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NET ENERGY ANALYSIS FOR SUSTAINABLE ENERGY PRODUCTION FROM SILICON BASED SOLAR CELLS

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ABSTRACT

A number of detailed studies on the energy requirements on the three types of photovoltaic (PV) materials, which make up the majority of the active solar market: single crystal, polycrystalline, and amorphous silicon were reviewed. It was found that modern PV cells based on these silicon technologies pay for themselves in terms of energy in a few years (1-5 years). They thus generate enough energy over their lifetimes to reproduce themselves many times (6-31 reproductions) depending on what type of material, balance of system, and the geographic location of the system. It was found that regardless of material, built-in PV systems are a superior ecological choice to centralized PV plants. Finally, the results indicate that efficiency plays a secondary role to embodied energy in the overall net energy production of modern solar cells

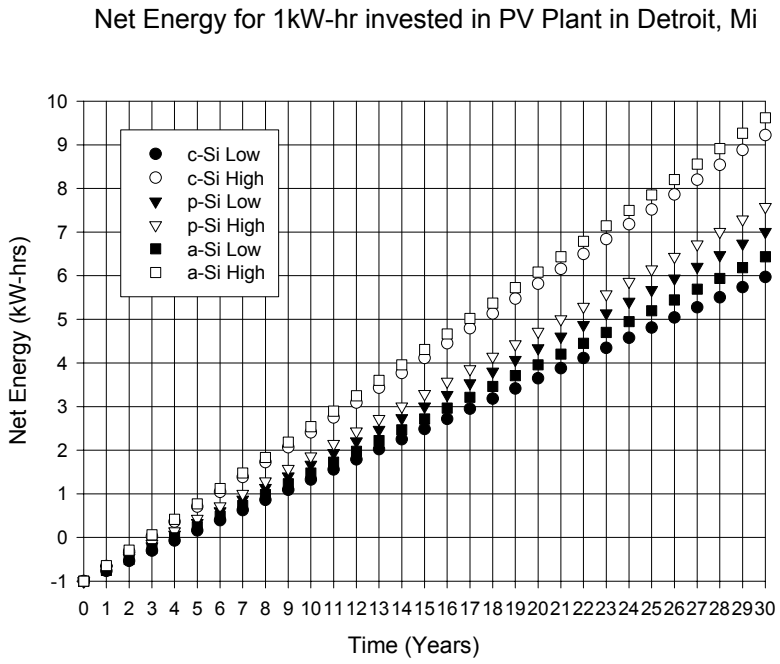
INTRODUCTION

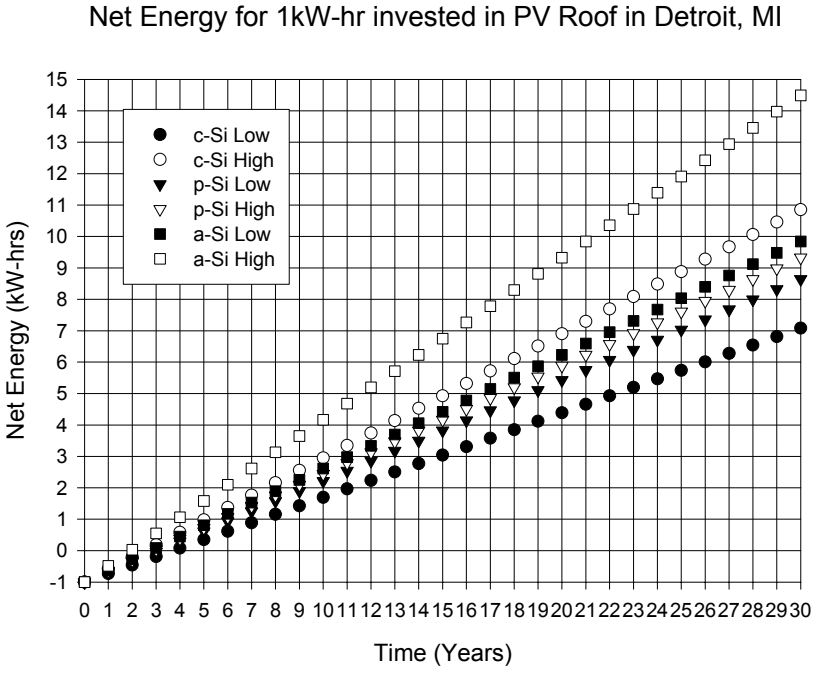
The negative environmental impacts of current patterns of energy use are well established. A large-scale alternative method of producing the vast quantities of energy needed to maintain contemporary society's standard of living is essential. This energy system must be sustainable - energy must be harvested by a means, which does not prevent future generations from access to our standard of living. Thus a sustainable energy system must fulfill three criteria: 1) produce more energy over its lifetime than used to produce the system; 2) not deplete a natural resource over time; and 3) not create by-products which have a negative effect on society or the environment.

