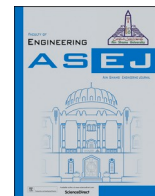




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Full Length Article

## Full optoelectronic simulation of all antimony chalcogenide thin film tandem solar cell: Design routes from 4-T to 2-T configuration

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## ABSTRACT

Antimony chalcogenide, as a newcomer to light harvesting materials, is regarded as an auspicious contender for incorporation as a photoactive layer in thin film tandem solar cells (TFTSCs). The current study introduces the design of all-antimony chalcogenide TFTSC comprised of an Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (1.7 eV) front subcell and an Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> (1.2 eV) rear subcell. The challenges to migrating from four-terminal (4-T) to two-terminal (2-T) designs are highlighted and possible solutions are proposed. To commence, a calibration procedure for the two subcells is conducted in alignment with experimental investigations. The benchmarked solar cells yield a power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 8.08 % for the upper subcell and 10.58 % for the lower subcell. Subsequently, upon integration of both subcells within the initial 4-T Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>/Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> TFTSC, the resultant PV cell attains a PCE of 12.27 %. Before transitioning it to a more efficient 2T tandem configuration, we explore alternative inorganic HTL materials to the Spiro-OMeTAD HTL to overcome its practical considerations. Cu<sub>2</sub>O is found to be the best HTL alternative to be included for both subcells. Upon stacking into the tandem structure, the combined cell exhibited an efficiency of 15.68 % and a notable  $J_{sc}$  of 16.23 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. To further enhance the tandem performance, the device structure is optimized by engineering the CBO of two sub-cells and employing a double ETL design for the front sub-cell. At the considered current matching criterion, the tandem device PCE and  $J_{sc}$  are boosted to 27.86 % and 17.60 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Based on this full optoelectronic analysis, developed in the Silvaco TCAD environment, a 2-T all antimony chalcogenide tandem configuration can be realized and optimized, paving the way for future experimental endeavors.

### 1. Introduction

The widespread adoption of Si solar cells has propelled photovoltaic (PV) technology by offering efficient energy conversion [1]. To push Si solar cells further, some novel structures were proposed, including microstructures [2], and nanowires [3]. Additionally, it was shown that the insertion of multiple quantum wells made of Si<sub>0.95</sub>Ge<sub>0.05</sub> improves the efficiency by a factor of 1.37 compared to that obtained for conventional Si nanowires [4]. Other studies related to III-V materials solar cells also show advancements, including proposed quantum dot GaAs/GaAsP

structures [5]. Nonetheless, thin film solar cells have arisen as a favorable choice, boasting advantages such as flexibility, lightweight design, and cost-effectiveness, setting them apart from their Si and III-V counterparts.

Tandem solar cells, representing a remarkable advancement in PV systems, harness the cumulative power of multiple solar cell layers to capture a broader spectrum of sunlight [6–8]. This tandem approach significantly enhances the overall PCE as compared to single-junction PV cells. In the context of tandem cells, antimony selenide (Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>) and antimony sulfide (Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>) materials hold immense prospects as

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candidate photoactive absorbers. Their compelling attributes, incorporating suitable complementary band gaps, high absorption coefficient, abundance in Earth's resources, and remarkable stability, have propelled them into the spotlight as promising candidates for PV technology.  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  demonstrates a bandgap of nearly 1.7 eV [9], while  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  possesses a bandgap ranging from 1 to 1.2 eV [10]. The bandgaps of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  enable the absorption of incident short and long-wavelength photons from solar radiation. As  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  is characterized by its wide bandgap, it emerges as a proper choice for front subcells in tandem configurations, while  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  is suitable for rear subcells. Furthermore, the preparation processes of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  are compatible.

The fabrication processes for  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  solar cells have undergone significant advancements, enabling the development of efficient tandem devices. A variety of deposition fabrication techniques, such as thermal evaporation, chemical bath deposition, and atomic layer deposition, have been employed to fabricate both  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  solar cells [11–14]. These cost-effective methods are remarkably in line with the necessity for economically feasible photovoltaic solutions. Ongoing efforts are directed toward enhancing device efficiency through diverse deposition methods and technological parameter optimizations. Over recent years, dedicated endeavors have been devoted to enhancing the PCEs of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  cells, employing a spectrum of innovative strategies. These strategies encompass interfacial and bandgap engineering techniques, as well as surface passivation, targeting both the carrier transportation layers and the photoactive  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  absorbers. Recently, PCEs of 8 % and 10.58 % for  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  were reported [15,16]. However, despite these advancements, the PCEs attained are still lower than the Shockley-Queisser (S-Q) limit and notably below than those for CIGS and CdTe thin film cell devices [17]. Research highlights several challenges hindering the achievement of high PCEs for antimony chalcogenide cells, encompassing deep defects, non-ideal series, and shunt resistance, as well as interface and non-radiative recombination. These obstacles significantly impact the open-circuit voltage (VOC), contributing to efficiencies falling short of the S-Q limit [18].

The utilization of multijunction technology holds the potential to substantially enhance solar cell performance which enables the solar device to surpass the efficiency limitations set by the S-Q limit for single-junction PV cells. This innovative technology has garnered widespread adoption and application across diverse thin-film cell categories, including thin-film Si, perovskite, and organic solar cells [19–21]. However, limited efforts have been directed towards integrating  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  or  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  into tandem configurations [22–25]. In [26], a proof-of-concept has been introduced for a tandem device employing  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  as the front and rear cell materials, respectively. To enable efficient light transmission to the bottom subcell, graphene was employed as the transparent contact because of its excellent properties including high transparency, conductivity, and charge carrier collection capability. By strategically managing light utilization in the two subcells, a fabricated 4-T tandem cell achieves a remarkable efficiency of 7.93 %.

Practically, the 2-T tandem design may prove unsuitable when stacking  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  together during fabrication. One reason for this is that  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  is susceptible to high-temperature processes during fabrication or annealing, which poses a challenge. Specifically, the Spiro-OMeTAD HTL of the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  subcell could be damaged due to the high-temperature requirements, making it incompatible with the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  subcell. Moreover, an annealing process exceeding 300 °C is necessary after  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  deposition, potentially causing harm to the Spiro-OMeTAD layer. Furthermore, the utilization of a thin Ag layer as an interlayer to connect the top and bottom subcells may not be appropriate. This is because Ag possesses a large diffusion coefficient and has the potential to react with  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  at elevated temperatures. To address these challenges, exploring alternative inorganic HTL materials, such as  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{WSe}_2$  and other inorganic candidates, maybe a prudent choice. However, it should be emphasized that NiO, while inorganic, is not a

suitable replacement, as it can react with both  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  under high-temperature conditions. Thus, in this work, we provide design guidelines for ensuring compatibility in the fabrication processes of 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandems.

In this paper, we explore the unique attributes of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  as materials for tandem solar cells, shedding light on their design, and performance achievements. Initially, the individual performance of the two subcells is evaluated through calibration versus experimental data [15,16]. Then, the integration of both initial subcells into an  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem solar cell is studied based on the 4-T configuration. The subsequent investigation delves into 2-T tandem structure optimization, encompassing band offset engineering between the transport and absorber layers for both subcells. The introduced design is based on replacing the organic HTL with inorganic counterparts to alleviate the issues that may appear in fabrication processes, as discussed herein. The influence of electron transportation layer design on TFTSC performance is explored, along with the effect of altering absorber layer thicknesses to attain the highest possible PCE. Notably, the simulation-based approach targets an all-thin-film design, characterized by flexibility that renders it potentially appropriate for applications such as wearable electronics. The simulations are conducted utilizing Silvaco Atlas device simulator package [27], subjecting the solar cells under investigation to AM1.5G illumination (one Sun, 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>).

## 2. Simulation methodology and device structure

### 2.1. Silvaco Atlas simulation methodology

In this study, the Silvaco device simulator [6,7,23,24] is utilized for the modeling and simulation of the optical and electrical characteristics of the proposed tandem PV cell. Silvaco TCAD simulation emerges as a powerful tool in accurately modeling tandem solar cells and predicting their performance. Its capability to simulate complex optical and electrical interactions makes it suitable for analyzing the intricate behavior of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem solar cells. To ensure the reliability and precision of simulation results, a comprehensive calibration process is employed to correlate the simulated outcomes with experimental data available for  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  solar cells of the highest recorded PCEs. This calibration serves as a crucial step in validating the simulation model and enhancing its accuracy for predicting the performance of tandem configurations.

The solution to the equations concerning semiconductor physics is discretized using a designated grid in numerical simulations [28]. Upon employing an illuminated input source, the photogeneration rates are determined and integrated within the generation components of the continuity equation. Within the optical ray-tracing model, employed in the device simulator, the calculation of optical intensity involves utilizing the real component of the refractive index. Conversely, the photogeneration model computes a fresh carrier density through the extinction coefficient. Subsequently, an electrical simulation is utilized to attain the necessary terminal current densities, while the transport characteristics are evaluated based on the drift-diffusion modeling technique.

The selection of the physical models integrated into the device simulator is based on specific criteria. The trap recombination via defect levels within a given layer employs the Shockley-Read-Hall mechanism. Furthermore, recombination in regions of high doping is accounted for by enabling Auger recombination. Additionally, the models of Fermi-Dirac statistics and optical recombination are utilized. In the case of a two-terminal tandem, both subcells necessitate interconnection through a thin tunneling junction or thin interlayers of silver, gold [29], or indium oxide [30]. In this study, an idealized lumped resistance is utilized as a connecting interface between the two subcells to facilitate the flow of current across the subcells [22,23].

