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*Published in:*  
IEEE Journal of Photovoltaics

*DOI:*  
[10.1109/JPHOTOV.2012.2210031](https://doi.org/10.1109/JPHOTOV.2012.2210031)

Published: 01/01/2013

*Document Version*  
Peer reviewed version

*Please cite the original version:*  
Repo, P., Haarahiltunen, A., Sainiemi, L., Yli-Koski, M., Talvitie, H., Schubert, M., & Savin, H. (2013). Effective passivation of black silicon surfaces by atomic layer deposition. *IEEE Journal of Photovoltaics*, 3(1), 90-94. <https://doi.org/10.1109/JPHOTOV.2012.2210031>

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# Effective Passivation of Black Silicon Surfaces by Atomic Layer Deposition

Päivikki Repo, Antti Haarahiltunen, Lauri Sainiemi, Marko Yli-Koski, Heli Talvitie, Martin C. Schubert, and Hele Savin

**Abstract**—The poor charge carrier transport properties attributed to nanostructured surfaces have been so far more detrimental for the final device operation than the gain obtained from the reduced reflectance. Here, we demonstrate results that simultaneously show a huge improvement in the light absorption and in the surface passivation by applying atomic layer coating on highly absorbing silicon nanostructures. The results advance the development of photovoltaic applications including high efficiency solar cells or any devices that require high sensitivity light response.

**Index Terms**— Aluminum Oxide, Atomic Layer Deposition, Black Silicon, Nanostructures

## I. INTRODUCTION

BLACK silicon (b-Si) has been a subject of great interest in various fields including photovoltaics [1]-[7] for its ability to reduce the surface reflectance even below 1%. However, many b-Si applications - especially solar cells - suffer from increased surface recombination resulting in poor spectral response especially at short wavelengths. This effect is often more detrimental for the final device operation than the gain from the reduced reflectance. Therefore, the key issue is clearly the surface passivation which has been previously addressed by thermal oxidation. Thermal oxidation combined with b-Si and random pyramid texturing has resulted in 17.1% [6] solar cell efficiency, which could be improved by more effective surface passivation. More effective surface passivation methods are obviously needed to make black silicon a viable material for commercial applications including high efficiency solar cells. In this paper we present a method which provides extremely good surface passivation and

simultaneously reduces the reflectance further at all wavelengths.

We solve the surface passivation problem with a conformal aluminum oxide ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) coating by atomic layer deposition (ALD). More than 3 ms lifetime values are measured in b-Si wafers by quasi-steady-state photoconductance (QSSPC) and microwave photoconductance decay ( $\mu$ -PCD) methods. Reflectance values of approximately 1% and below are reached in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated b-Si samples indicating that besides reducing the surface recombination the coating further suppresses also the reflectance. Low reflectance values and effective passivation are also demonstrated in multi-crystalline silicon wafers. All these results are very promising considering the use of b-Si surfaces e.g. on solar cells to increase the efficiency to completely new levels.

Black silicon fabrication with reactive ion etching (RIE) was originally used for process optimization and black silicon as the outcome of the etching process was considered undesirable [8]. Today, numerous applications for b-Si besides photovoltaics have been suggested including microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) [9], ion mobility spectrometers (IMS) [10], terahertz emitters [11], drug analysis [12], and photodetectors [13]. Black silicon surfaces can also be made superhydrophobic which makes them self-cleaning [14]. Etching b-Si with RIE has certain advantages: it is fast and inexpensive and nanostructures can be made without mask layers [2]. Additionally, unlike wet etching approaches, in RIE the etch rate is independent of crystalline planes. It should be emphasized though that the effective passivation method presented here is not most likely limited to the RIE-etched b-Si but could be applicable also to other b-Si surfaces made by different technologies such as laser texturing [15] or metal-catalyzed wet chemical etching [16].

In recent years  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  has been widely studied as a surface passivation material for silicon based photovoltaic applications [17]-[19]. The passivation ability of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is related to the combination of low density of interface states and the fixed negative charge present in the material, which makes it especially promising for passivation of p-type emitters in n-type solar cells [20], [21]. ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  provides the lowest surface recombination velocities compared to  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposited by other methods such as plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) or sputtering [22]. Because of the conformality and pin-hole free nature [23], ALD is a natural choice for the coating of nanostructured b-Si surfaces.

