

# Week 13

## Light Detectors 3

## Multijunction Cells

## Reliability

## Solar Modules

## Chapter 7.5, 7.8, 7.9

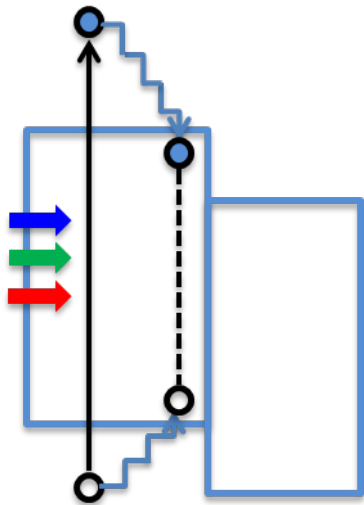


# Multijunction OPV cells: The Most Effective Way to Increase Efficiency

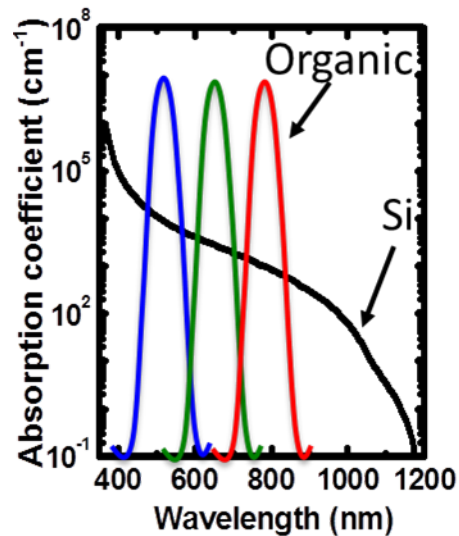
Can significantly exceed the thermodynamic limit of single junction cells

