

# Fundamental Limitations of Wide-Bandgap Semiconductors for Light-Emitting Diodes

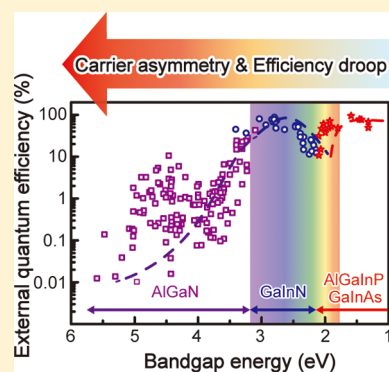
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**ABSTRACT:** Fundamental limitations of wide-bandgap semiconductor devices are caused by systematic trends of the electron and hole effective mass, dopant ionization energy, and carrier drift mobility as the semiconductor's bandgap energy increases. We show that when transitioning from narrow-bandgap to wide-bandgap semiconductors the transport properties of charge carriers in pn junctions become increasingly asymmetric and characterized by poor p-type transport. As a result, the demonstration of viable devices based on bipolar carrier transport, such as pn junction diodes, bipolar transistors, light-emitting diodes (LEDs), and lasers, becomes increasingly difficult or even impossible as the bandgap energy increases. A systematic analysis of the efficiency droop in LEDs is conducted for room temperature and cryogenic temperature and for emission wavelengths ranging from the infrared, through the visible (red and blue), to the deep-ultraviolet part of the spectrum. We find that the efficiency droop generally increases with bandgap energy and at cryogenic temperatures. Both trends are consistent with increasingly asymmetric carrier-transport properties and increasingly weaker hole injection as the bandgap energy of LEDs increases, indicating that fundamental limitations of wide-bandgap semiconductor devices are being encountered.



During the past 100 years, inorganic light-emitting diodes (LEDs) have undergone a significant evolution, from the very first visible LED based on SiC to today's highly efficient white LEDs, that resulted from a series of breakthroughs and advances in epitaxial growth of high-quality crystals, the employment of heterostructures, and advances in device architecture such as improved light out-coupling.<sup>1</sup> Semiconductor material systems used for LEDs covering the visible spectrum include III-phosphides (AlGaInP) that are capable of emitting red, orange, amber, and yellow light and III-nitrides (AlGaInN) for emitting green, cyan, blue, and violet light as well as ultraviolet (UV) radiation. LEDs are being used in areas as diverse as indicators, signage, displays, and general lighting. Furthermore, using efficient GaInN-based blue LEDs in combination with a phosphor has enabled bright and energy-saving white light sources.<sup>2,3</sup> Tremendous progress has been made, as demonstrated by white LEDs with a greater than 200 lm/W efficacy, far exceeding the efficacy of traditional incandescent and Hg-discharge-based fluorescent lighting devices. The future of white LEDs looks bright and is flourishing, considering emerging and advanced applications such as smart and adaptive lighting sources, visible light communication, and purification and disinfection using light sources that are pleasant, healthy, and energy efficient.<sup>3,4</sup>

A strong asymmetry between n-type and p-type properties, such as doping concentration, carrier injection, effective mass, and carrier mobility, would pose a fundamental challenge to the efficiency of LEDs.

In an LED, a light quantum (photon) is generated when an electron in the conduction band radiatively recombines with a hole in the valence band. Because radiative transitions in a semiconductor are from the conduction band minimum to the valence band maximum, the energy of the photon is approximately equal to the bandgap energy of the semiconductor. Quantum wells, frequently composed of two alloy semiconductors whose bandgap is tuned by varying the alloy composition, enable good confinement for electrons and holes to the active region while emitting the desired color for light. It is apparent that the efficiency of an LED hinges on electrons

