

# Selected Properties of Hydrogenated Silicon Carbon Alloys with Very Low Densities of States\*

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A great deal of attention has been dedicated to the growth of amorphous silicon carbon alloy ( $a\text{-SiC}_x\text{:H}$ ) films because of potential applications in the electronic industry, as electroluminescent and solar cell devices. In this paper the main concepts of amorphous tetrahedrally bonded semiconductors are reviewed with emphasis in some selected properties of amorphous silicon carbon alloys.

## I. Introduction

The amorphous materials are well known since long time ago and glass, perhaps, is the more conspicuous example. Recently, however, the study of their properties and applications to microelectronics has been dramatically increased. This followed the success of Spear and LeComber<sup>[1]</sup> in controlling the electrical and optical properties of hydrogenated<sup>[2]</sup> amorphous silicon ( $a\text{-Si:H}$ ) by the inclusion of boron and phosphorous tetrahedrally bonded. The inclusion of the impurity in a crystalline network leave a free electron (phosphorous) or a hole (boron) provided that the foreign atom is tetrahedrally bonded. Conversely, it was suggested that in amorphous materials the lack of topological constraints allows the impurity to be incorporated satisfying its own valence, i.e. the so called "8-Z=N rule" is met and consequently no doping effects should be observed. Here Z and N are the valence and coordination number of the impurity, respectively. In the attempts to explain the doping sensitivity of  $a\text{-Si:H}$ , Spear and LeComber concluded that the low density of states (DOS) within the pseudo gap of the material was responsible for the efficiency in the observed doping. Moreover, the hydrogen incorporated into the semiconductor was playing a twofold role, namely, passivation of the dangling bonds and decreasing the disorder. The efficient doping was explained as follows. Assuming a density of states  $g(E)$ ,

a density of ionized donor impurities  $N_d^+$  and neglecting the free-electron contribution as compared with the trapped charge, the new position of the Fermi level is fixed by the neutrality conditions, i.e., in the zero temperature approximation:

$$N_d \approx g(E_0)(E_f - E_{f0}) = g(E_0)\Delta f . \quad (1)$$

Where we have assumed  $N_d^+ \approx N_d$ ,  $\Delta f = E_f - E_{f0}$  is the Fermi level shift and  $E_{f0}$  is the Fermi level position of the intrinsic material. From this equation it is evident that a large displacement of the Fermi level is conditioned to a low DOS near the intrinsic Fermi level position. We remark, also, the conceptual differences of doping effects between crystalline materials and amorphous semiconductors. In the former, the extra electron (hole) introduced by the impurity is thermally promoted to the conduction (valence) band producing changes in the material conductivity. In the latter, on the other hand, the phenomenon occurs as follows. The extra electron (hole) drops to states deeper in the pseudo-gap moving up (down) the Fermi level. Thus, the maximum of the convolution of  $g(E)$  and the Fermi occupation probability distribution shifts up (down) increasing the population of charge in extended states at the conduction (valence) band and consequently, varying the conductivity of the material.

Other important properties of  $a\text{-Si:H}$  is its remarkable high absorption coefficient and photoconductivity. The first property is due to the lack of symmetry which

\*Invited talk.

prevents the conservation of the quantum number  $k$ . Consequently, more optical transitions for incident photons are allowed and the absorption coefficient in the region of interest is larger than in crystalline silicon. The good photoconductivity properties are due to the large band gap, low density of gap states and relative large diffusion length obtained in the materials. Indeed, in the dark (at room temperature) a larger band gap material is depleted of carriers in extended states, preventing the electrical conduction. Shining light upon the semiconductor increases the electron-hole population in extended states. Subsequently, the carriers separate by diffusion, increasing the conductivity of the material. The high absorption coefficient together with its excellent photoconductivity makes the material adequate for inexpensive large area solar cells. Other applications are electrophotography copiers, radiation sensors, Vidicons, etc. and recently, the  $a$ -Si:H thin film transistor seems to be the technological solutions for addressing liquid crystal display<sup>[2]</sup>. Indeed, the unique possibility of depositing large areas of the material in almost any available substrate supporting 200-300 °C of temperature, makes the semiconductor suitable in electronic devices having human dimensions, such as display panels.

