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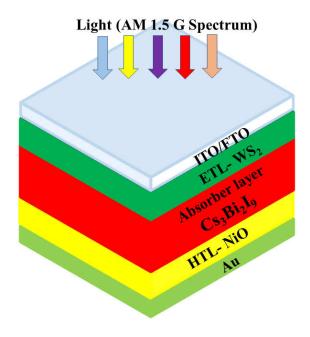
# Optimization of Electron and Hole Transport Layer to Model A Lead-Free Inorganic Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> Based Perovskite Solar Cell and Investigating the Effects of Different Attributes on Device Performance

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Abstract: Research on the lead halide-based perovskite solar cells have obtained considerable interest in photovoltaic industry owing to their higher efficiency, easy manufacturing, light-weight and low cost. However, these lead halide-based solar cells are not suitable to manufacture commercially because of the toxicity of lead-based materials. In this context, a lead-free perovskite, cesium-bismuth iodide (Cs3BizI9) is considered as a potential alternative to the lead halide-based cell due to their non-toxicity and stability, but this perovskite cannot be matched with random hole transport layer (HTL) and electron transport layer (ETL) materials compared to lead halide-based perovskite because of their crystal structure and band gap. Therefore, in this study, performance comparison of different ideal HTL and ETL materials for Cs3BizI9 perovskite layer were studied using SCAPS-1D device simulation on the basis of open circuit voltage, short circuit current, power conversion efficiency (PCE) and fill factor (FF) as well as several novel PSC configuration model were designed that can direct for further experimental research for PSC device commercialization. Results from this investigation reveals that the maximum efficiency of 20.96% is obtained for the configuration ITO/WS2/Cs3BizI9/NiO/Au with optimized parameters such as thickness 400 nm, band gap 2.1eV, absorber layer defect density 10½ cm-3, donor density of ETL 10½ cm-3 and the acceptor density of HTL 10½ cm-3.

#### Graphical abstract



Keywords: Perovskite solar cell; Lead-free Cs3Bi2I9; HTL; ETL; Fill factor; PCE

#### 1. Introduction

The consumption of power and energy is increasing with accelerated commercialization and industrialization[1]. The continuous utilization of conventional fuels such as natural gas, oils, hydrocarbon gas liquids, fossil fuels and the severe environmental effect for using these materials raises serious concerns about the research of alternate energy resources [2–4]. To replace the non-renewable energy resources and to fulfill the increasing energy demand in an environment friendly way, proper utilization of renewable energy sources is badly needed [5,6]. Solar energy stands out as a viable renewable energy resource among different potential renewable sources such as wind energy, geothermal energy, hydro power, ocean energy, bioenergy and tidal energy. In recent years, solar cell production is expanding significantly today as the cost of solar cells lowers. However, in order to compete with fossil fuels and transform into a substantial energy source, the expenses of solar cells must be minimized. Considerable initiatives have been taken to create novel cell materials, and recently, a new generation of perovskite solar cells (PSCs) has been established that shows satisfactory performances to go for commercialization. The PSC will most likely have a huge impact on the future solar cell industry due to the low cost of raw materials and the simple manufacturing method, and this kind of cell may also be competitive with natural gas [7].

The solar research field have been recently captured by organic-inorganic PSCs due to having exceptional and excellent properties such as high absorptivity, low atomic energy, improved dielectric constant, favorable deposition by solution processing technique, high electron mobility, high hole mobility, suitable with low manufacturing cost and low-temperature deposition than conventional silicon-based solar cells [8,9]. The efficiency and stability of perovskites solar cells show tremendous improvement such as in just 10 years perovskite solar cells developed from unstable 3% efficiency to stable 32% efficiency [10] and this improvement shows the potentiality of perovskite solar cells for which these solar cells have raised as strong competitor in the photovoltaic industry [11–13].

Thin-film PSC technology has improved due to the ease fabrication, energy gap adjustability, and the photon conversion efficiency (PCE) above 30% of lead (Pb)-compounded organic inorganic halide PSCs [14]. Although these achievements, the existence of emerging contaminants (Pb) that causes toxicity is the fundamental issues in the applications of lead-based PSCs and this problem is still a significant barrier to commercialization of PSCs [15]. Additionally, the perovskite layer's organic components contribute to the solar cell's instability. Similarly, the presence of organic elements in the perovskite layer causes instability of the solar cell. Therefore, lead based organic halide perovskite solar cells are not suitable and preferable for industrial application and commercialization. To eliminate the toxicity researchers have carried out experiments to develop lead-free perovskite material and to minimize instability utilizing inorganic materials have gathered attractive attention which can replace organic materials [16-18]. Ahmad et al. simulated a Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> based 2D PSC device where they employed TiO<sub>2</sub> as ETL material and Spiro-MeOTAD as HTL material with gold as back contact[19]. Their simulation results revealed that their PSC device could gain an efficiency of 11.54% and their experimental results showed 1.66% efficiency for the similar configuration. Researchers are also working for stabilizing experimented PSC devices against several influencing natural factors such as moisture, temperature and dust. Hamukwaya et al. [20] experimented to investigate the performance after adding KI as additive with Cs3BizI9 perovskite layer. This mixing of KI caused the highest efficiency as 2.81% the Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> perovskite layer highly stabilizes the resultant PSC device against humidity to the extent that it maintains 98% of the initial PCE after 90 days, which is suitable for solar cell applications.

Homo-valent component such as Ge<sup>2+</sup> and Sn<sup>2+</sup> can be a potential choice which can eliminate toxicity; however, these components decrease the stability of PSCs when it performs at ambient temperature [21–23]. For alternation of such materials different hetero-valent materials are tested in lab-based experiments to investigate their suitability and stability for using in perovskite layers and among those materials Bi<sup>3+</sup>

and Sb<sup>3+</sup> which have stable +3 oxidation phase have gathered much attention[24]. Bi<sup>3+</sup> have good optoelectronic properties as Pb<sup>2+</sup> due to ionic radius and electronic structure similarities of these materials. Among different Bi halide-based materials Cs<sub>2</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> achieved the greatest interest due to its higher PCE and more stability than other Bi based perovskite materials [25,26]. Summary of different works on the PSC performance analysis are listed in **Table 1**.

Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> is a hybrid organic-inorganic perovskite material that has gained attention in the field of photovoltaics as a potential absorber layer in solar cells. This material has a range of advantages that make it an attractive candidate for this application. One of the significant advantages of Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> is its high absorption coefficient. This characteristic enables it to absorb light effectively across a broad range of the solar spectrum, which is essential for the efficient operation of solar cells. The high absorption coefficient of Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> is comparable to other well-known perovskite absorbers like MAPbI<sub>3</sub> (methylammonium lead iodide). Another advantage of Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> is its high stability. Many perovskite materials are known to be unstable under ambient conditions, which can limit their practical applications. However, Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> has been shown to be highly stable under various environmental conditions, including humidity, light, and heat. This stability makes it an attractive option for use in real-world applications where stability is crucial. Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> also has high carrier mobility, which is a desirable property for efficient charge transport and collection in photovoltaic devices. Furthermore, this material has a direct bandgap, which is crucial for efficient light absorption and conversion into electrical energy in photovoltaic devices[24].

In this study, the simulation has been carried out in two steps, where the first step consists of comparison of suitable ETL and HTL materials with Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer to find out the best configuration for which higher performance has been observed. In second step, the selected model has been optimized for improving its performance parameters such as Jsc, Voc, PCE and FF. To achieve the optimized system, around 45 models with different ETL and HTL materials have been performed. In this process, a best performance for ITO/WS2/Cs3Bi2I9/NiO/Au has been attained. For further improvement of this configuration, optimization of various adjustable attributes such as thickness and bandgap of absorber layer, defect density of absorber layer and charge carrier density of HTL and ETL materials has been done. After tuning input attributes, 20.96% of PCE has been obtained for this model.

Table 1: Literature review on recent experimental perovskite-based solar cells performance.

Device structure	Year	PCE(%)	Voc(V)	Jsc(mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	FF(%)	Ref
Au/spiro-OMeTAD/ FTO/TiO2	2022	12.54	1.32	13.13	72.01	[27]
HTL/back contact /MAPbBr3/SnO2/ FTO	2021	25.40	1.19	25.09	84	[28]
Ag/BCP/PCBM/(Cso.o5(FA5/MAI)-	2021	23	1.16	24	82	[29]
0.95Pb(I0.9Br0.1)3)/PTAA/TTO/Glass						
$Cu/BCP/ITUC_{60}/Cs_{0.05}(FA_{0.92}MA_{0.08})_{0.95}Pb(I_{0.92}Br_{0.08})_{3}/\ PTAA/ITO$	2020	22.30	1.71	24.10	81	[30]
Au/ Spiro-OMeTAD/CsSno.5Geo.5I3/PCBM/FTO	2019	7.11	0.63	18.61	60.6	[31]
ITO/NiOx/FASnI3/PCBM/Ag	2018	6.70	0.60	17.53	65	[32]
$Ag/PCBM/MASn_{0.6}Pb_{0.4}I_{3\text{-x}}Br_x/PEDOT:PSS/ITO$	2017	12.10	0.78	20.65	75	[33]
$Au/Spiro-OMeTAD/Cs_{0.16}FA_{0.84}Pb(I_{0.88}Br_{0.12})_{3}/SnO_{2}/FTO$	2016	18	1.02	22.40	78	[34]
Ag/BCP/PCBM/0.15 mol% Al3+-dopedCH3NH3PbI3/ Poly-	2016	19.10	1.01	22.40	78	[35]
TPD/FTO						
Au/spiro-OMeTAD /MASnI <sub>3</sub> / ZnO/ITO	2015	7.66	0.97	11.10	66	[36]
Au/SpiroOMeTAD + LiTFSI + tBP /MASnI <sub>3</sub> / m-TiO <sub>2</sub> / TiO <sub>2</sub>	2014	6.40	0.88	16.80	42	[37]

## 2. Model development and perovskite solar cell structure

#### 2.1. Numerical modeling

In order to construct any form of a practical solar cell, numerical models have become a crucial tool. Perovskite solar cells' numerical modeling is a crucial technique for evaluating the validity of the proposed physical reasons and predicting the impact of physical modifications on cell performance [38]. Numerical modeling is required because perovskite solar cells are so complicated in their behavior [39].

Numerical simulation software offers useful information to select materials before experiment and commercialization. The One Dimension Solar Cell Capacitance Simulator (SCAPS-1D) program which is created by Burgelman et al. [40] can be used to do the numerical calculations of PSCs [41]. SCAPS-1D software solves the charge carrier continuity Equations such as hole continuity Equation 1 and electron continuity Equation 2, the semiconductor Poisson Equation 3 in one direction, total charge transport Equation 4, electron transport Equation 5, hole transport Equation 6 and optical absorption coefficient Equation 7.

$$\frac{dn_p}{dt} = G_n - \frac{n_p - n_{p0}}{\tau_n} + n_p \mu_n \frac{d\xi}{dx} + \mu_n \xi \frac{dn_p}{ds} + D_n \frac{d^2 n_p}{dx^2}$$

$$\frac{dn_n}{dt} = G_p - \frac{p_n - p_{n0}}{\tau_p} + p_n \mu_p \frac{d\xi}{dx} + \mu_p \xi \frac{dn_n}{ds} + D_p \frac{d^2 p_n}{dx^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2\emptyset(x)}{dx^2} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r} \left( p(x) - n(x) + N_D - N_A + -0.3\rho_p - -0.3\rho_n \right)$$

$$J = J_n + J_p 4$$

$$J_n = D_n \frac{dn}{dx} + \mu_n n \frac{d\phi}{dx}$$

$$J_p = D_p \frac{dp}{dx} + \mu_p p \frac{d\phi}{dx}$$

$$\alpha(\lambda) = \left(A + \frac{B}{hv}\right) \sqrt{hv - E_g}$$

where,  $\xi$  is the electric field, q denotes electrical charge whose typical value is considered as  $1.602 \times 10^{-19}$ C,  $\epsilon_o$  is the vacuum absolute permittivity and  $\epsilon_r$  is the semiconductor relative permittivity, ND and NA represent donor doping density and acceptor doping density respectively, p(x) and n(x) are carrier density of hole and electron,  $-0.3\rho_p$  is the defect density of hole and  $-0.3\rho_n$  is the defect density of electron, Gn and Gp indicates electron generation rate and hole generation rate respectively, Jn and Jp are current density and hole current density of electron, respectively,  $\mu_n$  and  $\mu_p$  are electron and hole mobilities,  $\tau_n$  and  $\tau_p$  represents lifetime of electrons and holes respectively, Dp and Dn represents diffusion coefficient of free hole and electron.  $\nu$  represents optical frequency, A and B depicts arbitrary

constant while  $E_g$  represents bandgap, h represents plank constant and  $\alpha(\lambda)$  depicts absorption coefficient. More information about these equations can be learned from somewhere [42–46].