## Major issues of single junction OPV:

(a) Thermalization loss

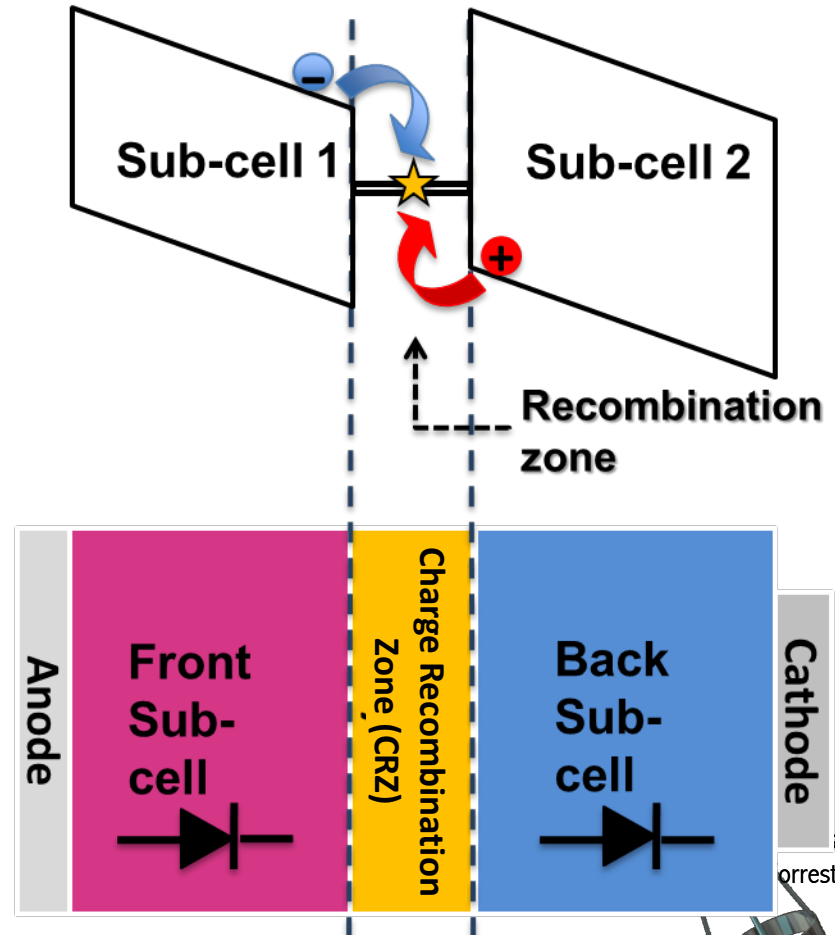


(b) Narrow absorption range

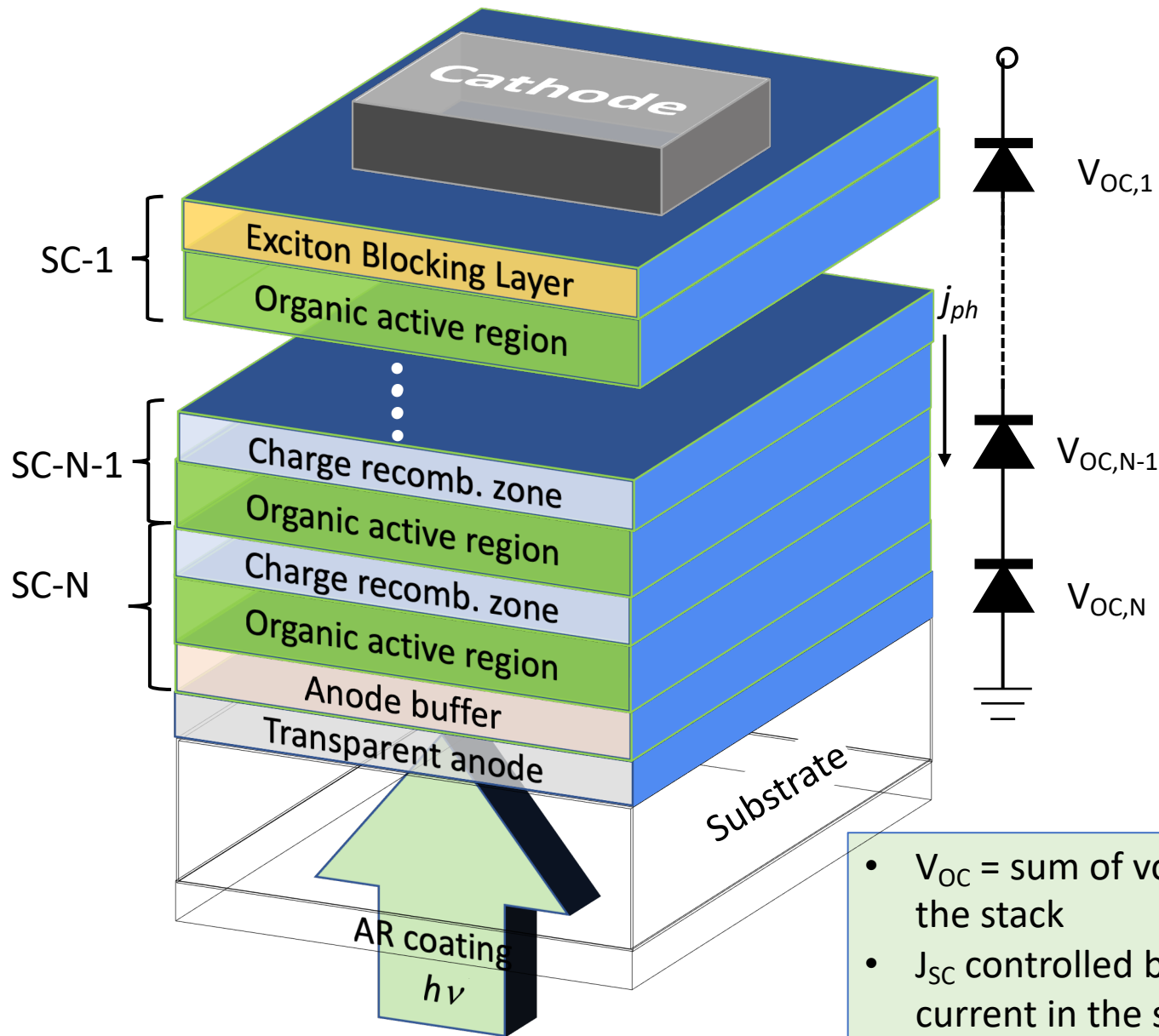


## Advantages of multijunction cells:

- Decrease thermalization losses
- Cover a broad spectral range

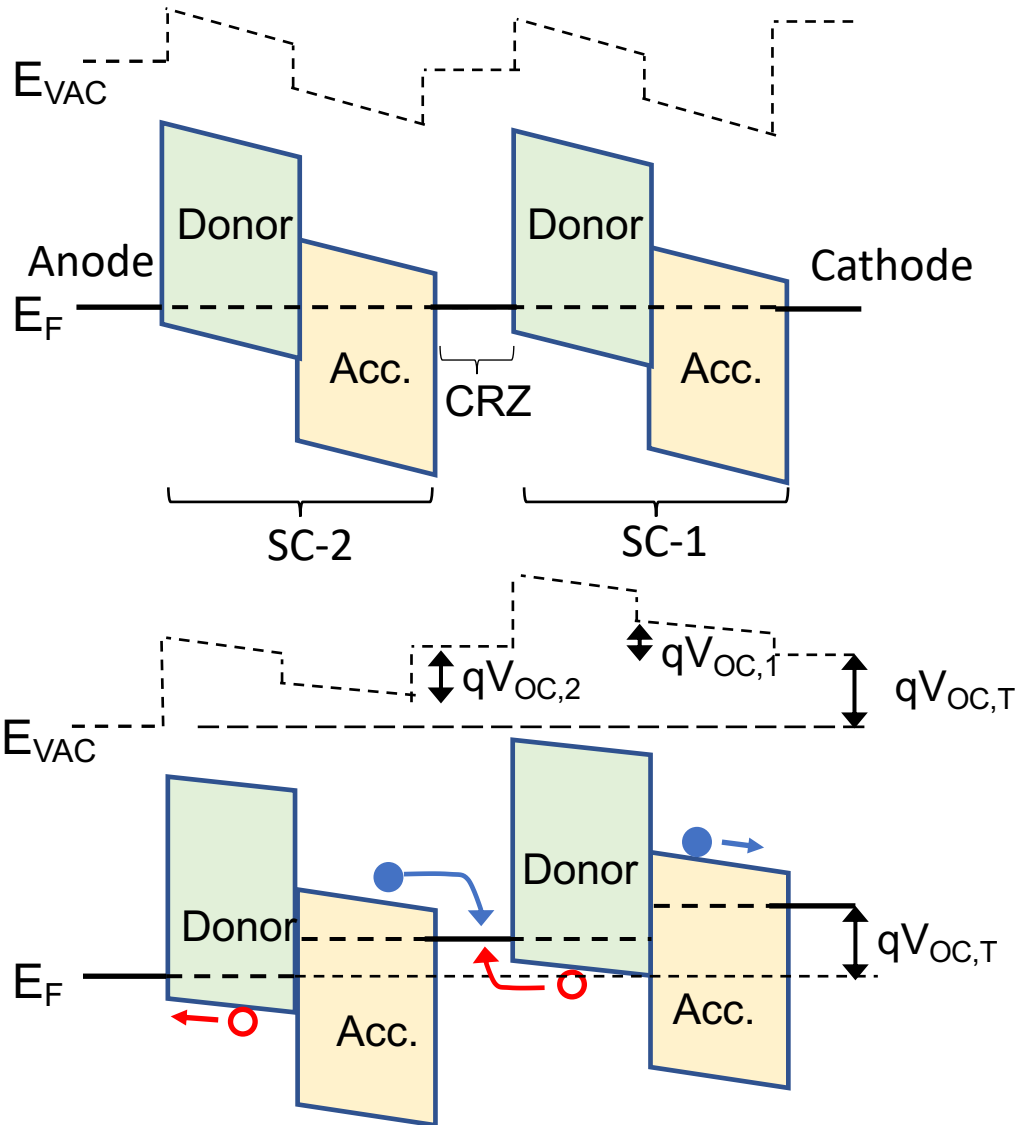


# Tandem Cell Designs: Series Stacking

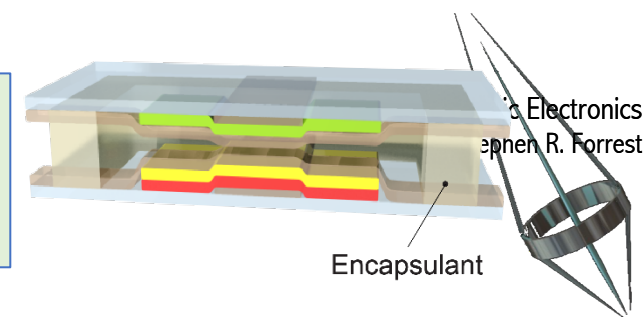
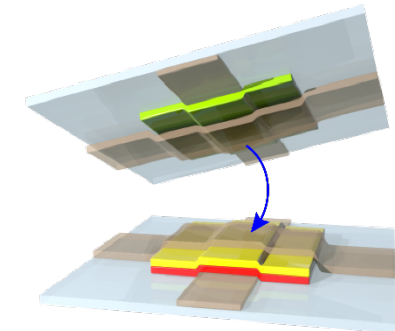
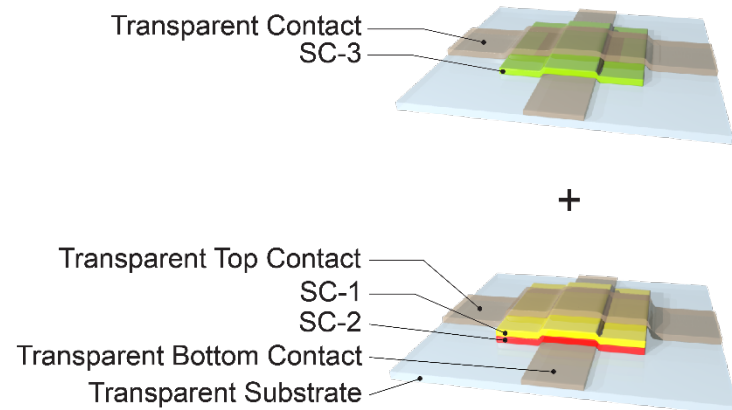
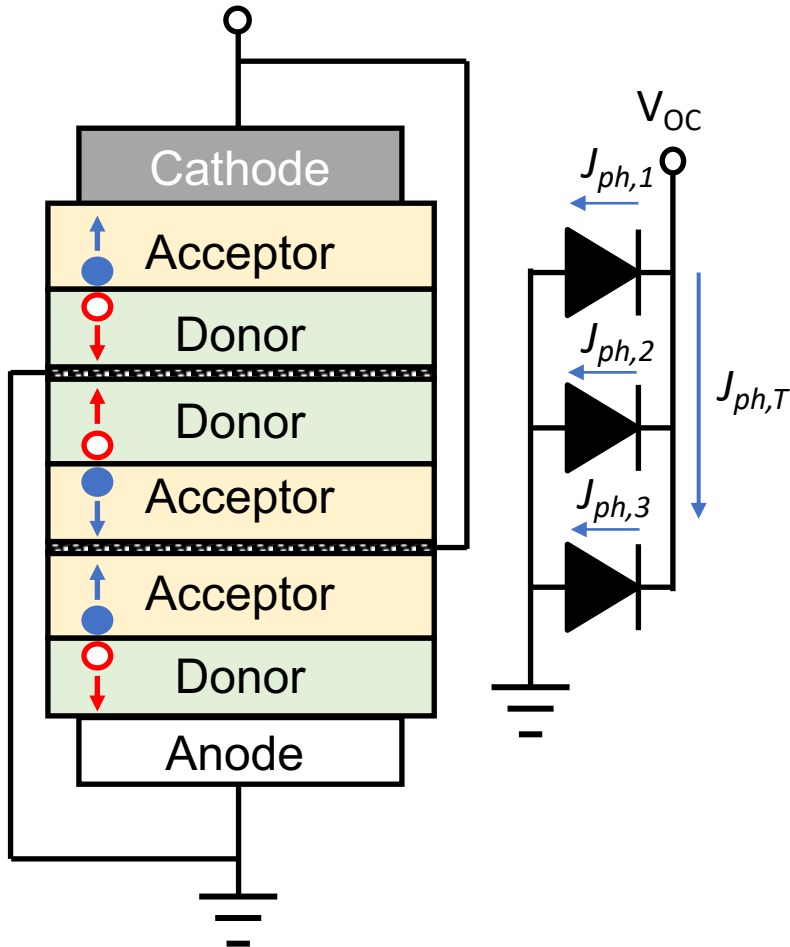


- $V_{OC}$  = sum of voltages of the subcells in the stack
- $J_{SC}$  controlled by the lowest subcell current in the stack

# Tandem Cell Energetics

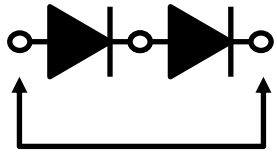


# Tandem Cell Designs: Parallel Stacking



- $V_{OC}$  controlled by the lowest voltage element in the stack
- $J_{SC} = \text{sum of individual subcell currents}$

# Tandem Cells



Ag

BPhen 7 nm

C<sub>70</sub> 7 nm

DBP:C<sub>70</sub> 25 nm

MoO<sub>3</sub> 5 nm

Ag 0.1 nm

PTCBI 5 nm

C<sub>70</sub> 10 nm

Blended SQs 16 nm

MoO<sub>3</sub> 20 nm

ITO

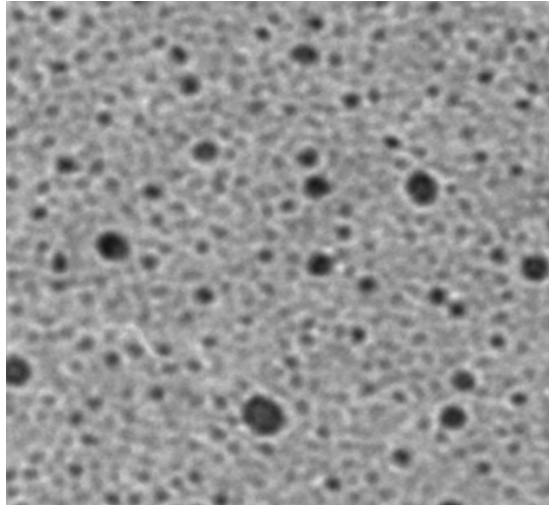
Glass

CRZ

- Thinner cells have higher IQE.
- Stacking cells in series improves the total absorption.
- Addition of the photovoltage increases  $V_{OC}$ .
- Ag nanoclusters provide efficient charge recombination.

- DBP:C<sub>70</sub> green absorber.
- Blended squaraine/C<sub>70</sub> red/NIR absorber.

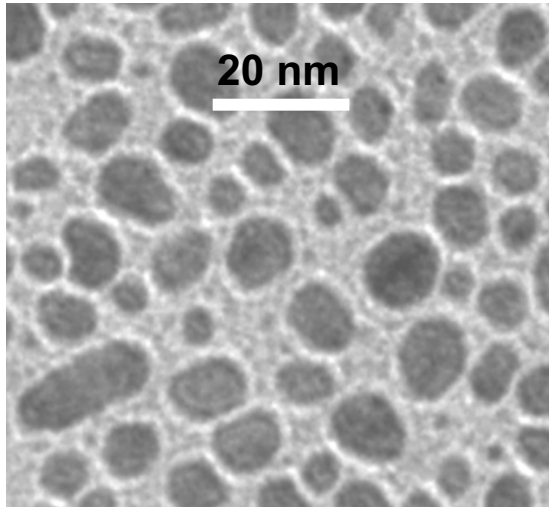
# Charge Recombination Zone: Ag Nanoclusters



