Bandgap Tunability of Dilute Nitride III-V Semiconductors for Optoelectronic and Solar Power Applications: Review

Akinrotimi Odetoran^{*1}, Adesewa O. Maselugbo¹, Victor Hammed¹, Bukola

Adesanmi¹

¹Joint School of Nanoscience and Nanoengineering, North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University, NC 27401, USA. *Indicates the corresponding author * Corresponding author: Akinrotimi Odetoran

Abstract

In recent years, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have attracted considerable interest due to their unique electronic and optical properties, which make them suitable for a variety of optoelectronic and solar power applications. This article examines the various techniques for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, as well as the underlying mechanisms and their effect on device performance. Recent advancements in epitaxial growth, material characterization, and device fabrication, as well as the challenges and prospects of the field, are discussed. Researchers can optimize their applications in optoelectronics and solar power generation by understanding the fundamental properties and strategies for tuning the bandgap of these materials.

Date of Submission: 06-04-2023 Date of Acceptance: 18-04-2023

I. Introduction

The unique electronic and optical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, which make them suitable for a variety of optoelectronic and solar power applications, have attracted considerable attention[1, 2]. These materials offer new possibilities for bandgap engineering, enabling enhanced device performance and energy conversion efficiencies [3].

As the demand for renewable energy sources and efficient optoelectronic devices grows, the development and optimization of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors become indispensable. These materials have the potential for tunable emission wavelengths, spectral sensitivity, and higher energy conversion efficiencies, making them desirable for a variety of applications [4, 5]. This review intends to provide a comprehensive understanding of the methods for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, the underlying mechanisms, and their effect on device performance.

This review is divided into six sections, including the introduction. The second section offers an overview of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, their properties, and their applications, as well as the significance of bandgap engineering in optoelectronics and solar power. The third section examines techniques for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, including epitaxial growth techniques.

1.1 History and motivation

The emergence of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors has the potential to revolutionize optoelectronics and renewable energy production [6, 7]. As a result of the incorporation of nitrogen into conventional III-V semiconductor compounds such as gallium arsenide (GaAs) and indium phosphide (InP), these materials have unique electronic and optical properties that make them of particular interest[3, 8]. Nitrogen significantly reduces the bandgap of these materials, allowing them to operate at longer wavelengths than their conventional counterparts while retaining desirable material properties such as high carrier mobility and quick response times [9].

The exceptional properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have enabled numerous applications in optoelectronics and solar power generation. These materials have been utilized, for instance, in the development of high-performance lasers, photodetectors, and solar cells that exhibit enhanced efficiency and performance characteristics compared to conventional semiconductor devices[5]. The ability to engineer the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors through a variety of techniques have played a crucial role in the

development of these advanced device applications, as it permits precise control of the material's optical and electronic properties [10].

Motivated by the potential impact of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in optoelectronics and solar power applications, there has been a surge in research efforts to comprehend and optimize these materials. Advanced growth techniques, such as molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) and metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), have enabled precise control over material composition and structure, resulting in high-quality dilute nitride III-V semiconductor films with customized bandgaps [9]. In addition, researchers have made substantial advances in comprehending the fundamental properties of these materials, such as their electronic structure, carrier dynamics, and defect behavior, which are essential for optimizing device performance and reliability [11].

Despite the remarkable progress made in the field of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, there are still numerous obstacles to overcome. Controlling material quality and minimizing defects, which can inhibit device performance and dependability, is one of the field's most pressing challenges [7]. Additionally, the scalability and cost of producing dilute nitride III-V semiconductor devices remain significant barriers to their widespread market adoption, as the growth techniques and material processing involved can be costly and complex [12].

In light of these obstacles, researchers and engineers must continue to investigate new methods for enhancing the performance and cost-effectiveness of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. By advancing our understanding of the fundamental properties of these materials and developing innovative bandgap engineering strategies, it may be possible to realize the full potential of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors for use in optoelectronics and solar power generation. This extensive analysis aims to provide an in-depth overview of the most recent advancements in the field and to identify the most significant challenges and prospects.

1.2 Scope and structure of the evaluation

This extensive review focuses on the unique properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, the methods used to tune their bandgaps, and their potential applications in optoelectronics and solar power generation. Beginning with the fundamentals of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors and progressing to more advanced topics, such as the methods for tuning their bandgaps, material characterization techniques, device applications, and the challenges and prospects of the field, the review is divided into several sections, each discussing a crucial aspect of these materials.

Following the introduction, the first section provides an overview of III-V dilute nitride semiconductors. This section discusses the fundamental properties and characteristics of these materials, such as their electronic structure, optical properties, and the role that nitrogen plays in modifying their behavior. In addition, the section provides a concise analysis of the significance of bandgap engineering and its implications for optoelectronics and solar power applications.

In the second section, the various techniques for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors are discussed. This section discusses the essential epitaxial growth techniques, such as molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) and metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), for producing high-quality dilute nitride III-V semiconductor films. In addition, this section investigates additional techniques for bandgap tuning, such as strain engineering, quantum confinement, impurity-induced bandgap engineering, and other emerging methods.

The third section is devoted to the characterization of III-V semiconductors containing dilute nitride. This section examines the structural, optical, and electrical characterization techniques used to evaluate the quality and properties of these materials. X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), photoluminescence (PL), spectroscopic ellipsometry, Hall Effect measurements, and capacitance-voltage (C-V) profiling are among the techniques covered in this section.

The fourth section focuses on the various applications of tuned bandgap dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in optoelectronics and solar energy generation. This section discusses the use of these materials in the fabrication of optoelectronic devices like lasers and photodetectors, as well as their application in solar power generation via the development of multi-junction solar cells and intermediate band solar cells.

In the fifth section of the review, the challenges and prospects of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors are discussed. This section explores potential solutions and emerging technologies that may assist in overcoming the challenges posed by material quality, defects, scalability, and cost, as well as highlighting the key issues relating to material quality, defects, scalability, and cost. In addition, this section provides an outlook on the future of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, discussing novel applications and opportunities for additional research.

This review's objective is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the various aspects of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, from their fundamental properties to their potential applications in optoelectronics and solar power generation. The review aims to inspire further research and innovation in the field of dilute

nitride III-V semiconductors by presenting the most recent developments and addressing the key challenges and prospects, ultimately contributing to the advancement of optoelectronics and renewable energy technologies.

II. III-V Semiconductors

2.1 An Introduction to III-V Semiconductors

III-V semiconductors are a class of compound semiconductors formed by combining elements from group III of the periodic table, including gallium (Ga), indium (In), and aluminum (Al), with elements from group V, including arsenic (As), phosphorus (P), and antimony (Sb) [13]. These materials possess distinctive electronic and optical properties that set them apart from other semiconductors, such as silicon (Si) and germanium (Ge). Due to their diverse and adaptable properties, III-V semiconductors have garnered significant interest from researchers and engineers, particularly in the fields of optoelectronics and solar energy production [14].

The direct bandgap nature of III-V semiconductors, which enables efficient light emission and absorption, is one of their most prominent characteristics [15]. The bandgap of a semiconductor determines the energy required for an electron to transition from the valence band to the conduction band, a crucial parameter that governs the electronic and optical properties of the material [16]. In direct bandgap semiconductors, the minimum energy of the conduction band aligns with the maximum energy of the valence band in momentum space, allowing for efficient radiative recombination of electrons and holes, resulting in light emission. This property is especially important for optoelectronic devices, such as light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and lasers, where efficient light emission is a prerequisite [17].

The high carrier mobility of III-V semiconductors, which refers to the ease with which electrons and holes can move through the material under the influence of an electric field, is another crucial characteristic [13]. High carrier mobility is advantageous for electronic and optoelectronic devices because it can result in quicker response times, decreased power consumption, and enhanced overall device performance [13]. Due to their distinctive electronic structure and lower electron and hole effective masses, III-V semiconductors typically exhibit higher carrier mobility than other semiconductor materials, such as silicon [17].

The tunable properties of III-V semiconductors make them extraordinarily versatile for a vast array of applications. By modifying the composition of the compound semiconductor, it is possible to precisely control the material's bandgap, lattice constant, and other properties, thereby enabling the creation of devices with tailored performance characteristics [14]. This capability to manipulate the properties of III-V semiconductors has resulted in the development of numerous optoelectronic devices with diverse functionalities, such as lasers operating at different wavelengths, high-speed transistors for advanced communication systems, and efficient solar cells for renewable energy generation [16].

