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High-performance and Industrially Viable Nanostructured SiO_x Layers for Interface Passivation in Thin Film Solar Cells

José M. V. Cunha*, Kevin Oliveira, Jackson Lontchi, Tomás S. Lopes, Marco A. Curado, João R. S. Barbosa, Carlos Vinhais, Wei-Chao Chen, Jérôme Borme, Helder Fonseca, João Gaspar, Denis Flandre, Marika Edoff, Ana G. Silva, Jennifer P. Teixeira, Paulo A. Fernandes, and Pedro M. P. Salomé

José M. V. Cunha, Kevin Oliveira, Tomás S. Lopes, Marco A. Curado, João R. S. Barbosa, Dr. Carlos Vinhais, Dr. Jérôme Borme, Helder Fonseca, Dr. João Gaspar, Dr. Jennifer P. Teixeira, Dr. Paulo A. Fernandes, Dr. Pedro M. P. Salomé

INL – International Iberian Nanotechnology Laboratory, Avenida Mestre José Veiga, 4715-330, Braga, Portugal

E-mail: jose.cunha@inl.int

José M. V. Cunha, Dr. Pedro M. P. Salomé

Departamento de Física, Universidade de Aveiro, Campus Universitário de Santiago, 3810-193, Aveiro, Portugal

José M. V. Cunha, Dr. Paulo A. Fernandes

i3N, Universidade de Aveiro, Campus Universitário de Santiago, 3810-193, Aveiro, Portugal

Dr. Jackson Lontchi, Dr. Denis Flandre

Université Catholique de Louvain, ICTEAM institute, Place du Levant 3, 1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium

Tomás S. Lopes

Institute for Material Research (IMO), Hasselt University (partner in Solliance), Agoralaangebouw H, Diepenbeek, 3590, Belgium

Tomás S. Lopes

Imec division IMOMEC (partner in Solliance), Wetenschapspark 1, 3590 Diepenbeek, Belgium

Tomás S. Lopes

EnergyVille 2, Thor Park 8320, 3600 Genk, Belgium

Marco A. Curado

CFisUC, Department of Physics, University of Coimbra, P-3004-516, Coimbra, Portugal

Dr. Carlos Vinhais

Departamento de Física, Instituto Superior de Engenharia do Porto, Instituto Politécnico do Porto, Porto 4200-072, Portugal

Dr. Wei-Chao Chen, Dr. Marika Edoff

Ångström Laboratory, Solid State Electronics, Ångström Solar Center, Uppsala University, Uppsala SE-751 21, Sweden

Dr. Ana G. Silva

CEFITEC, Departamento de Física, Faculdade de Ciências e Tecnologia, Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Campus de Caparica, 2829-516, Portugal

Dr. Paulo A. Fernandes

CIETI, Departamento de Física, Instituto Superior de Engenharia do Porto, Instituto Politécnico do Porto, Porto 4200-072, Portugal

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It is demonstrated, in this work, that using industrial techniques, a passivation layer with nanocontacts based on silicon oxide (SiO_x) leads to significant improvements in the optoelectronical performance of ultrathin Cu(In,Ga)Se₂ (CIGS) solar cells. Two approaches were applied for contact patterning of the passivation layer: point contacts and line contacts. The used characterization techniques show that for two CIGS growth conditions, 550 °C and 500 °C, the SiO_x passivation layer demonstrates positive passivation properties, which was supported by electrical simulations. Such positive effects led to an increase of the light to power conversion efficiency value of 2.6 % (absolute value) for passivated devices compared to a nonpassivated reference device. Strikingly, both passivation architectures present similar efficiency values. However, there is a trade-off between passivation effect and charge extraction, as demonstrated by the trade-off between Voc and Jsc compared to FF. For the first time, a fullyindustrial up-scalable process combining SiO_x as rear passivation layer deposited by chemical vapor deposition, with photolithography for line contacts, yields promising results towards high-performance and low-cost ultrathin CIGS solar cells with champion devices reaching efficiency values of 12 %, demonstrating the potential of SiO_x as a passivation material for energy conversion devices.

1. Introduction

Over the past decades, silicon wafer-based technology has been dominating the photovoltaic (PV) market, with thin film technology being a competitor with a relatively small market share.^[1] Thin film technology is invariably looking to build up its competitiveness in the PV market, which will require innovative strategies to simultaneously increase performance and decrease production costs. Cu(In,Ga)Se₂ (CIGS) based solar cells with a typical 2 µm absorber

layer thickness stand out from its commercially available thin film counterparts, CdTe and amorphous silicon, presenting the highest light to power conversion efficiency value of all three technologies (23.35 %).^[2,3] In order to pursue a prominent position in the market, a possible path is to further decrease the CIGS thickness to the sub-micrometer range, with the light to power conversion efficiency reaching values as high as 15.2 % for a 490 nm thick CIGS device and 17.5 % for a 900 nm thick CIGS device. [4,5] The CIGS thickness reduction from the standard 2 µm to the ultrathin range will allow for a reduction in production costs by increasing machine throughput.^[6,7] Moreover, the thickness reduction is in line with the recommendations from a recently conducted CIGS PV installations life cycle assessment study that encourages a continuous reduction on the rare metals usage. [8] Thus, allowing for lower production costs and also lower environmental impact. From a device performance point of view, keeping the conventional architecture with an ultrathin CIGS layer raises new optoelectronic concerns. Deterioration of the short-circuit current density (J_{sc}) values is consistently observed in ultrathin devices when compared to standard-thick ones.^[9,10] In ultrathin devices, the thickness required for a complete optical absorption is effectively higher than the CIGS absorber layer thickness, leading to significant absorption losses in the near-infrared region (NIR). To overcome such optical losses, different light management schemes have been implemented. [11–14] However, the complexity of the CIGS optoelectronic properties and architecture of the device turns the integration of efficient novel designs into the CIGS solar cells challenging. A reduction of the CIGS layer thickness from the standard-thick to the ultrathin range will lead to a decreased charge carrier's mean path and an increased minority carrier generation rate per unit volume.^[15] Accordingly, an increased charge carrier concentration is observed, which will potentially allow for an open-circuit voltage (Voc) increase. [15] Nonetheless, it will also increase the minority charge carrier's likelihood of reaching the rear contact, increasing the probability of recombination at this interface. [16] One approach to mitigate the recombination in the rear CIGS surface is focused on the use of an insulator passivation layer, in between the rear contact and

the CIGS layer.^[16,17,26,18–25] In order to establish electrical contact between CIGS and the rear electrode, nanocontacts are opened in the insulator layer, with e-beam lithography being commonly employed.^[16,17,27,28] However, photolithography has the advantage of being cheaper and to have higher machine throughput compared to e-beam lithography. The referred advantages are highly desired for industrial processes, and, therefore, the photolithographic process up-scalability to the industry has the potential to be straightforward.

