

External Photoemission

Steps of photodetection in semiconductors

- absorption of photons in the material ($\rightarrow \alpha, P=P_0 \exp -\alpha L$)
- production of charge carriers ($\rightarrow h\nu > E_g$
 $\lambda_s [\mu\text{m}] = hc/E = 1.24 / E[\text{eV}]$),
- drift of charge carriers under an internal electric field
(\rightarrow junction, high μ)
- collection of charge carriers at the ohmic contacts

Materials and structures

- *single* semiconductors Si, Ge, Se, etc.
- *binary compounds* GaAs, InSb, PbS, PbSe, etc.,
- *ternary compounds* GaAlAs, InGaP, HgCdTe, PbSnTe
- *quaternary compounds* InGaAsP, etc.

energy gap E_g : from several eV to a few 10meV,

spectral range (or threshold λ_s): from the UV to the far IR.

Structures:

photodiodes (pn, pin, ms and avalanche),

bipolar and unipolar *phototransistors*,

photo-SCR,

photoresistances

Features of semiconductor detectors

PRO's

- *compact size and flexibility of geometry*
- *low bias voltage*
- *spectral range from deep UV to far IR*
- *high peak quantum efficiency*
- *uniformity of performance parameters*
- *excellent ruggedness wide temperature range*
- *excellent mean time to failure (MTTF)*
- *space and hostile ambient qualification*
- *generally low cost*

CON's

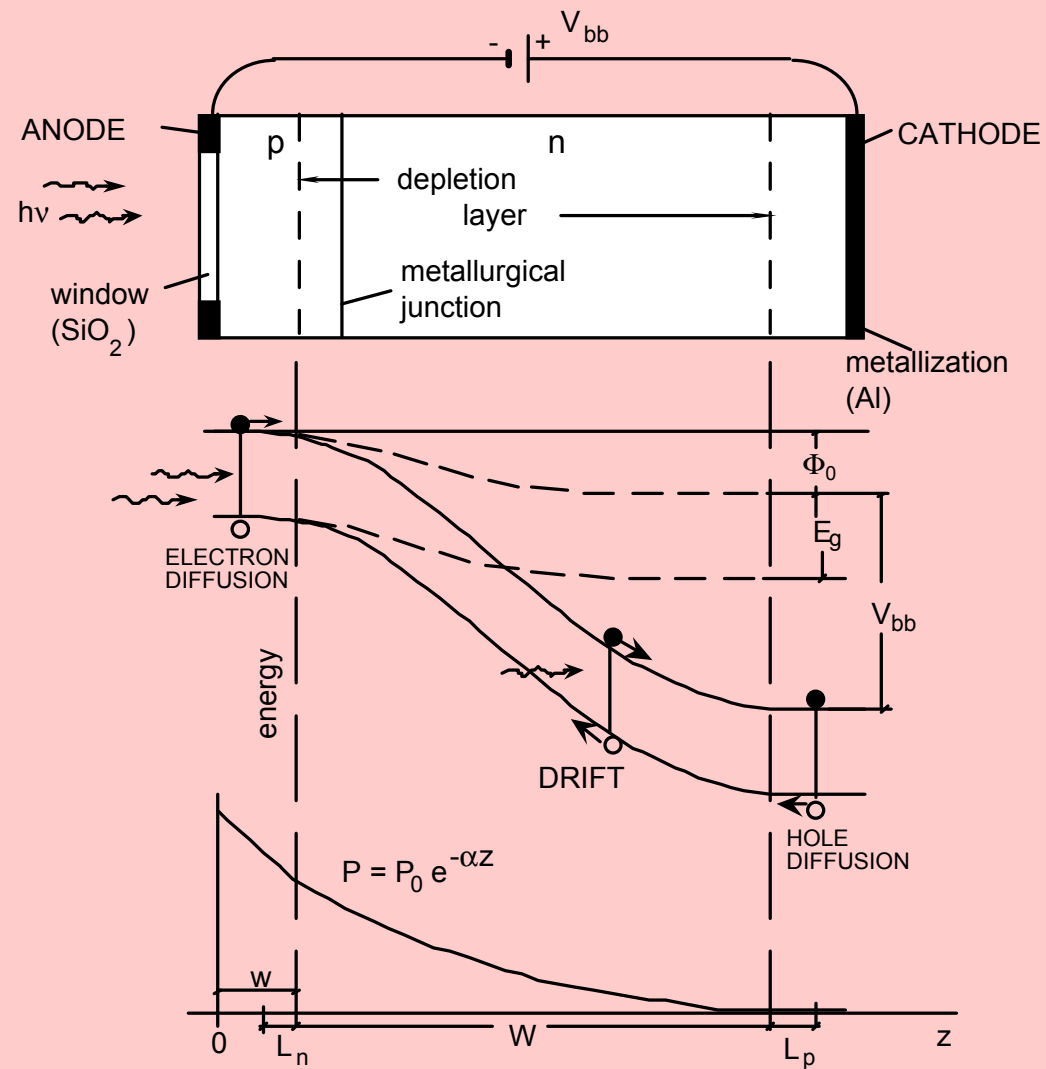
- *very large areas difficult*
- *no single-photon capability, GB not the best*
- *temperature dependence*

Photodiode's family

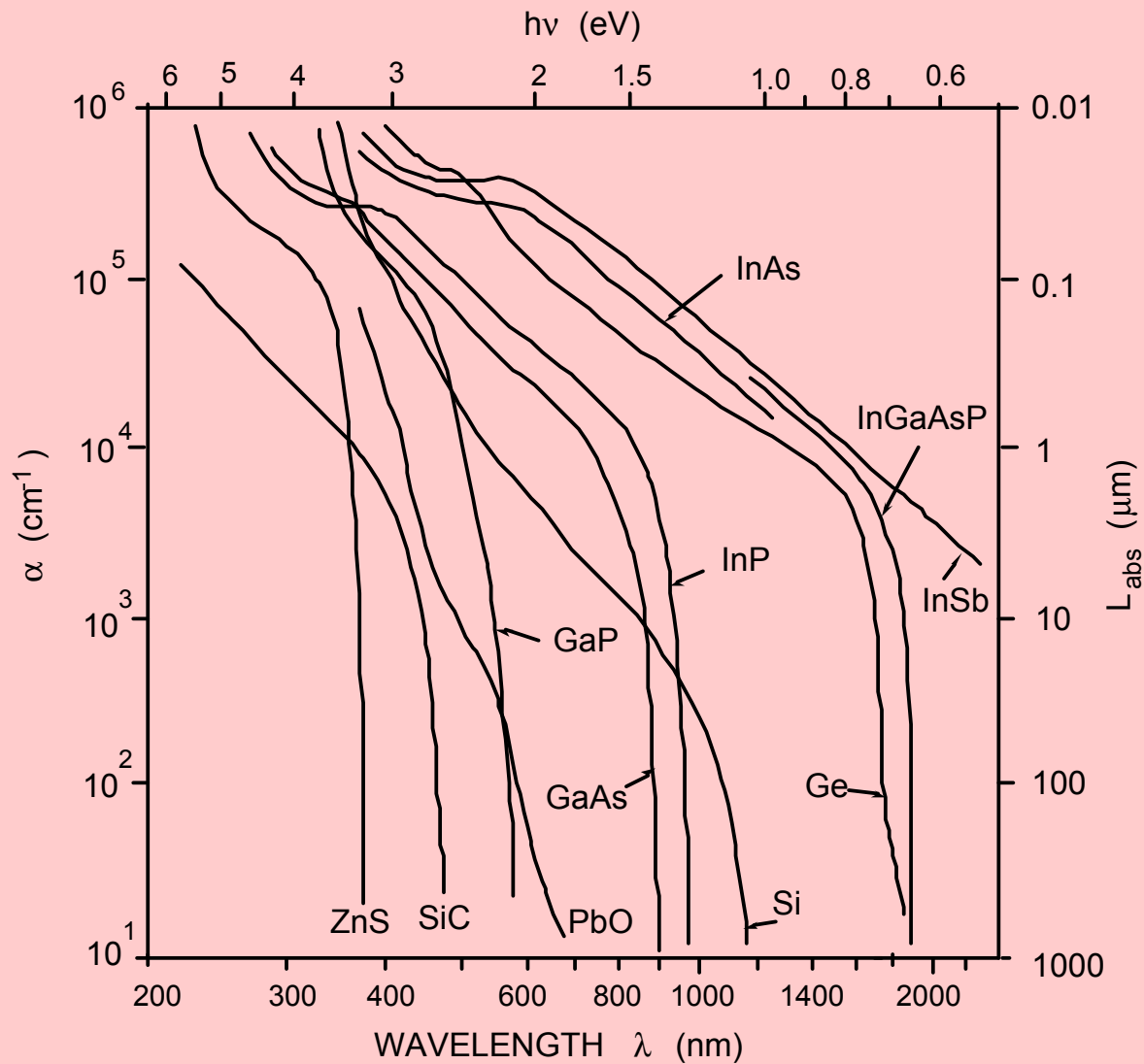


A sample of popular semiconductor photodetectors: single-element photodiodes in metal and ceramic packages, linear arrays of photodiodes and high frequency SMD photodiodes with integrated preamplifier

