

Design and Optimization of Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide (CZTS) Thin Film Solar Cell

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Abstract- In this research work, we show how to develop and simulate highly efficient Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide (CZTS) based thin film solar cell with dual-heterojunction. A dual-heterojunction is created when Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide (CZTS) forms a p-n junction with a window layer and another p-p⁺ connection with a highly doped back surface Field (BSF) layer. The simulation was performed with SCAPS-1D software, which uses known experimental physical parameters. The results exhibit the best PCE as high as 45.08 % with $V_{oc}=1.346$ V, $J_{sc}=41.59$ mA/cm², FF=80.49 % for dual heterojunction structure of n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p⁺-CGS/Ni with a good level of temperature coefficient (TC) is found to be (-0.069 %/°C). The simulation results show that the PCE of the single heterojunction n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/Ni solar cell may reach 19.62%, while the Power Conversion Efficiency (PCE) of the dual heterojunction solar cell can reach 45.08 %.

Keywords: Dual-heterojunction; CZTS; BSF; CGS; SCAPS-1D.

Nomenclature

		Symbol	Acronyms and Abbreviations		
W (μm)	Thickness	N_t ($\text{eV}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-3}$)	Peak defect density	PCE	Power Conversion Efficiency
ϵ_r	Dielectric Relative Permittivity	N_V (cm^{-3})	Valance Band Effective Density	BSF	Back Surface Field
χ	Electron Affinity	N_C (cm^{-3})	Conduction Band Effective Density	ZnSe	Zinc Selenide
E_g (eV)	Band Gap	N_d (cm^{-3})	Donor Density	CZTS	Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide
V_{oc} (V)	Open Circuit Voltage	N_a (cm^{-3})	Acceptor Density	CGS	Copper Gallium Selenide

J_{sc} (mA/cm ²)	Short Circuit Current	μ_e (cm ⁻² /Vs)	Electron Mobility	Ti	Titanium
FF (%)	Fill Factor	μ_h (cm ⁻² /Vs)	Hole Mobility	Ni	Nickel
η (%)	Efficiency	T (K)	Temperature		

1. Introduction

The basis for solar energy and photovoltaic (PV) technology is the notion that sunlight is tapped into to create useful energy types. This procedure furthermore calls for solar radiation collection to transform how much sun oriented radiation into helpful types of energy like heat and electricity. Solar energy has no fossil fuel by products and is really great for the climate. For solar photovoltaic, crystalline silicon (c-Si) technology currently has the bulk of market share (PV). Monocrystalline crystals are the first category. To create the polycrystalline form of silicon, a block of cast silicon must first be divided into bars. In addition to the crystalline silicon-based technology, PV tools and supplies can be used to convert solar energy into electrical power. A solar gadget is made up of one single cell. Photovoltaic (PV) cells have a restricted power output and are usually relatively tiny. These phones, which are typically constructed from a range of semiconductor materials, are thinner than four human hairs. Cells are encased in a mix of polymers and/or glass and positioned between two layers of protection to guarantee that they can withstand the environment for an extended period of time. PV cells are frequently connected to bigger units known as modules or boards in order to improve the amount of power they can generate. To generate arrays, modules can be utilized alone or in combination with other modules. Due to its notable power conversion efficiency (PCE), a range of solar cells made of various materials and manufacturing techniques have become more and more popular recently. These include solar cells made of zinc telluride (Zn₃P₂), copper indium gallium selenide (CIGS), and cadmium telluride (CdTe) [1]. Distinguished by its unique hue, monocrystalline solar cells are the purest form of silicon cells, with confirmed efficiency over 20 % [2]. However, due of their four-sided cutting method, they are quite costly. Polycrystalline solar cells, which are produced by the plasma-enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) method, have been offered as a more affordable option [3]. They record an efficiency of around 15.5 %, which is lower than their efficiency, and they are also less resilient to temperature variations [4].

