1.2 Diffusion 181
  - 5.1.3 Rapid Thermal Processing 183
  - 5.1.4 Ion Implantation 184
  - 5.1.5 Chemical Vapor Deposition (CVD) 187
  - 5.1.6 Photolithography 188
  - 5.1.7 Etching 191
  - 5.1.8 Metallization 193
- 5.2 Equilibrium Conditions 194
  - 5.2.1 The Contact Potential 195
  - 5.2.2 Equilibrium Fermi Levels 200
  - 5.2.3 Space Charge at a Junction 200
- 5.3 Forward- and Reverse-Biased Junctions; Steady State Conditions 205
  - 5.3.1 Qualitative Description of Current Flow at a Junction 205
  - 5.3.2 Carrier Injection 209
  - 5.3.3 Reverse Bias 218
- 5.4 Reverse-Bias Breakdown 220
  - 5.4.1 Zener Breakdown 221
  - 5.4.2 Avalanche Breakdown 222
  - 5.4.3 Rectifiers 225
  - 5.4.4 The Breakdown Diode 228
- 5.5 Transient and A-C Conditions 229
  - 5.5.1 Time Variation of Stored Charge 229
  - 5.5.2 Reverse Recovery Transient 232
  - 5.5.3 Switching Diodes 236
  - 5.5.4 Capacitance of p-n Junctions 236
  - 5.5.5 The Varactor Diode 241
- 5.6 Deviations from the Simple Theory 242
  - 5.6.1 Effects of Contact Potential on Carrier Injection 243
  - 5.6.2 Recombination and Generation in the Transition Region 245
  - 5.6.3 Ohmic Losses 247
  - 5.6.4 Graded Junctions 248
- 5.7 Metal–Semiconductor Junctions 251
  - 5.7.1 Schottky Barriers 251
  - 5.7.2 Rectifying Contacts 253



- 5.7.3 Ohmic Contacts 255
- 5.7.4 Typical Schottky Barriers 257
- 5.8 Heterojunctions 258

## 6

### FIELD-EFFECT TRANSISTORS 277

- 6.1 Transistor Operation 278
  - 6.1.1 The Load Line 278
  - 6.1.2 Amplification and Switching 279
- 6.2 The Junction FET 280
  - 6.2.1 Pinch-off and Saturation 281
  - 6.2.2 Gate Control 283
  - 6.2.3 Current–Voltage Characteristics 285
- 6.3 The Metal–Semiconductor FET 287
  - 6.3.1 The GaAs MESFET 287
  - 6.3.2 The High Electron Mobility Transistor (HEMT) 288
  - 6.3.3 Short Channel Effects 290
- 6.4 The Metal–Insulator–Semiconductor FET 291
  - 6.4.1 Basic Operation and Fabrication 291
  - 6.4.2 The Ideal MOS Capacitor 295
  - 6.4.3 Effects of Real Surfaces 306
  - 6.4.4 Threshold Voltage 309
  - 6.4.5 MOS Capacitance–Voltage Analysis 311
  - 6.4.6 Time-Dependent Capacitance Measurements 315
  - 6.4.7 Current–Voltage Characteristics of MOS Gate Oxides 316
- 6.5 The MOS Field-Effect Transistor 319
  - 6.5.1 Output Characteristics 319
  - 6.5.2 Transfer Characteristics 322
  - 6.5.3 Mobility Models 325
  - 6.5.4 Short Channel MOSFET  $I$ – $V$  Characteristics 327
  - 6.5.5 Control of Threshold Voltage 329
  - 6.5.6 Substrate Bias Effects—the “body” effect 332
  - 6.5.7 Subthreshold Characteristics 336
  - 6.5.8 Equivalent Circuit for the MOSFET 338
  - 6.5.9 MOSFET Scaling and Hot Electron Effects 341
  - 6.5.10 Drain-Induced Barrier Lowering 345
  - 6.5.11 Short Channel Effect and Narrow Width Effect 347
  - 6.5.12 Gate-Induced Drain Leakage 349
- 6.6 Advanced MOSFET Structures 350
  - 6.6.1 Metal Gate-High- $k$  350
  - 6.6.2 Enhanced Channel Mobility Materials and Strained Si FETs 351
  - 6.6.3 SOI MOSFETs and FinFETs 353

