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Si nanoparticle interfaces in Si/SiO₂ solar cell materials

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Novel solar cell materials consisting of Si nanoparticles embedded in SiO₂ layers have been studied using positron annihilation spectroscopy in Doppler broadening mode and photoluminescence. Two positron-trapping interface states are observed after high temperature annealing at 1100 °C. One of the states is attributed to the (SiO₂/Si bulk) interface and the other to the interface between the Si nanoparticles and SiO₂. A small reduction in positron trapping into these states is observed after annealing the samples in N₂ atmosphere with 5% H₂. Enhanced photoluminescence is also observed from the samples following this annealing step. © 2013 AIP Publishing LLC.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Solar cell industry has relied on silicon as the mainstream material since the discovery of the Si-based photocell.¹ The advantages of Si solar cells are unambiguous; they are easy to produce in masses, relatively cheap, can be used in various applications, and Si is non-toxic. However, the energy conversion efficiency is just approaching 25% for the very best commercial Si solar cells, and the typical mainstream cells have efficiencies of around 15%.² The classical theoretical limit for single Si solar cells, based on the energy spectrum of the Sun and the band gap of Si, is not much better: 31%.³ A typical way to produce very efficient solar cells is to use composite structures consisting of layers made from different materials sensitive to different wavelengths of sunlight.⁴ These multilayered solar cell structures are, however, very complex to produce and thus expensive so they are not suitable for mainstream use. Since traditional energy sources such as coal and oil are gradually running out, researchers are very eager to find ways to better harness the energy of the Sun. A promising concept was discovered a couple of years ago when Klimov and his colleagues discovered that nanocrystals could convert a single photon into more than one excitons.⁵ A solar cell utilizing this property could be a workaround for getting beyond silicon's theoretical energy conversion efficiency without having to resort to expensive materials. Promising candidates for such solar cells could be silica layers embedded with Si nanocrystals. Such layers have been prepared and studied with several techniques.^{6–12} The results have been mostly promising but there is still much work to be done before these solar cells can become commercially available. The biggest problem is that the interface between the nanocrystals and silica tends to have carrier traps in it, thus decreasing the light conversion efficiency.

Positron annihilation spectroscopy (PAS) is a versatile tool for studying vacancy-type defects in various materials.^{13,14} The annihilation radiation provides atomic resolution

which is useful in getting information about the defects themselves as well as about the atoms in their near vicinity. The use of slow, monoenergetic positrons allows the study of defect distributions in thin layers and interfaces.

II. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

In this work, we used a monoenergetic slow positron beam in Doppler broadening mode to study interfaces between silicon nanocrystals and SiO₂ which they were embedded in. The fast positrons emitted by a ²²Na source were moderated with a 1 μm tungsten foil, accelerated with an electric field, and then implanted into the sample at energies ranging from 0.5 to 35 keV. After implantation, the positron thermalizes rapidly in the sample; the thermalization time is but a few picoseconds. Following thermalization, the positron diffuses in the sample for 100–250 ps (tens to hundreds of nanometers depending on the material and the defects present) before it finds an electron and annihilates.^{13,14} Positrons can get trapped into neutral and negatively charged open volume defects in the sample. Particularly, open volume defects such as vacancies act as efficient positron traps. Such defects can be characterized by increased positron lifetime in lifetime measurements and a narrower momentum distribution in Doppler broadening measurements.

In positron Doppler broadening spectroscopy, the broadening of the 511 keV annihilation line due to the momentum of the annihilating electron-positron pair is detected. In this work, two high purity Ge detectors with an energy resolution of 1.2 keV at the 511 keV line were used to detect the annihilation quanta and to measure their energies. When a positron annihilates with an electron, two 511 keV annihilation quanta are emitted at almost the opposite directions, with a small angular difference induced as an additional effect of the momentum of the annihilating pair being conserved in the process.

In the standard Doppler broadening measurements, the results are typically described with the conventional line shape parameters *S* and *W*. The *S* parameter, also often referred to as the low momentum parameter, is defined as the fraction of counts in the central part of the annihilation peak.

