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Citation: Campbell, Stephen, Phillips, Laurie J., Major, Jonathan D., Hutter, Oliver, Voyce, Ryan, Qu, Yongtao, Beattie, Neil, Zoppi, Guillaume and Barrioz, Vincent (2022) Routes to Increase Performance for Antimony Selenide Solar Cells using Inorganic Hole Transport Layers. Frontiers in Chemistry, 10. p. 954588. ISSN 2296-2646

Published by: Frontiers

URL: https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2022.954588 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fchem.2022.954588>

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### Routes to Increase Performance for Antimony Selenide Solar Cells using Inorganic Hole Transport Layers

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Submitted to Journal: Frontiers in Chemistry

**Specialty Section:** Electrochemistry

**ISSN:** 2296-2646

Article type: Original Research Article

Received on: 27 May 2022

Accepted on: 19 Aug 2022

Provisional PDF published on: 19 Aug 2022

Frontiers website link: www.frontiersin.org

Citation:

Campbell S, Phillips LJ, Major JD, Hutter OS, Voyce R, Qu Y, Beattie NS, Zoppi G and Barrioz V(2022) Routes to Increase Performance for Antimony Selenide Solar Cells using Inorganic Hole Transport Layers. *Front. Chem.* 10:954588. doi:10.3389/fchem.2022.954588

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## Routes to Increase Performance for Antimony Selenide Solar Cells using Inorganic Hole Transport Layers

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#### ABSTRACT

Simple compound antimony selenide  $(Sb_2Se_3)$  is a promising emergent light absorber for photovoltaic applications benefiting from its outstanding photoelectric properties. Antimony selenide thin film solar cells however, are limited by low open circuit voltage due to carrier recombination at the metallic back contact interface. In this work, solar cell capacitance simulator (SCAPS) is used to interpret the effect of hole transport layers (HTL), i.e. transition metal oxides NiO and MoO<sub>x</sub> thin films on Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> device characteristics. This reveals the critical role of NiO and  $MoO_x$  in altering the energy band alignment and increasing device performance by the introduction of a high energy barrier to electrons at the rear absorber/metal interface. Close-space sublimation (CSS) and thermal evaporation (TE) techniques are applied to deposit Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> layers in both substrate and superstrate thin film solar cells with NiO and  $MoO_x$  HTLs incorporated into the device structure. The effect of the HTLs on Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> crystallinity and solar cell performance is comprehensively studied. In superstrate device configuration, CSS-based Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells with NiO HTL showed average improvements in open circuit voltage, short circuit current density and power conversion efficiency of 12%, 41% and 42%, respectively, over the standard devices. Similarly, using a NiO HTL in TE-based Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices improved open circuit voltage, short circuit current density and power conversion efficiency by 39%, 68% and 92%, respectively.

Keywords: Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>, photovoltaic, inorganic hole transport layers, SCAPS, thin films

#### **1 INTRODUCTION**

Antimony selenide (Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>), as a simple and low-cost compound with a direct energy band gap (~1.18 eV), high absorption coefficient (>10<sup>5</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) and high carrier mobility (~10 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs, is a promising emergent light absorber for photovoltaic (PV) applications (Birkett et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2015, 2017). As a material, Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> is mainly composed of (Sb<sub>4</sub>Se<sub>6</sub>)<sub>n</sub> as 1-D ribbon structures, where the ribbons are strongly coupled by covalent bonds running along the c-axis with weaker Van der Waals (VdW) interactions

between the ribbons. Thus, stacking of the ribbons occurs due to the weaker VdW bonds (Deringer et al., 2015). Hole mobility is enhanced in the *c*-axis and can reach 45 cm<sup>2</sup>/Vs along the ribbons (Black et al., 1957).

A number of studies have reported that Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> thin films with preferred crystallographic orientation along the  $(hk_1)$  direction, particularly (221), resulted in devices with higher efficiencies (Leng et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). The improved performance is often attributed to increased charge transport through the  $(hk_1)$ -oriented ribbons perpendicular to the substrate and benign grain boundaries in this material (Chen et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2020). Wang and co-workers demonstrated the dependence of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> PV device performance on the preferred crystal orientation of the absorber (Wang et al., 2017). In that work, by optimising growth conditions,  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells with preferred (211) and (221)-orientations on CdS and ZnO achieved higher efficiencies (5.6% and 6.0%, respectively) than those with (020) and (120)-orientations (3.2% and 4.8%, respectively). For planar Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells in substrate orientation, a record efficiency of 6.5% has been reported with the  $Cd_{0.75}Zn_{0.25}S$  buffer layer being used as an alternative to CdS (Figure 1A shows standard substrate device). Meanwhile, Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices with this buffer layer but in a superstrate structure (Figure 1B) have achieved an efficiency of 7.6% (Wen et al., 2018). Recently, a record substrate device efficiency of 9.2% was obtained by growing (001)-oriented Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> nanorod arrays on sputtered molybdenum layers (Li et al., 2019). A conformal interfacial TiO<sub>2</sub> layer was used to mitigate the migration of elemental antimony (Sb) into the CdS buffer layer, as interdiffusion has been shown to create a detrimental CdSe interlayer (Phillips et al., 2019).

In this work, thin transition metal oxides, NiO and  $MoO_x$ , are applied as HTLs in substrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  devices to improve carrier selectivity at the back electrode by controlling inter-diffusion and formation of secondary phase materials (such as  $MoSe_2$ ) at the interface. Additionally, NiO and  $MoO_x$  HTLs are deposited on superstrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  films before making Au back contacts to alter the energy band alignments at the back contact effectively producing an electron reflector, and minimising carrier recombination.

