1	Fabrication of (111)-oriented Si layers on SiO ₂ substrates by an
2	aluminum-induced crystallization method and subsequent growth of
3	semiconducting BaSi ₂ layers for photovoltaic application
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20	We have prepared (111)-oriented Si layers on SiO_2 (fused silica) substrates from
21	amorphous-Si(a-Si)/Al or Al/a-Si stacked layers using an aluminum-induced crystallization
22	(AIC) method. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) intensity from the (111) planes of Si was found
23	to depend significantly on growth conditions such as the thicknesses of Si and Al, deposition
24	order (a-Si/Al or Al/a-Si on SiO ₂), deposition technique (sputtering or vacuum evaporation)
25	and exposure time of the Al layer to air before the deposition of Si. The crystal orientation of
26	the Si layers was confirmed by θ -2 θ , 2 θ XRD and electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD).
27	The photoresponse properties of semiconducting BaSi ₂ films formed on the (111)-oriented Si
28	layers by the AIC method were measured at room temperature. Photocurrents were clearly
29	observed for photon energies greater than 1.25 eV. The external quantum efficiencies of the
30	BaSi ₂ were also evaluated.
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37	compounds
38	

1. Introduction

40	Novel Si-based materials are of great interest for high-efficiency solar cells. At
41	present, most solar cells produced are bulk silicon based. However, the band gap of Si is only
42	1.1 eV, which is approximately 0.3 eV smaller than the ideal band gap for solar cells from the
43	viewpoint of the solar spectrum [1]. In addition, the optical absorption coefficient (α) of Si is
44	much smaller than that of GaAs and CdTe. Thus, a Si thickness of at least 100 μ m is required
45	to form crystalline Si solar cells. For this reason, we have focused on orthorhombic barium
46	disilicide (BaSi ₂) as an interesting and useful alternative material to Si. Both experimental and
47	theoretical studies have revealed that $BaSi_2$ has a very large α value of over 10^5 cm ⁻¹ at 1.5
48	eV [2,3]. This value is more than two orders of magnitude larger than that of crystalline Si. In
49	addition, by replacing half of the Ba atoms with isoelectric Sr atoms, the band gap of $BaSi_2$
50	was found to reach the ideal value of approximately 1.4 eV, matching the solar spectrum [2,4].
51	Thus, BaSi ₂ has attracted significant attention for use in solar cells. The purpose of the present
52	study was to fabricate BaSi ₂ layers on SiO ₂ (fused silica) and to investigate its photoresponse
53	properties with regard to application to inexpensive solar cells. For this purpose, the
54	aluminum-induced crystallization (AIC) was employed [5-7]. AIC is a metal induced
55	crystallization (MIC) [8] technique that enables low-temperature crystallization of amorphous
56	Si (a-Si) below the eutectic temperature of 577 °C, and leads to large grained poly-Si layers.
57	Recently, Knaepen et al. have studied the crystallization kinetics of the MIC process in detail

for 20 different metals [9]. A preferential (111) orientation of the Si layers was reported [10]. 58This is favorable for the subsequent growth of BaSi₂ layers, because *a*-axis-oriented BaSi₂ 59films can be epitaxially grown on Si(111) with a lattice mismatch of approximately 1% 60 [11-15]. However, the growth of (100)-oriented Si layers has been also reported [16-18]. 61 In this study, the influence of the layer thicknesses of Si and Al, deposition order 62 (a-Si/Al or Al/a-Si on SiO₂), deposition technique (sputtering or vacuum evaporation) and 63 exposure time of the Al layer to air before the deposition of Si on the crystalline quality of the 64 Si layers was investigated. The photoresponse properties of polycrystalline BaSi₂ films grown 65on (111)-oriented poly-Si layers prepared by the AIC method on SiO₂ substrates were also 66 studied. There have been no reports on the photoresponse properties of BaSi₂ until very 67 recently; these properties are very important when we discuss quantum efficiency in BaSi₂. In 68 a previous paper [19], we reported the external quantum efficiency in 900-nm-thick BaSi₂ 69 epitaxial films for the first time. 70

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72 **2. Experimental procedure**

First, the influence of the layer thicknesses and deposition order of Al and Si on the crystallization behavior of AIC-Si layers was investigated. The AIC process was performed as follows. Al layers were deposited on SiO₂ by radio-frequency (RF) magnetron sputtering, followed by breaking of the vacuum to form a native Al oxide layer for 50 h, and the

