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# Simulation Study of Electronic Band Diagram Engineering and Electrical Parameters to Boost the Photovoltaic Performance of Novel Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> Double Perovskite Solar Cell

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**Abstract:** It was shown recently that the double perovskite  $Rb_2PtI_6$  exhibits excellent electronic and optical properties that are relevant for photovoltaic applications in particular. Herein, we report deep simulation results of a novel high-performance lead-free halide double perovskite solar cell (PSC) with the architecture FTO/ZnSe/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoSe<sub>2</sub>/C. The thicknesses of all layers such as: FTO, hole transport layer (HTL), Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> absorber and electron transport layer (ETL) for the device were optimized. The role of electronic band diagram engineering is demonstrated to be essential for the photovoltaic performance of the solar cell. Moreover, the effects of capacitance (C-V), Mott–Schottky (M-S) characteristics, generation and recombination rates, series resistance ( $R_s$ ) and shunt resistance ( $R_{sh}$ ) on the current-voltage characteristics (J-V), and quantum efficiency (QE) are analyzed. Our obtained results shows that this best proposed Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>-based device can serve as a potential eco-friendly high efficiency solar cell candidate due to the chemical stability and non-toxicity of its active layer. The best obtained efficiency *PCE* reaches 20.54 %, with short circuit current density  $J_{SC}$  of 12.94 %. To validate our results, we compared the simulation outcomes with other similar double PSC cells previously published. Good agreement is obtained with experimental and simulation studies.

**Keywords:** Lead-free halide double perovskite solar cells based on  $Rb_2PtI_6$ , band gap diagram, Generation and recombination rates, Series resistance ( $R_s$ ), Shunt resistance ( $R_{sh}$ ).

# Introduction

In the purpose to enhance the power conversion efficiency (PCE) of photovoltaic (PV) solar cells (SC) in a hand and preserve the ecologic system for future generation from polluted materials in the other hand, several experimental and theoretical studies have been published. Thus, a scientific and ecologic race to search and use appropriate materials appeared. Recently, halide perovskites (HP) ABX<sub>3</sub> are in the top of this race due to their attractive properties such as tunable band gap (Huang et al., 2017). Strong light absorption (Yue et al., 2016). And high carrier mobilities (Sun et al., 2021). To have more ideas about the whole perovskites' studies published we can refer to the following review papers: Jodlowski et al. (2018), Yin et al. (2019), Lu. et al. (2020), Zhao et al. (2021), Nair et al. (2022).

In some studies, the cation A (who was formed by the methylammonium  $[CH_3NH_3]^+(MA^+)$  in the earlier studies of HP) was substituted partially or completely by another organic cation formamidinium  $[HC(NH_2)_2]^+(FA^+)$  (Zhang et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2022). And inorganic ones like cesium (Cs<sup>+</sup>), Gallium (Ga), potassium (K<sup>+</sup>) and rubidium (Rb<sup>+</sup>) (Saliba et al., 2016;Park et al., 2017;Ono et al., 2017).

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In others studies, the anion B (who was formed by the toxic element lead  $(Pb^{2+})$  in the earlier studies of HP) has been also partially or completely replaced by other elements like: silver  $(Ag^+)$  (Abdi-Jalebi et al., 2016). Copper Cu<sup>+</sup>(Shahbazi et al., 2017). Tin  $(Sn^{2+})$  (Fujihara et al., 2017). Germanium  $(Ge^{2+})$  (Kanoun et al., 2019). Antimony  $(Sb^{3+})$  (Boopathi et al., 2017). Bismuth  $(Bi^{3+})$  (Jin et al., 2020). It seems that this effect responds to this need but it affects negatively the stability: the mixed organic-inorganic cation (HP) structures formed are vulnerable to degradation upon exposure to light, high temperature and humidity (Wei et al., 2020).

However, in inorganic halide double perovskite structures (IHDP)  $A_2BX_6$ , and especially in the vacancy ordered ones, this main problem is taken off due to the strong covalency in the cluster  $[BX_6]^{2-}$ (Bartel et al., 2019). And especially in platinum (Pt) based ones (Suzuki et al., 2021). It is shown that the rotation angles  $\theta$  of the PtX<sub>6</sub> octahedra are non-zero. For a given A-site cation,  $\theta$  increases from Cl to Br to I while for a given halide anion,  $\theta$  decreases from K to Rb to Cs. It is found that the band gap values increase when the halogen element X is varied from iodide I, to bromide Br to chloride Cl (Cai et al., 2017; Faizan et al., 2021). Also, it is proved that iodide based double perovskite are the most efficiency (Kumar et al., 2021).

