

# The use of HfO<sub>2</sub> in a point contact concept for front interface passivation of Cu(In,Ga)Se<sub>2</sub> solar cells

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## ABSTRACT

We report on the use of a high bandgap metal-oxide at the front interface of Cu(In,Ga)Se<sub>2</sub> (CIGS) solar cells in a point contact concept for reduced interface recombination. Highly resistive HfO<sub>2</sub> is applied on the CIGS surface by atomic layer deposition (ALD). Aspects of the surface passivating effect of HfO<sub>2</sub> on CIGS were investigated by time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL), electron beam induced current (EBIC) and capacitance-voltage (C-V) measurements. Two structuring methods for point contact formation are compared, a lithographic top-down and a simple bottom-up approach using NaCl as template. The former method employed a plasma etch step which was found to degrade the performance of solar cells when applied on the CIGS surface. The template method omitted sputtering and allowed patterning of HfO<sub>2</sub> up to 10 nm thickness without adversely impacting the open-circuit voltage (V<sub>OC</sub>). EBIC revealed an improved carrier collection due to the HfO<sub>2</sub> coating and a long term stable PL decay was observed. Yet, the point contact concept with HfO<sub>2</sub> was not significantly influencing the performance of a CIGS solar cell for the investigated parameter range.

## 1. Introduction

Photovoltaic (PV) devices based on chalcogenide Cu(In,Ga)Se<sub>2</sub> (CIGS) absorber layers are among the most promising thin-film PV technologies reaching power conversion efficiencies (PCE) of 20.4% and 23.35% on flexible and rigid substrates [1,2]. The highest device efficiencies were achieved on CIGS absorbers which were subjected to a post deposition treatment (PDT), whereby an additional evaporation of heavy alkali (K, Rb, Cs) fluorides after a NaF treatment is significantly improving device performance [3]. Also, the strong variations in device performance depending on which and how the buffer layer – CdS, Zn(S,O), Zn<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O, In<sub>x</sub>S<sub>y</sub>, Zn<sub>x</sub>Sn<sub>y</sub>O – is applied suggests that the front CIGS/buffer interface is crucial for achieving a high PCE [4].

The concept of using high band gap dielectrics to passivate the front surface with point contacts was successfully developed in Si solar cells with the PERC (passivated emitter and rear cell) structure [5]. Both Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and HfO<sub>2</sub> have shown both chemical and field-effect passivation qualities in Si solar cells [6,7]. Similar considerations motivated the point contact concept for reduced interface recombination in CIGS solar cells at both the rear and front interface. At the rear contact, i.e. at the Mo/CIGS interface, ALD-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> with nanosized openings was successfully applied for thin (< 1.5 μm)

absorber layers [8–12]. For an effective field assisted passivation at the front CIGS interface a positive coulombic charge (repelling holes) is assumed to be beneficial, opposite to what has been suggested for the rear interface by Kotipalli et al. [13]. For Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on CIGS a negative effective charge density (Q<sub>eff</sub>) was determined by CV-measurements on metal-insulator-semiconductor (MIS) structures for a range of CIGS electron affinities (χ) of 3.9–4.5 eV [13]. While for HfO<sub>2</sub> both a negative or positive Q<sub>eff</sub> was reported, depending on the magnitude of χ<sub>CIGS</sub> [14].

A simulation-based study by Sozzi et al. [15] explored the prerequisites for a successful point contact concept at the front interface. They found a strong dependence of the I-V parameters on the geometry of the point contacts (i.e. size and spacing) in the highly resistive oxide layer. Hence the structuring method is expected to play a critical role for this concept, especially on the CIGS surface.

Several approaches for the formation of point contacts have been established, most of them are based on lithographic processing or template approaches. The lithographic methods usually involve the deposition a photoresist which is masked, developed and plasma etched together with the underlying oxide layer. This method has been applied e.g. for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coated Mo as the rear contact of CIGS solar cells [12]. Template approaches involve the application of e.g. SiO<sub>2</sub>, CdS or Mo

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nanospheres for the structuring of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  at either rear or front contact [10,16,17].

Point contacts with a regular spacing are more difficult to achieve at the front interface as compared to the rear due to the surface roughness of CIGS. Hultqvist et al. [16] have shown that structuring of a resistive oxide layer on the front CIGS surface by nanosphere lithography is possible and that  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  is able to improve the device performance compared to a buffer-less device. However, compared to a reference structure with a CdS buffer layer, however, the PCE is significantly lower ( $\sim 50\%$ ).

This report investigates  $\text{HfO}_2$  as high band gap dielectric ( $E_g \sim 5.6 \text{ eV}$  [18]) in a point contact concept at the front CIGS interface. Two structuring procedures were tested, a lithographic and a template-based method. Due to its chemical inertness  $\text{HfO}_2$  can be used in combination with a CBD-CdS, and solar cells with a structured  $\text{HfO}_2$  added to the otherwise standard device structure are processed. The passivating effect of ALD- $\text{HfO}_2$  on the front CIGS surface is evaluated by C-V, TRPL and EBIC measurements.