### 2.2. PSC structure and material charateristics

#### 2.2.1. PSC structure

The device structure in this paper is Au/HTL/absorber layer/ETL/ITO/glass, where Au is employed as back contact having work function of 5.1eV and Cs3Bi2I9 is applied as absorber or perovskite layer. The simulation is carried out with different ETLs and HTLs to obtain a novel optimized configuration. The ETLs that are simulated in this study include TiO2, PCBM, WS2, IGZO and C60 whereas CuO, Cu2O, PEDOT:PSS, P3HT, CuSCN, CuSbS2, NiO, Spiro-OMeTAD and CuI are applied as hole transport layer material.

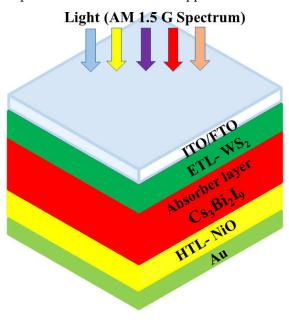
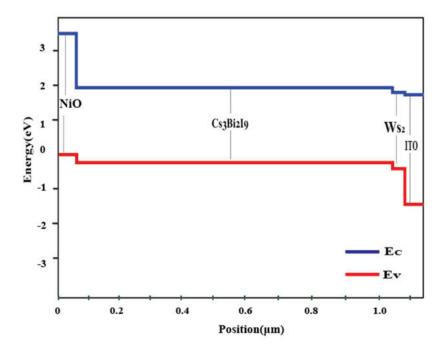


Figure 1: Model of a perovskite-based solar cell with different layers.

Figure  ${\it 1}$  shows a typical model of PSC with different layers such as ITO, ETL, absorber layer and HTL.



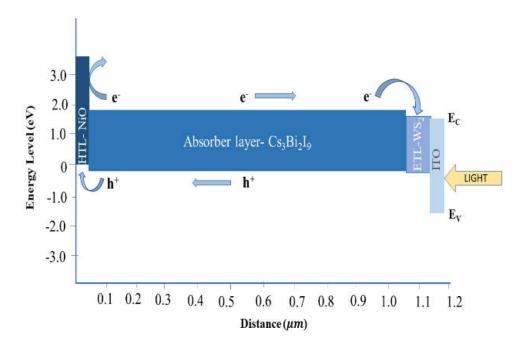


Figure 2: Energy band diagram for the selected configuration in this study.

The band diagram of our selected configuration is showed in Figure 2, from where it can be seen that the blue curve depicts the conduction band line and red curve shows the valence band line.

## 2.2.2. Physical input parameters and methodology

The AM1.5 illumination spectrum is used by default in this study. The incident light power (Ps) and temperature are fixed at  $1000 \text{ W/m}^2$  and 300 K, respectively. In every layer, the thermal velocities of the electrons and holes are fixed at  $10^7 \text{ cm/s}$ . The absorption co-efficient ( $\alpha$ ) of ETL and HTL layers are determined in SCAPS-1D through Equation 8 [47], like in many works on PSCs,

$$\alpha = A_a \sqrt{(hv - E_q)}$$

where,  $A_a$  is a layer-dependent pre-factor in the simulation. The application of interface defects has schemed the design more realistic and assisted to predict the experimental behavior of the solar cell model.

Table 2: Input attributes for perovskite material, different electron transport layer (ETL) materials and ITO.

Parameter		PCBM[49,50]	TiO <sub>2</sub>	WS <sub>2</sub> [54]	IGZO	C60 [55]	
	Cs <sub>3</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> I <sub>9</sub>		[51–53]		[49]		ITO [56]
	[48]						
Electron affinity, X (eV)	3.40	3.90	4.26	3.95	4	3.90	4.1
Relative permittivity $(\varepsilon_r)$	9.68	4	100	13.60	9	4.20	10
Thickness(nm)	1000	30	30	100	30	50	60
Bandgap, Eg (eV)	2.1	2	3.20	1.80	3.50	1.70	3.6
State density of conduction	4.98×10 <sup>19</sup>	$1\times10^{21}$	$2\times10^{18}$	$10^{7}$	$5 \times 10^{18}$	$8.0\times10^{19}$	$2.2\times10^{18}$
band, Nc (1/cm³)							
State density of valence band,	2.11×10 <sup>19</sup>	$2\times10^{20}$	1.8	$10^{7}$	$5\times10^{18}$	$8.0\times10^{19}$	$1.8\times10^{19}$
Nv (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )			$\times 10^{19}$				
AL defect density, Nt (1/cm³)	$10^{14}$	$1\times10^{14}$	$1\times10^{15}$	$10^{15}$	$1\times10^{15}$	$1\times10^{14}$	-
Mobility of electron,	$10^{7}$	$1 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \times 10^4$	100	15	$8.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$10^{7}$
$\mu_n$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)							
Mobility of hole, $\mu_p(\text{cm}^2/\text{Vs})$	107	$1 \times 10^{-2}$	$1 \times 10^3$	100	0.20	$3.5\times10^{-3}$	107
AD, N <sub>A</sub> (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )	$10^{19}$	-	-	-	-	-	-
DD, N <sub>D</sub> (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )	$10^{19}$	$1 \times 10^{20}$	$6 \times 10^{19}$	$10^{18}$	$1\times10^{17}$	$2.6\times10^{17}$	$10^{19}$

Table 3: Input attributes for different hole transport layer (HTL) materials.