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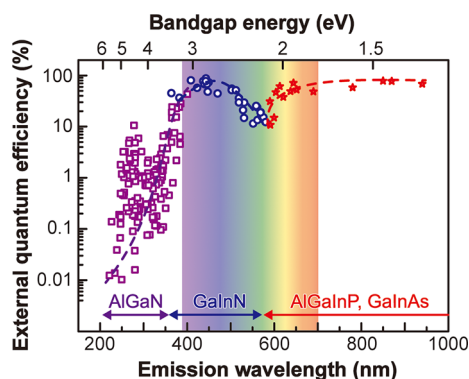
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and holes being injected into the quantum well active region. In other words, a strong asymmetry between n-type and p-type properties, such as doping concentration, carrier injection, effective mass, and carrier mobility, would pose a fundamental challenge to the efficiency of LEDs. Indeed, there is a pronounced trend in LED efficiency: As the bandgap energy increases, i.e., as the wavelength becomes shorter, the external quantum efficiency (EQE) of LEDs generally decreases; furthermore, the efficiency droop problem becomes more severe.

In this Perspective, we first discuss the fundamental trends of the asymmetric carrier transport properties in terms of electron and hole effective mass, dopant ionization energy, dopant ionization, and carrier drift mobility as the semiconductor's bandgap energy increases. We then show a wide range of experimental results of high-quality GaAs infrared (IR) LEDs, AlGaInP red LEDs, GaInN blue LEDs, and AlGaIn deep-ultraviolet (DUV) LEDs. It is found that the efficiency droop increases with the semiconductor's bandgap energy, consistent with increasingly asymmetric carrier-transport properties as well as increasingly weaker hole injection as the bandgap energy of LEDs increases. As the asymmetry in carrier transport increases, the portion of electron current in the p-type semiconductor layer to the total LED current becomes larger due to increasing electron overflow, which results in the decrease of hole current in the p-type region and hence the hole injection into the multiple quantum well (MQW). Therefore, pn junction based wide-bandgap semiconductor devices would be severely limited by fundamental p-type doping limitations.

Figure 1 shows reported EQEs of GaAs IR, AlGaInP and GaInN visible, and AlGaIn UV LEDs as a function of emission



**Figure 1.** EQEs of AlGaInP- and GaInAs-based IR and GaInN-based visible and AlGaIn-based UV LEDs as a function of emission wavelength, as reported in the technical literature.<sup>5–8</sup> External quantum efficiencies of 780, 870, and 940 nm IR LEDs were estimated through the operation current and light output power of commercially available unmounted LEDs.

wavelength, i.e., bandgap energy of the semiconductor.<sup>5–8</sup> In the IR and visible regions, efficiencies are generally high, that is, greater than 50%. In the center of the visible region, a dip in the efficiency occurs that is known as the “green gap”. The green gap is well understood for both material systems, AlGaInP and GaInN. As the Al content of AlGaInP increases, thus, the emission wavelength becomes green and the energy band structure of AlGaInP undergoes a transition from direct to indirect,<sup>1</sup> resulting in a rapidly reduced quantum efficiency. Meanwhile, as the In content of GaInN increases for green emission, compositional fluctuation (In clustering) occurs,

inducing spatial separation between the electron wave function and hole wave function,<sup>6</sup> which makes radiative recombination inefficient. Inspection of the figure also reveals that there is a significant problem in the UV where the LED efficiency decreases from >50% at the visible/UV boundary to values as low as 0.01–10% at 200–300 nm. The poor efficiency in the DUV is a clear indicator of a fundamental limitation encountered with wide-bandgap semiconductors.

First, we discuss a fundamental trend in asymmetric carrier transport properties in semiconductors as the bandgap energy increases or the temperature decreases. The two-band Kane model, based on the quantum-mechanical  $k \cdot p$  perturbation theory,<sup>10</sup> allows for the identification of general trends in the field of semiconductors.<sup>9</sup> The model predicts a specific dependence of the electron effective mass on the semiconductor's bandgap energy,  $E_g$ . The electron effective mass can be expressed as follows<sup>10</sup>

$$\frac{m_e}{m_e^*} = 1 + \frac{2}{m_e E_g} |\langle \nu | p_x | c \rangle|^2 \quad (1)$$

where  $m_e$  is the free electron mass,  $m_e^*$  is the electron effective mass in the semiconductor,  $p_x$  is the momentum operator in the  $x$  direction,  $|c\rangle$  is the state at the conduction band minimum, and  $|\nu\rangle$  is the light-hole state at the valence band maximum.<sup>10</sup>