Manuscript received May 11th, 2012. P. Repo acknowledges the Graduate School of the Faculty of E. C. A. for the financial support. L. Sainiemi thanks Academy of Finland (p.n. 138674) for his funding.

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## II. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

### A. Sample details and black silicon etching

The first experiments were made on p-type magnetic (100) CZ-Si with resistivity of 2.7-3  $\Omega\text{cm}$ , oxygen level 7-9 ppm and 400  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness. Four types of samples were prepared: i) b-Si surface with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  ii) b-Si surface with thermal silicon dioxide ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) iii) flat (polished) surface with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , and iv) flat (polished) surface with thermal  $\text{SiO}_2$ . An identical set of samples was prepared on p-type (100) CZ-Si with resistivity of 17-24  $\Omega\text{cm}$ , oxygen level 11-13 ppm, and 525  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness. In addition,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  deposition was carried out on multicrystalline Si samples ( $\sim 1 \Omega\text{cm}$ , thickness 200  $\mu\text{m}$ ) both with and without b-Si.

All black silicon surfaces were fabricated single-sidedly using a maskless cryogenic deep reactive ion etching process (Plasmalab System 100, Oxford Instruments). The pieces of mc-Si wafers were glued on an  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated silicon dummy wafer using photoresist prior to the etching. CZ-Si wafers were etched as such. The samples were cooled down to  $-120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and etched in  $\text{SF}_6/\text{O}_2$  plasma for 7 minutes. The  $\text{SF}_6$  and  $\text{O}_2$  flow rates were set to 40 sccm and 18 sccm, respectively, whereas the powers of inductively and capacitively coupled power sources were 1000 W and 2 W, respectively. The process pressure was 10 mTorr. The mc-Si samples were detached from the dummy wafer in acetone after the etching process.

After b-Si etching the wafers went through standard SC1 and SC2 cleaning and an HF-dip (HF: DIW 1:50) for 30 s. Wafers were dried in a rinse dryer in  $\text{N}_2$  flow. Thermal oxidation was done at an oxidation furnace (Thermco 4104 TMX-9001) at  $900 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for 40 minutes followed by an anneal for 20 minutes also at  $900 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . The resulting thermal oxide thickness measured with ellipsometry (Plasmos SD 2300) from a polished reference wafer was  $\sim 15 \text{ nm}$ .

### B. ALD $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$

In this study, trimethylaluminum (TMA,  $\text{Al}_2(\text{CH}_3)_6$ ) is chosen as the aluminum source and ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ) as the oxidant. This reactant combination is not as extensively studied as TMA+ $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or plasma ALD if  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is deposited for surface passivation purposes [24], [25]. Although smaller growth per cycle (GPC) is achieved when  $\text{O}_3$  is used, the larger reactivity of  $\text{O}_3$  leads to a better film quality [26] which could also result in enhanced surface passivation properties.

$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  was deposited on both sides of the wafers on a batch reactor with thermal ALD (Beneq TFS-500) at  $200 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . Reference samples with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  but without b-Si were also processed alongside with the b-Si wafers. The resulting  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  thickness of  $\sim 23 \text{ nm}$  was measured from these polished reference samples with ellipsometry. Post-deposition anneal (PEO-601/ATV) at  $430 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 minutes in  $\text{N}_2$  atmosphere was done for the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  samples to activate the passivation.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### A. Black silicon structure with SEM

A scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Zeiss Supra 40) image of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated b-Si sample is shown in Fig. 1a to give an idea of the surface structure and the dimensions on the surface. There is a slight variation in the dimensions of the b-Si pillars, the typical height being around 1  $\mu\text{m}$  and diameter around 200 nm. The conformality of ALD on b-Si surfaces is shown in [27] where a thicker  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer was deposited. In Fig. 1a the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer can be distinguished from the cross-section as a lighter, narrow layer on top of the pillars. Fig. 1b shows a broader image of the mc-Si surface after b-Si etching revealing a multi-scale texture that originates from the initial surface roughness of mc-Si.