Several insulator materials, e.g. Al₂O₃, Si₃N_x, SiO_x, TiO₂, just to name a few, have been studied as passivation layers in the CIGS technology. [18,23,29–32] The prospect of using the same approach and insulator to passivate both front and rear interfaces of the same solar cell is very attractive from a fabrication perspective, and SiO_x emerges as a strong material to perform such role. [18,29,33] SiO_x presents promising properties that allow for its implementation as front and rear passivation layers, namely the ability to change the polarity values of the fixed insulator charges (Q_f) by manipulating the deposition parameters, enabling an efficient field-effect passivation of both minority and majority CIGS charge carriers. [29] It is even possible to change the density of interface active defects and the Qf density, which is proven to be an essential parameter to accomplish a high-performance passivation layer. [34] Furthermore, SiO_x rear passivation employed with photolithography to open the nanocontacts has already been implemented with promising preliminary results. [18] Nonetheless, more comprehensive studies are necessary, to understand and establish an effective procedure to implement SiO_x as a passivation layer in the CIGS solar cells architecture. Furthermore, SiO_x has the potential to be used as a passivation layer in other thin film technologies, such as CdTe, Cu₂ZnSnS₄ (CZTS) or perovskites, which could allow for an effective defects passivation. [35,36,45,46,37-44]

In this study, point contacts and line contacts are used to implement two different SiO_x rear passivation architectures for CIGS based solar cells, with the intent of attaining high-performance substrates. Furthermore, the two passivated substrates are compared between them and against a conventional non-passivated substrate. The reference non-passivated device will

be named as Ref, and passivated devices will be named as PointContact or LineContact following the respective passivation architecture. The three substrates are integrated in CIGS based solar cells fabricated at 550 °C (standard temperature) and 500 °C. Therefore, it is possible to better understand the ability of the SiO_x layer to survive different CIGS growth temperatures, and, at the same time, determine if it retains its passivation properties. The integration of both passivated substrates in the CIGS solar cells architecture deliver an increase in the figures of merit compared with the conventional solar cell substrate. Electrical simulations coupled with morphological, structural and electrical characterizations of the fabricated devices are presented, allowing for an in-depth study of the SiO_x rear passivation properties on CIGS solar cells.

2. Characterization

In this work, CIGS was grown at two different temperatures, 550 °C and 500 °C, which will bring relevant insights into: i) the SiO_x ability to survive the harsh CIGS growth conditions (see the SEM analyses in the supporting information); and ii) the SiO_x performance as a passivation layer for each of the studied temperatures. Such study is needed as it is known that some materials, such as SiO_x, do not maintain its properties at elevated temperatures.^[47] The current density vs. voltage (J-V) figures of merit suggest that devices grown at 550 °C have a higher optoelectronic performance with higher Voc, fill factor (FF) and light to power conversion efficiency values, compared to respective devices grown at 500 °C, as shown in Figure 1 a). The Ref device grown at 550 °C achieved an average efficiency value of 8.8 %, whereas the equivalent device grown at 500 °C attained an average efficiency value of 6.2 %. Looking to the average V_{oc} values, it decreases from 585 mV to 523 mV, from Ref grown at 550 °C and 500 °C, respectively, with FF values also decreasing from 66.9 % to 50.2 %. The figures of merit values increase for the Ref grown at 550 °C is possibly related with better morphological and structural properties, due to i) larger CIGS grains with less grain boundaries, resulting of the higher CIGS growth temperature, as observed by SEM in the supporting information and as it was already reported in the literature; [48-50] and other effects such as ii) Ga depth

distribution; $^{[51,52]}$ or iii) alkali dynamics, $^{[48,53-56]}$ just to name a few examples. The passivated devices grown at 500 °C demonstrated the same electrical trends as the ones grown at 550 °C, with all the SiO_x patterned devices having superior V_{oc} and efficiency values compared to the respective reference devices. The V_{oc} increase is a clear indication that the insulator layer SiO_x acts as an effective rear passivation layer for CIGS solar cells. An important observation is that the SiO_x passivation effect is independent of the CIGS growth temperature, as shown by the improved figures of merit values of the passivated devices compared to the respective reference counterparts, as presented in Figure 1 a). Since similar trends were obtained for both temperatures, and for clarity, only detailed results of devices grown at 550 °C will be analyzed henceforth. Therefore, only J-V plots measured under dark and illumination (Figure 1 b)), external quantum efficiency (EQE) plots (Figure 1 c)), as well as, diode parameters (Figure 1 d)) for the devices grown at 550 °C are shown and analyzed. The figures of merit of all studied devices (Figure 1 a)) are still shown for a better understanding of the effective SiO_x passivation effect at different temperatures.

The J-V plots of the Ref and LineContact devices show a cross-over between dark and illuminated curves, [57] as shown in Figure 1 b). Such behavior is possibly related with an illumination-dependent voltage drop on a thin defect layer located on the CIGS absorber front surface. [58,59] PointContact device does not show a clear cross-over, since a roll-over behavior appears. [57] In CIGS solar cells, a roll-over has been observed when a rear sodium (Na) diffusion barrier is present, which leads to insufficient Na concentration to diffuse into the absorber during its growth. [54,60,61]

The PointContact device achieves a V_{oc} average value of 653 mV, which corresponds to a 68 mV increase over the Ref, and an average 10.5 % in power conversion efficiency values. Moreover, the respective PointContact champion cell attains an efficiency value of 12.0 %. From the EQE curves, presented in Figure 1 c), the J_{sc} increase over Ref is mostly localized in the NIR. The LineContact device achieves an average V_{oc} value of 639 mV, which corresponds

to a 54 mV increase over the Ref. LineContact does not have the roll-over seen in the PointContact, which is translated into the highest average FF value of 74.7 % among the studied devices. As a result, LineContact device has the highest average efficiency value of 11.4 %, which is 2.6 % (abs.) higher than Ref.

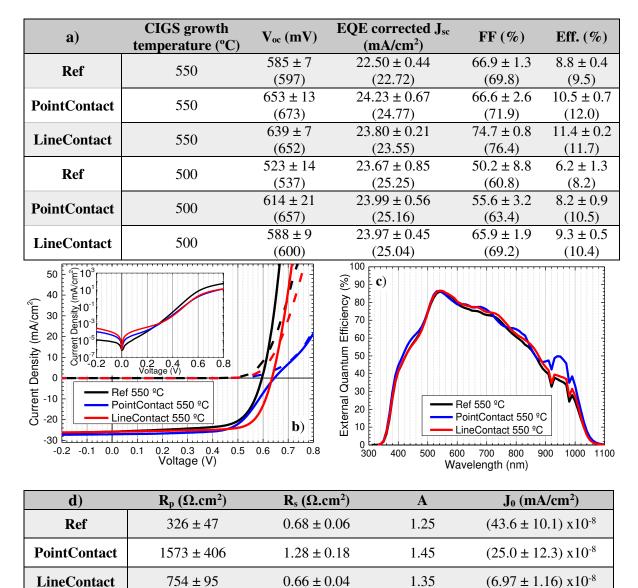


Figure 1 a) J-V figures of merit: averages and standard deviations values of all studied devices. Figures of merit values for the highest efficiency cells also presented in brackets. J_{sc} values calculated from the EQE spectra. Averages taken from 12 cells; b) Representative J-V plots for devices with CIGS grown at 550 °C. Straight lines are illuminated curves and dashed lines are dark curves. The inset figure is the dark log J-V curve; c) Representative EQE plots for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C; and d) Solar cells' diode parameters average and standard deviation values for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. R_p stands for parallel resistance, R_s for series resistance, A for ideality factor and L_s for saturation current density.

