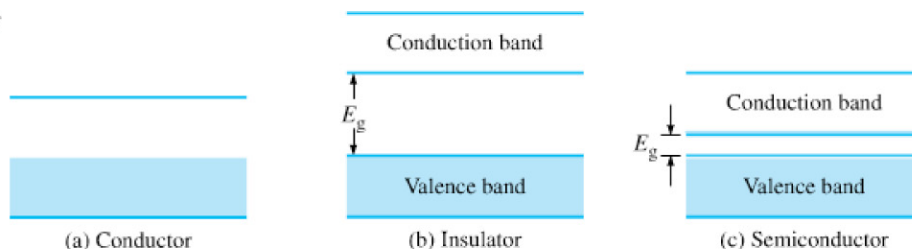


**FIGURE 29–23** Energy bands for (a) a conductor, (b) an insulator, which has a large energy gap  $E_g$ , and (c) a semiconductor, which has a small energy gap  $E_g$ . Shading represents occupied states. Pale shading in (c) represents electrons that can pass from the top of the valence band to the bottom of the conduction band due to thermal agitation at room temperature (exaggerated).



*Semiconductors (pure)*

Figure 29–23 compares the relevant energy bands (a) for conductors, (b) for insulators, and also (c) for the important class of materials known as **semiconductors**. The bands for a pure (or **intrinsic**) semiconductor, such as silicon or germanium, are like those for an insulator, except that the unfilled conduction band is separated from the filled valence band by a much smaller energy gap,  $E_g$ , typically on the order of 1 eV. At room temperature, a few electrons can acquire enough thermal energy to reach the conduction band, and so a very small current may flow when a voltage is applied. At higher temperatures, more electrons have enough energy to jump the gap. Often this effect can more than offset the effects of more frequent collisions due to increased disorder at higher temperature, so the resistivity of semiconductors can *decrease* with increasing temperature (see Table 18–1). But this is not the whole story of semiconductor conduction. When a potential difference is applied to a semiconductor, the few electrons in the conduction band move toward the positive electrode. Electrons in the valence band try to do the same thing, and a few can because there are a small number of unoccupied states which were left empty by the electrons reaching the conduction band. Such unfilled electron states are called **holes**. Each electron in the valence band that fills a hole in this way as it moves toward the positive electrode leaves behind its own hole, so the holes migrate toward the negative electrode. As the electrons tend to accumulate at one side of the material, the holes tend to accumulate on the opposite side. We will look at this phenomenon in more detail in the next Section.

*Holes (in a semiconductor)*

**EXAMPLE 29–4** **Calculating the energy gap.** It is found that the conductivity of a certain semiconductor increases when light of wavelength 345 nm or shorter strikes it, suggesting that electrons are being promoted from the valence band to the conduction band. What is the energy gap,  $E_g$ , for this semiconductor?

**APPROACH** The longest wavelength (lowest energy) photon to cause an increase in conductivity has  $\lambda = 345$  nm, and its energy ( $= hf$ ) equals the energy gap.

**SOLUTION** The gap energy equals the energy of a  $\lambda = 345$ -nm photon:

$$E_g = hf = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{(345 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m})(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/eV})} = 3.6 \text{ eV}.$$

**CONCEPTUAL EXAMPLE 29–5** **Which is transparent?** The energy gap for silicon is 1.14 eV at room temperature, whereas that of zinc sulfide (ZnS) is 3.6 eV. Which one of these is opaque to visible light, and which is transparent?

**RESPONSE** Visible light photons span energies from roughly 1.8 eV to 3.2 eV ( $E = hf = hc/\lambda$  where  $\lambda = 400$  nm to 700 nm and  $1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ .) Light is absorbed by the electrons in a material. Silicon’s energy gap is small enough to absorb these photons, thus bumping electrons well up into the conduction band, so silicon is opaque. On the other hand, zinc sulfide’s energy gap is too large to absorb visible photons, so the light can pass through the material; it can be transparent.