



Article In Silico Investigation of the Impact of Hole-Transport Layers on the Performance of CH₃NH₃SnI₃ Perovskite Photovoltaic Cells

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Abstract: Perovskite solar cells represent one of the recent success stories in photovoltaics. The device efficiency has been steadily increasing over the past years, but further work is needed to enhance the performance, for example, through the reduction of defects to prevent carrier recombination. SCAPS-1D simulations were performed to assess efficiency limits and identify approaches to decrease the impact of defects, through the selection of an optimal hole-transport material and a hole-collecting electrode. Particular attention was given to evaluation of the influence of bulk defects within light-absorbing CH₃NH₃SnI₃ layers. In addition, the study demonstrates the influence of interface defects at the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ (IL1) and CH₃NH₃SnI₃/HTL (IL2) interfaces across the similar range of defect densities. Finally, the optimal device architecture TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃/Cu₂O is proposed for the given absorber layer using the readily available Cu₂O hole-transporting material with *PCE* = 27.95%, *FF* = 84.05%, *V*_{OC} = 1.02 V and *J*_{SC} = 32.60 mA/cm², providing optimal performance and enhanced resistance to defects.

Keywords: perovskite solar cells; CH₃NH₃SnI₃; SCAPS-1D; modeling; HTL

1. Introduction

Photovoltaic cells based on crystalline silicon have proven themselves at the industrial scale as a viable alternative energy source due to their high performance, material abundance and proven microelectronic technology [1-3]. At the same time, in spite of the excellent power conversion efficiencies [4-6], the technology still requires further improvement through reduction in costs, facilitation of the manufacturing steps and minimization of the environmental pollution associated with the production process [7–9]. In recent years, perovskite solar cells (PSC) based on organometallic lead halides have emerged as strong competitors to silicon in the photovoltaic market [10-12], as well as an efficient technology to complement the silicon photovoltaic devices in tandem architecture [13–15]. These materials boast high efficiency (about 25%) at a fraction of the silicon device thickness, as well as ease of fabrication, making them highly promising for future photovoltaic applications [16–22]. One of the main downsides of these devices is that the best efficiencies have so far been demonstrated by organometallic lead halides which present a serious danger to the environment due to the toxicity of lead [23–25]. Thus, replacing elemental lead with environmentally friendly alternatives in the perovskite lattice is a pressing problem in photovoltaics [26,27].

A significant amount of research is being dedicated to developing lead-free PSC, with the tin halide perovskite being one of the most promising alternatives [28–31]. Tin is widely distributed in nature and has similar electronic properties to lead, since it is a member of the same group in the periodic table [32,33]. In addition, perovskites based on tin halide



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Copyright: © 2022 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). have excellent light absorbing properties and high carrier mobilities [34–36]. Additionally, tin-based perovskites provide a high theoretical PCE due to a smaller band gap than the equivalent lead-based perovskites [37].

A PSC in most cases consists of an absorbing layer and two transport layers—an electron transport layer (ETL) and a hole transport layer (HTL), which perform the function of collecting charge carriers [38]. The device structure is completed with a transparent conducting electrode on top of a glass substrate, on the one side, and a metal electrode (such as Au, Ag, Al, etc.), on the other. To be efficient, the transport layers must possess certain properties: above all, high transparency and a high selective charge transport. As such, determination of the optimal properties of an ETL and an HTL plays an important role in maximizing the PSC performance and maintaining the device stability [39].

So far, a variety of transport layers have been tested, ranging from metal-oxides and fullerenes to organic materials and self-assembled monolayers [19,40–43]. For example, TiO_2 has been a popular choice for an ETL in the n-i-p device configuration, due to its chemical stability, good electron transport, efficient hole-blocking at the interface and environmental friendliness [44–46]. On the other side, a significant effort has also been placed on the development and optimization of HTLs. Efficient HTL materials should possess the following properties [47–50]:

- 1. high carrier mobility to increase the fill factor (*FF*);
- 2. a wide optical band gap and high transparency to minimize optical losses;
- 3. high resistance to water, light and heat;
- 4. low cost of materials and production;
- 5. environmental friendliness.

