

LASER-DOPED SELECTIVE EMITTER - PROCESS DEVELOPMENT AND SPEED-UP

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ABSTRACT: This study pursues the development of a laser-doped selective emitter (LDSE) for p-type silicon passivated emitter and rear solar cells with screen-printed and fired silver contacts on the front. The LDSE is formed via local laser doping from the two-layer stack system of phosphosilicate glass and silicon dioxide that is located on the wafer surface after tube furnace diffusion using phosphorus oxychloride (POCl_3) as liquid dopant precursor. We aim for minimum emitter dark saturation current density at the LDSE-metal interface $j_{0e,met}$ and minimum specific contact resistance ρ_c . We use both an atmospheric pressure POCl_3 diffusion process and a high throughput low pressure POCl_3 diffusion process. Both POCl_3 processes are combined with a green nanosecond laser process at wavelength $\lambda = 532$ nm and pulse repetition rates $60 \text{ kHz} \leq f_{rep} \leq 100 \text{ kHz}$. Furthermore, we investigate high-speed infrared laser processes at $\lambda = 1064$ nm and $f_{rep} = 2$ MHz for which heat accumulation is expected to become relevant during LDSE formation. For some of the tested laser processes within this work, $\rho_c \approx 1 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is achieved. At the same time, simulations with the Quokka3 skin solver that are based on the LDSE doping profiles show that the LDSEs have the potential to lead to a $j_{0e,met}$ reduction by more than 50% compared to the not laser-doped emitter.

Keywords: Silicon Solar Cell, PERC, p-type, Selective Emitter, Laser Processing, Doping

1 INTRODUCTION

Within the field of passivated emitter and rear solar cell (PERC) technology, selective emitter concepts are again of great interest [1-4]. Gains of more than 0.3%_{abs} in energy conversion efficiency are expected compared to the homogeneous emitter approach [2-5]. However, such a boost in energy conversion efficiency can only be realized, if both emitter dark saturation current density for the passivated emitter regions $j_{0e,pass}$ as well as for the metallized emitter regions $j_{0e,met}$ are reduced [5,6]. A decrease of $j_{0e,pass}$ can be achieved by reducing the surface doping concentration of the emitter within the photoactive area [6], whereas $j_{0e,met}$ can be reduced by heavily doping the emitter underneath the front metallization [4,7]. The heavily doped emitter should further allow for optimal electrical contact properties to allow for high fill factors and thus feature minimal specific contact resistance ρ_c . For p-type silicon solar cells, the most dominant technology for implementing a selective emitter [7] is local laser doping [8,9].

Within this study, laser-doped selective emitter (LDSE) processes are developed for p-type silicon PERC solar cells with screen-printed and fired silver contacts on the front. We aim for low $j_{0e,met} < 500 \text{ fA/cm}^2$ and low $\rho_c < 2 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$. The LDSE is formed via local laser doping from a two-layer stack system consisting of phosphosilicate glass (PSG) and silicon dioxide (SiO_2). This layer stack system is located on the wafer surface after tube furnace diffusion using phosphorus oxychloride (POCl_3) as liquid dopant precursor. Thus, the interaction between the POCl_3 diffusion and the laser doping process is essential for the LDSE formation. In this work, three different process combinations are tested:

(i) We combine an atmospheric pressure (AP) POCl_3 diffusion process [3] and a green nanosecond laser process at wavelength $\lambda = 532$ nm and pulse repetition rate $60 \text{ kHz} \leq f_{rep} \leq 100 \text{ kHz}$ (see section 4.1).

(ii) We switch from AP to low pressure (LP) POCl_3 diffusion [10-12] (see section 4.2). Within a LP system, the amount of processed wafers per cycle can be doubled, whereas the POCl_3 consumption is reduced [10]. Therefore, this technology is expected to play a major role in solar cell fabrication in the near future. In the long term, we thus aim for combining LDSE processes with a

LP POCl_3 diffusion process.

