

## Mid-infrared ultrafast carrier dynamics in thin film black phosphorus

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## LETTER

## Mid-infrared ultrafast carrier dynamics in thin film black phosphorus

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9 June 2017Vasudevan Iyer<sup>1</sup>, Peide Ye<sup>2</sup> and Xianfan Xu<sup>1</sup><sup>1</sup> Department of Mechanical Engineering and Birck Nanotechnology Center, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907, United States of America<sup>2</sup> Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Birck Nanotechnology Center, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907, United States of AmericaE-mail: [xxu@ecn.purdue.edu](mailto:xxu@ecn.purdue.edu)**Keywords:** black phosphorus, mid-infrared spectroscopy, carrier dynamics, ultrafast spectroscopySupplementary material for this article is available [online](#)**Abstract**

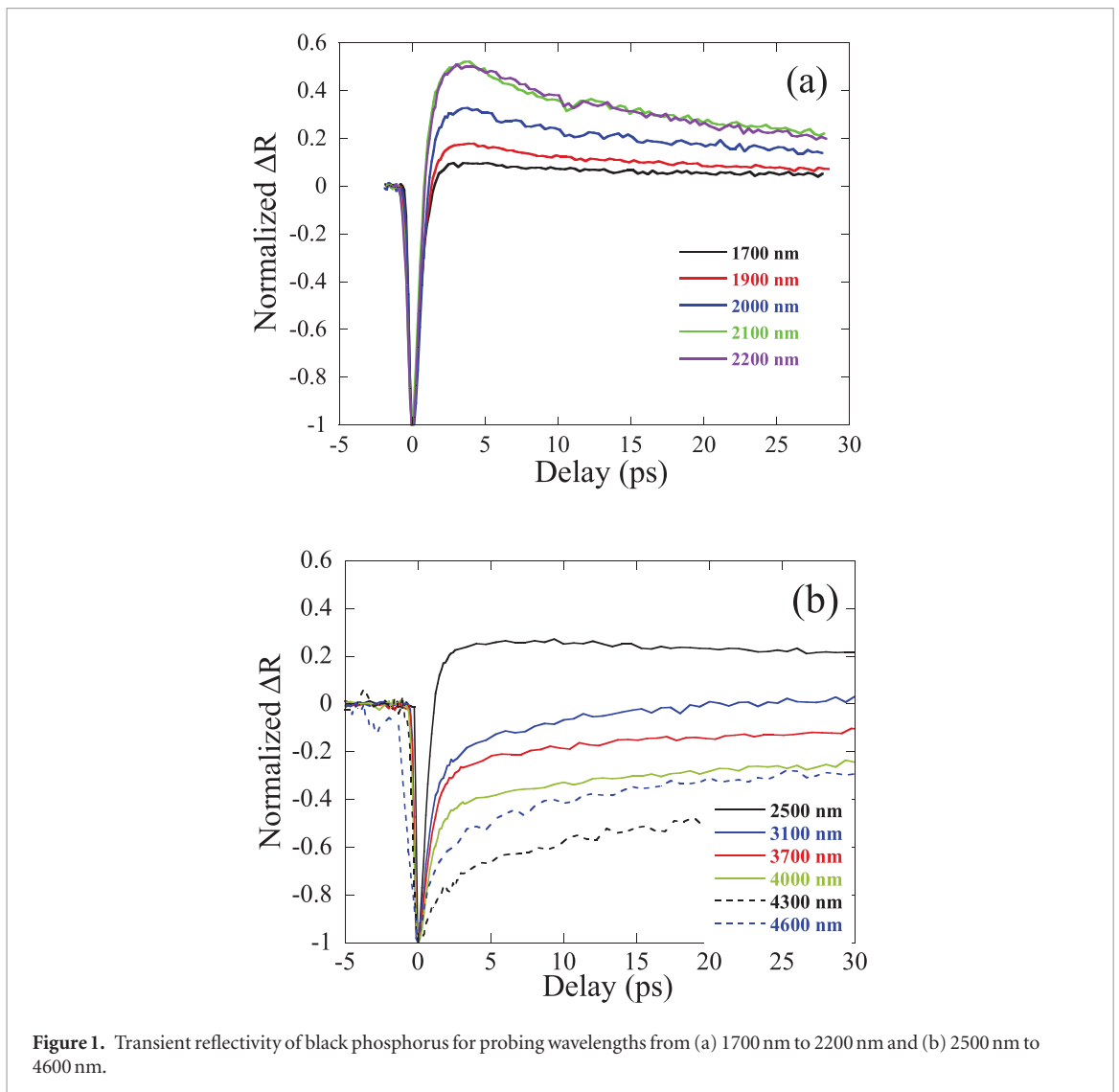
Black phosphorus is emerging as a promising semiconductor for electronic and optoelectronic applications. To study fundamental carrier properties, we performed ultrafast femtosecond pump-probe spectroscopy on thin film black phosphorus mechanically exfoliated on a glass substrate. Carriers (electrons and holes) were excited to high energy levels and the process of carrier relaxation through phonon emission and recombination was probed. We used a wide range of probing wavelengths up to and across the band gap to study the evolution of the relaxation dynamics at different energy levels. Our experiments revealed a plethora of important physical phenomena. The fast relaxation time constants, associated with carrier-phonon scattering, steadily increase as the energy of the probe beam approaches the band gap energy, which was determined to be 0.31 eV, and the carrier recombination rate was obtained when the probe wavelength was tuned to match the band gap energy. The carrier-phonon scattering rates were found to be similar along the armchair and zigzag directions, therefore, the anisotropic carrier mobility reported in literature is mainly due to the difference in effective mass of carriers along different directions. The ultrafast spectroscopy data further revealed the oxidation induced surface charges. Our results highlight the importance of using the spectroscopy technique, in this case, in the mid-IR range, to uncover useful physical processes.