The hole transport layers must be chosen thoughtfully to prevent charge recombination at the interfacial layer boundaries and ensure high device performance. At the same time, it is very important that their fabrication is compatible with the low-cost deposition, solutionprocessability and flexibility, similar to the other layers within the perovskite cell structure. We thus selected three HTL layers, which are commonly used in perovskite-based solar cells: Spiro-OMeTAD [51–54], PEDOT:PSS [55–57] and Cu₂O [58–60]. It must be noted that whilst the former two materials can be deposited in a straightforward fashion from, respectively, organic or aqueous solvents, the current approach to solution deposition of Cu₂O is more complicated, initially involving the deposition of CuI following its further chemical conversion to Cu₂O [61]. We nevertheless consider this metal-oxide HTL in our study due to its high performance and versatility.

Further improvement in the device power conversion efficiency (*PCE*) requires a detailed understanding of the PSC working mechanism, based not only on experimental research, which may end up being expensive and time-consuming, but also on device simulation [62–70]. A limited number of studies focusing on the simulation of lead-free PSCs, as well as on the optimization of their charge-transport layers, has been conducted so far [71–75]. In this article, a cell architecture has been selected using CH₃NH₃SnI₃ as an absorbing layer with three different HTLs, namely 2,2',7,7'-Tetrakis-(N,N-di-p-methoxyphenylamine) 9,9'-spirobifluorene (Spiro-OMETAD), poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene)-poly(styrene sulfonate) (PEDOT:PSS) and cuprous oxide (Cu₂O). Moreover, we consider the applicability of various metal back contacts, such as Al, Ti, Cr, Ag, Ni, Cu, C, Au and Pt. In the presented numerical study, various PSC configurations are defined and evaluated using the SCAPS 1D simulator.

2. Method

The crystal structure of the tin-based perovskite $CH_3NH_3SnI_3$ employed in this study as the absorber layer is shown in Figure 1. The simulated photovoltaic cell configurations are as follows (Figure 2):

- Structure 1. TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃/Spiro-OMeTAD;
- Structure 2. *TiO*₂/*CH*₃*NH*₃*SnI*₃/*PEDOT*:*PSS*;
- Structure 3. $TiO_2/CH_3NH_3SnI_3/Cu_2O$.

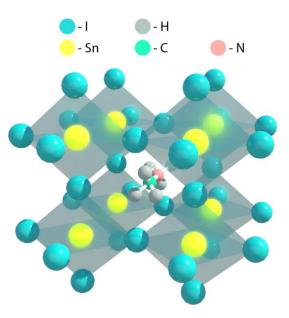


Figure 1. Unit cell of tin-based perovskite.

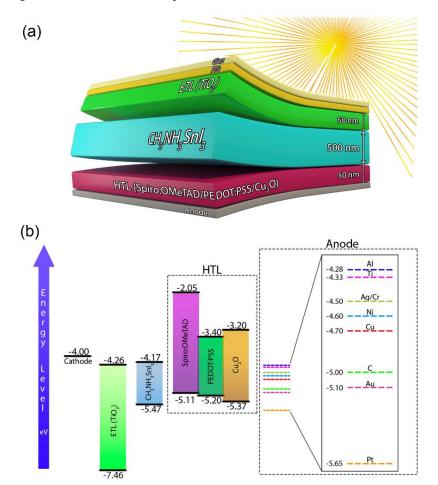


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the studied perovskite solar cell (a) and energy band alignment (b).

For all simulations of the photovoltaic cell under illumination the standard photovoltaic radiation spectrum AM 1.5G was used (1000 W/m², T = 300 K). The CH₃NH₃SnI₃ layer thickness remained fixed and equal to 500 nm.

Numerical simulation has proved to be an important tool for understanding the physical properties and design of a variety of solar cells based on crystalline, polycrystalline

and amorphous materials [76–78]. Among numerical analysis instruments, SCAPS-1D (ELIS, University of Ghent, Belgium) has recently become popular, as it has proven its effectiveness in simulating a variety of research systems [25,42,62–65,76,79]. The SCAPS-1D software uses a combination of mathematical equations, including the Poisson equation, continuity equations, total charge transfer equations, whose detailed description can be found elsewhere [80,81].

The parameters of the simulated photovoltaic cell are presented in Table 1 and are based on the published literature [53,82–85].