77	subsequent deposition of a-Si layers by RF magnetron sputtering. The thickness of Al was
78	varied from 50 to 300 nm. The thickness of the Si was almost the same as that of the Al. The
79	vacuum level was 1.0 Pa and the RF power was 100 W. The deposition rates of Al and Si by
80	RF magnetron sputtering were approximately 50 and 25 nm/min, respectively. The deposition
81	order of Al and Si was inverted for sample E. Samples were annealed in a dry N_2 ambient
82	atmosphere at 500 °C for 10 h. During annealing, a-Si was transformed to the crystal phase by
83	exchange between the Al and a-Si layers. The preparation method for samples A-E is
84	summarized in Table 1. We next investigated the influence of the deposition technique
85	(sputtering or vacuum evaporation) on the crystalline quality of the AIC-Si layers. First, a 100
86	nm-thick Al layer was deposited, followed by breaking of the vacuum to form a native Al
87	oxide layer for 10 min, and the subsequent deposition of a 100-nm-thick a-Si layer. For the
88	vacuum evaporation of Al, conventional resistive heating using a tungsten filament was
89	employed, and the deposition rate of Al was approximately 100 nm/min. For the vacuum
90	evaporation of Si, an electron-beam evaporation was used, and the deposition rate was
91	approximately 3 nm/min. The samples were annealed in a dry N_2 ambient atmosphere at
92	500 °C for 10 h. As described later, the crystalline quality of AIC-Si layers depends on
93	exposure time of the Al layer to air. The exposure time of 10 min was chosen here just to
94	shorten the time necessary for this experiment. The preparation method for samples F-J is
95	summarized in Table 2. BaSi2 layers for photoresponse measurements were prepared as

96	follows. After the Al layers were etched away, the wafers were dipped in a hydrofluoric acid
97	to remove native oxide layers of Si, followed by heating at 550 °C for 5 min in ultra high
98	vacuum. Then, approximately 30-nm-thick Si layers were grown by molecular beam epitaxy
99	(MBE), and approximately 300-nm-thick undoped $BaSi_2$ layers were subsequently grown.
100	The growth procedure employed for the preparation of the $BaSi_2$ layers was almost the same
101	as that adopted previously [19]. Finally, Al was evaporated on the surface to form
102	1.5-mm-spacing striped electrodes. The ohmic nature of the contacts was confirmed from the
103	current-voltage characteristics. The samples were not covered with anti-reflection coatings.
104	The crystalline quality of the films was characterized by θ -2 θ and 2 θ X-ray
105	diffraction (XRD) using a Cu $K\alpha$ source, atomic force microscopy (AFM) and scanning
106	electron microscopy (SEM). Electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) was performed in order
107	to analyze the preferential orientation of the film. The X-ray beam was incident at an angle of
108	2 ° in the 2θ XRD measurement. Both the θ - 2θ and 2θ XRD measurements help us
109	understand what lattice plane in the crystal is parallel to the substrate plane. The photocurrent
110	in the lateral direction between the electrodes was evaluated at RT by a lock-in technique
111	using a xenon lamp with a 25-cm focal-length single monochromator (Bunko Keiki,
112	SM-1700A). The light intensity was calibrated using a pyroelectric sensor (Melles Griot,
113	13PEM001/J).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Formation of (111)-oriented Si layers on SiO₂ by AIC

117	Figure 1 shows the θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of samples A-E. The Al layers were
118	not etched for these measurements. The (111) peaks of Si were observed in the θ -2 θ XRD
119	patterns for samples A-C, but were not found in the 2θ XRD patterns. Thus, these results
120	show that (111)-oriented Si layers were fabricated in samples A-C. The peak intensity of
121	Si(111) was found to increase with increasing thickness of the Si layers. However, layer
122	exchange, and hence the crystallization of Si, was not observed for sample D. We believe that
123	much longer annealing times are required for sample D because of the thicker Si layer. In
124	sample E, prepared by inverted AIC, the layer exchange occurred and a poly-Si layer was
125	formed on the top surface and a metallic Al layer was formed between the poly-Si layer and
126	the SiO_2 substrate, which can act as a back electrode for solar cells. In addition, a very flat
127	surface was obtained in this sample. The root-mean-square (RMS) roughness of sample E was
128	much smaller than that of sample B, prepared by the standard AIC method, as shown in Fig. 2.
129	However, the peak intensity of the Si(111) plane was much smaller in sample E, at about 100
130	counts. We believe that whether the crystallization of Si occurs or not is much more important
131	than the RMS roughness value of the AIC-Si surface, because a flat surface can be produced
132	later by epitaxial thickening of the AIC layers. Thus, we chose to use the standard AIC
133	process from here on.