pn-junction Photodiode

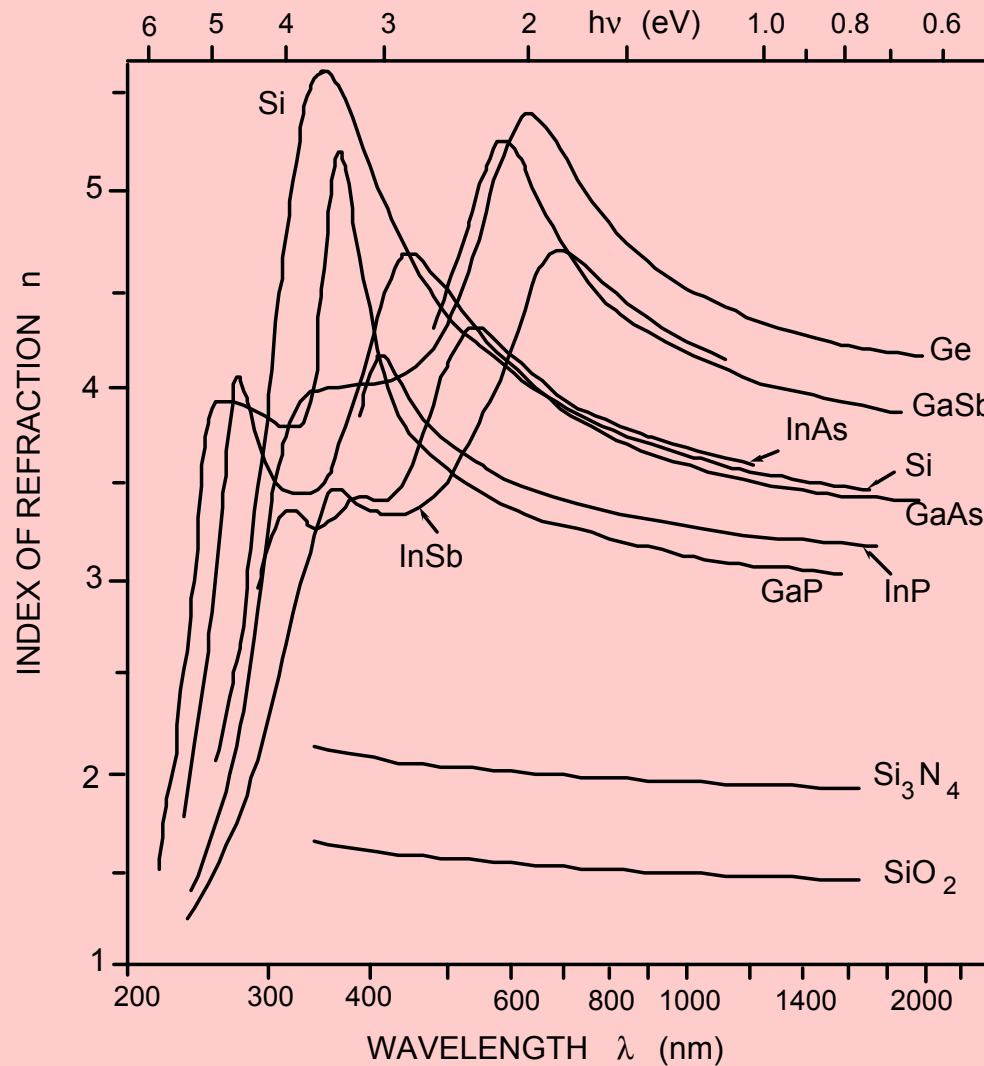


Absorption coefficient



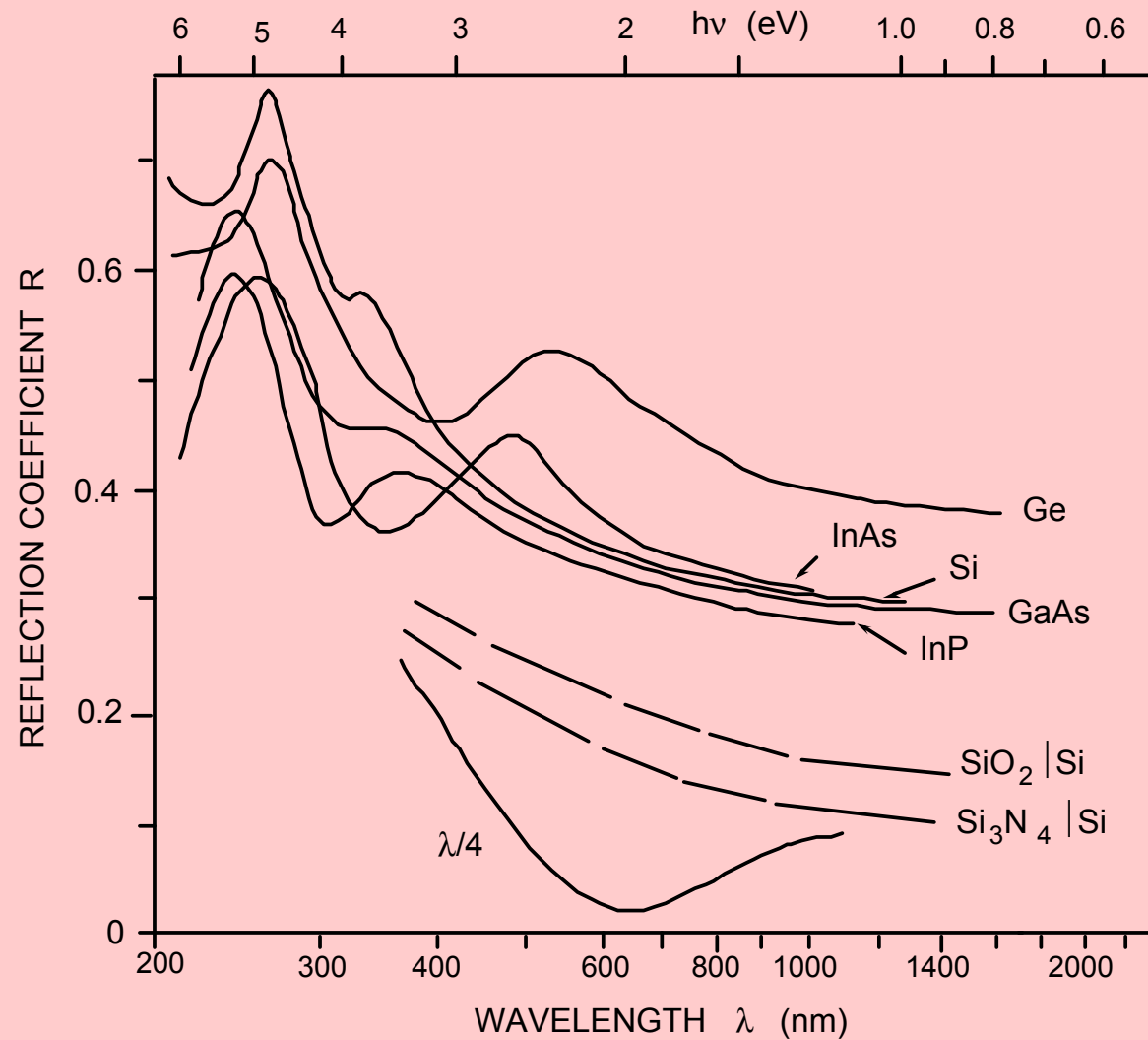
Absorption coefficient α
(and $L_{\text{abs}} = 1/\alpha$)
strongly varies with λ in all
semiconductors
(data for T=300 K)