In the first part of this study,  $Sb_2Se_3$  substrate/superstrate device simulations using solar cell capacitance simulator (SCAPS) are conducted in order to interpret the effect of HTLs on  $Sb_2Se_3$  device characteristics (Burgelman et al., 2000). We then characterise the material properties of  $MoO_x$  and NiO thin films deposited at room temperature by electron beam evaporation. At this temperature it was found that NiO formed a crystalline film, unlike  $MoO_x$  which was amorphous.  $Sb_2Se_3$  absorber films were then fabricated by closed-space sublimation (CSS) and thermal evaporation (TE) techniques and incorporated into superstrate and substrate solar cell configurations. HTLs were inserted at the metal electrode/Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber interface and their effect on  $Sb_2Se_3$  crystallinity and solar cell performance is comprehensively studied.

#### **2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

#### 2.1 Device Fabrication

The basic structure of substrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells was as follows: soda lime glass(SLG)/Mo/Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>/CdS/ ZnO/ITO/Ni-Al. Mo coated soda lime glass (SLG) substrates measuring 7.5 x 2.5 cm<sup>2</sup> were used in this study. NiO or MoO<sub>x</sub> HTLs were deposited between the Mo electrode and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>. Thin HTL films of 15 nm thickness were deposited using e-beam evaporation. 500 nm thick Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> layers were prepared by TE of crystalline/powder Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> source material (Alfa Aesar, 99.99%) at a deposition rate of ~15 Å/s. The substrates were maintained at a temperature of 300 °C throughout the deposition. The Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films were subsequently subjected to a heat treatment at 300 °C for 30 mins in Ar atmosphere in a tube furnace to promote recrystallisation. For the CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films, a compact seed layer was grown at 0.05 mbar  $N_2$  for 5 mins with a source temperature of 350 °C, followed by a 30 min growth step at 13 mbar and a source temperature of 450 °C to produce a compact and highly orientated grain structure. The substrate was then rapidly cooled with  $N_2$ . An *n*-type CdS buffer layer (~60 nm) was deposited by chemical bath deposition followed by DC-pulsed sputtering deposition of an *i*-ZnO (~35 nm) layer plus a transparent conductive window layer ITO (~200 nm). Front contact grids comprising Ni (~50 nm) and Al (~1000 nm) were deposited through a shadow mask by e-beam evaporation. Finally, 0.16 cm<sup>2</sup> cells were defined by mechanical scribing on each substrate.

Superstrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells have the following configuration: SLG/ITO/CdS/Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>/Au with NiO or  $MoO_x$  HTLs deposited between the metal contact and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber. The ITO layer was deposited by DC-pulsed sputtering and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> layers were grown by TE and CSS as detailed above. Finally, Au back contacts with an area of 0.07 cm<sup>2</sup> were deposited through a shadow mask by e-beam evaporation.

#### 2.2 Material and Device Characterisation

The crystal structures of  $Sb_2Se_3$  were characterised by X-ray diffraction (XRD) with Cu K $\alpha$ 1 (1.54056 Å) radiation (Rigaku SmartLab SE). The surface morphology and cross-sectional images of  $Sb_2Se_3$  films were taken by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Tescan Mira 3 FEG-SEM). Optical spectroscopy measurements were performed using a Shimadzu UV-2600 spectrophotometer fitted with an integrating sphere. Kelvin probe force microscopy (KFPM) measurements were done using a KP Technology KP020 single point kelvin probe system fitted with a standard 2 mm Au tip.

Current-density vs voltage (*J-V*) measurements of  $Sb_2Se_3$  thin film solar cells were performed using an Abet Technologies solar simulator at 1-sun (100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) illumination equivalent to air mass 1.5 global spectrum with light power density calibrated using a Si reference cell.

#### 2.3 Device Simulation

Device simulation was carried out for both substrate and superstrate configuration Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cell using Solar Cell Capacitance Simulator (SCAPS 1-D), which is based on the solutions to Poisson's equation and continuity equation for electrons and holes in the vertical heterostructure of multilayer thin film PV device (Burgelman et al., 2000). The input parameters of the solar cells were defined with the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>, HTL and electron transport layer (ETL) semiconducting properties, including experimentally determined bandgaps, electron affinity, density of states (Zeng et al., 2016), mobility of charge carriers (Chen et al., 2017), acceptor/donor concentrations (Wang et al., 2015), and defect state density (Leijtens et al., 2016). Defects were introduced at the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>/CdS interface to simulate realistic device performance.

#### **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 3.1 Simulated Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices

Simulation analysis using SCAPS software was implemented to evaluate the performance of reference substrate and superstrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells and those incorporating  $MoO_x$  and NiO as HTLs, subsequently

