INTRODUCTORY OVERVIEW TO: DEPOSITION OF AMORPHOUS SILICON BY VERY-HIGH-FREQUENCY PLASMA-ENHANCED CHEMICAL VAPOUR DEPOSITION

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INTRODUCTORY OVERVIEW TO:

DEPOSITION OF AMORPHOUS SILICON BY VERY-HIGH-FREQUENCY PLASMA-ENHANCED CHEMICAL VAPOUR DEPOSITION

(ie a-Si:H by vhf PECVD)

Motivation: Increase rate of deposition of amorphous silicon whilst maintaining film quality - reduce cost of solar cells.

Structure:

INTRODUCTION

PLASMA PROPERTIES

PLASMA CHEMISTRY

POSSIBLE PLASMA DIAGNOSTICS

INTRODUCTION

AIM: Increase deposition rate R from industrial 0.3 nm/s to 2-3 nm/s without loss of film quality - by operating at 'optimum frequency' of the radio-frequency plasma. Currently, in industrial production, it takes about 1 minute to fabricate the p and n layers, but 30 minutes for the intrinsic amorphous silicon layer.

Industrial, Scientific and Medical (ISM) agreed frequency for high power sources is 13.56MHz. Almost all reported experiments work at this frequency.

a-Si:H better than crystalline silicon c-Si

c-Si is more efficient for solar cells, but is fabricated in a high temperature process.

Pay-back time for c-Si cell is 6.3 years

Pay-back time for a-Si:H cell is 2.2 years.

Also, a-Si:H can be deposited on any substrate, and on large surfaces.

Plasma Enhanced Chemical Vapour Deposition (PECVD) better than Chemical Vapour Deposition (CVD)

PECVD is a low temperature process. High energy electrons and low energy molecules create exotic radicals at room temperature.

Much is not known:

Which radicals are important?

Neutrals or ions?

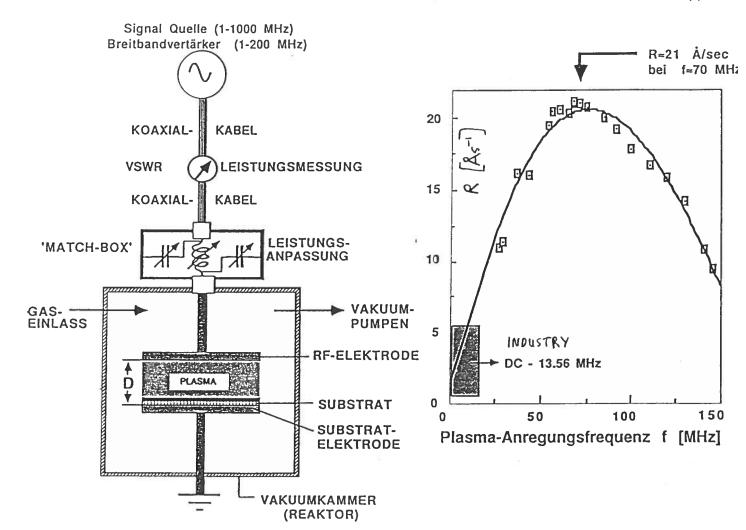
What plasma parameters should be optimised? - Physics.

What is a useful process monitor? - Industry.

Figures on following page:

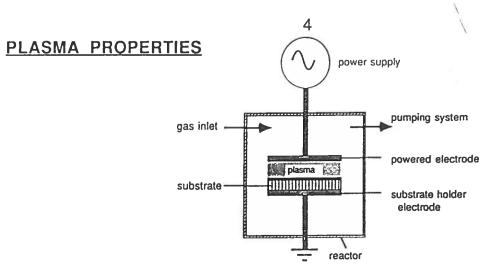
- a) Schematic of the IMT Neuchâtel reactor. An rf source (<100W, 1 1000MHz) is applied via a matching circuit to two electrodes, producing a capacitative discharge. The source gas silane (SiH₄) is dissociated and ionised by electron impact in the plasma, and some of radicals drift toward the glass substrate which is placed on the grounded electrode, thus forming a deposit of amorphous silicon.
- b) Deposition rate v frequency as measured at IMT Neuchâtel.