The success obtained with  $a$ -Si:H encouraged the researchers to look for other elemental amorphous semiconductors and alloys potentially useful for optoelectronic applications. Among them, amorphous silicon-carbon alloys is one of the most interesting material to be used in several applications. This is so because its particular properties such as controllable band gap with carbon content, hardness, and what is very important, controllability of its conductivity by substitutional doping. The material has been used successfully as "window" contact in amorphous silicon solar cells, light emitting diodes and blocking contact in electrophotographic cylinders<sup>[3]</sup>. However, although the band gap of the material can be varied over a large range of energies (1.7 eV to  $\sim 3$  eV) there is a concomitant detriment in its transport properties. In order to avoid it, attempts have been made to find particular deposition conditions to improve the material.

Recently, Matsuda and Tanaka<sup>[4]</sup> reported encouraging results obtained diluting heavily with hydrogen the gaseous mixture of  $[\text{CH}_4 + \text{SiH}_4]$  during the glow discharge deposition of the material. According to these authors, the amorphous network is determined by the energy relaxation process of the absorbed species at the surface of the growing film. Moreover, a disconnected structure is formed if the surface-diffusion length is so short that the absorbed fragments are frozen on the landing site before they can find a more appropriate position. Thus, a larger diffusion length could be obtained selecting the less reactive radicals arriving to the growing film and covering the surface with hydrogen, i.e. make passive the surface dangling bonds with hydrogen. Furthermore, it is experimentally verified that the plasma structure strongly depends on the proportion of the gaseous mixture (methane-silane-hydrogen, in our case), adding one more complication to the preparation process. Consequently, the appropriate conditions for  $a$ -SiCx:H preparation are different than those used in  $a$ -Si:H. It is not surprising, for instance, that higher substrate temperatures produce better results than in  $a$ -Si:H.

In this work, the influence of hydrogen on some optical properties of the silicon-carbon alloy is reviewed by studying the sub-gap absorption, Urbach tail, infrared spectra, and low temperature photoluminescence emission. In section II the preparation method and experimental techniques used to characterize the material are discussed. In section III the optical properties are discussed. Finally, in section IV the conclusions are presented.

## II. Sample preparation and experimental techniques

Plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (glow discharge) has proven to produce the best hydrogenated amorphous silicon ( $a$ -Si:H). Pure silane or diluted in hydrogen is let into a vacuum chamber and a radio-frequency (rf) plasma is generated in close contact to the substrate. Different ionized fragments produced by electrons colliding with neutral species of the gaseous

mixture are deposited onto a heated substrate forming the amorphous semiconductor. The large amount of work dedicated to this material have allowed to find well established conditions of substrate temperature, rf power, fluxes, hydrogen dilution, reactor geometry, etc. producing the best a-Si:H.

In the case of amorphous silicon-carbon alloys our best results were obtained in samples deposited from a constant ratio of gaseous given by  $[H_2]/[H_2 + CH_4 + SiH_4]$  of  $\sim 95-97\%$  (HD, "high dilution") on substrates maintained at  $320^\circ C$ <sup>[5]</sup>. Therefore, different materials were obtain changing the gaseous mixture maintaining its ratio constant. As it was remarked in the introduction, temperature is an important parameter and we found that, samples deposited with the same gaseous mixtures but at  $260^\circ C$ , do not present good properties. "Standard" samples are normally deposited on substrate maintained at  $\sim 260^\circ C$  from gaseous mixtures containing few or none percentages of hydrogen (LD, "low dilution").

