

# **PHYS3080 – Part II**

## **Semiconductors 5/Superconductors 1**

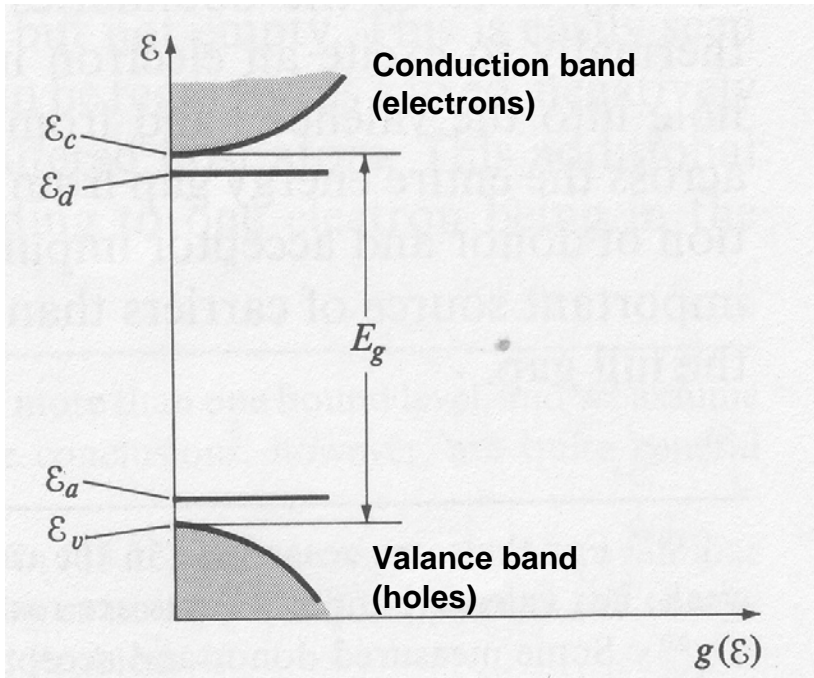
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**Contact times:**      **6-7pm Wednesday**  
                                 **9-10am Thursday**

# Thermal excitation of carriers



← Calculation of number of charge carriers at any temperature  $T$ , makes use of this diagram

Notation

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1}$$

↑

Some textbooks refer to this term as the chemical potential,  $\mu$ , while others refer to it as  $E_f$  or  $\epsilon_f$ .

Either is fine but note that in statistical mechanics Fermi level  $\epsilon_f$  describes  $\mu$  specifically at  $T=0$ .

# Carrier concentration of electrons

We apply Fermi-Dirac statistics to the appropriate set of 1 electron levels  
Certain relations hold regardless of impurity and we start with those

Impurity levels produce new bands below/above the conduction band/valance bands, but conduction is entirely from  $e^-$  in conduction band and  $h^+$  in the valance band so regardless of impurities, total number of carriers (electrons in this example) are

$$n(T) = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} f(E) g(E) dE$$

Impurities effect  $n$ , only through  $\mu$  used in  $f(E)$

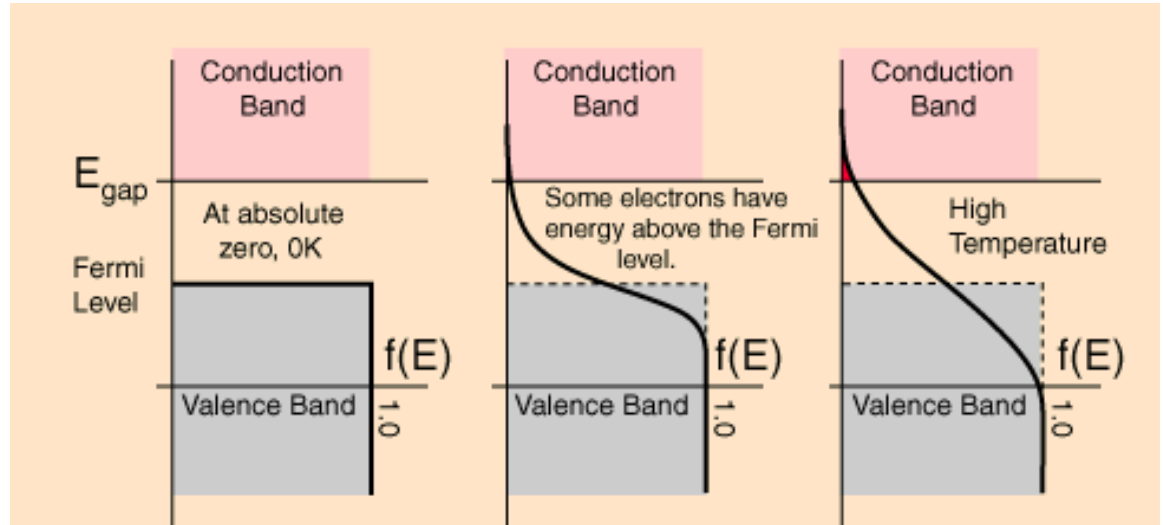
Probability of occupation of electron states at temperature  $T$  (the Fermi function)

