

Characterisation of Individual Defects in Multicrystalline Silicon

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Multicrystalline Silicon (mc-Si) Solar Cells

- The solar industry is rapidly increasing its production capacity
- During 2017 photovoltaic capacity increased to 40,000 new solar panels being installed every hour [2]
- Year on year reduction in cost (6% decrease in 2017 to \$0.39)
- Low cost mc-Si solar cells are the dominant industrial technology, over 60% of global module production [1]



[1] J. Jin 2015, Top Solar Power and Industry Trends [2] Renewables 2017, Global Status Report





Multicrystalline Silicon (mc-Si) Solar Cells

- Although dominant, multicrystalline silicon is Resistive losses approximately 1% abs efficiency lower than monocrystalline
- Due to crystallographic defects
- These defects result in the formation of recombination active regions in the wafer, which limit the cell performance
- Understanding and characterising these regions is extremely difficult, since recombination can be enhanced by small levels of impurities concentrated at atomic scale defects





Recombination via defect levels



Areas of Recombination

- The recombination active areas consist of regions with a high concentration of crystallographic defects
- Electron beam induced current (EBIC) map shows recombination
 - Large quantities of recombination active grain boundaries and intragrain dislocations
- Small amounts of impurities (e.g. transition metals) decorate these defects and cause recombination



Low EBIC current



Gettering and Passivation

Industry uses two key treatments to improve the electrical properties of mc-Si:

Front side



- Gettering is the removal of (some) electrically active impurities to less critical regions
 - e.g. Phosphorus diffusion gettering (PDG), occurs during cell diffusion process and results in impurities being collected immediately adjacent to the cell surface
 - Cleaner dislocations and grain boundaries are less electrically active
- Hydrogen Passivation (HP) introduces <u>atomic</u> hydrogen which bonds to (some) crystallographic defects and impurities, reducing their recombination activity
 - e.g. Hydrogen in-diffusion from dielectric layers (SiN and AlO_x) during high temperature firing



Aims

- Characterise the crystallographic defects in multicrystalline silicon
- Why is the combination of gettering and hydrogen passivation not always effective?
- Which impurities + defects are especially harmful to cell efficiencies?

Need – a multiscale method which can provide a detailed characterisation of a mc-Si wafer at various stages of processing



PL image of a p-type wafer post Phosphorus Diffusion Gettering + H passivation



Multi-microscopical approach

- Macroscale:
 - Bulk Lifetimes
 - Photoluminescence (PL)
 - Total impurity concentration measurements
- Microscale:
 - Electron Beam Induced Current (EBIC)
 - Laser Beam Induced Current (LBIC)
 - Micro- photoluminescence (µ-PL)
- Nanoscale:
 - Transmission Kikuchi Diffraction (TKD)
 - Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)
 - Atom Probe Tomography (APT)
 - X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF)



Electron Beam Induced Current





Colloidal Silica Polishing

- Colloidal silica is a standard technique to produce flat surfaces prior to microscopy such as EBIC and APT
- Sample surface is polished for around 12 hours to ensure a 'mirror finish'
- We found that lifetimes QSS-PC (photoconductance) crashed, as confirmed in PL
- EBIC and APT employed to determine whether room temperature diffusion of impurities has occurred
- Wafer shown before and after polishing





Colloidal Silica Contamination - EBIC







Atomic scale resolution of atom positions

Nitrogen

- Time of flight mass spectroscopy gives chemical species
- Needs a needle specimen of diameter 100nm
- Atoms in the bulk are difficult to separate from background noise



Atom Probe Tomography



Grain boundary (GB) marked by E-beam deposited W and undercut using FIB methods End-on liftout upon a FIB TEM half grid with end flattened using FIB APT needle (d ≈ 100nm) produced with grain boundary running along the tip

Colloidal Silica Contamination - APT

Before Polishing



Colloidal Silica Contamination - APT

Before Polishing After Polishing Carbon Carbon <u>50 nm</u> 50 nm 50 nm 50 nm

14

Colloidal Silica Contamination - APT





Colloidal Silica Polishing - Conclusions

- Colloidal silica shown to introduce nickel in mc-Si (Yarykin, 2017)
- Issue in our samples > Laboratory contamination
 - Fast diffusion of impurities via crystallographic defects
- Concentration of Ni and Cu high enough to induce clustering