Thin-film solar cells, which are distinguished by their layered construction, have been available for purchase since about 2002 [5]. But they are still quite expensive and have poor efficiency. CdTe solar cells, which have an efficiency of 11% on record, were created in an attempt to lower the cost of solar cells, despite their toxicity [6]. The structural and optical features indicate that the produced CdTe films can serve as an appropriate absorber layer for thin film-based solar cells [7, 8, 9]. Researchers conducted research on absorber materials, as

well as window layer and buffer layer materials, for the appropriate solar cell structure [10, 11, 12, 13]. As a result, attention has been drawn to Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide (CZTS) solar cells, which are inexpensive, extremely effective, and safe for the environment. Researchers performed research on best hetero-junction partner of CZTS to boost up PCE, better thermal stability as well as preserve the potential photovoltaic materials in earth crust [14, 15, 16]. CZTS quaternary semiconductors have garnered particular attention as thin-film solar cells since the late 2000s. The naturally occurring, non-toxic CZTS has been shown to have an efficiency of 9.2 % when paired with a Zn_{1-x}Cd_xS window layer [17]. The goal of current research is to lower the cost and increase the efficiency of CZTS solar cells. The chemical formula of CZTS is Cu₂ZnSnS₄, and it has the appearance of greenish-black crystals with a density of 4.59 g/cm³ and a molar mass of 439.471 g/mol [18]. Its tetragonal crystal structure, 1.4–1.5 eV band gap, and melting point of 990°C all point to its feasible fabrication and long-term durability [19]. With an absorption value of 10⁴ cm⁻¹, CZTS offers various benefits as an absorber layer that enable it to absorb more photons and convert them into electrical energy [20]. Furthermore, CZTS has a dielectric constant of 13.65 and a high relative permittivity of around 10, indicating that it polarizes more readily and converts light into electrical energy more efficiently [21, 22]. The disorder of Cu–Zn cations, a typical defect shown by neutron scattering, is one of CZTS's main disadvantages. This problem affects the PCE of CZTS solar cells by causing a significant open-circuit voltage deficit [23]. Because of the electron trapping states these flaws produce, recombination is facilitated, lowering the open-circuit voltage and the solar cell's efficiency [24]. But, temperature therapy can lessen this issue [25]. Other ways to get over CZTS absorber layer flaws include choosing the right back contact to increase electrical conductivity, annealing in a vacuum to improve crystal quality, and keeping the thickness of the layer less than 2500 nm to minimize ohmic contact [26].

Based on the Shockley–Queisser detailed-balance theory, a dual-heterojunction solar cell can have a maximum efficiency of between 42% and 46% [27, 28]. A three-terminal dual-heterojunction bipolar transistor solar cell with a theoretical efficiency potential of around 54.7% has been claimed by Marti et al. [29]. This activity involves designing and simulating a highly efficient Cu₂ZnSnS₄ (CZTS)-based solar cell. Cu₂ZnSnS₄ (CZTS)-based solar cells have previously been the subject of extensive study; the cell structure of n-ZnS/p-CZTS/p⁺-WSe₂ with $V_{oc}=0.96V$, $J_{sc}=33.72$ mA/cm², FF=83.75 %, and a PCE of 27.31 was determined to have the latest best performance [30].

The main objective and aim of this work is to modeling Copper Zinc Tin Sulfide (CZTS) based thin film solar cell with best performance and more stable cell structure. For this, dual heterojunction cell structure is introduced which is the novelty of this research work. The methodology of dual-heterojunction is that the absorber layer forms a p-n junction with a window layer and another p-p⁺ connection with a highly doped back surface Field (BSF) layer. As a result, dual-heterojunction is created. Firstly, in order to determine the ideal window layer structure, we examine the performance of ZnSe window layer with the change in value of thicknesses and doping concentration. Secondly, as a back surface field (BSF) layer, we used copper gallium selenide (CGS) and we assessed the performance according to thickness and doping concentration. Finally, we built dual-heterojunction solar cell with the cell structure of n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p⁺-CGS/Ni and the power conversion efficiency (PCE) is 45.08 %. So, the optimization of the power conversion efficiency (PCE) was made by this dual heterojunction cell structure. To ensure the stability of this model we analysed temperature effect on the cell structure and find temperature coefficient (TC) is (-0.069 %/°C) which proves this cell structure is stable.