Density of electron states in the *conduction* band

# Fermi distribution

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} f(E) g(E) dE$$

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1}$$



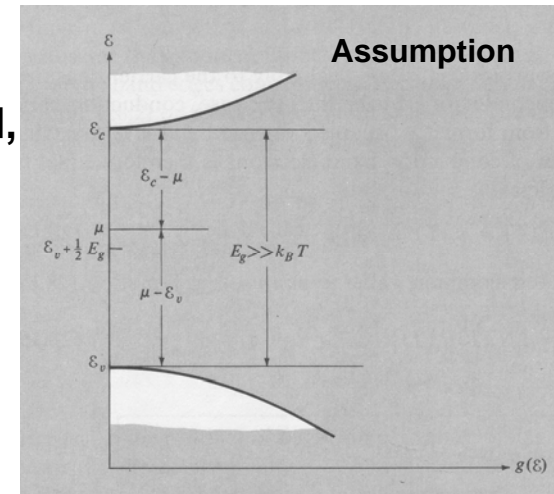
Fermi distribution  $f(E)$  is the probability of occupation of a state of energy  $E$  at a given temperature  $T$ . The chemical potential,  $\mu$ , adjusts to give the correct number of particles.

At room temperature,  $E_g \gg k_B T$

So  $f(E) \sim 1$  in valence band and is very small in conduction band, so we assume that  $\mu$  is far from  $E_c$  (cf  $k_B T$ ) and thus make the following approximation for  $f(E)$ ;

For an electron in the conduction band,  $E - \mu \gg k_B T$

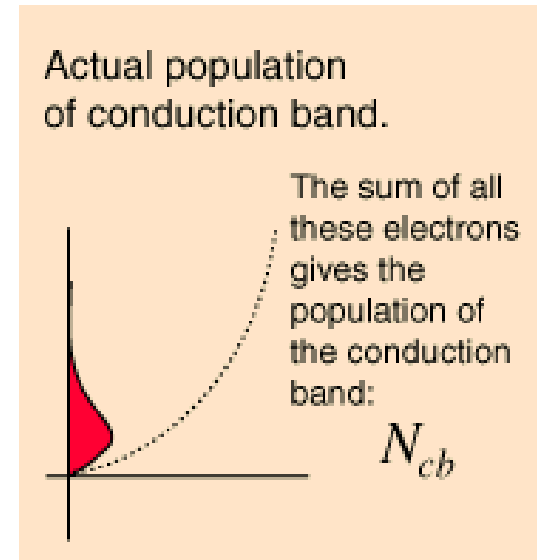
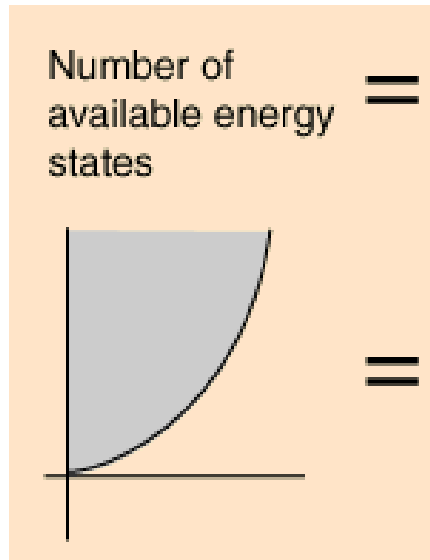
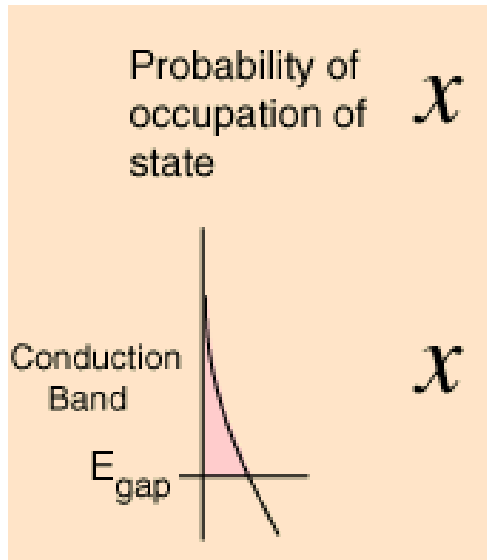
So  $e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} \gg 1$  and  $f(E) \approx e^{(\mu-E)/k_B T}$



