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Enhancement of physical properties of stain-etched porous silicon by integration of WO₃ nanoparticles

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Abstract

In this work, we report on the passivation of porous silicon (PS) by tungsten trioxide (WO₃) nanostructured thin films deposited via dip-coating of PS in tungsten hexachloride and water/ethanol solution. Structural analysis by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy showed a partial disappearance of SiH_x and Si-O-Si peaks after WO₃ thin film deposition on the PS due to the replacement of H atoms by WO₃. Additionally, PS/WO₃ sample revealed weakly intense peaks which can be ascribed to O-W-O and W=O bridging bonds. Morphological analysis by atomic force spectroscopy showed the coverage of the PS surface by a nanostructured thin film of dense WO₃ nanoparticles with a size ranging from 40 to 60 nm. The photoluminescence signal intensity of PS/WO₃ samples presents a continuous increase as a function of the immersion time in the precursor solution. This is attributed to a better decoration of the PS surface by WO₃ nanoplatelets and a decrease of surface recombination velocity (200 x 10² cm/s for untreated silicon, 137 x 10² cm/s for PS and 99 x 10² cm/s for PS/WO₃ samples). Hence, a ~ 50 % improvement in the effective lifetime of minority carriers is obtained. Moreover, the deposited WO₃ contributed not only to the passivation of PS, but acted as an antireflection layer which enhanced the optical properties of PS by reducing the reflection of light. These obtained results confirmed the benefits of using WO₃ thin film as passivation/antireflection coating for possible solar cell application.

Keywords: Porous silicon; Passivation; Tungsten oxide; Photoluminescence; Surface recombination velocity; Minority carrier lifetime.

1. Introduction

Although silicon being the dominant and mature material in the manufacturing of photovoltaic modules, there is a permanent quest for high-volume, high-throughput and cost-effectiveness coating technologies with multilayered materials having different functionalities. Indeed, transparency, conductivity, impermeability, photocatalytic [1], electrochromic, photochromic, passivation and antireflection properties are among those that could be combined in such multifunctional materials. In addition to the progress of coating technologies, the extension of nanotechnologies and the discovery of new nanostructuring processes have generated much interest. The nanostructuring of silicon have paved the way for different applications in microelectronic, photonic, photocatalysis [2-4], gas sensors [5, 6] and photovoltaic devices [7]. Recent studies demonstrated that the quantum confinement of carriers in nanostructured silicon contributed to the efficiency enhancement when integrated in solar cells [8, 9]. Even if the silicon emits weak infrared photoluminescence due to its indirect band gap, the finding of a high visible photoluminescence from electrochemical etched silicon (porous silicon) [10, 11] was well exploited by the photovoltaic community [12]. Although largely debated, this discovery was attributed to quantum size crystalline structures [10]. In addition to its photoluminescence, porous silicon (PS) acts as an antireflection layer with a surface reflectance attaining less than 10% in the visible spectrum due to the light-trapping into its nano-pores. Porous silicon can be elaborated by different methods with a formation mechanism leading to H-terminated surface which is unstable in ambient conditions [12]. Particularly, the appearance of dangling bonds on PS surface when subjected to an atmospheric oxidation leading to a deterioration of PS electronic and optical properties, specially, the minority carrier lifetime and the photoluminescence signal. In silicon-based solar cells, to obtain the maximum of current, photo-generated carriers diffusing to metallic contacts should have a high diffusion length and then a high lifetime. Many researchers have demonstrated the necessity of a porous silicon passivation step in order to achieve PS stability before its integration in final devices [13]. Several materials used as PS passivation layer are reported in the literature. Ben Rabha *et al.* [14] reported porous silicon passivation by means of Al₂O₃ films of different thicknesses deposited by pulsed laser deposition technique. They found an enhancement of minority carrier lifetime in p-type monocrystalline silicon from 2 μ s to 7 μ s. In the same line, Du *et al.* demonstrated the improvement of PS photoluminescence (PL) properties (PL intensity and stability) by depositing a silica film by sol-gel method [15]. These results are explained by the formation of stable surface bonds by the oxidation of Si-H bonds. Raypah *et al.* reported also the passivation of electrochemical etched silicon by a thin silver layer using RF sputtering technique [16]. They obtained an improvement of PS photoluminescence. However, the reflectance of PS has been increased with silver deposition. On the other hand, zinc oxide is also used to enhance porous silicon properties. Indeed, Salman *et al.* had shown an enhancement of solar cells efficiency with ZnO/PS as antireflection layer [17]. Other materials have recently proved their effectiveness to passivate silicon and improve solar cells efficiency such as silicon carbide [18] and alumina [19].