Figure 1: Bandgap energy as a function of lattice constant and wavelength for different semiconductor materials.[18]

Despite their numerous benefits, III-V semiconductors have limitations that must be taken into account when designing devices and systems based on these materials. Due to the need for specialized growth techniques and the possibility of material incompatibility, the growth, and fabrication of III-V semiconductor devices can be more difficult and expensive than that of silicon-based devices, for example [17]. In addition, III-V semiconductors may have higher defect densities than silicon, which can affect device performance and dependability [13]. As a result, researchers have continuously sought to enhance the material quality and processing techniques of III-V semiconductors, in addition to exploring novel approaches for bandgap engineering and device integration [17].

In recent years, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have emerged as a promising subset of III-V materials with the potential to significantly expand the applications and capabilities of these compound semiconductors [19]. The incorporation of a small amount of nitrogen (N) into conventional III-V compounds produces dilute nitride III-V semiconductors with significantly altered electronic and optical properties [1]. Nitrogen adds new degrees of freedom to bandgap engineering, enabling the development of devices with tailored properties and performance characteristics that were previously unattainable using only conventional III-V semiconductors [4].

In conclusion, III-V semiconductors are a diverse and versatile class of materials that have been instrumental in the development of modern optoelectronics and solar power generation technologies. Their exceptional electronic and optical properties, such as their direct bandgap and high carrier mobility, make them highly desirable for a vast array of applications. However, difficulties associated with material growth, processing, and defect densities continue to exist, driving ongoing research and innovation in this field. The introduction of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors has introduced new opportunities for bandgap engineering and broadened the potential applications of these materials, thereby reinforcing their significance in the ongoing development of optoelectronics and renewable energy technologies.

2.2 Properties and Applications for Dilute Nitride III-V Semiconductors

Incorporating a small amount of nitrogen (N) into conventional III-V compounds, such as GaAs, GaP, and InP, produces dilute nitride III-V semiconductors with significantly altered electronic and optical properties [19]. The incorporation of nitrogen into these materials results in a significant decrease in bandgap energy, which can be attributed to the large difference in electronegativity between nitrogen and other group V elements [20]. This decrease in bandgap energy enables the creation of optoelectronic devices that operate at longer wavelengths, such as those required for telecommunications and infrared sensing applications [21].

In addition to influencing the bandgap, the incorporation of nitrogen into III-V semiconductors affects the lattice constant and electron-effective mass [6]. In certain applications, such as enhanced carrier confinement in quantum well structures and increased absorption coefficients in solar cells, these modifications can result in enhanced device performance In addition, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors can exhibit high carrier mobility and low defect densities, which are advantageous for the development of high-performance devices[21].

Unique properties of III-V dilute nitride semiconductors have created new opportunities for the advancement of optoelectronic devices and solar power generation technologies. For instance, dilute nitridebased lasers have been shown to operate at wavelengths beyond the capabilities of conventional III-V materials, such as those required for long-haul fiber-optic communication systems and gas sensing applications. These lasers have demonstrated the potential to achieve high output powers, low threshold currents, and temperatureinsensitive performance, making them ideal candidates for a wide range of communication and sensing applications[7, 22].

Due to their ability to detect light in the near-infrared and mid-infrared regions, which are essential for applications such as thermal imaging, remote sensing, and environmental monitoring, dilute nitride-based photodetectors have also attracted considerable attention in recent years [19]. Additionally, researchers have investigated the use of dilute nitride materials for the fabrication of avalanche photodiodes (APDs), which can provide high gain and low noise performance for low-light-level detection applications[23].

In the context of solar power generation, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors provide several benefits for enhancing the performance and efficiency of solar cells. The tunable bandgap of dilute nitride materials permits the development of multi-junction solar cells with optimized energy conversion efficiency over a broad spectrum of solar spectra[24]. Multi-junction solar cells containing dilute nitride materials have shown record-breaking efficiencies, surpassing those of conventional III-V-based solar cells [25]. This enhanced efficiency can result in substantial cost reductions for solar energy production, making it more competitive with conventional energy sources.

Additionally, dilute nitride materials can be used to produce intermediate-band solar cells, which can potentially surpass the Shockley-Queisser limit for single-junction solar cell efficiency by utilizing sub-bandgap photon absorption [26]. The intermediate band concept involves the addition of an additional energy level within the bandgap, which permits the absorption of low-energy photons that would otherwise be transmitted without contributing to the photocurrent [27]. Researchers can advance the state of the art in renewable energy technologies by incorporating dilute nitride materials into intermediate band solar cell designs [28].

In addition to their use in optoelectronics and solar power generation, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have demonstrated potential in other emerging technologies. For instance, researchers have examined the use of dilute nitride materials in the fabrication of thermophotovoltaic (TPV) cells that convert thermal radiation into electricity with high efficiency Due to their tunable bandgap and high absorption coefficients, dilute nitride materials can be designed to optimize the spectral match between the TPV cell and the thermal radiation source, resulting in higher conversion efficiencies[29].

The development of dilute nitride-based light-emitting diodes (LEDs) for solid-state lighting and display applications is another area of interest. Researchers can achieve efficient emission at various wavelengths, including those in the visible and near-infrared regions, by adjusting the bandgap of dilute nitride materials. High external quantum efficiencies, low operating voltages, and temperature-insensitive performance have been demonstrated by dilute nitride LEDs, making them promising candidates for energy-efficient lighting and display technologies[30].

Despite the numerous benefits offered by dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, their growth, processing, and integration into devices present obstacles. Nitrogen incorporation into III-V materials can result in increased defect densities and decreased material quality, which can have negative effects on device performance and reliability [19]. To overcome these obstacles, ongoing research focuses on optimizing growth conditions, refining material characterization techniques, and developing new device architectures that fully exploit the distinctive properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. For instance, researchers have investigated the use of antimony (Sb) surfactants during the growth of dilute nitride materials to enhance their structural and optical properties[6].

In summary, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors are a promising class of materials for numerous optoelectronic and solar power generation applications. The combination of their distinctive electronic and

optical properties with the engineering potential of bandgaps enables the creation of high-performance devices with tailored characteristics for specific applications. While challenges remain in the growth and processing of dilute nitride materials, ongoing research is paving the way for their widespread adoption in optoelectronic and renewable energy technologies of the next generation.

2.3 The significance of bandgap engineering in optoelectronics and solar power

Bandgap engineering is a potent method that involves manipulating the electronic properties of semiconductor material to achieve the desired bandgap energy. This can be achieved by modifying the composition, structure, or doping levels of the material. The ability to tailor the bandgap of a semiconductor material is essential for the development of high-performance optoelectronic devices and solar power systems because it enables the optimization of key device parameters, including absorption, emission, and energy conversion efficiency[9].

Bandgap engineering is essential to the design and fabrication of light-emitting diodes (LEDs), lasers, and photodetectors in optoelectronics [31]. For LEDs, the bandgap determines the wavelength of the emitted light, which must be tuned to specific regions of the electromagnetic spectrum for applications including visible light communication, solid-state lighting, and infrared imaging. By engineering the bandgap of the active region in LEDs, researchers can achieve high external quantum efficiencies and low operating voltages, which are necessary for energy-efficient lighting and display technologies[30].

Similarly, bandgap engineering is essential to the development of semiconductor lasers, which are widely employed in telecommunications, data storage, and medical applications [32]. The lasing wavelength of a semiconductor laser is determined primarily by the bandgap of the active region, which must be precisely tuned to meet the needs of particular applications [31].

In photodetectors, the bandgap determines the spectral range of light that can be detected, a crucial parameter for a variety of applications, including imaging, sensing, and optical communication [19]. By engineering the bandgap of a photodetector, researchers can improve its responsivity and quantum efficiency, enabling the detection of light signals with lower intensities and enhancing the device's overall performance [19].

Bandgap engineering is also of great significance in the field of solar power generation, as it has a direct influence on the energy conversion efficiency of solar cells. The bandgap of a solar cell material determines what portion of the solar spectrum can be converted to electrical energy. By optimizing the bandgap, researchers can improve the photocurrent generation and power conversion efficiency of solar cells, thereby resulting in enhanced renewable energy technologies [33].

