## Today's Photovoltaic Solar Cells

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#### **Outline**

What is electricity? => The need for "electron pumps" What is sunlight? How does light interact with various materials How to make an electron pump (vs. a non energy producing "photoconductor") How to create free electrons & free holes by adding "donor" or "acceptor" impurities Doing this side-by-side to form electron-pumping interfacial electric fields Choosing solar cell material to milk the most power from sunlight – Shockley-Queisser Limit Silicon's idiosyncrasies => The impact of "indirect bandgap" & "traps" Today's diamond, gold, silver & bronze standards / Record solar cell efficiencies Huge difference between average and peak solar cell output => My  $\frac{1}{2}$  x  $\frac{1}{2}$  x maybe  $\frac{1}{2}$  rule Dealing with the possible loss of sunlight via reflection A solar cell's lifetime energy output vs. lifetime energy input => E.R.O.I.

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## Today's Photovoltaic Solar Cells

"Photovoltaic" refers to the direct, single step conversion of sunlight into electricity So, to start, both need to be explored in greater depth What is electricity? That may sound like a very simple, or even dumb question In which case: I've read an incredible number of "dumb" news stories And "dumb" university press releases And even occasional "dumb" comments from research scientists Because they imply that: "Electricity" = THING that can just ooze out of a lump of material WRONG! Electricity is not a thing – It is a process: Of electrons being driven in a flow

But why CAN'T we just squeeze electrons out (and then USE them)? From notes on Electricity & Magnetism (pptx / pdf / key) & Magnetic Induction (pptx / pdf / key): Maxwell's 1<sup>st</sup> Equation says Electric Fields build in proportion to net charge "Net charge" = Positive charge density – Negative charge density Electric Force is then proportional to the strength of that electric field So just a TINY ACCUMULATION of net charge => HUGE FORCE

For a second or two this may happen:

Then there's a snap as charge dissipates



oyerickson.wordpress.com/ 2012/08/05/pull-upsomething-cool/

#### **BOTTOM LINE:**

On scales much greater than molecular dimensions Nature will not LET you add or remove significant net charge! (because the resulting HUGE force would then EXPEL that net charge)

So "electricity" is instead all about pumping charge We **PUMP** charge in one end of something and out the other end: "Something" = Generator, solar cell, battery . . . That's WHY it's called electrical current = An analogy to incompressible water: We pump water THROUGH pipes, but if we try to increase water IN pipes => Explosion! Generators, solar cells, batteries, . . . are all CHARGE PUMPS And pumps are judged on basis of the flow and pressure they can generate: Water Power = Flow x Pressure which is analogous to: Electrical Power = "Current" x "Voltage" So what we are NOW looking for is a solar-powered electron pump!

An Introduction to Sustainable Energy Systems: WeCanFigureThisOut.org/ENERGY/Energy\_home.htm

Moving on to the 2<sup>nd</sup> key question: What is Sunlight?

It is a very BROAD range of colors (a.k.a. "wavelengths")

Resembling a "Black Body Spectrum" ( = vibrating things randomly sharing energy)

Significant portions of which are absorbed in the atmosphere (yellow => red)



# How much power can sunlight provide?



Above the earth's atmosphere, total power is ~ 1350 Watts / square meter This value is referred to as "AMO" (air mass zero) But the atmosphere absorbs ~ 25% = ~ 1000 Watts / square meter Referred to as "AM1.5" (air mass 1.5) But that is the MAXIMUM solar power that can EVER reach the earth's surface Because it is the value only when the sun is DIRECTLY overhead Which happens only in certain locations, in certain seasons, once a day, when there is no haze, fog, or clouds to absorb or redirect sunlight

How to convert light's wavelength into photon energy: Start with fact that light's energy is proportional to its frequency: Energy<sub>light</sub> = h f h = Plank's constant, f = frequency (in Hz = cycles /sec) Add in the fact that, in one cycle, light travels one wavelength (= " $\lambda$ ")

So velocity of light = c =  $\lambda$  / (cycle time) =  $\lambda$  f

Plug second relationship into first relationship:

Energy <sub>light</sub> = h f = h (c /  $\lambda$ ) = hc /  $\lambda$ 

Then, agree to express light energies in eV, and wavelengths in microns Yielding relationship: Energy <sub>light</sub> (in eV) = 1.24 /  $\lambda$  <sub>light</sub> (in microns) A Joule = (1 coulomb of charge) (crossing a 1 Volt potential) An eV = (1 electron charge) (crossing a 1 Volt potential) = 1.6 x 10<sup>-19</sup> Joules

