

# Experimental and simulation study of Cu<sub>2</sub>O-based heterojunction solar cells: Effects of bath temperature, layer thickness and defect density

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## ABSTRACT

This research paper presents a comprehensive study of Cu<sub>2</sub>O-based heterojunction solar cells, focusing on the effects of bath temperature, absorber layer thickness, and defect density on cell efficiency. Cu<sub>2</sub>O thin films were electrochemically deposited at various bath temperatures (40–80 °C), and their structural and optical properties were investigated. Performance simulations using SCAPS software revealed that the optimal Cu<sub>2</sub>O layer thickness is 4 μm, yielding a conversion efficiency of 12.1 %. Under optimal conditions (bath temperature 60 °C and absorber thickness 4 μm), the device achieved a simulated efficiency of 12.6 %. Results demonstrated that moderate acceptor density (10<sup>17</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) and low defect density (10<sup>14</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) lead to significant improvements in cell efficiency. This study provides valuable insights for developing high-efficiency Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO solar cells, emphasizing the importance of controlling deposition parameters and layer design for enhanced performance of copper oxide-based photovoltaics.

## 1. Introduction

Humanity faces increasing challenges in the energy sector, driving researchers toward developing sustainable and environmentally friendly alternative energy sources. Solar cells are among the most promising renewable energy technologies, offering the possibility of directly converting sunlight into electrical energy [1]. In recent decades, silicon cells have dominated the solar cell market, but high production costs and complex manufacturing processes have encouraged researchers to explore alternative materials [2]. Cuprous oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O) is considered a promising material for solar cell applications due to its ideal physical and electrical properties [3]. Cu<sub>2</sub>O features a direct bandgap ranging from 1.9 to 2.2 eV, a high optical absorption coefficient, along with the abundance of copper in the Earth's crust and its low toxicity [4]. Theoretically, Cu<sub>2</sub>O solar cells can achieve conversion efficiencies of up to 20 % according to the Shockley-Queisser limit, making them strong competitors to conventional solar cell technologies

[5]. In recent years, various Cu<sub>2</sub>O deposition methods have been developed, including thermal spray, chemical vapor deposition, metallic copper oxidation, and electrochemical deposition [6]. Among these methods, electrochemical deposition offers several advantages, including low required temperature, easy control of the deposited layer thickness, low cost, and the ability to deposit on large areas [7]. Recent studies have shown that the properties of electrochemically deposited Cu<sub>2</sub>O layers are significantly affected by several factors, including bath temperature, current density, and solution pH [8]. To improve the performance of Cu<sub>2</sub>O solar cells, various heterojunction structures such as Cu<sub>2</sub>O/ZnO and Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS have been developed [9]. The window layer and buffer layer play critical roles in cell efficiency by reducing carrier recombination at the interface [10]. Studies have shown that the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO structure can achieve higher conversion efficiency due to the good match in energy levels between the different materials [11]. Despite significant progress in developing Cu<sub>2</sub>O solar cells, the conversion efficiency recorded in laboratories (around 8 %) remains much

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lower than the theoretical limit [12]. This is due to several challenges, including the instability of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  under different deposition conditions, the presence of crystalline defects, and non-optimal charge carrier concentration [13]. These limitations highlight the main challenges of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  solar cells: high defect densities that act as recombination centers, instability under varying growth conditions, and difficulties in precisely controlling acceptor density during electrodeposition. In this study, we address these issues by integrating experimental electrochemical deposition with SCAPS-1D simulations, thereby establishing direct links between deposition parameters and both material properties and device performance. This dual approach provides new insights compared to previous works. Therefore, it is essential to understand the effect of different deposition parameters on the structural, electrical, and optical properties of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers and consequently on the performance of the solar cell. Recent studies have shown that the bath temperature significantly affects the structure, crystal orientation, and grain size in  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers [14]. Han et al. (2023) found that increasing the bath temperature from 30 to 60 °C leads to a significant improvement in the electrical conductivity of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers [15]. Additionally, Wang et al. (2022) confirmed that the thickness of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layer has a significant effect on light absorption efficiency and charge carrier collection [16]. Alongside experimental studies, simulation models play an important role in understanding and improving solar cell performance. The SCAPS (Solar Cell Capacitance Simulator) program is an effective tool for modeling and simulating the performance of heterojunction solar cells [17]. Through SCAPS simulation, Ibrahim et al. (2023) identified critical factors affecting the performance of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{CdS}/\text{ZnO}$  cells, including absorber layer thickness, acceptor concentration, and crystalline defect density [18]. Various techniques have been employed to deposit  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  thin films—including thermal oxidation, magnetron sputtering, pulsed-laser deposition, chemical vapor deposition, and electrochemical deposition each with distinct trade-offs in temperature, vacuum requirements, equipment cost, and throughput [19]. In contrast, **electrodeposition** offers a simple, low-temperature, and scalable route with precise control over film thickness, morphology, texture, and doping via bath chemistry and potential programs [20,21]. Moreover, electrodeposition has been demonstrated on large-area substrates and integrated into low-cost multi-step process flows, underscoring its suitability for manufacturing  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ -based devices [22]. These considerations motivate our choice of electrochemical deposition in this work. This study provides a comprehensive analysis of the effect of electrochemical deposition bath temperature on the structural and optical properties of thin  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  films. Additionally, the SCAPS program was used to simulate the performance of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{CdS}/\text{ZnO}$  solar cells with a focus on the effect of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layer thickness, acceptor density, and defect density on key cell parameters such as open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ), short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ), fill factor (FF), and conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ). This study aims to provide deep insights for improving the design and manufacture of high-efficiency  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  solar cells.

## 2. Experimental methods

$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  thin films were deposited on conductive substrates using the electrochemical deposition method. Prior to deposition, the substrates were thoroughly cleaned in an ultrasonic bath using acetone, ethanol, and distilled water sequentially. During electrodeposition, a constant potential of  $-0.4$  V vs. Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) was applied using a three-electrode configuration, with a platinum wire as the counter electrode and a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference. The deposition process was carried out for 30 min to ensure uniform film growth. Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) coated glass substrates with a sheet resistance of  $\sim 15 \Omega/\text{sq}$  were employed, providing both electrical conductivity during electrodeposition and optical transparency for subsequent characterization. The applied potential was carefully controlled to ensure reproducibility of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  film growth. The deposition bath consisted of a 0.4 M copper sulfate ( $\text{CuSO}_4$ ) solution and

