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Authors

Wan, Yimao Bullock, James Hettick, Mark <u>et al.</u>

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Earth Metal Carbonates as Electron Heterocontacts for

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Yimao Wan*, James Bullock, Mark Hettick, Zhaoran Xu, Chris Samundsett, Di Yan, Jun Peng, Ali Javey, and Andres Cuevas

Dr. Yimao Wan, Chris Samundsett, Dr. Di Yan, Jun Peng, and Prof. Andres Cuevas

¹ Research School of Engineering, The Australian National University

(ANU), Canberra, ACT 0200, Australia

(Email: yimao.wan@anu.edu.au)

Dr. Yimao Wan, Dr. James Bullock, Mark Hettick, Zhaoran Xu, Prof. Ali Javey

² Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720, USA

³ Materials Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory,

Berkeley, California 94720, USA

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Abstract

Nanometre scale interfacial layers between the metal cathode and the *n*-type semiconductor play a critical role in enhancing the transport of charge carriers in and out of optoelectronic devices. Here, a range of nanoscale alkali and alkaline earth metal carbonates (i.e., potassium, rubidium, caesium, calcium, strontium, and barium) are shown to function effectively as electron heterocontacts to lightly doped *n*-type crystalline silicon (c-Si), which is particularly challenging to contact by common metals. These carbonate inter-layers are shown to significantly enhance the performance of *n*-type c-Si proof-of-concept solar cells up to a power conversion efficiency of ~19%. Furthermore, these devices are thermally stable up to 350 °C and both the caesium and barium carbonates pass a standard 1000-hour damp heat test, with > 95% of their initial performance maintained. Electron heterocontacts based on alkali and alkaline earth metal carbonates show a high potential for industrial feasibility and longevity for deployment in the field.

A key metric of a metal to silicon contact is the barrier height ($\phi_{\rm B}$), predicted by the Schottky-Mott rule to be the difference between the metal work function and silicon's electron affinity.^[1,2] Usually, the observed $\Phi_{\rm B}$ differs significantly from the calculated one, due to the Fermi-level pinning phenomenon, consequence of a high density of states within the energy bandgap at the metal/silicon interface. Besides the conventional approach of heavily doping the silicon surface in order to make the Schottky barrier thin enough for carrier tunnelling, an alternative approach is to employ a thin interfacial layer between metal and silicon to reduce the defect density at the interface, thus releasing the Fermi level. This means, on the one hand, that the work function of the contacting materials needs to be carefully selected for either *n*-type or *p*-type silicon; on the other hand, the defect-passivating interlayer can hinder the transport of carriers. For a low-resistance Ohmic contact to *n*-type silicon (n-Si), it is desirable that the interfacial layer also has the function of reducing the work function of the outer metal in order to facilitate electron ejection (in the case of solar cells) or injection (for other devices). Recently, several dopant-free interfacial materials have been shown to provide a low resistivity Ohmic contact to *n*-Si, including lithium fluoride,^{[3-} ^{5]} magnesium fluoride,^[6] magnesium oxide,^[7] titanium oxide,^[8,9] tantalum oxide,^[10] and their combinations.^[11]

Another class of candidate materials are the alkali and alkaline-earth metal carbonates which until now have mostly been explored in organic electronics due to their ability to facilitate electron injection. The application of these carbonates to silicon solar cells is only incipient, and it

has been limited to caesium carbonate.^[12,13] In this work, we present a comprehensive experimental study of a range of carbonates ($K_2C_xO_y$, $Rb_2C_xO_y$, $Cs_2C_xO_y$, CaC_xO_y , SrC_xO_y , and BaC_xO_y) as electron contacts for silicon solar cells. We first investigate the electronic band structure and conduction properties of the thermally evaporated carbonates, capped with aluminium as the metallic electrode. After optimising these electron contacts in terms of contact resistivity, they are applied to the full rear surface of *n*-type silicon solar cells, achieving a fill factor of ~80% and a power conversion efficiency of ~19%. Thermal and environmental stability tests are then performed, showing that these devices are stable up to 350 °C and that both the caesium and barium carbonates pass an accelerated environmental test at 85 °C and 85% humidity for 1000 hours.