The devices' diode parameters are summarized in Figure 1 d). The possibility of shunt paths, common in ultrathin devices, $^{[9,10,19,62]}$ is reduced by the insulator used in the passivation layer, resulting in an increase of the parallel resistance (R_p) values of both PointContact and

LineContact compared to the Ref device. PointContact presents a higher series resistance (R_s) compared to other devices possibly due to a reduced rear contact opening area, limiting carrier collection, which results in charge losses. Therefore, there is room for further optimization of the rear passivation configuration in the point contact architecture. On the other hand, devices with line contact configuration have a higher contact area compared to PointContact devices, leading to a lower R_s average value. The shown roll-over for the PointContact device, which is affecting its FF values, is also affecting the ideality factor (A) value, as the PointContact device has the highest A value among the studied devices. The PointContact device shows higher Voc values than LineContact, which is attributed to the higher SiO_x passivation area. The increased V_{oc} values over the reference device, indicates an effective interface defects passivation by the SiO_x layer for both passivation patterns, which is more pronounced for the device with the highest passivation area. The V_{oc} values increase is supported by the decrease of the saturation current density (J₀) value for both passivated devices compared to Ref (Figure 1 d)), strengthening the proof of the effectiveness of the rear interface passivation by the SiO_x passivation layer. Therefore, it is demonstrated the good SiO_x chemical passivation, as the passivated device's V_{oc} and J_0 values indicate a lower recombination rate compared to the reference device. [63,64]

It is necessary to understand the Na effect on the devices' performance, and if the figures of merit values increase are only related with passivation effects and/or Na effects as well. Therefore, glow-discharge optical emission spectroscopy (GDOES) measurements were carried out to measure the in-depth Na profile for devices grown at 550 °C, as shown in Figure 2 a). To better understand the Na concentration influence together with the SiO_x passivation effect on each device's optoelectronic properties, dark capacitance vs. voltage (C-V) measurements were conducted in order to get the net free carriers concentration (N_{cv}) and depletion region width (W) values for each device at the 0 V bias. [32,65,66] A representative N_{cv} against W plot, with

varying bias, for each device, is shown in Figure 2 b) with the N_{cv} and W average and standard deviation values shown in the inset table of Figure 2 b).

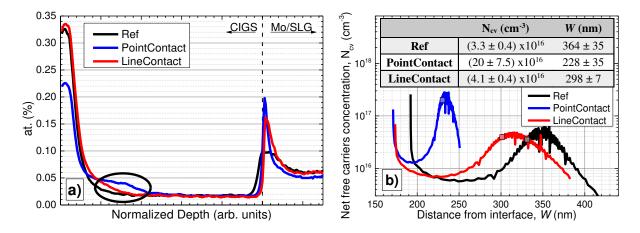


Figure 2 a) GDOES Na in-depth profile of devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. The dashed vertical line is a guide to the eye representing where the CIGS/Mo interface is located; and b) Representative N_{cv} vs W plot for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. The depletion region and net free carrier concentration are taken at 0 V and are represented in square marks. Inset table represents the Zero-bias average and standard deviation values of N_{cv} and W. Averages taken from 5 cells.

Looking to the Mo/CIGS interface represented by the dashed line in Figure 2 a), it is clear that the SiO_x forms a Na blocking layer, where the PointContact architecture acts as a stronger Na barrier than the LineContact, which is the repercussion of the significantly lower contact area of the PointContact compared with the LineContact architecture. Such Na barrier suggests that the PointContact device could have the lowest Na concentration overall, compared to the other studied devices. Nonetheless, at a specific depth, it is observed a slightly Na concentration increase for the PointContact device, compared to the other studied devices, as represented by the circle in the graph. Moreover, in this region, the second device with the highest Na concentration is the LineContact followed by Ref. In order to understand which device has the highest Na concentration overall, secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS) measurements should be carried out.^[67]

In Figure 2 b), it is shown that PointContact has the highest N_{cv} values among the studied devices, while LineContact device has a slightly higher N_{cv} value compared to Ref. The Ref device has the highest depletion region and the lowest N_{cv} values among the studied devices. Moreover, the PointContact device, which has a higher passivation area compared to

LineContact, has the highest N_{cv} average value of $20x10^{16}$ cm⁻³. Two different hypotheses will be presented to explain the highest N_{cv} values found for the PointContact device. In the first hypothesis, it is considered that the highest N_{a} barrier for the PointContact device observed in the GDOES analysis could mean that the PointContact has the lowest N_{a} concentration overall, among the studied devices. However, the N_{cv} values are known to increase with N_{a} concentration, which is the opposite that happens to the PointContact device, according to the first hypothesis. Therefore, the main contribution to the N_{cv} increase should be related to the passivation effects of SiO_{xv} , which might be increasing the net free charge carrier's concentration. This is supported by the fact that the passivated device with more passivation area has the highest N_{cv} values increase over the Ref device. Nonetheless, in the second hypothesis, it is assumed that the N_{cv} values extraction at 0 V bias matches, exactly, the region in the Figure 2 a) represented by a circle. In this hypothesis, the N_{cv} values increase for the PointContact should be directly related with the highest N_{a} concentration observed for the PointContact device in the mentioned region of Figure 2 a).

3. Electrical simulations

Electrical simulations were performed in order to better understand the presented results and to study the SiO_x performance as a passivation layer. R. Kotipalli *et al.*^[30] analyzed Metal-Insulator-Semiconductor (MIS) devices before and after annealing at ~500 °C with selenium atmosphere to reproduce the CIGS growth. It was shown that the polarity of the Q_f values changed from positive (before exposure) to negative (after exposure). Despite of the insulator in the study being alumina (Al₂O₃), the same phenomenon may be expected for the SiO_x case, since previous MIS studies without annealing also demonstrated positive charges in the SiO_x insulator. Therefore, based on the previous studies, it was decided to simulate both SiO_x possible Q_f polarity signals, to better comprehend its impact on the devices' performance and to show the importance of the Q_f values control during the insulator deposition in order to maximize the final devices' performance. Q_f values of +4x10¹¹ cm⁻² and -8x10¹² cm⁻² were

studied.^[29,30] Such values were chosen to understand if the SiO_x layer has the ideal Q_f values, which should be around 10^{12} - 10^{13} cm⁻² or if the material has a Q_f value below the ideal one $\sim 10^{11}$ cm⁻², as reported in the literature.^[30,69,70] The contact width values were varied, and for a better understanding, the contact width values were converted into a percentage of passivation area using the following equations:^[71]

Passivation area =
$$\left[1 - \frac{(\pi d^2)}{4P^2} \right] \times 100$$
 (1)

Passivation area =
$$\left[1 - \left(\frac{d \times P}{P \times P}\right)\right] \times 100$$
 (2)

where d is the contact width value and P is the pitch value. Equation (1) is for point contact architectures and equation (2) is for line contact architectures. The electrical simulations demonstrate V_{oc} , J_{sc} , FF and absolute efficiency gains of the passivated devices over the reference device, as shown in Figure 3. In this simulation, the presented gains are in comparison with a simulated non-passivated reference device, i.e. a gain equal to 0 represents the same performance as the reference device. [34]