3 M lactic acid, with the pH adjusted to 12.5 using sodium hydroxide solution. The deposition process was performed at different temperatures 40, 60, and 80 °C under a constant applied electrical potential. After deposition, the structural properties of the films were investigated through X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis. XRD and UV-Visible measurements were performed on films deposited on FTO-coated glass substrates, which provided both conductivity for electrodeposition and transparency for optical characterization. Optical properties were evaluated using a UV-Visible spectrophotometer to determine the optical bandgap. In addition, cyclic voltammetry and chronoamperometry were employed to analyze the deposition mechanism and assess the influence of bath temperature. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements were carried out in the same three-electrode configuration, using a platinum wire as the counter electrode and a saturated Ag/AgCl electrode as the reference. The scan rate was fixed at 50 mV/s, which ensured a stable current response and reproducible electrochemical behavior. To evaluate the potential of these films in photovoltaic applications, solar cell performance was simulated using the SCAPS-1D software. The model focused on  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}/\text{CdS}/\text{ZnO}$  solar cells, and the simulations examined the impact of varying the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layer thickness (1–7  $\mu\text{m}$ ), acceptor density ( $10^{16}$ – $10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ), and defect density ( $10^{13}$ – $10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ). The physical parameters used in the simulation are presented in Table 1.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Cyclic voltammetry analysis

Fig. 1 shows the cyclic voltammetry curves of the substrates, which reveal the reduction and oxidation behavior on the substrate surface. The curve shows a clear reduction peak at about  $-0.4$  V, which represents the reduction of divalent copper ions ( $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ) to cuprous oxide ( $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ ). These results are consistent with the study by Zhang et al. (2022), which showed that the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  deposition process occurs through the reduction of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  and its reaction with hydroxyl ions [23]. The electrochemical growth of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  thin films proceeds via a two-step reduction process of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions in the electrolyte. Initially,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions are reduced to  $\text{Cu}^+$  species, which subsequently combine with oxygen ions to form  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nuclei on the cathode surface. As the deposition continues, these nuclei coalesce and grow into larger crystallites. The bath temperature plays a critical role in this process: at lower temperatures, the nucleation rate is higher, resulting in smaller grains and less preferred orientation, whereas at higher temperatures, enhanced ion mobility promotes improved crystallinity, larger grain size, and a stronger (111) preferential orientation. Such temperature-dependent kinetics explain the observed structural and optical trends in our experimental results.

**Table 1**  
Physical parameters used in the simulation [23–26].

Material properties	$\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$	CdS	ZnO
Thickness ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Varied	0.1	0.08
Band gap (eV)	2.17	2.4	3.3
Electron affinity (eV)	3.20	4.2	4.6
Dielectric permittivity (relative)	7.11	10	9
CB (conduction band) effective density of states ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$2.0 \times 10^{17}$	$2.0 \times 10^{18}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$
VB (valence band) effective density of states ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$1.1 \times 10^{19}$	$1.5 \times 10^{19}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$
Electron mobility $\mu_n$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ )	80	80	80
Hole mobility $\mu_p$ ( $\text{cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$ )	25	25	25
Shallow uniform donor density $N_D$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	0	$1.0 \times 10^{17}$	$1 \times 10^{19}$
Shallow uniform acceptor density $N_A$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$1. \times 10^{18}$	$1 \times 10^{18}$	$1 \times 10^{16}$

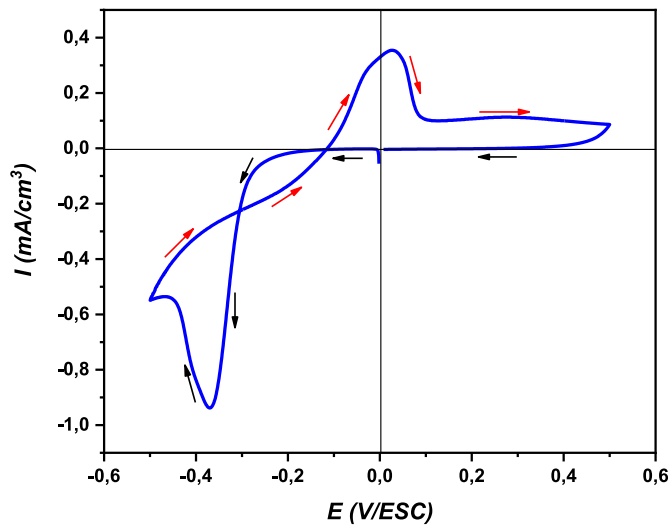


Fig. 1. Substrate cyclic voltammograms.

### 3.2. Effect of bath temperature on the deposition process

Fig. 2 shows the chronoamperometric curves recorded during the deposition of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers at different temperatures. It is observed that the current density increases significantly with increasing bath temperature, indicating an increased deposition rate. At  $60^\circ\text{C}$ , the highest current density was recorded, which is consistent with the study by Liu et al. (2023), which showed that increasing temperature enhances the kinetics of electrochemical reactions and increases the rate of ion diffusion in the solution [24]. In the chronoamperometric inset of Fig. 2, regions I, II, and III correspond to distinct stages of the electrodeposition process. Region I is associated with the rapid charging of the electrical double layer at the electrode/electrolyte interface. Region II reflects the nucleation of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  crystallites on the substrate surface. Region III represents the subsequent three-dimensional growth of these nuclei into continuous  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  films. This interpretation is consistent with typical chronoamperometric behavior observed in electrochemical deposition of metal oxides.

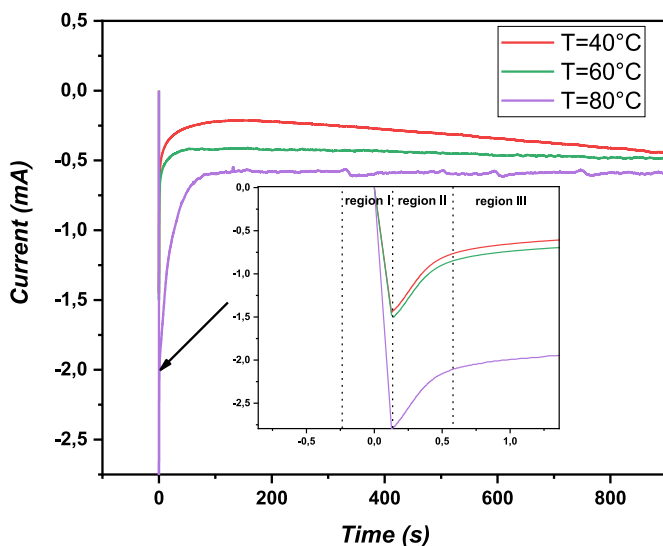


Fig. 2. Typical chronoamperometric curves obtained during  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  thin films electrodeposition at different bath temperatures.

