

## Investigation of field-effect passivation and interface state parameters at the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Si}$ interface

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**Abstract:** The field-effect passivation of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films deposited by plasma-assisted atomic layer deposition (PA-ALD) for p- and n-type c-Si was investigated. The effective surface recombination velocity ( $S_{\text{eff}}$ ) at the PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Si}$  interface was obtained by both positive corona charge and lifetime measurements with a gate bias voltage on a metal-oxide-silicon-oxide-metal (MOSOM) structure. The phenomenon of little drop of  $S_{\text{eff}}$  with high positive voltage applied on p-type wafer passivated by PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was observed which is consistent with the slight  $S_{\text{eff}}$  decrease with long time positive corona charge. Energy dependent capture cross sections for electrons and holes were calculated simulated for the PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  interface by a method proposed by K. Yasutake. It was found that the maximum capture cross section of electrons is approximately 100 times larger than that of holes. Electron traps exist in PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer which is illustrated by observed electron injection phenomenon for both positive and negative biased MOS structure. The ability of electron injection from silicon to  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  can be controlled by changing  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposition parameters.

**Key words:** atomic layer deposition, field effect passivation, solar cell, capture cross section,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$

### INTRODUCTION

Surface passivation of crystalline silicon(c-Si) currently is becoming increasingly important for high-efficiency and low-cost solar cells. The importance of surface passivation becomes greater as the substrate thickness for solar cells is reduced for the sake of material cost reductions. Currently three thin film materials are industrially employed for surface passivation of c-Si solar cells: thermally grown silicon dioxide(thermal  $\text{SiO}_2$ ), [1] PECVD silicon nitride(a-SiNx:H) [2, 3] and amorphous silicon(a-Si :H) [4, 5]. But none of them is suitable to passivate boron doped emitter of n-type solar cells, which are relative insensitive to various impurities and defects compared with p-type material [6-8].

Thin films of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  on p- and n-type c-Si yield exceptionally low surface recombination velocities [9], enabling improved c-Si solar cell efficiencies [10]. PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  limits the emitter saturation current density of B-diffused p+-emitters to 10 and 30  $\text{fA}/\text{cm}^2$  on 100 and 54  $\Omega/\square$  sheet resistance p+-emitters, respectively [11]. The excellent passivation performance by PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layers is attributed to the high negative fixed charge density, about  $1 \times 10^{13} \text{cm}^{-2}$  after anneal, which is especially of benefit for boron doped emitters.

In this paper, the field-effect passivation of PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  films was investigated by positive corona charge and lifetime measurements with gate bias voltage on a MOSOM structure. A phenomenon of slight passivation performance recovery upon long time positive corona charge was observed, which is confirmed by another experiment applying gradually increasing positive voltage on a similar wafer. The energy dependent capture cross section of holes and electrons for ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  interface was simulated according to a method proposed by K. Yasutake [12]. Electronic and chemical properties of ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  interface was given by

capacitance-voltage(CV) measurements with fixed negative charge density  $Q_f = 4.3 \times 10^{12} \text{cm}^{-2}$  and interface state density  $D_{\text{it, midgap}} = 7 \times 10^{10} \text{eV}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ . Field effect passivation related with fixed negative charge density can be improved by increased  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  surface potential, such as positive voltage bias or corona charge.

### EXPERIMENT

Samples for lifetime measurement, corona charge and voltage-lifetime measurements were FZ p-type, 0.8  $\Omega\text{-cm}$  (100) wafers; some FZ n-type, 4  $\Omega\text{-cm}$  (100) wafers were used as well. C-V measurements were conducted on Cz p-type, 1-10  $\Omega\text{-cm}$  (100) and Cz n-type, 1-10  $\Omega\text{-cm}$  (100) silicon wafers. After a standard RCA clean, about 20nm  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer was deposited in a Beneq TFS-200 ALD system at deposition temperature of 175°C with TMA and plasma oxygen as precursors. Passivation was activated by a 30min FGA anneal at 400°C. On some samples, ~5-8nm thick Al layers were grown to form a MOSOM structure for lifetime-voltage measurement [13]. Prior to C-V measurement, all insulator layers were removed from the rear of the samples, and Al dots with thickness of ~80nm were evaporated on the front and In/Ga contacts were formed on the rear of samples. Corona charging was carried out with a conventional setup [14] by applying voltage of +/-6 kV to a steel needle about 10 cm above the samples. Lifetime was measured on WTC-120 system at excess carrier concentration  $\Delta n = 1 \times 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3}$ .