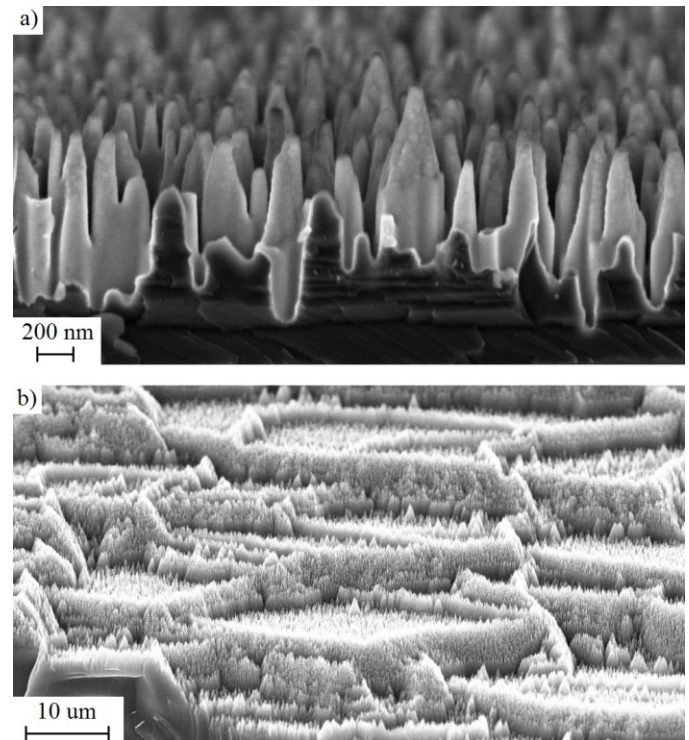


Fig. 1. SEM image of a) the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated CZ Si surface with b-Si where a thin  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  layer can be seen on top of the nanostructure. In b) the non-coated mc-Si surface with b-Si.

### B. Reflectance

The total reflectance of light on nanostructured low resistivity CZ and mc-Si samples (Figs. 2a and 2b) at the wavelength range of 250-1200 nm was measured using an Ulbricht sphere (Cary 500 Varian). The incident direction was close to the surface normal. As seen from the figure, reflectivity values are extremely low over a wide spectral range. This is typical behavior for b-Si due to the gradually varying refractive index from air to the substrate [28]. Moreover, the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  coatings reduce the reflectance both in the CZ and mc samples,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  resulting in the lowest reflectance value. This is in agreement with the recent results

by Otto *et al.* who showed that b-Si reflectance is reduced when the surface is coated with ALD aluminum-doped zinc oxide (ZnO:Al) [29]. The small difference in reflectance between the SiO<sub>2</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coated samples can be attributed partly to the changes in the nanostructures caused by the thermal oxidation whereas the thin and conformal ALD layer maintains the antireflection properties of the nanostructures. The differences in the refractive indices of SiO<sub>2</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> have also some effect. The lowest reflectance value of all samples, less than 0.85% in the whole wavelength range, is measured from the b-Si etched mc-Si sample coated with Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 2b). This can be explained by the multi-scale texture caused by the combination of the initial surface roughness of mc-Si and the b-Si etching (see Fig. 1b) [6]. The gained reflectance values are significantly better than the values obtained in commercial silicon nitride (SiN<sub>x</sub>) coated acid textured mc-Si wafers or even the inverted pyramids used in high efficiency silicon solar cells [30]. Also, compared to the reflectance values of double layer anti-reflection coatings (DLAR), the reflectance of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coated b-Si is smaller [31].