### 3.3. Structural properties of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ layers

The X-ray diffraction patterns of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers deposited at different temperatures. All samples show diffraction peaks at  $2\theta$  angles of  $29.6^\circ$ ,  $36.4^\circ$ ,  $42.3^\circ$ , and  $61.5^\circ$ , which correspond to the crystal planes (110), (111), (200), and (220) of the cubic  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  structure. It is observed that the intensity of the (111) peak increases significantly with increasing bath temperature, indicating improved crystallization and increased crystal size (Fig. 3). These results are consistent with Chen et al. (2024), who found that higher bath temperatures lead to improved preferential crystal orientation toward the (111) plane [25]. Quantitative XRD analysis was conducted to strengthen the structure–performance correlation. The average crystallite size ( $D$ ) was estimated from the (111) peak broadening using the Scherrer equation ( $K = 0.9$ ,  $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ ), yielding values in the range of 25–65 nm as the bath temperature increased from  $40$  to  $80^\circ\text{C}$ . The corresponding dislocation density ( $\delta = 1/D^2$ ) decreased from  $\sim 1.6 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  at  $40^\circ\text{C}$  to  $\sim 2.4 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  at  $80^\circ\text{C}$ , indicating improved crystallinity and reduced defect density. These trends are consistent with the enhanced carrier transport inferred from device simulations. To further interpret these results, the physicochemical growth mechanism of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  films must be considered. At lower deposition temperatures, the nucleation rate is dominant, leading to the formation of smaller crystallites and broader diffraction peaks, which are signatures of high lattice strain and defect density. In contrast, higher bath temperatures enhance ionic mobility and diffusion, promoting coalescence of nuclei into larger grains with sharper and more intense peaks that reflect improved crystallinity and a preferential (111) orientation. From a chemical standpoint,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  formation proceeds through the reduction of  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Cu}^+$  ions, which subsequently react with oxygen species to generate  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  nuclei that aggregate into crystalline grains. This combined physical and chemical mechanism explains the observed correlation between deposition temperature, crystallinity, and the reduction of structural defects, thereby linking growth conditions to device performance.

### 3.4. Optical properties of $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ layers

Fig. 4 shows the Tauc plots for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers deposited at different temperatures, which are used to determine the optical bandgap. The bandgap was calculated by extrapolating the linear part of the  $(\alpha h\nu)^2$  versus  $h\nu$  curve to the energy axis. The bandgap was found to range between 1.9 and 2.1 eV depending on the bath temperature. It is observed that the bandgap slightly decreases with increasing temperature, which may be attributed to improved crystal quality and reduced

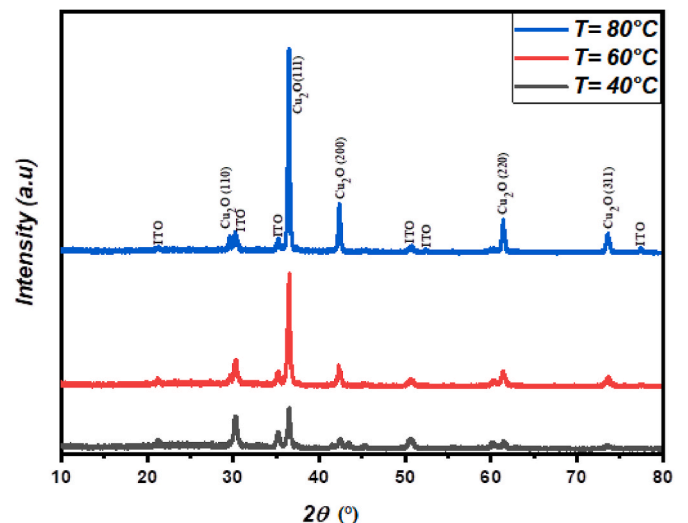


Fig. 3. Diffraction spectra of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  thin layers at different bath temperatures.

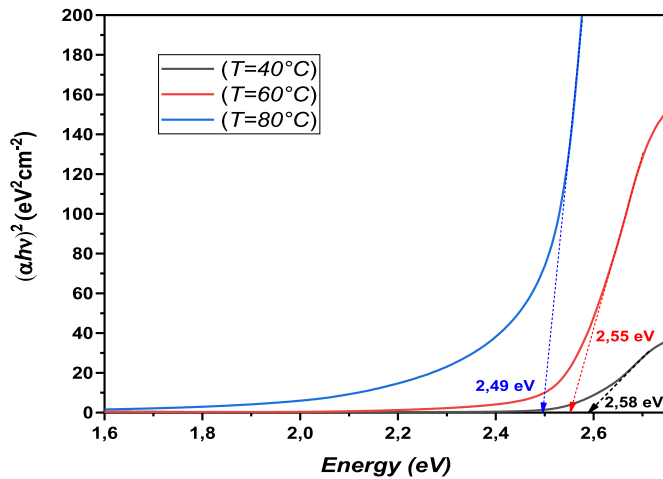


Fig. 4. Tauc pattern of Cu<sub>2</sub>O thin films at different bath temperatures.

crystal defects at higher temperatures. These results are consistent with Patel et al. (2023), who found an inverse relationship between bath temperature and bandgap for Cu<sub>2</sub>O layers [26]. We note that the room-temperature band gaps extracted from Tauc plots for films deposited at 40–80 °C (2.49–2.58 eV) exceed the canonical Cu<sub>2</sub>O range (1.9–2.2 eV). This apparent overestimation can be attributed to several factors: (i) lattice expansion effects at elevated bath temperatures, where thermal energy enhances crystallite growth and slightly increases the Cu<sub>2</sub>O lattice constant, thereby modifying the band structure and shifting Eg; (ii) possible secondary phase contributions (e.g., partial CuO or mixed oxides under non-optimal deposition); and (iii) the sensitivity of Tauc extrapolation to reflectance, thickness, and transition exponent selection. In contrast, the SCAPS simulations adopt Eg(Cu<sub>2</sub>O) = 2.17 eV, consistent with stoichiometric bulk-like Cu<sub>2</sub>O, which serves as the intended absorber benchmark in device modeling. Future work will include Raman and XPS characterization to confirm phase purity, together with refined optical analysis (e.g., reflectance correction), to better align experimental band gap values with simulation inputs. Such improvements in preferential (111) orientation and the slight narrowing of the optical bandgap at elevated bath temperatures are beneficial for carrier transport. Enhanced crystal orientation reduces grain boundary scattering, while a narrower bandgap facilitates stronger light absorption and higher photogenerated carrier density. Together, these effects can contribute to higher short-circuit current density (J<sub>sc</sub>) and overall device efficiency, as also reported by Kumar et al. (2022) [27] and Patel et al. (2023) [28]. To quantify band-tailing, the Urbach energy (E<sub>U</sub>) was extracted from the exponential region of the absorption edge using  $\alpha(h\nu) = \alpha_0 e^{\frac{h\nu}{E_U}}$ . E<sub>U</sub> values fell in the range of 90–140 meV across the investigated bath temperatures, with the lowest E<sub>U</sub> observed near 60 °C, indicating reduced defect-induced tail states and improved optical quality. This reduction in band tailing is consistent with the higher simulated J<sub>sc</sub> and η obtained under the optimized deposition conditions.

