

## 23.5%-efficient silicon heterojunction silicon solar cell using molybdenum oxide as hole-selective contact

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### Abstract

Interest in silicon heterojunction solar cells is growing due to their manufacturing simplicity and record efficiencies. However, a significant limitation of these devices still stems from parasitic light absorption in the amorphous silicon layers. This can be mitigated by replacing the traditional (p) and (n) doped amorphous silicon selective layers by other materials. While promising results have been achieved using molybdenum oxide ( $\text{MoO}_x$ ) as a front-side hole-selective layer, charge transport mechanisms in that contact stack have remained elusive and device efficiencies below predictions. We carefully analyze the influence of the  $\text{MoO}_x$  and intrinsic a-Si:H thicknesses on current-voltage properties and discuss transport and performance-loss mechanisms. In particular, we find that thinning down the  $\text{MoO}_x$  and (i)a-Si:H layers (down to 4 nm and 6 nm respectively) mitigates parasitic optical sub-bandgap  $\text{MoO}_x$  absorption and drastically enhances charge transport, while still providing excellent passivation and selectivity. High-resolution transmission microscopy reveals that such thin  $\text{MoO}_x$  layer remains continuous and close to a  $\text{MoO}_3$  stoichiometry in spite of the reactive sputtering and annealing steps involved in the electrode deposition. A screen-printed device reaching a certified efficiency of 23.5% and a fill factor of 81.8% is demonstrated, bridging the gap with traditional Si-based contacts and demonstrating that dopant-free selective contacts can rival traditional approaches.

### Introduction

The interest in silicon heterojunction (SHJ) is growing in the field of photovoltaics due to the simplicity of their structure and processing, as well as the high efficiencies that can be achieved [1], [2]. The record efficiency for a silicon single junction is currently held by a SHJ combined with an interdigitated back contacted (IBC) design, reaching 26.7% [3], [4]. Most of the SHJs use stacks of intrinsic and doped hydrogenated amorphous silicon (a-Si:H) as passivating and carrier-selective layers [5]. These stacks provide good surface passivation and selectivity thanks to the high hydrogen content of these layers and dopability of amorphous silicon, respectively [1], [6]–[8].

However, the excellent passivation performance of this contact architecture often comes at the expense of carrier transport in comparison with solar cells based on silicon homojunctions which translate into fill factor (FF) losses. This effect stems from the lower conductivity of doped a-Si:H compared to crystalline silicon, band offsets between these two crystalline phases [9][10], and the formation of an opposing Schottky contact between a-Si:H and the transparent conductive oxide (TCO) [11]–[13]. In addition, the use of a-Si:H (bandgap of  $\sim 1.7$  eV) on the light-incoming side of the device leads to parasitic absorption below 500 nm [1], [14]. Photons that are parasitically absorbed in the intrinsic a-Si:H ((i)a-Si:H) can partly contribute the cell's short circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ), but photons absorbed in the doped a-Si:H layer are lost

[14], [15]. This typically causes a  $J_{sc}$  loss of up to  $2.1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  compared to the one of a cell with an ideal cell front-side [15]. One investigated strategy to overcome this parasitic absorption is to replace the intrinsic and p-type (i/p)a-Si:H layers by more transparent carrier selective contacts. Silicon-based materials (in their nanocrystalline phase and/or alloyed with carbon and oxygen) [16]–[21], and transition metal oxides (TMOs) [22]–[27] are the most widely followed approaches, alongside a few other organic and inorganic materials [28], [29].

Most efficient devices using non-Si contacts have been achieved with molybdenum oxide ( $\text{MoO}_x$ ) as hole-selective contact [30]–[32]. This  $\sim 3.0$ -eV-bandgap material substitutes p-type a-Si:H on the light-incoming side of the solar cell to reduce parasitic absorption at short wavelengths [23], [26], [30], [33]–[35]. The high workfunction of  $\text{MoO}_x$  (5.7 eV to 6.9 eV [22], [26], [33], [36], [37]) enables this n-type semiconductor to ensure hole selectivity for a silicon absorber. Yet it does not provide sufficient surface passivation when deposited directly on c-Si [38]. An (i)a-Si:H layer is thus usually inserted as sketched in Fig 1a.

