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# Numerical modeling and analysis of FeS<sub>2</sub>-based solar cell employing CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> as back surface field layer

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## ABSTRACT

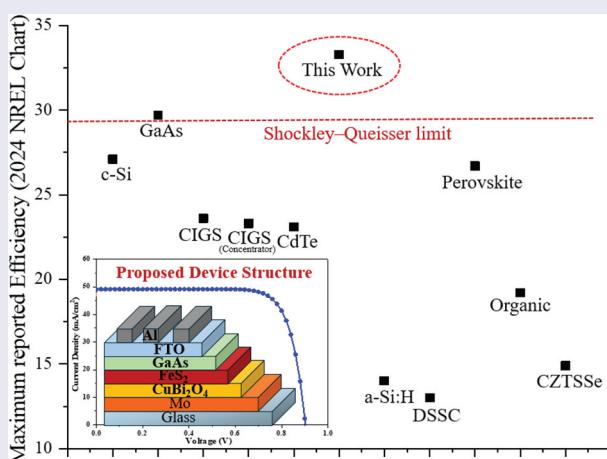
This research explores a novel design for thin-film solar cells, featuring FeS<sub>2</sub> as the absorber layer, CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> as the back surface field (BSF) layer, and GaAs as the buffer layer. We carefully evaluate the solar cell's performance using the SCAPS 1D simulator, including layer thickness, doping levels, and FeS<sub>2</sub> and CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> defect concentrations. Our n-GaAs/p- FeS<sub>2</sub> solar cell exhibits a notable power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 19.19%, a J<sub>SC</sub> of 46.34 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, a V<sub>OC</sub> of 0.517 V, and an FF of 80.02%. However, our study delves deeper into the intriguing introduction of the CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> BSF layer as a second absorber layer in solar cells. This modification boosts PCE to 33.29%, J<sub>SC</sub> (49.64 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>), and V<sub>OC</sub> (0.843 V) while retaining a high FF of 79.58%. The proposed FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure represents an impressive 73.49% improved cell performance compared to the conventional single junction FeS<sub>2</sub>-based solar cell. Due to the excellent band alignment in the dual-heterojunction arrangement, the efficiency increases significantly. Our study advances FeS<sub>2</sub> solar cell optimization, showing the promise of innovative material combinations for photovoltaic technology. Our findings also highlight the importance of adding second absorber layers to improve solar cell efficiency and contribute to sustainable energy.

## ARTICLE HISTORY

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Back surface field; CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>; FeS<sub>2</sub>; SCAPS 1D; thin film solar cell



## Introduction

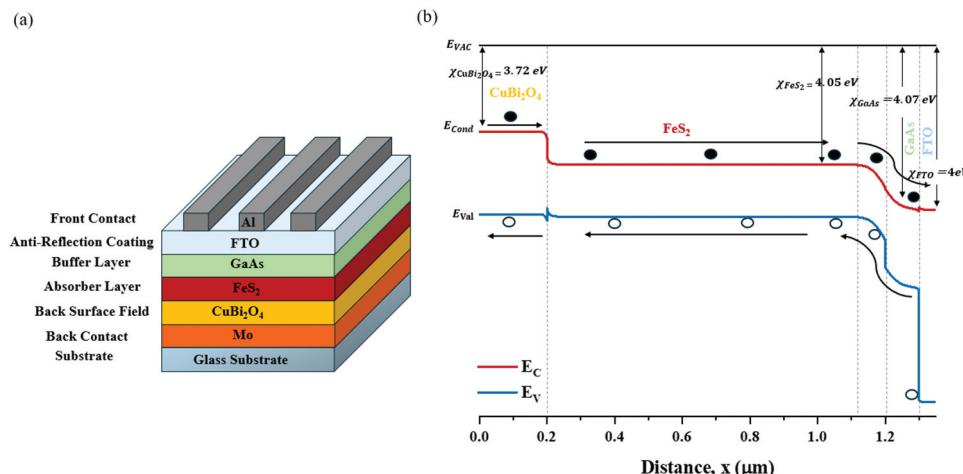
The topic of climate change has brought about a significant emphasis on renewable energy sources, particularly solar photovoltaics (PV). It is worth noting that the energy from the sun that reaches the earth's surface within an hour alone can satisfy the entire global energy demand for a year (Quaschning 2019) (Bhuiyan et al. 2021). Compared to Si solar cells, thin film solar cells (TFSCs) have gained popularity because of their low cost, simple construction method, and equivalent efficiency. CZTS-based solar cells are popular among different TFSCs due to their availability and low toxicity (Efaz et al. 2021). Introducing  $\text{Cu}_2\text{ZnSnS}_4$  (CZTS) was considered a favorable option for researchers. This is due to its high optical absorption coefficient of over  $10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , enabling it to capture roughly 90% of the incoming solar photons (Grossberg et al. 2019). Additionally, CZTS has an adjustable energy band gap of approximately 1.4–1.6 eV, which closely aligns with the optimal energy bandgap of single junction solar cells (Jhuma, Shaily, and Rashid 2019). Iron pyrite ( $\text{FeS}_2$ ) has been acknowledged as a highly efficient absorber material for TFSCs, mainly due to its distinctive electrical and optical properties. Iron disulfide ( $\text{FeS}_2$ ) is inexpensive and abundant, which could reduce solar cell manufacturing costs (Wadia, Alivisatos, and Kammen 2009).  $\text{FeS}_2$  greatly absorbs visible and infrared lights.  $\text{FeS}_2$ 's broad absorption spectrum efficiently gathers a wide range of wavelengths, improving the solar cell energy conversion efficiency.  $\text{FeS}_2$ 's straight bandgap makes it ideal for solar applications. The high absorption coefficient of  $\text{FeS}_2$  is proportional to the thin film's thickness, allowing complete light absorption, a bandgap of 0.95 eV, and long minority carrier diffusion lengths (100–1000 nm). Because  $\text{FeS}_2$  is abundant, it minimizes the need for expensive and rare parts in typical solar cells, promoting sustainability (Schieck et al. 1990). The use of  $\text{FeS}_2$  in tandem solar cells, which combine multiple layers of materials to boost efficiency, shows its adaptability and potential. Despite its potential, efficiency and scalability issues are being addressed through research and development.  $\text{FeS}_2$  is intriguing and promising for solar energy conversion due to its unique and sustainable features (Voigt et al. 2019).