In the last part the template structuring method is used to insert a thin  $\text{HfO}_2$  layer in between the buffer and window layer to address potential sputtering damage of the window layer deposition.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Sample fabrication

Both MIS devices and solar cells were produced. The general device architecture in case of a MIS device is  $\text{SLG}/\text{SiO}_x/\text{Mo}/\text{CIGS}/\text{HfO}_2/\text{Al}$ . For solar cells the following two structures were investigated:  $\text{SLG}/\text{SiO}_x/\text{Mo}/\text{CIGS}/\text{HfO}_2/\text{CdS}/\text{ZnO}/\text{Al}/\text{ZnO}$  and  $\text{SLG}/\text{SiO}_x/\text{Mo}/\text{CIGS}/\text{CdS}/\text{HfO}_2/\text{ZnO}/\text{Al}/\text{ZnO}$  with the respective reference structures omitting the  $\text{HfO}_2$  layer.

CIGS was deposited by elemental co-evaporation from effusion cells on  $\text{SiO}_x$  and Mo coated soda lime glass (SLG) substrates. The base pressure of the deposition chamber was  $\sim 10^{-7}$  mbar. A multi-stage process was used with either a  $[\text{Ga}]/([\text{Ga}] + [\text{In}])$  (GGI) grading or with a constant GGI (ungraded) as reported before [19]. The absorber layer composition was measured by x-ray fluorescence (XRF). The  $[\text{Cu}]/([\text{In}] + [\text{Ga}])$  (CGI) ratio and the GGI is stated for the respective experiment. A NaF PDT was performed as described in Ref. [20]. The absorber layer thickness was between 2.5 and  $3 \mu\text{m}$  as determined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). A  $\sim 50 \text{ nm}$  thick CdS layer was deposited by chemical bath deposition (CBD) from cadmium acetate (2.3 mM), thiourea (22 mM) and ammonium hydroxide (2 M  $[\text{NH}_3]$ ) at  $70^\circ\text{C}$ . A post deposition annealing at  $180^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 min in air was performed directly after the CBD.

$\text{ZnO}$  ( $\sim 80 \text{ nm}$ ) was deposited by rf-magnetron sputtering in an  $\text{Ar}/\text{O}_2$  (0.02%) atmosphere at a pressure of 0.46 Pa with a power density of  $1.9 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$ .

$\text{HfO}_2$  was deposited by ALD at a substrate temperature of  $220^\circ\text{C}$  (when deposited on ungraded absorbers) or  $175^\circ\text{C}$  (for graded absorbers, to limit any annealing effects) with Ar as carrier gas at a base pressure of 13 Pa in a Fiji G2 system (Ultratech). For samples where CdS was already deposited prior to the ALD process the temperature for the  $\text{HfO}_2$  deposition was reduced to  $120^\circ\text{C}$  (to avoid annealing effects reported e.g. by Koprek et al. [21]). The precursors were tetrakis(dimethylamino)hafnium(IV) (TDMAH, Merck, 4 N+) or trimethylaluminum (TMA, Merck, 97%) (for the deposition of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . TDMAH was kept at  $75^\circ\text{C}$  while TMA and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were unheated. The growth rate was determined by ellipsometry on Si (100) reference substrates and compared to SEM micrographs on CIGS. A linear growth rate of  $\sim 0.1 \text{ nm/cycle}$  was observed.

$\text{Al}/\text{ZnO}$  (2%<sub>wt</sub>  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $1.8 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$ ,  $\sim 150 \text{ nm}$ ) was deposited by magnetron sputtering. On top a Ni/Al grid ( $4 \mu\text{m}$ ) was applied by e-beam evaporation. On some cells (as stated)  $105 \text{ nm}$  of  $\text{MgF}_2$  were applied as anti-reflective coating. A cell area of  $0.29 \pm 0.03 \text{ cm}^2$  was defined by mechanical scribing.

### 2.2. Structuring of oxides

Either hole mask colloidal lithography (HCL) or a template approach with NaCl was used for the structuring of  $\text{HfO}_2$ . HCL is a top-down structuring approach, i.e. it is applied after the deposition of  $\text{HfO}_2$  and hence allows to pattern even relatively thick oxide layers. The procedure involved the deposition of a photoresist (IX-845™), poly (diallyldimethylammonium chloride) PDDA and polystyrene (PS) beads ( $\sim 100 \text{ nm}$ ) followed by a Cr mask evaporation. The PS beads are then removed by tape-stripping and the holes are etched by a 2-step plasma etching step consisting of  $\text{O}_2/\text{Ar}$  and  $\text{SF}_6$  plasma. The PR is then removed by acetone in an ultrasonic bath. The alternative structuring method was performed as a bottom-up approach using NaCl as a template. The samples were dipped in a hot ( $\sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ ) saturated aqueous NaCl solution and dried with  $\text{N}_2$ . After the oxide deposition the samples were washed in an ultrasonic water bath for 3 min.

