Numerical Investigation of the Photogating Effect in MoTe₂ Photodetectors

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Introduction

The necessity of overcoming the limitations (e.g. weight, cost and brittleness) of traditional bulk semiconductors employed to build conventional photodetectors, has fueled the interest of the scientific community towards two-dimensional crystals. Its most representative member, graphene [1], with outstanding electrical and mechanical properties, has however a severely limited photoresponsivity due to 1) the lack of bandgap and 2) a reduced carrier lifetime that hardly reaches a few picoseconds [2]. Greater expectations lay on Transition Metal Dichalcogenides (TMDs) [3], the bandgap of which is sensitive to the number of layers. Moreover, TMDs can be stacked forming vertical or lateral heterojunctions [4] giving rise to structures similar to field-effect transistors (FETs) that behave as photodetectors. In this work we theoretically study the optoelectronic properties of a back-gated phototransistor, with its channel formed by few-layer MoTe₂, and we focus on the role played by the charges trapped at the channel-insulator interface through the photogating effect [5,6].

Device description and simulation

The device considered here is inspired by the experimental realization described in [7] and is schematically depicted in Fig. 1. The p-type, 8.4 nm-thick MoTe₂ layers on top of a bulk SiO₂ substrate (280 nm thick), back-gated by a p-type doped Si. During the fabrication process, impurities, defects and imperfections can be located at the interface between the SiO₂ substrate and the MoTe₂, resulting in the presence of a noticeable density of interface traps that are also included in the numerical model. The few-layer MoTe₂ flake is ohmically contacted by two metal electrodes acting as source and drain, respectively.

To analyze this structure we have used the SAMANTA code suite [8], which solves self-consistently the 2D Poisson and Drift-Diffusion equations including the effect of light-induced generation, Shockley-Read-Hall recombination and interface and/or bulk traps. The bandgap of MoTe₂ has been set to 0.8 eV, corresponding to its bulk form, with an acceptor doping density of Nₐ = 1.5×10¹⁸ cm⁻³. Electron and hole mobilities have been fixed to 0.3 cm²/Vs and 5.9 cm²/Vs, and effective masses to 0.5m₀ and 0.6m₀, respectively [7]. The dielectric constant of MoTe₂ is set to 10.4ε₀. In order to analyze the impact of the photogating effect in 2D-based photodetectors we have considered the presence of hole deep traps following a Gaussian energetic distribution centered at mid-gap and with standard deviation σ = 0.05 eV. The value of the maximum trap density Nₘₐₓ is varied in order to evaluate its effect. The traps are spatially located at the interface between the insulator substrate and the MoTe₂ layer (see Fig. 1).

We have considered two light power densities, P₁ = 1 W/cm² and P₂ = 6 mW/cm², so to analyze the traps role and the photogating effect in the 2D-based photodetector under different illumination conditions. The resulting transfer characteristics of the photodetector can be seen in Fig. 2, where the dark current is plotted together with the photocurrents achieved for P₁ and P₂ light power densities, and for different Nₘₐₓ values. The influence of the traps is negligible in dark conditions. However, when the device is illuminated, they increase significantly the photocurrent due to the so-called photogating effect [9,10]; in particular, for the lower value of the light power density. In this phenomenon, the trapped holes act as a local gate that augments the channel conductance, resulting into a photoconductive gain. When a high light power density (P₁) is considered, the photocurrent is mainly due to the photoconductive effect, being only slightly enhanced due to the photogating effect. In both high and low light power density cases, the photocurrent remains independent of Nₘₐₓ for V₆₉ < 10 V, as the hole traps only favor the electron conductivity.
In the scenario of lower light power density, the contribution of the photogenerated carriers is smaller due to the reduced amount of photogenerated carriers, and the photogating effect becomes dominant. This contribution is especially remarkable for gate voltages higher than 10 V, where the electron conductivity increases and holes are not strongly repelled from the lower part of the channel by the gate voltage, increasing the probability to be trapped. The relative role of the photogating on the total photocurrent is better appreciated from Fig. 3, that depicts the ratio between the photocurrent when interface traps are considered $I_t$ and when they are not $I_{th}$. For the $P_2$ case, the photocurrent can increase more than one order of magnitude due to the effect of the hole traps. For $P_1$, on the contrary, the photogonductive contribution is dominant and the effect of the traps is much more smaller. The effect of the charged traps can be better understood in Fig. 4, where the electron and hole photocurrent distributions in the channel are plotted (see inset) for two illumination power densities. The hole current density flows in a similar fashion regardless the light power density. However, the electron photocurrent distribution is different for $P_1$ and $P_2$. For $P_2$ it mainly flows in a sharp region close to the charged interface, due to the photogating effect. On the other hand, for the higher light power density, $P_1$, the photogonductive effect is dominant due to the large density of photogenerated carriers and the current flow is more homogeneously distributed.

Conclusions

The optoelectronic properties of a MoTe$_2$ phototransistor have been analyzed making use of detailed numerical simulations. The different contributions to the photocurrent has been assessed as a function of the light power density and the hole trap density. In particular, for high light power densities the photogating effect dominates the photocurrent, whereas for low power densities the photogating effect has demonstrated its importance, enhancing the overall photocurrent more than one order of magnitude compared with the situation where a perfect interface is assumed.

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References


Figure 3 Ratio of the photocurrent calculated for different $N_{\text{max}}$ values ($I_t$) with respect to the case without traps ($I_{th}$) for $P_1$ and $P_2$ vs. $V_{GS}$.

Figure 4 Hole (left column) and electron (right column) photocurrent density distribution in the channel region for $P_1 = 1 \text{W/cm}^2$ (top) and $P_2 = 6 \text{mW/cm}^2$ (bottom), $V_{DS} = 1 \text{V}$ and $V_{GS} = 19 \text{V}$. Inset: schematic of the device illustrating the zoomed region and the photogating effect.