Solar Cell Radiation Handbook

National Aeronautics and Space Administration
Jet Propulsion Laboratory
California Institute of Technology
Pasadena, California 91103
This handbook is intended to furnish the reader with the necessary tools to permit him to predict the degradation of solar cell electrical performance in any given space radiation environment. It begins with an introduction to solar cell theory, describing how cells are manufactured and how they are modeled mathematically. The interaction of energetic charged particle radiation with solar cells is discussed in detail and the concept of 1 MeV equivalent electron fluence is introduced. The space radiation environment is described and methods of calculating equivalent fluences for the space environment are developed. A computer program was written to perform the equivalent fluence calculations and a Fortran listing of the program is included. Finally, an extensive body of data detailing the degradation of solar cell electrical parameters as a function of 1 MeV electron fluence is presented.
Solar Cell Radiation Handbook

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

Since the first edition of the handbook in 1973, the solar cell industry has improved the efficiency of solar cells by employing known principles and new technologies. Thus the original edition has been revised to include discussions on some of the newly developed solar cells as well as to update radiation data.

As was true of the original edition, this revision was conceived and supported by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology. The philosophy underlying the revision was to include new materials of technological achievement, with a minimum amount of alteration in the original contents. In this context, the initial intent of this handbook is still intact; that is, this handbook should provide, for the purpose of assisting solar array engineers, the background knowledge and necessary tools and techniques for a proper evaluation of solar array degradation in space radiation fields with a minimum amount of reading in various related fields. In this respect, the aim of this handbook is practical and concise. If he so desires, the reader can confer with such a book as Solar Cells\(^1\) for more general and extended solar cell knowledge, or with Solar Array Design Handbook\(^2\) for organized massive and detailed information for solar array design engineering.

In this edition will be found discussions on some high-efficiency cells, temperature coefficient and radiation data, updated flight data, and a computer program for equivalent fluence calculation.

For support and technical direction, the author gratefully acknowledges the efforts of Dr. Bruce E. Anspaugh, project technical director. Anspaugh also provided the considerable amount of data essential to this revision and a critical editorial review.

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Particular thanks is also due the former principal author of this document, Mr. J. R. Carter, Jr., for helpful discussions throughout the manuscript preparation and critical review. Also thanks is due Mr. O. Adams for editorial review. The document was prepared at the Vulnerability and Hardness Laboratory, TRW Defense and Space Systems Group.

H. Y. Tada

The work described in this report was performed by TRW Systems Group under the cognizance of the Control and Energy Conversion Division of the Jet Propulsion Laboratory.
FOREWORD TO THE FIRST EDITION

The purpose of this document is to detail a method of predicting the degradation of a solar array in a space radiation environment. The text contains a discussion of solar cell technology which emphasizes the cell parameters which degrade in a radiation environment. The experimental techniques used in the evaluation of radiation effects are discussed. In Chapter 3, the theoretical aspects of radiation damage are discussed, and the experimental data, on which the concept of damage equivalent 1-MeV electron fluence is based, are presented. In Chapter 4, the methods of developing relative damage coefficients from the experimental data are detailed. In this regard, it was found necessary to institute two separate equivalent fluences to properly describe the changes of solar cell parameters under space proton irradiation.

Chapter 5 concerns the nature of the space radiation environment and contains predicted solar flare proton fluences for the twenty-first solar cycle based on a proposed model. In Chapter 6, the method of calculating equivalent fluence from electron and proton energy spectrums and relative damage coefficients is detailed. In addition, computer-calculated equivalent fluence contributions from trapped electrons and protons are tabulated for an extensive series of circular earth orbits. The estimated annual equivalent fluence contributions due to solar flare protons are tabulated for the remainder of the current solar cycle. The estimation of degraded solar cell output characteristics from equivalent fluence values is discussed. In Chapter 7, flight data from satellites is compared with estimated degradation.

J. R. CARTER, JR.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIGURES</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLES</td>
<td>xv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 THEORY OF THE SILICON SOLAR CELL</td>
<td>1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Semiconductor Theory</td>
<td>1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1 Thermal Equilibrium Relationships and Excess Densities</td>
<td>1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2 Carrier Transport</td>
<td>1-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 The P-N Junction</td>
<td>1-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Silicon Solar Cell Theory</td>
<td>1-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Solar Cell Coatings and Contacts</td>
<td>1-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Improvement of Solar Cell Efficiency</td>
<td>1-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.1 Considerations for Photovoltaic Materials</td>
<td>1-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.2 Violet Cell</td>
<td>1-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.3 Back Surface Field (BSF) Cells</td>
<td>1-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5.4 Textured Surface (or Black) Cells</td>
<td>1-29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>1-34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0 INSTRUMENTATION TECHNIQUES FOR MEASUREMENT OF SOLAR CELL PARAMETERS</td>
<td>2-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Light Sources and Solar Simulators</td>
<td>2-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Current-Voltage Characteristics</td>
<td>2-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Spectral Response Measurements</td>
<td>2-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Irradiation Methods</td>
<td>2-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Diffusion Length Measurement</td>
<td>2-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Statistical and Error Analysis</td>
<td>2-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>2-18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)

3.0 RADIATION EFFECTS ........................................... 3-1
3.1 The Theory of Radiation Damage ............................. 3-1
3.2 Theory of Silicon Solar Cell Damage ........................ 3-16
3.3 The Concept of Damage Equivalence ......................... 3-19
3.4 One MeV Electron Irradiation of Silicon Solar Cells ... 3-22
3.5 Effect of Electron Energy on Solar Cell Degradation .... 3-24
3.6 Effect of Proton Energy on Solar Cell Degradation ..... 3-28
3.7 Additional Effects of Low Energy Protons ................. 3-32
3.8 Effects of Temperature and Illumination Intensity on Radiation Damage .................................. 3-37
3.8.1 Unirradiated Cells ........................................ 3-38
3.8.2 Irradiated Cells ........................................... 3-39
3.9 Effects of Neutron and Gamma Radiation on Solar Cells ......................................................... 3-47
3.10 Lithium Doped Solar Cells ................................... 3-50
3.11 Radiation Effects on Shielding Materials ............... 3-51
3.12 Solar Cell Degradation vs 1 MeV Electrons ................ 3-58

REFERENCES ....................................................... 3-160

4.0 RELATIVE DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS FOR SPACE RADIATION 4-1
4.1 Geometrical Aspects of Radiation Fluence .................. 4-1
4.2 Effect of Shielding on Radiation .............................. 4-3
4.3 Electron Space Radiation Effects ............................. 4-3
4.4 Proton Space Radiation Effects ............................... 4-7
4.5 Alpha Particle Space Radiation Effects ...................... 4-15
4.6 Alternative Approaches ....................................... 4-18

REFERENCES ....................................................... 4-22
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE OF CONTENTS (continued)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.0 THE SPACE RADIATION ENVIRONMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Geomagnetically Trapped Radiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.1 Trapped Protons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1.2 Trapped Electrons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Orbital Integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1 Circular Orbits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2 Trajectories Other Than Circular Orbits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Cosmic-Ray (Galactic Cosmic-Ray) Radiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Solar Flare (Solar Cosmic-Ray) Radiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.0 SOLAR ARRAY DEGRADATION CALCULATIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 General Procedure, Equivalent Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Effect of Reduced Light Transmission on Solar Cell Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Rough Degradation Calculations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 Computer Calculated Equivalent Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5 Solar Array Degradation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.0 FLIGHT DATA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Flight Data at Synchronous Orbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Flight Data at Other Than Synchronous Orbit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A: SHIELDING THICKNESS CONVERSIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B: CONSTANTS, PROPERTIES AND VALUES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX C: SOLAR CELL TYPES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX D: COMPUTER PROGRAM, EQFRUX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURES

1.1 Carrier Concentrations in an Illuminated Solar Cell, Short Circuited. ........................................ 1-8
1.2 Solar Cell Equivalent Circuit Model. ........................................ 1-11
1.3 Typical Dark Solar Cell Current-Voltage Characteristic, Forward Biased ........................................ 1-12
1.4 Calculated Silicon Solar Cell Spectral Response. ........................................ 1-16
1.5 Development of a Current-Voltage Characteristic for an Illuminated Silicon Solar Cell. ......................... 1-19
1.6 Temperature Dependent Maximum Efficiency as a Function of Energy Gap for a Few Photovoltaic Materials ........................................ 1-26
1.7 Optics of Idealized (Tetrahedra of Uniform Height) Textured Surface Cell. ........................................ 1-30
1.8 Spectral Responses of Textured Surface Cell and a Comparable Flat Surface Cell ........................................ 1-33
2.1 Spectral Output, Spectrolab X25 Spectrosun ........................................ 2-4
2.2 Spectral Output, Centralab Solar Simulator ........................................ 2-5
2.3 Spectral Output, Carbon Arc Solar Simulator ........................................ 2-6
3.1 Stopping Power and Range Curves for Electrons in Silicon. ........................................ 3-4
3.2 Stopping Power and Range Curves for Protons in Silicon ........................................ 3-5
3.3 Atomistic Models of Radiation Defects in Silicon ........................................ 3-10
3.4 Energy Dependent Displacement in Proton-Irradiated Silicon ........................................ 3-13
3.5 Variation of Solar Cell Diffusion Length with Fluence for Various Radiations ........................................ 3-20
3.6 Variation of Solar Cell Short Circuit Current Density with Fluence for Various Radiations ........................................ 3-20
3.7 Electron Energy Dependence of $K_L$ Values for N on P Silicon Solar Cells ........................................ 3-25
3.8 Electron Energy Dependence of $\Phi_C^{-1}$ Values for N on P Silicon Solar Cells ........................................ 3-26
3.9 Minority Carrier Diffusion Length vs Short Circuit Density of Conventional N/P Silicon Cells ........................................ 3-27
3.10 Comparison of Relative Damage Coefficients, Proton-Irradiated Silicon Solar Cells ........................................ 3-29
FIGURES (continued)

3.11 Relative Damage Coefficient for Proton Irradiated N/P Silicon Solar Cells.................. 3-31
3.12 Atomic Displacements as a Function of Depth for a 3 MeV Proton in Silicon.................. 3-34
3.13 Low Energy Proton Junction Damage, 0.250 MeV Protons, 3 x 10^{13}p/cm^2, Partially Shielded N-P Solar Cell ........ 3-36
3.14 Temperature Coefficient for I_{SC}, b(\phi,s) in Equation (3.8.3)......................... 3-40
3.15 Temperature Coefficient for V_{oc}, b(\phi,s) in Equation (3.8.4)......................... 3-41
3.16 Temperature Coefficient for P_{max}, b(\phi,1)in Equation (3.8.5).............................. 3-42
3.17 Temperature Coefficient for V_{mp}...................................................... 3-43
3.18 Neutron Induced Change in n/p Silicon Solar Cells........................................... 3-48
3.19 Recovered Power Output of Irradiated Conventional and Lithium Doped Solar Cells.............. 3-52
3.20 Variation of Cover Glass Transmittance with Absorbed Dose.................................. 3-56

2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells

3.21 I_{SC} vs Electron Fluence......................... 3-59
3.22 V_{oc} vs Electron Fluence....................... 3-60
3.23 P_{max} vs Electron Fluence..................... 3-61
3.24 V_{mp} vs Electron Fluence..................... 3-62
3.25 I_{mp} vs Electron Fluence...................... 3-63
3.26 Normalized I_{SC} vs Electron Fluence........... 3-64
3.27 Normalized V_{oc} vs Electron Fluence........... 3-65
3.28 Normalized P_{max} vs Electron Fluence........... 3-66
3.29 Normalized V_{mp} vs Electron Fluence........... 3-67
3.30 Normalized I_{mp} vs Electron Fluence........... 3-68

10 Ohm-cm Conventional Silicon Cells

3.31 I_{SC} vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.................... 3-69
3.32 V_{oc} vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.................... 3-70
3.33 P_{max} vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.................... 3-71
3.34 V_{mp} vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.................... 3-72
FIGURES (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>Imp vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>$P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>$V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>$I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>$P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>$V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>$I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURES (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>$P_{\text{max}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>$V_{\text{mp}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>$I_{\text{mp}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{sc}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{oc}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{\text{max}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{mp}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{mp}}$ vs Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-108</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>$I_{\text{sc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>$V_{\text{oc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>$P_{\text{max}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>$V_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>$I_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{sc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{oc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{\text{max}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>$I_{\text{sc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>$V_{\text{oc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>$P_{\text{max}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>$V_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>$I_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{sc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{oc}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{\text{max}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>3-128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURES (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>$P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>$V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>$I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.100</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.101</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.102</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.103</td>
<td>$P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.104</td>
<td>$V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.105</td>
<td>$I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.106</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.107</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.108</td>
<td>Normalized $P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.109</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.110</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.111</td>
<td>$I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.112</td>
<td>$V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.113</td>
<td>$P_{max}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.114</td>
<td>$V_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.115</td>
<td>$I_{mp}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.116</td>
<td>Normalized $I_{SC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.117</td>
<td>Normalized $V_{OC}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURES (continued)

3.118 Normalized $P_{\text{max}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence .......... 3-156
3.119 Normalized $V_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence .......... 3-157
3.120 Normalized $I_{\text{mp}}$ vs 1-MeV Electron Fluence .......... 3-158
3.121 $P_{\text{max}}$ of Various Cell Types, 10 and 20 Ohm-cm,
0.2 and 0.15 mm Cells. ........................................ 3-159
3.122 $P_{\text{max}}$ of Various Cell Types, 20 Ohm-cm,
0.3 and 0.25 mm Cells. ........................................ 3-159
4.1 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Electron
Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells .......... 4-5
4.2 Absorbed Dose Per Unit Fluence of Space Electrons
for Various Depths in Planar Fused Silica Shielding .......... 4-8
4.3 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Proton
Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells
Based on $I_{\text{sc}}$ ........................................ 4-11
4.4 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Proton
Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells
Based on $P_{\text{max}}$ or $V_{\text{oc}}$ .................................. 4-12
4.5 Absorbed Dose Per Unit Fluence of Space Proton for
Various Depths in Planar Fused Silica Shielding .......... 4-16
4.6 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Alpha Particle
Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells
Based on $P_{\text{max}}$ of $V_{\text{oc}}$ .................................. 4-19
5.1 Regions of the Magnetosphere Shown in the Noon-
Midnight Meridian ?Plan ........................................ 5-3
5.2 Geomagnetically Trapped Omnidirectional
Proton Flux in a Highly Elliptical Orbit .......... 5-9
5.3 Predicted and Observed Sunspot Numbers .......... 5-12
5.4 Changes of the Interplanetary Magnetic Field Regime
Model with Time ........................................ 5-14
5.5 Solar Flare Proton Environment at 200 n. mi. Circular
Orbit Due to Flare Event on July 18, 1961, Class Three
Flare ........................................ 5-21
5.6 Solar Flare Proton Environment of the Solar Cycle 20 .... 5-23
5.7 Predicted Smoothed Sunspot Number for Solar Cycle 21 .... 5-24
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIGURE</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Performance of Two Satellite Solar Arrays in Synchronous Orbit During the August 1972 Solar Flares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Equivalent 1-MeV Electron Fluence for Various Cover Glass Thicknesses Due to Geomagnetically Trapped Electrons at Synchronous Orbit and August 1972 Solar Flare Protons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Analyzed Flight Data, LES-6 n/p 10 Ohm-cm Silicon Solar Cell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Degradation of Solar Cell Maximum Power Versus Time in Synchronous Orbit, ATS-5 Experimental Cells</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Geomagnetically Trapped Electron Environment Circular Orbit, 13000 km (7000 n mi), 30 Degree Inclination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-1</td>
<td>Refractive Index of Silicon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-2</td>
<td>Extinction Coefficient of Silicon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-3</td>
<td>Absorption Spectra of Silicon Single Crystal at 77K and 300K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLES

2.1 Solar Spectral Irradiance - Proposed Standard Curve ........................................ 2-2
3.1 Silicon Displacement Parameters, Various Electron Energies ............................ 3-9
3.2 Radiation Effects on Shielding Materials .................................................. 3-53
4.1 Electron Damage Coefficients ................................................................. 4-6
4.2 Electron Stopping Power, Rad(SiO₂)/Unit Omnidirectional Flux ....................... 4-9
4.3 Proton Damage Coefficients for Jₚ ......................................................... 4-13
4.4 Proton Damage Coefficients for Vₒc and Pₘₐₓ ........................................... 4-14
4.5 Proton Stopping Power, Rad(SiO₂)/Unit Omnidirectional Flux ....................... 4-17
5.1 Integral Proton Flux at 10, 30, and 100 MeV and Characteristic Rigidity Rₒ .......... 5-16
5.2 Observed Annual Integral Solar Proton Flux ........................................... 5-19
6.1 Summary of Equivalent Fluence Contributions ........................................... 6-4
6.2 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) (Pₘₐₓ, Vₒc) Circular Orbit 835 km (450 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination ................................. 6-7
6.3 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) (Iₛₚ) Circular Orbit 835 km (450 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination ........................................ 6-9
6.4 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) (Iₛₚ) Circular Orbit 4630 km (2500 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination ............................... 6-10
6.5 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) (Pₘₐₓ, Vₒc) Circular Orbit 4630 km (2500 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination ............... 6-11
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Electrons) Circular Orbit 4630 km (2500 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination</td>
<td>6-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Electrons) Circular Orbit 35,900 km (19,400 n mi), 0 Degree Inclination</td>
<td>6-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence Due to Trapped Electrons, Circular Orbits, Infinite Backshielding Assumed Inclination 0 Degree</td>
<td>6-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Inclination 30 Degrees</td>
<td>6-18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>Inclination 60 Degrees</td>
<td>6-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>Inclination 90 Degrees</td>
<td>6-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for J_{sc} Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Infinite Backshielding Assumed Inclination 0 Degree</td>
<td>6-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>Inclination 30 Degrees</td>
<td>6-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>Inclination 60 Degrees</td>
<td>6-23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>Inclination 90 Degrees</td>
<td>6-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence of V_{oc} and P_{max} Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Infinite Backshielding Assumed Inclination 0 Degree</td>
<td>6-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.17</td>
<td>Inclination 30 Degrees</td>
<td>6-26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>Inclination 60 Degrees</td>
<td>6-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>Inclination 90 Degrees</td>
<td>6-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>Predicted Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for Solar Flare Protons, Based on Reference 6.9</td>
<td>6-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>Summary of Data in Tables 6.8 Through 6.20</td>
<td>6-31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLES (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Synchronous Orbit Solar Cell Array Degradation.</td>
<td>7-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Solar Flare Proton Fluence for Energy Greater Than 10 MeV</td>
<td>7-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence</td>
<td>7-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Predicted Percentage Degradation of LES-6 Cells, Using Data for Heliotek 10 Ohm-cm 12 Mil Cells</td>
<td>7-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Percentage Degradation of Predicted and Observed ATS-6 Solar Cell Experiment Output</td>
<td>7-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for NTS-1 Based on the Environments Shown in Figure 7.3</td>
<td>7-19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>Predicted Percentage Degradation of NTS-1 Maximum Power</td>
<td>7-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>Solar Cell Array Degradation, Various Circular Orbits</td>
<td>7-21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

This handbook is intended to furnish the reader with the necessary tools to permit him to predict the degradation of solar cell electrical performance in any given space radiation environment. It begins with an introduction to solar cell theory, describing how cells are manufactured and how they are modeled mathematically. The interaction of energetic charged particle radiation with solar cells is discussed in detail and the concept of 1 MeV equivalent electron fluence is introduced. The space radiation environment is described and methods of calculating equivalent fluences for the space environment are developed. A computer program was written to perform the equivalent fluence calculations and a Fortran listing of the program is included. Finally, an extensive body of data detailing the degradation of solar cell electrical parameters as a function of 1 MeV electron fluence is presented.
CHAPTER 1

1.0 THEORY OF THE SILICON SOLAR CELL

In this chapter some elementary concepts of semiconductor theory, which are useful in understanding solar cell operation, are described. The operation of the silicon solar cell is discussed in terms of an equivalent circuit, and the electrical characteristics of the equivalent circuit elements are explained in terms of physical quantities. In addition, the physical structure of a silicon solar cell is detailed.

1.1 Semiconductor Theory

1.1.1 Thermal Equilibrium Relationships and Excess Densities. Semiconductors are a class of materials which have electrical properties and physical characteristics intermediate between metals and dielectrics. An important characteristic of semiconductor materials is bipolar conduction, where charge transport may occur by conduction band electrons or through empty energy states in the valence band which behave electrically like positively-charged electrons and are referred to as holes. The equilibrium concentrations of conduction electrons and holes in silicon are determined from thermal considerations by the following expression:

\[
\frac{n_0p_0}{kT} = \frac{1.21 \text{ (eV)}}{k} = 2.2 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-6}, \text{ for } T = 300 \text{ K}
\]

(1.1.1)

where

- \( n_0 \) = the equilibrium concentration of conduction electrons \((\text{cm}^{-3})\)
- \( p_0 \) = the equilibrium concentration of holes \((\text{cm}^{-3})\)
- \( T \) = temperature \((\text{K})\)
- \( k \) = Boltzmann constant \((0.8618 \times 10^{-4} \text{ eV/K})\)

For a highly purified semiconductor, the principal source of charge carriers is thermal excitation of electrons from the valence band to the conduction band, and the concentration of conduction electrons will equal the concentration of holes. This state, in which the electrical properties
of a semiconductor are not modified by impurities, may be referred to as intrinsic. The electron and hole concentrations in intrinsic silicon, for example, are equal to $1.5 \times 10^{10}$ cm$^{-3}$ at room temperature.

When elements from Column III and V of the periodic table occur in substitutional solid solution in silicon, they can be thermally ionized. In the case of Column V elements, such as phosphorus or arsenic, the ionization results in an electron in the conduction band and a positively-charged donor impurity atom in the silicon lattice. Impurities from Column III, such as boron, undergo ionization in silicon by accepting a thermally-ionized electron from the valence band. This process creates a hole in the valence band and a negatively-charged acceptor impurity ion. The activation energies for these donor and acceptor atoms in silicon are approximately 0.05 eV. For this reason, these equilibrium processes go to completion at temperatures near 300 K ($kT \sim 0.026$ eV), and the commonly-used Column III and V impurities in silicon can be considered to be completely ionized at room temperature.

If significant quantities of conduction electrons or holes are produced by the addition of impurities, as described above, the semiconductor may be classed as extrinsic. Extrinsic semiconductors are referred to as n-type (i.e., negative type) if the equilibrium concentration of conduction electrons exceeds the intrinsic carrier concentration. When the equilibrium concentration of holes exceeds the intrinsic carrier concentration of a semiconductor, it is referred to as a p-type (i.e., positive type). The product of the equilibrium conduction electron and hole concentrations in extrinsic semiconductors remains constant as described by equation (1.1.1). Thus, boron-doped, p-type, extrinsic silicon with a resistivity of 10 ohm-cm and a hole concentration of $1.4 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ must also have a conduction electron concentration of $1.6 \times 10^5$ cm$^{-3}$. In this case, the holes are referred to as majority carriers and the conduction electrons as minority carriers.

The concept of Fermi level may also be used to describe several aspects of semiconductor theory. The Fermi level of a material is defined
as that electron energy state at which the probability of occupancy is equal to 1/2. The Fermi level is at the center of the forbidden band when silicon is intrinsic. In an n-type semiconductor, the Fermi level is above the center of the forbidden band. In a p-type semiconductor the Fermi level is below the center of the forbidden band.

Concentrations of conduction electrons and holes in excess of thermal equilibrium values can be introduced in a semiconductor by electrical processes, by the absorption of electromagnetic radiation, or in the process of stopping high energy particulate radiation. The total instantaneous concentration of carriers during an excitation process can be expressed as follows:

\[ p(t) = p_0 + p'(t) \]
\[ n(t) = n_0 + n'(t) \]

where \( p'(t) \) and \( n'(t) \) are the instantaneous excess hole and electron concentrations, which in the general case will be functions of time.

The absorption in a sample of silicon of electromagnetic radiation, referred to as the optical injection of carriers, is fundamental to the operation of the solar cell. In the absorption process, an electron-hole pair is created for each photon of light absorbed. The densities of excess electrons and holes created in this manner obey the following equations:

\[ \frac{dp(t)}{dt} = g_{\text{ext}} + g_{\text{th}} - r, \]  
\[ \frac{dn(t)}{dt} = g_{\text{ext}} + g_{\text{th}} - r, \]

where \( g_{\text{ext}} \) represents the excitation rate per unit volume due to an external cause, \( g_{\text{th}} \) is the thermal generation rate, and \( r \) is the total recombination rate. If a net rate of recombination, \( u \), is defined,

\[ u = r - g_{\text{th}}, \]

then for the case of holes, for example,
\[
\frac{dp(t)}{dt} = g_{\text{ext}} - j. \quad (1.1.7)
\]

It has been found for semiconductors, for the case of small excess carrier densities (or at "low injection level"), that is, \( p(t) \ll p_0 \), that a good approximation for \( u \) is,

\[
u = \frac{p_n - p_{no}}{p} = \frac{p'(t)}{\tau_p} \quad (1.1.8)
\]

where \( p'(t) \) is defined by equation 1.1.2 and \( \tau_p \) is the lifetime of a hole. The implication of this can be seen if the above expression for the time derivative of \( p(t) \) is integrated, for the case of \( g_{\text{ext}} = 0 \), with the initial condition \( p_n(0) = p_{no} \). The result is,

\[
\frac{p'(t)}{\tau_p} = p_n(0)e^{-t/\tau_p}, \quad t > 0, \quad (1.1.9)
\]

and the lifetime is now seen to be the decay time constant governing the return of excess holes in n-material if the external source is removed at \( t = 0 \).

An explicit expression for the lifetime, \( \tau_p \), has been developed by Hall and Shockley and Read; it is given by the expression, for holes,

\[
\tau_p \propto (\sigma_p V_{th} N_t)^{-1}, \quad (1.1.10)
\]

where \( \sigma_p \) is the cross-section for capture of a hole by what Shockley and Read have termed a recombination center, \( V_{th} \) is the thermal velocity of an excess carrier and is about \( 10^7 \text{cm/sec} \), and \( N_t \) is the density of the recombination centers. These centers, it has been determined, are responsible for the recombination of excess carriers, whether injected electrically or by electromagnetic, or particle radiation. The creation of additional centers of this type resulting from the high energy radiation in producing lattice displacements and vacancies severely shorten the carrier lifetime as will be discussed in more detail below.

1.1.2 Carrier Transport. Current flow or charge transport can occur by either of two mechanisms in semiconductors. The drift of charged carriers in an electric field is observed in semiconductors as well as metals. The drift current for the case of holes in a p-type
A semiconductor can be described as follows:

\[ J_p = q \ p \ \mu_p E, \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.11)

where \( J_p \) = hole current density (amperes/cm\(^2\))
\( q \) = hole charge (coulomb)
\( p \) = hole concentration (cm\(^{-3}\))
\( \mu_p \) = hole mobility (cm\(^2\)/volt sec)
\( E \) = electric field (volts/cm)

The coefficients of the electric field \( E \) in the above expression are related to the resistivity of the material in the following manner:

\[ \rho = \frac{1}{q \ p \ \mu_p} . \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.12)

Similar expressions can be written to describe conduction electron flow and combined expressions can be used if second carrier conduction is significant.

The second mechanism for charge transport in semiconductors is carrier diffusion. This process results from the random thermal movement of particles which exist in a concentration gradient. Such diffusion is analogous to flow of heat due to thermal gradients and the diffusion of atoms and molecules. When a gradient in the concentration of holes exists in a semiconductor, a hole flux will flow opposite to the gradient. The hole current, for a one-dimensional geometry, is shown in the following expression:

\[ J_p = -q \ D_p \frac{dp}{dx} , \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.13)

where \( J_p \) = hole current density (A/cm\(^2\))
\( D_p \) = hole diffusion constant (cm\(^2\)/sec)
\( \frac{dp}{dx} \) = gradient of hole concentration .
When both mechanisms contribute to the hole flow, the following equation describes the current:

\[ J_p = q \left( p \mu_p E - D_p \frac{dp}{dx} \right). \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.14)

A similar expression can be written for the conduction electron current as follows:

\[ J_n = q \left( p \mu_n E + D_n \frac{dn}{dx} \right). \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.15)

In some situations, an expression summing the hole and conduction electron current components may be necessary to describe the current.

The basic equation governing the behavior of charge carriers in time and space is the time-dependent continuity equation. This equation sums the effects of the divergence of current, carrier recombination, and carrier generation. For the non-equilibrium steady state case, the total carrier concentrations \((n \text{ and } p)\) remain constant, and \(\frac{dn}{dt}\) and \(\frac{dp}{dt}\) equal zero. In this case the one-dimensional continuity equations for electrons and holes are as follows:

\[ g_{\text{ext}} - \frac{n - n_0}{\tau_n} - \frac{1}{q} \frac{dn}{dx} J_n = 0 \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.16)

\[ g_{\text{ext}} - \frac{p - p_0}{\tau_p} - \frac{1}{q} \frac{dp}{dx} J_p = 0, \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.17)

where \(g_{\text{ext}}\), introduced earlier, is the rate of generation of carriers per unit volume. If current flow occurs only by diffusion, equation (1.1.13) can be substituted into equation (1.1.17), and a similar substitution can be made in equation (1.1.16), leading to the following equations:

\[ D_n \frac{d^2n}{dx^2} - \frac{n - n_0}{\tau_n} = - g_{\text{ext}}, \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.18)

\[ D_p \frac{d^2p}{dx^2} - \frac{p - p_0}{\tau_p} = - g_{\text{ext}}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.1.19)
1.2 The P-N Junction

The current-voltage characteristic of a p-n junction is one of the factors which determine solar cell response. In this section, the general factors which determine diode characteristics will be discussed. The carrier concentrations found in a solar cell diode are shown graphically in Figure 1.1. The base or p-type region of the device has a majority carrier density \(n_{po}\) of approximately \(10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}\). Because the product of the two carrier concentrations is roughly \(10^{26} \text{ cm}^{-6}\), the minority carrier concentration is \(10^{5} \text{ cm}^{-3}\). The surface or diffused layer has a majority carrier concentration approaching \(10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}\). Equilibrium considerations therefore require the minority carrier concentration of this region to be approximately unity. The concentrations of holes and conduction electrons differ greatly on different sides of the junction. This results in two effects. The minority carriers on either side of the junction tend to diffuse across the junction (i.e., create a diffusion current). In addition, the very large concentrations of conduction electrons existing in the n-type layer form an electrostatic potential barrier to oppose electron flow from this p-type region. As a result, all of the mobile charge carriers (holes and conduction electrons) are swept out of the interface region. The ionized impurity atoms form a dipole layer in the interface region. This layer is also referred to as a space charge layer. In a typical solar cell, the width of the n-type diffused layer is roughly 0.4 \(\mu\text{m}\), and the width of the space charge region is very roughly 0.5 \(\mu\text{m}\).

Equation (1.1.17) can be used to determine the behavior of excess carriers in the region of a junction. In the case of steady-state illumination,

\[
D_n \frac{d^2n_p}{dx^2} - \frac{n_p - n_{po}}{\tau_n} = -q_o, \quad x > 0.
\]  

The solution of this equation for a semi-infinite semiconductor with the boundary condition, that at \(x = 0\), \(n_p = n_{po}\), is

\[
n_p(x) = n_{po} + q_o \tau_n \left(1 - e^{-x/VD_n\tau_n}\right)
\]  

1-7
Figure 1.1 Carrier Concentrations in an Illuminated Solar Cell, Short Circuited
The quantity $\sqrt{D \tau}$ has the dimensions of length and is often referred to as the diffusion length ($L$). The above result indicated that the steady state concentration of conduction electrons in the p-type region will approach zero at the junction and will increase exponentially with distance from the space charge region. This behavior is shown in Figure 1.1. At a distance of one diffusion length from the junction, the minority carrier concentration is $1/e$ that of the equilibrium bulk value. Actual diffusion lengths found in solar cells can be as large as 200 µm. This parameter is of primary importance in the determination of the efficiency of a solar cell.

The equation for the dark current as a function of bias is as follows for a p-n junction:

$$J = J_{01}(e^{qV/kT} - 1)$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.2.3)

In the case of a large forward bias ($V \gg 0$), $e^{qV/kT}$ is much larger than 1 and therefore,

$$J = J_{01} e^{qV/kT}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.2.4)

When $V < 0$, $J = -J_{01}$. For this reason, $J_{01}$ is also known as the saturation current. If the saturation current is assumed to be due to the diffusion of minority carriers into the junction, then:

$$J_{01} = \frac{q D_n n_{po}}{L_n} = q n_{po} \sqrt{\frac{D_n}{\tau_n}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.2.5)

Based on diffusion limited current, the calculated saturation current for an n-p 10 ohm-cm solar cell would be roughly $10^{-10}$ A/cm² at room temperature. The measured values of saturation currents found in such solar cells are considerably higher than the above value. The diffusion theory thus does not adequately explain the current voltage characteristics of a silicon junction diode.
A second theory of the diode current voltage relationship involves carrier generation and recombination through defect centers located in the space charge region. The diode or rectifier equation predicted by this theory is as follows: 1.1

\[ J = J_{02} (e^{qV/2kT} - 1) \]  (1.2.6)

The only difference between equations (1.2.3) and (1.2.6) is the factor of 1/2 which appears in the exponent and the form of \( J_{02} \). The expression for \( J_{02} \) is:

\[ J_{02} = \frac{q W n_i}{\tau_0} \]  (1.2.7)

where:
- \( W \) = width of space charge region
- \( \tau_0 \) = carrier lifetime in space charge region
- \( n_i \) = intrinsic carrier concentration (\( \sim 1.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-3} \))

Experimental studies have shown that the generation-recombination model and the diffusion model are necessary to describe the diode current flow at all voltages. An expression summing the currents of both models can be used to describe the current flow at all voltages. 1.1

As a result of manufacturing variations, a solar cell junction is occasionally shunted by an ohmic resistance. When the value of this shunt resistance is less than \( 10^4 \) ohms, the shunt current will dominate the diode current at forward biases of slightly less than 0.2V. The symbol for shunt resistance is \( R_{sh} \). As a result of resistive volume elements in current paths to the diode junction, the solar cell also has a finite resistance which appears in series with the diode. This series resistance (\( R_s \)) is usually less than one ohm and will dominate the current flow through the diode at large forward biases. A model summing both of the above elements is necessary to describe the forward voltage-current characteristic of a silicon solar cell in the most general case. Such a model is shown in Figure 1.2. In Figure 1.3, a generalized current-voltage characteristic is shown for a solar cell.
Figure 1.2 Solar Cell Equivalent Circuit Model

\[ J_T = J_{Sh} + J_2 + J_1 - (J_L) \]

\[ J_L = \int_0^\infty R(\lambda) \cdot E(\lambda) \, d\lambda \]

\[ J_1 = J_{01} \left( \frac{q(V + J_T R_S)}{kT} \right) \left( e^{- \frac{q(V + J_T R_S)}{kT}} - 1 \right) \]

\[ J_2 = J_{02} \left( \frac{q(V + J_T R_S)}{2kT} \right) \left( e^{- \frac{q(V + J_T R_S)}{2kT}} - 1 \right) \]

\[ J_{Sh} = \frac{(V + J_T R_S)}{R_{Sh}} \]
Figure 1.3 Typical Dark Solar Cell Current-Voltage Characteristic, Forward Biased

- $R_{sh} = 10^6 \text{ OHM}$
- $J_{01} = 10^{-11} \text{ A/cm}^2$
- $J_{02} = 10^{-7} \text{ A/cm}^2$
- $T = 27 \degree C$

$J_T = J_{sh} + J_1 + J_2$
$R_s = 1 \text{ OHM}$
diode using the above model. Actual solar cells will have considerable variation in the shunt and series resistances.

The junction space charge region of a solar cell has an associated capacitance. The capacitance of a conventional solar cell is related to the width of the space charge region in the following manner:

\[ C = \frac{\varepsilon A}{W} \]  

(1.2.8)

where \( C \) is the capacitance, \( A \) is area, \( \varepsilon \) is the dielectric constant and \( W \) is the width of the space charge region. The acceptor density in the p-type region adjacent to the space charge region can be related to the capacitance per unit area by:

\[ N_a = \frac{2(V_a + V_b)C^2}{q\varepsilon A^2} \]  

(1.2.9)

where \( V_a \) is the applied voltage, and \( V_b \) is the barrier voltage (0.6 to 0.8V depending on resistivity of cell base). The above expression assumes an abrupt or step junction which is typical of conventional solar cells.

1.3 Silicon Solar Cell Theory

When a silicon p-n junction diode is exposed to ionizing radiation or light with a photon energy equal to or greater than the band gap of silicon, electron-hole pairs are produced in the silicon. Because of the gradient of conduction electrons (see Figure 1.1) which exists in the p-type region near the space charge region, the conduction electrons generated by the radiation diffuse to the junction. When these electrons reach the space charge region, they drift in the space charge region field to the opposite side of the junction. A similar behavior occurs for holes generated in the n-type regions of a solar cell. The diffusion flux of these generated carriers to the junction is the solar cell generated current. Several investigators have developed general
expressions for generation current. These expressions are solutions of the continuity equations (1.1.18) and (1.1.13) for the case of optical carrier generation. The expression for electrons is as follows:

\[ D_n \frac{d^2 n}{dx^2} - \frac{D_n(n - n_p)}{L_n^2} = \alpha N_0 (1 - R) e^{-\alpha x} \]  

(1.3.1)

where \( \alpha \) = absorption coefficient for light of wavelength \( \lambda \), \( (\text{cm}^{-1}) \)

\( N_0 \) = photon flux density

\( R \) = reflection loss

\( x \) = distance from the junction

\( d \) = distance from front surface

This equation can be solved to find the minority carrier concentration gradient at the edge of the space charge region. The current of carriers into the space charge region can be calculated by evaluating current at the edge of the space charge region by use of equation (1.1.15). Separate evaluations must be made for the diffused or surface layer and electron currents in the bulk response to monochromatic light as follows: 1.8

Surface Layer:

\[ J_p(\lambda) = \frac{q N_0 (1 - R) \alpha L_p}{1 - \alpha^2 L_p^2} \left[ \frac{D_p}{L_p} \sinh \frac{a}{L_p} + \left( 1 + \frac{a D_p}{S} \right) \cosh \frac{a}{L_p} \right] e^{-\alpha a} - \left( 1 - \frac{a D_p}{S} \right) \]  

(1.3.3)
Bulk Response: (assuming \( S = \infty \) at \( d = b \))

\[
J_n(\lambda) = \frac{q N_D (1 - R) \alpha L_n}{1 - z^2 \frac{L_n}{L_p}} \left( \sinh \frac{b - a}{L_n} - \alpha L_n e^{-a} + \alpha L_n e^{-b} \right) e^{-\alpha x} + \alpha L_n e^{-\beta}
\]  \( (1.3.4) \)

where

\( a = \) junction depth (cm)

\( b = \) cell thickness (cm)

\( S = \) surface recombination velocity (cm/sec).

Total Response:

\[
J_L(\lambda) = J_n(\lambda) + J_p(\lambda)
\]  \( (1.3.5) \)

The above equations are written for the case of an n-p solar cell. It is also assumed that no significant drift fields are present. The cell response in A/cm\(^2\) may be normalized to the photon flux density (\( N_0 \)). In this way, the above equations describe the response of the cell in terms of amperes per photon/sec of incident light of a given wave length. Solar cell spectral response curves are routinely measured. In these experimental measurements, the response is usually normalized to the incident optical power density (watts cm\(^{-2}\)) rather than photon density rate. The calculated response of a typical solar cell in such terms is shown in Figure 1.4.

