# PHYSICS AND APPLICATIONS OF SEMICONDUCTOR QUANTUM STRUCTURES

Edited by T Yao J-C Woo

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### **Preface**

Since the revolutionary idea of 'artificial' semiconductor superlattice structures proposed by Esaki and Tsu in 1969, semiconductor quantum structures have opened up a new era not only in the research of physics and materials science, but also in the development of electronic and optical devices. In the initial stage of this field, study was limited to the two-dimensionally confined electron system, which led to the discovery of many novel phenomena such as quantum Hall effects, quantum confined Stark effects, Aharanov—Bohm effects. It is obvious that these discoveries are due to advances in materials science, in particular the atomic-scale growth techniques such as molecular beam epitaxy and metal organic chemical vapour deposition. Well-known examples of application are quantum well lasers, high electron mobility transistors and resonant tunnelling diodes, which are based on the two-dimensional confinement of electrons.

In recent years, efforts in this field have been devoted to the fabrication and characterization of quantum structures with reduced dimensionality, namely one- and zero-dimensional structures, with remarkable advancement in material processing and micro-fabrication technology. The successful fabrication of quantum wire and quantum dot structures have enabled scientists to explore novel properties and new-concept devices. Some of the outstanding examples are Coulomb blockade effects, microcavity lasers, exciton-based nonlinear optical effects, and single-electron transistors.

In view of the rapid progress in this multidisciplinary area related to semiconductor quantum structures, the researchers in this field felt a need to hold a forum, where scientists in various backgrounds could get together to review recent achievements and to discuss the future directions of development. In order to fulfil such a demand, the 1998 Asian Science Seminar entitled the International Workshop on Physics and Application of Semiconductor Quantum Structures has been formed under the sponsorship of the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) and the Korea Science and Engineering Foundation (KOSEF).

In this workshop, experts and leading scientists were invited to cover the overall spectrum on the research activities in this field. This book is comprised of the invited lectures of this workshop and a number of reviews. This book starts with a perspective review on the evolution of semiconductor superlattices and quantum nanostrctures (part 1) followed by the fabrication and characterization

of quantum structures (part 2), transport properties (part 3), optical properties (part 4), spin dependent properties (part 5), and device applications (part 6).

We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to the contributing authors of the articles, the organizing members of the workshop, and especially the sponsoring organizations of the workshop for their kind cooperation and support.

**Takafumi Yao and Jong-Chun Woo** February 2000

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# PART 1

# PLENARY LECTURE



### Chapter 1

# The evolution of semiconductor superlattices and quantum nanostructures

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In the early twentieth century, encounters with physical phenomena which require detailed analyses in nanoscale, such as electron motion, prompted the advent of quantum mechanics, since Newtonian mechanics could not possibly provide an adequate explanation for them. Electron tunnelling through nanoscale barriers is the most direct consequence of the law of quantum mechanics, for which the Esaki tunnel diode gave most convincing experimental evidence in 1957. Following the evolutionary path of quantum nanostructures, significant milestones are presented, including the birth of semiconductor superlattices, resonant tunnel diodes, quantum wires and dots.

### 1.1 Introduction

The twentieth century will be characterized by the fact that science and technology have made remarkable progress, including the establishment of quantum mechanics, the development of semiconductor devices with the invention of the transistor and the evolution of computers/telecommunications.

In the early century, encounters with physical phenomena such as the electron's motion or the photon's behaviour for which Newtonian mechanics could not possibly provide an adequate explanation, prompted the advent of quantum mechanics. The framework of quantum mechanics was established in the superb work of Werner Heisenberg, Erwin Schrödinger, Paul Dirac and Max Born in the period 1925–6.

During the infancy of the quantum theory, de Broglie [1] introduced a new fundamental hypothesis that matter was endowed with a dualistic nature—particles may also have the characteristics of waves. This hypothesis found

expression, in the hands of Schrödinger [2], in the definite form now known as the Schrödinger wave equation, whereby an electron is assumed to be represented by a solution to this equation. The continuous non-zero nature of such solutions, even in classically forbidden regions of negative kinetic energy, implies an ability to penetrate such forbidden regions and a probability of tunnelling from one classically allowed region to another. The concept of tunnelling itself arises from this quantum-mechanical result, and has no analogy in classical mechanics. The subsequent experimental manifestations of that concept can be regarded as one of the early triumphs of the quantum theory. For instance, in 1928, Fowler and Nordheim [3] explained, on the basis of electron tunnelling, the main features of the phenomenon of electron emission from cold metals by high external electric fields, which had been unexplained since its observation by Lilienfeld in 1922.

In 1932, Wilson [4], Frenkel and Joffe [5], and Nordheim [6] applied quantum mechanical tunnelling to the interpretation of metal–semiconductor contact rectifiers such as those made from selenium or cuprous oxide. Apparently, this theory was accepted for a number of years until it was finally discarded after it was realized that it predicted rectification in the wrong direction for ordinary, practical diodes. It is now clear that, in the usual circumstances, the surface barriers met by semiconductors in contact with metals are far too thick to observe any tunnelling current.

In 1934, the development of the energy-band theory of solids prompted Zener [7] to propose interband tunnelling as an explanation for dielectric breakdown. He calculated the rate of transitions from a filled band to a nexthigher unfilled band by the application of an electric field. In effect, he showed that an energy gap could be treated in the manner of a potential barrier. The Zener mechanism in dielectric breakdown, however, has never been proved to be important in reality. If a high electric field is applied to the bulk crystal of a dielectric or semiconductor, avalanche breakdown (electron—hole pair generation) generally precedes tunnelling, and thus the field never reaches a critical value for tunnelling.

With the invention of the transistor in 1947 came a renewed interest in the tunnelling process. Around 1950, the technology of Ge p-n junction diodes was developed, and efforts were made to understand the junction properties. In explaining the reverse-bias characteristic, McAfee *et al* [8] applied a modified Zener theory and asserted that low-voltage breakdown in Ge diodes resulted from interband tunnelling. Results of later studies, however, indicated that most Ge junctions broke down by avalanche, but by that time the name 'Zener diodes' had already been given to the low-breakdown Si diodes. Actually, Zener diodes are almost always avalanche diodes.

In these circumstances, in 1956, the investigation of interband tunnelling was initiated with heavily-doped Ge p-n junctions, where the junction width was successfully reduced to the range of nanometres.

We first obtained a backward diode which was more conductive in the reverse direction than in the forward direction. In this respect it agreed with