Modulated Photocurrent Measurements in Double Junction Solar Cells

Nicolás Márquez Peraca and Behrang H. Hamadani

National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, 20899, United States

Abstract — Frequency dependent external quantum efficiency (EQE) measurements were performed on double junction solar cells by a custom-designed system consisting of an array of various monochromatic LEDs. LEDs were operated both at constant intensity and pulsed at various frequencies to explore the frequency response of each junction under various conditions. An equivalent circuit model, incorporating the effects of shunt resistances, junction capacitances, optical light coupling and the series resistance was then used to explain the various features and findings obtained from these measurements.

I. INTRODUCTION

With significant improvements in design, fabrication, and performance of multijunction solar cells [1,2], it becomes necessary to establish more advanced opto-electronic characterization techniques to explore the characteristics of these solar cells. In recent years, extensive light bias and voltage bias dependent external quantum efficiency (EQE) measurements have been performed to elucidate artifacts and phenomena such as low shunt resistance effects [3,5-8,10,11], reverse breakdown voltage [3,4], light coupling between junctions [9,10,12], etc. in these devices. Most EQE measurements are performed using a differential spectral response system where a monochromatic light source incident upon the cell is chopped at a certain frequency creating an AC signal in the measurement junction of interest, while a DC light bias is applied to the other junctions. Although there has been much work discussing the effects observed under these circumstances, very little work has been dedicated to the frequency response of the AC photocurrent extracted from the current limited junction. One can think of this type of measurement as a frequency-dependent EQE, since the internal junction capacitances and resistances of each junction affect the extracted photocurrent magnitude and phase in the frequency domain.

In this work, we describe the result of our modulated photocurrent measurements in a simple double junction solar cell and show that an equivalent circuit model can be used to describe the unique features observed in both the amplitude and the phase response of the normalized photocurrent or the EQE of these solar cells. In particular, it is demonstrated that EQE shows a significant frequency dependence based on each junction's bias current and capacitive effects.

II. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

A diagram of the experimental setup used for performing the



Fig. 1 Experimental setup used for the measurements. Both an AC and DC source are taken as an input of the LED array, which illuminates the sample through a quartz light pipe. A high-speed lock-in amplifier measures the amplitude and relative phase of the signal, and those values are then recorded on a computer.

modulated photocurrent measurements is shown in Fig. 1. A function generator is used in conjunction with a custom current amplifier to provide a pulsed AC signal to the LED array, while an LED controller provides the DC input. A solid glass light pipe in the form of a frustum is mounted in front of the LED array, which allows for a uniform illumination spot at the sample location (the exit port of the light pipe) for each LED type used. The cell's output is connected to a high-speed current to voltage pre-amplifier, which in turn is connected to a lock-in amplifier, providing amplitude and relative phase of the signal. This lock-in is synchronized with the function generator, and the whole system is controlled and automated by a computer program. Amplitude and phase dependence of the photocurrent on the frequency of the modulated light can then be found by changing the pulsed LED frequency. To provide stable operation of the LEDs, a water chiller is used to cool down the LED array plate to approximately 15 °C, as shown in Fig. 1.

Fig. 2. shows an actual photo of the optical segment of the setup. The LED array plate can be seen on the left side of the image. It has 12 LEDs of different wavelengths ranging from 460 nm to 928 nm. In this case, both the 460 nm and 623 nm LEDs are turned on, producing a purple color on the sample mounting plate due to the homogenizing of the blue and the red colors passing through the light pipe. The light pipe is in the center, encased in a 3D printed holder.



Fig. 2. Photo of the experimental setup. Both 460 nm (blue) and 623 nm (red) LEDs are turned on, producing a purple color at the sample mounting plate.

The solar cell used for this study was a *GaInP/GaAs* cell, with an illuminated active area of 0.2533 cm². The top *GaInP* junction is 0.9 μ m thick with a bandgap around 1.84 eV, and the bottom junction is 3.5 μ m thick. The active region of the top and bottom junctions were characterized by performing spectral response measurements on the cell by use of a monochromator-based system (see Fig. 3). Then, 460 nm and 850 nm LEDs were selected for the setup in Fig. 1, the former used as the pulsed light and the latter as bias light. Throughout the measurements the intensity of the pulsed 460 nm LED was kept fixed at 0.5 W/m^2 .