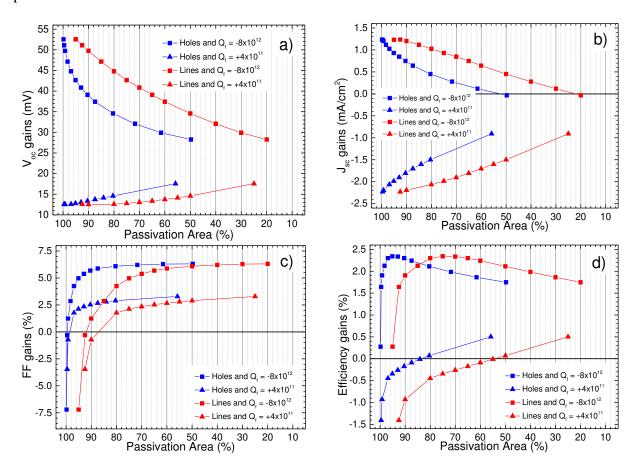


Figure 3 - Figures of merit absolute gains of the passivated devices over the reference device: a) V_{oc} gains; b) J_{sc} gains; c) FF gains; and d) Efficiency gains. Pitch value of 2000 nm simulated. Red lines correspond to the passivation area for line contacts and blue lines correspond to the passivation area for point contacts. Square marks represent a Q_f value of -8x10¹² cm⁻² and triangle marks represent a Q_f value of +4x10¹¹ cm⁻².

The electrical simulations show that the solar cells performance optimization depends on the studied parameters, such as the Qf value and respective polarity value, as well as the contact shape and passivation area. Negative Q_f values, represented by square marks in the graphs, show superior performance in all figures of merit compared to positive Q_f values, and therefore only negative Q_f values will be analyzed henceforth. Considering negative Q_f values, the V_{oc} and J_{sc} values follow the same trend. Moreover, both figures of merit increased with higher passivation areas, as shown in Figure 3 a) and b). Such increase is expected, since, for higher passivation areas, the effective rear recombination rate is reduced. On the other hand, FF values, shown in Figure 3 c), have the opposite trend with values increasing for lower passivation areas. FF values are negatively affected by the contact opening width, since the FF values degrade when the contact opening is reduced and does not allow for efficient current extraction. Therefore, the FF values will increase when the contact area is increased, i.e. for reduced passivation area, and tend to saturate after the contact area is sufficiently large. Regarding efficiency gains (Figure 3 d)), this simulation shows that the optimum passivation area value for a passivation architecture with point contacts, represented by blue lines in the graph, is approximately 95 %. In contrast, the optimum value for a passivation architecture with line contacts, represented by a red line in the graph, is approximately 75 %. Such striking simulation results show the need to carefully design the passivation architecture, depending on the used contact shape, to account the optimal structure dimensions, in order to achieve the highest performance values. In our case, the PointContact device passivation area (99.7 %) has surpassed the optimal values, which translates into an efficiency drop and, according to the simulations, it is mainly due to FF losses. Therefore, the passivation area should be reduced to allow for effective charge collection. The LineContact device has less passivation area (59.5 %) than the found optimal values, which translates into a shortcoming in the efficiency value and,

according to the simulations, it is mainly due to V_{oc} and J_{sc} losses. A remarkable outcome can already be considered: a line contact passivation area of 75 % is equivalent in terms of efficiency gains (~2.4 %) to a point contact passivation architecture with 95 % of passivation area.

4. Discussion

In this work, two different patterns were successfully produced on a SiO_x layer to be used as a rear passivation layer in sub-micrometric CIGS solar cells. Furthermore, two different CIGS deposition temperature values were tested to understand the resilience of the SiO_x passivation effect. Differences between the CIGS layers grown at 550 °C and 500 °C were found both at the grain and crystalline level, and are shown in detail by SEM and XRD analyses on the supporting information. Electrical measurements show that devices with point contacts, that have higher passivation area, presented increased V_{oc} values over devices with line contacts. On the other hand, the LineContact devices that have higher contact area, have increased FF values over the PointContact devices. The FF drop observed on the PointContact devices was supported by electrical simulations, which demonstrated that PointContact devices have room for further improvement by increasing the contact area, which will allow for increased FF values. The highest Na diffusion blocking effect observed in GDOES for PointContact device might suggest that PointContact device has the lowest Na concentration among the studied devices. Considering such hypothesis, the highest Na diffusion blocking effect observed in GDOES for PointContact devices supports the observed roll-over in the J-V analysis, as the roll-over might be related with lower availability of Na due to the blocking diffusion properties of the passivation layer. The observed roll-over also explains the low average FF value of PointContact device, as well as, its high standard deviation value. The PointContact ideality factor parameter value is also affected by the roll-over appearance, as it is the highest value among the studied devices. Despite of the observed Na barrier for the passivated devices, all devices had a Na pre-deposition treatment. However, the amount of sodium fluoride (NaF)

deposited does not seem to be enough for the used CIGS thickness and/or passivation architecture, which indicates that a more efficient Na introduction strategy needs to be developed.

LineContact devices have higher collection area compared to PointContact devices, resulting in higher FF values in the J-V analysis, which ultimately results in the highest average efficiency values of the studied devices. Nonetheless, it was found that LineContact devices have lower V_{oc} values compared to PointContact devices due to a lower passivation area. Electrical simulations explain these results and show that LineContact devices have room for further improvement by increasing the passivation area, which will lead to higher V_{oc} values. In the C-V analysis, it was shown that the LineContact device has a slightly higher N_{cv} value compared to Ref, and that the PointContact device has the highest N_{cv} average value of $20x10^{16}$ cm⁻³. One hypothesis for the observed results is that the N_{cv} increase is not only related with Na, and, therefore, a possible explanation for the N_{cv} increase is the passivation effects provided by the SiO_x insulator layer. On the other hand, another possible hypothesis, related with the region represented by a circle in Figure 2 a), is that the highest N_{cv} value for the PointContact device is directly related with the Na concentration in each device, as it is known that the N_{cv} values increase for devices with higher Na concentration. [54,68] Despite of the correct hypothesis, it is observed that both N_{cv} and the measured V_{oc} values from the J-V analysis follow the same trend for the passivated devices, even though it is not clear if the increase in the N_{cv} values fully explain the V_{oc} increase. Therefore, it is necessary to calculate the expected V_{oc} gain that is provided by the N_{cv} increase for the passivated devices compared to Ref. Such V_{oc} gain provided by the N_{cv} values increase, will be hereafter named as ΔV_{oc} . In order to calculate ΔV_{oc} , the following equation was used:[16,72,73]

$$\Delta V_{oc} = \frac{k_B T}{q} \ln \left(\frac{N_{cv}(passivated)}{N_{cv}(reference)} \right)$$
 (3)

where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature and q is the electron charge. For the calculation, the N_{cv} values from Figure 2 b) were used. So, considering N_{cv} values, PointContact device has an expected V_{oc} gain of 47 ± 10 mV over Ref and LineContact is only expected to improve in V_{oc} by 6 ± 4 mV over Ref (see Figure 4). In Figure 4, it demonstrated, for all devices, the V_{oc} gains that are related with the N_{cv} (ΔV_{oc}) and the V_{oc} gains that are not related with N_{cv} , which, for example, could be related with passivation effects. Moreover, it is also shown the thermodynamic losses and the V_{oc} deficit for each device. Hence, the lower V_{oc} deficit of the passivated devices compared to the Ref device cannot be fully explained by its higher N_{cv} value, highlighting that the lower V_{oc} deficit is likely due to the passivation effects. In Figure 4, it is not considered the V_{oc} losses in our devices that are related to: i) potential fluctuations; $^{[74-79]}$ ii) the used Ga profile; $^{[51,52,80-82]}$ iii) the lack of post deposition treatment (PDT); $^{[83-88]}$ and iv) the lack of a front passivation layer, $^{[69,89-92]}$ just to name a few potential V_{oc} losses.

