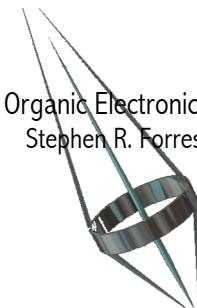


Week 2-10

Optical Detectors 5

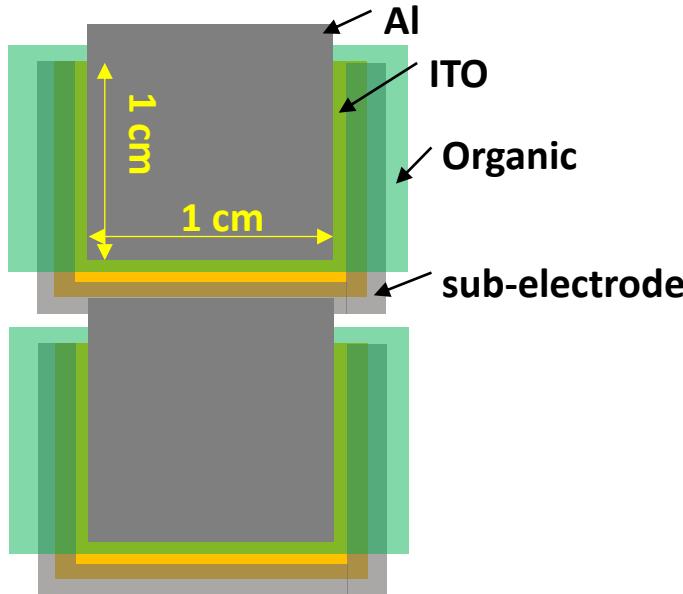
OPV Modules

Ch. 7.9 – 7.10



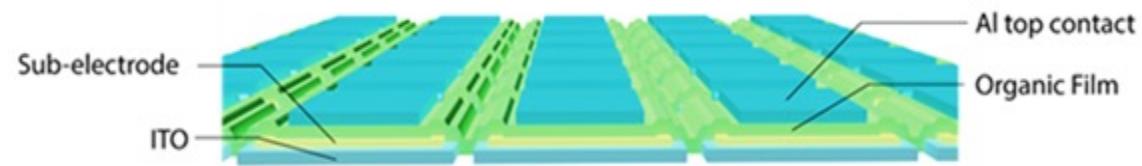
Scaling to Modules

Two tandem cells in series

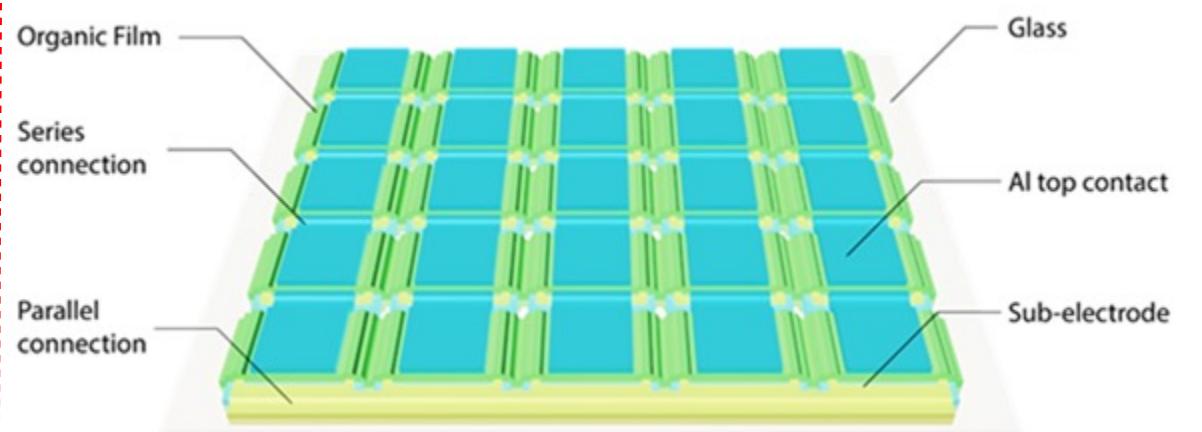


- Surrounding cell with contacts (sub electrodes) reduces resistance
- 5x5 discrete tandem cells connected in series-parallel configuration
- Active area: 1 cm² for discrete; 25 cm² for module

Front view



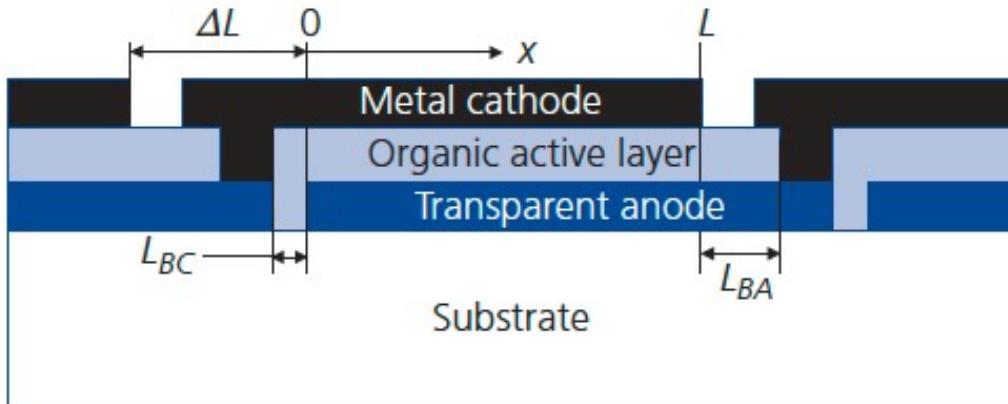
Top view



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Power Limiting Resistances in the Module

- **Geometric fill factor** accounts for inactive regions from device interconnects: $\eta_{p,module} = GFF \cdot \eta_{P,cell}$



Material	Layer thickness	$R_{\square} (\Omega/\text{sq.})$
Al	135	0.16
ITO on glass	150	12.5
ITO on PET	150	50
PEDOT:PSS PH1000	150	100
Material	ρ_c with Al ($\text{m}\Omega \text{ cm}^2$)	
ITO on glass	11	
ITO on PET	17	
PEDOT:PSS PH1000	200	

Components Leading to Module Efficiency Loss

$$\Delta P_{sheet} = \frac{R_{\square}}{W} \int_0^L I(V)^2 dx = \frac{R_{\square}}{W} \int_0^L [j(V)Wx]^2 dx = I(V)^2 \left[\frac{R_{\square} L}{3W} \right] \quad \text{Power loss from contact sheet resistance, } R_{\square}$$

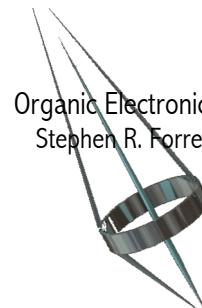
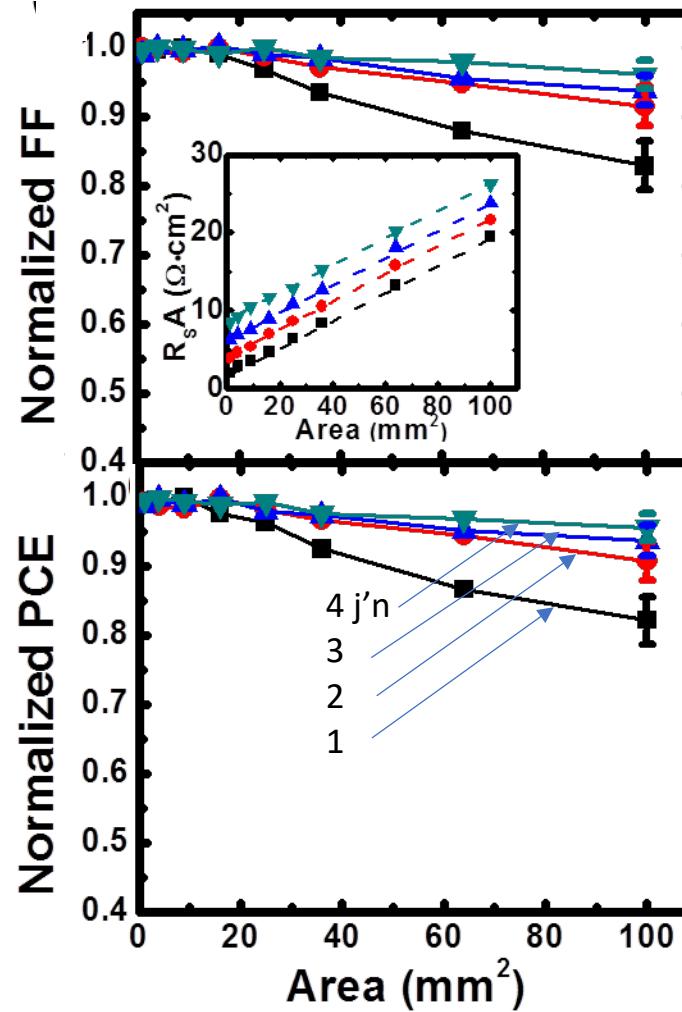
$$R_{sheet} = \frac{R_{\square} L}{3W} \quad \text{Total sheet resistance from contact of length, } L, \text{ device width } W$$

$$R_{BA,C} = R_{\square A,C} \frac{\Delta L}{3W} \quad \text{Bridge resistance}$$