To improve the PS properties, this work covers the use of tungsten oxide (WO₃) as passivation layer. This oxide is known as a semi-conductor with a band gap around 3 eV and good chemical stability in aqueous solutions. This binary material has attracted considerable attention for its outstanding electrochromic, photochromic and photocatalytic properties [20-22]. There have been tremendous reports on the use of metal-oxide-semi-conductor structures as gas sensors. In this context, the majority of the applications adopted WO₃ as sensing material due to its high sensitivity and stability. Most of the recent publications studied the properties of WO₃ under different

gases such as NO_2 [23]. WO_3 thin films could be synthesized by different physical and chemical methods such as: chemical vapor deposition [20, 24], spray pyrolysis [25], sol gel [26], electrodeposition [27, 28] and atomic layer deposition (ALD) [29]. Its properties are motivating and encouraging to use it in photovoltaic devices. This work highlights an original study with a focus on the improvement of porous silicon electronic and optical properties by passivation with WO_3 thin layers deposited by a dip-coating method. A specific emphasis was put on the improvement of the PS photoluminescence signal in addition to the increase of minority carrier lifetime by depositing WO_3 thin layers.

2. Experimental techniques

To synthesis porous silicon, solar grade boron-doped single crystalline silicon (100) substrates (Czochralski) with a resistivity of $\sim 1\text{-}3 \Omega\cdot\text{cm}$ and a thickness of $200 \mu\text{m}$ were used. Before PS elaboration, silicon substrates were cleaned with boiling acetone for 10 min, followed by immersion in ethanol for 5 min and rinsed after that in deionized water in order to eliminate organic greases. Finally, the substrates were etched in 10 % hydrofluoric acid for 1 min to eliminate native oxide, rinsed in deionized water and dried with nitrogen flux. Porous silicon was formed by “stain etching” in a solution of hydrofluoric acid (40 wt %), nitric acid (65 wt %) and deionized water ($\text{HF}:\text{HNO}_3:\text{H}_2\text{O}$) = (1:2:3) in volumetric ratio for 2 min. Immediately, after formation of PS layer, the substrates were dip-coated in a solution containing tungsten hexachloride (WCl_6) prepared previously in order to deposit WO_3 layers [30]. WCl_6 was mixed with ethanol (50 %) and water (50 %) under stirring at ambient temperature for 3 hours, leading to a blue solution. The latter solution was stored in air for 7 days until the blue color disappears and then it is ready to be used.

In order to study the effect of WO_3 layers deposition on PS properties, the WCl_6 solution concentration and immersion times (t_{imm}) were varied. First, the morphological features of porous silicon before and after WO_3 treatment were characterized by a digital instrument, Nanoscope 3100 Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) operating in tapping mode. WO_3 deposition was also studied by a Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) Nicolet MAGNA-IR 560 Spectrometer. The optical properties of the prepared samples based on the surface reflectivity were analyzed using PerkinElmer Lambda 950 UV/VIS. Photoluminescence (PL) analyses were performed at ambient temperature with a 447 nm excitation laser. Finally, the minority carrier’s lifetime was measured by the “Sinton WCT-120 lifetime tester” in the quasi-steady-state mode. The measurement was based on the recombination dynamics of optically generated carriers. The excess carrier density was evaluated via inductively measured photoconductance signal. The minority carrier lifetime was determined by measuring simultaneously the photoconductance variation in the sample and the generation rate. The carrier lifetime was then presented as a function of the excess carrier density.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural and morphological Studies of the deposited WO_3 on PS

FTIR analysis was performed on freshly prepared PS and PS/ WO_3 samples. The FTIR absorption spectra are presented in Fig.1 (a). The principal recorded vibration bands observed for the two spectra are SiH_x stretching mode at 2112 cm^{-1} , Si-O-Si stretching mode at 1092 cm^{-1} and SiH_2 scissors mode at 907 cm^{-1} . Absorption bands

at 628 cm^{-1} and 672.7 cm^{-1} corresponding to Si-Si stretching mode and SiH_n ($n=1$ and $n=2$) wagging mode were also observed. Moreover, the appearance of a peak at 861 cm^{-1} was attributed to the O-SiH_x wagging mode. We clearly noticed a reduction of SiH_x and Si-O-Si peaks intensity for PS/WO₃ sample, suggesting the replacement of H atoms by WO₃ entities [31]. In order to determine precisely the different W-O bands in the spectral region (400 cm^{-1} - 1000 cm^{-1}), we have zoomed at different zones on the FTIR spectra of PS and PS/WO₃ samples. We observed appearance and disappearance of some peaks in the FTIR spectrum after a successful deposition of WO₃ nanostructured thin film. Fig.1 (b) and Fig.1 (c) show the amplification of zone 2 in PS and PS/WO₃ samples, respectively. After deconvolution of the large peak around 906 cm^{-1} , we obtained new peaks for PS/WO₃ sample at 927.7 cm^{-1} and 898.9 cm^{-1} corresponding to W=O and W-O-W bridging modes respectively [32,33]. In the PS FTIR spectrum, peaks situated at 962.5 cm^{-1} and 934.9 cm^{-1} disappeared. After amplification of zone 3 and deconvolution (Fig.1 (d) and Fig.1 (e)), a band at 782.9 cm^{-1} attributed to W-O_{intra}-W bridging stretch mode was easily distinguished [34], other peak situated at 802 cm^{-1} was clearly disappeared. The surface topography of the untreated PS was investigated by AFM, and the 2D micro-image was depicted in Fig. 2(a). After immersion in a WCl₆ solution, porous silicon surface was totally covered with nanostructured features of WO₃ (Fig. 2(b)). Quasi-spherical WO₃ nanoparticles with a 60 nm in average size were clearly observed when the immersion time of 360 s in WCl₆ solution was used; this was confirmed by the top-view SEM image of treated PS sample as shown in Fig. 2(c).