$\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  is a low-cost, easy-to-use photocathode material for solar cells (Sullivan, Zoellner, and Maggard 2016) (Elaziouti et al. 2015). Moreover, it is nontoxic, abundant and has a low band gap of 1.4 to 1.8 eV and a high optical absorption coefficient of  $\sim 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , making it suitable for solar photovoltaic devices (Wang et al. 2017). When integrated into solar cell topologies, a back surface field (BSF) layer is typically utilized to decrease the width of the valence band barrier and minimize recombination losses at the back surface (Hosen et al. 2024) (Song et al. 2019). The BSF layer increases efficiency and Fill Factor by reducing shunting in the absorber layer (Kazmi et al. 2020). Also, thin-film solar cells with a second absorber layer like  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  show potential for PV technology. This novel strategy has many benefits. First, it increases the solar cell's light absorption capacity, allowing it to collect more wavelengths and increase efficiency. This method efficiently converts a larger photon energy range into tandem solar cells with multiple absorber layers and band gaps. The intentional integration of a second absorber layer reduces solar cell thickness while preserving efficiency, which is important for lightweight and flexible solar applications. The adaptability of this method allows for customized designs for certain applications and environments.

This study aims to investigate the significance of BSF in the context of  $\text{FeS}_2$ -based thin-film solar cells and employs the utilization of  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  as a secondary absorber layer. The  $\text{FeS}_2$ -based thin film solar cell structure configuration was Al/FTO/n-GaAs/p- $\text{FeS}_2$ /p<sup>+</sup>- $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$ /Mo. By optimizing  $\text{FeS}_2/\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer thickness, doping level, defect concentration, and temperature, a 33.29% efficiency with a high 0.843 V open-circuit voltage was obtained. The study essentially seeks to improve PV technology by improving  $\text{FeS}_2$ -based solar cell understanding and exploring new material combinations.

## Device layout and simulation methods

This study examined the PV performance of a heterojunction solar device with Al/FTO/n-GaAs/p- $\text{FeS}_2$ /p<sup>+</sup>- $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$ /Mo/rigid glass substrate. The proposed structure and associated band diagram of



**Figure 1.** Schematic (a) and band diagram (b) of the proposed FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-based solar cell structure.

the FTO/GaAs/FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure are illustrated in Figure 1. FeS<sub>2</sub> has a lattice parameter of 5.4195 Å, a band gap of 0.95 eV, and an electron affinity of 4.0 eV (Hossain, Mondal, and Mostaque 2022). In contrast, GaAs have a lattice parameter of 5.653 Å, a band gap of 1.424 eV, and an electron affinity of 4.07 eV (Kayali). Thus, the closely matched lattice parameters of FeS<sub>2</sub> and GaAs will reduce the defects at their interfaces. CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is a suitable BSF layer for the FeS<sub>2</sub> absorber layer due to its good band alignment (1.4 to 1.8 eV), high absorption coefficient, and preferable lattice parameters (5.814 Å and 5.823 Å) (Hosen, Mian, and Ahmed 2021). The formation of a pp<sup>+</sup> junction between the CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> layer and the FeS<sub>2</sub> layer results in an upward switching of the valence band maximum. This switching is attributed to the high built-in potential generated at the interface due to the higher doping in the BSF layer. Consequently, a minor steep rise occurs at the interface, facilitating the easy traversal of holes. Previous research has shown that adjusting the back contact metal's work function within the range of 4.5 to 5.5 eV, with particular emphasis on 4.9 eV (Hosen et al. 2024), significantly improves solar cell properties, including Fill factor (FF), open-circuit voltage ( $V_{OC}$ ), and overall cell performance (Sarker et al. 2023) (Hosen, Mian, and Ahmed 2021). This improvement was attributed to establishing an ohmic contact rather than a Schottky contact, which enhanced hole transportation within the solar cell (Hosen et al. 2024). To achieve high efficiency in CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-based solar cells, a rear electrode with a work function exceeding 4.9 eV is essential (Michaelson 1977), with metals like Mo chosen for their optical properties and low resistivity, contributing to enhanced device performance (Chavan and Chaure 2019). The FeS<sub>2</sub>-based TFSC structure was simulated using SCAPS 1D software under 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> incident power density of AM 1.5 G. All physical properties employed in the simulation are listed in Table 1.