Refraction index of semiconductors



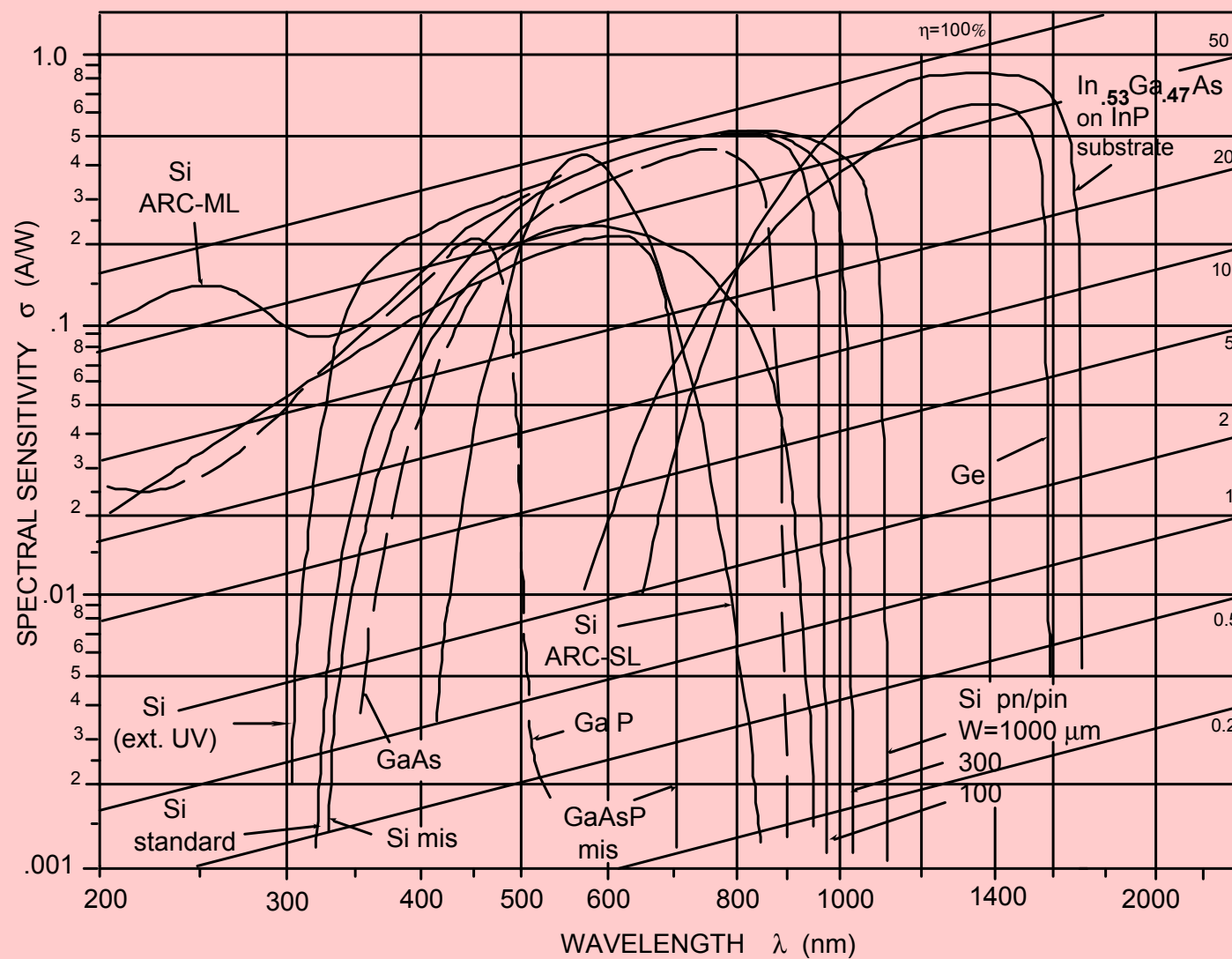
refraction index of semiconductor materials of typical photodiodes is fairly high (usually >3), giving a large reflection loss at entrance window

Reflection loss at entrance window



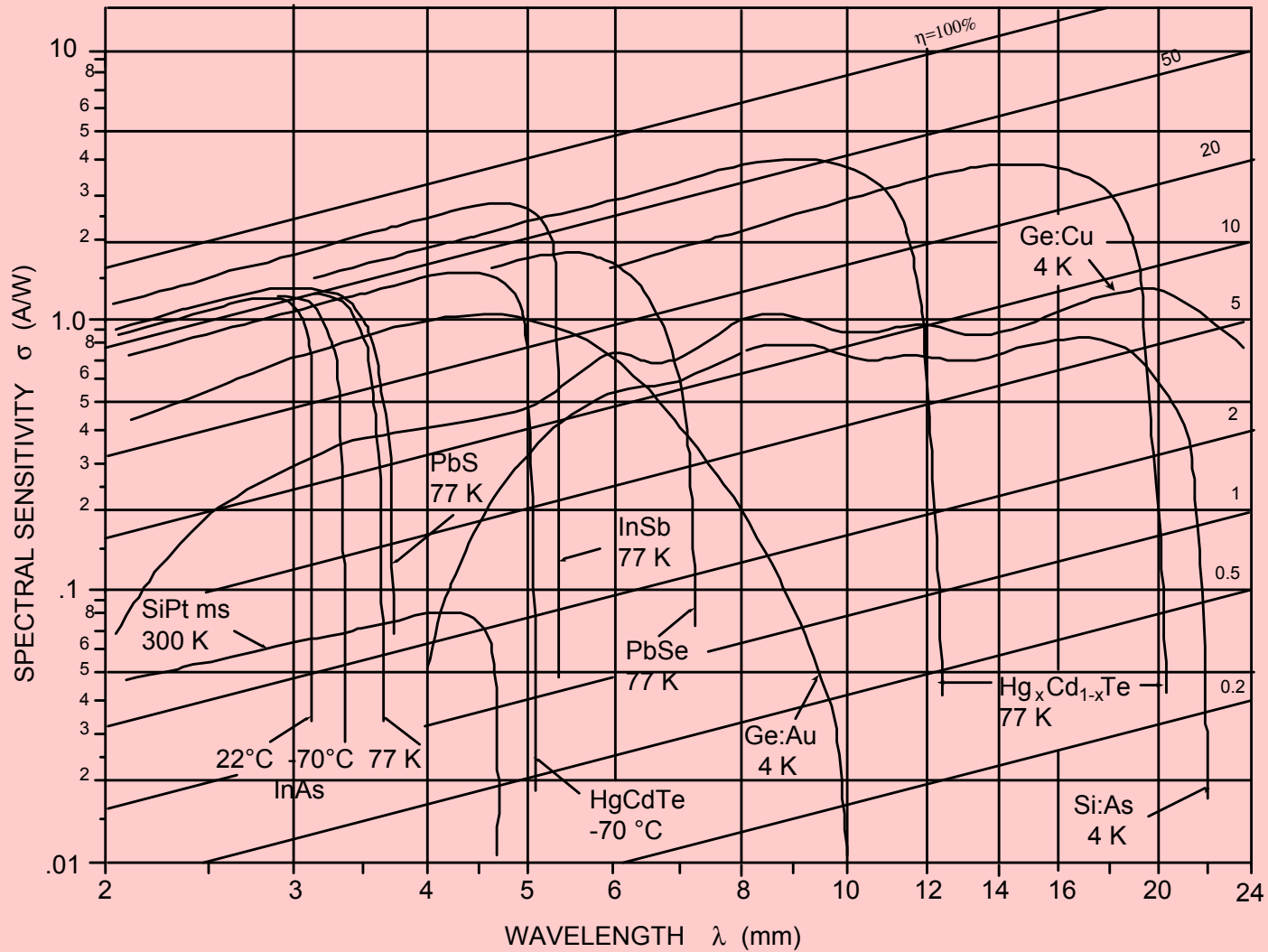
reflection R of
vacuum-
semiconductor
interfaces,
untreated (full
lines) and single-
layer anti-reflection
coated

Spectral sensitivity (UV .. NIR)



