# Coulomb Scattering

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What contributes to  $\, \Gamma_{\rm kk'}^{}$  ?



### Where is Coulomb Scattering Important:

- Heavily doped bulk systems
- Semiconductor devices
	- Nanoscale MOSFETs
	- MESFETs
	- PN Diodes
	- BJTs
	- Contact regions of FD SOI devices, Dual-gate transistors, FinFETS
	- HEMTs -> remote Coulomb scattering is important. Since remote Coulomb scattering is much weaker, we have very high mobilities in HEMT structures that are used in RF applications

## Coulomb Scattering

#### Location of the Channel in Different FET Types











# Si MOSFET



#### **Ionized impurity scattering is due to:**

(Ionized donors/acceptors, substitutional impurities, charged surface states, etc.)

• The potential due to a single ionized impurity with net charge Ze is:

 $\tau(r) = -\frac{2\epsilon}{4\pi\epsilon r}$  mks units Ze $V_j^{\circ}(r) = -\frac{2}{\epsilon}$ πει της Απε =− 4r2 $0$   $\wedge$   $2$ 

• In the one electron picture, the actual potential seen by electrons is *screened* by the other electrons in the system.

#### What is Screening?



#### Ways of treating screening:

- Thomas-Fermi Methodstatic potentials + slowly varying in space
- $\bullet$  Mean-Field Approximation (Random Phase Approximation)time-dependent and not slowly varying in space
- Screening is the damping of electric fields caused by the presence of mobile charge carriers.
- It is an important part of the behavior of charge-carrying fluids, such as ionized gases (classical plasmas) and conduction electrons in metals.
- In a fluid composed of electrically charged constituent particles,<br>each pair of particles interact through the Coulomb force,

$$
\mathbf{F} = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r}|^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}
$$

- In reality, these long-range effects are suppressed by the flow<br>of the fluid particles in response to electric fields. This flow<br>reduces the *effective* interaction between particles to a shortreduces the *effective* interaction between particles to a short-<br>range "screened" Coulomb interaction.
- For example, consider a fluid composed of electrons. Each<br>electron possesses an electric field which repels other electrons. As a result, it is surrounded by a region in which the density of<br>electrons is lower than usual. This region can be treated as a<br>positively-charged "screening hole". Viewed from a large<br>distance, this screening hole has th
- The first theoretical treatment of screening, due to  $\frac{\text{Debye}}{\text{Debye}}$  and  $\frac{\text{Hückel}}{\text{1923}}$ , dealt with a stationary point charge embedded in a fluid. This is known as electrostatic screening.
- Consider a fluid of electrons in a background of heavy, positively-charged ions. For simplicity, we ignore the motion and spatial distribution of the ions, approximating them as a uniform background charge. In condensed matter physics, this model is referred to as jellium.
- Let  $\rho$  denote the <u>number density</u> of electrons, and  $\varphi$  the <u>electric potential</u>. At first, the electrons are evenly distributed so that there is zero net charge at every point. Therefore electrons are evenly distributed so that there is zero net charge at every point. Therefore,  $\varphi$  is initially a constant as well.<br>We now introduce a fixed naint
- We now introduce a fixed point charge Q at the origin. The associated charge density is<br>  $Q\delta(r)$ , where  $\delta(r)$  is the Dirac delta function. After the system has returned to equilibriu  $Q\delta(r)$ , where  $\delta(r)$  is the Dirac delta function. After the system has returned to equilibrium, let the change in the electron density and electric potential be  $\Delta\rho(r)$  and  $\Delta\phi(r)$  respectively. The charge density and electric potential are related by the first of Maxwell's equations, which gives

$$
-\nabla^2[\Delta\phi(r)] = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} [Q\delta(r) - e \Delta\rho(r)].
$$

0 • To proceed, we must find a second independent equation relating  $Δρ$  and  $Δφ$ . There are two possible approximations, under which the two quantities are proportional: the Debye-Hückel approximation, valid at high temperatures, and the Fermi-Thomas approximation, valid at low temperatures.