(iii) We use the AP POCl_3 diffusion process from (i) for testing high-speed infrared (IR) laser doping processes at $\lambda = 1064$ nm and $f_{rep} = 2$ MHz (see section 5). When applying spatially overlapping laser pulses with such high repetition rates, consecutive laser pulses most likely interact with each other [13]. Heat is accumulated at the silicon surface which results in a drastic decrease of the absorption length, especially for IR laser irradiation [14]. The influence of this phenomenon on the LDSE formation has not yet been investigated. However, IR lasers are the most economical laser beam sources in terms of investment and operation. The approach (iii) allows for further speeding-up the LDSE formation, in order to achieve process times of clearly below one second per wafer. In this sense, the experiments performed at $f_{rep} = 2$ MHz not only address a new field of research, but are also relevant with regard to future LDSE developments.

2 APPROACH

For investigating LDSE processes, we use p-type Czochralski-grown silicon (Cz-Si) wafers with 156 mm edge length and an alkaline textured surface and apply the already mentioned different POCl_3 diffusion processes that are specially designed for the LDSE approach [3,12]. Laser test fields with an area of a few cm^2 are created consisting of overlapping laser lines. We vary laser process parameters, in particular laser pulse energy, pulse overlap, and pulse duration. Subsequent to laser doping, the wafers obtain a wet-chemical removal of the PSG layer and the emitter sheet resistance R_{sh} is determined via four-point-probe (4pp) measurements.

For a selection of test fields, charge carrier concentration profiles are recorded by electrochemical capacitance-voltage (ECV) measurements. Based on the 4pp measurements, the profiles are corrected as described in section 3. The corrected profiles are then used as input for the Quokka3 skin solver [15]. By setting the fundamental surface recombination velocity of electrons and holes to $S_n = S_p = 1 \cdot 10^7 \text{ cm/s}$, we obtain an estimation for $j_{0e,met}$ [4]. However, $j_{0e,met}$ tends to be underestimated, since the formation of metal crystallites

between the silver contacts and the silicon surface as well as potentially increased recombination due to residual laser damage are neglected.

On some of the wafers, a silicon nitride (SiN_x) passivation layer is deposited and metal contacts with a width of about $40\ \mu\text{m}$ are applied by screen-printing a commercially available silver paste. Subsequently, contact firing is performed at different set peak temperatures. To determine ρ_c , transmission line measurements (TLM) [16] are performed.

3 CORRECTION OF ECV PROFILES

ECV profiling enables recording the charge carrier concentration $N(z)$ within a doped semiconductor as a function of depth z . An excellent review on this technique is given in Ref. [17].

Fig. 1 shows three exemplary ECV measurements of identically processed laser test fields. One of the samples received a wet-chemical PSG removal, whereas for two of the samples, a PSG removal and an additional wet-chemical emitter etch back (EEB) are performed. Shifting the ECV profiles against each other shows good agreement between all measurements. However, a decrease of N towards the silicon surface is observed. This pile-down effect leads to a mismatch of the profiles and is thus interpreted as an artefact introduced by the ECV technique. The same conclusion was drawn by Kimmerle [18] when analyzing ECV measurements of not laser-processed samples. Also, in theory, rather a pile-up is expected for phosphorous-doped silicon, whereas a pile-down cannot be explained physically [19]. In consequence, for all of the ECV measurements within this work, the pile-down artefact is removed and the profiles are straightened in the surface-near region. In addition, the part of the profiles in which $N(z)$ is flattened by the influence of the base doping is cut off. In Fig. 1 this would be $N(z > 650\ \text{nm})$. However, correction is not yet completed.