3.2. WO₃ nanostructured thin film influence on the PS physical properties

3.2.1. Surface reflectivity

Fig. 3 (a) shows the surface reflectivity of PS and PS/WO₃ samples at different immersion times (30 s, 90 s, and 120 s) in a WCl₆ solution of 0.086 mol/L concentration. PS sample presents a reflectivity of about 5 % in the visible spectral region. This low reflectivity compared to the bare silicon (Fig.3 (b)) is attributed to light trapping in the porous surface of PS. This interesting property of PS must be conserved when performing any chemical or physical treatment of the PS surface. Having a low reflectivity, in particular around the UV-VIS region of the solar spectrum, an efficient photovoltaic device could be fabricated [35]. As can be seen in Fig. 3 (a), WO₃ deposition leads to a reflectance decrease as regard to PS sample, specifically between 250 nm and 550 nm of the spectral region.

3.2.2. Minority carrier lifetime

As mentioned above, the mechanism of porous silicon formation leads to a discontinuity in silicon crystal structure, which directly results in large density of dangling bonds at its surface giving rise to a high density of recombination-active defect levels. The impact of these interface defects on electrical porous silicon properties depends on their density, their capture cross section and their energy levels. The surface recombination is directly quantified by the surface recombination velocity S as given in the (Eq.1) [36]:

$$S = \frac{U_s}{\Delta n} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

Where U_s is the surface recombination rate and Δn is the excess carrier density. The determination of S permits the quality evaluation of the surface passivation, which reduces surface recombination effect by optimizing the interface properties. In this work, porous silicon is passivated by a thin layer of tungsten oxide. FTIR results

revealed the presence of W atoms. These atoms are filling the dangling bonds and changing the interface which result in a change in the defect properties. The reduction of the interface trap density and the capture cross section results in the reduction of the surface recombination rate, and so to the decrease of the surface recombination velocity. Consequently, with WO₃ deposition, the increasing of the effective minority carrier lifetime τ_{eff} in the porous silicon samples is expected. The minority carrier lifetime is measured using the WCT-120 photoconductance lifetime tester in the quasi-steady-state mode (QSSPC). The τ_{eff} takes into account the impact of the different bulk recombination channels and also the surface recombination. These different mechanisms may occur simultaneously in the same sample. The τ_{eff} is provided by (Eq.2):

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{bulk}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{surface}} \quad (\text{Eq.2})$$

In the surface minority carrier lifetime term, the back and front surface contributions are considered:

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{surface}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{front-surface}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{back-surface}} \quad (3)$$

In this work, back and front surfaces are identically passivated ($S_1=S_2= S$). τ_{eff} is then expressed by:

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{bulk}} + \frac{2S}{w} \quad (4)$$

Where w is the sample thickness.

In order to optimize the deposition parameters, we have varied WO₃ solution concentration and measured τ_{eff} for different immersion times. We prepared three different concentrations: $C_1=0.086$ mol/L, $C_2= 0.035$ mol/L and $C_3= 0.018$ mol/L. In Fig. 4, the evolution of the minority carrier lifetime as a function of excess carrier density Δn for the concentrations C_1 , C_2 and C_3 with a deposition time of 30 s is reported. Porous silicon sample, freshly prepared, has an H-terminated surface. Consequently, minority carrier lifetime is greater in PS sample than in silicon substrate. Comparing PS and PS/WO₃ samples for the different concentrations, we observed that almost the same τ_{eff} for C_1 and C_2 was obtained. This behavior can be explained by the increase of WCl₆ solution viscosity at relatively high concentrations. WO₃ may not diffuse into the PS structure forming a glass layer and doesn't passivate PS surface defects. So, we have decreased the solution concentration and as we can observe for C_3 τ_{eff} is increased. In Fig. 5 (a), we notice an enhancement in the effective carrier lifetime as the immersion time increases for the concentration C_3 . This is attributed to defects passivation and so to the decrease of the surface recombination velocity S . This velocity can be obtained via the following equation:

$$S = \frac{w}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\tau_{eff}} - \frac{1}{\tau_{bulk}} \right) \quad (5)$$

To calculate bulk lifetime (τ_{bulk}), the surface recombination must be reduced until we can consider that the measured effective lifetime reflects the bulk recombination contribution. This is possible by passivating the surfaces. In this work, a bare silicon sample was chemically passivated using Iodine–Ethanol solution [37]. Silicon sample was covered on both sides with Iodine–Ethanol solution, placed in a transparent bag and measured with the Sinton WCT-120 lifetime tester giving a bulk minority carrier lifetime of the order of 19 μ s.