Since the last decade there has been an increasing interest in the study of 2D materials, especially graphene and transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDC) for fabricating many electronic and optoelectronic devices [1–11]. Black phosphorus has emerged as a recent material in this field and has shown promises with its direct bandgap, anisotropic electronic, optical, and thermal properties, and good device performance [12–19]. Black phosphorus has a direct bandgap in the bulk of around 0.35 eV and can become as large as 1.5 eV in the monolayer form according to first principles calculations, photoluminescence studies, and electrical measurements [12, 13, 20–23]. The direct bandgap is attractive for use in electronic devices such as solar cells [24, 25] and photodetectors [26–29]. Black phosphorus has also been successfully tested as a transistor channel material [30–32].

Given the vast interest in black phosphorus, it is important to investigate its properties at a fundamental level. Ultrafast optical spectroscopy is very useful

in understanding carrier scattering, relaxation, and recombination processes. Many ultrafast studies have been carried out on graphene [33–39] and TMDC such as MoS<sub>2</sub> [40–43]. There have also been a few ultrafast optical studies on black phosphorus which have brought out the enhancement of anisotropic behavior after photoexcitation [44], provided upper bounds for mobility values through spatial scanning study [45], and highlighted the carrier decay process at long time scales which was attributed to carrier lifetime, i.e. recombination [46]. A recent article investigated the decay process of excited carriers at short time scales on liquid exfoliated black phosphorus nanosheets and determined the carrier-phonon scattering times at a few different probing energy levels corresponding to commonly encountered laser emission lines [47].