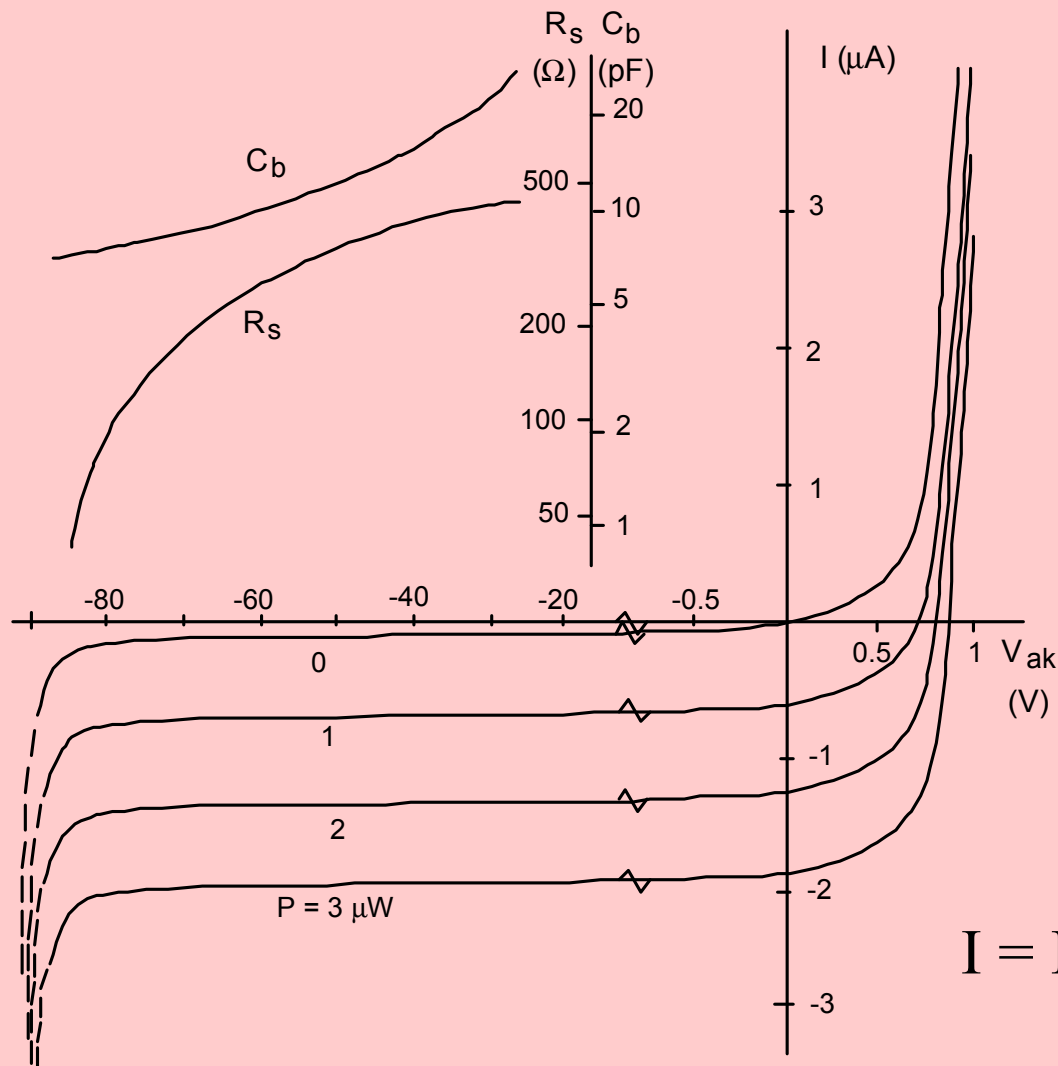
spectral
sensitivity
 $\sigma(\lambda) \text{ [A/W]} =$
 $= I/P =$
 $= \eta e \lambda / hc =$
 $\eta \lambda [\mu\text{m}] / 1.24$

Spectral sensitivity (MIR .. FIR)



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pn-junction Characteristics



$$I_{ph} = \sigma P$$

$$I = I_o [I_{ph} e^{V/nkT} - 1] - I_{ph}$$

Dark current and ideality factor (advanced topic)

From Shockley standard analysis of the pn-junction, ideality factor is unity ($n=1$) and reverse current I_d is :

$$I_d = A e n_i^2 [(D_p/L_p N_D) + (D_n/L_n N_A)]$$
$$\approx A e n_i^2 (D_p/L_p N_D) \quad (\text{for } N_A \gg N_D)$$

where $A=PD$ active area, $D_{n,p}$ =minority diffusion constants, $L_{n,p}$ =diffusion lengths, $N_{D,A}$ =doping concentrations of donor/acceptor; n_i , intrinsic concentration of charge carriers is:

$$n_i^2 = N_C N_V \exp -E_g/kT \propto T^3 \exp -E_g/kT,$$

Taking for (D/L) a dependence T^γ from temperature, it is:

$$I_d \propto T^{3+\gamma} \exp -E_g/kT, \quad (\text{independent from } V)$$

The, temperature coefficient of the dark current $I_o=I_d$ is:

$$dI_o / I_o dT = [3+\gamma + E_g/kT] / T \approx 0.33 [3+\gamma + E_g/kT] \quad (\%/^{\circ}\text{C}, 300 \text{ K})$$

These eqs. apply at weak current levels or when the intrinsic concentration of charge carrier n_i is not too low.

Dark current and ideality factor (advanced topic, 2)

Another contribution is generation-recombination in the depleted region, through defect levels near bandgap middle, which give:

$$I = I_{g-r} [\exp (eV/2kT) - 1],$$

it has an ideality factor $n=2$; in addition, the reverse saturation current is:

$$I_{g-r} = A e n_i W / 2\tau$$

where W =width of the depleted region, $\tau = 1/(\sqrt{3}kT/m)\sigma_t N_t$ is charge carriers lifetime, dependent on N_t and on cross-section σ_t of the g-r levels.

The term I_{g-r} has (through W) a dependence V^β upon voltage, with $\beta=1/2$ or $1/3$ for abrupt or gradual junctions; its temperature coefficient is:

$$dI_o / I_o dT = [2+E_g/2kT]/T \approx 0.33[2+E_g/2kT] \quad (\%/^{\circ}\text{C at 300 K})$$

The total current in the photodiode is thus the sum of I_{ph} . Basic diode equation is an approximant of such a sum. In particular, at high reverse bias the dark current is the sum of the two-saturation terms:

$$I = - I_o = - I_d - I_{g-r}$$

Trend is that of diffusion ($n=1$) for $n_i (D_p/L_p N_D) > W/2\tau$, and of g-r ($n=2$) in the opposite case.

Dark current and saturation (advanced topic, 3)

In direct or zero bias, we obtain an ideality factor $n=1$ for voltage

$$V > (2kT/e) \ln [(W/2\tau)/(n_i D_p / L_p N_D)], \quad n=2 \text{ otherwise.}$$

A final contribution to I_0 is from surface states, interfaces defects giving bangap levels. This is important only in PDs with very low I_0 .

PD saturation :

at high I_{ph} , saturation determines the maximum signal detectable with linearity (III quadrant), the logarithmic conformity, and the voltage in the photovoltaic mode (IV quadrant).

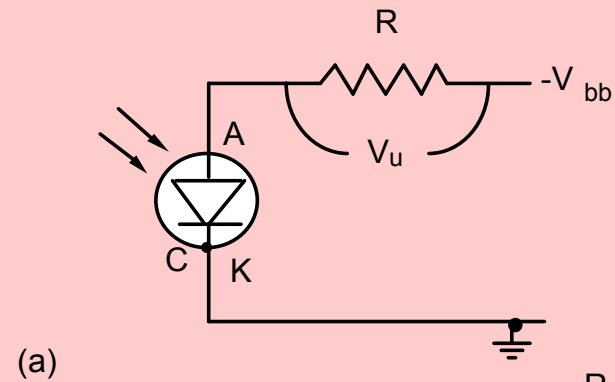
A saturation is caused by storage of charge Q collected at the boundary of undepleted regions after drift in the junction. When $Q = I_{ph} \tau$, (τ =drift time) is comparable to charge ($Q = C_b V$) supplied by ionized dopant atoms to sustain applied voltage V , junction field decreases and a reverse fields appear in undepleted regions, thus impeding increase of I_{ph} with increasing P . For a p^+n PD:

$$I_{ph(sat)} = A e N_A \mu^* V / 2W$$

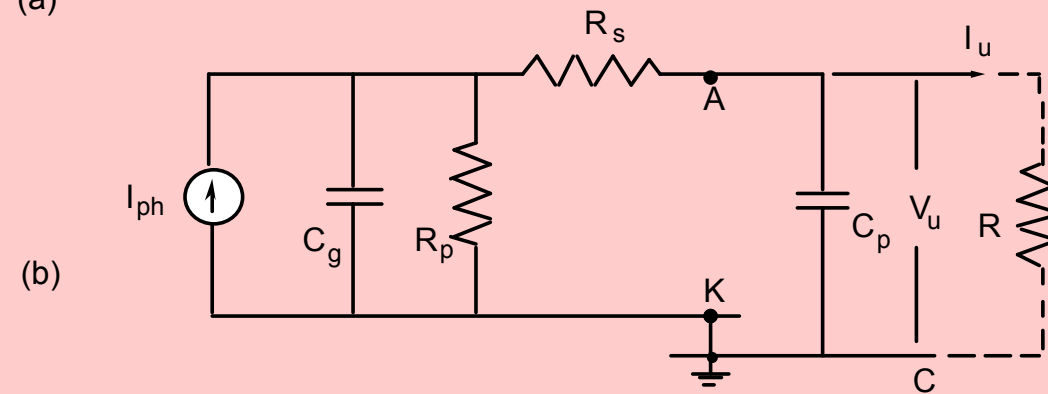
where $\mu^* = (1/\mu_n + 1/\mu_p)^{-1}$ is effective mobility. If generation is in the neutrality region p^+ (as, in the UV) the limit is lower [that of diffusion times ($\tau = L_n^2 / D_n$)]:

$$I_{ph(sat)} = A e N_A D_n / 2W L_n^2$$

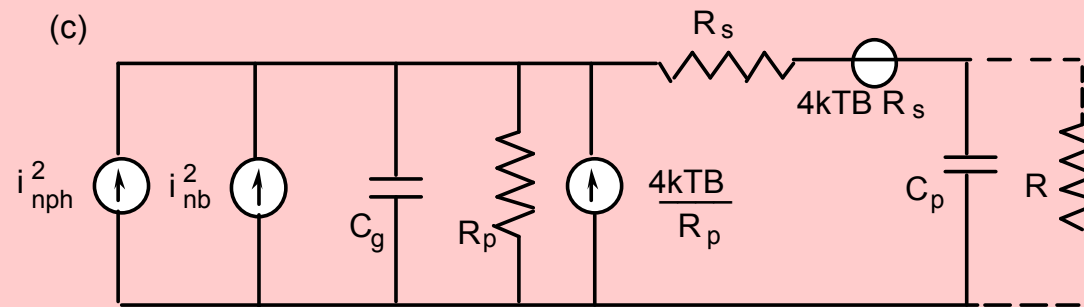
Equivalent Circuits



basic biasing scheme
of a pn- PD



small-signals
equivalent circuit



noise equivalent circuit

Frequency response

PD frequency response results from:

- *extrinsic cutoff* due to the $Z(\omega)$ of the parasitics external to the junction
- *intrinsic cutoff* inherent to the collection of photogenerated charges internal to junction

From the small-signal circuit:

$$V_u(\omega) = I_{ph}(\omega) Z(\omega) =$$

$$I_{ph}(\omega) \{R_p // (1/j\omega C_g) // [R_s + (R // (1/j\omega C_p))]\} / [1 + R_s / (R // (1/j\omega C_p))]$$

where // is parallel operation,

$Z(\omega)$ = effective impedance seen by the PD (extrinsic cutoff)

$I_{ph}(\omega) = f(\omega) P(\omega)$, signal current duplicating $P(\omega)$ with a transfer function $f(\omega)$ (intrinsic cutoff)

Frequency response (2)

Taking $R \gg R_s$ maximizes PD response (good for **instrumentation** applications with a modest B) and:

$$V_u(\omega) / V_u(0) = [I_{ph}(\omega) / I_{ph}(0)] / [1 + j\omega(C_g + C_p)(R_p // R)]$$

and the 3-dB cutoff frequency is:

$$f_2 = 1 / 2\pi(R_p // R)(C_g + C_p)$$

For **maximum speed** of response, R is taken small so C_p is short-circuited (response is sacrificed). For $R < R_s$:

$$I_u(\omega) / I_u(0) = [I_{ph}(\omega) / I_{ph}(0)] / (1 + j\omega C_g R_s)$$

and cutoff frequency:

$$f_2 = 1 / 2\pi R_s C_g$$

Frequency response (3)

Mean transit time to collection by *drift* (and induced current duration):

$$\tau_d(z) = (1/2) (\tau_{dn} + \tau_{dp}) = (1/2) [(W-z)/v_n + z/v_p]$$

integrating on z (uniform generation)

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_d &= (1/2) W(1/v_n + 1/v_p) = (W^2/2V_{bb})(1/\mu_n + 1/\mu_p) \\ &= W^2 / 2V_{bb} \mu^*\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Frequency cutoff: } f_{2d} = 0.44 / \tau_d$$

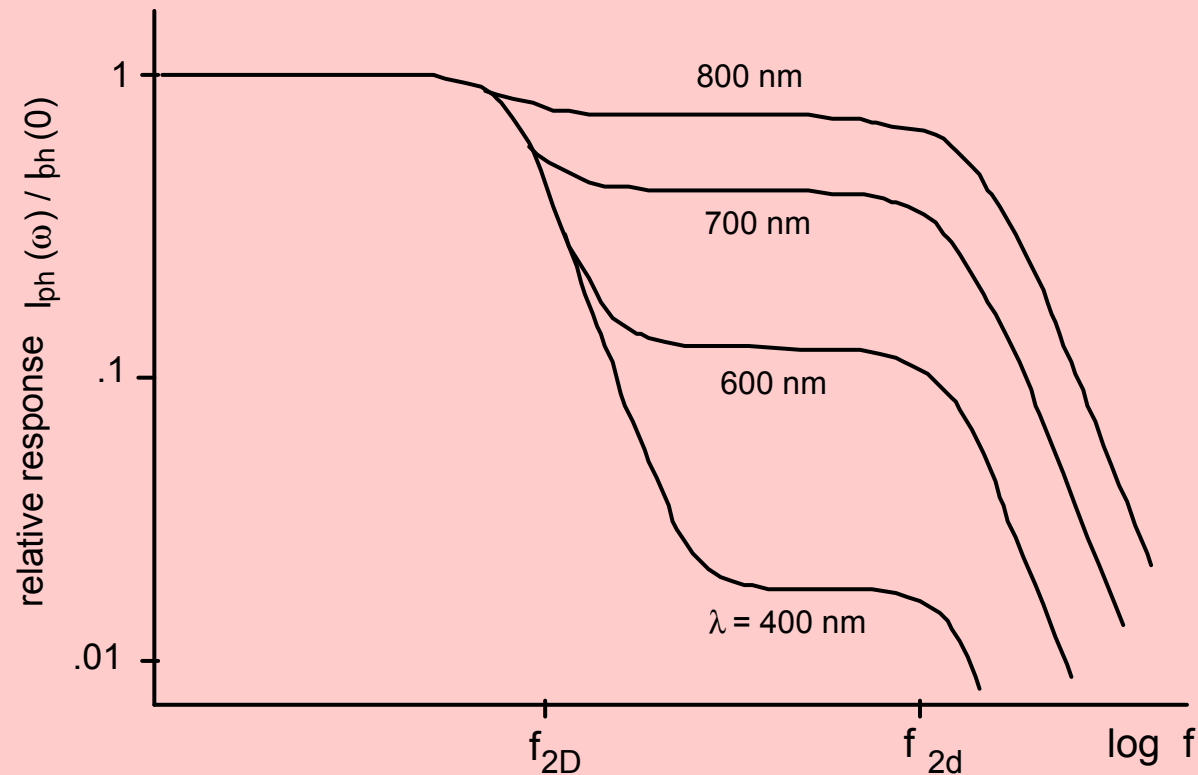
Mean *diffusion* time to collection from undepleted regions

$$\tau_{Dn,p} = L_{n,p}^2 / D_{n,p}$$

$$\text{Frequency cutoff: } f_{2d} = 1 / 2\pi \tau_{Dn,p}$$

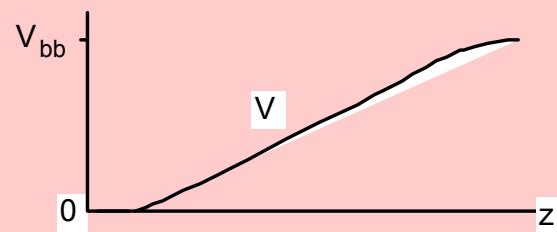
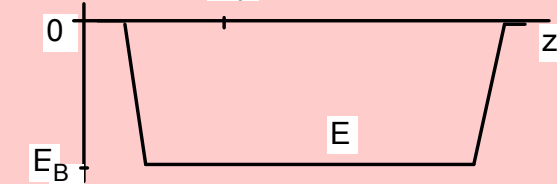
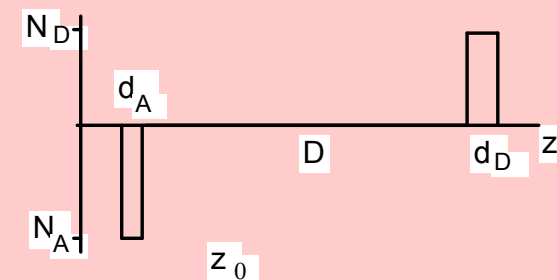
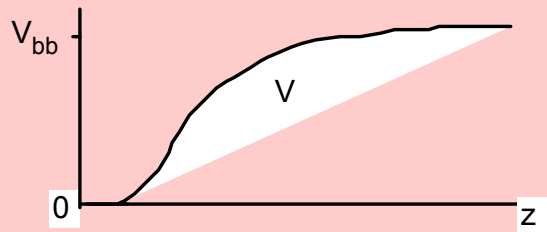
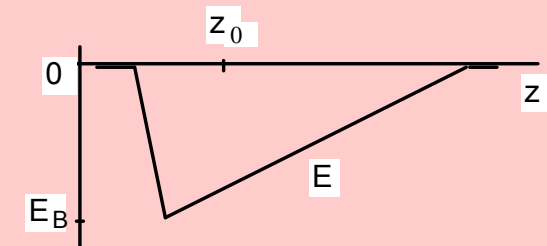
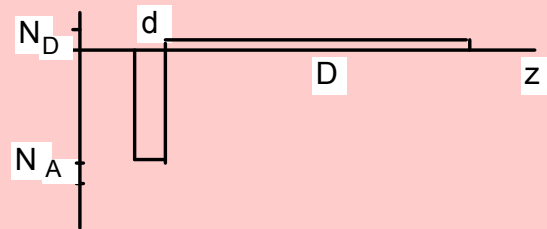
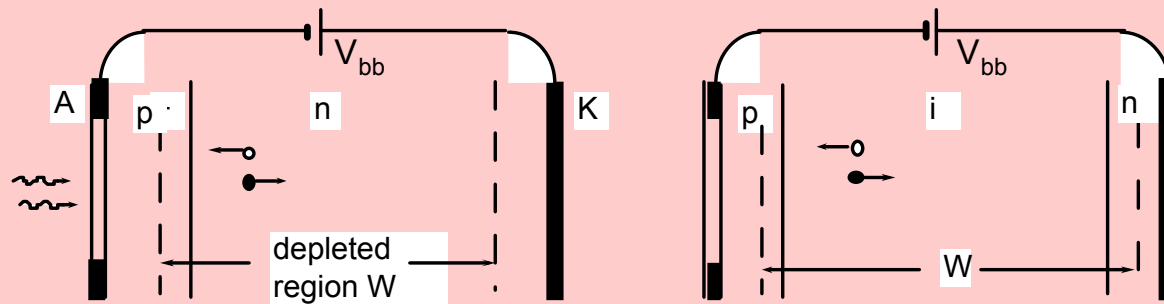
A pole-zero frequency response is found (varies with λ)

