

Photodetectors: Photodiodes and photoconductors

- Photodiodes
 - Solar cells
 - Particle detectors (X , α , β , γ)
 - Flat panel imagers (a-Si:H)
 - Photodiodes (micro-systems)
 - Position detectors
 - Spatial modulators (optical valves)
 - Bio-chips
 - Smart windows
 -
- Photoconductors
 - Xerography
 - Flat panel imagers (a-Se)
 -

Macro-electronic devices and applications

Thin-film device type

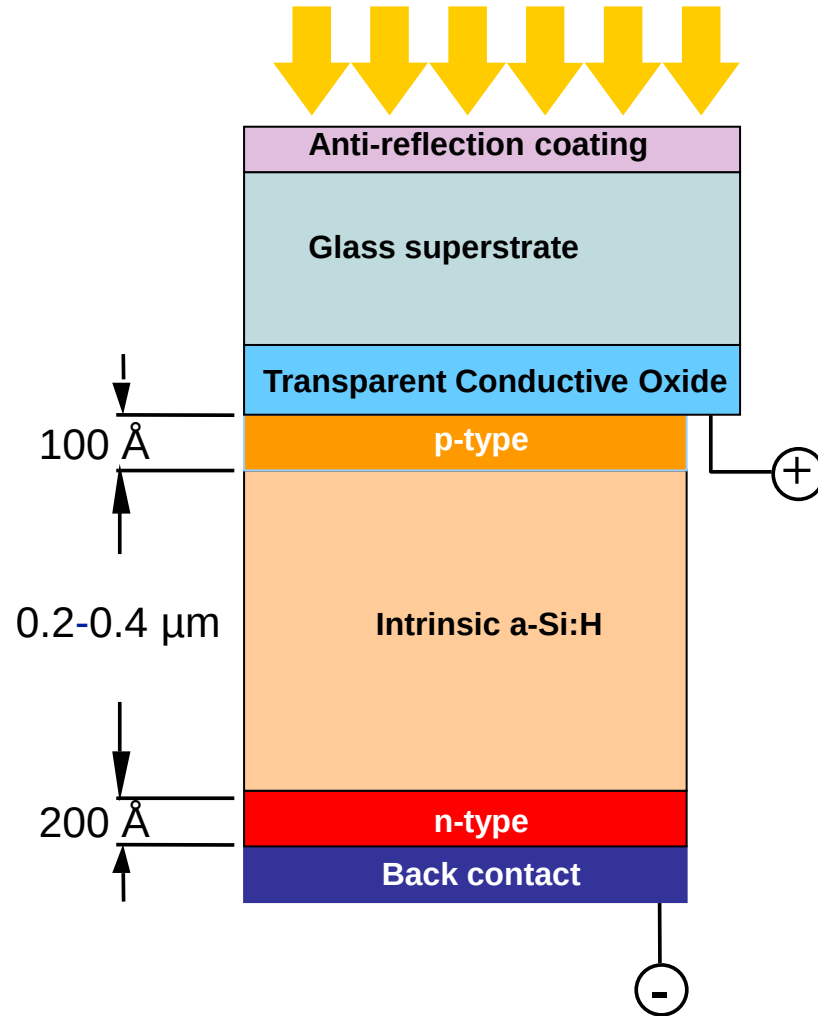
- Photodiodes

- Internal junction or selective contacts needed
- Controlled by the collection of carriers
- p-n or junction, p-i-n junction Schottky diode
- High linearity (in case of p-i-n)
- Low dark current
- Transverse carrier transport

- Photoconductors

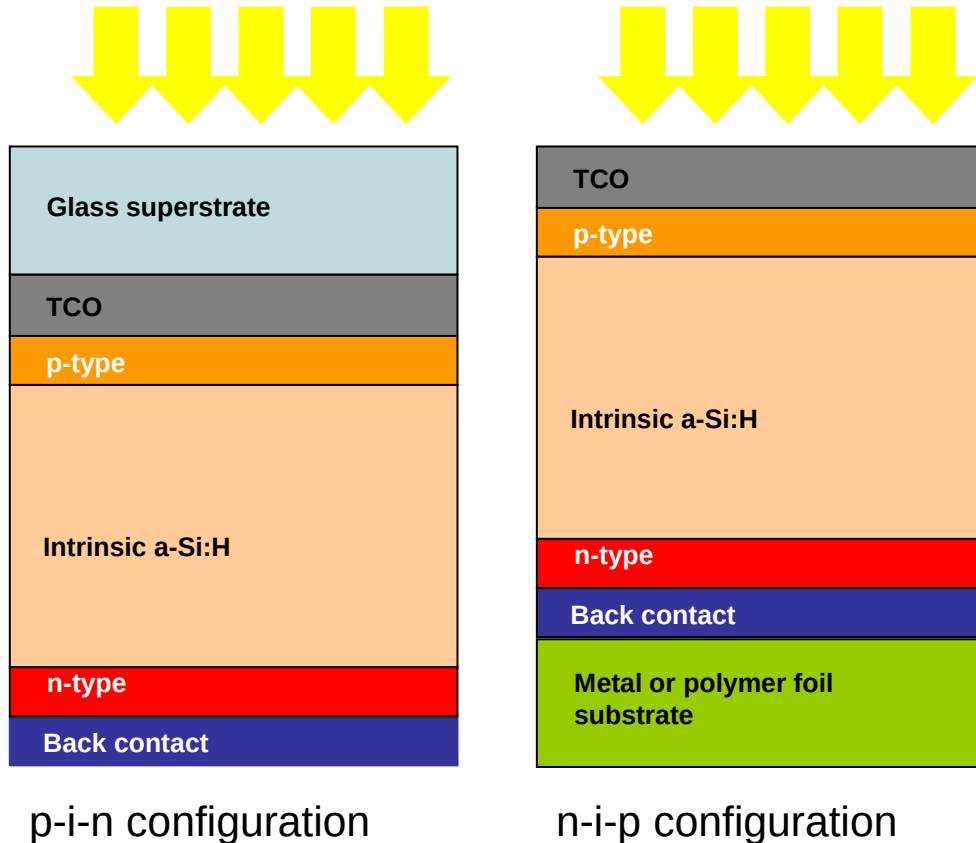
- Using ohmic or injecting contacts
- Controlled by photoconductivity (lifetime)
- Simple device structure (usually absorber and contact layers)
- Limited linearity
- Possibly high dark (leakage) current
- Lateral or transverse carrier transport

p-i-n solar cell (for disordered semiconductors)



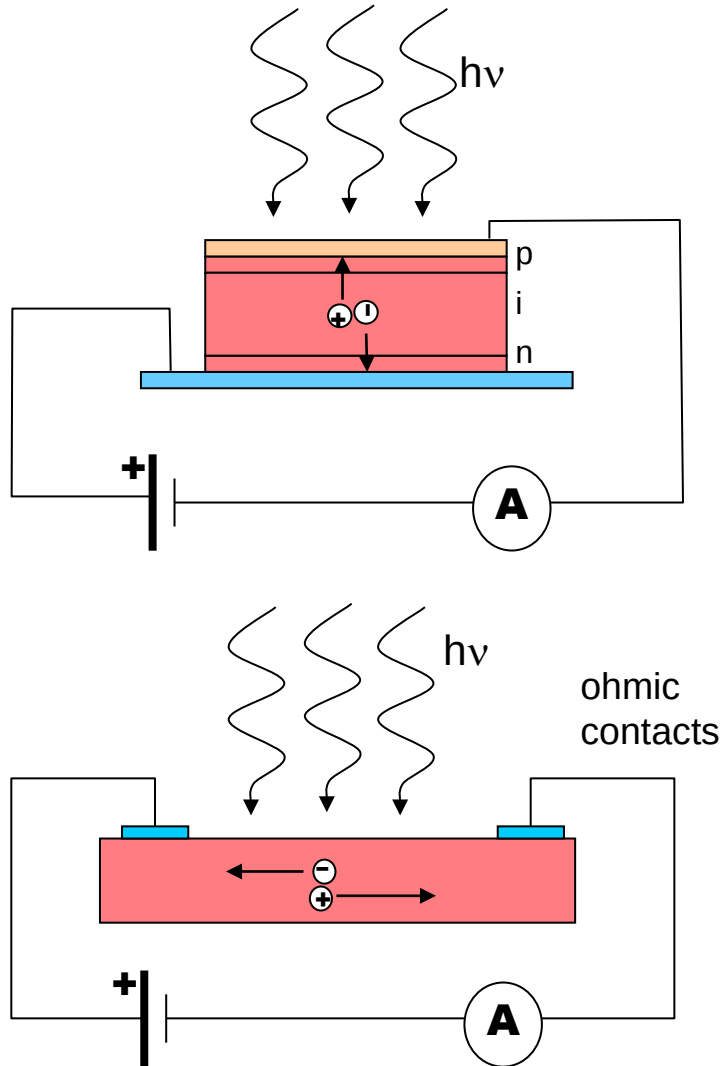
- p-i-n structure necessary for disordered semiconductors
 - N_{db} very high in doped layers (dead layers)
 - Doped layers only serve for electric field build-up through the intrinsic layer
 - The intrinsic layer is the only active layer
- Light enters the cell through the p-layer (“window layer”)

Thin-film Solar cells vs Photodetectors (diodes)



- Solar cells (Si based)
 - Self-polarisation (direct)
 - Thickness : 0.2-0.4 μm
 - Light-trapping scheme with rough TCO and rough back reflector
 - Current determined by efficiency of light trapping scheme
 - Very sensitive to SWE
 - p-i-n or n-i-p structure
- Photodiodes (Si based)
 - reverse polarization
 - Intrinsic layer can be thick (external field assisted collection) : 0.5-20 μm
 - Current determined by thickness
 - Less sensitive to SWE
 - p-i-n or n-i-p structure

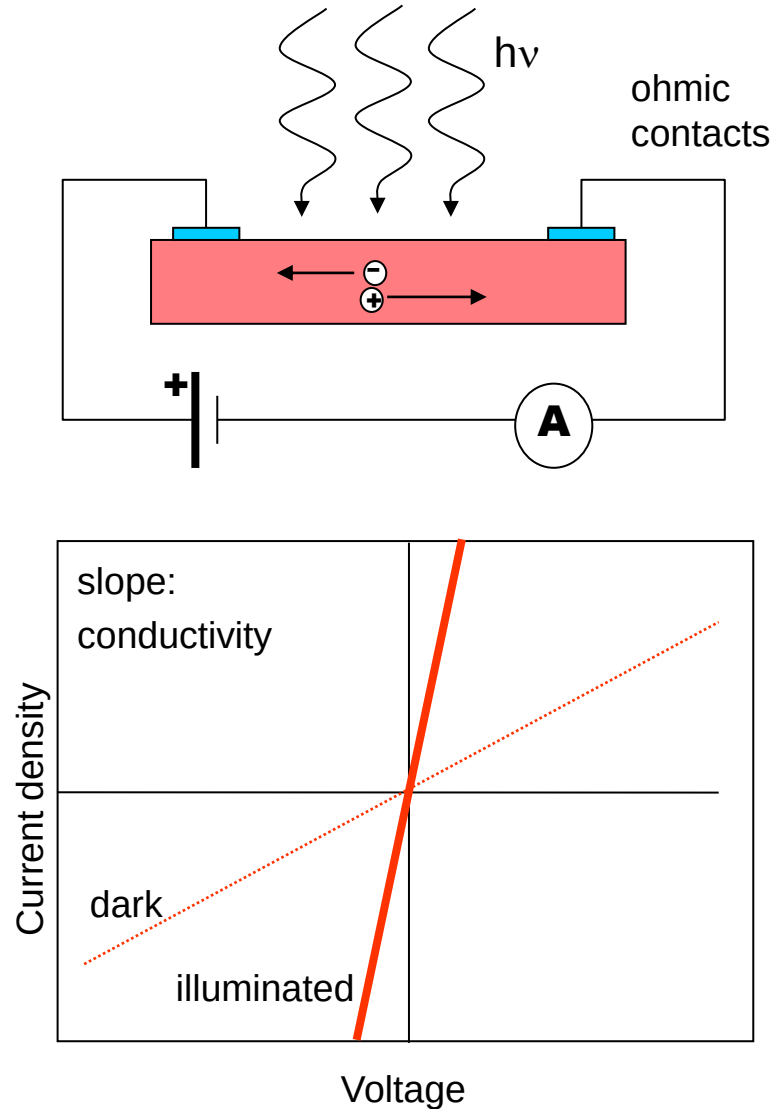
Photoconductivity



Two types of photoconductivity:

- **primary** photoconductivity:
 - given by the collection of photogenerated carriers
 - takes place in devices with **blocking** contacts (photodiodes, solar cells): in **photodetectors** or **optoelectronic detectors**.
- **secondary** photoconductivity:
 - given by the increase of the conductivity of an illuminated **intrinsic layers**
 - takes place in devices with **ohmic contacts: photoconductors**.

Secondary photoconductivity



- “Regular” conductivity
- Under steady state illumination:

$\sigma_{\text{tot}} = \sigma_{\text{photo}} + \sigma_{\text{dark}}$
 with $\sigma_{\text{photo}} = e (\mu_n n_f + \mu_p p_f)$
 where $\mu_{n,p}$ are band mobilities and n_f, p_f are photogenerated free carriers densities.

- From recombination model in steady-state ($G=R$):

$$\sigma_{\text{photo}} = e G (\mu_n \tau_n + \mu_p \tau_p)$$

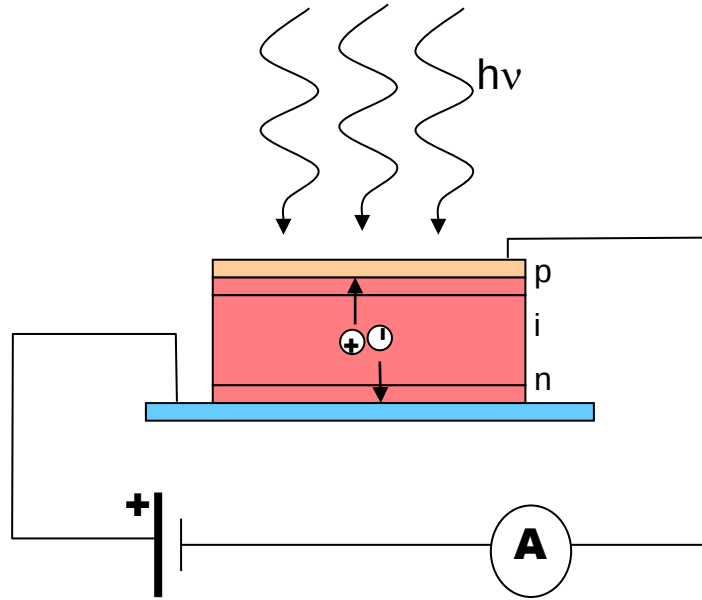
where $\tau_{n,p}$ are free carrier recombination times
 (in SRH model for doped SC: carrier recombination time=carrier lifetime!)