Multi-junction solar cells, comprised of multiple layers of different semiconductor materials with varying bandgaps, have emerged as a promising strategy for attaining high energy conversion efficiencies. In this arrangement, each layer is designed to absorb and convert photons with specific energies, thus utilizing a broader range of the solar spectrum. Bandgap engineering is necessary for the design and optimization of multi-junction solar cells because it permits the precise tuning of each layer's bandgap to match the solar spectrum and maximize the overall energy conversion efficiency[28].

In conclusion, bandgap engineering is a crucial method for modifying the electronic properties of semiconductor materials, with significant implications for the performance and efficiency of optoelectronic devices and solar power systems. By manipulating the bandgap of semiconductor materials, researchers can optimize key device parameters such as absorption, emission, and energy conversion efficiency, leading to the development of cutting-edge technologies in fields including solid-state lighting, communication, imaging, sensing, and renewable energy generation. The significance of bandgap engineering in optoelectronics and solar power applications highlights the need for a deeper understanding of the fundamental mechanisms that govern the bandgap tuning in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors and the development of novel strategies to exploit their unique properties for the advancement of next-generation optoelectronic and solar power technologies.

3.1 Epitaxial growth techniques

For the fabrication of high-quality semiconductor materials and devices, including dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, epitaxial growth techniques are indispensable. These techniques permit the deposition of thin, single-crystalline layers of one material onto a substrate of a different material while preserving the same crystal structure. Bandgap engineering and the realization of high-performance optoelectronic devices rely heavily on epitaxial growth because it permits precise control over the material composition, doping levels, and interface quality. [34]. This section discusses the most prevalent epitaxial growth techniques for dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, including molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) and metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD).

Molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) is a popular epitaxial growth method for producing high-quality dilute nitride III-V semiconductor materials [9]. MBE is an ultra-high vacuum (UHV) technique involving the

controlled evaporation of elemental or compound sources onto a heated substrate [34]. MBE offers numerous benefits for the growth of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, such as low growth temperatures, high purity, excellent control over material composition and doping, and the ability to grow sharp interfaces and superlattices[4].Molecular Beam Epitaxy (MBE) has many drawbacks, including relatively low growth rates, high equipment costs, and the potential for contamination by background impurities [34].

Metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), also referred to as organometallic vapor-phase epitaxy (OMVPE), is an additional prominent epitaxial growth technique for dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [35]. MOCVD is a chemical vapor deposition (CVD) technique that involves the thermal decomposition of metal-organic precursors to deposit thin epitaxial layers on a heated substrate [34]. Typically, a carrier gas, such as hydrogen or nitrogen, transports the precursors to the reaction chamber, where they decompose on the substrate surface and form the desired material MOCVD has several advantages over MBE, including faster growth rates, improved uniformity, and the capacity to grow large-area wafers and complex device structures. In addition, MOCVD is well-suited for the growth of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors because it permits the incorporation of nitrogen into the lattice through the use of nitrogen-containing precursors such as ammonia or hydrazine[36].

In conclusion, epitaxial growth techniques such as MBE and MOCVD are indispensable for the production of high-quality dilute nitride III-V semiconductors and their applications in optoelectronics and solar power generation.

3.1.2 Organic-Metal Chemical Vapor Deposition (MOCVD)

Metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), also referred to as organometallic vapor-phase epitaxy (OMVPE), is a widely utilized epitaxial growth technique for the fabrication of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors and other compound semiconductors. MOCVD offers several advantages over other growth techniques, such as molecular beam epitaxy (MBE), such as faster growth rates, improved uniformity, and the ability to grow large-area wafers and complex device structures[37]. This section provides a comprehensive analysis of the MOCVD technique, its underlying principles, and its application to the growth of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

MOCVD entails the thermal decomposition of metal-organic precursors to deposit thin epitaxial layers on a heated substrate [34]. Typically, a carrier gas, such as hydrogen or nitrogen, transports the precursors to the reaction chamber, where they decompose on the substrate surface and form the desired material [38]. MOCVD provides excellent control over the material composition, doping levels, and interface quality, all of which are essential for the production of high-performance optoelectronic devices and solar cells based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors[19].

Figure 2: Epitaxial Growth Techniques- An overview

Despite its many benefits, MOCVD has some disadvantages and obstacles. In the case of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, the requirement for high growth temperatures can result in thermal degradation and interdiffusion of the constituent elements [34]. This issue may be mitigated by optimizing growth conditions, employing alternative precursors, or employing novel growth techniques, such as plasma-assisted MOCVD [39].

A further difficulty associated with MOCVD is the possibility of gas-phase reactions and parasitic deposition, which can lead to non-uniform growth and the formation of undesirable secondary phases or precipitates [34]. This issue can be resolved by carefully controlling precursor flow rates, partial pressures, and growth temperature, and by employing in situ monitoring techniques such as reflectance anisotropy spectroscopy (RAS) or optical emission spectroscopy (OES) to ensure optimal growth conditions and material quality [40].

The use of toxic and expensive metal-organic precursors is a further disadvantage of MOCVD, which can raise safety and environmental concerns and increase the cost of the growth process as a whole [34]. Alternative precursors and deposition techniques, such as aerosol-assisted MOCVD or atomic layer deposition (ALD), are being investigated by researchers to reduce reliance on hazardous materials and minimize their environmental impact [41].

MOCVD has emerged as a powerful and versatile technique for the growth of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, enabling the development of novel optoelectronic and solar power devices with superior performance and energy conversion efficiencies despite the aforementioned obstacles [21]. To fully exploit the potential of MOCVD and overcome its limitations, ongoing research focuses on developing new precursors, refining the growth parameters, and investigating novel growth strategies, such as selective area epitaxy, nanoepitaxy, and hybrid MOCVD/MBE approaches [34].

MOCVD is a widely utilized epitaxial growth technique for the fabrication of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, offering numerous advantages over other techniques, including high growth rates, excellent uniformity, and the ability to grow large-area wafers and complex device structures. However, MOCVD also presents some obstacles and limitations, including high growth temperatures, gas-phase reactions, and the use of toxic and pricey precursors. By addressing these issues and optimizing the growth conditions, researchers will be able to fully exploit the potential of MOCVD for the development of advanced optoelectronic devices and solar power systems based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

3.2 Stress Analysis

Strain engineering is an effective method for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors because it permits the manipulation of their electronic and optical properties by introducing a controlled lattice mismatch between material layers [5]. The induced strain modifies the energy band structure of the semiconductor, resulting in a modification of the bandgap and, consequently, the optical and electronic properties of the material [42].

There are two primary strain engineering types: compressive strain and tensile strain. In compressive strain engineering, the epitaxial layer lattice parameter is greater than that of the substrate, causing the epitaxial layer to contract to match the substrate lattice parameter[5]. In tensile strain engineering, however, the lattice parameter of the epitaxial layer is smaller than that of the substrate, causing the epitaxial layer to expand to accommodate the lattice mismatch [42]. Depending on the application requirements, both compressive and tensile strain can be used to manipulate the band structure of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors and thus control the bandgap and other material properties [5].

Strain engineering is attainable by modifying the growth conditions and material composition of epitaxial layers [5]. To introduce the desired strain in the subsequently grown layers, it is common to use a buffer layer with a different lattice parameter than the substrate, which can be a single material or a graded composition [5]. Another strategy is to grow the dilute nitride III-V semiconductor on a lattice-mismatched substrate, such as a GaAs or InP substrate, which, depending on the specific material combinations, can induce compressive or tensile strain [42].

Strain engineering has been applied successfully to various dilute nitride III-V semiconductor systems, including InGaAsN, InGaAsP, and GaInNAs, to tune their bandgap for optoelectronic and solar power applications [43]. Compressive strain engineering, for instance, has been used to redshift the emission wavelength of InGaAsN-based laser diodes, enabling the development of long-wavelength communication systems and novel photonic devices [5]. Similarly, tensile strain engineering has been used to increase the efficiency of multi-junction solar cells by enhancing the band alignment and decreasing the bandgap of the dilute nitride absorber layers, resulting in increased photocurrent generation and overall device performance [43]. The relaxation of strain, which can occur spontaneously during growth or post-growth annealing and can lead to alterations in material properties and device performance, is another difficulty in strain engineering[42].

Researchers are continually developing techniques to control the strain relaxation process, such as optimizing growth conditions, employing strain-balancing layers, and utilizing post-growth treatments [5].