Parameters	FTO	TiO ₂	CH ₃ NH ₃ SnI ₃	Spiro-OMeTAD	PEDOT:PSS	Cu ₂ O
Thickness (nm)	500	50 *	300-1300 *	50 *	50 *	50 *
Band gap (eV)	3.50	3.20	1.30	3.06	1.80	2.17
Electron affinity (eV)	4.00	4.26	4.17	2.05	3.40	3.20
Relative dielectric permittivity	9.00	9.00	8.20	3.00	18.00	7.10
Conduction band effective density of states (cm ⁻³)	2.20×10^{18}	2.20×10^{18}	1×10^{18}	2.20×10^{18}	2.20×10^{18}	2.00×10^{17}
Valence band effective density of states (cm ⁻³)	$1.80 imes10^{19}$	$1.80 imes 10^{19}$	1×10^{18}	$1.80 imes10^{19}$	$1.80 imes10^{19}$	$1.10 imes 10^{19}$
Electron thermal velocity (cm/s)	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10^{7}	10^{7}	10 ⁷
Hole thermal velocity (cm/s)	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10 ⁷	10 ⁷
Electron mobility (cm ² /Vs)	20.00	20.00	1.60	$2.00 imes 10^{-4}$	$4.50 imes 10^{-2}$	200.00
Hole mobility (cm ² /Vs)	10.00	10.00	1.60	$2.00 imes 10^{-4}$	$4.50 imes 10^{-2}$	80.00
Shallow donor density N_D (cm ⁻³)	$2.00 imes 10^{19}$	10^{18}	0	0	0	0
Shallow acceptor density N_A (cm ⁻³)	0	0	$1.00 imes 10^{14}$	$1.00 imes 10^{18}$	$1.00 imes 10^{20}$	$1.00 imes 10^{18}$
References	[53,82]	[83]	[82,83]	[53]	[84,85]	[53,83]

Table 1. Parameters of solar cells.

* In this study.

3. Results

3.1. Influence of Bulk Defect Density on J_{SC} , V_{OC} , FF, PCE in the Absorber Layer

We start with the study of sensitivity of the performance of PSCs having different HTLs towards the presence of bulk defects within the perovskite layer. In the manufacture of perovskite films, various defects may arise, which have a detrimental impact upon the device performance [86]. Depending on their location, defects are characterized as being deep or shallow. Shallow defects do not usually have a significant impact, whereas deep defects have a more detrimental influence on the device performance, as they are located close to the center of the band gap and trap both types of carriers (holes and electrons), thereby allowing sufficient time for recombination [87,88]. Thus, approximately $10^{10}-10^{13}$ cm⁻³ can be identified as shallow defects, and deep defects starting from the defect density of 10^{14} cm⁻³ and up to about 10^{16} cm⁻³ [89,90]. Deep defects are located at the center of the band gap, i.e., at approximately 0.65 eV to 0.76 eV above the edge of the valence band, depending on the material [91]. To study the impact of bulk defects on the perovskite efficiency, the energy level position was chosen to be located at 0.6 eV above the valence band with the concentration range between 10^{10} cm⁻³ and 10^{17} cm⁻³.

Bulk defects are introduced to explain the influence of internal defects on the properties of semiconductors, including fixing the Fermi energy on the surface of semiconductor materials, stabilization of the Fermi energy, and formation of Schottky barriers [92]. Figure 3 shows the impact of the bulk defect density on the parameters of the CH₃NH₃SnI₃ based solar cells with different HTLs in the defect concentration range from 10^{10} cm⁻³ to 10^{17} cm⁻³. As seen in Figure 3a–c, the device parameters (J_{SC} , V_{OC} and FF) remain unchanged at defect concentrations below 10^{13} cm⁻³, followed by a sharp decrease at higher defect concentrations. The increase to 10^{17} cm⁻³ results in a rather similar reduction in V_{OC} from 1.0 V to 0.7 V (Figure 3b) and J_{SC} from 32 mA/cm² to below 25 mA/cm² for all of the three device structures (Figure 3a). The largest difference is observed for FF, with Structure 1 showing the lower initial value of 86%, compared to 88% for the other structures, and a stronger decrease to 37%, compared to 46% for Structure 3. As a result, the increase in bulk defect concentration from 10^{10} cm⁻³ to 10^{17} cm⁻³ leads to a reduction in *PCE* from around 29% to 6%, 7% and 8%, respectively, for Structures 1, 2 and 3 (Figure 3d). The bulk defects act as recombination centers for charge carriers, which is responsible for the loss in the open-circuit voltage. At the same time, the respective charge trapping on these centers may also lead to a reduction in effective carrier mobility, causing a drop ©n J_{SC} and FF.

