Perovskite Solar Cells Using Carbon Nanotubes

Both as Cathode and as Anode

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ABSTRACT

Organic-inorganic halide perovskite solar cells have received much attention because they achieve high power conversion efficiency while providing the advantages of thin-film solar cells, namely, solution processability and potentially low fabrication cost. However, at the current level of halide perovskite solar cell technology, these advantages cannot be maximized due to structural and material limitations. Here, we provide a solution to these problems by replacing conventional metal and metal oxide electrodes with carbon nanotube electrodes. We also simplified the structure to achieve entirely solution-processable perovskite solar cells. Through this study, we demonstrated the function of carbon nanotubes as both the anode and cathode in perovskite solar cells. Economic modeling suggests that this novel architecture reduces costs dramatically. This work realizes innovations in the materials, costs, and processing of inverted-type perovskite solar cells.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, organic-inorganic halide perovskite solar cells (PSCs)\(^1\)–\(^4\) have gained ground, reaching certified power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) of over 22%.\(^5\),\(^6\) Such high performance is now leading many groups to consider commercialization of PSCs in light of their low-cost solution processability\(^7\)–\(^9\) and flexibility.\(^10\) Indeed, one of the most attractive aspects of solution-processed solar cells such as PSCs is the prospect of low-cost module processing via high-throughput printing with large-area coverage compared with wafer-based silicon solar cells.\(^11\),\(^12\) While the problem of high-temperature processing can be avoided by adopting an inverted planar heterojunction architecture,\(^13\) there are still several obstacles hindering the commercialization of
PSCs. First, scarce indium tin oxide (ITO) and costly metal electrodes are thermally deposited under vacuum, limiting scalability and the potential for minimizing costs. In addition, the production of solution-processed photovoltaic devices to date has been done in non-continuous sheet-to-sheet (S2S) or roll-to-roll (R2R) processes, which cause physical and electrostatic damage and increase setup and running costs.

A promising approach to overcoming the above limitations is to use all-carbon electrodes as well as entirely solution-based inner materials. Device performance is comparable between carbon electrodes and ITO or metal electrodes. Also, it is possible to construct PSCs using entirely solution-processable layers, with only a minor loss of PCE. The use of carbon electrodes and entirely solution-processed structures will lead to a dramatic reduction in processing costs via compatibility with continuous roll-to-product (R2P) processing instead of R2R or S2S processing. In this work, we fabricated all-carbon nanotube (CNT) electrode-based PSCs that employ fully solution-processed layers (Figure 1). This study has two central aims: to demonstrate the use of CNT films as both the anode and cathode and to devise an entirely solution-processed configuration with a rational cost analysis for the fabrication process. We show that [6,6]-phenyl C,,-butyric acid methyl ester (PC,BM)-soaked CNTs can function as the cathode via n-type doping, and also that poly(3-hexylthiophene-2,5-diyl) (P3HT)-soaked CNTs can function as the anode, playing a role in energy alignment. Our flexible fully solution-processed all-CNT-electrode PSCs, with a configuration of CNT-P3HT/poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene):polystyrene sulfonate (PEDOT:PSS) /CH,NH,PbI, (MAPbI) /CNT-PC,BM, gave a PCE of 7.32% and had good mechanical flexibility. The cost of materials in this configure was 33% of that of conventional devices, according to a cost analysis. The total
fabrication cost would be decreased even further if we were to also consider setup costs, maintenance costs, and processing time.