The previous equations illustrated the role of the minority carrier diffusion length in development of the light-generated current of a solar cell. These response equations can be folded with the solar spectral irradiance and integrated to yield the light-generated solar-cell current under solar illumination (see Figure 1.4).
Figure 1.4 Calculated Silicon Solar Cell Spectral Response
The light generated current can be combined with previously discussed diode rectifier equations to determine the current-voltage characteristic of an illuminated solar cell. The model for an illuminated solar cell is the same as that shown in Figure 1.2 for a dark diode, with the addition of a current source. The current source (shown dotted in Figure 1.2) represents the light generated current. On the basis of the above model, an equation can be written to describe the cell current into an external load:

$$I = I_L - I_{D1} - I_{D2} - I_{sh}$$

where

- $I_L$ = light generated current
- $I_{D1}$ = current in solar cell diode $D_1$
- $I_{D2}$ = current in solar cell diode $D_2$
- $I_{sh}$ = current in internal solar cell shunt ($R_{sh}$)

Several observations can be made regarding the form of the above equation. The light generated current is independent of applied voltage and proportional to the intensity of the incident illumination. The development of the light generated current produces a forward bias on the solar cell diodes ($D_1$ and $D_2$). The light generated current ($I_L$) will divide between the parallel branches containing $D_1$, $D_2$, $R_{sh}$ and $R_S + R_L$. The behavior of the illuminated solar cell current ($I$) and voltage ($V$) as $R_L$ varies from zero to infinity is referred to as the I-V characteristic. This characteristic is the primary engineering tool used in evaluating solar cells. A general expression for the cell current to an external load can be obtained by substitution of equations (1.2.4) and (1.2.6) into equation (1.3.6). In the case of a good cell under 135 mW/cm² solar illumination, the current in $R_{sh}$ can be neglected. It has been the practice to simplify the two diode currents with the following expression:

$$I_d = I_o \left[e^{\frac{q(V+IR_s)}{nkT}} - 1\right]$$

(1.3.7)
where \( I_0 \) is an apparent saturation current, and \( n \) is a constant, between 1 and 2 in value. The resulting expression is often used to describe solar cell I-V characteristics:

\[
I = I_L - I_0 \left[ e^{q(V+IR_s)/nKT} - 1 \right] - \frac{V + I_s R_s}{R_{\text{sh}}} \quad (1.3.8)
\]

The development of a solar cell I-V characteristic from the light generated current and dark diode characteristic is shown graphically in Figure 1.5. An \( I_L \) value of 35 mA/cm\(^2\) is typical of solar cells under solar illumination of 135 mW/cm\(^2\). This \( I_L \) value is shown in Figure 1.5. In addition, the dark diode or rectifier characteristics shown in Figure 1.3 are replotted in Figure 1.5. The diode characteristics are shown with and without the series resistance. The illuminated solar cell I-V characteristic for a hypothetical cell with \( R_s = 0 \) is obtained by subtracting the forward current flowing in \( D_1, D_2, \) and \( R_{\text{sh}} \) from the light generated current \( I_L \). When \( R_s \) is some significant quantity, the dark diode characteristic is displaced an amount \( \Delta V \) before subtraction from \( I_L \). The quantity \( \Delta V \) is the voltage drop across \( R_s \) when the solar cell diode conducts a forward current equal to \( +I_L \).

It should be understood that this analysis is for a solar cell at 27°C under solar illumination of 135 mW/cm\(^2\). The quantity \( I_L \) is proportional to the light intensity, a function of temperature, and also a function of the spectral content of the illumination. The dark diode currents \( I_{D1} \) and \( I_{D2} \) are strong functions of temperature. Under the assumed conditions of temperature and illumination, \( I_{D1} \) and \( R_s \) dominate the I-V characteristic of the solar cell. Under other conditions of temperature and illumination, the solar cell I-V characteristic may be influenced by other factors such as \( R_{\text{sh}} \) and \( I_{D2} \).

A different set of parameters is used to describe the solar cell characteristic for engineering purposes. These are (a) short circuit current \( I_{SC} \), (b) open circuit voltage \( V_{OC} \), and (c) maximum power \( P_{max} \). The short circuit current is that current produced by the cell when the load resistance \( (R_L) \) approaches zero. In good solar cells, this quantity is equal to the light generated current \( I_L \) or \( J_L \cdot A \). In cells
Figure 1.5 Development of a Current-Voltage Characteristic for an Illuminated Silicon Solar Cell
with high or excessive internal series resistance, or in good cells at higher illumination intensities, \( I_{sc} \) will be less than the light generated current. The open circuit voltage is the voltage produced by the cell when \( R_L \) is infinite. In this load condition, all of the light generated current is consumed in forward conduction of diodes D1 and D2.

\[
V_{oc} = \frac{n k T}{q} \ln \left( \frac{I_L}{I_0} + 1 \right)
\]

A maximum in the power delivered to the load resistance occurs at some point of the solar cell I-V characteristic. The power developed under such a load is called the maximum power \( P_{\text{max}} \). A method of determining an analytical expression for the I-V characteristic from parameters such as \( I_{sc} \), \( V_{oc} \), \( P_{\text{max}} \), and \( V_{\text{max}} \) has been described in the literature.\[1.11\]

### 1.4 Solar Cell Coatings and Contacts

A silicon solar cell is a composite of several layers of material. The layers of n and p-type silicon form the basic cell structure in which the current is generated. Additional practical problems are involved in maximizing the light entering the silicon and providing a low resistance path for collection of the generated current from the solar cell. When the light passes from one medium to another medium which has a different index of refraction, some light is reflected. The amount of light reflected can be determined from the following relationship when the second medium is absorbing.\[1.31\]

\[
R = \frac{(n_1 - n_2)^2 + k_2^2}{(n_1 + n_2)^2 + k_2^2}
\]

where \( R \) = reflectivity (fraction of normal incidence light intensity reflected)

\( n_1 \) = index of refraction, medium 1

\( n_2 \) = index of refraction, medium 2

\( k_2 \) = extinction coefficient, medium 2

The extinction coefficient, \( k \), is the imaginary part of the index of refraction, where \( k = \frac{\alpha \lambda}{4\pi} \), and \( \alpha \) is the absorption coefficient and \( \lambda \) is the wavelength. The above relationship holds only for normal incidence light.
The more general case of light incident at an arbitrary angle \( \theta \) from the normal is determined by Fresnel's equation.\(^{1.12} \) Silicon has a high index of refraction (between 3.5 to 6.9 in the optical region).\(^{1.13,1.14} \) (See Appendix B.) Reflection losses of incident light at an air-silicon interface are quite significant (about 30\% in the long wavelength region, 71\% at 0.275 \( \mu \text{m} \), and 62\% at 0.3 \( \mu \text{m} \)). The use of an antireflection (AR) coating, a surface layer with an intermediate index of refraction, will reduce the reflection loss.

The reflectivity in the presence of intermediate layers has an optimum effect at film thicknesses of one quarter wavelength, \( (\lambda_0/4) \), where the thickness of a nonabsorbing coating \( d_1 \) satisfies \( n_1 d_1 = (2j + 1)(\lambda_0/4) \) and \( j \) is an integer.\(^{1.15,1.16} \) The reflectivity is minimum when the index of refraction for the intermediate layer is

\[
\frac{n_1^2}{n_2} = n_0 \cdot n_2
\]

where \( n_0 = \) ambient index of refraction

Since \( n_0 \) is equal to 1 for air, the optimum index of refraction for an antireflection coating at an air-silicon interface is approximately 1.9. Silicon monoxide (SiO\(_2\)), with an index of refraction in the range of 1.8 to 1.9 was therefore most often used in the past as an AR coating on solar cells to minimize reflectance. The SiO\(_2\) has some absorption loss in the visible region.

Lower average reflectivity can be obtained by using two AR coatings instead of one.\(^{1.15,1.17-1.18} \) In a practical space environment application, the solar cell is always covered by glass to shield against radiation and to raise the effective emissivity for better thermal control. This constitutes the double-layer system. It turns out that the reflection for a two-layer system has either a minimum or a local maximum for a quarter wavelength optical coating; i.e., \( n_1 d_1 = n_2 d_2 = \lambda_0/4 \).\(^{1.15} \) The reflectance approaches zero if \( (n_2/n_1)^2 = n_3/n_0 \), where \( n_3 \) is the index of refraction of the third optical layer, and the average reflectance is lower over a broader wavelength range than for a single-layer coating. Thus, the cover glass and the adhesive can be used in this context as a part of an AR coating system. Since the adhesives have \( n \) values of approximately 1.4, the previous equation reveals that an AR coating with \( n = 2.2 - 2.4 \) would be optimum for a solar cell to be used with a cover glass.\(^{1.17,1.19-1.21} \)
Titanium oxide (TiO<sub>x</sub>, n = 2.20) has both a higher refraction index and less absorption than silicon monoxide (n = 1.90), and is a better choice for this double-layer system. Both of these materials, however, exhibit stronger absorption in the shorter wavelength region (0.4 μm), and are thus not suitable to a cell with high spectral response in this wavelength region. Tantalum oxide (Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) has a high refractive index (n = 2.15 - 2.26) with less absorption in the shorter wavelength region than the above two, and is suitable for a violet cell application with quartz cover glasses. Tantalum oxide coating was exclusively used for a recently developed CNR (Comsat Non-Reflective) cell and the reflectance was reduced to a few percent in a wide spectral region (0.5 - 1.0 μm).

Many properties of AR coatings vary greatly with the fabrication technique and conditions. The transparency, refractive index, and absorption are all related to the concentration of materials, and film thickness, as well as defects formed during the processes. Chemical vapor deposition of Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> AR film on the violet cell, adopted at Comsat Laboratory, for example, shows far better optical properties than sputtered Ta<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> films.

The contacts of current commercial solar cells are formed by evaporating titanium and silver metal on the entire back surface and in a contact pattern on the front surface. The total thickness of this evaporated metallization is approximately 5 μm. After the metallization, the cells are usually solder dipped if not passivated with palladium. The solder thickness may vary between 10 μm and 80 μm (0.4 - 3 mils). One of the primary considerations in the selection of the contact is the electrical behavior of the metal-semiconductor interface. In general, such interfaces should be ohmic with little or no contact resistance or Schottky barriers. A Schottky barrier has a current voltage characteristic of the same form as that for a p-n junction. The saturation current for a Schottky barrier is as follows:

\[ I_0 = A T^2 \exp \left( -\frac{\phi_B}{kT} \right) \]  

(1.4.3)
where \( A = \) effective Richardson constant \((A \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{K}^{-2})\)

\[ A = \text{effective Richardson constant} \]

\( \phi_B = \text{effective barrier height} \) (eV)

The quantity \( A \) is approximately 100 \( A \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{K}^{-2} \) and \( \phi_B \) is approximately 0.50 (eV) for most metals in contact with p-type silicon. The saturation current \( (I_0) \) at room temperature \((T = 300 \text{ K})\) will be between \( 10^{-2} \) and \( 10^{-1} \) A \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}. \) The effect that the Schottky barrier has on the solar cell will be related to the forward resistance of the barrier. Since the form of the barrier current-voltage characteristic is:

\[ I = I_0 (e^{qV/kT} - 1) \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.4.4)

The dynamic impedance of the junction is as follows:

\[ \frac{dV}{dT} = \frac{kT}{qI_0} e^{-qV/kT} \]  \hspace{1cm} (1.4.5)

It can be seen that the impedance of this barrier is inversely proportional to the saturation current. Since the saturation current at room temperature is very high, the impedance of a Schottky barrier is very low. If the barrier potential \( (\phi_B) \) for a particular metal on silicon is low enough, the barrier I-V characteristic will approach low resistance ohmic behavior. This is the case for a titanium layer on p-type silicon at room temperature. At low temperatures the saturation current of such a Schottky barrier is reduced and the diode characteristics become more significant. In this case, the Schottky barrier adds a nonlinear voltage drop to the solar cell model in series with \( R_s. \) This problem has received considerable attention in the literature. \( ^{1.33-1.38} \)

The problem associated with non-ohmic contacts can be reduced by producing a heavily doped \( (p^+) \) layer on the silicon interface. In such cases, the space charge region associated with the Schottky barrier is generally reduced. Quantum mechanical tunneling of the space charge region dominates the behavior of such thin barriers, and provides a highly conductive metal semiconductor interface. Since the solar cell front contact is applied to a silicon interface which is very heavily doped due to phosphorous diffusion, the tunneling mechanism assures a low resistance ohmic contact.
1.5 Improvement of Solar Cell Efficiency

For the improvement of solar cell efficiency, certain variables affecting the output must be considered: (a) physical properties inherently associated with materials such as band gap and absorption coefficient, (b) geometry, or configuration such as junction depth and vertical junction, and (c) physical parameters or properties such as impurity concentration that can be manipulated after the first two items are decided.

The choice of material is important in that the physical properties, such as absorption coefficient or energy gap, are suitable for the efficient photovoltaic action. Junction depth (thickness of diffused layer) and cell thickness also affect the solar cell output as expressed in the equation (1.3.3) and (1.3.4). A recently developed cell with tetrahedral surface structure, called "textured surface", "black" cell, or nonreflecting cell belongs to the second category. Bulk (base) resistivity and base material type (n or p type) can be manipulated by the amount and type of dopant. Fabrication technique and configuration at the front and back contacts change not only the series resistance but also surface recombination velocity. Recently mass-produced was a new technology cell, the "back surface field" (BSF) or p+ cell, which was produced by introducing an impurity gradient near the back contact. These variables, together with AR coatings are examples of improvements that can be made with new materials, and belong to the third category.

These aspects are briefly discussed in the following sections with particular emphasis on three types of new technology cells, namely the violet cell, the BSF cell, and the textured surface (or black) cell.

1.5.1 Considerations for Photovoltaic Materials

For a photovoltaic effect, the material has to absorb a photon or ionizing radiation energy to create excess carriers. Suitable materials for achieving a photovoltaic effect are therefore inherently limited to those with an energy gap slightly less than the energy of the photon

*The p+ is a symbol to identify a much higher than normal concentration of p-type impurity in the base region, approximately $10^{18} - 10^{19}$ cm$^{-3}$ as compared to the normal concentration of $10^{15} - 10^{16}$ cm$^{-3}$.
Radiation under consideration. The material thickness required for complete photon absorption is governed by the magnitude of the absorption coefficient and its change as a function of increasing photon energy. Those materials with a large $\alpha(\lambda)$ and a steep increase in absorption coefficient with respect to photon energy do not require a thick base material for complete absorption of sunlight, and hence are suitable for use in a thin-film cell; while those with a gradual absorption coefficient increase or low $\alpha(\lambda)$ require a greater thickness. Materials like silicon and GaP belong to the latter type while many group III-V and II-VI compounds belong to the former.

For the charge separation mechanism, an electrostatic potential is created by a metal-semiconductor junction (Schottky barrier) or by a p-n junction. The latter falls into two types: one is the homojunction, made from a single semiconductor such as those in group IV compounds (Ge, Si, C) and group III-V compounds (GaAs, InP, AlAs, etc.); and another the heterojunction consisting of two different and distinct semiconductors separated by the junction, such as CuS-Cds or group II-VI compounds (CdS, ZnS, CdSe, etc.). Theoretical maximum efficiency under the solar spectrum is plotted against the energy gaps for a few photovoltaic materials, in Figure 1.6.39. Interestingly, the output of every material monotonically decreases with an increasing temperature, but the rates are different (Figure 1.6). The maximum power of silicon is much less than that of GaAs at higher temperature. This is the reason why GaAs will probably prove to be a better solar cell material than Si in high temperature applications such as for solar concentrators. 1.40
FIGURE 1.6 Temperature Dependent Maximum Efficiency as a Function of Energy Gap for a Few Photovoltaic Materials.\textsuperscript{1,39}
1.5.2 Violet Cells

Since the solar irradiance is abundant in the blue and ultraviolet regions, an increased spectral response in these regions is essential for a higher efficiency. A blue-rich solar spectrum creates a heavier carrier concentration near the front surface of the cell than in the bulk. Therefore, if a junction is placed near or in the middle of this heavy carrier concentration (a shallow junction), more carriers will be collected before recombination than in the cell with a deep junction. Since a shallow junction introduces a greater sheet resistance in the diffused layer, thereby increasing the potential drop there, an improved carrier collection mechanism is needed to increase overall efficiency.

The sheet resistance can be decreased by increasing the number of grid lines (decreased distance between grids). However, increasing the number of grid lines increases the shadowing effect on the cell. The grid lines can be made thinner to reduce shadowing, but this, in turn, increases the voltage drop in the grid. Hence, a careful optimization of all the parameters is required to ensure the best blue response.

A Comsat group developed an improved diffusion technology which eliminates the so-called "dead layer" from the top surface layer. In contrast, the ordinary diffusion process normally reduces the minority carrier lifetime in this surface region down to nanoseconds due to the strain, dislocations, and unwanted impurities introduced during the processes. With the use of bimetallic diffusion masks, thin grids became a reality. The number of grids is increased, and the distance between grids is decreased, thus lowering the series resistance and the voltage loss. Violet cells contain 10 to 30 grids/cm with a contact area equal to 6 to 7% of the total area, as compared with approximately 3 grids/cm (about 10% of contact area) for old cells. The series resistance is about 0.05 ohm for a 2 x 2 cm cell, considerably less than the 0.2 to 0.25 ohm of the conventional cell. Tantalum oxide (Ta$_2$O$_5$) is also used as an AR coating because of a high refraction index with less absorption in the short wavelength region (see section 1.4).

With the above improvements, the spectral response in the blue and ultraviolet regions is greatly enhanced, hence the name "violet" cell.
The short circuit current for AM0 sunlight is about 40 mA/cm² as compared with about 35 mA/cm² of conventional cells. AM0 efficiencies of 14 to 14.5% are reported for 2 ohm-cm cells.1.26

1.5.3 Back Surface Field (BSF) Cells1.42-1.46

An acceptor impurity gradient can be formed at the rear surface by diffusing an impurity (such as boron) or by selectively "alloying" an impurity (such as aluminum). Mandelkorn and Lamneck1.42 applied the "alloying" process at the back contact and produced cells with higher $V_{oc}$, increased $I_{sc}$ and fill factor. They have attributed these improvements to the presence of an electric field at the back surface due to the aluminum doping gradient, hence the name of "back surface field (BSF)" cell.

Godlewski et al.1.44 have proposed a theory to explain the abnormally high open circuit voltage phenomenon; the increase in $V_{oc}$ of a BSF cell is attributable to a decrease in the reverse saturation current $I_o$, thus logarithmically increasing $V_{oc}$ in the equation (1.3.9). Three possible causes were cited to account for the decrease in $I_o$: (a) the reduction of surface recombination velocity at the rear contact in a conventional cell model, (b) the presence of a drift field, and (c) an abrupt change in the impurity concentration. In this investigation, it was concluded that there is no clear choice as to which model is more appropriate for the explanation of the high voltage of the BSF cell because experimental results were lacking. Brandhorst, et al.,1.45 have constructed BSF cells by epitaxial deposition of 10 ohm-cm silicon layers onto substrates with various resistivities. The study showed that the low-high junction model in reference 1.44 explains such observations as (a) variations of $V_{oc}$ as a function of substrate resistivity, and (b) the change in $V_{oc}$ and $I_{sc}$ with respect to the radiation fluence.

Further investigation of BSF cells by Mandelkorn and Lamneck,1.46 in which these investigators used the $p^+ p$ cell* after removing the $n^+$ surface layer from $n^+p^+p$ BSF cell, lead to the conclusion that a photo-voltage is generated at the $p^+p$ back junction of the cell. This basic phenomenon is not new.1.47, 1.48 When a sharp difference in doping (or impurity) concentrations exist between one region and another - called

---

*The $p^+$ designates a heavily doped $p$-region where the $p$-type impurity concentration reaches as high as $10^{18}$ to $10^{19}$ cm⁻³.
"low-high junction by Gunn\textsuperscript{1.48} - the difference in the minority carrier concentration across the interface (or minority carrier concentration barrier) results in a large potential difference.

The BSF tends to confine the minority carriers in the p-region (for a \( n^+p^+ \) structure) and away from the back contact, which can lower the dark current through the device and improve the \( V_{oc} \) and fill factor\textsuperscript{1.41,1.44,1.46}. \( V_{oc} \) increases as the cell thickness is reduced. The reduction of bulk recombination due to the thinner cell tends to lower the dark current and raise \( V_{oc} \). A similar explanation was offered by von Roos\textsuperscript{1.49} for the increased \( V_{oc} \) of a BSF cell; the voltage across the cell will distribute itself among the two interfaces of p-n junction and "low-high" junction in such a manner that the dark current is diminishing while the short circuit current virtually stays the same. As the result the \( V_{oc} \) increases according to equation (1.3.9). Open circuit voltages of up to 0.6 V have been reported for 10 ohm-cm BSF cells.

1.5.4 Textured Surface (or Black) Cells\textsuperscript{1.29,1.30,1.50}

The textured surface cell is based on rearranging the surface geometry to reduce reflectivity. While this concept is not new, it has only recently succeeded in practice.\textsuperscript{1.29,1.30,1.50} Preferential chemical etches by sodium or potassium hydroxide, or hydrazine hydrate applied on (100) orientation of the silicon surface can selectively expose \(<111>\) planes, which intersect the (100) surface with four-fold symmetry at an angle of 54.7°.\textsuperscript{1.50} Since incident light undergoes two reflections before complete escape (see Figure 1.7), optical reflection losses from these surfaces were greatly reduced. In fact, the color of the cell is velvet black when viewed from the top because there is no reflection in this direction, hence, the second name of black cell, or velvet cell. The reduced reflection occurs at all wavelengths in comparison with that of flat surface cells. The Comsat group then named this cell "Comsat Non-Reflecting" cell, or CNR cell for short.\textsuperscript{1.29,1.30}

The textured surface consists of randomly spaced, four-sided, pointed tetrahedra of varying heights, ranging from approximately one micron to as high as 15 microns, and with a spacing of 3 - 10 microns. The textured surface not only results in reduced reflections, but also greatly enhances
Figure 1.7 Optics of Idealized (Tetrahedra of Uniform Height) Textured Surface Cell

(a) Refraction at Surface  
(b) Approximation for Bulk Response
the response at each end of the spectrum as compared to flat surface cells. The mechanism of enhanced spectral response is not attributable to mere reduction of surface reflection.\textsuperscript{1.51}

For a given cell thickness, the optical path length is increased as shown in Figure 1.7 as compared with that of flat surface cell. This is equivalent to a flat cell with an increased cell thickness and the output increases accordingly. Because of refraction at the surface, more carriers are generated near the surface of the textured cell than flat surface cell. The carrier generation term in the steady state diffusion equation takes a form of \( a'(\lambda_1) \cdot N'(\lambda_1) \cdot \exp \left( -a'(\lambda_2) \cdot x \right) \), where \( a'(\lambda_2) = \frac{a(\lambda_1)}{\cos \theta_1} \)

\( N'(\lambda_1) = \cos \theta_1 \cdot N(\lambda_1) \), and the unprimed quantities represent the case for an unrefracted beam. This means that the absorption coefficient is virtually increased from \( a(\lambda_1) \) to \( \frac{a(\lambda_1)}{\cos \theta_1} \). The spectral response is thus shifted by

\[ \Delta \lambda = \lambda_1 - \lambda \cdot \left[ \frac{a(\lambda_1)}{\cos \theta_1} \right] \]

and the generated carrier concentration changes from \( N(\lambda_1) \) to \( \cos \theta_1 \cdot N(\lambda_1) \).\textsuperscript{1.51} The spectral response in long wavelength region is enhanced by four-fold contributions of both primary and secondary beams.\textsuperscript{*}

The increase in spectral response at shorter wavelengths is attributable to the inherent spectral shift as discussed above and to the carriers generated within and near the pyramid structure. Within a tetrahedral structure, light intensity is highly concentrated; for example, four-fold symmetries of both primary and secondary beams along the symmetry axis (but lower concentrations away from the axis). For the primary beam along the symmetry axis, an absorption coefficient in the exponent of a carrier generation term changes from \( a(\lambda) \) to \( a'(\lambda) = \frac{\tan \delta \sec \theta_1}{\tan \delta + \tan \theta_1} \cdot a(\lambda) \).\textsuperscript{*}

\textsuperscript{*If the edge effects are ignored, the carrier generation at a large distance from the surface (as compared with the pyramid height) is contributed by four-fold primary and secondary beams. This approximation is appropriate for the bulk response because of randomness in pyramid heights, and the problem can be simplified to the one dimensional case.\textsuperscript{1.51}}
At the wavelength of 0.7 μm, $\alpha' = 0.591 \cdot \alpha(\lambda)$, which will be reduced to $\alpha' = 0.583 \alpha(\lambda)$ at $\lambda = 0.4 \mu m$. Thus, the carrier generation from blue light is very high in the pyramid structure, and together with the merit of a shallow junction, the blue response is greatly enhanced from that of comparable flat-surface cells.\(^{1.51}\) In Figure 1.8, the spectral response of the CNR cell (textured cell produced by Comsat Crop.) is compared with a flat-surface cell.\(^{1.52}\) The short circuit current observed is as large as 45 mA/cm\(^2\), about 15% improvement over a comparable flat surface cell.\(^{1.29,1.30,1.52}\)

The increased carrier generation and collection efficiency, and the resultant spectral response of the textured surface cell lead to the higher radiation tolerance. As discussed in a later chapter, radiation damage in the solar cell is mainly due to the decrease of minority carrier lifetime in the base region. Thus, the enhanced blue response from a higher carrier generation and collection efficiency within the tetrahedral structure, and an increased response because of a longer optical length in the base region make the textured surface cell less dependent on the base diffusion length. That is to say, the output is less dependent on the radiation susceptible parameter, and hence the textured cell is more radiation tolerant than a comparable flat surface cell.
Figure 1.8  Spectral Responses of Textured Surface Cell and a Comparable Flat Surface Cell$^{1.52}$
REFERENCES


REFERENCES (Continued)


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REFERENCES (Continued)


1.52 B. E. Anspaugh, private communication.
CHAPTER 2

2.0 INSTRUMENTATION TECHNIQUES FOR MEASUREMENT OF SOLAR CELL PARAMETERS

In this section, the various commonly used experimental methods for the analysis of radiation effects are discussed. The most commonly used measurement in the analysis of radiation effects in silicon solar cells is the current-voltage characteristic under illumination. Since solar cell response is a strong function of optical wavelength, the light source is a major variable in the evaluation of solar cell parameter changes.

2.1 Light Sources and Solar Simulators

The spectral irradiance of the sun at 1.5x10^11 m (one AU) is of primary importance in solar cell analysis for earth orbits. The values of solar spectral irradiance proposed by Johnson\(^2.1\) in 1954 have been widely accepted and used for analytical purposes. Johnson's results indicated that the solar constant was 139.5 mW/cm\(^2\), and also that the solar spectrum closely approximates that of a 6000 K blackbody. Several high-altitude measurements made in recent years have been reviewed.\(^2.2\) The findings indicate a solar constant of 135.3 ± 2.1 mW/cm\(^2\). The proposed solar spectral irradiance is tabulated in Table 2.1. Silicon solar cell response is generally limited to the region between 0.3 and 1.2 \(\mu\)m. In this range, the solar power density is 104.4 mW/cm\(^2\).

Among several solar simulation techniques, the most common method is the use of a xenon arc lamp with filters to remove undesired line spectra in the near infrared. Unfiltered xenon lamps are also used in the pulsed mode, which does not generate the undesired line spectra. Unfiltered carbon arcs are also used to simulate solar illumination with a reasonable spectral match. A close spectral match to the solar spectrum is obtained by the use of a xenon-filtered tungsten combination or filtered xenon source. These sources match the solar spectrum well enough that cell measurements made under these sources can be considered representative.
### Table 2.1: Solar Spectral Irradiance - Proposed Standard Curve 2.2

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<th>$A$</th>
<th>$E(n)$</th>
<th>$D(n)$</th>
<th>$E(n)$</th>
<th>$D(n)$</th>
<th>$E(n)$</th>
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</thead>
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<td>2.76</td>
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<td>0.00096</td>
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<td>0.00106</td>
<td>0.00096</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>0.00095</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The table continues with similar entries for various values of $A$.

---

The solar constant is $1353 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$. The irradiance values are given in $\text{Wm}^{-2} \text{um}^{-1}$. The table provides a standard curve for solar spectral irradiance, with values for different wavelengths ($A$) and corresponding irradiance ($E(n)$) and differential irradiance ($D(n)$).
of that in the space environment. Many other types of light sources have been used in radiation effects studies. Unfiltered and filtered incandescent tungsten sources have peak response in the red and near infrared. Since this is the wavelength region of the solar cell response which is most changed by irradiation, use of these sources will show much more severe cell radiation degradations as compared to evaluations with a suitable solar simulator. This characteristic severely limits the use of tungsten source simulation in the evaluation of radiation effects.

Filtered xenon arc solar simulators are manufactured by Spectrolab and Aerospace Controls. The spectral irradiance for the Spectrolab X-25 simulator is shown in Figure 2.1. Similar data is shown in Figure 2.2 for a combination xenon-tungsten source simulator used by Centralab Semiconductor Products. In Figure 2.3, the spectral irradiance is shown for a Genarco Model #ME4CWM carbon arc simulator.

An important recent development in the field of solar simulators is the use of pulsed xenon arc lamps for solar cell and solar cell array testing. These developments have been prompted by the need for a suitable alternative to testing large arrays in natural sunlight on the earth's surface. In these systems, an approximately 2 msec pulse of light is produced. Solar cell output data can be accumulated during about 1 msec of the pulse length. Sophisticated electronic data handling systems are necessary to record cell or array outputs and commutate external load resistances during the light pulse. Variations in test cell current due to light intensity variations are corrected to a normalized value at the desired illumination. The high intensity peaks in the 0.8-0.9 μm region of the xenon arc spectrum are not generated by pulsed operation with high current densities. By this means, it is possible to achieve a reasonably close match to the solar spectrum. Array areas up to eight feet by eight feet can be illuminated with excellent temperature control, by such simulators.
Figure 2.1 Spectral Output, Spectrolab X-25 Spectrosun 2.3
Figure 2.2 Spectral Output, Centralab Solar Simulator
Figure 2.3 Spectral Output, Carbon Arc Solar Simulator

* Microwatts per cm$^2$ at 1 meter per 0.1 micron for 1 mm$^2$ of the source

---

- Microwatts per cm$^2$ at 1 meter per 0.1 micron for 1 mm$^2$ of the source
- JOHNSON'S CURVE (REF. 2.1)
  (adjustment factor $4.5 \times 10^{-3}$)

Wavelength, $\mu$m
The extent to which a lack of solar spectral match affects a solar cell measurement can be estimated if the spectral intensity of the light source and the spectral response of the solar cell are known. The light generated current of the illuminated cell can be calculated as follows:

\[ I_L (A/cm^2) = \int R(\lambda) \cdot E(\lambda) \, d\lambda \]  

(2.1.1)

where

- \( R(\lambda) \) = solar cell spectral response, \( A/W \)
- \( E(\lambda) \) = spectral irradiance, \( W/cm^2 \cdot \mu m \)
- \( d\lambda \) = an increment of wavelength, \( \mu m \)

The above equation can be used to determine the light-generated currents under solar and simulator illuminations. The generated current under solar illumination can be calculated from the generated current under simulator illumination if the spectral response of the cell and the spectral irradiance of the simulator are known. The relation is as follows:

\[ I_L(\text{space}) = I_L(\text{simulator}) \frac{\int R(\lambda) \cdot E(\lambda)_{\text{space}} \, d\lambda}{\int R(\lambda) \cdot E(\lambda)_{\text{sim.}} \, d\lambda} \]  

(2.1.2)

Solar simulator intensities are determined by the short circuit current outputs of calibrated primary or secondary standard cells. The primary standard cells, commonly in use, were generated by a NASA/JPL program of telemetered balloon flights. \( 2.9, 2.10 \) Similar programs have been conducted by aircraft and high altitude terrestrial measurements.\( 2.11-2.14, 2.33, 2.34 \) When the effects of atmospheric absorption are properly corrected, the results are in good agreement with the balloon flight data.\( 2.15 \)
Primary standard cell availability is limited and they are considered too valuable for general usage in setting simulator intensities. For this reason, secondary standard cells are calibrated for use as working standards. Palmer has recently reviewed the methods of generating secondary standard cells and concluded that previously proposed methods of calibration may yield poor results. Palmer has proposed the use of alternate methods which insure that secondary standard cell calibration accuracy will approach that of primary standard cells. A solar simulator intensity which produces a standard cell response equal to that for free space at one AU is referred to as one sun, air mass zero or 135.3 mW/cm² (formerly 139.5 mW/cm²). Solar simulator spectral quality should be monitored by use of narrow bandpass or cutoff filters with calibrated spectral response detectors.

2.2 Current-Voltage Characteristics

The measurement of solar cell current-voltage characteristics is the primary means of evaluating the device. The evaluation is made by measuring the cell voltage developed and the cell current into load resistances varying between zero and infinity. The measurement is simple in principle but attention to several practical details is necessary to insure accurate results. Solar cell response is a strong function of temperature. For this reason, the cell must be in thermal equilibrium at a known temperature during the measurement. With adequate heat sinking and cooling, cells measured under one sun irradiance at room temperature can be stabilized at 28°C. To insure that the voltages measured are representative of those developed on the cell contacts, separate probes are employed to measure cell voltage and current. In this way, any voltage drops which occur at the current probe-cell interfaces due to contact resistance do not cause errors in
the measured cell voltage. The load resistance may be varied manually or electronically. The current voltage data is usually plotted with an X-Y recorder. The solar cell parameters such as $I_{SC}$ and $V_{OC}$ can be read directly with digital meters. Multiplier circuits are available which produce a voltage proportional to the product of cell voltage and current. This output is plotted as a function of cell voltage to directly indicate the maximum power and voltage at maximum power. The cell series resistance is also determined from current-voltage characteristics at two or more different illumination levels. 2.17, 2.18

2.3 Spectral Response Measurements

Spectral response measurements are very useful for evaluating changes in solar cells due to radiation effects. The spectral response (A/W) is a measure of the short-circuit current density generated by the cell under various monochromatic illuminations of a known power density. The spectral response is often reported in terms of relative units when absolute values of light intensities are not determined. Various schemes have been used to measure the spectral response of solar cells. High resolution monochromators are used when extreme accuracy is desired. When less accuracy is needed, narrow bandpass filters can be used as sources of monochromatic light. When a monochromator is used, there are two methods to normalize the solar cell output to the light intensity. Tungsten light sources are usually used in monochromators, and the entrance slit width can be varied to control the optical power density illuminating the cell under test. In some systems, the entrance slit width can be automatically controlled to maintain a constant optical power density on the solar cell. An alternate approach is to maintain a constant slit width and allow the optical power density on the cell to vary with wavelength, and attenuate the cell response at each wavelength measured by use of calibrated voltage dividers.

One disadvantage of these methods of measurement is that the solar cell response is determined at very low minority carrier injection levels. Solar cells irradiated with neutrons and protons have response
characteristics which are dependent upon the concentration of injected minority carriers. In such cases the cell must be illuminated with a light source similar in intensity and spectral content to the intended space environment during the spectral response evaluation. A scheme for measuring spectral response under approximate solar illumination has been suggested by Stofel.\textsuperscript{2.19}

2.4 Irradiation Methods

The evaluation of solar cell radiation effects requires a wide range of specialized equipment and instrumentation. Charged particle accelerators are the primary sources for space radiation simulation. The range of electron energies of interest is 0.3 to 10 MeV. Electron energies of 0.3 to 3 MeV are usually obtained with Van de Graaff electrostatic or Dynamatron accelerators. Higher electron energies can be reached with linear electron accelerators. Proton energies from 0.1 to 3 MeV are obtained with Van de Graaff accelerators. Proton energies greater than 10 MeV can be obtained from cyclotrons. For lower energy protons, it is necessary to transport the proton beam and perform the irradiation in vacuum to avoid excessive energy losses. A survey of accelerator facilities has been published but is currently out of date.\textsuperscript{2.20}

The Space Radiation Effects Laboratory at Newport News, Virginia is operated for NASA specifically for space radiation simulation.\textsuperscript{2.21} The facilities include accelerators for all electron energies of interest and a 600 MeV synchrocyclotron. Accelerators invariably produce irradiation rates which are many orders of magnitude greater than those of space environments. Real time irradiations of solar cells have been done using beta emitting sources.\textsuperscript{2.22, 2.23} These sources generate a spectrum of electron energies and fluxes similar to that of some space environments.

A successful experiment must include accurate knowledge of the particle energy, measurement of cross sectional beam intensity at the irradiation area, as well as the intensity during the irradiation. Although there are several methods of accomplishing the above measurements, all can be done with a Faraday cup. A design of a Faraday cup
suitable for accelerators in the 1 MeV range is shown in the literature.\textsuperscript{2,24} The desirable characteristics of a Faraday cup are as follows:

a. Shielding thickness must exceed particle energy range.
b. A high cup length-to-diameter ratio is desirable.
c. Use low Z (atomic number) materials to reduce secondary electron emission and bremsstrahlung production.
d. Cup must be in vacuum or potted.
e. Cup should be a reentrant cavity.
f. Cup should be screened to suppress secondary electron emission if necessary.
g. Cup should have remote X-Y translation to facilitate beam mapping.

A Faraday cup requires a current measuring instrument which operates in the range of $10^{-10}$ to $10^{-6}$ amperes and integrates charge. Instruments of this nature are produced by Keithley Instruments, Cleveland, Ohio and Ecor Products, Silver Spring, Maryland.

The particle energy can be determined by means of a range-energy measurement. In this measurement, increasing thickness of absorbers are introduced into a constant flux beam, while the flux of particles exiting the absorber is monitored with a Faraday cup or a radiation-degraded solar cell. If the beam is monoenergetic, a plot of cup current (or cell photocurrent) versus absorber thickness is extrapolated to zero current at an absorber thickness which is equal to the projected range of the mean particle energy of the beam. This technique is satisfactory for electrons and high energy protons. Since the beam current must remain constant as absorber thickness is increased, a second independent means of monitoring beam current must be available. Van de Graaff generators are equipped with a generating voltmeter which produces a dc voltage proportional to the potential difference on the accelerator tube. A check calibration at one operating energy is sufficient to insure accurate calibration. Corrections must be made for energy loss in the accelerator exit window and in the atmosphere between the exit port and the target.
2.5 Diffusion Length Measurement

The importance of minority carrier diffusion length (or lifetime) in the study of solar cells was discussed in Section 1.0. A decrease in minority carrier lifetime is the primary reason for solar cell degradation in radiation environments. An experimental technique for measuring minority carrier diffusion length using gamma ray or electron irradiation was suggested by Gremmelmaier.\(^2.25\) This technique requires the uniform generation of electron-hole pairs throughout the active volume of the p-n junction device. Under these conditions the generated current density \((J_L)\) is expressed as follows:

\[
J_L = q g_o (L_p + 2W + L_n) \tag{2.5.1}
\]

where \(q\) = electronic charge

\(g_o\) = generation rate of electron-hole pairs in unit volume

\(L_p\) = hole diffusion length in an n-type layer

\(W\) = width of space charge layer

\(L_n\) = electron diffusion length in a p-type layer

Since \(L_p\) and \(W\) are usually very small compared to \(L_n\), they may be neglected, and the measured short circuit current becomes proportional to the diffusion length in the p-type base region \((L_n)\). The generation rate determined for this uniform radiation thus allows accurate determination of diffusion length from the measured short circuit current.

There are several experimental methods of uniformly injecting electron-hole pairs. In addition to the use of gamma radiation, high energy electrons, high energy protons\(^2.26\) and infrared light\(^2.27,2.28\) have been used to achieve uniform injection. To achieve uniform injection in a solar cell irradiated with 1 Mev electrons, it is necessary to introduce a 0.030 cm (0.012 in.) aluminum shield immediately in front of the cell during a normal incidence front irradiation. The details of this procedure and the experimental evaluation of the generation rate have been covered by Rosenzweig.\(^2.26\)
The experimental measurement of diffusion length by the above methods has several inherent limitations. Since the diffusion length is that distance from which \( \frac{1}{e} \) of injected minority carriers will diffuse to the junction during their lifetime, the diffusion length concept involves both minority carrier lifetime and diffusion. Minority carrier lifetime, in the most general case, could vary throughout the active region of a solar cell. In practice this situation arises when solar cells are irradiated with low energy protons which do not penetrate the entire active volume of the cell. Diffusion lengths of solar cells with a nonuniform minority carrier lifetime in the active base region cannot be measured by the above methods. Surface recombination at the solar cell back contact can also cause errors in measured diffusion lengths. These errors are negligible for cells in which the thickness exceeds two or three times the diffusion length. Corrections for varying back surface recombination velocities and for cases where the cell thickness is not greater than \( L \) have been covered in a review paper by Meulenberg.\(^2\)\(^3\)\(^5\)

The measurement of diffusion length by the above methods also assumes the external cell-current generated is collected entirely by diffusion of excess minority carriers to the junction. Some recent designs of solar cell structure utilize "drift fields." In such cases, excess minority carrier collection is aided by the presence of an electric field in the base region; and the short circuit current under conditions of uniform pair production cannot be related to diffusion length by the above equation.

An additional limitation arises if 1 MeV electron or other high energy radiations are used in the diffusion length measurement. The radiation flux must be kept low to minimize damage to the cell during the measurement. The 1 MeV electron beam current during such a measurement is approximately \( 10^{-9} \) A/cm\(^2\). The generation rate of excess minority carriers produced by this electron flux is considerably lower than that produced by solar illumination at 135 mW/cm\(^2\). In most cases the diffusion length or lifetime is not dependent upon the concentration of excess minority carriers. In such cases, the diffusion length measured with low levels of injected minority carriers is the same as that for a cell under
one sun illumination. Silicon solar cells irradiated with protons and neutrons exhibit injection level dependence of the diffusion length, and must be illuminated with simulated solar illumination to allow accurate measurement of the diffusion length. The schemes used by Denney for proton irradiated cells and Stofel, et al. for neutron irradiated cells have shown that the diffusion lengths of such cells measured under approximate solar illumination are roughly two times greater than that measured under low injection level conditions.

