

Received 19 December 2023, accepted 6 January 2024, date of publication 10 January 2024,
date of current version 19 January 2024.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2024.3352444

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Performance Enhancement of Lead-Free CsSnI₃ Perovskite Solar Cell: Design and Simulation With Different Electron Transport Layers

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ABSTRACT CsSnI₃ is a promising lead-free material that shows potential as a substitute for lead-based material in the development of ecologically benign perovskite solar cells (PSCs) due to its low cost, high efficiency, and excellent thermal stability. This research is intended to enhance the efficiency of CsSnI₃-based PSCs by employing numerical simulation through the One Dimensional Solar Cell Capacitance Simulator (SCAPS-1D) to optimize the optoelectronic properties of the electron transport layer (ETL), absorber layer, hole transport layer (HTL), and different interface layers. An investigation was conducted to evaluate the influence of different ETLs namely WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM on the performance of CsSnI₃-based PSCs utilizing poly (3-hexylthiophene-2,5-diyl) (P3HT) as the HTL. Moreover, the influence of variations in the thickness, doping density, and defect density of the absorber layer, ETL, and HTL on key photovoltaic parameters including power conversion efficiency (PCE), short-circuit current density (J_{SC}), open circuit voltage (V_{OC}), and fill factor (FF) was observed. The findings revealed that depending on the ETL employed, the PCE varies between the structures. For structures using WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀, and PCBM as ETL, the corresponding PCE values are 31.63%, 29.64%, 29.75%, and 29.62%. Additionally, for all PSC structures, the effects of interface defect, temperature, series-shunt resistance, capacitance-voltage characteristics, and Mott-Schottky plot have been observed, and the corresponding current density-voltage (J-V), quantum efficiency (QE), generation, and recombination rates have been computed. Finally, the outcomes of this analysis were compared with prior research conducted on CsSnI₃-based PSCs, thereby offering significant perspectives for their advancement and commercial viability.

INDEX TERMS Lead-free, CsSnI₃, perovskite solar cell, photovoltaic cells, PSCs, ETL, HTL, SCAPS-1D.

I. INTRODUCTION

Conventional energy sources including gas, oil, and coal are being used to meet the enormous demand for Power, despite their contributions to environmental pollution and climate change [1]. However, the supply of these sources is also limited [2]. Therefore researchers are consistently

The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Xiaodong Liang¹.

working to find ways to migrate from conventional energy sources to renewable ones like hydropower, solar, wind, etc. Among them, solar energy can be a great alternative due to its free availability, excellent harvestability, and higher energy recovery rate [3]. Solar cell (SC) exploits the fundamental principles of the photoelectric effect in order to transform solar energy into electrical energy [4]. Currently, commercially viable silicon-based solar cells are available, yet their PCE is constrained to a maximum of 26% [5].

In order to alleviate this constraint, PSCs have emerged as a prominent candidate within a variety of diverse SC types for their advantageous characteristics such as tunable bandgaps, prolonged diffusion length, superior performance in carrier transfer, and simplified manufacturing processes [6]. Lead-centered PSCs have greatly improved in efficiency since 2009 [7], increasing from 3.8% to 25.8% in 2022 [8]. Although lead-centered PSCs have advantages in terms of efficiency, concerns regarding lead (Pb) toxicity and related environmental impacts persist. This has led to a noticeable increase in the interest of researchers in lead-free perovskites. However, tin (Sn) stands among a group of non-toxic or low-toxicity elements, including germanium, selenium, and antimony, that possess potential as substitutes for lead within perovskite compositions [9]. Sn-based perovskites have similar optoelectronic characteristics to Pb but exhibit better carrier mobilities, smaller band gaps, and lower toxicity. CsSnI₃, an entirely inorganic perovskite, possesses a band gap of 1.3 eV and exhibits optoelectronic properties that closely resemble those of its lead-based counterpart.

Numerous investigations have revealed the remarkable PV performance exhibited by CsSnI₃ [10], [11], [12], [13], [14], [15], [16], [17], [18], [19], [20]. The presented PSC utilizes CsSnI₃ as the absorber layer within a Schottky SC configuration. This pioneering study achieved a PCE of 0.9% [11]. An innovative photovoltaic quantum dot solar (PVQD) cell utilizing CsSnI₃ perovskite has demonstrated noteworthy PCE of 5.03% through experimental assessment [12]. Similarly, the integration of a mixed ETL with a CsSnI₃ absorber yielded an enhanced efficiency of 6.08% [13]. In a separate investigation, a CsSnI₃ PSC incorporating mesoporous metal oxide achieved a remarkable PCE of 7.50% [14]. Notably, the utilization of Black-orthorhombic CsSnI₃ material in the SC led to a significant advancement, resulting in a PCE of 10.1% [15]. Subsequently, lead-free CsSnI₃ quantum rods achieved a notable PCE of 12.96% in PV applications under AM 1.5G conditions. This technique improves light absorption and charge extraction in the perovskite phase. This lead-free CsSnI₃ perovskite is synthesized using a solvothermal process [16]. Concurrently, a proposed solar cell based on CsSnI₃ with TiO₂ as the electron transport layer (ETL) demonstrated an enhanced efficiency of 20.13% [17]. In another study, focusing on the realm of melt-synthesized CsSnI₃-based PSCs, a projected PCE of 23% was anticipated [18]. Moreover, CsSnI₃ with various charge transport layers was numerically simulated and discovered a maximum PCE of 24.73% [19]. Most recently, a numerical analysis of β - γ -CsSnI₃ was conducted and found a PCE value of 28.76% [20]. All of the aforementioned investigations unequivocally support the promise of CsSnI₃ PSCs in terms of PCE, while also demonstrating long-term thermal stability as well as illustrating the influence of various charge transport layers on photovoltaic (PV) key parameters.

In this study, lead-free CsSnI₃-based optimized PSC having Al/FTO/ETL/CsSnI₃/P3HT/Au architecture is presented that incorporates suitable ETLs to effectively enhance

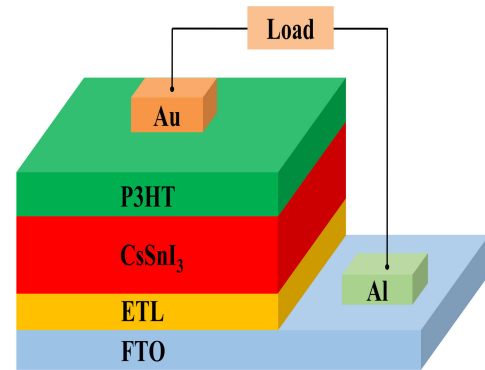


FIGURE 1. Schematic structure of the designed PSC.

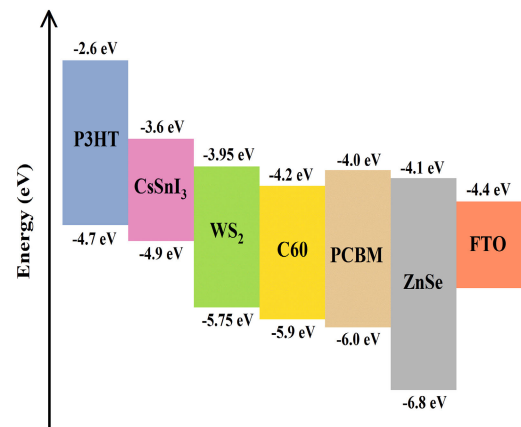


FIGURE 2. Materials energy band alignment.

its PV efficacy. P3HT has been selected as the HTL in the proposed PSC for its excellent hole mobility, cost-effectiveness, and stability [21]. While TiO₂ is a widely adopted ETL for PSCs, it exhibits limitations such as lower charge mobility and instability in the U-V region [22], prompting the exploration of alternative ETL materials. The device structure under investigation encompassed four different ETLs, namely WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀, and PCBM. ETL in PSCs facilitates electron extraction and transport, preventing electrical shunts as well as potential reactions between transparent conducting oxide (TCO) and perovskite layer, and ideally possesses high electron mobility and hole-blocking capabilities. Subsequently, across four configurations, the effects of the absorber, HTL and ETL thickness, doping density, defect density, interface defects, series-shunt resistance, and temperature on key performance parameters of PSC were thoroughly analyzed. Furthermore, this study explores the properties of capacitance-voltage relationship (C-V), generation-recombination rate, J-V Curve and QE in order to improve the performance of PSCs based on CsSnI₃ by appropriate integration of the ETL.

II. DEVICE DESIGN AND SIMULATION

A. PROPOSED CsSnI₃ PSC ARCHITECTURE

In the designed PSC structure (Al/FTO/ETL/CsSnI₃/P3HT/Au), illustrated in Figure 1, CsSnI₃ functions as the absorber layer, significantly impacting the PV parameters due to

TABLE 1. Input parameters of various layers used in simulation.

