INVESTIGATION OF COSMIC RAY INDUCED DEFECTS IN CIGS SOLAR CELLS


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ABSTRACT

In October 2018 CIGS solar cells were exposed to cosmic radiation during a 3.5 hour long flight with the BEXUS 27 high altitude balloon, the balloon reached an altitude of 28 km where it floated for 2 hours. The experiment studied the cosmic radiation induced defects in the solar cells and was performed by the LODESTAR project part of the REXUS/BEXUS programme [10]. We report no variation of $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ after an estimated dose of 40$\mu$J/cm$^2$ from cosmic ray exposure, the measured variation of $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ was due to temperature and illumination variation. For the IVT and CVT characterization we see a difference post-flight which could be caused by cosmic ray induced microscopic defects, one instance of this is the reduction of the CIGS activation energy from 166.4 meV pre-flight to 151.0 meV post-flight.

Key words: REXUS/BEXUS; CIGS; Thin-film photovoltaics; Cosmic Rays; Microscopic defects.

1. INTRODUCTION

CIGS solar cells have great prospects as a thin-film photovoltaic technology due to its low mass, relatively high efficiency and low cost. The manufacture of high-efficiency, low cost, radiation hard thin-film solar cells is an important challenge to accelerate the commercialization of space. CIGS (CuIn$_x$Ga$_{1-x}$Se$_2$) solar cells have great prospects in filling this role and have been studied extensively by [1, 3] for this purpose. It is therefore interesting to study how CIGS solar cells degrade due to cosmic radiation exposure.

This study examines the impact of cosmic radiation on CIGS solar cells. To examine the radiation-induced defects, the following measurements were made on six CIGS solar panels, both before and after exposure of cosmic radiation; open circuit voltage ($V_{oc}$) and short circuit current ($I_{sc}$) measured in darkness, Capacitance vs. Voltage (CV), quantum efficiency (QE), Current vs. Voltage vs. temperature (IVT) and Capacitance vs. Voltage vs. temperature (CVT). The IVT and CVT characterization has to our knowledge not been employed before on CIGS solar cells exposed to cosmic radiation. With IVT, CV and CVT measurements one can investigate the microscopic defects that determine the macroscopic behaviour of the solar cells, such as $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$. This study will not delve into the details of how the CIGS layers are structured, the interested reader is referred to [4] where this is specified.

There have been many studies of CIGS solar cells but few that use IVT or CVT characterization. In 2010 IV characterization of electron-irradiated CIGS solar cells was performed by [5]. In 2018 [6] published their measurements of CIGS solar cells on a small satellite. The satellite flew in Low-Earth Orbit over a year but only measured $I_{sc}$, $V_{oc}$ and temperature. In 2004 [7] studied technological aspects of multiple CIGS type solar cells, but they did not perform any IVT or CVT measurements. In 2003 [8] performed CV measurements on CIGS solar cells to study deep-level electron and hole traps. The CIGS solar cells used were not, to our knowledge, intentionally subjected to any irradiation.

Perhaps the most famous study on cosmic radiation induced defects in CIGS solar cells is by [1] who attached CIGS solar cells to the MDS-1 satellite in GEO stationary orbit subject to several orders of magnitude higher proton fluence than in our experiment. They studied the annealing, $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ of the solar cells. Large changes to $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ only occurred at higher proton fluences, as such we did not expect any long term degradation of $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ due to the cosmic ray induced defects in our study.

Cosmic radiation exposure of CIGS solar cells generate numerous types of defects that degrade the solar cells. Specifically $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ decrease due to a positive charge build up in the solar cells. One type of defect that is of interest is deep level traps [4]. Electrons have a high mobility in the material and are transported to ground, electron holes have a lower mobility and can become...
trapped in the junction, generating a deep level trap state. The continuous buildup of electron holes in the CIGS manifests as a positive charge buildup that degrades $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$.

The measurements were executed both before and after exposure to cosmic radiation, i.e. before and after flying on the BEXUS 27 high-altitude balloon. Moreover, parameters such as on-board temperature, $V_{oc}$, $I_{sc}$ and cosmic radiation counts were collected during the flight.