In order to determine true sustainability, all energy technologies should undergo a comprehensive life cycle analysis (LCA). LCA is a means of quantifying how much energy and raw material are used and how much (solid, liquid, and gaseous) waste is generated at each stage of a product's life. Ideally an LCA would include quantification of material and energy needed for: raw material extraction, manufacturing of all components, use requirements, generation (if any), end of use (disposal or recycling), and the distribution/transportation in between each stage. Complete LCA's are difficult to perform on PV because it is an emerging technology whose fabrication is constantly undergoing improvements, it has not been around long enough for recycling or disposal to become established, and each installation must be quantified individually. Net energy analysis is less complicated because energy consumption data is more reliable (often metered for individual processes).

ANALYSIS

A number of detailed studies on the energy requirements of the three types of PV materials which make up the majority of the active solar market: crystalline silicon (c-Si), polycrystalline (p-Si), and amorphous silicon (a-Si) were reviewed [1-15]. Based on this review of available data a working estimate of the energy inputs for the three technologies was established as shown in table 1. All energies given in MJ in the studies were converted to kW-hrs assuming 35% conversion efficiency for fossil fuel plants following Alsema [13]. Note that if solar cells were used to produce themselves this conversion would be unnecessary and payback times would decrease. Then with energy conversion efficiencies of modules in production (as shown in table 1) [16,17] the representation of the net energy was graphically simplified by plotting lifetime against the net energy output from a solar PV system. The plots (Figures 1, 2, and 3) have been generated to compare the three technologies by first determining the net energy per unit area at a given time, then normalized to 1kW-hr of electrical energy invested by dividing by the input energy for each technology. When a plot of the given system passes the origin of the net energy axis it has paid for the energy invested in it (this is often referred to as the payback period).





Figures 1a and 1b

Table 1. Comparing Solar Cell Materials			
Solar cell material	Crystalline silicon	Polycrystalline silicon	Amorphous silicon
Embodied energy (kW-hrs/m^2)	553	407	116
Energy Conversion Efficiency (%)	15-22	14-15	7-10

The effects on the net energy of the three systems for both the high and low efficiency cases in production, for geographic locations (input solar fluxes), and balance of systems (BOS) are analyzed. Figure 1 shows the data for Detroit, MI representing a low solar flux location in the U.S. (1,202 kW-hrs/m^2/year), Figure 2 for a roughly average flux in Boulder, CO (1,974 kW-hrs/m^2/year), and Figure 3 for a high flux location of Phoenix, AZ (2,480 kW-hrs/m^2/year) [12,18]. The two types of BOS analyzed were central power plants (a) and roof integrated built-in PV (BIPV) (b) systems. The embodied energy for type (a) was 179 kW-hrs/m^2 and for (b) was 38.8 kW-hrs/m^2 [12].