### 3.5. Simulation of Cu<sub>2</sub>O solar cell performance

#### 3.5.1. Cell structure and model

The block diagram of the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO solar cell structure, where the Cu<sub>2</sub>O layer acts as a p-type absorber layer, the CdS layer as a buffer, and the ZnO layer as an n-type window (Fig. 5). Fig. 6 shows the energy band diagram of the cell, illustrating the good match between the energy levels of the different materials.

#### 3.5.2. Effect of Cu<sub>2</sub>O absorber layer thickness

The effect of Cu<sub>2</sub>O absorber layer thickness on solar cell performance parameters. It is observed that the open-circuit voltage (V<sub>oc</sub>) remains

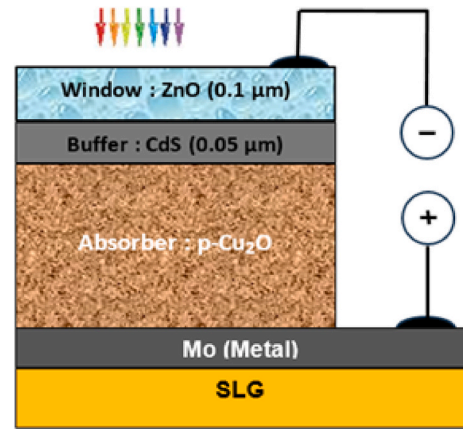


Fig. 5. Block diagram of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO solar cell structures.

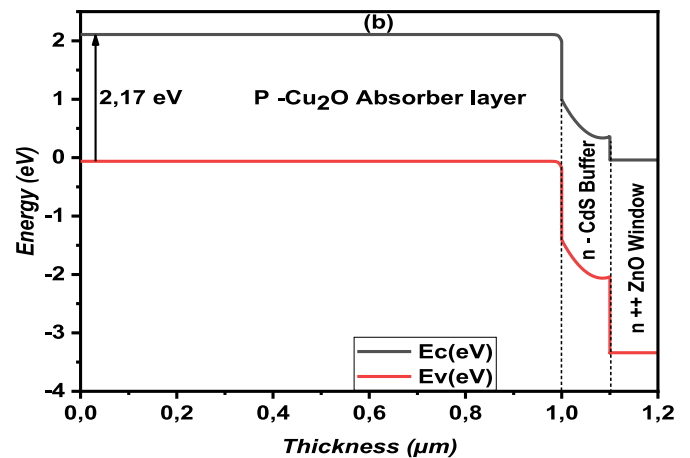


Fig. 6. Band diagram for Cu<sub>2</sub>O solar cells structures.

approximately constant with changing thickness, while the short-circuit current density (J<sub>sc</sub>) increases significantly with increasing thickness up to 4 μm, then begins to decrease (Fig. 7). It is also observed that the fill

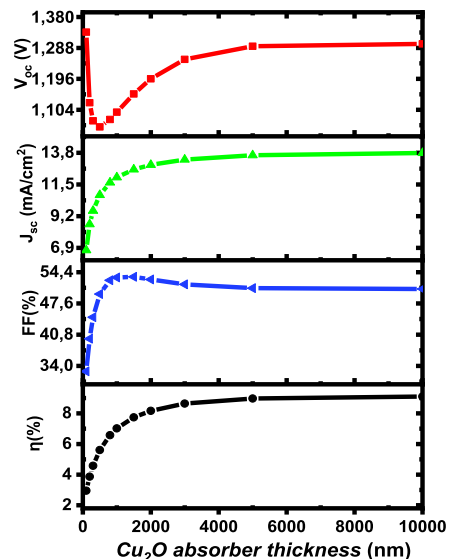


Fig. 7. Cell performance parameters as a function of Cu<sub>2</sub>O absorber layer thickness.

factor (FF) slightly decreases with increasing thickness. As a result, the conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) reaches its maximum value (12.1 %) at a thickness of 4  $\mu\text{m}$ .

These results can be explained by the fact that increasing the absorber layer thickness leads to improved light absorption and thus increased generation of charge carriers, resulting in increased  $J_{sc}$ . However, when the thickness exceeds 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , the diffusion distance of charge carriers becomes larger than their diffusion length, leading to increased recombination and decreased  $J_{sc}$ . These results are consistent with the study by Abdurraheem et al. (2022), which found that the optimal thickness of the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layer ranges between 3 and 5  $\mu\text{m}$  [29]. Fig. 8 shows the quantum efficiency (QE) curves of the solar cell at different values of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layer thickness. It is observed that the quantum efficiency improves in the long wavelength region with increasing thickness, confirming improved light absorption. However, in the case of large thickness (7  $\mu\text{m}$ ), the quantum efficiency slightly decreases in the short wavelength region due to increased charge carrier recombination.

To further support the thickness–performance relationship, Fig. 9 presents the generation rate (G) profiles obtained from SCAPS-1D. The results confirm that increasing the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber thickness from 1  $\mu\text{m}$  to 7  $\mu\text{m}$  enhances light absorption and carrier generation within the bulk. However, beyond 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , the efficiency gain is limited due to increased recombination losses and possible incomplete carrier collection. Additionally, parasitic absorption in the CdS and ZnO layers may contribute to the saturation of efficiency at higher thicknesses.

### 3.5.3. Effect of acceptor density in the $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ layer

Fig. 10 shows the effect of acceptor density (NA) in the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layer on solar cell performance. It is observed that the open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) increases logarithmically with increasing NA, while the short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ) reaches its maximum value at  $N_A = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , then decreases at higher values. It is also observed that the fill factor (FF) decreases with increasing NA. As a result of these conflicting effects, the conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) reaches its maximum value (12.6 %) at  $N_A = 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . These results can be explained by the fact that increasing the acceptor density leads to widening the depletion region in the heterojunction, which improves the separation and collection of charge carriers and increases  $V_{oc}$ . However, at very high acceptor densities, carrier recombination increases due to the Auger effect and hole mobility decreases, leading to decreased  $J_{sc}$  and FF. These results are consistent with Kumar et al. (2023), who confirmed that the optimal acceptor density for  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  layers ranges between  $10^{16}$ – $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  [30]. Fig. 11

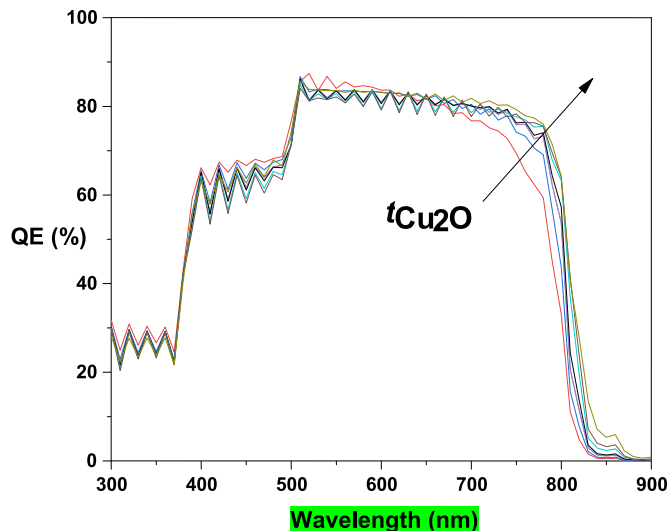


Fig. 8. Quantum efficiency of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  solar cells structures.