Parameter	NiO [50]	CuO [57]	Cu <sub>2</sub> O	PEDOT [59]	P3HT [58]	CuSCN	CuI [60-63]	Spiro-OMeTAD	CuSbS <sub>2</sub> [65–67]
			[58]			[58]		[64]	
Relative permittivity ( $\varepsilon_r$ )	11.75	18.1	7.1	3	3	10	6.5	3	14.6
Bandgap, Eg(eV)	3.6	31.5	2.17	3.6	1.7	3.4	2.98	2.9	1.58
Electron affinity, X(eV)	2.1	4.07	3.2	1.57	3.5	2.1	2.1	2.2	4.2
Thickness(nm)	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	350	50
AL defect density, $N_t$ (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )	$1 \times 10^8$	$1\times10^{13}$	$1 \times 10^{13}$	$1\times10^{14}$	$1 \times 10^{14}$	$1 \times 10^8$	$1\times10^{15}$	$1 \times 10^{13}$	$1 \times 10^{18}$
State density of conduction band, No.	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$	$2.2 \times 10^{19}$	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$	$2\times10^{18}$	$2.5 \times 10^{18}$	$2.8 \times 10^{19}$	$2.5 \times 10^{18}$	$2 \times 10^{18}$
(1/cm³)  State density of valence band, Nv (1/cm³)	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$	$5.5 \times 10^{20}$	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	$2 \times 10^{19}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	$1 \times 10^{19}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	$1\times10^{18}$
Mobility of electron, $\mu_n \text{ (cm}^2/\text{Vs)}$	$1 \times 10^{-3}$	100	200	100	$1.8 \times 10^{-3}$	$2 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.69 \times 10^{-4}$	$2\times10^{-4}$	49
Mobility of hole, $\mu_p(\text{cm}^2/\text{Vs})$	$1 \times 10^{-3}$	0.1	8600	4	$1.8 \times 10^{-2}$	$2 \times 10^{-4}$	$1.69 \times 10^{-4}$	$2\times10^{-4}$	49
AD, N <sub>A</sub> (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )	$1\times10^{19}$	$1\times10^{15}$	$1\times10^{19}$	$2\times10^{19}$	$1 \times 10^{18}$	$1\times10^{17}$	$1\times10^{18}$	$1\times10^{17}$	$1\times10^{18}$
DD, N <sub>D</sub> (1/cm <sup>3</sup> )	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

PSC device investigation has been carried out in two different steps where the first step includes building up a PSC device configuration with suitable HTL and ETL for Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> absorber layer. Different input attributes for nine HTL materials have been listed in **Table 2** and input parameters for five ETL materials has been listed in **Table 3**. With these various ETL and HTL materials 45 different configurations have been simulated. After scrutinized comparison, it was found that when WS<sub>2</sub> as ETL and NiO as HTL were applied as charge transporting layers then the configuration (ITO/WS<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/NiO/Au) have showed best results with higher performance parameters. In second stage, the selected model (ITO/WS<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/NiO/Au) has been optimized by tuning bandgap and thickness of absorber layer, defect density of absorber layer and carrier density of ETL and HTL.

#### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Optimization of ETL and HTL

In this study, Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> was selected as absorber layer due to its non-toxicity and better optoelectronic parameter, however it's hard enough to match this absorber layer with appropriate ETL and HTL due to band structure of Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>. To obtain the best performance, simulation of the configuration (ITO/ETL/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/HTL/Au) for five different ETL materials and nine different HTL materials have been carried out.

Figure 3 shows performance parameters of different PSC configurations for different HTLs where PCBM and Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> were applied as ETL and absorber layer respectively. In a similar way, Figure 4 shows performance parameters for WS<sub>2</sub> ETL, Figure 5 shows comparison for IGZO ETL, Figure 6 reveals performance comparison for C60 ETL as well as comparison for TiO<sub>2</sub> ETL can be observed in

## Figure 7.

After scrutinized comparison, it can be observed from these figures that when NiO and WS<sub>2</sub> were applied as HTL and ETL, respectively, the configuration ITO/WS<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/NiO/Au shows best performance characteristics. The optimized characteristics are given in **From Figures 4-7**, it can be observed that the maximum 20.25% PCE can be achieved when WS2 and NiO were employed as ETL and HTL material respectively with Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> perovskite layer. Cu<sub>2</sub>O also showed extraordinary performance with WS2 ETL and Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> absorber layer. However, as the configuration ITO/WS2/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/NiO/Au shows best performance so further optimization was carried out for this model.

**Table 4** for which improved performance characteristics were obtained. From **Figures 4-7**, it can be observed that the maximum 20.25% PCE can be achieved when WS<sub>2</sub> and NiO were employed as ETL and HTL material respectively with Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> perovskite layer. Cu<sub>2</sub>O also showed extraordinary performance with WS<sub>2</sub> ETL and Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> absorber layer. However, as the configuration ITO/WS<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>/NiO/Au shows best performance so further optimization was carried out for this model.

Table 4: Optimized input attributes for the selected configuration in this study.

Parameters	ITO	WS <sub>2</sub>	Cs3Bi2I9	NiO
Electron affinity (eV)	4.1	3.95	3.4	2.1
Bandgap (eV)	3.6	1.8	2.10	3.6
Thickness (nm)	60	100	400	150
Dielectric permittivity (relative)	10	13.6	9.68	11.75
Thermal velocity of hole (cm/s)	107	107	$10^{7}$	$10^{7}$
Mobility of electron (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)	50	100	4.3	10-3
CB effective density of states (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$	2×10 <sup>18</sup>	$4.98 \times 10^{19}$	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$
VB effective density of states (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	2×10 <sup>18</sup>	2.11×10 <sup>19</sup>	$2.5 \times 10^{20}$
Thermal velocity of electron (cm/s)	$10^{7}$	2×10 <sup>5</sup>	$10^{7}$	$10^{7}$
Mobility of hole (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)	75	100	1.7	10-3
Shallow uniform DD, ND (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$10^{19}$	$10^{18}$	$10^{19}$	-
Shallow uniform AD, N <sub>A</sub> (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	-	-	$10^{19}$	$1\times10^{20}$
Defect density of AL, Nt (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	-	$10^{13}$	1012	$1\times10^{14}$

Note: The bold attributes depicts the optimized input paramters.