- Low defect density $\Rightarrow$ large photoconductivity

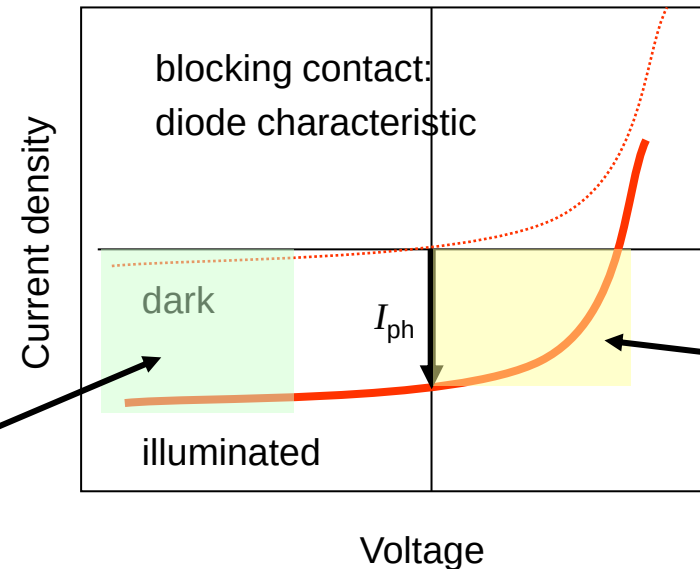
Secondary photoconductivity (2)

- For “best” photoconductor: $\sigma_{\text{ph}} \gg \sigma_{\text{dark}}$
 - LOW σ_{dark}
 - high bandgap
 - Small σ_0
 - Intrinsic semiconductors (no impurities)
 - High σ_{ph}
 - High optical absorption (direct bandgap, disordered semiconductors)
 - $E_{\text{gap}} < E_{\text{photon}} = h\nu$
 - **The gap is the most important parameter !**

Primary photoconductivity: blocking contacts



- given by the collection of photo-generated carriers
- $I_{ph} = G\eta$ with η : quantum efficiency, $\eta \rightarrow 1$ (a-Si:H cells)
- Operation in reverse conditions for best linearity (external field assisted collection)



Operation conditions for a photodiode

Operation conditions for a solar cell

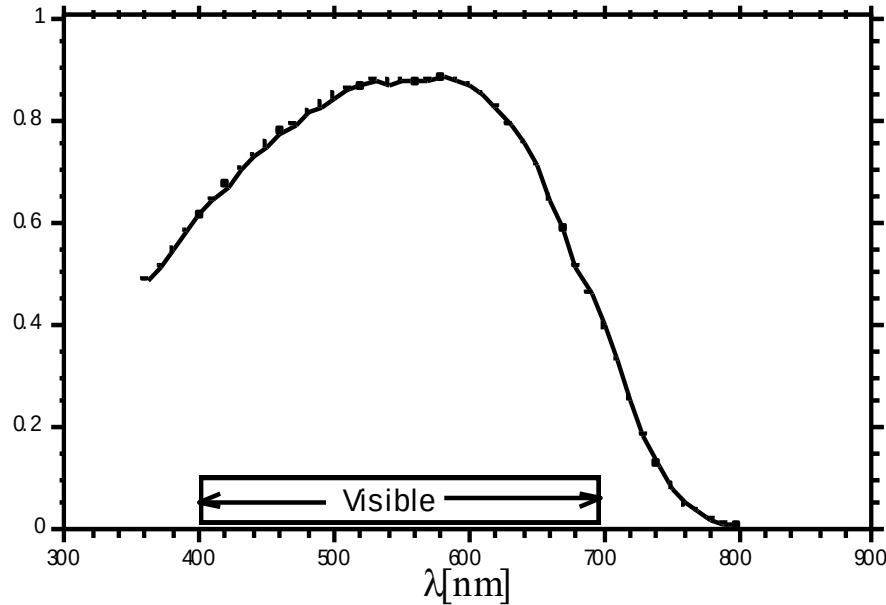
Requirements and device choice

- Doped layers or hetero-junction must be available for photodiodes
- Low leakage current
 - Blocking contacts for photodiodes
 - High gap material
- Suitable bandgap
 - High absorption in spectral range
 - High photocurrent
- Material stability
 - Temperature
 - Radiation
 - Chemical stability
- Material/device processing
- Compatibility with substrate
 - Adhesion
 - Thermal expansion coefficient
 - Chemical stability
- Cost

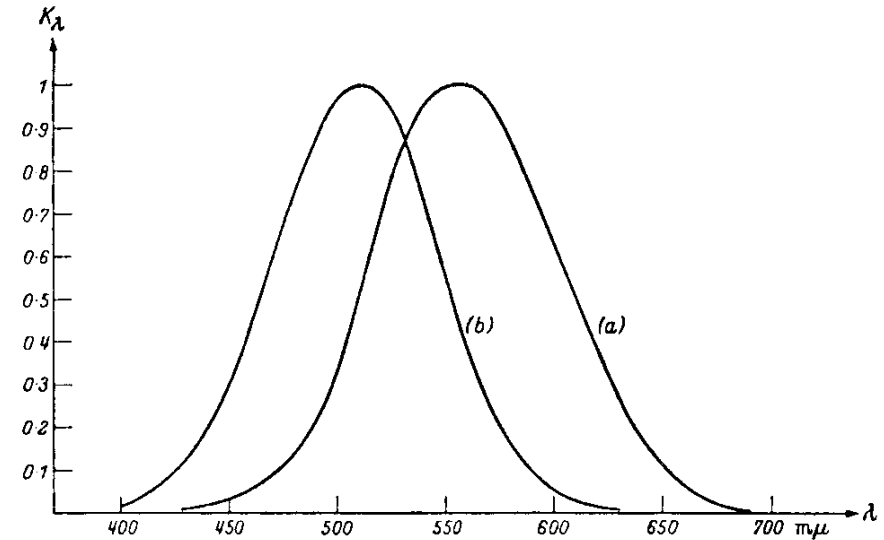
« Macro- » materials for photodiodes

- a-Si:H, μ c-Si:H, a-Si based alloys (solar cells & sensors)
 - $\text{Si}_{1-x}\text{C}_x$, $\text{Si}_{1-x}\text{Ge}_x$ alloys
- Chalcopyrites (solar cells)
 - CIS (CuInSe_2 , CuInS_2)
 - CIGS (CuInGaSe_2)
- Kesterites (solar cells, In free)
 - CuZnSn(S,Se)_2
- CdTe (solar cells, radiation hard diodes)
- Transparent conductive oxides (UV sensors)
 - ZnO, ...
- Diamond like carbon
(radiation, chemically, mechanically hard diodes)
- Organic materials (photodiodes, OLED)
 - Many.....
- Perovskites
 - $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$,

Spectral sensitivity



spectral response of a typical 0.5 μm thick a-Si:H p-i-n diode (at -3 V).



spectral sensitivity of the human eye for (a) daylight and (b) night vision

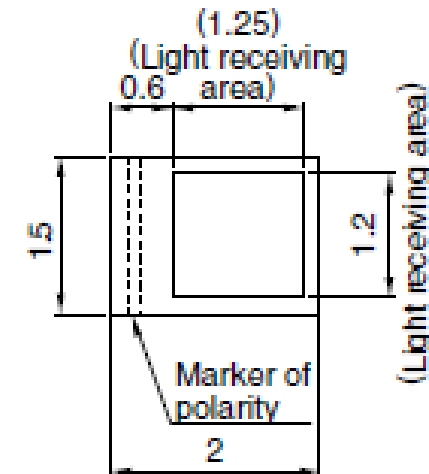
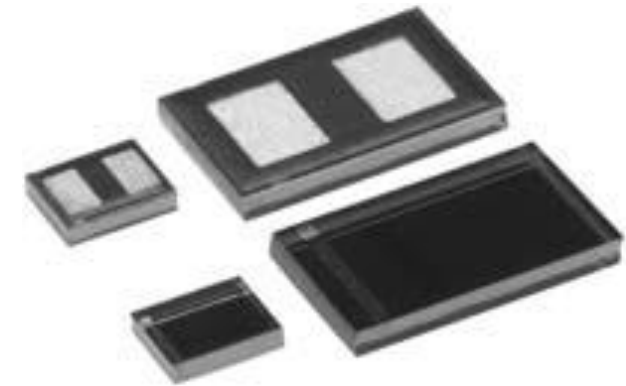
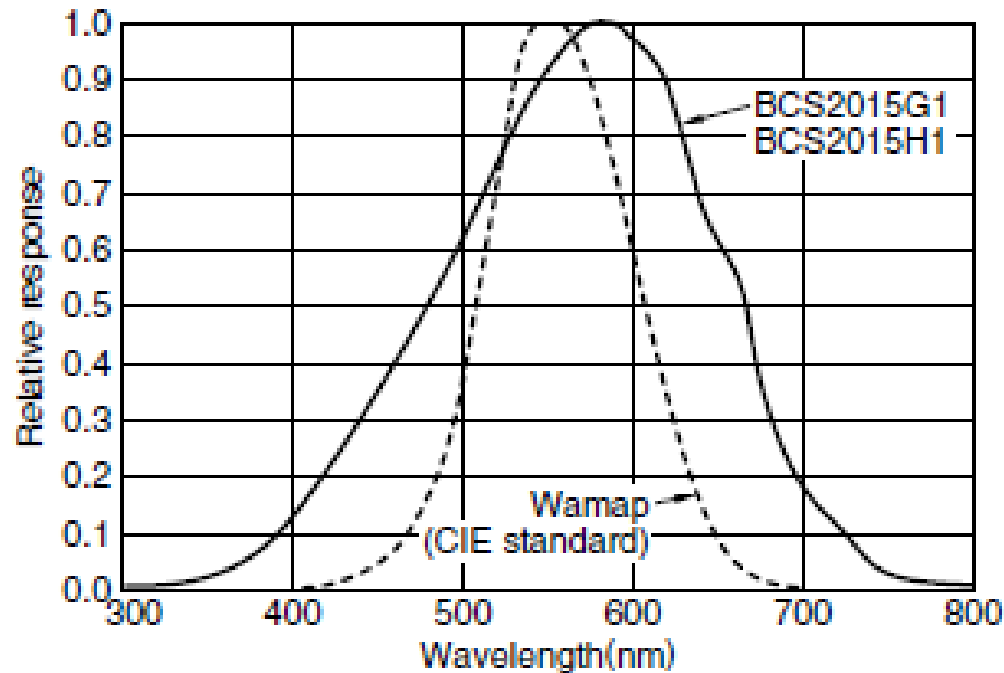
- a-Si:H spectral sensitivity matches human eye sensitivity !
- a-Si:H photodiodes used e.g. for display illumination control
- Spectral sensitivity tuning by alloying Si with C, Ge, (O, N, ...)

Commercial exemple

TDK

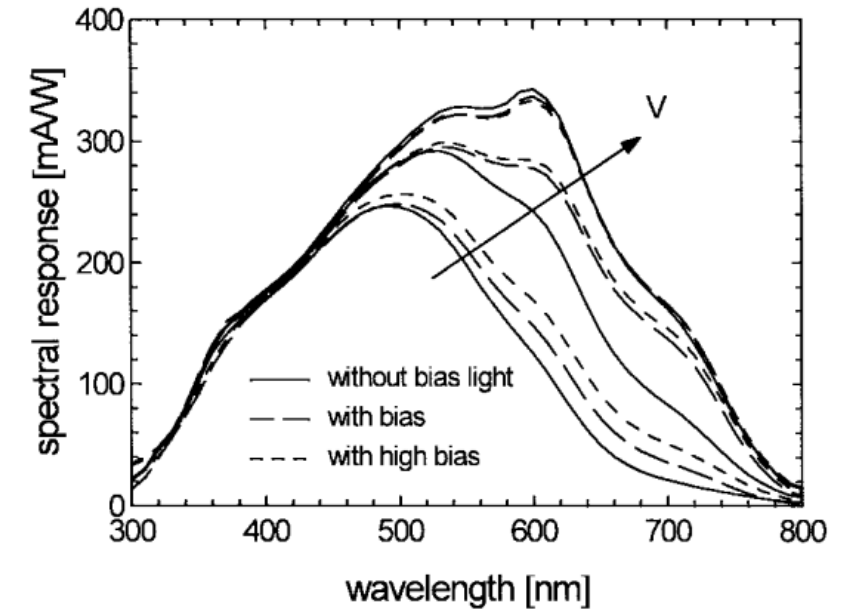
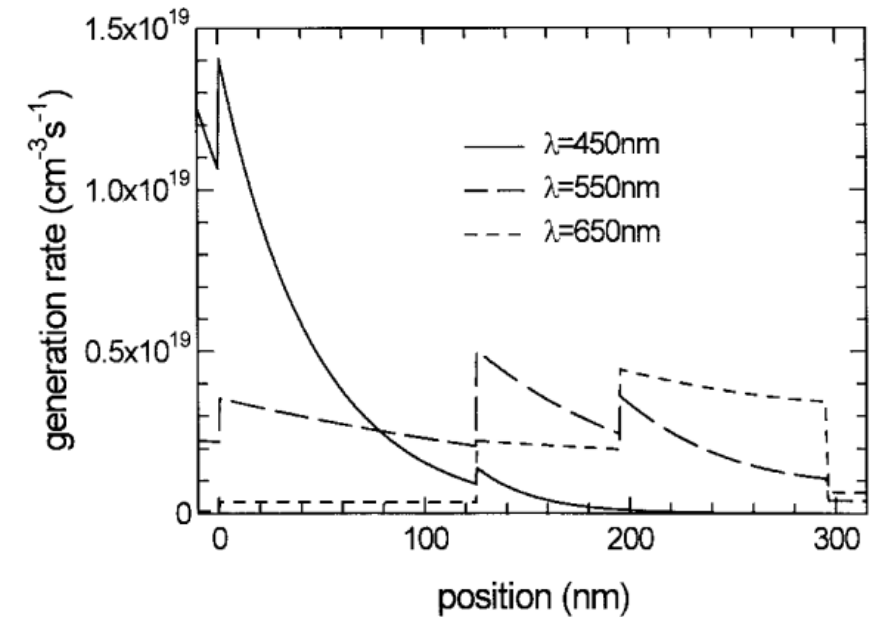
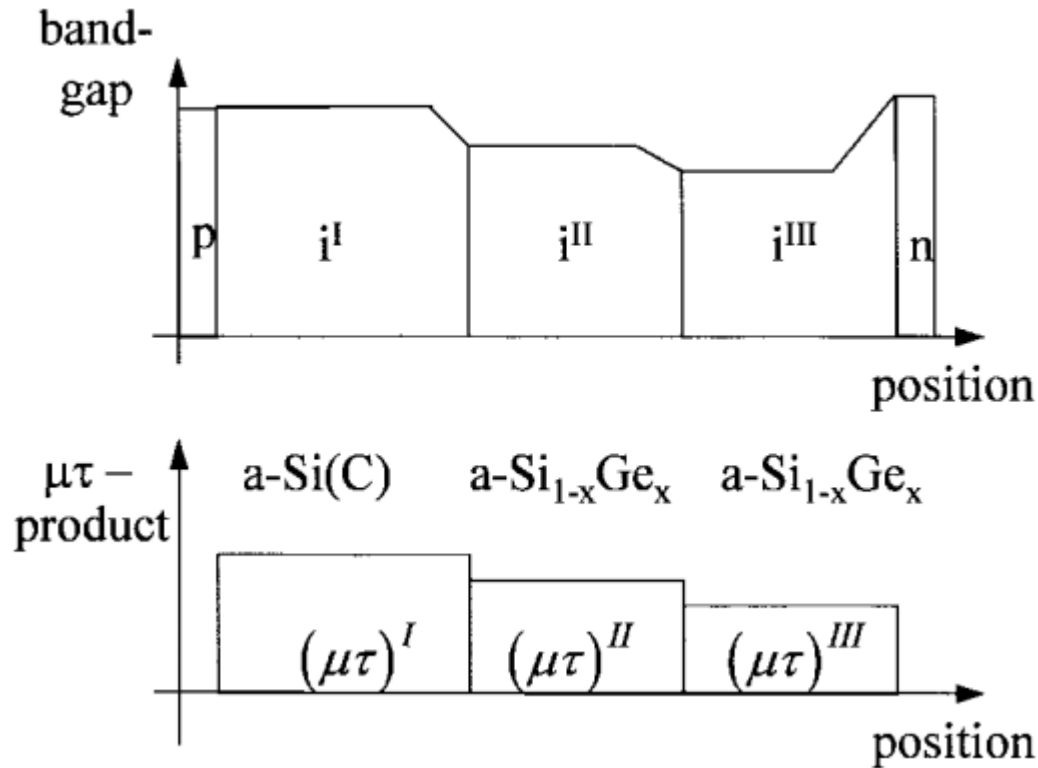
APPLICATIONS