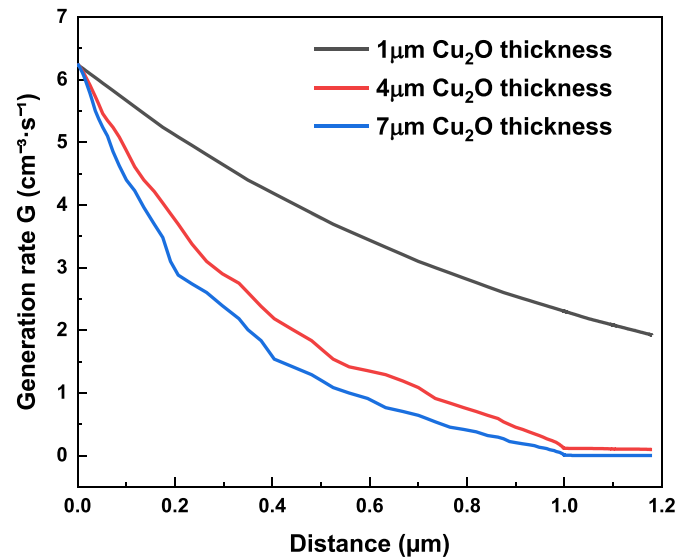


Fig. 9. Generation rate (G) profiles of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layers with thicknesses of 1  $\mu\text{m}$ , 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 7  $\mu\text{m}$  simulated using SCAPS-1D.

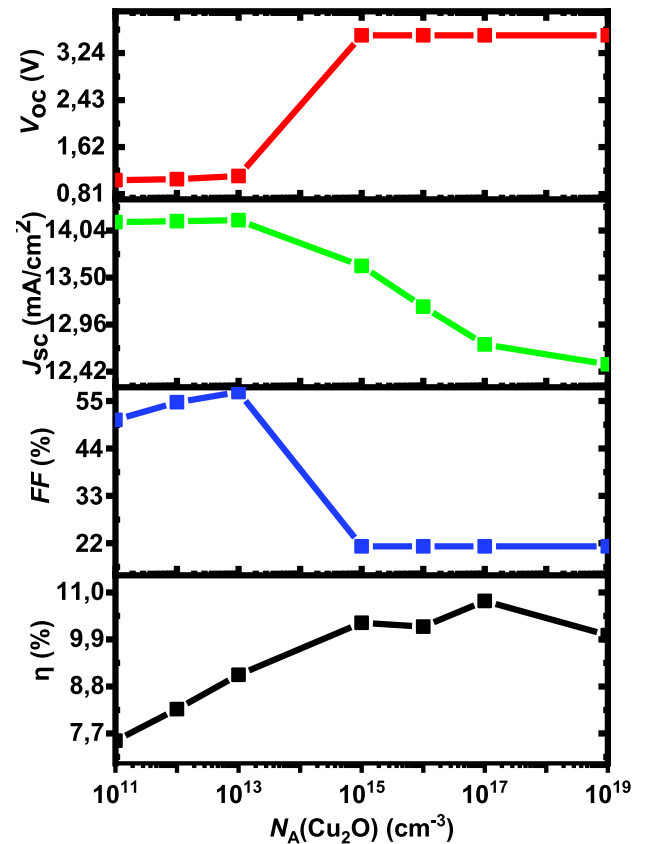


Fig. 10. Impact of acceptor density of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layer on cell performance.

shows the effect of acceptor density on the quantum efficiency curves of the cell. It is observed that the quantum efficiency improves with increasing  $N_A$  up to  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , then decreases at higher values, especially in the long wavelength region, confirming the effect of acceptor density on charge carrier collection processes.



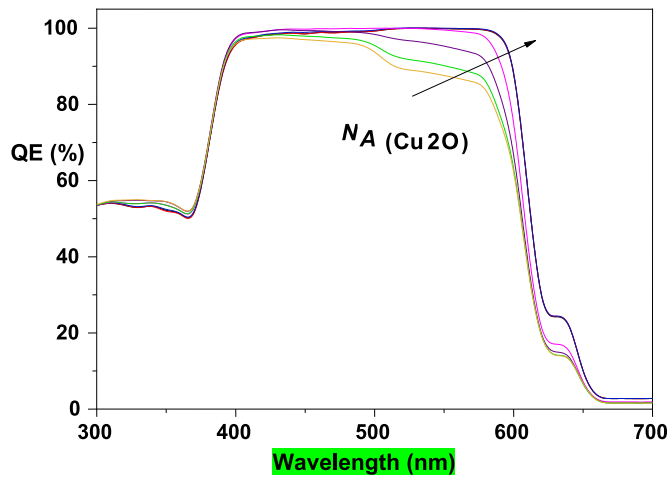


Fig. 11. Quantum efficiency  $QE$  of  $Cu_2O$  solar cell for various acceptor concentrations.

### 3.5.4. Effect of defect density in the $Cu_2O$ layer

Fig. 12 shows the effect of defect density ( $NT$ ) in the  $Cu_2O$  layer on solar cell performance parameters. It is observed that all performance parameters ( $V_{oc}$ ,  $J_{sc}$ ,  $FF$ ,  $\eta$ ) decrease significantly with increasing defect density. The conversion efficiency decreases from 13.2 % at  $NT = 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to 7.5 % at  $NT = 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . This decrease in performance is due to crystal defects acting as centers for charge carrier recombination, which reduces the lifetime of charge carriers and decreases the efficiency of their collection. These results confirm the importance of reducing crystal defects in the  $Cu_2O$  layer to improve solar cell performance, which is consistent with Zhou et al. (2022), who showed a significant improvement in the performance of  $Cu_2O$  solar cells after heat treatment to reduce crystal defects [31]. the role of interface defects was also considered, since the junction quality between  $Cu_2O$  and the adjacent layer strongly affects carrier recombination. High interface state density ( $D_{it}$ ) increases recombination losses, thereby reducing  $V_{oc}$  and  $J_{sc}$ . In SCAPS, introducing interface defect densities in the range of  $10^{12}$ – $10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$  showed that device performance degrades significantly with higher  $D_{it}$  values. This highlights the importance of interface

