

NASA CR 72534

CdS SOLAR CELL DEVELOPMENT

by

F. A. Shirland, W. K. Bower, W. F. Dunn and J. B. Green

CLEVITE CORPORATION

PREPARED FOR

NATIONAL AERONAUTICS AND SPACE ADMINISTRATION

NASA Lewis Research Center CONTRACT NAS 3-9434 L. R. Scudder, Project Manager

FINAL REPORT

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March 14, 1969

CONTRACT NAS 3-9434

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I INTRODUCTION

This report covers a two year development effort on the plastic substrate CdS thin film solar cell under the sponsorship of the Lewis Research Center of NASA on Contract NAS 3-9434. The first year's work was summarized in an Interim Technical Report, "CdS Solar Cell Development" by F. A. Shirland, W. K. Bower and J. B. Green dated February 29, 1968 and issued as NASA Contractor Report 72382.

That report is incorporated into this report by reference and the work reported in it will not be reiterated here. Rather, this report covers the work of the second year of the program and such additions and corrections to the earlier reported work as became subsequently evident.

The major objectives of this second year of the program were to continue the characterization of the stability of the plastic substrate CdS thin film solar cell and to isolate and eliminate the causes of instability whenever possible. Toward that end, a standard process laboratory fabrication line was operated throughout the entire 2 year period to yield a total of 100 acceptable quality cells each month. Of these, 75 cells each month were tested and sent to the Contract Monitor. The remaining 25 cells were retained at Clevite and placed on various dry and wet shelf storage tests, high temperature vacuum storage tests, and various temperature cycling and continuous use tests.

Those cells which showed appreciable loss of output on these various tests were removed and subjected to detailed failure analyses in an effort to determine the causes of failure. Subsequently, various constructional and fabrication process variations were evaluated as possible ways around the cell weaknesses as disclosed by the various tests and analyses.

Many individuals have contributed to the work on this project. Project direction has been provided by F. A. Shirland; W. K. Bower provided the principal investigation into the process engineering and quality control studies; W. F. Dunn provided the principal investigation into the developmental variations and the cell stability characterization and failure analyses; and J. B. Green provided supervision for the cell fabrication efforts. Additional contributions were made by J. E. Hardin, L. R. Shiozawa, R. D. Simonton and J. M. Smith III.

Mr. Larry R. Scudder of the Lewis Research Center, NASA, was Contract Monitor acting under the direction first of Mr. A. F. Forestieri and later Mr. A. Spakowski. Dr. Henry Brandhorst of the Lewis Research Center,

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NASA, provided standard cells for regulation of illumination sources and he and his co-workers provided continuing assistance in setting up and maintaining adequately calibrated cell testing facilities.

Acknowledgment is also made to the Clevite Corporation Management who provided the cell fabrication facilities and the extra funding for operation of those facilities at rates well above that covered by the Contract so that cells more representative of a true production process could be obtained for study and characterization.

II CELL FABRICATION

A, Standard Cell Design

The design of the standard CdS thin film solar cell was described in detail in the earlier Interim Technical Report. The design has remained essentially the same over the entire period of this Contract. However, in a few instances minor changes have occurred in some of the cell dimensions. These have occurred more by accident than by choice, though in one or two cases the changes were apparently needed in order to obtain reasonable yields from the cell fabrication line.

One of the changes was in the thickness of the silver Pyre-ML conductive layer on the Kapton substrate. This has gradually increased from the range of 0.25 - 0.30 mils to about 0.35 - 0.40 mils. Another change was in the thickness of the CdS film. Where it had been in the range of 0.8 to 1.0 mils it has recently run as high as 1.3 mils. In both of these cases, it was lack of adequate quality control procedures which allowed the changes to occur.

In a few other cases, it was the capabilities of the vendors of parts going into the cell which caused the changes to occur. The thickness of the positive grid for instance has increased from the earlier 0,45 - 0.50 mil range to about the 0.50 - 0.55 mil range. The thickness of the clear epoxy cement used for cover plastic attachment has had to be increased to correspond. The pattern of the grid itself has remained unchanged, but the width of the grid wires had to be approximately doubled in order to obtain reasonable yields of grids at acceptable prices. This has had the effect of decreasing the light transmission (i. e. open space) of the grid from the earlier 88 - 91% range to the present 82 - 85% range. Of course this has affected the current output and hence the efficiency of the standard cell in direct proportion.

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The above changes are relatively minor. Attempts are planned in the future to get back to the earlier dimensions since these clearly are beneficial in yielding a thinner, lighter weight and more efficient cell.

B. Fabrication Process

As in the case of the cell design discussed above, the process for making the cell has also remained substantially the same over the entire period of the Contract. However, here also a careful study of the processing conditions has disclosed a few areas where minor changes have occurred.

One of these is the sintering of the CdS raw material. Where it used to be sintered in vacuum to 850°C and then in argon to 1200°C, it is now sintered in vacuum to 900°C before admitting the argon.

C. Quality Assurance

In the last half of the present Contract period the quality assurance program was operated as outlined in the Quality Assurance Program contained as an appendix to the Interim Technical Report of February 29, 1968. In general, this program was somewhat more ambitious than could be effectively carried out with a single quality control inspector and the part time efforts of a process engineer.

The program was successful however in focusing attention on a number of processing areas where process improvements were needed and in indicating where incoming parts and raw materials were not up to the quality levels that were needed. Some of the processing areas that were most seriously out of control were the substrate preparation area and the CdS film evaporation area. Improvements were effected in these areas, but more are needed and recommendations for these have been made and planned for the follow-on effort.

The quality levels of some of the incoming parts and raw materials have been equally difficult to deal with effectively with a limited quality control organization, and though much progress has been made here, much more is needed. The quality of the gold plated copper metal mesh grids has been one of the problem areas that has absorbed much engineering and inspection time. Another is the adhesive coating of the Kapton cover plastic,

Toward the end of this Contract period an additional quality control inspector was added to the fabrication line. Also, an additional process engineer was added to the engineering staff and arrangements were made to have him concentrate his efforts in the quality assurance area. However, the results of this additional attention to quality control were not fully effective during this Contract period.

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D. Yields

In the first 12 months of this Contract a total of 3100 CdS films 3" x 3" in nominal size were started through the vacuum evaporation step for the standard process cell fabrication portion of the contractual effort. These gave 1285 acceptable quality cells for an overall yield of 41%. In the last year (13 months) of the Contract, the standard process cell fabrication efforts were continued. The yields of cells from this effort are summarized in Table I.

It is seen that widely varying yields were experienced at different times. On the whole the yields were lower in the second half of the Contract with a total of 5010 CdS films giving 1299 acceptable quality cells for an overall yield of 26%. However, the results from the latter period are not directly comparable with those from the earlier period. The main reason is that much more restrictive screening practices were put into effect with the advent of the quality assurance program, with the intent to eliminate catastrophic failures on temperature cycling. There was a gradual tightening up of inspection standards throughout the period of the Contract, and particularly so in the second half. Thus, though the yields appeared to have remained about the same or even lower as the work progressed, in reality there was a major improvement in most of the processing areas and this was reflected in the quality of the finished product. This is apparent from the greatly improved performance of the finished cells in vacuum thermal cycling test, and on the improved fill factors and high temperature performance of the cells.

E. Cell Outputs

Over the period of this report no effort was expended on trying to improve the level of the output power of the standard process cell. All efforts rather were put on making the cell as reproducibly as possible, characterizing its stability and determining and eliminating causes of instability.

Over the 13 months of this report period, average cell output levels varied very little. Figure 1 is a histogram giving the distribution of air mass 1 conversion efficiencies measured at 25°C on standard process Kapton covered 3" x 3" size cells fabricated during the 13th through the 25th months of the Contract. Figure 2 is the experience with the open circuit voltage, Figure 3 for the short circuit current, Figure 4 for the voltage at the maximum power point and Figure 5 for the current at the maximum power point for the same cells measured under the same conditions.

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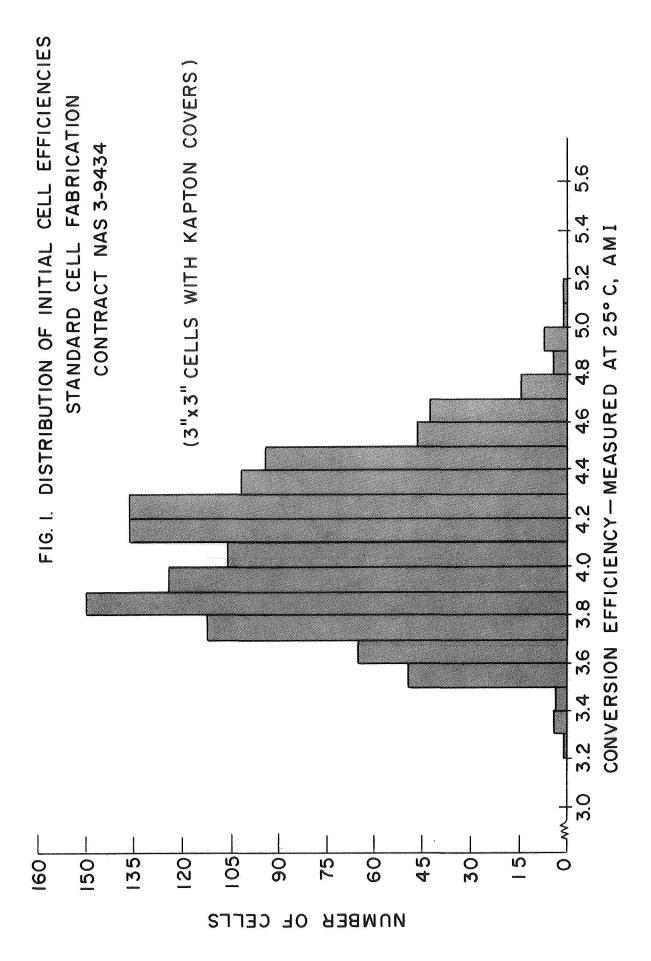
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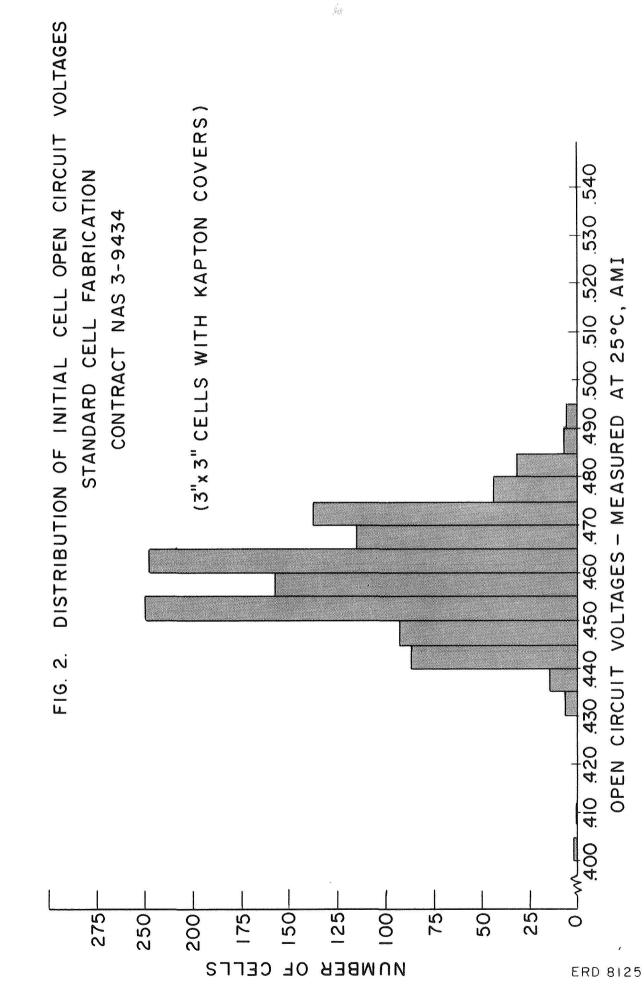
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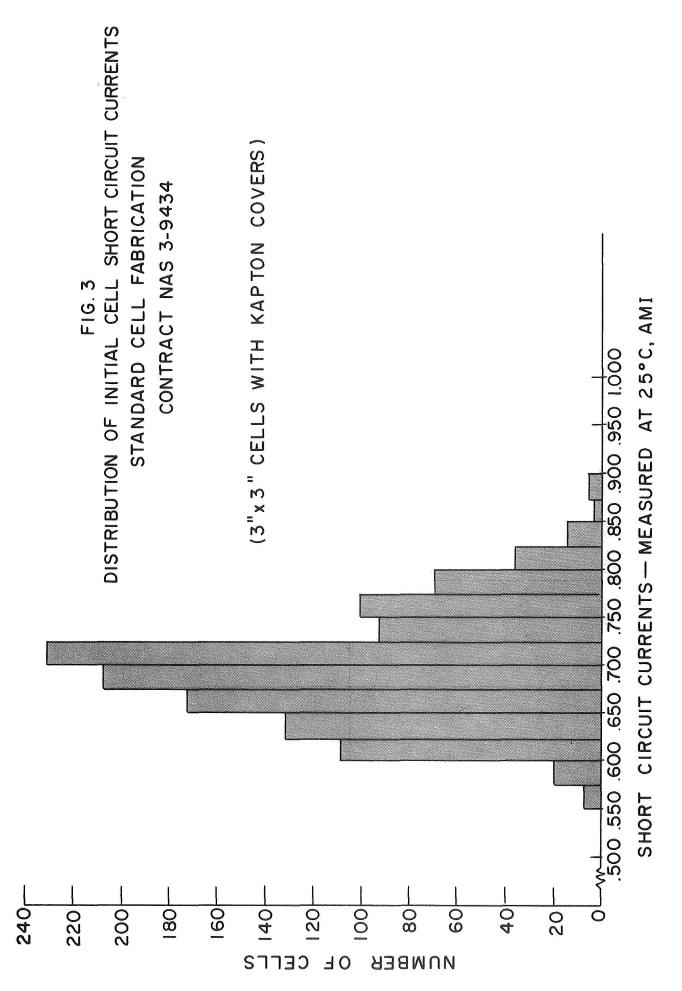
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15	306	3	147	10	46	206								
16	432	0	155	15	162	332								
17	512	3	145	0	264	412								
18	326	9	59	72	86	226								
19	360	27	60	5	168	260								
20	296	7	59	61	69	196								
21	303	36	18	28	121	203								
22	219	9	16	60	34	119								
23	467	0	87	108	172	367								
24	586	0	115	24	347	486								
25	424	0	104	5	227	336								
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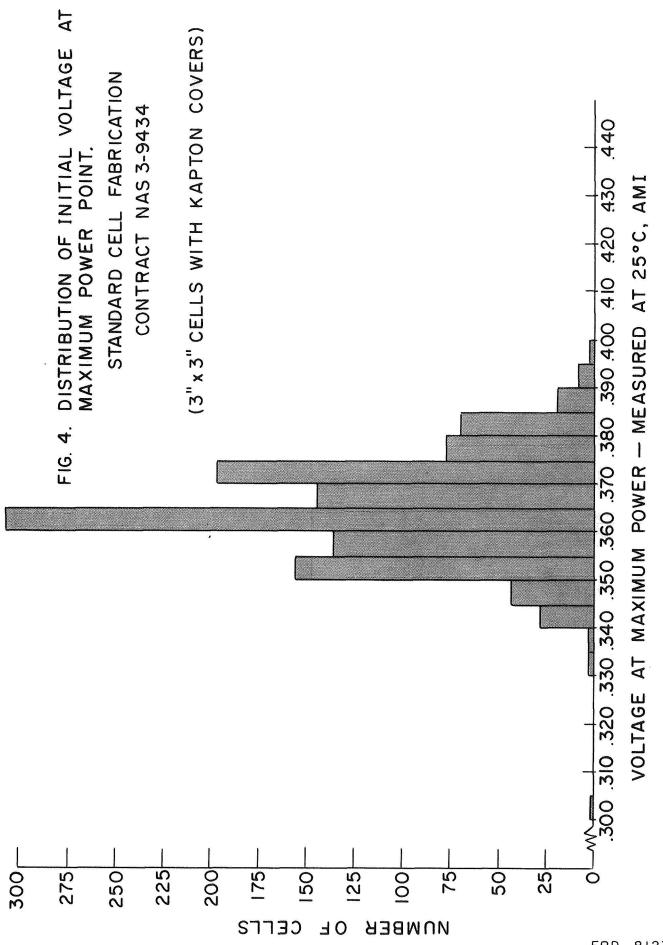
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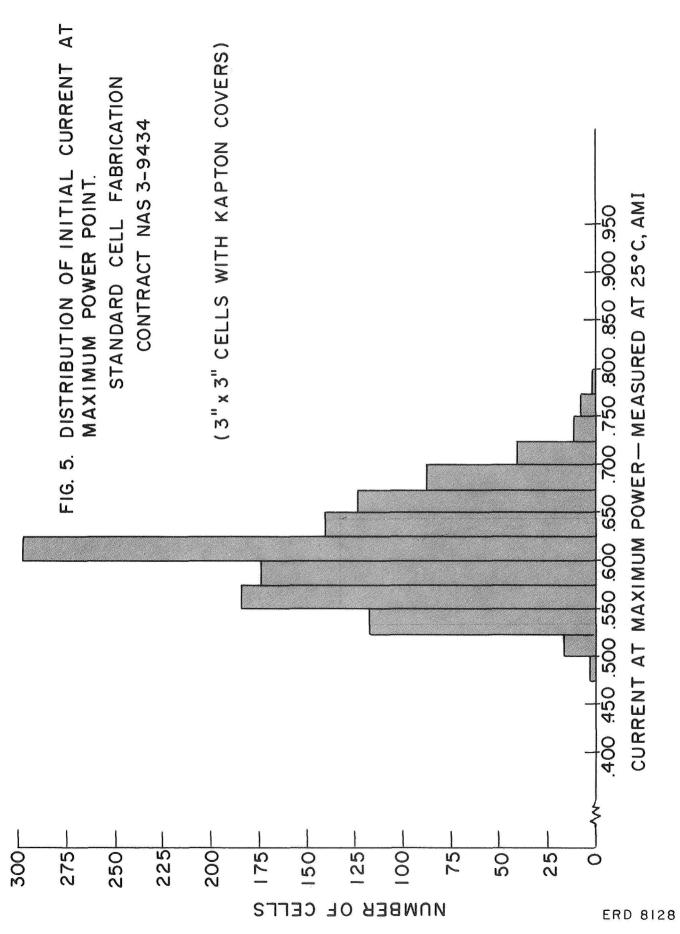






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There is obviously a lot of improvement that can still be made in the performance of these cells. The lack of Gaussian distribution patterns for the attributes in Figures 2 to 5 indicates that the process is not under control.