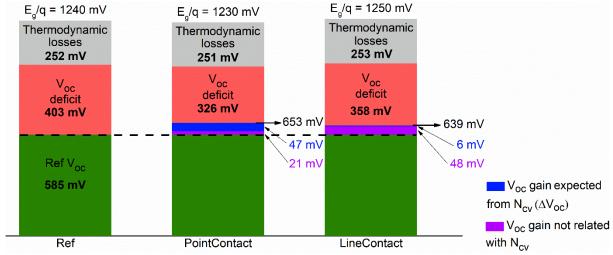


Figure 4 Passivated devices V_{oc} gains over the Ref device. The devices bandgap value is presented on top of each column. It is represented in red the V_{oc} deficit, in green the V_{oc} of the Ref device, in blue the calculated ΔV_{oc} and in purple the V_{oc} gain not related with N_{cv} . The measured V_{oc} of each device is also presented.

PointContact has a V_{oc} gain measured from J-V analysis of 68 mV over Ref, which has a difference of 21 mV compared to the calculated ΔV_{oc} . The complete V_{oc} gain is, therefore, not fully explained by the increased N_{cv} values. Thus, other effects, such as the passivation from the SiO_x layer are also playing a role. To further corroborate such hypothesis, one has to look to LineContact device as well. For this device, a ΔV_{oc} value of 6 mV was obtained. The effective

 V_{oc} gain from J-V measurements was 54 mV over the Ref, which has a difference of 48 mV to the calculated ΔV_{oc} , as shown in Figure 4. Therefore, the N_{cv} influence is not enough to explain the V_{oc} increase seen in J-V and the chemical and/or field-effect passivation may be playing a vital role in increasing the V_{oc} values of the studied passivated devices.

Electrical simulations showed the importance to control charge density and polarity inside the insulator for optimal solar cells performance. Considering the PointContact devices' passivation area and the measured J-V figures of merit gains over the reference device, namely V_{oc} gain of 68 mV, J_{sc} gain of 1.7 mA/cm², same FF and efficiency gain of 1.7 %, one can infer the Q_f values present in the SiO_x layer by analyzing Figure 3. Considering such values for a passivation area of 99.7 % in Figure 3, the Q_f values inside the SiO_x insulator are negative, and they may be approximately -8x10¹² cm⁻², which is an expected value for good field-effect passivation.^[30,69,70] For a 59.5 % line contact passivation area and considering the observed J-V figures of merit for this device, the same conclusions from the PointContact device may be achieved, which states that the SiO_x has a high density of negative Q_f values of approximately $-8x10^{12}\ cm^{-2}$. Therefore, the Q_f values are apparently the same for both architectures, which was expected, since the Qf is directly related with the insulator used as passivation layer, as well as, the interface with the absorber layer, which, in this case, it is also the same for both architectures. The negative charges are preferred for rear passivation and the high density of fixed charges are correlated with the increase of the field-effect passivation strength. It is noted that other electrical measurements that are not presented in this work should be carried out in order to precisely calculate the Q_f values present in the SiO_x passivation layer. [29]

The conjugation of the demonstrated good field-effect passivation coupled with the good chemical passivation observed by electrical simulations, J-V and C-V measurements allow SiO_x to be considered an effective choice for CIGS solar cells rear passivation.

5. Conclusions

The obtained results suggest that SiO_x deposited by the high throughput and industrial technique chemical vapor deposition is an effective insulator to be used for rear interface passivation of CIGS solar cells. Ultrathin devices with SiO_x , independently of the passivation pattern and CIGS growth temperature used, show superior optoelectronic performance compared to their respective non-passivated counterparts. The beneficial passivation effects of SiO_x allowed for an increased J-V figures of merit over the reference non-passivated device in ultrathin CIGS solar cells.

LineContact devices, that used photolithography, which is a widely used industrial technique, show promising results with a champion cell achieving a light to power conversion efficiency value of 11.7% and an increase of the average efficiency value of 2.6% in comparison with a non-passivated reference device. The PointContact devices, that in this work were still processed using e-beam lithography, achieved a champion cell of 12.0%. Surprisingly, these two patterns show a compromise between V_{oc} , J_{sc} and FF connected to passivation area, and our simulations show that the studied architectures have room for further improvement, which will allow to further increase efficiency values. Moreover, the implications of the studied architectures for alkali introduction were discussed, highlighting the fact that a new strategy must be implemented.

The results presented here demonstrate that future improvements to the passivation pattern design can lead to even higher optoelectronical performance of the passivation structure due to a better compromise between charge extraction and passivation area demonstrating the potential of SiO_x as a passivation material for energy conversion devices. The results of this work show that widely used microelectronics processes, such as SiO_x deposited using CVD together with photolithography, will allow for the upscaling of the passivation layer for industrial CIGS devices. Moreover, the SiO_x layer presented here can be further used in CdTe, kesterite and perovskite solar cells, as well as, in other energy related applications, such as solid-state batteries, thermoelectrics and other devices that use complex materials.

6. Experimental

The substrates consist of 5x5 cm² Soda-Lime Glass (SLG) with a 350 nm layer of Mo deposited by sputtering on top of the SLG. The passivation layer fabrication procedure (Figure 5) begins by growing a SiO_x layer, 18 nm thick, by Plasma-Enhanced Chemical Vapor Deposition (PECVD) using a SPTS MPX PECVD tool at 13.56 MHz and 300 °C. The point contact pattern is accomplished using e-beam lithography. The substrate is coated with 430 nm of polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA). Then, an exposure is performed through e-beam lithography using a Vistec EBPG 5200 tool. The exposed photoresist is developed by methyl isobutyl ketone (MIBK) developer. Subsequently, the exposed insulator is etched by reactive ion etching (RIE) using a SPTS – ICP. The remaining photoresist is removed by immersing the substrates in an ultrasound bath with acetone for 30 minutes followed by a 5 minutes bath in deionized water. The accomplished pattern has a point contact structure with holes diameter of 150 nm and 2000 nm pitch.

Line contacts are patterned using photolithography where the substrate is coated with 600 nm of a positive photoresist, AZ1505. The line contact pattern is then exposed by a 405 nm laser, using a Direct Write Laser tool (Heidelberg Instruments – DWL 2000). The exposed photoresist is developed by an AZ 400K 1:4 developer. The remaining fabrication processes, etching and resist removal, followed the same conditions as the ones for the e-beam substrate. The accomplished pattern has a line contact structure with a line width of 1100 nm and 2800 nm pitch.

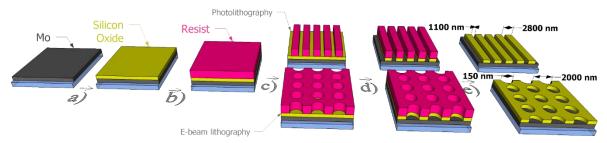


Figure 5 Photolithography and e-beam lithography step-by-step processes. The different processes are represented by: a) Insulator deposition; b) Resist coating (AZ1505 for photolithography or PMMA for e-beam lithography); c) Exposure; d) Etching; and e) Resist removal. The last image of each process has the final substrate features: photolithographic substrate with a width of 1100 nm and pitch of 2800 nm; and e-beam substrate with a width of 150 nm a pitch of 2000 nm. Images not at scale.