Silvaco offers a comprehensive approach to solar cell simulation, capable of modeling the entire tandem structure, providing detailed

optical generation rates by integrating real refractive indices for optical ray tracing and absorption coefficients for photogeneration modeling. This approach allows Silvaco to simulate complex interactions between layers, making it suitable for advanced research and development in solar cell technology. In contrast, other simulation methods like SCAPS operate as 1-dimensional simulators, focusing on simpler simulations of solar cell layers. SCAPS sequentially solves for each layer, starting with the top sub-cell and then moving to the bottom sub-cell using the filtered spectrum from the top layer. In this SCAPS method, simulations are primarily devoted to 4-T solar cell configurations rather than 2-T configurations. Thus, Silvaco's advanced capabilities and integrated modeling techniques provide a more detailed and accurate optoelectronic simulation, making it preferable for cutting-edge research for both 4-T and 2-T tandems.

The main steps undertaken in our study are illustrated in Fig. 1. Initially, two standalone fabricated subcells ( $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$ ) are calibrated under the illumination of AM1.5G spectrum to ensure accurate characterization, providing a reliable baseline for further simulations and optimizations. Building on this, we construct an initial 4-T tandem cell using  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  for the top cell and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  for the bottom cell, serving as a foundation for further refinement. We then propose a 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem cell configuration. The proposed 2-T tandem cell undergoes a series of optimization steps, including investigating the conduction band offsets between different materials in the top subcell to improve charge carrier transport and reduce recombination losses, exploring the effects of using single and dual ETLs in the top subcell to enhance electron extraction, and optimizing the absorber thicknesses in both sub-cells to ensure maximum light absorption. The final step in the optimization process is achieving the current matching condition, where the current generated by the top and bottom subcells is matched to maximize the overall PCE.

## 2.2. Calibration of $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$ and $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$ subcells

In this subsection, we will highlight both device structures of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  cells that are used to form the tandem device. Our approach involves the use of experimental solar cells, with a wide bandgap  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  [15] and a narrow bandgap  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  cell [16]. The n-i-p  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  heterostructure involves the layers FTO/CdS/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$ /Spiro-OMeTAD/Au, with a schematic representation displayed in Fig. 2(a). The primary material parameters of the various layers are addressed in Table 1. The CdS and Spiro-OMeTAD layers are applied as electron and hole transportation layers (ETL and HTL), respectively, while FTO and Au are utilized as front and back electrodes. We assume that the carrier type of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  is p-type, having an acceptor density of  $1 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  [22,31]. Defect concentrations in the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  film are obtained from an experimental study [15], while interfacial defects at ETL/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and HTL/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  interfaces are considered neutral. Table 2 exhibits the main defects parameters of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  as well as at the interfaces. The values of the work functions of the top FTO and back Au electrodes are 4.73 eV and 5.1 eV [7].

The external quantum efficiency (EQE) and the current-voltage ( $J$ - $V$ ) characteristic curves under illumination of fabricated and simulated  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  devices are depicted in Fig. 2(b) and (c) using the given parameters. The simulated PV cell shows  $J_{sc} = 17.18 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,  $V_{oc} = 0.759 \text{ V}$ ,  $FF = 61.95 \%$ , and  $PCE = 8.08 \%$ , which closely match the reported parameters as revealed in Table 3, thereby justifying the simulation model within the Atlas simulator. It is noteworthy to highlight that the elevated recombination rates within the devices arising from defects at the CdS/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  interface and trap sites in  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  contribute to the lower VOC. As a result, it becomes imperative to optimize the appropriate ETL along with absorber critical parameters for enhanced performance.

In addition, the n-i-p structured bottom  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  PV cell is constructed using a solar cell that is fabricated through the FTO/CdS/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$ /Spiro-OMeTAD/Au configuration [16], as seen in Fig. 3(a). The primary cell parameters are derived from experimental findings, such as the

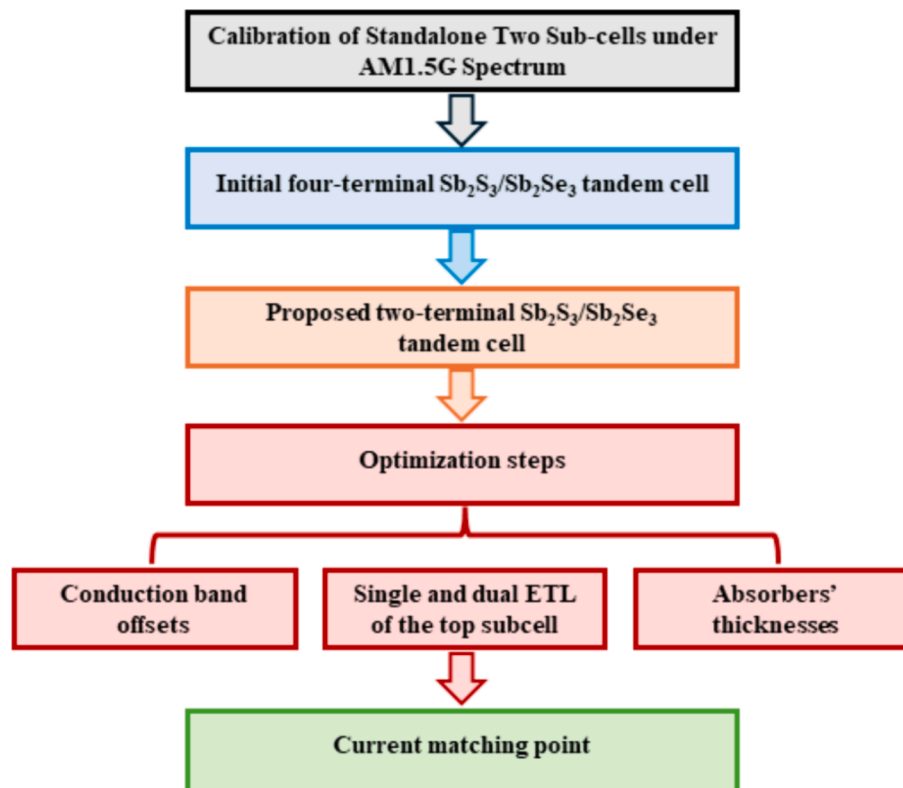


Fig. 1. Flowchart summarizing the workflow steps performed in our simulation work.

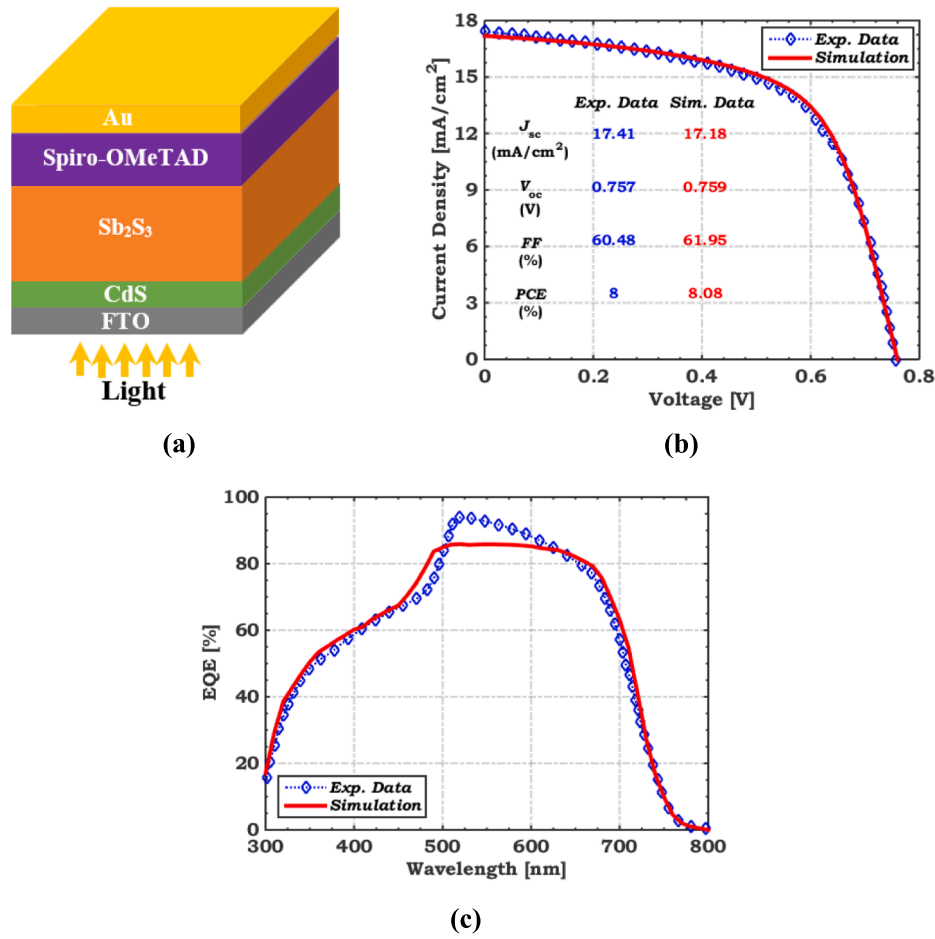


Fig. 2. Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> top cell: (a) Basic cell arrangement, (b) J–V, and (c) EQE curves of simulation vs experimental data [15] under AM1.5G one-Sun illumination.

Table 1  
Main factors of various layers of Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar cells.