Figure 1. (a) Schematic illustrations of a conventional device, a conventional device without vacuum-deposited ETLs, and the proposed device. $J$–$V$ curves of (b) the conventional device and (c) the conventional device without vacuum-deposited ETLs. (d) Schematic illustrations of a
device in which a HNO$_3$-doped CNT electrode was used as the anode instead of ITO and a device in which a CNT electrode was used as the cathode instead of metal. Forward (red) and reverse (blue) bias $J$–$V$ curves of (e) the HNO$_3$-doped CNT anode-based device and (f) the CNT cathode-based device.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Synthesis of CNT Films.** Randomly oriented CNT networks with high purity and long nanotube bundle length can be synthesised by the aerosol chemical vapour deposition (CVD) method. The floating catalyst aerosol CVD was carried out in a scaled-up reaction tube with a diameter of 150 mm. The catalyst precursor was vaporised by passing ambient temperature CO through a cartridge filled with ferrocene powder. To obtain stable growth of CNTs, a controlled amount of CO$_2$ was added with the carbon source (CO). CNTs were directly collected downstream of the reactor by filtering the flow through a nitrocellulose or silver membrane filter (Millipore Corp., USA; HAWP, 0.45 μm pore diameter). The flow containing ferrocene vapour was then introduced into the high-temperature zone of a ceramic tube reactor through a water-cooled probe and mixed with additional CO. Ferrocene vapour was thermally decomposed in the gas phase of the aerosol CVD reactor at the 880 °C. The CO gas was supplied at 4 L min$^{-1}$ and decomposed on the iron nanoparticles, resulting in growth of CNTs. The as-synthesised CNTs were collected by passing the flow through microporous filters at the downstream of the reactor, while the transparency and sheet resistance was controlled by varying the collection time. The collected CNT networks were transferred to a variety of substrates through the dry press-transfer process. The FC-CVD synthesised and dry deposited CNT networks were of high purity. Furthermore, as the process requires no sonication based dispersion steps the resulting CNT network consisted of exceptionally long CNTs.
**Anode preparation.** ITO substrates with size $15 \times 15$ mm$^2$ with a sheet resistance of $6 \ \Omega$/sq. (Techno Print Co., Ltd.) were sonicated in cleaning surfactant (Semi Clean, M-Lo), water, acetone and 2- isopropanol for 15 min each. The substrates were then dried in an oven at 70 °C. ITO substrates were exposed to UV/O$_3$ for 30 min in order to remove any remaining organic impurities. For the CNT anodes, bare glass substrates (Techno Print Co., Ltd.) were purchased and cleaned by the same method as the ITO substrates. Prior to CNT transfer, the substrates were exposed to UV/O$_3$, for 30 min. CNT was transferred using a pair of tweezers and a drop of ethanol was used to ensure firm adhesion of the CNTs. 30% water diluted HNO$_3$ (aq) was applied for certain CNT films for doping effect. For the flexible devices, Toyobo ltd. polyethylene terephthalate (A4300-38 μm) were used. The films were cleaned by ethanol and clean gauze before CNT transfer. A drop of ethanol was used to ensure firm adhesion of the CNTs. Then the substrates were transferred to a nitrogen filled glove box for further fabrication. For the both-CNT-electrode devices, 2 mg mL$^{-1}$ of P3HT in CB was applied and spin-coated at 4500 rpm for 45 s.

**Perovskite solar cell fabrication.** PEDOT:PSS was produced by adding 0.5 wt% ofpolyoxyethylene(6) tridecyl ether (Sigma Aldrich Chemical Co., Inc.) in poly-(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene)-polystyrenesulfonic acid (PEDOT:PSS) dispersion in water (Clevios P VP, Heraeus Precious Metals GmbH & Co.). IPA-PEDOT:PSS was produced by diluting PEDOT:PSS in 2-isopropanol at 3:1(v/v) ratio. Modified PEDOT:PSS was spin coated at the same condition as the normal PEDOT:PSS which is 4500 rpm for 45 s. The MAPbI$_3$ perovskite layers were fabricated via Lewis base adduct method. A 1:1:1 molar ratio mixture of PbI$_2$ (TCI), MAI (TCI), and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (TCI) was dissolved in dimethylformamide (DMF) at 50 wt% without heating. The fully dissolved solution was spin coated onto the PEDOT:PSS
layer at 3500 rpm for 20 s, with a dropping of 0.3 mL diethyl ether 8s after starting the spin-coating process. The transparent green film, so-called CH$_3$NH$_3$PbI$_2$•DMSO adduct film, changed to a dark brown color by heating at 65 °C for 1 min and 100 °C for 4 min. For the reference device, thermal evaporation of C$_{60}$, BCP, LiF, and Al was followed to give 35 nm, 10 nm, 1nm, and 100 nm, respectively.

For the devices in which CNT is the cathode, CNT films were mechanically transferred to the top of the perovskite layer. A PC$_{61}$BM solution, which was prepared by mixing 20 mg of PC$_{61}$BM in 1 mL of CB, was applied directly on the laminated CNT film. Au was thermally deposited only at the edges to assist CNT contact.

