

Semitransparent Wide Bandgap $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnGe}(\text{S},\text{Se})_4$ Thin-Film Solar Cells: Role of the Sulfurization Process

Andrea Ruiz-Perona, David Palma-Lafuente, Yudania Sánchez, Maxim Guc, Tim Kodalle, Mohamed Ould Salem, Marcel Placidi, Rosalia Serna, Alejandro Pérez-Rodríguez, José Manuel Merino, and Raquel Caballero*

Semitransparent solar cells are very attractive due to the increasing integration in daily life. Kesterite-type based thin-film solar cells stand out because of its environmentally benign composition and outstanding stability. Herein, the influence of the back contact ($\text{Mo}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{FTO}$ or Mo/FTO) and thickness of $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnGe}(\text{S},\text{Se})_4$ (CZGSSe) absorber layer, grown by sulfurization of coevaporated CZGSe, is investigated. To increase the transparency, thinner absorber layers with higher bandgap energy are produced. A double sulfur gradient through the CZGSSe layer with a considerable S content near the back contact and the formation of $\text{Mo}(\text{S},\text{Se})_2$ phase at the back interface is detected for an absorber of only 400 nm thickness. Efficiencies of 3.1% and 2.7% are achieved for 1.2 μm CZGSSe-based devices with E_g of 1.73 and 1.86 eV, respectively, while enabling transmittance values higher than 20% in the near-infrared (NIR). The highest transmittance, 40% in the NIR, is achieved for the 400 nm CZGSSe-based solar cells with E_g of 2.1 eV; however, a significant reduction of these devices' performance is obtained due to the presence of ZnS secondary phase and a different back-contact interface formation. This work presents the first promising semitransparent CZGSSe solar cells, opening new paths of applications.

different applications has received much attention in the last years. For example, semitransparent solar cells can be used for building-integrated photovoltaic (BIPV), very attractive in residential, industrial, and commercial buildings. In the last years, interest in agrovoltatics is also increasing. First semitransparent solar cells are being used for agriculture applications, mainly using organic materials that can allow sunlight with selected wavelengths to pass through and get absorbed by the plants for the photosynthesis.^[1] In addition, wide bandgap (E_g) semitransparent solar cells can be used as top cell of a multi-junction or tandem device, enhancing the efficiency of the PV devices.

Kesterite-type materials, $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSn}(\text{S},\text{Se})_4$ (CZTSSe), have gained interest to be used as absorber for thin-film solar cells in the last years because they consist of elements of low toxicity and high abundancy

in the earth's crust, having a high absorption coefficient and stability, and a tunable bandgap energy E_g between 1.0 eV ($\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSnSe}_4$) and 1.6 eV ($\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSnS}_4$). Efforts to enhance the performance of CZTSSe are focused toward the reduction of the large open-circuit voltage (V_{OC}) deficit that are mainly caused by heterojunction interface recombination (kesterite/CdS); optimization of the bulk of the absorber bandgap and potential

1. Introduction

One of the great challenges in our modern society is the supply of low-cost, environmentally friendly energy sources that can meet the growing demands of an expanding population. Photovoltaic (PV) is one of the main renewable energies to solve the energy crisis. The research on new materials and solar cell designs for

A. Ruiz-Perona,^[+] D. Palma-Lafuente, J. M. Merino, R. Caballero
Departamento de Física Aplicada
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid
C/ Francisco Tomás y Valiente 7, 28049 Madrid, Spain
E-mail: raquel.caballero@csic.es

Y. Sánchez, M. Guc, M. O. Salem, M. Placidi, A. Pérez-Rodríguez
IREC, Catalonia Institute for Energy Research
C/ Jardins de les Dones de Negre 1, 08930 Barcelona, Spain

 The ORCID identification number(s) for the author(s) of this article can be found under <https://doi.org/10.1002/solr.202300947>.

^[+]Present address: National Institute of Material Science (NIMS), Namiki 1-choume, Tsukuba 305-0051, Ibaraki, Japan

^[++]Present address: Molecular Foundry, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, 1 Cyclotron Road, Berkeley 94608, CA, USA

DOI: 10.1002/solr.202300947

T. Kodalle^[++]
PVcomB-Helmholtz Zentrum Berlin für Materialien und Energie
Schwarzschildstrasse 3, 12489 Berlin, Germany

M. Placidi
Departament d'Enginyeria Electrònica & Barcelona Center for Multiscale Science & Engineering
Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya
Av. Eduard Maristany 10-14, 08019 Barcelona, Spain

R. Serna, R. Caballero
Instituto de Óptica "Daza de Valdés"-CSIC
C/Serrano 121, 28006 Madrid, Spain

A. Pérez-Rodríguez
Departament d'Enginyeria Electrònica y Biomèdica
Universitat de Barcelona
IN2UB, C/Martí i Franquès 1-11, 08028 Barcelona, Spain

fluctuations induced by Cu-Zn crystalline disorder;^[2] and the presence of secondary phases, among other factors.^[3,4] The introduction of Ag or Ge has led to the reduction of some specific defects.^[3–5] As a result of these efforts recently, efficiencies higher than 14 % have been achieved for Ag-alloyed CZTSSe-based solar cells.^[6]

As mentioned above, semitransparent solar cells increase the range of applications, but it is a challenge to maintain a high efficiency and transparency at the same time. In the case of inorganic and stable semiconductors, the transparency can be increased by the use of a wide bandgap material and/or by reducing the thickness of the active layer. With this objective in mind, it is very interesting to investigate wide bandgap kesterite-type material on transparent substrates. Generally, the increase of E_g has been carried out by the substitution of Se by S and Sn by Ge, from E_g 1.45 eV^[7] for CZGSe and around 2.2 eV for CZGS.^[8] Se-rich devices with less than 40% Ge exhibit the lowest V_{OC} and fill factor (FF) deficits with efficiencies beyond 13 %.^[9] However, a little increase of Ge concentration leads to a significant decrease of solar cell efficiency.^[4] Only few laboratories work in the fabrication of $Cu_2ZnGe(S,Se)_4$ (CZGSSe)-based thin-film solar cells, showing that the E_g value increases with the S concentration but leads to a significant reduction of the device performance and enhancement of the V_{OC} deficit.^[10–14] S-rich wide bandgap compounds are of great interest because of their contribution to the development of kesterite-based tandem solar cells and for the applications in BIPV and agrovoltatics already mentioned. However, it is necessary to optimize the sulfur concentration and its distribution through the absorber layer to improve the CZGSSe PV device performance.^[13,14] The sulfurization of the surface of the absorber layer results in a higher E_g on the surface, increasing the V_{OC} and device efficiency.^[13–15] Previously, we fabricated CZGSSe thin films by sulfurization of coevaporated CZGSe layers onto Mo/SLG substrates, achieving CZGSSe-based solar cells of $\eta = 3.2$ % for $E_g = 2$ eV,^[14] and it is the highest efficiency ever reported for kesterite semiconductor with such a high bandgap value.

