

# Facile Fabrication and Characterization of Free-Hole Perovskite Solar Cell Based on Carbon Electrode

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**Abstract**— Free-hole perovskite solar cell without precious metals electrode are the chief toward large scale and low cost production of perovskite solar cells, and thus commercialization. In this study,  $\text{TiO}_2/\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3/\text{C}$  devices were fabricated in air using carbon as a counter electrode with the aid of the facile doctor blade technique, which simplifies the processing and lowers the threshold of fabrication process. Three different approaches were used to deposit the carbon paste and finalize the perovskite devices. The structure and microstructural of the perovskite layers were studied using XRD and FTIR. The photovoltaic performance were studied, for the devices fabricated by different method, and it was found that, the way to deposit the carbon paste has a great influence on the power conversion efficiencies and devices reproducibility.

**Keywords**— Carbon, Perovskite, Solar cell, XRD.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Organo-metal halide perovskites have attracted great attention from scientists all around the world because of their tunable band gap, large absorption coefficient, high charge carrier mobility, and long electron-hole diffusion [1-7]. These properties made such materials candidate as an alternative to silicon for making inexpensive and efficient solar cells [8-9].

A typical perovskite solar cell (PSCs) consists of electron transport layer (ETL), perovskite layer, hole transport material (HTM) and noble metal as a counter electrode [10, 11]. The most common ETL are  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{ZnO}$  which are environmentally friendly nature, stable and low cost materials besides their facile syntheses [12-14]. Unfortunately, the organic hole transporter materials (such as spiro-OMeTAD or PTAA) are expensive and unstable. [15, 16]. In addition, the noble metals such as Au or Ag electrode are also costly. Besides, the high-energy-consumption vacuum evaporation method of preparing such metals restrains its marketing as well. Therefore, the replacement of such materials are urgently required by developing an alternative materials that process the same function but are cheap, earth-abundant, environmentally friendly and easily processable. To meet with the demand of simple and low-cost perovskite solar cells, some inorganic hole-transport materials [17, 18] have been developed such as  $\text{CuSCN}$  and  $\text{CuI}$ .

Through the unremitting endeavor of many research groups, carbon materials as the cost-efficient choice of counter electrodes have been introduced. As is well known, graphitic carbon, with most of the abovementioned sought-after characteristics, has suitable Fermi level (work function of around 5.0 eV), meaning that its Fermi level is only slightly higher than the valence band edge of the perovskites. [11, 19, 20]. This energy band alignment probably permits the graphitic carbon to efficiently work as a hole transport layer, in addition to a counter electrode, which is an imperative step toward the low cost solar cell [11, 19, 21, 22]. The deposition of carbon electrode plays an important role in the performance of PSCs.

Here, we fabricated a perovskite solar cells with structure  $\text{FTO}/\text{TiO}_2/\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3/\text{C}$ . The devices were fabricated using three different methods of depositing carbon paste by doctor blade technique. The photovoltaic parameters were studied in order to achieve the best and optimum method for carbon deposition.

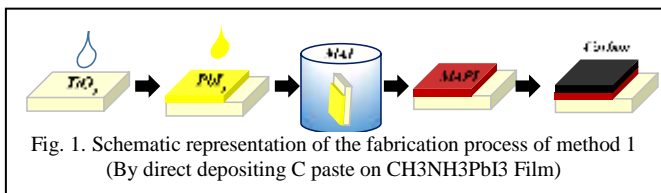
## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### A. Device fabrication

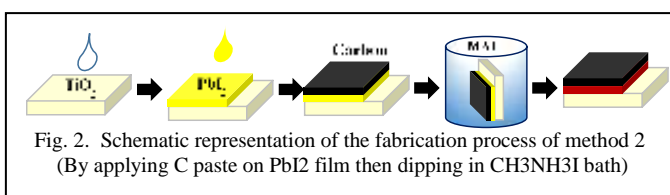
FTO glasses were etched (using Zinc powder and HCl) then cleaned in an ultrasonic bath containing isopropanol and deionized water for 10 min. For the  $\text{TiO}_2$  layer, a solution consisting of 175 mL of TTIP in 1.25 mL of isopropanol was added to a solution of 17.5 mL of HCl in 1.25 mL of isopropanol and spun coated on FTO substrates at 3500 rpm for 30 s [23]. Subsequently, the films were annealed in air at 450 °C for 45 min. In the three different methods,  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$  was formed using two-step spin dipping procedure [7].  $\text{PbI}_2$  solution was prepared by dissolving 462 mg  $\text{PbI}_2$  in 1 ml N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) under stirring at 70 °C.  $\text{PbI}_2$  solution was spin-coated on the  $\text{TiO}_2$  film at 6,000 r.p.m. for 30 s, subsequently, the films were dried at 70 °C for 30 min, and then allowed to cool to room temperature. The formation of the perovskite layer and the deposition of carbon paste were provided by three different methods:

In method 1 (Direct deposition), after cooling  $\text{PbI}_2$  film to room temperature, the film was dipped in a solution of  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{I}$  in 2-propanol (10 mg / ml) for 20 s. The color of the film immediately changes from yellow to dark brown, indicating the formation of  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ . The film then rinsed with 2-propanol, to remove ammonium salt residues in the perovskite film, then annealed at 100 °C for 30 min on a preheated hot plate at ambient atmosphere.

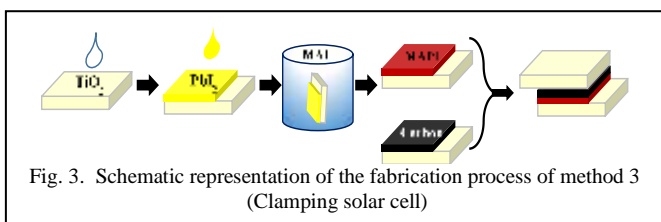
Finally, once the perovskite film cooled down to room temperature, the commercial carbon paste was deposited on the film by doctor-blading technique, and dried at 100 °C for 30 min. All these procedures were carried out on naturally ambient atmosphere, Fig. 1



In method 2, after cooling PbI<sub>2</sub> film to room temperature, a carbon paste was deposited by doctor bladed on the top of the PbI<sub>2</sub> layer and dried at 100 °C for 30 min and then allowed to cool to room temperature. Finally, the film was dipped in a solution of CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>I in 2-propanol (10 mg / ml) for 20 s then rinsed with 2-propanol and dried at 100 °C for 30 min in air. In a similar manner, the color changing from yellow to dark brown indicates a perovskite film is generated, demonstrating the completion of the fabrication of devices, Fig. 2.



In method 3 (clamping solar cell), The PbI<sub>2</sub> film was soaked into a CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>I bath to get a CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> film (The procedures were similar to Method 1). Another Piece of FTO was coated with carbon paste and dried at 100 °C for 30 min. The FTO/C film and the CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> film were directly clamped. The FTO/C film then directly clamped to the CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> film, completing the device fabrication, Fig. 3.



### B. Characterization

The investigation of structure and microstructural of perovskite device layers were mainly studied using x-ray diffraction technique. XRD patterns of the different layers were collected using Cu-K $\alpha$  radiation of Philips diffractometer (X'pert MPD) operating at 40kV and 30 mA. The crystal structure and microstructure were refined applying Rietveld profile method, using MAUD program [24, 25]. LaB<sub>6</sub> standard has been used to correct the instrumental broadening.

FT-IR spectroscopy is a power tool for identifying types of chemical bonds in a molecule. The spectroscopic analyses of MAI powder was carried out using FTIR spectrometer (FT/IR-620) in the wave number range of 4000–400 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

Photovoltaic solar cell measurements were performed using a solar simulator device (Sol3A Class AAA) at AM 1.5 with 1 sun illumination intensity (100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> at 25 °C), and

current density–voltage (J–V) data were recorded using a source meter unit (Keithley 2400).

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### A. Characterization of Perovskite device layers

XRD pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> film deposited via spin coating, Fig. 4, shows two characteristic peaks at 25.35° and 37.8°, which belong to (101) and (004) planes of the Tetragonal anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> phase with lattice parameters a= 3.77 Å and c= 9.51 Å, ICDD no. 01-089-4921. The crystallite sizes of TiO<sub>2</sub> particles was estimated using Scherrer formula, given by

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta}$$

where D is the crystallite size, k is a constant,  $\lambda$  is the x-ray wavelength (0.1540 nm),  $\beta$  is the integral breadth of the diffraction peak. For more realistic calculation, the instrumental broadening was deconvoluted and therefore the calculations estimated an average crystallite size of 8 nm.