The electronic band structure was characterized via X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), including core level and valence band. Figure 1(a) shows the core levels of C 1s spectra for four of the carbonates, except for the case of potassium and calcium because of their extremely poor stability in air and even in a nitrogen glove box, owing to the loose packing of relatively large carbonate anions and small metal ions.^[14] The C 1s spectrum is decomposed into three parts: main carbonate at ~289.5 eV, hydrocarbonate at ~288 eV, and adventitious carbon at ~285 eV.^[15] All four materials exhibit significant adventitious carbon probably due to and/or organic contaminants during evaporation, transportation measurement. The hydrocarbonate signal is anticipated to originate from the interaction with moisture. The signal is more pronounced for alkali carbonates than alkaline earth ones. This is within expectations, since

alkali carbonates are much more hygroscopic. Particularly for Ba carbonate, the signal for hydrocarbonate is negligible, indicating that the material is more stable against moisture or air ambient, which is confirmed by the environmental tests at the device level presented below. It is worth noting that the pronounced carbon component observed in this work contradicts previous reports for Cs₂CO₃, which mention its decomposition into caesium oxide, with negligible release of carbon. The discrepancy might originate from a different degree of decomposition of Cs₂CO₃ during thermal evaporation. The stoichiometry of the four films measured by XPS is summarised in Table I. It shows that the composition of the alkali carbonates is richer in C and O than the alkaline earth metal ones, presumably due to their higher hygroscopicity. It is also noticeable that the stoichiometry of the alkaline earth metal carbonates is slightly metal rich.



Figure 1: The core level spectrum of C1s of thermally evaporated carbonate films measured by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements. The extracted stoichiometry is summarised in Table I. The spectra is for the four of

the carbonates, except for the case of potassium and calcium because of their exceptionally extremely poor stability in air and even in a nitrogen glove box.

Table I. Summary of stoichiometry and work function of thermally evaporated carbonates

Material	Stoichi	Work	
	х	У	function (eV)
Rb ₂ C _x O _y	1.23	4.48	2.66
$Cs_2C_xO_y$	0.87	3.09	2.36
SrC _x O _y	0.55	2.92	2.81
BaC _x O _y	0.59	2.51	2.23

The work function of the four carbonates is determined by the XPS secondary electron cut-off. The results, shown in Figure 2(a) and summarised in Table I indicate that all four carbonates exhibit an extremely low work function, ranging from 2.23 to 2.81 eV, in good agreement with the value for Cs_2CO_3 (~2.2 eV) reported Huang et al.^[16] Given that the XPS measurements were performed for carbonate films capped with Al, these results demonstrate their ability to strongly reduce the work function of the contact, which for pure Al is ~4.1 eV.^[2] One of the tentative hypothesis for the origin of such a low work function is the reaction of Al metal with the carbonate, resulting in the formation of Al–O–M (where M represents the Alkali or Alkaline metal).^[16] The reduced work function is anticipated to promote downward band-bending inside the silicon wafer, drawing electrons to the surface and consequently improving electron transport, as illustrated schematically in Figure 2(b).