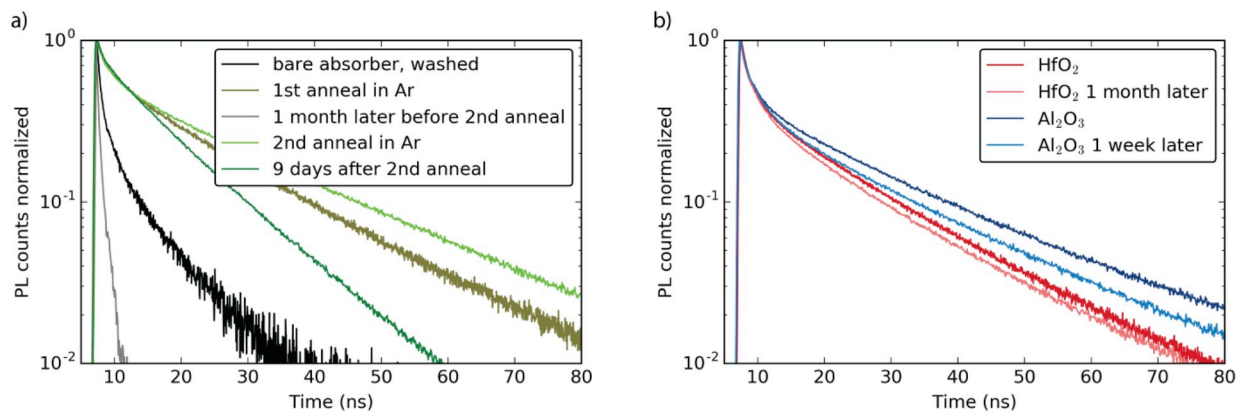
### 2.3. Characterization methods

Current-voltage (I-V) characteristics were measured with a Keithley 2400 source meter and four-terminal sensing under standard test conditions (AM1.5G, 298 K) using a type ABA solar simulator. For temperature dependent measurements a cryostat ( $\text{N}_2$ ) equipped with a halogen lamp was used. External quantum efficiency (EQE) measurements were performed with a chopped halogen light source at 298 K and with  $\sim 100 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  halogen light bias. The setup comprises further a tripple-grating monochromator and a Stanford Instruments lock-in amplifier. The probing light intensity was calibrated using a monocrystalline Si solar cell certified by Fraunhofer ISE. A Shimadzu UV-3600 spectrophotometer was used for transmission and reflectance measurements. SEM was performed on a Hitachi S-4800 electron microscope. Electron beam induced current (EBIC) and the secondary electron (SE) signal were simultaneously recorded with a commercially available system from GATAN. The procedure for sample preparation and measurement can be found in a previous report [22]. An Agilent E4980A LCR meter was used for capacitance measurements (C-f and C-V). Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) measurements were performed with a 639 nm diode laser with a pulse duration of  $\sim 100 \text{ ps}$  in combination with a InGaAs photomultiplier with time correlated single photon counting electronics. The pulse repetition rate was  $\sim 1 \text{ MHz}$ . The typical photon density per pulse was around  $7\text{E}+11 \text{ cm}^{-2}$  as estimated from total laser power measurements with a spot size of about  $50 \mu\text{m}$ .

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization of test structures with uniform oxide layers

Fig. 1 shows the PL decays of three pieces of the same CIGS absorber with about  $20 \text{ nm}$   $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  or  $\text{HfO}_2$  deposited on top or the bare CIGS surface after a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  rinse. An ungraded CIGS absorber layer with a constant GGI (0.36) was used for this experiment to avoid carrier diffusion and recombination in the GGI grading minimum (“notch” region) which could reduce the effect of the surface recombination rate on the total recombination as recently observed [23]. Compared to the bare washed surface of the absorber an oxide layer, either  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  or  $\text{HfO}_2$ , on top seems to prolong the PL decay in a similar way. This effect might not be solely ascribed to a reduced surface recombination rate since a strong annealing effect was observed and similar effective lifetimes ( $\sim 20 \text{ ns}$ ) were obtained for all devices directly after a thermal treatment performed in the ALD reaction chamber in Ar at similar conditions (temperature, time, pressure) as the oxide layer deposition. The difference between the  $\text{HfO}_2$  – and similarly  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  – coated sample as compared to the bare absorber, is seen in terms of sample ageing. Re-measuring the bare absorber (uncoated) after a month stored under low vacuum conditions ( $< 1 \text{ mbar}$ ) showed a severe degradation in the PL



**Fig. 1.** Effects of ageing on the TRPL transients of an ungraded CIGS absorber (CGI = 0.84, GGI = 0.36). a) bare (uncoated) absorber after being washed in H<sub>2</sub>O, annealed in Ar and stored in low vacuum (< 1 mbar). b) absorber coated with either HfO<sub>2</sub> or Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and stored in low vacuum. The background signal of each measurement is subtracted and the PL signal normalized.

decay which can be restored by annealing the device again. The annealing effect can therefore be seen as metastable and influencing rather the CIGS surface than the bulk. If HfO<sub>2</sub> is deposited on the CIGS surface, the PL decay remains stable even after a month of storage.

EBIC measurements were performed as a complementary approach to investigate effects of HfO<sub>2</sub> on the CIGS surface recombination (see Fig. 2). EBIC is an experimental approach to access the probability of collecting locally generated electrons which are injected by an electron beam into the CIGS cross section and measured as device current through the front and rear contacts. The procedure was in analogy to a report by Bissig et al. [22] that suggested the use of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> coating for a more accurate determination of the charge collection probability by EBIC measurements. A CIGS solar cell with a GGI grading and the following I-V parameters without anti-reflective coating PCE 18%, V<sub>OC</sub> 694 mV, J<sub>SC</sub> 34 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, FF 76% was cleaved and a part of the freshly exposed cross section was coated with ~5 nm HfO<sub>2</sub>. The measurements were conducted on the cross-section of both the HfO<sub>2</sub> coated and the uncoated device. The EBIC signal is normalized and drawn as color map overlay to the SEM signal allowing for qualitative comparison.