Let us consider two limiting cases of the bandgap energy: First, consider a narrow-gap semiconductor or even a semiconductor with vanishingly small bandgap energy, i.e.,  $E_g \rightarrow 0$ . In this case, the right-hand side of eq 1 becomes very large so that  $m_e^*$  approaches zero. This trend is confirmed by experimental values of  $m_e^*$  with narrow-direct-bandgap III–V semiconductors (for example, InAs, with  $E_g = 0.354$  eV, has an effective mass of  $m_e^* = 0.022m_e$ ), and on the extreme side, graphene has a zero bandgap energy ( $E_g = 0.0$  eV) as well as a zero effective mass ( $m_e^* = 0.0m_e$ ) near the Dirac point.<sup>11</sup> Second, consider wide-bandgap semiconductors. For the limit of large-bandgap energies, the right-hand side of eq 1 approaches 1.0, and thus,  $m_e^* \approx m_e$ . This trend is consistent with experimental values of  $m_e^*$  of wide-direct-bandgap III–V semiconductors: For example, AlN ( $E_g = 6.28$  eV) has the largest electron effective mass among binary direct-gap III–V semiconductors ( $m_e^* = 0.33m_e$ ).<sup>12</sup> Accordingly, eq 1 predicts the theoretical trend that the electron effective mass increases as  $E_g$  increases, consistent with the well-known experimental values of  $m_e^*$  of actual semiconductors.

Additional guidance on the effective masses can be obtained from the Kronig–Penney model that is based on quantum mechanics considering the propagation of electrons in a one-dimensional potential,<sup>13</sup> which allows valuable insight into the carrier transport in semiconductors. Within the framework of the Kronig–Penney model, electrons in lower-lying bands are necessarily subject to higher potential barriers and thus become more spatially localized than electrons in higher-lying bands. The stronger localization manifests itself as a heavier electron effective mass associated with lower bands. As a result, valence band carriers (holes) fundamentally have a heavier effective mass than conduction band carriers (electrons).

We note that although the Kronig–Penney model gives useful guidance, the model is limited to one dimension and thus is an oversimplification of the actual 3D crystal potential. Despite the oversimplification, experimental values for the hole effective mass generally follow the predicted theoretical trend. For example, direct-gap semiconductors such as GaAs, GaInN,

GaN, and AlN consistently have a hole effective mass that is heavier than the electron effective mass. Taken together, the

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The hydrogen-atom model (effective mass model) relates the electron and hole effective mass to the donor and acceptor ionization energy, respectively.<sup>14</sup> As concluded from the effective mass trends and the hydrogen-atom model, the donor ionization energy and particularly the acceptor ionization energy increase as the bandgap energy increases. Because the degree of dopant ionization depends exponentially on the dopant ionization energy, a slightly larger acceptor ionization energy (than the donor ionization energy) can result in a much lower degree of acceptor ionization (than donor ionization). Furthermore, the effective mass affects not only the dopant ionization but also the carrier drift mobility by means of the Drude equation  $\mu = e\tau/m^*$ , where  $\mu$  is the mobility and  $e$ ,  $\tau$ , and  $m^*$  are the elementary charge, the average time between collisions (scattering time), and the carrier effective mass, respectively. Finally, the above-described trends indicate that pn junctions made of narrow-bandgap semiconductors enjoy full ionization of donors and acceptors, whereas pn junctions made of wide-bandgap semiconductors suffer from a lack of full ionization, particularly for acceptors. Note that the discussion in the present paper can be applied to elemental semiconductors, as well as compound semiconductors. The range of bandgap energy includes Ge and Si (0.66 and 1.12 eV) III–V arsenides (typically 0.5 to 2.0 eV), III–V phosphides (typically 1.0 to 2.5 eV), and III–V nitrides (typically 2.5 to 6.0 eV). Although these are diverse semiconductor materials, we believe that the Kane model, the Kronig–Penney model, and the effective mass model can be applied to these semiconductors.