# Carrier concentration of electrons

$$n = \int_{E_c}^{\infty} f(E)g(E)dE \approx \int_{E_c}^{\infty} e^{(\mu-E)/k_B T} (2m_e)^{3/2} (E - E_c)^{1/2} dE$$

$$n = N_C e^{(\mu-E_c)/k_B T}, \text{ where } N_C = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_e k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$



$N_C$  is the effective number of levels per unit volume in the conduction band if we assume they are all concentrated at the bottom of the band,  $E=E_c$

# Carrier concentration of holes

The probability that a state in the valance band is occupied by a hole is  $1-f(E)$ , which can be written

$$1 - f(E) = 1 - \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1} = \frac{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T}}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1} = \frac{1}{e^{(\mu-E)/k_B T} + 1}$$

For  $\mu-E \gg k_B T$ , the above equation can be approximated, in a similar manner to the electron case, as  $1 - f(E) \approx e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T}$

So, the number of holes in the valance band is

$$p = \int_{-\infty}^{E_V} [1 - f(E)] g(E) dE = \int_{-\infty}^{E_V} (2m_h)^{3/2} (E_V - E)^{1/2} e^{(E_V - \mu)/k_B T} dE$$

$$p = N_V e^{-(\mu - E_V)/k_B T}, \quad \text{where } N_V = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_h k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

$N_V$  is the effective number of levels per unit volume in the valance band if we assume they are all concentrated at the bottom of the band,  $E=E_V$

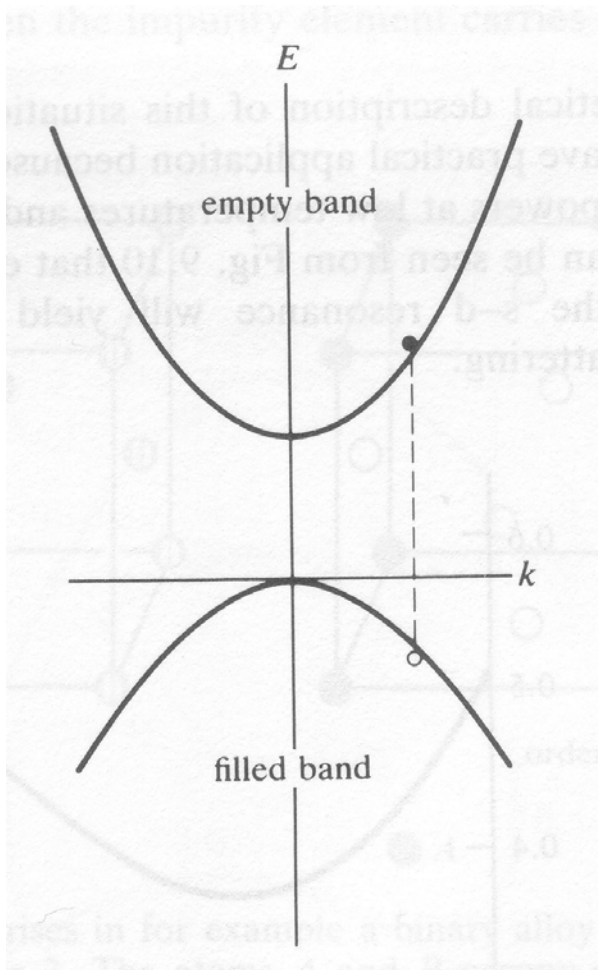
# Law of Mass Action

We still need to know  $\mu$ , to infer  $n(T)$  or  $p(T)$  but the  $\mu$  dependence disappears if we multiply the two densities together

$$\begin{aligned} np &= N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T} N_V e^{-(\mu - E_V)/k_B T} \\ &= N_C N_V e^{-(E_C - E_V)/k_B T} = N_C N_V e^{-E_g/k_B T} \end{aligned}$$

- So if you know one carrier density you know the other
- What this says is that at any fixed temperature there is a equilibrium between the number of carriers thermally generated and number lost due to electron-hole recombination (called annihilation)
- Note that *np is independent of  $\mu$ , and so independent of impurity concentration*. The if more electrons are added via additional dopants, the number of holes will be reduced via annihilation, keeping  $np$  constant

# Intrinsic behaviour



$$np = N_C N_V e^{-E_g/k_B T} = n_i^2$$

where  $n_i$  is the electron concentration for an *intrinsic* semiconductor

$$\text{so } n_i = p_i = \sqrt{N_C N_V e^{-E_g/k_B T}} = \sqrt{N_C N_V} e^{-E_g/2k_B T}$$