2.6 Statistical and Error Analysis

The analysis of radiation effects in solar cells involves the collection and evaluation of large amounts of experimental data. Such data are often presented in graphical or tabular form without the use of statistical analysis. The basic statistical tools, which have application in the analysis of radiation effects data, along with the nature and causes of errors in the data, will be discussed.

A common situation in the analysis of irradiated solar cells involves measurements of engineering or physical parameters on a group of solar cells exposed to a particular environment or radiation fluence. The characteristics of such a data set are a central tendency and a distribution about this central value. The most suitable measure of the central tendency is the arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$). The arithmetic mean is defined as follows:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

(2.6.1)

where $x_i$ = measured value on cell $i$

$n$ = number of cells measured

The degree to which measured values are dispersed or scattered can be described in several ways. One such measure is the range or difference between the largest and smallest measured values in a group. A second measure of the dispersion in a group of measurements is the standard deviation. The standard deviation ($\sigma$) is defined as follows:
An additional measure of dispersion is the variance, which is defined as the square of the standard deviation \( \sigma^2 \).

Solar cell evaluations usually involve sample sizes of less than 30 and more often from 3 to 10. When such small sample sizes are used, the mean of experimental results may not be representative of a similar experiment involving a large number of samples. The maximum difference which may occur between the mean value of a small sample and the mean value of a large sample having a normal or Gaussian distribution can be calculated for any desired probability. This difference is referred to as the confidence limits of a mean value. The confidence limits expressed relative to the mean value are as follows:

\[
\bar{x} \pm t_c \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
\]

(2.6.3)

where \( t_c \) is the critical percentile value for Students' t distribution. Values of \( t_c \) may be obtained from statistical manuals or handbooks. For example, if 95% confidence levels are desired for a sample size of 5, \( t_c \) is equal to 2.78.

When solar cell experimental data are collected for increasing radiation fluences, it is desirable to display the data graphically in a manner which reveals fundamental empirical relationships. As an example, it has been empirically observed that many parameters of irradiated solar cells such as \( I_{sc}, V_{oc}, \) and \( P_{max} \) can be described by equations similar to the following relation:

\[
P_{\text{max}}(\phi) = P_{\text{max}0} - C \log \left( 1 + \frac{\phi}{\phi_x} \right)
\]

(2.6.4)
where \( P_{\text{max}}(\phi) \) = maximum power to load at fluence \( \phi \)

\[ P_{\text{max}} = \text{maximum power to load before irradiation} \]

\( \phi = \text{radiation fluence} \)

\( \phi_x = \text{a constant dependent on radiation energy and cell type} \)

\( C = \text{a constant dependent on radiation type} \)

Computer programs can be employed to fit equations to experimental data. In most cases, however, curves can be fitted to experimental data by manual means as well.

The coefficient of correlation is a measure of the degree to which an analytical expression can describe variations in experimental data. The coefficient of correlation is defined as follows:

\[
r = \pm \left[ 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - x_{\text{eqn}})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \right]^{1/2}
\]  

(2.6.5)

where \( x_{\text{eqn}} = \text{value of } x \text{ from fitted analytical expression} \)

\( \bar{x} = \text{mean value of experimental data} \)

\( x_i = \text{experimentally observed value} \)

If the fitted analytical expression or curve has a correlation coefficient of 1, it explains all of the experimentally observed variation. If an unexplained variation exists, the correlation coefficient will be between -1 and +1. It is usually possible to describe experimental solar cell data by expressions which have correlation coefficients very close to one. A few examples of the application of statistical methods to solar cell data have appeared in the literature. 2.30, 2.31, 2.32
In addition to the random errors that affect data, there are systematic errors which are inherent to the operation of instruments. These errors involve limitations of the accuracy with which electron fluence, electron energy, solar simulator intensity, etc., can be determined with particular instruments. When an experiment is designed, it is desirable to insure that the random and systematic instrumentation errors are negligible or minor with respect to the accidental errors. In such cases, the results can be analyzed assuming that the dispersion or distribution in a group of measurements is due only to the accidental error and characteristic deviation in the sample group due to manufacturing differences.
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2.3 Courtesy of J. Castle, Spectrolab.


2.7 Anon, "Large Area Pulsed Solar Simulator", Marketing Data, TRW Systems Group.


CHAPTER 3

3.0 RADIATION EFFECTS

The behavior of solar cells in a radiation environment can be described in terms of the changes in the engineering output parameters of the devices. This approach limits the understanding of the physical changes which occur in the device. Since other environmental factors may need consideration, an understanding of a physical model provides a basis for estimates of the behavior in a complex environment. In addition, solar arrays of the future will become more complex and may utilize materials which are affected by different aspects of radiation damage. For these reasons, the engineer should be aware of the process by which radiation interacts with matter, and understand the physical models which describe the processes.

3.1 The Theory of Radiation Damage

The radiation usually of interest in the study of degradation of materials and devices consists of energetic or fast massive particles (i.e., electrons, protons, neutrons, or ions). The origin of these particles may be particle accelerators, the natural space radiation environment, nuclear reactions, or secondary mechanisms such as Compton electrons produced by gamma rays. Because they have mass, energy and possibly charge, these particles or other particles generated by them can interact in several ways with materials. The dominant interactions are:

a. Inelastic Collisions with Atomic Electrons. Inelastic collisions with bound atomic electrons are usually the predominant mechanism by which an energetic charged particle loses kinetic energy in an absorber. In such collisions, electrons experience a transition to an excited state (excitation) or to an unbound state (ionization).

b. Elastic Collisions with Atomic Nuclei. Energetic charged particles may have coulombic interactions with the positive charge of the atomic nucleus through Rutherford scattering. In some cases the amount of energy transferred to the atom will displace it from its position in a crystalline lattice.
This energetic displaced atom may in turn undergo similar collisions with other atoms of the material. Energetic particles may also interact directly by a hard sphere collision with the nucleus. The probability of this type of event is usually less than that for Rutherford scattering, except at higher energies. If sufficient energy is transferred to displace an atom from its lattice site, that atom will probably be energetic enough to displace many other atoms.

c. Inelastic Collisions with Atomic Nuclei. This general category of interaction includes several processes which are important in radiation damage studies. Highly energetic protons undergo inelastic collisions with the atomic nucleus. In this process the energetic proton interacts with the nucleus and leaves the nucleus in an excited or activated state. The excited nucleus emits energetic nucleons and the recoiling nucleus is displaced from its lattice site. This recoiling nucleus in turn causes more displacements. This process is also referred to as spallation. Collisions between neutrons of thermal energy and nuclei can also be included in this group. However, these interactions are of little importance in solar array degradation.

The major types of radiation damage phenomena in solids which are of interest to the solar array designer are ionization and atomic displacement. It is important to classify an effect into one of these two categories, if possible, because the general behavior of each phenomenon has been characterized to a large extent.

**Ionization**

Ionization occurs when orbital electrons are removed from an atom or molecule in gases, liquids or solids. The measure of the intensity of an ionizing radiation is the Roentgen. This unit is defined by a charge generation of $2.58 \times 10^{-4}$ coulomb/kilogram of air. The measure of the absorbed dose in any material of interest is usually defined in terms of the absorbed energy per unit mass. The accepted unit of absorbed dose is the rad (100 ergs/gm or 0.01 joules/kg).
Through the use of the concept of absorbed dose, various radiation exposures can be reduced to absorbed dose units which will reflect the degree of ionization damage in the material of interest. This concept can be applied to electron, gamma and X-ray radiations of all energies. For electrons, the particle fluence is multiplied by the electronic stopping power of the electron energy of interest to determine the absorbed dose. In this manner, the effects of an exposure to fluxes of trapped electrons of various energies in space can be reduced to an absorbed dose. In general, this practice is also applicable to proton irradiations; however, some caution must be exercised. In some types of materials, the effects of the ionization caused by heavy particles is confined to the vicinity of the particle track. If homogeneous ionization is produced by protons in the absorber material of interest, one can convert proton fluences to absorbed doses and sum them with doses from other radiations.

The variations of stopping power and range for electrons and protons of various energies can be seen in Figures 3.1 and 3.2. The data presented are for silicon and have been normalized for density. The stopping power and range of a fast particle are not strong functions of the atomic number of the absorber material. For this reason, the data in Figures 3.1 and 3.2 can be used for materials with a similar atomic number with a negligible error.

Radiation may affect solar cell array materials by several ionization-related effects. The reduction of transmittance in solar cell cover slides is an important effect of ionizing radiation. The darkening is caused by the formation of color centers in glass or oxide materials. The color centers form when ionizing radiation excites an orbital electron to the conduction band. These electrons become trapped by impurity atoms in the oxide to form charged defect complexes which can be relatively stable at room temperature.

Radiation produces many ionization-related effects in organic materials. These changes all result from the production of ions, free electrons, and free radicals. As a result of these actions, transparent polymers are
Figure 3.1 Stopping Power and Range Curves for Electrons in Silicon. Reference, Berger and Seltzer, NASA SP-3036, 1966.
Figure 3.2 Stopping Power and Range Curves for Protons in Silicon. Reference, Janni, AFWL-TR-65-150, 1966.
darkened and crosslinking between main-chain members may drastically alter the mechanical properties. The contemplated use of polymeric materials in solar arrays will require the array designer to have knowledge of the ionization-related radiation effects in those materials.

The use of silicon dioxide as a surface passivation coating and dielectric material in silicon devices results in a wide range of ionization-related radiation effects. The development of trapped charges in the silicon dioxides can cause increased leakage currents, decreased gain, and surface channel development in bipolar transistors and increased threshold voltages in MOS field effect transistors. Ionizing radiation in silicon excites the electrons of the valence band to the conduction band, creating electron-hole pairs in much the same way that carrier pairs are generated by visible light. Although an optical photon of energy equal or greater than 1.1 eV will create an electron-hole pair, roughly three times this amount of energy must be absorbed from a high energy particle to produce the same carriers. In silicon devices, the electron-hole pairs which are generated by ionizing radiation cause photocurrents in the same manner as solar illumination.

**Atomic Displacement**

The loss of energy by fast electrons and protons caused by collision processes with the electrons of an absorber or target material account for a large fraction of the dissipated energy. For electrons and protons in the range of 0.1 to 10 MeV, these electron collisions determine the particle range in an absorber. Despite this fact, a different type of collision process is the basis for the damage which permanently degrades silicon solar cells in the space environment. The basis for this damage is the displacement of silicon atoms from their lattice sites by fast particles in the crystalline absorber. These displaced atoms undergo other reactions and finally form stable defects which produce significant changes in the equilibrium carrier concentrations and the minority carrier lifetime.
The displacement of an atom from a lattice site requires a certain minimum energy similar to that of other atomic movements. The energy of sublimation for a silicon atom is 4.9 eV. The energy for the formation of a vacancy in the silicon lattice is 2.3 eV. The displacement of an atom involves the formation of a vacancy, the formation of an interstitial atom and other electronic and phonon losses. It is reasonable to expect that the energy of displacement is several times larger than the energy of formation for a vacancy. Seitz has estimated that the displacement energy is roughly four times the sublimation energy.3.1 Electron threshold energies of 145 keV and 125 keV have been reported by various investigators.3.2, 3.3, 3.4 The following equation relates the electron threshold energy to the displacement energy.3.1

\[ E_d = 2 \frac{m_e}{M} \frac{E_t}{m_e c^2} (E_t + 2 m_e c^2) \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.1.1)

where 
\( E_d \) = displacement energy (MeV) 
\( E_t \) = threshold energy (MeV) 
\( m_e \) = electron mass (1/1836) 
\( M \) = atomic weight, Si (28) 
\( m_e c^2 \) = electronic mass-energy equivalence, 0.511 MeV

The reported threshold energies indicate displacement energies of 12.9 eV or 11.0 eV, respectively.

Although proton threshold energies have not been determined, they can be calculated from the classical form of the above equation:

\[ E_d = \frac{4 \cdot M_p \cdot M}{(M_p + M)^2} E_t \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.1.2)

where \( M_p \) = proton mass, 1. The above values of displacement energies indicate proton or neutron thresholds of 97.5 or 82.5 eV in silicon. Since particles below the threshold energies cannot produce displacement damage, the space environment energy spectrums are effectively cut off below these values.
For particles above the threshold energy, the probability of an atomic displacement can be described in terms of a displacement cross section. Using this concept, the number of displacements can be estimated from:

\[ N_d = n_a \sigma \phi \]  

where \( N_d \) = number of displacements per unit volume

\( n_a \) = number of atoms per unit volume of absorber (5 \( \times \) 10\(^{22} \) silicon atoms/cm\(^2\))

\( \sigma \) = displacement cross section (cm\(^2\))

\( \phi \) = average displacements per primary displacement

\( \phi \) = radiation fluence (particles/cm\(^2\))

The displacement cross sections for fast electrons of various energies can be calculated from the relativistic generalization of the Rutherford scattering cross section equation.\(^3.1\) For silicon, the calculated displacement cross section for 1 MeV electrons is about 63 \( \times \) 10\(^{-24} \) cm\(^{-2} \) and increases only 10% for electron energies of 5 MeV and greater. The displaced silicon atom may receive enough energy to displace other silicon atoms. The mechanism for these secondary displacements is Rutherford interactions for silicon atoms of energies greater than 10\(^{3} \) eV and hard sphere collisions for lower energy atoms. Although different theories of the production of secondary displacements have been presented, their results are very similar. Using the model of Kinchin and Pease,\(^3.5\) the average number of displacements in silicon is 1.53 for a 1 MeV electron. The electron energy variation of the various parameters is shown in Table 3.1.
TABLE 3.1
SILICON DISPLACEMENT PARAMETERS, VARIOUS ELECTRON ENERGIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electron Energy (Mev)</th>
<th>$\sigma$ $(10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2)$</th>
<th>$\xi$</th>
<th>$\sigma_\nu$ $(10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2)$</th>
<th>$n_\alpha \sigma_\nu$ $(\text{cm}^{-1})$</th>
<th>$\Delta N_d/\Delta \Phi$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The direct result of the radiation is the production of vacant lattice sites (vacancies) and silicon atoms which come to rest in the interstices of the crystal lattice (interstitials). The distribution of vacancies will not be uniform, because the vacancies from secondary displacements will lie relatively close to the associated primary vacancy.

The experimental studies must be reviewed to gain a more complete model of displacement damage in silicon. Vacancies and interstitials are particularly mobile and unstable at room temperature. In n-type silicon, it has been shown that vacancies react with oxygen impurities to form close coupled vacancy-oxygen pairs (V-O)\textsuperscript{3,6-3,9} (see Figure 3.3), and with impurity donor atoms, such as phosphorus and arsenic, to form close coupled vacancy-donor pairs (V-P, V-As)\textsuperscript{3,6, 3,10} (see Figure 3.3). Both defects are electrically active and can become negatively charged by accepting an electron from the conduction band. The acceptor energy levels of the V-O and V-P pairs are 0.17 eV and 0.4 eV below the bottom of the conduction band.\textsuperscript{3,11, 3,12} These defects are recombination centers and their formation during electron irradiation of n-type silicon reduces the minority carrier lifetime.\textsuperscript{3,13} Since these defects are formed from single vacancies, considerations of
A model of the oxygen-vacancy complex or the Si-A center.

A model of the phosphorus-vacancy complex or the Si-E center.

Model of the divacancy.

RCA tentative model for the K-center.

Figure 3.3 Atomistic Models of Radiation Defects in Silicon
mass action indicate that the formation of these defects might have the same variation with incident electron energy as that for the formation of single vacancies \( \text{(0)} \). This relationship has been verified experimentally.\(^{3.14}\) The V-P pair anneals rapidly near 150°C\(^{3.15}\) and the V-O pair anneals rapidly near 350°C.\(^ {3.9}\) The introduction rates (change in defect concentration per unit fluence) for these defects are in the range of 0.1 to 0.3 cm\(^{-1}\) for 1 MeV electrons. Since the calculated displacement rate is 5.2 cm\(^{-1}\), it appears that many of the vacancies are involved in other reactions at room temperature, such as recombination with interstitial atoms.

The electron irradiation of p-type silicon at room temperature results in a defect structure with net donor characteristics.\(^{3.11, 3.12}\) This defect can donate an electron to (i.e., accept a hole from) the valence band. The energy level of this donor defect is located 0.27 to 0.30 eV above the top of the valence band. The room temperature introduction rate of this defect in silicon by 1 MeV electrons is roughly 0.03 cm\(^{-1}\). This value is considerably lower than those of defects found in n-type silicon. In addition, the introduction rate of this defect by 10 MeV electrons is about 16.5 times greater than that for 1 MeV electrons.\(^ {3.14}\) Since the single displacement rate increases by only a factor of 2.5 with that electron energy increase, this defect appears to involve a more complex structure. It has been shown that defects involving the coupling of more than one vacancy will result in defects with introduction rates which increase more rapidly with electron energy than does the displacement rate.\(^{3.16, 3.17}\) Two defect structures (divacancy\(^ {3.18, 3.19}\) and "K" center\(^ {3.20}\)), which have been studied by electron spin resonance techniques, may explain this behavior. These defects, shown in Figure 3.3, involve the coupling of two vacancies in each defect. Several attempts to determine the dominant recombination center in electron irradiated p-type silicon have yielded conflicting results.\(^ {3.11, 3.12, 3.21, 3.22}\) Recent experiments have indicated that a defect with an energy level in the range of 0.27 ± 0.02 eV above the top of the valence band controls recombination in electron irradiated p-type silicon.\(^ {3.22}\) This conclusion is consistent with the known energy dependence of p-type silicon in that the diffusion
length damage coefficient has been shown to vary with electron energy in the same manner as the introduction rate of the $E_v + 0.3$ eV level defect. The production of displacement damage in silicon by energetic protons is considerably different because the displacement cross sections are several orders of magnitude larger than those for fast electrons and vary rapidly with proton energy. The calculated silicon displacement cross section for 1 MeV protons is $3.5 \times 10^{-20}$ cm$^2$. The average number of atomic displacements (V) resulting from such a primary displacement is 4.8. Using equation 3.1.3, the displacement rate is found to be $8500$ cm$^{-1}$ for 1 MeV protons in silicon. The range of a 1 MeV proton in silicon is only 17.5 μm; therefore its energy and displacement rate will change rapidly after it enters a silicon crystal. The variation of the displacement rate with proton energy has been calculated by several authors. These results are shown in Figure 3.4. Although there are some differences in results, the displacement rate is proportional to $(\ln E)/E$ for protons of energies between 1 MeV and 10 MeV. Above 10 MeV, the various models differ as to the relative influence of Rutherford scattering, nuclear scattering, and inelastic processes of spallation. Experimentally measured defect introduction rates for proton irradiation of silicon are less than one tenth of the calculated displacement rates. The defect energy levels in proton irradiated silicon are those previously discussed for electron irradiated silicon. The proton damage, however, will be highly inhomogeneous because the secondary displacements occur near the site of the primary displacement.

Neutron displacement damage in silicon is characterized by two important differences. The silicon displacement cross section for a 1 MeV neutron is $2.4 \times 10^{-24}$ cm$^2$. This value is well below those for 1 MeV protons and 1 MeV electrons. For this reason, the number of primary displaced silicon atoms will be relatively small. The second difference involves the amount of energy transferred to the displaced silicon atom by the neutron. Since the 1 MeV neutron-silicon interaction is a hard sphere rather than coulombic collision, an average of about 70 keV is transferred to the recoiling silicon atoms. The subsequent secondary collisions between silicon atoms will displace about 1500 atoms.

77-56
Figure 3.4 Energy Dependent Displacement in Proton-Irradiated Silicon.
silicon atoms. This displacement damage will be clustered near the site of the primary displacement. The defects identified in neutron irradiated silicon include those previously discussed for electron damage. Theoretical models of the neutron damage indicate that the high concentration of electrically active defects in the cluster causes the center of the cluster to behave as intrinsic silicon.\(^3\) This intrinsic silicon core is separated from the bulk silicon by a layer of space charge. Extensions of this model have been used to explain the majority carrier removal and minority carrier recombination behavior of neutron irradiated silicon.\(^3\)\(^3\)\(^3\)\(^3\)\(^3\)

The main importance of the displacement defects produced by the irradiation of silicon solar cells is in their effect on the minority carrier lifetime of the silicon. In particular, the lifetime in the bulk p-type silicon of an n-p solar cell is the major radiation sensitive parameter. Since minority carrier lifetimes are inversely proportional to the recombination rates, the reciprocal lifetime contributions caused by various sets of recombination centers can be added to determine the inverse of the lifetime as follows:

\[
\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau_0} + \frac{1}{\tau_e} + \frac{1}{\tau_p} + \cdots
\]

(3.1.4)

where \(\tau = \) minority carrier lifetime
\(\tau_0 = \) minority carrier lifetime before irradiation
\(\tau_e = \) minority carrier lifetime due to electron irradiation
\(\tau_p = \) minority carrier lifetime due to proton irradiation

One of the most commonly used analytical tools for the determination of the particle type and energy dependence of degradation in silicon solar cells has been developed from the basic relationship for lifetime degradation:

\[
\frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau_0} + K_\tau \phi
\]

(3.1.5)
where \( \tau = \) final minority carrier lifetime
\( \tau_0 = \) initial minority carrier lifetime
\( \phi = \) irradiation fluence
\( K_\tau = \) damage coefficient (lifetime)

Minority carrier diffusion length is a more applicable and more easily determined parameter for solar cell analysis than minority carrier lifetime. Using \( L^2 = D\tau \), the above expression becomes:

\[
\frac{1}{L^2} = \frac{1}{L_0^2} + K_L \phi
\]

where \( L = \) final minority carrier diffusion length
\( L_0 = \) initial minority carrier diffusion length
\( \phi = \) particle fluence
\( K_L = \) damage coefficient (diffusion length)
\( = K_\tau / D \)

When the fluence is sufficiently high so that \( L \ll L_0 \) we have:

\[
K_L = 1/L^2;
\]

If the \( L \) decays with an increasing \( \phi \), exhibiting \(-1/2\) slope the damage coefficient, \( K_L \), can be used to uniquely define the particle type and energy dependence of silicon solar cell degradation.

The minority carrier lifetime or diffusion length in an irradiated solar cell may be a function of the concentration of excess or nonequilibrium minority carriers present in the semiconductor. In solar cells, this behavior is referred to as injection level dependence. This behavior is usually associated with solar cells damaged with high energy protons or neutrons. Gregory\(^{33}\) has shown that the injection level dependence of lifetime in neutron irradiated solar cells does not follow classical predictions and has proposed a model based on the behavior of clustered
damage. The methods of measuring minority carrier lifetime or diffusion length often involve the injection of excess minority carrier concentrations which are many orders of magnitude smaller than those found in solar cells operating in space. Such methods are inadequate for the generation of data for the prediction of proton and neutron irradiated solar cell performance in space.

3.2 Theory of Silicon Solar Cell Damage

The basic solar cell equations can be used to describe the changes which occur during irradiation. This method would require data regarding the changes in the light generated current (i.e., $I_{sc}$), and data regarding changes in the series resistance, shunt resistance, and the basic diode parameters of saturation current and diode quality factor. Although such a method would be a logical analysis, most investigations have not reported enough data to determine the variations in the above parameters. The usual practice in the study of solar cell damage has been to reduce the experimental data in terms of changes in the cell short circuit current, open circuit voltage, and maximum power.

It is also possible to characterize solar cell damage in terms of the changes in the minority diffusion length. Since the diffusion length can be measured experimentally and is a measure of the amount of displacement damage in the base of the solar cell, this method has been suggested. There are several practical and fundamental limitations to this scheme. The most serious limitations involve the evaluation of low energy proton damage in terms of diffusion length. Very low energy protons do considerable displacement damage within the junction space charge region of a solar cell. This nonuniform damage increases the diode saturation current ($I_0$) and quality factor ($n$) by mechanisms which are not related to minority carrier diffusion. This damage can cause serious reduction in solar cell $V_{oc}$ without changing the cell diffusion length. In addition, the relation between diffusion length and the solar cell output parameters is not well defined, diffusion length is more difficult to measure than cell output parameters (particularly in the case of proton irradiated cells), and accurate measurement of diffusion length in thin or drift
field cells is extremely difficult. Because of these problems, methods have been evolved to evaluate solar cell radiation effects in terms of common engineering output parameters. Experience has shown that the variation of common solar cell output parameters during irradiation can be described as shown for $I_{sc}$ in the following case:

$$I_{sc} = I_{sc0} - C \log \left(1 + \frac{\phi}{\phi_x}\right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2.1)

The $\phi_x$ represents the radiation fluence at which the $I_{sc}$ start to change from a constant value to a direct function of the logarithm of the fluence. The constant $C$ represents the decrease in $I_{sc}$ per decade in radiation fluence in the logarithmic region. Although the above relationship is empirical, there is some theoretical justification for the expression. Several observers have reported that the relation between the solar cell short circuit current and the diffusion length is as follows: \hspace{1cm} 3.36, 3.37

$$I_{sc} = A \ln L + B$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2.2)

The constants $A$ and $B$ are dependent upon the spectral content and intensity of the light source used to measure $I_{sc}$. Tada has shown that the above expression is theoretically valid over a wide range of diffusion lengths for tungsten illuminations and to a lesser range under solar illumination. A previously discussed relation, equation (3.1.6) can be transformed as follows:

$$L = \left(K_L \phi + \frac{1}{L_0^2}\right)^{-1/2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2.3)

and substituted in equation (3.2.2). The resulting expression

$$I_{sc} = B - A \ln \left(K_L \phi + \frac{1}{L_0^2}\right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2.4)

has the same form as equation (3.2.1).

The variation of solar cell $V_{oc}$ during irradiation also may be empirically characterized by an expression similar to equation (3.2.1).

$$V_{oc} = V_{oco} - C \log \left(1 + \frac{\phi}{\phi_x}\right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2.5)
In general the open circuit voltage of a silicon solar cell can be represented by the following equation which was discussed in Chapter 1:

\[ V_{OC} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{I_{SC}}{I_o + 1} \right) \quad (3.2.6) \]

In using this expression, it is assumed that the saturation current \((I_o)\) is dominated by the diffusion component. In such cases the saturation current density is given by equation (1.2.5). If this expression is combined with equation (3.2.3), the following expression for the saturation current as a function of radiation fluence is obtained:

\[ I_o = q D_r n_p S \left( \frac{K \phi}{L} + \frac{1}{L_o^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad (3.2.7) \]

where \(S\) is the cell area. Equations (3.2.4) and (3.2.7) can be substituted into equation (3.2.6) to obtain the following expression:

\[ V_{OC} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left[ \frac{B - A}{2} \ln \left( \frac{K \phi}{L} + \frac{1}{L_o^2} \right) \right] \quad (3.2.8) \]

The radiation fluence \((\phi)\) appears twice in the above expression. The fluence term in the numerator will have a much lesser effect on \(V_{OC}\) than that in the denominator because it appears as the natural logarithm of the fluence rather than as the square root of the fluence. It appears therefore that the \(V_{OC}\) variation with radiation fluence is dominated by the denominator of equation (3.2.8) and can be approximated by equation (3.2.5).

The maximum power \((P_{max})\) of a solar cell can be represented as the product of \(I_{SC}\), \(V_{OC}\), and a constant as follows:

\[ P_{max} = F \cdot I_{SC} \cdot V_{OC} \quad (3.2.9) \]

where \(F\) is the form (or fill) factor. The fill factor, \(F\), is relatively insensitive to electron radiation which penetrates uniformly through a solar cell. In this case, the variation of \(P_{max}\) with irradiation is the same as
that for the product of $I_{sc}$ and $V_{oc}$. Equations (3.2.1) and (3.2.5) can be substituted into (3.2.9) and the resulting expression approaches the form of:

$$P_{\text{max}} = P_{\text{maxo}} - C'' \log \left(1 + \frac{\phi}{\phi_x}\right)$$

(3.2.10)

Expressions of this form are found to closely describe the variation of $P_{\text{max}}$ during irradiation.

3.3 The Concept of Damage Equivalence

The wide range of electron and proton energies present in the space environment necessitates some method of describing the effects of various types of radiation in terms of a radiation environment which can be produced under laboratory conditions. Since the changes in most solar cell parameters due to irradiation are in some way related to the minority carrier diffusion length, it is possible to determine an equivalent damage based upon this parameter. In Figure 3.5, the diffusion length changes are shown for 10 ohm-cm, n-p silicon solar cells which have been subjected to several different types of irradiation. The results are described by equation (3.2.3) where the constant $K_L$ is dependent upon the radiation type.

The concept of damage equivalence can alternatively be based on common solar cell parameters. The variation of short circuit current density for 10 ohm-cm n-p solar cells irradiated in various environments is shown in Figure 3.6. The $I_{sc}$ variation in each environment is described by equation (3.2.1). In this case two constants, C and $\phi_x$, are required to describe the changes in $I_{sc}$. Experience has shown that the constant C, under solar simulator illumination, does not vary greatly for different radiation environments. For electron irradiations in the 1 MeV and greater range, C is approximately 4.5 mA/cm²-decade. For proton and neutron irradiations, C approaches 6 mA/cm²-decade. For solar cells with the same starting $I_{sc}$, the constant $\phi_x$ is a measure of the damage effectiveness of different radiation environments. The constant $\phi_x$ for a particular radiation can be determined graphically at the intersection of the starting $I_{sc}$ and the extrapolation of the linear degradation region.
Figure 3.5 Variation of Solar Cell Diffusion Length with Fluence for Various Radiations
Figure 3.6 Variation of Solar Cell Short Circuit Current Density with Fluence for Various Radiations
Since the value of $\phi_x$ is dependent upon the starting $J_{sc}$ value, $i_\infty$ is not a good practical measure for relative damage effectiveness. It has been the practice to define an arbitrary constant referred to as the critical fluence ($\phi_c$). One method of defining this value is that fluence which degrades a solar cell parameter 25% below its unirradiated state. Such a parameter is valid only when comparing cells with similar unirradiated parameters. To eliminate this problem, critical fluence may be defined alternatively as that fluence which will degrade a cell parameter to a certain value.

By use of the critical fluence ($\phi_c$) or the diffusion length damage coefficient ($K_L$), it is possible to construct a model in which the various components of a combined radiation environment can be described in terms of a damage equivalent fluence of a selected monoenergetic particle. One MeV electrons are a common and significant component of space radiation and can be produced conveniently in a test environment. For this reason, one MeV electron fluence has been used as a basis of the damage equivalent fluences which describe silicon solar cell degradation.

The use of the damage equivalent fluence scheme involves two separate problems. The first problem is to adequately describe the degradation of an unshielded silicon solar cell under one MeV electron irradiation under laboratory conditions (i.e., normal incidence). The second problem is to reduce the effect of the space radiation environment (i.e., continuous energy spectrums of electrons and protons, isotropic incidence) on a shielded silicon solar cell to a damage equivalent fluence of one MeV electrons under laboratory conditions.

3.4 One MeV Electron Irradiation of Silicon Solar Cells

The effects of one MeV electron laboratory irradiation of solar cells are reviewed and discussed in this section. Data will be presented in Sect. 3.12 which will form the basis for estimating solar cell performance, after the space radiation environment is reduced to a damage equivalent one MeV fluence. A very large volume of work has been reported concerning the effects of 1 MeV electron irradiation on silicon
solar cells. However, this section considers only solar simulator data and is also limited to the types of solar cells currently in common use on spacecraft.

Currently n-p solar cells are in use as a primary power source on nearly all earth orbiting satellites. Variations in base resistivity and cell thickness cause significant differences in the response to 1 MeV electron irradiation.\textsuperscript{3.23, 3.39, 3.46, 3.47} Other variables such as the irradiation temperature in the range of 200 to 370 K,\textsuperscript{3.40} and p-type base dopant (boron vs. aluminum) have been shown to have little or no effect on the solar cell response to radiation.\textsuperscript{3.41-3.44}

The variation of n-p solar cell response with base resistivity has been studied and reported for the range of 1 to 20 ohm-cm.\textsuperscript{3.23, 3.45} Current n-p solar cell usage is confined to the ranges of 1 to 3 ohm-cm and 7-13 ohm-cm. Cells in the base resistivity range of 1-3 ohm-cm have greater initial maximum power output than cells in the 7 to 13 ohm-cm range. The radiation hardness of n-p cells in the 7 to 13 ohm-cm range is greater than that of the 1 to 3 ohm-cm range, when the hardness is determined by parameters such as the critical fluence ($\phi_c$) or diffusion length damage coefficient ($K_L$). As a result, 10 ohm-cm cells have greater maximum power output after a certain electron fluence is reached; however, the 2 ohm-cm cells produce greater maximum power at lower fluences. This crossover fluence depends upon cell thickness but is approximately $1 \times 10^{14}$ one MeV electrons per cm$^2$.

Solar cell thickness has been shown to have a strong effect on the output parameters of irradiated cells.\textsuperscript{3.39} Cell thickness does not affect measures of inherent hardness such as the critical fluence (if properly determined) or the diffusion length damage coefficient. The thickness does, however, significantly affect the cell output parameters during the initial or low fluence stage of an irradiation. JPL data showing output parameters ($I_{SC}$, $V_{OC}$, $P_{max}$, $V_{mp}$, and $I_{mp}$) as a function of electron fluence (1 MeV) are shown in the back of this chapter. These data, for a few types of cells, will subsequently be published by JPL. The thin cells (approximately 2 mils) have somewhat lower output than other
cells currently available. The cells, 8 mils and thicker discussed here, are available on a production basis from solar cell manufacturers. The thin cells are custom made, but the data are included since they are expected to be representative of production line cells in the near future. Temperature of the cells during measurement was 30°C.

3.5 Effect of Electron Energy on Solar Cell Degradation

The concept of damage equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence requires some method of evaluating the damage effectiveness of electrons of various energies. This effectiveness can be measured by the diffusion length damage constant ($K_L$) or solar cell critical fluence ($\phi_c$) for various electron energies. Experimental data have been reported for the electron energy range of 1 to 3 MeV\textsuperscript{3.48} and from 0.6 to 40 MeV.\textsuperscript{3.23} The results of these studies are in essential agreement and the results of reference 3.23 are shown in Figure 3.7 ($K_L$) and Figure 3.8 ($\phi_c$). In this case $\phi_c$ is defined as that fluence which degrades $I_{sc}$ to 19 mA/cm$^2$ under 100 mW/cm$^2$ of tungsten light. In both figures, data are shown for cells of various resistivities. The short circuit current is directly related to the minority carrier diffusion length in the base region. When the $I_{sc}$ is measured under tungsten light, it varies almost linearly with the logarithm of diffusion length as shown in Figure 3.9.\textsuperscript{3.23} Some important observations can be made from these data. The relative variations of the $K_L$ and $\phi_c^{-1}$ with electron energy are identical. The relative variations of both parameters with cell base resistivity are also identical. On the basis of the experimental data, one can therefore define a relative damage effectiveness for each electron energy which will be a measure of the ratio of that electron fluence at a given energy to the 1 MeV electron fluence necessary to degrade an n-p solar cell to the same output parameter value. For instance, if a given 10 MeV electron fluence degrades a solar cell to a certain state of damage, then a 1 MeV electron fluence 16.5 times that of the 10 MeV electron fluence would be required to degrade the same cell to the same output conditions. This relationship will hold regardless of whether 2 or 10 ohm-cm resistivity cells are under consideration.

Wysocki reported data at 0.8 and 5.8 MeV which indicated that the relative electron damage constant increased more rapidly with energy.\textsuperscript{3.49}
Figure 3.7 Electron Energy Dependence of $K_L$ Values for N on P Silicon Solar Cells 3.23
Figure 3.8  Electron Energy Dependence of $\phi_c^{-1}$ Values for N on P Silicon Solar Cells 3.23
Figure 3.9 Minority Carrier Diffusion Length vs Short Circuit Density of Conventional N/P Silicon Cells.
Gorodetskii, et al., \textsuperscript{3.50} reported data in rough agreement with references 3.23 and 3.48 below 2 MeV, but indicate a much slower rise above that energy. More recent studies by Bernard, et al., \textsuperscript{3.37} and Lesbre \textsuperscript{3.43} indicate good agreement with the results in references 3.23 and 3.48 up to 3 MeV and 4.5 MeV, respectively.

3.6 \textbf{Effect of Proton Energy on Solar Cell Degradation}

The concept of damage equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence can be extended to the effects of proton irradiation. The problem is more complex, in the proton case, because the range of protons below 5 MeV is less than the thickness of a solar cell. For this reason, low-energy protons produce nonuniform damage. This situation is further complicated by the fact that the damage produced per unit path length increases as the proton energy decreases. As a result, when a low-energy proton is stopped in a solar cell, a large amount of damage is concentrated at the end of the proton track.

When radiation damage is uniform throughout a solar cell, the relative effectiveness of various energy particles is the same when measured by the diffusion length damage coefficients, or critical fluences determined by cell parameters such as $I_{sc}$, $V_{oc}$ or $P_{max}$. This fact was graphically demonstrated by comparison of Figures 3.7 and 3.8. In the case of protons with energies greater than 5 MeV, the damage to solar cells is relatively uniform. In this high energy range, the general concept of equivalency is directly applicable. At lower proton energies, the general concept of equivalency is not applicable; however, it can be used in a restricted manner as discussed below.

Early experimental studies of the variation of damage in n-p silicon solar cells with higher proton energies indicated conflicting results. The results reported by workers at BTL \textsuperscript{3.51} and TRW \textsuperscript{3.52} are shown in Figure 3.10 in normalized form. The major difference involves the behavior of the damage constant at proton energies greater than 10 MeV. Recent experimental investigations have confirmed that the variation of damage in this proton energy range is very small. \textsuperscript{3.53, 3.54} The results of these recent investigations are also shown in Figure 3.10.

The degradation of n-p solar cells irradiated with protons of ener-
Figure 3.10 Comparison of Relative Damage Coefficients, Proton-Irradiated N/P Silicon Solar Cells.
gies below 3 MeV is more complex because of the nonuniform nature of the damage. Several experimental studies of low energy proton effects on unshielded solar cells have been reported in the literature. 3.41, 3.55-3.61 Although there are some differences in the reported results, a few general observations can be made. Protons in the energy range from 1.5 to 3 MeV produce a maximum in relative radiation damage in silicon solar cells.

The relative damage to silicon solar cell V_{dc} and P_{max} due to low energy protons is more severe than that exhibited by the I_{SC}. Proton damage in silicon solar cells can be normalized to the damage produced by protons of one energy. The proton energy employed for normalization of relative damage should be close to that producing maximum damage in space environments, produce relatively uniform damage, and be available for laboratory evaluations. The use of 10 MeV proton damage is based on a compromise of the above requirements. The results of several studies of proton damage have been summarized in terms of relative silicon solar cell damage as a function of proton energy. 3.41, 3.53, 3.54, 3.55 These relative damage results, normalized to 10 MeV proton damage, are shown in Figure 3.11. The results in Figure 3.11 have been shown to hold for both 10 ohm-cm and 2 ohm-cm solar cells at proton energies greater than 10 MeV. 3.53

It is emphasized that the results in Figure 3.11 are obtained by normal incidence laboratory irradiation of solar cells from the front side. If similar data were prepared for normal incidence rear irradiations, the result would be similar for proton energies above 10 MeV. 3.53 The effects due to rear incidence protons with energies below 10 MeV would be much lower than shown in Figure 3.11. 3.62 The lower effectiveness occurs because rear incident low energy protons have insufficient range in silicon to cause atomic displacements in the space charge region of the solar cell.

The variation of solar cell output parameters with 10 MeV proton fluence is described by equations (5.2.1), (3.2.5) and (3.2.10) in much the same way as is done for 1 MeV electrons. The values of the constants C, C', and C'' tend to be somewhat greater than those found for 1 MeV electron irradiation. This value determines the decrease in solar cell output parameter per decade of radiation fluence. The fact that these
Figure 3.11 Relative Damage Coefficient for Proton Irradiated N/P Silicon Solar Cells
constants are somewhat different for electron and proton irradiation indicates that the concept of equivalency between the different types of radiation has limitations and is basically an approximation. This equivalence is further discussed in Chapter 6.

3.7 Additional Effects of Low Energy Protons

In addition to the low energy proton effects on unshielded cells discussed in the previous section, there are two aspects of low energy proton damage to be considered. These involve the effects of low energy protons on small unshielded gap areas on the front of solar cells and on unshielded backs of solar cells.