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The conclusions drawn from the models discussed above are well matched by experimental values of effective masses and ionization energies. Figure 2 shows the effective mass of electrons and holes and the dopant ionization energy as a function of the bandgap energy of semiconductors, as gathered from the technical literature.<sup>15–25</sup> As summarized in Figure 2, the narrow-bandgap GaAs material system (operating at IR

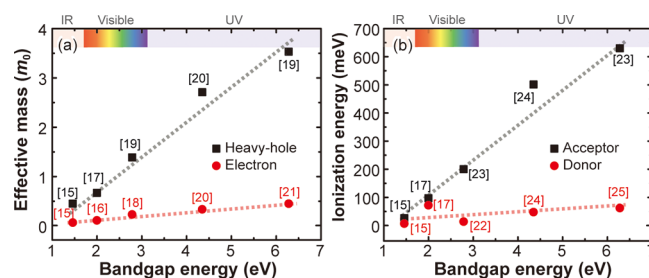


Figure 2. (a) Variation of electron and heavy-hole effective masses with the energy bandgap of semiconductors. (b) Dopant ionization energy as a function of the bandgap energy of different direct-gap III–V semiconductors.<sup>15–25</sup>

wavelengths) with its low dopant activation energies ( $E_d < kT$ ;  $E_a \approx kT$  at 300 K;  $p \approx N_A$ ;  $n \approx N_D$ ; and  $p \approx n$ ) enjoys full dopant activation, where  $E_d$  and  $E_a$  are the donor and acceptor ionization energy,  $k$  and  $T$  are the Boltzmann constant and the absolute temperature,  $p$  and  $n$  are the hole and electron concentration, and  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  are the acceptor and donor concentration, respectively. Although the trend of increasing effective masses is similar for electrons and holes, the effect on electrons is not as severe as that for holes, as shown in Figure 2b. The AlGaInP material system (operating at red to yellow wavelengths) has required thick current-spreading layers due to its low p-type conductivity.<sup>26</sup> The GaInN material system (operating at green to violet wavelengths) is well-known for its p-type doping problem.<sup>27,28</sup> Finally, the AlGaN material system (operating at near-UV and DUV wavelengths) is known to have a severe p-type doping problem (even more so than the GaInN material system) with  $E_a \gg E_d$ ;  $p \ll N_A$ ;  $p \ll n$ ; and  $\mu_p \ll \mu_n$ .<sup>29–31</sup> Accordingly, the above-discussed theoretical trends are closely replicated in the GaAs (IR), AlGaInP (red), GaInN (blue), and AlGaN (DUV) material systems. What are the

What are the consequences of these trends? As  $E_g$  increases, pn junctions suffer from increasingly asymmetric carrier-transport properties of the n-type side (higher ionization) and p-type side (very low ionization), resulting in an imbalanced carrier concentration in the active region of LEDs.

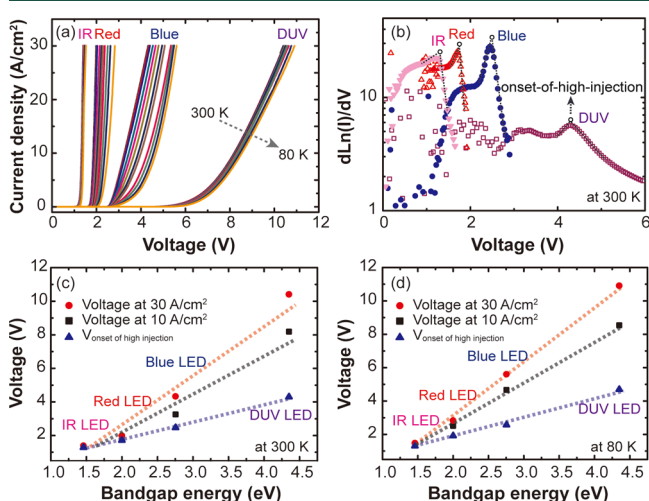
consequences of these trends? As  $E_g$  increases, pn junctions suffer from increasingly asymmetric carrier-transport properties of the n-type side (higher ionization) and p-type side (very low ionization), resulting in an imbalanced carrier concentration in the active region of LEDs.