In addition, strain engineering can sometimes result in undesirable changes in the material properties, such as carrier mobility, effective mass, and optical polarization, which can impact the overall performance of the device [5]. To address this issue, researchers are investigating novel material combinations, growth techniques, and device designs that minimize the impact of strain-induced changes on device performance [43].

In conclusion, strain engineering is a potent and versatile technique for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, allowing for the optimization of their properties for a variety of optoelectronic and solar power applications. Despite the difficulties and limitations associated with strain engineering, ongoing research is focused on refining the growth conditions, material compositions, and device designs to fully exploit the bandgap engineering potential of this technique in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

3.3 Quantum confinement

Quantum confinement is a fundamental phenomenon in nanoscale semiconductor materials, whose electronic and optical properties are drastically altered due to their size, shape, and dimensions [44]. Quantum confinement is essential in diluting nitride III-V semiconductors for tailoring material properties and achieving efficient optoelectronic and solar power devices. This section explores the quantum confinement principles, their effects on the bandgap, and the nanostructures and techniques used to exploit quantum confinement in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

The quantum confinement principle derives from the fact that the wave functions of charge carriers (electrons and holes) in a semiconductor are constrained to the nanostructure's dimensions [45]. This confinement results in the quantization of energy levels, producing discrete energy states as opposed to the continuous energy bands observed in bulk materials. The energy separation between these quantized levels is proportional to the size and shape of the nanostructure, enabling precise control of the bandgap and other electronic properties [46].

Quantum confinement can have a substantial effect on the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, causing a blue shift in the bandgap energy as the dimensions of the nanostructure decrease [44]. This blue shift is caused by the increased energy spacing between quantized levels, which enables the bandgap to be tuned over a broad range, making it suitable for a variety of optoelectronic and solar power applications [47].

To exploit quantum confinement in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, several nanostructures, including quantum wells, quantum wires, and quantum dots, have been studied [45, 47]. Quantum wells are thin layers of semiconductor material sandwiched between two barriers, resulting in the one-dimensional confinement of charge carriers. Quantum dots confine charge carriers in all three dimensions, whereas quantum wires confine them in two dimensions. Each nanostructure possesses distinctive electronic and optical properties that offer potential benefits for specific applications [47].

Various growth techniques, such as molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) and metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), have been used to realize quantum confinement in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [7, 45]. These techniques permit the precise control of the nanostructures' size, shape, and composition, which is essential for achieving the desired level of confinement and the associated changes in material properties [21].

Quantum confinement has been successfully applied to improve the performance of lasers, photodetectors, and light-emitting diodes that are based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [47]. Compared to their bulk counterparts, quantum well and quantum dot lasers have demonstrated greater temperature stability, lower threshold currents, and higher output powers [7, 45]. Quantum confinement has also been utilized in multi-junction and intermediate-band solar cells to increase their energy conversion efficiencies [48].

Quantum confinement is crucial for tailoring the bandgap and other electronic properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, allowing for the optimization of these materials for a variety of optoelectronic and solar power applications.

3.4 Engineering of impurity-induced bandgaps

Engineering the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors via impurity-induced bandgap is an additional effective method. This method entails the deliberate addition of impurities (dopants) to the semiconductor material, which modifies its electronic and optical properties [11]. Following is a discussion of the principles of impurity-induced bandgap engineering, the types of impurities used, and the effects of doping on the bandgap and performance of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors used in optoelectronic and solar power applications.

Impurity-induced bandgap engineering is predicated on the theory that the incorporation of impurities into a semiconductor lattice can alter the energy levels and spatial distribution of electrons and holes within the material [49]. The presence of impurities can result in the formation of new energy levels within the bandgap,

known as impurity states, which can impact the bandgap energy and optical properties of the material [50]. By controlling the type, concentration, and distribution of impurities, the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors can be tailored to specific applications [49].

For bandgap engineering in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, various types of impurities, including isovalent impurities, donor impurities, and acceptor impurities, have been studied[50]. Isovalent impurities, such as bismuth (Bi), replace an element in the lattice without altering its charge state, resulting in a modification of the local electronic environment and the formation of impurity states[49]. Donor impurities, such as silicon (Si) or sulfur (S), add electrons to the conduction band, whereas acceptor impurities, such as magnesium (Mg) or zinc (Zn), introduce holes into the valence band [50]. By adjusting the type and concentration of these impurities, the bandgap, absorption spectrum, and carrier dynamics of the material can be altered [31].

Various dilute nitride III-V semiconductor structures, including bulk materials, quantum wells, and quantum dots, have utilized impurity-induced bandgap engineering to achieve the desired electronic and optical properties [49]. Different growth techniques, such as molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) or metal-organic chemical vapor deposition (MOCVD), which offer precise control over the doping profile and composition, can be used to incorporate impurities [7].



Figure 3: Tuning band gap and enhancing optical functions of AGeF3 (where A = K, Rb) under pressure for improved optoelectronic applications[51]

Extensive research has been conducted on the effects of impurity-induced bandgap engineering on the performance of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in optoelectronic and solar power applications. It has been demonstrated that the incorporation of bismuth into GaAsN alloys significantly reduces the bandgap, which is

advantageous for infrared photodetectors and long-wavelength lasers [52]. In addition, it has been reported that doping with isovalent impurities improves the temperature stability and carrier dynamics of these materials, resulting in improved device performance [52].

In addition, impurity-induced bandgap engineering has been applied to multi-junction solar cells to achieve optimal energy conversion efficiencies. By incorporating impurities into the various subcells, it is possible to more closely match their bandgaps to the solar spectrum, thereby optimizing photocurrent generation and overall efficiency[53]. The introduction of isovalent impurities in the dilute nitride subcell, for instance, can facilitate the absorption of low-energy photons that would otherwise be transmitted through the device, thereby enhancing the overall energy conversion efficiency [52].

Similarly, impurity-induced bandgap engineering has been investigated in intermediate band solar cells (IBSCs), a novel solar cell architecture to exceed the Shockley-Queisser limit for single-junction solar cells [54]. In IBSCs, impurity states are introduced within the bandgap to produce an intermediate energy band, which permits the absorption of sub-bandgap photons and improves the overall energy conversion efficiency. By carefully selecting the type and concentration of impurities, it is possible to optimize the device performance by engineering the intermediate band's position and width [52].

Despite the potential benefits of impurity-induced bandgap engineering in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, several obstacles must be overcome to fully exploit this technique. First, the introduction of impurities can increase the density of defects and nonradiative recombination centers, which can negatively affect the optical and electrical properties of the material [50]. Consequently, it is essential to carefully regulate the growth conditions and impurity concentrations to minimize the formation of defects [49].

Impurity-induced bandgap engineering is a promising method for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, with the potential to improve the performance of optoelectronic and solar power devices. By understanding the principles of impurity-induced bandgap engineering and addressing the associated challenges, researchers can optimize the material properties and device architectures to fully exploit the unique capabilities of these materials for a variety of applications.

In addition to the above-mentioned techniques for tuning the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, several promising new techniques for advancing this field are currently under investigation. Among these procedures are nanostructure engineering, post-growth annealing, and ion implantation. By investigating these novel approaches, researchers hope to overcome the limitations of conventional bandgap engineering techniques and unlock new optoelectronic and solar power application potential.

3.5 Additional emerging methods

3.5.1 Nanotechnology Engineering

Nanostructure engineering entails the precise manipulation of material properties at the nanoscale, which enables the creation of unique electronic and optical properties not attainable in bulk materials [55]. Nanostructure engineering in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors can be accomplished by fabricating quantum dots, nanowires, or other low-dimensional structures with size- and shape-dependent properties [56].

Similarly, semiconductor nanowires provide a singular platform for bandgap engineering in dilute III-V nitride materials. The high surface-to-volume ratio and strong quantum confinement effects of these one-dimensional nanostructures can be exploited to tailor their electronic and optical properties [57]. In addition, nanowires can be synthesized with axial or radial heterostructures, allowing for the integration of multiple materials with distinct bandgaps and lattice constants [58]. This versatility makes nanowires an attractive platform for the development of next-generation solar power and optoelectronic devices with enhanced functionality and performance.

3.5.2 Post-Crystallization Annealing

Post-growth annealing is a thermal treatment process that modifies the structural, electronic, and optical properties of a semiconductor material by heating it to high temperatures after its growth.Post-growth annealing can be used to modify the bandgap in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors by influencing the distribution and clustering of nitrogen atoms within the lattice[49].

