

# Iron Chalcogenide Photovoltaic Absorbers

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Realizing new, efficient solar absorbers containing earth-abundant elements represents a critical component for expanding the reach of photovoltaic (PV) technologies, meeting growing energy needs, and ameliorating atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Among all of the elements, Fe is ranked fourth in terms of abundance in the earth's crust, and it is the least expensive metallic element to extract from Nature. The use of Fe in PV was proposed more than 25 years ago in the form of FeS<sub>2</sub> pyrite. Unfortunately, the material has been plagued by performance problems that to this day are both persistently present and not well understood. Considering the current level of understanding and the recent resurgence of interest in Fe-bearing PV materials,<sup>[1,2]</sup> we have undertaken a concerted and integrated theoretical and experimental study that provides new insight into the problem of FeS<sub>2</sub>. We use this insight to propose and then implement design rules for identifying new Fe-containing materials. These rules have led us to consider the new materials Fe<sub>2</sub>SiS<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>GeS<sub>4</sub>, which may well circumvent the limitations of pyrite.

*The initial promise of Fool's Gold:* In addition to its abundance, FeS<sub>2</sub> exhibits a useful band gap ( $E_g = 0.9$  eV)<sup>[3]</sup> and an absorption coefficient that rises to a remarkable level above  $10^5$  cm<sup>-1</sup> at  $E_g + 0.1$  eV. This high absorption coefficient (as strong as that of organic dyes at visible photon energies!) provides a unique opportunity among inorganic materials to incorporate a very thin absorber layer (<0.1  $\mu$ m) in a solar cell to capture most of the incident solar radiation. This thickness can be compared to 1.5–3  $\mu$ m for current thin-film technologies and >200  $\mu$ m for single-crystal Si cells. Such thin layers not only conserve material, but they also provide an avenue to high efficiency through efficient charge separation associated with a high internal electrical field. But, like its common name, fool's gold, FeS<sub>2</sub> as the promised golden solution for PV has not come true. While

the material exhibits exceptional optical and electrical properties, a photo response representative of the intrinsic band gap has not been observed. Single crystals are commonly observed to be *n*-type. In photoelectrochemical cell measurements, the open-circuit voltage,  $V_{oc}$ , is generally measured to be a mere 0.01 V, rising to 0.2 V with surface treatments,<sup>[4]</sup> i.e., well below the measured optical band gap. In contrast, thin films are commonly *p*-type, and they exhibit no photoelectrochemical response. After nearly a decade of effort,<sup>[5]</sup> work on FeS<sub>2</sub> largely ceased as the PV community turned its attention to thin-film materials such as Cu(In,Ga)Se<sub>2</sub><sup>[6]</sup> and CdTe,<sup>[7]</sup> spawning technologies that have now reached commercial module production with efficiencies greater than 10 percent.<sup>[8]</sup> Yet, the toxicity of Cd and scarcity of In continue to pose a threat to these technologies.

*The traditional view:* Explanations guide materials science, which guides (or misguides) technology. The small  $V_{oc}$  in single crystals has commonly been interpreted to reflect S vacancies, which have been proposed to induce energy levels within the band gap<sup>[9]</sup> and to pin the Fermi level. This model, however, does not directly address the distinctions between *n*-type single crystals and *p*-type films. Since films are more relevant to photovoltaic devices, we focus our effort here on understanding why the films are *p*-type and why they exhibit no photoresponse.

Facile S-vacancy formation in FeS<sub>2</sub> has commonly been invoked to address the observed properties. Such vacancy formation has been supported by various studies, e.g., X-ray diffraction, indicating S deficiency as high as 7.5% (FeS<sub>2-x</sub>,  $x = 0.15$ ), and thermogravimetric data, revealing possible S loss on heating to temperatures as low as 400 °C. Indeed, observed S deficiency (relative to the ideal FeS<sub>2</sub> stoichiometry) has almost universally been interpreted to imply microscopic S vacancies in otherwise perfect FeS<sub>2</sub>. The notion that FeS<sub>2</sub> is prone to high S vacancy concentrations is rooted in much earlier unsuccessful attempts to use it as a semiconductor in electronic devices.<sup>[3]</sup> This model of bulk S vacancies, however, is not without contradictions. Indeed, on the basis of a very careful analysis of the literature, Ellmer and Hopfner<sup>[10]</sup> have concluded that FeS<sub>2</sub> is actually a stoichiometric compound. Given these contradictory conclusions, the nature of S deficiencies in FeS<sub>2</sub> remains uncertain.