2. Modeling and Simulation

The simulation was conducted with experimental physical parameters using SCAPS-1D software. SCAPS-1D solves the drift-diffusion equations, Poisson's equation, and continuity equations for electrons and holes in one dimension and uses numerical algorithms like the Finite Difference Method (FDM), Newton-Raphson Method, and Gummel's Method to solve complex equations that describe the behavior of solar cells. Numerical simulations were powered by a single sun with 100 mW/cm² of light along with a 1.5G spectrum global air mass (AM). 100 mW/cm² means that each square centimeter of the area is receiving 100 milliwatts of power and AM1.5G spectrum is used as a standard for testing solar cells, as it approximates the sunlight conditions in mid-latitude regions. At 300 K, the operational temperature was being measured. There was no consideration of the radiative recombination coefficient, and the optimal values of shunt and series resistance were employed. Bulk layers were assumed to have Gaussian acceptor and donor doping patterns, and interface defects were also investigated.

The simulated schematic design of the dual-heterojunction n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p⁺-CGS/Ni cell is shown in "Figure 1". Nickel (Ni) acts as the back contact in this structure. Incoming sunlight is absorbed by the CGS and CZTS layers, after it has passed through the ZnSe layer. CZTS has an ionization potential of 7.5 eV and an electron affinity of 4.5 eV, whereas ZnSe has an ionization potential of 6.79 eV [31, 32]. Because of this, ZnSe is a good material to use with CZTS to generate a p-n heterojunction. Furthermore, owing to its 1.66 eV band gap and 3.67 eV electron affinity [33], CGS may create a suitable p-p⁺ heterojunction with CZTS. In the presence of the appropriate energy barriers, the holes created by the CZTS and CGS layers can migrate toward the anode, making it easier for them to reach the cathode.

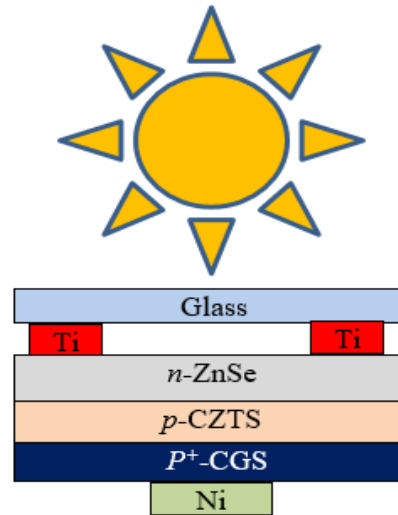


Fig. 1. Proposed structure of CZTS solar cell

Table 1. Electrical parameter of different layers for simulation in SCAPS

Material Properties	ZnSe [31]	CZTS [32]	CGS [33, 34, 35]
W (μm)	0.05	0.8	0.2
E_g (eV)	2.7	1.5	1.66
χ (eV)	4.09	4.5	3.67
ϵ_r	9.2	10	8.5
N_c (cm^3)	1.5×10^{18}	2.2×10^{18}	2.2×10^{17}
N_v (cm^3)	1.8×10^{19}	1.8×10^{19}	1.8×10^{18}
μ_h (cm^2/Vs)	20	25	25
μ_e (cm^2/Vs)	50	100	100
N_a (cm^{-3})	0	1×10^{16}	1.0×10^{19}
N_d (cm^{-3})	1×10^{18}	0	0
Distribution	Gaussian	Gaussian	single
Type of defect	Acceptor	Donor	Donor
N_t ($\text{eV}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-3}$)	5.642×10^{14}	5.642×10^{14}	1×10^{14}
Reference Energy [eV]	1.350	0.650	0.6