It is interesting to note that there are not so many works about kesterite solar cells on transparent electrodes.^[16–24] Tin-doped indium oxide, $In_2O_3:SnO_2$ (ITO) and fluorine-doped tin oxide, $SnO_2:F$ (FTO) are the most common transparent conductive oxides (TCOs) used as transparent back contacts. Generally, higher efficiency is achieved when kesterite is grown on FTO as back electrode because of the In diffusion into CZTSSe layer and the formation of SnO_x when using ITO.^[16] On the other hand, carrier loss in FTO is expected due to outdiffusion of fluorine during annealing of the kesterite layer, forming a nonideal back interface.^[17] The addition of an interlayer, as Mo, MoO_3 ,

between FTO and the active layer has demonstrated the enhancement of the device performance. For example, Espíndola-Rodríguez et al.^[18] produced CZTSSe PV devices with performance of 6.3% (front illumination) and of 7.7% (bifacial illumination) grown on Mo (20 nm)/FTO with E_g of 1.09 eV. Becerril et al.^[19] reported CZTSe, CZTS, and CZTSSe solar cells deposited on FTO, obtaining efficiencies of 6.1%, 6.2%, and 7.9% ($E_g = 1.47$ eV in the latter), respectively. The use of transition metal oxides in those cases, such as TiO_2 and V_2O_5 , together with a Mo:Na nanolayer improved the back interface. Later, Ruiz-Perona et al.^[20] fabricated CZTGSe thin films by coevaporation onto $Mo/V_2O_5/FTO/glass$ followed by a thermal treatment in Se-atmosphere, achieving a device performance of 5.6%, $E_g = 1.28$ eV and straight-through transmittance of 30% in the near-infrared (NIR) region. Following the same growth process, CZGSe thin-films solar cells with efficiency of 5.3 %, $E_g = 1.47$ eV, and total transmittance near 50% in the NIR range were achieved.^[21] Very recently, Zhou et al.^[22] reported 11.4% efficiency $(Ag,Cu)_2ZnSn(S,Se)_4$ (ACZTSSe) solar cells on MoO_3/FTO substrates, presenting the absorber layer a bandgap energy of only 1.15 eV.

Therefore, the fabrication of high-efficiency wide bandgap kesterite solar cells is a challenge, being particularly difficult to maintain a high transparency. In this work, we integrate a wide bandgap kesterite-type material (CZGSSe) with transparent back contacts to investigate the performance of semitransparent CZGSSe thin-film solar cells. Based on our previous experience, CZGSSe thin films are grown by sulfurization of coevaporated CZGSSe on $Mo/V_2O_5/FTO$ and Mo/FTO transparent back contacts. Up to our knowledge, we have obtained the highest efficiencies ever reported for CZGSSe-based PV devices that are as high as 3.1% and 2.7% for bandgap values of $E_g = 1.73$ and 1.86 eV, respectively, on semitransparent electrodes.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. CZGSSe Thin Films: Back-Contact and Absorber Thickness Effect

Table 1 shows the composition and thickness of the prepared CZGSSe thin films with the different back-contact configurations, as measured by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). It is well established that Cu-poor and Zn-rich are the optimal ranges of composition to produce high-efficiency solar cells,^[25] related to the formation of point defects and secondary phases. As shown in Table 1, the CZGSSe absorber layer deposited on $Mo/V_2O_5/FTO/glass$ (sample 1) presents a Cu-poor and

Table 1. Description of the investigated samples (1–3): composition of the CZGSSe absorber layer, deposited on different back contacts, measured by EDX at 25 kV operation voltage.

Sample [nm]	Back contact	Cu [at %]	Zn [at %]	Ge [at %]	Se [at %]	S [at %]	[Cu]/([Zn]+[Ge])	[Zn]/[Ge]	[S]/([S]+[Se])
1/1200	MVF	18.3	11.9	13.7	40.8	17.1	0.72	0.87	0.30
2/1200	MF	18.2	11.8	11.9	45.0	8.8	0.77	0.99	0.16
3/400	MF	18.8	12.2	11.8	17.2	40.0	0.78	1.04	0.70

MVF ($Mo/V_2O_5/FTO$); MF (Mo/FTO).

Zn-poor composition; however, the samples 2 and 3 grown on Mo/FTO/glass are characterized by a more optimal composition to achieve high-efficiency solar cells. Apart from the CZGSSe thickness, the main difference between samples 2 and 3 is the S concentration. Note that despite that we have reduced the amount of S and GeS added during the sulfurization process due to the smaller thickness of the CZGSe layer of the sample 3 (2 mg S and 2 mg GeS for sample 3 vs 22 mg S and 6 mg GeS for samples 1 and 2), the S incorporation has been larger. It is 6 times larger for sample 3 than for sample 2. Therefore, it is found that upon reduction of the absorber thickness a proportionally smaller amount of S is needed during the sulfurization process to form the wide bandgap CZGSSe material with the same composition.