# Using this to revise the scale of earlier sunlight plot:

From formula above (and fact that 1000 nm = 1 micron):



And calling out spectral ranges by their common names:

Vis

UV

Infrared

Wavelength

We now need to know how these colors **interact with matter** Because we want to exploit these interactions to CAPTURE the light's energy! 1) INFRARED (IR) LIGHT: 0.7 microns < Wavelength Energy < 1.7 eV If absorbed by matter, IR => heat = atomic & molecular vibrations Symmetric Asymmetric Scissoring Rocking Wagging Twisting Stretch Stretch Uniqueness of an atom/molecule's vibrational energies => absorption bands => "IR" spectroscopies used by chemists AND Spectral Irradiance (W/m<sup>2</sup>/nm) Visible UV Infrared -> Sunlight at Top of the Atmosphere .5 5250°C Blackbody Spectrum to absorption bands seen in AM1.5 spectrum: **Radiation at Sea Level** 0.5 H<sub>2</sub>0 **Absorption Bands** H<sub>2</sub>O co.

Animated GIFs from: en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Infrared\_spectroscopy



IR vibrations may be amusing (and quite useful elsewhere)

But, in the context of solar photovoltaics, the important fact is that:

Most IR light lacks the energy necessary to liberate electrons from atoms/bonds Thus most Infrared light CANNOT DIRECTLY produce electricity

But Infrared's heat energy CAN be transferred to (absorbed by) other things Especially if they are thick enough The captured heat can then be used to boil water Which, expanding, can drive the turbines of electrical generators = Solar Thermal Energy as described in subsequent note sets So Infrared light can INDIRECTLY produce electricity

# As opposed visible light which CAN directly produce electricity:

1) VISIBLE (Vis):

0.4 microns < Wavelength < 0.7 microns 1.8 eV < Energy < 3 eV

**Visible** light **CAN** knock an electron free from an atom ("ionization") Visible light CAN also knock one electron out of a covalent bond That's probably why our eyes use visible light: **Infrared** light just causes atoms in eye to vibrate Vibrations CAN be transferred to other atoms (a.k.a. heat flow) But it's hard to imagine a heat-directing "optical nerve fiber" In contrast, visible light can liberate electrons/ions (producing => electrical flow)

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What about ultraviolet light?

1) ULTRAVIOLET (UV): Wavelengths < 0.4 microns

3 eV < Energy

UV has MORE than enough energy to liberate electrons! So we CAN ALSO use UV light to directly produce electricity HOWEVER, UV light also has enough energy to **BREAK MANY ATOMIC BONDS** Distinction: "Liberating" = Removing one of a covalent bond's paired electrons Or extracting one electron from an unbonded pair (=> "free radical") In both cases, pair can re-form later by capturing an electron Whereas: "Bond breaking" = wiping out bond => changing molecular structure Thus, over time, UV LIGHT can even DESTROY solar cell materials = A particular problem for weakly bonded organic solar cell materials

## Summarizing the different ways in which light interacts with matter:



Vibrates a few atoms

But **MOST** of it passes right through thin layers of material Liberates electrons from bonds

IF the material has an electron liberation energy  $\leq$  light energy

Liberates electrons from bonds but gives them so much excess energy that they ricochet all around

Excess energy is lost as struck atoms start to vibrate (=heat)

Solar-powered electron pumps = **Photovoltaics** (a.k.a. "solar cells") What happens when light strikes a material? From above: Case 1) Photon energy < Material's bond energy: Photon can't shake anything loose, most just proceed on through Meaning that the material is ~ transparent to these too low energy photons Case 2) Photon Energy ~ Material's bond energy Photon IS now absorbed and its energy used to kick an electron out of a bond Case 3) Photon Energy > Material's bond energy Photon is absorbed: Part of its energy kicks an electron out of a bond Rest of its energy also goes to that electron in the form of **kinetic energy**: Photon kicks electron out of the bond, then kicks it in the butt!