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 1. Surface recombination velocity ( $S_{\text{eff}}$ ) with positive corona charge

The effective surface recombination velocity (SRV)  $S_{\text{eff}}$  is determined from the measured lifetime  $\tau_{\text{eff}}$  using the equation [15]:

$$S_{eff} = \frac{W}{2} \left[ \left( \tau_{eff} - \frac{W^2}{\pi^2 D} \right) - \frac{1}{\tau_b} \right] \quad (1)$$

Where  $W$  is the wafer thickness,  $D$  is the minority carrier diffusion constant, and  $\tau_b$  is the bulk lifetime, which accounts intrinsic radiative and Auger recombination.

Fig.1 shows that excellent surface passivation was obtained by plasma-assisted ALD  $Al_2O_3$  after annealing, with  $S_{eff} < 1 \text{ cm/s}$  for both low resistivity p- and n-type samples and lifetimes nearly equal to the intrinsic bulk lifetime calculated by Kerr's Auger model[16]. When sufficient positive corona charge was applied to the sample,  $S_{eff}$  increased sharply due to a reduction in field effect passivation, as the positive corona charge cancels out some of the negative charge of the  $Al_2O_3$  layer. However, as the positive charge density is further increased,  $S_{eff}$  only recovers to half its maximum value from 160 cm/s to 85 cm/s for p-type wafer. In contrast, for the n-type sample,  $S_{eff}$  decreases to ~5 cm/s. After an IPA dip, which is indicated by the solid symbols, passivation performance approaches the original level for both samples.

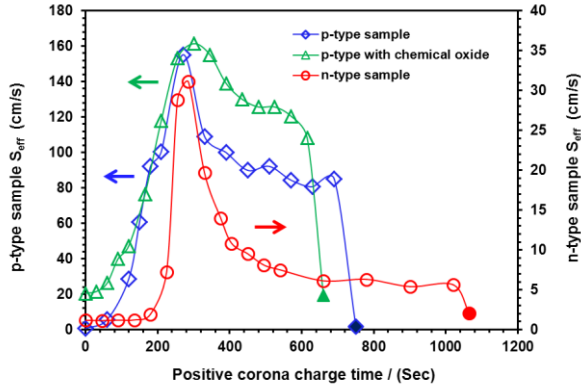


Fig.1. Measured  $S_{eff}$  values with a function of positive corona charging time. (Blue open squares:  $S_{eff}$  from FZ p-type  $0.8\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$  wafer; Red open circles:  $S_{eff}$  from FZ n-type  $4\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$  wafer; Green open triangles:  $S_{eff}$  from FZ p-type  $0.8\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$  wafer with thin chemical  $SiO_x$  synthesized during RCA clean; Solid end marks:  $S_{eff}$  obtained after samples were IPA dipped.

There are several possible reasons for this behavior. Firstly, the higher  $S_{eff}$  values with large positive corona charge density for all samples may be at least partly because the capture cross section of holes is larger than that of electrons, which will be studied in Part 2. With a large amount of positive charge on top of  $Al_2O_3$  layer, SRH recombination at the interface of  $Al_2O_3/Si$  is limited by the hole concentration, therefore a larger capture cross section of holes than electrons implies a higher  $S_{eff}$  value. Secondly, the higher  $S_{eff}$  values could be the result of an inhomogeneous surface distribution of the negative fixed charges built into the  $Al_2O_3$  film[14]. Finally, the difference in  $S_{eff}$  values between n and p type substrates could be the result of recombination in the depletion region [7].

