Theoretical and Practical limits on solar energy conversion: Why use nanostructured materials?

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Physics, Michigan State University

A group of us are starting an MSU effort on polymer/nanoparticle cells: Michael Mackay, Jon Kiel, Erika Tseng, Shannon Nicely, Dan Olds, Erin McGarrity, Alison Walker (UK), Jos Thijssen (TUDelft).
Solar conversion strategies: Photovoltaic, Solar thermal, Photo-electrochemical

- Photovoltaic $\sim 25-50c/kWh$
  Tuscon electric power - Springerville - 6.4MW
  Record efficiency - **42.8%** (1.7GW world total)

- Solar thermal (mirrors focus the sun)
  Current plants $\sim 13-17c/kWh$ (Mojave -SEGS 354MW)
  Sandia Labs. Dish 25kW system is **40.7%**.
  But only 0.5GW world installed capacity
  Many plants are being built – e.g. dish with Stirling Engine
  In the US southeast, deserts could provide over 7TW (World Tot. 4TW)

- Photo-electrochemical (light to fuel).
  Natural photosynthesis 3–4% (biofuels, biogas are $\sim 0.3%$)
  10% efficiencies for photoassisted electrolysis of water into hydrogen and oxygen
  5–7% efficiencies for the production of Br$_2$ and H$_2$ from HBr
  1–3% efficiencies for the unassisted production of H$_2$ and O$_2$ from water.
Other design objectives

- Distributed generation – e.g. Rooftops
- Portable power, flexible coatings – Windows, clothing, tents. E.g. Canvas cover for your car that protects it and generates power.
- Note: At 10% efficiency there is plenty of close to zero cost surface area to power the USA.
Practical goals of solar research:
(1) Reduce cost; (2) Flexible devices

- Cost is dollars per Peak Watt.
- The cost of installation is currently about 55% of total cost.

- Retail prices for all types of commodity photovoltaic cells are currently about the same in units of cost per watt. Thin film solar devices e.g. CdTe, CIGS are expected to further reduce in cost. Incentives e.g. Germany, California (20% by 2017)
Another key factor: Net energy gain (NEG).

- One complaint about Si solar cells used to be that their manufacture requires more energy than can be recovered during their useful device lifetime. i.e. NEG < 0

  \[NEG = \text{Energy Consumable} - \text{Energy Expended}\]

This is no longer true with payback times now five years or less. For thin film materials payback time is shorter and in most cases less than 3 years.
Rooftops – e.g. Toledo, Ohio - Truck + 2800 sq. ft. home

Al. Compaan

the cost of our solar power for our home and truck

- $50,000 for a 4.3 kW system
- ~$7,000 for connection from truck to home
- thus ~$10/W_p for home and truck power
- for home alone (w/o truck) we would need only 2 to 2.5 kW system ($20,000-$25,000)
- PV panels cost $3/W_p
- inverters cost $1.50/W_p
- BOS (design, installation, wiring, permits) cost was $5.50/W_p
The current price of rooftop photovoltaics – using Compaan data

Total installed cost ~ $10/W (Larger installations may be cheaper)
- Installed cost $50,000 for 4.3 kWh peak system
- Power recovered over 2 year period 10,000kWh
- Cost of grid power in MI : 10c/kWh
- Value of electricity generated by Compaan ~ $500/yr
- Therefore 100 years to break even. Lifetime of cells ~ 25yr

Based on these numbers, for Michigan the price of solar is currently 4-5 times higher than grid electricity

Mitigating factors – Price of electricity is likely to keep going up and may be twice as high in 10 years. Price of solar is likely to reduce by a factor of two due to large scale fabrication plants that are being built. Also in some states peak electricity is higher priced making solar use, for e.g. air-conditioning, more viable.
PV sales in Europe are growing rapidly – German subsidies (1/2 the world solar market!)
## Table 5.6.A. Average Retail Price of Electricity to Ultimate Customers by End-Use Sector, by State, November 2007 and 2006