So when a material is exposed to light having its bond energy: That light is (at least eventually) going to be absorbed by a bond in the material: **Before:** Atom cores (positive nuclei + inner electrons) + bonding electrons In 1D: +2 -2 +2 -2 +2 -2 +2 0 0 0 0 After: One negative electron is liberated, leaving behind a positive region:

0 +1/2 +1/2 -1 0 0 0 0 0 But electron is DRAWN BACK to positive region, falling back into bond (or a FEW might wander out the left or right end)

This gives only a "photoconductor" and NOT a solar cell! (Wake up all of you so-called science journalists!) Most of the liberated electrons just wander around until pulled back into bonds Or ones that DO exit are equally likely to exit right or left Nothing is pumping (pushing) electrons to flow in one direction! Application? ADD external battery/power supply and use as a light detector: **No light:** All electrons in bonds, no current through sample (despite battery) Light: Freed electrons Battery can now suck them out one end and push back into other But where does the light's energy go? Ultimately, into the atoms Freed electrons later fell back into atoms' clutches, giving those atoms a kick => Atomic vibrations (a.k.a. heat)

To produce power we've ALSO got to drive (PUMP) electrons somewhere! The Classic Technique: START with fully-bonded electrically neutral material, most commonly **silicon** It sets the bonding rules with its crystal structure: Rule with Si = four bonds ADD atom of almost the same size but with one less bonding electron (e.g., **boron**) Fits into crystal, steals electron from elsewhere, making it an Acceptor ion (thief?) Bond where electron was stolen from now becomes a positive Hole

Add **neutral** Acceptor atoms to Si => Negative ions + Liberated holes:



 Silicon atoms = Grey (fixed neutral atoms)
 Acceptor ions also FIXED in position
 Holes = MOBILE Why? Silicon atoms = Grey (fixed neutral atoms)

ANSWER: Hole grabs electron from neighbor, leaving hole in a NEW place . . . And holes don't fill with electrons from outside because that would add net charge We can also add things that will shed electrons
Donor = Similar to Si in size, but with one additional bonding electron (e.g., P, As)
Fits into crystal but final electron has nothing to pair with and bond. Thus:
It easily loses that electron (ionizes), becoming a positive Donor ion:
With that last, now liberated, electron free to wander:

Add **neutral** Donor impurity atoms to Si => Positive ions + Liberated electrons:



Here only liberated electrons are MOBILE And, as in other material, net charge is still zero! So James Clerk Maxwell is still happy

And if mobile electrons return home, heat will eventually kick them back out!

**NOTE: Acceptor and Donor impurities are called "DOPANTS"** 

## The payoff comes when you put two such "doped" regions side by side:

Acceptor ions + Mobile Holes: Donor ions + Mobile Electrons:



At the intersection ("junction") mobile electrons rush across to FILL mobile holes!!

(Because holes ARE just bonds that have lost one of the normal paired electrons)



Mobile electrons filling the mobile holes (in the bonds) = "Recombination"

Central junction thus becomes **depleted** of ALL mobile charges (liberated electrons or holes):



But this leaves uncompensated FIXED acceptor ions (-) / donor ions (+) at the junction Which produces a growing **Electric field** at that junction

Migration / recombination continues UNTIL field is strong enough to block further migration

Because **Electric field** pushes positive charges left and negative charges right



Electric field thus locks **remaining** mobile holes and electrons on their respective sides

## NOW add light to knock electrons out of background silicon:



New electron and hole can both wander, but if they reach the "junction:"



"Built-in" electric field traps new electron on right, but propels hole to left If instead created on left, hole's trapped there, but electron's swept to right = A CHARGE PUMP

(BTW this is also a **DIODE**: You can only force current through it in **ONE** direction)

Two ways of creating that boundary charge-separating electric field: ABOVE: ONE MATERIAL but divided into TWO DIFFERENTLY BEHAVING REGIONS Two regions made different by adding acceptor OR donor impurity atoms

ALTERNATIVE: Just put two DIFFERENT MATERIALS side by side

Electrons at higher energies on one side may try to cross over to other side



NET RESULT (again) = Build up of electric field at boundary

## It's analogous to diatomic bonding in molecules:

88

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**Slight Electric Field** 

Atoms of two different materials:

Possibility 1) **Covalent Bond** = Equal sharing of electrons in bond:

Possibility 2) Polar Covalent Bond = Unequal sharing of electrons in bond:

Possibility 3) **Ionic Bond** = Transfer of electron from one atom to other:

Big Electric Field!