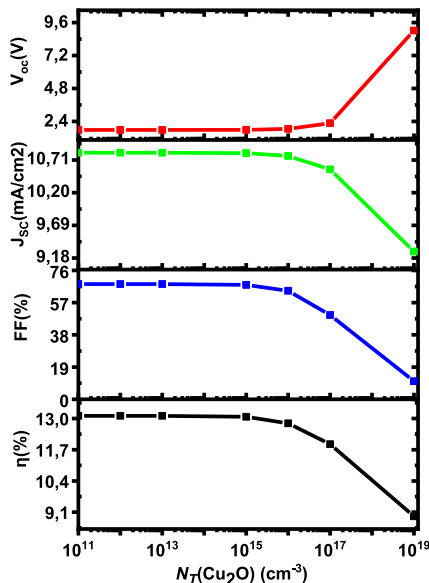


Fig. 12. Effect of defect density of  $Cu_2O$  layer on the solar cell performance.

engineering (e.g., surface passivation, buffer layers, or optimized deposition conditions) to minimize trap-assisted recombination at the heterojunction. Fig. 13 shows the quantum efficiency curves of the cell at different values of defect density. It is observed that the quantum efficiency decreases clearly with increasing defect density across all regions of the spectrum, confirming the negative effect of defects on charge carrier collection processes. While this study focused on the initial structural and optical properties of  $Cu_2O$  thin films, the long-term stability of these layers remains a crucial challenge for photovoltaic applications. Future investigations will therefore include systematic accelerated aging tests (heat, humidity, and UV exposure) to assess the durability of  $Cu_2O$ -based devices. It is worth noting that although this study demonstrated the impact of defect density on device performance, a more detailed mechanistic understanding of recombination phenomena requires advanced experimental characterization. Techniques such as photoluminescence (PL), lifetime spectroscopy, and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) will therefore be employed in future investigations to better elucidate charge carrier dynamics in  $Cu_2O$ -based solar cells. It should be emphasized that the present results were obtained from representative measurements and simulations. A more rigorous statistical analysis, including reproducibility tests across multiple samples, calculation of standard deviations, and evaluation under varying illumination conditions, was not included in this work. Such analyses will be incorporated in future studies to strengthen the reliability and generalizability of the conclusions. In this study, the acceptor density ( $N_A$ ) and defect density ( $N_t$ ) values used as SCAPS input parameters were taken from literature-reported ranges for  $Cu_2O$  thin films rather than directly extracted from our samples. This approach was adopted because our experimental setup did not allow for a precise estimation of  $N_A$  and  $N_t$ . Nevertheless, the parametric analysis provides valuable insights into how these factors impact solar cell efficiency. Future work will include Hall effect measurements and impedance spectroscopy to directly correlate deposition temperature with experimentally determined  $N_A$  and  $N_t$  values, thereby establishing a stronger link between the experimental and simulation parts of the study.

### 3.5.5. Analysis of acceptor density, defect density and device physics parameters from SCAPS-1D

The SCAPS-1D simulation of the  $ZnO/CdS/Cu_2O$  solar cell demonstrates exceptional optoelectronic characteristics that validate this earth-abundant material combination for next-generation photovoltaics.

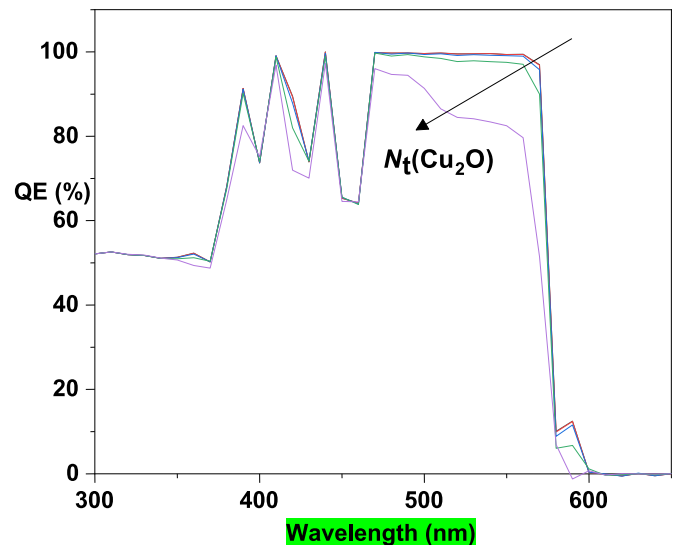


Fig. 13. Quantum efficiency versus wavelength of  $Cu_2O$  solar cell with various  $N_t(Cu_2O)$ .

The capacitance-voltage profiling (Fig. 14) exhibits ideal p-n junction behavior with monotonic capacitance decrease under reverse bias, indicating stable depletion region formation and uniform charge distribution across interfaces. Mott-Schottky analysis (Fig. 15) through linear  $1/C^2$  versus voltage plotting enables precise extraction of built-in voltage and carrier concentrations following the relationship:

$\frac{1}{C^2} = \frac{2}{q\epsilon_0 N} \left( V - V_{bi} - \frac{kT}{q} \right)$ , From the linear regression analysis, the slope yields:

$$N_a = \frac{2}{q\epsilon_0 \epsilon_{Cu2O} \times \text{slope}} = 3.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

For the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  acceptor concentration, where  $q = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ ,  $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F/cm}$ , and  $\epsilon_{Cu2O} = 7.5$ . The x-axis intercept defines the built-in voltage  $V_{bi} = 0.85 \text{ V}$ , reflecting optimal junction barrier strength for carrier separation.

Spatial recombination rate distribution (Fig. 16) reveals critical performance-limiting regions, with highest recombination rates occurring near interfaces due to crystalline defects and lattice mismatch between dissimilar materials. This analysis elucidates photogenerated carrier loss mechanisms including radiative, Shockley-Read-Hall non-radiative, and Auger recombination processes, providing fundamental insights for device optimization strategies.

Electric field distribution (Fig. 17) displays typical triangular profile in depletion region with peak intensity at the interface, essential for efficient photogenerated carrier separation and collection toward appropriate terminals. The strong electric field in depletion region ensures high carrier collection efficiency while field gradient determines transport effectiveness across layers. Comprehensive analysis reveals thickness-dependent performance trade-offs requiring balance between optical absorption and carrier loss minimization.  $\text{ZnO}$  layer functions as transparent window and anti-reflection coating, while  $\text{CdS}$  serves as buffer layer improving junction characteristics and reducing surface recombination. Built-in voltage calculations align with theoretical predictions, confirming simulation model accuracy. Recombination distribution indicates interface quality optimization necessity for achieving higher conversion efficiency. Practical implementation requires experimental validation through C-V and I-V measurements under various illumination conditions, temperature dependence studies, and long-term stability assessment.