The 5x5 cm² substrates were divided in two 2.5x5 cm² pieces in order to grow different CIGS layers in the same substrate architecture. Prior to the CIGS layer growth, a 15 nm layer of NaF is evaporated onto all substrates. The CIGS growth is performed using a one stage coevaporation process, $^{[16,93,94]}$ with a flat evaporation rate, in 2 runs: i) CIGS growth at 550 °C, used in this work as reference CIGS growth temperature as this is the conventional temperature used, $^{[18-20,28]}$ with an estimated CIGS thickness of 710 nm and composition values of $[Cu]/([Ga] + [In]) = 0.83 \pm 0.01$ and $[Ga]/([Ga] + [In]) = 0.40 \pm 0.02$; and ii) CIGS growth at a lower temperature of 500 °C with an estimated CIGS thickness of 710 nm and composition values of $[Cu]/([Ga] + [In]) = 0.83 \pm 0.01$ and $[Ga]/([Ga] + [In]) = 0.39 \pm 0.02$ as determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) performed in a Panalytical Epsilon 5. After growing the CIGS layer, the process follows the Ångstrom baseline. $^{[93]}$ The final substrates/devices are referred according to the names present in Table 1. The reference non-passivated device is named as Ref, and passivated devices are named as PointContact or LineContact following the respective passivation architecture.

Table 1 - Names of the substrates/devices used according to the passivation architecture.

	CIGS growth temperature (°C)	SiO _x Nanocontact Lithography		
Ref	550/500	-		
PointContact	550/500	E-beam		
LineContact	550/500	Photolithography		

A Bruker Icon Atomic Force Microscope (AFM) was used in tapping mode with a scan rate of 1 Hz for line contacts and 0.5 Hz for point contacts. Sodium compositional analyses were performed with GDOES for in-depth profiling in combination with XRF for average in-depth composition.

Complete solar cells were characterized by AM1.5 illuminated and dark J-V, and EQE measurements performed in home-built systems. EQE measurements were performed at 0 V bias. It is noted that the diode parameters A and J_0 were acquired from the dark curve, and the parameters R_p and R_s were acquired from the illuminated curve, according to Hegedus *et al.*. ^[63]

C-V dark measurements were performed in a PM8PS low signal probe station coupled with the Agilent B1500A semiconductor analyzer system with a 10 kHz frequency signal and a V_{RMS} of 30 mV. The bias applied ranged from -1 V to 1 V.

The electrical properties of a 710 nm thick CIGS device were simulated using the Silvaco ATLAS 2D program, as specified elsewhere. [34] The crucial parameters used were contact resistance (R_c), bulk defect density, rear reflectance (R_b), doping density and surface recombination velocity (SRV) at the rear interface. In order to approach reality, the SRV value has been differentiated for the two rear interfaces Mo/CIGS and SiO_x/CIGS. All the used parameter values are listed in Table 2. The default R_c value of $0.1~\Omega$.cm² used for the passivated devices represents an equivalent series resistance of $1~\Omega$.cm² in our 2D model, identical to the reference device, as described elsewhere. [34] The R_c value accounts for the resistance in the nanocontact openings for the passivated devices, scaled by the width to pitch ratio of the opening, [34] i.e. assuming by default an average width to pitch ratio of 0.1 as the same for both structures. The presented defect density is related to bulk mid-gap acceptor defects. [34] The chosen R_b values were based on optical simulations, [34] whereas the doping density values were based on experimental data. [34] The simulations were conducted assuming the pitch value of 2000 and 2800 nm as obtained in the experiments. Nonetheless, since similar results were obtained, only simulations with a pitch value of 2000 nm were presented and analyzed.

Table 2 Crucial parameter values used in Silvaco ATLAS 2D electrical simulations. It is noted that for the passivated devices, it is represented the SRV value inside the nanocontacts (Mo/CIGS) and outside the nanocontacts (SiO_x/CIGS).

,	R_c $(\Omega.cm^2)$	Defect density (cm ⁻³)	R _b (%)	Doping density (cm ⁻³)	SRV (cm/s)
Ref	1	2×10 ¹⁴	20	3×10^{16}	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷
PointContact	0.1	1×10 ¹⁴	45	5×10 ¹⁶	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷ SiO _x /CIGS 1×10 ²
LineContact	0.1	1×10 ¹⁴	45	5×10 ¹⁶	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷ SiO _x /CIGS 1×10 ²

6.1 | Passivation structure

AFM topography images were taken from all fabricated substrates. Figures 6 a) and b) show representative 3D AFM images of point and line contact substrates, respectively, showing well-

defined vertical features for both cases. Figures 6 c) and d) show the AFM cross-section representative plot of a contact opening for each type of substrate architecture, from which the average value of the contact width was estimated (Figure 6 e)). In the cross-section plot, the double red arrow represents the average contact width, and it is established by considering the complete removal of the SiO_x layer with an 18 nm thickness.

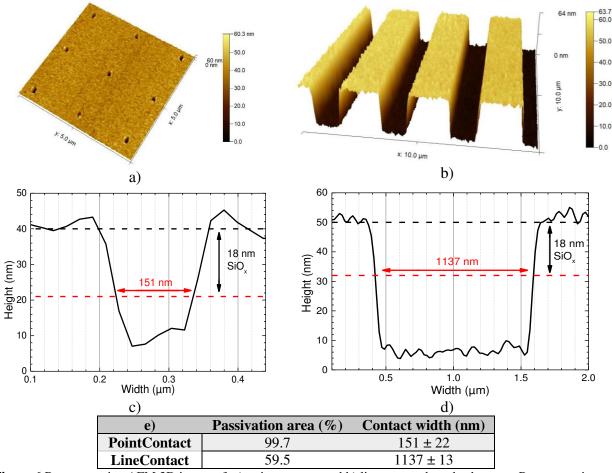


Figure 6 Representative AFM 3D image of: a) point contact; and b) line contact based substrates. Representative AFM cross-section plot of: c) point contact; d) line contact based substrates, where it is shown the SiO_x thickness (double black arrow) and the average contact width (double red arrow); and e) Contact width average and standard deviation values of both studied substrate architectures. Average values were taken in 9 patterns of the same AFM image. The passivation area for each device is also presented.

The PointContact substrate resulted in contacts with an equivalent diameter average value of 151 nm, and the LineContact substrates resulted in line contacts with an average width value of 1137 nm. Average values were taken in 9 patterns of the same AFM image. Therefore, according to equations (1) and (2), the PointContact substrate resulted in a 99.7 % of passivated area, whereas the LineContact architecture allows for a 59.5 % of passivated area, as summarized in Figure 6 e).