The thermal energy supplied during annealing can induce the migration and rearrangement of nitrogen atoms, leading to the formation of N-related complexes or clusters [52]. Due to the strong interaction between nitrogen and the host material's atoms, this clustering can lead to a significant bandgap reduction [13]. Researchers can control the degree of nitrogen clustering and the resulting bandgap modification by optimizing annealing conditions such as temperature, duration, and ambient atmosphere [52].

However, post-growth annealing can also induce the formation of defects and non-radiative recombination centers, which can have detrimental effects on the optical and electrical properties of the material [52]. To maximize the benefits of bandgap engineering while minimizing its negative effects on material quality, a delicate balance must be struck.

3.5.3 Implantation of Ions

Ion implantation is a technique involving the acceleration of ions into a solid target, which allows for the controlled introduction of dopants or impurities into semiconductor material [59]. Ion implantation can be used to modify the bandgap in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors by introducing additional impurities that interact with the lattice of the host material, thereby altering its electronic and optical properties [60].

The implantation of isovalent impurities, such as bismuth or antimony, which can substitute for group V elements in the crystal lattice without altering the charge balance, is one method[60]. These impurities can cause the formation of localized energy states within the bandgap, resulting in an effective bandgap reduction and the emergence of new optical transitions [60]. In GaAsN and InAsN alloys, the incorporation of bismuth or antimony led to significant bandgap reductions and increased infrared absorption [61].

Alternatively, ion implantation can be used to introduce transition metals or rare-earth elements that can serve as optically active centers or nonradiative recombination sites within the semiconductor [60]. By controlling the implantation conditions, such as ion energy, and post-implantation annealing, scientists can manipulate the impurity distribution and the resulting bandgap modification [60].

However, ion implantation can also result in lattice damage and point defects, which can negatively affect the optical and electrical properties of the material [62]. As with post-growth annealing, a delicate balance must be maintained to maximize the advantages of bandgap engineering while minimizing its negative effects on material quality.

Several emerging techniques, such as nanostructure engineering, post-growth annealing, and ion implantation, hold promise for future advancements in the bandgap engineering of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. Researchers can overcome the limitations of conventional methods and unlock new potential for optoelectronic and solar power applications by exploring these novel approaches. Future research should concentrate on elucidating the fundamental mechanisms governing these techniques, as well as their potential synergies and trade-offs, to develop optimized strategies for bandgap engineering in dilute nitride III-V materials.

4.1 Structural Descriptive Features

Understanding the properties and performance of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors requires structural characterization, as the presence of defects, impurities, and strain can have a significant impact on their electronic and optical properties[63]. In this section, the primary structural characterization techniques used for these materials, including X-ray diffraction (XRD) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM), will be discussed (TEM).

4.1.1 X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction (XRD) is a widely used, nondestructive technique for characterizing the structure of crystalline materials, including semiconductors [64]. XRD provides data on the lattice parameters, crystal structure, and strain of material by analyzing the interference pattern of X-rays scattered by the crystal lattice [64]. XRD can be used to determine the alloy composition, lattice mismatch, and strain relaxation of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [64].

Figure 4: Applications of Solar Cells

High-resolution X-ray diffraction (HRXRD) is a specialized form of X-ray diffraction that permits the precise analysis of thin film and epitaxial layer structures [65]. HRXRD can reveal the presence of dislocations and other defects that may result from lattice mismatch or impurity incorporation. In addition, by employing the reciprocal space mapping technique, HRXRD permits the simultaneous determination of in-plane and out-of-plane lattice parameters, thereby shedding additional light on strain relaxation and defect formation [65].

4.1.2 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

TEM is a powerful, high-resolution imaging technique that permits direct observation of atomic-scale structures, defects, and interfaces in crystalline materials [66](Williams & Carter, 2009). TEM can be used to investigate the distribution of nitrogen and other impurities in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, as well as the formation of defects such as dislocations, stacking faults, and precipitates.

High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) enables the visualization of subangstrom-resolution atomic columns, lattice fringes, and crystallographic planes [66]. This level of granularity permits researchers to examine the local strain fields, lattice distortions, and atomic arrangements surrounding impurities and defects in dilute nitride III-V materials [67]. By comprehending the structural implications of these flaws, researchers can devise methods for minimizing their effect on device performance and dependability.

In addition to scanning transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) and electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) can be used to obtain compositional information with scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM)[68]. These analytical techniques permit the quantitative determination of nitrogen and other impurity concentrations, in addition to the mapping of their spatial distribution within the semiconductor[67]. This data can assist researchers in optimizing growth conditions and post-growth treatments to achieve the desired bandgap engineering and material quality.

In conclusion, structural characterization techniques, such as XRD and TEM, are indispensable for comprehending the properties and performance of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. By providing detailed information on the crystal structure, lattice parameters, strain, and defects, these methods enable researchers to evaluate the effect of bandgap engineering strategies and develop new approaches to enhance material quality and device performance.

4.2 Characterization Optical

For evaluating the optical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, which directly affect their performance in optoelectronic and solar power applications, optical characterization techniques are indispensable. In these materials, these techniques can shed light on the energy band structure, optical transitions, and defect-related phenomena. In this section, we will discuss photoluminescence (PL) and spectroscopic ellipsometry as two of the most important optical characterization techniques for dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

4.2.1 Photoluminescence (PL)

Photoluminescence (PL) is a common method for studying the optical properties of semiconductors because it provides information on the radiative recombination processes that occur within the material Researchers can determine the bandgap and the presence of defect-related or impurity-related emission features by analyzing the emitted light as a function of wavelength or energy[69].

Temperature-dependent PL measurements can shed light on the mechanisms underlying the observed optical transitions in dilute III-V nitride semiconductors [1]. As the temperature rises, the thermal energy can cause the redistribution of carriers between distinct energy states, resulting in modifications to the PL spectra. These modifications can be used to identify the presence of localized states, band-tail states, or potential fluctuations resulting from compositional disorder or defects [1].

By observing the temporal evolution of the PL signal in response to pulsed excitation, time-resolved photoluminescence (PL) measurements provide an alternative method for examining the carrier dynamics in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. Researchers can deduce the role of defects, non-radiative processes, and carrier localization in these materials by measuring the carrier lifetime and recombination rates [70, 71]. This information is essential for optimizing the growth and processing conditions, as well as comprehending the performance limitations of the device.

4.2.2 Spectroscopic Ellipsometry

Spectroscopic ellipsometry is a nondestructive optical technique that determines the complex refractive index and the thickness of thin films by measuring the change in the polarization state of light upon reflection from a sample. By analyzing ellipsometric data over a spectrum of wavelengths, researchers can determine the material's dielectric function and optical constants, which are directly related to the material's electronic band structure and optical transitions [72].

Spectroscopic ellipsometry can be used to examine the effects of nitrogen incorporation, strain, and quantum confinement on the optical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. Researchers can extract information about the bandgap, absorption coefficients, and the presence of defect- or impurity-related states by fitting measured data to appropriate models [73]. This information is essential for comprehending the mechanisms underlying bandgap engineering and optimizing the material properties for specific applications.

In conclusion, in order to comprehend the optical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, optical characterization techniques such as PL and spectroscopic ellipsometry are essential. By providing insights into the energy band structure, optical transitions, and defect-related phenomena, these methods allow researchers to evaluate the effects of various bandgap engineering strategies and optimize the material properties for optoelectronic and solar power applications.

4.3 Electrical Specification

Electrical characterization techniques are essential for assessing the electrical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, which have a direct impact on their performance in optoelectronic and solar power devices. These techniques can shed light on the concentrations, mobility, and transport mechanisms of carriers within the material. This section discusses Hall Effect measurements and capacitance-voltage (C-V) profiling as important electrical characterization techniques for dilute nitride III-V semiconductors.

4.3.1 Hall Effect Calculations

Hall Effect measurements are a common method for determining the concentration and mobility of carriers in semiconductors. The Hall Effect occurs when a magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the direction of an electric current, causing charge carriers to experience a force that results in a voltage difference across a sample. Researchers can calculate the concentration, mobility, and type of carriers (electrons or holes) present in a sample by measuring the Hall voltage and the resistivity of the material [74].