# 7

## BIPOLAR JUNCTION TRANSISTORS 368

- 7.1 Fundamentals of BJT Operation 368
- 7.2 Amplification with BJTs 372
- 7.3 BJT Fabrication 375
- 7.4 Minority Carrier Distributions and Terminal Currents 378
  - 7.4.1 Solution of the Diffusion Equation in the Base Region 379
  - 7.4.2 Evaluation of the Terminal Currents 381
  - 7.4.3 Approximations of the Terminal Currents 384
  - 7.4.4 Current Transfer Ratio 386
- 7.5 Generalized Biasing 387
  - 7.5.1 The Coupled-Diode Model 388
  - 7.5.2 Charge Control Analysis 393
- 7.6 Switching 395
  - 7.6.1 Cutoff 396
  - 7.6.2 Saturation 397
  - 7.6.3 The Switching Cycle 398
  - 7.6.4 Specifications for Switching Transistors 399
- 7.7 Other Important Effects 400
  - 7.7.1 Drift in the Base Region 401
  - 7.7.2 Base Narrowing 402
  - 7.7.3 Avalanche Breakdown 403
  - 7.7.4 Injection Level; Thermal Effects 405
  - 7.7.5 Base Resistance and Emitter Crowding 406
  - 7.7.6 Gummel–Poon Model 408
  - 7.7.7 Kirk Effect 411
- 7.8 Frequency Limitations of Transistors 414
  - 7.8.1 Capacitance and Charging Times 414
  - 7.8.2 Transit Time Effects 417
  - 7.8.3 Webster Effect 418
  - 7.8.4 High-Frequency Transistors 418
- 7.9 Heterojunction Bipolar Transistors 420

# 8

## OPTOELECTRONIC DEVICES 430

- 8.1 Photodiodes 430
  - 8.1.1 Current and Voltage in an Illuminated Junction 431
  - 8.1.2 Solar Cells 434
  - 8.1.3 Photodetectors 437
  - 8.1.4 Gain, Bandwidth, and Signal-to-Noise Ratio of Photodetectors 439

- 8.2 Light-Emitting Diodes 442
  - 8.2.1 Light-Emitting Materials 443
  - 8.2.2 Fiber-Optic Communications 447
- 8.3 Lasers 450
- 8.4 Semiconductor Lasers 454
  - 8.4.1 Population Inversion at a Junction 455
  - 8.4.2 Emission Spectra for p-n Junction Lasers 457
  - 8.4.3 The Basic Semiconductor Laser 458
  - 8.4.4 Heterojunction Lasers 459
  - 8.4.5 Materials for Semiconductor Lasers 462
  - 8.4.6 Quantum Cascade Lasers 464

## 9

### INTEGRATED CIRCUITS 472

- 9.1 Background 473
  - 9.1.1 Advantages of Integration 473
  - 9.1.2 Types of Integrated Circuits 475
- 9.2 Evolution of Integrated Circuits 476
- 9.3 Monolithic Device Elements 479
  - 9.3.1 CMOS Process Integration 479
  - 9.3.2 Integration of Other Circuit Elements 494
- 9.4 Charge Transfer Devices 500
  - 9.4.1 Dynamic Effects in MOS Capacitors 501
  - 9.4.2 The Basic CCD 502
  - 9.4.3 Improvements on the Basic Structure 503
  - 9.4.4 Applications of CCDs 504
- 9.5 Ultra Large-Scale Integration (ULSI) 505
  - 9.5.1 Logic Devices 507
  - 9.5.2 Semiconductor Memories 517
- 9.6 Testing, Bonding, and Packaging 530
  - 9.6.1 Testing 531
  - 9.6.2 Wire Bonding 531
  - 9.6.3 Flip-Chip Techniques 535
  - 9.6.4 Packaging 535

## 10

### HIGH-FREQUENCY, HIGH-POWER AND NANO-ELECTRONIC DEVICES 541

- 10.1 Tunnel Diodes 541
  - 10.1.1 Degenerate Semiconductors 541
- 10.2 The IMPATT Diode 545
- 10.3 The Gunn Diode 548
  - 10.3.1 The Transferred-Electron Mechanism 548
  - 10.3.2 Formation and Drift of Space Charge Domains 551