The passivation mechanism was explained in details previously [37]. Fig.5 (b) depicts the surface recombination velocity S for silicon, PS and PS/WO₃ samples. It can be noted that a significant reduction of S from 137.5×10^2 cm/s for porous silicon sample to 94.4×10^2 cm/s for PS/WO₃ sample with an immersion time of 360 s. These results confirmed the effectiveness of the use of tungsten oxide as a passivation layer. They have to be compared with rear-surface passivation of low-resistivity p-type crystalline silicon of passivated emitter and rear cell (PERC) solar cells using an Atomic-Layer-Deposited 130 nm-thick Al₂O₃ single layer, resulting in a rear surface recombination velocity as low as 90 cm/s and device efficiency as high as 20 % [38].

3.2.3. Photoluminescence

Fig. 6 depicts the photoluminescence spectra of porous silicon before and after treatment with WO₃ during different immersion times (30, 60, 300 and 360 s) for the concentration C₃. The measurement was performed in the wavelength range of 480–750 nm at room temperature. We observed an enhancement of the PL intensity of all PS/WO₃ samples. The maximum intensity was obtained for an immersion time of 360 s. It is clearly seen that coating Ps with WO₃ could protect PS from its PL intensity degradation, which may be related to the coating effect of WO₃ on PS surface chemistry. The pumping source for PL measurement was the 447 nm laser which is not the excitation wavelength of WO₃, so the PL amelioration observed is attributed to porous silicon properties changes by WO₃ deposition. This amelioration is due to the passivation of PS layer and the reduction of the surface recombination velocity. The principal peak of PS sample is blue shifted in the range of (2.11 -2.14 eV) after WO₃ treatment. We also observed the presence of a large peak around 2.4 eV. This behavior is due to WO₃ incorporation effect in the porous silicon matrix which may modify the surface electronic structure by creating new radiative centers [39]. However, for longer immersion durations, the quantity of WO₃ deposited on the porous layer promotes the non-radiative energy transfer by creating excitation energy traps.

4. Conclusion

In this work, we have reported a detailed study on the deposition effect of WO₃ thin film on a porous silicon substrate by a simple and effective dip-coating technique. FTIR results demonstrated the deposition of WO₃ layer. AFM confirmed the total coverage of porous silicon surface by WO₃ nanostructured thin film. PS/WO₃ samples exhibits a low surface reflectivity up to about 5 %. A ~ 50 % enhancement of the minority carrier lifetime by decreasing the surface recombination velocity was achieved when depositing WO₃ with an optimum 0.018 mol/L concentration of tungsten hexachloride in water/ethanol solution, which leads to an increase in the photoluminescence intensity in comparison with untreated PS layer. Obtained results confirmed that tungsten oxide is a good passivation layer to improve the porous silicon electronic and optical properties, and thus encouraging its integration in many applications such as solar cells and gas detectors. Despite these interesting results, a further amelioration of the deposited films properties is in demand. In particular, the reduction of the surface recombination velocity, the thermal treatment of dip-coated WO₃ layers or a change in the tungsten oxide deposition technique should be investigated. Further studies are in progress to test other dielectrics oxides materials to passivate porous silicon such as ALD-Al₂O₃.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1: FTIR absorption spectra of (a) PS and PS/WO₃ samples (b) amplification of zone 2 for PS sample (c) amplification of zone 2 for PS/WO₃ sample (d) amplification of zone 3 for PS sample (e) amplification of zone 3 for PS/WO₃ sample

Fig. 2: AFM image of (a) untreated porous silicon surface (b) porous silicon surface covered with WO₃ for an immersion time of 360 s in WCL₆ solution (c) Top surface SEM view of porous silicon surface covered with WO₃ for an immersion time of 360 s in WCL₆ solution.