- Brightness adjustment of LCD, CRT
- Camera AE sensor (Replace for CdS cell.)
- Lighting control



Color detectors

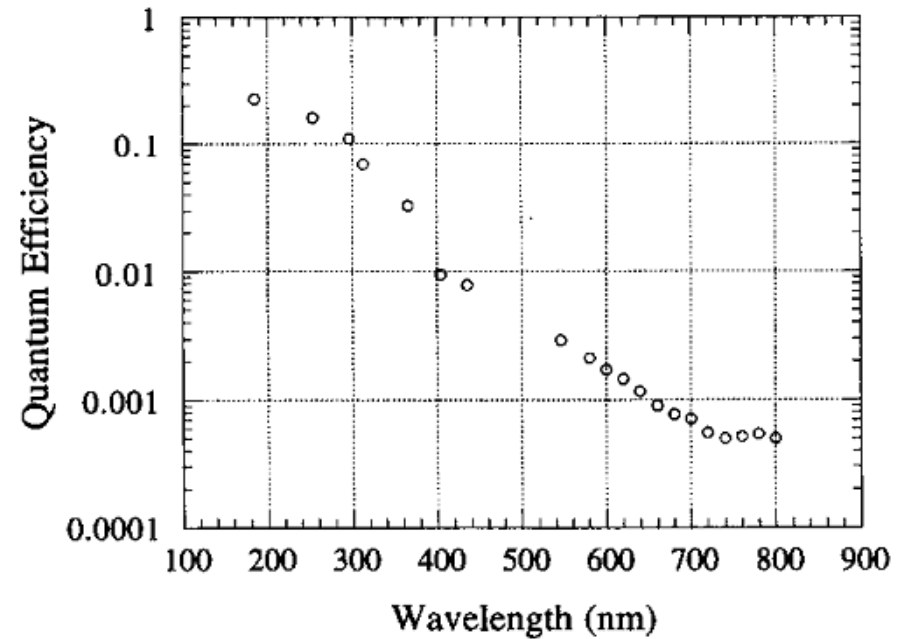
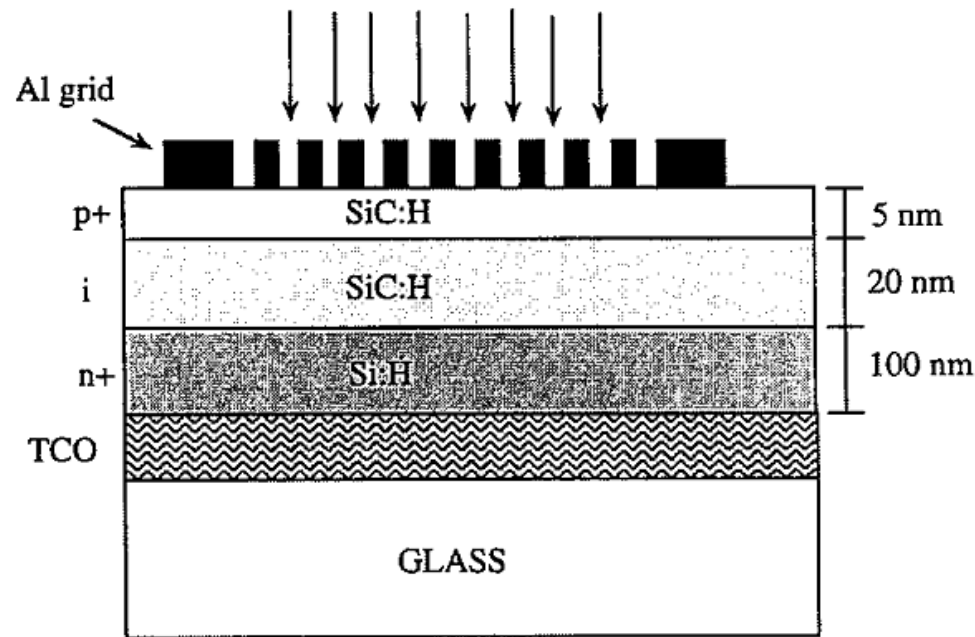
- Using bias voltage dependant spectral sensitivity (various device configurations possible)
- Detection without color filters



J. Zimmer et al., IEEE Trans. on El. Dev. 46 (1999)884

UV sensors requirements

- UV light → short penetration depths
- Illumination outside of contact area

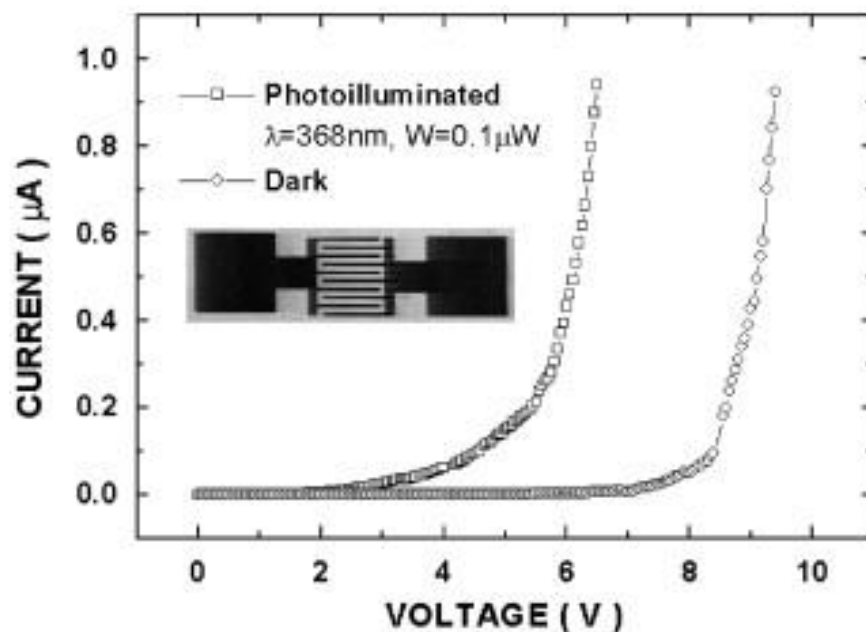


G. De Cesare et al., J. of Non-Cryst. Sol. 198-200 (1996) (2011)

- Other solutions: diode with high bandgap semiconductors

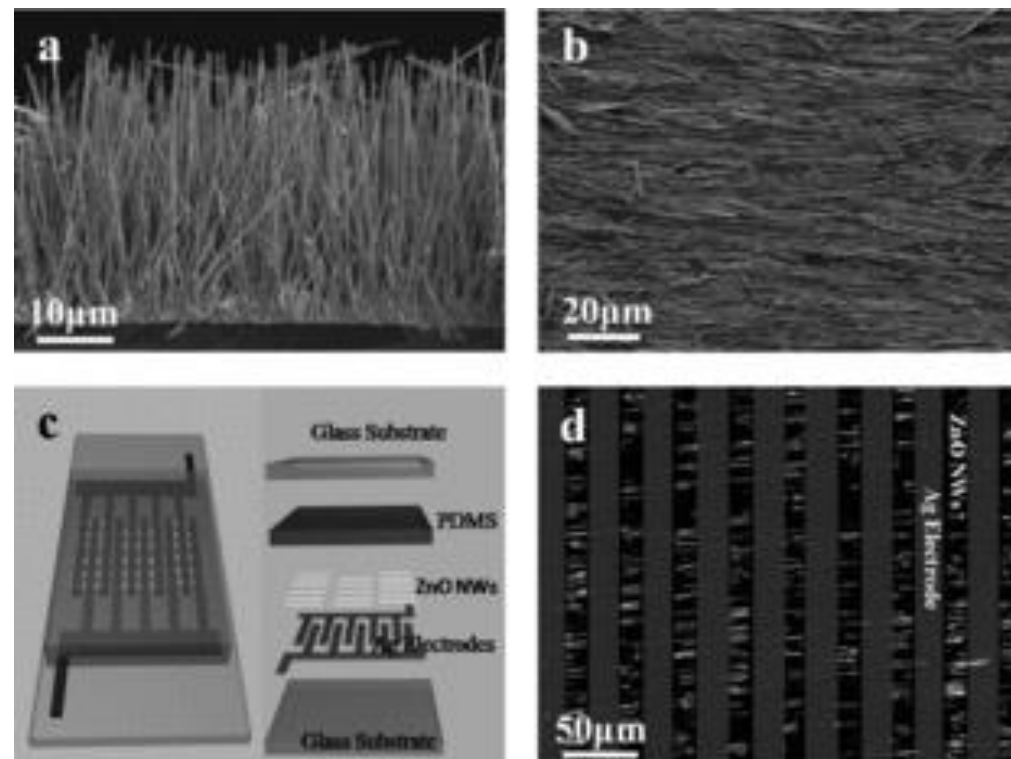
- UV sensor, visible light blind → High bandgap semiconductors

ZnO based detectors
(Schottky diodes, photodiodes)



S. Liang et al., *J. of Cryst. Growth* 225 (2001)

ZnO NW based detectors
(photodetectors)



S. Bai et al., *Adv. Funct. Mat.* 21 (2011)

Origin of ternary semiconductors

Elemental semiconductors:

IV: C, **Si**, **Ge**, β -Sn

Iso-electronic compounds:

III-V (GaAs, InP, InSb, ...)

II-VI (ZnS, ZnSe, CdTe, ...)

			Si	P	S
Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se
	Cd	In		Sb	Te

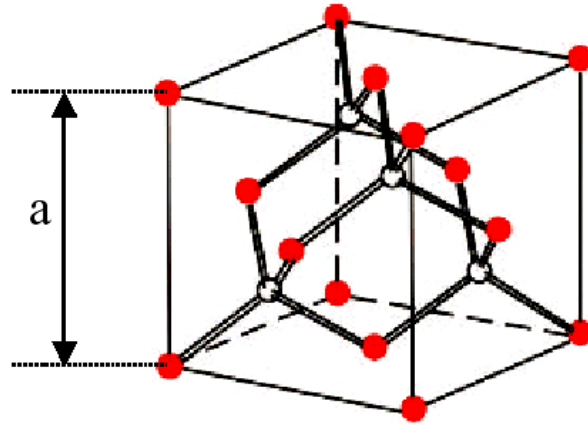
Iso-electronic replacement of II:

I-III-VI: CuInSe_2 (1.04 eV), CuGaSe_2 (1.7 eV), CuInS_2 (1.5 eV)

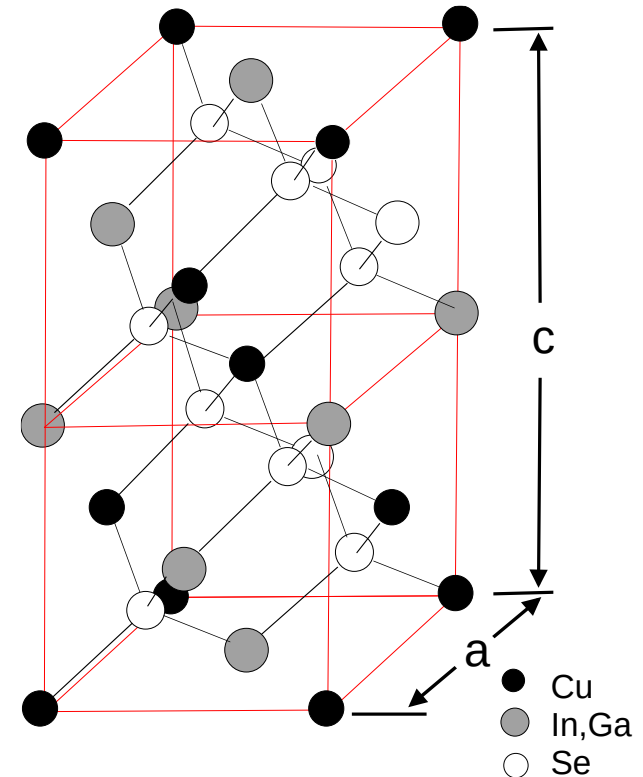
Crystallographic properties

Diamond structure (element semiconductors: Ge and Si)

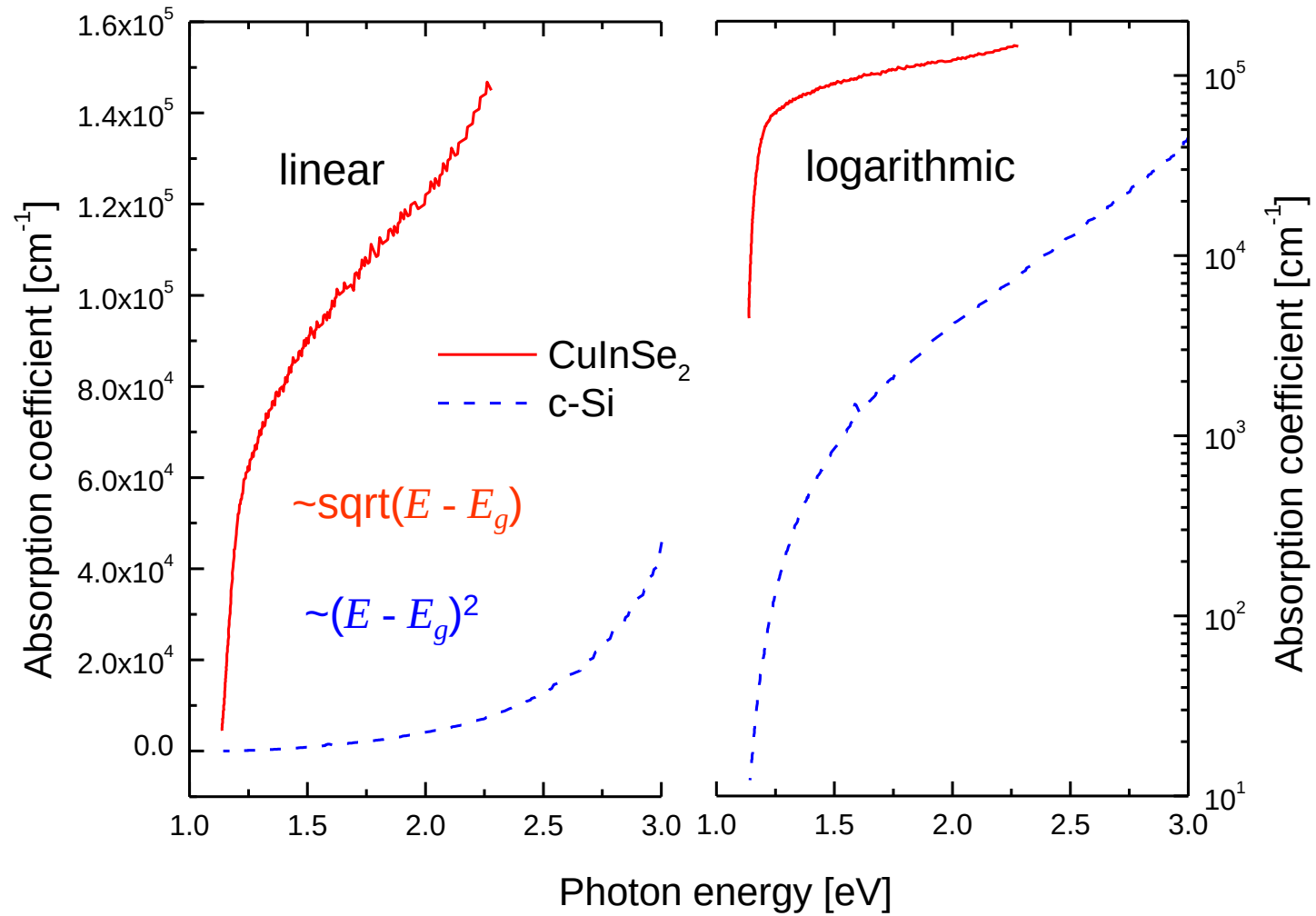
Zincblende (optoelectronic materials: GaAs, InP, GaN)



