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NUMERICAL INVESTIGATION ON ENERGY CONVERSION EFFICIENCY OF LEAD-BASED PEROVSKITE SOLAR CELLS USING DIFFERENT TRANSPARENT CONDUCTIVE OXIDES

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ABSTRACT

Perovskite solar cells have attracted tremendous attention owing to its rapid increase in power conversion efficiency. This work designed and simulated lead-based perovskite solar cells in planar structure; TCO/ TiO₂/ CH₃NH₃PbI₃/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au. To study the effect of various transparent conductive oxides (TCOs) on power conversion efficiency of the devices, Solar Capacitance (SCAP) simulating software was used. To achieve an optimum efficiency, the influence of thickness and band-gap energy of the absorber layer were varied and investigated. The optimized power conversion efficiency (PCE) is achieved using MoO₃/TiO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au architecture with PCE of 22.44 % and V_{oc}, J_{sc} and FF of 1.0842 V, 25.57 mA/cm² and 80.94 % respectively. The numerical simulation shows the potential of substituting the conventional FTO and ITO used in perovskite solar cells with MoO₃ as a promising transparent conductive oxide layer.

Keywords: boron-doped zinc oxide, efficiency, molybdenum oxide, perovskite, solar cells.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, halide perovskite-based solar cells show a great photovoltaic performance owing to their high absorption coefficient and simple method of fabrication (Chen *et al.*, 2015; Green *et al.*, 2014). The power conversion efficiency increases rapidly to the recent value of 25.2 % (nrel, 2021). Doped and un-doped transparent conductive oxide has been utilized as a basic component in the fabrication of perovskite solar cells (PSCs). Transparent conductive oxide with high band-gap transmits 80 % of visible light (Bawaked *et al.*, 2014; Bhachu *et al.*, 2012; Sthasivam *et al.*, 2015). Fluorine-doped tin oxide [FTO] and indium-doped tin oxide (ITO) have been regularly used as transparent conductive oxide (TCO) in perovskite solar cells due to their low resistivity and high transparency (Noel *et al.*, 2014; Hao *et al.*, 2014; Hao *et al.*, 2015; Yokoyama *et al.*, 2016; Fujihara *et al.*, 2017; Yu *et al.*, 2016; Peng *et al.*, 2020). However, it was reported that indium metal is a rare and toxic material (Dianetti *et al.*, 2015; Hagendorfer *et al.*, 2014; Minami, 2005; Sibinski *et al.*, 2012; Sohn and Kim, 2011). Furthermore, fluorine-doped tin oxide has relatively low

electrical conductivity and high leakage current (Liu *et al.*, 2010).

To further explore a substitute to the conventional TCOs, this work aimed to design and simulate lead-based perovskite solar cells in planar structure employing different TCOs, Molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃), boron-doped zinc oxide (BZO) and zinc oxide (ZnO) as transparent conductive layer. To achieve an optimum photovoltaic performance, the influence of thickness, defect density and operating temperature of the TCO were investigated. The schematic device architecture is presented in Figure 1.

MATERIALS AND DEVICE MODELING

Materials

Methyl-ammonium lead iodide (CH₃NH₃PbI₃) used as light absorbing layer, titanium dioxide (TiO₂) and Spiro-OMeTAD used as Electron Transporting Layer (ETL) and Hole Transporting Layer (HTL) respectively, boron-doped zinc oxide (BZO), Zinc Oxide (ZnO) and Molybdenum trioxide (MoO₃) were employed as front contact and Gold (Au) was selected as back contact as shown in Figure 1.