The transparency is an essential parameter to consider for the fabrication of semitransparent solar cells. There is a lack of information about transmittance measurements of semitransparent kesterite thin films and kesterite-based PV devices in the literature. **Figure 1** shows the straight-through transmittance of CZGSSe/back-contact structures together with those of FTO, V_2O_5 /FTO, Mo/ V_2O_5 /FTO, and Mo/FTO. The deposition of 15 nm of V_2O_5 on top of the commercial FTO reduces the straight-through transmittance in the whole wavelength range slightly, being more abrupt at wavelengths shorter than 500 nm. Finally, the deposition of around 15 nm of Mo on top of V_2O_5 /FTO leads to a significant decrease of transmittance in the whole wavelength region. However, it is the sputtered ≈ 30 nm Mo directly on FTO that is responsible for a more significant reduction of the transmittance compared to that induced by the vanadium oxide interlayer, as shown in Figure 1. The kesterite-type material deposited on the different back contacts investigated shows a transmittance higher than 20% in the NIR. From Figure 1 it is clear that a higher bandgap energy E_g is obtained for sample 3. The lower bandgap energy corresponds to sample 2, which agrees with the lower amount of S incorporated into the CZGSe lattice during the sulfurization process as measured by EDX and shown in Table 1. The transmittance increases somewhat when the S content increases. The higher transmittance is obtained for the thinner absorber layer in the NIR, which is also the CZGSSe film with higher S

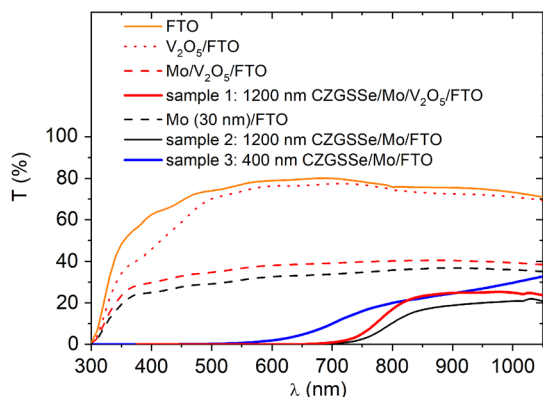


Figure 1. Straight-through transmittance of FTO, V_2O_5 /FTO, Mo/ V_2O_5 /FTO, Mo/FTO and of the CZGSSe thin films grown on the different back-contact configurations.

concentration. Therefore, the higher the E_g , the higher the transmittance in the whole wavelength range. And also, as shown above, it is necessary to take into account the semitransparent back contact used. The higher transmittance of sample 1 is not only due to the higher S content, but also to the specific Mo/ V_2O_5 /FTO back-contact configuration used.

Figure 2 shows grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) diffractograms of all the samples investigated by using grazing incidence angles of 1° and 4° . All of the diffraction patterns show Bragg peaks which can be attributed to the kesterite-type structure of CZGSSe, with different $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ atomic ratios, being the main diffraction peaks between those of CZGSe (01-070-7623) and CZGS (04-012-7580). Apart from the kesterite-type phase, $Ge(S,Se)_2$ as secondary phase was detected in all of the samples, especially in samples 1 and 2 with the characteristic diffraction peaks at around 15° . Moreover, it is not possible to discard the presence of ZnS (01-071-5976) secondary phase for all the samples, especially for sample 3. The FTO substrate was also measured to identify the corresponding diffraction peaks in all the samples investigated. The presence of $MoSe_2$ at the back contact cannot be ruled out, independent of the back contact used. A zoom of the main 112 diffraction peak of CZGSSe is plotted for the three samples. The 112 Bragg peak is shifted toward higher diffraction angles when the measurements are performed at GI angle of 1° , indicating a higher S content at the surface region for all the samples. The 112 Bragg peak of samples 1 and 2 clearly shows the presence of two CZGSSe phases with different $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ atomic ratios. The situation changes for the sample 3, only one phase of CZGSSe with much higher S content of around 70% is present, in agreement with EDX measurements.

Figure 3 shows the in-depth elements distribution through the CZGSSe thin film for all the samples investigated. Measurements were carried out after optimizing the sputtering parameters according to the procedure described in ref. [26]. A nonuniform distribution of the cations through the absorber layer 1 is observed (see Figure 3a). This distribution is very similar to that obtained previously for CZGSe thin films deposited on the same back-contact (Mo/ V_2O_5 /FTO) configuration.^[21] In the previous case, the thermal treatment was performed under the same conditions as used in the present work but with the addition of elemental Se instead of S. In the near front region, a decrease of Cu and Zn and an increase of Ge glow discharge optical emission spectrometry (GD-OES) signals take place. At the same location, an increase of the Na signal occurs, in agreement with the preference of Na for Cu vacancies, as reported previously.^[21] A pronounced increase and decrease of S and Se signals, respectively, is detected from the bulk toward the surface. This may suggest the substitution of Se by S. Different from sample 1, in the case of sample 2, the in-depth distribution of the cations through the absorber thickness is more uniform, with a slight lower Cu signal near the surface. Similar to sample 1, an increase of the S and a decrease of the Se GD-OES signals are detected toward the surface region. The cations distribution through the thickness of sample 3 is much more uniform, only detecting a slight increase of Zn and decrease of Cu GD-OES signals near the surface region. An interesting feature of sample 3 is the double S gradient through the CZGSSe thickness with an