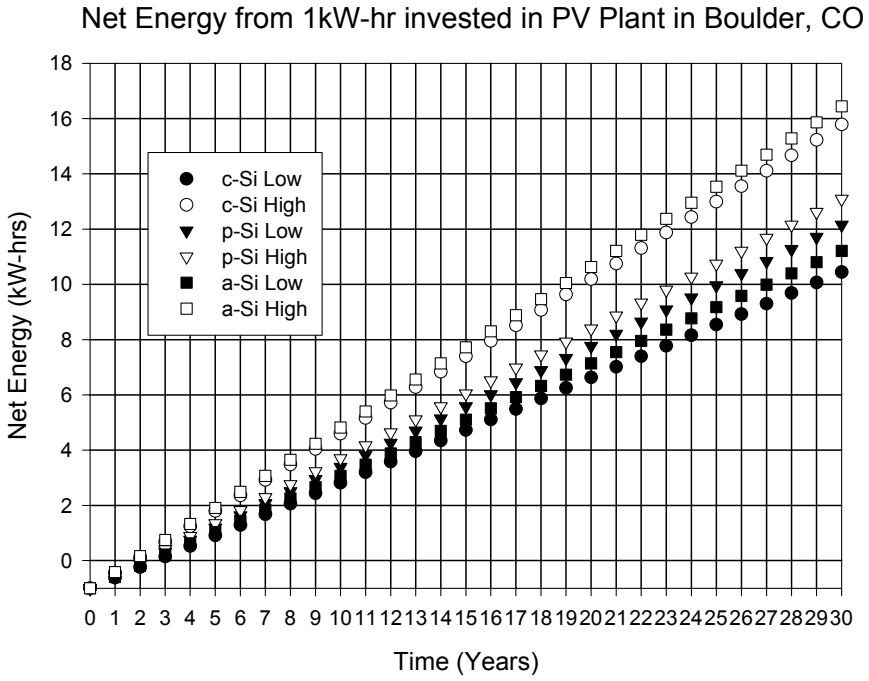
RESULTS

It is readily apparent from Figures 1-3 that all silicon based solar cells in any type of design and placed anywhere in the U.S. will pay for themselves in terms of energy over their lifetime. This is counter to the resilient myth that solar cells will never be viable because they cannot ever make up for their embodied energy. This myth started with an analysis of very early cells [19] and continues today because of the confusion generated by the economically based "emergy" analysis [20]. The payback time ranges from about 1 year for BIPV installations in Phoenix made from high efficiency a-Si (Fig. 3b) to nearly 5 years for low efficiency c-Si in a centralized power plant located in Detroit (Fig. 1a). The fact that devices constructed from the second most abundant element in the Earth's crust can payback the energy used in their fabrication in under five years make silicon based solar cells an extremely attractive major source of energy. In the thirty-year lifetime looked at here Si based solar cells will produce between 6 and 31 times the amount of energy used to produce them (Fig. 1a and 3b).

From a sustainability perspective a network of PV arrays fabricated into building shells (type b) are preferable to large centralized PV electrical generation plants (type a). As can be seen by comparing a and b of Figures 1, 2, and 3 at any illumination intensity a built-in PV (BIPV) system both pays for itself faster in terms of energy and produces far more energy over it lifetime than a centralized power plant. This is because the balance of system (BOS) for a centralized PV power plant contains more than three times the embodied energy of BIPV array of the same area [12]. The embodied energy in conventional roofing material or building cladding can also be subtracted from the embodied energy in BIPV arrays. It is a sub-optimal use of energy and natural resources to begin building centralized PV plants until all the existing and future available surface areas (roofs, building facades, carports, sound barriers, etc.) are saturated with solar cells. BIPV systems also benefit from the fact that the power generation is located at the load so transmission losses are reduced. Finally, the ecological cost of dedicating land solely to power production is eliminated. As population and sprawl reduce the arable land area per person this ecological cost will become progressively larger and more important.

This study clearly demonstrates that the net energy production over the lifetime of a cell is the figure of merit for the use of PV as an energy source yet there is a disproportionate and prevailing interest in the energy conversion efficiency of solar cells. Efficiency is the electrical power output divided by the solar power input. However, this simple equation is complicated by the fact that efficiency is effected both by the magnitude of solar flux, the uniformity of that flux, and the temperature. Because of this solar cells are compared at "standard conditions"- global AM1.5 spectrum (1000 W/m^2) at 25°C. Unfortunately, this gives an unrealistic picture of solar energy conversion for **all** cells in real life conditions. Both c-Si and p-Si increase in efficiency as the temperature goes down (~0.4%/^{o}C). Thus, their operation in the field is likely to be less than their rated efficiencies because arrays will often operate at temperatures over 40^{o}C and in some cases as high as 80^{o}C [21]. This also means that in the design of a c-Si or p-Si systems it is best if they are cooled in some manner (whether passively by offsetting them from the roof, or actively as part of a dual generation system where both heat and electricity are produced [22]).