Parameters	FTO [23], [24]	P3HT [25], [26]	CsSnI ₃ [3], [27]	WS ₂ [28]–[30]	ZnSe [31], [32]	C ₆₀ [33]	PCBM [34]
Thickness (μm)	0.5	0.05-0.5	0.4-1.2	0.03-0.5	0.03-0.5	0.03-0.5	0.03-0.5
Band gap (eV)	3.5	2	1.3	1.8	2.7	1.7	2
Affinity (eV)	4	3.2	3.9	3.95	4.09	3.9	3.9
Dielectric Permittivity	9	4.2	18	13.6	10	4.2	3.9
CB effective DOS (cm^{-3})	2.2×10^{18}	2×10^{21}	2.2×10^{17}	1×10^{18}	1.5×10^{18}	8×10^{19}	2.5×10^{21}
VB effective DOS (cm^{-3})	1.8×10^{19}	2×10^{21}	1.8×10^{19}	2.4×10^{19}	1.8×10^{19}	8×10^{19}	2.5×10^{21}
Electron mobility ($\text{cm}^2 \text{Vs}^{-1}$)	20	1.8×10^{-3}	1500	1×10^7	50	100	0.2
Hole mobility ($\text{cm}^2 \text{Vs}^{-1}$)	10	1.8×10^{-3}	585	1×10^7	20	25	0.2
Donor Density (cm^{-3})	1×10^{17}	0	0	10^{15} - 10^{20}	10^{15} - 10^{20}	10^{15} - 10^{20}	10^{15} - 10^{20}
Acceptor Density (cm^{-3})	0	10^{14} - 10^{20}	10^{11} - 10^{18}	0	0	0	0
Defect Density (cm^{-3})	1×10^{15}	10^{12} - 10^{18}	10^{11} - 10^{18}	10^{11} - 10^{17}	10^{11} - 10^{17}	10^{11} - 10^{17}	10^{11} - 10^{17}

TABLE 2. Input parameters of interface and bulk defect [35], [36].

Parameter	FTO/ETL Interface	ETL/CsSnI ₃ Interface	CsSnI ₃ /HTL Interface	Bulk CsSnI ₃
Defect type	neutral	neutral	neutral	neutral
Total Defect Density (cm^{-3})	1×10^{11}	10^{10} - 10^{18}	10^{11} - 10^{20}	10^{11} - 10^{18}
Electron capture cross section (cm^2)	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-15}
Hole capture cross section (cm^2)	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-19}	1×10^{-15}
Energy distribution	Gaussian	Gaussian	Gaussian	Gaussian
Reference defect energy level	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6

its optical absorption characteristics. The PSC architecture employs P3HT and fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) as HTL and TCO, respectively, with Aluminum (Al) and Gold (Au) serving as front and rear contacts. Four different ETL materials, specifically WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀, and PCBM were employed in the study. The interaction between ETL and HTL has a significant influence on the transportation and extraction of charges produced in the absorber layer, hence affecting key parameters such as V_{OC} , PCE, FF, and J_{SC} . The V_{OC} is influenced by the disparity in Fermi energy levels between the ETL and HTL. Additionally, the enhanced charge mobility of the ETL leads to a commensurate increase in the FF and J_{SC} . The successful extraction of holes is facilitated by the combination of high hole mobility and suitable ionization potential of the HTL. Consequently, the parameters of ETL and HTL play significant roles in enhancing the overall performance of PSCs. The band diagram of the PSC device configuration based on CsSnI₃ is depicted in Figure 2.

B. NUMERICAL SIMULATION APPROACH

In this research work, the designed PSC architectures were numerically analyzed by employing Solar Cell Capacitance Simulator (SCAPS-1D) software. SCAPS-1D is a program that can be used to model SCs in a single dimension. It was created at the Department of Electronics and Information Systems (ELIS) at the University of Gent in Belgium. It has the capability to accommodate a maximum of seven distinct layers. These layers consist of six interface layers and two electrodes [37]. The software performs computations to determine PV parameters (PCE, FF, V_{OC} and J_{SC}) by leveraging the Poisson equation, continuity equation, and current density equation. Equation (1) represents Poisson’s equation that establishes the connection between the electrostatic potential and the distribution of charge density. The continuity equations for electrons and holes can be expressed mathematically as (2) and (3), respectively. The computation of electron and hole current densities was conducted utilizing

(4) and (5), respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} &= -\frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_s} \\ &= -\frac{q}{\epsilon_s} [p - n + N_D^+(x) - N_A^-(x) \pm N_{\text{def}}(x)] \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial j_n}{\partial x} + G_n - U_n(n, p) = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$-\frac{\partial j_p}{\partial x} + G_p - U_p(n, p) = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$j_n = qn\mu_n E + qD_n \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \quad (4)$$

$$j_p = qp\mu_p E - qD_p \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \quad (5)$$

where electric field, charge density, charge of electron, electrostatic potential, relative permittivity, electron/hole concentration, and rate of electron/hole generation is represented by E , ρ , q , ψ , ϵ , n/p , G_n/G_p respectively. Also, N_D^+/N_A^- represents ionized donor/acceptor density, D_p/D_n represents the coefficient of diffusion for hole/electron, $U(n,p)$ denotes the overall recombination rate, μ_p/μ_n denotes hole/electron mobility [38], [39]. The numerical simulation of the designed PSCs was performed under controlled parameters, including a solar radiation intensity of 100 mW/cm², a radiation frequency of 1MHz and AM 1.5G solar spectrum. These conditions are maintained at an operating temperature of 300K. The incident light is postulated to originate from the top of TCO, specifically FTO, which has a work function of 4.4 eV. The rear contact is constructed from gold (Au) and exhibits a work function of 5.1 eV. In accordance with previous simulation outcomes, the thickness of the FTO layer was established at 0.5 μm [40]. During the optimization of a specific parameter, the other parameters were maintained constant. Table 1 presents the optoelectronic properties of the materials employed in this study during SCAPS-1D simulation and Table 2 demonstrates the input parameters related to interface defect. At room temperature, the thermal velocity for electrons and holes within each layer is considered to be 10⁷ cm/s, influencing mobility and recombination dynamics. The improvement of carrier collecting efficacy can be achieved through the enhancement of thermal velocities. However, it is important to note that this enhancement may also lead to an increase in recombination rates. Consequently, the diffusion length can be affected, which in turn has a negative impact on PCE [41].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. IMPACT ON PV PARAMETERS FOR THE VARIATION OF ABSORBER DEFECT DENSITY AND THICKNESS

The performance of CsSnI₃-based PSCs is greatly influenced by the variation in thickness and defect density of the absorber layer. This is because they directly impact light absorption and the generation of charge carriers within the absorber layer. Specifically, a thinner absorber layer usually results

in reduced sunlight absorption, as it accommodates fewer photons, potentially diminishing PCE. On the contrary, PCE may rise as a result of improved light absorption from a thicker layer. However, excessive thick layer can also lead to greater electron-hole recombination and impede charge transport, lowering the efficiency. Additionally, thicker layers may also have an impact on mechanical stability and manufacturing consistency. Furthermore, defects are more prone to emerge in thicker absorber layer, reducing SC efficiency to a greater extent. High defect density results in low carrier diffusion length and a high recombination process, which lead to lower PV performance [42]. Therefore, it is a must to investigate optimal defect density in relation to absorber layer thickness. For this reason, the thickness was varied from 0.4 μm to 1.2 μm while the total defect density ranged from 10¹¹ cm⁻³ to 10¹⁸ cm⁻³, concurrently. The contour plots in Figure (3-6) show that the PV parameters varied in a very similar way across all of the ETL. The V_{OC} of WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM has drastically decreased from 1.21 V to 0.87 V, 1.10 V to 0.78 V, 1.18 V to 0.87 V and 1.11 V to 0.802 V respectively. These structures showed that V_{OC} values are highest when defect density is less than 10¹⁷ cm⁻³ and thickness is between 0.4 μm to 0.9 μm . This variance in V_{OC} is attributable to longer diffusion length and higher carrier lifespan within the specified range [43]. However, the structure with WS₂ ETL had the highest V_{OC} value, while the one with ZnSe ETL had the lowest. Similar trends in J_{SC} values were seen across all four structures in Figure 4(a-d). J_{SC} starts to increase when the thickness is beyond 0.8 μm and the defect density lies below 10¹⁷ cm⁻³. The rise in J_{SC} happens because as the absorber layer thickens, its effective surface area increases, allowing more light to be absorbed and creating more charge carriers [44]. Conversely, recombination driven by high defect density lowers J_{SC} above that level of defect density [45]. The J_{SC} of structures consisting of WS₂, ZnSe, PCBM and C₆₀ attained approximately 31.09 mA/cm², 32.77 mA/cm², 30.85 mA/cm², and 32.62 mA/cm², respectively. Having the same variation in defect density and thickness, FF also declines from 87.86% to 84.40%, 83.75% to 69.15%, 84.54% to 80.08% and 84.42% to 76.22% for WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM respectively in Figure 5(a-d). Since FF is influenced by the V_{OC} and recombination rate at the depletion area, it follows the same trend as V_{OC} [46]. Further, intermediate defect densities exhibited favourable FF values for organic ETL. This may be a consequence of specific defects serving as passivators for more profound trap states [47]. In addition, ZnSe exhibits significant deterioration in the Fill Factor.

