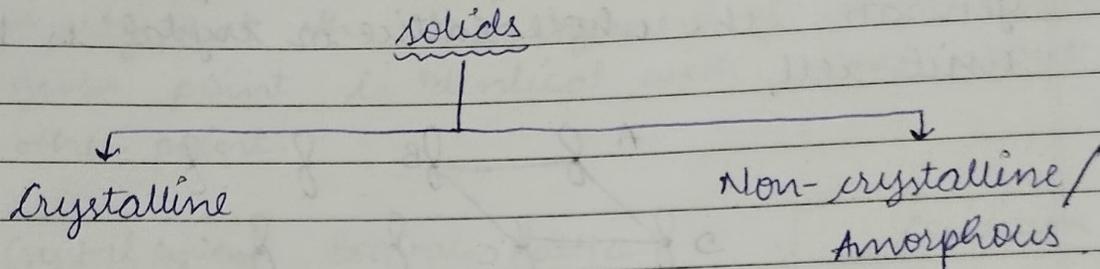
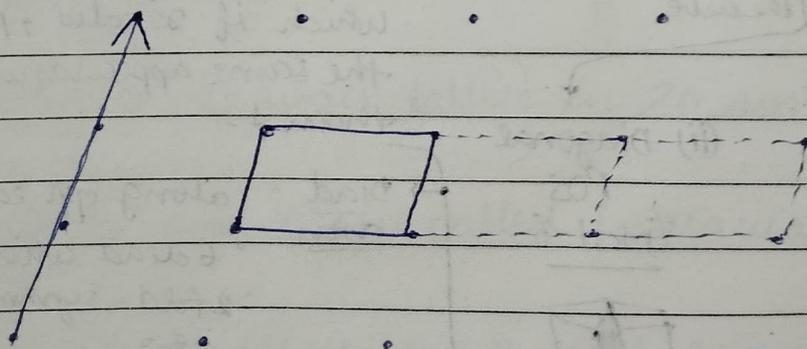


Crystal structure and semiconductor

Crystalline substances are those in which the arrangements of units of matter (ions, atoms, cluster of ions) inside the solid is regular or periodic whereas in amorphous solid, there is no definite order in the arrangement of units.



Lattice: Any ideal crystal is constructed by the definite regular repetitive of identical structural units in space so that the environment of each point is the same. This is known as lattice. Each point in the lattice is called a lattice point and it has a highest probability of finding an atom or an ion.

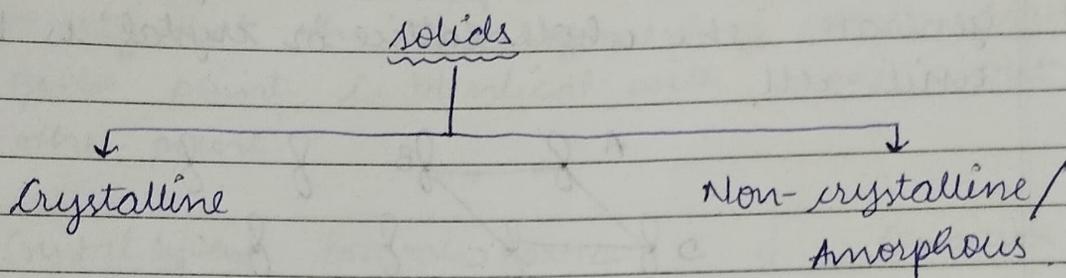


$$\vec{r} = n_1\vec{a} + n_2\vec{b} + n_3\vec{c}$$

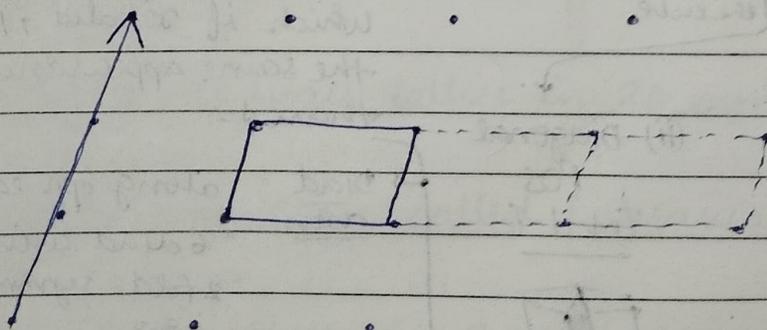
\vec{a} , \vec{b} and \vec{c} are fundamental translational vectors.

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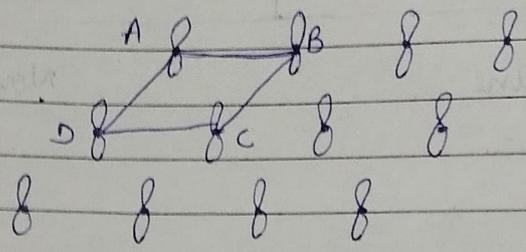
n_1, n_2, n_3 are integers.