(Cents per Kilowatt-hour)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Division and State</th>
<th>Residential</th>
<th>Industrial</th>
<th>Transportation[1]</th>
<th>All Sectors</th>
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<td>Nov-06</td>
<td>Nov-07</td>
<td>Nov-06</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>7.98</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>4.75</td>
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<td>Kansas</td>
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<td>Tennessee</td>
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<td>Pacific Contiguous</td>
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<td>11.53</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>7.96</td>
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<td>California</td>
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<td>14.47</td>
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<td>Oregon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacific Noncontiguous</td>
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<td>15.81</td>
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<td>Alaska</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.02</td>
<td>12.66</td>
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<td>Hawaiii</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>22.66</td>
<td>20.61</td>
<td>17.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>U.S. Total</td>
<td>10.69</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>6.04</td>
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</table>
Photovoltaic technologies

Established technologies
- Single crystal silicon, polysilicon
- Thin films: Amorphous silicon (Unisolar), CdTe (First Solar)
- Semiconductor multilayers (high end - SpectraLab)

Emerging technologies
- CuInGaSe (CIGS) thin films (NanoSolar, Miosole…)
- Cheaper Si, poly Si
- Still confined to research labs.
- Dye Cells (First delivery 2008?)
- Organics / nanoparticles
The mandatory solar efficiency slide
The “universal” photovoltaic and LED device geometry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electrode 1 (transparent) – holes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electron barrier, hole conductor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hole barrier, electron conductor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrode 2 (metal) - electrons</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Photovoltaics** – Light is absorbed in the active layer, generating either free carriers (silicon and thin film devices) or excitons (dye sensitized, organics, nanoparticles) which must then disassociate to generate carriers. Carriers drift or diffuse to electrodes.

The device physics of LED’s and photovoltaics are similar
What has this got to do with diodes?

Silicon p-n photovoltaic

Amorphous Si

Both n and p type layers are active. The n-layer is less than one micron, while the p-layer is a hundred micron or more.
Cell geometries/materials

Dye sensitized cell
Light absorption occurs at interfaces. Nanoparticles maximize interface area
Cell geometries/Materials

Nanoparticles
- Transport electrons
- Enhance absorption
- Multiexciton processes
Solar cell based on p-n junction (e.g. Silicon solar cell…)

Under illumination, e-h hole pairs are generated. Electrons move to the right. Holes move to the left. Useful current is generated at applied potentials $V_a < E_g$. Note that electrons and holes are separated by interface potential.

Dark Current: Electrons move left
Energy level diagram for conducting polymer/PCBM (fullerene) cell.

1-D device model
Koster et al. 2005
PRB 72, 85205
Making efficient cells: $T_s \sim 6000K \sim 0.5eV$
- Simple upper bounds

$P = VI$, ie maximize the product of voltage and current

Ideal efficiency of a solar cell, without dark current and with a single gap.

Define: $x_g = E_g / kT_s$

Efficiency: $\eta = P_{out}/P_{in}$

Let $N(\nu) = \#$ photons at frequency $\nu$

$P_{in} = \int_0^\infty h \nu N(\nu) \, d\nu$

$P_{out} < V_{oc} I_{sc} \sim E_g \int_{E_g}^\infty N(\nu) \, d\nu$

Peak efficiency 44% at $2.2kT_s = 1.1$ eV (Single gap)
60% at (0.7eV, 1.6eV) (Tandem)
Realistic maximum efficiencies of mono-junction devices (Shockley-Queisser limit)

![Graph showing solar cell efficiencies and band gaps](image)

*Fig. 3. Performance gap between best device efficiencies in the laboratory and attainable efficiencies for several solar cell technologies.*

**Single Junction**, Lawrence L. Kazmerski
Multi-junction devices

Antonio Marti *, Gerardo L. Arafijo
Solar Energy Materials and Solar Cells
43 (1996) 203-222

Fig. 6. Maximum efficiency as a function of the number of cells: (a) for the sun assumed as a black body at 6000K, (b) for AM1.5 direct normal irradiance [23]. In both cases, dots marked as ‘+’ corresponds to the case with reflectors (illustrated in Fig. 5a) and dots marked as ‘X’ to the case without reflectors (Fig. 5b). Both values are very close but the one corresponding to the case with reflectors is slightly higher.
Materials viewpoint – atomistic processes/materials choices.