We can now establish the validity of our initial  $E_c - \mu \gg k_B T$  assumption by determining the intrinsic chemical potential  $\mu_i$



# Chemical potential of an **intrinsic** semiconductor

We have already determined that,

$$n = N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T} \quad \text{and} \quad p = N_V e^{-(\mu - E_V)/k_B T} \quad \text{and since } n_i = p_i$$

$$N_C e^{(\mu_i - E_C)/k_B T} = N_V e^{-(\mu_i - E_V)/k_B T} \Rightarrow \frac{N_V}{N_C} = e^{(2\mu_i - E_g)/k_B T}$$

thus we re-arrange to give the chemical potential,

$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{2} E_g + \frac{1}{2} k_B T \ln(N_V / N_C)$$

since  $N_V = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_h k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$ ,  $N_C = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi m_e k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}$

gives  $\mu_i = \frac{1}{2} E_g + \frac{3}{4} k_B T \ln(m_h / m_e) \longrightarrow$

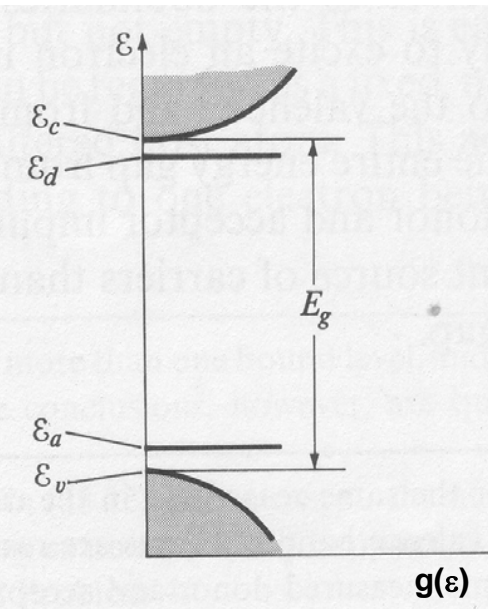
so, as  $T \rightarrow 0$   $\mu_i \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} E_g$

Since  $\ln(m_h / m_e)$  is of order 1,  $\mu_i$  will not stray further than  $k_B T$  from the centre of the bandgap, therefore our initial assumption that  $E_C - \mu \gg k_B T$  is valid for intrinsic semiconductors (bandgaps typically 0.5-1 eV)

# Extrinsic semiconductor

For extrinsic semiconductors the value of  $\mu(T)$  is different from  $1/2E_g$  and we go about determining it by considering the charge neutrality of the semiconductor

**Charge neutrality  $\rightarrow n + N_A^- = p + N_D^+$**



$$N_D^+ = N_D [1 - f(E_C - E_D)] = N_D \frac{1}{e^{(\mu - (E_C - E_D))/k_B T} + 1}$$

Total number of donors  $\nearrow$  Probability that state at  $E_C - E_D$  is unoccupied by an electron

$$N_A^- = N_A f(E_A - E_V) = N_A \frac{1}{e^{((E_A - E_V) - \mu)/k_B T} + 1}$$

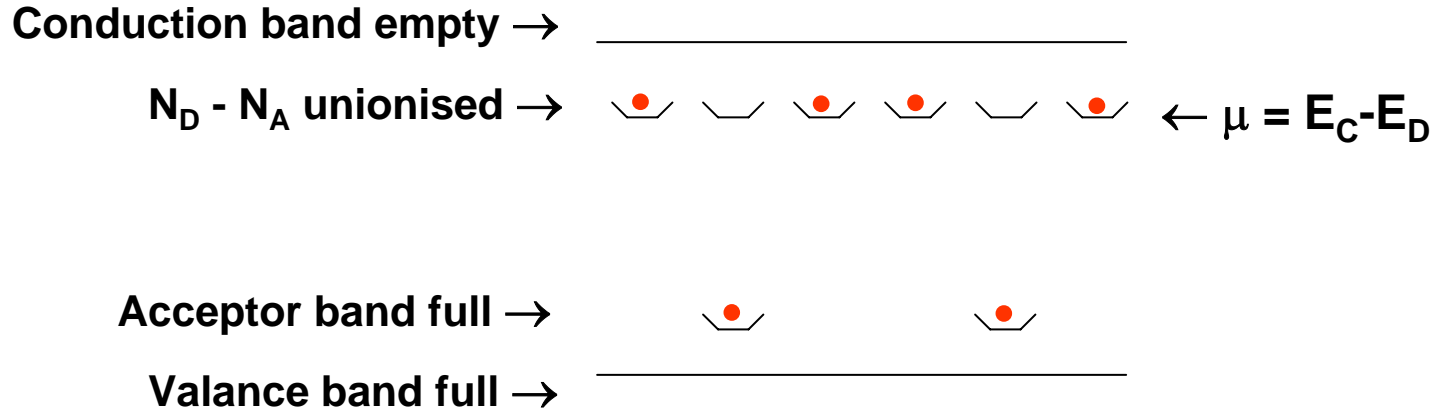
Total number of acceptors  $\nearrow$  Probability that state at  $E_A - E_V$  is occupied by an electron

$$n = N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T} \quad p = N_V e^{-(\mu - E_V)/k_B T}$$