0.5 nm

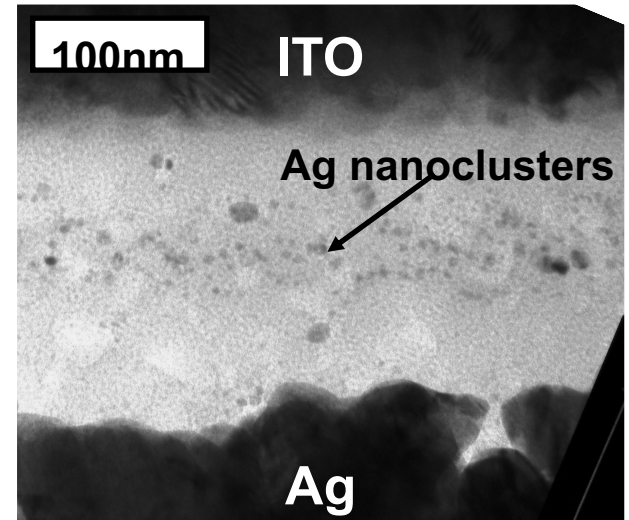
PV cell 1

PV cell 2



20 nm

45 nm



100nm

ITO

Ag nanoclusters

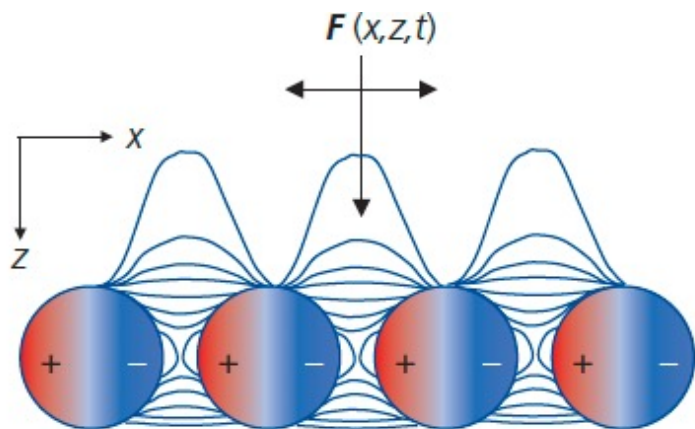
Ag

Nanoclusters give rise to surface plasmons

Plamsons reradiate field into thin active region

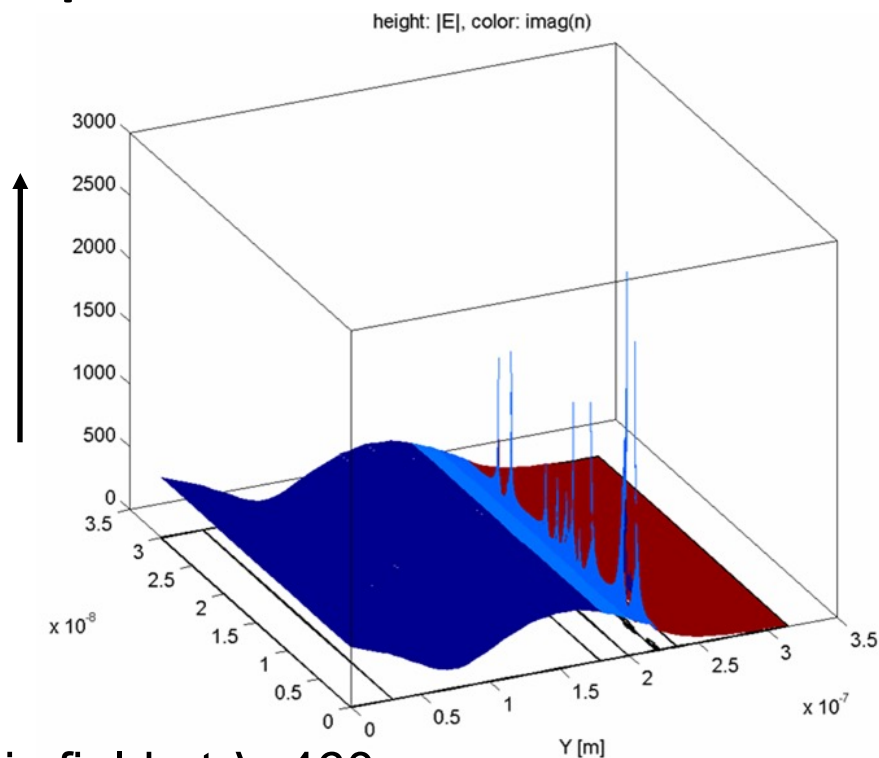
Increase in efficiency >50%

# Rough interface: Surface plasmon excitation

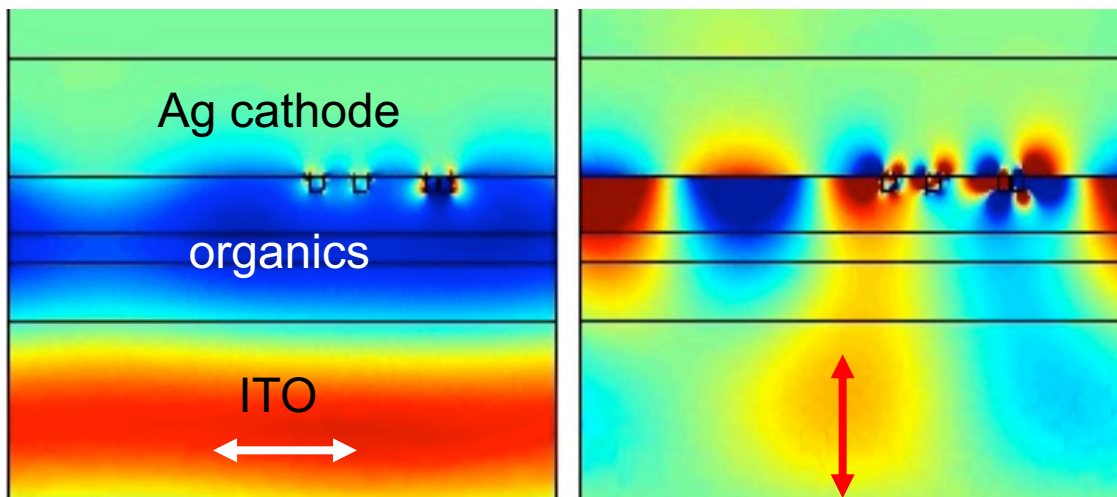


Surface plasmons intensify near field absorption

$|E|^2$



Calculation of optical electric field at  $\lambda=460\text{nm}$

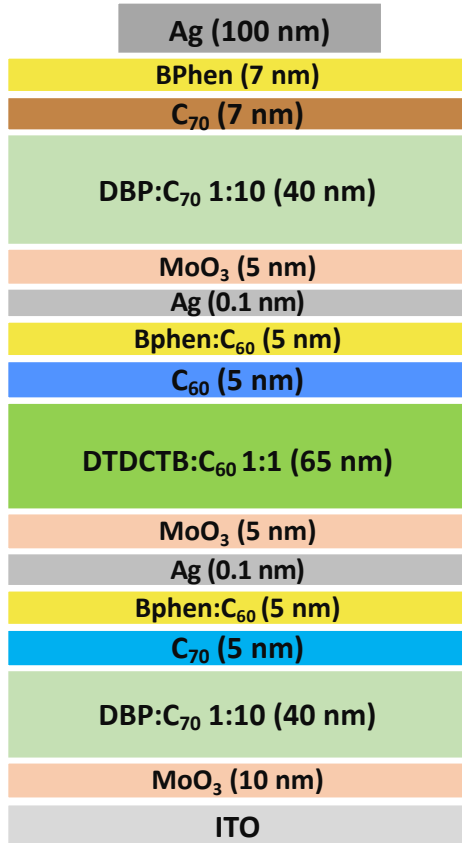


Organic Electronics  
Stephen R. Forrest

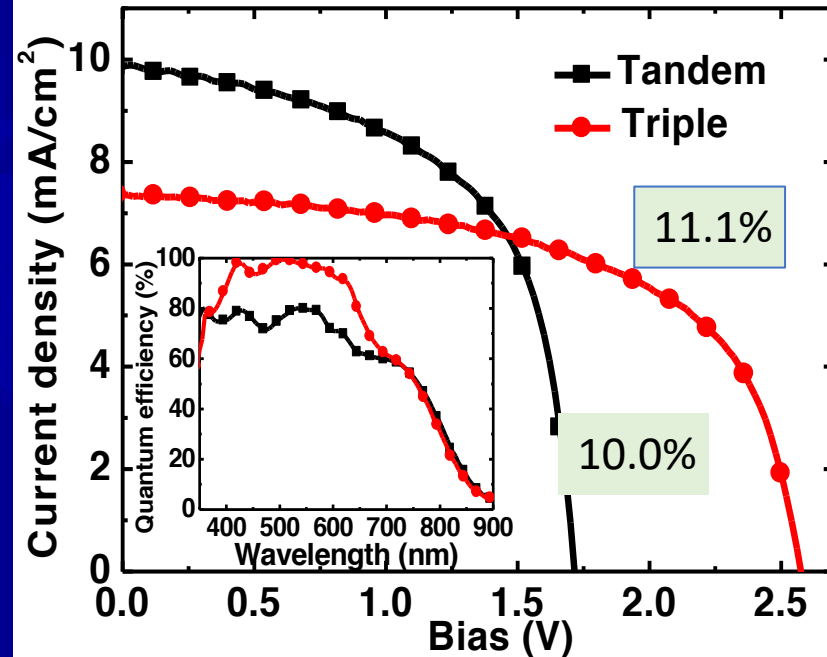
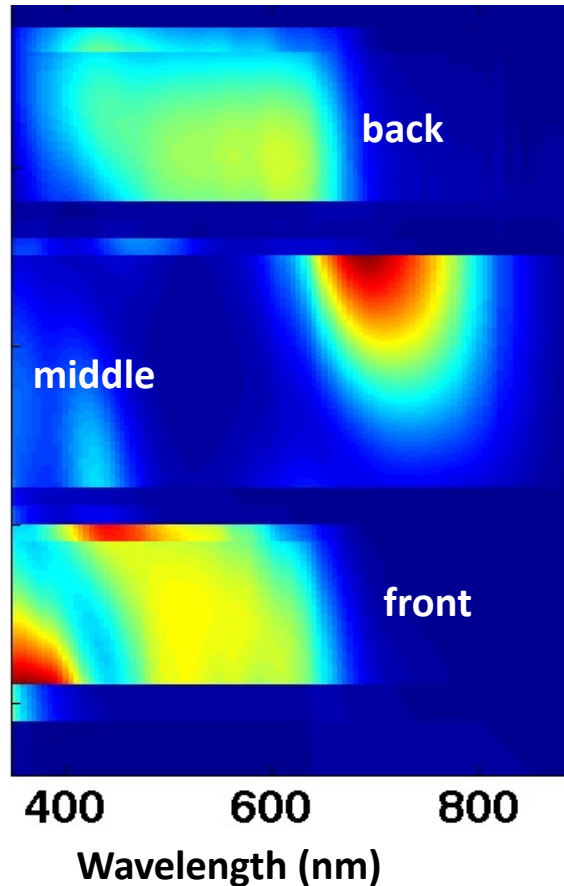




# High Efficiency Triple Junction Cell



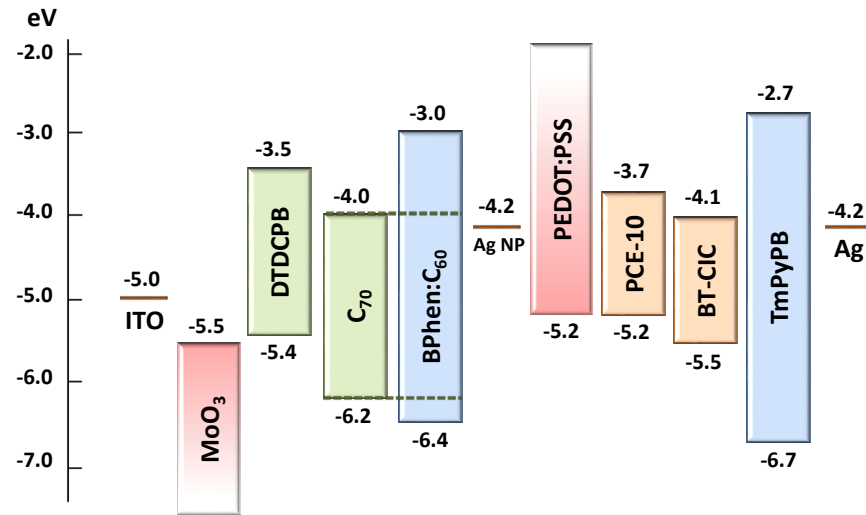
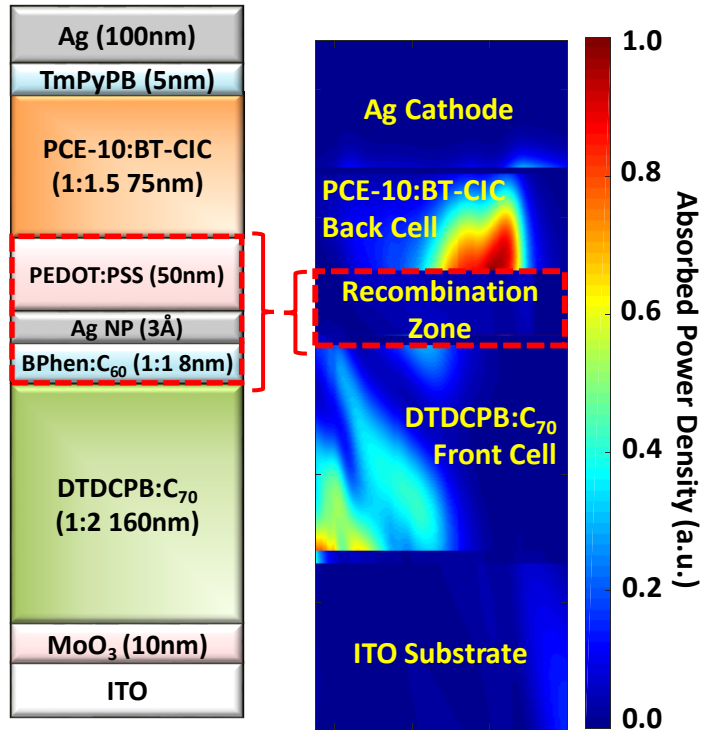
Optical field distribution



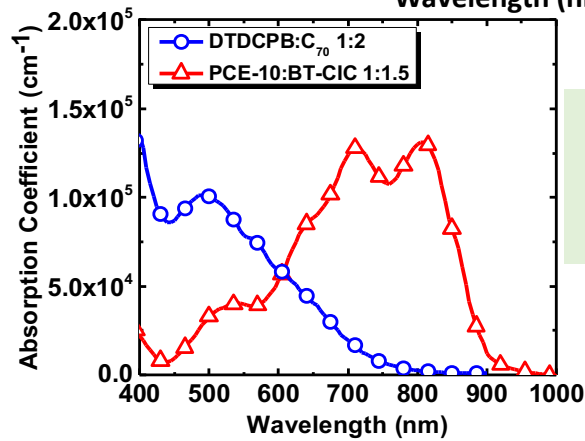
Transfer matrix calculations of optical field required to ensure current generated in every subcell is equal



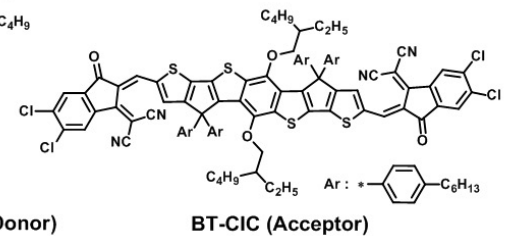
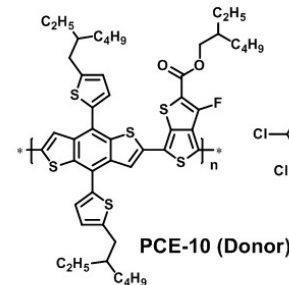
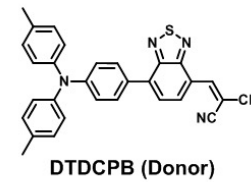
# Combining Solution Processed Back Cell with Vapor Deposited Front Cell



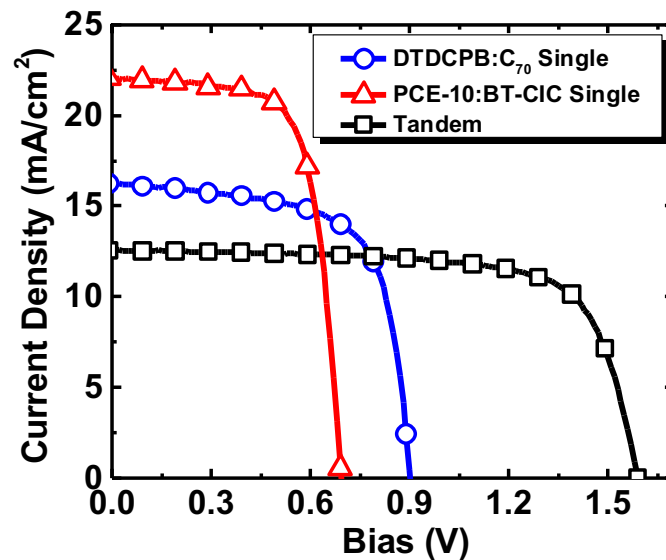
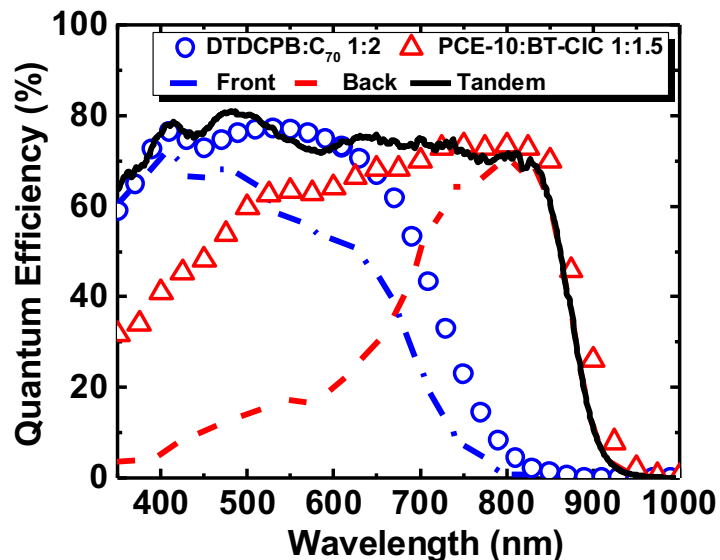
CRZ must be lossless, but also must protect front cell from damage due to deposition of back cell



