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Equivalent-circuit and transport-based mobility models of microcrystalline silicon solar cells

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Abstract

Microcrystalline silicon thin film solar cells exhibit optimal PV efficiency when the absorber layer contains similar proportions of crystalline and amorphous phases. When the crystalline fraction is reduced below 30%, efficiency falls very steeply, from around 8% to as low as 2%, and does not recover until fully amorphous growth conditions are established. We demonstrate that an electrical model, comprising two parallel-connected diodes scaled to reflect material composition, qualitatively predicts the features observed in the PV parameters. However the scale of the reduction in fill-factor is not reproduced. As an alternative approach, a homogeneous transport model is proposed in which carrier mobilities are scaled in accordance with values determined by the time-of-flight experiment. This model predicts a large reduction in fill-factor for low-crystallinity absorbers more in keeping with measurement. A novel carrier transport landscape is proposed to account for mobility variations.

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1. Introduction

The structural and optoelectronic properties of thin-film silicon may be controlled by the use of a process gas consisting of silane diluted in hydrogen. At silane concentrations $SC = [\text{SiH}_4]/([\text{H}_2] + [\text{SiH}_4])$ typically below 10% under VHF PECVD conditions, mixed-phase microcrystalline silicon of good optoelectronic quality, consisting of

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similar volumes of crystalline and amorphous material, may be deposited. By careful adjustment of process parameters, solar cells with optimized PV conversion efficiencies in excess of 8% can be achieved, with open-circuit voltages V_{OC} in the region of 500-550 mV [1].

As SC is varied either side of this optimum concentration there is a reduction in solar cell efficiency. In the more crystalline material deposited at low SC , this may be linked to an increase in spin density [2] arising from silicon dangling bonds at the crystalline column boundaries. Such bulk defects may be responsible for reduced cell performance [3]. It is believed that the column boundaries are passivated to some extent by the amorphous phase in mixed-phase material, leading to improved electronic properties. As SC is increased, the crystalline fraction continues to fall and the optical band-gap of the absorber and V_{OC} increase. Ultimately a point is reached where both the fill-factor FF and short-circuit current density J_{SC} decrease rapidly, and PV efficiency drops to as low as 2%. Further increase in SC yields nominally amorphous films containing no detectable crystalline volume fraction when analyzed by Raman spectroscopy, and the efficiency begins gradually to improve. By re-optimization of the deposition conditions in this regime good-quality solar cells may again be obtained, with V_{OC} now in the region 850-1000 mV [4]. Thus there are two regimes which, when approached from the microcrystalline and amorphous ‘ends’ of the silane : hydrogen dilution spectrum, may yield efficient solar cells, albeit with quite different spectral response, short-circuit current and open-circuit voltage.

Why solar cells with ‘low-crystallinity’ or ‘Raman amorphous’ absorber layers, lying between these two regimes, exhibit such poor PV performance forms the central question of this work. ESR studies [2] have shown that paramagnetic defects remain at a low level, and thus there is no reason to suspect an increase in defect-mediated recombination. It has been suggested that changes in growth conditions may instead give rise to local degradation of the $p-i$ interface [5] and the formation of a space-charge which acts as a barrier to transport. This view is supported by the improved performance of cells containing buffer layers (see reference [6] for example), but these appear only to defer the decline in performance. More recently, time-of-flight (TOF) transport measurements [7, 10] have been carried out which indicate that in the low-crystallinity regime, both electron and hole bulk mobilities are significantly reduced relative to their values in optimized microcrystalline silicon films [11]. Indeed, the electron mobility appears even lower than in good-quality *amorphous* films. These variations in transport properties with composition were recently investigated by the present authors and their co-workers, by means of two-beam photogating measurements [12].

Here we consider two alternative modelling approaches to explain solar cell behaviour in the low-crystallinity region, each based on bulk, rather than interface, properties. The first may be termed an equivalent-circuit method. This is a more quantitative PSPICE [13] implementation of a proposal by the UniSolar group [14, 15] in which microcrystalline and amorphous phases in an inhomogeneous absorber layer are represented by two parallel-connected photodiodes, the photocurrent generation and diode transport parameters being scaled in proportion to the volume fraction of the constituents. This model was shown to predict *qualitatively* the observed increase in V_{OC} with increasing amorphous content, and with light-soaking, and is consistent with conductive AFM measurement of local current flows in mixed-phase material down to quite low volume fractions. We note that a similar approach comprising a mesh of discrete diode-resistor elements was proposed by the IPE Stuttgart group [16] to investigate the related issue of statistical fluctuations in homogeneity in a generalised solar cell. The second approach used here is based on solution of the transport equations, assuming multiple-trapping kinetics in a model density of states (DOS) consisting of exponential conduction and valence band tails and a Gaussian distribution of amphoteric dangling bond mid-gap defect states. Specifically, we investigate the influence of varying the electron and hole extended-state mobility, in keeping with the TOF results, on the solar cell parameters.

2. Experimental

2.1. Solar cell preparation

Cells were prepared in p-i-n sequence using a cluster-tool system, as described previously [17, 18]. The i-layer was deposited by PECVD at 20 W VHF power, at a rate of typically 0.3 - 1 nm/s onto a 10 cm × 10 cm glass substrate held at 200 °C. A series of depositions at SC between 5% and 15% were carried out, with nominal i-layer

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