

Solar Cells

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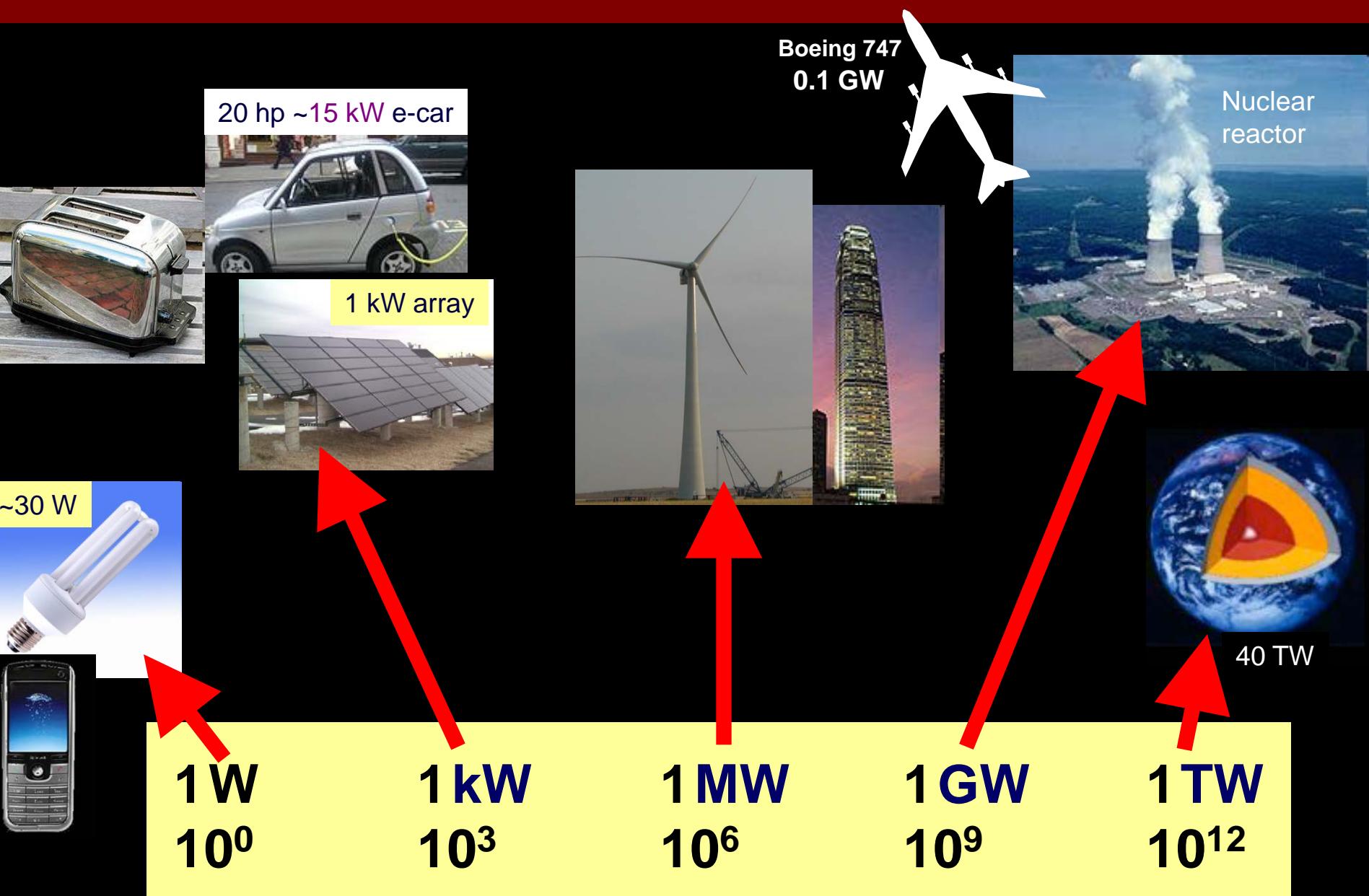
World Energy Consumption

	2012	2050	.
People:	7 bil	12 bil	
Energy:	15 TW	30 TW	

~3 kW / person

What is Watt ?

We will need ~30 TW in 2050



Can we use only nuclear power ??

We will need ~**30 TW** in 2050



One reactor ~1 GW

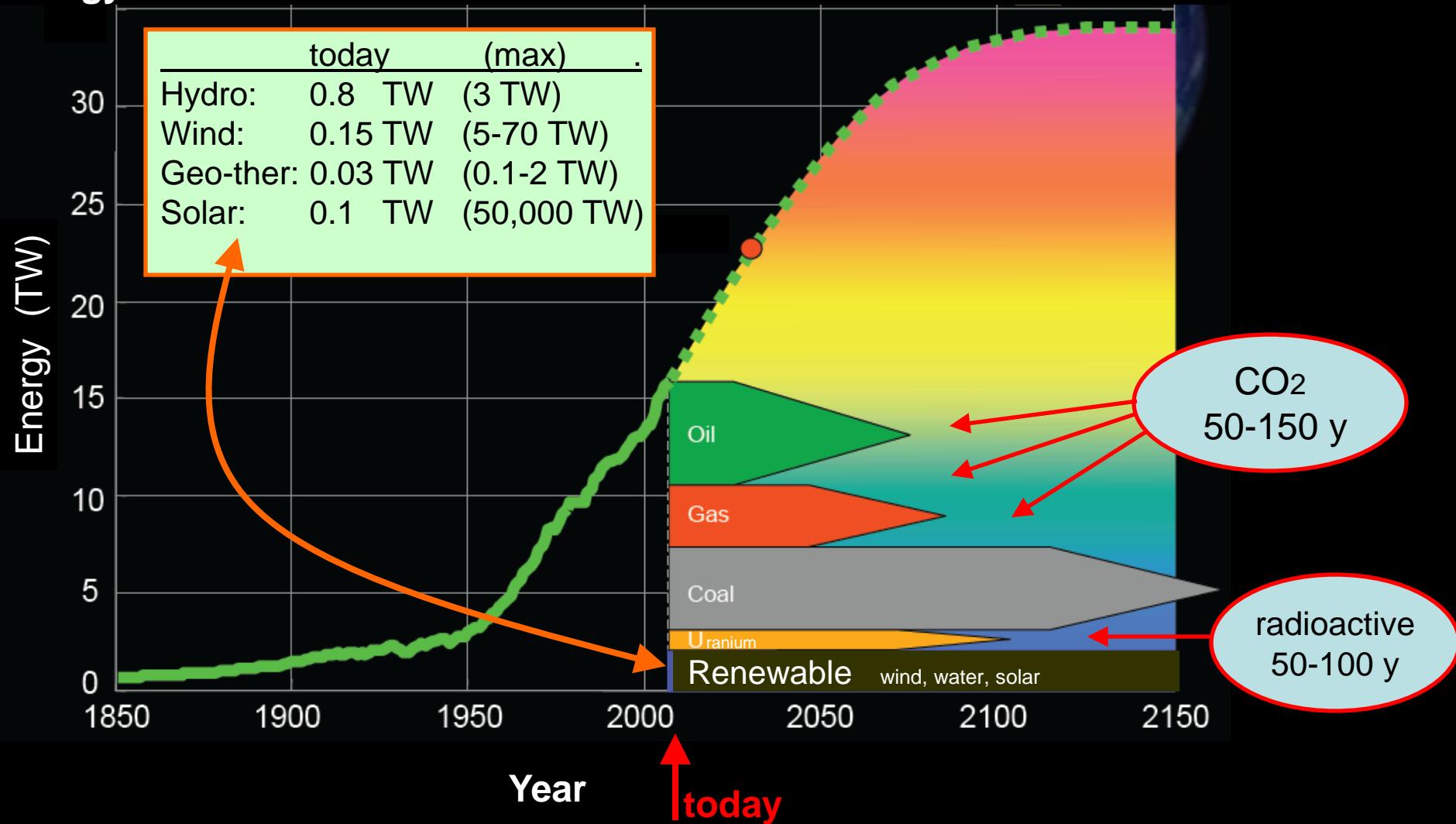
~30,000 nuclear reactors
(today ~450 reactors)

..... 2 new reactors **every day** over 40y !!

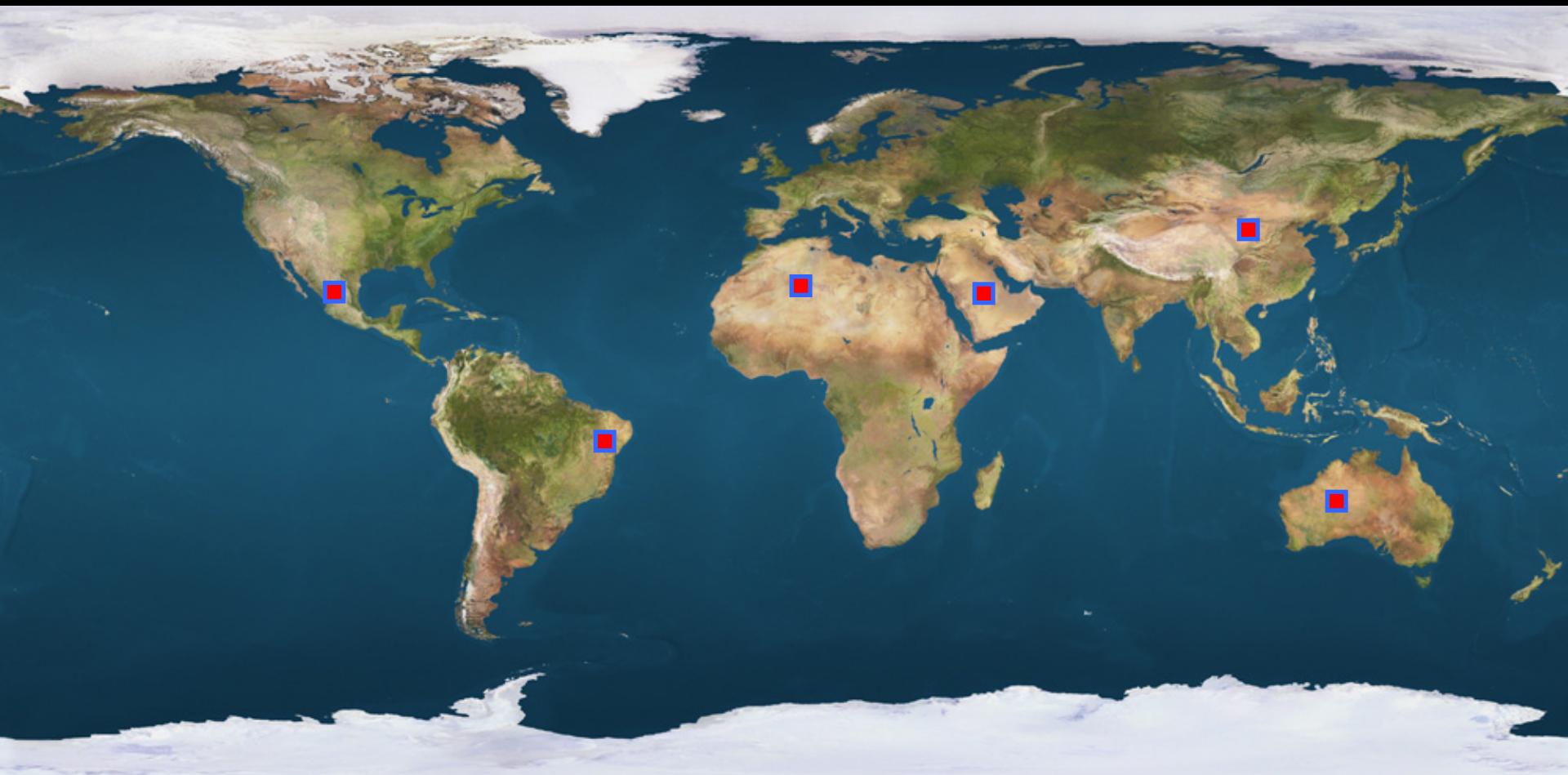
Different alternatives

We will need ~30 TW in 2050

Energy in TW



Required land area



Six power plants can cover our need:
 $500 \times 500 \text{ km}^2$ each

Problem is distribution, losses and storage

Average sunlight power:
 $\sim 1 \text{ kW/m}^2$

3 types of solar-energy technologies

1. Solar-thermal

heat water



Power tower in California: 10 MW
Steam engine

2. Solar-chemical

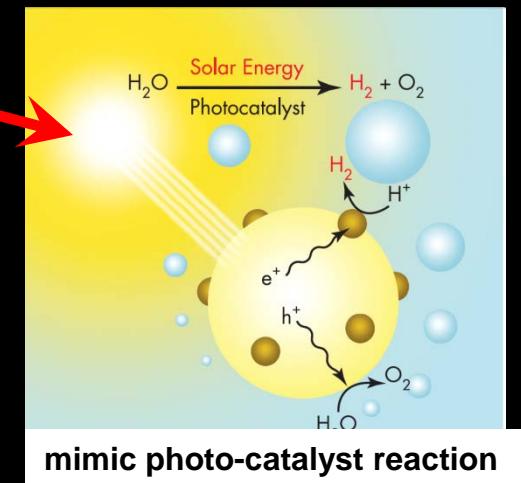
H₂ from split of water

3. Solar-electricity

photovoltaics
or solar cells



~5 kW roof top system



What will each person need in 2050 ?



Sunlight power: $\sim 1 \text{ kW/m}^2$

Each person $\sim 3 \text{ kW}$
that is, $\sim 3 \text{ m}^2$ solar cell

In addition, we need
energy storage, ie, batteries !

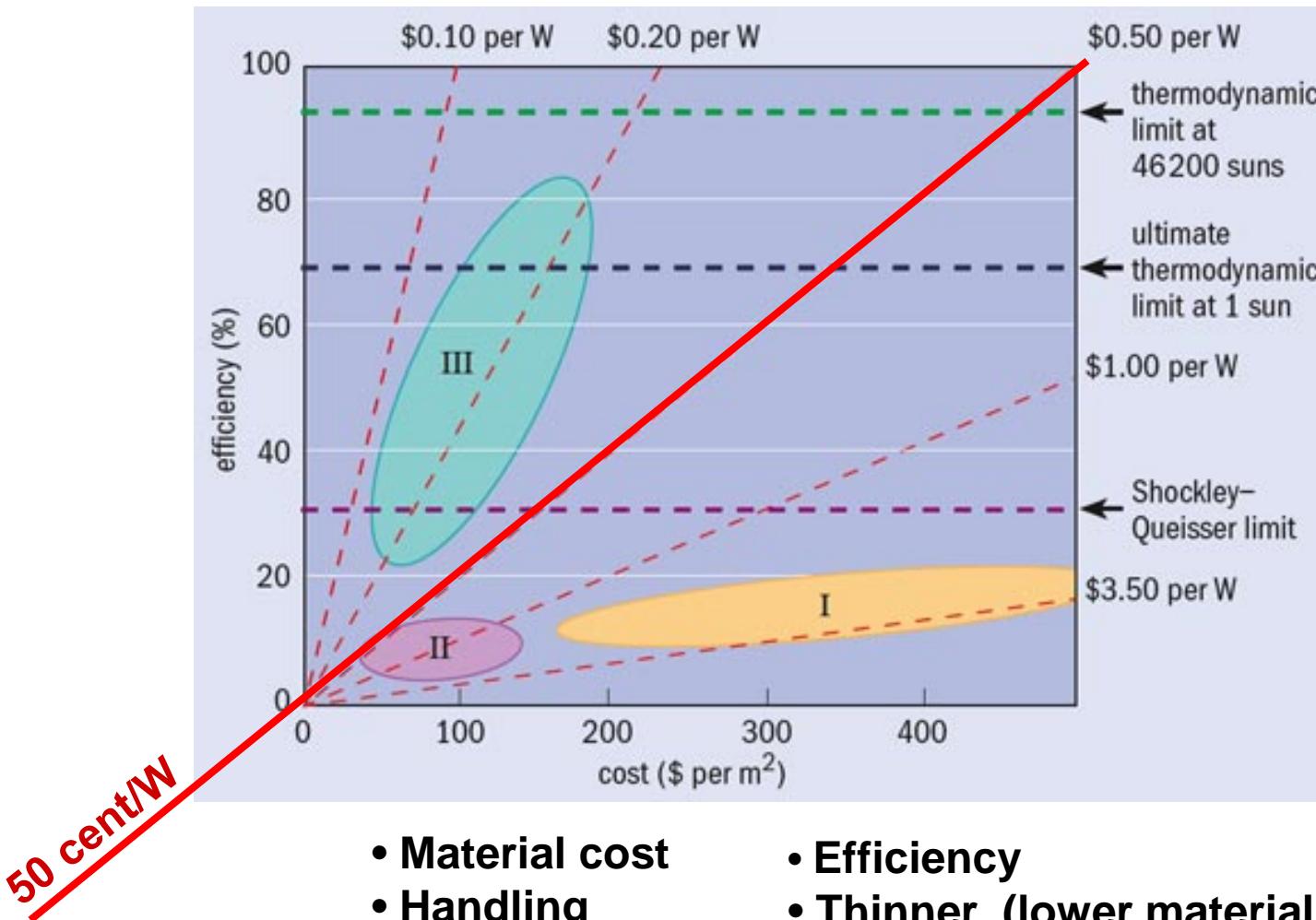
3rd/4th Generation of Photovoltaic Cells

Low-cost and high-efficient solar-cell modules

- High device efficiency: $n = \text{output electric power} / \text{input sunlight}$
- Low material costs
- Low degradation => Longer life-time of the solar cell panels
- Cost-efficient processing, manufacturing, development, handling
- Low installation costs
- Earth-abundant materials
- Non-toxic elements
- Environment friendly production

3rd generation solar cells

Martin Green, 3rd Generation PV,
Springer-Verlag, Berlin, (2003).



- Material cost
 - Handling
 - Processing
 - Fabrication
 - Packing
 - Installation
 - Efficiency
 - Thinner (lower material costs)
 - Crystal and device stability
- => better lifetime
(cost to replace)

Module Cost Outlook: 36 cents/W in 2017

Cost \$/Watt

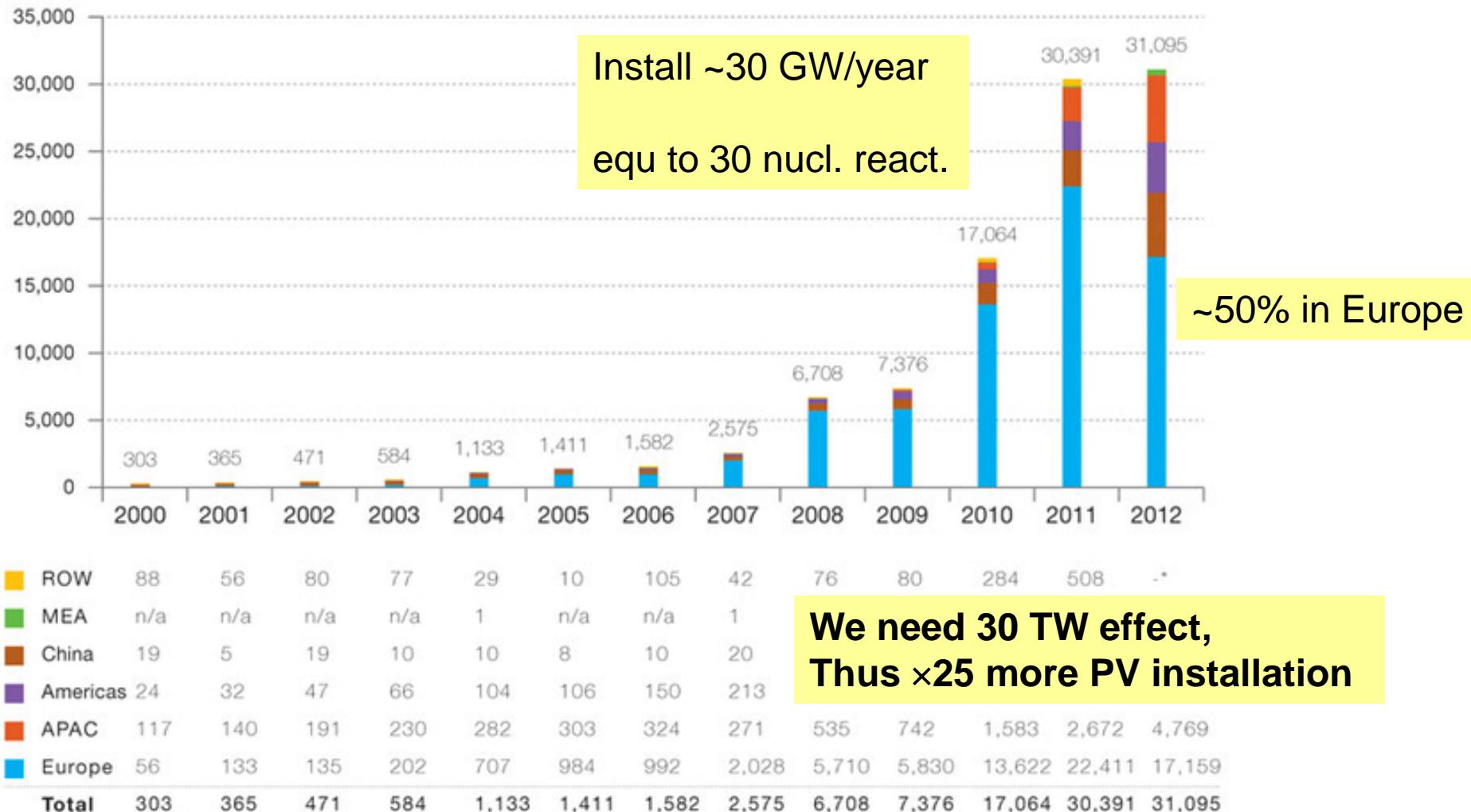


GTM Research, June 2013

Source: PV Technology and Cost Outlook, 2013-2017

Primary Category	Secondary Category	Historical Trend (2009-2012)	Base Case Forecast (2013-2017)
Technology Parameters	Conversion Efficiency (Module)	Average increase of 0.2% absolute per year	0.2% annual increase through 2017 to 16.2%
	Wafer Thickness	180 micron (2009-2012)	Drops to 160 micron in 2015
	Kerf (Sawing) Loss	160 micron (2009-2011) to 145 micron (2012)	Drops to 120 micron in 2015
	Cell-to-Module Loss	Average annual increase of 0.1% absolute	Average annual increase of 0.1% absolute
Capital Equipment Cost	Capex per Watt (Ingot-to-Module)	Annualized decline of 21%	Flat from 2012-2014; increases by 21% in 2015 due to increased automation to counter labor rate
Consumables Pricing	Polysilicon	Dropped from \$80/kg (Q4 2009) to \$18/kg (Q1 2013) - annualized decline of ~40%	Increases to \$22/kg by 2014 and then declines to \$18/kg by 2017
	Metallization Paste	Increased from \$700/kg in 2010 to \$1900/kg in mid-2011, dropped to \$1000/kg currently	Increases by 5% annually
	Other Consumables	~25-30% annualized decline (wafer), 15-25% decline (module)	Declines by 5% annually
Consumption Efficiency	Silicon	8% annualized decline to 5.3g/W by Q4 2012	6% annualized decline to 4.1g/W in 2017
	Electricity (Ingot)	4% annual average decline	1% annual average decline
	Wafer Slurry	3% annual average decline	17% reduction in 2015 with adoption of thinner sawing wire, flat thereafter (2% annualized decline)
	Silver	20% annual average decline	4% annual decline
Labor	Labor Rates	~10% annual increase	~10% annual increase
	Labor Intensity	3% annual decline due to increases in tool throughput and conversion efficiency	25% reduction from 2014-2015 due to increased automation
Manufacturing Scale	Plant Capacity	Increased by ~700 MW annually to 2.5 GW in 2012	Increase by 500 MW annually to 5 GW by 2017

Evolution of global PV annual installations 2000-2012 (MW)



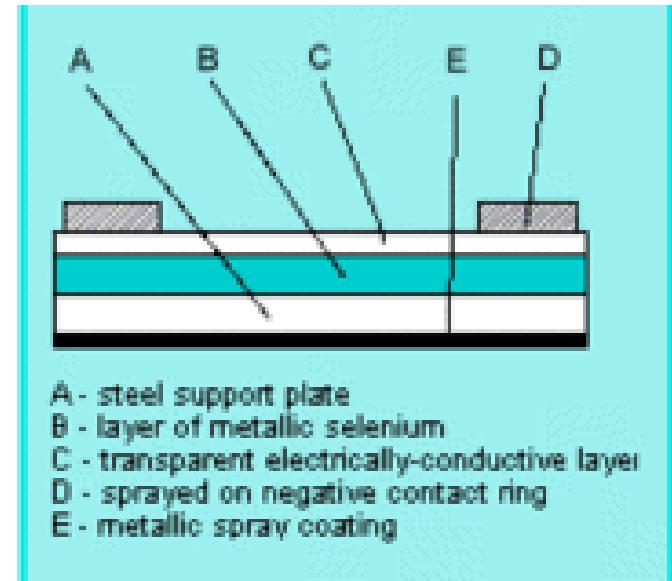
* From 2012 onwards, these figures are directly integrated into those of the relevant regions.

History

PV = Photo+voltaic = convert light to electricity

1839: A. E. Becquerel first recognized photovoltaic effect.

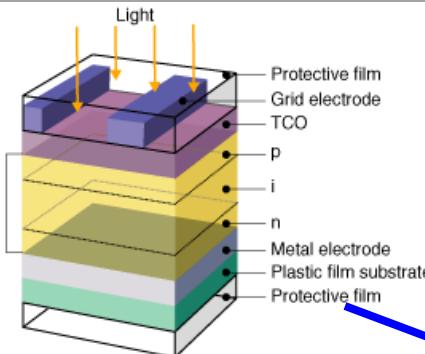
1883: First solar cell built, by Charles Fritts, gold-coated selenium.



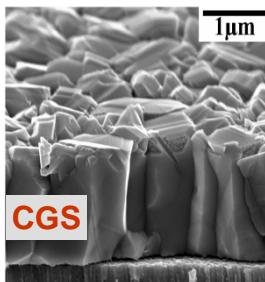
1941: First silicon-based solar cell demonstrated, by Russell Ohl (70y ago)

2013: Crystalline Si is dominating (80% market).

Future: More thin-film technologies ?