A further correction step is necessary, since during the ECV measurement, it is assumed that the surface area of the electrolyte-semiconductor interface, denoted by A , is plane. This assumption is false, since the textured and laser processed silicon surface exhibits a rough topography. The enlargement of the surface can be

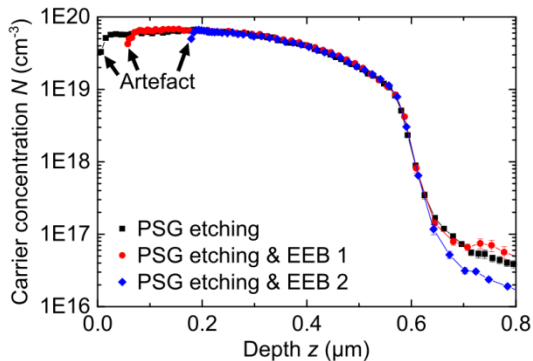


Figure 1: Exemplary ECV measured doping profiles of identically processed laser test fields showing a measurement artefact. All of the samples received a PSG removal. For two of the samples, an additional emitter etch back (EEB) is performed. The corresponding profiles are shifted to the right, so that they show the best possible match to the black squares.

accounted for by introducing the factor f in the sense of $A^{\text{corr}} = fA$ [18]. The factor f can be found by adjusting the emitter sheet resistance resulting from the ECV profile to the 4pp measured sheet resistance [18,20]. This adjustment eventually yields the corrected doping profile [18]. For the doping profiles corrected within this work, $1.0 \leq f \leq 1.5$ is found.

4 PROCESS DEVELOPMENT

4.1 AP POCl_3 diffusion & green laser at $f_{\text{rep}} \leq 100\ \text{kHz}$

For the first group of wafers, we apply an AP POCl_3 diffusion process that is specially designed for the LDSE approach [3]. The resulting emitter yields $j_{0e,\text{pass}} \approx 40\ \text{fA/cm}^2$ for textured and SiN_x -passivated surfaces [3]. For creating the laser test fields, a nanosecond laser is used at $\lambda = 532\ \text{nm}$ and $60\ \text{kHz} \leq f_{\text{rep}} \leq 100\ \text{kHz}$. The $1/e^2$ -radius of the laser beam is $\omega_0 = (50.0 \pm 0.4)\ \mu\text{m}$. The position of the test fields is varied for each wafer, in order to account for inhomogeneities of the PSG layer across the wafers. In total, eight different parameter sets are tested differing in laser pulse energy E_p , (full width half maximum) pulse duration τ_p , and pulse pitch d_p (distance of the laser pulses within the laser lines as well as from line to line). For fabricating the TLM samples, two different set peak firing temperatures are chosen: $840\ ^\circ\text{C}$ and $880\ ^\circ\text{C}$.

Fig. 2 shows R_{sh} and ρ_c in dependence on E_p , τ_p , d_p , and the set peak firing temperature, whereas the errors for E_p and τ_p are about 3%. We compare the laser-doped test fields with the emitter that results from AP POCl_3 diffusion and therefore serves as reference (“Ref”). Concerning the emitter sheet resistance, a drop from $R_{\text{sh}} \approx 140\ \Omega/\text{sq}$ to $21\ \Omega/\text{sq} < R_{\text{sh}} < 49\ \Omega/\text{sq}$ after laser doping is observed. However, with increasing pulse duration τ_p , higher pulse energies E_p are necessary to achieve the same reduction in sheet resistance R_{sh} . In general, E_p shows a strong impact on R_{sh} . For the specific contact resistance ρ_c , an optimum occurs within the tested