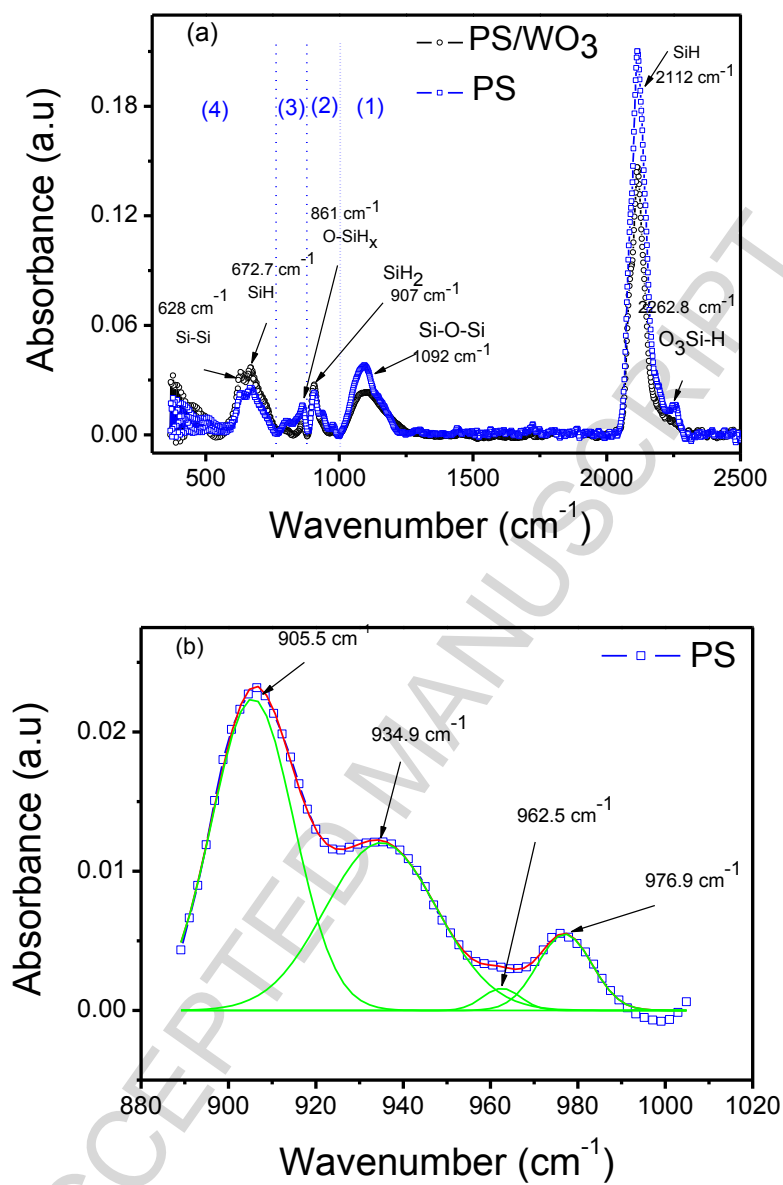
Fig. 3: (a) Reflectivity spectra of PS and PS/WO₃ samples with different immersion times (b) Reflectivity spectra of PS sample and untreated silicon substrate.

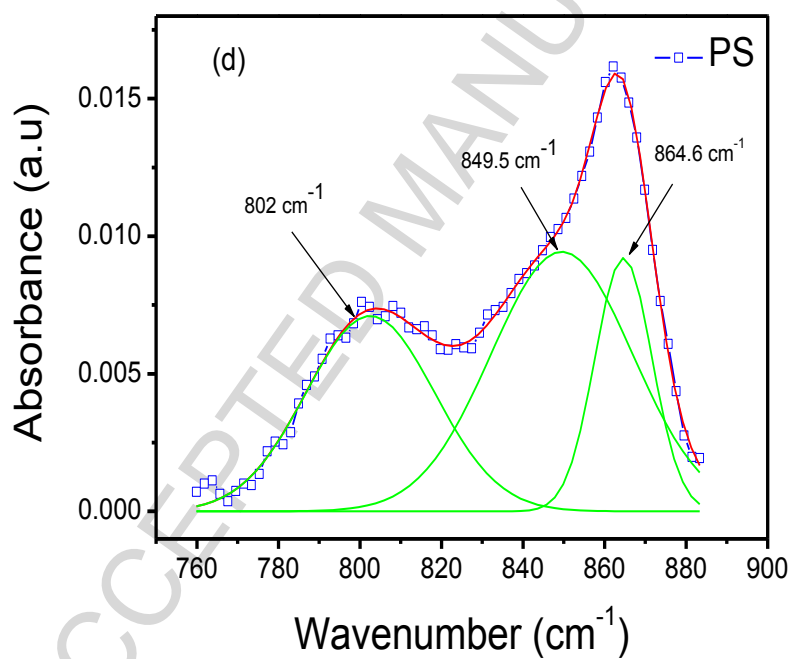
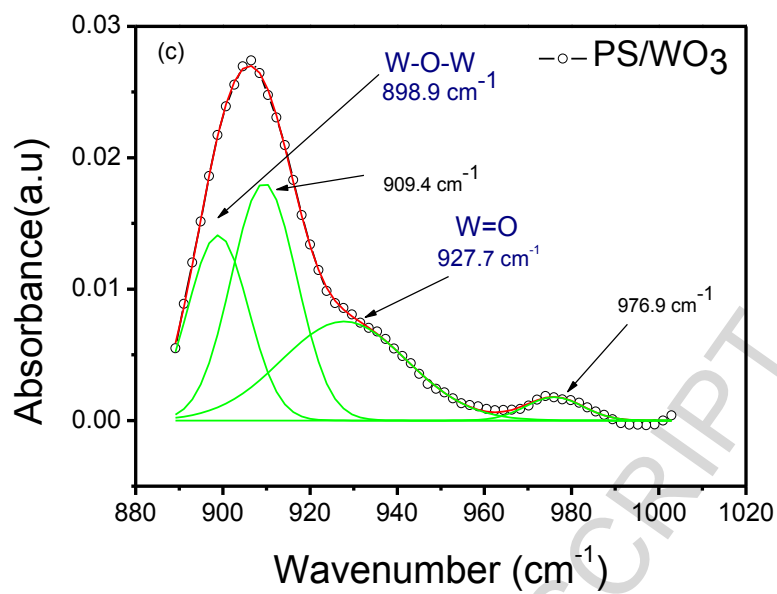
Fig. 4: Effective minority carrier lifetime as a function of excess carrier density of untreated silicon, PS and PS/WO₃ samples for different concentration $C_1=0.086$ mol/L, $C_2=0.035$ mol/L and $C_3=0.018$ mol/L for an immersion time of 30 s.

