

Modeling Minority-Carrier Lifetime Techniques that use Transient Excess-Carrier Decay

Steven W. Johnston, Gregory M. Berman¹, and Richard K. Ahrenkiel²

National Renewable Energy Laboratory • Golden, CO 80401

¹Optical Science & Engineering Program, University of Colorado • Boulder, CO 80304

²Colorado School of Mines • Golden, CO 80401

Why measure minority-carrier lifetime?
Lifetime is reduced when defects are present, so the value of lifetime can give an estimate of material quality.

These techniques are

- Contactless
- Indirect and small bandgap materials can be measured
- Transient technique gives direct measure of decay rate

Transient techniques for measuring minority-carrier lifetime in silicon

- Microwave Reflection Photoconductive Decay (μ -PCD)
- Resonant-Coupled Photoconductive Decay (RCPD)
- Transient Free-Carrier Absorption (FCA)

How do μ -PCD and RCPD work?

- Excess carriers are created by light pulses and increase the conductivity of the sample.
- Small antenna or open-ended waveguide senses changing photoconductivity in the sample.
- Electronic circuitry measures the decay of photoconductivity as carriers in the sample recombine to equilibrium concentration.

Microwave Reflection Photoconductive Decay (μ -PCD)

μ -PCD block diagram

Simulated waveguide structure for μ -PCD
Using Ansoft's HFSS software

The large box represents air for calculation purposes. The gray square represents the semiconductor sample. The red spot represents the laser spot where conductivity is changed. The blue waveguide includes E and H plane tuning stubs and has the E-field magnitude superimposed on it.

Magnitude and Phase of Waveguide Impedance vs. Frequency

Tuning of the waveguide is accomplished using the E and H plane stubs and by adjusting frequency. Tuning to a zero point in phase with a magnitude minimum results in a linear phase response to changing conductivity, but magnitude response is noisy. Tuning to a magnitude maximum results in good magnitude response but phase is noisy. Therefore, best linearity results from tuning to a frequency between the minimum and maximum values of the waveguide impedance magnitude.

Resonant-Coupled Photoconductive Decay (RCPD)

Experimentally-measured impedance with increasing light on sample

Model coil and sample

Circuit models

HFSS-modeled impedance with changing sample conductivity

Use directional coupler, or circulator, to send power to antenna and monitor reflected power due to sample photoconductivity

Circuit photo showing directional coupler, shielded tunable capacitor, semi-rigid coaxial cable, and coil antenna

Measured impedance analyzer data of capacitor, coaxial cable, and coil

Modeled circuit of capacitor, coaxial cable, and coil

Zoom in near 500 MHz

The combination of coil impedance, coaxial cable length, and capacitance resonance leads to a circuit impedance resonance near 500 MHz.

At the tuning point, the impedance magnitude is 50 Ω , and the impedance angle is 0°. For this condition there is no reflected power from the directional coupler, $\Gamma = 0$.

While samples vary in size, shape, and conductivity, the tuning point can be found by adjusting the capacitor, frequency, and the coupling distance of the sample to the coil antenna.

Transient Free-Carrier Absorption (FCA)

Free carrier absorption in semiconductors is given by

$$\alpha = \frac{q^2 \lambda^2 p}{4\pi^2 \epsilon_0 c^3 n m^* \mu}$$

where λ = wavelength, p = density of free carriers, n = refractive index, m^* = effective mass, and μ = mobility.

D. K. Schroder et al., "Free Carrier Absorption in Silicon", IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits SC-13, 1978.

Free carrier absorption is a linear function of the density of free carriers. Light with an energy greater than that of the bandgap is intrinsically absorbed. This is displayed in the left portion of the graph below. For light with wavelengths longer than those corresponding to the bandgap energy, the absorption coefficient is linearly proportional to the carrier density. This infrared absorption is displayed on the right portion of the graph below.

Reflected Power vs. Conductivity

HFSS is used to simulate reflected power, the quantity that is actually measured experimentally. As can be seen, there is a region of linearity at low injection levels. But, as the spot's conductivity increases into high injection, the lower levels off, thus limiting the range of this method to lower injection levels. It is worth noting, though, that the linear region covers over 10% of possible reflected power, resulting in a strong, clean signal.

Unpolished surfaces scatter light and reduce the infrared beam's transmission. We have measured a double-polished wafer, yet the signal is still small compared to background noise and requires higher injection levels than μ -PCD and RCPD.

Add transmission line (coaxial cable)

$Z_{trans} = Z_0 \frac{Z_L - iZ_0 \tan(\beta z)}{Z_0 - iZ_L \tan(\beta z)}$ where $\beta = 2\pi/\lambda$, z = length of coax, $Z_0 = 50 \Omega$ characteristic impedance

Measured impedance analyzer data

Modeled coil on transmission line

Measured frequency response of reflected power for a tuned circuit

Modeled response of power reflection due to sample resistance

Expanded view of operating point (photoconductivity causes power reflection)

Measured power reflection coefficient due to sample photoconductivity

(pulse amplifier saturates when $\Gamma > 0.05$, so measurements are made for $0 < \Gamma < 0.05$)

coaxial cable

Add capacitor

Model capacitor: $S(\omega) = \omega C \left(\frac{2 \sin(\omega\tau)}{\cos(\omega\tau) + \cos(\xi\omega\tau)} \right)$

where: $C = \frac{\epsilon_0 a d}{h}$, $\tau = \frac{d}{v_0}$ and $\xi = \frac{d_2 - d_1}{d}$

$Z_{cap} = 0.05 - \frac{1}{S(\omega)} i$

Best fit real resistance

Measured and modeled values for a variable air-gap capacitor set at ~15 pF

"Capacitor Modeling at High Frequencies" J.A.S. Farris, IEEE Trans. on Education 35, 1992, pp. 214-216.