2. EXPERIMENT

2.1. Experimental setup

The experiment consisted of three different modules; a primary solar cell module, a secondary solar cell module, and an electronics module. All modules were fastened to the balloon gondola, and the electronics module was powered by the gondola batteries. The primary solar cell module hosted a STS-5 Geiger-Muller tube, four CIGS, two amorphous silicon (a-Si), and two monocrystalline silicon (c-Si) solar panels. The STS-5 was chosen because of its ability to operate under low temperatures and measure proton radiation. The secondary solar cell module hosted seven CIGS, four c-Si and two a-Si small solar cell panels. All of these panels were fully disconnected since the secondary module was constructed for safety precautions in case of an unfortunate landing. The electronics module is a thermally insulated metal box which carried all of the circuits and a Bosch Adafruit BMP280 temperature sensor. The Bosch Adafruit BMP280 measured the air temperature inside the box with an uncertainty of 2 degrees Celsius. The primary solar cell panels were connected in groups of three to one Arduino Nano [11] each, which in turn were connected to a single Arduino Mega [11]. The IV measurement circuits measured current and voltages in sweeps between $I_{sc}$ and $V_{oc}$ at regular intervals, by use of a 2N7000-MOSFET acting as an active load for the solar cells. The Geiger-Muller tube measured radiation counts incident near the primary solar cell panels and was connected to a third Arduino Nano, which sent its data to the Arduino Mega.

The Arduinos communicated with the I²C protocol through the SDA and SCL ports. Two-byte integers were transmitted one byte at a time and were then reassembled on the Arduino Mega. The clock was set to work at a speed of 100 kbit/s which meant that a two-byte integer took 0.16 ms to send. The setup allowed for decentralized measurement of the measurements to the Arduino Nano while allowing the Arduino Mega to only handle collecting, sending, and storing of data. All of the data was stored on a local SD-card and an Ethernet shield for transmission to the electrical ground support equipment via a radio downlink and UDP transmission control. The Geiger-Muller-tube was powered by a constant voltage of 400 V, which was regulated by a step-up circuit which was controlled by an Arduino nano. The same Arduino was also responsible for counting the ionization events inside the tube. The Arduino Nano supplied a square wave signal opening and closing the MOSFET transistor in the boost converter. Fig. 1 illustrates the communication between the primary solar cell module and the electronics module.

![Figure 1: Schematic of the measuring device and the data transfer.](image)

2.2. High precision measurements

In this work we have performed ICVT (Current-Capacitance-Voltage-Temperature), IVT, high precision IV (0.1 fA resolution), QE (0.4 nm wavelength uncertainty) measurements on CIGS solar cells before and after flight. The measuring instruments that were used are similar to those used in [4]. The setup for the ICVT and IVT measurements uses a liquid-nitrogen-cooled cryostat that is 5 by 5 cm. This is large enough to hold one of our solar cell panels, which means the measurements can be performed either on the entire panel or on individual cells. The cryostat is able to keep the solar cells at a constant 25°C in dark conditions, while the sample is being warmed by the incident light. It can also be used to cool the sample for low temperature measurements. The measurements are done attaching four probes to the solar cell sample, two on each side. The reason why double probes are used is so that the voltage and current can be measured in separate systems, this allows for more exact measurements. Quantum efficiency is gives a measure on the spectral response of the solar cells. It describes in percent how many electron-hole pairs that are excited for each incoming photon at a specific wavelength of incoming light. The QE characterization measurement device cannot measure a whole panel, only individual cells. To get a complete picture of a whole module each cell has to be measured separately. The device can do adjustable sweeps over the entire spectrum of workable wavelengths for the solar cell.
3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. In-flight measurements

In Fig. 2 the cosmic ray counts for different altitudes is showed and compared to measurements by [2]. [2] measured the cosmic ray counts over Moscow and the measurements agree well up to 25 km. Since we have a different detector area than [2] we have used the counts per surface area to compare the measurements. One difference between the [2] data and the LODESTAR data is that the counts for [2] reaches a maximum at around 17 km and then decreases for higher altitudes. For the LODESTAR data, the counts stagnate at 150 counts min$^{-1}$cm$^{-2}$ at around 17 km. Fig. 3 shows the radiation counts and the temperature inside the electronics box during flight. The flight was 3.5 hours long with a float time of approximately 2 hours at an altitude of 28 km. The energy deposited in the solar cells was approximately 0.2 mJ. This value is obtained using the following three approximations: the cosmic rays consists only of protons, the cosmic rays have an average energy of 2 GeV and the cosmic rays deposit all of their energy in the solar cells. Initially the temperature inside the electronics box was 20 degrees, this decreased during the flight to a minimum value slightly above zero degrees after which the temperature started to increase. This temperature increase was caused by the heating of the electronics inside the electronics box. Since the temperature did not decrease below zero degrees the components in the electronics module were well within their operational temperature range. In

Figure 2: Radiation counts/min cm$^{-2}$ for different altitudes during ascent compared to similar measurements by [2].

Figure 3: Radiation counts and temperature inside the electronics box as a function of flight time. The total number of counts during the flight were 349614. The energy deposited in a 5x5 cm solar cell panel was $1.3243 \times 10^{15}$ eV = 0.2 mJ.