Figure 6(a-d) shows a drastic decrease in PCE of the PSCs for WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM from 37.40% to 21%, 32.35% to 16.75%, 32.20% to 20.15% and 32.20% to 18.90% respectively. Again, ZnSe demonstrated a higher PCE reduction rate (about 49%) than the other structures. PCE exhibits higher values for thickness over 0.6 μm and defect densities below 10¹⁶ cm⁻³. A thicker absorber layer (> 0.6 μm) increases carrier production through light absorption,

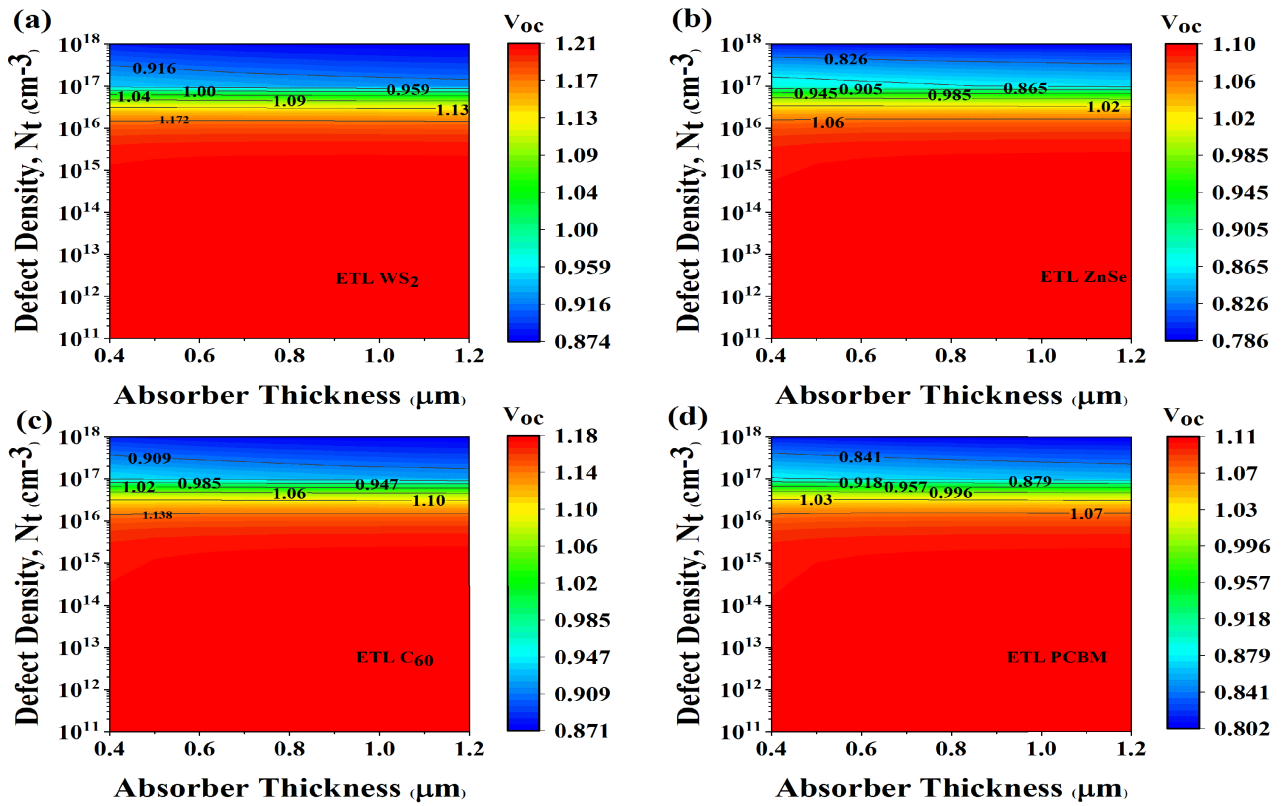


FIGURE 3. Contour plot demonstrating V_{oc} for the variation of absorber layer thickness and defect concentration using (a) WS_2 , (b) ZnSe , (c) C_{60} and (d) PCBM as ETLs.

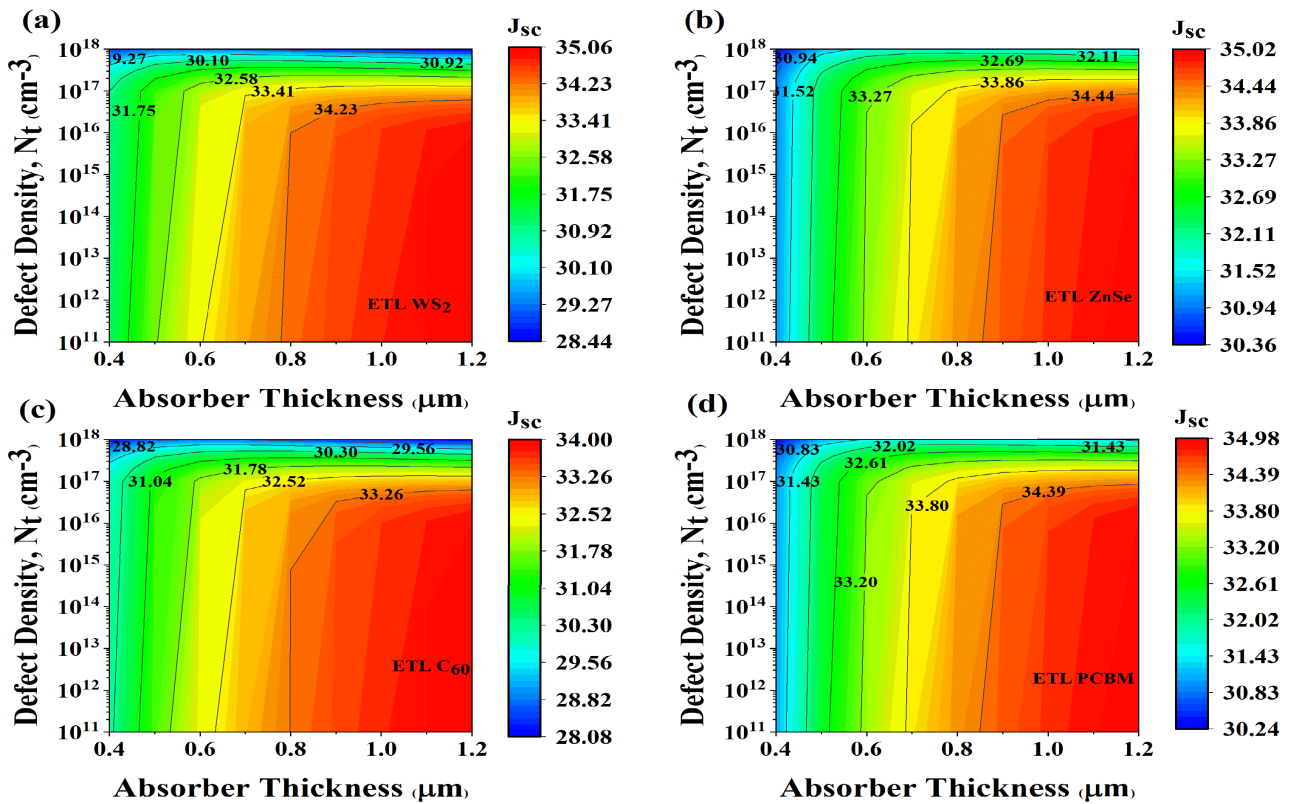


FIGURE 4. Contour plot demonstrating J_{sc} for the variation of absorber layer thickness and defect concentration using (a) WS_2 , (b) ZnSe , (c) C_{60} , and (d) PCBM as ETLs.

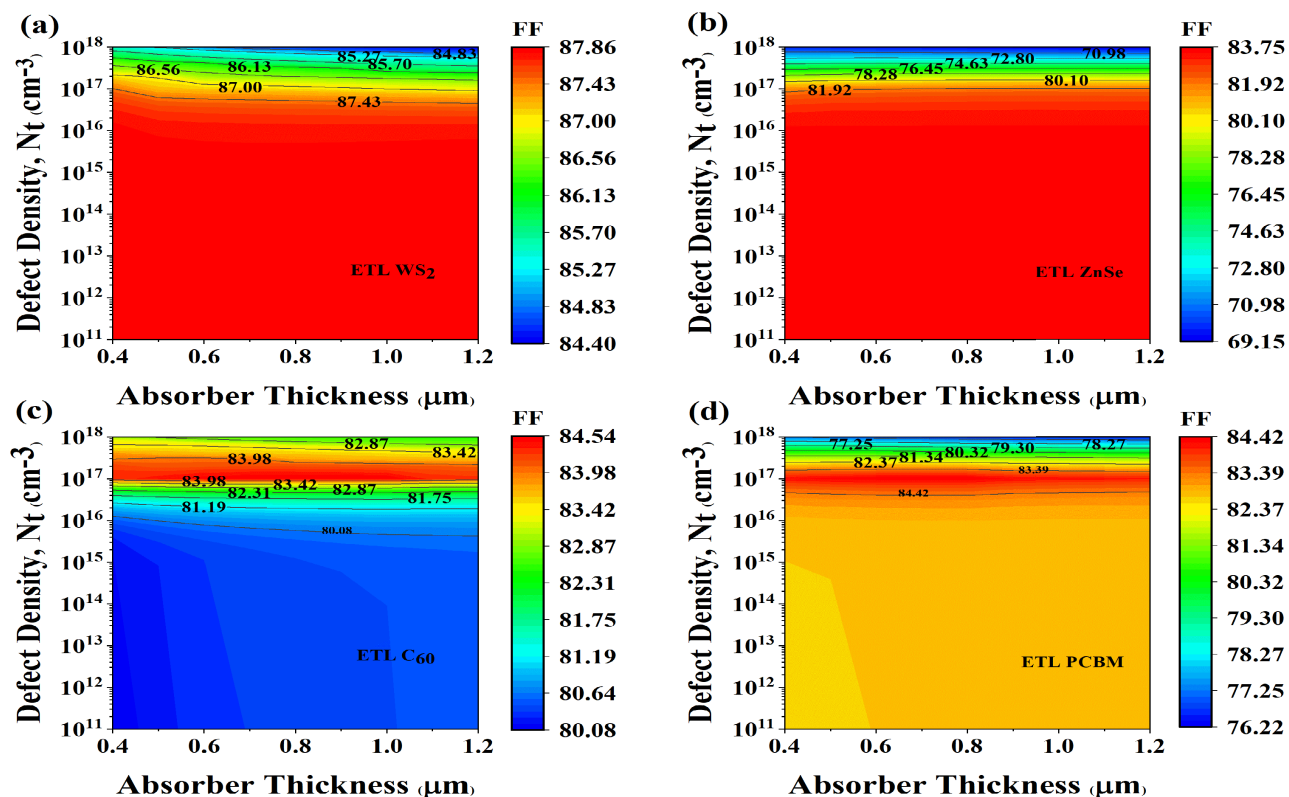


FIGURE 5. Contour plot demonstrating FF for the variation of absorber layer thickness and defect concentration using (a) WS_2 , (b) ZnSe , (c) C_{60} and (d) PCBM as ETLs.