When the ATS-1 and Intelsat II-F4 satellites suddenly exhibited degradations in power output of the order of 20% in weeks to a month after launch, the importance of low energy proton damage was dramatically demonstrated. Subsequent efforts related this anomalous degradation to the bombardment of narrow exposed surface areas of the solar cells by the intense low-energy proton fluence existing at synchronous altitude. The exposed areas resulted from slightly undersized or improperly applied cover slides which bared up to a 0.038 cm (15 mils) strip of solar cell surface. The high-intensity low-energy proton fluence, though incapable of penetrating the solar cell to a depth of more than a few microns, was able to produce junction damage which would shunt the power producing capability of the whole device. Exposed strips as narrow as 0.005 cm (2 mils) were sufficient to drastically alter the device's power producing capability. The absence of this effect in earlier solar array systems was attributed to shingling and overlapping adhesive.

The results discussed in the previous section clearly indicated that low energy proton irradiation has an inordinately greater effect upon solar cell $V_{oc}$ and $P_{max}$ as compared to similar irradiations with electrons or higher energy protons. The anomalous degradation of the ATS-1 and Intelsat II-F4 prompted many investigations into the effects
of low energy proton irradiation on partially shielded solar cells. Curiously, Brucker and coworkers observed and reported this degradation effect in laboratory studies several months before the launch of ATS-1. The results of these studies indicated that unshielded areas amounting to less than 1% of the total cell area can cause significant effects on cell power output. As a result of these studies, array manufacturers have taken measures to cover all areas of the silicon cell front surface with a cover slide and fill any gaps between the metallized base and cover slide with adhesive.

The changes caused by the irradiation of small unshielded areas of solar cells with low energy protons can be explained in terms of solar cell theory. It was previously mentioned that the range of low energy protons in silicon is limited to less than the cell thickness. Particles which do not penetrate the cell produce defects only to their depth of penetration. This limited penetration results in unusual effects in the case of protons because lower energy protons produce more displacements per unit path length. The results of this behavior are shown graphically in Figure 3.12. In this figure, the calculated number of displaced silicon atoms per unit proton path is plotted as a function of depth in silicon for a 3 MeV proton (range 92.7 \( \mu \)m). It can be seen that the damage rises rapidly to a maximum near the end of the proton track. Every proton which is stopped in the silicon produces such a damage peak at the end of its track. Protons which enter the silicon with energies of 0.5 MeV or less produce damage which is concentrated within a few microns of the cell surface. The space charge region of a modern cell extends from 0.4 to 1 micron below the cell surface. For this reason, low energy proton displacement damage is concentrated in the junction region.

The entire solar cell junction can be considered to be an array of small parallel diodes, each having a characteristic described by the parallel combination of equations (1.2.3) and (1.2.6). Damage to only a small portion of this parallel diode array results in an increased effective leakage or saturation current for the entire array. In Section 1.2, the nature of the generation-recombination current was discussed.
Figure 3.12 Atomic Displacements as a Function of Depth for a 3 MeV Proton in Silicon
The saturation current due to generation-recombination in the space charge region (equation 1.2.7) increases linearly as the carrier lifetime decreases (i.e., displacement damage increases) in the space charge region. The increased leakage current of a solar cell reduces the cell $V_{oc}$ because of the relationship of $V_{oc}$ and $I_o$ (junction leakage current) shown in equation (1.3.9). Since cell diode forward current ($I_{D2}$) is increased at all voltages, the cell $P_{max}$ will also decrease because of low energy proton damage to small areas of the junction.

This effect is illustrated in Figure 3.13. A partially shielded solar cell was irradiated with $3 \times 10^{13}$ p/cm$^2$ of 0.250 MeV protons. The current-voltage characteristics of this cell are shown before and after irradiation. The data indicate that the protons entered the silicon through a 0.0076 cm gap between the cover slide and the metalized bus strip. Although the $I_{sc}$ of the cell was unaffected by the irradiation, significant degradations occurred in $V_{oc}$ and $P_{max}$. Since solar cells are usually operated near the maximum power point, such changes have grave implications on in-flight performance.

It has been observed in laboratory studies that the effects of low energy protons on small unshielded areas of cells produce a maximum in the degradation at a fluence of about $3 \times 10^{13}$ p/cm$^2$. It has been suggested that the reversal of degradation is due to carrier removal effects. Considerable data exist regarding the effect of proton energy spectrum and busbar-cover slide gap width on the degradation. Most reported laboratory studies have been confined to normal incidence proton irradiations.

In the past, solar cell usage has been confined to body-mounted solar cells on spinning satellites. Such applications provide a large measure of back shielding to a solar array. The requirements for increased spacecraft power and reduced weight have established trends toward the usage of oriented solar panels with minimal back shielding. Stofel has shown that low energy proton back side irradiation degrades silicon solar
Figure 3.13 Low Energy Proton Junction Damage, 0.250 MeV Protons, $3 \times 10^{12} \text{p/cm}^2$, Partially Shielded N-P Solar Cell
cells through carrier removal effects. The use of thin soldered back contacts or other minimal back shielding should greatly reduce these effects.

3.8 Effect of Temperature and Illumination Intensity on Radiation Damage

There are two types of thermal effects on radiation damaged cells; one is reversible and the other is irreversible. In this section, the effects of reversible thermal processes on radiation damaged output parameters are quantitatively discussed as well as the effects of illumination intensity.

High energy radiation causes changes in crystal structures and other fundamental properties. The damaged structure may undergo further irreversible processes after heating. This is because defects such as interstitials, vacancies, or vacancy-impurity complexes are more mobile when the temperature is raised. At elevated temperature, the recombination rate of interstitial-vacancy pairs (or self-healing) is greatly increased by the thermal agitation. Thus, material property values drift from their initial values after such temperature excursions. At room temperature, it takes a few days to a few months to complete annealing, following a laboratory irradiation. An increase in temperature accelerates the annealing process (reduces the apparent damage rate). Thus, the damage constant is greater at the lower irradiation temperature. A normal spacecraft temperature ranges from -30°C to 80°C.

The annealing rate is also affected by radiation exposure rate. In the laboratory, the radiation exposure rate is usually many orders of magnitude greater than natural space-radiation rates. In space, the damage and annealing processes occur simultaneously with the annealing rate much closer to the damage rate than in the laboratory. For these reasons, all the data used in this text are annealed or stabilized data except as noted.

Important solar cell parameters vary not only with temperature, but also with illumination intensity. They can mathematically be expanded in terms of temperature and intensity, and can be determined by the coefficients of the first expansion terms. For irradiated solar cells, a sophisticated parametric approach, such as those studied in references 3.115 through 3.118, can be adopted for the determination of
temperature coefficient. The success of these approaches, however, depends entirely on the quantity, quality, and availability of test data. Moreover, the application of such data may be limited exclusively to a specific type or group of cells tested. Therefore, an alternate approach is adopted in this text: whenever a linear approximation is warranted, the first-order temperature coefficient at one sun intensity is determined and the variation of this coefficient is expressed in terms of radiation fluence. With this technique, a solar cell output parameter \( y(T, \phi) \), temperature of \( T \) at fluence level of \( \phi \) can be expressed as

\[
y(T, \phi) = y(T_0, \phi) + b(\phi) \cdot (T - T_0)
\]

where

- \( y(T_0, \phi) \) = The value of parameter \( y \) at the normalized temperature \( T_0 \) at fluence level \( \phi \)
- \( b(\phi) \) = Temperature coefficient of \( y \) at fluence level of \( \phi \)
- \( T_0 \) = normalized temperature
- \( \phi \) = radiation fluence

### 3.8.1 Unirradiated Cells

The effects of temperature on solar cell output parameters are not clear from the equation for \( I_{sc} \) and \( V_{oc} \) given in Chapter 1. While a temperature term is explicitly included in each of the equations (1.3.8 and 1.3.9), other parameters in the equations (\( n, I_L \) and \( I_o \)) also have a temperature dependence that is not explicitly identified. The result is that \( V_{oc} \) has a negative temperature coefficient as opposed to the apparent positive coefficient defined in equation 3.1.9. Solar cell output parameters such as \( I_{sc}, V_{oc} \) and \( P_{max} \) vary almost linearly with temperature in the range from -50°C to 100°C. The temperature coefficient varies not only with illumination intensity but also with cell types, cell thicknesses, base resistivity, etc. The \( dI_{sc}/dT \) of an unirradiated n/p silicon cell is very small, approximately 0.02 mA/cm²°C
or about 0.05%/°C. The $dV_{oc}/dT$ for unirradiated 2 to 10 ohm-cm n/p cells varies from -2.0 to -2.4 mV/°C.

Since the $dV_{oc}/dT$ is negative and is much greater than the $dI_{sc}/dT$, the $dP_{max}/dT$ should reflect the temperature behavior of $dV_{oc}/dT$, a large and negative value, unless the form factor improves with an increased temperature. The $dP_{max}/dT$ of unirradiated 10 ohm-cm n/p cells is in the neighborhood of -0.07 mW/cm²-°C or about -0.6%/°C.

For a practical application, the maximum power point must be specified by either the current or the voltage at which the power is the maximum. The current at which the power is maximum, $I_{mp}$, varies almost quadratically with respect to temperature, and the temperature coefficient becomes temperature dependent. The voltage at which the power is maximum, $V_{mp}$, on the other hand shows a large and almost linear variation with respect to temperature and hence is a better candidate than the $I_{mp}$ for presenting simpler and more reliable data. In this context, the $V_{mp}$ is used and discussed in this text. The $dV_{mp}/dT$ of unirradiated 10 ohm-cm n/p cells is approximately -2.2 mV/°C or about -0.5%/°C.

3.8.2 Irradiated Cells

The temperature coefficient data of irradiated cells are sporadic. Anspaugh [3.119] made thorough measurements from -20°C to 40°C for 2 and 10 ohm-cm n/p cells bombarded with 1 MeV electrons. The cells from similar production lots were used on a flight experiment aboard ATS-5. Therefore, the data may have only limited application, however, the trend of various temperature coefficient behaviors with respect to electron fluences are well demonstrated in Figures 3.14 through 3.17, taken from reference 3.119. Those data published in the past are also included for comparison.

*The temperature coefficient expressed in terms of percent per degree centigrade contains some confusing and inaccurate elements. Unless the parameter value or temperature at which the coefficients are normalized is specified, the coefficients cited have ambiguous meanings. The temperature coefficients cited in the text in terms of percent per degree centigrade are all taken at near room temperature of 25°C to 32°C.*
Figure 3.14 Temperature Coefficient for $I_{sc} \cdot b(\phi, s)$ in Equations (3.8.3)
Figure 3.15 Temperature Coefficient for $V_{OC}$, $b(\phi,s)$ in Equation (3.8.4)
Figure 3.16 Temperature Coefficient for $P_{\text{max}}$, $b(\psi,1)$ in Equation (3.8.5)
Figure 3.17 Temperature Coefficient for $V_{mp}$
The $dV_{oc}/dT$ of 2 and 10 ohm-cm n/p silicon solar cells does not change significantly after 1 MeV electron bombardment (from -2.0 mV/°C to -2.3 mV/°C as the fluence increases from $10^{12}$ to $10^{16}$ electrons/cm$^2$) (see Figure 3.15). Luft$^{3,64}$ has reported similar results, as did Haynes and Ellis$^{3,42}$ who irradiated the cells with 2.4 MeV electrons. The increase in $dI_{sc}/dT$ is rather drastic when irradiated with 1 MeV electrons, a threefold increase (from 0.18 to 0.6 mA/cm$^2$-°C) for the fluence from $10^{12}$ to $10^{16}$ electrons/cm$^2$ (see Figure 3.14).

The temperature coefficient of $P_{max}$ is negative, and the magnitude monotonically decreases with an increasing electron fluence. There is a distinct difference in the temperature coefficient between 2 and 10 ohm-cm cells: the 2 ohm-cm cells have a smaller slope than the latter. The $dV_{mp}/dT$ is also negative and the magnitude decreases toward a fluence level of $10^{13}$ - $10^{14}$ electrons/cm$^2$. The variation of $dV_{mp}/dT$ ranges from -2.2 to -2.3 mV/°C for 10 ohm-cm n/p cells and from -1.9 to -2.1 for 2 ohm-cm cells.

Data are extremely limited on the variation of temperature coefficients with proton irradiation. The data for 22 MeV protons with a fluence up to $2 \times 10^{12}$ protons/cm$^2$ are shown in Figures 3.14 through 3.17 for comparison with electron data. The temperature coefficients after proton irradiation to the 25% power-degradation point for proton energies from 2 to 155 MeV$^{3,122}$ are also shown in the same figures. These points are so sporadic and so randomly scattered that no conclusion can be drawn, suggesting the need for more careful measurements and systematic study of the temperature coefficients.

A dependence of solar cell output on illumination intensity is somewhat predictable from the equations in Chapters 1 and 2. The spectral response $R(\lambda)$ in the equation (2.1.1) is independent of spectral irradiance $E(\lambda)$, and the light-generated current $I_L$ becomes proportional to illumination intensity. The short circuit current is therefore almost equal to $I_L$ (equation 3.8.4), hence is almost proportional to the illumination intensity.

$$I_{sc}(T,S) = I_L(T,S)$$
$$= S \cdot I_{sc}(T,1) \quad (3.8.2)$$
where
\[ S = \text{intensity scale factor (where unity = 1 solar constant)} \]

and
\[ I_{sc}(T, 1) = \text{short circuit current at one sun intensity and at a temperature of } T^\circ C. \]

In general, equation (3.8.1) can be expanded in terms of the first order of illumination intensity while making use of temperature coefficient data such as those presented in Figures 3.14 through 3.17.

For the short circuit current,
\[ I_{sc}(T, \phi, S) = S \cdot I_{sc}(T_0, \phi, 1) + b(\phi, S) \cdot (T - T_0) \]  
(3.8.3)

Similarly,
\[ V_{oc}(T, \phi, S) = V_{oc}(T_0, \phi, S) + b(\phi, S) \cdot (T - T_0) \]  
(3.8.4)

For the \( P_{\text{max}} \)
\[ P_{\text{max}}(T, \phi, S) = [P_{\text{max}}(T_0, \phi, 1) + b(\phi, 1) \cdot (T - T_0)] \cdot S \]  
(3.8.5)

The diffusion length damage constant \( K_L \) of n-p solar cells, according to a study at TRW,\(^{3.40} \) is independent of 1 MeV electron irradiation temperatures between -80°C and +130°C, but increases significantly at lower temperature. Workers at NRL\(^{3.70,3.71,3.72} \) have reported that the \( K_L \) depends not only on irradiation temperatures but also on measuring temperature.

A study of 1-MeV electron radiation effects on silicon solar cells under extremely low temperature and low illumination (Jupiter environment) has been reported.\(^{3.72} \) Debs and Hanes\(^{3.73} \) reported a study of 3 MeV proton damage to solar cells under conditions encountered in the near-Jupiter environment. Their results indicate that n/p cells have higher starting efficiencies; however, at high proton fluences, the p/n 20 ohm-cm cells
had much less damage than the n-p cells at Jupiter conditions. 3.73

Although illumination has been shown to affect the evaluation of radiation damage in silicon solar cells through injection level effects, it has been assumed that the production of displacement type radiation damage in silicon solar cells is independent of illumination intensity during irradiation. Reynard has reported that during real time beta ray irradiation, silicon solar cells, illuminated and electrically loaded, degraded more severely than similar cells irradiated dark without load. 3.74 The results of a similar study did not confirm the above result. 3.75

Crabb 3.76 recently reported that 10 ohm-cm float zone silicon solar cells, which had been degraded with 1 MeV electrons, exhibited a further degradation when illuminated by a 10 sun source. Further investigations by many workers 3.123-3.129 revealed that photon degradation depends not only on crystal growth technique but also type and amount of dopant as well as radiation particle species as summarized below.

- Many investigators agreed that crucible (Czochralski) grown silicon cells did not exhibit photon degradation except a case reported by Crabb. 3.123 According to Crabb, the float zone, boron-doped cells exhibited no photon degradation, whereas the crucible grown B-doped cells suffered a 6% power loss due to photon degradation.
- Aluminum and gallium doped crucible silicon cells did not exhibit photon degradation.
- Only boron doped float zone silicon cells suffered from photon degradation. The degradation was more pronounced for the lower resistivity cells; practically no degradation for the 85 ohm-cm cells, about 5% for about 10 ohm-cm cells, and greater than 10% degradation for the 0.2 ohm-cm cells.
- No photon degradation was observed following 2.5 and 10 MeV proton irradiation. 3.128
- Comsat black cells also suffered from photon degradation after $1 \times 10^{16}$ electrons/cm$^2$ of 1 MeV electron irradiation. 3.129 The cells lost about 3.4% of maximum power after one sun
intensity illumination for about 5 hours.

Since boron doped float zone silicon cells are prone to photon-induced degradation, caution must be exercised for the space applications.

3.9 Effects of Neutron and Gamma Radiation on Solar Cells

The radiation associated with nuclear weapons degrades solar arrays in the same manner as the radiation of the space environment. Solar array designers must allow for these effects when weapon events are included in the environment. The radiation from a weapon event is delivered at a much higher rate than space radiation. Because of these high radiation rates, other aspects of radiation effects become more apparent immediately following a nuclear radiation pulse.

The most important aspect of neutron radiation on silicon solar cells is displacement damage which reduces the minority carrier lifetime in the same manner as protons and electrons. When silicon devices receive neutron irradiation at room temperature, a large fraction of the displacement damage anneals within 100 seconds after the irradiation. The annealing factor is defined as the ratio of the initial (maximum) damage to the damage which remains after annealing is complete.3.77, 3.34

Annealing factors larger than 10 have been reported. Such behavior is not surprising, because calculated displacement rates for various radiations are usually much greater than those found experimentally. The transient annealing of neutron damage is not an important consideration in the design of solar arrays; however, the nonannealing component of neutron damage will contribute to the permanent damage produced by space radiation. This aspect of neutron damage has been studied by Brucker,3.78 Downing,3.79 Morris,3.80 Stofel,3.81 and Hicks.3.82 Most of these studies utilized fission neutrons from nuclear reactors. If the fission spectrum of such reactors is averaged by weighing each energy component by its theoretical displacement damage factor,3.83 the mean neutron energy is very close to 1 MeV. The degradation of n-p silicon solar cell parameters with neutron irradiation is shown in Figure 3.18.3.81 The conversion of neutron fluences to damage equivalent
Figure 3.18 Neutron Induced Change in n/p Silicon Solar Cells
1 MeV electron fluences depends not only on output parameters but also on the degradation level. For the $I_{sc}$, this conversion factor varies approximately from 1500 to 9000, and at the 75% degradation level, the ratio is approximately 2400. Neutron fluences may thus be converted to damage equivalent 1 MeV electron fluences by following expression:

$$
\phi_{1 \text{ MeV e}} = 2400 \times \phi_{1 \text{ MeV n}}
$$

(3.9.1)

When neutron damage is evaluated with a solar simulator and described by equation (3.2.1), the constant $C$ is approximately equal to 6.5 mA/cm$^2$ per decade fluence. This value is significantly larger than that found for electron irradiation. Similar slope values are found in cells irradiated with high energy protons. Work by Gregory$^{3.33}$ and Stofel$^{3.81}$ has shown that diffusion lengths measured in neutron-irradiated solar cells depend on carrier injection level and increase with the excess minority carrier concentration (see Figure 3.5). This behavior is similar to that reported for proton-irradiated solar cells.

Gamma ray radiation interacts with silicon mainly by the production of Compton electrons. These secondary particles have energies high enough to cause displacement damage in silicon solar cells. The effect of gamma radiation on silicon solar cells has been reported by Fang$^{3.84}$ and Hicks.$^{3.82}$ The results of Cobalt 60 gamma irradiation of n-p silicon solar cells are shown in Figure 3.6. The displacement cross section of prompt gammas is very small as compared with that of other radiation species and the damage can usually be neglected.

The most important aspect of gamma radiation from weapons is the transient photocurrent generated in the array during a nuclear event. The primary photocurrent can be estimated from the following expression:

$$
I_{pp} = 6.4 (\mu A \ cm^{-3} \ rad^{-1} \ sec) \cdot \gamma \cdot A \cdot L
$$

(3.9.2)

where $\gamma$ = dose rate (rad/sec)

$L$ = diffusion length (cm)

$A$ = cell junction area (cm$^2$)
The transient rise and fall of the photocurrent has been treated by Wirth and Rogers.\textsuperscript{3.85} The peak current values developed by solar cells under these conditions can be very large and may cause problems in circuits interfacing with the solar array. Current limiting by the external load and the internal cell series resistance may limit the observed photocurrents to values well below the generated current. Under very intense pulses of such ionizing radiation at room temperature the cell $V_{oc}$ saturates at approximately 0.7 V.\textsuperscript{3.86-3.88} This value appears to be related to the barrier potential ($V_b$) of the junction as determined by capacitance-voltage measurements.

### 3.10 Lithium Doped Solar Cells

Interest in this field began with Vavilov's report of a radiation resistant diode made with lithium-doped, crucible grown silicon.\textsuperscript{3.89} Wysocki later reported lithium-doped solar cells which degraded under electron irradiation, but rapidly recovered at room temperature.\textsuperscript{3.90} Float zone silicon, with a characteristic lower oxygen concentration, was used to achieve this result. Subsequent work indicated that recovery also occurred in lithium-doped, quartz-crucible silicon solar cells. Since this initial work, the general subject was studied in two ways. Empirical changes in the manufacturing techniques for lithium-doped solar cells were evaluated with the aim of optimizing the recovery effect.\textsuperscript{3.91, 3.92} Other studies were directed at the development of a physical model of the degradation and recovery processes in lithium-doped silicon.

Some of the more pertinent facts gained during these studies are as follows. The lithium concentration in a solar cell is not uniform, but increases in a linear or near linear manner with distance from the solar cell junction. This characteristic can be used to advantage to produce cells with exceptionally high open-circuit voltages. Solar cells with low or insufficient lithium concentrations do not recover in a satisfactory manner. Float zone silicon solar cells with exceptionally high lithium concentrations lose efficiency during storage in the unirradiated
condition. These same cells, when irradiated and recovered, also exhibit a time-dependent loss of efficiency. This loss has been related to the room temperature diffusion of lithium into the active area of the cell. It has also been observed that higher lithium concentrations cause faster recovery rates. Because of the recovery rate dependence of the radiation damage in lithium-doped solar cells, it was difficult to evaluate cell performance by accelerator irradiations. Real time irradiations of lithium-doped solar cells have been done with beta particle sources. The results of these beta irradiations indicated that some types of lithium-doped solar cells are slightly superior to n-p cells under some temperature conditions. The major potential advantages of lithium-doped solar cells over conventional n-p solar cells are in regard to proton and neutron damage. Figure 3.19 shows that lithium doped solar cells are clearly superior to conventional cells. The long recovery period following a neutron exposure would probably be a severe limitation in military spacecraft. The most advantageous uses of lithium-doped solar cells would be for spacecraft in proton dominated orbits with high proton fluxes. At present, such orbits are not commonly used. A summary of the current state of the art in lithium-doped solar cells was recently published by Berman.

3.11 Radiation Effects on Shielding Materials

The degradation due to radiation effects on solar cell cover slide material in space is difficult to assess. The different radiation components of the environment act individually and synergistically on the elements of the shielding material and also cause changes in the interaction of shielding elements. The complexity is illustrated in Table 3.2, where the various effects reported for commonly used cover materials are summarized and referenced. In addition to the data in Table 3.2, a large volume of data has been presented in the literature regarding materials currently not in use for shielding solar cells. In this section, the emphasis will be on solar cell shielding material currently used in array construction.

The cover glass shielding currently in use in most spacecraft construction is usually fabricated from Corning #0211 Microsheet or Corning
Figure 3.19 Recovered Power Output of Irradiated Conventional and Lithium Doped Solar Cells
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Radiation Source</th>
<th>Anti-Reflective Coating On Cover Glass</th>
<th>Cover Glass</th>
<th>Blue Filter On Cover Glass</th>
<th>Silicone Adhesives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>keV Protons</td>
<td>Degraded Transmission 3.95, 3.96, 3.97</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Degraded Transmission 3.95, 3.98</td>
<td>No Transmission Loss 3.109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MeV Protons</td>
<td>Degraded Transmission 3.95, 3.98, 3.104</td>
<td>No Transmission Loss 3.95, 3.98</td>
<td>Degraded Transmission 3.95, 3.98</td>
<td>No Transmission Loss 3.109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
 Sawyer fused silica. Where thin covers are desired, the usage tends toward Microsheet, because it is relatively inexpensive in thin sections. Where thicker covers are desired, Corning #7940 fused silica is used to avoid the darkening due to radiation. Cover glasses are always used with a MgF₂ antireflecting front coating and an ultraviolet rejecting filter on the rear surface. Cover glasses are usually attached to solar cells with silicone elastomers.

Most experimental assessments of radiation effects are based on accelerated testing in which a complete space environment is not simulated. This may account for some of the differences between darkening of cover glass material observed in laboratory radiation studies and space flight data for covered solar cells which indicated that radiation effects in cover materials were insignificant. 3.111

The radiation effects observed in cover materials can be characterized as ionization damage rather than displacement damage. In general, ionization effects are usually dependent upon the absorbed dose and to that degree are independent of particle type or energy. Some exceptions to this rule occur in the case of highly charged massive particles. In such cases, the ionization effects may be concentrated along the particle track rather than uniformly distributed. 3.112 It is reasonable to assume that the ionization damage produced in cover materials by space electrons and protons is related to the total absorbed dose. This assumption allows the various radiation components of the space environment to be reduced to a total dose, without a laborious determination of degradation constants for each energy and particle. It also allows the use of experimental data from a single ionizing environment such as 1 MeV electrons.

The most significant radiation effects in cover materials involve changes in the transmission of light in the visible and near infrared region. These data are commonly reported as spectral transmission data. The use of cover-glass spectral-transmission data in determining changes in solar cell output is rather cumbersome. This procedure was outlined by Campbell. 3.98 An alternate approach to the reporting of the data is the use of so-called "wide band" transmission loss. In this method, solar cell short-circuit currents are measured under sun simulated conditions,
with cover slides attached. The cover slides are attached with a thin liquid film with an index of refraction \((n = 1.4)\) similar to that of silicone adhesive. Cyclohexane and \(n\)-amyl alcohol have been used for this purpose. The "wide band" transmittance is defined as the solar cell \(I_{sc}\) with an irradiated cover slide in place divided by the solar cell \(I_{sc}\) with the unirradiated cover slide in place. Such measurements are influenced by solar cell spectral response. Results determined with unirradiated solar cells will not be representative of those for irradiated solar cells. This error is probably negligible compared to the uncertainty of the available experimental data.

Since the "wide band" transmission loss is a measure of the loss in light transmitted, it directly affects the light generated current \((I_L)\) and likewise the short circuit current \((I_{sc})\). It is desirable to use the "wide band" transmission data to estimate the change in solar cell \(P_{max}\). Equation (3.2.9) indicates that cell \(P_{max}\) is proportional to the product of \(I_{sc}\) and \(V_{oc}\). Because \(V_{oc}\) is proportional to \(\ln I_{sc}\), the following relation can be developed to estimate the change in \(P_{max}\) due to cover slide darkening from transmission data:

\[
\frac{P_{max}}{P_{max0}} = T \left[ \frac{\ln (T \cdot I_{sc})}{\ln (I_{sc})} \right]
\]

where \(P_{max}/P_{max0} = \) the fractional change in \(P_{max}\)

\( T = \) the "wide band" transmission of irradiated cover glass

\( I_{sc} = \) the short circuit current of cell with unirradiated cover glass

To aid in the estimation of solar array losses due to reduced transmission from radiation effects in cover slide materials, data relating transmittance to absorbed dose is required. In Figure 3.20, "wide band" transmittance is shown for various absorbed doses. The absorbed doses were produced by 1 MeV electron irradiations in a room temperature, air environment which included no ultraviolet illumination. This electron
Figure 3.20 Variation of Cover Glass Transmittance with Absorbed Dose
radiation is sufficiently penetrating to produce a relatively uniform dose through the entire cover slide, coating, and filter. The $P_{\text{max}}/P_{\text{maxo}}$ data shown in Figure 3.20 was calculated from the "wide band" transmittance value by use of equation (3.11). The data in Figure 3.20 include 0.0152 cm (0.006 in.) 7940 fused silica and 0211 Microsheet cover slides with antireflecting coating and blue filter. It is an established fact that Corning #7940 fused silica exhibits little or no darkening due to radiation in the visible region. Since the transmission loss for 7940 cover glasses must be assumed to be due to changes in the filter, the data can also be used for thicker cover slides. For thicker 0211 Microsheet cover glass, the data in Figure 3.20 cannot be used.

The dose-depth profiles experienced by cover glass shielding in space are highly non-uniform due to the low energy protons stopped in the front surface. To accurately estimate the transmission through a cover glass with such a dose-depth profile, would require the integration of absorption coefficients (as a function of dose) through the cover glass and its thin film layer. The lack of absorption coefficient data for these materials for various doses in a total space environment does not allow such evaluations at this time.

The diversity of technical opinions on transmission loss in cover glass due to space radiation also includes those who do not include this factor in array power estimates and those who simply allow for a 2% to 4% initial loss due to cover glasses and adhesive darkening due to radiation and ultraviolet effects. Recent studies by Luedke at TRW indicated that nearly all darkening produced in 0211 Microsheet by a dose of $10^7$ rad(SiO$_2$) was bleached by a relatively short ultraviolet light exposure. Such results indicate that the use of data such as that in Figure 3.20 is probably an overly conservative practice and emphasizes the importance of performing cover glass darkening studies in a realistic environment. Some investigations have reported results which indicate that cerium doping of glass reduces or eliminates darkening due to irradiation. Other studies indicated that hydrogen impregnation of glasses reduces transmission losses due to irradiation effects.
3.12 Solar Cell Degradation vs 1 MeV Electrons

In this section, solar cell output parameter degradation data are presented as a function of 1 MeV electron fluence. Five basic output parameters \( (I_{sc}, V_{oc}, P_{max}, V_{mp}, \text{ and } I_{mp}) \) of various cell types (See Appendix C for the definition of cell types) were measured at JPL and shown in Figures 3.21 through 3.120 for three base resistivities (2, 10, and 20 ohm-cm). The cells, 8 mils and thicker, are available on a production basis from solar cell manufacturers. The thin cells (approximately 2 mils) are custom made, but the data are included since they are expected to be representative of production line cells in the near future. Asterisks in the figures indicate lower than normal output and the data are probably not representative of today's cells. Temperature of the cells during measurement was 30°C. These data will subsequently be published by JPL.

The initial output power and radiation hardness greatly differ depending on the cell types and manufacturer. For a given cell thickness and base resistivity, however, a trend of increasing power output is in order of conventional cells, violet cells, BSF cells, and textured cells (See Figures 3.121 and 3.122). The radiation hardness, as measured by residual output after a given radiation fluence, also follows the similar trend when irradiated with 1 MeV electrons. The same statement cannot be made for the proton irradiated cells due to the scarcity of data.
Figure 3.21 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.22 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.23 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n+ Conventional Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.24 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.25 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mV/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.26 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.27  Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.28 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.29 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.30 Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.31 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.32  Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² illumination, 30°C.
Figure 3.33 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.34 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.35 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.36  Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.37 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM 1.5 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.38 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 12 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.39 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.40 Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 1 Ohm-cm n/p Conventional Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.41 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 137.3 mJ/cm² AlG Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.42 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells. 
At 13.3 mil/cm² A10 Illumination, 25°C
Figure 3.43 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² A10 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.44 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM1.5 Illumination, 37°C
Figure 3.45 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.

At 13.3 mA/cm² 

30°C
Figure 3.46 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.47 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 13.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.48 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.49  Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.50  Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.51 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.2 mW/cm² and illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.52 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells. At 135.3 rads/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.53  Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.54 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM10 Illumination, 25°C
Figure 3.55  Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells. 
At 107.3 mW/cm² AM1.5 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.56  Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.57 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 105.3 mJ/cm² AM 1.5 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.58  Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² XeN Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.59  Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 131.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.60  Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Shallow Junction Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mA/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.61 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.62 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.63 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.64 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.65 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 13.5 F/cm² illumination, η eff.
Figure 3.66 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.67 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.68  Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.69 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.70  Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.71 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.72  Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.73 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² and Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.74  Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.75 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mJ/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.76 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.7 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.77 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.78 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.79 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.80  Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm\(^2\) AMO Illumination, 30° C
Figure 3.81 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.82 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.83 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.84 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.85 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.86 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.87 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.88  Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.89 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.90 Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 20 Ohm-cm n/p Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.91  Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for
2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mJ/cm² A°0C Illumination, 30°0C
Figure 3.92 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells. At 135.3 r/m/cm², 28°C Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.93 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for
2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 13.5 mW/cm² AM1.0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.94 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mJ/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.95 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.96 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mJ/cm² Al2O Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.97 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.98 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.99 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.100 Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 2 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.101  Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.102 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C.
Figure 3.103 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.104 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.105  Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.106 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.107  Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.108  Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3:109  Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.110  Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.111 Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM1.5 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.112 Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mJ/cm² AM10 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.113 Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ω-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM1.5 Illumination, 30°C.
Figure 3.114 Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mJ/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C.
Figure 3.115 Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² A:0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.116 Normalized Short Circuit Current vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mJ/cm² AM10 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.117 Normalized Open Circuit Voltage vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.118 Normalized Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells. 
At 135.3 mW/cm² AM1.5 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.119 Normalized Voltage at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.
At 135.3 mW/cm² AMO Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.120 Normalized Current at Maximum Power vs 1 MeV Electron Fluence for 10 Ohm-cm n/p Textured with Back Surface Field Silicon Cells.

At 135.3 mW/cm² AM0 Illumination, 30°C
Figure 3.121 $P_{\text{max}}$ of Various Cell Types, 10 and 20 Ohm-cm, 0.2 and 0.15 mm Cells

Figure 3.122 $P_{\text{max}}$ of Various Cell Types, 20 Ohm-cm, 0.3 and 0.25 mm Cells
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CHAPTER 4

4.0 RELATIVE DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS FOR SPACE RADIATION

A large volume of experimental data is available for normal incidence irradiation of unshielded solar cells. These data are not directly applicable in the prediction of space radiation effects because of the omnidirectional nature of the space radiation and because of the energy degrading effects of cover glass (shielding). In this section, the analytical methods of calculating the damage effectiveness of each component of the space radiation will be detailed. The damage effectiveness of space radiation is calculated relative to normal incidence 1 MeV electrons and 10 MeV protons on unshielded solar cells. This concept of the damage effectiveness or relative damage constant (D) is an extension of the previously discussed concept of equivalent fluence. It will allow the reduction of all components of the space radiation to an equivalent laboratory (normal incidence, monoenergetic) irradiation. In this way, laboratory data can be used to predict the behavior of shielded solar arrays in space. In addition, the similar problem of calculating energy deposition at various depths in shielding will be discussed.

4.1 Geometrical Aspects of Radiation Fluences

An omnidirectional flux is defined as the number of radiation particles of a particular type and energy which isotropically traverse a test sphere of unit cross-sectional area per unit time. The commonly used sources of space radiation literature tabulate the environment in terms of omnidirectional fluxes with units of particles cm\(^{-2}\) day\(^{-1}\). A commonly repeated derivation in the literature regarding the conversion of omnidirectional fluxes to unidirectional fluxes is as follows. \(^4.1\)

Assume a unit of plane area in space with an incident omnidirectional flux of particles.

\[
\phi_n = \text{the component of the omnidirectional flux which is normal to a surface}
\]

\[
\phi_o = \text{the omnidirectional flux}
\]
4π = solid angle of test sphere (steradians)

θ = angle of radiation incidence (from normal)

dΩ = an increment of solid angle

= 2π sin θ dθ (for rotational symmetry)

\cos θ = projected area of unit plane area

\[ \phi_n = \frac{\phi_0}{4\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \ d\Omega + \frac{\phi_0}{4\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \ d\Omega \]

\[ \phi_n = \frac{\phi_0}{2} \]

The above derivation implies that the unidirectional fluence is equal in intensity or "equivalent" to the omnidirectional flux divided by 2. Likewise, if the unit plane area has infinite back shielding (i.e., integrate \( \theta \) from 0 to \( \pi/2 \) only), one-fourth of the omnidirectional fluence is equal to the intensity of the unidirectional normally incident fluence. The above expression determines the normal component of an omnidirectional flux. The conversion of an omnidirectional flux to an equivalent unidirectional flux must properly weight the damage effectiveness of all angular components.

The expression for the effectiveness or relative damage constant, weighted for all angular components of an omnidirectional monoenergetic flux and assuming infinite back shielding, is as follows:

\[ D(E,t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} D(E_0, \theta) \cdot 2\pi \sin \theta \ d\theta \] (4.1.2)

where \( D(E,t) = \) relative damage coefficient of omnidirectional radiation particles with energy \( E \), relative to unidirectional 1 MeV electrons or 10 MeV protons

\( D(E_0, \theta) = \) damage coefficient of unidirectional radiation particles with angle of incidence \( \theta \) and energy \( E_0 \) relative to unidirectional 1 MeV electrons or 10 MeV protons

\( t = \) shielding thickness; for the case of \( t=0, E=E_0 \)
The quantity $2\pi \sin \theta \, d\theta$ is an increment of solid angle as in equation (4.1.1). Equation (4.1.2) must be further modified to reflect the energy degradation in the cover glass shields used on silicon solar cells ($t \neq 0$).

4.2 Effect of Shielding on Radiation

A common solar cell configuration involves infinite back shielding and an optically transparent finite shield covering the front surface of the cell. The assumption of infinite back shielding is not always valid, and the differences in both shield thickness and material require separate treatments for front and back radiation. If an omnidirectional flux of radiation particles with energy $E$ is incident on a solar cell shield of thickness $t$, the particles not stopped in the shielding will exit the shield (i.e., enter the silicon) with an energy of $E_0$. The energy $E_0$ will be a strong function of the angle of incidence because of varying path length in the shield. The particle track length in the shield is equal to $t/\cos \theta$. By subtracting the particle track length in the shield ($t/\cos \theta$) from the range of the particle, $R(E)$, in the shield material, one can determine the residual range, $R(E_0)$, of a particle with energy $E_0$. Thus:

$$E_0(E, \theta, t) = R^{-1} \left[ R(E) - \frac{t}{\cos \theta} \right]$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.2.1)

where $R^{-1}$ is a convenient form used to represent an inverse function of the range-energy relation $R$. Proton and electron range-energy data suitable for this calculation have been conveniently tabulated by Janni$^{4.2}$ and Berger and Seltzer.$^{4.3, 4.4}$

4.3 Electron Space Radiation Effects

The evaluation of $D(E, \theta)$ is necessary to complete the integration of equation (4.1.2). The data regarding the experimental evaluation of the relative damage coefficient for n-p silicon solar cells, $D(E)$ for various electron energies at normal incidence is presented in Figure 4.1 (dashed line). Electrons in the MeV energy range penetrate silicon solar cells thoroughly enough that the damage produced by an electron can be considered uniform along its track. For this reason, the amount of displacement
damage produced by a high energy electron is proportional to the total track length produced in a solar cell, and hence:

\[ D(E_0, \theta) \propto \text{(particle track length)} \cdot \text{(projected cell area)} \quad (4.3.1) \]

The length of an individual electron track in a solar cell is proportional to \( \sec \theta \) or \( 1/\cos \theta \). The number of electrons intercepted by the cell is proportional to its projected area normal to the direction of the radiation or \( \cos \theta \). The net result of these two factors on equation (4.3.1) is cancellation of the terms involving the angle of incidence \( \theta \), and \( D(E, \theta) \) is shown to be independent of \( \theta \) or equal to \( D(E) \). The fact that fast electron damage of unshielded silicon solar cells is independent of the angle of incidence was experimentally confirmed by Barrett.\(^4,5\)

Equation (4.1.2) for the case of electron space radiation can be modified to the following expression:

\[ D(E, \theta) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} D(E_0, \theta) 2\pi \sin \theta \, d\theta \quad (4.3.2) \]

Equation (4.3.2) can be evaluated with the aid of equation (4.2.1) to evaluate \( E_0 \) and the data in Figure 4.1 to evaluate \( D(E_0, \theta) \). The integration of equation (4.3.2) has been performed by machine and the results are also shown in Figure 4.1. The results are also tabulated in Table 4.1. Because of electron straggling, there might be some question regarding the suitability of equation (4.2.1) to determine \( E_0 \), however use of alternate Monte Carlo methods yielded results identical to those in Figure 4.1. Rosenzweig published similar space electron damage factor curves.\(^4,6\) Barrett also published a similar analysis based on the diffusion length damage coefficient and empirically fitted analytical expressions to the data.\(^4,5\)

The evaluation of ionization dose in solar array materials due to omnidirectional space electron fluences is analogous to that just completed for silicon solar cell degradation. In the case of absorbed dose, the energy deposited by the radiation in the shielding is determined in terms of rads or joules per kilogram. To evaluate this energy deposition
Figure 4.1. Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Electron Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells
Table 4.1. Electron Damage Coefficients

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Table 4.1. Electron Damage Coefficients
at various depths in the shielding, an expression similar to equation (4.3.2) can be used. Equation (4.3.2) is modified to the extent that the electron stopping power

\[
\left( \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{collision}}
\]

replaces \(D(E_0)\), and \(D(E,t)\) becomes the absorbed dose per unit fluence. The results of this integration are shown in Figure 4.2 and in Table 4.2. Rosenzweig has published similar curves.