A larger extension of the collection function in the HfO<sub>2</sub> coated device was observed, similar to what has been reported for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [22]. It appears likely that the same argument – that is an improved signal due to a reduced surface recombination on a p-type CIGS absorber – can be made for HfO<sub>2</sub> as reported for Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Thus, these findings can be interpreted by either a reduction of surface defect states, i.e. chemical passivation, or an upward band bending due to negative surface charge [13].

It is noted that from EBIC measurements it is neither unambiguous to discriminate the passivation mechanism of HfO<sub>2</sub> on the CIGS surface nor to quantify the effective charge density Q<sub>eff</sub>. The most common method to address Q<sub>eff</sub> would be C-V measurements on MIS structures [13,14]. The flat-band voltage can be attributed to a density of charges present in the insulating oxide layer. In our measurements a strong voltage-dependent hysteresis was found, i.e. the forward and backward

measurements do not coincide. Therefore Q<sub>eff</sub> could not be assessed (this is discussed in more detail in the SI, Fig. S1).

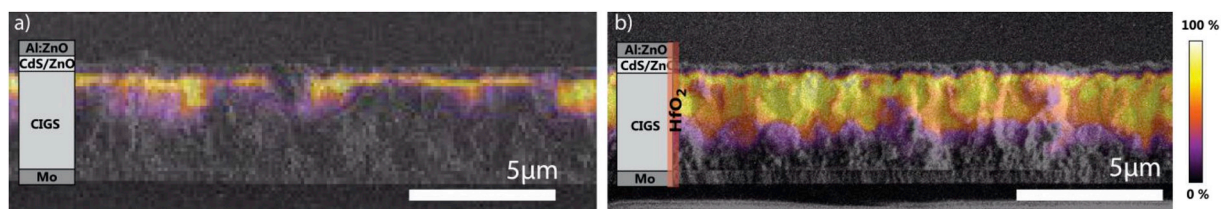
### 3.2. Application of HfO<sub>2</sub> in PV devices

In an attempt to assess the suitability of HfO<sub>2</sub> as a high bandgap passivation layer in CIGS solar cells a method for structuring the oxide layer was necessary. This is because already a few nanometer thick, unstructured HfO<sub>2</sub> layers showed a blocking behavior in the I-V curve at either CIGS/buffer or buffer/window interface (see I-V characterization below and in the SI).

#### 3.2.1. Lithographic patterning

HCL was tested as a first structuring approach. Schematics for the process and an example of the obtained structuring are shown in Fig. 3. Openings of about 100 nm were obtained with an irregular spacing due to the surface roughness despite the photoresist deposition. HfO<sub>2</sub> was observed not to dissolve in alkaline conditions at pH ~11, hence solar cells could be produced with a conventional CBD-CdS buffer layer and ZnO/Al:ZnO window layer. With this configuration the standard device structure is kept similar to the reference device with a CIGS/CdS interface present only in the openings of the HfO<sub>2</sub> layer. Keeping the CdS as additional buffer layer, thus avoiding a CIGS/ZnO interface, allows a direct comparison of the HfO<sub>2</sub>-passivated and the reference device.

Fig. 4 shows the I-V characteristics of devices comprising the same absorber layer but with a different surface treatment of the CIGS prior to the CBD-CdS deposition. HfO<sub>2</sub> layers with a thickness of about 10 nm were structured by HCL with different SF<sub>6</sub> etching times (1–4 min), to test which conditions are necessary to successfully create openings in the HfO<sub>2</sub>. Already for the shortest sputtering time a structuring of HfO<sub>2</sub> was achieved, since a photodiode-like I-V curve was obtained which would otherwise not be expected even for a HfO<sub>2</sub> thickness as low as 3 nm (Fig. 4). The PCE of these cells, however, is far inferior to the reference device. Prolonged SF<sub>6</sub> sputtering seems to further negatively



**Fig. 2.** SE micrograph with the EBIC signal overlaid as color map on a cleaved CIGS (CGI = 0.85, GGI = 0.4, graded) solar cell without and with ~5 nm HfO<sub>2</sub> coating. The acceleration voltage and beam current were 5 keV and 10–20 pA (measured with a faraday cup). The EBIC signal is normalized with the lower signal cutoff at the background level. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)