Fig. 3. External quantum efficiency as a function of wavelength for the *GaInP/GaAs* cell, obtained by performing spectral response measurements on the cell by use of a monochromator-based system.

III. THEORETICAL MODEL

An equivalent circuit for the AC light excitation measurements on the double junction solar cell can be seen in Fig. 4. I_T and I_B represent the AC currents generated in each junction, R_T and R_B their dynamic resistances (which might depend on the DC light bias current), and C_T and C_B the depletion region capacitances. The dependent current source

 $\eta_1 I_r$ models any possible light coupling from the top junction to the bottom. The general solution for the circuit-extracted

current, I_{SC} in this model can be found in [9]. In the case where the pulsed light is applied to the top junction while the bottom junction is DC light biased, i.e., similar to EQE measurement conditions for the top junction, this result simplifies to:

$$\frac{\tilde{I}_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_T} = \frac{Z_T}{Z_T + Z_B + R_S} = X(\omega) + jY(\omega), \qquad (1)$$

when there is no light coupling from the top junction to the bottom, and:

$$Z_i = \frac{R_i}{1 + j\omega C_i R_i} , \qquad (2)$$

$$R_{B} = \frac{nk_{B}T}{q} \frac{1}{I_{B}} = \frac{nV_{T}}{I_{B}} , \qquad (3)$$

where *n* is the diode ideality factor, k_BT/q is the thermal voltage V_T (≈ 25 mV at room temperature), Z_i (for i=T, B) is the complex impedance for the top and bottom junction, I_B is the DC current generated in the bottom junction, and $X(\omega), Y(\omega)$ are the real and imaginary parts of I_{SC}/I_T , respectively. It is noted that the ratio I_{SC}/I_T actually represents the internal quantum efficiency (IQE) of this cell because I_T , the AC photocurrent generated in the top junction, is proportional to the modulated light intensity, \tilde{E}_T . Therefore, the ratio $I_{SC}/I_T \propto \tilde{I}_{SC}/\tilde{E}_T = \tilde{R}_T \propto IQE$, \tilde{R}_T being the internal spectral responsivity of the junction. We have multiplied this value by a fixed constant before comparing the model to the experimental data to include reflectance effects, so that it can represent the EQE at the excitation wavelength probed.

It can be easily seen from (2) that in the low frequency limit where $\omega \rightarrow 0$, $Z_i \rightarrow R_i$ and so:

$$\frac{I_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_T} \to \frac{R_T}{R_T + R_B + R_S} \approx 1 \tag{4}$$

where the last step follows from the approximation $R_T >> R_B$, R_S when the top cell is in reverse bias.

On the other hand, in the high frequency limit $\omega \to +\infty$, $Z_i \to 1/j\omega C_i$ and if we consider a negligible series resistance, then we find:



Fig. 4. Equivalent circuit for the AC measurements performed on the double junction cell. The two AC sources represent the currents generated on the junctions, whilst the dependent current source accounts for any possible light coupling.

$$\frac{\tilde{I}_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_T} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{Z_B}{Z_T}} \to \frac{1}{1 + \frac{C_T}{C_B}} .$$
(5)

The ratio C_T / C_B can then be obtained from the EQE(ω) plot.

The phase $\theta(\omega) = \operatorname{Arctan}(Y(\omega) / X(\omega))$ presents a resonant behavior and, as it can be seen by taking the quotient of the imaginary and real parts of (1), when there is no series resistance present it goes to zero both in the high and low frequency limits. The value for which this resonant peak happens is found to be:

$$\omega_{\min} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + R_B / R_T}}{R_B C_B \sqrt{1 + \frac{C_T}{C_B}}} \approx \frac{1}{R_B C_B} \propto I_B \quad , \tag{6}$$

a result that can be verified by setting the first derivative of $\theta(\omega)$ to zero, and where the last step follows from (3).