On the other hand, the performance of a-Si cells actually increases with temperature. Although a-Si undergoes the same reason for a physical decrease as its crystalline cousins- it also has the effects of light induced degradation. Although the efficiency of a-Si technology has increased dramatically in the last 25 years in continues to be plagued by light induced degradation also known as the Staebler-Wronski effect (SWE). Although a 'cure' for SWE has not been found - the effect has been decreased significantly by the addition of hydrogen during deposition, engineering thinner cells which degrade less, use of microcrystalline (which does not degrade) tandem junctions, and finally control of the growth in the "protocrystalline" regime [23]. The combination of these efforts has yielded a degraded steady state (an efficiency that once reached after ~100 hours of AM1.5 illumination will degrade negligibly afterwards [24,25]), which is generally 10% lower than its initial efficiency (an 11% efficient cell will degrade ~10%). As the temperature at which a-Si is exposed to light increases, the magnitude of the light induced degradation decreases. Thus a-Si solar cell degradation in the field is much less than at 25^{o}C because of higher operating temperatures that reduce contact resistance, increase collection length, and increase thermal annealing [21]. In addition, the design of an a-Si PV system can enhance this positive effect further by purposely increasing the operating temperature of the a-Si PV by insulating the modules.



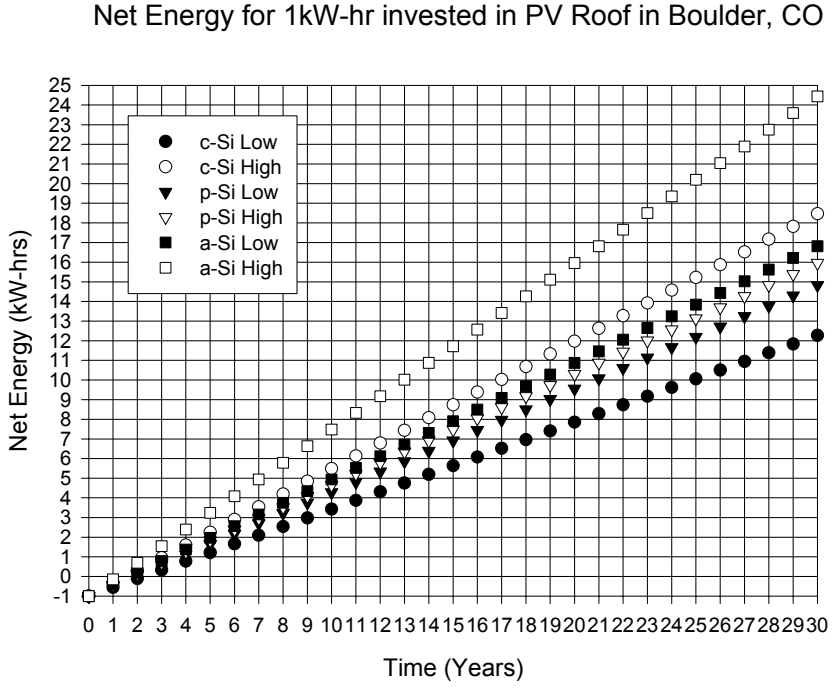
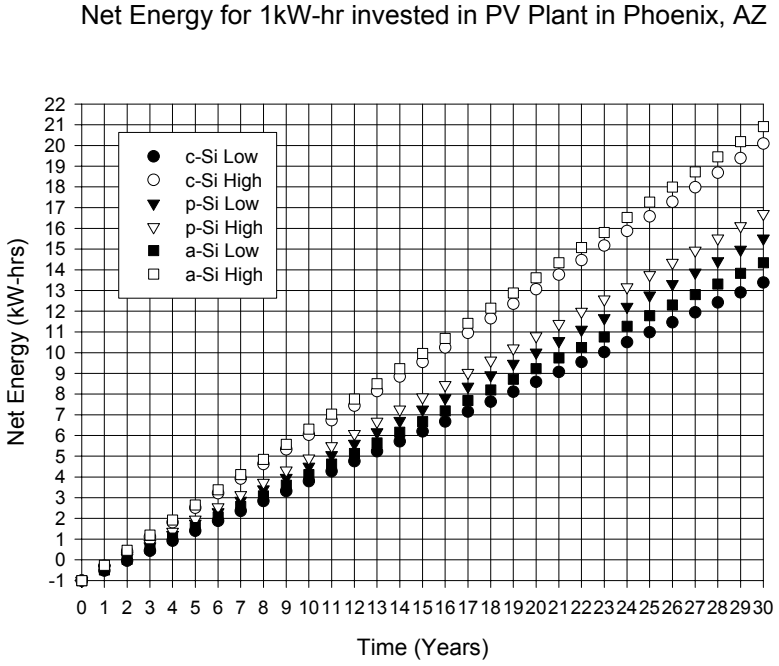