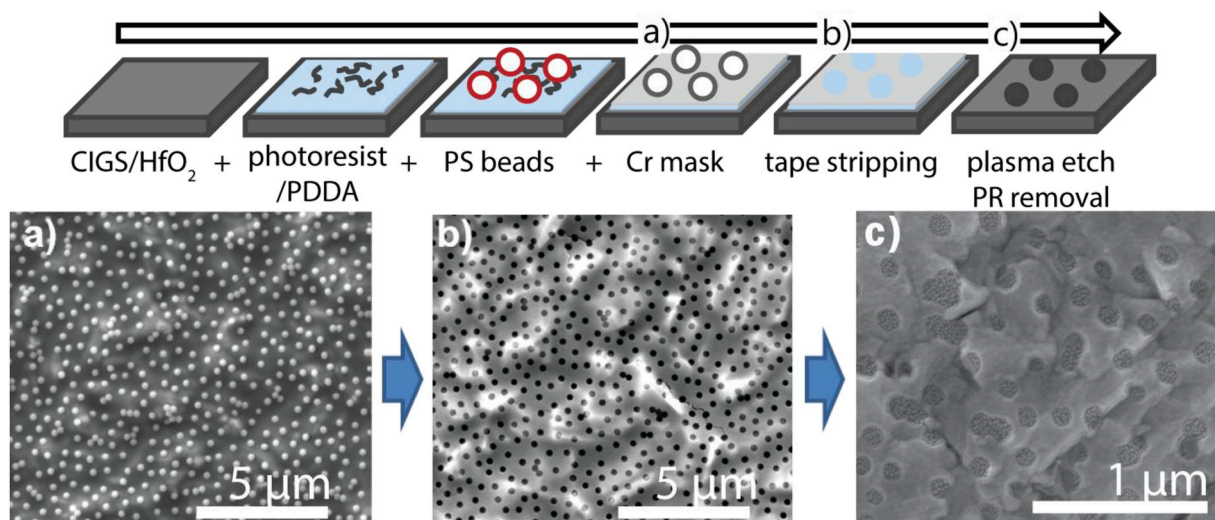


Fig. 3. HCL process for structuring of 100c HfO<sub>2</sub> on CIGS. SE micrographs of a) CIGS/HfO<sub>2</sub>/photoresist (PR)/PS beads/Cr, b) after removal of PS beads by tape stripping and c) the final patterned oxide layer after a 2-step plasma etching of PR and HfO<sub>2</sub> and PR removal.

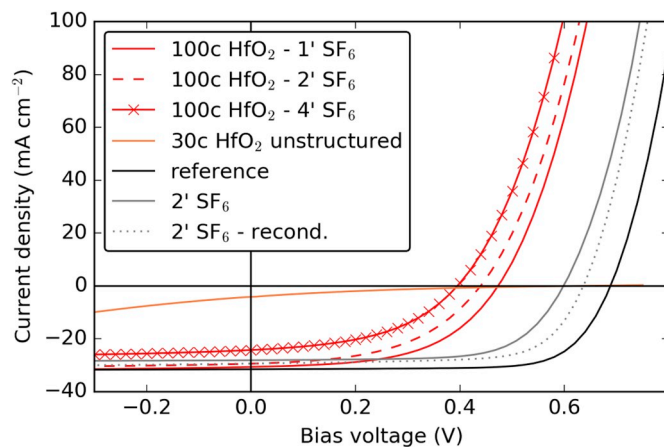


Fig. 4. J–V curves of SLG/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Mo/CIGS/(HfO<sub>2</sub>)/CdS/ZnO/Al:ZnO devices (CGI = 0.86, GGI = 0.41, graded) where the HfO<sub>2</sub> layer (100c) is patterned by HCL with SF<sub>6</sub> plasma for 1, 2, 4 min. In addition also one sample with an unstructured thin HfO<sub>2</sub> (30c) is added to visualize its current blocking behavior. The reference device employs the same absorber layer but was neither coated with HfO<sub>2</sub> nor exposed to plasma. For comparison, to see the detrimental effect of the plasma alone, two uncoated samples (without HfO<sub>2</sub>) were exposed to 2 min SF<sub>6</sub> plasma after H<sub>2</sub>O rinsing the absorber, one of which was further annealed in Se atmosphere prior to CdS CBD to recondition the surface (recond.).

impact all device parameters ( $V_{OC}$ , FF,  $J_{SC}$ ) in a similar way. This could be assumed by an increased interface recombination introduced by the sputtering step on the CIGS surface or by a strong current blocking due to a non-optimal structuring geometry of the resistive HfO<sub>2</sub>, or a combination of both effects. Simulations by Sozzi et al. [15] show a strong dependence of the I–V parameters (mostly  $V_{OC}$ ) on the point contact width and pitch of a structured passivation layer. In their model this is attributed to the trade-off between the beneficial effect of surface defects passivation and the detrimental effect of series resistance. The pitch achieved by HCL (about 100–500 nm on average) was in the range where the simulations indicate a decreased  $V_{OC}$ . On this basis a performance loss is already expected in the HfO<sub>2</sub> coated devices presented in Fig. 4 due to the non-optimized structuring geometry.

However, to explain the decrease in PCE with prolonged SF<sub>6</sub> sputtering, an additional effect has to be responsible since the size of the openings and their distribution is expected to be similar and within the

statistics of the 6 cells usually measured per sample (the intra-sample I–V parameter distribution is smaller than inter-sample, see Figure S 2). The most probable explanation is sputter damage of SF<sub>6</sub> on the CIGS surface causing an increase in the interface recombination. To validate this assumption, test structures were prepared where the bare (without HfO<sub>2</sub> coating) CIGS absorber after rinsing in H<sub>2</sub>O was exposed to SF<sub>6</sub> plasma for two minutes. Annealing in Se atmosphere at 300–350 °C for 20 min was tested to recondition the surface after the plasma treatment. For the plasma treated device a by  $\sim 90$  mV reduced  $V_{OC}$  is obtained which could be slightly recovered by the Se annealing. Since also  $J_{SC}$  is inferior by  $\sim 2$  mA cm<sup>−2</sup> these losses are most likely caused by an increased carrier recombination at the CIGS surface.