Solar cell materials MUST allow some electron movement, then:

At junction of **two different materials**, interfacial bonding **can** be polar or ionic:

🔹 🐹 OR: 🙀 Both => Interfacial Electric field

UNLESS the electron energy levels of the two materials are too similar
Then electron in one material may not find a lower energy state in the other
And the interfacial bonding will remain covalent (and E field =>0)
If layers are of same material there's no reason for electrons to shift (and E =>0)
But we can then, instead, add different impurities to layers (as in Si cells):



Impurities => Interfacial Electric field

But remember, charge only shifts NEAR the interface:

Materials are composed of atoms which are intrinsically charge neutral

So natural state of any single layer is ALSO neutral:

And junction between two materials also "starts out" neutral

But if energy levels in materials are different enough, charge can cross interface:

 $\bigcirc$ 

However, charge shift builds electric field eventually blocking further charge transfer

So charge **DEEPER** in layers will not get chance to cross!

Leading to common rules for almost all photovoltaics (solar cells): You must have at least one set of paired materials: Be it two distinctly different materials OR One basic material (e.g., silicon) modified into two differently acting layers In that pair, one layer/material must cling onto electrons more tightly So that electrons will flow into it from the second material Until shift of charge across boundary builds the INTERFACIAL ELECTRIC FIELD to a level that stops further shifting of charge That interfacial electric field will then provide the critical push When light IS added, it liberates more electrons from bonds But the ELECTRIC FIELD then pushes freed electrons all in one direction

But how much POWER will such a solar cell PRODUCE? Power = Current x Voltage Current comes from the number of electrons liberated by light / second - A function of how strongly **that** material absorbs photons of **that** color - AND of **how much** material is doing the absorbing (due to its layer thickness) Voltage comes from charge driving/separating junction ELECTRIC FIELD Which was created by process of bond filling/liberating. Leading to fact that: Photo-electrons/holes are driven out of cell by  $\sim$  60-70% of the liberation energy => Solar cell voltage ~ (0.65) (liberation energy) / (electron charge = "e") For Si solar cell,  $V_{oc}$  ~ (0.65) (Si electron liberation energy = 1.1 eV) / e ~ 0.7 Volt Larger liberation-energies => More VOLTAGE but Less CURRENT:

Why?

# The somewhat complicated answer starts with the solar spectrum:





If this strikes a solar cell made of a material having Small liberation energy => MOST colors liberate electrons, but they're driven out of cell by small voltages If this strikes a solar cell made of a material having Large liberation energy => Only HIGH ENERGY light liberates electrons But fewer electrons that ARE liberated will be driven by higher voltages! So now try to find optimum combination (based on choice of optimum material): Figuring out energy absorbed by cells made of different materials: On the horizontal axis, plot the energy of variously colored solar photons On the vertical axis, plot the energy such a photon can deliver to the material Ideal result is a simple straight line: Photon Energy = Energy Deliverable



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Now take into account our solar cell's chosen material Say our solar cell's material has a low "electron-liberation energy" ( = bandgap) Below that energy, light is NOT strongly absorbed (mostly passing through)

But key thing is HOW energy that IS absorbed is USED by the material:



1<sup>st</sup> part of photon's energy is used to liberate an electron

But remainder of energy only accelerates that electron = Butt Kicking

## Butt-kicked electron WASTES that extra energy:

1) Excessively energetic photon is absorbed by bonding electron:



2) Electron is freed and, with extra energy, crashes madly through the crystal:



3) Struck atoms absorb energy:

=> Atomic vibrations (= Heat) + Slowed down electron

Heat energy is not converted to electrical power!



# Energy absorbed by cells made of different solar cell materials:

#### Cell with small "bandgap"



0 eV

5 eV

Light's Energy

Gray Triangles => Energy lost to heating of the cell Rectangles (only) => Electrical energy out of the cell Using that to plot the maximum possible **efficiency** of a solar cell:

SOLAR CELL EFFICIENCY = (Electrical Energy Out) / (Total Energy Absorbed) = (Area of lower rectangle) / (Area of rectangle + Butt-Kicking triangle):

For our solar cell using small bandgap material:

Energy Absorbed vs. Light's Energy:







# Instead plotting cell efficiency vs. light wavelength (~ flipping right-left)

For solar cell using material with 0.5 eV electron liberation energy (bandgap):





For solar cell using material with 0.75 eV electron liberation energy (bandgap):

## FINALLY: Comparing solar cells with a LOT of different bandgaps:



complex AM1.5 spectrum

Wavelength in nm (or above, equivalent energy in eV)