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. ZnSe Window Layer effect on Cell Performance

ZnSe window layer generally has a range of ideal thicknesses that maximize solar cell conversion efficiency. A compromise between carrier collection and light transmission determines the ideal thickness. To successfully capture photon generated carriers and ensure low carrier recombination as well as maximal current extraction, it should be thick enough. It should not, however, be very thick since this may prevent light from reaching the absorber layer, lowering the quantity of incoming light that can be absorbed and resulting in less photo-current production [36]. The conversion ability of a thin film solar cell may be altered by changing thickness of ZnSe window layer. This is essential for aiding effective carrier

collection, lowering recombination losses, and improving the solar cell's overall efficiency [37].

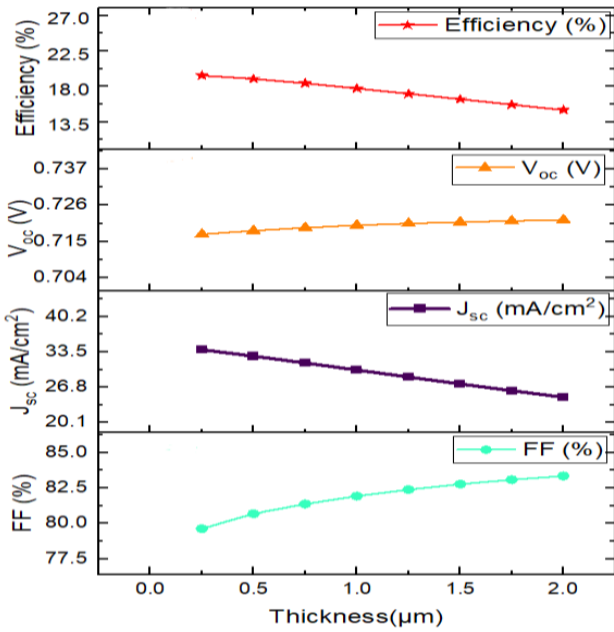


Fig. 2. Thickness variation of ZnSe

“Figure 2” below shows thickness variation of ZnSe window layer from 25 nm (1 µm = 1000 nm) to 200 nm and we observed the value of V_{oc} & FF was increased. On the other hand, the value of J_{sc} was decreased. So, the efficiency was decreased from 19.62% to 14.99 %. We Observed optimize value of thickness is 25 nm.

The ZnSe window layer generally has an ideal doping concentration range that balances the effectiveness of carrier extraction and collection. Doping concentration refers to the amount of dopant atoms added to a semiconductor material to modify its electrical properties.

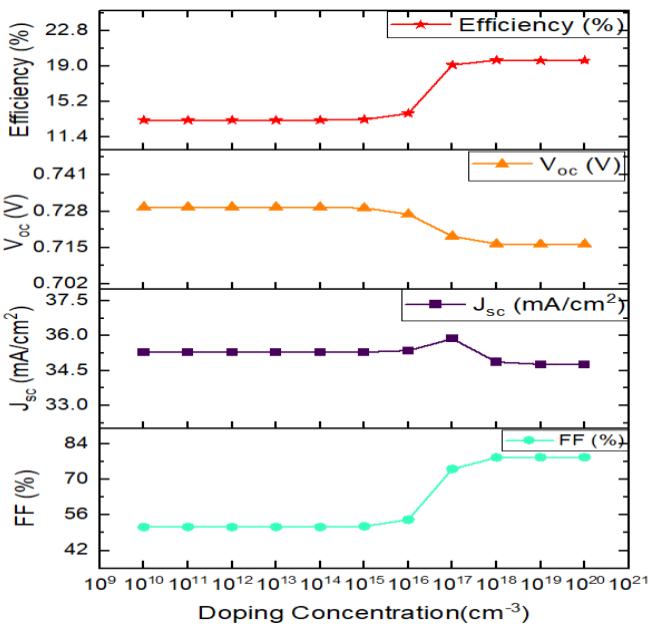


Fig. 3. Doping Concentration variation of ZnSe .