In Fig.1, the presence of interfacial silicon oxide synthesized during RCA clean results in higher  $S_{eff}$ . This is not a result of decreased charge density since applying

more negative corona charge doesn't change this result. Furthermore, the sample with chemical oxide between silicon and  $Al_2O_3$  shows lower  $S_{eff}$  at inversion range, which indicates that chemical recombination parameters could be modified with the presence of chemical  $SiO_2$ . Three samples in Fig.1 illustrate very similar fixed negative charge density, as the largest  $S_{eff}$  for three curves was found after similar positive corona charging time

## 2. Capture cross section calculation for interface of Si/PA-ALD $Al_2O_3$

The effective surface recombination velocity  $S_{eff}$  defined at the edge of the surface depletion region can be calculated by standard Shockley-Read-Hall (SRH) theory[17, 18]. For a continuum of noninteracting interface state,  $S_{eff}$  is obtained by the following integration over the band gap:

$$S_{eff} = \frac{V_{th}(n_s p_s - n_i^2)}{\Delta n} \int_{E_v}^{E_c} \frac{D_{it}(E)}{\frac{n_s + n_i(E)}{\sigma_p(E)} + \frac{p_s + p_i(E)}{\sigma_n(E)}} dE \quad (2)$$

where

$$n_i = n_i \exp\left(\frac{E - E_i}{kT}\right), \quad p_i = p_i \exp\left(\frac{E - E_i}{kT}\right) \quad (3)$$

$n_i$  is the intrinsic carrier concentration,  $E$  the interface trap energy level,  $E_i$  the intrinsic Fermi level,  $E_c$  is the bottom of the conduction band,  $E_v$  is the top of valence band,  $V_{th}$  is the carrier thermal velocity,  $k$  is the Boltzman constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature,  $\Delta n$  is the injection carrier concentration,  $D_{it}$  is the interface state density, and  $\sigma_n$ ,  $\sigma_p$  are the capture cross sections for electrons and holes, respectively.

The concentration of electrons and holes at the surface of silicon can be written as:

$$n_s = n_i e^{\beta(\phi_s - \phi_n)}, \quad p_s = n_i e^{\beta(\phi_p - \phi_s)} \quad (4)$$

Where  $\beta = q/kT$ ,  $\phi_n$  and  $\phi_p$  are the quasi-Fermi potentials for electrons and holes, respectively,  $\phi_s$  is the surface band bending.

By differentiating Eq.2 with respect to  $\phi_s$ , the band bending  $\phi_{s,max}$  at which  $S_{eff}$  is at maximum can be obtained from  $dS_{eff}/d\phi_s = 0$ , which gives

$$\phi_{s,max} = \left( \frac{kT}{2q} \right) \ln \left( \frac{\sigma_p(E)(p_0 + \Delta n)}{\sigma_n(E)(n_0 + \Delta n)} \right) \quad (5)$$

From Eq.5, the  $\sigma_p/\sigma_n$  can be estimated.

The  $D_{it}$  distribution and  $Q_f$  were determined from C-V measurements. The defect density was calculated using the Castagne method[19] and the result is shown in Fig.2. A high negative fixed charge  $Q_f = 4.3 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  was obtained. We note that the interface state density reported here,  $D_{it,midgap} = 7 \times 10^{10} \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , is smaller than published data elsewhere.

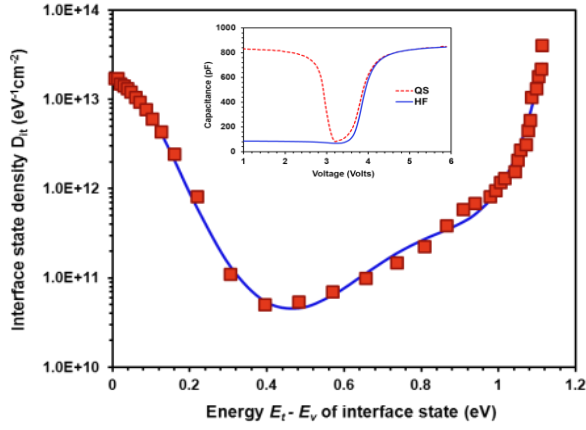


Fig.2 Capacitance voltage curves and interface state density as a function of the energy position  $E = E_t - E_v$  relative to the silicon valence band edge for a PA-ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer. The interface state density is  $D_{it, \text{midgap}} = 7 \times 10^{10} \text{eV}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ . The blue line marks the defect distribution used for the numerical calculations to get surface band bending.