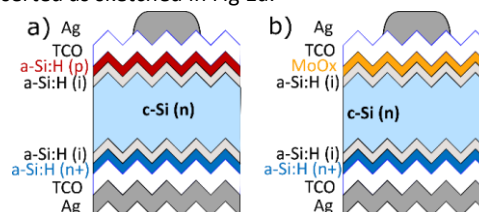


Figure 1: a) standard SHJ and b)  $\text{MoO}_x$ -based cell schema

As for standard SHJ devices (see Fig. 1b), a transparent electrode is required to provide lateral transport of charges on the positive-electrode side. A remarkable 22.5%-efficient device (with an FF of 80%) was demonstrated in 2015 using a combination of (i)a-Si:H, MoO<sub>x</sub>, hydrogen-doped indium oxide and a copper-plated grid [30]. Efficiency and FF were on par with those of standard SHJ state-of-the-art values at the time [39].

However, there are still challenges when contacting c-Si with a (i)a-Si:H/MoO<sub>x</sub>/TCO stack. First, a strong degradation of hole extraction, characterized by an FF drop, occurs upon annealing above 130 °C, a temperature required to cure industrial screen-printing pastes. Such degradation was attributed to the formation of an interlayer between MoO<sub>x</sub> and TCO [30], the formation of SiO<sub>x</sub> at the MoO<sub>x</sub>/a-Si:H interface [40], or/and the reduction of MoO<sub>x</sub> by H effusing from adjacent layers leading to a decrease of its workfunction [41]. The latter could be successfully mitigated by reducing the H-content of the a-Si:H layer prior to MoO<sub>x</sub> deposition, improving efficiency by 2%<sub>absolute</sub> yet without reaching similar performances as best-in-class devices [41].

Second, sub-bandgap absorption in the MoO<sub>x</sub>-based contact stack hampers its transparency and thus its advantage over standard (p)a-Si:H [30], [40]. Reducing the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness is therefore a promising strategy, especially since TMOs have been reported to better protect (i)a-Si:H layers from damage induced by TCO sputtering compared to (p)a-Si:H [40], [42]–[45]. However, since electrical transport in the MoO<sub>x</sub> layer is carried by electrons through defect states, the MoO<sub>x</sub>/(i)a-Si:H interface is expected to be more recombining than the (p)a-Si:H/(i)a-Si:H one. This could affect passivation, and call for a thicker (i)a-Si:H layer than when using a (p)a-Si:H contact.

Following these considerations, we vary here the thicknesses of the (i)a-Si:H and MoO<sub>x</sub> layers in SHJ devices and discuss their influence on the optical and electrical performance of the cell. Furthermore, a low temperature curing paste is employed to avoid degradation and to assess the potential of this contact strategy using state-of-the-art SHJ processing [41], [46].

### Experimental details

Fig. 2 details the processing sequence followed here. We used nine 180-μm-thick n-type textured float zone wafers with a resistivity of 1.7-2.3 Ω cm. A stack composed of (i)a-Si:H/(n)aSi:H/(n)μc-Si:H was deposited at the back side by plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) at 200 °C on all wafers. Three different thicknesses<sup>1</sup> (6 nm, 8 nm and 10 nm) of (i)a-Si:H were then deposited on the front side of the wafers (three co-processed wafers per thickness). Annealing in air at 250 °C during 20 min, prior to MoO<sub>x</sub> deposition, was then performed in an oven (“pre-annealing” step [41]) to reduce

the hydrogen content in the front-side (i)a-Si:H layer. The pre-annealing step was shown to induce no detectable thickness variation by ellipsometry. After removal of the surface oxide in an aqueous solution of 1% diluted hydrofluoric acid (HF), a 4-nm-, 8-nm- or 9-nm-thick MoO<sub>x</sub> layer was thermally evaporated on the front side, each time on three wafers with a different (i)a-Si:H thickness. MoO<sub>x</sub> evaporation was done in a vacuum chamber (base pressure before deposition ~ 4\*10<sup>-6</sup> mbar) from stoichiometric MoO<sub>3</sub> powder at a deposition rate of about 0.03 nm/s. Finally, indium tin oxide (ITO) was sputtered on the front (70 nm) through a mask to form five 2 x 2 cm<sup>2</sup> devices per wafer. ITO (150 nm) and Ag (100 nm) were then sputtered over the full back side area. For these steps, only wafers with the same MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness (thus three wafers each time) were co-processed. A silver grid was finally screen-printed on the front side using a low-temperature paste, cured at 130 °C. In the front metallization design, busbars define the perimeter of the cells and are excluded from the measurement area.