“Figure 3” displays the variance of doping concentration of ZnSe window layer from 10¹⁰ cm⁻³ to 10²⁰ cm⁻³ and we

observed almost the constant value of V_{oc}, J_{sc} & FF upto 10¹⁶ cm⁻³ doping concentration. As a result, the efficiency was almost same value from 10¹⁰ cm⁻³ to 10¹⁶ cm⁻³ then increased to highest 19.61 % for the of doping concentration 10¹⁰ cm⁻³. Doping can increase the window layer's conductivity, facilitating efficient electron and hole transport. Higher conversion efficiency is the result of this easier separation of the photon generated carriers from the absorber layer. The exact solar cell design, materials employed and device structure affect doping concentration [38].

3.2. Impact of BSF Layer on Cell Performance

At solar cell's back surface, the BSF layer serves as a barrier to stop carrier recombination. By properly separating the photon generated electrons and holes in an area of high electric field, it decreases the likelihood of them recombining and lengthens their lifespan. The BSF layer aids in maximising the solar cell's total conversion efficiency by reducing carrier recombination [39]. Through the creation of a stronger electric field close to the back surface, the BSF layer improves carrier collecting. This field directs the photon generated carriers towards the direction of contacts, enabling effective extraction. A greater photocurrent results the better carrier collection, which boosts the solar cell's overall performance.

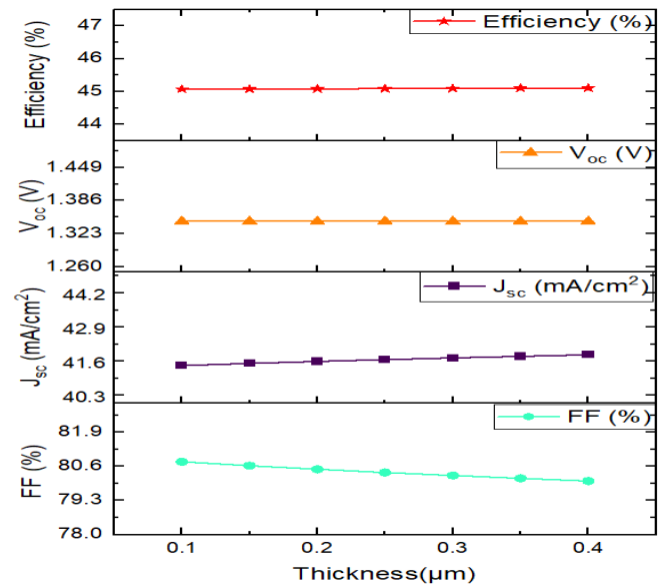


Fig. 4. Thickness variation of CGS

“Figure 4” shows the variation of thickness of CGS BSF layer from 100 to 400 nm, we observed almost constant value of V_{oc} & J_{sc} slightly increased. On the other hand the value of FF was decreased gradually. As a result, the efficiency remain almost constant at 45.08 %. 200 nm was selected for the cell's stable structure and cost-effectiveness.

Doping can also influence the bandgap of the CGS BSF layer. It is feasible to adjust the bandgap and electrical structure of CGS by varying doping concentration. As a result, this bandgap engineering can optimize the alignment with the absorber layer's bandgap, allowing for effective light absorption and carrier collection, and potentially boosting the solar cell's conversion efficiency. “Figure 5” shows variation of doping concentration of CGS from 10¹⁰ cm⁻³ to 10²⁰ cm⁻³,

we observed almost the constant value of V_{oc} , J_{sc} & FF at 10^{17} cm^{-3} , as a result, the efficiency was almost constant. After increasing the value of doping concentration, efficiency slightly increased.