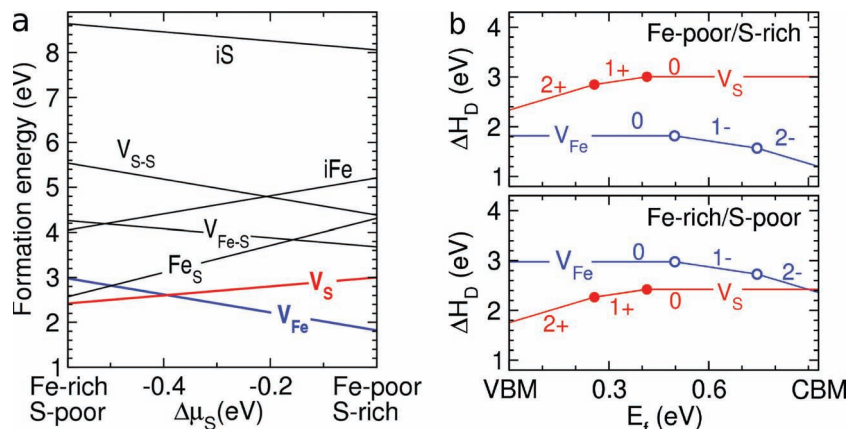
*Do bulk S vacancies abound in FeS<sub>2</sub>?* To address the likelihood that S vacancies can exist in FeS<sub>2</sub>, we have calculated the formation energies of all possible isolated and associated intrinsic defects as a function of the chemical potential (reflecting T and pressure-dependent growth conditions such as Fe-rich/S-poor) (Figure 1a) and Fermi Energy (Figure 1b) by using density functional theory (see Computational and Experimental Section for details on theory). The defects include Fe vacancy ( $V_{Fe}$ ), S

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**Figure 1.** Calculated defect properties of pyrite  $FeS_2$ . (a) Formation energies of neutral point defects as a function of the chemical potential. The calculated formation energies of non-bonded Fe-S pair vacancy and non-bonded S-S pair vacancy are higher than their corresponding bonded pair vacancy and are not shown here. (b) Formation energies of charged and neutral defects as a function of  $E_f$  for two extreme chemical potential conditions: Upper: Fe poor (S rich) and Lower: extreme Fe rich (S poor) condition. The slope of the line segments (indicated as 0, 1+, 2+, 1- or 2-) represents the defect charge states. The solid dots denote charge transition energies, i.e. values of  $E_f$  where transition between charge states occurs. For  $V_{Fe}$ , the acceptor (0/1-) and (1-/2-) transition energies are respectively 0.5 eV and 0.75 eV above VBM ( $E_v$ ). For  $V_S$ , the donor transition energies of (2+/1+) and (1+/0) are about  $E_v+0.26$  and  $E_v+0.41$  eV.

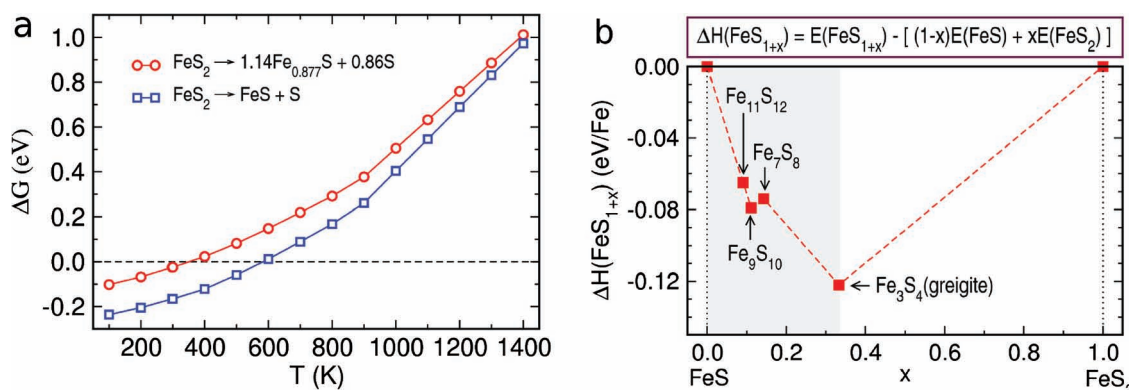
vacancy ( $V_S$ ), bonded as well as nonbonded Fe-S vacancy pair ( $V_{Fe-S}$ ), bonded as well as nonbonded S-S vacancy pair ( $V_{S-S}$ ), interstitial Fe ( $iFe$ ), interstitial S ( $iS$ ), and Fe-on-S antisite substitution ( $Fe_S$ ). As shown in Figure 1a, the lowest formation-energy defects are  $V_{Fe}$  under S rich/Fe poor conditions with  $\Delta H = 1.82$  eV and  $V_S$  under S poor (Fe rich) conditions with  $\Delta H = 2.42$  eV. One notices immediately that these are rather high formation energies, leading to low equilibrium concentrations of bulk vacancies. Such high vacancy formation energies clearly suggest that  $FeS_2$  is a stoichiometric compound, supporting the most recent stoichiometry measurement.<sup>[11]</sup>