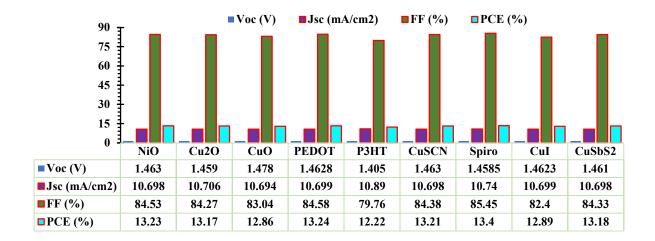


Figure 3: Performance parameters for different HTLs with PCBM ETL and Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer.

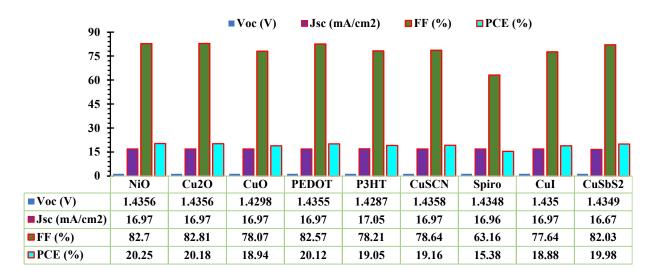


Figure 4: Performance parameters for different HTLs with WS2 ETL and Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer.

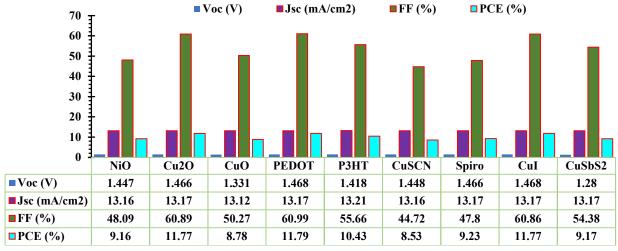


Figure 5: Performance parameters for different HTLs with IGZO ETL and Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer.

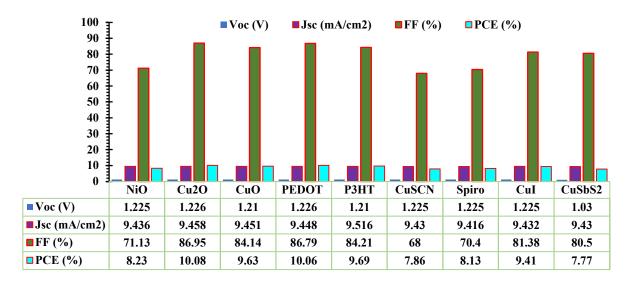


Figure 6: Performance parameters for different HTLs with C60 ETL and Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer.

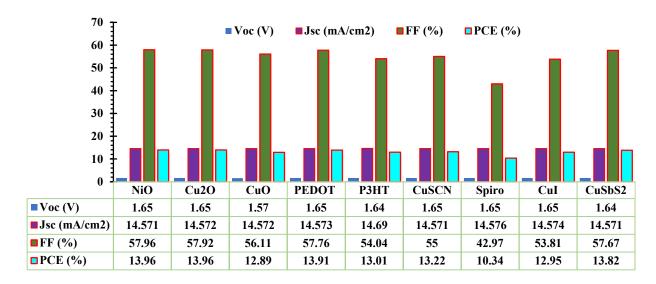


Figure 7: Performance parameters for different HTLs with TiO2 ETL and Cs3Bi2I9 absorber layer.

## 3.2. Effect of absorber layer thickness

The light-absorbing layer thickness has a great impact on the performance of PSCs. The layer needs an optimized thickness for the collection of solar radiation basically to collect photons and facilitates the electron and hole pair generation. The photon absorption density drops hence the efficiency when there is a decrease in layer thickness from the optimized value [68]. And with the augmentation of thickness the photon absorption falls down because of the recombination of electron hole pair [69]. In this paper, the thickness of Cs3Bi2I9 was varied from 400 to 5000 nm for getting optimized thickness for the model. There was change in Voc, Jsc, FF and PCE with the variation in absorber layer thickness. These changes have been graphically represented on the **Figure 8**.

Firstly, it has been observed that with the extension of absorber layer thickness, the Voc decreases from 1.4368 to 1.4279 V. The reason behind this is the recombination of charge carrier for their longer travel path. But the Jsc has been increased with the increase in absorber layer thickness. This is because of the rise in the spectral response when wavelength is longer. On the contrary the FF get reduced from 84.85% to 72.06% and the reason is the enhancement of series resistance and might be because of the charge carrier recombination along with the resistant losses. The maximum value of PCE was found 20.59% for the thickness of 400 nm which was taken as optimum thickness. For further

augmentation of thickness there was drop in PCE. This is because of the charge pathway resistance and enhanced radiative recombination [70].

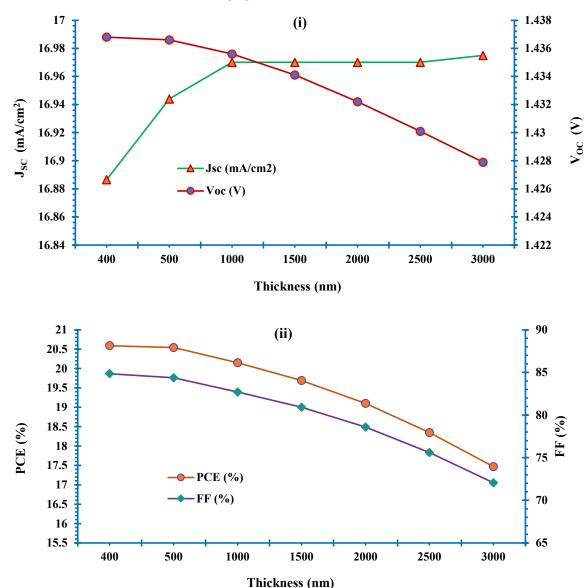
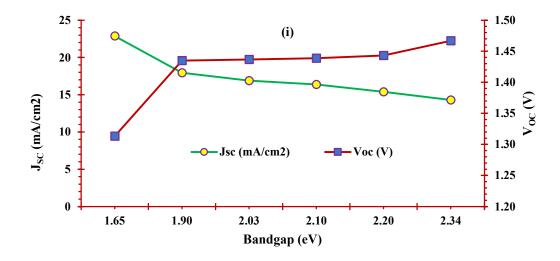


Figure 8: Effect of absorber layer thickness on PSC device' performance parameters (i). (J<sub>sc</sub>, V<sub>oc</sub>), and (ii) (FF, PCE).