 In the Debye-Hückel approximation, we maintain the system in thermodynamic equilibrium, at a temperature T high enough that the fluid particles obey Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics. At each point in space, the density of electrons with energy j has the form

$$
\rho_j(r) = \rho_j^{(0)}(r) \, \exp\left[\frac{e\phi(r)}{k_B T}\right]
$$

where  $k<sub>R</sub>$  is Boltzmann's constant. Perturbing in  $\varphi$ 

$$
e\Delta\rho\simeq\epsilon_0k_0^2\Delta\phi
$$

where

$$
k_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\frac{\rho e^2}{\epsilon_0 k_B T}}
$$

## Debye-Hückel approximation

 In the Fermi-Thomas approximation, we maintain the system at a constant <u>chemical potential</u> and at low temperatures. (The former condition corresponds, in a real experiment, to keeping the fluid in electrical contact at a fixed potential difference with ground.) The chemical potential  $\mu$  is, by definition, the energy of adding an extra electron to the fluid. This energy may be decomposed into a kinetic energy  $T$  and the potential energy  $e\varphi$ . Since the chemical potential is kept constant,

> $\Delta \mu = \Delta T$ —<br>  $e\Delta\varphi = 0.$

 If the temperature is extremely low, the behavior of the electrons comes close to the <u>quantum mechanical</u> model of a free electron gas. We thus approximate  $T$  by the kinetic energy of an additional electron in the free electron gas, which is simply the Fermi energy  $E_F$ . The Fermi energy is related to the density of electrons (including spin degeneracy) by

## Fermi-Thomas approximation

$$
\rho = 2 \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{4}{3} \pi k_F^3 \quad , \quad E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m}.
$$

Perturbing to first order, we find that

$$
\Delta \rho \simeq \frac{3\rho}{E_F} \Delta E_F.
$$

Inserting this into the above equation for  $\Delta \mu$  yields

$$
e\Delta\rho\simeq\epsilon_0k_0^2\Delta\phi
$$

where

$$
k_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\frac{3e^2\rho}{\epsilon_0 E_F}} = \sqrt{\frac{me^2k_f}{\epsilon_0\pi^2\hbar^2}}
$$

is called the Fermi-Thomas screening wave vector.

Our results from the Debye-Hückel or Fermi-Thomas approximation may now be inserted into the first Maxwell equation. The result is

$$
\left[\nabla^2 - k_0^2\right]\phi(r) = -\frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}\delta(r)
$$

which is known as the screened Poisson equation. The solution is

$$
\phi(r)=\frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}e^{-k_0r}
$$

 $\bullet$ which is called a screened Coulomb potential. It is a Coulomb potential multiplied by an exponential damping term, with the strength of the damping factor given by the magnitude of  $k0$ , the Debye or Fermi-Thomas wave vec

## Screened Coulomb interactions



## Brooks-Herring Approach

• For the scattering rate due to impurities, we need for Fermi's rule the matrix element between initial and final Bloch states

$$
\langle n',\kappa'|V_j(r)|n,\kappa\rangle=V^{-1}\int dr\mu_{n',k'}^*e^{-ik'r}V_j(r)\mu_{n,k}e^{ik\cdot r}
$$

Since the u's have periodicity of lattice, expand in reciprical space

$$
= \sum_{G} V^{-1} \int dr e^{-ik' \cdot r} V_{i}(r) e^{ik \cdot r} e^{-iG \cdot r} U_{nn'kk'}(G)
$$
  
= 
$$
\sum_{G} V^{-1} \int dr e^{-ik' \cdot r} V_{i}(r) e^{ik \cdot r} e^{-iG \cdot r} \int dr' U_{n',k'}^{*}(r') U_{n,k}(r') e^{iG \cdot r'}
$$

• For impurity scattering, the matrix element has a 1/q type dependence which usually means **G**≠0 terms are small

$$
=V^{-1}\int dr e^{-ik' \cdot r}V_i(r)e^{ik \cdot r}\int_{\Omega} dr' u_{n',k'}^*(r')u_{n,k}(r')=V_i(q)I_{kk'}\Big|_{nn'}
$$

