RESEARCH ARTICLE

The role of heterointerfaces and subgap energy states on transport mechanisms in silicon heterojunction solar cells

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Funding information
European Union’s Horizon 2020 Programme for Research, Technological Development and Demonstration, Grant/Award Number: 727523

Abstract
The contact resistivity is a key parameter to reach high conversion efficiency in solar cells, especially in architectures based on the so-called carrier-selective contacts. The importance of contact resistivity relies on the evaluation of the quality of charge collection from the absorber bulk through adjacent electrodes. The electrode usually consists of a stack of layers entailing complex charge transport processes. This is especially the case of silicon heterojunction (SHJ) contacts. Although it is known that in thin-film silicon, the transport is based on subgap energy states, the mechanisms of charge collection in SHJ systems is not fully understood yet. Here, we analyse the physical mechanisms driving the exchange of charge among SHJ layers with the support of rigorous numerical simulations that reasonably replicate experimental results. We observe a connection between recombination and collection of carriers. Simulation results reveal that charge transport depends on the alignment and the nature of energy states at heterointerfaces. Our results demonstrate that transport based on direct energy transitions is more efficient than transport based on subgap energy states. Particularly, for positive charge collection, energy states associated to dangling bonds support the charge exchange more efficiently than tail states. The conditions for optimal carrier collection rely on the Fermi energy of the layers, in terms of activation energy of doped layers and carrier concentration of transparent conductive oxide. We observe that fill factor (FF) above 86% concurrently with 750-mV open circuit voltage can be attained in SHJ solar cells with $\rho_c$ lower than 45 $\text{m}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}^2$ for the p-contact and 20 $\text{m}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}^2$ for the n-contact. Furthermore, for achieving optimal contact resistivity, we provide engineering guidelines that are valid for a wide range of silicon materials from amorphous to nanocrystalline layers.

KEYWORDS
charge collection, contact resistivity, interdigitated back contact (IBC), optoelectrical simulations, silicon heterojunction solar cells, trap-assisted tunnelling, tunnelling
1 | INTRODUCTION

Silicon heterojunction (SHJ) solar cells combine crystalline silicon (c-Si) as bulk absorber with thin-film silicon technology as transport stacks for high efficiency based on carrier-selective contacts (CSC). SHJ contact stack typically consists of hydrogenated intrinsic amorphous silicon (i-a-SiH) layer followed by a doped thin-film silicon1–4 (eventually alloyed with oxygen5–14 or carbon15–17) and a transparent conductive oxide (TCO). The purpose of these layers is to provide the so-called contact selectivity by inducing an electric potential inside the c-Si for carrier separation that allows the collection of one type of carriers while repelling the other. Brendel and Peibst18 proposed the quantification of the selectivity by using a parameter that is inversely proportional to recombination parameter (J0)19 and contact resistivity (ρc). Similarly, the selective transport20 is defined as the ratio of local generation (current) between collecting and no-collecting carriers.21 In fact, high selectivity values reflect high quality of CSC and vice versa, requiring both low J0 and ρc values or high current of collecting carriers and minimal current of no-collecting carriers. Accordingly, ρc entails the complex electronic transport of carriers, governed by potential barriers and energy discontinuities at interfaces,22–25 which are related to the flow of collecting carriers. Additionally, for SHJ contact stack endowed with thin-film silicon layers, ρc includes charge transport processes through subgap energy states.26–31 Altogether, owing to the complexity of SHJ contact stacks, the driving mechanisms of charge transport in SHJ solar cells are not fully understood, yet. In this respect, rigorous advanced simulation tools can elucidate such physical phenomena.

Besides, Adachi et al.32 demonstrated that reducing carrier recombination also increases the fill factor (FF), thus revealing a link between recombination and resistive losses. This insight anticipated the world-record c-Si conversion efficiency above 26% by combining high passivation quality with low contact resistance.33 Similarly, research groups reported that in SHJ solar cells, high efficiency depends not only on outstanding passivation but also on low ρc.34–37

In particular, Lachenal et al.36 and Lee et al.38 demonstrated remarkable efficiency improvements by minimizing ρc. For practical purposes, it is worth noting that among all available techniques for measuring ρc, the most straightforward is the transfer length method (TLM).25,37 Experimentally,1,34–36 it has been proved that minimizing ρc of SHJ contact stack system is crucial to reach high efficiency devices. Hence, it is of great interest to investigate the charge transfer mechanisms leading to ρc.