Larger the area under a bottom curve => More solar energy captured

BIGGEST area comes between 1 eV and 1.5 eV curves

Material with a 1.3 eV bandgap could capture & convert ~ 35% of Sun's energy

It's called the **Shockley-Queisser Limit** after William Shockley & Hans Queisser

This 35% efficiency limit is NOT because of poor engineering! It is instead because:

We ONLY CAPTURE that part of light energy liberating electron from bond, REST of light energy is wasted giving liberated electron kick in the butt All because a photon insists on giving ALL of its energy to a single electron (even photons with enough energy to liberate multiple electrons!) But in addition to having a 1.3 eV bandgap, the ideal material must also: Be made of atoms that try to hold their own valence electrons within bonds While allowing foreign **acceptor** atoms to steal electrons and foreign **donor** atoms to liberate their electrons

Which sets up the necessary electron-pumping configuration (explained earlier):



#### Materials meeting those added requirements are called **SEMICONDUCTORS**

They're built of atoms from this region of the periodic table:

Periodic table from: http://byjus.com/chemistry/periodic-properties/



At the center of that region is **silicon** Which is already the king of semiconductors based on its use in integrated circuits But it **also** has a 1.1 eV bandgap near the Shockley-Queisser efficiency sweet spot! However: Solar-cell-quality silicon is strangely expensive Which stems from the peculiar way photons interact with it In many semiconductors, energetic photons simply liberate electrons But in silicon photons must get an assist from vibrating atoms (Making silicon what is called an **indirect** bandgap semiconductor) That makes it harder for silicon to absorb light, particularly low energy light Which means that silicon solar cells must be unusually thick (Hundreds of thousands of atoms thick = Tens of microns)

# Making the cross-section of a silicon solar cell more like this:



Because that field sorts things out, sending + to the left and - to the right

= The absolutely essential solar cell pumping action

Before reaching the electric field, the electron & hole **ARE** just wandering Liberated & created, they have no reason to move in ANY particular direction This random wandering motion is called **diffusion** Which is famously explained by the **drunkard's walk** = Analogy of a drunk randomly bouncing off light posts: But we've got two types of wandering drunks: electrons and holes And these unique types of drunks can "annihilate" one another That is, the electron can just fill the hole (in the bond) => zip! To create a net flow (=> electricity) our drunks MUST reach boundary cliff Over which the "electron drunks" will fall (and the "hole drunks" ascend) Or the way I was first taught it: Electrons ~ Ball bearings (which fall DOWN) Holes  $\sim$  bubbles (which FLOAT up)

Figure: http://www.sos.siena.edu/~jcummings/teaching/astronomy/lectures/reveal.js-master/ch10.html#/

But there is an additional complication: "traps" Light-liberated electron & hole must not recombine before reaching the electric field Normally, they cooperate by either **not** wandering into one another OR by "orbiting" each other when then **do** meet (orbiting pair = an "exciton") But if there are crystal faults (misbonded atoms) or certain impurities: Wandering electrons or holes tend to get "trapped" at these flaws and if both end up at the same trap, they quickly recombine => zip!

Using black blobs to represent such traps, our solar cell can end up more like this



Crystalline silicon succumbs to one type of trap but not the other Silicon's bonds are extraordinarily strong It is the 3<sup>rd</sup> hardest material (after only diamond and silicon carbide) That bond strength makes it possible to grow near perfect crystals: Si solar cell crystals can have as few as one Si atom in 10<sup>15</sup> mis-bonded Which pretty much eliminates crystal flaws as traps But in Silicon, metal impurities make exceptionally effective traps Silicon for solar cells must thus pass through extra (expensive) purification steps **NET RESULT:** Crystalline Si solar cells define today's "gold standard" Commercial cell efficiencies are in the 20-25% range Research versions push 30% But (like gold) this comes with a steep price tag

Gallium Arsenide offers competition for that gold standard: It has a very similar crystal structure with weaker, but still strong, bonds:

GaAs's "zincblende" type crystal:



Si's "diamond" type crystal:



GaAs's 1.5 eV bandgap is slightly closer to the Shockley-Queisser optimum And, unlike silicon, its bandgap is **direct** allowing for use of thinner layers Which, together, boost its cells to almost the full S-Q 35% efficiency limit However, containing arsenic, it raises concerns about toxicity And its crystals are even more expensive to grow Qualifying it more as an (impractical?) **diamond standard**  So what about more affordable silver or even bronze standards? Today's silver standard is probably polycrystal silicon Here crystal growth conditions are markedly relaxed yielding, instead of a single crystal, a tightly packed collection of "crystallites"

Which can be represented as:



But wandering electrons & holes can now get trapped at crystallite edges
Where there are plenty of mis-bonded atoms
Which might acquire a charge attractive to those wanderers
Result? Polycrystal Si cells have efficiencies about 4/5<sup>th</sup> that of single crystal Si But if cost is correspondingly reduced, they can still make sense!