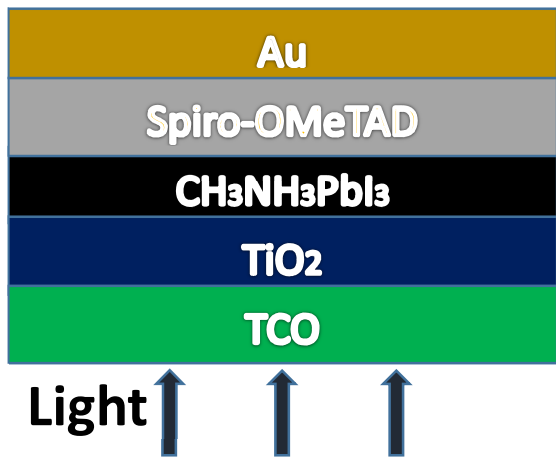


Figure 1. Schematic architecture of the device

The simulation parameters of those layers were obtained from previous literature (Patel, 2012; Baig *et al.*, 2018; Azri *et al.*, 2019; Minemoto and Murata, 2014; Teimouri and Muhammad, 2018; Slami *et al.*, 2020; Bedia *et al.*, 2014; Raudik *et al.*, 2018; Baba *et al.*, 2018; Rahman, 2021; Ouedraogo *et al.*, 2013; Zaid *et al.*, 2019; Mozafari and Shahhoseini, 2020; Ghazi *et al.*, 2021) and were tabulated in Table 1.

Device Modeling

In this study, the device modeling was conducted using SCAPS (SCAPS 3.3.10 version) software. The spectrum used is AM1.5G with an incident power density of 1000 W/cm² (1 Sun). Furthermore, the work point bias 0 V, frequency of 1.0×10^6 Hz were adopted. SCAPS is 1D solar cell simulation program. It works by solving the Poisson equations and the continuity equations for electrons and holes, and carrier transport (Movla, 2014). The simulation procedure is shown in Figure 2.

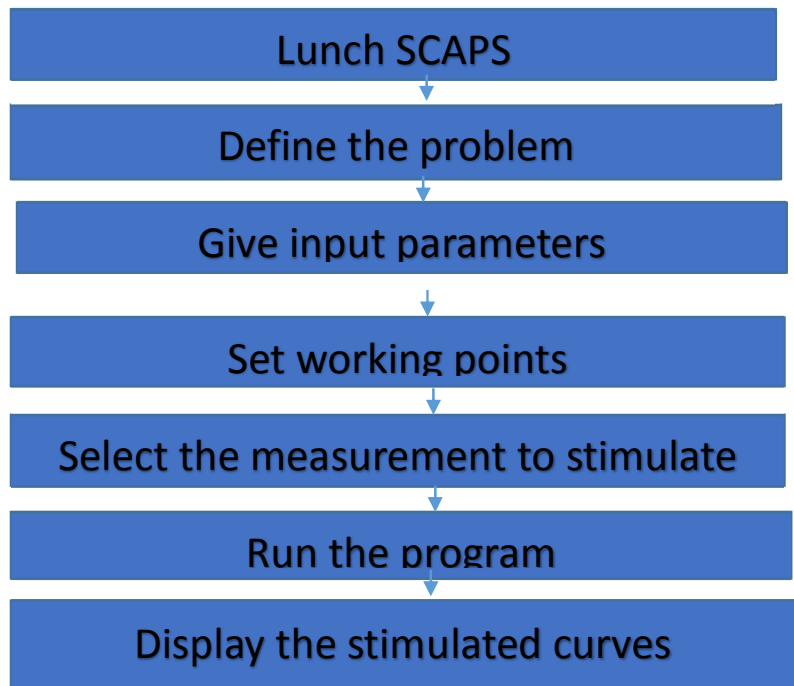


Figure 2. Simulation step-by-step procedure

Table 1. Input parameters for simulation of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ performance

Parameters	BZO	ZnO	MoO ₃	TiO ₂	CH ₃ NH ₃ PbI ₃	Spiro-OMeTAD
Thickness (nm)	200	200	200	100	300 (varied)	200
Band gap, E _g (eV)	3.3	3.3	3.8	3.2	1.55	3.0
Electron affinity, X (eV)	4.55	4.6	4.1	3.9	3.9	2.45
Relative dielectric permittivity, ε _r	9	9	9	9.0	6.25	3.0
CB effective density of states, N _c (cm ⁻³)	3 x10 ¹⁸	4 x10 ¹⁸	2.2 x10 ¹⁸	1 x 10 ²¹	2.2 X10 ¹⁹	1 x 10 ¹⁹
VB effective density of states, N _v (cm ⁻³)	1.8x10 ¹⁹	2 x10 ¹⁹	1.8 x10 ¹⁹	2 x 10 ²⁰	1.8 X 10 ¹⁹	1 x 10 ¹⁹
Electron mobility, μ _n (cm ² /Vs)	100	100	30	20	2	0.0002
Hole mobility, μ _p (cm ² /Vs)	31	25	6	10	2	0.0002
Donor concentration, N _d (cm ⁻³)	10 ²⁰	1x10 ¹⁷	1x10 ¹⁷	1 x 10 ¹⁹	10 ¹⁶	0
Acceptor concentration, N _a (cm ⁻³)	0	0	0	0	0	1 x 10 ¹⁸
Defect density, N _t (cm ⁻³)	1x10 ¹⁴	1x10 ¹⁴	1x10 ¹⁴	1 x 10 ¹⁵	2.5 x 10 ¹³	1 x 10 ¹⁵