Do S vacancies pin the Fermi energy?  $V_S$  also does not cause  $E_f$  pinning in bulk  $FeS_2$ . In general, the Fermi level would be pinned around the value at which the charged donors and

acceptors have the same formation energies and compensate each other.<sup>[12]</sup> In this case, attempts to shift  $E_f$  to higher (lower) energies in the gap would result in formation of additional acceptors (donors), a process that locks  $E_f$  due to negative feedback. In Figure 1b, we see that the formation enthalpy of the positively charged  $V_S$  (donor) and the negatively charged  $V_{Fe}$  (acceptor) do not intersect in the gap at any of the limiting growth (chemical-potential) conditions, thus  $V_{Fe}$  and  $V_S$  in bulk do not cause Fermi-level pinning. We conclude that S vacancies are rare in the bulk because of a rather high formation energy. Therefore, these vacancies do not cause Fermi-level pinning, and they are unlikely to be responsible for the small, reported open-circuit voltages.

*S deficiency in  $FeS_2$  does not imply S vacancies:* Given that  $FeS_2$  does not seem to be prone to bulk point-vacancy formation, we enquire, what is the source of the macroscopic loss of S and its potential effects on PV performance. It turns out that there are a few competing Fe-S crystal structures that are S-deficient, such as troilite  $FeS$  and pyrrhotite ( $FeS_{1+x}$ ,

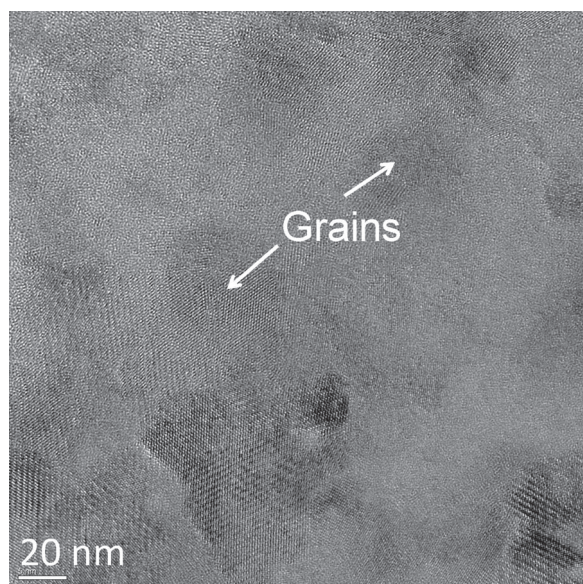
$x = 0-1/7$ ).<sup>[13]</sup> Figure 2a shows the calculated Gibbs free energies ( $\Delta G$ ) of pyrite with respect to decomposition to  $FeS + S$  (red line) or  $Fe_{0.877}S + S$  (blue line), as a function of temperature ( $T$ ) under a pressure of 1 atm. At  $T > \sim 350$  K and  $T > \sim 600$  K, pyrite is found to decompose to the S-deficient structures  $Fe_{0.877}S$  and  $FeS$ , respectively. On the other hand, if pyrite is grown at high  $T$  ( $>600$  K), the S-deficient phases can form spontaneously during the annealing process. Figure 2b shows the calculated ground-state formation enthalpies ( $\Delta H$ ) convex hull of such S-deficient bulk phases with respect to the end points  $FeS$  (troilite) structure and pyrite  $FeS_2$ . We see that all intermediate S-deficient phases, e.g.,  $Fe_9S_{10}$  and  $Fe_{10}S_{11}$ , have lower energies than the weighted linear average of the end-points between  $FeS$  and  $FeS_2$ . Thus, intermediate S-deficient