And "amorphous Si cells" yield a candidate for the bronze standard:

By amorphous, we mean a cell in which there is almost no crystalline order:

Multi-crystalline

Poly/microcrystalline:



Amorphous:



You'd think, with virtually every atom either mis-bonded or unbonded, that a super-abundance of "traps" would make amorphous solar cells hopeless Amorphous cells of pure silicon DID turn out to be hopeless! But then people (including a friend) tried adding **hydrogen** which bonded with enough of those unhappy Si atoms that trapping of electron & holes was radically decreased => Efficiency ~ ½ of single crystal Si cells, but at a much lower price *Trying to put these (and other) alternatives into perspective:* 

The U.S. National Renewable Energy Lab (NREL) publishes an annual plot of

the latest,

greatest,

possibly one of a kind,

maybe never even reproduced,

(and/or horrendously expensive),

research solar cell efficiency records:

## NREL: Best RESEARCH solar cells (1976 – 2018):



https://www.nrel.gov/pv/assets/pdfs/pv-efficiencies-07-17-2018.pdf

## With some added guidance as to cell types:

#### Single crystal GaAs

## Emerging multi-junction cells



Emerging thin film and/or quantum dot cells

"Hero" (best in lab / single shot) efficiencies, top to bottom: Multi-junction solar cells: Highest at 46% Beating but not shattering the Shockley-Quiesser Limit Crystalline GaAs solar cells (more exotic/\$ crystal than Si): 35.5% Crystalline silicon solar cells: Highest at 27.6% Thin-film cells (e.g. polycrystalline/amorphous Si and CdTe): Highest at 23.3% **Perovskite cells: Highest at 23.3%** Dye-sensitized, organic ... cells: Highest at 12.6% Quantum Dot solar cells: Highest at 13.4%

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What about all those very rapidly climbing "emerging" cells?

Well, they ARE still emerging which means that they:

Are still largely unproven

Employ radically different materials

And/or radically different device principles

Making them the subject of the note set Tomorrow's PV Solar Cells (pptx / pdf / key)



## To finish this note set, here are some issues with today's PV solar cells:

First, going back to our earlier discussion of sunlight:



#### The MAXIMUM solar power EVER reaching the earth's surface

is called AM1.5 (air mass 1.5) and equals ~ 1000 Watts / square meter

But to capture that maximum intensity:

- 1) The PV solar cells must directly face the sun
- 2) The sun must be DIRECTLY overhead

So light takes the shortest path through the light-obstructing atmosphere

3) There must be no haze, fog, or clouds to absorb or redirect sunlight

At best, such **peak** conditions occur for an hour or so, a few days a year!

### Thus: AVERAGE SOLAR POWER << PEAK SOLAR POWER

OK, then you read marketing literature or news articles declaring that:

"This new solar plant will produce Y kilowatts of power" OR

"It will be able to power Z thousand homes"

But **which** power are they talking about?

AVERAGE power would most fairly represent the plant's likely impact But marketing literature is much more likely to cite PEAK power Which naive journalists then parrot in news headlines & articles Leaving YOU to figure out how PEAK power relates to AVERAGE power! My Solar Rule: Multiply by  $\frac{1}{2}$  x Another  $\frac{1}{2}$  x Maybe Another  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

Multiply by the first factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$  because:

Averaged over a year, the sun is up only 50% of the time

Multiply by the second factor of 1/2 because:

Solar intensity peaks near noon, falling to ~ zero at sunrise & sunset

Sun's motion means that power to a surface falls sinusoidally away from noon Absorption via the longer atmospheric path makes that falloff even sharper!

