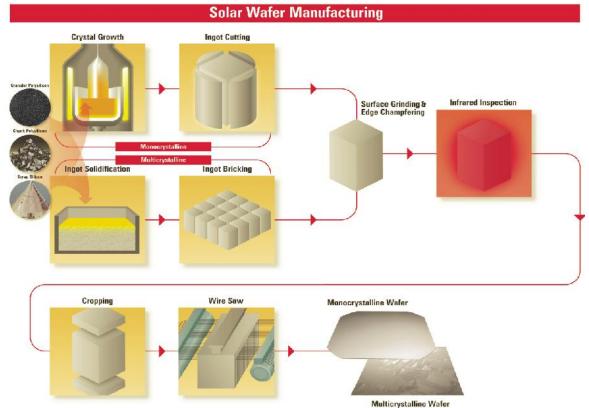
	Review article
No	on-destructive Microcracks Detection
	Techniques in Silicon Solar Cell
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Department of p	hysics, Aljouf University, Sakaka 2014, Aljouf, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
ABSTRACT	
	nd and limited stock of fossil fuels, renewable energy in very
cells. The impacts o been studied in th current, electrolun	nts the nondestructive optical testing techniques for the solar of microcracks in solar cells as well as photovoltaic modules have is paper. Laser beam induced current, electron beam induced ninescence and photoluminescence are mainly discussed paper. All the aforementioned methods will be reviewed,
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cells. The impacts of been studied in the current, electrolum techniques in this highlighting some of completion and thom size detection of mid <i>Keywords: LBIC, EBI</i> 1. INTRODUCTION Due to the high cost energy sources got f energy resources suc run out. Solar energy solar cell. Solar cell of study we are focusing silicon wafer is a larg silicon raw material polycrystalline silicon manufacturers are s 100µm or less [2]. Fig saw technology is be	f microcracks in solar cells as well as photovoltaic modules have is paper. Laser beam induced current, electron beam induced pinescence and photoluminescence are mainly discussed paper. All the aforementioned methods will be reviewed, of their salient characteristics including merits and demerits. For roughness, some image processing techniques for the shape and cro-cracks will also be discussed

35 productivity while minimizing the breakage problem in the wafer. In addition to the reduction 36 of the thickness, wafer's manufacturers are also increasing the size of the wafer in order to 37 reduce the overall production cost. Solar wafers of size up to 210 mm × 210 mm square

38 shaped are now available in the current market.

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Fig. 1. Typical process flow in the production of crystalline silicon wafers [2]

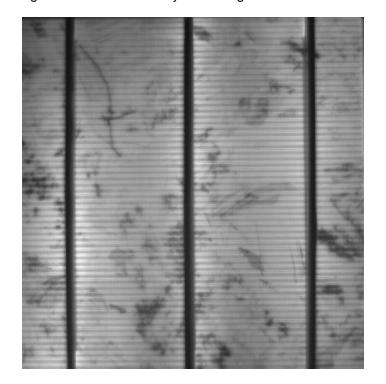
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43 These technological trends in the production make wafer handling more challenging as the processes can potentially reduce the yield due to increased wafer and cell breakage. 44 Typically, the handling or mishandling may lead to some physical defects in the wafer like 45 cracks or scratches. These cracks may vary from macro level to micro level, generally, the 46 cracks of width of order less than 100 µm are considered as micro-cracks. Both 47 48 polycrystalline and mono crystalline solar wafer/cell occasionally contains micro-cracks. 49 Figure 2 illustrates example of the polycrystalline solar wafer with micro-crack. This figure 2 50 shows micro-crack which has been indicated by an arrow symbol. Low gray level and high 51 gradient magnitudes are two main features for the micro-cracks in solar wafers. Due to its 52 size, naturally this type of defect cannot be seen by naked eyes. Consequently, this may 53 result in the production of inferior quality solar panels if this defect in solar wafers or cells goes undetected. In worst case the cell might even fail and this leads to the potentially 54 malfunctioned photovoltaic (PV) modules [3-26]. Also, it can be seen from the figure 2, the 55 picture of the polycrystalline solar wafer shows multiple grains of different shapes and sizes, 56 therefore it is very hard to differentiate between micro-crack and grain boundary by simple 57 machine vision learning. So it is important to develop an inspection system for the detection 58 59 and evaluation of such a defect. Preferably, such a system should be non-contact in order to ensure the surface and subsurface integrity of silicon wafers is preserved before and after 60 61 assessment, and from the start of the production process till completion [4]. The main 62 objective of this paper is to review some of the well-known and emerging technologies for

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63 micro-crack detection of solar wafers. Some of the salient features of these methods are 64 identified and critically discussed; aiming to provide useful guidance to new and existing 65 researchers wishing to venture into this very interesting research area.