Fig. 5: (a) Effective minority carrier lifetime as a function of excess carrier density of untreated silicon, PS and PS/WO₃ samples for different immersion times and a concentration $C_3=0.018$ mol/L (b) Effective Surface recombination velocity S_{eff} as a function of immersion time

Fig. 6: PL spectra of PS and PS/WO₃ samples with different immersion times for the concentration $C_3=0.018$ mol/L performed at room temperature using 447 nm blue-violet laser diode and 475 nm long pass edge filter.

Figure 1





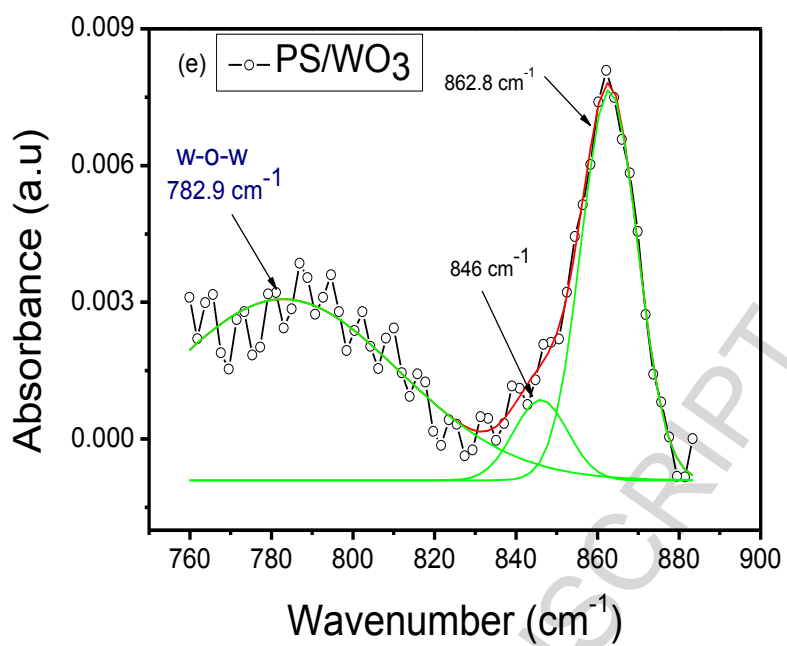
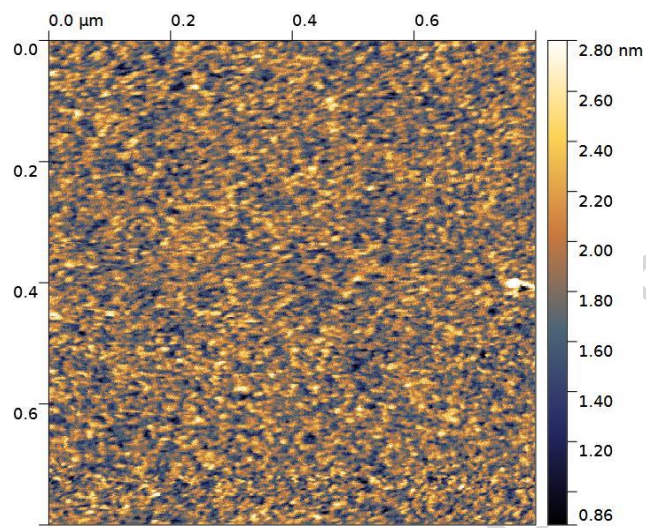
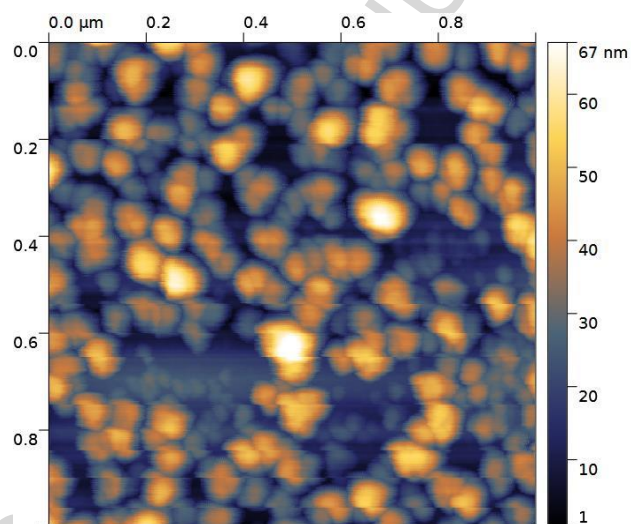
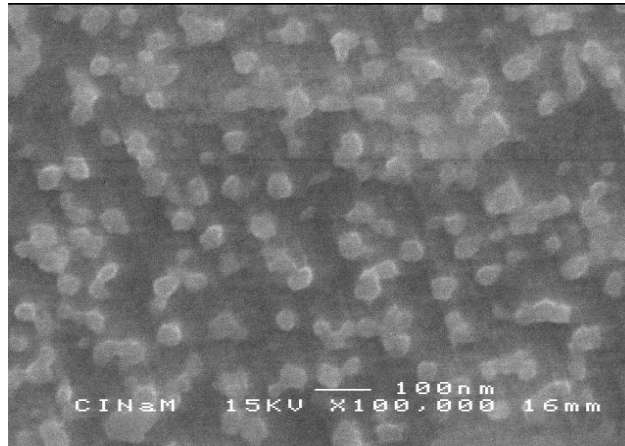