Zero-pole in pn-PDs



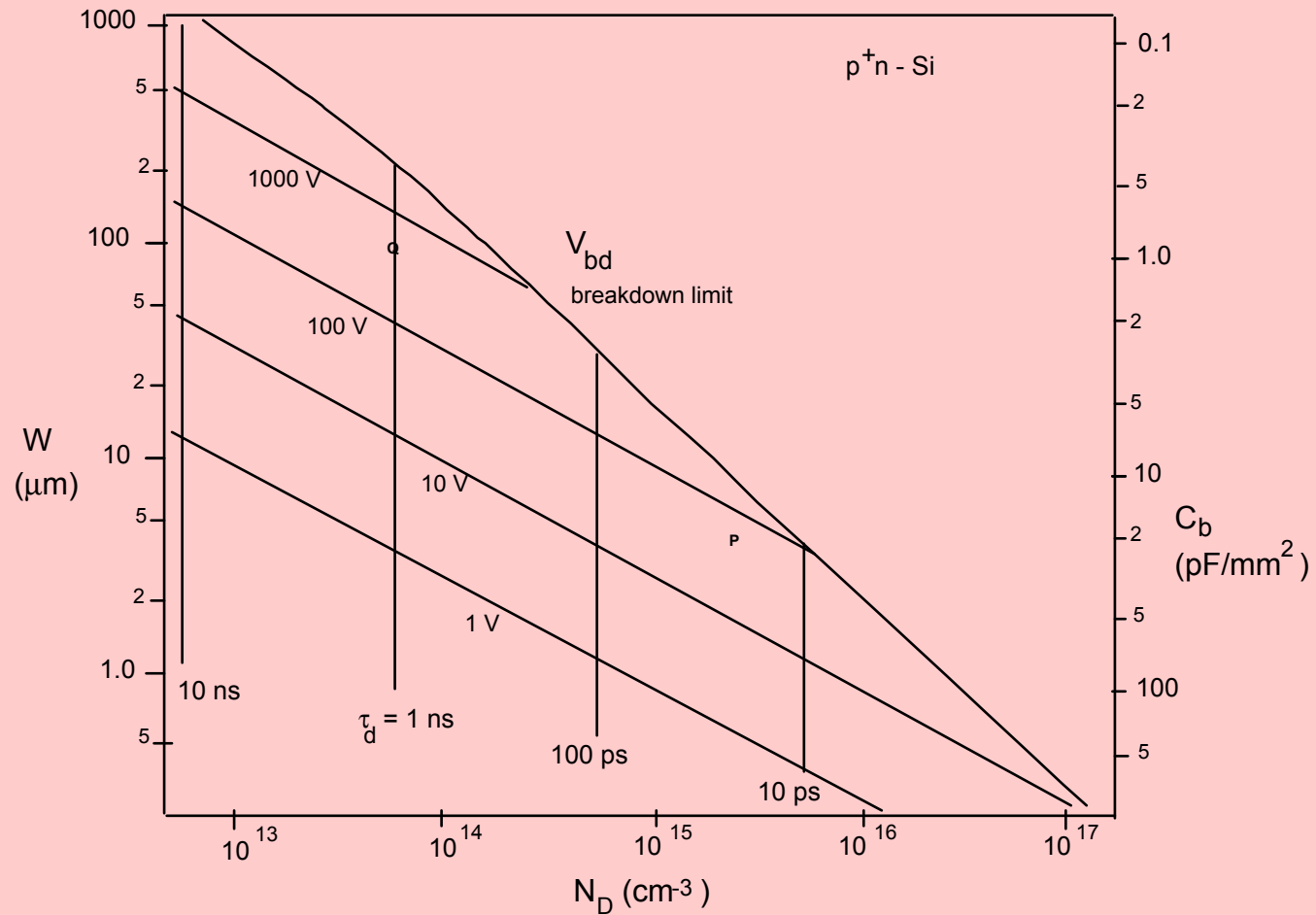
In a pn-PD, intrinsic frequency response has a zero-pole region between f_{2D} (diffusion) and f_{2d} (drift), more marked at smaller λ . Typical values are $f_{2D}=1$ MHz, $f_{2d}=200$ MHz.

pn and pin junction PDs

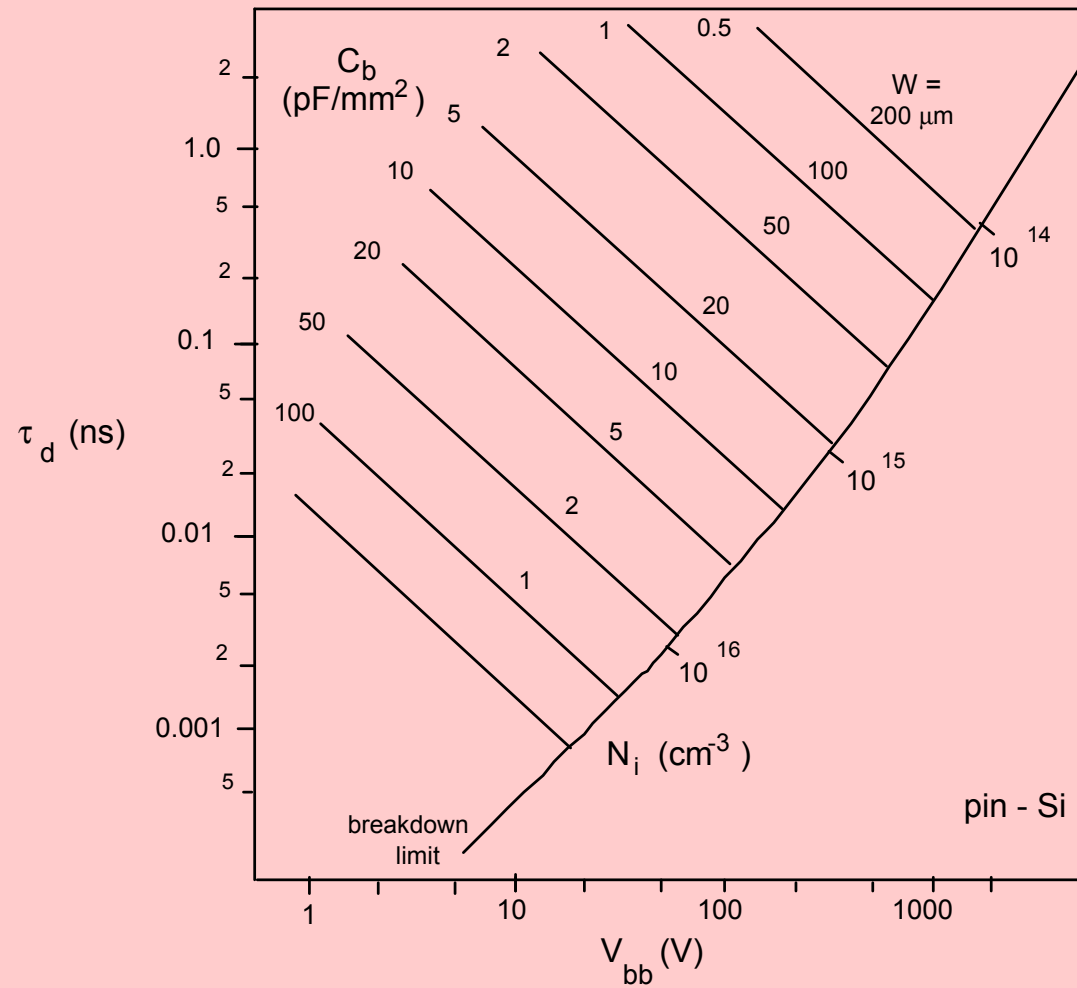


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design nomogram for SI pn-junction PDs