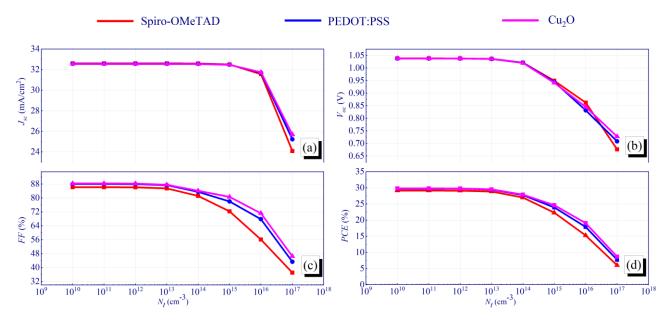


Figure 3. Influence of the bulk defect concentration (N_t) on the performance parameters of the CH₃NH₃SnI₃-based solar cell with various hole-transporting layers: (**a**) J_{SC} , (**b**) V_{OC} , (**c**) *FF*, (**d**) *PCE*.

3.2. Influence of the Density on J_{SC}, V_{OC}, FF, PCE of Interfacial Defects

Interfacial recombination is known to be one of the major factors affecting the performance of PSCs [93–95]. To this end, we performed a study on the influence of the density of interfacial defects at both interfaces of the perovskite layer, $TiO_2/CH_3NH_3SnI_3$ (IL1) and $CH_3NH_3SnI_3/HTL$ (IL2), on the efficiency of devices with different HTLs (Figure 4). The total density (N_i) of interfacial defects varied in the range from 10^{10} cm⁻² to 10^{17} cm⁻². Within this range, V_{OC} drops insignificantly for all the device structures (Figure 4b). Surprisingly, the device performance remains unchanged in a wide range of interface defect concentrations up to 10^{15} cm⁻². Further increase to 10^{17} cm⁻² results in a sharp decrease in the performance for all the device structures. It must be noted that the *FF* of Structure 3 remains relatively stable for the studied range of interface defect concentrations. For all the structures, there are no significant changes in *FF* up to N_i of 10^{16} cm⁻²; above this density there is a slight decrease in *FF* from 81% to 78%, from 83% to 82% and from 84% to 83%, for Structures 1, 2 and 3, respectively (see Figure 4c).

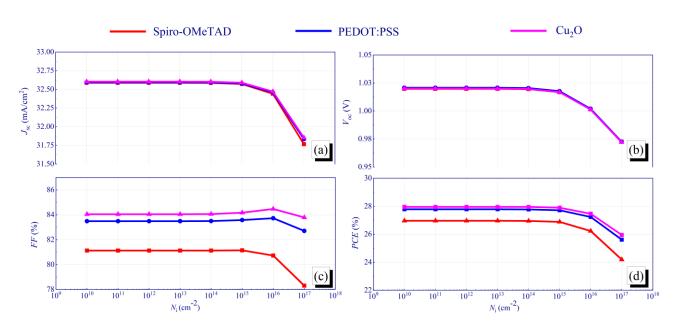


Figure 4. Influence of the concentration of interfacial defects (N_i) at the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ (IL1) and CH₃NH₃SnI₃/HTL (IL2) interfaces: (**a**) J_{SC} , (**b**) V_{OC} , (**c**) FF, (**d**) PCE.

Next, we simulated the impact of N_i in the range from 10^{10} to 10^{17} cm⁻² at the ETL/perovskite and perovskite/HTL interfaces. N_t was chosen to be 10^{14} cm⁻³ throughout the entire numerical experiment. Figure 5b,d shows a decrease in V_{OC} and PCE with increasing N_i at the ETL/perovskite interface for the devices with different HTLs. When the density of the defect states at the interface reaches 10^{17} cm⁻², we observe a faster decrease in the efficiency of the Spiro-OMeTAD based PSC (from 27% to 19%). For the PEDOT:PSS and Cu₂O layers, the decrease is less significant (from 28% to 22% and 28% to 24%, respectively). J_{SC} and FF, however, do not show a noticeable decrease for the selected range of defect concentrations (Figure 5a,c). It should also be noted that in the N_i range from 10^{11} cm⁻² to 10^{16} cm⁻², a rise in *FF* is observed for all the HTLs. For example, for the Cu₂O and PEDOT:PSS layers, the highest FF value of 86% is observed for N_i in the range of 10^{14} – 10^{15} cm⁻². It may be concluded that the allowable concentration of interfacial defects N_i for the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ (IL1) interface is 10¹⁴ cm⁻², since the efficiency of the photovoltaic cell deteriorates greatly beyond this level. At the defect density of 10^{14} cm⁻², the optimal Cu₂O HTL demonstrates the following photovoltaic characteristics: $I_{SC} = 32.5 \text{ mA/cm}^2$, $V_{OC} = 0.8 \text{ V}$, FF = 83%, PCE = 24%.