• The usual argument is that since the  $u$ 's are normalized within a unit cell (i.e. equal to 1), the Bloch overlap integral *I*, is approximately 1 for  $n = n$  [interband(valley)]. Therefore, for impurity scattering, the matrix element for scattering is approximately

$$
\langle \langle \mathbf{k}' | V_j(\mathbf{r}) | \mathbf{k} \rangle \rangle^2 = |V_j(\mathbf{q})|^2 \cong \frac{Z^2 e^4}{V^2 (q^2 + \lambda^2) \varepsilon_{sc}^2}; \ \ V = \text{volume}
$$

where the scattered wavevector is:  $q=k-k'$ 

• This is the scattering rate for a single impurity. If we assume that there are  $N_i$  impurities in the whole crystal, and that scattering is completely uncorrelated between impurities:

$$
V_i^{kk'} \cong \frac{N_i Z^2 e^4}{V^2 (q^2 + \lambda^2) \varepsilon_{sc}^2} = \frac{n_i Z^2 e^4}{V (q^2 + \lambda^2) \varepsilon_{sc}^2}
$$

where  $n_i$  is the impurity density (per unit volume).

#### small angle scattering



• The total scattering rate from **k** to **k**′ is given from Fermi's golden rule as:

$$
\Gamma_{kk'}^i = \frac{2\pi n_i Z^2 e^4}{V \hbar (q^2 + \lambda^2) \varepsilon_{sc}^2} \delta(E_{k'} - E_k)
$$

**I**f  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\bf{k}$  and  $\bf{k}'$ , then:

$$
q = |k - k'| = k^2 + k'^2 - 2kk' \cos \theta = 2k^2(1 - \cos \theta)
$$

- Comments on the behavior of this scattering mechanism:
	- -Increases linearly with impurity concentration
	- Decresses with incressing energy  $(k^2)$  favor Decreases with increasing energy  $(k^2)$ , favors lower T
	- -Favors small angle scattering
	- - Ionized Impurity-Dominates at low temperature, or room temperature in impure samples (highly doped regions)
- $\bullet$ Integration over all **k**<sup> $\prime$ </sup> gives the total scattering rate  $\Gamma_k$ :

$$
\Gamma_k^i = \frac{n_i Z^2 e^4 m^*}{8\pi \varepsilon_{sc}^2 \hbar^3 k^3} \left[ \frac{4k^2}{q_D^2 (4k^2 + q_D^2)} \right]; \quad q_D = 1/\lambda
$$

#### examine result

$$
S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') = \frac{2\pi q^4 N_I}{\hbar \kappa_s^2 \varepsilon_0^2 \Omega} \frac{\delta(E' - E)}{\left(\frac{4p^2}{\hbar^2} \sin^2 \alpha / 2 + 1/L_D^2\right)^2}
$$
  
1)  $S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') \sim N_I$   
2)  $S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') \sim q^4$   
3)  $S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') \sim 1/E^2$ 

#### examine result



#### momentum relaxation time

 ${\bf p}'$ 

 $\alpha = \theta$ 

Z.

$$
\frac{1}{\tau_m} = \sum_{\mathbf{p}'} S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p'}) (1 - \cos \alpha)
$$

$$
\tau_m(E) = \frac{16\sqrt{2m^*}\pi\kappa_S^2\varepsilon_0^2}{N_Iq^4} \left[ \ln\left(1+\gamma^2\right) - \frac{\gamma^2}{1+\gamma^2} \right] E^{3/2}
$$

$$
\gamma^2 = 8m^* EL_D^2/\hbar^2
$$

$$
\tau_m(E) \sim E^{3/2}
$$
  
\n
$$
\tau_m(E) = \tau_0 (E/k_B T)^{3/2}
$$
  $s = 3/2$   
\n
$$
\tau_0 \sim T_L^{3/2}
$$

#### **Brooks-Herring mobility**



#### Electron and hole mobility in bulk silicon at T=300K.



Doping concentration [cm-3]