**Characterisations.** $J$–$V$ characteristics were measured by software-controlled source meter (Keithley 2400) in dark conditions and 1 sun AM 1.5G simulated sunlight irradiation (100 mW cm$^{-2}$) using a solar simulator (EMS-35AAA, Ushio Spax Inc.) with Ushio Xe short ark lamp 500, which was calibrated using a silicon diode (BS-520BK, Bunkokeiki). SEM measurement was carried out on S-4800 (Hitachi). Fermi levels were measured by Riken Keiki PYS-A AC-2 in air. Both homemade systems based on Seki Technotron STR-250 (excitation wavelength 532 nm) and inVia Raman microscope (Renishaw) were used for the Raman measurement. Shimadzu UV-3150 was used for the UV-vis-NIR measurement. IPCE system consisted of a MLS-1510 monochromator to scan the UV-vis spectrum. A source measurement unit was used to record the current at each specific wavelength. TEM and STEM images of CNT electrodes were obtained using a JEOL JEM-2100F electron microscope equipped with double JEOL Delta spherical aberration correctors at a reduced electron accelerating voltage of 60 kV to minimize irradiation-induced damage. EELS measurement was carried out using a Gatan Quantum electron spectrometer attached to the microscope. Elemental distributions of carbon and sulfur were
determined by the intensities of their K and L edges, respectively, at each measured point in the scanned areas for STEM-EELS chemical mapping.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Simplified PSC architecture.** Inverted-type planar-heterojunction PSCs have the advantages of low hysteresis and room-temperature processability over normal-type PSCs, which are crucial for commercial fabrication. However, high-performance inverted PSCs still typically have vacuum-deposited layers, such as C₆₀, bathocuproine (BCP), or LiF. From the perspective of commercialization, such vacuum processes incur exorbitant setup and running costs. These can be avoided by using a solution-processed single layer of PC, BM, which greatly simplifies the configuration at the expense of PCE (Figure 1a). According to our experimental results, the inverted-type PSCs with the vacuum-deposited electron-transporting layers (ETLs) had PCE of 17.2% (Figure 1b; Figure S1), while the PSCs with a single solution-processed PC, BM layer had PCE of 12.8% (Figure 1c; Figure S1). Despite this drop of 4.4%, the latter process had substantially lower fabrication costs, thus making it more industrially viable. The structure can be improved even further by replacing ITO and aluminum electrodes with carbon electrodes. ITO is unstable in acidic PEDOT:PSS and undergoes a sputtering process at temperatures above 300 °C, which increases fabrication costs and limits the scope of application. The top metal electrode is also vacuum-deposited and prone to oxidization in air. Therefore, we propose the use of CNTs as both the anode and the cathode to replace the conventional electrodes (Figure 1a). Using the two CNT electrodes and entirely solution-processable layers between the electrodes will promote innovation in processing technology. A continuous R2P production could lead to
dramatic cost reductions and high throughput, potentially revolutionizing the manufacture of thin-film solar cells.

**CNT as an anode and a cathode in PSCs.** To achieve the both-CNT-electrode architecture, demonstration of CNTs separately as the anode and the cathode is necessary (Figure 1d). For CNT anode-based PSCs, we used transparent CNT films (ca. 90% transmittance at 550 nm wavelength) and doped the film using HNO₃ to enhance its conductivity (Figure S2). We used a similar approach in our previous study. However, in the present study, we fabricated MAPbI₃ using the adduct method, which gave higher efficiency and produced a PCE of 9.8% (Figure 1e and S1). Furthermore, a CNT film was used as the cathode to replace the metal electrode. Because MAPbI₃ absorbs most of the solar spectrum, dark and dense CNT films were used for their high conductivity (Table S1 and Figure S2). When a CNT film is laminated as the top electrode, interfacial contact is crucial. In general, a few droplets of chlorobenzene (CB) on CNT films improve the contact between the CNT film and MAPbI₃. In this study, we used a solution of PC₆₁BM in CB. Applying PC₆₁BM solution directly onto the CNT top electrode improved both the interfacial contact and the electron-transporting ability of the devices. In fact, the application of PC₆₁BM solution after CNT lamination produced better performance compared with the application of PC₆₁BM solution, both before and after CNT lamination (Figure S3) and a PCE of 10.5% was recorded. Interestingly, PSCs with a CNT film as the cathode performed better than those with a CNT film as the anode (Figure 1f and S1). The difference arose from the fill factor (FF), which chiefly reflects the difference in conductivity between the CNT films. Moreover, application of the PC₆₁BM solution to CNT film enhanced conductivity. We conjecture that this was due to a doping effect, which is addressed in the Discussion section.
Figure 2. (a) Schematic illustrations of a both-CNT-electrode PSC and its energy level diagram. (b) Forward (red) and reverse (blue) bias J–V curves with photovoltaic parameters. (c) Bending radius test of the CNT cathode devices (ITO/CNT), the CNT anode devices (CNT/Al), and the both-CNT-electrode devices. (d) Photos of the both-CNT-electrode PSC.
Using both CNT electrodes in a PSC. Having successfully demonstrated the application of CNT films as both the anode and the cathode in PSCs, we fabricated both-CNT-electrode PSCs. The devices were fabricated with a configuration of HNO$_3$-doped CNT/PEDOT:PSS/MAPbI$_3$/PC$_{61}$BM/CNT. However, they appeared to be short-circuited (Figure S4). Because the current density and voltage ($J$–$V$) curve showed an ohmic contact, there was possibly an energy misalignment. Previously, both-carbon-electrode systems have been demonstrated by means of energy band modification,$^{37-42}$ and so we used different materials to control the energy bands of the both-CNT-electrode system. We found that the combination of P3HT-soaked CNT and PC$_{61}$BM-soaked CNT without use of nitric acid dopant was favorable (Figure 2a, Figure S5). A dense CNT film was soaked in a low-concentration solution of P3HT (2 mg mL$^{-1}$) and a solar light was shone from the PC$_{61}$BM-treated transparent CNT side to maximize the solar absorption (Figure S6). This also avoided the light passing through the substrate, thus avoiding possible light loss in flexible devices, as the lower transmittance of flexible plastic substrates usually leads to lower performance (Figure S7). A PCE of 7.32% was produced by the both-CNT-electrode PSCs (Figure 2b, Figure S8). Compared with the single-CNT-electrode devices, the both-CNT-electrode devices had a relatively low FF. This was attributed to the lower conductivity of the CNT films compared with ITO or metal (Table S1). Also, the relatively lower $J_{sc}$ was due to the lower transmittance of the PC$_{61}$BM-soaked CNT electrode compared with ITO, and possibly to unoptimized energy levels. This suggests that improvement of CNT quality and structural optimization can increase the PCE further.

Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) substrates were used to produce flexible devices (Table S1). The flexible both-CNT-electrode PSCs gave PCE comparable to that of glass substrate-based devices (ca. 7.04%). This is because there was no light loss due to the plastic substrate, and the
polar perovskite solvent did not react with the plastic substrate, unlike in organic solar cells, where a reactive nonpolar solvent is used for the active materials. According to the bending radius test in Figure 2c and d, the both-CNT-electrode PSCs had better flexibility than did the PSCs with either ITO/CNT or CNT/Al electrodes. This might be explained by the flexible ITO starting to crack when bent more than 60° and also by metal electrodes peeling off due to poor adhesion.

**Investigation of CNT electrodes and the doping effect.** Next, the CNT electrodes were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). From the images of the PC$_{61}$BM-soaked CNT film (Figure 3a, Figure S9), we can see that PC$_{61}$BM molecules thoroughly penetrated into the CNT network, due to their small size and strong π–π interactions with the CNTs. From the images of P3HT-soaked CNT films (Figure 3b, Figure S10), we can see P3HT wrapping around CNTs, again through π–π interactions. Electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) chemical mapping combined with scanning TEM (STEM) confirmed that the P3HT polymer was indeed wrapped around the CNTs.$^{44,45}$ The doping effect in these CNT electrodes was investigated by four-probe measurement, Raman spectroscopy, near-infrared spectroscopy, and photoelectron yield spectroscopy (PYS). According to the Raman spectra, the addition of PC$_{61}$BM to a pristine CNT film shifts both the G band (G band) and the 2D band to lower wavenumber (Figure 3c and d). This indicates an $n$-type doping effect of PC$_{61}$BM on CNTs.$^{46,47}$ This is a surprising discovery since fullerene is thought to accept electrons from CNTs.$^{37,38}$ However, those previous reports used semiconducting CNTs, in contrast to the mixture of metallic and semiconducting CNTs used in this work, and also did not comprehensively analyze CNT-PC$_{61}$BM. We plan to study this issue further in a future project. Regardless of the type of doping, the doping itself was confirmed by both four-probe measurement (Table S1) and near-infrared spectroscopy. The sheet resistance
$(R_{\infty})$ of the CNT films decreased by approximately $200 \ \Omega \ \text{sq.}^{-1}$ and $20 \ \Omega \ \text{sq.}^{-1}$ for T90%-CNT film and T50%-CNT, respectively, upon PC$_{61}$BM addition. On the other hand, P3HT did not produce a significant change when added to CNT films. According to near-infrared spectroscopy, PC$_{61}$BM-treated CNT showed slight decreases in van Hove transitions (Figure S11). PYS measurement was used to find the Fermi levels of the nanocomposites, but the values of $-6.4 \ \text{eV}$ and $-4.6 \ \text{eV}$ for CNT-PC$_{61}$BM and CNT-P3HT seemed to correspond to the highest occupied molecular orbitals of PC$_{61}$BM and P3HT, respectively (Figure S12).
**Figure 3.** TEM images of (a) a CNT-PC$_61$BM film and (b) a CNT-P3HT film. EELS chemical maps of sulfur and carbon (b, bottom left) correspond to the area indicated by the green rectangle in the STEM image (b, top right). Raman spectroscopy of CNT-PC$_61$BM and pristine CNT films for (c) G band and (d) 2D band.
Process innovation by both-CNT-electrode PSCs. When considering the industrial viability of solar cells and their fabrication processes, PCE is not a sole factor to consider. The cost of fabrication, which encompasses material and setup costs and Takt time (processing time) are more important. PSCs are often presented as a low-cost solution-processable technology, but the reality is that conventional PSCs are prepared by complex and cumbersome processes, such as vacuum deposition, with slow and damage-inducing R2R processing. It is vital that devices are highly compatible with high-speed printing at all levels, on a simple processing line. Figure 4a shows a schematic for the