In this context, the use of advanced simulations tools is imperative to understand charge transfer mechanisms and their relation to ρc and recombination. In this work, based on rigorous TCAD simulations, we present an analysis of the competitive physical mechanisms driving ρc for SHJ contact systems. Accordingly, we analyse the transport processes as charge transfer mechanisms supported by not only energy states in conduction or valence band but also subgap states surrounding heterointerfaces. Then, to evaluate the connection between recombination and transport, we deploy and simulate the same SHJ layers in interdigitated back contact (IBC) devices to correlate ρc, Voc and FF. Finally, we provide practical insights to reduce ρc, thus providing guidelines for improving not only IBC devices but also other solar cell architectures based on SHJ approach. The first results and validation of this investigation were presented in Procel et al.39

2 | CONTACT RESISTIVITY AND TRANSPORT MECHANISMS

To elucidate the intertwined effects of the transport processes, we use contact resistance (ρc) as indicator of transport quality. Figure 1A depicts a schematic of TLM measurement structure that consists of two equivalent contacts stack featuring a contact resistance (Rc), separated by a known distance (L). Subsequently, from dark current density–voltage (J–V) curves, calculated for different L, we extract Rc with its equivalent ρc as well as the contribution of the semiconductor resistance (Rs) with the equivalent sheet resistance.40 In particular, we

**FIGURE 1** (A) Schematic of transfer length method (TLM) structures for contact resistivity (ρc) calculation. Contact resistance (Rc) comprises the whole contact stack, from c-Si bulk: i-a-Si (yellow)/doped a-Si (red: n-type, green: p-type)/transparent conductive oxide (TCO) (light blue)/metal (grey) (thicknesses are not in scale). Rc is extracted from current density–voltage (J–V) curves evaluated for different semiconductor resistance (Rs) by changing the contact gap (L). (B) Equivalent lumped resistors indicating resistive losses in interdigitated back contact (IBC) silicon heterojunction (SHJ) devices: contact resistance for n- (Rcn) and p-contact (Rcp) and bulk resistance (Rsbulk) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]
analyse IBC devices featuring 96% of TCO/metal area coverage to highlight the charge collection through thin-film silicon layers and heterointerfaces up to metal neglecting any effect of the lateral path inside the contact stack. Therefore, $\rho_c$ allows for calculating the contact resistance contribution in IBC-SHJ devices (see Figure 1B): $R_n$ for n-contact and $R_p$ for the p-contact. For a proper evaluation of $\rho_c$, the doping type of the base is assumed to have the same doping type of the contact layer stack under analysis, thus avoiding current-blocking effects due to reverse polarization of $p$-$n$ junction. To assess the transport mechanisms through a TLM structure, we firstly analyse the energy band diagram, as Figure 2 shows. Interestingly, $\rho_c$ is a measurable parameter that describes the local generation of collecting carriers through the complete contact stack, including (i) c-Si carrier accumulation at interfaces with transport stacks (band bending); (ii) potential barrier formed by i-a-Si:H and doped layer, including band offset at c-Si/i-a-Si:H and doped layer/TCO interfaces; and (iii) available energy states in i-a-Si:H, doped layer and TCO. Such a complex contact system exhibits different transport processes for n- and p-contact stack. In this respect, minimal $\rho_c$ maximizes the selective transport by allowing the maximal flow of collecting carriers through the electrode.

In n-contact case (see Figure 2A), the current flow is based on the movement of electrons across the conduction band. Then, transport through heterointerfaces is based on direct tunnelling (DT) also called field emission, thermionic emission (TE) and/or supported with intermediate subgap states in the so-called trap-assisted tunnelling (TAT). This mechanism, as it will be explained later, can be either enabled by tail states (TSs) energy states (TAT-TS) or dangling bond energy states (TAT-DBS).

In p-contact case (see Figure 2B), the current flow is based on the movement of positive charges along the valence band of c-Si, i-a-Si:H and p-layer (holes) and TCO conduction band (electrons). In particular, the transport of holes in the valence band is based on DT and TE. At p-layer/TCO interface, the transition from holes to electrons and vice versa from (to) the valence band of p-layer to (from) conduction band of TCO is based on band-to-band tunnelling (B2BT) or TAT. B2BT processes are possible with the proper band alignment of valence band of p-layer with conduction band of TCO across equivalent energy states. Such condition is fulfilled if the activation energy ($E_a$) of p-layer is lower than the energy gap between TCO conduction band and Fermi energy. Besides, subgap energy states also act as carrier reservoir for charge transfer or charge trapping within capture and emission processes (recombination), also known as TAT. Furthermore, the dynamics of capture and emission processes is driven by the Fermi energy relative to defect energy distribution for equivalent capture and emission probability that enables charge transfer mechanisms. Hence, material parameters associated to Fermi-level energy, such as $E_F$ for doped layers and $N_{TCO}$, ultimately drive the transport of charges through SHJ contact stack.