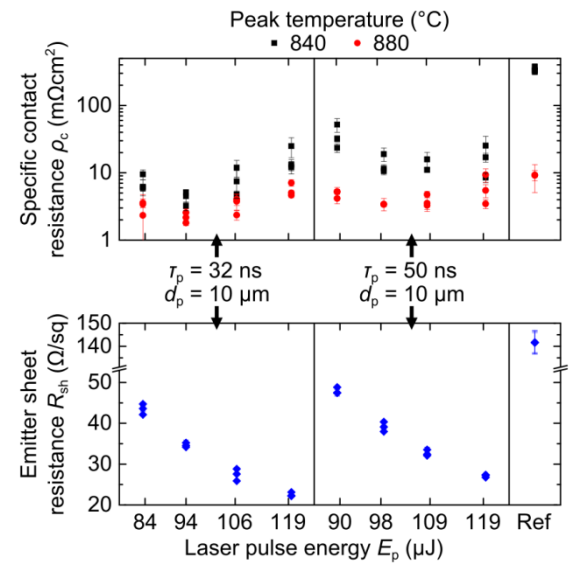
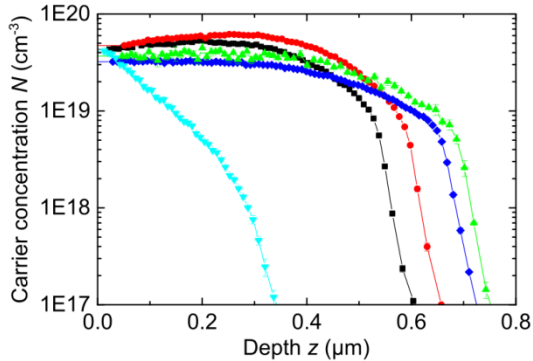


Figure 2: Emitter sheet resistance R_{sh} and specific contact resistance ρ_c as a function of laser pulse energy E_p and pulse duration τ_p for constant pulse pitch $d_p = 10\ \mu\text{m}$. The emitter resulting from the AP POCl_3 diffusion process serves as reference (“Ref”). For ρ_c , a variation of the set peak firing temperature is shown.

range of E_p for both pulse durations. By increasing the set peak firing temperature from 840 °C to 880 °C, a decrease of ρ_c is obtained. For the shorter pulse duration $\tau_p = 32$ ns, ρ_c tends to be lower than for the longer pulse duration $\tau_p = 50$ ns. Minimal specific contact resistance $\rho_c \approx 2$ m Ω cm 2 is achieved by $\tau_p = 32$ ns, $E_p = 94$ μ J and 880 °C set peak firing temperature. For this temperature, the reference yields $\rho_c \approx 9$ m Ω cm 2 .

For some of the laser parameter sets shown in Fig. 2, ECV profiles are recorded. Again, the emitter that results from AP POCl $_3$ diffusion serves as reference. Fig. 3 sums up the corrected doping profiles, the factor f that is used for correction, and the corresponding Quokka3 estimations for $j_{0e,met}$. The laser-doped emitters are about 0.7 μ m deep, which is about twice as deep as the reference emitter. Doping depth grows with increasing laser pulse energy E_p and pulse duration τ_p . For the reference emitter, we find the surface-near doping concentration $N_{surf} \approx 4 \cdot 10^{19}$ cm $^{-3}$. Laser doping does not change N_{surf} drastically. However, for the longer pulse duration $\tau_p = 50$ ns, N_{surf} tends to be slightly reduced. Interestingly, both doping profiles obtained for the shorter pulse duration $\tau_p = 32$ ns show an increase with growing depth z for $z < 0.2$ μ m, which is unexpected from a physical point of view. The reason for this unexpected finding is not clear yet. Possibly, the observed increase is an artefact of the ECV measurement similar to the pile-down artefact (see Fig. 1) described in section 3. It is also possible that laser doping results in a local inhomogeneous charge carrier concentration. Such inhomogeneities cannot be resolved by the ECV method, since the carrier concentration is averaged over several mm 2 . The factor f that quantifies the enlargement of the surface is found to be $f = 1.34$ for the reference. By laser-doping, f is reduced. This can be explained by the fact that the surface gets molten and therefore smoothed during the laser process [8]. For $\tau_p = 32$ ns, a decrease from $f = 1.14$ to $f = 1.09$ is found for increasing pulse



	E_p (μ J)	d_p (μ m)	τ_p (ns)	f	$j_{0e,met}$ (fA/cm 2)
—■—	94	10	32	1.14	271
—●—	106	10	32	1.09	230
—◆—	98	10	50	1.22	292
—▲—	109	10	50	1.17	257
—▼—				1.34	932
		Ref			

