Four-Junction Wafer-Bonded Concentrator Solar Cells


Abstract—The highest solar cell conversion efficiencies are achieved with four-junction devices under concentrated sunlight illumination. Different cell architectures are under development, all targeting an ideal bandgap combination close to 1.9, 1.4, 1.0, and 0.7 eV. Wafer bonding is used in this work to combine materials with a significant lattice mismatch. Three cell architectures are presented using the same two top junctions of GaInP/GaAs but different infrared absorbers based on Germanium, GaSb, or GaInAs on InP. The modeled efficiency potential at 500 suns is in the range of 49–54% for all three devices, but the highest efficiency is expected for the InP-based cell. An efficiency of 46% at 508 suns was already measured by AIST in Japan for a GaInP/GaAs/GaInAsP/GaInAs solar cell and represents the highest independently confirmed efficiency today. Solar cells on Ge and GaSb are in the development phase at Fraunhofer ISE, and the first demonstration of functional devices is presented in this paper.

Index Terms—Concentrator photovoltaics, high-efficiency, multijunction, photovoltaic cells.

I. INTRODUCTION

FOUR-JUNCTION solar cells are under development as the next-generation product for high-concentration photovoltaics to replace today’s triple-junction technology. Lattice-matched and metamorphic triple-junction cells on Ge reach efficiency values up to 42% [1], [2] and the best inverted metamorphic GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs solar cell up to 44.4% [3]–[5]. Further improvements in cell performance are expected by adding an additional p-n junction with optimum bandgap energy. From detailed balance calculations, it is known that a combination of 1.9, 1.4, 1.0, and 0.5 eV absorbers is ideal to convert the 500×AM1.5 direct sun spectrum [6], which is the typical spectrum for concentrator photovoltaic applications. In reality, this material combination is not easy to achieve, mainly because III–V compounds with large bandgap are predominantly found for small lattice constants, whereas low-bandgap absorbers tend to have larger lattice constants. Lattice-mismatched growth using two metamorphic GaInAs junctions and two lattice constant grading layers has turned out to be a suitable method to form four-junction solar cells [3], [7], as well as transfer printing [8]. Wafer bonding is an alternative approach and has been used to form multijunction solar cells combining InP- and GaAs-based compounds [9]–[13]. In this paper, we present the latest status of a four-junction solar cell development using an upper GaAs-based GaInP/GaAs cell structure bonded to a lower GaInAsP/GaInAs cell structure on InP as schematically presented in Fig. 1(a). This cell includes only lattice-matched epitaxial growth, which results in the lowest threading dislocation densities. Two alternative cell architectures are introduced using a combination of wafer bonding and metamorphic growth to reach the optimum set of bandgap energies. Fig. 1(b) shows a cell on Germanium with a metamorphic GaInAs subcell bonded to a top GaInP/GaAs tandem. Fig. 1(c) shows a cell on GaSb bonded to an inverted metamorphic GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs triple-junction cell. All three designs use similar top cell absorbers, but the materials for the lower two subcells are different.

The cell structure on Germanium benefits from the lowest substrate cost and an established cell processing in the multijunction solar cell industry. GaSb, on the other hand,
allows us to extend the spectral absorption range toward 0.5 eV (2480 nm) by using lattice-matched GaInAsSb compounds [14], [15]. Therefore, this is the only cell concept that reaches the optimum set of bandgap energies for a four-junction cell from detailed balance calculations [6], [16]. However, in reality, the performance of a specific multijunction solar cell stack is not only related to the bandgap energies of the materials but rather influenced by specific material properties such as absorption coefficient, mobility, minority carrier lifetime, and availability of suitable barrier materials. This paper, therefore, starts with a more detailed evaluation of realistic efficiency potentials for the wafer-bonded four-junction solar cells and then discusses experimental fabrication and recent results for each of the cell architectures.