Hall Effect measurements can provide valuable information on the effects of nitrogen incorporation, strain, and defects on the electrical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. Carrier concentration and mobility are crucial device performance parameters, as they determine the electrical conductivity, response time, and charge carrier collection efficiency in optoelectronic and solar power devices [1]. Researchers can tailor the electrical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors for specific applications by optimizing growth and processing conditions.

4.3.2 Capacitance-Voltage (C-V) Profiling

Capacitance-voltage (C-V) profiling is a non-destructive method for identifying the electronic properties of semiconductor devices, such as metal-oxide-semiconductor (MOS) capacitors, Schottky diodes, and p-n junctions [75]. Researchers can determine the doping profile, carrier concentration, and presence of defects or interface states in a material by measuring the capacitance as a function of the applied voltage [75].

C-V profiling can be used to examine the effects of nitrogen incorporation, strain, and quantum confinement on the electronic properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [76]. Researchers can evaluate the quality of the interfaces, the presence of defects, and the effect of bandgap engineering on device performance by analyzing the C-V characteristics [76]. This information is essential for comprehending the material's limitations and optimizing device structures for optoelectronic and solar power applications.

In conclusion, electrical characterization techniques, such as Hall Effect measurements and capacitance-voltage profiling, are indispensable for comprehending the electrical properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors. By providing insights into carrier concentrations, mobility, and transport mechanisms, these methods allow researchers to evaluate the effect of various bandgap engineering strategies and optimize the material properties for optoelectronic and solar power applications.

5.0 Tuned Bandgap Dilute Nitride III-V Semiconductors Applications

Due to their unique bandgap engineering capabilities, the potential of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in optoelectronic and solar power applications has been extensively studied. In this section, we will examine some of the most important applications, including lasers, photodetectors, multi-junction solar cells, and intermediate band solar cells.

5.1 Optoelectronic Devices

Optoelectronic devices, which convert electrical energy to light or vice versa, are indispensable for a variety of applications, such as communications, sensing, and lighting. Tuned bandgap dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have the potential to enhance the performance and efficiency of optoelectronic devices.

5.1.1 Lasers

Semiconductor lasers, also known as laser diodes, have many uses in optical communication systems, data storage, and medical devices. By adjusting the bandgap of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, researchers can achieve near-infrared to mid-infrared wavelength coverage, enabling the development of lasers with tailored emission characteristics [39, 77]. This wavelength range is crucial for telecommunications because it corresponds to transmission windows with low loss in optical fibers[21].

With high output power, low threshold currents, and temperature-insensitive operation, dilute nitride III-V semiconductor lasers have shown promising performance [4, 39]. To further improve the efficacy and dependability of these devices, however, challenges associated with material quality and defect management must be addressed.

5.1.2 Photosensitive

Photodetectors are commonly used in telecommunications, imaging, and sensing applications because they convert incident light into electrical signals. The use of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors for the fabrication of photodetectors with a broad range of detectable wavelengths enables the development of multispectral and hyperspectral imaging systems ([78].

The capability of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors to tune their bandgap enables researchers to optimize the photodetector's response for specific applications, such as environmental monitoring or medical diagnostics. Recent developments in material growth and device fabrication have enabled the development of high-performance photodetectors with high quantum efficiency, low dark currents, and high-speed operation[7, 79]. For the widespread adoption of dilute nitride III-V semiconductor photodetectors, additional research is needed to overcome obstacles related to material quality and device integration.

5.2 Solar Energy Production

Dilute nitride III-V semiconductors are well-suited for solar power generation applications, particularly in multijunction and intermediate band solar cells, due to their unique properties. By overcoming the limitations of conventional single-junction solar cells, these advanced solar cell designs aim to achieve high energy conversion efficiencies.

5.2.1 Multijunction Photovoltaic Cells

Multiple semiconductor layers with distinct bandgaps enable the efficient conversion of a broad range of the solar spectrum in multi-junction solar cells. Utilizing dilute nitride III-V semiconductors with tuned bandgaps, researchers can optimize the device's absorption properties and current matching, resulting in greater energy conversion efficiencies [25, 80].



Recent research has demonstrated multi-junction solar cells based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors with efficiencies greater than 40% when exposed to concentrated sunlight [25, 82]. These high efficiencies are attributable to the broad range of available bandgaps in dilute nitride III-V materials, which allows for greater spectral coverage and more efficient use of the solar spectrum. To achieve even higher efficiencies and cost-effective production of multi-junction solar cells based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, however, further research is required to address issues related to material quality, defect control, and device fabrication.

5.2.2 Solar Cells Operating at Intermediate Band Frequencies

Intermediate band solar cells (IBSCs) are a new solar cell technology that aims to surpass the Shockley-Queisser efficiency limit for single-junction solar cells by introducing an intermediate energy band within the semiconductor bandgap [54]. This intermediate band permits the absorption of photons below the bandgap, resulting in improved energy conversion efficiency[83].

Due to their tunable bandgap and the possibility of creating intermediate bands through impurity incorporation, III-V dilute nitride semiconductors are regarded as promising for the development of IBSCs [84, 85]. Experimental demonstrations of dilute nitride III-V semiconductor-based IBSCs have yielded encouraging results, with increased short-circuit current and enhanced overall efficiency compared to conventional single-junction solar cells [85, 86].

The development of efficient and stable IBSCs based on dilute nitride III-V semiconductors still faces obstacles related to material growth, defect management, and intermediate band formation, despite these advancements. To address these challenges and unlock the full potential of III-V dilute nitride semiconductors in IBSCs, additional research is required.

6.0 Difficulties and Future Prospects

To fully exploit the potential of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors for optoelectronic and solar power applications, several obstacles must be overcome. In this section, we will discuss some of the most significant obstacles, such as material quality and defects, scalability and cost, and emerging applications and technologies.

6.1 Quality of Materials and Defects

Nitrogen incorporation into III-V semiconductor materials frequently results in the formation of point and extended defects, such as dislocations and stacking faults [6, 21]. These defects can negatively impact the optical and electrical properties of III-V dilute nitride semiconductors, thereby limiting their performance in optoelectronic and solar power applications.

Ongoing research focuses on optimizing growth conditions and employing advanced material characterization techniques to better comprehend and control the formation of defects in dilute nitride III-V semiconductors [49, 87]. By enhancing the quality of materials, researchers hope to increase device efficiencies and lifetimes in a variety of applications.

6.2 Scalability and Spending

The widespread use of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in optoelectronic and solar power applications is contingent upon their affordability and scalability. Current epitaxial growth techniques, such as MBE and MOCVD, are costly and have limited throughput, which makes large-scale production difficult [7].

Emerging growth techniques, such as hydride vapor phase epitaxy (HVPE) and close-spaced vapor transport (CSVT), offer the potential for cost-effective and scalable production of dilute nitride III-V semiconductor materials [88, 89]. By enhancing the scalability of growth techniques and lowering material and processing costs, III-V dilute nitride semiconductors can become more competitive in the optoelectronics and solar power markets.

6.3 Emerging Technologies and Applications

Dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have the potential to enable new technologies and applications in addition to the optoelectronic and solar power applications discussed in this review. Integrated photonic devices, such as on-chip light sources and modulators, are essential for next-generation optical communication systems and computing [90].

In addition, the distinctive properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors could be utilized for emerging quantum information processing and sensing applications. There are also tunable infrared detectors for remote sensing and environmental monitoring [91, 92].

To fully exploit the potential of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors in these emerging applications and technologies, additional research is required to develop novel device architectures and address the challenges of material quality, defect control, and system integration.

III. Conclusion

Due to their tunable bandgap and unique electronic and optical properties, dilute nitride III-V semiconductors have garnered considerable interest. Researchers can optimize the performance of lasers, photodetectors, and advanced solar cell designs by engineering the bandgap of these materials for use in optoelectronic and solar power applications. Despite advancements in understanding and controlling the properties of dilute nitride III-V semiconductors, material quality, defect management, scalability, and cost must be addressed to enable their widespread adoption in a variety of applications.

In addition, III-V dilute nitride semiconductors hold promise for emerging applications and technologies, such as integrated photonics, quantum information processing, and sensing. Researchers can unlock new opportunities and contribute to the development of advanced optoelectronic and solar power devices by overcoming the current challenges and further exploring the unique properties of these materials.