## Results and discussion

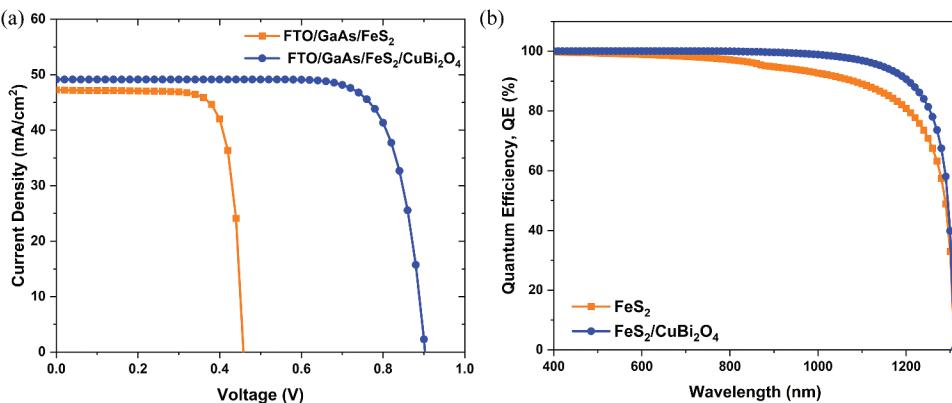
In Figure 2, the J-V characteristics of conventional and FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> absorber cells exhibit  $V_{OC}$  dominance. Bilayer absorber construction increases  $V_{OC}$  by 62.97% compared to conventional structure from 0.517 V to 0.8426 V. Adding CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> improved short circuit current ( $J_{SC}$ ) from 46.349 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> to 49.64 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (7.1% improvement) and efficiency from 19.1881% to 33.29% (73.49% improvement). Thus, increased  $J_{SC}$  also increases the  $V_{OC}$  as it is proportional to the generated photocurrent ( $J_{ph}$ ) due to the absorber producing electron-hole pairs.

CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> BSF layer beneath FeS<sub>2</sub> in the solar cell structure serves multiple purposes and provides significant advantages. First, it acts as an antireflection layer, helping to minimize light reflection at the

**Table 1.** Parameters of n-GaAs/p-FeS<sub>2</sub>/p±CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> solar cell.

Parameters	FTO (Kumar et al. 2020)	n GaAs (Lab 0000)	p FeS <sub>2</sub> (Hossain, Mondal, and Mostaque 2022)	p+ CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> (Hosen, Mian, and Ahmed 2021)
Layer type	ARC/Window	Buffer	Absorber	BSF
*Thickness [μm]	0.05	0.1	1	.2
Band gap, E <sub>G</sub> [eV]	3.5	1.424	.95	1.5
Electron affinity, X [eV]	4	4.07	4.05	3.72
Dielectric permittivity, ε [relative]	9	12.9	1.9	34
Effective CB density, N <sub>C</sub> [cm <sup>-3</sup> ]	2.2 × 10 <sup>18</sup>	4.7 × 10 <sup>17</sup>	3.0 × 10 <sup>18</sup>	1.2 × 10 <sup>19</sup>
Effective VB density, N <sub>V</sub> [cm <sup>-3</sup> ]	1.8 × 10 <sup>19</sup>	9 × 10 <sup>18</sup>	3.0 × 10 <sup>19</sup>	5 × 10 <sup>19</sup>
Hole mobility, μ <sub>P</sub> [cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	10	400	70	1.2 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Electron mobility, μ <sub>N</sub> [cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> ]	20	8500	370	1.1 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>
*Acceptor concentration, N <sub>A</sub> [cm <sup>-3</sup> ]	0	0	1.0 × 10 <sup>17</sup>	3.7 × 10 <sup>18</sup>
*Donor concentration, N <sub>D</sub> [cm <sup>-3</sup> ]	1.0 × 10 <sup>18</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>17</sup>	0	0
Defect type	–	Acceptor	Donor	Donor
Energetic distribution	–	Gaussian	Gaussian	Gaussian
*Peak defect density, N(t) [eV <sup>-1</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> ]	–	1.0 × 10 <sup>14</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup>
Characteristic energy [eV]	0.1	0.1	.1	.1
Reference energy [eV]	0.6	0.6	.6	.6
Hole capture cross section for acceptor defect [cm <sup>2</sup> ]	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>
Electron capture cross section for acceptor defect [cm <sup>2</sup> ]	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>	1.0 × 10 <sup>-15</sup>
Lattice Constant, (Å)	–	5.653	5.416	5.814

\*The variable values.