### 3.3. Effect of absorber layer band gap

The absorber layer band gap is an important parameter for the absorber layer, and it has a major impact on the effectiveness of the PSCs. In this regard, the tunability is the most important property of PSCs. The energy gap of perovskite absorber is tuned from 1.65 eV to 2.34 eV to investigate the performance of the PSC. **Figure 9** reported that the maximum value of Voc 1.4669V is obtained at 2.34 eV, Jsc of 22.88 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 1.65 eV, and the maximum PCE and FF of the device were found 20.9% and 88.79%, respectively at 2.1 eV.

The FF and PCE increased from 63.87% to 88.79% and 19.16% to 20.9% with the augmentation of bandgap from 1.65 to 2.1 eV. After there was a decrease in FF and PCE with increase in band gap because of lowering the band gap increases the number of electrons but the problem is the energy of the electrons wasted as heat energy. On the other hand, higher the band gap the generation of electrons drops for some of the photon's higher energy [71]. The optimum value of bandgap was taken 2.1 eV for the maximum PCE of 20.9%.



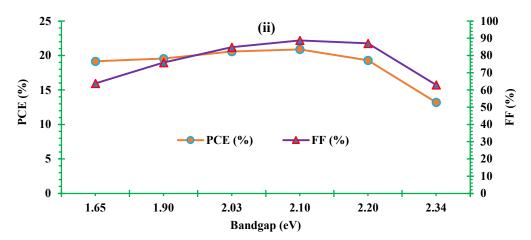


Figure 9: Effect of absorber layer bandgap on (i) Jsc, Voc, and (ii) FF, PCE.

## 3.4. Effect of absorber layer defect density

In order to attain the stable PV output parameters, the proper amount of defect density is important. The defect density impacts directly on the recombination and generation of electron hole pairs which also has an impact on the efficiency of the PSCs [72]. Defect density depends on the quality of the absorber layer. If the quality is poor, then this causes higher defect density. For this reason, recombination of electron hole pair increases hence reduce the efficiency of the perovskite film.

And this recombination rate depends on the diffusion length, which is affected by the bulk defect density of the PSC. Shockley-Read-Hall (SRH) recombination is the most important type of recombination in PSCs, the calculation of the diffusion length can be done by the trap assisted SRH recombination model [73]. Following two Equations (9 and 10) is used to describe SRH recombination.

$$R_{SRH} = \frac{np - n_{i^2}}{\left[\pi \left(p + n + \frac{2n_i \cosh(E_i - E_t)}{kT}\right)\right]}$$
(9)

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\left[\sigma \times N_t \times V_{th}\right]} \tag{10}$$

where,  $\tau$  represents the life time of charge carriers,  $\sigma$  is the capture cross section of charge carriers,  $N_t$  is the defect density of the perovskite absorber layer,  $V_{th}$  is the thermal velocity of charge carriers.

The diffusion length,  $L = \sqrt{D\tau}$ , where  $D = \frac{kT}{e}\mu$ . Here, D refers to the diffusion coefficient and  $\tau$  refers to the lifetime of minority carriers. In addition to that k denotes as Boltzmann's constant, e refers to the charge of electron, T refers to the temperature, and  $\mu$  denotes as mobility of charge carrier.

The defect density has an impact on the value of V<sub>OC</sub> by the following Equation 11.

$$V_{oc} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_{sc}}{J_o} + 1 \right) \tag{11}$$

where, Jo and Jsc represent the recombination current density and short-circuit current density, respectively.

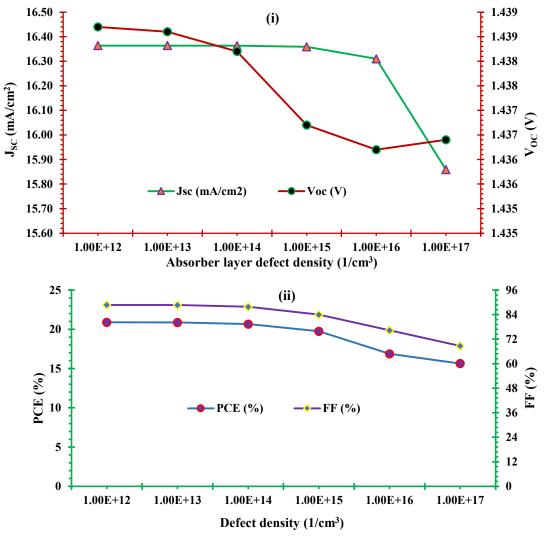


Figure 10: Effect of absorber layer defect density on (i) Jsc, Voc, and (ii) FF, PCE.

In order to get the optimum defect density,  $N_t$  of the absorber layer on the PSCs performance is analyzed by taking the values from  $10^{12}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> to  $10^{17}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. **Figure 10** shows with the increase in defect density all the photovoltaic parameters decrease. The Voc drops from 1.4387 V to 1.4364 V and the Jsc from 16.364 to 15.859 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. A high density of defects can lead to a decrease in Voc due to the increase in recombination. In devices with high defect densities, the recombination rate becomes dominant, leading to a decrease in Voc. In addition, the increase in defect density can lead to an increase in the trap-assisted recombination rate, which can also reduce the Voc of the device. The values PCE and FF remains almost similar up to the defect density of  $10^{12}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> to  $10^{14}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> and reduce

significantly after  $10^{15}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. Therefore, the optimal defect density is taken as  $10^{12}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. The maximum PCE and FF is found to be 20.9% and 88.79% respectively for the defect density of  $10^{-12}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>.