Figure 2(a)Figure 2(b)Figure 2(c)



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Figure 3(a)

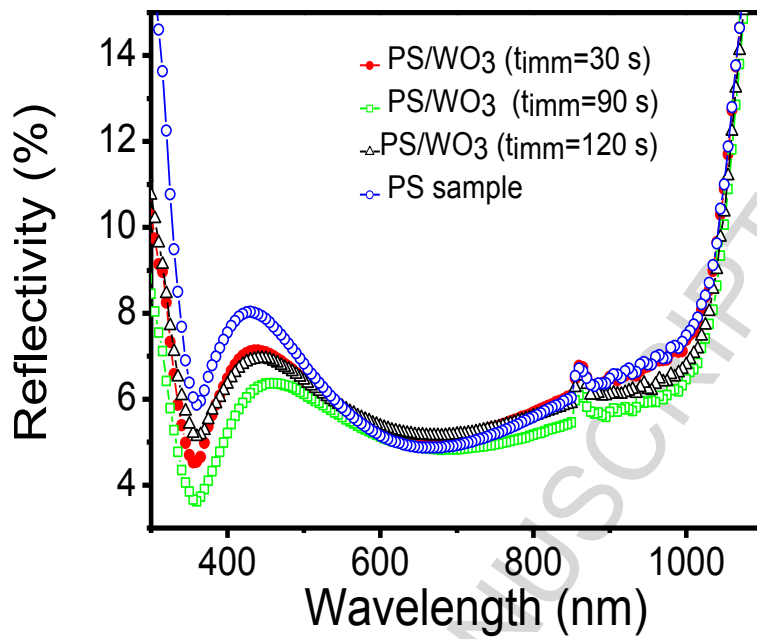


Figure 3(b)

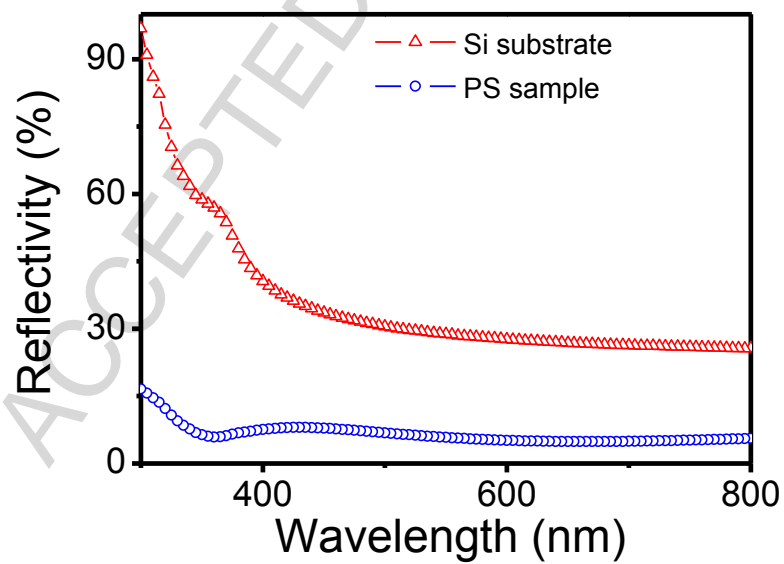


Figure 4

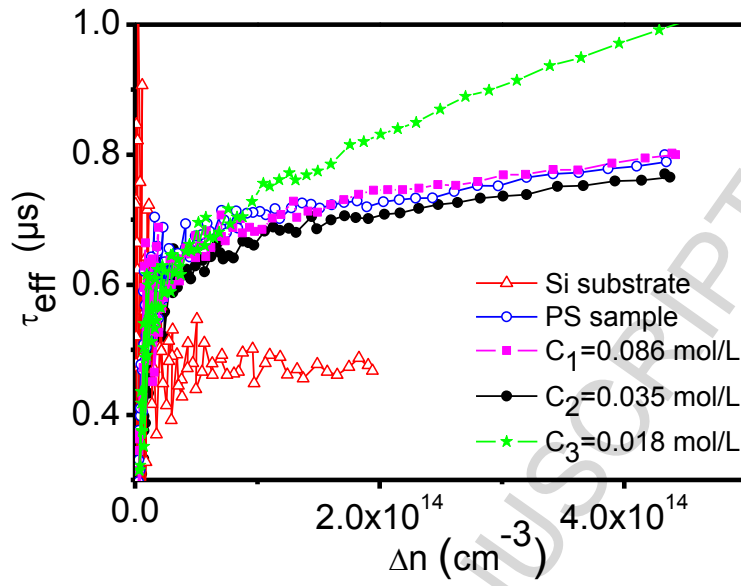


Figure 5 (a)