ABSCHEIDUNGSRATE R(f)



1B	Perceived Risk	Perceived Benefit		Perceived Risk	Perceive Benefit	đ	Perceived Risk	Perceived Benefit
1 .	Solar Electric Power 12	56	31.	Home Gas Furnaces 29	49	61.	Diagnostic X Rays	54
2.	Jogging 14	65	32.	Anesthelics29	55	62.	Dynamite	30
3.	Sunbathing 20	49	33.	Pregnancy, Childbirth 30	60	63.	Surgery48	64
4.	Cosmetics 20	49	34.	Antibiotics	58	64.	Vallum48	37
5.	Roller Coasters	33	35.	Football	54	65.	Chemical Disinfectants 49	47
6.	Marijuana	53	36.	Hydroelectric Power	66	66.	Liquid Natural Gas 50	58
7.	Surling	41	37.	Calfeine	42	67.	Atbestos	51
€.	Fluorescent Lights	46	38.	General Aviation	39	68.	Oral Contraceptives	67
8.	Earth Orbit Satellite 22	54	39.	Fireworks	42	69.	Darvon 52	38
10.	Recreational Boating 22	45	40.	Commercial Aviation 31	54	70.	Radiation Therapy53	36
11.	Boxing 23	34	41.	Aspirin	63	71,	Morphine53	31
12.	Mushroom Hunting 23	32	42.	Dams 31	64	72.	Open-Heart Surgery53	50
13.	Halr Dyes 23	28	43.	Jumbo Jets 32	48	73.	Amphetamines55	27
14,	Water Fluoridation 24	44	44.	SST	30	74.	Motor Vehicles	76
15.	Vaccinations	77	45.	Hunting	47	75.	Chemical Fertilizers	48
18.	Bicycles 24	68	46.	Home Power Tools	52	76.	Alcoholic Beverages	40
17.	Space Exploration	51	47.	Saccharin	25	77.	Barbiturates	27
18.	Downhill Skiling 26	57	48.	Laetrit	30	78.	Nerve Gas	41
19.	Home Appliances	72	49.	Power Lawn Mowers 35	39	79.	National Defense	58
20.	Swimming Pools	57	50.	Microwave Ovens	34	80.	Heroin	36 17
21.	Non-nuclear Electric Power 26	75	51.	Sodium Nitrite	31	81.	Terrorism	17
22.	Skyscrapers 26	39	52.	Food Irradiation	42	82		
23.	Scuba Diving 26	41	53.	Fossil Electric Power 40	65	02.	Smoking	24
24.	Skaleboards	37	54.	Prescription Drugs		83.	Herbicides69	33
25.	Christmas Tree Lights 27	- 44	55.	DNA Research41	73	84.	Pesticides	38
26.	Bridges 27	69	56.	Food Preservatives	41	85.	Nuclear Power72	36
27.	Mountain Climbing 28	47	57.		36	86.	Crime	9
28.	Tractors	61	58.	Police Work	34	87.	Handguns 76	27
29.	Food Coloring	19	59.		75	88.	DDT	26
30.	Rallroads	48	60.	Motorcycles43	43	89.	Warfare 78	31
30.	CALLANA MOREOMORPHISMOONING CA	-0	ου.	Fire Flightling 44	83	90.	Nuclear Weapons	27

RISK & BENEFIT JUDGEMENT OF PUBLIC (NB American)



Silane SiH₄ => Plasma Chemistry => Exhaust

Electrode diameter 135mm Separation 10-50mm

Pure Silane used (no gas mixtures)

Continuous flow 20 sccm = 0,333 mbar.l/s (feedback controlled)

Pressure 0,2 mbar (feedback controlled)

Molecule residence time 1s approx.

Total Power 10W approx.

Above values are control parameters in the Institut de Microtechnique (IMT) Neuchâtel experiment.

Values below are typical measurements on 13.56 MHz reactors reported in the literature. Plasma parameters are not known for the vhf domain in the IMT reactor - this is the task of CRPP, EPFL. Figures may therefore not be representative of the IMT plasma

- * SiH₄ density $n_g = 2.10^{21} \text{ m}^{-3}$ (mfp about 0.5mm)
- * Weakly ionised $\alpha = n_e / n_g = 10^{-4}$ therefore *electron-neutral collisions* dominate transport and radical production. Debye length about 0,06mm.
- * Neutral dissociation products about 1% of silane parent molecule density, ie:

 (SiH_4) : $(\Sigma Si_nH_m, H, H_2)$: $(\Sigma ions) = 1$: 10^{-2} : 10^{-4} source neutral products ionised gas products

- * Plasma frequencies $f_{pi} = 7 \text{ MHz} < f_{rf} = 70 \text{ MHz} < f_{pe} = 1.55 \text{ GHz}$ ie ions frozen and electrons mobile during an rf period.
- * Electron-neutral momentum exchange frequency about 50 MHz.
- * Primary reaction e + SiH₄ => products
- * <u>Secondary reactions</u> products + SiH₄ => products'

(NB product + product' reactions are rare because SiH_4 dominates - almost all reactions occur with SiH_4)