**Figure 2.** (a) Calculated Gibbs energies of formation of pyrite:  $\Delta G = G_{FeS_2} - [G_{FeS} + G_S]$  and  $\Delta G = G_{FeS_2} - [1.14 G_{Fe_{0.877}S} + 0.86 G_S]$  as function of  $T$  under the pressure of 1 atm. The free energy  $G(T)$  is determined from  $G(T) = G(T=0 K) + [G(T) - G(T=0 K)]$ , where  $G(T=0 K)$  was calculated from density function theory with  $U = 1.9$  eV and  $G(T) - G(T=0 K)$  is obtained from experimental thermochemical data.<sup>[32]</sup> The total energy of  $Fe_{0.877}S$  was calculated by using  $Fe_7S_8$  structure as an approximation. (b) Calculated formation energy of intermediate S-deficient phases with respect to  $FeS$  and  $FeS_2$  at  $T = 0$  K.

phases can form spontaneously if FeS phase is formed during growth, leading to an inhomogeneous microstructure with multiple phases. The coexistence of these S-deficient phases explains the commonly observed S-deficiency,<sup>[14,15]</sup> consistent with the basic Fe-S phase diagram,<sup>[16,17]</sup> which shows that these S-deficient phases (mainly FeS and Fe<sub>1-x</sub>S) coexist with pyrite at temperatures from 0 to around 743 °C. Indeed, in both powders and thin films, we commonly observed by X-ray diffraction crystalline, sulfur-deficient secondary phases, e.g., Fe<sub>7</sub>S<sub>8</sub> (Figure S2). An overpressure of sulfur vapor is generally required to eliminate evidence of these secondary phases in the X-ray patterns.

*Are stable, S-deficient intermediate phases electronically and optically significant?* These theoretical findings are further studied by growing thin films via sputtering and solution methods. The films provide an opportunity to test for the existence of S-deficient phases through microstructural analysis as well as electrical and optical measurements. Significantly, both growth methods produce degenerate semiconductors with high carrier concentrations in excess of  $10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (as evidenced by resistivity in the range of 0.1–0.7  $\Omega\text{cm}$  and Seebeck coefficients near 60  $\mu\text{V/K}$ ). Optical transmission for the two types of film are essentially the same ( $\alpha = 5 \times 10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at  $E_g + 0.3 \text{ eV}$ ), showing, however, very strong sub-band-gap absorption ( $\alpha = 6 \times 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at 0.75 eV). High carrier concentrations and high sub-band-gap absorption are common traits of FeS<sub>2</sub> films,<sup>[18,19]</sup> but their origin has not been directly addressed. To examine the structure of the FeS<sub>2</sub> films in greater detail, we have turned to high-resolution transmission-electron microscopy. As shown in Figure 3, crystalline regions of FeS<sub>2</sub> are clearly evident, but they are dispersed through material that is largely amorphous. Chemical analysis via energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy at random points throughout the film reveals a S-deficient stoichiometry with a Fe:S ratio of 1:1.6, despite annealing in a very S-rich environment. The films are thus characterized by



**Figure 3.** High-resolution transmission electron micrograph of sputtered and annealed FeS<sub>2</sub> thin films.

crystalline FeS<sub>2</sub> grains (from X-ray diffraction) that are coated by regions of highly sulfur-deficient phases.

To further elaborate the nature of the S deficiency and the conductivity of the grain coatings, we have calculated the formation energy for creating a S vacancy in a S-terminated (001) surface. This surface is known to be the most common cleavage plane and predominant growth plane of a natural FeS<sub>2</sub> crystal.<sup>[20]</sup> The formation enthalpy for a surface V<sub>S</sub> is only 0.4 eV, much less than that of a bulk V<sub>S</sub> (2.4 eV) under the same S-poor conditions. Hence, V<sub>S</sub> can occur much more easily near the surface or grain boundary. In addition, from analysis of the FeS<sub>2</sub>-layer projected density of states (Figure S1), we find that the band gap of a defect-free (001) surface is reduced by only 0.3 eV relative to the bulk, whereas a surface layer with V<sub>S</sub> becomes metallic, i.e., the band gap is closed (Figure S1). Hence, a low-energy pathway is available for formation of metallic defect-surface coatings and phases, even at modest annealing temperatures, cf., Figure 2.