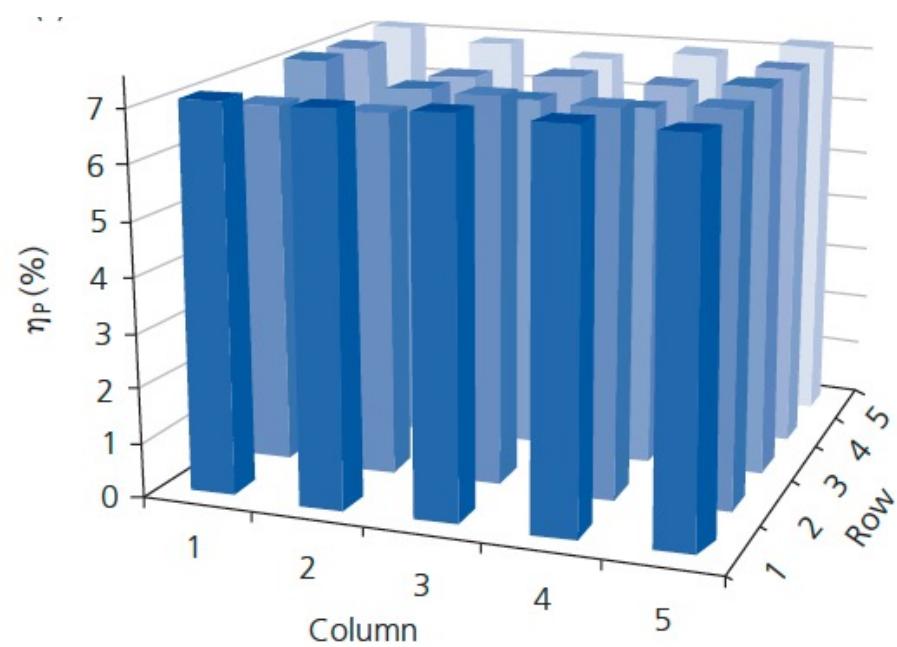
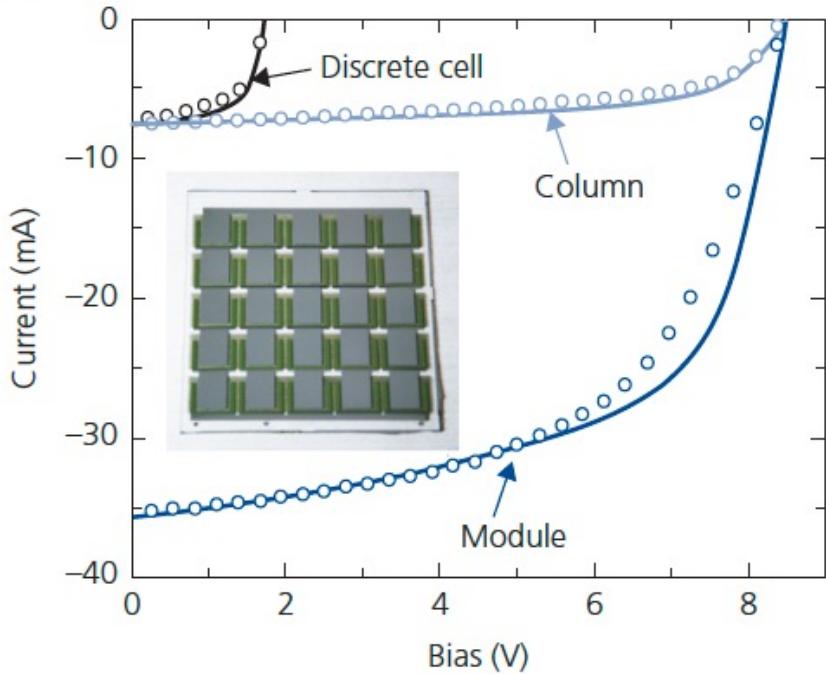
$$R_C = \rho_c \frac{3}{W \Delta L} \quad \text{Contact resistance between cathode and anode}$$

Multijunction Cells Limit the Effects of Resistance

The higher the voltage,
The smaller the problem
⇒ Multijunction cells

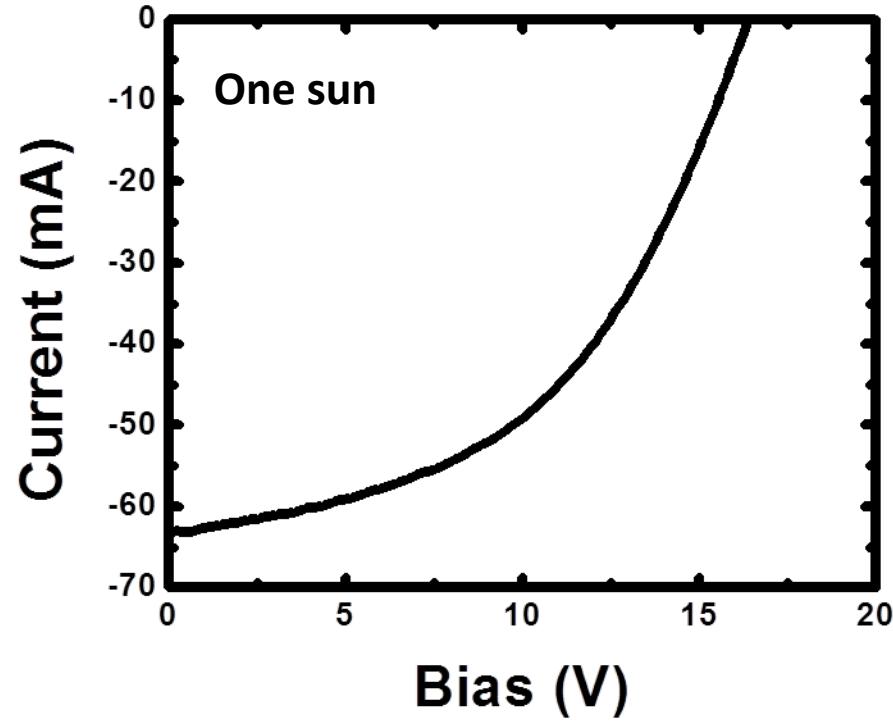
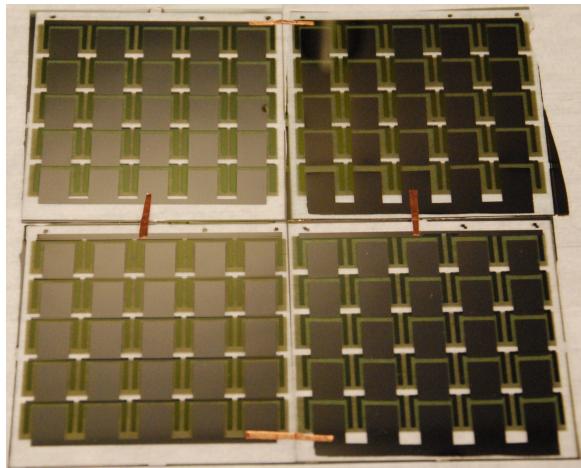
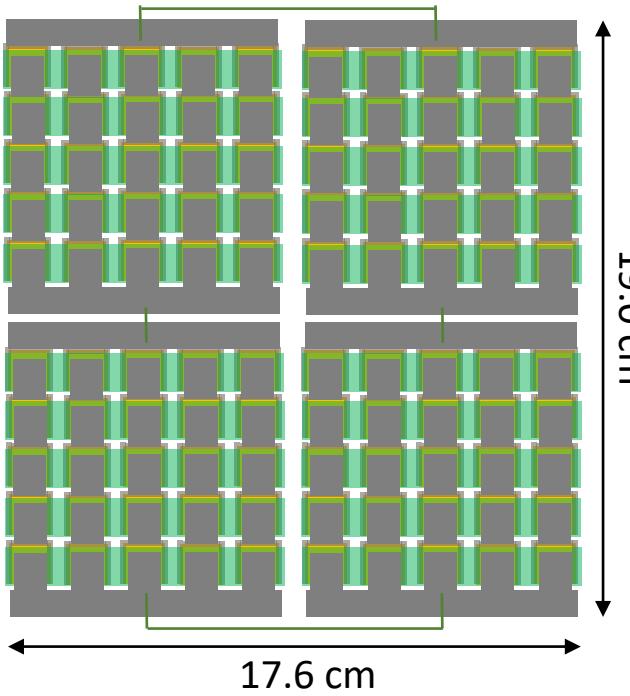