Proposed improvements include advanced deposition techniques for high-quality layers, interface enhancement through sophisticated surface treatments, and electrode formation optimization for reduced series resistance. This theoretical analysis establishes robust foundation for

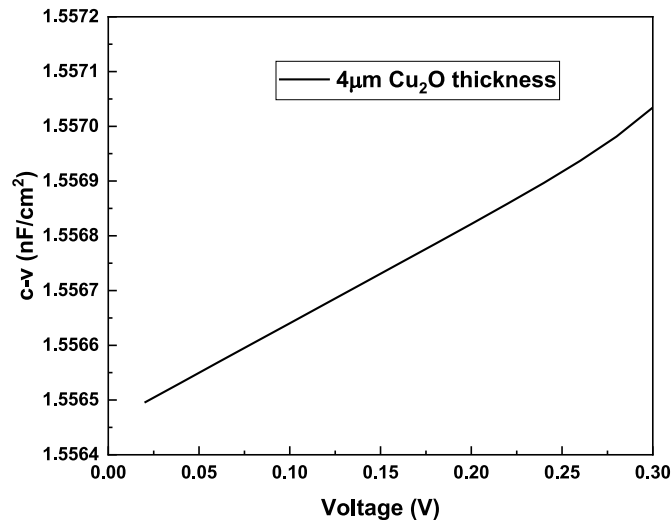


Fig. 14. Simulated capacitance-voltage (C-V) profiling of the  $\text{ZnO}/\text{CdS}/\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ .

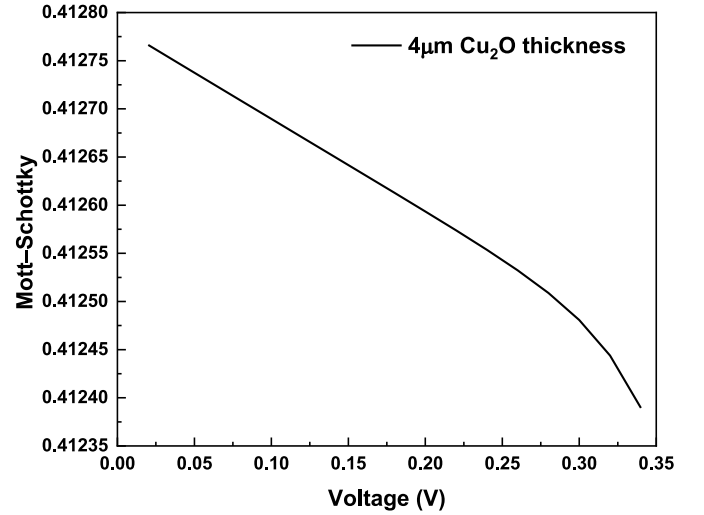


Fig. 15. Mott-Schottky plot ( $1/C^2$  vs  $V$ ) for the  $\text{ZnO}/\text{CdS}/\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  device structure.

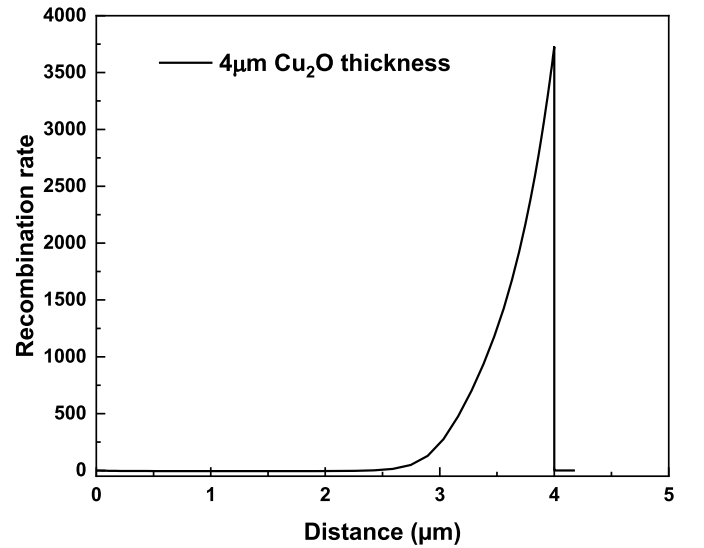


Fig. 16. Spatial distribution of the recombination rate within the  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  absorber layer.

developing next-generation  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$ -based solar cells with high efficiency and low cost, contributing to renewable energy technology advancement and environmentally sustainable solutions. The extracted parameters ( $V_{bi} = 0.85 \text{ V}$ ,  $N_a = 3.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ,  $W = 145 \text{ nm}$ ) provide quantitative benchmarks for experimental validation and device optimization strategies. Device optimization pathways include interface engineering through ultra-thin passivation layers, material quality enhancement via controlled atmosphere annealing, and architectural modifications incorporating light trapping structures. The  $0.85 \text{ V}$  built-in voltage extracted from Mott-Schottky analysis with correlation coefficient  $R^2 = 0.998$  indicates excellent band alignment for carrier separation, while the calculated acceptor concentration  $N_a = 3.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  suggests well-controlled doping processes. The depletion width calculated from  $W = \sqrt{\frac{2V_{bi}\epsilon_0\epsilon_{Cu2O}}{q} \times \frac{N_a + N_d}{N_a N_d}}$  yields approximately  $145 \text{ nm}$ , consistent with C-V profiling results. Maximum electric field strength exceeding  $10^5 \text{ V/cm}$  ensures robust carrier collection under varying operating conditions, overcoming thermal fluctuations by multiple orders of magnitude.

Recombination analysis identifies interface-dominated losses as

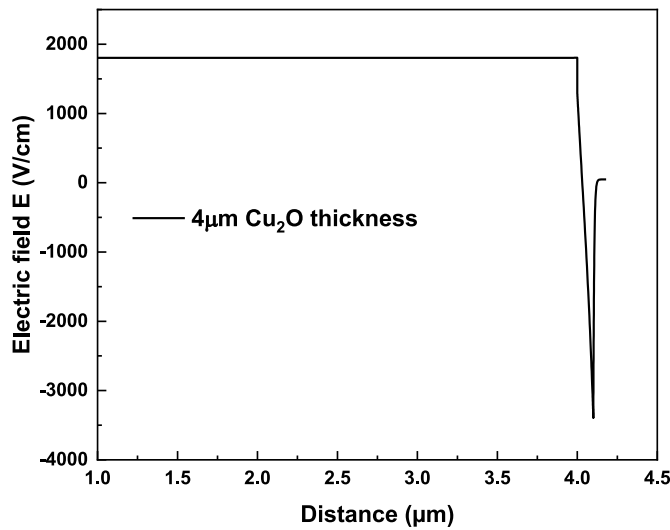


Fig. 17. Electric field distribution across the ZnO/CdS/Cu<sub>2</sub>O junction simulated with SCAPS-1D.