The picture emerging then is that whereas S vacancies are improbable in the bulk, S deficiencies are readily accommodated through formation of accompanying phases. These phases are known to be metal-like materials.<sup>[21]</sup> Their presence as largely amorphous forms in the films provides a source of hole carriers. This high carrier concentration in turn leads to free-carrier absorption at energies below the band gap of FeS<sub>2</sub>. Despite annealing samples in excess sulfur vapor for an extended period of time at temperatures between 300 and 600 °C, films could not be fully converted to stoichiometric FeS<sub>2</sub>. The results are thus consistent with the phase-coexistence results of the calculations, which together with the experiments point to an intrinsic thermal instability of FeS<sub>2</sub> and the considerable challenges that must be surmounted for production of high-quality, single-phase FeS<sub>2</sub> films.

*New design principles for Fe-bearing PV absorbers:* Our new interpretation forces upon us new "Design Principles". The old design principle of avoiding bulk S vacancies is now replaced by a new insight for identifying Fe sulfides for PV: Select systems that do not spontaneously phase-separate into S deficient conducting materials with small band-gaps. To assure a sufficiently large band gap, the Fe<sup>2+</sup> ion must be bound by at least six S atoms so as to provide a ligand-field splitting of sufficient magnitude for effective solar absorption. This generally requires Fe<sup>2+</sup> in an octahedral site. Such a site can be stabilized by adding a third element with an electronegativity that favors strong covalent bonding with sulfur. From these considerations, we have chosen to examine the materials Fe<sub>2</sub>MS<sub>4</sub> (M = Si, Ge), noting that Si is second only to Fe in terms of extraction costs from nature.<sup>[22]</sup>

Properties of Fe<sub>2</sub>MS<sub>4</sub> (M = Si, Ge) – no disproportionation into small-gap S deficient structures: These materials have been reported to adopt the olivine structure,<sup>[23]</sup> which, like pyrite, presents a six-coordinate environment for Fe<sup>2+</sup>. The disulfide S<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup> unit of FeS<sub>2</sub>, however, has been replaced with simple sulfide S<sup>2-</sup>. We find in our calculations that Fe<sub>2</sub>SiS<sub>4</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>GeS<sub>4</sub> are very stable with respect to decomposition into binaries FeS and SiS<sub>2</sub> (or GeS<sub>2</sub>). Our calculated reaction enthalpy,  $\Delta H$ , for Fe<sub>2</sub>SiS<sub>4</sub> = 2FeS + SiS<sub>2</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>GeS<sub>4</sub> = 2FeS + GeS<sub>2</sub> are +0.59 eV and +0.64 eV, respectively, meaning the ternaries are more stable than the combination of the corresponding binaries.