- * NOT in Local Thermodynamic Equilibrium: $T_{aas} = 300K$, $T_{e} = 2eV = 20'000K$, tail at 50eV
- * Rf discharge more efficient at coupling energy to gas than dc discharge, eg for same apparatus:

 dc 900V gave 0.02 Wcm-2 whereas

rf 200Vpp gave 0.02 Wcm⁻² where

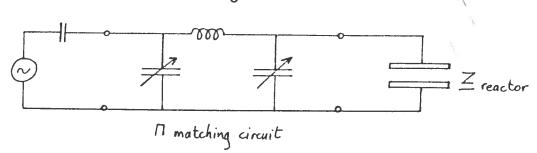
- * There are 3 proposed mechanisms for energy transfer to electrons in the plasma:
- i) Elastic collisions perturb the in-phase oscillations in the electric field allowing the electron to gain energy until an inelastic collision occurs.
- ii) Secondary electrons from the film surface are accelerated through the sheath potential into the plasma (beam electrons)
- iii) Electrons are reflected from the oscillating sheath boundary and can gain energy (wave-riding electrons).

Changing the rf frequency may well change the relative contibution and hence the discharge physics.

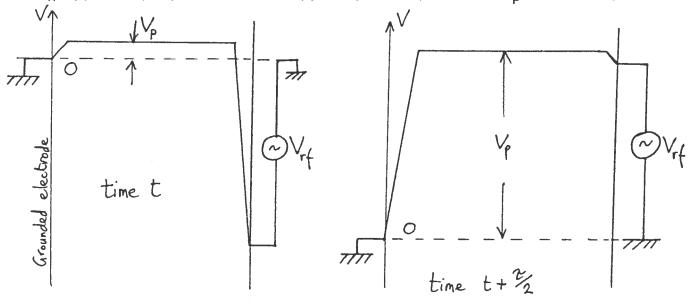
* A practical inconvenience of high frequency for large surface machines is that the free space wavelength approaches the machine dimensions, with attendant phasing problems.

* SHEATH POTENTIALS

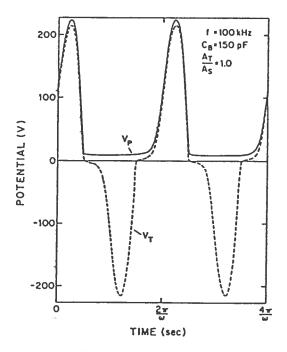
- determine ion energy impact damage/sputtering on the film
- beneficial for dehydrogenisation?



* For symmetric electrodes, the plasma/electrode potential must be the same for each electrode. Because one electrode is earthed, V_p varies by V_{rf} approx. (Rf potentials 200V pp >> plasma potentials V_p about 30V):

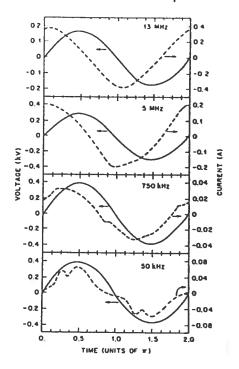


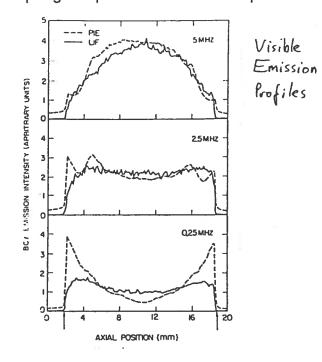
* No electrical difference between electrodes, but normally the substrate is on the grounded electrode:



Calculated waveforms of the voltage \mathcal{V}_T across the plasma reactor and the plasma potential \mathcal{V}_p for equal areas of the target and substrate electrodes.

* As frequency increases, reactor impedance becomes more capacitative (ions stationary at vhf, so no conduction current), therefore less power lost in the sheaths - implies better coupling of power to the bulk plasma.





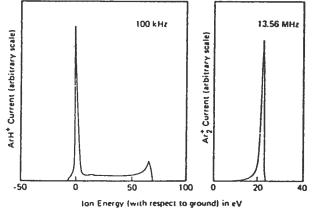
- * Direct proof for efficiency of coupling at vhf from visible emission profiles: plasma emission increases in centre of discharge for higher frequency power into gas, not into sheaths.
- * Also, since sheath potentials α 1/ ω C, sheath potentials fall as frequency increases.

* ION ENERGY DISTRIBUTION

At low frequency, ion energy varies between 0 and $V_{\rm rf}$ (depending on phase of field on entry of ion to sheath).

At high frequency, ions see only the average sheath potential = $V_{rf}/2$, and since $V_{rf} >> eT_i$, there is a monochromatic ion energy distribution

arriving at the film surface.

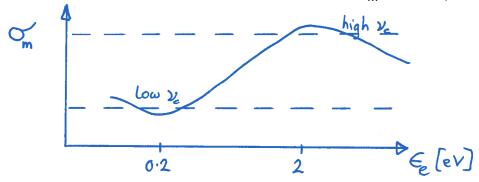


Energy distributions of ions extracted through the ground plane of a planar diode rf glow discharge system with 100-kHz and 13.36-MHz excitation frequencies. Argon pressure = 50 mTorr.