Minimal overlap of front and back spectra ensures current balance



# High Efficiency Tandem Results

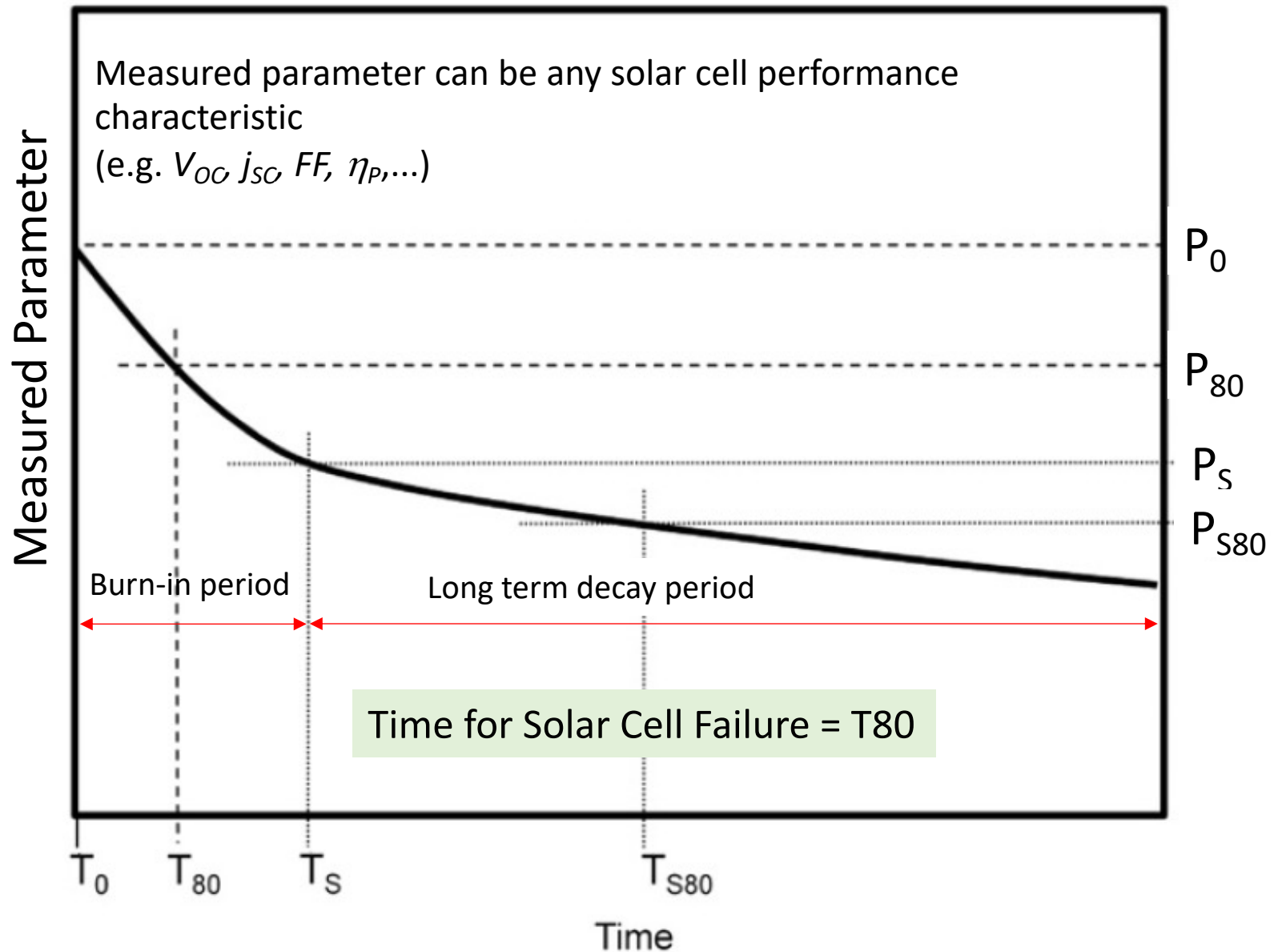


Device	$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	FF	$\eta_p$ (%)
[Back] PCE-10:BT-CIC	22.1	0.69	0.70	10.7
[Front] DTDCPB:C <sub>70</sub>	16.2	0.90	0.67	9.8
Tandem	12.7	1.59	0.71	14.3
Tandem (w/ARC)	13.3	1.59	0.71	15.0
Tandem (1 cm <sup>2</sup> , w/o ARC)	12.6	1.58	0.57	11.5

Electronics  
R. Forrest



# Quantifying OPV Lifetimes



# Analytical Approaches to Failure

(see also Ch. 6.7)

Sum of Exponentials:  $P(t) = P_0 \exp(-t/\tau_1) + P_{ex} \exp(-t/\tau_2)$

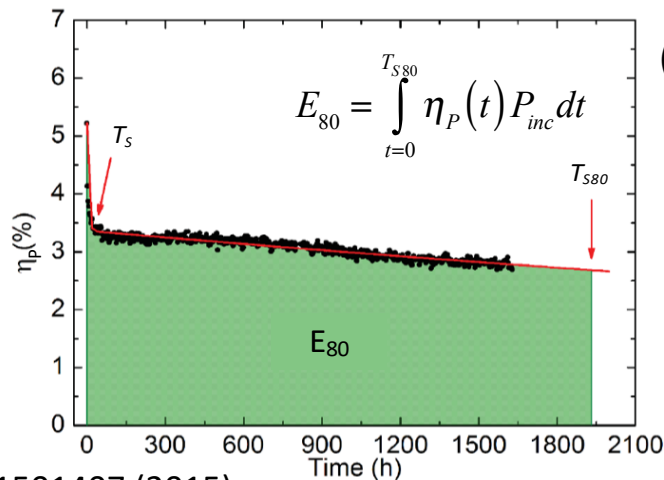
Burn in                      Long term loss

Stretched Exponential:  $P(t) = P_0 \exp\left[-(t/\tau_1)^\beta\right]$

Degradation rate:  $k_{deg} = 1/\tau = k_0 \exp(-E_a/k_B T)$        $E_a$  = thermal activation of degradation rate,  $k_{deg}$

Acceleration Factor:  $A = \left(\frac{P_{inc}^1}{P_{inc}^2}\right)^\gamma \exp\left[-\frac{E_a}{k_B} \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right)\right]$

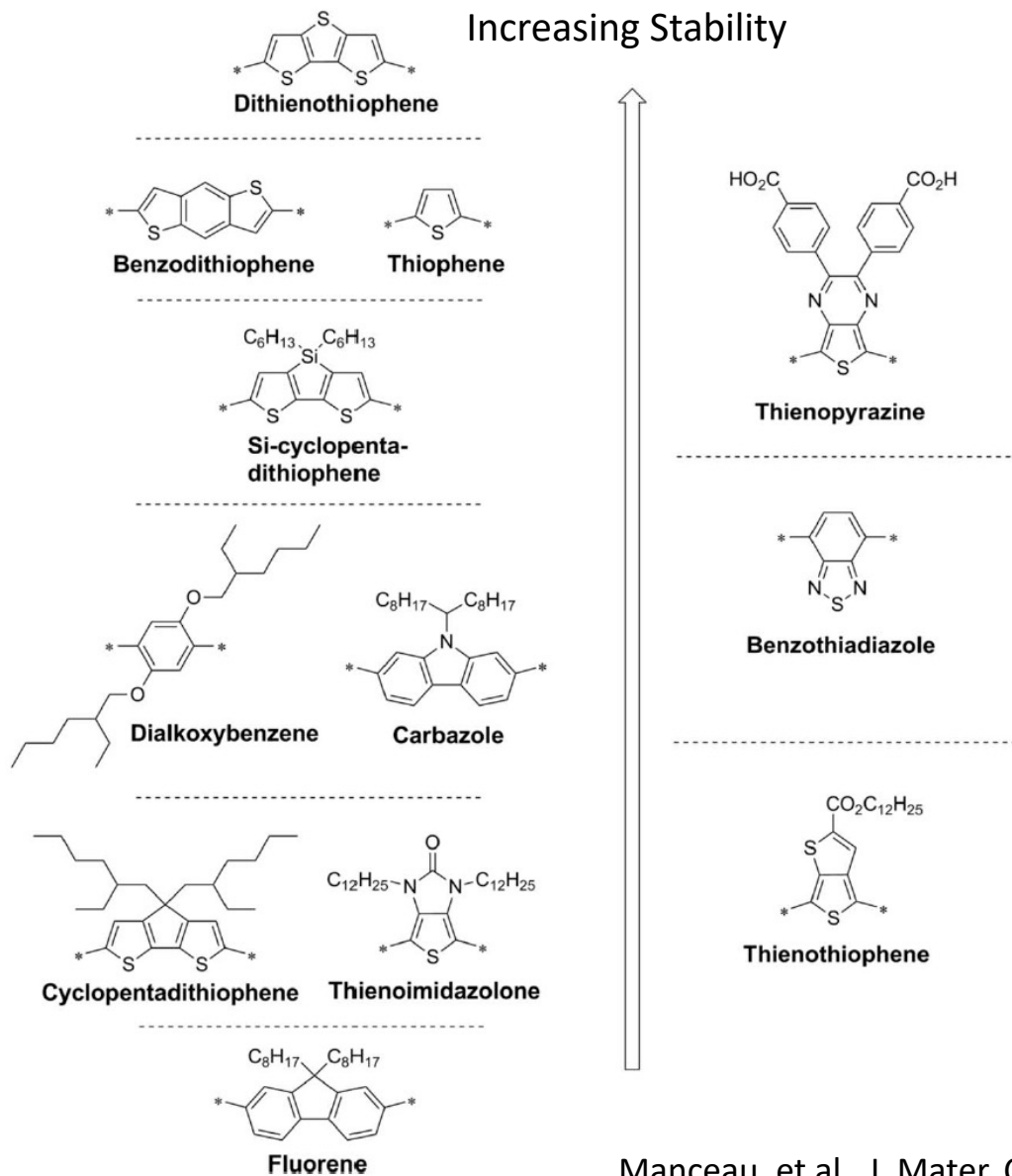
Total energy generated:



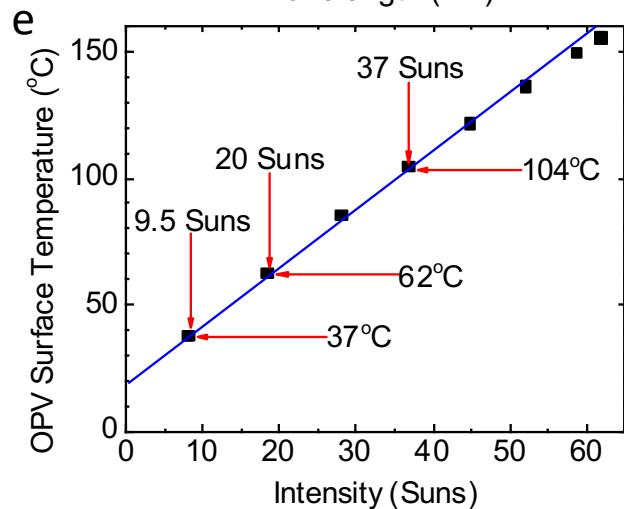
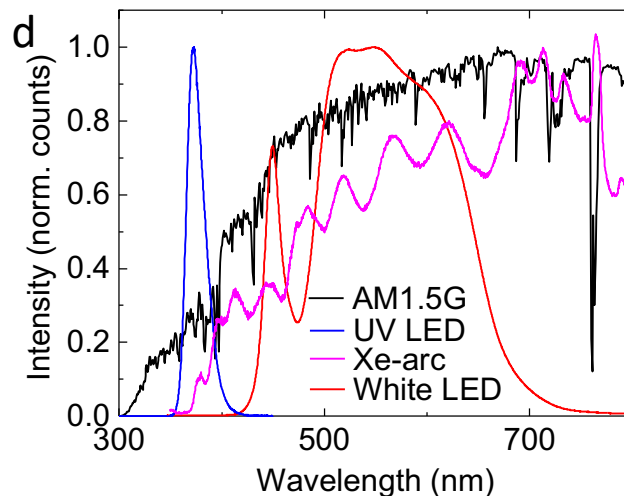
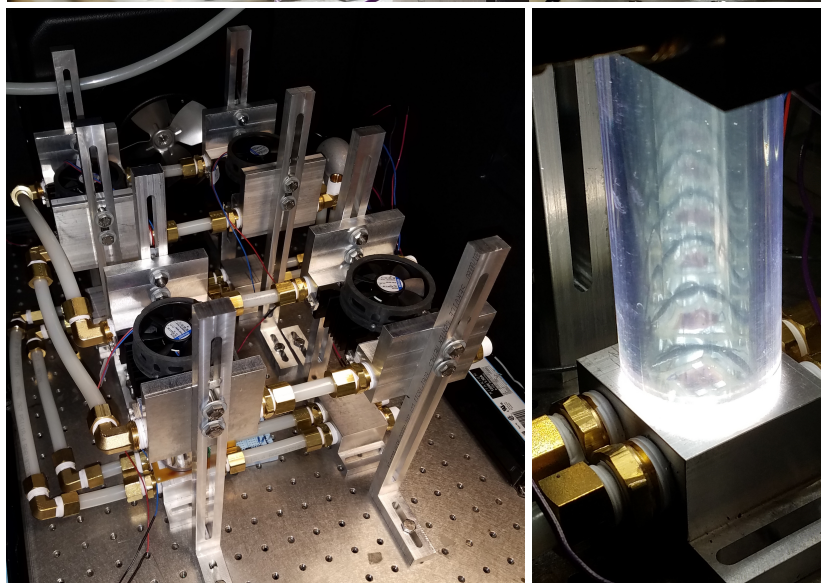
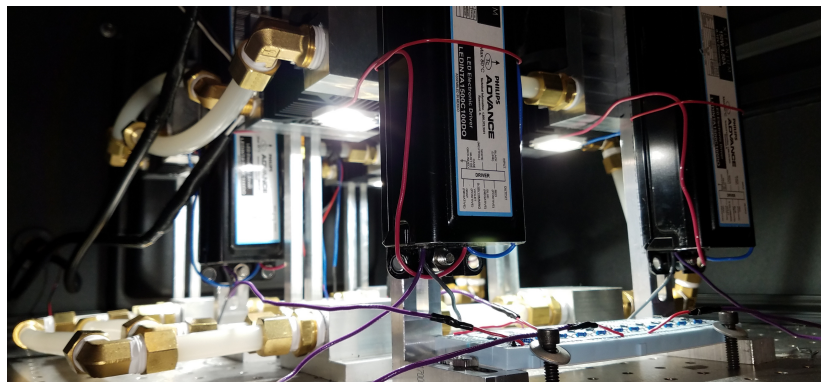
(assumes life begins after burn-in)