134	Next, we investigated the influence of the deposition method on the crystalline
135	quality. Figure 3 shows the θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of samples F-J, where the Al and Si
136	layers were deposited by either RF magnetron sputtering or vacuum evaporation. The
137	thicknesses of the Al and Si layers were kept constant at 100 nm. The sample preparation
138	method is summarized in Table 2. Layer exchange was found to occur in all of the samples.
139	As shown in Fig. 3, intense peaks from Si(111) and Al(111) planes were observed for samples
140	H-J, with the peak intensity being much larger in sample J. These results show that the
141	vacuum evaporation of Al layers significantly improves the crystalline quality of AIC-Si
142	layers. To further investigate the influence of the Al deposition method, AFM observations
143	were performed just after Al deposition and after 50 h exposure to air for sample B, and just
144	after Al deposition and after 48 h exposure to air for sample J. As shown in Fig. 4, it was
145	found that the Al had a much smoother surface and its grain size was much smaller in the
146	vacuum-evaporated Al layer. In the case of vacuum evaporation, the kinetic energy of Al
147	atoms is approximately $k_{\rm B}T$ (< 1 eV), where $k_{\rm B}$ and T are the Boltzmann constant and the
148	absolute temperature, respectively. In contrast, the kinetic energy of Al atoms sputtered is on
149	the order of 10 eV [20]. We think that this difference is attributed to the difference in surface
150	roughness shown in Fig. 4. It is well known that the presence of native Al oxide at the a-Si/Al
151	interface plays an essential role in the final crystal quality of poly-Si layers [5-7, 21-24]. We
152	believe that the rough surface of the Al layers produced by sputtering gave rise to

non-uniform Al oxide layers, which influenced the crystallization of the AIC-Si layers. Figure 5 shows the dependence of the XRD peak intensity of the Si(111) plane on the air-exposure time of the vacuum-evaporated Al layers. The AIC process conditions were the same as those of sample J except for the exposure time. The peak intensity tended to increase with increasing exposure time, although there is a lack of values in the intermediate time range. On the basis of these results, we adopted the AIC process of sample J, on which BaSi₂ films were grown by MBE.

160 Figures 6(a) and 6(b) show examples of an SEM image and EBSD mapping of sample J observed along the normal direction, respectively. It was found from the SEM image 161 162that the Si layer was continuous. The EBSD measurement was carried out at intervals of 2 µm within an area of 200×200 μ m². In Fig. 6(b), regions of (111)-oriented Si grains are colored 163blue, and regions of (001)-oriented Si grains are colored red. In the present study, 164(111)-oriented grains were defined as grains whose misorientation from the ideal (111) plane 165was less than 10°. Figure 6(b) reveals that approximately 94% of the film surface area had a 166preferential orientation of (111). The RMS roughness value of the poly-Si layer was relatively 167large, at 14.72 nm. 168

169

170 3.2 Formation and photoresponsivity of BaSi₂ film on AIC-Si/SiO₂

171

Figure 7(a) shows the θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns from the samples after the growth

172	of a 300-nm-thick $BaSi_2$ film by MBE on the Si layers formed by the AIC process of sample J.
173	The diffraction peaks of the (211), (301) and (411) planes of $BaSi_2$ were observed instead of
174	a-axis-oriented diffraction peaks which dominate in the BaSi ₂ epitaxial films grown on
175	single-crystalline Si(111) substrates [12]. We think that this can be attributed to the rough
176	surface of the AIC-Si layers, as mentioned above. Epitaxial thickening by chemical vapor
177	deposition utilizing the AIC poly-Si layers as seed crystals might lead to a flat surface of the
178	poly-Si layers, thereby yielding <i>a</i> -axis-oriented high-quality BaSi ₂ layers. Figure 7(b) shows
179	the external quantum efficiency (η) versus photon energy measured at RT under various bias
180	voltages. Light absorption produces electron-hole pairs that are separated by the electric field
181	between the electrodes, leading to current flow in the external circuit as the photoexcited
182	carriers drift before recombination. Photocurrents were observed for photon energies greater
183	than 1.25 eV, and increased sharply with increasing photon energy to reach a maximum at
184	approximately 1.60 eV. For comparison, the η versus photon energy plot measured for the
185	AIC-Si layers in sample J was inserted in Fig. 7(b). The η value was more than two orders of
186	magnitude smaller than that for the $BaSi_2$ sample. Thus, the contribution of photoexcited
187	carriers originating from the AIC-Si layers to the measured photoresponse can be excluded.
188	This is because the α value of BaSi ₂ exceeds 10 ⁵ cm ⁻¹ at around 1.60 eV [2,3], and therefore
189	almost all the photons around 1.60 eV are absorbed within the 300-nm-thick $BaSi_2$ film. η
190	was found to reach a value as large as approximately 8% at a bias voltage of 5 V. This value