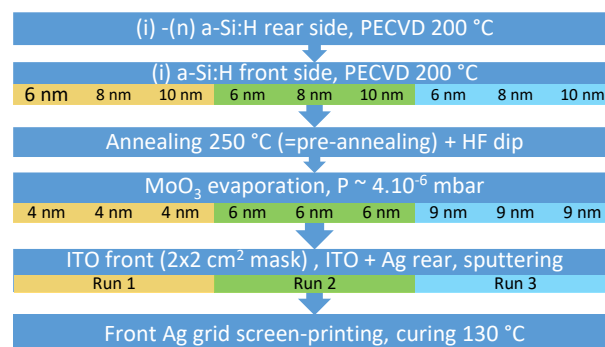


Figure 2: Process flow

Standard SHJ solar cells were processed as references, using the same rear side stack, a 6-nm-thick (i)a-Si:H layer on the front side capped with an 8-nm-thick PECVD (p)a-Si:H layer instead of evaporated MoO<sub>x</sub>, omitting the pre-annealing step since it is useful to avoid H effusion in MoO<sub>x</sub> only, and as it generally leads to a slight passivation degradation. Standard screen-printing Ag paste cured at 210 °C was used.

The structure and chemistry of the contact was assessed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). For that purpose, a layer stack of (i)a-Si:H/MoO<sub>x</sub>/ITO was deposited on a <111>-oriented mechanically polished (n)c-Si wafer. After annealing at 130 °C for 30 minutes, mimicking curing of the low temperature paste, a thicker MoO<sub>x</sub> layer (of 20 nm) was deposited on top of ITO to serve as a freshly evaporated MoO<sub>x</sub> reference. The contact stack was finalized by sputtering a Ag layer. A thin lamella was prepared using the conventional focused ion beam lift-out technique with a final thinning voltage of 2 kV in a Zeiss Nvision 40. Scanning TEM (STEM) high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) images and energy-

<sup>1</sup> All thicknesses are given on textured surfaces, calculated from measurements on flat Si or glass divided by a ratio of 1.5 accounting for the pyramids geometry.

dispersive X-ray spectroscopy maps were recorded in a FEI Titan Themis microscope operated at 200 kV with a beam current of 200 pA. Electron energy-loss spectra (EELS) were acquired at 80 kV and at cryogenic temperature (-165 °C) to assess the oxidation states of the thin (4 nm) and thick (20 nm) MoO<sub>x</sub> layers without introducing electron beam artifacts [47]. A convergence semi-angle of 30.5 mrad was employed, while the collection semi-angle was 47 mrad. A dispersion of 0.1 eV/channel was employed for the dual EELS scans. For comparison purposes, M3 edges were aligned and rescaled to a value of 1 after removing the conventional power law background (using data within the ranges 380-390 eV and 445-450 eV to fit the background). Experimental data was compared to the reference MoO<sub>2</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub> EELS spectra of [47] to assess the oxidation state of MoO<sub>x</sub> as a function of its thickness and processing history.

## Results and discussion

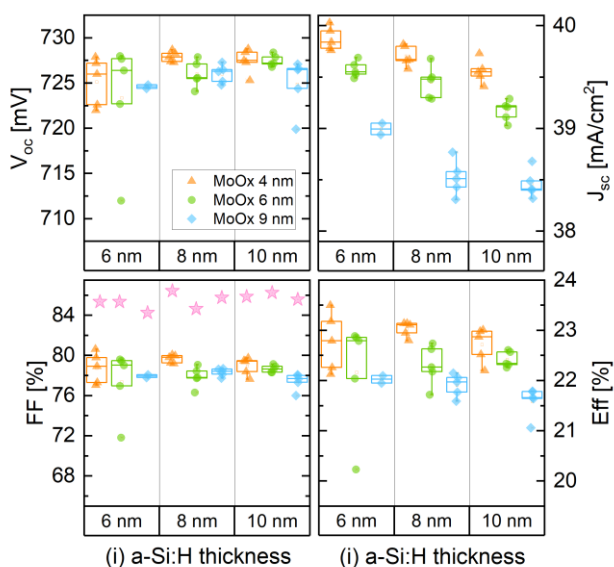


Figure 3: a)  $V_{oc}$ , b)  $J_{sc}$ , c) FF, d) Efficiency of MoO<sub>x</sub>-based solar cells with different thicknesses for the front (i)a-Si:H and MoO<sub>x</sub> layers. Each dot represents one of five cells on a wafer. One wafer was prepared per condition. The pink stars represent the pseudo FF extracted from the Suns  $V_{oc}$  measurements.