The electrical contact behaviour of the carbonate/Al electrodes onto n-Si is evaluated by measuring the contact resistivity $\rho_{\rm c}$ using the method devised by Cox and Strack,^[17] as shown schematically in the inset of Figure 2(c). A series of representative I-V measurements of samples without and with 1 nm of six different carbonate interlayers between Al and *n*-Si is shown in Figure 2(c). As we can see in this figure, the sample with Al directly on *n*-Si (i.e., without a carbonate interlayer) exhibits a high contact resistivity ρ_c of ~5 Ω cm² and a non-linear behaviour for negative bias. In contrast, the insertion of a nanoscale carbonate (~ 1 nm) film enhances the contact very substantially, with a perfectly Ohmic behaviour (i.e., a linear *I-V* curve). The extracted ρ_c for the six carbonates is plotted as a function of film thickness in Figure 2(d). It can be seen that, for all the six carbonates explored in this work, the insertion of a 0.5 nm carbonate interlayer induces a dramatic decrease of $\rho_{\rm c}$ by more than one order of magnitude. The ρ_c reaches a minimum for a film thickness of ~ 1 nm, and then it increases rapidly for film thickness above 5 nm. This dependence of $ho_{\rm c}$ on film thickness is similar to that observed for fluorides and oxides. The likely reasons for the low resistance for electron transport provided by the carbonate/Al contacts could be (i) their low work function, which creates an accumulation of electrons at the interface, and/or (ii) the release of the Fermi-level via the passivation of defects at the silicon surface. The solar cell device results presented below indicate that the level of passivation is relatively modest and, therefore, the low work function is most likely the main reason for the low contact resistance.



Figure 2: (a) shows the secondary electron cut-off spectrum measured at the carbonates/Al interface with a gold (Au) reference. (b) depicts the schematic of energy band diagram with and without carbonate interfacial layers. (c) presents a series of *I–V* measurements of samples with 1 nm carbonate interlayer between Al and *n*-type c-Si. Schematic of the contact resistivity test structure is included in inset. (d) shows the contact resistivity ρ_c as a function of carbonate thickness.

The six different carbonate (~1 nm) /Al (~200 nm) electron contacts were integrated in the complete *n*-type silicon solar cells as a full area rear contacts, as schematically depicted in Figure 3(a). The *J*-*V* photovoltaic characteristic curves under one sun standard illumination are plotted in Figure 3(b) for cells with and without carbonate interlayers (i.e., the control cell with Al directly on *n*-Si). The detailed electrical parameters of all the cells are given in Figure 3(c). As expected from the contact resistance measurements, the insertion of a 1 nm thick interfacial layer enhances substantially all cell parameters for all six carbonates. The highest power conversion efficiency of 19.4% in this set of experiments is obtained for potassium carbonate, with open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}), shortcircuit current (I_{sc}) and fill factor (FF) of 624.3 mV, 38.89 mA/cm² and 79.94%, respectively. Compared to the control cell (i.e., without a carbonate interlayer), an absolute 30 to 60 mV increase of V_{oc} is observed. Although this may be taken as proof of some level of passivation of the silicon surface by the carbonates, it is important to keep in mind that the contact between AI and *n*-Si in the control cell is not perfectly Ohmic and can originate a small loss of voltage in the device. The fact that the shortcircuit current is also higher for the devices with a carbonate/Al contact tends to support the hypothesis of a mild surface passivating effect. Nevertheless, V_{OC} is more sensitive to surface passivation, and the values measured for these cells are not consistent with high quality passivation. Further work should explore the addition of extra interlayers to improve the passivation quality. Another significant gain in cell performance comes from an increase of FF by an absolute 5.5%, which is directly attributable to the reduction of the contact resistivity presented in Figure 2. Globally, the improvement in V_{oc} , J_{sc} and *FF* demonstrates very promising electron selective properties for these alkali and alkaline earth metal carbonates.



Figure 3: Device results with full-area rear carbonate electron heterocontacts. (a) shows the silicon solar device schematic. (b) presents the light *J*-*V* behavior measured under standard one sun conditions for cells without and with ~1 nm carbonate interlayers. (c) shows the detailed electrical parameters (V_{OC} , J_{SC} , *FF and PCE*) for different carbonate films.