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Influence of TCO on the device performance

The simulated J-V curves and the photovoltaic parameters obtained for the devices by employing the three different TCOs are presented in Figure 3 and Table 2 respectively. From Table 2, it is found that the devices with the MoO₃ and BZO show the highest power conversion efficiencies in contrast to the device with the ZnO which exhibits the lowest power

conversion efficiencies. The results show that the undoped ZnO has low optical transmission to be used as TCO. Therefore, the impurity-doped ZnO is more suitable for TCO which is in line with the findings of (Chen *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, the output results indicate that there is insignificant difference in PCE achieved by MoO₃ and BZO based devices. This signifies that both TCOs (MoO₃ and BZO) have high optical transmission appropriate to be used as front contact for the fabrication of PSCs.

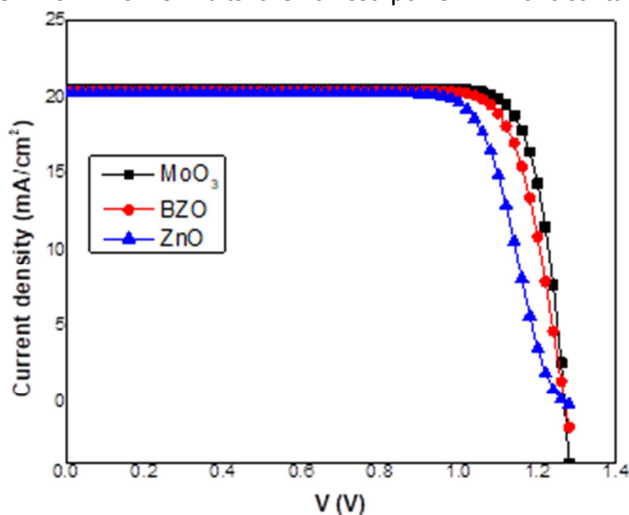


Figure 3. Influence of various TCOs on the J-V characteristics

Table 2. Photovoltaic parameters achieved using various TCOs

TCO	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	η (%)
MoO ₃	1.2685	20.55	80.06	21.91
BZO	1.2689	20.40	81.44	21.08
ZnO	1.2685	20.27	76.37	19.64

Effect of Absorber Thickness on the Performance of the Devices

The thickness of the absorber layer was varied from 400 nm to 1200 nm with the three selected TCOs (MoO₃/BZO/ZnO/TiO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃/Spiro-OMeTAD/Ag) and the remaining input parameters remain unchanged. The J-V characteristic curves obtained for the three devices are presented in Figure 4 and the photovoltaic performance are elucidated in Tables 3, 4 and 5. From the photovoltaic performances of all the devices, it could be seen clearly that the J_{sc} increases with increasing thickness of the absorber layer from 400 nm to

1200 nm. This is because large amount of photons will be absorbed by the layer. Hence, the excitation of excess charge carrier concentration causes the J_{sc} and the efficiency to increase as well (Koh *et al.*, 2015). However, it is observed from the results that there is a decrease in Voc as the thickness increased. An increase in the absorber layer thickness results to larger recombination rate due to long diffusion length as reported by (Stanic *et al.*, 2021). The optimal performance was achieved using MoO₃ as TCO with the highest PCE of 26.51 % and V_{oc}, J_{sc} and FF of 1.2096 V, 25.87 mA/cm² and 84.70 % respectively.