Fig. 3 shows the parameters extracted from J-V measurements of the devices with different (i)a-Si:H and MoO<sub>x</sub> thicknesses. The measurements were done with a designed black mask shading the external edges of the cell and the entire inactive area of the wafer. The open circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) values in Fig. 3a are similar for all MoO<sub>x</sub> and (i)a-Si:H thicknesses. Yet, statistical analysis indicates a statistically relevant  $V_{oc}$  gain upon thickening the (i)a-Si:H layer of  $0.61 \pm 0.27$  mV/nm (see Supporting Information about statistical analysis) and a  $V_{oc}$  loss of  $-0.41 \pm 0.25$  mV/nm when changing the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness, but in that case, statistical analysis suggests the

trend is less clear. No correlation between the two thicknesses influence on  $V_{oc}$  is observed. The thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub> thus globally yields a  $V_{oc} \sim 2$  mV higher than for the thickest layers. Part of this gain (0.6 mV) can be attributed to the photogeneration difference, as estimated using a one-diode model with  $J_{sc}$  shown in Fig. 3b as the photogenerated current, but photoluminescence imaging (Fig. S1 in Supporting Information) and high illumination  $V_{oc}$  measurements (Fig. S2) [8] suggest that the thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub> also provides better passivation and selectivity than thicker films (discussed in Supporting Information). This demonstrates that the 4 nm MoO<sub>x</sub> film is sufficiently thick to protect the passivation provided by the (i)a-Si:H layer from sputtering damage and maintains sufficient selectivity to efficiently extract holes.

Fig. 3b shows that  $J_{sc}$  decreases when thickening either the MoO<sub>x</sub> or (i)a-Si:H layer. The optical loss induced by MoO<sub>x</sub> ( $0.25 \pm 0.01$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> per nm of MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness, irrespective of the (i)a-Si:H thickness in the range tested) is higher than that induced by (i)a-Si:H ( $0.10 \pm 0.01$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> per nm of a-Si:H, irrespective of the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness, and as reported in Ref. [15]).

To identify more accurately the origin of these losses, external quantum efficiency (EQE) and reflectance measurements are shown in Fig. 4 and Table 1, highlighting gains in  $J_{sc}$  compared to the reference (p)a-Si:H SHJ cell. Reflectance is similar for all MoO<sub>x</sub> devices, with the exception of a slight variation in the 400-600 nm range, which may originate from batch-to-batch ITO variations. From Fig. 4a, the (i)a-Si:H thickness influences absorption mostly for wavelengths below 600 nm, and has no effect on reflection. On the other hand, Fig. 4b shows that the use of MoO<sub>x</sub> influences absorption over the whole wavelength range. Noticeably, the EQE signal is reduced from 600 nm to 1200 nm when increasing the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness. This is due to sub-bandgap parasitic absorption in this range, as previously observed in Refs. [30], [40]. The fact that this effect occurs in the visible range may also explain why MoO<sub>x</sub> sub-bandgap absorption impacts the  $J_{sc}$  more strongly than (i)a-Si:H UV-blue absorption, as the photon flux is lower in the UV. In our study, a  $J_{sc}$  loss of  $0.4$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in the 600-900 nm range is recorded for the thickest MoO<sub>x</sub>, but interestingly no loss is observed for the thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub>. An internal quantum efficiency comparison in Fig. S3 yet suggests that sub-bandgap parasitical absorption is still slightly present for this film. In the 320-600 nm range, gains in  $J_{sc}$  vary from  $0.5$  to  $0.8$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> depending on the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness (see Table 1). Although larger  $J_{sc}$  gains compared to standard SHJ cells were reported in literature in this range ( $1.9$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in [34],  $1.3$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in [23], and  $0.9$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in [30]), these gains were mitigated by a strong loss at longer wavelengths, reducing the overall  $J_{sc}$  gain. In Ref. [34], the replacement of ITO by more transparent IO:H presumably compensated losses associated with sub-bandgap absorption in the MoO<sub>x</sub> layer. Overall, cells featuring the thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub> film investigated in this study exhibit a  $J_{sc}$  gain of  $1.3$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. These results demonstrate that an adequate

device architecture enables to fully benefit from the improved transparency of MoO<sub>x</sub> compared to (p)a-Si:H.