1. Design materials to efficiently absorb photons and generate electron-hole pairs – light management (avoid losses due to incomplete spectral coverage)

2. Disassociate e-h pairs. Excitons are strongly bound in polymers. Electrons and holes need to be extracted from dyes and other supramolecular complexes. Voltage needed is of order 0.2-0.4V.

3. Transport e-h pairs to electrodes with minimal loss
   Minimize current loss due to recombination/traps
   Minimize current loss due to dark current
   Minimize voltage loss due to dissipation (low mobility)
1. Materials to absorb photons

Indirect bandgap semiconductors (e.g. Si) – Penetration depth > 10µm
Direct bandgap semiconductors (e.g. GaAs, InP, Ge) – Penetration depth ~ 1µm
Polymers and nanoparticles – Penetration depth ~ 100nm
Materials to absorb photons

Zinc phthalocyanine = ZnPc

Figure 4. Absorption spectrum of the N3 dye in ethanol solution (---) and of a N3 dye-sensitized nanocrystalline TiO₂ electrode (•••).
Materials choices to achieve absorption at lower cost

- First choice would be polymer / nanoparticle/supramolecular structures as they achieve absorption with less material. Next best are thin films of direct gap materials. Silicon is poorest.


- Other light management issues: minimize reflection, maximize internal reflection, use plasmonics to concentrate light at heterojunction interfaces.
2. Disassociate and separate e-h pairs

- Separation of electrons and holes is essential to prevent recombination.
- In Si and thin film solar materials (CdTe, Amorphous Si, CIGS) e-h pairs disassociate thermally and drift to the appropriate electrodes.
- In organics and dyes, e-h pairs need to be torn apart. This requires an electric field and it needs to be carried out relatively quickly. In dye sensitized cells this leads to reduction of junction voltage, while in polymers it requires use of bulk heterostructures.
Organics example: Exciton is generated in polymer, disassociates at polymer $C_{60}$ interface.

Exciton diffusion length in PPV is about 10nm before recombination, requiring a fine grained “bulk heterostructure”.

TEM of Bulk heterostructure of Polymer – Fullerene solar cell
Ma et al Advanced Materials 2007
3. Transport to electrodes

- Recombination and traps need to be avoided (reduce impurities). In Si the thickness is large so the impurity level needs to be very low. In bulk heterostructures recombination is a problem.

- Reduce dark current – a problem in polycrystals where grain boundary dark current leads to significant losses. Grain boundary resistance of the photocurrent is also a problem.

- Low mobility of carriers in many polymers is a severe problem as is low mobility of carriers in nanoparticle aggregates.
Device models
Lumped circuit, device physics

In the absence of light, a solar cell is like a diode. The voltage is applied in a forward bias mode, so the “dark” I-V behavior is approximately

\[ I(V) = a(e^{V/kT} - 1). \]

This “dark” current flows in the forward direction.

Light generates carriers which generate current in the reverse direction.
Lumped circuit – A solar cell charging a battery

\[ j(V) = -j_{sc} + A(e^{V/kT} - 1) + J_{\text{Resistive losses}} \]

\( j_{sc} \) is the photocurrent density and is proportional to the intensity of the incident light, \( I_{\text{light}} \)

The dark current is \( a(e^{V/kT} - 1) \)
IV curves

CIGS cell – ETH Zurich

effect of regioregularity of P3HT on absorption and efficiency of P3HT/fullerene cells

An MSU Solar Cell
Jon Kiel/Mackay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$V_{oc}$</td>
<td>612.7 mV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{sc}$</td>
<td>4.072 mA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$J_{sc}$</td>
<td>30.62 mA/cm²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{max}$</td>
<td>479.2 mV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_{max}$</td>
<td>3.550 mA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_{max}$</td>
<td>1.702 mW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FF</td>
<td>68.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETA</td>
<td>12.8 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Device physics of excitonic cells