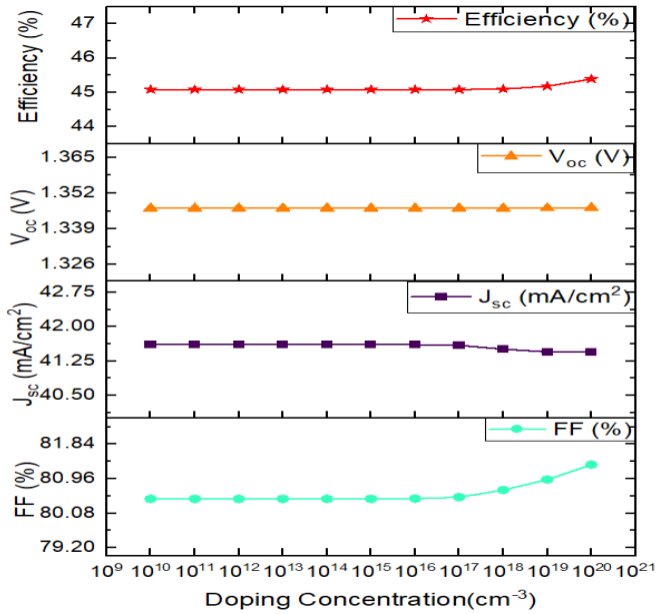


Fig. 5. Doping Concentration Variation of CGS

4. Variation of Defect Density for CZTS Solar Cell

As part of our inquiry into the impact of fault density, we have conducted experiments in which the value of imperfection density was changed from 10^{10} cm^{-3} to 10^{17} cm^{-3} , while ideal layer thickness remained same throughout the whole structure. Defect density is a measure of the number of structural imperfections within a material.

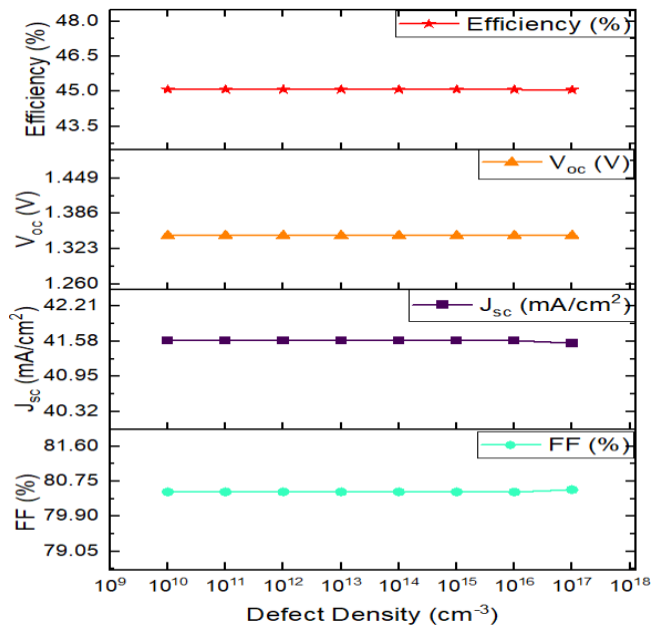


Fig. 6. Variation of Defect Density for CZTS Solar Cell

“Figure 6” shows the parameter curves for a number of different deficiency densities that were measured. This deterioration in quality may be linked to an increase in the recombination rate that happens with an increase in the defect density. Together, these two factors contribute to an overall rise in the defect density. In contrast, when the fault density is lower than 10^{17} cm^{-3} we saw almost constant values V_{oc} , J_{sc} & FF, as a result, the efficiency was almost constant at 45.08 %.