Parameters	CdS	Sb <sub>2</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	Sb <sub>2</sub> Se <sub>3</sub>	Spiro-OMeTAD
Thickness, <i>t</i> (nm)	<i>t</i> <sub>Top</sub> = 50 <i>t</i> <sub>Bot</sub> = 60	310	275	<i>t</i> <sub>Top</sub> = 50 <i>t</i> <sub>Bot</sub> = 150
Energy gap, <i>E<sub>g</sub></i> (eV)	2.4	1.72	1.2	3.17
Electron affinity, <i>χ</i> (eV)	4.2	3.70	4.13	2.05
Relative permittivity, <i>ε<sub>r</sub></i>	10	7	10	3
Electron/Hole mobility, <i>μ<sub>n</sub></i> / <i>μ<sub>p</sub></i> (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)	100/25	0.8/0.2	5/1.5	2 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> /2 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>
DOS in conduction band / valence band, <i>N<sub>c</sub></i> / <i>N<sub>v</sub></i> (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	2.2 × 10 <sup>18</sup> / 1.9 × 10 <sup>19</sup>	3 × 10 <sup>19</sup> / 7 × 10 <sup>19</sup>	2.2 × 10 <sup>18</sup> / 1.8 × 10 <sup>19</sup>	2.2 × 10 <sup>18</sup> / 1.8 × 10 <sup>19</sup>
Donor density, <i>N<sub>D</sub></i> (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	1 × 10 <sup>17</sup>	–	–	–
Acceptor density, <i>N<sub>A</sub></i> (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	–	1 × 10 <sup>14</sup>	6.5 × 10 <sup>15</sup>	2 × 10 <sup>19</sup>
Reference	[37]	[15,22]	[38]	[39]

thicknesses, doping concentration, conduction and valence energy edges, and semiconductor bulk defects of the photoactive Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> layer [16]. The technological factors of CdS, Spiro-OMeTAD, and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> are exhibited in Table 1. The defect density within the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber and at the interfaces are also documented in Table 2. The J–V and EQE characteristic curves of fabricated and simulated Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> solar devices [16] are displayed in Fig. 3(b) and (c), applying the given factors. Notably, the measured *J<sub>SC</sub>* obtained from the EQE spectrum is 30.71 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> which is comparatively less than *J<sub>SC</sub>* found from the J–V characteristics (33.52 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>). This discrepancy in *J<sub>SC</sub>* values between the

EQE-extracted and J–V curve has been previously highlighted in research of Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> PV cells [32,33]. According to the relevant literature [33,34], the phenomenon may be ascribed to the presence of deep levels in the junction region that serve as centers for both generation and recombination. In instances where light levels are low (as in EQE measurement), photogenerated carriers may recombine at these centers. Conversely, high light intensity (specifically for AM1.5G at 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>) may cause some of these centers to be filled as a result of photoexcitation by sub-bandgap photons. Consequently, the measured *J<sub>SC</sub>* at AM1.5G illuminated source may yield a significantly higher value than the integrated current from EQE acquired under the condition of low-intensity and monochromatic radiation. To appropriately align with the experimental EQE data, the absorption coefficient of the Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> absorber layer can be adjusted, as demonstrated in Fig. 3(c). The simulated photovoltaic parameters correspond with the measured data, as shown in Table 3, signifying the justification of the Silvaco Atlas simulation. To further substantiate the accuracy of the model, the relationship between *V<sub>OC</sub>* and light intensity (*I*) created from simulation versus measured data [16] is presented in Fig. 3(d). In this figure, the constant *ε* represents the proportionality constant relating *V<sub>OC</sub>* and ln(*I*), where *V<sub>OC</sub>* and *I* are related by [35,36],

$$V_{OC} = \epsilon V_T \ln(I) + \text{constant} \quad (1)$$

### 3. Results and discussions

#### 3.1. 4-Terminal tandem cell

The configuration of the initial 4-T tandem cell of Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> top subcell and Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub> bottom subcell is shown in Fig. 4(a). In this structure, the

**Table 2**  
Defects parameters in  $Sb_2S_3$  and  $Sb_2Se_3$  cells and at the interfaces.

Parameters	Bulk defects			Interface defects			
	$Sb_2S_3$		$Sb_2Se_3$	ETL/ $Sb_2S_3$	$Sb_2S_3$ /HTL	ETL/ $Sb_2Se_3$	$Sb_2Se_3$ /HTL
Defect type	donor	donor	acceptor	neutral	neutral	neutral	neutral
Carrier capture cross-section ( $cm^2$ )	$1.24 \times 10^{-17}$	$6.59 \times 10^{-16}$	$3.3 \times 10^{-15}$	$1 \times 10^{-15}$	$1 \times 10^{-15}$	$1 \times 10^{-15}$	$1 \times 10^{-15}$
Energy level above $E_v$ (eV)	0.50	0.78	0.60	0.85	0.85	0.6	0.6
Concentration ( $N_t$ ) ( $cm^{-3}$ )	$1.85 \times 10^{13}$	$1.57 \times 10^{14}$	$1 \times 10^{13}$	$1 \times 10^{15}$	$1 \times 10^{15}$	$2.5 \times 10^{13}$	$2.5 \times 10^{13}$
Ref.	[15]	[15]	[16]	[22]	[22]	[16]	[16]

**Table 3**  
PV metrics of simulated and experimental  $Sb_2S_3$  and  $Sb_2Se_3$  solar cells.

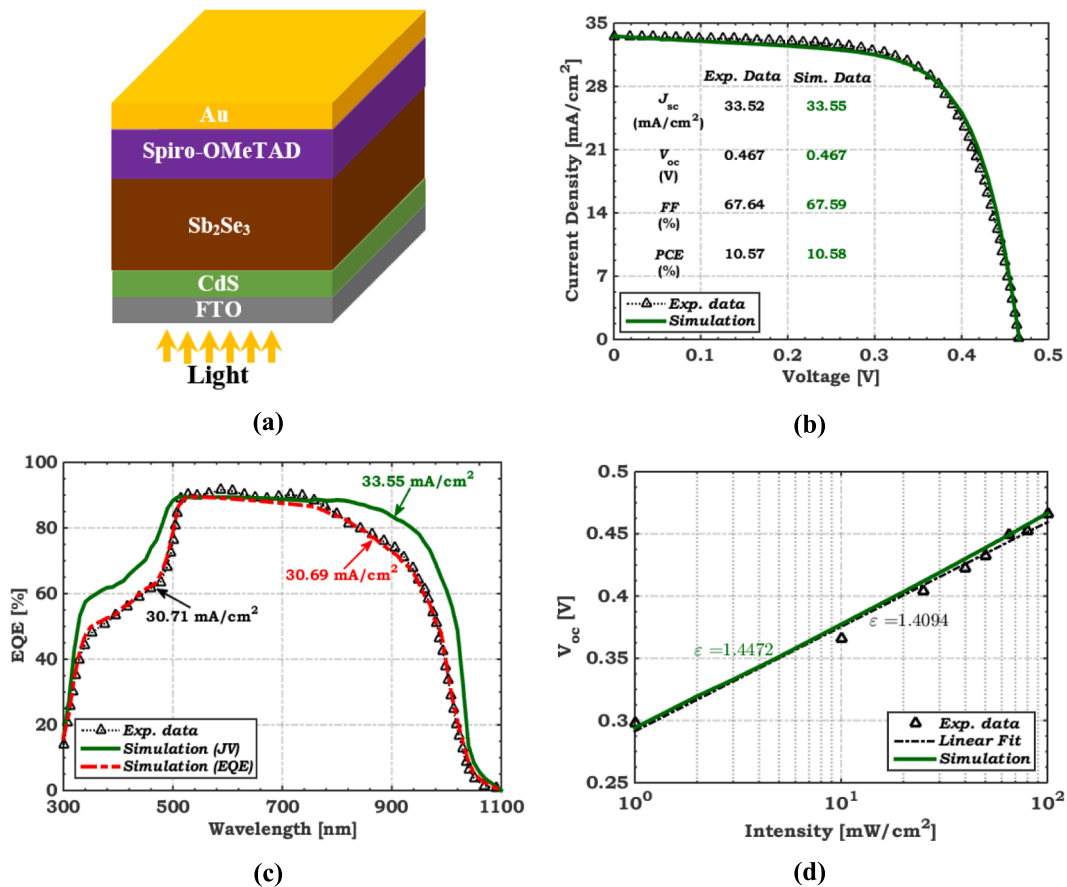
PV Metrics		$J_{sc}$ (mA/ $cm^2$ )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
$Sb_2S_3$ PV cell	Experimental [15]	17.41	0.757	60.48	8
	This work	17.18	0.759	61.95	8.08
$Sb_2Se_3$ PV cell	Experimental [16]	33.52	0.467	67.64	10.57
	This work	33.55	0.467	67.59	10.58

calibrated cells are used as the main subcells, while graphene electrode is employed as a back contact for the front subcell. Fig. 4(b) displays the  $J-V$  curves of subcell components of the 4-T tandem device. The segmented spectral absorption between both subcells is illustrated in Fig. 4(c), which shows the external quantum efficiency of  $Sb_2S_3$  and  $Sb_2Se_3$  in tandem. Regarding the PV metrics of the 4-T tandem, recorded values for the top, rear and tandem cells are listed in Table 4. The top

and bottom subcells reached a PCE of 8.05 % and 4.22 % with a  $V_{oc}$  of 0.76 V and 0.432, respectively. The PCE of the 4-T tandem device is thus just 12.27 %. Notably, this 4-T tandem design cannot be converted to 2-T configuration for the practical considerations discussed therefore. Thus, to migrate from 4-T to 2-T tandem devices, the organic HTL will be replaced by inorganic materials in order to insure the feasibility of the design for possible future fabrication.

### 3.2. Proposed 2-Terminal tandem cell

In the previous subsection, the two subcells were initially designed with an organic HTL using Spiro-OMeTAD. In our study, we undertook a redesign of this tandem cell, transitioning it to a more efficient 2-T tandem configuration. This redesign can be achieved by substituting the Spiro-OMeTAD HTL with various inorganic alternatives, such as CuSCN, CuI, and  $Cu_2O$ . The chosen inorganic materials are expected to boost the performance and stability of the tandem device. The basic physical parameters of these HTL materials are documented in Table 5.



**Fig. 3.**  $Sb_2Se_3$  bottom cell: (a) Basic cell arrangement, (b)  $J-V$ , (c) EQE and (d)  $V_{oc}$  vs  $I$  curves of simulation against experimental data [16] under AM1.5G one-Sun illumination.