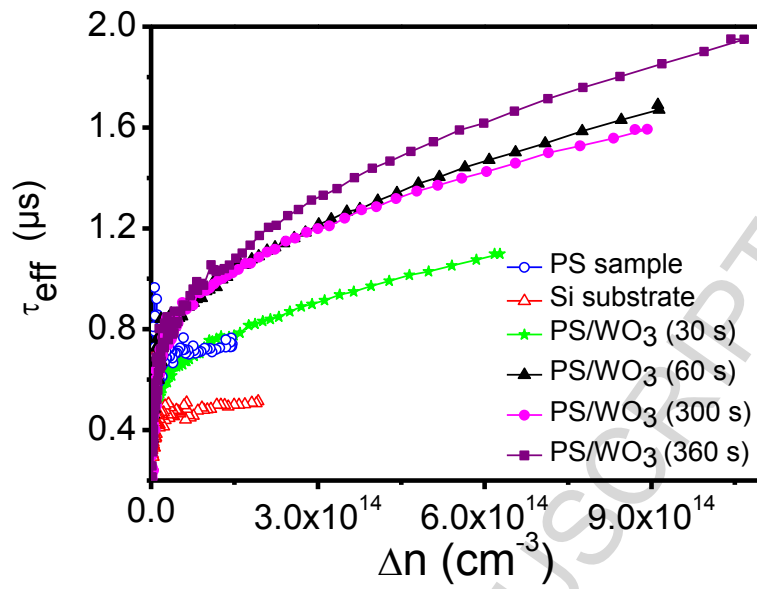


Figure 5 (b)

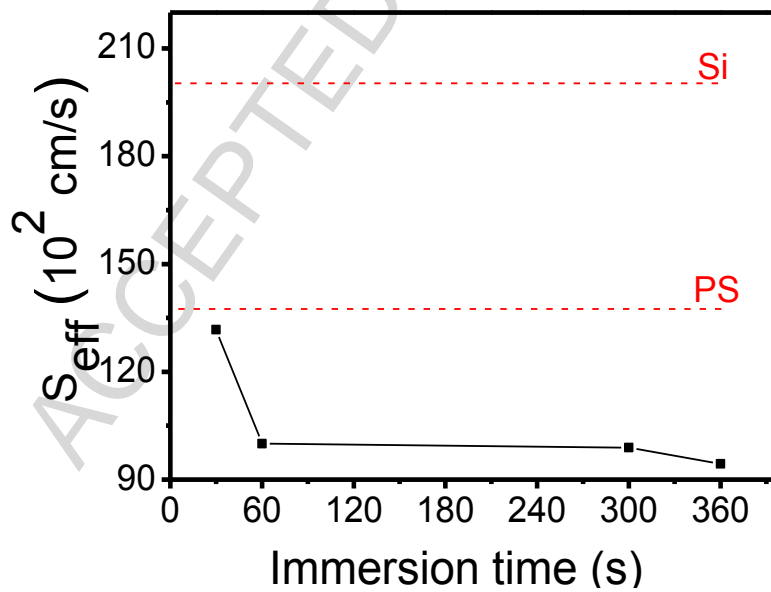
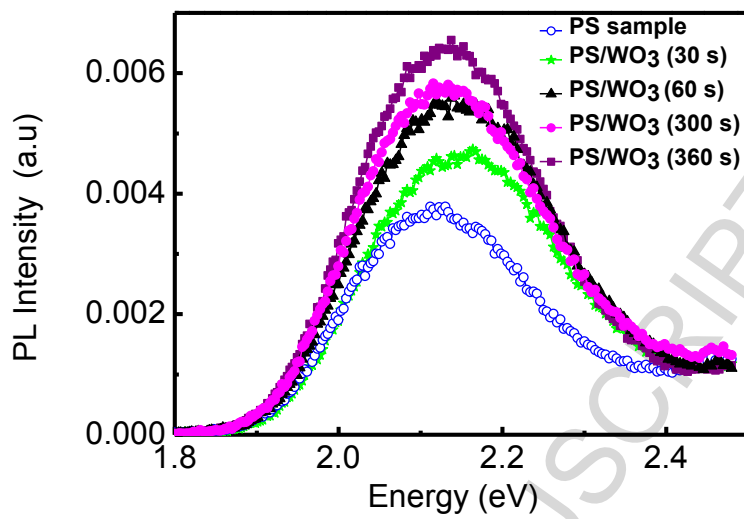


Figure 6



Highlights:

- Deposition of Tungsten trioxide on porous silicon surface.
- Enhancement of carrier lifetime and surface recombination velocity.
- Increase of the photoluminescence of elaborated samples.

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