It was proven by ab initio calculation Cai et al. (2017), Zhao et al. (2021), (Suzuki et al., 2021) that the two vacancy ordered IHDP  $Cs_2PtI_6$  and  $Rb_2PtI_6$  are stables (formation enthalpy equal to -0,97 and - 0.92 eV/atom respectively), have suitable band gap (1.4 eV and 1.3 eV in the cubic structure respectively), their absorption coefficients are of the order of  $10^4-10^5$  cm<sup>-1</sup>. Indeed, employing the spectroscopically limited maximum efficiency as a metric for quantifying the photovoltaic performance, these iodides compounds are found to be promising absorbers in solar cells.

Since recently, a new promising solar cell based on the vacancy ordered IHDP  $Cs_2PtI_6$  has been synthetized and experimentally tested by Schwartz et al. (2020) it has an excellent stability and oxidation resistance, high absorption coefficient (4 ×10<sup>5</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> superior than MAPbI<sub>3</sub>'one 10<sup>5</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup>) and long carrier life time (superior than 2µs as long as that of MAPbI<sub>3</sub>). The *PCE* of their adopted structure FTO/CdS/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>(10-15 µm)/ElectroDAG440B/Cu is about 10.7% and can enhance to 13.88 % when ethylene diamine EDA (a chemical treatment) is added.

Using SCAPS-1D software (Burgelman et al., 2021).  $Cs_2PtI_6$  was also theoretically studied by Shamna et al. (2022), AbdElaziz et al. (2022), and Amjad et al. (2023). They showed that the *PCE* of their optimized structure FTO/ZnO/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoO<sub>3</sub>/C, FTO/WS<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>(0.4 µm)/Cu<sub>2</sub>O/C and FTO/SnO<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>(0.4 µm)/MoO<sub>3</sub>/C can reach 20.45 %, 22.4 % and 23.52 % respectively.

Then, as  $Cs_2PtI_6$ ,  $Rb_2PtI_6$  can be also an effective candidate for lead-free photovoltaic materials whereas, to our best knowledge, it has not been used in any theoretical or experimental solar cell study. In this context, we aim to investigate numerically, for the first time, the photovoltaic performances of a novel solar cell architecture based on the vacancy ordered IHDP  $Rb_2PtI_6$  as absorber using the SCAPS-1D code (Burgelman et al., 2021).

In this study, we sandwich the IHDP Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> between ZnSe used as electron transport layer (ETL) and MoSe<sub>2</sub> used as hole transport layer (HTL) and we try to ameliorate the PV performance of this initial device by the optimization of the thicknesses of all layers. We extend the study to the analysis of the effects of capacitance (C-V), Mott–Schottky (M-S) characteristics, generation and recombination rates, series resistance ( $R_s$ ) and shunt resistance ( $R_{sh}$ ) on the current-voltage characteristics (J-V).

## Method

We used SCAPS-1D code (Burgelman et al., 2021). Which is based theoretically on the fundamental equations: Poisson's equation (1) and continuity equation for holes and electrons equation (2):

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = \frac{e}{\varepsilon_0\varepsilon_r} \left[ p(x) - n(x) + N_D - N_A + \rho_p - \rho_n \right] \tag{1}$$

Where  $\psi$  is electrostatic potential, n and p are electron and hole concentrations,  $\varepsilon_0$  is vacuum and  $\varepsilon_r$  is relative permittivity,  $N_D$  and  $N_A$  are donor and acceptor doping density,  $\rho_n$ ,  $\rho_p$  are electrons and holes distribution,

$$\frac{dJ_p}{dx} = \frac{dJ_n}{dx} = G - R \tag{2}$$

Where G is generation rate and R is recombination rate,  $J_p$  and  $J_n$  are holes and electron current densities.