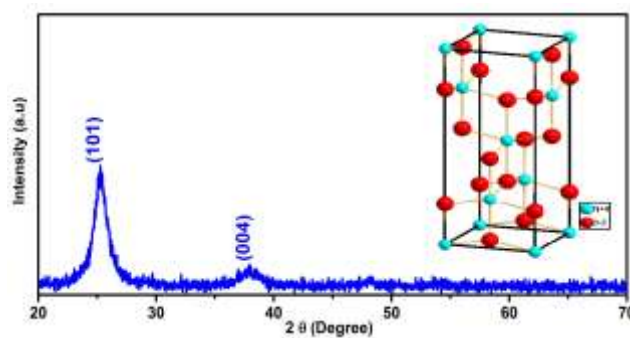


Fig. 4. The XRD pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> thin film. Insert shows the Tetragonal system of the anatase phase

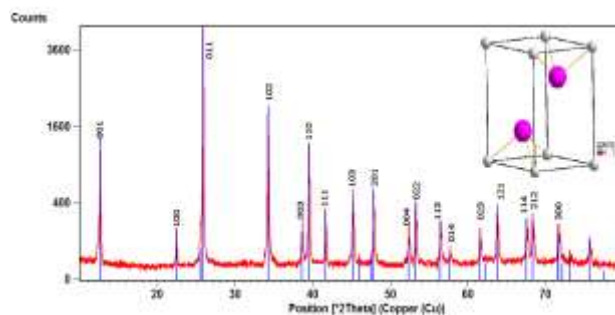


Fig. 5. The XRD pattern of PbI<sub>2</sub> powder. Insert shows the Hexagonal system of PbI<sub>2</sub> phase

X-ray diffraction patterns of the PbI<sub>2</sub> powder is shown in fig. 5. The diffraction peaks obtained at 12.66°, 22.50°, 25.9°, 34.25°, 39.63°, 39.51°, 41.65°, 45.17°, 47.85°, 52.34°, 53.26°, 56.45°, 57.67°, 61.54°, 63.73°, 67.51°, 68.30°, 71.66°, 73.12° and 75.63° are assigned respectively to the planes (001), (100), (011), (102), (003), (110), (111), (103), (201), (004), (022), (113), (014), (023), (121), (114), (212), (300), (031) and (213) of Hexagonal phase PbI<sub>2</sub> with the space group of *P-3m1*. No spurious diffractions peaks were observed which indicate the purity of the used PbI<sub>2</sub> powder. The lattice parameters and crystallite size of each plane were obtained using Rietveld method with the aid of

Maud program. The obtained results, listed in table 1, show a crystallite size dependence on the crystallographic planes.

Table 1: Microstructural parameters obtained from Rietveld analysis

Lattice parameter (Å°)		Crystallite size (nm)				
a	c	001	100	011	012	111
4.557	6.98	556	856	783	688	827

X-ray diffraction pattern of the synthesized methylammonium iodide (MAI) is shown in fig. 6. A strong Bragg reflections at 19.66°, 19.91°, 24.54°, 26.29°, 29.66°, 31.64°, 34.54°, 34.99°, 36.39°, 38.87°, 40.58°, 43.8° and 44.29° were observed, which corresponding to (002), (101), (110), (102), (003), (112), (103), (200), (201), (113), (211), (104) and (212) planes of MAI. XRD Search matching confirms the formation of Tetragonal phase with lattice parameters a= 5.12 Å° and c= 9.00 Å°

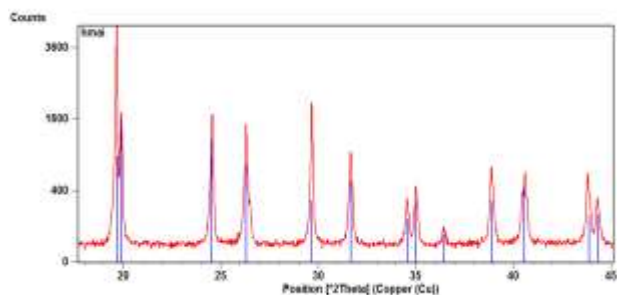


Fig. 6. XRD pattern of synthesized methylammonium iodide (MAI). Blue lines indicate the reference peak position of MAI.