For any new contact-formation technology, even if successful in the lab, the thermal stability and environment reliability of the solar cell devices remain as important considerations. One set of solar cells with ~ 1 nm carbonate interlayers was annealed in forming gas for 10 minutes at different temperatures in the range 250 °C – 500 °C, whereas another set was submitted to a standard 1000-hour damp heat test at 85 °C and 85% relative humidity. The relative change of the electrical parameters of the solar cells with respect to the control devices before treatment is plotted in Figures 4 (a) and (b) for the two tests, respectively. As can be seen in Figure 4(a), the cell parameters are essentially stable up to 350 °C for all the carbonates, and then start deteriorating when the annealing temperature increases further. It is worth mentioning that we do not observe a significant difference in thermal stability among the six carbonates studied here. In contrast, only the solar cells with Cs₂C_xO_y and BaC_xO_y contacts survive the 1000-hour damp heat test, maintaining > 95% of their initial performance. This behaviour might be related to the fact that the two metal ions have the largest atomic numbers of the six explored here.^[18]



Figure 4: Thermal and environmental stability of the solar devices. The relative changes in electrical parameters (V_{oc} , J_{sc} , *FF*, and *PCE*) are plotted as function of annealing temperature and damp heat test duration.

In summary, six different alkali and alkaline earth metal carbonates have been demonstrated to function as effective and stable electron contacts for silicon solar cells, enabling significant gains in performance over a control device with Al directly on *n*-Si. It is further shown that all the carbonate/Al contacted solar cells are thermally stable up to 350 °C, and that two of the carbonate/Al contacts (Cs and Ba) pass the standard 1000hour damp heat test at 85°C and 85% relative humidity. The abundance, low temperature deposition, and simple, yet effective, electron contact structure of these materials, pave the way for designing and fabricating novel cathodes for low-cost silicon solar cells.

Experimental Section

Carbonates films were thermally evaporated at a rate of 0.1 Å/s and a base pressure of $< 1 \times 10^{-6}$ Torr from a series of Sigma-Aldrich carbonate powder sources, as summarised below.

Material	Potassium	Rubidium	Caesium	Calcium	Strontium	Barium
	carbonate	carbonate	carbonate	carbonate	carbonate	carbonate
Purity (%)	99.995	99.8	99.995	99.999	99.995	99.999

XPS characterizations were performed on carbonates/Al coated singleside polished c-Si wafers using a Kratos AXIS Ultra DLD system, under ultrahigh vacuum with a monochromatic Al K α X-ray source and a hemispherical analyzer. Secondary electron cut-off with X-ray excitation was employed for work function measurements. Voigt lineshapes were used to fit core level spectra, and film stoichiometry was extracted based on the resulting peak areas. A gold reference was used in the same session to verify instrument work function, and to provide a reference for the work functions reported.

Contact resistivity test samples for carbonates/AI electron contacts were fabricated on Czochralski (Cz) *n*-Si wafers. Shadow masks were used to pattern an array of circular pads with different diameters upon thermal evaporation. The rear of the contact samples was phosphorus diffused (n^+) to minimize the contribution of the rear AI/Si contact. A Keithley 2425 source-meter was used to conduct current-voltage (*I-V*) measurements at room temperature. The resistance versus diameter trend was fitted with a spreading resistance model, enabling extraction of contact resistance ρ_c .

Proof-of-concept solar cells were fabricated on Cz *n*-Si wafers with a resistivity of ~1.0 Ωcm and a thickness of ~180 µm. The sunward side of cells features an array of random pyramids,^[19-23] ~110 Ω/□ boron diffusion, and then ~20 nm ALD Al₂O₃ and ~65 nm PECVD silicon nitride.^[24] The rear silicon surfaces were then coated with the carbonates electron contacts (i.e., ~1 nm carbonates / 200 nm Al). The front metal grid contacts with 10 µm width lines and 1.3 mm pitch were patterned via photolithography, followed by thermal evaporation of a Cr (~10 nm) / Pd (~10 nm) / Ag (~100 nm) stack, and finally thickened by Ag electroplating. The light *J*-*V* behaviour was measured by a solar simulator from Sinton Instruments under standard one sun conditions (100 mW/cm², AM1.5 spectrum, 25 °C), calibrated with a certified Fraunhofer CalLab reference cell.

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