Furthermore, the real part of I_{SC}/I_T evaluated at this frequency is equal to:

$$\frac{\tilde{I}_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_{T}}\Big|_{\omega=\omega_{\min}} = 2\left[\left(\frac{\tilde{I}_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_{T}}(\omega\to 0)\right)^{-1} + \left(\frac{\tilde{I}_{SC}}{\tilde{I}_{T}}(\omega\to +\infty)\right)^{-1}\right]^{-1} \quad (7)$$

On the other hand, a non-zero series resistance causes a drop in the amplitude from the value in (5) to zero, and makes the phase rotate from 0 to -90° in the high frequency limit. Even so, in the region where the condition $\omega_{\min}(I_B) < 1/R_sC_T$ is met the previous analysis continues to be approximately valid. These features can be seen in Fig. 5, where the left Y-axis represents the magnitude $IQE(\omega) = \sqrt{X(\omega)^2 + Y(\omega)^2}$ and the right Y-axis the phase $\theta(\omega)$, expressed in degrees. Here R_s was kept fixed at 90 Ω (see next section) while I_B was increased from $0.1 \,\mu A$ to 100 mA for exemplification purposes. The curve for $I_B = 100 \, mA$ shows the case where $1/R_sC_T < \omega_{\min}$, and so no resonance is present in the phase plot and the IQE shows a sudden drop to zero at $\omega \sim 1/R_sC_T$.



Fig. 5. Predicted internal quantum efficiency as a function of frequency. Here R_s was kept fixed at 90Ω , while I_B was increased from $0.1\mu A$ to 100mA. At the frequency ω_{\min} , both a resonant behavior for the phase and a sudden drop in the IQE to the value in (5) occur. The high and low frequency limits of (4) and (5) can also be seen in this figure.

IV. DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

Starting from the amplitude and phase data obtained from the lock-in measurements in the experimental setup, both for the solar cell and the reference detector, the external quantum efficiency (EQE) and net phase can be calculated. Fig. 6 shows the results obtained from these measurements (scatter points), as well as the model predictions of (1) (solid lines). The left Yaxis represents the external quantum efficiency and the right Y-axis is the phase, expressed in degrees. Both the model predictions and the measurements were scaled to the EQE value obtained from the monochromator setup at 460 nm, whilst a fixed $\approx 1^{\circ}$ was subtracted from the phase data to account for the unphysical non-zero phase at low frequencies related to a small phase lag in the instrumentation. The series resistance used in the model was 90Ω : 50Ω corresponding to the pre-amplifier's input impedance (from the specification data) and 40 Ω obtained through I-V measurements from the cell itself. Setting 1 to Setting 4 correspond to different DC light bias conditions which, expressed in terms of the LED controller current values, are 1, 2, 5, and 10 mA, respectively.

As Fig. 6 shows, the EQE drop occurs around the same frequency where the phase minimum happens and, as expected from (6), it shifts towards higher frequencies when the DC current generated on the bottom junction increases. This effect suggests that when performing monochromator-based differential spectral response measurements for determining the steady-state EQE of the cell, the chopper's frequency should satisfy the condition $\omega_{meas} < I_B / nV_T C_B$. Otherwise, one risks underestimating the correct magnitude of the EQE for a given junction. In general, it is recommended to perform EQE measurements under the lowest frequencies possible, particularly when light bias conditions are low.

The little discrepancy between the model and the measurements in the high frequency region in Fig. 6 is explained by the fact that our current to voltage pre-amplifier has a strong bandwidth dependence with the source capacitance. For the measured cells having capacitances around 30 nF, the bandwidth drops to approximately 100 kHz to 200 kHz from its maximum value of ≈ 100 MHz.



Fig. 6. Results obtained from the measurements superposed to the theoretical model predictions, both being scaled to the EQE reported by the monochromator system. As shown, the optimal measurement frequency depends on the light bias intensity and on the bottom junction capacitance (see text). The values used for the fits were initially estimated from published works, and then adjusted through the model to obtain $C_T = 18.7 \text{ nF}$, $C_B = 38.4 \text{ nF}$, $R_S = 90 \Omega$, $R_T \approx 10^8 \Omega$, and $I_B = 8.1 \ \mu\text{A}$, 11.93 μA , 30.51 μA , 74.78 μA for Settings 1-4, respectively.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Measurements of the amplitude and phase dependence of the external quantum efficiency on frequency for a double junction cell were performed and compared against the predictions of an equivalent circuit model. It was shown that in general the optimal measurement frequency will depend both on the light bias intensity levels and the capacitance of the junction that is in forward bias. Our recommendation is to use a measurement frequency as low as possible, while increasing the light bias. The frequency-dependent photocurrent measurements also allow for the determination of the internal capacitances and resistances of each junction by fitting the described model to a large set of data.

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