* Basis:-

In a crystal structure every ^{lattice} point is associated with an assembly of atoms which is called basis.

Crystal structure = lattice + Basis

* Unit cell:- The smallest unit of lattice or crystal which on continuous repetition can generate the whole lattice or crystal is known as unit cell.



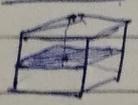
ABCD is a unit cell here.

(opt) in opt * Symmetry in crystal:

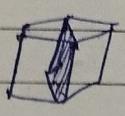
① Mirror plane of symmetry

(i) passes through origin
(ii) divides equally the cube

(i) POS
Total - 3



(ii) Diagonal POS
Total - 6



② Rotation axis of symmetry

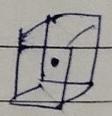
→ an axis of line about which if rotated, presents the same appearance more than 1.

→ Diad axis : along opp. edge
• 6 diad axis
• 2 fold symm.
• 180°

→ Triad axis : along diagonal
• 4 triad axis
• 3 fold
• 120°

→ Tetra axis : along opp. faces
• 3 tetra axis

③ Centre of symmetry



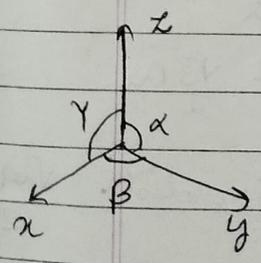
A point group about a lattice point is defined as the collection of symmetry ~~the~~ operation (mirror plane of symmetry, centre of symm., Rotational axis of symm.) which when applied about the lattice point it leaves the lattice invariant.

Bravais Lattice :- It is defined as an infinite (space lattice) no. of points in the space with a property that the arrangement of point about the given point is identical with that about any other point.

2D

Crystal system	Bravais lattice	Condition
① Square	square	$ \vec{a} = \vec{b} , \gamma = 90^\circ$
② Rectangular	(i) Rectangular Primitive (ii) Rectangular centered	$ \vec{a} \neq \vec{b} , \gamma = 90^\circ$
③ Hexagonal	Hexagonal	$ \vec{a} = \vec{b} , \gamma = 120^\circ$
④ Oblique	oblique	$ \vec{a} \neq \vec{b} , \gamma \neq 90^\circ$

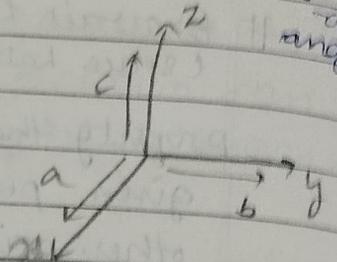
→ There are total 5 Bravais lattice in 2D system.



α, β and γ are called interaxial angles.

→ In 3D there are 7 crystal systems with 14 Bravais lattice.

Crystal System	Bravais Lattice	Condition
Cubic	(i) Simple Cubic (SC)	$a = b = c$ Lattice parameters
	(ii) Body centered cubic (BCC)	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$ Interaxial angles
	(iii) Face centered cubic (FCC)	



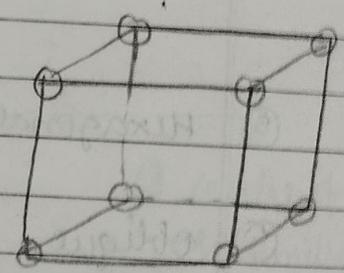
Coordination Number :- The no. of nearest neighbour atoms or ions surrounding an atom or ion.

(i) No. of atoms present per unit cell

a. $8 \times \frac{1}{8} = 1 \rightarrow \text{SC}$

b. $8 \times \frac{1}{8} + 1 = 2 \rightarrow \text{BCC}$

c. $8 \times \frac{1}{8} + 6 \times \frac{1}{2} = 4 \rightarrow \text{FCC}$



(ii) **Co-ordination Number** - 6 (6 nearest atoms to 1 atom)