Poisson Equation
Drift diffusion equation for holes and electrons \((n,p)\)
Exciton diffusion equation \((x)\)
D is disassociation rate of excitons
R is recombination rate. G is exciton generation rate

\[
\begin{align*}
\nabla \cdot (\varepsilon \nabla \psi) &= -q(p - n), \\
\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} &= D(E, x) - R(n, p) - \frac{1}{q} \nabla \left[ q n \mu_n \nabla \psi - k_B T \mu_n \nabla n \right], \\
\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} &= D(E, x) - R(n, p) - \frac{1}{q} \nabla \left[ -q p \mu_p \nabla \psi - k_B T \mu_p \nabla p \right], \\
\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} &= G(r) + \frac{1}{4} R(n, p) - R(x) - D(E, x) - \frac{1}{q} \nabla \left[ -k_B T \mu_x \nabla x \right],
\end{align*}
\]
Solution of 1-D model (Koster 2005)

TABLE I. Overview of the parameters used in the fit to the data shown in Figs. 4 and 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Numerical value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Band gap</td>
<td>$E_{\text{gap}}$</td>
<td>1.34 eV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electron mobility</td>
<td>$\mu_n$</td>
<td>$2.5 \times 10^{-7}$ m$^2$/V s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hole mobility</td>
<td>$\mu_p$</td>
<td>$3.0 \times 10^{-8}$ m$^2$/V s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eff. density of states</td>
<td>$N_c$</td>
<td>$2.5 \times 10^{25}$ m$^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation rate</td>
<td>$G$</td>
<td>$2.7 \times 10^{27}$ m$^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dielectric constant</td>
<td>$\langle \varepsilon \rangle$</td>
<td>$3.0 \times 10^{-11}$ F/m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e/h Pair distance</td>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>1.3 nm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decay rate</td>
<td>$k_f$</td>
<td>$1.5 \times 10^6$ s$^{-1}$</td>
</tr>
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</table>

TABLE II. An overview of voltage, current density, average dissociation probability, and relative number of free carriers lost due to recombination at short-circuit (SC), maximum power (MP), and open-circuit (OC) conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$V_a$ (V)</th>
<th>$J$ (A/m$^2$)</th>
<th>$\langle P \rangle$</th>
<th>rec. loss</th>
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<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>61.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>MP</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>24.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two strategies for higher efficiency


2. Multi-junction
- Record is 42.8%

Figure 4. QY for exciton formation from a single photon vs photon energy expressed as the ratio of the photon energy to the QD band gap (HOMO–LUMO energy) for three PbSe QD sizes and one PbS (diameter = 3.9, 4.7, 5.4, and 5.5 nm, respectively, and $E_g = 0.91, 0.82, 0.73,$ and 0.85 eV, respectively). Solid symbols indicate data acquired using a mid-IR probe; open symbols indicate band-edge probe energy. QY results were independent of the probe energy utilized (from ref 38).
Nanomaterials and nanostructures issues for excitonic/dye sensitized cells

1. Semiconductor nanoparticles to absorb light
2. Semiconductor nanoparticles for multi-exciton generation
3. Metal nanoparticles – plasmonics to control light?
4. Wide bandgap NP for electron transport ($C_{60}$, TiO$_2$)
5. Nanostructured electrodes to maximize interfacial area – dyes/charge transfer complexes
6. Polymers for ease of processing – hole conducting/electron conducting, tandems

Nanostructures – bulk heterostructures

Competing factors (Watkins, Walker Nanoletters 2005)
1. Interfaces promote exciton disassociation
2. Interfaces also promote e-h recombination

Ideal structure?    Experimental progress
Closing remarks – industry status

1. Silicon, a-Si (UniSolar), CdTe (First Solar)
   - Steady decrease in cost expected, new UniSolar facility in MI (50MW)
   - Cost still a factor of 4-5 too high to compete in Michigan grid market.

2. CIGS : Nanosolar (roll to roll inkjet), Miosole
   - Several startups are building 100MW plants, first delivery 2008.

3. Dye sensitized (Dyesol, G24 Innovations – 30MW plant)
   - Expected to be cheaper, first delivery 2008

4. Excitonic/Organic cells are still in research stage (see Konarka)
   - Note P-OLEDs are in production (e.g. Cambridge Display)

Need better understanding of (i) Exciton generation, recombination and disassociation in polymers and quantum dots. (ii) Nanoscale control of electrode structure, nanoparticle/organic assembly and interfaces.