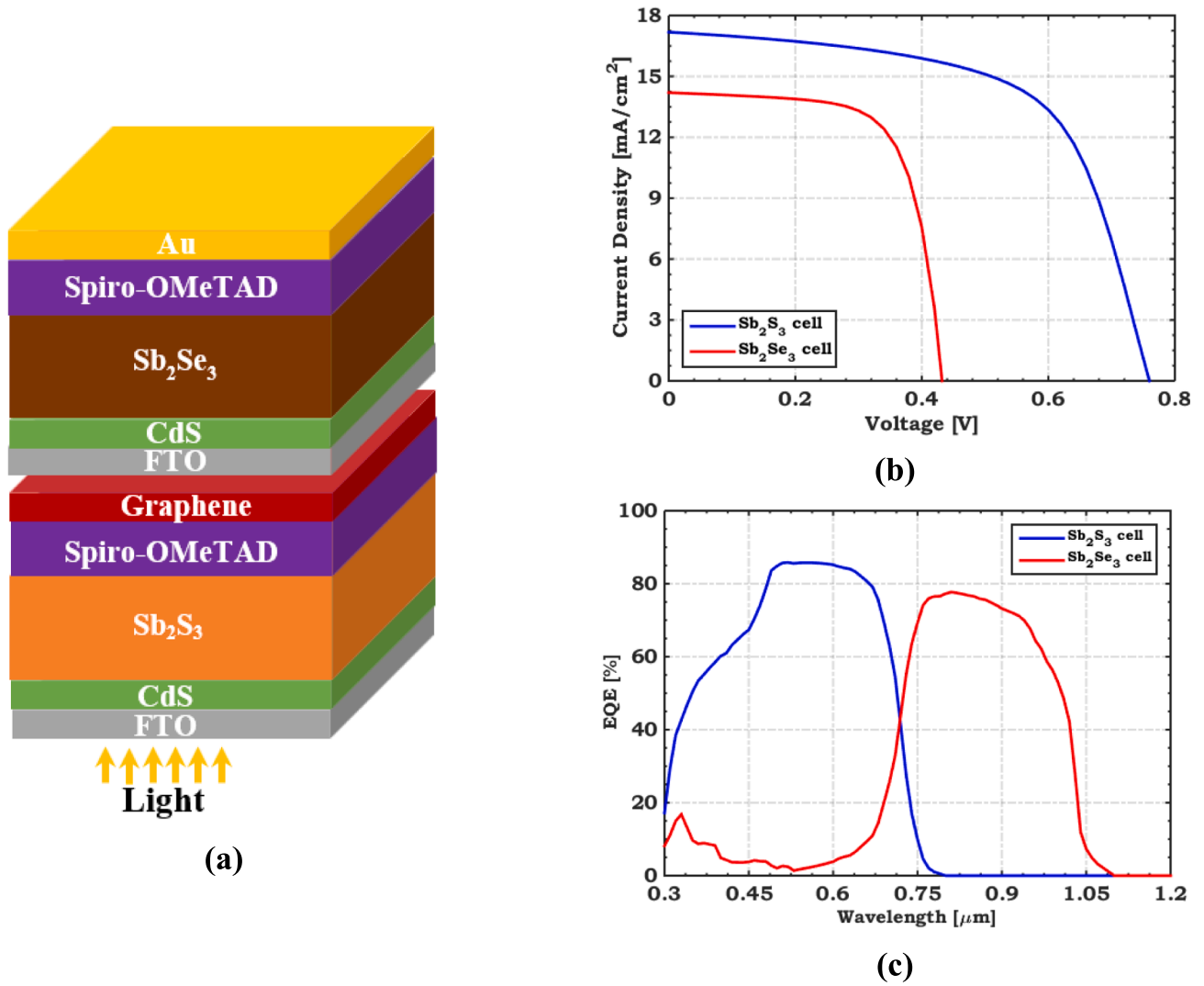


Fig. 4. (a) Schematic illustration showing key layers, (b)  $J$ - $V$ , and (c)  $EQE$  curves of 4-terminal  $Sb_2S_3/Sb_2Se_3$  tandem cell.

Table 4

PV metrics of 4-Terminal  $Sb_2S_3$  and  $Sb_2Se_3$  subcells.

PV Metrics	$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	$FF$ (%)	$PCE$ (%)
Top $Sb_2S_3$ subcell	17.18	0.760	61.70	8.05
Bottom $Sb_2Se_3$ subcell	14.20	0.432	68.85	4.22
Tandem cell	–	–	–	12.27

Following the replacement of Spiro-OMeTAD, we meticulously characterized both subcells performance by simulating the  $J$ - $V$  characteristics and extracting the corresponding optoelectronic factors, that are exhibited in Table 6 (for  $Sb_2S_3$ ) and Table 7 (for  $Sb_2Se_3$ ). According to

Table 5

Fundamental physical factors of various inorganic HTL materials.

Parameters	CuSCN	CuI	$Cu_2O$
$t$ (nm)	50	50	50
$E_g$ (eV)	3.6	3.1	2.17
$\chi$ (eV)	1.7	2.1	3.2
$\epsilon_r$	10	6.5	10
$\mu_n/\mu_p$ (cm <sup>2</sup> /Vs)	100/25	100/43.9	200/80
$N_c$	$2.2 \times 10^{19}$	$2.8 \times 10^{19}$	$2 \times 10^{17}$
$/N_v$ (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$/1.8 \times 10^{18}$	$/1 \times 10^{19}$	$/1.1 \times 10^{19}$
Reference	[40]	[6]	[41]

these results, it can be concluded that  $Cu_2O$  achieves the highest efficiency for both front and rear subcells.

Now, the structure for the proposed 2-T  $Sb_2S_3/Sb_2Se_3$  tandem cell is presented, as shown in Fig. 5(a). After utilizing the tandem simulation by incorporating the initial parameters of the constituting cells, the outcomes are presented in Fig. 5(b) and (c), which depict the  $J$ - $V$  curves and  $EQE$  spectra, respectively. The relevant PV factors are:  $J_{sc} = 16.23$  mA/cm<sup>2</sup>,  $V_{oc} = 1.36$  V,  $FF = 71.11$ , and  $PCE = 15.68$  %. Notably, the  $V_{oc}$  (1.36 V) of the TFTSC is almost the same as the sum of the  $V_{oc}$  of the standalone subcells (0.736 and 0.621 V), whereas its current is restricted by that of the  $Sb_2S_3$  top cell, which is 16.04 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. As indicated in Fig. 5(b), the photocurrent of the  $Sb_2S_3$  subcell presented a strong bias dependence. The distinctly generated photocurrents in the subcells possess a negative bias across the subcell with a lesser photocurrent because of the extra photocurrent in the neighboring subcell [42]. This

Table 6

Band and PV parameters for  $Sb_2S_3$  cell with various HTL materials.

HTL	VBO	$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	$FF$ (%)	$PCE$ (%)
Spiro-OMeTAD (initial)	-0.20	17.18	0.759	61.95	8.08
$Cu_2O$	-0.05	17.38	0.757	63.09	8.30
CuSCN	-0.12	17.28	0.757	63.03	8.24
CuI	-0.22	17.21	0.760	61.88	8.09

**Table 7**  
Band and PV parameters for  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  cell with various HTL materials.

HTL	VBO	$J_{sc}$ ( $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
Spiro-OMeTAD (initial)	-0.11	33.55	0.467	67.59	10.58
$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$	0.04	33.35	0.469	67.70	10.59
CuSCN	-0.03	33.27	0.469	67.70	10.56
CuI	-0.13	33.26	0.470	67.77	10.58

negative bias would raise the photocurrent from 16.04 to 16.23  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

### 3.3. 2-T tandem optimization

In this subsection, we will be focusing on the optimization steps that can be applied to the 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem cell. The subsection is divided into four separate parts. In the first part, we examine the impact that the CBO has on the performance of the two subcells. In addition, the concept of a double ETL is explored to enhance the tandem performance in the second part. Finally, we will take a closer look at the effect that different absorber thicknesses have on tandem performance, and we will be assessing the current matching point (CMP) for the highest conversion efficiency in the last two parts.