Solving these equations to get  $\mu(T)$  is complicated so we just consider specific cases

# Chemical potential of an **extrinsic** semiconductor

If **both** types of carrier are present, e.g.  $N_D > N_A$ , at **T=0**



At **low T**,  $\mu$  is relatively unchanged and putting  $\mu = E_C - E_D$  in our equation for  $n$ , gives

$$n = N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T} \approx N_C e^{((E_C - E_D) - E_C)/k_B T} \approx N_C e^{-E_D/k_B T}$$

Comparing with  $n_i$  the intrinsic electron concentration  $n_i = \sqrt{N_C N_V} e^{-E_g/2k_B T}$

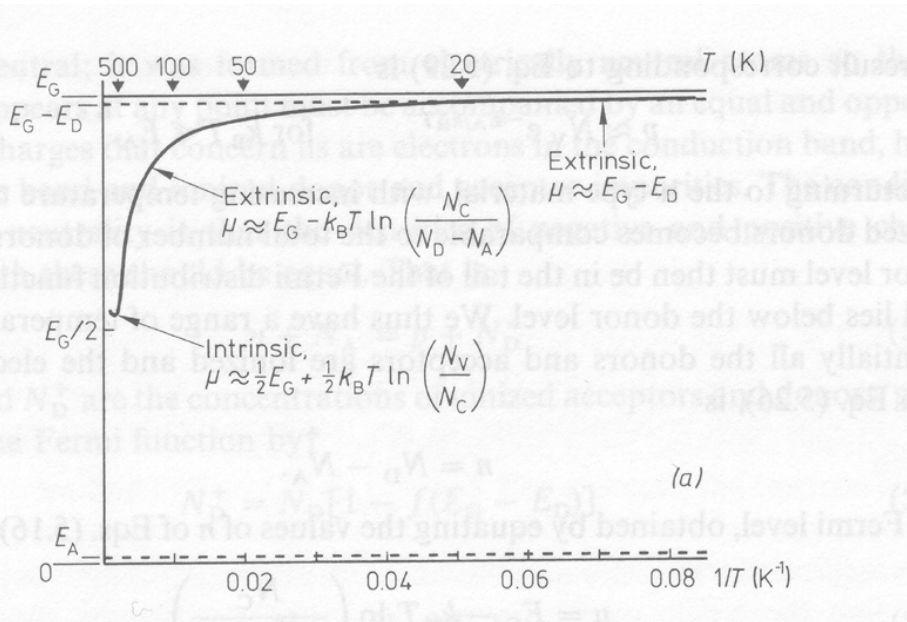
$E_D \ll E_g$  so the **extrinsic** electron concentration is much greater than the intrinsic one. From the law of mass action  $p_{\text{extrinsic}}$  must be  $\ll n_i$  so electrons are the *majority carrier* and the material is *n-type*

# Chemical potential of an **extrinsic** semiconductor

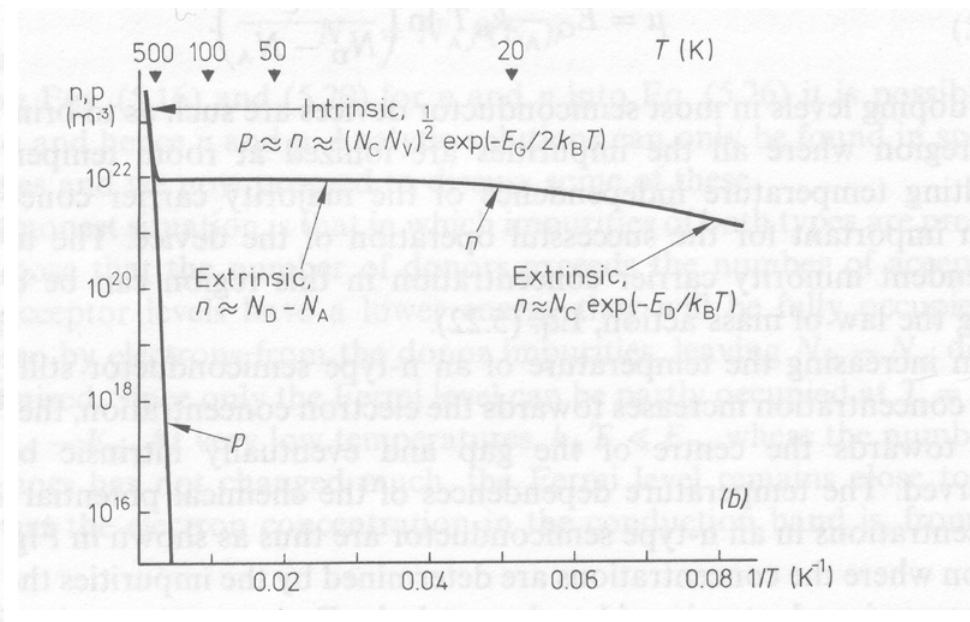
Raising the temperature , i.e. **T>0**, results in all the donors being ionised