The sub-gap absorption strongly depends on the dangling bonds, i.e. on the material defects. Two things prevent the use of standard techniques (transmission) to measure the sub-gap absorption coefficient, namely the low sub-gap absorption coefficient and small thickness of the samples. Photo-thermal deflection spectroscopy (PDS)<sup>[6]</sup> and photoconductivity<sup>[7]</sup> are sensible techniques adequate to measure very low absorption coefficients. PDS consists of the following. The sample is immersed in a liquid which is transparent in the spectrum region of interest. A chopped monochromatic beam is shined perpendicular to the sample while a helium laser beam goes nearby to the surface of the material. The absorbed radiation heat up the sample. The heat is subsequently transferred to the liquid by diffusion generating a temperature profile. The temperature changes locally the liquid refractive index deflecting the laser beam proportional to the transferred heat, i.e. proportional to the absorption coefficient. Care should be taken with the sample thickness. Indeed, very thin samples have surface DOS comparable to the bulk DOS<sup>[5]</sup>. However, the Urbach tail, i.e. the exponential part of the absorption coefficient, is fairly independent

on the surface states. Therefore, even in thin samples, PDS is a powerful tool for analyzing this parameter associated with disorder, i.e. the Urbach energy. An alternative technique which is quite insensitive to surface states is the constant photocurrent method (CPM) or shortly, photoconductivity method. The method takes advantage of the correlation between the sub-gap absorption coefficient and the generated photocurrent. In order to maintain the recombination kinetics invariant, the intensity of the monochromatic illumination is varied in such a way to maintain a constant photocurrent for all incident photon frequencies. A disadvantage of this method in relation to PDS resides in the necessity of electrical contacts. Furthermore, a photoconductive material is obviously necessary, a condition not always met. We remark that both techniques do not give absolute values of  $\alpha$  and normalization procedures are necessary to obtain meaningful results.

The absorption coefficient corresponding to high energies ( $> 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) is obtained by standard transmission procedures and used to define the optical gap. In amorphous semiconductors the optical gap is usually obtained by plotting  $(\hbar\nu\alpha)^{1/2}$  vs.  $h\nu$ . The interception of a generally well defined straight line with the  $h\nu$  axis define the optical gap of  $T_{auc}$ <sup>[8]</sup>. As remarked above, PDS and CPM are not absolute measures of  $\alpha$ . Therefore, the absorption coefficient obtained by standard procedures is also used to scale the sub-gap value of  $\alpha$  by matching both curves in the region where they overlap.

The infra-red (ir) absorption spectra is a valuable tool in the determination of the local vibrations in the amorphous structure. Indeed, hydrogen atoms bonded to silicon (carbon) dangling bonds are the cause of the low DOS observed in the alloy. Furthermore, the ratio of the integrated areas of the stretching absorption vibrations (Si-H)/(Si-H<sub>2</sub>) is a figure of merit of the material quality.

Although the photoluminescence (PL) emission spectra in amorphous materials are featureless, the technique proved to give information about band tails, disorder and electron-phonon interaction. The PL intensity as function of temperature  $I(T)$  is generally ex-

pressed in the form:

$$I(T) = I_0 PR(T) / [PR(T) + PNR(T)], \quad (2)$$

where  $PR(T)$  and  $PNR(T)$  are the radiative and non-radiative transitions probabilities respectively, and  $I_0$  is the PL intensity at zero temperature. Therefore, a plot of  $I_0/I(T) - 1 = PNR(T)/PR(T)$  can be used to determine the PL quenching with temperature. In a-Si:H a good fitting to the experimental data is obtained with  $PNR(T)/PR(T) \sim \exp(T/T_0)^{[9]}$ . This temperature behavior is found in chalcogenide materials and is explained in terms of tunneling recombination of carriers to non-radiative centers.  $T_0$  is a material parameter which depends of the Urbach band tail,  $Eu^{[10]}$ :