3 | SIMULATION APPROACH

Figure 1A shows a sketch of the cross section of the simulated TLM structure. On top of a c-Si bulk, two identical contact stacks are localized and spaced by variable gaps (L) (200, 400, 800, 1600 and 2000 nm). Each contact width (W) is 1000 µm, and the stack is formed by 6 nm of i-a-Si:H, 20 nm of doped silicon layer and 140 nm of TCO. Bulk doping is assumed 3 Ω·cm for n-type and 8 Ω·cm for p-type to calculate $\rho_c$ for n- or p-contact, respectively. The reason for choosing such bulk resistivity stands for the fact that they both exhibit a Fermi level of 250 meV separated from conduction or valence band for n- and p-type, respectively; therefore, the transport conditions inside the absorber bulk are similar for n-contact (electrons) and p-contact (holes). Models and material parameters as well as geometrical parameters for TLM and IBC device are detailed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. Based on finite element simulator TCAD Sentaurus, the drift-diffusion equations are numerically solved, consistently including all
the transport processes described in Section 2. J-V curves in dark conditions (0 < V < 1 V) are evaluated for different contact spacing to calculate ρc, emulating TLM process. In case of no perfectly linear J-V curve, we limit the voltage range to less than 0.15 V, for which the J-V characteristic is sufficiently linear.40

To evaluate the contact stack system, we focus our study on material parameters related to Fermi-level energy: Ea for doped layers and TCO carrier concentration (N_{TCO}), assuming N_{TCO} as active dopants. Ea is a measurable parameter describing the energy difference between Fermi level and conduction (valence) band in n-type (p-type) silicon thin-film layers, whereas N_{TCO} establishes the Fermi-energy position relative to the TCO conduction band. Accordingly, low Ea values mean more doping whereas higher N_{TCO} values imply low work function. Experimentally, low Ea values typically correspond to nanocrystalline silicon material whereas high values correspond to amorphous silicon layers. To adjust Ea in the doped layer, we use a constant doping in addition to energy states distribution as described in Table 1. We consider reasonably attainable values of Ea from 20 up to 350 meV for n-contact and from 30 to 450 meV for p-contact. TCO is modelled on the basis of ITO parameters as degenerate semiconductor55 with corresponding values reported in Table 1. Additionally, we include the evaluation of N_{TCO} effect for a range of values from 1 × 10^{19} up to 1 × 10^{21} cm^{-3}. It is worth noting that transport processes through heterointerfaces in the electrode stack are almost insensitive to parameters reported in Table 1 as explained in Section 2. Therefore, we assume constant such parameters within our analysis.

### Table 1: Summary of models input parameters and material parameters used in simulations

| Crystalline silicon | Model/parameter | Simulated model |
|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|
| Bandgap narrowing | Schenk49        |                 |
| Mobility           | Klaassen50      |                 |
| Intrinsic carrier density | Altermatt et al.51 | 9.65 × 10^{17} cm^{-3} at 300 K |
| Free carrier statistics | Fermi–Dirac    |                 |
| Intrinsic recombination | Richter et al.52 |             |
| Bulk SRH lifetime | 10 ms          |                 |
| Surface recombination velocity | 0.1 cm/s      |                 |
| Bulk resistivity | 5 (n-type)/8 (p-type) Ω·cm |        |

| SHJ contact materials and properties |
|--------------------------------------|
| Parameter | i-a-Si:H | n-layer | p-layer | TCO |
| Electron affinity (eV) | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 4.9 |
| Band gap (eV) | 1.7 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 3.7 |
| Effective CB DOS (cm^{-3}) | 2 × 10^{20} | 2 × 10^{20} | 2 × 10^{20} | 4 × 10^{18} |
| Effective VB DOS (cm^{-3}) | 2 × 10^{20} | 2 × 10^{20} | 2 × 10^{20} | 1.7 × 10^{19} |
| Electron/hole mobility (cm^3V^{-1}s^{-1}) | 20/4 | 25/5 | 25/5 | 160/40 |
| Thickness (nm) | 6 | 20 | 20 | 140 |
| Activation energy (meV) | Variable | Variable | Variable | - |
| Tunnelling mass (m_0^a) | 0.1 (Shannon and Nieuwesteeg53) | 0.1 (Shannon and Nieuwesteeg53) | 0.1 (Shannon and Nieuwesteeg53) | - |
| Urbach energy (VB tail) (meV) | 50 | 94 | 120 | - |
| Urbach energy (CB tail) (meV) | 35 | 68 | 80 | - |
| Urbach tail pre-factor (cm^{-3} eV^{-1}) | 1.88 × 10^{21} | 2 × 10^{21} | 2 × 10^{21} | - |
| Urbach tail e/h capture cross section (cm^{-2}) | 7 × 10^{-16} | 7 × 10^{-16} | 7 × 10^{-16} | - |
| Gaussian peak defect density (cm^{-3} eV^{-1}) | 1.38 × 10^{16} | 1.31 × 10^{20} | 1.31 × 10^{20} | - |
| Gaussian donor peak position (eV) | 0.89 | 0.5 | 1.1 | - |
| Gaussian acceptor peak position (eV) | 1.09 | 0.6 | 1.2 | - |
| Gaussian donor e/h capture cross section (cm^{-2}) | 3 × 10^{-14}/3 × 10^{-15} | 3 × 10^{-14}/3 × 10^{-15} | 3 × 10^{-14}/3 × 10^{-15} | - |
| Gaussian acceptor e/h capture cross section (cm^{-2}) | 3 × 10^{-15}/3 × 10^{-14} | 3 × 10^{-15}/3 × 10^{-14} | 3 × 10^{-15}/3 × 10^{-14} | - |