## 3.5. Effect of carrier density

The doping of ETL and HTL can be carried out using one of the two methods. Minority carriers can be used to accomplish the doping rate., however this method dramatically reduces the photovoltaic characteristics. On the other hand, most carriers with greatly improved PV characteristics can also achieve it. PSC performance will be improved with an intermediate level of doping density.

## 3.5.1. Effect of donor density of ETL

In order to find the best suitable doping concentration of ETL, the donor density for WS<sub>2</sub> was enhanced from  $10^{15}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> to  $10^{19}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. The variation of  $V_{oc}$ ,  $J_{sc}$ , FF and the PCE was shown in **Figure 6**. The PCE and FF increased from 19.88% to 20.96% and 82.53% to 89.03%, respectively with the increase in donor density from  $10^{15}$  to  $10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. The  $J_{sc}$  was almost constant with the variation and there was a sudden drop after  $10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. Additionally, the  $V_{oc}$  enhanced from 1.43V to 1.44V with the rise in doping concentration. The optimal value of donor density was taken as  $10^{18}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> as the maximum PCE 20.96% was found at that value. The higher value of  $N_D$  makes it easy to extract charge and transportation of charge at the ETL/perovskite interface [74].

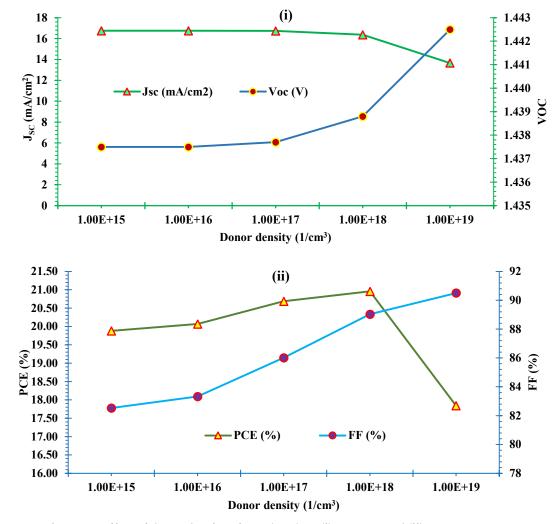


Figure 11: Effect of donor density of ETL (WS2) on (i) Jsc, Voc, and (ii) FF, PCE.

#### 3.5.2. Effect of acceptor density of HTL

The variation of acceptor density of HTL(N<sub>A</sub>) has a major influence on the performance of PSCs. Small amount of variation in acceptor concentration caused variation in the stability of the PSCs. To obtain the optimum value of N<sub>A</sub>, the N<sub>A</sub> was varied from  $10^{16}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> to  $10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. There was a small increase in V<sub>oc</sub> and J<sub>sc</sub> from 1.4385V to 1.4388V and 16.359 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> to 16.366 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> with the increase in HTL acceptor density.

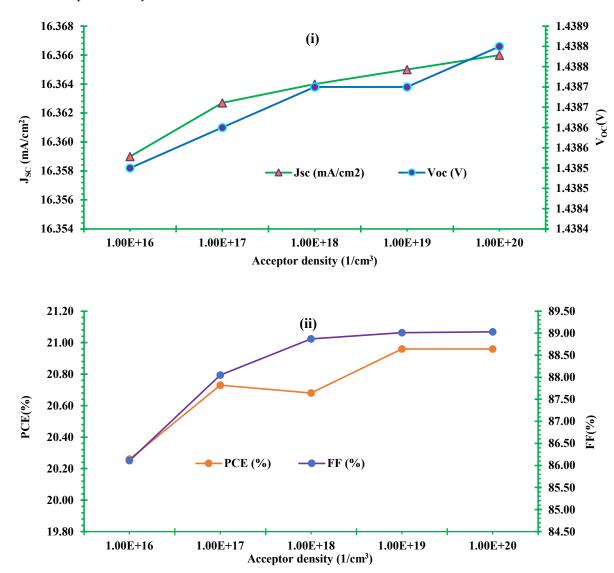


Figure 12: Effect of acceptor density of HTL(NiO) on (i) Jsc, Voc, and (ii) FF, PCE.

In addition to that the PCE and FF was improved from 20.26% to 20.96% and 86.11% to 89.03%, respectively with the augmentation of N<sub>A</sub>. Therefore, the optimum value of N<sub>A</sub> was taken  $10^{20}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> as the maximum PCE 20.96% was found at that value of acceptor concentration. The higher the N<sub>A</sub>, the production of interface electric field among the PSC layer is higher. It causes the increase in electric potential. However, this growth in PCE brings a higher recombination of charge carriers, which causes an increase in dopant concentration in the absorber layer[74,75].

## 3.6. Comparison of initial and optimized final model

An improvement of current-voltage characteristic can be seen from **Figure 13** for the optimized final model than the initial model. From the J-V characteristic curve, performance parameters of a

PSC device can be understood. Here, from the J-V curve it can be observed that for the final optimized model an improved I-V curve is obtained than that of initial model.

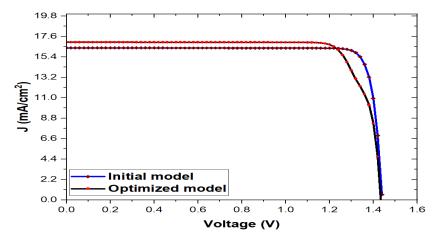


Figure 13: Comparison of J-V characteristic curve of initial and final optimized model.

**Figure 14** depicts that the quantum efficiency in optimized final model is higher than the quantum efficiency of initial model. To obtain proper knowledge about quantum efficiency of the initial model and optimized final model, the wavelength was varied from 300 nm to 900 nm. In this wavelength range, the quantum efficiency varied due to tuning of different input attributes such as bandgap and thickness of absorber layer, carrier density and defect density of absorber material.