*ELECTRON ENERGY DISTRIBUTION

For low ionisation $\alpha=10^{-4}$, strong deviations from Maxwell distribution due to dissociation, excitation and ionisation. Electron-neutral collisions dominate, electron-electron thermalisation absent. Silane dissociation 2-7 eV, dissociative ionisation > 11eV.

Trend of silane cross-section for momentum transfer, σ_m , v. frequency:



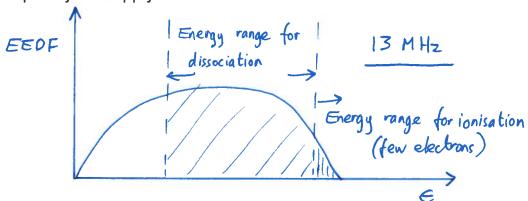
Note that momentum transfer collision frequency $\nu_c \; \alpha \; \sigma_m \; . \; T_e \cdot ^5$

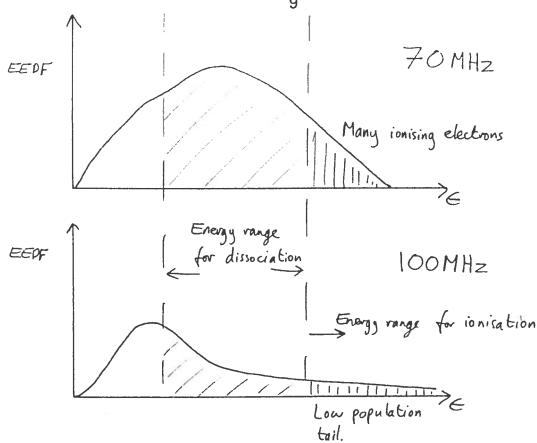
Energy transfer term in Boltzmann equation goes as $v_c E_{rf}^2 / (v_c^2 + \omega_{rf}^2)$, therefore maximum electron-silane energy transfer efficiency occurs when $\omega_{rf} = v_c$, ie strongest transfer to silane from electrons whose energy corresponds to a collision frequency equal to the rf driving frequency.

At low rf frequency: low v_c corresponds to low-energy electrons, ie low ω_{rf} couples to electrons with energy below ionisation threshold ie <u>low ionisation efficiency at low ω_{rf} .</u>

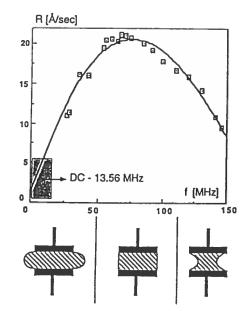
At high rf frequency: high v_c corresponds to high-energy electrons, ie high ω_{rf} couples to electrons with energy above ionisation threshold. But their population is low at high energy ie <u>low</u> ionisation efficiency at high ω_{rf} .

* Imagined electron energy distribution functions for 'low', 'medium, and 'high' frequency rf supply:





- There is an optimum frequency for high ionisation (and, consequently, high electron density leading to a high radical production); this may be an explanation for the Neuchâtel observation of a maximum in the deposition rate v. frequency curve at constant rf power:



Note that the plasma at 80MHz was the easiest to start, required the least power to maintain, and had the most uniform confinement between the electrodes.

SUMMARY - FREQUENCY VARIATION

Low f (100kHz) < f_{pi} (7MHz) < High f (70MHz) << f_{pe}

Resistive sheaths

Capacitative sheaths

High sheath voltages
- Inefficient power
transfer

Low sheath voltages
- Efficient power transfer

Good for etching

Low surface damage

A range of ion energies

Monochromatic ion energy

Low electron density

High electron density, high radical density

Modification of distribution of energy to bulk, beam, and wave-riding electrons

Frequency increase beneficial (70 MHz optimum?)
- unexplored domain, lots of scope.

PLASMA CHEMISTRY

Which species deposit the silicon? Ionic? Neutral radicals (Si, SiH, SiH₂, SiH₃,... Si₂H₆,.....Si₃H₈.....)?

Which conditions for good film quality (eg substrate temperature)?

How to increase deposition rate?

PROCESS OF ELIMINATION

- * Neutral flux = 1'000 X positive ion flux, so <u>neutrals dominate deposition</u>. NB although neutrals are responsible for Si transport to the film, ions, by virtue of their high sputtering yield, may yet be the rate-limiting factor for the deposition rate.
- * Negative ions are trapped between the sheath potential barriers and don't reach the film surface. However, they might accumulate and affect bulk plasma chemistry micowave measurements of free electron density would also be underestimates of the total ion density.
- * Silane itself does not react with a surface for $T_{\rm substrate}$ < 350°C (usually around 280°C).
- * Therefore <u>neutral dissociation products of e + SiH₄ are responsible for silicon transport to the growing film</u>. The relative importance of the different dissociation branches remains unknown, but since the production of free silicon and SiH is so small, <u>the main contenders are SiH₂ and SiH₃</u>.