III STABILITY CHARACTERIZATION

One of the major tasks of this Contract was to characterize the stability of the CdS thin film solar cell under conditions that it would be expected to operate in space. Various shelf and environmental tests were carried out on standard process cells. At intervals, cells showing appreciable amounts of degradation were removed from the test and analysed in an effort to determine the causes for loss of output.

A. Dry Shelf Storage

Every month for about 3 years four standard process cells have been placed in a laboratory desiccator cabinet which is at room temperature. The cells have been removed at regular intervals and their I-V characteristic curves measured under standard conditions of equivalent air mass 1 illumination at 25°C.

In Table II are presented the longer term dry shelf storage test data on cells fabricated in 1966 and early 1967. A total storage time of from 20 to 32 months has been accumulated on these cells. Data for periods of storage up to 19 months on these same cells were presented in the earlier Interim Technical Report. For convenience of interpretation, the earlier reported data are repeated in this Table.

It is difficult to compare the outputs of cells over this long period because of instrumentation problems and difficulties of maintaining the same illumination intensity and spectral quality. The month by month readings show appreciable fluctuation, but over longer periods definite trends appear that are probably reasonably accurate.

There are wide differences between cells on this test, but all cells have shown some loss of output. A few cells dropped as much as 15 to 18%, but most cells lost from about 2% to about 10% of their output over the period of the test - i.e., in 20 to 32 months.

Table III gives the dry shelf storage data on cells made in the latter portion of 1967. These have from 16 to 19 months of exposure. A few of these showed marked loss of output, but on the whole this group behaved better than the older cells of Table II.

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DRY SHELF STORAGE - LONG TERM TEST DATA

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DRY SHELF STORAGE - MEDIUM TERM TEST DATA

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The dry shelf storage test data on the cells fabricated in 1968 are summarized in Table IV. Some of these cells are showing no loss of output, and others are showing on the order of 2 to 4%. Of course, the exposure time is much less for this group of cells. However, the general quality of these cells was far superior to the quality of those made earlier. The cells made in 1966 contained many noticeable flaws such as large voids in the epoxy cement, chipped areas in the CdS films, pinholes, poor adhesion of the silver Pyre-ML layer to the Kapton substrate, and poor adhesion of the CdS to the silver Pyre-ML layer. Many of these flaws were eliminated or greatly improved in the cells made in 1967, and further improvements were made in these respects in 1968. Also, as improved processing techniques were employed, more stringent screening practices were put into effect on the finished cells. Hence, the later cells had more rectangular I-V curves as well as fewer constructional shortcomings.

Some of the cells made in 1968 showed little or no loss of output on dry shelf storage. Several years ago, some of the first high efficiency molybdenum and plastic substrate CdS thin film solar cells also showed little or no loss of output over long periods of dry shelf storage. Thus, it is logical to conclude that there is no intrinsic degradation for CdS thin film solar cells on dry shelf storage. However, many cells have shown some loss of output on this test.

A careful analysis of the I-V curves of the cells listed in Tables II, III and IV which showed some loss of output on dry shelf storage, discloses no common pattern of behavior. Most of the cells that degraded lost short circuit current. Some lost open circuit voltage as well. Some lost in fill factor. While it has not been possible to analyze in detail all of the cells which showed a loss of output on this test and to ascribe a definite cause in each case, a cursory examination of the cells and the data sheets leads to the conclusion that a number of different failure mechanisms must have been operating for these cells. For instance, Cell N197AK1 which was made in May 1968 degraded in 28 weeks from 4.0 to 3.7% efficiency or at an annual rate of 14% of its initial value. This cells was heated overnight in a 135°C vacuum oven and recovered to 3.9% efficiency. The sequence is shown in Figure 6. This is what would be expected if the degradation had been caused by moisture. Just how moisture could have been picked up by this cell is a mystery. On the other hand, Cell N86C5 degraded from 5.9 to 5.3% in 16 months. This is an annual degradation

CLEVITE CORPORATION

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Electronic Research Division

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TABLE

DRY SHELF STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA

1.54 CL

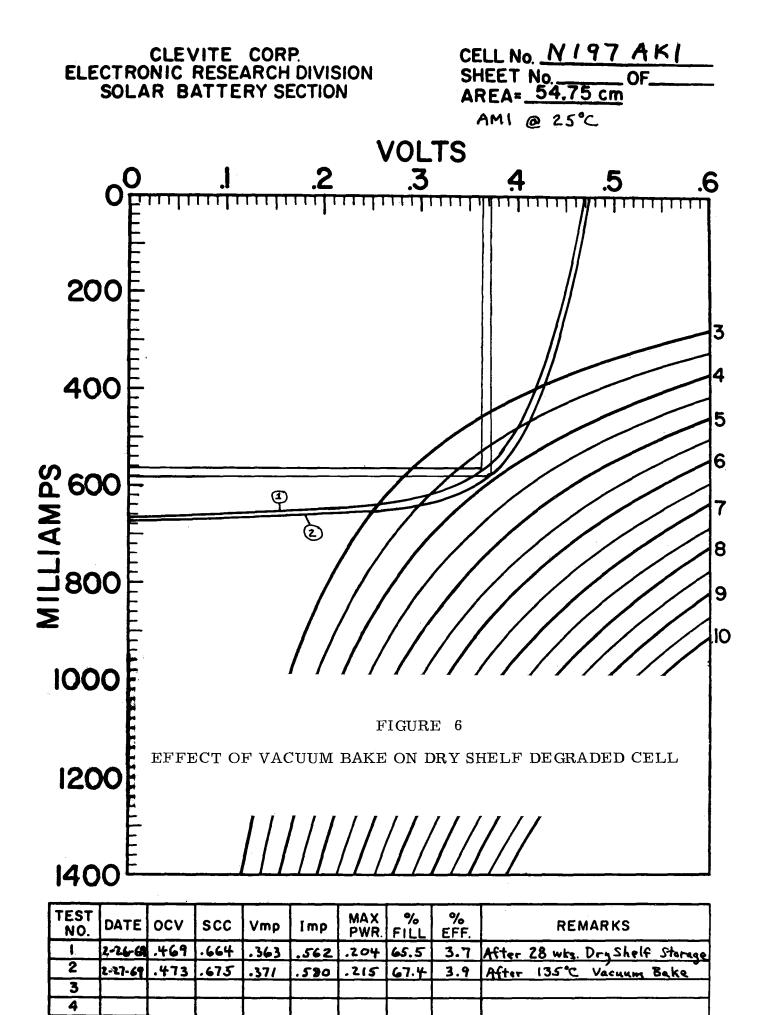
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er of v	24									3.7														
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Efficiency 25°C/after indicated number of	16	-	3.5	-	-			3° 8			з . 9					ທີ່ ຕໍ່				c 				ດ ທີ່ ເກີຍ
Efficiency after indic	12		3.5		•			3.8		3.8	4.0													ດ ເດ ເກີດ
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	2		3.6				4.1			4.0												3.9		ດ ດ ກໍຕໍ
	1		3.5					4.0			4.0									ດ ຕໍ່				ດ ທ ດີ ຕີ
	0		3.6					4.0			4.0					3.7				ი. ი.				າ ກໍຕິ
Month	Made	<u>1968</u> Jan				щeh				March				April	4			May	·			June		
[[a]	No.	N116BK9	N115CK9	N115AK2	N113CK7	NI28AK9	N128AK4	N128AK1	N127CK3	N167CK2	N163BK9	N163BK5	N163BK1	N186BK7	N186BK4	N186AK2	N185BK3	N202BK9	N197AK1	N196CK4	N190BK4	N266AK1	N264BK6	N363CK8 N263AK7

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	40						
	36						
_	seks: 32						
AT AU	28 K						
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- SHC	after ir 12	3. 7 3. 8 3. 8			0 0 7 0 0 0 7 0 0 0 7 0		
AGE		3.7 3.6 3.6	3.9 9.4.4 0.0		0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	4.4.4.4 2 - 0 0 0	
STORA	Efficiency 4 8	3. 9 3. 6 3. 8 9	3.9 4.0 4.0		ດ ແ ແ ດ ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່	4.4.4. 1.0.4.4. 2.1.0.0.2	9.44.0 9.4.00 9.100
SHELF	25°C 3	3. 7 3. 8 3. 8 3. 8	3.9 4.0 4.0	0 8 0 8 9 9 9 9 9 8	ດ ຜ ຜ ດ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ	4 4 4 4 2 1 6 7 2 1 6 7	4.0 4.1 0.1 0 0
DRY SI	AM1, 2	3.8 3.8 3.9	3. 9 4. 0 0 0 . 4 . 0	ຜວຜຜ ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່		4.4.4.4 2.4.0.2	4.0 4.1 0.0
<u>≻-1</u>	-	3. 7 3. 7 3. 6 3. 7	4.0.4.0 0.4.0.4.0	ຜ ຜ ຜ ຜ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ	ດ ຜ ຜ ດ ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່ຕໍ່	4.4.4. 4.4.4. 2.0.0.2.	4.0.4.0.0.4.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0.0
	0		ਜ ਦ ਦ ਦ ਜ ਦ ਦ ਦ	ຜວາຜຜ ຕໍຕໍຕໍຕໍ	4.4.0. 3.9.00 9.00	4 4 4 4 0 0 4 0	4.4.6. 0.1.0.
	Month Made 1968	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
	Cell M No. II	N280AK8 N280AK3 N280AK1 N279BK4	N292AK2 N291BK1 N290AK3 N289CK6	N 301BK5 N 301AK3 N 300CK9 N 300CK6	N 31 4CK8 N 31 3AK4 N 309 N 308CK9	N 327CK3 N 327BK7 N 326CK5 N 326BK8	N 350BK 3 N 349CK 2 N 348CK 1 N 348CK 1 N 348AK 6

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TABLE IV - continued

DRV SHELF STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA



rate of 7.5% which is still much too high for dry shelf conditions. Heating this cell overnight in a vacuum oven made no change in the power output, as can be seen in Figure 7, though the fill factor did improve slightly at the expense of the short circuit current.

It is tentatively concluded that the loss of cell output exhibited by some cells on dry shelf storage is not an intrinsic characteristic of the CdS thin film solar cell, but rather the result of one or more of a number of different fluctuations in the quality of the parts and materials going into the cells or in the parameters of the various processing steps.

B. Wet Shelf Storage

In the Interim Technical Report of a year ago, a careful analysis was made of cells which had been stored for from 12 to 18 months at 80% relative humidity at room temperature. It was observed that the better cells, which were assumed more likely to exhibit the intrinsic moisture effect, degraded by no more than about 9% per year.

Table V contains the data on those earlier cells and extends the period of time covered from 24 to 35 months. The cells remaining on this test are seen to be holding up at least as well as was estimated a year ago, and in some cases appreciably better. Cell D187B for instance has lost just 11% of its initial power output in 35 months of 80% humidity storage. This is particularly noteworthy because this cell and most of the other cells of this group are of relatively poor quality and would have been rejected during fabrication by the standards of even a year ago.

Table VI presents the wet shelf storage data for the cells made in 1967 with from 19 to 24 months of accumulated exposure. The degradation experienced on these cells was greater than experienced on the cells made in 1966, averaging 14% degradation per year. This higher degradation rate was noted a year ago and was then ascribed to known difficulties in controlling the fabrication process in that period. This is still believed to be the case and it does follow that any structural or other faults that would contribute to cell degradation on dry shelf storage would probably contribute just as much if not more to cell degradation on wet shelf storage.

There is marked improvement in this respect in the stability of the cells made in 1968. Table VII presents the wet shelf storage figures for those cells. Even though these cells have been on test for shorter periods of time, the rate of degradation is lower. Excluding 2 cells with **obv**iously

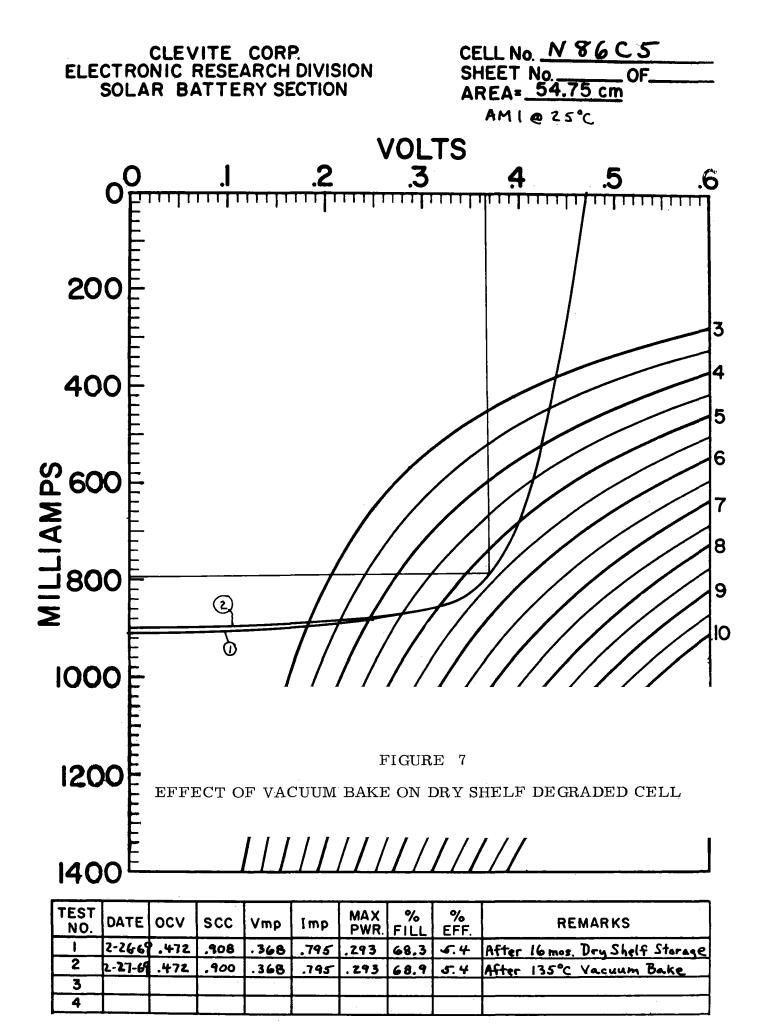


TABLE V

WET SHELF STORAGE - LONG TERM TEST DATA

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	15	5.3	4.1		4.4	4.0	3, 7		4.4	4	1 C	, 1 1 1	- tr	4.0	off		1	۲ ۲	4 . 1	3.9	3.7		,
	14	5.3	4.0	off	4.2	3.9	3.9	off	4.6	4 4	РС Н -	4 1 -	-1 (-1 (4 [.] 0	4.1		4 7	•	I	I	3.7		3.6
	13	5.3	4.1	2.7	4.3	4.1	3.7	2.8	4.4	() T	у . Ч .	(4 0	4.0	4.0	off	4	•	4.4	4.3	ı	off	ł
- 60	12	5.4	4.1	2.8	4.3	4.1	3.8	2.8	4.4	с т	1 1 1	4' 4 4' 4	4. 2.	4.3	4,4	4	- 4 - 8	•	4.4			5.1	
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months	10		4.0			4,1	3.8	2.7	4.5	ر م	0 • • •	4 4	4. 	4.2	4 5	46	о с Г и		4.3	4.0	4.0	5.0	3.9
	ເ ດ	5. 3	4.2	3.2	4.4	4.2	3.0	2.7	4.2	с С	°.	4 4	4. 3	4.2	4 5	4	4.4	- 1 H -	4.5	4.4	4.1	5.0	4.0
number of	∞	5.3	4.2	3.2	4.3	4 2	4.1	2.7	4.4	K K	4' 4	4	4.3	4.0			- 7 - 7			4.2	4.4	5.3	4.0
icated	2	5.2	4.3	3.1	4.2		0.			с Т	4, . 2 1	4.5	4.3	3° 0	4	4 8	7. T	- ' H ·	4.4	4 .3	4.3	5.1	4.2
er indi	9		4.2				0 0 0			•	4, ⊃ 1	4.5	4.4	4.2	4	4 7			4.4	4.3	4.3	5.2	4.3
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	0		4.6				4 4 7				4.8	4.3	4.4	4.5	×α	о`+ Н ш	- c - u	0.4	4.8	4 6	4	5.6	5.2
المت	No.	D187B	D291A	29	29	100	D313C	327	348	1	350	350	357	D372A	270	ວ ແ - ດ ວ ດ		40 T	405	_	D424B	D424F	D454A