# Choice of Molecules Impacts Stability



# Test set up for Accelerated Aging

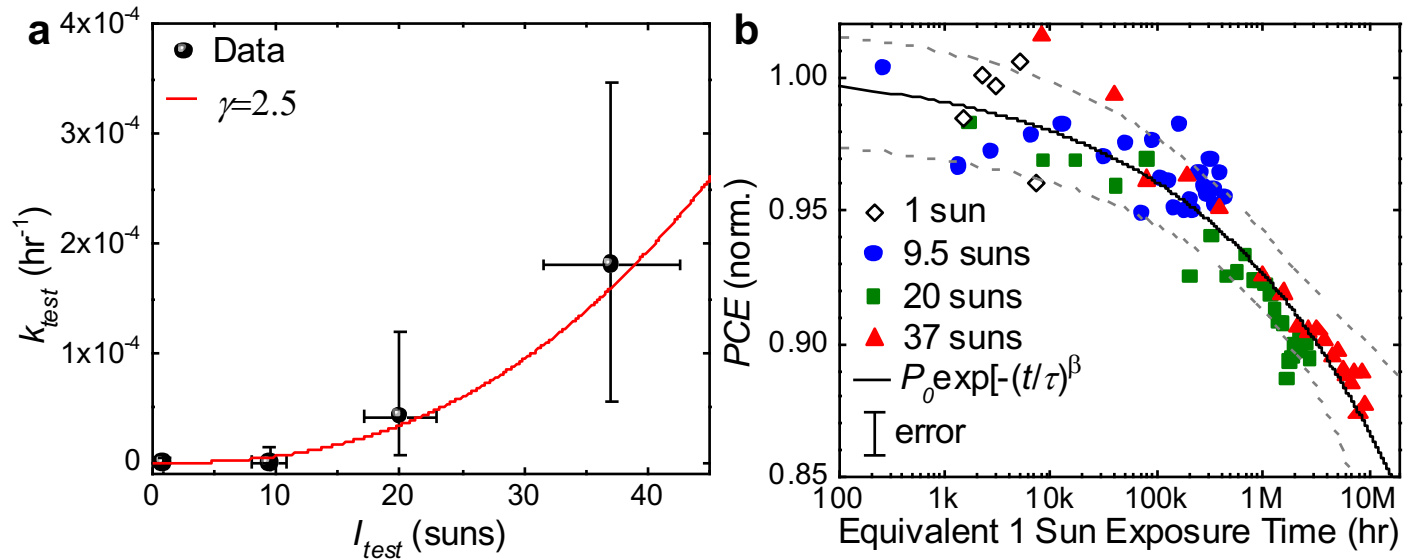


Populations of devices under very high intensity illumination using LEDs

Need to separate effects of temperature and intensity acceleration factors



# Extracting Lifetime from Aging Data & Acceleration Factors



Extrapolated *intrinsic* lifetime:  $>10^4$  years!

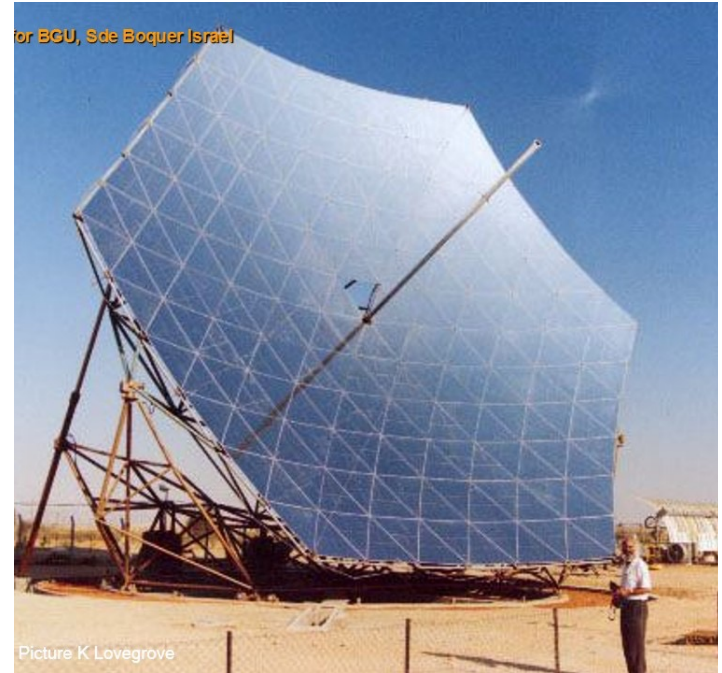
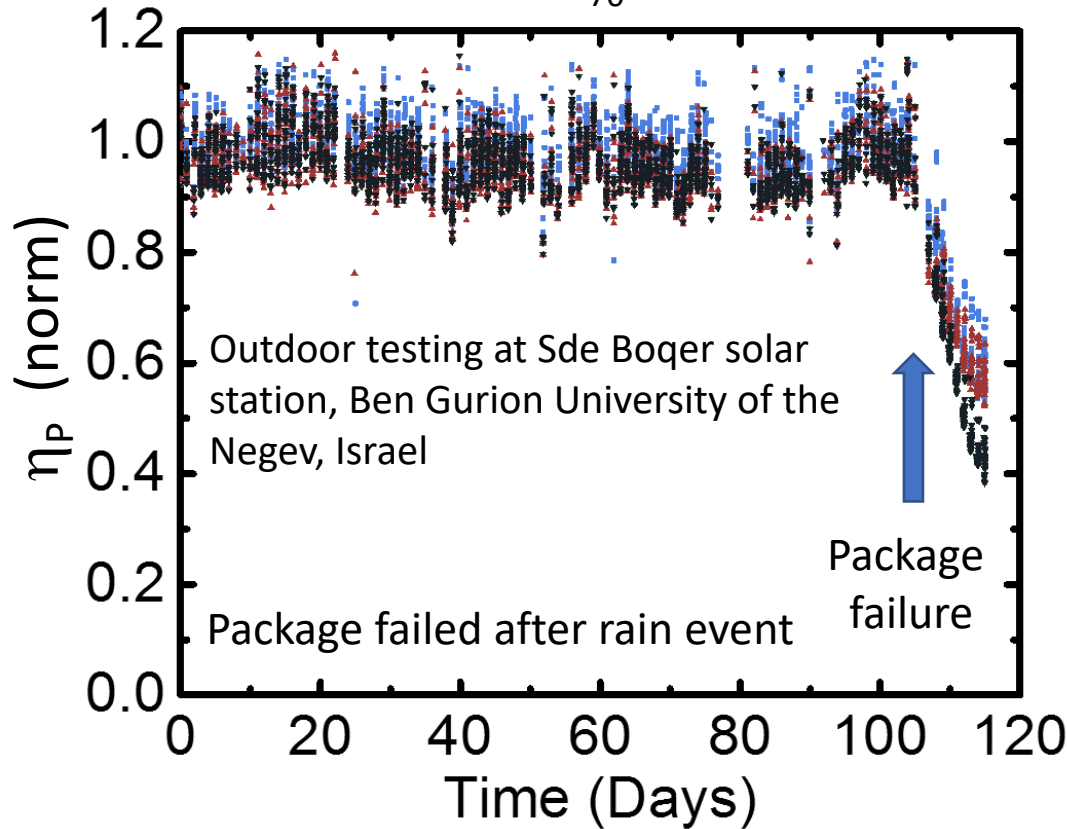
Metric for failure: T80; 5 h = 1 day solar equivalent



# What happens outdoors

Examining reliability in a real operating environment

1:8 DBP:C<sub>70</sub> OPV

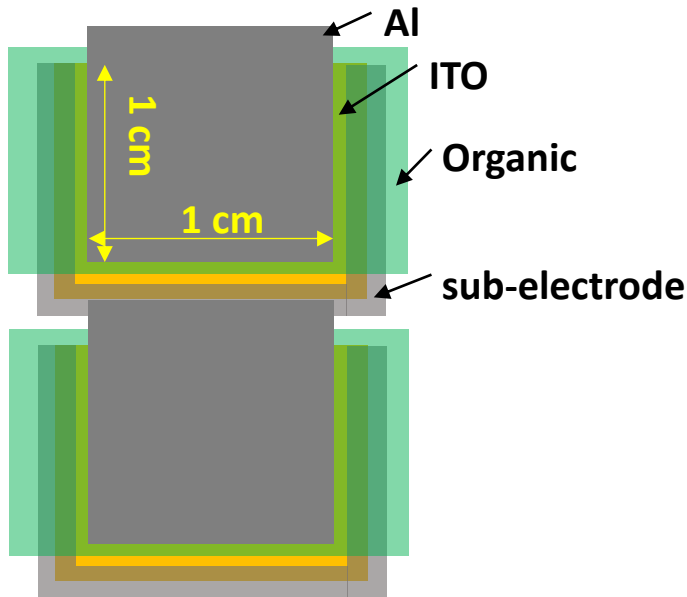


Solar concentrator system

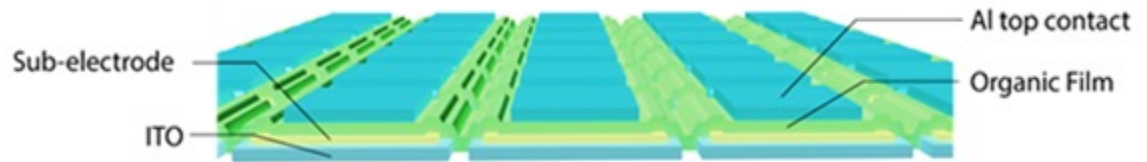
Ultimately, solar cell reliability depends on materials, morphologies and test conditions in actual environments

# Scaling to Modules

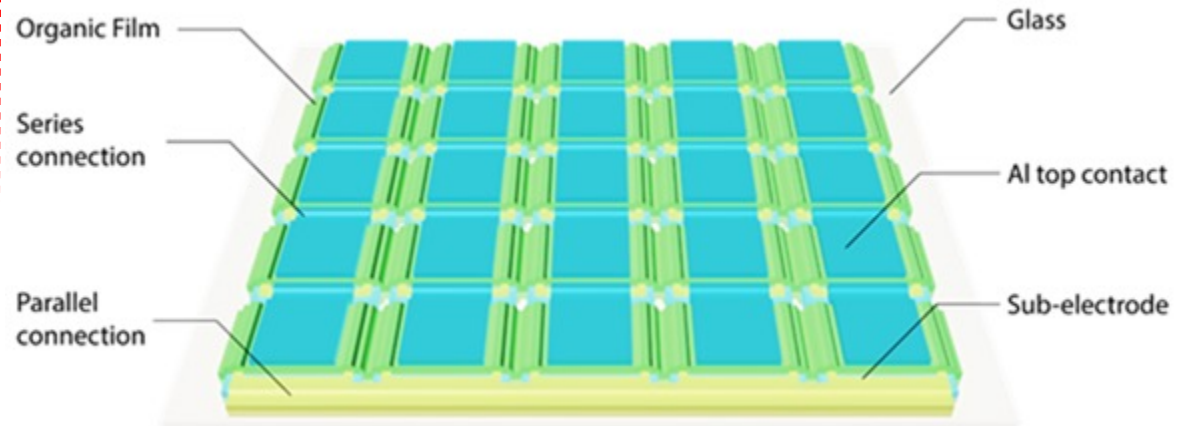
## Two tandem cells in series



## Front view



## Top view

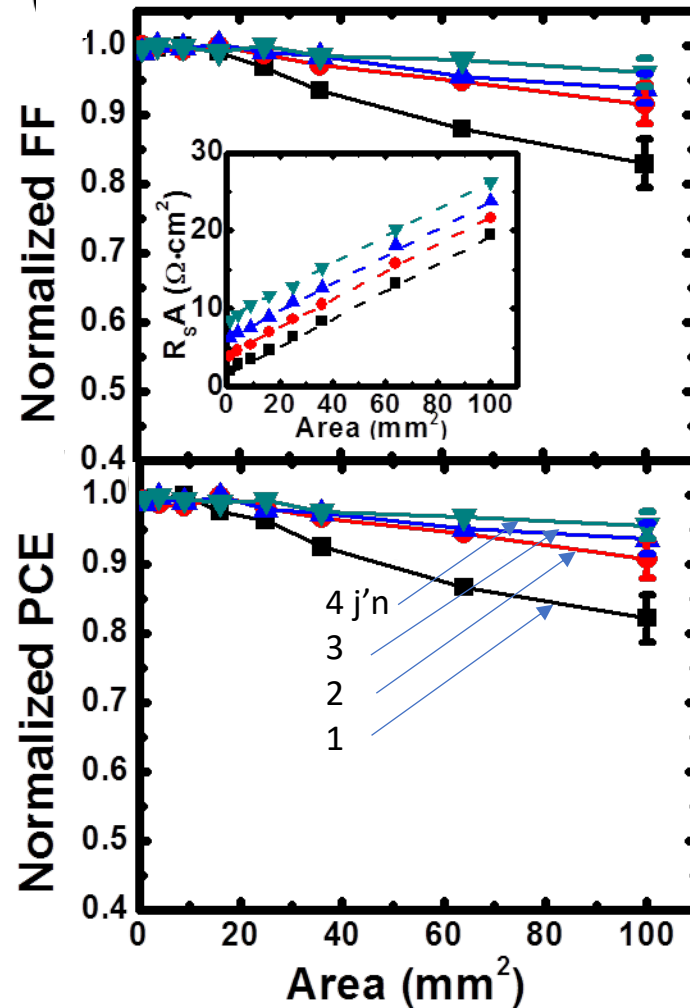


- Surrounding cell with contacts (sub electrodes) reduces resistance
- 5x5 discrete tandem cells connected in series-parallel configuration
- Active area: 1 cm<sup>2</sup> for discrete; 25 cm<sup>2</sup> for module