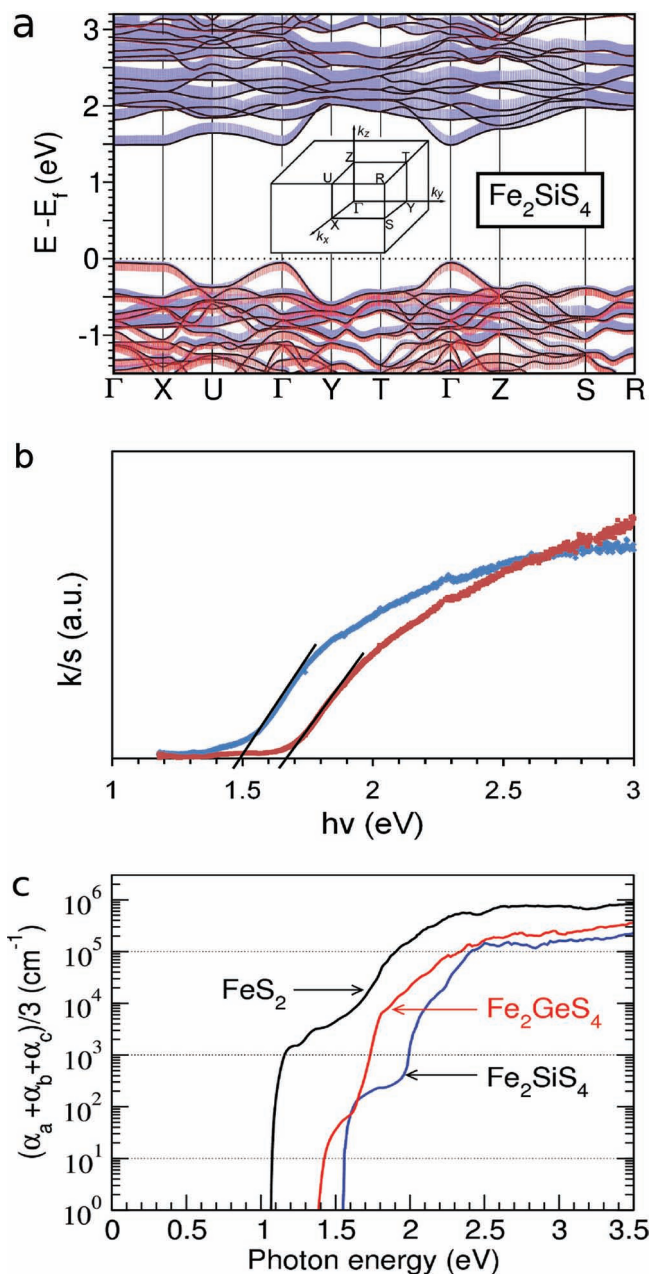


From TGA measurements, we find that  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  begin to lose mass only above 725 and 1000 °C, respectively. The former mass loss corresponds to the volatilization of  $\text{GeS}_2$ , while the latter is correlated with the volatilization of  $\text{SiS}_2$ . The formation of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  thin films by sputtering is confirmed by X-ray diffraction (Figure S3) and electron-probe microanalysis ( $\text{S}/\text{Fe} = 1.96$ ,  $\text{Ge}/\text{Fe} = 0.51$ ). They exhibit a resistivity of 2.3 k $\Omega$  cm and *p*-type majority carriers. This resistivity is similar to that measured on single crystals, *i.e.*, 840  $\Omega$  cm, where a carrier concentration of  $5 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  is estimated from the measured Seebeck coefficient of +750  $\mu\text{V}/\text{K}$ .<sup>[24]</sup> Unlike  $\text{FeS}_2$ , the characteristics of the bulk powders and thin films are equivalent, and they support the calculations with respect to phase stability. The ternary compounds do not readily decompose into metallic S-deficient binary phases. This material choice then satisfies the new design principle.

*Are the band gap and absorption suitable for PV?* The band structure for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  (Figure 4a) reveals a valence band dominated by S character and a conduction band dominated by Fe character. The direct gaps calculated for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  are 1.55 and 1.40 eV, respectively. These values compare well to the direct gaps, 1.54 and 1.36 eV (Figure 4b), measured by diffuse reflectance from pressed pellets of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ , respectively. An equivalent gap is observed for the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  thin film (Figure S4). All of these band gaps are more than 0.4 eV greater than  $\text{FeS}_2$ , providing considerable advantages with respect to absorption of the solar spectrum.<sup>[25]</sup> The optical absorption  $\text{S } 3\text{p} \rightarrow \text{Fe } 3\text{d}$  is characterized by a large matrix-transition element, providing the basis for a strong absorption. When coupled with the modest dispersion of the bands and attendant high joint densities of states, absorption coefficients ( $>10^5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) approaching that of  $\text{FeS}_2$  are predicted (Figure 4c). The  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  film also does not exhibit the strong sub band-gap absorption character of  $\text{FeS}_2$ , again supporting the absence of phase separation and formation of small band-gap binary iron sulfides.

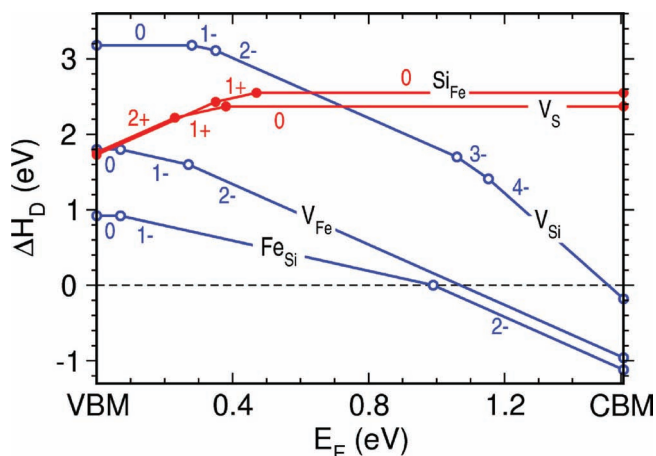
Figure 5 shows the defect formation energies of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  at  $T \sim 550 \text{ K}$  under a pressure of 1 atm. Similar to  $\text{FeS}_2$ , point vacancy defects have high formation energies. The neutral Fe-on-Si ( $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$ ) antisite defect (acceptor), which can be essentially taken as one hole plus  $\text{Fe}^{3+}_{\text{Si}}$ , has the lowest formation energy, *i.e.*, 0.92 eV. As  $E_{\text{f}}$  rises from VBM to CBM,  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  and/or  $\text{V}_{\text{Fe}}$  (acceptors) always have lower formation energies than  $\text{V}_{\text{S}}$  and  $\text{Si}_{\text{Fe}}$  (donors). Hence the carrier concentration of acceptors are always higher than donors, indicating  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  is a *p*-type semiconductor, consistent with our experiment. Under equilibrium,  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  is incorporated in the 1- charge state, corresponding to a  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  oxidation state. The 1- charge is balanced by holes in the valence bands. However, higher in the gap at  $E_{\text{v}} + 1 \text{ eV}$ ,  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  has a 1-/2- transition where it changes to  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ . If  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  is abundant, it will trap electrons when the quasi- $E_{\text{f}}$  for electrons comes close to this transition level. Thus,  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  could limit  $V_{\text{oc}}$ , but only around 1 eV above VBM. Realistically, the material is prepared in excess S to force *p*-type behavior, which places the Fermi energy near the VBM, well displaced from an electron concentration favoring the  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$  defect.