SC $\rightarrow 6$; Nearest neighbour dist. = a

BCC $\rightarrow 8$; Nearest neighbour dist. = $\frac{\sqrt{3}a}{2}$

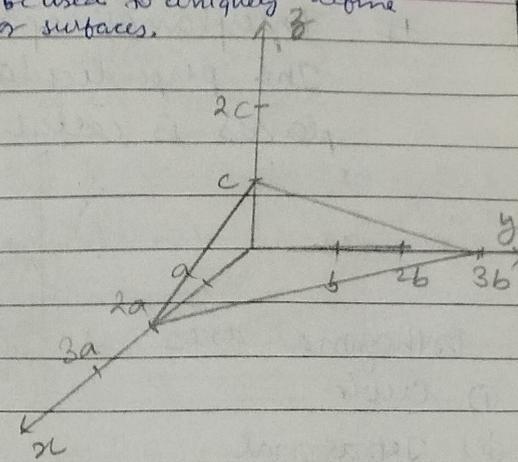
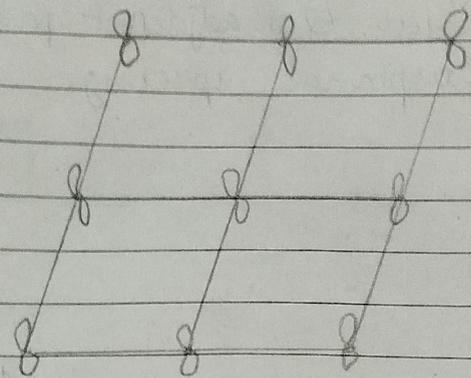
FCC $\rightarrow 4 + 4 + 4 = 12$; Nearest neighbour dist. = $\frac{\sqrt{2}a}{2}$

$= \frac{a}{\sqrt{2}}$

The orientation of a surface may be defined by considering how the plane intersects the main crystallographic axes of the solid. The application of set of rules leads to the assignment of miller indices (hkl).

Miller's Indices :- which are set of no. which quantify the intercepts the plane or surfaces. \therefore this may be used to uniquely define the plane or surfaces.

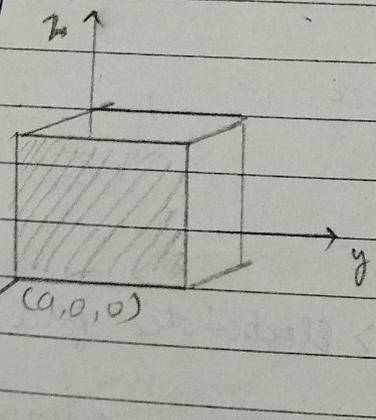
represented in set of (h, k, l)



Method:

- Determine the coordinates of the intercepts made by the plane along the 3 crystallographic axes (x, y, z) , $(2a, 3b, c)$
- Express the intercepts as multiples of the unit cell dimensions or lattice parameters along the axes, i.e. $\frac{2a}{a}$, $\frac{3b}{b}$, $\frac{c}{c}$
2, 3, 1.
- Get the reciprocals of these numbers i.e. $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, 1.
- Reduce the reciprocals to the smallest set of integral no. and enclose them in bracket (LCM=6). multiply by LCM. (3 2 6) \leftarrow Miller's indices.

Eg!



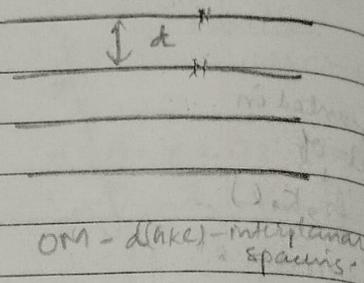
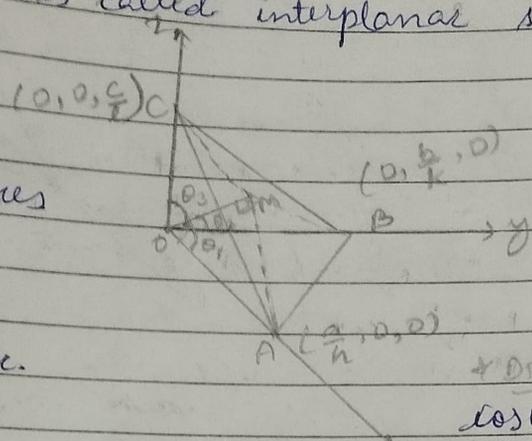
	x	y	z
Intercepts \rightarrow	a	∞	∞
	1	∞	∞
Reciprocal \rightarrow	1	0	0

Miller's indices (100)

Interplanar spacing

The perpendicular dist. b/w adjacent parallel lattice planes is called interplanar spacing.

* Let (h, k, l) will be miller's index of plane ABC



- Orthogonal axes
- (i) Cubic
 - (ii) Tetragonal
 - (iii) Orthorhombic.

* Direction cosines:

- $\cos \theta_1$ = First direction cosine
- $\cos \theta_2$ = Second direction cosine
- $\cos \theta_3$ = Third direction cosine

$$\cos \theta_1 = \frac{d_{hkl}}{a/h}$$

$$\cos \theta_2 = \frac{d_{hkl}}{b/k}, \quad \cos \theta_3 = \frac{d_{hkl}}{c/l}$$

From property of direction cosines:

$$\cos^2 \theta_1 + \cos^2 \theta_2 + \cos^2 \theta_3 = 1$$

substituting values of $\cos^2 \theta_1, \cos^2 \theta_2, \cos^2 \theta_3$,

$$\frac{h^2 d_{hkl}^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2 d_{hkl}^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2 d_{hkl}^2}{c^2} = 1$$

$$d_{hkl}^2 \left(\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} \right) = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