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Fig. 2. Example of polycrystalline solar wafer with micro-crack

71 2. MICRO-CRACK INSPECTION IN SOLAR WAFERS/CELLS

72 To-date various researchers have experimented various methods and techniques for the detection of micro-crack in solar wafers and solar cells. The most common methods that 73 have been investigated include the laser beam induced current (LBIC) [5-8], the electron 74 75 beam induced current (EBIC) [9-11], the optical testing such as the photoluminescence [12-76 14] the electroluminescence imaging [15]. In this paper, all the aforementioned methods will be reviewed, highlighting some of their salient characteristics including merits and demerits. 77 For completion and thoroughness, some image processing techniques for the shape and 78 79 size detection of micro-cracks will also be discussed.

80 2.1 Laser Beam Induced Current (LBIC)

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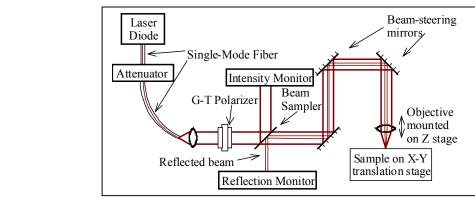
82 LBIC is a non-destructive optical testing for the characterization of semiconductors [16-17]. The basic LBIC system setup is shown in figure 3. As shown in this figure, the light source is 83 selected from laser diodes of different wavelengths between 638 and 850 nm, and an 84 electrical current to the laser diode is electronically modulated to produce an AC laser beam, 85 86 and the modulation also provides the reference signal for a lock-in amplifier. When a light 87 beam is scanned over the surface of a photosensitive device, it creates electron-hole pairs 88 in the semiconductor causing a the dc current to flow which in turn measured using suitable 89 devices [5-8]. Such measurements are repeated for different position of the laser beam to 90 obtain LBIC image of the sample. The variations in the current are recorded and converted into variation in contrast forming the LBIC image. More variation in the current indicates that 91

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92 the cell will be more defected. In a typical set-up, the LBIC technique consists of a calibrated 93 measurement of current and reflection coefficient. This information allows the internal 94 quantum efficiency (IQE) of the solar cell is assessed [18]. The IQE is defined as the fraction 95 of incident photons transmitted into the solar cell that contribute in the generation of electron-96 hole pairs. Mathematically it is given by [19]:

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$$IQE = \frac{1}{1-R} \left[\frac{h \ c \ I_{sc}}{e \ \lambda \ I_{L}} \right]$$
(1)

where *R* is reflection coefficient, *h* is Planck's constant, *c* is velocity of light, *e* is electron charge, λ is wavelength of the illuminating light, I_{SC} is measured short circuit current and I_L is intensity of the illuminated light. The quantum efficiency is the photon to electron conversion efficiency of the solar cell. Hence, lesser the efficiency of the cell indicates that the cell is more defective.



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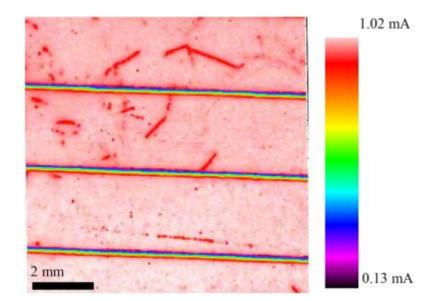
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Fig. 3. LBIC Measurement Setup

118 Figure 4 shows the current distribution map of the cell obtained through LBIC imaging. In this figure, the dark irregular lines correspond to the active performance degrading grain 119 boundaries. Figure 5(a) shows the LBIC reflection map corresponding to the darker areas of 120 121 Figure 4. It is evident that the current distribution, as expected for multi-crystalline material, 122 is not uniform as illustrated in regions marked A-C. The uniformity is compromised by the 123 reflection and absorption of different grains at the surface of the polycrystalline silicon solar cell. Light is reflected more in region C than the neighboring regions A and B. In Figure 5(b), 124 reflective line scan is depicted, which further indicates the high current response in region C. 125 126 This region is expected to decrease the efficiency of the solar cell when it is in operation. 127 The feature indicated by X corresponds to the grain boundary which clearly reflects more 128 incident light as do the contact fingers. 129