Separately, we studied the influence of the density of defect states at the HTL/perovskite interface (Figure 6). Surprisingly, the influence of the density of interfacial defects at the IL2 interface is more pronounced than at the IL1 interface. Upon a change in the HTL, the change in V_{OC} with an increase in the density of defects has a similar character, as in the case of the IL1 interface (Figure 6b). When N_i reaches 10^{17} cm⁻², V_{OC} drops from 1.0 V to 0.7 V for the Spiro-OMeTAD layer, from 1.0 V to 0.8 V for the PEDOT:PSS layer, and from 1.0 V up to 0.9 V for the Cu₂O layer. The density of the defect states at the HTL/perovskite interface had no significant impact on I_{SC} up to 10^{15} cm⁻² (Figure 6a). Above this concentration, J_{SC} decreases sharply for all the studied device structures. Figure 6c shows the dependence of FF with increasing N_i . Similar to Figure 5c, an increase in N_i to 10^{15} cm⁻² entails an increase in the FF value. For the Spiro-OMeTAD HTL the peak FF value is 84% at N_i of 10^{13} cm⁻², for PEDOT:PSS—86% at N_i of 10^{14} cm⁻², and for Cu₂O—86% at a N_i of 10^{15} cm⁻². PCE decreases with increasing N_i for all the structures with different HTLs, as depicted in Figure 6d. Thus, for the Spiro-OMeTAD layer, PCE decreases from 27% to 18%, for PEDOT:PSS-from 28% to 21%, and for Cu₂O-from 28% to 23% with an increase in the density of defects from 10^{10} cm⁻² to 10^{17} cm⁻².

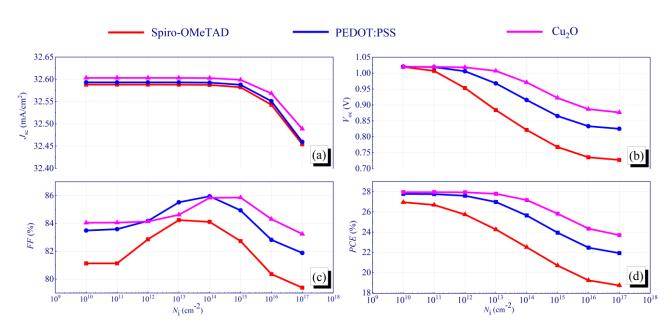


Figure 5. Influence of the concentration of interfacial defects (N_i) at the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ (IL1) interface: (**a**) J_{SC} , (**b**) V_{OC} , (**c**) *FF*, (**d**) *PCE*.

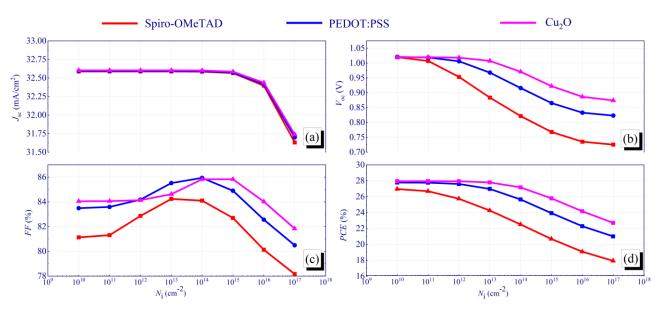


Figure 6. Influence of the concentration of interfacial defects (N_i) at the CH₃NH₃SnI₃/HTL (IL2) interface: (**a**) J_{SC} , (**b**) V_{OC} , (**c**) *FF*, (**d**) *PCE*.