4.4 Proton Space Radiation Effects

For proton space radiation, the evaluation of equation (4.1.2) is more complex than that previously discussed for electrons. Two problems arise in the treatment of space protons with energies less than about 10 MeV, because of their limited penetration and increased damage production. One problem exists because the relative damage constants based on silicon solar cell \(I_{sc}, V_{oc}\), and \(P_{max}\) are different and diverge at low proton energies. The second problem is that low energy proton damage has been experimentally characterized only for normal incidence irradiation, and basic considerations indicate that the damage is a strong function of the angle of incidence. The normal incidence proton coefficients for energies of 10 MeV and greater can be assumed to be independent of the angle of radiation incidence for the same reasons discussed for electron irradiation in the previous section.

The physical distribution of low energy proton damage was discussed in section 3.7. The most significant aspect of the low energy proton damage is the fact that a majority of the displacements are produced at the end of the proton track, as illustrated in Figure 3.12. The high damage concentration near the end of the proton track allows the construction of a simple damage model for the prediction of the effect of angle of incidence on low energy proton damage in silicon solar cells. It is assumed that the effect of a low energy proton, of arbitrary angle of incidence and energy, is roughly equal to that of a normally incident proton with a range equal to the perpendicular penetration of the non-normal incident
Figure 4.2. Absorbed Dose Per Unit Fluence of Space Electrons for Various Depths in Planar Fused Silica Shielding
ELECTRDN STOPPING POUER
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(HEW!
(J)
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,055
*ObO
a065
0070
-080
.090
.1U0

,120
,140

.lbO
a180
.LOO
,225
a250
-7.75
,300
.350
0400
,450
,500
-550
,600
700
.BOO
"900
10000
1.200
1.400
1.630
1.800
2.000
2*500
3.000
3.500
4.000
5.000
6.500
8.000
10.000
15.000

SHIELD THICKHES S P G M l C M Z I C ~ )
0.
(0.)

2.56E-13
2rBBE-13
3.20E-13
4.OOE-13
418CE-13

4.165E-08
30R96F-08
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3.474E-60
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lr262E-08
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lrZ94E-08
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2.40E-12

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1.Rl7E-OR

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1144E-14
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288BE-14
3.2OE-14
3.60E-14
4~00E-14
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4.80E-14
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7.20E-14
8.00E-14
8*8OE-14
9r6BE-14
l.12E-13
i.~e~-i3
1.44€.-24
1m60E-13
1.92E-13

Z.Z~E-I~

Table 4.2.

1.68E-02
(7.64E-31

3.35t-02
(1.52E-2)

b.71E-OZ
13.05E-21

E l e c t r o n Stopping Power, Rad(SiOp)/Unl t Omntdl rectional Flux

ORIGINAL PADE Is
4-9

OF POOR QU-


proton. To partially correct the inaccuracies of this proposed model, a factor is employed which relates the ratio of the total displacements produced by the non-normally incident proton to those of a normally incident proton with the same perpendicular penetration in the silicon solar cell. The low energy proton relative damage coefficient given by the above model can be expressed as follows:

\[
D(E_0, \theta) = D(E_n, 0) \cdot \frac{N_{td}(E_o) \cdot \cos \theta}{N_{td}(E_n)}
\]  (4.4.1)

where \(D(E_0, \theta)\) = relative damage coefficient for protons entering a silicon solar cell with energy \(E_0\) at an angle \(\theta\)

\(D(E_n, 0)\) = relative damage coefficient for a proton of normal incidence (\(\theta = 0\)) with range equal to \(R(E_0) \cdot \cos \theta\) or energy \(E_n\)

\(N_{td}(E_o)\) = the total number of silicon displacements created by a proton entering the silicon with energy \(E_o\)

\(\cos \theta\) = the projected area of a unit cell area

\(E_n = R^{-1}[R(E_o) \cdot \cos \theta]\)

When the range of a proton incident at angle \(\theta\) exceeds the product of the thickness of the cell and the secant of \(\theta\), \(D(E_0, \theta)\) is calculated as follows:

\[
D(E_0, \theta) = D(E_0, 0)
\]  (4.4.2)

Equations (4.4.1) and (4.4.2) allow the evaluation of equation (4.1.2). This integration has been done by machine using the \(D(E_0, 0)\) values shown in Figure 3.11. Separate integrations were done for \(D(E_0, 0)\) values based on \(I_{sc}, V_{oc}\), and \(P_{max}\).

Evaluation of equation 4.1.2 for cell thicknesses of 0.0254 cm (0.010 in.) and 0.0457 cm (0.018 in) has shown that, for practical purposes, the results can be considered independent of cell thickness. The results of these integrations for several coverslide thicknesses are shown in Figures 4.3 and 4.4. The same data are printed in tabular form in Tables 4.3 and 4.4.
Figure 4.3 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Proton Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells (Based on $I_{SC}$)
Figure 4.4 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Proton Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells (Based on $P_{max}$ or $V_{oc}$)
### Table 4.3. Proton Damage Coefficients for $J_{sc}$ ORIGIN & PAGE OF POOR QUALITY

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Note: The table continues with similar entries for higher energy values, presenting the proton damage coefficients in units of $10^{-6}$ per g/cm² at various energy levels.
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Table 4.4. Proton Damage Coefficients for \( V_{oc} \) and \( P_{max} \)
The values of relative damage constants for omnidirectional fluences of protons on shielded solar cells allow a space proton environment to be reduced to an equivalent fluence of normally incident 10 MeV protons on unshielded silicon solar cells. Experimental studies of silicon solar cells have indicated that a fluence of normally incident 10 MeV protons produces damage which can be approximated by a fluence of 1 MeV electrons which is 3000 times that of the 10 MeV proton fluence.

The evaluation of the absorbed dose in shielding materials due to space protons requires an analysis similar to that done for space electrons. For this evaluation an expression similar to equation (4.3.2) is used. The quantity \( D(E_0) \) is replaced by the stopping power \( \left(-\frac{dE}{dx}\right) \) for protons of energy \( E_0 \) and the quantity \( D(E,t) \) becomes the absorbed dose per unit incident omnidirectional-flux protons of energy \( E \) and at shielding depth \( t \). The result of this integration for several shielding thicknesses of fused quartz are shown in Figure 4.5 and Table 4.5. Rosenzweig has published similar data.4.6

4.5 Alpha Particle Space Radiation Effects

Solar flares have been shown to have a component of energetic alpha particles (helium nuclei). The evaluation of the effects of solar flare events on solar arrays requires alpha particle data similar to that for electrons and protons. Smith and Blue compared effects of 10.5 MeV protons and 42 MeV alpha particles on silicon solar cell degradation.4.7 The results showed that the 42 MeV alpha particle flux degraded the silicon cells 3.8 times as fast as a similar flux of 10.5 MeV protons. These results were in good agreement with a theoretical damage ratio of 4.

Based on the experimental results of Smith and Blue, the proton damage constant curve shown in Figure 4.4 can be translated a factor of four higher in energy and a factor of four higher in relative damage constant to represent a similar family of relative damage constants for alpha particles in space. Although the relationship found by Smith and
Figure 4.5 Absorbed Dose Per Unit Fluence of Space Proton for Various Depths in Planar Fused Silica Shielding
| ENERGY (MeV) | •200 | 3.30E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 6.84E-03 | 5.37E-03 | 7.74E-03 | 2.15E-03 | 1.68E-03 | 6.71E-04 | 1.22E-01 | 1.66E-01 | 7.84E-02 |
|             | •225 | 3.60E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 7.37E-03 | 5.94E-03 | 8.41E-03 | 2.29E-03 | 1.82E-03 | 7.23E-04 | 1.26E-01 | 1.70E-01 | 8.25E-02 |
|             | •250 | 3.90E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 8.05E-03 | 6.51E-03 | 9.07E-03 | 2.40E-03 | 1.93E-03 | 7.89E-04 | 1.30E-01 | 1.74E-01 | 8.66E-02 |
|             | •275 | 4.20E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 8.72E-03 | 7.09E-03 | 9.73E-03 | 2.51E-03 | 2.04E-03 | 8.56E-04 | 1.34E-01 | 1.78E-01 | 9.07E-02 |
|             | •300 | 4.50E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 9.39E-03 | 7.67E-03 | 1.03E-02 | 2.62E-03 | 2.15E-03 | 9.23E-04 | 1.38E-01 | 1.82E-01 | 9.48E-02 |
|             | •350 | 5.00E-14 | 0.60E-04 | 1.05E-02 | 3.13E-02 | 1.03E-02 | 2.62E-03 | 2.15E-03 | 9.23E-04 | 1.38E-01 | 1.82E-01 | 9.48E-02 |
|             | •400 | 6.00E-14 | 0.90E-04 | 1.05E-02 | 3.13E-02 | 1.03E-02 | 2.62E-03 | 2.15E-03 | 9.23E-04 | 1.38E-01 | 1.82E-01 | 9.48E-02 |
|             | •500 | 1.25E-13 | 1.13E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 1.33E-13 | 1.31E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 3.13E-13 | 1.13E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 2.28E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 3.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 4.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
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|             | 1.000 | 6.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 7.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 8.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |
|             | 1.000 | 9.30E-13 | 1.04E-03 | 1.14E-06 | 8.92E-04 | 1.22E-03 | 6.37E-04 | 5.26E-04 | 2.78E-06 | 2.86E-07 | 1.37E-05 | 9.79E-08 |

**Table 4.5. Proton Stopping Power, \( \text{Rad(SiO}_2\)/Unit Omnidirectional Flux**

**ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY**
Blue may not extend to lower particle energies, a set of effective damage constants for alpha particles, obtained by the above two translations, is shown in Figure 4.6. Data are shown based on $P_{\text{max}}$ and $V_{oc}$. Data based on $I_{sc}$ may be obtained similarly for alpha particle effects.

The methods for estimating solar cell degradation in space are based on the techniques described in References 4.8 through 4.10. In summary, the omnidirectional space radiation is converted to a damage equivalent unidirectional fluence at a normalized energy and in terms of a specified radiation particle. This equivalent fluence will produce the same damage as that produced by omnidirectional space radiation considered if the relative damage coefficient (RDC) is properly defined to allow the conversion. When the equivalent fluence is determined for a given space environment, the parameter degradation can be evaluated in the laboratory by irradiating the solar cell with the calculated value of fluence level of unidirectional normal incident flux. The equivalent fluence is normally expressed in terms of 1 MeV electron fluence or 10 MeV protons. In the presence of a cover shield, angular dependence of both "effective shield thickness" and damage effectiveness, or stopping power, are integrated throughout angles for a given energy, assuming semi-infinite planar geometry. As a result, the RDC for a given shield thickness, such as shown in Figures 4.1 through 4.5, is computed only once for an equivalent fluence calculation, regardless of the change in the energy spectrum of the space environment.

4.6 Alternative Approaches

An alternative approach for estimating solar cell degradation has been proposed by Carosella and Piccianno and Reitman. This method determines the energy spectrum after isotropic space radiation passes through the cover glass (or before entering the solar cell surface), assuming an infinite back shielding. Then, the damage coefficients applicable to normally incident particles are applied to determine the damage. There are two drawbacks in this approach: (a) the energy spectrum at the solar cell surface must be re-computed for every change in either the energy spectrum of the space environment or of cover glass thickness. Therefore, the computation is needlessly repetitive, (b) the calculated energy spectrum at the solar
Figure 4.6 Relative Damage Coefficients for Space Alpha Particle Irradiation of Shielded N/P Silicon Solar Cells (Based on $P_{\text{max}}$ or $V_{\text{oc}}$)
cell surface no longer contains information on angular dependence on energy, and is neither isotropic or unidirectional. Yet the damage coefficient applied is appropriate only for normally incident radiation. The problems relating to the angular content of the "modified" spectrum emerging from the shielding are of no consequence for some calculations, such as absorbed dose, RDC for electrons, or high-energy protons. It is therefore justified to weigh the "modified" spectrum with RDC's to evaluate electron damage in terms of a damage equivalent monoenergetic normal incidence fluence. In the case of low-energy protons, the use of the referenced methods incorrectly assumes that proton damage is independent of the angle of incidence. This shortcoming is particularly serious in the case of many common space environments in which the lower energy proton damage dominates the solar cell degradation.

Wilkinson and Horne\textsuperscript{4.13} have proposed an analytical approach based on a computer code ("p-n code") developed by Leadon et. al\textsuperscript{4.14,4.15} combined with a Monte Carlo shielding code. The p-n code solves the one-dimensional time-dependent differential equation for the flow of charge carriers and the electric field inside the solar cell. The shielding code mines the energy spectrum after the space radiation penetrates the cover glass. The energy spectrum is then used to calculate a spatial displacement profile using a theoretical model.\textsuperscript{4.16} Using this spatial displacement profile and the experimentally determined damage constant for minority carrier lifetime correlated with the calculated total displacement density, the variations of solar cell parameters with radiation are determined from the p-n code. Problems with this approach include the following:

(a) The p-n code must adequately represent the particular cell type being evaluated.

(b) The experimentally observed physical parameters were not rigorously correlated with the spatial defect distribution profile. Rather, the parameters were correlated with the aggregate effect of inhomogeneous defect distribution in terms of total defect density (primary recoils plus the average displacements by primaries). In this respect, the application of such (aggregate effect) experimental data to the damage gradients or defect distribution profile is simply inadequate.
(c) Assumptions made for proton damage such as point defects are inadequate.

(d) The displacement damage "cross section" used is not the cross section but rather is a critical flux or relative fluence level to measure the damage equivalence. 4.16-4.19

Both p-n and Monte Carlo shielding codes are huge and perhaps expensive to run. To make use of these analytical approaches, the cell and physical parameters have to be adjusted and experimentally verified for each cell type before the prediction.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER 5

5.0 THE SPACE RADIATION ENVIRONMENT

The radiation environment near the earth, consists of electrons and protons trapped in the geomagnetic field, corpuscular radiation associated with large solar flare activity, and to a lesser extent, galactic cosmic-ray radiation. Near Jupiter, an environment similar to the earth's trapped particle radiation exists, but the intensity is far greater than that near earth, due primarily to the large magnetic field. In the following sections, each environment is qualitatively described to assist the reader in determining the proper environment for use in making solar cell degradation estimates. Quantitative, or detailed, descriptions of each environment are beyond the scope of this manuscript.

5.1 Geomagnetically Trapped Radiation

The geomagnetic dipole field is responsible for the radiation belts near the earth, holding the trapped charged particles for long periods of time. It is a plasma confined in an inhomogeneous magnetic field. The understanding of charge transport within the field, loss and capture mechanisms of charged particles have improved considerably over recent years. The dynamics of this radiation environment are greatly influenced by solar activity.

Geomagnetically trapped radiation may be either of natural origin or of artificial origin, such as high-altitude nuclear explosions. A particle has to possess a charge to be trapped in a geomagnetic field, and the constituents are electrons and protons. Regardless of the origin, the particle with just the right momentum and pitch angle will be trapped in the field. The particles will then spiral about a field line with varying pitch angle and curvature in the inhomogeneous field. They continue the motion until they reach the mirror (or reflection) point where the pitch angle becomes zero, and then bounce back into the other hemisphere. They continue to bounce back and forth between the mirror points (latitudinal motion), and at the same time drift in the longitudinal
direction as the result of forces due to the gradient of field strength and the curvature of field lines. During a quiescent state (periods of normal solar activity), the trapped particles can be characterized by three periodic motions: (a) cyclotron oscillation about the field line with Larmor frequency, (b) latitudinal motion between mirror points, and (c) longitudinal drift. The direction of motion for electrons is opposite to that of protons because of an opposite charge. Near the mirror points, the particles collide with upper atmospheric gases, gradually losing their energy and changing trajectory until they are lost in the lower atmosphere.

At some distance from the earth, the field is distorted by the "solar wind" as shown in Figure 5.1. The solar wind is a plasma from the sun, consisting mostly of protons with an average energy of a few keV and a density on the order of 10/cm$^3$. The solar wind interacts with the geomagnetic field resulting in the formation of a shock wave. As the solar plasma passes the shock wave, the random speeds of the particles increase producing turbulence in the magnetic field. There is a region of hot plasma near the earth-sun line on the day side. The solar wind deforms the geomagnetic field to form the magnetosphere.

The geomagnetic field lines just behind the magnetosheath are qualitatively similar to those associated with the simple dipole model and trap corpuscular radiation as described above. During quiescence, a relatively steady flow of solar wind blows the field away from the sun, contributing to an asymmetric shape of the radiation belt, compressed on the sun's side and forming the tail of the magnetosphere and the thin neutral layer on the dark side of the earth.

McIlwain\textsuperscript{5,1} has proposed a coordinate system consisting of the magnetic field $B$ and the integral invariant $I$ which can adequately relate measurements made at different geographic locations. He introduced a parameter $L = f(B,I)$, analogous to a physical distance in a dipole field (the equatorial radius of a magnetic shell), thus reducing the number of variables needed to describe the physical situation of trapped charged
Figure 5.1 Regions of the Magnetosphere Shown in the Noon-Midnight Meridian Plane
particles and presenting field data in a manner which facilitates its physical interpretation. For a radial distance of \( R \) and a dipole moment of \( M \), the transformation using the dipole relation is expressed as follows:

\[
B = \frac{M}{R^3} (4 - \frac{3R}{L})^{1/2}
\]  

(5.1.1)

where \( R \) is \( \cos^2 \lambda \), \( M \) is the geomagnetic dipole moment, and \( \lambda \) is the magnetic latitude. McIlwain expanded the parameter \( L \) into a polynomial function of a variable which is a function of \( I, B, \) and \( M \) and elegantly represented the physical phenomena of trapped particles.

Since its introduction, numerous particle field data were presented in this \((B,L)\) coordinate system. Vette and coworkers have concentrated efforts on the compilation of particle field data reported by numerous investigators and have constructed models of the radiation environment. These data are regarded as the best consolidated source of information available on trapped radiation environments, and are used as the single source of data on this subject throughout this manuscript. The reader may consult the referenced publications\(^{5.2-5.8}\) for detailed and quantitative discussions of the trapped electron and proton environment models.

### 5.1.1 Trapped Protons

The most recent description of the trapped proton environment is presented in references 5.2 through 5.4. The largest proton concentration of intermediate energies is near the earth within an \( L \)-value of four (geocentric) earth radii, peaked at about two earth radii. The high energy protons concentrate even closer to the earth, peaked at 1.5 earth radii whereas the distribution of the lower energy protons extends nearly to synchronous altitude \((L = 6.6\ R_e)\). Generally speaking, the energy spectrum becomes softer as the \( L \)-value increases. At synchronous altitude, the spectrum is so soft that practically no protons with energy greater than two MeV exist.
5.1.2 Trapped Electrons

Trapped electrons with energies of a few hundred keV extend to the outer boundary of the magnetosphere, which fluctuates at 8 to 10 earth radii. There are two intense regions: an inner one covers the L-values in the range of $1.2 < L < 2.8$ and peaks about 1.4 earth radii, whereas the outer zone ranges $3 < L < 11$ and peaks at around 4 to 5 earth radii with the flux about $10^7$ electrons/cm$^2$-sec for both zones.

The outer zone is a very dynamic region of space, and the particles are considered to be pseudo-trapped because the lifetimes are shorter than the drift time around the earth. However, powerful sources, such as galactic and solar origins, supply electrons to this region of space, and thus substantial fluxes are always present. In this zone, the flux has large short-term temporal variations related to the local time as well as a long-term change in the average flux associated with a solar cycle.

In the inner zone, the effect of geomagnetic storms on the average flux is significant at high L-values and higher energies. A long-term increase in the inner zone flux is correlated with the increased solar activity. Another source of temporal variation is due to a decay of residual electrons from the Starfish nuclear explosion. These temporal variations are accommodated in the recent compilation of data and publications on AE3, AE4 and AE5 by Vette.\textsuperscript{5.5-5.8}

5.2 Orbital Integration

5.2.1 Circular Orbits

Vette and coworkers have time integrated both the trapped proton and electron environments for convenient energy ranges and tabulated the average daily fluence for various altitudes and inclinations. There are two forms of spectra in his data: one is of the form of integral flux and another difference flux, the latter of which should not be confused with the differential flux.

If $\phi(E)$ is a differential flux at energy $E$ in MeV, normally expressed in terms of particles/cm$^2$-sec-MeV, and $\phi(>E)$ is an integral flux with an
energy greater than $E$, expressed in particles/cm²-sec, the relationship of these two quantities is

$$\phi(>E) = \int_{-\infty}^{E} \phi(E) \, dE$$

(5.2.1)

$$= \sum_{j} \phi(E_j) \Delta E_j$$

On the other hand, the difference fluence $\Delta \phi$ is simply

$$\Delta \phi_j = \phi(>E_j) - \phi(>E_j + \Delta E)$$

(5.2.2)

5.2.2 Trajectories Other Than Circular Orbits

For the spacecraft trajectories other than circular orbits tabulated in references 5.2 through 5.7, the radiation environment encountered by the spacecraft may be determined by some other method.

One approximate method, suitable for hand calculations, is to divide the trajectory into small segments with suitable time intervals $\Delta t$, so that during $\Delta t$ the environment can be regarded the same as that in a circular orbit at altitude $r$ and inclination $i$. The environment, weighted by flight time, then is

$$\phi(>E,I) = \sum_{r} \phi'(>E,r,i) \cdot \Delta t(r,i)$$

(5.2.3)

The difficulty of this approximation is that (a) the $\phi'$ is averaged over a circular orbit so that the $\phi'$ is not equal to an instantaneous flux at $(r,i)$, and (b) the $i$ is constantly changing if $i \neq 0$. Thus the error can be very large and may approach an order of magnitude calculation if $i \neq 0$.

A more accurate but more time consuming way of estimating the environment is to determine a trajectory on an isoflux contour map of energy $E_n$ plotted on geographic coordinates. By knowing instantaneous flux at $(r,i)$ and the time interval $\Delta t(r,i)$, the integral flux can be time integrated by
This calculation will determine the flux of an integral spectrum at $E_n$. If isoflux contour maps for different energies are available, a series of such calculations leads to several points on an integral spectrum.

The most accurate way to determine the environment is to make use of the physically significant coordinate system $(B,L)$ so that uncertainties and inaccuracies attributable to the geographic coordinate system are eliminated. A set of state vectors or classical orbital elements can be used to solve Kepler's equation and generate a trajectory with suitable time intervals. These geographic coordinates are then transformed into geomagnetic shell coordinates $(B,L)$ on which isoflux contour maps are plotted. This approach is computationally involved and hence is practical only with the aid of a computer.

The instantaneous flux $\phi(\geq E_n, t_j)$ is thus determined and is time integrated on each flux map of energy $E_n$ in the following manner:

$$\phi(\geq E_n) = \sum_j \phi(\geq E_n, t_j) \cdot \Delta t_j$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.2.5)

Upon time integration of instantaneous flux throughout a given trajectory, performed on one isoflux contour map of specified energy $E_n$ and particle type, one point is finally determined in an integral flux-energy spectrum $\phi(\geq E)$. If similar calculations are performed on a number of maps of different energies, exactly the same number of points can be determined in the final spectrum.

An energy spectrum at an arbitrary point in space, in general, is a function of both $B$ and $L$ coordinates and can be expressed in either exponential or power form. If such a distribution function in either form is applicable to an entire energy region for all points in space, only one isoflux contour map is required to determine the time integrated flux-energy spectrum.
If $F_N(>E_n,>E_k,L_j^i)$ is an energy distribution function for a partitioned energy greater than $E_k$

$$\phi(>E_k, t_j) = \phi(>E_n, t_j) \cdot F_N(>E_n, >E_k, L_j^i) \quad (5.2.6)$$

The $L_j^i$ in $F_N$ is the $L$ value in the input table and is the nearest to the computed value $L_j$. The $E_n$ is an energy specified in an isoflux contour map. The flux $\phi(>E_k, t_j)$ is integrated in each energy shell $E_k$ as the time integration proceeds throughout a trajectory.

The distribution function for an exponential spectrum with a parameter $E_o(>E_n, B, L)$ is defined as

$$F_N(>E_n, >E_k, t_j) = \exp \left[ \left( \frac{E_n - E_k}{E_o} \right)^{>E_n, B, L_j} \right] \quad (5.2.7)$$

The $F_N$ is thus normalized at $E_n$, and hence the $E_n$ should agree with the energy specifying an isoflux contour map. For a power form, the distribution function is defined as

$$F_N(>E_n, >E_k, t_j) = \left( \frac{E_k}{E_n} \right)^{-p(>E_n, B_j, L_j)}$$

$$= \left( \frac{E_k}{E_n} \right)^{-p(>E_n, t_j)}$$

where $p(>E_n, B_j, L_j)$ = Exponent of power form which depends on the energy specifying the isoflux contour map, as well as special location of trajectory in $B$-$L$ coordinate $(B_j, L_j)$

and again the $F_N$ is normalized at $E_n$. As an example of the above method, the geomagnetically-trapped proton environment is machine calculated for a highly elliptical orbit with an inclination of 63.5 degrees and is shown in Figure 5.2.
Figure 5.2 Geomagnetically Trapped Omnidirectional Proton Flux in a Highly Elliptical Orbit
5.3 Cosmic-Ray (Galactic Cosmic-Ray) Radiation

Galactic cosmic rays are a highly penetrating radiation originating beyond the solar system. They possess energies greater than 1 BeV (some may exceed \(10^8\) BeV) and are capable of extraordinary interactions with matter in the upper atmosphere such as spallation, fission, fragmentation, and the subsequent secondary processes. The local cosmic-ray radiation in the atmosphere contains protons, neutrons, \(\pi\)-mesons, electrons, photons, and strange particles.

Near the upper limits of the atmosphere, the primary radiation, consisting of 79 percent protons and 20 percent alpha particles, predominates over the products of nuclear reactions and the decay products, thus the components change with altitude.

The ability of charged particles to penetrate a magnetic field is limited by the Lorentz force and is measured by a quantity called the magnetic rigidity, defined by the ratio of the momentum to the charge. The radius of curvature of charged particles in the field is then related to the magnetic rigidity, and hence the ability of particle penetration. The magnetic cutoff momentum, and hence the cutoff energy, for a given vertically incident particle at a given altitude is closely related to the latitude of the geomagnetic field. Only protons with energies greater than about 15 BeV can penetrate the earth's magnetic field at the equator.

One remarkable characteristic of cosmic rays is their isotropy. The average diurnal effect is very small; however, there is a definite relationship between the fluctuation and solar activity in general25(320,857),(492,886); 27-day effects, an 11-year fluctuation cycle, and the Forbush decrease associated with the magnetic storms are examples. Although the energy is very high, the flux is negligibly small compared with other environments considered, and this environment is ignored in solar cell array degradation cases at present.

5.4 Solar Flare (Solar Cosmic-Ray) Radiation

Solar flares occur in the neighborhood of sunspots, very seldom emit white light, and cause a sudden increase in intensity of the hydrogen
alpha line (6,563 Å). After its inception, the flare rapidly expands over an area of a few million to a billion square miles of the solar disk, reaching a peak intensity and gradually decaying and completely disappearing within several minutes to several hours, depending on the size of the flare.

Within half an hour or more following the appearance of large solar flares, energetic particles, consisting mostly of protons, are detected at the earth, particularly in the polar regions inside the auroral zones. The radiation dies away with a time constant of one to three days. The constituent particles are electrons, protons, alpha particles, and very small numbers of medium nuclei (C, N, and O). The ratios of protons to alpha particles, and of protons to medium nuclei vary considerably between solar events, whereas the ratio of alpha particles to medium nuclei remains relatively constant.

Although the fluctuation in flux intensity is much more severe and random than those of galactic cosmic rays, the following phenomena have been observed: (a) there may be an 11-month cycle in the peak number of events, (b) there is a semiannual variation which has maxima in March and September, probably near the equinoxes, (c) the maximum number of events occurs on the average near the September equinox and the minimum during December or January, (d) the number of flares varies with the 11-year solar cycle, and (e) there is a definite tendency for flare events producing a large proton fluence to occur during the increase or decrease of sunspot activity rather than during the maximum. Observed sunspot numbers for the previous solar cycles and the predicted numbers for cycle 21 are shown in Figure 5.10.

Solar flare particle fluxes arriving at the earth are highly time dependent in intensity, spectrum and isotropy. The rise time varies with the individual event and is strongly energy-dependent, reaching the maximum intensity first at higher energies and thus showing a harder spectrum at the beginning. After the peak of radiation, the integral flux decays with time at a rate approximately proportional to $t^{-n}$, where $t$ is time and $n$ is a number, roughly equal to 3. The particle flux arriving in the upper atmosphere is for the most part isotropic; however, significant anisotropies frequently exist for shorter durations, arriving from a highly preferred and fairly narrow direction in space from 30° to
Figure 5.3 Predicted and Observed Sunspot Numbers
60° west of the earth-sun line for a period of a few minutes.

A model described by McCracken is largely based on experimental observation. The following is an excerpt from his article:

"Figure 5.4 shows the model for the magnetic regime created by the plasma disturbance originating in a large solar flare (not necessarily a fire that results in a large proton event). The plasma ejected by the flare carries the lines of force of the sunspot with it, the lines of force being stretched outward from the sunspot in a quasi-radial fashion. The sun's rotation causes the lines to curve westward. The configuration of the lines of force near the leading edge of the plasma disturbance is not yet known; however, it is known to exclude cosmic rays from outside, and to inhibit the escape of cosmic rays injected at points inside the magnetic regime.

In the Forbush decrease, the arrival of the leading edge of the plasma disturbance at the earth initiates the magnetic storm, and once the earth is inside the magnetic regime, some galactic cosmic rays are screened away from the earth. This phenomenon now provides a direct magnetic connection from the earth to the sunspot group. Consequently, if another flare were now to produce cosmic rays, they would travel rapidly along the magnetic lines of force to the earth. They would, therefore, arrive at the earth soon after the occurrence of the flare (about 20 minutes), and the maximum intensity would rapidly be reached. The divergent nature of the magnetic lines of force implies that the cosmic rays would tend to become collimated, eventually travelling roughly parallel to the lines of force. Also, the particles would be partially trapped within the magnetic configuration; and so after a period of anisotropy, a period of isotropy may be observed.

At a point outside the magnetic regime, Figure 5.4a, there is no direct connection to the sunspot, and hence cosmic rays cannot arrive rapidly at the earth. They can only arrive by diffusion across the lines of force—a process that tends to delay and isotropize them. Therefore, an appreciable time delay exists between particle production and arrival at the earth (30-120 minutes), and the intensity rises slowly to a maximum some hours after the flare. The maximum omnidirectional intensity of radiation is less than that which would be observed if the earth has a direct magnetic connection to the sunspot. The radiation may be mildly anisotropic, with the maximum intensity oriented along the lines of force leading to the sun, but not to the sunspot group in which the flare occurred."

*Figure numbers altered from original text.
Figure 5.4 Changes of the Interplanetary Magnetic Field Regime Model with Time
Until recently, observations of solar flare particles were made only for those with relatively high energies (10, 30 and 100 MeV), much higher than the energy range normally of interest in connection with solar cell degradation. The time integrated spectrum normally exhibits an exponential form with respect to rigidity and is customarily expressed in terms of the characteristic rigidity $R_0$ as follows:

$$\phi(R) = \phi(R_0) \cdot e^{-\frac{R}{R_0}}$$ (5.4.1)

where

$$R = \text{rigidity} \left( \frac{\text{volt \cdot amp \cdot sec}}{\text{coulomb}} \right), \left( \frac{\text{volt}}{\text{coulomb}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{pc/zq}{E^2 - (m_0c^2)^2/zq}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{1 + (T + 2m_0c^2)/zq}}{zq}$$

$E = \text{total energy}$

$T = \text{kinetic energy}$

$p = \text{momentum} (\text{MeV/c}), (\text{joule sec/m}), (\text{newton \cdot sec})$

$m_0c^2 = \text{rest mass energy}, 938 \text{ MeV per proton}$

$zq = \text{atomic charge}$

$\phi(R) = \text{integral flux having rigidity}$

$\text{greater than } R$

The $R_0$ varies not only with each event but within the spectrum of an event. Integral solar proton flux is tabulated in Table 5.1 for selected flare events from 1956 through 1972 together with the characteristic rigidity.$^5,12,5.14$ The annual integral flux for solar cycle 19 is shown in Table 5.2. The $R_0$ computed for the annual flux is smaller during the years near sunspot maximum (50 ~ 70 MV) but the total annual fluence is higher during these years.

Since solar flare particle fluxes are rich in low rigidities, a strong cutoff phenomenon is expected. During the quiescent state, the cutoff rigidity at low latitude is a strong function of direction as
### TABLE 5.1 INTEGRAL PROTON FLUX AT 10, 30, AND 100 MeV AND CORRESPONDING CHARACTERISTIC RIGIDITY $R_o$ \(^5.12\)

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<th>$\phi(&gt;30\text{ MeV})$</th>
<th>$\phi(&gt;100\text{ MeV})$</th>
<th>$R_o(30-100)$</th>
<th>$R_o(10-30)$</th>
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<td>(protons/cm(^2))</td>
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<td>11/12/60</td>
<td>4 \times 10^9</td>
<td>1.3 \times 10^9</td>
<td>2.5 \times 10^8</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/15/60</td>
<td>2.5 \times 10^9</td>
<td>7.2 \times 10^8</td>
<td>1.2 \times 10^8</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/20/60</td>
<td>1.4 \times 10^8</td>
<td>4.5 \times 10^7</td>
<td>8 \times 10^6</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/11/61</td>
<td>1.7 \times 10^7</td>
<td>3 \times 10^6</td>
<td>2.4 \times 10^5</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/12/61</td>
<td>5 \times 10^8</td>
<td>4 \times 10^7</td>
<td>1 \times 10^6</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/18/61</td>
<td>1 \times 10^9</td>
<td>3 \times 10^8</td>
<td>4 \times 10^7</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/20/61</td>
<td>1.5 \times 10^7</td>
<td>5 \times 10^6</td>
<td>9 \times 10^5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/28/61</td>
<td>5 \times 10^7</td>
<td>6 \times 10^6</td>
<td>1.1 \times 10^6</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/10/61</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/4/62</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/23/62</td>
<td>6 \times 10^5</td>
<td>1.2 \times 10^5</td>
<td>1 \times 10^4</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ORIGINAl PAGE IS
OF POOR QUALITY
TABLE 5.1 INTEGRAL PROTON FLUX AT 10, 30, AND 100 MeV AND CHARACTERISTIC RIGIDITY $R_0^{5.14}$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>$\phi(&gt;10\text{ MeV})$</th>
<th>$\phi(&gt;30\text{ MeV})$</th>
<th>$\phi(&gt;100\text{ MeV})$</th>
<th>$R_0$ (MV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7/ 7/66</td>
<td>$3.8 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$5.0 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>$2.3 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/ 2/66</td>
<td>$1.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$8.0 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.9 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/28/67</td>
<td>$7.5 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.4 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.2 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/24/67</td>
<td>$6.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$3.8 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$4.4 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/ 3/67</td>
<td>$2.8 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$5.8 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>$6.4 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6/ 9/68</td>
<td>$4.1 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.1 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.0 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/28/68</td>
<td>$8.6 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.2 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$9.2 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/31/68</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.5 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.7 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/18/68</td>
<td>$1.1 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$2.1 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.3 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/ 4/68</td>
<td>$2.8 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$4.0 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$9.6 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/25/69</td>
<td>$6.3 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$7.2 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/30/69</td>
<td>$4.4 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$1.6 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$4.5 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/12/69</td>
<td>$1.5 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$2.0 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$7.0 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/ 2/69</td>
<td>$8.7 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$3.2 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/31/70</td>
<td>$2.8 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$3.4 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$4.0 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/ 6/70</td>
<td>$1.0 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.3 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$1.8 \times 10^3$</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3/29/70</td>
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<td>$2.1 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$4.8 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7/23/70</td>
<td>$8.1 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$7.2 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>$6.0 \times 10^2$</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/14/70</td>
<td>$2.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$5.0 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$1.2 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/ 5/70</td>
<td>$9.6 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$3.5 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$4.0 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/24/71</td>
<td>$1.5 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$3.4 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.1 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4/ 6/71</td>
<td>$2.9 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$2.5 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$3.3 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9/ 1/71</td>
<td>$3.8 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$1.6 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$2.1 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/28/72</td>
<td>$6.9 \times 10^7$</td>
<td>$6.6 \times 10^6$</td>
<td>$2.2 \times 10^5$</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8/ 4/72</td>
<td>$2.25 \times 10^{10}$</td>
<td>$8.1 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$5.5 \times 10^8$</td>
<td>$26.5(E_0)$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 5.2. OBSERVED ANNUAL INTEGRAL SOLAR PROTON FLUX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Events</th>
<th>Integral Flux (protons/cm²)</th>
<th>R_c (MV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\phi(&gt;10 \text{ MeV})$</td>
<td>$\phi(&gt;30 \text{ MeV})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>$2.0 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$1.0 \times 10^9$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>$4.0 \times 10^8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>$7.0 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$7.8 \times 10^8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>$2.2 \times 10^{10}$</td>
<td>$4.2 \times 10^9$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>$6.8 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$2.2 \times 10^9$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>$1.6 \times 10^9$</td>
<td>$3.5 \times 10^8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solar-cycle total</td>
<td>$3.9 \times 10^{10}$</td>
<td>$9.0 \times 10^9$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
well as of latitude (approximately proportional to $\cos^4 \lambda$ for large geomagnetic latitudes), and hence of $L$. Galactic cosmic rays follow this normal Störmer cutoff as do the flare particles just before the plasma cloud hits the geomagnetic field. After the impact of the plasma front, the field is disturbed (magnetic storm) in such a manner that the field due to a time-dependent ring current appears to superimpose on the normal geomagnetic dipole field, causing the disturbed line of force to stretch further out of the earth at a given latitude. As a result, the particle rigidity necessary to penetrate at a given latitude is greatly reduced, and the cutoff energy becomes time dependent. A recent satellite observation indicated that the cutoff energy at synchronous altitude seems to be much less than expected, and flare protons with energy as low as a few hundred keV were observed during the storm. If this is the case, the cutoff energy due to the geomagnetic field becomes insignificant at this altitude, because the cutoff due to a solar cell cover shield is normally far greater than the magnetic cutoff during a storm. If both altitude and latitude are low, the field perturbation due to the storm may be insignificantly small compared with that of the quiescent state, and the Störmer cutoff approximation may prevail. The geomagnetic shielding phenomena are shown in Figure 5.5.13 for protons in a class three flare on July 18, 1961.

For the purpose of predicting the size and spectrum of solar flare proton events, many statistical analyses have been made on proton events observed near or on the earth. Unfortunately, the correlation between the prediction and observations has been rather poor. A Poisson distribution may be appropriate for sunspot numbers and solar flares on the sun, but not for solar flare proton events. The flares which are large enough to emit a large number of energetic particles and further satisfy the requirements of protons to reach the earth obviously belong to a special class of solar flare events. Phenomena observed during solar cycle 19 are enumerated below for review, placing particular emphasis on those which appear to be dependent on solar activity.
Figure 5.5  Solar Flare Proton Environment at 200 n. mi. Circular Orbit
Due to Flare Event on July 18, 1961, Class Three Flare^2.13
a. The flares capable of producing large proton events tend to occur when the rate of change in annual sunspot number becomes greater.

b. The characteristic rigidity of solar flare protons is randomly distributed throughout an 11-year cycle, but both the annual expectation value and variance are not. During a period of increasing or decreasing sunspot activity, the $R_0$ becomes larger on the average than that during the maximum, and the variance becomes smaller during the solar maximum. That is to say, the solar flare proton events are relatively steady and confined in a smaller rigidity range during the solar maximum, whereas the size and spectrum become erratic when the rate of change in sunspot activity becomes severe.

c. The size of each event, as measured by an integral proton flux of energy greater than 30 MeV, is almost randomly distributed over an 11-year cycle, but a line connecting the successive annual fluence plotted against sunspot number is not a single-valued function.