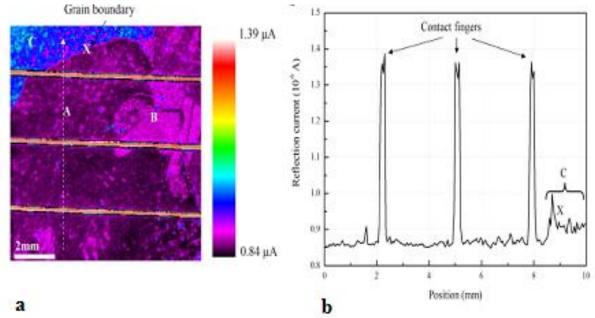
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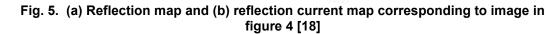


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Fig. 4. LBIC map of Polycrystalline silicon solar cell [18]





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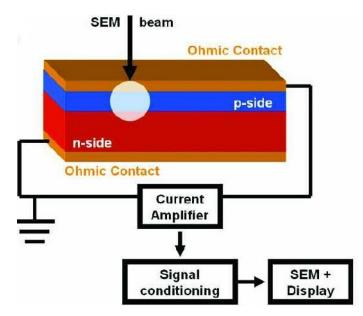
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Laser beam induced current (LBIC) methods have been investigated both for fast line scan techniques and for detailed surface mapping [20]. The major drawback of this method lies in the necessity for electrical contacts, making this technique nearly impossible to apply for wafer inspection and technically difficult for non-tabbed solar cells. Furthermore, the scanning needs to be performed for the entire wafer area and this process is prohibitedly time consuming even though the accuracy of the LBIC is acceptable.

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145 2.2 Electron Beam Induced Current (EBIC)

146 EBIC analysis, as the name implies, is a semiconductor analysis technique that employs an 147 electron beam to induce a current within a sample which may be used as a signal for 148 generating images that depict characteristics of the sample, among others showing the locations of p-n junctions in the sample, highlighting the presence of local defects, and 149 mapping doping non-homogeneities [21]. Since a scanning electron microscope (SEM) is a 150 151 convenient source of electron beam for this purpose, most EBIC techniques are performed using a SEM. A typical EBIC imaging system consisting, SEM, low noise current amplifier 152 153 and display unit is shown in figure 6. When an electron beam from SEM strikes the surface 154 of the solar cell, it generates the electron-hole pairs within the volume of beam interaction 155 over the cell. 156



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162 With proper electrical contact with the sample, the movement of the holes and electrons 163 generated by the SEM's electron beam can be collected, amplified, and analysed, such that 164 variations in the generation, drift, or recombination of these carriers can be displayed as 165 variations of contrast as in LBIC image discussed previously. EBIC imaging is very sensitive 166 to electron-hole recombination. This is the reason, why EBIC analysis is very useful for 167 finding defects that act as recombination centres in semiconductor materials. The EBIC 168 current (I_{EBIC}) collected is many times larger than the primary beam current absorbed by the 169 sample (I_{ab}) , and is given by the equation

Fig. 6. EBIC Imaging Systems

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$$I_{EBIC} = I_{ab} \times \left(\frac{E_b}{E_h}\right) \times n \tag{2}$$

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where E_b is the primary beam energy or the SEM's accelerating voltage, E_h is the energy needed to create an electron-hole pair (about 3.6 eV for Silicon), and *n* is the collection efficiency. The accelerating voltage belongs to the extremely high Tension (EHT) category,

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176 ranging from tens to hundreds of keV. Thus, assuming a collection efficiency of 100%, and 177 an EHT of 20 keV, the collected EBIC current would be about 5556 times larger than I_{ab} . 178 EBIC currents are usually in the nanoampere to microampere range while I_{ab} is in the 179 picoampere range. In areas around the p-n junction where physical defects exist, electron-180 hole recombination is enhanced, thus reducing the collected current in those defected 181 areas. Hence, if the current through the junction is used to produce the EBIC image, the areas with physical defects will appear to be darker in the EBIC image than areas with no 182 183 physical defects. EBIC imaging is therefore a convenient tool for finding sub-surface and 184 other difficult-to-see damage sites.