Next, we present a wide range of experimental results showing a strong correlation between asymmetric carrier transport, bandgap energy, and efficiency droop by comparing four different types of commercialized LEDs: IR (OSRAM), red (OSRAM), blue (Korean Photonics Technology Institute, KOPTI), and DUV LED (Rayvio). High-quality commercial GaAs IR LEDs with the peak wavelength,  $\lambda_{\text{peak}}$  of 850 nm, AlGaInP red LEDs ( $\lambda_{\text{peak}} = 620$  nm), GaInN blue LEDs ( $\lambda_{\text{peak}} = 450$  nm), and AlGaN DUV LEDs ( $\lambda_{\text{peak}} = 280$  nm) were utilized, all of which were grown by metal–organic chemical vapor deposition. The IR LED employs a 40 period GaAs/



AlGaAs MQW active region, while the red LED has a 38 period AlGaInP/AlInP MQW active region. Both blue and DUV LEDs employ a 5 period GaInN/GaN and AlGaInP/AlGaIn MQW active region, respectively. The chip size is  $0.2 \times 0.2 \text{ mm}^2$  for the GaAs IR LED,  $0.7 \times 0.7 \text{ mm}^2$  for the AlGaInP red LED,  $1.1 \times 1.1 \text{ mm}^2$  for the GaInN blue LED, and  $2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^2$  for the AlGaInP DUV LED. Light output–current–voltage ( $L$ – $I$ – $V$ ) characteristics were measured at temperatures ranging from 80 to 300 K using a vacuum chamber probe station equipped with an Agilent B2902A precision source-measurement unit. The light output was collected by a UV-enhanced Si photodiode. All LEDs were operated under pulsed injection currents (pulse period = 5 ms, duty cycle = 0.5%) in order to avoid self-heating effects.

Figure 3a shows  $I$ – $V$  curves of four types of LEDs measured at temperatures ranging from 80 to 300 K with a 20 K interval.

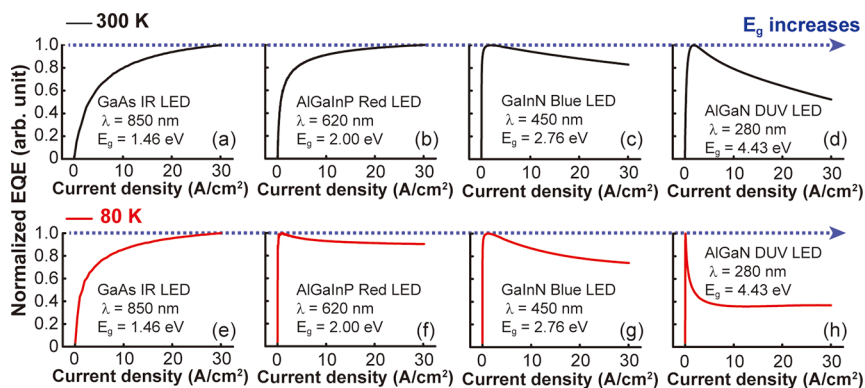


**Figure 3.** (a)  $I$ – $V$  characteristics of the GaAs IR LED, AlGaInP red LED, GaInN blue LED, and AlGaInP DUV LED measured at temperatures ranging from 80 to 300 K. (b)  $d \ln(I)/dV$  versus  $V$  plot used to identify the onset voltage at high injection, which is the transition point from low injection to high injection. Variation of the forward voltage with bandgap energy of semiconductors at (c) 300 and (d) 80 K.

The figure shows variations with bandgap energy and temperature of the turn-on voltage and series resistance. When the applied voltage approaches the built-in voltage  $V_{bi}$ , semiconductor pn junctions enter the high-injection regime.