King\textsuperscript{5.14} made a probabilistic study on solar proton fluence level based on 1966-1972 data. The probability with which any given solar proton fluence level will be exceeded was computed for the active phase of the next solar cycle (1977 - 1983).\textsuperscript{5.15} The probability is a function of fluence level, proton energy threshold, and mission duration. He assumed that fluences of all anomalously large events have a spectrum given by the August 1972 event, and fluences of the ordinary events obey a log normal distribution. The computer code developed for this calculation\textsuperscript{5.16} is provided to supplement the equivalent fluence calculation code and is shown in Appendix D. The solar flare proton environment of solar cycle 20 is shown in Figure 5.6. The spectrum for an anomalous event\textsuperscript{5.14} is also shown in order to compare with the spectrum used in Reference 5.13. A spectrum softer than the August 1972 event is used for the latter model and the annual fluence level is scaled according to the solar activity as measured by smoothed sunspot number (Figure 5.7).
Figure 5.6 Solar Flare Proton Environment of Solar Cycle 205.14
Figure 5.7 Predicted Smoothed Sunspot Number for Solar Cycle 21

5.13
REFERENCES


5.10 Solar Geophysical Data, Prompt report, No. 392-part 1, USDC, NOAA, Apr 1977.


REFERENCES (Continued)


6.0 SOLAR ARRAY DEGRADATION CALCULATIONS

In the previous sections, the three basic input elements necessary to perform degradation calculations were developed. The first of these elements is degradation data for solar cells under normal incidence 1 MeV electron irradiation. The second input element is the effective relative damage coefficients for omnidirectional space electrons and protons of various energies for solar cells with various thickness of cover glasses. The third input element is space radiation environment data for the orbit of interest. The section will cover the use of these data to perform a solar array degradation estimate.

6.1 General Procedure, Equivalent Fluence

The effective relative damage coefficients allow the conversion of various energy space electrons and protons into equivalent fluences. The equivalent fluences are based on normal-incidence monoenergetic irradiations for which the degradations of the solar cells of interest are characterized. The process of weighting an integral energy spectrum of electrons for a given orbit can be described as follows:

\[
\phi_{1 \text{ MeV e}} = \sum_{E=0}^{\infty} [\phi(>E) - \phi(>E + \Delta E)] \cdot D(E,t) \quad (6.1.1)
\]

where

\[\phi_{1 \text{ MeV e}} = \text{the damage equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence (e/cm}^2\text{-year)}\]

\[\phi(>E) - \phi(>E + \Delta E) = \text{the isotropic particle fluence having energies in a small energy increment greater than energy E (e/cm}^2\text{-year)}\]

\[D(E,t) = \text{the relative damage coefficient for isotropic fluences of space particles of energy E on solar cells shielded by cover glass of thickness t (dimensionless)}\]

The quantities \(\phi(>E) - \phi(>E + \Delta E)\) for a range of energies are also known as the difference spectrum. This spectrum can be generated from an
integral energy spectrum for any energy increments desired. For the case of space protons, equation (6.1.1) can also be used with the exception that \( D(E,t) \) values for protons are based on 10 MeV proton fluences rather than 1 MeV electrons. The calculated equivalent fluence will therefore be a damage equivalent 10 MeV proton fluence. The equivalent 10 MeV proton fluence can be converted to equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence as follows:

\[
\phi_{1\,\text{MeV} \, e} = \phi_{10\,\text{MeV} \, p} \times 900
\]  

(6.1.2)

The above relationship is an approximation which must be made for the purpose of combining electron and proton damage. In Section 3.3, the differences between electron and proton degradation were discussed. Since the slope of the degradation curve (the constant \( C \) in equation 3.2.1) is different for 1 MeV electron and 10 MeV proton irradiations, the constant in equation (6.1.2) will differ depending on the level of degraded cell output at which this constant is determined. At present, the best information available indicates a value equal to 3000 when cell output parameters are degraded by 25%. In cases when the cell degradation is entirely dominated by proton damage, the cell degradation could be estimated more accurately by calculating the equivalent 10 MeV proton fluence, and using 10 MeV proton cell damage data, than the use of the equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence and electron data.

An additional problem arises in calculating equivalent fluences for proton environments. The results shown in Figures 4.3 and 4.4 have shown that different values of \( D(E,t) \) for proton irradiation are found when this damage constant is based on cell \( I_{sc} \) or \( P_{max} \) and \( V_{oc} \). This differs with the results of electron irradiation where one value of \( D(E,t) \) describes the behavior of all cell output parameters. Because of the two sets of \( D(E,t) \) values for proton irradiation, two different equivalent 10 MeV proton fluences must be considered. One of these will describe the variation of solar cell \( P_{max} \) and \( V_{oc} \). The other will describe the variation of solar cell \( I_{sc} \).

The values of \( D(E,t) \) have been calculated by assuming infinite back shielding. Although this condition is often approached in the body-
mounted solar arrays of spinning spacecraft, it is not generally true. The designer must also evaluate the contribution of equivalent fluence resulting from radiation incident on the back side of the solar cells. The result is a front and a back component of equivalent fluence. A question arises as to the values of $D(E,t)$ to be used for back irradiations. In the case of trapped space electron irradiation, it is reasonable to use the same values of $D(E,t)$ for both front and back irradiations. The only problem in this case is to convert the backshielding of the panels, satellite, etc., to an equivalent planar shielding ($\text{gm/cm}^2$).

The case for space protons is considerably more complex because of the nonpenetrating nature of low energy protons. There is an increasing need for a technique to evaluate rear irradiation effects with the increased use of light weight solar panels with negligible back radiation protection. Low-energy proton irradiation from the rear not only increases bulk resistivity, thereby decreasing the fill factor, and greatly changes the forward dark I-V characteristic curves. These phenomena, peculiar to rear irradiation, must be considered and included in the evaluation of $D(E,t)$. Scarcity of usable data and lack of proper technique prevent the appropriate evaluation of $D(E,t)$ at present. The only alternative is to use the front irradiation data, assuming that both front and back irradiations produce the same result as long as all protons penetrate through the junction. To allow for the self-shielding effect for cells irradiated with protons from the rear, the back contact solder thickness (approximately 0.01 to 0.08 mm) plus the thickness of the cell minus the junction depth should be included in the total backshielding.

The various contributions and variations of equivalent fluence which can be encountered in a natural space environment are summarized in Table 6.1. Columns in the right side of the table indicate the contributions from the various radiation components to the two different types of equivalent fluence. Although the most general case can involve all the contributions shown in Table 6.1, in a typical earth orbit only a few of these contributions may be significant.
TABLE 6.1  
SUMMARY OF EQUIVALENT FLUENCE CONTRIBUTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contributions</th>
<th>( I_{sc} )</th>
<th>( P_{\text{max}} ) ( V_{oc} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Trapped electrons, front, ( (I_{sc}, P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trapped electrons, back, ( (I_{sc}, P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Trapped protons, front, ( (I_{sc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Trapped protons, back, ( (I_{sc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Trapped protons, front, ( (P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Trapped protons, back ( (P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Flare protons, front, ( (I_{sc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Flare protons, back, ( (I_{sc}) )</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Flare protons, front, ( (P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Flare protons, back, ( (P_{\text{max}}, V_{oc}) )</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, and 8 contribute to the \( I_{sc} \) total equivalent fluence and 1, 2, 5, 6, 9, and 10 to the \( P_{\text{max}} \) \( V_{oc} \) total equivalent fluence.

The calculation of equivalent fluence and subsequent estimation of degraded solar cell output from the data in Figures 3.21 through 3.120 yields data which are valid for temperatures of 30°C and solar illumination power densities of 135 mW/cm². When degraded solar cell outputs are desired for temperatures other than 30°C, corrections can be made by use
of the temperature coefficients discussed in Section 3.8. The evaluation of changes in solar cell response due to reduced light transmission in the cover slide materials will be covered in the next section.

6.2 Effect of Reduced Light Transmission on Solar Cell Response

To use the cover glass darkening data previously presented, a procedure is necessary to evaluate the absorbed dose produced by the various radiation components of the space environment. This can be done by use of the data developed in Chapter 4. The procedure is similar to that used for equivalent fluence, with the exception that the absorbed dose is a point function and therefore varies with depth in the cover material. To calculate the absorbed dose at a particular depth in the cover materials, the following expression is used:

$$Dose(d) = \sum_{E=0}^{\infty} [\phi(>E) - \phi(>E + \Delta E)] \cdot I(E,d) \quad (6.2.1)$$

where $Dose(d) =$ the absorbed dose in the cover material at a depth $d$

$I(E,d) =$ the absorbed dose per unit fluence for isotropic space radiation particles of energy $E$ at depth $d$ in the shielding material. Figures 4.2 and 4.5, Tables 4.2 and 4.5

The absorbed dose must be calculated at several depths in the cover material and the electron and proton portions of the environment must be summed to determine the dose-depth profile. The necessity of including contributions from back radiations must also be considered. In practice, the dose deposited will decrease greatly with increasing depth into the cover materials. The greater dose near the surface is due largely to low-energy trapped protons, and contributes little to the average dose deposited in the cover materials. Because of the uncertainties in evaluating cover material transmission loss in space, there is little to be gained in making an extremely accurate evaluation of the surface dose. When the average dose deposited in the cover material is known, the degradation in transmission can be estimated from the data in Section 3.11. These loss factors may then be applied to the estimated solar cell output parameter values.
6.3 Rough Degradation Calculations

A rough determination of the equivalent fluence can be made by following the procedure described by equations (6.1.1) and (6.1.2). The energy increments \( (E_1, E_2) \) used in these calculations are those commonly tabulated in circular orbit integrations\(^6\). The \( D(E,t) \) values used are taken from Tables 4.1, 4.3 and 4.4 for the mean energy value of the energy increment. Calculations are shown for cover glass thicknesses of 0.0335 gm/cm\(^2\) (0.006 in. fused silica), 0.0671 gm/cm\(^2\) (0.012 in. fused silica), and 0.1675 gm/cm\(^2\) (0.030 in fused silica). The details of such an equivalent fluence calculation are shown in Table 6.2 for trapped proton radiation in a circular orbit at 835 km (450 n mi) altitude and 90° inclination. The \( D(E,t) \) values used in Table 6.2 are those based on \( P_{\text{max}} \) and \( V_{dc} \).

Several observations can be made regarding the calculations in Table 6.2. The largest contribution to the equivalent fluence for 0.0335 gm/cm\(^2\) (0.006 inch fused silica) shielding occurs in the flux increment between 4 and 6 MeV. The equivalent fluence contributions from protons with energies greater than 30 MeV appear to be negligible. The use of the \( D(E,t) \) value for 5 MeV (1.25) leads to serious equivalent fluence errors in the energy increment of 4 to 6 MeV because \( D(E,t) \) changes very rapidly with energy in this region. The equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence calculated for 0.0335 gm/cm\(^2\) shielding by this rough method is 6.81E13 e/cm\(^2\)-yr. A similar detailed machine calculation (to be discussed) employing much smaller energy increments yielded an equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence of 6.11E13 e/cm\(^2\)-yr. This difference is entirely due to the use of smaller energy increments in a machine calculation. The accuracy of the manual calculation can be improved by this procedure, but additional values of \( \Phi(E_i) \) and \( D(E,t) \) must be obtained by interpolation. It should be noted that this equivalent fluence is the front radiation contribution only. The back contribution must be calculated.

*Throughout this section, the floating point notation will be used to represent exponential quantities. 6.81E13 = 6.81 \times 10^{13}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Increment</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0335 g/m²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 g/m²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.1675 g/m²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E₁ (MeV)</td>
<td>E₂ (MeV)</td>
<td>φ(&gt;E₁) (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>φ(&gt;E₁) - φ(&gt;E₂) (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>D(E,6) Equivalent Fluence (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>D(E,12) Equivalent Fluence (p/cm²-day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.96E7</td>
<td>2.72E7</td>
<td>1.25E0</td>
<td>3.40E7</td>
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<td>1.12E7</td>
<td>1.27E0</td>
<td>1.42E7</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.61E7</td>
<td>8.27E-1</td>
<td>5.05E7</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>3.28E6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm²-day</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6.21E7</td>
<td>2.60E7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm²-year</td>
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<td>X 365</td>
<td>X 365</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/10 MeV proton</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2.27E10</td>
<td>9.50E9</td>
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<td>Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year</td>
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<td>X 363</td>
<td>X 363</td>
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<td>Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year, P max, V oc (Machine Calculation)**</td>
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<td>6.81E13</td>
<td>2.85E13</td>
<td>1.05E13</td>
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</table>

*References 6.2, 6.3
**See Table 6.19
separately and added to the front contribution. The omnidirectional flux should not be reduced by a factor of 1/2 to allow for the assumed infinite rear shielding, because this factor is already included in the D(E,t) term. In Table 6.3, the above calculation is repeated using D(E,t) values based on \( I_{SC} \). The procedure and problems are identical to those previously discussed.

In Tables 6.4 and 6.5, the trapped proton contributions of equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence are calculated by manual methods for a circular earth orbit of 4630 km (2500 n mi) altitude and 90° inclination. Such an orbit penetrates the region with the most intense trapped proton flux. As in the previous case, the major equivalent fluence calculations occur in the lower proton energy increments, and protons of energies greater than 30 MeV can be ignored without significant error. In this and the previous example, proton energies below 4 MeV have been omitted because they are "cut off" by the lightest shielding considered [i.e., \( D(<4,6) = 0 \)]. The calculated equivalent fluences for this orbit are approximately one thousand times greater than found at the lower altitude previously considered. In the circular orbit of 4630 km (2500 n mi) altitude, 90° inclination, there is also a relatively high flux of trapped electrons. The rough evaluation of this contribution to the equivalent fluence is shown in Table 6.6. The values of \( \phi'(\geq E_1) \) shown are taken from integrated orbit tables from maps AE4 and AE5.\(^{6.5} \) The values of D(E,t) are taken from Table 4.1. The calculation procedure for trapped electrons is exactly the same as that for trapped protons, with the exception that one equivalent fluence value will describe the variation of the solar cell parameters \( I_{SC}, P_{max} \) and \( V_{OC} \). As in the case of the trapped proton evaluations, the major equivalent fluence contributions occur in a few lower energy increments. For cover glass shielding of 0.0335 gm/cm\(^2\) (0.006 in. fused silica), an equivalent fluence of 2.24E13 equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm\(^2\)-yr is determined by these rough methods. A detailed machine calculation of this value indicates 1.83E13 equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm\(^2\)-yr. Although this fluence is large enough to produce significant solar cell degradation, if considered separately, it is only one-thousandth of the previously calculated trapped proton equivalent fluence contribution for this orbit. On this basis, it is reasonable to ignore the trapped electron contribution to equivalent fluence in this orbit [4630 km (2500 n mi), 90°].
Table 6.3 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) ($I_{sc}$)
Circular Orbit 835 km (450 n mi) 90 Degree Inclination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Increment</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum*</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0335 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.1675 gm/cm²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$E_1$ ($E_2$) (MeV)</td>
<td>$\phi(&gt;E_1)$ (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>$\phi(&gt;E_1) - \phi(&gt;E_2)$ (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>$D(E,6)$ (Equivalent Fluence 2 (p/cm²-day))</td>
<td>$D(E,12)$ (Equivalent Fluence 2 (p/cm²-day))</td>
<td>$D(E,30)$ (Equivalent Fluence 2 (p/cm²-day))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 4 6 | 6.96E7 | 2.72E7 | 4.75E-1 | 1.29E7 | \n| 6 8 | 4.24E7 | 1.12E7 | 5.55E-1 | 0.622E7 | 3.60E-1 | 0.403E7 | 2.95E-1 | 0.227E7 | \n| 8 10 | 3.12E7 | 0.61E7 | 4.65E-1 | 0.284E7 | 4.47E-1 | 0.273E7 | \n| 10 15 | 2.51E7 | 0.77E7 | 3.85E-1 | 0.296E7 | 3.80E-1 | 0.292E7 | \n| 15 20 | 1.74E7 | 0.37E7 | 3.85E-1 | 0.142E7 | 3.65E-1 | 0.135E7 | 3.17E-1 | 0.117E7 | \n| 20 30 | 1.37E7 | 0.37E7 | 3.84E-1 | 0.142E7 | 3.75E-1 | 0.139E7 | 3.45E-1 | 0.128E7 | \n| 30 50 | 1.00E7 | 1.89E6 | 3.50E-1 | 0.061E7 | 3.50E-1 | 0.066E7 | 3.40E-1 | 0.064E7 | \n| 50 70 | 8.11E6 | 1.37E6 | 3.00E-1 | 0.041E7 | 3.00E-1 | 0.041E7 | 3.00E-1 | 0.041E7 | \n| 70 100 | 6.74E6 | 1.62E6 | 2.35E-1 | 0.038E7 | 2.35E-1 | 0.038E7 | 2.35E-1 | 0.038E7 | \n| 100 150 | 5.12E6 | 1.84E6 | 1.50E-1 | 0.028E7 | 1.50E-1 | 0.028E7 | 1.50E-1 | 0.028E7 | \n| 150 | 3.28E6 | 3.45E-1 | 3.50E-1 | 3.65E-1 | 3.70E-1 | 3.85E-1 | 3.95E-1 | 4.10E-1 | 4.25E-1 | \n
Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm²-day
2.94E7 x 365 = 1.071E10
x 365 = 5.16E9
x 365 = 2.34E9

Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year
1.07E10 / 365 = 2.94E7
5.16E9 / 365 = 1.45E7
2.34E9 / 365 = 0.64E7

Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year, $I_{sc}$
2.94E7 / 365 = 8.2E7
1.45E7 / 365 = 4.0E7
0.64E7 / 365 = 1.8E7

*References 6.2, 6.3
**See Table 6.15
### Table 6.4 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) \( I_{sc} \)
Circular Orbit 4530 km (2500 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Increment</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum ( \phi(&gt;E_1) ) (p/cm(^2)-day)</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum ( \phi(&gt;E_1) - \phi(&gt;E_2) ) (p/cm(^2)-day)</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0335 gm/cm(^2)</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 gm/cm(^2)</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.1675 gm/cm(^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( E_1 )</td>
<td>( E_2 )</td>
<td>( \phi(&gt;E_1) )</td>
<td>( \phi(&gt;E_1) - \phi(&gt;E_2) )</td>
<td>( D(E, 6) )</td>
<td>Equiv. Fluence (p/cm(^2)-day)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(MeV)</td>
<td>(MeV)</td>
<td>(p/cm(^2)-day)</td>
<td>(p/cm(^2)-day)</td>
<td>(p/cm(^2)-day)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>1.58E10</td>
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<td>.464E10</td>
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<td>4.65E-1</td>
<td>.172E10</td>
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<td>.019E10</td>
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<td>50</td>
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<td>.0059E10</td>
<td>3.50E-1</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>2.24E8</td>
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<td>3.00E-1</td>
<td>.002E10</td>
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<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.74E8</td>
<td>.0055E10</td>
<td>2.35E-1</td>
<td>.001E10</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.0055E10</td>
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<td>.001E10</td>
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<tr>
<td>150</td>
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<td>6.37E7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm\(^2\)-day
- Days/year: \( \times 365 \)
- Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm\(^2\)-year: 8.72E12
- Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/10 MeV proton: \( \times 3E3 \)
- Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm\(^2\)-year: 2.62E16
- Equivalent 1 MeV electrons, \( P_{max} = V_{oc} \) (Machine Calculation) \( e/cm^2\)-yr
  - \( 2.12E16 \)  
  - \( 6.38E15 \)  
  - \( 1.21E15 \)

*References 6.2, 6.3

**See Table 6.15
Table 6.5 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Protons) \( (P_{\text{max}}, V_{\text{oc}}) \)
Circular Orbit 4630 km (2500 n mi), 90 Degree Inclination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Increment</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum *</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0335 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.1675 gm/cm²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( E_1 ) (MeV)</td>
<td>( \phi(&gt;E_1) ) (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>( \phi(&gt;E_1) - \phi(&gt;E_2) ) (p/cm²-day)</td>
<td>( D(E,6) )</td>
<td>( D(E,12) )</td>
<td>( D(E,30) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 6</td>
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</table>

Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm²-day
days/year: 5.741E10 \( \times 365 \) \( \times 365 \)
Equivalent 10 MeV protons/cm²-year: 2.09E13 \( \times 365 \)
Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/10 MeV proton: 2.09E13 \( \times 365 \)
Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year: 6.27E16 \( \times 365 \)
Equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence, \( P_{\text{max}}, V_{\text{oc}} \)
(Machine Calculation)** 6E/cm²-year: 5.16E16 \( \times 365 \)

*References 6.2, 6.3
**See Table 6.19
# Table 6.6 Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Electrons)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum*</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0035 g/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 g/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.3675 g/cm²</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$E_1$</td>
<td>$E_2$</td>
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<td>$(E_1^2 - E_2^2)^{1/2}$</td>
<td>$D(E,6)$</td>
<td>$D(E,12)$</td>
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<td>(MeV)</td>
<td>(e/cm²-day)</td>
<td>(e/cm²-day)</td>
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Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-day

6.14E10

x 365

3.31E10

x 365

1.037E10

x 365

1.21E13

x 365

3.79E12

Equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence (Manuscript Calculation) e/cm²-yr

2.24E13

1.21E13

3.79E12

Equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence (Machine Calculation) e/cm²-yr

1.83E13

1.11E13

4.51E12

*Reference 6.5

**See Table 6.11
At altitudes greater than 4650 km, the trapped proton contribution to the equivalent fluence decreases rapidly and the trapped electron contribution becomes more significant. At synchronous or geostationary altitude, the trapped proton contribution can be neglected. An example of a rough calculation of equivalent fluence for three different shielding materials for synchronous (35,900 km, 19400 n mi) altitude and 0° inclination is shown in Table 6.7. The rough calculated equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence for cells with 0.0335 gm/cm² of shielding is 3.43E13 e/cm²-yr. Detailed machine calculations of this quantity indicate 3.14E13 equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-yr. The reason for the higher value found by the rough manual calculation is again related to the size of energy increments in the lower energy range and the rapidly changing values of D(E,t) in these ranges.

The calculation of absorbed dose in shielding materials is very similar to the equivalent fluence calculation and is described mathematically by equation (6.2.1). The I(E,t) value in Figures 4.2 and 4.5 and Tables 4.2 and 4.5 may be used for this purpose. Although the absorbed dose contributed by geomagnetically trapped protons is often very high in the surface layers of shielding, this is usually not a significant contribution to the average absorbed dose in the shielding.

6.4 Computer Calculated Equivalent Fluence

The aforementioned rough calculations can be improved in accuracy and speed with the aid of computer processing. Although the quantity computed is exactly the same as before, the selection of difference flux and the corresponding damage coefficient can be programmed to achieve higher accuracy and more consistent results. The increased accuracy of calculated fluence is achieved mainly by use of finer energy increments for a given environment. A computer program that performs this function is listed in Appendix D.
Table 6.7. Manual Calculation of Equivalent Fluence (Trapped Electrons)
Circular Orbit 35,900 km (19,400 n mi), 0 Degree Inclination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Increment</th>
<th>Integral Energy Spectrum*</th>
<th>Difference Spectrum</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0335 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.0671 gm/cm²</th>
<th>Shielding Thickness 0.1675 gm/cm²</th>
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<td>E₁ E₂ (MeV)</td>
<td>ϕ(&gt;E₁) (e/cm²-day)</td>
<td>ϕ(&gt;E₁) - ϕ(&gt;E₂)</td>
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<td>D(E,12)</td>
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Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-day 9.39E10 5.62E10 .999E10
days/year x 365 x 365 x 365
Equivalent 1 MeV electrons/cm²-year 5.43E13 2.05E13 3.65E12
Equivalent 1 MeV electron (Machine Calculation) e/cm²-yr** 3.14E13 1.95E13 6.06E12

*Reference 6.5
**See Table 6.8
For circular orbits around the earth, Vette, et al. 6.1-6.8, have time-integrated both electron and proton environments for convenient energy ranges, various altitudes, and inclinations of 0°, 30°, 60°, and 90°. The average daily fluences are tabulated in references 6.1 through 6.8. The electron environment is taken from reference 6.5 in which both inner zone (AE-5) and outer zone (AE-4) electron models are integrated and tabulated.

For the trapped proton environment, three maps are used: AP5 (reference 6.1) for the energies from 0.4 to 4 MeV, AP6 (reference 6.2) for the energies from 4 to 30 MeV, and AP7 (reference 6.3) for the energies greater than 50 MeV. For a given altitude and inclination, an integral spectrum of AP7 was extrapolated back to 30 MeV and the intensity was normalized to AP6 in order to eliminate a discontinuity there. Similarly, the intensity at 4 MeV from AP5 was normalized to that of the AP6. The AP1 data (reference 6.8) for the energies from 30 to 50 MeV was not utilized because it is obsolete data, with the spectrum not readily available and the energy interval covered being too small on a logarithmic scale to add any significant information.

Although lower energy proton fluxes are more damaging than higher energy proton fluxes, most of the low energy component described in AP5 (reference 6.1) is eliminated by the cover glass. Thus, the most important portion of the energy spectrum from the standpoint of solar cell damage is in the neighborhood of a few MeV, and hence, a normalization to AP6 is of physical and practical significance.

The assessment of solar-flare proton effects is complicated by several problems:

a. the unpredictable nature of future solar flare proton fluxes and energy spectrums
b. the undefinable nature of geomagnetic cutoff energy during a flare event, and hence, the evaluation of the near-earth flare environment
c. the uncertainty in the isotropy of flare fluxes
The magnetic cutoff energy varies with both altitude and latitude even during quiescent periods, and thus it becomes time-dependent for spacecraft moving with respect to the earth. Further complications are caused by the plasma disturbance and magnetic field regime sweeping through the earth, the magnitude of which depends in part on the size and location of flares on the solar disk. Therefore, it is impossible to generalize all these conditions; however, there are two distinct cases in which certain assumptions are valid as previously discussed: (a) at high altitude and latitude, the geomagnetic field makes almost negligible contribution to the cutoff phenomena during the storm, and (b) at very low altitude and latitude, the Stormer's cutoff approximation may prevail.

The damage coefficient for omnidirectional flux can be exclusively used with the following understanding:

a. If the solar flare proton flux is omnidirectional throughout the event, the equivalent fluence computed with the omnidirectional damage coefficients described in Chapter 4 will not result in any error from the directionality of proton flux.

b. If the flux is unidirectional throughout the event, though such an event is very rare, the computed equivalent fluence based on the omnidirectional damage coefficient will be in error by a factor of two.

Therefore, the uncertainty in flux directionality can be removed by the use of the omnidirectional damage coefficient with the provision that the estimate can be very reasonable for most of the events with a very small probability of a factor of two underestimate.

The annual equivalent 1 MeV electron fluences resulting from geomagnetically trapped particles are tabulated in Tables 6.8 through 6.19 for $I_{SC}$ and $V_{oc}$ (and $P_{max}$) degradation estimates, and summarized in Table 6.21. Although the damage ratio between 10 MeV protons and 1 MeV electrons varies with degradation level and depends on the solar cell output parameter, a ratio of 3,000 was assumed throughout the computation. The equivalent 1 MeV
### Table 6.8 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence Due to Trapped Electrons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 0 Degree, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.

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Due to geomagnetic trapped electrons, Ref. A4, A5, and A6.
### Table 6.9 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence Due to Trapped Electrons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 30 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.

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**Notes:**
- Equiv. 1 MeV electron fluence for JSC - circular orbits, Inc = 30 degrees due to geomag trapped electrons, Ref. AE5, AE6, and AE7.
Table 6.10 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence Due to Trapped Electrons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 60 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.
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Table 6.11 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence Due to Trapped Electrons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 90 Degrees, Infinite Backshiel ding Assumed.
Table 6.12 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for J Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 0 Degree, Infinitesimal Backshielding Assumed.
Table 6.13 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence $f_{0.1}$ Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 30 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.
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Table 6.14 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for Jsc Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 60 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.
### Table 6.15. Annual Equiv. 1 MeV Electron Fluence for J_{\text{EC}} Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 90 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.

<table>
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<th>6.71E-02</th>
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Table 6.16 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for Voc and Pmax Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 0 Degree, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.
### Table 6.17  
Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for \( V_{VOC} \) and \( P_{MAX} \) Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 30 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.

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Table 6.18 Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for \( \phi_{\text{DC}} \) and \( P_{\text{max}} \) Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 60 Degrees, Infinite Backshielding Assumed.
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.50E+03</td>
<td>1.02E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.00E+03</td>
<td>1.11E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.00E+03</td>
<td>1.30E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.00E+03</td>
<td>1.46E+04</td>
</tr>
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<td>9.00E+03</td>
<td>1.67E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00E+04</td>
<td>1.85E+04</td>
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<td>1.10E+04</td>
<td>2.04E+04</td>
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<td>1.20E+04</td>
<td>2.22E+04</td>
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<td>1.30E+04</td>
<td>2.41E+04</td>
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<td>1.40E+04</td>
<td>2.90E+04</td>
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<td>1.50E+04</td>
<td>2.76E+04</td>
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<td>1.60E+04</td>
<td>2.96E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.70E+04</td>
<td>3.15E+04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80E+04</td>
<td>3.34E+04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.19** Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for V oc and P max Due to Trapped Protons, Circular Orbits, Inclination 90 Degrees, Infinite Backscattering Assumed.
electron fluences from solar flare protons are calculated for free space and are tabulated in Table 6.20. The environment, based on Reference 6.9, is commonly used in military satellite systems. King\textsuperscript{6.11,6.12} made probabilistic analyses of flare protons of solar cycle 20 and proposed empirical solar proton models. Such models and the subsequently developed computer code\textsuperscript{6.13} can be incorporated with the code for equivalent fluence calculation to estimate the damage from solar flare protons. A code developed by Stassinopoulos\textsuperscript{6.13} (SOLPRO) for free space was incorporated in the equivalent fluence code described in Appendix D. For a trajectory near the earth, a partial magnetospheric shielding is operative, and a fractional exposure to flare proton environment has to be calculated if the cutoff energy attributable to cover glass thickness is less than the geomagnetic shielding cutoff energy at various trajectory points. In this case, the determination of a solar flare proton environment requires considerations of both spacecraft trajectory and time dependent flare proton spectrum.

The energy spectrum used by Weidner\textsuperscript{6.9} is much softer than the spectrum adopted by King\textsuperscript{6.10} for anomalous events, which was based on August 1972 solar event (see Figure 5.6). Because a larger annual fluence level was assumed in Reference 6.9, the equivalent fluences tabulated in Table 6.20 for free space will result in a conservative estimate. A computer code in Appendix D, on the other hand, results in a probabilistic estimate, using a straight line energy spectrum extrapolation (on a log-log scale) toward energies lower than 10 MeV. The equivalent fluence due to the August 1972 solar flare protons is shown in Figure 7.2.

The damage produced by back radiation is, for the first-order assumption, regarded as the same in nature and magnitude as that produced by the front radiation. In this context, an equivalent fluence attributable to the back radiation can be added to the front contribution by estimating an effective thickness of back shielding. This assumption is not valid when higher order effects are considered. If a composite back-shielding material is similar to the front cover glass, a correction factor for a stopping power established by the material's atomic number Z is small (proportional to Z) and only a density correction is required for the estimate. This is done by shifting a curve of equivalent fluence vs cover-glass thickness by a density factor.
### Table 6.20 Predicted Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for Solar Flare Protons, Based on Reference 6.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Cell Parameter</th>
<th>Annual Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence, Various Shielding (gm/cm²)</th>
<th>0.0168</th>
<th>0.0335</th>
<th>0.0671</th>
<th>0.1115</th>
<th>0.1675</th>
<th>0.3350</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975-1977</td>
<td>( J_{sc} ) ( V_{oc} ) and ( P_{max} )</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.9E13</td>
<td>1.7E13</td>
<td>8.7E12</td>
<td>5.3E12</td>
<td>3.7E12</td>
<td>1.9E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7E13</td>
<td>3.4E13</td>
<td>1.6E13</td>
<td>8.6E12</td>
<td>5.5E12</td>
<td>2.6E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978-1979</td>
<td>( J_{sc} ) ( V_{oc} ) and ( P_{max} )</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5E14</td>
<td>1.3E14</td>
<td>4.4E13</td>
<td>2.6E13</td>
<td>1.8E13</td>
<td>9.7E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3E14</td>
<td>1.7E14</td>
<td>8.0E13</td>
<td>4.3E13</td>
<td>2.7E13</td>
<td>1.3E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-1982</td>
<td>( J_{sc} ) ( V_{oc} ) and ( P_{max} )</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.9E14</td>
<td>1.7E14</td>
<td>8.7E13</td>
<td>5.3E13</td>
<td>3.7E13</td>
<td>1.9E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7E14</td>
<td>3.4E14</td>
<td>1.6E14</td>
<td>8.6E12</td>
<td>5.5E12</td>
<td>2.6E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983-1984</td>
<td>( J_{sc} ) ( V_{oc} ) and ( P_{max} )</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5E14</td>
<td>1.3E14</td>
<td>4.4E13</td>
<td>2.6E13</td>
<td>1.8E13</td>
<td>9.7E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3E14</td>
<td>1.7E14</td>
<td>8.0E13</td>
<td>4.3E13</td>
<td>2.7E13</td>
<td>1.3E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-1987</td>
<td>( J_{sc} ) ( V_{oc} ) and ( P_{max} )</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.9E13</td>
<td>1.7E13</td>
<td>8.7E12</td>
<td>5.3E12</td>
<td>3.7E12</td>
<td>1.9E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6.7E13</td>
<td>3.4E13</td>
<td>1.6E13</td>
<td>8.6E12</td>
<td>5.5E12</td>
<td>2.6E12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 6.21 Summary of Data in Tables 6.8 Through 6.20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Orbital Parameters</th>
<th>Equivalent Fluence for Various Shielding Thicknesses, $I_{sc}$</th>
<th>Equivalent Fluence for Various Shielding Thicknesses, $V_{oc}, P_{max}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Electrons</td>
<td>AE4, AE5&lt;sup&gt;6.5&lt;/sup&gt; AE3&lt;sup&gt;6.4&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Circular Orbits, Various Altitudes Inclination 0° Inclination 30° Inclination 60° Inclination 90°</td>
<td>Table 6.8 Table 6.9 Table 6.10 Table 6.11</td>
<td>Table 6.8 data applies Table 6.9 data applies Table 6.10 data applies Table 6.11 data applies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Protons</td>
<td>AP5&lt;sup&gt;6.1&lt;/sup&gt; AP6&lt;sup&gt;6.2&lt;/sup&gt; AP7&lt;sup&gt;6.3&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Circular Orbits, Various Altitudes Inclination 0° Inclination 30° Inclination 60° Inclination 90°</td>
<td>Table 6.12 Table 6.13 Table 6.14 Table 6.15</td>
<td>Table 6.16 Table 6.17 Table 6.18 Table 6.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Flare Protons</td>
<td>NASA TM X5386&lt;sup&gt;6.9&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Free Space, 1 AU</td>
<td>Table 6.20</td>
<td>Table 6.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If the $Z$ is vastly different, the equivalent fluence should be recomputed according to the effective damage coefficient for the new shielding material.

6.5 Solar Array Degradation

The process of calculating an equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence reduces the space radiation environment to a laboratory electron environment for which solar cell degradation has been evaluated. When the damage equivalent fluence is known, the estimation of solar array degradation is almost completed. The next step in estimating array degradation is to make use of such variables as base resistivity and cell thickness in order to choose proper solar cell radiation data. The equivalent fluence then allows the estimation of solar cell output parameters through the use of such data in Figures 3.21 through 3.120.

The previously calculated equivalent fluence data for synchronous orbit will be used in the following example to illustrate the degradation of a solar array:

**Solar Cell**
- 10 ohm-cm resistivity
- 0.0305 cm (0.012 in.) thick conventional cell

**Cover Glass**
- 0.015 cm (0.006 in.) thick
- 0.0335 gm/cm$^2$
fused silica, antireflecting coating, blue filter

**Backshielding**
- Infinite

**Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence**
- Trapped Electrons: 3.14E13
- Trapped Protons: 0
- Total: 3.14E13 e/cm$^2$-yr.

**Solar Cell Output**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute</th>
<th>Relative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$I_{sc}$</td>
<td>34.70 mA/cm$^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{oc}$</td>
<td>0.543 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_{max}$</td>
<td>14.03 mW/cm$^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$V_{mp}$</td>
<td>0.4395 V</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The effects of cover glass transmission loss due to radiation darkening have been omitted from this estimate. The average absorbed dose due to trapped electrons in this orbit is approximately $10^7$ rad(SiO$_2$) per year. The data in Figure 3.20 indicate that such a dose would cause a transmission loss of about 0.5% reflected in solar cell $I_{sc}$ or $P_{max}$. The effects of solar flares on solar cell degradation as well as adhesive darkening due to ultraviolet illumination have been omitted from this calculation. An additional factor which also must be included is the reflection loss due to glassing of solar cells with silicon monoxide anti-reflection coatings. With conventional state of the art cover glasses and solar cells, glassing may cause a 2 to 6% initial decrease in short circuit current. As discussed in Chapter 1, cells with improved anti-reflection coatings exhibit significantly reduced glassing or reflection loss. Modern cells with Ta$_2$O$_5$ AR coatings commonly exhibit an increase in output of approximately 2% due to the mounting of the cover glass.
REFERENCES


REFERENCES (Continued)


CHAPTER 7

7.0 FLIGHT DATA

Considering the number of satellites in orbit, there is a very limited amount of currently usable solar cell radiation degradation data available. Satellite operations have tended to be concentrated in two relatively low level areas of the geomagnetically trapped radiation belts. The early satellites were placed in low altitude earth orbits (less than 400Km) where the levels of trapped radiation are very low. Subsequently, as satellite launch capabilities improved most satellites were placed in synchronous orbit, again avoiding the most intense radiation areas.

The flight data are of two types: (1) the data obtained directly from flight experiments specifically designed for the solar cell performance analyses, and (2) the solar array performance data from operational spacecraft. The experiments flown on ATS-17.1, ATS-57.2, 7.3 ATS-67.4, LES-67.5, 7.6 and NTS-17.7 satellites belong to the first category, while examples of the second type are analyses of the IDSCS arrays7.8 and Hughes Aircraft Company satellite arrays.7.10 It would be reasonable to expect that the data from a well designed solar cell experiment would be comprehensive and easy to analyze and correlate with laboratory experiments. However, even well designed experiments have had sufficient unexpected events to make correlation of flight/laboratory data difficult. The following sections discuss the factors affecting and also comment on the flight data analysis currently available.

- Radiation Environment

For the determination of the radiation environment, the following are required (a) spacecraft orbital parameters, including launch date and flight duration, (b) the solar panel and surrounding structural configuration, and (c) the most reliable radiation map representing radiation environment during the flight time span in question or data from on-board radiation spectrometers (see Section 5.2). Frequently, the information regarding the parking or transfer orbit and the flight duration were neglected in the published flight data. These initial phases of spacecraft flight
may be of importance to radiation damage if the trajectory traverses the intense part of the Van Allen Belt for a prolonged period. Launch data and flight duration are also needed to determine a possible occurrence of a solar flare proton event during the flight under consideration (see Section 5.4).

The most vital part of the environment determination lies in the selection of a reliable radiation map. Vette and his colleagues are periodically updating the model environments (see references in Chapter 6), which are considered to be the most authoritative. Yet the models themselves include a factor of two intensity uncertainty, not to mention spectral and temporal variations (from solar activity, solar cycle, local time and such). The value of equivalent fluence depends entirely on the radiation model on which the calculation is based, and a factor of ten difference in the resultant equivalent fluence is not uncommon because of the choice of environment. In this respect, the geomagnetically trapped proton model last published in 1970 and used in compiling tables in Chapter 6 in the Handbook may no longer be a suitable candidate for the flight data of today.

In comparison with the uncertainties in the radiation environment, the solar panel or surrounding structure geometry is of lesser importance. However, these factors must be considered since variations in solar panel substrates, and structure shielding can significantly affect the equivalent fluence. Deficiencies in solar cell coverslide assembly techniques, such as those discussed in Section 3.7, can lead to unexpected degradation because of the change in radiation environment which is not accounted for in the fluence calculation. In addition, if the sides of the solar cells are not properly protected, especially for the case when a thin substrate is used and the back radiation becomes substantial, the phenomena similar to those discussed in Section 3.7 can occur.

An example of an unexpected result was the more than predicted degradation of float zone cells in the space environment. This phenomenon called "photon degradation" explained by Crabb.
(section 3.8) was circumvented by using crucible-grown cells instead of float zone cells.

Parameter Measurement Conditions

The accurate evaluation of cell flight performance data requires not only the cell output parameters but also such factors as; (a) solar cell temperature, (b) sun angle, (c) earth position in terms of seasonal solar irradiance, (d) structural shadowing of the array, (e) identification of "bad" cells, etc. A "shadowed" cell or "bad" cell in a string will become a load instead of a current generator. The spacecraft measurement and telemetry system must be capable of providing the above listed data. In addition, the telemetry resolution and sampling are of importance since sun angle, cell temperature, and shadow problems are usually time dependent.