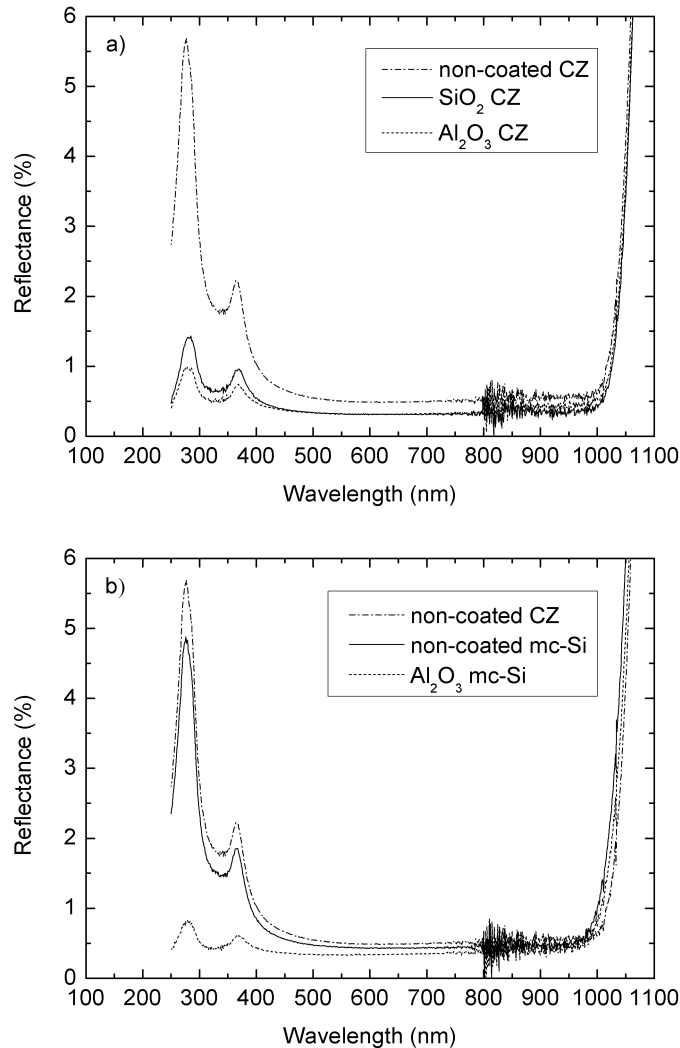
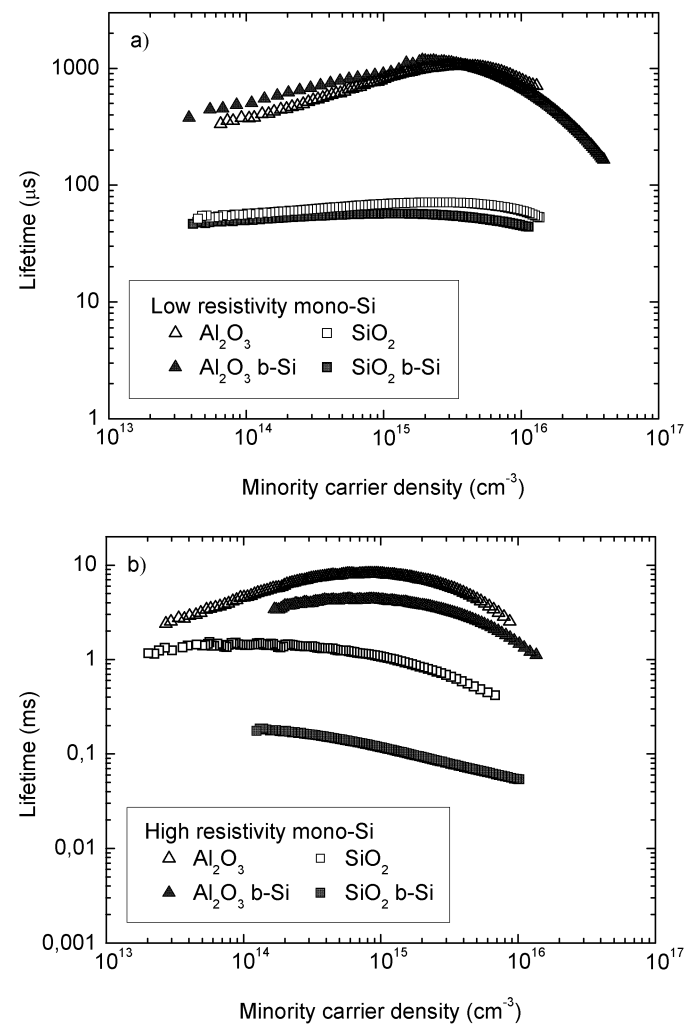


Fig. 2. Reflectance data of a) low resistivity CZ samples with non-coated, SiO<sub>2</sub> coated and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coated b-Si surfaces and b) mc-Si samples with either

non-coated and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coated b-Si surfaces. Also the reflectance of the non-coated low resistivity CZ sample is included in b) for comparison.