The  $V_{bi}$  is given by  $V_{bi} = (kT/e) \ln(N_A N_D / n_i^2) \approx (kT/e) \ln(p_{p0} n_{n0} / n_i^2)$ , where  $n_i$  is the intrinsic carrier concentration.<sup>1</sup> Figure 3b shows a 300 K  $d \ln(I)/dV$  plot as a function of current showing a clear transition point from the low-injection to the high-injection regime.<sup>32</sup> The onset voltage point for high injection is determined by using the point where the  $d \ln(I)/dV$  versus  $V$  plot has a maximum, as shown in Figure 3b. Figure 3c,d shows the variation in the onset-of-high-injection and forward operating voltages of the LEDs for two current densities (10 and 30  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ ) as a function of bandgap energy at 300 K. The onset-of-high-injection voltage increases (approximately linearly) from 1.28 V in the IR LED to 4.29 V in the DUV LED. As a pn junction becomes increasingly asymmetric (as  $p_{p0}$  becomes much smaller than  $n_{n0}$ ),  $V_{bi}$  decreases (relative to  $E_g/e$ ) and, consequently, so does the onset voltage of high injection. That is, as  $E_g$  increases, (i.e., increasingly asymmetric condition), so more does  $E_g - eV_{bi}$  and the diodes become increasingly prone to high-injection phenomena, as apparent from Figure 3.

What does this mean for LEDs? LEDs, in order to obey energy conservation, have a forward operating voltage of  $E_g/e$ , as confirmed experimentally for IR and red, blue, and DUV LEDs (where  $E_g$  is the bandgap energy of the active region). The experimentally measured voltages at 10 and 30  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  gradually increase with increasing bandgap energy, as shown in Figure 3c,d. However, the forward voltage measured at 10 and 30  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  varies more rapidly than the onset-of-high-injection voltage. This necessarily means that LEDs, as  $E_g$  increases, are more prone to operating in the high-injection regime. When the applied forward voltage is higher than the onset-of-high-injection voltage, the incremental voltage will drop across the most resistive part of the p-type region, i.e., the electron-blocking layer (EBL) that is typically grown on the MQW active region to prevent the injected electrons from escaping out of the active region. Accordingly, the effectiveness of the EBL is compromised in the high-injection regime so that electrons leak out of the MQW active region. Consequently, electron overflow can be significant despite of the potential barrier induced by EBL, resulting in the efficiency droop.<sup>32</sup> This reasoning suggests that the efficiency droop is correlated with the bandgap energy of semiconductors. The efficiency droop is a widely discussed phenomenon in LEDs, particularly in AlGaInP-based, GaInN-based, and AlGaInP-based LEDs.<sup>33–36</sup> There have been competing explanations for the predominant cause of the droop, such as Auger recombination, defect-



**Figure 4.** Normalized EQE curves as a function of current density for (a) GaAs IR LED, (b) AlGaInP red LED, (c) GaInN blue LED, and (d) AlGaInP DUV LED measured at 300 K and (e–h) the same set of LEDs measured at 80 K.

assisted Shockley–Read–Hall (SRH) recombination, lack of hole injection, and/or leakage of electrons from the active region.<sup>34,37–39</sup> All of them could cause the efficiency droop. However, among a variety of causes of the efficiency droop, it has been postulated that the efficiency droop is mainly associated with a lack of hole injection.<sup>40–42</sup> Each hole not injected into the active region is necessarily equivalent to one electron leaking out of the active region. Accordingly, lack of hole injection and electron leakage are “two sides of the same coin”, i.e., two interrelated aspects of the same phenomenon. Therefore, we investigate the correlation between the efficiency droop and the bandgap energy and further the lack-of-hole-injection effect on the efficiency droop for LEDs consisting of multiple semiconductors having bandgap energies that correspond to IR, red, blue, and UV wavelengths. Given the theoretical prediction and supporting experimental results, the authors believe that the lack of efficient hole transport in  $\text{Al}_x\text{Ga}_{1-x}\text{N}$  ( $x > 0.5$ ) and  $\text{SiC}$ <sup>43</sup> and the complete lack of hole transport in very wide bandgap semiconductors, such as  $\text{AlN}$  and  $\text{C}$  (diamond),<sup>44</sup> are fundamental in nature and would be extremely difficult to overcome.