THE ARGUMENT FOR SiH₃ AS THE DOMINANT RADICAL.

eg Gallagher A. J Appl Phys <u>43</u> 544 (1983) J Appl Phys <u>63</u> 2406 (1988) Solar Cells <u>21</u> 147 (1987)

Possible Primary reactions are: Comment according to $'SiH_3'$ group: $e + SiH_4 \implies SiH_2 + H_2 + e \quad (2.6eV) \qquad x H_2 \quad unlikely to form* SiH_3 + H_4 + e \quad (4.3eV) \qquad 25\% \quad branching ratio$

$Si + 2H_2 + e$	(4.7eV)	x H ₂ unlikely to form*
SiH +H +H ₂ + e	(6.2eV)	4% branching ratio
$SiH_2 + 2H + e$	(7.2eV)	71% branching ratio
SiH + 3H + e	(10.7eV)	x energy too high
Si + 4H + e	(11.7eV)	x energy too high

*Some authors favour the first reaction yielding SiH₂. However this thermodynamic reasoning does not really apply to the dissociation of a molecule raised to a repulsive state by electron impact. In the explosive expansion of the silane molecule, the reforming of an H-H bond is unlikely (the H atoms are already initially at a distance larger than the H-H equilibrium bond length).

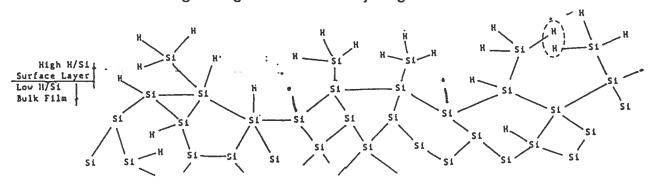
Then we need only consider <u>secondary reactions</u> with silane (see previous section):

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{H +SiH}_4 => \text{H}_2 + \text{SiH}_3 & \text{FAST, SiH}_3 \text{ produced} \\ \text{SiH}_2 + \text{SiH}_4 => \text{Si}_2 \text{H}_6 & \text{FAST, SiH}_2 \text{ lost (mfp 3mm)} \\ \text{SiH} + \text{SiH}_4 => \text{SiH}_2 + \text{SiH}_3 & \text{(in unimportant quantity)} \\ \text{SiH}_3 + \text{SiH}_4 & \text{NO EXOTHERMIC REACTION, SiH}_3 \text{ not lost.} \end{array}$$

These secondary reactions alter the branching ratio. It is claimed that: 98% of radicals reaching the film surface are SiH₃.

SURFACE CHEMISTRY

The surface of the growing film will be hydrogen-covered:



- * SiH₃ cannot, energetically, break a Si-H surface bond and insert itself.
- * SiH₃ needs a 'free ' or 'dangling' silicon bond to attach to denoted by
- * Deposition rate, in this model, is then determined by the rate of 'dehydrogenisation'.

Dangling bond creation:

$$(SiH_3)_{gas} + (Si-H)_{surface} \Rightarrow (SiH_4)_{gas} + (=Si-\cdot)$$

and

$$H + (=Si-H) => H_2 + (=Si-\cdot),$$

ie reactions using SiH₃ and free H atoms produced from primary and secondary reactions can produce dangling bonds ready for SiH₃ insertion.

SiH₃ surface reactions:

SiH₃ is weakly physisorbed as SiHSiH₃ complex and migrates across the surface until it is either lost:

$$(SiH_3)_{adsorbed} + (SiH_3)_{adsorbed} => (Si_2H_6)_{gas}$$

or incorporated: $(SiH_3)_{adsorbed} + (=Si-\cdot) => (=SiH_3)_{film}$ film growth.

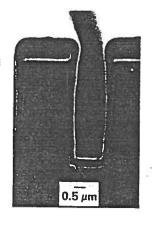
Surface Morphology Studies:

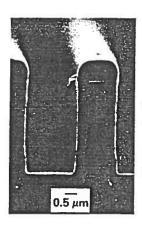
Note that SiH_3 incorporates into the film only where free bonds exist whereas Si, SiH, SiH_2 can exothermically stick on any surface location by insertion into a Si-H bond. The former is reminiscent of Chemical Vapour Deposition (CVD) (characterised by migration), the latter resembles Physical Vapour Deposition (PVD) (characterised by line-of-sight deposition).