Efficiency of Tandem Modules in Series-Parallel Circuit



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Tethered 10 x 10 OPV Module



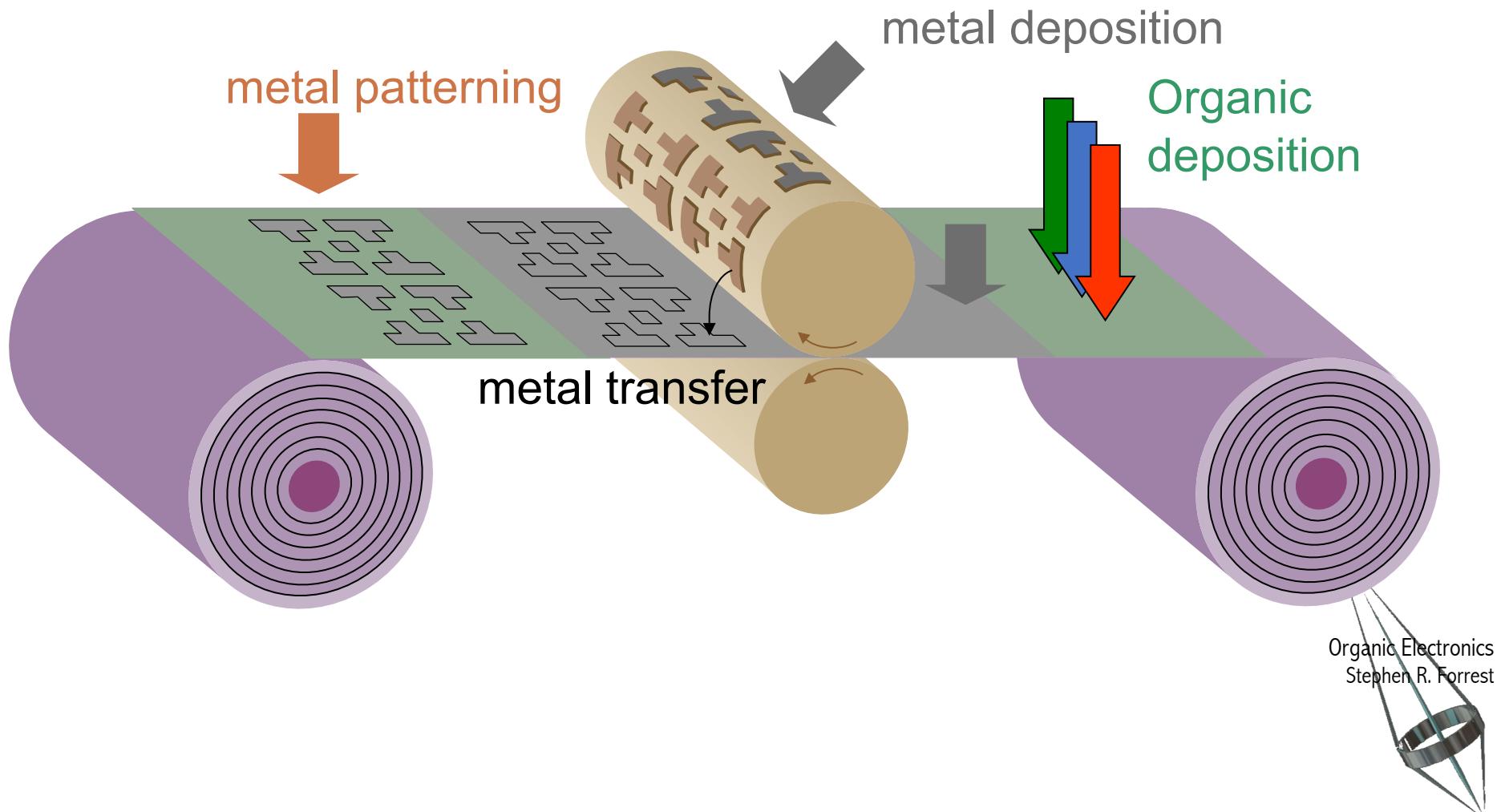
Module

$I_{SC} = 63 \text{ mA}$, $V_{OC} = 16.4 \text{ V}$, FF = 50%,

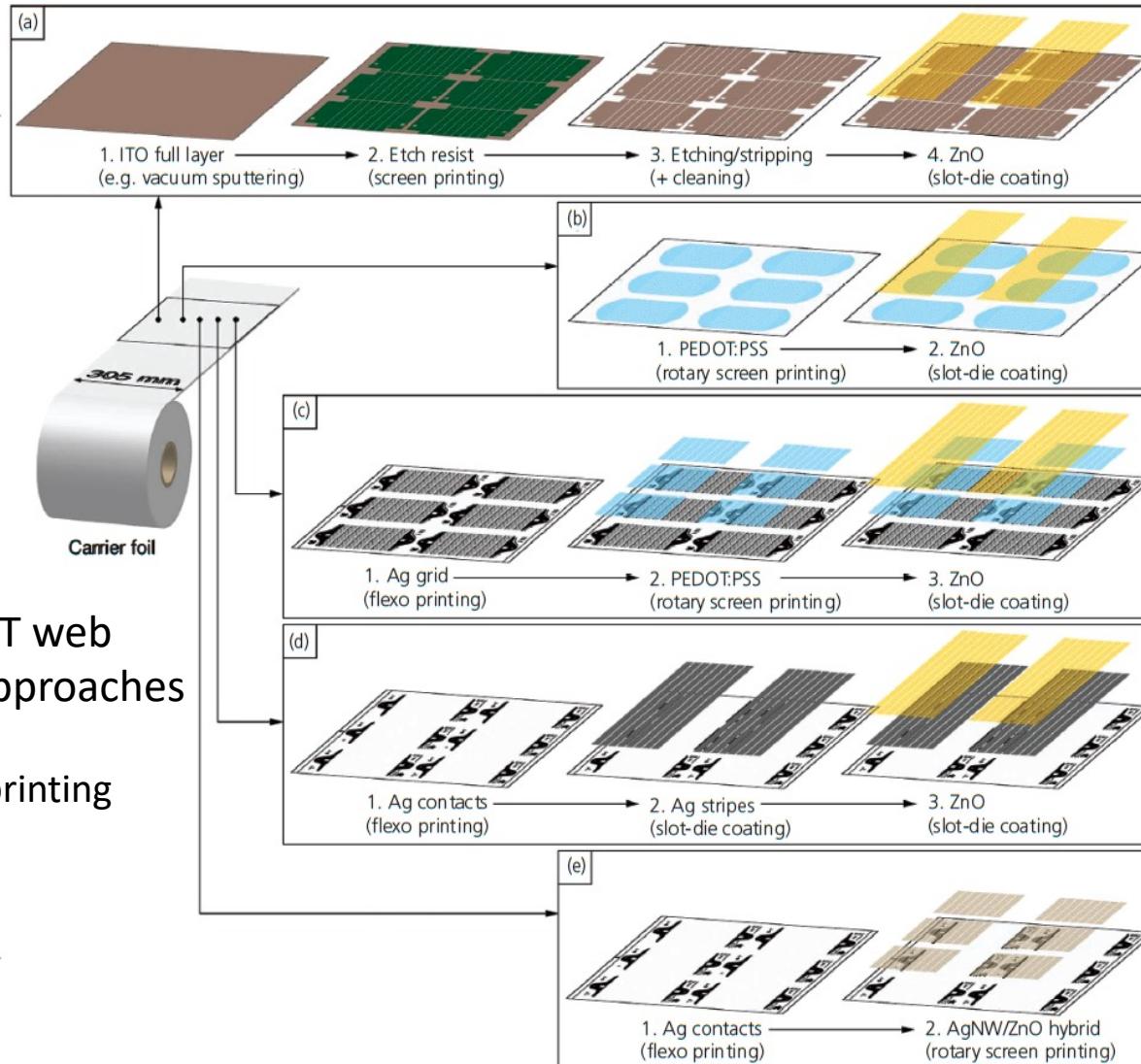
Output power = 519 mW, PCE = 5.2%

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Manufacturing of Solar Cells by R2R Methods



Printing Methods Used in R2R Solar Cell Production



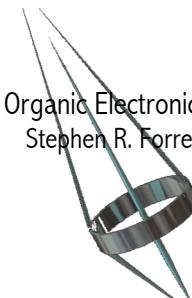
305 mm wide PET web

Many possible approaches

- Slot-die coating
- Rotary screen printing
- Flexo printing
- Laser scribing
(see Ch. 5)

What we learned

- Photoconductors, photodiodes, solar cells are three species of optical detectors
 - Detectors are fundamentally limited by a gain-bandwidth product
 - Solar cells are photodiodes operated in the 4th j-V quadrant
- Photodiodes are designed for detection in narrow spectral ranges
 - OPDs have shown high bandwidth, color agility and low noise
- Solar cells have been intensively investigated due to their
 - High efficiency (now ~18% for single junction cells)
 - Transparency in the visible but >10% efficiency via absorption in the NIR
 - Efficiency is intimately linked to the morphology and chemistry of the D-A materials forming bulk HJ
 - Efficiency of OPVs paced by advances in acceptor molecules
- OPVs have demonstrated intrinsic lifetimes of thousands of years
- OPVs thermodynamically limited to <25% due to losses in forming CT states
 - The limit can be exceeded using multijunction cells, singlet fission
- Both solution and vapor deposited OPVs have been “manufactured” using high volume R2R deposition processes



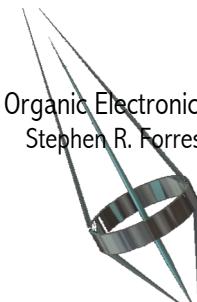
Organic Thin Film Transistors

Thin Film Transistors 1

OTFT Basics
Operating Principles

Ch. 8.1 – 8.3.3

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OTFT Objectives

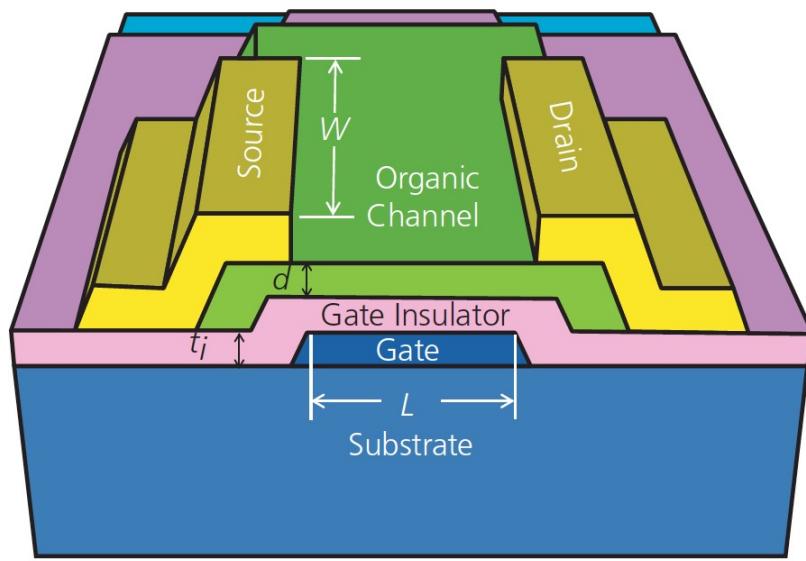
- Learn how they work
- Learn how they are made
- Learn about their operational reliability
- Learn what they are good for: Are they an answer waiting for a question?
 - Sensing
 - Medical applications

Advantages vs. Limitations of OTFTs

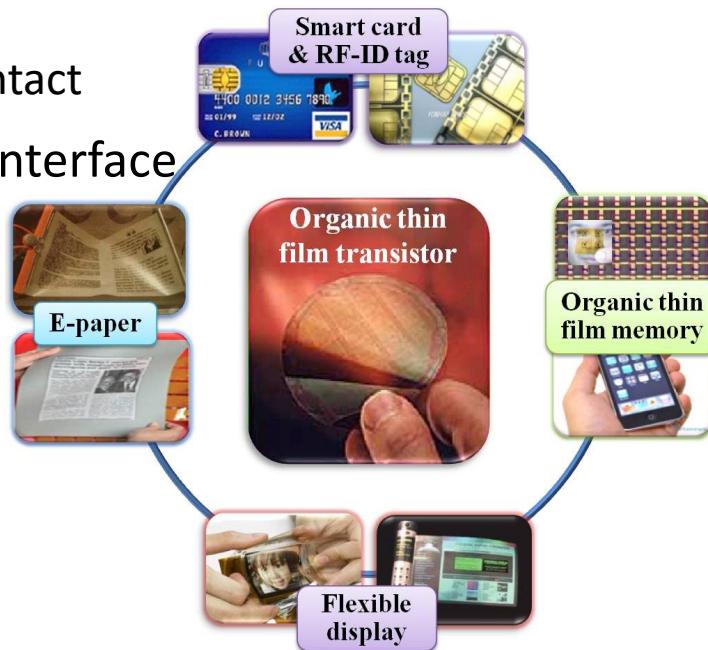
- PROs
 - Flexible, conformable, ultralight
 - Can be made over very large areas
 - Suitable for large scale R2R manufacture
- CONs
 - Cannot source large currents
 - Characteristics drift over long periods in operation
 - Limited bandwidth (≤ 1 MHz in many cases)

What an OTFT looks like

- Several different configurations
 - Bottom gate, top gate, bottom SD contact, top SD contact
- Properties strongly influenced by dielectric/organic interface
- Configuration similar to inorganic TFTs
 - Metal oxide
 - a-Si
 - Etc.