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	34	ı					
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-	AM1, 22	ı	I	ı	1 4 1 1		4.1
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	20	5.1	4.0	4.1	8 	4.0	3,4
	19	5.2	1	4.1	4. 	4.1	ი
	Cell No.	D187B	D294A D297C	D301A D313C D327A D348C	D350F D350C D357E D372A	D378B D385F D401B D405A	D411F D424B D424F D454A

WET SHELF STORAGE - LONG TERM TEST DATA

TABLE V - continued

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TABLE VI

WET SHELF STORAGE - MEDIUM TERM TEST DATA

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indicat	12	ŧ			1		ı	ł	1	I		ł	4 . 3		4.4 4	ì	ł	ı		4.1	3. i	3, 9	ł	
aîter 1	4	4.0			4.0		4.5	4. 2	4 . 3	3.6		3.6	4 . 5		4. J	1	٩			ı	4	t	3° 5	
iency	13	4.0			4.0		4.5	4.3	4.5	3.7		3.7	4.5		4.5	ı	ł	ł		I	l	I	3.5	
Effic	12	- 			4.0	off		4, 3	4.4	3.8		3.6	4.5	•	4.5	3.6	3.8	3.2		3.8	3.2	3.7	3.3	
		4.1			4.0	4.3	4.5		4.5	3.9		ı	4, 6		4.5	3.6	4.0	3.4		4. 1		4.0		
AM1,	10	1	off	off	1	•	ı	ı	4.5	4,0	off	١	1		I	3.6		3.5		4. 2	3, 6	4.0	3 . 5	off
	5	4.4	3.8	3. 7	4.4	4.7	5.0	4.7	4.5	4.0	4.1	4.7	5, 2		5.0	3.6	4. 1	3.5		4. 3		4.1		
	8	₽ 2	3.8	3.6	4.1	4.5	4.7	4.1	I	1	ł	1	4.6	•		3.7	4. 2	3.6		4.4	3.6	4.2	3.7	ł
	2	4. 3			4.3	4.5	4.8	4.5	4.9	4.4	4.5	4.0	,	off	1	ł	١	1	off	4.5	4.8	4.2	3.9	3.7
	9	5.3	5.3	5° 3	5.1	5.4	5.5	5.0	5.7	5,5	5.3	4.4	5.7	4.7	5.0	5.0	5.1	4.8	4.6	5.3	4.6	5.3	4.9	3. <u>4</u>
Cell	No.	D436E	D450C	D454E	D480B	D495A	D487C	D476A	- D506B	D509E	D516A	D526C	D554A	D562E	N14B8	D580E	D585C	N17B3	D602D	D615C	N38B7	N51B8	N52B4	N59BK7

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e.

TABLE VII

WET SHELF STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA

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20	3. 5 3. 7	4.0 3.7 3.7 3.7	3.5 3.5 9	ດ ຕ ຕ ຕ ດ ຕ ຕ ຕ	3.9	3. 6 3. 6 3. 6	3°.7 3°.7
16	off 3.5	·	3. 7 3. 5 3. 0	3. 5 3. 5 3. 4	3. 3 3. 7 3. 1		3. 7 3. 7 3. 7
8 12	2.0	4.0 3.7 3.8 3.7	3.7 3.6 3.0	3. 3 3. 6 3. 8 8	3.8	3. 6 3. 8 3. 8	3.7 3.7 3.7
ω	2.4 3.6 3.9	4.1 3.8 3.8	3.7 3.5 3.1	33. 33. 33. 34. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35. 35	3.7 3.7 3.1	0 0 7 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	3.7 3.7 9.6
4	2.5 3.8 4.0	4.1 3.8 3.8	3.8 3.7 3.3		ດ ຜ ຜ ຕ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ	3.9 3.7 3.8	ຜ ຜ ຜ ຜ ຕ ຕ ຕ ຕ
ę	4°30.86	4.0 3.8 3.8	3.6			0 8 0 K 7 0 8 0 7 7 0	3. 7 3. 6 3. 7
2	4 33 30 0			3.8 3.8 4.0			
	4.1 4.1	4,4,4, 1,0,0,4,	4°0 9°0 9°0 9°0	3.4		4°34°0 3°40 9070	ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ ເ
0	6003 10003	****	4,0,0 1,0 1,0	4.0 8.4 1.8 1.8 1.8	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	4 6 4 6 0 8 0 6 0 8 0 0	3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3
Made	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July
No.	N119BK2 N117BK8 N116CK5 N115BK8	N127CK4 N127CK1 N127BK6 N127BK4	N167CK4 N164BK9 N164BK5 N164BK5 N161AK1	N186AK4 N185CK8 N185CK4 N185CK4 N172CK4	N199BK4 N199AK7 N199AK5 N199AK5 N198BK2	N265CK6 N265BK7 N265BK5 N265BK5 N265BK4	N280AK9 N280AK4 N280AK2 N278AK4

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	48					
	44					
	40					
eks:	36					
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after indicated number	28					
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	CN)	4 4 4 4 0 0 2 1	3.9 3.9 9.0	ຜ ດ ດ ຜ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ ຕໍ	4,4,4,4, 1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,	4.0.4. 0.4.0.
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	σ	4444	0000 0000	4 4 4 4 0 0 0	4,4,4,4, 0,0,4,0	4444
Month	Made	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
11°J	No.	N292AK5 N290BK6 N290BK3 N290BK3 N290AK2	N301CK5 N301AK9 N301AK4 N301AK1 N301AK1	N314CK1 N313CK9 N313CK8 N313CK8 N313BK4	N 329BK9 N 329BK7 N 324BK4 N 324BK4 N 324AK4	N356CK7 N356AK6 N349AK2 N348AK5 N348AK5

WET SHELF STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA

TABLE VII - continued

maverick behavior, those cells that have been on test for 5 months or more had average annual degradation rates of about 8% and many cells were well under that average.

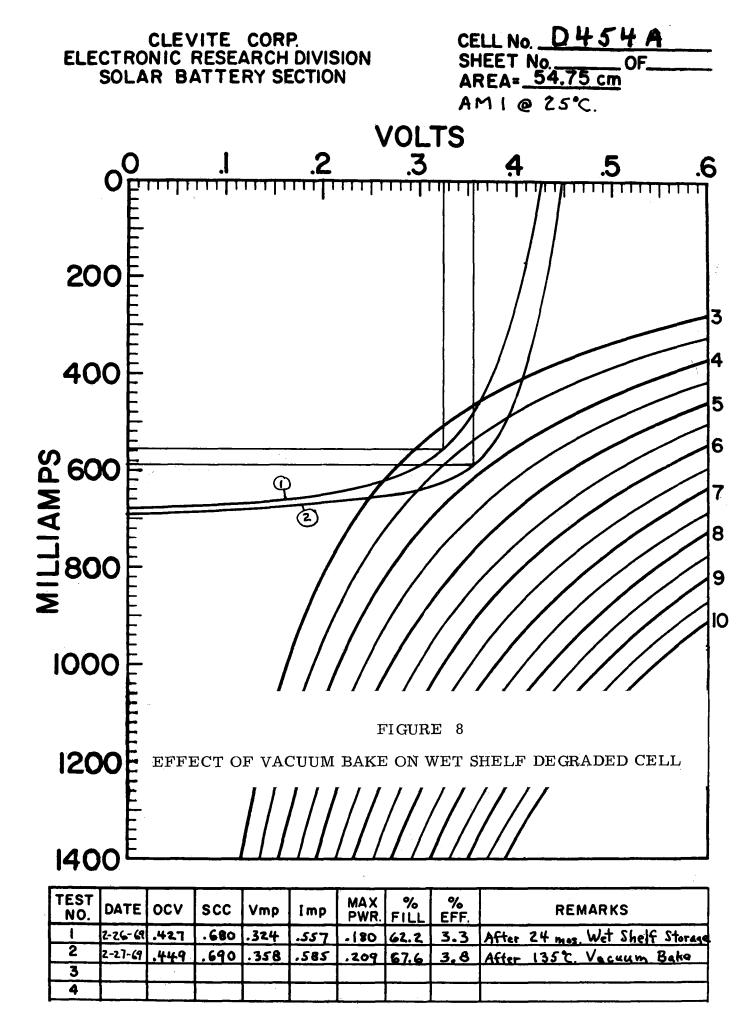
There appears to be more of a characteristic pattern to the degradation of cells on wet shelf storage than to those on dry shelf storage, though even here there are still many exceptions. In most cases the short circuit current, open circuit voltage and fill factor were all adversely affected. Early experiments with accelerated moisture degradation indicated that true moisture degradation could be completely recovered by a simple vacuum heating as long as secondary structural damage such as a loosened grid contact had not occurred at the same time. Such secondary effects are believed to be unlikely with the present epoxy cemented construction.

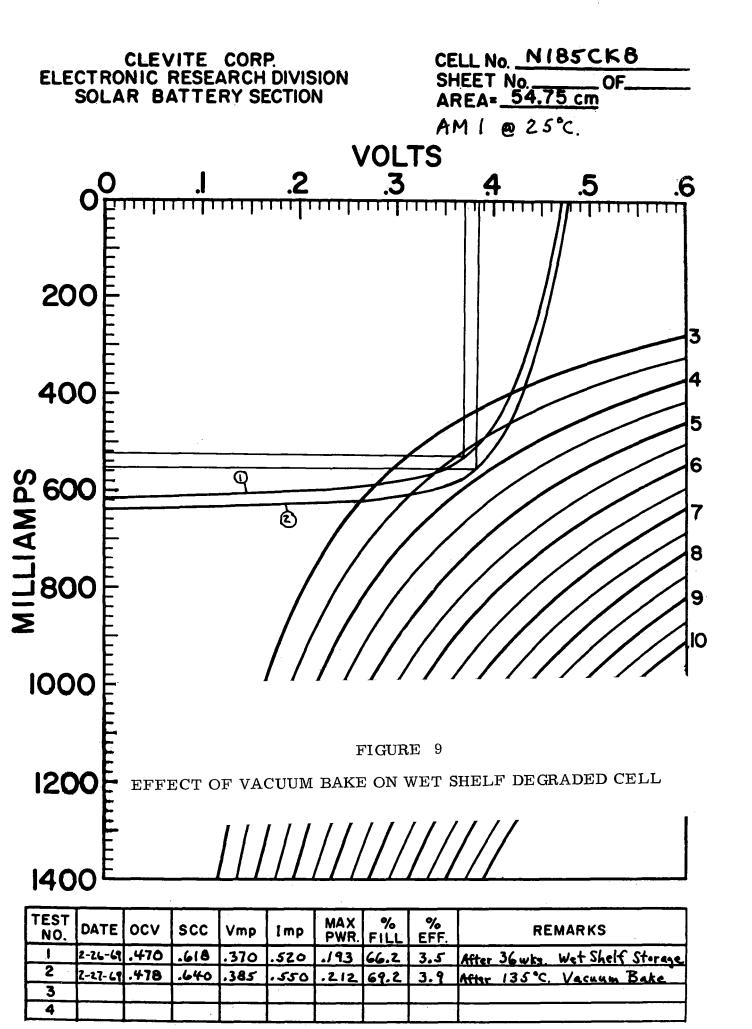
It should be possible to determine just how much of the total degradation of each cell that was on this test was due to moisture. In that manner, it should be possible to characterize the intrinsic moisture resistance of the present design cell.

Two cells that had shown appreciable degrees of output loss on wet shelf storage were selected and were baked overnight in a vacuum oven at 135°C and then retested. One of these was Cell D454A which had degraded after 24 months of 80% humidity storage from 5.2 to 3.4% efficiency, and then to 3.3% by the time of the bake out. After the bake out the cell output rose to 3.8%. The before and after I-V curves are presented in Figure 8. It is seen that OCV, SCC and fill all improved with perhaps the OCV showing the most improvement. If the interpretation is correct then, this cell degraded from 5.2% to 3.8% by causes other than the moisture, and from 3.8% to 3.3% by the moisture. Thus the annual rate of moisture degradation was only 4.8%.

The other was Cell N185CK8 which had dropped from 4.0% to 3.6% efficiency in 36 weeks of wet shelf storage, and then to 3.5% by the time of the bake out. After the bake out the cell's efficiency was 3.9%, as shown in Figure 9. Again, OCV and SCC and fill were all affected. The annual rate of moisture degradation for this cell on the same basis would be just over 10%.

There have been recent indications that moisture degradation may not be a uniform effect occurring across the entire area of the cell, but rather that it may be concentrated at the cut edges of the cell where the barrier and CdS and conductive substrate are all exposed. This aspect is discussed in a later section of this report, and some experimental cells with protected edges have been fabricated, and have been placed on wet shelf storage. CLEVITE CORPORATION 26 Electronic Research Division





C. Vacuum Storage at 100°C Temperature

Each month some standard process cells have been selected and placed on storage in a 100°C vacuum oven. The cells have been kept in the dark in the open circuit condition. They have been removed from the oven at regular intervals, tested under standard air mass 1, 25°C test conditions, and then returned to the vacuum oven.

Table VIII contains the longer term test data on cells of 1966 and early 1967 manufacture. Some of the cells from this period failed prematurely from what were believed to be assignable structural causes rather than from the high temperature per se, and these were removed from the test. Of the remaining 15 cells, 4 gave markedly higher degradation rates and thus appear to be atypical. The remaining 11 cells were judged to be representative of the period and their performance is believed to reflect the 100°C vacuum storage condition. The degradation of these 11 cells, calculated on an average basis for the total 18 to 29 month storage period in each case, was 14% per year. This is comparable with the 10% degradation per 8 month period that was calculated for the best 4 cells of this same group a year ago.

If the best 7 cells are selected from Table VIII, the average rate of annual degradation is seen to be just under 10%. Five of the best 7 cells were the latest ones to be made in this group, and this may indicate that the newer cells are of better quality. It may also indicate that the test conditions changed, because in mid-1967 an improved vacuum oven was obtained for this test which permitted a higher vacuum in the 1 to 5×10^{-6} Torr range to be achieved in place of the earlier 10^{-4} Torr range.

Table IX presents the 100°C vacuum storage data for cells fabricated in the last year. Excluding 4 cells with unusually high rates of degradation, the remaining 28 cells with 5 months or more of exposure exhibited just 6% average annual degradation on this test. The best 23 cells experienced an average degradation of only 4% per year. This is on a par with the stability of the cells on dry shelf storage at room temperature, and is far better than had been estimated a year ago for 100°C storage. It had earlier been thought that the degradation of cells at 100°C was probably due to diffusion of copper into the CdS thus widening the intrinsic layer and increasing the internal impedance of the cell. This may still be the case but it is evident that it must be a much smaller effect than previously thought. The greater degradations experienced earlier must have been from other causes. Slow oxidation effects from the imperfect vacuum is a likely possibility.

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LONGER TERM TEST DATA ł 100°C VACUUM STORAGE

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ł 100°C VACUUM STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA

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Month Made	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June
Cell No.	N116AK8 N113CK8 N112AK5 N1112AK5 N111AK2	N128BK6 N128BK5 N127BK8 N127BK8 N127BK8	N165BK9 N164AK2 N163BK8 N163BK8 N163BK3	N187AK5 N186CK5 N185BK4 N171BK4	N202BK6 N200CK9 N199BK5 N199AK4	N265BK1 N264BK7 N264BK7 N262BK7 N262BK5

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	Cell No.	N279BK5 N278AK7 N278AK5 N278AK5 N278AK1	N290BK7 N290BK4 N290BK1 N290BK1 N290AK5	N 301CK7 N 301CK2 N 301CK2 N 301AK8 N 330CK2	N 31 4CK6 N 31 4CK5 N 31 3BK7 N 309BK5	N 330BK7 N 329BK4 N 324CK4 N 324BK5	N 35 3AK5 N 350AK2 N 348CK4

TABLE IX - continued

100°C VACUUM STORAGE - SHORT TERM TEST DATA

D. Thermal Cycling

The inability of the CdS thin film solar cell to hold up under the environmental conditions that would be experienced in a low earth orbit has for several years been the major stumbling block to its acceptance. The early thermal cycling tests of CdS thin film solar cells did not reproduce very well the conditions that would be expected to occur in a low earth orbit. Methods of mounting the thin film cells had to be worked out. Special methods of instrumentation to measure the high currents generated by the large area cells had to be developed. In many cases, it is believed that the test procedures caused stresses to be placed on the cells that would probably not have occurred in actual flight application. At the same time, the early cells were of highly variable quality and most cells tested probably contained one or more weaknesses of construction which caused them to fail prematurely. It was some time before the test procedures evolved to the point where the causes for the erratic cell failures could be established so that corrective actions could be taken,

A year ago, in the Interim Technical Report, the results of a number of different thermal cycling tests by several different organizations were analyzed. It was then concluded that the erratic behavior of CdS thin film solar cells in thermal cycling was probably due to cracks, delaminations, flaws and various nonhomogeneities in cell construction. The mismatch of thermal expansion coefficients of the various layers making up the cell was believed to be the chief contributing factor aggravating the physical faults to the failure point. Much of the basis for that conclusion came from observations of lateral cracks in the CdS layers of degraded cells. These observations were made on micrographs of cross sectioned cells by workers at the Lewis Research Center and the Lincoln Laboratory of MIT, as well as at the Clevite Research Center. It is now clear that those lateral cracks were artifacts of the cross sectioning process and did not exist before the cells were cross sectioned. All parties making the original observations now agree in this respect.