See Tsai J Appl Phys <u>59</u> 2998 (1986) and <u>64</u> 699 (1988), study of a-Si:H deposition onto a patterned substrate:

For conditions favourable to SiH₃ production (see later):

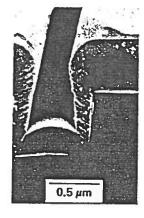
- Deposition similar to CVD
- Uniform, homogeneous surface coverage
- Low sticking-coefficient radical deposition
- Low power, pure silane discharge
- Substrate temperature around 230°C
- Produces device quality amorphous silicon.





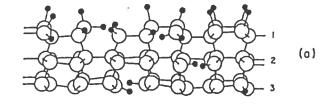
For conditions favourable to SiH₂ production:

- -Deposition similar to PVD
- -Sticking-coefficient =1
- -Shadow, non-uniform coverage
- -Columnar structure; rough, porous surface with voids in the film
- -High defect density
- -Produces poor quality films

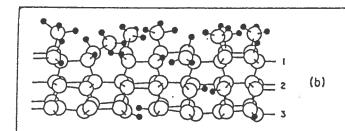




Also, argon sputtering followed by mass spectrometry (Lin, J Appl Phys <u>64</u> 188 (1988)) shows that SiH₃ groups are attached to the surface for plasma conditions giving optimal a-Si:H quality:



1.5 H per Si Not found experimentally for good films.

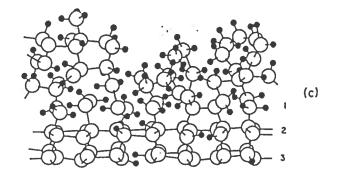


Si Hz groups attached (?)

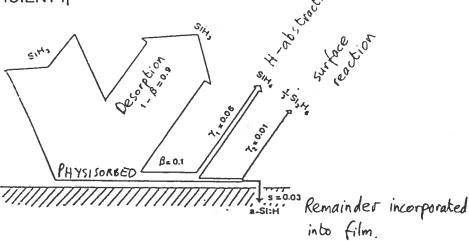
2H per Si (top monolayer)

Tsubstrate = 240°C

As measured for good films.



5 monolayers of H-rich a-Si:H. Long attached chains of SiH3 / SiH2 (?) Poor film quality Tsubstrate = 25°C. SiH₃ STICKING COEFFICIENT η



Some groups claim that eg SiH₂, SiH can become important for film growth because:

$$\eta(\text{SiH}_2,\,\text{SiH})$$
 = 1, >> $\eta(\text{SiH}_3)$, whose value is uncertain.

In the literature, the range 0,01 < $\eta(SiH_3)$ < 0.7 can be found. Alan Gallagher claims $\eta(SiH_3)$ = 0.3.

FILM STOCHIOMETRY

The top few monolayers have (H)/(Si) = 3 approx. as explained above. The bulk material, however, has a much higher concentration of silicon, (H)/(Si) = 0.2 approx.

The loss of hydrogen is proposed to occur via cross-bonding:

$$(=Si-H)_{film} + (=Si-\cdot)_{film} => (Si-Si)_{film} + H_{gas}$$

and
$$(=Si-H)_{film} + (=Si-H)_{film} => (Si-Si) + (H_2)_{gas}$$

(The second reaction can only occur below the surface: H2 diffuses out)

PROCESS OPTIMISATION STUDIES

* Effect of dilution of SiH₄ with other gases, and rf power dependance.

<u>Motivation</u>: i) to economise on SiH_4 , ii) to attempt to reduce dust (macromolecules) originally thought to be caused by too many secondary reactions with SiH_4 . Dust causes a puncture in a film leading to poor electrical properties and is a major obstacle in industrial production of

device quality amorphous silicon.

Results of empirical work (eg Knights, Appl Phys Lett <u>38</u> 331 (1981)): "Best quality film with low rf power and pure silane"

Explanation on current understanding: Dilution with other gases (except possibly hydrogen, Vanier, J Appl Phys $\underline{56}$ 1812 (1984)) reduces the probabilty of scavenging of SiH and SiH₂ by SiH₄, thereby allowing these high-sticking-coefficient species to reach the surface. High rf power has the same effect by depleting the source gas silane. Therefore we have the dilemma:

Pure silane, low Prf = good film, low powder, but <u>low deposition rate</u>.

Pure silane, high Prf = bad film, high powder, high deposition rate.

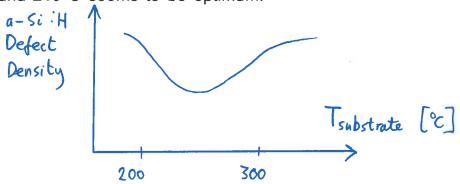
Diluted silane = bad film, high powder, low deposition rate.

Empirically (Curtins et al, PI Chem & PI Proc <u>7</u>267 (1987)), frequencies higher than 13.56MHz (used in the above experiments) permit high deposition rates whilst maintaining good film quality. However, an understanding is lacking and a plasma diagnostic programme (CRPP, EPFL) is necessary to help resolve the problem.