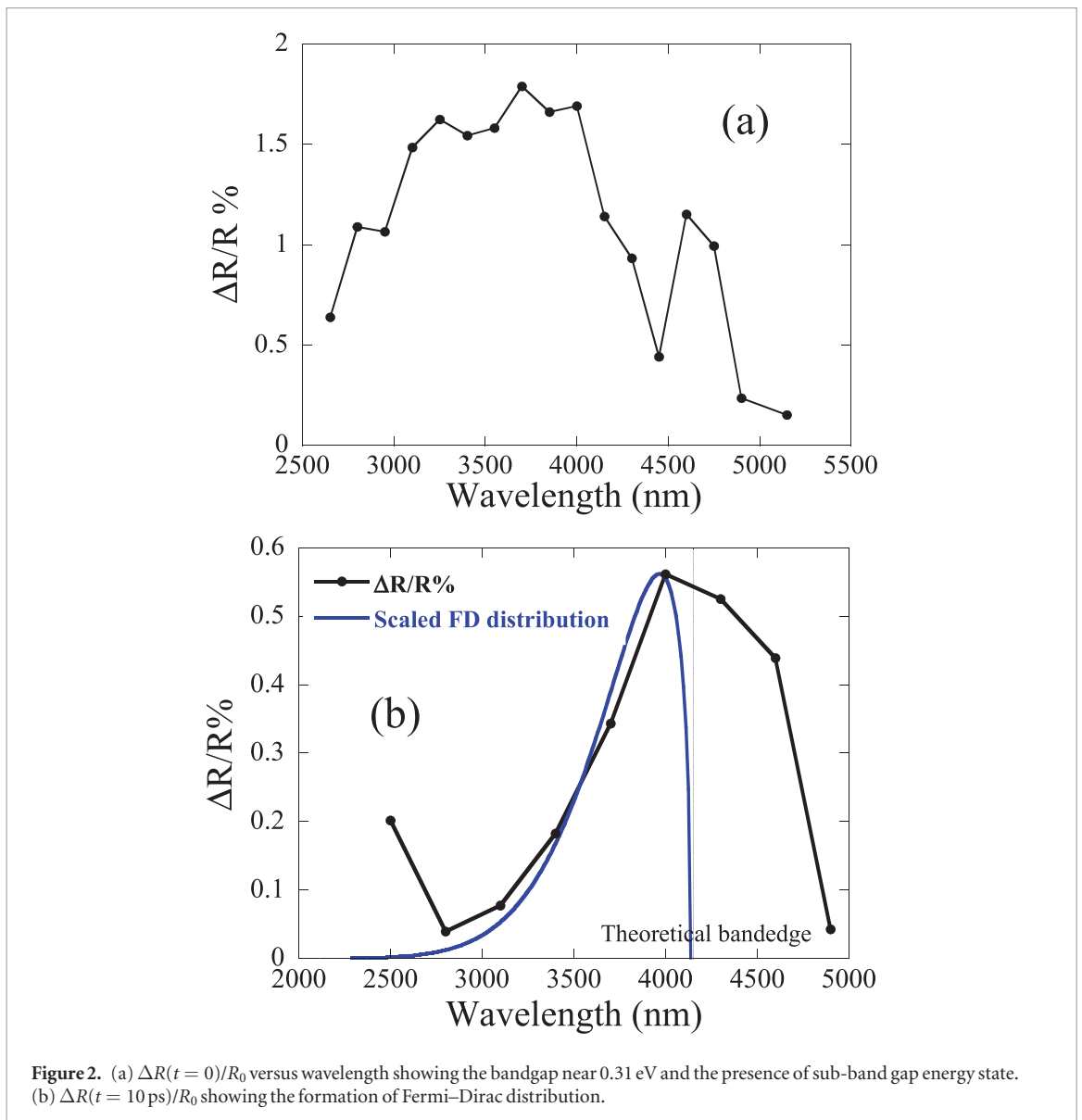
Most ultrafast pump-probe studies are performed with one excitation wavelength and one probe wavelength. On the other hand, probing a range of wavelengths or equivalently a range of energy states,



especially near the band edge, can uncover the vital information about the carrier relaxation process as demonstrated for graphene and MoS<sub>2</sub> [33, 36, 48]. In this study, we focus on understanding the evolution of the decay of excited states with varied probe energy approaching the band gap of black phosphorus, and relate the ultrafast dynamics with fundamental transport properties. The scattering processes in black phosphorus in different directions are studied in order to gauge their importance in the observed anisotropic carrier mobility. A previous study [47] obtained a direction averaged scattering rate using randomly oriented flakes produced by liquid exfoliation and present the carrier dynamics at select probing energies. We systematically varied the probing direction and energies on a mechanically exfoliated flake, and find carrier scattering rates along the armchair and zigzag directions with a saturation of scattering time as the probe energy is tuned closer to and below the band edge, which helps to reveal the origin of anisotropic transport properties. The information on recombination was obtained when the probing wavelength was tuned to the band gap energy. Finally, the ultrafast spectroscopy data also revealed surface charge induced by oxidation.

The transient reflectance data obtained using the 792 nm pump wavelength polarized along the armchair direction and probe wavelengths varied from 1700 nm to 2200 nm, also polarized along the armchair direction are presented in figure 1(a). Data for wavelengths from 2500 nm to 4600 nm are shown in figure 1(b). All the datasets have been normalized by their minimum values to  $-1$ . Change in reflectance is defined as the reflectance after pump excitation minus the reflectance without any pump excitation. The details of the ultrafast experiment and flake exfoliation are provided in supplementary note 1 and 2 ([stacks.iop.org/TDM/4/021032/mmedia](https://stacks.iop.org/TDM/4/021032/mmedia)), respectively.