In the last year appreciable improvement has been made in the quality level of the CdS cells, and additional thermal cycling tests have been run under more controlled conditions. A vast improvement in performance of CdS thin film solar cells on these tests has resulted. It is believed also that a better understanding has been achieved of the reasons for the previous erratic behavior,

1. Lincoln Laboratory Test of January 1968 Cells

A group of 4 cells fabricated in January 1968 were tested on the infrared thermograph test and found to be essentially uniform on that test. They were then placed on thermal cycling by the Lincoln Laboratory of MIT. The cycles were of 3 hours duration with 1-1/2 hours at each temperature extreme, and the cells were open circuited when not being measured.

The temperatures ranged from -107°C to -127°C at the cold extreme to between +34°C to +66°C at the hot extreme. One of the cells, due to accidental displacement of a lamp, did not exceed 42°C over the first 80 cycles. It is interesting that this cell showed no degradation of output over the 80 cycles. After this time the position of the lamp was corrected so that the cell temperature reached 51°C, and the cell then started to degrade slightly,

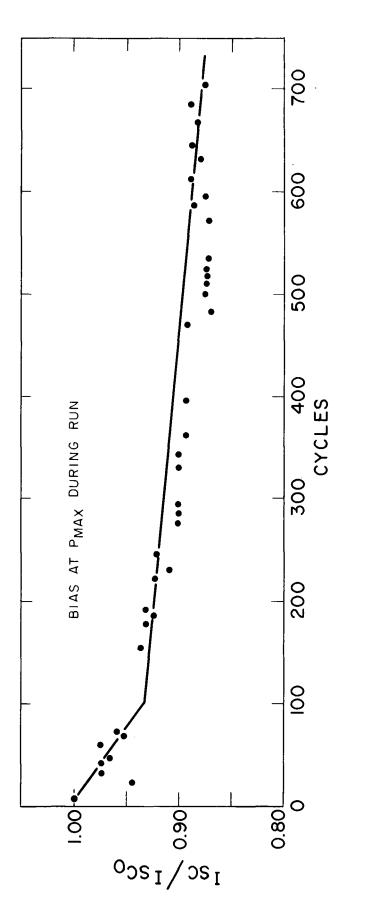
The other cells degraded in output about the same as the December 1967 cells tested earlier. The drop in maximum power for these cells after 87 cycles was respectively to 84%, 72% and 81% of the output obtained during the first cycle.

It was observed during this test that the so-called hysteresis effect that was reported earlier appeared to be an artifact of the measuring technique. The hysteresis effect was noted only when the cells were reverse biased prior to tracing the I-V curve. On later tests the effect was not an artifact and was definitely stronger on degraded cells.

2. Lincoln Laboratory Test of May 1968 Cells

A number of cells that were fabricated in May 1968 were thermally cycled at the Lincoln Laboratory facility with special precautions being taken to keep the cells loaded near the maximum power point between readings. The cells were standard process 3" x 3" size cells with Kapton cover plastic. They had AM1, 25°C efficiencies between 3.3% and 4.3% (or toward the low side of the normal range) and good fill factors between 68 and 71%,

Preliminary data only have been received from Lincoln Laboratory and this is presented in Figure 10. There was a fairly rapid loss of short circuit current over the first 100 cycles and then a much slower loss thereafter. There were 3 cells on this test. Two of the cells showed no loss in open circuit voltage over 700 cycles. These data are comparable with earlier Lewis Research Center and Boeing thermal cycling tests.





3. Boeing Company Test of Sept. - Oct. 1967 Cells

For the thermal cycling tests of the Sept.-Oct. 1967 and March 1968 cells, half of the cells were held back as controls and were stored under dry shelf conditions except for periodic measurements. The remainder were mounted in cell holders and placed in a clean vacuum chamber with the pressure below 10^{-6} Torr at all times and with the black walls of the chamber cooled with liquid nitrogen. Each cell was loaded at approximately the maximum power point. A cycle consisted of a 60 minute exposure in simulated air mass 0 light during which period the cell temperatures would rise and level off at about 60 to 70°C, followed by a 30 minute dark period during which the cell temperatures would drop to about -100° C. At selected intervals the resistive load would be removed from each cell and the I-V_curve traced and recorded while the cells were at the high end of their temperature excursion.

A group of 7 standard cells fabricated in Sept. and Oct. of 1967 plus 2 copper substrate cells were given a total of 506 cycles on the Boeing facility and then removed from the test and returned to NASA and subsequently to Clevite for analysis. The cells had degraded on this test to between 75 and 88% of their initial power output (except for one of the copper substrate cells which failed catastrophically) as measured by Boeing in situ at temperature during the last cycle. These tests are reported more fully in the Boeing Report dated February 28, 1969 issued as NASA Contractor Report CR-72507. The final test data at Boeing during the last cycle is reproduced in Table X along with the test data on the cells which were returned to Clevite and tested at 25°C after completion of the thermal cycling test.

TABLE X

TEST DATA ON SEPT. - OCT. 1967 CELLS AFTER BOEING THERMAL CYCLE TEST

	Max. Power as %	o of Initial Power
Cell	In Situ at Temp.	At Clevite at 25°C
No. Type Cell	During Last Cycle	after removal from test
A970B Copper substrate	77	98
A969D 11 11	25	97
NH188AK2 Standard	75	92
NH200AK3	88	not available
N89CK7 "	78	71
N90AK5 ''	83	83
N90BK4 ''	82	91
N90AK1 "	85	not available
N90AK9 "	85	77

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It is to be noted that some of the cells when returned to Clevite and tested under standard temperature and illumination conditions were just as low or even lower in output than when tested in situ during the last temperature cycle. This is distinctly different behavior from previous experience on thermally cycled cells showing degradation which cells heretofore had always recovered to within about 2 to 8% of their original power output. The cells that had not recovered their output after this temperature cycling test were carefully examined and in each case a probable cause for this behavior could be assigned. There were several causes found including: short circuited points on the cells, cracked silver Pyre-ML regions which were so severe as to interrupt the current collection by the substrate, and large foreign particles (apparently CdS) trapped under the Kapton cover plastic that might have acted to cause short circuiting. More rigorous inspection and quality control procedures that were installed subsequent to the Sept. - Oct. 1967 period are believed to have eliminated such constructionally flawed cells from being shipped since that time.

4. Boeing Company Test of March 1968 Cells

Starting in March a new screening test for acceptable CdS thin film solar cells was placed into effect. In analyzing the in situ measurements at 60 to 70°C for previous thermal cycling tests, it was noted that some cells gave much poorer performance initially than their 25°C measurements would have led us to expect. It also seemed that these particular cells were among the worst performers as far as stability was concerned. Therefore, starting in March of 1968 all standard cells were tested at both 25°C and 60°C and their I-V curves were compared. It was found that some cells showed a marked drop in fill factor and short circuit current at 60°C compared with the 25°C values, while others had approximately the same fill factor and the same or slightly higher short circuit current. It appeared probable that intrinsically the short circuit current of the CdS solar cell should increase as the temperature is increased from 25°C to 60°C, and that those cells which did not show an increase were faulty in some way. Therefore, starting with the March 1968 cells these were weeded out and rejected. A slight drop in the SCC of up to 20 milliamperes (for a 3" x 3" cell) was permitted, but no more.

Three different groups of cells fabricated in March 1968 were selected and sent to the Boeing Company for thermal cycling. One group had vacuum evaporated gold grids with a standard gold epoxy cemented metal mesh grid overlaid. The second group was fabricated by using a reduced

pressure of 10 psi on the cells during the epoxy setting operations of the gridding and laminating steps. Standard practice uses a 100 psi pressure during these steps. (This group did not meet the new specifications for 60°C vs 25°C current and fill factor levels.) The third group consisted of standard process cells, except that one of the cells had tin plated positive and negative lead tabs in place of the standard gold plating.

In Tables XI and XII are given the 25°C readings taken at AM1 and AMO respectively on the 9 cells which were temperature cycled as measured at Clevite prior to the test. It is interesting to note that cells 1 and 2 with the dual grid system and cells 3, 4 and 5 with low pressure processing all had lower fill factors at AMO than at AM1 while the standard process cells had higher fill factors. At higher light intensity a lower fill factor suggests that the effect of series resistance predominates over the effect of shunt leakage, while a higher fill factor suggests the opposite. The indication is slight in most cases however and these are high quality cells compared with earlier lots. It is also interesting to note that the 3 cells made with lower pressure gridding and laminating gave only 8% more power output at AMO than they did at AM1, whereas the rest of the cells gave from 12 to 18% more power output. The difference was almost entirely due to the relative short circuit current. Why the low pressure gridding and laminating should result in a relative loss of current collection as the light intensity is increased is very puzzling.

At Boeing the cells were given a total of 2031 cycles and then were removed from the test and returned to NASA, Lewis Research Center. The electrical test data taken at Lewis after thermal cycling is given in Table XIII. Comparing these data with those in Table XII it is seen that all of the cells except Cell No. 2 showed a definite loss of efficiency, and all of the cells except Cell No. 2 showed a definite loss in fill factor. All of the cells had higher open circuit voltages after the test than before, and all had lower short circuit currents.

The in situ performance data of these cells are being reported separately by Boeing in much greater detail than is possible here. This group of cells held up better than any other cells which have been tested to date under such rigorous conditions.

No noticeable degradation occurred for about the first couple of hundred cycles, and then a very slight gradual loss of power output was apparent for most of the cells. After about 1000 cycles, Cell No. 1 with

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TABLE XI

Air Mass 1, 25°C ELECTRICAL TEST DATA ON MARCH 1968 CELLS PRIOR TO BOEING THERMAL CYCLING

Boeing No.	Clevite Cell No.	Construction	ocv	SCC	Vmp	Imp	M.P.	Fill	Eff.
والمتنابسينية موالمتاملي		<u></u>						· · ·	
1	N151CK4	Evap. grid	. 464	.662	. 370	. 595	. 220	71.7	4.0
$\overline{2}$	N150BK6		.472	. 499	₽385	. 442	.170	72.3	3.1
3	N156AK4	Low pressure	. 470	. 752	. 368	.664	. 244	69.1	4.4
4	N156CK2	11 - 11	. 477	.684	. 377	.600	.226	69.3	4.1
5	N156AK5	11 11	.462	. 846	.361	.739	.267	68.3	4.9
6	N154BK6	Standard	. 460	. 758	. 360	.670	. 241	69.2	4.4
6 7	N153AK8	11	. 459	. 765	. 359	.671	.241	68.6	4.4
8	N154CK1	11	.465	. 699	. 370	. 581	.215	66.1	3.9
9	N157BK2	Tin plated	. 458	. 795	. 350	.702	. 246	67.5	4.5

TABLE XII

Air Mass 0, 25°C ELECTRICAL TEST DATA ON MARCH 1968 CELLS PRIOR TO BOEING THERMAL CYCLING

Boeing No.	Clevite <u>Cell No.</u>	Construction	ocv	SCC	Vmp	Imp	<u>M.P</u> .	<u>Fill</u>	Eff.
1	N151CK4	Evap. grid	.463	.760	.370	.666	.246	70.0	3.2
2	N150BK6		.479	.567	.391	.500	.196	72.0	2.5
3	N156AK4	Low pressure	.473	.815	.374	.707	.264	68.6	3.4
4	N156CK2		.480	.735	.380	.640	.243	68.9	3.2
5	N156AK5		.470	.899	.369	.780	.288	68.1	3.7
6 7 8 9	N154BK6 N153AK8 N154CK1 N157BK2	Standard '' Tin plated	.469 .464 .470 .461	.861 .862 .750 .900	.370 .360 .378 .359	.768 .768 .663 .796	.284 .276 .251 .286	$70.4 \\ 69.1 \\ 71.1 \\ 68.9$	3.7 3.6 3.3 3.7

TABLE XIII

Cell No.	Identity	Construction	<u>ocv</u>	· <u>SCC</u>	Vmp	Imp	<u>M.P.</u>	Fill	Eff.
1	N151CK4	Evap. grid	. 478	.717	.369	.600	.222	64.6	2.9
2	N150BK6		. 490	.545	.394	.482	.190	71.1	2.5
3	N156AK4	Low pressure	.487	. 762	.370	.660	. 244	65.8	3.2
4	N156CK2		.489	. 703	.378	.600	. 227	66.0	3.0
5	N156AK5		.474	. 838	.362	.700	. 254	63.8	3.3
6	N154BK6	Standard	. 476	.810	.367	.705	. 259	67.1	3.4
7	N153AK8	"	. 469	.785	.361	.640	. 231	63.0	3.0
8	N154CK1	"	. 478	.724	.373	.640	. 239	69.0	3.1
9	N157BK2	Tin plated tabs	. 472	.850	.362	.745	. 270	67.2	3.5

Air Mass 0, 25°C ELECTRICAL TEST DATA ON MARCH 1968 CELLS AFTER THERMAL CYCLING

Cells tested at NASA, Lewis Research Center.

the dual grid failed catastrophically dropping to about half output and behaving somewhat erratically thereafter. Two of the cells that were processed with the special low pressure conditions became somewhat erratic in output after about 550 cycles and fluctuated as much as $\pm 5\%$ on successive readings.

Cell No. 2 also with the dual grid, held up with almost no loss of output for the entire period. A slight fluctuation from reading to reading is believed to reflect the accuracy of measurement rather than cell fluctuation. All of the rest of the cells showed a very slow gradual drop in output over the period of the test with the final outputs ranging between 83% and 92% of the initial values.

Tables XIV, XV, XVI and XVII present the in situ measurements of the maximum power, open circuit voltage, short circuit current and fill factor respectively of the 9 thermally cycled cells, after various numbers of temperature cycles up to the 1906th cycle. All readings are given as a percentage of the initial reading after correction to correspond to a temperature of 60°C.

After the 1905th cycle, gaseous nitrogen to 1 atmosphere was admitted to the chamber, allowed to stand for 27 hours, and then pumped out. Most of the cells improved slightly after this treatment. The temperature cycling was then resumed, but the test was terminated after 2031 cycles. By the 2031st cycle the cells dropped back to about the same level as on the 1905th cycle - (according to information contained in Boeing Report NASA CR 72507 which was obtained after preparation of this report) or to 49, 96, 86, 90, 84, 87, 84, 92 and 83% of the initial readings respectively.

Closer examination of Tables XIV to XVII shows that the OCV's held up in every case or improved slightly. On the average the OCV was 103% of the initial value, or an average increase of 10 millivolts. The SCC's however decreased on the average to 96% of the initial value, or an average drop of about 30 milliamperes. Greatest change was exhibited in the fill factors. Except for the one experimental cell which failed catastrophically, the fill factors dropped to from 96% to 88% of the initial value, or on the average to 91.5% of the initial fill factor.