Carrier transport occurs according to the following drift and diffusion equations:

$$J_n = \mu_n n \frac{d\psi}{dx} + D_n \frac{dn}{dx} \tag{3}$$

$$J_p = \mu_p p \frac{d\psi}{dx} + D_p \frac{dp}{dx} \tag{4}$$



Figure 1. Architecture of the adopted device

The device architecture model  $FTO/ZnSe/Rb_2PtI_6/MoSe_2/C$  is depicted in (Figure 1). The zinc selenide ZnSe is used as an electron transport layer (ETL). The absorber or active layer is formed by the double perovskite Rubidium (IV) platinum iodide  $Rb_2PtI_6$  material. The Molybdenum diselenide  $MoSe_2$  is used as a hole transport layer (HTL). The Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) is use in the front side and the carbon C is used as contact in the back side.

Our studied device is a n-i-p type, for that, the n part is the ETL, the i part is the absorber and the p part is the HTL. To make our model more realistic, we have added the interface layers: interface  $(ETL/Rb_2PtI_6)$  and interface  $(Rb_2PtI_6/HTL)$ , with a thickness of 5nm and keeping the same physical parameters as those of the perovskite.

We report in (Table 1) the input parameters for  $MoSe_2$ ,  $Rb_2PtI_6$ , ZnSe and FTO derived from the literature and also, obtained with our calculations since some parameters of  $Rb_2PtI_6$  are not yet available. For that, we have opted to the theoretical determination of such parameters based on the following equations:

$$N_t = \frac{1}{\sigma \tau V_{th}} \tag{5}$$

$$\mu_{n/p} = \frac{D_{n/p}q}{KT}$$
 6)

$$D_{n/p} = \frac{l_{n/p}^2}{\tau} \tag{7}$$

Where  $N_t$  is the defect density,  $\mu_{n/p}$  is the electron/hole mobility,  $D_{n/p}$  is the electron/hole diffusion coefficient, *K* is Boltzmann's constant,  $\tau$  is the charge carrier lifetime,  $l_{n/p}$  is the electron/hole diffusion length;  $\sigma$  is the capture cross-section of electron/hole and  $V_{th}$  is the thermal velocity of electron/hole. Also, the absorber layer effective conduction band density of states,  $N_c$  and effective valence band density of states,  $N_v$  are determined using the two following expressions:

$$N_{c} = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_{h}^{*} KT}{h^{2}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \text{ and } N_{\nu} = 2 \left(\frac{2\pi m_{p}^{*} KT}{h^{2}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

$$8)$$

Where  $m_n^*$  and  $m_p^*$  are the effective masses of electrons and holes, respectively.

We notice that all initial layer's thicknesses are set to be  $0.1\mu m$  and the simulation is done under the following physical conditions: solar illumination of AM 1.5 G, with an intensity of  $100 \ mW \ cm^{-2}$ , temperature of  $300 \ K$ , and working frequency of  $10^{6} Hz$ .

Table 1. The input parameters of the adopted device					
Input parameter	MoSe <sub>2</sub>	Rb <sub>2</sub> PtI <sub>6</sub>	ZnSe	FTO	
Band gap, $E_g(eV)$	1.35 <sup>a</sup>	1.3 <sup>b</sup>	2.81 <sup>f</sup>	3.5 <sup>g</sup>	
Affinity, $\chi$ (eV)	4.05 <sup>a</sup>	4.43 <sup>c</sup>	4.09 <sup>f</sup>	4 <sup>g</sup>	
Relative Dielectric permittivity, $\varepsilon_r$	11.9 <sup> a</sup>	4.34 <sup>d</sup>	8.6 <sup>f</sup>	9 <sup>g</sup>	
CB effective density of states, $N_c$ (cm <sup>-3</sup> ) VB effective density of states, $N_v$ (cm <sup>-3</sup> ) Electron mobility, $\mu_n$ (cm <sup>2</sup> V <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	2.8×10 <sup>19 a</sup> 2.65×10 <sup>19 a</sup> 1450 <sup>a</sup>	$7.5 \times 10^{18} \text{ c}$ $3.5 \times 10^{19} \text{ c}$ $0.65^{\circ}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18f} \\ 1.8 \times 10^{19f} \\ 400^{f}$	9.2×10 <sup>18g</sup> 1.8×10 <sup>19g</sup> 20 <sup>g</sup>	
hole mobility, $\mu_p (cm^2 V^{-1} s^{-1})$	50 <sup>a</sup>	3.25 <sup>e</sup>	$100^{\text{ f}}$	10 <sup>g</sup>	
Electron effective mass, $m_n^*$	-	0.45 <sup>b</sup>	-	-	
hole effective mass, $m_p^*$	-	1.245 <sup>b</sup>	-	-	
Density of n-type doping, $N_D$ ( $cm^{-3}$ )	0	0	$10^{18f}$	$10^{19g}$	
Density of p-type doping, $N_A$ ( $cm^{-3}$ )	$4 \times 10^{18 a}$	10 <sup>15 c</sup>	0	0	
Density of defect, $N_t$ ( $cm^{-3}$ )	$10^{14 a}$	$3.5 \times 10^{15c}$	$10^{15f}$	10 <sup>15g</sup>	

