



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies



**Increasing The Electrical Conductivity of the
semiconductor by Doping and Heating**

زيادة الموصلية الكهربائية لاشباه الموصلات بالتشويب و الحرارة

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Requirement for Degree of Master in Physics

Prepared by :

Seddega Mohammed Noor Diab

Supervised by :

Dr. Ahmed ELhassan ELfaki

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الآية

قال تعالى:

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

يُكَلِّفُ اللَّهُ نَفْسًا إِلَّا رِجْلًا وَوَسْعَهَا لَهَا مَا كَسَبَتْ وَعَلَيْهَا مَا اكْتَسَبَتْ رَبَّنَا لَا
تَسِينَا نُوُؤًا إِذْ تَخْتَلِجُنَا رَبَّنَا وَلَا تَدْمِلْ عَلَيْنَا إصْرًا كَمَا دَمَلْتَهُ عَلَي
مَنْ قَبْلِنَا رَبَّنَا لَا تُؤْتِنَا إِلَّا طَائِفَةً لَنَا بِهِ وَاعْفُ عَنَّا وَاعْفِرْ لَنَا
وَارْحَمْنَا أَنْتَ مَوْلَانَا فَانصُرْنَا عَلَى الْكَافِرِينَ)

صدق الله العظيم

سورة البقرة الآية (286)

Dedication

*To whom he strives to bless comfort and welfare and never
stints what he owns to push me in the success way who*

*taught me to promote life stairs wisely and patiently, to my
dearest father*

*To the Spring that never stops giving, to my mother who
weaves my happiness with strings from her merciful heart*

*To whose love flows in my veins, and my heart always
remembers them, to my brothers ,sisters and my fiends*

*To those who taught us letters of gold and words of jewel of
the utmost and sweetest sentences in the whole knowledge.*

Who reworded to us their knowledge simply and from their

*thoughts made a lighthouse guides us through the
knowledge and success path, To our honored teachers and
professors.*

Acknowledgement

Before of all, the praise and thanks be to Allah whom to be ascribed all perfection and majesty. The thanks after Allah must be to my virtuous teacher Dr. **Ahmed ELhassan ELfaki** who supervised this research and guide me in patience until the results of this research are obtained. I wish to express my thanks to Sudan university of science and technology and department of physics. My humble thanks to everyone help and encourage me during this work. I also would like to thanks my friends and classmates for any support that make me complete this research.

Abstract

In this research was done discussion of the semiconductor by details whence structure, refinement, types and conductivity. And charge carrier properties whence density, effective mass, and concentration in intrinsic and extrinsic semiconductor .Also found there's proportioning between the carrier density and electrical conductivity, then increasing the density of this carrier increases the electrical conductivity of the semiconductor. Position of Fermi level in this research was determined. The heating and doping are increase the electrical conductivity of the semiconductor. The research was taken up germanium element the intrinsic semiconductor and subjugated to theoretical and practical study.

مستخلص

في هذا البحث تمت مناقشة اشباه الموصلات بالتفصيل من حيث البنية والنقاء والتوصيلية الكهربائية وكذلك أقسام اشباه الموصلات الذاتية وغير الذاتية, كما نوقشت خصائص حاملات الشحنة من حيث الكثافة والكتلة الفعالة والتركيز و التنقل. ووجد أن هنالك تناسب بين كثافة الحاملات والتوصيلية الكهربائية, كما تم تحديد موقع فيرمي في شبه الموصلات الذاتية. وكذا تم التعرف على تأثير الحرارة والتشويب على خصائص أشباه الموصلات بما في ذلك التوصيلية الكهربائية حيث وجد أن التشويب وزيادة درجة الحرارة تزيد من التوصيلية الكهربائية لها. وتمت دراسة وصفية وعملية لعنصر الجرمانيوم كشبه موصل ذاتي ووجد ان التشويب وزيادة درجة الحرارة تزيد من التوصيلية الكهربائية له وبذلك يمكن الإستفادة من الجرمانيوم والعناصر التي تشاكله.

Cotent

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Dependent on the electrophysic properties we classification all substances in three large group .The metal it good conductor for heat and electricity semiconductor it conduct electricity under some condition and insulator it no conduct the electricity and heat at all[1]. I will focus in this research in the semiconductor. The characteristic of the semiconductor leads to manufacture different devices like (diode) use to current appressed and (transistor) use to generation and amplification resonance an (light element) use to convert the thermal and radiologic energy to electrical energy and (light diode and leasers) use to conversion the electrical energy to light. So the devise mad on the semiconductor use in other extensive disciplines such that the temperature measurement, pressure, radiation and magnetic fields[2]. No difference between the semiconductor and insulator at absolute zero range except the energy gap .hence the semiconductor is insulator at absolute zero range .but increase the temperature increasing the electrical conductivity of the semiconductor and can be higher than insulator but in gases less than metals and increasing by high temperature. In solid-state physics, the electron mobility characterizes how quickly an electron can move through a semiconductor, when pulled by an electric field. In semiconductor, there is an analogous quantity for holes, called hole mobility. The term carrier mobility refers in general to both electron and hole in semiconductors. Electron and hole mobility

are special cases of electrical mobility of charged particles in a fluid under an applied electric field. If an electric field is applied across a piece of material, the electrons respond by moving with an average velocity called the drift velocity. Conductivity is proportional to the product of mobility and carrier concentration. The same conductivity could come from a small number of electrons with high mobility for each, or a large number of electrons with a small mobility for each. Therefore, mobility is a very important parameter for semiconductor materials. The semiconductor group contains elements: Si, Ge, Ga and others [3].

1.2 Problem definition

The problem is to know the method that can be used for narrowing the energy gap of a semiconductor by doping and heating, and the effect of these processes on the semiconductor properties.

1.3 Aim of the Research

The researcher is endeavoring to achieve the following objectives through research:

1. Know the semiconductor application in the daily life.
2. Discuss the primary processes of the charge carriers inside the semiconductor, i.e. diffusion, drift.
3. Identify the methods which the germanium is obtained.
4. Providing the main information about the semiconductor generally and germanium specially.
5. Identify what the germanium integrated circuit can be made and give a general idea about the physics structure of this (Ge ICs).

1.4 Assumption

This research assumed the following points:

1. Possibility of increasing the electrical conductivity of the semiconductor by the doping and heating.
2. Possibility of all semiconductors can be benefited.

1.5 The method of Research

In this research we used theoretical and practical methods.

1.6 Presentation of the Research

This research includes four chapters, chapter one includes introduction, importance of the study, aim of the study and thesis outline. Chapter two includes general study in semiconductors and pn-junction, electrons and holes in semiconductors, effective mass, and conductivity of these carriers, carrier concentration, carrier drift, drift and diffusion current. Chapter three includes general study in germanium and its properties, production, applications and the practical experiment of the research. Chapter four includes the discussion and recommendations of the research.