### 3.2.2. Template patterning

An alternative, faster and simpler bottom-up structuring approach was explored as follows. CIGS was dip-coated with NaCl from a saturated aqueous solution leaving various sized and randomly spaced NaCl crystallites on the surface. This procedure has the advantage that it can be repeated until the desired spacing is achieved by simply rinsing the surface in water and repeating the coating. Crystallite sizes of  $\sim 100$  nm up to several  $\mu$ m were obtained. ALD-HfO<sub>2</sub> was then deposited on top of this template, which was then removed in an aqueous ultrasonic bath leaving the structured HfO<sub>2</sub> layers. In Fig. 5 an example is shown of about 4 or 6 nm HfO<sub>2</sub> deposited on a NaCl template prior and after water bath. A contrast in the SE image is clearly visible. Compared to HCL the structuring geometry is far less controlled with a non-periodic, more randomized pattern and openings of various sizes which is relatively far from the calculated optimum of regularly spaced openings of 10 nm with 50 nm pitch [15].

The PV device performance of a device with 100c ALD-HfO<sub>2</sub> ( $\sim 10$  nm) deposited on a graded CIGS absorber and structured with the NaCl based process is shown in Fig. 6. Comparable device efficiency to the reference device was achieved. The spread in the FF for the different cells was significantly higher than in the reference case and is attributed to the structuring process which was not optimized for cm<sup>2</sup>-scale homogeneity. Compared to the HCL process the  $V_{OC}$  was not much affected since there was no harsh sputtering step which is the benefit of the template approach. EQE measurements revealed a slightly higher response in the blue wavelength region. This could be explained by a retarded growth of CdS on HfO<sub>2</sub> (see Figure S 3) leading to a reduced parasitic absorption of CdS. The I–V measurement showed an interesting non-ideality: Biasing the cell with the patterned HfO<sub>2</sub> in the dark at about +0.8 V (where the dark I–V current is 100 mA cm<sup>−2</sup>) for 60s

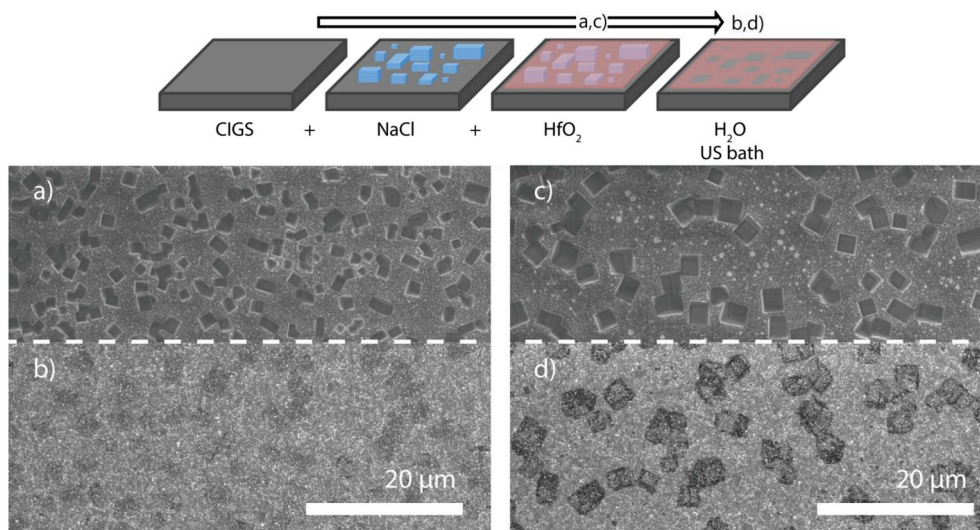


Fig. 5. SE micrograph of  $\sim 4$  nm (a) and  $\sim 6$  nm (c)  $\text{HfO}_2$  deposited on CIGS/NaCl prior and after (b, d) sonication in water for 3 min.

prior to the voltage sweep showed to improve all I-V parameters, mostly FF leading to a gain in PCE of up to 0.9% absolute (In Fig. 6b this is shown for a device which shows this effect clearest). This effect was not seen in the reference device and the origin is unknown, but could be related to the hysteresis observed in the C-V measurements (Figure S 1) which is possibly caused by charge trap states.

### 3.2.3. $\text{HfO}_2$ at the CdS/ZnO interface

Another application of  $\text{HfO}_2$  is investigated as intermediate HTR

(highly transparent and resistive) layer in between the CdS and sputter deposited ZnO. The purpose here is to minimize sputtering damage during the window layer deposition. Especially for CdS it has been observed that the PV device performance degrades significantly if CdS is exposed to an  $\text{O}_2$  plasma. More so if a thin ( $< 15$  nm) CdS is applied and pin-holes in the layer are present, even a low power Ar plasma is influencing the FF (see Figure S 4). This is why the sputter-free deposition of the HRT layer is beneficial for when a thin CdS layer is employed [24,25]. Here, in a preliminary study the salt template