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Annihilations contributing to this part of the spectrum correspond mainly to valence electrons. The high momentum parameter W , analogously, tells the fraction of counts in both wings of the annihilation peak and corresponds mainly to annihilations with core electrons. The energy windows for both parameters are typically chosen so that the sensitivity of both is at maximum when it comes to changes in the annihilation environment. In this work, the windows were set to $|p_z| < 0.44$ a.u. for S and 1.60 a.u. $< |p_z| < 4.10$ a.u. for W . Open volume defects have a reduced electron density and this narrows the Doppler-broadened spectrum. Thus, an elevated S (or lowered W) parameter typically indicates the presence of open volume defects in a sample.

The measured line shape parameters S and W are always superpositions of the S and W parameters of different positron states in the sample. In the simplest case, there are only two possible annihilation states (surface and bulk, or bulk and a defect) and the measured parameters can be obtained from

$$S = \eta_1 S_1 + \eta_2 S_2, \quad (1)$$

$$W = \eta_1 W_1 + \eta_2 W_2, \quad (2)$$

where S_i (W_i) is the S (W) parameter of state i and η_i is the annihilation fraction in state i . The equations above being parameterized equations of lines in the (S, W) plane is very useful; plotting the measurement results in the (S, W) plane and analyzing the slopes of the aforementioned lines helps in identifying the defects present in the sample. Also, any non-linear behavior in an (S, W) plot is an indication of three or more positron annihilation states. These can be any combination of surface, bulk, defect, and other positron trapping states such as interfaces.

In order to better be able to distinguish between different annihilation states within the bilayer structures, we also utilized the 2D-Doppler technique. In these measurements, two germanium detectors are used in coincidence mode. The counts from the two detectors are stored in a two-dimensional array, where the dimensions of the arrays represent the energy scales of the two detectors, respectively. With this measurement setup, the peak-to-background ratio is improved to $\sim 10^6$ and the resolution by a factor of $\sim \sqrt{2}$. For these measurements, a positron acceleration voltage of 2 keV was used.

Multilayer structures consisting of 30 Si/SiO₂ bilayers capped by an SiO₂ layer of 50 nm were deposited on oriented p-type Si (100) substrates by using an RF magnetron sputtering system without substrate heating. Si and SiO₂ targets were alternately sputtered in Ar gas at 3 mTorr. In the bilayers, the thickness of each SiO₂ layer was 4 nm, while Si layers of thicknesses of 1, 2, and 4 nm were employed in the three samples named as the 1/4 nm, 2/4 nm, and 4/4 nm samples, respectively. Thus, the total thickness of the layer structure was either 200 nm, 230 nm, or 290 nm. A pure SiO₂ layer of 300 nm used as a reference was also deposited on p-type Si substrate by magnetron sputtering without substrate heating.

In order to form the Si nanocrystals, all samples were annealed in N₂ at 1100 °C for 1 h. Then each annealed sample was cut into two pieces and one of them was further

annealed in 95% N₂ + 5% H₂ at 500 °C for 1 h in order to passivate defects.^{15–17} Positron measurements were then performed on all three types of samples (as-deposited, once annealed, and twice annealed). All measurements were done with a slow positron beam in Doppler broadening mode at room temperature. Photoluminescence measurements were also performed on all samples. A continuous wave laser (Oxxius Violet) with a wavelength of 405 nm and excitation power of 50 mW was used as the excitation source. The PL spectra were measured at room temperature using a single monochromator (dispersion 0.8 nm/mm, resolution 0.008 nm) and a silicon photodiode. All spectra were corrected for the spectral response of the detection system.

III. RESULTS

In Fig. 1, the positron S parameter is shown as a function of positron implantation energy for the as-deposited and the two annealed samples with 2 nm Si layers. The layer structure is easily seen in the as-deposited sample as a flat plateau at implantation energies 1–5 keV. This region looks completely different in the sample annealed at 1100 °C. There is a sharp peak at ~ 2 keV and a valley at around 5 keV. Both of these features indicate a decrease in the positron diffusion length L_+ which means that positrons get trapped either at the interfaces or in interfacial defects. The second annealing step at 500 °C involving H brings the S parameter down which is a sign of reduced positron trapping.