• cubic, $d_{hkl} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}$

Production of X-rays:-

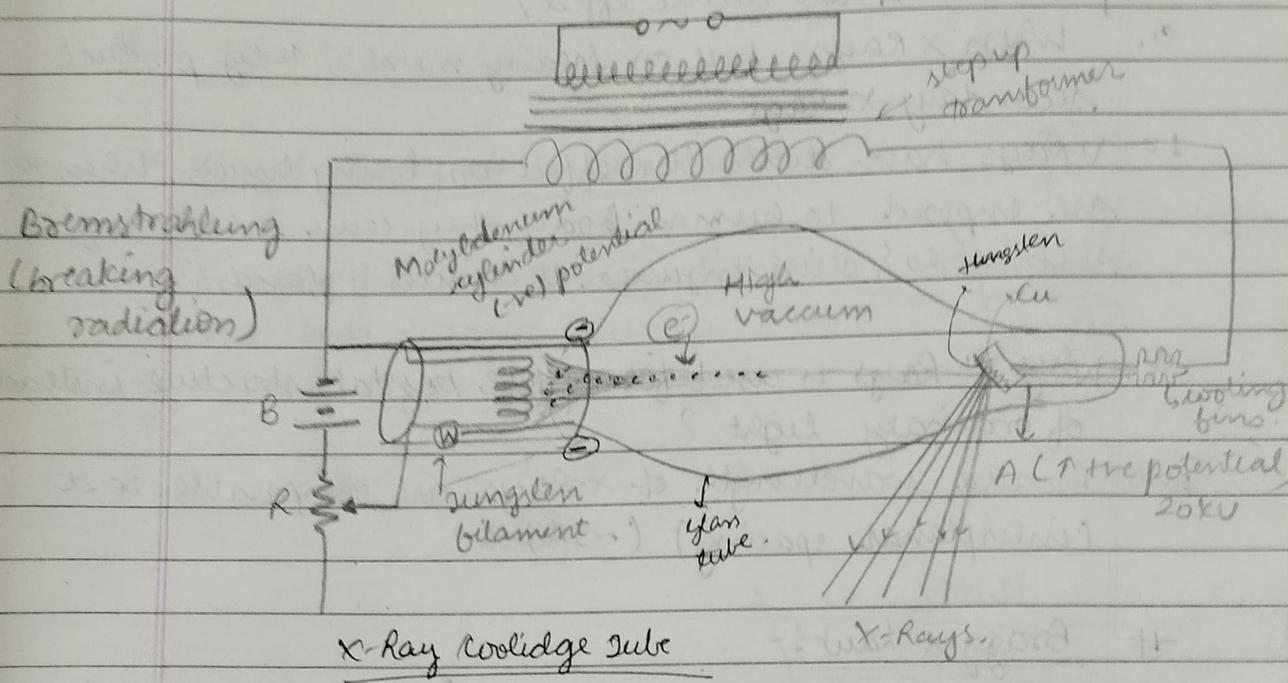
- When Thermal vibrations > Electrostatic force; e^- are released.
- Why only Tungsten: $(M.P.)^\uparrow$ ($A.t. no^\uparrow = 74$), so that it is not melted due to the bomb- bombardment of fast-moving e^- , which cause lot of heat.

M.P. = $3422^\circ C$.

X-rays are produced when a beam of fast moving cathode rays that is emitted by a heavy target material such as tungsten or molybdenum.

- Why Cu as Target material? (at no. 1 - does not allow hard X-rays to be produced.)
- gives shortest λ above 1A.

→ e⁻ are released from tungsten by thermionic emission.



Properties of X-Rays ($\lambda = 0.01 - 10\text{nm}$)

1. X-rays are EMW waves of very short wavelength. They travel in straight lines with the velocity of light. They are invisible to eyes.
2. Under suitable conditions, X-rays are reflected & refracted like ordinary light.
3. They exhibit the property of interference, diffraction & polarisation like ordinary light.
4. They are not reflected by electric & magnetic fields.
5. X-rays ~~are~~ ^{can} penetrate through the substances which are opaque to ordinary light. eg. wood, flesh, thick paper, thin sheets of metals.
6. They cause fluorescent in many substances like barium, cadmium, tungsten, zinc sulphide etc.
7. X-rays can ionise a gas through which they pass.

em-
ing
at generation.