A. Theoretical Modeling

Theoretical calculation were performed using a self-built code for calculating the absorption in each layer of a four-junction cell, using the transfer matrix method [17]. It was assumed that light is coherent throughout the whole device structure. To achieve a proper optical termination, the substrate was defined to have an infinite thickness. Absorption coefficients for the materials were taken from [18]–[22], as well as from in-house measurements at Fraunhofer ISE. For unknown compositions, the data were interpolated from the nearest available neighbors. A morphing algorithm was used for the interpolation of \( n(\lambda) \) and \( k(\lambda) \) data, which takes into account critical energy points where the slope of the dielectric functions changes significantly. Linear interpolation with composition was performed between these critical energy endpoints. The interpolation method was tested for Al\(_x\)Ga\(_{1-x}\)As as compounds and found to lead to excellent agreement with experimental results. The dielectric function of ternary and quaternary III–V compounds was then determined by using this morphing algorithm, and the transfer matrix method was used to calculate the expected absorption in each solar cell layer. The current of a subcell is then calculated for the AM1.5d spectrum by assuming that each absorbed photon creates one electron–hole pair, which contributes to the photocurrent.

The algorithm for the optimization of the four-junction solar cell followed a sequence of

1) finding the optimum bandgap combination by maximizing a fitness function defined as the sum of all bandgap energies multiplied by the photocurrent of the current limiting subcell; this represents an approximation to the power of the device;
2) applying a single-diode model to each junction to determine the overall dark-current characteristics of the four-junction cell;
3) optimizing \( P_{\text{IPPP}} \) by assuming \( J(V) = \text{smallest photocurrent of all subcells minus the sum of the dark currents of the subcells.} \)

Typical values have been assumed for the series resistance (15 m\(\Omega\)-cm\(^{-2}\)) and grid shading (4%). These values are realistic and may be even improved in the future. The parallel resistance was taken as infinite. The reverse saturation current \( J_{rs} \) is a function of the bandgap energy of the material and may be determined from a thermodynamic limit approximation (Shockley–Queisser), or following the method described by Wanlass et al. [23], [24]. We used measured values of the best single-junction solar cells with similar material composition and adapted the values for \( J_{rs} \) for the exact bandgap energy by using the method of Wanlass with \( J_{rs,i} = \beta T^2 \frac{e^{-E_i/kT}}{1 - e^{-E_i/kT}} \), \( \beta = A e^{BE_i} [A \cdot m^{-2} \cdot K^{-3}] \) and \( A = 0.702548; B = 2.38585 \). The saturation currents for the different subcells are listed in Table I. The different values reflect material-related differences between the compounds, and this is especially important for the performance of the indirect Ge junction, which shows a higher dark saturation current compared to direct III–V compounds in the same bandgap range.

For calculating an optimum configuration for each four-junction solar cell, not only the absorber layers must be defined. MgF\(_2\)/Ta\(_2\)O\(_5\) with a thickness of 127 and 75 nm deposited on a 30-nm AlInP window layer was assumed as the antireflective coating for all solar cells. The window layer was calculated to contribute partly to the photocurrent of the AlGaInP top junction as found from experimental results [25]. The influence of these upmost layers was verified by comparing the modeled absorption of the GaInP top cell to measured external quantum efficiencies. A good agreement was obtained for high-quality solar cells. Tunnel diodes, barrier layers, and bond layers were not included in the optimization as it may be assumed that such layers can be chosen from high-bandgap alloys, leading to negligible absorption loss.

The results of the theoretical model for all three four-junction solar cell designs of Fig. 1 are summarized in Table II. The calculations were performed for 500×AM1.5d (1000 W/m\(^2\)) conditions. The thickness of each subcell in the optimized four-junction device is chosen to ensure current matching between all junctions, but the thickness of the bottom cell was restricted to: 75 \(\mu\)m for Ge, 2.5 \(\mu\)m for GaInAs, and 5 \(\mu\)m for GaSb. We assumed that these are typical active layer thicknesses, which may