Most published flight data were said to be corrected for the solar cell temperature and sun angle. However, irregularities in the reduced data lead one to suspect that these measurement conditions were improperly reported.

Lack of Solar Cell Descriptions and the Pertinent Experimental Data

Many published flight data lack detailed solar cell description. The lack of information on the cell manufacturer, for example, may make a substantial difference in the predicted values of solar cell parameters, even for cells with the same physical parameters. The base resistivity and cell thickness influence the output parameter degradation, and the decay rate should be known for an accurate correction.

7.1 Flight Data at Synchronous Orbit

Early Flight Data at Synchronous Orbit

The data in Table 7.1, relating to solar array performance in synchronous orbit, were collected by L. A. Gibson of the Aerospace Corporation. All the solar cells used in these satellites have
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TACSAT I</th>
<th>DSP</th>
<th>IDSCS</th>
<th>NATO A/NATO B</th>
<th>INTELSAT 3</th>
<th>INTELSAT 4</th>
<th>ATS-5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contractor</td>
<td>HAC</td>
<td>TRW</td>
<td>Philco-Ford</td>
<td>TRW</td>
<td>HAC</td>
<td>HAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Launch</td>
<td>9 Feb 69</td>
<td>6 Nov 70</td>
<td>16 Jun 66</td>
<td>A: 21 Nov 69</td>
<td>3B: 18 Dec 68</td>
<td>~Feb 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Configuration</td>
<td>Drum</td>
<td>Drum &amp; Paddles</td>
<td>24-sided Polygon</td>
<td>Drum</td>
<td>Drum</td>
<td>Drum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design Life, yrs.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coverslide Thickness, mils</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coverslide Material</td>
<td>Fused Silica</td>
<td>Micro-sheet</td>
<td>Fused Silica</td>
<td>Fused Silica</td>
<td>Fused Silica</td>
<td>Fused Silica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Cell Resistivity, ohm-cm</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Cell Array:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time, years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power Degradation, %</td>
<td>~76</td>
<td>~5</td>
<td>~17-22</td>
<td>~4</td>
<td>~2</td>
<td>~6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10 ohm-cm base resistivity and cover glass shielding varying from 0.015 cm (0.006 in) microsheet to 0.076 cm (0.030 in) fused silica. No information was reported regarding cell thickness or backshielding. The reported degradation in power in most cases is between 2 to 6 percent after one year. The power loss estimated in Section 6.5 on the basis of trapped electrons alone was 3 percent per year for cells with 0.015 cm microsheet shielding. However, this percentage loss does not include 2 to 6 percent initial loss due to glassing and a smaller loss due to glass and adhesive darkening. In addition, the percentage degradation is estimated from the data in Chapter 3 for currently available commercial cells, not those flown almost a decade ago. Considering the above facts, together with the omission of equivalent fluence contributed by solar flare protons, agreement between satellite performance and the predictions is reasonably good.

The omission of solar flare equivalent fluence contributions appears justified in these cases, as flare activity was relatively low during the time period of the reported flight data. It was reported that the poor performance of IDSCS satellite solar arrays was attributable to excessive ultraviolet transmission loss in the cover glass adhesive due to the use of an improper primer.

Although degradations due to solar flares are often estimated and projected over long satellite missions, the flare events are discrete and their effects occur as rather abrupt degradations. An excellent example of this behavior is shown in Figure 7.1 for two satellites in synchronous orbits during the flare events of August 1972 (also see Figure 7.4). The analysis was provided by H. Riess of TRW. The solid line in Figure 7.1 is based on solar cell degradation predictions based on trapped electrons at synchronous altitude. The data indicate that the flares produced an abrupt 2% loss in maximum array current (i.e., short circuit current) in both satellites. It also can be observed that 5 months after the flare, the flight 3 array current had recovered to within nearly 1 percent of the value predicted without solar flares. This indicates that considerable annealing of flare radiation damage occurs after termination of the event.
Figure 7.1 Performance of Two Satellite Solar Arrays in Synchronous Orbit During the August 1972 Solar Flares
The sixth Lincoln Laboratory Experimental Satellite (LES-6) was launched into a synchronous orbit on 26 September 1968.

Although I-V characteristics were measured periodically through 1975 for 30 experimental cells, the outputs of only a few types of cells are correlated with the equivalent fluence calculation because of the lack of experimental data.

The radiation environment for LES-6 consists of trapped electrons in the Van Allen Belt at synchronous altitude and of free-space solar flare protons during 1970 and 1972. For a properly fabricated glassed cell, low-energy trapped protons are no threat to the cell and so are not considered in this discussion. Solar flare proton fluences for energies greater than 10 MeV are shown in Table 7.2. Equivalent 1 MeV electron fluences attributable to solar flare protons and trapped electrons are plotted in Figure 7.2 for various cover-glass thicknesses. The equivalent 1 MeV electron fluences for 1 mil and 6 mil coverglass thicknesses are tabulated in Table 7.3 at 1400 days after launch, after the August 1972 solar flare proton event and 6-1/2 years after launch. Percentage degradation of maximum power and short circuit current are estimated for 10 ohm-cm n/p cells and are shown in Table 7.4, assuming the cells are comparable to conventional 12 mil thick cells.

The following is an extract of flight data analyses quoted in Reference 7.12 in summary.

- Penetrating radiation damage to solar cells was above 3.5% per year for the first three years, plus 1.75% per year for the next three years, plus an additional 4% to 10% initial degradation of

---

*The cutoff energy at synchronous altitude seems to be somewhere around 5 MeV according to an early ATS observation, contrary to the previous belief of the theoretical cutoff energy of approximately 26 MeV. Therefore, no cutoff energy resulting from geomagnetic shielding was assumed for the equivalent fluence calculation. This approximation leads to no appreciable error if the cutoff from cover-glass thickness is somewhere around 5 MeV or greater.
Table 7.2 Solar Flare Proton Fluence for Energy Greater Than 10 MeV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>PROTONS/cm²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 July to 25 July, 1970</td>
<td>8.1 x 10⁷</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Aug to 17 Aug, 1970</td>
<td>2.6 x 10⁸</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Aug to 9 Aug, 1972</td>
<td>2.3 x 10¹⁰</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 Sept, 1968 to 1 Aug, 1972</td>
<td>4.3 x 10⁹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.3 Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cover Glass Thickness</th>
<th>0.0254 mm (1 mil)</th>
<th>0.152 mm (6 mils)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/Event</td>
<td>Accum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Electrons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400 days (3.83 yrs)</td>
<td>2.07 E14</td>
<td>1.19 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug 1972 Solar Flare</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pmax and Voc</td>
<td>1.5 E14</td>
<td>3.6 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isc</td>
<td>7.3 E13</td>
<td>2.8 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Electrons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 days (2.74 yrs)</td>
<td>1.48 E14</td>
<td>5.1 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Aug 1972</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pmax and Voc</td>
<td>1.48 E14</td>
<td>4.3 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isc</td>
<td>1.48 E14</td>
<td>4.3 E14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7.2 Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for Various Cover Glass Thicknesses Due to Geomagnetically Trapped Electrons at Synchronous Orbit and August 1972 Solar Flare Protons

1. DUE TO TRAPPED ELECTRONS AE4 + AE5 (REF. 7.13)
2. DUE TO TRAPPED ELECTRONS AE3 (θ/θ₀ = 1, L = 6.6 Rₑ) (REF. 7.14)
(A) Attributable to Solar Cell Radiation Damage Only.
(B) Include (1.5% ~ 2.0%)/Year Cover Glass Transmission Loss.
(C) Analyzed Flight Data (Approximate Readings From Figure in Reference 7.6, See Figure 7.3).

Table 7.4. Predicted Percentage Degradation of LES-6 Cells,
Using Data for Heliotek 10 Ohm-cm 12 Mil Cells.
Figure 7.3 Analyzed Flight Data

LES-6 n/p 10 Ohm-cm Silicon Solar Cells
coverslide darkening. These initial degradation estimates are based not only on these experiments, but also on investigations into ultraviolet and synergistic environmental effects on coverslides according to Reference 7.15.

- Solar flare activity decreased the power output of relatively undamaged 10 ohm-cm cells with 0.15 mm thick covers by 0.85% per $10^{10}$ protons/cm$^2$; power output of similar cells with 0.025 mm thick covers were decreased by 1.4% per $10^{10}$ protons/cm$^2$. Presence or absence of small, uncovered, active area strips had no noticeable effect on the degradation occurring from a solar flare.

- An abrupt drop in the cell output occurred after the August 1972 solar flare event. The predictions are in good agreement with the observations.

- It is important to shield the solar cell edges from low energy protons. Approximately half the cells were shielded with a 4 mil BeCu "picture frame" which protected the cell edges and the contact bar area. The other half had no edge protection. These demonstrated that 8-12% initial degradation can occur from low energy protons if adequate cell edge protection is not provided.

- **ATS-5** 7.2, 7.3

Solar cell radiation experiments, consisting of several types of solar cell/coverslide combinations representing 1968 technology, were mounted on ATS-5 and launched into synchronous orbit in August 1969.

The solar cells were 2 and 10 ohm-cm crucible-grown silicon with thicknesses of 0.2 and 0.3 mm. Coverslides were 7940 fused silica, ranging in thickness from 0.15 mm to 1.52 mm. The cells were mounted on two panels, one a rigid aluminum honeycomb structure giving essentially infinite backshielding, and the other a thin Kapton-fiberglass substrate offering minimal protection to the rear surfaces of the cells.

7-12
Cell electrical output was corrected to standard temperature and solar intensity using experimentally derived, radiation-dependent correction factors. The corrected maximum power of n/p 10 ohm-cm cell is shown for over 6-1/2 years of experimental operation in Figure 7.4.

Some pertinent observations and conclusions drawn from this experiment are:

- The degradation of solar cells mounted on the rigid panel with protected rear surfaces is as predicted using the equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence calculated in Chapter 6. \( V_{oc} \) degradation is somewhat less than predicted, but \( I_{sc} \) and \( P_{max} \) degradation is more than predicted.

- The cells on the flexible panel degrade much more rapidly than predicted, while the rigid panel cells follow the predictions fairly well. Possible causes for the excessive cell degradation on the flexible panels include; deposition of a contaminant on the cell coverslides, or low energy protons entering from the edges of the cells or from the back through the Kapton fiberglass substrate.

- An abrupt change in all outputs was observed after the August 1972 solar flare proton event. The equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence for this proton event shown in Figure 7.2 was used to construct the predicted curve in Figure 7.4. The prediction is within the observation error.

- As in the case of LES-6, the solar cell degradation seemed to accelerate more than predicted as the time progressed. This may be due to (1) a slight rise in cell temperature (averaging approximately 1°C per year), or (2) fluence dependent degradation that may be commanding. If the latter is the case, the output will degrade faster than that predicted by the first order degradation estimate technique described in Chapter 4, as demonstrated in Reference 7.16.
Figure 7.4 Degradation of Solar Cell Maximum Power Versus Time in Synchronous Orbit, ATS-5 Experimental Cells 7.2, 7.3

AVERAGE OF 5 N/P 10-ohm-cm
2 cm x 2 cm 0.30 mm THICK CELLS WITH 0.30 mm COVERSILDE GAP

PREDICTED POWER DEGRADATION
- RIGID PANEL
+ FLEXIBLE PANEL
\[95\%\] CONFIDENCE LIMIT

August, 1972 Solar Proton Event
ATS-6

The ATS-6 solar cell experiment, with the 13 different types of solar cell/coverslide combinations, was launched into synchronous orbit on 30 May 1974. A few comments are made on the data presented in Reference 7.4.

Soon after orbit insertion, the output of all of the cell configurations on the rigid panel was greater than when measured under the pulsed Xenon solar simulator, attributing to an electronic offset of the signal processor units. The lack of correlation between simulator response and flight data may very well be due to improper calibration including spectral content of the Xenon simulator.

The temperature of the rigid solar panel ranged from 56°C to 91°C, with outputs reportedly corrected for both temperature and sun angle. However, data inconsistencies prohibit drawing clearcut conclusions. The inconsistency may be attributable to the temperature gradient within the cell itself, inaccurate laboratory temperature correction data, or inaccurate cell temperature measurement and sun angle on the flight experiment.

Despite of incomplete flight data and cell specifications, the attempt was made to correlate the prediction with the flight data as shown in Table 7.5. It is assumed that all the cells are conventional. Approximately one third of the predicted values agrees with observed values.

7.2 Flight Data at Other Than Synchronous Orbits

NTS-1 (Timation III)

The NTS-1 satellite was launched on 14 July 1974 into a nearly circular orbit having a perigee of 12,193 km, an apogee of 13,606 km (average of about 7000 n mi), and an inclination of 125.1°. The orbital radiation environment is severe. A solar cell flight experiment aboard carriers conventional silicon Centralab and Heliotek cells, and Centralab lithium-doped, Comsat violet, and Ferranti float-zone solar cells. Solar cell covers include Corning 7940
Table 7.5 Percentage Degradation of Predicted and Observed
ATS-6 Solar Cell Experiment Output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESISTIVITY (Ohm-cm)</th>
<th>CELL THICKNESS (cm)</th>
<th>COVERAGE THICKNESS (cm)</th>
<th>AVERAGE PERCENTAGE LOSS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50 DAYS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$I_{sc}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PREDICTED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.0076</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
fused silica, Pilkington-Perkin Elmer ceria-doped microsheet, and Corning 7070 integral coverglasses. Solar cells are connected into modules consisting mostly of strings of 5, 23, 47 or 48 cells in series. Therefore, the resulting data tends to be dominated by the lowest output or most severely degrading cell in each string.

Possible radiation environments at an altitude of 7,000 n mi and an inclination of 30° have a spread of more than an order of magnitude and are as shown in Figure 7.5. The equivalent fluences for 6 mil and 12 mil coverglass thicknesses are calculated for three chosen environments and are shown in Table 7.6 for $I_{sc}$ and $P_{max}$. The resulting maximum power degradation predicted by the equivalent fluence due to solar cell radiation damage only is shown in Table 7.7, according to the classification of different cell parameters and manufactures. These degradation predictions are compared with the flight data analyzed. Assumptions for incomplete cell specification are also indicated. Within the error bound of environmental uncertainties, the predictions agree with the flight data very well.

**Low Altitude Circular Orbits**

A limited amount of flight data are also available from satellite solar arrays operated in circular orbits at lower altitudes. Data from several such satellites are tabulated in Table 7.8. The equivalent fluence is obtained from approximate tables in Chapter 6 by interpolating both altitude and thicknesses. For microsheet cover glass, only a density correction is made on fused silica ($SiO_2$) cover glass data. For 0604, the equivalent fluence for 90° inclination is used instead of the actual inclination of 86°. Both electron and proton contributions are shown in Table 7.8. In these altitude and inclinations, the equivalent fluence is mainly contributed by protons. The assumptions made are (1) infinite back shielding exists, and (2) cover material darkening losses are negligible. The equivalent fluence values are used to estimate solar cell parameter changes from old radiation data. The predicted
Figure 7.5 Geomagnetically Trapped Electron Environment Circular Orbit, 13000 km (7000 n mi), 30 Degree Inclination
Table 7.6 Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence for NTS-1
Based on the Environments Shown in Figure 7.5

- Annual Equivalent
  1 MeV Electron Fluence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>0.152 mm (6 mils)</th>
<th>0.305 mm (12 mils)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Electrons</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.84 E13</td>
<td>3.84 E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>4.84 E13</td>
<td>3.84 E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>2.68 E14</td>
<td>2.11 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>7.27 E12</td>
<td>5.61 E12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trapped Protons</td>
<td>I_sc</td>
<td>1.9 E14</td>
<td>3.0 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P_max</td>
<td>4.7 E14</td>
<td>7.5 E13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 261 days (.71 yrs) Equivalent 1 MeV Electron Fluence,
  Contributed by Both Trapped Electrons and Protons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>0.152 mm (6 mils)</th>
<th>0.305 mm (12 mils)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I_sc</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>1.7 E14</td>
<td>4.9 E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>3.3 E14</td>
<td>1.7 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>1.4 E14</td>
<td>2.5 E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P_max</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>3.7 E14</td>
<td>7.8 E13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>5.2 E14</td>
<td>2.1 E14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>3.4 E14</td>
<td>5.8 E13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.7 Predicted Percentage Degradation of NTS-I Maximum Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manufacturer</th>
<th>Cell Type</th>
<th>$\rho$ (1) ohm-cm</th>
<th>$t_c$ (2) mm (mils)</th>
<th>$t_r$ (3) mm (mils)</th>
<th>Percent Degradation of $P_{\text{max}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Lab</td>
<td>Conventional (?)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.1 (4)</td>
<td>0.15 (6)</td>
<td>18.7 no data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Lab</td>
<td>Violet</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>0.3 (12)</td>
<td>0.15 (6)</td>
<td>15.3 15.1-18.1 Base resistivity = 10 ohm-cm. Cell characteristics similar to Spectrolab cells.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Lab</td>
<td>Violet</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>0.3 (12)</td>
<td>0.15 (6)</td>
<td>15.1 15.1-18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Lab</td>
<td>Conventional (?)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.3 (12)</td>
<td>0.30 (12)</td>
<td>20.5 9.4-18.5 Spectrolab conventional cell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spectrolab</td>
<td>Ielios</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.3 (12)</td>
<td>0.30 (12)</td>
<td>15.0 11.5-19.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Base resistivity  
(2) Cell thickness  
(3) Cover glass thickness  
(A) Analyzed flight data in reference 7.7  
(B) Predictions based on equivalent 1 MeV electron fluence shown in Table 7.6 (Solar cell degradation only)
### Table 7.8 Solar Cell Array Degradation, Various Circular Orbits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satellite Launch Date</th>
<th>Orbit Altitude, Inclination</th>
<th>Cells &amp; Shielding Data</th>
<th>Equivalent 1MeV Electron Fluence (Assuming trapped radiation only &amp; infinite back shielding)</th>
<th>Predicted (from equivalent fluence)</th>
<th>Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| DGO4                  | 930 km (500 nmi) 86°        | N/P 10 ohm-cm 0.015 cm microsheet | P: \(3.7 \times 10^{13}\) e/cm²-yr  
E: \(1.1 \times 10^{12}\) e/cm²-yr  
Total: \(3.8 \times 10^{13}\) e/cm²-yr | \(\frac{I_{sc}}{I_{sco}} = 0.96 \oplus 1\) yr | 0.96 \oplus 1\ yr |
| 28 July 1967          |                             |                        |                                                                                                 |                                   |          |
| 1963-38C              | 1110 km (600 nmi) 90°       | N/P 10 ohm-cm 0.015 cm microsheet | P: \(7.9 \times 10^{13}\) e/cm²-yr  
E: \(2.8 \times 10^{12}\) e/cm²-yr  
Total: \(8.2 \times 10^{13}\) e/cm²-yr | \(\frac{I_{sc}}{I_{sco}} = 0.96 \oplus 6\) mo. | 0.95 \oplus 6\ mo. |
| 28 Sept 1963          |                             |                        |                                                                                                 |                                   |          |
| ERS, 6                | 4170 km (2250 nmi) 90°      | N/P 1 ohm-cm 0.051 cm fused silica | P: \(2.3 \times 10^{15}\) e/cm²-yr  
E: \(9.4 \times 10^{12}\) e/cm²-yr  
Total: \(2.3 \times 10^{15}\) e/cm²-yr | \(\frac{I_{sc}}{I_{sco}} = 0.79 \oplus 6\) mo.  
\(\frac{P_{max}}{P_{maxo}} = 0.67 \oplus 6\) mo. | 0.70 \oplus 6\ mo. |
| 9 May 1963            |                             |                        |                                                                                                 |                                   |          |
| Explorer 38 (RAE 1)   | 6700 km (3600 nmi) 60°      | N/P 10 ohm-cm 0.0473 cm solar cells 0.102 cm fused silica | P: \(4.2 \times 10^{14}\) e/cm²-yr  
E: \(3.5 \times 10^{12}\) e/cm²-yr  
Total: \(4.2 \times 10^{14}\) e/cm²-yr | \(\frac{P_{max}}{P_{maxo}} = 0.77 \oplus 1\) yr  
\(\frac{P_{max}}{P_{maxo}} = 0.725 \oplus 2\) yr | 0.72 \oplus 1\ yr  
0.65 \oplus 2\ yr |
| 4 July 1968           |                             |                        |                                                                                                 |                                   |          |

P: Proton contribution.  
E: Electron contribution.
changes are shown in Table 7.8 along with observed parameter changes from flight data. The predicted degradations are in reasonable agreement with observed values.

The results of experiments on ERS 6 included several observations which have important consequences in array degradation predictions. The cells of this satellite were observed to degrade in short circuit current at a rate of $5.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ mA/cm}^2$-decade. This value compares well with those reported in Section 3.3 for laboratory proton irradiations in the 10 MeV energy range. Since the above rates are higher than those normally found for 1 MeV electron irradiations, it would be more accurate to use experimental proton degradation data for proton dominated orbits if such data were available. It was also observed that cells with adhesively-attached cover glass shields degraded at the same rate as those with mechanically-attached (no adhesive) shielding. It was concluded that adhesive darkening effects were less than the experimental error or negligible. The data also indicated that transmission loss in cover glass is not an important factor in array degradation.
REFERENCES


7.11 H. Riess, private communication.


77-56

REFERENCES (Continued)


7.17 B. E. Anspaugh, private communication.


7.23 H. Burke, private communication.

### APPENDIX A

**SHIELDING THICKNESS CONVERSIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areal Density g/cm²</th>
<th>Fused Silica 2.2 g/cm³</th>
<th>Microsheet 2.5 g/cm³</th>
<th>Aluminum 2.7 g/cm³</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cm</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>cm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0168</td>
<td>0.00762</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.00671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0335</td>
<td>0.01524</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.0134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0671</td>
<td>0.0305</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.0268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.0508</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>0.0447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>0.0762</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.0671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.1524</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.1341</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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APPENDIX B
CONSTANTS, PROPERTIES AND VALUES

SILICON

Atomic Weight 28.09
Density 2.33 (g/cm³)
Crystal Structure Diamond, 8 atoms/unit cell
Lattice Constant 5.43 x 10⁻¹⁰ m, 5.43 (Å)
Atomic Radius 1.18 x 10⁻¹⁰ m, 1.18 (Å)
Atomic Density 5.00 x 10²² (cm⁻³)
Energy Gap @ 300K 1.78 x 10⁻¹⁹ (J), 1.11 (eV)
Energy Gap @ 0 K 1.91 x 10⁻¹⁹ (J), 1.21 (eV)
Electron Mobility (intrinsic) @ 300K, μn 1350 (cm²/V s)
Hole Mobility (intrinsic) @ 300K, μp 480 (cm²/V s)
Electron Diffusion Constant (intrinsic) @ 300K, Dn 35 (cm²/s)
Hole Diffusion Constant (intrinsic) @ 300K, Dp 12 (cm²/s)
n_i @ 300K 1.5 x 10¹⁰ (cm⁻³)
Dielectric Constant 11.7
Specific Heat, C_p @ 300K 0.7 (J/g K)
Thermal Conductivity @ 300K 1.5 (W/cm K)
Coefficient of Thermal Expansion, \( \frac{\Delta L}{L \Delta T} \) 2.5 x 10⁻⁶ (K⁻¹)
Debye Temperature 658 (K)
Activation Energy, Self Diffusion 7.7 x 10⁻¹⁹ (J), 4.8 (eV)
Energy of Ionization 5.76 x 10⁻¹⁹ (J), 3.6 (eV)
Energy of Sublimation 7.80 x 10⁻¹⁹ (J), 4.9 (eV)
Elastic Moduli

\begin{align*}
C_{11} & = 1.674 \times 10^{11} (N/m²) \\
C_{12} & = 0.652 \times 10^{11} (N/m²) \\
C_{44} & = 0.796 \times 10^{11} (N/m²)
\end{align*}

Index of Refraction 3.5-6.0 (See Figures B-1 and B-2)
Absorption Coefficient 1-10⁵ (cm⁻¹) (See Figure B-3)
Mohs' Hardness 7
Figure B-1  Refractive Index of Silicon^B-1, B-2

Figure B-2  Extinction Coefficient of Silicon^B-1, B-2
Figure B-3 Absorption Coefficient of Single Crystal Silicon at 77 K and 300 K

ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY
APPENDIX B (Continued)

SILICON (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Solar Absorptance</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemispherical Emittance</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUARTZ GLASS (FUSED SILICA)

<table>
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<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Molecular Weight</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>2.2 (g/cm³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Gap</td>
<td>12.8x10⁻¹⁹ (J), ~8 (eV)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dielectric Constant</td>
<td>3.5-3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Refraction</td>
<td>1.46-1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Heat, C_p</td>
<td>1 (J/g K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal Conductivity</td>
<td>0.014 (W/cm K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Thermal Expansion, ΔL/ΔT</td>
<td>0.55x10⁻⁶ (K⁻¹)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohs' Hardness</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young's Modulus</td>
<td>7.16x10¹⁰ (N/m²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rigidity Modulus</td>
<td>3.10x10¹⁰ (N/m²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poisson's Ratio</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Absorptance</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemispherical Emittance</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar Absorptance (on array)</td>
<td>0.75-0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemispherical Emittance (on array)</td>
<td>0.78-0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SILICONE ELASTOMERS (TYPICAL)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>1.1 (g/cm³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Refraction</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient of Thermal Expansion, ΔL/ΔT</td>
<td>300x10⁻⁶ (K⁻¹)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermal Conductivity @ 300K</td>
<td>.0017 (W/cm K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Heat @ 300K</td>
<td>1.0 (J/g K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bond Thickness Between Cover Glass and Solar Cell</td>
<td>75-150 (µm)</td>
</tr>
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</table>
APPENDIX B (Continued)

SOME USEFUL PHYSICAL CONSTANTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boltzmann's Constant, ( k )</td>
<td>1.38\times10^{-23} (J/K), 8.62\times10^{-5} (eV/K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planck's Constant, ( h )</td>
<td>6.63\times10^{-34} (J s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed of Light, ( c )</td>
<td>2.998\times10^8 (m/s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electron Charge, ( e )</td>
<td>1.602\times10^{-19} (C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permittivity of Free Space, ( \varepsilon )</td>
<td>8.86\times10^{-12} (F/m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permeability of Free Space, ( \mu )</td>
<td>12.6\times10^{-7} (H/m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electron Rest Mass, ( m_e )</td>
<td>9.11\times10^{-31} (kg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proton Rest Mass, ( m_p )</td>
<td>1.67\times10^{-27} (kg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avagadro's Number</td>
<td>6.022\times10^{23} (g mole^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photon Energy</td>
<td>( E(eV) = 1.23978/\lambda(\mu m) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( q/kT = 0.025 ) V at 300 K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SILICON SOLAR CELL DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active Area of 2 cm by 2 cm Solar Cell</td>
<td>3.8 (cm^{-2})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Series Resistance, ( R_s )</td>
<td>0.2-0.5 (ohm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shunt Resistance, ( R_{sh} )</td>
<td>&gt; 1000 (ohm)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References:


APPENDIX C
SOLAR CELL TYPES

The following are extracts from reference C-1:

The only solar cell type currently in use for space applications is of planar geometry and is made from single-crystal silicon.

Classification of Solar Cells

Solar cells may be classified into different device families and cell types according to certain technological characteristics or according to some practical aspects. Technological classification is usually related to peculiar solar cell designs, materials and fabrication processes as follows:

- General design features
- Semiconductor material
- Semiconductor material properties
- Base (bulk) resistivity
- Cell polarity
- Drift fields
- Junction depth (spectral response)
- Front surface preparation
- Antireflective coating.

Each of these families of devices may, with small variations of certain process steps, yield solar cells that can be further classified according to the following characteristics:

- Efficiency (power output)
- Size
- Thickness
- Contact type and configuration
- Number of gridlines of front contact (series resistance)
- Contact metals
- Contact metal coatings.
Classification of solar cells according to practical aspects is often related to usage or to certain aspects relating to their development. Typical classes of cells (all are of n-on-p polarity) are as follows, listed in order of increasing power output:

- **Conventional Solar Cells**

  Also called "standard" or "vanilla" solar cells. These cells utilize pre-1972 fabrication technology and are characterized by the following:

  **Starting Material:** Crucible-grown p-type silicon, either nominal 2 ohm·cm (range 1-3 ohm·cm) or nominal 10 ohm·cm (ranges 6-15, 6-14, 7-14 or 7-15 ohm·cm).

  **Junction Depth:** Held between 0.3 and 0.5 µm which corresponds to a sheet resistance of between 35 and 55 ohms per square.

  **Contact Configuration:** Ohmic collector bar between 0.9 and 1.25 mm in width, three gridlines/cm, lines are 0.15 to 0.20 mm in width.

  **Antireflection Coating:** Always silicon monoxide (SiO_x).

  **Cell Thickness:** Ranges from 0.20 mm nominal to 0.35 mm nominal, usually ±0.05 mm.

  **Cover:** Cut-on filter typically around or above 400 nm.

  These cells have been produced for space programs in great quantities from 1964 on and are neither "standardized" in design or performance, nor are they related to "standard solar cells" in conjunction with the calibration of the solar light intensity.

- **Hybrid Solar Cells**

  These cells are also known as intermediate, shallow junction, blue, violet, KG-A (Hughes Aircraft Designation), high efficiency, or Comsat cells. However,
there is some controversy over whether or not the Comsat cell has a back surface field. A subdivision into Hybrid A and Hybrid B cells is based on power output only. Hybrid cells do not contain electrostatic fields of the type which characterizes "field" cells described below.

- **Field Cells**
  These cells are also known as $p^+$, BSF (back surface field), Helios (Spectrolab designation), or K6-B (Hughes Aircraft designation) cells. These cells are of the drift field type. The electrostatic drift field is built into the base region immediately adjacent to the back contact.

- **Black Solar Cells**
  These cells are also known as CNR (Comsat non-reflecting), "velvet" texturized (NASA-Lewis designation), textured, sculptured (Hughes Aircraft designation), or nonreflecting cells.

  These cells comprise the newest family of high-efficiency solar cells that is characterized by a "rough" front surface in contrast to all other solar cells, which have a "smooth" (flat) or polished front surface. The rough front surface is produced by an etching process that produces small "pyramids". This pyramidal, "sculptured," or "textured" surface exhibits a low reflectance, i.e., it "looks black."

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APPENDIX D

COMPUTER PROGRAM, EQFRUX

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

This program will compute an equivalent fluence for a given space radiation environment for the purpose of estimating solar cell degradation. Geomagnetically trapped electron energy spectrum, or proton energy spectrum, or both, can be input as the space radiation environment. With a proper choice of input parameter, a free space solar flare proton spectrum will be calculated with the use of a computer code developed by Stassinopoulos, D-1 (named SOLPRO) based on King's solar proton model, D-2 for the years of 1977 through 1983.

The equivalent fluence for a given parameter $p$, as detailed in Section 6.1, is defined as follows:

$$
\phi_{equ}^k(p,t) = \sum_j D_{kj} \left\{ \sum_i D_j(p,E_i,t) \left[ \phi_j(E_i) - \phi_j(E_{i+1}) \right] \right\} \tau
$$

where

- $\phi_{equ}^k(p,t)$: Equivalent fluence of solar cell output parameter $p$, normalized to kth particle in the presence of cover glass thickness $t$.
- $\phi_j(E_i)$: Integral flux of jth radiation particle at energy $E_i$.
- $D_j(p,E_i,t)$: Relative damage coefficient (RDC) for solar cell output parameter $p$ under radiation particle $j$ at energy $E_i$ in the presence of cover glass thickness $t$.
- $D_{kj}$: Radiation damage ratio between jth particle and normalized kth particle by which both particle and energy are normalized (conventionally 1 MeV electrons).
- $\tau$: Conversion factor for annual fluence. If the integral spectrum is in units of fluence per day, for example, $\tau = 365.2422$. 

D-1
The space radiation environments should be in a form of integral energy spectrum of either electrons, protons or both. The required relative damage coefficients (RDC) for the fluence calculation are provided in BLOCK DATA. The short circuit current RDC's are provided for both electron and proton environments and the open circuit voltage RDC's for the proton environment. The RDC's are evaluated for omnidirectional flux and infinite back shielding.

Basically, all that is needed to run this program is (1) the alphanumeric input to identify the problem (or case run), and (2) either electron, proton or both energy spectra as the radiation environment input in the namelist format, or proper input to determine the solar proton environment from the subroutine built in the program. In all cases, the equivalent fluence calculation follows.

A time unit of integral flux can be changed as necessary with a proper choice of conversion factor in order to obtain a desired exposure time. For interpolation of both RDC and integral flux, the energy entry of RDC data can be divided into any arbitrary number of points, NSTEP, for accuracy. An NSTEP of 2 to 4 is likely to produce an optimum result. Interpolation scheme is linear on a chosen scale, i.e., if the RDC data are plotted on a log-log scale, the interpolation is linear on this log-log scale, thus the RDC is expressed fragmentally in terms of power of energy. Integration limit of equation (D-1) can be controlled by a flag INTFLG.

When INTFLG = 0, the integration proceeds over all energies for which the RDC's are available, and the input spectra may be extrapolated if necessary. When INTFLG = 1, the integration extends only over the input energy range, thus is equivalent to a cutoff RDC at the lowest energy value of the input and an energy cutoff at the highest input value.

Input energy spectra are specified by variable names ESPEC for trapped electrons and PSPEC for trapped protons. The number of input data are indicated by NESPEC and NPSPEC, respectively, and are zero for no calculation. If NPSPEC = 1, a solar flare proton spectrum will be calculated from the subroutine named SOLPRO with two required inputs: (a) mission duration and (b) probabilistic confidence level. Note that the mission duration cannot be greater than 72 months and the confidence limit cannot be less than 80 percent. The damage ratio between 10 MeV protons
and 1 MeV electrons for a given solar cell output parameter can also be altered with the use of PEDRI and PEDRV. Desired cover glass thicknesses can be only those specified in THICK in data and can be input in T in ascending order of thicknesses. Print flag, PCKE and PCKP, are also provided to check the detailed intermediate calculations.

**Input Variables**

**HEADER**
Alphanumeric 80 character description which prints as the first line of each output page for case of run identification.

**Namelist Variables**

**NESPEC**
Number of input points (maximum of 50) for omnidirectional electron energy spectrum. No electron energy spectrum may be input if subroutine SOLPRO is used. If NESPEC = 0 is used, no equivalent fluence calculations for trapped electrons are performed.

**NF3PEC**
Number of input points (maximum of 50) for omnidirectional proton energy spectrum. If NPSPEC = 1, solar flare proton flux is calculated from subroutine SOLPRO and subsequently the corresponding equivalent fluence. If SOLPRO is used, inputs TAU and IQ are required, otherwise they are disregarded. No electron spectra may be input if subroutine SOLPRO is being used to calculate solar flare proton fluences.

**ESPEC**
Integral energy spectrum of space electron environment. I ranges from one to NESPEC.

**PSPEC**
Integral energy spectrum of space proton environment. I ranges from one to NPSPEC.

**NT**
Number of cover glass thicknesses input (maximum 8). Default value = 1 (cover glass thickness = 0).

**T**
Vector of cover glass thicknesses for which equivalent fluence is calculated. Input must exactly match values in vector "thick".

**NSTEP**
Number of points between energy entries of relative damage coefficients for interpolation (default value = 2).

**TIMIN**
12 character Hollerith string which describes time interval represented by input spectra. For example if input spectra represent fluences per day

TIMIN = 12HDAY

If input spectra represent fluences per second

TIMIN = 12HSECOND
Namelist Variables (Cont.)

**TMULT**  Number of "TIMIN" units for which equivalent fluence is to be computed. For example if input spectra represent fluence per hour and equivalent fluence is to be computed for 24 hours TMULT = 24. (TMULT should be input such that TMULT = TIMOUT/TIMIN)

**TIMOUT**  12 character Hollerith string which describes total time of exposure and is the product of "TIMIN" units and TMULT. For example if TIMIN = "1 day" and TMULT = 365.2422 TIMOUT = 12H1 Year
   If TIMIN = "1 Month" and mission duration is 34.2 months TIMOUT = 12H34.2 MONTHS
   or TIMOUT = 12H1 MISSION
   Default values are: TIMOUT = 12H1 YEAR, TMULT = 365.2422
   TIMIN = 12HDAY

**PEDRI**  Damage ratio between protons and electrons for $I_{sc}$. (Default value = 3000).

**PEDRV**  Damage ratio between protons and electrons for $V_{oc}$ (Default value = 3000).

**TAU**  Mission duration in months (used by subroutine SOLPRO).

**IQ**  Confidence level that determines solar flare proton flux (used by subroutine SOLPRO).

**PCKE, PCKP**  Flags to cause printing of differential fluence, damage coefficients, equivalent fluence, etc. for electrons (PCKE) and/or protons (PCKP). 8 values for each variable may be input corresponding to cover glass thicknesses (default value = 0 for no print, set = 1 for print).

**IDIAG**  Flag to print namelist input as a diagnostic aid. (Default value = 0 for no print, set = 1 for print).

**INTFLG**  Flag to establish limits of integration. Proceeds over all energies for which damage coefficients are available and input spectra are extrapolated if necessary. When INTFLG = 1 integration proceeds only over the input energy range, namely, energy intervals ESPEC(1,1) to ESPEC(NESPEC,1) and PSPEC(1,1) to PSPEC(NPSPEC,1) default value = 0. Therefore, the RDCs are regarded as 0. for the energies less than ESPEC(1,1) and PSPEC(1,1), respectively, and an energy cutoff for energies higher than ESPEC(NESPEC,1) and PSPEC(NPSPEC,1), respectively.
PROGRAM FOR COMPUTING EQUIVALENT FLUENCE FROM SPACE ELECTRON
AND PROTON ENERGY SPECTRA AND RELATIVE DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS
FOR THE PURPOSE OF ESTIMATING SOLAR CELL DEGRADATION.

MACHINE / FORTRAN FEATURES NECESSARY
NAMELIST INPUT/OUTPUT
INPUT UNIT (CARD READER) IS FORTRAN UNIT 5
OUTPUT UNIT (PRINTER) IS FORTRAN UNIT 6
BLOCK DATA SUBPROGRAM
PROGRAM WRITTEN FOR UNIVAC 1108 (FORTRAN 4 COMPATIBLE)
ALPHANUMERIC INPUT/OUTPUT ("A" FORMAT) ASSUMES
6-CHARACTER CAPABILITY. HOLLERITH STRINGS ARE USED AS
CHARACTER COUNT (SHABCDE) AND AS QUOTE STRINGS.

COMMON/DAMAGE/IMEV(70),EDET(70),PMCV(70),PSC(70),PVOC(70)

DIMENSION TIMIN(2),TOUT(2)
DIMENSION HEADER(14),THICK(8),COND(2)
DIMENSION ED(62),PI(65),PV(65)
DIMENSION SPEC(70),PSPEC(70),TF(8)
DIMENSION EV(8),EQV(10),EQV2(8)
DIMENSION EM(70),PPL(70)
DIMENSION EP(65),EPPT(10)
DIMENSION EPL(70),PSP(70)
DIMENSION THICK(8),ITHICK(8)

INTEGER PAGE,PCKE(8),PCPK(8)

DATA THICK/0.5E-3,1.6E-2,3.3E-2,6.71E-2,1.12E-1,2.75E-1/
DATA NSPEC/0,NSPEC/0,NT/1,NSPEC/0,NT/1,NSPEC/0,NT/1,NSPEC/0,NT/1 DATA PED/10,30,10,30,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1 DATA TIMIN/120,TIMOUT/12,H YEAR
DATA TIMOUT/120,TIMOUT/120

NAMELIST /NAME/NAMESTRING,NSPEC,PSPEC,NT,NSPEC,PSPEC,NT,NSPEC,PSPEC,NT,NSPEC,PSPEC,NT

 INPUT VARIABLES . . .