referred to as samples Ref,  $MoO_x$  and NiO, respectively (see Table 1 for film properties). Figure 2 shows the J-V curves and corresponding box plots of J-V parameters of both Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> device configurations with incorporated HTLs. Regarding the substrate devices, all device parameters are improved, with the exception of  $V_{oc}$  which shows a slight decrease for devices with a HTL (down from 0.423 V for the reference device to 0.408 and 0.411 V for  $MoO_x$  and NiO devices, respectively). However, devices with  $MoO_x$  HTL show evidence of roll-over behaviour. The roll-over phenomenon, which occurs near the  $V_{oc}$  in a light J-V curve, is due to Schottky energy barrier formed at the absorber/metal interface at a solar cell back contact (Hädrich et al., 2011; Eisenbarth et al., 2011). It acts as a reverse biased diode when the main junction is forward biased, blocking carrier transport for increasing forward bias, resulting in roll-over behaviour in light J-V characteristics. The baseline  $J_{sc}$  in the reference device was 29.9 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, rising to 31.2 and 31.3 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> in  $MoO_x$  and NiO devices, respectively. Addition of HTL films to the reference device demonstrated a notable increase in FF for substrate devices. The FF in the reference device was 47.0%, rising to a maximum of 55.6% and 56.0% in the MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO devices, respectively. The increase in  $J_{sc}$  and FF of devices with integrated HTL materials directly translates into improvements in power conversion efficiency, PCE ( $\eta = 5.9\%$  (Ref), 6.7% (MoO<sub>x</sub>) and 7.2% (NiO)). The current-blocking energy barrier at the back contact of the  $MoO_x$  substrate device could explain the lower PCE in comparison to the device with a NiO HTL. It is important to note that the results shown are not representative of the maximum conversion efficiencies that may be achieved with Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>, as we are focusing solely on the effect of the HTL, while using currently available materials parameters.

For superstrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells, devices with an incorporated HTL showed an increase in  $J_{sc}$  of around 8% from 31.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> observed in the reference device to 33.5 and 34.0 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> in the devices with a  $MoO_x$  and NiO HTL, respectively. As a result of the improvement in  $J_{sc}$ , the PCE of solar cells with a HTL increased to 7.5% (MoO<sub>x</sub>) and 8.0% (NiO) from the reference value of 7.3%. Interestingly, no roll-over was seen in the J-V curve for the  $MoO_x$  device which could be related to the use of Au as metallic back contact rather than Mo in the substrate devices. The work function (WF) of a metal employed as a rear contact on a PV device plays an important role in facilitating hole extraction at the contact (Fleck et al., 2020). Typically, Au is reported to have a WF of 5.10 eV (Michaelson, 1977) and Mo has WFs ranging from 4.50 - 4.95 eV, depending on the preferred crystal orientation of the metal (Michaelson, 1977; Hölzl and Schulte, 1979; Green, 1969). To illustrate the effect of back contact metal WF on substrate/superstrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  device performance, Figure 3 shows the dependence of J-V parameters on the WF of Mo and Au metals. It is apparent that the J-V parameters of all substrate devices are sensitive to variations in the value of Mo WF. In the Ref and  $MoO_x$  substrate devices,  $V_{oc}$  decreases monotonically with Mo WF where a significant drop is observed from 0.432 V and 0.422 V at WF 4.95 eV to 0.036 V and 0.093 V at WF 4.50 eV for Ref and  $MoO_x$  devices, respectively. This is a clear indication of an increasing back contact barrier with decreasing Mo WF. This phenomenon has been observed experimentally in Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells previously (Liu et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017). The  $V_{oc}$  in the NiO device is less affected by the Mo WF, reducing from 0.422 V at WF 4.95 eV to 0.319 V at WF 4.50 eV. A similar trend is seen in  $J_{sc}$ , FF and  $\eta$ parameters for the substrate devices. However, a low Mo WF of 4.50 eV causes a notable decrease in FF of the MoO<sub>x</sub> device (12.3%), compared to the Ref and NiO devices (26.0% and 32.4%).

In order to understand the improvement of the device performance with the introduction of HTLs, it is necessary to consider the energy band alignment at the interfaces at the back of the PV devices. **Figure** 4 shows the simulated energy band diagrams of substrate and superstrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices incorporating NiO and MoO<sub>x</sub> HTLs. Due to a small electron affinity (EA = 1.46 eV (NiO), 2.05 eV (MoO<sub>x</sub>)) and large band gaps ( $E_g \sim 3.80$  eV (NiO), 3.50 eV MoO<sub>x</sub>x)) in both HTL materials, a large potential energy barrier is formed at the back contact, reflecting electrons. This barrier minimises carrier recombination at the back interfaces with Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> and improves conductivity at the back electrode. However, it is apparent that a non-negligible hole barrier of 0.26 and 0.29 eV is formed at the  $MoO_x/Sb_2Se_3$  interface of the substrate and superstrate devices, respectively, which can manifest as *J-V* roll-over behaviour seen in the simulated  $MoO_x$  substrate device. Thus the SCAPS simulations indicate the incorporation of a  $MoO_x$  or NiO HTL into substrate and superstrate configuration Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells increases device performance compared to a standard solar cell by the introduction of a high energy barrier to electrons at the rear absorber/metal interface.

#### 3.2 Fabricated Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> Devices

100 nm thick films of  $MoO_x$  and NiO were deposited on SLG at room temperature to facilitate characterisation of the HTLs. **Figure** 5 shows surface morphology SEM images of the respective HTLs. The  $MoO_x$  film exhibits an amorphous, flake-like structure in comparison to a compact crystalline morphology observed in the NiO film. XRD patterns in **Figure** 6 confirm the amorphous and crystalline nature of the  $MoO_x$  and NiO films, respectively. All the diffraction peaks in the NiO thin film were identified and indexed to cubic NiO (JCPDS number 04-0835) and no diffraction peaks of other impurity phases were observed.