10.4	The p-n-p-n Diode	553
10.4.1	Basic Structure	553
10.4.2	The Two-Transistor Analogy	554
10.4.3	Variation of $\alpha$ with Injection	555
10.4.4	Forward-Blocking State	556
10.4.5	Conducting State	557
10.4.6	Triggering Mechanisms	558
10.5	The Semiconductor-Controlled Rectifier	559
10.5.1	Turning off the SCR	560
10.6	Insulated-Gate Bipolar Transistor	561
10.7	Nanoelectronic Devices	564
10.7.1	Zero-Dimensional Quantum Dots	564
10.7.2	One-Dimensional Quantum Wires	566
10.7.3	Two-Dimensional Layered Crystals	567
10.7.4	Spintronic Memory	568
10.7.5	Nanoelectronic Resistive Memory	570

## APPENDICES

I.	Definitions of Commonly Used Symbols	575
II.	Physical Constants and Conversion Factors	579
III.	Properties of Semiconductor Materials	580
IV.	Derivation of the Density of States in the Conduction Band	581
V.	Derivation of Fermi–Dirac Statistics	586
VI.	Dry and Wet Thermal Oxide Thickness Grown on Si (100) as a Function of Time and Temperature	589
VII.	Solid Solubilities of Impurities in Si	591
VIII.	Diffusivities of Dopants in Si and SiO <sub>2</sub>	592
IX.	Projected Range and Straggle as Function of Implant Energy in Si	594

## ANSWERS TO SELECTED SELF QUIZ QUESTIONS 596

## INDEX 600



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.

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Sanjay Kumar Banerjee*

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*Sanjay Kumar Banerjee* is the Cockrell Chair Professor of Electrical and Computer Engineering, and Director of the Microelectronics Research Center at The University of Texas at Austin. He received his B.Tech. from the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, and his M.S. and Ph.D. from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign in 1979, 1981, and 1983, respectively, in electrical engineering. He worked at TI from 1983–1987 on the world’s first 4Megabit DRAM, for which he was a co-recipient of an ISSCC Best Paper Award. He has more than 900 archival refereed publications and conference papers, 30 U.S. patents, and has supervised over 50 Ph.D. students. His honors include the NSF Presidential Young Investigator Award (1988), the Texas Atomic Energy Centennial Fellowship (1990–1997), Cullen Professorship (1997–2001), and the Hocott Research Award from the University of Texas. He has received the ECS Callinan Award (2003), Industrial R&D 100 Award (2004), Distinguished Alumnus Award, IIT (2005), IEEE Millennium Medal (2000) and IEEE Andrew S. Grove Award (2014). He is a Fellow of IEEE, APS and AAAS. He is interested in beyond-CMOS nanoelectronic transistors based on 2D materials and spintronics, fabrication and modeling of advanced MOSFETs, and solar cells.

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# Solid State Electronic Devices



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## Chapter 1

# Crystal Properties and Growth of Semiconductors

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### 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.<sup>1</sup> 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.

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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.

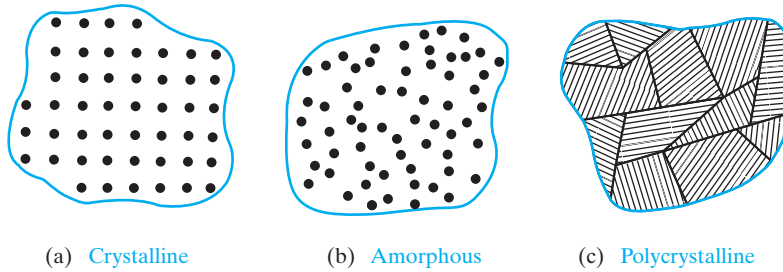
## 1.2 CRYSTAL LATTICES

### 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<sub>2</sub> (glass) of the oxide layer.

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





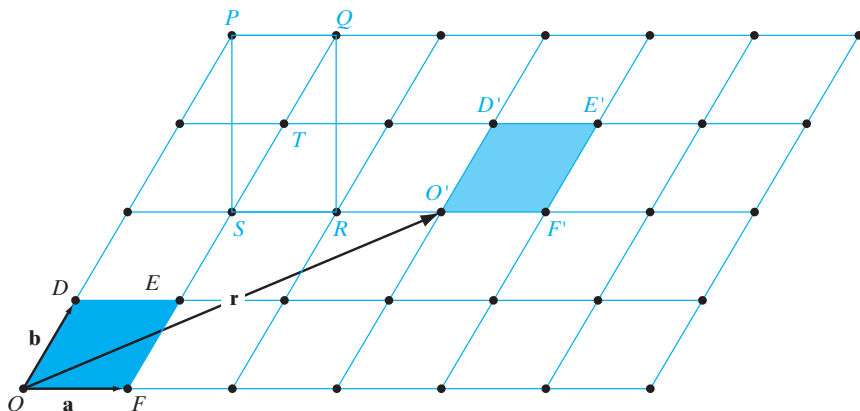
**Figure 1-1**

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  $\mathbf{r} = 3\mathbf{a} + 2\mathbf{b}$ .