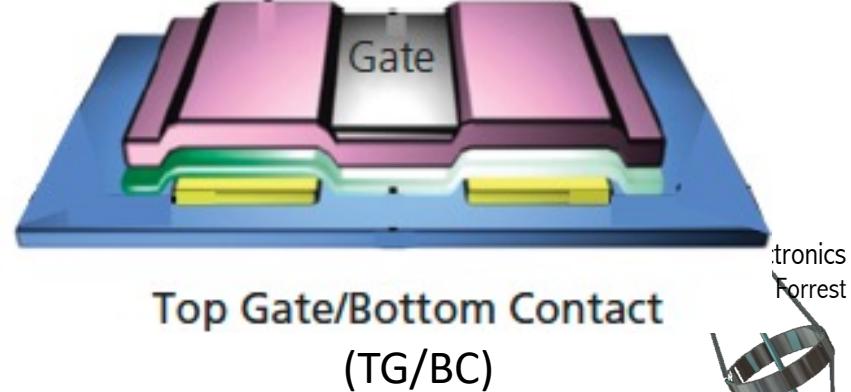
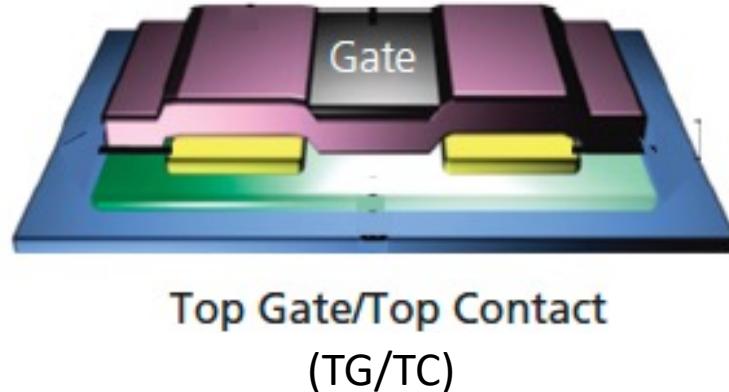
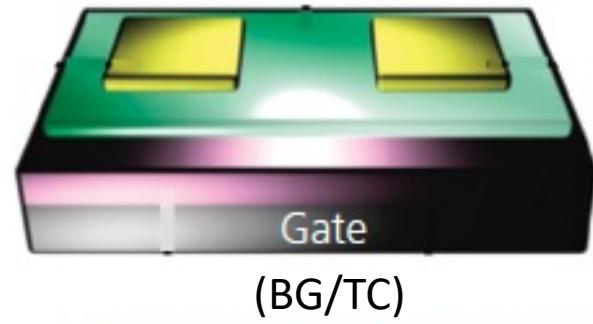
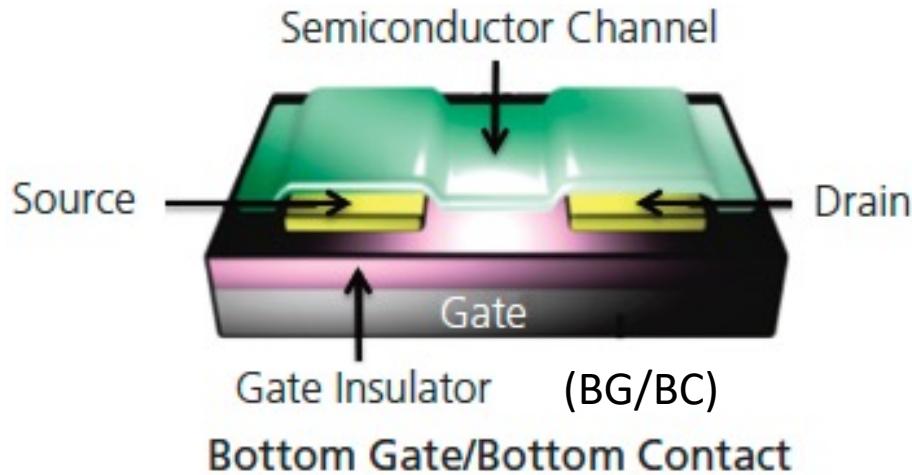


Definitions of Contacts and Dimensions



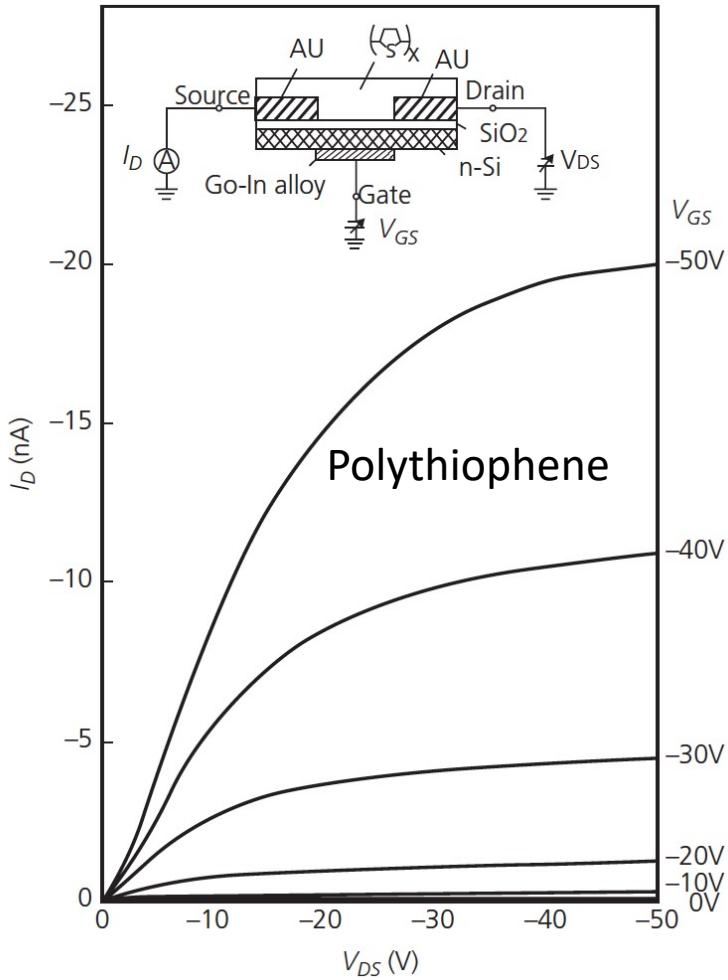
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Different Contact Arrangements