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186 Referring to figure 6, the wire that carries the current away from the top contact can be seen 187 in the lower left. The solar cell is slowly scanned and the EBIC current given by Equation (2) is then measured. This current is displayed in colour. The measured EBIC current was small 188 189 when the beam fell on the metal contact but was larger when it fell on the active region of the 190 solar cell. Figure 7 shows a secondary electron image of a polycrystalline silicon solar cell. Within the active region of the solar cell there are large variations in the current. This is due 191 192 to a variation in the density of defects which causes the electron-hole pairs to recombine 193 before they are separated by the built-in electric field. Figure 8 illustrates a typical EBIC 194 image when the electron beam energy is 20 keV [11]. The crack can be clearly seen in the 195 image. Therefore this technique is useful to detect the presence or absence of micro-crack in 196 solar cell or solar wafer.



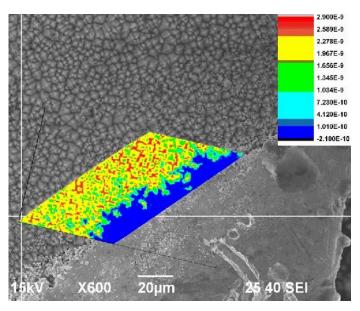




Fig. 7. EBIC current map of a polycrystalline silicon solar cell

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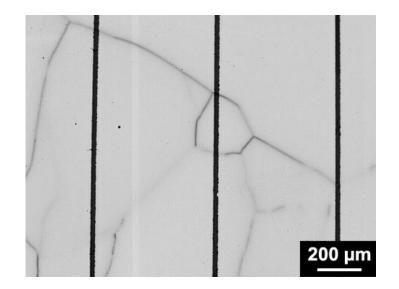






Fig. 8 Example of EBIC image captured at 20 keV excitation [11]

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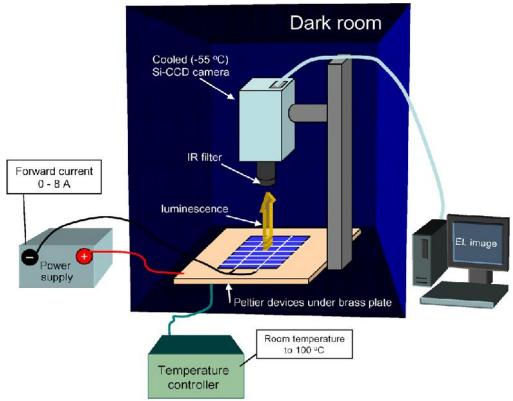
206 EBIC and LBIC are powerful tools for mapping distribution of recombination active defects 207 and impurities in solar cells. The operation of both EBIC and LBIC is based on local injection of minority carriers and their subsequent collection by a p-n junction or a Schottky diode 208 fabricated on the sample surface, the measurement closely mimics the actual operation of a 209 solar cell. LBIC, which has somewhat lower resolution than EBIC, is usually used to map the 210 211 whole cell, whereas EBIC is better suited for high resolution imaging of small areas of the 212 wafer. The analysis of temperature dependence of EBIC contrast enables one to distinguish 213 shallow and deep recombination centers, but no further parameters of the traps can be 214 determined. Additionally, the depth of the analyzed layer is shallow, typically several microns 215 from the surface in EBIC, and several tens or hundreds of microns in LBIC, depending on 216 the wavelength of the illuminator. Therefore, only a small fraction of the sample volume in 217 which electron-hole pairs are generated can be analyzed.

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2.3 Electroluminescence (EL) imaging technique

220 221 Luminescence imaging is very attractive idea for the micro-crack detection for the solar cells and wafers. Luminescence in the semiconductor is the result of the electron-hole 222 223 recombination by electron excitation. Electroluminescence (EL) is the form of luminescence 224 in which electrons are excited into the conduction band through the use of electrical current 225 by connecting cell in forward bias mode. This technique could be applied not only to the 226 finished cell but also to the module and solar panels. The typical set-up for 227 electroluminescence based inspection system is shown in Figure 9. It shows the solar cell sample connected to a power supply, a Silicon-CCD camera used to capture the picture 228 229 which is then processed by the work station.