Figure 2 shows how $S(E)$ behaves as a function of Si layer thickness in annealed samples. The features mentioned in the previous paragraph are present in all samples but their magnitude is almost negligible in the 1 nm sample. The valley is deepest in the data from the 4 nm sample but the highest peak is actually found in the 2 nm sample. The effect of additional annealing is similar in all samples although the valley at 5 keV deepens considerably more in the 4 nm sample than in the other two.

The photoluminescence results shown in Fig. 3 correlate nicely with the positron results. The PL signal from the 2 nm sample is the strongest, whereas no photoluminescence at all

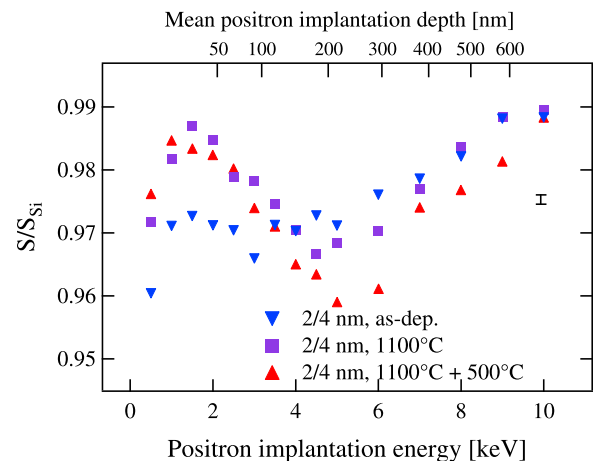


FIG. 1. The S parameters as a function of positron implantation energy for the three samples with 2 nm thick Si layers. The values have been scaled to that of defect-free bulk Si. The typical margin of error for the S parameter is also shown.

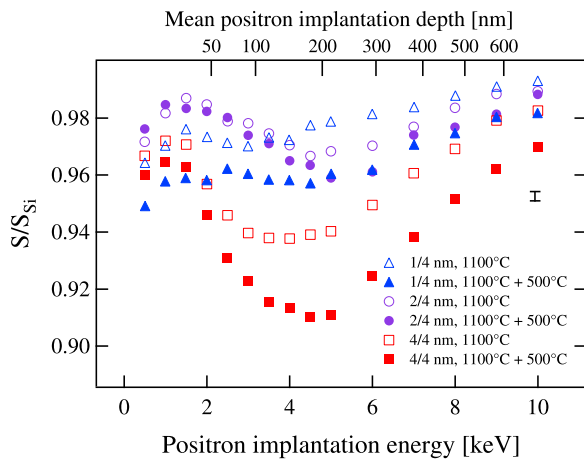


FIG. 2. The S parameters as a function of positron implantation energy for annealed samples with three different Si layer thicknesses. The values have been scaled to that of defect-free bulk Si. The typical margin of error for the S parameter is also shown.

is observed in the 1 nm sample. The PL peak is positioned at the same wavelength regardless of sample thickness. This indicates that recombination does not occur directly over the band gap as the gap width changes with respect of sample thickness. Thus, the PL signal must come from defects. Furthermore, no PL was observed from the reference SiO₂ layer either which means that the defects seen in the PL spectra are located at (SiO₂/Si) interfaces and not in the SiO₂ matrix.

The positron (S , W) parameters of annealed samples are shown in Fig. 4. These results clearly reveal the presence of four different positron states in the samples: the surface (1), two interface states (2 and 3), and the Si substrate (4). The interface numbered 3 in the figure seems to be the (SiO₂/Si bulk) interface reported by Kauppinen *et al.*¹⁸ Interface 2, however, has unique annihilation parameters which most