5. Temperature Variation’s Impact on CZTS Solar Cell

Temperature evaporation has a significant influence on the output power of solar systems in thin-film solar cells [40, 41]. The variability of cell parameters is impacted by changes in operating temperature. The researchers looked at the thermal stability of the suggested solar cell in order to assess the potential of the CZTS absorber layer. “Figure 7” below shows the impact of operating temperature on efficiency from 250 K to 500K. The dual heterojunction cell’s (n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p⁺-CGS/Ni) temperature coefficient is (-0.069 %/°C) which denotes a good level of temperature stability.

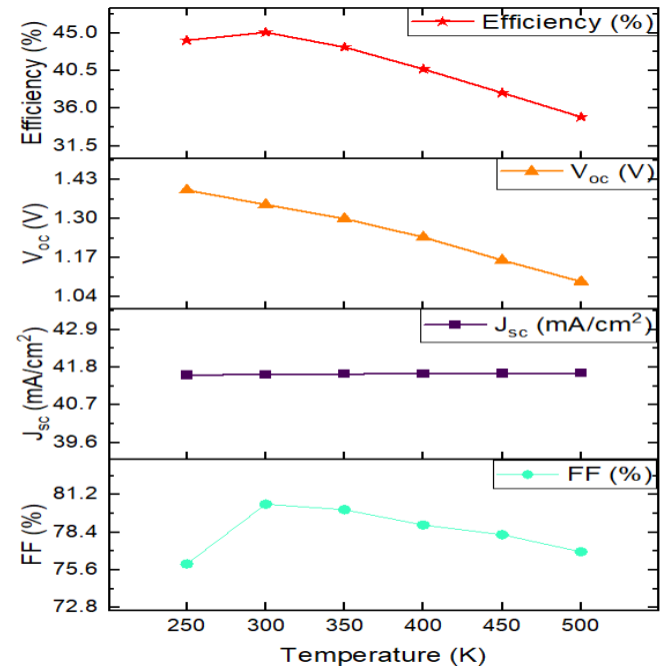


Fig. 7. Effects of operating temperature with BSF

6. JV Curve Characteristics

JV (current density-voltage) curve visually depicts the performance of a solar cell. Plotting the current density (J) vs the voltage (V) provides crucial information on the cell’s open-circuit voltage, fill factor, short-circuit current density and efficiency. J-V curve characteristics for the suggested cell shape are displayed in "Figure 8". The graph indicates that the suggested cell structure performs better with BSF than without BSF.

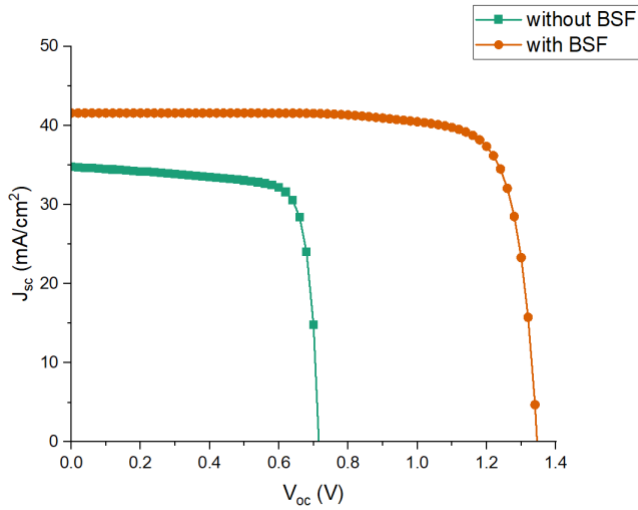


Fig. 8. Comparative study of J-V characteristics curve with and without BSF

7. Quantum Efficiency of CZTS Solar Cell

The capacity of a solar cell to convert photons of different wavelengths into electrical current is measured by its quantum effectiveness, or QE. The QE spectrum of a CZTS solar cell shows the percentage of photons that are absorbed and changed into charge carriers (electrons or holes) as a function of wavelength. Effective photon absorption and conversion to electrical current are indicated by a high QE, whereas inefficient absorption or significant losses are indicated by a low QE.