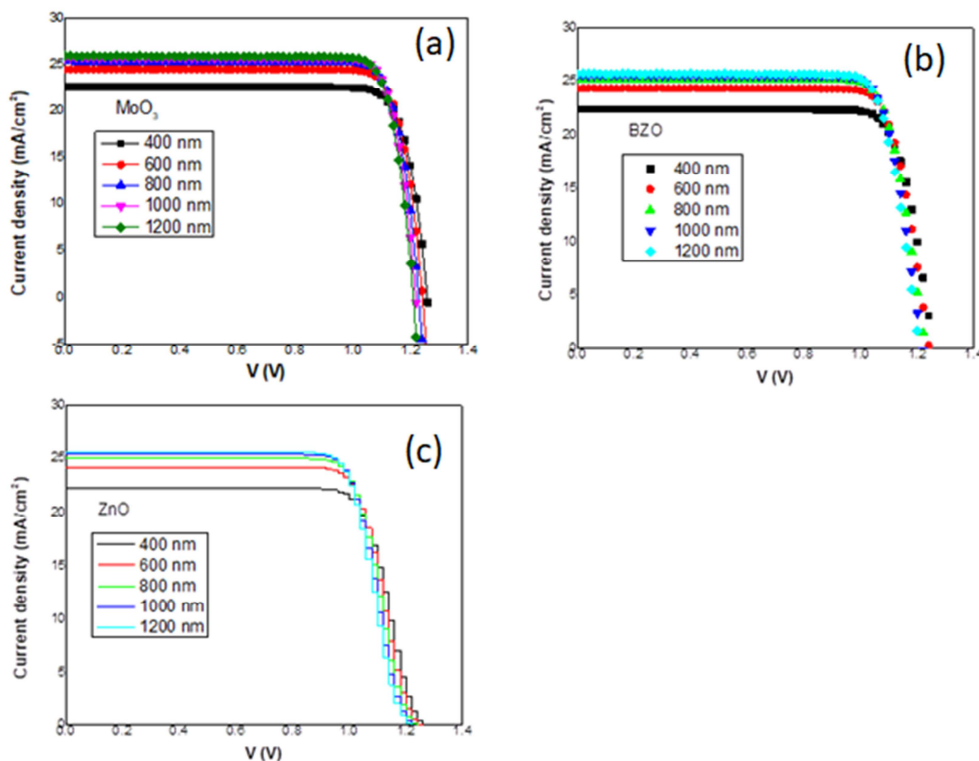


Figure 4. Effect of absorber layer thickness on the J-V characteristics using various TCO: (a) MoO₃, (b) BZO, and (c) ZnO.

Table 3. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using MoO₃ as TCO

Thickness (nm)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
400	1.2583	22.50	84.06	23.80
600	1.2418	24.46	84.18	25.57
800	1.2288	25.31	84.32	26.22
1000	1.2184	25.70	84.52	26.46
1200	1.2096	25.87	84.70	26.51

Table 4. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using BZO as TCO

Thickness (nm)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
400	1.2586	22.34	81.29	22.86
600	1.2421	24.31	81.23	24.53
800	1.2293	25.15	81.34	25.15
1000	1.2187	25.54	81.44	25.35
1200	1.2100	25.72	81.58	25.39

Table 5. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using ZnO as TCO

Thickness (nm)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
400	1.2586	22.21	76.10	21.28
600	1.2421	24.18	75.92	22.80
800	1.2290	25.02	75.94	23.35
1000	1.2188	25.41	76.02	23.54
1200	1.2097	25.58	76.15	23.57

Effect of Absorber Layer Band-Gap on the Performance of the Devices

One of the unique properties of the organic-inorganic halide perovskite is the tunable band gap. Band gap significantly affect the optical absorption of the light absorbing material. It has been reported that the band-gap energy of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ ranged between 1.45 eV to 1.7 eV (Lin et al., 2017, Casas et al., 2017; Karimi and Ghorashi, 2017). The effect of band-gap on the device performance was numerically investigated by changing the band-gap from 1.4eV to 1.7eV. The J-V characteristic curves and the electrical parameters obtained for the three devices are presented in Figure 5 and Tables 6, 7, and 8. The results show decrease in Jsc as the absorber

layer band-gap increased. This might be due to increased series resistance as the band-gap increased resulting to rapid drop in the J_{sc} and efficiency of the devices. The output results also indicates that Voc and FF increase with the increasing the band-gap. This can be explained that after electron-hole is generated by the absorber layer, the electrons and holes are separated by a greater energy barrier apart. Hence this leads Voc to increase as suggested by (Bishnoi and Pandey, 2018). However, the best device performance was realized using MoO₃ at 1.4 eV with the highest efficiency of 22.44 % and Voc, Jsc, and FF of 1.0842 V, 25.57 mA/cm² and 80.94 % respectively.