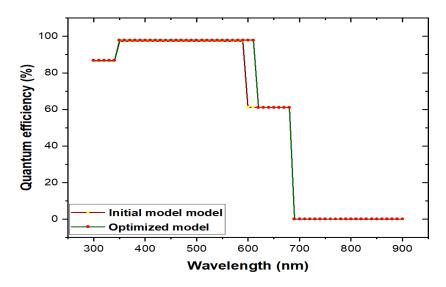


Figure 14: Comparison of capacitance of initial and final optimized model as a function of wavelength.

Quantum efficiency (QE) measures a solar cell's capacity to produce charge carriers from photon energy. From **Figure 14**, it's clear that higher quantum efficiency can be obtained by tuning the PSC device in a proper way, thus higher amount of charge carriers can be produced from the absorber layer, that means generation rate would be increased. As a result, better performance can be obtained due greater generation of electron-hole pairs.

#### 3.7. Comparison with literature

Organic spiro-OMeTAD can be fabricated in flexible and simple method of manufacture, therefore, is the material that is most frequently employed in the commercial and industrial sectors [76]. Despite this, the material is unsuitable for PSCs due to poor hole mobility, low conductivity, high manufacturing costs, and instability brought on by moisture, oxidation, and light. Additionally,

TiO<sub>2</sub> is another popular n-type material which is most commonly used as ETL. Despite having potential for excellent photovoltaic function, photo corrosion resistance, superior thermal stability, and the 3.2eV bandgap presents a difficulty [77]. PSC configurations with these materials and lead-based perovskite shows better characteristics that is clear from table, however due to their toxicity and instability problem further improvement are required through investigating new materials to replace these toxic and instable materials.

**Table 5:** Comparison of different established model with the present model in this study.

Models	M.d. I.	Voc(V)	Jsc(mA/cm	EE(0/ )	PCE(%	D. C	
	Methods	Voc(V)	2)	FF(%)	)	Ref	
FTO/TiO2/Cs3Sb2I9/spiro-	Simulation	1.32	12.12	72.01	10.54	[27]	
OMeTAD/Au	Simulation	1.32	13.13	72.01	12.54	[27]	
CZTSe/MAPbI3/Cd1-xZnxS/FTO	Simulation	1.12	26.45	88.90	27.13	[78]	
PTAA/MAPbI <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub>	Experimental	1.11	19.58	76	16.46	[79]	
Spiro – OMeTAD/MAPbI <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub>	Simulation	1.27	21.87	79.58	22.13	[80]	
Spiro – OMeTAD/MAPbI <sub>3</sub> /TiO <sub>2</sub>	Experimental	1.09	23.83	76.2	19.71	[81]	
CuI /MAPbI3/TiO2	Simulation	1.27	21.89	83.12	23.14	[80]	
CuI /MAPbI3/TiO2	Experimental	0.55	17.8	62	6	[82]	
NiOx/MAPbI3/PCBM: C60/Zr	Experimental	1.08	23.47	79.4	20.13	[83]	
FTO/TiO2/Cs3Bi2I9/spiro-	Cinnalation	1.02	21.02	73.4	11 14	[04]	
MeOTAD/Au	Simulation	1.03	21.02	73.4	11.14	[84]	
FTO/TiO <sub>2</sub> /Cs <sub>3</sub> Bi <sub>2</sub> I <sub>9</sub> /NiO	Simulation	0.92	22.07	68.21	13.82	[84]	
TTO MAIC IC. D. L. D. O.	Cinnalation		14.044	00.05		[Present	
ITO/WS2/Cs3Bi2I9/NiO/Au	Simulation	1.438	16.366	89.03	20.96	work]	

In this study, a novel PSC model was designed and simulated that shows better performance characteristics after optimization which can be seen from **Table 5Table 5**. Additionally, the selected perovskite material (Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>) is considered much stable [85] which is introduced in the previous section. Therefore, the designed model in this present work can be considered for further experiment and commercialization.

## 4. Conclusions

In this paper, the modeling and performance analysis was done for the Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> based PSC using SCAPS-1D. The lead-free Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> was used as the absorber layer and the selection of this layer was based on the better stability and non-toxicity of this material. WS<sub>2</sub>, PCBM, C60, TiO<sub>2</sub>, IGZO were used as the ETL material and Cu<sub>2</sub>O, CuSCN, CuSbS<sub>2</sub>, P3HT, PEDOT:PSS, Spiro-OMeTAD, NiO, CuI, CuO was used as the HTL material. Total of 45 different PSC models were simulated with the combination of these HTL and ETL with the Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub> based absorber layer. In addition, Au was taken as the back contact material. After the numerical simulation of these models, the combination of WS<sub>2</sub>-Cs<sub>3</sub>Bi<sub>2</sub>I<sub>9</sub>-

NiO was found to give the maximum PCE of 20.25%. This combination is the novel model in which WS2 is used as ETL with Cs3Bi2I9 perovskite layer. In order to enhance the performance parameters (Voc, Jsc, FF, PCE) of the PSC and to achieve the maximum PCE, this model was scrutinized by varying the parameters like absorber layer thickness, band gap, defect density and carrier density of the ETL and HTL. The thickness of absorber layer was found to be 400 nm as optimum as PCE was maximum 20.59% at 400 nm. Thin absorber layer was found to give the good efficiency for the perovskite model. There was a significant change in the performance with the variation of absorber layer band gap. For the band gap of 2.1 eV, the PCE was the highest among others. There was found a significant increase in PCE from 20.59% to 20.9% for this bandgap. Though, the defect density has a major impact on the effectiveness of the PSCs, there was observed no such changes in the maximum efficiency with the variation of defect density. The maximum efficiency of 20.9% was found at the absorber layer dopant density of 1012 cm<sup>-3</sup>. There was a gradual increase in the performance parameters with the variation in carrier density. The maximum of 20.96 % PCE was obtained with the ETL donor density of 1018 cm-3 which was the best we found in our numerical analysis. Since, higher the ND makes the extraction of the charge easier to the ETL/ perovskite layer. The optimum acceptor density of HTL was found to be 10<sup>20</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> and here also the maximum PCE was found to be 20.96%. Finally, after the full optimization the PSC attained a PCE of 20.96% which was initially found to be 20.25%.

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