Fig. 2 a and b



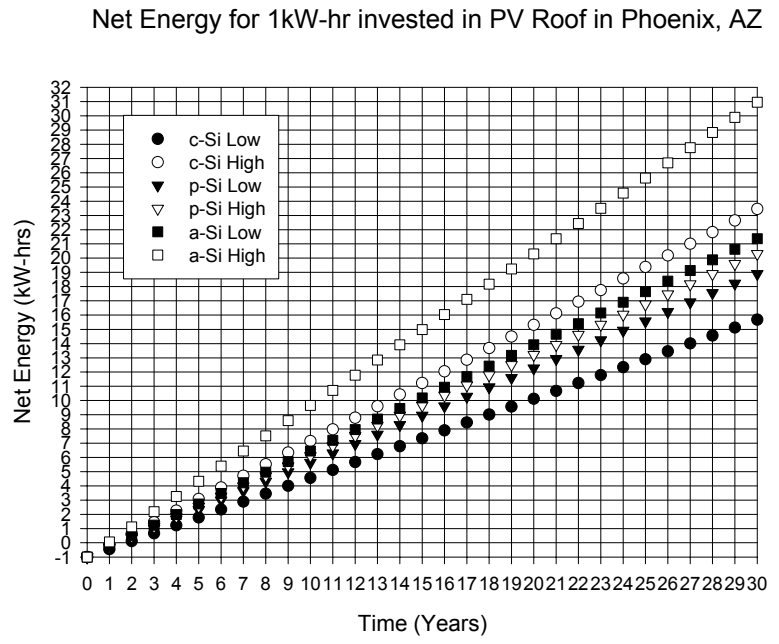


Fig. 3 a and b

Even banning SWE, the efficiency of any solar cell is thus elastic - with the efficiency varying depending both on the season and on the weather. The efficiency is important because it effects the slope of the line in the figures - as the efficiency increases so does the net energy for all conditions. However, from a sustainability perspective efficiency comes second to net energy because in some cases a more efficient cell will have a lower net energy over the same lifetime as a less efficient cell because of the energy needed to produce it. It is only valid to compare two solar cells by efficiency when they are made using the same fabrication process (i.e. comparing two c-Si solar cells using different optical enhancement techniques that have the same embodied energy).

CONCLUSIONS

Clearly the modern photovoltaic cells based on silicon technologies including c-Si, p-Si, and a-Si all pay for themselves in terms of energy in a few years (1-5 years). They thus generate enough energy over their lifetimes to reproduce themselves many times (6-31 reproductions) depending on what type of material, BOS, and location. It was found that regardless of material, BIPV is a superior ecological choice to centralized PV plants. Finally, the results in this paper indicate that efficiency plays a secondary role to embodied energy in the overall net energy production of modern solar cells.

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