#### A. Conduction band offset of two subcells

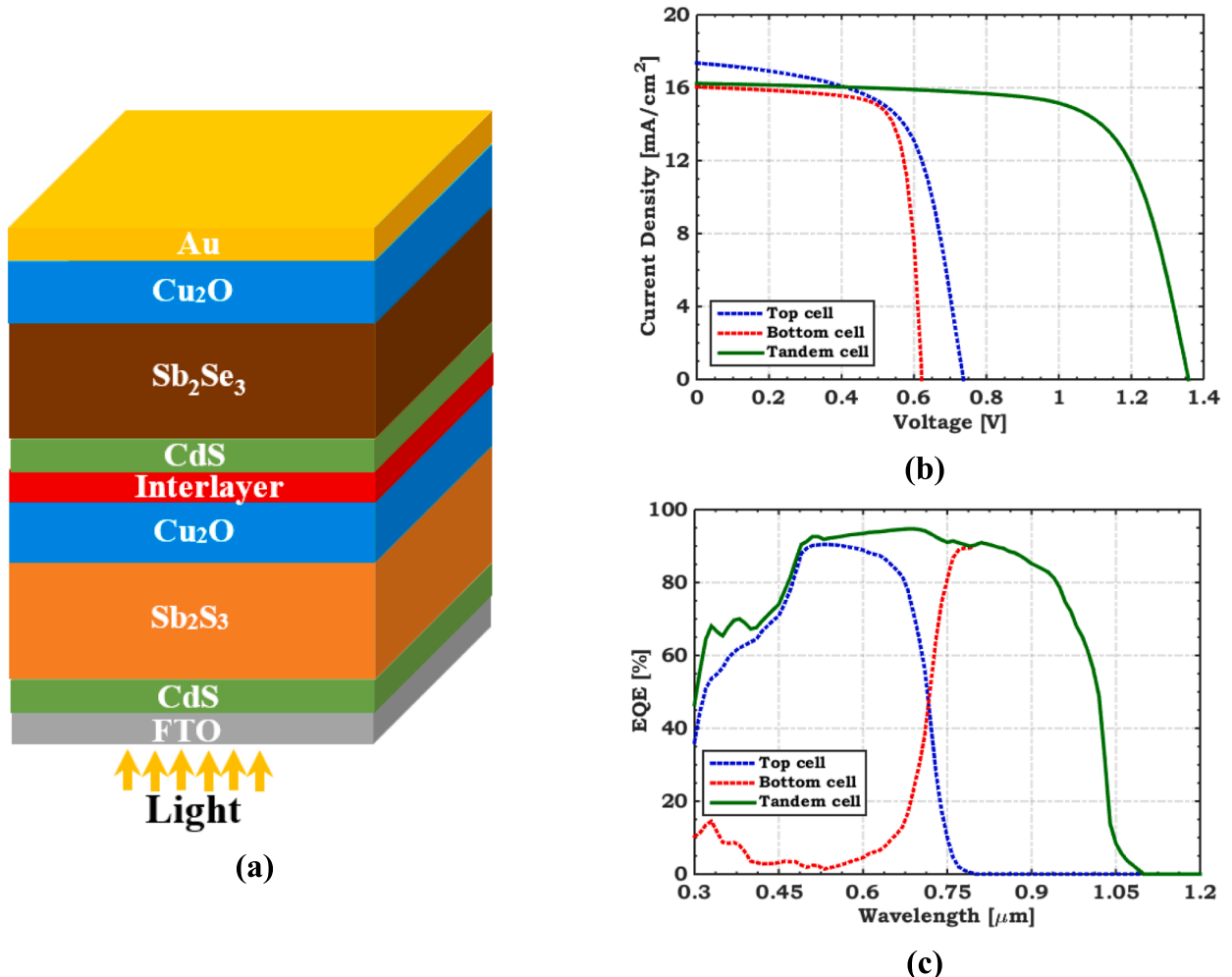
Given that the PCE of the PV cell hinges on the discernment of the

ETL, which is chiefly determined by its energetic and transportation attributes such as carrier mobilities and band alignment, a well-matched ETL can substantially curtail interface recombination. Attaining an ideal conduction band offset (CBO) necessitates precise band alignment at the interface between the ETL and absorber [43]. The CBO holds pivotal significance in determining both  $V_{oc}$  and overall cell efficiency, and it can be defined as,

$$CBO = \Delta E_c = \chi_{\text{absorber}} - \chi_{\text{ETL}} \quad (2)$$

Three possible scenarios for band alignment exist at any heterojunction interface. The first involves a cliff-like band offset with a negative CBO value, followed by a second condition where positive CBO values spike-like band offset are confronted. Lastly, a flat band state emerges as the third potential scenario, characterized by a zero CBO. It is widely acknowledged that cliff-like band offsets at the interface result in pronounced interfacial recombination [44]. Moreover, significant spike-like band offsets, indicating CBOs exceeding 0.3 eV, can impede interface carrier transfer [44]. Generally, in the context of thin film PV cells, slight spike-like or flat band offsets are considered more favorable [45].

Here, the CBO impact of front and bottom subcells is systematically examined. In a theoretical investigation, the bottom CBO is altered from -0.2 to 0.5 eV, while the top CBO is varied from -0.6 to 0.4 eV. The change in the tandem efficiency is displayed in Fig. 6(a). Based on this simulation run, the maximum PCE is achieved within the range of 0.25 to 0.4 for the bottom CBO and -0.1 to -0.5 for the top CBO. To accomplish the CBO design values, we propose  $\text{Cd}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{S}$  as an ETL material because of its electron affinity and bandgap tunability. The



**Fig. 5.** (a) Schematic illustration showing main layers, (b)  $J$ - $V$ , and (c)  $EQE$  curves of proposed 2T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem cell.

changes in bandgap energy and electron affinity of  $\text{Cd}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{S}$  as a function of Zn content were acquired from existing literature [46], as portrayed in Fig. 6(b). In addition, Fig. 6(c) presents the variation of the CBO of the two subcells, depending on the variation of Zn content. Based on the CBO design values,  $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$  is an appropriate material for use as ETL in both subcells. Here, the PV metrics are  $J_{sc} = 16.77 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,  $V_{oc} = 1.71 \text{ V}$ ,  $FF = 78.10 \%$ , and an efficiency of 22.36 %.

### B. ETL Design Configuration for Top Subcell

Advancing the performance of PV devices is greatly facilitated by improving charge collection and separation. With regard to this, the ETL performs a decisive role. Consequently, the exploration of a dual ETL concept is undertaken here to enhance tandem operation. This strategy involves employing two distinct materials as a substitution to a single ETL, aiming to overcome limitations envisioned in conventional designs. Numerous experimental reports have been published that evaluate the application of dual ETL arrangements in boosting the PCE and stability of thin film solar devices [47–52]. By incorporating two different ETL materials, the objective is to optimize charge transportation, minimize recombination losses, and consequently achieve superior overall performance.

Here, we investigate the combination of a dual ETL architecture comprising a 50 nm thick  $\text{Cd}_{0.9}\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{S}$  layer as a neighboring film to the

FTO, along with a 50 nm thick  $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$  layer. The difference in energy between the work function of the FTO contact and the LUMO of the first ETL ( $\text{Cd}_{0.9}\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{S}$ ) is well-tailored ( $\Phi_F = 0.46 \text{ eV}$ ). Additionally, the difference in energy between the LUMO of the second ETL ( $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$ ) and that of the photoactive layer is adjusted to be sufficiently low (CBO =  $-0.15 \text{ eV}$ ) to ease the transfer of electrons. The resulting output metrics include  $J_{sc} = 16.69 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,  $V_{oc} = 1.99 \text{ V}$ ,  $FF = 82.30 \%$ , and  $\text{PCE} = 27.33 \%$ . Therefore, the dual ETL design proves to enhance cell performance and achieve higher efficiency. The use of  $\text{Cd}_{0.9}\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{S}/\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$  as a dual ETL in the present design results in a substantial percentage increase of 22.23 % compared to the single ETL tandem cell.

To interpret the performance trends with single and dual ETL configurations, energy band diagrams are plotted for three different cases: a single ETL employing CdS and  $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$ , and a dual ETL using  $\text{Cd}_{0.9}\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{S}/\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$ , as depicted in Fig. 7. From Fig. 7(a), it can be deduced that although  $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$  exhibits satisfactory alignment with the absorber film, its misalignment with the front electrode provides a larger barrier height that impedes electrons' transmission. In contrast, Fig. 7(b) demonstrates that utilizing two ETLs establishes a satisfactory band alignment with the front electrode, creating a lower barrier height that enhances electron transportation to the contact while simultaneously offering hole-blocking abilities. Further, Fig. 8 illustrates the  $J$ - $V$  characteristics (for AM1.5G illumination) regarding several top ETL structures.

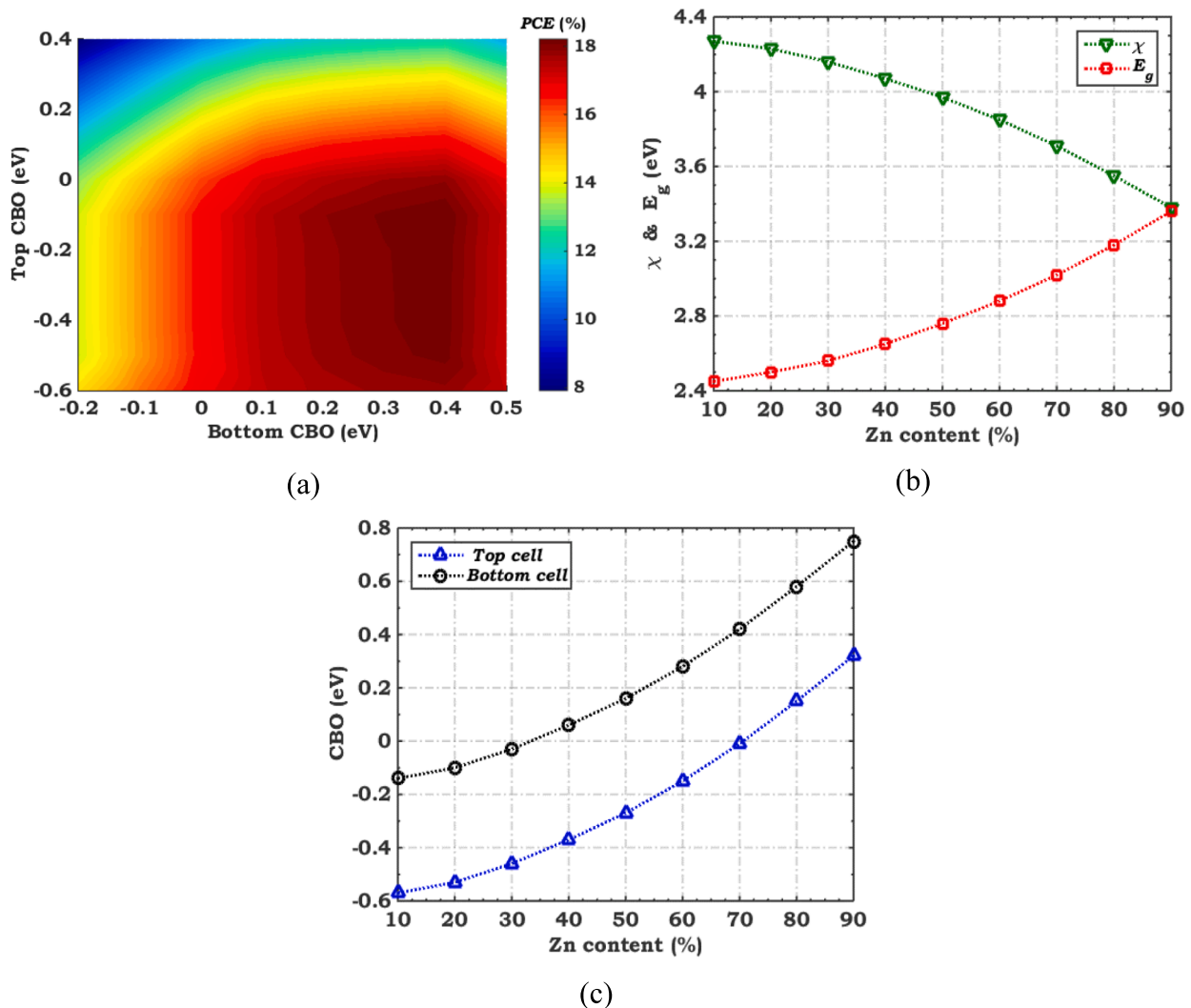


Fig. 6. (a) Contour plot of the tandem PCE at various CBO in the top and bottom device, (b) Change in  $E_g$  and  $\chi$  of  $\text{Cd}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{S}$  dependent on Zn content variation, and (c) Variation in two subcells CBO of  $\text{Cd}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{S}$  depending on the change in Zn content.