The allowable limit of N_i achieved prior to a rapid performance decrease for Structure 1 is 10^{13} cm⁻², for Structure 2— 10^{14} cm⁻² and for Structure 3— 10^{15} cm⁻². The difference in the limits of resistance towards defects, depending on the HTL, is associated with various degrees of recombination of charge carriers at the interface. A high limit of resistance towards defects at the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ interface indicates good matching of the conduction band levels for the adjacent materials. It is thus concluded that an increase in the density of bulk defects within the active perovskite layer (CH₃NH₃SnI₃) affects the device performance more strongly than the increase in the number of interfacial defects, regardless of the choice of an HTL material. These results provide a quantitative understanding of the threshold defect density values for different perovskite cell structures. To increase the overall cell efficiency, the recombination loss at the interfaces must be reduced [96].

3.3. Influence of the Metal Contact on the Device Performance

Selection of an optimal top metal contact is an important route towards increasing the economic feasibility of a PSC. The main parameter to be varied in this respect is the metal contact work function, which characterizes the amount of energy required to extract an electron from the surface of a metal contact [97]. In this work, various metals with work functions ranging from 4.28 eV (Al) to 5.65 eV (Pt) have been studied (Table 2) [68,97–99]. The work function value is directly related to the height of the energy barrier at the metal/charge-transport layer interface affecting the ohmic nature of the contact and the resulting solar cell efficiency (Figure 7).

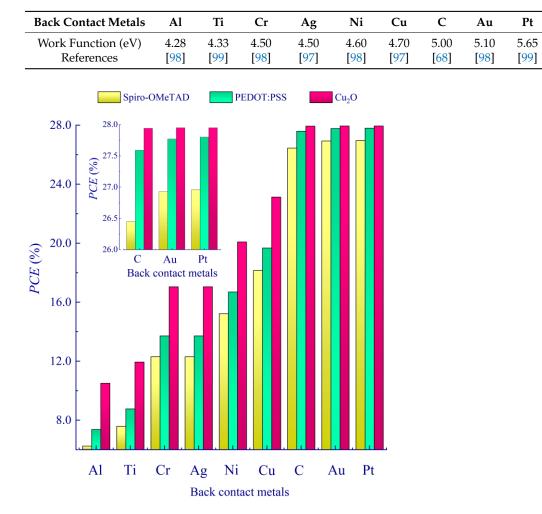


Table 2. Work function of a back contact metal.

Figure 7. Perovskite solar cells efficiency depending on the choice of a back metal contact.

Based on the simulation results, the highest performance with *PCE* of ~28% is demonstrated by metals with work functions ranging from 5.00 eV to 5.65 eV. For example, using a conventional Au contact (5.10 eV), the following efficiencies are achieved for various HTLs: 26.9% (Spiro-OMeTAD), 27.8% (PEDOT:PSS) and 27.9% (Cu₂O). Figure 8 shows the *J-V* characteristic curves for the devices featuring different HTLs. The Spiro-OMeTAD layer shows the least efficient performance, suggesting that its replacement with PEDOT:PSS or Cu₂O is justified.

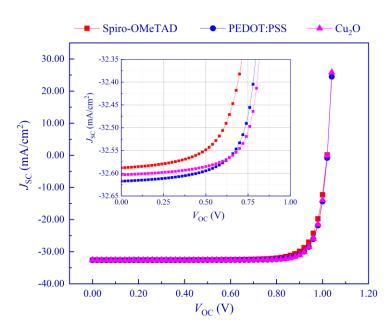


Figure 8. Current-voltage characteristics of perovskite solar cells with different hole-transport layers and a Pt back contact.