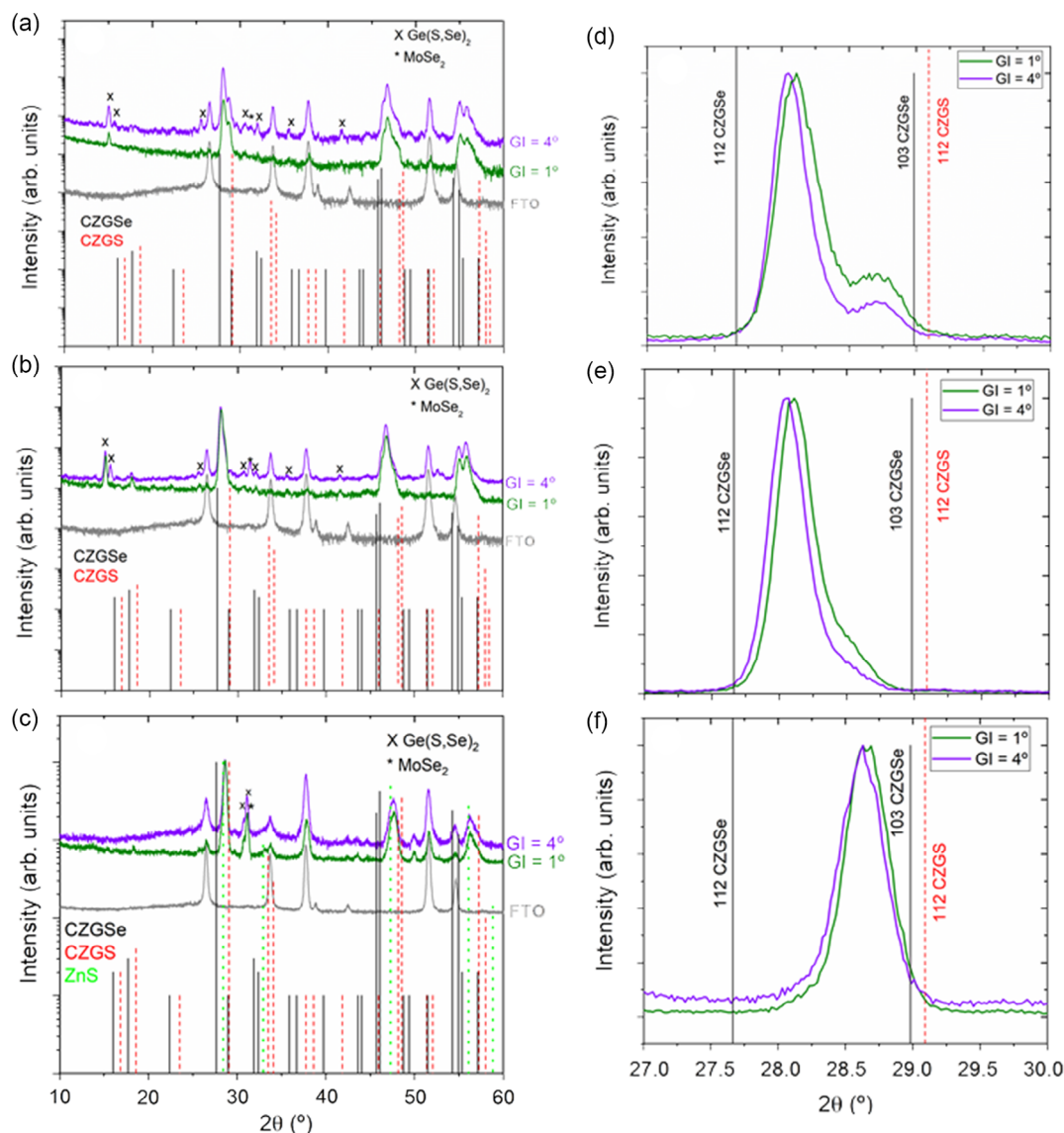


Figure 2. Grazing incidence X-ray diffractograms of CZGSSe grown on a) Mo/V₂O₅/FTO (sample 1); b,c) Mo/FTO (samples 2 and 3, respectively). Zoom of the 112 Bragg peak of CZGSSe corresponding to d) sample 1, e) sample 2, and f) sample 3.

increased S signal measured near the back contact, different from the samples 1 and 2.

Figure 3d–f displays the in-depth distribution of the normalized $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ atomic ratio for the three samples investigated. In all the cases, the ratio increases toward the surface region. The S content is higher for sample 1 than 2 as shown in Table 1, being this higher S concentration mainly accumulated at the surface. A steeper $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ -gradient through the CZGSSe layer is measured for sample 1, which could indicate that the back contact plays a role on the S/Se distribution. It is well known the importance of the control of S/Se in-depth distribution to enhance V_{OC} . It has been reported that a higher S content near the surface and a minimum S content inside the space charge region result in a higher V_{OC} and efficiency η of CZTSSe-based solar cells.^[27] From this point of view, the absorber 1 shows a more favorable anions gradient for an increased efficiency.

Raman spectra of the three CZGSSe thin films are measured using 532 and 325 nm excitation wavelengths (see Figure 4). The measurements are carried out from the front and back side (through the glass substrate) of the samples. The spectra were measured in up to 15 points in each sample and the pale lines in Figure 4 represent the spectra from each point, while clear lines represent the average spectra.

Measurements under green excitation wavelength from the front side of the films show the presence of mainly CZGSSe phase at the surface of all samples (based on the presence of characteristic peaks of CZGSSe compound).^[14,28,29] Based on the shift of the main Raman peaks involving mainly Se–Se and S–Se vibrations and the change of the relative intensity of the peaks related to S–S vibrations (the peaks ranges are indicated by arrows on top of Figure 4), the $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ atomic ratio is increasing from sample 2 to sample 1, and the sample 3