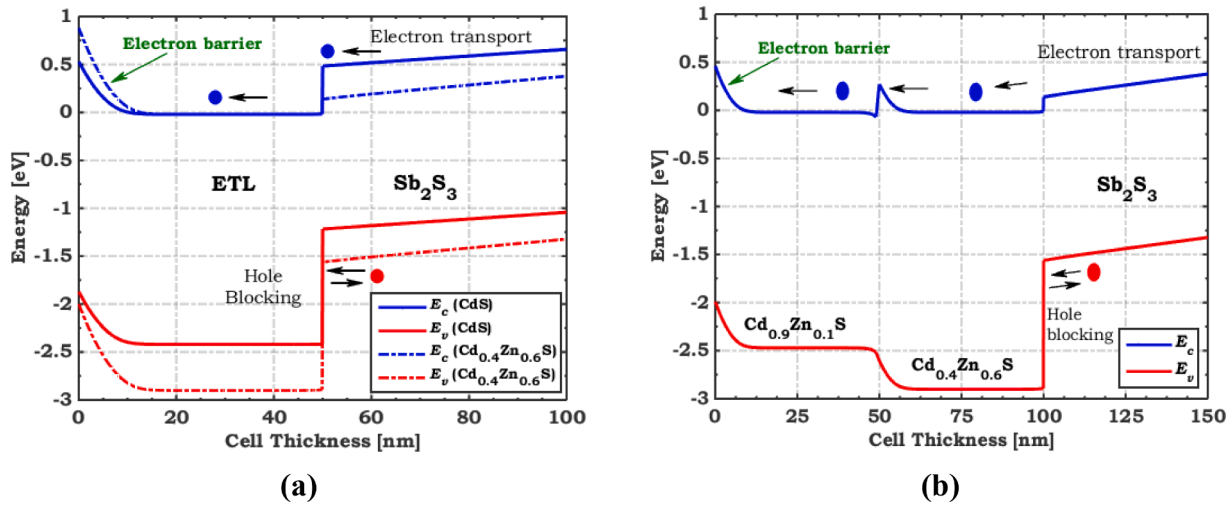


Fig. 7. Energy band profiles (drawn at dark conditions) for  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem with various top ETL architectures (a) single ETL (CdS and  $\text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$ ) and (b) dual ETL ( $\text{Cd}_{0.9}\text{Zn}_{0.1}\text{S} / \text{Cd}_{0.4}\text{Zn}_{0.6}\text{S}$ ).

C. Impact of Thicknesses of Photoactive Layers

Fig. 9 illustrates how the PCE of the tandem is impacted by variations in the thickness of the top and bottom absorber layers. Specifically, the thickness of the front  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  absorber ( $t_{\text{TA}}$ ) ranges from 100 to 600 nm, while that of the rear  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  layer ( $t_{\text{BA}}$ ) varies from 200 to 500 nm. The findings indicate that increasing  $t_{\text{BA}}$  from 200 to 500 nm has no substantial impact on PCE, provided  $t_{\text{TA}}$  remains below 200 nm. However, as  $t_{\text{TA}}$  falls below 200 nm, PCE steadily drops from 25.25 % to 19 %. The most effective combination of thickness is determined to be 400 nm for  $t_{\text{TA}}$  and 500 nm for  $t_{\text{BA}}$ , which results in a PCE of 28.20 %. However, in order to conserve materials and save cost, it is decided to select thicknesses of 375 nm for the front absorber and 400 nm for the rear absorber, as increasing the thickness of the bottom absorber beyond 400 nm does not significantly improve PCE. The output metrics for these choices are  $J_{\text{sc}} = 17.28 \text{ mA/cm}^2$ ,  $V_{\text{oc}} = 1.99 \text{ V}$ ,  $FF = 81.58 \%$ , and an efficiency of 28 %. It is clear that the PCE accomplished by  $t_{\text{TA}} = 375 \text{ nm}$  and  $t_{\text{BA}} = 400 \text{ nm}$  is very close to the optimal PCE value.

D. Current Matching Point (CMP)

Herein, the possibility of CMP is examined by altering  $t_{\text{TA}}$  values

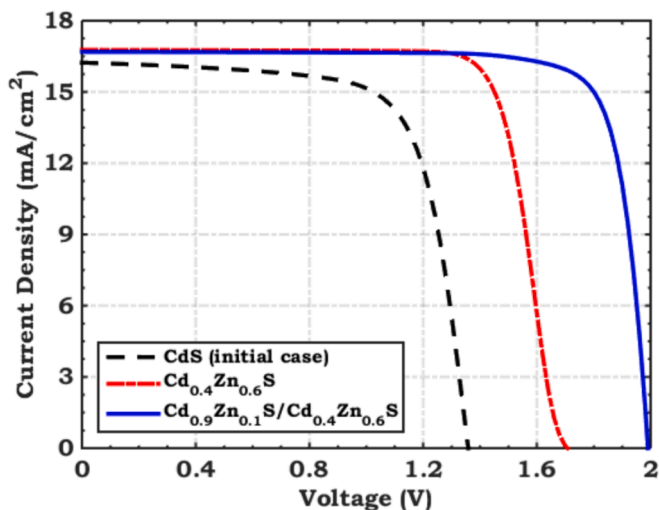


Fig. 8. Illuminated  $J$ - $V$  characteristic curves of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  TFTSC with various top ETL configurations.

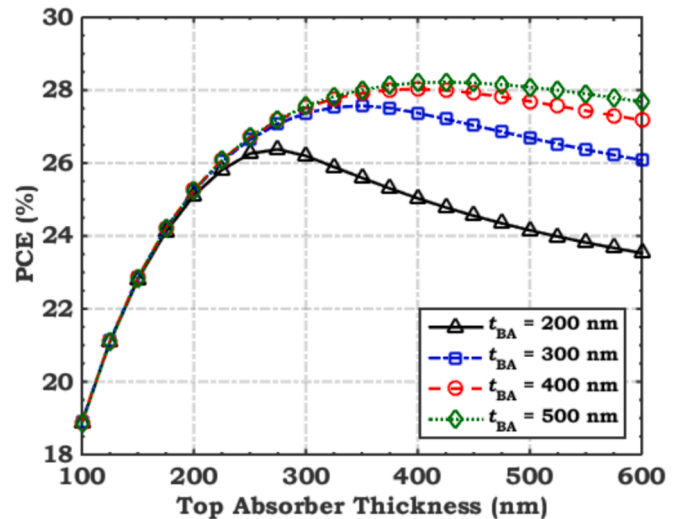


Fig. 9. The dependence of tandem PCE on the thickness of front and rear active films.

within the range of 280 to 400 nm while keeping  $t_{\text{BA}}$  constant at 400 nm. Fig. 10(a) demonstrates the correlation between  $J_{\text{sc}}$  and the  $t_{\text{TA}}$  of both subcells. As  $t_{\text{TA}}$  increases, the top subcell absorbs more photons and less light is transferred to the bottom subcell, resulting in an increase in  $J_{\text{sc}}$  for the front subcell while a reduction in  $J_{\text{sc}}$  is observed for the rear subcell, as depicted in Fig. 10(a). A CMP is observed at  $J_{\text{sc}} = 17.60 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  and  $t_{\text{TA}} = 338 \text{ nm}$ . The tandem device is modeled under these conditions and the  $J$ - $V$  output curves for the tandem and its constituent subcells are demonstrated in Fig. 10(b). The correlated metrics are shown in Table 8. The tandem demonstrates a maximum  $J_{\text{sc}}$  of  $17.60 \text{ mA/cm}^2$  with a  $V_{\text{oc}}$  of  $1.99 \text{ V}$  with an efficiency of 27.86 %. The  $V_{\text{oc}}$  of  $1.99 \text{ V}$  is the result of the top and bottom subcells' voltages ( $1.17 \text{ V}$ , and  $0.82 \text{ V}$ , respectively), indicating that the two subcells are working effectively together at the recombination junction. Furthermore, Fig. 10(c) illustrates the EQE spectra of the tandem and subcells at the CMP.