Photovoltaic materials:
CdTe (Zincblende)
CuInSe₂ (Chalcopyrite, tetragonal)



Spectral absorption

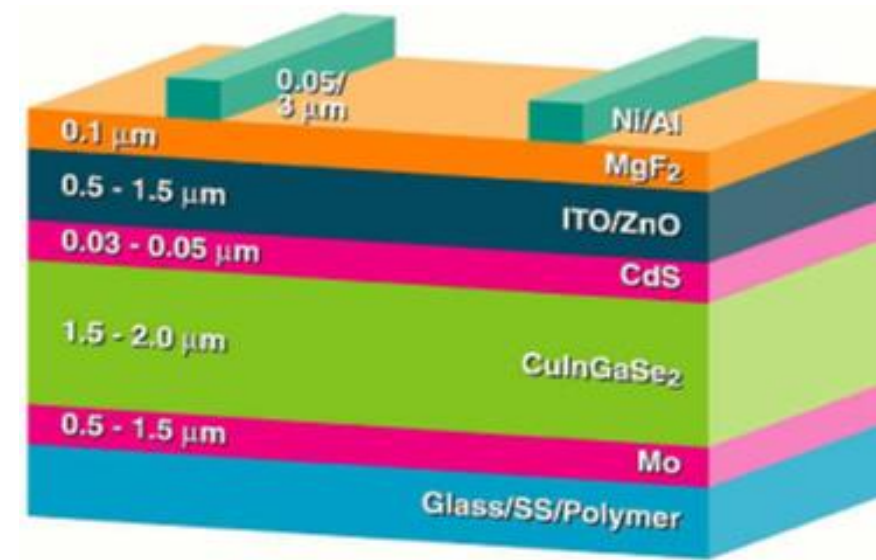
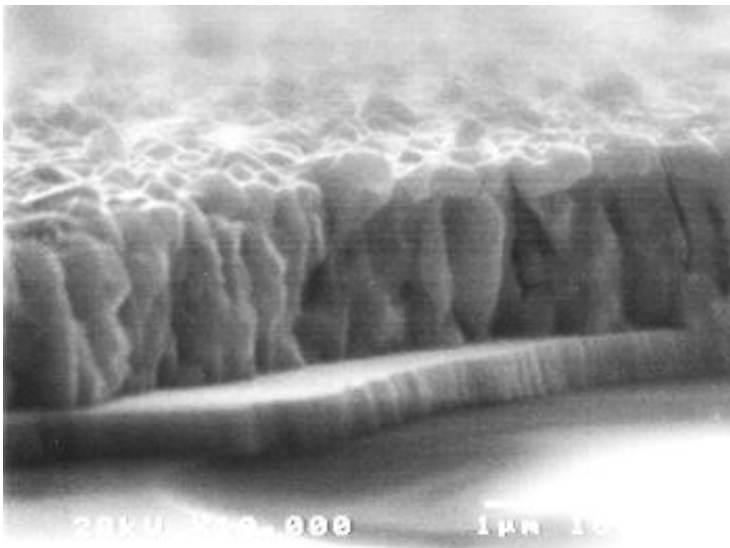


Direct band gap (CuInSe_2)

Indirect band gap (c-Si)
(additional phonon required)

Cu(In,Ga)Se₂ solar cells (or photodiodes)

- Heterojunction between p-type Cu(InGa)Se₂ and n-type CdS
- Bandgap of CuInSe: 1.0 eV, 1.15 eV for Cu(InGa)Se₂
- Best lab efficiency : 23.6% (Evolar, 2023),
20.4% (EMPA on flexible substrate, 2013)
- Deposition on flexible substrates (Mo foil, PI, SS)
- Monolithic interconnection of cells in modules



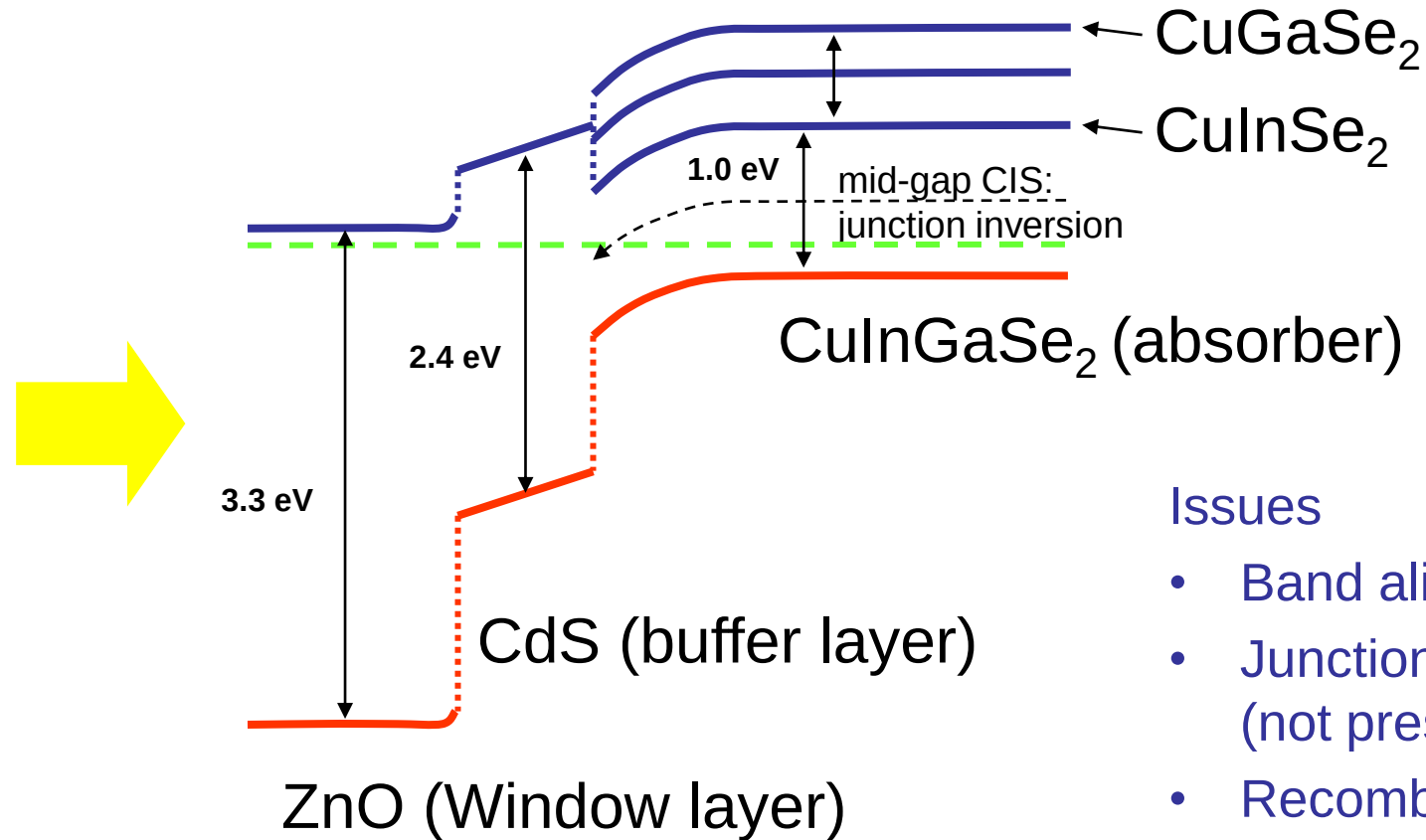
Hetero-junction formation

Formation of p-n junction

- Historically: also front contact with doped CdS (no window layer)
- Standard: deposition of CdS in chemical bath (CBD)
 - $\text{Cd}(\text{Ac})_2$, $(\text{H}_2\text{N})_2\text{CS}$ (Thiourea), NH_3 (pH control)
 - precipitation of CdS (nano-particles in solution, film growth on surfaces)
- Alternatives:
 - $\text{In}(\text{OH})_x\text{S}_y$, ZnSe, ZnS (CBD process)
 - ZnS, ZnSe: (evaporation)
 - In_2O_3 : atomic layer deposition (ALD)
 - Cd, Zn: (partial electrolyte treatment, diffusion of Cd beneficial for junction formation)

- Fabrication:
 - Several possibilities for absorber deposition
 - Co-evaporation: several stages to adjust stoichiometry
 - Sequential: sputtering of precursors (Cu and In) followed by selenization (thermal process in H_2Se atmosphere)
 - Non-vacuum techniques (electrodeposition, not possible for Mo)
 - Temperatures $> 450^\circ\text{C}$ necessary for optimum efficiency ($\approx 350^\circ\text{C}$ used for cell on PI + RTA)
 - Na necessary for best absorber growth and morphology, supplied by substrate (glass) or added during process
 - CdS usually deposited by chemical bath (deposition by CVD also possible)

Band diagram

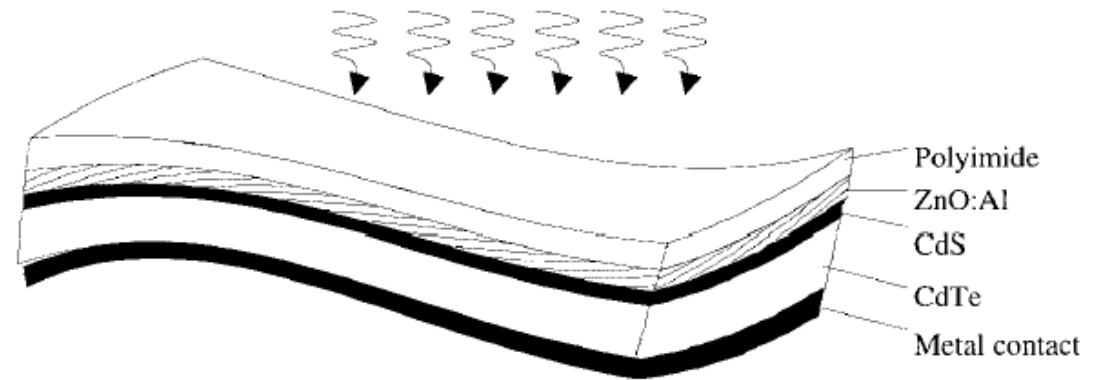
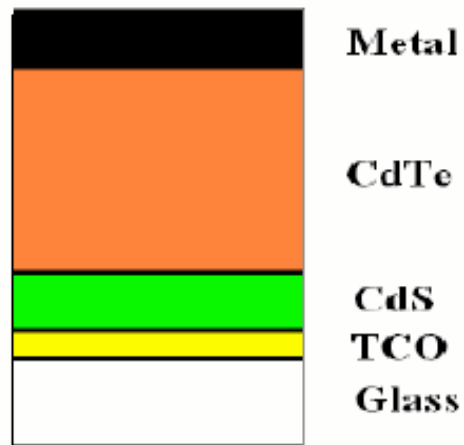


Issues

- Band alignment
- Junction inversion for CIS (not present for CIGS)
- Recombination at CdS/absorber interface

- Issues
 - Stability (sensitive to humidity)
 - Cost (scale-up, In)
 - In availability (In is a byproduct of Zn extraction)
- Research topics
 - Buffer/window layer
 - Alternative back contact
 - Superstrate cells
 - Cd free cell (avoid CdS)
 - In free absorber: iso-electronic replacement of III by II-IV, e.g. Zn-Sn
→ Quaternary $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSnSe}_4$ compounds (Kesterites)
 - Ultra-thin absorber: 100 - 200 nm should be sufficient (direct gap)
 - Non-vacuum process
 - Wide gap absorber (for better single junction, for tandem configuration)
 - Flexible cells, nanoparticles, inks (Daystar, Nanosolar,...)
 - Micro-concentration

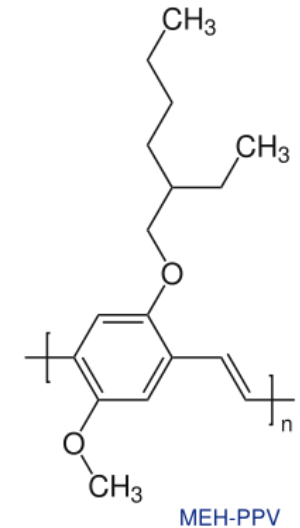
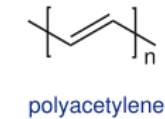
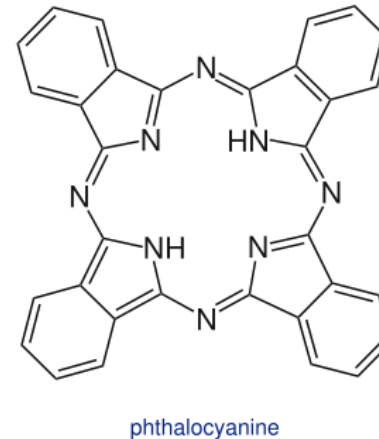
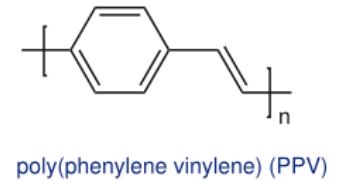
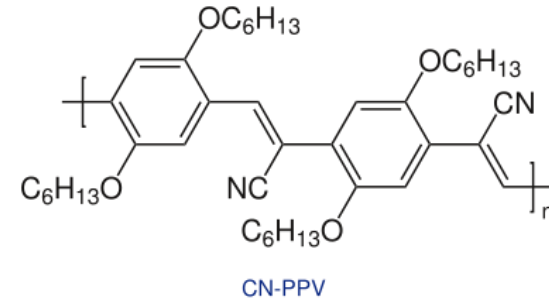
- Heterojunction between p-type CdTe and n-type CdS
- Bandgap of CdTe : 1.45 eV
- Best lab efficiency = 22.6% (First Solar, 2024)
- Deposition on flexible substrates possible (spin coated polyimide), lower efficiency (best efficiency 13.8% by EMPA, 2011)
- Monolithic interconnection of cells in modules
- Very high radiation hardness (see also next lecture)



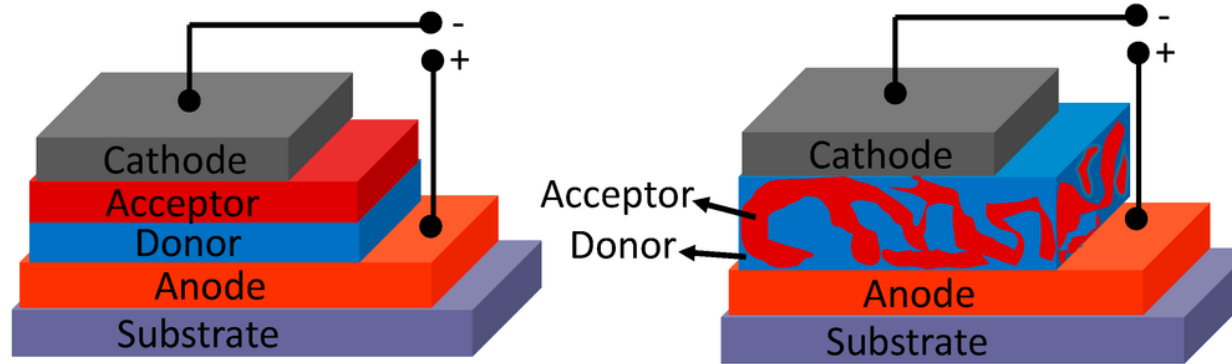
CdTe fabrication and issues

- Fabrication:
 - Deposition of
 - CdS using chemical bath technique (CVD also possible)
 - CdTe using close space vacuum sublimation.
other possibilities: sputtering, electrodeposition, MOCVD, etc.
 - Deposition or annealing at relatively high temperature $\geq 400^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Issues
 - CdTe inert, Cd in production cycle could be an issue,
Cd content is a legal issue !
- Research topics
 - Thinner cells
 - Absorber morphology
 - Substrate configuration

- Thousands of materials
- Small molecules or polymers
- p-type material with low mobility
- Tuneable light sensitivity
- Solution processing possible (spin-coating, printing)
- Flexible devices
- Stability issues (UV, humidity,...)