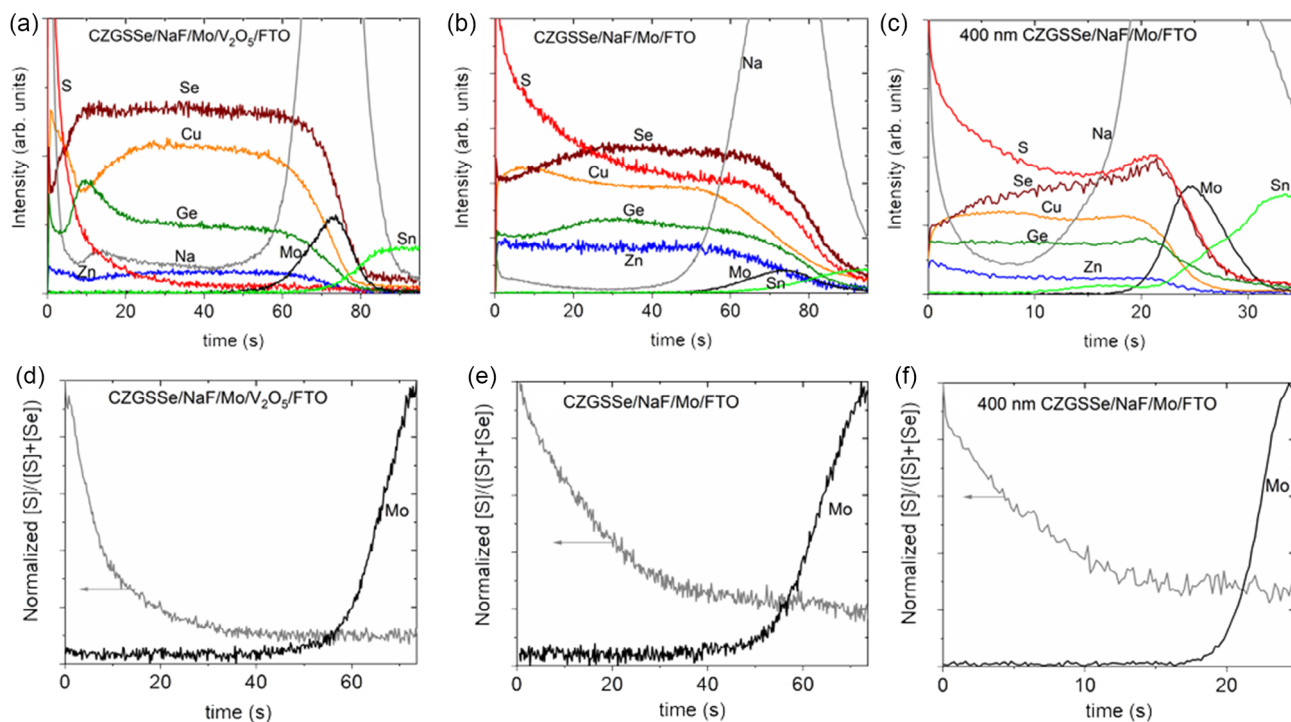


Figure 3. GD-OES depth profiles of Cu, Zn, Ge, Se, and S of CZGSSe grown on a) Mo/V₂O₅/FTO (sample 1); b,c) Mo/FTO (samples 2 and 3, respectively). The normalized $[S]/([S]+[Se])$ atomic ratio versus sputtered time is plotted in (d), (e), and (f) for all the samples. The Mo in-depth profile has also been displayed to distinguish the back interface easily. The CZGSSe layer of (c) and (f) presents a thickness of 400 nm, while the thickness of the absorber film of (a), (b), (d), and (e) is of around 1200 nm.

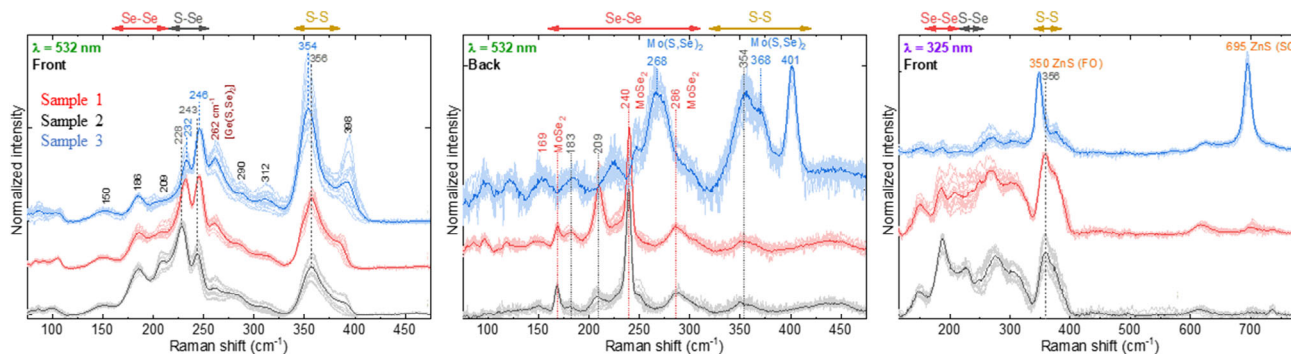


Figure 4. Raman spectra of CZGSSe thin films deposited on semitransparent electrodes (sample 1: Mo/V₂O₅/FTO and samples 2 and 3: Mo/FTO) measured under 532 and 325 nm excitation wavelengths from the front and the back of the absorber/back-contact structure. Peaks indicated with the numbers (peaks positions) belong to the CZGSSe phase; peaks of other phases always indicate the specific phase.

presents the highest one,^[28] in agreement with EDX and GIXRD measurements. In addition, some amount of Ge(S,Se)₂ secondary phase is present in all samples in good concordance with GIXRD measurements.^[14] This means that effective composition of the kesterite phase will contain less Ge than measured by EDX, which shows the overall composition of the thin films.

The measurements performed from the back side of the films show the presence of the MoSe₂ phase (peaks at 169, 240, and 286 cm⁻¹^[30]) in the samples 1 and 2 together with some pure CZGSSe or a very Se-rich phase of CZGSSe solid solution (peaks at 183 and 209 cm⁻¹).^[31] This indicates a gradient of the

$[S]/([S]+[Se])$ ratio along the thickness of the samples 1 and 2, decreasing the S content toward the back side, as measured by GD-OES depth profile. Also, the difference in the intensity of peaks corresponding to kesterite and MoSe₂ phases indicates the different thickness of the MoSe₂ layer in the two samples, thicker in sample 2 than in sample 1. This is related to the thicker Mo layer of around 30 nm of sample 2 than that used in sample 1. The sample 3 is very different from the other two samples, showing several peaks that can be assigned to a Mo(S,Se)₂ phase; peaks of CZGSSe can also be detected. This result agrees with the higher S content from the GD-OES signal measured next

to the back contact for sample 3, explaining the formation of $\text{Mo}(\text{S,Se})_2$ and of CZGSSe at the back interface. This indicates the sulfurization of the whole bulk of this thin film, but a gradient of $[\text{S}]/([\text{S}]+[\text{Se}])$ ratio cannot be excluded from these measurements, as it is confirmed by GD-OES depth profiles. Therefore, the thinner CZGSSe thin film enhances the diffusion of the S through the thickness of the active layer in comparison to the obtained for samples 1 and 2, leading to a different back interface.