### Doping Dependence of the Mobility

### Conwell-Weiskopf approach

$$
S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') = \frac{2\pi q^4 N_I}{\hbar \kappa_s^2 \varepsilon_0^2 \Omega} \left( \frac{4p^2}{\hbar^2 \sin^2 \alpha/2} \right)^2
$$
unscreened Coulomb potential  
\n
$$
S(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p}') \to \infty \text{ as } \alpha \to 0
$$

### Conwell-Weiskopf approach

$$
\tau_m(E) = \frac{16\pi\sqrt{2m^*}\kappa_s^2 \varepsilon_0^2}{N_I q^4} \left[ \frac{1}{\ln(1 + \gamma_{CW}^2)} \right] E^{3/2}
$$
  

$$
\gamma^2 = b_{\max} / (q^2 / 8\pi \kappa_s \varepsilon_0 E)
$$
  

$$
\tau_m(E) \sim E^{3/2}
$$

 $\mu_n \sim I_L$ 

#### **Neutral Impurity Scattering:**

- This scattering mechanism is due to unionized donors, neutral defects; short range, point-like potential.
- May be modeled as bound hydrogenic potential.
- Usually not strong unless very high concentrations (>1x1019/cm3).
- It is a dipole type of interaction and is weaker than direct Coulomb interaction

$$
\frac{1}{\tau_{NI}} \models \frac{20\kappa\hbar^3 \eta N_N}{e^2 m_g m_c (1 + 2\alpha\epsilon)}
$$



http://engineering.dartmouth.edu/microeng/otherweb/henning/papers/mobility.pdf

### Mobility modeling can be separated in three parts:

- $\bullet$ **Low-field mobility characterization** for bulk or inversion layers
- **High-field mobility characterization** to account for velocity saturation effect
- **Smooth interpolation** between the low-field and high field megions. and high-field regions

## Mobility Modeling

#### Phonon scattering:

- -Simple power-law dependence of the temperature
- -Sah *et al.* model:<br>acoustic + ontic

acoustic + optical and intervalley phonons combined via Mathiessen's rule





### Ionized impurity scattering:

- -Conwell-Weiskopf model
- -Brooks-Herring model

#### Low-Field Models for Bulk Materials

### Combined phonon and ionized impurity scattering:

Dorkel and Leturg model:<br>
amperature-dependent pho temperature-dependent phonon scattering +ionized impurity scattering + carriercarrier interactions

Caughey and Thomas model:<br>Amperature independent phor temperature independent phonon scattering + ionized impurity scattering

$$
\mu_{n0} = \texttt{MUN} \texttt{CAUG} \cdot \left(\frac{T_L}{300 K}\right)^\texttt{ALPHAN} \texttt{CAUG}
$$



$$
\mu_{p0} = \texttt{MUIP}, \texttt{CAUG} \cdot \left(\frac{T_L}{300 K}\right)^\text{ALPHAP. CAUG}
$$







- Sharfetter-Gummel model:phonon scattering + ionized impurity scattering (parameterized expression –does not use the Mathiessen's rule)

Arora model:<br>imilar to Caud

similar to Caughey and Thomas, but with temperature dependent phonon scattering









### Neutral impurity scattering:

Li and Thorber model:<br>
anbility component due mobility component due to neutral impurity scattering is combined with the mobility due to lattice, ionized impurity and carrier-carrier scattering via the Mathiessen's rule

The field-dependent mobility model provides smooth transition between low-field and high-field behavior

$$
\mu(E) = \frac{\mu_0}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{\mu_0 E}{v_{sat}}\right)^{\beta}\right]^{1/\beta}}
$$

 $\beta$  = 1 for electrons  $\beta$  = 2 for holes

 $\mathsf{v}_{\mathsf{sat}}$  is modeled as a temperature-dependent quantity:

$$
v_{sat}(T) = \frac{2.4 \times 10^7}{1 + 0.8 \exp\left(\frac{T_L}{600}\right)} \text{ cm/s}
$$

#### Field-Dependent Mobility