corresponds to that obtained in 900-nm-thick BaSi₂ epitaxial films on single-crystalline 191192Si(111) substrates [19]. In this study, photoexcited carriers drifted in the lateral direction, and therefore the carriers likely encountered grain boundaries. With increasing drift velocity, the 193 number of carriers that reached the electrodes before recombination increased, resulting in an 194 increase in the external quantum efficiency with increasing bias voltage, as shown in Fig. 7(b). 195In the case of a BaSi₂ pn junction, an enhanced external quantum efficiency can be expected, 196 because a much larger built-in electric field ($\sim 10^4$ V/cm) exists around the junction, and also 197198the distance that photoexcited carriers must travel is much shorter ($\sim 1 \mu m$) than that in the present case (1.5 mm). The highest temperature used in this study was 600 °C, and that is the 199 200 temperature when BaSi₂ films were grown by MBE. Thus, the whole process can be carried out for cheaper substrates than fused silica substrates in the near future. 201

202

203 4. Conclusions

We have prepared (111)-oriented Si layers on fused silica substrates by the AIC method. The dependence of the crystallinity on the thicknesses of the Si and Al layers, deposition order and deposition technique, and air-exposure time after Al deposition was studied. It was found that vacuum evaporation of Al and subsequent exposure to air significantly improved the crystallinity of AIC-Si layers. EBSD mapping revealed that approximately 94% of the AIC-Si surface area had a preferential (111) orientation.

210	300-nm-thick undoped-BaSi ₂ films were grown by MBE on (111)-oriented Si layers produced
211	on SiO ₂ by the AIC method. Photoresponse spectra for photons with energies greater than
212	1.25 eV were clearly observed. The external quantum efficiency at 1.60 eV increased with the
213	bias voltage applied between the electrodes, and reached a value of approximately 8% at 5 V.
214	

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Figure captions

249	Figure 1	θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of samples A-E. The X-ray beam was incident at				
250	an angle of 2 $^\circ$	in the 2θ XRD measurement. Sample preparation is summarized in Table 1.				
251	The Al layers were not etched for these measurements.					
252						
253	Figure 2	AFM images of samples B and E. In the case of sample B, the Al layer was				
254	etched before m	easurement.				
255						
256	Figure 3	θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of samples F-J. θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of				
257	samples A-E. The X-ray beam was incident at an angle of 2 $^{\circ}$ in the 2 θ XRD measurement.					
258	Sample preparation is summarized in Table 2. The Al layers were not etched for these					
259	measurements.					
260						
261	Figure 4	AFM images of samples B and J taken just after Al deposition by RF				
262	magnetron sput	tering (a) and by vacuum evaporation (c), and after 50-h-exposure to air (b)				
263	and after 48-h-e	xposure to air (d), respectively.				
264						
265	Figure 5	Dependence of XRD peak intensity of Si(111) plane on exposure time to				

266	air after Al deposition	The experimental	conditions	were the	same as	those for	sample J
267	except for the exposure	time. The solid line	e is a guide of	nly.			

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269	Figure 6	(a) SEM image and (b) EBSD mapping of the AIC-Si layer in sample J.
270	observed along	he normal direction. (111)-oriented grains were defined as grains whose
271	misorientation fr	m the ideal (111) plane was less than 10 $^{\circ}$.

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Figure 7 (a) θ -2 θ and 2 θ XRD patterns of BaSi₂ on SiO₂ and (b) external quantum efficiency vs. photon energy for BaSi₂ layers measured at RT. The quantum efficiency for the AIC-Si layer (sample J) multiplied by 10 under the bias voltage of 2 V is inserted for comparison.

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