Finally, analysis of the spectra measured under UV excitation show clear presence of the ZnS phase at the surface of sample 3^[32] and the absence of this phase or of a $\text{Zn}(\text{S,Se})$ analogue phase at the surface of the other samples.^[33]

Cross-sectional scanning electron microscope (SEM) pictures of CZGSSe/ $\text{Mo}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{FTO}/\text{glass}$ and CZGSSe/ $\text{Mo}/\text{FTO}/\text{glass}$ structures corresponding to the three samples investigated are shown in **Figure 5**. All of them present a compact and columnar structure without voids or adhesion problems at the back

interface. Samples 1 and 2 are characterized by a larger grain size of the absorber layer, while sample 3, with a thickness of only 400 nm, also presents some brighter smaller grains. EDX measurements performed in the different grains reveal a higher Zn content in the brighter grains, in agreement with the presence of ZnS as detected by Raman spectroscopy measurements.

2.2. CZGSSe-Based Solar Cells: Back-Contact and Absorber Thickness Effect

The current density–voltage (J – V) curves of the best performing CZGSSe-based solar cells by using the absorber layers grown on the different back-contact configurations are shown in **Figure 6a**. **Table 2** summarizes the PV parameters of the best solar cells corresponding to Figure 6a. A higher V_{OC} and FF was obtained for the device 1 deposited on $\text{Mo}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{FTO}/\text{glass}$. However, the low short-circuit current density J_{SC} reduces the maximum efficiency to a value of 2.7%. The device 2 presents a higher J_{SC} ,

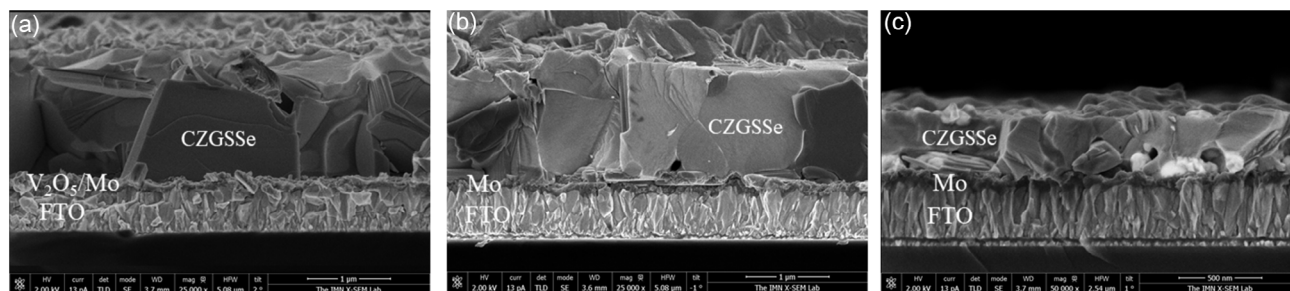


Figure 5. Cross-sectional SEM pictures of a) CZGSSe (sample 1)/ $\text{Mo}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{FTO}$, b) CZGSSe (sample 2)/ Mo/FTO , and c) CZGSSe (sample 3)/ Mo/FTO .

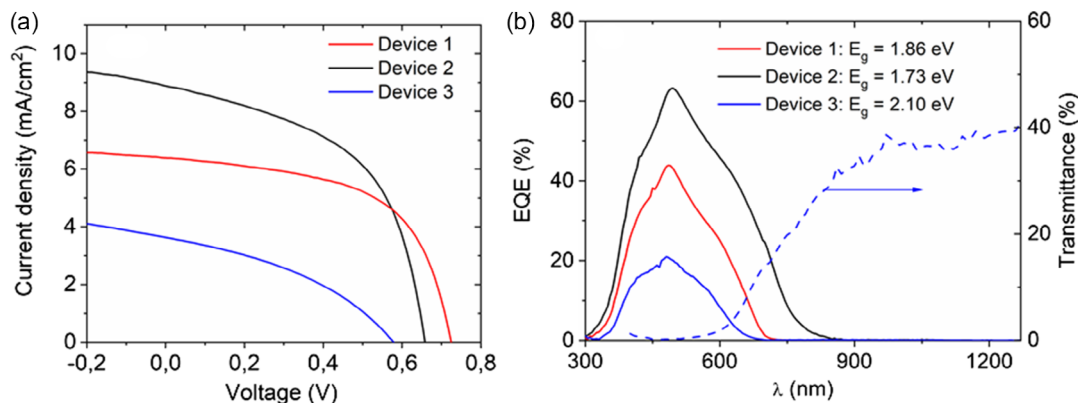


Figure 6. a) Current density–voltage (J – V) curves and b) EQE measurements of the best three devices of the structures investigated. Transmittance of the completed device corresponding to device 3, $\text{FTO}/\text{Mo}/\text{CZGSSe}$ (400 nm)/ $\text{CdS}/\text{i-ZnO} + \text{ITO}$, is also plotted.

Table 2. PV parameters of the different CZGSSe PV devices investigated.

Device	Back contact	V_{OC} [mV]	J_{SC} [mA cm^{-2}]	FF [%]	η [%]	R_s [$\Omega \text{ cm}^2$]	R_{sh} [$\Omega \text{ cm}^2$]	E_g [eV]
1	MVF	724	6.4	57.7	2.7	4.3	997	1.86
2	MF	658	8.9	52.5	3.1	2.1	370	1.73
3	MF	576	3.6	38.5	0.8	6.5	403	2.10

MVF ($\text{Mo}/\text{V}_2\text{O}_5/\text{FTO}$); MF (Mo/FTO).

leading to an increased performance of 3.1%. As mentioned above, with the objective of increasing the transparency of the solar cell, PV devices with only 400 nm of CZGSSe were fabricated (device 3). In that case, the maximum efficiency was of only 0.8%, presenting worsen PV parameters.