**Figure 2.** J-V characteristics (a) and spectral response (b) of the conventional and proposed structure.

back surface of the cell. This is evident from the increase in the  $J_{SC}$ , indicating that more incident light is effectively captured and converted into electricity. CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could serve primarily as a BSF layer, which helps to reduce recombination at the rear surface of the solar cell and improve charge carrier collection. This effect can contribute to both  $V_{OC}$  and  $J_{SC}$ . Moreover, introducing CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> may lead to a band alignment phenomenon at the interface with the underlying solar cell layers, enhancing  $V_{OC}$ . Optimized band alignments can reduce recombination and improve charge carrier separation, resulting in higher  $V_{OC}$  (Barman and Kalita 2021). This band alignment effect can be supported by the observation that an increase in the doping concentration of the BSF layer enhances both  $J_{SC}$  and  $V_{oc}$  (Attafi et al. 2021). In addition, the  $J_{SC}$  is also directly influenced by the quantum efficiency (Eq. 1) (Kabir et al. 2022). The J-V characteristics and the quantum efficiency as a function of the wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) are presented in Figure 2.

$$J_{SC} = \frac{q\lambda}{hc} \int S(\lambda) QE(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (1)$$

where  $q$  is election charge,  $h$  is Planck's constant,  $c$  is the speed of light in a vacuum, and  $QE(\lambda)$  is quantum efficiency, which is a measure of a solar cell's ability to convert photons at a specific wavelength into an electrical current, and  $S(\lambda)$  represents the intensity of the solar spectrum. The band diagram ([Figure 1b](#)) explains the small change in  $J_{SC}$ . A  $\text{FeS}_2/\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  contact has valence band offset (VBO) and conduction band offset (CBO) values of 0.045 eV and 0.595 eV, respectively. In the presence of a VBO (which creates a barrier for the hole), the  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layers may experience backflow due to band bending downhill (shown in [Figure 1b](#)), which can affect the hole mobility. This reverse conveyance of holes plays a crucial role in the slight variation of  $J_{SC}$ .

### **Effect of thicknesses of $\text{FeS}_2$ and $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$ layers**

The thickness of the semiconductor material directly influences a solar cell's efficiency. Increased thickness of materials leads to enhanced absorption of light, particularly for longer wavelengths, hence leading to a greater value of  $J_{SC}$ . Additionally, they offer an increased capacity for charge carriers, enhancing the collection of carriers and resulting in higher values of  $V_{OC}$  and FF. Nevertheless, using thicker materials might also increase the probability of carrier recombination, diminishing overall efficiency. Determining the most suitable thickness of a material is a crucial aspect of the design, as it necessitates a careful equilibrium between maximizing light absorption and minimizing recombination. Moreover, factors such as cost and practicality must be taken into account. It is important to note that various solar cell technologies and materials require specific thickness adjustments to attain optimal performance. The thickness of the  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer varied from 100 to 2000 nm, and that of the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer varied from 100 to 1000 nm to keep doping concentrations at a minimum. Donor doping concentrations for  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  were set at  $1.0 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $3.7 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , respectively, while also ensuring that the total defect density remains constant  $1.0 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $1.0 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$ . These are chosen to achieve a compromise between efficiency maximization and overall thin film solar cell thickness.

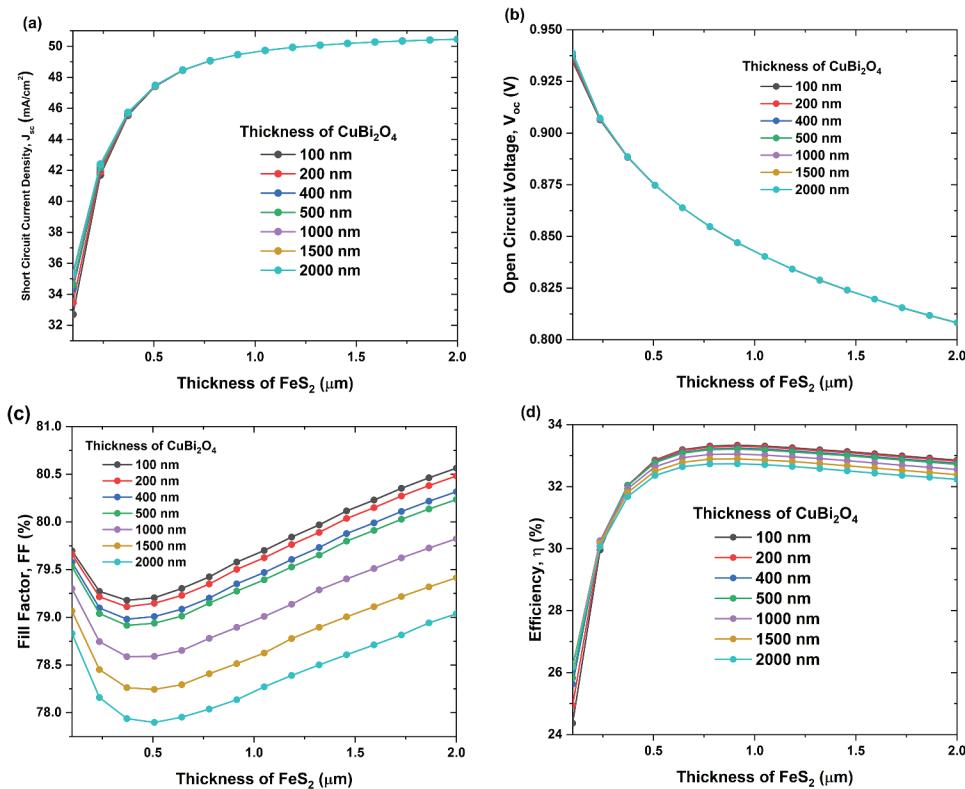
[Figure 3](#) demonstrates that the performance parameters remain nearly constant regardless of variations in the thickness of the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer for each respective  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer thickness. ([Figures 3a-d](#)) show that the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer contributes little to the overall surplus carrier collection for the solar cell structure. Thus, the thickness of the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer has no significant effect on the suggested structure's performance. The  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  BSF layer is normally located at the rear and away from the light source. Its main function is to decrease the dispersing of incident light. The BSF layer offers favorable band alignment, promoting the separation of electron-hole pairs generated within the cell, thus reducing cell recombination. However, increasing the  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer thickness further improves all PV performance characteristics.