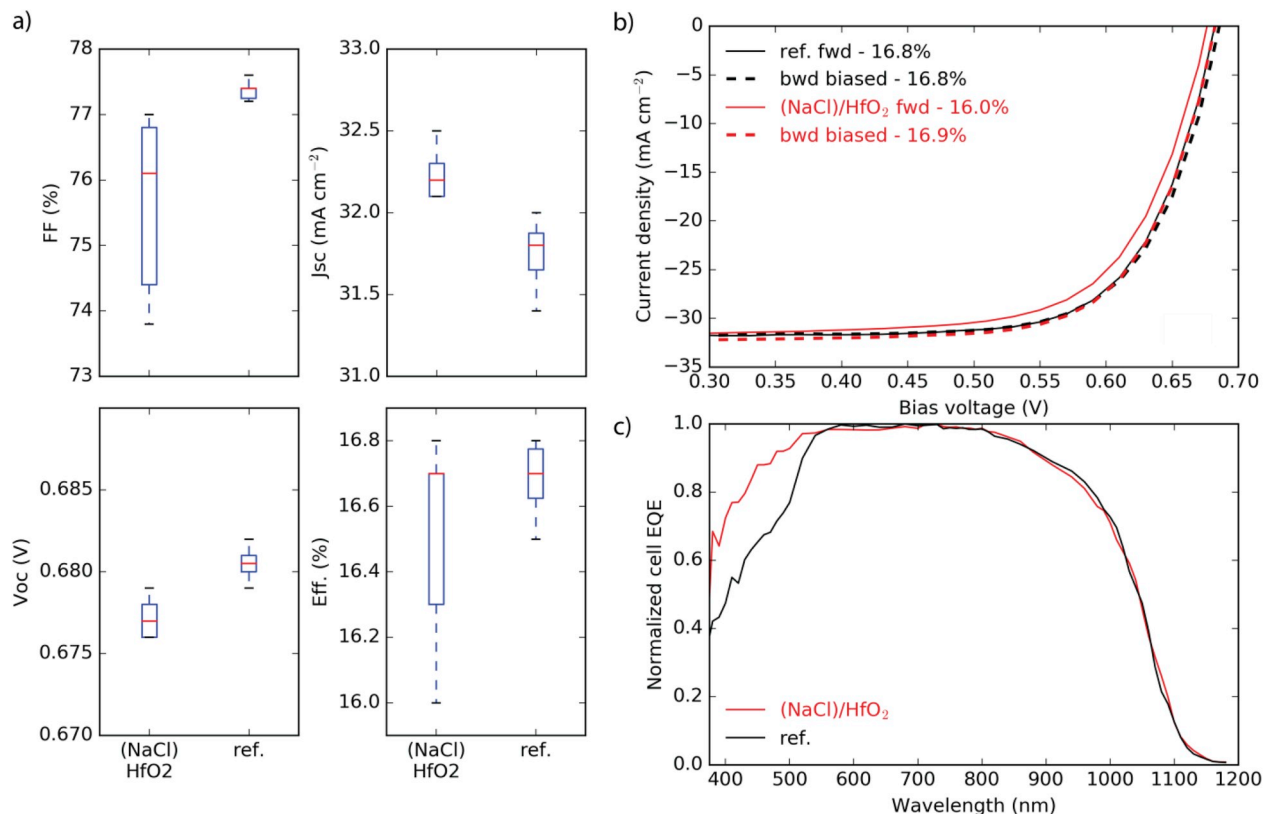
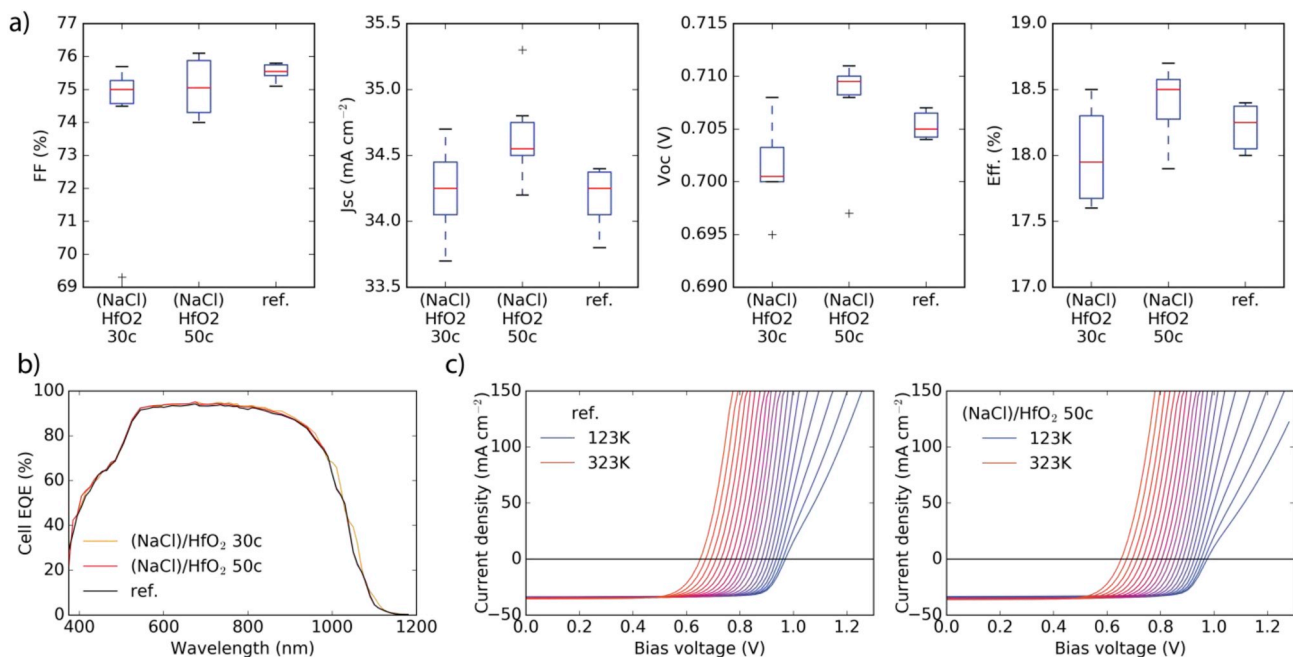