As part of this test there were 9 control cells selected at random which were kept on dry shelf storage throughout the period of the thermal cycling test and read periodically. It is interesting that on the average the 9 control cells over the same period of 1906 cycles dropped by nearly 2.5%

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1 100	Cell No.	~ °	¢,	6	R	33	Ť	物物	84	2	3	P	22	2	8	8	32	100;	142	243	262	
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255 101. 100 <td>*</td> <td>198</td> <td>66</td> <td>TOL</td> <td>101</td> <td>87</td> <td>100</td> <td>100</td> <td>66</td> <td>98</td> <td>8</td> <td>100</td> <td>101</td> <td>101</td> <td>10</td> <td>101</td> <td>101</td> <td>102</td> <td>979</td> <td>8</td> <td>96e</td> <td></td>	*	198	66	TOL	101	87	100	100	66	98	8	100	101	101	10	101	101	102	979	8	96e	
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	6	and Concelling Market Designed Street	8	96	95	96	93	93	94	92 1	93	36	93	93	91	8	8	87	32	- 26	91	
97 91 91 96 95 92 93<	*	-	8	95	. 26	95	94	94	93	8	89	32	91	94	87	93	8	63	83	36	8	
0 0	5		97	416	96	95	25	92	92	93	%	8	&	69	68	8	91	93	8	8	63	•
(1) (2) (3) (3) (3) (4) (2) (3) <td>6</td> <td>And a second sec</td> <td>8</td> <td>76</td> <td>96</td> <td>96</td> <td>93</td> <td>95</td> <td>94</td> <td>9k</td> <td>8</td> <td>93</td> <td>93</td> <td>91</td> <td>8</td> <td>93</td> <td>93</td> <td>94</td> <td>91</td> <td>8</td> <td>16</td> <td>4</td>	6	And a second sec	8	76	96	96	93	95	94	9k	8	93	93	91	8	93	93	94	91	8	16	4
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····································	8		101	87	101	100	66	52	98	100	96	97	97	88	97	98	96	97	95	97	22	
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ECHINITED HISTERESIS	6	****	81	81	80	82	8	62	81	83	34	8	78	<u></u>	81	85	85			· · · · ·		• • .
rceiblired extrerests **																						
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BOEING THERMAL CYCLING TEST OF MARCH 1968 CELLS - RELATIVE MAX. POWER VS NO. of CYCLES

TABLE XIV

Crete		ppen-circ	The open-cirouit voltages in this column are given in volt	tes in th	is column	ere give	to vol	ts.		ľ										
Cell Ro.	¥ ه	8	6	70	33	34	**	84	8	જ	þ	æ	F	8	8	95	108	142	163	rê2
-	901.	81	100	101	101	200	101	101	202	101	ž	ଷୁ	32	8	ğ	ğ	102	705	106	103
2	8 ⁴ .	8	8	100	100	· 100	IOI	IOI	101	101	101	102	101	101	101	101	101	302	101	101
	.413	18	100	100	101	101	101	101	101	101	102	103	rg F	ğ	103	302	, 201	103	102	103
	.421	100	100	66	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	101	81	101	101	100	IQI	1010	81	1010
~	419.	100	100	101	101	100	101	101	101	101	101	102	101	102	101	102	101	101	101	102
ه	214.	8	8	100	100	101	202	IOI	ផ្ក	IOI	103	102	TOT	102	101	101	102	102	101	101
7	914.	203	101	101	101	101	104	102	102	102	EOT	103	103	102	101	103	103	102	102	103
8	¢14°	101	101	101	100	101	101	101	102	105	102	102	201	102	102	102	103	102	102	102,
6	604.	101	8	100	700	101	66	101	101	105	102	102	101	102	103	101	103	102	102	103
Cycl.		193	208	209	244	245	320	369	370	4 33	11911	498	664	533	162	553	554	88	652	738
Cell No.																				
ч		100	103	102	103	102	102	102	102	103	102	103	103	103	301	102	102	103	103	103
8		lol	Tol	82	81	Зœ	101	TOL	100	100	100	TOT	101	Eot.	101	101	101	101	101	102
•		103	103	102	104	101	102	103	100	103	103	TON	lok	104	103	103	100	104	105	105
*		101	8	8	101	86	101	101	100	100	101	101	102	101	101	101	100	100	102	102
2		10h	102	102	102	101	102	102	101	102	101	102	101	102	102	102	102	102	102	203
6		8	103	101	103	101	102	102	101	102	102	103	102	102	101	102	103	100	102	203
2		103	103	8	104	101	103	8	95	103	103	103	102	103	102	103	103	103	103	104
8		103	ğ	102	103	101	102	102	102	102	102	203	8	700	103	102	302	302	103	103
6		103	102	101	*	102	100	100	100	100	101	101	93	103	101	101	101	202	102	102
Cycle																			•	
Zell 10.		786	887	997	1204	1209	1301	1404	1510	1626	1764	1804	1905	Subtest A	Sub test	1906				$\left[\right]$
٦		ηστ	103	103	8	8	93	å ¢	8	98	97	98	98	96	100	100				
5		ហ	101	τοτ	101	101	101	TOT	נסנ	101	τοτ	101	101	8	700	102				
٣		202	ъ К	105	707	107	801 1	306	109	104	105	104	105	102	102	107				
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~		301	203	203	104	203	204	205	203	104	104	103	104	39	8	204				-
6		103	103	103	103	102	102	ГОЗ	103	103	104	102	104	100	86	103				
7		δά	ΣQ	104	705	101	103	104	103	103	103	103	104	100	100	103				
80		103	104	103	104	102	103	104	104	104	103	103	LON	100	101	103				
6		ξğ	τοτ	102	102	TOT	102	103	102	103	103	10	102	81	81	102				
						•														
		* EXHIBITED RYSTERESIS	TERESIS	8	** BO DEASURDADAT MADE	BUAN TR							Ţ							

BOEING THERMAL CYCLING TEST OF MARCH 1953 CELLS RELATIVE OCV VS NUMBER OF CYCLES

TABLE XV

Dell Ro 0 2 9 16 31, 34 44 1 727 100 100 101 101 100 99 99 2 549 9 101 101 101 100 99 99 3 773 101 101 101 100 100 99 99 5 667 100	9 101 101 101 100 100 100 100 10	98 500 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	33. / 101 101 101 101 101 101 101 101 101 101	* 8 8 8	7		8	38	F	p	5	8	8	33	\$	M	SAL SAL	3
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$ \begin{array}{c ccccc} b & 726 & 100 & 1 \\ \hline 6 & 801 & 100 & 1 \\ \hline 7 & 808 & 101 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 808 & 101 & 0 \\ \hline 8 & 741 & 100 & 1 \\ \hline 9 & 873 & 100 & 1 \\ \hline 7 & 808 & 101 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 808 & 101 & 100 \\ \hline 7 & 808 & 101 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 96 & 99 \\ \hline 7 & 98 & 99 \\ \hline 9 & 99 & 99 \\ \hline 1 & 000 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 8 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 7 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 8 & 000 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 000 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & $	101 100 100 298 208 208 208 208 208 208 208	102 101 10 100 200 200 200 200 200	101 100 101 101 101 101 244	TCO	66	86	8	66	98	8	66	8	3 8	. 86	96	93	8	35
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8 98 9 97 9 97 1 92 1 92 2 91 3 91 5 94 6 94 7 94	95	94	93	95	\$6	91	&	87	87	8	87	88	శా	87	87	87	87	96
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	887	997	1204	1209	1301	2404	1510	1626 1	1764	1804	1905	Bubtest B	Aubtest B	1906				
	93	61	88	89	87	88	89	8	8	88	87	8	93	91				
	8	55	101	22	22	8	87	102	101	8	ĝ	202	Sol	202				
	8	88	93	8	8	8	8	46	93	93	93	z	98	8				
	95	21	96	36	46	8	94	98	97	96	95	96	98	95				
	8	46	8	8	88	69	89	8	90	68	8	88	91	93				
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	8	87	96	46	8	93	26	95	9%	92	90	95	36	95				
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9	33	22	22	23	8	-92	8	95	95	91	91	8	97	8	,			
							6		• •									
* IXHIBITIO HYPITERESIS	BTERESIS	** 70 M	** NO MEASUREMENT MADE	T MAR					Biosecula	,								

BOEING THERMAL CYCLING TEST OF MARCH 1968 CELLS RELATIVE SCC VS NUMBER OF CYCLES

TABLE XVI

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BOEING THERMAL CYCLING TEST OF MARCH 1968 CELLS FILL FACTOR VS NUMBER OF CYCLES

TABLE XVII

45 C in power output. The figures for the control cells are: maximum power 97.6% of initial (range 95 to 99%), OCV to 98.6% (range 97 to 99%), SCC to 99% (range 91 to 101%), and fill factor to 99.4% (98 to 101%).

It is evident that there has been some change in the output of all but one of these cells as a result of the thermal cycling. This change has taken the form of a slight increase in OCV and a slight decrease in SCC and a somewhat greater decrease in the fill factor. This is very reminiscent of the adjustment effect that used to take place on an earlier design cell, prior to the use of epoxy cements, when the pressure grid contact would gradually loosen with time. It is a strong possibility that the present effect is also due to a loosening of the grid contact - though of course to a much lesser extent. It is interesting that Cell No. 2, which had an evaporated gold grid plus a metal mesh overlaid grid, did not show any real change over the 1906 cycles of the test. This would tend to bear out the tentative conclusion that the slight loss of output on thermal cycling of the present cells is due to a very slight loosening of the conductive epoxy cemented grid.

The results of this thermal cycling test are by far the most encouraging obtained to date. The four standard process cells exhibited a 10% loss of output (ranging from 5% to 15%) over the 1900 cycles of this very severe test. The better cells of the type of production that was sampled for this test would probably be satisfactory for many space applications. There is every reason to believe that the establishment of better quality assurance provisions, of the type which are planned for the follow-on effort, will yield an essentially space worthy cell.

E. Constant Illumination at No Load

It had been noted earlier by workers at the Lewis Research Center, and at the Lincoln Laboratory of MIT, that CdS film cells which are illuminated continuously in the open circuit condition undergo a relatively rapid and severe degradation of output. This degradation appears to anneal out if the cells are allowed to rest in the dark and if the degradation has not proceeded too far. However, there are some indications that such recovery may be only temporary and that such cells may be degraded again. At first this effect was considered as merely an interesting but academic phenomenon since the conditions that cause it are not a normal mode of operation for solar cells and since it did appear to anneal out readily. This effect has been studied in the latter portion of this Contract in an effort to understand the mechanism.

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The effect was reproduced by mounting the cells on a temperature controlled block (to eliminate complications due to temperature rise) in a vacuum (to eliminate possible complications due to moisture or oxygen) and illuminating them at approximately air mass 1 levels with tungsten iodide lamps. At selected intervals the cells were removed from the chamber and their I-V curves were measured under standard air mass 1, 25°C test conditions.

Several dozen cells have been exposed and tested in this fashion. In most cases severe degradation of power output occurs within a few days. Table XVIII summarizes the experience of a group of 18 cells of different constructions that were exposed to constant illumination at no load for periods of from 29 to 98 hours. The cells were finished to different stages. A total of 12 cells were completely finished and of these 4 had sealed edges. Four cells were gridded but had no cover plastic attached. Two cells were barriered with the subsequent heat treatment but had no grid attached. More detailed electrical test data on the first 4 listed cells of Table VIII are given in Table XIX,

The degradation varied widely from cell to cell, and a few of the cells actually improved slightly. After the test it was noticed that all but one of the degraded cells, and even one of the cells that did not degrade, had small metallic nodules which had grown on the Cu₂S barrier surface. These nodules were about 1 to 2 mils in diameter and about the same height. They were not present prior to the test.

The nodules caused a visible lifting of the cover plastic, and in a few cases of a grid wire. Figure 11 is a photo of the nodules on a part of one cell at two different magnifications. The nodule is the small central portion of the larger circular areas. The light circular region is where the nodule has pushed up the cover plastic causing a void in the package. A nodule grown on a gridded cell that had no cover plastic is shown in Figure 12. Analysis of one of the nodules which was lifted from one of the cells disclosed it to be elemental copper.

Formation of copper nodules on the Cu_2S barrier means that copper must migrate from some other location in the cell. It could come from the copper grid, from excess copper precipitated onto the Cu_2S during barrier formation, or from the Cu_2S lattice. The grid is not in physical contact with the barrier - being separated by the gold epoxy cement and by the gold plating. Thus it seems unlikely that the grid is the source of the copper. It is not known how much copper could be present in the precipitated elemental form, but it

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TABLE XVIII

EFFECTS OF CONSTANT ILLUMINATION ON CELLS MOUNTED IN A VACUUM AT 25°C AND MAINTAINED IN THE OCV MODE

Recovery	ı	ı	ł	ı	ı	None	None	None	1	a	ŧ	ı	I	ŧ	B	I		8	8
Recovery Attempt B	None	None	None	None	None	Reverse bias	Reverse bias	Reverse bias	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None		ı	ı
Copper Observed	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No		No	No
																116.0		Not measured	Not measured
Exposure Time (Hrs)	42	24	€7 ₹7	42	53	53	53	53	29	29	29	29	98	98	86	98		98	86
Cell No.	N291CK8	N292BK4	N293AK1	N294BK5	N314BK4	N314CK2	N314CK4	N314CK9	N294AK1	N294AK3	N294AK4	N293BK 3	H742C8	H742C6	H742B9	H743A8		N91C8	H273C8
Type Cell	Standard				,				Sealed edges				Partially finished without covers				Partially finished without prids	and covers	

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TABLE XIX

CONSTANT ILLUMINATION

STANDARD KAPTON CELLS

	Original Value Po	ercent			rs 4 min e Percer	nt		40 min Percent
N291CK8				·			·	
OCV SCC Vmp Imp MaxPwr Fill Eff.	441 679 340 585 199 66.6 3.6	100 100 100 100 100 100 100		439 700 332 579 192 62. 3.5	99. 103. 97. 99. 96. 4 93. 97.	0 6 0 5 5	445 739 345 647 223 68.0 4.0	101 109 101 110 112 102 110
N292BK4								
OCV SCC Vmp Imp MaxPwr Fill Eff.	443 709 342 612 209 66.6 3.8	100 100 100 100 100 100 100		438 735 336 595 200 62. 3.6	99. 104. 98. 97. 95. 2 93. 95.	0 4 3 6 2	423 720 322 448 145 47.5 2.6	95.5 102 94.1 73.4 69.4 71.3 68.0
N293 AK1								
OCV SCC Vmp Imp MaxPwr Fill Eff.	468 645 367 554 203 67.4 3.7	100 100 100 100 100 100		450 580 52 61 162 62. 2.9	96. 90. 95. 83. 79. 1 92. 78.	0 8 3 7 2	395 640 240 332 79.5 31.5 1.4	84.3 99.3 65.4 60.0 39.0 46.7 38.0
N294BK5	Origina Value P		18 hrs Value		42 hrs Value	40 min Percent	After edg Value I	
OCV SCC Vmp Imp MaxPwr Fill Eff.	448 799 348 688 239 66.9 4.4	100 100 100 100 100 100 100	436 710 320 501 160 51.7 2.9	97.3 89.0 92.0 72.8 66.9 77.4 66.0	437 780 314 542 171 50.1 3.1	97.5 97.8 90.4 78.6 71.5 74.9 70.0	438 860 314 667 209 55.5 3.7	97.9 107.0 90.4 97.0 87.5 83.0 84.0

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Copper Nodules found on the copper sulfide barrier of a standard CdS Solar Cell after Constant Illumination

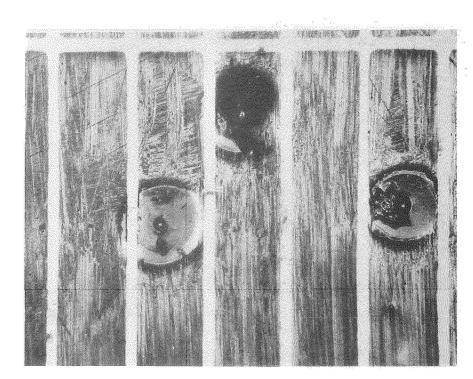
FIGURE 11

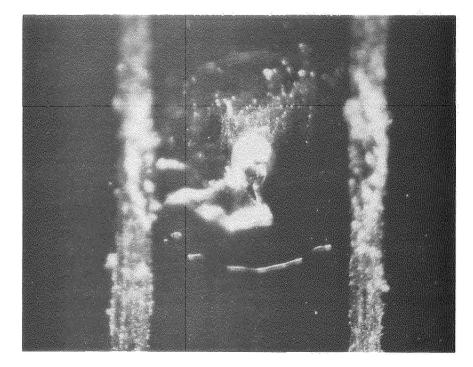
N293AK1

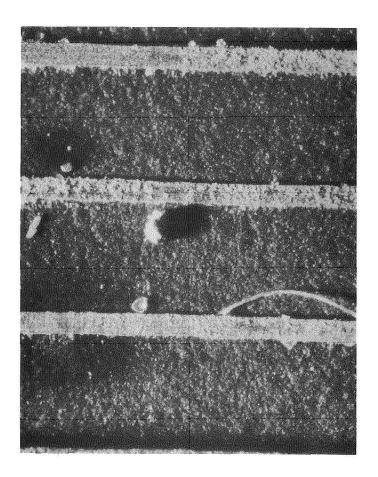
110X

N293AK1









65X

Cell No. H742B9

FIGURE 12 Copper nodule grown on the copper sulfide barrier of a cell made without cover after constant illumination seems likely that if there were enough to form the nodules observed that the outputs of the cell would have been very low initially. Therefore, it seems most likely that the copper comes from the Cu₂S lattice.

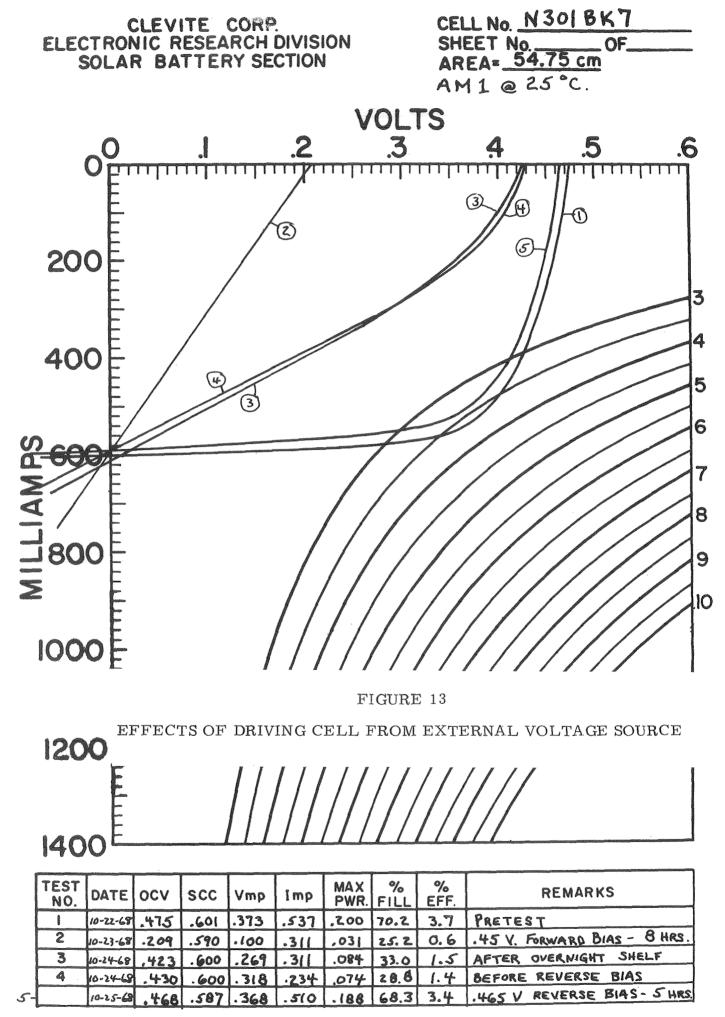
It is known that Cu_2S has a very strong ionic conductivity at high temperatures. It is presumed that there is some ionic conductivity at room temperature. Copper ions would move in an electric field if that field were above a certain threshold value. The electric field in the Cu_2S barrier region of a cell on open circuit in the light would be such as to move copper ions toward any region that might be even partially shorted to the negative substrate. In the loaded condition the electric field in the cells would be less and the effect would be less and less as the current increased.