3.4. Comparison between initial and optimized 2-T tandem designs

In a given tandem, the individual top and bottom subcells can be further characterized by the analytical two-diode model to gain some physical insights into the recombination mechanisms occurring in each

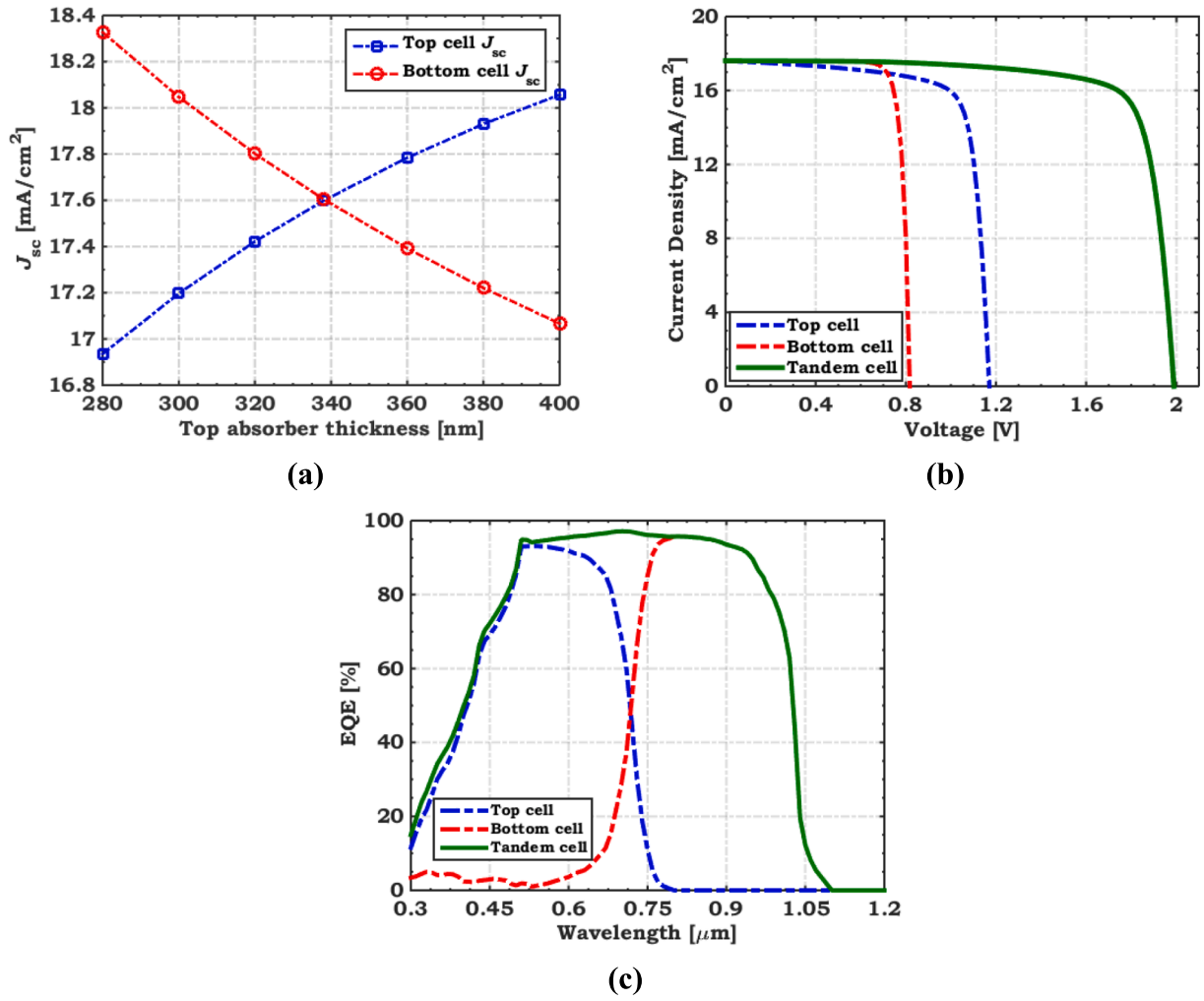


Fig. 10. (a)  $J_{sc}$  of subcells versus top absorber thickness. (b)  $J$ - $V$  characteristics and (c)  $EQE$  spectra of the tandem device and corresponding subcells under CMP.

Table 8

Two-diode model parameters along with PV metrics for top cell and rear cell for the initial and optimized 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandems.

	Cell	$J_L$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$J_{o1}$ (A/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$J_{o2}$ (A/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$R_s$ ( $\Omega\text{-cm}^2$ )	$R_p$ ( $\Omega\text{-cm}^2$ )	$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	FF (%)	PCE (%)
Initial	Top	17.711	$2.71 \times 10^{-20}$	$9.05 \times 10^{-9}$	3.51	298.1	17.36	0.736	62.71	8.02
	Bottom	16.064	$3.55 \times 10^{-13}$	$2.14 \times 10^{-8}$	0.172	934.3	16.04	0.621	76.85	7.65
Optimized	Top	17.772	$1.53 \times 10^{-22}$	$8.49 \times 10^{-13}$	1.956	840.8	17.60	1.17	77.78	16.01
	Bottom	17.597	$2.23 \times 10^{-16}$	$2.91 \times 10^{-10}$	0.099	$5.3 \times 10^5$	17.60	0.82	84.58	12.17

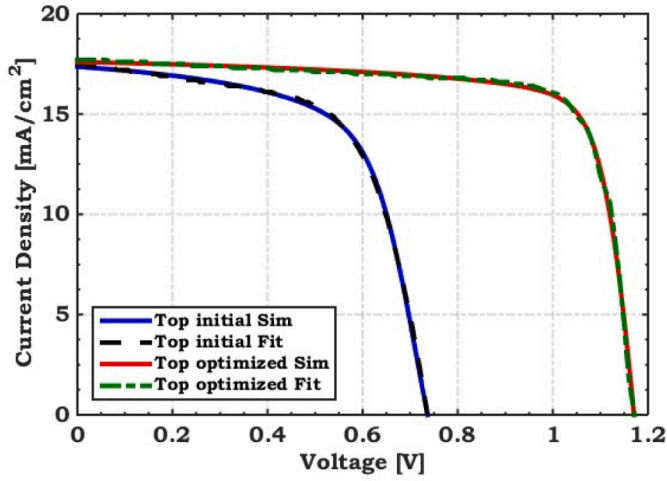
subcell. The two-diode model has been extensively utilized to outline the illuminated and dark  $J$ - $V$  characteristics of various types of solar cells [53]. The analytical equation describing a typical two-diode model is,

$$J = J_L - J_{o1} \exp\left(\frac{V + JR_s}{V_T}\right) - J_{o2} \exp\left(\frac{V + JR_s}{2V_T}\right) + \frac{V + JR_s}{R_p} \quad (3)$$

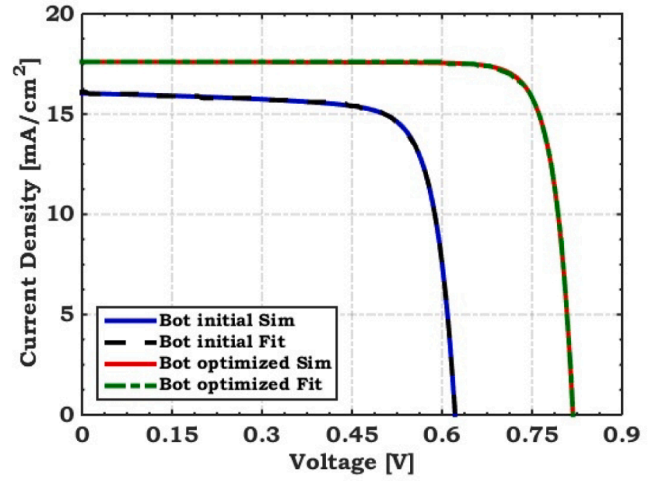
here,  $J_L$  is the photogenerated current density and  $V_T$  is the thermal voltage. The series and shunt resistance are denoted by  $R_s$  and  $R_p$ , respectively, where  $R_s$  reflects the internal resistance impact, while  $R_p$  signifies the extent of leakage current. In this equation, the first diode is characterized by an ideality factor ( $n$ ) of 1, while the second diode has an ideality factor of 2. In the case of  $n = 1$ , the SRH recombination usually takes place in the bulk region, where electron and hole concentrations differ substantially. On the other hand, for the case of  $n = 2$ , the SRH recombination takes place in the depletion region, where electron and hole concentrations are comparable. In this context, the

reverse saturation current  $J_{o1}$  is an indication of the degree of bulk recombination, while  $J_{o2}$  represents the degree of depletion recombination under the high injection scenario. Thus,  $J_{o1}$  or  $J_{o2}$  is manipulated as a sign of the SRH recombination under low or high injection conditions, respectively [53].

After applying Equation (3), we can determine the equivalent circuit parameters ( $J_L$ ,  $J_{o1}$ ,  $J_{o2}$ ,  $R_s$  and  $R_p$ ) for each subcell. The  $J$ - $V$  curves, shown in Fig. 11(a) and Fig. 11(b) for the top and bottom subcells respectively, depict both the initial and optimized (at CMP) tandem cases. These figures demonstrate a good agreement between the fitting curves of the equivalent two-diode model and the TCAD solutions. The extracted parameters of the two-diode model for both subcells are presented in Table 8, which also includes the main PV parameters of the cells derived from the TCAD simulations. For the top cell, there is a noticeable reduction in  $R_s$  and an increase in  $R_p$  in the optimized case compared to the initial one. Additionally, recombination losses are significantly reduced, as indicated by the decreases in  $J_{o1}$  and  $J_{o2}$ .



(a)



(b)

Fig. 11. Illuminated  $J$ - $V$  characteristics of the individual subcells for the initial and optimized 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandems, comparing both TCAD simulation and analytical two-diode model fit: (a) top subcell and (b) bottom subcell.

Similarly, for the bottom cell, significant reductions in  $J_{o1}$ ,  $J_{o2}$ , and  $R_s$ , along with a significant increase in  $R_p$ , can be observed. These results confirm the improvements in both subcells, as evidenced by the  $J$ - $V$  curves in Fig. 11.