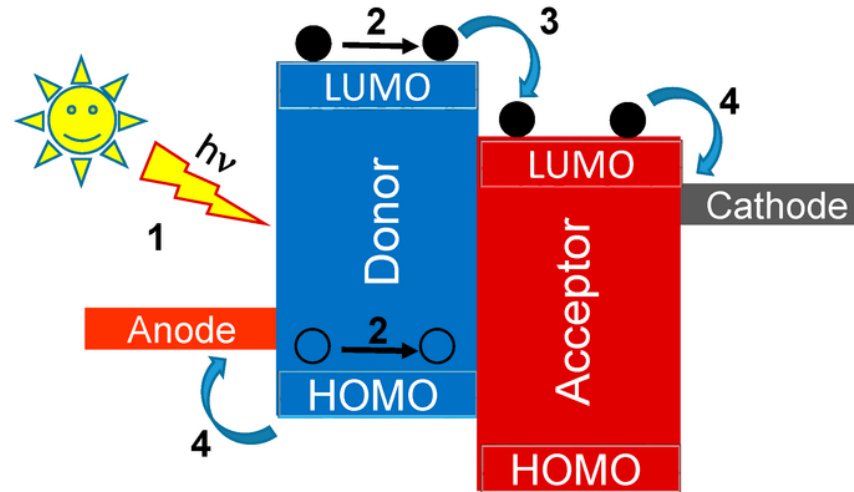


Organic photodiode structure



a) Bilayer heterojunction

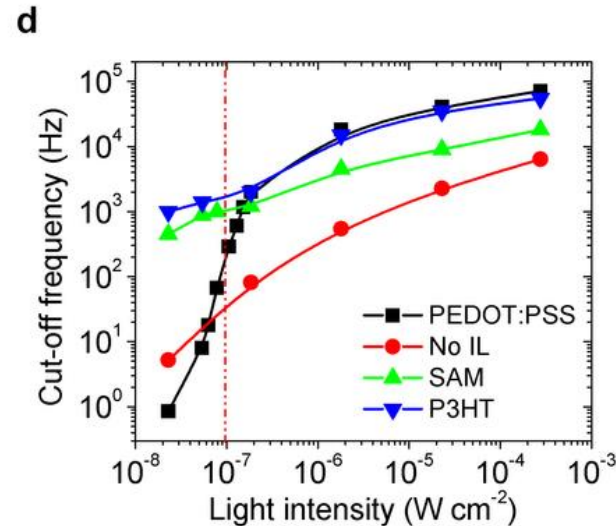
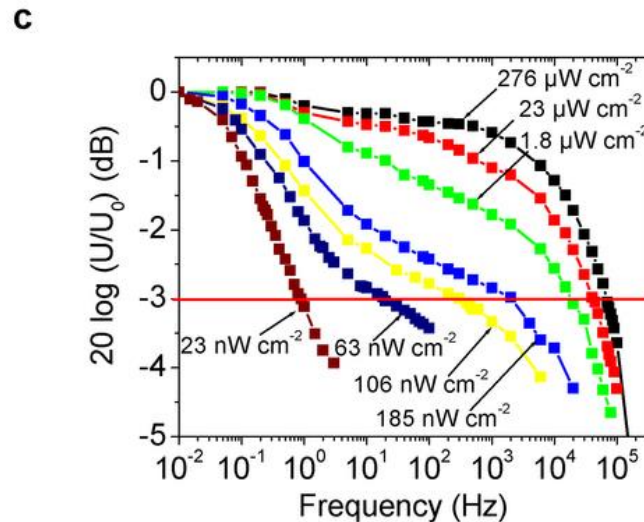
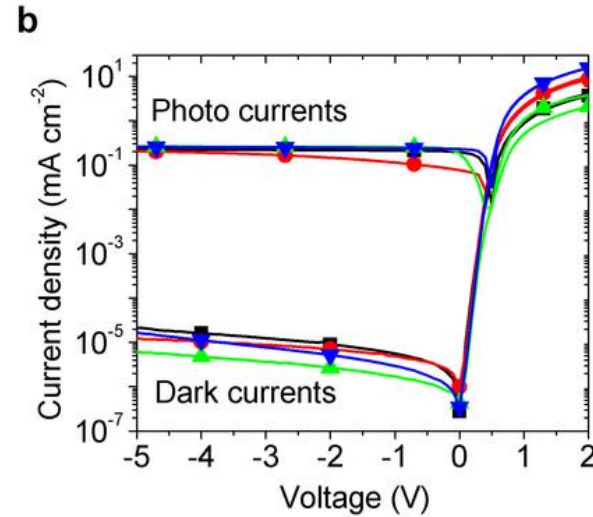
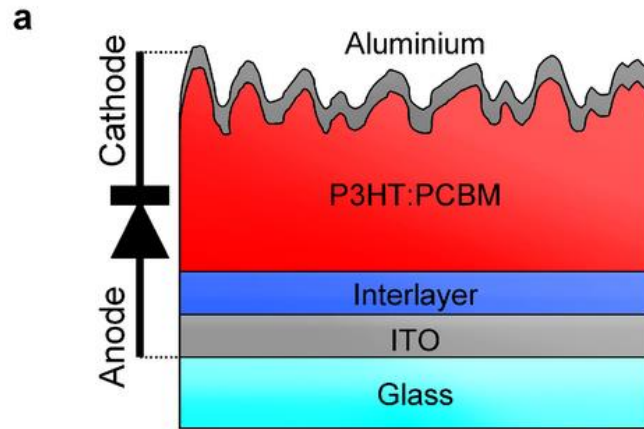
b) Bulk heterojunction



c) Device working principle

P. Kumaresan et al.,
Polymers 6 (2014)

Organic photodiode

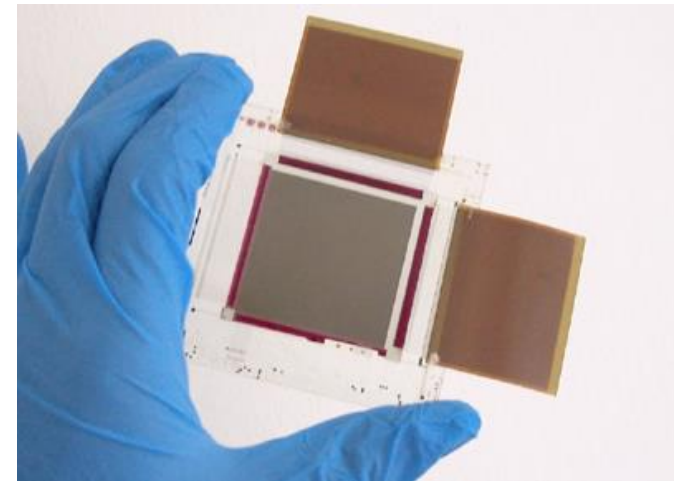
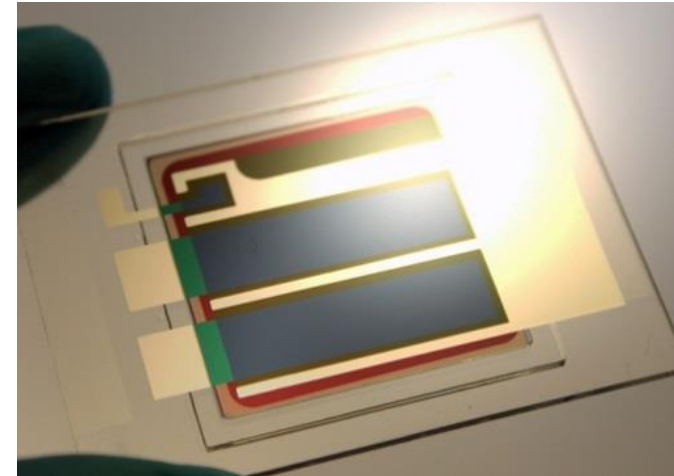
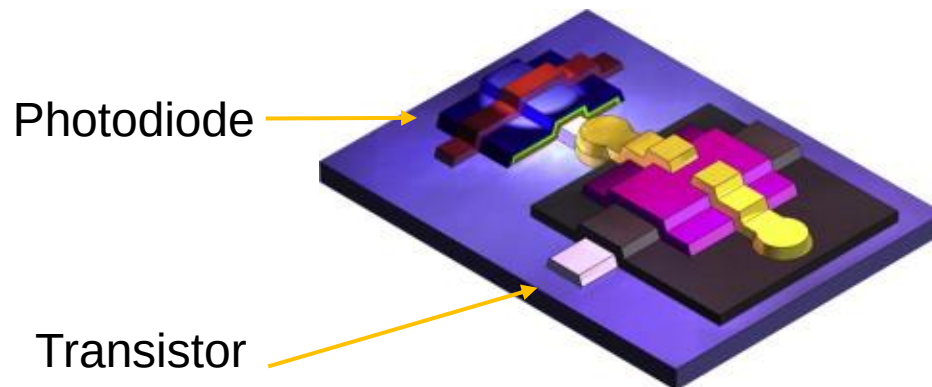


- Bulk heterojunction with P3HT:PCBM blend
- P3HT : donnor
- PCBM : acceptor (fullerene derivative)
- Interlayer : «hole transport layer» (HTL)

F. Arca et al.,
Scientific Reports 3 (2013)

Organic photodiodes

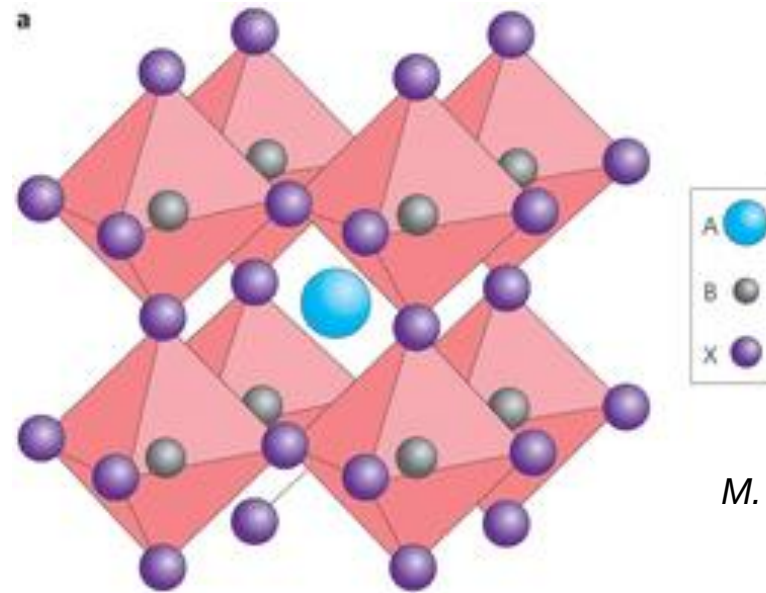
- Solar cells: 19.2% (SJTU, 2023, single), 14.2% (tandem devices, ICCAS, 2019),
- Straightforward tuning of spectral sensitivity
 - Infrared organic photodiodes (Siemens)
 - Transparent cells (in the visible)
- Integrated organic passive pixel sensor



X. Tong et al. *Organic Electronics* 12 (2012)

Perovskites

- Cristallographic form named from Russian mineralogist L. A. Perovski
- Discovered in 1839
- General form ABX_3 , A, B : cations, X : anion, A bigger than B
- Cubic cell

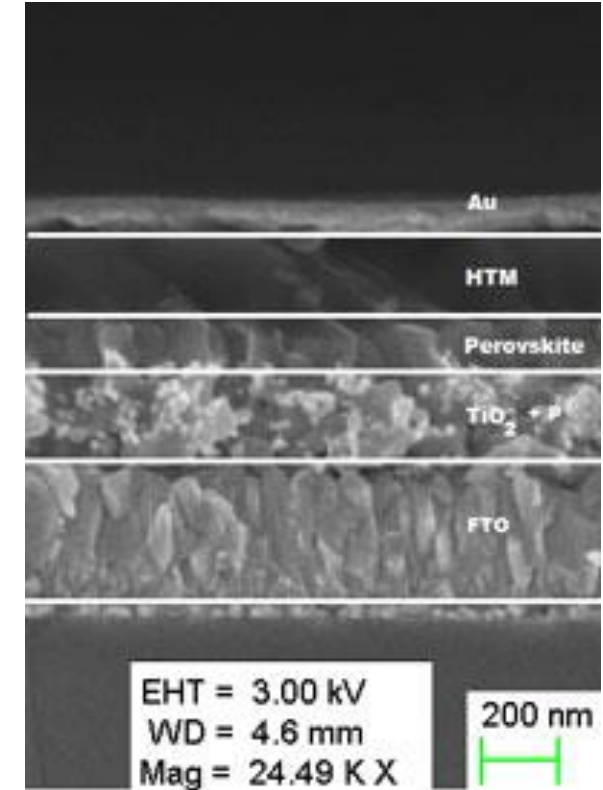


M. Green et al. Nature Photonics (2014)

- Crystallographic structure of various common oxides (CaTiO_3 , SrTiO_3 , BaTiO_3 , PbZrO_3 ,...)

Perovskites

- High interest for solar cells (lab developments) since 2009
- Pioneered by M. Grätzel (EPFL) using lead iodide perovskite ($\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$, Methylammonium Lead Iodide-MALI)
 - Structure:
 $\text{Au} / \text{P3HT} / \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3 / \text{TiO}_2 / \text{ITO} / \text{Glass}$
- Best efficiency: 26.1% (NUUT, 2023, small area)
 Higher stability with hybrid/mixed perovskites:
 $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$
- Issues : stability (short/long term, interfaces, contacts oxygen, moisture, temperature), usage of Pb, hole conducting layer
- Lead free perovskites solar cells with much lower efficiency
- Large effort to develop a top cell on c-Si for tandem device !
 Best efficiency: 33.9.0% (Longi, 2023)
- Interest as x-ray sensing material (heavy elements!)