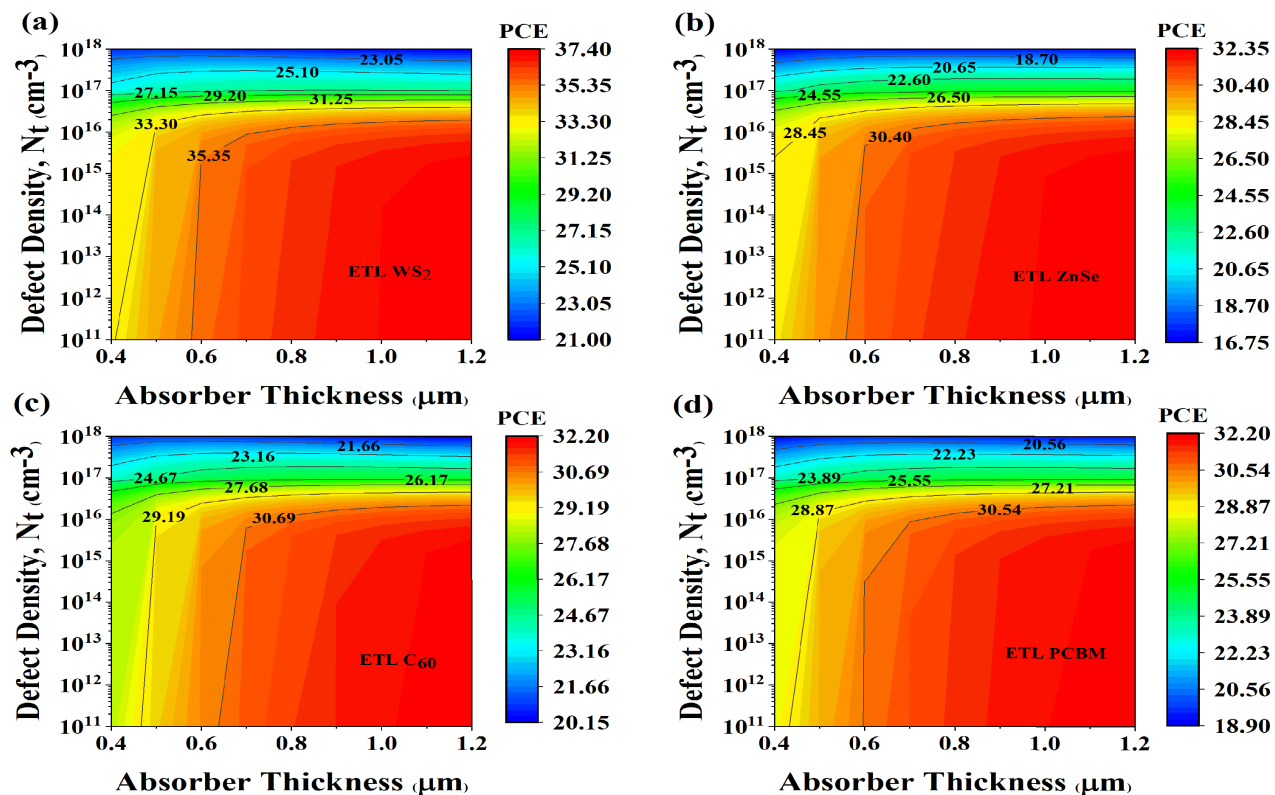


FIGURE 6. Contour plot demonstrating PCE for the variation of absorber layer thickness and defect concentration using (a) WS_2 , (b) ZnSe , (c) C_{60} , and (d) PCBM as ETLs.

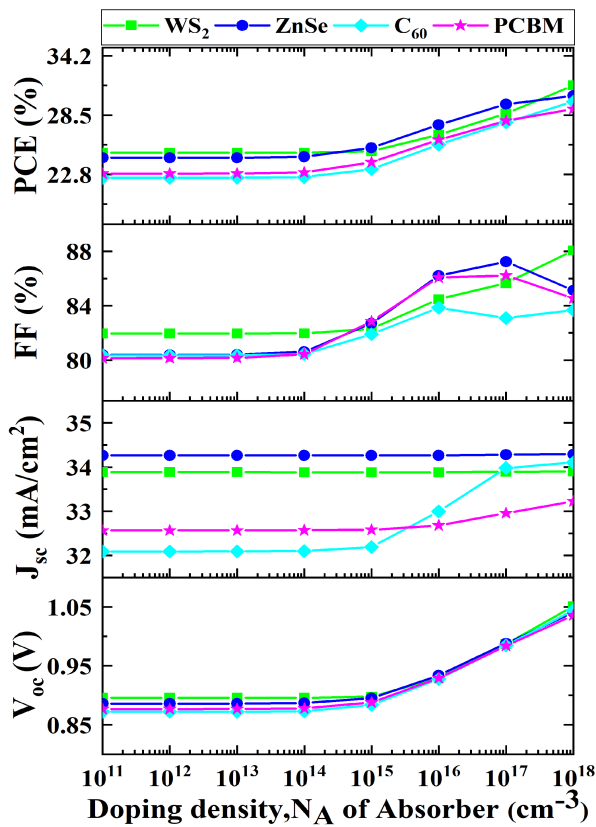


FIGURE 7. Demonstrating PV parameters for the variation of absorber layer acceptor density.

while defect density ($< 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$) reduces non-radiative recombination. The notable PCE within the specified range of absorber layer thickness and defect density is due to the combined influence of those factors [48]. Therefore, the PV cell's overall performance has been considerably impacted by the combined factors of thickness and total defect density. Based on the aforementioned assessment, it has been determined that the ideal thickness and total defect density of the absorber layer are decided to be $0.8 \mu\text{m}$ and 10^{16} cm^{-3} , respectively, in order to provide viable properties of a proficient absorber layer.

B. IMPACT OF ABSORBER LAYER DOPING DENSITY ON PV PERFORMANCE

The efficiency of the SC can be enhanced by employing precise doping on the absorbing material [49]. However, excessive doping might be unfavorable due to its non-conventional nature, potential hindrance to the mechanism of carrier transport and increased fabrication complexity [50]. Thus, the doping concentration of the absorber was changed from 10^{11} cm^{-3} to 10^{18} cm^{-3} to determine the optimum value during the simulation. Figure 7 demonstrates that the V_{OC} of all ETL associated structure has stayed constant for N_A values up to 10^{15} cm^{-3} , and thereafter increases with the N_A . An increase in N_A lowers the Fermi energy of the holes, leading to a higher value of V_{OC} [51]. All ETLs have the

same trend in PCE up to 10^{14} cm^{-3} , but after that, the PCE increases as the N_A becomes higher. The consistent J_{SC} in WS₂ and ZnSe associated structures despite varying N_A may be attributed to their limited band binding behavior. These findings are quite consistent with the SC outputs on altering the absorber doping reported in prior investigations [52], [53]. For the organic ETL based structures, J_{SC} remains constant up to 10^{15} cm^{-3} and then increases as N_A rises due to improved band alignment. FF stays the same up until 10^{14} cm^{-3} for all of the ETLs, after which it starts to rise in a different manner. Since absorber doping has had a profound impact throughout the simulation, choosing an appropriate acceptor doping concentration is crucial for maximizing device performance [54]. Optimal N_A of the absorber layer is established at 10^{18} cm^{-3} , 10^{17} cm^{-3} , 10^{16} cm^{-3} and 10^{17} cm^{-3} for the WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM ETLs respectively, considering the superior performance in PCE and FF.

C. EFFECT OF ETL LAYER THICKNESS, DOPING, AND DEFECT ON PV PERFORMANCE

1) EFFECT OF ETL LAYER THICKNESS

ETL performs an indispensable role in electron extraction from the absorber layer [55]. In the current study, the thickness of WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM as ETL layer was varied from $0.03 \mu\text{m}$ to $0.5 \mu\text{m}$. This is evident from Figure 8(a) that thickness has a negligible effect on the inorganic ETL i.e. WS₂ and ZnSe due to their transparent nature. A similar pattern is observed in previous literature too [56], [57]. On the contrary, there is a marginal diminution in the parameters using organic ETL i.e. C₆₀ and PCBM due to the formation of larger pinholes which is identical to the previous literature [58]. There is only an exception in the FF of the C₆₀-based one as it decreases first, then increased significantly. Yue et al. reported a similar pattern for C₆₀ as ETL-based structure [59]. Thus, selecting a proper ETL with optimum thickness is important. In this study, $0.03 \mu\text{m}$ is taken as the optimum thickness for further simulation.