**Supplementary Materials S1A** shows the spectral transmittance and reflectance of the NiO and  $MoO_x$  films on SLG. Both HTLs are highly transparent in the visible and near-infrared wavelength region and their transmittance falls sharply at ultraviolet wavelengths. However, the amorphous  $MoO_x$  film has slightly lower transmittance/higher reflectance in the sub-600 nm wavelength region compared to the crystalline NiO film. The bandgap energy ( $E_g$ ) of the HTL films was calculated by extrapolation of the linear region of the Tauc plot to the *x*-axis, according to the relation (Tauc et al., 1966):

$$(\alpha h\nu)^2 = A(h\nu - E_g) \tag{1}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the absorption coefficient of the semiconductor material, *h* is Planck's constant,  $\nu$  is the frequency of the electromagnetic radiation and A is a constant of proportionality. The estimated  $E_g$  values of NiO and MoO<sub>x</sub> films are 3.95 and 3.85 eV, respectively (see **Supplementary Materials S1B**). A HTL film thickness of 15 nm was incorporated into the superstrate/substrate device to ensure a conformal coating of the HTL. A HTL requires a thickness sufficient to preserve the desired material properties and not impede charge transport considerably which would detrimentally increase series resistance in the finished devices.

#### 3.3 Superstrate Devices

TE and CSS deposition techniques were employed for Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> film growth on SLG/ITO/CdS superstrates. For TE, the SLG/ITO/CdS superstrates were heated to 300 °C prior to Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> deposition in order to promote the growth of preferred (*hk*1) crystal orientations while minimising (*hk*0) orientations (Zhou et al., 2015). (*hk*0) planes, specifically (120), have been found to be detrimental to carrier transport (Li et al., 2019; Wen et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2018). The (*hk*0)-oriented Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> nanoribbons are stacked parallel to the ITO/SLG superstrate where conductivity is inhibited by electrically insulating VdW bonds between the stacked nanoribbons. A seed layer is used in Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films deposited via CSS. This seed layer has a high density of nucleation points for the second stage of growth during the CSS process, which improves uniformity, raising the average efficiency of devices (Hutter et al., 2018a). Transmittance and reflectance data for a representative TE Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> film was used to determine the  $E_g$  from a Tauc plot, which gave a  $E_g$  value of 1.17 eV in good agreement with (Birkett et al., 2018), see **Supplementary Materials**  **S2A,B**. XRD patterns for Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films deposited by TE and CSS are shown in **Figure** 7A. The peaks in both XRD patterns are sharp and well resolved indicating the polycrystalline nature of the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> thin films. The lattice planes are cross-referenced to JCPDS card no. 15-0861 confirming the formation of orthorhombic Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> with space group Pbnm. Both XRD patterns show similar characteristics, exhibiting strong (211) and (221) peaks with minimal contributions from (*hk*0) planes. **Figure** 7**B**-E shows the top and cross-sectional SEM images of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> thin films deposited by TE and CSS. The different growth techniques result in contrasting Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> film morphologies. TE produces Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films of uniform thickness of ~500 nm and densely packed grains, confirming the good crystallinity of the films, consistent with the XRD results (**Figure** 7**B**,**D**). However, this deposition method did not form a conformal coating of the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> film across the entire superstrate with the presence of pinholes observed, see **Supplementary Materials S3A**.

Conversely, CSS-grown  $Sb_2Se_3$  films have a rough surface morphology with exceptionally large grains in comparison to the TE films and the grains extend the full depth of the layer. Larger grains are a prerequisite for better device performance as charge mobility is faster along the  $Sb_2Se_3$  ribbons than hopping between the ribbons (see **Figure 7C,E**). The CSS films also showed a degree of porosity but not to the extent observed in the TE films, **Supplementary Materials S3B**. The presence of pinholes in the  $Sb_2Se_3$  films is detrimental to device performance as shunting pathways may be formed upon subsequent deposition of the Au back contact (Hutter et al., 2018b).

J-V measurements under 1-sun illumination (100mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) were performed on Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices in the standard superstrate configuration and devices incorporating MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO HTLs. The light J-V curves were fitted using a single diode model to extract the values of series ( $R_s$ ) and shunt ( $R_{sh}$ ) resistances. **Figure** 8 compares the statistical distribution of the key PV parameters for these devices, where a minimum of 10 cells of each device type were measured. On average, there was a slight increase in  $V_{oc}$  when a NiO HTL was incorporated into the CSS device structure. Using a NiO HTL layer increased  $V_{oc}$  to 0.226 V from values of 0.201 and 0.186 V for Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> devices, respectively. The mean  $J_{sc}$  of NiO cells was also enhanced to 15.94 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> compared to Ref (11.34 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) and MoO<sub>x</sub> (10.54 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) cells despite a slightly lower average FF in the NiO devices. This translates into a higher mean NiO CSS device efficiency of 1.01% with Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> devices achieving efficiencies of 0.71 and 0.59% respectively. Notwithstanding the higher average  $R_s$  (2.6  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>) and lower  $R_{sh}$  (74  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>) values for NiO CSS solar cells compared to Ref ( $R_s = 2.9 \ \Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>,  $R_{sh} = 119 \ \Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>) and MoO<sub>x</sub> ( $R_s = 1.3 \ \Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>,  $R_{sh} = 167 \ \Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup>) cells, using NiO as a HTL increases performance by boosting  $J_{sc}$  in CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> superstrate devices compared to the standard and MoO<sub>x</sub> based devices.