3.4. Influence of Temperature on the Device Performance

One of the main hindrances in the widespread commercialization of perovskite solar cells is their long-term stability. Most perovskites do not undergo any phase transitions, which may affect their performance, over a wide temperature range. This suggests that the main cause of thermal degradation in PSCs is not a phase transition, but the decomposition of the perovskite material. The perovskite components are known to be connected by relatively weak ionic bonds, hydrogen bonds and van der Waals forces [100]. Weak interconnections, under the influence of the atmosphere, heat and light radiation, inevitably lead to the material destruction [101]. Herein, we focus on the study of the device thermal stability in the absence of chemical degradation in the temperature range of 290–400 K. Figure 9 shows the impact of temperature on the performance of a PSC for various HTLs. A gradual decrease in all parameters with increasing temperature can be observed for all three device structures. On average, the temperature increase from 290 K to 400 K results in a perovskite PCE decrease of 5% in the absolute value. Cu₂O shows the highest performance in the whole range, demonstrating its high promise as an HTL. It can also be seen that when comparing organic HTLs, PEDOT:PSS shows higher efficiency than Spiro-OMeTAD at low temperatures (290–360 K). The general pattern of decrease in PCE with increasing temperature is consistent with earlier work [68,83,102]. Although the impact of defects is not considered directly in this study, we assume that the relatively weak perovskite crystal lattice may provoke the formation of defects; therefore, ionic defects in the lattice itself can be activated under the thermal impact. Accordingly, the accumulation of ionic defects may cause degradation of the crystalline structure of the perovskite film and the transport layers, which can significantly affect the solar cell stability [100].

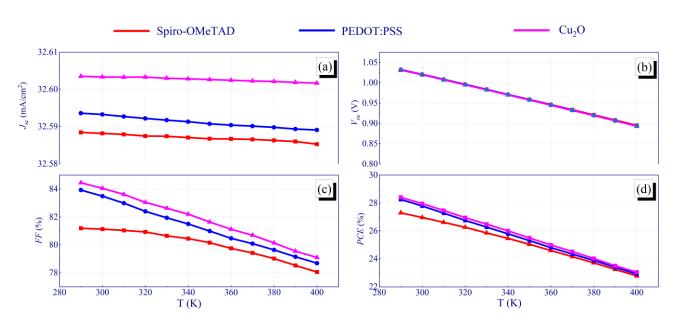


Figure 9. Influence of temperature on J_{SC} (**a**), V_{OC} (**b**), *FF* (**c**), *PCE* (**d**) for the perovskite solar cells with different hole-transport layers.

3.5. Comparison of J-V Characteristics for Different HTLs

To determine the optimal HTL among those studied, the *J*-V curves were simulated for various combinations of the $TiO_2/CH_3NH_3SnI_3/HTL/Au$ structure (Figure 10).

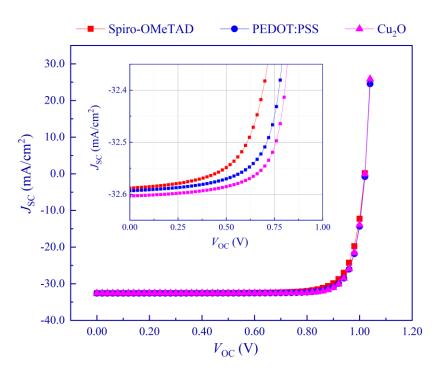


Figure 10. Current-voltage characteristics of perovskite solar cells with different hole-transport layers.

The Cu_2O based PSC shows the most optimal *J*-*V* characteristic curve. This is indicated by the lower series resistance and higher shunt resistance demonstrated by Structure 3. As a result, Cu_2O is shown to be a promising inorganic HTL for PSCs, whose relatively low cost and stability may also signal its high promise and economic feasibility in other applications.

3.6. Influence of the Thickness of the Light-Absorbing Layer on the Device Performance

Finally, an attempt was made to evaluate the impact of the absorbing layer thickness on the PSC performance. The perovskite thickness was varied in the range of 300–1300 nm. Figure 11 shows the PSC *J-V* characteristics for various thicknesses of the CH₃NH₃SnI₃ absorbing layer.

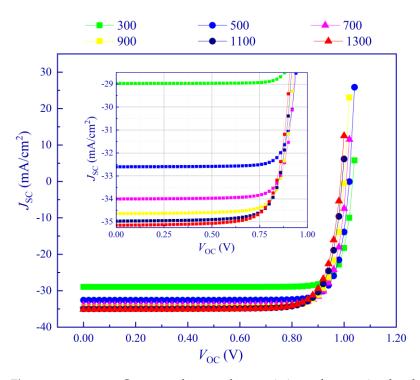


Figure 11. Current-voltage characteristic of a simulated photovoltaic cell $FTO/TiO_2/CH_3NH_3SnI_3/Cu_2O/Au$ with different thicknesses of the absorbing layer.