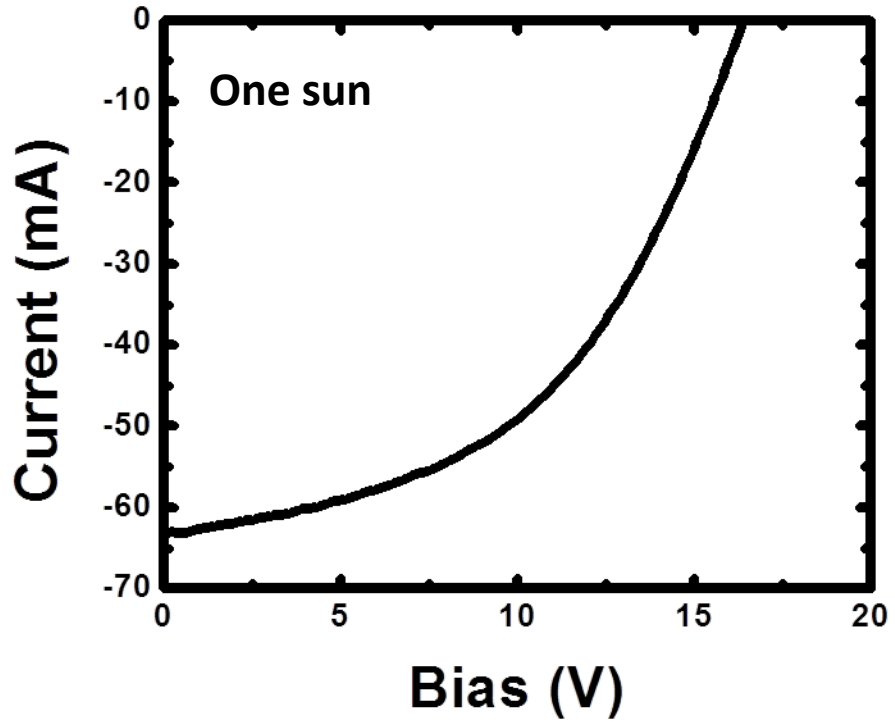
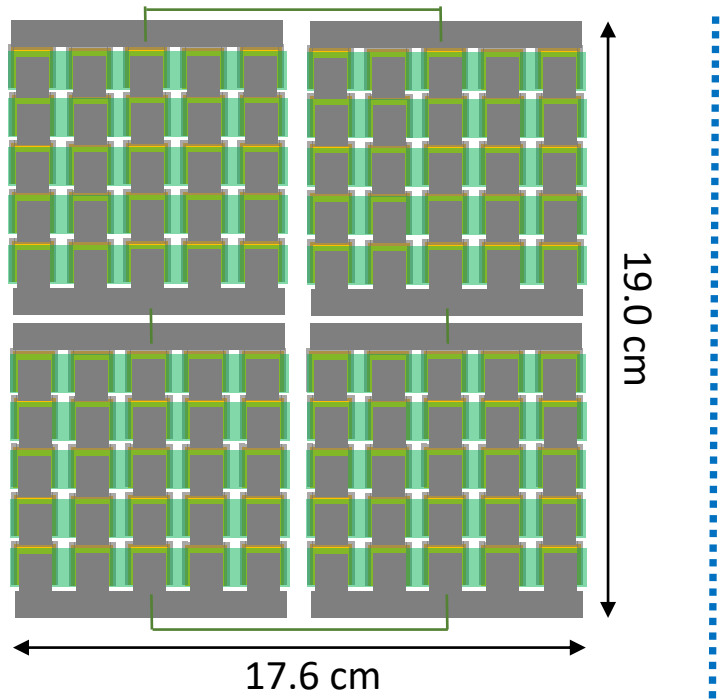
# Multijunction Cells Limit the Effects of Resistance

The higher the voltage,  
The smaller the problem

⇒ Multijunction cells

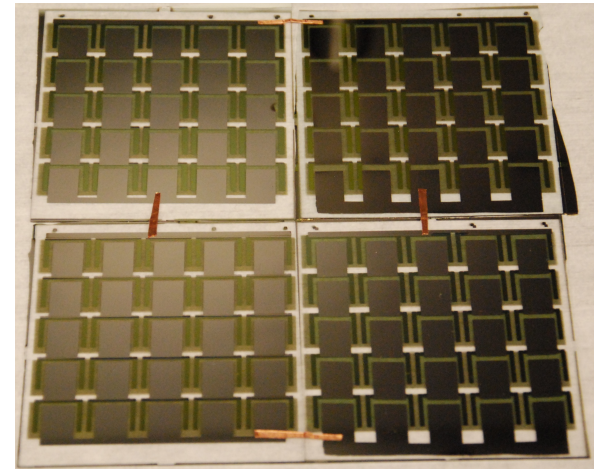


# Tethered 10 x 10 OPV Module



## Module

$I_{SC} = 63 \text{ mA}$ ,  $V_{OC} = 16.4 \text{ V}$ ,  $FF = 50\%$ ,  
Output power = 519 mW, PCE = 5.2%



Organic Electronics  
Stephen R. Forrest



# What we learned about OPDs and OPVs

- Photogeneration in OPDs and OPVs mediated by charge transfer at D-A HJs
- Bulk heterojunctions break the tradeoff between a "long" optical absorption length and short exciton diffusion length.
  - Morphology control essential to high device performance
  - Multijunction cell frees efficiency from the single junction thermodynamic limit
- OPDs generally operated in the 3<sup>rd</sup> quadrant to minimize dark current, and hence noise. OPVs operated in the 4<sup>th</sup>, power-generating quadrant.
- Visible-transparent, NIR absorbing cells the most promising application for OPVs
- Cell reliability can extend to  $\gg$  50 years in some cases.
- Modules primarily limited by series resistance



# Organic Thin Film Transistors

## Thin Film Transistors 1

Transistor Basics  
Conventional Transistor Architectures  
Operating Characteristics  
Chapter 8.1-8.3.2



# OTFT Objectives

- Learn how they work
- Learn how they are made
- Learn about their operational reliability
- Learn what they are good for: Are they an answer waiting for a question?
  - Sensing
  - Medical Applications

# Advantages vs. Limitations of OTFTs

- PROs

- Flexible, conformable, ultralight
- Can be made over very large areas
- Suitable for large scale R2R manufacture

- CONs

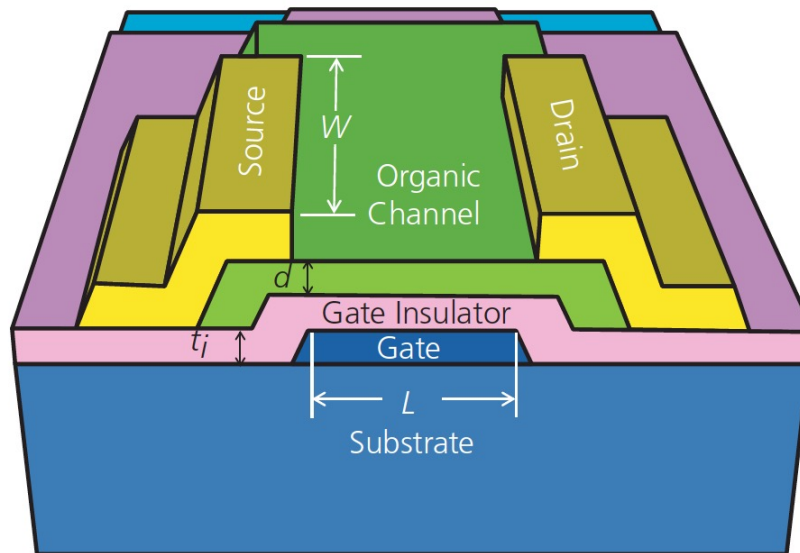
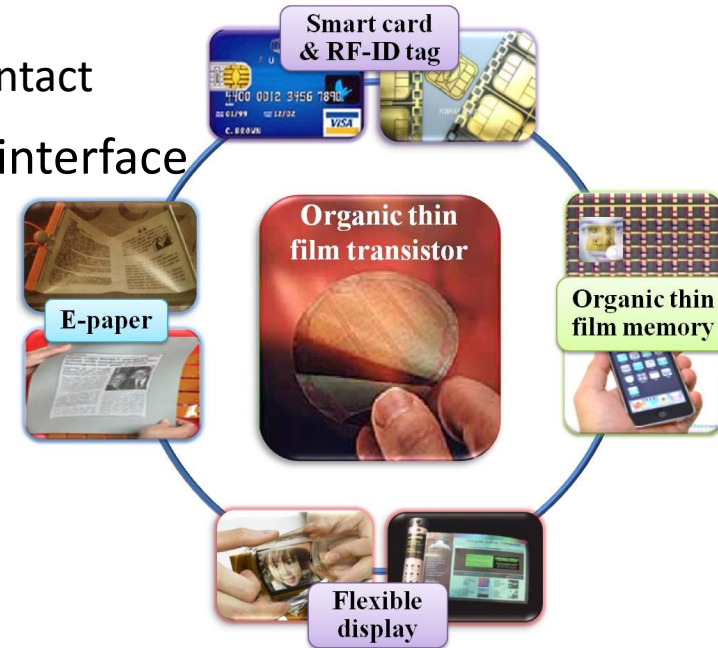
- Cannot source large currents
- Characteristics drift over long periods in operation
- Limited bandwidth ( $\leq 1$  MHz in many cases)





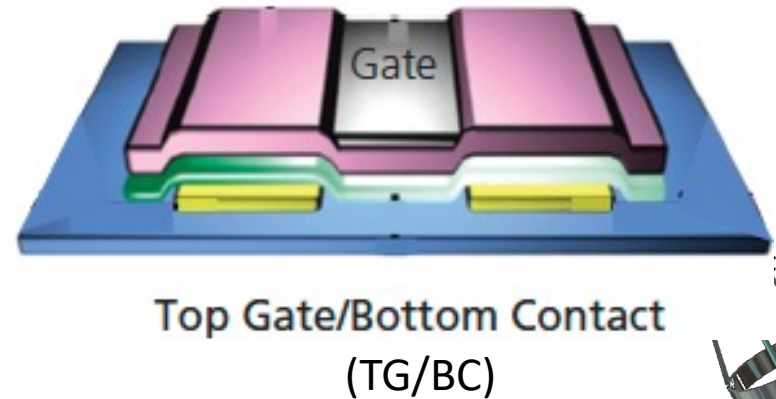
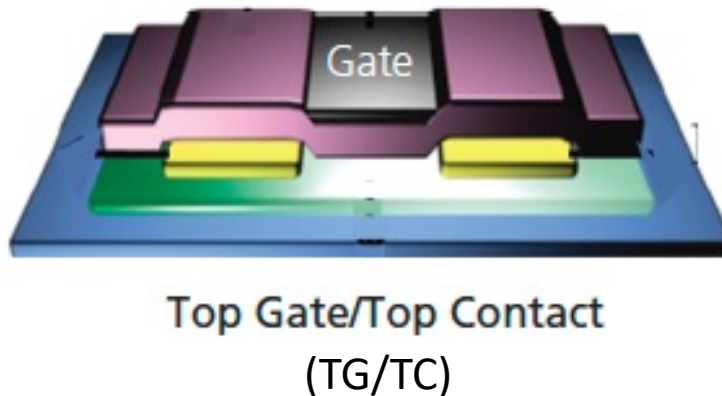
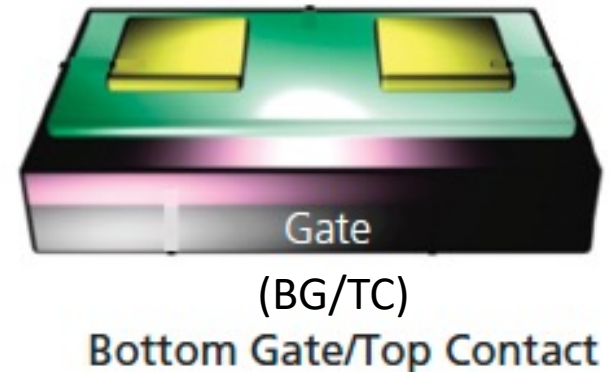
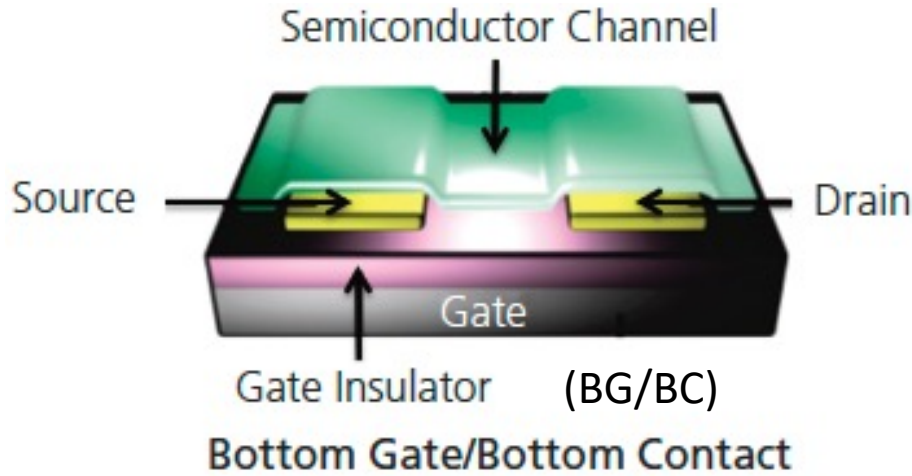
# What an OTFT looks like

- Several different configurations
  - Bottom gate, top gate, bottom SD contact, top SD contact
- Properties strongly influenced by dielectric/organic interface
- Configuration similar to inorganic TFTs
  - Metal oxide
  - a-Si
  - Etc.