During photoexcitation by a femtosecond laser pulse, carriers are generated at those energy levels in the conduction and valence band that correspond to vertical transitions in an E-k band diagram at the pumping energy. These carriers have momentum along the polarization direction of the pump. They then randomize their momentum and energy by carrier-carrier scattering processes. This randomization process is fast and beyond the measurement time resolution (see supplementary note 4). The next step is the formation of a thermalized distribution which can be represented by



**Figure 2.** (a)  $\Delta R(t = 0)/R_0$  versus wavelength showing the bandgap near 0.31 eV and the presence of sub-band gap energy state. (b)  $\Delta R(t = 10 \text{ ps})/R_0$  showing the formation of Fermi–Dirac distribution.

the Fermi–Dirac (FD) distribution. In order to achieve thermalization, carriers must move closer to the band edge in energy space and this implies intraband relaxation. The first decay in the experimental data after the initial electron bleach (Pauli blocking), starting at zero picosecond (rising from  $\Delta R = -1$ ) and of the order of one picosecond is attributed to carrier-phonon scattering leading to the formation of a thermalized carrier distribution [46, 47]. Pauli blocking is a result of occupation of carriers at the probing energy level. As the carriers emit phonons and relax to states closer to the band edge, the contribution from Pauli blocking diminishes, reflecting in the rise in the reflectivity signal. The second decay that starts from a few picoseconds, and is much slower, is attributed to the carrier recombination and lattice heating, and the time scales (10–100 ps) are in good agreement with published work [44–46]. This second decay is thus an interband relaxation process. As can be seen from figure 2(a), for wavelengths closer to the band edge,  $\Delta R_{\text{max}}/R_0$  is greater. This is because energies closer to the band edge have a higher carrier population after carrier–carrier thermalization and

thus produce a higher  $\Delta R$ , though the distribution is non Fermi–Dirac. The data shown in figure 2(a) also indicates that the bulk bandgap is close to 4000 nm (0.31 eV), in agreement with previous theoretical work [12, 13, 20], recent FTIR data [49], and electrical measurements [23]. Additionally, a second peak about 40 meV below the band edge was also observed, which can be attributed to either exciton as theoretically predicted [20] or acceptor energy state as experimentally observed [50, 51]. Figure 2(b) shows  $\Delta R/R_0$  at 10 ps delay time and a more Fermi–Dirac like behavior is evident by the comparison with the theoretically computed curve. The slight increase below 3000 nm is due to the sign change in the signal which arises due to the surface doping and will be discussed subsequently. Supplementary note 5 provides transmission data taken for a cluster of randomly oriented flakes. The band gap obtained from the transmission measurement fully agree with the ultrafast spectroscopy data presented in figure 2. The transient signal vanishes when the probe wavelength is above 4600 nm (below the sub-band gap energy state, supplementary note 6).

Bi-exponential fitting is used to extract the time constants for the fast and slow decays at different wavelengths:

$$\Delta R_{t>0} = A * \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_1}\right) + B * \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau_2}\right) + C \quad (1)$$

The constant term  $C$  is attributed to the much slower thermal energy dissipation due to lattice heating.  $A$  and  $B$  are the amplitudes for the exponentials.  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are the fast and slow decay times. Examples of fitting for the 2200 and 4000 nm probes using Equation (1) are shown in supplementary note 7, which show that the bi-exponential function can represent the signals well.