*m_0 is electron rest mass.
in order to concisely evaluate the transport mechanisms at contact layers.

Subsequently, to understand the relation of $\rho_c$ with recombination and solar cell external parameters, we performed numerical simulations of IBC structure\textsuperscript{21} (see Figure 1B) using the same contact stack to calculate the external parameters of the solar cell: short circuit current density ($J_{sc}$), open circuit voltage ($V_{oc}$), fill factor ($FF$) and conversion efficiency ($\eta$). In order to highlight the main effect of the individual contact under study (n- or p-contact), we assume minimal resistivity contribution from the other contact, by setting the corresponding $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ values for minimal $\rho_c$. Similarly, we consider negligible lateral transport inside bulk, by using relatively small but still realistic 320 $\mu$m half pitch. It is worth noting that this approach can be potentially extended to any system of materials based on silicon alloys (e.g., SiO$_x$ or SiC$_x$) or even using multilayer stacks as reported in Procel et al.\textsuperscript{21} In this work, however, we simulate fully amorphous or nanocrystalline Si layers.

At last, we assume in this work as ohmic the TCO/metal contact in order to emphasize the effect of transport mechanisms explained in Section 2.

4 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As discussed in Section 2, $E_a$ together with $N_{TCO}$ strongly affect the carrier transport and, therefore, $\rho_c$ in SHJ contact stacks. Accordingly, we performed a set of simulations combining doped layers featuring different $E_a$ values with TCO films exhibiting different values of $N_{TCO}$ as described in Section 3. The results of this sensitivity study are graphically explained below in a series of contour plots, elucidating the impact of competitive mechanisms associated to $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ on $\rho_c$, $V_{oc}$ and $FF$. Then, we analyse $FF$ and $V_{oc}$ to correlate transport and recombination mechanisms to $\rho_c$. As reported in Procel et al.\textsuperscript{29} we observe that our simulations accurately reproduce the inner physics of contact stack systems for a wide range of combinations of $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$.

4.1 | p-Contact

Figure 3A reports the trend of simulated $\rho_c$ as a function of $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ together with experimentally measured $\rho_c$ values of p-type contact stack. Our calculations reasonably replicate experimental results as previously reported in Procel et al.\textsuperscript{29} The variation of $\rho_c$ values follows different combination of trends, revealing different dominating transport mechanisms depending on $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$. To understand the charge transfer processes, we estimated p-layer $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ values that concurrently allow the required band alignment for B2BT or either TAT (see Section 2). Accordingly, Figure 3B shows which mechanism, B2BT or TAT, is dominant in the range of parameters investigated.

| TABLE 2 | Summary of geometrical parameters for transfer length method (TLM) and interdigitated back contact (IBC) device |

| Parameter | Value |
|-----------|-------|
| **TLM parameters** | |
| Substrate thickness | 250 $\mu$m |
| Contact width | 1000 $\mu$m |
| Contact gap | Varied |
| **IBC parameters** | |
| Substrate thickness | 100 $\mu$m |
| Pitch | 325 $\mu$m |
| p-contact width | 200 $\mu$m |
| n-contact width | 124 $\mu$m |

Abbreviations: IBC, interdigitated back contact; TLM, transfer length method.