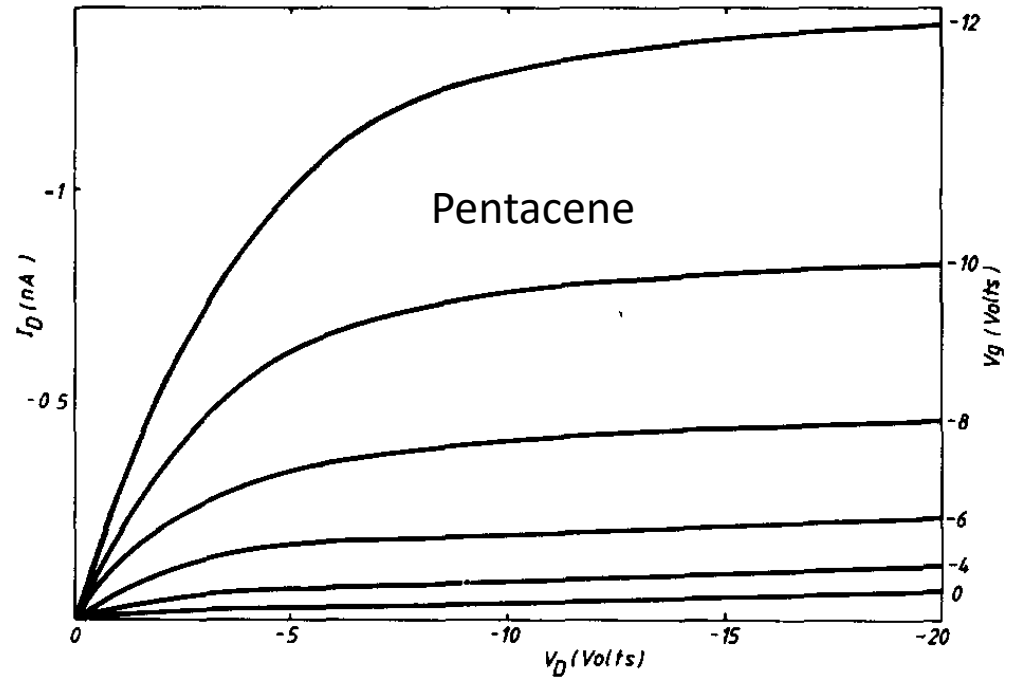
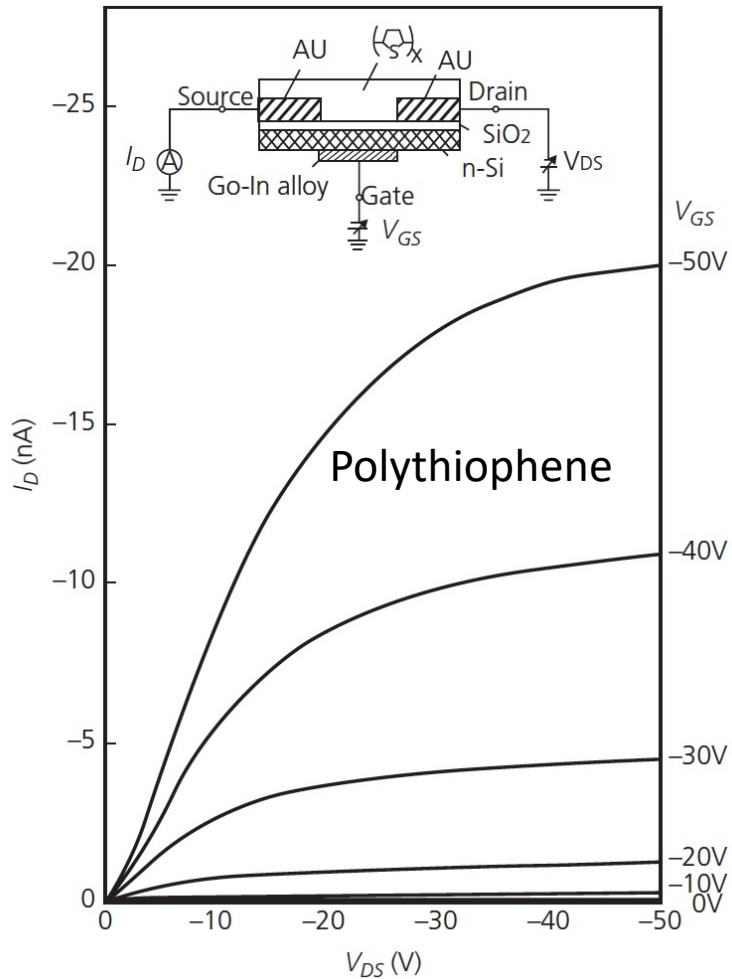
Definitions of Contacts and Dimensions

# Different Contact Arrangements

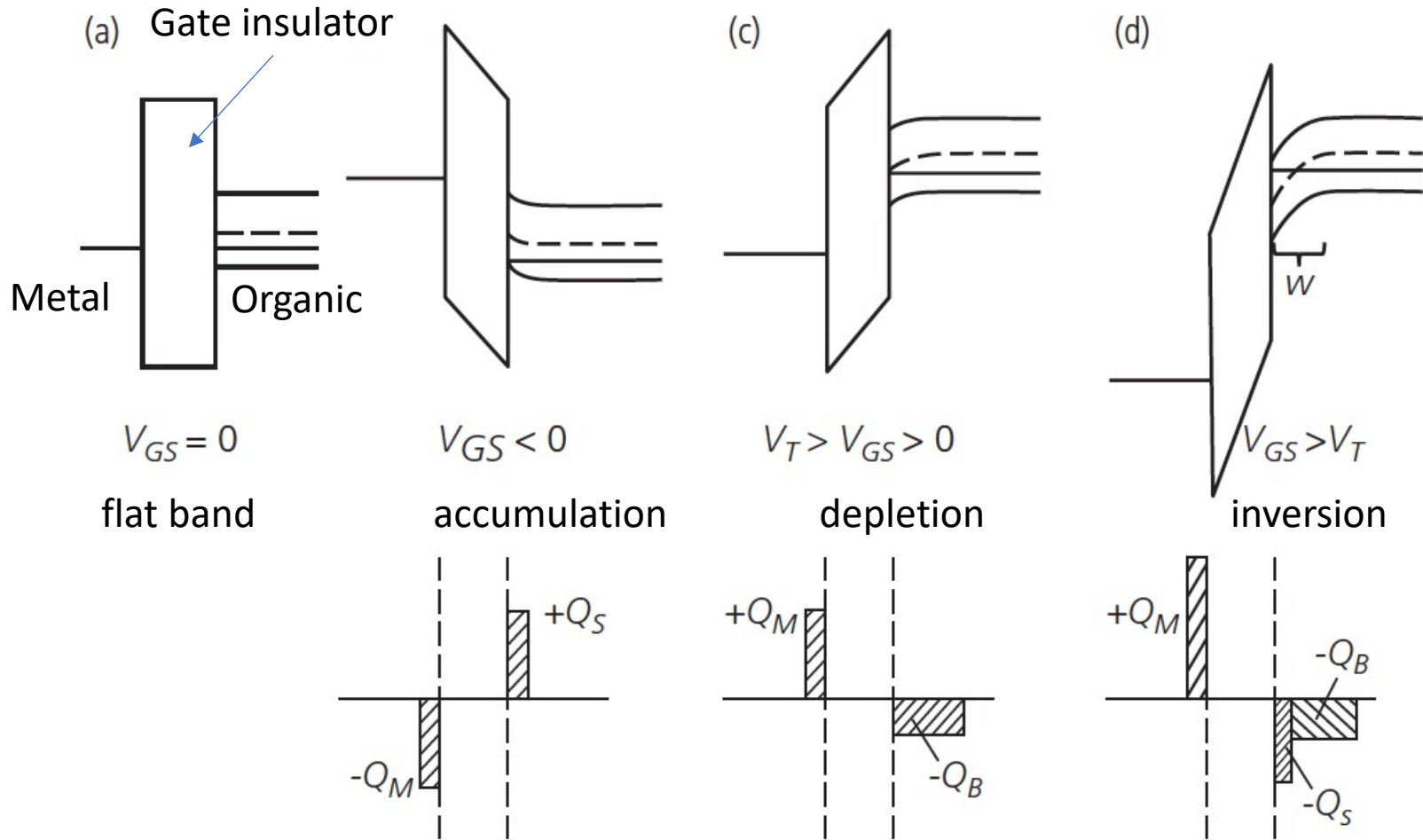


# Organic Thin Film Transistors

## First demonstrations



# The MIS Capacitor: Building Block of the OTFT



- Organics often have little charge in the bulk of the semiconductor  $\Rightarrow$  no band bending
- Charge drawn into channel from source to allow conduction at the insulator/org. interface

# How an OTFT Works: Accumulation

Charge injected from the source by a gate voltage,  $V_{GS}$ , at very low drain voltage,  $V_D$ , and hence low channel current (i.e. ohmic):

$$Q(x) = n(x)qt = C_G (V_G - V(x))$$

↖ Charge layer thickness

But contact resistance and potential, charge trapping, grain boundaries, etc. prevent channel conduction until a threshold voltage  $V_T$  is reached:

$$Q(x) = n(x)qt = C_G (V_G - V_T - V(x))$$

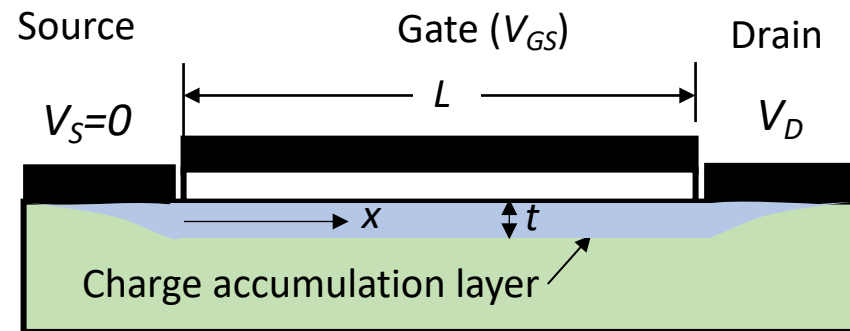
Following Ohm's Law:

$$I_D = A\sigma F = W \overbrace{(n_{ave}qt)}^{Q_{ave}} \mu \frac{V_D}{L}$$

At low voltage, conduction is ohmic  $\Rightarrow$  we can use the average channel voltage drop  $V_D/2$ .

Or, in the linear regime of operation:

$$I_D = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu \left( V_G - V_T - \frac{V_D}{2} \right) V_D = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu \left( (V_G - V_T) V_D - \frac{V_D^2}{2} \right)$$



Field-effect mobility is **not** bulk mobility

$$\mu = \mu_{FE}$$

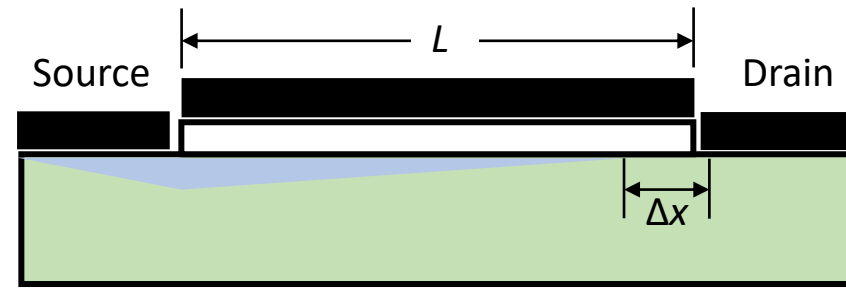
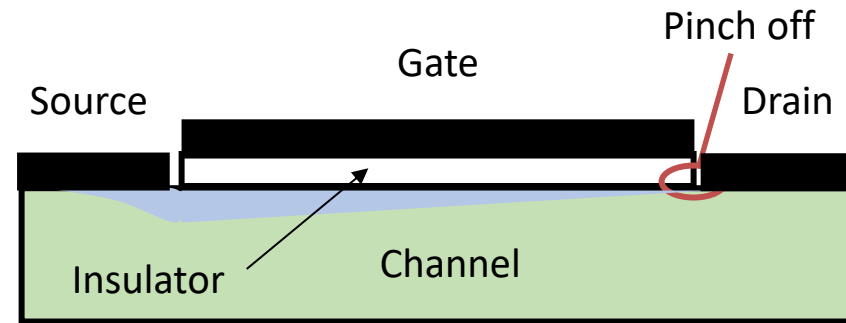
# In the Saturation Region

In the linear regime ( $V_G - V_T \gg V_D$ ), we calculate the transconductance:

$$g_m = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_G} \right|_{V_D} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} V_D$$

And the output conductance:

$$g_o = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_D} \right|_{V_G} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} (V_G - V_T)$$