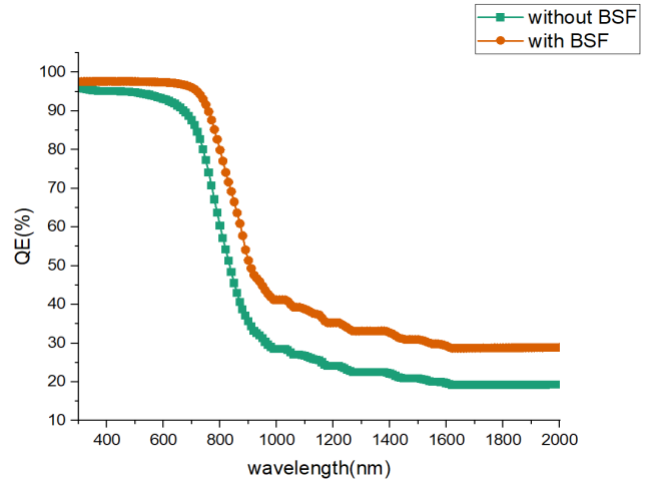


Fig.9. Quantum Efficiency of CZTS solar cell

"Figure 9" illustrates that the quantum efficiency approaches 100% at wavelengths less than 600 nm due to the absorption coefficient of the most materials being higher at shorter wavelengths. This suggests that the material absorbs a higher percentage of photons with shorter wavelengths. As a result, more electron-hole pairs are created, raising the QE. The BSF layer, which also functions as the bottom absorber layer, absorbs photons with longer wavelengths using the TSA's two-step photo up conversion process. Furthermore, the BSF layer increases the intrinsic potential of the CZTS/CGS contact, which increases the V_{oc} . As such, quantum efficiency for dual heterojunctions is toward longer wavelengths in comparison to single heterojunctions without a BSF layer.

Table 2. Comparative table presenting recent research with various device configurations

Cell Structure	V_{oc} (V)	J_{sc} (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)	Reference
n-ZnS/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -WSe ₂	0.96	33.72	83.75	27.31	[30]
n-CdS/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -Si	0.68	23.71	65.97	10.69	[32]
n-In ₂ S ₃ /p- CZTS	0.43	8.3	52	1.85	[42]
n-ZnS/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -Mo	0.38	17.19	46	3.02	[43]
n-In ₂ S ₃ /p- CZTS/p ⁺ -Mo	0.62	20	54.5	6.9	[44]
n-ZnS/p-CZTS	0.73	20.27	58.59	8.94	[45]
n-CdS/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -Mo	0.75	22.10	84.89	14.17	[46]
n-In ₂ S ₃ /p-CZTS/p ⁺ -Au	0.67	25.85	82.24	14.41	[47]
n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -Mo	0.82	26.53	74.14	16.24	[48]
Perovskite/CZTS	1.18	24.79	88.36	25.95	[49]
n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/Ni	0.716	34.77	78.77	19.62	[This work]
n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p ⁺ -CGS/Ni	1.346	41.59	80.49	45.08	[This work]

8. Conclusion

In the simulation, the ZnSe window layer and the CGS BSF layer were employed to compare and optimize performance for the simulation of CZTS solar cells. The total efficiency of the single cell structure of n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/Ni structure is 19.62% with $V_{oc}=0.716V$, $J_{sc}=34.77\text{ mA/cm}^2$, and $FF=78.77\%$. Efficiency for dual heterojunction cell structure of n-ZnSe/p-CZTS/p⁺-CGS/Ni is 45.08% with $V_{oc}=1.346V$, $J_{sc}=41.59\text{ mA/cm}^2$ and $FF=80.49\%$. Thermal stability is also assessed at each level, leading to the computation of the temperature coefficient at the end which is (-0.069 %/°C) which can provide a cleaner alternative to fossil fuels and reducing the overall carbon footprint and promoting environmental sustainability.

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