$$n = N_D - N_A \quad \text{so, using} \quad n = N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T} = N_D - N_A$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu = E_g - k_B T \ln \left( \frac{N_C}{N_D - N_A} \right)$$



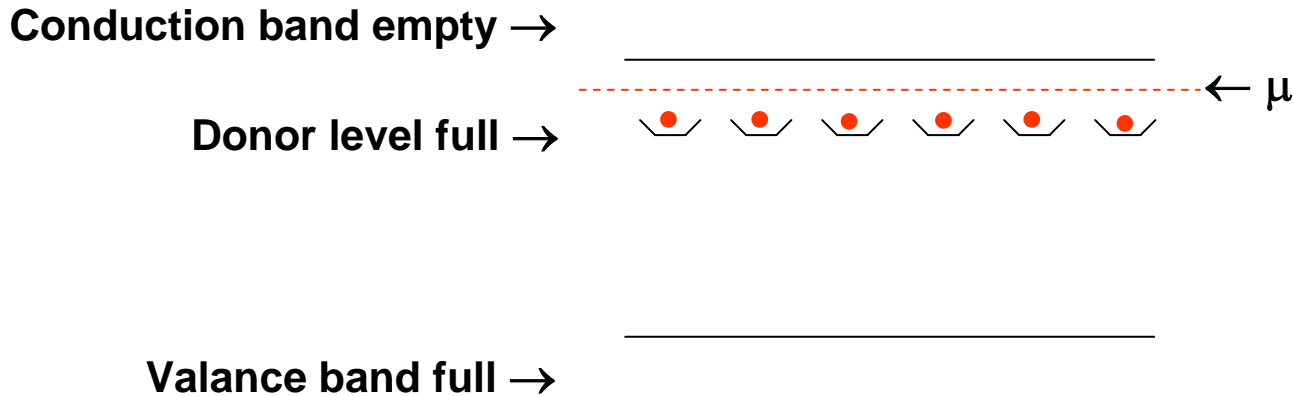
$\mu$  as a function of  $1/T$



$n$  as a function of  $1/T$

# If only one type of impurity is present

e.g. electrons, at  $T=0$  and very low  $T$



This is similar to the intrinsic case with the donor level taking the place of the valance band

$$N_D^+ = N_D [1 - f(E_C - E_D)]$$

$$1 - f(E_C - E_D) = 1 - \frac{1}{e^{((E_C - E_D) - \mu)/k_B T} + 1} = \frac{e^{((E_C - E_D) - \mu)/k_B T}}{e^{((E_C - E_D) - \mu)/k_B T} + 1} = \frac{1}{e^{(\mu - (E_C - E_D))/k_B T} + 1}$$

assuming  $(E_C - E_D) - \mu \gg k_B T \Rightarrow N_D^+ \approx N_D e^{((E_C - E_D) - \mu)/k_B T}$

Since there are no holes, electrical neutrality requires  $n = N_D^+$  so using

$n = N_C e^{(\mu - E_C)/k_B T}$  gives  $n = (N_C N_D)^{1/2} e^{-E_D/2k_B T}$  Different from both carriers case by factor of 2

# **PHYS3080 – Part II**

## **Superconductors 1**

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# Superconductivity lectures: overview

Our previous descriptions of metals and semiconductors have assumed the 'independent electron approximation' i.e. **we have ignored electron-electron interactions**. A spectacular **failure** of the independent electron approximation occurs when trying to explain the low temperature properties of **superconductors**.