* Substrate Temperature

An elevated substrate temperature is necessary for radical surface mobility (migration of attached SiH_3 complexes), bond manoeuvrability and H, H_2 diffusion from the surface and the bulk material. Attention must also be paid to the problem of film/substrate adhesion (surface stresses, different thermal expansion coefficients).

For T_{sub} < 200°C, bond cross-linking is inhibited (insufficient mobility) For T_{sub} > 300°C, H diffuses out of a-Si:H leaving internal defects. T_{sub} around 240°C seems to be optimum.



SUMMARY OF SiH₃ GROUPS

Trend of:

Increasing rf power

Dilution of silane Lower flow rate Lower pressure

Higher deposition rate (13.56MHz) (all causing higher silane depletion)

leads from:

SiH₃ dominated mass transport

to SiH₂ dominated mass transport

High quality a-Si:H

to Low quality film (μc-Si:H)

CVD-like deposition

to PVD-like deposition

(low sticking-coefft. radicals)

to (high sticking-coefft. radicals)

Uniform coverage

to Shadow deposition

Smooth surface

to Rough, columnar surface with voids

THE ARGUMENT FOR SiH2 AS THE DOMINANT RADICAL

It is claimed that

 $SiH_4 + e => SiH_2 + H_2 + e$

is the dominant reaction (eg Veprek, PI Chem & PI Proc $\underline{9}$ 29S (1989) and Ensslen and Veprek, PI Chem & PI Proc $\underline{7}$ 139 (1987)). However, in a compendium of over 40 silane dissociation channels, Kushner (J Appl Phys $\underline{63}$ 2532 (1988)) excludes this reaction, presumably for the reasons given in the SiH₃ section above, reserving this reaction channel for 'homogeneous pyrolysis' which is 'negligible for substrate temperatures used in PECVD'.

Since

$$SiH_2 + SiH_4 => Si_2H_6$$

is rapid, advocates of the above reaction are obliged to claim that $\mathrm{Si}_2\mathrm{H}_6$ is the depositing radical, whereas the rival group state that $\mathrm{Si}_2\mathrm{H}_6$ is a saturated molecule having no reaction with the a-Si:H surface. The SiH_2 group, on the other hand, points out that the low density and low sticking-coefficient of SiH_3 eliminate it as a candidate for the observed rate of growth. For the present, the growth mechanism remains controversial.

POSSIBLE PLASMA DIAGNOSTICS

The diagnostics in the following list will be considered in turn. The diagnostics underlined are possible candidates for an experiment at CRPP, EPFL.

- 1 Optical Emission Spectroscopy
- 2 Reflectometry
- 3 Laser-induced fluorescence
- 4 Mie scattering
- 5 Microwave interferometry
- 6 Infrared thermometry
- 7 Electrical measurements
- 8 Langmuir, plasma potential probes
- 9 Quadrupole mass spectrometry
- 10 Electrostatic grid energy analysers
- 11 Infrared laser diode absorption spectroscopy
- 12 Ellipsometry
- 13 Laser diffraction of layers on fibres

1 OPTICAL EMISSION SPECTROSCOPY

Only Si, Si+, SiH, SiH+, H and H_2 emit - unfortunately these are minority species. SiH₂ and SiH₃ have no known emission spectra. See table at end of report for main lines. Lines most often used in the literature are:

Atomic Si 288, 391nm

SiH blue, complicated vibrational bands 413 - 428nm

H, H₂ - useful for process monitoring?

Continuum H₂ - evidence for EEDF tail.

Impurity lines - monitoring of leaks, poor wall/substrate conditioning etc. Impurities have been shown to worsen the solar cell aging sensitivity (Staebler-Wronski effect).

At CRPP, at least measure SiH* distribution in space and time. Versatility will be greatly enhanced with an Optical Multichannel Analyser (OMA).

2 REFLECTOMETRY with a He-Ne Laser

Gives in-process deposition rate, very useful for parameter scan programmes, but needs vertical access through electrodes.

3 LASER-INDUCED FLUORESCENCE

In the literature, and at CRPP, can measure neutral Si and SiH distributions. More exotic experiments include Coherent Anti-Stokes Raman Spectroscopy (CARS) and frequency-modulated absorption spectroscopy for SiH_2 , as well as Laser Opto-Galvanic Spectroscopy - to be evaluated later.

4 MIE SCATTERING of He-Ne laser

- is the scattering of light by particles much larger than a wavelength. Very useful monitor of dust production, crucial for industrial-quality applications. Relatively easy to install at CRPP.

5 MICROWAVE INTERFEROMETRY

-for free-electron density, using eg double-pass interferometer. Expertise and hardware exists at CRPP.