2) IMPACT OF DOPING DENSITY OF ETL LAYER

Small amounts of impurity atoms can enhance solar cell performance [60]. The effect of changing the doping concentration (N_D) from 10^{15} cm^{-3} to 10^{20} cm^{-3} on the PV characteristics of several ETLs including WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM is shown in Figure 8(b). It is found that an increase in ETL doping results in a marginal enhancement in J_{SC} for all configurations which reaches saturation at 10^{17} cm^{-3} . In contrast, it exhibits almost constant progress for open-circuit voltage, Fill Factor, and PCE as doping gets higher. Therefore, it can be concluded that raising the doping level did not make any substantial improvement across all the structures in this study. A very similar pattern has been documented in prior research studies [61]. For the purpose of further optimization, the value of N_D was set as 10^{17} cm^{-3} .

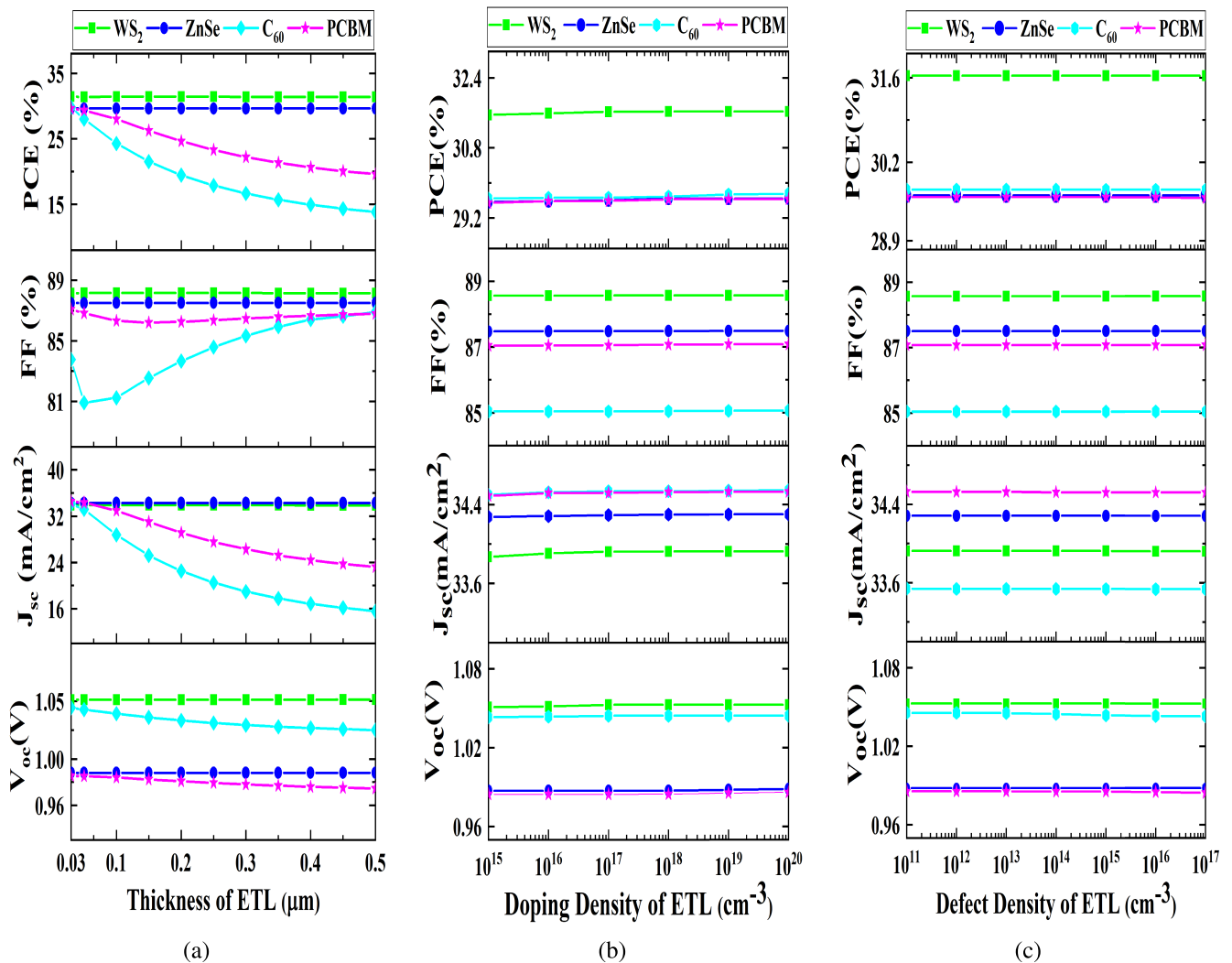


FIGURE 8. Demonstrating PV parameters for the variation of (a) ETL thickness, (b) ETL donor doping density, and (c) ETL defect density.

3) IMPACT OF DEFECT DENSITY OF ETL LAYER

Figure 8(c) demonstrated that all performance parameters exhibited almost constant values across all ETL layers as defect density (N_t) increased from 10¹¹ cm⁻³ to 10¹⁷ cm⁻³. Thus, the repercussion of higher defect density of ETL on device configurations is negligible. The previously published work also exhibits resembling behavior [62]. The simulation disclosed that the WS₂ associated structure did not exhibit a better J_{sc} value, but it performed exceptionally well in every other parameter. With a V_{oc} of 1.0527 V, a J_{sc} of 33.923 mA/cm² and an FF of 88.570%, the WS₂-related structure achieved the greatest efficiency of 31.629%. On the contrary, the structure using PCBM as the ETL demonstrated the worst performance in terms of both V_{oc} and PCE, despite showing the greatest values of J_{sc} (34.529 mA/cm²). Furthermore, it is found that the structure associated with C₆₀ had the lowest fill factor of 85.04%. In this study, the optimized N_t is set to 10¹⁵ cm⁻³ for all four device structures.

D. EFFECT OF HTL LAYER THICKNESS, DOPING AND DEFECT DENSITY ON PV PERFORMANCE

1) EFFECT OF HTL LAYER THICKNESS

Figure 9(a) shows the output parameters with increasing HTL thickness for different combinations of ETL. The thickness was varied from 0.05 μm to 0.5 μm to obtain an optimum value. It is noticed from the figure that, V_{oc} and J_{sc} remained constant whereas there was a negligible decrease in FF and PCE. It has been previously documented by Hossain et al. [63]. This is because CsSn₃ has high absorption coefficient and it is less susceptible to the thickness of the HTL layer [27]. Yet, the perovskite layer is better able to collect photons when the HTL is thicker [64]. Therefore, the thickness of HTL layer was kept at 0.1 μm for further optimization.

2) IMPACT OF VARIATION IN DOPING DENSITY AT HTL LAYER

Figure 9(b) demonstrates the influence of PV parameters with increasing acceptor concentration (N_A) of HTL for four