In Fig.3 we tried to simulate results theoretically using  $D_{it}$  shown in Fig.2. From QSSPC measurements of the sample with a MOSOM structure, we obtained the effective lifetime  $\tau_{eff}$  as a function of gate voltage  $V_g$ , which was converted to  $S_{eff}$  using Eq.1 (shown in the inset of Fig.3). The corresponding surface potential  $\psi_s$  can be calculated through the extended SRH model[20] with an illumination level of  $\Delta n = 1 \times 10^{15} \text{cm}^{-3}$ , without consideration of charge in interfacial traps. From experimental data,  $\psi_{s, \text{max}} \sim -0.02 \text{V}$  is found and induced  $\sigma_p / \sigma_n \sim 0.01$ , which is consistent with capture cross section of ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  interface measured by conductance method[21] and capture cross section of PECVD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  obtained by DLTS[22].

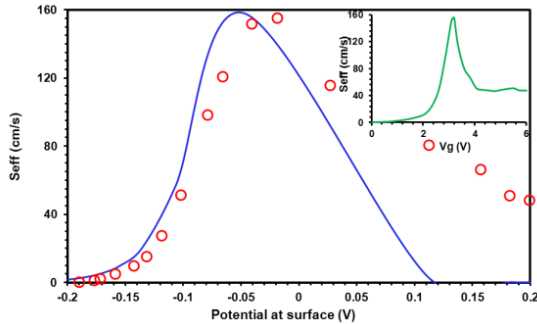


Fig.3  $S_{eff}$  as a function of surface potential; Red open circles: experimental data. Blue curve: theoretically fitted curve based on the capture cross-section shown in Fig. 4 and extended SRH theory. Gate voltage dependence of effective surface recombination velocity obtained by QSSPC measurements are shown in the inset.

Then assumed capture cross section of electrons and holes as a function of trap energy (shown in Fig.4) and measured  $D_{it}$  and  $Q_f$  (shown in Fig.2) were utilized to calculate theoretical relationship between surface potential and effective surface recombination velocity illustrated by the blue curve in Fig.3. During the simulation,  $\sigma_p / \sigma_n$  was adjusted to get similar  $S_{eff, \text{max}}$  as measured value. The shape of capture cross section distribution was assumed by reference of DLTS tested energy dependent capture cross section of PECVD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$  interface[22]. We found that the simulated

capture cross section for holes and electrons in this work is very similar to high-quality  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{c-Si}$  interface[23].

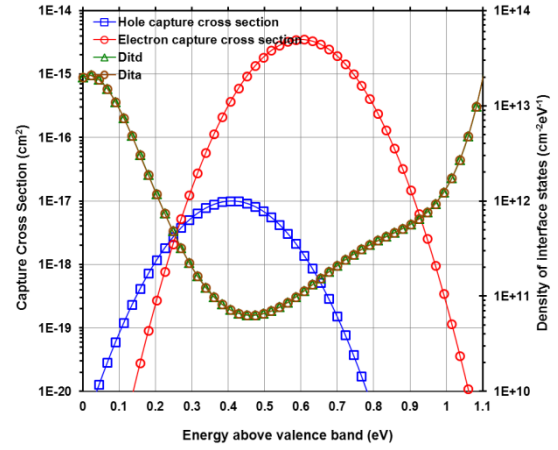


Fig.4. Simulated energy dependent capture cross sections for holes and electrons and energy dependent  $D_{it}$  obtained from capacitance-voltage measurement. It is assumed that acceptor type interface state density  $D_{ita}$  is equal to donor type interface state density  $D_{itd}$ .