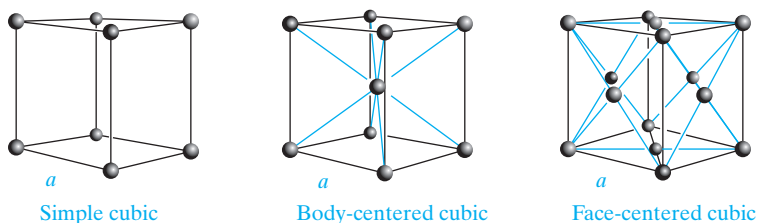
the entire volume of the crystal (without missing or extra bits) by translations by integer numbers of primitive vectors, and it can have *only* one lattice point per cell. The convention is to choose the smallest primitive vectors. Note that, in the primitive cell shown in Fig. 1–2, the lattice points 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.

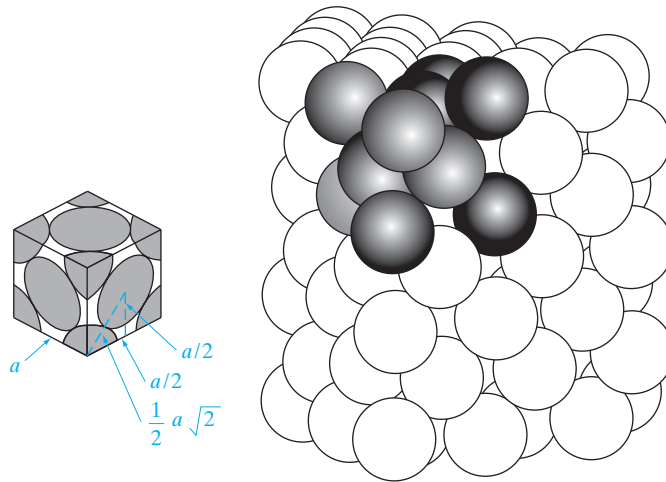
### 1.2.2 Cubic Lattices

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**

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

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

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

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

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

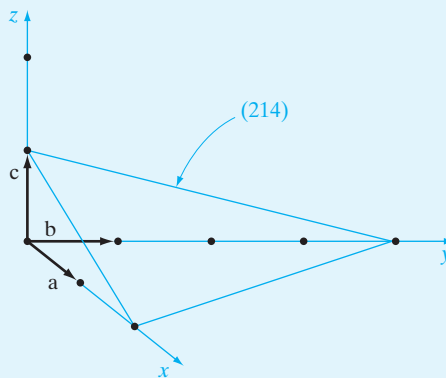
### 1.2.3 Planes and Directions

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



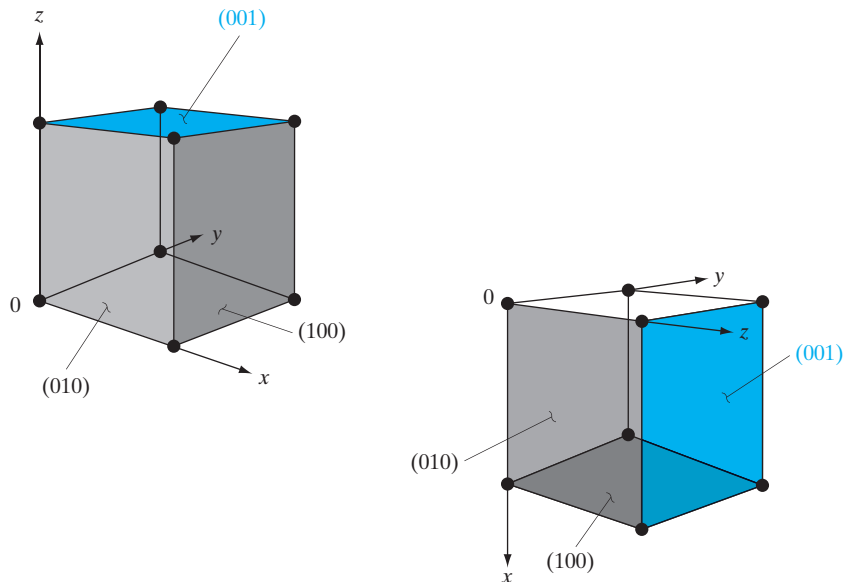
**Figure 1–5**  
A (214) crystal plane.