<sup>a</sup>data from Teyou- Ngoupo et al. (2022)

<sup>b</sup>data from Cai et al. (2017), <sup>c</sup> our calculations, <sup>d</sup> from Zhao et al.(2021), <sup>e</sup> from Yang (2019)

<sup>f</sup>data from (Owolabi J.A. et al. 2020)

<sup>g</sup>data from (Jahantigh et al. 2019)

# **Results and Discussion**

#### **Optimization of the Device Layers Thicknesses**

Since the thickness of each layer of the device is critical to the overall photovoltaic performance of the device, the thicknesses of the FTO, HTL, absorber and ETL of the initial device were optimized. In this step, our strategy of optimization is started for  $FTO/ZnSe/Rb_2PtI_6/MoSe_2/C$  and is preceded in such the way: The optimization was done sequentially by varying the thickness of a particular layer while keeping the thickness of the remaining layers constant. In this manner, each layer was investigated in turn until a maximum *PCE* was achieved.

For instance, for the initial SC FTO( $(0.1 \ \mu m)/\text{ZnSe}(0.1 \ \mu m)/\text{Rb}_2\text{PtI}_6(0.1 \ \mu m)/\text{MoSe}_2(0.1 \ \mu m)/\text{C})$  which has initially an *PCE* = 12.94 % for  $R_s = 0 \ \Omega$ , the thickness optimization was carried out as follows: first, the absorber thickness was varied from 0.1 to 2  $\mu m$  until a maximum *PCE* was obtained, while the thicknesses of the HTL, ETL, and FTO were kept constant at 0.1  $\mu m$ . The best absorber thickness was determined to be 1.2  $\mu m$  (*PCE* = 20.54 %), after which it was kept constant at this value. The ETL and FTO thicknesses were kept constant, while the thickness of the HTL was varied from 0.01 to 2  $\mu m$  until an optimum value was attained at 0.04  $\mu m$  (*PCE* = 20.54 %).

Likewise, the ETL thickness was varied from 0.01 to 2  $\mu m$ , while the absorber, HTL and FTO thicknesses were kept constant. The optimum ETL thickness was found to be 0.06  $\mu m$  (*PCE* = 20.54 %). Finally, the FTO thickness was optimized by varying its value between 0.01 to 2  $\mu m$ , and the optimum thickness was determined to be 0.01  $\mu m$  (*PCE* = 20.54 %).

Then, the optimized SC is: FTO( $0.01 \ \mu m$ )/ZnSe( $0.06 \ \mu m$ )/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>( $1.2 \ \mu m$ )/MoSe<sub>2</sub>( $0.04 \ \mu m$ )/C gives an *PCE* of 20.54 %. Figure 2 shows the PV performance and quantum efficiency (QE) comparison between the initial and obtimized simulated FTO/ZnSe/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoSe<sub>2</sub>/C structure. The initial solar cell (SC) provides *PCE* of 12.94 %,  $J_{SC}$  of 19.39  $mA/cm^2$ ,  $V_{oc}$  of 0.79 V, and *FF* of 87.54 % with QE near 360 nm 360, which is in the UV range. Upon optimizing the thicknesses of FTO, HTL, perovskite and ETL, we have obtained a higher performance: *PCE* of 20.54 %,  $J_{SC}$  of 34.41  $mA/cm^2$ ,  $V_{oc}$  of 0.79 V and *FF* of 75.8 % with about 98 % QE from 100 nm to 800 nm, which covers the UV and the visible range.



Figure 2. a) J-V characteristic and b) QE versus wavelength of FTO/ZnSe/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoSe<sub>2</sub>/C solar cell (SC).