conventional process, which is long and complicated and involves roll-back for vacuum chamber processing. This increases the processing time and causes damage due to bending, static electricity, and physical contact with the substrates of other layers. Figure 4b shows the processing schematic of the both-CNT-electrode PSCs. Because of these new devices being either imprinted or slot dye coated entirely, the process is continuous, fast, and damage-free. As the process does not involve rollback during processing, using a glass substrate does not incur increased fabrication costs. Thus, both R2P and sheet-to-product processes are applicable. The speed of processing is directly related to the production cost. One slow step in a process slows down all of the inline processing. In R2P processing (Figure 4b), production of CNTs is the slowest process, but this process is done on a separate line. In the conventional processing (Figure 4a), non-continuous R2R processing, high-temperature annealing, and sputtering drastically increase the Takt time. This is exacerbated if non-flexible substrates are used, because S2S processing is much slower than R2R processing when vacuum chambers are involved.

Cost analysis. Cost of fabrication based on the actual prices and amounts of materials used for fabrication were analyzed (Table S2). It was important to input real data with minimal
assumptions, because the accuracy of the small-scale analysis is critical for an accurate extrapolation to mass production scale. In our estimation, we assumed that all devices are interconnected in series to form a module, as monolithic interconnection is a generally used concept in thin film module technology. Therefore, the interconnecting area that does not contribute to the electricity generation is disregarded. Additionally, material switch gears, which take up a significant portion of electricity consumption, were omitted to avoid the cost estimation being overly favorable to the new process. According to our analysis, both-CNT-electrode PSCs required a material cost that was 57.6% of that required by conventional devices. When scaled up by a factor of 10,000, the difference was even more significant and the material cost was only 32.9% of that required by conventional devices. If the setup costs, maintenance costs, and Takt time had also been taken into consideration, then difference would have been much greater. Moreover, with further optimization of the materials and design of the device, we are confident that the efficiency will increase, resulting in the performance outweighing fabrication costs by a considerable margin.
Figure 4. Process schematics of (a) conventional inverted-type PSCs and (b) both-CNT-electrode PSCs.

CONCLUSIONS

To compete with silicon solar cells, which are a mature technology, a dramatic cost reduction is necessary. However, the conventional PSC structure cannot exploit the full potential of solution processability. This study has demonstrated fabrication of both-CNT-electrode PSCs, with CNT films functioning as the anode and cathode in a single device. In addition, what is
currently postulated to be an \( n \)-type doping effect of PC.BM on CNTs has been discovered. The both-CNT-electrode PSCs have the advantages of low consumption of the raw materials and energy by enabling vacuum-free, high throughput, and continuous R2P processing. We believe that improvements in CNT quality and structural optimization can improve the PCE of these PSCs. Moreover, this work represents a step forward toward the use of all-carbon solar devices.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interests. These authors contributed equally (I.J. and S.S.).

Supporting Information

Supporting information contains incident photon-to-electron conversion efficiency measurements, four-probe sheet resistance measurements, UV-vis transmittance measurements, \( J-V \) curves of unsuccessful both-CNT-electrode PSC, SEM images, TEM images, near-infrared spectra, PYS measurements, cost analysis table, and statistical analysis.

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