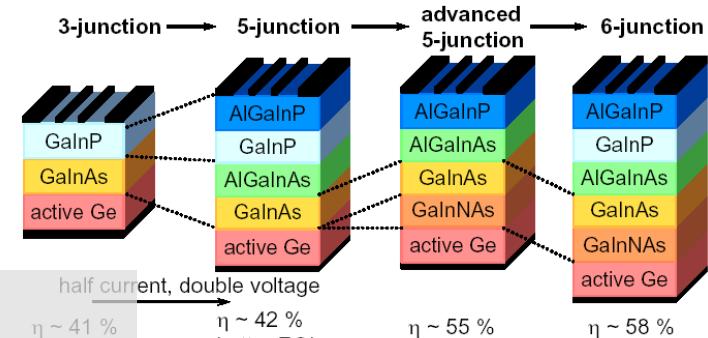
SANYO, Amorton



S. Schuler, et al. 29th IEEE
PV Conf.(2002)

combinations of

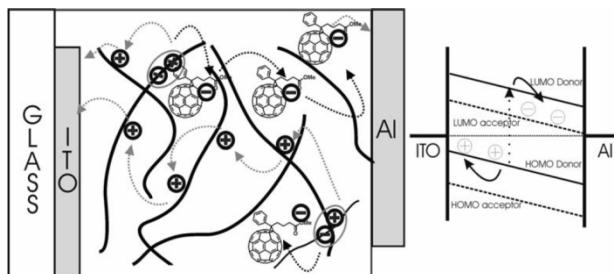
1. crystalline Si ($n \approx 30\%$)
2. Thin-film solar cell (~20%)
3. Multi-junction solar cells (~40%)



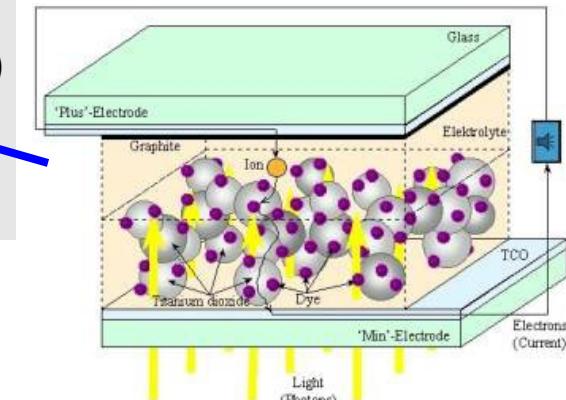
AW Bett ,Fraunhofer Inst, Freiburg

4. Dye-sensitized solar cells (~10%)

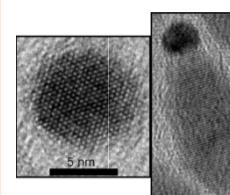
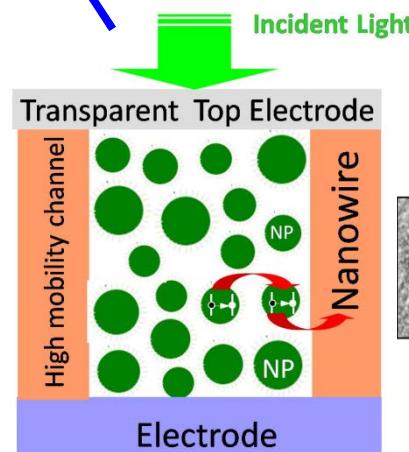
Polymer solar cells
Nanocrystal solar cells



$R = C_{10}H_{21}$; MDMO-PPV
 $R = C_8H_{17}$; MEH-PPV



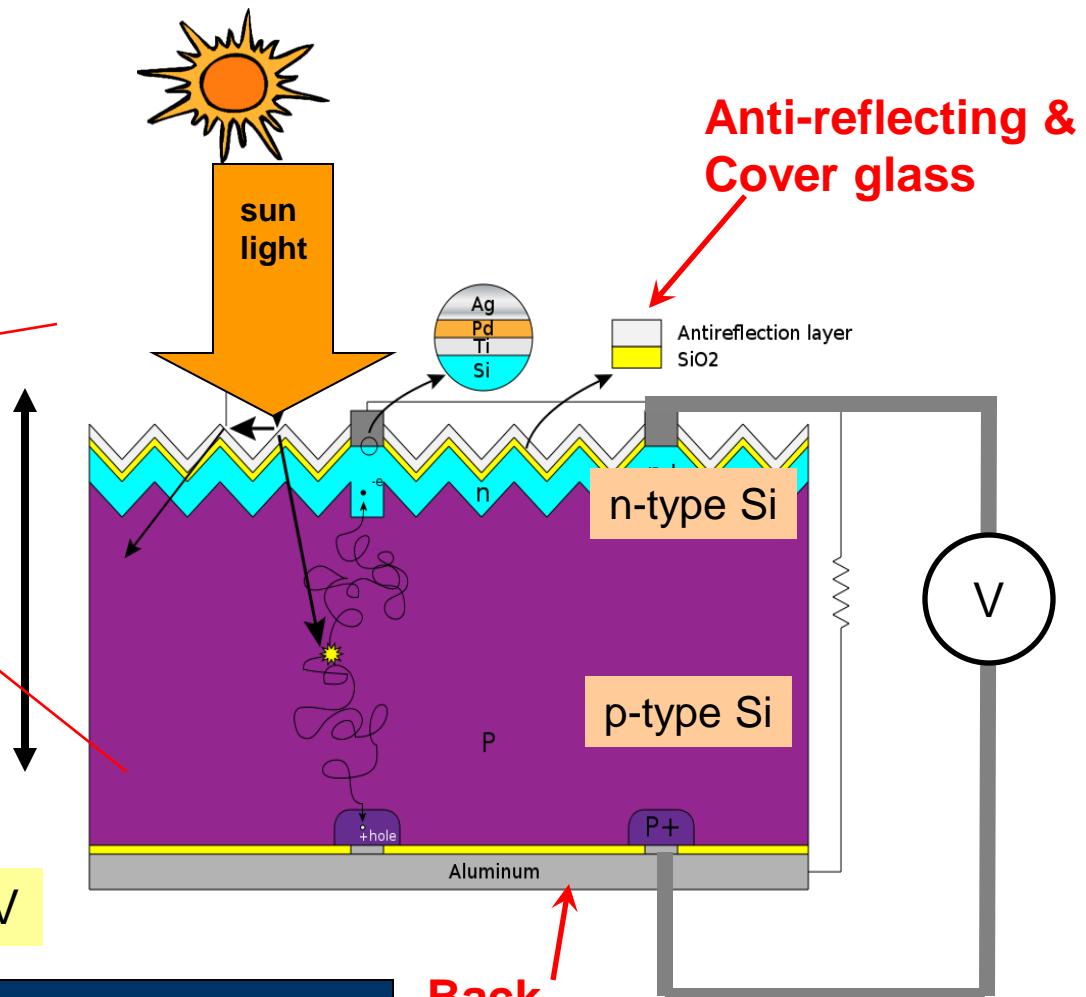
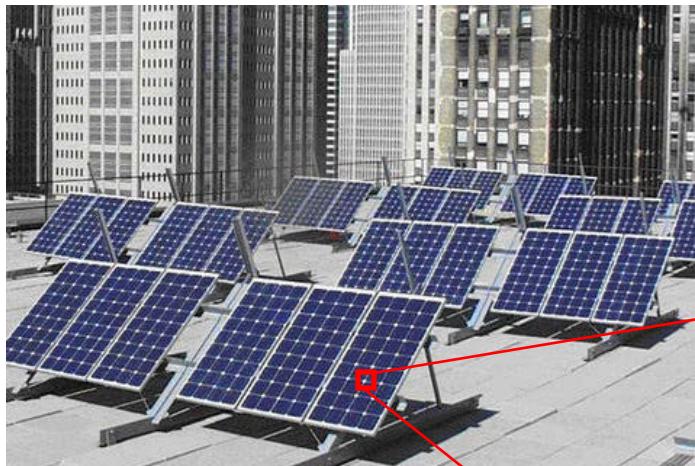
Man Solar, Petten



Nanostructure Materials &
Devices Laboratory, USC

#1 Crystalline Si

~80% of solar cell market



thick
device

Sun light $\lambda \sim 0.5 \mu\text{m}$
Hair $\sim 75 \mu\text{m}$

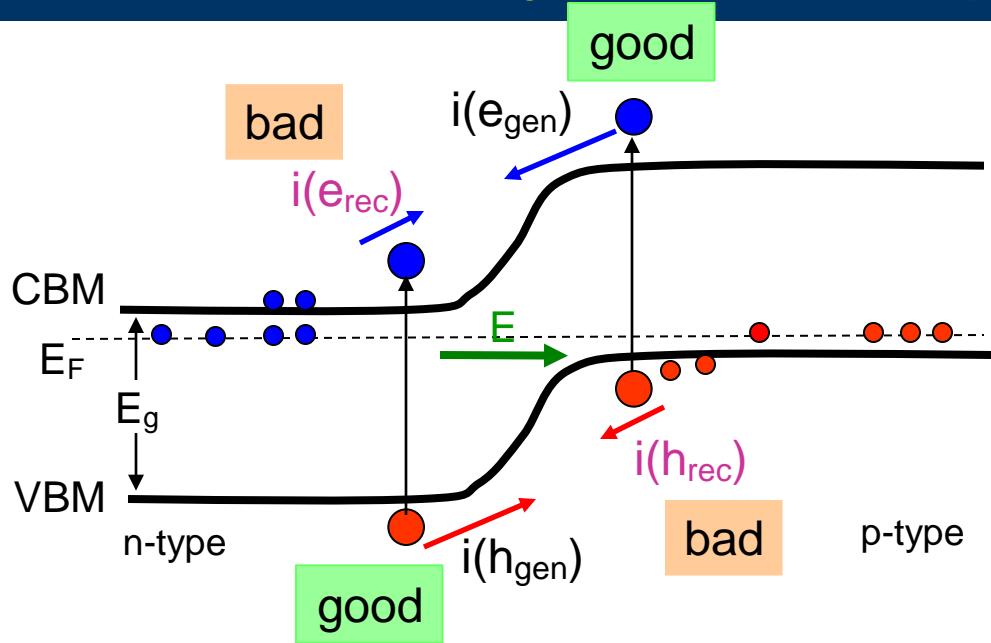
Si $E_g \sim 1.1 \text{ eV}$

Transport via pn-junctions

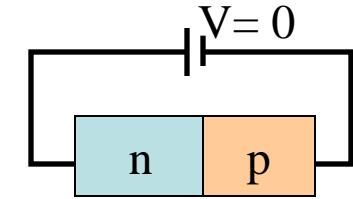
- Good efficiency (25 %)
- Expensive since thick device

Back
contact

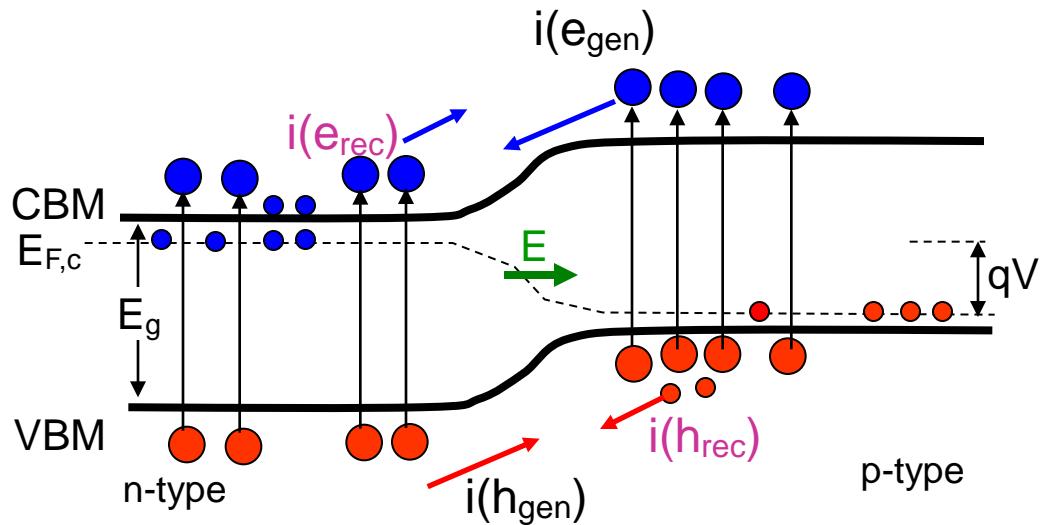
#1 Crystalline Si (pn-junction)



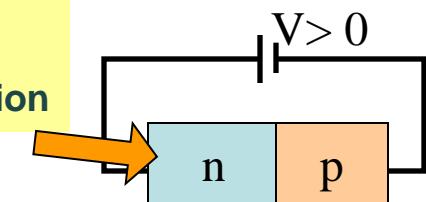
$T \gg 0$
 $V = 0$



$i(e_{gen})$ due to E-field
 $i(e_{rec})$ due to entropy (dn/dx)



$T \gg 0$
 $V > 0$
illumination



$i(e_{gen})$ due to E-field
 $i(e_{rec})$ due to entropy (dn/dx)
 $i(e_{gen})$ from light absorption
 $P = V * I$

#1 Crystalline Si

Two main problems with c-Si

- 1) 200 μm thick:
Much material, and c-Si is costly to produce
- 2) band 1.1 eV
Not optimized band gap

#2 Thin-film Si

a-Si (or a-Si:Hi); amorphous silicon,

Low processing temperature (lower cost)

$E_g = 1.7 \text{ eV}$, better absorber => thinner cell ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ thin)

But much less efficiency ($\sim 10\%$) compared to c-Si ($\sim 30\%$).

nc-Si (microcrystalline Si)

Low processing temperature, but $E_g = 1.1 \text{ eV}$

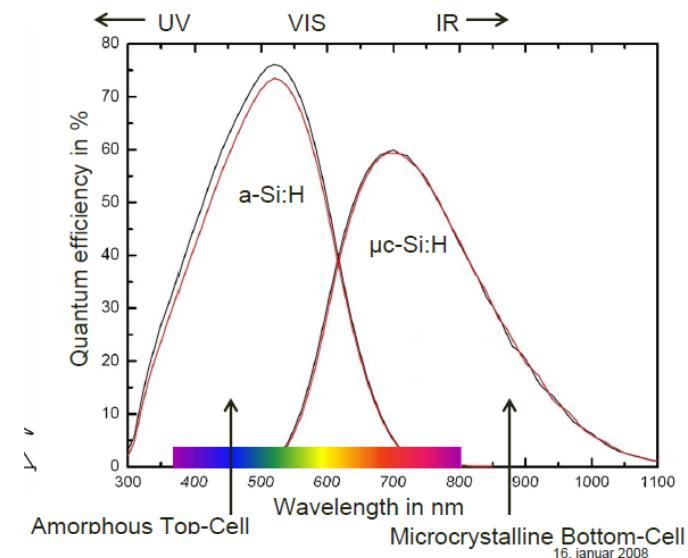
Improved material quality over a-Si

$1.8 \mu\text{m}$ thin with 10.7% efficiency (EPFL Inst of Microengineering, Feb 2013)

a-Si + nc-Si; micromorphous

$E_g = 1.1$ and 1.7

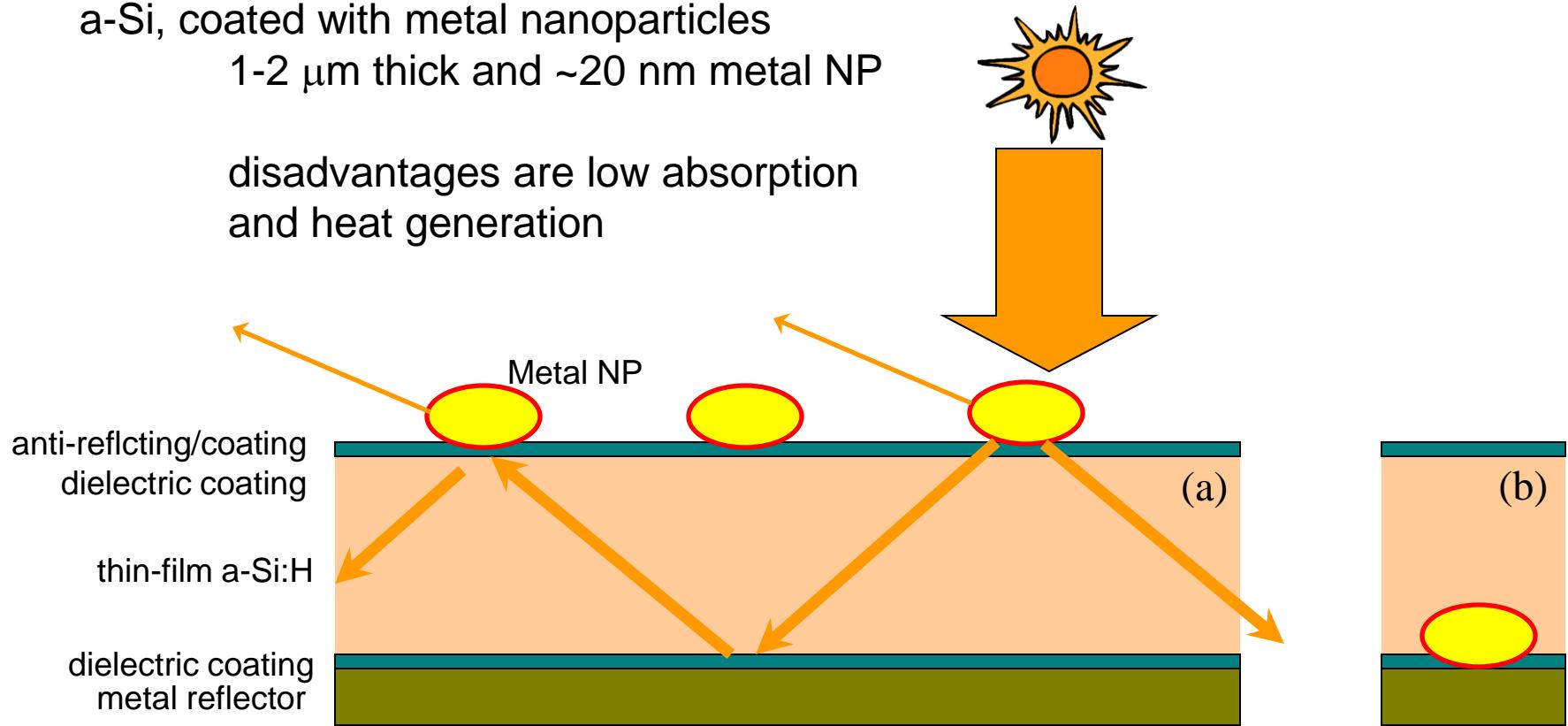
=> broader abs. spectrum



#1 Plasmonic solar cells (thin film)

a-Si, coated with metal nanoparticles
1-2 μm thick and ~ 20 nm metal NP

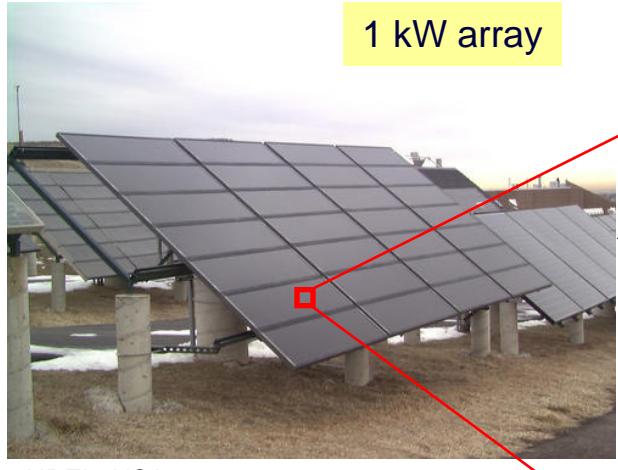
disadvantages are low absorption
and heat generation



Light scatters through surface plasmon resonance, and get trapped inside a-Si layer. >90% of light can be trapped.

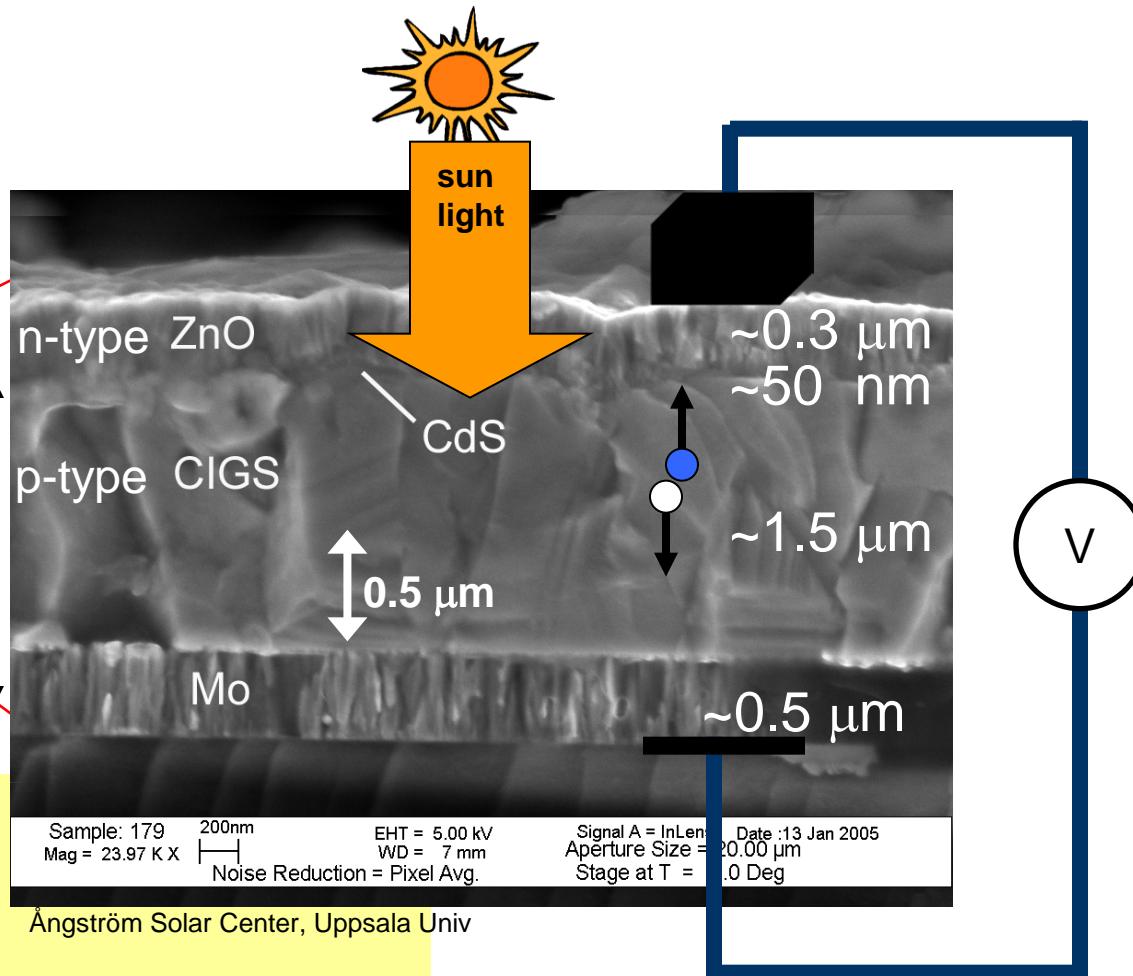
Surface plasmon = collective electron vibration

#2 Other thin-film pn-junction



NREL, USA

1-2 μm



a-Si	Eg ~ 1.7 eV
CdTe (toxic)	Eg ~ 1.5 eV
GaAs (expens)	Eg ~ 1.5 eV
CuIn _{1-x} Ga _x Se ₂	Eg ~ 1.3 eV

higher efficiency (20%) than thin-film a-Si (10%)

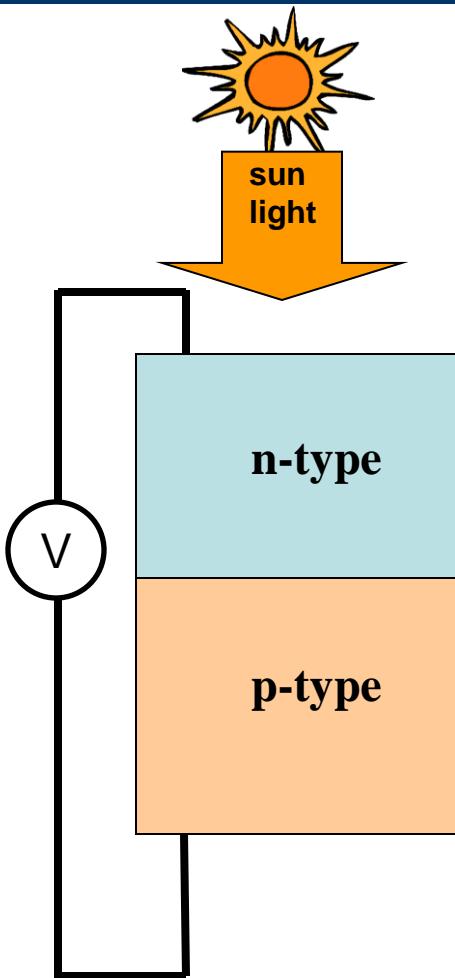
In is expensive; Se is toxic.