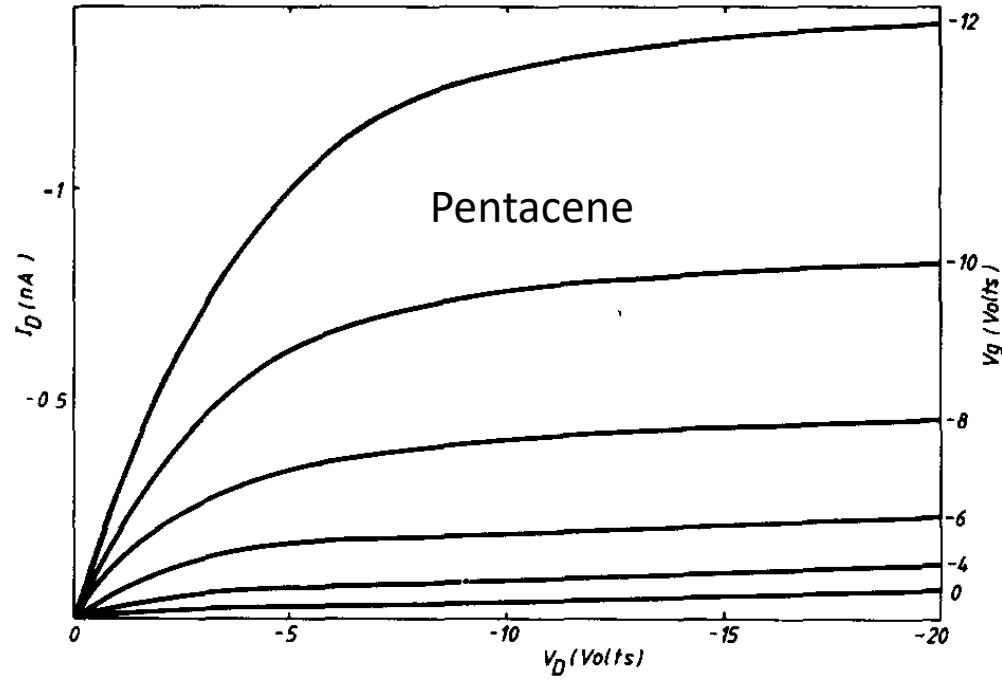


Organic Thin Film Transistors

First demonstrations



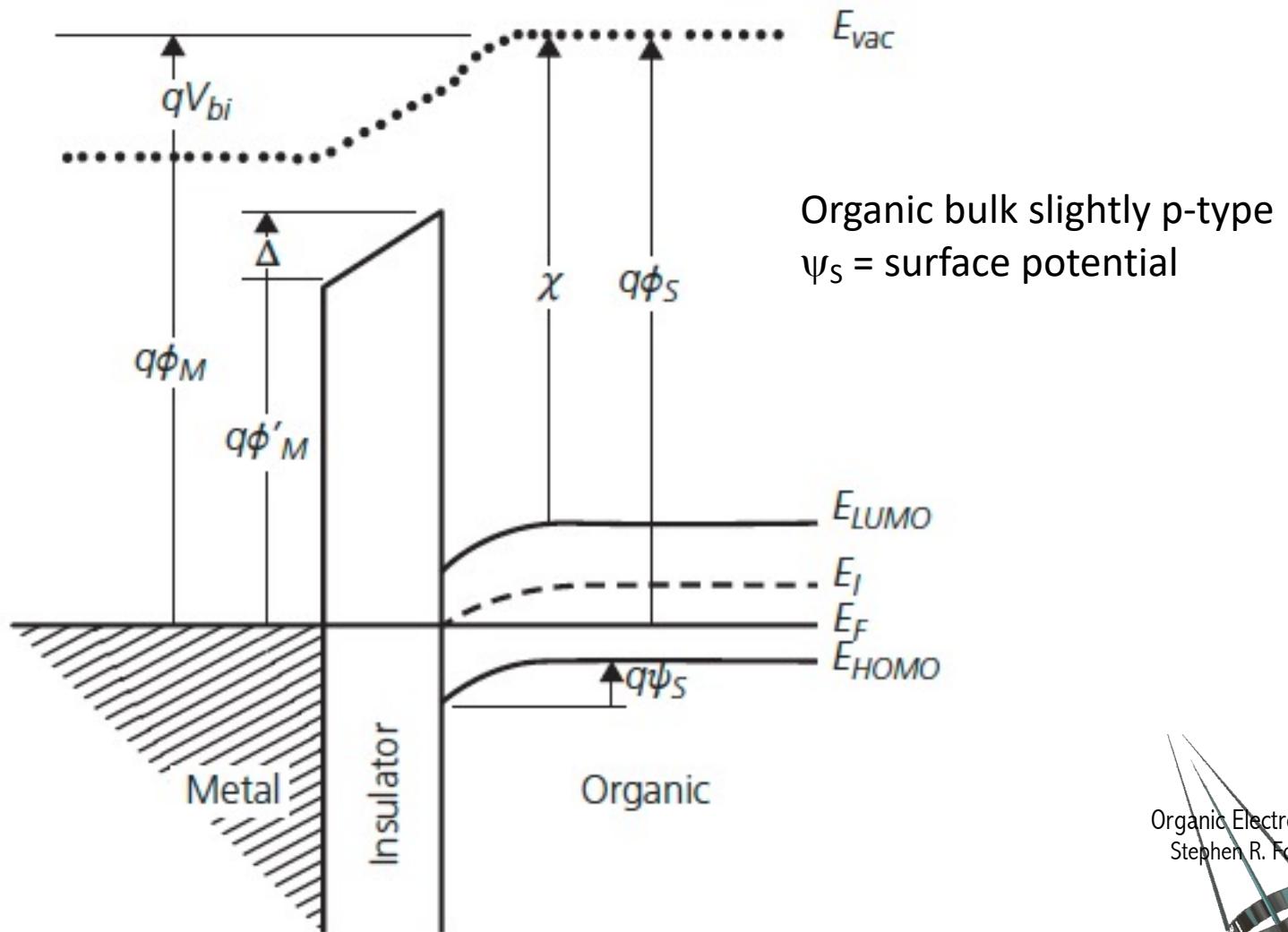
A. Tsumura, et al., Appl. Phys. Lett., (1986) 1210, 49



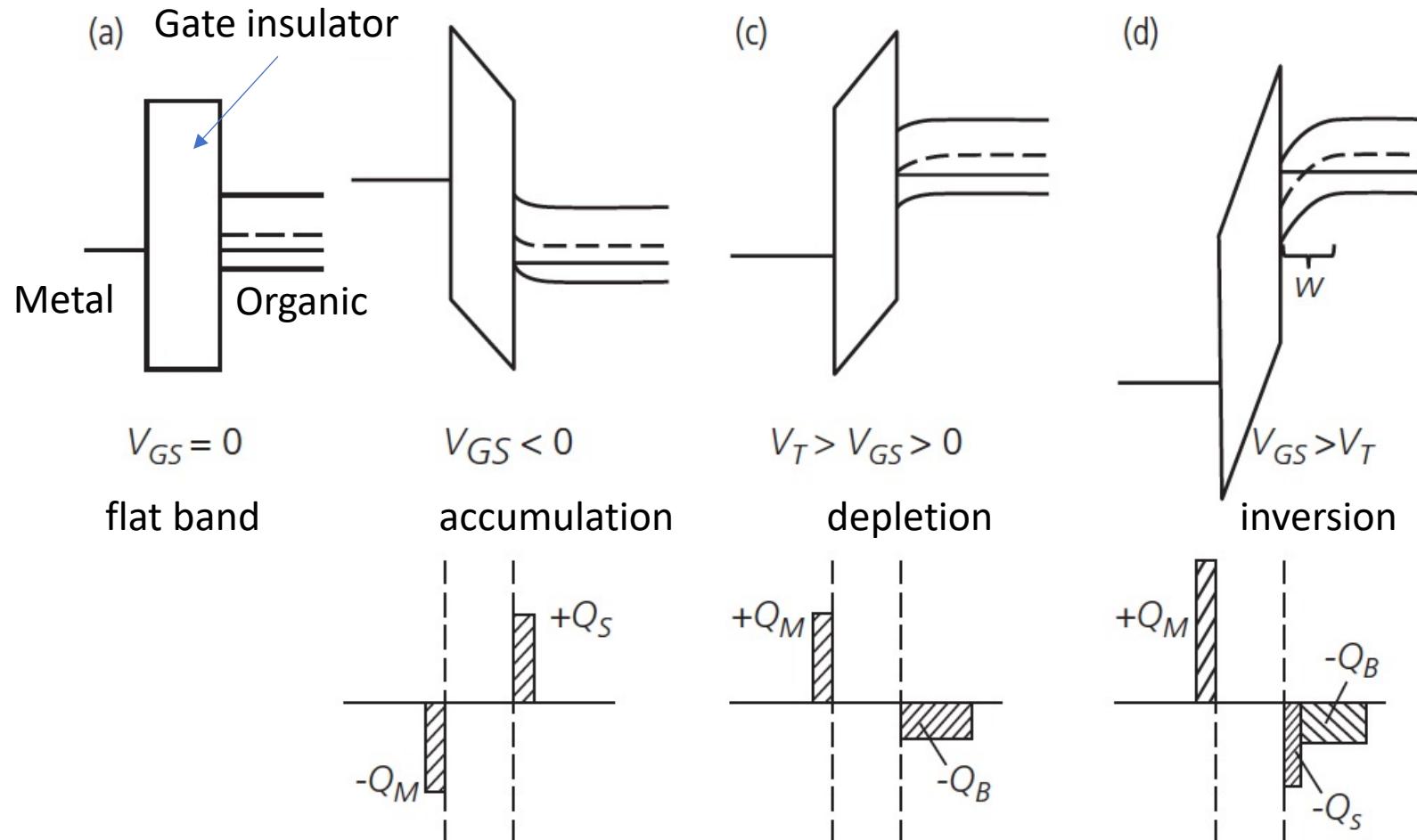
G. Horowitz, et al., Solid State Commun., 72 381 (1989)

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Equilibrium Energy Level Diagram at the Gate of the OTFT

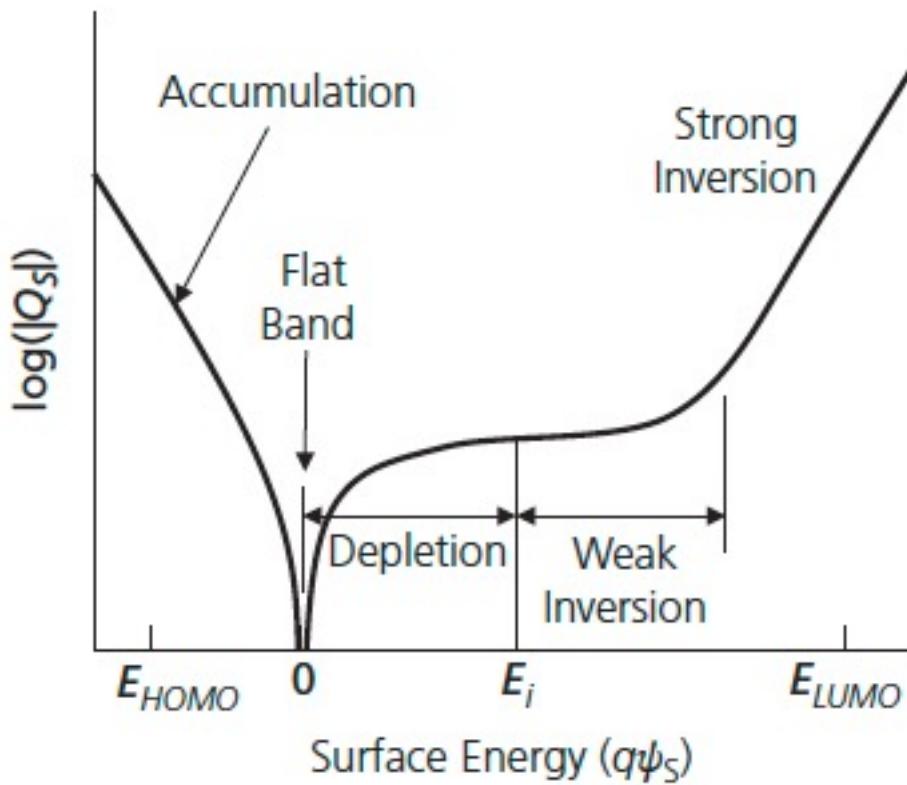


The MIS Capacitor: Building Block of the OTFT



- Organics often have little charge in the bulk of the semiconductor \Rightarrow no band bending
- Charge drawn into channel from source to allow conduction at the insulator/org. interface