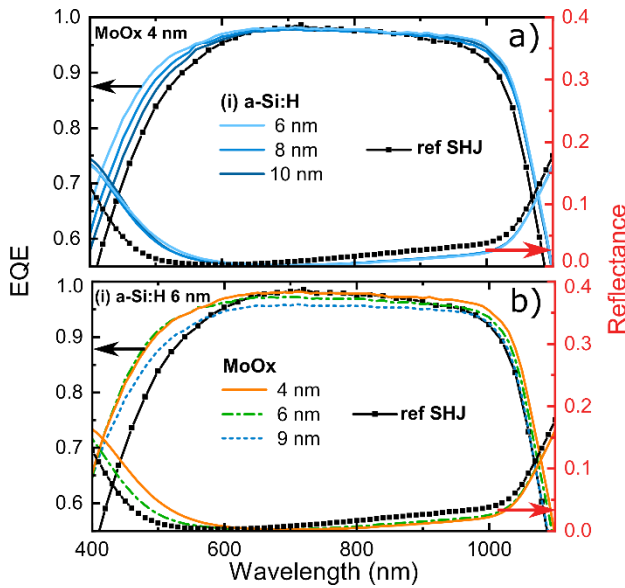


Figure 4: EQE and reflectance of a) devices with 4 nm MoO<sub>x</sub> and variable (i)a-Si:H thickness; b) devices with 6 nm (i)a-Si:H and variable MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness.

Samples with thinnest (i)a-Si:H (6 nm)	J <sub>sc</sub> gain or loss (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )			
	320 to 600 nm	600 to 900 nm	900 to 1180 nm	Total
MoO <sub>x</sub> 4 nm	0.84	0.03	0.46	1.33
MoO <sub>x</sub> 6 nm	0.83	-0.16	0.27	0.94
MoO <sub>x</sub> 9 nm	0.53	-0.43	0.05	0.15

Table 1: J<sub>sc</sub> gain for MoO<sub>x</sub>-based cells compared to the reference SHJ cell over various wavelength ranges calculated from EQE curves.

Fig. 3c shows that the thinnest layers investigated here are sufficient to ensure efficient charge extraction and passivation as a FF of up to 81% is achieved for the thinnest combination of MoO<sub>x</sub> and (i)a-Si:H layers. Statistical analysis indicates a stronger influence of the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness, with a FF loss of  $-0.3 \pm 0.1$  %/nm and no significant impact from the (i)a-Si:H thickness. In the case of a standard SHJ with (p)a-Si:H, the (i)a-Si:H thickness affects the FF significantly [15], suggesting that the MoO<sub>x</sub> layer imposes stronger selectivity than the (p)a-Si:H one. Indeed, if MoO<sub>x</sub> is more selective (thanks to its higher workfunction compared to (p)a-Si:H [23]), the hole population in (i)a-Si:H would be larger, which should lower the FF dependency on (i)a-Si:H thickness.

For standard SHJ solar cells, it is reported that an increase in (p)a-Si:H thickness leads to a higher FF [13], [15], [48], which might be due to the screening effect provided by the (p)a-Si:H layer thickness (“screening length”) towards the reverse Schottky diode induced at the interface ITO/(p)a-Si:H due to work function mismatch [13]. The same trend for FF was observed by increasing the p-type layer doping [49]. Increasing

the MoO<sub>x</sub> thickness, however, leads to a drop in FF, which suggest that MoO<sub>x</sub> contact behaves differently. This might be due to its n-type character, preventing the formation of a Schottky contact with ITO (as is the case with (p)a-Si:H which is depleted due to the workfunction mismatch between the (p)-type a-Si:H and the (n)-type ITO). This FF drop is linked to an increase of the cell series resistance (R<sub>s</sub>), notably due to the thicker MoO<sub>x</sub> film (Fig. S4). On glass samples with 8-nm sub-stoichiometric MoO<sub>x</sub>, we measured a resistivity of  $4.5 \cdot 10^4$  Ω cm after evaporation, and 300 Ω cm after annealing at 180°C, literature values span from 200 Ω cm [50] to  $5 \cdot 10^4$  Ω cm [51]. This leads to an increase of 0.005 R<sub>s</sub> / 1 nm MoO<sub>x</sub> (taking a MoO<sub>x</sub> resistivity of  $4.5 \cdot 10^4$  Ω cm), which is too low to explain the FF decrease. This confirms other studies suggesting that transport is not only limited by ohmic losses only in this kind of contact [52].