#### **Energy Band Diagram**

In order to achieve a higher level of efficiency, the hole transport layer (HTL) and electron transport layer (ETL) must have band gap edges that correspond with the valence band maximum (VBM) and the conduction band minimum (CBM) of the active layers. (Figure 3.a) illustrate the band gap alignment of ZnSe, MoSe2 and Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>, as well as the back and front device contacts. The lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) of ZnSe (ETL) is in excellent alignment with the conduction band of Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>. Likewise, the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of MoSe<sub>2</sub> (HTL) is well-aligned with the valence band level of an absorbing material



Figure 3. a) Energy level diagram b) conduction and valence energies of the optimized device.

The proper alignment of these energy levels is crucial for the photovoltaic performance of PSCs. Indeed, when light is absorbed, electrons are generated and injected into the conduction band of the ETL, while holes are simultaneously transported to the HTL. Then, electrons and holes are gathered at their corresponding front and back metal contacts. The energy band mismatch at the interfaces between  $ETL/Rb_2PtI_6$  and  $Rb_2PtI_6/HTL$  has a

significant impact on the device performance parameters. The characteristics of these interfaces exert control over the consequences of interfacial recombination (Sabbah et al., 2022). Therefore, it is necessary to perform precise tuning of the electronic characteristics of ETL and HTL materials. (Sabbah et al., 2022)

According to Ravidas et al. (Ravidas et a 2023). When the valence band offset (VBO) is positive, the spike is established at the absorber/HTL interface. Conversely, when the VBO is negative, a cliff is created at the absorber/HTL interface as shown in (Figure 3.b). The cliff does not obstruct photo-generated hole flow toward a back metal contact (C). However, the activation energy ( $E_a$ ) for carrier recombination becomes lower than band gap of the absorber  $E_g$  ( $Rb_2PtI_6$ ) and  $E_a$  is expressed by  $E_g$  ( $Rb_2PtI_6$ ) - |VBO|. Consequently, a decrease in  $E_a$  due to the negative VBO elevates the interface recombination (Ravidas et al. 2023). The VBO at the MoSe<sub>2</sub>/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> interface is -0.37 eV which is sufficiently small to allow the holes to travel smoothly towards electrodes. When the CBO is positive, the spike is created at the ETL/ absorber interface and when the CBO is negative, the cliff is established at the ETL/ absorber interface is a due to (Figure 3.b). The CBO at the Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/ZnSe interface is positive; it is about 0.31 eV.

#### **Effect of Generation and Recombination Rate**

Carrier generation describes the processes by which electrons gain energy and move from the valence band to the conduction band, producing two mobile carriers (creation); while recombination describes the processes by which an electron in the conduction band loses energy and reoccupies the energy state of an electron hole in the valence band.

Figure 4 illustrates the carrier generation and recombination rates in our model cell at different depths, ranging from 0.0 to 1.3  $\mu$ m. According to the results, the generation rate of the device reached the peak of  $1.447 \times 10^{22}$  cm<sup>3</sup>.s at 1.25  $\mu$ m. This peak value is considered very higher compared to other solar devices such as ITO/C60/CsSnBr<sub>3</sub>/Cu<sub>2</sub>O/Au structure which demonstrated the highest generation rate of  $0.7 \times 10^{22}$  cm<sup>3</sup>.s in its class (Dar et al. 2024).



#### Effect of Capacitance and Mott-Schotteky

Figure 5 illustrates the variation of the capacitance characteristics as a function of a voltage between -0.8 and 0.8 V. The numerical calculations were performed at a fixed frequency of 1 MHz. The capacitance increases nonlinearly as the voltage increases up to the value of 0.6 V. Beyond this value, the capacitance undergoes an exponential expansion. Normally, we would expect the capacitance to eventually reach its saturation point. It is well known in semiconductor device physics that the Mott-Schotteky (M-S) plot describes the inverse square of the capacitance, given in (Figure 6), versus the potential. The relationship between the capacitance (*C*), the built-in potential  $V_{bi}$  and the doping density ( $N_D$ ) of the semiconductor is expressed by the following equation:

$$\frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2\left(V - V_{bi} - \frac{KT}{q}\right)}{q\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 N_D} \tag{9}$$

Where V is the applied voltage and C is the capacitance per unit area.

This equation is used for the calculation of the doping density  $(N_D)$  of the semiconductor, while the extrapolation of the intercept can be used to derive the built-in potential  $(V_{bi})$  (Otoufi et al., 2020). The  $V_{bi}$  obtained for the considered structure is equal to 1 V as shown in (Figure 6).