$$kT_0 = Eu / \ln(\tau/\tau_0), \quad (3)$$

where  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $\tau_0$  and  $\tau$  are the "attempt to tunnel pre-factor" and radiative recombination characteristic time of the material, respectively. The recombination time is expressed by  $\tau(r_c) = \tau_0 \exp(\alpha r_c)$ , where  $Lo = 2/\alpha$  is the effective Bohr radius (localization distance) and  $r_c$  is the electron-hole distance. In hydrogenated amorphous silicon these quantities are estimated to be  $\sim 10$ - $12$  Å and  $\tau_0 \approx 10^{-12}$  s, respectively<sup>[11]</sup>. The critical distance  $r$ , between the electron and defect is defined in such a way that a carrier having  $r < r_c$  ( $r > r_c$ ) will recombine non-radiatively (radiatively). This critical distance is estimated considering the mean value  $r = \langle r \rangle$  of a distribution of randomly dispersed defects<sup>[10]</sup>  $G(r) = 4\pi r^2 N \exp(-4\pi r^3 N/3)$ , where  $N$  is the DOS. Combining these equations the localization distance of trapped carriers in samples with different carbon concentration is estimated by<sup>[12]</sup>

$$Lo \approx 0.5(kT_0/N^{1/3}Eu). \quad (4)$$

In the next section we discuss the experimental results and the interpretations of them.

### III. Experimental results and discussion

Figure 1 (a) represents the absorption coefficient obtained by CPM of two representative materials, corresponding to HD (1.95 eV optical gap) and LD (standard, 1.00 eV optical gap) samples. A reduction of

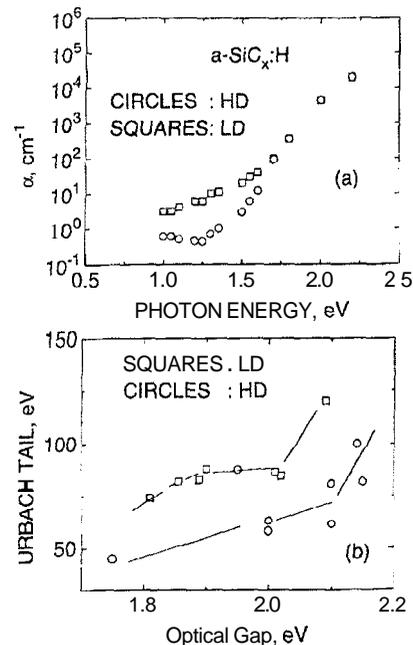


Figure 1: (a) Absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  vs photon energy for BD (1.95 eV) and LD (1.90 eV). (b) Urbach energy vs Optical gap for both type of samples.

approximately one order of magnitude in the absorption coefficient due to defects is quite evident. Also, smaller Urbach tails are observed (Figure 1 (b)) indicating smaller disorder in HD than in LD samples with similar gaps. Also, the DOS is smaller in HD than LD samples (non represented).

In the attempt to correlate the good optoelectronic properties of the HD material to the local structure, the IR spectrum of materials deposited simultaneously on a crystalline substrate is normally studied. These spectra are very rich in structures. The studied samples present bands which are commonly associated with carbon complex vibrations and the dependence with optical gap is in agreement with results found in the literature<sup>[13]</sup>. Unfortunately, the overlapping of most of the bands prevents a clear individualization of possible atomic local arrangements. There are two exceptions, namely the stretching modes C-H and Si-H bonds. The former, however, is extremely weak and no clear conclusions can be obtained from it. The Si-H band, on the contrary, proved to be relatively easy to analyze. The stretching Si-H band of a-Si $_x$ C $_x$ H with  $x < 0.4$  can be interpreted in terms of only two independent vibrating contributions localized approximately at 2000 and 2100  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively<sup>[13]</sup>. These two contributions are

due to Si-H and Si-H<sub>n</sub> complex, where *n* is an integer greater than one. The higher order hydrides are typical of porous and less compact structures which are associated to poor optoelectronic properties<sup>[14,15]</sup>. In order to compare the influence of the hydrogen dilution on the structural characteristic of the material, the Si-H absorption bands of the studied samples were fitted with two Gaussians centered at 2000 and 2085 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The ratio of the integrated absorption coefficient of those bands as a function of the optical gap were studied (non represented). It was observed relatively smaller values of the ratio in LD than in HD samples. This result is indicative of a porous structure and less compact structures of LD samples.