### C. Minority carrier lifetimes

Figs. 3a and 3b show the measured effective minority carrier lifetimes as a function of injection level in the low resistivity and high resistivity CZ samples, respectively. Quasi Steady State Photoconductance (QSSPC) measurements were done with Sinton Lifetime Tester (WCT-120) to determine the effective carrier lifetimes as a function of injection level. Optical constant that is needed as an input in the Sinton measurement was given the same value for polished and b-Si etched samples. Depending on the film and its thickness and the thickness of the wafer optical constant was given the value between 0.7-0.78. Corona charge was added on the thermally oxidized wafers before measurements.



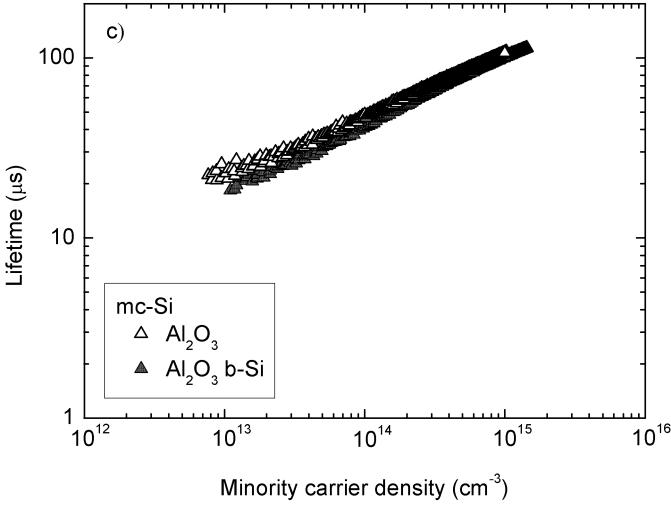


Fig. 3. Minority carrier lifetimes as a function of injection level of a) the low resistivity CZ samples, b) high resistivity CZ samples, and c) mc-Si samples. CZ samples were measured with QSSPC and mc-Si with QSSPL. For CZ, four types of samples were processed: b-Si surfaces with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{SiO}_2$  and as a reference, similar samples but with polished surface. For mc-Si, two types of samples were prepared:  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated mc-Si wafers with and without b-Si.

Surprisingly, the passivation quality of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  on the b-Si surface is comparable to its passivation quality on the polished surface and the measured lifetimes are in the millisecond range in all  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated CZ samples. In the case of flat surface the maximum surface recombination velocity can be calculated rather easily from the effective lifetime values by assuming an infinite carrier bulk lifetime [32]. With this assumption the maximum surface recombination velocity  $S_{\text{eff}}$  for the reference samples can be calculated with the following equation

$$S_{\text{eff}} = \frac{d}{2\tau_{\text{eff}}} \quad (1)$$

where  $d$  is the wafer thickness and  $\tau_{\text{eff}}$  the measured effective lifetime at a certain injection level. Here, the injection level of  $10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  was chosen. The corresponding surface recombination velocities for polished samples are  $S_{\text{max}} = 25 \text{ cms}^{-1}$  in low resistivity CZ and  $S_{\text{max}} = 3.3 \text{ cms}^{-1}$  in high resistivity CZ. Surface recombination values in thermally oxidized samples are in all cases much higher.

With nanostructured surfaces the maximum surface recombination velocity is an effective value. This means that the total recombination caused by the complicated nanostructure can be reduced to a flat plane just below the nanostructure using an effective surface recombination velocity [33]. In our case only one surface was treated as a nanostructured surface and the other as a flat reference. Equation (1) is still valid for low resistivity CZ as the lifetime of the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated b-Si wafers is as high or even higher than the lifetime of the polished reference wafers. Thus from (1) the maximum surface recombination velocity for b-Si surface is  $S_{\text{max}} = 22 \text{ cms}^{-1}$ . When assuming a zero surface recombination

velocity on a flat surface [32] the correction for (1) is a factor of two in the case of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated low resistivity CZ b-Si. This gives  $S_{\text{max}} = 13 \text{ cms}^{-1}$  for the corresponding high resistivity CZ samples. Using surface recombination velocity  $3.3 \text{ cms}^{-1}$  for a polished surface and diffusion constant  $25 \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$  for solving numerically the equations given in [32], we get slightly smaller  $S_{\text{max}} = 9 \text{ cms}^{-1}$  for the  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  coated high resistivity CZ b-Si.