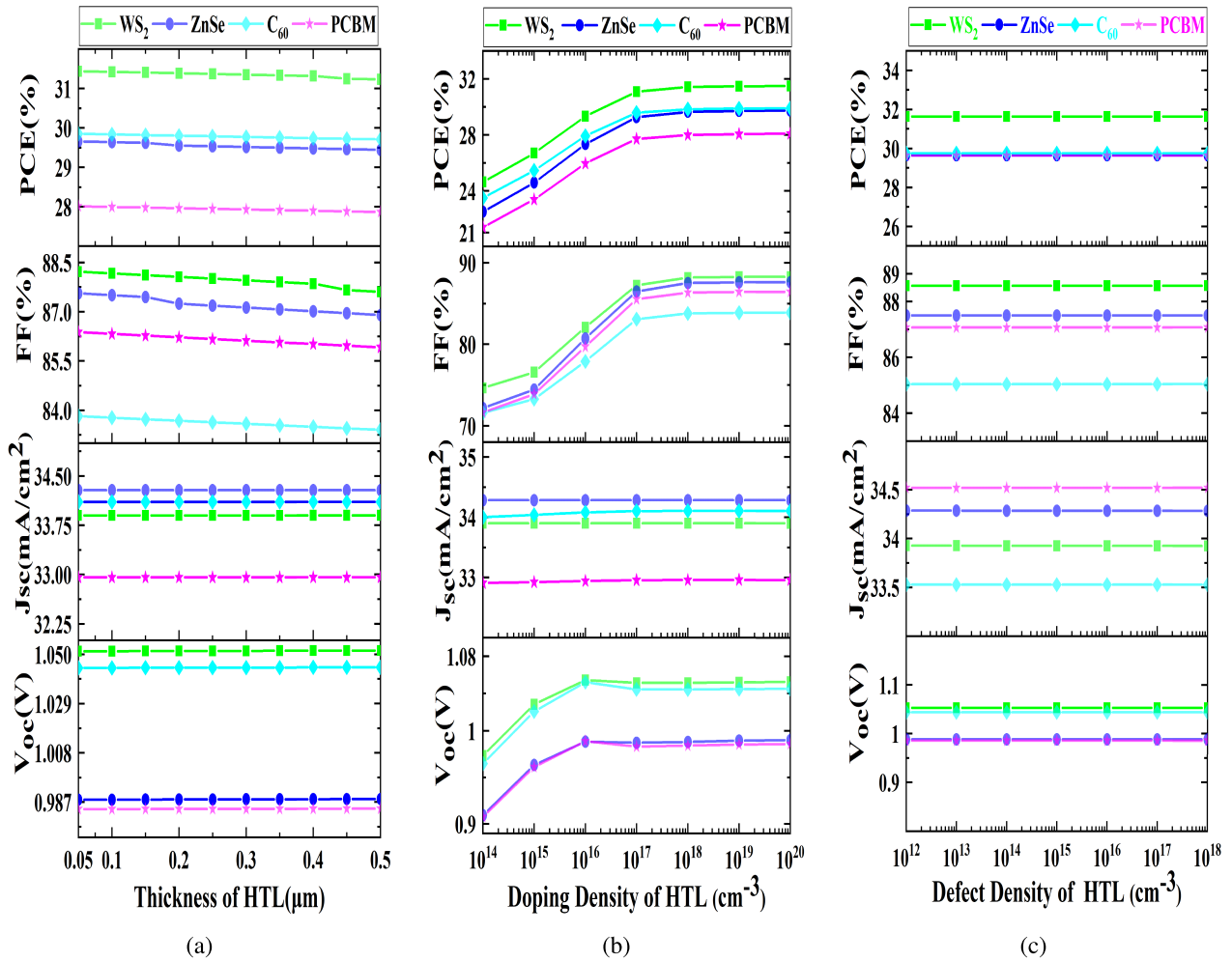


FIGURE 9. Demonstrating PV parameters for the variation of (a) HTL thickness, (b) HTL Acceptor doping density and (c) HTL defect density.

individual architectures. N_A of HTL layer was ranged from 10¹⁴ cm⁻³ to 10²⁰ cm⁻³. It is found from the figure that V_{OC} initially increased up to 10¹⁶ cm⁻³ with variation in N_A and then remained constant. A similar trend has been observed in the case of FF and PCE. Both the parameters increased decisively up to 10¹⁷ cm⁻³ and after that remained constant. The increase in the parameters is owing to the improvement in the electric field because it facilitates the charge carrier extraction [65]. But there was no significant change in J_{SC} . This means N_A variation of the HTLs has a negligible impact on J_{SC} . Overall, WS₂ showed the best performance. Previous studies have already mentioned a similar pattern in the SC parameters [66]. The ideal concentration of the hole transport layer was taken as 10¹⁷ cm⁻³ for further optimization.

3) IMPACT OF VARIATION IN DEFECT DENSITY AT HTL LAYER

Figure 9(c) shows the influence of PV parameters with increasing defect density of HTL. The density of neutral type defect was varied from 10¹² cm⁻³ to 10¹⁸ cm⁻³, while the remaining parameters were maintained at their

optimized values. The value of V_{OC} , J_{SC} , FF, and PCE was almost constant throughout this variation. This may be related to the high absorption coefficient of CsSnI₃ or the high carrier mobility of P3HT. Previously, the same behavior was observed when the effect of HTL defect density was investigated [61], [67]. However, the optimum density was determined to be 10¹² cm⁻³ for further simulation.

E. EFFECT OF INTERFACE DEFECT DENSITY ON PV PERFORMANCE

1) IMPACT OF DEFECT DENSITY AT HTL/CsSnI₃ INTERFACE

The effectiveness of solar cell is greatly influenced because of the recombination losses in the interface [68]. To investigate the influence of interface recombination occurring at interfaces between HTL and CsSnI₃, the defect density (N_t) had ranged from 10¹¹ cm⁻³ to 10²⁰ cm⁻³. Figure 10(a) shows that the V_{OC} is almost constant up to 10¹³ cm⁻³. Beyond this concentration, V_{OC} drops significantly for all the structures. WS₂ had the highest V_{OC} of 1.052 V, while PCBM had the lowest of 0.881 V for varying N_t . For all structures, there were no appreciable changes in J_{SC} when

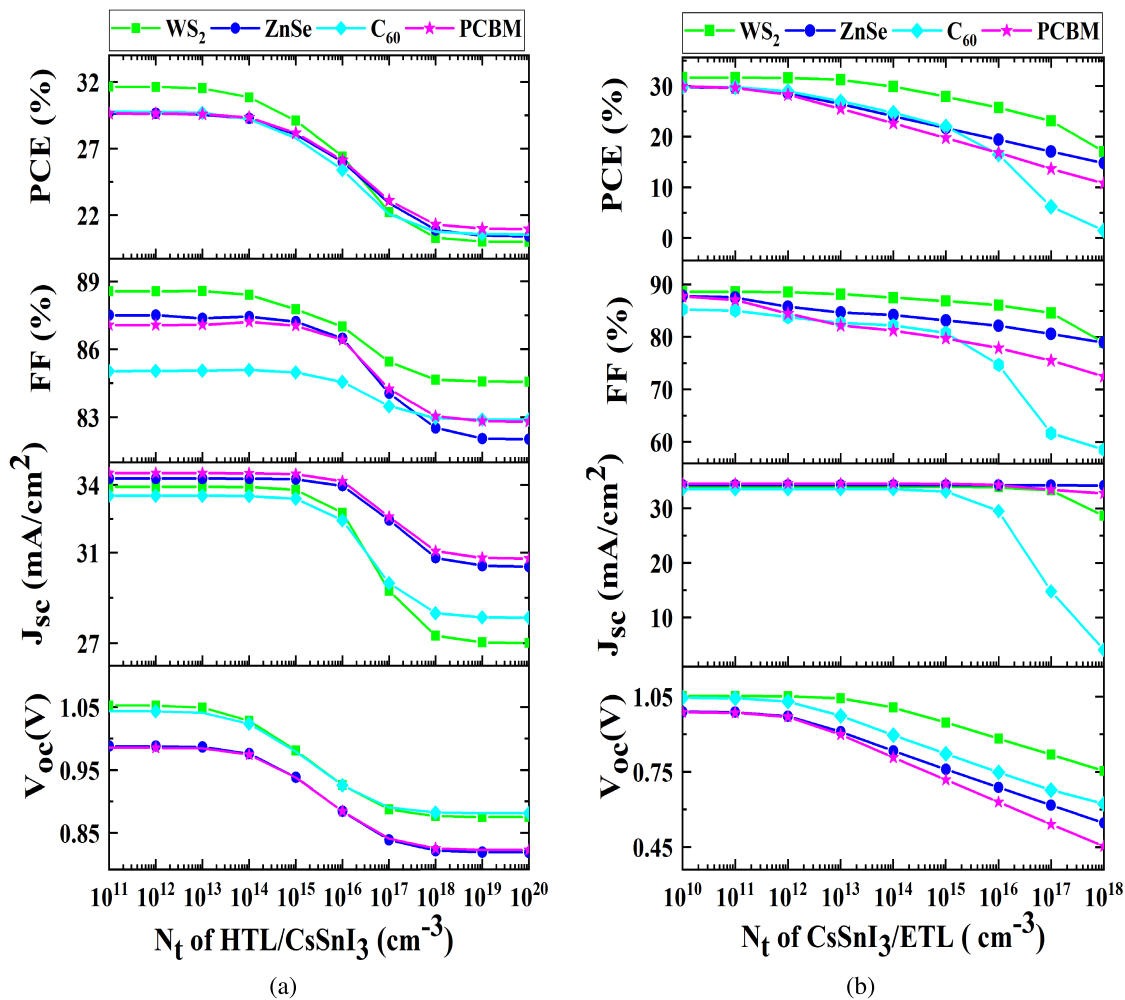


FIGURE 10. Impact of variation in interface defect density of the (a) HTL/CsSnI₃ and (b) CsSnI₃/ETL on Cell Parameters.

the defect concentration was increased up to 10¹⁵ cm⁻³. J_{sc} significantly declines over this concentration. The PCE, as well as FF values, showed a similar downward trend as V_{oc} when the defect density (N_t) across HTL/CsSnI₃ Interface increased. Due to higher trap and recombination centers because of higher defect concentrations at the interfaces, the solar cell parameter has dramatically dropped, lowering SC performance [66]. Therefore, a value of 10¹² cm⁻³ was set for further simulation.

2) IMPACT OF DEFECT DENSITY AT CsSnI₃/ETL INTERFACE

Figure 10(b) demonstrates the impact of defect density across CsSnI₃/ETL interface when N_t was raised from 10¹⁰ cm⁻³ to 10¹⁸ cm⁻³. The study found that the value of V_{oc}, J_{sc}, FF, and PCE declines as N_t is raised. The V_{oc}, FF and PCE remained constant till 10¹¹ cm⁻³ and then starts declining with increment in N_t. J_{sc} almost remained constant till the defect of 10¹⁵ cm⁻³ and then varies in a different manner. The C₆₀-associated structure had the lowest FF, J_{sc} and PCE value of 56.87%, 2.283 mA/cm² and 0.83%, respectively. In the case of V_{oc}, PCBM demonstrated the lowest value,

which was less than 0.35 V. Overall, the worst tolerance against the interface defect was shown by the C₆₀-associated structure whereas ZnSe showed the best. The results also show that the V_{oc} is highly susceptible to changes in N_t compared to J_{sc}. Again, it has been found that defects in the performance of SC is affected by the ETL/CsSnI₃ interface more so than the CsSnI₃/HTL interface. Light entering the solar cell by ETL causes the front side to have a higher carrier generation and recombination rate than the back side [69]. Tan et al. observed a similar pattern [70]. However, the ideal defect density value was determined to be 10¹¹ cm⁻³, which is identical to the result obtained in prior research [71].