Cu ₂ ZnSnS ₄	Eg ~ 1.5 eV
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Transport via pn-junction

- Good efficiency (20 %)
- Medium expensive
- Long life-time

Two problems with traditional solar cells



Single-junction efficiency:

Theo. max ~31%

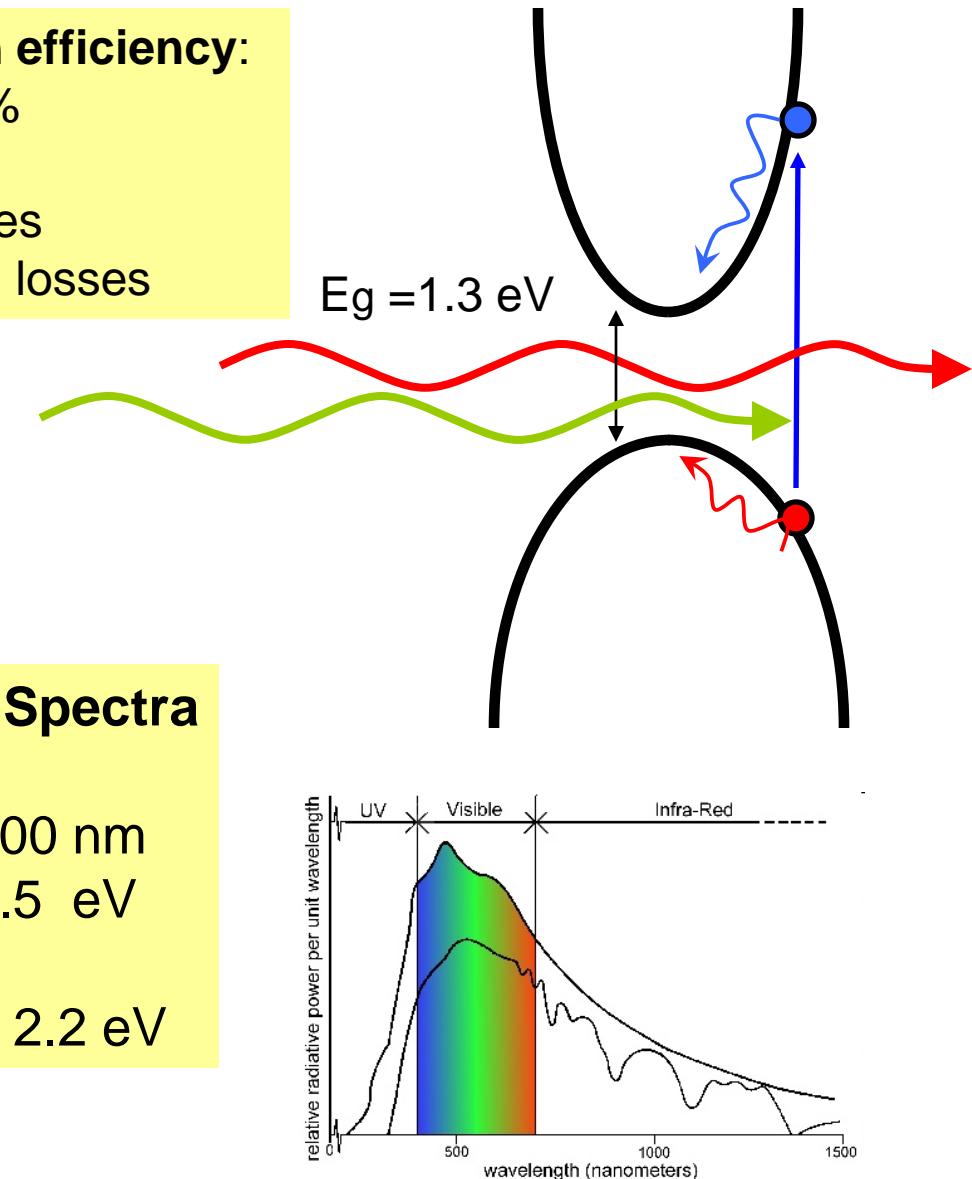
- * Below-Eg losses
- * Thermalization losses

Sunlight Spectra

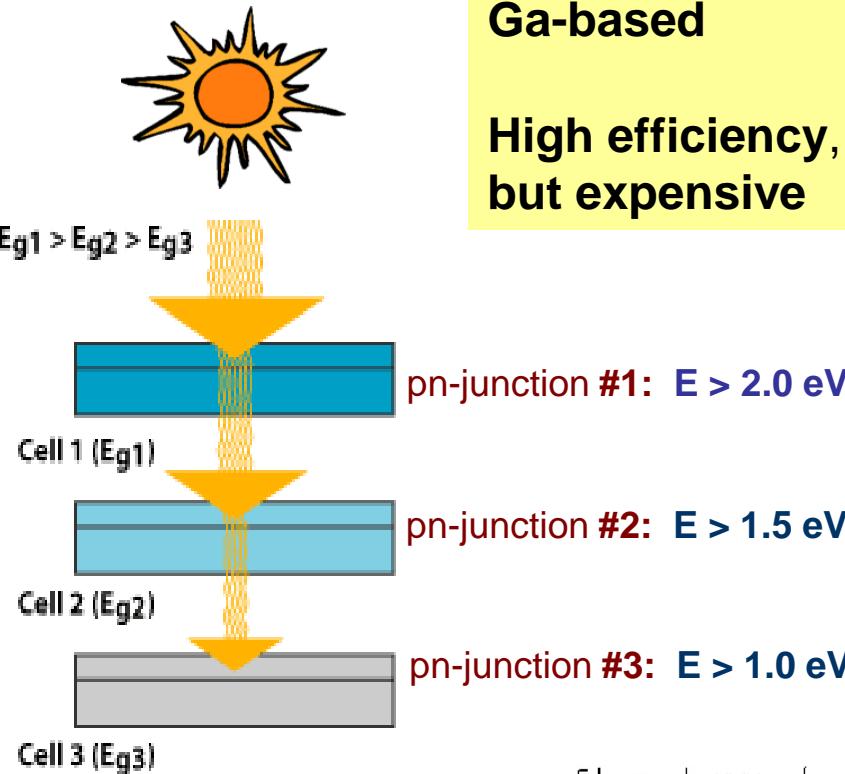
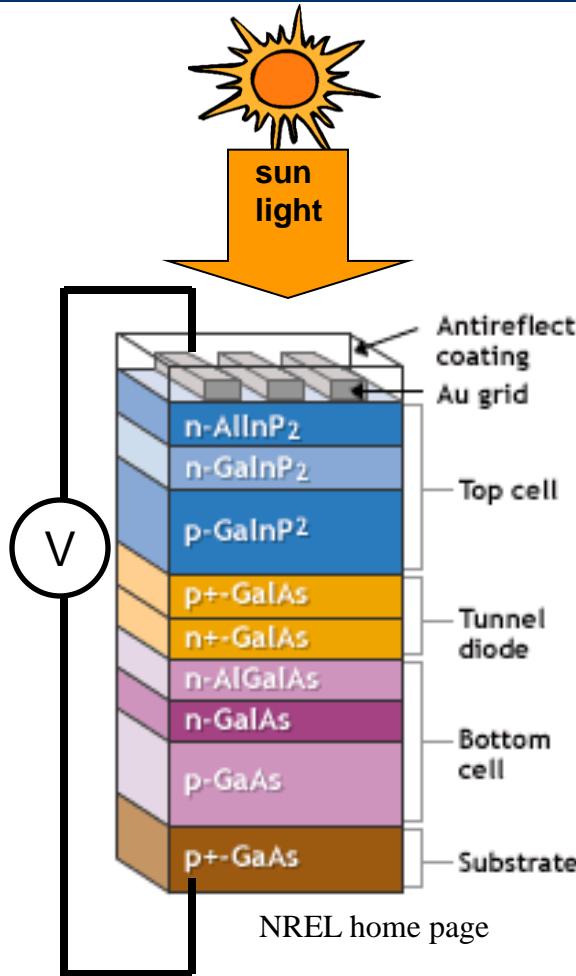
~800 to 400 nm

~1.0 to 3.5 eV

550 nm ~ 2.2 eV



#3 Thin-film multi-junction (40%)



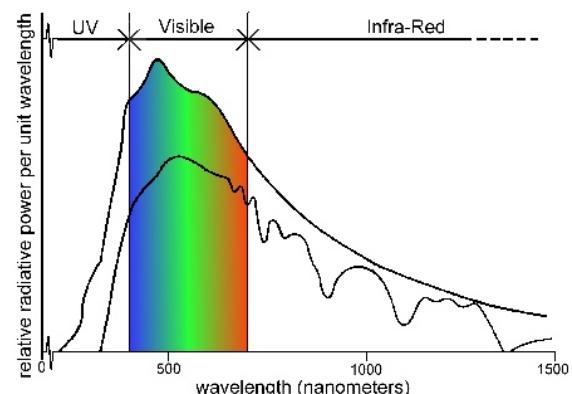
Ga-based

$0.7 < E_b < 2.0$ eV

High efficiency, >50%
but expensive

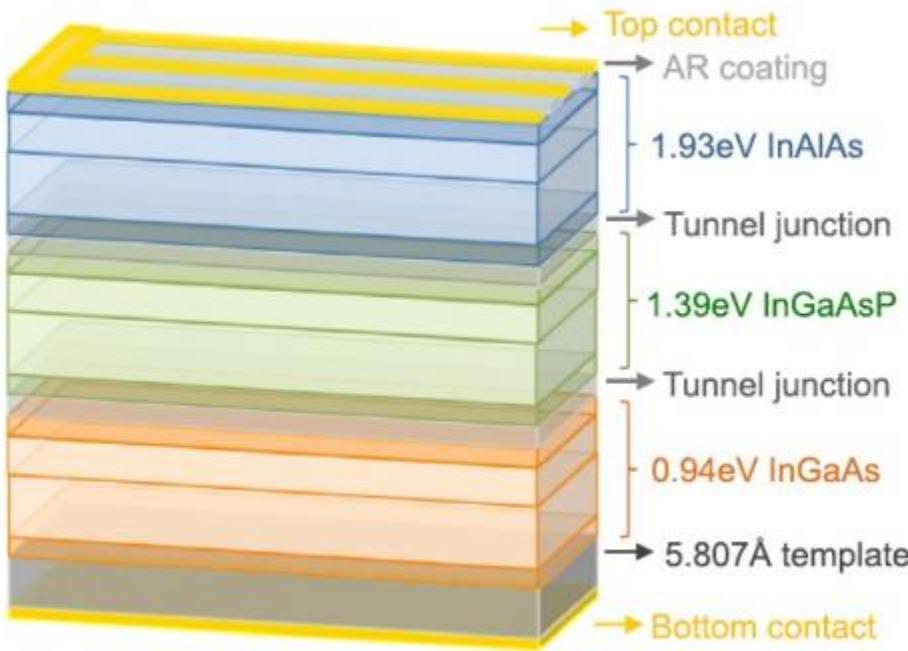
Transport via pn-junctions

- High efficiency (>50 %)
- Expensive
- Lattice matching



Multi-junction cell, InGaAs-based

52% efficiency in 2013 for 3-junction cell



Theoretical limit

31 % for single junction.

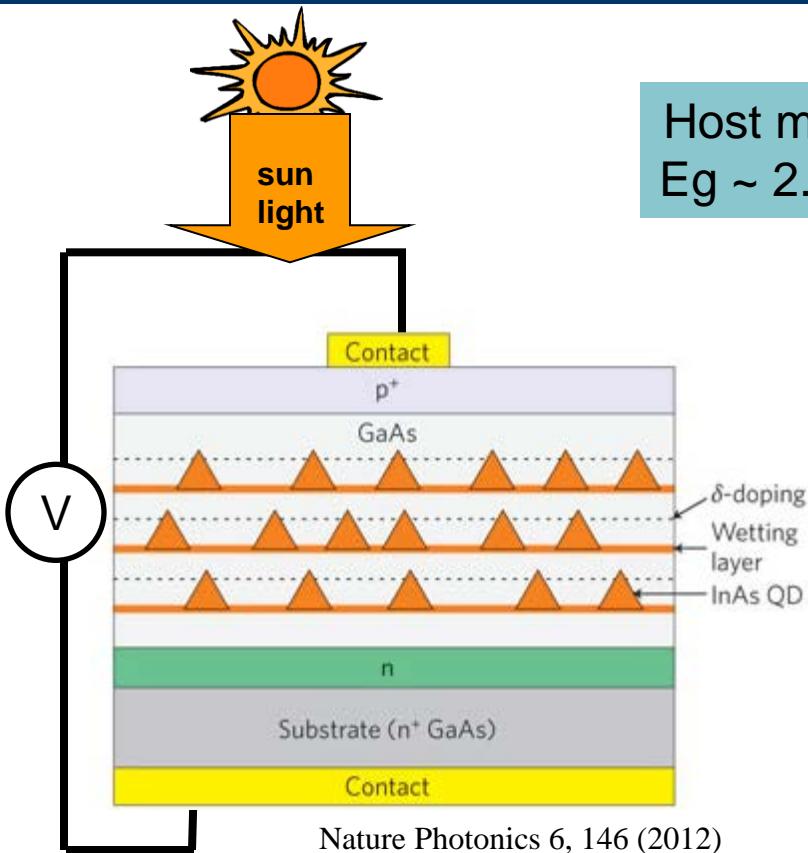
50% for 2-junction,
56% for 3-junction,

86% for infinite-junction

Marina S. Leite, et al. APL, 102, 033901 (2013)

Indium is expensive

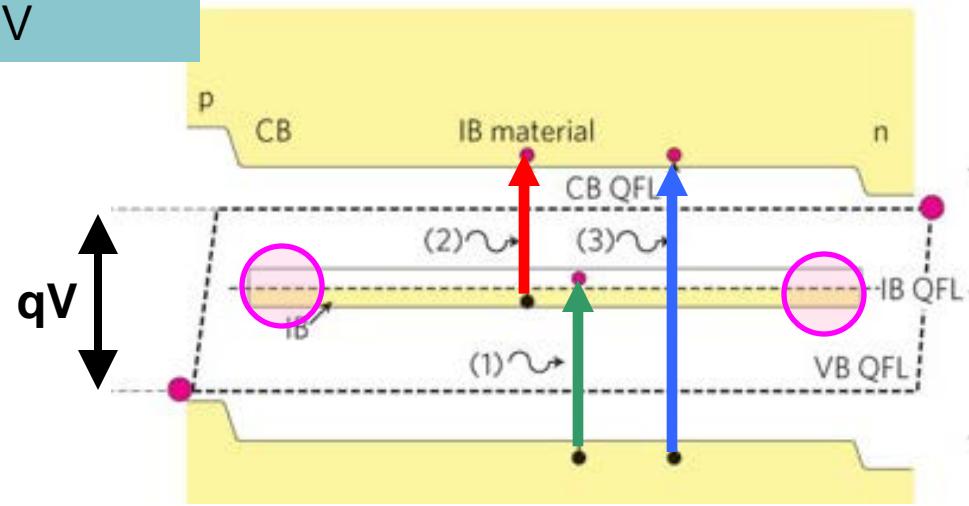
Thin-film intermediate band (future)



Nature Photonics 6, 146 (2012)

Host material with
 $E_g \sim 2.0$ eV

Luque and Martí, PRL 78, 5014 (1997)



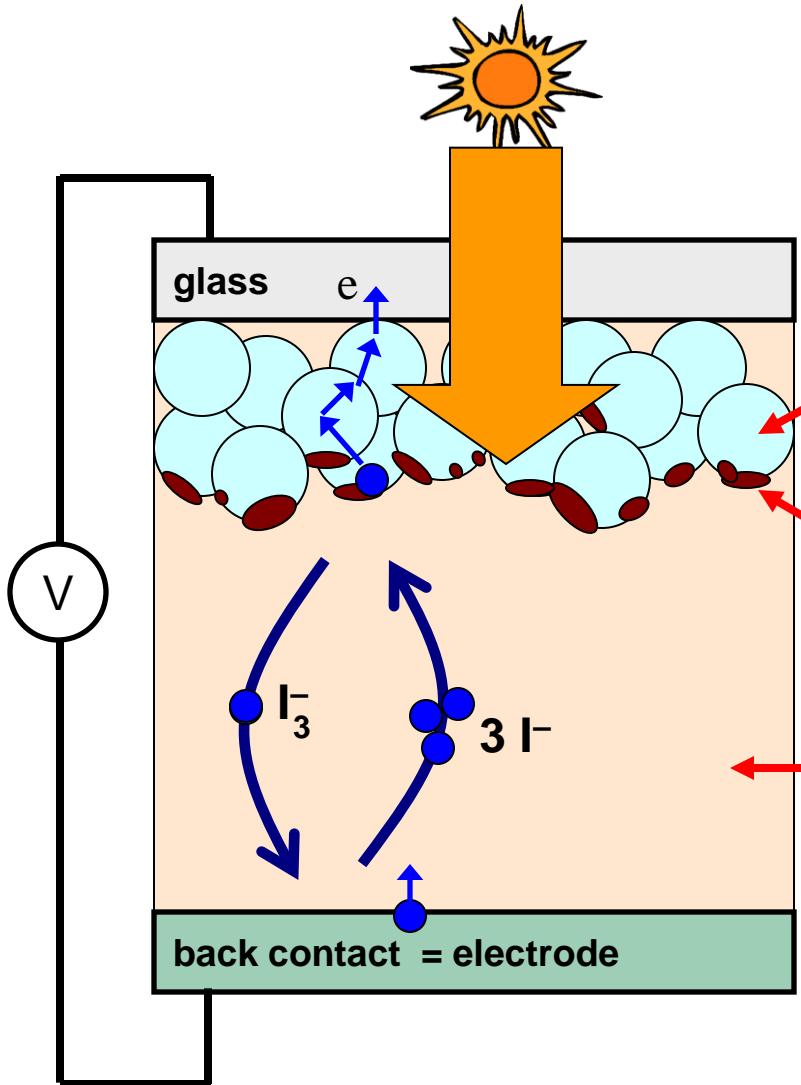
Single-junction, but IB helps absorbing different energies
Optimum: $E_g = 0.7, 1.2$, and 2.0 eV

- $n \sim 55\%$ (theo), instead of $\sim 31\%$ for single gap cell
- low absorption in QD,
- Extra non-radiative recomb
- difficult to realize a half-filled band wi no tunneling, and accumulation in IB
- Band (not defect level) to avoid SRH-recomb.

ZnTe:O

50% increase in power conversion efficiency
Wang et. al, APL 95, 011103 (2009)

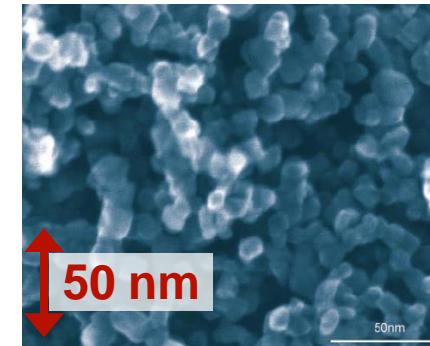
#4. Dye-sensitized solar cell (O'Regan and Grätzel, 1991)



NP-TiO₂
transparent and
good e⁻ conductor,
through diffusion

dye film (Ru-based)
good absorber

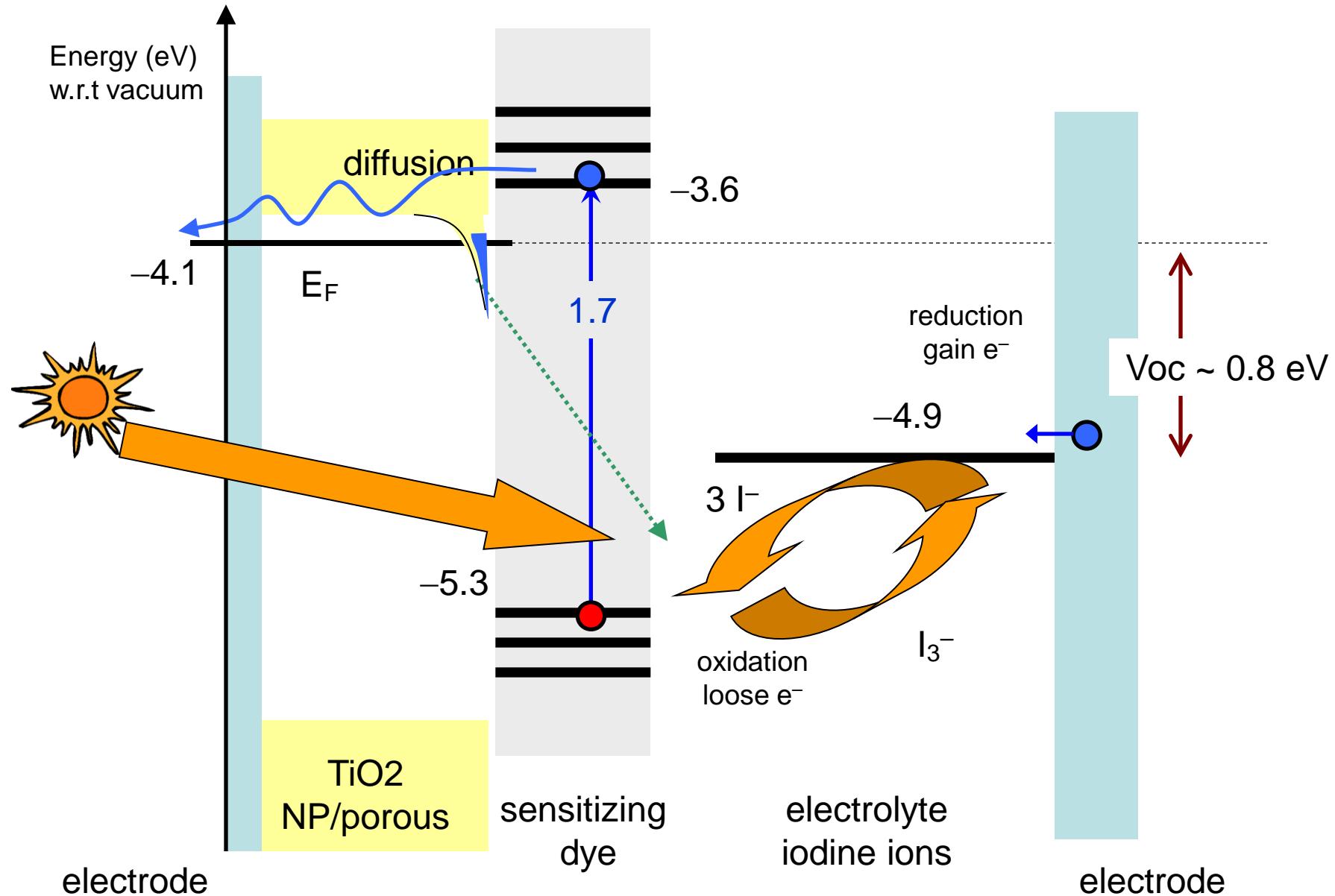
electrolyte
iodine ions



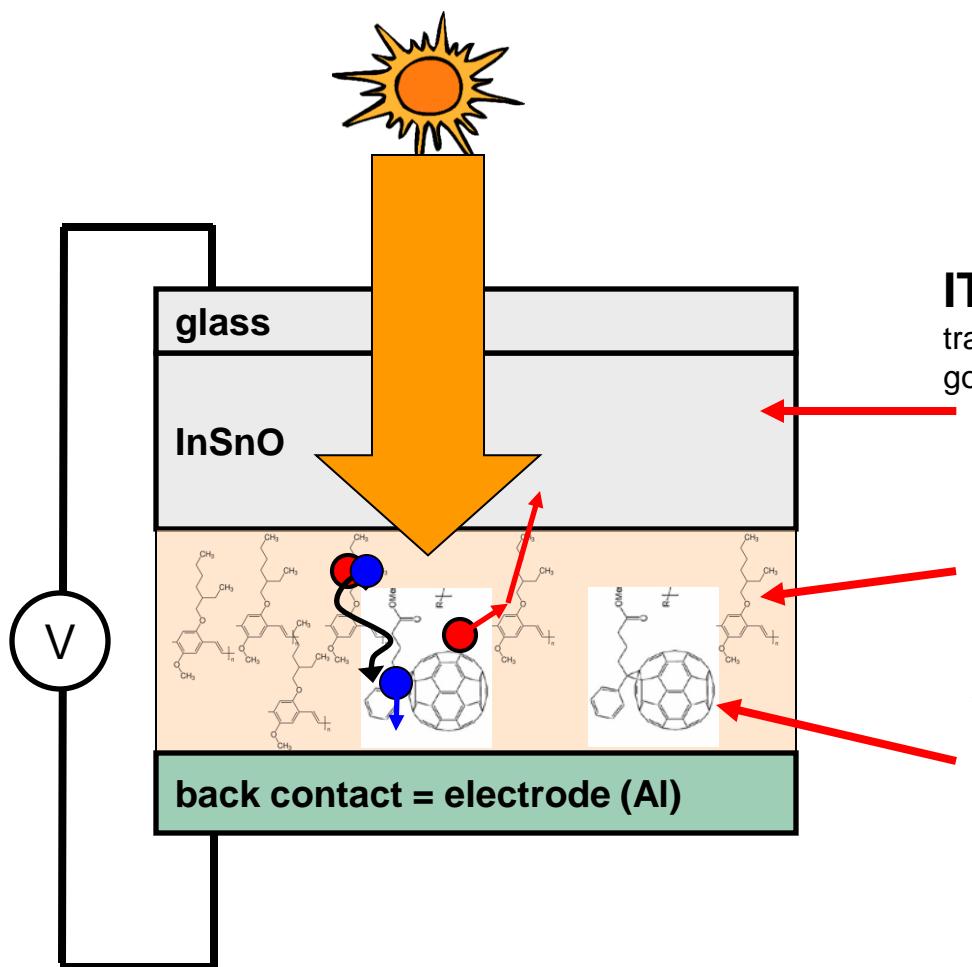
SEM: mesoporous anatase TiO₂
M. Grätzel, Nature, **414**, 338 (2001).

Transport via electrolyte

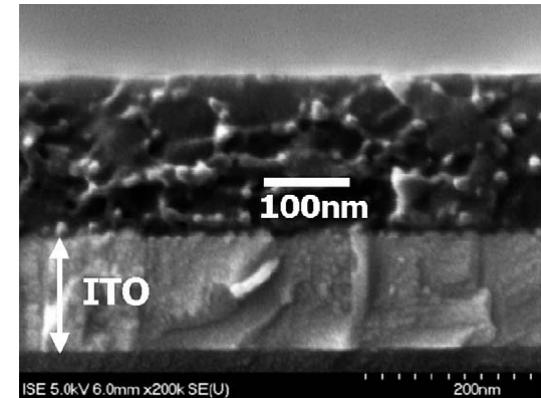
- Inexpensive,
- Slow diffusion in NP-TiO₂
- Reasonable efficiency (15 %)
- Degradation and instability



#4 Organic solar cells



ITO / TiO₂
transparent and
good e⁻ conductor



SEM images of MDMO-PPV/PCBM
Mozer, CR Chimie, 9, 568 (2006).