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Fig. 9. A typical set up for Electroluminescence [15]

EL method requires the solar cells to be in the forward bias condition in order for it to emit
infrared radiations. The luminescence ranges from 950 nm to 1250 nm with the peak
occurring at approximately 1150 nm. Emission intensity is dependent on the density of
defects in the silicon, with fewer defects resulting in more emitted photons. The EL system
should be placed in the dark room as the image of the cells is being taken by cooled charge
couple devices (CCD) camera.

Figure 10 (a) shows the sample of optical image of the defected monocrystalline silicon solar 239 240 cell, whereas Figure 10(b) shows the EL image of the same cell. The presence of horizontal 241 line can easily be seen in the bottom part of the Figure 10(b). This horizontal line is a crack 242 present in the cell which cannot be seen in the Figure 10(a). Meanwhile Figure 10(d) shows 243 an EL image of the polycrystalline silicon cell in which the grain boundaries became visible; 244 those are not visible in the optical image as shown in Figure 10(c). The beauty of this system 245 is that it can be applied for the wafer, cell as well as photovoltaic module. Figure 11 shows 246 EL image of the monocrystalline photovoltaic (PV) module reported by [22]. The CCD image 247 of the monocrystalline photovoltaic module acquired at delivery is shown in Figure 11(a), 248 while Figure 11(b) shows the corresponding EL image. The presence of manufacturing defects like crack in the module is not clearly visible in Figure 11(a). 249

From the results given above, it is clear that the EL imaging is a good technique to inspect the defects in the solar cell. But this method also requires electrical contacts between the cell and the leads supplying currents from an external power supply. Therefore, this method works well for cells and modules, but not for wafers. However, with wafers the radiation can also be induced by illuminating it with source of a smaller wavelength: the so called photoluminescence (PL). The details are explained in the following section.

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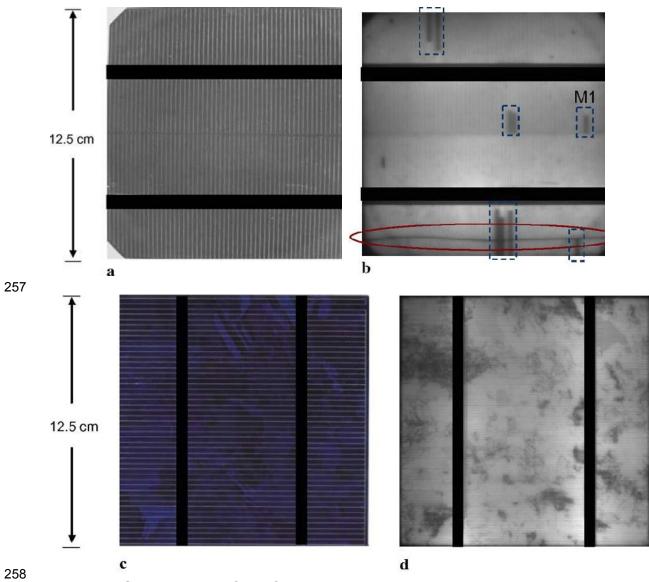
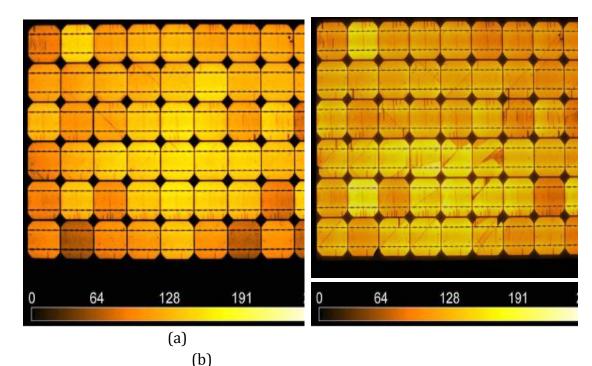


Fig. 10. (a) Optical image of a defected monocrystalline silicon solar cell, (b)
 the corresponding EL image of (a), (c) optical image of defected
 polycrystalline silicon solar cell, (d) the corresponding EL image of (c) [15]

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Fig. 11. EL images of a PV module (a) at delivery status (b) after exposed to temperature change

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271 2.4 Photoluminescence (PL) imaging technique

As explained in previous section, the EL is very efficient technique to locate the defects in the solar cell but it can be applied for finished cell or module only. This method cannot be applied in the case of solar wafer. Photoluminescence (PL) is a versatile non-destructive tool to inspect silicon wafers and solar cells. More importantly, this method eradicates the needs for an electrical contact with the device under test. Moreover it can be applied not only at the end of the cells production, but it can be slotted in during the processes of producing solar cells [23].