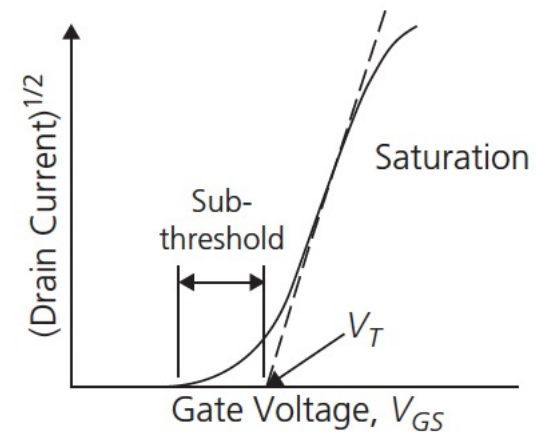
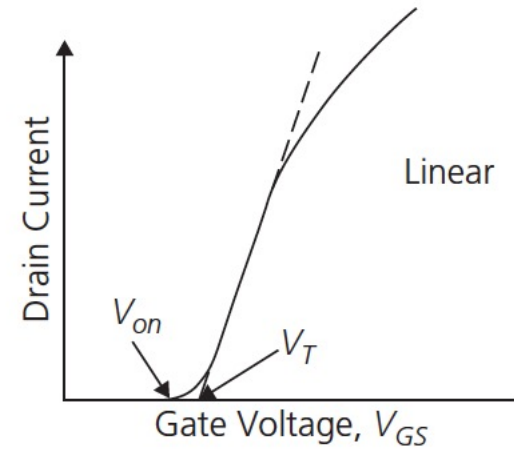
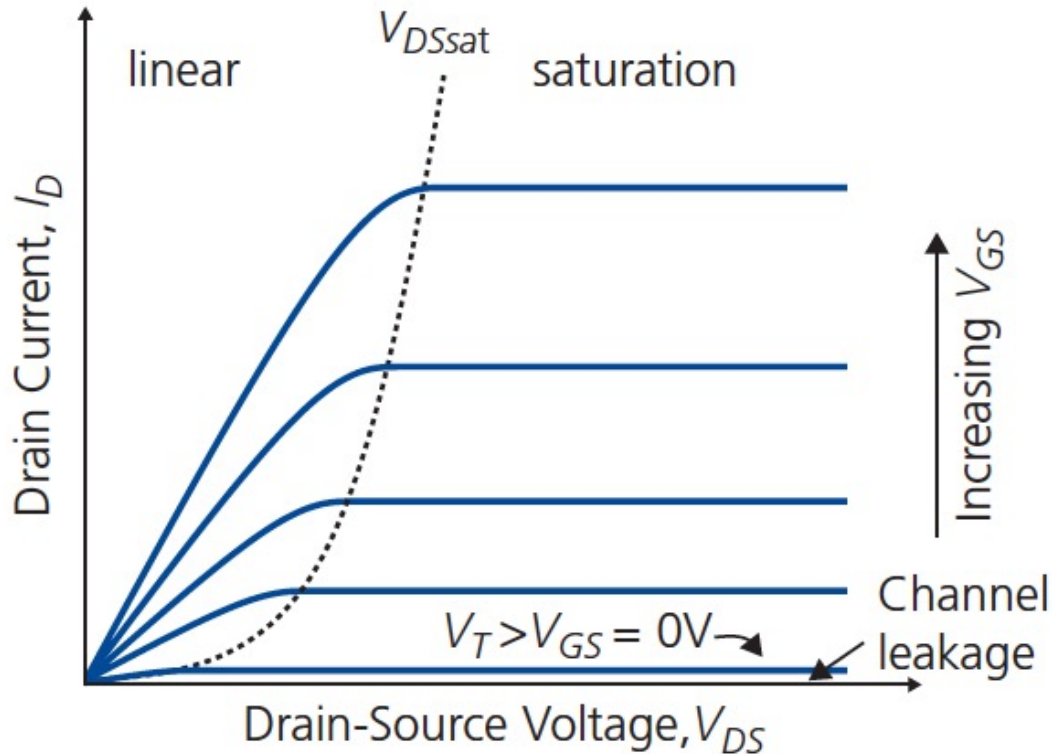
Due to contact and other parasitic resistances,  $\mu_{lin}$  gives errors, so mostly use saturation characteristics:

- When  $V_D = V_G - V_T$ , the channel **pinches off**
- Between pinchoff point and drain,  $n \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow F \rightarrow$  large to maintain current continuity ( $j = nq\mu F$ )
- No more current (except leakage) enters channel with increasing  $V_D$ , hence we are in the saturation regime.

Then: 
$$I_D = \frac{W}{2L} C_G \mu_{sat} (V_G - V_T)^2$$

Plot of  $I_D^{1/2}$  vs.  $V_G$  gives both  $\mu_{sat}$  and  $V_T$

# Ideal Unipolar OTFT Characteristics



$$I_D = \mu \frac{W}{L} C_G ((V_G - V_T)V_D - \frac{V_D^2}{2})$$

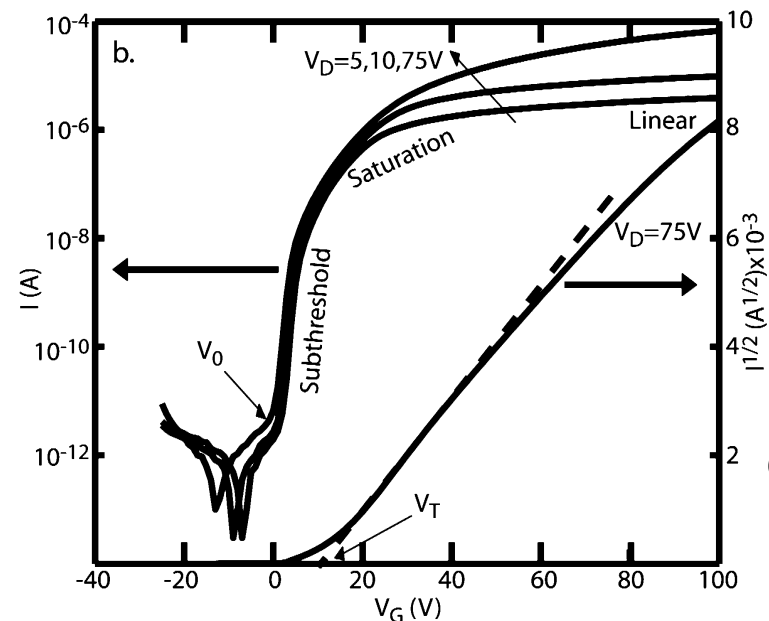
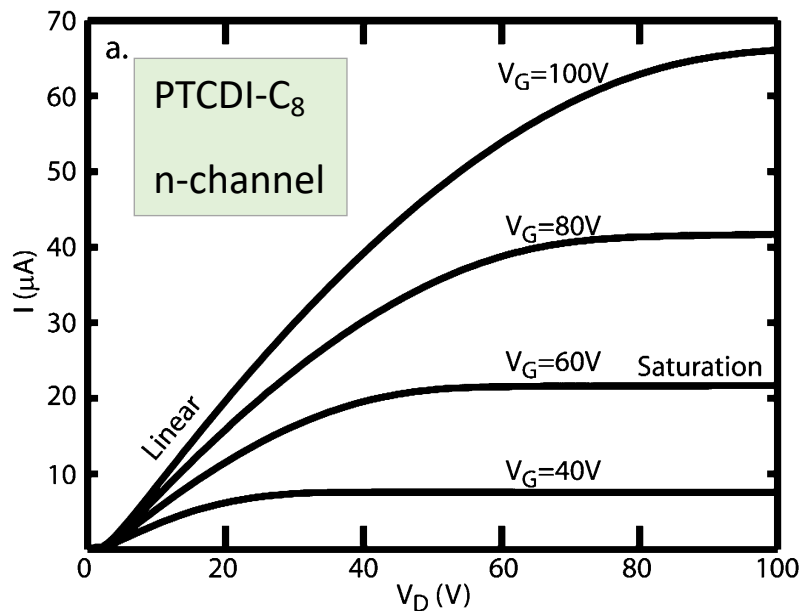
$$g_m = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_G} \right|_{V_D} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} V_D$$

$$I_D = \frac{W}{2L} C_G \mu_{sat} (V_G - V_T)^2$$

$$g_o = \left. \frac{\partial I_D}{\partial V_D} \right|_{V_G} = \frac{W}{L} C_G \mu_{lin} (V_G - V_T)$$

# DC Characteristics of an OTFT

- Pentacene most frequently employed small molecule for OTFT
- $\mu_{FE} \sim 1 - 1.5 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$
- DC mobility as high as  $40 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V-s}$  measured in rubrene using OTFTs: is it reliable? (Takeya, et al. Appl. Phys. Lett. **90** 102120 (2007))
- OTFTs measure interface conductance, not mobility.



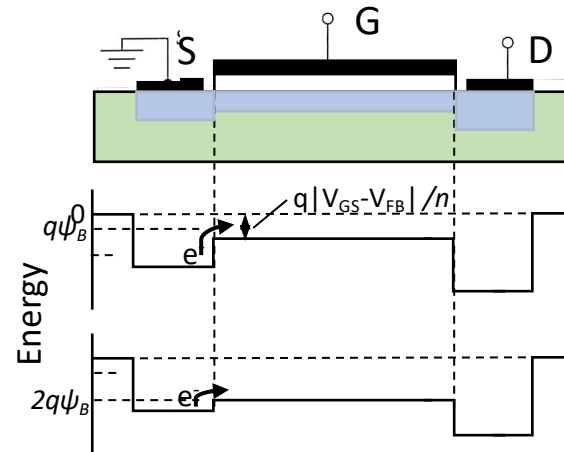


# Subthreshold slope

- Measure of how small a voltage swing needed to turn on a transistor
- Determines noise margin of a circuit (i.e. how easy is it for a “1” to be mistaken for a “0”)

Definition: 
$$S = \frac{\partial V_{GS}}{\partial(\log_{10} I_D)}$$

@  $V_{on} < V_{GS} < V_T$



Leakage due to thermionic emission from contact regions

Imperfect contacts, traps lead to injection barrier at source:

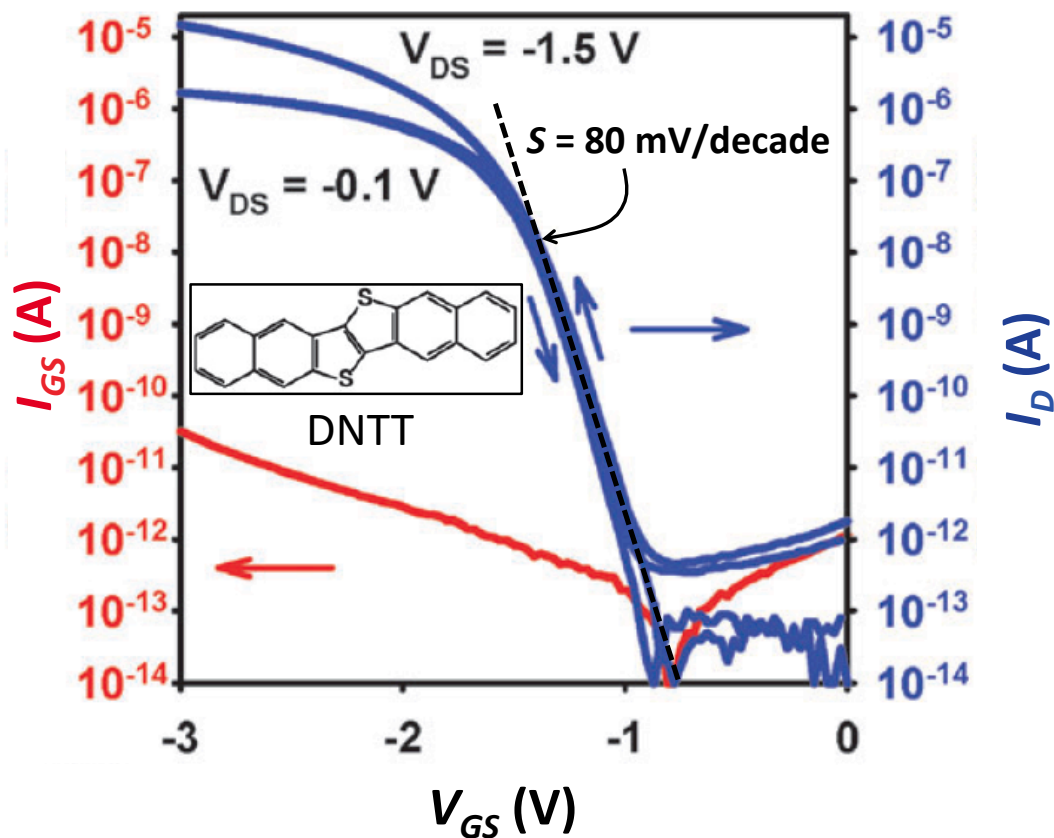
$$I_D = I_{D0} \exp\left(\frac{q|V_{GS} - V_{FB}|}{nk_B T}\right) = I'_{D0} \exp\left(\frac{qV_{GS}}{nk_B T}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow S = 2.3 \frac{nk_B T}{q} \quad n = 1 \Rightarrow S = 60 \text{ mV/decade}$$

Theoretical minimum slope

# A high performance OTFT

BG/TC



- *p* or *n* channel?
- $L/W = 10 \mu\text{m}/100 \mu\text{m}$
- Al gate
- $\text{AlO}_x$  gate insulator, 3.6 nm thick, PVD grown coated with alkylphosphonic acid SAM