Operating Regions of the Transistor



- Since charge is injected from the source, and the channel organic is rarely doped, the OTFT operates in the **accumulation regime**
- The **inversion regime** is rarely relevant in OTFTs for these reasons
- The transistor channel is normally depleted at $V_{GS} = 0$, and hence the transistors are **enhancement mode** devices



How an OTFT Works: Accumulation

Charge injected from the source by a gate voltage, V_{GS} , at very low drain voltage, V_D , and hence low channel current (i.e. ohmic):

$$Q(x) = n(x)qt = C_G(V_G - V(x))$$

Charge layer thickness

But contact resistance and potential, charge trapping, grain boundaries, etc. prevent channel conduction until a threshold voltage V_T is reached:

$$Q(x) = n(x)qt = C_G(V_G - V_T - V(x))$$

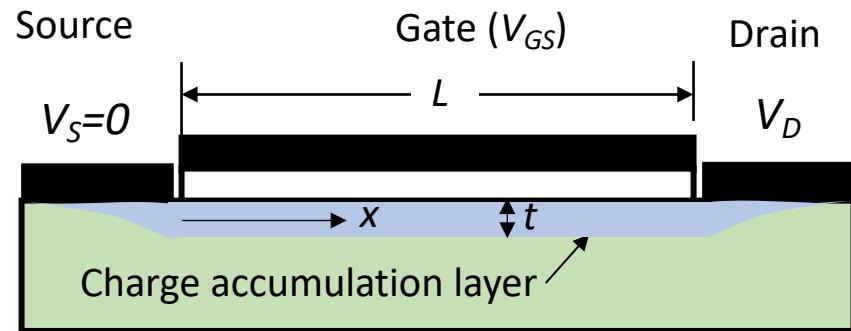
Following Ohm's Law:

$$I_D = A\sigma F = W(n_{ave}qt)\mu \frac{V_D}{L}$$

At low voltage, conduction is ohmic \Rightarrow we can use the average channel voltage drop $V_D/2$.

Or, in the linear regime of operation:

$$I_D = \frac{W}{L}C_G\mu \left(V_G - V_T - \frac{V_D}{2} \right) V_D = \frac{W}{L}C_G\mu \left((V_G - V_T)V_D - \frac{V_D^2}{2} \right)$$



Field-effect mobility is **not** bulk mobility

$$\mu = \mu_{FE}$$

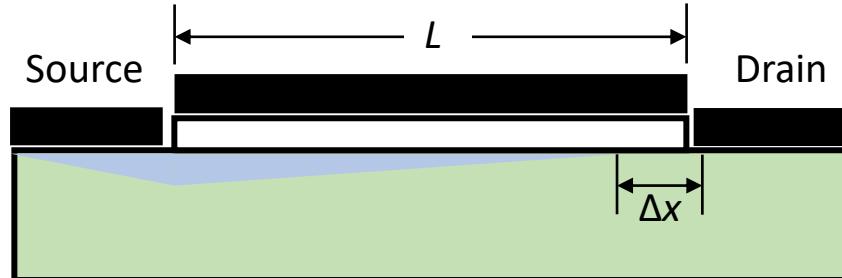
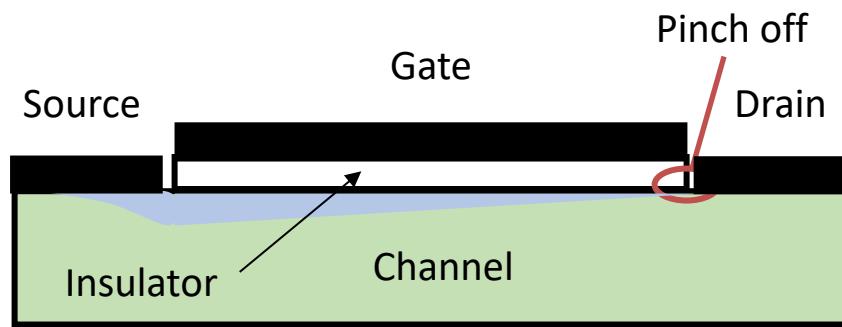
In the Saturation Region

In the linear regime ($V_G - V_T \gg V_D$), we calculate the transconductance:

$$g_m = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_G} \Big|_{V_D} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} V_D$$

And the output conductance:

$$g_o = \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_D} \Big|_{V_G} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} (V_G - V_T)$$



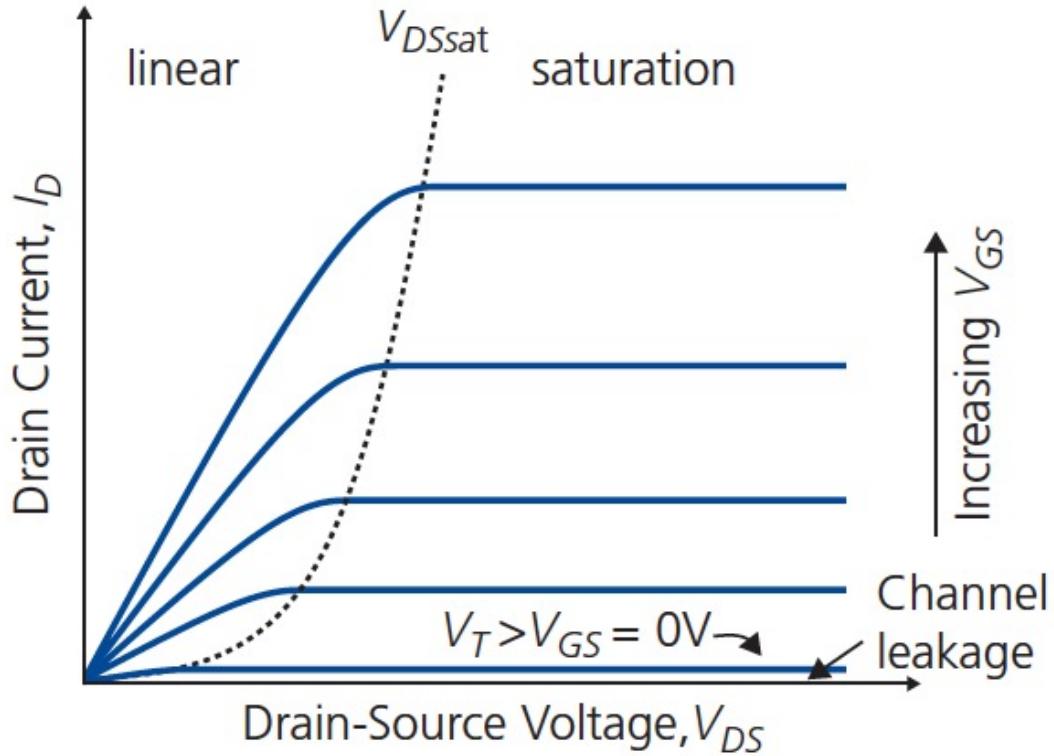
Due to contact and other parasitic resistances, μ_{lin} gives errors, so mostly use saturation characteristics:

- When $V_D = V_G - V_T$, the channel pinches off
- Between pinchoff point and drain, $n \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow F \rightarrow$ large to maintain current continuity ($j = nq\mu F$)
- No more current (except leakage) enters channel with increasing V_D , hence we are in the saturation regime.

Then: $I_D = \frac{W}{2L} C_G \mu_{sat} (V_G - V_T)^2$

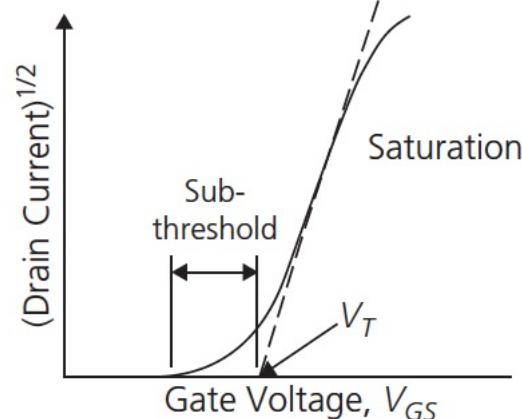
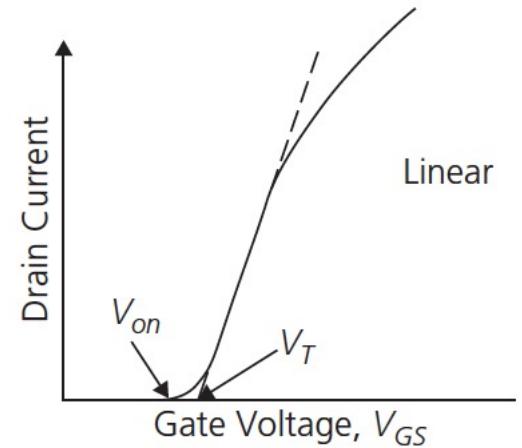
Plot of $I_D^{1/2}$ vs. V_G gives both μ_{sat} and V_T