Polymers (donor)

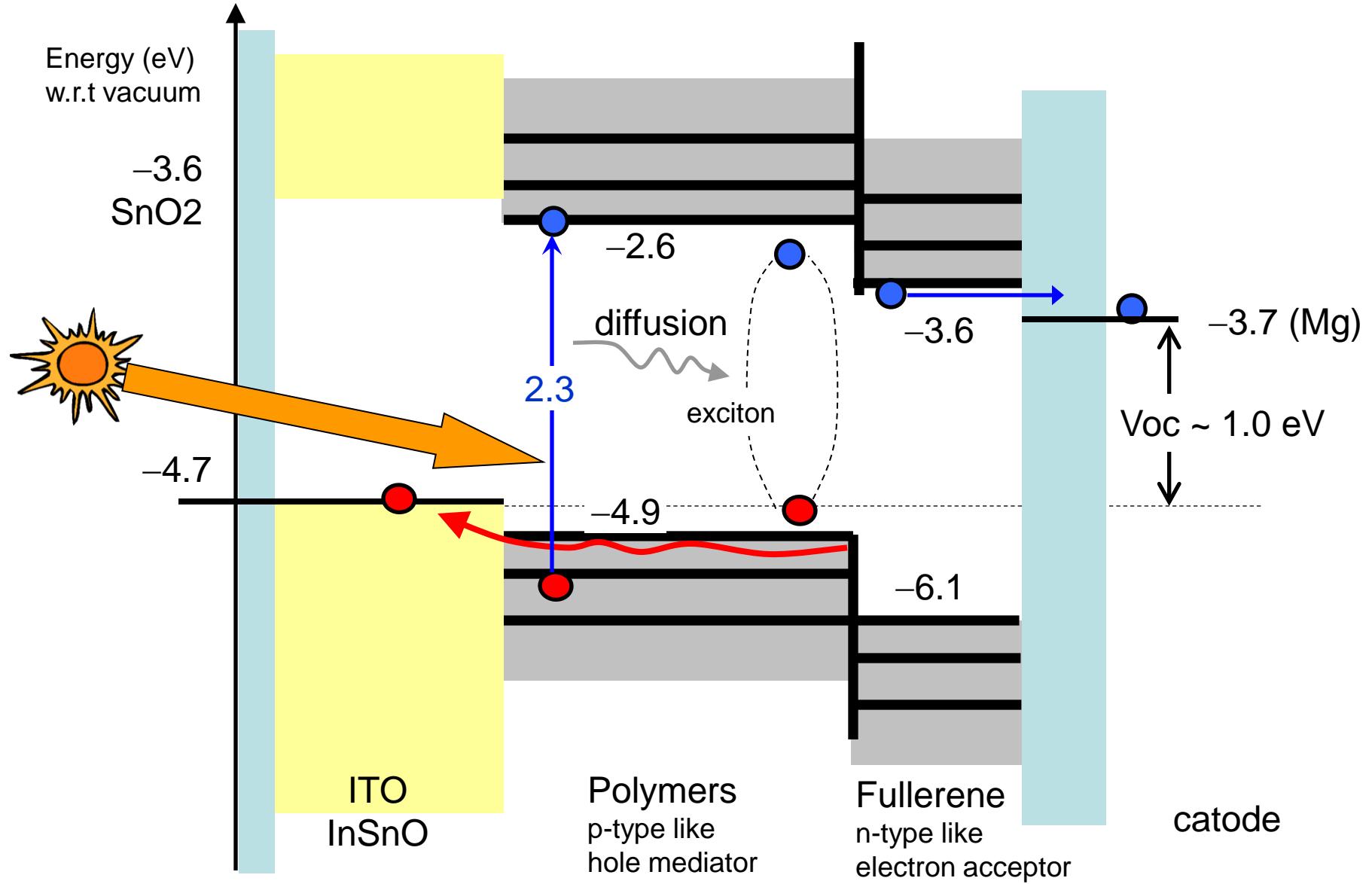
Easy to vary gap 1-4 eV, good e-conductor;
Localizes e and h.
Absorb, confine, and transport e-h excitons

Fullerene (acceptor)

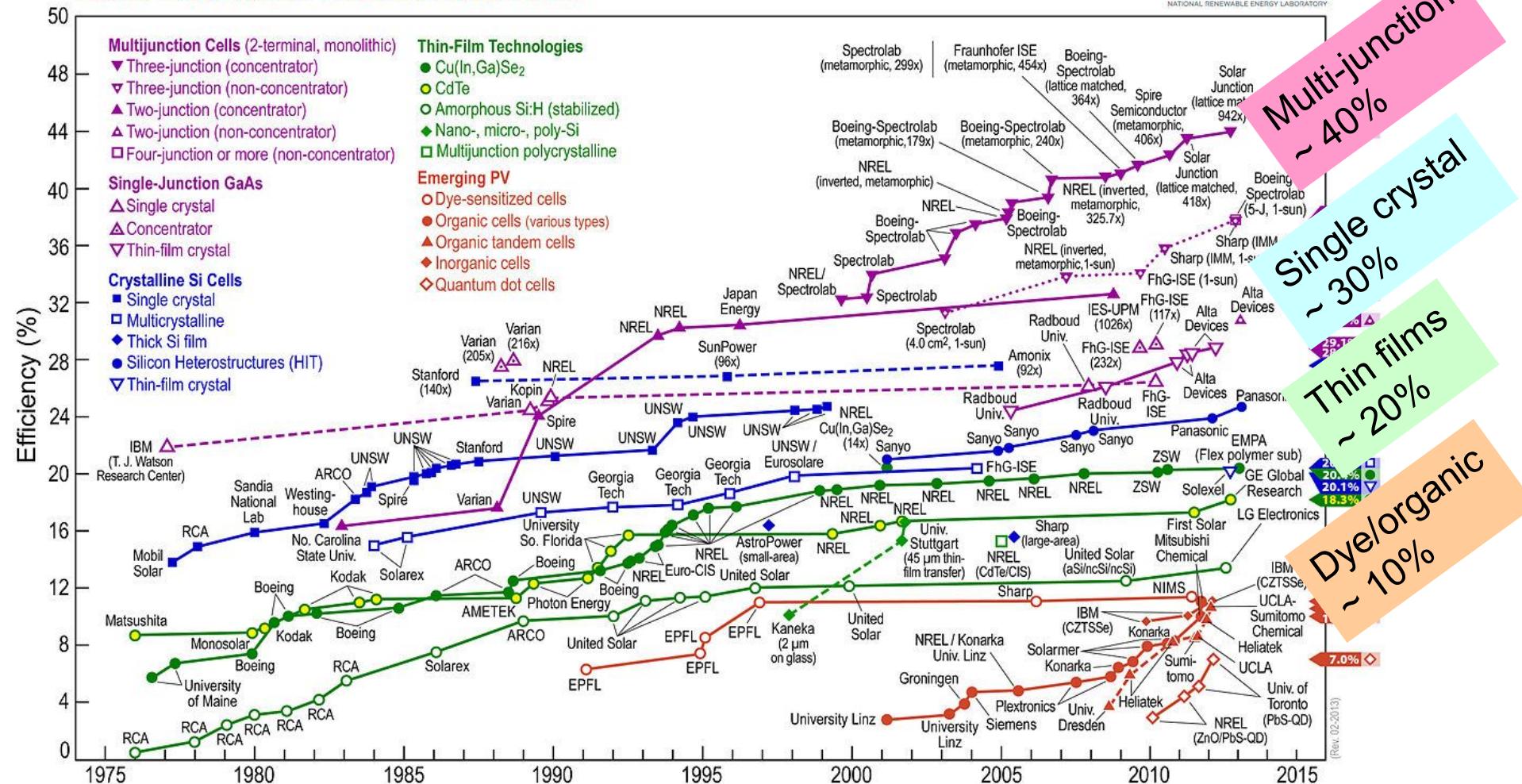
Dissociation, good e-conductor

Transport via diffusion
e-h diffusion length ~10nm
(needs 100nm for absorption)

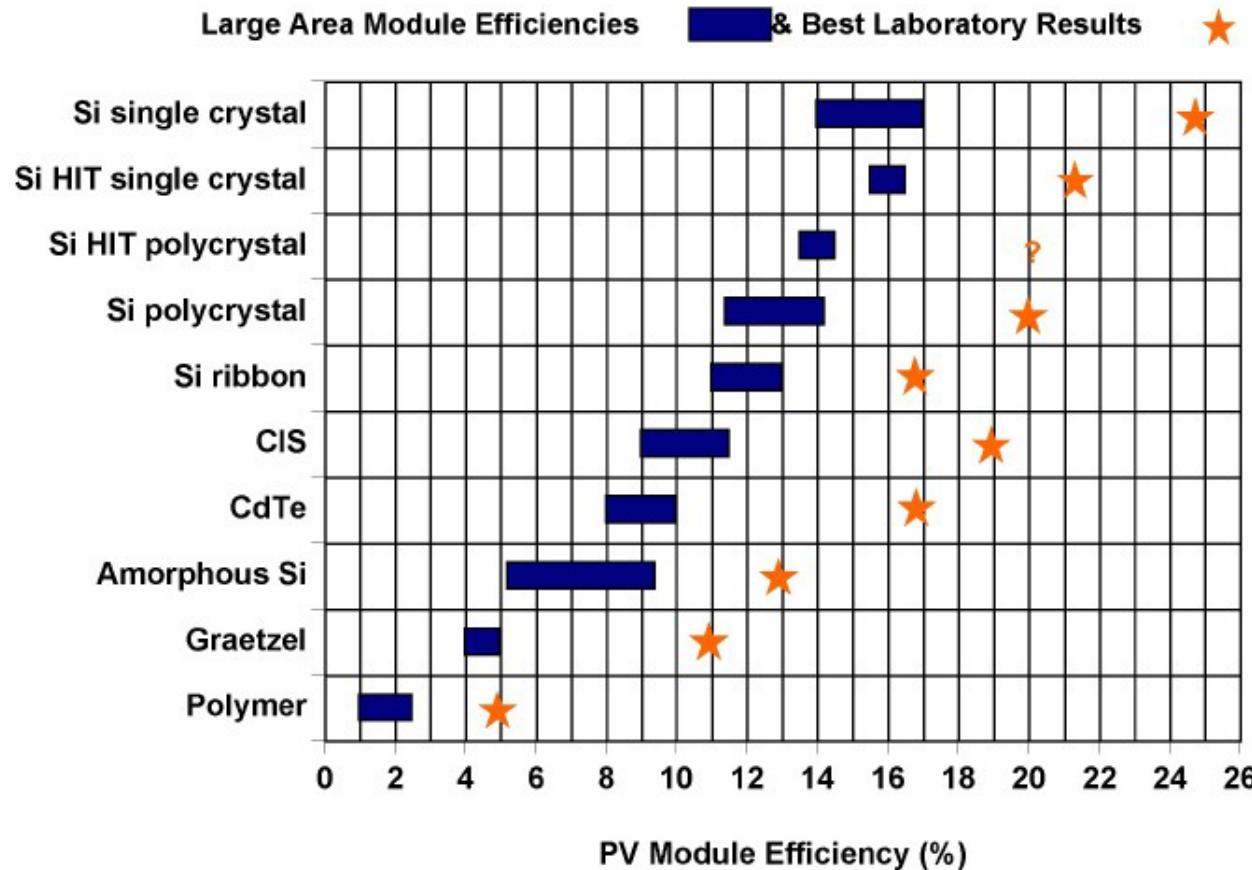
- Inexpensive
- Low efficiency (10 %)
- Degradation and instability

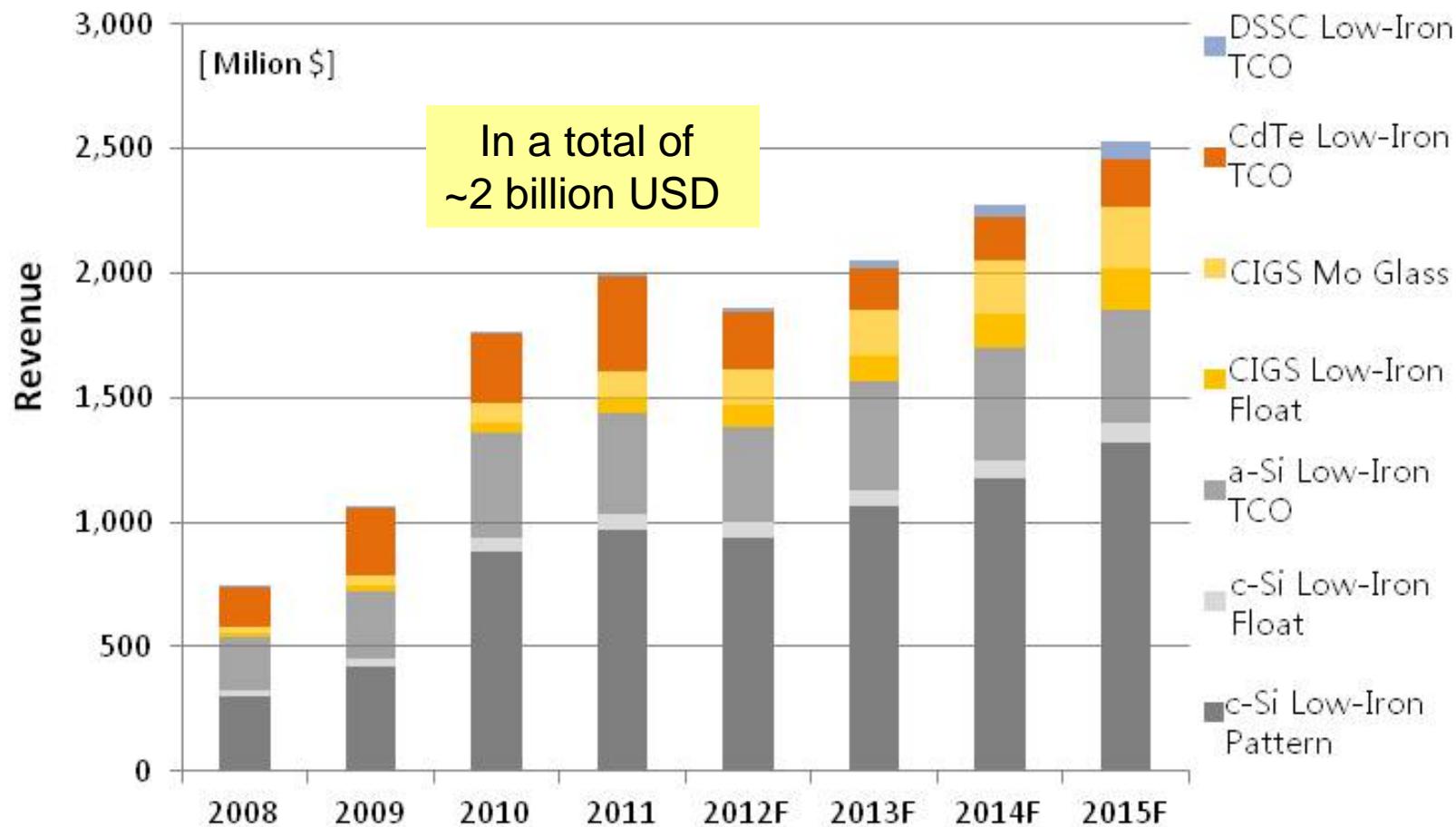


Best Research-Cell Efficiencies



Lab Results vs Module Efficiency



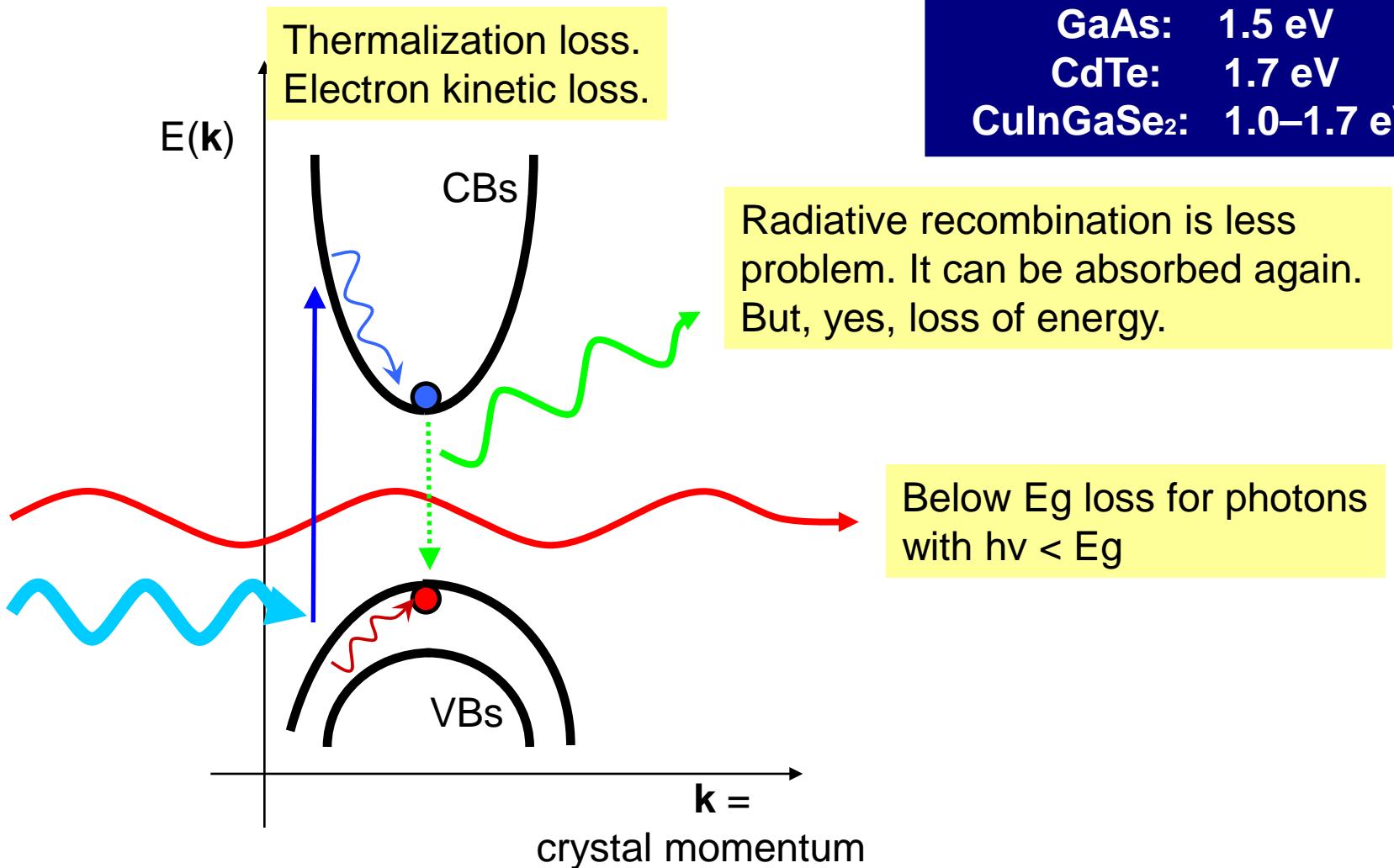


Material Properties

What properties do we want (for most solar cells)?

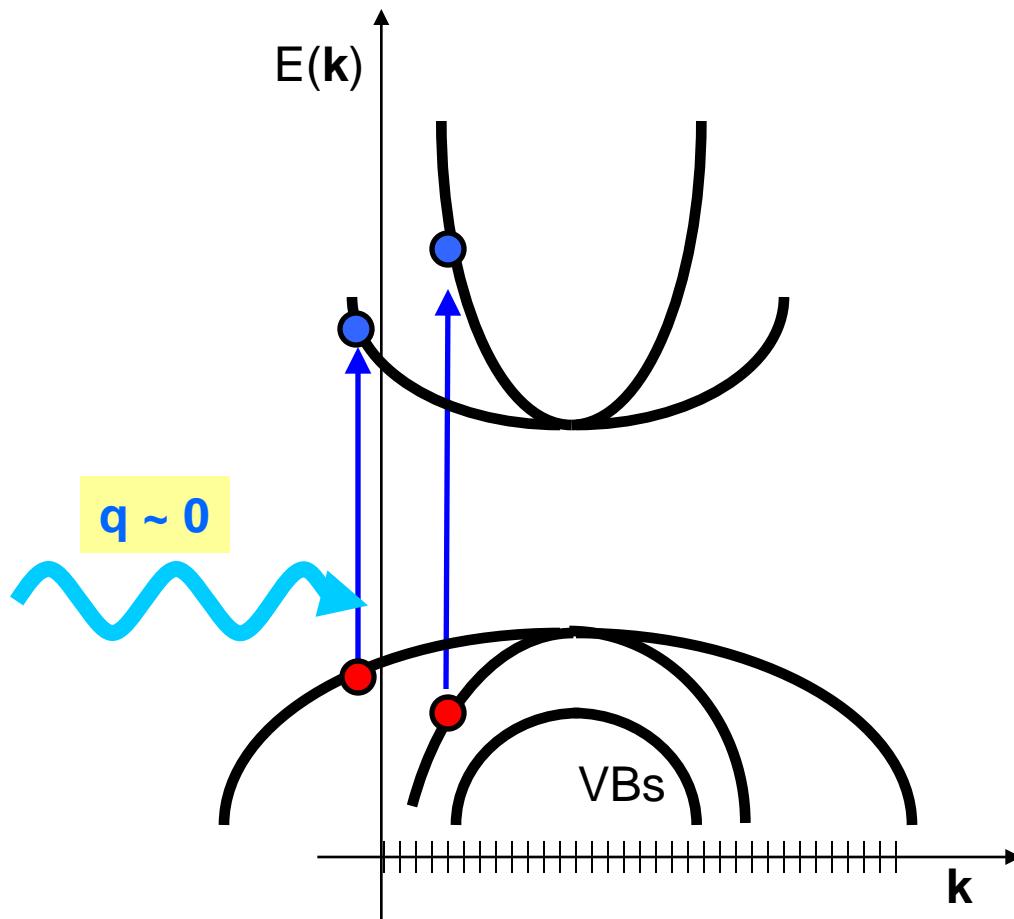
- High absorption in $1.0 < h\nu < 3.5$ eV
- High carrier mobility
- High crystalline stability (long lifetime)
No deep-level in-gap defects
- Dopability (n- and/or p-type)
- Control of complexes, nanostructures, etc

Material Properties: High absorption

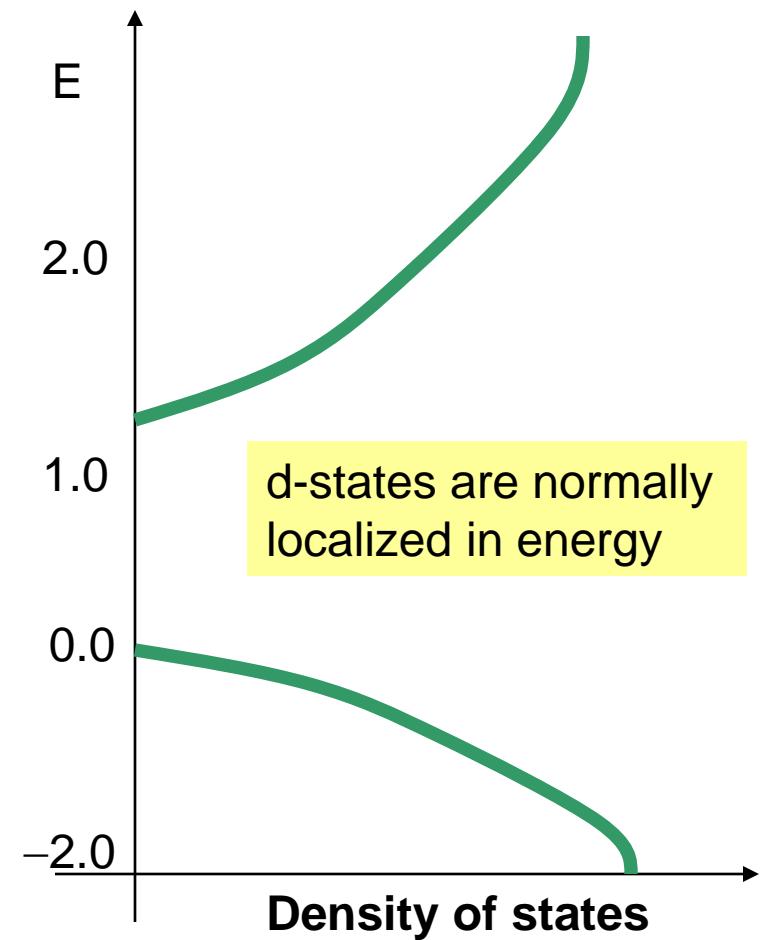


Material Properties: High absorption

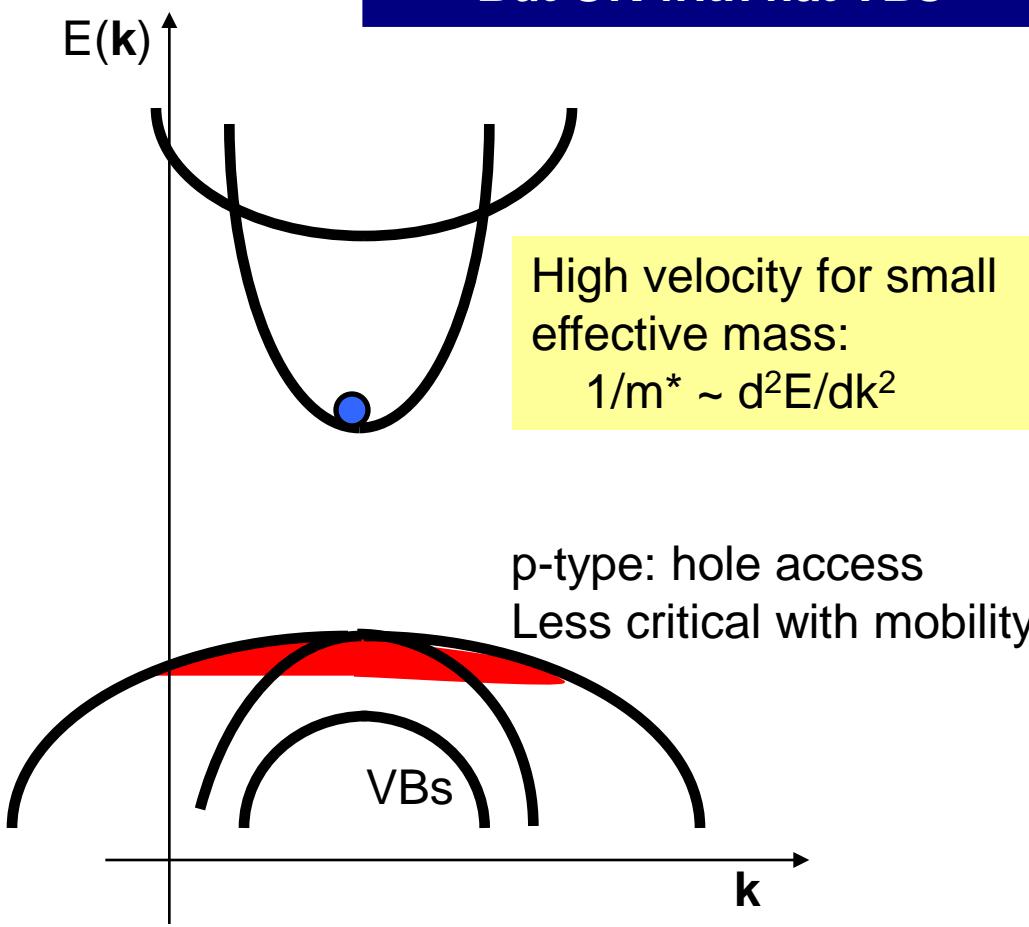
- * Direct band gaps ($q \sim 0$)
- * Good having CBM/VBM a BZ edge instead of at Γ -point, \Rightarrow higher JDOS