#### **Effect of Series and Shunt Resistances**

Series resistance  $(R_s)$  is due to factors such as ohmic contacts, metallic contacts, ITO sheet resistance, contact resistance inside the cell, and manufacturing imperfections. While, shunt resistance  $(R_{sh})$  results from factors such as crystallographic defects, pinholes in the absorber layer, grain boundaries and the preparation process.  $R_{sh}$  is created due to alternating current paths for photogenerated charge carriers, which are provided by various charge recombination pathways in PSCs. The Shockley equation illustrates the relationship between the J-V characteristics of the cell and the resistances.

- For  $R_s$ , the Shockley equation is defined as follows:

$$I = J_{ph} - J_0 exp \left[ \frac{q(V+IR_S)}{\eta KT} \right]$$
(10)

- For  $R_{sh}$ , the Shockley equation is defined as follows:

$$I = J_{ph} - J_0 exp \left[\frac{qV}{\eta KT}\right] - \frac{V}{R_{sh}}$$
(11)

Where  $J_{ph}$  is the photocurrent density,  $J_0$  is reverse saturation current density, V is the output voltage and  $\eta$  is diode ideality factor. Figure 7 shows the contour plot of the variation of the photovoltaic parameters with resistances  $R_s$  and  $R_{sh}$ . As illustrated, the increase of  $R_s$  leads to the decrease of PCE, while the increase of  $R_{sh}$  leads to the increase of PCE. Therefore,  $R_s$  has a negative effect of the solar cell performance, while  $R_{sh}$  has a positive effect. The *PCE* reaches the maximum value of 20.60 % for very low  $R_s$  and very high  $R_{sh}$ .





Figure 7. Contour plot of the effect of series and shunt resistances on the PV parameters of the solar cell: a) PCE, b) PCE, c)  $J_{SC}$  and d)  $V_{oc}$ 

### **Comparison of Our PV Parameters and Others Studies**

Since the active layer of our studied device  $Rb_2PtI_6$  is from the same IHDP family as  $Cs_2PtI_6$ , we compare the photovoltaic (PV) characteristics of our predicted solar cell based on  $Rb_2PtI_6$  to other ones based on  $Cs_2PtI_6$  where experimental and numerical data are available. We summarized the finding results in (Table 2).

The values between parentilesis are the layers' therefores given in (µm).							
Structure	Voc	J <sub>sc</sub>	FF	PCE	R <sub>s</sub>	R <sub>sh</sub>	Used
	(V)	(mA	(%)	(%)	$(\Omega \ cm^2)$	$(\Omega \ cm^2)$	Method
		$/cm^2$ )					
FTO (0.01)/ ZnSe(0.06)/	0.79 <sup> a</sup>	34.41 <sup>a</sup>	75.80 <sup>a</sup>	$20.54^{a}$	0	0	SCAPS-
$Rb_2PtI_6 (1.2)/MoSe_2(0.04)/C$	$0.79^{a}$	34.41 <sup>a</sup>	$75.75^{a}$	20.53 <sup>a</sup>	0.01	10 <sup>5</sup>	1D
a	$0.79^{a}$	34.41 <sup>a</sup>	$75.62^{a}$	20.49 <sup>a</sup>	0.01	104	
	0.79 <sup>a</sup>	34.38 <sup>a</sup>	71.02 <sup>a</sup>	19.49 <sup>a</sup>	1	4.2 × 10 <sup>3</sup>	
	0.79 <sup> a</sup>	15.15 <sup>a</sup>	25.17 <sup>a</sup>	03.01 <sup>a</sup>	50	10 <sup>4</sup>	
	0.79 <sup> a</sup>	33.47 <sup>a</sup>	35.71 <sup>a</sup>	09.42 <sup>a</sup>	14	$10^{4}$	
FTO/CdS (0.08-0.1)/ Cs <sub>2</sub> PtI <sub>6</sub> (10-15)/ElectroDAG 440B/Cu <sup>b</sup>	0.90 <sup>b</sup>	19.83 <sup>b</sup>	59.85 <sup>b</sup>	10.70 <sup>b</sup>	14	-	Exp
FTO/CdS (0.08-0.1)/ Cs <sub>2</sub> PtI <sub>6</sub> (10-15)/ElectroDAG 440B/Cu with EDA traitment <sup>b</sup>	1.07 <sup>b</sup>	19.84 <sup>b</sup>	65.03 <sup>b</sup>	13.88 <sup>b</sup>			
FTO (0.5)/WS <sub>2</sub> / Cs <sub>2</sub> PtI <sub>6</sub> (0.4)/Cu <sub>2</sub> O /C <sup>c</sup>	1.3 °	28.15 °	61.00 <sup>c</sup>	22.4 °	14	-	SCAPS- 1D
FTO $(0.5)/SnO_2(0.01)/$	1.11 <sup>d</sup>	26.95 <sup>d</sup>	79.90 <sup>d</sup>	24.10 <sup>d</sup>	0.01	$10^{4}$	SCAPS-
$Cs_2PtI_6$ (0.4)/MoO <sub>3</sub> (0.024)/C <sup>d</sup>	1.11 <sup>d</sup>	26.95 <sup>d</sup>	78.07 <sup>d</sup>	23.52 <sup>d</sup>	1	4.2 × 10 <sup>3</sup>	1D
	1.11 <sup>d</sup>	21.06 <sup>d</sup>	25.57 <sup>d</sup>	06.03 <sup>d</sup>	50	$10^{4}$	
FTO/ZnO / Cs <sub>2</sub> PtI <sub>6</sub> /MoO <sub>3</sub> /C <sup>e</sup>	1.40 <sup>e</sup>	16.11 <sup>e</sup>	90.01 <sup>e</sup>	20.45 <sup>e</sup>	0	0	SCAPS- 1D