Although, all the obtained peaks are assigned to the methylammonium iodide, the color of obtained powder was light yellow which means a small amount of residual reagents is still mixed with the ammonium salts or small amount of water vapor was observed as the salt is hygroscopic. In order to purify the salt, we wash the powders with diethyl ether at room temperature to remove the residues, as the diethyl ether is a good solvent for amine and the acid but the salts have very low solubility in it. After washing the salts several times, a white powder was obtained ratify the disposal of residual reagent and the elimination of the observed water vapor as confirmed by using FTIR for unwashed and washed powders, fig. 7 a and b.

The FTIR patterns show the band around 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup> which attributed to N-H stretching and the band at 3100 cm<sup>-1</sup> which corresponds to the vibrational stretching mode of the hydroxyl group O-H. The band observed around 1480 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the symmetric NH<sub>3</sub> bending while the bands around 1200 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponds to the C-N stretching and NH<sub>3</sub> stretching respectively. It is clear that, band at 3100cm<sup>-1</sup> (O-H group) is reduced after washing as a result of eliminate water vapor absorbed by powder.

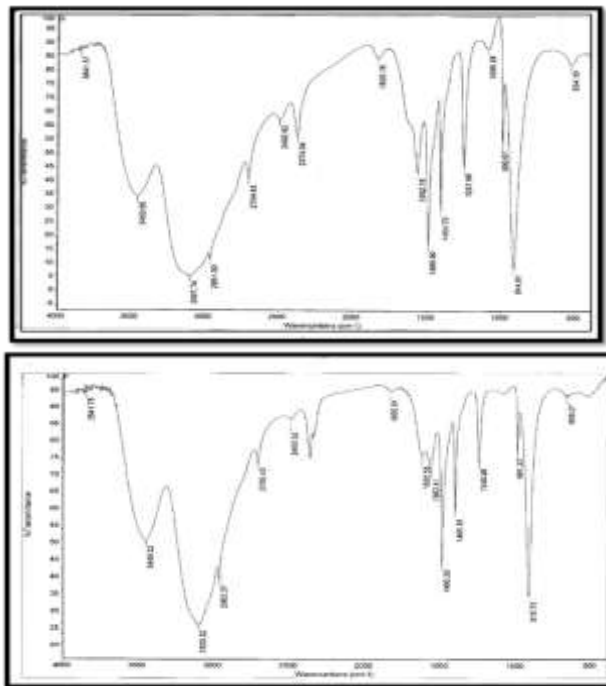


Fig. 7. The FTIR of MAI powders (a) unwashed sample, (b) washed sample

Fig. 8 shows the XRD pattern of the CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> layer based on FTO glass, synthesized at 100 °C using two step dipping method. A strong diffraction peaks at 14.14°, 20.05°, 23.53°, 24.53°, 28.50°, 31.95°, 40.54° and 43.11° are observed, which indicated to the tetragonal perovskite structure (space group: I 4 c m) with lattice parameters a = 8.85 Å and c = 12.63 Å. An additional peaks at 26.48, 33.74 and 37.80° are obtained and assigned to the (110), (101) and (200) planes of the tetragonal SnO<sub>2</sub>. In addition to the detected peaks, a peak at 12.66° is detected, which belongs to unreacted PbI<sub>2</sub>.

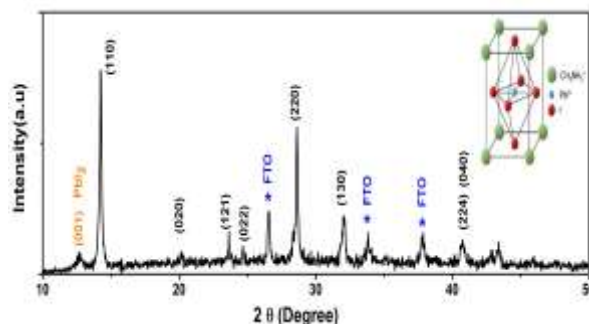


Fig. 8. XRD pattern for CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> based on TiO<sub>2</sub> layers. Insert shows the Tetragonal system of perovskite structure.

### B. Photovoltaic Characteristics of PSCs

In order to ensure the best method to fabricate the cell, three different methods were carried out using same materials under the same conditions. At each method, three devices were fabricated, each one contains 3 cells, and tested under the same conditions. The J-V curve of the best-performing devices for different methods are shown in fig. 9. The corresponding open-circuit potential (V<sub>oc</sub>), short-current density (J<sub>sc</sub>), Fill factor (FF) and PCEs, are summarized in table 2.