The average J-V parameters of TE Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> superstrate devices followed a similar trend to those observed in the CSS devices ( $V_{oc}$  : 0.209 V (Ref)  $\rightarrow$  0.214 V (MoO<sub>x</sub>)  $\rightarrow$  0.288 V (NiO),  $J_{sc}$  : 1.94 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (MoO<sub>x</sub>)  $\rightarrow$  8.05 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (Ref)  $\rightarrow$  13.48 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (NiO)  $\Rightarrow \eta$  : 0.10% (MoO<sub>x</sub>  $\rightarrow$  0.72% (Ref)  $\rightarrow$  1.38% (NiO)). It is worth noting that the mean FF of the Ref TE cells (38.0%) was higher in relation to the cells with a HTL (27.2% MoO<sub>x</sub>, 34.6% NiO). This correlates to an increase in  $R_{sh}$  of 382  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> in Ref samples from  $R_{sh}$  values of 349  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> and 154  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> measured in MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO cells, respectively. In TE superstrate device configuration, the thin MoO<sub>x</sub> film appears to form a more resistive layer compared to Ref and NiO devices ( $R_s$  : 10.8  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> MoO<sub>x</sub>, 4.1  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> Ref and 6.6  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> NiO). Thus, overall device performance in MoO<sub>x</sub> based solar cells is negatively impacted by low  $J_{sc}$  and high  $R_s$  which could be related to the amorphous nature of the MoO<sub>x</sub> thin film and the presence of a current-blocking barrier at the back contact highlighted in device simulations. Despite lower FF in NiO based solar cells, device efficiencies exceed those of Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> TE devices due to improvements in  $V_{oc}$  and  $J_{sc}$  showing the benefit of using NiO as a HTL in superstrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells.

#### 3.4 Substrate Devices

**Figure** 9 shows the XRD patterns of substrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  thin films deposited via TE and CSS. All diffraction peaks are in good agreement with the orthorhombic  $Sb_2Se_3$  (JCPDS 15-0861), which presents in the form of (*hk*0), (*hk*1) or (*hk*2). No diffraction peaks of other impurity phases were observed. TE  $Sb_2Se_3$  films on Mo and Mo/MoO<sub>x</sub> substrates show (020) and (120) peaks compared to all other  $Sb_2Se_3$  films. The presence of (020) and (120) crystal orientations in thin  $Sb_2Se_3$  films adversely affects PV device performance (Leng et al., 2014; Yuan et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017). However, when using a NiO HTL in TE  $Sb_2Se_3$  films, it can be observed that the intensity of the diffraction peaks of  $Sb_2Se_3$  is dominated by (221) and (211) crystal plane orientations. Furthermore, when using the Mo/NiO substrate,  $Sb_2Se_3$  film shows an increased peak intensity for the (002) orientation. Since *h* and *k* miller indices have a zero value, it indicates that the (Sb\_4Se\_6)<sub>n</sub> ribbons grow perpendicular to the substrate surface (Li et al., 2019). For CSS  $Sb_2Se_3$  films, Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> samples demonstrate a higher (002) peak intensity than NiO.

**Figures** 10 and 11 show SEM images of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films on Mo-coated SLG deposited by TE and CSS methods, respectively. The top-down SEM images of the TE films (**Figures** 10**A-C**) show a difference in morphology depending on the presence of the underlying HTL. The MoO<sub>x</sub> sample exhibits larger Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> grains than the Ref sample and the presence of pinholes in both samples is patently obvious. On the other hand, the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> grains in the NiO sample appear more angular in nature although pinholes are still present in the film. The dissimilarity in morphology is emphasised in SEM cross-section images of the TE Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films (**Figures** 10**D-F**). Voids at the absorber/Mo interface are apparent in the Ref TE sample whereas the MoO<sub>x</sub> sample shows a homogenous film with large grains. For the NiO sample, the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> grains appear column-like with no voids at the Mo interface. The top-down SEM image of all types of CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films in the Ref sample is on average thicker (~1000 nm) than the MoO<sub>x</sub> (~550 nm) and NiO (~700 nm), see **Figures** 11**D-F**. The NiO sample also has a smoother surface topography.

To quantify the difference in orientations between the substrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  thin films, the texture coefficient (TC) of diffraction peaks of the samples was calculated based on the following equation (Zoppi et al., 2006):

$$TC_{(hkl)} = \frac{\frac{I_{(hkl)}}{I_0(hkl)}}{\frac{1}{N}\sum_N \frac{I_{(hkl)}}{I_0(hkl)}}$$
(2)

where  $I_{(hkl)}$  is the measured peak intensity of (hkl) plane and  $I_0(hkl)$  the intensity in the standard XRD pattern. N is the total number of reflections considered for the calculation. A diffraction peak with a relatively large TC value (>1) indicates a preferred orientation of the grain along this direction. Figure 12 shows the TC for Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> thin films with HTLs deposited by (A) TE and (B) CSS. It is apparent from Figure 12 that NiO HTL plays a critical role in eliminating the detrimental (*hk*0) planes in the TE samples and at the same time, significantly increases absorber growth in planes, i.e. (211), (221) that are perpendicular to the substrate surface. This further supports the enhanced device performance in solar cells when NiO is used as the HTL. In CSS samples, this templating effect of HTLs is not observed as no (*hk*0) planes are grown in the Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> samples. MoO<sub>x</sub> increases the growth of favoured crystal planes including (211), (221) and (002) compared to the Ref substrate sample whereas NiO appears to inhibit the growth of

the preferential planes, which may be attributed to rendering the seed layer ineffective but further study will be required to fully understand the reason.