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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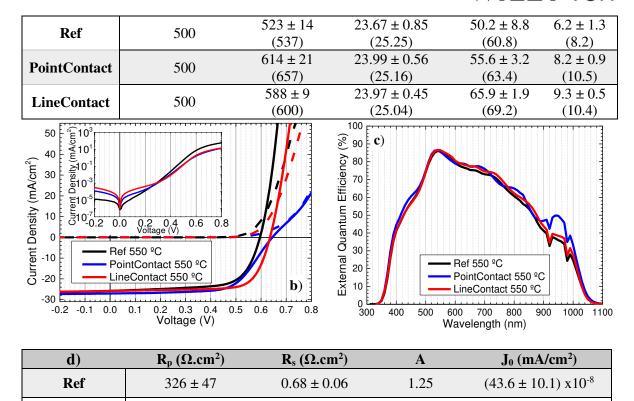
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a)	CIGS growth temperature (°C)	V _{oc} (mV)	EQE corrected J _{sc} (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	Eff. (%)
Ref	550	585 ± 7 (597)	22.50 ± 0.44 (22.72)	66.9 ± 1.3 (69.8)	8.8 ± 0.4 (9.5)
PointContact	550	653 ± 13 (673)	24.23 ± 0.67 (24.77)	66.6 ± 2.6 (71.9)	10.5 ± 0.7 (12.0)
LineContact	550	639 ± 7 (652)	23.80 ± 0.21 (23.55)	74.7 ± 0.8 (76.4)	11.4 ± 0.2 (11.7)



PointContact 1573 ± 406 1.28 ± 0.18 1.45 $(25.0 \pm 12.3) \times 10^{-8}$ LineContact 754 ± 95 0.66 ± 0.04 1.35 $(6.97 \pm 1.16) \times 10^{-8}$ Figure 1 a) J-V figures of merit: averages and standard deviations values of all studied devices. Figures of merit values for the highest efficiency cells also presented in brackets. J_{sc} values calculated from the EQE spectra. Averages taken from 12 cells; b) Representative J-V plots for devices with CIGS grown at 550 °C. Straight lines are illuminated curves and dashed lines are dark curves. The inset figure is the dark log J-V curve; c) Representative

EQE plots for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C; and d) Solar cells' diode parameters average and standard deviation values for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. R_p stands for parallel

resistance, R_s for series resistance, A for ideality factor and J₀ for saturation current density.

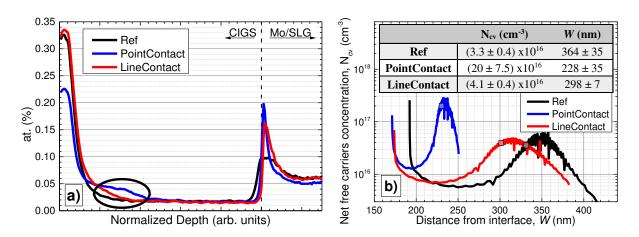


Figure 2 a) GDOES Na in-depth profile of devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. The dashed vertical line is a guide to the eye representing where the CIGS/Mo interface is located; and b) Representative N_{cv} vs W plot for devices grown with a substrate temperature of 550 °C. The depletion region and net free carrier concentration are taken at 0 V and are represented in square marks. Inset table represents the Zero-bias average and standard deviation values of N_{cv} and W. Averages taken from 5 cells.

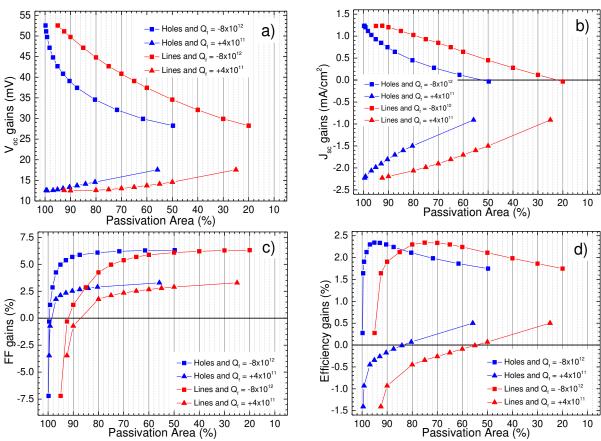


Figure 3 - Figures of merit absolute gains of the passivated devices over the reference device: a) V_{oc} gains; b) J_{sc} gains; c) FF gains; and d) Efficiency gains. Pitch value of 2000 nm simulated. Red lines correspond to the passivation area for line contacts and blue lines correspond to the passivation area for point contacts. Square marks represent a Q_f value of -8x10¹² cm⁻² and triangle marks represent a Q_f value of +4x10¹¹ cm⁻².

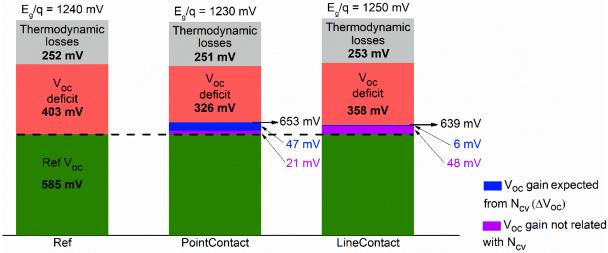


Figure 4 Passivated devices V_{oc} gains over the Ref device. The devices bandgap value is presented on top of each column. It is represented in red the V_{oc} deficit, in green the V_{oc} of the Ref device, in blue the calculated ΔV_{oc} and in purple the V_{oc} gain not related with N_{cv} . The measured V_{oc} of each device is also presented.

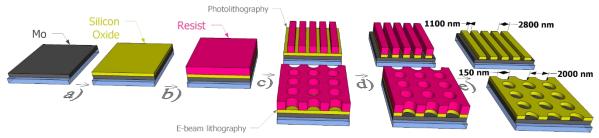


Figure 5 Photolithography and e-beam lithography step-by-step processes. The different processes are represented by: a) Insulator deposition; b) Resist coating (AZ1505 for photolithography or PMMA for e-beam lithography); c) Exposure; d) Etching; and e) Resist removal. The last image of each process has the final substrate features: photolithographic substrate with a width of 1100 nm and pitch of 2800 nm; and e-beam substrate with a width of 150 nm a pitch of 2000 nm. Images not at scale.

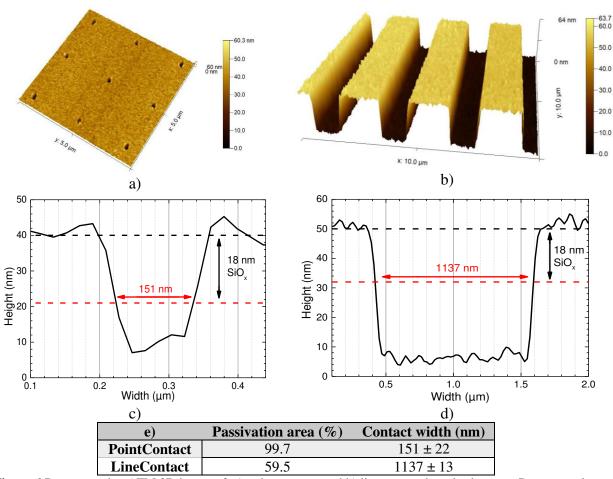


Figure 6 Representative AFM 3D image of: a) point contact; and b) line contact based substrates. Representative AFM cross-section plot of: c) point contact; and d) line contact based substrates, where it is shown the SiO_x thickness (double black arrow) and the average contact width (double red arrow); and e) Contact width average and standard deviation values of both studied substrate architectures. Average values were taken in 9 patterns of the same AFM image. The passivation area for each device is also presented.