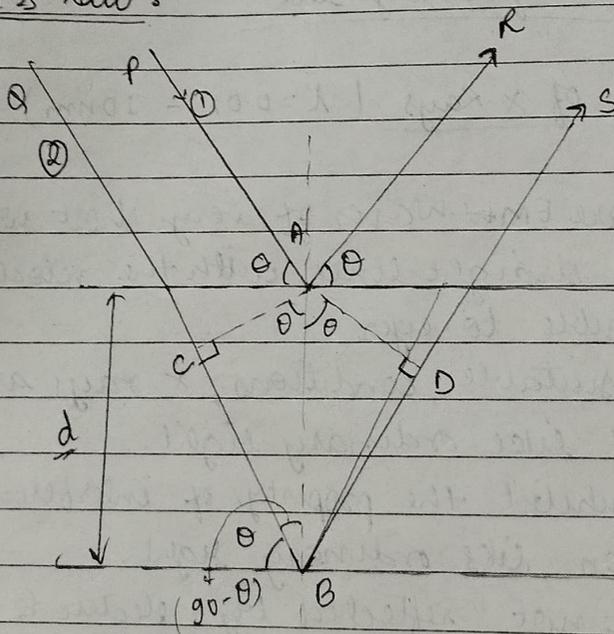
When a beam of X Rays is passed through a gas, the gas molecules are broken into +ve & -ve charged particles & the gas becomes conducting i.e. the gas is ionised.

8. When X Rays fall on certain metals, they liberate photo e^- (photo electric effect).
9. When X Rays fall on heavy metal, they produce secondary X Rays.
10. X Rays have destructive effect on living tissues. When they are exposed to human body, they cause reddening of skin, sores & series injuries to tissues & glands.

Q. Why X Rays is used for probe crystal structure instead of ordinary light?

Ans. Because wavelength of X Rays are comparable to d (interplanar spacing) ($\sim \text{\AA}$).

Bragg's law :-



Here the path difference according to

$$\text{path difference} = nd$$

$$CB + BD = nd \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

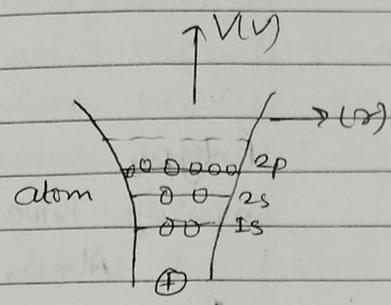
$$CB = BD = d \sin \theta \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda, \text{ where } n=1, 2, 3, \dots$$

SEMICONDUCTOR :-

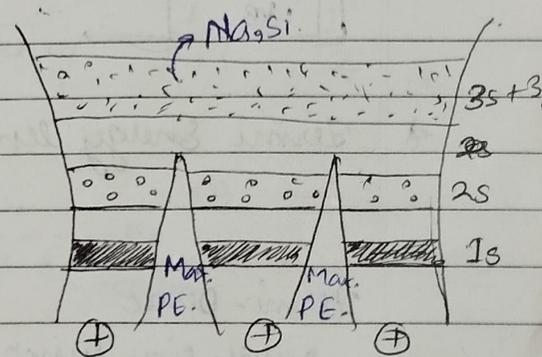
* Band theory of semiconductor:-

V is the potential energy & r is the diff. distance between e^- and its nucleus.



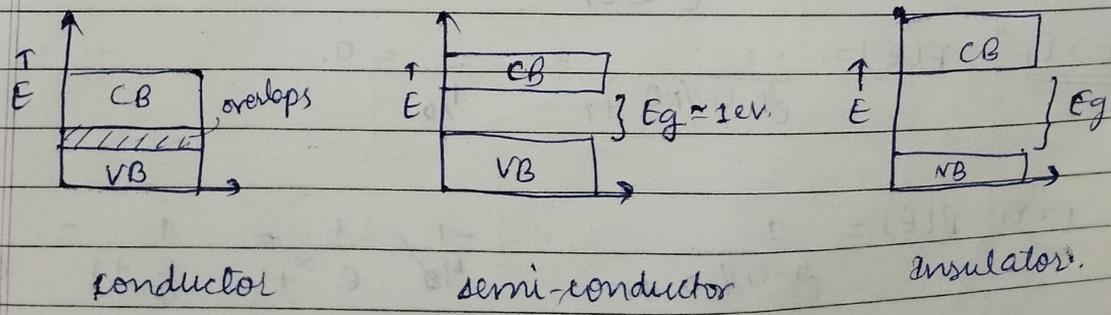
$$PE = - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

The Band which is completely occupied or having highest occupied band energy is valence band.

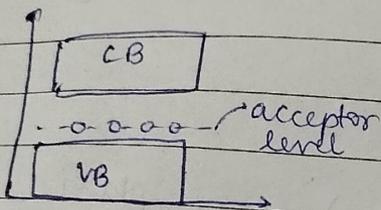


The lowest unfilled or partially filled energy band is conduction band.

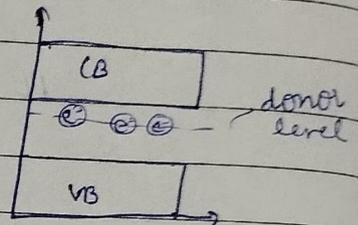
forbidden
 → band energy gap - Si - 1.1 eV
 Ge - 0.7 eV.