After verifying that the b-Si etching and the surface passivation with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  can be applied on p-type CZ material the process was applied on p-type mc-Si wafers. Fig. 3c shows the minority carrier lifetimes as a function of injection level in two sister mc-Si wafers coated with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , both with and without b-Si surface. There is no significant difference between the samples in lifetime which indicates that  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  can also passivate multicrystalline b-Si surfaces. The results were verified by  $\mu$ -PCD (Semilab WT85XL-400). Also calibrated photoluminescence (PL) lifetime mapping and Quasi Steady State Photoluminescence (QSSPL) [34] measurements were done for the mc-Si samples to omit the trapping effect and the uncertainty of the optical constant in QSSPC. Both methods lead to similar lifetimes for mc-Si with and without b-Si. Lifetimes nearly  $200 \mu\text{s}$  were reached in both cases when measured from corresponding good quality grains.

The reason why b-Si surfaces have been considered difficult to passivate is mainly related to the larger surface area attributed to the nanostructure. Xiong *et al.* have shown that the effective surface recombination velocity is directly proportional to the total surface area when the excess carrier distribution is uniform in the nanostructures [33]. The negative fixed charge related to  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  decreases the excess carrier density in the nanostructures, which is probably the main reason for good passivation observed in the experiments. The same field effect passivation is important in the case of flat surfaces but might be even more critical here as the charge prevents the electrons (minority carriers in p-Si) from reaching not only the surface but the entire nanostructure. The doping concentration, the formed space charge region and the dimensions of the nanostructures also have an impact on this.

#### D. Discussion

p-type CZ and mc-Si wafers were used in the experiments reported here but further studies are required to see if the method is also applicable on n-type and p+ with b-Si surfaces. Good  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  passivation has been demonstrated on lowly doped n-type silicon where the passivation capability is partly due to the high negative charge leading to an inversion layer [17], [18]. This relaxes the requirements on extremely low density of interface states [35]. The maximum surface recombination velocity occurs when surface charge causes a depletion of majority charge carriers (having attractive electric field for minority charge carriers) and when there is still relatively high majority charge carrier concentration at the surface. Obviously, this can occur in n-type silicon with critical amount of fixed negative charge on the surface. If the surface charge density is well below this critical charge density

the surface recombination velocity is set by the density of interface states (or chemical passivation) [35]. However, if the surface charge density is well above the critical charge density the surface recombination velocity is lowered due to the field effect [35]. Recently, this behavior was demonstrated for a phosphorus doped emitter as implied open circuit voltage went through the minimum when sheet resistance increased indicating rather good chemical passivation at higher doping levels and field effect at lower doping levels [36]. If n-type doping is so high that the field effect cannot be realized with  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  the goal is to minimize the charge (or avoid maximum surface recombination) and maximize the chemical passivation. Unlike thermal oxidation, ALD is well-known to have a good step-coverage within small dimensions which makes it a good candidate for b-Si passivation when only chemical passivation is considered.

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, it has been demonstrated that ALD  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  has a potential for being a material that effectively lowers the reflectivity and passivates black silicon surfaces, i.e. nanostructures that have less than 1% reflectance. Good surface passivation is crucial especially in photonic applications such as solar cells and photodetectors. Although ALD has been thought as a slow process i.e. having a small growth per cycle, large areas or multiple wafers can be coated at once making ALD feasible also in industrial scale. The b-Si etching process used here is one possibility for low-cost, high-throughput fabrication because masking is not needed and it is also suitable for multicrystalline samples. However, it can be assumed that the passivation method presented here is independent on the b-Si fabrication method.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors thank E. Schäffer, J. Giesecke, L. Mundt, and M. Bühler from Fraunhofer ISE for the PL, QSSPL, and reflectance measurements. P. Repo acknowledges S. Li and A. Perros for the advice with ALD.

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