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material System</th>
<th>Saturation Current ( J_{rs} )</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AlGaInP (1.92 eV)</td>
<td>( 5.5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaAs (1.42 eV)</td>
<td>( 1.6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaInAs (1.08 eV)</td>
<td>( 2.0 \times 10^{-10} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaInAsP (1.08 eV)</td>
<td>( 1.9 \times 10^{-11} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaSb (0.73 eV)</td>
<td>( 6.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaInAs (0.71 eV)</td>
<td>( 2.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ge (0.67 eV)</td>
<td>( 3.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A/m}^2 )</td>
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<tr>
<th>Device Concept</th>
<th>( \eta ) [%]</th>
<th>( V_{oc} ) [V]</th>
<th>( J_{sc} ) / ( C ) [mA/cm(^2)]</th>
<th>FF [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>InP-based cell (a)</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>4.376</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ge-based cell (b)</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>4.170</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GaSb-based cell (c)</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>4.412</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
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contribute to the photocurrent. From these calculations, we find that the InP-based GaInP/GaAs//GaInAs/GaInAs cell structure has the highest potential and may reach efficiencies up to 53.8%, followed by the antimonide-based GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs//GaSb cell with a maximum efficiency of 51.5% and the Ge-based GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs/Ge cell with 49.5%. The absorption of each of these solar cell devices is plotted in Fig. 2. The most pronounced differences are observed in the wavelength range of the lowest junction. Germanium (0.67 eV) is an indirect semiconductor, and the absorption, therefore, has a long tail between 1600 and 1900 nm. GaSb (0.73 eV) and GaInAs (0.71 eV) are direct semiconductors, and the absorption is abrupt close to the bandgap. The absorption of GaInAs is extended 62 nm into the infrared compared with GaSb. It will be seen later that such a large difference is not necessarily found experimentally but obviously depends on the exact composition and lattice matching of the ternary GaInAs cell to the InP substrate.

The second subcell with a bandgap of 1.08 eV was adjusted in thickness to match the current of the bottom subcell, and consequently, the thicknesses of the GaAs cell with 1.42 eV and the AlGaInP cell with 1.92 eV were chosen accordingly to balance the photocurrents of all junctions. The differences in the absorption of the lowest subcell control the overall $J_{sc}$ of the cell and the current consequently increases from the indirect Ge-based cell to the GaSb-based cell and to the InP-based cell. The voltage and fill factor (FF) on the other hand are strongly influenced by the dark saturation current, and again Ge has a significantly lower $V_{oc}$ because of the high dark current, whereas the GaSb cell benefits both from low dark current and high bandgap of the bottom cell.

The theoretical model may be extended in the future to model also four-junction devices using a GaInAsSb bottom cell between 0.5 and 0.73 eV, which may allow even higher efficiencies. However, material constraints may lead to a higher dark saturation current, which has been shown to be of major importance for reaching the highest performance levels. In summary, assuming materials with sufficient diffusion length, the modeling results suggest that four-junction solar cell with >50% efficiency at 500 suns are, in fact, possible.

III. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

All four-junction solar cells in Fig. 1 were realized experimentally. The III–V compound semiconductor layer structures were grown at Fraunhofer ISE by metal–organic vapor phase epitaxy using an AIX2800-G4 reactor (8 × 100 mm substrate configuration) for arsenides and phosphides and a CRIUS closed coupled showerhead reactor (7 × 100 mm configuration) for gallium antimonide. The substrates for InP, GaAs, and Ge had a diameter of 100 mm, whereas GaSb was grown on 2-in wafers placed in the middle of a 100-mm recess. Some of the InP-based solar cells were realized on InP-on-GaAs engineered substrates with a diameter of also 100 mm. These special wafers are a product of SOTEC and enabled by transfer of a thin (<1 μm) InP layer from a bulk substrate to a GaAs wafer using SmartCut technology [26].

Typical growth temperatures were between 530 and 700 °C, V/III ratios between 1 and 40. Arsine, phosphine and trimethylantimony were used as group-V precursors and trimethylgallium, trimethylindium, trimethylaluminium as group-III precursors. Further details are published in [9], [12], and [27]. All top tandem cell structures were grown in an inverted manner on a GaAs substrate, whereas all bottom cell structures were grown upright on Ge, InP, InP-on-GaAs, or GaSb.