REFERENCES

- Buyanova, I.A., W. Chen, and C. Tu, Recombination processes in N-containing III–V ternary alloys. Solid-State Electronics, 2003. 47(3): p. 467-475.
- [2]. Wang, Z., et al., III–Vs on Si for photonic applications—A monolithic approach. Materials Science and Engineering: B, 2012. 177(17): p. 1551-1557.
- [3]. Hsu, L. and W. Walukiewicz, Modeling of InGaN/Si tandem solar cells. Journal of Applied Physics, 2008. 104(2): p. 024507.
- [4]. Bank, S.R., et al., Recent Progress on 1.55-\$\mu {\hbox {m}} \$ Dilute-Nitride Lasers. IEEE Journal of Quantum Electronics, 2007.
 43(9): p. 773-785.
- [5]. Jandieri, K., et al., Compositional dependence of the band gap in Ga (NAsP) quantum well heterostructures. Journal of Applied Physics, 2015. **118**(6): p. 065701.
- [6]. Buyanova, I.A. and W.M. Chen, Dilute nitrides-based nanowires—a promising platform for nanoscale photonics and energy technology. Nanotechnology, 2019. **30**(29): p. 292002.
- [7]. Laghumavarapu, R., et al., Ga Sb / Ga As type II quantum dot solar cells for enhanced infrared spectral response. Applied Physics Letters, 2007. 90(17): p. 173125.
- [8]. Li, D., et al., Thermal conductivity of individual silicon nanowires. Applied Physics Letters, 2003. 83(14): p. 2934-2936.
- [9]. Harris Jr, J.S., et al., Development of GaInNAsSb alloys: Growth, band structure, optical properties and applications. physica status solidi (b), 2007. 244(8): p. 2707-2729.
- [10]. Ahmad, E., et al., A two-step growth pathway for high Sb incorporation in GaAsSb nanowires in the telecommunication wavelength range. Scientific reports, 2017. **7**(1): p. 1-12.
- [11]. Buyanova, I., et al., Mechanism for low-temperature photoluminescence in GaNAs/GaAs structures grown by molecular-beam epitaxy. Applied physics letters, 1999. **75**(4): p. 501-503.
- [12]. Liu, S., et al., High-efficiency organic solar cells with low non-radiative recombination loss and low energetic disorder. Nature Photonics, 2020. 14(5): p. 300-305.
- [13]. Vurgaftman, I., J.á. Meyer, and L.R. Ram-Mohan, Band parameters for III–V compound semiconductors and their alloys. Journal of applied physics, 2001. 89(11): p. 5815-5875.
- [14]. Adachi, S. and C.W. Tu, Physical Properties of III-V Semiconductor Compounds: InP, InAs, GaAs, GaP, InGaAs and InGaAsP. Physics Today, 1994. 47(2): p. 99.
- [15]. Adachi, S., Properties of aluminium gallium arsenide. 1993: IET.
- [16]. Vurgaftman, I. and J.n. Meyer, Band parameters for nitrogen-containing semiconductors. Journal of Applied Physics, 2003. 94(6): p. 3675-3696.
- [17]. Adachi, S., Properties of semiconductor alloys: group-IV, III-V and II-VI semiconductors. 2009: John Wiley & Sons.
- [18]. Overview, B.e.
- [19]. Bashkuyev, Y.B., et al., Frequency Domain Criterion of Appearance of an Electromagnetic Surface Wave Above the Laminar Ice— Salt Water Structure. Radiophysics and Quantum Electronics, 2016. 59(5): p. 361-368.
- [20]. Chen, S., et al., Dilute nitride nanowire lasers based on a GaAs/GaNAs core/shell structure. Nano letters, 2017. 17(3): p. 1775-1781.
- [21]. Su, L., et al., Abnormal photoluminescence for GaAs/Al0. 2Ga0. 8As quantum dot-ring hybrid nanostructure grown by droplet epitaxy. Journal of Luminescence, 2018. **195**: p. 187-192.
- [22]. Mazzucato, M., Mission-oriented research & innovation in the European: a problem-solving approach to fuel innovation-led growth. 2018.
- [23]. Carrasco, R.A., et al., Proton irradiation effects on InGaAs/InAsSb mid-wave barrier infrared detectors. Journal of Applied Physics, 2021. 130(11): p. 114501.
- [24]. Wang, X., et al., Vis–IR Wide-Spectrum Photodetector at Room Temperature Based on p–n Junction-Type GaAs1–x Sb x/InAs Core–Shell Nanowire. ACS applied materials & interfaces, 2019. 11(42): p. 38973-38981.
- [25]. Schnabel, M., et al., Three-terminal III–V/Si tandem solar cells enabled by a transparent conductive adhesive. Sustainable Energy & Fuels, 2020. 4(2): p. 549-558.
- [26]. Baril, N., et al., Bulk InAsxSb1-x nBn photodetectors with greater than 5 μ m cutoff on GaSb. Applied Physics Letters, 2016. 109(12): p. 122104.
- [27]. Huang, Y., X. Duan, and C.M. Lieber, Nanowires for integrated multicolor nanophotonics. Small, 2005. 1(1): p. 142-147.
- [28]. Dimroth, F., et al., Four-junction wafer-bonded concentrator solar cells. IEEE Journal of Photovoltaics, 2015. 6(1): p. 343-349.
- [29]. Cheng, J., et al., Two-dimensional black phosphorus nanomaterials: emerging advances in electrochemical energy storage science. Nano-Micro Letters, 2020. 12: p. 1-34.
- [30]. Kurtz, A., et al., Deep-level spectroscopy in metal-insulator-semiconductor structures. Journal of Physics D: Applied Physics, 2017. **50**(6): p. 065104.
- [31]. Chen, S.L., et al., Suppression of non-radiative surface recombination by N incorporation in GaAs/GaNAs core/shell nanowires. Scientific reports, 2015. 5(1): p. 11653.
- [32]. Stehr, J.E., et al., Efficient nitrogen incorporation in ZnO nanowires. Scientific reports, 2015. 5(1): p. 1-8.
- [33]. Qie, L., et al., Nitrogen doped porous carbon nanofiber webs as anodes for lithium ion batteries with a superhigh capacity and rate capability. Advanced materials, 2012. **24**(15): p. 2047-2050.
- [34]. Gačević, Ž., et al., Internal quantum efficiency of III-nitride quantum dot superlattices grown by plasma-assisted molecular-beam epitaxy. Journal of Applied Physics, 2011. 109(10): p. 103501.
- [35]. Wang, J., et al., Annealing properties of ZnO films grown using diethyl zinc and tertiary butanol. Journal of Physics: Condensed Matter, 2005. **17**(10): p. 1719.
- [36]. Heywang, W. and K. Zaininger, Silicon: the semiconductor material, in Silicon. 2004, Springer. p. 25-42.
- [37]. Li, Q., et al., Size Dependent Periodically Twinned ZnSe Nanowires. Advanced Materials, 2004. 16(16): p. 1436-1440.
- [38]. Li, L., et al., Extremely low density self-assembled InAs/GaAs quantum dots. Chinese Optics Letters, 2008. 6(6): p. 443-445.
- [39]. Harmand, J.C., et al., GaNAsSb: how does it compare with other dilute III–V-nitride alloys? Semiconductor Science and Technology, 2002. 17(8): p. 778.