As indicated previously,  $V_{OC}$  and  $J_{SC}$  variations relate to the FF and efficiency variance, as seen in ([Figures 3c,d](#)). Because FF and  $V_{OC}$  are closely related, and FF changes at the same pace as  $V_{OC}$ . The relationship between FF and  $V_{oc}$  can be explained using the following I-V equation or Shockley Quasier equation (Eq. 2) ([Barman and Kalita 2021](#)) and FF equation (Eq. 3) ([Kabir, Sakib, and Uddin 2019](#)) in the context of solar cells.

$$J_{SC} = J_{ph} - J_0 \left( e^{\frac{qV_{OC}}{kT}} - 1 \right) \quad (2)$$

And,

$$FF = \frac{V_{max} \times I_{max}}{V_{oc} I_{sc}} \quad (3)$$



**Figure 3.** Effect of variation of thickness on (a) short circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ), (b) open circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ), (c) fill factor (FF) and (d) efficiency (%).

Where  $J_{ph}$  = generated photocurrent due to light absorption,  $J_0$  = reverse saturation current/dark current/leakage current in the absence of light,  $V_{OC}$  is the solar cell voltage,  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant,  $T$  is the temperature in Kelvin, and  $P_{max}$  ( $= V_{max} \times I_{max}$ ) is the solar cell's maximum power output. The Shockley diode equation relates to  $V_{OC}$  and FF.  $V_{OC}$  changes may increase FF because the solar cell operates closer to its maximum power point (MPP), indicating improved efficiency. As voltage output increases, the solar cell's operating point approaches  $V_{MPP}$ , maximizing power conversion efficiency. This alignment leads to a proportional rise in FF, signifying improved utilization of available light energy. Changes in  $V_{OC}$  cause similar shifts in FF, emphasizing the symbiotic nature of these parameters in solar cell optimization and the importance of voltage in increasing power production and efficiency. Solar cell FF is frequently the hardest metric to optimize due to its sensitivity to parasitic loss processes. Solar cell  $V_{OC}$  determines the FF upper limit (Green 1982). Series ( $R_s$ ) and shunt ( $R_{sh}$ ) resistances lower the practical device FF. As  $R_s$  increases, the maximum power-point voltage drop ( $V_{mpp} \times R_s$ ) lowers the power generating voltage. Quality of materials and interfaces, solar cell structure design, and device performance can affect FF and  $V_{OC}$  (Leijtens et al. 2014) (Wu et al. 2017).

Most importantly, the FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> bilayer structural efficiency increases from 24.24% at 100 nm of FeS<sub>2</sub> to 33.63% at 800 nm of FeS<sub>2</sub>. Like all other performance factors, efficiency increases slowly with thickness. The efficiency drops from 33.63% to 32.14% when the FeS<sub>2</sub> layer thickness is increased from 800 to 2000 nm. As a result, the thickness of the FeS<sub>2</sub> layer was kept at 800 nm thick for the proposed configuration. The CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> layer was also tuned at 200 nm thickness due to its invariant influence on the solar cell performance with thickness variation. The GaAs buffer layer thickness affected the efficiency of the proposed structure; hence, 100 nm was chosen as the thinnest buffer layer available.

### **Effect of doping concentration of absorber layer**

The deliberate introduction of impurities into a semiconductor material, known as doping concentration, has a substantial influence on the efficiency of solar cells. Appropriate doping regulation can augment the mobility of charge carriers, boost the band structure, and mitigate recombination, facilitating heightened efficiency. Doping is employed to modify the material's bandgap to enhance light absorption, particularly in multi-junction solar cells. Nevertheless, the overuse of doping can lead to undesirable consequences, such as the occurrence of parasite absorption and a decrease in transparency. Hence, the optimization of doping concentration plays a pivotal role in achieving a harmonious equilibrium among these parameters and maximizing the total efficiency of the solar cell. The absorber layer's doping concentration regulates carrier collection. The depletion zone width between layers in a p-n junction solar cell, which facilitates the movement of photogenerated carriers, is determined by the layer doping concentrations. The expansion of the depletion width ( $W$ ) occurs toward the region of low doping concentration by a thermal equilibrium formulation, indicating that,