Fig. 6. a) Boxplot chart (6 best cells per sample) of the I-V parameters of CIGS (CGI = 0.85, GGI = 0.38, graded) solar cells with the structure SLG/ $\text{SiO}_x$ /Mo/CIGS/( $\text{HfO}_2$ )/CdS/ZnO/Al:ZnO/grid(Ni,Al) where the  $\text{HfO}_2$  ( $\sim 10$  nm) is structured via the NaCl template approach; The reference device employs no  $\text{HfO}_2$  layer. b) J-V measurements of selected cells at different voltage sweep conditions: forward =  $[-0.75, 0.75]$  V, backward biased = pre-bias at  $+0.8$  V for 60s and sweep from  $[0.75, -0.75]$  V. c) corresponding normalized cell EQE.



**Fig. 7.** a) Boxplot chart (6 best cells per sample) of the I-V parameters of CIGS (CGI = 0.88, GGI = 0.43, graded) solar cells with the structure SLG/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Mo/CIGS/CdS/(HfO<sub>2</sub>)/ZnO/Al:ZnO/grid(Ni,Al)/MgF<sub>2</sub> where the HfO<sub>2</sub> (30 or 50c = ~3 or 5 nm) is structured via the NaCl template approach; The reference device does not employ a HfO<sub>2</sub> layer. b,c) corresponding EQE (without MgF<sub>2</sub> ARC) and T-IV measurement from 123 to 323 K.

structuring was tested to pattern a thin HfO<sub>2</sub> layer on top of a ~50 nm CdS in combination with a standard ZnO/Al:ZnO window layer. The deposition temperature for HfO<sub>2</sub> in these experiments was reduced to 120 °C to avoid annealing effects of the SLG/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Mo/CIGS/CdS structure. The influence of about 3 or 5 nm patterned HfO<sub>2</sub> on the I-V characteristics was found to be negligible. A larger spread of the FF values was again observed, but the median efficiency was similar to the reference structure (see Fig. 7a). Since the CdS growth was performed prior to the HfO<sub>2</sub> deposition the EQE measurements of the devices employing the HfO<sub>2</sub> layer were identical to the reference (Fig. 7b). Furthermore, temperature dependent I-V measurements (T-IV) showed no blocking effect at low temperatures (Fig. 7c). This experiment was repeated on a different absorber to improve statistics showing again comparable device efficiency for both structures (see Figure S 5). It can be concluded that thin layers of HfO<sub>2</sub>, when deposited on CdS, are not introducing a significant carrier recombination and can be efficiently patterned with the salt template approach. For thicker HfO<sub>2</sub> layers (> 8 nm) the salt template structuring approach was found to be limited since the salt could not fully be removed anymore by simple ultrasound sonication in H<sub>2</sub>O. Hence in solar cells, the FF is slightly decreasing with increasing the HfO<sub>2</sub> thickness in the investigated range (see Figure S 6 and S 7).

#### 4. Conclusions

In the first part of this study ALD-HfO<sub>2</sub> was applied in test structures on the CIGS surface to assess its effects as a surface passivation layer. TRPL measurements showed a stable increase in the effective lifetime when HfO<sub>2</sub> is coated on the CIGS surface at elevated temperature. This effect could be reproduced on the uncoated sample annealed in Ar, however, it was found to be unstable for the uncoated absorber and a fast PL decay was again observed after storage in N<sub>2</sub> for a month. An improved carrier collection was observed in EBIC measurements due to the HfO<sub>2</sub> coating on the CIGS cross-section. The attempt to assign an oxide charge by C-V measurements on MIS structures was not successful due to a hysteresis effect, i.e. a dependence of the resulting C-V curve on the measurement conditions. In the second part the passivating effects of HfO<sub>2</sub> observed by TRPL and EBIC were tested in PV devices in a

point contact concept. Two structuring methods for the highly resistive oxide were compared. A top down method (HCL) was found to severely degrade I-V parameters, which was related to the SF<sub>6</sub> plasma etching. The application of a bottom-up structuring approach of HfO<sub>2</sub> using a NaCl template showed more promising results although the structuring geometry was less defined. The device performance, however, was not improved by the introduction of HfO<sub>2</sub>, at neither the CIGS/CdS or CdS/ZnO interface, when compared to the reference device.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.solmat.2019.03.009>.

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