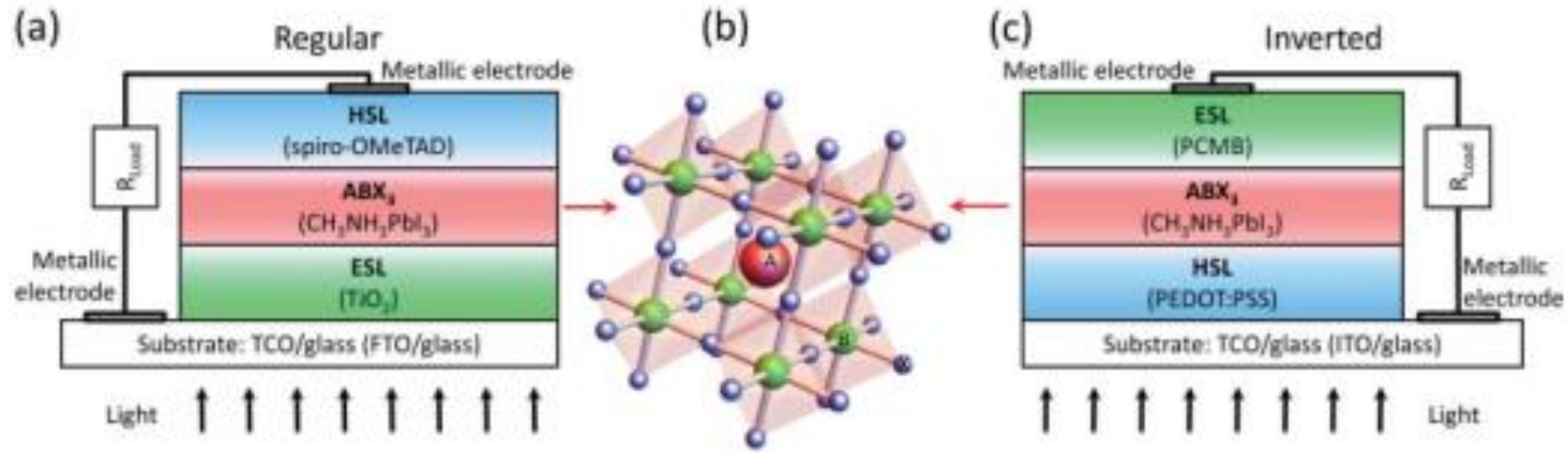


Perovskite materials

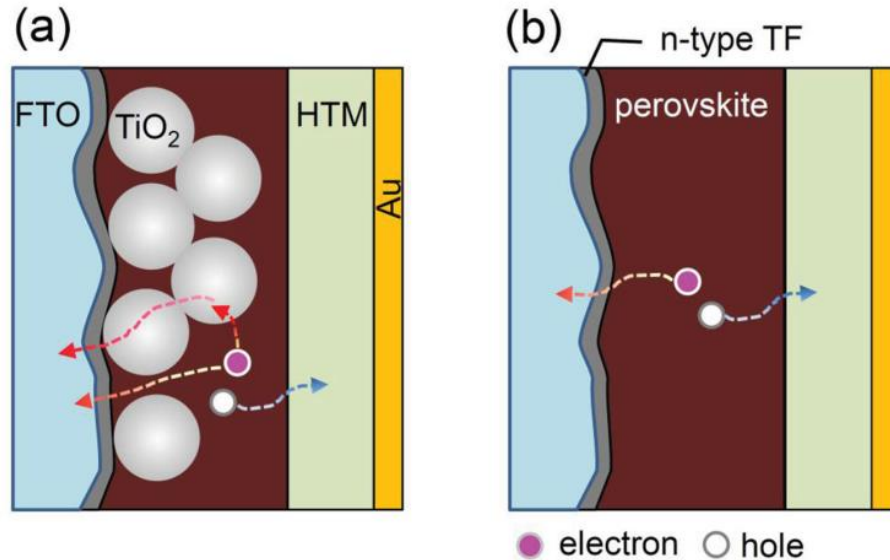
- Base materials (ABX_3)
 - A: CH_3NH_3 (MA), $HC(NH_2)_2$ (FA), PEA ($C_6H_5(CH_2)_2$)
 - B: Pb, Sn
 - X: Cl, Br, I
- Best materials
 - $CH_3NH_3PbI_3$, Methylammonium Lead Iodide (MAPbI₃ or MALI)
 $E_g \approx 1.7$ eV (direct-indirect, *Hutter et al., Nature Mat. 16 (2016)*)
 - $H_2NCHNH_2PbI_3$, Formamidinium Lead Iodide (FAPbI₃ or FALI),
 $E_g \leq 1.55$ eV
- Material modification (for higher stability and E_g tuning)
 - Replacement (small fraction) of I by Br or Cl
 - Replacement (small fraction) of FA by Cs
 - Hybrids/mixed perovskites

Qin et al., J. of Semiconductors 38 (2017)
Zhao et al., Nature Comm. 9 (2018)

Perovskite based devices



Lopez-Varo et al., Adv. Energy Mat. (2018)

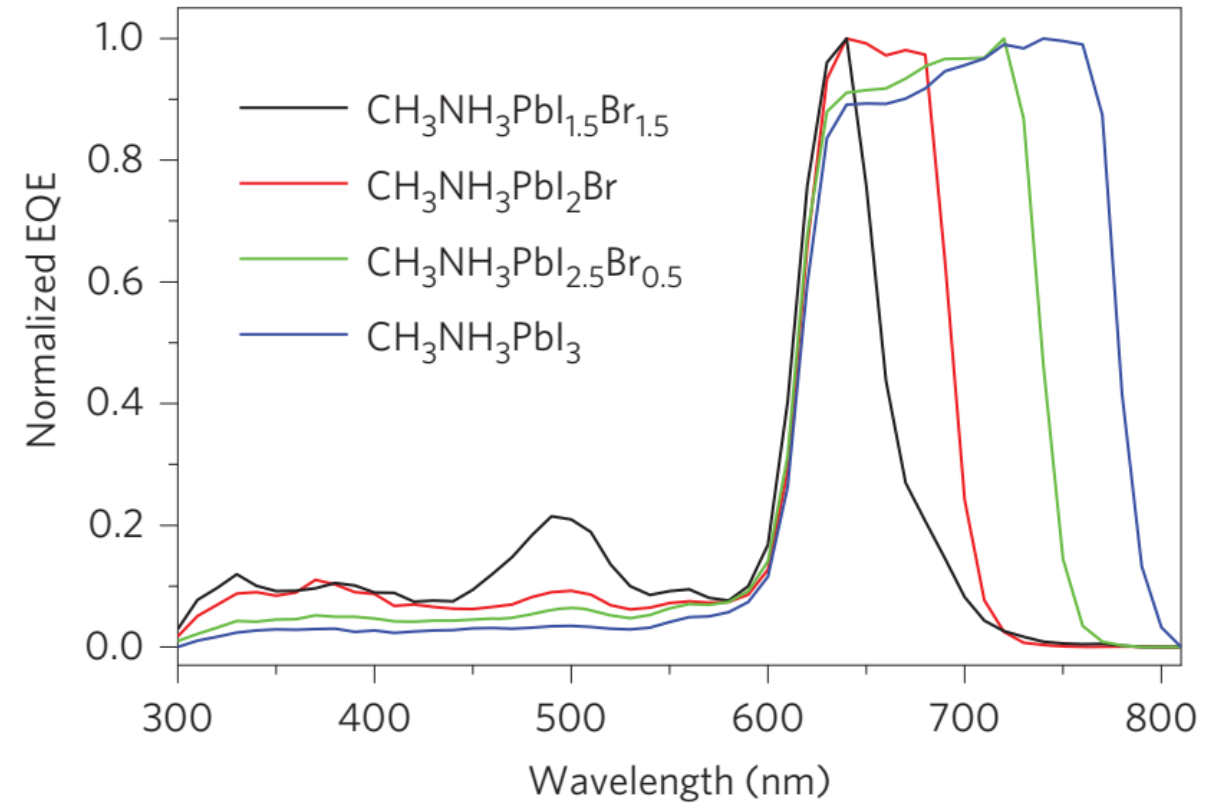
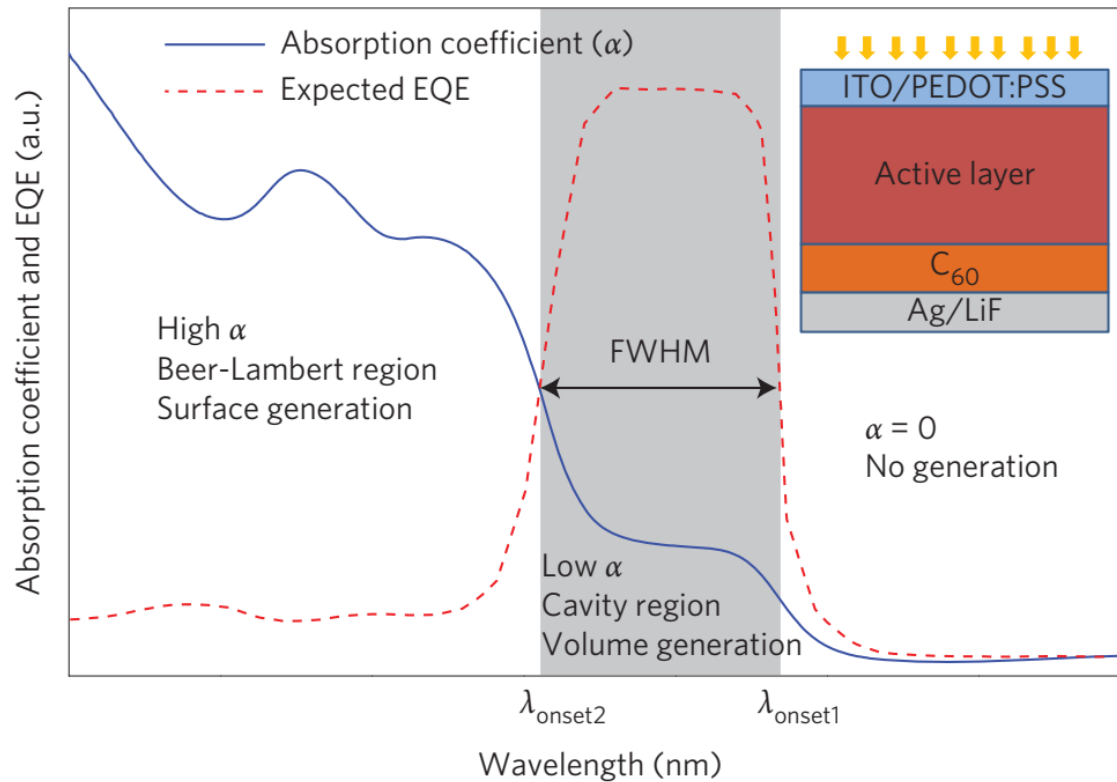


H.S. Jung, N.-G. Park, Small 11 (2015)

- Various (critical) choices for
 - HSL (Hole Selective Contact)
 - ESL (Electron Selective contact)
- n-i-p or p-i-n configuration

Perovskite based photodetectors

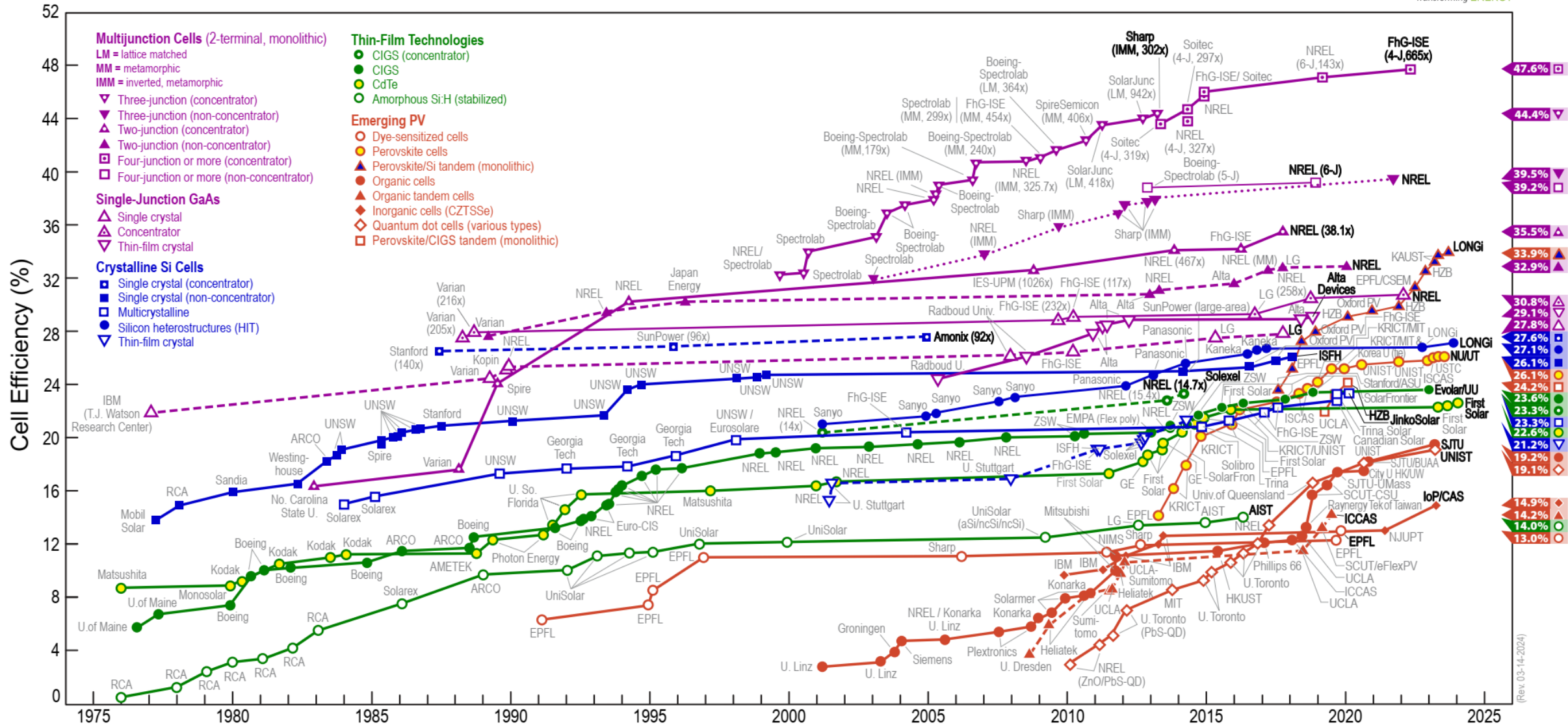
- Example of narrow bandgap detectors



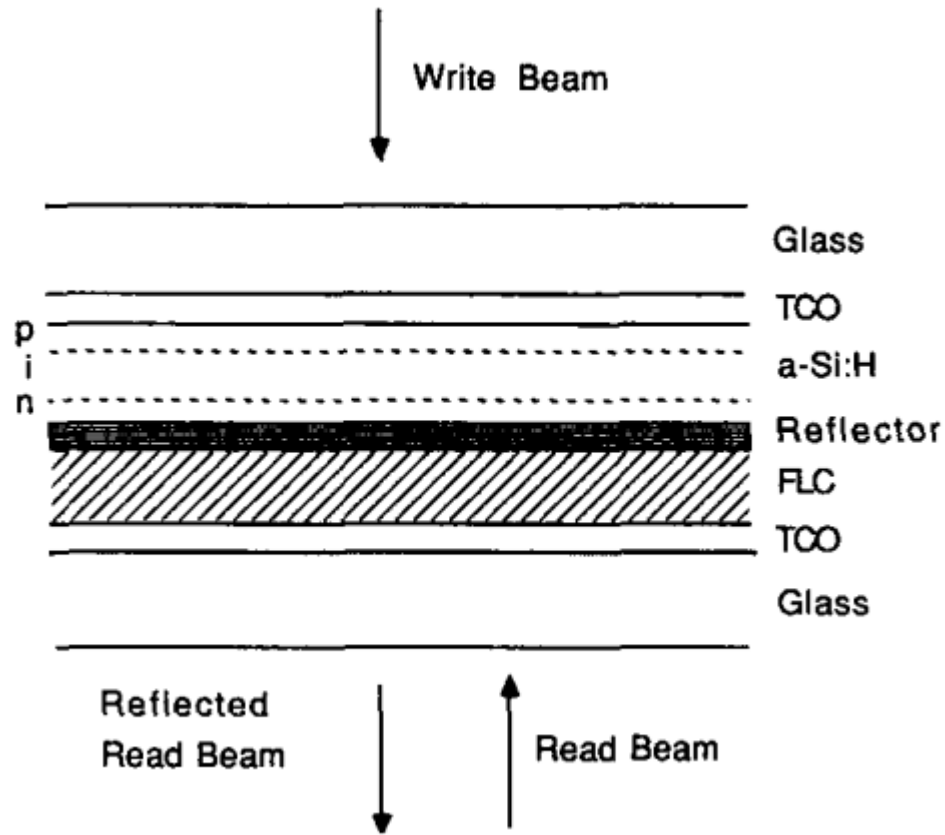
Q. Lin et al., Nature Photonics 9 (2015) 687.