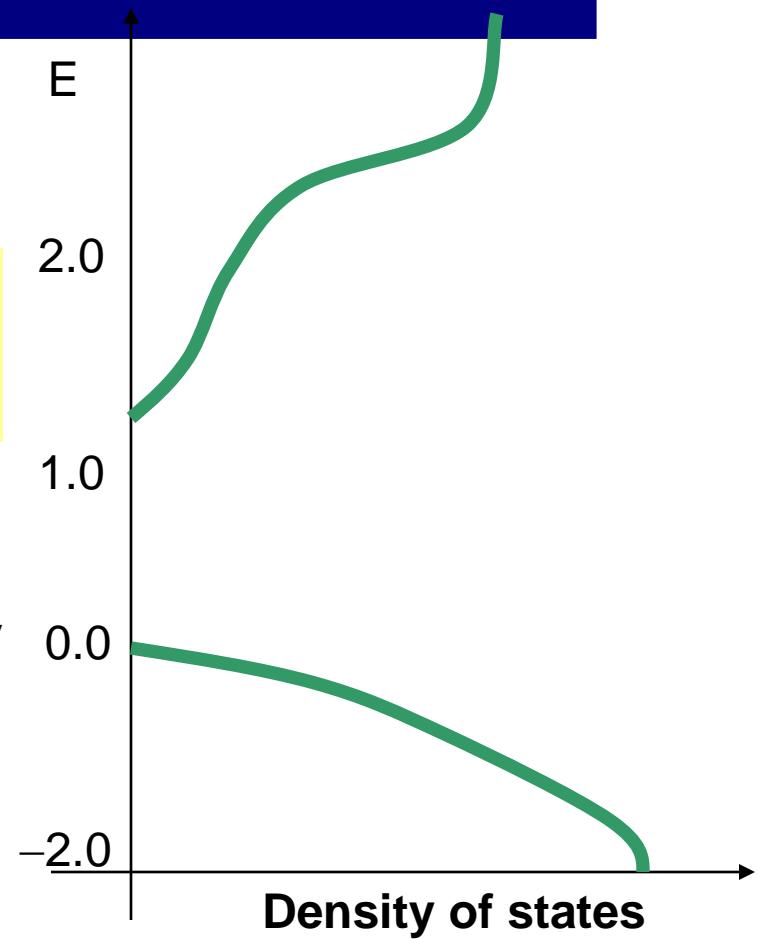
High joint DOS $-2 < E < 3$ eV
Many bands
Flat bands



Material Properties: High mobility

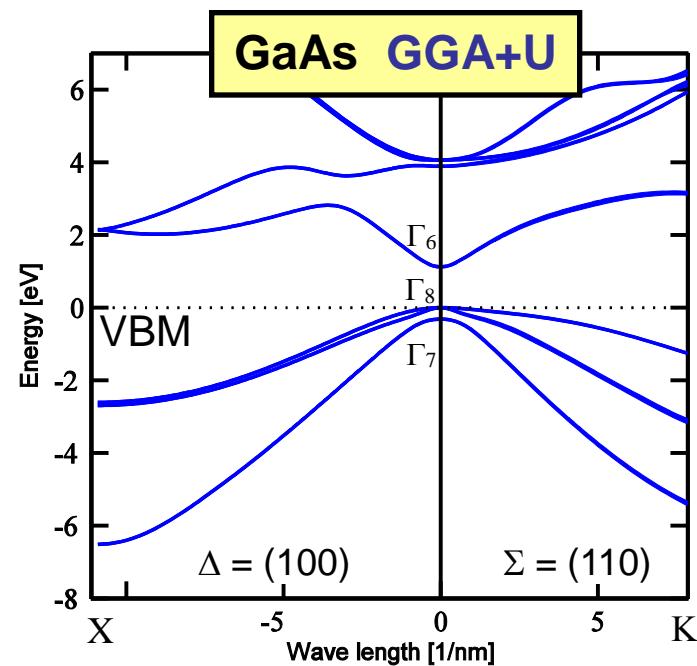
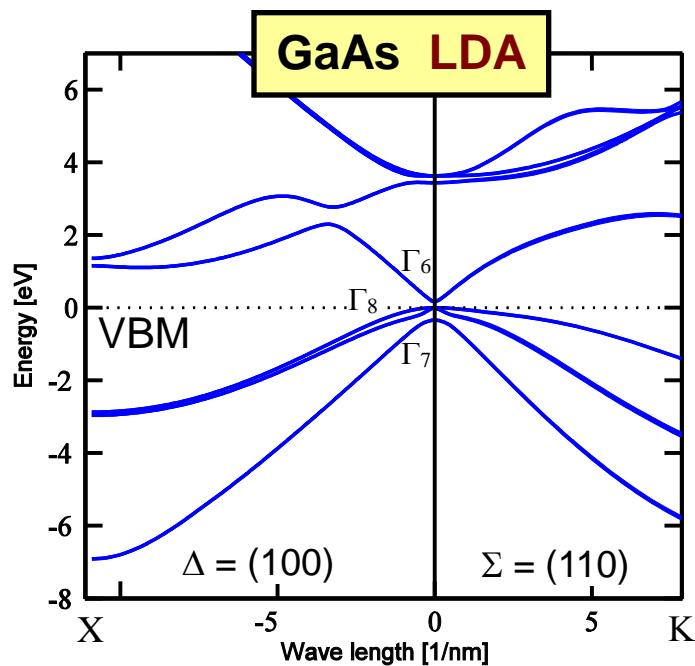


Small mass for minority carrier
That is, for n-type:
CB should have strong curvature (lower absorp)
But OK with flat VBs



LDA error of masses

Persson et al. Phys.Rev B **64**, 033201 (2001)



CB mass	(100)	(110)	(111)
$m_{c1} =$	0.01	0.01	0.01
$m_{hh} =$	0.32	0.56	0.77
$m_{lh} =$	0.01	0.02	0.02
$m_{so} =$	0.08	0.08	0.08

	(100)	(110)	(111)
$m_{c1} =$	0.07	0.07	0.07
$m_{hh} =$	0.38	0.70	0.92
$m_{lh} =$	0.09	0.08	0.08
$m_{so} =$	0.18	0.18	0.18

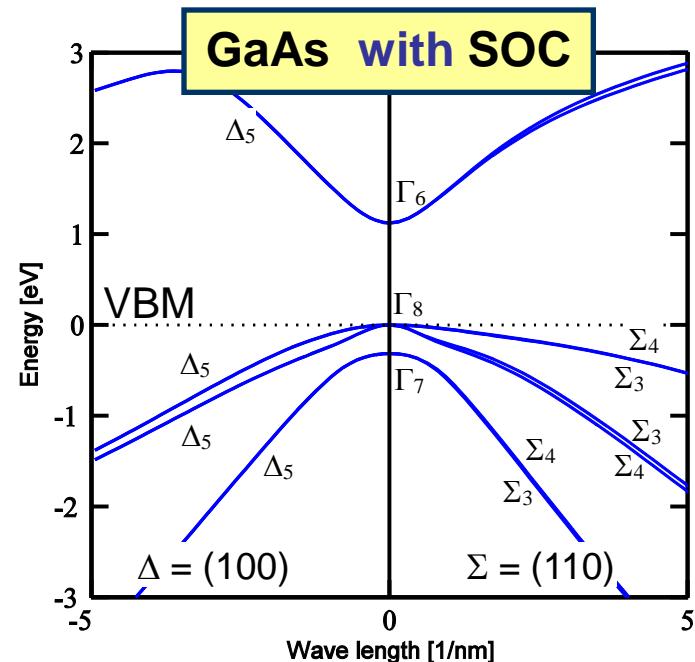
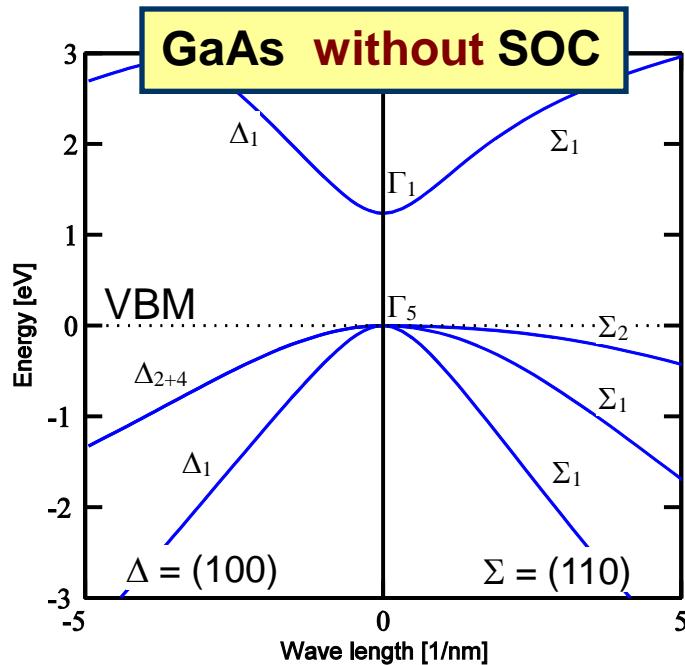
Expt data

EXPT	(100)	(110)	(111)
$m_{c1} =$	0.07	0.07	0.07
$m_{hh} =$	0.35	0.64	0.89
$m_{lh} =$	0.09	0.08	0.08
$m_{so} =$	0.17	0.17	0.17

Hole masses depends on spin-orbit coupling (SOC)

Christensen, PRB 30, 5753 (1984);

Persson et al, PRB. **64**, 033201 (2001); *ibid* **54**, 10257 (1996)



CB mass

	(100)	(110)	(111)
$m_{c1} =$	0.07	0.07	0.07
$m_{hh} =$	0.41	2.70	0.94
$m_{lh} =$	0.41	0.41	0.94
$m_{so} =$	0.07	0.06	0.06

hh-mass

lh-mass

so-mass

	(100)	(110)	(111)
$m_{c1} =$	0.07	0.07	0.07
$m_{hh} =$	0.38	0.70	0.92
$m_{lh} =$	0.09	0.08	0.08
$m_{so} =$	0.18	0.18	0.18

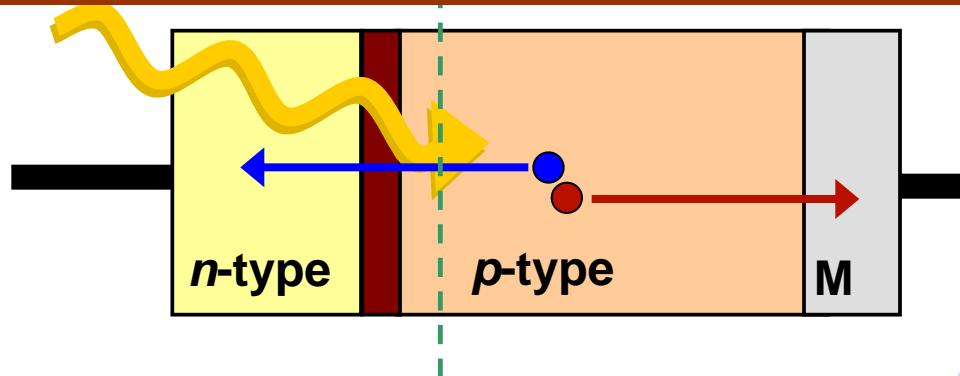
zb-AlN: $m_{hh}(\Gamma K) = -253.1 m_0 \Rightarrow +3.1 m_0$
 J.Cryst Growth **231**, 397 (2001)

Material Properties: Defects

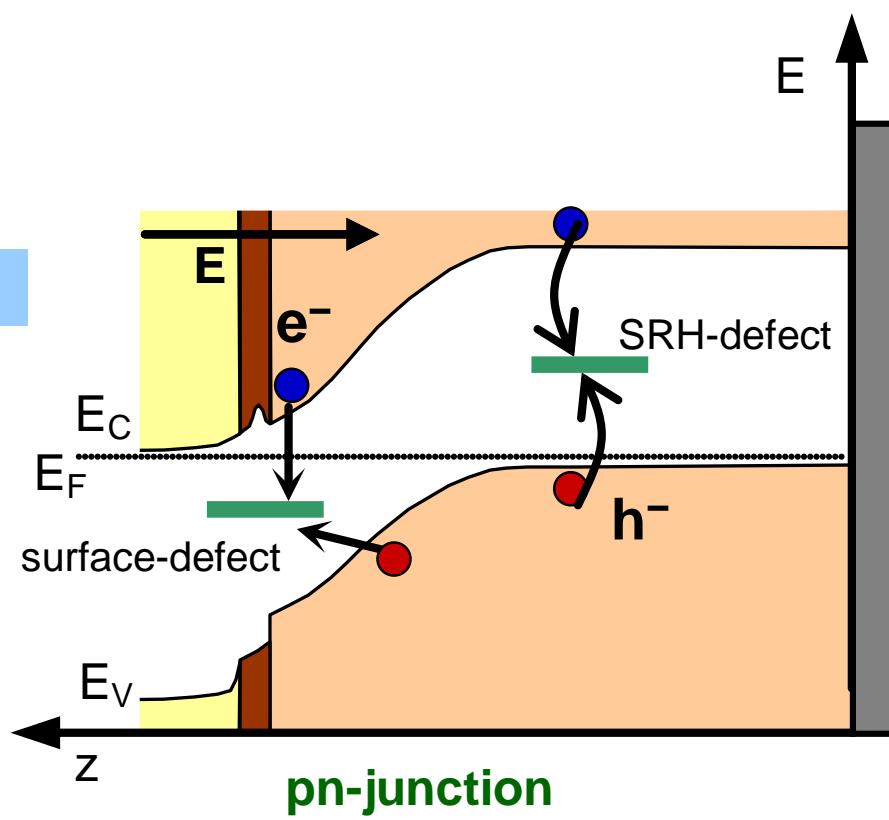
- Defect involves scattering, and recombinations
- Deep-level in-gap state are normally non-radiative, and transfer energy to heat.
- Defects can diffuse, and form complexes, => degradation, especially at high operating temperature.

Material Properties: Defects

PV cell structure



Energyband diagram

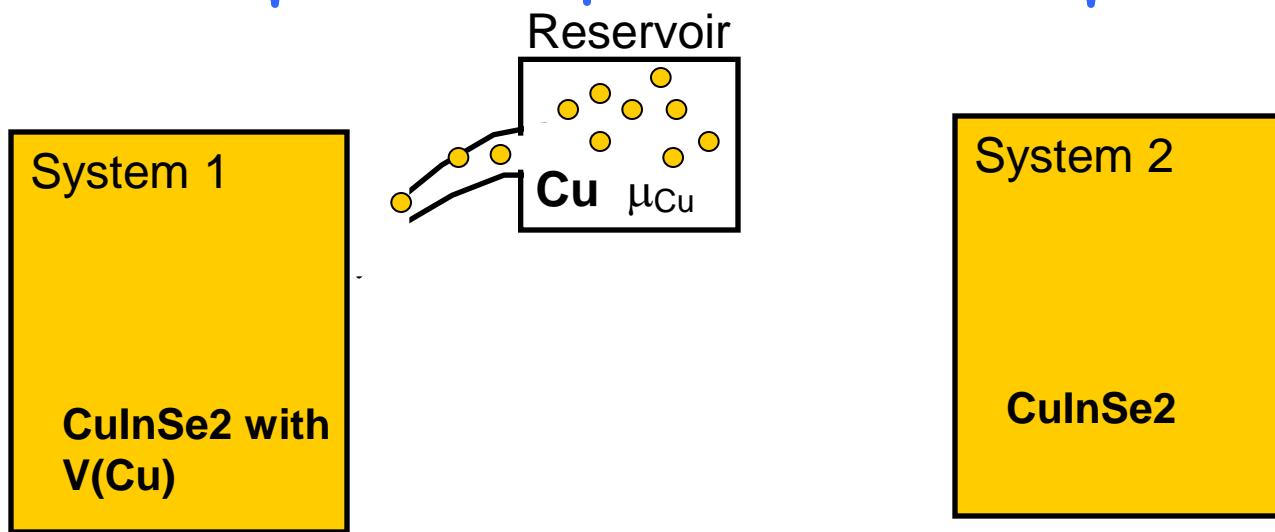


Many type

Recombinations
Auger,
avalanche multiplication
Zener breakdown
Scattering processes
charged defects
neutral defects
carrier-carrier
interfacial scatt
deformation pot
phonons, plasmons

Material Properties: Formation energies

$$dH_f(V) = [E(V) - TS(V) + \mu_{Cu} \cdot N_{Cu}] - [E(0) - TS(0)]$$

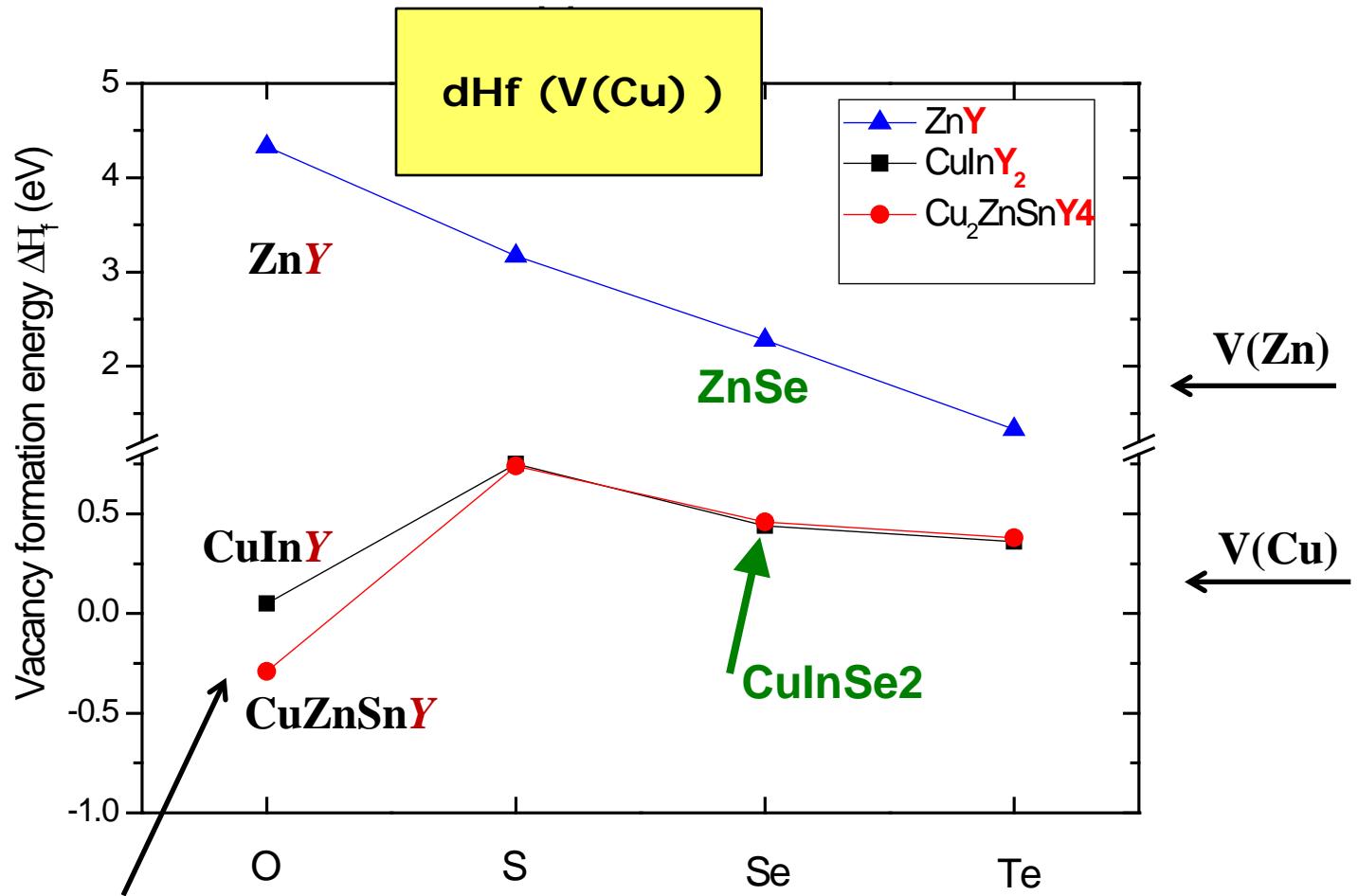


Set up two big supercells: one with V, and one without
Calculate total energies.
Calculate chemical potential for Cu.

Problem: What is chemical potential for Cu

Formation energy of V(Cu) for different anion-alloys

S-based alloys have higher dHf in Cu-compounds



May reflect the problem with oxygen in chalcopyriten structure

Kumar, Zhao, and Persson. submitted

Material Properties: Dopability

Because V(Cu) has so low formation energy in CuInSe₂, the defect is used as an acceptor in p-type CuInSe₂.

What is the ionization energy (= transition energy) of V(Cu) as acceptor.

That is, how much energy does it cost to ionize it ??

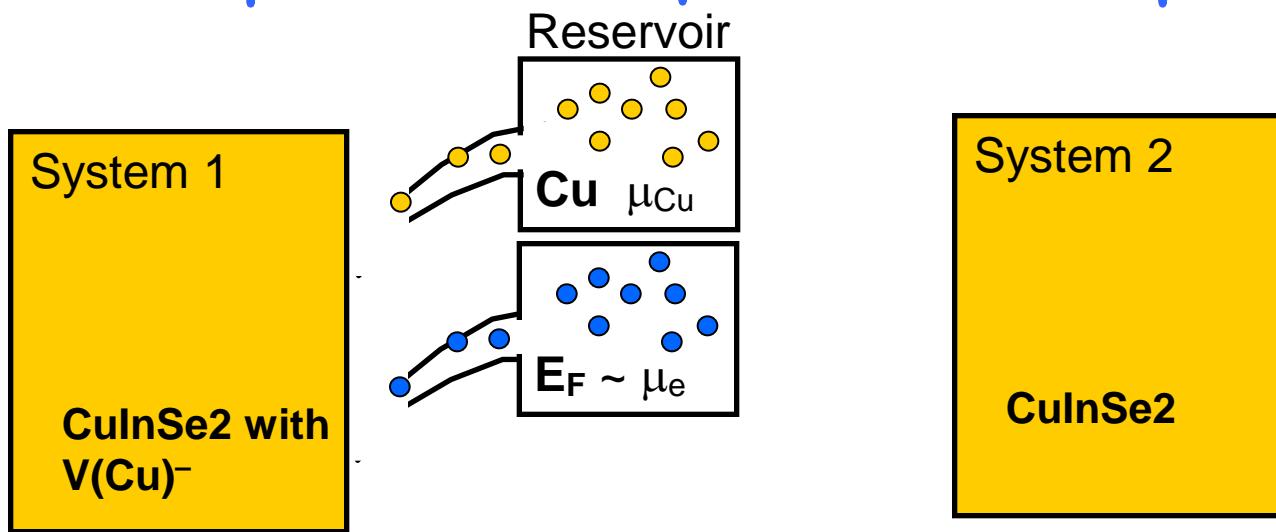
= how much energy to trap one electron at the acceptor ??

neutral

$$dHf(V) = [E(V) - TS(V) + \mu_{Cu} \cdot N_{Cu}] - [E(0) - TS(0)]$$

charged

$$dHf(V;q) = [E(V;q) - TS(V) + \mu_{Cu} \cdot N_{Cu} + q \cdot E_F] - [E(0) - TS(0)]$$



The transition energy can be defined as
the Fermi energy for which $dHf(V) = dHf(V;q)$

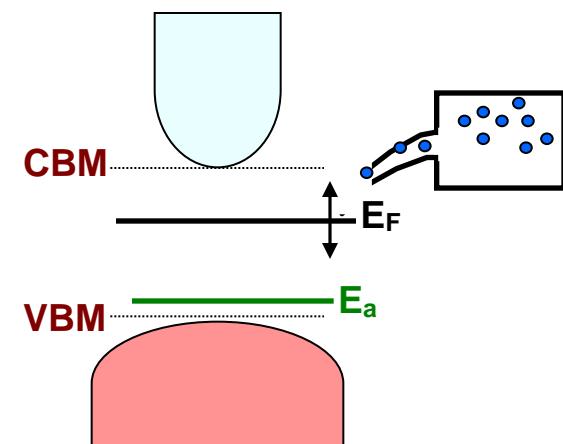
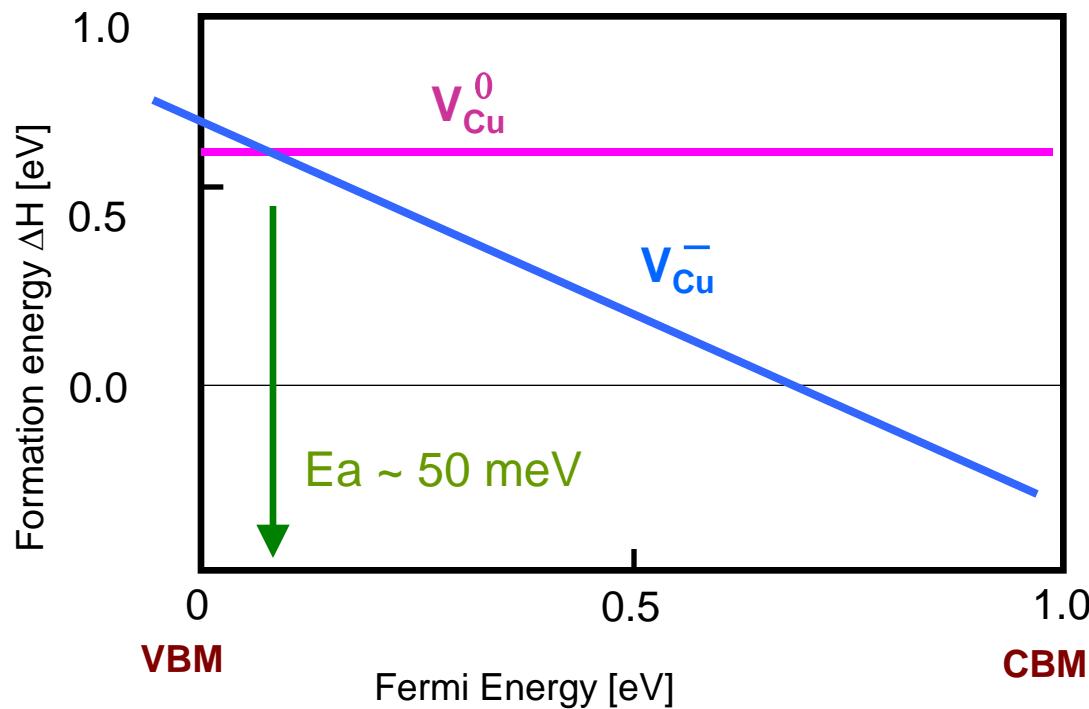
$$0 = E(V;q) - E(V) + q \cdot E_F \rightarrow E_F = [E(V) - E(V;q)] / q$$

neutral

$$dHf(V) = [E(V) - TS(V) + \mu_{Cu} \cdot N_{Cu}] - [E(0) - TS(0)]$$

charged

$$dHf(V;q) = [E(V;q) - TS(V) + \mu_{Cu} \cdot N_{Cu} + q \cdot E_F] - [E(0) - TS(0)]$$



$\text{Cu}(\text{InGa})\text{Se}_2$ and $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}(\text{S},\text{Se})_4$