It is believed that the very leaky junctions of the present design CdS thin film solar cell are due to numbers of partial short circuits to the substrate, and that these would predispose the cell toward copper plating out of the Cu_2S at such locations if sufficient potential were applied across the cell electrodes. Plating out of copper would decrease the resistance of the short circuit path and the action would continue until the Cu_2S around that locality was essentially depleted of copper. Then the action would probably shift to other localities where partial short circuits existed. The cumulative shunting would result in a lowering of the open circuit voltage, a decrease in fill factor, and eventually a loss of effective cell area. As the degradation of cell output increased, the electric field across the cell would decrease and this would be expected to slow up the rate of degradation.

To verify the tentative conclusion that it is the potential across the cell causing the degradation and not the light, two cells were biased in the dark at 0.45 volts in the forward direction. The I-V curves of these cells were measured at intervals. Both cells degraded rapidly as the test proceeded. The I-V curves for one of these cells at different stages are reproduced in Figure 13. Curve 1 was the I-V curve prior to the test. Curve 2 was taken after 8 hours of forward bias at 0.45 volts in the dark. Curve 3 shows the partial recovery of the cell after resting overnight, and Curve 4 was a retest a few hours later just prior to reverse biasing the cell. Curve 5 was taken after the cell had been reverse biased for 5 hours at 0.465 volts. It is seen that the recovery of the cell was almost complete after reverse biasing. The degradation effect illustrated in Figure 13, and by the data of Table XIX, is clearly that of decreasing shunt resistance.

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It is proposed that the mechanism for the degradation of these cells was the same as for the light degraded cells - even though no copper nodules were observed on these particular cells - and that copper was actually plated out at short circuiting points on these cells. The reverse biasing would effectively back plate the copper and hence remove the degradation.

Since the discovery of these copper nodules during the work of this Contract and the initial investigations of them as described above, more extensive studies have been carried out by H. E. Nastelin and co-workers on Air Force Contract F33615-68-C-1182, by L. R. Shiozawa on Air Force Contract AF33(615)-5224, and by personnel at the Lewis Research Center of NASA. Nastelin has shown that the nodules form whenever a potential on the order of 0.5 or more volts is applied between 2 points of a Cu_2S barrier layer. He has also found that the nodules that occur during actual degradation, when cross sectioned and studied under the microscope, have deep roots that penetrate down open grain boundaries in the CdS layer - in some cases right to the conductive substrate. This has also been demonstrated by Shiozawa by a selective etching technique. Separate more detailed publication of these studies will be made in the reports on the respective Contracts.

Additional studies in conjunction with Lewis Research Center personnel have shown that the nodules cannot usually be made to form by open circuit constant illumination exposure of the better quality cells, but can readily be made to form on poorer quality cells with lower fill factors and poorer shunt leakage characteristics. However, the so-called better quality cells can be made to degrade on open circuit constant illumination exposure.

It is believed that the copper nodule formation is just an extreme manifestation of the degradation of cells on no load constant illumination, and that the cells which do not have visually apparent nodules have probably degraded by the plating of microscopic quantities of copper in smaller grain boundary openings. In the future attempts will be made to secure more physically perfect CdS films and Cu_2S barrier layers to determine if these will indeed be immune to no load constant illumination degradation.

F. Edge Effects

In a group of high efficiency cells which had been kept in a desk for about 6 to 8 months, handled repeatedly, and tested at regular intervals, a few of the cells started losing output and the loss seemed to accelerate with time. The loss was due mostly to deteriorating fill factors, though the

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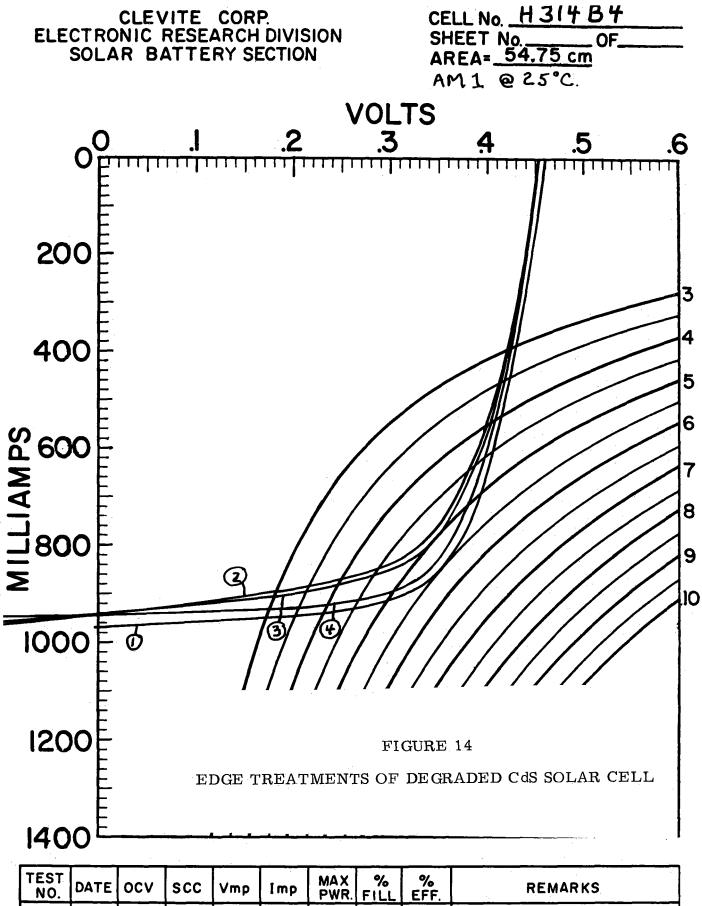
OCV and SCC were also affected slightly. It was puzzling why some of the cells should drop and others hold up when the group of cells appeared at the outset to be very homogeneous with similar electrical characteristics.

One possible explanation for some of the cells losing output might be that moisture or other contamination from the handling was shunting the cells at the cut edges where the Cu₂S barrier layer was exposed. Therefore, a few of the cells which had shown the greatest drop in output were taken and the edges were wiped with an acetone wet tissue. A small but definite improvement in the fill factor and efficiency was noted in every case. Then, the edges of the cells were trimmed with a precision shear so that about 10 to 20 mils were removed from each edge, beyond the margin of the grid. A marked improvement was noted after trimming in each case with the original output being almost completely restored. The sequence is illustrated in the I-V curves of Figure 14.

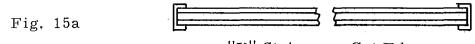
It is not known whether the degradation at the cut edges of these cells was due to moisture pick-up, contamination (e.g., salt from fingerprints), or oxygen effects, and there was not time for definitive experiments in order to find out. However, the dramatic improvement in cell output from redressing the cell edges has been repeated in a few other instances of cell degradation, and indicates that some form of edge protection is required for individual cells that may be expected to perform on shelf or environmental tests as individual cells. In actual arrays of cells for space flight panels this problem would not exist as the cell edges would undoubtedly be protected by lamination or some other means of mounting into panels.

Two relatively straightforward methods of protecting the cut edges of single cells have been worked out. One of these is to simply cement a narrow "U" - shaped strip of Kapton plastic cover over each edge as illustrated in Figure 15a. The other is to cut the cell to width prior to cover plastic lamination, make the cover plastic slightly wider than normal and fold it over each edge in the lamination step as illustrated in Figure 15b.

Both methods, of course, make the cell somewhat thicker and bulkier, but these techniques would probably not be needed for cells that were going to be used in actual solar panels.



						<u> </u>	<u> []LL</u>]	EFF.	
- 1	1-4-68	.461	.964	.351	.848	.298	67.0	5.4	AFTER 2 Mos. LAB. STORAGE
2	7-26-68	.451	.940	.341	.786	.268	63.2	4.9	AFTER 8 MOS. LAB. STORAGE
3	7-26-68	.451	.942	.345	.794	.274	64.5	5.0	AFTER WIPING EDGES
4	7-26-68	.451	.944	.354	.818	.290	68.0	5.3	AFTER TRIMMING EDGES
-	1								



"U" Strip over Cut Edges

Fig. 15b

Cover Plastic folded over edges

FIGURE 15 METHODS OF PROTECTING CUT EDGES OF CELLS

IV CELL DESIGN

A number of changes in the design of the CdS thin film solar cell have been considered, and preliminary studies of some of these have been carried out. A few of these remain as attractive possibilities for yielding a more stable cell, a higher performance level cell and/or a lower cost, more convenient cell to fabricate. However, none of these possible design variations have been carried far enough to warrant their adoption as part of the standard design CdS thin film solar cell. Some of the design variation studies that have been worked on in the present Contract period are discussed in the following sections:

A. Evaporated Grid Contact

The vacuum evaporated grid has the potential advantage of giving an intimately bonded contact to the Cu_2S layer which might be completely free of loosening effects with aging. The vacuum evaporated grid however also has the disadvantage that it cannot be made thick enough to carry the high currents generated in the CdS cell without peeling from the Cu_2S barrier. A combination thin vacuum evaporated grid with a metal mesh overlay as a bus collector grid has the possibility of combining the advantages of the evaporated grid with the low resistance and current carrying capacity of the metal mesh grid.

During this Contract several different lots of cells have been processed with evaporated gold grids, approx. 3000\AA thick directly in contact with the Cu₂S barrier layer, plus a standard metal mesh grid cemented on top of the evaporated grid. The first lot consisted of 27 cells, fabricated in March of 1968. Good fill factors of 70% or more were obtained on these cells which is assurance of a good grid contact. However, the current and

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power output levels were slightly below normal experience. This was attributed to mis-register of the identical geometry evaporated and metal mesh grid patterns (the metal mesh grid was used as the mask for the resist for the evaporated grid) which resulted in a lower light transmission through the combination grid - and hence lower current and power output.

Four of this first group of cells were sent to the Lewis Research Center of NASA for evaluation on thermal cycling. Detailed data on the performance of these cells have not yet been published, though it is understood that these cells performed as well as any that had been tested to date. Two of the cells were sent to Boeing and were included as Cells 1 and 2 on their thermal cycling tests. As discussed above, Cell No. 1 failed catastrophically, but Cell No. 2 showed essentially no degradation after 1905 cycles. Two of the cells were placed on 150°C vacuum storage test at Clevite. One of these retained full output efficiency for the entire 4 week period of the test - which is the best performance ever obtained in this very severe test - though there was some slight change in the SCC and OCV levels, The other dropped to 72% of its original output after 4 weeks.

Another group of three cells was fabricated later in the Contract period and submitted to NASA for inclusion in the next round of thermal cycling tests. These cells had excellent fill factors but also had lower outputs, due again to the poorer transmission of the dual grid.

The evaporated gold grid-metal mesh overlaid grid combination shows promise of providing the most stable grid contact yet devised. It could yield cells with as much output as the cemented metal mesh grid contact design. However, this process is still far from an acceptable production process and the yields from this method of grid contacting have been very low. There is reason to expect that the techniques for making cells with this dual grid can be improved to the point where yields will be satisfactory and where the costs may approach or even be less than that of the cemented metal mesh grid by itself.

B. Electroplated Grid Contact

Some work has been done with electroplated gold grids using a commercial photo resist mask and state-of-the-art techniques. A number of 3" x 3" size cells were fabricated with these electroplated gold grids but they all had low outputs due to short circuits. The large area cells were subdivided into smaller areas of 1x2cm and a few of these were not shorted.

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These were laminated with Mylar cover plastic and positive electrode tabs. However, the best of these was only 4.2% efficient with a fill factor of 62%.

The low outputs appeared to be due to series resistance effects, but this could not have been due to the thickness or current carrying capacity of the electroplated gold grids since these were more than adequate. It seemed more likely at the time that the Cu₂S barrier layer was being damaged by the electroplating process.

It is felt that the electroplated grids have not been given a really satisfactory evaluation, but in view of the initially discouraging results and the lack of resources to expand on this approach, no further work was attempted.

C. Printed Grid Contact

A number of small area cells were fabricated using a printed grid. The ink used was DuPont 7728 conductive epoxy adhesive. It was applied to a thickness of approx. 0.4 mils using a specially prepared stencil. The cells averaged about 3.1% in efficiency with a maximum of 4.0%.

The problem with the printed grid appears to be in securing a fine enough resolution and line spacing to give current collection and light transmission comparable to the metal mesh grid. The method does appear to have some merit, but it seems probable that this grid would be no more stable than the conductive epoxy cemented metal mesh grid.

D. Rhodium Interlayer

Since CdS makes a nonohmic barrier contact to silver, some interlayer between the two has been needed to provide an ohmic contact. Zinc has been used and does provide an excellent low resistance ohmic contact and provides good adhesion of the CdS layer. The zinc does cause problems in processing however. Its vapor pressure is so high that it cannot be used at all when substrate temperatures of 250°C or higher are used, and even at 220°C it causes some difficulty. Further, it alloys with the silver of the conductive substrate to different degrees at different times and probably diffuses into the CdS layer as well to give uncertain properties to the CdS film.

At various times some work has been done to find an alternate material to use as an interlayer between the silver Pyre-ML substrate and the evaporated CdS film. One of the materials that on theoretical grounds should be most attractive is rhodium. Rhodium has been used very

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successfully as an ohmic electrode to single crystal CdS, has a very low vapor pressure at temperatures of processing or use of thin film solar cells, and is readily applied by conventional electroplating techniques.

In one group of experiments a total of 18 cells was processed with rhodium interlayers. Plating thickness varied from 500\AA to $15,000\text{\AA}$ and various plating current densities were used. The electroplated coatings looked very good. However, the outputs of the finished cells were all low with poor fill factors and low open circuit voltages.

In another group of experiments, similar results were obtained. With plating thicknesses of 250 to 1000\AA outputs were still low and open circuit voltages were 0.35 to 0.40 volts. When the rhodium thickness was increased to the 1 to 1.5 micron range the results of the cell outputs were even worse. A third lot with thinner coatings were all rejected in processing for zero voltage probes.

Room temperature resistivity measurements were made on a rhodium plated silver Pyre-ML substrate. Resistivity was in the 10⁻⁵ ohm-cm range, comparable to the standard zinc plated silver Pyre-ML substrate.

Several experiments were conducted to determine if the rhodium interlayer substrate makes an ohmic contact to the CdS film. I-V curves were obtained between an In-Hg amalgam contact on the CdS film and the rhodium plated substrate. The curve, in bright light (about 1 sun) and at low voltages (between -0.1 and +0.1 volt) was linear, indicating an ohmic contact. However, at larger voltages (between -0.4 and +0.4 volts) and in room light, the curve was linear only in a narrow range about the origin (between -0.05 and +0.05 volts) and at larger voltages the curve became nonlinear. The overall curve had the appearance of back-to-back rectifiers. This undoubtedly explains the poor cell performance with the rhodium substrate. Further work with the ohmicity of the rhodium contact is indicated before further cell fabrication experiments.

E. Molybdenum Substrates

The first true thin film flexible solar cells were made on molybdenum metal foil substrates. Molybdenum was chosen at the time because its thermal expansion coefficient closely matched that of CdS. It was believed that this was an essential requirement since fairly thick layers of CdS were needed for successful cells and it was thought that an appreciable mis-match of thermal expansion coefficients would result in poor adhesion.

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When techniques were acquired for securing good adhesion of CdS on Kapton plastic substrates, and when cell outputs from such plastic substrates were as good or better than obtained from molybdenum substrate cells, the Kapton substrate was adopted as standard. Weight, flexibility and cost were some of the reasons for choosing the plastic substrate over the metal substrate.

However, it is possible that some of the stability problems with the plastic substrate cell could arise from the considerable strain the CdS film is under with the thermal expansion mis-match between it and the substrate. Therefore, a number of CdS thin film solar cells were fabricated in this Contract period using 1 mil molybdenum substrates and Kapton cover plastic. In Table XX are given the initial outputs of a group that were made which gave results comparable to plastic substrate cells fabricated at the same time.