Best solar cells

Best Research-Cell Efficiencies



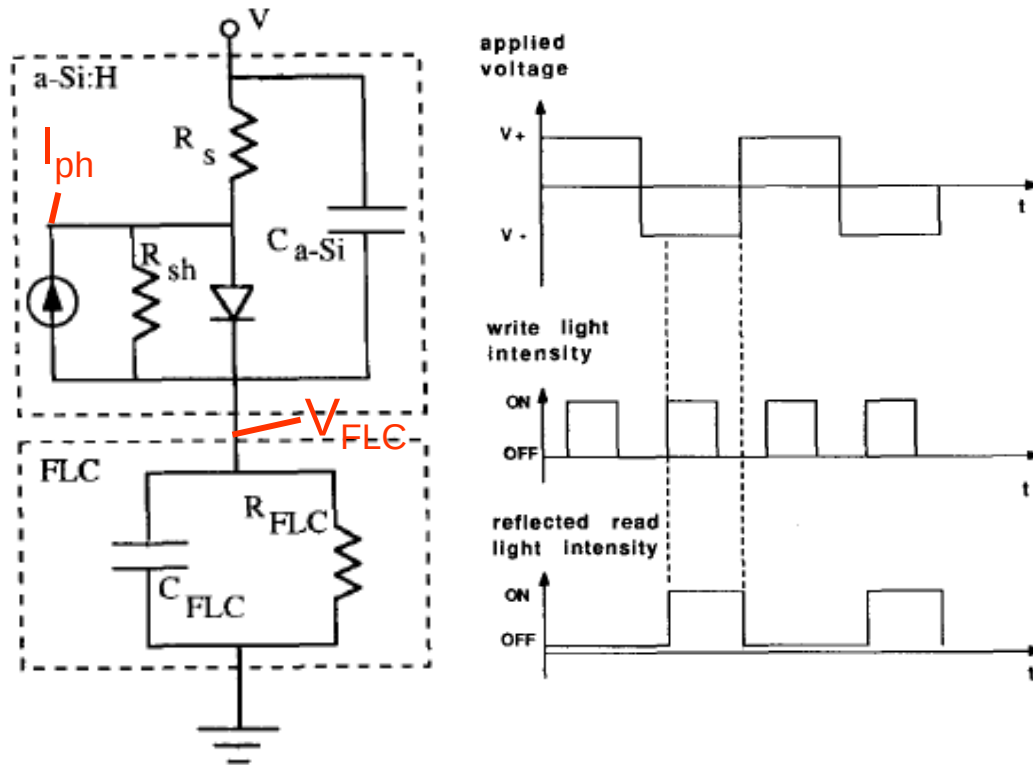
OASLM: Optically Addressed Spatial Light Modulator



- Applications
 - Spatial distribution of light amplifier
 - Image projection (amplification)
 - Spatial filtering
 - Light valves
 - Optical computing
- Principle
 - Liquid crystal cell (FLC : Ferro Liquid crystal) driven by a (p-i-n) solar cell

Li et al., IEEE Trans. On Elect. Dev. 36 (1989) 2959

OASLM operation



Li et al., IEEE Trans. On Elect. Dev. 36 (1989) 2959

Operations

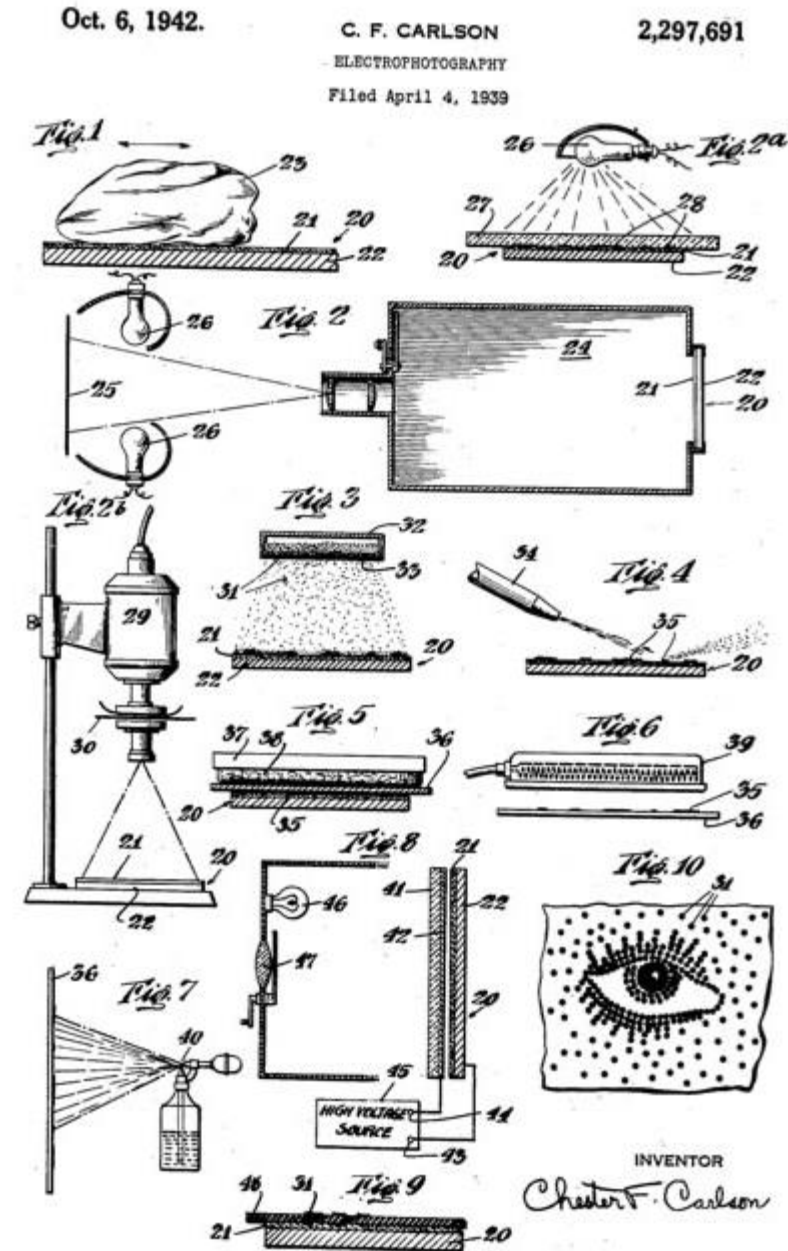
1. $V > 0$ (forward bias)
 - Reset
 - $V_{FLC} > 0 \rightarrow \text{OFF}$
2. $V < 0$ (reverse bias)
 - a) Write light ON
 - $I_{ph} > 0$
 - $V_{FLC} < 0 \rightarrow \text{ON}$
 - b) Write light OFF
 - $I_{ph} = 0$
 - V_{FLC} unchanged
 - State unchanged

States

- ON : light reflected
- OFF : light absorbed

Xerography

- Xerography or electro-photography
- First application of amorphous semiconductors!
- Discovered in 1938 by Chester Carlson in Astoria (NY)
- Patented in 1942 (US Patent 2,297,691)
- "xerography" comes from the Greek language and means *dry writing*.
- Principle used in copy machines & laser printers.



First copier, first laser printers

First laser printer prototype Xerox, 1969



The first copier
XEROX's « Model A », 1949

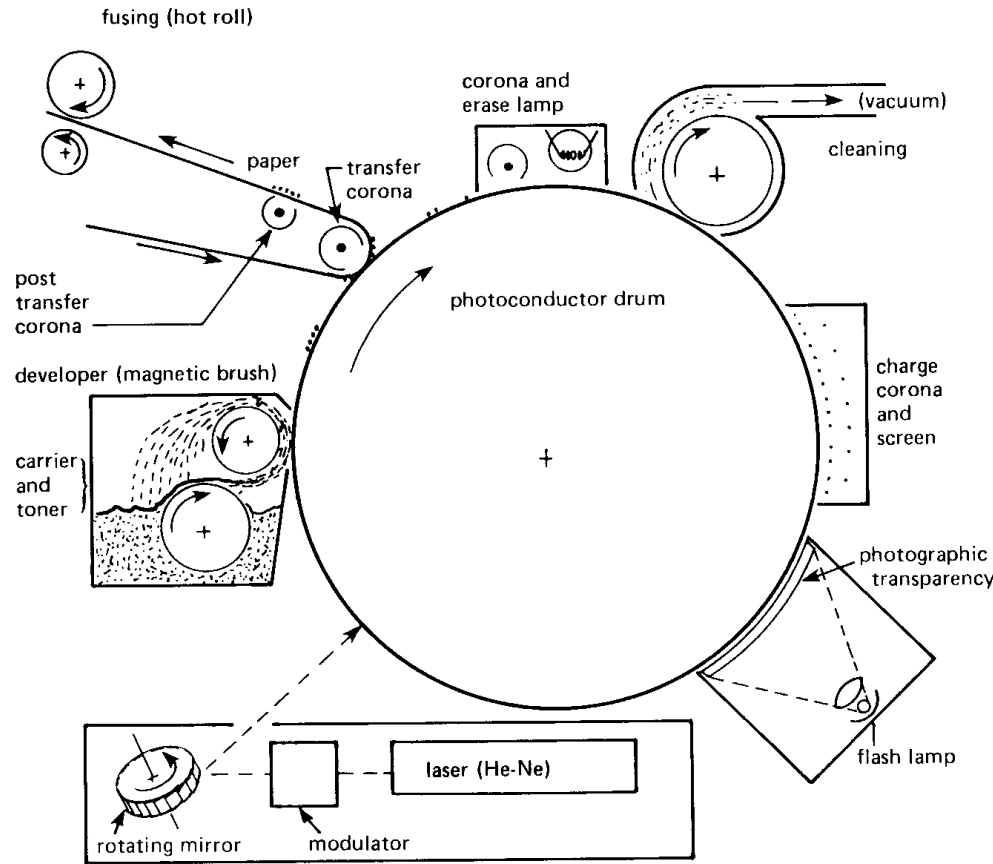


IBM 3800
1975



The first commercial (office) laser printer
Xerox 9700, 1977

Principle



Williams, 1984

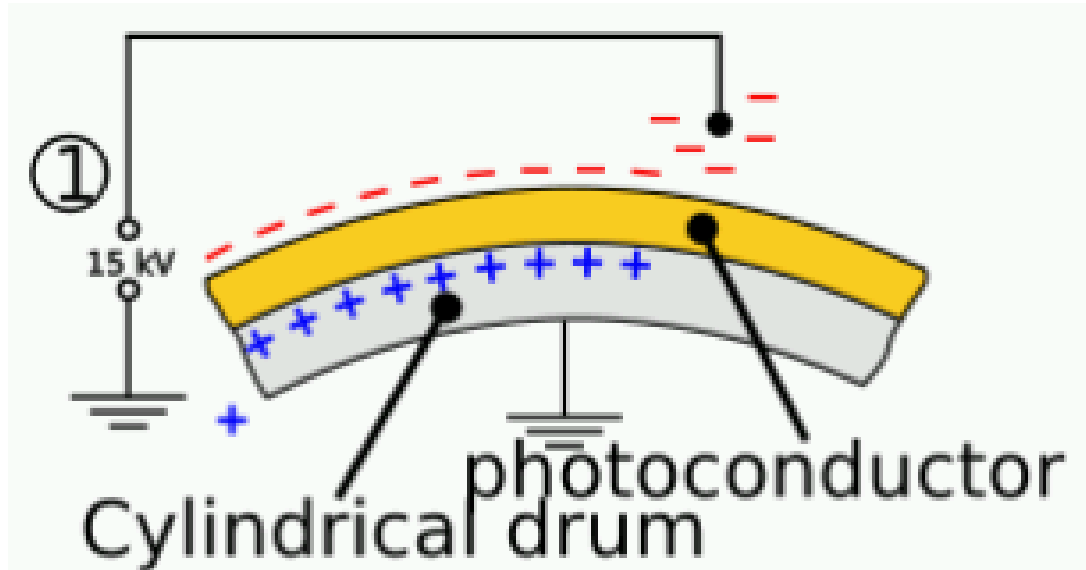
1. **Corona discharge**
surface charging of the photo-conductor
2. **Exposure**
charge neutralization as a function of the image to reproduce
3. **Development**
reproduction on photoconductor with the help of colored polymer (toner)
4. **Transfer**
of the image (toner) on paper
5. **Fusion**
fixation of the image by fusion of the polymer
6. **Cleaning**
of the surface of the photoconductor

The corona discharge and the exposure, are semiconductor dependent !