Table 1 - Names of the substrates/devices used according to the passivation architecture.

	CIGS growth temperature (°C)	SiO _x Nanocontact Lithography
Ref	550/500	-
PointContact	550/500	E-beam
LineContact	550/500	Photolithography

Table 2 Crucial parameter values used in Silvaco ATLAS 2D electrical simulations. It is noted that for the passivated devices, it is represented the SRV value inside the contacts (Mo/CIGS) and outside the contacts (SiO $_x$ /CIGS).

	R_c $(\Omega.cm^2)$	Defect density (cm ⁻³)	R _b (%)	Doping density (cm ⁻³)	SRV (cm/s)
Ref	1	2×10 ¹⁴	20	3×10^{16}	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷
PointContact	0.1	1×10 ¹⁴	45	5×10 ¹⁶	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷ SiO _x /CIGS 1×10 ²
LineContact	0.1	1×10 ¹⁴	45	5×10 ¹⁶	Mo/CIGS 1×10 ⁷ SiO _x /CIGS 1×10 ²

Supporting Information

High-performance and Industrially Viable Nanostructured SiO_x Layers for Interface Passivation in Thin Film Solar Cells

José M. V. Cunha*, Kevin Oliveira, Jackson Lontchi, Tomás S. Lopes, Marco A. Curado, João R. S. Barbosa, Carlos Vinhais, Wei-Chao Chen, Jérôme Borme, Helder Fonseca, João Gaspar, Denis Flandre, Marika Edoff, Ana G. Silva, Jennifer P. Teixeira, Paulo A. Fernandes, and Pedro M. P. Salomé

Cross-section of scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were taken by a FEI Nova Nano SEM 650 system using an acceleration voltage of 5 kV. The structural characterization of the devices was performed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a Bragg-Brentano θ -2 θ configuration in a PanAnalytical X-Pert PROMRD system with a CuK line of 1.5406 Å.

SEM cross-section images of the final fabricated devices were taken in order to understand: i) the impact of the growth temperature on CIGS morphology; ii) the adhesion of the SiO_x film on the Mo layer; and iii) the ability of the SiO_x layer to survive the CIGS harsh growth conditions. Cross-section images of PointContact devices grown with conventional (550 °C) and lower (500 °C) temperatures are presented in Figure S1 a) and b), respectively. In Figure S1 a), it is shown the device grown at the conventional temperature that presents higher CIGS grains than the ones grown at lower temperatures (Figure S1 b)). Moreover, the PointContact device grown at 550 °C has some grains with similar height as the CIGS thickness (~700 nm). The influence of the growth temperature on CIGS grain size was already reported in previous works, [1-3] matching our results. The high grain size of device grown at 550 °C leads to a lower number of grain boundaries, which are known to be potential recombinative centers. [2,4] The very thin SiO_x layer (~18 nm) is visible in both images, which appears to be conformal through all the scrutinized area. SiO_x did not show any adhesion problems and it survives the CIGS growth. In summary, the CIGS morphological differences observed are directly related with the CIGS growth temperature, and such differences do not appear to be related with the SiO_x introduction.

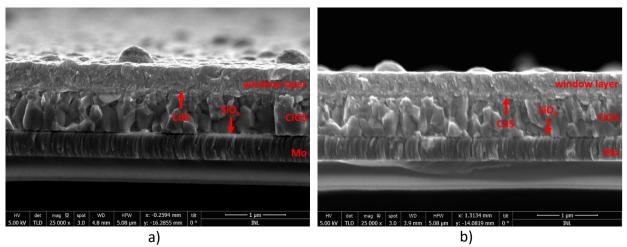


Figure S1 - SEM cross-section of PointContact devices: a) device grown at 550 °C, and b) device grown at 500 °C. It is possible to observe all final devices' layers, namely the window layer, CdS, CIGS, passivation layer (SiO_x) and Mo.

Considering the morphological differences observed in SEM images for the two CIGS growth temperatures, XRD was performed in all devices to understand their respective crystalline properties. XRD spectra for the Ref, PointContact and LineContact devices for 550 and 500 °C CIGS growth temperatures are presented in Figure S2, and the main CIGS peaks intensity ratio are shown in Table S1. The main CIGS peaks that correspond to the crystalline planes (112) at 27.0°, (204/220) at 44.8° and (116/312) at 53.1° are present in all devices. Moreover, the Mo main peak, which corresponds to the crystalline plane (110) at 40.4° and the ZnO main peak at 34.3 ° corresponding to the crystalline plane (111) are also present in all devices. Both reference devices present a peak corresponding to the CIGS crystalline plane (004) at 32.9°. Considering the passivated devices, only the PointContact grown at 550 °C has the mentioned peak. Moreover, the device PointContact grown at 550 °C also has the CIGS crystalline plane (211) at 36.3°. The peak of the crystalline plane (114) for CuIn₃Se₅ present at 38.4° is also present in all devices. Considering peak intensity ratios, presented in Table S1, it is shown an higher value of the (112)/(204) ratio for both references and PointContact grown at 550 °C devices compared to the value of the powder, which indicates the (112) crystalline plane preferential orientation. Moreover, the ratio value decreases compared to the powder for the PointContact grown at 500 °C and LineContact devices, which indicates the (204) crystalline plane preferential orientation. Therefore, the SiO_x passivation layer might be influencing the CIGS

crystalline growth. Moreover, since the PointContact and LineContact devices have different crystalline preferential orientation, the rear contact pattern may also influence the CIGS growth preferential orientation. Further studies should be performed to confirm this hypothesis. The CIGS differences between the growth temperatures are demonstrated by the increased peak intensity ratio (112)/(204) for devices grown at 550 °C over the respective devices grown at a temperature of 500 °C. There are also differences between the growth temperatures for the peak intensity ratios (112)/(312) and (204)/(312).

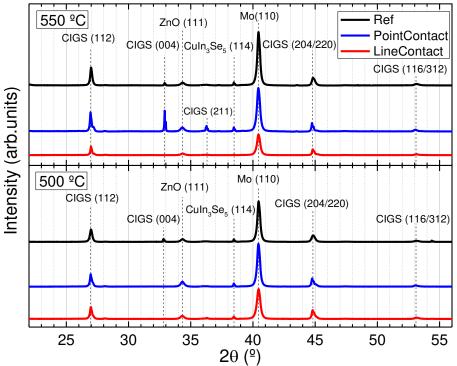


Figure S2 - XRD spectra of all studied devices. Main CIGS, Mo and ZnO peaks identified. The phase assignment was done using the ICDD database. [5-6]

Table S1 - XRD intensities ratio of the main CIGS peaks: crystalline plane (112), (204) and (312). Comparison with a powder database of CuInSe₂.^[5]

Device	CIGS growth	<u>I₍₁₁₂₎</u>	<u>I₍₁₁₂₎</u>	<u>I₍₂₀₄₎</u>
	temperature (°C)	$I_{(204)}$	I ₍₃₁₂₎	I ₍₃₁₂₎
Powder	-	1.75	3.43	1.96
Ref	550	2.32	12.60	5.44
PointContact	550	2.30	10.99	4.78
LineContact	550	1.49	8.55	5.74
Ref	500	1.91	11.65	6.09
PointContact	500	1.52	9.95	6.56
LineContact	500	1.34	8.78	6.54

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