F. IMPACT OF PARASITIC RESISTANCES AND TEMPERATURE

1) IMPACT OF SERIES RESISTANCE (R_s)

Series resistance is a result of the PSC's internal resistance, terminal resistance and metal electrode resistance [72]. Figure 11(a) illustrates the influence of R_s affecting the performance parameters of WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM-based perovskite solar cells. Keeping R_{sh} set at 10⁵ Ω-cm², R_s

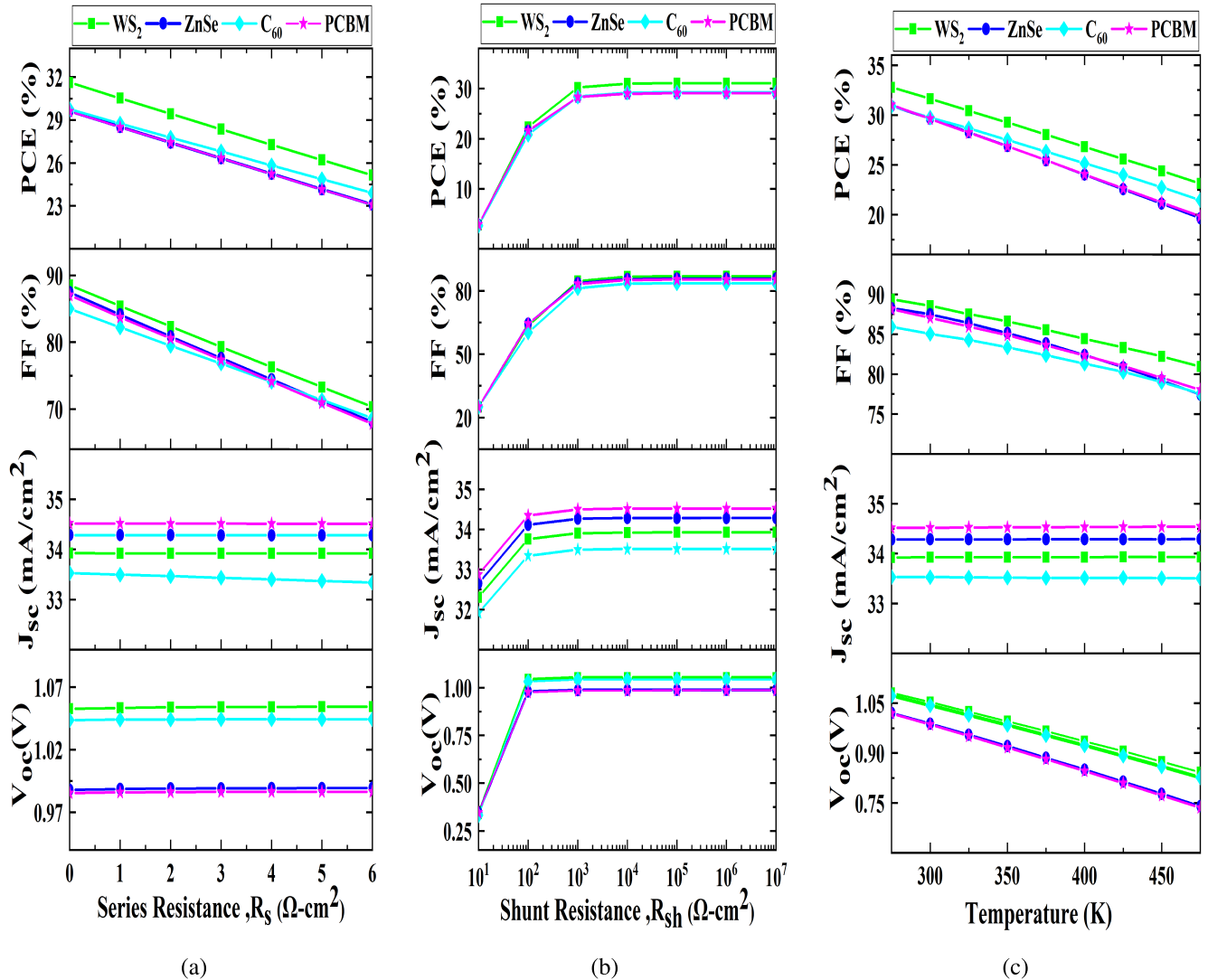


FIGURE 11. Impact of (a) series resistance (R_s), (b) shunt resistance (R_{sh}), and (c) temperature on Cell Performance.

is ranged from 0 Ω-cm² to 6 Ω-cm². It has been observed that the FF and PCE have decreased by an average of 20% from their maximum value due to increasing power dissipation for all four perovskite device structures [73]. The lowest PCE and FF values were shown by PCBM ETL-based structure, whilst the highest PCE and FF values were shown by WS₂ ETL-based structure for the variation of R_s. The V_{OC} and J_{SC} remained almost unchanged with increasing series resistance for all configurations. That means the variation in series resistance can't influence the V_{OC} as well as J_{SC} for the investigated device configurations. A similar pattern of results where series resistance had no impact on the current was reported by Sunny et al. [74]. Another study by Pooja et al. reported that series resistance could not alter the open circuit voltage [75]. However, it can be stated that series resistance needs to be minimized to a minimum value so that the best performance can be attained.

2) IMPACT OF SHUNT RESISTANCE (R_{SH})

Shunt resistance is a parallel resistance that allows current to bypass the absorbing layer and decreases efficiency due to fabrication defects [72]. Figure 11(b) shows the impact of R_{sh} on the key parameters of WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀ and PCBM-based PSC. R_{sh} was varied from 10¹ Ω-cm² to 10⁷ Ω-cm² and the Series Resistance (R_s) was kept fixed at 0.5 Ω-cm². The values of performance parameters followed the same trend as R_{sh} is increased. From 10¹ Ω-cm², all the parameters started to enhance decisively. This trend continued till 10³ Ω-cm². After that, they hold the same value though R_{sh} increases. It can be observed from the figure that, SC with WS₂ ETL exhibits the highest PCE, while the SC with PCBM ETL demonstrates the lowest PCE value within the specified range. Lower R_{sh} creates the alternating path for the photogenerated current which results in output power loss [76]. So, higher R_{sh} is better for device performance.

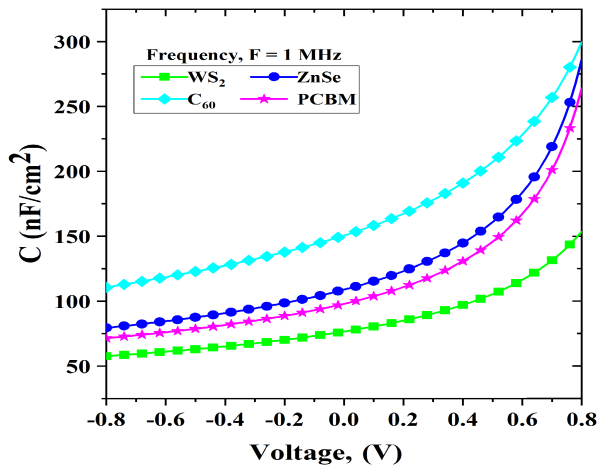


FIGURE 12. Capacitance vs voltage curve.

3) IMPACT OF TEMPERATURE

To observe the impact of the environment in PSC, the temperature is ranged between 275 K to 450 K. Figure 11(c) demonstrates the effect of temperature on cell parameters. The simulation found that for all structures, a rise in temperature resulted in a drop in the V_{OC} , FF, and PCE, while the J_{SC} almost remained constant. The V_{OC} value has reduced as the temperature is increased due to its inverse relationship with the saturation current density [5]. A similar downtrend can be observed in the case of FF as well as PCE for all structures. The rise in temperature causes an improvement in series resistance, which in turn reduces the FF as well as the efficiency of the device [77], [78]. The pattern of the constant behavior of current throughout the rise in temperature was reported by Sunny et al. [74].

G. EFFECT OF CAPACITANCE AND MOTT-SCHOTTKY LINES

Figure 12 and Figure 13 illustrates the impact of capacitance along with M-S with the voltage variation from -0.8 volt to +0.8 volt for four individual configurations. The simulation had been performed at a higher frequency of 1 MHz to exclude the effect of traps situated internally at a deep level [79]. In Figure 12, an increment in supply voltage causes the capacitance to rise exponentially. As there are several junctions, the plots are curved and not linear in characteristics. The C_{60} ETL-based structure had the highest capacitance, while the WS_2 ETL had the lowest at 0.8 V. It can be assumed that when the bias is off, the device is in the depletion region. When the depletion width is nearly the same as the thickness of the absorber, the forward bias induces the capacitance to increase considerably [80]. The capacitance decreases significantly when a reverse bias is applied because the saturation current increases [81]. On the other side, the diffusion potential (V_{bi}) is observed from the Mott-Schottky plot. The slope between $1/C^2$ and V curve represents the defect density [82]. The MS values decreased for every structure in this work with rising voltage, which is consistent with previous research study [79].