Major study

- HP multi Si p-type sister wafers
- 4 types of wafers:
 - 1. As-Cast
 - 2. Phosphorus Diffusion Gettered
 - 3. Hydrogen Passivated
 - 4. Phosphorus Diffusion Gettered + Hydrogen Passivation
- Work in progress



Photoluminescence



PL Counts s⁻¹

PL Counts s⁻¹



Photoluminescence

H passivated





PL Counts s⁻¹

PL Counts s⁻¹



Electron Back Scatter Diffraction (EBSD)





Extremely low grain misorientation

Require the use of grain reference orientation deviation mapping to observe the low angle grain boundaries



Silicon

101

Silicon

3 3.5

IPF colouring YO. Electron Back Scatter Diffraction (EBSD) Area of Interest GROD Angle 2.5 0.5 1.5 2 Area of a large concentration of small angle grain boundaries misorientation $< 5^{\circ}$ =1000 µm; BC+E1-3; Step=20 µm; Grid168x125



Electron Beam Induced Current (EBIC)

- Significant increase in EBIC contrast after gettering
- Low angle grain boundaries (3.8°) array of edge dislocations







TEM + APT – As Cast







TEM + APT – Post Gettering





<u>20 nm</u>



Small Angle GB- Conclusions

- No transition metals observed at a small angle recombination active GB both before and after gettering
- Spacing of dislocations matches expected in both TEM and APT
- Similar levels of C detected at GBs
- Possible Explanations:
 - Transition metal impurity levels below detection limit for APT (2-10 ppm)





Photoluminescence



PL Counts s⁻¹

PL Counts s⁻¹

Atom Probe Tomography- Post PDG

Preliminary Study

- Random angle grain boundary (misorientation 49.62°)
- Grain boundary analysed still electrically active after PDG
- Large increase in copper at the GB after PDG – fast cool (internal gettering?)
- Again- no Fe or Ni detected at the boundary
- Lack of other grain boundaries aroundconcentration of impurities large enough to see Cu





50 nm



What about samples which have been Gettered and H passivated?



 Laser Beam Induced Current map of recombination in an unprocessed multicrystalline silicon wafer

100 % 92 % 83 % 75 % 67 % 58 % 50 % 2.5 mm

LBIC map for ungettered HP mc-Si wafer

Adamczyk et al., 2018, J Appl Phys 12(5)



- After phosphorus diffusion gettering, intragranular regions are seen to improve
- However grain boundaries become more recombination active – indicates internal gettering to GBs

LBIC map for ungettered and gettered mc-Si wafers







- With the use of hydrogen passivation grain boundaries become generally inactive, however performance is still limited by regions that remain electrically active
- Some specific grain boundaries (gbs) are still electrically active

LBIC map for ungettered, gettered and gettered + H passivation mc-Si wafers







Adamczyk et al., 2018, J Appl Phys 12(5)



- Some specific grain boundaries (GBs) which are still electrically active can be correlated to grain boundary type
 - Σ 3 {111} gbs are electrically inactive
 - RA grain boundaries tend to respond to H passivation and become inactive
 - Σ 9, Σ 27 and SA GBs are generally electrically active

Why?

RA SA Σ3 Σ9 Σ27 LBIC map for ungettered, gettered and gettered + H passivation and EBSD map for mc-Si wafers



Adamczyk et al., 2018, J Appl Phys 12(5)







EBIC (Gettered and H Passivated)













Summary

- · No transition metals observed at either grain boundary
- Levels of nitrogen are much greater in the inactive grain boundary

Possible Explanations:

- Nitrogen passivation of grain boundary
- Transition metal impurity levels in active grain boundary below detection limit for APT (2-10 ppm)





Key Questions

- What is the difference between i and a?
- Solar community does not know
 - Hydrogen repelled by the local field at the boundary?
 - Does hydrogen stay there? (lack of traps or the formation of molecular hydrogen)
 - Role of grain boundary type not all boundaries of the same type respond equally
- NEED: A method that allows for the unambiguous detection of hydrogen at specific defects