**Figure** 13 shows the variation in *J*-*V* parameters measured for a minimum batch size of  $10 \text{ Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  solar cells in substrate configuration deposited by TE and CSS incorporating HTLs. The use of  $MoO_x/NiO$  HTLs adversely affects all device parameters in CSS-based solar cells. This can be explained by lower average  $R_{sh}$  values of 55  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> and 47  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> determined for MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO device types, respectively, compared to 172  $\Omega$ cm<sup>2</sup> in the Ref devices. The reason for the reduction in  $R_{sh}$  of the substrate devices with a HTL is not obvious. Only working TE devices were achieved by incorporating a NiO HTL, which can be attributed to the templating effect of the NiO film which eliminated the deleterious (*hk*0) crystal planes and promoted the growth of preferred (211) and (221) planes. As highlighted in device simulations, the performance of substrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells can be dependent on the WF of Mo back contact (see Fig 3). Mo metal typically has a WF in the range of 4.5 - 4.95 eV. KPFM measurements on Mo coated SLG prior to Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> deposition determined the Mo WF to be 4.6 eV. According to simulations, device performance of Ref and MoO<sub>x</sub> substrate devices is severely impacted at the observed Mo WF. Simulated NiO device performance is affected to a lesser degree.

 $R_s$  values for both TE and CSS substrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices were significantly higher than their superstrate counterparts and had a detrimental effect on overall substrate device performance. This could be related to a non-optimal sputtered ITO layer in the substrate devices with a typical sheet resistance of ~ 35  $\Omega/\Box$  (Qu et al., 2016) compared to commercially available ITO-coated glass slides used in superstrate devices with sheet resistances of 8 - 12  $\Omega/\Box$  (Sigma Aldrich).

#### 3.5 Simulated and Fabricated Device Comparison

Experimentally determined device parameters, such as  $R_s$  and  $R_{sh}$  and apparent doping density  $(N_A)$ of the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber, were incorporated into SCAPS simulations of TE/CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices in superstrate/substrate configurations in order to replicate the observed behaviour of the fabricated devices. For an accurate representation of the fabricated cells, the  $N_A$  value for the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber in the CSS devices was set to a value previously determined for the same CSS deposition process used in this study with a Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber thickness of 1  $\mu$ m (Phillips et al., 2019). An experimentally determined  $N_A$ value for a typical 500 nm thick TE  $Sb_2Se_3$  absorber was used in TE device simulations (see **Table** 1 for TE/CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> film properties). Figure 14 shows device performance of the simulated TE/CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices with experimentally determined  $R_s$ ,  $R_{sh}$  and  $N_A$  values. Similar trends are observed for all device parameters of the simulated and fabricated solar cells in both device configurations indicating the simulated devices are a reasonable representation of actual  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells (see **Figures** 8 and 13). However, in superstrate configuration, simulations overestimate all J-V parameters, indicating factors other than  $R_s$ ,  $R_{sh}$  and  $N_A$  are influencing device performance. Material properties such as carrier lifetimes, defects and band tails states have been cited as having a detrimental effect on overall device performance (Chen and Tang, 2020). In that work, a number of bulk defects in  $Sb_2Se_3$  were identified with energy levels within the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> bandgap ranging from 0.18 - 0.94 eV above the valence band maximum. For simulation purposes, a mid-gap donor defect (0.62 eV) was introduced for the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> bulk to reproduce realistic device

performance (Wen et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2020). Chen *et al.* also highlighted significant recombination occurring at the *n-p* interface which severely impacts both  $V_{oc}$  and  $J_{sc}$ . The presence of additional Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> bulk defects and increased absorber/buffer interface defect concentration could account for the differences observed between the simulated and fabricated devices studied here.

In addition, it is worth noting actual superstrate devices which incorporate a  $MoO_x$  HTL under-perform in relation to standard simulated superstrate devices (see **Figure** 8). This decrease in performance is not observed in the fabricated substrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells with a  $MoO_x$  HTL. This discrepancy can be accounted for by different processing conditions applied during deposition of substrate and superstrate devices. During deposition of  $Sb_2Se_3$  layer on SLG/Mo/HTL substrate, the substrate temperature is maintained at 300 °C which is sufficient to crystallise the  $MoO_x$  film, see **Supplementary Materials S4**. The crystallised  $MoO_x$  film consists of a mixture of  $MoO_2$ ,  $MoO_3$  and intermediate reduced oxide phases. The phase composition affects the electronic and optical properties of the  $MoO_x$  film, with  $MoO_2$  content lowering the resistivity, transmittance and bandgap (Inzani et al., 2017). Simulations also show a roll-over in the *J-V* curves for superstrate  $Sb_2Se_3$  devices in both configurations (see **Figure** 15), indicating the presence of a barrier to carrier transport at the back contact seen in simulated energy band alignments as previously discussed (**Figure** 4).