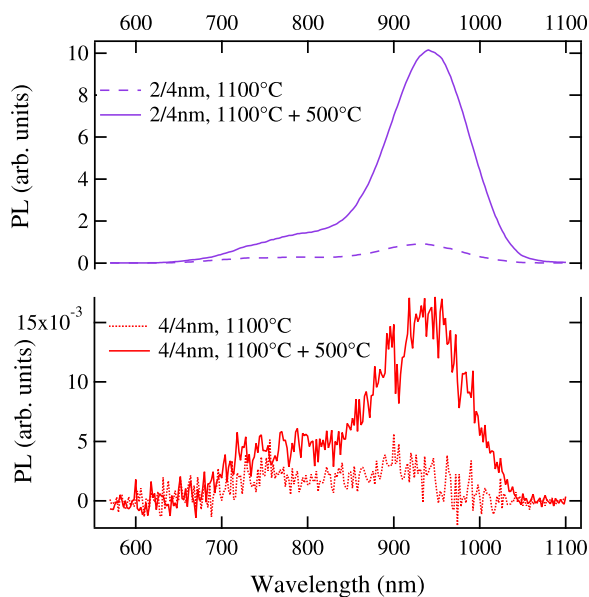


FIG. 3. Photoluminescence intensity as a function of wavelength for the samples with 2 (top panel) and 4 (bottom panel) nm Si layers. The 1 nm samples are not shown as they exhibit no PL at all.

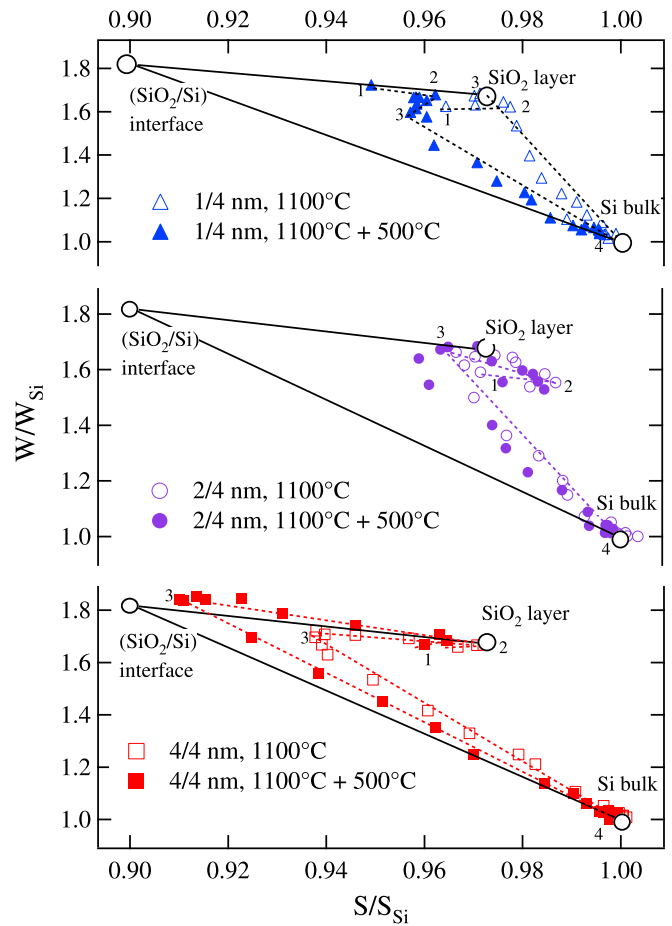


FIG. 4. The positron (S , W) parameters measured in annealed samples with three different Si layer thicknesses. The values have been scaled to that of defect-free bulk Si. The bulk Si point, SiO₂ layer point, and the (SiO₂/Si bulk) interface point from Ref. 18 are also shown. The four annihilation states: surface (1), unknown interface (2), (SiO₂/Si bulk) interface (3), and Si substrate (4) are marked for each sample. Both the solid lines connecting the three reference points and the dashed lines connecting the annihilation states are drawn to guide the eye.

likely correspond to an unknown defect. Even though the data points coincide with the SiO₂ layer reference point in the 1 and 4 nm samples, the 2D coincidence Doppler broadening measurements, shown in Fig. 5, clearly show that the state seen in these samples does not correspond to SiO₂. As can be seen from Fig. 5, the ratio curves for all of the as deposited samples are close to the SiO₂ reference (ratio approximately 1.0). In Fig. 4, the signal from the (SiO₂/Si bulk) interface is the strongest in the 4 nm sample, whereas the unknown interfacial state is most clearly seen in the 2 nm sample.