Figure 4 shows normalized EQE curves for the four different types of LEDs as a function of current density measured at 300 and 80 K, respectively. At room temperature (300 K), the GaAs IR LED and AlGaInP red LED do not show the efficiency droop at current densities up to  $30 \text{ A/cm}^2$ , while the GaInN blue LED and AlGaIn DUV LED show a moderate and strong efficiency droop of 16.9 and 48.5%, respectively. At cryogenic temperature (80 K), the efficiency droop is still not observed in the GaAs IR LED (with narrow  $E_g$ ), while the efficiency droop for the AlGaInP red LED, GaInN blue LED, and AlGaIn DUV LED are more pronounced with values of 9.75, 25.84, and 63.3%, respectively.

Figure 5 shows a summary of the variation of the efficiency droop at  $30 \text{ A/cm}^2$  for the four different LEDs as a function of

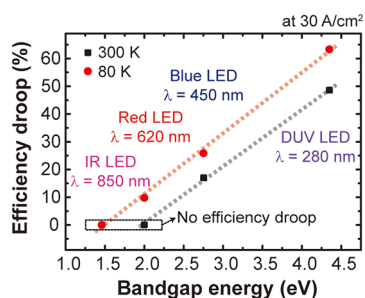


Figure 5. Variation of efficiency droop with bandgap energy for semiconductors with emission wavelengths ranging from IR to DUV.

the energy bandgap at 300 and 80 K. We find that the magnitude of efficiency droop systematically increases with the bandgap energy at both room and cryogenic temperatures. As  $E_g$  increases, the acceptor ionization energy increases more strongly than the donor ionization energy, resulting in increasingly asymmetric carrier concentration and injection. In addition, the difference in electron and hole mobilities increases as  $E_g$  increases. Regardless of the amount of quantitative contribution of concentration and mobility at this moment, both n- and p-type carrier concentrations and their transport characteristics become increasingly asymmetric when going from narrow- to wide-bandgap materials. Furthermore,

the magnitude of efficiency droop increases at cryogenic temperatures for all LEDs. This trend can be readily understood by the exacerbation of the asymmetry of carrier transport at cryogenic temperatures. As the temperature is lowered to cryogenic temperatures, holes freeze out onto acceptor states, so that the imbalance between electron and hole transport increases even further. It is the lack of hole transport and lack of hole injection that exacerbate the efficiency droop at cryogenic temperatures. Therefore, the efficiency droop, when considered for a range of semiconductor materials and temperatures, is supported by the asymmetric transport characteristics as the cause. We point out that both trends (with respect to  $E_g$  and  $T$ ) are consistent with hole injection becoming increasingly difficult as  $E_g$  increases and  $T$  decreases. We note that both trends have not been shown to be consistent with other mechanisms that have been suggested for the efficiency droop in the technical literature. For example, Auger recombination would be expected to be more pronounced in low-bandgap semiconductors and at higher temperatures, contrary to the experimental results.<sup>45</sup> The results presented above along with the analysis of the underlying causes allow for a coherent understanding of the efficiency droop in a wider context, including its dependence on bandgap energy and temperature.