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

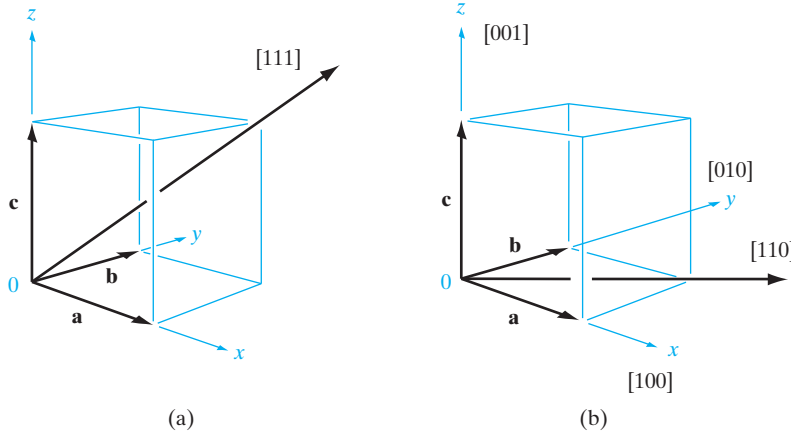
intercept is infinity for a plane parallel to an axis; however, the reciprocal of such an intercept is taken as zero. If a plane contains one of the axes, it is parallel to that axis and has a zero reciprocal intercept. If a plane passes through the origin, it can be translated to a parallel position 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  $\theta$  between two different Miller index directions is given by

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

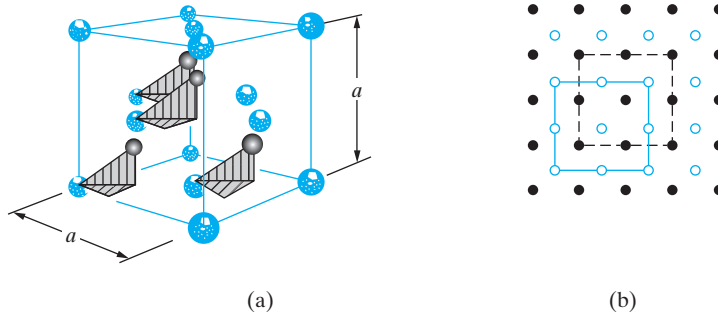
Comparing Figs. 1-6 and 1-7, we notice that in cubic lattices a direction  $[hkl]$  is perpendicular to the plane  $(hkl)$ . This is convenient in analyzing lattices with cubic unit cells, but it should be remembered that it is not necessarily true in noncubic systems.

### 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

**Figure 1-8**

Diamond lattice structure: (a) a unit cell of the diamond lattice constructed by placing atoms  $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}$  from each atom in an fcc; (b) top view (along any  $\langle 100 \rangle$  direction) of an extended diamond lattice. The colored circles indicate one fcc sublattice and the black circles indicate the interpenetrating fcc.

constructing the diamond lattice implies that the original fcc has associated with it a second interpenetrating fcc displaced by  $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}$ . The two interpenetrating fcc *sublattices* can be visualized by looking down on the unit cell of Fig. 1-8a from the top (or along any  $\langle 100 \rangle$  direction). In the top view of Fig. 1-8b, atoms belonging to the original fcc are represented by open circles, and the interpenetrating sublattice is shaded. If the atoms are all similar, we call this structure a diamond lattice; if the atoms differ on alternating sites, it is a zinc blende structure. For example, if one fcc sublattice is composed of Ga atoms and the interpenetrating sublattice is As, the zinc blende structure of GaAs results. Most of the compound semiconductors have this type of lattice, although some of the II-VI compounds are arranged in a slightly different structure called the *wurtzite* lattice. We shall restrict our discussion here to the diamond and zinc blende structures, since they are typical of most of the commonly used semiconductors.

**EXAMPLE 1-3**

Calculate the volume density of Si atoms (number of atoms/cm<sup>3</sup>), given that the lattice constant of Si is 5.43 Å. Calculate the areal density of atoms (number/cm<sup>2</sup>) on the (100) plane.

**SOLUTION**

On the (100) plane, we have four atoms on corners and one on the face center.

$$(100) \text{ plane: } \frac{4 \times \frac{1}{4} + 1}{(5.43 \times 10^{-8})(5.43 \times 10^{-8})} = 6.8 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$