All these cells showed remarkable stability after 11 months of unencapsulated storage in air with less than 1 mV change in Voc and FF fluctuation within +/-1% (see data in SI, Fig. S5).

Fig. 5 shows the J-V plots of cells with different MoO<sub>x</sub> thicknesses. We observe a non-linear characteristic, usually referred to as “s-shape,” which is typical for solar cells with unoptimized passivating contacts. This effect arises when the extraction rate of majority carriers of the contact becomes limited at this contact, or when the leakage rate of these carriers at the opposite contact is not negligible [53]. Although thinning down the MoO<sub>x</sub> layer mitigates this effect, it is still present in the thinnest layer as evidenced by the lower current at high forward voltages compared to the reference SHJ. The impact on cell performance is however small, as the reference SHJ and the thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub> cells (orange) have a similar characteristic in the fourth quadrant. The higher J<sub>sc</sub> of the cells with a thin MoO<sub>x</sub> leads to a higher efficiency compared to the reference SHJ cell.

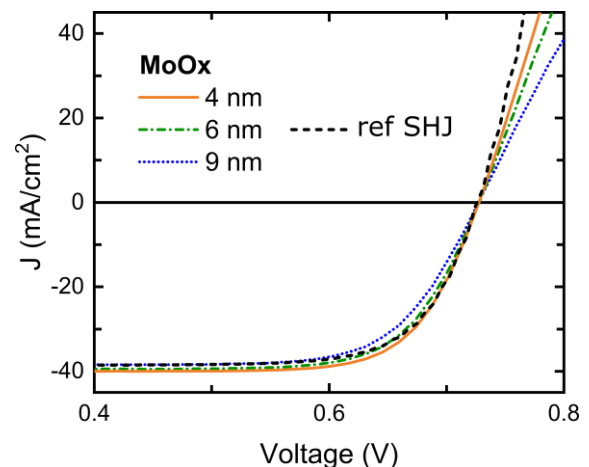


Figure 5: J-V of the three different cells featuring different MoO<sub>x</sub> thicknesses, with 6 nm of (i)a-Si:H for all devices. The dashed black line represents the reference SHJ cell ((p) a-Si:H of 8 nm, (i) a-Si:H of 6 nm).

The microstructural and chemical properties of  $\text{MoO}_x$  were investigated by STEM HAADF imaging and EDX, as shown in Fig. 6a-c, to check  $\text{MoO}_x$  contact oxidation state and aspect in the device. The EDX line profile shown in Fig. 6c highlights the presence of a thin amorphous  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer at the (i)a-Si:H/ $\text{MoO}_x$  interface, as reported in [40]. This layer is too thick (more than 2 nm) to be attributed to a native oxide prior to  $\text{MoO}_x$  deposition since an HF dip is included in the process around 20 min before samples loading in evaporator vacuum chamber. The Mo M3-M2 EELS fine structure of the thin  $\text{MoO}_x$  contact layer is comparable to the one of the thicker reference  $\text{MoO}_x$  layer (~20-nm-thick) that was not subject to any annealing or plasma exposure (Fig. 6d-f). These  $\text{MoO}_x$  EELS spectra indicate

that the layers have a stoichiometry closer to  $\text{MoO}_3$  than  $\text{MoO}_2$ , even for a layer as thin as 4 nm and sandwiched between a-Si:H and ITO and subjected to annealing at 130 °C which could reduce it by hydrogen effusion from the a-Si:H layer. Either the  $\text{MoO}_x$  stoichiometry is indeed unchanged (compared to the substoichiometric  $\text{MoO}_x$  reference) by its surroundings, or the higher affinity of Si to Mo does result in a  $\text{MoO}_x$  reduction after deposition (leading to the observed interfacial  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer), which is cancelled by the subsequent plasma exposure during ITO deposition which could induce its re-oxidation. The main conclusion we can draw from this study is that the thin 4 nm  $\text{MoO}_x$  embed in the contact stack has an oxidation state similar to the thick reference one.