Figure 4: Example of in-flight IV characterization of c-Si and CIGS solar cells.

Figure 5: Variation of $V_{OC}$ and $I_{SC}$ for CIGS solar cells during flight.
shows the variation of the $I_{oc}$ and $V_{oc}$ for a CIGS solar cell during flight. The $I_{oc}$ and $V_{oc}$ increases on average as the flight progresses. This could either be caused by temperature or illumination variation. The temperature dependence of the $V_{oc}$ is given by equation 1 [4].

$$V_{oc} = \frac{E_a}{q} - n k T \ln \left( \frac{I_{00}}{I_L} \right)$$

(1)

$E_a$ is the activation energy, $q$ is the electron charge, $n$ is the ideality parameter, $k$ is the Boltzmann constant, $T$ is the temperature of the solar cell, $I_{00}$ is the prefactor for the reverse saturation current and $I_L$ is the illumination current. As the temperature of the solar cells increases $V_{oc}$ is expected to drop. From lift off to 2 hours into the flight the $V_{oc}$ increases, during the same time interval the temperature inside the electronics box decreases. Between 2 hours and cut-down (the time when the gondola was cut down from the balloon) the $V_{oc}$ decreases. In this time interval the temperature inside the electronics box increased and $V_{oc}$ decreased. In the low pressure environment at float, the dominating thermal transport mechanism is thermal conduction through the gondola. The solar cells were not in contact with the metal structure so they no longer had an efficient way to transport away the heat from the sun. This heating of the solar cells is a likely explanation for the variation of $V_{oc}$. The balloon launch was early in the morning and the sun rose as the flight progressed. This means that the average illumination of the solar cells increased during flight. The sharp valleys in $V_{oc}$ and $I_{oc}$ are caused by shadowing of the solar cells due to the rotation of the gondola. The high peak at around 3.3 hours is probably caused by the gondola being cut down from the balloon and the solar cells facing the sun. The increase of the $I_{oc}$ during flight is likely caused by the increased illumination of the solar cells due to the sun rising. [1] presents a degradation of $V_{oc}$ and $I_{oc}$ in CIGS caused by cosmic ray induced defects. Due to the much lower cosmic ray counts than [1], we could not observe this degradation.

3.2. High precision measurements

Fig. 6 shows the high precision IV characterization in the laboratory before and after flight of one CIGS cell. The ideality parameter changes from 2.053 before flight to 1.9553. This indicates the recombination mechanism changes slightly before and after flight. An ideality parameter of 2 corresponds to Shockley-Read-Hall recombination where both carrier types are the limiting factor for the recombination [9]. The reverse saturation current also varies slightly before and after flight. The variation of these quantities is an indication of cosmic ray induced microscopic defects in the CIGS cell. The quantum efficiency describes how many carriers are generated from a single photon of a specific wavelength, where a quantum efficiency of 100% would correspond to one generated electron-hole pair per incident photon. The quantum efficiency before and after flight is nearly identical as seen in Fig. 7. This was expected from the work of [1] due to the low cosmic ray flux at 28 km. Even if microscopical defects have been introduced they have not substantially impacted the cells ability to act as solar cells. The broadband QE curves correspond to CIGS cells with a CdS buffer layer while the narrowband QE curves correspond to CIGS cells with a Cd free buffer. As can be seen for both of the different buffer layers there is no significant difference post flight. Fig. 8 shows the current-voltage characterization of a CIGS solar cell for different temperatures. The pre and post-flight IVT characterization starts to deviate for low temperatures and high voltages. This indicates that the cosmic radiation has generated microscopic defects in the CIGS. The IVT characterization was performed in dark due to constraints of the experimental setup, hence it was not possible to extract the activation energy of the CIGS from the IVT measurements. Fig. 9 shows the Arrhenius plot for CIGS before and after exposure. Three data points from the post-flight measurement were low enough noise level to be used. From the Arrhenius plot the activation energy of the CIGS can be
4. SUMMARY

This work presents in flight IV characterization of CIGS solar cells during the BEXUS 27 balloon flight as well as high precision measurements to analyze cosmic ray induced defects in CIGS solar cells post-flight. We report induced microscopic defects in the CIGS cells probably generated during the 2 hour float at 28 km. During the whole flight the solar cells were subjected to an estimated dose of $40 \, \mu J/cm^2$. The quantum efficiency of the CIGS was not substantially affected by the flight. The activation energy of the CIGS cells varied from 166.4 meV pre-flight to 151.0 post-flight, which indicate that microscopic defects has been introduced in the CIGS. The IVT and CVT characterization shows a difference between post-flight and pre-flight measurements which also suggests cosmic ray induced microscopic defects.
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REFERENCES