Then maybe multiply by a third factor of ½ because:

Clouds, haze or smog stop the sunlight from reaching the solar cell Pictorial explanation drawn from my Introductory Note Set (pptx / pdf / key):

#### Daily solar energy delivered to a solar cell:

Yellow = Clear summer day

**Gray** = Non-summer and/or cloudy day



**Green** = Eyeball approximation of **typical** (possibly cloudy) day's solar power Area of triangle = Power x Time = **ENERGY** per day per square meter =  $(\frac{1}{2})(base)(height) = (\frac{1}{2})(\frac{1}{2} day)(\frac{1}{2} kW/m^2) = \frac{1}{2} x \frac{1}{2} x \frac{1}{2} x (1 kW-day/m^2)$ 

= 1/8 x (Energy if sun were ALWAYS directly overhead in a clear sky)

Leading to discussion of CAPACITY and CAPACITY FACTOR: We use "capacity" to describe what some person or thing is capable of That is, the **best performance** we can expect of them or it In this sense, a solar cell's power capacity would equal its BEST possible output Which would be its output at noon on those special few sunny days = PEAK POWER which is so much larger than solar's AVERAGE POWER To deal with this, power plants are also described by a CAPACITY FACTOR **CAPACITY FACTOR = TIME AVERAGED POWER OUT / POWER CAPACITY** Which, from above, I expect to be 1/4 for nearly cloud-free locations Or possibly as little as 1/8 for more typically cloudy locations

So how important **ARE** cloudy days?

The U.S. Energy Information Administration evaluates CAPACITY FACTORS And reports these, for every type of power plant, every year As detailed in my note set **Power Plant Economics** (<u>pptx</u> / <u>pdf</u> / <u>key</u>) The EIA consistently reports SOLAR PV CAPACITY FACTOR as being about 25% =  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$  and not  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$ , suggesting that clouds are NOT important However, the EIA sensibly bases its estimates on **current** U.S. power plants And the vast majority of U.S. solar plants are **now** in southwestern deserts So while the EIA validates the first two parts of my  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$  rule, It does not verify the final  $\frac{1}{2}$  and thus does not answer questions such as: What if solar PV plants are built in less remote / more typical locations? How much lower will their power output be?

The U.S. National Renewable Energy Lab (NREL) provides an answer: Their website maps yearly averaged and seasonal data, taking into account if: PV cell arrays are fixed in one position Or if they daily swing East to West tracking the sun's arc AND/OR if they adjust their North-South tilt with changing season

Selecting for yearly averaged data, with only East to West daily tracking:



http://rredc.nrel.gov/solar/old\_data/ nsrdb/1961-1990/redbook/atlas/

Power in currently used "best" southwest locations: 5-6 kW-h/m<sup>2</sup>/day

vs. 3-4 in west/south locations vs. 2-3 in midwest / northeast locations

In non-SW locations weather DOES knock power down by another ~1/2!

# LIKELY TIME-AVERAGED SOLAR CELL POWER OUTPUT: To calculate SOLAR POWER INPUT ("insolation") you first either: 1) START with maximum possible solar insolation ~ 1000 Watts / square meter THEN apply my $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$ rule OR use solar insolation mapping websites such as NREL's 2) Yielding ~ 2000-6000 W-h/m<sup>2</sup>/day ~ 80–250 Watts / square meter **BUT TO THEN GET A SOLAR PANEL'S POWER OUTPUT:** You must multiply by component solar cells' energy **conversion efficiency** Which, from earlier discussion, is now typically $\sim$ 15-20%, yielding: Averaged solar panel power output => 12-50 Watts / square meter

Meaning that ONE of these:



Could only power a small ONE of these:



How optimized capture of sunlight leads to solar cell's apparent color: In addition to carefully tuning the absorption of sunlight within a solar cell You must also minimize reflection of sunlight right off its front surface Laboratory cells can almost eliminate such reflection via "surface micro-texturing" SEM image of micro-textured Si: Effect on reflected light: VS.

Reflected light is effectively trapped, forcing it to **eventually** penetrate into PV cell Near total elimination of ANY color reflection makes this into "Black Silicon"

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SEM Image: https://www.nanowerk.com/spotlight/spotid=19590.php

# But commercial PV cells aren't black, most are in fact blue:



and-more-efficient-solar-cell/

DESPITE being made of silicon which has a silver-gray color:



www.quora.com/Why-are-silicon-wafersround

Why? Because commercial cells suppress reflection using a different methodWhich is considerably less expensive but also significantly less effectiveA thin flat clear glass layer is added to the surface of flat PV cellsLight then reflects from **both** the top of the glass, and the top of the PV cell

However, light is a wave, with both crests and troughs If the crests of one reflected wave overlay the troughs of the other, They can cancel each other = Destructive interference => No reflection When will this occur? Consider a glass layer ¼ of the light's wavelength (λ) thick

λ/4

If the incoming light ray strikes almost vertically,

the penetrating ray travels an extra λ/2 before returning to the surface, where it meets up with the ray reflecting directly from that surface
But a half wavelength takes you from a wave's crest to a wave's trough So that ray's troughs will overlay the other ray's crests => Cancellation!