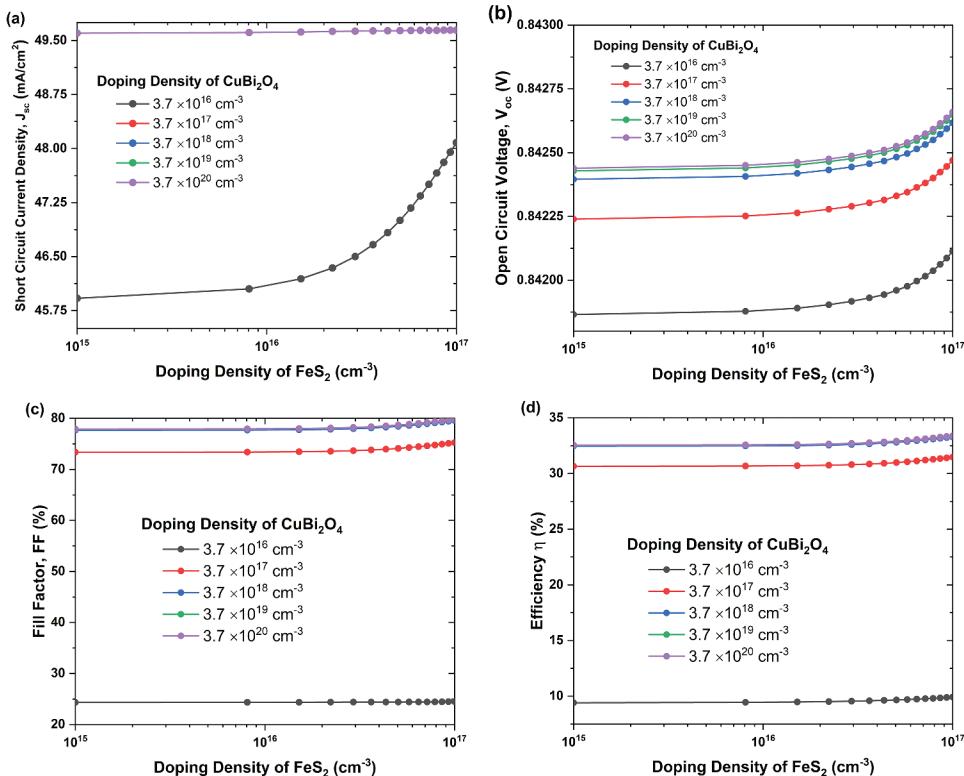
$$W = \sqrt{\frac{2 \in V_{bi}}{q} \left( \frac{N_D + N_A}{N_D N_A} \right)} \quad (4)$$

$V_{bi}$  represents the built-in potential, and the other symbols used in the equation have also been previously defined. Neglecting the tiny dielectric constant differences between materials from Eq. 4 can also be employed for heterojunction. The doping concentrations of  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  were also varied to investigate how the doping concentration affected the performance of the  $\text{FeS}_2/\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  structure.

(Figure 4a) demonstrates that for all  $\text{FeS}_2$  doping levels, the  $J_{SC}$  increases with the increase of  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer doping concentration but remains constant for  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  doping density at  $3.7 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $3.7 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . (Figure 4b) shows that for both  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$ , the  $V_{OC}$  slightly increases with increasing doping density. The doping density of  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  increased from  $3.7 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $3.7 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , resulting in only minor variations at 0.841 V. The FF increases with the increase of  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  doping concentration and peaks at  $3.7 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  doping level. Similar patterns can be observed in the efficiency of bilayer structures. The increase in  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  doping concentration intensifies the electric field and thus increases the structure's efficiency. The most optimal performance of the proposed  $\text{FeS}_2/\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  bilayer structure achieved PCE of 33.29% for the doping concentrations of  $\text{FeS}_2$  at  $10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  at  $3.7 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , respectively, with  $J_{SC} = 49.64 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,  $V_{OC} = 0.842 \text{ V}$ , and  $FF = 79.58\%$ .

### **Effect of bulk defect density**

Semiconductor defect density greatly affects the overall solar cell efficiency. The presence of imperfections within a material's crystal lattice can serve as sites that capture charge carriers produced through the absorption of sunlight. Recombination reduces the number of charge carriers available for electric current generation. Loss of recombination lowers the solar cell efficiency. High defect densities lower  $V_{OC}$  and FF, affecting the cell's ability to generate voltage and transfer power into electrical output. Neutral defects were introduced into the bilayer structure to evaluate how the absorber layer's defect states affect the proposed structure's performance. The defect state density ranged from  $10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to  $10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in both  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layers. Figure 5 shows variations of different photovoltaic parameters varying with defect state density of  $\text{FeS}_2$  and  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layers. All cell metrics decrease with increasing defect state density in the  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer regardless of the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  layer. The efficiency is practically equal to zero for a bulk  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer with a defect state density of  $10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . Therefore, it is crucial to keep the density of defect states in the bulk  $\text{FeS}_2$  layer to a minimum to improve cell performance. Interestingly, there was no significant change in the  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  defect state density, and all the lines representing different levels of  $\text{CuBi}_2\text{O}_4$  defect state density overlapped in Figure 5.



**Figure 4.** Effect of variation of doping concentration on (a) short circuit,  $J_{SC}$ , (b) open circuit voltage,  $V_{OC}$ , (c) fill factor, FF and (d) efficiency,  $\eta$ .