All solar cell wafers were polished after the epitaxial growth to obtain a low surface roughness of <1 μm. Wafer bonding for InP-based solar cells was performed at SOTEC, using a proprietary process developed with CEA-LETI. All other wafers were bonded at Fraunhofer ISE using a single-wafer Ayumi SAB100 high vacuum tool, offering the possibility to remove surface oxides by a fast atom beam of Argon before joining the wafers at a bond force of 10 kN. This allowed high bond stability and low bond resistance in the range of 1–5 mΩ·cm². The bond interface for the InP-based cell (a) was formed between InP and GaAs, for the Ge-based cell (b) between GaAs and Ga0.67In0.33P and for the GaSb-based cell (c) between GaSb and Ga0.23In0.77P.

The GaAs substrate on the top tandem cell was removed by chemical etching, and concentrator solar cell devices were processed using standard metal contacts and dielectric coatings. 75-nm Ta2O5 and 127-nm MgF2 were evaporated onto the Al-InP window layer as the antireflective coating. Solar cell devices had an area of typically 5.3 mm² with etched trenches of at least 10-μm depth separating the p-n junctions. Electrical characterization was carried out in the Fraunhofer ISE CalLab using a grating monochromator setup for the quantum efficiency [28], [29]; a multisource solar simulator [30] for 1-sun $I$–$V$ characteristics; and a flash simulator for measurements under concentration. Both single-flash simulators, as well as a four-flash simulator (QuadFlash) with spectrum control, have recently been used [31], [32].
Fig. 1) using wafer bonding to join compounds with significant difference in lattice constant.

**A. Four-Junction Solar Cell on InP**

A more detailed discussion of the wafer-bonded GaInP/GaAs/GaInAsP/GaInAs four-junction solar cell was already published previously in [9], [10], [12], and [13] with a calibrated efficiency of 44.7% measured under 297×AM1.5d conditions. These devices were further developed in the meantime following an engineering approach and resulting in improved characteristics in respect to

1. current balance between subcells;
2. series resistance of emitter;
3. shading of metal contacts;
4. current collection and voltage of the GaInP top cell;
5. edge definition by steep mesa etch.

The best solar cell was sent for external validation to the Japanese Calibration Laboratory AIST. I–V characteristics were measured under the AM1.5d spectrum at 508-fold concentration, and an efficiency of 46.0% was confirmed for this concentrator cell with an area of 5.2 mm$^2$ (see Fig. 3). It should be mentioned that the cell was measured under spectrally matched conditions of a T-HIPPS solar simulator, leading to nearly identical irradiation conditions of 50.9, 50.8, 50.0, and 50.9 W/cm$^2$ for the first, second, third, and fourth subcell from the top, respectively. The same cell had been measured before at Fraunhofer ISE CalLab, obtaining an efficiency of 46.5% with a single-flash simulator leading to a surplus in current generation of 30% in the GaInAsP cell compared with AM1.5d conditions. It is known that this spectral mismatch of this simulator spectrum may lead to an overestimation of the FF, as discussed in [31], which was accounted for by a higher error bar. It is important for a proper calibration of multijunction solar cells to keep the spectral mismatch for each subcell under the simulator spectrum small.

Fig. 4 shows an external quantum efficiency of a solar cell, which was grown on InP-on-GaAs engineered substrate [26]. The use of an engineered substrate reduces manufacturing costs by replacing a 500-μm-thick InP bulk crystal by a <1-μm-thin seed layer transferred to GaAs. The cell is processed identical to a solar cell on an InP bulk wafer. The external quantum efficiency of all junctions reaches above 90%, and the subcell currents are matched within ±2%. I–V characteristics have been plotted as a function of concentration in Fig. 5 for two measurements: one under a single-source flash simulator, resulting in a higher spectral mismatch, and one under a QuadFlash simulator with precise spectrum control. While an efficiency of 46.1% is measured under the single flash, the measurement shows an efficiency of 46.1% at 312-sun concentration was obtained for the QuadFlash simulator, compared with 47.4% at 389 suns with the single flash.
device and proves the outstanding material quality, which has been obtained for these devices.