HEADER ALPHANUMERIC RECORD (80 CHARACTERS) TO IDENTIFY CASE.
THE FOLLOWING ARE NAMELIST VARIABLES
PUNCH NAMELIST ITEMS STARTING IN COLUMN 2

NESPEC, NSPEC NUMBER OF INPUT DATA FOR ELECTRON AND PROTON
ENERGY SPECTRA. IF NSPEC=1 SOLAR FLARE PROTON FLUX IS
CALCULATED FROM SUBROUTINE SOLPRO AND SUBSEQUENTLY THE
CORRESPONDING EQUIVALENT FLUENCE, INSTEAD OF CALCULATING
EQUIVALENT FLUENCE DUE TO AN INPUT PROTON SPECTRUM.
IF SOLPRO IS USED, INPUTS TAU AND IQ ARE REQUIRED;
OTHERWISE THEY ARE DISREGARDED. PROGRAM IS CURRENTLY
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

DIMENSIONED FOR A MAXIMUM OF 50 ELECTRON AND 50 PROTON SPECTRAL VALUES.
NOTE: NO ELECTRON SPECTRA MAY BE INPUT IF SUBROUTINE SOLPRO IS BEING USED TO
CALCULATE SOLAP FLARE PROTON FLUENCES.
(SEE NSSDC PUBLICATION 75-11 (STASSINOPOLDS) FOR DETAILS OF SUBROUTINE SOLPRO.)
ESPEC(I,J),SPEC(I,J) INTEGRAL ENERGY SPECTRUM OF SPACE ELECTRON AND PROTON ENVIRONMENTS, J=1 ENERGY IN MEV.
J=2 INTEGRAL FLUX IN PARTICLES PER SQUARE CENTIMETER PER UNIT TIME. INPUT SPECTRAL DATA IN ASCENDING ORDER,
LOWEST ENERGY FIRST, HIGHEST LAST.
NT NUMBER OF COVER GLASS THICKNESSES INPUT (MAXIMUM 8).
DEFAULT VALUE = 1 (COVER GLASS THICKNESS = 0.)
T VECTOR OF COVER GLASS THICKNESSES FOR WHICH EQUIVALENT FLUENCE IS CALCULATED. INPUT MUST EXACTLY MATCH VALUES
IN VECTOR 'THICK' ABOVE.
NSTEP NUMBER OF POINTS BETWEEN ENERGY ENTRIES OF RELATIVE DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS FOR INTERPOLATION (DEFAULT VALUE = 21)
TIMIN 12 CHARACTER LOGARITH STRING WHICH DESCRIBES TIME INTERVAL REPRESENTED BY INPUT SPECTRA. FOR EXAMPLE IF INPUT SPECTRA REPRESENT FLUENCES PER DAY
TIMIN = 12HDAY
IF INPUT SPECTRA REPRESENT FLUENCE PER SECOND
TIMIN = 12HSECOND
TMULT NUMBER OF 'TIMIN' UNITS FOR WHICH EQUIVALENT FLUENCE IS TO BE COMPUTED. FOR EXAMPLE IF INPUT SPECTRA REPRESENT FLUENCE PER HOUR AND EQUIVALENT FLUENCE IS TO BE COMPUTED FOR 24 HOURS
TMULT = 24.
ITMULT SHOULD BE INPUT SUCH THAT TMULT = TIMOUT/TIMIN.
TIMOUT 12 CHARACTER LOGARITH STRING WHICH DESCRIBES TOTAL TIME OF EXPOSURE AND IS THE PRODUCT OF 'TIMIN' UNITS AND TMULT. FOR EXAMPLE IF TIMIN = '1 DAY' AND TMULT = 365.2422
TIMOUT = 12H1 YEAR
-----------------------------------------------
INCLUDE ALL 12 CHARACTERS IN THE NAMELIST INPUT
INCLUDING TRAILING BLANKS.
-----------------------------------------------
IF TIMIN = '1 MONTH' AND MISSION DURATION IS 34.2 MONTHS
TIMOUT = 12H34.2 MONTHS OR TIMOUT = 12H1 MISSION
-----------------------------------------------
INCLUDE ALL 12 CHARACTERS IN THE NAMELIST INPUT
INCLUDING TRAILING BLANKS.
-----------------------------------------------
**NOTE** DEFAULT VALUES ARE:
TIMIN = 12HDAY
TMULT = 365.2422
TIMOUT = 12H1 YEAR
PEDRI DAMAGE RATIO BETWEEN PROTONS AND ELECTRONS FOR ISC.
(DEFAULT VALUE = 3000.)
PEDRV DAMAGE RATIO BETWEEN PROTONS AND ELECTRONS FOR VAC
(DEFAULT VALUE = 3000.)
TAU MISSION DURATION IN MONTHS (USED BY SUBROUTINE SOLPRO).
C * IQ CONFIDENCE LEVEL THAT DETERMINES SOLAR FLARE PROTON
  * FLUX (USED BY SUBROUTINE SOLPRO).
C * PCKE*, PCPK* FLAGS TO CAUSE PRINTING OF DIFFERENTIAL FLUENCE* 
  * DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS* EQUIVALENT FLUENCE* ETC* FOR 
C * ELECTRONS* PCKE* AND OR PROTONS* PCPK* 8 VALUES FOR 
C * EACH VARIABLE MAY BE INPUT CORRESPONDING TO COVER GLASS 
C * THICKNESS (DEFAULT VALUE=0 FOR NO PRINT.
C * SET=1 FOR PRINT.)
C * IDIAO* FLAG TO PRINT NAMELIST INPUT AS A DIAGNOSTIC AID. 
  (DEFAULT VALUE = 0 FOR NO PRINT.  SET = 1 FOR PRINT.)
C * INTFLG* FLAG TO ESTABLISH LIMITS OF INTEGRATION
C * WHEN INTFLG = 0 INTEGRATION PROCEEDS OVER ALL ENERGIES
C * FOR WHICH DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS ARE AVAILABLE AND INPUT 
C * SPECTRA ARE EXTRAPOLATED IF NECESSARY.
C * WHEN INTFLG = 1 INTEGRATION PROCEEDS ONLY OVER THE INPUT 
C * ENERGY RANGE, NAMELY, ENERGY INTERVALS ESPEC(1,1) TO 
C * ESPEC(1,1) AND PSPEC(1,1) TO PSPEC(NSPEC,1) 
C * DEFAULT VALUE = 0
C
C
 MT = 1
PAGE=0
C READ HEADER CARD (IDENTIFIER INFORMATION)
C 100 READ(5,20,END=9999) HEADER
C  INITIALIZE TOTAL FLUENCE VECTORS
C  DO 11 I=1,8
EPTOT(NI(I)=0.
11 EPTOT(I)=0.
C READ INPUT DATA (NAMELIST 'MIKE')
C READ('MIKE')
IF,ID,'AG ',E0,.01 GO TO 12
PAGE=PAGE+1
WRITE(6,251) HEADER,PAGE
WRITE(6,'MIKE')
12 CONTINUE
IF(NESPEC,E1,.01 GO TO 105
C  BYPASS IF NO ELECTRON SPECTRUM
C  PAGE=PAGE+1 
 WRITE(6,25) HEADER,PAGE
 WRITE(6,32)TIMIN(ESPEC(I,J=1,2),I=1,NESPEC)
C  TAKE LOGS OF ELECTRON FLUENCES
C  DO 101 J=1,NESPEC
101 ESPLN(J,2) = ALOG(ESPEC(J,2))
105 IF(NSPEC,E1,.01 GO TO 107
D-7
IF(NSPEC .GT. 1) GO TO 104

C CALCULATE SOLAR FLARE PROTON SPECTRUM BASED ON TAU AND IQ USING
C SUBROUTINE SOLPRO
C
CALL SOLPRO(TAU, IQ, PSPEC(1:2), PSPEC(1:1), IOR, IERR)
IF(IERR .GT. 0) GO TO 100
PAGE = PAGE + 1
IF(IOR .GT. 0) GO TO 405
COND(1) = ' ORI'
COND(2) = ' NARY'
GO TO 407

405 COND(1) = ' ANOMA'
COND(2) = ' LOUS'
407 WRITE(6*27) COND, PAGE, TAU, IQ
WRITE(6*37) (PSPEC(I,1), PSPEC(I,2), I = 1, 10)
TMULT = 1.
NSPEC = 10
GO TO 1041

104 CONTINUE
PAGE = PAGE + 1
WRITE(6*25) HEADER, PAGE
WRITE(6*33) TiMIN, (PSPEC(I,J) * J = 1, 2), I = 1, NSPEC)

1041 CONTINUE

C TAKE LOGS OF PROTON ENERGIES AND FLUENCES
C
DO 106 J = 1, NSPEC
PSPLN(J) = ALOG(PSPEC(J))

106 PSPLN(J) = ALOG(PSPEC(J))

107 DO 1090 L = 1, NT
DO 120 J = 1, 8
IF(TL(J) .EQ. THICK(J)) GO TO 180
120 CONTINUE
WRITE(6*34) Ti(L)
GO TO 1090

180 CONTINUE

C TAKE LOGS OF RELATIVE DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS AND RELATED ENERGIES
C
IF(NSPEC .LE. 0) GO TO 190
DO 187 K = 1, 47
IF(L .GT. 1) GO TO 181
EMLN(K) = ALOG(EMLV(K))

181 IF(EDET(K,J)) 183, 183, 185
183 ED(K) = -50.
GO TO 187

185 ED(K) = ALOG(EDET(K,J))

187 CONTINUE
DO 190 K = 1, 65
IF(L .GT. 1) GO TO 125
PMLN(K) = ALOG(PMLV(K))

125 IF(PISC(K,J)) 130, 130, 135
130 PI(K) = -50.
GO TO 140

135 PI(K) = ALOG(PISC(K,J))
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

140 IF(PVOC(K,J))=50. 145 145 147
145 PV(K)=PV(K) 145 147
147 PV(K)=ALOG(PVOC(K,J))
150 CONTINUE
C
C COMPUTE EQUIVALENT FLUENCE FOR ELECTRON SPECTRUM
C (BYPASS IF NO ELECTRON SPECTRUM)

200 LINE=1
IF(NESPEC .LT. 0) GO TO 400
EQUIVE(L) = 0.0
ELLIM = ESPEC(L+1)
EULIM = ESPEC(NESPEC+1)
C
ITERATE OVER ALL ENERGY INCREMENTS

DO 300 K=1,N46
DIFF=EMLN(K+1)-EMLN(K)
DELTA=DIFF/NSTEP
DEL2=DELTA/2.
DO 300 I=1,NSTEP
SPEC1=EMLN(K)+DELTA*(I-1)
DSPEC=SPEC1+DEL2
EX=EXP(SPEC1)
EK=EXP(SPEC1+DELTA)
C
PERFORM LINEAR INTERPOLATION OF PHI VS. E (SEMI-LOG)

CALL INTP(EL(K),PHI1,ESPEC(1,I),ESPLN(1,2),NESPEC)
CALL INTP(EL(K),PHI2,ESPEC(1,I),ESPLN(1,2),NESPEC)
PHI1 = EXP(PHI1)
PHI2 = EXP(PHI2)
C
DAMAGE COEFFICIENT VS. E (LOG-LOG)

PERFORM LINEAR INTERPOLATION OF

CALL INTP(DSPEC,D1,EMLN(1),ED(1),47)
D=EXP(D1)
IF(D .LT. 1.E-4) C=0.0
C
USE RESTRICTED INTEGRATION LIMITS IF INTEG .GT. 0

IF( (INTEG .LT. 0 ) GO TO 201
IF(EL(K) .LT. ELLIM .OR. EK .GT. EULIM) GO TO 202
GO TO 201
202 PHI1 = 0.0
PHI2 = 0.0
201 DPHI = PHI1 - PHI2
PROD = DPHI * D
C
SUM PRODUCTS OVER ALL ENERGY INCREMENTS

EQUIVE(L) = EQUIVE(L) + PROD
IF(ECKEL1 .LT. 0) GO TO 300
C
PRINT INTERMEDIATE CALCULATIONS OF DIFFERENTIAL FLUX RELATIVE
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

C DAMAGE COEFFICIENT AND EQUIVALENT FLUENCE

C IF(LINE .NE. 1) GO TO 50
PAGE=PAGE+1
WRITE(6,25) HEADER,PAGE
WRITE(6,2E) (L,)
WRITE(6,30)
50 DSPEC1=EXP(DSPEC)
WRITE(6,101)K,Ek,PHI1,PHI2,DPHI,D,DSPEC1,PROD,EQUIVE(L)
LINE=LINE+1
IF(LINE .GE. 50) LINE=1
300 CONTINUE

C COMPUTE EQUIVALENT FLUENCE FOR PROTON SPECTRUM
C (BYPASS IF NO PROTON SPECTRUM)

C IF(INPSPEC .EQ. 0) GO TO 9000
LINE=1
EQV10I(L) = C.G
EQV10V(L) = 0.0
PLLIM = ALOG(PSPEC1*1)
PULIM = ALOG(PSPEC(NPSPEC,1))
DO 500 K=1,64
DIFF=PMLN(K+1)-PMLN(K)
DELTA=DIFF/NSTEP
DEL2=DELTA/2.
DO 500 I=1,NSTEP
SPEC1=PMLN(K)+DELTA*(I-1)
SPEC2=SPEC1+DELTA
DSPEC=SPEC1+DEL2

C PERFORM LINEAR INTERPOLATION OF PHI VS. E (LOG-LOG)
CALL INTP(PHI1,PSPLN(1,1)*PSPLN(1,2)*NPSPEC)
CALL INTP(PHI2,PSPLN(1,1)*PSPLN(1,2)*NPSPEC)
PHI1 = EXP(PHI1)
PHI2 = EXP(PHI2)

C PERFORM LINEAR INTERPOLATION OF DAMAGE COEFFICIENT VS. E (LOG-LOG)
CALL INTP(DC1,DC1,PSPLN(1,1),PSPLN(1,2))
CALL INTP(DCV,DCV,PSPLN(1,1),PSPLN(1,2))
DISC=EXP(DC1)
DVOC=EXP(DCV)
IF(DISC .LT. 1.0E-4) DISC=0.0
IF(DVOC .LT. 1.0E-4) DVOC=0.0
IF(INTFLG .EQ. 0) GO TO 401

C USE RESTRICTED INTEGRATION LIMITS IF INTFLG .GT. 0

C IF(SPEC1 .LT. PLLIM .OR. SPEC2 .GT. PULIM) GO TO 402
GO TO 401

402 PHI1 = 0.0
PHI2 = 0.0
401 DPHI = PHI2 - PHI1
PROD1=DPHI*DISC
EQV10I(L) = EQV10I(L) + PROD1
EQV10V(L) = EQV10V(L) + DPHI*DVO
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

IF(PCKP(L9 .EQ. 0) GO TO 500
IF(LINE .NE. 1) GO TO 60
PAGE=PAGE+1
WRITE(6*25) HEADER*PAGE
WRITE(6*4) T(1)
WRITE(6*4C)
GO TO 50
PAGE=PAGE*l
WRITE(6*25) HEADER*PAGE
WRITE(6*4) T(1)
WRITE(6*4C)
EX=EXP(SPEC1)
EX1=EXP(SPEC1+DELTA)
DFXOCV = D*HI*DZOC
DSPEC1=EXP(DSPEC)
WRITE(6*10) EX,EX1,PHI1,DISC,DZOC,DSPEC1,PROD1,DFXOCV,
*EQV10I(J)+EQV10V(J)
LINE=LINE+1
IF(LINE .GE. 50) LINE=1
500 CONTINUE
3000 CONTINUE
C
C PRINT CALCULATION SUMMARY
C
PAGE=PAGE+1
WRITE(6*25) HEADER*PAGE
WRITE(6*2) (T(J),J=1,NT)
DO 520 J=1,NT
THICK(J)=TI(J)+178.89D866+.5
THICK(J)=THICK(J)
520 CONTINUE
WRITE(6*22) (THICK(J),J=1,NT)
DO 1000 K=1,NT
EQUIVE(K) = EQUIVE(K) * TMULT
C
C CONVERT 10 MEV PROTONS TO EQUIVALENT 1 MEV ELECTRONS USING PEDR1
C AND PEDR1
EQUIVE10I(K) = EQUIVE10I(K) * TMULT * PEDR1
EQUIVE10V(K) = EQUIVE10V(K) * TMULT * PEDR1
1000 CONTINUE
IF(NESPEC .EQ. 0) GO TO 2000
WRITE(6*3) (EQUIVE(J),J=1,NT)
DO 2001 I=1,NT
EPTOTV(I)=EPTOTV(I)+EQUIVE(I)+EQUIV10V(I)
EPTOTI(I)=EPTOTI(I)+EQUIVE(I)+EQUIV10I(I)
2001 CONTINUE
2000 IF(NPSPEC .EQ. 0) GO TO 3000
WRITE(6*4) (EQUIV10V(J),J=1,NT)
WRITE(6*5) (EQUIVE(J),J=1,NT)
IF(NESPEC .EQ. 0) GO TO 3000
WRITE(6*20) (EPTOTV(J),J=1,NT)
WRITE(6*21) (EPTOTI(J),J=1,NT)
3000 CONTINUE
WRITE(6*43) TIMOUT,TMULT
GO TO 100
C
C 2 FORMAT(1HO,*SHIELD THICKNESS (GM/CM2)*w*1PE10.3)
3 FORMAT(1HO,*ELECTRON FLUENCE*/1H *2X*EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2*
* 2X*8(1PE10.3))
77-56

COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

```
4 FORMAT(1H4*PROTON FLUENCE*/1H*2X*EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2*/
     * 1H*11X*MAX VOC*/10X8(1PE10.3))
5 FORMAT(1H*16X*ISC*/10X8(1PE10.3))
10 FORMAT(11E12.4)
20 FORMAT(13A6+2A1)
22 FORMAT(1H*17X*(MILS) *8I10)
25 FORMAT(1H1*14AE=16E4*PAGE*14/)
26 FORMAT(1H*ELECTRON SPECTRUM*)*10X*COVER SLIDE THICKNESS =*
     * F10.5* GM/CM2*/)
27 FORMAT(1H1*31H SOLAR FLARE PROTON SPECTRUM FOR AGAS HEVENT*
     * 1H*11X*PAGE*1X=I3
     * //5X=MISSION DURATION= FS.1=8H MONTHS*
     * /5X=17HCONFIDENCE LEVEL= I3= 9H PERCENT*
     * //3X=ENERGY=10X=13HINTEGRAL FLUX
     * /14X=MEV(HEV)*7X*=2CHPROTONS/CM2-MISSION. /)
28 FORMAT(1H*TOTAL FLUENCE (ELECTRONS + PROTONS)*/
     * 1H*2X=EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2*)
29 FORMAT(1H*11X*MAX VOC*/10X8(1PE10.3))
30 FORMAT(5X*3HEK*9X*3HEK1*9X*3HX*9X*3HFX*9X*3HDFX*9X*
     * 3HDCF*9X*7HINTERP*5X*7HDFX*DC1*5X*6HEQFLUX /)
31 FORMAT(1H*16X*ISC*/10X8(1PE10.3))
32 FORMAT(1H0*26X*ELECTRON*/
     * 1H*10X*ENERGY*10X*FLUENCE*/
     * 1H*10X* (MEV)*11X* (ELECTRONS/CM2-*,2A6,*)*/
     * (1H =GPF16.3*1PE18.4))
33 FORMAT(1H0*26X*PROTON*/
     * 1H*10X*ENERGY*10X*FLUENCE*/
     * 1H*10X* (MEV)*11X* (PROTONS/CM2-*,2A6,*)*/
     * (1H =GPF16.3*1PE18.4))
34 FORMAT(1H0*COVER SLIDE THICKNESS OF*,E10.4* NOT IN STORED DATA*
     * 37 FORMAT(0FF20.3*1PE20.4)
40 FORMAT(5X*2HEK*10X*3HEK1*9X*3HX*9X*3HDFX*9X*3HDCF*9X*3HDFX*9X*
     * 9X*7HINTERP*5X*7HDFX*DC1*5X*7HDFX*DC1*5X*4HEQFL*8X*4HEQFL*5X*4HEQFL*5X*4HEQFL
     * /)
41 FORMAT(1H = (PROTON SPECTRUM) *10X*COVER SLIDE THICKNESS =*
     * F10.5* GM/CM2?)
43 FORMAT(1H0*TIME OF EXPOSURE: *,2A6/3X, (TMULT = *,1PE12.5*)
44 FORMAT(1H1)
4999 CONTINUE
WPIE(6,44)
STOP
END
```

D-12
SUBROUTINE SOLPRO(TAU, IQ, F, EF, INALE, IErr)

C
C II*~~I+IS+~ICI*~*L~~*~~I**~IZ~SSS****~**~*~*+*~*~~*~~*~~~*~**~~**
C
SUBROUTINE TO COMPUTE INTERPLANETARY SOLAR PROTON FLUX AT
C 1 AU (FROM E>10 TO E>150 MEV)
C
C PROGRAM DESIGNED AND TESTED BY E.G. STASSINOPOULOS, CODE b.1
C NASA GODDARD SPACE FLIGHT CENTER, GREENBELT, MARYLAND 20771
C
C INPUT VARIABLES . . .
C TAU MISSION DURATION IN MONTHS
C IQ CONFIDENCE LEVEL THAT CALCULATED FLUENGE F(N)
C WILL NOT BE EXCEEDED
C
C OUTPUT: F(N) SPECTRUM OF INTEGRAL SOLAR PROTON FLUX FOR
C ENERGIES E>10*N (1<N<10)
C
C DIMENSION F(N), EF(N), G(10), INDEX(201), ORFLX(5,9)
REAL NALE = ALECF(7,2G)

C DATA (NALECF(1)/1=1.140), 1=1571, 2077, -1269E-1, -428E-3, -5185E-5
C +7754E-7, -2939E-9, +1051, 1.1593E-2, +1930E-3, -3618E-5*
C -3740E-7, -593E-9, 2007, 1.1497, -3179E-2, -5730E-4, -6646E-6,
C -1754E-8, 1082, 2.1228, -1935E-2, +2660E-4, -1022E-6, 29, 9*
C -2214, 1194, -1871E-2, -2695E-4, +1116E-6, 20, -2470, 1062*
C -1658E-2, -2367E-4, -9465E-7, 20, -2509, 8710E-1, -6300E-3*
C +9486E-5, 39, 2932, 2.8932E-1, -1023E-2, 1029E-4, 3, 9, -3222*
C +3683E-5, -9992E-3, -9935E-5, 3, 0, -3518, 8417E-1, 1000E-2,
C +3556E-5, 3934, -3608, 2.1751E-1, -8963E-3, -8940E-5, 3, 0, -2771*
C +5473E-1, -1543E-4, 40, 0, +2818, 5072E-1, -2511E-4, 4, 0, -2845*
C +4717E-1, 5664E-4, 44, 0, -2947, 4405E-1, 8507E-4, 4, 0, -2923*
C +111E-1, 1.106E-3, 4, 0, +2981, 3835E-1, -1312E-3, 4, 0, +3002*
C +3585E-1, 1.1529E-3, 4, 0, +3001, 3312E-1, -1781E-3, 4, 0, +3141*
C +3248E-1, 1.1654E-3, 4, 0, +
C DATA 1(ORFLX(1)/1=1,457, 154047E3, -522258E4, 714275E5, 432747E6
C +955315E6, 138004E6, 448288E6, 438148E5, 32552E6,
C +528120E3*
C +122227E5, 112869E6, 465808E6, 710572E6, 121144E4, -266412E6,
C +226778E6, 857286E6, 104947E7, -452062E4, -103246E6, 890605E6,
C -349202E7, 493852E7, 27028E4, -499083E5, 353056E5, -111929E7,
C +133386E7, 275597E6, 469718E5, 314729E6, 960383E6, +11165E7,
C +570397E4, 739980E6, 381074E6, +510714E6, 0, +101E3, 4, 0, +
C DATA 1(INDEX1)/2=12071/2=7765, 5, 4, 9, 3/
C 1 FORMAT(" TAU=",F4.0," IQ=",I3,"X","*PARAMETERS EXCEED PROGRAM LIMITS")
C 2 FORMAT(2X,"FOR THE COMBINATION OF TAU AND IQ GIVEN, NO SIGNIFICANT"*
C SOLAR PROTON FLUXES ARE TO BE EXPECTED. TAU=",F6.2," IQ=",I2"
C
C IERR=3
C IF(TAU >72) OR IQ >80) GO TO 500
C IP=100-IQ
C N=INDEX(IP)
C NALE=3

ORIGINAL PAGE IS: OF POOR QUALITY D-13
DO 300 J=1, M
300 NALE=NALE+NALECF(J,IP)*TAU**(J-1)
INALE=NALE+1.0001
IF(INALE .LE. 0) GO TO 400

C *** CALCULATIONS FOR OR-EVENT CONDITIONS
C
IT=TAU
IF(IT .EQ. 1 AND IP .GE. 16) GO TO 700
P=FLOAT(IP)/100.
OF=0.
DO 100 J=1,5
100 OF=OF+ORFLXC(J,IT)* TAU**(J-1)*E7
E=10.
DO 200 N=1,10
G(N)=EXP(.0158*(3.0-E))
F(N)=OF*G(N)
EF(N)=E
200 E=E+10.
RETURN

C *** CALCULATIONS FOR AL-EVENT CONDITIONS
C
400 E=10.
DO 600 N=1,10
F(N)=7.363*EXP((3.0-E)/26.5)+INALE
EF(N)=E
G E=E+10.
RETURN

C ERROR CONDITIONS - PRINT MESSAGE AND RETURN
C
700 WRITE(6,2) TAU, IQ
GO TO 800
500 WRITE (6,1) TAU, IQ
800 IQ=1
RETURN
END

SUBROUTINE INTP(XT,YT,X,Y,N)

******************************************************************************
* LINEAR INTERPOLATION SUBROUTINE *
******************************************************************************
C
DIMENSION X(I),Y(I)
C
DO 10 I=1,N
XI=X
IF(XT .LE. XI) GO TO 12
10 CONTINUE
12 IF(XI .EQ. 1) II=2
IM=II-1
YT=Y(IM)+(XT-X(IM))*(Y(II)-Y(IM))/(X(II)-X(IM))
RETURN
END
### COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

**Block Data**

```plaintext
COMMON/DAMAGE/EM!EV(7O),EDET(7O),PMV(7O),PISC(70),PVOC(7O)
```

#### EMEV - ELECTRON ENERGIES FOR DAMAGE COEFFICIENT TABLE EDET

| EMEV | DAMAGE/EVEV/EDET/DCT | PMV/PISC/PVOC
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.50E-01</td>
<td>1.60E-01</td>
<td>1.70E-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00E-01</td>
<td>2.50E-01</td>
<td>1.30E-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00E-01</td>
<td>4.00E-01</td>
<td>1.45E-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.00E-01</td>
<td>9.00E-01</td>
<td>1.20E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80E+00</td>
<td>2.50E+00</td>
<td>2.50E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00E+00</td>
<td>3.50E+00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4.50E+00</td>
<td>5.00E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.00E+00</td>
<td>6.00E+00</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.00E+00</td>
<td>9.00E+00</td>
<td>1.00E+00</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

#### 0.0 G/M/CH2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATA (EDET(I) = 1, 47)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/2.68E-04, 5.00E-04, 8.951E-04, 1.555E-03, 2.406E-03, 3.650E-03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.750E-03, 1.035E-02, 1.450E-02, 2.010E-02, 2.725E-02, 3.385E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.00E-02, 7.00E-02, 9.00E-02, 1.20E+00, 1.20E+00, 1.20E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.20E+00, 1.40E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.20E+00, 1.40E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00, 1.70E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.75E+00, 3.00E+00, 3.24E+00, 3.50E+00, 3.95E+00, 4.40E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.85E+00, 5.30E+00, 6.150E+00, 6.50E+00, 7.60E+00, 8.30E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00E+00, 1.1230E+01, 1.1360E+01, 1.1470E+01, 1.1650E+01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 0.0055 G/M/CH2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATA (EDET(I) = 71, 117)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/3.687E-05, 7.951E-05, 1.620E-04, 3.168E-04, 5.936E-04, 1.045E-03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.533E-03, 4.394E-03, 7.381E-03, 1.174E-02, 1.668E-02, 2.249E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.501E-02, 2.525E-02, 7.562E-02, 1.023E-01, 1.700E-01, 2.400E-01</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.166E-01, 1.398E-01, 4.657E-01, 6.303E-01, 3.166E-01, 1.011E+00</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.211E+00, 1.418E+00, 1.676E+00, 1.893E+00, 2.190E+00, 2.549E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.69E+00, 2.93E+00, 3.191E+00, 3.422E+00, 4.394E+00, 4.85E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.794E+00, 5.243E+00, 6.093E+00, 6.848E+00, 7.555E+00, 8.289E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.056E+01, 1.227E+01, 1.357E+01, 1.467E+01, 1.569E+01, 1.648E+01</td>
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</tbody>
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#### 0.0168 G/M/CH2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATA (EDET(I) = 141, 187)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 2.227E-05, 5.226E-05, 1.143E-04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.375E-04, 1.263E-03, 2.814E-03, 5.052E-03, 7.941E-03, 1.156E-02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.122E-02, 3.423E-02, 5.344E-02, 7.595E-02, 1.343E-01, 2.004E-01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.718E-01, 3.439E-01, 4.169E-01, 5.733E-01, 7.515E-01, 9.405E-01</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.133E+00, 1.339E+00, 1.592E+00, 1.854E+00, 2.108E+00, 2.362E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.506E+00, 2.850E+00, 3.036E+00, 3.349E+00, 3.798E+00, 4.247E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.695E+00, 5.143E+00, 5.592E+00, 6.753E+00, 7.462E+00, 8.156E+00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.049E+01, 1.221E+01, 1.321E+01, 1.462E+01, 1.643E+01</td>
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#### 0.0335 G/M/CH2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

<table>
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<tr>
<td>1.551E-05, 8.667E-05, 3.609E-04, 1.073E-03, 2.400E-03, 4.220E-03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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---

**ORIGINAL PAGE IS OF POOR QUALITY**
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

0.0571  GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (EDET(I),I=281,327)

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<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.012E+00</td>
<td>0.12E+00</td>
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<td>0.34E+00</td>
<td>0.45E+00</td>
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0.112  GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

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0.1675 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (EDET(I),I=421,467)

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0.335 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (EDET(I),I=491,537)

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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>0.34E+00</td>
<td>0.45E+00</td>
</tr>
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</table>

PMID - PROTON ENERGIES FOR DAMAGE COEFFICIENT TABLES PISC AND PVOC
**COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)**

**DATA (PMVII) I = 1, 65**

- \(7.000E+00\) 1.200E+00 1.300E+00 1.400E+00 1.500E+00 1.600E+00 1.700E+00 1.800E+00
- \(8.000E+00\) 1.200E+00 1.300E+00 1.400E+00 1.500E+00 1.600E+00 1.700E+00 1.800E+00
- \(9.000E+00\) 1.200E+00 1.300E+00 1.400E+00 1.500E+00 1.600E+00 1.700E+00 1.800E+00

**PISC - PROTON DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS (SHORT-CIRCUIT CURRENT)**

**G.0 GM/CW2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS**

**DATA (PISCII; I = 1, 135)**

- \(0.00559\) 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000
- \(0.0168\) 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000

**DATA (PISCII; I = 1, 265)**

- \(0.00559\) 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000
- \(0.0168\) 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000

**ORIGIN AID PAGE 15 OF POOE WAM**
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

D.335 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (PISC()=I=491.555)

PVOC - PROTON DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS (OPEN-CIRCUIT VOLTAGE AND P-MAX)

D.G GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (PVOC(I)=I=71.135)

D.00553 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

D.G168 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

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COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (continued)

DATA (PVOC I) : I=141,275

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
\end{array} \]

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
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0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
\end{array} \]

G.0335 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS.

DATA (PVOC I) : I=211,275

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
\end{array} \]

G.0671 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS.

DATA (PVOC I) : I=281,345

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
\end{array} \]

G.112 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS.

DATA (PVOC I) : I=351,415

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
\end{array} \]
COMPUTER PROGRAM LISTING (concluded)

D.1675 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (PVCC(I),I=421,485)
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 5.746E-01 6.555E-01 6.044E-01 5.496E-01 5.047E-01
- /3.297E-01 3.161E-01 3.022E-01 2.897E-01 2.761E-01 2.523E-01
- /2.294E-01 2.055E-01 1.535E-01 1.206E-01 9.349E-02

D.335 GM/CM2 COVER GLASS DAMAGE COEFFICIENTS

DATA (PVCCI(I),I=491,555)
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.
- /0. 3.775E-01 3.956E-01 3.698E-01 3.569E-01 3.510E-01 3.524E-01
- /3.245E-01 3.132E-01 3.007E-01 2.899E-01 2.773E-01 2.543E-01
- /2.326E-01 2.092E-01 1.566E-01 1.226E-01 9.462E-02

END
Sample Run No. 1

Input Stream

Solar flare protons, based on subroutine SOLPRO.

Sample No. 1

Solar flare protons are input.

Output Stream

Solar flare proton ~spectrum for anomalous event.

Mission duration: 36.6 months.
Confidence level = 90 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy (MeV)</th>
<th>Integral Flux (protons/cm²·mission)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>3.3607×10^4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>2.1048×10^4</td>
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<td>30,000</td>
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<td>40,000</td>
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<td>50,000</td>
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<td>60,000</td>
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<td>70,000</td>
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<td>80,000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>90,000</td>
<td>1.6413×10^3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>1.1258×10^3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Solar flare protons, based on subroutine SOLFRC.

Shield thickness (cm/cm²) | C.00 | 5.59E-03 | 1.68E-02 | 3.75E-02 | 6.71E-02 | 1.22E-01 | 1.67E-01 | 3.35E-01 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(mil)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proton fluence (EUV) 1 MeV electrons/cm²

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Energy (MeV)</th>
<th>Fluence (EUV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.23×10^-14</td>
<td>3.26×10^-14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.71×10^-14</td>
<td>1.69×10^-14</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.87×10^-13</td>
<td>4.74×10^-13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.76×10^-13</td>
<td>2.56×10^-13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time of exposure: mission

(TMULT = 1.02020×00)
SAMPLE RUN NO. 2

INPUT STREAM

CIRCULAR ORBIT, 4650 KM (25000 MILE), 30 DEGREE INCLINATION

$MIKE
NP SPEC=11, NESPEC=19,
PSPEC(1,1)=4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 15, 20, 21, 25, 30, 45, 60, 75,
PSPEC(1,2)=51, 112, 178, 845, 475, 10, 167, 116, 793, 49,
.283C9, .224E9, .174E9, .119E9, .637E9,
PSPEC(1,3)=.05, .25, .5, .75, 1, 1.25, 1.5, 1.75, 2, 2.25, 2.5, 2.75, 3,
.3, 2.5, 3.5, 3.75, 4, 4.25, 4.5,
PSPEC(1,2)=.714, 13, .161, 13, .70, 4, 112, .493, 111, .242, 111, .140, 111, .844, 110,
.515, 111, .32, 111, .193, 110, .117, 110, .677, 9, .384, 9, .166, 9,
.742, 8, .259, 8, .911, 7, .190, 7, .340, 6,
PCKE=8*C, PCKP=1*C, NSPEC=2,
TIMULT=365.2422, TIMMIN=12HDAY, TIMOUT=12H1 YEAR

$
### OUTPUT STREAM

**CIRCULAR ORBIT: 650 km 2500 m.t. 90 DEGREE INCLINATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENERGY (MEV)</th>
<th>ELECTRON FLUENCE (ELECTRONS/CM²-DAY)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.000</td>
<td>7.140E+12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.250</td>
<td>1.610E+12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.500</td>
<td>1.700E+11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.750</td>
<td>4.930E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.420E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.250</td>
<td>1.000E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>8.440E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>5.150E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>3.200E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.250</td>
<td>1.930E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>1.170E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.750</td>
<td>6.770E+08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>3.860E+08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.250</td>
<td>1.660E+08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.500</td>
<td>7.920E+07</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>2.590E+07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>9.110E+06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.250</td>
<td>1.900E+06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.500</td>
<td>3.460E+05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CIRCULAR ORBIT: 650 km 2500 m.t. 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENERGY (MEV)</th>
<th>PROTON FLUENCE (P²TONS/CM²-DAY)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>5.100E+12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>1.780E+12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.000</td>
<td>8.450E+11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.000</td>
<td>4.750E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.000</td>
<td>2.670E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.000</td>
<td>1.370E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.000</td>
<td>7.380E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.000</td>
<td>2.830E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.000</td>
<td>2.240E+08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.000</td>
<td>1.740E+07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.000</td>
<td>1.390E+07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.000</td>
<td>1.030E+07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.000</td>
<td>6.370E+06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EW</td>
<td>EXI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
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<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
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<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.394C+52</td>
<td>.319N+52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CIRCULAR ORBIT, 465G KM/2500 MI, 190 DEGREE INCLINATION**

**Plot RTN Spectrum**

**COVER SLIDE THICKNESS:** .50"5G GM/CM2

---

**SHEET RUN (continued)**

---
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SHIELD THICKNESS (3W/CM2)</th>
<th>0.000</th>
<th>5.595x10^-2</th>
<th>1.686x10^-2</th>
<th>3.350x10^-2</th>
<th>6.710x10^-2</th>
<th>1.120x10^-1</th>
<th>1.675x10^-1</th>
<th>3.350x10^-1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( M I L S )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| ELECTRON FLUENCE
| EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2 |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
|                           | 4.511x10^13              | 3.529x10^13 | 2.567x10^13 | 1.836x10^13 | 1.165x10^13 | 6.922x10^12 | 4.507x10^12 | 1.768x10^12 |

| PROTON FLUENCE
| EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2 |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
|                           | 6.209x10^13              | 3.703x10^13 | 1.721x10^13 | 5.178x10^12 | 1.396x10^13 | 4.573x10^12 | 2.065x10^12 | 5.296x10^12 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PMAX VCC</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| TOTAL FLUENCE (ELECTRONS + PROTONS)
| EQUIV 1 MEV ELECTRONS/CM2 |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
|                           | 5.209x10^16              | 9.753x10^16 | 1.721x10^16 | 5.136x10^16 | 1.397x10^16 | 4.580x10^15 | 2.070x10^15 | 5.363x10^14 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PMAX VCC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| TIME OF EXPOSURE: 1 YEAR
| (MULT = 5.653x10^2xC2) |
|---------------------------|--------------------------|
|                           | 5.209x10^16              | 9.753x10^16 | 1.721x10^16 | 5.136x10^16 | 1.397x10^16 | 4.580x10^15 | 2.070x10^15 | 5.363x10^14 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PMAX VCC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>ISC</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.852x10^12</td>
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</table>
SAMPLE RUN NO. 3

INPUT STREAM

CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4650 KM(2500 N MI.), 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENERGY (MEV)</th>
<th>ELECTRON FLUENCE (ELECTRONS/CM2-DAY)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.050</td>
<td>7.140E+12</td>
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<tr>
<td>.250</td>
<td>1.020E+12</td>
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<tr>
<td>.500</td>
<td>1.730E+11</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>4.930E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.250</td>
<td>4.270E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.500</td>
<td>1.140E+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.750</td>
<td>5.150E+09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>3.200E+09</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.330E+09</td>
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<td>3.400E+05</td>
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CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4650 KM(2500 N MI.), 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENERGY (MEV)</th>
<th>PROTON FLUENCE (PROTONS/CM2-DAY)</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1.180E+15</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

**Circular Orbit: 4650 km (2500 m LLA 90 Deg) Inclination**

**Spectrum:** 4650 km (2500 m LLA 90 Deg) Inclination

**Spectrogram Thickness:** 6555 km (2500 m LLA 90 Deg) Inclination

**Sample Run:** 77-56
CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4500 KM 2500 N MI. 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

SPECTRAL SPECTRUM: COVER SLIDE THICKNESS = 0.0556 GM/CM^2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EK</th>
<th>EK1</th>
<th>FX1</th>
<th>DFI</th>
<th>DCT</th>
<th>EKNT</th>
<th>EDF</th>
<th>DFX*</th>
<th>DDFC</th>
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SAMPLE RUN (continue)
| CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4650 KM/2500 N MI.1, 90 DEGREE INCLINATION |
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**CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4650 KM/2500 N MI.1, 90 DEGREE INCLINATION**

**Shield Thickness** (GM/CM^2)

| SHIELD THICKNESS (GM/CM^2) | 3.000 | 5.597+03 | 1.680+02 | 1.350+02 | 7.510+02 | 1.120+01 | 1.675+01 | 3.360+01 |

**Electron Fluence**


**Proton Fluence**


**Electrons + Protons**

| TOTAL FLUENCE (ELECTRONS + PROTONS) | 7.655+16 | 6.833+16 | 6.600+16 | 5.174+16 | 1.396+16 | 4.569+16 | 2.362+15 | 5.251+14 |

**Time of Exposure:** 1 YEAR

| TIME OF EXPOSURE: 1 YEAR | 3.652+02 | |

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**CIRCULAR ORBIT: 4650 KM/2500 N MI.1, 90 DEGREE INCLINATION**

**Shield Thickness (GM/CM^2)**

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**Time of Exposure:** 1 YEAR

| TIME OF EXPOSURE: 1 YEAR | 3.652+02 | |
SAMPLE RUN NO. A

CIRCULAR ORBIT: ASCENDING NODE 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

INPUT STREAM

OUTPUT STREAM

CIRCULAR ORBIT: ASCENDING NODE 90 DEGREE INCLINATION

SAMPLE RUN (continued)

77-56
**CIRCULAR ORBIT, 465G KM256G & M1.1*, 9G DEEP INCLINATION**

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