Chapter Tow

Semiconductor

2.1 Introduction

A semiconductor is defined as a solid crystalline material whose electrical conductivity intermediate between that of a metal and an insulator recognized as wonder materials only after the by Schlocky Bardeen and Brattain in 1940.^[3] The bonding between atoms in the solid accounts at widerange of electrical conductivity .Metallic boning produces electric field materials form electrical conductor . in other types of bonding suchcovalent bonding the valence electrons are bound to a pair of atoms .suchmaterial should therefore form insulator .The electrical conductivity of solids ranges from 10^{-4} - 10^{-11} ohm⁻¹ m⁻¹ in case of semiconductors while it's optimum value for good conductors is 10^7 and minimum value is 10^{-19} ohm⁻¹m⁻¹[4].

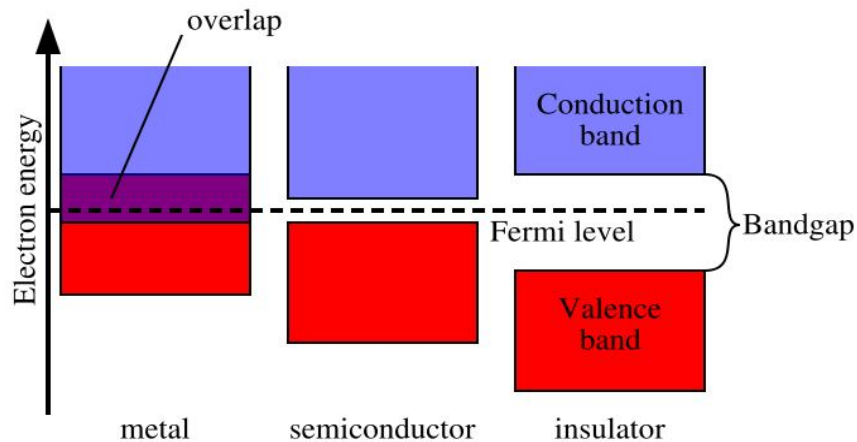


Figure (2.1) The energy gap between the metal and semiconductor and insulator [5].

2.2 The Refinement:

At added a few relics from duo atoms to the semiconductor leads to highchanges in electrical properties of the substance. For present mustaccurately control in refinement of the semiconductor components. Themodern semiconductor is most pure at all. But the impurity addedintended differs from element to another [6].

2.3 Doping of Semiconductors:-

Pure semiconductors, such as a Ge crystal without any impurities, are called intrinsic semiconductors. When a semiconductor is doped with impurities, it becomes extrinsic and impurity energy levels are introduced. The doping occurs when some atoms in the lattice are replaced with foreign atoms, altering the lattice structure. Shows a Ge lattice where one of the atoms have been replaced by a type-V atom, e.g. phosphorus. Four of the phosphorus valence electrons form covalent bonds to the nearest neighboring Ge atoms, while the fifth becomes a conduction electron that is 'donated' to the conduction band. Thus, the material is called an n-type donor because of the additional negative charge carrier, or simply an n-type material. A complement are situations seen in, where a Ge atom is replaced by a type-III atom .eg boron. Here the local lattice deficiency of one electron can receive an electron from one of the neighboring atoms, or a free conduction band electron. Thus, the material is called a p-type acceptor because of the positive charge released by accepting an electron. The convention of viewing this occurrence as a movement of a positive charge rather than a negative electron, will become clear

germanium lattice with a single impurity atom (Phosphorus, P) added. As compared to Ge, the Phosphorus has one extra valence electron which, after all bonds are made, has very weak bonding [5].

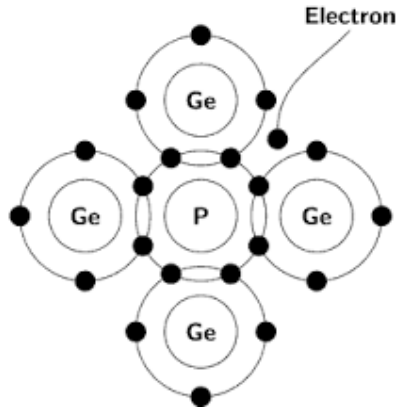


Figure 2.2 Germanium atoms doping by phosphorus

2.4 The structure:

A crystal structure is characterized by having a well-structured periodic placement of atoms. The smallest assembly of atoms that can be repeated to form the entire crystal is called a Primitive Cell with a dimension of lattice constant. Many important semiconductors have diamond or zincblende lattice structures which belong to the tetrahedral phases, that an atom is surrounded by four equidistant nearest neighbors which lie at the corner of a tetrahedron. The bond between two nearest neighbors is formed by two electrons with opposite spins. The diamond and the zincblende lattice can be considered as two interpenetrating face-centered cubic (fcc) lattices [7].

2.5 Conduction in semiconductor

The electrical conductivity in this type depends on the density of charge carriers—electrons and holes; in this research we determine the number of electrons in the conduction band and the number of holes in the valence band. Electric current is caused due to the motion of electrons, although under some conditions such as high temperature the motion of ions may be important as well. The

basic distinction between conduction in metal and semiconductor arises from the energy bands occupied by the conduction electrons. This can be explained better if we take into account the case of an isolated carbon atom which contains six electrons (two each in the 1s, 2s, 2p)[8].

2.6 The semiconductor is found in two types

2.6.1 Intrinsic semiconductor

Intrinsic semiconductor is a pure crystal with no impurity atoms or defects. We understand that conduction in a semiconductor is entirely the motion of charge carriers i.e., electrons and holes, which are generated by thermal excitation from the valence band to the conduction band. This process arises from the thermal disruption of the covalent bonds. The material exhibits this phenomenon is known as an intrinsic semiconductor [9].

The intrinsic semiconductors such as pure Ge or Si are called pure semiconductors. The electrical conductivity of this type of semiconductor is solely determined by thermally generated carriers. To understand the mechanism of conduction, we consider the bonding between atoms in these semiconductors. Each germanium atom has four valence electrons and can form four covalent bonds with four neighboring silicon atoms which are directed along the corners of a regular tetrahedron. Therefore, it exhibits a three-dimensional regular network type structure which, for simplicity, is represented by a two-dimensional network as, all the valence electrons in a germanium crystal participate in the formation of covalent bonds and no electron is free to cause conduction particularly at 0K. As the temperature increases above 0K, some of the valence electrons may acquire sufficient thermal energy to break their covalent bonds and become free from the influence of the cores of the atoms [6].