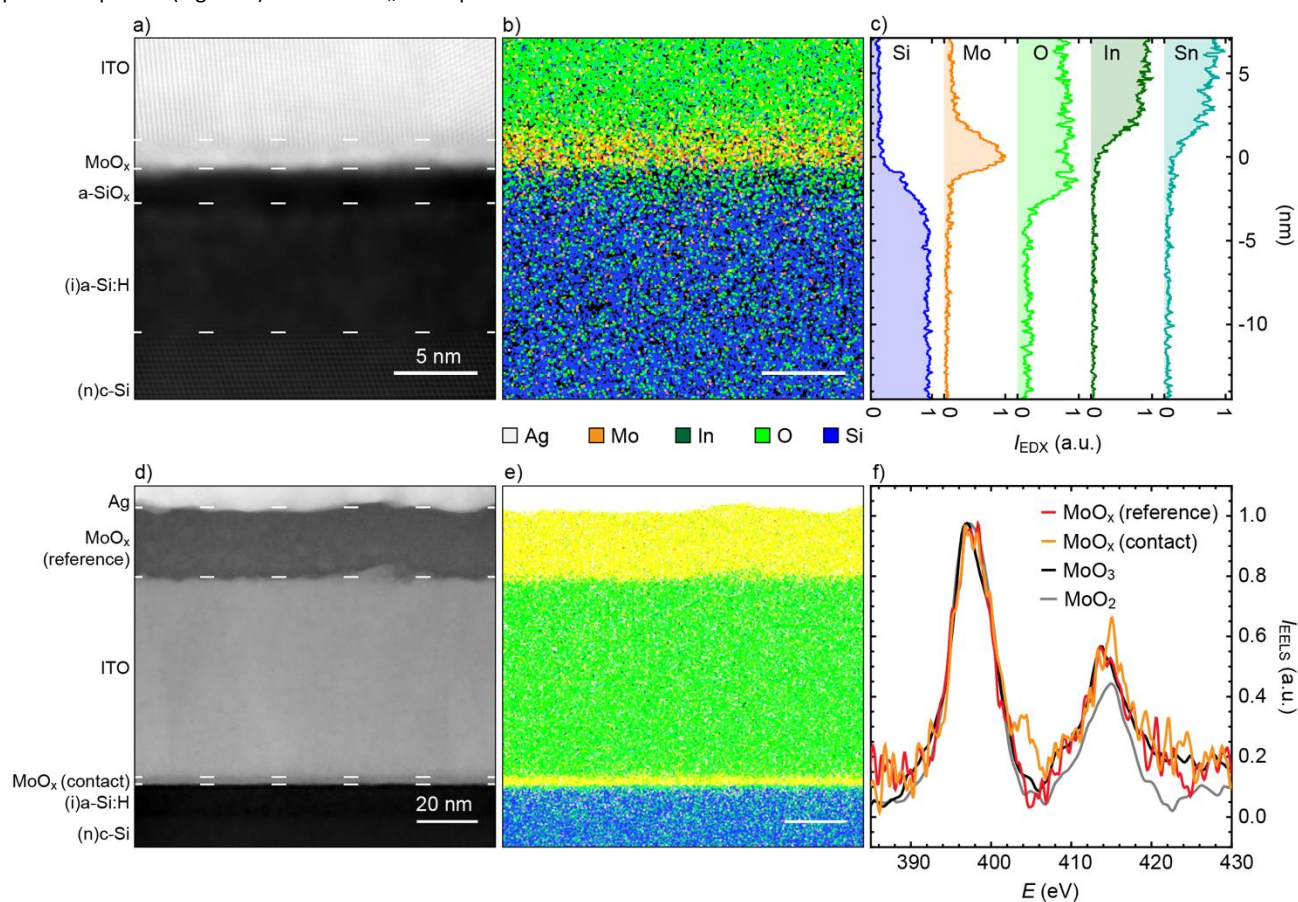


Figure 6: a) STEM HAADF image of the (i)a-Si:H/ $\text{MoO}_x$ /ITO contact deposited on a  $\langle 111 \rangle$ -oriented (n)c-Si wafer, b) corresponding EDX map and c) background-subtracted EDX line profiles of the Si K, O K, In L, Sn L edges. d) STEM HAADF image of the contact coated with an as-deposited  $\text{MoO}_x$  layer/Ag stack, e) corresponding EDX map and f) EELS Mo M3-M2 edges of the thin and thick  $\text{MoO}_x$  layers compared to reference spectra.