P-type
impurity - Trivalent
Al, B, Ga



N-type
Pentavalent impurity
P, As, Sb, Bi.



* Fermi Energy level :-

Fermi-Dirac

Distribution function

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_f)/kT} + 1}$$

$kT \Rightarrow k_B T$

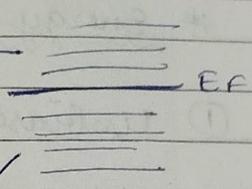
probability of occupation of the particle
in energy E .

① At $T=0K$, $E > E_f$
 $E < E_f$

$$\underline{E > E_f} \quad P(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_f)/k_0} + 1} = \frac{1}{1/0} = 0.$$

$$\underline{E < E_f} \quad P(E) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-E_f)/k_0} + 1} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\infty} + 1} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{e^\infty} + 1} = \frac{e^\infty}{e^\infty + 1} = 1.$$

level above the Fermi energy level are ^{all} unfilled with e^-



level below the Fermi energy level all level are filled with e^- .

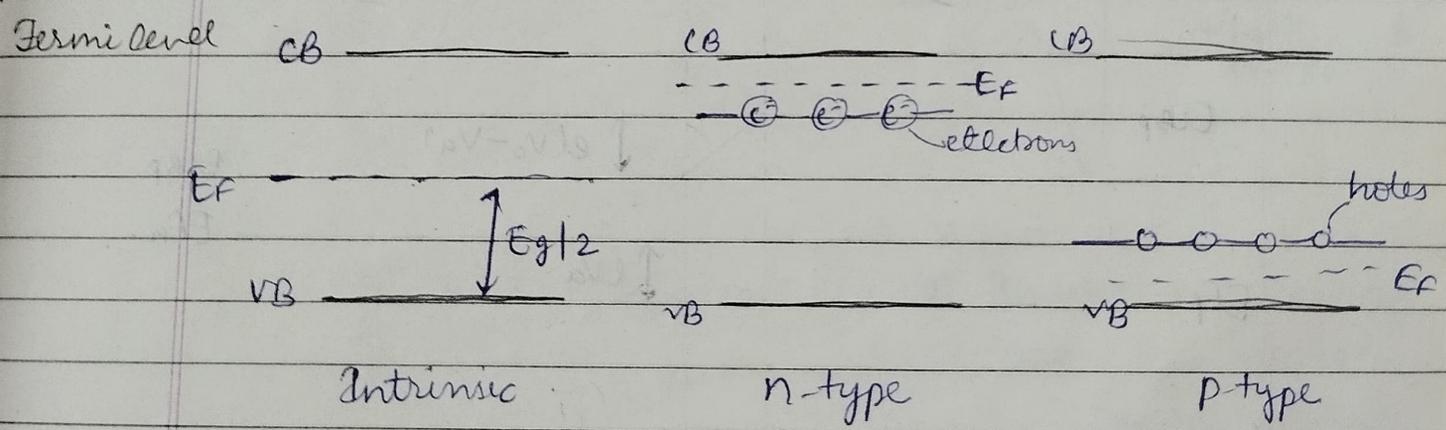
* From this we can define Fermi energy level as a particular state, below which all energy levels are completely filled and above which ~~to~~ all levels are completely empty, at absolute Temp ($T=0$).

At $T \neq 0$, In this case, we can define the Fermi energy state as the state whose probability of occupation of the particle is $1/2$ at $T \neq 0$.

$\hookrightarrow T \neq 0$
 $E = E_F$

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{e^{0/kT} + 1} = \frac{1}{1 + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