2.6.1.1 The essential properties of an intrinsic semiconductor

The concentration of the electrons in the conduction band is equal to the concentration of the holes in valence band.

$$n_i = p_i$$

- The impurity content should be less than 1 part in 100 million parts of the semiconductor.
- The Fermi energy level for intrinsic semiconductor is called intrinsic Fermi energy $E_F = E_{Fi}$

We can describe intrinsic semiconductors based on a two-dimension

representation of a germanium crystal at $T = 0$ (fig 2.1). At room temperature the energy required to break a covalent bond is not very large for example energy required to break a bond in silicon and germanium is 1.2 and 0.72 eV. respectively [10].

2.6.1.2 Conduction of the charge carriers

The number of electrons and holes is not very important, but the density of the charge carrier (the number of carrier per unit volume) is significant. If the number of electrons is n and number of holes is p , then for an intrinsic here n_i is the carrier concentration in an intrinsic (pure) semiconductor which varies with temperature and is different for different semiconductors. If σ_n the conductivity due to free electrons and σ_p is due to holes then specific conductance (σ_i) is given by the expression:

$$\sigma_i = \sigma_n + \sigma_p \quad (2.1)$$

Since n and p are number of electrons and holes having charge e their corresponding mobilities are μ_n and μ_p respectively. Therefore Eq (2.1) becomes

$$\sigma_i = n_e \mu_n + p_e \mu_p \quad (2.2)$$

Since $n = p = n_i$, Eq (3.2) can be rewritten as

$$\sigma_i = n_i e (\mu_e + \mu_p) \quad (2.3)$$

Where α and β are constant of proportionality and. Substituting

γ 's equal $(\alpha + \beta)$ Since it has already been stated that the mobility of charge carriers depends on temperature, the power law ($\mu \propto 1/T^{3/2}$) in case of the mobility of electrons and holes plays a role :

$$(\mu_e + \mu_p) = (\alpha + \beta) T^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (2.4)$$

$$(\alpha + \beta) = \gamma T^{3/2} \quad (2.5)$$

Substituting equation in eq (2.5) ,we get:

$$\sigma_i = n_i e \gamma T^{3/2} \quad (2.6)$$

using certain equation for driving the intrinsic (semiconductor) carrier concentration, we get

$$n_i = 4.83 \times 10^{21} T^{3/2} \exp\left[-\frac{E_g}{2k\beta T}\right] \quad (2.7)$$

Using this expression in Eq (2.7) we find

$$\sigma_i = \gamma \times 4.83 \times 10^{21} T^{3/2} \exp\left[-\frac{E_g}{2kk\beta T}\right] \quad (2.8)$$

Where A is equal $\gamma \times 4.83 \times 10^{21}$. This becomes an expression for conductivity of an intrinsic semiconductor. which is expressed as

$$\sigma_i = A \times T^{3/2} \exp\left[-\frac{E_g}{2kk\beta T}\right] \quad (2.9)$$

Fig(2.2) (a) A plot of resistivity versus temperature $[1/T(k)]$ on a logarithmic scale. (b) conductivity versus $1/T(k)$.

$$B = \frac{1}{A}, \quad p_i = 1/\sigma_i$$

$$p_i = B \exp\frac{E_g}{2k\beta T} \quad (2.10)$$

Where B is reciprocal of A . Taking logarithm of Eq (2.10) we get

$$\log p_i = \frac{E_g}{2k\beta T} + \log B \quad (2.11)$$

Here E_g is energy gap of an intrinsic semiconductor. Eq(2.11) shows that the conductivity of intrinsic semiconductor varies exponentially with increase in temperature [11].

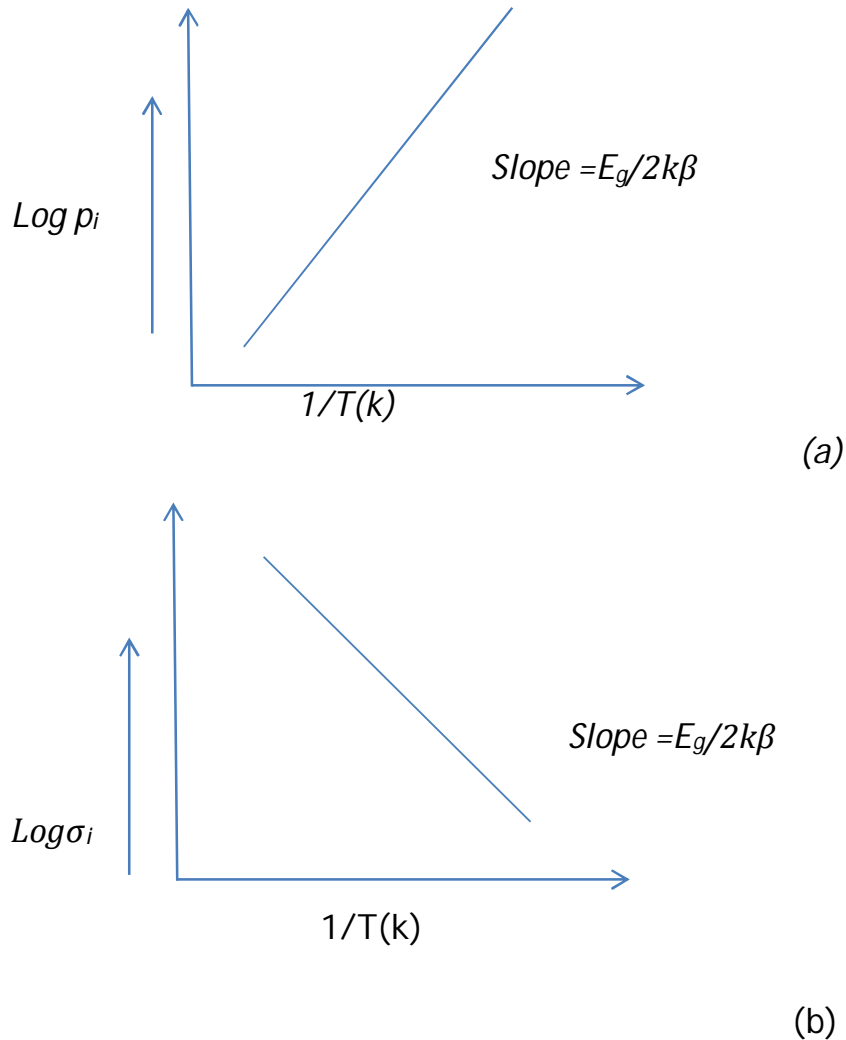


Figure 2.2 (a) A plot of resistivity versus temperature [$1/T(\text{k})$] on a logarithmic scale. (b) Conductivity versus $1/T(\text{k})$.

The above discussion leads us to the following conclusions about intrinsic semiconductors:

1. The resistivity (or conductivity) of an intrinsic semiconductor is dependent on the concentration of charge carrier (electrons and holes) .
2. The conductivity of charge carrier is a function of their mobility.
3. The mobility is influenced by the presences of impurity atoms (defects).
4. The conductivity also depends upon the number of charge carriers which are in thermal equilibrium.