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Next, let us discuss potential ways to overcome the limitations for wide-bandgap bipolar semiconductors, particularly LEDs. Despite the challenges originating from intrinsic material properties of wide-bandgap materials, especially AlGaIn, sustained research efforts in the development of LEDs have advanced the EQE of UV LEDs through refined epitaxial growth techniques (including pulsed atomic-layer epitaxy<sup>46,47</sup> and high-temperature growth<sup>48</sup>), as well as stress-managing techniques that result in a strongly reduced defect density.<sup>49,50</sup> As discussed above, another critical area that is in need of a major improvement is p-type doping. In a conventional way, a p-type GaN layer grown on a p-type AlGaIn layer is used for a metal-contact and a hole-supplying layer to overcome low p-doping problem, but it causes a strong absorption of emitted UV photons by the p-type GaN, thus leading a poor light-extraction efficiency. One of the potential ways to achieve a highly conductive p-type wide-bandgap material is to grow superlattices that have been shown to enhance the free hole concentration in AlGaIn.<sup>51–54</sup> The energy band modulation of superlattices along with the modulation caused by the polarization fields enables a higher acceptor ionization ratio and thus a higher hole concentration. Similarly, Al-composition-graded AlGaIn is a promising method for inducing mobile hole gases by utilizing a built-in polarization-induced electrical field in the bulk Al-graded layer, which can facilitate ionization of deep acceptor dopants.<sup>23,55</sup> Another proposed alternative to overcome the p-type doping problem is introduction of a polarization-charge-enhanced tunnel junction (PCE-TJ).<sup>56,57</sup> The polarization charge at heterointerfaces of a tunnel junction can enable interband tunneling by inducing

strong band bending without heavily doped semiconductor layers. Therefore, holes can be injected into the active layer without a p-type doped AlGaIn layer with PCE-TJ. On the other hand, LEDs with a thick QW for a large active volume have been suggested to solve the problems that can be caused by increased carrier density such as Auger recombination.<sup>58</sup> Nonpolar or semipolar nitride-based LEDs<sup>59–61</sup> would be effective to enable thick QW structures by alleviating the quantum-confined Stark effect caused by the polarization field.

Recently, light-extraction-enhancing approaches have been proposed, including a combination of a UV-transparent p-type AlGaIn layer and UV-reflective metal contact,<sup>62</sup> use of photonic crystals,<sup>63</sup> and sidewall-emission-enhancing structures to utilize the inherently strong TM-polarized light emitted from the AlGaIn active region.<sup>64–66</sup>

The efficiency droop, when considered for a range of semiconductor materials and temperatures, is supported by the asymmetric transport characteristics as the cause.

In conclusion, inorganic LEDs have undergone a significant evolution that resulted from a series of breakthrough advances to enable bright and energy-saving lighting sources that far exceed the efficiency of traditional lighting sources. In this Perspective, we employed the two-band Kane model, the Kronig–Penney model, and the hydrogen-atom model to show that as the bandgap energy increases so does the electron effective mass and even more so the heavy-hole effective mass. Consequently, (i) the donor and particularly the acceptor ionization energies become larger as  $E_g$  increases and (ii) the electron mobility and particularly the hole mobility become lower as  $E_g$  increases. These theoretical trends are fully consistent with established experimental values of the effective masses, ionization energies, and mobilities in semiconductors with bandgap energies ranging from the IR through the visible to the DUV. The increasingly asymmetric carrier transport makes hole injecting increasingly difficult as  $E_g$  increases and as  $T$  decreases. As a consequence, the LEDs' onset voltage for high injection becomes increasingly lower when compared to the forward operating voltage, demonstrating that LEDs increasingly operate in the high-injection regime as  $E_g$  increases. We also investigated the efficiency droop in LEDs with bandgap energies ranging from the IR to the DUV. We found the following systematic trends: the magnitude of the efficiency droop increases with  $E_g$  and at cryogenic temperatures, consistent with hole injection in pn junction LEDs becoming increasingly difficult as  $E_g$  increases and  $T$  decreases. The trends with respect to temperature and bandgap energy are highly systematic for the entire range of LEDs investigated (IR, red, blue, and DUV). The results show that a wide-bandgap semiconductor LED is subject to fundamental limitations with the efficiency droop's highly systematic dependence on  $E_g$  and  $T$ , as demonstrated for LEDs made of a wide range of semiconductor materials, being a manifestation of these fundamental limitations. Despite such challenges originating from intrinsic material properties of wide-bandgap semiconductors, impressive research efforts are being made to overcome the limitations, enhancing internal quantum efficiency, light-extraction efficiency, and hence EQE.

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The authors declare no competing financial interest.

### Biographies

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