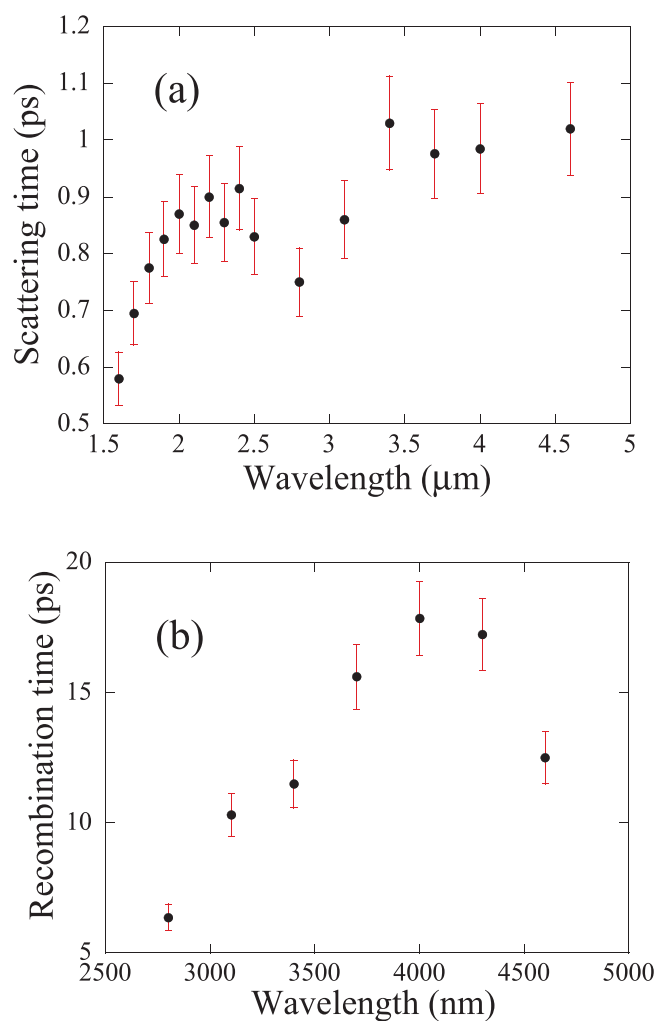
Figure 3(a) shows that the carrier-phonon scattering time at different energy levels approaches a value of about 1 ps as the probe energy approaches the band gap energy. This increase in the scattering time can be understood by the fact that as carriers approach the band edge, there are fewer channels to dissipate energy in the intraband relaxation process. From the Raman measurements, the optical phonon energy for black phosphorus is about 50 meV. Though there are other lower energy phonon modes, their strength (population) is much lower compared to the  $A_g$  and  $B_{2g}$  mode phonons [52]. Probing the sample with 0.4 eV (3100 nm) photons corresponds approximately to 50 meV above the band edge in both conduction and valence band. Since the excited carriers are expected to form a thermalized distribution a few meV above the band edge, carriers probed by 0.4 eV light are at the limit of one optical phonon emission, and probing with photon energy less than 0.4 eV leads to the relaxation time saturation behavior. Due to the femtosecond pulse width, the high bandwidth of the laser (20 meV energy resolution) is another limiting factor which could prevent us from observing the effects of lower energy phonon modes.

Using the carrier-phonon scattering times  $\tau_1$  obtained at the probing wavelength corresponding to the band gap, and  $\mu = \frac{q\tau}{m^*}$ , carrier mobility can be calculated. It is known that black phosphorus exhibits anisotropic transport properties along its armchair and zigzag directions such as mobility [12, 13]. Therefore, carrier-phonon scattering was also measured along the zigzag direction and is shown in the supplementary note 8. An ambipolar mobility of about  $1900 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  along the zigzag direction and  $22000 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  along the armchair direction are obtained. The effective mass of electrons (holes) along the armchair direction is taken as 0.0825 (0.0761)  $m_0$  whereas along the zigzag direction is 1.027 (0.648)  $m_0$  [53]. Since electrons and holes have similar effective mass, the ambipolar mobility, defined as  $\mu_a = \frac{2\mu_e\mu_h}{\mu_e + \mu_h}$ , can be considered as an average carrier mobility. The ambipolar mobility is determined since the experimental data are a result of relaxation of both electrons and holes. The scattering time obtained is the upper limit for both holes and electrons, and given the comparable

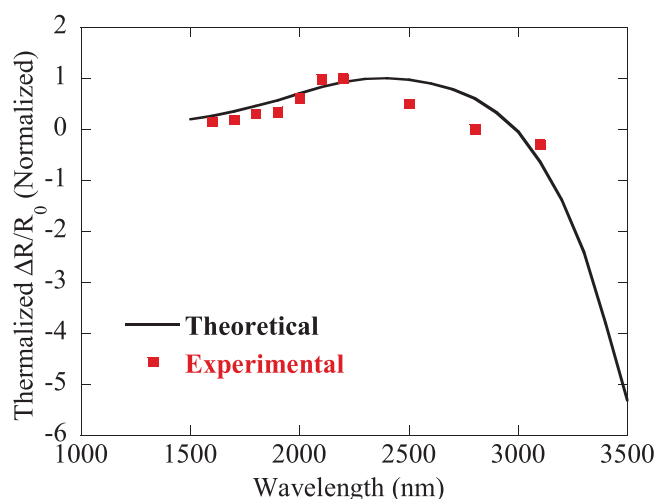
valence and conduction bands, similar scattering times are expected for electrons and holes. Our estimation of the mobility is reasonable compared to previous ultrafast experimental work (but with a probe wavelength of 810 nm) which determined a value of around  $3000 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  for the zigzag direction and  $50000 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  for the armchair direction [45]. From figure 3 we can see the importance of probing near the bandgap to extract the correct scattering rates needed in calculations. Theoretical study predicted values in the  $10^3 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  range [12]. However for fabricated devices, the mobilities were found not to exceed  $1000 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  [13, 16, 30, 32, 54, 55]. The bulk and surface impurity scattering at equilibrium, which affects only the momentum of carriers (not their energy), would account for further reduction in mobility in devices which were not captured in the ultrafast spectroscopy experiments that are sensitive to changes in energy. Thus our experiment provides an upper limit for mobility.