2.6.1.3 Effective Mass:-

When an electric field, is applied, an electron or a hole will accelerate according to:

$$\text{Acceleration} = -\frac{q}{m_n} \text{ for electrons}$$

$$\text{Acceleration} = \frac{q}{m_p} \text{ for holes}$$

Where m_n and m_p is mass of electron and hole respectively. In order to describe the motion of electrons and holes with the laws of motion of the classical particles, we must assign effective masses (m_n and m_p) to them. The electron and hole effective masses of a few semiconductors are listed in Table 3.1 [9].

Table 2.1 Electron and hole effective masses, m_n and m_p , normalized to the free electron mass.

Effective masses	Si	Ge	GaAs	InAs	AlAs
m_n/m_0	0.26	0.12	0.068	0.023	2.0
m_p/m_0	0.39	0.30	0.50	0.30	0.3

2.6.1.4 Carrier concentration in intrinsic semiconductor

The charge carrier in semiconductors are regarded as free carriers which are actually electrons and holes. The carrier concentration in thermal equilibrium condition is the steady-state condition at a given temperature without any external condition (such as light pressure or electric field) at given temperature increase the excitation potential of electrons. This results in the excitation of electrons from the valence band to the conduction band and subsequent creation of an equal number of holes in the valence band. In order to determine the number of free carriers we need to make use of some basic result of statistical physics. The probability that an electron occupies an electronic state with energy E is given by the Fermi Dirac distribution Function intrinsic electron or hole concentration. The Fermi energy level for the intrinsic semiconductor is called the intrinsic Fermi energy, or $E_F = E_{Fi}$. The equation intrinsic can be written as:

$$n_0 = n_i = N_C \exp \left[\frac{-(E_C - E_{Fi})}{kT} \right] \quad (2.12)$$

And

$$p_0 = p_i = N_V \exp \left[\frac{-(E_{Fi} - E_V)}{kT} \right] \quad (2.13)$$

Where

n_0 Electron density in thermal equilibrium.

p_0 Hole density in thermal equilibrium.

n_i Intrinsic carrier density of electron.

N_V Effective density of states in the valence band.

N_C Effective density of states in the conduction band.

p_i Intrinsic carrier density of hole.

E_C Conduction band energy.

E_V Valence band energy.

E_{Fi} Intrinsic Fermi energy.

If we take product of equations (2.12) and (2.13) we obtain

$$n_i^2 = N_C N_V \exp \left[\frac{-(E_C - E_{Fi})}{kT} \right] \exp \left[\frac{-(E_{Fi} - E_V)}{kT} \right] \quad (2.14)$$

Or

$$n_i^2 = N_c N_v \exp\left[\frac{-(E_c - E_v)}{kT}\right] = N_c N_v \exp\left[\frac{-E_g}{kT}\right] \quad (2.15)$$

2.6.1.5 Electron concentration in the conduction band:-

The number of free electrons per unit volume in an energy range E and $E + dE$ can be written as:

$$dn = D(E)f(E)dE \quad (2.16)$$

Where $D(E)$ is the density of states defined as the total number of allowed electronic states per unit volume in a semiconductor and $f(E)$ is the Fermi distribution function representing the probability of occupation of a state with energy E . The expression for $f(E)$ is given by

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{\exp\left[\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right] + 1} \quad (2.17)$$

where

$$D(E) = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m)^{3/2} E^{1/2} \quad (2.18)$$

Using Eq(2.17) and (2.18) we obtain:

$$dn = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m)^{3/2} E^{1/2} f(E) dE \quad (2.19)$$

Therefore in Eq(2.19), E must be replaced by $(E - E_c)$. Thus Eq.(2.19) becomes

$$dn = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_n^*)^{3/2} (E - E_c)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\exp\left[\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right] + 1} dE \quad (2.20)$$

Where m_n^* is the effective mass of the electron in the conduction band. The concentration of electron, n , in the conduction band is obtained by integrating Eq(2.20) from $E = E_c$ to $E = \infty$

$$n = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_n^*)^{3/2} \int_{E_c}^{\infty} \frac{(E - E_c)^{1/2}}{\exp\left[\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right] + 1} dE \quad (2.21)$$

Now near room temperature, $kT = 0.026$ eV. Therefore, for energies greater than E_c , we have

$$1 + \exp\left[\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right] \cong \exp\left[\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right] \quad (2.22)$$

$$n = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_n^*)^{3/2} \int_{E_c}^{\infty} (E - E_c)^{1/2} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E - E_F}{kT}\right)\right] dE \quad (2.23)$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_n^*)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_F - E_c}{kT}\right) \int_{E_c}^{\infty} (E - E_c)^{1/2} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E - E_c}{kT}\right)\right] dE \quad (2.24)$$

Let

$$\frac{E - E_C}{KT} = x \therefore dE = KT dx, \text{ for } E = E_C, X = 0$$

$$n = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_n^*)^{\frac{3}{2}} \exp\left(\frac{E_F - E_C}{KT}\right) \int_0^\infty x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx \quad (2.25)$$

Now

$$\int_0^\infty x^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-x} dx = \left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (2.26)$$

$$\therefore n = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_n^*}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{KT}\right)\right] \quad (2.27)$$

From Eq.(2.27) , the probability of occupancy of level E_C is given by

$$f(E_C) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{KT}\right)} \cong \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{KT}\right)\right] \quad (2.28)$$

Therefore Eq.(3.21) becomes

$$n = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_n^* KT}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} f(E_C) \quad (2.29)$$

Denoting it by N_C , we have

$$n = N_C \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{KT}\right)\right] \quad (2.30)$$

where

$$N_C = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_n^* KT}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (2.31)$$

2.6.1.6 Holes Concentration in the Valence Band

An expression for the number of hole per unit volume in the energy range E and $E + dE$ can be written as:

$$dp = D(E) [1 - f(E)] dE \quad (2.32)$$

Where we have replaced $f(E)$ by $[1 - f(E)]$ which represent the probability of an energy state E not to be occupied by an electron, the probability of finding a hole in the energy state E .