The PL emission spectra of the alloys are broad bands centered at energies around 0.4 eV below the energy of the conduction band. There is general consensus that the emission is due to recombination between carriers localized in band-tail states. However, a controversy about the origin of the full width at the half maximum (FWHM) and the energy shift between the absorption spectra and the PL emission still exists. In a-Si:H, and using detailed balance arguments which consider the absorption and emission spectra, Street<sup>[16]</sup> has concluded that the large energy difference between the absorption and emission as well as the spectra width is mainly due to electron-phonon interaction. Furthermore, Street has estimated a Stokes shift of 0.4 eV and a FWHM of 0.25 eV. Dustan and Boulitrop<sup>[11]</sup>, however, claim that the main causes of the PL broadening and shifting between the absorption and emission, are disorder and carriers thermalization in band tail states, respectively. Both models describe the PL as radiative tunneling recombination between trapped carriers in band-tail states. Moreover, in both models the non radiative recombination is explained as tunneling recombination to defect states (dangling bonds) within the gap. Recently, Searle and Jackson<sup>[17]</sup> have contributed to this debate studying the PL in hydrogenated silicon nitride concluding that disorder is the main cause for the pointed discrepancies. We shall return to this point later.

The lowest temperature reached in our experiments

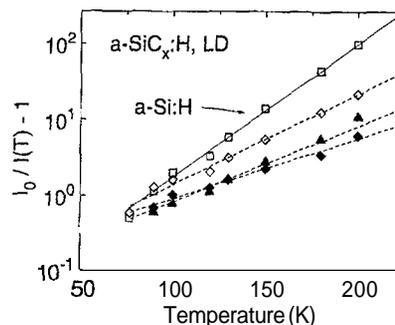


Figure 2: Plot of  $I_0(T)/I(T) - 1$  vs.  $T$ . For the sake of clarity we have plotted only a few curves corresponding to LD samples. Similar curves are obtained for HD samples.

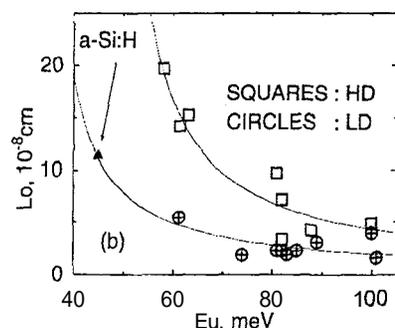


Figure 3: Localization length  $L_0$  vs Urbach tail for HD and LD samples. The value for a-Si:H is also indicated.

was 77 K. Therefore, errors in the determination of the  $T_0$  parameter are minimized if  $I_0$  is determined as an adjustable parameter<sup>[18]</sup>. Figure 2 shows the best fit of the expression  $I_0/I(T) - 1 = PNR(T)/PR(T) \sim \exp(T/T_0)$  applying this procedure.

Figure 3 are the curves obtained by substituting the experimental values of  $T_0$ ,  $E_u$  and DOS in equation 4. The dashed curves are fits of  $A/(E_u - E_0)$  hyperbolic functions, with  $A$  and  $E_0$  being adjustable parameters. Several conclusions are obtained from this graph. First, the shorter localization lengths obtained for LD samples suggest stronger disorder than in HD samples. Second, the fabrication parameters used in the deposition of the LD material seem to produce a material with properties similar those of a-Si:H. Therefore, fabrication conditions producing good a-Si:H are not necessarily the best conditions to be used in the fabrication of a-SiC<sub>x</sub>H. Third, the relatively large values of  $L_0$  in HD samples with  $E_u < 65$  meV suggest the existence of micro-crystals.