primary efficiency limitation, suggesting surface passivation and defect reduction as priority optimization targets. Bulk recombination rates in Cu<sub>2</sub>O indicate potential for improvement through crystal quality enhancement and grain boundary passivation techniques. The simulation predicts significant performance potential with theoretical efficiency approaching 15–20 % through systematic optimization of identified critical parameters. Experimental validation requirements include comprehensive characterization using current-voltage measurements, external quantum efficiency spectroscopy, deep-level transient spectroscopy, and time-resolved photoluminescence for carrier lifetime determination. The predicted acceptor concentration of  $3.8 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  can be verified through Hall effect measurements, while the built-in voltage of 0.85 V requires validation through temperature-dependent I-V analysis. Economic analysis reveals favorable material abundance, processing compatibility with existing manufacturing infrastructure, and reduced environmental impact compared to conventional photovoltaic technologies. This earth-abundant material system offers scalable, cost-effective pathway toward sustainable solar energy solutions with minimal toxic waste generation and energy payback periods under one year. These simulated parameters can be directly related to practical fabrication challenges. In electrodeposited Cu<sub>2</sub>O, the acceptor density (Na) is highly sensitive to deposition conditions such as applied potential, bath composition, and pH, which determine copper oxidation states and incorporation of native defects. Post-deposition treatments including thermal annealing in controlled atmospheres, grain boundary passivation, and surface/interface engineering are essential to reduce defect density and suppress recombination losses. Thus, the SCAPS-1D analysis not only provides insight into device physics but also offers guidance for optimizing real fabrication processes to achieve high-efficiency Cu<sub>2</sub>O-based solar cells.

### 3.5.6. Temperature-dependent performance and activation energy analysis

Temperature sweeps between 300 and 400 K were simulated using SCAPS-1D under AM1.5G illumination. As shown in Fig. 18, the open-circuit voltage  $V_{OC}$  decreases almost linearly with temperature, leading to a corresponding drop in efficiency. From the linear region (300–360 K), the thermal coefficient was estimated as

$$\frac{dV_{OC}}{dt} \approx -2 \text{ mV} / \text{K}$$

Extrapolation to  $T \rightarrow 0$  gives  $\frac{E_a}{q} \approx 2 \text{ V}$ , i.e.  $E_a \approx 2.0 \text{ eV}$ . An Arrhenius analysis of  $J_0$  yielded the same value, confirming the result. Since  $E_a$  is

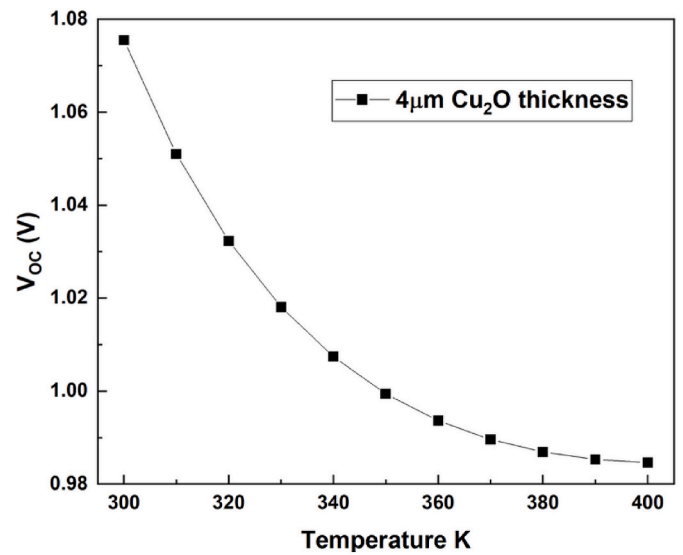


Fig. 18. Simulated dependence of  $V_{OC}$  on temperature (300–400 K) for the ZnO/CdS/Cu<sub>2</sub>O device with 4  $\mu\text{m}$  absorber thickness.

close to the Cu<sub>2</sub>O band gap ( $\sim 2.1 \text{ eV}$ ), recombination is dominated by bulk Shockley–Read–Hall processes rather than interface recombination. This indicates that reducing bulk defect density and improving Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS interface passivation are crucial for enhancing high-temperature performance

## 4. Conclusions

In this study, the effect of electrochemical deposition bath temperature on the structural and optical properties of Cu<sub>2</sub>O thin films, as well as the simulated performance of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO solar cells, was investigated. Increasing the bath temperature from 30 to 60 °C resulted in enhanced crystallization, larger crystal size, and a preferential orientation along the (111) crystal plane. The optical bandgap of the Cu<sub>2</sub>O layers varied between 1.9 and 2.1 eV and showed a slight decrease with rising temperature. Simulation using the SCAPS program indicated that the optimal thickness of the Cu<sub>2</sub>O absorber layer is 4  $\mu\text{m}$ , yielding a conversion efficiency of 12.1 %. The best performance was obtained with an acceptor density of  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , achieving a maximum efficiency of 12.6 %. A strong dependence on defect density was also observed, with efficiency dropping from 13.2 % at  $10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  to 7.5 % at  $10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . These findings highlight the importance of controlling deposition temperature, layer thickness, acceptor concentration, and minimizing defect density to enhance the performance of Cu<sub>2</sub>O-based solar cells, with optimal conditions identified as a 60 °C bath temperature, 4  $\mu\text{m}$  absorber thickness,  $10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  acceptor density, and defect density below  $10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . It should be noted that the present study focused primarily on the influence of deposition parameters and the predictive evaluation of Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO solar cells through SCAPS-1D simulations. Although experimental validation of the simulated results is beyond the scope of this work, it represents an essential step toward confirming the theoretical predictions. Fabrication and testing of complete device prototypes will therefore be the subject of our future investigations. Although the present study was limited to the Cu<sub>2</sub>O/CdS/ZnO configuration as a benchmark, it is important to note that cadmium-free alternatives such as ZnS, SnO<sub>2</sub>, and ITO may offer both improved band alignment and environmental benefits. Exploring such configurations will be an important direction for our future work. The present simulations were based on literature-reported Na and Nt values, serving as benchmarks for Cu<sub>2</sub>O-based solar cells. While this allowed us to explore the general impact of thickness, doping, and defect density, a more rigorous approach will involve extracting these parameters directly from



deposited films. In future investigations, techniques such as Hall effect characterization and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) will be employed to provide experimental validation of the simulation inputs and strengthen the integration between deposition conditions and device modeling. Looking forward, the optimized absorber thickness, doping concentration, and defect control strategies identified in this work could be translated into scalable manufacturing routes, such as controlled electrodeposition and low-cost post-annealing processes. Furthermore, similar performance trends are expected in other Cu<sub>2</sub>O heterojunction architectures, suggesting that the insights gained here are transferable to a broader range of device configurations.

#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Abdelghani Rahal:** Data curation. **Idris Bouchama:** Data curation. **M.A. Ghebouli:** Conceptualization. **B. Ghebouli:** Validation. **M. Fatmi:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Talal M. Althagafi:** Formal analysis. **S. Boudour:** Formal analysis.

#### Data availability statement

Data underlying the results presented in this paper are not publicly available at this time but may be obtained from the corresponding author ([fatmimessaud@yahoo.fr](mailto:fatmimessaud@yahoo.fr)) upon reasonable request.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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#### Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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