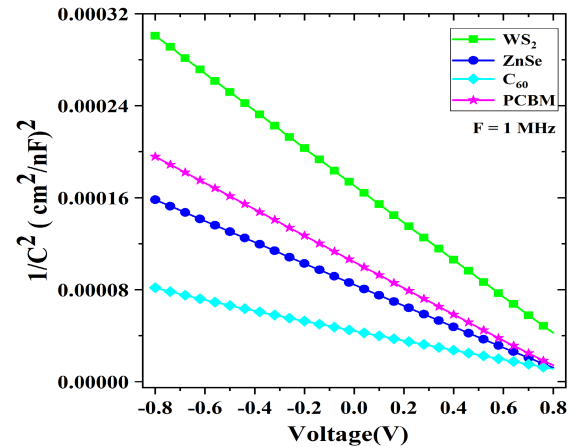


FIGURE 13. Mott-Schottky ($1/C^2$) lines vs voltage curve.

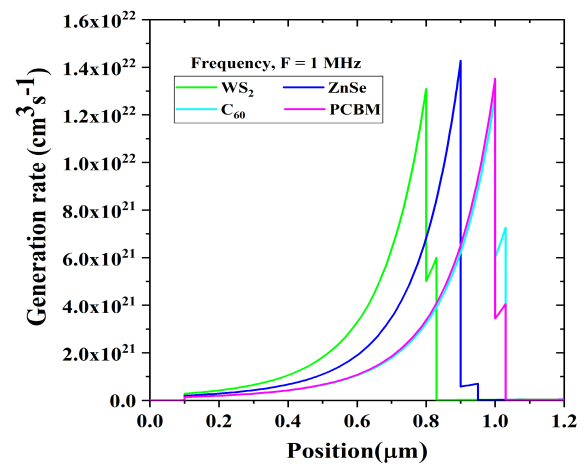


FIGURE 14. Generation rate curve for four PSCs.

H. EFFECT OF GENERATION RATE AND RECOMBINATION RATE

Electron-hole pairs are formed when an electron is stimulated from the valence band towards the conduction band, creating a hole [83]. Figure 14 shows that WS_2 , C_{60} , $ZnSe$, and $PCBM$ -based structures had a greater rate of generation at depths of 0.8 μm , 1 μm , 0.9 μm , and 1 μm , respectively. The recombination rate inversely combines and annihilates the generated electrons and holes [84]. According to Figure 15, the recombination has taken place in the 0.1 μm - 1 μm range. The recombination rate distribution is not uniform due to the presence of grain boundaries and defects in different layers [85]. However, the structures demonstrated significant recombination occur at 0.1 μm and 0.9 μm . The depth of 0.1 μm represents the HTL/Absorber interface and the depth of 0.9 μm represents the Absorber/ETL interface. Recombination tends to be more apparent at interfaces due to energy level mismatch, defect or trap States. The differences in energy levels between different materials at interfaces can result in increased carrier recombination. Furthermore, interfaces frequently possess defects or trap states which can function as recombination centers, facilitating electron and hole recombination [86].

TABLE 3. Comparison of PV parameters of CsSnI₃ based PSC with existing research work.

PSC Device	V _{OC} (V)	J _{SC} (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)	References
FTO/WS ₂ /CsSnI ₃ /P3HT/Au	1.053	33.92	88.57	31.63	This work
FTO/ZnSe/CsSnI ₃ /P3HT/Au	0.988	34.28	87.50	29.64	This work
FTO/C ₆₀ /CsSnI ₃ /P3HT/Au	1.043	33.53	85.04	29.75	This work
FTO/PCBM/CsSnI ₃ /P3HT/Au	0.985	34.52	87.07	29.62	This work
CuS/CsSnI ₃ /TiO ₂ /ITO	0.99	33.5	86.6	28.76	[20]
FTO/TiO ₂ /CsSnI ₃ /Spiro-MeOTAD/Au	0.967	29.673	70.2	20.13	[17]
ITO/PCBM/CsSnI ₃ /CFTS/Se	0.87	33.99	83.46	24.73	[19]
FTO/TiO ₂ /CsSnI ₃ /P3HT/Au	0.972	34.70	78.21	26.40	[88]

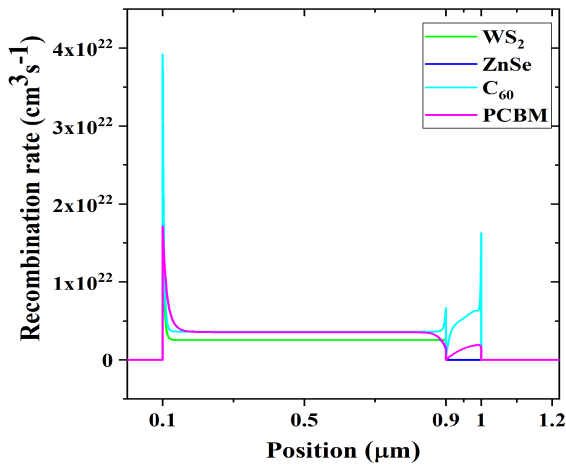


FIGURE 15. Recombination rate for four PSCs.

I. J-V AND QE CHARACTERISTICS

Under a 1.5 AM lighting condition (100mW/cm²), the J-V characteristics of the four configurations are shown in Figure 16. It was discovered that C₆₀ ETL has shown the worst J-V characteristics compared to WS₂, ZnSe and PCBM. Despite its high V_{OC}, C₆₀ ETL-associated PSC has a current density of 33.3 mA/cm². The value of current density was around 34.5 mA/cm² in PCBM and ZnSe despite the V_{OC} being less than 1.0 V. Meanwhile, the value of the current density in WS₂ was 33.92 mA/cm². Figure 17 displays the wavelength-quantum efficiency (QE) relationship for these structures. A similar pattern is found for all the structures. It is observed that at wavelengths between the 0.36 μm and 0.6 μm, QE for WS₂, ZnSe, and PCBM is almost 100%, whereas C₆₀ showed the worst QE (90%) and it rises to 100% beyond 0.7 μm wavelength. Solar cells having QE 100% means that it has absorbed almost incident photons in order to create electron-hole pairs and minimize all the recombination [87]. Furthermore, beyond this wavelength range, photons with higher wavelengths cause lower QE. This is due to the

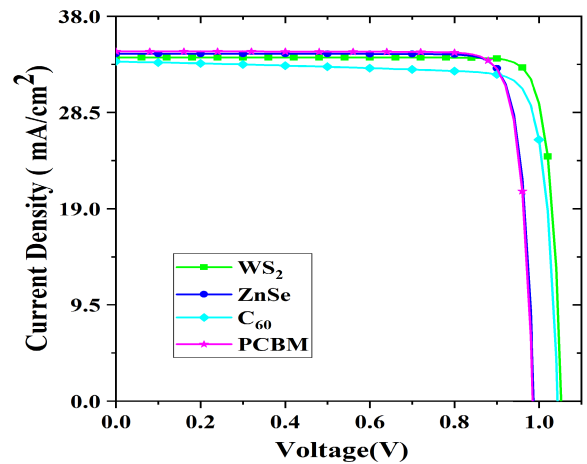


FIGURE 16. J-V characteristic curve for all four optimized designs.

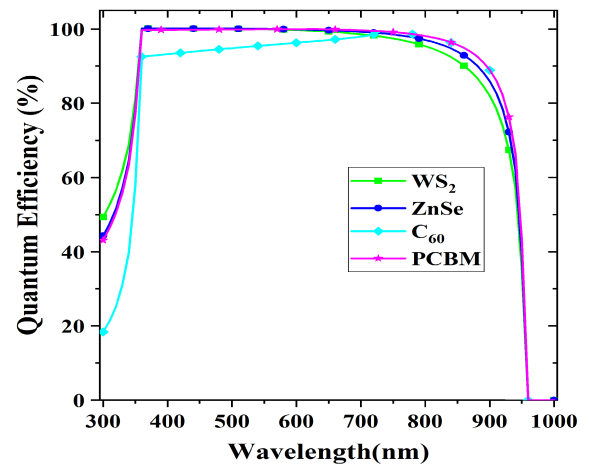


FIGURE 17. Quantum efficiency curve for all four optimized designs.

inability of those photons to generate high enough energy to create electron-hole pairs. Finally, the quantum efficiency falls to zero at the wavelength of 0.96 μm. Therefore, the configurations mostly cover the visible light spectrum.

J. OPTIMIZED STRUCTURE

Different ETL materials were incorporated into the device structure using P3HT as the HTL and the parameters such as the thickness, doping level, defect density of different layers, temperature, parasitic resistance etc. are optimized.

Among the several ETL candidates implemented, including WS₂, ZnSe, C₆₀, and PCBM, it's evident that WS₂ can be recognized as a potential and efficient ETL material for lead-free Sn-based perovskite solar cells with an improved V_{OC} of 1.053 V, the device architecture demonstrated an efficiency of 31.63% that is comparable to previously reported studies mentioned in Table 3.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, a highly efficient, lead-free, and sustainable PSC based on CsSn₃ has been recommended with a new combination of FTO/WS₂/CsSn₃/P3HT/Au by evaluating the impacts of various ETL materials on device performance and improving various solar cell parameters along with the operating conditions of the solar cell. Additionally, the performance is compared against previously published literature. The proposed structure features a FF of 88.57%, a short circuit current density of 33.92 mA/cm², an efficiency of 31.63% and an open-circuit voltage of 1.053V. The structure also exhibits excellent quantum efficiency in the near IR and visible spectrum. Hopefully, in the future, this research will aid in the development of lead-free solar cells that are more stable and can serve as a foundation for flexible technology.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to acknowledge Prof. Marc Burgelman of the University of Gent, Belgium, for generously providing the required SCAPS-1D software. The availability of this software considerably enriched research efforts and broadened the range of analytical capabilities.

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