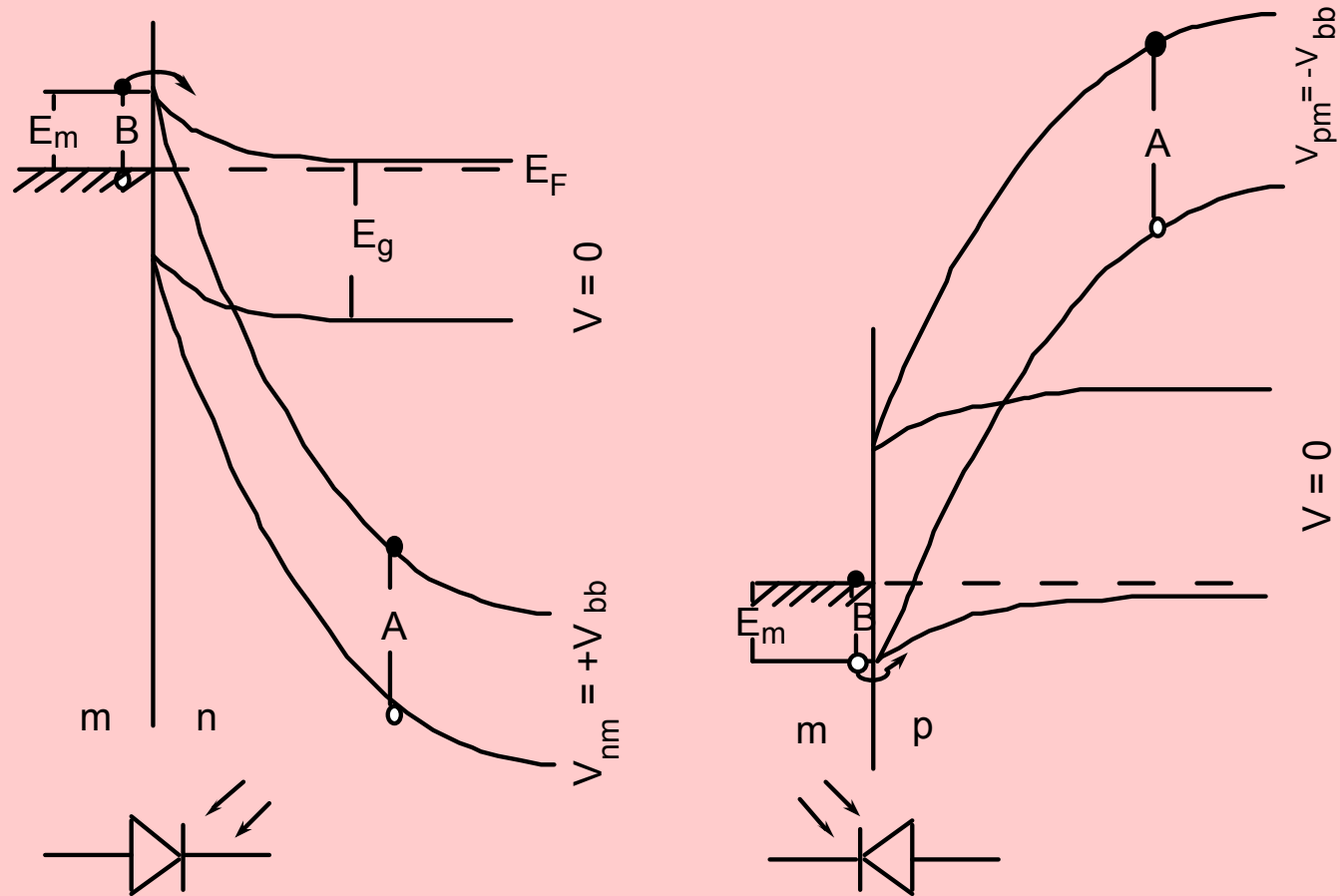
design nomogram for Si pin-junction PDs



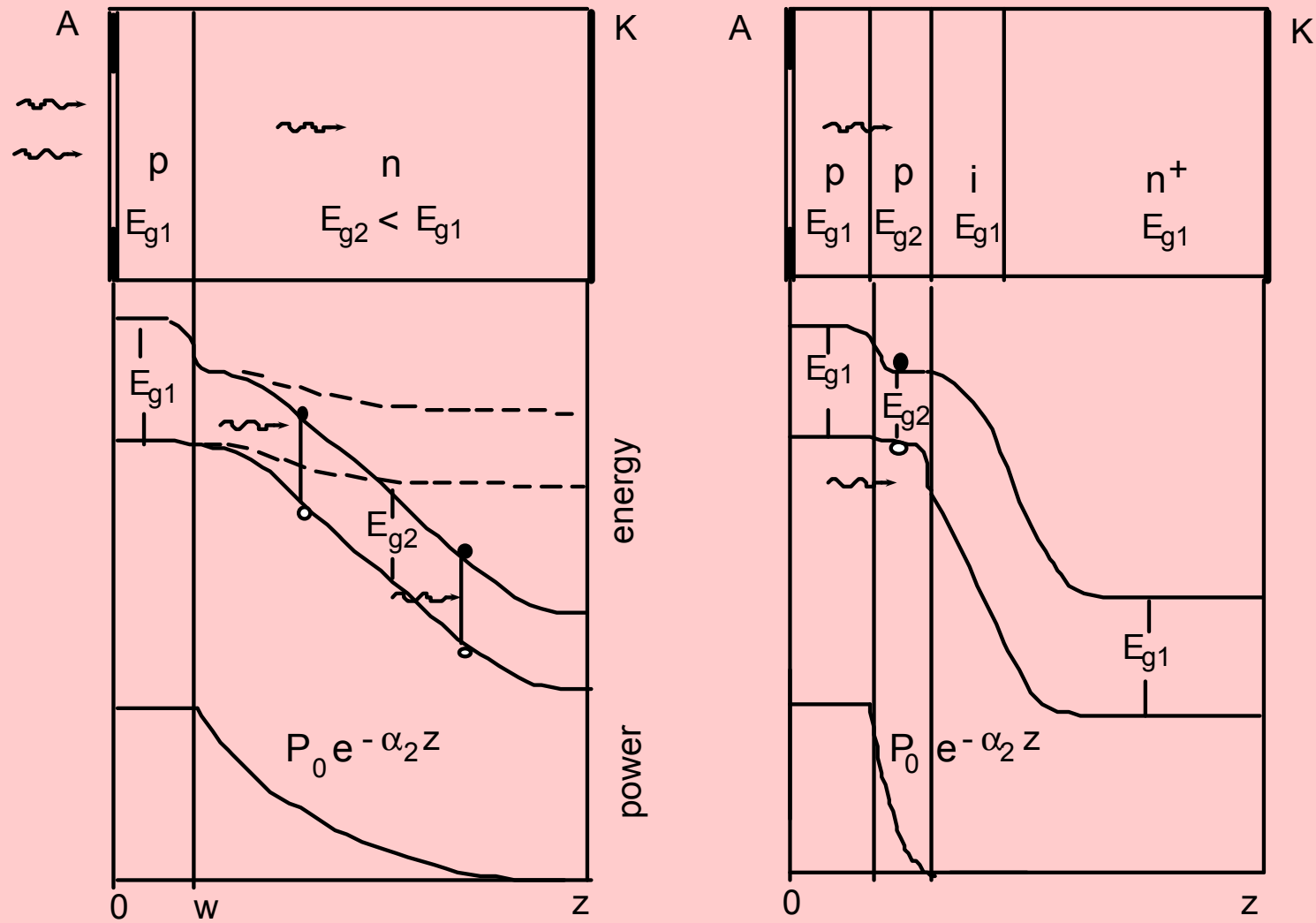
Advantages of pin over pn PDs

- thickness W of the absorption region is independent from V_{bb} , (which has no influence on the spectral response; a good η is got even at low bias V_{bb} near threshold $\lambda \approx \lambda_s$)
- with $W \gg d_A, d_D$, diffusion contribution is small - (frequency response is independent of λ)
- since $E \approx \text{const}$ in the active layer, intrinsic speed of response is optimized (time τ_d);
- reverse current (and g-r contribution) is nearly independent of V_{bb} , whence a very high value of R_p .