$\text{Cu}(\text{InGa})\text{Se}_2$ commercialized

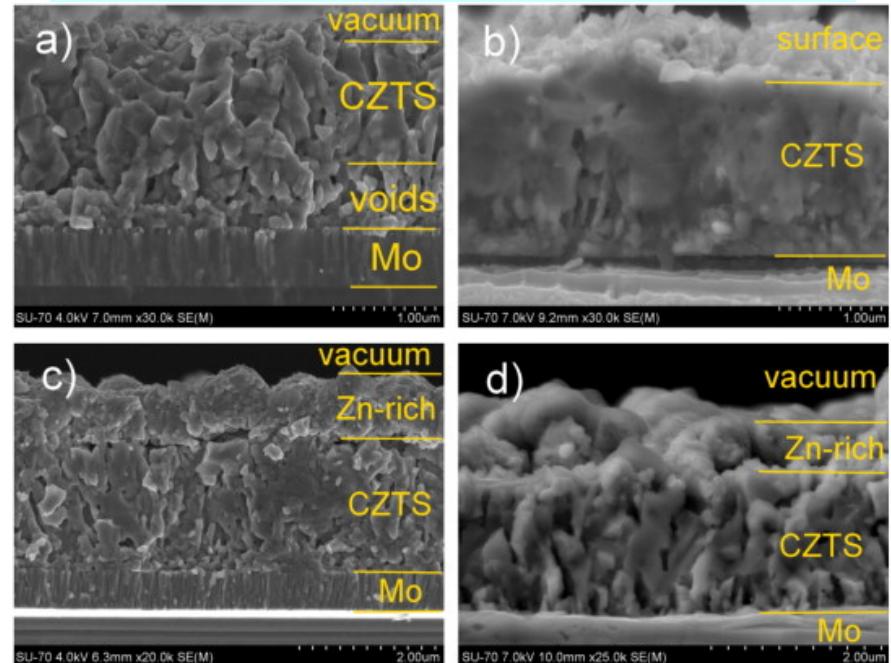


NREL, USA

ClSe = CuInSe_2
 CGSe = CuGaSe_2
 CIGSe = $\text{CuIn}_{1-x}\text{Ga}_x\text{Se}_2$

indium-free

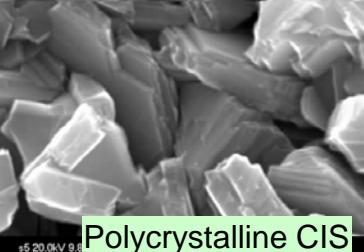
$\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}(\text{S},\text{Se})_4$ under developments



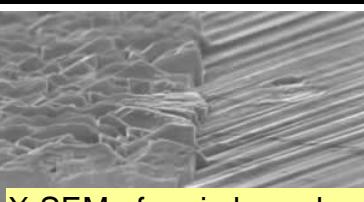
Salomé , et al. Solar Energy Mater & Solar Cells 95, 3482 (2011),

CZTS = $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}\text{S}_4$
 CZTSe = $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}\text{Se}_4$
 CZTSSe = $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}(\text{S}_{1-x}\text{Se}_x)_4$

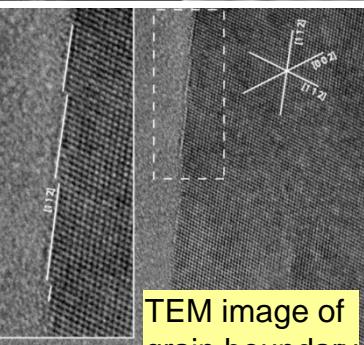
Puzzeling properties of CIGSe devices, different from Si, GaAs and CdTe devices



Polycrystalline CIS

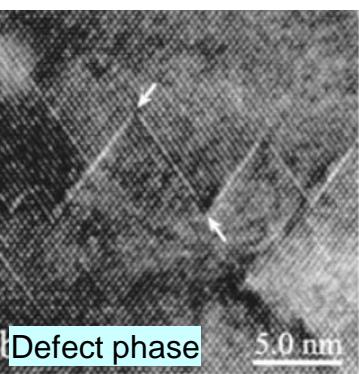


X-SEM of grain boundary



TEM image of
grain boundary

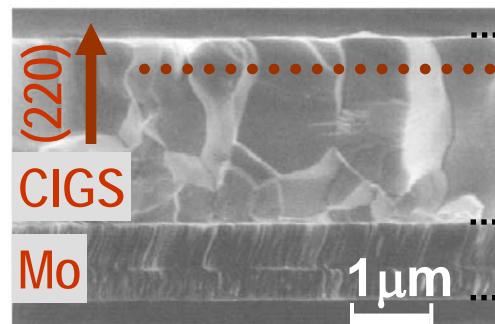
rockett.mse.uiuc.edu



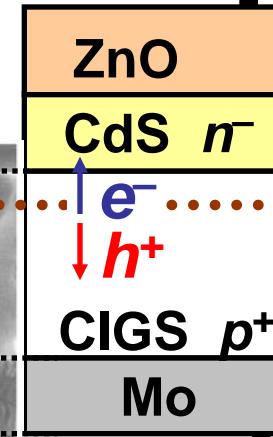
Defect phase 5.0 nm

Y. Yan, et.al, report,
NREL/CP-520-33615 (2003)

Cross section SEM image



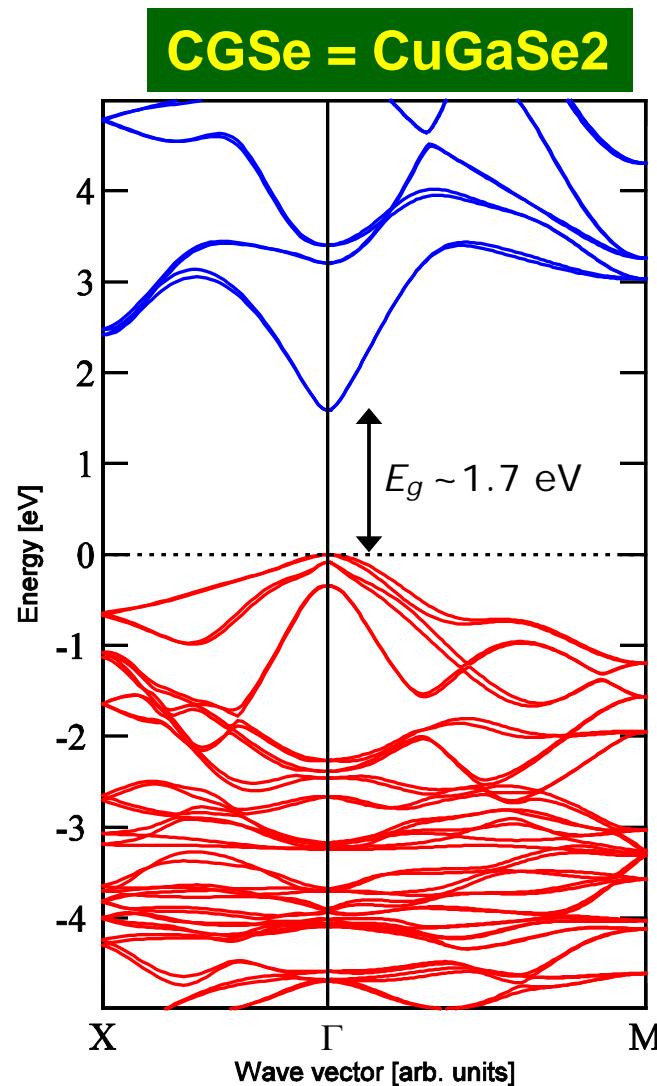
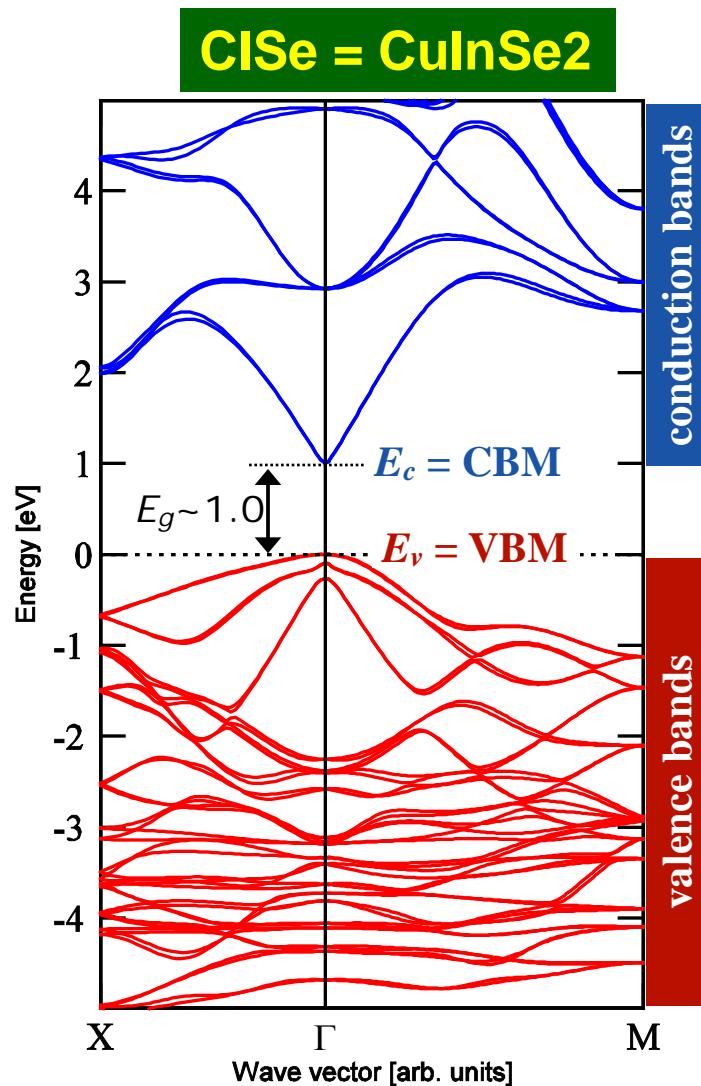
K. Ramanathan, et al. Prog. PV Res. Appl. 11, 225 (2003).



window layer
buffer layer
•pn junction
absorber layer
back contact

- (1) Grain boundaries are harmless for the device !!!
- (2) Best CIGS material is Cu-poor ($[V_{Cu}]$, $[In_{Cu}] \sim 1\%$)
polycrystalline, non-stoichiometric, ODP (eg $CuIn_3Se_5$)
- (3) Extremely Cu-poor at surface/interfaces !!!
- (4) CIGSe is typically p-type as grown !!!
- (5) CIS can be n-type, but CGSe cannot !!!
- (6) Na at grain-boundaries is good for the device !!!
- (7) Not better efficiency for high Ga content ($x > 0.30$)

ClSe and CGSe are direct band-gap semicond.



Solar cells need direct-gap materials because photons has $q \sim 0$

CIGSe band gap fits sun-light spectrum

Group							
13	14	15	16	17	18		
B	C	N	O	F	Ne		
Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar		
Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Kr	
Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
2.8-18-18-1	2.8-18-18-2	2.8-18-18-3	2.8-18-18-4	2.8-18-18-5	2.8-18-18-6	2.8-18-18-7	2.8-18-18-8
-195.97	-123.9	-134.383	-137.2	-138.980	-139.0	-139.1	-139.2
-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1

Expt. best
composition
~30% Ga

Best theoretical
composition
50–60% Ga ??

E_g

1.0 eV

1.7 eV

CBM

VBM

0

0.5

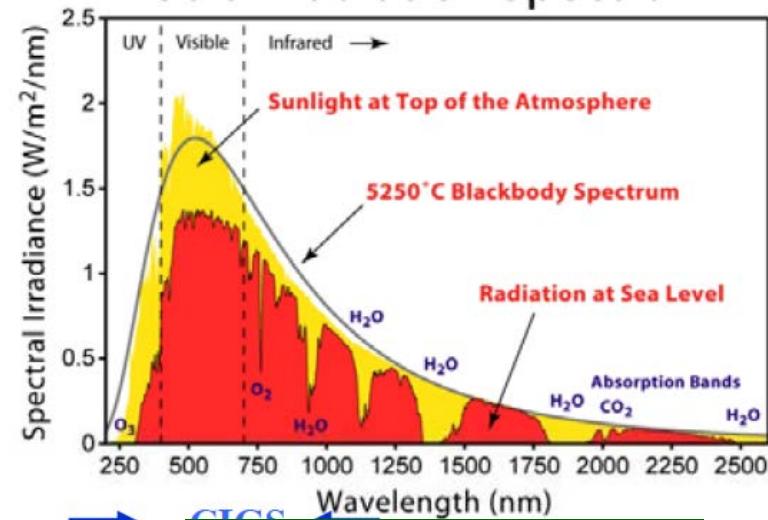
1.0

Composition x

CuInSe_2

CuGaSe_2

$\text{CuIn}_{1-x}\text{Ga}_x\text{Se}_2$



sun-light spectrum

Why is not solar-cell efficiency
increasing for $x > 30\%$???

	13	14	15	16	17	18
B	10.81	-3	12.0111	-4	14.0087	15.9964
C	6	2.4	7	2.5	8	2.7
N	5	2.3	6	2.4	7	2.5
O	35.96754	-2	30.0085	-3	31.9775	32.9945
F	10	2.0	11	2.1	12	2.2
Ne	0					
Al	11	1.3	12	1.4	13	1.5
Si	13	0.9-3	14	0.3-4	15	2.3-5
P	31	0.7-2	32	0.7-3	33	0.6-5
S	32	0.6-5	33	0.6-6	34	2.4-7
Cl	35	0.5-6	36	0.5-7	37	2.3-8
Ar	36	0.4-5	37	0.4-6	38	2.3-9
i	63.546	-3	68.70	-3	72.50	78.95
Cu	29	2.0	30	2.0	31	2.0
Zn	30	2.0	31	2.0	32	2.0
Ga	31	2.0	32	2.0	33	2.0
Ge	32	2.0	33	2.0	34	2.0
As	33	2.0	34	2.0	35	2.0
Se	34	2.0	35	2.0	36	2.0
Br	35	2.0	36	2.0	37	2.0
Kr	36	2.0	37	2.0	38	2.0
d	107.968	-3	110.41	-2	114.82	117.75
Ag	47	2.0	48	2.0	49	2.0
Cd	48	2.0	49	2.0	50	2.0
In	50	2.0	51	2.0	52	2.0
Sn	51	2.0	52	2.0	53	2.0
Sb	52	2.0	53	2.0	54	2.0
Te	53	2.0	54	2.0	55	2.0
I	54	2.0	55	2.0	56	2.0
Xe	55	2.0	56	2.0	57	2.0
t	195.067	-2	203.93	-3	204.383	207.2
Au	74	2.0	75	2.0	76	2.0
Hg	75	2.0	76	2.0	77	2.0
Tl	76	2.0	77	2.0	78	2.0
Pb	77	2.0	78	2.0	79	2.0
Bi	78	2.0	79	2.0	80	2.0
Po	79	2.0	80	2.0	81	2.0
At	80	2.0	81	2.0	82	2.0
Rn	81	2.0	82	2.0	83	2.0

SiSi SiSi

$$4+4+4+4 = 16$$

GaAs GaAs

$$3+5 + 3+5 = 16$$

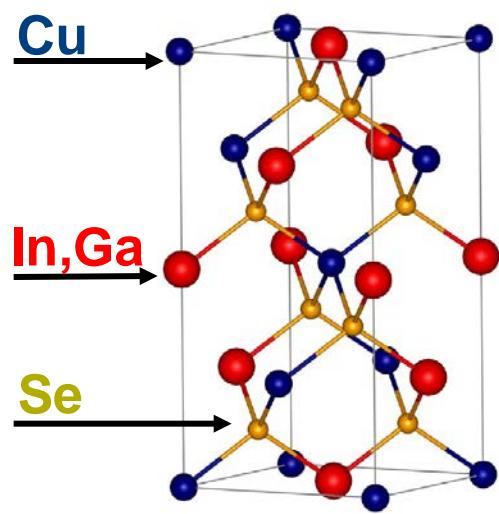
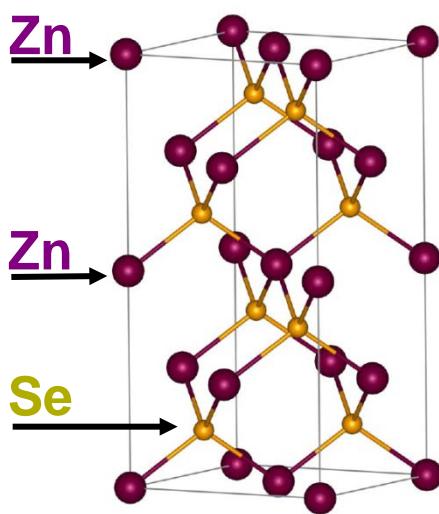
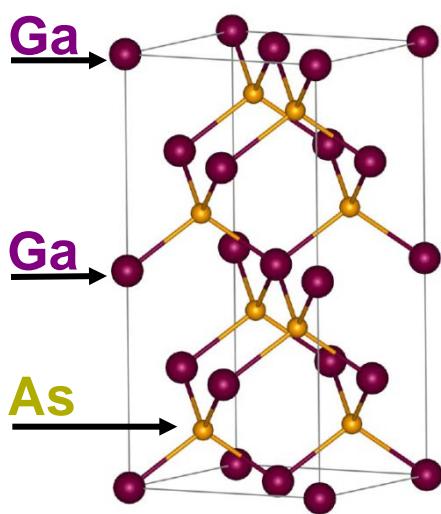
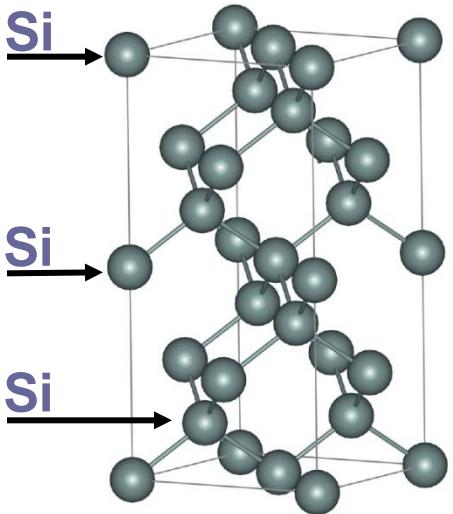
ZnSe ZnSe

$$2+6 + 2+6 = 16$$



CuSe InSe

$$1+6 + 3+6 = 16$$



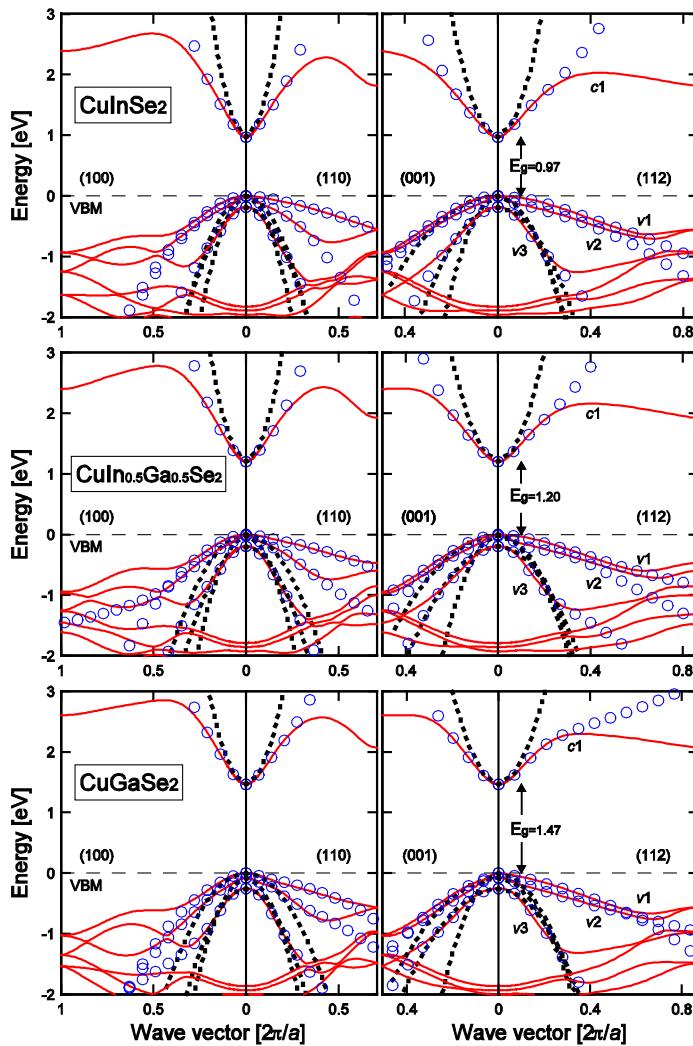
diamond structure
e.g. group IV
Si, Ge, C

zinc-blende struct.
e.g. III-V and II-VI
GaAs, ZnSe

chalcopyrites
e.g. I-III-VI₂
CuInSe₂, AuAlO₂

Electronic band-edge structure

CuInSe₂

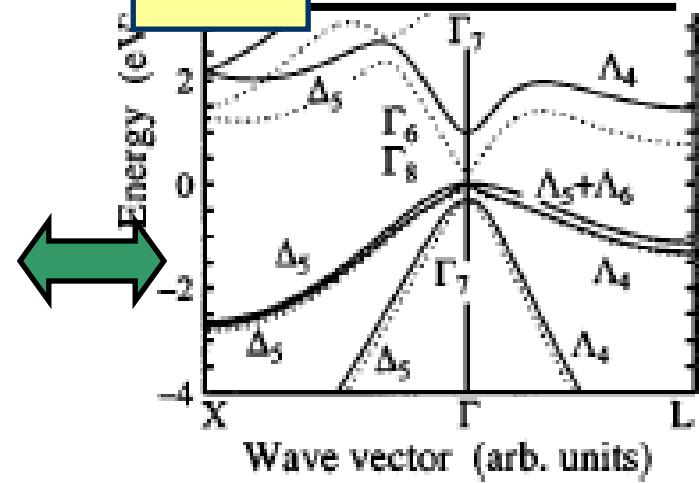


blue circles show fitted band structure

Chen and Persson, Thin Solid Films 519, 7503 (2011).

We are interested in details near CBM and V BM

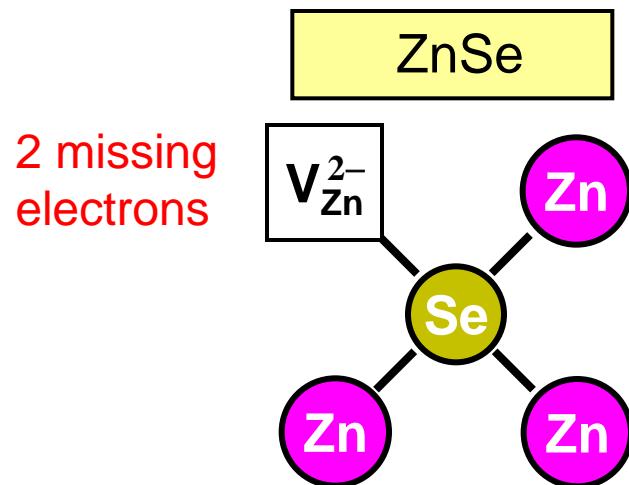
GaAs



Persson, et al PRB 033201 (2001)

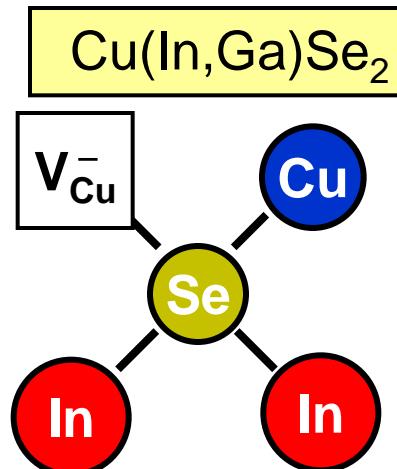
Similar CB as GaAs
(but more VBs)

Easy to form cation vacancies and antisites

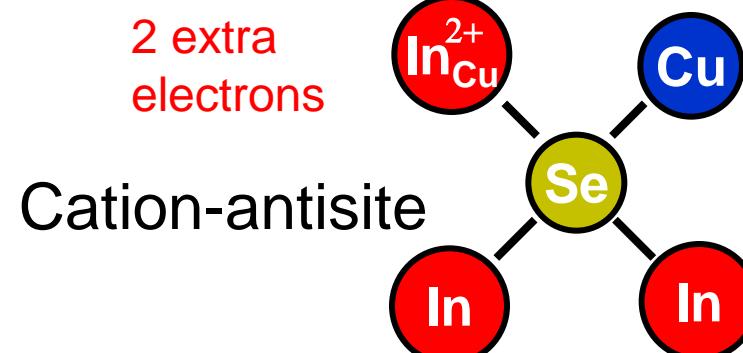


1 missing electron

Cation-vacancy

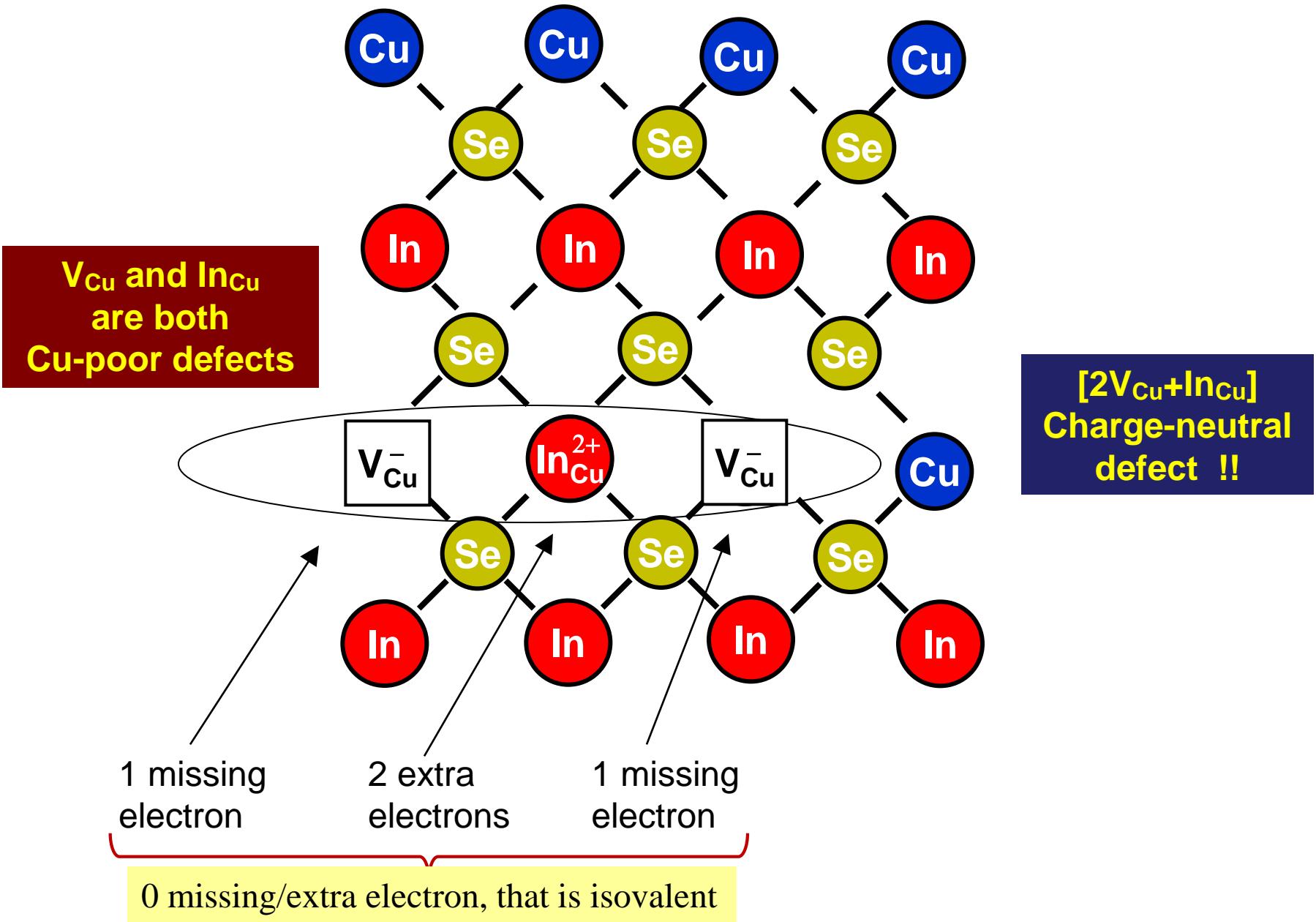


Group							
13	14	15	16	17	18		
B	C	N	O	F	Ne		
5 2-3	6 2-4	7 2-5	8 2-6	9 2-7	10 2-8		
11	12	13 2-3	14 2-4	15 2-5	16 2-6	17 2-7	18
i	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	
11	30 2-6-18-2	31 2-6-18-3	32 2-6-18-4	33 2-6-18-5	34 2-6-18-6	35 2-6-18-7	
d	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I
47 2-6-18-1	48 2-6-18-2	49 2-6-18-3	50 2-6-18-4	51 2-6-18-5	52 2-6-18-6	53 2-6-18-7	Xe
-2 195.967	-2 203.59	-2 204.583	-2 207.2	-2 208.260	-2 209.000	-2 210.021	0