**FIGURE 3** (A) Contour plot of $\rho_c$ for p-contact stack as a function of $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$. Squared symbols indicate experimentally measured $\rho_c$.\textsuperscript{29} (B) Dominating transport process for positive charge collection as a function of $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ and their impact on $V_{oc}$ and $FF$, according to energy alignment of transparent conductive oxide (TCO) conduction band with (i) p-layer valance band (band-to-band tunnelling [B2BT]), (ii) trap-assisted tunnelling (TAT) enabled by tail states energy states (TAT-TS) and (iii) TAT enabled by dangling bond energy states (TAT-DBS). Black lines indicate threshold values of $N_{TCO}$ and $E_a$ for which one transport process takes over another [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]
In case of charge transfer controlled by B2BT processes (see Figure 3B), ρc trend is mainly dictated by variation in Ea. N_{TCO} effect is evident for E_a < 260 meV revealing a more efficient B2BT by increasing N_{TCO}. In fact, the lowest ρc of 22 mΩ·cm² for p-contact stack corresponds to E_a = 35 meV together with N_{TCO} = 1 × 10^{21} cm^{-3}. In this scenario, looking at the band diagram in Figure 2B, we can conclude that ρc mostly depends on transport mechanisms at c-Si/i-a-Si:H interface, rather than the charge transfer at p-layer/TCO interface, where the B2BT is efficient. It means that c-Si band bending, together with the potential barrier built by i-a-Si:H and doped layer, constrains the charge transport. Interestingly, the conditions for an effective B2BT (lowest ρc values) are twofold: (i) low Ea values that improve c-Si band bending and also lower the potential barrier and (ii) high N_{TCO} values that increase electron accumulation at TCO. The influence of N_{TCO} on ρc is stronger for Ea values close to B2BT to TAT threshold. In particular, such influence is significantly evident for low Ea values, evidencing a transition from B2BT to TAT by lowering N_{TCO} values. Note that TLM J-V curves in B2BT regime result in ohmic (linear) contact behaviour.

In case of charge transport based on TAT processes (see Figure 3B), we observe that ρc values increase by lowering N_{TCO}. In particular, for N_{TCO} < 2 × 10^{19} cm^{-3}, ρc exhibits minimal values for 220 < E_a < 320 meV. This interesting behaviour is explained by looking into the energy of states with similar energy to Fermi energy in Figure 4. As discussed in Section 2, the energy level of subgap states is crucial to define if the state can be charged or discharged in certain conditions. Indeed, energy states with equivalent energy to Fermi level exhibit 50% probability to capture or emit a carrier enabling them for charge transport as TAT processes. Therefore, more active states for TAT mechanism are those located close to Fermi energy and surrounding p-layer/TCO interface. In particular, according to our simulations, active energy states are located up to 10 nm from inside p-layer from TCO interface. Figure 4 illustrates the density of states distribution inside the p-layer. In particular, we observe that valence band TSs support TAT mechanisms if the Fermi energy is located within 0.5 eV from the valence band. Similarly, if the Fermi energy is 0.5 eV above the valence band, dangling bond states (DBSs) support TAT. Figure 3B also shows the combination of E_a and N_{TCO} that enables TAT-based mainly on TS (TAT-TS) or DBS (TAT-DBS). It is worth noting that TAT mainly supported by TAT-TS corresponds to high ρc values revealing that TAT-DBS is more effective than TAT-TS for exchange of charge. Such behaviour might be explained by analysing the amphoteric nature of dangling bonds states compared with the transition processes for valence band TSs. Table 3 summarizes the transition processes for valence band TSs and DBSs dominating the charge transfer from p-layer to TCO. These transitions correspond to capture processes exhibiting recombination behaviour as Figure 5 graphically reports.
**TABLE 3** Transition processes in valence band tail states (TSs) and dangling bond states (DBSs) for trap-assisted tunnelling (TAT)

| Valence band tail states TAT-TS transitions | Dangling bond states TAT-DBS transitions |
|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| \( T^0 + h_p \rightarrow T^+ \)           | \( D^0 + h_p \rightarrow D^+ \)          |
| \( T^+ + e_{TCO} \rightarrow T^0 \)     | \( D^+ + e_{TCO} \rightarrow D^0 \)    |

Note: For simplicity, \( T \) indicates a single-hole state, whereas \( D \) indicates a dangling bond state.

For TAT-TS, transition processes are based on single-hole states (\( T \)), which are favourable for transport of holes inside p-layer (\( h_p \)). However, such states are able to capture an electron from TCO (\( e_{TCO} \)) if, and only if, they are positively charged (\( T^+ \)). It means that a neutral state (\( T^0 \)) can be only positively charged by an \( h_p \) (\( T^+ \)), allowing thus the capture of \( e_{TCO} \) and the apparent transfer of positive charge into TCO. In case of TAT-DBS, transitions from neutral states (\( D^0 \)) are available for capturing both \( h_p \) and \( e_{TCO} \). Accordingly, charged DBSs (\( D^+ \) and \( D^- \)) promote the transport of charge by capturing whether \( e_{TCO} \) or \( h_p \). Indeed, this multistate nature of dangling bonds enhances recombination mechanisms, facilitating the positive charge transport to TCO. Hence, for charge transport between p-layer and TCO, TAT-DBS mechanisms (multistate) are more favourable than TAT-TS (single state) (see Figure 5). This fact is of particular relevance, because it links defect manipulation in thin-film Si layers to carrier collection improvements, for instance, the enhancement of \( V_{OC} \) and FF by applying light soaking on SHJ devices. In fact, in TAT regime, transport processes are sensitive to the energy states distribution (nature, energy and density of energy states).