Now

$$1 - f(E) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{KT}\right)} = \frac{\exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{KT}\right)}{1 + \exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{KT}\right)} \quad (2.33)$$

In the valence band, since $E < E_F$ the exponential term in the denominator may be neglected in comparison to unity. Thus, we get:

$$1 - f(E) \cong \exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{KT}\right) \quad (2.34)$$

it follows that the probability of finding holes decreases exponentially with increase in depth into the valence band. Also, the kinetic energy of a hole the energy state E in the valence band is $(E_V - E)$. Therefore the density of state per unit volume can be written as:

$$D(E) = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^*)^{3/2} (E_V - E)^{1/2} \quad (2.35)$$

Where m_p^* is the effective mass of a hole in the valence band using Eq.(2.35) and (2.23) in Eq.(2.25) and integrating from $E = -\infty$ to $E = E_V$, we obtain the hole concentration in the valence band as:

$$p = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^*)^{3/2} \int_{-\infty}^{E_V} (E_V - E)^{1/2} \exp\left(\frac{E - E_F}{KT}\right) dE \quad (2.36)$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^*)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_V - E_F}{KT}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{E_V} (E_V - E)^{1/2} dE \quad (2.37)$$

Let

$$\frac{E_V - E}{KT}, \quad dE = -KT dx \quad \text{for } E = E_V, \quad x = 0$$

$$\therefore p = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^*)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_V - E_F}{KT}\right) \int_{\infty}^0 x^{1/2} KT^{1/2} e^{-x} (-KT) dx =$$

$$\frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^*)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_V - E_F}{KT}\right) (KT)^{3/2} \int_0^{\infty} x^{1/2} e^{-x} dx =$$

$$\frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_p^* KT)^{3/2} \exp\left(\frac{E_V - E_F}{KT}\right) \left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\therefore p = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_p^* KT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_F - E_C}{KT} \right) \right] \quad (2.38)$$

Or

$$p = N_V \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_F - E_V}{KT} \right) \right] \quad (2.39)$$

Where

$$N_V = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_p^* KT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \quad (2.40)$$

The electron and hole concentrations given by Eqs(2.30)and (2.39)

respectively are valid for Both intrinsic and extrinsic materials. For intrinsic materials, these equations can also be written as:

$$n_i = N_C \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_C - E_i}{KT} \right) \right], \quad p_i = N_V \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_i - E_V}{KT} \right) \right] \quad (2.41)$$

2.6.1.7 Fermi Level

Foran intrinsicsemiconductor $n = p = n_i$. Therefore from Eqs.(2.30)and(2.39)

$$N_C \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_C - E_F}{KT} \right) \right] = N_V \exp \left[- \left(\frac{E_F - E_V}{KT} \right) \right] \quad (2.42)$$

$$\exp \left(\frac{2E_F - E_C - E_V}{KT} \right) = \frac{N_V}{N_C}$$

Or

$$\frac{2E_F - E_C - E_V}{KT} = \ln \left(\frac{N_V}{N_C} \right) \quad (2.43)$$

$$E_F = E_i = \frac{E_C + E_V}{2} + \frac{KT}{2} \ln \left(\frac{N_V}{N_C} \right) \quad (2.44)$$

Using Eqs.(3.23) and(3.29) in Eq.(3.32) we obtain

$$E_F = \frac{E_C + E_V}{2} + \frac{3}{4} KT \ln \left(\frac{m_p^*}{m_n^*} \right) \quad (2.45)$$

At Ok the Fermi level lies in the middle of the conduction band and valenceband as shown in figure 3.2. This is also true at all other

temperatures provided $m_p^* = m_n^*$.

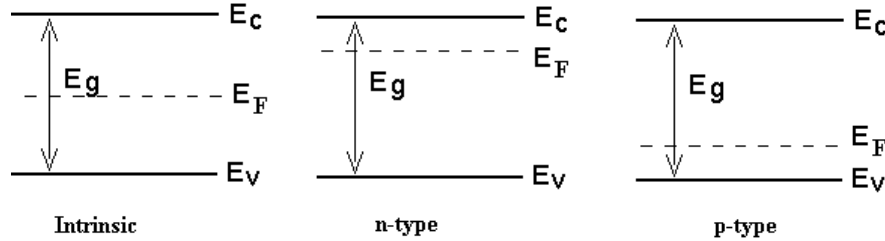


Figure 2.2 position of Fermi level in intrinsic, n and p type

(2.6.1.8) Position of Fermi Level

We discussed qualitatively in this section how the electron and hole

concentrations change as the Fermi energy level moves through the band gap energy. Then we calculated the electron and hole concentration as a function of donor and acceptor impurity concentrations. We can determine the position of the Fermi energy level as a function of the doping concentration and a function of temperature. The position of the Fermi energy level within the band gap can be determined using equations developed for the thermal-equilibrium electron and hole concentration. If we assume the Boltzmann approximation to be valid, then we have

$$n_0 = N_c \exp[-(E_c - E_F)] / kT \quad (2.46)$$

We can solve for $E_c - E_F$ from this equation and obtain:

$$E_c - E_F = kT \ln \left(\frac{N_c}{n_0} \right) \quad (2.47)$$

When n_0 is given by Eq (2.43). If we consider an n-type semiconductor in which $N_d \gg n_i$, then $n_0 = N_d$ so that

$$E_c - E_F = kT \ln \left(\frac{N_c}{N_d} \right) \quad (2.48)$$

The distance between the bottom of conduction band and the Fermi

Energy is a logarithmic function of the donor concentration. As the donor concentration increases, the Fermi level moves closer to the conduction band and conversely. We may develop a slightly

different expression for the position of the Fermi level. We had from Equation (2.1)

$$n_0 = n_i \exp\left[\frac{E_F - E_{Fi}}{kT}\right] \quad (2.49)$$

We can solve $E_F - E_{Fi}$ for as

$$E_F - E_{Fi} = kT \ln \frac{n_0}{n_i} \quad (2.50)$$

If the net effective donor concentration is zero, that $N_d - N_a = 0$, then $n_0 = n_i$ and $E_F = E_{Fi}$. We can derive the same types of p-type semiconductor we have

$$p_0 = N_V \exp\left[-\left(\frac{E_F - E_V}{kT}\right)\right] \quad (2.51)$$

So that

$$E_F - E_V = kT \ln\left(\frac{N_V}{p_0}\right) \quad (2.52)$$

If we assume that $N_a \gg n_i$ then Equation (2.49) can be written as

$$E_F - E_V = kT \ln\left(\frac{N_V}{N_a}\right) \quad (2.53)$$

The distance between the Fermi energy level and the top of the valence band energy for a p-type semiconductor is a logarithmic function of the acceptor concentration as the acceptor concentration increases, the Fermi level moves closer to the valence band. We can also derive an expression for the distance between the Fermi level and the intrinsic Fermi level in terms of the hole concentration we have

$$p_0 = n_i \exp\left[-\frac{E_F - E_{Fi}}{kT}\right] \quad (2.54)$$

Which yields

$$E_{Fi} - E_F = kT \ln \frac{p_0}{n_i} \quad (2.55)$$

Equation (2.55) can be used to find the difference between the intrinsic Fermi and Fermi energy in terms of the acceptor concentration.