Figure 3: Emitter doping profiles measured by ECV and corrected as discussed for some of the laser parameter sets shown in Fig. 2. The emitter resulting from the AP POCl $_3$ diffusion process serves as reference (“Ref”). For the correction, the factor f is used. Via Quokka3, the dark saturation current density at the emitter-metal interface $j_{0e,met}$ is estimated for each profile.

energy from $E_p = 94$ μ J to $E_p = 106$ μ J. This is due to the increase in time in which the surface is molten [8]. The same effect is observed for $\tau_p = 50$ ns. Here a reduction from $f = 1.22$ ($E_p = 98$ μ J) to $f = 1.17$ ($E_p = 109$ μ J) is obtained. Concerning the estimated $j_{0e,met}$, the amount of electrically active phosphorous atoms per area, which we call the phosphorous dose D , plays the major role [4]. If doping depth and surface-near doping concentration are increased, the phosphorous dose D grows and $j_{0e,met}$ is reduced. However, no drastic differences between the tested laser processes occur, since the phosphorous dose is within the same range of $D \approx 2 \cdot 10^{15}$ cm $^{-2}$. Compared to the reference ($D = 4 \cdot 10^{14}$ cm $^{-2}$), a reduction from $j_{0e,met} = 932$ fA/cm 2 to 230 fA/cm $^2 \leq j_{0e,met} \leq 292$ fA/cm 2 is achieved according to our estimation.

4.2 LP POCl $_3$ diffusion & green laser at $f_{rep} \leq 100$ kHz

For the second group of wafers, we use the same laser for creating the LDSE test fields as for the first wafer group. We stick to the short pulse duration $\tau_p = 32$ ns and vary the pulse pitch d_p instead. Furthermore, we replace the AP POCl $_3$ diffusion process by a LP POCl $_3$ diffusion process. This LP process is similar to the one introduced in Ref. [12]. It is specially designed for the LDSE approach and yields $j_{0e,pass} \approx 43$ fA/cm 2 for textured and SiN $_x$ -passivated surfaces. For fabricating the TLM samples, two different set peak firing temperatures are chosen: 810 °C and 850 °C.

Fig. 4 shows the results obtained for R_{sh} and ρ_c . We find that laser doping results in a reduction from $R_{sh} \approx 150$ Ω /sq to 36 Ω /sq $< R_{sh} < 81$ Ω /sq. The pulse energy E_p shows a strong impact on R_{sh} , whereas the pulse pitch d_p plays only a minor role. Interestingly, at $E_p = 85$ μ J, a decrease in R_{sh} is obtained for increasing the pitch from $d_p = 10$ μ m to $d_p = 25$ μ m, even though the applied energy per area is reduced. This counterintuitive finding could be due to variations within the properties of the PSG/SiO $_2$ layer system and the reference emitter that are caused by inhomogeneities within the POCl $_3$ diffusion

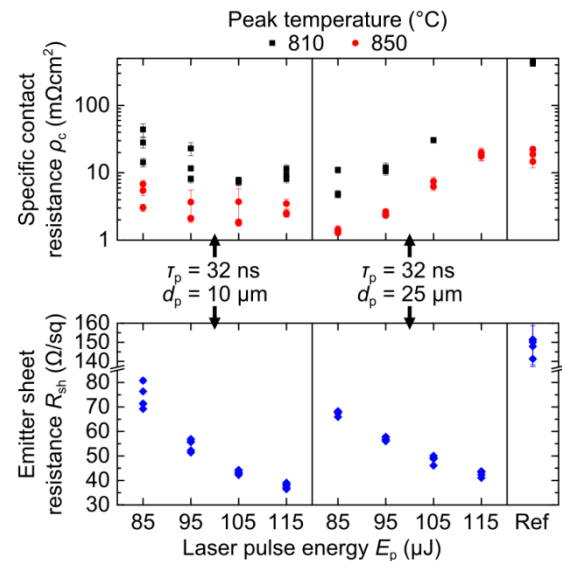
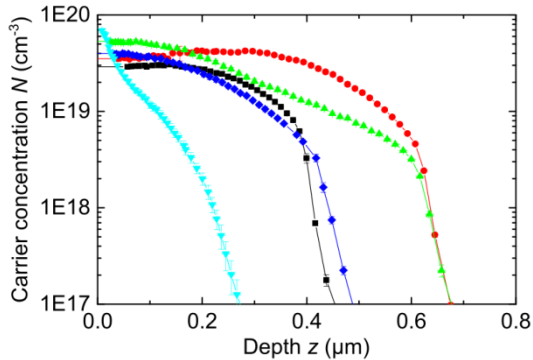