6 INFRARED THERMOMETRY

Non-contact thermometry of substrate surface would eliminate errors in the measurement of T_{sub} due to thermal gradients in the reactor. Needs vertical viewing. In practice, complicated by uncertainty in emissivity.

7 ELECTRICAL MEASUREMENTS

-for electrode rf potential, current and power. Very important, but difficult at variable high frequency (10-100MHz). Will purchase commercial probes for CRPP. Methods exist in the literature for bridges to measure plasma impedance.

8 LANGMUIR & PLASMA POTENTIAL PROBES

Simple to implement, but extremely difficult to interpret, especially at vhf. Probes used in silane plasmas become coated with silicon rendering them useless. There are several tricks one can use, but probes will probably be used at most as a check on plasma condition reproducibilty for inert gases at CRPP.

9 QUADRUPOLE MASS SPECTROMETRY

A measure of the gas composition at the exhaust relative to that injected provides the silane depletion fraction, a fundamental parameter for comparison with different reactors.

10 ELECTROSTATIC GRID ENERGY ANALYSERS

An arrangement of grids built into an electrode would allow an estimation of ion energies reaching the substrate from the plasma thus giving information on sheath potentials.

11 INFRARED LASER DIODE ABSORPTION SPECTROSCOPY

Can be used for SiH₂ and SiH₃ densities, but would require local experts and specialised equipment; this may prove to be impractical at CRPP.

12 ELLIPSOMETRY

Measures film thickness and stochiometry. The diagnostic is very expensive, requires oblique-angled observation ports and experienced operators for data interpretation. Since thickness will in principle be measured by much simpler reflectometry, and stochiometric post-process measurements are the domain of IMT Neuchâtel, CRPP will most likely not use ellipsometry.

13 LASER DIFFRACTION OF LAYERS ON FIBRES

Gallagher described a method of estimating deposition profiles in the plasma volume by constructing a network of fibres between the plates, using laser diffraction to measure the growing layer thickness. This experiment is for studying fundamental deposition physics in the plasma and there is much we can do to study the undiagnosed IMT-type plasma before confronting the complexity of these more exotic techniques at CRPP.

THE MOST AMBITIOUS INITIAL PROGRAMME WOULD ATTEMPT TO MEASURE:

Distribution of excited atoms Si*, SiH*
Distribution of ground state densities of Si and SiH
Deposition rate
Dust production
Electron density
Substrate surface temperature

Rf waveforms

Silane depletion fraction

- as a function of frequency and film quality. The effect of rf power modulation, different gas mixtures etc could also be studied.

Once any trends dependent on frequency become apparent, additional diagnostics can be considered.

Species	Emission wavelength λ (nm)	Transition	Energy of emitting state above ground state (eV)	
Si	198 - 199	UV7	6.3	
Si	206	UV52	6.8	
Si	212	UV48	6.6	
Si	221 - 222	UV3	5.6	
Si	229 - 230	UV46	6.2	
Si	244	UV45	5.9	
Si	251 - 253	UV1	4.9	
Si	263	UV83	6.6	
Si	288	UV43	5.1	
Si	299	1	5.0	
Si	391	3	5.1	
SiH	386 - 388	$A^2\Delta - X^2II$	3.0	
SiH	394 - 396	$A^2\Delta - X^2II$	3.0	
SiH	413 - 428	$A^2\Delta - X^2II$	3.0	
SiH*	399	$A^1II-X^1\Sigma$	3.1	
Н	434	Нγ	13.0	
Н	486	нβ	12.7	
H	656	Нα	12.0	
H ₂	Continuum 160 - 500	$2s^3\Sigma-2p^3\Sigma$	11.9	
H ₂	Many lines	$3d^1\Sigma - 2p^1\Sigma$	4.0	
	368 - 835	$3d^1\Pi - 2p^1\Sigma$	4.0	
		$3p^3\Pi - 2s^3\Sigma$ etc.	4.0	
N ₂	316	Second positive system, $C^3\Pi_u$ - $B^3\Pi_g$	11.1	
N ₂	337	Second positive system, $C^3\Pi_u-B^3\Pi_z$	11.1	
N ₂	358	Second positive system, $C^3\Pi_u-B^3\Pi_g$	11.1	
SiCl	281 - 282	B' ² Δ-X ² Π	4.4	
SiO	224	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	230	$A_1 \Pi - X_1 \Sigma$	5.3	
SiO	234	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	237	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	239	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	241	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	249	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	259	$A^1 \Pi - X^1 \Sigma^*$	5.3	
SiO	267	$A^1\Pi - X^1\Sigma^*$	5.3	
io	269	$A_1 II - X_1 \Sigma$	5.3	
ЭН	306.4	$A^2\Sigma^*-X^2\Pi$	4.1	

From Kampas FJ & Griffith RW, Solar Cells 2 385 (1980)