## Optimized MoO<sub>x</sub> contact design for record performance

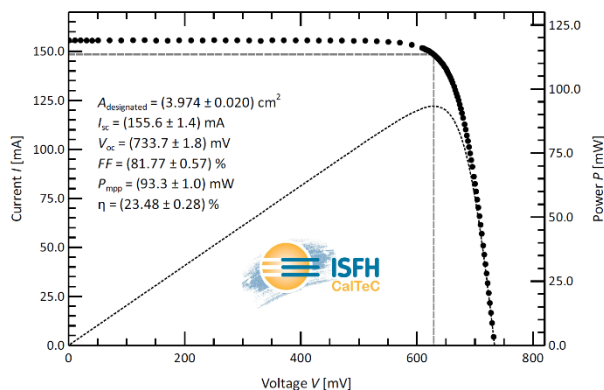


Fig. 8: certified J-V and power plots of the best MoO<sub>x</sub>-based cell processed in the lab (certified by ISFH)

The highest efficiency of this series was obtained for a 4-nm-thick MoO<sub>x</sub> layer and a 6-nm-thick (i)a-Si:H film. Given that results with the thinnest (i)a-Si:H are quite spread, we processed another 4-nm MoO<sub>x</sub> cells with thicker (i)a-Si:H layer of 8 nm, and a obtained a certified efficiency of 23.5% (Fig. 8), with a remarkable FF close to 82%. This record efficiency for such solar cell was obtained without any masking step or photolithography and used a low-temperature Ag screen-printed metallization, causing ~3% shadowing [46], [54]. The 39.15 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> current density reached for this record device is significantly below the 44.1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> Lambertian limit for a 180- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick silicon wafer. Using the analytical model presented in Ref [55], we estimate that the measured J<sub>sc</sub> could be improved by 0.8 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> by suppressing all absorption in the MoO<sub>x</sub> layer and by another 0.8 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> by suppressing all absorption in the front (i)aSi:H layer. Another 0.8 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and 1.2 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> could be gained by suppressing primary reflection and grid shading, respectively. About 1.2 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> could be recovered from parasitic absorption in the other layers (front ITO and rear ITO and Ag), and 0.2 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> from improving light trapping.

## Conclusion

In summary, we studied the influence of the thicknesses of the MoO<sub>x</sub> and (i)a-Si:H films used as hole contacts in SHJs. The thinnest layers studied here (~4 nm and ~6 nm for MoO<sub>x</sub> and (i)a-Si:H, respectively) resulted in best device performances, highlighting that such thin contact stacks enable simultaneously high selectivity, passivation, and good charge carrier transport. Thicker layers were found to lead to higher series resistance or charge carrier selectivity losses, without any strong correlation between the two. The device employing the thinnest MoO<sub>x</sub> showed a higher optical response (higher EQE) than the reference (p)a-Si:H-based SHJ over the whole wavelength range (320–1180 nm). This gain in photocurrent of 1.3 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> resulted from mitigation in parasitic absorption

losses. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy imaging and electron energy-loss spectroscopy revealed that the 4-nm-thick evaporated MoO<sub>x</sub> layer is continuous and has a stoichiometry close to MoO<sub>3</sub>, even after sputtering the overlaying ITO layer and annealing the contact stack. Overall, the high J<sub>sc</sub> allowed by this contact stack enabled the demonstration of a 23.5%-efficient device, highlighting that MoO<sub>x</sub> is an excellent hole contact for c-Si heterojunctions. By reaching a similar efficiency to that of best SHJs cells produced in our laboratory [56], this study demonstrates that MoO<sub>x</sub> can rival traditional contacting schemes in spite of its lower level of optimization. It demonstrates that carrier-selective contacts relying on non-Si materials are relevant for high-efficiency silicon photovoltaics. As a perspective, reducing further the thickness of the MoO<sub>x</sub> (based on J<sub>sc</sub> trends, a 1-nm MoO<sub>x</sub>-thick device should have a J<sub>sc</sub> higher by 0.7 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> compared to actual 4-nm MoO<sub>x</sub>-thick cells) layer and investigating the industrial feasibility and long term stability of such devices will be necessary steps before large-scale deployment of this technology can be envisaged.

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