Table 2. PV characteristics of our optimized solar cell compared with other IHDP solar cells. The values between parenthesis are the layers' thicknesses given in (*µm*).

<sup>a</sup> our optimized SC based on Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>

<sup>b</sup> experimental SC based on Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> (Schwartz et al., 2020)

<sup>c</sup> simulated SC based on Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> (AbdElAziz et al., 2022)

<sup>d</sup> simulated SC based on Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> (Amjad et al., 2023)

<sup>e</sup> simulated SC based on  $Cs_2PtI_6$  (Shamna et al., 2022)

The *PCE* ranges from 6.03 % (FTO/ZnO/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoO<sub>3</sub>/C) to 24.1 % (FTO/SnO<sub>2</sub>/Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoO<sub>3</sub>/C) with Cs<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> perovskite. We can see that the negative effect of the series resistance  $R_s$  is remarkable in this case because it

drastically decreases the PCE of the solar cell. Compared to these similar solar cells, our results for FTO/SnO<sub>2</sub>/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoSe<sub>2</sub>/C show good agreement with the *PCE* of 20.54 %. We notice that SCAPS-1D PV results reported in the references given in Table 2, the authors performed their obtained devices with the study of the effect of acceptor density  $N_A$  and defect density  $N_t$  of the active layer. We expect, then, a clear improvement in *PCE* of our predicted device if we also take into account these later effects.

# Conclusion

This paper provided deep simulation results of a novel high-performance solar cell based on the double perovskite: Rubidium (IV) platinum iodide Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>. Our adopted architecture is FTO/ZnSe/Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>/MoSe<sub>2</sub>/C. The optimal performance of our proposed cell was achieved by varying the thicknesses of all layers such as: FTO, hole transport layer (HTL), Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub> absorber and electron transport layer (ETL). We have presented a valuable insight on how the electronic band diagram engineering is fundamental for the photovoltaic performance of the solar cell. Moreover, the effects of capacitance (C-V), Mott–Schottky (M-S) characteristics, generation and recombination rates, series resistance ( $R_s$ ) and shunt resistance ( $R_{sh}$ ) are analyzed. The best obtained efficiency *PCE* reaches 20.54 % and we expect, even more improvement in *PCE* if we investigate the effect of acceptor density, and defet concentration of the absorber layer.

The QE of our redicted devive is 98 % from 100 nm to 800 nm, which covers the UV and the visible range. Our findings shows that our proposed Rb<sub>2</sub>PtI<sub>6</sub>-based device can serve as a potential eco-friendly high efficiency solar cell candidate due to the chemical stability and non-toxicity of its active layer. Good agreement is obtained with available experimental and simulation studies for similar solar cells.

# **Scientific Ethics Declaration**

The authors declare that the scientific ethical and legal responsibility of this article published in EPSTEM Journal belongs to the authors.

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## Notes

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