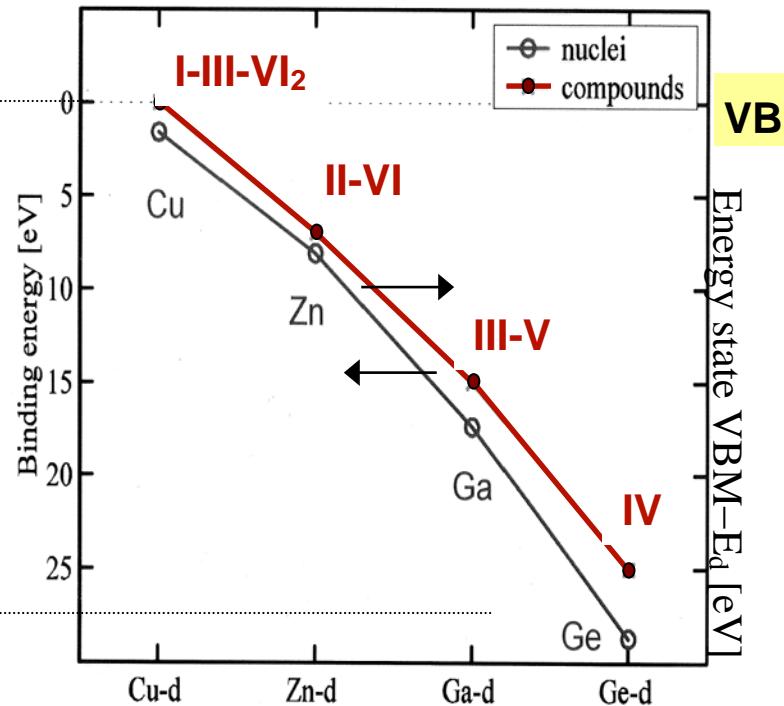
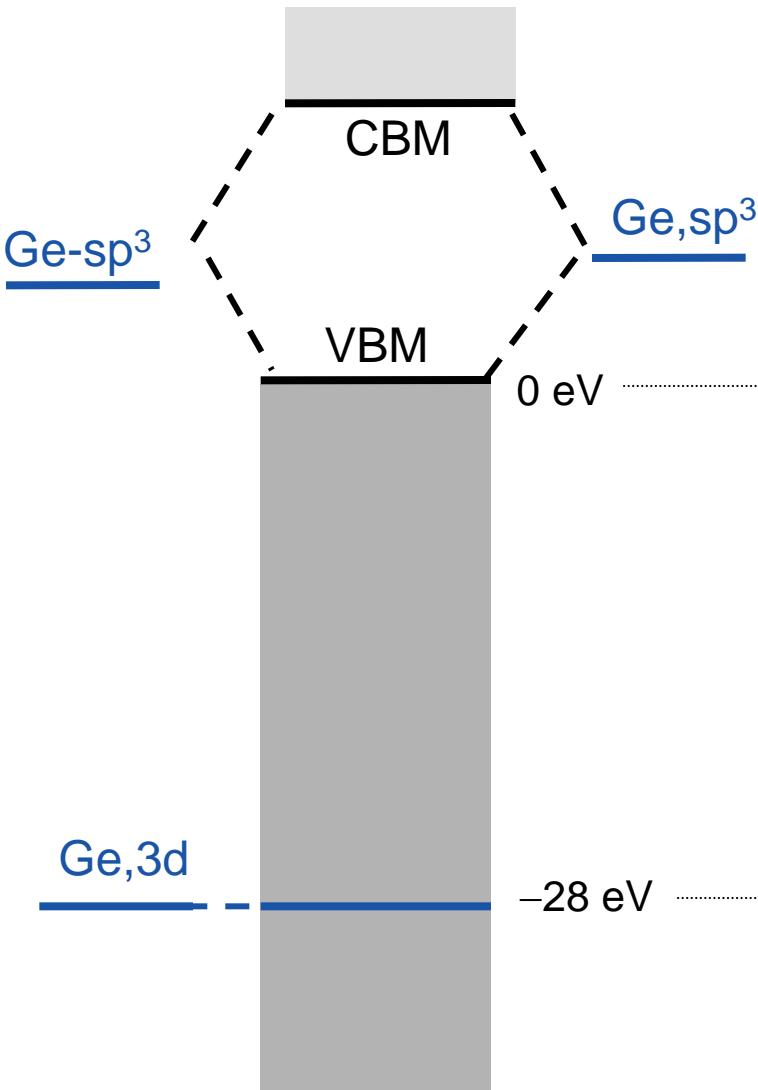
V_{Cu} and In_{Cu} have very low formation energies in CIGSe

Charge-neutral / isovalent defects $[2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}]$

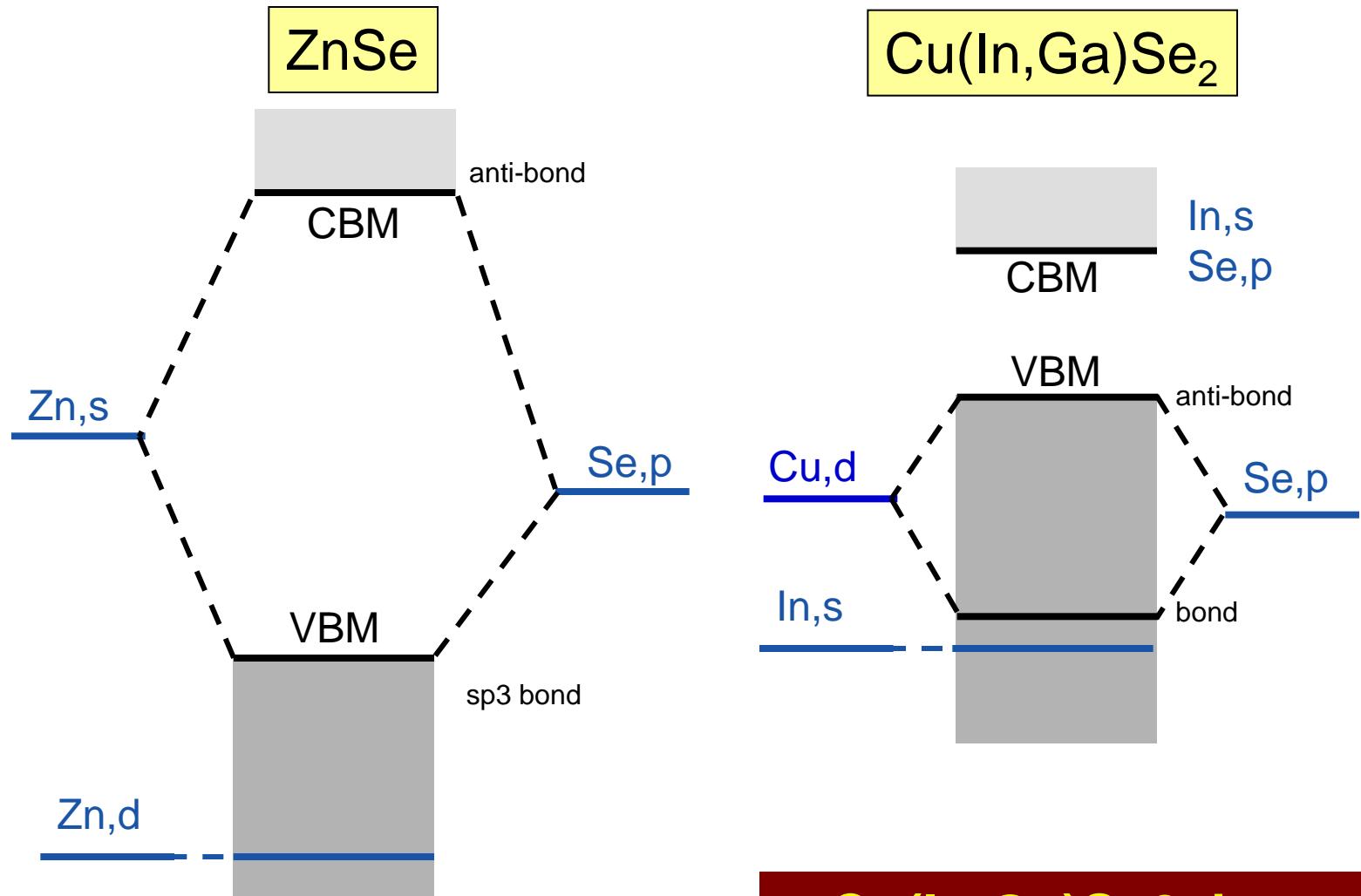


Trends in d-state energies

Ge: [Ar] 3d¹⁰4s²p²



VBM of CIGS has strong d-character !!



Cu(In,Ga)Se₂ is very different from ZnSe !!

Cation vacancy formation energies

ClSe and CGSe

$$V_{\text{Cu}} \sim 0.7 + \Delta\mu_{\text{Cu}} \quad [\text{eV}]$$

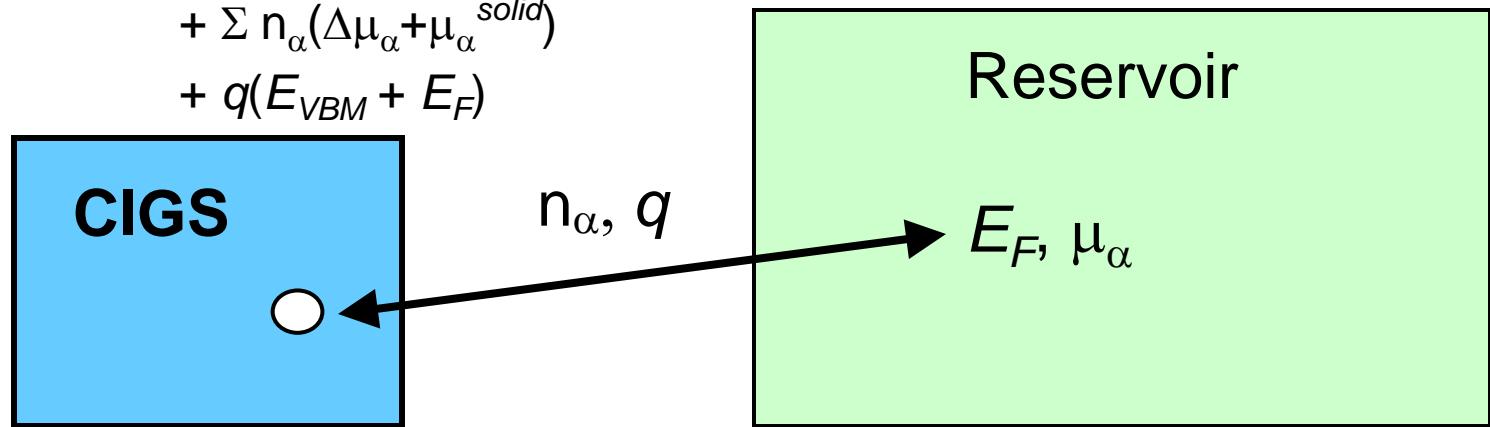
Persson, et al. PRB **72**, 035211 (2005)

ZnTe

$$V_{\text{Zn}} \sim 3 + \Delta\mu_{\text{Zn}} \quad [\text{eV}]$$

Laks, et al. PRB **45**, 10965 (1992)
Cheocg, et al. PRB **51**, 10610 (1995)

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H(\alpha, q) = & E(\alpha, q) - E_{\text{host}} \\ & + \sum n_\alpha (\Delta\mu_\alpha + \mu_\alpha^{\text{solid}}) \\ & + q(E_{\text{VBM}} + E_F)\end{aligned}$$

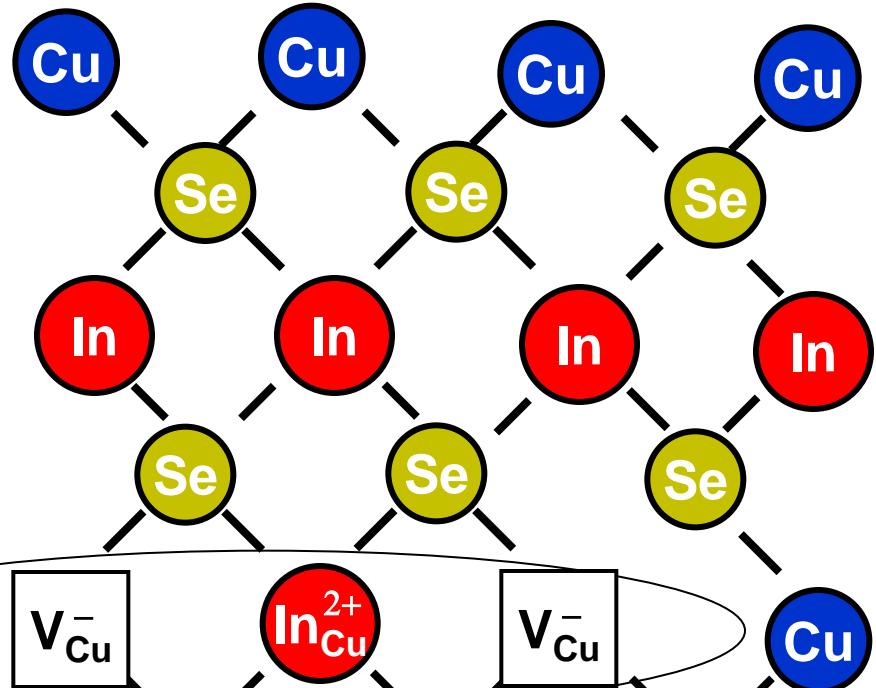


High quality CIGS is Cu-poor: 23.5 – 24.5 at.% (not 25%)

Charge-neutral complex $[2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}]$

$[2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}]$
Charge-neutral defect !!

V_{Cu} and In_{Cu}
are both
Cu-poor defects

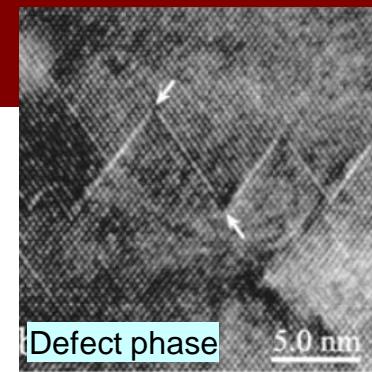


1 missing electron

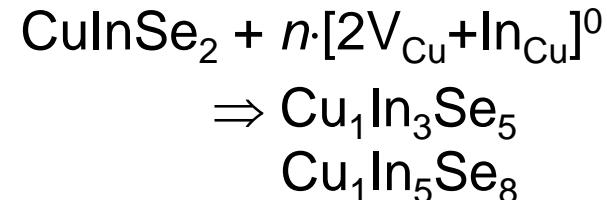
2 extra electrons

1 missing electron

0 missing/extra electron, that is isovalent



Y. Yan, et.al, report,
NREL/CP-520-33615 (2003)



Zhang et al. PRB 57, 9642 (1998)

Calculation $S = N_i e^{-\Delta H_f / k_B T}$
 $\sim 1-5 \% V_{Cu}$

Cu-vacancies can

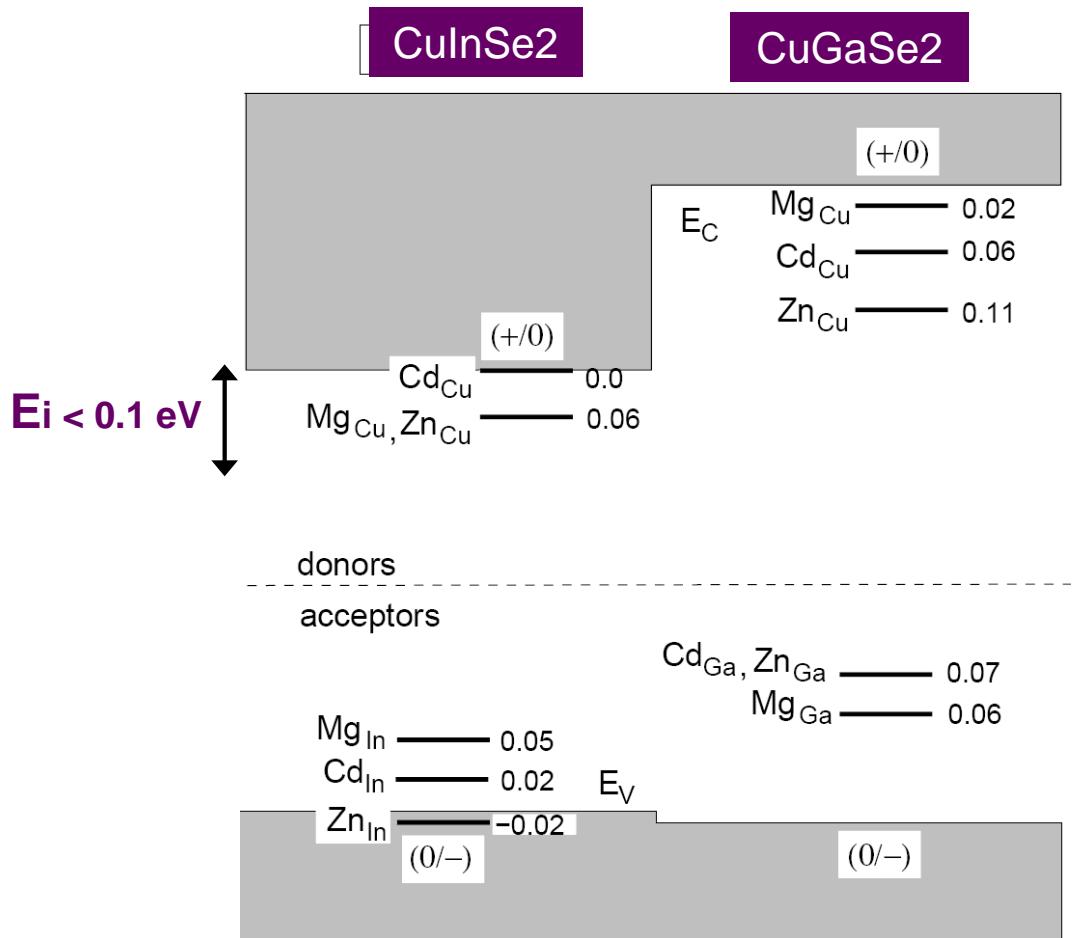
for example,

1) limit n-type doping

experimental observation:

CuInSe₂ be n-type, but not CuGaSe₂

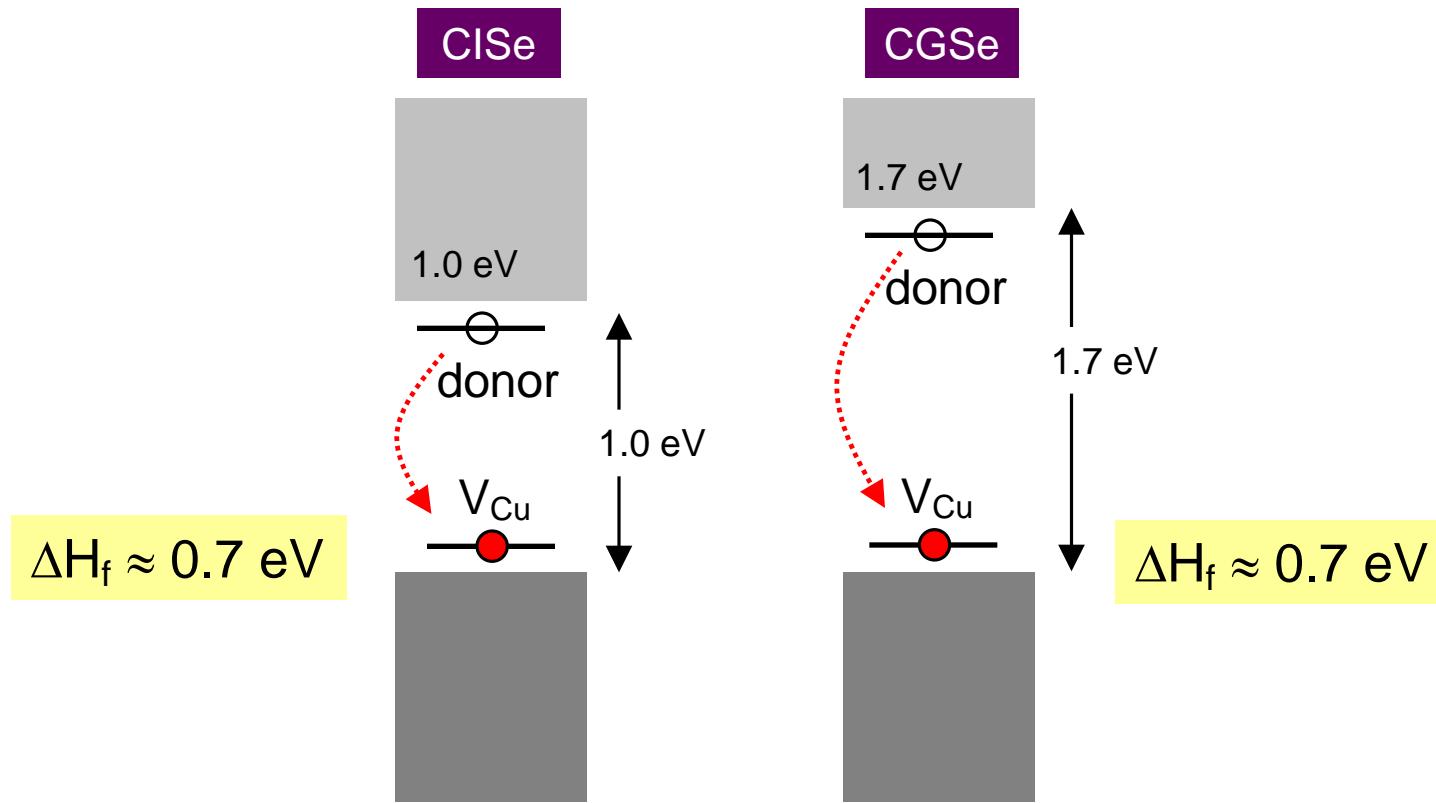
Both ClSe and CGSe have shallow donors !!!