Ideal Unipolar OTFT Characteristics



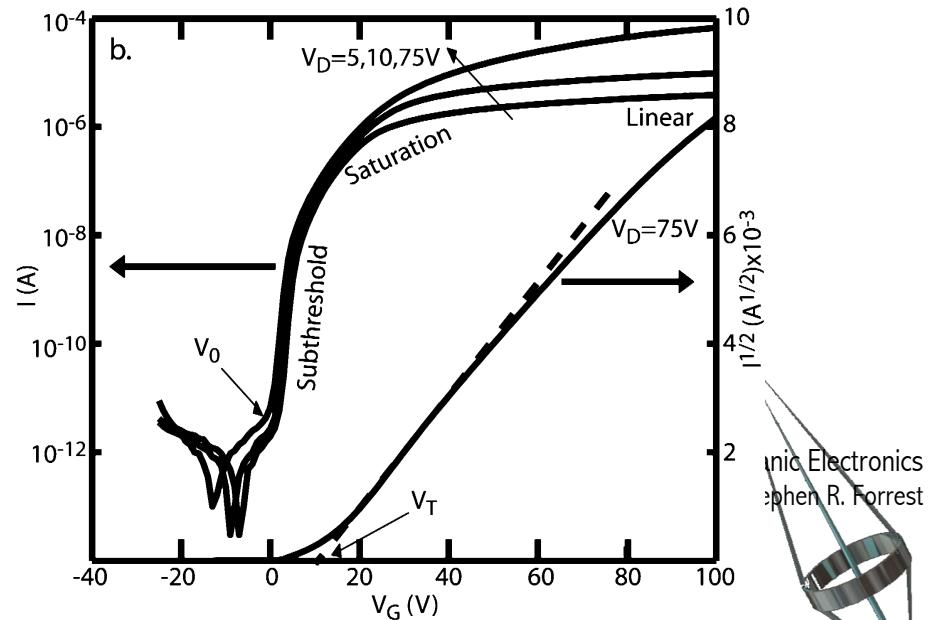
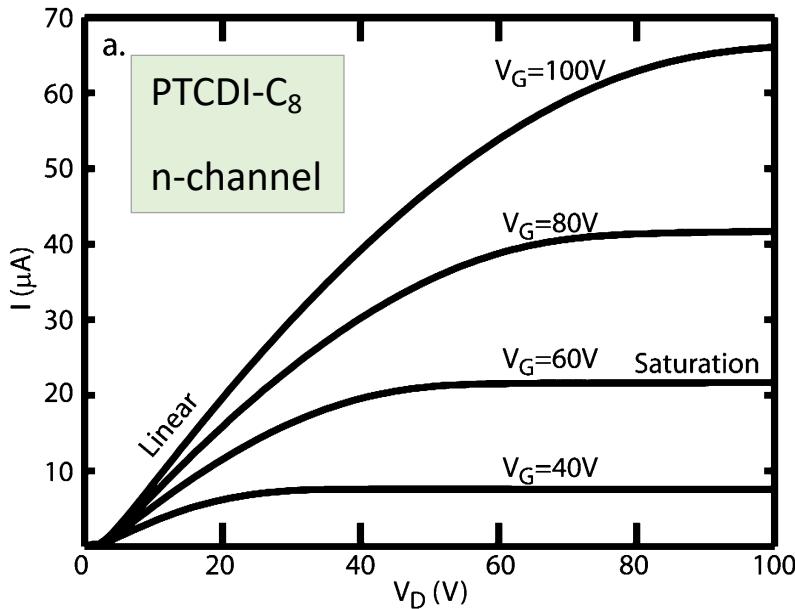
$$I_D = \mu \frac{W}{L} C_G ((V_G - V_T)V_D - \frac{V_D^2}{2}) \quad g_m = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_G} \right|_{V_D} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} V_D$$

$$I_D = \frac{W}{2L} C_G \mu_{sat} (V_G - V_T)^2 \quad g_o = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_D} \right|_{V_G} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} (V_G - V_T)$$



DC Characteristics of an OTFT

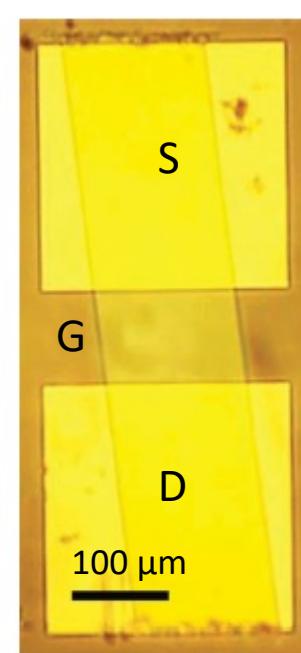
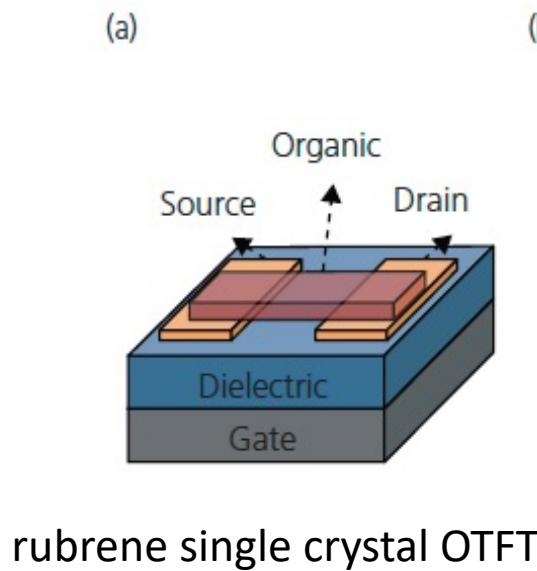
- Pentacene most frequently employed small molecule for OTFT
- $\mu_{FE} \sim 1 - 1.5 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$
- DC mobility as high as $40 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$ measured in rubrene using OTFTs: is it reliable? (Takeya, et al. Appl. Phys. Lett. **90** 102120 (2007))
- OTFTs measure interface conductance, not mobility.



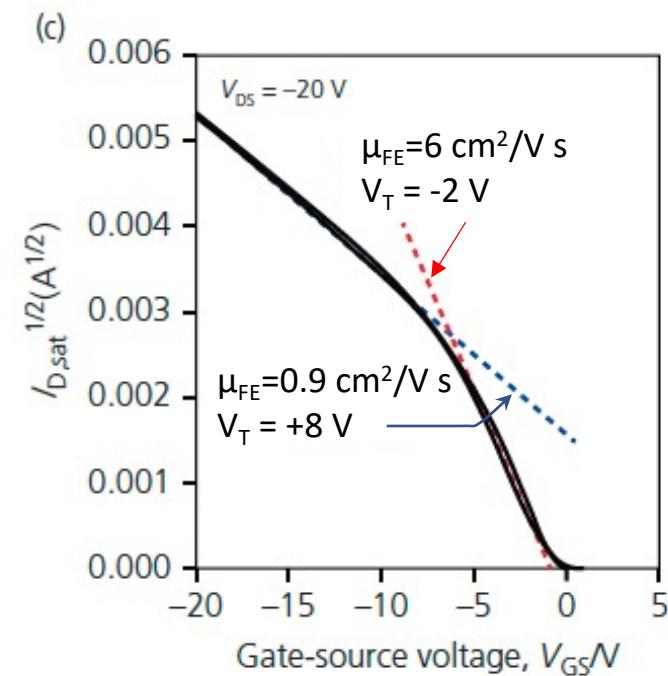
Equating Field Effect With Bulk Mobilities

- What could go wrong?

Two μ_{FE} and V_T extracted from I_D - V_{GS} characteristics: Which is right?
⇒OTFT does not follow conventional theory due to exponential distribution of states near conduction level edge



rubrene single crystal OTFT

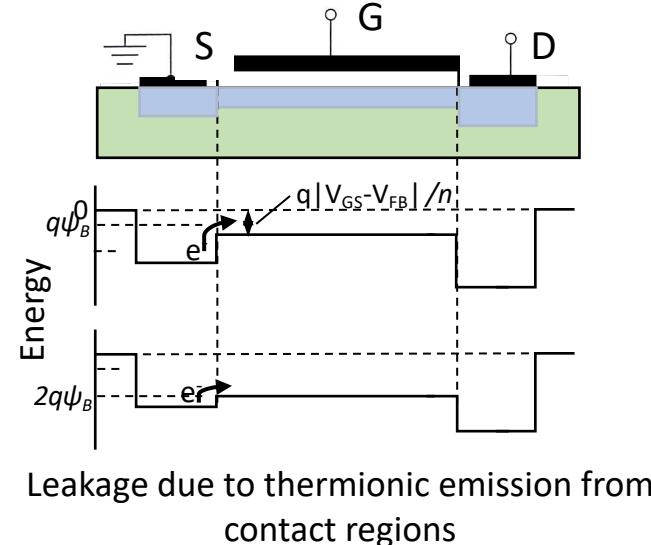


Subthreshold slope

- Measure of how small a voltage swing needed to turn on a transistor
- Determines noise margin of a circuit (i.e. how easy is it for a “1” to be mistaken for a “0”)

Definition: $S = \frac{\partial V_{GS}}{\partial (\log_{10} I_D)}$

@ $V_{on} < V_{GS} < V_T$



Imperfect contacts, traps lead to injection barrier at source:

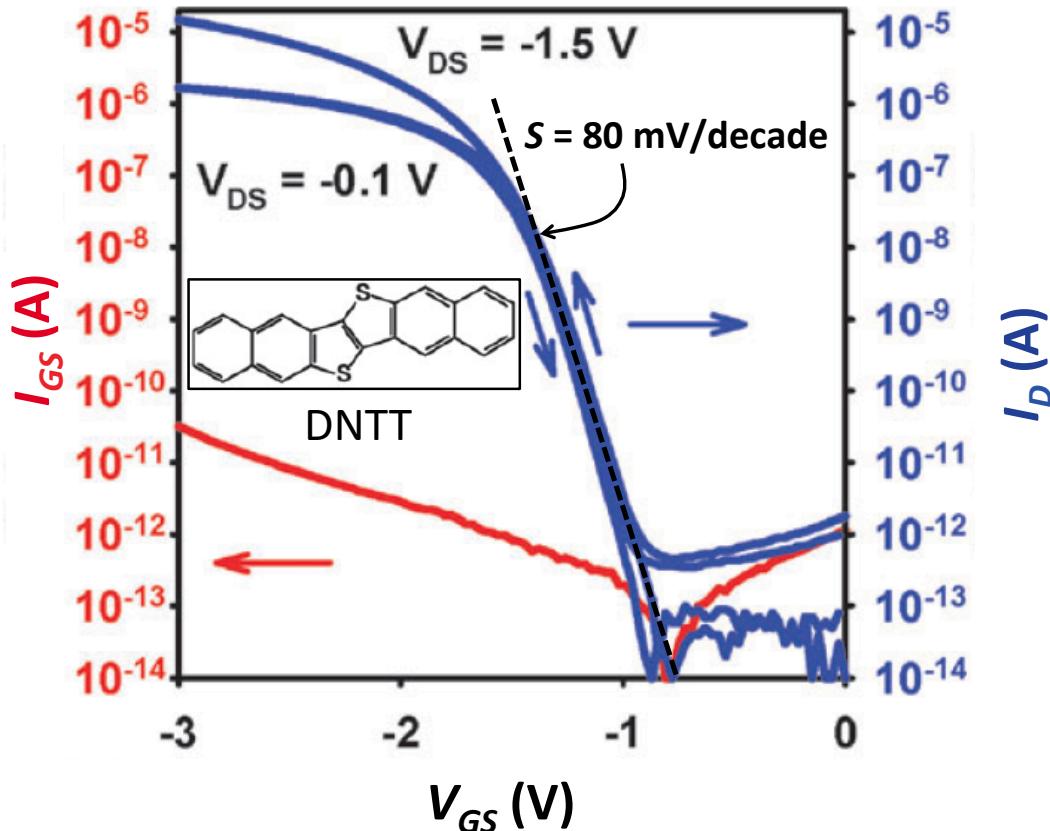
$$I_D = I_{D0} \exp\left(q|V_{GS} - V_{FB}|/nk_B T\right) = I'_{D0} \exp\left(qV_{GS}/nk_B T\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow S = 2.3 \frac{nk_B T}{q} \quad n = 1 \Rightarrow S = 60 \text{ mV/decade}$$