TABLE XX

OUTPUTS OF MOLYBDENUM SUBSTRATE CELLS (Tested at 25°C in equivalent AM1 sunlight)

Cell	OCV	SCC	M, P.	Fill	Efficiency
No,	(volts)	(amps)	(watts)	(%)	(%)
N166AK2	.457	.716	,223	68	4,1
N166AK3	.456	.726	,212	64	3.9
N166AK4	.452	.748	,239	71	4.4
N166AK5	.457	.676	,215	70	3.9
N166AK6	.459	.726	,219	66	4.0
N166AK6	.460	.680	,217	70	4.0
N166AK8	. 452	.700	.219	69	4,0
N166AK9	. 451	.730	.214	65	3,9
N166BK1	. 452	.738	.230	69	4,2
N166BK2	. 448	.775	.234	67	4,3
N166BK3	. 450	.780	.243	69	4,4
N166BK4	. 450	.708	.224	70	4,1
N166BK5	. 447	.800	.252	70	4.6
N166BK7	. 446	,740	.229	69	4.2
N166BK8	. 440	,744	.229	70	4.2
N166BK9	. 432	.762	.222	67	4.1
N166CK1	. 453	,542	.172	70	3.1
N166CK2	. 453	.680	.207	67	3.8
Avg.	. 451	. 721	. 221	68	4.0

Ten of the above molybdenum substrate cells were sent to the Lewis Research Center of NASA for evaluation and thermal cycling. Information on the performance of these cells at NASA is not yet available. Two cells were placed on Clevite's high temperature vacuum storage test at 150°C. These gave degradation effects comparable to plastic substrate cells on the same test with the degradation being characterized by loss of fill factor due probably to an increase in series resistance. The remaining cells have been placed on laboratory shelf storage.

F. Tin Plated Electrode Tabs

The gold plated electrode tabs have given good tarnish resistance and make an excellent appearance. They are not completely satisfactory however, especially on the negative electrode tab, since the gold tends to go into solution in the hot melted solder during soldering operations. Also, it is understood that gold can form a crystalline phase layer next to lead-tin solder which under some conditions leads to a greatly weakened bond strength. Thus gold plating is to be avoided where highly reliable solder joints are required.

Therefore, experiments were carried out with a tin-plated electrode in place of the gold. Tin has good tarnish resistance also, and of course is readily soldered. The tin was applied by standard brush plating techniques over a brush plated copper flash coating. There was no difficulty in fabricating cells with the tin plated tabs, nor is any difficulty foreseen in production.

Cell outputs and cell yields do not seem to be affected nor is there any reason that they should be. A total of 27 full size standard cells were fabricated with tin plated negative and positive electrode tabs and submitted to the Lewis Research Center of NASA for evaluation. One of these was included in the Boeing thermal cycling tests described earlier in this report.

From the NASA point of view these cells appeared to be equivalent in all respects to the cells with gold plated tabs, but there appeared to them to be no reason for switching the standard construction to the tin plating at this time.

G. Alternate Pigments in Substrate Conductive Layer

Several alternate pigments have been evaluated in place of silver in the silver Pyre-ML conductive layer on the Kapton substrate. Aluminum was evaluated since it could make an ohmic contact to CdS and

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thus eliminate the need for an interlayer, and also would be a good conductor and more economical than silver. Copper was tried also, since solid copper substrates had previously yielded very high efficiency cells. In both cases flake shaped pigment particles were obtained and evaluated.

The copper flake pigment appeared to catalyze the Pyre-ML resin binder and cause it to start curing too soon - even in the spray gun. DuPont confirms that a copper pigment would have this effect and advises that it not be used.

The aluminum flake pigment caused no difficulty with curing of the resin, but unfortunately gave very high resistance coatings. This is due presumably to the oxide coating on the aluminum flake particles making low resistance contacts between particles most difficult. A similar experience was reported by DuPont.

A silver plated copper powder pigment was received from the Burgess Battery Company and evaluated as a possible lower cost pigment for the conductive substrate coating. This powder was not of the flake variety and settled out of the Pyre-ML very quickly, thus complicating the task of spraying the Kapton substrates. However, there was no catalytic action of the silver plated copper powder on the Pyre-ML resin as there was found to be with the unplated copper pigment. Thus, there is some hope that a silver plated copper flake pigment might be suitable.

V FABRICATION PROCESS IMPROVEMENTS

A. Substrate Preparation

1. Spray Process Changes

Infrared thermographs as well as visual observation have disclosed wide variations in the evenness of the silver Pyre-ML layer which forms the conductive substrate. These variations have been well associated with unevenness of application during the spray process. Several changes were introduced, therefore, in the spray process to reduce these effects. A guide was designed and installed in the spray hood to ensure constant distance from the spray nozzle to the substrate and to ensure even traverse of the spray pattern across the substrate. A timer was installed to pace the operator and thus to control the rate of traverse.

These steps have given markedly more uniform substrates and have also resulted in lower sheet resistances without any change in

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the composition or thickness of the conductive layer. Sheet resistance of the silver Pyre-ML layer has been decreased to less than 0.01 ohms per square in most cases.

In the regular silver Pyre-ML spray process it has been found that the removal of the D.M.F. solvent prior to curing of the Pyre-ML is very critical. Slight variations in the process frequently can lead to incomplete solvent removal and to poor adherence. The conditions necessary to ensure complete solvent removal are being studied in greater detail.

2. Control of Silver Pigment Quality

Difficulties with pinholes in the silver Pyre-ML conductive layer on the Kapton substrate, and with poor spraying conditions of the thinned mixture, have caused much scrap at various times and poor quality cells. One of the causes of the difficulties has been found to be unusually high levels of iron contamination in the silver flake pigment. Iron particles cause discontinuities in the cured silver Pyre-ML layer and irregularities in the zinc plating.

As a result it has been necessary to remove iron contamination from the silver flake pigment prior to use. This is done by one or more passes through a magnetic separator.

3. Alternate Silver Pyre-ML Material

A preliminary trial has been carried out of DuPont's 449-6291R Silver Pyre-ML conductive varnish as an alternate material for the conductive layer on our substrate. It was applied to Kapton substrates by spraying, using the thinners recommended by the manufacturer.

The coatings had excellent appearance, and resistivities about one third the level obtained with the present standard process silver Pyre-ML coating. These coatings could be soldered readily without the use of additional electroplated coatings as are needed at present. However, the adherence of this coating was not satisfactory. The coatings would not pass the Scotch tape test. This may be due to the thinner used, as similar thinners used with our present standard coating material also yielded poor adhesion. Further consultations with the supplier and additional evaluations of this material are indicated.

4. Roll-Coated Silver Pyre-ML Coatings

Cells have been fabricated from Kapton substrates which were coated with silver Pyre-ML applied by an outside vendor by a

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conventional roll coating process in place of the standard process where this coating is applied by spraying. Unfortunately, the resistivities of the roll-coated substrates were very much higher than normally experienced. These ran between 0.05 and 0.06 ohms/square, as compared with about 0.008 ohms/square via the standard process.

The higher resistance resulted partly from a thinner coating and partly from less silver pigment being incorporated in these roll-coated samples, as evidenced by a much lower optical density. It seems probable that much of the silver pigment settled out of the varnish in the vendor's roll coating equipment. However, the samples did exhibit a far more homogeneous and even appearance than any substrates that have been seen in this laboratory so far, and the thin pigment condition can probably be corrected on subsequent trials.

A number of cells that were successfully fabricated gave outputs comparable to the control cells - in spite of the much higher sheet resistance of the roll-coated substrates. The data on these are presented in Table XXI. The fill factors on all of these cells were low. This was probably partly because of the higher resistance of the substrates - but also partly due to copper precipitation during barrier formation (at flaws in the CdS films) that was experienced during this experiment.

From these data there is reason to hope that the roll-coating process can be developed to yield a much more satisfactory substrate than the present spray process.

TABLE XXI

ROLL-COATED VS SPRAYED SILVER PYRE-ML SUBSTRATE CELLS (Tested at 25°C in equivalent AM1 Sunlight)

<u>Cell No.</u>	Process	<u>OCV</u>	SCC	Vmp	Imp	Max. Pwr.	% Fill	% Eff.
H873B1 H873A2 H873B2 H874B2	roll-coated " "	.452 .468 .458 .458	.990 1. 0 30 1.020 1.055	. 330 . 345 . 333 . 315	.810 .865 .858 .838	. 268 . 298 . 286 . 266	59.9 62.0 61.3 55.1	4.9 5.5 5.2 4.9
H873C1 H873C2 H873C3	sprayed	. 455 . 452 . 460	.938 .970 .820	. 352 . 349 . 358	.760 .810 .630	. 268 . 282 . 226	63.0 64.3 59.9	4,9 5.2 4.1

B. Grid Contacting

1. Grid Quality Problems

The photochemically etched copper metal mesh grid is an essential component of the present high efficiency CdS thin film solar cell. The design of the grid originally was such that the average grid wire width was 0.001" with 60 such wires per inch yielding an overall transmission of 91%. The process for making this grid involves the use of a photo resist which is removed by loosening in a solvent and brushing from the grid wires. In production this has resulted in many broken grid wires which detract from the appearance of the cells.

In order to obtain better yields of usable grids and to keep the cost of these grids from becoming prohibitively expensive, it was necessary to open the specifications of the grid wire width to an average of 0.0020". This had the effect of dropping light transmission to the range of 82 - 85%, with of course a comparable loss of output from the cells.

A number of firms active in the field of photochemical etching were contacted in an effort to obtain a second source of supply for this critical item and in hopes of obtaining a higher quality grid at a more economical price level. Encouraging responses have been obtained in several cases and some evaluations of grids from two additional vendors have been carried out in this period. Initially, the same photographic masters and the same rolled copper foil were supplied to these possible alternate vendors in order to obtain grids that could be directly compared with those from the present vendor.

These evaluations are continuing. In one case, the grids are yielding light transmission of 86 - 87%. In the other case, the transmissions have been running as high as 89%. Since the grids are made from the same photographic master in each case, there must be differences in the etching process for the different manufacturers with more undercutting of the photo resist mask to give higher transmission.

The standard fabrication process uses photochemically etched copper grids obtained from one vendor. These grids are inspected when received for cleanliness, thickness, light transmission, and freedom from broken wires and are then given a cleaning and gold plating in our laboratory. This tends to be a wasteful process because the grids may tarnish or become contaminated by handling, etc. between the time they are etched by the manufacturer and gold plated in our laboratory.

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The purpose of the gold plating is as an extra precaution against bare copper coming into contact with the Cu_2S barrier layer if the gold epoxy cement should be thin or locally not present during the gridding step. It was realized that the grids are essentially clean when they are removed from the etching process, and that this would be the ideal time to apply the gold plating before they could become oxidized, stained or otherwise contaminated.

The manufacturer has been willing to do this operation for us, at costs below what could be done here - even without the poorer yields that are obtained by us. Therefore, a quantity of these grids were obtained from the vendor already gold plated by him to the same thickness specifications and done by the same plating conditions, baths, etc. as per our standard practice.

These grids were inspected on receipt and were found to be definitely of better all-round quality than the normal unplated grids. The gold plating probably does protect the grids during shipment, and probably does go on more uniformly on freshly etched grids. Therefore, arrangements have been made to have the gold plating of the grids done by the vendor who fabricates them.

2. Alternate Conductive Cements

In an effort to obtain a more economical, and possibly a higher quality, conductive gold epoxy cement for grid attachment, a number of vendors were solicited and several different cements were obtained for evaluation. DuPont submitted two samples for testing and the results of cells fabricated with these cements are given in Table XXII.

Best results were obtained with DuPont's 7728 adhesive, though an initial test of this cement on a glass slide had appreciably poorer adhesion than the present standard process gold-epoxy cement. The cells listed in Table XXII were all finished with Mylar cover plastics. The cell outputs were all lower than they should have been - including the standard process cells used as controls. Also, the scatter of the data was disappointingly large. However, the DuPont 7728 clearly gave cells with higher open circuit voltages, higher fill factors and higher efficiencies.

TABLE XXII EVALUATION OF DUPONT GOLD-EPOXY GRID CEMENTS

<u>Cement</u> DuPont 7728	Cell No. N263A1 N263A2 N267B1 N267B2 N267C1 N267C2 Avg	OCV . 459 . 450 . 460 . 461 . 440 . 443 . 452	<u>SCC</u> . 706 . 740 . 840 . 819 . 738 . 780 . 770	Fill 70.8 69.3 70.1 68.9 66.0 67.5 68.7	Eff. 4.2 4.2 4.9 4.7 3.9 4.3 4.4	<u>Remarks</u> Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok
DuPont 5780	N264B1 N264B2 N267A5 N267B4 N267B8 N267C4	$\begin{array}{c} .\ 453 \\ .\ 440 \\ .\ 435 \\ .\ 450 \\ .\ 440 \\ .\ 439 \end{array}$.801 .640 .635 .782 .719 .880	70.3 71.1 70.0 70.7 66.5 67.0	$\begin{array}{c} 4.7\\ 3.7\\ 3.5\\ 4.5\\ 3.8\\ 4.7 \end{array}$	Gold smeared Gold smeared Gold smeared Gold smeared Gold smeared Gold smeared
Standard	Avg N267B5 N267B6 N267B9 N267C3 N267C3 N267C5 Avg	.443 .441 .449 .438 .458 .430 .443	.743 .835 .809 .742 .780 .862 .806	69.3 66.8 66.2 65.6 60.6 58.0 63.4	4.2 4.5 4.4 3.9 4.0 4.0 4.2	Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok Grid ok

(Tested at 25°C in equivalent AM1 Sunlight)

This cement has a finer sized gold pigment and this may make it less likely to be pressed through the Cu_2S layer during gridding to cause shunting paths - if this is indeed what does occur with the present material. Also, the 7728 cement is quite a lot lower in cost. A larger scale trial of this cement is indicated from these data - particularly at such time as the standard process is yielding what has come to be considered more representative results.

Table XXIII gives the results of two other gold cements that were obtained. Both Epoxy Technology Company's #441 gold epoxy cement and Dynaloy Company's #412 gold epoxy cement gave cells of definitely inferior quality to the present standard process material, though it is not clear that this was the fault of the cements. These materials clearly did give lower output cells, and it is evident that considerable further effort would be required before either of these materials could be used in lieu of the present cement.

TABLE XXIII

EVALUATION OF OTHER CONDUCTIVE EPOXY CEMENTS

<u>Cement</u> Epoxy Tech. #441	Cell No. N285AK5 N285BK4 N285BK5 N285CK1 N285CK4 N285CK4 N286CK2	OCV . 450 . 417 . 410 . 451 . 450 . 454	$\frac{SCC}{, 640}, 660, 683, 586, 579, 646$	<u>Fill</u> 66.0 65.0 -	Eff. 3.5 3.1 3.3 3.0 3.0 3.2	Remarks Voids Voids Voids Voids Voids Voids Voids
	Avg	. 439	.632	19 -	3.2	
Dynaloy #412	N285AK7 N285AK8 N285BK6 N285CK5 N286CK5 N286CK7	. 443 . 439 . 410 . 440 . 449 	.600 .560 .595 .598 .619 shorted	68.7 - 69.0	3. 3 3. 1 3. 0 3. 2 3. 5 $-$	Voids Voids Voids
	Avg	. 436	.584		3.2	
Standard	N285BK7 N285BK8 N286CK1 N285CK2 N285CK6 N286CK8 Avg	. 427 . 420 . 456 . 450 . 458 . 443 . 442	.712 .783 .674 .681 .661 .701 .702	65,9 66,4 68.9 70.1 69.2 67.4 68,0	3.7 4.0 3.9 3.9 3.8 3.8 3.8 3.8	ok ok ok ok ok

(Tested at 25°C in equivalent AM1 Sunlight)

3. Fluorescent Dye in Gold Epoxy Cement

More extended trials have been carried out using a fluorescent dye mixed into the gold epoxy cement used as a grid adhesive. The purpose of the dye is to facilitate inspection of the coated grids to ensure complete coverage and a more reliable grid contact,

Though this is a difficult matter to prove, the dye is believed to give better control over the adhesive coating on the grids and has reduced the time required to exercise adequate control over this important step in the fabrication process. There has been no indication of any deleterious effects from the use of the dye,

4. Low Pressure Gridding and Lamination

During the standard process for gridding, the grid with the gold epoxy cement applied to one surface is pressed down against the Cu_2S barrier layer by an aluminum foil diaphragm using tank nitrogen gas at 100 psi

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pressure on the top of the diaphragm and evacuating the under side. This pressure had been shown by workers at the Lewis Research Center to cause noticeable distortion of the polycrystalline CdS layer. It has been suspected as a cause of poor shunt characteristics of the finished cells. Similar pressure is applied to the cover plastic during application of the cover plastic and curing of the clear epoxy cement.

Considerable effort therefore was expended in attempting to fabricate cells with greatly reduced pressure during the gridding and laminating steps. A pressure of 10 psi (gauge) was selected as a reasonable pressure that should be adequate to hold the grid (and cover plastic) firmly in place during curing of the cement, and yet might not damage the cells - if indeed the 100 psi pressure was damaging the cells.

It was found that at the lower pressure a large number of voids were obtained in the cover plastic cement. Therefore a much thicker epoxy layer had to be applied to the cover plastic. However, other difficulties were then encountered, and apparently the lower pressure did not yield a low resistance contact between the grid and the Cu_2S layer. Most of the cells fabricated in this manner had short circuit currents, fill factors and efficiencies appreciably below standard practice.

Destructive examination of some of these cells disclosed a layer of insulating epoxy cement between the grids and the conductive gold epoxy cement. It is not known whether this resulted from the 10 psi pressure being inadequate to hold the grid down against the cell thus making it easier for the clear epoxy cement to work in between during the cover plastic lamination step, or whether in trying to eliminate the voids too thick a layer of clear epoxy cement was used. In any case, it is evident that a more extensive period of process parameter optimization would be needed before it could be ascertained whether the low pressure gridding and lamination processes were practical for standard fabrication.

A total of 9 of the better cells processed with the low pressure gridding and laminating steps were forwarded to NASA for evaluation and thermal cycling. As noted earlier, 3 of these were temperature cycled by Boeing and definitely gave results that were inferior to the standard higher pressure gridding and lamination. Additional tests were run at the Lewis Research Center of NASA and these results are in process of publication.