According to Figure 3A,B, TAT-TS dominates charge transport for \( E_a \) lower than 250 meV and \( N_{TCO} \) below \( 5 \times 10^{19} \) \( \text{cm}^{-3} \). Here, inefficient TAT-TS hinders the transport of carriers, notwithstanding the strong hole accumulation at c-Si/i-a-Si:H interface (c-Si band bending). For low \( E_a \) values, increasing \( N_{TCO} \) eventually enables B2BT, explaining the sharp \( \rho_c \) decrease from \( 1 \times 10^3 \) to \( 400 \) \( \Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2 \) varying \( N_{TCO} \) from \( 5 \times 10^{19} \) to \( 1 \times 10^{20} \) \( \text{cm}^{-3} \). Similarly, increasing \( E_a \) expands the space charge region inside p-layer from TCO interface, thus relaxing the alignment of Fermi level with energy states that additionally include dangling bonds with TSs for lower \( \rho_c \) values. In case of transport mechanisms dominated by TAT-DBS (see Figure 3B), hole accumulation at c-Si interface (band bending) also plays a role on tunnelling processes (see Section 2), thus explaining the sharp decrease from \( 1 \) to \( 0.6 \) for \( N_{TCO} \) values.

Figure 6 reports simulated FF as a function of \( N_{TCO} \) for different p-layer activation energy (\( E_a \)) assuming minimal n-contact resistance [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].
meaning that Fermi level and valence band energy are equivalent close to c-Si/i-a-Si:H interface. However, for $E_a > 380$ meV and $N_{TCO} < 1 \times 10^{19}$ cm$^{-3}$, high $\rho_c$ affects also $V_{OC}$ because subgap energy states act as recombination centres for collecting holes with non-collecting electrons from the absorber bulk rather than electrons from TCO layer. Besides, high $V_{OC}$ calls for low $E_a$ values that are typically associated to nanocrystalline structures. However, high $V_{OC}$ values do not necessarily imply high FF. Indeed, looking at Figures 3B, 6 and 7, high $V_{OC}$ is associated to high FF when charge transport is based on B2BT mechanisms. Therefore, high-quality transport of positive charge is established by two conditions: (i) strong band bending inside absorber bulk and (ii) band alignment at p-layer/TCO interface for B2BT. Moreover, $V_{OC}$ values depends only on the quality of the c-Si band bending resulting from the electrical potential induced by surrounding layers, whereas FF additionally depends on the quality of charge collection at p-layer/TCO interface. Besides, we highlight that $FF > 80\%$ is possible when transport is supported by TAT-DBS, whereas transport based only on TAT-TS limits FF to values below 80\%.

4.2 | n-Contact

As discussed in Section 2, collection of charge through the n-contact implies TAT, TE or DT. Figure 8 shows the trend of simulated $\rho_c$ as a function of $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ together with experimentally measured $\rho_c$ values for n-type contact stack. Also in this case, our calculations reasonably replicate experimental results. $\rho_c$ exhibits a quite uniform trend in the whole simulation domain with progressively lower values by decreasing $E_a$ and increasing $N_{TCO}$. In particular, we observe that $\rho_c < 20$ m$\Omega$-cm$^2$ corresponds to $E_a < 190$ meV independently of $N_{TCO}$. Furthermore, we observe generally low $\rho_c$ Figure 8 values with a maximum value of $10^3$ m$\Omega$-cm$^2$. This value is two order of magnitude lower than the maximum achieved for p-type contact (see Figure 3A). Here, the charge transfer through n-contact stack occurs only in the conduction band (see Figure 2). Low $E_a$ values are favourable for charge transport because they (i) enhance the conduction band bending inside c-Si improving carrier states at c-Si/i-a-Si:H interface and (ii) lower the potential barrier, increasing the tunnelling probability for whatever TAT, TE or DT. Note that in this case, it is not possible to differentiate each individual contribution, because all mechanisms exhibit similar effects on transport owing to the proven band alignment between conduction bands. High $N_{TCO}$ values entail a reduction of TCO work function, which positively affects the collection of electrons. Looking at the cell results in Figures 9 and 10, FF and $V_{OC}$ follow similar trends. $V_{OC}$ and FF are almost insensitive to $N_{TCO}$ for $E_a$ lower than 230 meV. For $E_a$ values higher than 230 meV, FF and $V_{OC}$ exhibit an increase trend by rising $N_{TCO}$. This is ascribed to the positive influence of TCO work function effect that becomes apparent by lowering the potential barrier size. Interestingly, for $\rho_c < 20$ m$\Omega$-cm$^2$ ($E_a < 190$ meV), both $V_{OC}$ and FF reach a plateau. We calculate optimal $V_{OC} = 754$ mV and FF = 86.6% for the minimal $\rho_c = 15$ m$\Omega$-cm$^2$ ($E_a = 20$ meV, $N_{TCO} = 1 \times 10^{21}$ cm$^{-3}$). We observe that the minimal $\rho_c$ for n-contact is lower than minimal $\rho_c$ for p-contact by 8 m$\Omega$-cm$^2$. Such a difference is ascribed to inherent c-Si/i-a-Si:H band offset, that is, around 400 meV larger for hole transport than electron transport. Moreover, if transport is based on DT, B2BT or TE, c-Si band bending at c-Si/i-a-Si:H interface affects the quality of tunnelling processes, thus lowering $\rho_c$ values. It means that a strong c-Si band bending reduces $\rho_c$ and vice versa. The band bending inside c-Si also depends on Fermi-level energy with respect to conduction or valence band in the quasineutral region. Accordingly, by changing wafer resistivity (changing Fermi-level position in c-Si bulk) also affects the band bending, which eventually impacts on $\rho_c$ calculations as reported on Lachenal et al.36