- [40]. Dai, X., et al., GaAs/AlGaAs nanowire photodetector. Nano letters, 2014. 14(5): p. 2688-2693.
- [41]. Henini, M. and M. Razeghi, Handbook of infrared detection technologies. 2002: Elsevier.
- [42]. Ruterana, P., M. Albrecht, and J. Neugebauer, Nitride semiconductors. Handbook on Materials and Devices, 2003.
- [43]. Azaizia, S., et al., Bismuth content dependence of the electron spin relaxation time in GaAsBi epilayers and quantum well structures. Semiconductor Science and Technology, 2018. 33(11): p. 114013.
- [44]. Alivisatos, A.P., Semiconductor clusters, nanocrystals, and quantum dots. science, 1996. 271(5251): p. 933-937.
- [45]. Bimberg, D., M. Grundmann, and N.N. Ledentsov, Quantum dot heterostructures. 1999: John Wiley & Sons.
- [46]. Bastard, G. and J. Brum, Electronic states in semiconductor heterostructures. IEEE Journal of Quantum Electronics, 1986. 22(9): p. 1625-1644.
- [47]. Michler, P., Quantum dots for quantum information technologies. Vol. 237. 2017: Springer.
- [48]. Duan, X., et al., Indium phosphide nanowires as building blocks for nanoscale electronic and optoelectronic devices. nature, 2001.
 409(6816): p. 66-69.
- [49]. Beyer, J., et al., Strong room-temperature optical and spin polarization in InAs/GaAs quantum dot structures. Applied Physics Letters, 2011. 98(20): p. 203110.
- [50]. Rybka, A., et al., Gamma-radiation dosimetry with semiconductor CdTe and CdZnTe detectors. Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers, Detectors and Associated Equipment, 2004. **531**(1-2): p. 147-156.
- [51]. Tunability, B.
- [52]. Chen, S., W. Chen, and I. Buyanova, Slowdown of light due to exciton-polariton propagation in ZnO. Physical Review B, 2011. 83(24): p. 245212.
- [53]. Barbagiovanni, E.G., et al., Quantum confinement in Si and Ge nanostructures: Theory and experiment. Applied Physics Reviews, 2014. 1(1): p. 011302.
- [54]. Luque, A. and A. Martí, Increasing the efficiency of ideal solar cells by photon induced transitions at intermediate levels. Physical Review Letters, 1997. 78(26): p. 5014.
- [55]. Sánchez-Royo, J.F., et al., Electronic structure, optical properties, and lattice dynamics in atomically thin indium selenide flakes. Nano Research, 2014. 7: p. 1556-1568.
- [56]. Ma, Z., et al., Ultraflexible and mechanically strong double-layered aramid nanofiber–Ti3C2T x mxene/silver nanowire nanocomposite papers for high-performance electromagnetic interference shielding. ACS nano, 2020. **14**(7): p. 8368-8382.
- [57]. Czaban, J.A., D.A. Thompson, and R.R. LaPierre, GaAs core- shell nanowires for photovoltaic applications. Nano letters, 2009. 9(1): p. 148-154.
- [58]. Hobbs, R.G., N. Petkov, and J.D. Holmes, Semiconductor nanowire fabrication by bottom-up and top-down paradigms. Chemistry of Materials, 2012. 24(11): p. 1975-1991.
- [59]. Sze, S.M., Y. Li, and K.K. Ng, Physics of semiconductor devices. 2021: John wiley & sons.
- [60]. Picard, R.l., Spectroscopy of two-dimensional quantum light sources incorporated into functional devices. 2021, Heriot-Watt University.
- [61]. Ahmad, E., et al., Te incorporation in GaAs1- xSbx nanowires and pin axial structure. Semiconductor Science and Technology, 2016. 31(12): p. 125001.
- [62]. Sze, S., Semiconductor device development in the 1970's and 1980's—A perspective. Proceedings of the IEEE, 1981. **69**(9): p. 1121-1131.
- [63]. Meyer, B., et al., Binary copper oxide semiconductors: From materials towards devices. physica status solidi (b), 2012. 249(8): p. 1487-1509.
- [64]. Cullity, B. and S. Stock, Elements of x-ray diffraction, Prentice Hall. Upper Saddle River, NJ, 2001: p. 388.
- [65]. Fewster, J. and J. Jackson, Experiments on supercritical pressure convective heat transfer having relevance to SPWR. 2004, American Nuclear Society, 555 North Kensington Avenue, La Grange Park, IL
- [66]. Savas, T., et al., Achromatic interferometric lithography for 100 nm period gratings and grids. Journal of Vacuum Science & Technology B: Microelectronics and Nanometer Structures Processing, Measurement, and Phenomena, 1995. 13(6): p. 2732-2735.
- [67]. Broderick, C.A., S. Das, and E.P. O'Reilly. Theoretical analysis of band-to-band tunneling in highly-mismatched semiconductor alloys. in 2019 International Conference on Numerical Simulation of Optoelectronic Devices (NUSOD). 2019. IEEE.
- [68]. Inada, H., et al., Atomic imaging using secondary electrons in a scanning transmission electron microscope: experimental observations and possible mechanisms. Ultramicroscopy, 2011. **111**(7): p. 865-876.
- [69]. Pankove, J.I., Optical processes in semiconductors. 1975: Courier Corporation.
- [70]. Ahmed, R. and S. Abbas, Electrical and Optical Characteristics of InP Nanowires based pin Photodetectors. 2010.
- [71]. Street, R.A., et al. X-ray imaging using lead iodide as a semiconductor detector. in Medical Imaging 1999: Physics of Medical Imaging, 1999. SPIE.
- [72]. Azzam, R., The intertwined history of polarimetry and ellipsometry. Thin Solid Films, 2011. 519(9): p. 2584-2588.
- [73]. Aspnes, D.E. and A. Studna, Dielectric functions and optical parameters of si, ge, gap, gaas, gasb, inp, inas, and insb from 1.5 to 6.0 ev. Physical review B, 1983. 27(2): p. 985.
- [74]. Kittel, A., et al., Near-field heat transfer in a scanning thermal microscope. Physical review letters, 2005. 95(22): p. 224301.
- [75]. Sze, S. and K.K. Ng, LEDs and Lasers. Physics of Semiconductor Devices, 2006. 3: p. 601-657.
- [76]. Li, Z., et al., Review on III–V Semiconductor Nanowire Array Infrared Photodetectors. Advanced Materials Technologies, 2023: p. 2202126.
- [77]. Kondow, M., et al., GaInNAs: A novel material for long-wavelength-range laser diodes with excellent high-temperature performance. Japanese journal of applied physics, 1996. **35**(2S): p. 1273.
- [78]. Kim, B.-S., et al., Catalyst-free growth of single-crystal silicon and germanium nanowires. Nano letters, 2009. 9(2): p. 864-869.
- [79]. Morath, C.P., et al., Proton irradiation effects on the performance of III-V-based, unipolar barrier infrared detectors. IEEE Transactions on Nuclear Science, 2015. 62(2): p. 512-519.
- [80]. Law, D.C., et al., Future technology pathways of terrestrial III–V multijunction solar cells for concentrator photovoltaic systems. Solar Energy Materials and Solar Cells, 2010. 94(8): p. 1314-1318.
- [81]. Materials, C.
- [82]. Friedman, D., Progress and challenges for next-generation high-efficiency multijunction solar cells. Current Opinion in Solid State and Materials Science, 2010. 14(6): p. 131-138.
- [83]. Johansson, J., et al., Structural properties of (111) B-oriented III V nanowires. Nature materials, 2006. 5(7): p. 574-580.
- [84]. Ramiro, I. and A. Martí, Intermediate band solar cells: Present and future. Progress in Photovoltaics: Research and Applications, 2021. 29(7): p. 705-713.

- [85]. Hossain, M.I., et al., Electrical and optical properties of nickel oxide films for efficient perovskite solar cells. Small Methods, 2020. 4(9): p. 2000454.
- [86]. Nalamati, S., et al., A Study of GaAs1–x Sb x Axial Nanowires Grown on Monolayer Graphene by Ga-Assisted Molecular Beam Epitaxy for Flexible Near-Infrared Photodetectors. ACS Applied Nano Materials, 2019. 2(7): p. 4528-4537.
- [87]. Liu, J.-S., et al., Heterointerface engineering of broken-gap InAs/GaSb multilayer structures. ACS applied materials & interfaces, 2015. 7(4): p. 2512-2517.
- [88]. Kuech, T.F., III-V compound semiconductors: Growth and structures. Progress in crystal growth and characterization of materials, 2016. 62(2): p. 352-370.
- [89]. Baranov, A. and E. Tournié, Semiconductor lasers: Fundamentals and applications. 2013.
- [90]. Singh, R., et al., The dawn of Ga2O3 HEMTs for high power electronics-A review. Materials Science in Semiconductor Processing, 2020. 119: p. 105216.
- [91]. Rogalski, A., Infrared detectors: status and trends. Progress in quantum electronics, 2003. 27(2-3): p. 59-210.
- [92]. Xu, R., et al., Programmable multiple plasmonic resonances of nanoparticle superlattice for enhancing photoelectrochemical activity. Advanced Functional Materials, 2020. 30(48): p. 2005170.

Akinrotimi Odetoran, et. al. "Bandgap Tunability of Dilute Nitride III-V Semiconductors for Optoelectronic and Solar Power Applications: Review." *IOSR Journal of Electrical and Electronics Engineering (IOSR-JEEE)*, 18(2), 2023, pp. 28-48.