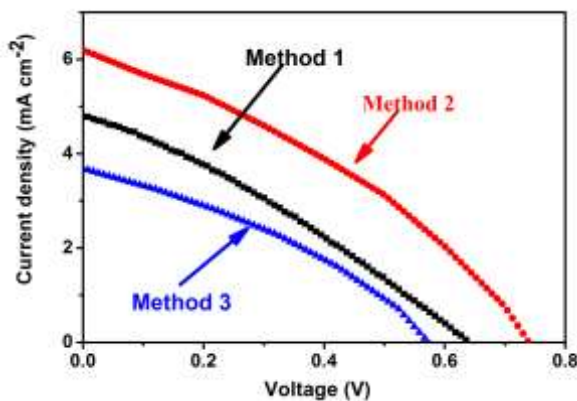


Fig. 9. J-V curves for the PSCs,

Table 2: Photovoltaic parameters of PSCs

	$V_{oc}$ (V)	$J_{sc}$ (mA)	FF %	PCE %
<b>Method 1</b>	0.64	4.78	31	0.95
<b>Method 2</b>	0.74	6.19	34.2	1.57
<b>Method 3</b>	0.57	3.69	34.7	0.73

The results clearly indicate that the different methods of carbon layer deposition have a significant effect on the overall power conversion efficiency. Method 3 achieved the poorer photovoltaic performance ( $V_{oc}$  of 0.56 V,  $J_{sc}$  of 3.69 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, FF of 0.34, and PCE of 0.73%) as a result of the poor contact between the perovskite layer and the carbon layer via the mechanical joining (Sandwich process).

In method 1 (open cell), the  $V_{oc}$ ,  $J_{sc}$ , and FF are improved to 0.64 V, 4.78 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, and 0.31, respectively, yielding an enhanced PCE of 0.95%. The direct deposition of carbon layer on the perovskite layer facilitates their contact and hence minimize the electrical resistance, enhancing the device performance. In addition, this method is sustainable for large scale production compared with the sandwich device.

Method 2 showed the best cell performance compared to that of Method 1 and Method 3, with  $V_{oc}$  of 0.74 V,  $J_{sc}$  of 6.19 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, FF of 0.34, and PCE of 1.57%. The deposition of carbon above PbI<sub>2</sub> layer, thereafter dipping in the MAI solution leading to in situ conversion of PbI<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> and chemical embedding of C into CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> at the interface. The in situ conversion of PbI<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> leads to greatly improve the interface and lower the barrier for facile hole extraction.

In order to investigate the reproducibility of the PSC devices using the different methods, fig. 10, shows the average photovoltaic parameters with their standard deviation. As can see, the average photovoltaic parameters based on method 1 and 2 are approximately close compared with method 3. Although method 2 have slightly higher average photovoltaic parameters than methods 1, it involving higher standard deviation.

The higher standard deviation might be attributed to: the formed perovskite layer has a variation in the particle size and therefore an enormous particle might leads to minify the CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> / C contact. Moreover, Method 2 required more precautions to avoid the short circuit during pasting the C layer above PbI<sub>2</sub>.

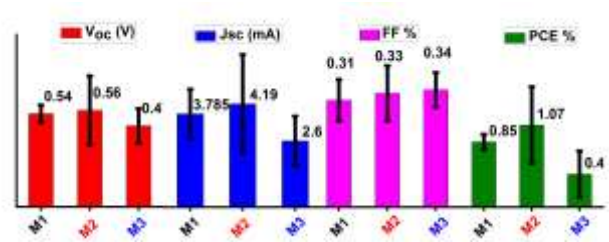


Fig. 10. Photovoltaic parameters for PSCs, fabricated by the three different methods

#### IV. CONCLUSION

Three different methods were applied for fabricating free-hole transport layer PSC devices, using Carbon as a counter electrode. In consideration of the same TiO<sub>2</sub> and carbon layers used for the three methods, the direct deposition of carbon paste on CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> layer using Doctor Blading technique (Method 1) achieved best and non-varying (PCE of 0.95 %) photovoltaic performance compared with the other methods.

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