Figure 4: Emitter sheet resistance R_{sh} and specific contact resistance ρ_c as a function of laser pulse energy E_p and pulse pitch d_p for constant pulse duration $\tau_p = 32$ ns. The emitter resulting from the LP POCl $_3$ diffusion process serves as reference (“Ref”). For ρ_c , a variation of the set peak firing temperature is shown.

process. Concerning ρ_c , an optimum is found for $d_p = 10 \mu\text{m}$. This is in good accordance with the corresponding results obtained for the AP POCl_3 diffusion process ($\tau_p = 32 \text{ ns}$ and $d_p = 10 \mu\text{m}$ in Fig. 2). For both AP and LP POCl_3 diffusion process, minimal specific contact resistance $\rho_c \approx 2 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is reached for $E_p \approx 100 \mu\text{J}$. For the LP POCl_3 diffusion process and $d_p = 25 \mu\text{m}$ (see Fig. 4), we expect the minimum of ρ_c to be reached at $E_p < 85 \mu\text{J}$. However, within the tested pulse energy range, $1 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2 < \rho_c < 2 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is achieved at 850°C , whereas the reference yields $\rho_c \approx 19 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$. For 810°C , ρ_c is found to increase.

For a selection of test fields, doping profiles are recorded and $j_{0e,\text{met}}$ is estimated. Fig. 5 sums up the results. If pulse energy is raised, the doping depth increases. Compared to the reference, profile depth is enlarged from about $0.3 \mu\text{m}$ to about $0.5 \mu\text{m}$ ($E_p = 85 \mu\text{J}$) and $0.7 \mu\text{m}$ ($E_p = 115 \mu\text{J}$), respectively. By changing the pulse pitch from $d_p = 10 \mu\text{m}$ to $d_p = 25 \mu\text{m}$, the doping profiles are steepened and surface-near doping concentration is increased by more than $\Delta N_{\text{surf}} \approx 1 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. For $E_p = 85 \mu\text{J}$, this increase yields $N_{\text{surf}} \approx 4 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, whereas for $E_p = 115 \mu\text{J}$, $N_{\text{surf}} \approx 5 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ is obtained. For the factor f that is used to correct the doping profiles, similar trends as in section 4.1 are observed. The reference yields $f = 1.50$, which is the largest value that is found. By laser-doping, f is reduced. This reduction strongly depends on the laser pulse energy E_p , whereas the pulse pitch plays only a minor role. For $E_p = 85 \mu\text{J}$, $f \approx 1.32$ is found, whereas $E_p = 115 \mu\text{J}$ yields $f \approx 1.05$.