Such "quarter wave plates" are the stock way of suppressing reflections But what if you have light of multiple colors (as you do with sunlight)? The wavelength of red light is almost twice that of blue:  $\lambda_{red} \sim 2 \lambda_{blue}$ Say, trying to suppress reflection of red, you choose glass thickness of  $\lambda_{red}$  / 4 The penetrating red ray then travels extra distance  $\lambda_{rad}$  / 2 => Cancellation The penetrating blue ray follows the same path, so it also travels an extra  $\lambda_{red}$  / 2 But  $\lambda_{red}$  / 2 ~  $\lambda_{blue}$  so the penetrating blue travels **one** of its wavelengths That penetrating blue ray thus ends up **strengthening** the surface-reflected blue Crests overlay crests, troughs overlay troughs => **Reinforced blue reflection** Commercial Si PV cells, trying to capture as much energy as possible from sunlight, employing analyses similar to my earlier Shockley-Quiesser optimization, increase capture of red at the expense of reflecting blue

Closing with two common criticisms of today's **silicon** PV cells: "Solar PV cells require more energy to make than they will ever produce!" Yes, much of silicon's strength comes from its . . . well, strength It does have extremely strong bonds, as reflected in its 1415°C melting point And much of its processing does occur near or above that melting point So it IS appropriate to question the amount of energy consumed in its manufacture But that ends up being a valid concern for **many** energy technologies Which is why I've written a whole stand-alone note set about **EROI** (pptx / pdf / key): Energy Return On Investment = (Lifetime Energy Out) / (Lifetime Energy In) Which, for energy production technologies, sure as heck better be >> 1! You can preview that EROI note set now, but its short answer on Solar PV is: Solar PV EROI's **ARE** >> 1: About 10 for crystal Si => 35 for some thin films

A second common criticism of today's **silicon** PV cells:

# "Si is a rare and exotic material that requires exceptionally toxic fluoride chemicals to extract and purify"

Well, here are elemental abundances in the earth's crust (look at the top left):



Source: http://www.webelements.com/

Which showed that Si is the 2<sup>nd</sup> MOST COMMON element in the earth's crust

As emphasized in this almost comically reworked version of **The Periodic Table** in which cell size has been made proportional to an element's crustal abundance:



Narrow lines at the bottom = All of the other elements – drawn in proportion

Source: http://www.webelements.com/

And it's not hard to **find** silicon in the earth's crust:

Along with the #1 most common element, oxygen, it makes up beach sand

In the form of SiO<sub>2</sub> (a.k.a. "quartz" or "silica")

And beach sand is indeed the source of a PV cell's silicon:



http:// boraboraphotos.com/ beautiful-white-sandbeach-in-bora-bora/

But yes, if its separation required fluorine, that would be a concern

Because, among the halogens, fluorine is an extremist:

Oxidizing strength:  $F_2 > CI_2 > Br_2 > I_2$  Reducing strength:  $I^- > Br^- > CI^- > F^-$ 

So fluorine compounds **DO** often have extreme (and very toxic) chemical properties Including a tendency for even dilute residues to attack nerve cells

But it turns out that **chlorine (not fluorine)** is used in Si refining! Silica sand (SiO<sub>2</sub>) is first heated with carbon at 2000°C Which burns off the O as  $CO_2^{-1}$ But the resulting purity is not then high enough for electronics (much less for PV) So it is then heated to 300°C in the presence of HCI gas Which produces liquid trichlorosilane (SiHCl<sub>3</sub>) Then, in the "Siemens Process,<sup>1,2</sup> trichlorosilane is passed (at 1100°C) over pure "seed" crystals of Si where trichlorosilane decomposes, depositing hyper pure Si (and releasing chlorine gas) So does Si refining does involve not very nice chemicals and byproducts? **Yes!** But they are not atypical of chemicals used in **most** raw material extraction 1) http://www.techradar.com/us/news/computing-components/processors/how-sand-is-transformed-into-silicon-chips-599785 2) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Silicon

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An Introduction to Sustainable Energy Systems: WeCanFigureThisOut.org/ENERGY/Energy\_home.htm