2.6.1.9 Electron and hole mobility

The average velocity of the carriers is no longer zero when an electric field is applied to the semiconductor. This non zero velocity is called the drift velocity. The drift velocity is superimposed on the thermal motion. The drift velocity is so much more important than the thermal velocity in semiconductor device. A faster carrier velocity is desirable, for it allows a semiconductor device or circuit to have higher speed. We can develop a model for the drift velocity. Consider the case for holes. Assume that the mean free time between collisions is τ_{mp} and that the carrier loses its entire drift momentum, $m_p v$, after each collision. The drift momentum gained between collisions is equal to the force, qE , times the mean free time. Equating the loss to the gain, we can find the steady state drift velocity, v

$$m_p v = qE\tau_{mp} \quad (2.56)$$

$$v = \frac{qE\tau_{mp}}{m_p} \quad (2.57)$$

Where τ_{mp} mean free time between collision for holes, E is electric field, v is velocity. Eq.(2.2) is usually written as [12]:

$$v = \mu_p E$$

Where

$$\mu_p = \frac{q\tau_{mp}}{m_p} \quad (2.58)$$

Equation (2.58) simply says that the drift velocity is proportional to the electric field. The proportionality constant μ_p is the hole mobility, a metric of how mobile the holes are. Similarly, electron drift velocity and electron mobility are:

$$v = -\mu_n E \quad (2.59)$$

$$\mu_n = \frac{q\tau_{mn}}{m_n} \quad (2.60)$$

The negative sign in Eq. (2.59) means that the electrons drift in a direction opposite to the field. They do so because the electron is negatively charged. We should memorize the restatements rather than the negative sign. Carrier mobility has the same dimension as v/E , i.e., $cm^2/V \cdot s$. Table 4.1 shows some mobility values. Notice that GaAs has a much higher μ_n than Si (due to a smaller m_n). Thus, higher-speed transistors can be made with GaAs, which are typically used in communications equipment. InAs has an even higher μ_n , but the technology of fabricating InAs devices has not yet been fully developed [12].

Mobility	Si	Ge	GeAs
$\mu_n (cm^2/V \cdot s)$	1400	3900	8500
$\mu_p (cm^2/V \cdot s)$	470	1900	400

Table 2.2 Electron and hole mobility at room temperature of selected a lightly doped semiconductors.

2.1.7 Extrinsic Semiconductor

Extrinsic semiconductor is an impurity semiconductor that is required new Properties after added defects atoms. Extrinsic semiconductor are basically of two types :

2.1.7.1 N-type semiconductor:

It's a material defected by the acceptor atoms, and it's semiconductor which the number of electrons large than the number of holes. The doping atoms added to the semiconductor crystal in this case are donor atoms. For germanium, we can use phosphorus (P), arsenic (As) or antimony (Sb) as donors. These are column V elements, with five electrons in their outermost shell. When these atoms are included in the germanium crystal, one of the electrons in this shell can easily jump to the conduction band, leaving a positively charged atom behind. This process is sometimes called "activation" or "ionization" of the donor atoms. Figure 2.3a shows the required "activation" energies for these atoms in silicon; you can see that these are very small compared to the silicon band gap. The positively charged donor atom that is left behind after ionization is immobile and does not contribute to conduction. The electron leaving the atom by ionization does, and is counted in the electron concentration n . Because the activation energy is low, at room temperature almost all of the donor atoms included in the crystal will give an electron to the conduction band. So if N_D is the donor concentration, for an n-type material at equilibrium:

$$n_0 \approx N_D \left(\frac{1}{cm^3} \right) \quad (2.61)$$

Where n_0 is thermal equilibrium concentration, N_D is donor concentration [4].

2.1.7.2 P-type Semiconductor

It's a material defected by the donor atoms and it's the semiconductor contains the number of the holes large than number of electron [6]. Semiconductors boron (B), Aluminum (Al)

and Gallium (Ga) as acceptors. These are column III the doping atoms in this case are acceptor atoms. For germanium, we can use elements, with three electrons in their outermost shell. When these atoms are included in the germanium crystal, one of the electrons in the germanium valence band can easily jump to the valence shell of one of the acceptor atoms, leaving a hole behind and making the acceptor atom negatively charged. Figure 2.2 shows where the valence shell energy level is for these atoms relative to the germanium valence band. The negatively charged acceptor atom after an electron joins its valence shell is immobile and does not contribute to conduction. The hole left behind by that electron does, and is counted in the hole concentration. Because the activation energy is low, at room temperature almost all of the acceptor atoms included in the crystal will accept an electron from the valence band. So if N_A is the acceptor concentration, for a p-type material at equilibrium:

2.2 Carrier Transport Phenomena

We considered the semiconductor in equilibrium and determined electron and hole concentration in the conduction and valence band respectively. A knowledge of the densities of these charged particles is important toward an understanding of the electrical properties of this semiconductor material. The net flow of the electrons and holes in a semiconductor will generate currents. The process by which these charged particles move is called transport. The carrier transport phenomena are the foundation for finally determining the current-voltage characteristics of

semiconductor devices .We consider two basic transport mechanisms crystal.

2.2.1 The drift:

The movement of charge caused by an electric field produces drift current which is function of the concentration of the electrons and holes and also function of the net drift velocity of this charge carrier . The average drift velocity of a carrier is related to the electric field by a parameter called mobility. The mobility gives indication of how well a carrier move in a semiconductor.

2.2.2 Drift Current

The current that flows in a semiconductor as a result of carrier drift the current density, J , is the charge per second crossing a unit area plane normal to the direction of current flow in the P-type semiconductor by unit of area. The whole current density is:

$$j_{p,drift} = qp v \quad (2.62)$$

but
$$v = \mu_p E \quad (2.63)$$

where E is electric field and v is drift velocity and μ_p is hole mobility.

$E q$ (2.64) becomes

$$j_{p,drift} = qp \mu_p \quad (2.64)$$

Similarly, the electron current density can be expressed

as
$$j_{n,drift} = qn v = qn \mu_n E \quad (2.65)$$

The total drift current density is the sum of the electron and the hole components:

$$j_{drift} = j_{p,drift} + j_{n,drift} = (p\mu_p + qn\mu_n)E \quad (2.66)$$

conductivity
$$\sigma = p\mu_p + q n\mu_n \quad j_{drift} = \sigma E \quad (2.67)$$

$$\text{Resistivity } \rho = 1/\sigma = 1/(p\mu_p + q\mu_n) \quad (2.68)$$

Where j_p hole current density, j_n electron current density

2.2.3 The diffusion

Is the process whereby particles flow from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration. If these particles are charged. As electrons or holes, then the diffusion of these particles lead to a diffusion current. The diffusion current density is related to the gradient of the carrier concentration by a parameter called the diffusion coefficient. The diffusion coefficient gives an indication of how well a particle diffuses through a semiconductor due to a density gradient.