We note that the capture cross section of electron is larger than that of hole, which is opposite to the assumption proposed in Part 1. The reason for the high effective surface recombination at inversion region will be investigated afterwards.

### 3. Field effect passivation by electron injection

CV samples were used to investigate the electron injection for  $\text{Si}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  stack. Progressively increased positive or negative bias voltages were applied to the front metal contacts for periods of 60 seconds. Following each bias voltage, a high frequency C-V sweep was carried out from 0 volt to determine the flat band voltage  $V_{fb}$ .

In Fig.5(a), it can be clearly seen that  $V_{fb}$ , which is related to the fixed charge density in the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , shifts toward positive direction with increasing positive bias time and voltage. We note that higher voltage bias can continue shift the HF CV curve even though saturation has been observed for lower bias voltage cases. It is explained that positive bias results in more negative charge due to the injection of electrons into the aluminum oxide film, where they are trapped in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , but the properties about the traps has not been investigated.[24] In this case, it is necessary to sweep from negative to positive to get reliable  $V_{fb}$  regardless of p-type or n-type substrates. It is interesting to find that negative bias can lead to electron injection as well, shown in Fig.5(b) and (d). We consider that only electron traps exist in PAALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer and electrons from the negative biased electrode inject in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer in this case. We believe electron injection from silicon into  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  could be used to enhance field effect passivation of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  as what has been applied on  $\text{Si}/\text{SiN}_x$  structures[25]. This could be used to improve the passivation performance of thin  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , less than 10nm.

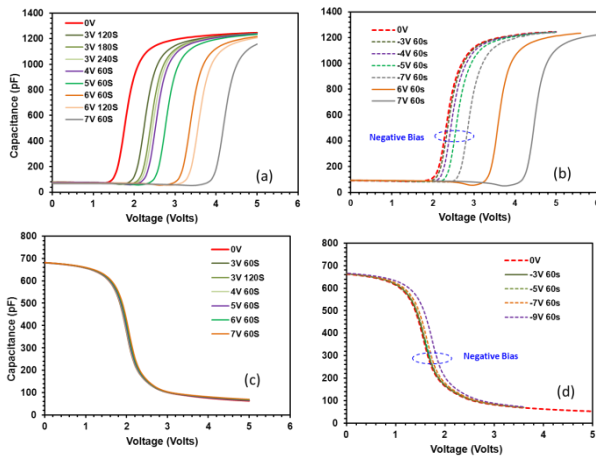


Fig5. High frequency CV curves with different positive bias voltage and bias time. (a) n-type wafer used for CV, deposition start at 150°C; (b) p-type wafers used for CV, deposition start at less than 150°C.

Fig. 5(c) illustrates that electron injection as a result of positive voltage bias is not always observed. Determination of the conditions that lead to the presence of chargeable defects is an area of current investigations. It is likely that the growth conditions during the first few cycles, such as deposition temperature and pre-deposition plasma generation time are very important to the electrical and physical properties of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , and also to the passivation performance.

It should be noted that the difference of capacitance at accumulation for Fig. 5(a) and (c) is due to the size diversity of Al dot.

## CONCLUSION

Field-effect passivation of plasma-assisted atomic layer deposition (PA-ALD)  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  for p- and n- type c-Si was investigated by both positive corona charge and voltage-lifetime measurements. An unusual phenomenon of slight passivation performance recovery upon long time positive corona charge was observed, which is confirmed by another experiment applying gradual increasing positive voltage on a similar wafer. It was found that the maximum capture cross section of electrons is approximately 100 times larger than that of holes at the interface of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{c-Si}$ . Field effect passivation related with fixed negative charge density can be improved by increased  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  surface potential, such as positive voltage bias or corona charge and the ability of electron injection from silicon to  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  can be controlled by changing  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposition parameters.

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