Principle and required properties

Corona discharge

- High electrical strength
- High charge trap density
- Low dark conductivity (especially lateral conductivity)

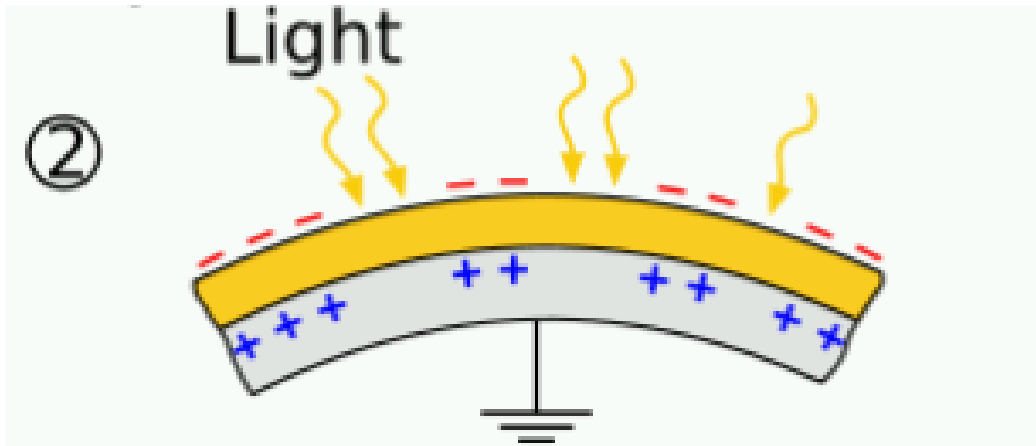


Wikipedia

Principle and required properties (2)

Exposure

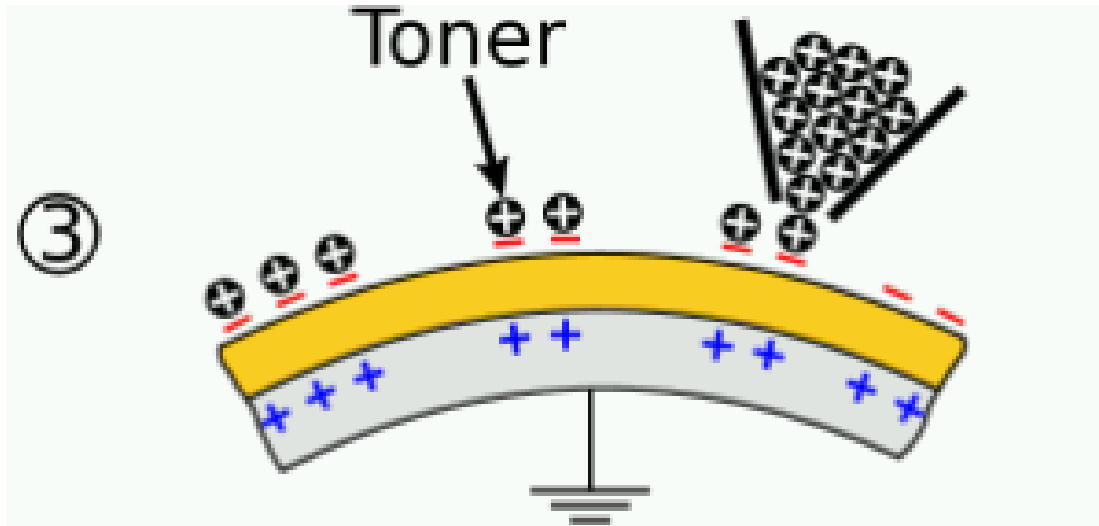
- High photoconductivity (for light wavelength used for exposure)
- High conductivity (for at least one type of carrier), property can be supplied by a separate layer (charge transport layer)



Wikipedia

Principle and required properties (3)

Development



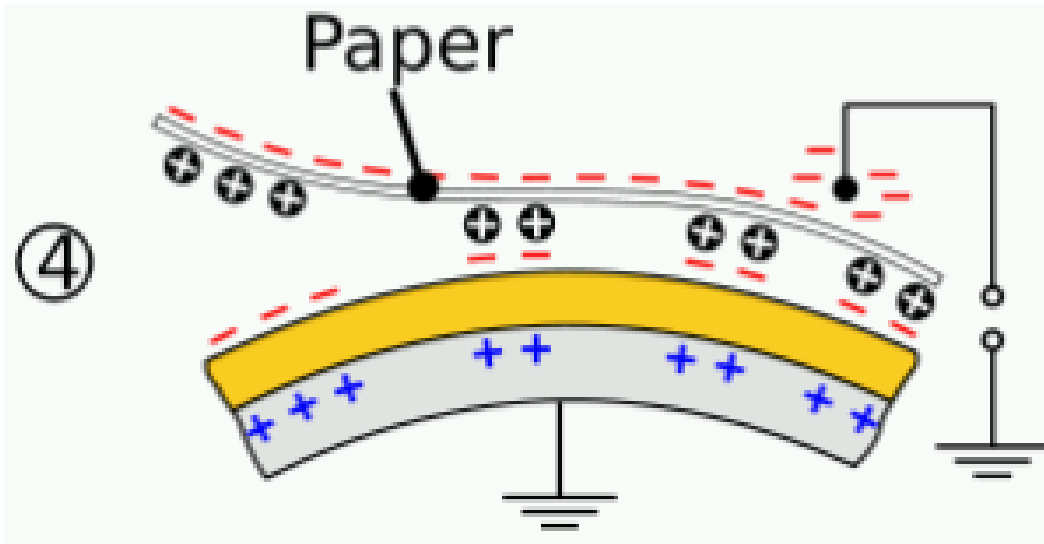
Wikipedia

- Challenging step for good image (toner handling)
- Low surface conductivity (see also charging) to avoid image smearing
- Smooth surface

Principle and required properties (4)

Transfer and cleaning

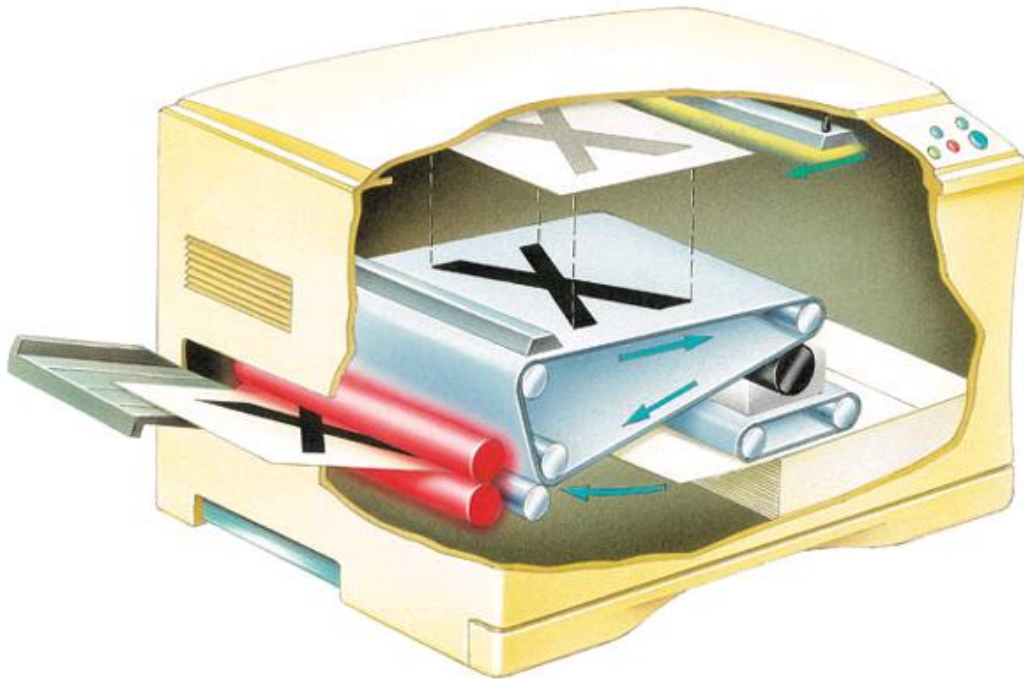
- High mechanical strength (especially surface strength)
- Smooth surface



Wikipedia

Summary of photoconductor properties

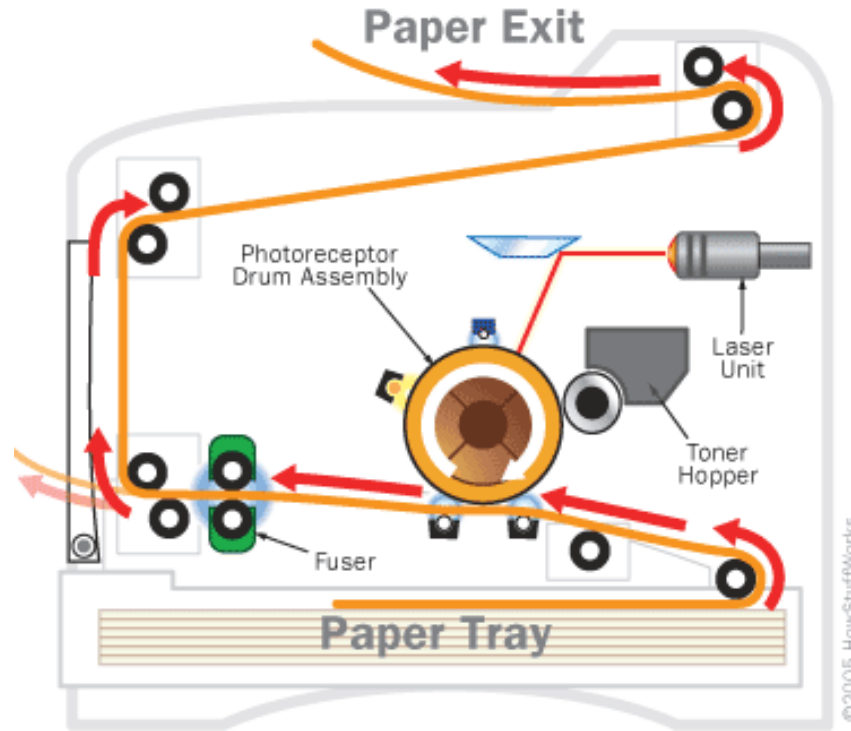
- Ideal properties :
 1. Large surface trap density, density should be deep in energy
 2. No charge injection from the conductive substrate to the photoreceptor
 3. Should appear as a isolator in the dark and an efficient photoconductor under light
- **Necessary properties:**
 - keep a high density of charges on the photoconductor charges (a very high voltage is present between the surface and ground, >600 V)
 - high quantum efficiency for the electron-hole pair conversion
 - sufficient drift mobility for at least one type of carriers (electrons or holes)
 - mechanically stable, durable (physically and chemically), high surface hardness
 - low cost



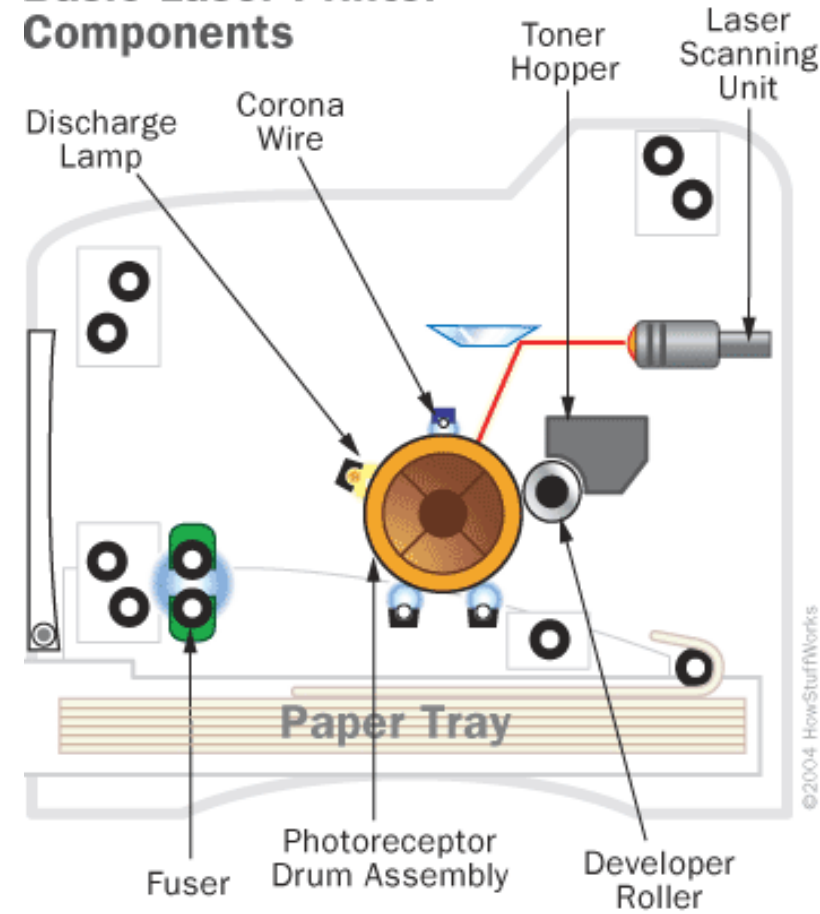
Photoreceptor (photoconductor)
deposited on a

- Drum
- Belt or ribbon
(preferred design)
 - Advantage: permits the exposure of planar surfaces in one shot (copy of the image with one light flash without scanning).

Laser printer

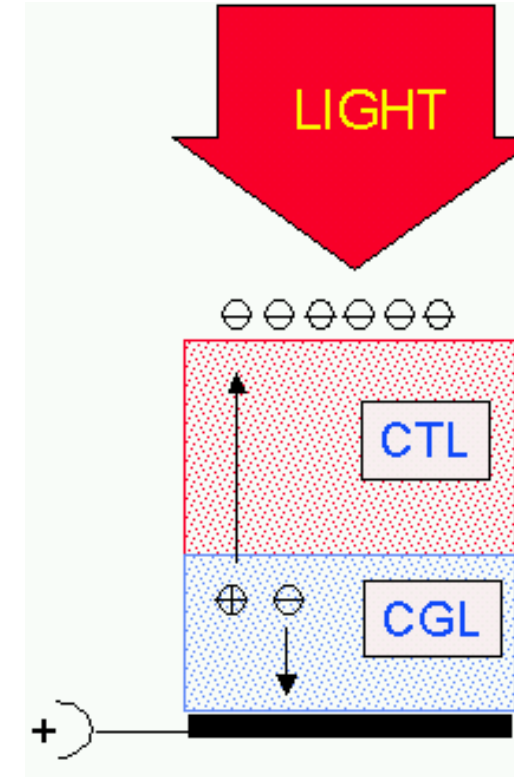


Basic Laser Printer Components



Photoreceptor structure

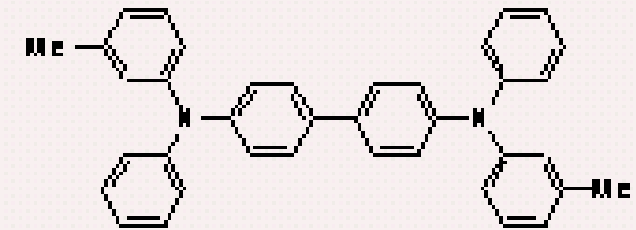
- Mono-layer
- Bi-layer
 - CTL : Charge transport layer
 - PGL : Photogeneration layer
or CGL : charge generation layer
- Tri-layer
 - CTL : Charge transport layer
 - PGL : Photogeneration layer
or CGL : charge generation layer
 - OL : Overlayer (protection and charge trap layer)



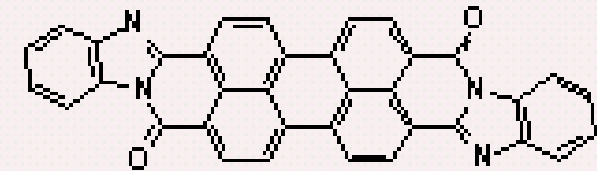
- Bi- or tri-layers photoreceptors enable obtaining all required properties by a combination of layers with specific functions and material properties

Materials for Xerography

- a-Se
- a-Si:H
- CdS, CdSe
- Se-Te based alloys: a-Se_{1-x}Te_x
- Se-As based alloys: a-As₂Se₃
- Multi-layer :
Al / Se riched CTL / Se-Te PGL / Se-As OL
- Organic photoreceptors
 - Poly(N-vinylcarbazole) (PVK),
2,3,7-trinitro-9-fluorenone (TNF)
(first introduced in copier, IBM, 1970)
 - Many materials for PGL including dyes,
fullerenes and CTL (hole transport)



Charge Transport Material ST 16/1



Charge Generation Material ST 2

Table 9.1 Physical Properties of a-Se and a-As₂Se₃

Property	a-Se	a-As ₂ Se ₃
Density, g · cm ⁻³	4.29	4.55
Glass transformation temperature (DSC at 5°C/min)	50°C	~180°C
Crystallization temperature (DSC at 5°C/min)	100°C	~300°C
Melting temperature, °C	218	~360
Microhardness (Vickers hardness number kgf/mm ²)	40	~150
“Photoconduction band gap” (eV)	2.5	1.8
Wavelength for unity photosensitivity, nm	500	720
Dark resistivity (Ω · cm)	10 ¹⁴	10 ¹²
Hole drift mobility, cm ² /V · s (<i>F</i> is the electric field in V · cm ⁻¹)	0.16	~2 × 10 ⁻¹⁰ <i>F</i>
Electron drift mobility, cm ² /V · s	7 × 10 ⁻³	—
Quantum efficiency	Field dependent	Field dependent
Xerographic dark discharge	Depletion discharge	Depletion discharge

Sources: Barisova (1981, Ch. 1), Kasap and Juhasz (1987), Lutz (1987), Lutz and Reimer (1982), Scharfe (1984).