The simulation results are summarized in Figure 12, with the blue line indicating photovoltaic characteristics in the presence of interfacial defects $(10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2})$, and the red line—in their absence. According to Figure 12, interfacial defects do not result in any significant deterioration, but rather a small improvement. Figure 12a suggests that, as the thickness is increased in the range of 300–700 nm, a noticeable growth in J_{SC} is observed from 28.97 mA/cm² to 34.01 mA/cm² due to a higher optical absorption; upon the addition of interfacial defects this value rises by a further 0.10 mA/cm². Increasing the thickness from 700 nm to 1300 nm leads to a further small rise in J_{SC} by 1.14 mA/cm².

As shown in Figure 12b, V_{OC} decreases slightly as the thickness of the absorber layer increases throughout the studied range. It should be noted that the decrease in V_{OC} is directly related to the increase in J_{SC} , which directly affects carrier recombination. Figure 12c shows the variation in *FF* as a function of the absorber layer thickness. The monotonous decrease in *FF* for an increasingly thick absorber layer is explained by an increase in series resistance. Figure 12d shows the resulting *PCE* performance, affected by an increase in J_{SC} and reductions in V_{OC} and *FF*. In the range of 300–700 nm *PCE* shows a steady increase by more than 10%. However, at higher thicknesses up to 1300 nm, a moderate loss of *PCE* of about 2% is observed. Thus, 700 nm indicates the optimal device thickness under given conditions.

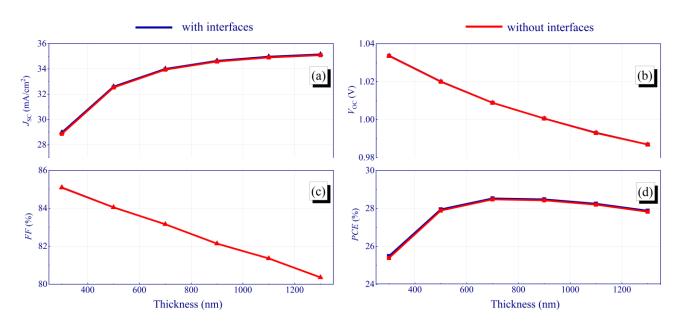


Figure 12. Influence of the perovskite absorbing layer thickness on J_{SC} (a), V_{OC} (b), FF (c), PCE (d).

4. Conclusions

The simulations focus on the influence of bulk defects within the absorbing layer, interfacial defects, temperature and thickness of the absorbing layer on the device performance. These factors were studied for three different HTLs, including Spiro-OMeTAD, PEDOT:PSS and Cu₂O, in order to determine the optimal transport layer, least sensitive towards performance deterioration. It has been found that the PSC works best at the room temperature of 300 K, in the absence of ionic contribution. For bulk defect densities larger than 10^{15} cm⁻³, a decrease in the performance was observed for all the device structures. The tolerance limit for the density of interfacial defects at the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃ (IL1) and $CH_3NH_3SnI_3/HTL$ (IL2) interfaces was 10^{14} cm⁻³ and 10^{10} cm⁻³. Among the considered structures, the TiO₂/CH₃NH₃SnI₃/Cu₂O structure shows the best defect resistance and the highest performance. The most suitable metallic contact was determined to be Pt, which provides high efficiency of 26.96%, 27.80% and 27.95% for structures with HTLs of Spiro-OMeTAD, PEDOT:PSS and Cu₂O, respectively. As a result of the study, the chosen optimal device structure was identified: $TiO_2/CH_3NH_3SnI_3/Cu_2O$ with $J_{SC} = 32.60$ mA/cm², V_{OC} = 1.02 V, FF = 84.05% and PCE = 27.95%, which provide the high PCE and higher resistance towards both bulk and interfacial defects. This efficiency value is below the Shockley–Quisser limit of around 33% for the bandgap of the given perovskite absorber. It is, however, significantly higher than the current record experimental value of 14.6% for a tin perovskite solar cell [103]. Whilst the Shockley–Quisser limit assumes a number of simplifications, such as the absence of optical losses, non-radiative recombination and perfect carrier mobility, these factors can, to some extent, be accounted for in in-silico investigations. At the same time, the latter produce an "optimistic" performance limit for the given material properties with further improvements required regarding a realistic description of bulk, interface and surface recombination, the role of defects on carrier mobility and lifetime, as well as the impact of mobile ions on the device performance and stability. We therefore hope that the results of this work will help to reveal further approaches to achieve higher efficiency in tin-based perovskite solar cells.

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