Figure 6b shows external quantum efficiency (EQE) for the three devices of Table 2. The device 2 is characterized by the highest one in the whole range of wavelengths, in agreement with the reported J_{SC} values. The optical bandgap energy (E_g) has been determined from the EQE measurements using the peak energy of the derivative of the EQE at longer wavelengths, and the values are shown in Table 2. The trend is that E_g increases with the S content (see Table 1). This is in good agreement with the results of Guo et al.^[34] who reported that E_g increases linearly with the sulfur content in CZTSSe material. The higher J_{SC} for the device 2 than for device 1 can be related to the lower E_g for the sample 2. In any case, EQE curves start to decrease from around 500 nm on, indicating losses due to optical reflection and/or carrier collection, suggesting that the CdS/CZGSSe interface and the bulk of the CZGSSe material are not yet fully optimized. Sample 3 presents the higher E_g of 2.1 eV in agreement with the higher S concentration measured by EDX and determined by GIXRD and Raman spectroscopy; nevertheless, it is the device with the lowest V_{OC} and, therefore, with the highest V_{OC} deficit. Different reasons could explain the higher V_{OC} deficit for the device 3, being difficult to identify which is the most critical factor. The sample 3 was characterized by the presence of ZnS secondary phase at the surface as measured by Raman spectroscopy, as well as by the formation of smaller brighter Zn-rich grains as detected by SEM. Previously, it has been reported the influence of Zn(S,Se) secondary phase on the CZTSe-, CZTS-, CZTGSe-based devices performance.^[35–37] While Shin et al.^[35] reported that the presence of ZnS secondary phase at the back interface has a negligible effect on the electrical properties of the CZTS solar cells, devices with large grains of ZnS in the bulk of the absorber layer show a lower efficiency because of a reduced V_{OC} , J_{SC} , and FF in ref. [36]. More recently, the presence of ZnSe at the surface and in the bulk of CZTGSe photoactive layer resulted in a reduced V_{OC} and J_{SC} .^[37] If ZnS would appear as an insulator phase, this would affect the J_{SC} , but it also affects other PV parameters; then, its effect is due to other electronic effect to be investigated. But there are other factors that can be responsible for the lower V_{OC} and all the PV parameters.

The nonoptimized double S gradient through the CZGSSe layer, shown in Figure 3c, can be another reason for the lower V_{OC} for sample 3. The increase of the $[S]/([S] + [Se])$ atomic ratio is responsible for a higher E_g , but the optimization of the S distribution through the active layer is one of the challenges to enhance V_{OC} and the solar cell efficiency. Another characteristic of this device 3 is the development of a different back interface with the formation of a $Mo(S,Se)_2$ layer because of the higher S content near the back contact. It is necessary to point out that the back interface is also very important to enhance the carrier collection, and here, it has been demonstrated that depends on the thickness of the absorber layer used. The use of a different back-contact configuration and thickness of CZGSSe film could lead to a different alignment of $MoSe_2$ and $Mo(S,Se)_2$, which would affect specially J_{SC} and FF of the solar cells.^[38,39] It is

the device 3 that presents much lower FF, which could be related with a different back interface reflected in the higher series resistance R_s value as shown in Table 2. The device 1 presents a higher FF, indicating the positive impact of adding an intermediate layer of V_2O_5 to enhance the Ohmic contact.^[19] And not less important, the significant reduction of the thickness of the kesterite layer probably results in an enhanced back recombination, decreasing the J_{SC} and all the PV parameters of device 3, as displayed in Table 2.

Previously, we reported 1.3 μm CZGSSe thin films grown on Mo/SLG with an E_g of around 1.85 eV and an efficiency of 1.8%, which is lower than that of devices 1 and 2, using the same absorber growth process as in the present work.^[13] This result indicates that it is possible to fabricate semitransparent wide bandgap kesterite solar cells with higher efficiencies than using the Mo standard back contact and opens a wide range of applications. The straight-through transmittance of the completed device 3 is plotted in Figure 6b, reaching values near 40% in the near-infrared region and with an average visible transmittance of $\approx 7\%$, being the highest transmittance obtained for CZGSSe-based PV devices, up to our knowledge. The transmittance of the completed device is higher than that of the bare absorber (see Figure 1). It indicates that the ITO and ZnO layers enhance the transmission of the optical structure due to light interference processes at the interfaces of the films forming the device, similar to what was observed for the $CuGaSe_2$ -based solar cells.^[40] An appropriate optical model should be developed in order to better explain this effect. Future work is geared toward the control of the sulfurization process to develop an optimized S gradient through thin absorber layers that allows for increasing device performance at the same time as the transparency.

3. Conclusion

CZGSSe thin films have been deposited by sulfurization of coevaporated CZGSe layers on two different back contacts, $Mo/V_2O_5/FTO$ and Mo/FTO , and their properties have been investigated in order to optimize the active layer properties and the corresponding solar cells performance. CZGSSe phase together with $Ge(S,Se)_2$ secondary phase has been identified by GIXRD and Raman spectroscopy measurements. All the CZGSSe thin films present a higher S content near the surface. The thinner CZGSSe grown on Mo/FTO presents a double S gradient through the absorber layer thickness resulting in the formation of $Mo(S,Se)_2$ and in the presence of CZGSSe at the back interface, which are very different from previously investigated samples with micron-thickness layers. We report the fabrication of the first efficient semitransparent CZGSSe-based solar cells. Efficiencies up to 3.1%, 2.7%, and 0.8% have been achieved for CZGSSe-based devices with E_g of 1.73, 1.86, and 2.10 eV, respectively. The incorporation of V_2O_5 interlayer in the back-contact structure leads to an enhanced FF of the PV device. The presence of ZnS secondary phase, the higher S content near the Mo/FTO back contact, and the much thinner absorber layer of 400 nm are identified as the possible origin of the reduced efficiency of 0.8%. Transmittance near 40% in the NIR region has been achieved for CZGSSe solar cells with 400 nm of absorber thickness and E_g of 2.10 eV. These results

reveal the importance of the fine control of the sulfurization process for an improved device performance. Therefore, it is necessary an appropriate control of the proper S distribution and back interface, and to design strategies to avoid the formation of secondary phases that have a negative effect on device performance.