Concerning the $j_{0e,\text{met}}$ estimation, significant differences for the laser-doped test fields are obtained which reflects the differences in doping dose [4]. By all tested LDSE processes, however, a drastic reduction from $j_{0e,\text{met}} = 1070 \text{ fA/cm}^2$ to $j_{0e,\text{met}} \leq 489 \text{ fA/cm}^2$ is achieved according to the estimation. For $d_p = 25 \mu\text{m}$, a tradeoff between $j_{0e,\text{met}}$ and ρ_c exists within the tested range of E_p , since ρ_c but also the doping dose decreases when laser



	E_p (μJ)	d_p (μm)	τ_p (ns)	f	$j_{0e,\text{met}}$ (fA/cm ²)
—■—	85	10	32	1.35	489
—●—	115	10	32	1.08	281
—◆—	85	25	32	1.29	469
—▲—	115	25	32	1.02	313
—▼—		Ref		1.50	1070

Figure 5: Emitter doping profiles measured by ECV and corrected as discussed for some of the laser parameter sets shown in Fig. 4. The emitter resulting from the LP POCl_3 diffusion process serves as reference (“Ref”). For the correction, the factor f is used. Via Quokka3, the dark saturation current density at the emitter-metal interface $j_{0e,\text{met}}$ is estimated for each profile.

pulse energy is reduced.

Comparing the results of this section with the ones obtained for the AP POCl_3 diffusion process presented in section 4.1, we identify the most promising approach to be the combination of the LP POCl_3 diffusion process with the LDSE process at $\tau_p = 32 \text{ ns}$, $E_p = 85 \mu\text{J}$, and $d_p = 25 \mu\text{m}$. By this approach, the throughput of the POCl_3 diffusion process is increased and minimal specific contact resistance $\rho_c \approx 1 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is achieved. However, an experimental analysis of $j_{0e,\text{pass}}$ and $j_{0e,\text{met}}$ for the tested LDSE processes is required for a more sophisticated process development.

5 PROCESS SPEED-UP

For the third group of wafers, we apply the same AP POCl_3 process as for the first group. Laser doping, however, is performed using an IR laser ($\lambda = 1064 \text{ nm}$) at constant repetition rate $f_{\text{rep}} = 2 \text{ MHz}$, pulse duration $\tau_p \approx 30 \text{ ns}$, and $1/e^2$ -radius $\omega_0 \approx 28 \mu\text{m}$. A polygon scanner system [22] is used to create laser lines with scan speeds $v_s \geq 40 \text{ m/s}$ and a constant line pitch of $10 \mu\text{m}$. For these laser parameters, we expect heat accumulation [13] to occur during the LDSE formation.

Within a first experiment, we test two laser processes A and B differing only in scan speed v_s . As Fig. 6 shows, after applying laser process A, no modification of the wafer surface is observed. In contrast, for process B for which the spatial overlap of the laser pulses within each laser line is increased, the threshold of modification is exceeded. This could be due to an enhanced heat accumulation resulting from the increase in overlap of the pulses. However, these observations can only be interpreted as an indication for the presence of heat accumulation.

We use process B as a starting point for testing potential high-speed laser processes for LDSE formation. In order to achieve significant doping, we raise pulse energy to $E_p = 44 \mu\text{J}$ and $E_p = 47 \mu\text{J}$, respectively, while keeping the scan speed at $v_s = 40 \text{ m/s}$. For both pulse energies, one test field is processed and characterized by 4pp and ECV. Fig. 7 summarizes the obtained results. Both doping profiles exhibit a surface-near doping concentration of $N_{\text{surf}} \approx 4 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. With increasing depth, the doping profiles start to differ from each other. For $E_p = 44 \mu\text{J}$, the doping depth is below $1 \mu\text{m}$. We obtain $R_{\text{sh}} = 47 \Omega/\text{sq}$ and $j_{0e,\text{met}} = 335 \text{ fA/cm}^2$. In contrast, $E_p = 47 \mu\text{J}$ yields a doping depth larger than $1 \mu\text{m}$ and thus a reduction in R_{sh} of about $\Delta R_{\text{sh}} = 8 \Omega/\text{sq}$ and an