2.2.4 Diffusion Current

In addition to the drift current, there is a second component of current called the diffusion current. Diffusion current is generally not important consideration in metals because of their high conductivities. The low conductivity and the ease of creating non uniform carrier densities make diffusion an important process in semiconductors. Diffusion is the result of particles undergoing the normal motion as depicted. It is the familiar process by which particles move from a point of higher particle density to ward a point to lower density. It is known that the rate of particle movement by diffusion is proportional to the concentration gradient. If the electron concentration is not uniform, there will be an electron diffusion current, which is proportional to the gradient of the electron concentration.

$$j_{n,diffusion} \propto \frac{dn}{dx} \quad j_{n,diffusion} = qD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad (2.69)$$

Where D_n is electron diffusion, for holes:

$$j_{p,diffusion} = -qD_p \frac{dp}{dx} \quad (2.70)$$

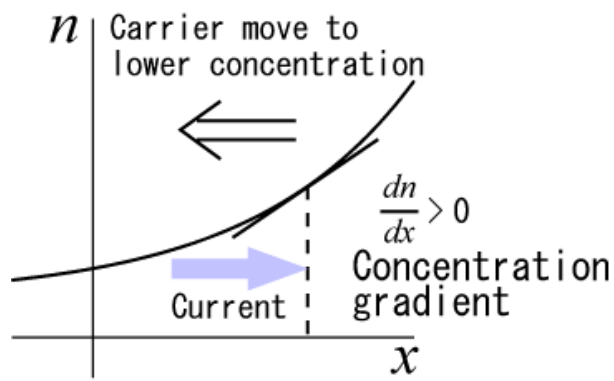
Equation (2.69) has a negative sign, while Eq. (2.70) has a positive sign. In stead of memorizing the signs, memorize, (a) shows positive dn/dx (n increased as x increased) and (b) shows

appositive dp/dx in (a), electrons diffuse to the left (to ward the lower concentration point). Because electrons carrying active charge, the current flows to the right .In(b), hole diffuse to the left, too. Because holes are positively charged, the hole current flows to the left ,i.e the current negative. In general, both drift and diffusion may contribute to the current. Therefore,

$$j_n = j_{n.drift} + j_{n.diffusion} = qn\mu_n E + qD_n \frac{dn}{dx} \quad (2.71)$$

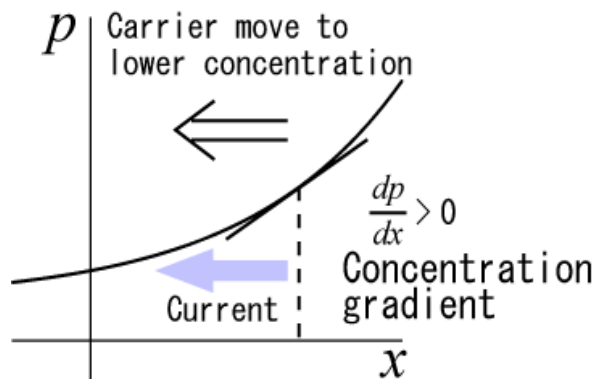
$$j_p = j_{p.drift} + j_{p.diffusion} = qp\mu_p E - qD_p \frac{dp}{dx} \quad (2.72)$$

$$j = j_n + j_p$$



(a)

Figure 2.3 A positive slope of carrier concentration produce positive electron diffusion current (a).



(b)

Figure 2.4A negative slope of carrier concentration produce a negative hole diffusion current (b).

Chapter Three

The Practical Part

3.1 Introduction

Germanium Ge is a chemical element with symbol Ge and atomic number 32. It is a lustrous, hard, grayish-white metalloid in the carbon group, chemically similar to its group neighbors tin and silicon. Pure germanium is a semiconductor with an appearance similar to elemental silicon. Like silicon, germanium naturally reacts and forms complexes with oxygen in nature. Unlike silicon, it is too reactive to be found naturally on Earth in the free state. Germanium was discovered comparatively late in the history of chemistry. Germanium ranks fiftieth in relative abundance of the elements in the Earth's crust. In 1869, Dmitri Mendeleev predicted its properties from its position in his periodic table.

3.2 Physical properties of germanium

Atomic number	32
Group block	Group 14 (carbon group)
Period	Period 4
Element category	metalloid
Standard atomic weight (\pm) (Ar)	72.63
Electron configuration	[Ar] 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p ²

Vapor pressure

P(Pa)	1	10	100	1K	10K	100K
At T (K)	1440	1814	2023	2287	2633	3104

Atomic properties

Oxidation state	4,3,2,1,0,-1,-2,-3 Amphoteric oxide
Electro negativity	Pauling scale:2.01
Ionization energies	1 st :762 kJ/mol 2 nd :1537.5 kJ/mol 3 rd :3302.1 kJ/mol
Atomic radius	Empirical: 122pm
Covalent radius	122 pm
Van deer Waals radius	211 pm

3.1.2 Germanium Production

Germanium is found in rawest germanate, but it's got out accidental output from the many mining operation, like the charcoal burning operations and the dusts of zinc smelting flues, it's separated and purified from the metallic faults by the fractional distillation of quadrilateral chloride.

3.1.3 Applications

Germanium is an important semiconductor, mainly used in transistors and integrated circuits. They are often made from germanium to which small amounts of arsenic, gallium, or other metals. Germanium forms many compounds, germanium oxide is added to glass to increase the index of refraction, and such glass is used in wide-angle lenses and infrared devices. Numerous alloys containing germanium have been prepared. High purity germanium single crystal detectors can precisely identify radiation source (eg for airport security). The major end use for germanium in 2007, worldwide were estimated to be: 35% for fiber-optics, 30% infrared optics, 15% polymerization catalysts and 15% electronics and electric applications and solar electric applications. The remaining 5% went into such uses as phosphorus metallurgy, and chemotherapy.

3.2 The practical study

Objective

Determination of electrical conductivity of germanium (diode) by the heating.

Principle and task

The electrical conductivity of the germanium as a function of temperature

Instruments

Power supply, heating furnace, galvanometer, germanium test piece (diode), resistances box, thermometer, connecting cord.