B. Four-Junction Solar Cell on Ge

Four-junction solar cells were also realized by a combination of an inverted GaInP/AlGaAs top tandem solar cell with an upright metamorphic grown GaInAs/Ge bottom tandem cell. Both solar cell structures were joined by surface activated direct wafer bonding at Fraunhofer ISE. The diffusion of the lowest Ge junction was performed in the epitaxy reactor followed by the growth of a Ga$_{1-x}$In$_x$As metamorphic buffer, a tunnel diode, and the Ga$_{0.82}$In$_{0.18}$As subcell. After bonding the tandem cells together, the GaAs substrate was removed and the solar cells processed. The material quality of the Ga$_{0.82}$In$_{0.18}$As cell depends strongly on the threading dislocation density, which can be achieved on top of the metamorphic buffer. This has been measured by cathodoluminescence to be less than $10^6$ cm$^{-2}$. At this low level of dislocation density, no significant effect on the device characteristics is expected. Quantum efficiencies and $I$–$V$ characteristics versus concentration are shown in Fig. 6. The photogenerated current densities in each subcell are approximately 1 mA/cm$^2$ lower compared with the InP-based structure. In addition, the device efficiency peaks already at 188-sun concentration due to a high resistance originating from the lower tunnel diode or the bond interface. Further optimization of the cell structure will improve the efficiency in the future.

C. Four-Junction Solar Cell on GaSb

Finally, first experimental results are presented for an antimonide based four-junction solar cell device. An inverted metamorphic GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs structure with Ga$_{1-x}$In$_x$P lattice grading between the GaAs and Ga$_{0.76}$In$_{0.24}$As subcell was realized and bonded to a simple n-on-p GaSb cell. The latter one was formed by epitaxy growth of a Te-doped emitter layer on a Si-doped base. This cell structure did not yet include any passivation layers on the front or back side of the device. The wafers were joined using the surface activated bonding at Fraunhofer ISE and low bond resistances $<5$ m$\Omega$·cm$^2$ were confirmed with test samples.

The external quantum efficiency in Fig. 7 shows good performance for the upper three subcells, whereas the lowest GaSb junction still suffers from significant recombination losses. These losses are explained by the missing front surface passivation layer of the GaSb cell. Carriers that are diffusing to the front surface of the GaSb cell are likely to recombine in the vicinity of the bond interface, which is formed between n-GaInP and the n-GaSb emitter. The region around the bond interface is characterized by a high defect density, which originates from the surface activation with Argon atoms prior to the bonding. It was found for GaAs and Si that the fast atom beam treatment results in an amorphous layer with a thickness between 2 and 5 nm [33]–[35], which is likely to suffer from high nonradiative recombination. Further improvement of the GaSb-based cell design requires the introduction of a transparent front surface passivation layer to prevent minority carriers from reaching the bond interface. Overall, the cell structure reaches already open-circuit voltages up to 3.9 V under concentration and an efficiency of approximately 29.1% at 194 suns.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Multijunction solar cells with four or more junctions will be necessary to reach conversion efficiencies above 50% under concentrated sunlight in the future. Detailed balance calculations suggest that 65% efficiency is obtainable at 500× concentration using a combination of absorbers with 1.9, 1.4, 1.0, and 0.5 eV. In reality, optical losses by front surface reflection, parasitic absorption in barrier layers, grid shading and electric losses by recombination and various resistances will keep real efficiencies well below this number. We have developed a more realistic model starting from measured material data and calculating absorption by the transfer matrix method. Current–voltage characteristics are obtained from a simple single-diode model for each junction. Three architectures for four-junction devices based on InP, Ge, and GaSb were discussed, and the model predicts that efficiencies up to 53.8% are achievable. Of
course, this requires excellent material quality of all junctions to ensure that every absorbed photon contributes to photocurrent. However, experimental results are not far from there. We have demonstrated external quantum efficiencies above 90% and efficiencies up to 46.1% (at 312 AM1.5d) for a wafer-bonded GaInP/GaAs/GaInAs//GaSb four-junction solar cell with calculated current densities for each junction under the AM1.5d ASTMG173-3 spectrum at 1000 W/m².

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REFERENCES


Authors’ photographs and biographies not available at the time of publication.