Regarding ultimate IBC conversion efficiency, as expected, minimal $\rho_c$ values for n- and p-contact result in the calculated maximal
We have analysed the physical mechanisms driving the charge transport in TCO-based SHJ solar cells. We studied the dominating mechanisms that govern contact resistivity ($\rho_c$) for both p- and n-type contact stacks by varying activation energy ($E_a$) in doped layer and doping concentration in TCO ($N_{TCO}$). The energy alignment and potential barriers at heterointerfaces drive the transport of carriers in terms of tunnelling processes (DT, B2BT or TAT) or TE. Therefore, $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ are relevant parameters as they are related to the Fermi energy and thus to the alignment of energy states (including subgap states). Our calculations are consistent with experimentally retrieved $\rho_c$ values, thus our simulations accurately describe the physical phenomena occurring at heterointerfaces and thin-film layers. The simulation results show that for the n-contact, the transport processes imply alignment of energy states within the conduction band in terms of DT, TAT or TE. In case of p-contact, charge transfer processes are more complex and additionally include B2BT supported also by TAT mechanisms.

For p-contact, our model reveals peculiar $\rho_c$ trends marked by B2BT or TAT mechanisms. In general, transport based on direct energy transitions (B2BT) is more efficient than transport based on transition to subgap energy states (TAT). In particular, among TAT processes, TAT based on dangling bonds (TAT-DBS) are more efficient for charge transport than those based on TSs (TAT-TS). This is because of the amphoteric nature of dangling bonds, which allows more recombination states. Thus, a neutral DBS enables the transport of a hole from the absorber bulk or an electron from TCO, whereas a neutral TS only enables the transport of a hole. If B2BT is dominant, then $\rho_c$ exhibits a clear dependence on $E_a$ rather than $N_{TCO}$, since $\rho_c$ decreases for low $E_a$ values. When TAT controls the transport of carriers, $\rho_c$ depends more on $N_{TCO}$ than $E_a$. In this case, increasing $N_{TCO}$ results in the reduction of $\rho_c$ by relaxing the energy alignment inside the p-layer up to 10 nm, including DBSs at p-layer/TCO interface. Accordingly, more efficient transport of charge could be achieved by increasing DBSs inside the p-layer by annealing, light soaking or bias voltage. Regarding the external parameters of IBC-SHJ solar cell, when B2BT processes dominate the transport of carriers, simulated $V_{OC}$, FF exhibit similar trend to $\rho_c$ owing to induced band bending inside c-Si absorber bulk. In case of TAT regime, FF and $\rho_c$ depend on the alignment of aforementioned dangling bonds or TSs at p-layer/TCO interface whereas $V_{OC}$ is almost insensitive to $N_{TCO}$.

FIGURE 10 $V_{OC}$ as a function of $N_{TCO}$ at for different n-layer activation energy ($E_a$), assuming minimal p-contact resistance [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

$FF = 86.6\%$ and $V_{OC} = 754\, mV$ that also brings $\eta$ well above $26\%$ depending on light management techniques yielding $J_{SC} > 40\, mA/cm^2$. Concerning $J_{SC}$, we observed a variation of less than $0.04\, mA/cm^2$ due to transport processes. In this respect, $J_{SC}$ depends mostly on light management approach rather than transport mechanisms.