The method

In this experiment was used test-piece of germanium (diode), then done connected all the devices and choose resistance (200Ω) from the resistances box and opened the heater furnace, then the diode was begun warm up gradually and inscribed the analogous resistance of each point with each temperature by the rule:

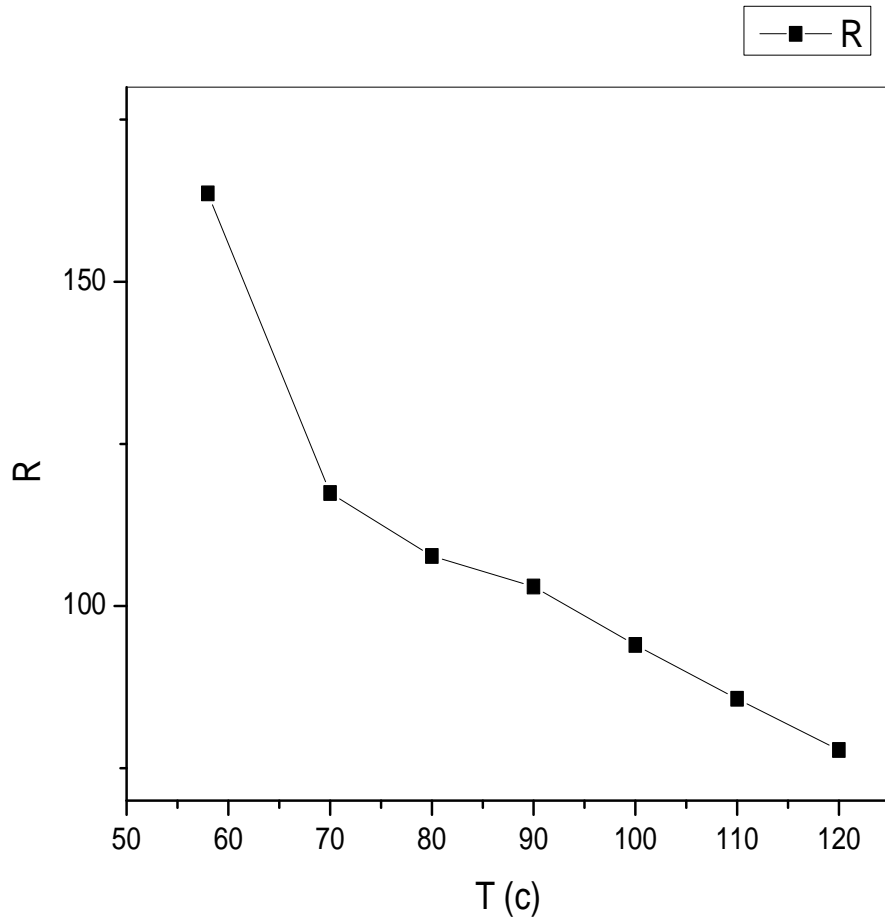
$$R_t = (L_2/L_1) R$$

Where R_t is resistance at $t = \dots^\circ\text{C}$.

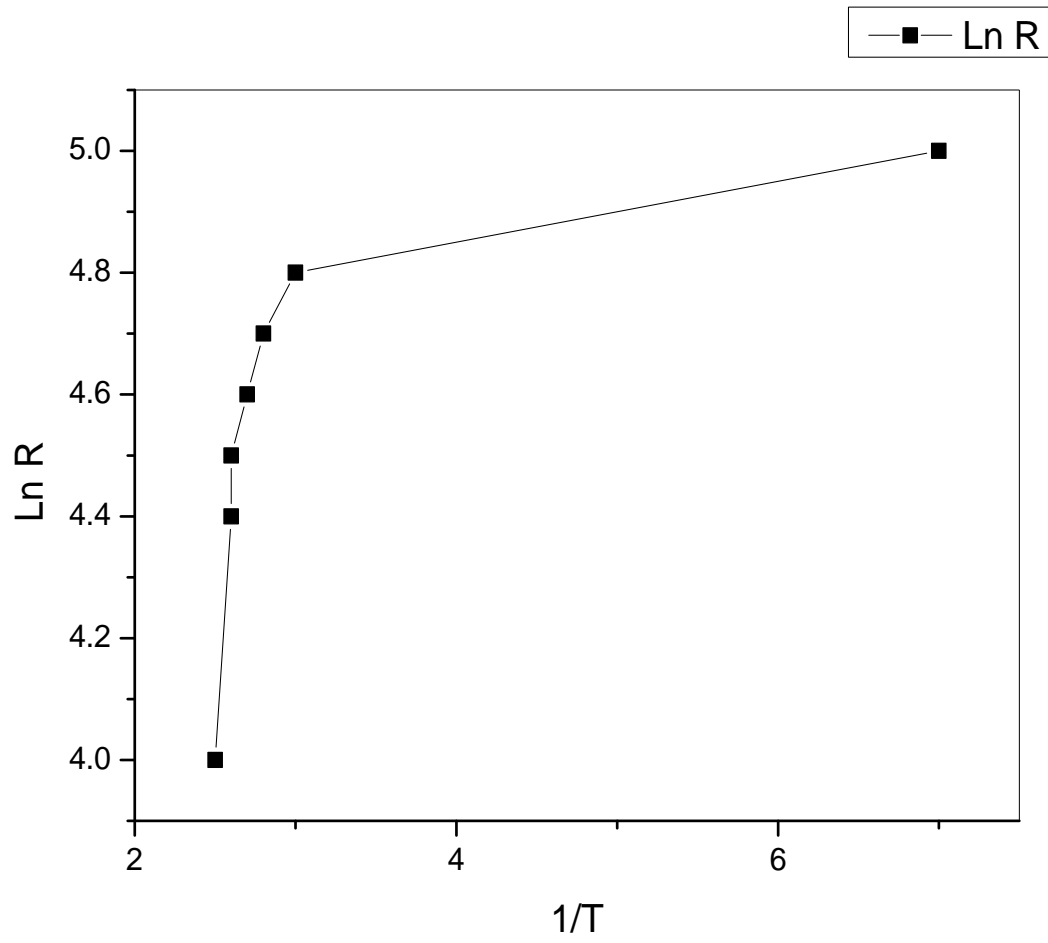
L_1 and L_2 are length, $R = 200\Omega$.

Results

No	L_1/cm	L_2/cm	$t/^\circ\text{C}$	R_t/Ω	$k^\circ(t+273)$	$\ln R_t$	$1/T \text{ K}^{-1}$
1	55	54	58	163.6	131	5	0.007
2	63	37	70	117.4	343	4.8	0.003
3	65	35	80	107.7	353	4.7	0.0028
4	66	34	90	103	363	4.6	0.0027
5	68	32	100	94	373	4.5	0.0026
6	70	30	110	85.7	383	4.4	0.0025
7	72	28	120	77.8	393	4	0.0024



Graphic 3. 1 shows the relation between the resistance R (Ω) and temperature t($^{\circ}$)



Graph 3.2 show the relation between $\ln (R_t)$ and $1/T$ (K⁻¹)

Discussion

The table indicates to the relation between the resistivity and temperature is inverting relation, sense increasing temperature is decrease the resistance and increase the electrical conductivity of the substance .where we was can achieved one of the research aims , It's beneficial from the heat in the converting the semiconductor substance to conductor substance by the heating. Graphic diagram noting to the exponential relation between temperature and electrical conductivity, and it's not depend on $T^{3/2}$ from equations, also was founded the energy gap less by increasing temperature.

Recommendations

1. Focusing in the application study in these disciplines.
2. Opened scope of germanium integrated circuits in Sudan and dispenses anent importation of this integrated circuits.

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