Another important factor that can quantitatively highlight sources of losses in a solar cell is the fill factor, which is typically influenced by non-radiative and resistive losses [54]. The non-radiative loss component of the fill factor can be identified by [54],

$$\Delta FF_{non-rad} = FF_{S-Q} - FF_o(V_{OC}) \quad (4)$$

where  $FF_{S-Q}$  is the S-Q fill factor limit, at a given bandgap, while  $FF_o$  is the fill factor value without resistive losses. The  $FF_o$  can be calculated from the empirical equation [55],

$$FF_o(V_{OC}) \approx \left[ \frac{V_{OC}}{V_T} - \ln \left( \frac{V_{OC}}{V_T} + 0.72 \right) \right] / \left( \frac{V_{OC}}{V_T} + 1 \right) \quad (5)$$

Additionally, the resistive loss part of the fill factor can be formulated by [54],

$$\Delta FF_{res} = FF_o(V_{OC}) - FF \quad (6)$$

where  $FF$  is the fill factor resulting from simulations in our case. For the top and bottom subcells, having  $E_g = 1.72$  eV and  $E_g = 1.2$  eV, the  $FF_{S-Q}$  is 91.11 % and 87.76 %, respectively. Based on the calculations of  $FF$  (given in Table 8), and  $FF_o$  (from equation (5)), the coefficients  $\Delta FF_{non-rad}$  and  $\Delta FF_{res}$  can be computed. Fig. 12 illustrates the non-radiative and resistive  $FF$  loss components for both the top and bottom subcells in the initial and optimized tandem configurations. As depicted in the figure, both non-radiative and resistive losses are significantly reduced in both subcells after optimization. This reduction is more pronounced in the bottom cell, indicating a greater improvement in its performance. Thus, the successfully optimized tandem design effectively mitigates the loss mechanisms, leading to enhanced overall efficiency.

### 3.5. State-of-the-art comparison

Finally, a comparative analysis of our optimized tandem cell with other TFTSC contenders is presented, as illustrated in Table 9. The table displays a mix of experimental and numerically computed tandem cells. Among the reported tandem cells, antimony chalcogenide tandem cell has undergone experimental testing and attained a PCE of 7.93 % for a 4 T structure [26]. Also, a 4-T  $\text{Sb}_2(\text{S,Se})_3/\text{Si}$  tandem device was fabricated,

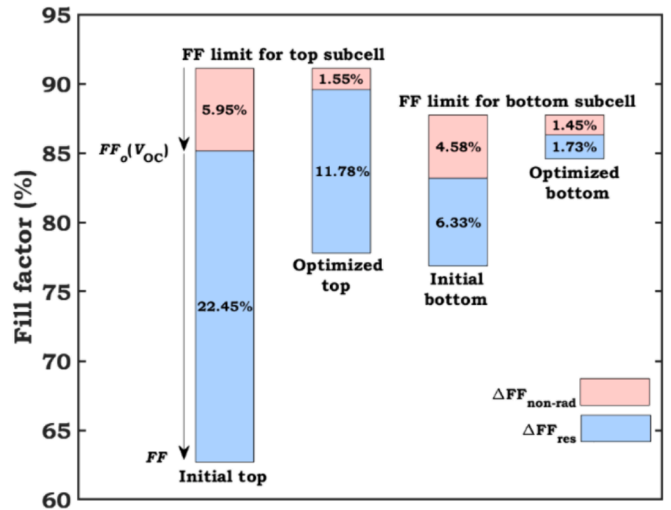


Fig. 12. Detailed FF losses of top and bottom subcells in the initial and optimized 2-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandems.

and an overall PCE of 11.66 % was reported [56]. Theoretical research has suggested that a triple-junction all-antimony chalcogenide TFTSC can achieve a high PCE of around 33 % [57].

Little effort has been devoted to the 2-T antimony chalcogenide tandem design. Recently, Hajjiah presented an investigation on a tandem solar cell using  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  as the absorber layers with energy gaps of 1.7 eV and 1.2 eV, respectively. The device characteristics, radiative recombination, and optimum thickness of this tandem cell were analyzed using filtered spectrum analysis and current-matching techniques in COMSOL. The optimized tandem cell achieved a PCE of 14.66 %, with the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  subcells having 350 nm and 760 nm thicknesses, respectively [58]. In addition, Shrivastav et al. introduced a 2 T tandem that pairs a top  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  subcell with a bottom  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  subcell, with a recombination junction formed by a thin ITO film. The optimized tandem cell achieved a PCE of 14 % [31]. Besides, Dahmardeh et al. investigated incorporating  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  in a 2-T tandem structure, reaching a PCE of 22.2 %, having thicknesses of 420 nm and 1020 nm for the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  subcells, respectively [59].

Moreover,  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  material has been used in various studies as the

**Table 9**A state-of-the-art comparative analysis between optoelectronic metrics of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem cell and other tandem cells acknowledged in the literature.

Materials	Tandem connection	Approach	$J_{sc}$ ( $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ )	$V_{oc}$ (V)	FF (%)	PCE (%)	REF.
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	4T	Exp.	–	–	–	7.93	[26]
$\text{Sb}_2(\text{S,Se})_3/\text{Si}$	4T	Exp.	–	–	–	11.66	[56]
Perovskite/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	4T	Exp.	–	–	–	20.58	[25]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2(\text{S}_{0.7}\text{Se}_{0.3})_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	11.08	3.44	86.49	32.98	[57]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Si}$	2T	Sim.	18.04	1.64	82.41	24.34	[22]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Si}$	4T	Sim.	–	–	–	29.26	[60]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Si}$	2T	Sim.	19.17	1.91	82.48	30.22	[60]
All-polymer/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	15.40	2.02	77.75	24.24	[24]
Organic/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	17.03	1.68	74.86	21.52	[23]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	15.50	1.58	56.90	14	[31]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	16.32	1.48	60.70	14.66	[58]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	20.15	1.02	59.58	22.20	[59]
$\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$	2T	Sim.	17.60	1.99	79.60	27.86	This work

bottom cell material for 2-T and 4-T tandem cells. Lately, Cai et al. demonstrated the first perovskite/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  4-T tandem solar cell with a specially designed and fabricated transparent electrode to optimize spectral response. The final optimized 4-T tandem achieved an impressive efficiency of 20.58 % [25]. In simulation studies, 2-T tandems such as all-polymer/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  and organic/ $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  have been analyzed using Silvaco tools [23,24], achieving PCEs of over 20 %. On the other hand,  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  material has been used in various simulation studies as the top cell material for 2-T and 4-T  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Si}$  tandem cells. The simulated PCEs of these studies reached 30 %, using SCAPS [60] and Silvaco [22].

The PCE of our optimized 2-T tandem reached a remarkable value above 27 % by just optimizing the carrier transport layers without incorporating reducing defects. Based on these findings, our simulation of the suggested tandem cell exhibits positive traits such as a high PCE and  $V_{oc}$ , indicating that our design could be suitable for all-thin-film tandems. More importantly, the introduced design paves the way to transfer 4-T all-antimony chalcogenide tandems into 2-T configurations based on practical prospects, paving the way for further enhancements related to technology constraints.

It should be highlighted here that while TCAD simulations provide valuable insights into the behavior of  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3/\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  tandem solar cells, they have limitations related to idealized assumptions and material variability. For instance, TCAD simulations often rely on idealized device structures and uniform material properties. In reality, the fabrication processes of tandem solar cells introduce variability in material properties, layer thicknesses, and interface quality, which may not be fully accounted for in simulations. This can lead to inaccuracies in predicting device performance. Additionally, in our simulations, an ideal interlayer between the two sub-cells is assumed, which may not accurately represent the actual device behavior. Moreover, the ray tracing optical model used in our simulations does not account for interference or diffraction effects, which may not fully capture the accurate optical behavior inside the various layers of the tandem.

#### 4. Conclusions

In conclusion, this paper has extensively explored the potential of antimony chalcogenide materials as promising candidates for tandem solar cell technology. Their non-toxic and abundant nature, combined with elevated absorption coefficients in the visible range, positions them as attractive absorber materials. The study focused on a transferring 4-T to 2-T tandem configuration, comprising an  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  top subcell and as  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  bottom subcell, taking fabrication constraints into account. The research began by individually assessing the performance of these sub-cells, demonstrating a PCE of 8.08 % for the front cell and 10.58 % for the rear cell. Then, the calibrated subcells were used in an initial 4T-tandem cell achieving a PCE of 12.27 %. To obtain an efficient 2T tandem configuration, two subcells were redesigned by substituting the Spiro-OMeTAD HTL with various inorganic alternatives. It was found that

$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  is the best HTL alternative for both subcells. Upon integration into the tandem structure, the combined cell exhibited a power efficiency of 15.68 % and a notable  $J_{sc}$  of  $16.23 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ .

To further enhance PCE, numerous design proposals are targeted. The issue of band alignment is systematically investigated and controlled by engineering the CBO of two subcells and incorporating a dual ETL arrangement for the front subcell. In addition, the thicknesses optimization of the  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  absorber films was evaluated, followed by the design of the CMP. The maximum efficiency was attained for a  $\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{Sb}_2\text{Se}_3$  thicknesses of 338 nm and 400 nm, respectively. For this tandem design, the optoelectronic metrics are:  $J_{sc} = 17.60 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ ,  $V_{oc} = 1.99 \text{ V}$ , FF = 79.60 %, and an overall efficiency of 27.86 %.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Marwa S. Salem:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Software, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Ahmed Shaker:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Chao Chen:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Luying Li:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Mohamed Abouelatta:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Validation, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Arwa N. Aledaily:** Writing – original draft, Software, Methodology, Conceptualization. **Walid Zein:** Validation, Software, Methodology, Investigation. **Mohamed Okil:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Validation, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis.

#### Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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