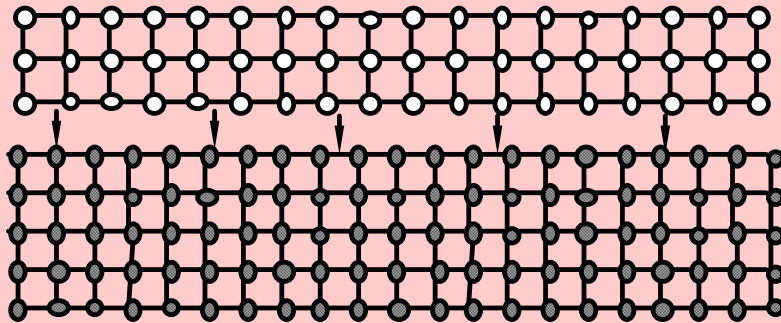
Schottky (or metal-semiconductor) PDs



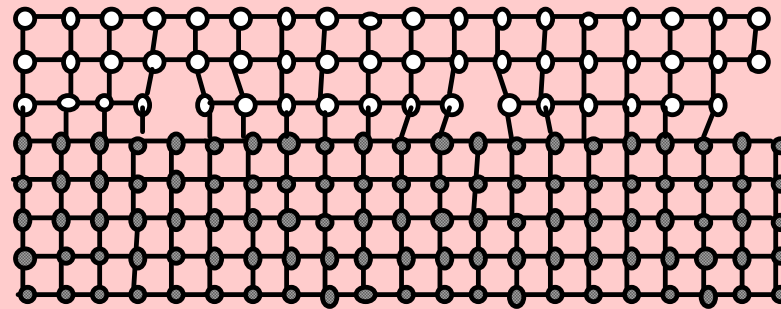
Heterojunction PDs



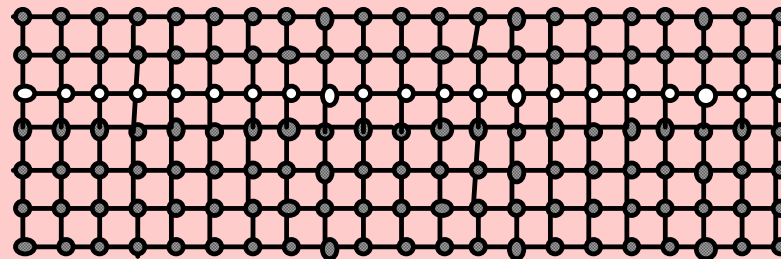
Lattice matching in heterostructures



a)



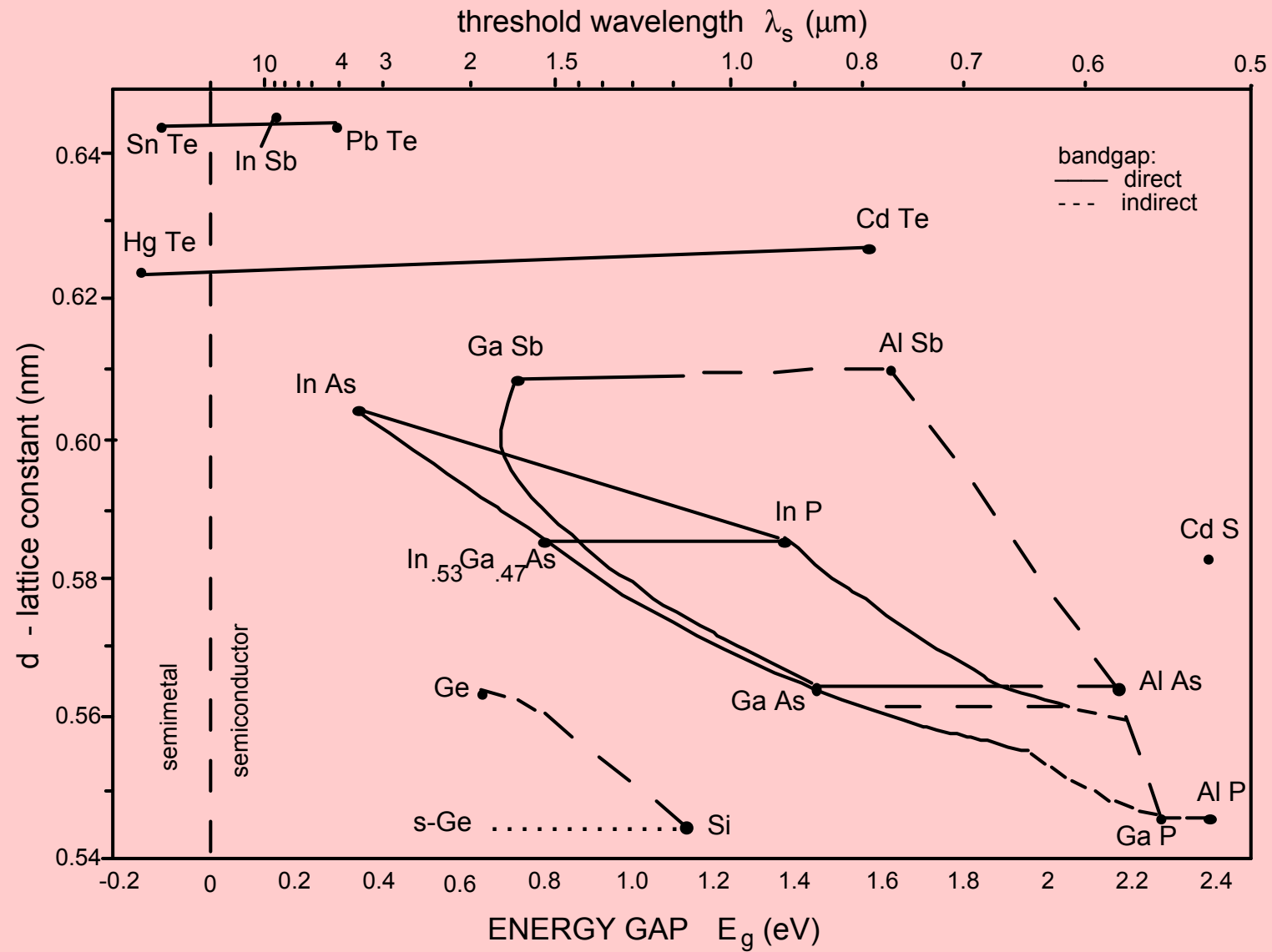
b)



c)

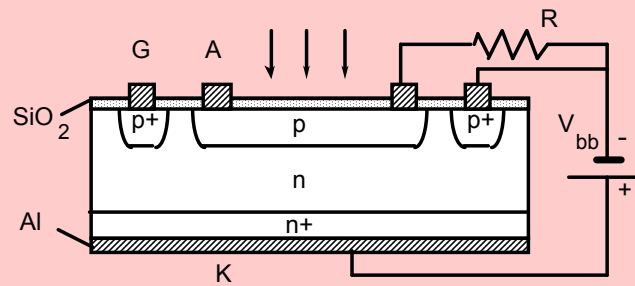
A material with a lattice size different from substrate (a) will produce a layer with dislocation defects (b), but, if layer is very thin (c), it is strained and layer has no defects

Lattice, composition and energy gap

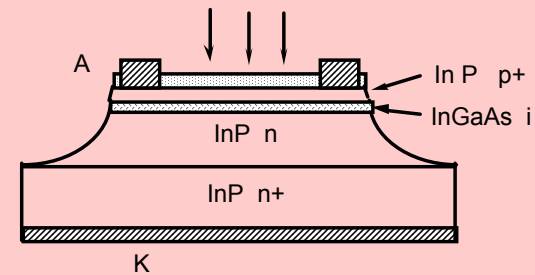


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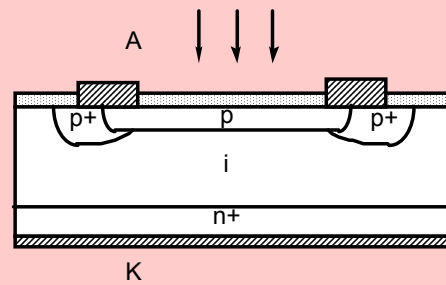
Common PD structures



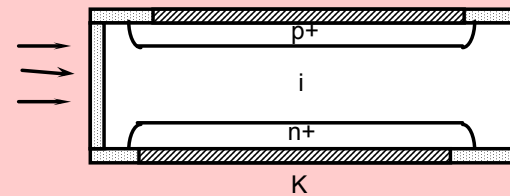
(a)



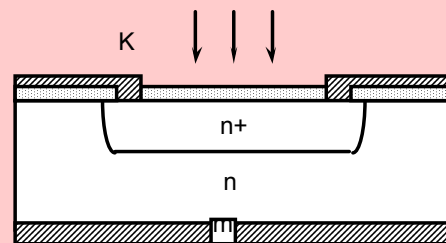
(d)



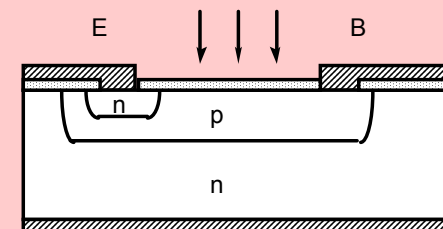
(b)



(e)



(c)



(f)