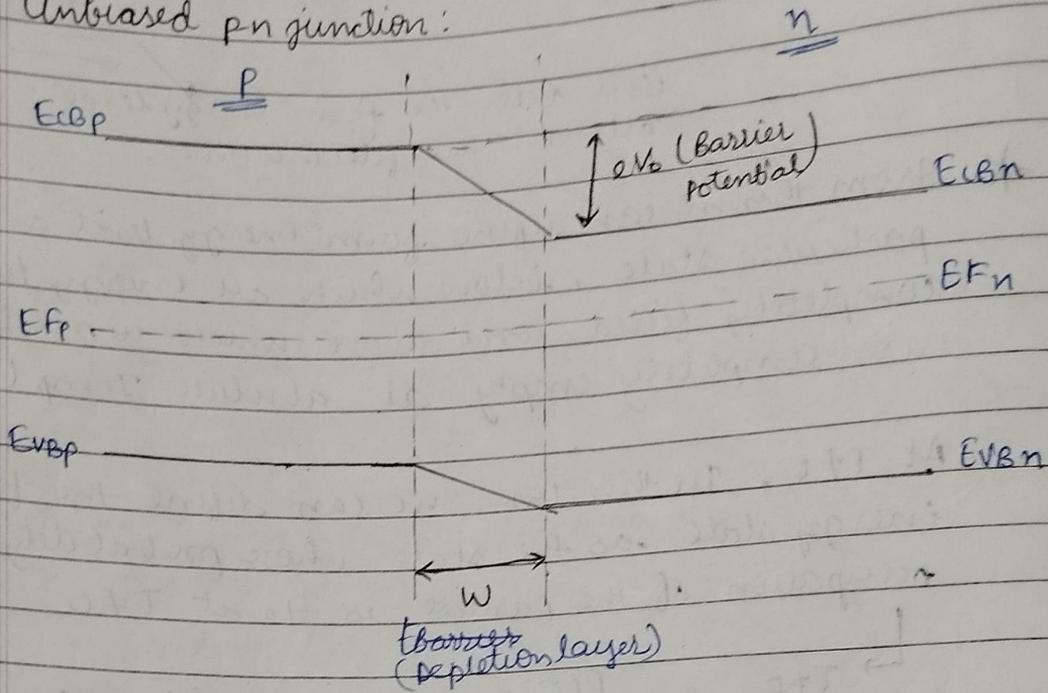
position of



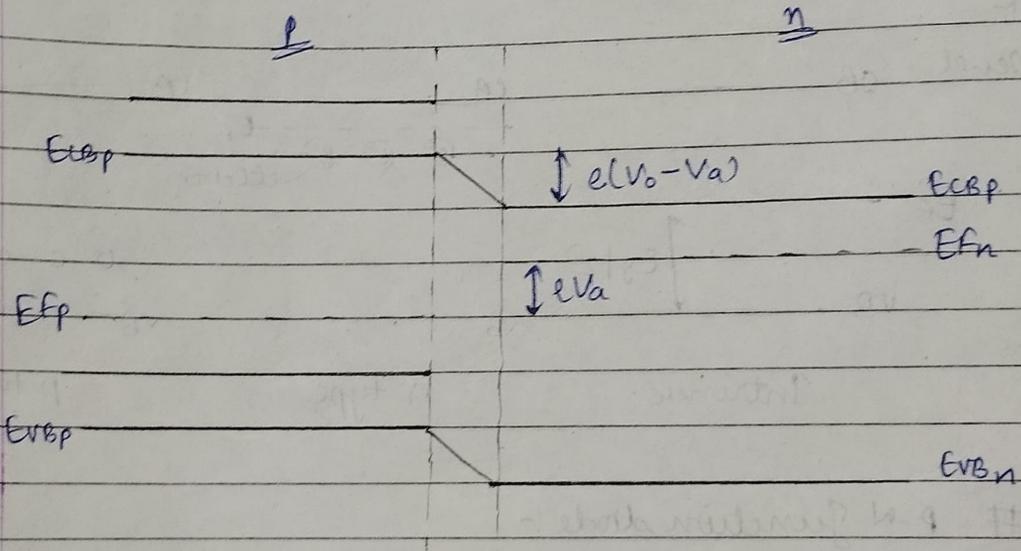
P-N Junction diode :-

* Energy band diagram:

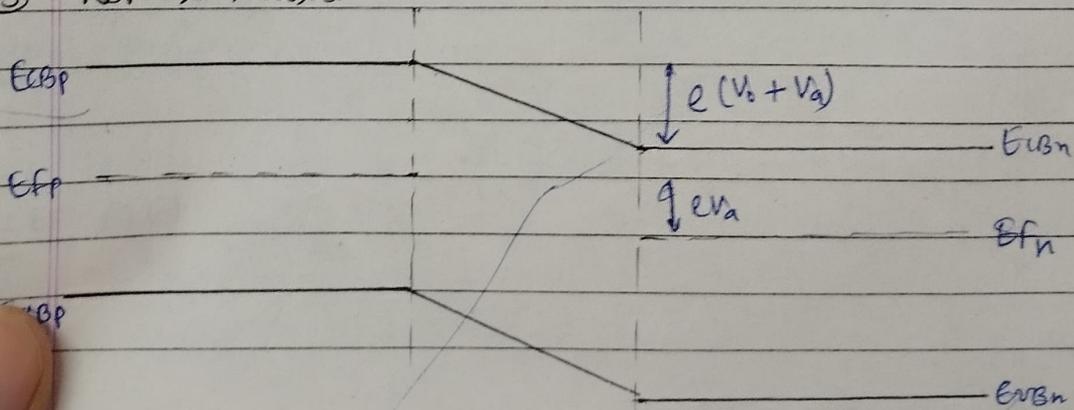
① Unbiased pn junction:

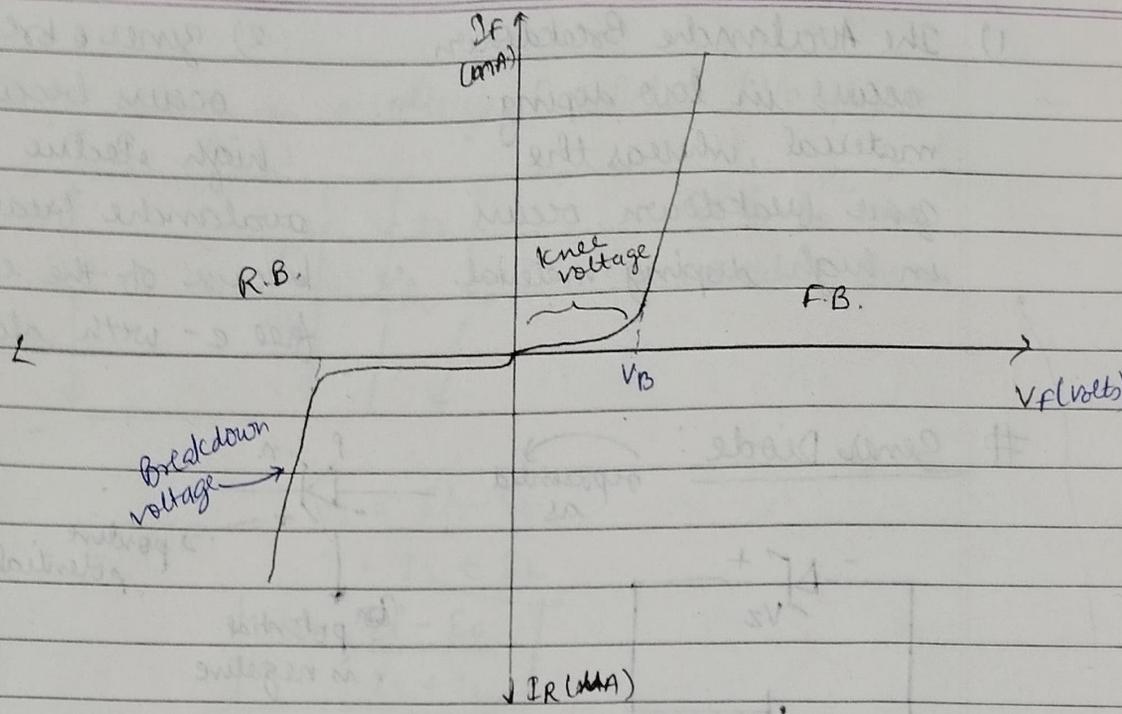


② Forward biased:

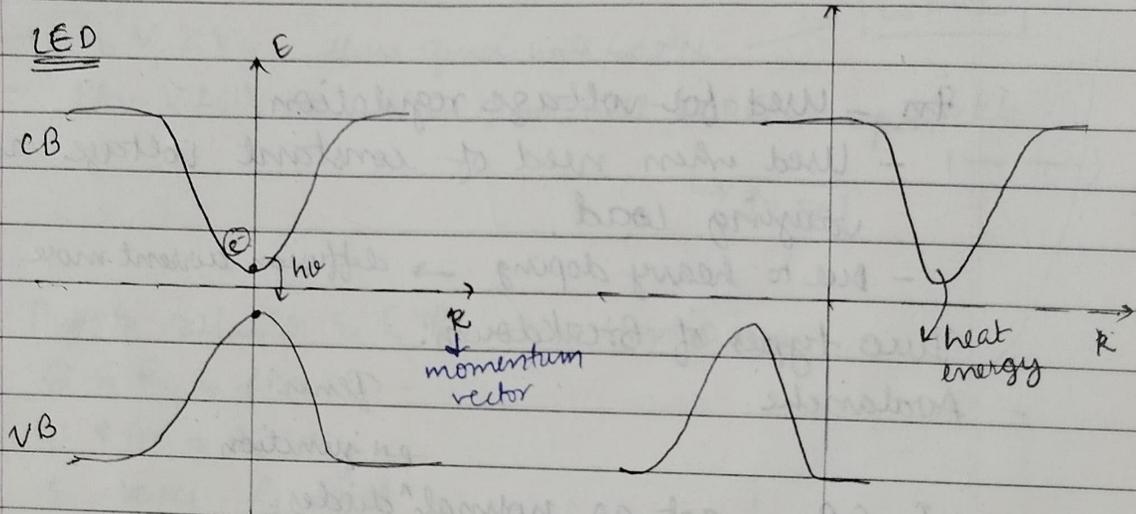


③ Reverse biased:





LED



(a) Direct Band energy gap
Eg: GaAs

↓
here photon energy releases

(b) Indirect Band energy gap
Eg: Si, Ge.

↓
here heat energy releases.

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{hc}{E_g} = \frac{12400 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{\AA}}{E_g(\text{eV})}$$

Difference b/w Avalanche & Zener breakdown:-

→ The difference b/w these two is based on mechanism of occurrence.