Theoretical minimum slope

A high performance OTFT

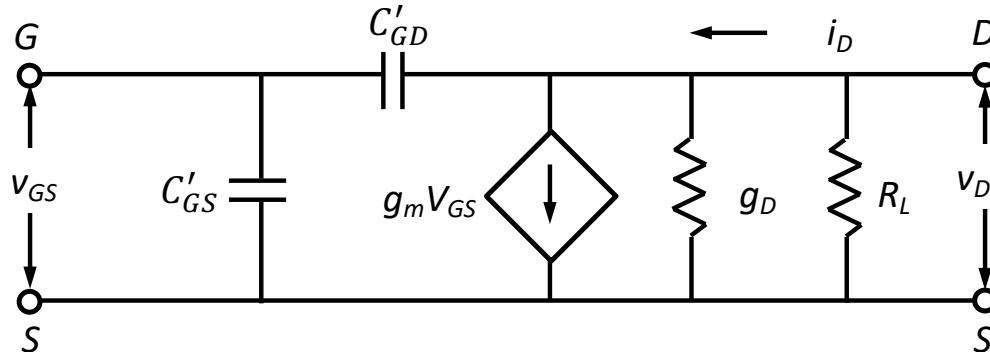
BG/TC



- p or n channel?
- $L/W = 10 \mu\text{m}/100 \mu\text{m}$
- Al gate
- AlO_x gate insulator, 3.6 nm thick, PVD grown coated with alkylphosphonic acid SAM

OTFT Bandwidth

Small signal equivalent circuit



C'_{GS} = total gate-source capacitance (including parasitics)

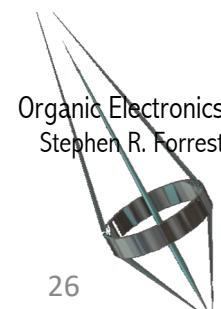
C'_{GD} = total gate-drain capacitance

R_L = external load resistance

$$\text{Small signal input (gate) current: } i_{GS} = WLC_G \frac{\partial v_{GS}}{\partial t} \Big|_{V_{DS}} = j\omega(WLC_G)v_{GS} = j2\pi f(WLC_G)v_{GS}$$

$$\text{Small signal output (drain) current: } i_D = g_D v_{DS} + g_m v_{GS} \Rightarrow i_D \approx g_m v_{GS} \text{ since } g_D \rightarrow 0$$

The maximum transistor bandwidth is reached when the current gain $\left| \frac{i_D}{i_G} \right| = 1$



Miller Capacitance and Gain

The capacitance is equal to the input (C_{GS}) in parallel with the output capacitance (C_{GD}) “amplified” by the circuit gain, A_v , that is:

$$C_G = C_{GS} + C_{GD}(1 + A_v)$$

where $A_v = \frac{\partial v_{DS}}{\partial v_{GS}} = \frac{\partial v_{DS}}{\partial i_D} \frac{\partial i_D}{\partial v_{GS}} = \left(R_L \parallel \frac{1}{g'_D} \right) g_m$

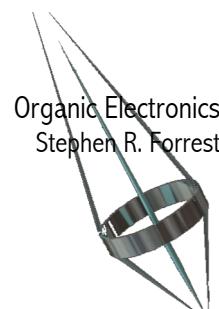
$$C_M = C_{GD}(1 + A_v)$$

This amplified output capacitance is called the “Miller capacitance” or the “Miller effect”

But the output conductance is small: $R_L \parallel \frac{1}{g'_D} \rightarrow R_L$

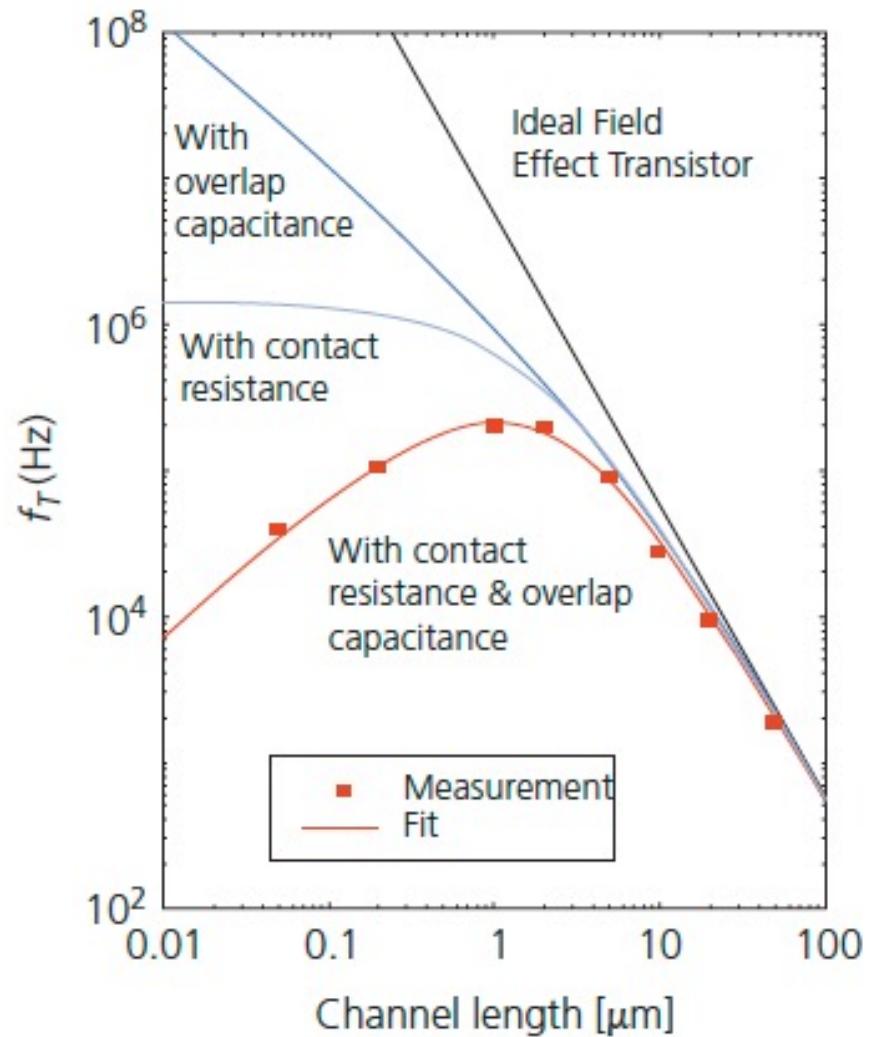
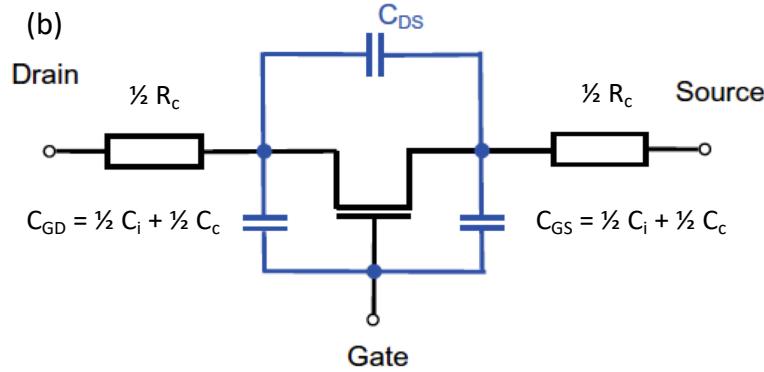
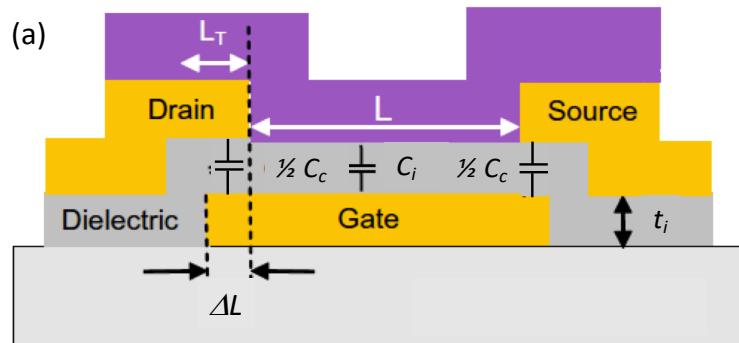
From these expressions, we get the cutoff, or transfer frequency:

$$f_T = \frac{g_m}{2\pi WLC_G} = \frac{g_m}{2\pi WL(C_{GS} + C_M)}$$



Capacitance and Frequency Response

Sources of parasitic capacitances



Combining Effects of Resistance and Capacitance

The transconductance and output conductances are reduced by drain and source contact resistances

$$g'_m = \frac{g_m}{1 + r_S g_m} \quad g'_D = \frac{g_D}{1 + (r_S + r_D) g_D}$$

As is the frequency response

$$f_T = \frac{\mu_{FE0} (V_{GS} - V_T)}{2\pi L (L + \Delta L)} \left[\frac{1}{1 + W \mu_{FE0} C_G (V_{GS} - V_T) R_C / L} \right]$$

Where the total contact resistance is the series contributions from S and D: $R_C = r_S + r_D$

High Bandwidth OTFTs