Photoluminescence is the result of the electron-hole recombination in which the electron excited to the conduction band after absorption of photon. The imaging setup is very similar to the EL. The only difference is the electrons are excited by means of laser source as shown in figure 12 [12]. The PL image is detected using a cooled CCD camera with a 1000nm long pass filter to remove the reflected and scattered laser light.

Physics behind the PL imaging is that most of the photon generated electrons give up their energy as heat, but a small fraction of the electrons recombine with a hole, emitting a photon (radiative recombination). The photoluminescence intensity depends on the rate of recombination of electron-hole pairs, which depends on the excess carrier density and the doping concentration in the semiconductor. If we consider the case of p-type solar wafer with

doping concentration N_A and Δn is the excess minority carrier density then the intensity of the PL current is given as follows [24]:

(3)

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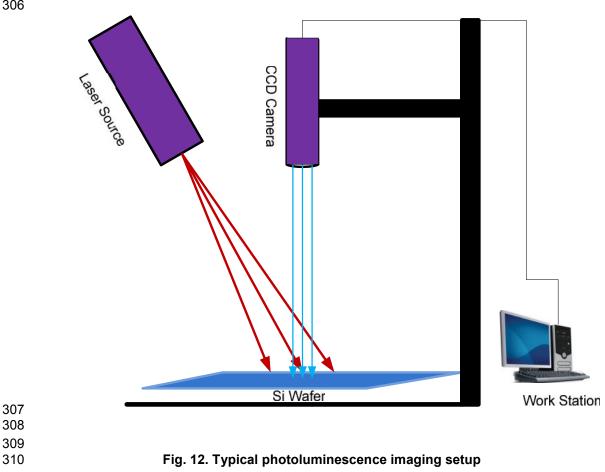
$$I_{PI} \alpha R \approx B \Delta n \left(\Delta n + N_{A} \right)$$

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where *R* and *B* are radiative recombination rate and radiative recombination coefficient
 respectively. Photoluminescence intensity is proportional to the carrier concentration.
 Therefore, bright areas in general indicate higher minority-carrier lifetime regions, whereas
 dark areas indicate higher defect concentration.

More defects in the silicon will result in more energy lost as heat, and fewer emitted photons. In contrast fewer defects in the silicon will result in more radiative recombination, and more emitted photons. Example of the PL image of the polycrystalline silicon solar cell is given in figure 13 [25], showing the presence of micro-cracks and they are highlighted in a red square box. PL imaging is an efficient technique as it does not require any electrical contact and the image taken by this technique is free from series resistance. It can be applied to wafer, cell as well as module.

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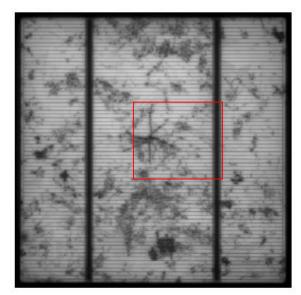


Fig. 13. Example of PL image of a polycrystalline silicon solar cell with micro-crack in the red box

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316 3. CONCLUSION

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318 In this paper the first laser beam induced current testing method is investigated, although it is very 319 good technique for the in line testing but the major drawback of this method is that it needs electrical 320 contacts with the cell. Second technique discussed here is based on electron-hole recombination 321 which is the electron beam induced current. Like LBIC method EBIC method is also not applicable to the solar wafer because it also needs electrical contacts. EBIC analysis is very useful for finding 322 323 defects that act as recombination centers in solar cells. Electroluminescence and photoluminescence is 324 also discussed in this article gave high quality results. But between these EL and PL techniques PL is better than EL as it can be applied for solar wafers as well as solar cells. 325

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