We return to the problem of the origin of the PL width. Following a similar analysis applied to silicon

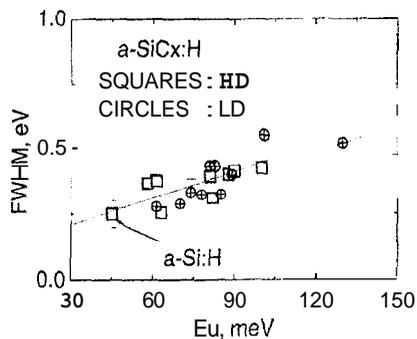


Figure 4: Full width at the half maximum, FWHM vs. the Urbach tail of RD and LD samples. The dashed line is the best fitting to the experimental data. The straight line interpolation intercepts the y axis at 90 meV.

nitride by Searle and Jackson<sup>[17]</sup>, we have plotted (Figure 4) the FWHM vs the Urbach tail for different samples. We note that the FWHM is determined at 77 K while Eu is obtained at room temperature. However, we think that temperature corrections will not change the main conclusions. The accumulation of the LD and HD experimental data on an unique straight line strongly supports the assumption of tail to tail radiative recombination.

From this graph is concluded that the PWHM,  $A$ , is proportional to the Urbach energy. Furthermore, the quadratic value of the FWHM,  $\Delta^2$ , could be envisaged as the sum of two quadratic contributions, i.e. disorder and electron-phonon interaction<sup>[10]</sup>. Calling  $\sigma_{ep}$  and  $\sigma_d$  to these contributions,  $A^2 = \sigma_{ep}^2 + \sigma_d^2$ . If we associate the disorder to the Urbach tail, Eu, the linearity of Figure 3 suggests that the first term in this equation must be rather small. Assuming that the  $\sigma_{ep}$  contribution is at most the value obtained by the extrapolation to zero disorder, i.e.  $Eu = 0$ , the maximum contribution to the electron-phonon interaction is around 90 meV. The electron phonon broadening is given by  $\sigma_{ep}^2 = 4ln(2) Es\hbar\omega$ , where  $Es$  is the Stokes Shift and  $\hbar\omega$  is the most probable phonon energy.<sup>[17]</sup> Assuming  $\hbar\omega = 70$  meV (the average phonon energy between 60 meV of silicon and 80 meV of silicon carbide) a Stokes shift of  $Es \approx 0.040$  eV is obtained. This value is smaller than 0.4-0.5 eV estimated by Street<sup>[17]</sup> but nevertheless twice the result of 0.020 eV obtained by Searle and Jackson in silicon nitride<sup>[17]</sup>. We remark, however, that the scattering in our experimental data

prevents a straight forward comparison and more work is necessary before final conclusions are pursued.

#### IV. Summary and conclusions

Some optical and structural properties of amorphous silicon carbon alloys prepared by glow discharge from different hydrogen dilution conditions were studied.

The density of gap states and Urbach energies of samples with optical gaps between 1.9-2.15 eV are smaller in samples produced by heavily diluting with hydrogen the methane-silane gaseous mixture. Infrared absorption spectra of high diluted with hydrogen deposited samples showed that high order hydrides Si-Hn does not increase too much as a function of the optical gap, i.e with carbon content. On the contrary, in the standard material the ratio of [Si-H]/[Si-Hn] decreases as a function of the optical gap, suggesting a less compact structure.

Photoluminescence studies allowed to gain inside about questions like disorder and its influence on the emission line width. Indeed, the low temperature line width of the PL spectra turned out to be proportional to the Urbach energy, a parameter related to disorder.

The PL dependence on temperature in both types of sample (diluted and non diluted prepared material) is similar to that observed in amorphous silicon.<sup>[9]</sup> Combined results of PL, Urbach tail and density of states show stronger localization of carriers in standard samples. Furthermore, some diluted deposited samples show larger localization length, suggesting the existence of micro-crystals.

In conclusion, by diluting the gaseous mixture with hydrogen the optoelectronic properties of the alloy improve. This is probably due to an increasing surface diffusing-length of the starting fragments forming the film. A larger diffusion-length allows the fragments to move around on the growing film before finding an energetically more favorable site. However, we remark that the structure of the plasma is also changed rendering difficult in this stage to know the exact role of hydrogen in the improvement of the material.

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