The slow decay time (recombination time),  $\tau_2$ , also increases when the probing wavelength approaches the band gap energy. This is because that the carriers, not at the band edge (4000 nm), scatter with phonons and move toward low energy levels. Hence, due to the additional relaxation channel, the higher energy carriers appear to have a faster recombination time. The recombination time, independent of carrier phonon scattering, must be evaluated at the bandgap energy. At the 4000 nm probing wavelength, the recombination time  $\tau_2$  is found to be about 18 ps. Figure 3(b) also shows that the recombination time at sub-band gap wavelength 4600 nm is about 12 ps. Since the data indicate both sub-band gap carriers and carriers in the delocalized bands relax with a comparable time, we expect a similar recombination mechanism for both, e.g. phonon assisted recombination. It is likely that the sub-band gap signal arises from acceptor states (versus from excitons) because it displays features similar to the band edge probe (4000 nm). These states are filled after rapid carrier-carrier scattering (fast drop in  $\Delta R$ ) and subsequently carrier-phonon scattering displaces carriers from the sub-band gap states to the delocalized states (fast rise in  $\Delta R$ ). For excitons, we would expect a different dynamics because the bound states should possibly show much longer decay times [48, 56].

It is worthwhile to look more closely at the relaxation process as the wavelength is varied. For shorter wavelengths (e.g. 2200 nm, figure 1(a)), a positive peak is observed, but the peak does not rise above zero for wavelengths longer than 3100 nm (figure 1(b)). We propose that such optical response is related to surface charges. It is known that oxidation can induce surface doping on the order of  $10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  [32]. Photoexcited holes in the bulk thermalize close to the band edge whereas photoexcited holes at the surface thermalize with the existing hole population due to doping by oxidation (see supplementary note 9). This creates an excess hole population at slightly higher energies in the valence



**Figure 3.** (a) Fast and (b) slow time constants with different probe energy. The fit uncertainty is about 8%.



**Figure 4.** Theoretical estimate of  $\Delta R/R$  and experimental values around 2000 nm. The experimental points are at 3 ps delay, i.e. after thermalization.

band and changes the dielectric constant. The change in dielectric constant is reflected in the spectroscopy data, which indicates variation of the (peak) reflectivity at different probing wavelengths corresponding to different energy levels in the valence band. We performed a

calculation of the change in the dielectric constant at the surface and bulk and related it to the change in reflectivity in supplementary note 9. Results of the calculated reflectivity reproduces the observed positive change in reflectivity signals, as shown in figure 4.

In conclusion, we have carried out ultrafast infrared spectroscopy on thin film black phosphorus and found that the near band gap phonon-scattering time is close to 1 picosecond which is limited by the optical phonon scattering processes. By investigating energy relaxation of carriers with a tunable probe energy, it is found that carrier-phonon scattering time saturates when the probe energy reaches close to the band edge, which can be used to extract fundamental properties such as mobility. From the transient reflectivity data for different excitation and probing polarizations corresponding to the different anisotropic directions in black phosphorus, we find a similar scattering time along the armchair and zigzag directions. The major factor controlling the carrier mobility is thus the difference in the effective mass resulted from anisotropic band structure of the material rather than the scattering processes. The recombination time was also seen to increase as the probing wavelength approached the band edge. A sub-band gap energy state was also observed and attributed to acceptor states. Lastly, we used an optical property model for qualitatively explaining the spectroscopic features in the data, and found contributions due to surface doping by oxidation. Our work shows the importance of selecting the right probing wavelengths to study carrier dynamics in semiconductors displaying variety of interesting phenomena.

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The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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