Hence, optimizing $\rho_c$ highlights the path for enhancing IBC conversion efficiency. It is worth noting that also other SHJ architectures can be evaluated, but considering more specialized analysis focussed on front contact layers, that additionally include lateral transport inside and surrounding the front contact stack.

5 | CONCLUSIONS

We have analysed the physical mechanisms driving the charge exchange in SHJ contact systems by advanced electrical modelling of TLM contact stacks. We studied the dominating mechanisms that govern contact resistivity ($\rho_c$) for both p- and n-type contact stacks by varying activation energy ($E_a$) in doped layer and doping concentration in TCO ($N_{TCO}$). The energy alignment and potential barriers at heterointerfaces drive the transport of carriers in terms of tunnelling processes (DT, B2BT or TAT) or TE. Therefore, $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ are relevant parameters as they are related to the Fermi energy and thus to the alignment of energy states (including subgap states). Our calculations are consistent with experimentally retrieved $\rho_c$ values, thus our simulations accurately describe the physical phenomena occurring at heterointerfaces and thin-film layers. The simulation results show that for the n-contact, the transport processes imply alignment of energy states within the conduction band in terms of DT, TAT or TE. In case of p-contact, charge transfer processes are more complex and additionally include B2BT supported also by TAT mechanisms.

For p-contact, our model reveals peculiar $\rho_c$ trends marked by B2BT or TAT mechanisms. In general, transport based on direct energy transitions (B2BT) is more efficient than transport based on transition to subgap energy states (TAT). In particular, among TAT processes, TAT based on dangling bonds (TAT-DBS) are more efficient for charge transport than those based on TSs (TAT-TS). This is because of the amphoteric nature of dangling bonds, which allows more recombination states. Thus, a neutral DBS enables the transport of a hole from the absorber bulk or an electron from TCO, whereas a neutral TS only enables the transport of a hole. If B2BT is dominant, then $\rho_c$ exhibits a clear dependence on $E_a$ rather than $N_{TCO}$, since $\rho_c$ decreases for low $E_a$ values. When TAT controls the transport of carriers, $\rho_c$ depends more on $N_{TCO}$ than $E_a$. In this case, increasing $N_{TCO}$ results in the reduction of $\rho_c$ by relaxing the energy alignment inside the p-layer up to 10 nm, including DBSs at p-layer/TCO interface. Accordingly, more efficient transport of charge could be achieved by increasing DBSs inside the p-layer by annealing, light soaking or bias voltage. Regarding the external parameters of IBC-SHJ solar cell, when B2BT processes dominate the transport of carriers, simulated $V_{OC}$, FF exhibit similar trend to $\rho_c$ owing to induced band bending inside c-Si absorber bulk. In case of TAT regime, FF and $\rho_c$ depend on the alignment of aforementioned dangling bonds or TSs at p-layer/TCO interface whereas $V_{OC}$ is almost insensitive to $N_{TCO}$.

Regarding n-contact, our calculations show that $\rho_c$ is more determined by $E_a$ than $N_{TCO}$. In general, decreasing $E_a$ while increasing $N_{TCO}$ results on minimal $\rho_c$ values. By comparing $\rho_c$ in p- and n-contact, for p-contact, $\rho_c$ changes about five orders of magnitude by varying $E_a$ and $N_{TCO}$ whereas n-contact $\rho_c$ varies only two orders of magnitude.

Such a difference reveals that p-contact is more sensitive to layer properties and therefore requires more effort to be optimized. As guideline for optimal contact stack design, we calculated the minimal $\rho_c$ of 22 and 15 mΩ·cm² for p- and n-contact, respectively, corresponding to $E_a < 30\, meV$ and $N_{TCO} > 5 \times 10^{20}\, cm^{-3}$. For such minimal $\rho_c$ values, we calculated 754 mV and 86.6% as the ultimate $V_{OC}$ and FF, respectively. These values can be concurrently achieved and, depending on light management techniques applied, allow to obtain the highest possible conversion efficiency in IBC-SHJ solar cells. Hence, the optimization of $\rho_c$ is practically crucial to achieve high efficiency not only in IBC-SHJ solar cells but also in other architectures. However, the optimization of other SHJ solar cells demands more specialized analysis, focussing on front contact layers that additionally includes lateral transport inside and surrounding the front contact stack.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work has been performed in the framework of NextBase project, that has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 Programme for Research, Technological Development and Demonstration under Grant agreement no. 727523. The authors acknowledge the NextBase project consortium for fruitful discussions.

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How to cite this article: Procel P, Xu H, Saez A, et al. The role of heterointerfaces and subgap energy states on transport mechanisms in silicon heterojunction solar cells. Prog Photovolt Res Appl. 2020;28:935–945. https://doi.org/10.1002/pip.3300

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