**Most striking features of superconductors are**

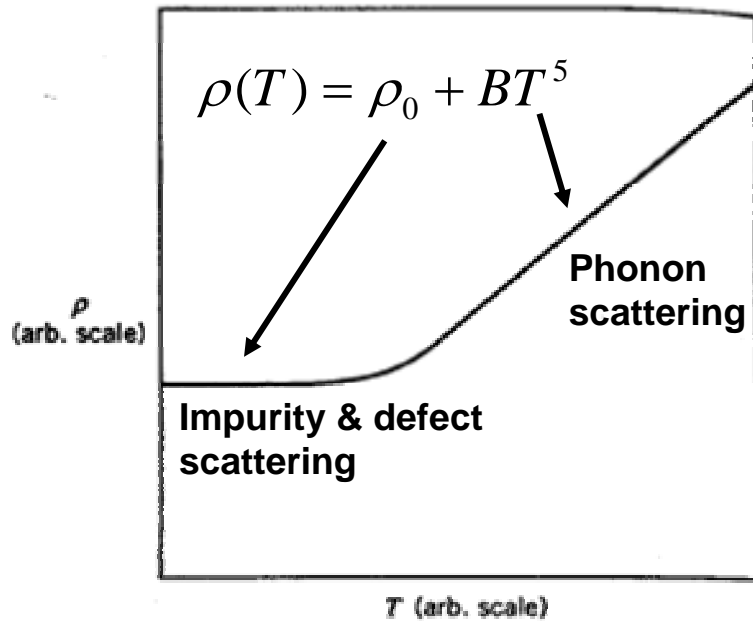
- **A superconductor can behave as if it has no DC resistance. Currents can be established which, in the absence of a driving field, do not decay. Record is 2½ years!**
- **A superconductor can behave as a perfect diamagnet. In an applied magnetic field a superconductor carries electrical surface currents. These currents give rise to an additional magnetic field which precisely cancels the applied magnetic field within the magnet.**
- **A superconductor usually behaves as if there were a gap in energy of width  $2\Delta$  centred about the Fermi energy. So electron can only be extracted from a superconductor if  $E_F - E$  exceeds  $\Delta$ .**

**Theory of superconductivity: hard! Superconductivity is explained by the BCS model which is based on the idea that electrons are bound in pairs, by lattice vibrations. We will explore these ideas qualitatively later.**

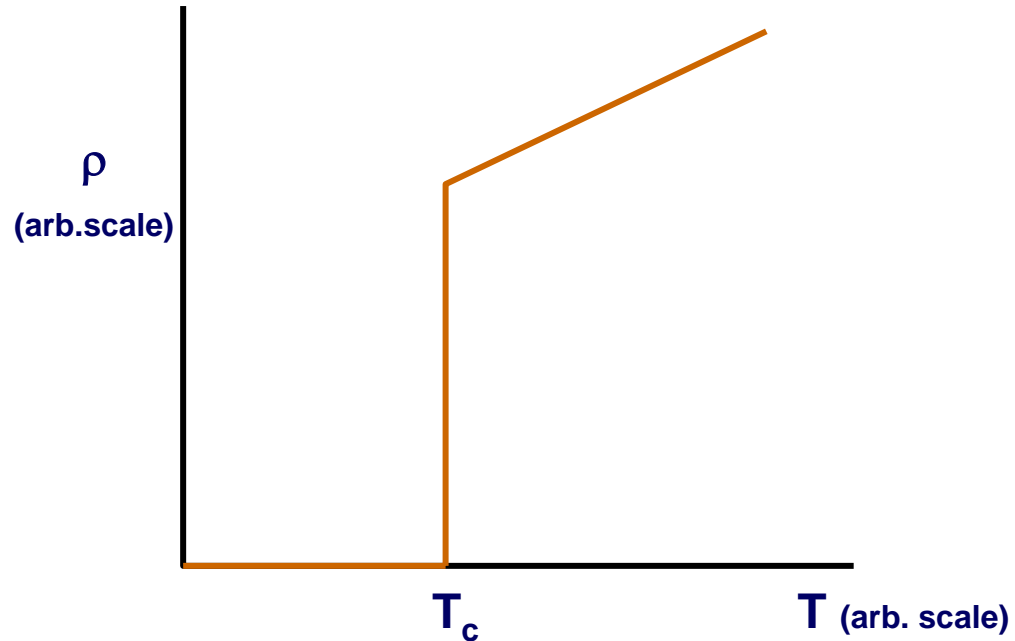
**First we look at the experimentally determined properties of superconductors.**