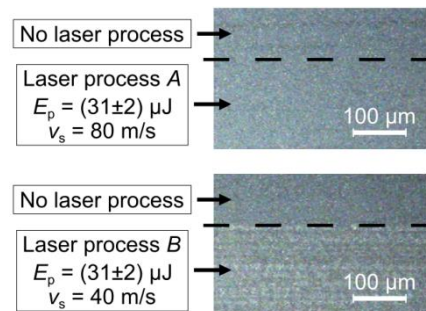


Figure 6: Dark-field microscope images showing parts of the wafer surface after performing the AP POCl_3 diffusion process and applying laser processes A and B with identical laser pulse energy E_p . A modification of the surface is observed by decreasing the scan speed v_s .

increase in $j_{0e,met}$ of $\Delta j_{0e,met} = 49 \text{ fA/cm}^2$. Concerning the factor f , we find a slight decrease from $f = 1.10$ to $f = 1.05$ for increasing laser pulse energy. As already mentioned, this can be explained by the increase in time in which the wafer surface is molten during laser doping.

Compared to the doping profiles shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 5, the high-speed laser processes yield steeper emitter profile and an increased doping depth. However, in terms of R_{sh} , f , estimated $j_{0e,met}$, and N_{surf} , similar results are achieved. Nevertheless, further research is necessary to investigate, if also for high-speed IR laser processes, low specific contact resistance $\rho_c < 2 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ can be achieved. Also, deeper knowledge is required concerning the phenomenon of the heat accumulation.

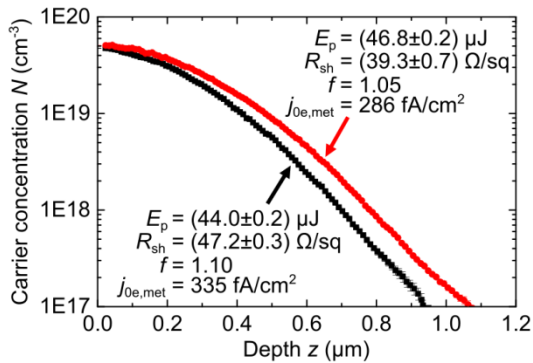


Figure 7: Emitter doping profiles measured by ECV and corrected by the factor f , emitter sheet resistance R_{sh} , and estimated dark saturation current density at the emitter-metal interface $j_{0e,met}$ for two laser processes with constant scan speed $v_s = 40 \text{ m/s}$ and differing laser pulse energy E_p . Laser doping is combined with the AP POCl_3 diffusion process.

6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Within this work, we develop laser-doped selective emitter (LDSE) processes for p-type silicon passivated emitter and rear solar cells with screen-printed and fired silver contacts on the front. For local laser doping, we use the two-layer stack system of phosphosilicate glass and silicon dioxide that is located on top of the silicon surface after phosphorus oxychloride (POCl_3) tube furnace diffusion. For the LDSE doping profiles that are recorded within this work, the emitter dark saturation current density at the LDSE-metal interface is reduced to $230 \text{ fA/cm}^2 \leq j_{0e,met} \leq 489 \text{ fA/cm}^2$, which is a reduction of more than 50% compared to the not laser-doped emitter according to a Quokka3 estimation. For the combination of the atmospheric pressure POCl_3 diffusion process and the green nanosecond laser at wavelength $\lambda = 532 \text{ nm}$, specific contact resistance $\rho_c \approx 2 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is achieved by using laser pulse energy $E_p = 94 \mu\text{J}$, pulse duration $\tau_p = 32 \text{ ns}$, and pulse pitch $d_p = 10 \mu\text{m}$. For the low pressure POCl_3 diffusion process with increased throughput, $\rho_c \approx 1 \text{ m}\Omega\text{cm}^2$ is achieved by $E_p = 85 \mu\text{J}$, $\tau_p = 32 \text{ ns}$, and $d_p = 25 \mu\text{m}$. When applying high-speed infrared (IR) laser processes at pulse repetition rate $f_{rep} = 2 \text{ MHz}$, we expect heat accumulation to occur. However, further research is necessary to understand under which conditions this phenomenon becomes relevant and how it affects the doping profile of the LDSE, the crystal structure, and the properties of the LDSE-metal interface, in particular the specific contact

resistance.

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