Adamczyk et al., 2018, J Appl Phys 12(5) 38



²H Passivation – Using Atomic Hydrogen

- Samples were remote plasma charged using ²H (Deuterium)
- Conditions: ²H- plasma, 200 °C, 60 minutes, 30 W
- Sample does not contact the plasma- low surface damage (also sample not exposed to harmful UV radiation)
- Deuterium enters the sample as atomic ²H more closely replicates how hydrogen is introduced industrially





- Recombination active GB selected, which are known to respond to hydrogen passivation [Chen 2005]
- APT needle taken after ²H plasma exposure, via focused ion beam techniques grain boundary running along the length of the needle
- Needle geometry required for APT analysis





 Prior to APT, TEM was performed on the needle to confirm the presence of the GB in the needle and following APT, transmission Kikuchi diffraction was used determine its misorientation and rotation axis



Grain Boundary



• Deuterium observed unambiguously (no overlaps) at 4 Da, in the form ²H₂⁺





• Vast majority of ²H observed as Si²H⁺ at 30, 31 and 32 Da.





Σ3 Grain Boundary

- Σ3 {111} grain boundaries are known to be electrically inactive due to their low GB energy and lack of introduction of new deep levels in the band gap
- APT dataset containing a Σ 3 {111} GB not only detects no impurities present, but also we have confirmed that no enrichment of ²H is observed

(Forward scattered image prior to APT confirming GB in the tip)









Dislocations

- Dislocations are of concern to solar cell manufacturers regarding passivation. In this study, ²H was observed, at individual dislocations
- Dislocations observed both along the dislocation and end on in ²H⁺ and Si²H⁺





- An important feature of our method, is the ability to quantify the amount of ²H present
- However, deconvolution is required to determine the quantity of Si²H
- Uses the maximum likelihood method to estimate the quantity of ²H from the peaks 30-32 Da- adjacent peaks and Si natural abundancy



Comparison of mass spectra from a non-passivated and ²H passivated GB



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Comparison of mass spectra from a non-passivated and ²H passivated GB





Comparison of mass spectra from a non-passivated and ²H passivated GB



- By extracting region of interest containing the grain boundary or dislocation, the ²H quantity per defect can be determined
- Dislocation III can be seen to have significantly more ²H than the other dislocations

	RA	Σ3	I	II	111
² H Quantified	1.4 ± 0.15 × 10 ¹⁴ counts cm ⁻²	0.0 counts cm ⁻²	14 ± 1.5 counts nm ⁻¹	13 ± 2 counts nm ⁻¹	22 ± 1.5 counts nm ⁻¹
	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	² H ₂ + ²⁹ Si ² H ⁺	4 Da		^{2H2+} ³⁰ SI ² H ⁺



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- Dislocation III can be seen to have significantly more ²H than the other dislocations

	RA	Σ3	I	II	III
² H Quantified	$1.4 \pm 0.15 \times 10^{14} \text{ counts cm}^{-2}$	0.0 counts cm ⁻²	14 ± 1.5 counts nm ⁻¹	13 ± 2 counts nm ⁻¹	22 ± 1.5 counts nm ⁻¹
² H atoms per atomic site in defect	≈0.2	Lower detection limit ≈2 x 10 ¹² counts cm ⁻²	≈5	≈5	≈8
	20 nm	² H ₂ * ²⁹ Si ² H*	4	Da	2H ₂ + 30Si2H+



Summary

- Method presented that allows for mapping of hydrogen at defects in multicrystalline silicon that has the potential to underpin future development of hydrogen passivation
- ²H is introduced atomically in a method analogous to that used in industry
- Quantification of ²H at individual defects is possible, using deconvolution of Si²H⁺ peaks



- Using EBIC, correlation of electrically activity with ²H distribution
- Finally investigate why some boundaries respond and some don't



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Thanks for listening



















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Diffusion of Deuterium

Deuterium only introduced effectively atomically

7 orders of magnitude difference in diffusivity