# Discovery of superconductivity

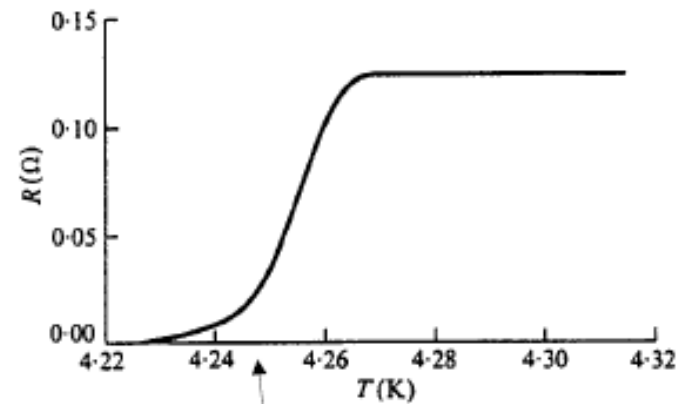
Electrical resistivity of a typical metal



Electrical resistivity of a superconductor



- Discovered in 1911 by H Kamerlingh-Onnes, 3 years after his 1<sup>st</sup> liquefaction of helium
- First measured in mercury.
- Very sharp transition at 4.2 K
- Not related to high purity





# Which elements are superconductors?

SUPERCONDUCTING ELEMENTS<sup>a</sup>

H																	He
Li	Be											B	C	N	O	F	Ne
Na	Mg											Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Cs	Ba	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra																

La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb
Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu								

<sup>a</sup>Elements that are superconducting only under special conditions are indicated separately. Note the incompatibility of superconducting and magnetic order. After G. Gladstone, et al. Parks *op. cit.*, note 6.

Legend:



Al Superconducting



Si Superconducting under high pressure or in thin films



Li Metallic but not yet found to be superconducting



B Nonmetallic elements



Fe Elements with magnetic order

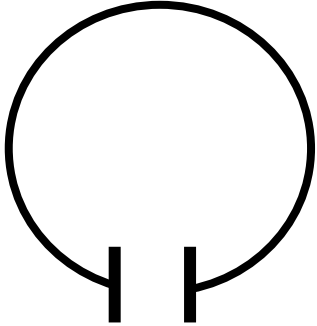
# Which elements are superconductors?

SUPERCONDUCTING ELEMENTS<sup>a</sup>

H																	He
Li	Be										B	C	N	O	F	Ne	
Na	Mg										Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar	
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Cs	Ba	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra																

- More than 20 metallic elements are superconductors
- Cu, Au, Ag, Na, K and magnetically ordered metals (Fe, Ni, Co) are *not* superconductors
- Certain *semiconductors* are superconducting at high pressures or as thin films
- Highest  $T_c$  of an element is 9.3 K for Nb
- There are thousands of alloys and compounds that exhibit superconductivity
- The highest  $T_c$  superconductors tend to be poor conductors in the normal state
- Record  $T_c$  is currently ~ 125 K

# Persistent current of a superconductor



Most sensitive method of measuring a small resistance;

→ Look for the decay of current around a closed superconducting loop

R = Resistance of the loop

L = Self-inductance

Current should decay with time constant  $\tau = L/R$

**No decay observed!**

$$V = -L \frac{dI}{dt} = IR$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \log I = -\frac{R}{L}$$

$$I(t) = I_0 e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

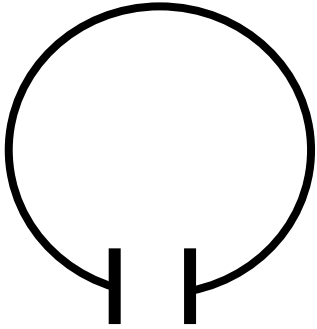
This gives an upper value on the value of R

Resistivity  $\rho < 10^{-26} \Omega\text{-cm}$  for a superconductor

Compare with  $\rho < 10^{-8} \Omega\text{-cm}$  for Cu

**18 orders of magnitude difference!**

# Limitations of persistent current flow



Persistent currents will flow in a superconductor unless;

- 1) A sufficiently large magnetic field is applied
- 2) The current exceeds a certain critical current,  $I_c$ , (the Silsbee effect)

The size of  $I_c$ , depends on the nature and geometry of specimen but can be as large as 100 amp for a 1-mm wire

- 3) An AC electric field above a certain frequency is applied

The transition from dissipationless to normal response occurs at  $\omega \sim \Delta / \hbar$  where  $\Delta$  is the energy gap

## Thermoelectric properties of superconductors

Superconductors are poor thermal conductors →

Figure 34.2

The thermal conductivity of lead. Below  $T_c$  the lower curve gives the thermal conductivity in the superconducting state, and the upper curve, in the normal state. The normal sample is produced below  $T_c$  by application of a magnetic field, which is assumed otherwise to have no appreciable affect on the thermal conductivity. (Reproduced by permission of the National Research Council of Canada from J. H. P. Watson and G. M. Graham, *Can. J. Phys.* **41**, 1738 (1963).)