4. Experimental Section

Back-Contact Preparation: Commercial FTO-coated soda–lime glass (Sigma–Aldrich) with a sheet resistance of $7\ \Omega\ \text{sq}^{-1}$ and an optical transmission of 80%–82% in the visible range was used as the transparent back electrodes. Different back-contact configurations were investigated. First, a Mo (15 nm)/ V_2O_5 (15 nm)/FTO/glass structure was used, which allows for reducing the series resistance of the final solar cell. Previously, we have demonstrated that this back-contact configuration is very effective to obtain efficient CZGSe- and CZTGe-based solar cells.^[20,21] Moreover, a more simplified back-contact structure was used; Mo with thicknesses of around 30 nm was deposited on top of FTO. The V_2O_5 layer was grown by thermal evaporation (Oerlikon Univex 250) with a deposition rate of $0.5\ \text{\AA}\ \text{s}^{-1}$ and a base pressure of 4×10^{-5} mbar. The Mo layer was deposited by DC magnetron sputtering (Alliance Concept CT100) using $4.2\ \text{W}\ \text{cm}^{-12}$ power density, at 1.3×10^{-3} mbar and at room temperature.

Absorber Synthesis: CZGSe thin films were grown by sulfurization of coevaporated CZGSe thin films. CZGSe thin films were coevaporated from Cu, ZnSe, Ge, and Se sources at a nominal substrate temperature of 150°C as described elsewhere.^[21] The base pressure in the vacuum chamber was of 10^{-7} mbar, while the working pressure was in the range of 10^{-6} mbar. The thickness of the kesterite-type absorber layer was controlled by the evaporation time of CZGSe thin films. Samples of 1200 and 400 nm of thicknesses were selected for this work. A NaF precursor layer of around 12 nm was evaporated just before the coevaporation of CZGSe thin films in the same vacuum chamber due to the beneficial effect of alkali elements on kesterite-based solar cells.

In order to obtain the CZGSe thin films, the CZGSe layers were placed into a graphite box and sulfurized at 480°C for 1 h under Ar atmosphere in a tubular furnace. 22 mg of S and 6 mg of GeS were included in the graphite box in the case of the samples with thicknesses of around $1.2\ \mu\text{m}$ (samples 1 and 2 in Table 1),^[13,14] while only 2 mg of S and 2 mg of GeS were added in the case of the much thinner absorber layer of 400 nm (sample 3 in Table 1). GeS was added to avoid the loss of Ge at high temperature. The purpose of thinner kesterite layer was to increase the transparency of the solar cells.

Device Fabrication: Before the CdS deposition, CZGSe thin films were etched with KCN 2% for 30 s. After that, a CdS buffer layer of around 50 nm of thickness was grown by chemical bath. A window layer composed of i-ZnO (50 nm) and $\text{In}_2\text{O}_3:\text{SnO}_2$ (ITO) (350 nm) layers was deposited by DC-pulsed sputtering deposition. Neither grids nor an antireflection coating was deposited onto the final PV devices. Moreover, no thermal treatment was performed to the solar cells.

Characterization: EDX (Oxford Instruments, model INCAx-sight) using a Hitachi S-3000N SEM was used to measure the chemical composition of the kesterite-type thin films. For that, operating voltages of 25 kV and the Cu K, Zn K, Ge K, Se K, and S K lines were used for elemental quantification. The distribution of elements throughout the thickness of the kesterite absorber layer was measured via GD-OES using a Spectrumba GDA 650. Depth profiles are collected using an argon plasma in a pulsed radio frequency (RF) mode for sputtering and a charge-coupled device (CCD) array for optical detection. The measurements were done without calibration samples, which is the reason for showing the depth profiles as qualitative plots. However, these enable a reliable comparison of the qualitative distribution of the containing elements in the kesterite layers because all measurements were performed under the very same conditions. GIXRD was performed to investigate the structural properties of the CZGSe thin films and to identify the different phases. GIXRD data were collected with a PANalytical X'Pert Pro MPD diffractometer, using

Cu K α radiation and a multilayer mirror to produce a parallel beam. Detector scans with incident angles of 1° and 4° were carried out. The morphology of the CZGSe/Mo/ V_2O_5 /FTO/glass structure was investigated by SEM using a SEM FEI VERIOS 460, operating at 2 kV. Raman scattering measurements of the CZGSe solar cells were performed using FHR640 monochromator from Horiba Jobin-Yvon coupled with CCD camera. The measurements were performed in backscattering configuration through the probe designed at IREC using 325 and 532 nm lasers as excitation source. The laser power density did not exceed $80\ \text{W}\ \text{cm}^{-2}$. The spectral position was calibrated by imposing the main peak of monocrystalline Si to $520\ \text{cm}^{-1}$. Transmittance of the CZGSe/back-contact structures were measured with a Cary Varian 5000 spectrophotometer in the range from 300 to 1100 nm. The transmittance of the completed solar cell device was measured by using a spectroscopic ellipsometer (Woollam VASE) in the same wavelength range and using focusing probes that allows measurements in a selected circular area with a radius of $200\ \mu\text{m}$. Current–voltage (*I*–*V*) characteristics of the PV devices were measured by using a Sun 3000 class solar simulator (Abet Technologies Inc., Milford, Connecticut, USA) under standard test conditions (25°C , AM1.5, $100\ \text{mW}\ \text{cm}^{-2}$). EQE of the solar cells was measured using a Bentham PVE300 system (Bentham Instruments Ltd., Berkshire, UK) calibrated with a Si and Ge photodiodes.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by CELL2WIN (PID2019-104372RB-C32), InnoPV (PID2022-140226OB-C33) funded by MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 and by “ERDF A way of making Europe,” ASSESS (TED2021-129666B-C21 and TED2021-129666B-C22) funded by MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 by the “European Union NextGenerationEU/PRTR” and the European Project INFINITE-CELL (H2020-MSCA-RISE-2017-777968). M.P. and M.G. acknowledge the financial support from the Spanish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities within the Ramón y Cajal (grant no. RYC-2017-23758) and Ramón y Cajal (grant no. RYC2022-035588-I) programs, respectively. A.R.P. also acknowledges the financial support from Community of Madrid within Youth Employment Program (grant no. PEJD-2017-PRE/IND-4062). The authors would also like to thank Fátima Cabello and Marina García for technical support.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Keywords

anion substitutions, copper zinc germanium sulfoselenides, semitransparent solar cells, wide bandgap energies

Received: November 22, 2023

Revised: December 15, 2023

Published online: December 27, 2023

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