**Summary and perspective:** The stoichiometry of iron pyrite,  $\text{FeS}_2$ , has for some time been a controversial topic. Resolving the intrinsic nature of this composition is a key component in



**Figure 4.** (a) Calculated electronic band structure for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$ . The widths of the blue and red lines represent the contributions of Fe 3d and S 3p orbitals, respectively, to the bands. (b) Diffuse reflectance data from powders;  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ —blue line,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$ —red line. (c) Calculated optical absorption coefficients for  $\text{FeS}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ , averaged over three lattice directions up to 3.5 eV.

understanding the material as a potential photovoltaic absorber. We find from calculations and experimental observations that S deficiencies are a common trait of  $\text{FeS}_2$ , but they are manifest through coexistence of secondary phases rather than bulk S vacancies in  $\text{FeS}_2$ . We learn from these findings that deposition of thin films will be a particularly challenging problem. Approaches that rely on high-temperature sintering of high surface-area nanoparticles, for example, are especially problematic.



**Figure 5.** The formation energies of point defects in  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  as a function of  $E_F$  at  $T \sim 550\text{ K}$  under 1 atm (see Supporting Information for details). The defects  $\text{Si}_{\text{Fe}}$  and  $\text{V}_{\text{Si}}$ , shown by red lines are donors. The blue lines are for acceptors, i.e.,  $\text{V}_{\text{Fe}}$ ,  $\text{V}_{\text{Si}}$ , and  $\text{Fe}_{\text{Si}}$ .

They will promote phase coexistence, making films unsuitable for realizing the intrinsic properties of  $\text{FeS}_2$ .

We have been stimulated by the effort on pyrite to formulate design rules for identification of new Fe sulfides that will allow us to avoid the problems of phase coexistence, while retaining attractive optical properties. These rules led us to consider the sulfides  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ . In comparison to  $\text{FeS}_2$ , both calculations and experiments indicate that phase coexistence of small band-gap binary iron sulfides is not an issue with these materials. The higher band gaps (1.4–1.5 eV) of the ternaries relative to pyrite (0.9 eV) also provide important advantages with respect to the efficient absorption of the solar spectrum. At the same time, a high absorption coefficient ( $10^5\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) is retained at  $E_g + 0.5\text{ eV}$ . In general, defect formation energies are quite high in the materials; their formation should be restricted by using preparative conditions that favor placement of the Fermi energy near the VBM. Hence, considering the current set of calculations and observations, these ternary earth-abundant sulfides represent promising systems for continued development of high-efficiency thin-film solar cells.

## Computational and Experimental Section

The calculations are based on density functional theory and plane-wave projector augmented-wave (PAW) method as implemented in the VASP code<sup>[26]</sup> within the generalized gradient approximation of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE).<sup>[27]</sup> An energy cutoff of 300 eV was employed. The Hubbard “+U” correction was applied to Fe 3d states (GGA+U), following the simplified rotationally invariant “U” scheme proposed by Dudarev and co-workers.<sup>[28]</sup> For  $\text{FeS}_2$ , U = 1.9 eV was chosen, unless specified. At this “U”, the lattice parameters, S–S bond length, relative position of d orbitals, and band gap are in good agreement with experimental data. For  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ , U = 3.9 eV was calculated from linear response theory.<sup>[29]</sup>