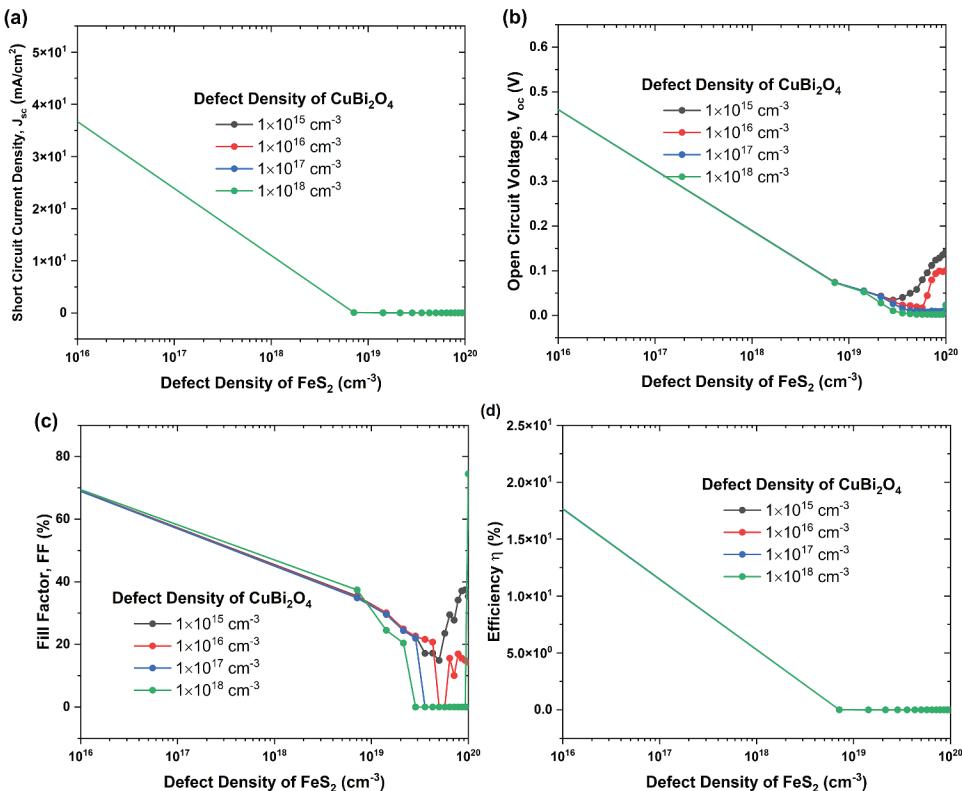
### Effect of temperature

Solar cell performance is influenced by temperature. In semiconductors, temperature increases the charge carrier velocity, lowering the bond energy. This decreased bond energy narrows the band gap of semiconductors, which impacts the intrinsic carrier concentrations. The saturation current of the solar cell increases as inherent carriers grow. As shown in Figure 5, the suggested solar cell performs best between 300 K and 450 K. As seen in the diagram, the  $J_{SC}$  of the cell is independent of temperature. As the temperature increases, the reverse saturation current of the solar cell increases, causing a significant decrease in the  $V_{OC}$  of the solar cell. FF, however, varies significantly with temperature. At higher temperatures, photocarriers are more likely to collide with vibrating atoms, which may result in a solar cell's power loss.

### Optimized cell performance of FeS<sub>2</sub>-Based structure

The J-V characteristics of FTO/GaAs/FeS<sub>2</sub> and FTO/GaAs/FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> solar cells are represented in Figure 2, while the device performance of the optimized solar cells is displayed in Table 2. The CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> BSF layer boosts the solar cell's  $J_{SC}$  significantly. Thus, the significant increase in  $J_{SC}$  is due to longer wavelength and sub-bandgap photon absorption in the BSF layer.

The increase in  $V_{OC}$  with the BSF layer in a thin film solar cell is due to reduced recombination, improved charge carrier separation, and an enhanced electric field at the rear surface. As mentioned before,  $V_{OC}$  and  $J_{SC}$  can also be interrelated in a thin film solar cell through the Shockley-Queisser equation (Eq. 3).  $V_{OC}$  affects  $J_{SC}$  indirectly through the exponential term in this



**Figure 5.** Effect of variation of defect doping concentration on (a) short circuit current density,  $J_{SC}$ , (b) open circuit voltage,  $V_{OC}$ , (c) fill factor, FF and (d) efficiency,  $\eta$ .

**Table 2.** Observed results for optimized FeS<sub>2</sub>-based solar cells.

Parameters	FeS <sub>2</sub> Absorber Layer	FeS <sub>2</sub> /CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> Absorber Layer
Short Circuit Current Density, $J_{SC}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	46.349	49.64
Open Circuit Voltage, $V_{OC}$ (V)	0.517	0.8426
Fill Factor, FF (%)	80.0242	79.58
Efficiency (%)	19.1881	33.29

equation. An increase in  $V_{OC}$  results in a decrease in the exponential term, which, in turn, can lead to an increase in  $J_{SC}$ . However, balancing  $V_{OC}$  and  $J_{SC}$  is essential, as optimizing one may affect the other.

Band alignment between the absorber and BSF layers is crucial in a solar cell because it directly influences the  $V_{OC}$  and overall cell performance. The equation that relates the band alignment and  $V_{OC}$  in a solar cell is known as the Shockley-Read-Hall recombination equation (Eq.5)

$$V_{OC} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{J_{ph}}{J_{ph} + J_0} \right) \quad (5)$$

The band alignment directly affects  $J_{ph}$ , which, in turn, influences  $V_{OC}$ . Optimizing band alignment ensures efficient charge separation and minimal recombination at the absorber–BSF interface, leading to a higher  $V_{OC}$  and better solar cell performance.