Formation energies
of these donors are
relatively small

The problem is not to
create shallow donors

Trying to n-type dope CGSe



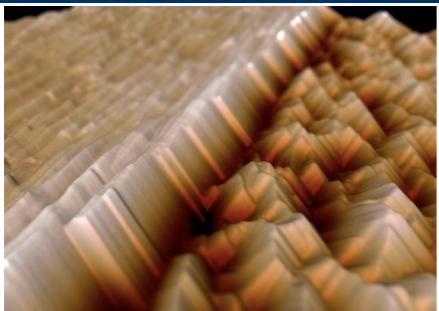
simplified
model

It costs $\sim 0.7 \text{ eV}$ to create V_{cu}

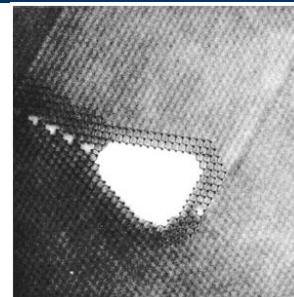
But V_{cu} -compensation, the system gains
 $\sim 0.8 \text{ eV}$ in CIS
 $\sim 1.4 \text{ eV}$ in CGS

Cu-vacancies can
second example,
2) create hole barriers

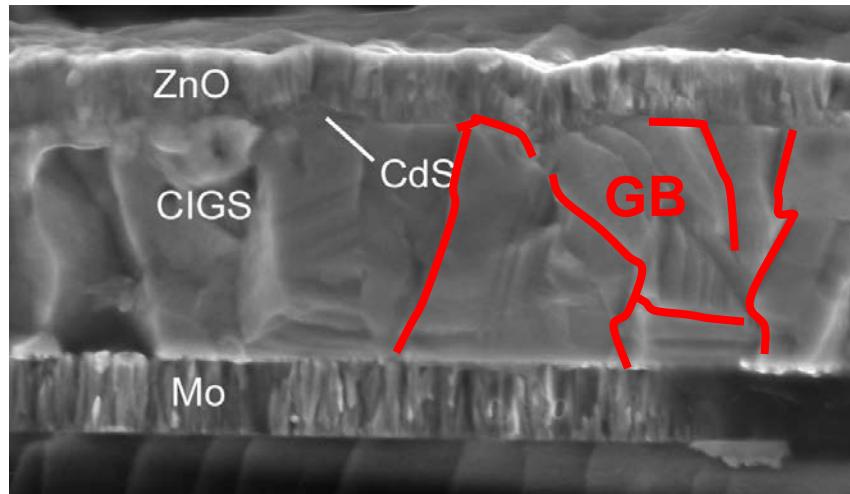
Modeling of GBs: GB are Cu poor



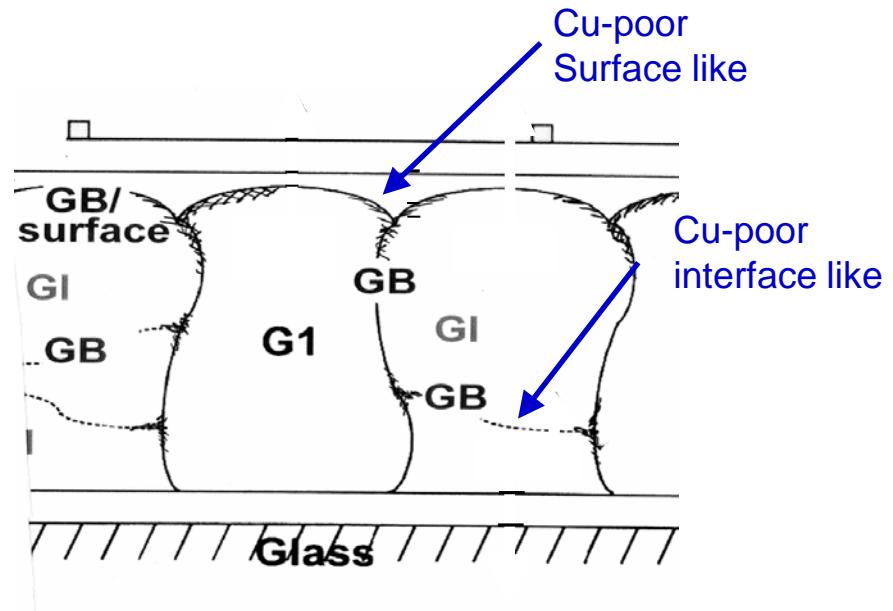
AFM grain boundaries in CISe
rockett.mse.uiuc.edu



nano-voids with (112)-surfaces
Lei, JAP 100, 073518 (2006)



Sample: 179 200nm EHT = 5.00 kV Signal A = InLens Date :13 Jan 2005
Mag = 23.97 K X WD = 7 mm Aperture Size = 20.00 μ m
Noise Reduction = Pixel Avg. Stage at T = 0.0 Deg



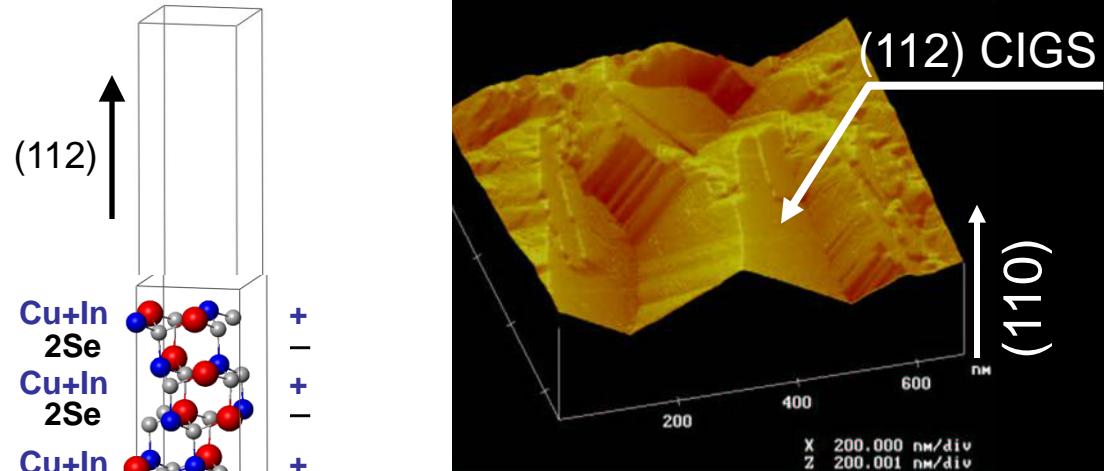
Why is GBs good/harmless for the device ?

What is happening at GBs ?

Stable polar (112)-surface in CIGSe !!

Experimentally:

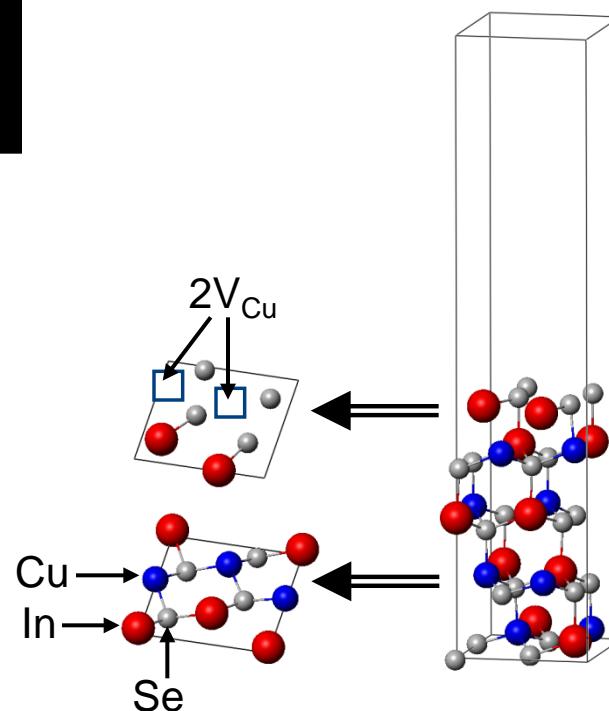
Liao and Rocket, 29th IEEE Conf. p. 515 (2002).



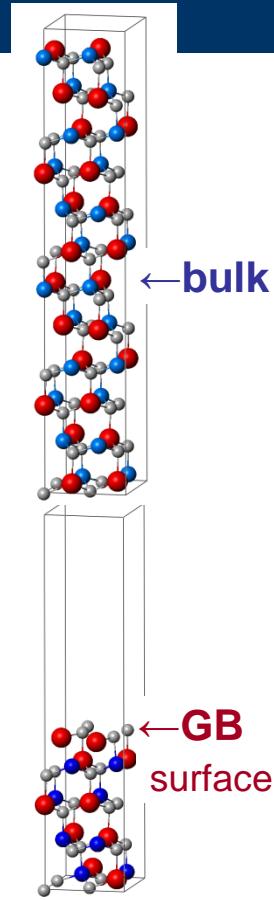
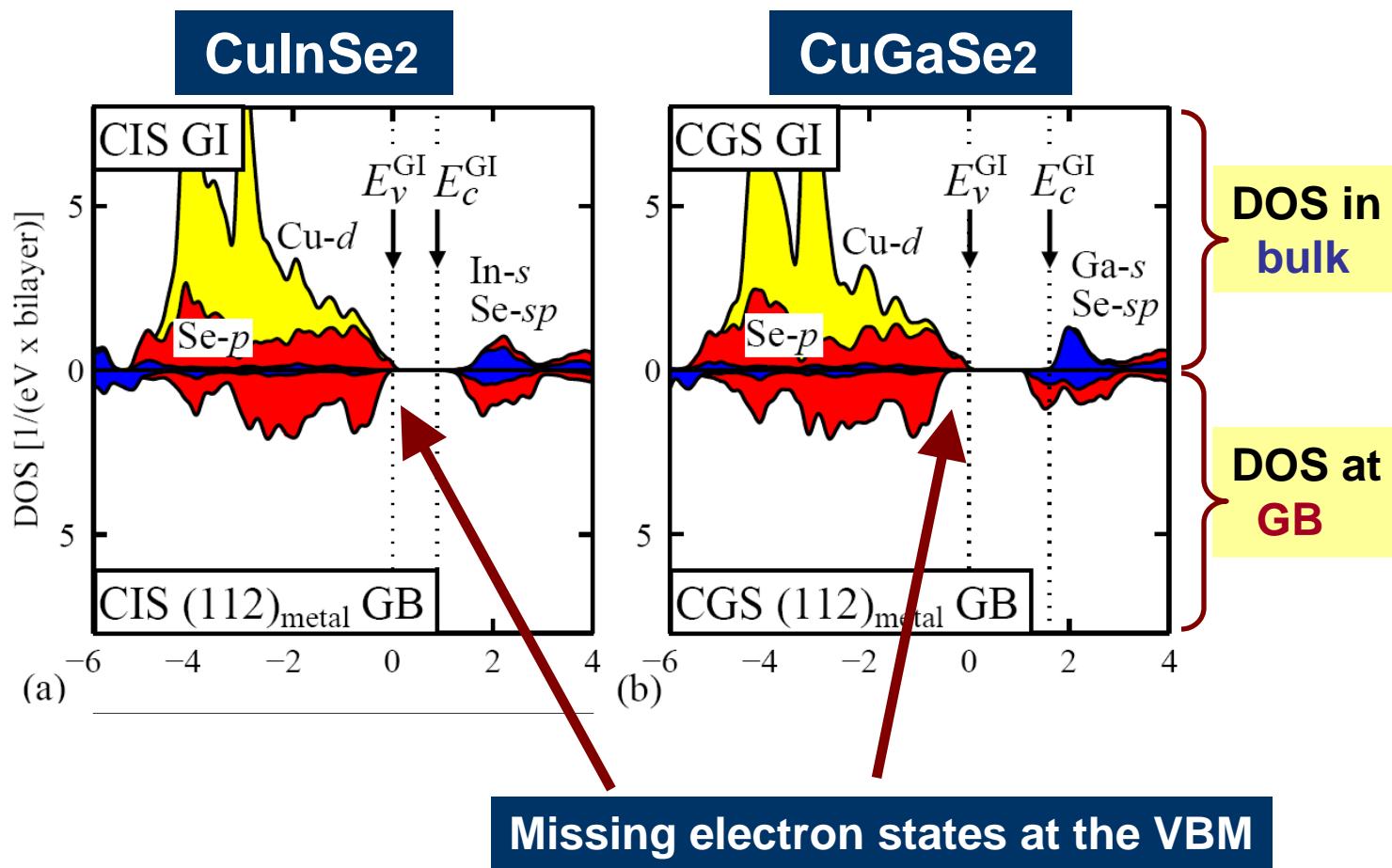
An atomic-force microscopy image of the surface of a (220)-oriented Cu(In,Ga)Se₂ epitaxial layer grown on GaAs. The surface has decomposed into two sets of polar (112) planes identified by their crystallographic orientation.

Theory:

- In CIGSe: **polar** (112) is most stable it is energetically ‘cheap’ to create V_{Cu} [Jaffe and Zunger, PRB 64, 241304 (2001)].
- (112) surface reconstruct by V_{Cu}.
–(112) surface reconstruct by In_{Cu}.
[Zhang and Wei, PRB 65, 081402 (2002)].



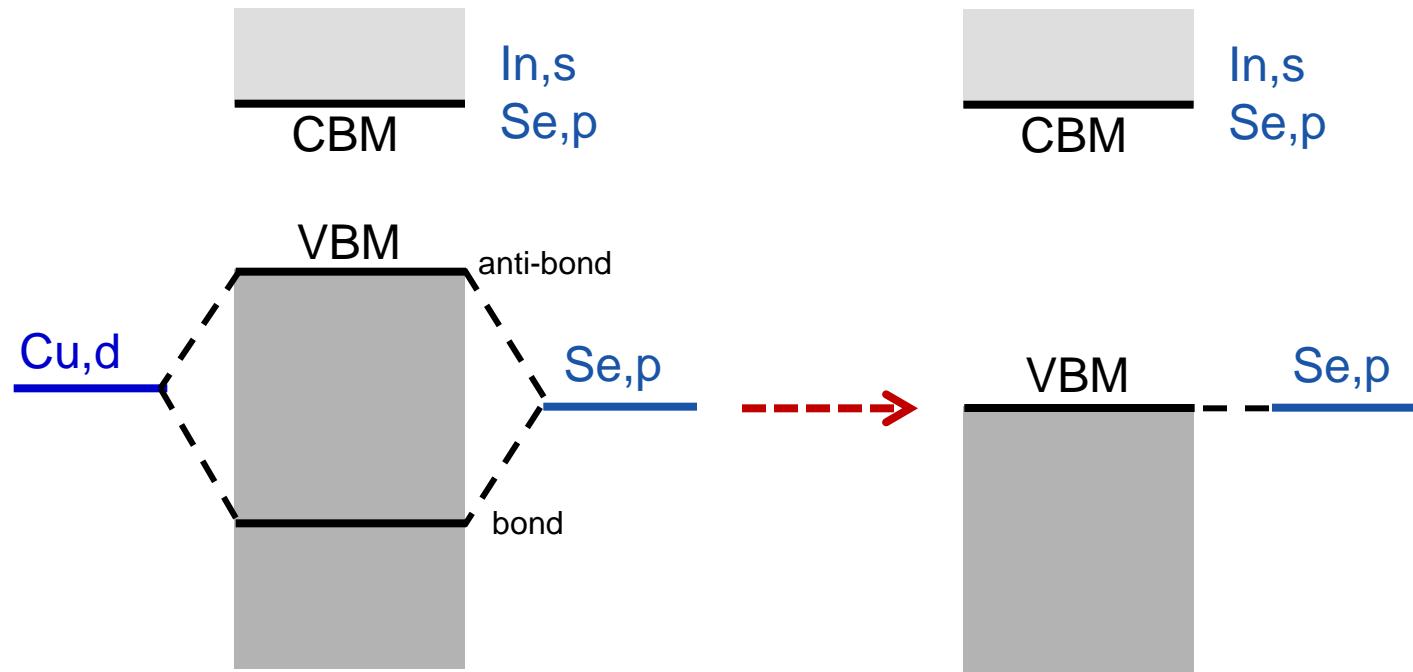
Hole barrier at the GBs



VBM of CIGS has strong d-character !!

bulk CIGSe

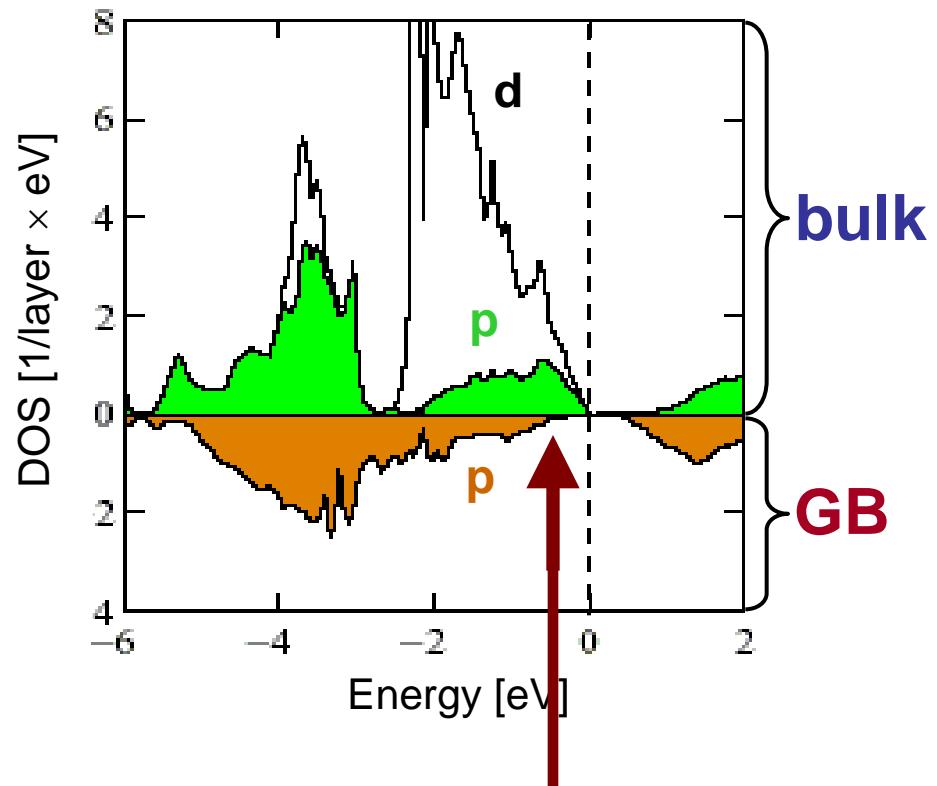
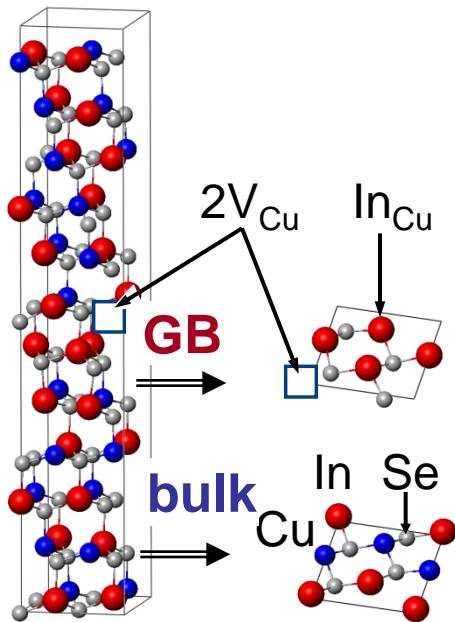
Cu-poor CIGSe GBs



No Cu-d
⇒ lower VBM !!

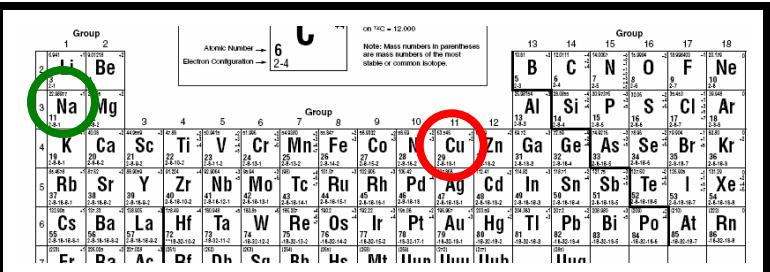
$[2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}]$ at dislocations can also repel holes

CISe with $2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}$

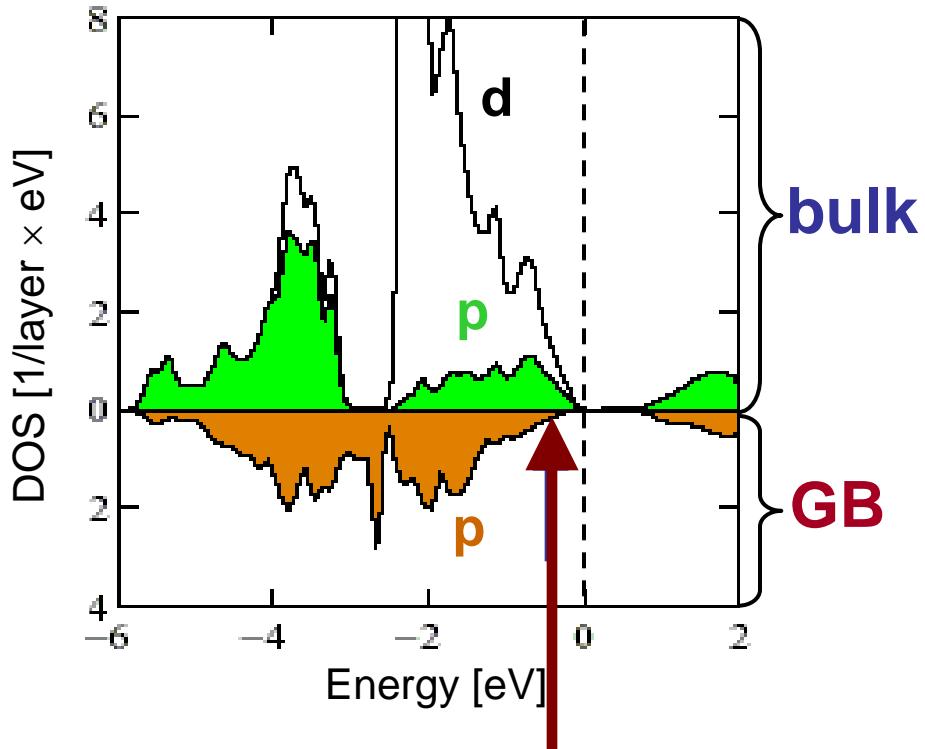
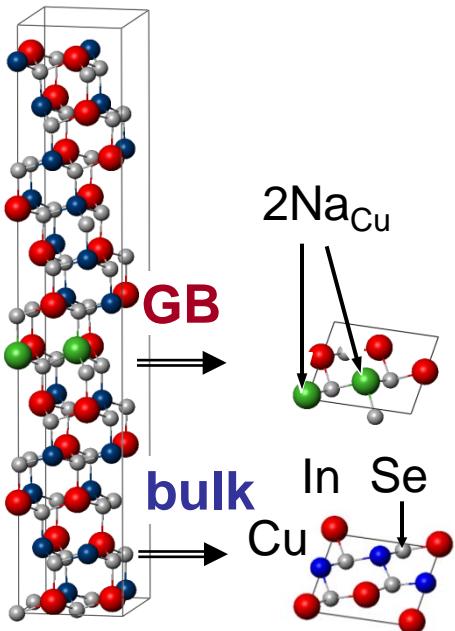


$[2V_{Cu}+In_{Cu}]$ means Cu-poor region

NaCu at dislocation interface can also repel holes



Cu: [Ar] 3d¹⁰4s¹
 Na: [Ne] 3s¹



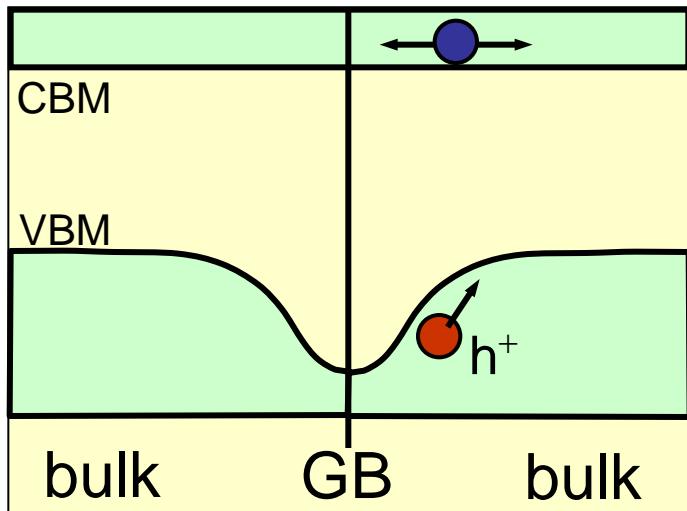
Na at GB lacks d-orbitals so it creates a hole barrier

Charged defects at GB

(J.Y.W. Seto, JAP 46, 5247 (1975))

Good GB

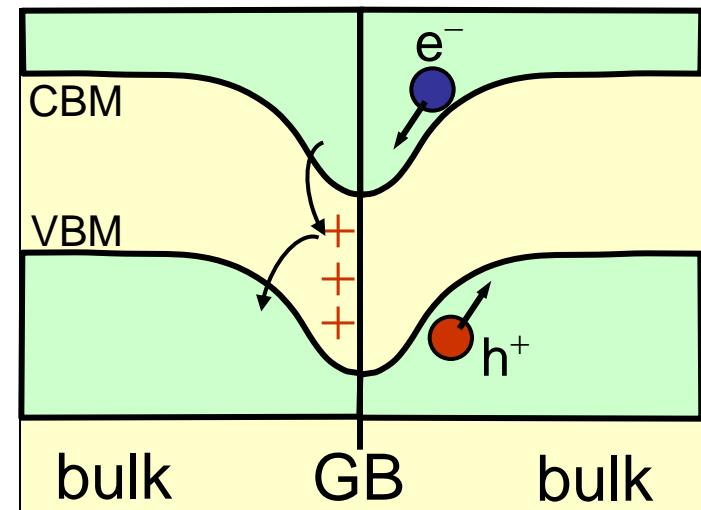
CuInSe₂



Can we utilize
this phenomena ?

Bad GB

case
positively charged ions
Donors, e.g. V_{Se}^{++}



GB repels holes (majority),
attracts electrons (minority)

Neutral GBs now observed expt

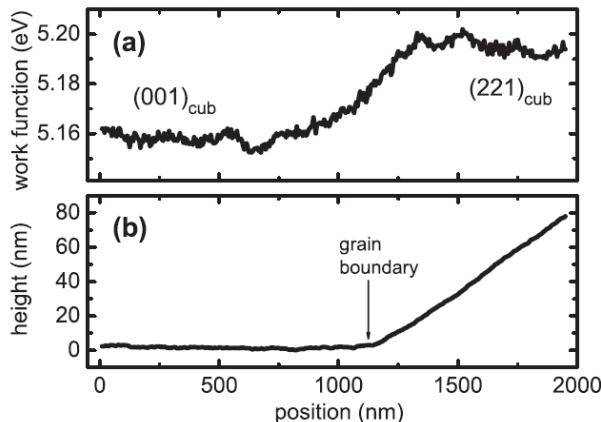


FIG. 3. KPFM line profile of the work function (a) and topography (b) across the grain boundary. The KPFM scan shows no indication of a space charge at the grain boundary.

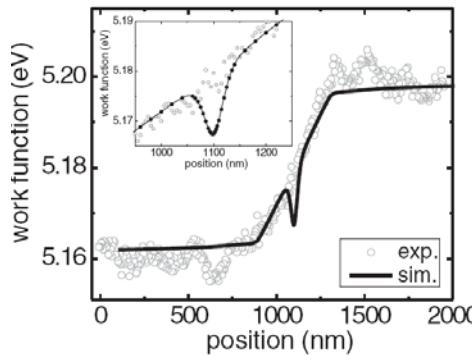


FIG. 4. Simulation of the KPFM line profile (solid line) across the grain boundary assuming a 30 meV barrier at the grain boundary. The points show the comparison with the experimental data.

Siebentritt, et al, PRL 97,146601 (2006)

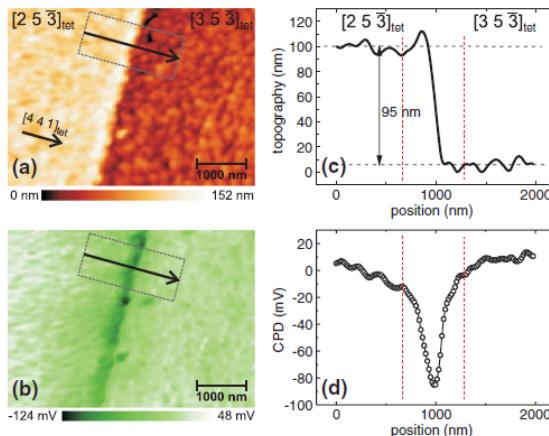


FIG. 1 (color online). KPFM measurement on the CuGaSe₂ bicrystal containing a $\Sigma 9$ grain boundary. (a) Topography and (b) CPD showing a dip along the GB. Averaged line profiles across the GB were extracted in the gray box indicated in the images for (c) topography and (d) CPD.

Hafenmeister, et al, PRL 104,196602 (2010)