The formation energy of a defect (D) calculated from the formula<sup>[10]</sup>

$$\Delta H_D^q(E_F, \mu) = E_D^q - E_H + \sum \eta_\alpha (\mu_\alpha^0 + \Delta \mu_\alpha) + q(E_V + E_F),$$

where  $E_D^q$  and  $E_H$  are the total energies of a supercell with and without defect, respectively, and D being in charge state q.  $n_\alpha$  is the

number of atoms of specie  $\alpha$  needed to create a defect.  $E_F$  is the Fermi energy relative to VBM ( $E_V$ ).  $\Delta \mu_\alpha$  is the relative chemical potential of specie  $\alpha$  with respect to its elemental solid (gas) ( $\mu^0$ ). The relative chemical potentials are taken as variables and are bounded by the values that maintain a stable host compound and avoid formation of all other competing phases (including their elemental solids). In the calculation, supersize effects (image charge interaction, band-filling) and potential alignment have been treated as described elsewhere.<sup>[30]</sup>

The optical properties are calculated from the complex frequency-dependent dielectric function, which is based on the independent-particle approximation. Quasiparticle self-energy corrections, local-field effects, and excitonic contributions are neglected.<sup>[31]</sup>

For synthesis of  $\text{FeS}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$ , and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{SiS}_4$  samples, mixtures of elemental powders Fe (Cerac, 99.9%), Ge (Alpha Aesar, 99.999%), Si (Alpha Aesar, 99.9985%), and S (Cerac, 99.999%) were mixed and heated in evacuated sealed tubes between 400 and 1000 °C, typically for 48 h. Thermogravimetric analysis was conducted with a Mettler Toledo TGA850 instrument by heating samples in alumina cups under flowing  $\text{N}_2$  (g) at 10 °C/min. Single crystals of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  were grown by chemical vapor transport with  $\text{I}_2$  (Alpha Aesar 99.99+%) as the transport agent (5 mg/cm<sup>3</sup>). Reagents were sealed in evacuated silica tubes (~23 cm long) and placed for three days in a three-zone furnace with the hot zone set to 980 °C and the cold zone at 900 °C. The furnace was then cooled at 5 °C/h to 500 °C, while maintaining the gradient. The power to the furnace was then turned off. Many black needle-shaped crystals, 1–10 mm in length, were found at the end of the tube set in the cold zone.

$\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  thin films are deposited by rf magnetron sputtering at room temperature in 5 mTorr Ar/He process gas at 65-W power. The  $\text{FeS}_2$  films were annealed under a S atmosphere in a sealed tube at temperatures between 350 and 600 °C for periods of 1 to 15 h. One film was cooled from 550 °C to room temperature at a rate of 12 °C/h. The  $\text{Fe}_2\text{GeS}_4$  films were annealed with  $\text{GeS}_2$  in a sealed tube at a temperature between 600 and 650 °C for 1 h. A precursor for solution deposition of  $\text{FeS}_2$  was synthesized by dissolving iron nitrate and elemental iron in a 20/80 water-methanol solution over the course of two days. The resulting solution contained 0.2 M Fe with a  $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Fe}$  ratio of 2/1. The solvent was then evaporated under flowing argon to produce an iron nitrate gel that was subsequently dissolved in water and spin coated onto both glass and  $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Si}$  substrates. Sulfurization was performed by flowing  $\text{CS}_2$ (g) over the films during a rapid ramp to 500 °C followed by a one-hour dwell.

Room temperature, 4-point probe resistivity of the films was measured with a LakeShore Cryotronics Hall Measurement System. Seebeck coefficients were measured on a custom-built system with copper electrodes (the reported coefficients are not corrected for the electrode contribution). Optical transmission and reflection as well as diffuse reflectance spectra were collected in the range 1.2–5 eV by using a custom-built spectrometer equipped with an Ocean Optics HR4000 UV-VIS detector and a balanced deuterium/tungsten halogen source (DH-2000-BAL). For the range 0.5–1.4 eV, an Ocean Optics NIR256 detector and a tungsten halogen lamp (Mikropack HL-2000-FHSA) were used.

TEM images were obtained by using an FEI Titan 80-300 TEM, and EPMA data were collected with a CAMECA SX50 electron microprobe (CAMCOR, University of Oregon). Thin-film and powder X-ray diffraction data were obtained with a Rigaku Ultima-IV diffractometer.

## Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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