#### 4 CONCLUSIONS

Numerical simulations of standard planar superstrate and substrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells along with the effect of incorporating MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO HTLs, demonstrated an increase in device efficiency for cells with a HTL which was achieved by an increase in  $J_{sc}$  for both substrate and superstrate device configurations. Both HTLs have high bandgaps and low electron affinities compared to Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber which manifests as a large barrier for electrons at the metallic back electrode and facilitates hole extraction. However, a roll-over effect was seen in the simulated J-V curve of the substrate device with  $MoO_x$  HTL, suggesting a currentblocking barrier at the back contact caused by non-optimal energy band alignment. Material characterisation of the HTL materials deposited by E-beam evaporation at room temperature revealed  $MoO_x$  formed an amorphous layer while NiO crystallised in cubic crystal orientation. 15 nm thick HTLs were incorporated into superstrate/substrate solar cells with Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorbers deposited by thermal evaporation and closed space sublimation. For CSS superstrate solar cells with NiO HTL, device efficiency was enhanced by a 40% increase in  $J_{sc}$  compared to reference and MoO<sub>x</sub> based devices. TE superstrate cells incorporating NiO as HTL also demonstrated improved efficiencies achieved by higher  $V_{oc}$  and  $J_{sc}$ . In the superstrate TE cells with  $MoO_x$  HTL,  $J_{sc}$  was severely inhibited which is attributed to  $MoO_x$  forming a more resistive layer due to its amorphous nature. Conversely, the presence of a  $MoO_x$  or NiO HTL in substrate CSS-deposited  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells reduced device performance which is linked to lower average  $R_{sh}$  observed in these cells. Optimisation of HTL thickness and/or re-optimisation of the absorber deposition could potentially alleviate this issue. Simulations reveal a connection between the WF of the Mo metal back contact and substrate device performance. For an experimentally determined Mo WF of 4.6 eV, all device J-V characteristics are significantly reduced, whereas substrate devices with NiO HTL are only marginally affected. In addition, XRD analysis of TE Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films with NiO HTL revealed a templating effect on Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> crystal orientation where detrimental (020)/(120) crystal planes were eliminated and preferred (211)/(221) planes increased in intensity which resulted in increased device performance of substrate Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells. NiO shows

more promise as a HTL in  $Sb_2Se_3$  PV devices, and crucially can act as a templating layer when the  $Sb_2Se_3$  deposition method does not already impart the desired structure, as is often the case with TE devices.

#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

#### **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

SC, RV, LP and JM fabricated absorbers and solar cells, SC conducted material and device characterisation, data analysis and device simulations. SC wrote the manuscript with contribution from OH. OH, YQ, VB, NSB and GZ discussed results and contributed to manuscript mofification and finalisation. VB and YQ supervised the project.

#### FUNDING

The authors acknowledge the EPSRC Centre for Doctoral Training in Renewable Energy Northeast Universities (ReNU) for funding through grant EP/S023836/1. The authors also appreciate the support from North East Centre for Energy Materials (NECEM) (EP/R021503/1) and British Council Newton Fund Institutional Links Grant in Ultralight Absorber for Remote Energy Source (U-AREs, No. 623804307).

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Discussions regarding NiO thin film deposition with Prof. Elizabeth Gibson, School of Natural and Environmental Sciences, Newcastle University is acknowledged.

#### SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

Supplementary Material includes transmittance and reflectance data for  $MoO_x$ , NiO and  $Sb_2Se_3$  thin films and corresponding Tauc plots and SEM images showing pinholes in TE and CSS  $Sb_2Se_3$  films.

#### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The generated datasets for this study can be found in the Koutes to Increase Performance for Antimony Selenide Solar Cells using Inorganic Hole Transport Layers' repository [figshare].

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**Table 1.** Device simulation parameters, *d*: layer thickness,  $E_g$ : bandgap,  $\chi$ : electron affinity,  $\varepsilon/\varepsilon_0$ : dielectric constant,  $N_{C/V}$ : effective density of states C: conduction band (CB) V: valence band (VB),  $\mu_{e,h}$ : carrier mobility,  $N_{A/D}$ : apparent doping density D: donor A: acceptor,  $\sigma_{e,h}$ : capture cross section,  $N_{int}$ : interface defect concentration,  $E_t$ : defect energy level relative to CB/VB and  $N_{bulk}$ : bulk defect concentration. Subscripts *e* and *h* are electron and hole, respectively.

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Properties	$MoO_x$	NiO	$Sb_2Se_3$	CdS	<i>i</i> -ZnO	ITO
<i>d</i> (nm)	15	15	<mark>500 (TE)</mark>	70	35	200
			1000 (CSS)			
$E_q$ (eV)	$3.85^{a}$	$3.95^{a}$	$1.17^{a}$	$2.72^{a}$	$3.37^{b}$	$3.72^{c}$
$\chi$ (eV)	$2.20^{e}$	$1.46^{f}$	$4.15^{g}$	$4.70^{c}$	$4.70^{c}$	$4.50^{d}$
$\varepsilon / \varepsilon_0$	$10.0^{e}$	$11.9^{f}$	$14.4^{g}$	$9.0^b$	$9.0^b$	$9.4^d$
$N_C ({ m cm}^{-3})$	$2.2 \text{ x} 10^{18e}$	$2.2 \text{ x} 10^{18f}$	$2.2 \text{ x} 10^{18g}$	$2.1 \text{ x} 10^{18b}$	$1.8 \text{ x} 10^{19b}$	$4.0 \text{ x} 10^{19c}$
$N_V ({ m cm}^{-3})$	$1.8 \text{ x} 10^{19e}$	$1.8 \text{ x} 10^{19f}$	$1.8 \text{ x} 10^{19g}$	$1.7 \text{ x} 10^{19b}$	$2.4 \text{ x} 10^{18b}$	$1.0 \text{ x} 10^{18c}$
$\mu_e$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)	$30^e$	2.8f	$100^{g}$	$160^{b}$	$200^b$	$30^b$
$\mu_h ({\rm cm}^2/{\rm Vs})$	$2.5^e$	$2.8^{f}$	$25^{g}$	$15^{b}$	$93^b$	$5^b$
$N_{A/D}  ({ m cm}^{-3})$	D:3 x10 <sup>16<math>e</math></sup>	A:3 x10 <sup>18</sup> $f$	A:1x10 <sup>14h</sup> (TE)	D:1 x $10^{17b}$	D:1 x10 <sup>18b</sup>	D:1 x10 <sup>21<i>b</i></sup>
			A: $1x10^{16i}$ (CSS)			