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C. Cover Plastic Lamination

1. Adhesive Thickness Control

As became evident during the experiments on low pressure gridding and laminating discussed above, the control of thickness of the clear epoxy cement used for cover plastic attachment can be critical. It has become increasingly evident that this item is one of the most important factors affecting the variability of cell outputs.

The cover plastic normally is coated with the clear epoxy cement by roll-coating by an outside vendor who specializes in this type of work. (The epoxy is in the B-stage form - that is, it dries tack-free and is cured by the use of high temperatures.) After inspection in our plant the coated cover plastic is sent out to another vendor where it is cut into individual pieces of the right size for single cells. The incoming inspection of the adhesive coated Kapton rolls has been confined to the accessible ends.

In view of the critical nature of the adhesive thickness it is beginning to appear that a variation of not more than ± 0.0005 " can be tolerated - a much more rigorous sampling and quality control procedure is required. Present practice involves extensive sampling on a destructive basis of the adhesive thickness of small batches of individual cell-sized pieces of cover plastic, combined with 100% inspection where indicated. The control process is further complicated by the fact that the Kapton plastic film thickness itself varies by more than the allowable variation of the adhesive thickness. The present methods leave much to be desired, and better techniques are necessary.

2. Silicone Cover Plastic Adhesive

A one mil thick Kapton tape was secured with a soft flexible silicone adhesive. The adhesive was 3 mils thick. Experiments were carried out in applying this material as the cover plastic of gridded cells. After some trials, methods of applying this tape to cells were evolved which gave good void-free and bubble-free packages. This cover plastic can be applied very readily to CdS cells. However, it does not provide a strongly adherent bond of the cover plastic comparable to what is obtained with the epoxy adhesive.

Cells with this silicone adhesive cover plastic attachment were fabricated for shelf storage, moisture tests and other tests to determine whether the design is promising enough to run thermal cycling

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tests, but no data are yet available.

3. Alternate Cover Plastic - Adhesive Combinations

A "Plasticmaster" Roller Laminator was purchased in order to evaluate the possible use of commercial lamination techniques and plastic-adhesive combinations. Several different cover plastic and cover plastic adhesives were evaluated using this equipment. The temperature of the lamination was held at about 200°C in each case. Table XXIV lists the combinations tried.

TABLE XXIV

EVALUATION OF VARIOUS MATERIALS ON ROLLER LAMINATOR

Type of Material	Adherence	Voids
Kapton 7361 Tape with Silicone Adhesive Kapton 7361 Tape with Silicone Adhesive and	Good	None
Primed Surface	Good	None
Mylar with "Permalam" Adhesive	Poor	None
Kapton Film with "B" Staged Epoxy Adhesive	None	Poor

The Kapton Mystic #7361 tape was 1 mil thick Kapton with 1 mil thick silicone resin adhesive. It was 3 inches wide and was tried using various backing sheets for the lamination including Teflon, cardboard, Mylar and Kapton. All of these gave good appearing laminations with little or no evidence of voids. However, the finished structures had little mechanical integrity and the Kapton tape would separate from the cells with a moderate shearing or peeling force in each case. The use of a primer on the gridded cell surface prior to application of the silicone adhesive coated Kapton tape did not improve this. The finished cells curled badly, since the silicone cover plastic adhesive does not exert a force to counterbalance the stresses of the thermal expansion mismatch between the CdS layer and the substrate.

The Mylar plastic with the thermoplastic "Permalam" adhesive gave very poor laminations as the adhesive apparently did not wet the cell surface and hence provided no adhesion. It may be that a different time-temperature combination might be practical with this material, but this did not evolve from the preliminary trials.

The Kapton plastic with the "B" staged epoxy adhesive gave the least acceptable package of all. This is the present material system and it is evident that the present 10 minute dwell time at temperature under pressure is essential to secure adherence. This much time is hardly practical with the roller laminator. When this combination was cured in the

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vacuum oven overnight, the adherence of the cover plastic was improved, but of course the voids remained.

The roller laminator is an attractive method for laminating large numbers of cells in production on a continuous basis. It is possible and even probable that different adhesives such as RTV silicones which will harden with time, or more viscous epoxies which will wet the cell surface and hold the package together until curing can be accomplished, will make this a practical production method. However, this appears to require more effort than can be presently spared, and hence further work on this technique is being postponed until a more favorable time.

4. Silicone Cover Plastic

Several samples of optical grade silicone rubbers were obtained from the Dow Corning Company and evaluated as possible cover plastics for CdS thin film solar cells. The samples were: XR-63-489, XR-63-488, XR-61-043-A, and XR-61-049. A primer, XR-63-466, was also obtained. All four rubbers had exceptional optical clarity. They were readily applied with a paint brush; they levelled easily and cured well to an even thickness coating.

Any one of these materials, if successful, would have the advantage of having the cover plastic act as its own adhesive so that only a single material layer would be needed. However, only poor adherence could be obtained from all four samples - even with the use of the primer. Severe cell curling resulted in all cases and it was evident that these silicone rubbers were not practical for this application.

5. Curing of Epoxy Cements

The gridding and laminating steps each consist of a short (10 to 20 minute) heating of the cells in a press to a temperature of 196°C, followed by an overnight (18 hours) annealing in a vacuum oven at 135°C to complete the cure. Difficulties have been experienced at times with overheating of the oven or with leakage of air into the oven. If the temperature does go too high (due to a relay sticking, for instance) then the output of the cells is usually reduced, and if a bad overshoot of temperature occurs, an entire day's production may be lost. Similarly, if the partial pressure of oxygen in the oven rises too high, the cell outputs suffer.

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It has not been practical to characterize the effects of too much temperature exposure or of too much oxygen during the overnight anneal, but there is no question that the effects are harmful. In the past year several difficulties with the vacuum ovens used were experienced and these did contribute to the higher scrap rate and to the number of lower output cells. Better equipment and better safeguards against equipment failure have subsequently been set up.

VI CELL TESTING

A. Effect of Series Resistance and Shunt Resistance

In order to facilitate the interpretation of cell degradation and to assign probable causes for such degradation, a number of cells were tested for I-V characteristics with deliberately added amounts of external series resistance and shunt resistance. Figure 16 shows the change in the I-V curve of a 6% cell with 0, 0.02, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 ohms inserted between the cell and test circuit. It is seen that the open circuit voltage stays fixed. The fill factor suffers with any series resistance and gets progressively worse. The short circuit current is not affected appreciably until the resistance exceeds about 0.2 ohms. The locus of the maximum power points curves in to the voltage axis at half of the open circuit voltage.

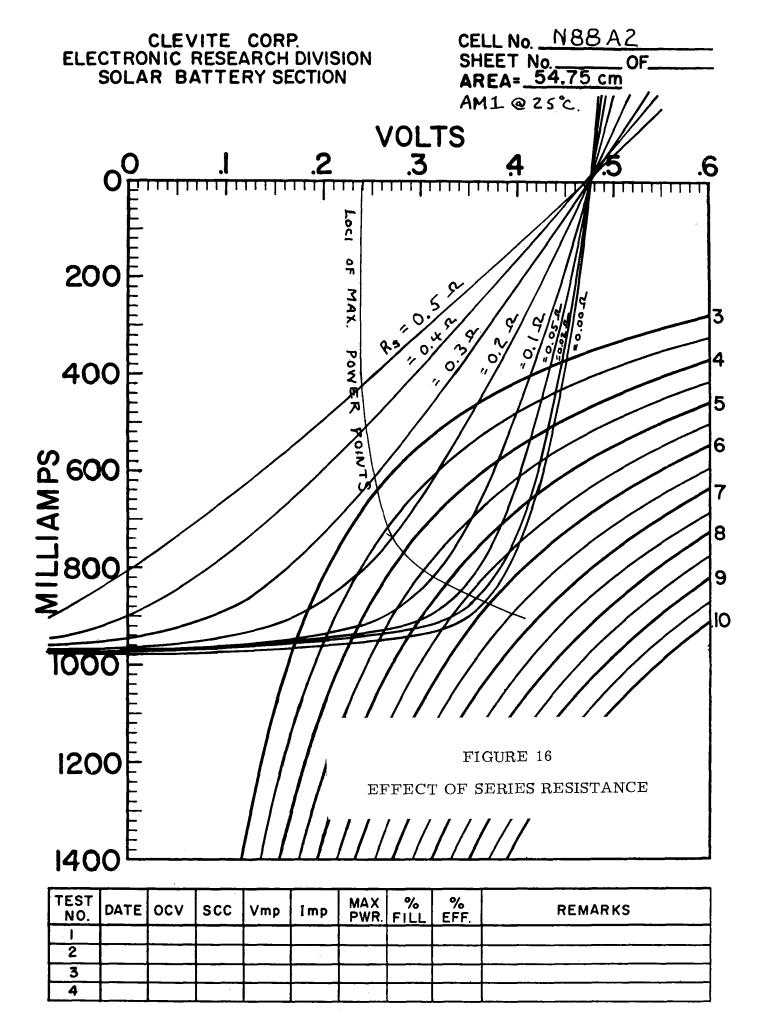
Figure 17 is a similar series of curves for various external shunt resistances connected across the cell. The values were 10, 5, 2, 1, 0.5, 0,2 and 0,1 ohms. The short circuit current remained fixed for all values of shunt resistance, and the open circuit voltage was reduced as the shunt path increased. The locus of the maximum power points is a curve as shown which intersects the current axis at half of the short circuit value.

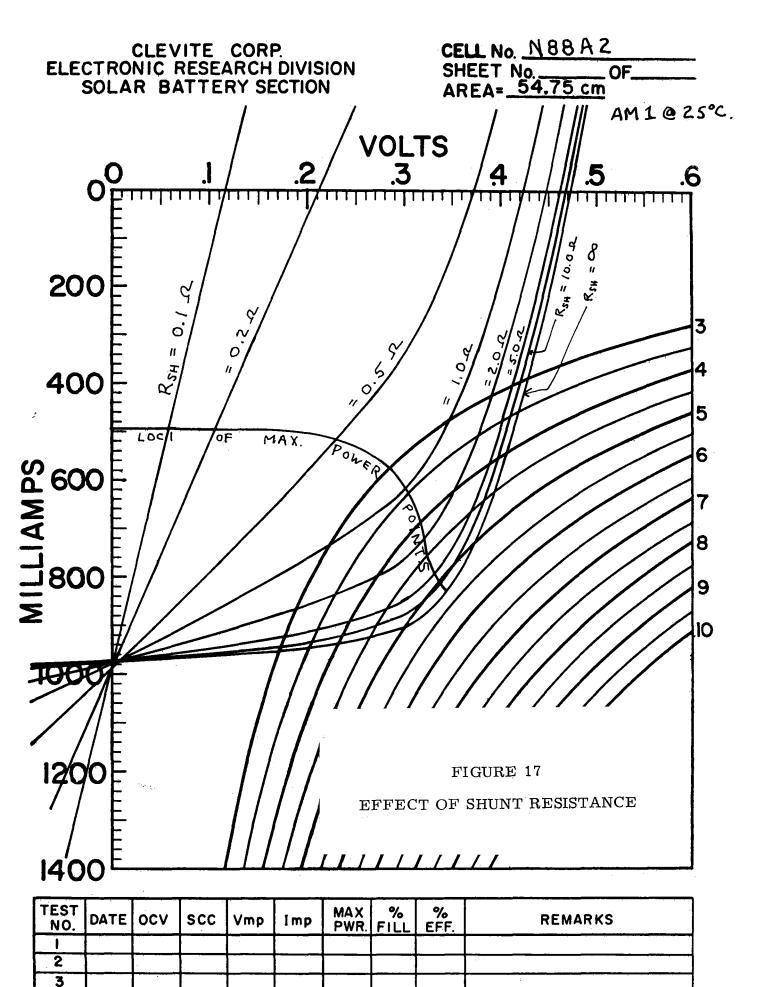
Figure 18 is similar data for a fixed series resistance of 0.2 ohms with a variable amount of shunt resistance. The effect is similar to straight shunting but with the intersection of the short circuit current points displaced in the negative voltage direction.

B. High Temperature Performance of Cells

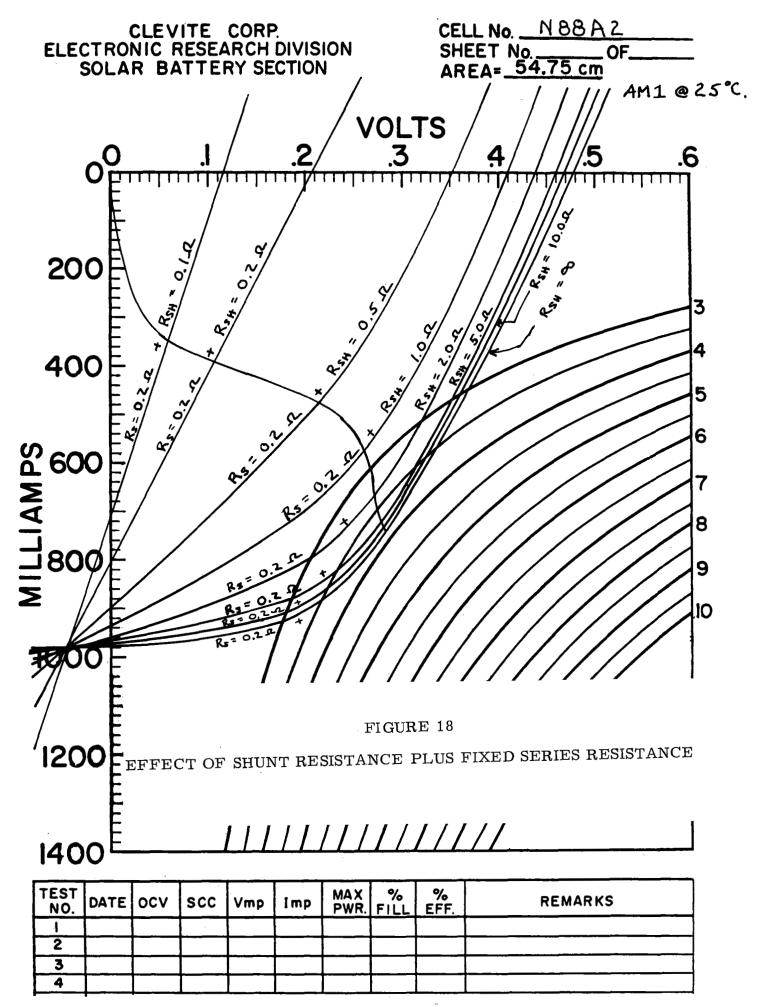
The I-V characteristics of 4 standard construction cells, including 2 cells that had degraded on temperature cycling and 1 cell that had degraded on high temperature storage, were measured at 10°C intervals from 25°C to 110°C in air and in vacuum. The purpose was to determine if there were differences in high temperature operation between degraded and nongraded cells.

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The fresh nondegraded cell, N110AK4, was a 4.6% efficiency cell. It exhibited very little loss in short circuit current up to 85°C and was down only 6% at 100°C. The open circuit voltage decreased uniformly up to about 85°C, as expected. Above 85°C the rate of decrease began to accelerate slowly. The I-V characteristic showed essentially no loss of squareness to 110°C.

Two temperature cycled cells returned from the Boeing Test were measured. These were cells N99AK5 and H106BK5. For these, the short circuit current decreased as the temperature was increased above 25° C, dropping at an increasing rate above 40° C. The short circuit current dropped by 5% between 85° and 90°C. At 100°C it was down 23% from the 25°C value. The cells showed appreciable loss of squareness of the I-V curve as temperature was increased. The efficiency, which was 4.4% at 25°C, dropped by 2/3 at 100°C.

The fourth cell, No. N84C3, had been stored for 6 weeks at 150°C, and had degraded from 5.0% to 2.5% on that test. Its open circuit voltage dropped with increasing temperature almost identically with the fresh undegraded cell, but its short circuit current began dropping immediately for a loss of 46% at 100°C. The squareness of the I-V curve was poor at 25°C, typical of heat degraded cells, and was virtually lost at 100°C.

Thus, a distinct difference was exhibited in the high temperature output of an undegraded (and presumed good) cell, a heat degraded cell, and two cells which had degraded on temperature cycling and then had recovered to nearly their original output level. The major differences were in the short circuit current and in the fill factors.

In an attempt to determine whether there were differences in the high temperature performance of standard process cells that might indicate major quality differences, a group of 58 standard process cells was measured at a temperature of 60 to 65°C, and the I-V curves compared with the 25°C measurements. In about 15 of the cells there were appreciable drops in the short circuit current and these were accompanied by varying drops in the fill factor with about 5 cells showing severe loss of fill. The current levels of the remaining cells did not change and the fill factors were also relatively unaffected.

Thus, there is some indication that something is wrong with cells which have poor performance characteristics (in short circuit current and fill factor) as the temperature is increased above room temperature.

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It is possible that they may contain incipient cracks or other flaws which might not have much effect on cell output initially but which might have such effect as the temperature is increased or as the cells are exposed to various other environmental extremes such as thermal cycling. This characteristic has therefore been used to screen out cells from the standard production line, when those cells might be expected to perform at elevated temperatures or even to be exposed to elevated temperatures prior to use. This practice was put into effect in March of 1968 and is believed to be the main reason for the better performance of cells on temperature cycling, etc., since that time.