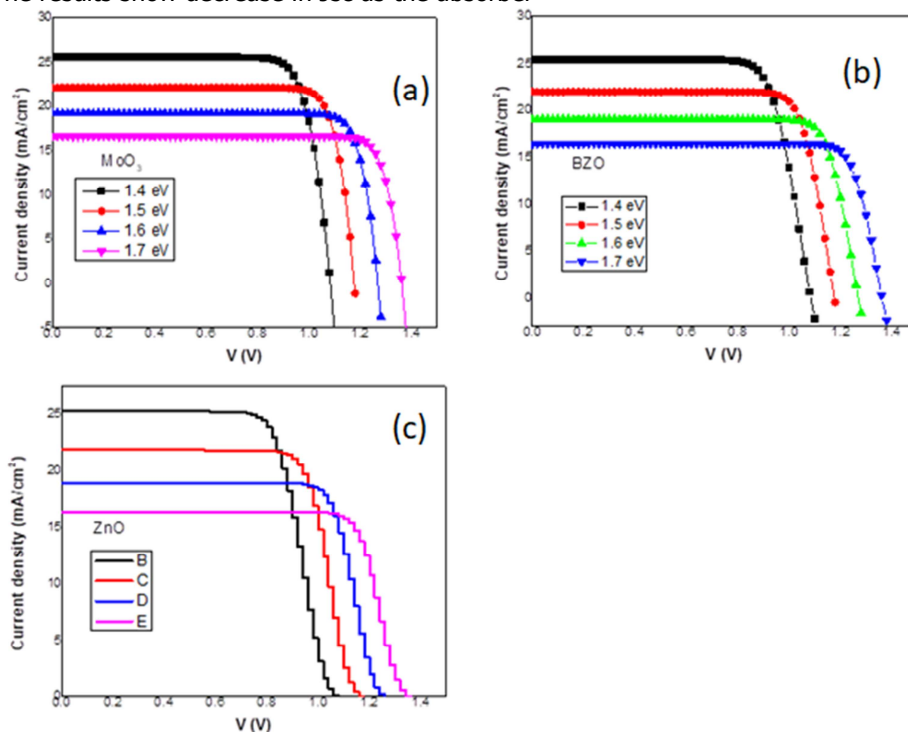


Figure 5. Effect of absorber layer band-gap on the J-V characteristics using various TCO: (a) MoO₃, (b) BZO, and (c) ZnO

Table 6. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using MoO₃ as TCO

Band-gap (eV)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
1.4	1.0842	25.57	80.94	22.44
1.5	1.1769	22.17	83.93	21.90
1.6	1.2689	19.22	85.26	19.54
1.7	1.3621	16.63	86.26	19.54

Table 7. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using BZO as TCO

Band-gap (eV)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
1.4	1.0846	25.42	77.53	21.38
1.5	1.1772	22.02	80.20	20.20
1.6	1.2693	19.07	82.74	20.03
1.7	1.3623	16.49	84.14	18.90

Table 8. Electrical outputs obtained at varied absorber layer thickness using ZnO as TCO

Band-gap (eV)	Voc (V)	Jsc (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
1.4	1.0845	25.30	71.50	19.61
1.5	1.1770	21.89	75.48	19.45
1.6	1.2689	18.94	77.70	18.69
1.7	1.3623	16.36	79.49	17.71

CONCLUSION

In this work, numerical simulation of lead-based perovskite solar cells employing various TCOs such as MoO₃, BZO and ZnO were investigated using SCAPS Simulating software. The device performances were also studied against varied thickness and band-gap energy of the absorber layer. Absorber layer thickness optimization results show that 1200 nm thickness is the optimum thickness value to achieve best photovoltaic performance for the studied perovskite solar cells architectures. Furthermore, the study provides theoretical highlights towards achieving efficient perovskite solar cells by

tuning the band-gap energy of the absorber layer. However, the best optimized result is realized using MoO₃ as TCO with efficiency of 22.44 %. It can be concluded that MoO₃ has the ability to substitute conventional FTO and ITO in perovskite solar cells.

Author contributions: F. Sani designed and simulated the perovskite-based solar cells and A.O. Musa revised the findings of the research. All authors contributed to the final version of the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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