Defects at Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>/CdS interface (Gaussian distribution throughout interface)

$N_{int} (\mathrm{cm}^{-3})$	D: varied	A: varied					
$\sigma_e (\mathrm{cm}^2)$	$10^{-13}$	$10^{-15}$					
$\sigma_h (\mathrm{cm}^2)$	$10^{-15}$	$10^{-13}$					
Bulk Sb <sub>2</sub> Se <sub>3</sub> defects (Gaussian distribution throughout bulk)							
$N_{bulk}  (\mathrm{cm}^{-3})$	D: 2.6 x10 <sup>16j</sup>	A: $5.0 \times 10^{15b}$					
$E_t$ (eV)	$0.62^{j}$	$1.20^{b}$					

 $10^{-13}$ 

 $10^{-15}$ 

 $10^{-17}$ 

 $10^{-13}$ 

<sup>a</sup>Experimentally determined from UV-VIS measurements

<sup>b</sup>Reference (Kanevce et al., 2015)

<sup>c</sup>Reference (Erkan et al., 2016)

 $\sigma_e$  (cm<sup>2</sup>

 $\sigma_h \,({\rm cm}^2)$ 

<sup>d</sup>Reference (Kartopu et al., 2019)

<sup>e</sup>Reference (Ni et al., 2019)

<sup>*f*</sup>Reference (Casas et al., 2017)

<sup>*g*</sup>Reference (Mamta et al., 2021)

<sup>h</sup>Experimentally determined from capacitance-voltage C-V measurements

<sup>i</sup>Reference (Phillips et al., 2019)

<sup>j</sup>Reference (Chen and Tang, 2020)

#### FIGURES



Figure 1. Standard planar (A) substrate and (B) superstrate configuration  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells.





**Figure 2.** (A) *J-V* curves and (B) *J-V* parameters of simulated  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells with different HTL materials. Roll-over behaviour is observed in the *J-V* curve of substrate devices with MoO<sub>x</sub> HTL.



**Figure 3.** *J*-*V* parameters of simulated  $Sb_2Se_3$  substrate devices with Mo back contact (varying Mo WF between 4.50 - 4.95 eV) and simulated  $Sb_2Se_3$  superstrate devices with Au back contact (WF at 5.1 eV).



Figure 4. Energy level alignment for the devices in substrate (A) and superstrate (B) orientations. Devices without a hole transport layer (top), with a  $MoO_x$  layer (middle) and a NiO layer (bottom) are shown.

А



B

**Figure 5.** Top-down SEM image of a 100 nm (**A**)  $MoO_x$  film and (**B**) NiO films on glass. Inset: Higher magnification image of the NiO film, showing the nanostructure.



**Figure 6.** XRD pattern of 100 nm films of (**A**) MoOx and (**B**) NiO on soda lime glass (SLG). Reference XRD data for  $MoO_2$ ,  $MoO_3$  and NiO are shown underneath the XRD with JPDCS card ID 65-5787, 35-0609 and 04-0835 respectively.



**Figure 7.** (A) XRD patterns of  $Sb_2Se_3$  layers deposited by TE and CSS on ITO/CdS superstrates with standard diffraction pattern for  $Sb_2Se_3$  (JCPDS15-0861) included for reference and SEM images of corresponding TE (**B**,**D**) and CSS (**C**,**E**)  $Sb_2Se_3$  samples.



**Figure 8.** *J*-*V* parameters of superstrate TE and CSS  $Sb_2Se_3$  devices with incorporated  $MoO_x$  and NiO HTLs.  $\Box$  is the average value and  $\times$  is the minimum and maximum position. The three horizontal lines of each box stand for the 25%, 50% and 75% of the reading distribution. The whisker range is determined by the standard deviation of the sampled devices. IQR is the inter-quartile range.



**Figure 9.** XRD patterns of  $Sb_2Se_3$  films deposited by TE or CSS on top of NiO,  $MoO_x$  and Mo-coated SLG.



**Figure 10.** Top-down and cross-sectional SEM images of reference substrate (**A**,**D**),  $MoO_x$  (**B**,**E**) and NiO (**C**,**F**) of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films deposited by thermal evaporation.



**Figure 11.** Top-down and cross-sectional SEM images of reference substrate (**A**,**D**),  $MoO_x$  (**B**,**E**) and NiO (**C**,**F**) of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> films deposited by closed space sublimation.



**Figure 12.** Texture coefficient analysis from XRD patterns of  $Sb_2Se_3$  films deposited via TE (A) and CSS (B) with different hole transport layers in substrate configuration. A diffraction peak with a relatively large TC value (>1) indicates a preferred orientation of the grain along this direction.



**Figure 13.** *J-V* parameters of substrate TE and CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> devices with incorporated MoO<sub>x</sub> and NiO HTLs.  $\Box$  is the average value and  $\times$  is the minimum and maximum position. The three horizontal lines of each box stand for the 25%, 50% and 75% of the reading distribution. The whisker range is determined by the standard deviation of the sampled devices. IQR is the inter-quartile range.



**Figure 14.** Comparison of J-V parameters of simulated TE and CSS Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells with different HTL materials in substrate and superstrate device configurations.



**Figure 15.** *J-V* curves for simulated TE and CSS  $Sb_2Se_3$  devices with HTLs in superstrate configuration. Roll-over behaviour is evident in both TE and CSS devices with  $MoO_x$  HTL indicating a carrier transport barrier at the back contact.

Figure 01.JPEG



Figure 02.JPEG



