IV. DISCUSSION

The unknown interfacial state seen at positron implantation energies of roughly 2 keV can be attributed to the interface between the Si nanoparticles and SiO₂ in the 2 nm and 4 nm samples. The fact that the positron signal from the nanoparticle interface is the strongest in the 2 nm samples shows that the nanoparticle formation is optimized in that sample. The PL results are in agreement with this observation. At a glance, the unknown interfacial state in the 1 nm

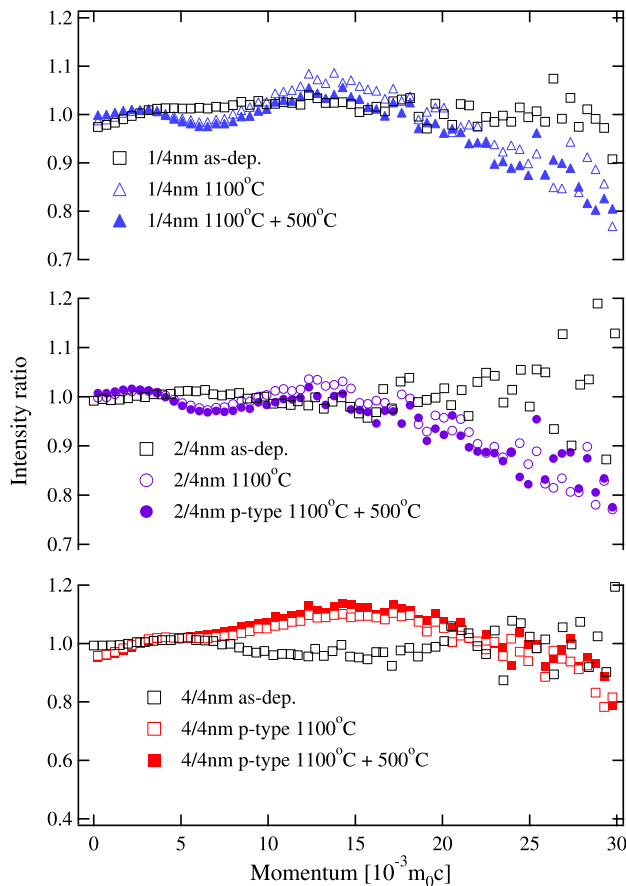


FIG. 5. 2D-Doppler broadening intensity ratio curves for the three different samples series measured with a 2 keV positron implantation energy. All the curves have been normalized to a SiO_2 reference.

samples looks similar to the other samples, especially when the (S, W) plot of Fig. 4 is considered. However, when looking at the S parameter data in Fig. 2, it becomes obvious that the changes in positron diffusion length are much smaller in this sample than in the other two. In fact, the peak at roughly 2 keV looks more like a plateau. This indicates that while positrons get trapped by something also in the 1 nm samples, the trapping state is not the nanoparticle interface. Most likely another positron-trapping structure is formed during the annealing in these samples. No PL is observed from the 1 nm samples so data given by the two techniques are consistent here as well.

The second annealing step slightly reduces positron trapping into the nanoparticle interfaces as seen in Figs. 1 and 2. This can be explained with H atoms filling parts of the open volume at these interfaces. Photoluminescence from the samples—as Fig. 3 shows—increases dramatically following the second annealing step. The interpretation of these two results is that only a small fraction of defects present at the nanoparticle interfaces are actually annealed out during the second annealing step and most are passivated with the help of hydrogen. Thus, it is evident that the H passivation step is successful and H ends up at the interfaces.

The signal from the (SiO_2/Si) bulk interface getting stronger as the Si layer thickness increases can be explained

with the Makhovian implantation profile of slow positrons.¹⁹ The profile is highly asymmetric and widens at high positron implantation energies. This means that in samples where the (SiO_2/Si) interface is located deeper (i.e., the ones with thicker Si layers) and is probed with higher implantation energies, a larger fraction of the positrons reaches the interface and annihilates there.

V. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we have studied novel solar cell materials consisting of Si nanoparticles embedded within SiO_2 . The nanoparticles were formed by annealing Si/ SiO_2 multilayer structures in N_2 at 1100 °C. The samples were studied with positron annihilation spectroscopy and photoluminescence. The nanoparticle formation was shown by both techniques to be the most successful in the sample with 2 nm thick Si layers. A second annealing step at a lower temperature (500 °C) involving H was shown to make defects at or near the nanoparticle interfaces optically passive and thus enable the use of this material as a solar cell.

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