(Figure 2b) compares the QE of FTO/GaAs/FeS<sub>2</sub> and FTO/GaAs/FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> solar cells. As seen in (Figure 2b), the CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> BSF layer significantly changes the QE of the solar cell. Because

**Table 3.** Comparison of different types of solar cells.

Thin Film Solar Cell Structure	$V_{OC}$ (V)	$J_{SC}$ (mA/ cm $^2$ )	FF (%)	PCE (%)	Type	Year	Reference
Al/FTO/CdS/CIGS/BaSi <sub>2</sub> /Mo	0.843	40.56	76.76	26.24	Simulation	2019	(Biplab et al. 2020)
ZnO/CdS/CdTe/NiO/Au	1.09	29.09	87.84	28.04	Simulation	2020	(Ahmmmed et al. 2020)
ITO/CeO <sub>2</sub> /SnS/NiO/Mo	0.89	32.67	86.19	25.10	Simulation	2020	(Ahmmmed et al. 2020)
ITO/CeO <sub>2</sub> /SnS/NiO/Mo	0.89	32.67	86.19	25.10	Simulation	2020	(Ahmmmed et al. 2020)
ITO/n-CdS/CdTe/CdSe/Mo	0.889	28.33	84.90	21.29	Simulation	2021	(Kuddus, Ismail, and Hossain 2021)
ITO/n-CdS/CdTe/p <sup>+</sup> -CdSe/Mo	1.146	30.66	88.57	31.11	Simulation	2021	(Kuddus, Ismail, and Hossain 2021)
ITO/n-CdS/CdTe/p <sup>+</sup> -Sb <sub>2</sub> Se <sub>3</sub> /CdSe/Mo	1.046	49.22	85.71	44.14	Simulation	2021	(Kuddus, Ismail, and Hossain 2021)
Mo/n-CdS/p-HPGe/p <sup>+</sup> -BaSi <sub>2</sub> /Al	1.16	46.84	83.87	45.56	Simulation	2021	(Hossain et al. 2021)
Mo/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /CdS/FTO/Al	0.97	31.61	84.58	26.0	Simulation	2021	(Hosen, Mian, and Ahmed 2021)
Au/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /WS <sub>2</sub> /ITO	1.33	21.08	81.3	22.84	Simulation	2022	(Reddy et al. 2022)
Au/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /SrSnO <sub>3</sub> /ITO	1.32	20.70	80.71	22.19	Simulation	2022	(Manjunath et al. 2022)
Ni/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /CdS/SnO <sub>2</sub> /Al	1.37	25.85	86.5	31.41	Simulation	2022	(Lachhab et al. 2022)
Ni/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /CdS/SnO <sub>2</sub> /Al	1.38	26.2	88.8	31.8	Simulation	2022	(Lachhab et al. 2022)
Mo/FeS <sub>2</sub> /CdS/ZnO/AZO	0.5266	42.09	50.51	11.20	Simulation	2023	(Livingston et al. 2023)
Electrode/FeS <sub>2</sub> /Surface inversion layer/ FTO	0.36	41.9	67.11	10.28	Simulation	2023	(Gohri et al. 2023)
Mo/Cu <sub>2</sub> O/CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /CdS/FTO/Al	1.02	32.49	87.91	29.2	Simulation	2024	(Hosen et al. 2024)
Al/FTO/GaAs/FeS <sub>2</sub> /CuBi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /Mo	0.842	49.64	79.59	33.29	Simulation	2024	This Study

of the tail states in the CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> BSF layer, the suggested solar cell's QE marginally increases from 800 to 1300 nm, increasing the  $J_{SC}$ . **Table 3** compares CdTe, CIGS, Ge, GaAs, CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, FeS<sub>2</sub>, etc.

## Conclusion

The potential of thin-film solar cell research in the future is highly promising, as breakthroughs in creative materials, design, scalable production methods, and environmental awareness. This study used the SCAPS 1D simulator to explore how thickness, doping concentration, and defect state density affect FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> thin film-based solar cells. The proposed FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure has a 33.29% efficiency, representing an impressive 73.49% increment compared to the conventional single junction FeS<sub>2</sub>-based solar cell (19.19%). The CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> layer reduced light reflection at the rear surface, recombination, and enhanced charge carrier collection, increasing  $J_{SC}$  by 7%. While  $J_{SC}$  saw notable improvement, the main contributor to the enhanced efficiency was the significant improvement in  $V_{OC}$ . The proposed FeS<sub>2</sub>/CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure significantly improved  $V_{OC}$  (0.84 V) by ~63% compared to FeS<sub>2</sub> solar cells (0.517 V). This elevation in  $V_{OC}$  directly results from the greater built-in potentials created at the interfaces between n-GaAs/p-FeS<sub>2</sub> and p-FeS<sub>2</sub>/p<sup>+</sup>-CuBi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, enabled by a favorable band alignment within the dual-heterojunction design. These combined advancements increased the efficiency of FeS<sub>2</sub>-based solar cells and have the potential to unlock their full potential, contributing to future sustainable energy technology.

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